

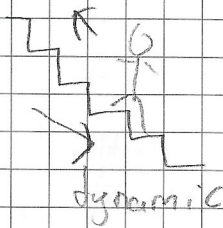
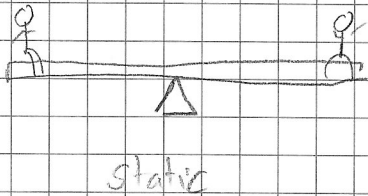
The future isn't in solving problems to which we already know the answers
 (it is in learning how to work through the problems you'll experience)

Electric currents and resistance

better implies different

Static electricity \rightarrow no \vec{E} in conductor

Dynamic equilibrium \rightarrow \vec{E} field in conductor



Until 1800s \rightarrow Electric charge from friction

After 1800s \rightarrow Volta's battery

Galvani \rightarrow life force

Volta \rightarrow metals are different!

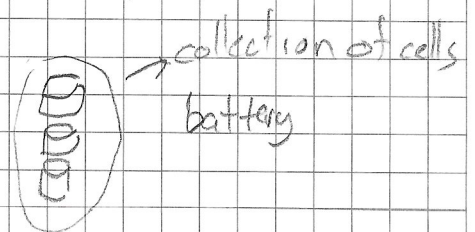
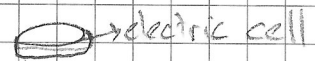
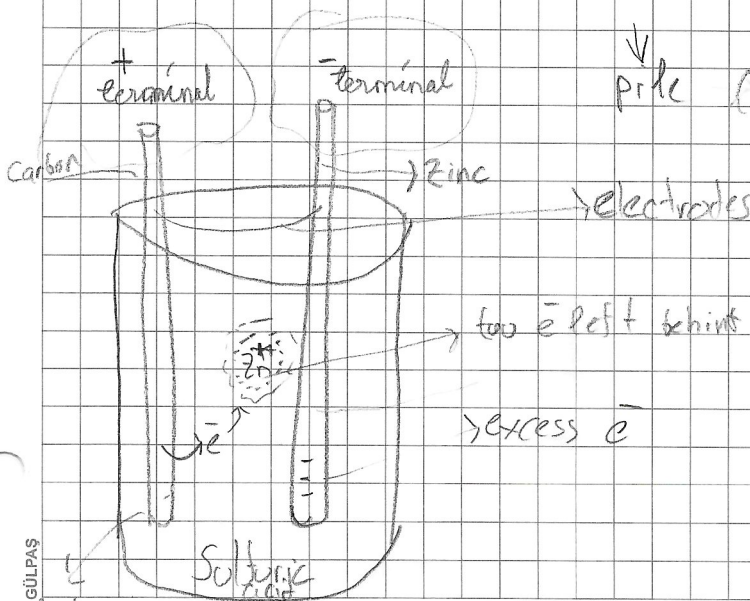
better instrument than frog (10V per degree)
 Silver zinc \rightarrow volta 0.77
 modern 0.77

electrochemical series

(V vs metal combinations (still in use))

acid (or salt solution)

pile (battery)

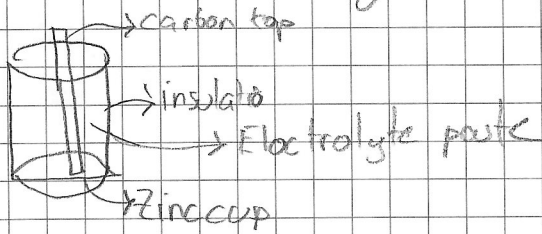
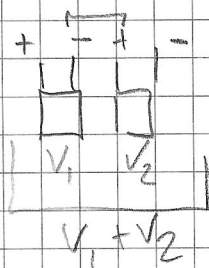


GÜLPAS
 lack of e

potential difference depends on what the electrodes are made of and their relative ability to exchange e^-

When there is no load \rightarrow battery is in static eq

when we connect a load \rightarrow dynamic eq



Electric current

Battery supplies voltage which makes e^- flow



A flow of charge is called electric current

average current:
$$\bar{I} = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}$$

ΔQ \rightarrow amount of charge that passes in the region

Δt \rightarrow per unit time

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

André Ampere $\rightarrow 1A = 1C/s$

'source' loops \rightarrow complete circuit \rightarrow current flows

'source' loop broken \rightarrow open circuit \rightarrow current doesn't flow

ex. A steady current of 2.5 A exists in a wire for 4 min

- a) How much total charge passed by a given point in the circuit during that 4 min?
 b) How many electrons does that correspond to?

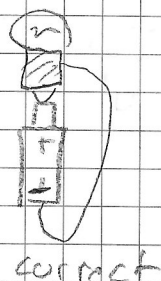
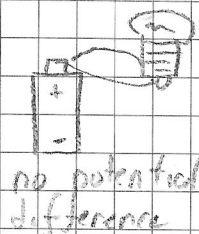
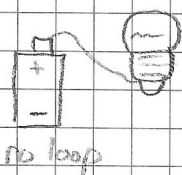
a) $2.5 \text{ A} = 2.5 \text{ C/s}$

$4 \text{ min} = 240 \text{ s}$

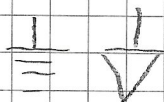
$$\Delta Q = I \Delta t = (2.5 \text{ C/s}) (240 \text{ s}) = 600 \text{ C}$$

b) $\frac{600 \text{ C}}{1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C/e}^-} = 3.8 \times 10^{21} \text{ electrons}$

ex: Circuits

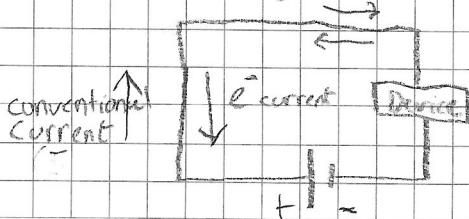


In many real circuits wires are connected to a common conductor that provides continuity. This common conductor is called the ground.

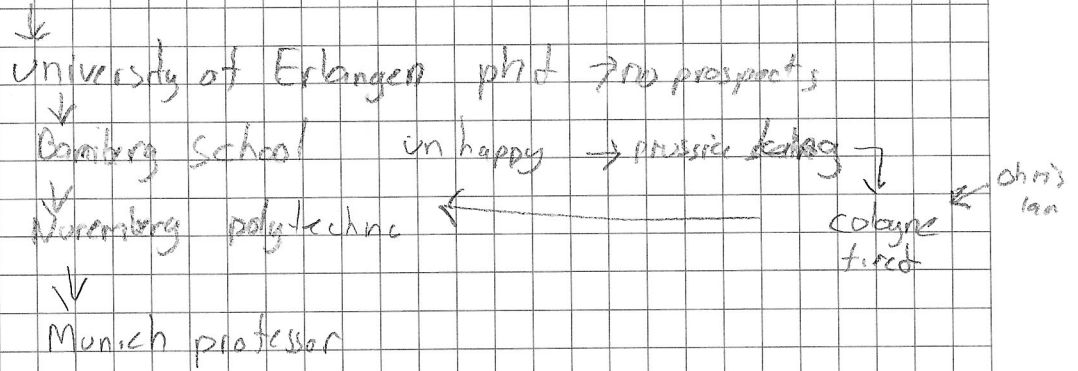


In a car, "the ground" is the chassis! (not the real ground)

Benjamin Franklin's convention



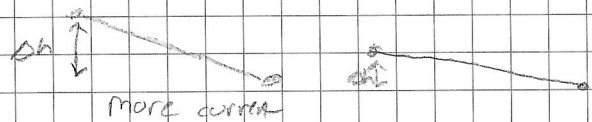
Georg Simon Ohm (1787-1854)



established experimentally that the current in a wire is proportional to the potential difference applied to its two ends

$$I \propto V$$

A useful analogy compares the flow of e^- with that of a river



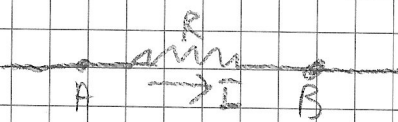
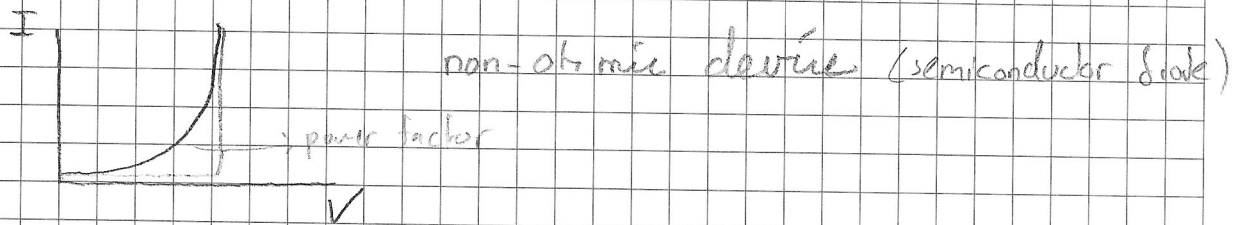
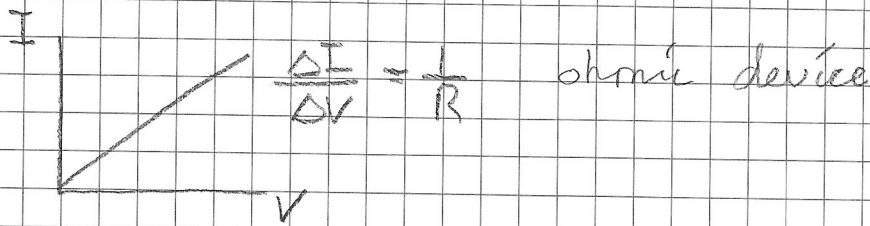
a resistance resists to the current like a rock ridge in a river

$$I = V/R \quad \boxed{V = IR}$$

R is a constant and independent of V
Ohm's law

There are many many nonohmic elements
R is a metal depends on temperature
other materials have R depending on V
Diodes, Transistors etc

The unit of resistance is called Ohm



is the potential higher at point A or B

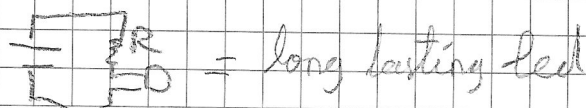
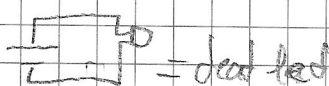
is the current higher at point A or B

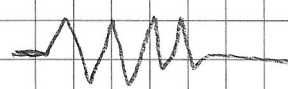
in the standard convention, the current flows from + to -, from high potential to low potential so A has higher potential than B

charge is conserved. since resistor does not get charged the net amount of charge change is zero, so the current in points A and B is the same

The potential decrease such as above is called a potential drop or voltage drop

In electronic circuits resistors are often used as current limiters



Resistance symbol 

Battery: constant V
Current passes through a load
Resistance is an intrinsic property
I is the response

Resistivity

the resistance of an ohmic load is simply

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

↑ resistivity ← cross section area
 length

conductor

Silver	1.59×10^{-8}	$\Omega \cdot m$
Copper	1.68×10^{-8}	$\Omega \cdot m$
Gold	2.04×10^{-8}	$\Omega \cdot m$

Semi conductor

Silicon	0.1 - 60
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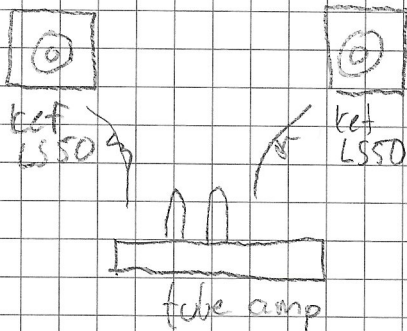
Insulator

Glass	$10^9 - 10^{12}$
Hard rubber	$10^{13} - 10^{15}$

Conductivity is the inverse of resistivity

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{\rho} \quad (\Omega \cdot m)^{-1}$$

Speakers wires



if the cable will be 20m
 what diameter of copper
 wire is required to keep
 the resistance less than
 0.10 Ω per wire

if the current to each speaker is 4.0 A
 what is the potential
 difference (voltage drop)
 across each wire?

$$A = \frac{\rho L}{R} = \frac{(1.68 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot m)(20m)}{0.10 \Omega} = 3.4 \times 10^{-6} m^2$$

$$A = \pi r^2 \quad r = \sqrt{\frac{A}{\pi}} = 1.04 \times 10^{-3} m = 1.04 mm$$

Diameter = $2r = 2.1 mm$

b) $V = IR = (4.0 A)(0.10 \Omega) = 0.4 V$

Stretching a wire

$l \rightarrow$ doubles A is halved (Volume remains const.)

$$R = \rho \frac{l}{A} \begin{matrix} \rightarrow \times 2 \\ \leftarrow \times \frac{1}{2} \end{matrix} \quad \times 4 \text{ increase}$$

Temperature dependence

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

ρ_0 probe temperature

α temperature coefficient

Resistance thermometer

platinum at 20.0c 160.2 Ω
α = 3.927 × 10⁻³ (°C)⁻¹ for a solution 187.4 Ω

what is the temperature of the solution

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

↑
20.0c

$$T = T_0 + \frac{R - R_0}{\alpha R_0} = 20.0c + \frac{187.4 \Omega - 160.2 \Omega}{(3.927 \times 10^{-3} (c^{-1})) (160.2 \Omega)}$$

= 56.1c

Resistive thermometers are very useful in high or low extreme temperatures

thermistors (metal oxide or semiconductor resistance) are better (small and fast)

Be careful α also depends on temperature so when T - T₀ is too large, the above formula is not valid

Electric Power

IT is relatively easy to convert electric energy into mechanical energy, thermal energy or light

the

To find the power transformed:

$$dU = V dq$$

\uparrow energy transformed \uparrow potential \leftarrow charge

$$P = \frac{dU}{dt} = \frac{dq}{dt} V = I V$$

$$P = I V$$

$$P = I V = I (I R) = I^2 R$$

$$P = I V = \left(\frac{V}{R}\right) V = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

only to resistors

ex. Calculate the resistance of a 60W auto headlight (12V supply)

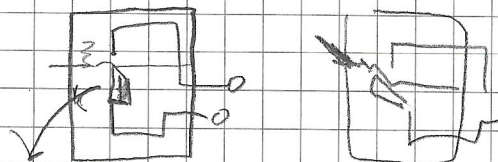
$$R = \frac{V^2}{P} = \frac{(12V)^2}{60W} = 3.6 \Omega$$

bulb is cold \rightarrow resistance is lower \rightarrow more current
burn out

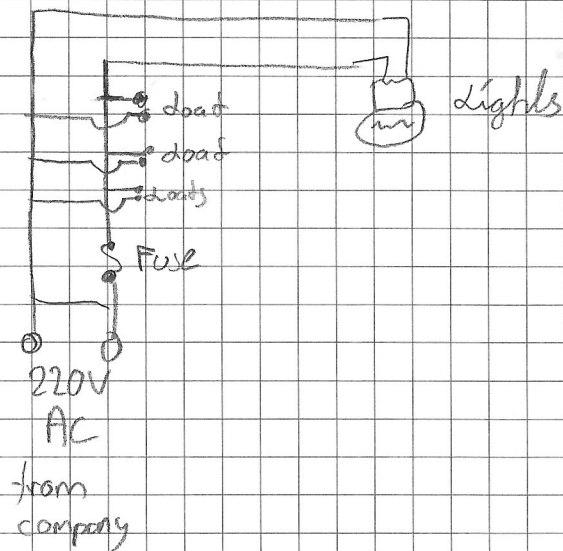
Fuses:

A wire with finite resistance will heat up at a rate equal to $I^2 R$

A fuse is a switch that prevents too much current from the circuit, so that you don't have fire



will bend due to thermal expansion



In household, the circuits are connected in parallel

you should choose a fuse that is compatible with the maximum your wiring can carry! otherwise, the heat buildup may cause fire!

Example: your house is wired by $3 \times 3.5\text{mm}$ single core wires, so your main fuse is 32A you use a cheap extension cord and plug in a kettle of 1000W and a space heater of 2800W . Since most cheap extension cords use $2 \times 0.7\text{mm}$ wires, they are rated for 11A . what will happen?

$$\frac{(2800 + 1000)\text{W}}{220\text{V}} \approx 17\text{A}. \quad \text{The fuse will not blow}$$

but the extension cord will start burning

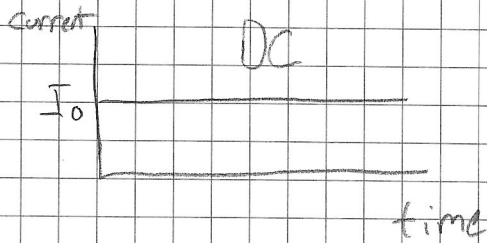
This is the reason why the fuses in the house should never be exchanged with higher rated ones without changing the wiring first

Alternating current

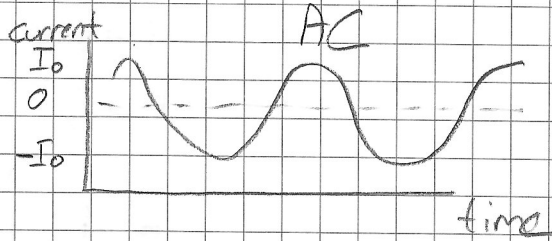
The war of the currents

Tesla vs Edison

AC vs DC



$V = \text{constant}$



$V = V_0 \sin 2\pi ft = V_0 \sin \omega t$

↑
cycles per second
TR ~ 50 Hz

Resistive loads

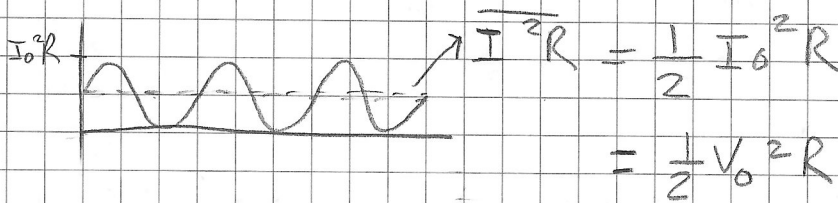
$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{V_0 \sin \omega t}{R} = I_0 \sin \omega t$$

the peak is called $I_0 = V_0/R$

since this is positive and negative, average current is 0

this does not mean the power is zero

$$P = I^2 R = I_0^2 R \sin^2 \omega t$$



$$\overline{P} = I_{rms} V_{rms} \rightarrow \begin{cases} I_{rms} = \sqrt{\overline{I^2}} = \frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 I_0 \\ V_{rms} = \sqrt{\overline{V^2}} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 V_0 \end{cases}$$

$$\overline{P} = \frac{I_{rms}^2}{V_{rms}^2} R$$

240V AC is the rms value, the peak is

$$V_0 = \sqrt{2} V_{\text{rms}} = 340 \text{ V}$$

Example:

if you plug a 4000W hair dryer in US where ac is 120V, what would be its power

$$I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{\bar{P}}{V_{\text{rms}}} = \frac{4000 \text{ W}}{240 \text{ V}} = 16.67 \text{ A}$$

the resistance is

$$R = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}}{I_{\text{rms}}} = \frac{240 \text{ V}}{16.67 \text{ A}} = 14.4 \Omega$$

when plugged to 120V

$$\bar{P} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}^2}{R} = \frac{(120 \text{ V})^2}{(14.4 \Omega)} = 1000 \text{ W}$$

Why do we use AC current

- at the time of the tesla, transformer technology was the most efficient way to up the voltage. (High power is required to minimize losses in transmission)
- Westinghouse was producing really good AC generators and DAMS were all the rage
- Most applications were AC (lamps etc.)

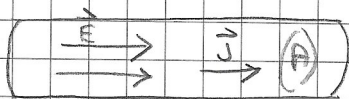
Now: It is also effortless to upconvert DC
Most applications are AC (phone batteries, LED lights, -)
Renewable's store electricity in batteries (DC)
- we lose a lot of energy converting AC to DC

Microscopic view of Electric current
 since the electrons are moving
 (not static), there must be an \vec{E} inside the
 conductor!

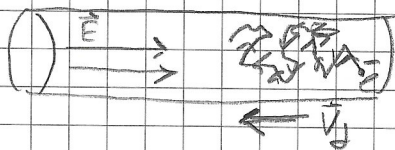
Let's define a microscopic quantity
 current density

$$j = \frac{I}{A} \quad I = j \cdot A \quad \rightarrow \quad I = \int \vec{j} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

current
cross section area
(



\vec{j} is in the direction of the
 conventional current, so
 e^- flow is in the opposite
 direction of \vec{j} (like e^- moves
 in opposite direction of \vec{E})



electrons in the conductor
 experience a very bumpy
 voyage: they constantly get scattered
 by collisions. the average speed

they can travel is much less than their instantaneous
 velocity. This average velocity is called the
 "drift velocity" \vec{v}_d

connection between current and drift velocity

$$l = v_d \Delta t \quad (\text{the average distance travelled by } e^-)$$

$$V = Al = A v_d \Delta t \quad (\text{the volume of } e^- \text{ that will pass through cross section } A)$$

$$\Delta Q = nV(-e) = -(nAv_d \Delta t)(e)$$

↑
 number
 of e^-

$$I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = -ne Av_d$$

$$J = \frac{I}{A} = -nev_d \rightarrow \vec{J} = -ne \vec{v}_d$$

generalising:

$$\vec{J} = \sum_i n_i q_i \vec{v}_i$$

↑
can be done on \vec{e}

ex \vec{e} speed in a wire:

copper wire of 3.2 mm diameter / 5.0 A current

a) current density

b) the drift velocity?

c) rms speed of \vec{e} assuming a gas at 20.0 C

assume 1 \vec{e} per Cu
atomic weight 63.5 u (63)
 $\rho_s = 8.9 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$

$$a) r = \frac{1}{2} (3.2 \text{ mm}) = 1.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} \quad J = \frac{I}{A} = \frac{I}{\pi r^2} = \frac{5.0 \text{ A}}{\pi (1.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})^2}$$

$$= 6.2 \times 10^5 \text{ A/m}^2$$

$$b) \text{ number of electrons per unit volume} = \frac{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ electrons}}{63.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg}} \cdot 8.9 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$= 8.4 \times 10^{28} \text{ electrons/m}^3$$

$$v_d = \frac{J}{ne} = \frac{6.2 \times 10^5 \text{ A/m}^2}{(8.4 \times 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-3}) (1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})} = 4.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m/s} \approx 0.05 \text{ mm/s}$$

$$c) \frac{1}{2} m_e v_{\text{rms}}^2 = \frac{3}{2} kT \rightarrow v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m_e}} = 1.2 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}$$

(quantum estimate $1.6 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$)

1 meter travel will take 5 1/2 h to travel

internet \rightarrow speed of light \rightarrow correlation of electrons

Electric field inside a wire

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

→ uniform E-field

$$I = jA$$

↑
cross
section

$$V = El$$

↓
potential diff.

$$El = (jA) \left(\rho \frac{l}{A} \right) = j\rho l$$

generalising:

$$\vec{j} = \frac{1}{\rho} \vec{E} = \sigma \vec{E}$$

↑
resistivity

↑
conductivity

in the previous example

$$j = 6.2 \times 10^5 \text{ A/m}^2$$

$$E = \rho j = 1.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ V/m}$$

so, a modest \vec{E} -field gives a large current!

