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Chapter 19

Electric Currents and Circuits

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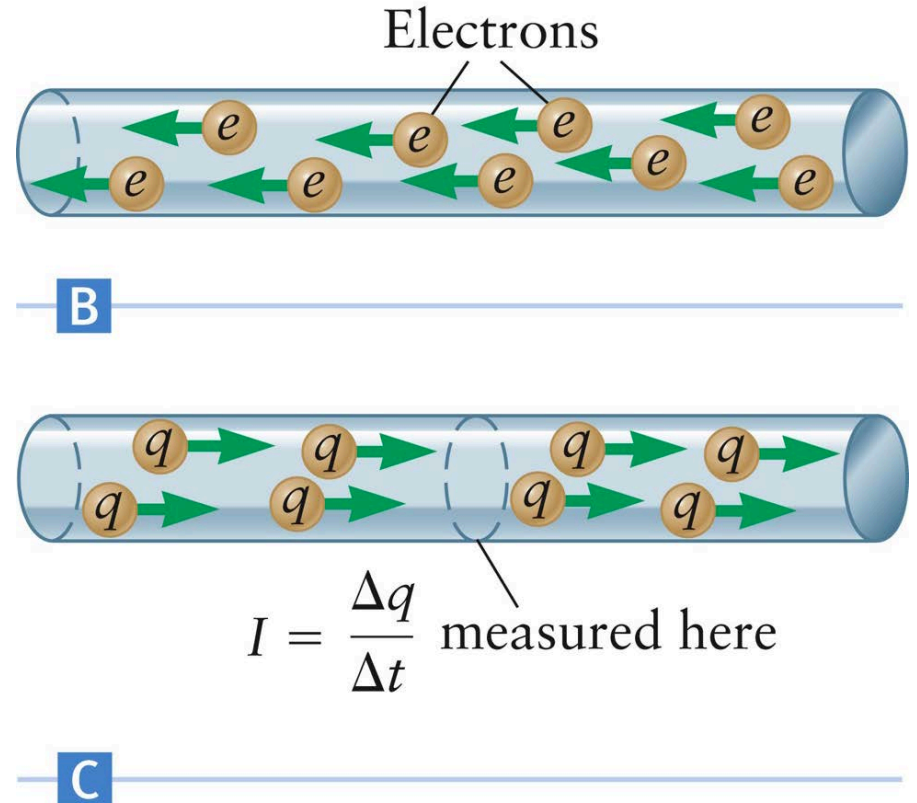
Electric Circuits

- The motion of charges leads to the idea of electric circuits
 - A circuit occurs when charge can flow in a closed path
- Also examine circuit components
 - Resistors
 - Capacitors
- Conservation principles will be useful
 - Conservation of Charge
 - Conservation of Energy

Electric Current

- Electrons can move easily through a wire
- The magnitude of the current is measured by the amount of charge that moves along the wire
- Current, I , is defined as

$$I = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta t}$$



Electric Current, cont.

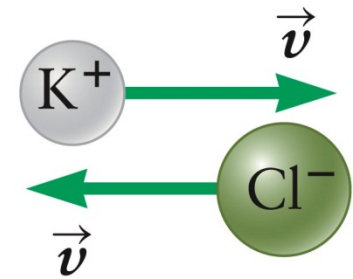
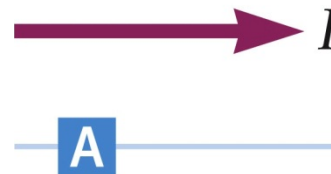
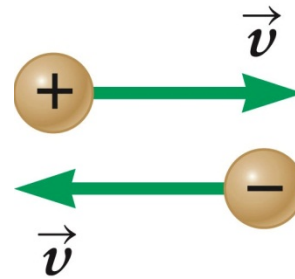
- Current is defined in terms of net positive charge flow
 - Historical reasons
- SI unit is Ampere (A)
 - In honor of André-Marie Ampère
 - $1 \text{ A} = 1 \text{ C} / \text{s}$
- In the SI system, the ampere is a primary unit
 - Coulomb and volt, for example, are defined in terms of the ampere

Movement of Charges

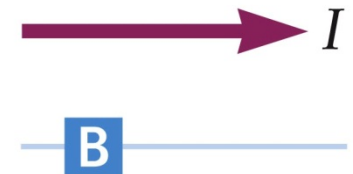
- The definition of current uses the net charge, Δq , that passes a particular point during a time interval, Δt
- The amount of charge could be the result of many possible configurations, including
 - A few particles each with a large charge
 - Many particles each with a small charge
 - A combination of positive and negative charges

Movement of Charges, cont.

- If the current is carried by positive charges moving with a given velocity, the direction of the current is parallel to the velocity
- If current is carried by negative charges, the direction of the current is opposite the charges' velocity



Ions in solution



Movement of Charges, final

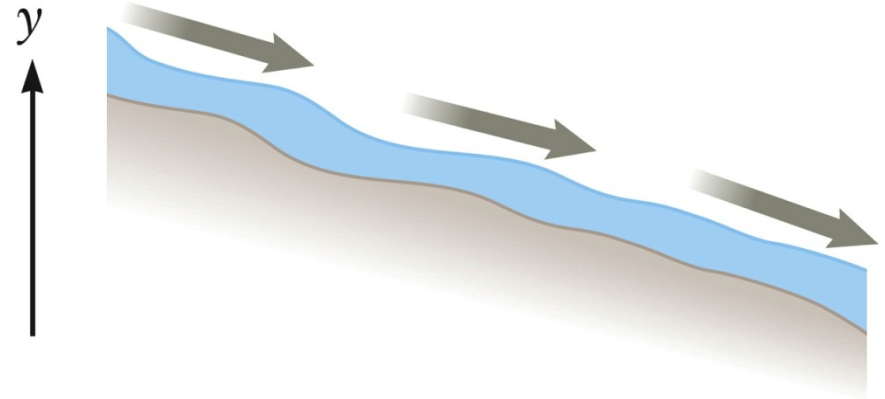
- A positive electric current can be produced by
 - Positive charges moving in one direction
 - Negative charges moving in the opposite direction
- Current in a metal is carried by electrons
- In a liquid or gas, the current is generally carried by a combination of positive ions moving in one direction and negative ions moving in the opposite direction

Current and Potential Energy

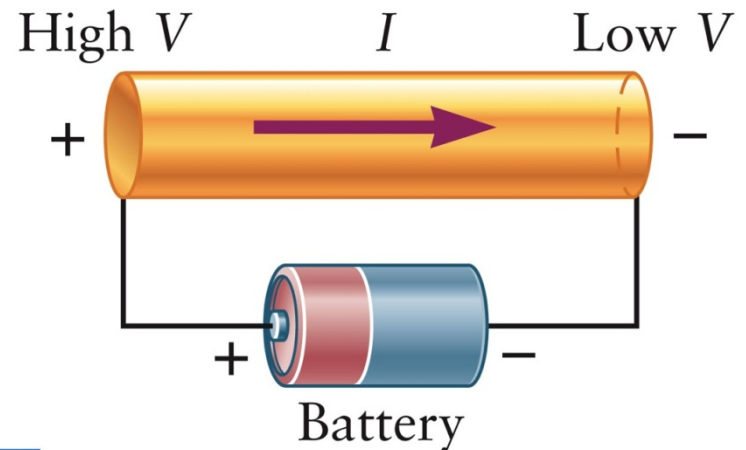
- For charge to move along a wire, the electric potential energy at one end of the wire must be higher than the electric potential energy at the other end
- Electric potential is related to electric potential energy by $V = PE_{\text{elec}} / q$
 - The potential is referred to simply as “voltage”

Current and Voltage

- The current is directed from a region of higher potential to a region of lower potential
 - Or higher to lower voltage
- The direction of I is always from high to low potential, regardless if the current is carried by positive or negative charges
- The potential difference may be supplied by a battery



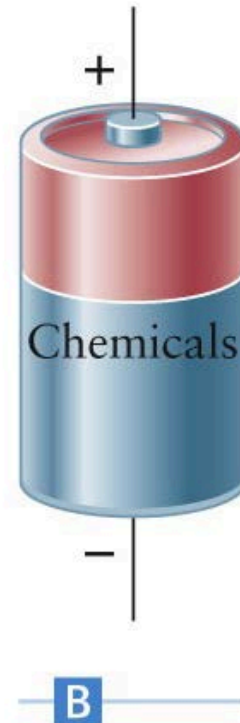
A



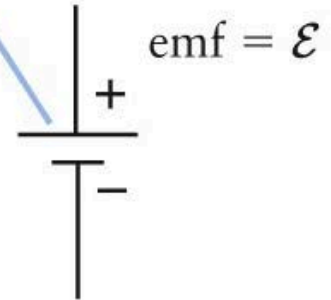
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Construction of a Battery

- Alessandro Volta and his contemporaries developed the first batteries
- Batteries convert chemical energy to electrical energy
- In drawing an electric circuit the terminals of any type of battery are labeled with + and -



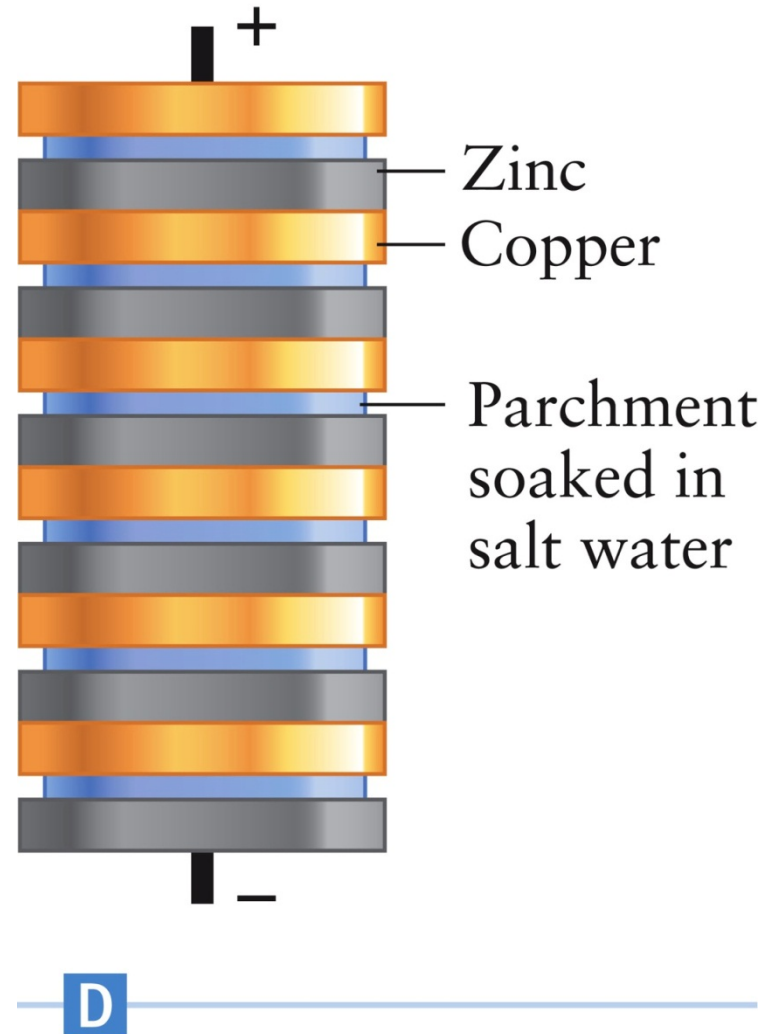
The symbol for a battery has a longer line for the + terminal of the battery.



C

Volta's Battery

- Volta's first batteries consisted of alternating sheets of zinc and copper
- These were separated by a piece of parchment soaked in salt water

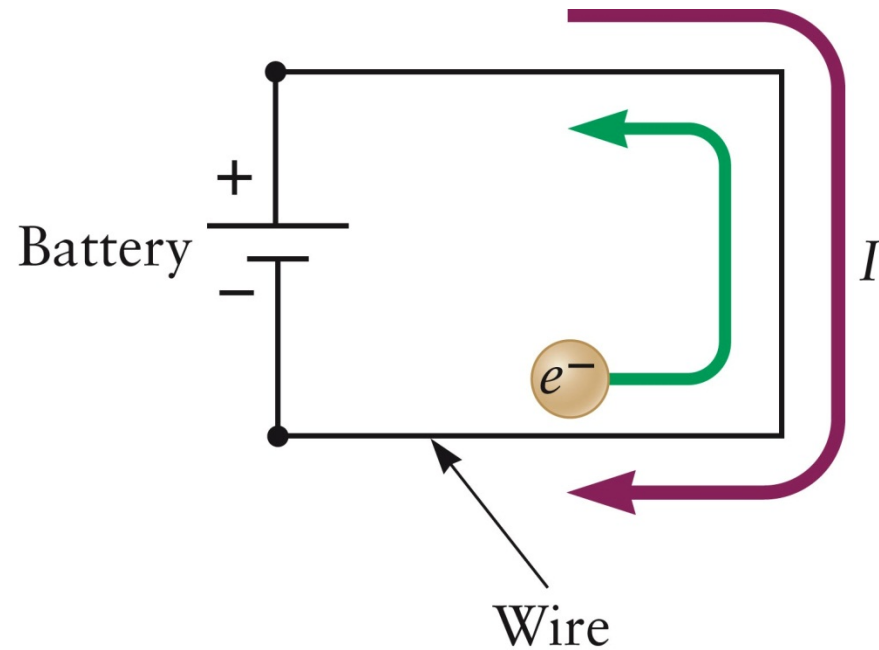


EMF

- The potential difference between a battery's terminals is called an ***electromotive force***, or ***emf***
 - The term was adopted before it was understood that batteries produce an electric potential difference, not a force
- The emf is denoted with ϵ and referred to as voltage
- The value of the emf depends on the particular chemical reactions it employs and how the electrodes are arranged

Simple Circuit

- If the battery terminals are connected to two ends of a wire, a current is produced
- The electrons move out of the negative terminal of the battery through the wire and into the positive battery terminal



Simple Circuit, cont.

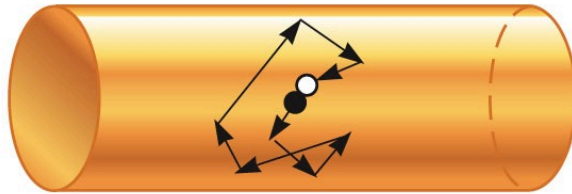
- The charge moves from one terminal to the other through a circuit
- The chemical reaction moves charge internally between the electrodes
- No net charge accumulates on the battery terminals while the current is present

Ideal vs. Real Batteries

- An ideal battery has two important properties
 - It always maintains a fixed potential difference between its terminals
 - This emf is maintained no matter how much current flows from the battery
- Real batteries have two practical limitations
 - The emf decreases when the current is very high
 - The electrochemical reactions do not happen instantaneously
 - The battery will “run down”
 - It will not work forever

Current

MOTION OF ELECTRONS IN A WIRE



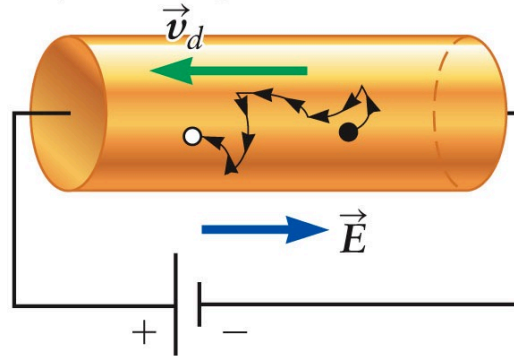
If $I = 0$, then on average electrons end up where they start; $\vec{v}_{\text{ave}} = 0$.

A

- The electrons moving in a wire collide frequently with one another and with the atoms of the wire
- This results in the zigzag motion shown
- When no electric field is present, the average electron displacement is zero
 - There is no net movement of charge
 - There is no current

Current, cont.

Net velocity of charge cloud



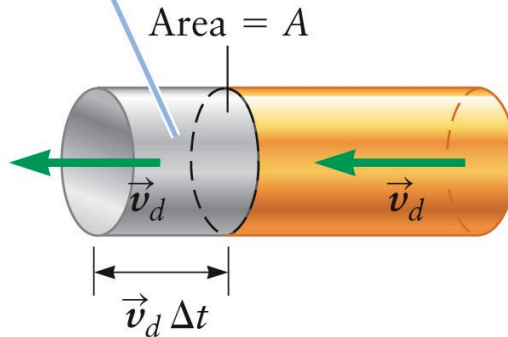
Electrons have a negative charge, so the force due to the field \vec{E} is to the left. The acceleration and drift velocity are thus to the left.

B

- With a battery connected, an electric potential is established
- There is an electric field in the wire: $E = V / L$
- The electric field produces a force that gives the electrons a net motion
- The velocity of this motion is the ***drift velocity***

Current and Drift Velocity

The electrons in this volume reach the end of the wire in time Δt .



The net movement of charge is determined by \vec{v}_d .

C

- The current is equal to the amount of charge that passes out the end of the wire per unit time
- Let n be the density of electrons per unit volume
- Let A be the cross-sectional area of the wire
- $I = - n e A v_d$

Ohm's Law

- The drag force on electrons leads to a drift velocity proportional to the force pushing the electrons through the metal
- The force is proportional to the electric field, so the drift velocity is proportional to the field
- The electric field is proportional to the potential difference, so the drift velocity is proportional to the potential difference
- The current is proportional to the drift velocity, so the current is proportional to the potential difference
- In summary, $v_d \propto E \rightarrow v_d \propto V \rightarrow I \propto V$

Ohm's Law, cont.

- The constant of proportionality between I and V is the electrical resistance, R

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

- This relationship is called ***Ohm's Law***
- The unit of resistance is an Ohm, Ω
 - $\Omega = \text{Volt} / \text{Ampere}$
- The value of the resistance of a wire depends on its composition, size, and shape

Resistivity

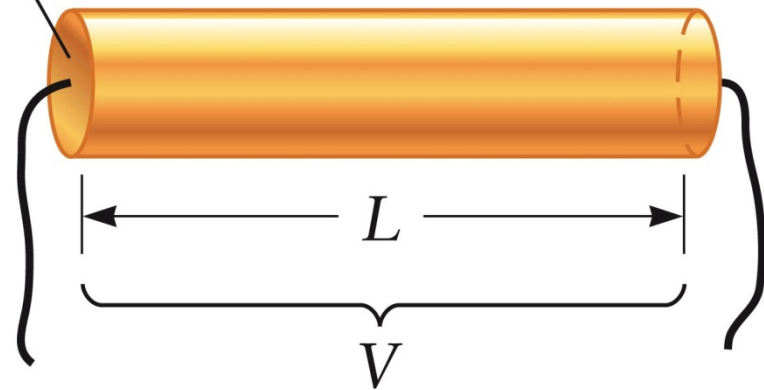
- The resistivity, ρ , depends only on the material used to make the wire
- The resistance of a wire of length L and cross-sectional area A is given by

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

- The resistivities of some materials are given in table 19.1

A = Cross-sectional area

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

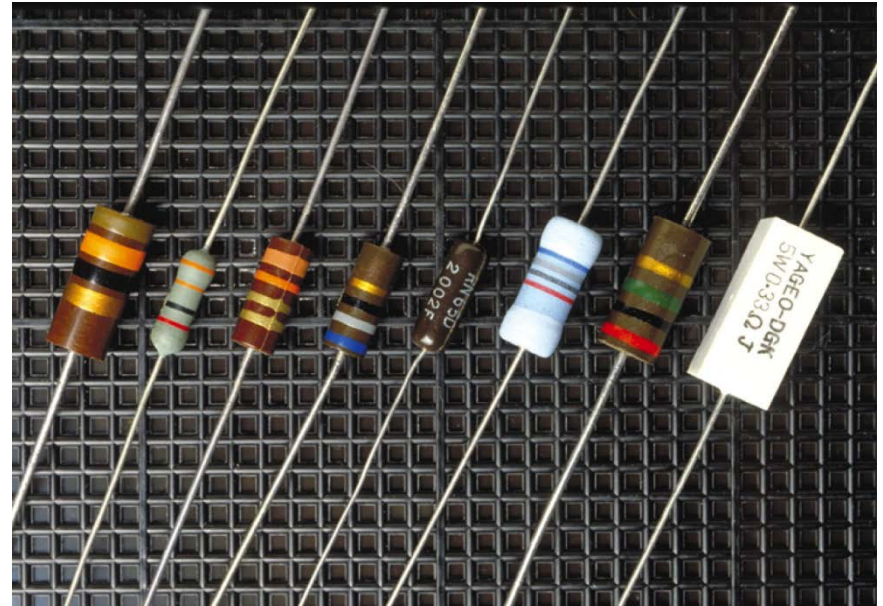


Ohm's Law: Final Notes

- Ohm's Law predicts a linear relationship between current and voltage
- Ohm's Law is not a fundamental law of physics
- Many, but not all, materials and devices obey Ohm's Law
- Resistors do obey Ohm's Law
 - Resistors will be used as the basis of circuit ideas

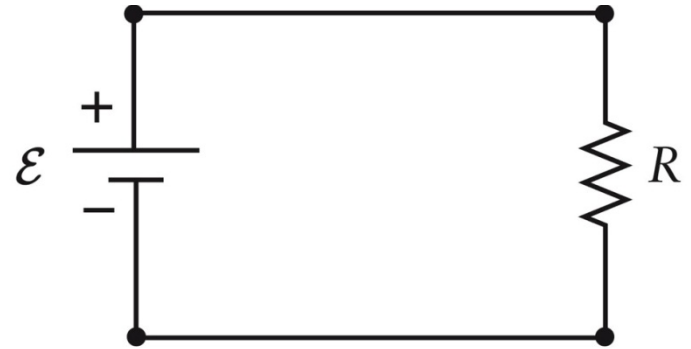
Resistors

- Resistors can be made in many shapes and sizes
- Each will have a resistance proportional to the current through and the potential across the resistor

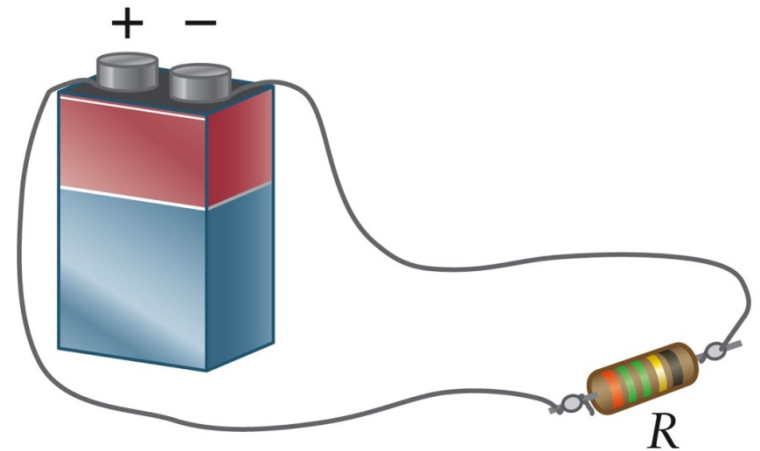


Circuit Schematic

- The circuit diagram (A) shows the symbols for the resistor and the battery
- Since the resistance of the wires is much smaller than that of the resistors, a good approximation is $R_{\text{wire}}=0$











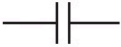






A



B

Circuit Symbols

TABLE 19.2 Symbols for Some Commonly Used Circuit Elements

Circuit Element	Symbol	Actual Appearance	Circuit Element	Symbol	Actual Appearance
Battery		 © Cengage Learning/ Charles D. Winters	Lightbulb		 © David Graeme-Baker/Alamy © Anton Prado/Alamy
Resistor		 © INSADDO Photography/Alamy	Wire		 © Cengage Learning/ Charles D. Winters
Capacitor		 © Hemera Technologies/Photo Objects/Jupiterimages	Connection between wires		 © Cengage Learning/ Charles D. Winters
Switch		 © Hemera Technologies/Photo Objects/Jupiterimages	Electrical ground		

Current and Drift Velocity

- Current is related to the drift velocity

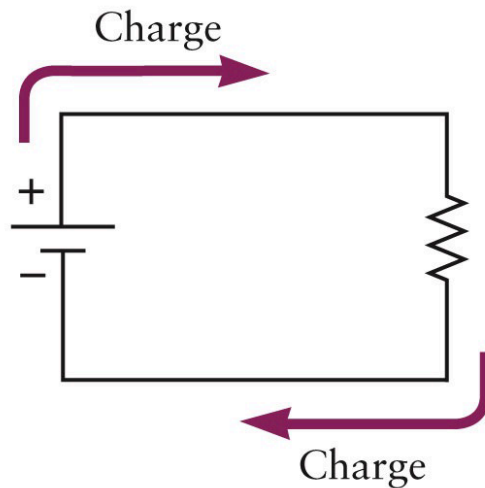
$$v_d = -\frac{I}{neA}$$

- For a household size copper wire carrying 1 A of current, the drift velocity is about -0.01 m/s
- There is no perceptible time delay between when you push a switch and when the light comes on
- The speed of the electric current is equal to the speed of electromagnetic radiation in the wire
 - This is nearly the speed of light

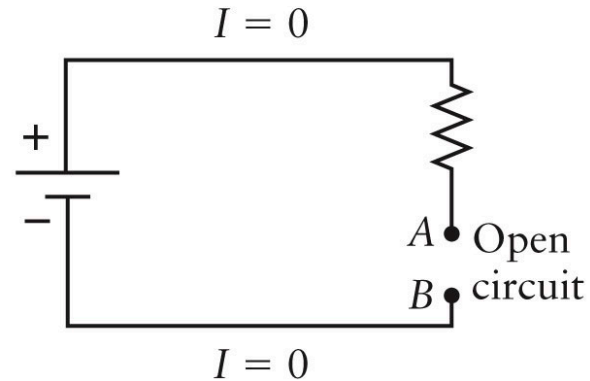
DC Circuits

- An electric circuit is a combination of connected elements forming a complete path through which charge is able to move
- Calculating the current in the circuit is called ***circuit analysis***
- DC stands for *direct current*
 - The current is constant
- The current can be viewed as the motion of the positive charges traveling through the circuit
- The current is the same at all points in the circuit

Circuits, cont.



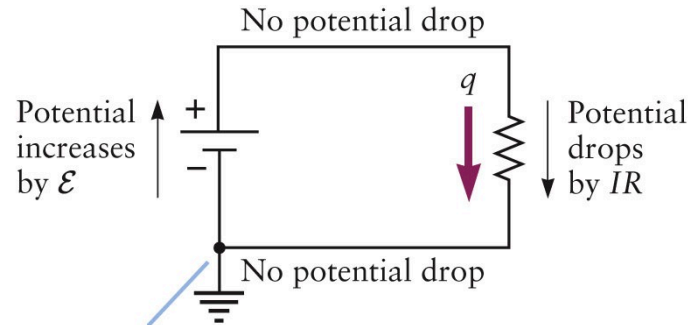
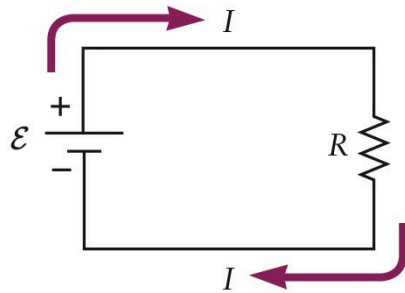
C



D

- There must be a complete circuit for charge flow
 - There must be a return path from the resistor for the current to return to the voltage source
- If the circuit is open, there is no current flow anywhere in the circuit

Kirchhoff's Loop Rule



Test charge starts here. Reference potential = 0 at "electrical ground."

A

B

- Consider the electric potential energy of a test charge moving through the circuit
- $\Delta V = \varepsilon - I R = 0$
 - For the entire circuit
 - Assumes wires have no resistance

Kirchhoff's Loop Rule, cont.

- Conservation of energy is the heart of the circuit analysis
- ***Kirchhoff's Loop Rule*** states *the change in potential energy of a charge as it travels around a complete circuit loop must be zero*
- Since $PE_{\text{elec}} = q V$, the loop rule also means the change in the electric potential around a closed circuit path is zero

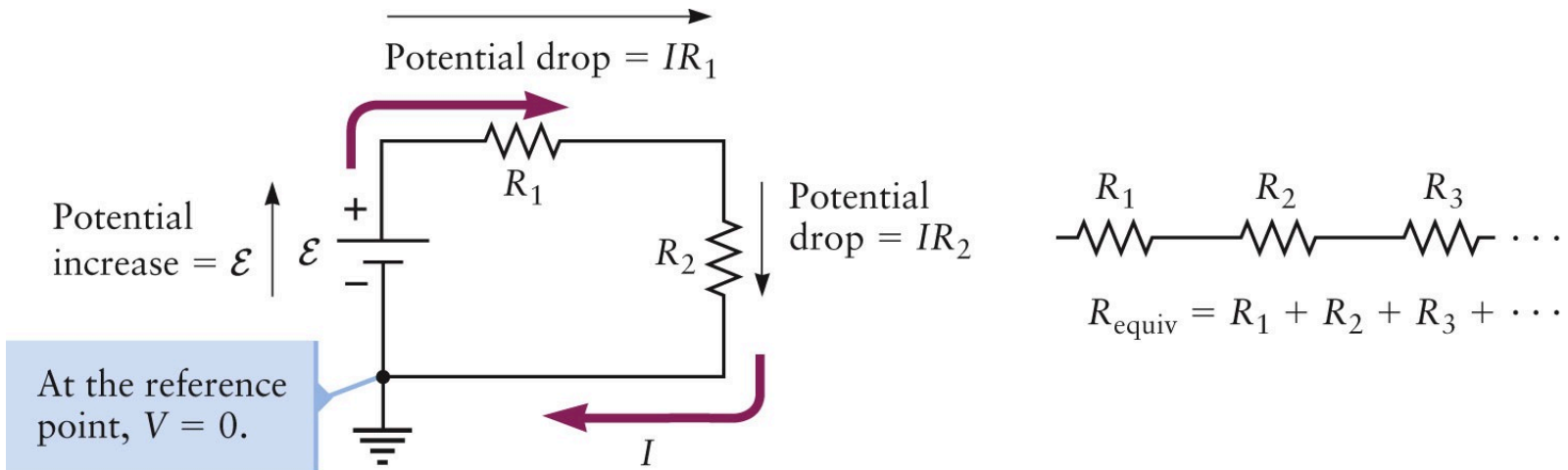
Energy in a Resistor

- The test charge gained energy when it passed through the battery
- It lost energy as it passed through the resistor
- The energy is converted into heat energy inside the resistor
 - The energy is dissipated as heat
 - It shows up as a temperature increase of the resistor and its surroundings

Power

- In the resistor, the energy decreases by $q V = (I \Delta t) V$
 - Power is energy / $\Delta t = I V$
- Applying Ohm's Law, $P = I^2 R = V^2 / R$
- The circuit converts chemical energy from the battery to heat energy in the resistors
 - Applies to all circuit elements

Resistors in Series



A

- When the current passes through one resistor and then another, the resistors are said to be in series
- Applying Kirchhoff's Loop Rule:

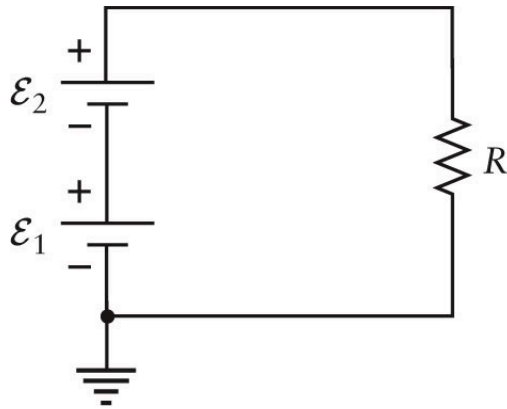
$$+\mathcal{E} - IR_1 - IR_2 = 0$$

B

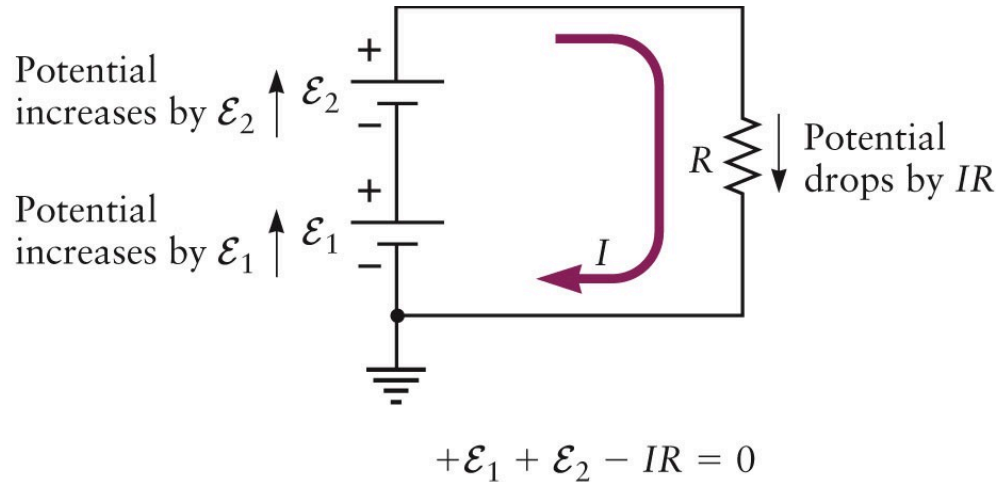
Series Resistors – Equivalent R

- Any number of resistors can be connected in series
- The resistors will be equivalent to a single resistor with $R_{\text{equiv}} = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots$
- An equivalent resistor means that an arrangement of resistors can be replaced by the equivalent resistance with no change in the current in the rest of the circuit
 - The idea of equivalence will apply to many other types of circuit elements

Batteries in Series



A

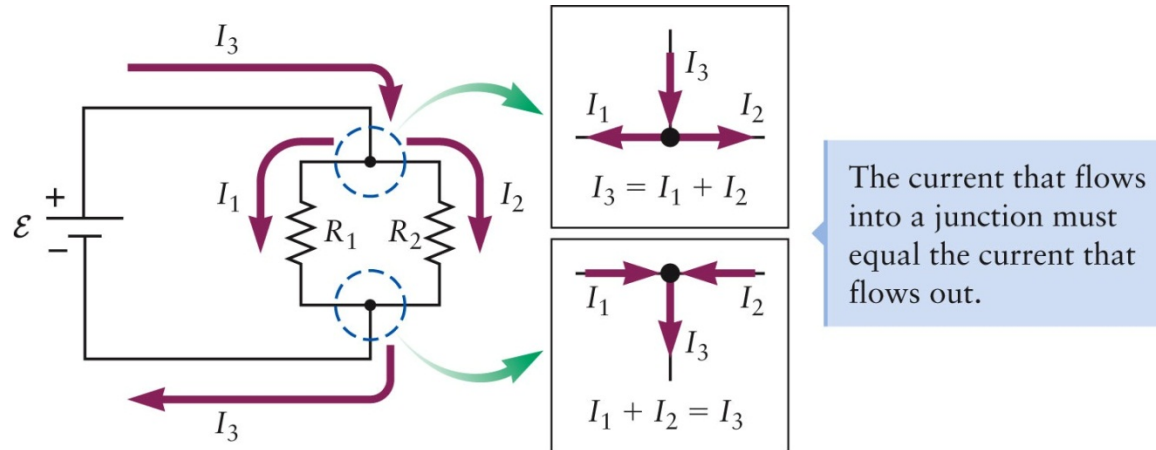


B

- Batteries can also be connected in series
 - The positive terminal of one battery would be connected to the negative terminal of the next battery
- The combination of two batteries in series is equivalent to a single battery with emf of

$$\mathcal{E}_{equiv} = \mathcal{E}_1 + \mathcal{E}_2 + \mathcal{K}$$

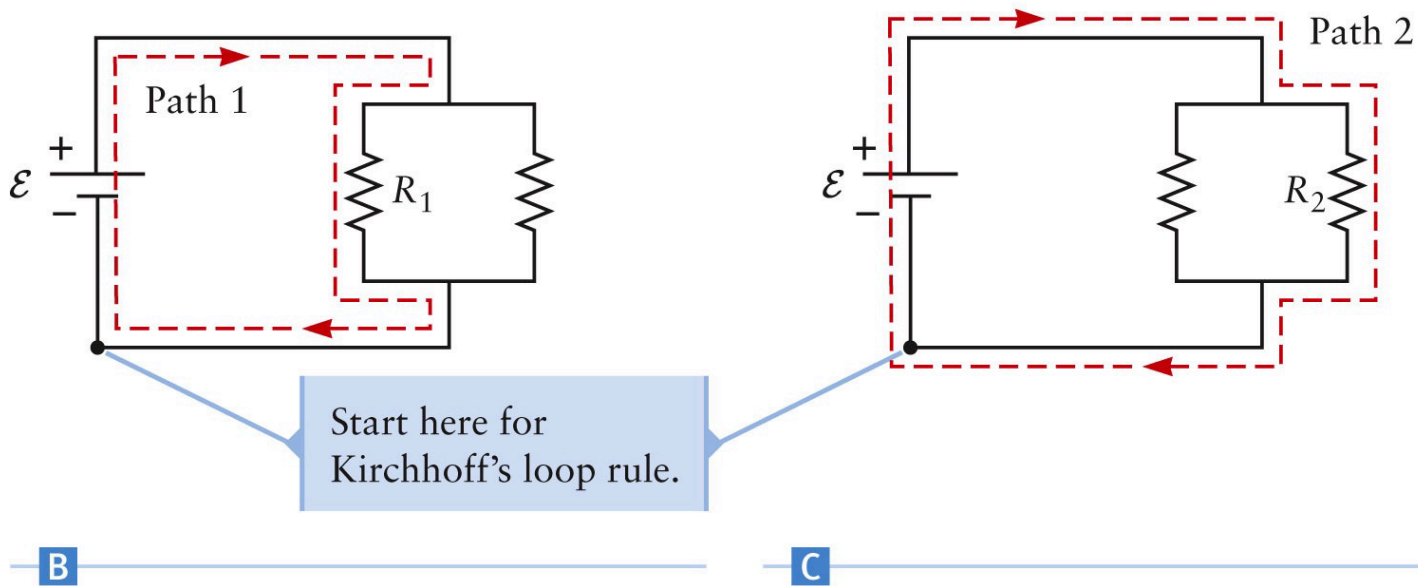
Resistors in Parallel



A

- In some circuits, the current can take multiple paths
 - The different paths are called *branches*
- The arrangement of resistors shown is called resistors in parallel
- The currents in each branch need not be equal

Resistors in Parallel, cont.



- Two unknown currents must be solved for
- Use three currents:
 - I_1 through R_1
 - I_2 through R_2
 - I_3 through the wires and other parts of the circuit
- The three currents are not independent

Kirchhoff's Junction Rule

- The points where the currents are connected are called junctions or nodes
- Electric charge cannot be created or destroyed, so *the amount of current entering a junction must be equal to the current leaving it*
- This is called Kirchhoff's Junction Rule
- Both of Kirchhoff's Rules may be needed to solve a circuit
 - Any starting point can be used to make a complete loop around the circuit

Applying the Junction Rule

- For path 1, $+\varepsilon - I_1 R_1 = 0$
- For path 2, $+\varepsilon - I_2 R_2 = 0$
- The total current is

$$I_3 = I_1 + I_2 = \frac{\varepsilon}{R_1} + \frac{\varepsilon}{R_2}$$

Kirchhoff's Rules, Summary

- Kirchhoff's Loop Rule
 - The total change in the electric potential around any closed circuit path must be zero
- Kirchhoff's Junction Rule
 - The current entering a circuit junction must be equal to the current leaving the junction
- These are actually applications of fundamental laws of physics
 - Loop Rule – conservation of energy
 - Junction Rule – conservation of charge
- The rules apply to all types of circuits involving all types of circuit elements

Problem Solving Strategies

- **Recognize the principle**
 - All circuit analysis is based on Kirchhoff's loop and junction rules
- **Sketch the problem**
 - Start with a circuit diagram
 - Identify all the different circuit branches
 - The currents in the branches are generally the unknown variables in the problem

Problem Solving, cont.

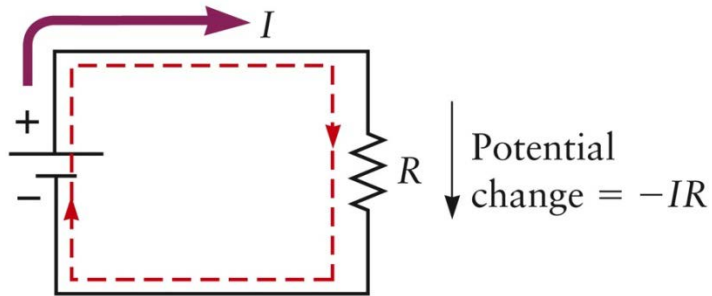
- **Identify**
 - Find all the possible closed loops and junctions in the circuit
 - Apply Kirchhoff's loop rule to each closed loop to get a set of equations involving the branch currents, battery emfs and resistances in each loop
 - Apply Kirchhoff's junction rule to each junction to get equations relating different branch currents
- **Solve**
 - Solve the equations for the current in each branch
- **Check**
 - Consider what your answer means
 - Does your answer make sense?

Using Kirchhoff's Rules

- The loop rule can be used as often as the resulting equation is independent of the equations from the other loop equations
 - An equation will be independent as long as it contains at least one circuit element that is not involved in other loops
- When using the loop rule, pay close attention to the sign of the voltage drop across the circuit element
 - You can go around the loop in any direction

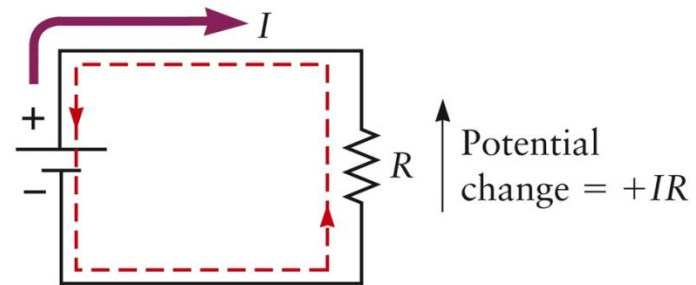
Directions in Kirchhoff's Rules

Potential drops by IR when moving with the current.



A

Potential increases by IR when moving against the current.

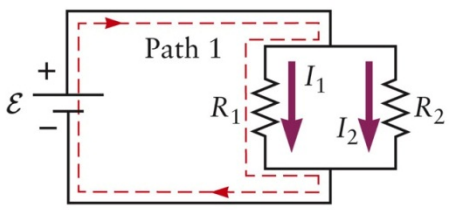
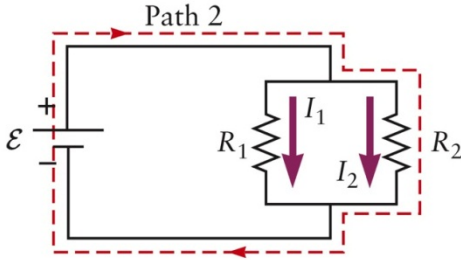
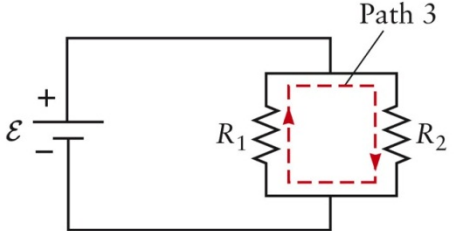


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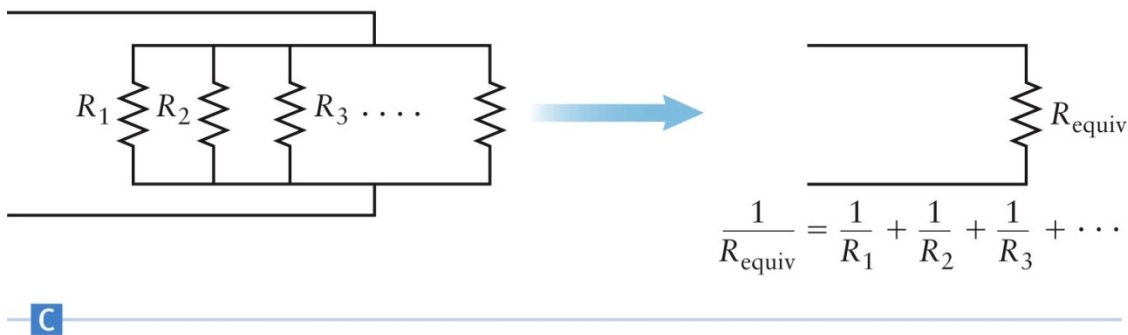
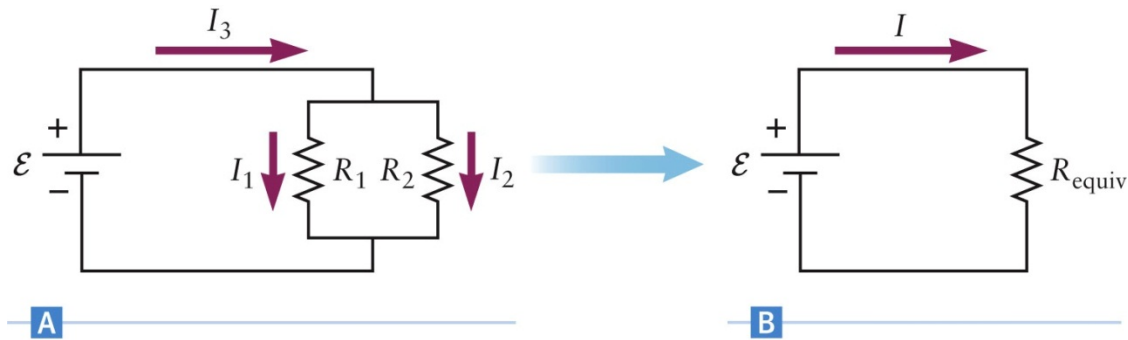
- The signs of the potentials in Kirchhoff's loop rule will depend on assumed current direction
- Moving parallel to the current produces a potential drop across a resistor
- After solving the equations, if the current is positive the assumed direction of the current is correct
- If the current is negative, the direction of the current is opposite the assumed direction

Kirchhoff's Rules: Numbers of Equations

- In general, if a circuit has N junctions, the junction rule can be used $N - 1$ times
- In general, a loop equation will be independent of other loop equations if it contains at least one circuit element that is not involved in the other loops

PATH IN CIRCUIT	LOOP EQUATION
 <p>A</p>	$\mathcal{E} - I_1 R_1 = 0$
 <p>B</p>	$\mathcal{E} - I_2 R_2 = 0$
 <p>C</p>	$+I_1 R_1 - I_2 R_2 = 0$

Equivalent Resistance – Parallel



- A set of resistors in parallel can be replaced with an equivalent resistor

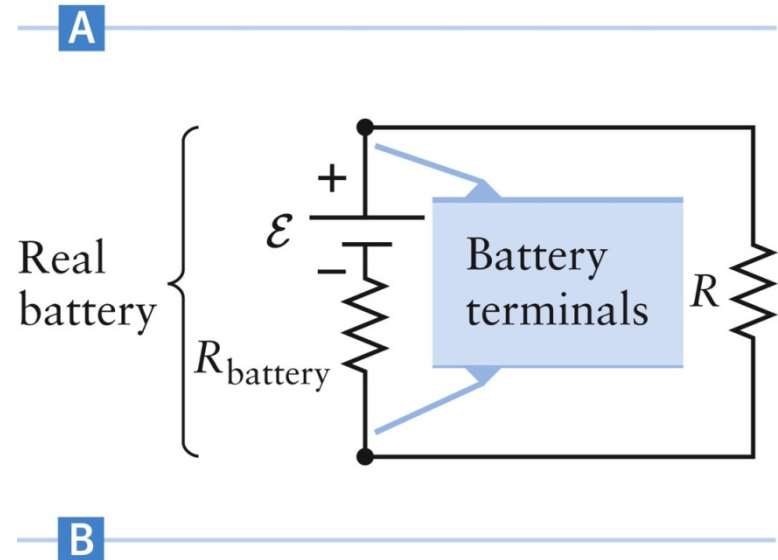
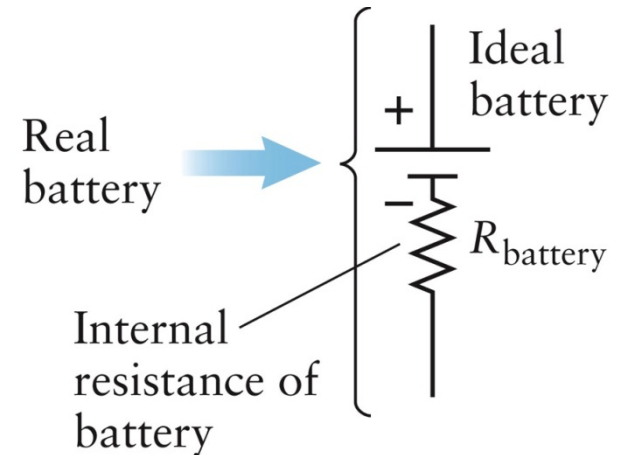
$$\frac{1}{R_{\text{equiv}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots$$

Circuit Analysis, Final Notes

- Some complex circuits can be solved by combinations of series and parallel rules
- Other circuits must be analyzed directly by Kirchhoff's Rules
- Connecting resistors in series always gives a total resistance larger than the resistance of any of the component resistors
- Connecting resistors in parallel always gives a total resistance smaller than the resistance of any of the component resistors

Real Batteries

- An ideal battery always maintains a constant voltage across its terminals
 - The value of the voltage is the emf of the battery
- A real battery is equivalent to an ideal battery in series with a resistor, R_{battery}
 - This is the internal resistance of the battery



Real Battery, cont.

- The current through the internal resistance and the external resistor is

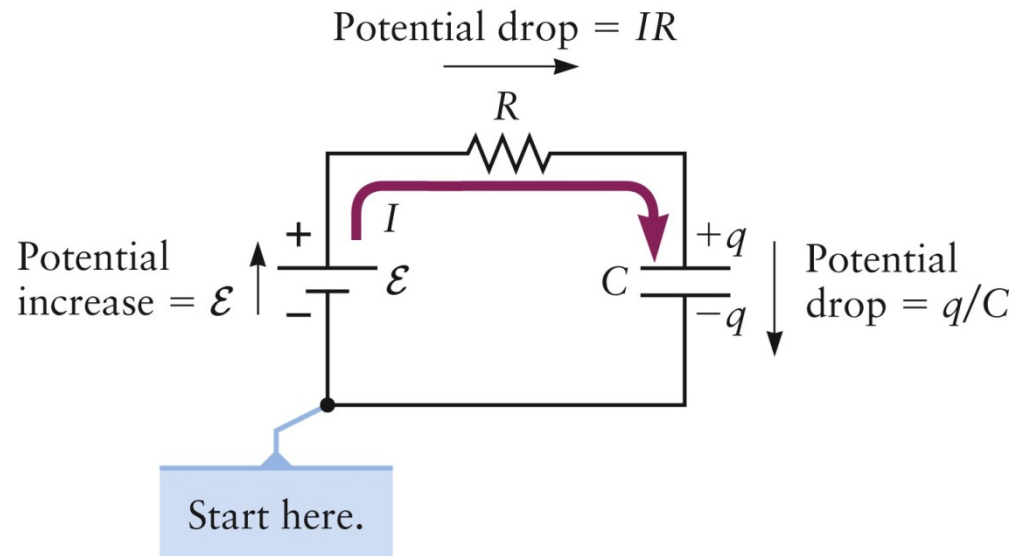
$$I = \frac{\varepsilon}{R + R_{\text{battery}}}$$

- The potential difference across the real battery's terminals is

$$\text{potential of real battery} = IR = \varepsilon \left(\frac{R}{R + R_{\text{battery}}} \right)$$

Kirchhoff's Rules with Capacitors

- Kirchhoff's Rules can be applied to all kinds of circuits
- The change in the potential around the circuit is
$$+\varepsilon - I R - q / C = 0$$
- Want to solve for I
- I and q will be time dependent

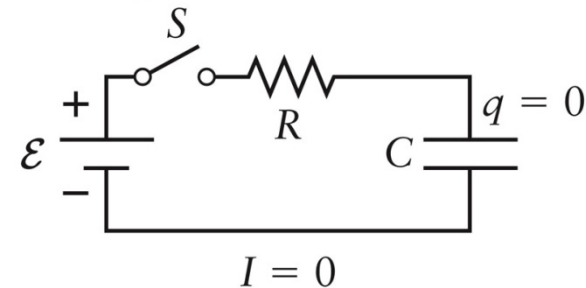


Capacitors, cont.

- When the switch is closed, there is a current carrying a positive charge to the top plate of the capacitor
- When the capacitor plates are charged, there is a nonzero voltage across the capacitor

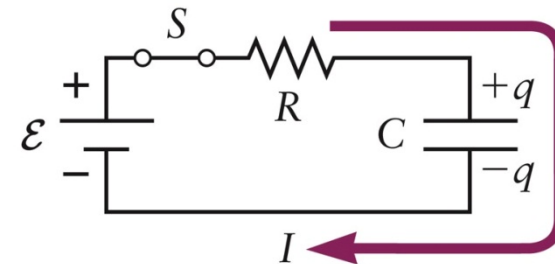
CHARGING A CAPACITOR

Switch is open before $t = 0$.



A

Switch is closed at $t = 0$.



B

Charging Capacitors

- The current in the circuit is described by

$$I = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} e^{-t/\tau}$$

- The voltage across the capacitor is

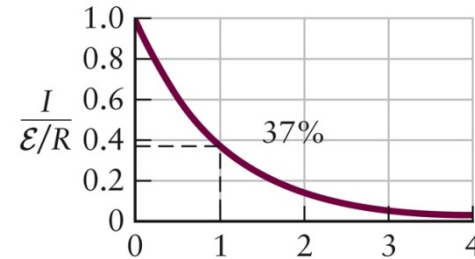
$$V_{cap} = \mathcal{E} (1 - e^{-t/\tau})$$

- The charge is given by

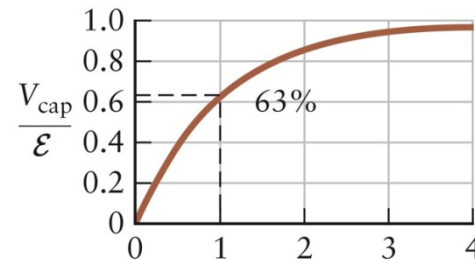
$$q = CV_{cap} = C\mathcal{E} (1 - e^{-t/\tau})$$

- $\tau = RC$ and is called the ***time constant***

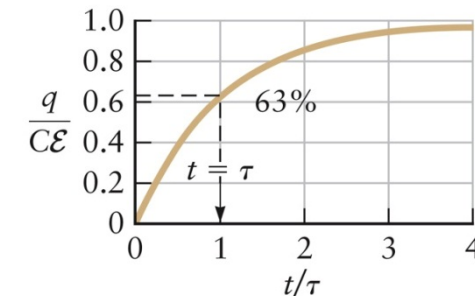
CHARGING A CAPACITOR



A



B



C

Time Constant

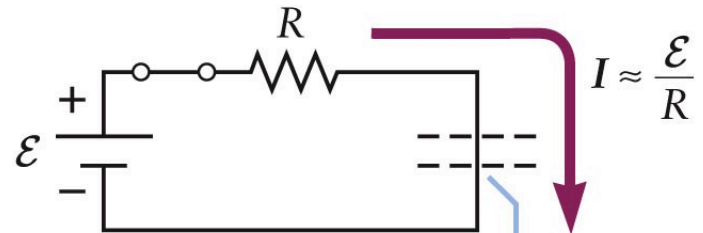
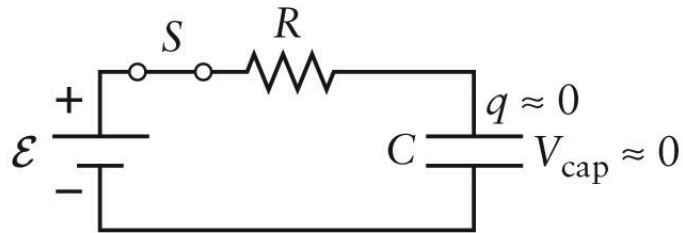
- Current
 - At the end of one time constant, the current has decreased to 37% of its original value
 - At the end of two time constants, the current has decreased to 63% of its original value
- Voltage and charge
 - At the end of one time constant, the voltage and current have increased 63% of their asymptotic values

Capacitor at Various Times

- Just after the switch is closed
 - The charge is very small
 - V_{cap} is very small
 - $I = \varepsilon / R$
- When t is large
 - The charge is very large
 - $V_{\text{cap}} \approx \varepsilon$
 - The polarity of the capacitor opposes the battery emf
 - The current approaches zero

Capacitors at Various Times, Circuits

AT TIME $t \approx 0$

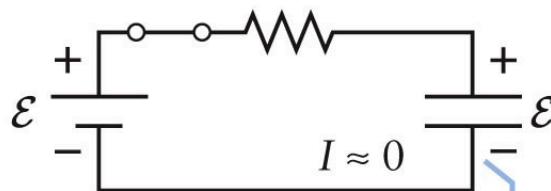
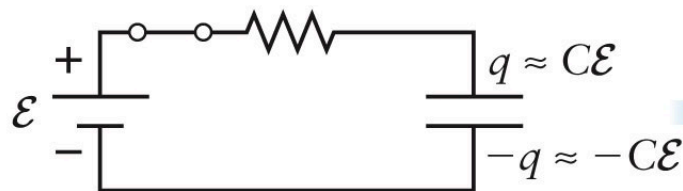


The capacitor initially acts like a short circuit.

A

B

AFTER A LONG TIME



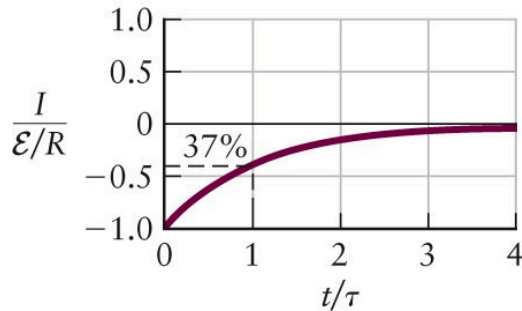
The capacitor eventually acts as an emf \mathcal{E} .

C

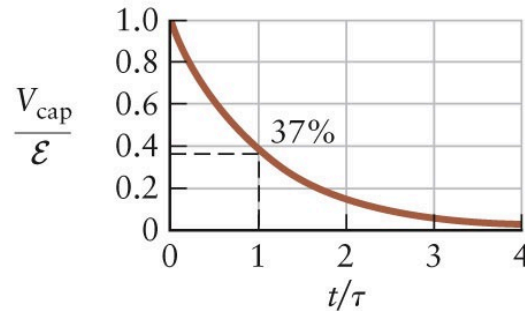
D

Discharging the Capacitor

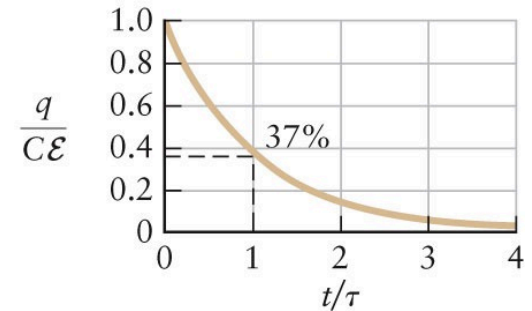
DISCHARGING A CAPACITOR



A



B



C

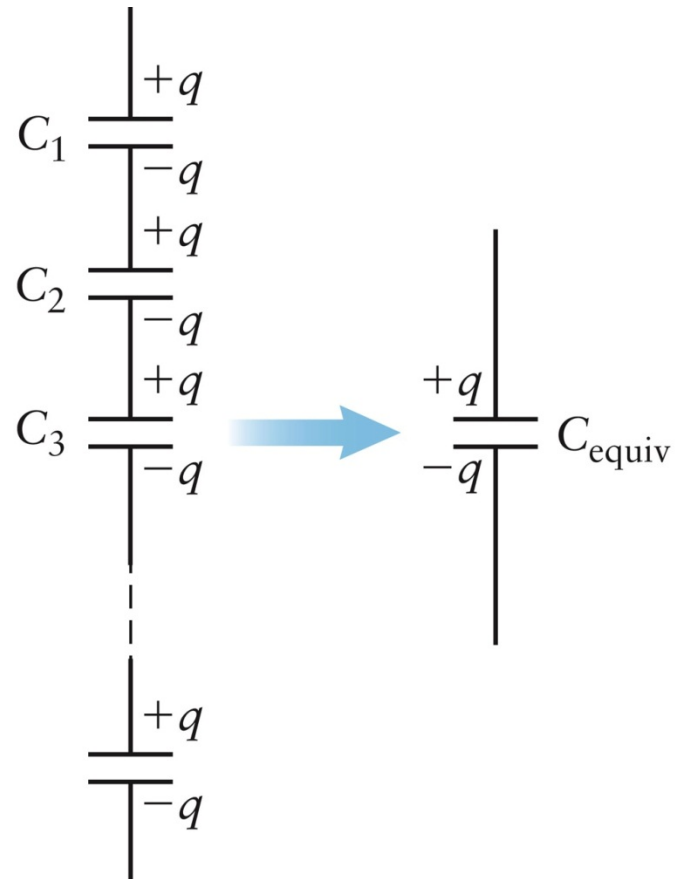
- Current: $I = -\frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} \left(1 - e^{-t/\tau}\right)$
- Voltage: $V_{\text{cap}} = \mathcal{E} e^{-t/\tau}$
- Charge: $q = C \mathcal{E} e^{-t/\tau}$
- Time constant: $\tau = RC$, the same as for charging

Capacitors in Series

- Several capacitors can be connected in series
- The equivalent capacitance is

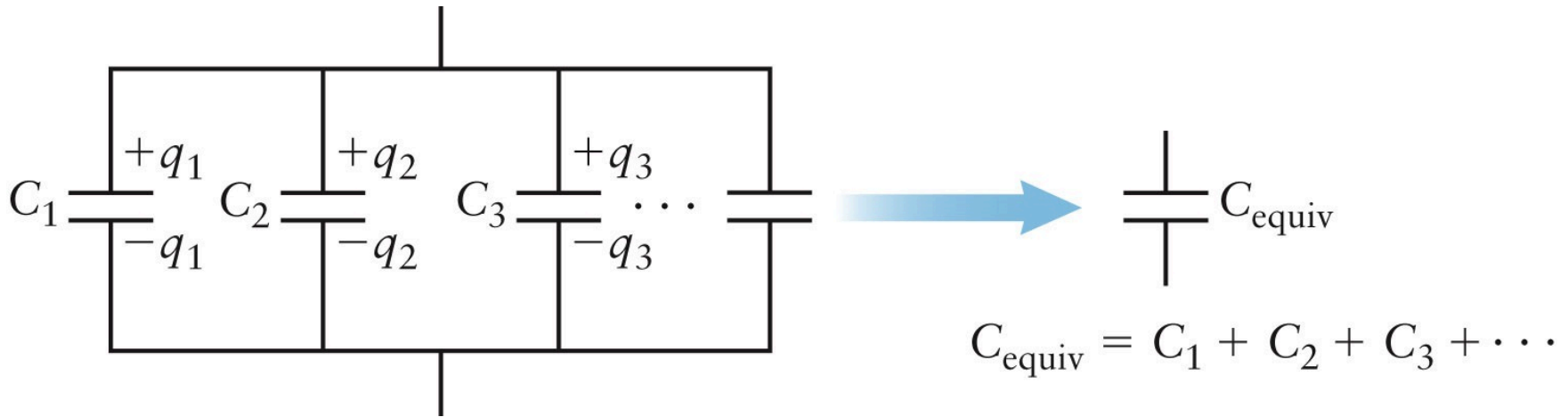
$$\frac{1}{C_{equiv}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} + \dots$$

- The equivalent capacitance is smaller than any of the individual capacitors



$$\frac{1}{C_{equiv}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} + \dots$$

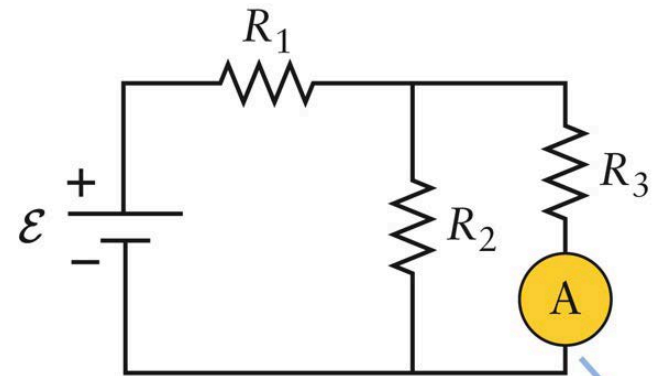
Capacitors in Parallel



- Capacitors connected in parallel also can be equivalent to a single capacitor
- $C_{\text{equiv}} = C_1 + C_2 + C_3 + \dots$
- The equivalent capacitance is larger than any of the individual capacitors

Ammeters

- An **ammeter** is a device that measures current
- An ammeter must be connected in series with the desired circuit branch
- An ideal ammeter will measure current without changing its value
 - Must have a very low resistance

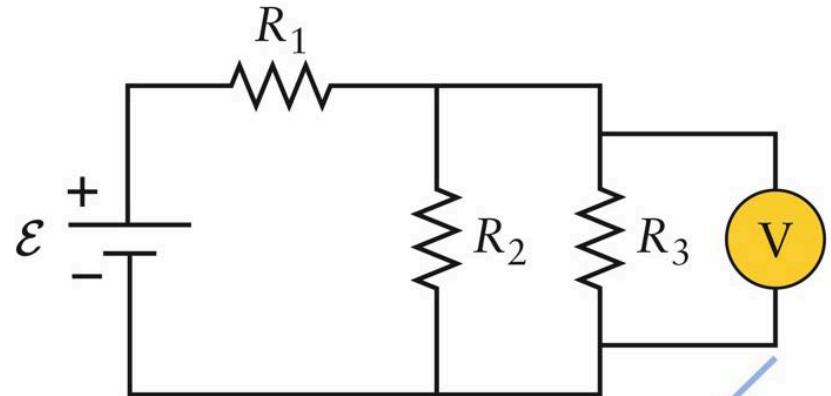


An ammeter must be inserted in series with the branch whose current is to be measured.

A

Voltmeters

- A **voltmeter** measures the voltage across a circuit element
- It must be connected in parallel with the element
- An ideal voltmeter should measure the voltage without changing its value
 - The voltmeter should have a very high resistance



A voltmeter is inserted in parallel with the circuit element whose voltage drop (or increase) is to be measured.

B

Filters

- It is often desirable to filter out time-dependent fluctuations in a voltage signal
- Circuits that can do so are called ***filters***
- They can be constructed with RC combinations
- A filter is useful in many applications
 - Noise in a radio signal
- The amount of filtering depends on the values of R and C

Electric Currents in Nerves

- Many nerves are long and thin, much like wires
- The conducting solution inside the fiber acts as a resistor
- The lipid layer acts as a capacitor
- The nerve fiber behaves as an RC circuit
 - Needs a small time constant
 - Small R through large radius
 - Small C through a layer of myelin increasing the distance between the capacitor plates

Electric Currents and Health

- Your body is a moderately good conductor of electricity
- The body's resistance when dry is about $1500\ \Omega$
- When wet, the body's resistance is about $500\ \Omega$
- Current is carried by different parts of the body
 - Skin
 - Internal organs

TABLE 19.3 Effect of Electric Current on the Human Body

Current (mA)	Effect on Body
1	Threshold for sensing (can “feel it tingle”)
5	Harmless
10–20	Involuntary muscle contraction
50	Pain
100–200	Disrupts the heart
300	Burns

Household Currents

- The voltage in your home is an AC voltage oscillating at a certain frequency
 - Frequency is 60 Hz in the US
- Most modern outlets and plugs have three connections
 - Two are flat
 - One is round and connects to ground
 - Polarized plugs have flat connectors of different sizes
 - The larger connects to the lower potential

Fuses and Circuit Breakers

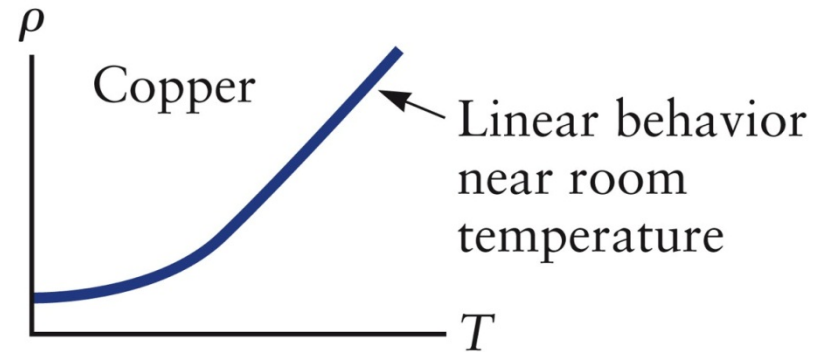
- In a fuse, current passes through a thin metal strip
 - This strip acts as a resistor with a small resistance
 - If a failure causes the current to become large, the power causes the strip to melt and the current stops
- A circuit breaker also stops the current when it exceeds a predetermined limit
 - The circuit breaker can be reset for continued use

Temperature Dependence of Resistance

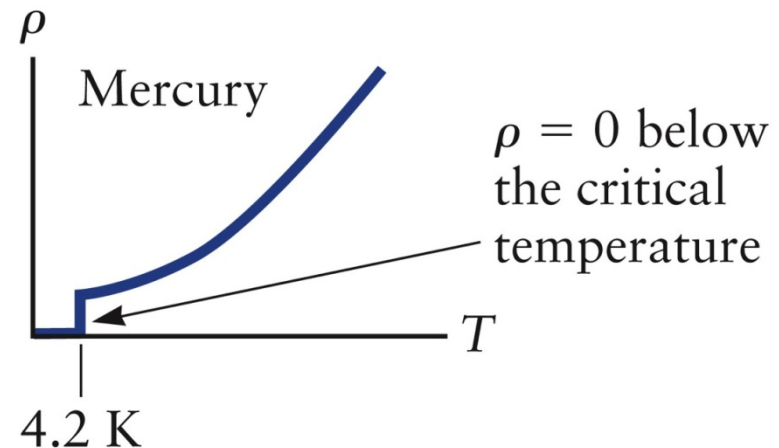
- As temperature increases, the ions in a metal vibrate with larger amplitudes
 - This causes more frequent collisions and an increase in resistance
- For many metals near room temperature,
$$\rho = \rho_0 [1 + \alpha(T - T_0)]$$
- α is called the ***temperature coefficient of the resistivity***
- The resistivity and resistance vary linearly with temperature

Superconductivity

- At very low temperatures, the linearity of resistance breaks down
- The resistivity of metals approach a nonzero value at very low temperatures
- In some metals, resistivity drops abruptly and is zero below a critical temperature
- Metals for which the resistivity goes to zero are called **superconductors**



A



B