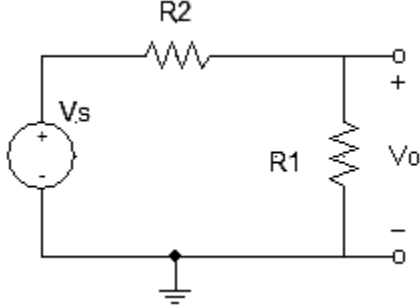


## Voltage Divider



A voltage divider circuit consists of two series resistors, which form a voltage divider because the applied voltage is divided between the two resistors (in this case  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ ). The current through  $R_1$  ( $I_{R1}$ ) and  $R_2$  ( $I_{R2}$ ) can be found by dividing  $V_s$  by the sum of the resistors, or by solving a loop equation. Note that  $I_{R1} = I_{R2}$  because there is only one loop.

$V_{R1} = I_{R1} * R1 = I_{R2} * R1$ ,  $V_{R2} = I_{R1} * R2 = I_{R2} * R2$ , or you can use Node Equations to find  $V_{R1}$  and  $V_{R2}$ .

For the Prelab, find the equation for  $V_{R1}$  in terms of  $V_s$ ,  $R_1$ , and  $R_2$ . You will use this equation many times this semester, so be able to remember or derive it quickly.

## Oscilloscope and Multimeter input impedance.

In our lab, each meter has about a  $10\text{M}\Omega$  input impedance (you can verify this by using one meter as an ohmmeter, and connecting it to measure the resistance of another meter set to measure volts). This  $10\text{M}\Omega$  input will not significantly load low impedance circuits. When connected to a  $1\text{M}\Omega$  circuit, the meters will load the circuit somewhat, but accuracy will be acceptable. For a circuit with an impedance greater than  $3\text{M}\Omega$ , the meter loading effects will be significant.

The oscilloscope input impedance is  $1\text{M}\Omega$  in parallel with  $14\text{ pF}$ .



At low frequencies ( $\leq 1\text{MHz}$ ) with a circuit impedance  $\leq 100\text{k}\Omega$ , the scope will not load the circuit. As the circuit impedance or the frequency increase above  $1\text{MHz}$  or  $100\text{k}\Omega$ , the scope loads the circuit and accuracy suffers. We may increase the scope's frequency response and input impedance with a  $10\text{X}$  probe, which multiplies the scope impedance by 10 and reduces the parallel capacitance. This probe also acts as a  $/10$  voltage divider.

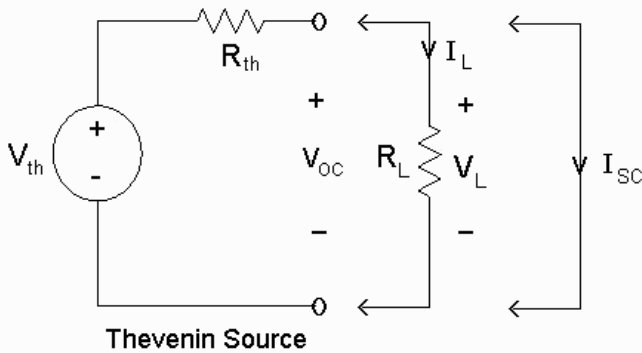
## Thevenin Equivalent Circuit

**Thevenin's Theorem:** Any two terminal linear network composed of a combination of voltage sources, current sources, and resistors, is electrically equivalent to a single voltage source ( $V_{th}$ ) and a single series resistor ( $R_{th}$ ).

For single frequency AC circuits, Thevenin's theorem can also be applied to complex impedances. In the case of a complex source or load impedance, maximum power transfer occurs when  $Z_L$  equals the conjugate match of  $Z_{TH}$  ( $R_{TH} = R_L$  and  $j\omega X_{TH} = -j\omega X_L$ ).

The Thevenin equivalent is only valid at the load terminals. Internally, we can't say anything about the circuit from which the Thevenin equivalent was derived.

Any circuit can be represented as a “black box” Thevenin source. The Thevenin and Norton models provide a simple way to calculate of load voltage and current, and power for various loads. Instead of having to evaluate an entire circuit each time the load resistance is changed, you can use the simple Thevenin or Norton circuit.

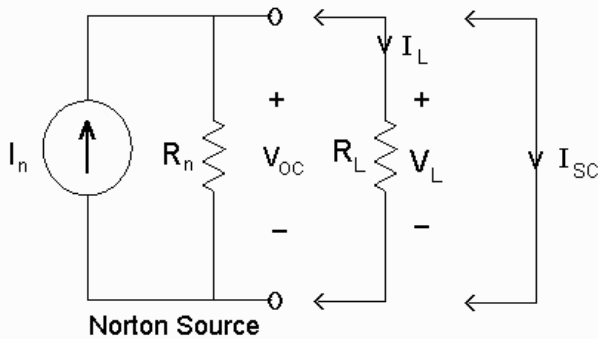


$$V_{th} = V_{OC} \text{ (open circuit voltage)}$$

$$R_{th} = V_{th} / I_{SC} \text{ (short circuit current)}$$

$$\text{Given } V_{OC}, V_L, R_L: V_{th} = V_{OC}, I_L = V_L/R_L, \\ V_{R_{th}} = V_{OC} - V_L, R_{th} = V_{R_{th}} / I_L$$

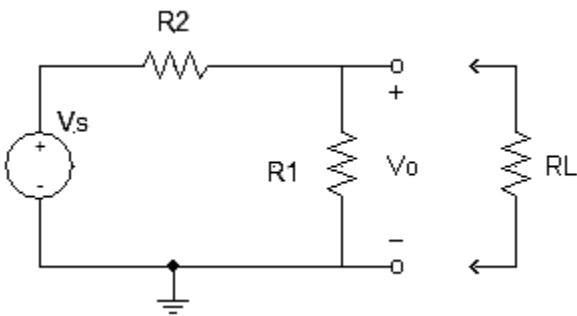
$$\text{Given } V_{th}, R_{th}, R_L: I_L = V_{th}/(R_{th}+R_L), V_L = R_L I_L \\ \text{or } V_L = V_{th} R_L / (R_{th}+R_L), I_L = V_L/R_L$$



**The Norton Source** is interchangeable with the Thevenin source.  $I_n = I_{SC}$  and  $R_n = R_{th}$

$$R_n = V_{OC}/I_n = V_{th}/I_{SC} = R_{th} \text{ and } V_{OC} = V_{th} = I_n R_n$$

## Thevenin Equivalent of a Voltage Divider



The voltage divider circuit produces an open circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) that can be found from your voltage divider equation. The short circuit current is easily found by shorting  $V_o$  (so  $I_{sc} = V_s / R_2$  because  $R_1$  is shorted).  $R_{th}$  is then calculated by solving  $R_{th} = V_{oc} / I_{sc}$ . The result will be the equivalent of  $R_1 \parallel R_2$  (parallel connected).

Sometimes you can't obtain a short circuit current (perhaps the current would be too high for safety, or you do not have a meter that can make the measurement). Remember that the Thevenin source with a load resistor is just a voltage divider. If you can measure the voltage produced in a known load resistor, you can use the voltage divider equation to calculate  $R_{th}$ .  $V_{th}$  is, of course, still  $V_{oc}$ .

## Maximum Power Transfer

**Maximum power transfer** from the source to the load **occurs when  $R_{TH} = R_L$** . Efficiency at maximum power transfer is 50% - the load and the source each dissipate half of the power produced.

When  $R_L < R_{TH}$  - power transfer is lower, and efficiency is low because the source dissipates more power than the load.

When  $R_L > R_{TH}$  - power transfer is lower, and efficiency is high because the load dissipates more power than the source.

A practical example of the relationship between  $R_L$ ,  $R_S$ , power transfer, and efficiency can be found in the common stereo system audio amplifier. The output impedance of the amplifier is typically  $2\Omega$  or less. For our example amplifier,  $V_{TH} = 20V_{RMS}$  and  $R_{TH} = 2\Omega$ .

With an  $8\Omega$  speaker,  $P_{total} = 40W$ ,  $P_{speaker} = 32W$ ,  $P_{amp\ dissipation} = 8W$

With a  $4\Omega$  speaker,  $P_{total} = 67W$ ,  $P_{speaker} = 45W$ ,  $P_{amp\ dissipation} = 22W$  (the amp begins to get warm!).

With speakers paralleled for  $2\Omega$ ,  $P_{total} = 100W$ ,  $P_{speaker} = 50W$  (WooHoo!),  $P_{amp\ dissipation} = 50W$  The speakers get  $50W$ , BUT the amplifier must dissipate the other  $50W$  and many amplifiers do not have heat sinks capable of dissipating enough heat when a low impedance load is used.

With more speakers paralleled for  $1\Omega$ ,  $P_{total} = 133W$ ,  $P_{speaker} = 44W$ ,  $P_{amp\ dissipation} = 89W$  (OUCH!). Not only has power transfer dropped, but efficiency is terrible and the amplifier will probably overheat.

## Pspice modeling using the Parametric Sweep

Begin with the voltage divider from Prelab question 2. Save the model as Lab 3 Thevenin or something similar.

### Add a new variable resistor to use for $R_L$

[Draw > Get New Part > R\_var > Place & Close].

Hit the esc key after you have placed the var resistor.

Rotate the var resistor [Edit > Rotate], then drag it to where you want it.

Edit the Variable resistor to name it  $R_L$ , and edit the component so that Value=RVAR, SET=1.

Connect (wire)  $R_L$  in parallel with  $R_1$ .

### Move (or place) the Voltage and Current probes to measure $V_{R_L}$ and $I_{R_L}$ .

If you already have probes, click them and move them to measure  $I_{R_1}$  and  $V_{R_1}$ .

If you need probes, see Lab 1 about how to click the probes on the toolbar and place them.

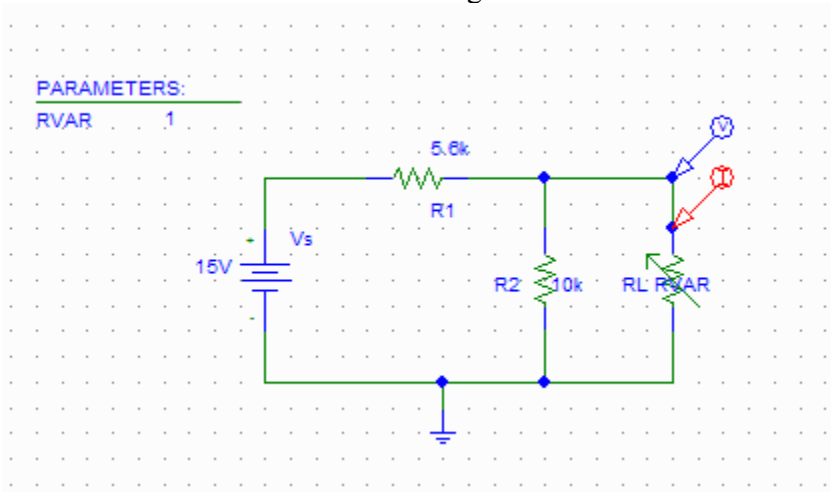
### Add a Parameter

[Draw > Get New Part > Param > Place & Close].

Hit the esc key after you have placed the Parameter somewhere on the schematic.

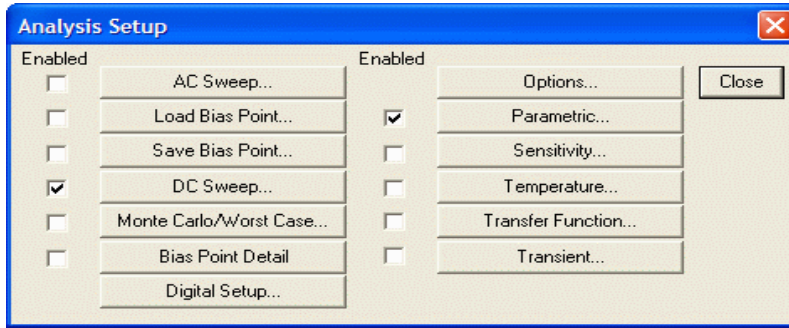
Click the Parameter and edit it so that Name1=RVAR, Value1=1.

Your schematic should look something like this:



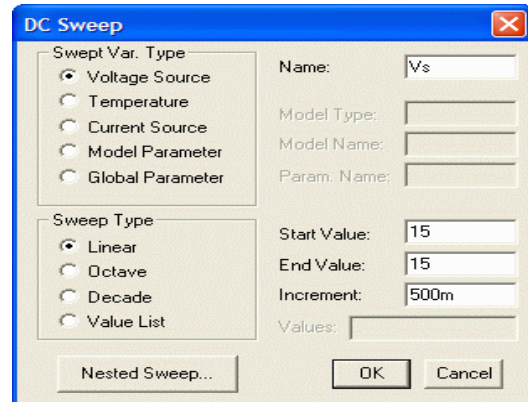
## Set up the analysis

[Analysis > Setup > check the boxes for DC Sweep and Parametric]



Click the DC sweep button and set these values (Note: this sets Vs to remain constant):

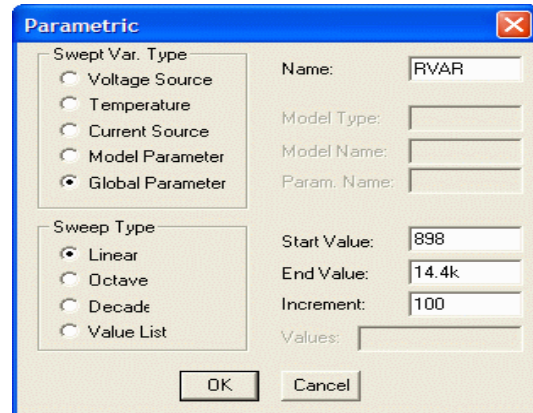
Set Var Type = Voltage Source,  
Sweep Type = Linear,  
Name = Vs  
Start Value = 15  
End Value = 15  
Increment = 500m  
> hit OK



Click the Parametric button and set these values

(Note: this sets RL to begin at (calculate and enter the value below)  $R_{th}/4$ , step in  $100\Omega$  intervals, and end at (calculate and enter the value below)  $R_{th}*4$ ):

Swept Var Type = Global Parameter  
Sweep Type = Linear,  
Name = RVAR, Start Value =  $(R_{th}/4)$ ,  
End Value =  $(R_{th}*4)$ ,  
Increment = 100  
> OK  
> Close



## Run the Simulation

Hit the simulation button  (or hit F11 or click Analysis > Simulate)

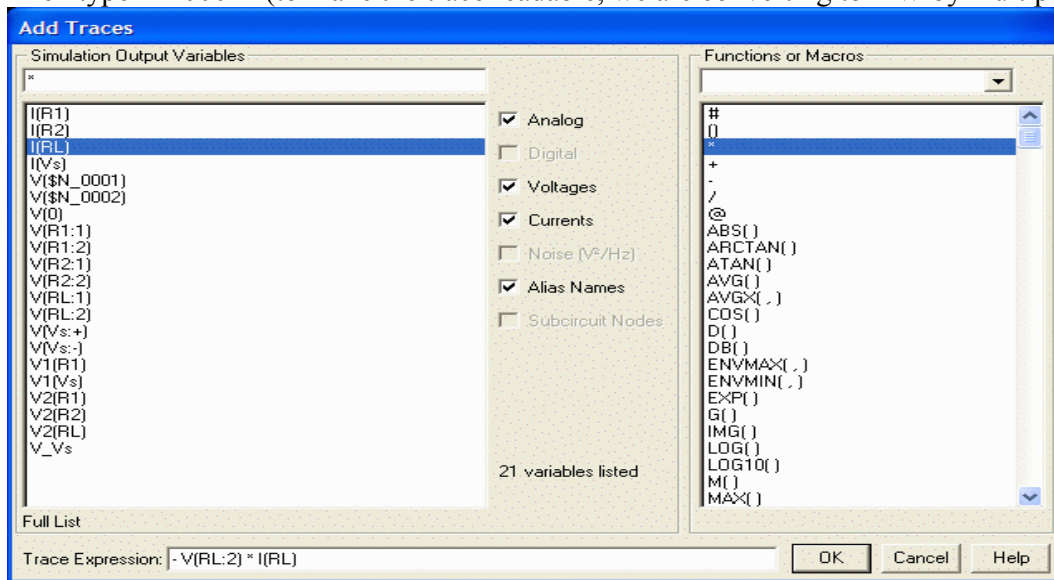
If your simulation had no errors, you should see  $V(RL:2)$  steadily increase and  $I(RL)$  near 0.  
Troubleshoot your wiring and setup if you have errors.

## Add a trace for $P_{RL}$

Click Trace > Add Trace >

In the "Simulation Output Variable" window: choose  $V(RL:2)$  (or your voltage probe is name),

Then type "\*" after the voltage probe name (\* is multiply, and  $P = V \cdot I$ ),  
 Then in the "Simulation Output Variable" window: choose I(RL)(or what your current probe is named),  
 Then type "\*1000" (to make the trace readable, we are converting to mW by multiplying by 1000)



> OK. (You should see another trace. If it is negative, double click the trace name and place a "-" in front of the expression and say OK).

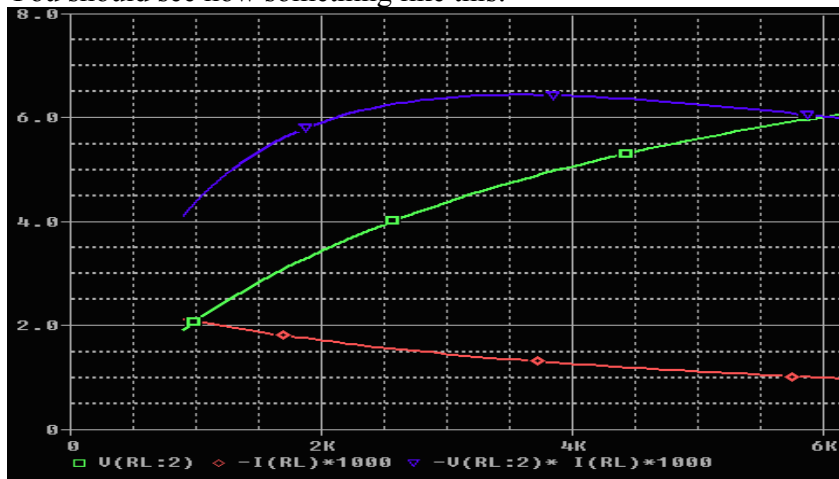
### Change I(RL) to milliAmps

double click the -I(RL) trace identifier and change it to -I(RL)\*1000  
 This will move the current trace up into visible range on the simulation display.  
 Multiplying the current trace by 1000 essentially changes the scale from A to mA.



### Widen each trace for printing:

Click on each trace, then right click > properties > Width > use drop down to select the second choice > OK

You should see now something like this:



### Use the cursor to find and Label $V_{RL}$ , $I_{RL}$ , and $P_{RL}$ .

Click the "Toggle Cursor" button on the toolbar , move the cursor to the desired value of RL  
 For each trace, Click the small square, diamond, or triangle to make a trace active, then click the "Mark Label" button on the toolbar .