A linear circuit is a circuit made up of linear dipoles (resistor, capacitor, coil, voltage and/or current generator). In this chapter, we give simple laws to simply determine the intensity and/or voltage across any dipole in a circuit operating in a DC circuit, knowing the characteristics of the dipoles constituting it.

# 1. Definitions

## 1.1. Dipole

A dipole is a circuit accessible by two terminals A and B, it can be characterized by a current i that passes through it and the voltage u, between its terminals.



i : electric current flowing from A to B, expressed in Ampere (A).

 $u_{AB} = u_A - u_B$ : voltage (potential difference) between A and B, expressed in volts (V).

• The characteristic of a dipole is the relation between you and i, it is written in the form u (i).

• The direction of current flow can be:  $i_{AB}$  or  $i_{BA}$ , with  $i_{AB} = -i_{BA}$ .

• A dipole can be a receiver or a generator :

Receiver	The current and voltage arrows are in reverse directions.	$A \xleftarrow{i} B$
Generator	The current and voltage arrows are in the same direction	$A \leftarrow \underbrace{i}_{u_{AB}} \bullet B$

# **1.2. Electrical Regimes**

A linear electrical circuit is powered by generators. There are two types of continuous and alternative sources (generators):

• Direct (static) regime: Electrical quantities (voltages and currents) are time-invariant.

• Variable speed (dynamic): electrical quantities evolve over time, the sources are said to be alternative.

# 1.3. Direct voltage and current generators

# **1.3.1. Ideal Voltage Generator**

A direct voltage generator (source) is a dipole capable of imposing a constant voltage across its terminals regardless of the intensity of the current flowing through it. Its two representations are :

E: is the electromotive force of the generator (emf).



# 1.3.2. Ideal power generator

Such a generator delivers a current, known as a short-circuit current, independent of the voltage present at its terminals. Its two representations are :



# 1.3.3. Real (ohmic) voltage generator

In reality, generators are not perfect and it is considered that a model closer to reality is to associate an ideal voltage generator in series with a resistor. This resistance is called the "internal resistance" of the generator.



The equation of the characteristic: u = E - r i.

- E : is the electromotive force of the generator (emf).
- r : Internal resistance.

## **1.3.4. Real Current Generator (Ohmic)**

In this case, an ideal current generator in parallel is combined with a resistor.



The equation of the characteristic of the real current generator is:  $i = ig - u/\rho$ 

## **1.3.5. Electrical power (Adaptation)**

The electrical power supplied by a generator (E, r), at a resistive load R, is expressed by :

$$P(R) = Ri^2$$
 avec  $i = E/(R+r) \Longrightarrow P(R) = E^2 \cdot R/(R+r)^2$ .

P(R) is maximum, if  $\partial P(R)/\partial R = 0$ , hence R = r and  $P(R)max = E^2/4.r$ .

A generator delivers a maximum power in a resistive load (resistance) R, when this is equal to its internal resistance r (R = r). In this case, the generator is said to be suitable for the load.

## 2.1. Linear power grid

A linear electrical network is a combination of passive elements (resistors, capacitors, and inductors) and active elements (voltage and current generators), connected to each other by conductors that are assumed to be resistance-free (perfect).

- A node of a network is a point in the circuit where at least three conductors end (A, B, C..)
- A branch of the network is a portion of a circuit, located between two consecutive nodes (AC, AD, CB, ...)
- A mesh is a closed loop bounded by branches of the electrical grid (ACDA), (CBDC).



# 2.2. Linear passive dipoles

Three passive dipoles are commonly used in electrical circuits.

Passive dipole	Basic Law	Representation	In continuous mode
. Resistor $R(\Omega)$	U(t) = R.i(t)	i(t) R	I and u are constant
. Conductance G=1/R	I(t) = Gu(t)		U=RI
(S) [Siemens : $(\Omega^{-1})$ ]	Ohm's Law	u(t)	$P(t) = UI = RI^2 = U^2/R$
.Capacitor C ability	$\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{C}.\mathbf{d}\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{t})/\mathbf{d}\mathbf{t}$	С	u is constant and i is zero
(F:Farad)		$\underbrace{\overset{i(t)}{\longleftarrow}}_{u(t)}$	The capacitor is an open switch
. Inductance	$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{L}.\mathbf{d}\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{t})/\mathbf{d}\mathbf{t}$	i(t) L	i is constant and u is zero
L : Coil inductance (H : Henry).		$\xrightarrow{\mathbf{u}(t)} \underbrace{\mathbf{u}(t)}_{\mathbf{u}(t)}$	. The perfect coil is equivalent to a thread

# 2.3. Groupement des dipôles passifs

Dipole	Serial grouping	Parallel grouping
Resistor	$R_{eq} = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots$	$R_{1}$ $R_{2}$ $R_{3}$ $R_{3}$ $R_{4} = \frac{1}{R_{1}} + \frac{1}{R_{2}} + \frac{1}{R_{3}} + \dots$ $G_{eq} = G_{1} + G_{2} + G_{3} + \dots$
Capacitor	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$C_{1}$ $C_{2}$ $C_{3}$ $C_{eq} = C_{1} + C_{2} + C_{3} + \dots$
inductance	Inductances follow the same association rules as resistances, provided that there is no coupling between them.	

## 2.4. Kirchhoff's Laws

## 2.4.1. Kirchhoff's Law of Nodes

Kirchhoff's first law is the law of knots: The sum of the intensities of the currents entering a node is equal to the sum of the intensities of the currents leaving it (no charge accumulation).

$$I1 + I2 = I3 + I4 + I5$$



#### 2.4.2. Kirchhoff's Law of Mesh

Kirchhoff's second law states: The algebraic sum of potential differences (or tension) along any lattice is zero:

$$U_{1}-U_{2}-U_{3}+U_{4}=0$$



All the voltages Ui are oriented according to the direction of travel on the mesh.

#### 2.5. Fundamental theorems

#### 2.5.1. Voltage divider bridge

• The diagram of a voltage divider bridge is given in the following figure :



• This is a direct application of the series of two resistors :

$$E = U1+U2 = I.R1+I.R2$$
, where from  $U2 = (R2/(R1+R2)).E$ 

• Generally speaking, the voltage across a resistor placed in a circuit with n resistors in series, powered by a voltage source E is :

$$U_1 = (R_1/(R_1+R_2+R_3+...R_n)).E$$

#### 2.5.2. Current divider bridge

• The diagram of a current divider bridge is given in the following figure (resistors in parallel) :



• Let us call U the potential difference that lies at the terminals of the different elements in parallel, we obtain :

 $U = R_2.I_2 = ((R_1.R_2)/(R_1+R_2))..I$ , where from  $I_2 = (R_1/(R_1+R_2)).I$ 

• If we now divide the numerator and the denominator by the product (R1. R2), we obtain the following relationship :

$$I_2 = (G_2/(G_1+G_2)).I$$

• Generally speaking, the current flowing through a resistor Ri placed in a circuit with n resistors in parallel, fed by an ideal source of current I, is :

$$I_i = (G_i/(G_1+G_2+G_3+....G_n)).I$$

#### 2.5.3. Superposition theorem

For example, let's take the following figure (circuit powered by two independent sources) :



• assembly 1: the current source Ig being neutralized, the generator (E, r) flows a current I1 into the branch AB of the circuit: ( )

$$I_1 = (E/(R+r))$$

• assembly 2: the generator (E, r) being neutralized (replaced by its internal resistor), the current source activated alone. The current in the resistor R would be  $I_2$ :

$$I_2 = (r/(r+R))I_g$$

The current I in the AB branch due to the contribution of the two sources will be:  $I = I_1 + I_2$ 

$$I = I_1 + I_2 ((E + rIg)/(r + R))$$

## 2.5.4. Théorèmes de Thévenin et de Norton

## 2.5.4.1. Théorème de Thévenin

It is possible to replace a portion of the linear electrical network, considered between two terminals A and B, by a voltage generator, known as a "Thévenin generator", with the following characteristics:

- Its internal resistance RTh is the equivalent resistance between terminals A and B when each independent generator is passivated (replaced by its internal resistance).

- Its emf ETh is the voltage measured between A and B at no load (the dipole is not connected to other external elements. Let's take for example the assembly of the following figure:



- The RTh resistance is obtained by passivating the voltage source E:

$$R_{Th} = (R1//R2) = ((R1.R2)/(R1+R2)).$$

-The voltage  $E_{Th}$  is the voltage obtained between A and B (voltage across  $R_2$ ):

$$E_{th} = (R_2 = (R_1 + R_2)).E.$$

## 2.5.4.2. Norton's Theorem

It is possible to replace a portion of the electrical network, considered between two terminals A and B, by a current generator, known as a "Norton generator", having the following characteristics:

- Its internal resistance  $R_{\rm N}$  is the Northon resistance.

- Its current  $I_N$  is equal to the short-circuit current when points A and B are connected by a wire.

Let's take for example the assembly of the following figure :



- The resistance  $R_{\rm N}$  is obtained by passivating the voltage source E :

$$R_N = ((R_1.R_2)/(R_1+R_2))$$

- The current  $I_{\rm N}$  is the current obtained by shorting the resistor  $R_2$  :

$$I_N = E/R_1$$

Note: Switching from the model of a Thévenin generator to that of a Norton generator leads to finding :

$$R_{\rm N}=R_{\rm TH},\,I_{\rm N}=E_{\rm TH}/R_{\rm TH}$$

#### 2.5.5. Association of Voltage Generators in Series

The dipole equivalent to the association in series of n generators of internal resistance voltage  $r_k$  and electromotive force  $E_k$  is a single voltage generator, including:

- the equivalent resistance is  $r_{eq} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} r_k$ 

- the equivalent electromotive force is  $E_{eq} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} E_k$ 

## 2.5.6. Parallel Power Generator Association

The dipole equivalent to the parallel association of n generators of current generators of internal resistors rk and current Ik is a single current generator, of which :

- the equivalent conductance is :  $G_{eq} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} G_k$ 

- the equivalent current is equal to :  $I_{eq} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} I_k$ 

#### 2.5.7. Millman's theorems

- Millman's theorem, also known as the "knot theorem", allows us to determine the potential of a node where branches composed of a real voltage generator end.



- The proof of this theorem consists in transforming each branch into a current generator :

 $I_i = E_i \! / \! r_i = G_i E_i$ 

The resulting current  $(I = \sum_i I_i)$  circulates in the resistance equivalent to all the resistors in

parallel  $(I = \sum_{i} I_i)$ . The voltage U is therefore written as  $U = \frac{I}{G} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} G_i E_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} G_i}$