

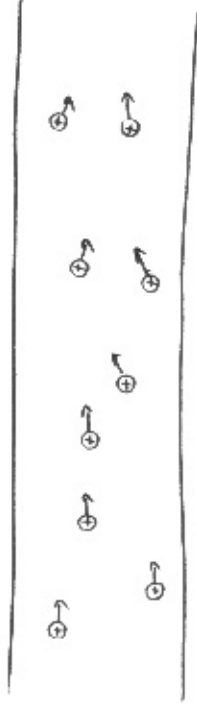
# Current & Resistance

Until now, we have been studying

Electrostatics (charges at rest).

Current: the rate at which charge moves past a hypothetical plane.

$$i(t) = \frac{dq}{dt}$$



$$I = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} i(t) dt$$

# MKS Unit

The unit of current is the ampere (A).

This is one of the fundamental set

{ meter, kilogram, second, ampere }  
L M T current

# Steady State

The current is not a function of time — it is constant.

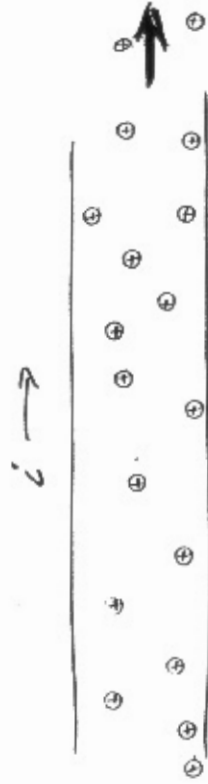
$$i = \text{constant}$$

Under steady state conditions, charge cannot "pile up" in the wire.

## Direction of Current

Current ( $i$ ) is a scalar, but there is an associated direction.

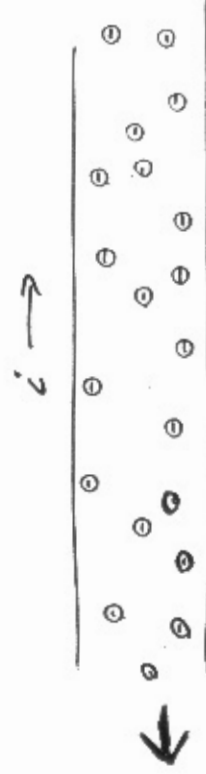
Current is defined by convention to flow in the direction that positive charges would move even if the moving charges are negative!



## Direction of Current

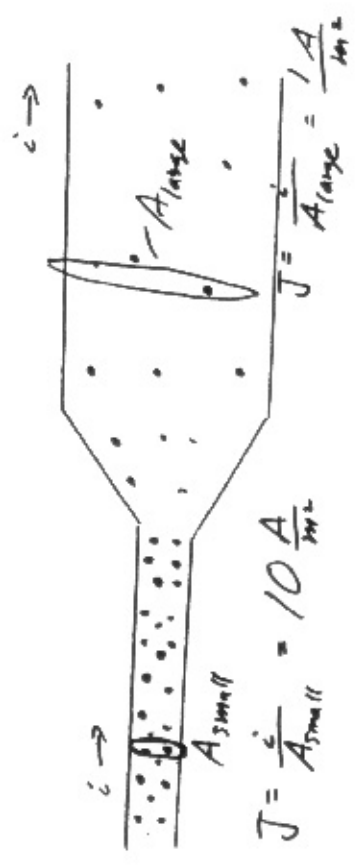
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Ex

# Current Density

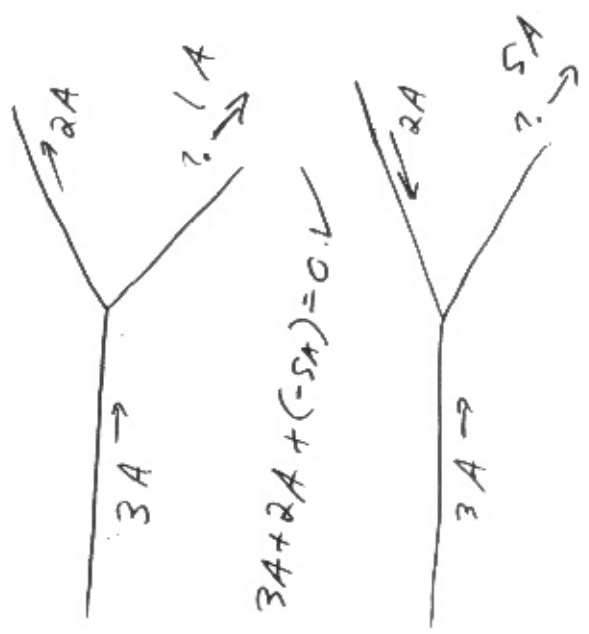


Current Density:  $J \equiv \frac{j}{Area}$  (magnitude)

$\vec{J}$  is a vector quantity.

The direction of  $\vec{J}$  is the same as that of the electric field  $\vec{E}$ , regardless of the sign of the charge carriers.

Whoa!



$$i_1 + i_2 = i_3$$

$$i_2 - i_3 = -i_1$$



Steady State current conservation is a consequence of charge conservation.

# What electric field???

Some thing must cause the moving charges to move: An electric field in the conductor.

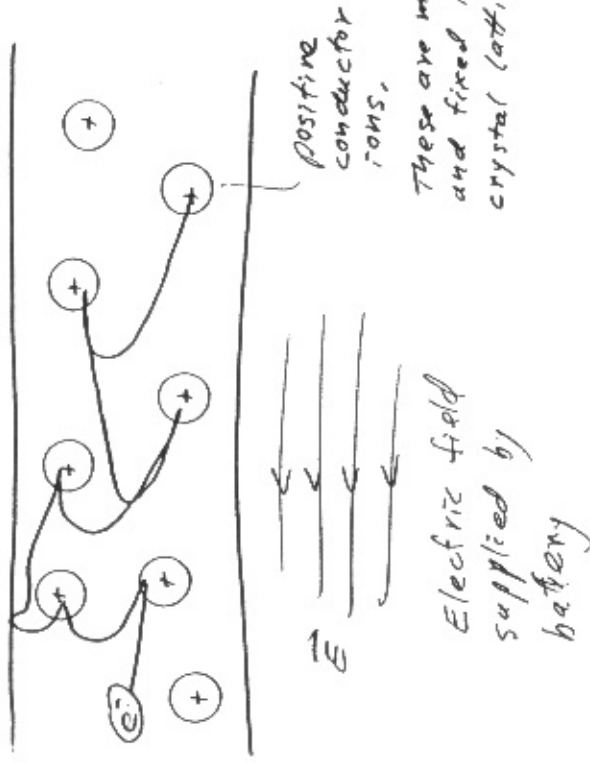
I thought  $\vec{E} = 0$  inside a conductor.

This is true for electrostatics.

Now we are considering charges in motion: electrodynamics.

Doesn't an electric field cause charges to accelerate, so the current ( $i$ ) will not be a constant but will increase with time?

An electric field would cause free charges to accelerate. In a conductor (like a wire), the charges accelerate for a very short time ( $10^{-14}$  seconds) then collide with atoms in the conductor, scatter, and accelerate again, ...



# Current Density

$$J = \frac{I}{A} = n v_d q \quad \vec{J} = n \vec{v}_d q$$

In some materials, the current density is proportional to the applied electric field.

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

The constant of proportionality is called

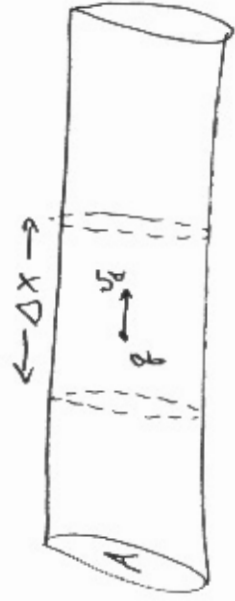
the conductivity:  $\sigma$

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

resistivity

$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}$  is one way to express Ohm's Law.

$$E = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta l} = \frac{V}{l} \Rightarrow V = El = \frac{Jl}{\sigma} = \frac{Il}{A\sigma} = IR$$
$$R = \left(\frac{l}{A\sigma}\right) = \frac{\rho l}{A}$$



$$\Delta Q = n V \Delta t = n A \Delta x \Delta t$$

$n$  = number of mobile charge carriers (conducting electrons, not positive metal ions) per unit volume.

$\Delta Q$  = (number of mobile charge carriers in slice of width  $\Delta x$ )  $\cdot$  (charge of one carrier)

$$\Delta Q = n V q = n A \Delta x q = n A v_d \Delta t q$$

$$\text{Current } I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = n A v_d q$$

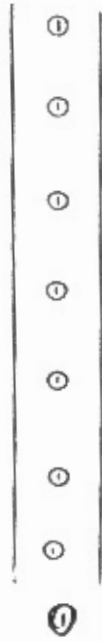
# Resistance

The result of the scattering and acceleration is that electrons move with a constant average velocity called the "drift velocity."

$$\text{Typically, } |\vec{v}_{\text{drift}}| = 10 \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{hour}}$$

A snail could race an electron and win!

So why doesn't it take a week to turn the lights on?



The speed of the "push" is almost the speed of light.

It is an experimentally observed fact that for most (not all!) conductors the current is directly proportional to the potential difference across the conductor.

$$V = iR \quad \text{Ohm's Law}$$

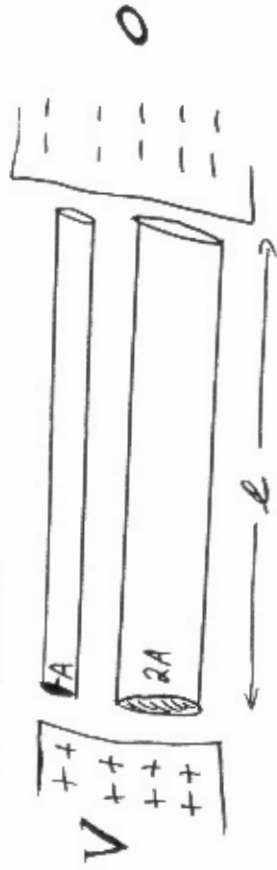
The constant of proportionality is called the resistance.

MKS Unit

$$1 \text{ ohm } (\Omega) \equiv 1 \frac{\text{V}}{\text{A}} \quad \left( \frac{\text{volt}}{\text{ampere}} \right)$$



I can decrease the resistance of a conductor by increasing its cross-sectional area.



Warning: increasing the radius of a cylindrical wire by a factor of 2 increases the cross-sectional area by a factor of 4. ( $A = \pi r^2$ )

I can also decrease the resistance of a conductor by decreasing its length.

The same voltage  $V$  applied over a shorter distance gives rise to a larger electric field:  $E = \frac{V}{l}$

While individual conductors are characterized by their resistance, the material from which the conductor is made is characterized by its resistivity ( $\rho$ ).

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

$$\rho_{\text{copper}} = 1.69 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$$

$$\rho_{\text{iron}} = 9.68 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$$

Public Affairs:

## Power

Dissipated in electric circuits

Resistance is a "lossy" effect, like friction. Electric potential energy (in the battery or capacitor) and kinetic energy (of the moving charges) is converted into heat energy.

$$dU = dq V = (i dt) V$$

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = P = iV$$

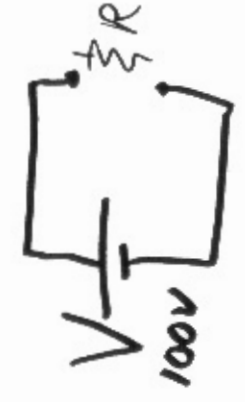
The MKS unit of power is the watt (W)  
 $1W = 1 \frac{J}{s} = 1V \cdot A$

Using Ohm's Law:  $V = iR$

$$P = i^2 R$$

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

## Const. Voltage Source (watt out (af))



$$R_1 = 1 \Omega$$

$$P_1 = 10,000 W = \frac{V^2}{R_1}$$


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$$R_2 = 100 \Omega$$

$$P_2 = \frac{V^2}{R_2} = 100 W$$

## Const Current Supply



$$R_1 = 1 \Omega$$

$$P_1 = I^2 R_1 = 100 W$$


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$$R_2 = 100 \Omega$$

$$P_2 = I^2 R_2 = 10,000 W$$



Electrical Conduction

- CONDUCTION electrons
- random velocities  $\sim 10^6$  m/s

a model in solidsno  $\vec{E}$ no  $\langle \vec{v} \rangle$  $\vec{E} \neq 0$ 

e moves opp.  $\vec{E}$

→  $\langle \vec{v}_d \rangle \sim 10^{-4}$  m/s

(much smaller)

- collisions with atoms
- vibration of atoms
- ∴ heat

→ conductivity  $\neq f(\vec{E})$  (as noted in 27.2)

resistivity  $\neq f(\vec{E})$

→ what resistors obeying Ohm's Law do

## Resistance + Temperature

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

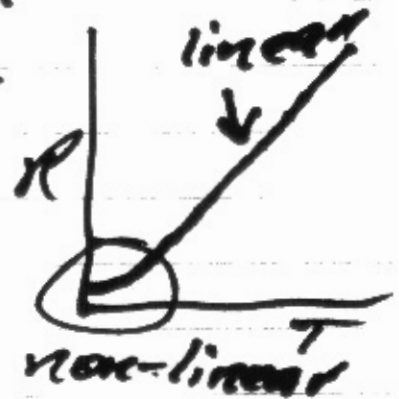
→ if  $T$  rises, so does  $R$

→ when get to low  $T$

→ use  $\Delta R$  to gauge  $T$

$$R - R_0 = \alpha R_0 (T - T_0)$$

$$\boxed{\frac{\Delta R}{\alpha R_0} = \Delta T}$$



\* → semi-conductors can have  $R$  decrease with incr.  $T$

## Superconductors

→ resistance drops to  $\phi$  at some  $T_c$

→ many near absolute  $\phi$

→ some  $\sim 100K$  or warmer

→  $T_c$  is sensitive to chemical composition, pressure ...

\* → no lost energy to heat