

ELECTRICITY 2

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Electric Current

SECTION 1

Current and Current Density

Electric charge in motion constitutes an electric current. In the steady flow of charge in a wire of cross-sectional area A , the total charge passing through this area in unit time is defined to be the electric current I at this place. If a total charge q flows through this area in time t , the current I is given by:

$$I = \frac{q}{t}. \quad (1.1)$$

where I is measured in Ampere. Sometimes it is also convenient to look at the density of the current we're observing over a certain area A called *current density*

$$J = \frac{I}{A}. \quad (1.2)$$

If the area in which the current is running through changes at points 1 and 2, the current between those 2 points remain constant ($I_1 = I_2$) while the current density changes to become

$$\frac{J_1}{J_2} = \frac{A_2}{A_1}.$$

If a positively charged cloud of n particles moves through a space with speed v and charge q , we find that¹

$$\vec{J} = nq\vec{v} = \rho_r\vec{v}. \quad (1.3)$$

The total current through a *slice* of space mentioned prior it calculated using

$$I = \iint_A \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}. \quad (1.4)$$

The volume element here is $\vec{v} dA dt = d\tau$

¹ q can be positive or negative

SECTION 2

Continuity Law

The continuity law for current is

$$\nabla \cdot (\vec{J} + \vec{J}_c) = -\frac{\partial \rho_r}{\partial t}. \quad (2.1)$$

Where

\vec{J} is the conduction current density.

$\vec{J}_c = \rho_\tau \vec{v}_\tau$ is the convection current density.

\vec{v}_τ is the velocity of the volume containing the particles.

There are 2 particular cases for the equation above

1. The volume is not moving ($\vec{v}_\tau = 0 \implies \vec{J}_c = 0$). The continuity law of static structures is

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{\partial \rho_\tau}{\partial t}. \quad (2.2)$$

2. The volume is not moving and we are in a steady state, so the charge density of the particles doesn't change much as they are static so $\partial \rho_\tau / \partial t = 0$ so

$$\oiint \vec{J} \, dA = 0. \quad (2.3)$$

Ohm's and Joule's Law

PART II

SECTION 3

Electrical Mobility and Conductivity

The velocity of a charge carrier in an electric field \vec{E} is

$$\vec{v} = \mu \vec{E}. \quad (3.1)$$

where μ is the mobility of the charge carrier.

The current density vector in a conductor with conductivity σ is said to be

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}. \quad (3.2)$$

Ohm's law (doesn't really need an introduction)

$$U = RI. \quad (3.3)$$

where we can find R using

$$R = \frac{\rho l}{A}. \quad (3.4)$$

where A is the surface area of the resistor and l is the length of the conductor².

$$^2 \sigma = \frac{1}{\rho}$$

SECTION 4

Resistance

The symbol of a resistive conductor is represented by



$$P = UI \quad (4.1)$$

$$W = Pt \quad (4.2)$$

Power loss due to Joule's law

$$P = I^2 R = \frac{U^2}{R} \quad (4.3)$$

$$W = I^2 R t \quad (4.4)$$

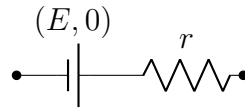
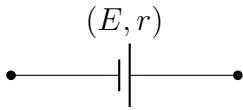
SECTION 5

Electric Circuits

SUBSECTION 5.1

Power Sources/Generators

A DC source is characterized by their electromotive force E and internal resistance r



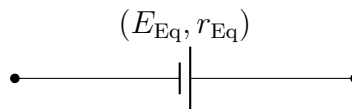
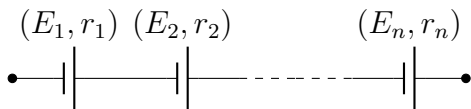
The voltage supplied by the source is

$$V_{\text{source}} = E - rI.$$

and it's efficiency is

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{rI}{E}.$$

5.1.1 In Series

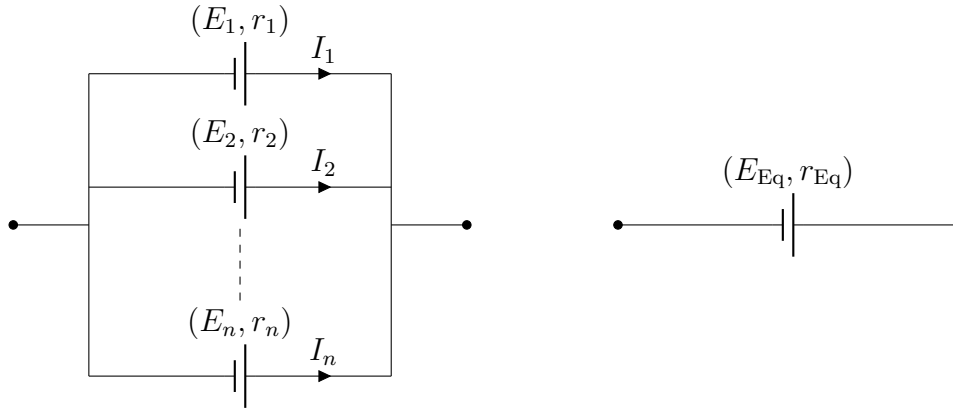


where

$$E_{\text{Eq}} = \sum_{i=1}^n E_i$$

$$r_{\text{Eq}} = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i$$

5.1.2 In Parallel



In case of *identical* sources:

$$I = \sum_{i=1}^n I_i$$

$$\frac{1}{r_{\text{Eq}}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{r_i}$$

and

$$V_{\text{source}} = E - r_{\text{Eq}} I.$$

SUBSECTION 5.2

Loads

An electrical load is an electrical component or portion of a circuit that consumes electric power. Electric loads are represented by a counter electromotive force e and internal resistance r' (with the exception of resistors)

All formulas for generators are the same as loads with the exception of the efficiency

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{r' I}{U}.$$

Circuits Analysis Techniques

PART III

Terminology:

Node A point where two or more circuit elements join.

Essential node A node where three or more circuit elements join.

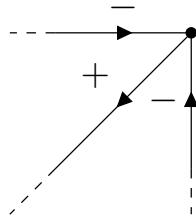
Branch A path that connects two nodes

Loop A path whose last node is the same as the starting node

Mesh A loop that does not enclose any other loops

- **KVL:** the algebraic sum of all the voltages around any closed path in a circuit equals zero.
- **KCL:** the algebraic sum of all the currents at any node in a circuit equals zero.

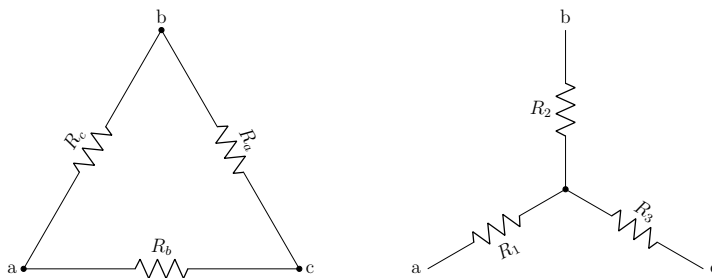
To use Kirchhoff's current law, an algebraic sign corresponding to a reference direction must be assigned to every current at the node. Assigning a positive sign to a current leaving a node requires assigning a negative sign to a current entering a node.



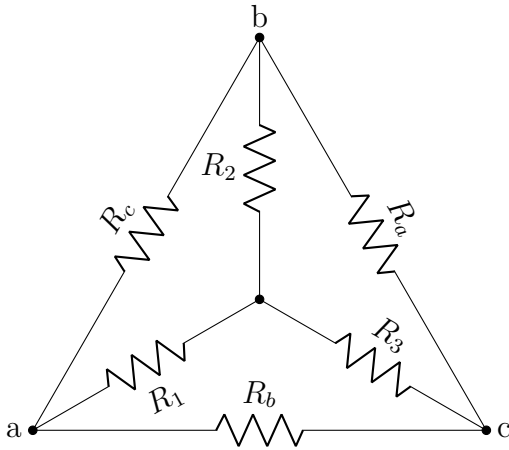
SECTION 6

Wye-Delta and Delta-Wye Transformations

This transformation of a set of resistors configured in the shape of the letter Δ to a configuration of a shape of the letter Y.



To find the equivalent resistances we apply



$$R_1 = \frac{R_b R_c}{R_a + R_b + R_c}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{R_a R_c}{R_a + R_b + R_c}$$

$$R_3 = \frac{R_a R_b}{R_a + R_b + R_c}$$

$$R_a = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_1}$$

$$R_b = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_2}$$

$$R_c = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_3}$$

SECTION 7

Divider Circuits

SUBSECTION 7.1

Voltage Divider

At times especially in electronic circuits developing more than one voltage level from a single voltage supply is necessary. One way of doing this is by using a voltage-divider circuit.

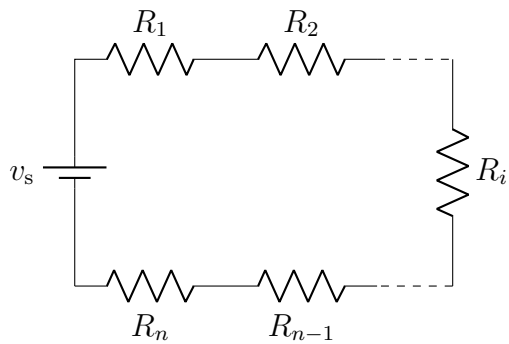


Figure 3. An n resistor voltage divider

$$v_i = v_s \frac{R_i}{\sum_{j=1}^n R_j}.$$

Current Divider

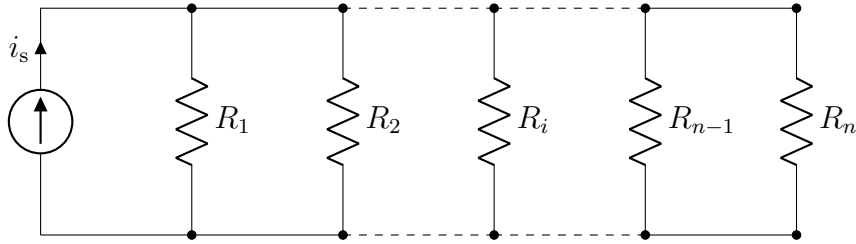


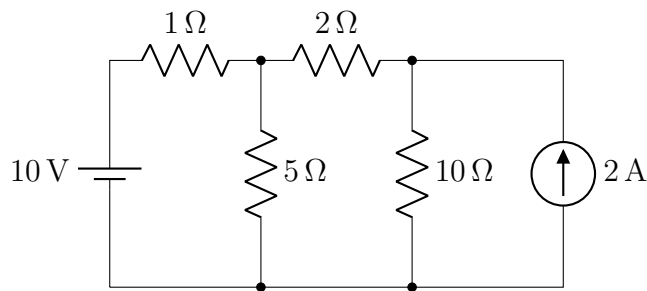
Figure 3. An n resistor current divider

$$i_i = i_s \frac{R_{\text{Eq}}}{R_i}.$$

Node Voltage Method

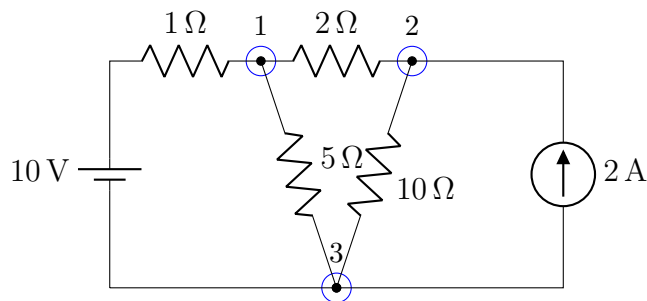
We introduce the node-voltage method by using the essential nodes of the circuit.

To better understand node voltage method, we will apply directly on a circuit. Consider the following circuit:

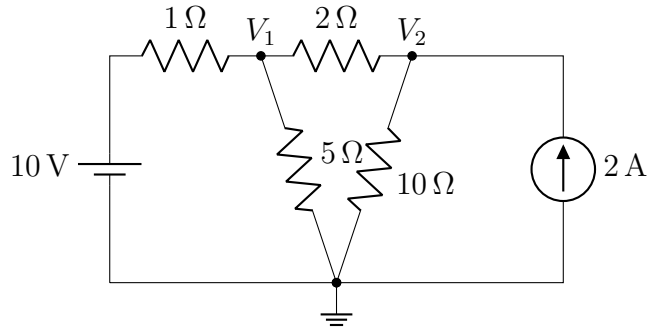


To find the voltages across the resistors are

1. Assign the essential nodes (nodes with 3 or more branches):

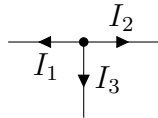


- Choose a reference node: select one of the essential nodes to be a reference. Usually we choose the lowest node. The assign voltages to the other nodes.



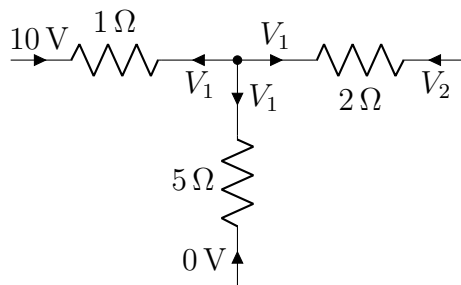
- Apply KCL at each node to determine the voltage. For example let's look at node 1:

Assume that there are currents leaving the node from all directions and that carry the voltage V_1 with them where by KCL



$$I_1 + I_2 + I_3 = 0.$$

We let these currents carry our voltage V_1 with them, now we find the values of the currents. So the equation for node 1 is



$$\frac{V_1 - 10}{1} + \frac{V_2}{5} + \frac{V_1 - V_2}{2} = 0.$$

Similarly for node 2

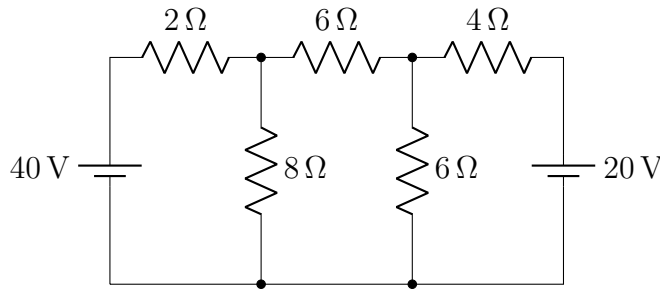
$$\frac{V_2 - V_1}{2} + \frac{V_2}{10} - 2 = 0.$$

By simply solving the equations we get

$$\begin{aligned} V_1 &= 9.09 \text{ V} \\ V_2 &= 10.91 \text{ V} \end{aligned}$$

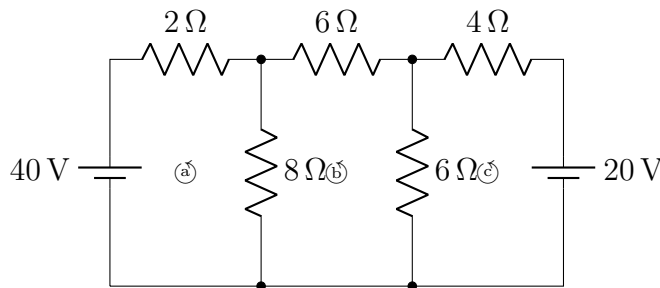
Mesh Current Method

We introduce the mesh current method by using the meshes of the circuit. To better understand mesh current method, we will apply directly on a circuit. Consider the following circuit:



Steps:

1. Assign the meshes (loop with no other loop inside): We have 3 meshes: a, b, and c
2. Define a current running in each mesh to be flowing in the counter clock wise direction.
3. Apply KVL in each mesh to find the currents.



- Mesh a: $-40 + 2I_a + 8(I_a - I_b) = 0$
- Mesh b: $8(I_b - I_a) + 6I_b + 6(I_b - I_c) = 0$
- Mesh c: $6(I_c - I_b) + 4I_c + 20 = 0$

By solving the equations we get that

$$\begin{aligned} I_a &= 5.6 \text{ A} \\ I_b &= 2 \text{ A} \\ I_c &= -0.8 \text{ A} \end{aligned} .$$

Source Transformations

