

# ***Electricity – basic properties***



# *Contents*

Free electrons

Charge and Current

$$I = nAve$$

Ammeter

Electric potential

Voltmeter

Ohm's Law

IV Characteristics

Resistance

Resistivity

# ***Introduction***

Electricity is NOT a source of energy. It is just a convenient way of TRANSFERRING energy from one place to another with relatively little energy loss.

# ***Introduction***

Electric current is a measure of the flow of free electrons.

Electric Potential (a.k.a. Voltage) is a measure of how closely those electrons are packed together.

# *Free Electrons*

The outer electrons orbiting the atoms of metals can be forced out of orbit and made to drift through the atomic lattice.

If a very large number of such electrons all move at once then this forms an electric current.

# *Electric Current*

Electric current is the rate of flow of charge

$$I = \Delta Q / \Delta t$$

1 Ampere (A) is 1 Coulomb (C) per second (s)

$$1 \text{ A} = 1 \text{ Cs}^{-1}$$

(in metals current is a flow of free electrons. In solutions, it is a flow of ions)

# *The Coulomb*

1 Coulomb is *the amount of electrical charge transferred when a constant current of 1 Amp flows for 1 second.*

$$\Delta Q = I \times \Delta t$$

# ***Electric Current***

Since each electron has a charge of  $1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  coulombs (C) then a current of 1 Amp is also a flow of  $6.25 \times 10^{18}$  electrons passing a fixed point every second.

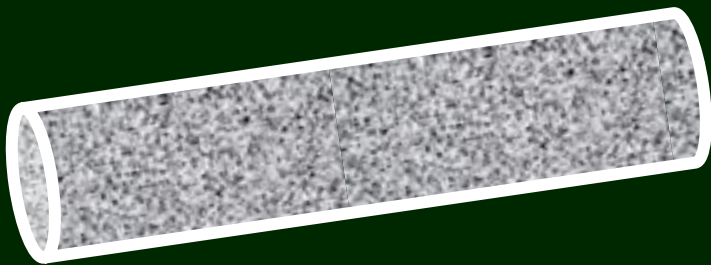


# ***Electric Current***

The direction of electric current flow is defined in terms of the flow of positive charges – this is “conventional current”.

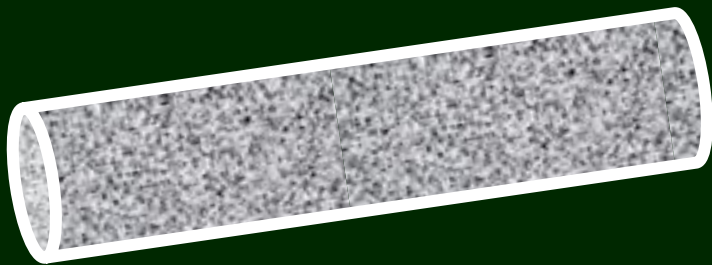
Electrons flow in the opposite direction.

# *Electric Current*



A wire has length  $L$ , cross-sectional area  $A$  and contains  $n$  charge-carriers per unit volume and each has a charge  $q$ .

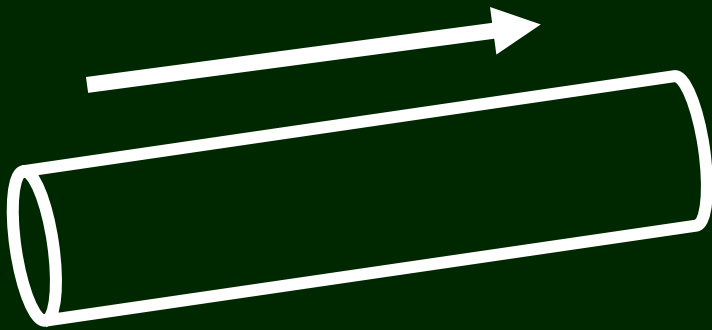
# *Electric Current*



So the total charge,  $Q$  contained in this section of wire is  $nq \times \text{volume}$ .

$$Q = nALq.$$

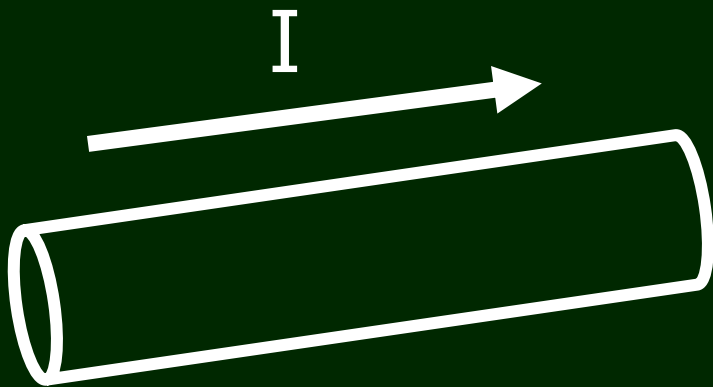
# *Electric Current*



Suppose all of this charge  $Q$  flows out of this part of the wire in a time  $t$ .

(Obviously, in a real wire, more free electrons would drift in from the left to replace them)

# *Electric Current*

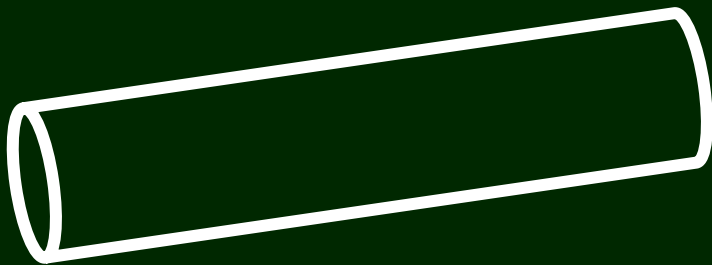


The Current flow  $I$  will be:

$$I = Q/t$$

$$\text{So } I = nALq/t$$

# *Electric Current*

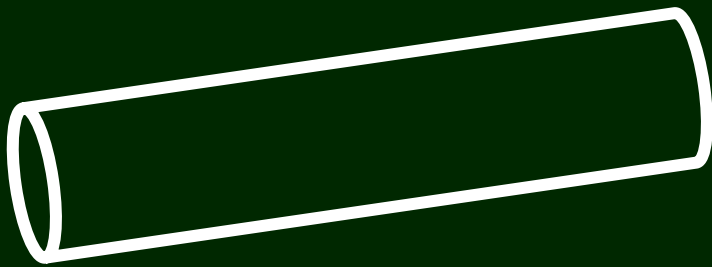


But we can write this as

$$I = nAq \times L/t$$

But  $L/t = v$ , the drift  
velocity,

# *Electric Current*



So

$$I = nAvq$$

# *Electric Current*

$$I = nAvq$$

If the charge carriers are ions (in electrolytes).

$$I = nAve$$

If the charge carriers are free electrons (in metals).

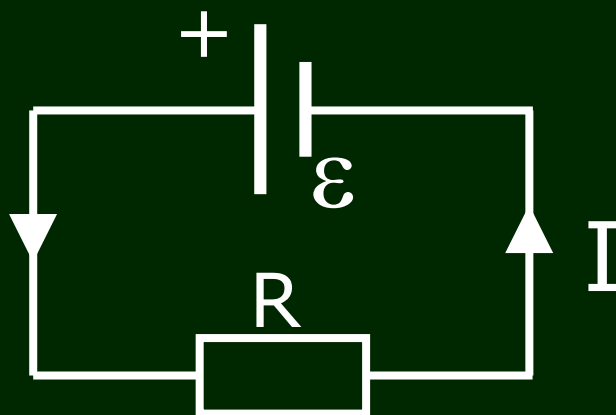


# *Carrier density*

$$I = nAve$$

Values of  $n$  vary from  $10^{28}$   $\text{m}^{-3}$  for conductors like copper, through semiconductors and down to  $10^{15}$   $\text{m}^{-3}$  for insulators like pure silicon.

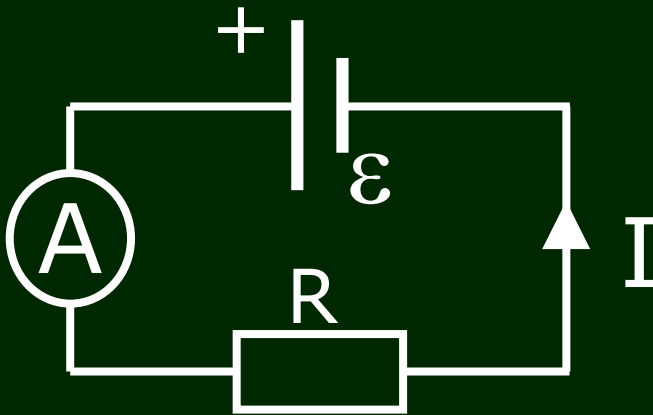
# *Series circuit*



The electric current is the same at all points around a series circuit.

Changing the values of  $R$  or  $\varepsilon$  will change  $I$ , but whatever its value,  $I$  will be the same at any point around a series circuit.

# *Ammeter*



An ammeter is an electrical flow meter. It is always placed in series with other components so that current flows through it.

All ammeters have negligible electrical resistance.

# ***Electric Potential***

The battery (or power supply) is the device which changes the average free electron spacing.

Its positive terminal is positive simply because fewer free electrons are located there.

# ***Electric Potential***

The negative terminal of the battery (or power supply) is negative because a larger number of free electrons are forced together at this terminal.

# *Electric Potential*

Measuring free electron spacing is too difficult. However, changing the average spacing of free electrons stores energy, much like squashing or stretching a spring.

# ***Electric Potential***

This energy difference between the terminals of a battery exists all the time, whether it is connected in a circuit or not.

Once connected into a circuit, this energy difference can drive a current.

# ***Electric Potential***

But rather than use energy (in Joules) we define a new property; Electric Potential which is simply the energy transferred by each coulomb of charge...



# *Electric Potential*

Electric Potential is *the energy transferred (from electrical to other forms) per unit charge.*

$$V = W/Q$$

1 Volt (V) is 1 Joule per Coulomb.

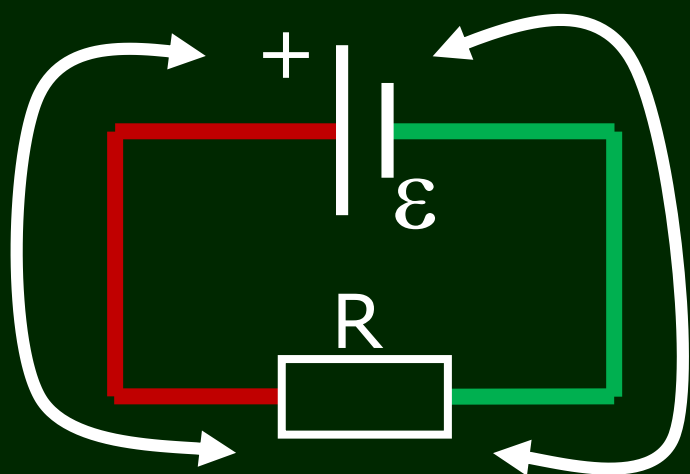
$$1 V = 1 \text{ JC}^{-1}$$

# *Potential in circuit*

If, as they drift through the atomic lattice, the free electrons are pushed closer together then this creates a more negative electric potential.

A wider average spacing of free electrons gives a more positive electric potential.

# *Series circuit*



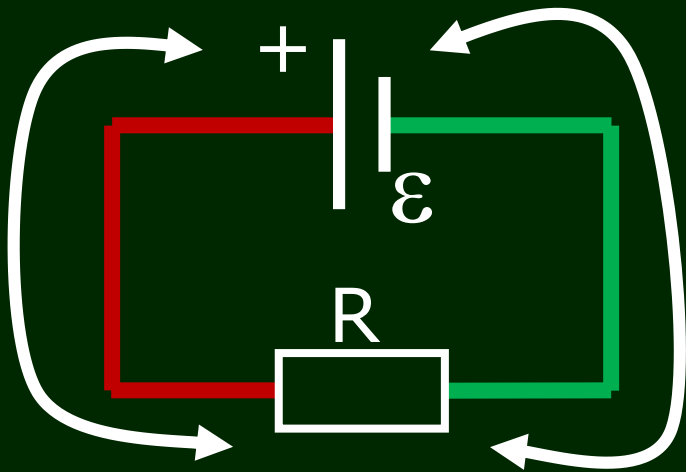
Higher  
electric  
potential on  
this side

(free  
electrons  
more widely  
spaced)

Lower  
electric  
potential on  
this side

(free  
electrons  
travel closer  
together)

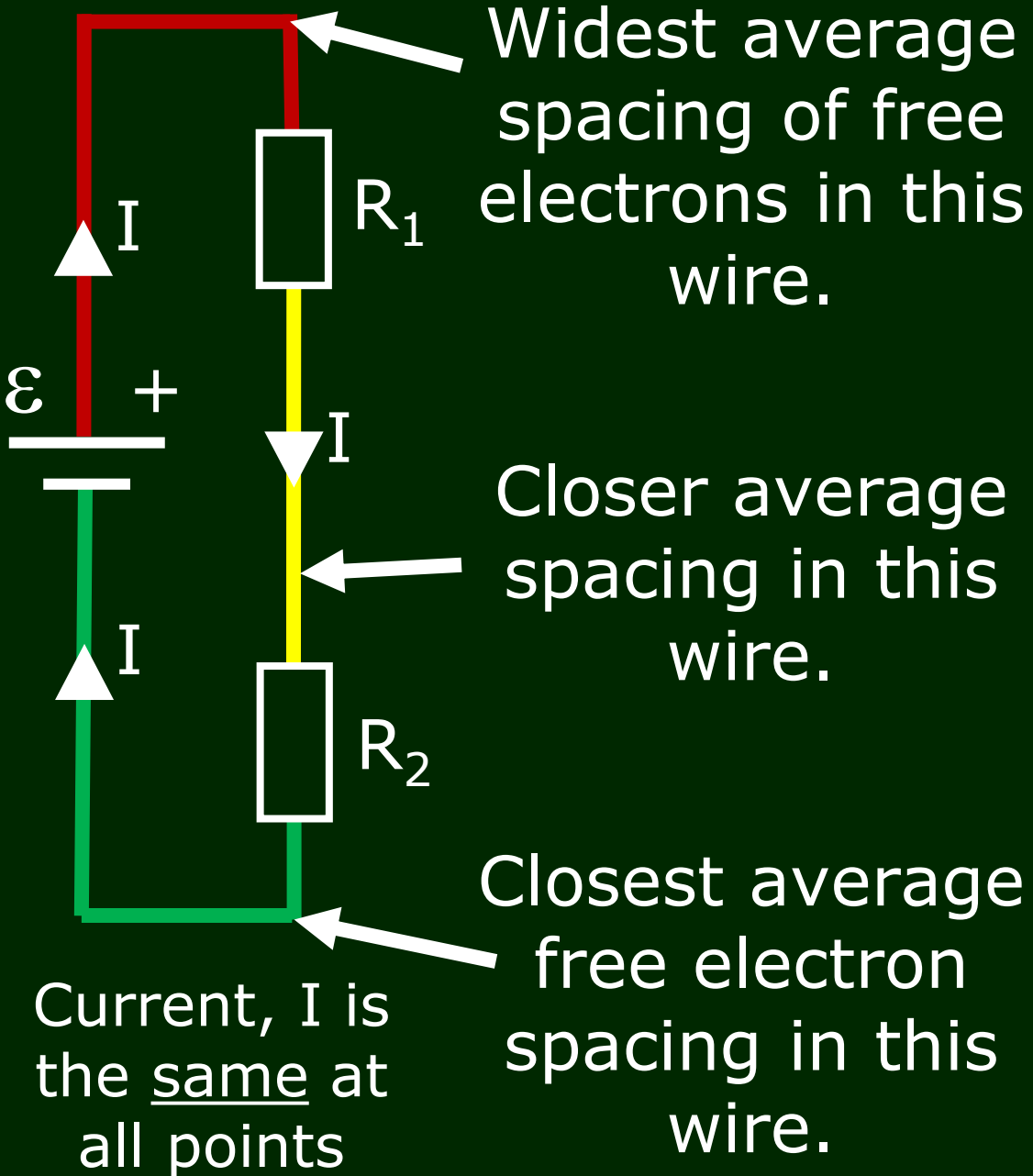
# *So what about $n$ ?*



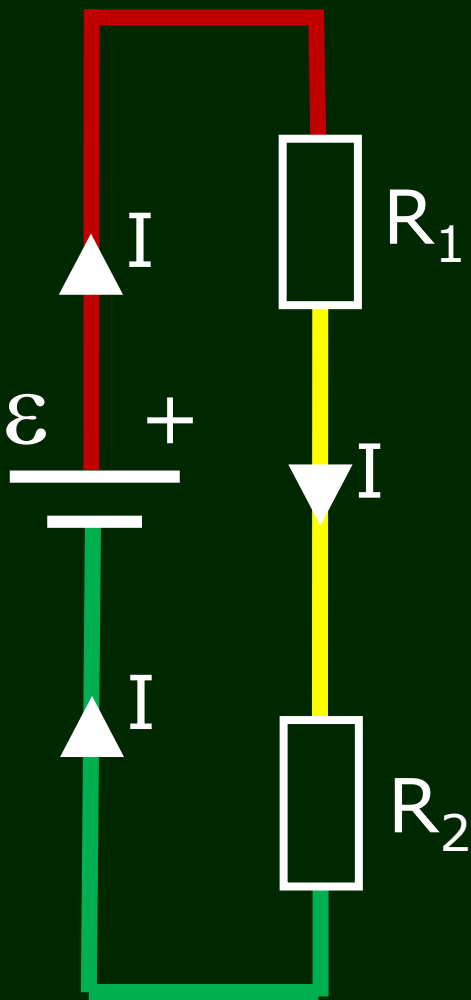
But if  $n$  is changing very, very slightly and  $I = nAve$  then how can we say that the current in a series circuit is the same at all points?

Answer: if  $n$  increases,  $v$  reduces and vice versa.

# Changing Potential



# Changing Potential

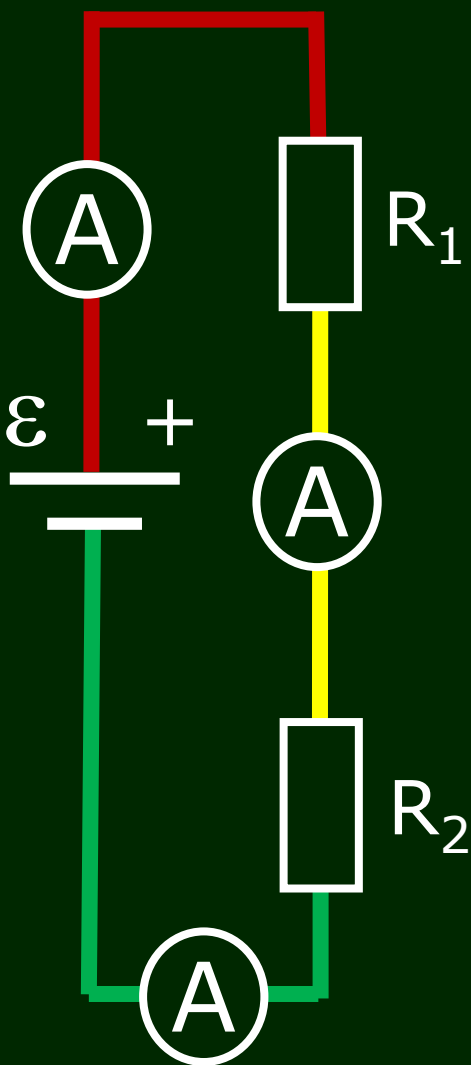


Current,  $I$  is the same at all points

Energy is transferred  $R_1$  (electric potential changes) when a current passes through a significant resistance (such as  $R_1$  &  $R_2$ )

Energy losses in connecting wires are negligible in comparison.

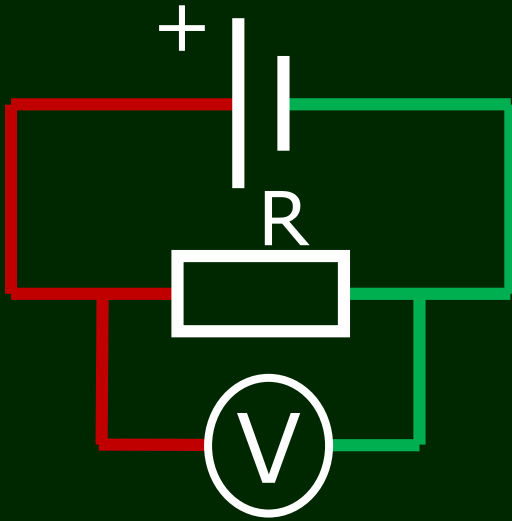
# *Effect of Ammeters*



Like connecting wires, Ammeters are designed to have negligible resistances, so their presence or absence in a circuit does not affect the voltage levels (i.e. free electron spacing)

The same ammeter, moved to different points in the circuit will show the same current reading

# *Voltmeter*

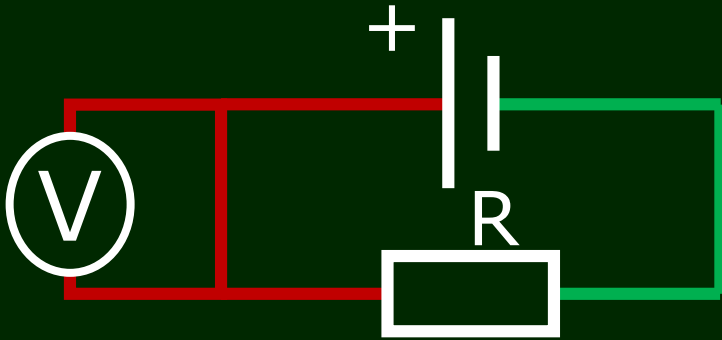


A voltmeter is a subtraction machine. It measures the potential at each terminal and displays the difference between the two readings.

Hence "potential difference" (a.k.a voltage)

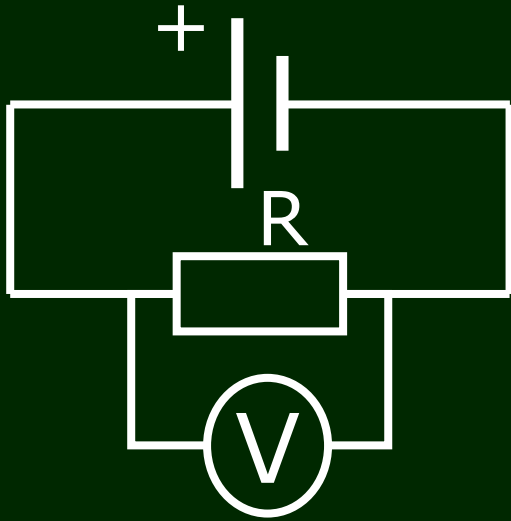


# *Voltmeter*



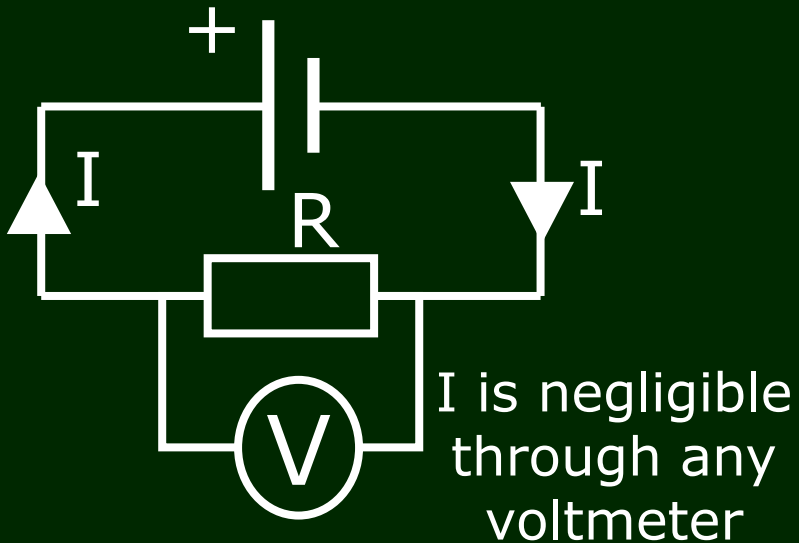
Here the voltmeter reads zero, NOT because the potential really is zero but because there is no difference between the two readings.

# *Voltmeter*



Voltmeters are always connected in parallel with other components (resistors, batteries, lamps etc).

# *Effect of Voltmeters*



Voltmeters are designed to have very large electrical resistances.

So any voltmeter added in parallel to a circuit will not affect the current.

# *Ohm's Law*

*The current through a component is directly proportional to the potential difference across its ends providing other physical properties (e.g. length, temperature) remain constant.*

# ***I V Characteristics***

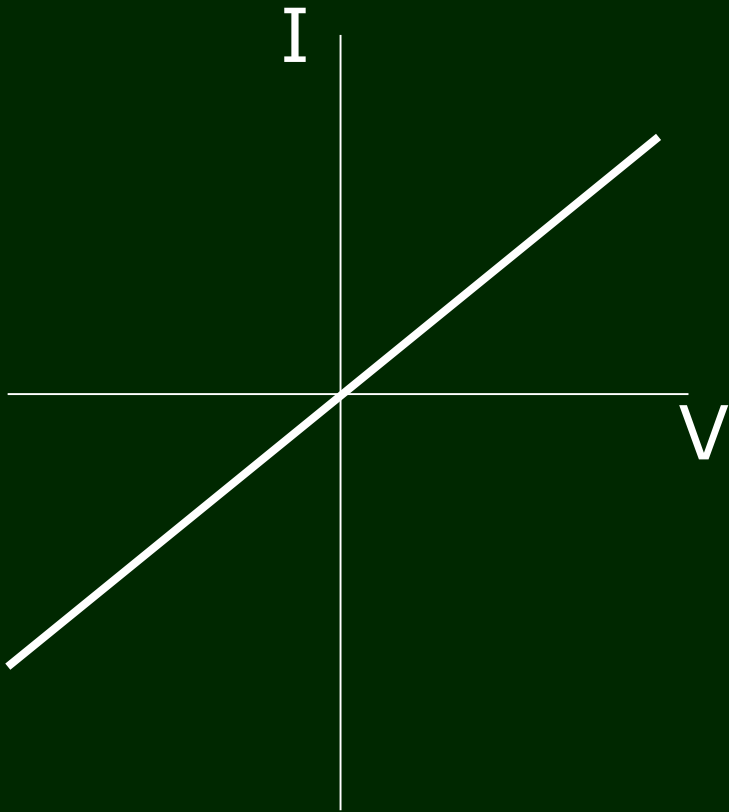
You can identify particular electrical components from the graphs of current vs potential difference.

These particular graph shapes are called IV Characteristics.

You are expected to know them and how they would be measured.

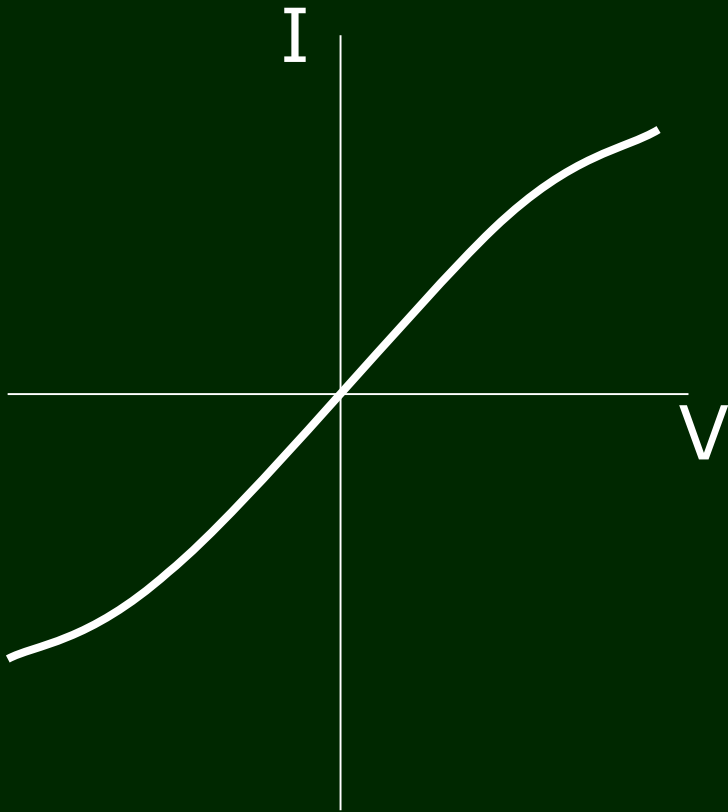
# *I V Characteristics*

Ohmic conductor



# *I V Characteristics*

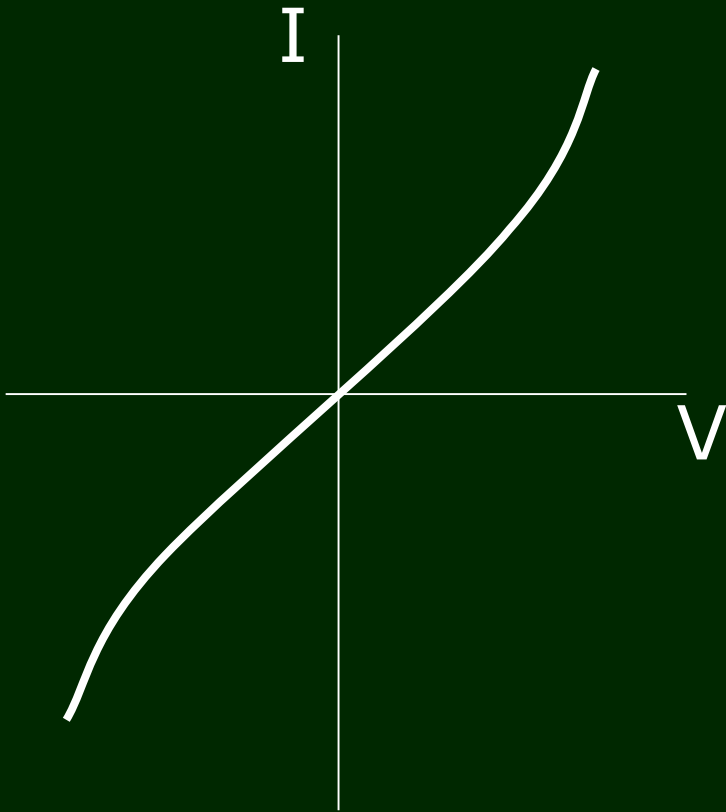
Filament lamp



Resistance increases as  
temp increases

# ***I V Characteristics***

Negative Temp Coefficient  
Thermistor

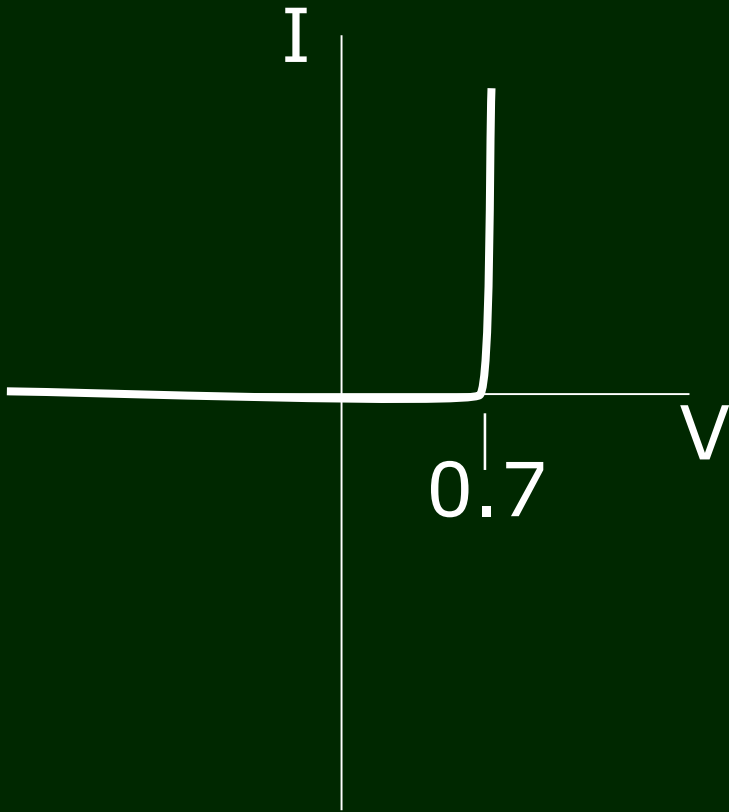


Resistance reduces as  
temp increases



# ***I V Characteristics***

L.E.D. or Semiconductor diode



For L.E.Ds, conduction starts between 0.5 and 2V.

# *Electrical Resistance*

*The electric potential difference applied across a conductor per unit current flowing through it.*

$$R = V/I$$

1 Ohm ( $\Omega$ ) is 1 Volt per  
Amp

$$1 \Omega = 1 \text{ VA}^{-1}$$

# *Resistivity*

The resistivity of a material is the product of its resistance and its cross-sectional area per unit length.

$$\rho = RA/L$$

Resistivity has the units of Ohm metres ( $\Omega\text{m}$ )  
(NOT Ohms per metre)

# *Quick Clip*

TAP HERE

...for a video on  
Resistivity.

# *Resistivity*

The resistivity of both metals and semiconductors (e.g thermistors) is not fixed but will vary with temperature due to the thermal vibration of the atomic lattice.

# ***Metallic conductors***

Increasing the temperature of a metal increases the thermal vibration of the atomic lattice.

The drift of electrons through the material is impeded causing a rise in its resistance (e.g filament lamp)

# *Thermistors*

Semiconductor devices are manufactured so that changes in temperatures will have a greater effect on resistance compared with conventional metals.

In semiconductors, thermal vibrations can release more charge carriers so conduction is easier.

# ***Thermistors***

Thermistors are used to make temperature sensors.

These temperature sensors can be designed to work over a wider range than the conventional liquid-in-glass thermometers.



# *Test*

State Ohm's Law.

Sketch the four IV characteristic graphs.

Define electrical resistance.

A  $10\text{k}\Omega$  resistor conducts a  $40\text{mA}$  current. Show that the P.d. across it is  $400\text{V}$ .

# ***Important***

Don't confuse Ohm's Law with the definition of electrical resistance.

# ***Online task***

Check your understanding by attempting the questions in the following links:

Static Electricity

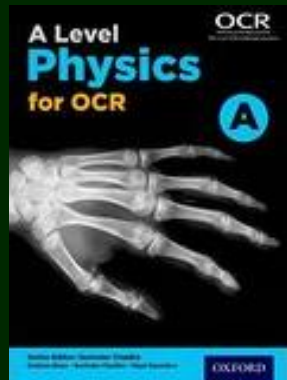
Current and Charge

# *More detail*

Two-year  
textbook

Pages

122 – 161

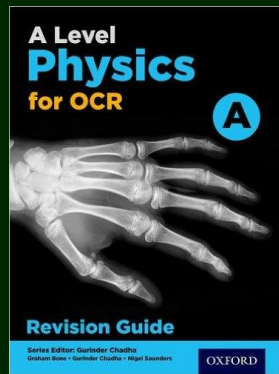


Revision  
guide

Pages

54 – 58

60 – 65



# *Reminder*

Mobile phones, PDAs, digital cameras or any other non-approved electronic device are not allowed in examination rooms. Do NOT bring them with you on the days when you have public examinations.