



SPECTRUM

CAREER INSTITUTE

JEE/NEET EXPERT

PHYSICS

BY

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ELECTRIC CURRENT (SP-12)

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Current Electricity

2

CHAPTER

JEE/NEET Syllabus

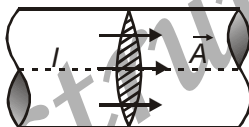
Electric current, Drift velocity, Ohm's law, Electrical resistance, Resistances of different materials, V-I characteristics of Ohmic and nonohmic conductors, Electrical energy and power, Electrical resistivity, Colour code for resistors; Series and parallel combinations of resistors; Temperature dependence of resistance. Electric Cell and its Internal resistance, potential difference and emf of a cell, combination of cells in series and in parallel. Kirchhoff's laws and their applications. Wheatstone bridge, Metre bridge. Potentiometer - principle and its applications

ELECTRIC CURRENT

- The rate of flow of electric charge across any cross-section is called electric current.
 - Instantaneous electric current $I = \frac{dq}{dt}$
 - Average electric current $I_{av} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta t}$
 - Unit** : ampere or A (SI)
- Although electric current is denoted with direction in dc circuits but it is a scalar quantity. Direction merely represents the sense of charge flow.

Current Density

Current flowing per unit area through any cross-section is called current density.



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

Unit : A/m².

It is a vector quantity and directed along the motion of positive charge.

$$I = \vec{J} \cdot \vec{A} = JA \cos \theta \text{ (where } \theta \text{ is the angle between } \vec{J} \text{ \& } \vec{A} \text{)}$$

Factors on which Current Depends

- Free Charge Density** : Number of free electrons per unit volume (n).
(in case of conductors, charge carriers are free electrons only)
- Drift Velocity** : Average velocity with which electrons drift from low potential end to high potential end of the conductor (v_d). Drift velocity is given by

$$\vec{v}_d = -\frac{e\tau}{m} \vec{E} \text{ (in terms of applied electric field)}$$

$$v_d = \frac{I}{neA} \text{ (in terms of current through the conductor)}$$

THIS CHAPTER COVERS :

- Electric Current
- Ohm's law
- Grouping of resistors
- Sources of emf : Cell
- Grouping of Cells
- Kirchhoff's law
- Wheatstone Bridge
- Potentiometer
- RC Circuit
- Heating Effect
 - Joule's Law
 - Power in Electric Circuits
 - Maximum Power Transfer Theorem
 - Fuse Wire

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From second relation

$I = neAv_d$, where A is the area of cross-section and " Av_d " represents the rate of flow.

The term $\frac{v_d}{E}$ is called mobility of charge carriers, represented by $\mu = \frac{v_d}{E} = \frac{e\tau}{m}$.

(here $\tau \rightarrow$ mean relaxation time depends on temp. $\tau \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}}$, $T \rightarrow$ absolute temperature of the conductor)

OHM'S LAW

According to Ohm's law,

- Current Density \propto Electric Field

i.e., $\vec{J} \propto \vec{E}$ or $\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}$

where σ is a constant of proportionality called Conductivity (unit $\Omega^{-1}\text{m}^{-1}$ or mho/m or siemen/m).

- $I = \frac{V}{R}$ where $R = \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{l}{A} = \frac{\rho l}{A}$ where ρ (resistivity) = $\frac{1}{\sigma}$.

Hence according to Ohm's law when R is constant $I \propto V$

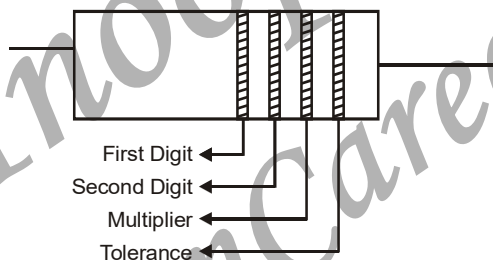
$\Rightarrow I$ - V curve is a straight line (at constant temperature)

- Ohmic conductors** are those for which I - V curve is a straight line or $R_s = R_d$ and

Non-ohmic conductors are those for which $R_s \neq R_d$ at every point on I - V curve

Colour Code for Resistors

[Colour code : B B ROY Great Britain Very Good Wife]



Colour	Digit	Multiplier	Tolerance
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	-
Gold	-	0.1	5%
Silver	-	0.01	10%
No Colour	-		20%

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Electrical Resistance and Resistivity

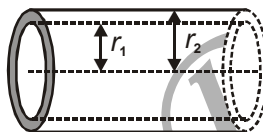
- Resistance of a conductor is given by

$$R = \frac{\rho l}{A} = \frac{ml}{ne^2 \tau A}$$

where ρ is resistivity. Its units is $\Omega \text{ m}$.

- Resistivity of a conductor, $\rho = \frac{m}{ne^2 \tau}$ (where m is mass of an electron, n is number density of electrons, τ is average relaxation time).
- Resistivity is the property of material and does not depend on the dimensions of conductor but depends on nature and temperature of conductor.
- For a hollow cylinder of inner radius r_1 and outer radius r_2 , length l and material of resistivity ρ

$$R = \frac{\rho l}{\pi(r_2^2 - r_1^2)}$$



Dependence of Drift Velocity

- For same strength of current, $v_d \propto \frac{1}{A}$ [$I = neAv_d = \text{constant}$]
- For same potential difference, $v_d \propto \frac{1}{l}$ [It is independent of area]

Temperature Dependence of Resistivity

1. For Conductors :

$\rho_t = \rho_0(1 + \alpha t)$, where ' α ' is temperature

Coefficient of resistivity. As $R \propto \rho$

$$\Rightarrow R = R_0(1 + \alpha t)$$

At temperature t_1 , $R_1 = R_0(1 + \alpha t_1)$

At temperature t_2 , $R_2 = R_0(1 + \alpha t_2)$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{R_2 - R_1}{R_0(t_2 - t_1)}, R_0 = \frac{R_2 - R_1}{\alpha(t_2 - t_1)}, \alpha = \frac{R_2 - R_1}{R_1 t_2 - R_2 t_1}$$

- For Semiconductors** : Their resistivity decreases exponentially with temperature.
- For Insulators** : Their resistivity is very high and does not vary appreciably with change in temperature.

Note : If two wires having resistances R_1 and R_2 and temperature coefficients of resistance α_1 and α_2 then the equivalent temperature coefficients of their combination.

(a) In series $\alpha_s = \frac{R_1 \alpha_1 + R_2 \alpha_2}{R_1 + R_2}$

(b) In parallel $\alpha_p = \frac{R_1 \alpha_2 + R_2 \alpha_1}{R_1 + R_2}$

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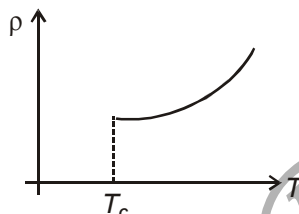
Effect of Current in Human Body

1. The resistance of a normal human body is $10\text{ k}\Omega$
2. Current of the order of 0.1 A are fatal.
3. Cause of death on receiving a shock is not the heating effect, but interfering of electrical signals with human nervous system.

Super Conductors

The phenomenon in which resistance of a conductor becomes zero at very low temperatures.

(In graph T_c is critical temperature and for Hg. $T_c = 4.2\text{ K}$)



Superconductors are found to show perfect diamagnetism ($X_m = -1$). This is known as Meissner's Effect. This effect is used for running of magnetically Levitated Superfast train.

Variation of Resistance with Dimensions of Conductor

1. Variation with length:

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

- (a) If a wire is cut to alter its length, then area remains same.

$$\therefore R \propto l$$

- (b) If a wire is stretched or folded, area varies but volume remains constant.

$$\Rightarrow R \propto l^2$$

For small percentage changes in length by stretching or folding, then,

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} = \frac{2\Delta l}{l}$$

2. Variation with area of cross-section or thickness :

- (a) If area is increased / decreased but length is kept same.

$$\therefore R \propto \frac{1}{A} \text{ or } R \propto \frac{1}{r^2} \text{ (r = radius / thickness)}$$

- (b) If area is increased / decreased but volume remains same.

$$R \propto \frac{1}{A^2} \text{ or } R \propto \frac{1}{r^4}$$

- (c) A resistance wire has a resistance R . Half of this wire is stretched to double its length and half is

twisted to double its thickness, then $R' = \left(\frac{R}{2}\right) \times 4 + \frac{R}{2} \times \frac{1}{16} = \frac{65R}{32}$

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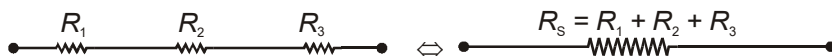
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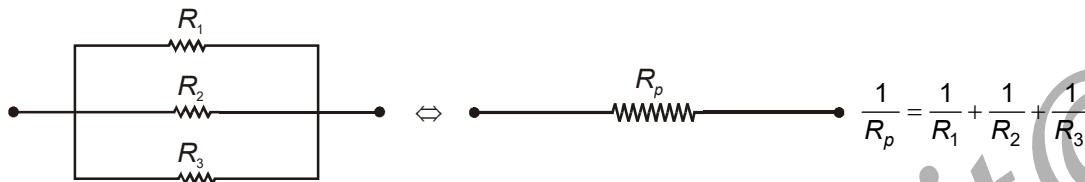
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GROUPING OF RESISTORS (SERIES AND PARALLEL COMBINATION)

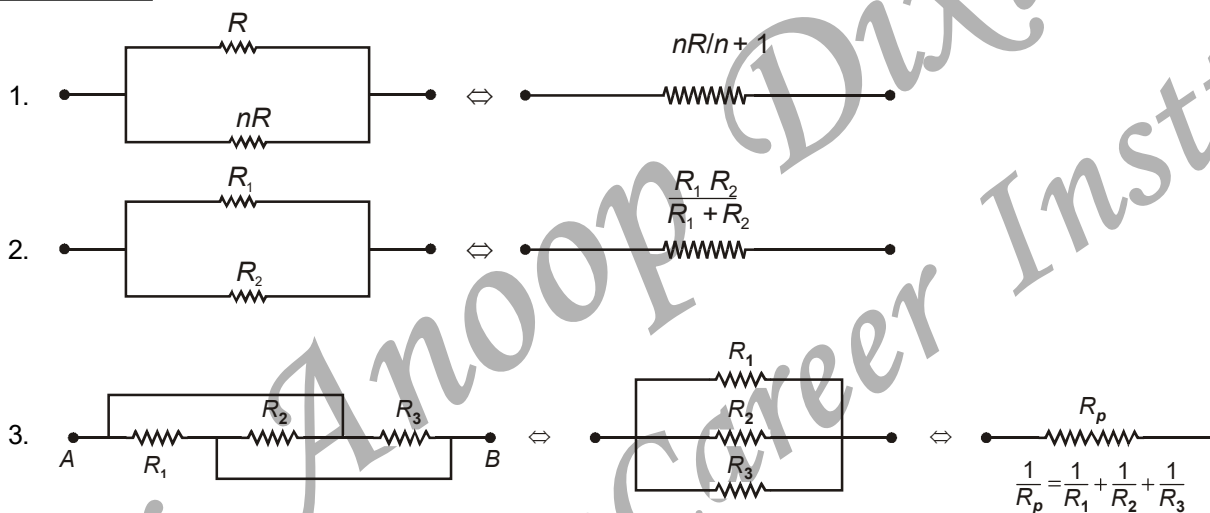
1. Series Grouping



2. Parallel Grouping



Illustrations :



Cause of flow of Current

The cause of flow of current through a conductor is potential difference applied across its ends. This is achieved by connecting a source of electric energy (or emf) across the conductor, called cell.

CELL

1. Primary cell :

- A cell in which electric energy is produced due to chemical reaction in it during the use of cell.
- Chemical reactions are irreversible.
- These cannot be charged (exception \rightarrow lithium cells are primary cells but can be charged)
- Examples* : Daniel cell, Leclanche cell, Dry cell.

2. Secondary cell :

- A cell in which electric energy is first stored in the form of chemical energy and this chemical energy converts into electrical energy during the use of cell.
- Chemical reactions are reversible.
- These are charged before use.
- These are also known as storage cells.
- Examples* : Lead-acid accumulator, Ni-Fe alkaline accumulator.

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SPECTRUM INTERACTIVE LIVE CLASSES*No. 1 Institute for IIT JEE / NEET Preparation***Defects in Cells**

1. **Polarisation** : Problem arises due to accumulation of hydrogen gas around a positive electrode.
Remedy - Use of depolariser which is basically an oxidising reagent.
2. **Local actions** : It is due to the presence of impurities in electrodes.
Remedy - Use of amalgamated electrodes.

Type of Cells**1. Daniel cell :**

Electrolyte \rightarrow dil H_2SO_4 ; depolariser \rightarrow CuSO_4 solution
 positive electrode \rightarrow Cu and negative electrode \rightarrow Zn
 emf = 1.08 V but not constant due to defects.

2. Leclanche cell :

Electrolyte \rightarrow NH_4Cl (solution); depolariser \rightarrow MnO_2 powder
 positive electrode \rightarrow carbon; negative electrode \rightarrow Zn
 emf = 1.5 V when just prepared.

3. Dry cell :

Electrolyte \rightarrow NH_4Cl (paste); depolariser \rightarrow MnO_2 powder
 positive electrode \rightarrow carbon; negative electrode \rightarrow Zn
 emf = 1.5 V when just prepared.

4. Weston cadmium cell :

Used as standard cell. Electrolyte \rightarrow CdSO_4 (solution), depolariser \rightarrow Hg_2SO_4 paste,
 Positive electrode \rightarrow Hg with Hg_2SO_4 paste.
 Negative electrode \rightarrow amalgam of Cd with Hg
 emf = 1.0183 V at 20°C .

5. Lead Accumulator :

Electrolyte \rightarrow dil H_2SO_4 , positive electrode \rightarrow Lead dioxide in grids of hard Pb-Sb alloy
 Negative electrode \rightarrow spongy lead in grids of hard Pb-Sb alloy, emf = 2.1/2.0 V.

(a) **Standard cell** : A cell whose emf is precisely specified and remains constant w.r.t. time is known as standard cell. e.g., Weston cadmium cell.

(b) **Ideal cell** : A cell whose internal resistance is zero.

Cell Terminology**1. EMF (E)**

The potential difference across the terminals of a cell when no current is being drawn from it.

2. Internal Resistance (r)

The opposition of flow of current inside the cell.

It depends on

- (i) Distance between electrodes ($r \propto d$)
- (ii) Area of electrodes $\left(r \propto \frac{1}{A} \right)$
- (iii) Concentration of electrolyte ($r \propto \text{conc.}$)
- (iv) Temperature

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3. Terminal Potential Difference

The potential difference across the terminals of a cell when current is supplied by it.

$$E = IR + Ir, \quad V = IR$$

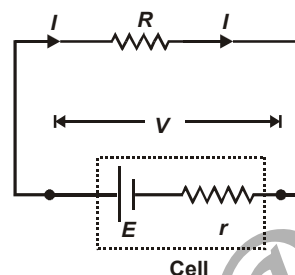
$$E - V = Ir \quad \dots (i)$$

$$r = \left(\frac{E - V}{V} \right) R$$

from (i)

$$\text{when } r = 0, E = V$$

Here E is emf and V is potential difference. Clearly $V < E$ when the cell supplies current.



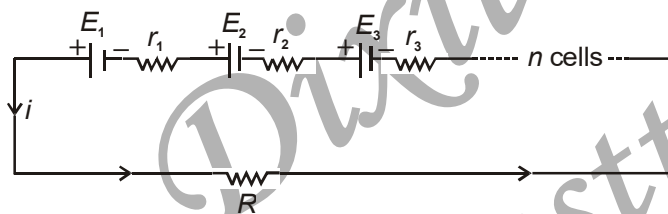
Grouping of Cells (Series and Parallel Combination)

1. Series grouping :

$$(a) E_{\text{equivalent}} = E_1 + E_2 + E_3 + \dots E_n$$

$$(b) r_{\text{equivalent}} = r_1 + r_2 + r_3 + \dots r_n$$

$$(c) \text{ Current } i = \frac{\sum E_i}{\sum r_i + R}$$



(d) (s) If all cells have equal emf E and equal internal resistance r then

$$i = \frac{nE}{nr + R}$$

$$\text{Cases : (i) If } nr \gg R \Rightarrow i = \frac{E}{r}$$

$$(ii) \text{ If } nr \ll R \Rightarrow i = \frac{nE}{R}$$

2. Parallel Grouping :

$$(a) E_{\text{equivalent}} = \frac{\frac{E_1}{r_1} + \frac{E_2}{r_2} + \frac{E_3}{r_3} + \dots}{\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} + \frac{1}{r_3} + \dots}$$

$$(b) r_{\text{equivalent}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} + \frac{1}{r_3} + \dots}$$

(c) If all cells have equal emf. E and internal resistance r then

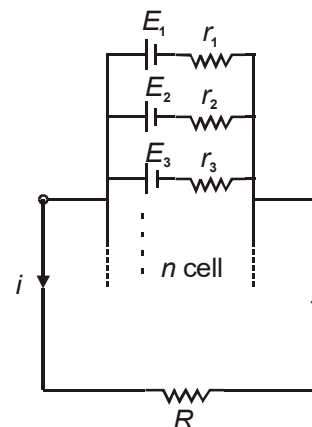
$$E_{\text{equivalent}} = E$$

$$r_{\text{equivalent}} = \frac{r}{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Current } i = \frac{E}{\frac{r}{n} + R}$$

$$\text{Cases : (i) If } \frac{r}{n} \gg R \Rightarrow i = \frac{nE}{r}$$

$$(ii) \text{ If } \frac{r}{n} \ll R \Rightarrow i = \frac{E}{R}$$



Note : If polarity of m cells are made reverse in the series combination of n identical cells then equivalent emf $E_{\text{equivalent}} = (n - 2m)E$ and internal resistance $r_{\text{equivalent}} = nr$

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Illustrations :

$$1. \quad I = \frac{E}{R_1 + R_2}, \quad V_1 = IR_1 = \frac{ER_1}{R_1 + R_2}, \quad V_2 = \frac{ER_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{R_1}{R_2}$$

$$2. \quad E = I_1 R_1 = I_2 R_2$$

$$I_1 = \frac{E}{R_1}, \quad I_2 = \frac{E}{R_2}$$

\Rightarrow If cell is ideal, I_1 and I_2 are independent of each other.

$$3. \quad I = \frac{E}{\frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} + r}, \quad I_1 R_1 = I_2 R_2, \quad I = I_1 + I_2$$

$$\Rightarrow I_1 = \frac{IR_2}{R_1 + R_2}, \quad I_2 = \frac{IR_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

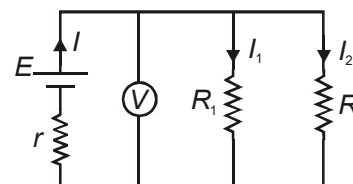
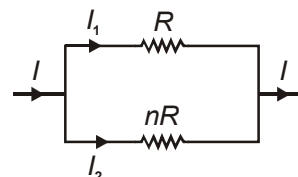
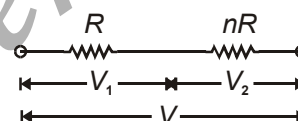
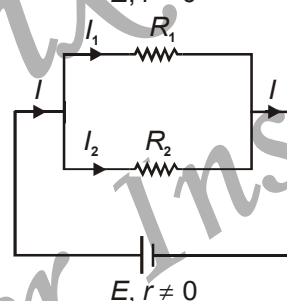
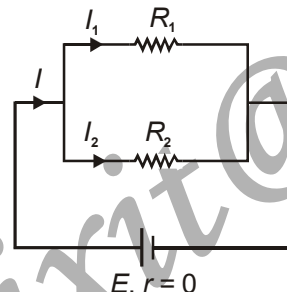
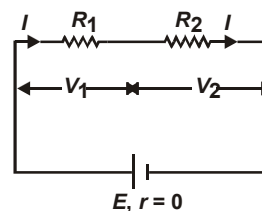
$$\Rightarrow \frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{R_2}{R_1}$$

$$4. \quad V = V_1 + V_2, \quad V_1 = \frac{V}{n+1}, \quad V_2 = \frac{nV}{n+1}$$

$$5. \quad I = I_1 + I_2, \quad I_1 = \frac{nI}{n+1}, \quad I_2 = \frac{I}{n+1}$$

$$6. \quad I = \frac{E}{r + \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}}, \quad V = E - Ir$$

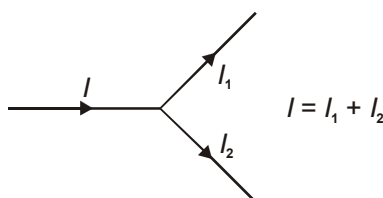
$$I_1 = \frac{V}{R_1}, \quad I_2 = \frac{V}{R_2}$$



If R_2 is increased, I will decrease, I_2 will decrease, V will increase, I_1 will increase.

KIRCHHOFF'S LAWS

1. **Junction Rule :** It is based on conservation of charge.



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2. Loop Rule : It is based on conservation of energy.

- (a) For any closed loop, total rise in potential + total fall in potential = 0.
- (b) For any open part from a point A to point B, if V_A is potential at A and V_B is potential at B, then as we move from A to B.

$$V_A + \text{total rise in potential} + \text{total fall in potential} = V_B$$

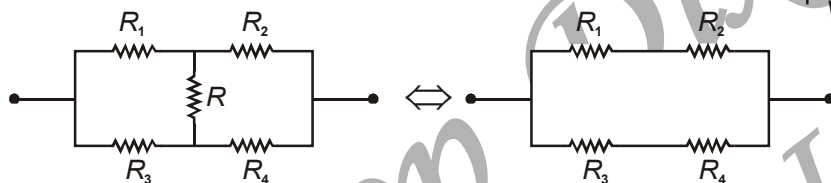
Note : By convention rise in potential is taken as positive and fall in potential is taken as negative.

Principle of Wheatstone Bridge

$$I_1 = \frac{V}{R_1 + R_2}, I_2 = \frac{V}{R_3 + R_4}$$

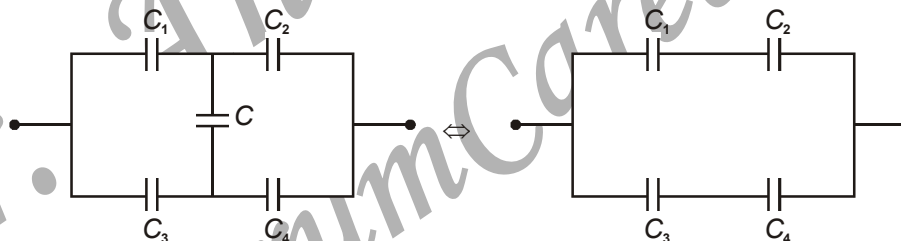
Hence if $\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4}$ or $\frac{R_1}{R_3} = \frac{R_2}{R_4}$ or $R_1 R_4 = R_2 R_3$, then

No current through R so



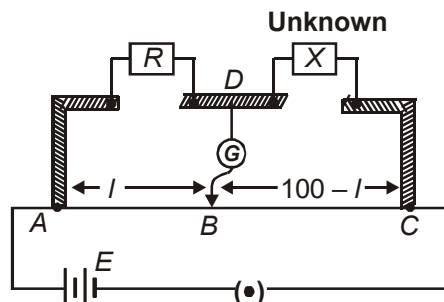
Similarly, for a capacitive circuit shown here,

$$\text{If } \frac{C_1}{C_2} = \frac{C_3}{C_4}$$



METER BRIDGE

Based on Wheatstone bridge principle. It is used to find unknown resistance.



When there is no deflection in G bridge is called balanced and for balanced bridge $\frac{P}{Q} = \frac{R}{S}$, $\frac{R}{l} = \frac{X}{100-l}$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Unknown } X = R \left(\frac{100-l}{l} \right)$$

Note : Location of null point is independent of resistivity or area of cross-section of wire AB.

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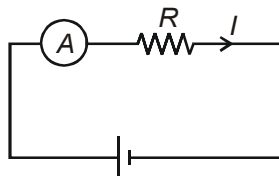
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INSTRUMENTS

1. Ammeter

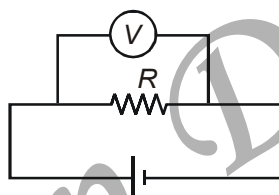
- (a) Ammeter is a current measuring device.
 (b) It is connected in series in the branch in which current is to be measured.



- (c) An ideal ammeter has zero resistance.

2. Voltmeter

- (a) Device to measure potential difference.
 (b) Connected in parallel in between the points between which potential difference is required.



- (c) An ideal voltmeter has infinite resistance.

3. Potentiometer

It can measure potential difference without drawing a current from the circuit. Thus it gives accurate reading and it can measure emf of a cell.

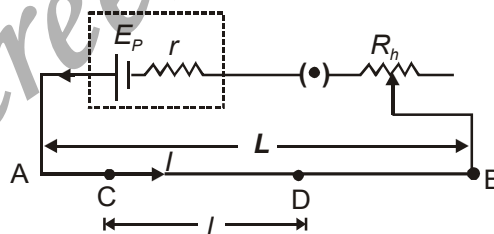
AB = Potentiometer wire of resistance R and length L .

(It has two properties high resistivity and low α)

Any two point C and D are separated by length ' l '.

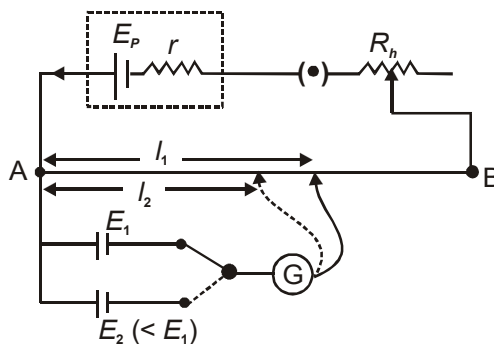
$$\text{Potential gradient } x = \left[\frac{E_P}{r + R + R_h} \right] \frac{R}{L} = \frac{iR}{L} = \frac{i_P}{A} = \frac{V_{AB}}{L}$$

(here ρ - resistivity and A - Area of cross section of potentiometer wire)



Applications

1. Find the emf of a Cell or comparison of emf of two cells



$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = \frac{l_1}{l_2}$$

If one of the emf is known then unknown $E_2 = \left(\frac{l_2}{l_1} \right) E_1$

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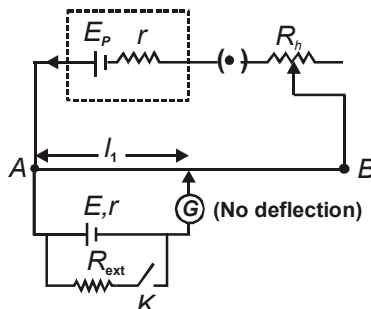
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2. Find Internal Resistance of a Cell

Case I :

Key K is kept open, balance point is at length l_1 .

$$\Rightarrow E \propto l_1$$



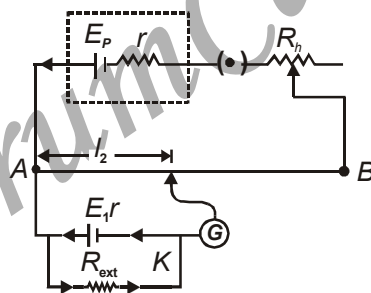
Case II :

Key K is closed, balance point is at length l_2 .

$$V \propto l_2 \Rightarrow \frac{E}{V} = \frac{l_1}{l_2}$$

\therefore internal resistance of given cell is

$$= \left(\frac{E - V}{V} \right) R_{\text{ext}} = \left(\frac{l_1 - l_2}{l_2} \right) R_{\text{ext}}$$



Sensitivity of a potentiometer

Smaller the potential drop per unit length better is the sensitivity. i.e., $\frac{V_{AB}}{L} = x$ should be small.

This can be achieved by increasing the length of potentiometer wire or decreasing the current through it.

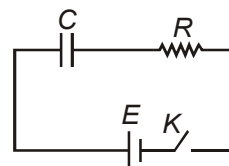
R-C CIRCUIT

1. Charging

Key K is closed at $t = 0$. Current starts flowing and charging of capacitor starts.

At any instant t , q is charge on capacitor. I is current in the circuit.

(a) $q = q_0 [1 - e^{-t/RC}]$ where $q_0 = EC$ is maximum charge



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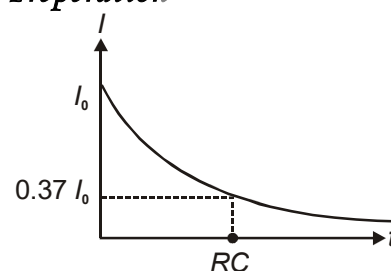
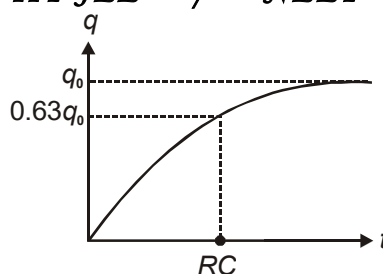
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$$(b) \quad I = \frac{E}{R} e^{-t/RC} = I_0 e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \text{At } t = 0, I = E/R$$



(c) RC = time constant. During charging, in $t = RC$, $q = 0.63q_0$.

(d) A capacitor behaves like closed switch at $t = 0$ and open switch at $t = \infty$.

2. Discharging

Key K is closed at $t = 0$

$$(a) \quad q = q_0 e^{-t/RC}$$

$$(b) \quad I = -I_0 e^{-t/RC} \text{ where, } I_0 = \frac{q_0}{RC}$$

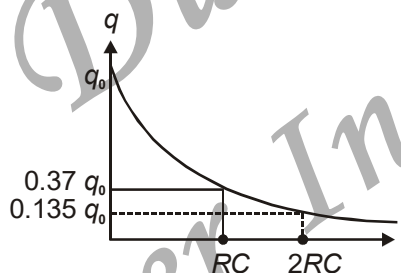
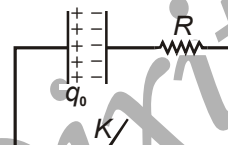
(c) RC = time constant (τ)

$$\text{at } t = 0, q = q_0$$

$$\text{at } t = RC, q = 0.37 q_0$$

$$\text{at } t = 2RC, q = 0.135 q_0$$

(d) The charge and potential difference both decay exponentially like radio-active decay with half life = $0.693 RC$

**HEATING EFFECT OF CURRENT****Joule's Law**

When I current is passed through a device having resistance R , then the amount of heat produced in time t

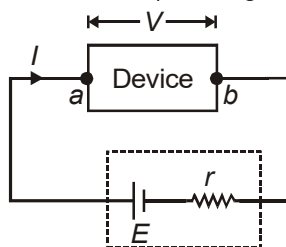
$$H = I^2 R t \text{ in joules}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad H = \frac{I^2 R t}{J} \text{ in calories}$$

where J = mechanical equivalent of heat = 4.186 or 4.2 J/cal

Electric Power

Let a charge dq flows through a device from a to b , (from higher potential to lower potential).



$$\text{Decrease in potential energy } dU = V dq = V I dt$$

$$\text{Power associated with this flow} = \frac{dU}{dt} = VI$$

$$\text{Rate of electrical energy transferred to the device} = VI$$

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Unit of power is volt-ampere ($V \times A$).

$$\therefore 1 \text{ watt} = 1V \times A$$

Rating of an Appliance : A device is rated as P watt, V volts. This means that when the device is connected to V volt, it will consume a power P .

Resistance of the device $R = \frac{V^2}{P}$ is constant, while both P and V are variable.

Generally if a voltage more than the rated voltage is applied, the device may get destroyed (like a bulb may fuse).

Power in a D.C. Circuit

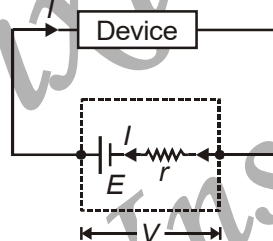
V = Potential difference across the device

I = Current through the device

Results

1. Total power supplied by the cell = EI
(equals to rate of consumption of chemical energy)
2. Source of power is chemical energy stored in the cell.
3. Rate of heat loss inside the cell = I^2r
4. Net power output = $EI - I^2r = (E - Ir)I = VI$
5. Power delivered to device = VI
6. When the device is purely resistive like a bulb, then

$$V = IR, \therefore P = VI = I^2R = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

**Applications**

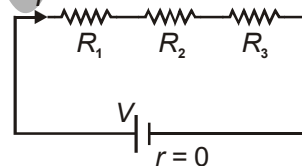
1. Series combination

$$P_1 = I^2R_1, P_2 = I^2R_2, P_3 = I^2R_3$$

$$\therefore P_1 : P_2 : P_3 :: R_1 : R_2 : R_3$$

$$P_{\text{Total}} = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 = I^2 [R_1 + R_2 + R_3]$$

$$= \frac{V^2}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$



$$\text{Note : For } n \text{ identical resistors, } P_{\text{Total}} = \frac{nV^2}{R}$$

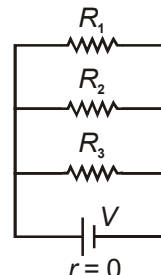
2. Parallel combination

$$P_1 = \frac{V^2}{R_1}, P_2 = \frac{V^2}{R_2}, P_3 = \frac{V^2}{R_3}$$

$$P_1 : P_2 : P_3 :: \frac{1}{R_1} : \frac{1}{R_2} : \frac{1}{R_3}$$

$$P_{\text{Total}} = \frac{V^2}{R_1} + \frac{V^2}{R_2} + \frac{V^2}{R_3}$$

$$= V^2 \left[\frac{1}{R} \right] \text{ where } \frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$



$$\text{Note : For } n \text{ identical resistors, } P_{\text{Total}} = \frac{nV^2}{R}$$

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3. Short circuit

- (a) When switch 'S' is open $I = \frac{V}{3R}$

$$\text{Total power} = \frac{V^2}{3R}$$

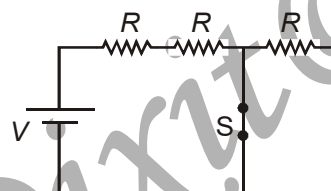
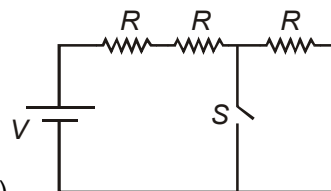
$$\text{Power dissipated in each resistor is } \frac{V^2}{9R}$$

- (b) When switch S is closed (third resistor's short circuited)

$$I = \frac{V}{2R}$$

$$\text{Total power} = \frac{V^2}{2R}$$

$$\text{Power dissipated in each resistor is } \frac{V^2}{4R}$$

**Maximum Power Transfer Theorem**

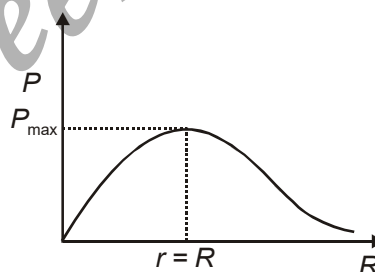
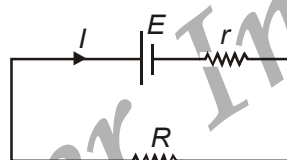
In an electrical circuit, the maximum power can be drawn from the battery when external resistance is same as the internal resistance of the battery. Power drawn in the external resistor is

$$P = I^2 R = \frac{E^2 R}{(R + r)^2} \Rightarrow \frac{dP}{dR} = E^2 \frac{(R + r)^2 - 2R(R + r)}{(R + r)^4} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow R = r$$

Results :

1. Power in external resistor is $\frac{E^2}{4r}$.
2. Dissipated power in internal resistance is $\frac{E^2}{4r}$.
3. Total power supplied by the cell is $\frac{E^2}{2r}$.
4. Efficiency of the circuit is 50 %.

**Fuse Wire**

1. Made of lead and tin alloy.
2. Has low melting point.
3. Current capacity (current at which it blows)

$$I^2 = \frac{r^3}{\rho}$$

(a) $I \propto r^{3/2},$

(b) $I \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho}},$

(c) I is independent of length of fuse wire.

4. Time taken to melt the fuse wire $t \propto A^2$ or $t \propto r^4$, ' t ' is also independent of length.
5. A fuse wire is connected in series with main supply.



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