

CBSE Class-12 Physics Quick Revision Notes Chapter-03: Current Electricity

• Electrical Conductivity:

It is the inverse of specific resistance for a conductor whereas the specific resistance is the resistance of unit cube of the material of the conductor.

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{ne^2\tau}{m}$$

Where σ is the conductivity and ρ is resistivity.

• SI Unit of Conductivity:

The SI unit of conductivity is mhom⁻¹.

• Current through a given area of a conductor:

It is the net charge passing per unit time through the area.

• Current Density Vector:

The current density vector \vec{J} gives current per unit area flowing through area ΔA when it is held normal to the direction of charge flow. Note that the direction of \vec{J} is in the direction of current flow.

• Current Density:

Current density j gives the amount of charge flowing per second per unit area normal to the flow.

$$J = nqV_d$$

where n is the number density (number per unit volume) of charge carriers each of charge q and vd is the drift velocity of the charge carriers. For electrons q = -e. If j is normal to a cross – sectional area A and is constant over the area, the magnitude of the current I through the area is neV_AA .

• Mobility:

Mobility μ is defined to be the magnitude of drift velocity per unit electric field.

$$\mu = \left(\frac{V_d}{E}\right)$$

Now,
$$V_d = \frac{q\tau E}{m_q}$$

where q is the electric charge of the current carrier and mq is its mass.

$$\therefore \mu = \left(\frac{q_{\tau}}{m_q}\right)$$

Thus, mobility is a measure of response of a charge carrier to a given external electric field.



• Resistivity:

Resistivity ρ is defined to be reciprocal of conductivity.

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

It is measured in ohm-metre (Qm).

• Resistivity as a function of temperature:

It is given as,

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

Where lpha is the temperature coefficient of resistivity and $ho_{\!\scriptscriptstyle T}$ is the resistivity of the material at temperature T.

• Ranges of Resistivity:

- a) Metals have low resistivity: Range of ρ varies from $10^{-8} \Omega$ m to $10^{-6} \Omega$ m.
- b) Insulators like glass and rubber have high resistivity: Range of ρ varies from 10^{22} to 10^{24} times greater than that of metals.
- c) Semiconductors like Si and Ge lie roughly in the middle range of resistivity on a logarithmic scale.

• Total resistance in Series and in Parallel

- (a) Total resistance R of n resistors connected in series is given by R = R1 + R2 + ... + Rn
- (b) Total resistance R of n resistors connected in parallel is given by

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{R_n}$$

• If the mass of a charge carrier is large, then for a given field \vec{E} , its acceleration will be small and will contribute very little to the electric current.

• Electrical Conductivity:

When a conducting substance is brought under the influence of an electric field \vec{E} , free charges (e.g. free electrons in metals) move under the influence of this field in such a manner, that the current density \vec{J} due to their motion is proportional to the applied electric field.

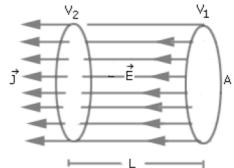
$$\vec{J} = \vec{\sigma} \vec{E}$$

where σ is a constant of proportionality called electrical conductivity. This statement is one possible form of Ohm's law.

• Consider a cylindrical material with cross sectional area A and length L through which a current is passing along the length and normal to the area A, then, since \vec{J} and \vec{E} are in the same direction,

$$J = \sigma E$$
$$JAL = \sigma ELA$$

Where A is cross sectional area and L is length of





the material through which a current is passing along the length, normal to the area A. But, JA = I, the current through the area A and $EL = V_1 - V_2$, the potential difference across the ends of the cylinder denoting V_1 - V_2 as V,

$$V = \frac{IL}{\sigma A} = RI$$

Where $R = \frac{L}{\sigma A}$ is called resistance of the material. In this form, Ohm's law can be stated

as a linear relationship between the potential drop across a substance and the current passing through it.

Measuring resistance:

R is measured in ohm ((Ω)), where $1\Omega = \frac{1V}{A}$

EMF:

Emf (Electromotive force) is the name given to a non-electrostatic agency. Typically, it is a battery, in which a chemical process achieves this task of doing work in driving the positive charge from a low potential to a high potential. The effect of such a source is measured in terms of work done per unit charge in moving a charge once around the circuit. This is denoted by \in .

• Significance of Ohm's Law:

Ohm's law is obeyed by many substances, but it is not a fundamental law of nature. It fails if

- a) V depends on I non-linearly. Example is when ρ increases with I (even if temperature is kept fixed).
- b) The relation between V and I depends on the sign of V for the same absolute value of V
- c) The relation between V and I is non-unique. For e.g., GaAs An example of (a) & (b) is of a rectifier
- When a source of emf ((ε)) is connected to an external resistance R, the voltage V_{ext} across R is given by

$$V_{ext} = IR = \frac{\varepsilon}{R+r}R$$

Where r is the internal resistance of the source.

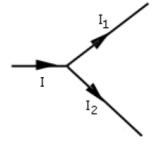
• Kirchhoff's First Rule:

At any junction of several circuit elements, the sum of currents entering the junction must equal the sum of currents leaving it.

In the above junction, current I enters it and currents I_1 and I_2 leave it. Then,

$$I = I_1 + I_2$$

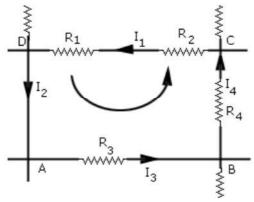
This is a consequence of charge conservation and assumption that currents are steady, that is no charge piles up at the junction.





• Kirchhoff's Second Rule:

The algebraic sum of changes in potential around any closed resistor loop must be zero. This is based on the principle that electrostatic forces alone cannot do any work in a closed loop, since this work is equal to potential difference, which is zero, if we start at one point of the loop and come back to it.



This gives: $(R_1 + R_2) I_1 + R_3 I_3 + R_4 I_4 = 0$

• In case of current loops:

- i) Choose any closed loop in the network and designate a direction (in this example counter clockwise) to traverse the loop.
- ii) Go around the loop in the designated direction, adding emf's and potential differences. An emf is counted as positive when it is traversed (-) to (+) and negative in the opposite case i.e., from (+) to (-). An IR term is counted negative if the resistor is traversed in the same direction of the assumed current, and positive if in the opposite direction.
- iii) Equate the total sum to zero.

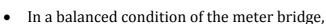
• Wheatstone Bridge:

Wheatstone bridge is an arrangement of four resistances R_1 , R_2 , R_3 , R_4 . The null point condition is given by,

$$\therefore \frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4}$$

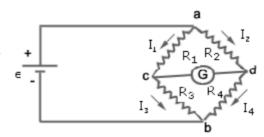
This is also known as the balanced condition. If R_1 , R_2 , R_3 are known, R_4 can be determined.

$$R_4 = \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) R_3$$



$$\frac{R}{S} = \frac{P}{Q} = \frac{\sigma l_1}{100 - l_1}$$

$$\therefore R = \frac{Sl_1}{(100 - l_1)}$$





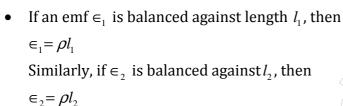
Where σ is the resistance per unit length of wire and l_1 is the length of wire from one end where null point is obtained.

• Potentiometer:

The potentiometer is a device to compare potential differences. Since the method involves a condition of no current flow, the device can be used to measure potential differences; internal resistance of a cell and compare emf's of two sources.



The potential gradient of the wire in a potentiometer depends on the current in the wire.



The comparison of emf's of the two cells is given by,

$$\therefore \frac{\epsilon_1}{\epsilon_2} = \frac{l_1}{l_2}$$

