Basic Fundamentals

- *Charge* (q):
 - Elementary charge particle: *electron*
 - Has a negative charge of magnitude $q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19}$ Coulomb (C)
- *Voltage* (V) (also referred to as *potential*):
 - Work done (or energy spent) to move a unit charge between two points
 - (work done)/(unit charge) \Rightarrow 1 V = 1 J/1 C
 - Also, known as the *potential difference* (p.d.)
 between two points, expressed in Volt

- For charges to flow between two points in a closed circuit, a p.d. must exist between these two points
- Scalar quantity: always measured with respect to some reference
 - If the reference is not explicitly specified, then it is taken to be *ground* (zero volt)
 - Example:
 - V_A potential of point A with respect to ground
 - V_{AB} potential of point A with respect to potential of point B
- All circuits must have a *reference* point
 - If the reference point is not explicitly shown, then any node can be taken as a reference point

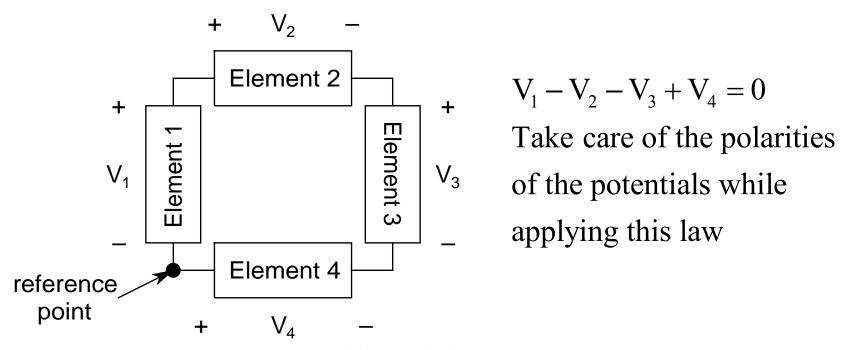
• Actual Ground and Reference Ground:

- Ground provides a return path for the current
- Earth is considered to be an infinite source/sink of charge
 - **Zero resistance** => can absorb unlimited amount of current without changing its potential
- Power supply in your homes have a ground connection, so does all big electrical and electronic appliances
 - 3-pin plugs: Live, Neutral, and Ground
 - 2-pin: Only Live and Neutral (floating ground)
- Lightning arrester is a classic example of an actual ground

- Small and portable appliances (cell-phones, ipods, etc.) do not have actual ground
 - They have something known as *floating ground* (also referred to as *chassis ground*)
 - Typically a metal plate running at the periphery of the PCB
- Floating ground apparatus are dangerous, since they may give electric shocks
- Another example is electrostatic discharge
 (lightning is also an electrostatic discharge)
 - On a dry day, we may get shock upon touching a metal object (like door-knob) => electrostatic discharge
- The equipments that you will be using in the lab will all have actual ground

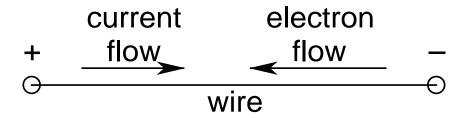
• Kirchhoff's Voltage Law:

- Net voltage around a closed circuit must be zero
- Origin: Law of energy conservation:
 - Total energy generated in a circuit must equal total energy dissipated in the circuit



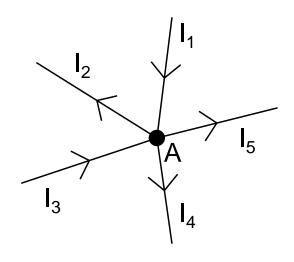
• *Current* (I):

- Measure of charge transport
- Defined as incremental charge change with respect to incremental time change
- Expressed as: $i = \Delta q/\Delta t$ (Coulomb/sec = Ampere)
- In the limit, as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, i = dq/dt (differential form)
- If dq/dt is constant => direct current (dc)
- If dq/dt exists => alternating current (ac)
- Note: 1 A of current implies about 10¹⁹ electrons flowing per second through a cross-sectional area



- By convention, positive direction of current is defined as the direction of flow of positive charges
 - Electrons flow opposite to the direction of current flow
- Electrons always move from lower potential to higher potential (attractive for them)
 - Actual flow of current from higher potential to lower potential

- For current to flow, the circuit must be closed
- Kirchhoff's Current Law (KCL):
 - Sum of currents at a node must be zero
 - Origin: Law of charge conservation:
 - In a closed circuit, no charge is lost
- States that:
 - the sum of currents
 flowing into a node
 must equal the sum
 of currents flowing
 out of the node



At node A: $I_1 + I_3 = I_2 + I_4 + I_5$

• *Power* (P):

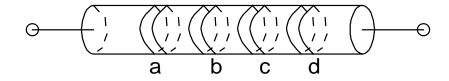
- Defined as work done per unit time
- Thus, P = (work done)/(unit charge) x (unit charge)/(unit time) = voltage × current = VI
- Unit of P is Joules/sec or Watt (W)
- In an element, if the current flows from:
 - lower to higher potential, then that element is generating power
 - higher to lower potential, then that element is absorbing or dissipating power
- Within an electric circuit, the total power
 generated must equal the total power dissipated

• Ohm's Law, Resistance, & Conductance:

- Fundamental principle of electric circuit
- Relates the current (I) that flows through a resistor under an applied p.d. of V
- -V = IR, with R being the resistance of the resistor
- Thus, resistors are *linear* elements
- Alternate form: I = GV, with G being the conductance of the resistor
- Note that G = 1/R
- Current always flows from higher to lower potential
- The unit of resistance is Ohm (Ω) , while that of conductance is Mho (\mathfrak{T})

• Resistance (R):

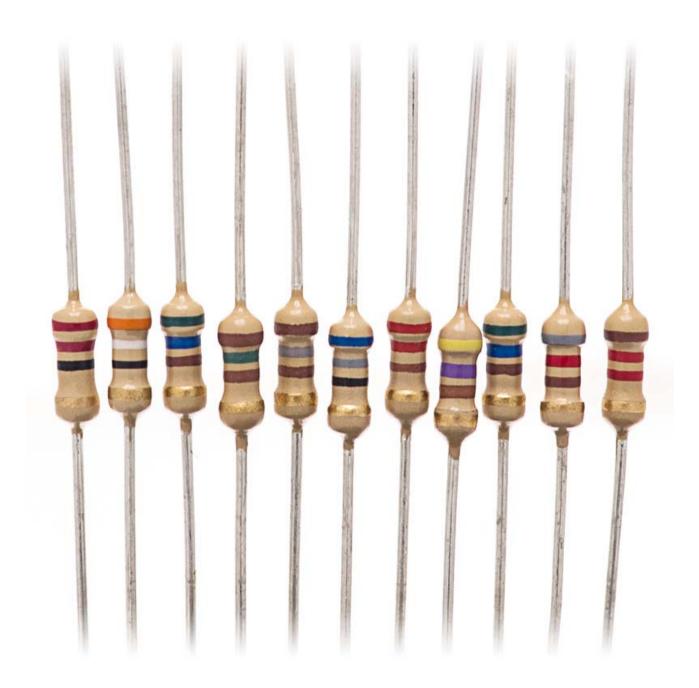
- Typically cylindrical, having length 1 and radius r, with cross-sectional area $A = \pi r^2$
- Expressed as: $R = \rho l/A$, where $\rho = resistivity$ $(\Omega-cm) = 1/\sigma$, with $\sigma = conductivity$ $(\Omega-cm)^{-1}$
- Usually, nichrome wires wound around a base
 with an insulating material, bonded with resin



- Resistor value: $R = ab \times 10^c \pm d\%$

• Resistor Color Code:

- B B Roy of Great Britain has a Very Good Wife
- BBROYGBVGW: Black (0), Brown (1), Red
 (2), Orange (3), Yellow (4), Green (5), Blue (6),
 Violet (7), Gray (8), White (9)
- Band d is tolerance band: Violet 0.1%, Blue 0.25%, Green 0.5%, Brown 1%, Red 2%, Gold 5%, Silver 10%, None 20%
- Example: brown black brown gold 100 Ω with $\pm 5\%$ tolerance, blue gray yellow 680 k Ω with $\pm 20\%$ tolerance

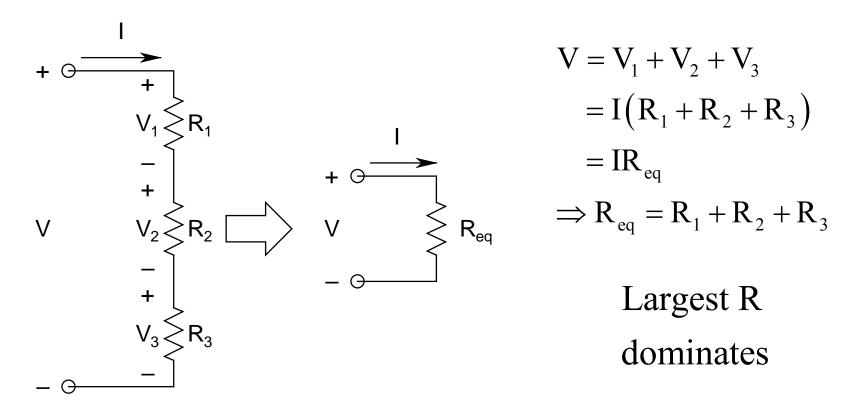


• Resistor Temperature & Power Ratings:

- Power dissipated in a resistor = $VI = V^2/R = I^2R$
- Causes a rise in temperature of the resistor due to *Joule heating*
- Causes a change in the resistor value,
 determined by its *temperature coefficient* (TCF)
- $TCF = \alpha = (1/R)(dR/dT)$, expressed in /K or /°C
- $-R = R_{nom}[1 + \alpha(T T_{nom})]$, where T_{nom} is the nominal temperature, and R_{nom} is the value of the resistance at T_{nom}

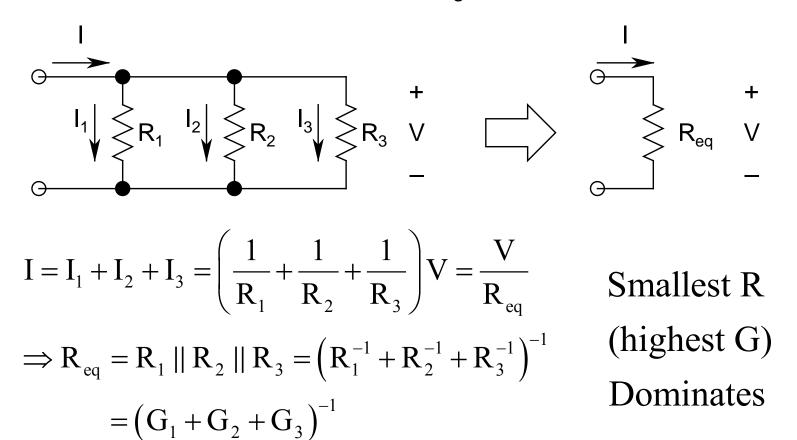
- Resistors should be able to effectively dissipate the generated heat, otherwise, they may burn out
- Resistors have safe power ratings
- Common power ratings: 1/8 W, 1/4 W, 1/2 W,1 W, and 2 W
- Resistors having power rating of more than 2
 W are referred to as *high-power resistors*
- In power electronics applications, the power rating of resistors may even be kW or more

• Series Combination of Resistors:



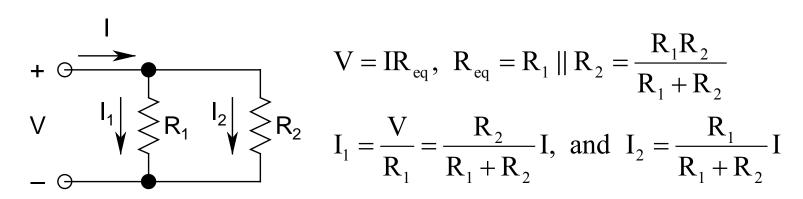
• Note that all resistors are dissipating power, supplied by the source \Rightarrow VI = I^2R_{eq}

• Parallel Combination of Resistors:



• Note: Resistances in parallel is equivalent to conductances in series

• Current Branching between Two Parallel Resistors:



- Extremely important relation
 - If $R_2 >> R_1$, then $I_1 \approx I$, and $I_2 \approx 0$
 - If $R_1 >> R_2$, then $I_2 \approx I$, and $I_1 \approx 0$
 - If $R_1 = R_2$, then $I_1 = I_2 = I/2$ (equal split)
- The larger resistor carrier lesser current, since the voltage drop across both of them is same

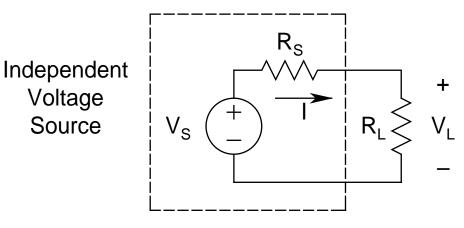
• Sources:

- Elements that supply power (or energy)
- Voltage and Current
- Independent and Dependent

• Notational Convention (IEEE Standard):

- Capital letter with capital suffix pure DC
 - Example: V_S
- Small-case letter with small-case suffix pure ac
 - Example: i_a
- Capital letter with small-case suffix, or small-case letter with capital suffix instantaneous
 - $\bullet \ Example: \ I_s \ or \ v_{Aloke \ Dutta/EE/IIT \ Kanpur}$

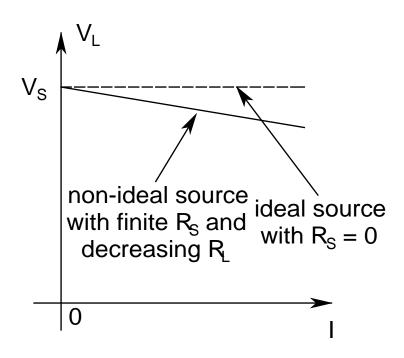
• Independent Voltage Source:



V_S: Rated Voltage R_S: Series Resistance of Source

R_L: Load Resistance

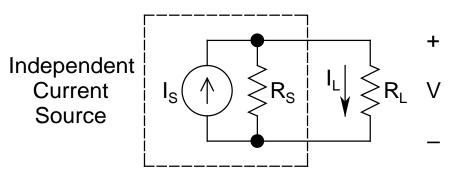
V_L: Load Voltage



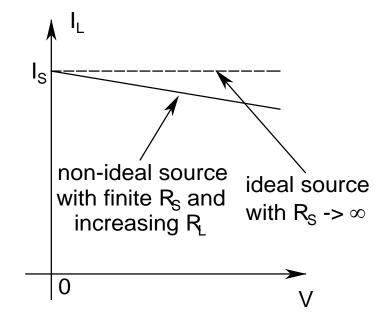
$$I = \frac{V_S}{R_S + R_L}, V_L = IR_L = \frac{R_L}{R_S + R_L} V_S$$

- For $V_L = V_S$, R_S must be zero an important requirement for a good voltage source
 - Known as *Ideal Voltage Source* => *lossless*
- For finite R_S, V_L will drop with decreasing R_L
 - Known as *loading effect*
- Practical voltage sources have series resistance of the order of a few $k\Omega$
- For well designed sources, it may be less than 100Ω
- Effect of loading becomes more and more pronounced as R_L and R_S start to become comparable

• Independent Current Source:



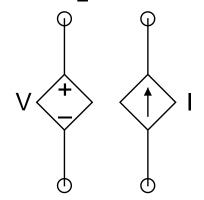
I_S: Rated Current
R_S: Shunt Resistance of Source
R_L: Load Resistance
I_L: Load Current



$$I_{L} = \frac{R_{S}}{R_{S} + R_{L}} I_{S}, \quad V = I_{L} R_{L} = \frac{R_{S} R_{L}}{R_{S} + R_{L}} I_{S}$$

- For $I_L = I_S$, R_S must be infinite an important requirement for a good current source
 - Known as *Ideal Current Source* => *lossless*
- For finite R_S, I_L will drop with increasing R_L
 - Known as *loading effect*
- Practical current sources have shunt resistance of the order of a few hundreds of $k\Omega$
- For well designed sources, it may be even greater than 1 $M\Omega$
- Effect of loading becomes more and more pronounced as R_L and R_S start to become comparable

• Dependent (or Controlled) Sources:



Source voltage (current) dependent on another voltage (current) somewhere else in the circuit

Note the diamond shape, which distinguishes these from independent sources (round)

- Four possibilites:
 - VCVS (Voltage-Controlled Voltage Source)
 - $V = A_v V_x$, A_v : *voltage gain*, V_x : controlling voltage
 - *VCCS* (Voltage-Controlled Current Source)
 - $I = G_m V_x, G_m$: transconductance
 - *CCCS* (Current-Controlled Current Source)
 - $-I = A_i I_x$, A_i : *current gain*, I_x : controlling current
 - *CCVS* (Current-Controlled Voltage Source)

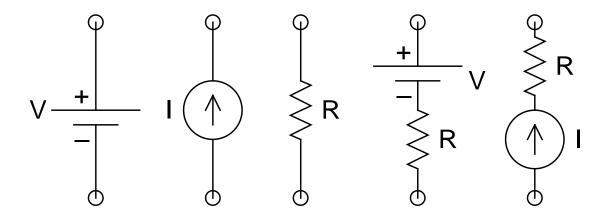
$$-V = R_m I_x$$
, R_m : *transresistance*
Aloke Dutta/EE/IIT Kanpur

• Electrical Network:

 Connection of elements to form a closed path through which current flows

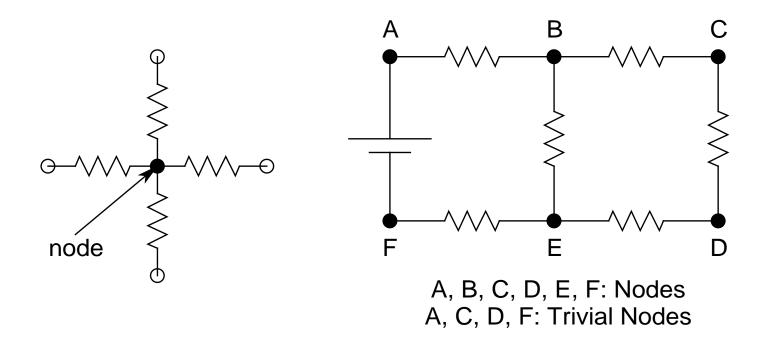
• Branch:

- Any portion of a circuit with two terminals connected to it
- May contain one or more circuit elements



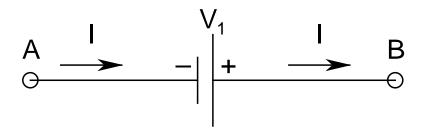
• *Node*:

- Junction point of two or more branches
- Junction point of only two branches is also known as *trivial node*



• Supernode:

- 2 nodes connected by a dc voltage source is denoted as a *supernode*
- Voltages at the two nodes of a supernode are not independent, e.g., $V_B = V_A + V_1$



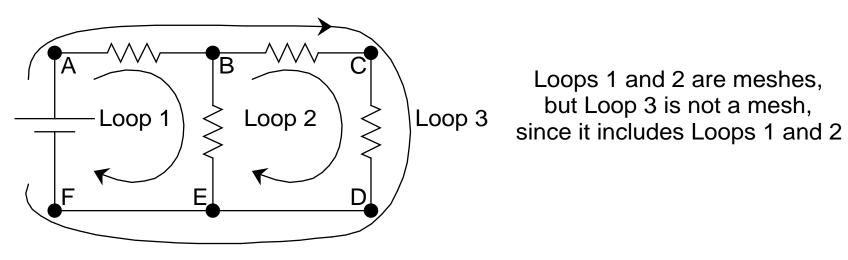
- Important condition for a supernode:
 - At any supernode, net current entering = net current leaving

• *Loop*:

- Closed connection of branches
- Different loops in the same circuit may include some of the same elements or branches

• *Mesh*:

A loop that does not contain other loops



• Measuring Instruments:

- Ohmmeter:
 - Measures the resistance of a resistor
 - The resistance is put across the two terminals of the instrument, which injects a small current (I) through the resistor, and measures the voltage (V) dropped across it => then R = V/I
 - The meter is calibrated to show the output in terms of the ohmic value of the resistor

- Voltmeter:

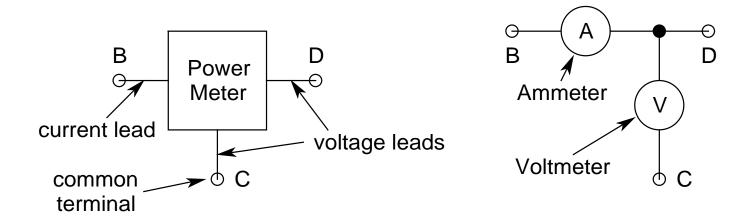
- Measures the voltage (or potential) dropped across any element in the circuit
- Always put in *parallel* to the two nodes across which the potential is to measured
- To prevent loading caused by this instrument, it has *extremely high resistance*
- Never put a voltmeter in series with any element in a circuit, since due to the high resistance of this instrument, that branch will immediately become open-circuited

- Ammeter:

- Measures the current flowing through any branch in a network
- Always put in *series* with the branch through which the current flow is to be measured
- To prevent loading caused by this instrument, it has negligible resistance
- Never put an ammeter in parallel with any element in a circuit, since due to the extremely small resistance of this instrument, a huge amount of current will flow through this instrument and burn it

- Wattmeter:

- Also known as *Power Meter*
- Measures the power consumed by a branch



• Involves both current (I) and voltage (V) measurements, and then performs a multiplication of the two in order to get the power