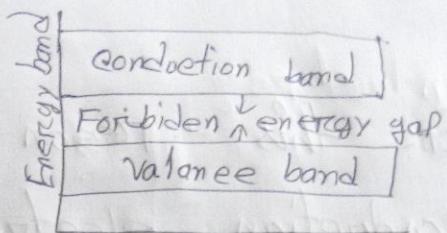


Valence band:



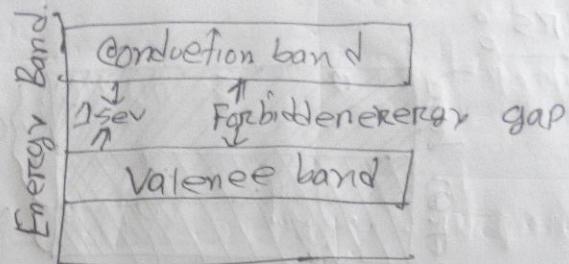
⇒ The range of energy possessed by valence electrons is known as valence band the electrons in the outermost orbit of an atom are known as valence electrons. In a normal atom valence band has the electron of highest energy this band may be completely or partially filled.

Conduction band: In certain materials the valence electrons are loosely attached to the nucleus even at ordinary temperature some of the valence electron may get detached to becomes free electrons. In fact it is these free electrons which are responsible for the conduction of current in a conductor.

For this reason they are called conduction electron, the range of energies possessed by conduction band electrons is known as conduction band.

Forbidden energy gap. The separation between conduction band and valence band on the energy level diagram is known as forbidden energy gap.

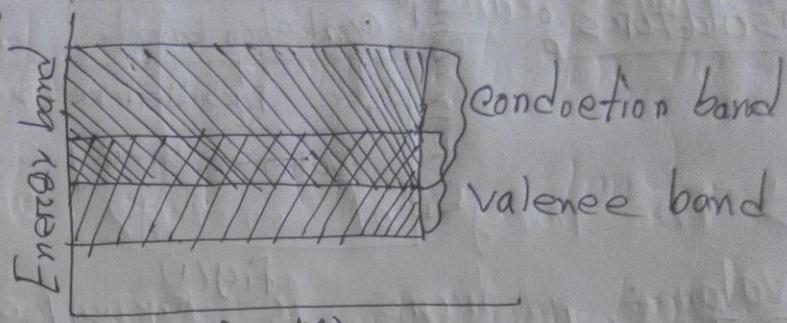
Insulators



Fig(1)

⇒ Insulators (e.g. wood, glass, etc) are those substance which do not allow the passage of electric current through them. In terms of energy band the Valence band is full while the conduction band is empty. Further the energy gap between valence band and conduction band is very large ($\approx 15\text{ eV}$) and shown in fig(1).

Conductors:



Fig(ii)

⇒ Conductors (e.g copper, aluminium) are those substances which easily allow the passage of electric current through them. It is because there are a large number of free electrons available in a conductor.

In terms of energy band the valence band and conduction band overlap each other, as shown in Fig(ii)

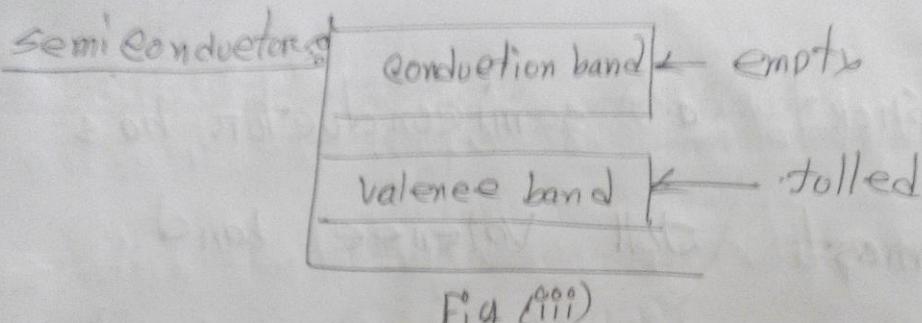


Fig (iii)

⇒ Semiconductors (e.g. germanium, silicon, etc) are those substances whose electrical conductivity lies in between conductors and insulators in terms of energy band of the valence band is almost filled and conduction band is almost empty.

Further the energy gap between valence band and conduction band is very small, as shown in fig (iii)

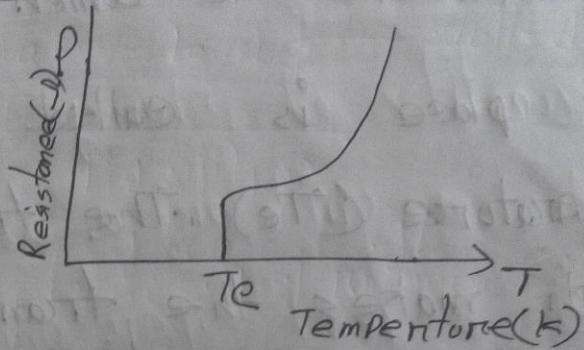
Therefore comparatively smaller electric field is required to push the electrons from the valence band to the conduction band.

In short a semiconductor has

- ① almost full valence band.
- ② almost empty conduction band.
- ③ small energy gap ($\approx 1\text{eV}$) between valence and conduction band.

17 - 10

super conductivity : (অনুভবযোগ্য)



Super conductivity was first observed In 1911 Dutch physicist kamerlingh onnes. Onnes in the course of his experiment on the electrical conductivities of metal at low temperatures he observed that as purified mercury is called its resistivity vanished abruptly at 4.2 K fig(1) above this temperature the resistivity is small but finite, while the resistivity below this point is so small that it is essentially zero.

The temperature at which the transition takes place is called the critical temperature (T_c). The temperature (T_c) which makes the transition of a normal conductor to the superconductivity state is defined at the transition temperature above the critical temperature (T_c) the substance in the familiar normal state but below (T_c) centers on entirely different superconductivity. State the phenomenon is called superconductivity.

Super conductor: Super conductor material that loss all Electrical resistance at low temperature, recent research math discovered materials are super conductivity suspending high temperature.

19-10-17

Electric current: The amount of charge flowing per second in a particular direction along the normal to the cross-sectional area of a conductor is called current. Current is denoted by I.

Current density: $\text{RQ} \rightarrow \text{Os}$

The quantity of charge that flows through a unit area of cross-section around a point per unit time is called current density. It is denoted by J . Current density is a vector density.

Let R_s is a conductor having unit area of cross-section its cross-sectional area is A the flow of current along the cross-sectional area of the conductor is I where,

$J = \text{current density}$

$I = \text{current}$

$A = \text{Area of cross-sectional}$.

unit of the current density $\sigma = \frac{I}{A}$

$$= \frac{A}{m^2}$$

In vector form,

$$i = \int \vec{\sigma} \cdot d\vec{s} = \sigma \int d\vec{s} = \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{A}$$

Unit of the current density $\sigma = \frac{I}{A}$

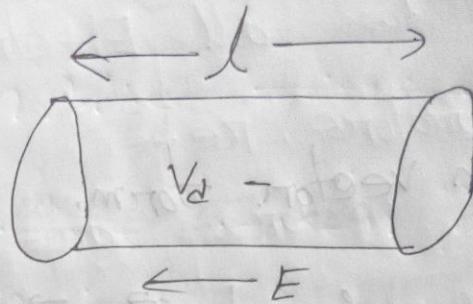
$$= \frac{A}{m^2}$$

In vector form,

$$i = \int \vec{\sigma} \cdot d\vec{s} = \sigma \int d\vec{s} = \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{A}$$

where $\int d\vec{\sigma} = A$

Drift velocity



A potential difference between the two ends of the conductor is established the free electrons drift towards E that is opposite to the electric field inside the conductor with an average speed this average speed is known as drift velocity. It denoted by v_d .

Find an equation for drift velocity
when an electric field is applied
on the conductor. Relation between
current density and drift velocity.

⇒ let us consider a conductor of length l and cross-sectional area A . The electrons move with wish average velocity v_0 toward $-E$ if n is the number of electron per unit volume of the conductor then the number of electron inside volume A_l is given by $n = nAl$ ————— ①

To charge flowing inside the conductor

$$q = nAlv_0 \quad (ii) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Hence } e \\ \text{charge of } \\ \text{electron.} \end{array} \right.$$

From eqn (i) and (ii)

$$q = nAe \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

The average time taken by the electrons to travel through the Conductor is

$$t = \frac{l}{v_d}$$

We know

$$\overset{\circ}{I} = \frac{q}{t}$$

$$\text{OR } \overset{\circ}{I} = \frac{nAe \cdot t}{l/v_d} = \frac{nAeV_d}{l}$$

$$\overset{\circ}{I} = nAeV_d$$

again we know current i.

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

$$J = \frac{n A e v_d}{A}$$

$$J = n e v_d$$

$$v_d = \frac{J}{n e}$$

29-10

Resistance :

The property of a substance due to which opposes the flow of electricity through it is called resistance. It is denoted by R . It can be measured by the ohm's law.

According to ohm's law

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

where $R \rightarrow$ Resistance, $V \rightarrow$ Potential difference, $I =$ current

The unit of the resistance is ohm (Ω)

Resistivity / specific resistance :

The electrical resistance of a conductor is directly proportional to the length of the conductor and inversely proportional to the cross-sectional area of the conductor. This relation expressed by

$$R \propto \frac{l}{A}$$
$$\text{or } R = \frac{\rho l}{A}$$

where : ρ (Row) is called the resistivity of the material.

$$\rho = \frac{RA}{l}$$

where $l \rightarrow$ is length of the conductor
 $A \rightarrow$ Area of the conductor $R \rightarrow$ Resistance

Conductivity: Conductivity is the property of a conductor by means of which it allowed the current to flow through the conductor when a potential difference is applied across the conductor. It is the reciprocal of resistivity and its represented by σ .

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

The unit of the conductivity is $\text{ohm}^{-1} \cdot \text{meter}^{-1}$.

■ Ohm's law of conductivity

Soln: It is experimentally found that in a metallic conductor at constant temperature the current density \vec{J} is linearly proportional to the electric field \vec{E} , thus

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E} \quad \text{--- } ①$$

The equation $\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}$ is general vector statement of Ohm's law.

Here σ is a constant it's called the conductivity of the conductor. The reciprocal of the conductivity is called the resistivity ρ .

In terms of ρ equation ① can
be written as

$$\vec{E} = \rho \vec{j} \quad \text{(i)}$$

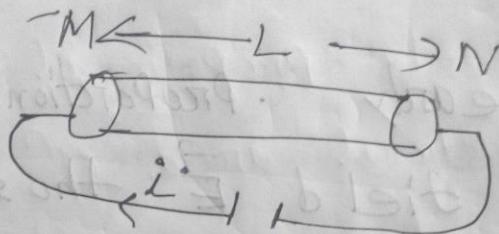


Fig: (i)

In fig (i) the electric field along the rod is in the direction MN and its value is $E = \frac{V}{L}$ every where here V is total potential drop from M to N. Then,

$$\vec{E} = \sigma \left(\frac{k}{L} \right) \vec{j}$$

$$\text{The total current } i = \sigma A = \frac{\sigma V A}{L}$$

Here A is the cross-sectional area of the rod this leads to

$$\frac{V}{i} = \frac{L}{\sigma A} = \frac{PL}{A} \quad (\text{iii})$$

The ratio $\frac{V}{i}$ is called the resistance R .

$$R = \frac{PL}{A}$$

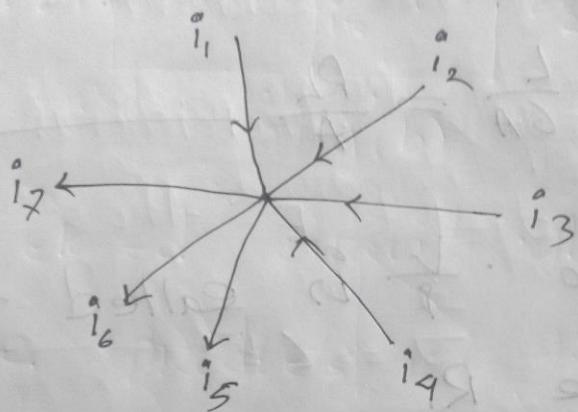
From equation (iii)

$$V = iR$$

$$i = \frac{V}{R}$$

* state and explain Kirchhoff's law in a network.

1st law or current law



In any electrical network the algebraic sum of current meeting at a junction is always zero.

$$\text{i.e. } \sum i = 0$$

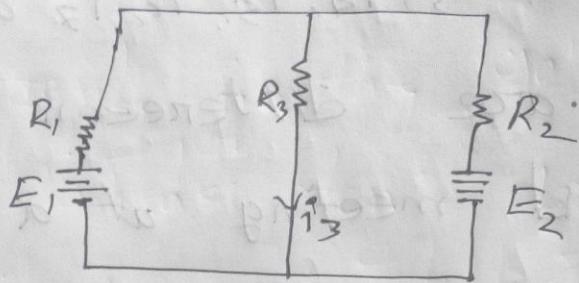
Explain: let us consider a junction that $i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5, i_6, i_7$ and i_8 current are different between fig(1) and meeting at a point taking the current following away from the junction as negative the currents following towards the junction we get -

$$i_1 + i_2 + i_3 + i_4 = -i_5 - i_6 - i_7 = 0$$

$$i_1 + i_2 + i_3 + i_4 = i_5 + i_6 + i_7$$

i.e incoming currents = outgoing currents
Total current entering any junction not a circuit equals the total current leaving that junction.

2nd law on voltage law



fig(b)

In a closed circuit algebraic sum of the products of the current and resistance of the each part of the circuit is equal to the total emfs acting in the circuit.

$$\text{i.e., } \sum iR = \sum E$$

Explain: In the fig(b) we see that closed circuit formed by E_1, E_2, R_1, R_2 and E_1 , we have according to second law.

$$E_1 - E_2 = i_1 R_1 - i_2 R_2$$

and also for the closed circuit formed by E_1, R_1, R_3 and E_1 , we have

$$E_1 = I_1 R_1 + I_3 R_3$$

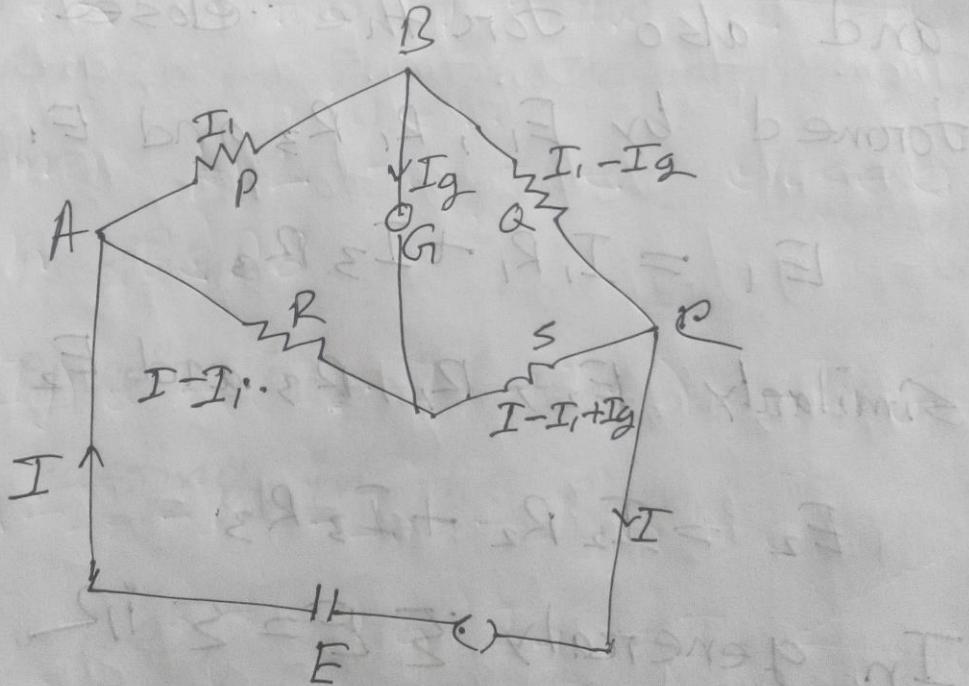
Similarly E_2, R_1, R_3 and E_2 we have

$$E_2 = I_2 R_2 + I_3 R_3$$

In generally $\sum E = \sum iR$

In a closed circuit the 2nd law is also called loop theorem.

In a Wheatstone bridge network for balance condition find the expression for current in the galvanometers in a Wheatstone bridge network and hence show that $\frac{R}{2} = \frac{S}{3}$



fig(1)

Solⁿ: Four resistances P, Q, S and R from closed network ABED fig(1).

A cell of emf E is connected between A and C, A galvanometer of resistance G is connected between B and D. Let I be the current along EA, I along AB and I_g along BD.

By Kirchhoff's first law the current along the various branches will be as shown. we can obtain an expression for the current through the galvanometer I_g by applying Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL)

Applying KVL to the closed
mesh A, B, D, A

$$I_1 P + I_g G_i - (I - I_1) R = 0$$

$$I_1 P + I_g G_i - IR + I_1 R = 0$$

$$(P + R) I_1 + G_i I_g = IR \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Applying KVL to the closed
mesh B, C, D, B

$$(I_1 - I_g) Q - (I_s - I_1 + I_g) S - I_g G_i =$$

$$I_{1Q} - I_{gQ} - I_s - I_{1S} - I_{gS} - I_g G_i = 0$$

$$(Q + S) I_1 - (Q + S + G_i) I_g = I_s \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Multiply eqn (i) by $(Q+s)$

$$(P+R)(Q+s)I_1 + G(Q+s)I_g = R(Q+s)I \quad (iii)$$

Multiplying eqn (ii) by $(P+R)$

$$(P+R)(R+s)I_1 - (P+R)(Q+s+a)I_g = I(P+R) \quad (iv)$$

Subtracting eqn (iv) from eqn (iii)

$$[a(Q+s) + (P+R)(Q+s+G)] I_g =$$

$$[R(Q+s) - s(P+R)] I$$

$$(QR - Ps)I$$

$$I_g = \frac{(QR - Ps)I}{IG(P+Q+R+s) + (P+R)(Q+s)}$$

Condition for balancee is $I_g = 0$
i.e. $(QR - Ps) = 0$

Since I_g has a finite value

$QR - Ps = 0$
Thus the condition for the balancee
of the bridge.

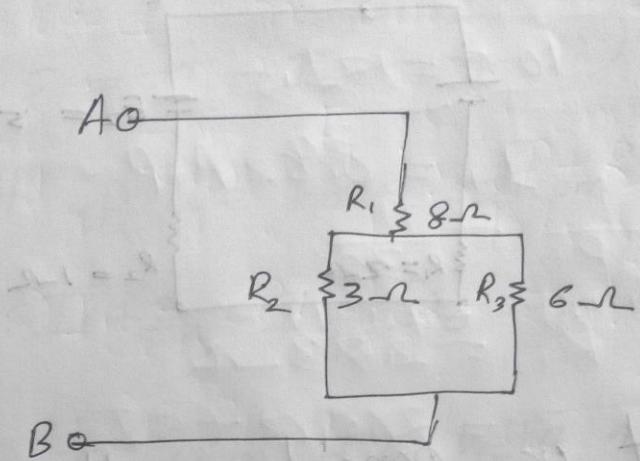
$$= pI \left[(z+r+s)(A+D + (r+s)) \right]$$

$$I \left[(A+D)z - (r+s) \right]$$

$$F(zA - zD)$$

$$\frac{(z+r)(A+D) + (z+r+s)(r+s) \cdot 3I}{(z+r)(A+D) + (z+r+s)(r+s) \cdot 3I} = pI$$

* What is the resistance between A and B in figure below -



Solⁿ : For the two resistors in

Parallel

$$\frac{1}{R_p} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

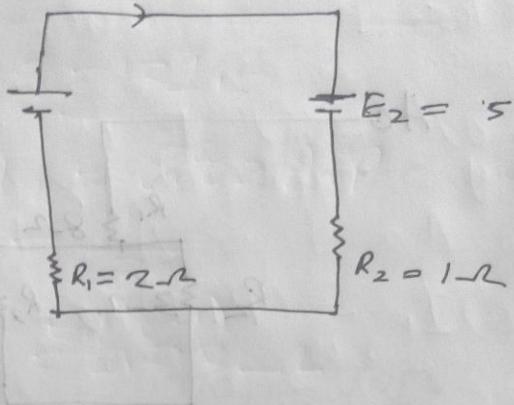
$$= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6}$$

$$= \frac{2+1}{6} = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{and } R_{AB} = R_p + R_2$$

$$= 8 + 2$$

$$= 10 \Omega$$



Solⁿ: let us consider the closed circuit R_1, R_3, R, E_1 from Kirchhoff's law

$$R_1 = I_1 R_1 + I_2 R_3$$

$$3 = 2I_1 + 3I_3 \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

Again From the closed circuit E_1, E_2, R_2, R, \dots
we have

$$E_1 - E_2 = I_1 R_1 - I_2 R_2$$

$$\text{or } 3 - 1.5 = 2I_1 - I_2$$

$$\text{or } 1.5 = 2I_1 - I_2 \quad \text{(ii)}$$

At point P we have from first law

$$I_1 + I_2 - I_3 = 0 \quad \text{(iii)}$$

Eliminating I_3 with the help of eqn (iii)

eqn (1) becomes

$$3 = 2I_1 + 5(I_1 + I_2)$$

$$= 2I_1 + 5I_1 + 5I_2$$

$$3 = 7I_1 + 5I_2 \quad \text{(iv)}$$

from eqn (1) and (iv) we get

eqn (1) $\times 5$ and adding eqn (iv)

$$2.5 = 10I_1 - 5I_2$$

$$3 = 2I_1 + 5I_2$$

$$\underline{10.5 = 12I_1 + 15I_2}$$

$$I_1 = 0.62 \text{ Amp}$$

Substituting in (i) $I_2 = 1.43$

$$3 = 2 \times 0.62 + 5I_2$$

$$\Rightarrow 5I_2 = 3 - 1.24$$

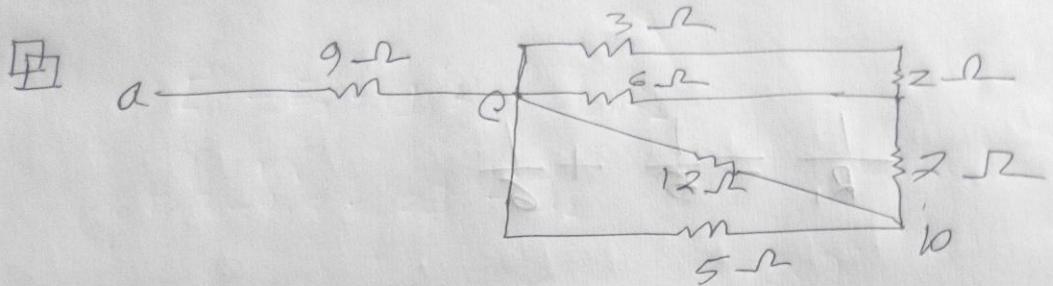
$$\Rightarrow I_2 = \frac{-1.24}{5} = -0.248$$

$$\Rightarrow I_2 = -0.248 \text{ Amp}$$

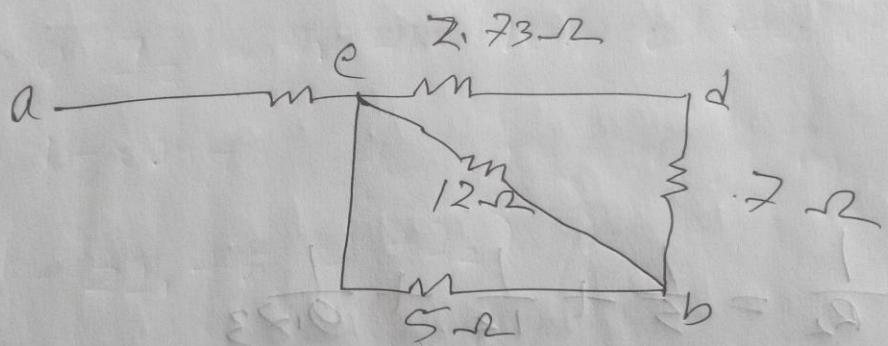
From eqn (ii) $I_1 = 0.62$ and $I_2 = -0.248$

$$I_3 = 0.62 - 0.248$$

$$= 0.334 \text{ Amp.}$$



Find the equivalent resistance between points a, and b, for the combination show in figure below



Solⁿ: The 3 ohm and 2 ohm resistors are in series and their equivalent resistance is 5 ohm. The 5 ohm resistance is in parallel with 6 ohm resistance their equivalent resistance R_e is given by

$$\frac{1}{R_1} = \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{6+5}{30}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_1} = \frac{11}{30}$$

$$R_1 = 2.73 \Omega$$



$$\frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{9.23}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_2} = 0.368 \Omega^{-1}$$

$$R_2 = 2.6 \Omega$$