We now apply KVL to the branches involving the voltage sources as shown in Fig. 3.13(b). For loop 1,

$$-v_1 + 20 + v_2 = 0 \implies v_1 - v_2 = 20$$
 (3.4.3)

For loop 2,

$$-v_3 + 3v_x + v_4 = 0$$

But $v_x = v_1 - v_4$ so that

$$3v_1 - v_3 - 2v_4 = 0 \tag{3.4.4}$$

For loop 3,

$$v_x - 3v_x + 6i_3 - 20 = 0$$

But $6i_3 = v_3 - v_2$ and $v_x = v_1 - v_4$. Hence

$$-2v_1 - v_2 + v_3 + 2v_4 = 20 \tag{3.4.5}$$

We need four node voltages, v_1 , v_2 , v_3 , and v_4 , and it requires only four out of the five Eqs. (3.4.1) to (3.4.5) to find them. Although the fifth equation is redundant, it can be used to check results. We can solve Eqs. (3.4.1) to (3.4.4) directly using *MATLAB*. We can eliminate one node voltage so that we solve three simultaneous equations instead of four. From Eq. (3.4.3), $v_2 = v_1 - 20$. Substituting this into Eqs. (3.4.1) and (3.4.2), respectively, gives

$$6v_1 - v_3 - 2v_4 = 80 \tag{3.4.6}$$

and

$$6v_1 - 5v_3 - 16v_4 = 40 \tag{3.4.7}$$

Equations (3.4.4), (3.4.6), and (3.4.7) can be cast in matrix form as

3	-1	-2]	$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \end{bmatrix}$		[0]	
6	-1	-2	<i>v</i> ₃	=	80	
6	-5	-16	$\lfloor v_4 \rfloor$		40	

Using Cramer's rule gives

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 & -2 \\ 6 & -1 & -2 \\ 6 & -5 & -16 \end{vmatrix} = -18, \quad \Delta_1 = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 80 & -1 & -2 \\ 40 & -5 & -16 \end{vmatrix} = -480$$
$$\Delta_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 0 & -2 \\ 6 & 80 & -2 \\ 6 & 40 & -16 \end{vmatrix} = -3120, \quad \Delta_4 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 6 & -1 & 80 \\ 6 & -5 & 40 \end{vmatrix} = 840$$

Thus, we arrive at the node voltages as

$$v_{1} = \frac{\Delta_{1}}{\Delta} = \frac{-480}{-18} = 26.667 \text{ V}, \qquad v_{3} = \frac{\Delta_{3}}{\Delta} = \frac{-3120}{-18} = 173.333 \text{ V}$$
$$v_{4} = \frac{\Delta_{4}}{\Delta} = \frac{840}{-18} = -46.667 \text{ V}$$

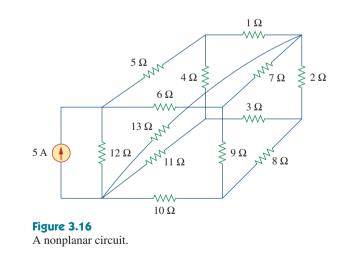
and $v_2 = v_1 - 20 = 6.667$ V. We have not used Eq. (3.4.5); it can be used to cross check results.

Answer:
$$v_1 = 3.043 \text{ V}, v_2 = -6.956 \text{ V}, v_3 = 0.6522 \text{ V}.$$

3.4 Mesh Analysis

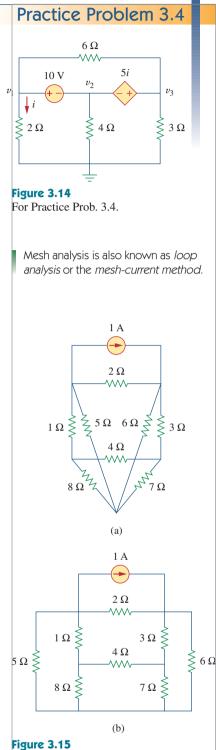
Mesh analysis provides another general procedure for analyzing circuits, using mesh currents as the circuit variables. Using mesh currents instead of element currents as circuit variables is convenient and reduces the number of equations that must be solved simultaneously. Recall that a loop is a closed path with no node passed more than once. A mesh is a loop that does not contain any other loop within it.

Nodal analysis applies KCL to find unknown voltages in a given circuit, while mesh analysis applies KVL to find unknown currents. Mesh analysis is not quite as general as nodal analysis because it is only applicable to a circuit that is *planar*. A planar circuit is one that can be drawn in a plane with no branches crossing one another; otherwise it is *nonplanar*. A circuit may have crossing branches and still be planar if it can be redrawn such that it has no crossing branches, but it can be redrawn as in Fig. 3.15(a) has two crossing branches, but it can be redrawn as in Fig. 3.15(b). Hence, the circuit in Fig. 3.15(a) is planar. However, the circuit in Fig. 3.16 is nonplanar, because there is no way to redraw it and avoid the branches crossing. Nonplanar circuits can be handled using nodal analysis, but they will not be considered in this text.

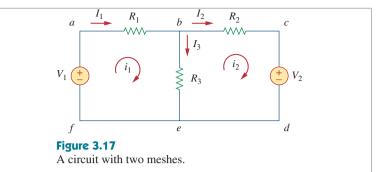


To understand mesh analysis, we should first explain more about what we mean by a mesh.

A mesh is a loop which does not contain any other loops within it.



(a) A planar circuit with crossing branches,
(b) the same circuit redrawn with no crossing branches.



In Fig. 3.17, for example, paths *abefa* and *bcdeb* are meshes, but path *abcdefa* is not a mesh. The current through a mesh is known as *mesh current*. In mesh analysis, we are interested in applying KVL to find the mesh currents in a given circuit.

In this section, we will apply mesh analysis to planar circuits that do not contain current sources. In the next sections, we will consider circuits with current sources. In the mesh analysis of a circuit with n meshes, we take the following three steps.

Steps to Determine Mesh Currents:

- 1. Assign mesh currents i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n to the *n* meshes.
- 2. Apply KVL to each of the *n* meshes. Use Ohm's law to express the voltages in terms of the mesh currents.
- 3. Solve the resulting *n* simultaneous equations to get the mesh currents.

To illustrate the steps, consider the circuit in Fig. 3.17. The first step requires that mesh currents i_1 and i_2 are assigned to meshes 1 and 2. Although a mesh current may be assigned to each mesh in an arbitrary direction, it is conventional to assume that each mesh current flows clockwise.

As the second step, we apply KVL to each mesh. Applying KVL to mesh 1, we obtain

$$-V_1 + R_1 i_1 + R_3 (i_1 - i_2) = 0$$

or

$$(R_1 + R_3)i_1 - R_3i_2 = V_1 \tag{3.13}$$

For mesh 2, applying KVL gives

 $R_2i_2 + V_2 + R_3(i_2 - i_1) = 0$

or

$$-R_3i_1 + (R_2 + R_3)i_2 = -V_2 \tag{3.14}$$

Note in Eq. (3.13) that the coefficient of i_1 is the sum of the resistances in the first mesh, while the coefficient of i_2 is the negative of the resistance common to meshes 1 and 2. Now observe that the same is true in Eq. (3.14). This can serve as a shortcut way of writing the mesh equations. We will exploit this idea in Section 3.6.

Although path *abcdefa* is a loop and not a mesh, KVL still holds. This is the reason for loosely using the terms *loop analysis* and *mesh analysis* to mean the same thing.

The direction of the mesh current is arbitrary—(clockwise or counterclockwise)—and does not affect the validity of the solution.

The shortcut way will not apply if one mesh current is assumed clockwise and the other assumed anticlockwise, although this is permissible. The third step is to solve for the mesh currents. Putting Eqs. (3.13) and (3.14) in matrix form yields

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_1 + R_3 & -R_3 \\ -R_3 & R_2 + R_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ -V_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.15)

which can be solved to obtain the mesh currents i_1 and i_2 . We are at liberty to use any technique for solving the simultaneous equations. According to Eq. (2.12), if a circuit has *n* nodes, *b* branches, and *l* independent loops or meshes, then l = b - n + 1. Hence, *l* independent simultaneous equations are required to solve the circuit using mesh analysis.

Notice that the branch currents are different from the mesh currents unless the mesh is isolated. To distinguish between the two types of currents, we use *i* for a mesh current and *I* for a branch current. The current elements I_1 , I_2 , and I_3 are algebraic sums of the mesh currents. It is evident from Fig. 3.17 that

$$I_1 = i_1, \qquad I_2 = i_2, \qquad I_3 = i_1 - i_2$$
 (3.16)

For the circuit in Fig. 3.18, find the branch currents I_1 , I_2 , and I_3 using mesh analysis.

Solution:

We first obtain the mesh currents using KVL. For mesh 1,

$$-15 + 5i_1 + 10(i_1 - i_2) + 10 = 0$$

or

$$3i_1 - 2i_2 = 1$$

For mesh 2,

$$6i_2 + 4i_2 + 10(i_2 - i_1) - 10 = 0$$

or

$$i_1 = 2i_2 - 1 \tag{3.5.2}$$

METHOD 1 Using the substitution method, we substitute Eq. (3.5.2) into Eq. (3.5.1), and write

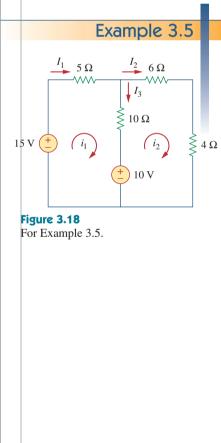
$$6i_2 - 3 - 2i_2 = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad i_2 = 1 \text{ A}$$

From Eq. (3.5.2), $i_1 = 2i_2 - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1$ A. Thus,

$$I_1 = i_1 = 1 \text{ A}, \qquad I_2 = i_2 = 1 \text{ A}, \qquad I_3 = i_1 - i_2 = 0$$

METHOD 2 To use Cramer's rule, we cast Eqs. (3.5.1) and (3.5.2) in matrix form as

 $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$



Chapter 3 Methods of Analysis

	We obtain the determinants
	$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 6 - 2 = 4$ $\Delta_1 = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2 + 2 = 4, \Delta_2 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 3 + 1 = 4$
	Thus, $i_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta} = 1 \text{ A}, \qquad i_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta} = 1 \text{ A}$
	as before.
Practice Problem 3.5	Calculate the mesh currents i_1 and i_2 in the circuit of Fig. 3.19.
	Answer: $i_1 = \frac{2}{3} A$, $i_2 = 0 A$.
$12 V \stackrel{2 \Omega}{\leftarrow} 9 \Omega \\ 12 V \stackrel{4}{\leftarrow} i_1 \stackrel{8 V}{\leftarrow} 12 \Omega \\ i_2 \stackrel{4}{\leftarrow} 8 V$	
$4\Omega \qquad 3\Omega$ Figure 3.19 For Practice Prob. 3.5.	
Example 3.6	Use mesh analysis to find the current I_o in the circuit in Fig. 3.20.
	Solution: We apply KVL to the three meshes in turn. For mesh 1, $-24 + 10(i_1 - i_2) + 12(i_1 - i_3) = 0$ or
$10 \Omega \overset{I}{\underset{a}{\underset{b}{\underset{c}{\underset{c}{\atop}}}}} I_{o} \overset{I}{\underset{c}{\underset{c}{\atop}}} \overset{I}{\underset{c}{\atop}} 24 \Omega$	$11i_1 - 5i_2 - 6i_3 = 12$ (3.6.1) For mesh 2,
$24 \text{ V} \stackrel{+}{\longrightarrow} (i_1) \stackrel{4 \Omega}{\longrightarrow} $	$24i_2 + 4(i_2 - i_3) + 10(i_2 - i_1) = 0$ or
$12 \Omega \rightleftharpoons (i_3) \stackrel{+}{\longleftarrow} 4I_o$	$-5i_1 + 19i_2 - 2i_3 = 0 \tag{3.6.2}$
Figure 3.20 For Example 3.6.	For mesh 3, $4I_o + 12(i_3 - i_1) + 4(i_3 - i_2) = 0$

But at node A, $I_o = i_1 - i_2$, so that

$$4(i_1 - i_2) + 12(i_3 - i_1) + 4(i_3 - i_2) = 0$$

or

$$-i_1 - i_2 + 2i_3 = 0 \tag{3.6.3}$$

In matrix form, Eqs. (3.6.1) to (3.6.3) become

11	-5	-6]	$\begin{bmatrix} i_1 \end{bmatrix}$		[12]	
-5	19	$\begin{bmatrix} -6\\ -2\\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$	<i>i</i> ₂	=	0	
1	-1	2	$\lfloor i_3 \rfloor$			

We obtain the determinants as

$$\Delta = \underbrace{\begin{vmatrix} 11 & -5 & -6 \\ -5 & 19 & -2 \\ 11 & -5 & -6 \\ -5 & 19 & -2 \\ + \\ = 418 - 30 - 10 - 114 - 22 - 50 = 192$$

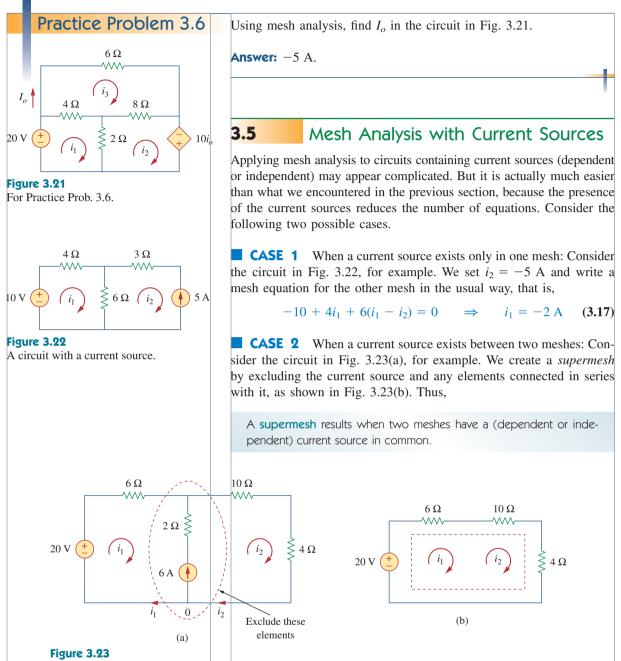
$$\Delta_1 = \underbrace{\begin{vmatrix} 12 & -5 & -6 \\ 0 & 19 & -2 \\ -2 & -6 \\ -2$$

We calculate the mesh currents using Cramer's rule as

$$i_1 = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta} = \frac{432}{192} = 2.25 \text{ A}, \qquad i_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta} = \frac{144}{192} = 0.75 \text{ A}$$

 $i_3 = \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta} = \frac{288}{192} = 1.5 \text{ A}$

Thus, $I_o = i_1 - i_2 = 1.5$ A.

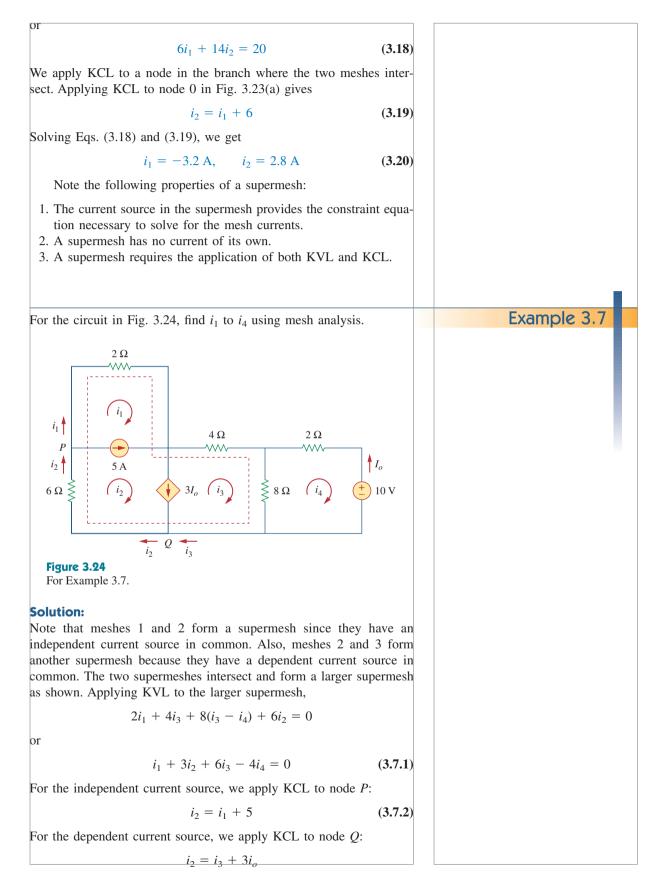


(a) Two meshes having a current source in common, (b) a supermesh, created by excluding the current source.

> As shown in Fig. 3.23(b), we create a supermesh as the periphery of the two meshes and treat it differently. (If a circuit has two or more supermeshes that intersect, they should be combined to form a larger supermesh.) Why treat the supermesh differently? Because mesh analysis applies KVL—which requires that we know the voltage across each branch—and we do not know the voltage across a current source in advance. However, a supermesh must satisfy KVL like any other mesh. Therefore, applying KVL to the supermesh in Fig. 3.23(b) gives

> > $-20 + 6i_1 + 10i_2 + 4i_2 = 0$

98



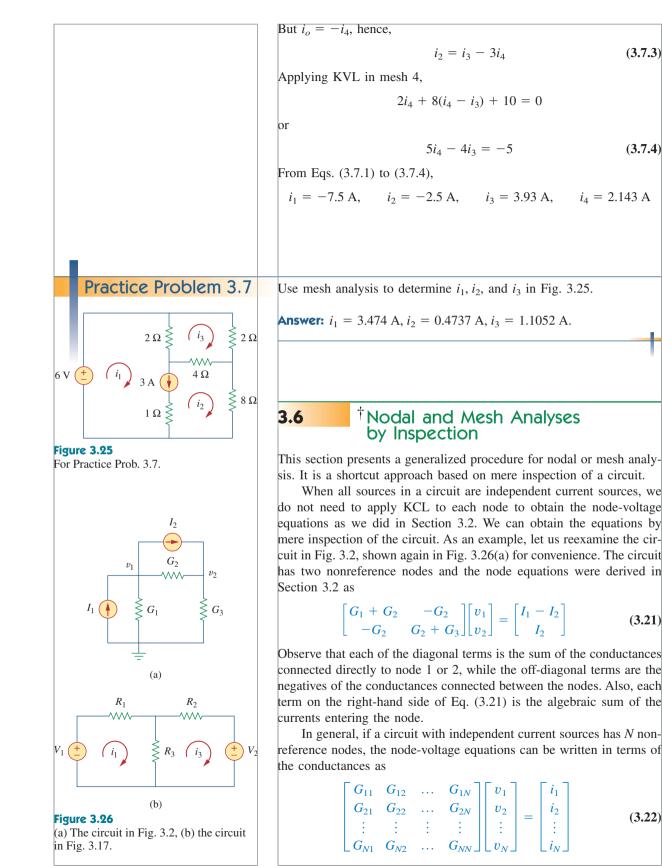
Chapter 3 Methods of Analysis

(3.7.3)

(3.7.4)

(3.21)

(3.22)



100

(3.23)

or simply

where

 G_{kk} = Sum of the conductances connected to node k

 $G_{kj} = G_{jk}$ = Negative of the sum of the conductances directly connecting nodes k and j, $k \neq j$

 $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i}$

 v_k = Unknown voltage at node k

 i_k = Sum of all independent current sources directly connected to node k, with currents entering the node treated as positive

G is called the *conductance matrix*; **v** is the output vector; and **i** is the input vector. Equation (3.22) can be solved to obtain the unknown node voltages. Keep in mind that this is valid for circuits with only independent current sources and linear resistors.

Similarly, we can obtain mesh-current equations by inspection when a linear resistive circuit has only independent voltage sources. Consider the circuit in Fig. 3.17, shown again in Fig. 3.26(b) for convenience. The circuit has two nonreference nodes and the node equations were derived in Section 3.4 as

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_1 + R_3 & -R_3 \\ -R_3 & R_2 + R_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ -v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.24)

We notice that each of the diagonal terms is the sum of the resistances in the related mesh, while each of the off-diagonal terms is the negative of the resistance common to meshes 1 and 2. Each term on the right-hand side of Eq. (3.24) is the algebraic sum taken clockwise of all independent voltage sources in the related mesh.

In general, if the circuit has N meshes, the mesh-current equations can be expressed in terms of the resistances as

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & \dots & R_{1N} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} & \dots & R_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ R_{N1} & R_{N2} & \dots & R_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ \vdots \\ i_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_N \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.25)

or simply

$$\mathbf{Ri} = \mathbf{v} \tag{3.26}$$

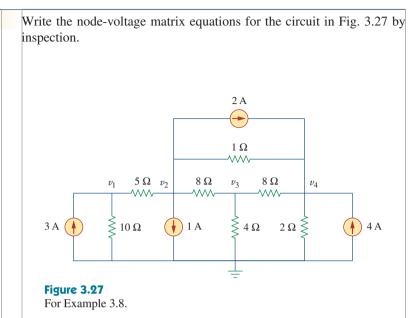
where

 R_{kk} = Sum of the resistances in mesh k

- $R_{kj} = R_{jk}$ = Negative of the sum of the resistances in common with meshes k and j, $k \neq j$
- i_k = Unknown mesh current for mesh k in the clockwise direction
- v_k = Sum taken clockwise of all independent voltage sources in mesh k, with voltage rise treated as positive

R is called the *resistance matrix*; **i** is the output vector; and **v** is the input vector. We can solve Eq. (3.25) to obtain the unknown mesh currents.

Example 3.8



Solution:

The circuit in Fig. 3.27 has four nonreference nodes, so we need four node equations. This implies that the size of the conductance matrix G, is 4 by 4. The diagonal terms of G, in siemens, are

$$G_{11} = \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{10} = 0.3, \qquad G_{22} = \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{1} = 1.325$$
$$G_{33} = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4} = 0.5, \qquad G_{44} = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{1} = 1.625$$

The off-diagonal terms are

$$G_{12} = -\frac{1}{5} = -0.2, \qquad G_{13} = G_{14} = 0$$

$$G_{21} = -0.2, \qquad G_{23} = -\frac{1}{8} = -0.125, \qquad G_{24} = -\frac{1}{1} = -1$$

$$G_{31} = 0, \qquad G_{32} = -0.125, \qquad G_{34} = -\frac{1}{8} = -0.125$$

$$G_{41} = 0, \qquad G_{42} = -1, \qquad G_{43} = -0.125$$

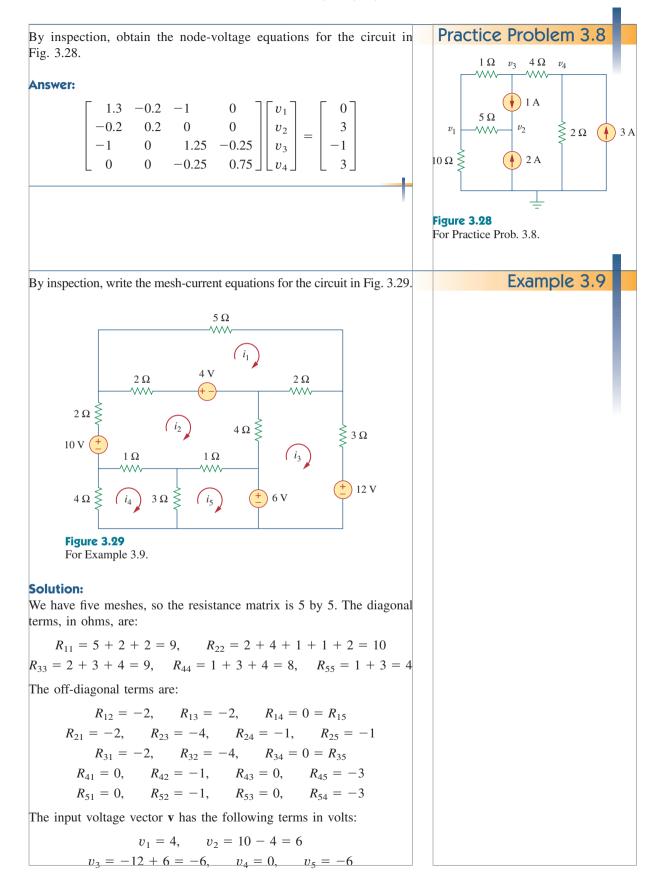
The input current vector **i** has the following terms, in amperes:

$$i_1 = 3$$
, $i_2 = -1 - 2 = -3$, $i_3 = 0$, $i_4 = 2 + 4 = 6$

Thus the node-voltage equations are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & -0.2 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.2 & 1.325 & -0.125 & -1 \\ 0 & -0.125 & 0.5 & -0.125 \\ 0 & -1 & -0.125 & 1.625 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

which can be solved using *MATLAB* to obtain the node voltages v_1 , v_2 , v_3 , and v_4 .



	Thus the mesh-current equations are:		
	$\begin{bmatrix} 9 & -2 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 10 & -4 & -1 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 9 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 8 & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ i_3 \\ i_4 \\ i_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \\ -6 \\ 0 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$ From this, we can use <i>MATLAB</i> to obtain mesh currents i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4 , and i_5 .		
Practice Problem 3.9	By inspection, obtain the mesh-current equations for the circuit in Fig. 3.30. 50Ω $40 \Omega_{y} N^{4} 30 \Omega_{z}$ i_{3} i_{2} i_{3} $24 V$ i_{4} i_{4} i_{5} 20Ω V i_{4} i_{4} i_{5} 20Ω V i_{4} i_{5} $10 V$ $r^{1} 60 \Omega$ Figure 3.30 For Practice Prob. 3.9. Answer: $\begin{bmatrix} 170 - 40 & 0 - 80 & 0 \\ -40 & 80 - 30 & -10 & 0 \\ 0 & -30 & 50 & 0 & -20 \\ -80 & -10 & 0 & 90 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -20 & 0 & 80 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{1} \\ i_{2} \\ i_{3} \\ i_{4} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 24 \\ 0 \\ -12 \\ 10 \\ -10 \end{bmatrix}$ 3.7 Nocial Versus Mesh Analysis Both nodal and mesh analyses provide a systematic way of analyzing a complex network. Someone may ask: Given a network to be analyzed, how do we know which method is better or more efficient? The choice of the better method is dictated by two factors.		

The first factor is the nature of the particular network. Networks that contain many series-connected elements, voltage sources, or supermeshes are more suitable for mesh analysis, whereas networks with parallel-connected elements, current sources, or supernodes are more suitable for nodal analysis. Also, a circuit with fewer nodes than meshes is better analyzed using nodal analysis, while a circuit with fewer meshes than nodes is better analyzed using mesh analysis. The key is to select the method that results in the smaller number of equations.

The second factor is the information required. If node voltages are required, it may be expedient to apply nodal analysis. If branch or mesh currents are required, it may be better to use mesh analysis.

It is helpful to be familiar with both methods of analysis, for at least two reasons. First, one method can be used to check the results from the other method, if possible. Second, since each method has its limitations, only one method may be suitable for a particular problem. For example, mesh analysis is the only method to use in analyzing transistor circuits, as we shall see in Section 3.9. But mesh analysis cannot easily be used to solve an op amp circuit, as we shall see in Chapter 5, because there is no direct way to obtain the voltage across the op amp itself. For nonplanar networks, nodal analysis is the only option, because mesh analysis only applies to planar networks. Also, nodal analysis is more amenable to solution by computer, as it is easy to program. This allows one to analyze complicated circuits that defy hand calculation. A computer software package based on nodal analysis is introduced next.

Circuit Analysis with PSpice

PSpice is a computer software circuit analysis program that we will gradually learn to use throughout the course of this text. This section illustrates how to use *PSpice for Windows* to analyze the dc circuits we have studied so far.

The reader is expected to review Sections D.1 through D.3 of Appendix D before proceeding in this section. It should be noted that *PSpice* is only helpful in determining branch voltages and currents when the numerical values of all the circuit components are known.

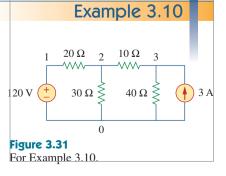
Use *PSpice* to find the node voltages in the circuit of Fig. 3.31.

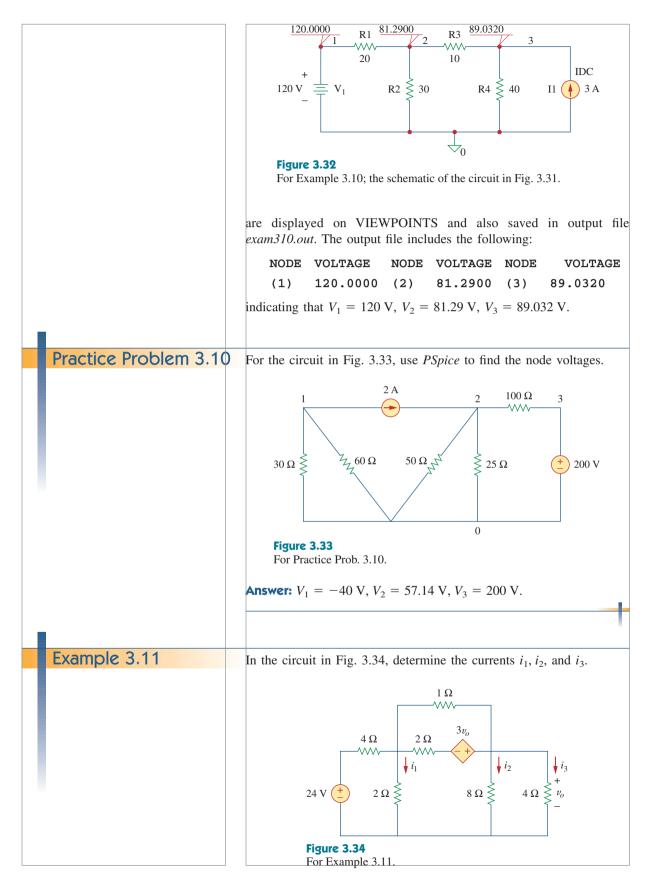
Solution:

3.8

The first step is to draw the given circuit using Schematics. If one follows the instructions given in Appendix sections D.2 and D.3, the schematic in Fig. 3.32 is produced. Since this is a dc analysis, we use voltage source VDC and current source IDC. The pseudocomponent VIEWPOINTS are added to display the required node voltages. Once the circuit is drawn and saved as *exam310.sch*, we run *PSpice* by selecting **Analysis/Simulate**. The circuit is simulated and the results

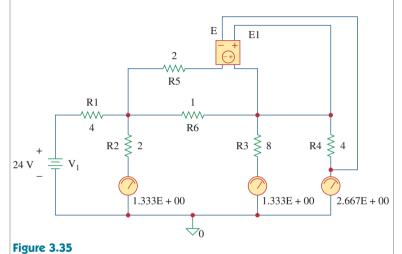






Solution:

The schematic is shown in Fig. 3.35. (The schematic in Fig. 3.35 includes the output results, implying that it is the schematic displayed on the screen *after* the simulation.) Notice that the voltage-controlled voltage source E1 in Fig. 3.35 is connected so that its input is the voltage across the 4- Ω resistor; its gain is set equal to 3. In order to display the required currents, we insert pseudocomponent IPROBES in the appropriate branches. The schematic is saved as *exam311.sch* and simulated by selecting **Analysis/Simulate**. The results are displayed on IPROBES as shown in Fig. 3.35 and saved in output file *exam311.out*. From the output file or the IPROBES, we obtain $i_1 = i_2 = 1.333$ A and $i_3 = 2.667$ A.



The schematic of the circuit in Fig. 3.34.

Use *PSpice* to determine currents i_1 , i_2 , and i_3 in the circuit of Fig. 3.36.

Answer: $i_1 = -0.4286$ A, $i_2 = 2.286$ A, $i_3 = 2$ A.

3.9

[†]Applications: DC Transistor Circuits

Most of us deal with electronic products on a routine basis and have some experience with personal computers. A basic component for the integrated circuits found in these electronics and computers is the active, three-terminal device known as the *transistor*. Understanding the transistor is essential before an engineer can start an electronic circuit design.

Figure 3.37 depicts various kinds of transistors commercially available. There are two basic types of transistors: *bipolar junction transistors* (BJTs) and *field-effect transistors* (FETs). Here, we consider only the BJTs, which were the first of the two and are still used today. Our objective is to present enough detail about the BJT to enable us to apply the techniques developed in this chapter to analyze dc transistor circuits.

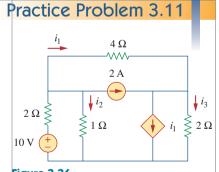


Figure 3.36 For Practice Prob. 3.11.



Historical Profiles

William Schockley (1910–1989), John Bardeen (1908–1991), and Walter Brattain (1902–1987) co-invented the transistor.

Nothing has had a greater impact on the transition from the "Industrial Age" to the "Age of the Engineer" than the transistor. I am sure that Dr. Shockley, Dr. Bardeen, and Dr. Brattain had no idea they would have this incredible effect on our history. While working at Bell Laboratories, they successfully demonstrated the point-contact transistor, invented by Bardeen and Brattain in 1947, and the junction transistor, which Shockley conceived in 1948 and successfully produced in 1951.

It is interesting to note that the idea of the field-effect transistor, the most commonly used one today, was first conceived in 1925–1928 by J. E. Lilienfeld, a German immigrant to the United States. This is evident from his patents of what appears to be a field-effect transistor. Unfortunately, the technology to realize this device had to wait until 1954 when Shockley's field-effect transistor became a reality. Just think what today would be like if we had this transistor 30 years earlier!

For their contributions to the creation of the transistor, Dr. Shockley, Dr. Bardeen, and Dr. Brattain received, in 1956, the Nobel Prize in physics. It should be noted that Dr. Bardeen is the only individual to win two Nobel prizes in physics; the second came later for work in superconductivity at the University of Illinois.

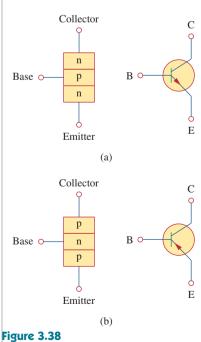


Figure 3.38 Two types of BJTs and their circuit symbols: (a) *npn*, (b) *pnp*.

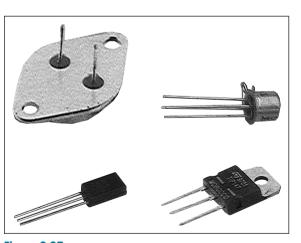


Figure 3.37 Various types of transistors. (Courtesy of Tech America.)

There are two types of BJTs: *npn* and *pnp*, with their circuit symbols as shown in Fig. 3.38. Each type has three terminals, designated as emitter (E), base (B), and collector (C). For the *npn* transistor, the currents and voltages of the transistor are specified as in Fig. 3.39. Applying KCL to Fig. 3.39(a) gives

$$I_E = I_B + I_C \tag{3.27}$$

where I_E , I_C , and I_B are emitter, collector, and base currents, respectively. Similarly, applying KVL to Fig. 3.39(b) gives

$$V_{CE} + V_{EB} + V_{BC} = 0 (3.28)$$

where V_{CE} , V_{EB} , and V_{BC} are collector-emitter, emitter-base, and basecollector voltages. The BJT can operate in one of three modes: active, cutoff, and saturation. When transistors operate in the active mode, typically $V_{BE} \approx 0.7$ V,

$$I_C = \alpha I_E \tag{3.29}$$

where α is called the *common-base current gain*. In Eq. (3.29), α denotes the fraction of electrons injected by the emitter that are collected by the collector. Also,

$$I_C = \beta I_B \tag{3.30}$$

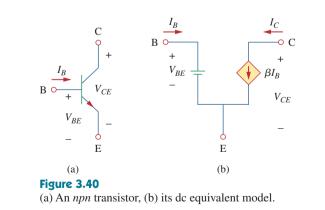
where β is known as the *common-emitter current gain*. The α and β are characteristic properties of a given transistor and assume constant values for that transistor. Typically, α takes values in the range of 0.98 to 0.999, while β takes values in the range 50 to 1000. From Eqs. (3.27) to (3.30), it is evident that

$$I_E = (1 + \beta)I_B \tag{3.31}$$

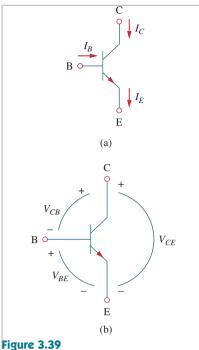
and

$$\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \tag{3.32}$$

These equations show that, in the active mode, the BJT can be modeled as a dependent current-controlled current source. Thus, in circuit analysis, the dc equivalent model in Fig. 3.40(b) may be used to replace the *npn* transistor in Fig. 3.40(a). Since β in Eq. (3.32) is large, a small base current controls large currents in the output circuit. Consequently, the bipolar transistor can serve as an amplifier, producing both current gain and voltage gain. Such amplifiers can be used to furnish a considerable amount of power to transducers such as loudspeakers or control motors.

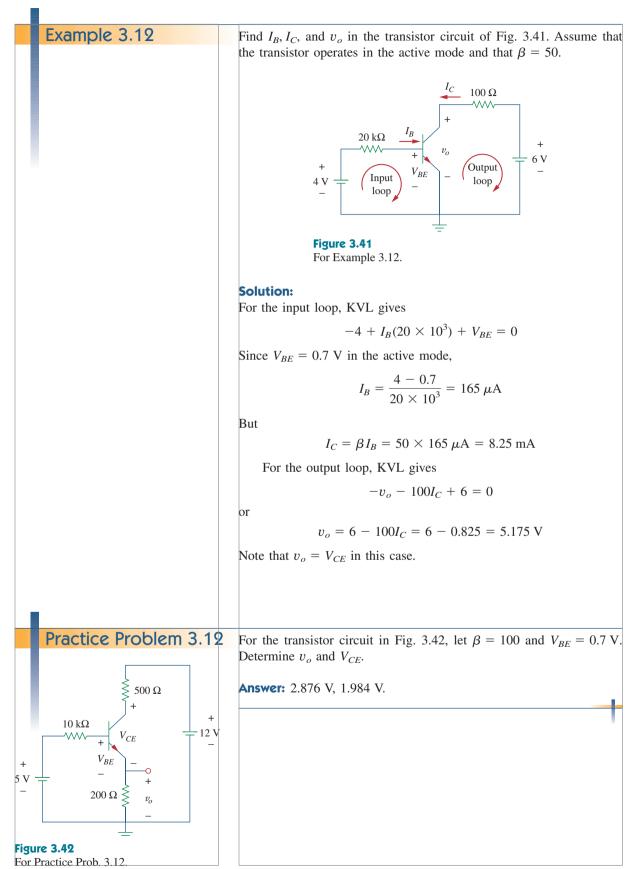


It should be observed in the following examples that one cannot directly analyze transistor circuits using nodal analysis because of the potential difference between the terminals of the transistor. Only when the transistor is replaced by its equivalent model can we apply nodal analysis.



The terminal variables of an *npn* transistor: (a) currents, (b) voltages.

In fact, transistor circuits provide motivation to study dependent sources.

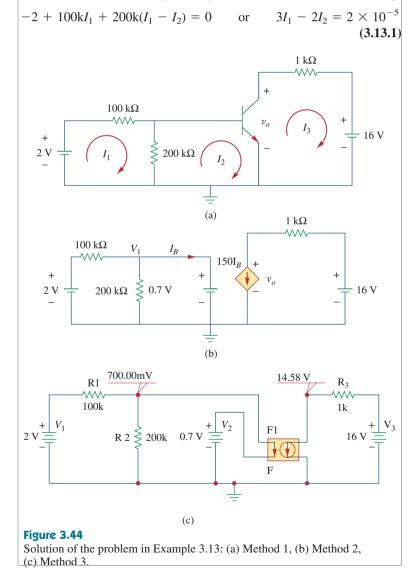


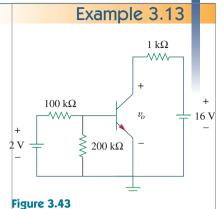
For the BJT circuit in Fig. 3.43, $\beta = 150$ and $V_{BE} = 0.7$ V. Find v_o .

Solution:

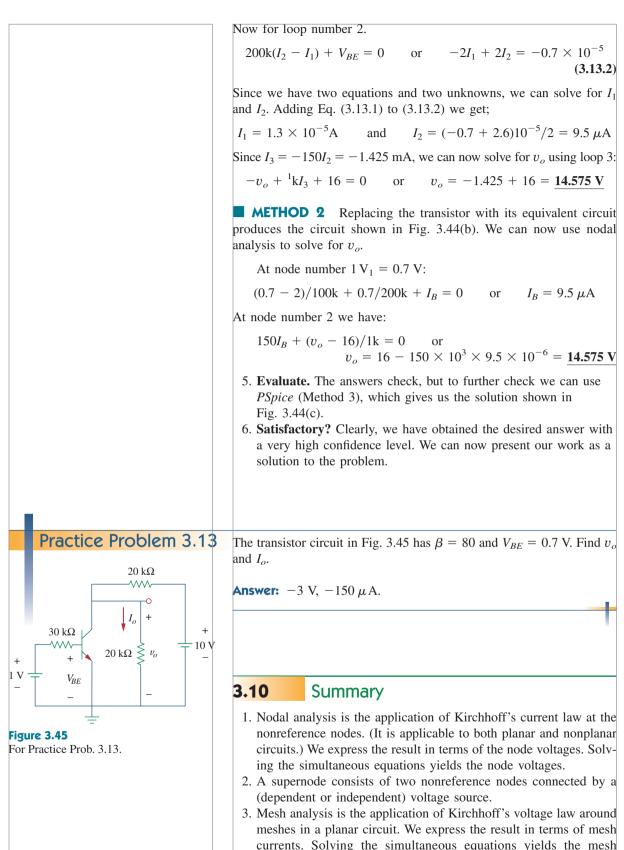
- 1. **Define.** The circuit is clearly defined and the problem is clearly stated. There appear to be no additional questions that need to be asked.
- 2. **Present.** We are to determine the output voltage of the circuit shown in Fig. 3.43. The circuit contains an ideal transistor with $\beta = 150$ and $V_{BE} = 0.7$ V.
- 3. Alternative. We can use mesh analysis to solve for v_o . We can replace the transistor with its equivalent circuit and use nodal analysis. We can try both approaches and use them to check each other. As a third check, we can use the equivalent circuit and solve using *PSpice*.
- 4. Attempt

METHOD 1 Working with Fig. 3.44(a), we start with the first loop.





For Example 3.13.



currents.

- 4. A supermesh consists of two meshes that have a (dependent or independent) current source in common.
- 5. Nodal analysis is normally used when a circuit has fewer node equations than mesh equations. Mesh analysis is normally used when a circuit has fewer mesh equations than node equations.
- 6. Circuit analysis can be carried out using PSpice.
- 7. DC transistor circuits can be analyzed using the techniques covered in this chapter.

Review Questions

3.1 At node 1 in the circuit in Fig. 3.46, applying KCL gives:

(a)
$$2 + \frac{12 - v_1}{3} = \frac{v_1}{6} + \frac{v_1 - v_2}{4}$$

(b) $2 + \frac{v_1 - 12}{3} = \frac{v_1}{6} + \frac{v_2 - v_1}{4}$
(c) $2 + \frac{12 - v_1}{3} = \frac{0 - v_1}{6} + \frac{v_1 - v_2}{4}$
(d) $2 + \frac{v_1 - 12}{3} = \frac{0 - v_1}{6} + \frac{v_2 - v_1}{4}$

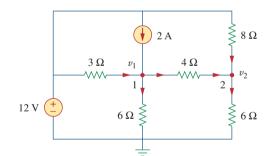


Figure 3.46

For Review Questions 3.1 and 3.2.

3.2 In the circuit in Fig. 3.46, applying KCL at node 2 gives:

(a)
$$\frac{v_2 - v_1}{4} + \frac{v_2}{8} = \frac{v_2}{6}$$

(b) $\frac{v_1 - v_2}{4} + \frac{v_2}{8} = \frac{v_2}{6}$
(c) $\frac{v_1 - v_2}{4} + \frac{12 - v_2}{8} = \frac{v_2}{6}$
(d) $\frac{v_2 - v_1}{4} + \frac{v_2 - 12}{8} = \frac{v_2}{6}$

3.3 For the circuit in Fig. 3.47, v_1 and v_2 are related as:

(a)
$$v_1 = 6i + 8 + v_2$$
 (b) $v_1 = 6i - 8 + v_2$
(c) $v_1 = -6i + 8 + v_2$ (d) $v_1 = -6i - 8 + v_2$

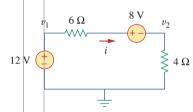


Figure 3.47

For Review Questions 3.3 and 3.4.

3.4 In the circuit in Fig. 3.47, the voltage v_2 is:

(a) -8 V	(b) -1.6 V
(c) 1.6 V	(d) 8 V

3.5 The current *i* in the circuit in Fig. 3.48 is:

(a)
$$-2.667$$
 A (b) -0.667 A
(c) 0.667 A (d) 2.667 A

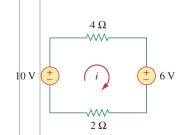
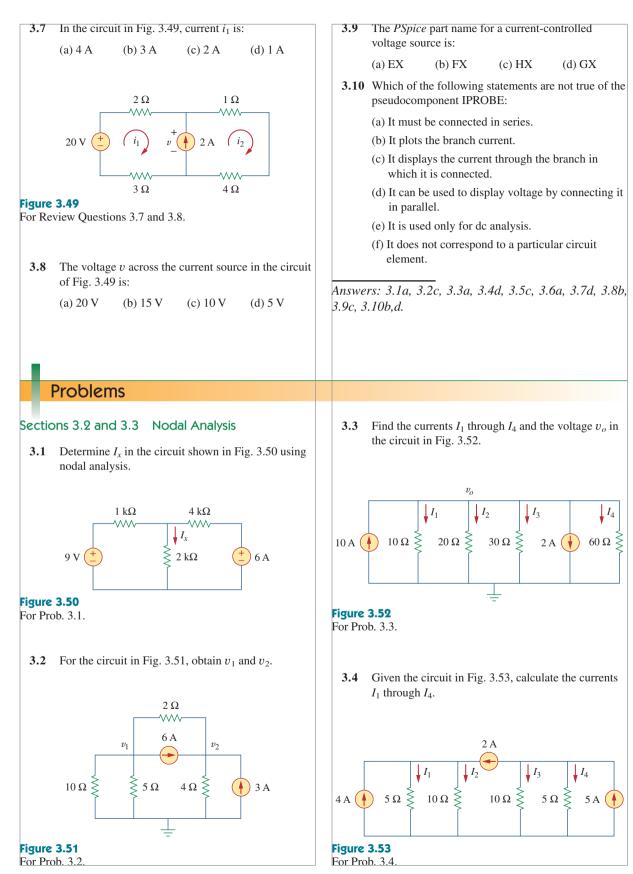


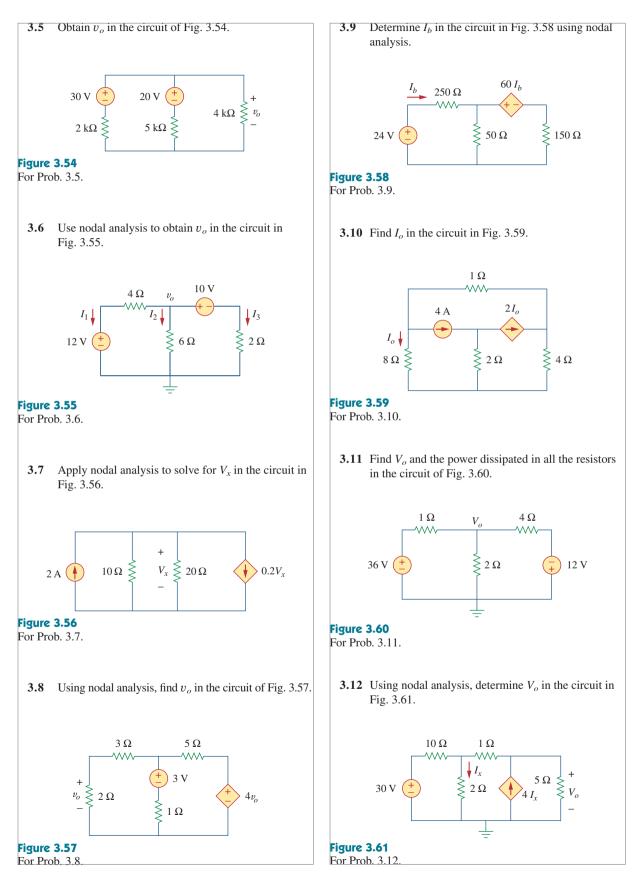
Figure 3.48

For Review Questions 3.5 and 3.6.

3.6 The loop equation for the circuit in Fig. 3.48 is:

(a) -10 + 4i + 6 + 2i = 0(b) 10 + 4i + 6 + 2i = 0(c) 10 + 4i - 6 + 2i = 0(d) -10 + 4i - 6 + 2i = 0





3.13 Calculate v_1 and v_2 in the circuit in Fig. 3.62 using nodal analysis.

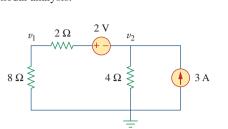


Figure 3.62

For Prob. 3.13.

3.14 Using nodal analysis, find v_o in the circuit of Fig. 3.63.

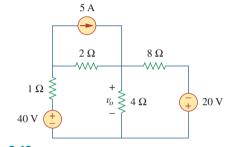
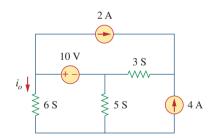


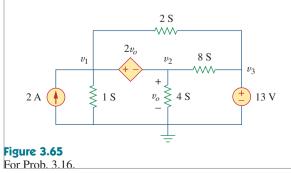
Figure 3.63 For Prob. 3.14.

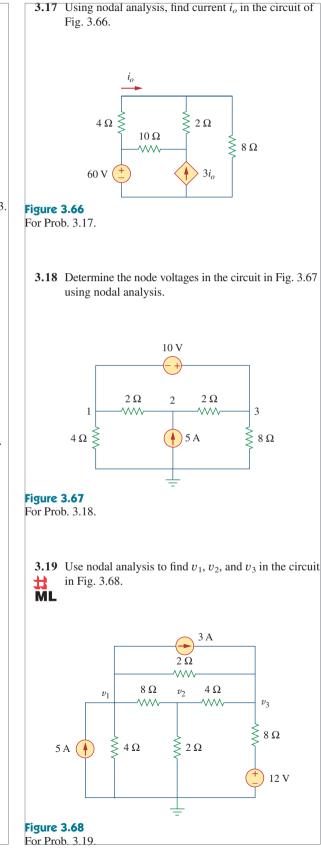
3.15 Apply nodal analysis to find i_o and the power dissipated in each resistor in the circuit of Fig. 3.64.

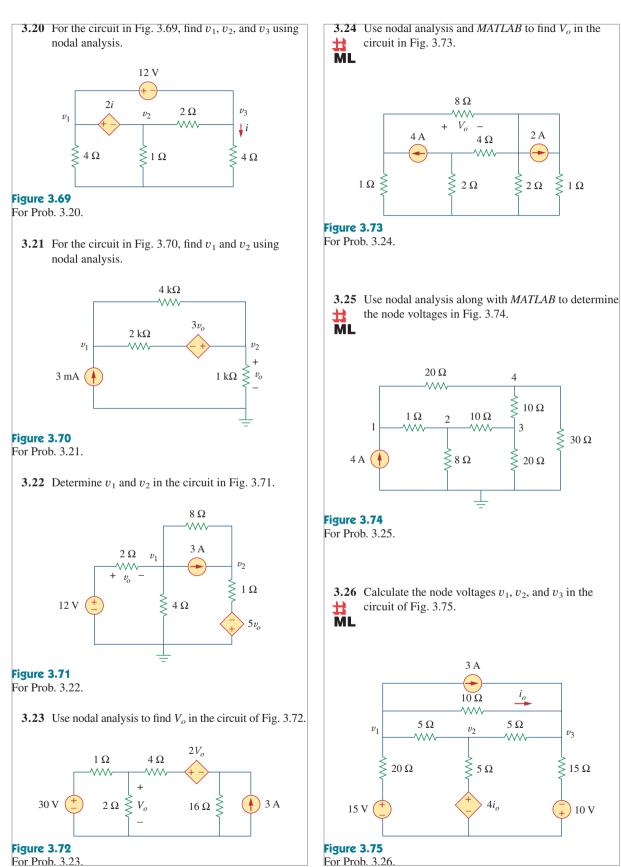




3.16 Determine voltages v_1 through v_3 in the circuit of Fig. 3.65 using nodal analysis.







+

 $80 \Omega \gtrless v_o$

 $2I_o$

2Ω

 $\Lambda\Lambda\Lambda\Lambda$ I_o

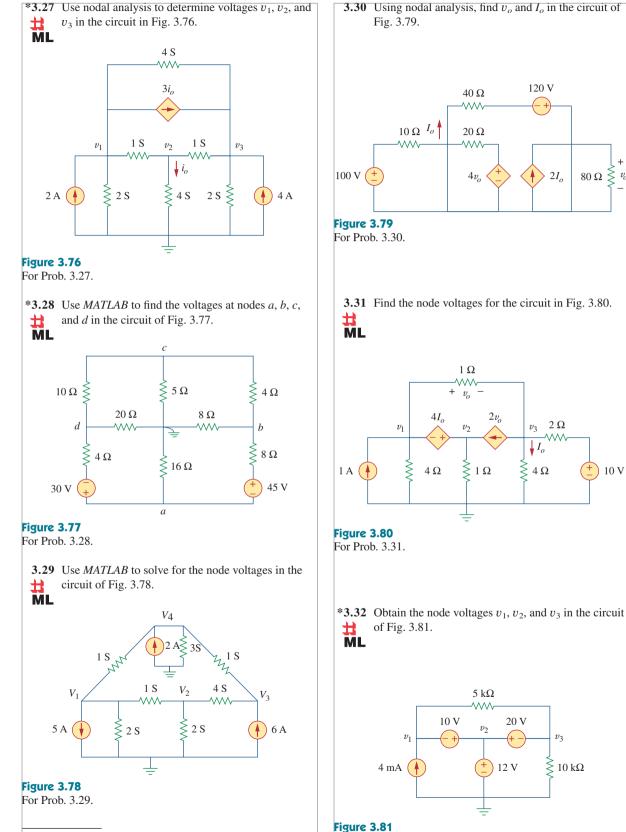
 v_3

≤ 10 kΩ

10 V

 v_3

 4Ω

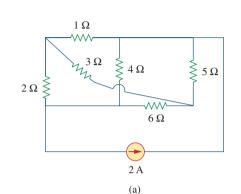


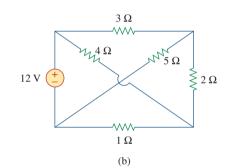
* An asterisk indicates a challenging problem.



Sections 3.4 and 3.5 Mesh Analysis

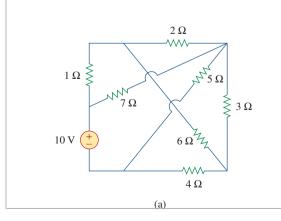
3.33 Which of the circuits in Fig. 3.82 is planar? For the planar circuit, redraw the circuits with no crossing branches.

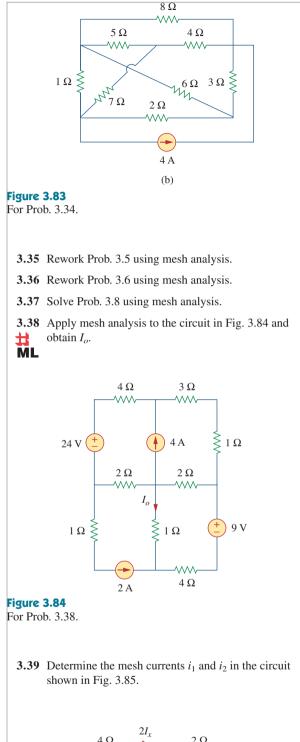


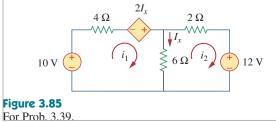


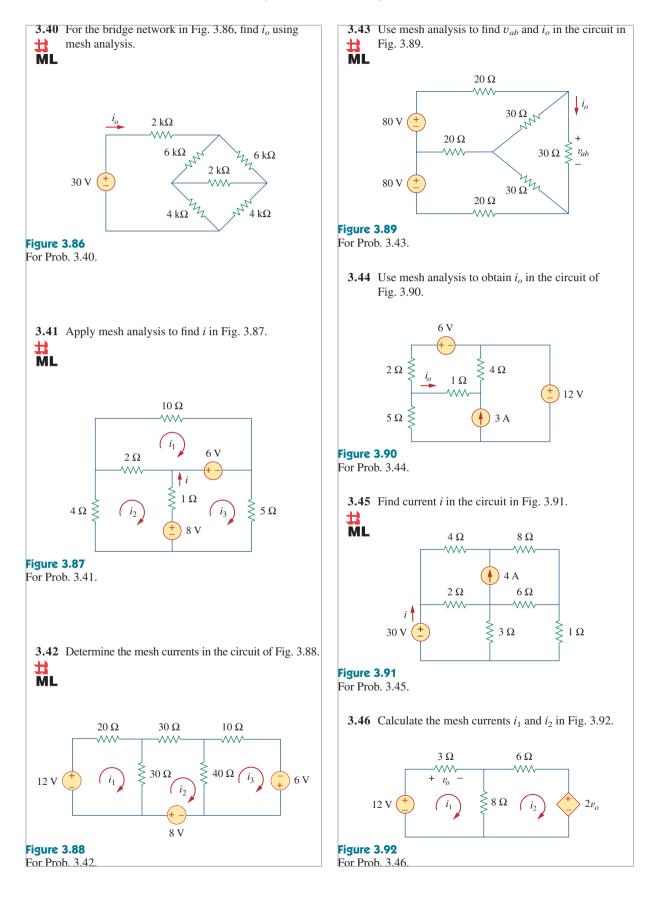


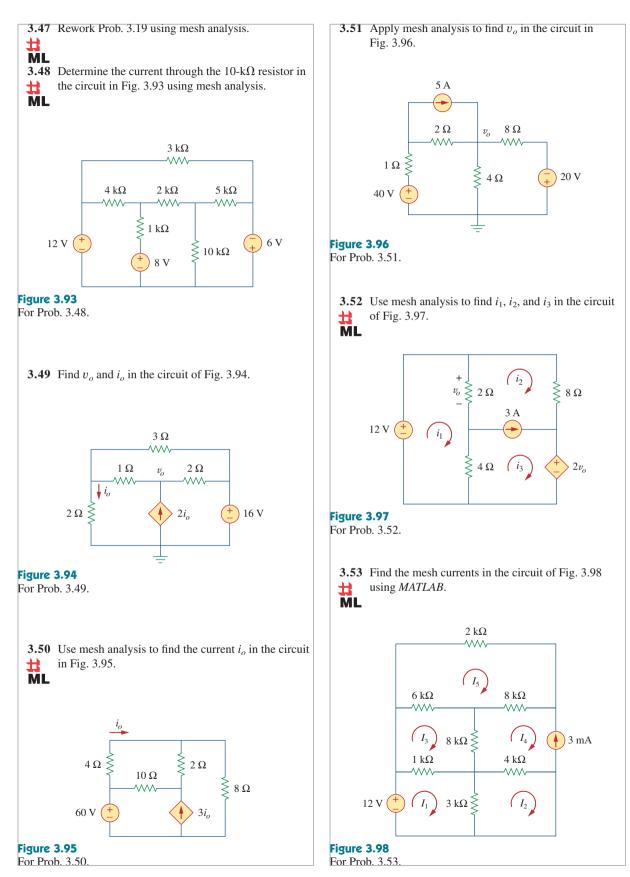
3.34 Determine which of the circuits in Fig. 3.83 is planar and redraw it with no crossing branches.











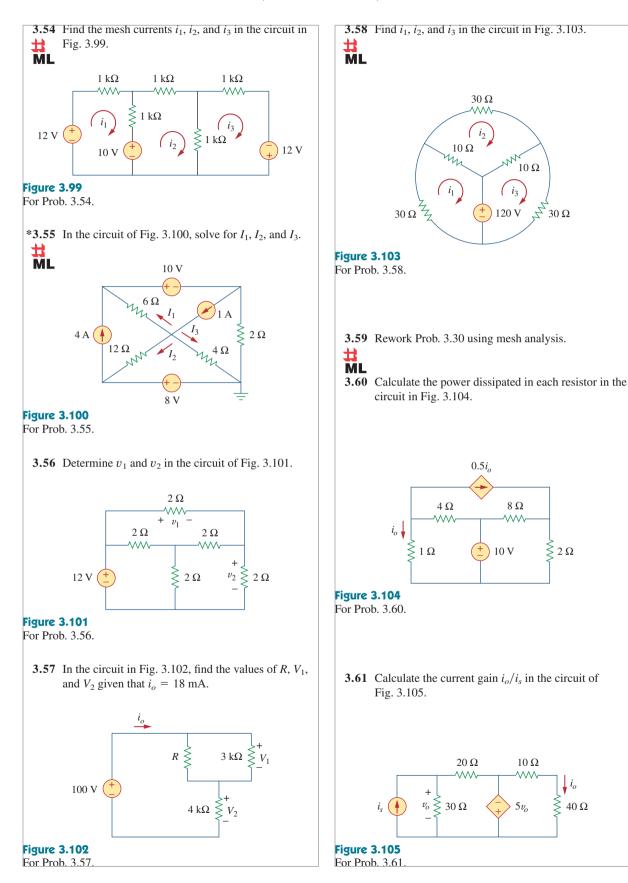
7

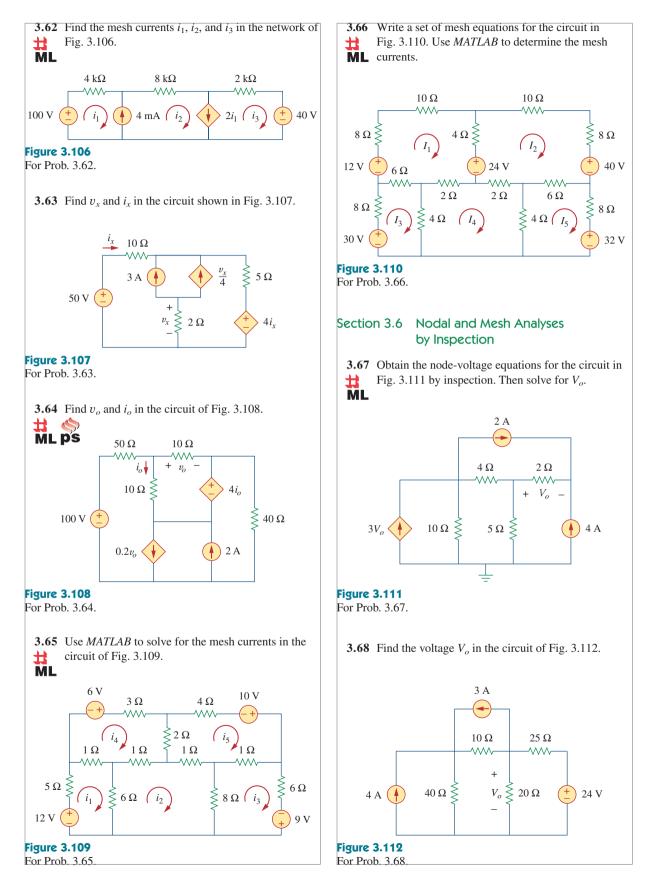
30 Ω

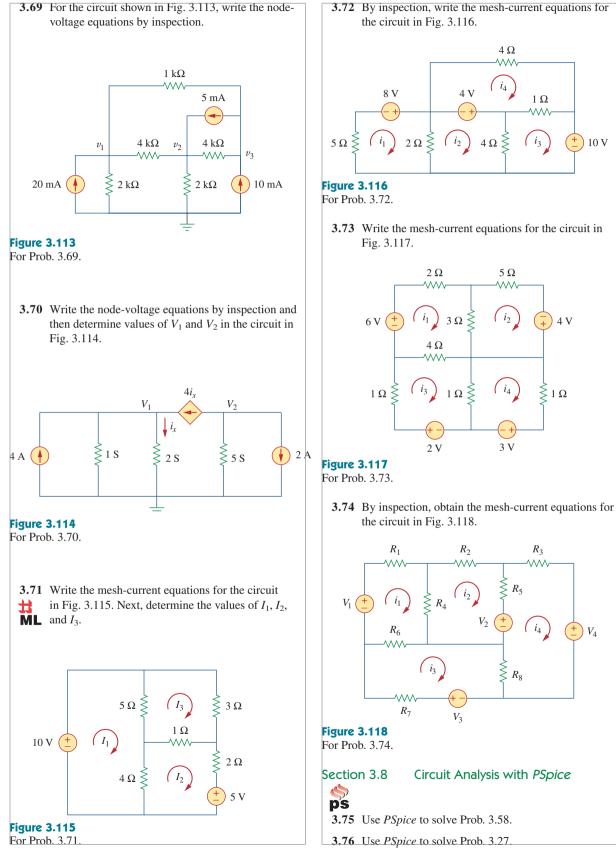
≥2Ω

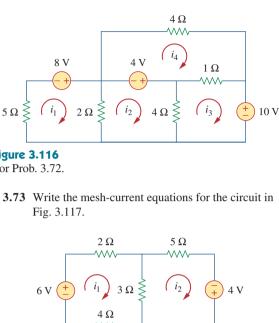
i_o

≶ 40Ω









1Ω

 R_2

 i_2

 V_3

 V_2

≤ 1 Ω

 R_3

+ V_4

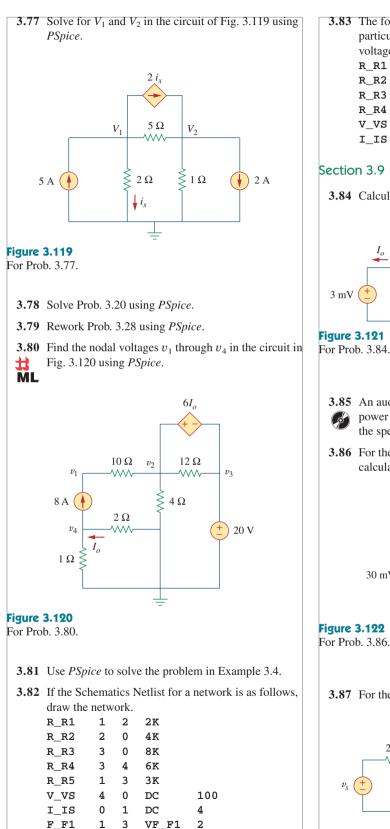
3 V

≶

 R_5

 R_8





5 0

3 2 1

VF_F1

<u>E_E1</u>

0V

3

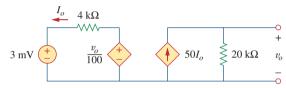
3

3.83 The following program is the Schematics Netlist of a particular circuit. Draw the circuit and determine the voltage at node 2.

R_R1	1	2	20	
R_R2	2	0	50	
R_R3	2	3	70	
R_R4	3	0	30	
v_vs	1	0	20V	
I_IS	2	0	DC	2A

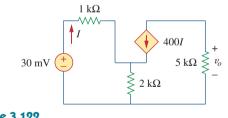
Section 3.9 Applications

3.84 Calculate v_{ρ} and I_{ρ} in the circuit of Fig. 3.121.



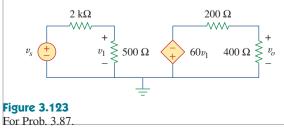


- **3.85** An audio amplifier with a resistance of 9 Ω supplies power to a speaker. What should be the resistance of the speaker for maximum power to be delivered?
- **3.86** For the simplified transistor circuit of Fig. 3.122, calculate the voltage v_{o} .



For Prob. 3.86.

3.87 For the circuit in Fig. 3.123, find the gain v_o/v_s .



125

+ 9 V

