(DC) Circuits

- 1. Resistors in a circuit (serial and parallel connections).
- 2. The Direct Current (DC) and the Alternating Current (AC) circuits.
- 3. How to model a battery in a circuit.
- 4. Circuits with 2 or more batteries Kirchhoff's Rules
- 5. The *RC* circuit (your low- or high- pass filter in EE, and the drive in MOS transistors): when we have *R* and *C* together.

Review

The current is defined as: $I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$

Its unit is ampere (A), a base unit in the SI system.

Its relationship with the $I = \int \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$ or: $J \equiv dI / dA$ current density *J* is:

Ohm's Law:
$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}$$

Here σ is the conductivity of the material.

The resistivity is defined as $\rho \equiv 1/\sigma$, and is a more commonly used material parameter which linearly depends on temperature:

$$\rho = \rho_0 \Big[1 + \alpha \Big(T - T_0 \Big) \Big]$$

The definition of $R = \frac{\Delta V}{I}$ resistance (Ohm's Law):

Its relationship Its relationship with material and $R \equiv \rho \frac{l}{A}$ shape:





Resistors in Series and in Parallel



Resistor connections



 $R_{eq} = \frac{\Delta V}{I} = \frac{\Delta V_1 + \Delta V_2}{I} = \frac{\Delta V_1}{I_1} + \frac{\Delta V_2}{I_2} = R_1 + R_2$



In parallel. Condition: Result: $I = I_1 + I_2$ $\Delta V = \Delta V_1 = \Delta V_2$

 $\frac{1}{R_{eq}} = \frac{I}{\Delta V} = \frac{I_1 + I_2}{\Delta V} = \frac{I_1}{\Delta V_1} + \frac{I_2}{\Delta V_2} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \qquad I$



Resistor connections

In series, voltage sharing

power sharing

$$\therefore I = I_1 = I_2$$

$$\frac{\Delta V_1}{\Delta V_2} = \frac{R_1}{R_2}$$

$$\frac{P_1}{P_2} = \frac{R_1}{R_2}$$

$$I = I_1 = I_2$$

$$AV_1 = I_2$$

$$AV_1 = \Delta V_2$$

In parallel, current sharing

power sharing

Resistors connections, summary

In series

• In parallel

$$I = I_{1} = I_{2} = I_{3} = \dots$$

$$R_{eq} = R_{1} + R_{2} + R_{3} + \dots$$

$$\Delta V_{1}: \Delta V_{2}: \Delta V_{3}: \dots = R_{1}: R_{2}: R_{3}: \dots$$

$$P_{1}: P_{2}: P_{3}: \dots = R_{1}: R_{2}: R_{3}: \dots$$

$$\Delta V = \Delta V_1 = \Delta V_2 = \Delta V_3 = \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{R_{eq}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots$$

$$I_1 R_1 = I_2 R_2 = I_3 R_3 = \dots$$

$$P_1 R_1 = P_2 R_2 = P_3 R_3 = \dots$$

Combinations of Resistors

- The 8.0- Ω and 4.0- Ω resistors are in series and can be replaced with their equivalent, 12.0 Ω
- The 6.0-Ω and 3.0-Ω resistors are in parallel and can be replaced with their equivalent, 2.0 Ω
- These equivalent resistances are in series and can be replaced with their equivalent resistance, 14.0 Ω



More examples



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Direct Current and Alternating Current

- When the current direction (not magnitude) in a circuit does not change with time, the current is called a direct current (DC).
 - constant current magnitude, like the one powered through a battery, is a common, but special case of DC.
- When the current direction (often also the magnitude) in a circuit changes with time, the current is called an alternating current (AC).
 - The current from the wall outlet is AC.
 - The current from your car's alternator is AC. Question: how to charge the battery with the alternator? Question: are you even interested in the first question?

Model of a battery

- Two parameters, electromotive force (emf), *ε*, and the internal resistance *r*, are used to model a battery.
- When a battery is connected in a circuit, the electric potential measured at its + and – terminals are called The terminal voltage ΔV, with

 $\Delta V = \varepsilon - Ir$

- If the internal resistance is zero (an ideal battery), the terminal voltage equals the emf *ɛ*.
- The internal resistance, *r*, does not change with external load resistance *R*, and this provides the way to measure the internal resistance.



load

Battery power figure

The power a battery generates (ex. thrgh chemical reactions):

$$P = \varepsilon \cdot I = (R + r) \cdot I^2$$

The power the battery delivers to the load, hence efficiency: $P_{\text{load}} = \Delta V \cdot I = R \cdot I^2$

efficiency=
$$\frac{P_{\text{load}}}{P} = \frac{R}{R+r}$$

The maximum power the battery can deliver to a load

From
$$P_{\text{load}} = R \cdot I^2$$
 and $\varepsilon = (R + r) \cdot I$ We have $P_{\text{load}} = \frac{R}{R + r} \varepsilon^2$

Where the emf $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}}$ is a constant once the battery is chosen.

From
$$\frac{dP_{\text{load}}}{dR} = \left(\frac{1}{\left(R+r\right)^2} - \frac{2R}{\left(R+r\right)^3}\right)\varepsilon^2 = 0$$

We get R = r to be the condition for maximum P_{load} , or power delivered to the load.



Battery power figure

One can also obtain this result from the plot of

$$P_{\text{load}} = \frac{R}{R+r}\varepsilon^2$$

Where when R = r

 $P_{\rm load}$ reaches the maximum value The efficiency of the battery at this point is 50% because

efficiency=
$$\frac{P_{\text{load}}}{P} = \frac{R}{R+r}$$



circuits with 2+ batteries: Kirchhoff's Rules

- A typical circuit that goes beyond simplifications with the parallel and series formulas: ask for the current in the diagram.
- Kirchhoff's rules can be used to solve problems like this.



Rule 1: Kirchhoff's Junction Rule

- Junction Rule, from charge conservation:
 - The sum of the currents at any junction must equal zero
 - Mathematically:

1

$$\sum_{\text{unction}} I = 0$$

• The example on the left figure:

$$I_1 - I_2 - I_3 = 0$$



Rule 2: Kirchhoff's Loop Rule

- Choose your loop
- Loop Rule, from energy conservation:
 - The sum of the potential differences across all elements around any closed circuit loop must be zero
 - Mathematically:

$$\sum \Delta V = 0$$

closed loop

 One needs to pay attention the sign (+ or -) of these potential changes, following the chosen loop direction.



Remember two things:

- A battery supplies power. Potential rises from the "–" terminal to "+" terminal.
- 2. Current follows the direction of electric field, hence the decrease of potential.

Kirchhoff's rules Strict steps in solving a problem

Step 1: choose and mark the loop.

Step 2: choose and markcurrent directions. Mark thepotential change on resistors.Step 3: apply junction rule:

$$I_1 + I_2 - I_3 = 0$$

Step 4: apply loop rule:

L1:
$$+2.00I_3 - 12.0 + 4.00I_2 = 0$$

$$L2: -8.00 - 2.00I_3 - 6.00I_1 = 0$$

Step 5: solve the three equations for the three variables.



One more example

Step 1: choose and mark the loop.

Step 2: choose and mark current directions. Mark the potential change on resistors.Step 3: apply junction rule:

 $I_1 + I_2 - I_3 = 0$

Step 4: apply loop rule:

L1:
$$+6.0I_1 - 10.0 - 4.0I_2 - 14.0 = 0$$

L2: $-2.0I_3 + 10.0 - 6.0I_1 = 0$

Step 5: solve the three equations for the three variables.



RC Circuits, solve with Kirchhoff's rules

- When a circuit contains a resistor and a capacitor connected in series, the circuit is called a RC circuit.
- Current in RC circuit is DC, but the current magnitude changes with time.
- There are two cases: charging (b) and discharging (c).



Charging a Capacitor

When the switch turns to position *a*, current starts to flow and the capacitor starts to charge.

Kirchhoff's rule says:

q

$$\varepsilon - \Delta V_c - \Delta V_R = 0$$

Re-write the equation in terms of the charge q in C and the current I, and then only the variable q:

$$\varepsilon - \frac{q}{C} - RI = 0$$
 and then $\varepsilon - \frac{q}{C} - R\frac{dq}{dt} = 0$
Solve for q: The current *I* is
 $(t) = C\varepsilon \left(1 - e^{\frac{-t}{RC}}\right) \qquad I(t) = \frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{\varepsilon}{R}e^{\frac{-t}{RC}}$



Here *RC* has the unit of time *t*, and is called the time constant.

Charging a Capacitor, graphic presentation

• The charge on the capacitor varies with time

•
$$q(t) = C\mathcal{E}(1 - e^{-t/RC})$$

= $Q(1 - e^{-t/RC})$

 The current decrease with time

$$I(t) = \frac{\varepsilon}{R} e^{-t/RC}$$

τ is the *time constant*τ = RC



Discharging a Capacitor

When the switch turns to position b, after the capacitor is fully charged to Q, current starts to flow and the capacitor starts to discharge.

Kirchhoff's rule says:

 $\Delta V_c - \Delta V_R = 0$

Re-write the equation in terms of the charge *q* in C and the current *I*, and then only the variable *q*:

$$\frac{q}{C} - RI = 0 \text{ and then } \frac{q}{C} - R\frac{-dq}{dt} = 0$$

Solve for q: The current I is
$$q(t) = Qe^{\frac{-t}{RC}} \qquad I(t) = -\frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{Q}{RC}e^{\frac{-t}{RC}}$$



Connections to EE



Reading material and Homework assignment

Please watch this video (about 50 minutes each): http://videolectures.net/mit802s02_lewin_lec10/

Please check wileyplus webpage for homework assignment.