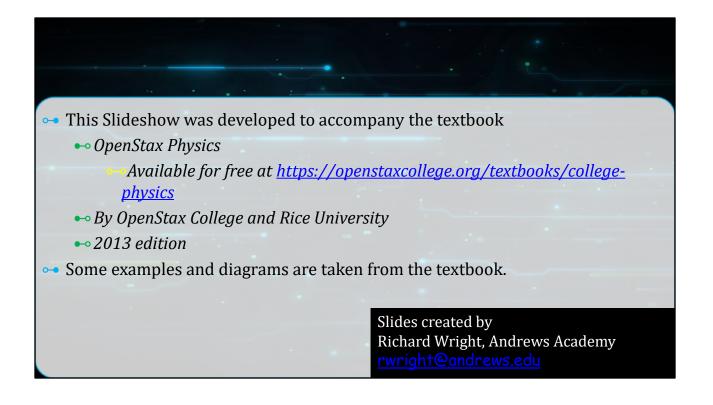


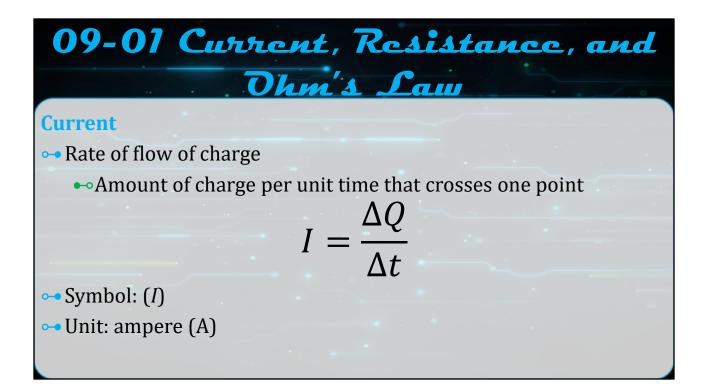
# **Physics Unit 9**



In this lesson you will...

- Define electric current and ampere
- Describe the direction of charge flow in conventional current.
- Explain the origin of Ohm's law.
- Calculate voltages, currents, or resistances with Ohm's law.
- Describe a simple circuit.

09-01 Current, Resistance, and Dhm's Law



# 09-01 Cutrient, Resistance, and Diministry of the constraint of the constr

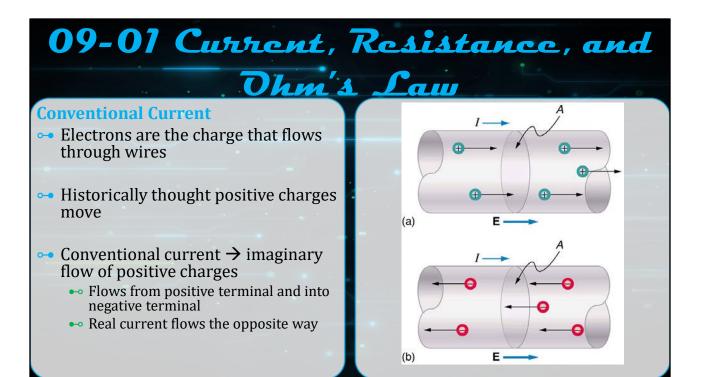
Charge in 1 hour:

$$I = \Delta Q / \Delta t \rightarrow \Delta Q = I \Delta t = (.2 A)(3600 s) = 720 C$$

Energy:

EPE = qV = (720 C)12 V = 8640 J

The speakers usually don't draw that much current. They only draw that much current at their maximum volume.



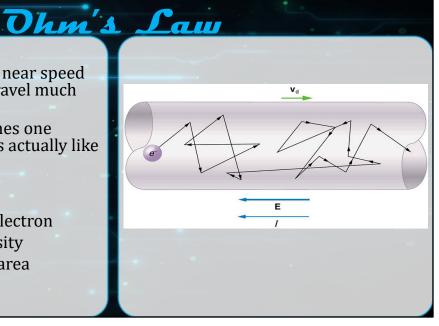
## 09-01 Current, Resistance, and

#### **Drift Velocity**

- Electrical signals travel near speed of light, but electrons travel much slower
- •• Each new electron pushes one ahead of it, so current is actually like wave

•• 
$$I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = \frac{qnAx}{\Delta t} = qnAv_d$$

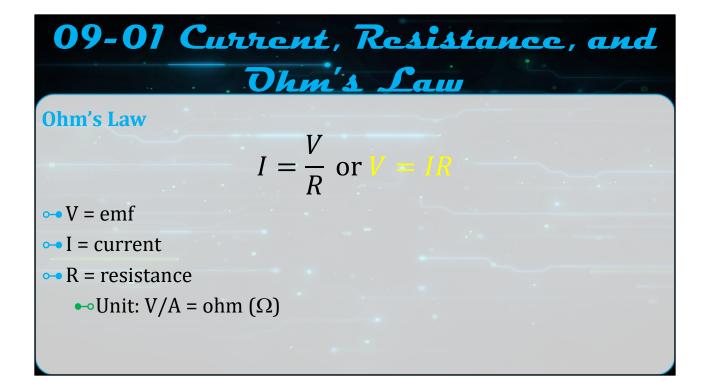
- ••• q = charge of each electron
- ••• *n* = free charge density
- ••• A = cross-sectional area
- •••  $v_d$  = drift velocity

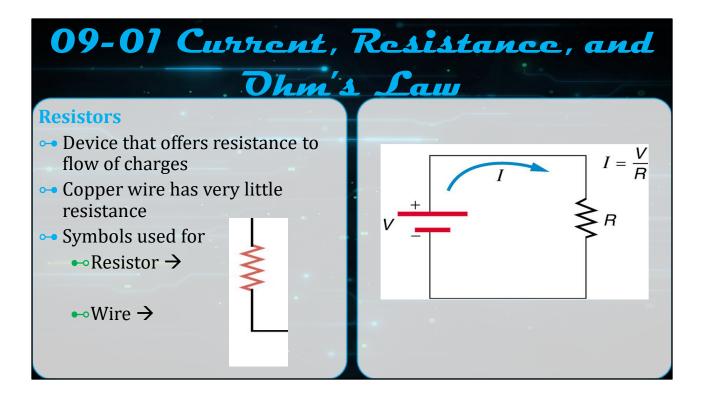


## 09-01 Current, Resistance, and Dhm's Law

--- Think of water pumps

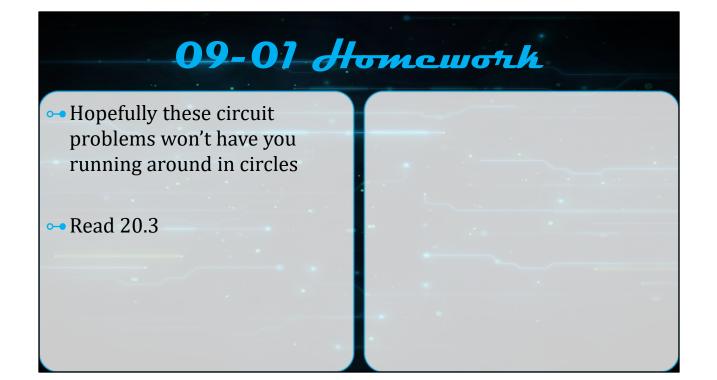
- •••Bigger pumps  $\rightarrow$  more water flowing
- •••Skinny pipes (more resistance)  $\rightarrow$  less water flow
- •• Electrical Circuits
  - ■Bigger battery voltage → more current
  - •••Big electrical resistance  $\rightarrow$  less current





# Og-Ol Cutrent, Resistance, and Dhm's Law Our speakers use 200 mA of current at maximum volume. The voltage is 12V. The current is used to produce a magnet which is used to move the speaker cone. Find the resistance of the electromagnet. R = 60 Ω

 $V = IR \rightarrow 12 V = (0.20 A)R \rightarrow 60 \Omega = R$ 



In this lesson you will...

- Explain the concept of resistivity.
- Use resistivity to calculate the resistance of specified configurations of material.

• Use the thermal coefficient of resistivity to calculate the change of resistance with temperature.

09-02 Resistance and Resistivity

Another way to find resistance

The resistance varies directly with length and inversely with width (or cross-sectional area) a wire

•••Kind of like trying to get a lot of water through a pipe

⊶ Short, thick wire → small resistance

••• Long, skinny wire  $\rightarrow$  large resistance

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$$

 $\sim \rho$  = resistivity

🕶 Unit: Ω m

Table 20.1 lists resistivities of some materials

••• Metals  $\rightarrow$  small resistivity (1x10<sup>-8</sup>  $\Omega$  m)

••Insulators  $\rightarrow$  large resisitivity (1x10<sup>15</sup>  $\Omega$  m)

•••Semi-conductors  $\rightarrow$  medium resistivity

Why are long wires thick?

•• Wire thicknesses are measured in gauges. 20-gauge wire is thinner than 16-gauge wire. If 20-gauge wire has  $A = 5.2 \times 10^{-7} m^2$  and 16-gauge wire has  $A = 13 \times 10^{-7} m^2$ , find the resistance per meter of each if they are copper.

•• 20-guage → .0331 Ω/m •• 16-guage → .0132 Ω/m

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A} \rightarrow \frac{R}{L} = \frac{\rho}{A}$$

$$\rho = 1.72 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m$$

$$20 - gauge:$$

$$\frac{R}{L} = \frac{1.72 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m}{5.2 \times 10^{-7} m^2} = 0.033 \Omega/m$$

$$16 - gauge:$$

$$\frac{R}{L} = \frac{1.72 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m}{13 \times 10^{-7} m^2} = 0.013 \Omega/m$$

$$20 - gauge has about 3 times the resistance$$

**Resistivity and Temperature** 

$$\rho = \rho_0 (1 + \alpha \Delta T)$$

ρ = resistivity at temperature T
 ρ<sub>0</sub> = resistivity at temperature T<sub>0</sub>
 α = temperature coefficient of resistivity
 Unit: 1/°C (or 1/K)

#### ⊶ Metals

- Resistivity increases with temperature
- ••• $\alpha$  is positive
- --- Semiconductors
  - Resistivity decreases with temperature
  - ••• $\alpha$  is negative

**Resistance and Temperature** 

$$R = R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$$

*R* = resistance at temperature T
 *R*<sub>0</sub> = resistance at temperature T<sub>0</sub>
 *α* = temperature coefficient of resistivity
 Unit: 1/°C (or 1/K)

A heating element is a wire with cross-sectional area of 2 × 10<sup>-7</sup> m<sup>2</sup> and is 1.3 m long. The material has resistivity of 4 × 10<sup>-5</sup> Ωm at 200°C and a temperature coefficient of 3 × 10<sup>-2</sup> 1/°C. Find the resistance of the element at 350°C.

••• R = 1430 Ω

Find new resistivity

$$\rho = (4 \times 10^{-5} \,\Omega m) \left[ 1 + \left( 3 \times 10^{-2} \,\frac{1}{^{\circ}C} \right) (350 \,^{\circ}C - 200 \,^{\circ}C) \right] = 2.2 \times 10^{-4} \,\Omega m$$

Find resistance

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A} = \frac{(2.2 \times 10^{-4} \,\Omega m)(1.3m)}{2 \times 10^{-7} \,m^2} = 1430 \,\Omega$$

# 09-02 Resistance and

## Resistivity

#### Superconductors

- Materials whose resistivity = 0
- •• Metals become superconductors at very low temperatures
- -- Some materials using copper oxide work at much higher temperatures
- •• No current loss
- ⊶ Used in
  - Transmission of electricity
  - ••• MRI
  - ⊷ Maglev
  - Powerful, small electric motors
  - ••• Faster computer chips

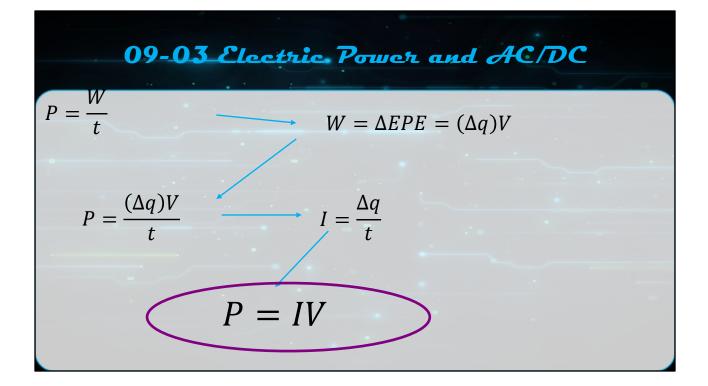
Current in some superconductors have be constant for many years



In this lesson you will...

- Calculate the power dissipated by a resistor and power supplied by a power supply.
- Calculate the cost of electricity under various circumstances.
- Explain the differences and similarities between AC and DC current.
- Calculate rms voltage, current, and average power.

09-03 Electric Power and AC/DC



Power

$$P = IV$$

•• Unit: Watt (W) •• Other equations for electrical power ••  $P = I(IR) = I^2 R$ ••  $P = \left(\frac{V}{R}\right)V = \frac{V^2}{R}$ 

 $V=IR \rightarrow I = V/R$ 

Let's say an electric heater has a resistance of 1430 Ω and operates at 120V. What is the power rating of the heater? How much electrical energy does it use in 24 hours?

⊶ P = 10.1 W ⊶ E = 873 kJ

Power

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{(120 V)^2}{1430 \Omega} = 10.1 W$$

Energy use

...

$$P = \frac{W}{t} \rightarrow W = Pt = (10.1 W)(86400 s) = 872640 J$$

#### **Kilowatt hours**

- Electrical companies charge you for the amount of electrical energy you use
- ••• Measured in kilowatt hours (kWh)

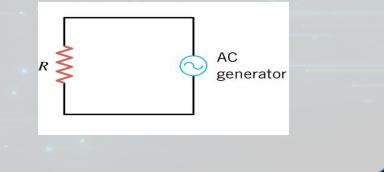
If electricity costs \$0.15 per kWh how much does it cost to operate the previous heater (P = 10.1 W) for one month?
 \$1.09

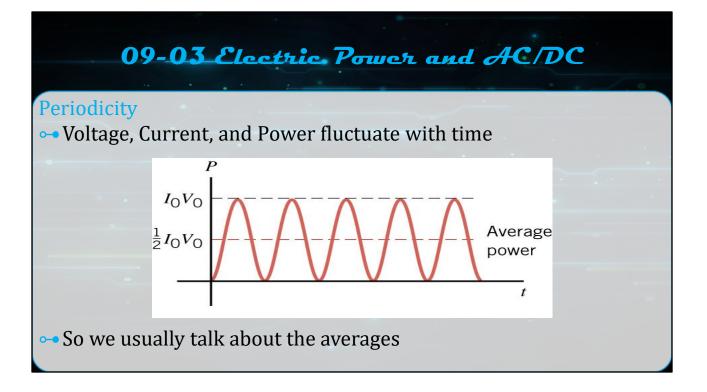
 $E = (0.0101 \, kW)(720 \, h) = 7.272 \, kWh$  $Cost = (7.272 \, kWh)(\$0.15) = \$1.09$ 

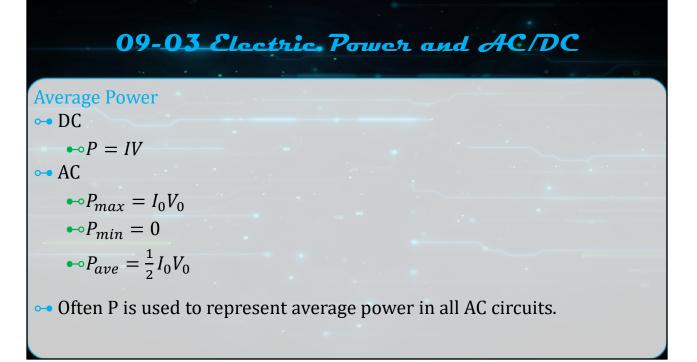
**Alternating Current** 

- --- Charge flow reverses direction periodically
- --- Due to way that power plants generate power

⊶ Simple circuit







 $I_0$  and  $V_0$  stand for the maximum value

Root Mean Square (rms)  $P_{ave} = \frac{1}{2}I_0V_0 = \left(\frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\left(\frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = I_{rms}V_{rms}$ ••  $I_{rms}$  and  $V_{rms}$  are called root mean square current and voltage •• Found by dividing the max by  $\sqrt{2}$  $I_{rms} = \frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad V_{rms} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}}$ 

#### **Convention in USA**

••  $V_0 = 170 V$ 

- ••  $V_{\rm rms} = 120 \, {\rm V}$
- ••• Most electronics specify 120 V, so they really mean  $V_{rms}$

•• We will always (unless noted) use average power, and root mean square current and voltage

Thus all previously learned equations work!

••• A 60 W light bulb operates on a peak voltage of 156 V. Find the  $V_{\rm rms}$ ,  $I_{\rm rms}$ , and resistance of the light bulb.

•••  $V_{rms} = 110 V$ •••  $I_{rms} = 0.55 A$ •••  $R = 202 \Omega$ 

$$V_{rms} = \frac{156 V}{\sqrt{2}} = 110 V$$

$$I_{rms}: P = IV \to 60 W = I(110 V) \to I_{rms} = 0.55 A$$

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R} \to 60 W = \frac{(110 V)^2}{R} \to R = \frac{(110 V)^2}{60 W} \to 202 \Omega$$

•• Why are you not supposed to use extension cords for devices that use a lot of power like electric heaters?

#### $\sim P = IV$

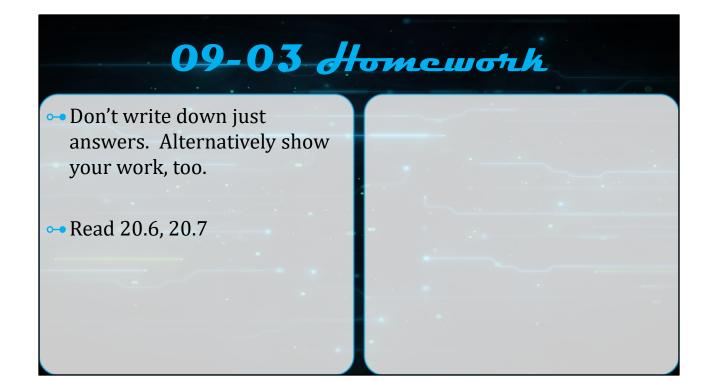
••• P is large so I is large

The wire has some resistance

The large current and little resistance can cause heating
 If wire gets too hot, the plastic insulation melts

Wire resistance varies directly with L and inversely with A

If you use an extension cord, use one with thick wires and short length to reduce resistance Remember small gauge means big wires



In this lesson you will...

• Define thermal hazard, shock hazard, and short circuit.

• Explain what effects various levels of current have on the human body.

09-04 Electricity and the Human Body

#### 09-04 Electricity and the Human Body

#### ⊶ Thermal Hazards

- Electric energy converted to thermal energy faster than can be dissipated
- Happens in short circuits
  - Electricity jumps between two parts of circuits bypassing the main load

•••  $P = \frac{V^2}{R}$ ••• Low R so high P ••• Can start fires ••• Circuit breakers or fuses try to stop ••• Or long wires that have ••• High resistance (thin) ••• Or are coiled so heat can't dissipate

Thin wires have higher R than thick wires

Heat can't escape from coiled wires and they melt

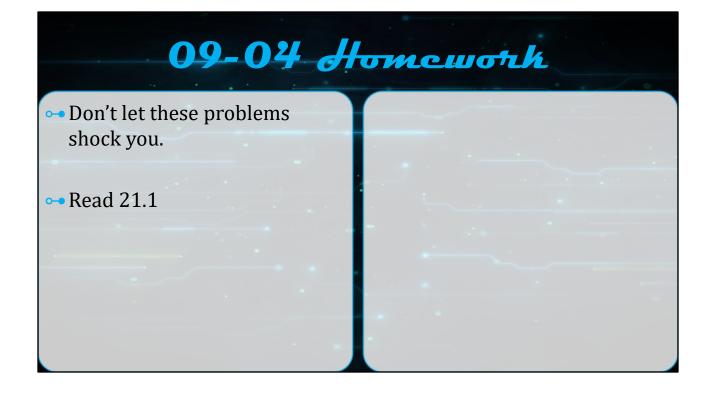
### 09-04 Electricity and the Human Body

#### ⊶ Shock Hazards

#### Factors

- -Amount of Current
- Path of current
- Duration of shock
- ••• Frequency of current
- Human body mainly water, so decent conductor

- •• Muscles are controlled by electrical impulses in nerves
- •• A shock can cause muscles to contract
  - Cause fist to close around wire (muscles to close, stronger than to open)
- ••• Can cause heart to stop
- •• Body most sensitive to 50-60 Hz



In this lesson you will...

Parallel

• Draw a circuit with resistors in parallel and in series.

• Calculate the voltage drop of a current across a resistor using Ohm's law.

• Contrast the way total resistance is calculated for resistors in series and in parallel.

• Explain why total resistance of a parallel circuit is less than the smallest resistance of any of the resistors in that circuit.

• Calculate total resistance of a circuit that contains a mixture of resistors connected in series and in parallel.

09-05 Resistors in Series and

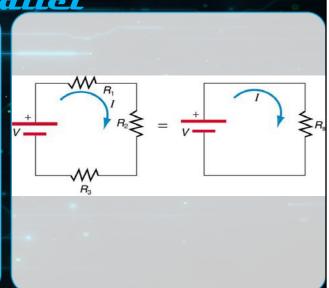
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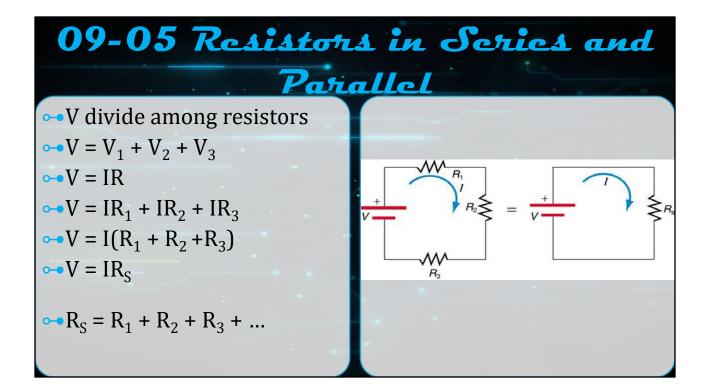
### 09-05 Resistors in Scries and

### Parallel

#### Series Wiring

- ⊶ More than one device on circuit
- ••• Same current through each device
- •• Break in device means no current
- •• Form one "loop"
- •• The resisters divide the voltage between them





R<sub>s</sub> is the equivalent resistance in <u>S</u>eries



Circuit board and multimeter to measure

5.17 kΩ + 10.09 kΩ = 15.26 kΩ

### 09-05 Resistors in Series and Parallel

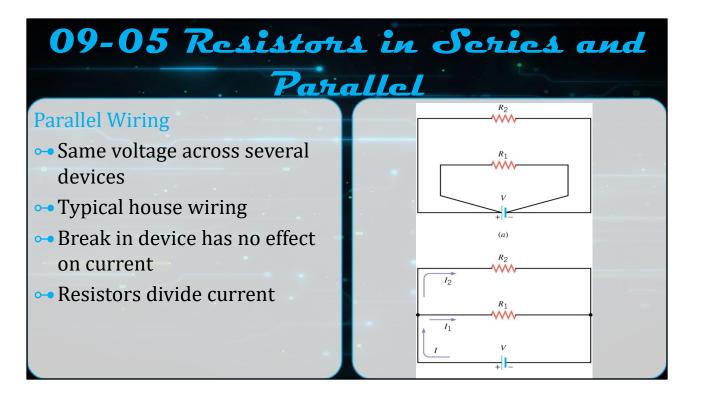
Bathroom vanity lights are occasionally wired in series. V = 120 V and you install 3 bulbs with R = 8Ω and 1 bulb with R = 12Ω.
 What is the current, voltage of each bulb, and the total power used?

••• I = 3.33 A ••• V = 26.7 V, 40 V •••  $P_{total} = 400 W$ 



$$\begin{split} R_S &= 3(8 \ \Omega) + 12 \ \Omega = 36 \ \Omega \\ V &= IR \rightarrow 120 \ V = I(36 \ \Omega) \rightarrow I = 3.33 \ A \\ V &= IR \rightarrow V = (3.33 \ A)(8 \ \Omega) = 26.7 \ V \\ \rightarrow V &= (3.33 \ A)(12 \ \Omega) = 40 \ V \\ P &= I^2R \rightarrow P = (3.33 \ A)^2(8 \ \Omega) = 88.9 \ W \\ \rightarrow P &= (3.33 \ A)^2(12 \ \Omega) = 133.3 \ W \\ P_{total} &= 3(88.9 \ W) + 133.3 \ W = 400 \ W \\ \rightarrow P &= I^2R = (3.33 \ A)^2(36 \ \Omega) = 400 \ W \end{split}$$

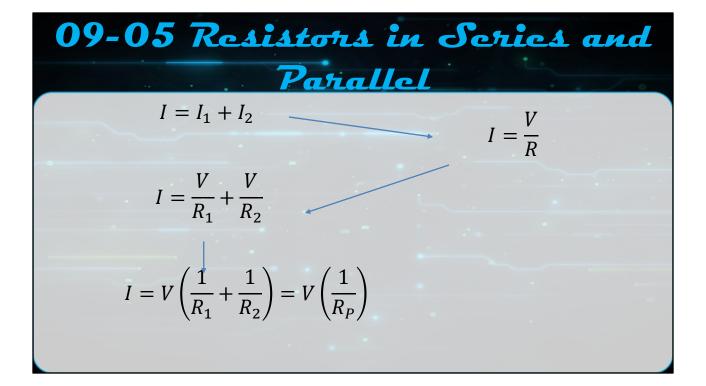
Notice you can total the power and the voltage

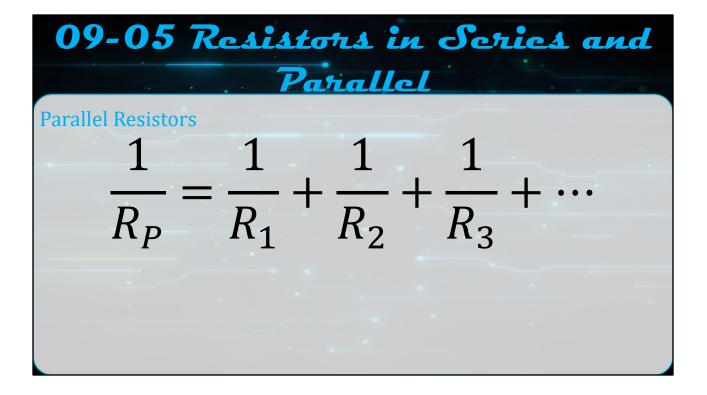


### 09-05 Resistors in Series and Parallel

#### Derivation

- ••• Each branch draws current as if the other wasn't there
- --- Each branch draws less current than the power supply gives
- ••• R = V / I
- ⊶ Overall circuit: Large I → Small R
  - ••Smaller resistance than either branch





$$\frac{1}{R_P} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$$

$$1/R_P = \frac{1}{1004 \,\Omega} + \frac{1}{101 \,\Omega} = 0.000996/\Omega + 0.00990/\Omega = 0.010897/\Omega$$

$$R_P = \frac{1}{0.010897/\Omega} = 91.8 \,\Omega$$

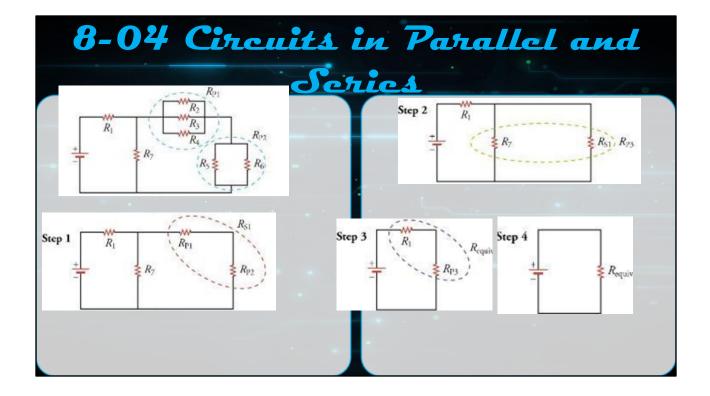
$$V = IR \rightarrow 3 \, V = I(91.8 \,\Omega) \Rightarrow I = 0.0327 \, A = 32.7 \, mA$$

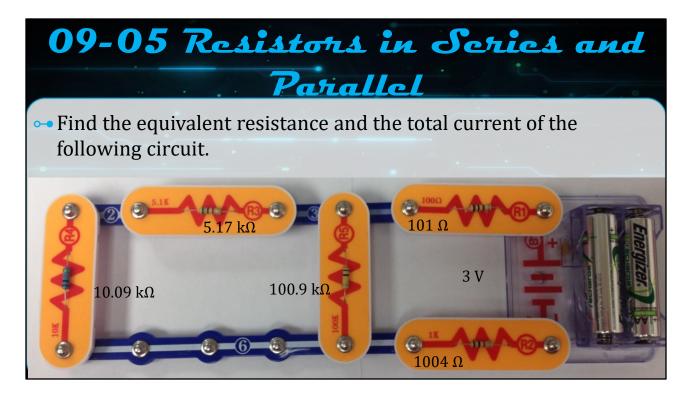
$$V = IR \Rightarrow 3 \, V = I(1004 \,\Omega) \Rightarrow I = 0.0030 \, A$$

$$V = IR \Rightarrow 3 \, V = I(101 \,\Omega) \Rightarrow I = 0.0297 \, A$$

 $= IR \rightarrow 3 V = I(101 \ \Omega) \rightarrow I = 0.029'$ Add them together  $\rightarrow 0.0327 \ A$ 

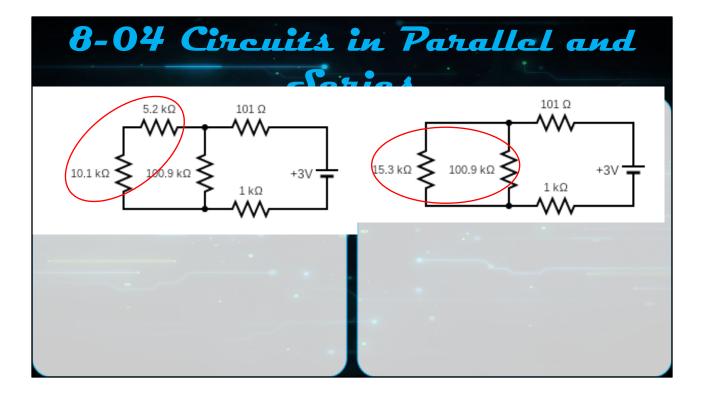
# 09-05 Resistors in Series and Parallel Circuits Wired Partially in Series and Partially in Parallel •• Simplify any series portions of each branch •• Simplify the parallel circuitry of the branches •• If necessary simplify any remaining series





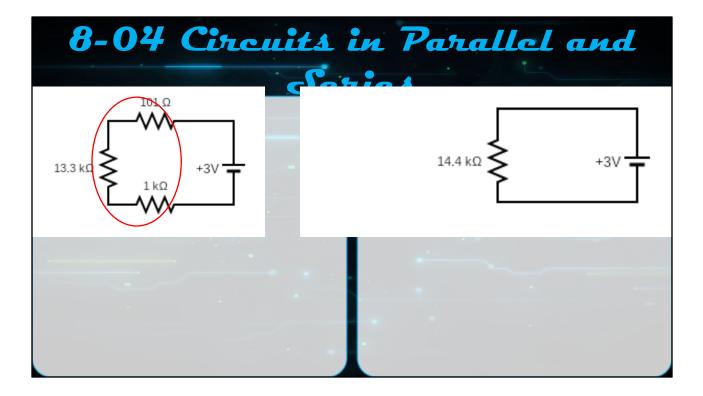
Combine far left branch (series)  $\rightarrow 10090 \ \Omega + 5170 \ \Omega = 15260 \ \Omega$ Combine left two branches (parallel)  $\rightarrow \frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{15260 \ \Omega} + \frac{1}{100900 \ \Omega} \rightarrow \frac{1}{R}$ 

 $= 7.54 \times 10^{-5} \frac{1}{\Omega} \to R = 13255 \Omega$ The rest is series  $\to 13255 \Omega + 1004 \Omega + 101 \Omega = 14360 \Omega$  $V = IR \to 3 V = I(14360 \Omega) \to I = 2.09 \times 10^{-4} A = 209 mA$ 



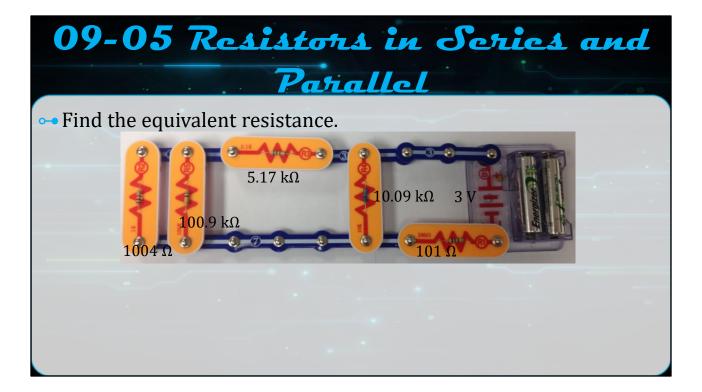
Combine far left branch (series)  $\rightarrow$  10090  $\Omega$  + 5170  $\Omega$  = 15260  $\Omega$ 

Combine left two branches (parallel)  $\rightarrow \frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{15260 \Omega} + \frac{1}{100900 \Omega} \rightarrow \frac{1}{R}$ = 7.54 × 10<sup>-5</sup>  $\frac{1}{\Omega} \rightarrow R = 13255 \Omega$ 

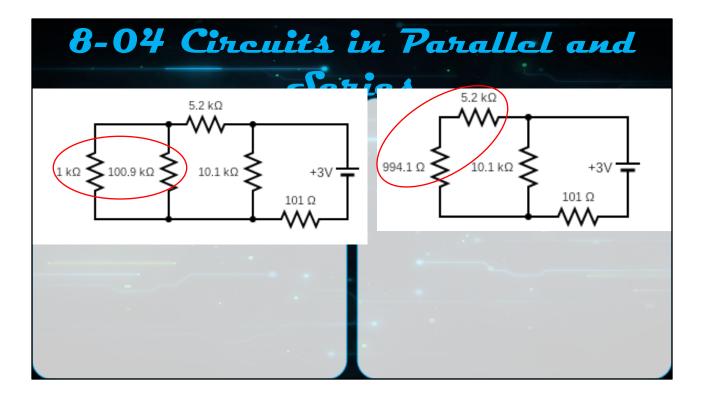


The rest is series  $\rightarrow$  13255  $\Omega$  + 1004  $\Omega$  + 101  $\Omega$  = **14360**  $\Omega$ 

 $V = IR \rightarrow 3 V = I(14360 \ \Omega) \rightarrow I = 2.09 \times 10^{-4} A = 209 \ mA$ 

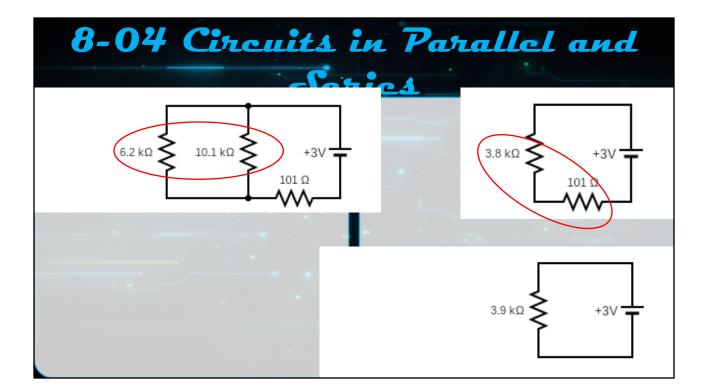


Far left two branches (parallel):  $\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{1004 \Omega} + \frac{1}{100900 \Omega} \rightarrow R = 994.1 \Omega$ Combine series:  $R = 994.1 \Omega + 5170 \Omega = 6164.1 \Omega$ Combine parallel:  $\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{6164.1 \Omega} + \frac{1}{10090 \Omega} \rightarrow R = 3826.5 \Omega$ Combine series:  $R = 3826.5 \Omega + 101 \Omega = 3927 \Omega$ 



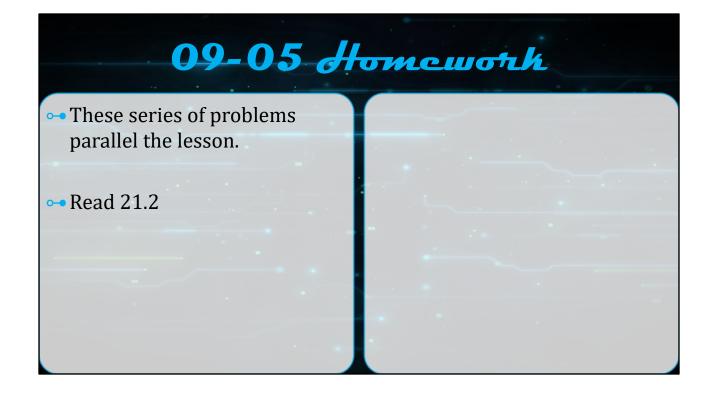
Far left two branches (parallel):  $\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{1004 \Omega} + \frac{1}{100900 \Omega} \rightarrow R = 994.1 \Omega$ 

Combine series:  $R = 994.1 \Omega + 5170 \Omega = 6164.1 \Omega$ 



Combine parallel:  $\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{6164.1 \,\Omega} + \frac{1}{10090 \,\Omega} \to R = 3826.5 \,\Omega$ 

Combine series:  $R = 3826.5 \ \Omega + 101 \ \Omega = 3927 \ \Omega$ 



In this lesson you will...

• Compare and contrast the voltage and the electromagnetic force of an electric power source.

• Describe what happens to the terminal voltage, current, and power delivered to a load as internal resistance of the voltage source increases (due to aging of batteries, for example).

• Explain why it is beneficial to use more than one voltage source connected in parallel.

09-06 Electromotive Force:

Terminal Voltage

### 09-06 Electromotive Force: Terminal Voltage

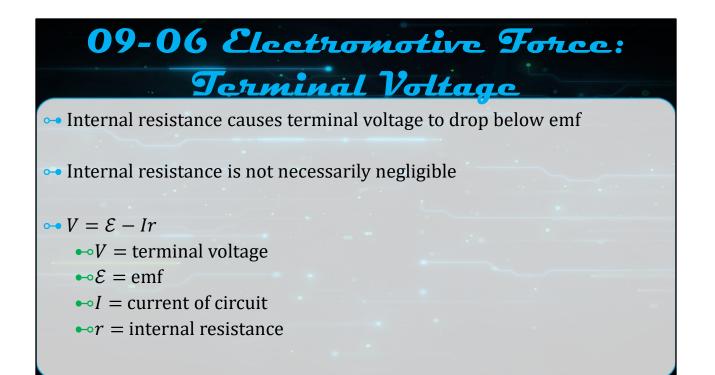
⊶ Emf

- Electromotive force
- ⊷Not really a force
- Really voltage produced that could drive a current

### 09-06 Electromotive Force: Terminal Voltage

**Internal Resistance** 

- ••• Batteries and generators have resistance
- •• In batteries  $\rightarrow$  due to chemicals
- •• In generators  $\rightarrow$  due to wires and other components
- Internal resistance is connected in series with the equivalent resistance of the circuit



### **09-06 Electromotive Force: Terminal Voltage** ••• A string of 20 Christmas light are connected in series with a 3.0 V

A string of 20 Christmas light are connected in series with a 3.0 V battery. Each light has a resistance of 10  $\Omega$ . The terminal voltage is measured as 2.0 V. What is the internal resistance of the battery?

•• 100 Ω

V = IR (circuit w/o battery)2 V = I(20 × 10 Ω)  $\rightarrow$  I = 0.01 A

V = IR (internal resistance)Voltage drop across internal resistance 3 V - 2 V = 1 V $1 V = (0.01 A)R \rightarrow 100 \Omega = R$ 

### 09-06 Electromotive Force: Terminal Voltage

•• A battery has an internal resistance of 0.02 Ω and an emf of 1.5 V. If the battery is connected with five 15 Ω light bulbs connected in parallel, what is the terminal voltage of the battery?

⊶ 1.49 V

Combine parallel circuits

$$\frac{1}{R} = 5\left(\frac{1}{15\ \Omega}\right) \to R = 3\ \Omega$$

Combine with internal resistance

$$R = 3.02 \Omega$$

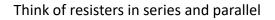
Find current draw

V = IR1.5  $V = I(3.02 \ \Omega) \rightarrow I = 0.497 \ A$ Use the circuit w/o battery to find terminal voltage V = IR $V = (0.496 \ A)(3 \ \Omega) = 1.49 \ V$ 

# 09-06 Electromotive Force:

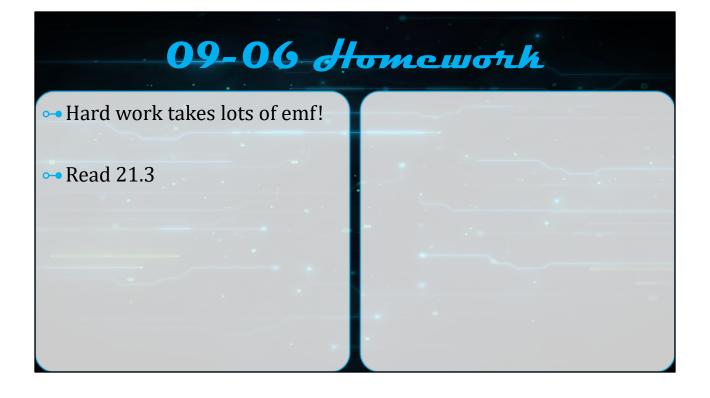


- If batteries are connected in series, their emfs add, but so do the internal resistances
- If batteries are connected in parallel, their emfs stay the same, but the currents add and the combined internal resistance is less



E.

E2



In this lesson you will...

• Analyze a complex circuit using Kirchhoff's rules, using the conventions for determining the correct signs of various terms.

### 09-07 Kirchhoff's Rules

# 09-07 Kirchhoff's Rules

#### Kirchhoff's Rules

- ⊶ Junction Rule
  - Total current into a junction must equal the total current out of a junction

#### ⊶ Loop Rule

- For a closed-circuit loop, the total of all the potential rises total of all potential drops = 0
- ••• (or the total voltage of a loop is zero)

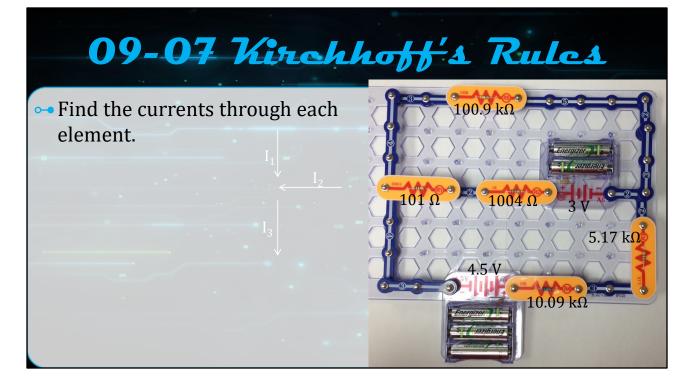
## 09-07 Kirchhoff's Rules

#### **Reasoning Strategy**

- Draw the current in each branch of the circuit (flows out of positive terminal of battery). Choose any direction. If you are wrong you will get a negative current.
- Mark each element with a plus and minus signs at opposite ends to show potential drop. (Current flows from + to – through a resistor)
  - ••• If the current leaves the element at +, voltage rise
  - ••• If the current leaves the element at -, voltage drop
- •• Apply junction rule and loop rule to get as many independent equations as there are variables.
- ••• Solve the system of equations.



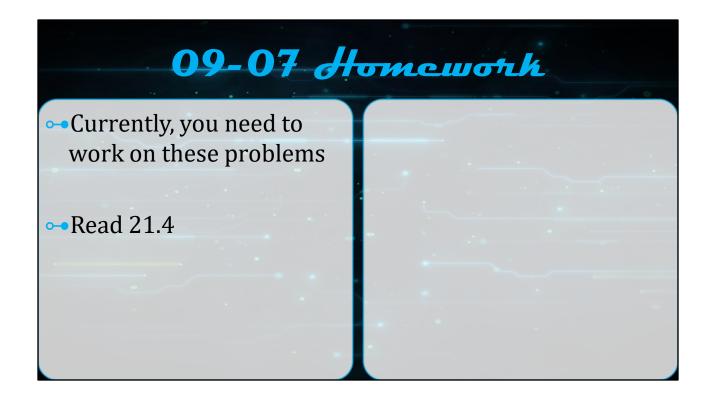
Loop Rule (starting top left going CCW)  $I(10090 \ \Omega) + 4.5 \ V + I(5170 \ \Omega) + I(101 \ \Omega) + I(1004 \ \Omega) = 3 \ V$   $16365 \ \Omega \ I + 4.5 \ V = 3 \ V$   $16365 \ \Omega \ I = -1.5 \ V$  $I = -9.17 \times 10^{-5} \ A = 91.7 \ \mu A$ 



 $\begin{array}{l} Left \ Junction: \ I_3 = I_1 + I_2 \\ Top \ Loop \ CCW: 3 \ V = (I_2)(1004 \ \Omega) + (I_2)(101 \ \Omega) - (I_1)(100900 \ \Omega) \\ Bottom \ Loop \ CW: \ 4.5 \ V + 3 \ V \\ = (I_3)(10090 \ \Omega) + (I_3)(5170 \ \Omega) + (I_2)(1004 \ \Omega) + (I_2)(101 \ \Omega) \end{array}$ 

System  $I_1 + I_2 - I_3 = 0$   $-100900 \Omega(I_1) + 1105 \Omega(I_2) = 3 V$  $1105 \Omega(I_2) + 15260 \Omega(I_3) = 7.5 V$ 

 $I_1 = -2.45 \times 10^{-5} A$ ,  $I_2 = 4.81 \times 10^{-4} A$ ,  $I_3 = 4.57 \times 10^{-4} A$ 

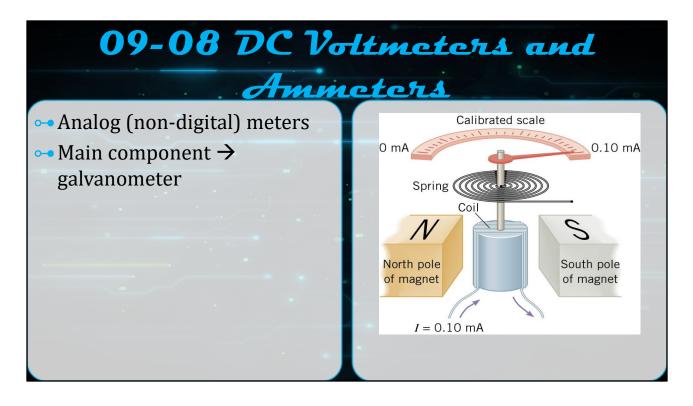


In this lesson you will...

- Explain why a voltmeter must be connected in parallel with the circuit.
- Draw a diagram showing an ammeter correctly connected in a circuit.
- Describe how a galvanometer can be used as either a voltmeter or an ammeter.
- Find the resistance that must be placed in series with a galvanometer to allow it to be used as a voltmeter with a given reading.
- Explain why measuring the voltage or current in a circuit can never be exact.

09-08 DC Voltmeters and

Ammeters



Made of magnets, wire coil, spring, pointer and calibrated scale.

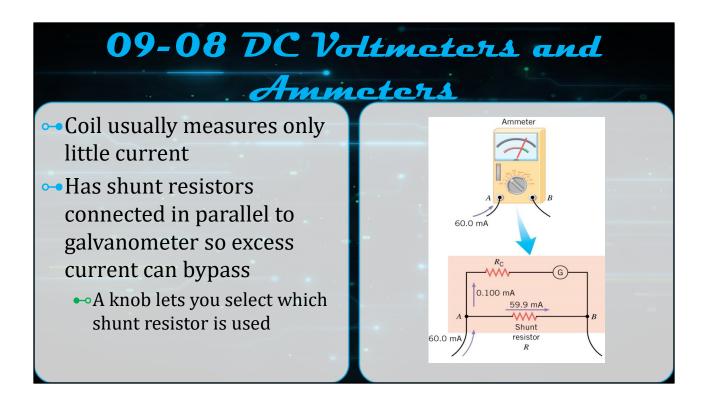
Current flowing through the coil makes it magnetic, so it wants to move. The stronger the current the more the coil will rotate.

### 09-08 DC Voltmeters and Ammeters

#### Ammeters

- Measures current
- Inserted into circuit so current passes through it
  - -Connected in series





Example of Shunt resistors

•Want to measure 100 mA, but meter's coil only reads 0.100 mA.

•Have shunt resistor take 99.9 mA and the coil only gets .1 mA

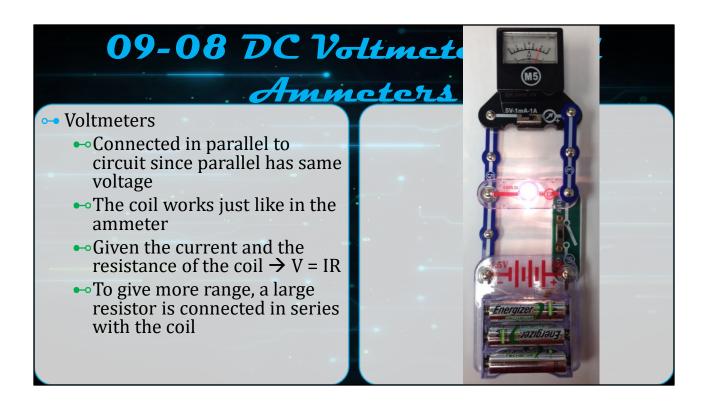
•To know how big to make the shunt resistors, the resistance of the coil needs to be known.

# 09-08 DC Voltmeters and

### Ammeters

••• Problems with Ammeters

- The resistance of the coil and shunt resistors add to the resistance of the circuit
- This reduces the current in the circuit
- Ideal ammeter has no resistance
  - Real-life good ammeters have small resistance so as only cause a negligible change in current

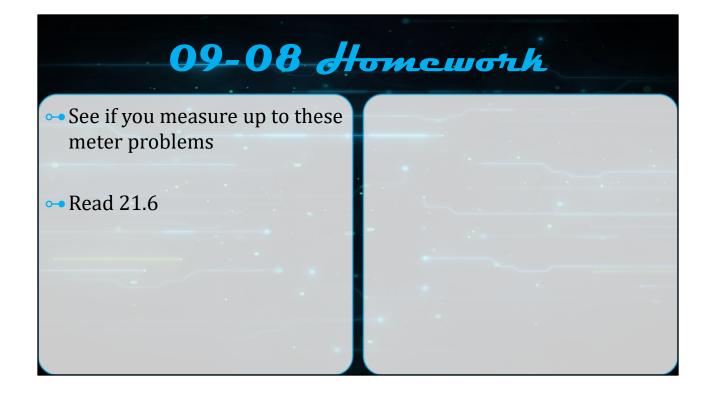


Large resistor is added because if V is constant Big R means small I

### 09-08 DC Voltmeters and Ammeters

--- Problems with Voltmeters

- ••• The voltmeter takes some the voltage out of the circuit
- Ideal voltmeter would have infinitely large resistance as to draw tiny current
- Good voltmeter has large enough resistance as to make the current draw (and voltage drop) negligible



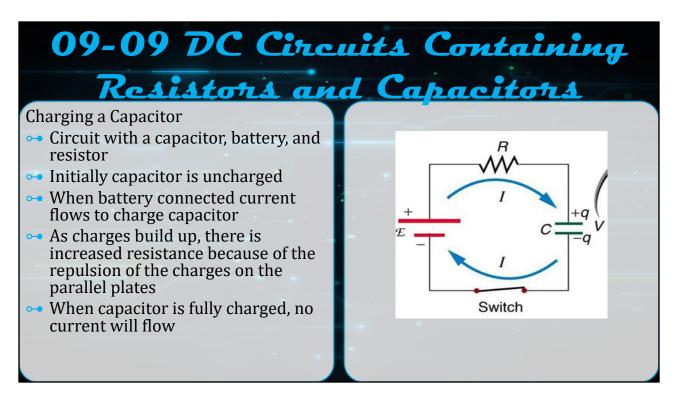
In this lesson you will...

 $\bullet$  Explain the importance of the time constant,  $\tau$  , and calculate the time constant for a given resistance and capacitance.

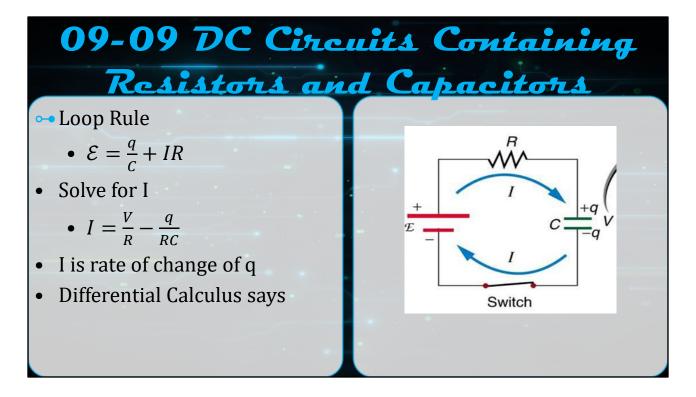
• Describe what happens to a graph of the voltage across a capacitor over time as it charges.

• Explain how a timing circuit works and list some applications.

09-09 DC Circuits Containing Resistors and Capacitors



Current no longer flows because the parallel plates aren't connected and it can't accept anymore charge



Draw the circuit with Battery, capacitor, and resistor

## 09-09 DC Circuits Containing

Resistons and Capacitons

**Charging a Capacitor** 

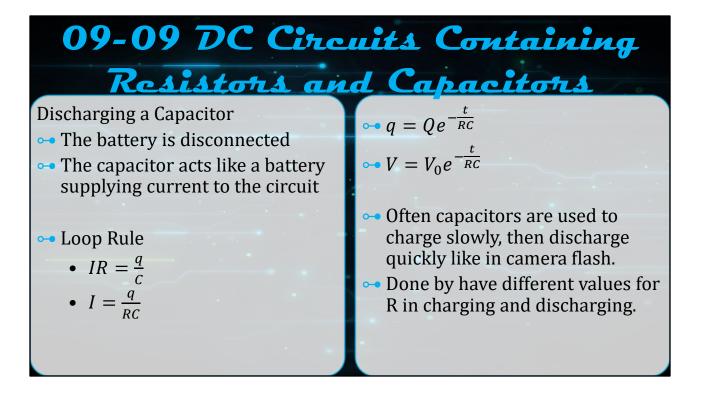
$$q = CV (1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}})$$

RC = τ (time constant – The time required to charge the capacitor to 63.2%)
 CV = Q (maximum charge)

 $V = \mathcal{E} \left( 1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} \right)$ 

⊶ Where

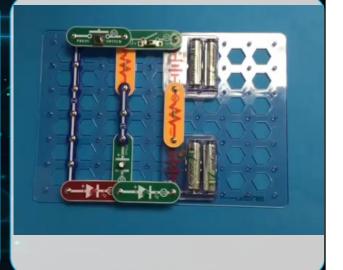
- V is voltage across the capacitor
- ⊷E is emf
- ⊷t is time
- ••• R is resistance of circuit
- ⊷C is capacitance

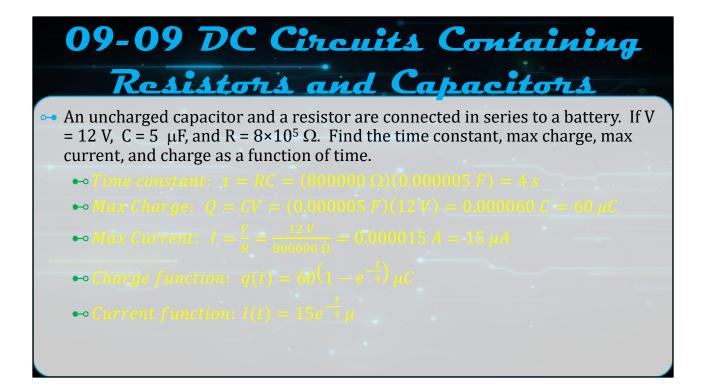


### 09-09 DC Circuits Containing Resistors and Capacitors

 Camera flashes work by charging a capacitor with a battery.

- Usually has a large time constant because batteries cannot produce charge very fast
- The capacitor is then discharged through the flashbulb circuit with a short time constant





Time constant:  $\tau = RC = (800000 \ \Omega)(0.000005 \ F) = 4 \ s$ Max Charge:  $Q = CV = (0.000005 \ F)(12 \ V) = 0.000060 \ C = 60 \ \mu C$ Max Current:  $I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{12 \ V}{800000 \ \Omega} = 0.000015 \ A = 15 \ \mu A$ Charge function:  $q(t) = 60(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{4}}) \ \mu C$ Current function:  $I(t) = 15e^{-\frac{t}{4}} \ \mu A$ 

