# CURRENT, RESISTANCE AND ELECTROMOTIVE FORCE

### Electric current

Up to now, we have considered charges at rest (**ELECTROSTATICS**) and have concentrated on calculating E fields and potentials produced by systems of static charge.

But  $\underline{\mathbf{E}}$  exerts a force, recall  $\vec{\mathbf{E}} = \frac{\vec{\mathbf{F}}}{Q}$ , and charges will move under its influence if they are free to do so and will as a result give rise to a **CURRENT**.

**Definition: ELECTRIC CURRENT** is the rate of flow of charge:  $I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$ **Units of current:** 1 Ampere (A) =1 C s<sup>-1</sup> (Coulombs/second).

**Convention:** Current flows in the direction of  $\underline{E}$  (i.e., it is taken to be carried by positive charges – this is usually not so).

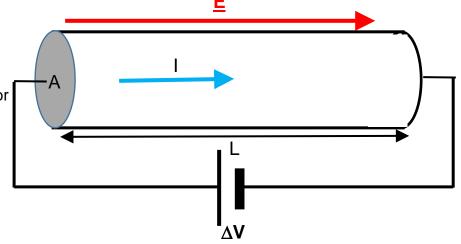
# **Conductivity and Resistivity**

The effect of <u>E</u> is to give the electrons in the conductor a small **DRIFT VELOCITY**,  $\underline{v}_d$ , superimposed on their random thermal motion.

Clearly, the current is proportional to drift velocity  $I \propto v_d$ 

For many materials, including metals and semiconductors ,  $v_d \propto E$  at moderate fields so  $I \propto E$ 

Consider a section of a conductor with cross sectional area A and length L.



Let a potential difference  $\Delta V$  be applied between the two ends, so  $E = \frac{\Delta V}{L}$ 

Current:  $I \propto E$  and  $I \propto A$  (the larger the area, the easier it is for current to flow)

The constant of proportionality is called the  $\textbf{CONDUCTIVITY}, \sigma$  , and is a material property.

So

$$I = \sigma EA = \sigma \frac{A}{L} \Delta V$$

Often we speak of the current in terms of current density J

$$J = \frac{I}{A} = nev$$

Where n is the number density of charge carriers each assumed to carry an electronic charge e but of positive sign.

v is the charge carrier velocity assumed to be linearly proportional to E with

 $v=\mu E$ 

The constant of proportionality, µ, is the charge carrier mobility and we may write

$$J = ne\mu E$$

Thus

 $\sigma = ne\mu$ 

Finally, J is often used as a vector so in vector notation

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}$$

 $\sigma$  is a material constant and may also be expressed as RESISTIVITY,  $\rho$  , defined by

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

# **Resistance and Ohm's Law**

The resistivity is a property of the substance. For a particular piece of the substance, the RESISTANCE, R, is defined by;

$$\mathsf{R} = \frac{\Delta \mathsf{V}}{\mathsf{I}} = \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{\mathsf{L}}{\mathsf{A}} = \rho \frac{\mathsf{L}}{\mathsf{A}}$$

where  $\Delta V$  is the potential difference across the material and I is the current flowing through it.

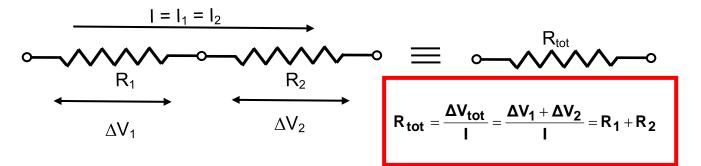
In the SI system, resistance is measured in Ohms ( $\Omega$ ): 1  $\Omega = \frac{1 V}{1 A}$ 

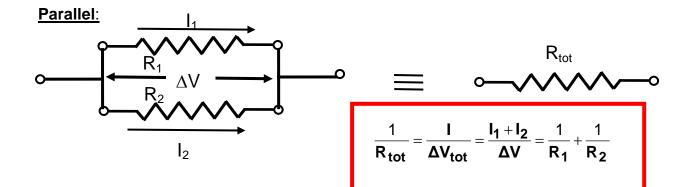
Units of ρ: Ω m

Units of  $\sigma = \Omega^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$  (Siemen)

#### **Resistors in series and in parallel**

Series:





#### Electromotive force

If a circuit has any resistance to the flow of charge, then to make a current flow around a circuit, we need:

- A source of charge
- A sink for charge
- Some sort of "pump" to keep the charge moving

Example: An electric generator or battery

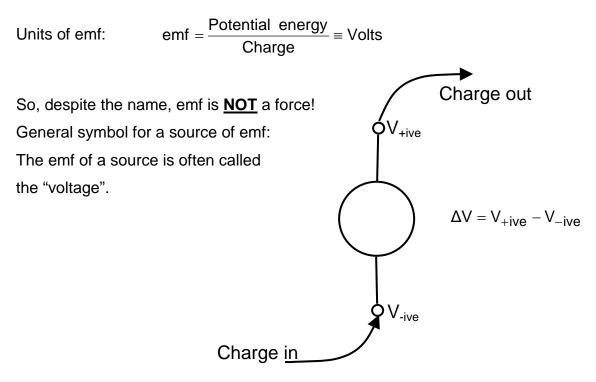
Positive terminal  $\equiv$  source

Negative terminal = sink

Battery/generator = pump

(Gives the charge electric potential energy, PE)

**Definition:** The **ELECTROMOTIVE FORCE** (emf), of a battery or generator is the potential energy gained by 1 C of charge as it passes from the negative terminal to the positive terminal.



#### Example:

A 1.5-Volt battery provided 1 mA of current for 100 hours before running

down. How much energy has it delivered?

By definition of emf, the battery does 1.5 J of work on every 1 C that passes through it.

Typical sources of emf: batteries, electric generators, fuel cells, solar cells

### **Electric Power**

Recall: To increase the potential energy of charge, a source of emf must **DO WORK** on the charge.

The rate of doing work is **POWER**. (Watts = Joules/second)

Consider a source of emf,  $\epsilon$ :

Let a charge dQ pass through in time dt

Energy gained:  $dU = \varepsilon dQ$ 

Power:

$$P = \frac{dU}{dt} = \varepsilon \frac{dQ}{dt} = \varepsilon I$$

$$P = \varepsilon I$$
Power = (Voltage)(Current)

So

The energy gained by the charge could be

- converted to mechanical energy (e.g., powering an electric motor)
- converted to chemical energy (e.g., charging a battery)
- dissipated as heat

#### Power dissipation in a resistor

$$\Delta V = V_A - V_B = IR$$

Let dQ pass through the resistor

From the definition of potential difference,

PE lost by dQ is  $dU = (\Delta V)(dQ)$ 

Rate of loss of PE

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}U}{\mathrm{d}t} = \Delta V \frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}t} = (\Delta V)$$

So Power dissipated is  $P = (\Delta V)I$  - the same as the formula derived above for the power delivered by a source of emf.

We can also write

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

# Kirchhoff's Rules

### 1. Kirchhoff's voltage rule (loop rule)

For any closed loop in an electric circuit, the sum of all emfs and potential drops is zero.

i.e., the change in PE of a charge on going around the circuit is zero.

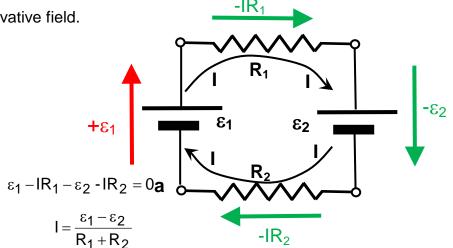
This holds because  $\underline{\mathbf{E}}$  is a conservative field.

Example:

Start at any point, e.g., a

Go around the circuit adding

up all the changes in potential:



### 2. Kirchhoff's current rule (junction rule)

For any branch point (node) in an electric circuit, the sum of all currents entering it is equal to the sum of all currents leaving it.

i.e., charge does not build up at a node (a node has no capacitance).

$$I_1 + I_2 + I_3 - I_4 - I_5 - I_6 = 0$$

I<sub>1</sub>

l<sub>3</sub>