Chapter 18

Current

Current in Wires

- We define the Ampere (amp) to be one Coulomb of charge flow per second
- A Coulomb is about 7 x 10^{18} electrons (or protons) of charge
- For reference a "mole" is about 6.02 x 10^{23} units
- Thus a "mole" of Copper 63.5 g/mole (z=29, A=63 (69.15% - 34 Neutrons, A=65 (30.85% - 36 Neutrons)
- Contains about 3 x 10^{6} Coulombs BUT only outer electrons are free to move ($4S^1$ state) – one electron per Cu atom in "valence band"
- Density of Copper is about 8.9 g/cm^3
- Density of free electrons in Cu ~ 1.4 x 10^4 Coul/cm^3
- Or density of free electrons ~ 10^{23} e/cm^3

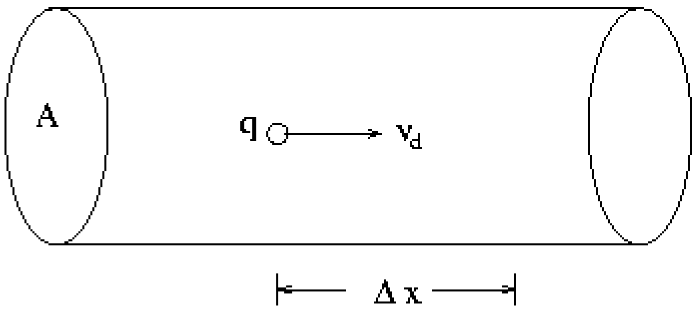
A bit of History

- *chalkos* (χαλκός) in Greek
- *Cyprium* in Roman times as it was found in Cyprus
- This was simplified to Cuprum in Latin and then
- Copper in English
- Copper mined in what is now Wisconsin 6000-3000 BCE
- Copper plumbing found in Egyptian pyramid 3000 BCE
- Small amount of Tin (Sn) helps in casting – Bronze (Cu-Sn)

Ancient mine in Timna Valley – Negev Israel

Current in wire

- Lets assume a metal wire has n free charges/ vol
- Assume the wire has cross sectional area A
- Assume the charges (electrons) move at "drift speed" v_d
- Lets follow a section of charge Δq in length Δx
- $\Delta q = n*A*\Delta x$ (n*volume)e
- Where   e = electron charge
- This volume move (drifts) at speed v_d
- This charge moves thru Δx in time
- $\Delta t = \Delta x/v_d$
- The current is $I = \Delta q/\Delta t = n*A*\Delta x*e/(\Delta x/v_d) = nAv_de$



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Wire gauges
AWG – American Wire Gauge

- Larger wire gauge numbers are smaller size wire
- By definition 36 gauge = 0.005 inches diam
- By definition 0000 gauge “4 ot” = 0.46 inch diam
- The ratio of diameters is 92 = (0.46/0.005)
- There are 40 gauges size from 4 ot to 36 gauge
- Or 39 steps

$$d_n = 0.005 \text{ inch} \times 92^{\frac{36-n}{39}} = 0.127 \text{ mm} \times 92^{\frac{36-n}{39}}$$

$$d_n = e^{-1.12436-.11594\times n} \text{ inch} = e^{2.1104-.11594\times n} \text{ mm}$$

$$A_n = \frac{\pi}{4} d_n^2 = 0.000019635 \text{ inch}^2 \times 92^{\frac{36-n}{19.5}} = 0.012668 \text{ mm}^2 \times 92^{\frac{36-n}{19.5}}$$

AWG	Diameter		Turns of wire		Area		Copper resistance[6]		NEC copper wire ampacity with 60/75/90°C insulation (A)[7]
	(inch)	(mm)	(per inch)	(per cm)	(kcmil)	(mm²)	(Ω/km)	(Ω/kFT)	
0000 (4/0)	0.46	11.684	2.17	0.856	212	107	0.1608	0.04901	195 / 230 / 260
000 (3/0)	0.4096	10.404	2.44	0.961	168	85	0.2028	0.0618	165 / 200 / 225
00 (2/0)	0.3648	9.266	2.74	1.08	133	67.4	0.2557	0.07793	145 / 175 / 195
0 (1/0)	0.3249	8.252	3.08	1.21	106	53.5	0.3224	0.09827	125 / 150 / 170
1	0.2893	7.348	3.46	1.36	83.7	42.4	0.4066	0.1239	110 / 130 / 150
2	0.2576	6.544	3.88	1.53	66.4	33.6	0.5127	0.1563	95 / 115 / 130
3	0.2294	5.827	4.36	1.72	52.6	26.7	0.6465	0.197	85 / 100 / 110
4	0.2043	5.189	4.89	1.93	41.7	21.2	0.8152	0.2485	70 / 85 / 95
5	0.1819	4.621	5.5	2.16	33.1	16.8	1.028	0.3133	
6	0.162	4.115	6.17	2.43	26.3	13.3	1.296	0.3951	55 / 65 / 75
7	0.1443	3.665	6.93	2.73	20.8	10.5	1.634	0.4982	
8	0.1285	3.264	7.78	3.06	16.5	8.37	2.061	0.6282	40 / 50 / 55
9	0.1144	2.906	8.74	3.44	13.1	6.63	2.599	0.7921	
10	0.1019	2.588	9.81	3.86	10.4	5.26	3.277	0.9989	30 / 35 / 40
11	0.0907	2.305	11	4.34	8.23	4.17	4.132	1.26	
12	0.0808	2.053	12.4	4.87	6.53	3.31	5.211	1.588	25 / 25 / 30 (20)
13	0.072	1.828	13.9	5.47	5.18	2.62	6.571	2.003	
14	0.0641	1.628	15.6	6.14	4.11	2.08	8.286	2.525	20 / 20 / 25 (15)
15	0.0571	1.45	17.5	6.9	3.26	1.65	10.45	3.184	
16	0.0508	1.291	19.7	7.75	2.58	1.31	13.17	4.016	— / — / 18 (10)
17	0.0453	1.15	22.1	8.7	2.05	1.04	16.61	5.064	
18	0.0403	1.024	24.8	9.77	1.62	0.823	20.95	6.385	— / — / 14 (7)
19	0.0359	0.912	27.9	11	1.29	0.653	26.42	8.051	
20	0.032	0.812	31.3	12.3	1.02	0.518	33.31	10.15	
21	0.0285	0.723	35.1	13.8	0.81	0.41	42	12.8	
22	0.0253	0.644	39.5	15.5	0.642	0.326	52.96	16.14	

How fast do the electrons move in Cu wire?

- Lets assume we have a current of ten amp
- In a 12 gauge wire (common in 20 amp wall outlet
- Area of 12 gauge wire ~ 3 mm^2 = 0.03 cm^2
- $n \sim 10^{23}$ e/cm^3
- Charge of the electron $e \sim 1.6\text{x}10^{-19}$ Coulomb
- $v_d = I/nAe = 10/(\ 10^{23} \text{ x } 0.03 \text{ x } 1.6\text{x}10^{-19}\ ) \sim 1/30$ cm/s
- You walk MUCH faster than this!
- Why is the drift speed of electrons sooo slow?
- **Answer – the electron density is so high**
- Compare this speed to the speed of molecules in air at room temp ~ 300 m/s

Resistivity

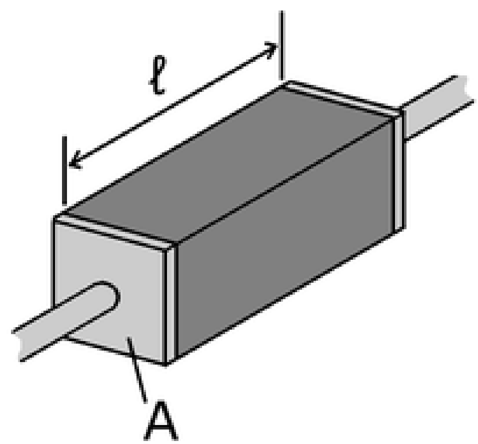
- Perfect metals have NO electric field inside them
- Real metal have a small E field when current flows
- Why?
- The reason is that real metal have a friction term then dissipates the kinetic energy (motion) of the electrons into heat
- This translates into a drag force
- To overcome this drag force an electric field is needed to keep the electrons moving
- **This effect is quantified by the resistivity of the metal**

Resistivity and Resistance

- A perfect metal has ZERO resistivity
- A perfect insulator has INFINITE resistivity
- ρ = resistivity (units are V-m/A = Ω-m)
- J = current density (Amps/m^2)
- R = resistance
- R = ρ L/A L= length

$$\rho = \frac{E}{J}$$

- Resistance is futile



Conductivity and Resistivity

- Conductivity σ is defined as 1/resistivity
- $\sigma = 1/\rho$
- Units of resistivity are ohm-meter (Ω-m)
- Units of conductivity are 1/ (Ω-m)
- Units of Conductivity are often given in SI units of siemens per metre ($S \cdot m^{-1}$)
- It is the same as 1/ (Ω-m)

Material	Resistivity (Ω·m) at 20 °C	Temperature coefficient* [K^{-1}]	
Silver	1.59×10^{-8}	0.0038	
Copper	1.72×10^{-8}	0.0039	
Gold	2.44×10^{-8}	0.0034	
Aluminium	2.82×10^{-8}	0.0039	
Calcium	3.36×10^{-8}		
Tungsten	5.60×10^{-8}	0.0045	
Zinc	5.90×10^{-8}	0.0037	
Nickel	6.99×10^{-8}		
Iron	1.0×10^{-7}	0.005	
Platinum	1.06×10^{-7}	0.00392	
Tin	1.09×10^{-7}	0.0045	
Lead	2.2×10^{-7}	0.0039	
Manganin	4.82×10^{-7}	0.000002	
Constantan	4.9×10^{-7}	0.000008	
Mercury	9.8×10^{-7}	0.0009	
Nichrome[6]	1.10×10^{-6}	0.0004	
Carbon[7]	3.5×10^{-5}	−0.0005	**Note these are negative**
Germanium[7]	4.6×10^{-1}	−0.048	“”
Silicon[7]	6.40×10^{2}	−0.075	“”
Glass	10^{10} to 10^{14}		
Hard rubber	approx. 10^{13}		
Sulfur	10^{15}		
Paraffin	10^{17}		
Quartz (fused)	7.5×10^{17}		
PET	10^{20}		
Teflon	10^{22} to 10^{24}		

Material	Electrical Conductivity (S·m-1)
Silver	63.0 × 10^6
Copper	59.6 × 10^6
Annealed Copper	58.0 × 10^6
Gold	45.2 × 10^6
Aluminium	37.8 × 10^6
Sea water	4.8
Drinking water	0.0005 to 0.05
Deionized water	5.5 × 10^-6
Jet A-1 Kerosene	50 to 450 × 10^-12
n-hexane	100 × 10^-12
Air	0.3 to 0.8 × 10^-14

Resistivity Temperature Dependence near Room Temp

- In the table above there is a temperature coefficient α
- Resistivity is often specified at 20 C
- 20 C = 293.15 K (near room temp)
- $\rho(T) = \rho\,(293.15\text{ K}) + \alpha\,(T-293.15)$
- where T is in Kelvin
- Metals have a POSITIVE α (positive temp coef)
- Semiconductors have a NEGATIVE α (neg temp coef)
- This is only valid near room temp as α is itself temperature dependent

Temperature Dependence

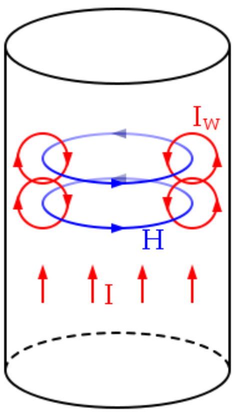
- In general metal resistances INCREASE with temperature
- In general semiconductor resistance DECREASE with T
- The effect is basically an interaction between the electrons and the phonons
- Phonons are mechanical vibration quanta
- Materials are stiff and hence vibrate
- Well described by Bloch–Grüneisen formula
- $\rho(0)$ is resistivity due to defect scattering, T = temp (K)
- Θ_R = Debye Temperature
- n=5 implies electrons are scattered by phonons (simple metal)
- n=3 implies s-d electron scattering – transition metals
- n=2 implies electron-electron scattering

$$\rho(T) = \rho(0) + A\left(\frac{T}{\Theta_R}\right)^n \int_0^{\frac{\Theta_R}{T}} \frac{x^n}{(e^x - 1)(1 - e^{-x})} dx$$

Skin Depth for AC Currents

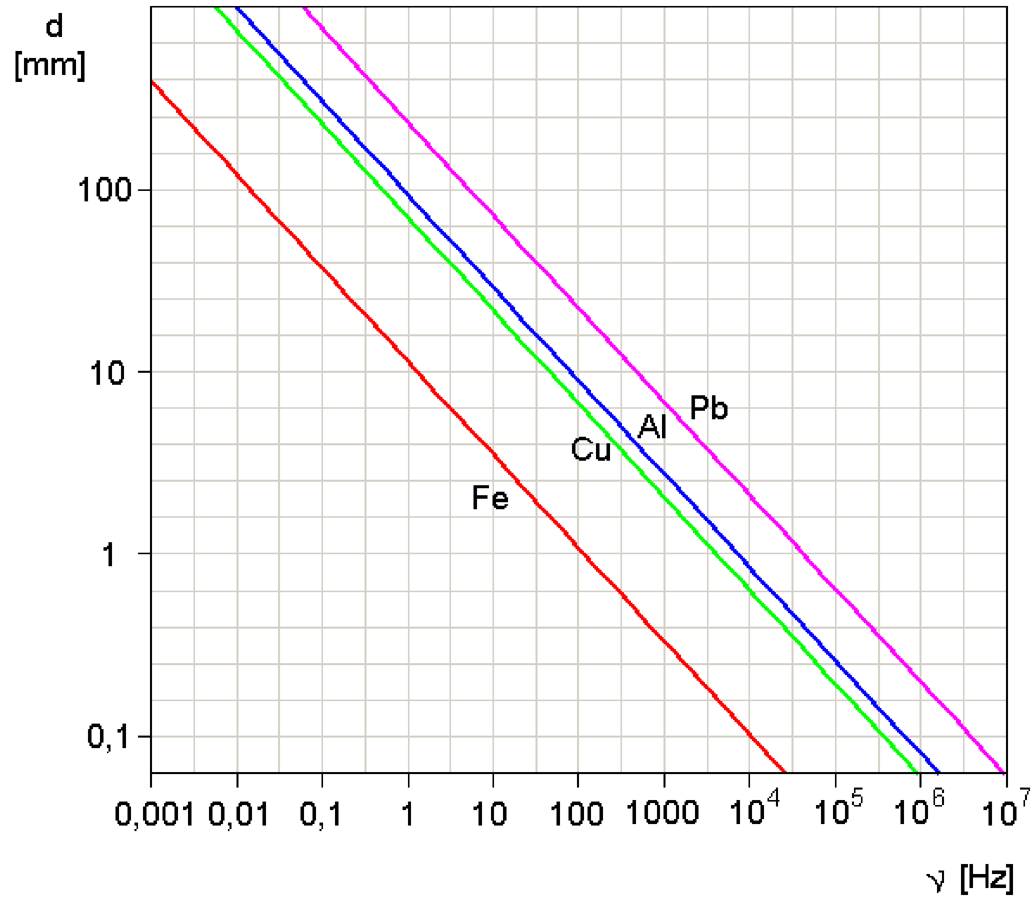
- For DC (direct current – constant current) there is no skin effect
- For AC (alternating current) the current exponetially decreases with depth into the metal
- The effect is called the "skin effect" as current stays on the "skin" of the conductor
- Horace Lamp 1883 first described it
- Eddy currents cancel E field in center of conductor
- For Copper at 60 Hz the "skin depth" is about 8.5 mm
- The current density J decreases exponentially $J = J_S e^{-d/\delta}$
- For "good conductors" like metals $\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2\rho}{\omega\mu}}$
- A wire of diameter D then really only is being used to a depth ~ δ
- The effective AC resistance of a wire of diameter D and length L is

$$R = \frac{\rho}{\delta}\left(\frac{L}{\pi(D-\delta)}\right) \approx \frac{\rho}{\delta}\left(\frac{L}{\pi D}\right)$$



Skin Depth Continued

- For Copper:
- 60 Hz δ ~ 8.5 mm
- 10 KHz δ ~ 0.66 mm
- 100 KHz δ ~ 0.22 mm
- 1 MHz δ ~ 0.066 mm
- 10 MHz δ ~ 0.021 mm



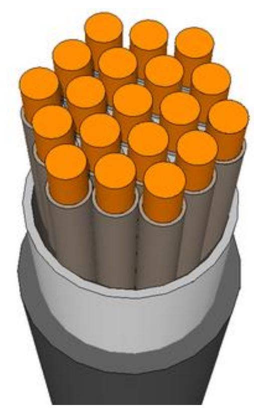
- Note – for Fe
- while the resistivity is low
- The magnetic permeabilty
- Is large and hence the skin de
- Is smaller than Cu
- For high voltage 60 Hz power lines thin Aluminum over steel is used
- The Al for good conductivity – the center steel core for strength

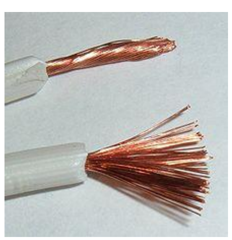
Skin Depth in your Life

- Your cell phone operates between 1 and 2 GHz depending on your service
- The skin depth for common metal in cell phones
- Is only a few microns – hence metalized plastic can work well
- For making mirrors for satellite TV (~ 10 GHz)
- The skin depth is less than 1 microns – hence metal coated plastic mirrors are fine
- Aluminum $\delta \sim 0.80$ microns
- Copper $\delta \sim 0.65$ microns
- Gold $\delta \sim 0.79$microns
- Silver $\delta \sim 0.64$ microns

Litz Wire and other Effects

- In AC cables the Skin effect and proximity effect can be severe problems that increase the effective resistance of the cable
- Solution is to use lots of small diam wires - insulated
- BUT due to interaction between wires (proximity effect) the wires are wound in patterns so that equal time is spent inside as outside the bundle
- Litz is one example – from German
- *Litzendraht* for wire bindle
- Not to be confused with normal stranded wire





Collision times in wires

- Lets try to calculate the time between collisions of the electrons in a wire
- How should we do this?
- Lets think about Linear Momentum P
- In a real wire there is a small E field
- Thus there is a force on the electrons F=eE
- If the mean time between collisions is τ the momentum gained between collisions is $P=F\tau$
- Or $P = eE\tau$
- But the momentum of the electrons is $P=mv_d$
- Equating we get $mv_d = eE\tau$
- Thus $\tau = mv_d /eE$ or $v_d = eE\tau/m = P/m$

Current Density and Mean Collision Time τ

- Recall we defined $\rho = E/J$
- Hence $J = E/\rho = \sigma E$
- Recall Current $I = nAv_d e$
- Thus $J = I/A = nv_d e$ but we just found
- Hence $J = n\,(eE\tau/m)e = e^2 nE\tau/m = (e^2 n\tau/m)E$
- But $J = \sigma E$
- Thus $\sigma = e^2 n\tau/m$
- And $\rho = m/n\tau e^2$

Power Dissipation in Wires and Resistors

- Real wires have a damping term
- This ultimately causes heat dissipation
- The power dissipated is Power = Force x speed
- Here F = eE and speed = v_d
- Hence P_e (power per electron) = eEv_d
- Total power = power per electron x number of electrons
- Number of electrons = nAL (L= length of wire/ resistor and A = cross sectional area)
- Hence $P_{T\ (total)} = nAL\ eEv_d$
- Recall $J = nev_d$
- $P_{T\ (total)} = J\ AL\ E = I\ L\ E$ but V (voltage) = LE and hence
- $P_{T\ (total)} = IV$ (current x voltage

“Ohms Law”

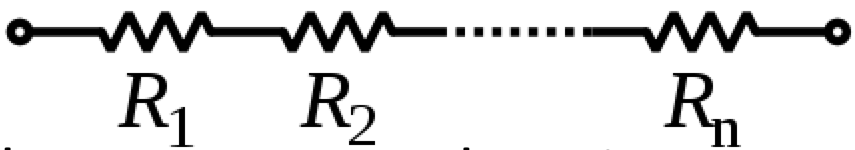
- “Ohms Law” is really a statement about the linear relationship between resistivity and E
- Recall we defined $\rho = E/J$
- In linear materials ρ does NOT depend on E or J
- In non linear material like semiconductors (diodes, transistors etc) this is NOT true
- In normal resistors linear is a good approx
- In linear materials:
- Recall for a resistor of length L and cross section A
- $R = \rho\, L/A = EL/AJ$ but $V = EL$ and $I = AJ$
- Hence $R = V/I$ or $V = IR$ (usually referred to as Ohms Law)
- Note from this $R = V/I$

Ohms Law and Power Dissipation

- For linear materials R does not depend on V or I
- $V = IR$
- $P_T = IV = I^2R = V^2/R$

Series Resistors

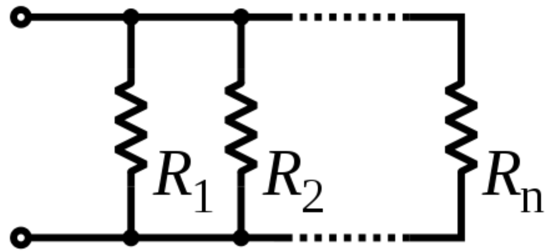
- Resistors in series must have the **same current going thru each resistor** otherwise charge would increase or decrease



- But voltage across each resistor V=I*R can vary if R is different for each resistor
- Since I is the same in each resistor and the **total potential is the sum of the potentials** therefore
- $V_{total} = V_1 + V_2 + \ldots + V_n = I^*R_1 + I^*R_2 + \ldots + I^*R_n$
- $= I^* (R_1 + R_2 + \ldots + R_n) = I^*R_{total}$
- Thus $\mathbf{R_{Total} = R_1 + R_2 + \ldots + R_n}$

Resistors in Parallel

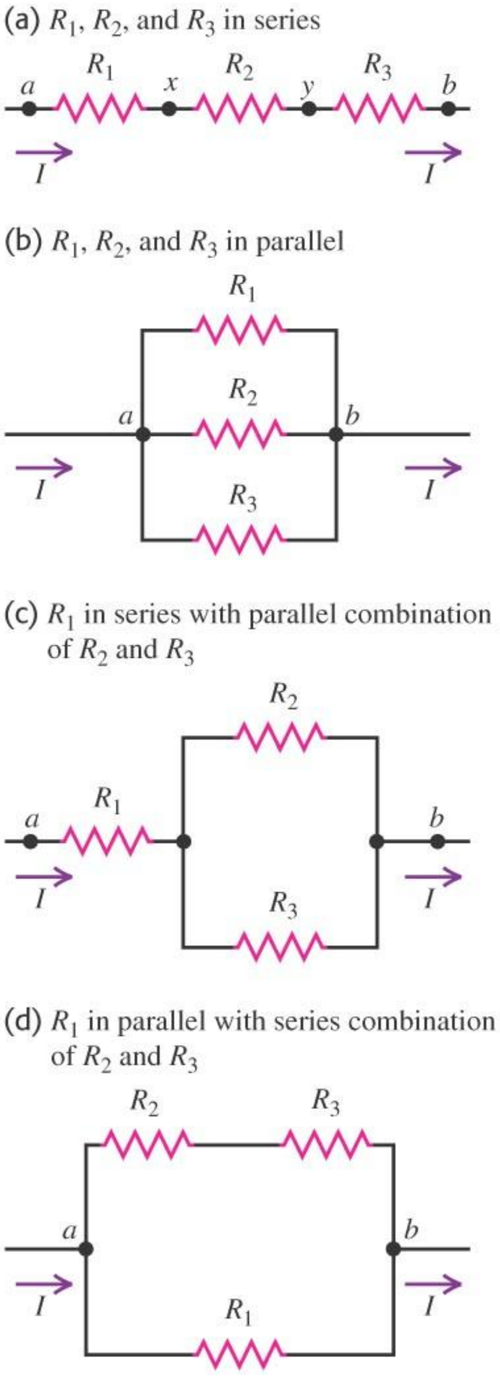
- Resistors in parallel have the same voltage V (potential)



- The current thru each resistor is thus V/R where R is the resistance of that particular resistor
- The total current (flow of charge) must be the sum of all the currents hence:
- $I_{total} = I_1 + I_2 + \ldots + I_n = V/R_1 + V/R_2 + \ldots + V/R_n$
- $= V\,(1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + \ldots + 1/R_n) = V/R_{total}$
- $1/R_{Total} = 1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + \ldots + 1/R_n$

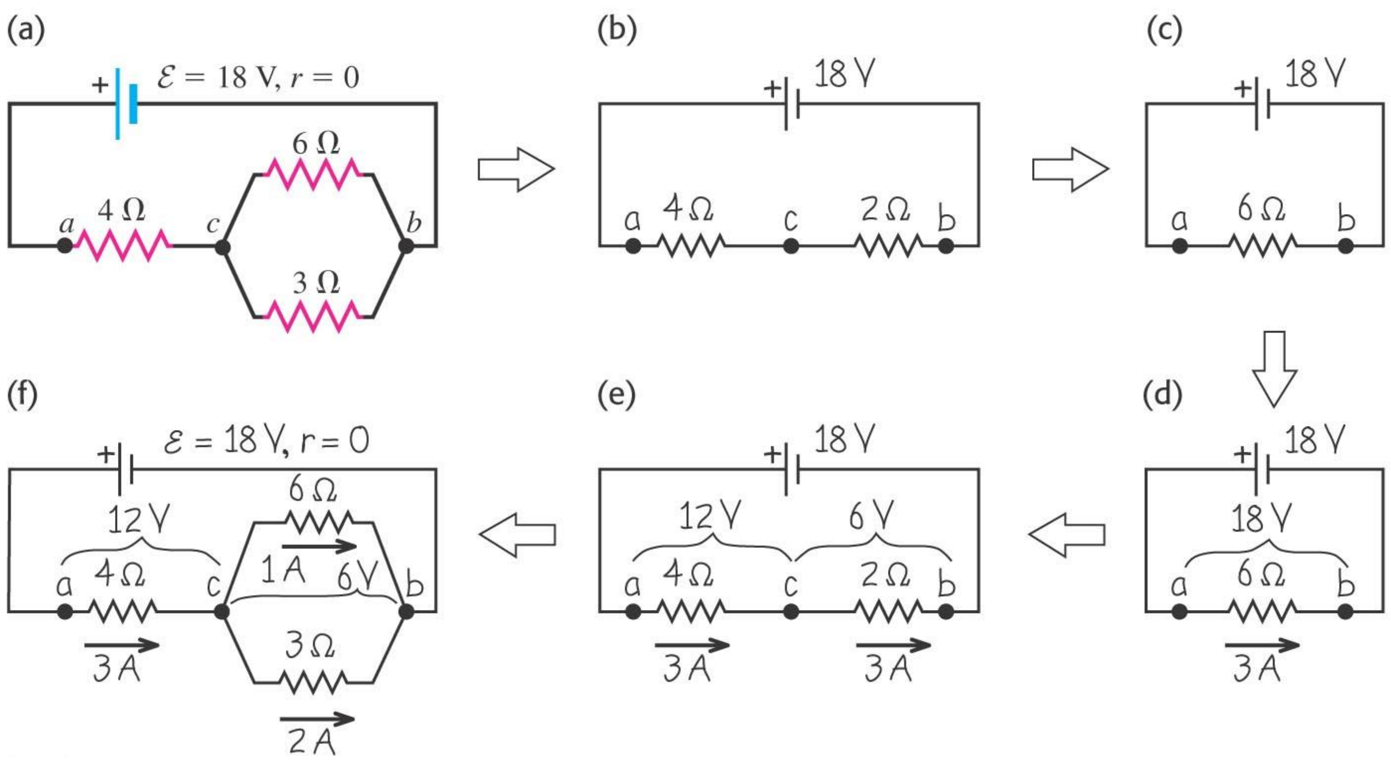
Some example geometries

- Lets looks at some possibilities
- Always try to break up the system into parallel and series blocks then solve for complete system



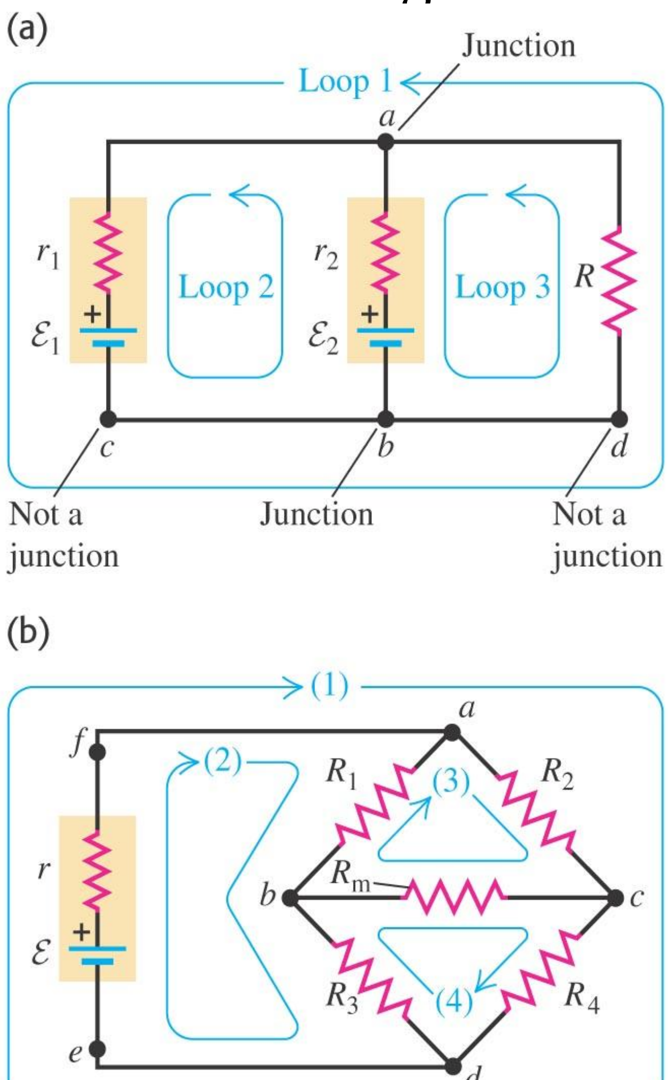
An example

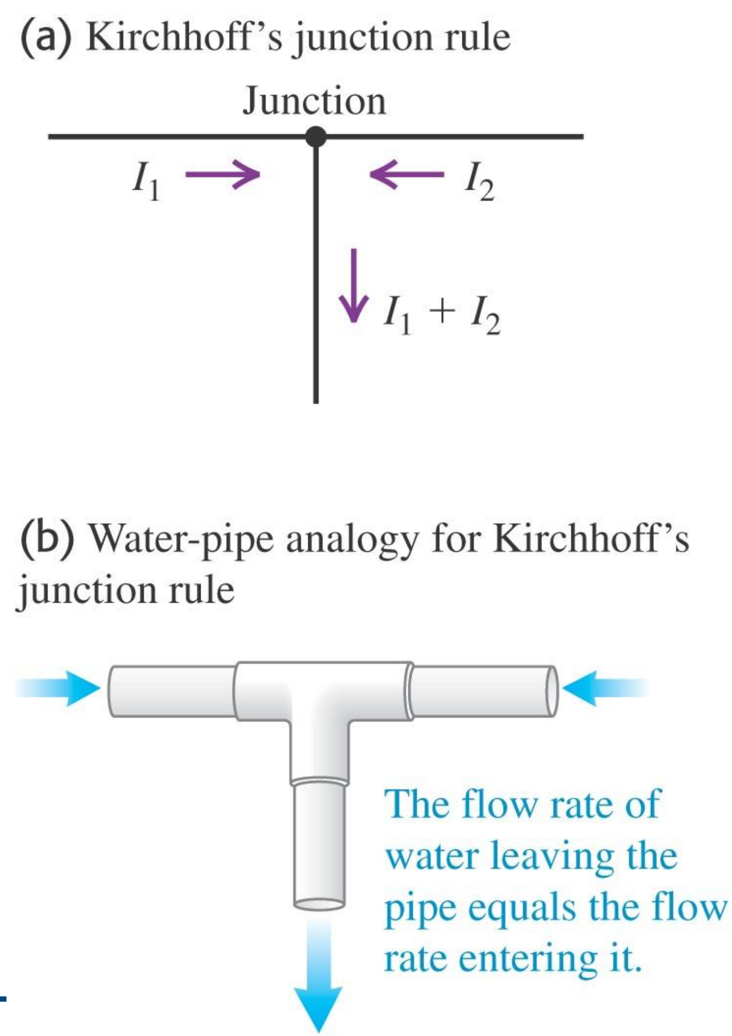
- First find the equivalent resistance of the 6Ω and 3Ω in parallel the use the result of that in series with the 4Ω. The results is 6Ω total. Hence the current flowing is 18/6 = 3 amps



Kirchoff's Rule - I - current into a junction

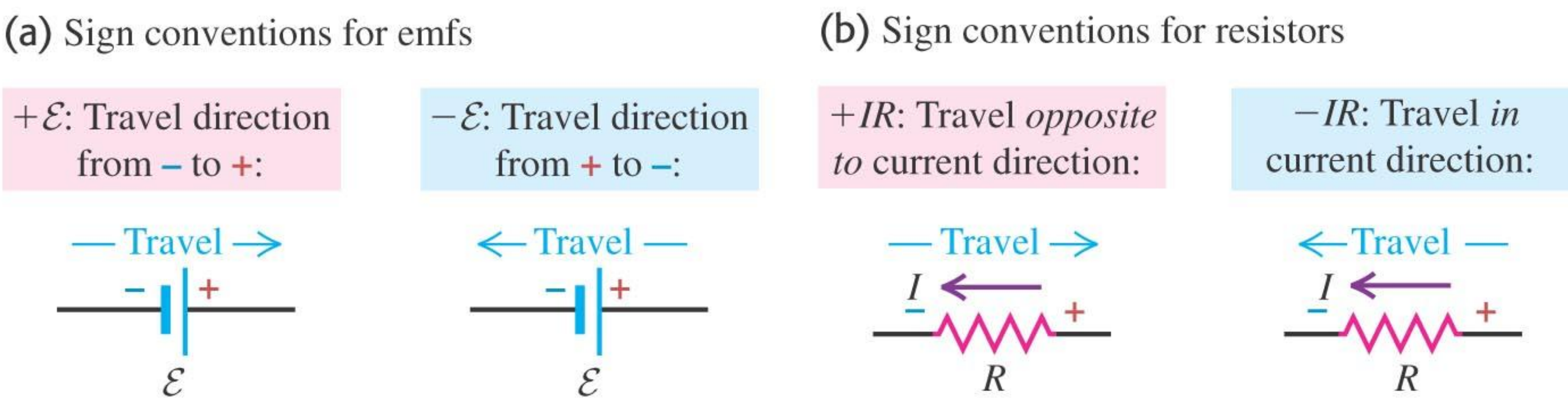
- The algebraic sum of the currents into any junction is zero. This is Kirchoff's Rule – it is nothing more than a statement of charge conservation. Charge is neither created nor destroyed.



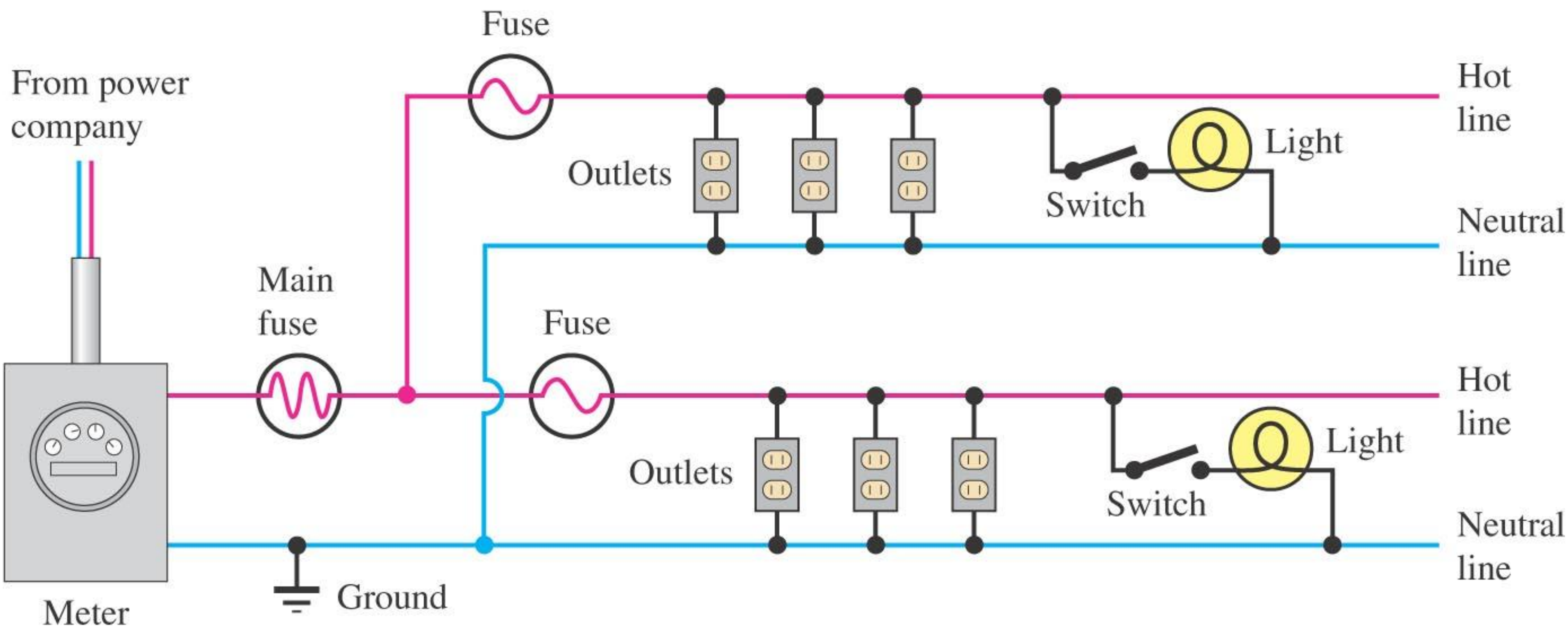


Kirchoff's Rules II – DC voltage loops must be zero

- The algebraic sum of the DC potential differences in any loop, including those associated with emfs (generally batteries here) and those of resistive elements, must equal zero. By convention we treat the charges as though they were positive carriers but in most systems they are electrons and hence negative. This is NOT true in AC systems where a changing current yields a changing magnetic field which yields an AC potential



Power in a home – Typical modern US home has 240 VAC split into two 120 VAC circuits. The circuit below shows an older home - 120 VAC only – Hot and Neutral only – no separate ground. Outlets were two pronged not three like today.



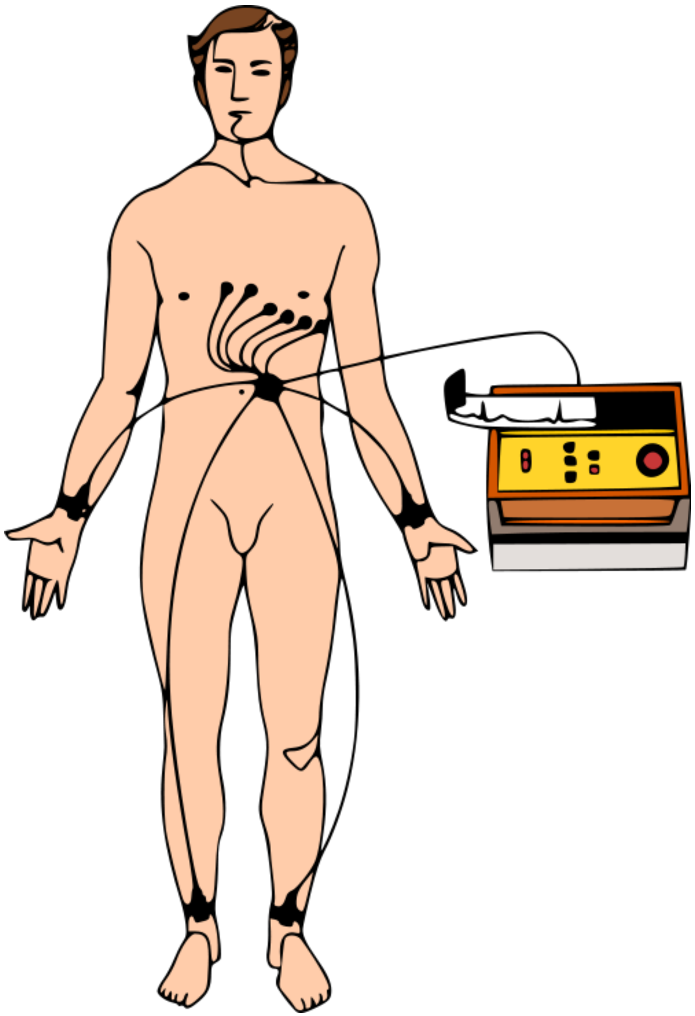
GFI – Ground Fault Interrupter

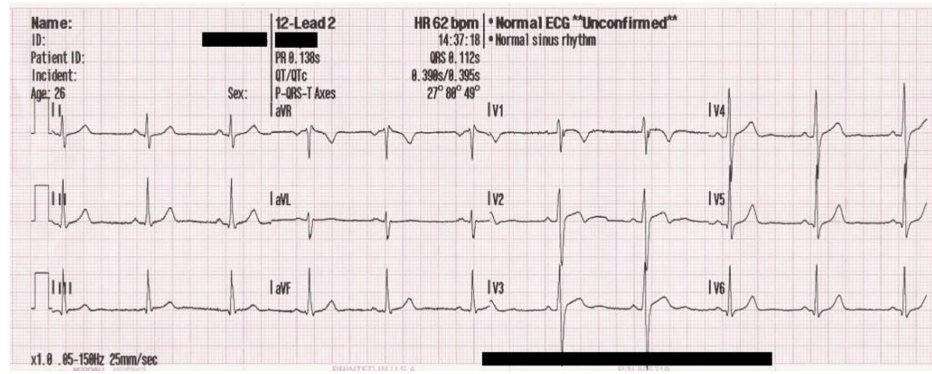
- These are very important safety devices – many lives have been saved because of these
- Also known as GFCI (Ground Fault Circuit Interrupter), ACLI (Appliance Current Leak Current Interrupter), or Trips, Trip Switches or RCD (Residual Current Device) in Australia and UK
- Human heart can be thrown in ventricular fibrillation with a current **through the body** of 100 ma
- Humans can sense currents of 1 ma (not fatal)
- Recall "skin depth" for "good conductors" like metals were about 1 cm for 60 Hz
- The human body is NOT a good conductor

GFI continued

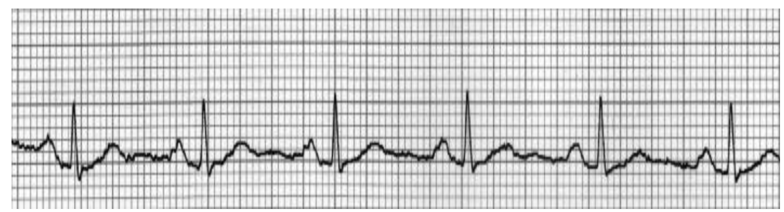
- Typical human resistance (head to toe) is $100K\Omega$ dry
- $1K\Omega$ wet
- Thus 100 Volts when wet => I = V/R ~ 100 ma (lethal)
- 100 Volts dry => 1 ma (not normally lethal – DO NOT TRY
- People vary in shock lethality 30 ma is fatal in some
- Therefore 30 Volts wet can be fatal – be careful please
- ~ 400 deaths per year in US due to shock
- NEC – US National Electric Code set GFI trip limit at 5 ma within 25 ms (milli seconds)
- GFI work by sensing the difference in current between the “hot = live” and “neutral” conductor
- Normally this is done with a differential transformer

Electrocardiagrams – EKG, ECG

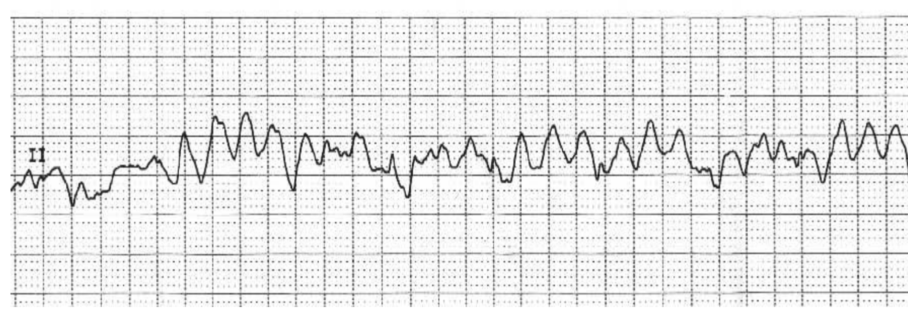




26 year old normal male EKG



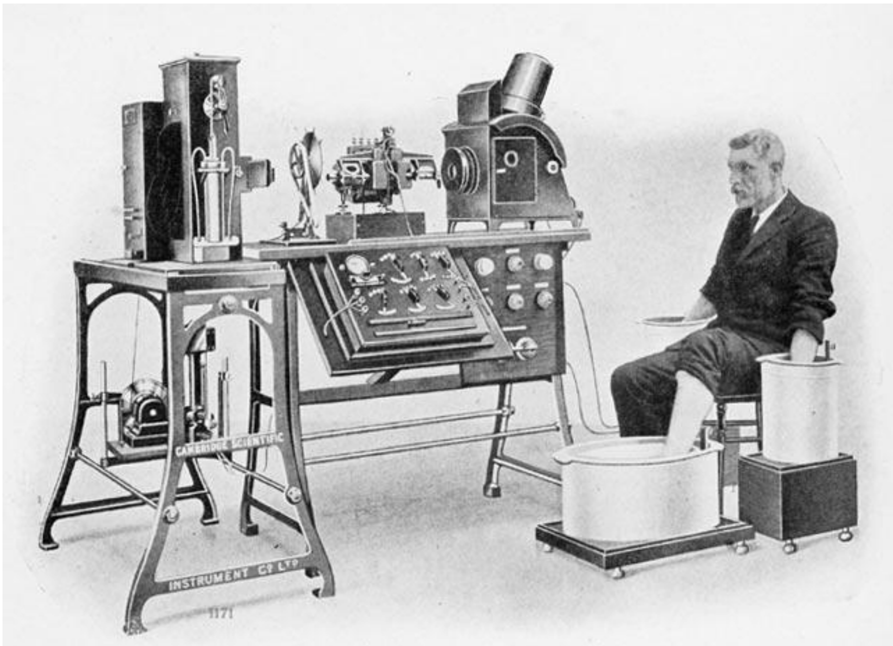
Normal EKG



Ventricular fibrillation

Measuring the Hearts Electrical Activity

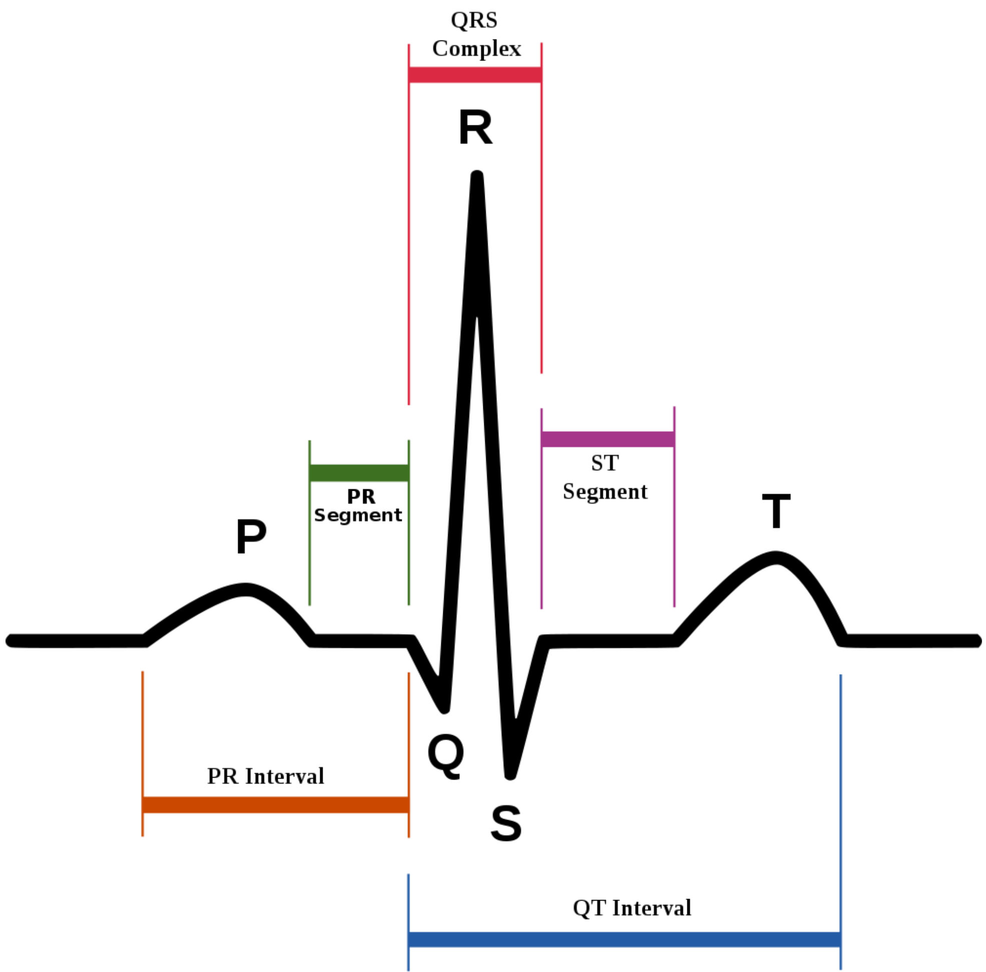
- Alexander Muirhead 1872 measured wrist electrical activity
- Willem Einthoven – Leiden Netherlands 1903 – string galvanometer
- Modern EKG is based on Einthovens work – Nobel 1924

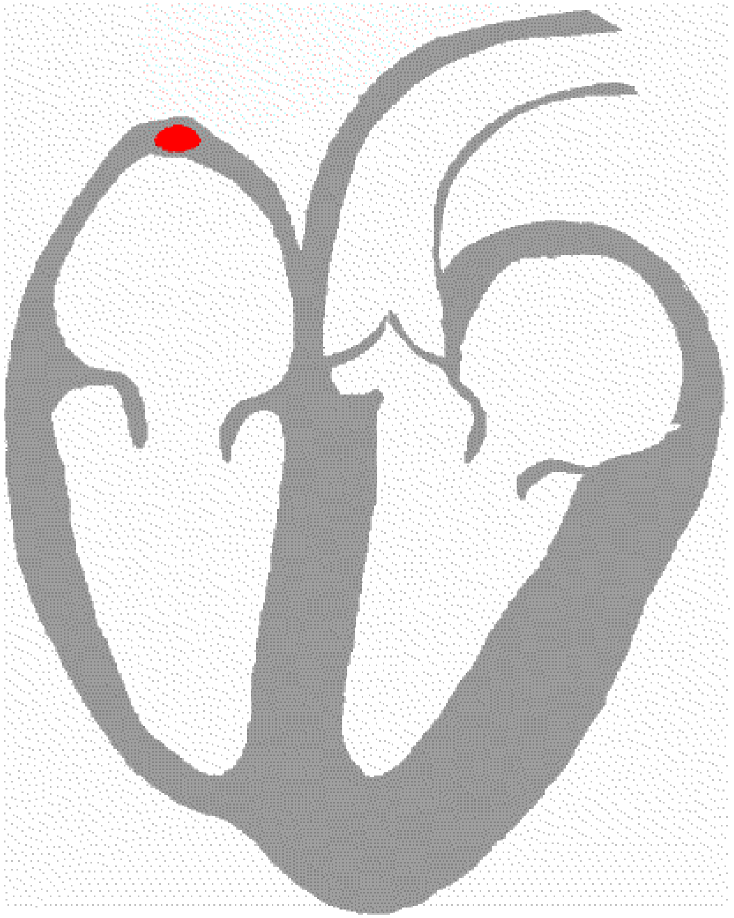


PHOTOGRAPH OF A COMPLETE ELECTROCARDIOGRAPH, SHOWING THE MANNER IN WHICH THE ELECTRODES ARE ATTACHED TO THE PATIENT, IN THIS CASE THE HANDS AND ONE FOOT BEING IMMERSED IN JARS OF SALT SOLUTION

EKG Waveforms

- Einthoven assigned letters P,R,Q,S,T - heart waveform
- Normally 10 leads are used though called 12 lead
- 350,000 cases of SCD – Sudden Cardiac Death

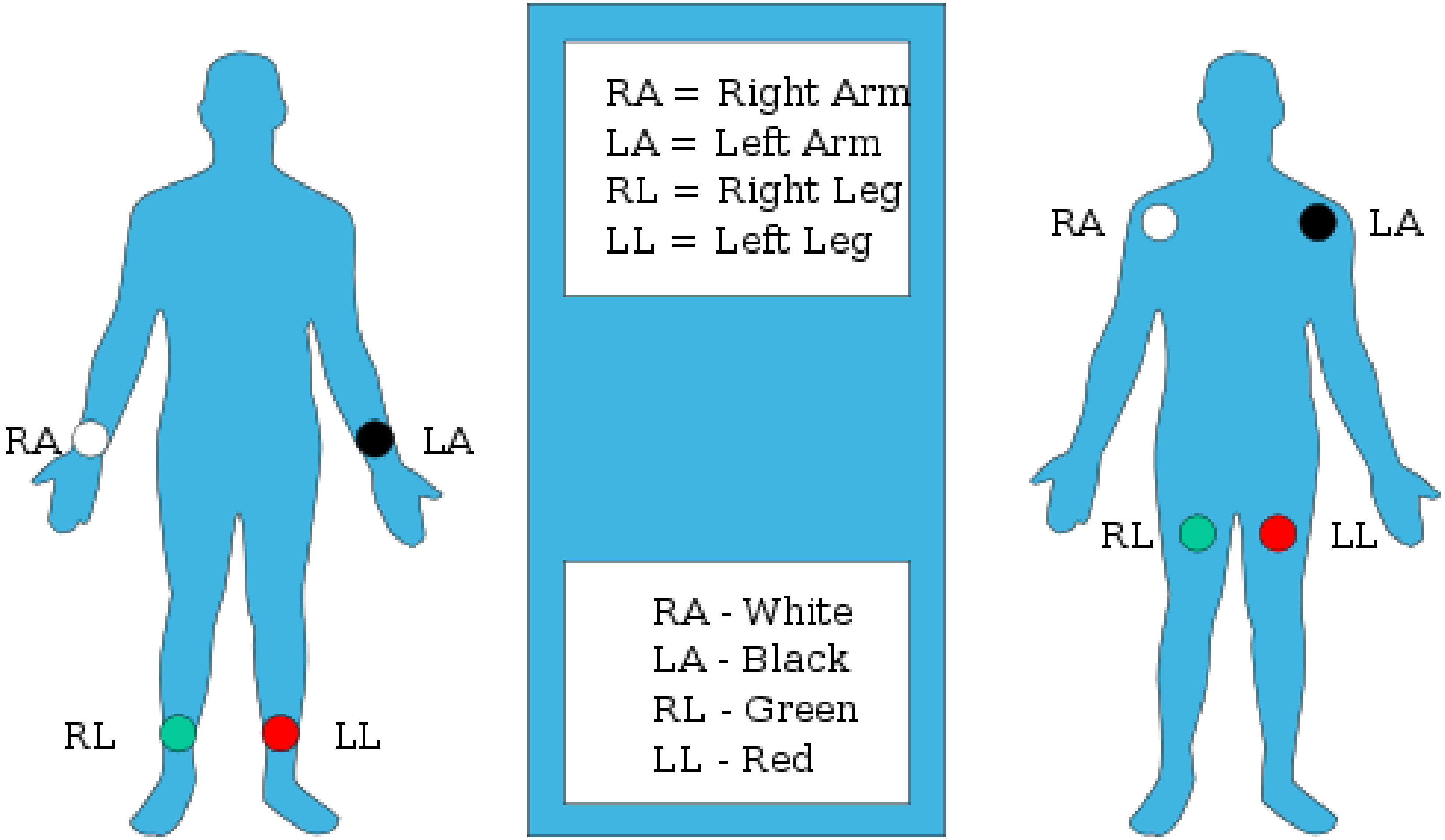




EKG Electrode Placment

- RA On the right arm, avoiding bony prominences.
- LA In the same location that RA was placed, but on the left arm this time.
- RL On the right leg, avoiding bony prominences.
- LL In the same location that RL was placed, but on the left leg this time.
- V1 In the *fourth* intercostal space (between ribs 4 & 5) just to the *right* of the sternum (breastbone).
- V2 In the *fourth* intercostal space (between ribs 4 & 5) just to the *left* of the sternum.
- V3 Between leads V2 and V4.
- V4 In the fifth intercostal space (between ribs 5 & 6) in the mid-clavicular line (the imaginary line that extends down from the midpoint of the clavicle (collarbone).
- V5 Horizontally even with V4, but in the anterior axillary line. (The anterior axillary line is the imaginary line that runs down from the point midway between the middle of the clavicle and the lateral end of the clavicle; the lateral end of the collarbone is the end closer to the arm.)
- V6 Horizontally even with V4 and V5 in the midaxillary line. (The midaxillary line is the imaginary line that extends down from the middle of the patient's armpit.)

EKG Electrode Placement

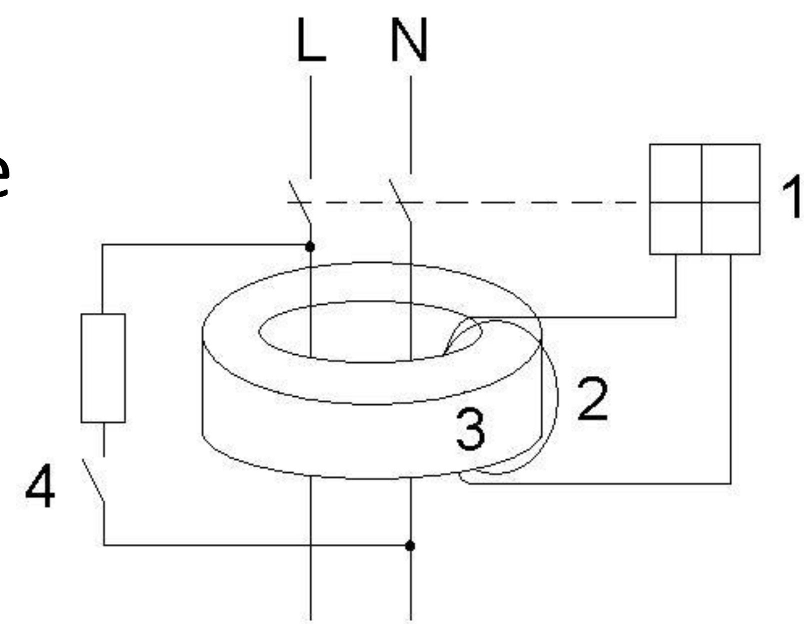


Differential Transformer for GFI

- Works by sensing magnetic field difference in "hot" and "neutral" wire
- Difference in magnetic field is from difference in current flow in these wires
- In a normal circuit the current in the "hot" and "neutral" is equal and opposite
- Thus the magnetic fields should cancel
- If they do not cancel then current is not equal and some of this may be going through your body => shock => **trip (open) circuit immediately** to protect you

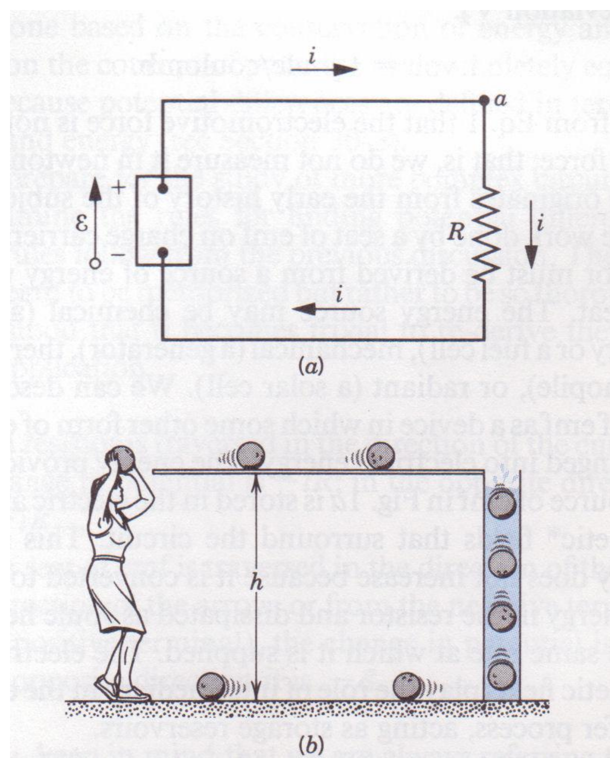
GFI Differential Transformer

- Most GFI’s are transformer based – cheaper so far
- They can also be semiconductor based
- L= “live or hot”, N= “neutral”
- 1 = relay control to open circuit
- 2= sense winding
- 3=toroid -ferrite or iron core
- 4=Test Switch (test)
- Cost ~ $10



Batteries and EMF

- EMF – ElectroMotive Force – it move the charges in a circuit – source of power
- This can be a battery, generator, solar cell etc
- In a battery the EMF is chemical
- A good analogy is lifting a weight against gravity
- EMF is the “lifter”

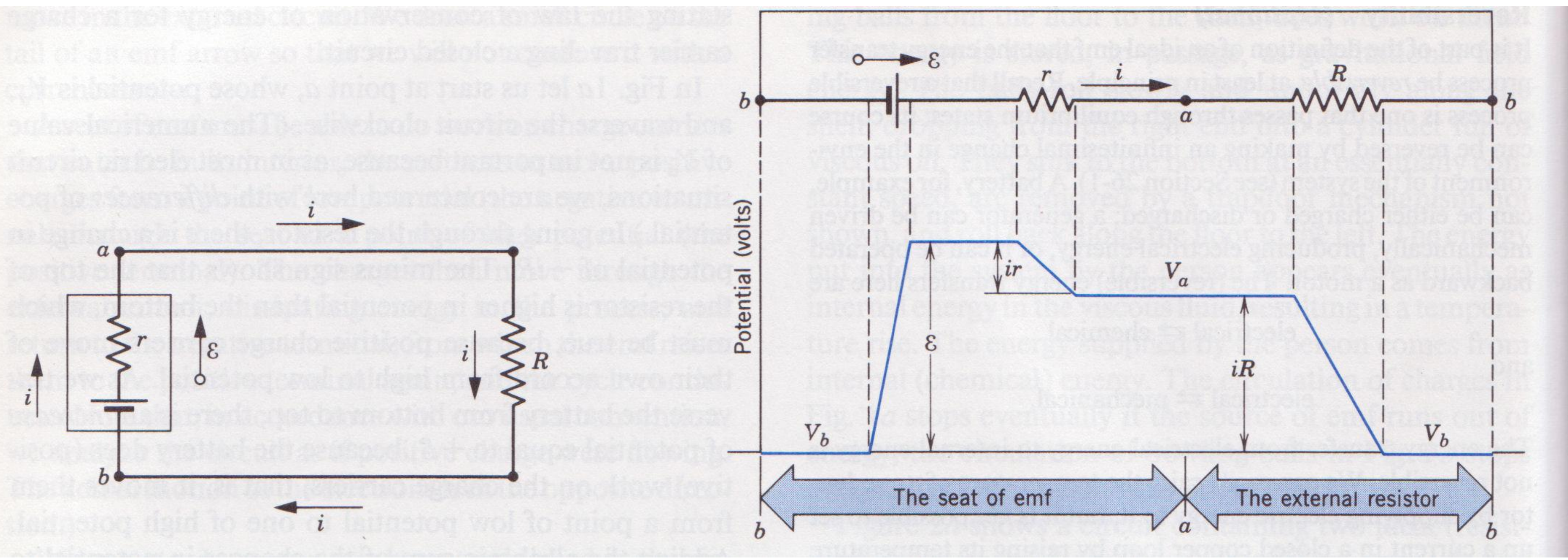


Some EMF rules

- The EMF has a direction and that direction INCREASES energy. The electrical potential is INCREASED.
- The EMF direction is NOT NECESSARILY the direction of (positive) charge flow. In a single battery circuit it is though.
- If you traverse a resistor is traversed IN THE DIRECTION of (positive) current flow the potential is DECREASED by I*R

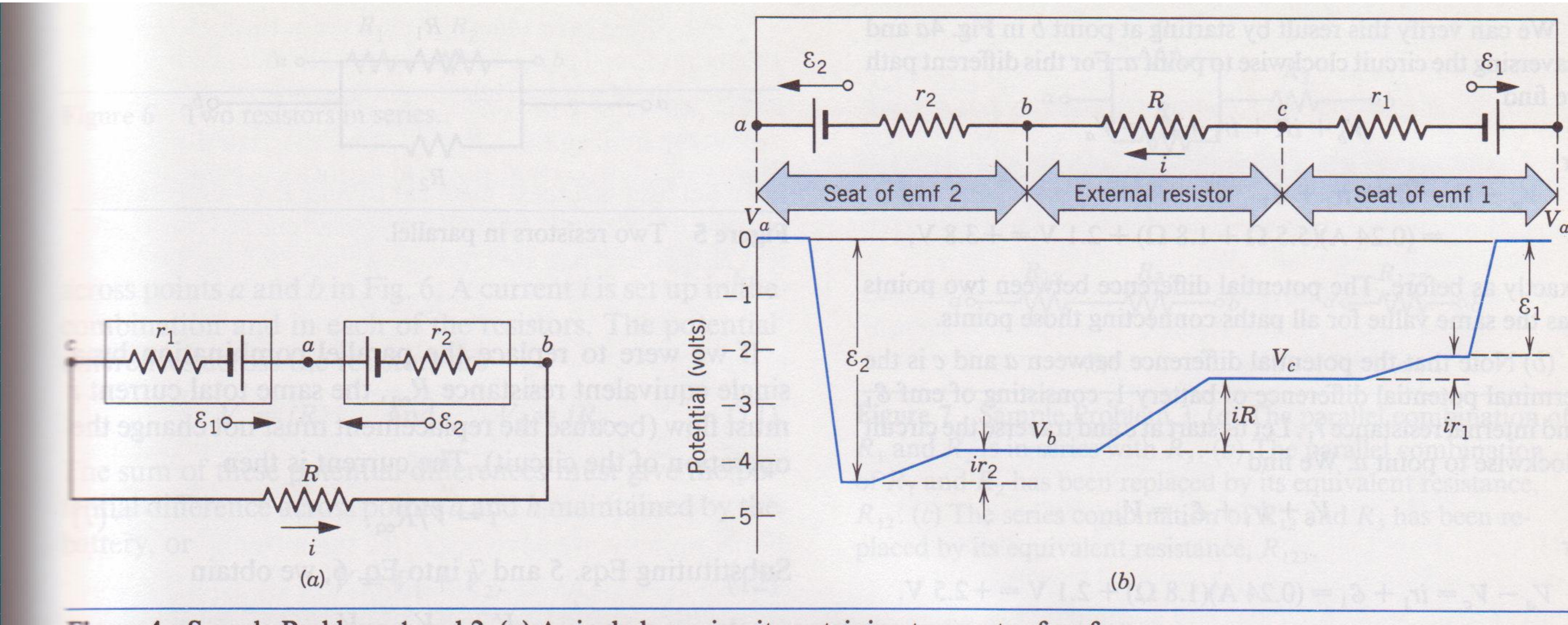
Single battery example

- Recall batteries have an internal resistance r
- In this example we have an external load resistor R
- i= ξ/(R+r)



Double opposing battery example

- In this example we have two batteries with diffferent EMF’s and different internal resistances as well as a load resistor.
- Which way will the current flow.
- Your intuition tell you the battery with the higher EMF will force the current in that direction.
- $i = -(\xi_2 - \xi_1)/(R + r_2 + r_1)$

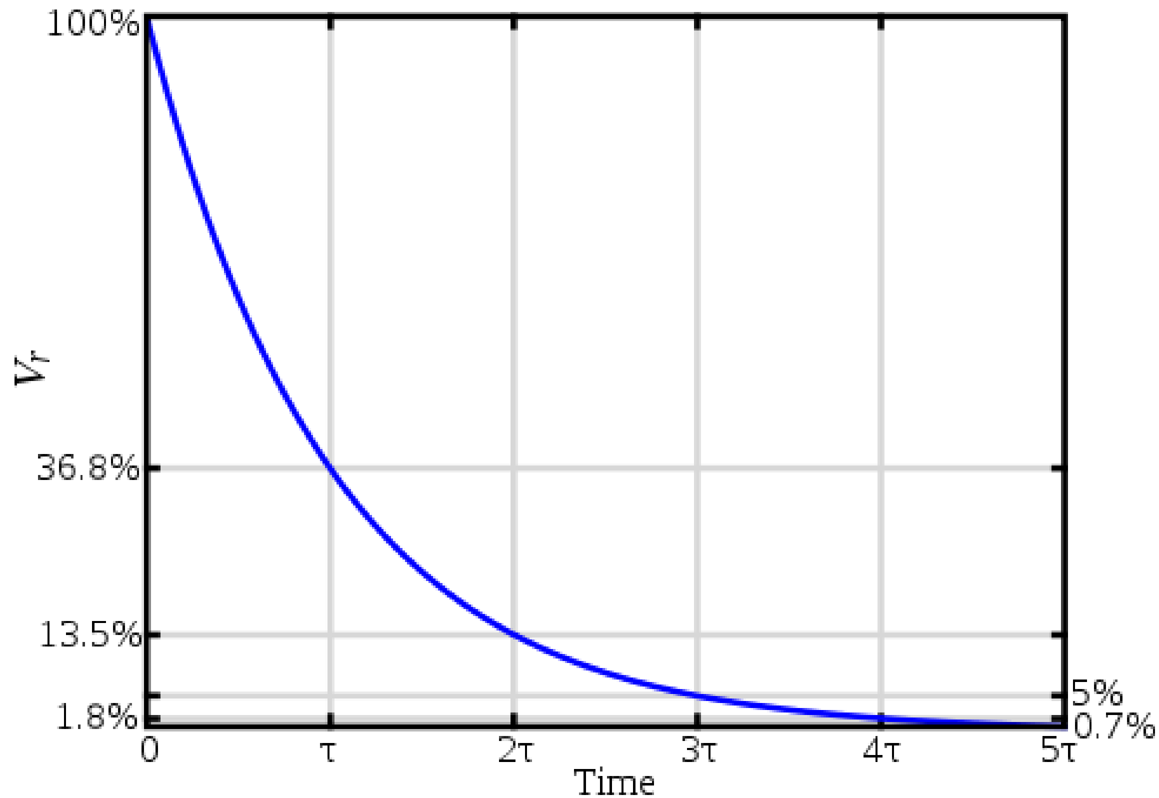


RC Circuit – Exponential Decay

- An RC circuit is a common circuit used in electronic filters
- The basic idea is it take time to charge a capacitor thru a resistor
- Recall that a capacitor C with Voltage V across it has charge Q=CV
- Current I= dQ/dt = C dV/dt
- In a circuit with a capacitor and resistor in parallel the voltage across the resistor must equal opposite that across the capacitor
- Hence $V_c = -V_R$ or Q/C = -IR or Q/C + IR = 0 (note the current I thru the resistor must be responsible for the dQ/dt – Kirchoff or charge conservation
- Now take a time derivative dQ/dt/C + R dI/dt = I/C + R dI/dt =0
- OR dI/dt +I/RC simply first order differential equation
- Solution is $I(t) = I_0\, e^{-t/RC} = I_0\, e^{-t/\tau}$ where τ = RC is the "time constant"
- Voltage across resistor $V_R(t) = IR = I_0\, R\, e^{-t/RC} = V_0\, e^{-t/RC} = - V_c\,(t)$ voltage across capacitor
- Note the exponential decay
- We can also write the eq as R dQ/dt + Q/C =0

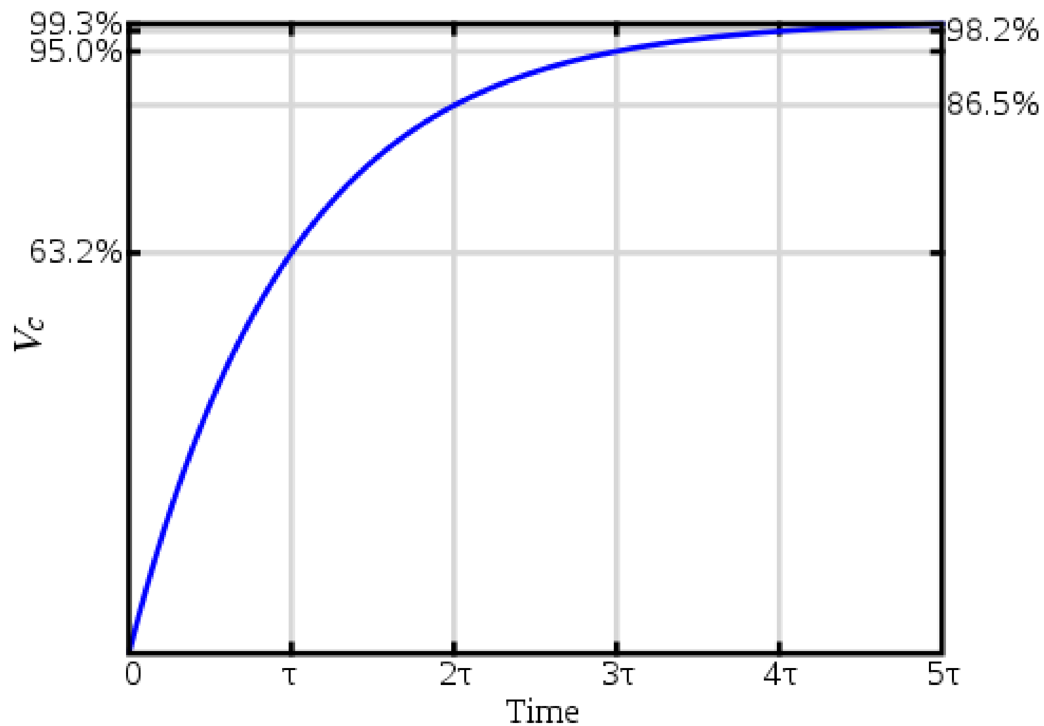
Discharging a capacitor

- Imagine starting with a capacitor C charged to voltage V_0
- Now discharge it starting at t=0 through resistor R
- $V(t) = V_0 e^{-t/RC}$



Charging a Capacitor

- Start with a capacitor C that is discharged (0 volts)
- Now hook up a battery with a resistor R
- Start the charge at t=0
- $V(t) = V_0 \, (1- e^{-t/RC})$



RC Circuits – Another way

- Lets analyze this another way
- In a closed loop the total EMF is zero (**must be careful here once we get to induced electric fields from changing magnetic fields)**
- In quasi static case $\int E \bullet dl = 0$ (voltage sum) over a closed loop
- Charge across the capacitor Q = CV I = dQ/dt = C dV/dt
- But the same I = -V/R (minus as V across cap is minus across R if we go in a loop)
- CdV/dt = - V/R or C dV/dt + V/R = 0 or dV/dt + V/RC = 0
- Solution is $V(t) = V_0\, e^{-t/RC}$
- Same solution as before
- The time required to fall from the initial voltage V_0 to V_0 /e is time τ = RC

Complex impedances

- Consider the following series circuit
- If we put an input Voltage V_{in} across the system
- We get a differential eq as before but with V_{in}
- $V_{in} + IR + Q/C = 0$ $\int E \bullet dl = 0$ around the closed loop
- $V_{in} + R\, dQ/dt + Q/C = V_{in} + IR + \int I\, dt/C$ – we can write the solution as a complex solution $I = I_0 e^{i\omega t}$
- $V_{in} + IR + \int I\, dt/C$
- We can make this more
- General letting $V_{in} = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$
- This allows a driven osc term – freq ω
- $V_0 e^{i\omega t} + R I_0 e^{i\omega t} + I_0 e^{i\omega t} /(i\omega C)$
- $V_0 + R I_0 + I_0/(i\omega C)$ - thus we can interpret this as a series of impedances (resistance) Z (general impedance) where $Z_R = R$ is the normal impedance of a resistor and $Z_c = 1/(i\omega C) = -i/(\omega C)$ is the impedance of a capacitor
- Note the impedance of a capacitor is complex and proportional to $1/\omega C$ - the minus i will indicate a 90 degree phase shift