

Chapter 25 – Current, Resistance and Electromotive Force

- Current
- Resistivity
- Resistance
- Electromotive Force and Circuits
- Energy and Power in Electric Circuits
- Theory of Metallic Conduction

1. Current

Electric current: charges in motion from one region to another.

Electric circuit: conducting path that forms a closed loop in which charges move. In these circuits, energy is conveyed from one place to another.

Electrostatics: $E = 0$ within a conductor \rightarrow Current (I) = 0, but not all charges are at rest, free electrons can move ($v \sim 10^6$ m/s). Electrons are attracted to + ions in material \rightarrow do not escape.

Electron motion is random \rightarrow no net charge flow

Non-electrostatic: $E \neq 0$ inside conductor $\rightarrow \vec{F} = q \vec{E}$

Charged particle moving in **vacuum** \rightarrow steady acceleration // F

Charged particle moving in a **conductor** \rightarrow collisions with “nearly” stationary massive ions in material change random motion of charged particles.

Due to E , superposition of random motion of \rightarrow charge + slow net motion (**drift**) of charged particles as a group in direction of $F = q E \rightarrow$ net current in conductor.

Drift velocity (v_d) = 10^{-4} m/s (slow)

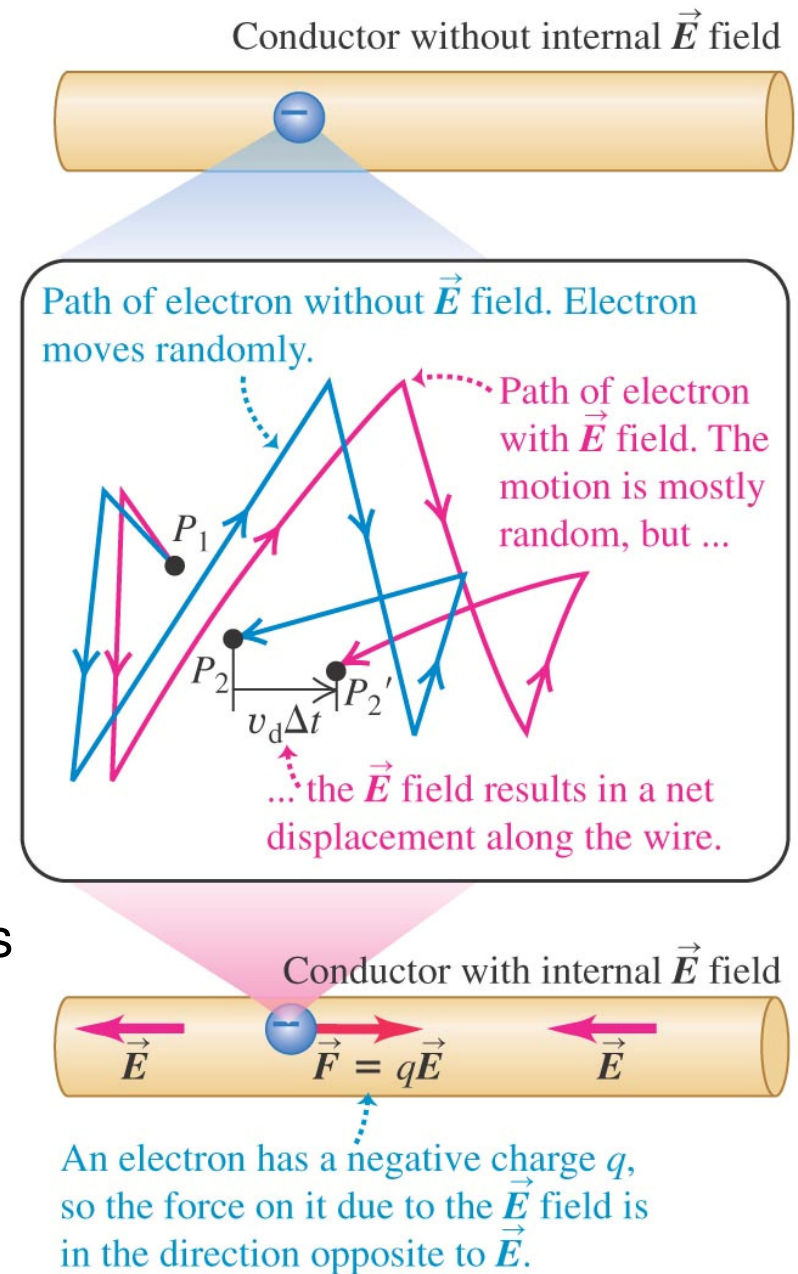
Direction of current flow:

- In the absence of an external field, electrons move randomly in a conductor. If a field exists near the conductor, its force on the electron imposes a drift.
- E does work on moving charges \rightarrow transfer of KE to the conductor through collisions with ions \rightarrow increase in vibrational energy of ions \rightarrow increase T.
- Much of W done by E goes into heating the conductor, not into accelerating charges faster and faster.

Metal: moving charges –

Ionized gas (plasma) or ionic solution: moving charges + or –

Semiconductor: electron + hole (vacancy) conduction



- Positive charges would move with the electric field, electrons move in opposition.
- The motion of electrons in a wire is analogous to water coursing through a river.

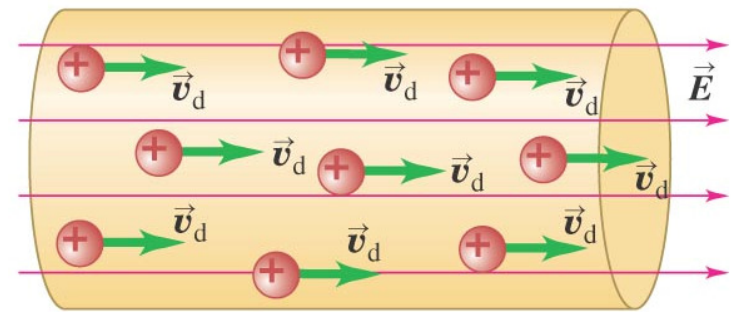
Conventional current (I): direction in which there is a flow of positive charge.

This direction is not necessarily the same as the direction in which charged particles are actually moving.

Current:

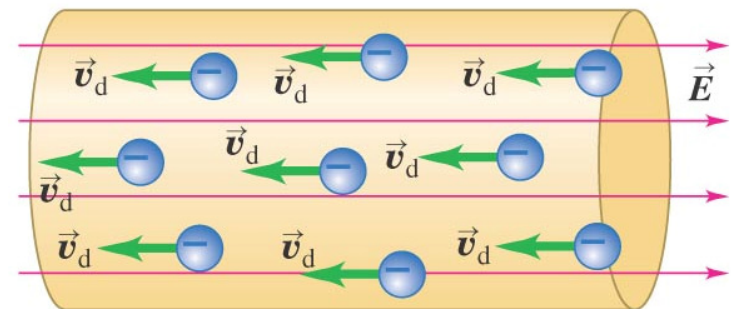
$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$

- Current is not a vector! → no single vector can describe motion along curved path.



A **conventional current** is treated as a flow of positive charges, regardless of whether the free charges in the conductor are positive, negative, or both.

(b)



In a metallic conductor, the moving charges are electrons — but the *current* still points in the direction positive charges would flow.

Current units: $1 \text{ A} = 1 \text{ C/s}$

Current (I) is the time rate of charge transfer through a cross sectional area.

The random component of each moving charged particle's motion averages to zero $\rightarrow I$ in same direction as E .

Current, Drift Velocity and Current Density:

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = n|q|v_d A$$

n = concentration of charged particles

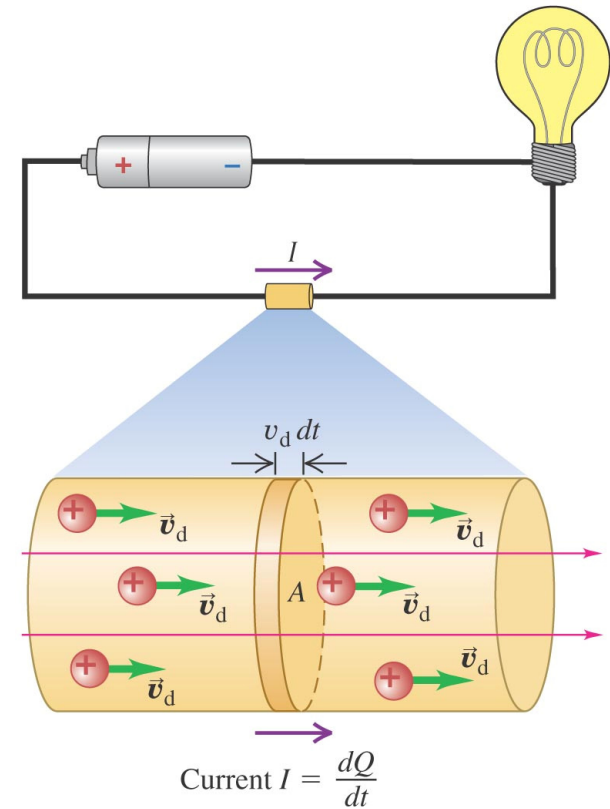
v_d = drift velocity

Current Density (J):

$$J = \frac{I}{A} = n|q|v_d$$

$$\vec{J} = nq\vec{v}_d$$

J is a vector, describes how charges flow at a certain point.



Steady current (closed circuit): total charge in every segment of conductor is constant → equal rate of flow of charge in and out of segment.

Direct current: direction of current is always the same.

Alternating current: current continuously changes direction.

2. Resistivity

Ohm's law → \vec{J} directly proportional to \vec{E} .

(Intrinsic material property)

$$1 \text{ Ohm} = 1 \Omega =$$

$$\frac{\text{V}}{\text{A}}$$

Resistivity:

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

Units: $\frac{\Omega \cdot \text{m}}{\text{m}} = (\text{V}/\text{m})/(\text{A}/\text{m}^2) = (\text{V}/\text{A})$

Substance			$\rho (\Omega \cdot \text{m})$	Substance			$\rho (\Omega \cdot \text{m})$
Conductors				Semiconductors			
Metals	Silver		1.47×10^{-8}	Pure carbon (graphite)		3.5×10^{-5}	
	Copper		1.72×10^{-8}	Pure germanium		0.60	
	Gold		2.44×10^{-8}	Pure silicon		2300	
	Aluminum		2.75×10^{-8}	Insulators			
	Tungsten		5.25×10^{-8}	Amber		5×10^{14}	
	Steel		20×10^{-8}	Glass		$10^{10}-10^{14}$	
	Lead		22×10^{-8}	Lucite		$>10^{13}$	
Alloys	Mercury		95×10^{-8}	Mica		$10^{11}-10^{15}$	
	Manganin (Cu 84%, Mn 12%, Ni 4%)		44×10^{-8}	Quartz (fused)		75×10^{16}	
	Constantan (Cu 60%, Ni 40%)		49×10^{-8}	Sulfur		10^{15}	
	Nichrome		100×10^{-8}	Teflon		$>10^{13}$	
				Wood		10^8-10^{11}	

Conductivity: $1/\rho$

Metals: good electrical and thermal conductors. Very large difference in conductivity of metals vs. insulators \rightarrow possible to confine electric currents.

Semiconductors: intermediate resistivity between metal & insulator.

Resistivity and Temperature:

$$\rho(T) = \rho_0[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)]$$

α = temperature coefficient of resistivity

Metal: ρ increases with T

Semiconductor: ρ decreases with T

Superconductor: ρ first decreases smoothly with decreasing T and becomes zero $< T_c$ (critical T)

Highest $T_c = 233 \text{ K}$ (2009) $\rightarrow \text{Ta}_5\text{Ba}_4\text{Ca}_2\text{Cu}_{10}\text{O}_x$

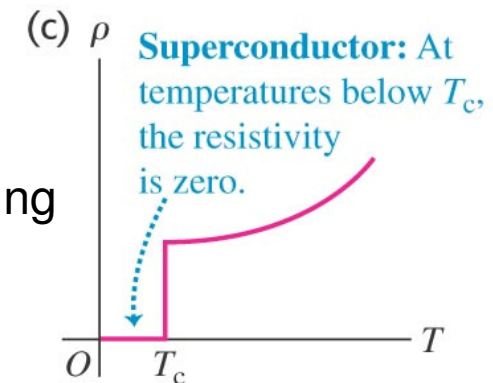
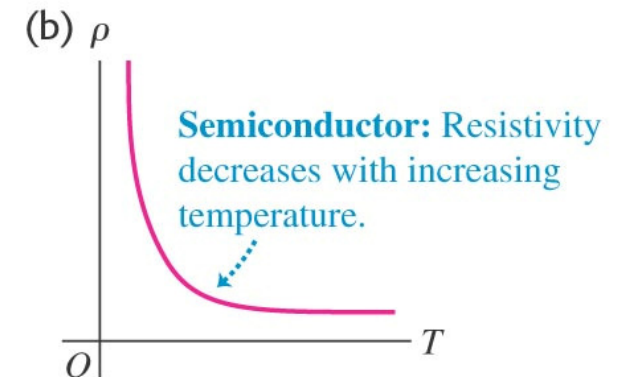
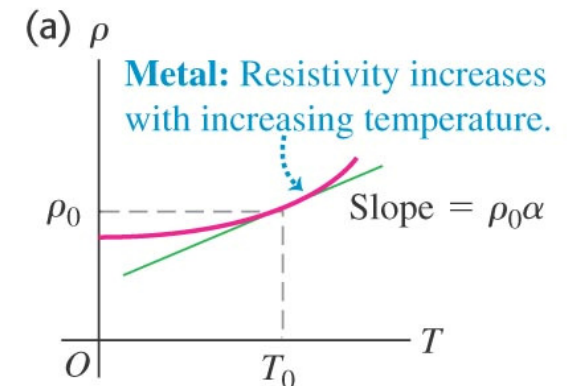


Table 25.2 Temperature Coefficients of Resistivity
(Approximate Values Near Room Temperature)

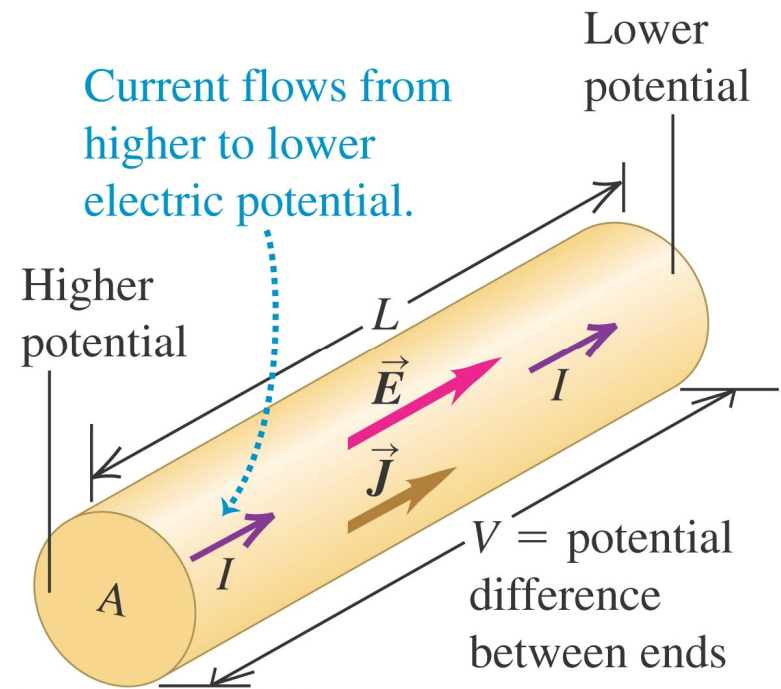
Material	$\alpha [(\text{°C})^{-1}]$	Material	$\alpha [(\text{°C})^{-1}]$
Aluminum	0.0039	Lead	0.0043
Brass	0.0020	Manganin	0.00000
Carbon (graphite)	-0.0005	Mercury	0.00088
Constantan	0.00001	Nichrome	0.0004
Copper	0.00393	Silver	0.0038
Iron	0.0050	Tungsten	0.0045

3. Resistance

$$\vec{E} = \rho \cdot \vec{J} \quad \text{Ohm's law} \rightarrow \rho = \text{constant}$$

Current direction: from higher V end to lower V end. Follows E direction, independent of sign of moving charges.

- As the current flows through a potential difference, electric potential energy is lost. This energy is transferred to the ions of conducting material during collisions.



$$I = J \cdot A$$

$$V = E \cdot L$$

$$E = \frac{V}{L} = \rho \cdot J = \rho \frac{I}{A} \quad \rightarrow \quad V = \frac{\rho \cdot L}{A} I$$

R = resistance



Resistance:

$$R = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{\rho \cdot L}{A}$$

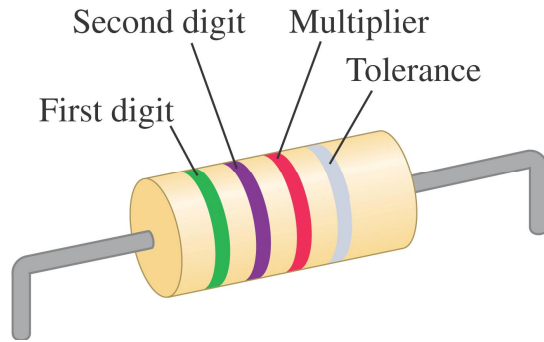
$$V = I \cdot R$$

Ohm's law (conductors)

Units: Ohm = Ω = 1 V/A

$$R(T) = R_0 [1 + \alpha(T - T_0)]$$

Resistor: circuit device with a fixed R between its ends.



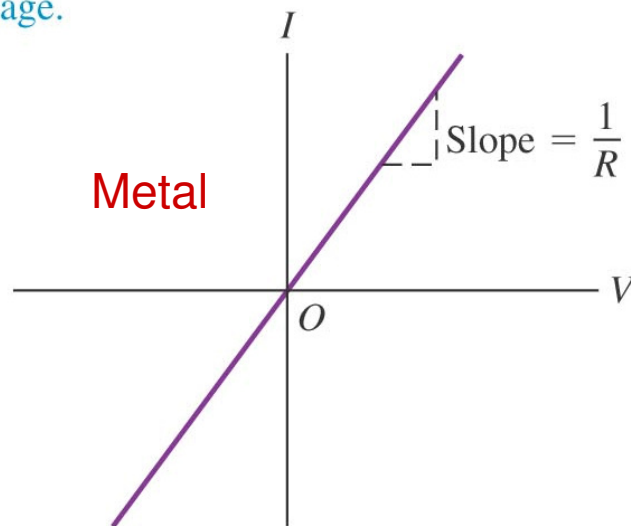
Ex: $5.7 \text{ k}\Omega$ = green (5) violet (7) red multiplier (100)

Table 25.3 Color Codes for Resistors

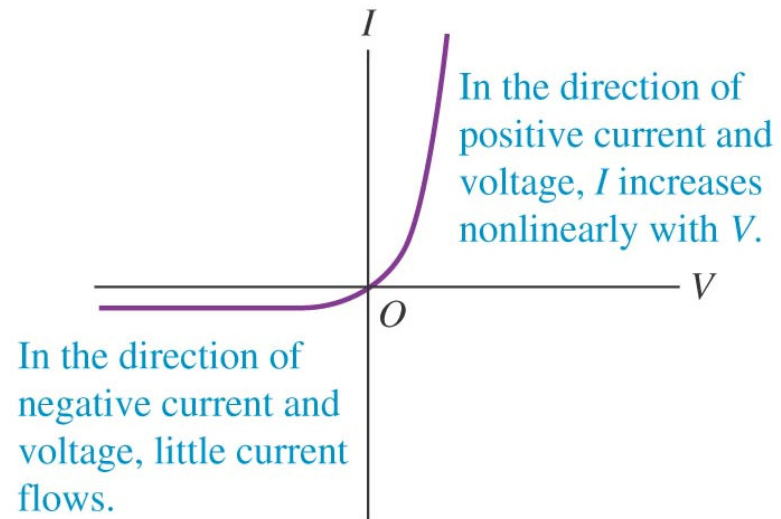
Color	Value as Digit	Value as Multiplier
Black	0	1
Brown	1	10
Red	2	10^2
Orange	3	10^3
Yellow	4	10^4
Green	5	10^5
Blue	6	10^6
Violet	7	10^7
Gray	8	10^8
White	9	10^9

Current-voltage curves

Ohmic resistor (e.g., typical metal wire): At a given temperature, current is proportional to voltage.



Semiconductor diode: a nonohmic resistor



4. Electromotive Force and Circuits

- No steady motion of charge in incomplete circuit.

Electromotive Force (emf)

- In an electric circuit there should be a device that acts like the water pump in a fountain = source of emf.

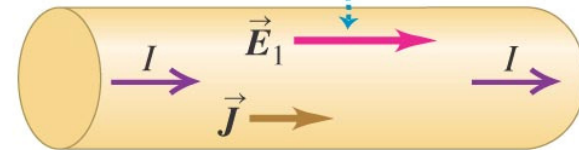
- In this device, the charge travels “uphill” from lower to higher V (opposite to normal conductor) due to the emf force.

- emf is not a force but energy/unit charge

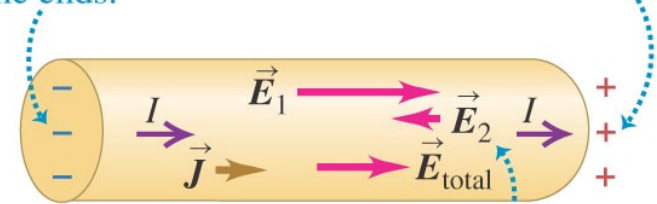
Units: $1 \text{ V} = 1 \text{ J/C}$

- emf device convert energy (mechanical, chemical, thermal) into electric potential energy and transfer it to circuit.

(a) An electric field \vec{E}_1 produced inside an isolated conductor causes a current.

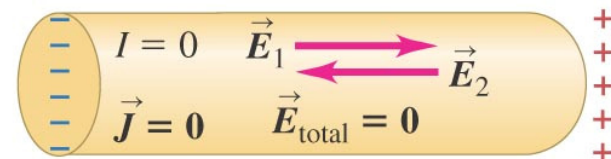


(b) The current causes charge to build up at the ends.



The charge buildup produces an opposing field \vec{E}_2 , thus reducing the current.

(c) After a very short time \vec{E}_2 has the same magnitude as \vec{E}_1 ; then the total field is $\vec{E}_{total} = \mathbf{0}$ and the current stops completely.



- Ideal emf device maintains a constant potential difference between its terminals, independent of I.

Electric force: $\vec{F}_e = q\vec{E}$

Non electrostatic force: \vec{F}_n

maintains potential difference between terminals. If $F_n=0 \rightarrow$ charge will flow between terminals until $V_{ab}=0$

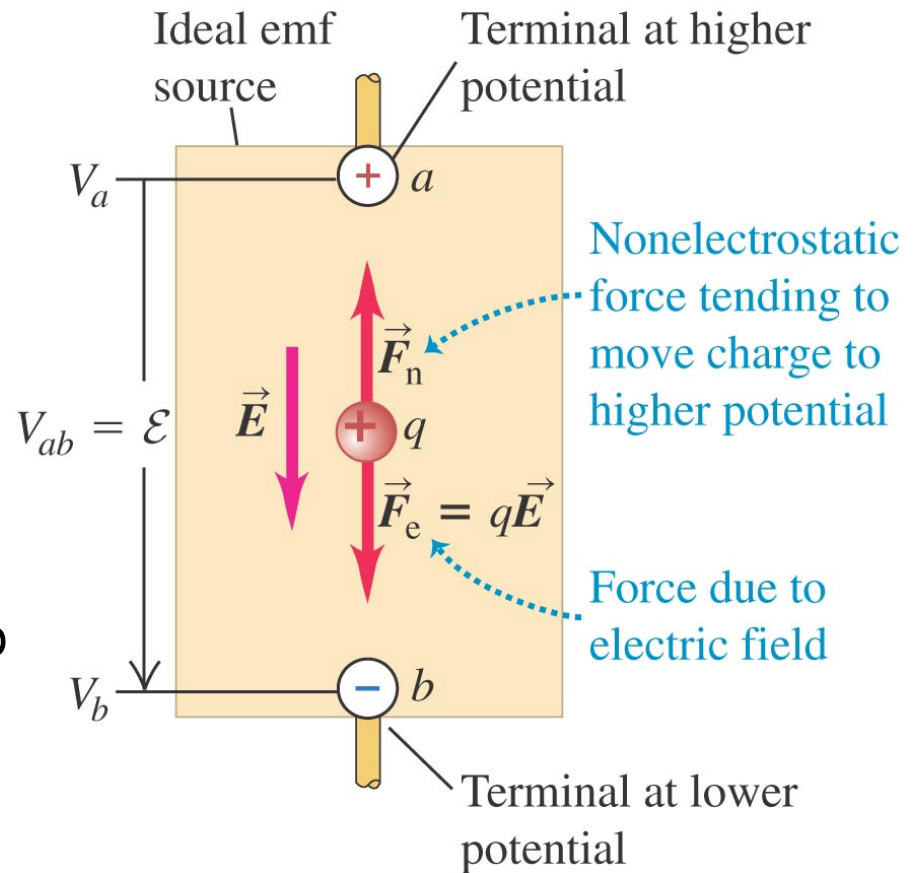
$W_n = q\epsilon$ displacement opposite to $F_e \rightarrow$ potential energy increases by $q \cdot V_{ab}$

$$W_n = \Delta E = q\epsilon = \Delta K + \Delta U$$

$$= U_a - U_b = q(V_a - V_b)$$

$V_{ab} = \epsilon$ Ideal source of emf ($F_e = F_n$) Total work on q = 0

Ideal diagram of "open" circuit



When the emf source is not part of a closed circuit, $F_n = F_e$ and there is no net motion of charge between the terminals.

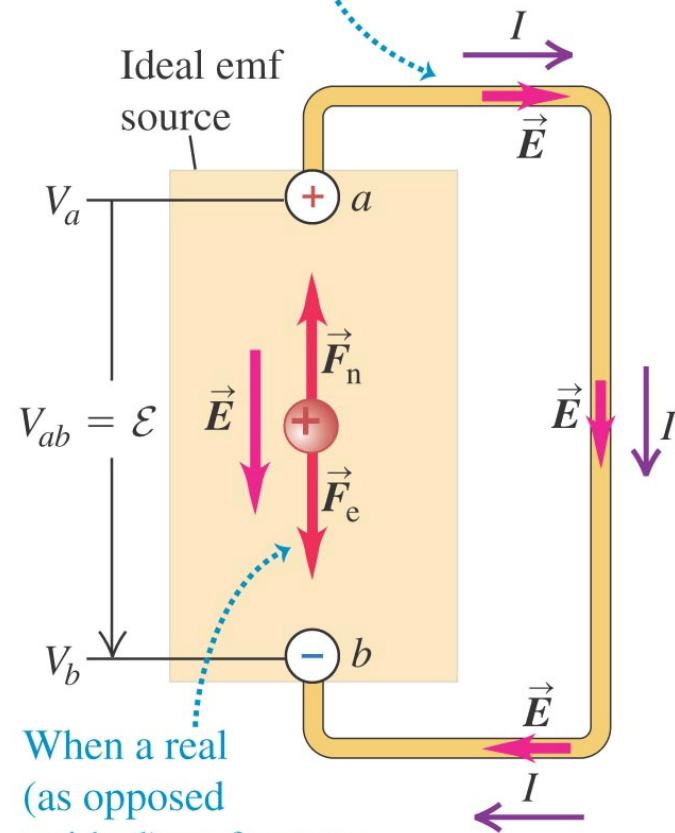
$$V_{ab} = \mathcal{E} = I R$$

- When a positive charge q flows around a circuit, the potential rise \mathcal{E} as it passes through the ideal source is equal to the potential drop V_{ab} as it passes through remainder of circuit.

-The current is same at every point of a circuit, even if wire thickness different at different points of circuit. **Charge is conserved** and cannot be accumulated in circuit.

Ideal diagram of "closed" circuit

Potential across terminals creates electric field in circuit, causing charges to move.

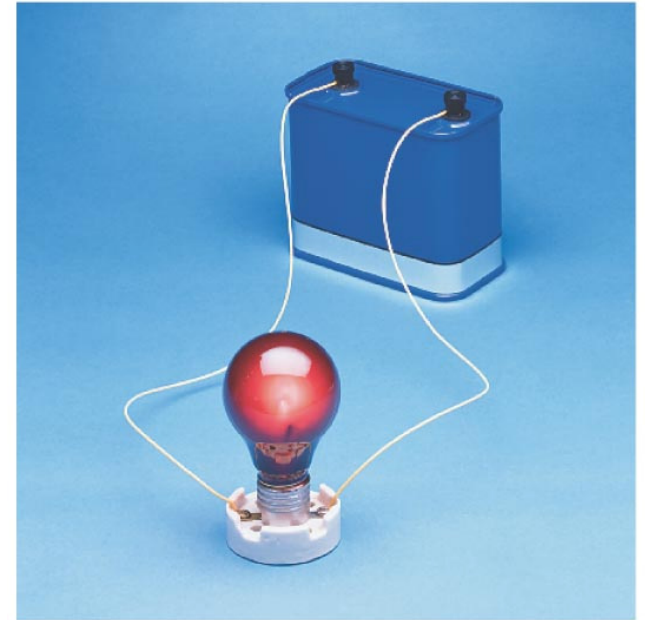


When a real (as opposed to ideal) emf source

is connected to a circuit, V_{ab} and thus F_e fall, so that $F_n > F_e$ and \vec{F}_n does work on the charges.

Internal resistance

- In a battery, you only get 12 V when it isn't connected.
- Making connections allows electrons to flow, but internal resistance within battery delivers incrementally less than 12 V.
- The potential difference across a **real source** is not equal to emf. Charge moving through the material of the source encounters **internal resistance (r)**.



Terminal voltage:




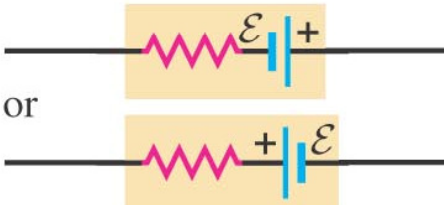


$$V_{ab} = \mathcal{E} - Ir$$

Source with internal resistance

- For a real source, $V_{ab} = \mathcal{E}$ (emf) only if no current flows through source.

$$I = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R + r}$$

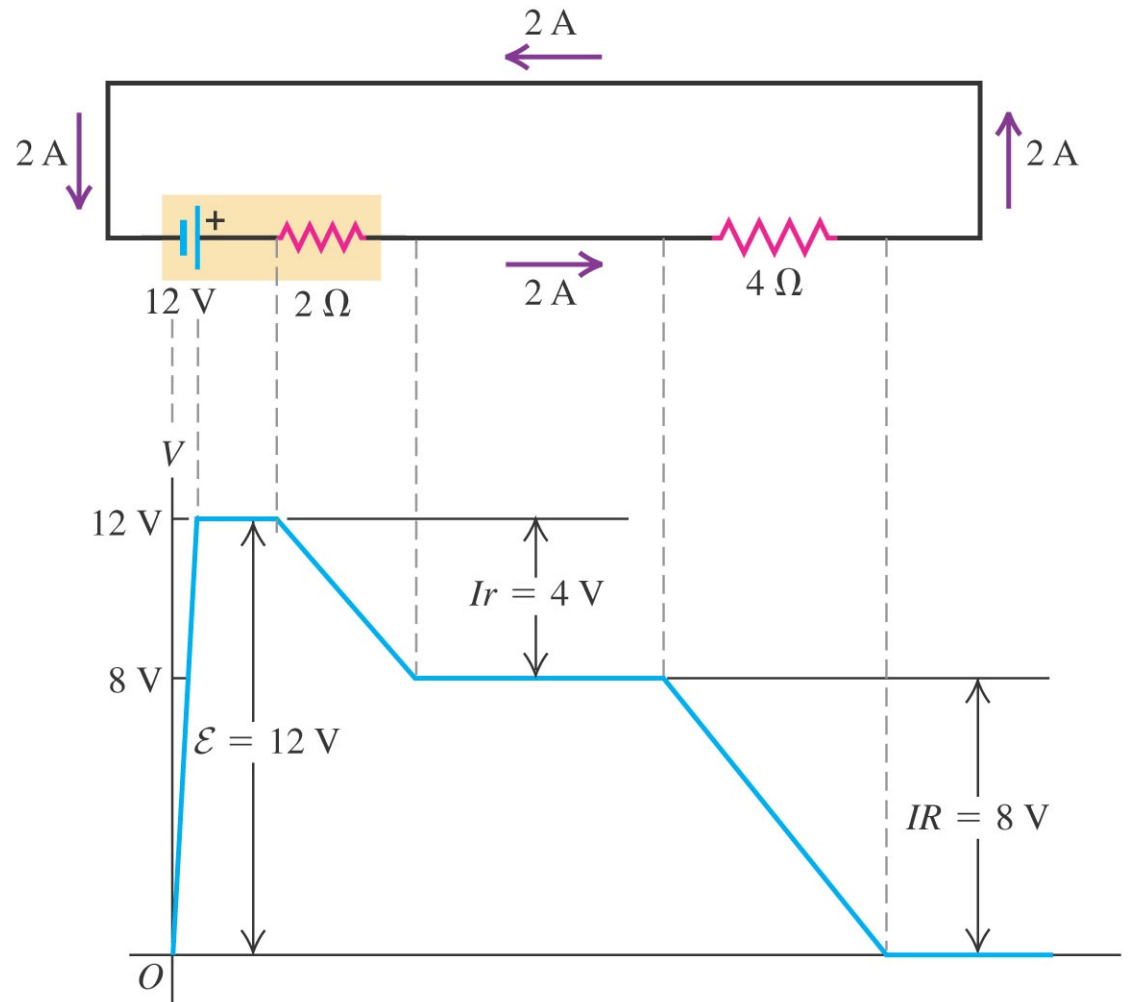
Table 25.4 Symbols for Circuit Diagrams

	Conductor with negligible resistance
	Resistor
	Source of emf (longer vertical line always represents the positive terminal, usually the terminal with higher potential)
<p>or</p> 	Source of emf with internal resistance r (r can be placed on either side)
	Voltmeter (measures potential difference between its terminals)
	Ammeter (measures current through it)

- The meters do not disturb the circuit in which they are connected.
- **Voltmeter** \rightarrow infinite resistance $\rightarrow I = V/R \rightarrow I = 0$ (measures V)
- **Ammeter** \rightarrow zero resistance $\rightarrow V = IR = 0$ (measures I)

Potential changes around a circuit

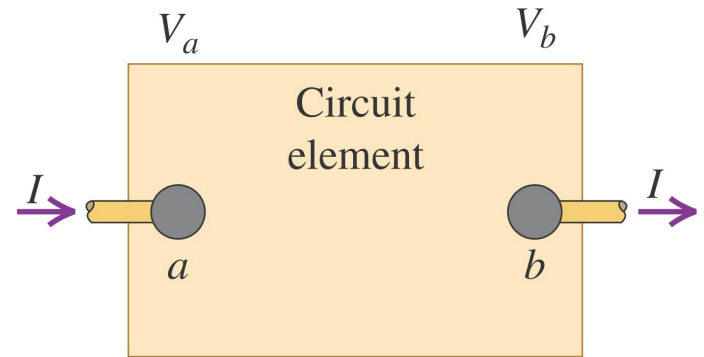
- The net change in potential energy for a charge q making a round trip around a complete circuit must be zero.
- Local differences in potential occur.



5. Energy and Power in Circuits

Power: rate at which energy is delivered to or extracted from a circuit element.

$$P = V_{ab} I = (V_a - V_b) I$$



Units: 1 Watt = W = V A = (J/C) (C/s) = J/s

Potential Input to a Pure Resistance

$$P = V_{ab} I = I^2 R = \frac{V_{ab}^2}{R}$$

Rate of transfer of electric potential energy into the circuit ($V_a > V_b$) \rightarrow energy dissipated (heat) in resistor at a rate $I^2 R$.

Potential Output of a source

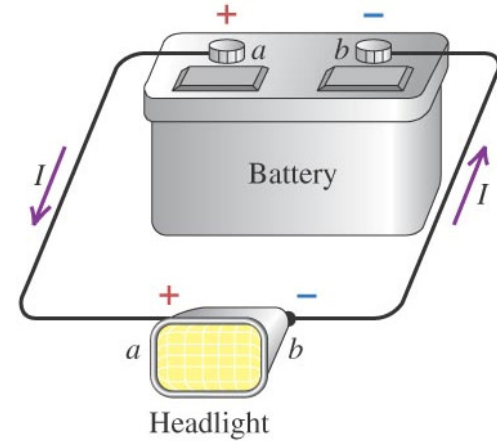
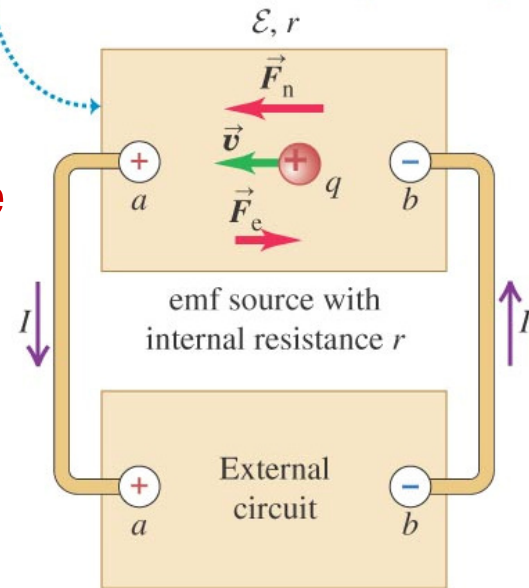
$$P = V_{ab} I = (\mathcal{E} - Ir) I = \mathcal{E} \cdot I - I^2 r$$

$\mathcal{E} I$ = rate at which the emf source converts nonelectrical to electrical energy.

$I^2 r$ = rate at which electric energy is dissipated at the internal resistance of source.

Potential Output of a source

- The difference $\mathcal{E}I - I^2r$ is its power output.

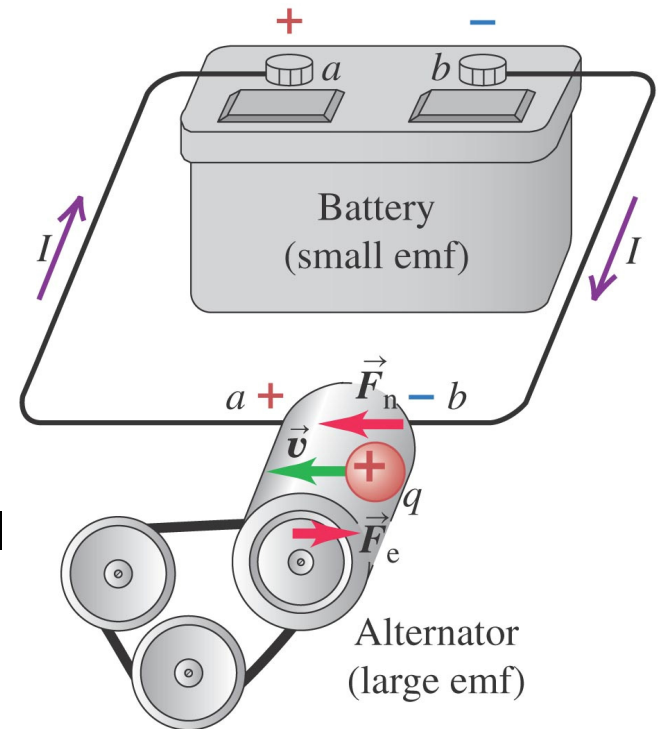


Potential Input to a source

$$P = V_{ab}I = (\mathcal{E} + Ir)I = \mathcal{E} \cdot I + I^2r$$

Conversion of electrical energy into non-electrical energy in the upper source at a rate $\mathcal{E} I$.

$I^2 r$ = rate of dissipation of energy.

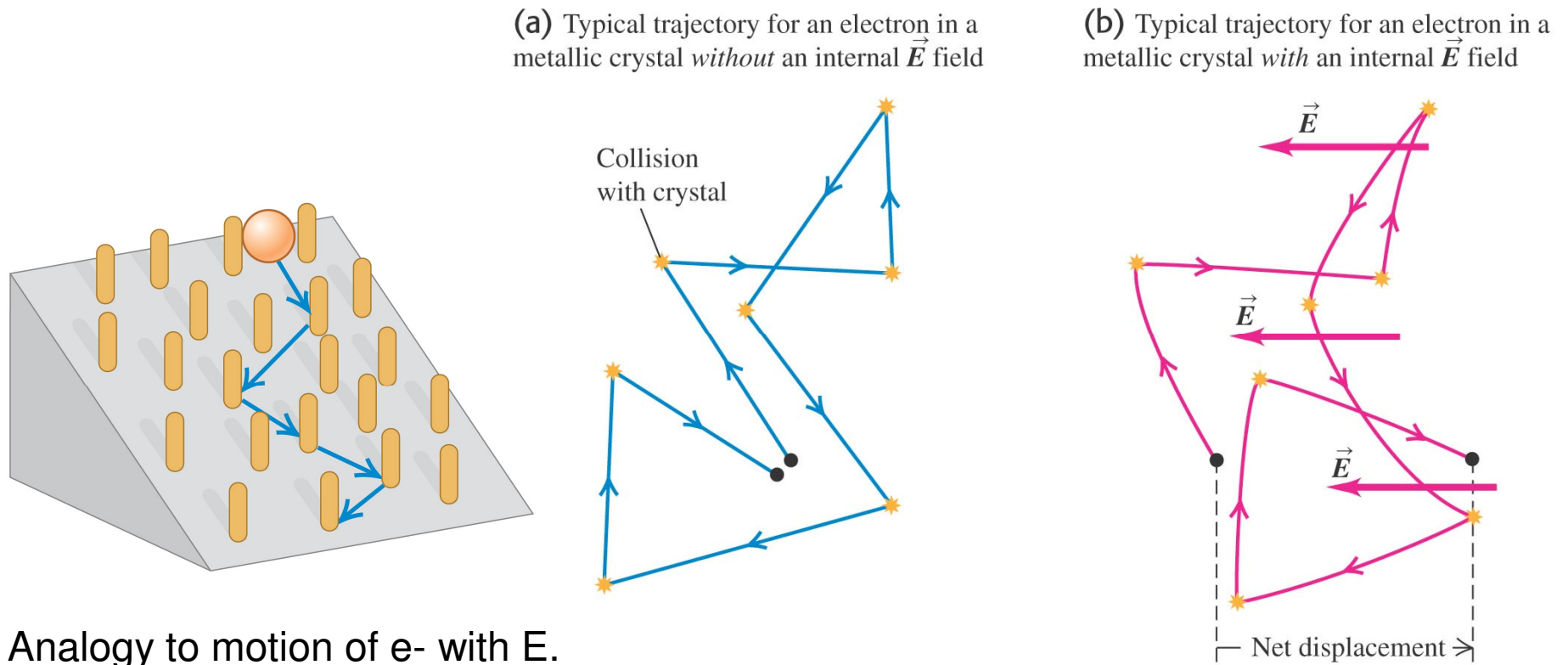


Lower source pushing current upward through upper source.

6. Theory of Metallic Conduction

- If no $E \rightarrow$ free e^- move in straight lines between collisions with $+$ ions \rightarrow random velocities, in average, no net displacement.
- If $E \rightarrow$ e^- path curves due to acceleration caused by $F_e \rightarrow$ drift speed.

Mean free time (τ): average time between collisions.



$$\rho = \frac{E}{J} \qquad \vec{J} = n \cdot q \cdot \vec{v}_d \qquad \vec{a} = \frac{\vec{F}}{m} = \frac{q\vec{E}}{m}$$

$$\vec{v} = \vec{v}_0 + \vec{a}\tau \qquad \vec{v}_{avg} = \vec{a}\tau = \frac{q\tau}{m}\vec{E} = \vec{v}_d$$

$$\vec{J} = n \cdot q \cdot \vec{v}_d = \frac{nq^2\tau}{m}\vec{E}$$

$$\rho = \frac{E}{J} = \frac{m}{q^2 n \tau} = \frac{m}{e^2 n \tau}$$