EN2042102 วงจรไฟฟ้าและอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ Circuits and Electronics



บทที่ 2 พื้นฐานวงจรไฟฟ้า

สาขาวิชาวิศวกรรมคอมพิวเตอร์ คณะวิศวกรรมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลพระนคร







- One is *direct current* (dc), in which ideally the flow of charge (current) does not change in magnitude (or direction) with time.
- The other is *sinusoidal alternating current* (ac), in which the flow of charge is continually changing in magnitude (and direction) with time.





FIG. 5.1 Introducing the basic components of an electric circuit.







For all one-voltagesource dc circuits

FIG. 5.2 Defining the direction of conventional flow for single-source dc circuits.



For any combination of voltage sources in the same dc circuit

FIG. 5.3 Defining the polarity resulting from a conventional current I through a resistive element.



Before the series connection is described, first recognize that every fixed resistor has only the terminals to connect in a configuration—it is therefore referred to as a **two-terminal device**.



FIG. 5.4 Series connection of resistors.



FIG. 5.6 Series connection of resistors for Example 5.1.

FIG. 5.7 Series connection of four resistors of the same value (Example 5.2).



FIG. 5.8 Two series combinations of the same elements with the same total resistance.



SERIES RESISTORS





FIG. 5.9 Series combination of resistors for Example 5.3.

FIG. 5.10 Series circuit of Fig. 5.9 redrawn to permit the use of Eq. (5.2): $R_T = NR$.



FIG. 5.11 Using an ohmmeter to measure the total resistance of a series circuit.



If we now take an 8.4 V dc supply and connect it in series with the series resistor in Fig. 5.4, we have the series circuit in Fig. 5.12.



FIG. 5.12 Schematic representation for a dc series circuit.



FIG. 5.13 Resistance "seen" at the terminals of a series circuit.



FIG. 5.14 Inserting the polarities across a resistor as determined by the direction of the current.



SERIES CIRCUITS



FIG. 5.15 Series circuit to be investigated in Example 5.4.

FIG. 5.16 Series circuit to be analyzed in *Example 5.5.*

 R_4

 7Ω

 $V_2 +$

 $R_2=4~\Omega$

 $R_3 \lessapprox 7 \Omega$

1 s







FIG. 5.17 Circuit in Fig. 5.16 redrawn to permit the use of Eq. (5.2).





FIG. 5.18 Series circuit to be analyzed in Example 5.6.





SERIES CIRCUITS

Instrumentation









FIG. 5.20 *Measuring the current throughout the series circuit in Fig. 5.12.*





FIG. 5.21 Power distribution in a series circuit.





FIG. 5.22 Series circuit to be investigated in Example 5.7.



FIG. 5.23 Reducing series dc voltage sources to a single source.



VOLTAGE SOURCES IN SERIES

Instrumentation



FIG. 5.24 Series connection of dc supplies: (a) four 1.5 V batteries in series to establish a terminal voltage of 6 V; (b) incorrect connections for two series dc supplies; (c) correct connection of two series supplies to establish 60 V at the output terminals.



The law, called Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL), was developed by

Gustav Kirchhoff in the mid-1800s.



FIG. 5.26 Applying Kirchhoff 's voltage law to a series dc circuit.





 $\Sigma_{\sim} V = 0$



The law specifies that the algebraic sum of the potential rises and drops around a closed path (or closed loop) is zero.

(Kirchhoff's voltage law in symbolic form) (5.8)







FIG. 5.27 Series circuit to be examined in Example 5.8.

FIG. 5.28 Series dc circuit to be analyzed in Example 5.9.



4 V

 R_3



KIRCHHOFF'S VOLTAGE LAW





FIG. 5.29 Combination of voltage sources to be examined in Example 5.10.





FIG. 5.30 Series configuration to be examined in Example 5.11.



FIG. 5.31 Applying Kirchhoff 's voltage law to a circuit in which the polarities have not been provided for one of the voltages (Example 5.12).





FIG. 5.32 Series configuration to be examined in Example 5.13.



VOLTAGE DIVISION IN A SERIES CIRCUIT



FIG. 5.33 Revealing how the voltage will divide across series resistive elements.





 $R_3 \lessapprox 1 M\Omega$

FIG. 5.35 The largest of the series resistive elements will capture the major share of the applied voltage.

 $R_1 >> R_2 \text{ or } R_3$



VOLTAGE DIVISION IN A SERIES CIRCUIT Voltage Divider Rule (VDR)

The voltage divider rule
(VDR) permits the
determination of the voltage
across a series resistor without
first having to determine the
current of the circuit.

The rule itself can be derived by analyzing the simple series circuit in Fig. 5.36.



FIG. 5.36 Developing the voltage divider rule.





VOLTAGE DIVISION IN A SERIES CIRCUIT Voltage Divider Rule (VDR)

The voltage divider rule states that *the voltage across a resistor in a series circuit is equal to the value of that resistor times the total applied voltage divided by the total resistance of the series configuration.*





VOLTAGE DIVISION IN A SERIES CIRCUIT

Voltage Divider Rule (VDR)



FIG. 5.37 Series circuit to be examined using the voltage divider rule in Example 5.15.



FIG. 5.38 Series circuit to be investigated in Examples 5.16 and 5.17.



VOLTAGE DIVISION IN A SERIES CIRCUIT

Voltage Divider Rule (VDR)



FIG. 5.39 Voltage divider action for Example 5.18.



FIG. 5.40 *Designing a voltage divider circuit (Example 5.19).*





INTERCHANGING SERIES ELEMENTS

The elements of a series circuit can be interchanged without affecting the total resistance, current, or power to each element.



FIG. 5.41 Series dc circuit with elements to be interchanged.





INTERCHANGING SERIES ELEMENTS



FIG. 5.42 Circuit in Fig. 5.41 with R_2 and R_3 interchanged.





INTERCHANGING SERIES ELEMENTS



FIG. 5.43 Example 5.20.






INTERCHANGING SERIES ELEMENTS

FIG. 5.44 *Redrawing the circuit in Fig. 5.43.*





Voltage Sources and Ground

Except for a few special cases, electrical and electronic systems are grounded for reference and safety purposes.

The symbol for the ground connection appears in Fig. 5.45 with its defined potential level—zero volts.



FIG. 5.45 Ground potential.





FIG. 5.46 Three ways to sketch the same series dc circuit.



 $\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ &$

FIG. 5.47 Replacing the special notation for a dc voltage source with the standard symbol.

FIG. 5.48 Replacing the notation for a negative dc supply with the standard notation.









FIG. 5.49 The expected voltage level at a particular point in a network if the system is functioning properly.





Double-Subscript Notation

The fact that voltage is an *across* variable and exists between two points has resulted in a double-subscript notation that defines the first subscript as the higher potential.



FIG. 5.50 Defining the sign for double-subscript notation.



Double-Subscript Notation



- The double-subscript notation V_{ab} specifies point a as the higher potential.
- * If this is not the case, a negative sign must be associated with the magnitude of V_{ab} .
- In other words, the voltage V_{ab} is the voltage at point a with respect to (w.r.t.) point b.





Single-Subscript Notation

If point *b* of the notation V_{ab} is specified as ground potential (zero volume), then a single-subscript notation can be used that provides the voltage at a point with respect to ground.



FIG. 5.51 Defining the use of single-subscript notation for voltage levels.





- A particularly useful relationship can now be established that has extensive applications in the analysis of electronic circuits.
- For the above notational standards, the following relationship exists:

$$V_{ab} = V_a - V_b$$







FIG. 5.52 Example 5.21.

FIG. 5.53 Example 5.22.





$$V_a = +20 V$$

$$+$$

$$R \neq 10 k\Omega \quad V_{ab}$$

$$-$$

$$V_b = -15 V$$

FIG. 5.54 Example 5.23.



FIG. 5.55 The impact of positive and negative voltages on the total voltage drop.





FIG. 5.57

 E_2

20 V

+5.000

COM

20V

FIG. 5.56 Example 5.24.

 $E_1 = 10 \text{ V}$

FIG. 5.57 Determining V_b using the defined voltage levels.









FIG. 5.58 *Review of the potential levels for the circuit in Fig. 5.56.*







FIG. 5.59 *Example 5.25.*



FIG. 5.60 Determining the total voltage drop across the resistive elements in Fig 5.59.





FIG. 5.61 *Redrawing the circuit in Fig. 5.59 using standard dc voltage supply symbols.*



FIG. 5.62 *Example* 5.26.







FIG. 5.63 Circuit of Fig. 5.62 redrawn.



FIG. 5.64 Example 5.27.





When you use a dc supply such as the generator, battery, or supply in Fig. 5.65, you initially assume that it will provide the desired voltage for any resistive load you may hook up to the supply.



FIG. 5.65 (a) Sources of dc voltage; (b) equivalent circuit.







FIG. 5.66 Demonstrating the effect of changing a load on the terminal voltage of a supply.





FIG. 5.67 *Plotting* V_L *versus* I_L *for the supply in Fig. 5.66.*





FIG. 5.68 Defining the properties of importance for a power supply.



FIG. 5.69 *Ideal supply and its terminal characteristics.*







- To help us anticipate the expected response of a supply, a defining quantity called voltage regulation (abbreviated VR; often called *load regulation* on specification sheets) was established.
- The basic equation in terms of the quantities in Fig. 5.68(a) is the following:

$$VR = \frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100\%$$





FIG. 5.70 Terminal characteristics for the supply of Example 5.28.





LOGO

FIG. 5.71 *dc* supply with the terminal characteristics of Fig. 5.70.







- ✤ In the previous section, we learned that power supplies are not the ideal instruments we may have thought they were.
- The applied load can have an effect on the terminal voltage.
- Fortunately, since today's supplies have such small load regulation factors, the change in terminal voltage with load can usually be ignored for most applications.





- ✤ If we now turn our attention to the various meters we use in the lab, we again find that they are not totally ideal:
 - Whenever you apply a meter to a circuit, you change the circuit and the response of the system. Fortunately, however, for most applications, considering the meters to be ideal is a valid approximation as long as certain factors are considered.





- For instance, any ammeter connected in a series circuit will introduce resistance to the series combination that will affect the current and voltages of the configuration.
- The resistance between the terminals of an ammeter is determined by the chosen scale of the ammeter.
 - In general, for ammeters, the higher the maximum value of the current for a particular scale, the smaller will the internal resistance be.







FIG. 5.73 Including the effects of the internal resistance of an ammeter: (a) 2 mA scale; (b) 2 A scale.





FIG. 5.74 Applying an ammeter set on the 2 mA scale to a circuit with resistors in the kilohm range: (a) ideal; (b) practical.



PROTOBOARDS (BREADBOARDS)

- At some point in the design of any electrical/electronic system, a prototype must be built and tested.
- One of the most effective ways to build a testing model is to use the protoboard (in the past most commonly called a breadboard) in Fig. 5.75.





PROTOBOARDS (BREADBOARDS)



FIG. 5.75 Protoboard with areas of conductivity defined using two different approaches.



FIG. 5.76 Two setups for the network in Fig. 5.12 on a protoboard with yellow leads added to each configuration to measure voltage V_3 with a voltmeter.



COMPUTER ANALYSIS

PSpice



FIG. 5.82 Series dc network to be analyzed using PSpice.





COMPUTER ANALYSIS

PSpice



FIG. 5.83 Applying PSpice to a series dc circuit.





COMPUTER ANALYSIS

Multisim



FIG. 5.84 Applying Multisim to a series dc circuit.




Parallel dc Circuits

www.themegallery.com



Two network configurations, series and parallel, form the framework or some of the most complex network structures.

A clear understanding of each will pay enormous dividends as more complex methods and networks are examined.





The term *parallel* is used so often to describe a physical arrangement between two elements that most individuals are aware of its general characteristics.

In general, two elements, branches, or circuits are in parallel if they have two points in common.



FIG. 6.1 (a) Parallel resistors; (b) R_1 and R_2 are in parallel; (c) R_3 is in parallel with the series combination of R_1 and R_2 .



FIG. 6.2 Schematic representations of three parallel resistors.



For resistors in parallel as shown in Fig. 6.3, the total resistance is determined from the following equation:

$$\frac{1}{R_T} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots + \frac{1}{R_N}$$







Since G = 1/R, the equation can also be written in terms of conductance levels as follows:

$$G_T = G_1 + G_2 + G_3 + \dots + G_N$$









FIG. 6.3 Parallel combination of resistors.





In general, however, when the total resistance is desired, the following format is applied:

$$R_T = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots + \frac{1}{R_N}}$$







FIG. 6.4 Parallel resistors for Example 6.1.



FIG. 6.5 Parallel resistors for Example 6.2.



FIG. 6.6 Network to be investigated in Example 6.3.







FIG. 6.7 Network in Fig. 6.6 redrawn.



FIG. 6.8 Adding a parallel 100 resistor to the network in Fig. 6.4.





FIG. 6.9 Three equal parallel resistors to be investigated in Example 6.5.









FIG. 6.11 Network in Fig. 6.10 redrawn.



Special Case: Two Parallel Resistors



FIG. 6.12 Reduced equivalent in Fig. 6.7.





Special Case: Two Parallel Resistors



FIG. 6.13 Parallel network for Example 6.9.



FIG. 6.14 *Redrawn network in Fig. 6.13 (Example 6.9).*





Special Case: Two Parallel Resistors



FIG. 6.15 Parallel network for Example 6.10.



FIG. 6.16 *Parallel network for Example 6.11.*





FIG. 6.17 Using an ohmmeter to measure the total resistance of a parallel network.



- A parallel circuit can now be established by connecting a supply across a set of parallel resistors as shown in Fig. 6.18.
- The positive terminal of the supply is directly connected to the top of each resistor, while the negative terminal is connected to the bottom of each resistor.



FIG. 6.18 Parallel network.





* In general, *the voltage is always the same across parallel elements*.

Therefore, remember that *if two elements are in parallel, the voltage across them must be the same. However, if the voltage across two neighboring elements is the same, the two elements may or may not be in parallel.*





FIG. 6.19 Replacing the parallel resistors in Fig. 6.18 with the equivalent total resistance.



FIG. 6.20 *Mechanical analogy for Fig. 6.18.*





For single-source parallel networks, the source current (Is) is alway

equal to the sum of the individual branch currents.



FIG. 6.21 Demonstrating the duality that exists between series and parallel circuits.







FIG. 6.22 Parallel network for Example 6.12.

FIG. 6.23 Parallel network for Example 6.13.







FIG. 6.24 Parallel network for Example 6.14.





Instrumentation



FIG. 6.25 *Measuring the voltages of a parallel dc network.*



Instrumentation



FIG. 6.26 Measuring the source current of a parallel network.



Instrumentation







FIG. 6.28 Power flow in a dc parallel network.





FIG. 6.29 Parallel network for Example 6.15.





KIRCHHOFF'S CURRENT LAW

- In the previous chapter, Kirchhoff's voltage law was introduced, providing a very important relationship among the voltages of a closed path.
- Kirchhoff is also credited with developing the following equally important relationship between the currents of a network, called Kirchhoff's current law (KCL):
 - The algebraic sum of the currents entering and leaving a junction (or region) of a network is zero.





FIG. 6.30 Introducing Kirchhoff 's current law.





FIG. 6.31 (a) Demonstrating Kirchhoff 's current law; (b) the water analogy for the junction in (a).



KIRCHHOFF'S CURRENT LAW

In technology, the term node is commonly used to refer to a junction two or more branches.



FIG. 6.32 Two-node configuration for Example 6.16.





FIG. 6.33 Four-node configuration for Example 6.17.





FIG. 6.34 Network for Example 6.18.










FIG. 6.36 *Redrawn network in Fig.* 6.35.



FIG. 6.37 Integrated circuit for Example 6.20.





- For series circuits we have the powerful voltage divider rule for finding the voltage across a resistor in a series circuit.
- We now introduce the equally powerful **current divider rule (CDR)** for finding the current through a resistor in a parallel circuit.





- In general:
 - **For two parallel elements of equal value, the current will divide equally.**
 - For parallel elements with different values, the smaller the resistance, the greater is the share of input current.
 - For parallel elements of different values, the current will split with a ratio equal to the inverse of their resistance values.







FIG. 6.38 Discussing the manner in which the current will split between three parallel branches of different resistive value.



FIG. 6.39 *Parallel network for Example 6.21.*



FIG. 6.40 Deriving the current divider rule: (a) parallel network of N parallel resistors; (b) reduced equivalent of part (a).





FIG. 6.41 Using the current divider rule to calculate current I1 in Example 6.22.



Note also that for a parallel network, the current through the smaller resistor will be very close to the total entering current if the other parallel elements of the configuration are much larger in magnitude.





Special Case: Two Parallel Resistors



FIG. 6.42 Deriving the current divider rule for the special case of only two parallel resistors.









FIG. 6.43 Using the current divider rule to determine current I_2 in Example 6.23.



FIG. 6.44 A design-type problem for two parallel resistors (Example 6.24).





Special Case: Two Parallel Resistors



FIG. 6.45 Demonstrating how current divides through equal and unequal parallel resistors.



VOLTAGE SOURCES IN PARALLEL

- Because the voltage is the same across parallel elements, voltage sources can be placed in parallel only if they have the same voltage.
- The primary reason for placing two or more batteries or supplies in parallel is to increase the current rating above that of a single supply.





FIG. 6.46 Demonstrating the effect of placing two ideal supplies of the same voltage in parallel.



VOLTAGE SOURCES IN PARALLEL

If for some reason two batteries of different voltages are placed in parallel, both will become ineffective or damaged because the battery with the larger voltage will rapidly discharge through the battery with the smaller terminal voltage.



FIG. 6.47 Examining the impact of placing two lead-acid batteries of different terminal voltages in parallel.





VOLTAGE SOURCES IN PARALLEL

* In general, *it is always recommended that when you are replacing*

batteries in series or parallel, replace all the batteries.





OPEN AND SHORT CIRCUITS

- Open circuits and short circuits can often cause more confusion and difficulty in the analysis of a system than standard series or parallel configurations.
- An **open circuit** is two isolated terminals not connected by an element of any kind, as shown in Fig. 6.48(a).





OPEN AND SHORT CIRCUITS

- Since a path for conduction does not exist, the current associated with an open circuit must always be zero.
- The voltage across the open circuit, however, can be any value, as determined by the system it is connected to.
 - In summary, therefore, an open circuit can have a potential difference (voltage) across its terminals, but the current is always zero amperes.







FIG. 6.48 Defining an open circuit.





OPEN AND SHORT CIRCUITS



FIG. 6.49 Examples of open circuits.





A short circuit is a very low resistance, direct connection between two terminal of a network.



FIG. 6.50 Defining a short circuit.





OPEN AND SHORT CIRCUITS

* In summary, therefore, *a short circuit can carry a current of a level*

determined by the external circuit, but the potential difference (voltage) across its terminals is always zero volts.





FIG. 6.51 Demonstrating the effect of a short circuit on current levels.



FIG. 6.52 Examples of short circuits.





FIG. 6.53 Network for Example 6.25.

FIG. 6.54 Network for Example 6.26.







FIG. 6.55 Circuit in Fig. 6.54 redrawn.





FIG. 6.56 Networks for Example 6.27.





FIG. 6.57 Solutions to Example 6.27.







FIG. 6.58 Network for Example 6.28.



FIG. 6.59 Network in Fig. 6.58 with R_2 replaced by a jumper.



VOLTMETER LOADING EFFECTS

- When you insert an ammeter, you actually introduce an additional resistance in series with the branch in which you are measuring the current.
- Generally, this is not a serious problem, but it can have a troubling effect on your readings, so it is important to be aware of it.





VOLTMETER LOADING EFFECTS

- Voltmeters also have an internal resistance that appears between the terminals of interest when a measurement is being made.
- While an ammeter places an additional resistance in series with the branch of interest, a voltmeter places an additional resistance *across* the element.





FIG. 6.60 Voltmeter loading.





VOLTMETER LOADING EFFECTS

- Since it appears in parallel with the element of interest, *the ideal level for the internal resistance of a voltmeter would be infinite ohms, just as zero ohms would be ideal for an ammeter.*
- Unfortunately, the internal resistance of any voltmeter is not infinite and changes from one type of meter to another.
 - Most digital voltmeters can be used in circuits with resistances up to the high-kilohm range without concern for the effect of the internal resistance on the reading.



VOLTMETER LOADING EFFECTS

To determine the resistance R_m of any scale of a VOM, simply multiply the **maximum voltage** of the chosen scale by the **ohm/volt** (Ω/V) **rating** normally appearing at the bottom of the face of the meter.









FIG. 6.61 (a) Measuring an opencircuit voltage with a voltmeter; (b) determining the effect of using a digital voltmeter with an internal resistance of 11 $M\Omega$ on measuring an open-circuit voltage (Example 6.29).



- Now that the series and parallel configurations have been covered in detail, we will review the salient equations and characteristics of each.
- The equations for one can often be obtained directly from the other by simply applying the **duality** principle.
- Duality between equations means that the format for an equation can be applied to two different situations by just changing the variable of interest.





SUMMARY TABLE

Series and Parallel Circuits		
Series	Duality	Parallel
$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots + R_N$	$R \rightleftharpoons G$	$G_T = G_1 + G_2 + G_3 + \dots + G_N$
R_T increases (G_T decreases) if additional resistors are added in series	$R \rightleftharpoons G$	G_T increases (R_T decreases) if additional resistors are added in parallel
Special case: two elements $R_T = R_1 + R_2$	$R \rightleftharpoons G$	$G_T = G_1 + G_2$
I the same through series elements	$I \rightleftharpoons V$	V the same across parallel elements
$E = V_1 + V_2 + V_3$	$E, V \rightleftharpoons I$	$I_T = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$
Largest V across largest R	$V \rightleftharpoons I$ and $R \rightleftarrows G$	Greatest I through largest G (smallest R)
$V_x = \frac{R_x E}{R_T}$	$E, V \rightleftharpoons I$ and $R \rightleftharpoons G$	$I_x = \frac{G_x I_T}{G_T}$
$P = EI_T$	$E \rightleftharpoons I$ and $I \rightleftharpoons E$	$P = I_T E$
$P = I^2 R$	$I \rightleftharpoons V$ and $R \rightleftarrows G$	$P = V^2 G$
$P = V^2/R$	$V \rightleftharpoons I$ and $R \rightleftarrows G$	$P = l^2/G$

 TABLE 6.1 Summary table.



TROUBLESHOOTING TECHNIQUES

- The art of *troubleshooting* is not limited solely to electrical or electronic systems.
 - In the broad sense, *troubleshooting is a process by which acquired knowledge and experience are used to localize a problem and offer or implement a solution*.






FIG. 6.62 A malfunctioning network.





PROTOBOARDS (BREADBOARDS)



FIG. 6.63 Using a protoboard to set up the circuit in Fig. 6.17.



COMPUTER ANALYSIS

PSpice



FIG. 6.69 Applying PSpice to a parallel network.





COMPUTER ANALYSIS

Multisim



FIG. 6.70 Using the indicators of Multisim to display the currents of a parallel dc network.







Series-Parallel Circuits







A series-parallel configuration is one that is formed by a combination of series and parallel elements.

A complex configuration is one in which none of the elements are in series or parallel.





FIG. 7.1 Series-parallel dc network.





REDUCE AND RETURN APPROACH



FIG. 7.3 Series-parallel network for Example 7.1.

FIG. 7.4 Substituting the parallel equivalent resistance for resistors R_2 and R_3 in Fig. 7.3.

LOGO

 $4\,k\Omega$

R'



REDUCE AND RETURN APPROACH



FIG. 7.5 Series-parallel network for Example 7.2.



FIG. 7.6 Schematic representation of the network in Fig. 7.5 after substituting the equivalent resistance R for the parallel combination of R_2 and R_3 .





12.0

VOLTAGE

2.85

CV

CC-

REDUCE AND RETURN APPROACH







BLOCK DIAGRAM APPROACH

• Once the grouping of elements reveals the most direct approach, you examine the impact of the individual components in each group.

This grouping of elements is called the *block diagram approach*









A

111

 $2 k\Omega$

a->

 R_T

 I_s

54 V

FIG. 7.8 Introducing the block diagram approach.

FIG. 7.9 Block diagram format of Fig. 7.3.

b

B

≤12 kΩ

 I_3

 $\leq 6 k\Omega$





FIG. 7.10 Example 7.3.

FIG. 7.11 Reduced equivalent of Fig. 7.10.

 I_C

+









FIG. 7.14 Example 7.5.

FIG. 7.15 Block diagram of Fig. 7.14.







FIG. 7.16 Alternative block diagram for the first parallel branch in Fig. 7.14.







FIG. 7.17 Example 7.6.





FIG. 7.18 Block diagram for Fig. 7.17.



FIG. 7.19 Reduced form of Fig. 7.17.





FIG. 7.20 Example 7.7.





FIG. 7.21 Network in Fig. 7.20 redrawn.







FIG. 7.22 Example 7.8.





FIG. 7.23 Network in Fig. 7.22 redrawn.







FIG. 7.26 Example 7.10.







FIG. 7.27 Network in Fig. 7.26 redrawn.





FIG. 7.28 An alternative approach to Example 7.10.





FIG. 7.29 Example 7.11.



FIG. 7.30 Network in Fig. 7.29 redrawn to better define a path toward the desired unknowns.



DESCRIPTIVE EXAMPLES



FIG. 7.31 Complex network for Example 7.11.



LADDER NETWORKS

- A three-section ladder network appears in Fig. 7.32.
- The reason for the terminology is quite obvious for the repetitive structure.
- Basically two approaches are used to solve networks of this type.











FIG. 7.33 Working back to the source to determine R_T for the network in Fig. 7.32.





FIG. 7.34 Calculating R_T and I_s .

FIG. 7.35 Working back toward I_6 .







FIG. 7.36 Calculating I₆.







FIG. 7.37 An alternative approach for ladder networks.







FIG. 7.46 Iron-vane movement.



FIG. 7.47 Iron-vane movement; (a)

photo, (b) symbol and ratings.





FIG. 7.49 Multirange ammeter.


FIG. 7.50 Basic voltmeter.



AMMETER, VOLTMETER, AND OHMMETER DESIGN (The Voltmeter)

- A variation in the additional circuitry permits the use of the iron-vane movement the design of a voltmeter.
- The 1 mA, 43 Ω movement can also be rated as a 43 mV (1 mA x 43 Ω), 43 movement, indicating that the maximum voltage that the movement can measure independently is 43 mV.
- The millivolt rating is sometimes referred to as the *voltage sensitivity (VS)*.





AMMETER, VOLTMETER, AND OHMMETER

DESIGN (The Voltmeter)



FIG. 7.51 Multirange voltmeter.





AMMETER, VOLTMETER, AND OHMMETER DESIGN (The Ohmmeter)

In general, ohmmeters are designed to measure resistance in the low, middle, or high range.

The most common is the **series ohmmeter**, designed to read resistance levels in the midrange.











AMMETER, VOLTMETER, AND OHMMETER DESIGN (The Ohmmeter)



FIG. 7.53 Nanovoltmeter.





AMMETER, VOLTMETER, AND OHMMETER DESIGN (The Ohmmeter)

- The megohmmeter (often called a *megger*) is an instrument for measuring very high resistance values.
- Its primary function is to test the insulation found in power transmission systems, electrical machinery, transformers, and so on.
 - To measure the high-resistance values, a high dc voltage is established by a handdriven generator.





AMMETER, VOLTMETER, AND OHMMETER

DESIGN (The Ohmmeter)





FIG. 7.54 Megohmmeter.





FIG. 7.55 Boosting a car battery.





APPLICATIONS

Electronic Circuits



- The operation of most electronic systems requires a distribution of dc voltages throughout the design.
- Although a full explanation of why the dc level is required (since it is an ac signal to be amplified) will have to wait for the introductory courses in electronic circuits, the dc analysis will proceed in much the same manner as described in this chapter.







FIG. 7.58 The dc bias levels of a transistor amplifier.



COMPUTER ANALYSIS

PSpice



FIG. 7.59 Using PSpice to verify the results of Example 7.12.



Thank You !



