

Current Electricity

Electric Current (I)

It is the rate of flow of electric charge flowing through any section of wire.

Ohm's Law

Electric current flowing through a conductor is directly proportional to the potential difference across the two ends of the conductor; physical quantities such as temperature, mechanical strain, etc. remaining constant.

$$V = RI$$

Where, R is a constant for a given conductor

Electrical resistance:

$$R = \rho l / A$$

Where, ρ is the specific resistance or electrical resistivity of the material

Conductance and Electrical conductivity:

$$\text{Conductance } G = A / \rho l$$

Electrical conductivity (σ) is defined as the reciprocal of resistivity.

$$\sigma = 1 / \rho$$

The other form of Ohm's law is

$$J = \sigma E$$

J = current density

E = electric field applied

Motion of electrons due to thermal energy

Free electrons are in continuous random motion. They undergo change in direction at each collision and the thermal velocities are randomly distributed in all directions.

Average thermal velocity, $u = u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + \dots + u_n$ is zero ... (1)

Drift velocity

- $v_d \rightarrow$ is defined as the velocity with which the free electrons get drifted towards the positive terminal under the effect of the applied electric field.
- $J = IA = qAt = neAt$

we know that $I = neAv_d$ or $IA = nev_d$

Therefore, $J = nev_d$

Limitations of Ohm's Law

The Ohm's law ceases to be valid in following cases:

V ceases to be proportional to I .

Sign of V affects the relation between V and I .

There is more than one value of V for the same current.

Factors that affect resistance

I. Length of the conductor

Resistance is directly proportional to the length of the conductor i.e.

$R \propto l$

 Where, $l \rightarrow$ length of the conductor

II. Cross-section of the conductor

Resistance is inversely proportional to the area of cross-section of the conductor i.e.

$R \propto \frac{1}{A}$

$A \rightarrow$ area of cross-section

So, $R \propto \frac{l}{A}$

Or,

$$R = \rho l A$$

Where, ρ is the proportionality constant, called the **electrical resistivity** of the material of the conductor. It is also known as specific resistance.

- The SI unit of resistivity is $\Omega \text{ m}$ (Ohm-meter).
- Resistivity is the characteristic property of a material. It only depends on the nature of the material and not its dimensions. This is one of the major differences between resistance and resistivity. But like resistance, resistivity also varies with temperature.
- Metals have low resistivities. It is in the range of $10^{-8} \Omega \text{ m}$ to $10^{-6} \Omega \text{ m}$.
Insulators have resistivities 10^{18} times greater than metals. Semi-conductors lie in between them. The following table shows the resistivity of some materials at 20°C .

Conductivity

The reciprocal of resistivity is known as conductivity. Its SI unit is ohm-1metre-1 or $\Omega^{-1}\text{m}^{-1}$ or siemen metre-1.

$$\sigma = 1/\rho = l/Ra$$

Finding resistance of the carbon resistor

TABLE 3.2 RESISTOR COLOUR CODES			
Colour	Number	Multiplier	Tolerance (%)
Black	0	1	
Brown	1	10^1	
Red	2	10^2	
Orange	3	10^3	

Yellow	4	10^4	
Green	5	10^5	
Blue	6	10^6	
Violet	7	10^7	
Gray	8	10^8	
White	9	10^9	
Gold		10^{-1}	5
Silver		10^{-2}	10
No colour			20

The resistance of the carbon resistor is found by using the table



Here, first two bands from one end indicate the first two significant figures of resistance in ohms.

Third band indicates the decimal multiplier.

The last band stands for tolerance. Its absence indicates a tolerance of 20%.

Temperature Dependence of Resistivity

- On increasing temperature, the number of collisions of electrons and ions in conductors increases; this, in turn, increases their resistivity.
- Relation between resistivity and temperature:

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

Here, α is the temperature coefficient of resistance of the material of a conductor

- The resistivity of a metallic conductor increases with increase in temperature.
- The resistivity of an alloy has a weak temperature dependence.
- The resistivity of a semiconductor decreases rapidly with increasing temperature.

Alloys are used for preparing standard resistance coils because of their high resistance and low temperature coefficient of resistance.

Superconductivity

- Superconductivity is the phenomenon in which a material loses its resistivity completely.
- Superconducting cables can be used for power distribution without loss.
- Speed of a computer can be increased by superconducting wires.
- Superconductivity can help produce a very strong magnetic field without power loss.
- Superconductivity exists at subzero temperature, which hinders its use at normal temperature.

Thermistor

- Thermistor is a heat-sensitive semiconductor device whose resistance changes very rapidly with change in temperature.
- It is used for remote sensing, voltage stabilisation, temperature control, etc.

Electric Energy

It is the work done by the source of *emf* in maintaining the electric current in the circuit for a given time.

$$W = VIt$$

Electric Power

It is the rate at which work is done by the source of *emf* in maintaining the electric current in a circuit.

$$P=V^2/R=I^2R$$

Electric Cell

- Primary Cell – In a primary cell, chemical energy is directly converted to electrical energy. They cannot be reused once completely discharged.

For example, simple voltaic cell, Leclanche cell

- Secondary Cell– In a secondary cell also, chemical energy is directly converted to electrical energy. But the basic difference between primary and secondary cells is that secondary cells are reusable as they can be charged using external sources. Thus, when secondary cells are charged, electric energy gets converted into chemical energy.

Examples of secondary cells: lead acid cell, Ni–Cd cell

Emf

Potential difference between the two poles of the cell in an open circuit is called *emf* of the cell.

Internal resistance (*r*) of cell

Resistance offered by the electrolyte of the cell when the electric current flows through it is,

$$r = \frac{E - V}{I}$$

where,

E – *emf* of cell

r – Internal resistance of the cell

R – External resistance

K – Key

V – Voltmeter

Combination of cells

Series combination of the cells

The equivalent emf of a series combination of n cells (E_{eq})

$$E_{eq} = E_1 + E_2 + \dots + E_n$$

The equivalent internal resistance of a series combination of n cells (r_{eq})

$$r_{eq} = r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n$$

Parallel combination of the cells

For a parallel combination of n cells with emfs $E_1, E_2, \dots$ and E_n and internal resistances $r_1, r_2, \dots$ and r_n

Equivalent emf:

$$E_{eq} = \frac{E_1 r_1 + E_2 r_2 + \dots + E_n r_n}{r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n}$$

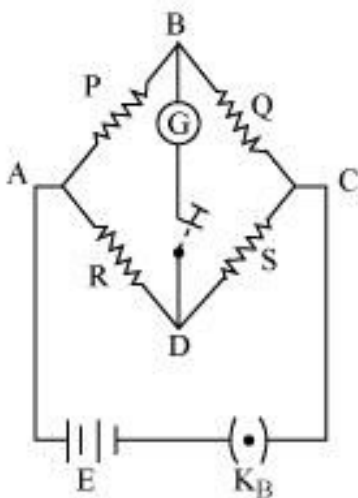
Equivalent internal resistance(r_{eq}) :

$$\frac{1}{r_{eq}} = \frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{r_n}$$

Kirchhoff's laws:

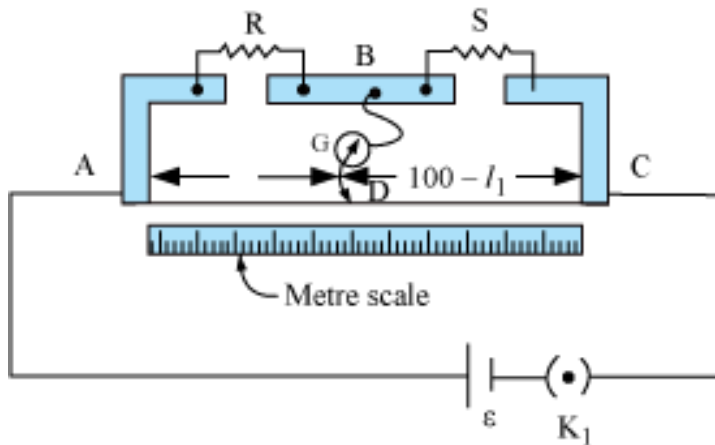
- First law: In any electrical network, the algebraic sum of the currents, sum for blank of I, meeting at a junction is always zero.
- Second law: The algebraic sum of all the potential drops and emfs along any closed path in a network is zero.

Wheatstone bridge:



$\frac{P}{Q} = \frac{R}{S}$

Metre Bridge:



Here comma space R over S equals fraction numerator R subscript cm end subscript l_1 subscript 1 over denominator R subscript cm end subscript left parenthesis $100 - l_1$ subscript 1 right parenthesis end fraction therefore R equals fraction numerator S subscript 1 over denominator $100 - l_1$ subscript 1 end fraction

- **Causes of probable errors while using a metre bridge:**

- Uneven thickness of the wire used in the metre bridge
 - Contact resistances developed at the ends of the wire of the metre bridge
 - Ends of the wire not coinciding with the 0 and 100 cm marks of a metre scale
- We can minimise the errors in a metre bridge by using wire of uniform thickness and repeating the experiment by changing the position of the unknown resistance.
 - In Kelvin's method, the resistance of galvanometer is given by

G space equals space R cross times open parentheses fraction numerator l subscript g over denominator $100 - l$ subscript g end fraction close parentheses, where R is the resistance and l_g is the point where the galvanometer shows the same deflection as shown while the jockey was not touching the wire.

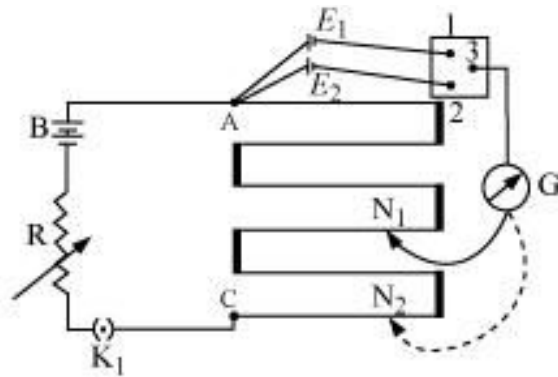
- **Potentiometer**

It works on the principle that on passing a constant current, the potential drop across any portion of the wire is directly proportional to the length of that portion.

i.e., $V \propto l$

- **Applications of a Potentiometer**

Comparison of emfs of two cells

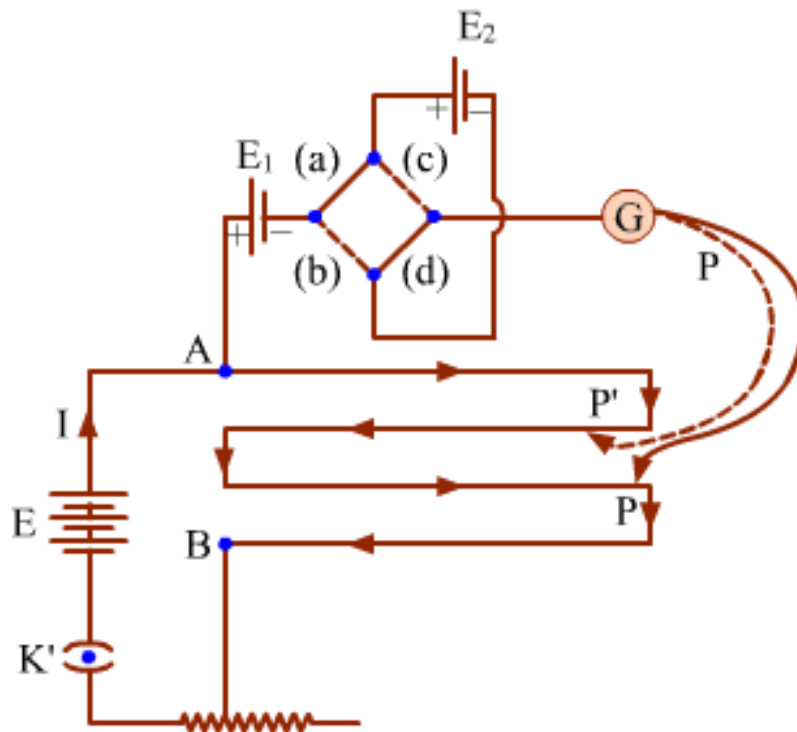


$$E_1 E_2 = l_1 l_2$$

Measurement of internal resistance of a cell

$$r = R \frac{l_1}{l_2} - R$$

Comparison of emfs using the sum and difference method



$$E_1 E_2 = L_1 + L_2 \quad L_1 - L_2$$

- **Sensitivity of Potentiometer**

The smallest potential difference that can be measured with a potentiometer is known as its sensitivity. The sensitivity of a potentiometer can be increased by

decreasing its potential gradient (E/l). The potential gradient can be decreased by following ways:

- Increasing the length of potentiometer
- Decreasing the current in the potentiometer wire circuit if the wire is of fixed length
- **Precautions to be taken while using a potentiometer**
 - The potentiometer wire must be uniform.
 - The resistance of potentiometer wire should be high.
 - The emf of the battery must be greater than the emfs that are to be compared.
- **Advantages of a potentiometer**
 - It can measure the terminal potential difference as well as the emf of a cell.
 - Its accuracy can also be increased by increasing the length of the wire.
- **Disadvantages of a potentiometer**
 - It cannot directly indicate the value of the potential difference.
 - It is not portable.