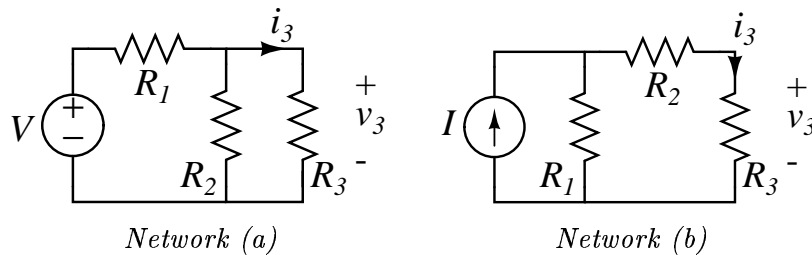


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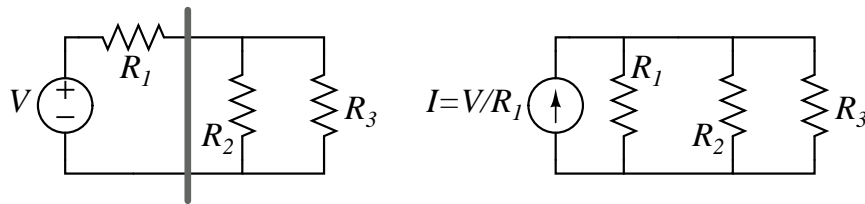
6.002 – Electronic Circuits  
Spring 2002

Homework #2 Solutions

**Exercise 2.1:** For both networks shown below, determine the voltage  $v_3$  across, and the current  $i_3$  through,  $R_3$ .



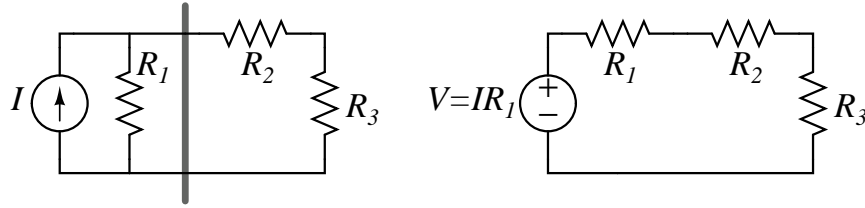
**Answer:** These networks show the usefulness of transforming between Thevenin and Norton equivalent circuits. In both networks, we can cut the circuit in half, so that the source and  $R_1$  are on one side, while  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  are on the other. We then take the source and  $R_1$  and convert them to their other form. The other side of the circuit (and this is the heart of Thevenin and Norton equivalents) will not know the difference.



(A) We cut the circuit as shown above, left. Since we know the relation  $V_{Th} = R_{eq}I_N$ , we can compute the Norton equivalent circuit. Note that the resistance associated with the Norton equivalent equals that of the Thevenin resistance. The new circuit is shown above, right. The voltage across and current through  $R_3$  is then

$$V_{R_3} = \frac{R_1 R_2 R_3}{R_1 R_2 + R_1 R_3 + R_2 R_3} I = \frac{R_2 R_3}{R_1 R_2 + R_1 R_3 + R_2 R_3} V$$

$$I_{R_3} = \frac{V_{R_3}}{R_3} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 R_2 + R_1 R_3 + R_2 R_3} V$$



(B) Again, we cut the circuit as shown. This time, we convert to a Thevenin equivalent. The three resistors are now in series, as shown above, right. The voltage across and current through  $R_3$  is then

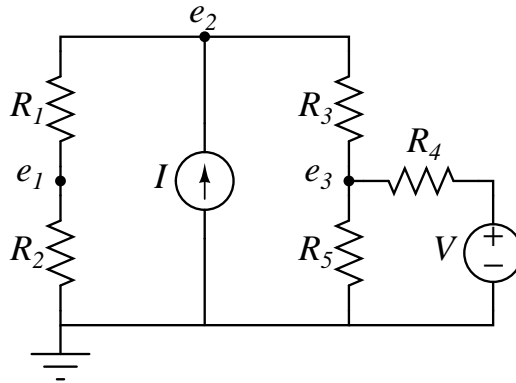
$$I_{R_3} = \frac{V}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3} = \frac{R_1 I}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$

$$V_{R_3} = R_3 I_{R_3} = \frac{R_1 R_3 I}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$

**Exercise 2.2:** Using the node method, develop a set of simultaneous equations for the network shown below that can be used to solve for the three unknown node voltages in the network. Express these equations in the form

$$G \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{bmatrix} = S$$

where  $G$  is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix of conductance terms and  $S$  is a  $3 \times 1$  vector of terms involving the sources. You need not solve the set of equations for the node voltages.



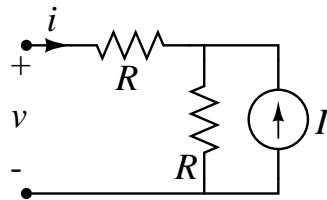
**Answer:** You could arrive at the conductance matrix by writing down the node equations and combining similar terms. However, as you get more familiar with this method, you should be able to “read” off the conductance matrix  $G$  and the source matrix  $S$  by simply looking at the circuit. The following outlines the procedure. Keep in mind that the following procedure has to be *modified* if there are *supernodes* in the circuit.

1.  $G(i, i) =$  summation of all conductances connected to node  $i$ .
2.  $G(i, j) =$  negative of the summation of all conductances connected between node  $i$  and  $j$  for  $i \neq j$ . Note that  $\bar{G}$  is a *symmetric* matrix.
3.  $S(i) =$  summation of: (1) current sources connected to node  $i$ , with current going in as positive and current going out as negative, and (2) terms in the form  $V \cdot G$ , where  $G$  is the conductance connecting the voltage source  $V$  and node  $i$ . Again, the sign is determined by following the sign of the current going from  $V$  to node  $i$ .
4. See your TA if you need further explanation.

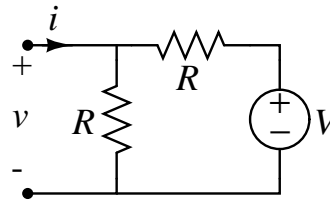
For this network:

$$\begin{bmatrix} G_1 + G_2 & -G_1 & 0 \\ -G_1 & G_1 + G_3 & -G_3 \\ 0 & -G_3 & G_5 + G_4 + G_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ I \\ VG_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

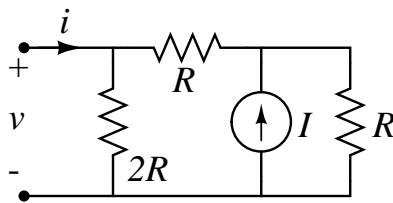
**Problem 2.1:** Find the Thevenin and Norton equivalents of the following networks, and graph their  $i$ - $v$  relations as viewed at their ports.



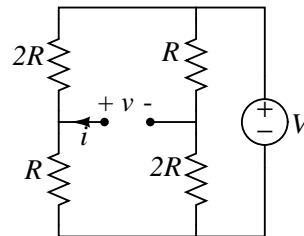
Network (a)



Network (b)

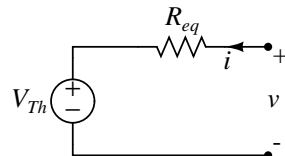


Network (c)

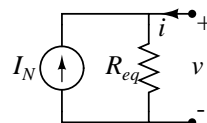


Network (d)

**Answer:**



Thevenin equivalent



Norton equivalent

For each circuit, we want  $V_{Th}$ ,  $I_N$ , and  $R_{eq}$ , as represented in the circuits above. Note that the current at each port is defined to go *into* the positive terminal. This is the opposite direction

from our definition of  $i_{sc}$ , which is the current we find from the positive terminal to the negative when we load the terminals with a short circuit. So,  $V_{Th} = v_{oc}$  (the voltage at the port when it is open-circuit),  $I_N = i_{sc}$  (the current through the port when it is short-circuit). This tells us further that the  $v$ -intercept of the  $i$ - $v$  relation is  $V_{Th}$ , while the  $i$ -intercept is  $-I_N$ . Note that shutting off the sources and finding the equivalent resistance seen at the port determines the slope of the  $i$ - $v$  relation. Note also that our  $v$ - $i$  relations will be of the form

$$v = R_{eq}i + V_{Th}$$

while another way to relate them is with the inverse function

$$i = \frac{1}{R_{eq}}v - I_N$$

- (A) In finding  $v_{oc}$ , there is no current through (and thus no voltage across) the resistor closest to the port. Thus  $v_{oc}$  is the voltage across the other resistor.

$$V_{Th} = v_{oc} = RI$$

When we short the terminals, the source current is split equally between the two resistors, since they are of equal value and are in parallel.

$$I_N = i_{sc} = \frac{R}{2R}I = \frac{I}{2}$$

The equivalent resistance follows.

$$R_{eq} = \frac{V_{Th}}{I_N} = 2R$$

- (B) This is the dual problem to (a).

$$I_N = i_{sc} = \frac{V}{R}$$

$$V_{Th} = v_{oc} = \frac{R}{2R}V = \frac{V}{2}$$

$$R_{eq} = \frac{V_{Th}}{I_N} = \frac{R}{2}$$

- (C) In this problem it is easiest to find  $i_{sc}$  and  $R_{eq}$ , and determine  $V_{Th}$  from those.



Shorting the port as in the figure above, we force the voltage across the  $2R$  resistor to zero. Thus the current splits equally between the two paths (no current flows through the  $2R$  resistor). So,

$$I_N = i_{sc} = \frac{I}{2}$$

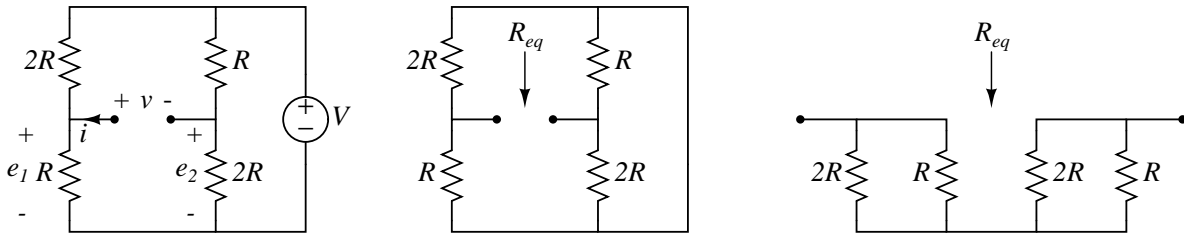
We now turn off the current source (turns into an open circuit) and compute the equivalent resistance, seen at the terminals. It is obvious from the figure above, right that the resistance is

$$R_{eq} = 2R \parallel (R + R) = R$$

Now, the Thevenin voltage is

$$V_{Th} = R_{eq} I_N = \frac{RI}{2}$$

- (D) This is the most complicated network. It helps to define node voltages  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  as in the figure (left). Then  $v_{oc} = e_1 - e_2$ .



To find  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ , we first notice that the left and right pairs of resistors are completely independent of one another. This is a result of the location of the voltage source, across both pairs. We then have two voltage dividers.

$$e_1 = \frac{R}{R + 2R} V = \frac{V}{3}$$

$$e_2 = \frac{2R}{R + 2R} V = \frac{2V}{3}$$

$$V_{Th} = v_{oc} = e_1 - e_2 = -\frac{V}{3}$$

Looking at the figure above, center, we see the circuit with the voltage source shut off. It is difficult to see how to analyze this circuit until it is redrawn as above, right. (If you are unsure the right drawing is the same as the middle one, label the nodes and trace each path.) We find that

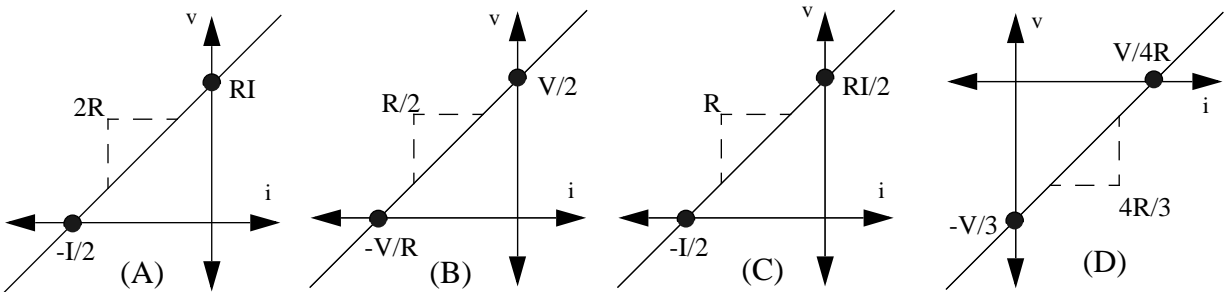
$$R_{eq} = (R \parallel 2R) + (2R \parallel R) = \frac{4}{3}R$$

The Norton current is then

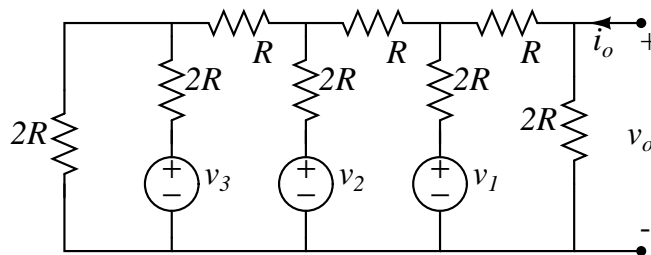
$$I_N = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_{eq}} = -\frac{V}{4R}$$

(E) Plots

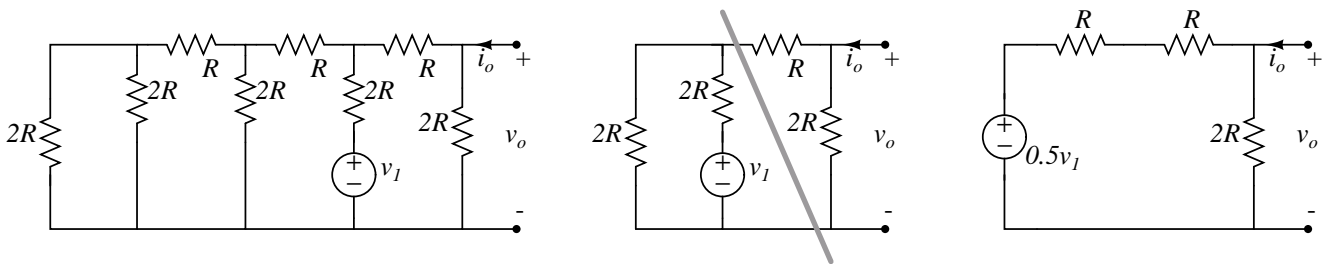
The  $v$ - $i$  characteristics are as follows. Note that the axes are labelled, as well as the intercepts and slope.



**Problem 2.2:** Given the network shown below, find  $v_0$  as a function of  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$  and  $v_3$  assuming  $i_0 = 0$ . Hint: use superposition. Also, find the Thevenin equivalent of the network as viewed from its port. Finally, of what electronic circuit might the network be a part?

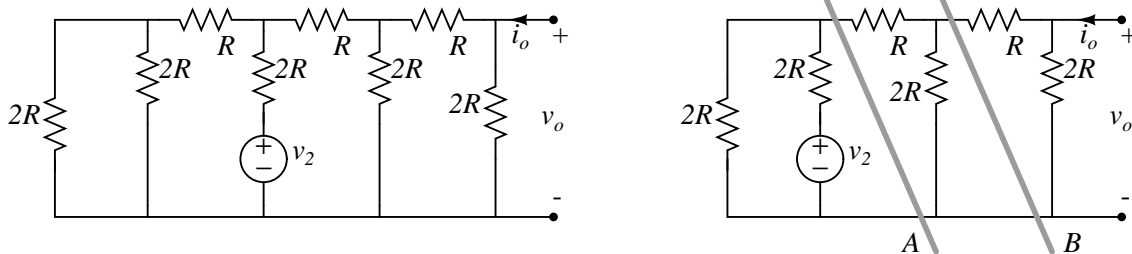


**Answer:** This problem is very difficult if approached the wrong way. Following the hints, we approach it from an easy direction. First, we shut off the sources  $v_2$  and  $v_3$ . This leaves us with only  $v_1$  as shown in the first circuit below.



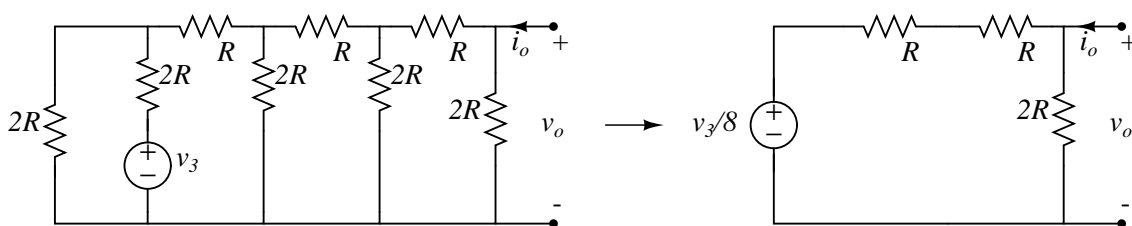
Looking at the leftmost circuit, we see we can combine many of the resistors to the left of the source  $v_1$ . Having done this, we cut the circuit as shown (middle circuit), and convert the source side to its Thevenin equivalent. On the right in the figure, we see the reconnected circuit. It is clear that the voltage  $v_0$  is

$$v_0 = \frac{2R}{R + R + 2R} V_{Th} = \frac{v_1}{4}$$



Now we examine the contribution by  $v_2$ . Looking at the figure, we see the original circuit with  $v_1$  and  $v_3$  off. To the right, the resistors to the left of  $v_2$  are combined, and two cuts are shown. It is obvious that the circuit to the left of cut A yields the same Thevenin equivalent as for the cut in the  $v_1$  circuit. The circuit to the left of cut B has the same equivalent resistance, but the Thevenin voltage is cut by half. So,

$$v_0 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{v_2}{2}\right) = \frac{v_2}{8}$$



Looking at the figure above, left, we see the circuit when  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are shut off. If we cut the circuit as shown, the portion on the left looks exactly like the  $v_2$ -only circuit. This means we can replace this by its Thevenin equivalent and reattach as shown above, right. We then further reduce this circuit by noticing the voltage divider halves the source voltage, or  $v_{oc} = \frac{1}{2}V_s = \frac{1}{16}v_3$ . By shutting off the source, the equivalent resistance is  $R_{eq} = 2R \parallel (R + R) = R$ . Note that this is the equivalent resistance of the entire circuit.

Assuming  $i_0 = 0$ , the relation between  $v_3$  and  $v_0$  is

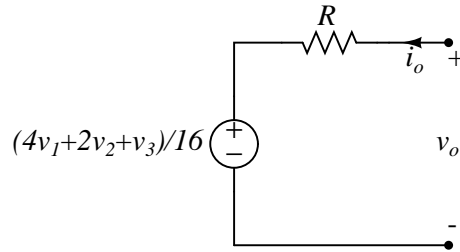
$$v_0 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 \left(\frac{v_3}{2}\right) = \frac{v_3}{16}$$

Having the three components of  $v_0$  when  $i_0 = 0$ , and having the equivalent resistance, we can draw the Thevenin equivalent circuit:

The last part of the problem asks for the behavior of  $v_0$  with respect to the source voltages.

$$v_0 = \frac{1}{4}v_1 + \frac{1}{8}v_2 + \frac{1}{16}v_3$$

To understand the meaning of this equation when  $v_1, v_2, v_3 \in \{0V, 3V\}$ , suppose we define  $b_i = \frac{16}{3}v_i, i = 1, 2, 3$ . Then we find that

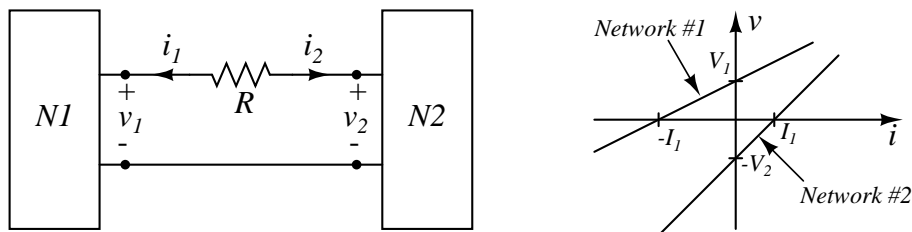


$$v_0 = \frac{3}{16}(2^2 b_1 + 2^1 b_2 + 2^0 b_3) = \frac{3}{16}(b_1 b_2 b_3)$$

where  $b_1 b_2 b_3$  is the binary representation of integers from 0 to 7. We have a digital-to-analog converter!

**Problem 2.3:** Two networks, N1 and N2, are described in terms of their  $i$ - $v$  relations, and connected together through a single resistor, as shown below.

- (A) Find the Thevenin and Norton equivalents of N1 and N2.
- (B) Find the voltages  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  that result from the interconnection of N1 and N2 through a resistor as shown below.



**Answer:**

- (A) At this point, we can simply read the Thevenin and Norton parameters right from the graph. For clarity, I will superscript the parameters by their network labels.

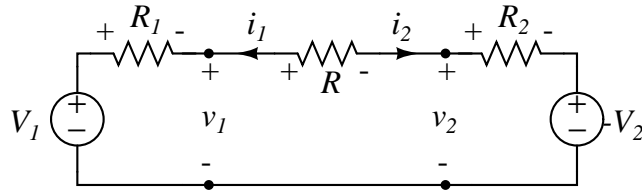
Network 1	Network 2
$V_{Th}^{n1} = V_1$	$V_{Th}^{n2} = -V_2$
$I_N^{n1} = I_1$	$I_N^{n2} = -I_1$
$R_{eq}^{n1} = \frac{V_1}{I_1}$	$R_{eq}^{n2} = \frac{-V_2}{-I_1} = \frac{V_2}{I_1}$

This is a good time to note that the equivalent resistance is positive (obvious but reassuring).

- (B) One way to approach this problem is to use Thevenin equivalent circuits for N1 and N2 to find the current around the loop, and then use the device terminal relationships to find  $v_1$  and



$v_2$ . First we redraw the circuit substituting in the equivalent circuits and their element values:



Noting that  $i_2 = -i_1$ , writing KVL clockwise around the circuit gives the equation

$$V_1 - i_2 R_{eq}^{n1} - i_2 R - i_2 R_{eq}^{n2} - (-V_2) = 0$$

We can combine like terms, and substitute in the values found in part (A) to solve for  $i_2$ :

$$V_1 - i_2 \left( \frac{V_1}{I_1} + R + \frac{V_2}{I_1} \right) + V_2 = 0$$

$$i_2 = \frac{V_1 + V_2}{\frac{V_1}{I_1} + R + \frac{V_2}{I_1}} = \frac{I_1(V_1 + V_2)}{V_1 + RI_1 + V_2}$$

The voltages  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  can be found by using the value for  $i_2$  above, and the device laws for voltage sources and resistors.

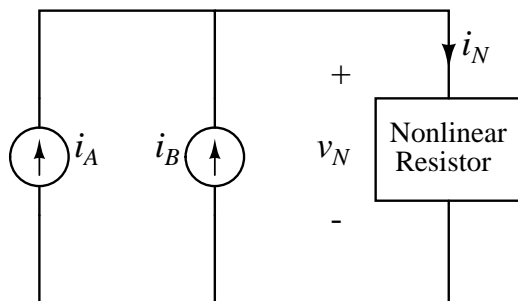
$$v_1 = V_1 - i_2 R_1 = V_1 - \frac{I_1(V_1 + V_2)}{V_1 + RI_1 + V_2} * \frac{V_1}{I_1} = \frac{RI_1 V_1}{V_1 + RI_1 + V_2}$$

$$v_2 = -V_2 + i_2 R_2 = -V_2 + \frac{I_1(V_1 + V_2)}{V_1 + RI_1 + V_2} * \frac{V_2}{I_1} = -\frac{RI_1 V_2}{V_1 + RI_1 + V_2}$$

To check this answer, we can make sure that these node voltages produce  $i_2$  through the resistor  $R$ . The current through  $R$  is  $i_2 = \frac{v_1 - v_2}{R}$ . The voltage across  $R$  is equal to  $v_1 - v_2 = \frac{RV_1 I_1 + RV_2 I_1}{V_1 + RI_1 + V_2}$ . This is just  $R$  times  $i_2$ , which is what we expected.

**Problem 2.4:** This problem studies the network shown below. The network contains two current sources and a nonlinear resistor. The nonlinear resistor has the terminal relation  $i_N = \alpha|v_N|v_N$ , where  $\alpha$  is a positive constant with units  $A/V^2$ . One current source produces the current  $i_A$  while the second current source produces the current  $i_B$ .

- (A) Determine  $v_N$  in terms of  $i_A$  and  $i_B$ .
- (B) Let  $i_A = I_A$ , where  $I_A$  is a constant current, and let  $i_B = i_b(t)$ . Further, assume that  $I_A \gg |i_b(t)| > 0$  so that  $i_A$  can be thought of as being only a large-signal bias current, and  $i_B$  can be thought of as being only a small-signal time-varying current. Using the result from Part (A), linearize  $v_N$  and express it in the form  $v_N = V_N + v_n(t)$  where  $V_N$  is a constant large-signal bias voltage and  $v_n(t)$  is small-signal time-varying voltage proportional to  $i_b(t)$ .
- (C) Using the result of Part (B), determine  $R$  such that  $v_n(t) = Ri_b(t)$ . Show that  $R$  is the incremental resistance of the nonlinear resistor, namely that  $R = dv_N/di_N$  evaluated at the bias current  $I_A$ .
- (D) From Part (C), it is apparent that the small-signal gain from the input current  $i_b(t)$  to the output voltage  $v_n(t)$  can be controlled by the bias current  $I_A$ . What problem can you see in using the circuit shown below as a controllable gain from the input current  $i_b(t)$  to the output voltage  $v_n(t)$ ?



**Answer:**

- (A) We are given that  $i_N = \alpha|v_N|v_N$ . Applying KCL to the top node gives  $i_N = i_A + i_B$ . The sign of  $v_N$  matches the sign of  $i_N$  due to the absolute value sign in the device law for the nonlinear resistor. The substitution of KCL into that device law yields:

$$v_N = \text{sign}(i_A + i_B) \sqrt{\frac{|i_A + i_B|}{\alpha}}$$

- (B) Because both input currents have been defined to be positive, we can simplify the expression for  $v_N$  to  $\sqrt{\frac{i_A + i_B}{\alpha}}$ . To express  $v_N$  as a large-signal bias voltage and a small-signal time-varying voltage proportional to  $i_b(t)$ , we need only take the first two terms of the Taylor series expansion of  $v_N$  in terms of  $i_B$ . To do so, substitute for  $i_A$  and  $i_B$ , and observe that

$$v_N = \sqrt{\frac{I_A + i_b(t)}{\alpha}} = \sqrt{\frac{I_A}{\alpha}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{i_b(t)}{I_A}}$$

Next, use the Taylor Series expansion of  $\sqrt{1+x} \approx 1 + \frac{x}{2}$  when  $x \ll 1$  to get

$$v_N \approx \sqrt{\frac{I_A}{\alpha}} \left( 1 + \frac{i_b(t)}{2I_A} \right)$$

where  $x$  has represented  $i_B/I_A$ . Rearranging this result then yields

$$v_N \approx \sqrt{\frac{I_A}{\alpha}} + \frac{i_b(t)}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha I_A}}$$

so that

$$V_N = \sqrt{\frac{I_A}{\alpha}}$$

$$v_n(t) = \frac{i_b(t)}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha I_A}}$$

(C) We found that  $v_n(t) = \frac{i_b(t)}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha I_A}}$ . So  $R = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha I_A}}$ . The derivative of  $v_N$  with respect to  $i_N$  evaluated at  $I_A$  is:

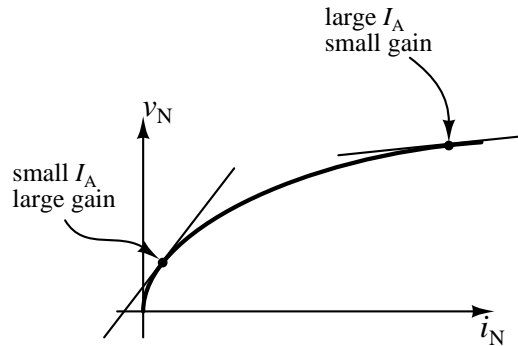
$$\frac{dv_N}{di_N}(I_A) = \left. \frac{d}{di_N} \sqrt{\frac{i_N}{\alpha}} \right|_{I_A}$$

$$\frac{dv_N}{di_N}(I_A) = \frac{1}{2\alpha} \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{i_N}} \Big|_{I_A}$$

$$\frac{dv_N}{di_N}(I_A) = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha I_A}} = R$$

- (D) One problem with using this circuit as a controllable gain from  $i_b(t)$  to  $v_n(t)$  is that we must add the bias current  $I_A$  to  $i_B(t)$ , which takes extra circuitry. Another problem is the presence of the bias current  $I_A$  wastes power.

Another more subtle problem becomes apparent if we look at the v-i graph of the output circuit, shown below. The gain is proportional to the slope of the transfer characteristic at the operating point.



One assumption we made above was that  $\frac{i_b(t)}{I_A} \ll 1$ . However, larger slopes (and therefore larger gains) are located at lower operating points. At lower operating points,  $i_b(t)$  begins to become comparable to  $I_A$ . This is bad, because the circuit no longer behaves according to the linearization, and we will see larger and larger distortions with higher and higher gains, that is as  $I_A$  is decreased.