

2nd Year Physics
Chapter # 13
Current Electricity



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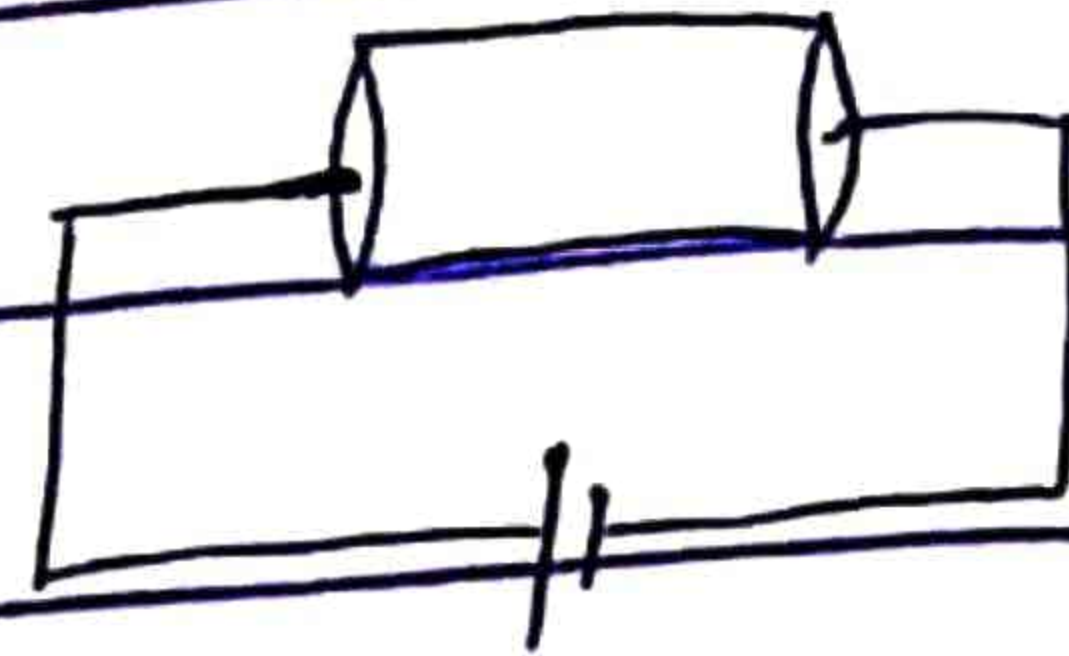


Ch # 13

Current Electricity

Current: The rate of flow of charges is called current. It is denoted by I .

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



SI unit of current is ampere (A).

Ampere If one coulomb charge passes through a conductor in one second, then the current will be one ampere.

$$1 \text{ A} = \frac{1 \text{ C}}{1 \text{ s}}$$



Conventional current

i- The current produced in the conductor due to the flow of

Electronic current

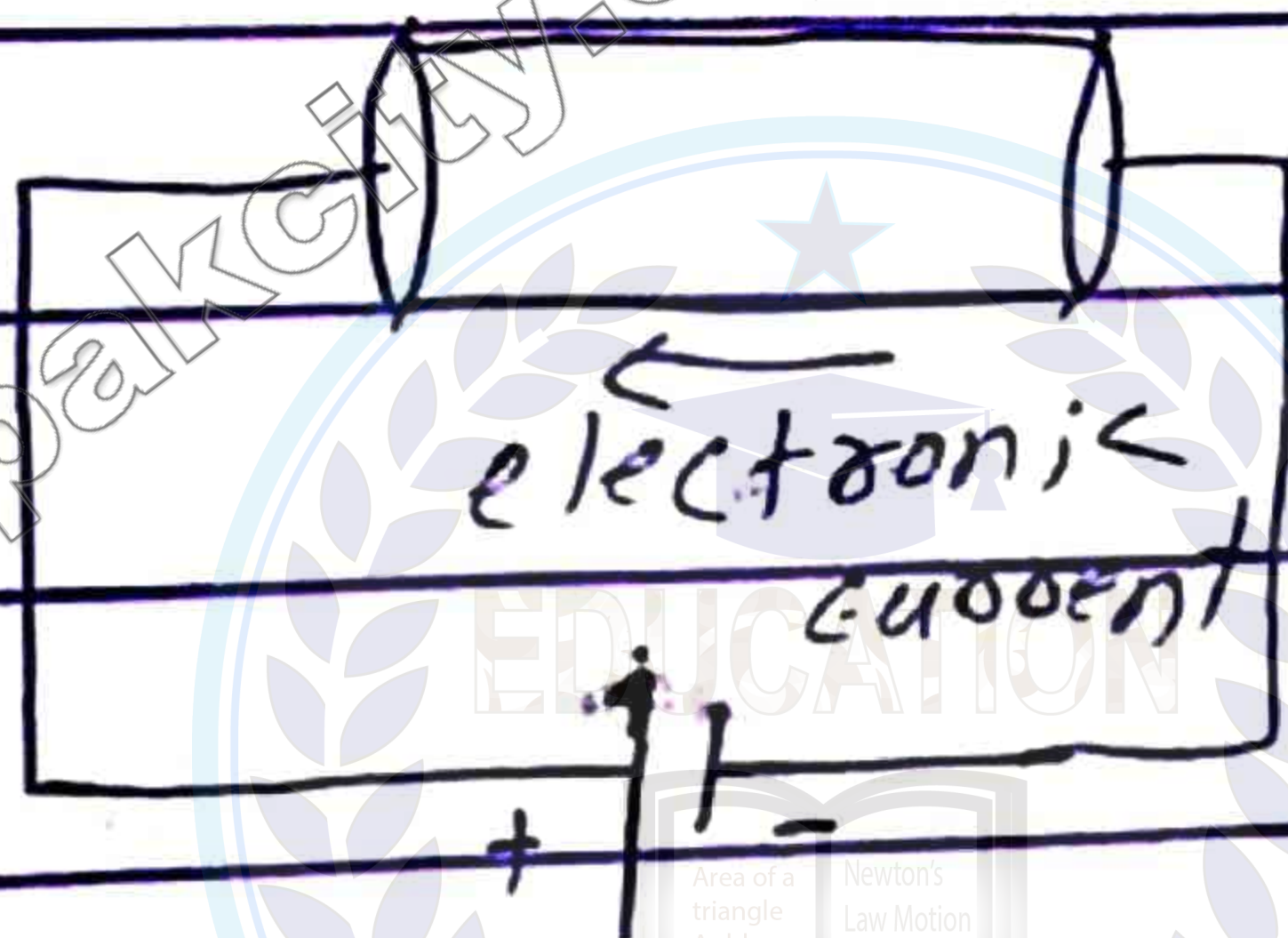
i- The current produced in the conductor due to the flow of electrons (negative

positive charges is called conventional current	charges) is called electronic current.
--	--

ii. It flows
from high
potential
to low
potential

ii. It flows
from low
potential to
high potential

conventional
current
→



Charge carriers:

metallic conductors → electrons

electrolyte → positive and
negative ions

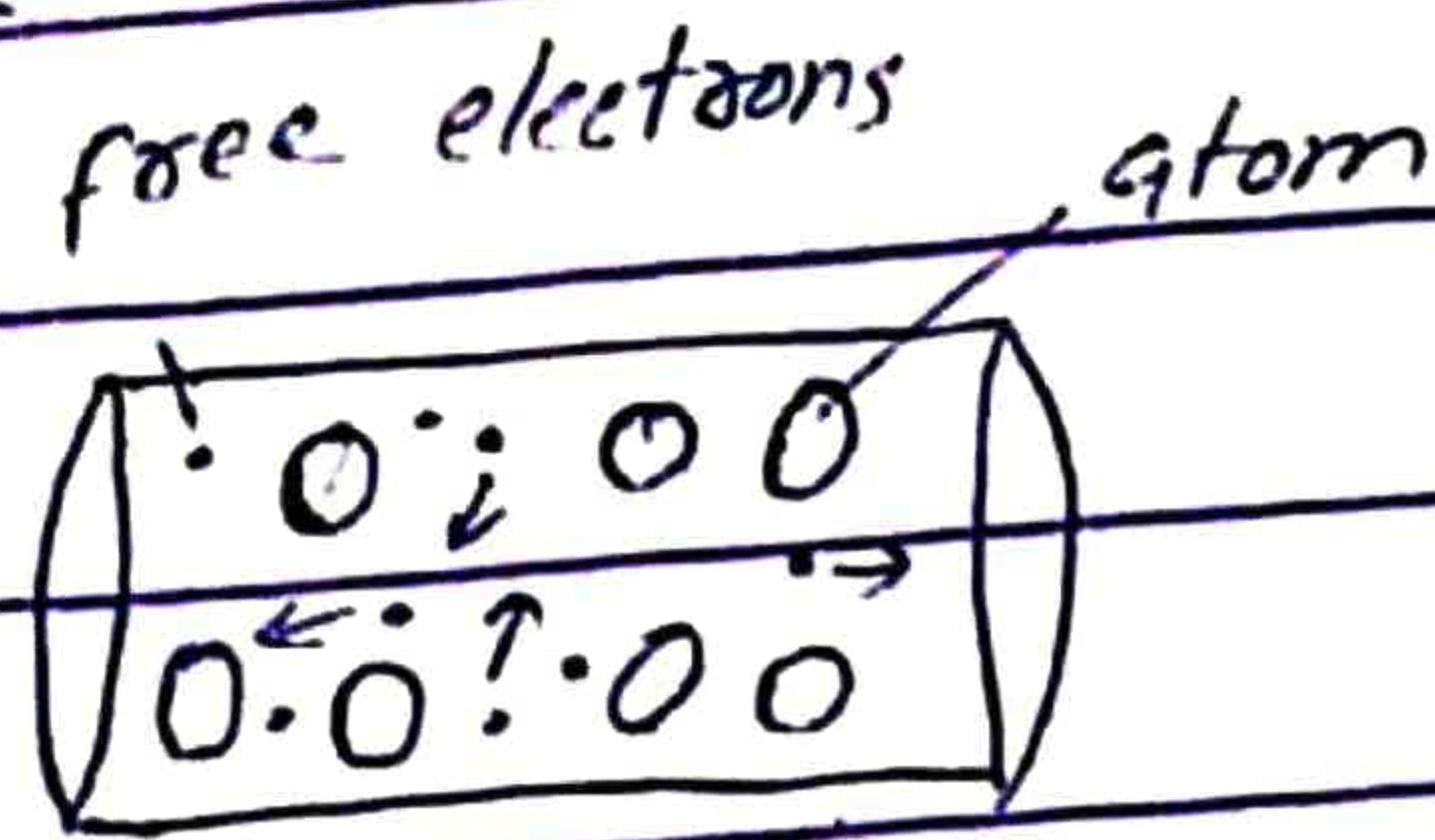
gases → electrons and ions.

Free Electrons:

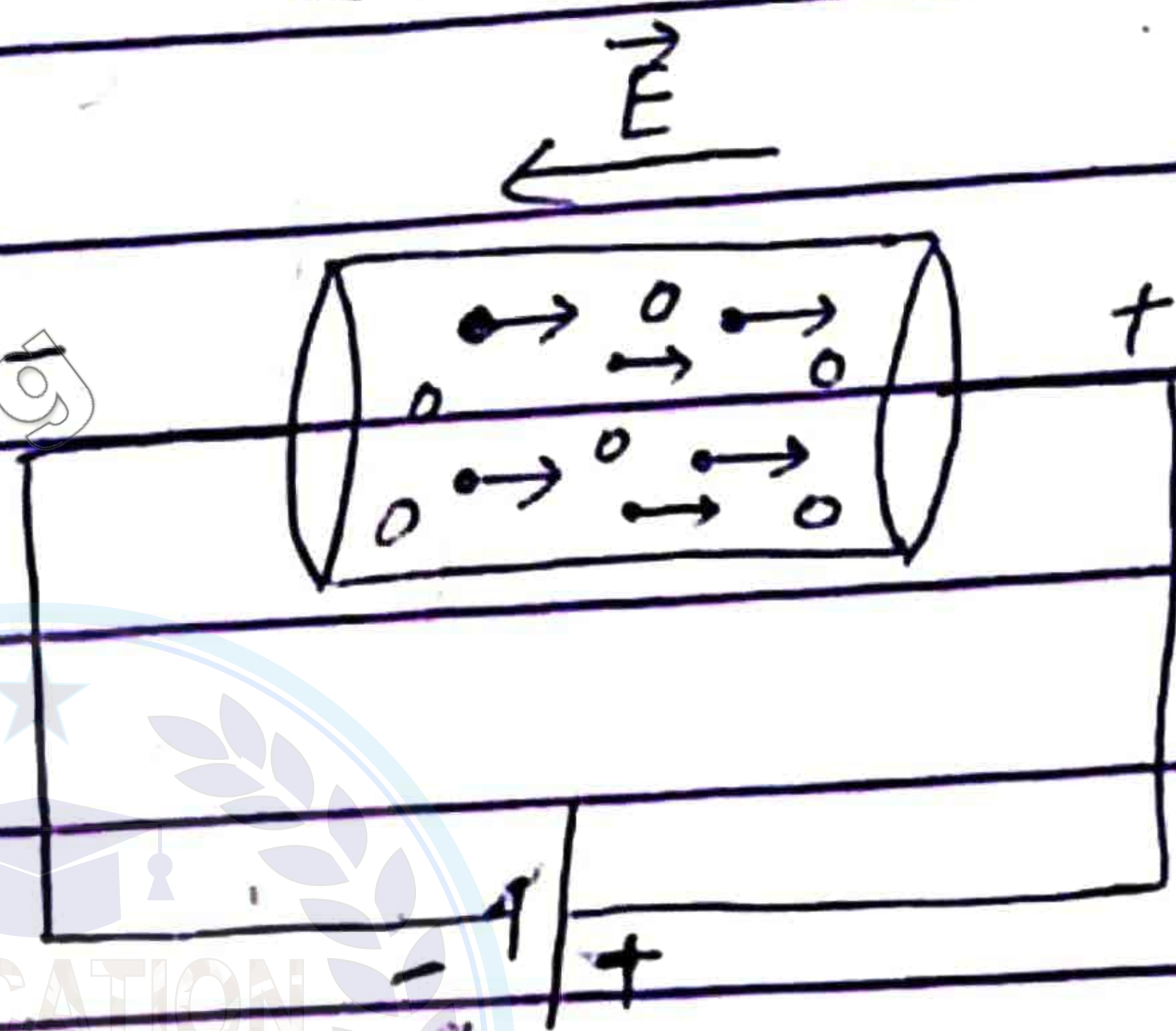
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Effect of battery:

When there is no battery attached to the conductor, the free electrons cancel the effect of each other and there is no current in the conductor.



When a battery is attached to the ends of conductor.



The electrons move from negative terminal of battery to positive terminal. In this way they move opposite to electric field and current is established through the conductor.

Drift velocity:



The average velocity of electrons while passing through a conductor opposite

to the electric field in the presence of the battery is called drift velocity.

The drift velocity is of the order of 10^{-3} ms^{-1} . Whereas the velocity of free electrons at room temperature due to their thermal motion is several hundred kilometres per second.

Sources of Current:



Definition:

Every source of the current ^{convert} to some non electrical energy such as chemical, mechanical, heat or solar energy. in to electrical energy

Types:

There are many types of sources of current.

⇒ cells (Primary as well as secondary) which

- convert Chemical energy
into electrical energy.
- ⇒ Electric generators which
convert mechanical energy
into electrical energy.
- ⇒ Thermo-couples which convert
heat energy into electrical
energy.
- ⇒ solar cells which convert
sunlight directly into
electrical energy.

★ Effects of Current:

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The presence of electric current
can be detected by the
various effect which is
produces

→ Heating effect

→ Magnetic effect

→ Chemical effect.

Heating effect:

Current flows through a metallic wire due to motion of free electrons. During the course of their motion, they collide frequently with the atoms of the metal.

At each collision they lose some of their kinetic energy and give it to atoms with which they collide. Thus as the current flows through the wire it increases the kinetic energy of the vibrations of the metal's atoms i.e. generate heat in the wire.

The heating effect of the current is utilized in electric heaters, kettles, toaster and electric iron.

Magnetic Effect:

The passage of current is always accompanied by the magnetic field in the surrounding space. The strength of the field depends upon the value of current and

the distance from the
current element.

Magnetic effect is utilized
in the detection and
measurement of current.

All the machines involving
electric motors also use
the magnetic effect of
current.

Chemical effect:

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⇒ electrolysis:

Certain liquid such as
dilute sulphuric acid or copper
sulphate solution conduct
electricity ^{due} to some chemical
reaction that take place
with in them, this
process is called electrolysis

⇒ electrolyte:

The liquid such as di
which conducts current is
known as electrolyte.

electrode:

The material in the form of wire or rod or plate which lead the current into and out of the electrolyte is called electrode.

Types of electrode:



There are two types of electrodes.

→ anode

→ cathode.

Anode:

The electrode connected to the positive terminal of the battery (current source) called anode.

Cathode:

The electrode connected to the negative terminal of the battery (current source) called cathode.

Voltmeter:

The vessel containing the two electrodes and the liquid is known as

voltmeter.

Electroplating:

A process of ~~containing~~ coating a thin layer of some expensive metal (gold, silver etc) on an article of some cheap metal.



Ohm's Law:

Statement:

The current flowing through a conductor is directly proportional to the P.D across its ends provided the physical state such as temperature of the conductor remains constant.

Explanation:

Consider a conductor connected with the battery having potential difference V and current I is produced in the conductor. According to Ohm's law

$$V \propto I$$

$$V = (\text{constant}) I$$

$$V = IR$$

Here R is the proportionality constant called the resistance of the conductor.



Resistance: The opposition to the flow of electrons through a conductor is called resistance. It is due to the atoms of the conductor.

Dependence: Resistance of a conductor depends upon the nature of conductor, dimensions and physical state of the conductor.

Unit of resistance:

The SI unit of resistance is ohm denoted by Ω .

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

$$1\Omega = \frac{1V}{1A}$$

The resistance of the conductor will be 1Ω if

A current flows through it in the presence of V. potential difference.

Ohmic Materials:

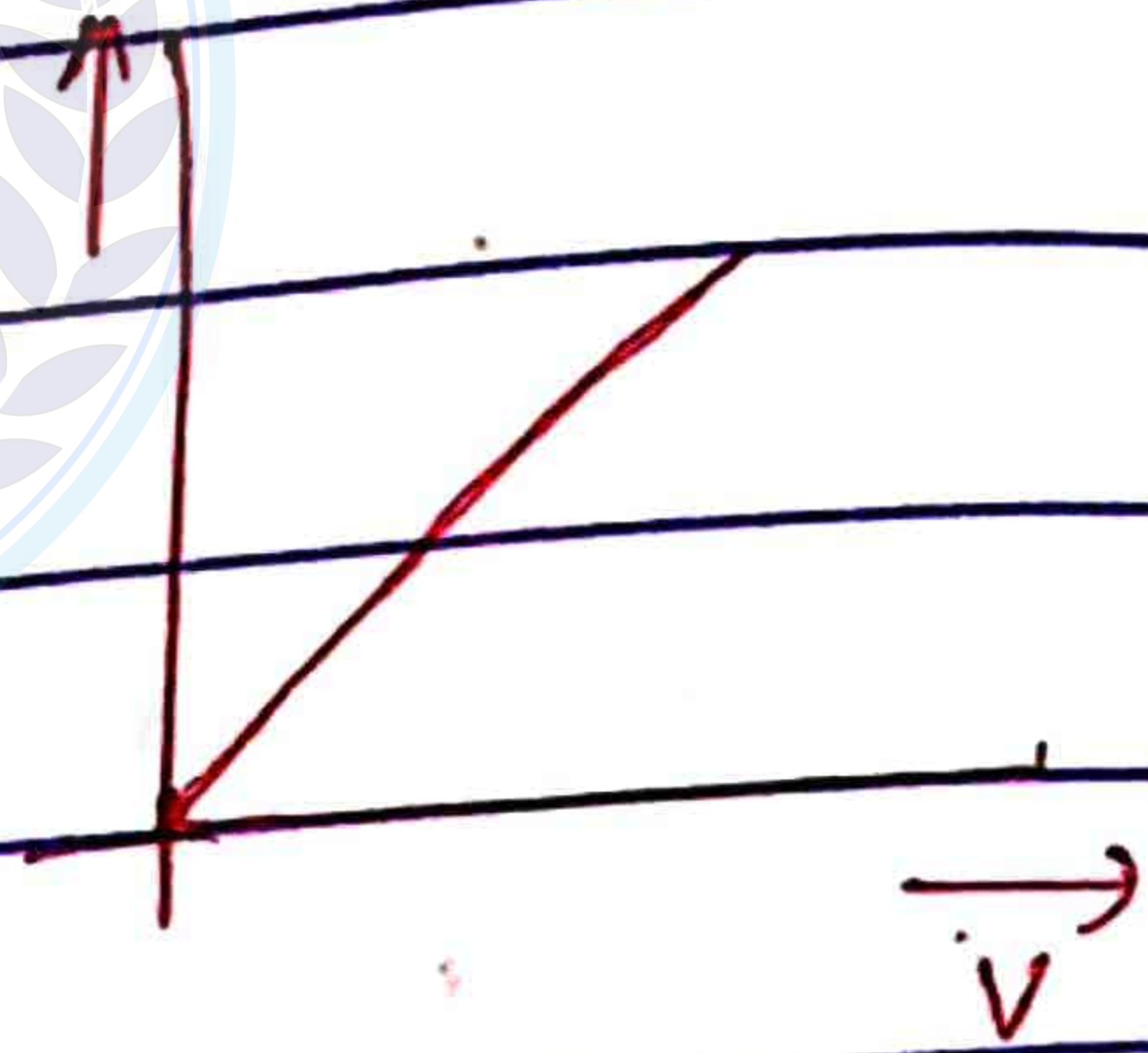
The conductors which obey ohm's law are called Ohmic conductors / materials. In these conductors resistance remains constant.

For example, all the metals obey Ohm's law.

A straight line shown in the

V-I graph shows the

Ohmic behaviour of the metals.



Non-Ohmic Materials:

The conductors which do not obey Ohm's law are called non-Ohmic conductors / materials.

$$P = VI$$
$$P = V^2/R$$

In these conductors the resistance does not remain constant.

For example, filament bulb and semi-conductor diodes are non-ohmic.

Behaviour of filament bulb:

when the current

flowing through the bulb increases

due to increase in potential difference.

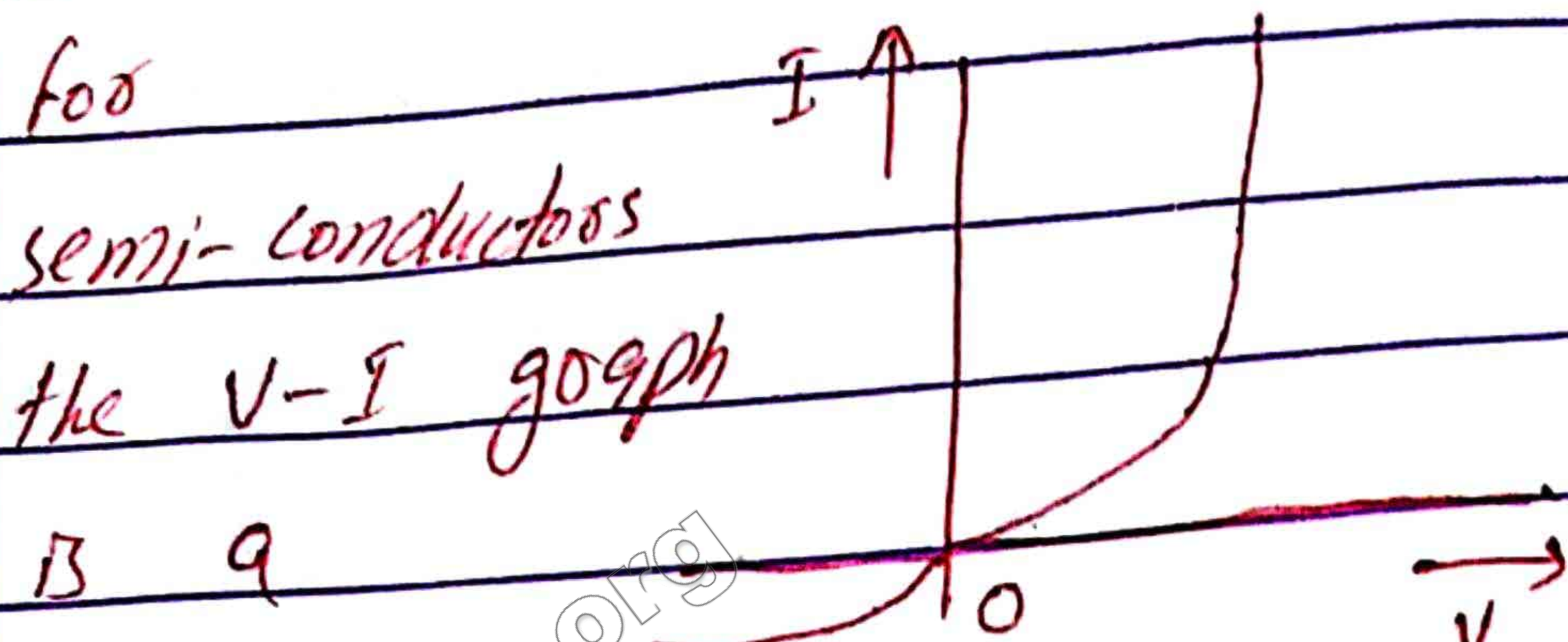
after some time the filament heats up. As a result the resistance increases and current

decreases. So, the proportionality is no longer obeyed. Therefore, filament bulb does not obey Ohm's law.

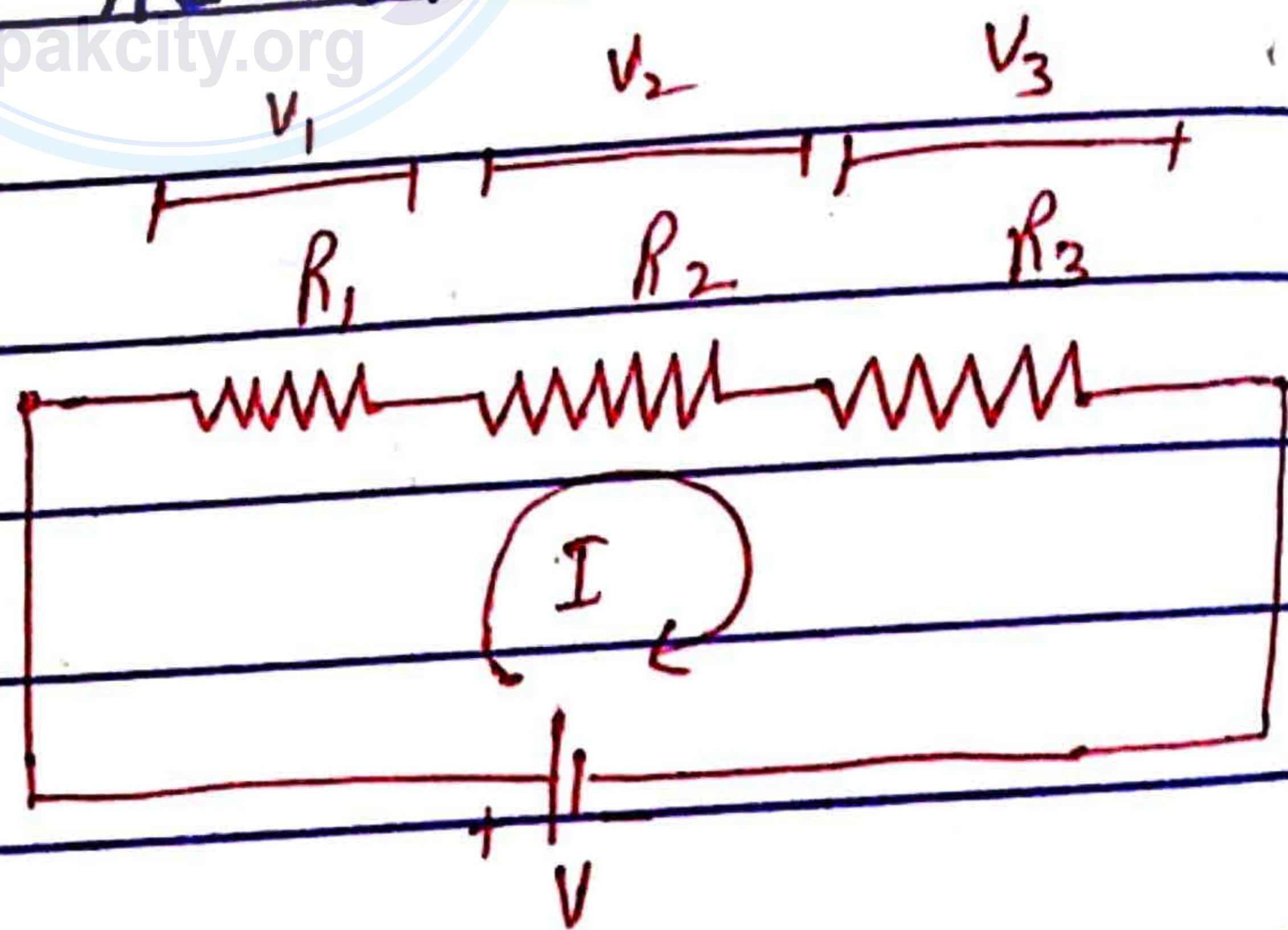


Behaviour of semi-conductor diodes:

The semi-conductor diodes are non-ohmic. Because their resistance does not remain constant.



Series Combination of Resistors



1- The end to end combination of resistors is called series combination.

2- The current will be same.
 $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = I$

3- Voltage drops across the resistor according to their value.



$$V = V_1 + V_2 + V_3$$

$$I R_e = I_1 R_1 + I_2 R_2 + I_3 R_3$$

$$= I R_1 + I R_2 + I R_3$$

$$I R_e = I (R_1 + R_2 + R_3)$$

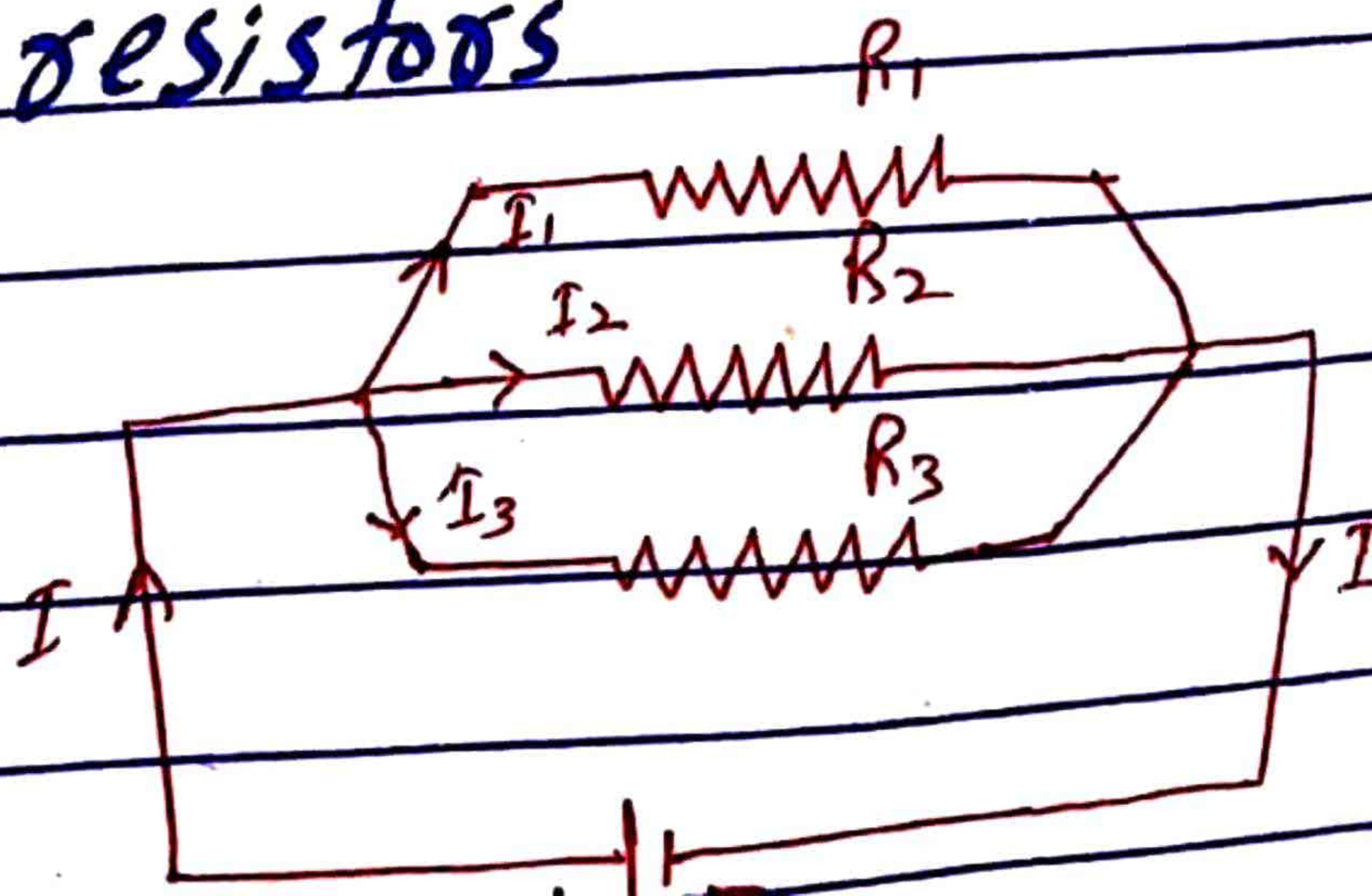
$$R_e = R_1 + R_2 + R_3$$

4- For n number of resistors

$$R_e = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots + R_n$$

5- The equivalent resistance is greater than any individual resistance for series combination.

Parallel combination of resistors



1- When all the resistors are directly connected to the terminals of the battery.

2- The voltage across the resistor is same

$$V_1 = V_2 = V_3 = V$$

3- The current is divided across the resistors according to their value.

$$I = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$$

$$\frac{V}{R_e} = \frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3}{R_3}$$

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

$$\frac{V}{R_e} = V \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{R_e} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

4- For n number of resistors

$$\frac{1}{R_e} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots + \frac{1}{R_n}$$

∴ The equivalent resistance is less than any individual resistance for parallel combination.

Resistivity And Its Dependence Upon Temperature:

Resistance: The opposition to the flow of electrons through a conductor is called resistance. Its unit is ohm (Ω)

The resistance of a conductor is directly proportional to the length (L) and inversely proportional to the cross sectional area (A)

$$R \propto \frac{L}{A}$$

$$R = (\text{constant}) \frac{L}{A}$$

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

Here ρ is the

proportionality constant called the resistivity or specific resistance of the conductor.

Resistivity: The resistance of the conductor will be equal to the specific resistance/resistivity if its length is 1m and cross sectional area is 1m^2 .

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

Unit: The SI unit of resistivity is ohm meter (Ωm)

Conductance: The reciprocal of resistance is called conductance.

$$\text{conductance} = \frac{1}{\text{Resistance}}$$

Unit: Its unit is Ω^{-1} or mho or siemen.

conductivity: The reciprocal of resistivity is called conductivity. It is denoted by σ

$$\text{conductivity } (\sigma) = \frac{1}{\text{Resistivity } (\rho)}$$

Unit: Its unit is $\Omega^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$ or mho m^{-1} or Siemen m^{-1}

Effect of Temperature upon Resistivity And Resistance:

When the temperature of a specific conductor increases, the kinetic energy of the electrons and atoms also increases. Then they vibrate with greater amplitude and collision also increases. Therefore, the resistance of the conductor increases.

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Comparison of resistance and resistivity:

The resistance of a conductor is its

characteristic due to its length and cross sectional area whereas the resistivity is the property of the material of which the conductor is made.

Temperature Coefficient:

The fractional change in resistance per kelvin is known as temperature coefficient of the resistance. It is denoted by α . Mathematically.

$$\alpha = \frac{R_t - R_0}{R_0 t}$$

Here R_t is the resistance of conductor at temperature $t^\circ\text{C}$ and R_0 is the resistance at 0°C .

As

$$R_t = \rho_t \frac{L}{A}, \quad R_0 = \rho_0 \frac{L}{A}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\rho_t \frac{L}{A} - \rho_0 \frac{L}{A}}{\rho_0 \frac{L}{A} t}$$

$$= \frac{L}{A} (\rho_t - \rho_0)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\rho_t - \rho_0}{\rho_0 t}$$

So, the fractional change in resistivity per kelvin is also temperature coefficient.

Unit: The unit of temperature coefficient (α) is per kelvin (K^{-1})

Positive temperature coefficient:

Such materials whose resistance increases with the increase in temperature have positive temperature coefficient. For example, metals.

Negative temperature coefficient:

Such materials whose resistance decreases with the increase in temperature have negative temperature coefficient. For example, silicon and germanium.

COLOUR CODE FOR CARBON RESISTANCES.

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Carbon Resistors:

Carbon resistors are most common in electric equipment. They consist of a high-grade ceramic rod or cone on which is deposited a thin resistive film of carbon. The numerical value of their resistance is indicated by the colour code which consists of bands of different colours printed on the body.

of the resistor.

Tolerance.

Possible variation for the marked value of resistance called tolerance.

Example:

A $100\ \Omega$ resistor with a tolerance of $\pm 10\%$ will have an actual resistance anywhere between $900\ \Omega$ and $1100\ \Omega$.



\Rightarrow Silver band indicate the tolerance of $\pm 10\%$.

\Rightarrow Gold band shows the tolerance of ~~$\pm 20\%$~~ $\pm 5\%$.

\Rightarrow If there is no fourth band tolerance is understood to be $\pm 20\%$.

Black	0	Violet	7
Brown	1	Gray	8
Red	2	White	9
Orange	3		
Yellow	4		
Green	5		
Blue	6		

Rheostat:

Defination:

A wire wound variable Resistor called Rheostat.

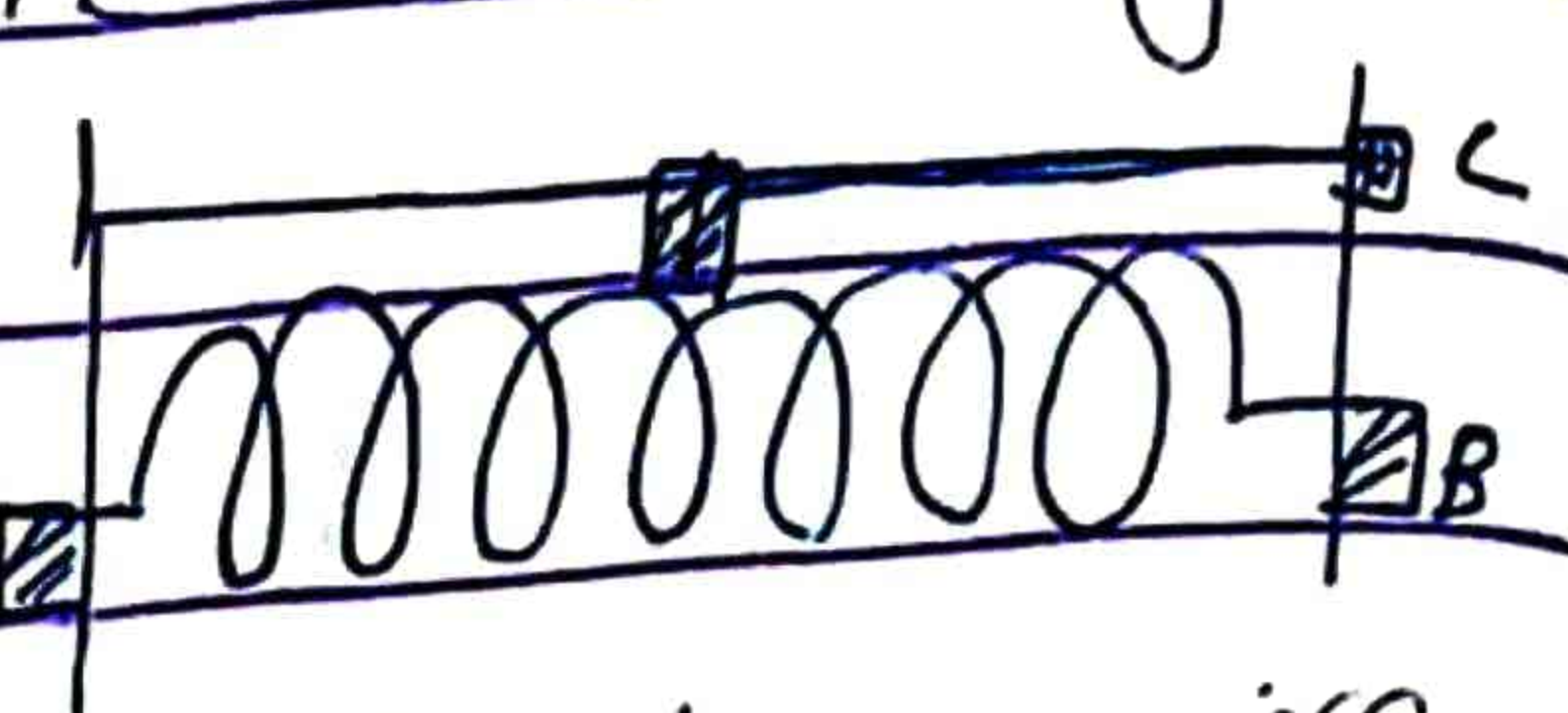
Construction:

It consist of the bare maganin wire wound over

an insulating cylinder. The end of the wire

is connected to two fix terminals A and B. A third terminal

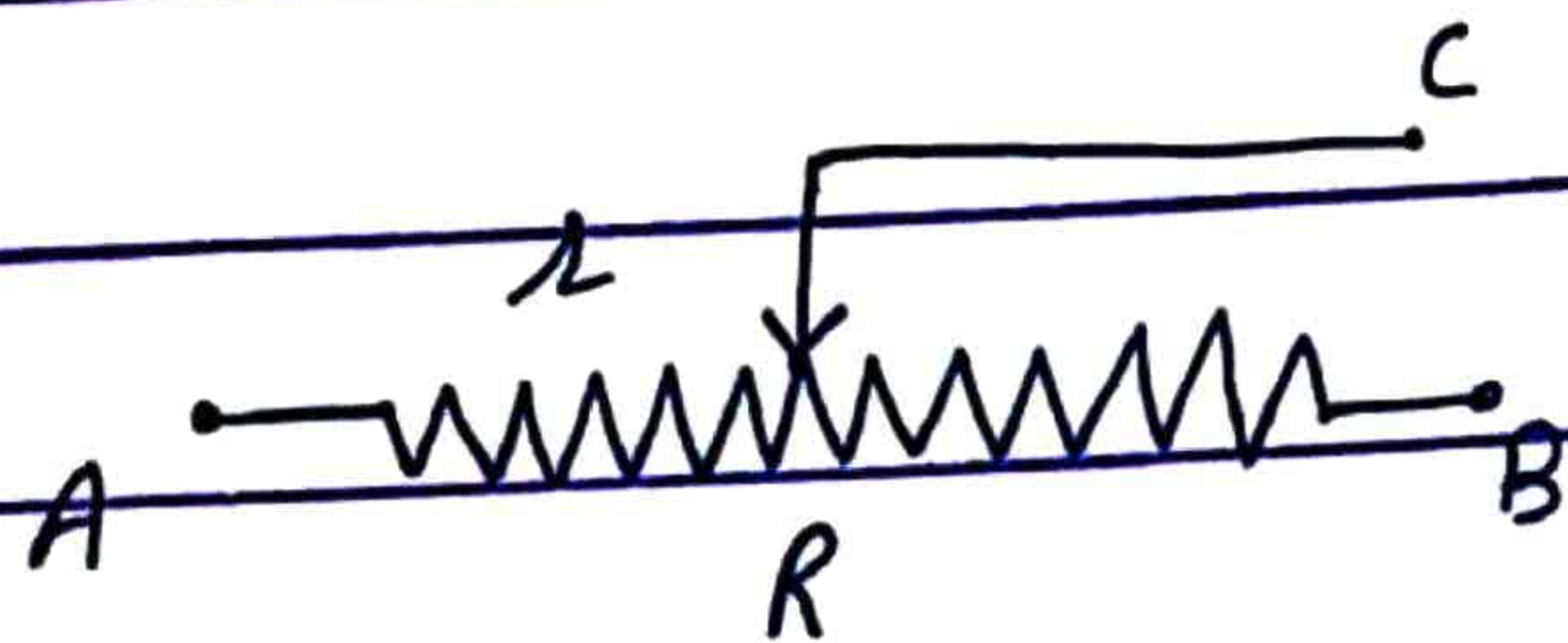
C is attached to the sliding contact which can also be moved ^{over} ~~after~~ the wire.



Explanation: Rheostat is a very useful instrument. It has two main uses.

Rheostat as variable resistor:

If the external circuit is connected



between the terminals A and C then that resistance is used

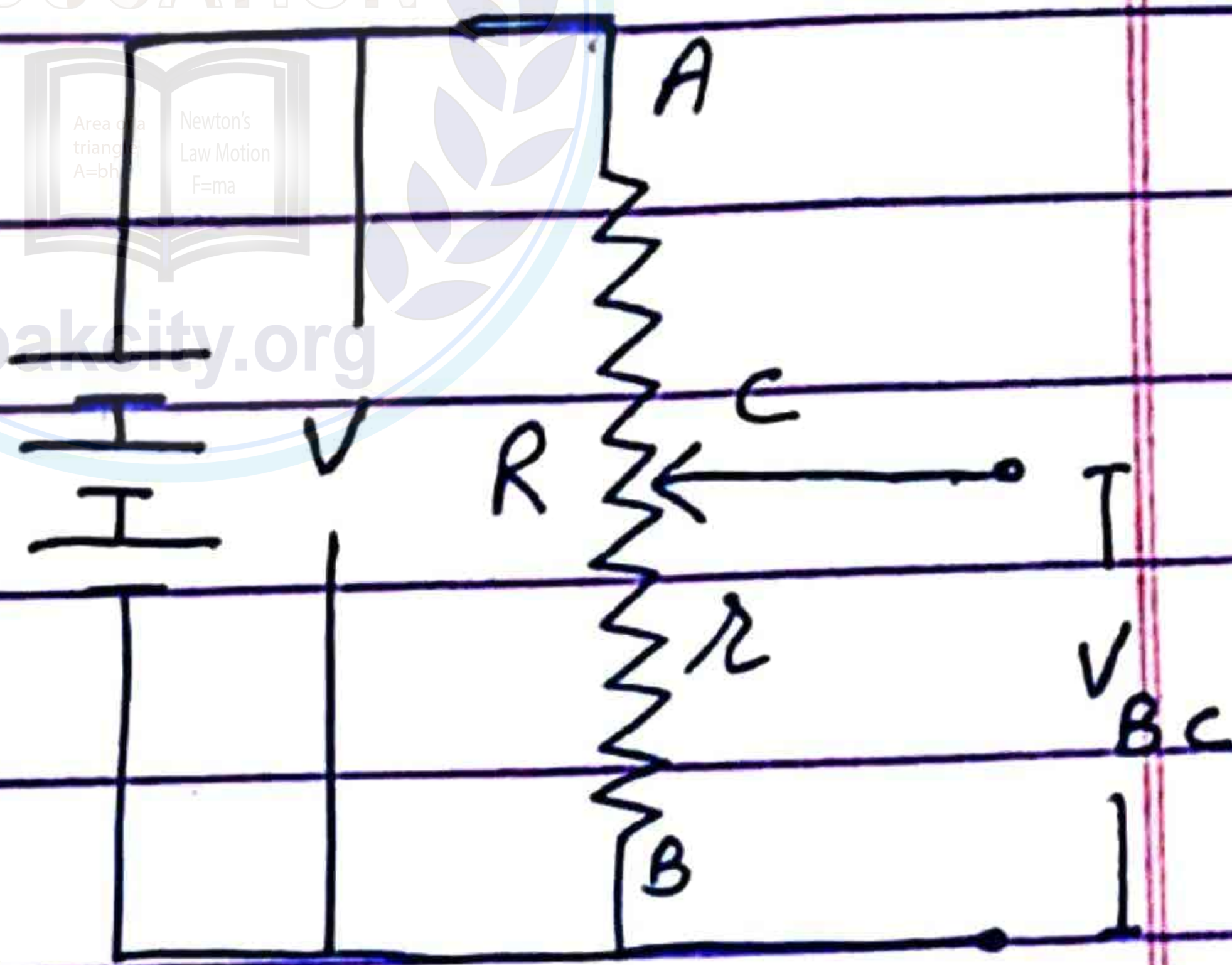
only. So,

i- If the sliding contact c is moved towards the terminal A , the length and resistance decreases.

ii- If the sliding contact c is moved away from the terminal A , the length and resistance increases.

Rheostat as potential divider:

Consider a voltage source with voltage V connected to the rheostat



as shown

in the figure.

The output voltage is V_{BC} that is given by:

$$V_{BC} = \text{current} \times \text{resistance}$$

The total current in

the circuit is

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

so,

$$V_{BC} = \frac{V}{R} (r)$$

$$V_{BC} = \frac{r}{R} V$$

The above expression shows that the output voltage V_{BC} is directly proportional to the corresponding resistance r .

i- when the sliding contact C is moved towards the terminal A , the resistance r and voltage V_{BC} increases. At point A the output voltage will be maximum equal to the voltage (V) of the battery.

ii- when the sliding contact C is moved towards the terminal B , the resistance r and voltage V_{BC} decreases. At point B the output voltage will be zero.

Thermistors.

Definition: A thermistor is a heat sensitive resistor. Most thermistors has negative temperature co-efficient of resistance i.e. the thermistor of such resistors decreases when their temperature is increases. Thermistors with positive ^{temperature} ~~terminal~~ co-efficient are also available.

Construction:



Thermistors are made by heating under high pressure semi conductors ceramic made from mixture of metallic oxides of manganese, nickel, cobalt, copper, iron etc.

These are pressed into desired shapes of thermistors are shown and then bakled with high temperature. Different types of thermistors are shown they may be in the form of beads, rods or washers

Uses:

→ They are used for measuring low temperatures especially near 20K

→ They also used to convert changes of temperature in to electrical voltage which is duly processed.

ELECTRIC POWER AND POWER DISSIPATION IN RESISTORS.

Power:

The rate at which the battery is supplying electrical energy is the power output or electrical power of the battery.

$$\text{Electrical power} = \frac{\text{Energy supplied}}{\text{Time taken}}$$

$$= V \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}$$

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

$$\text{Electrical power} = V \times I$$

Power dissipator (P) = $V \times I$.

$$V = IR$$

$$I = V/R.$$

$$P = V \times I$$

$$= IR \times \cancel{I}$$

$$P = I^2 R.$$



$$P = V \times I$$

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

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R}.$$

→ The unit of (Power) is "watt"

→ The unit of (V) is "volt"

→ The unit of (I) is "ampere".

⇒ Electromotive Force (EMF) AND POTENTIAL DIFFERENCE.

Definition:

Energy supplied to the unit charge by cell.

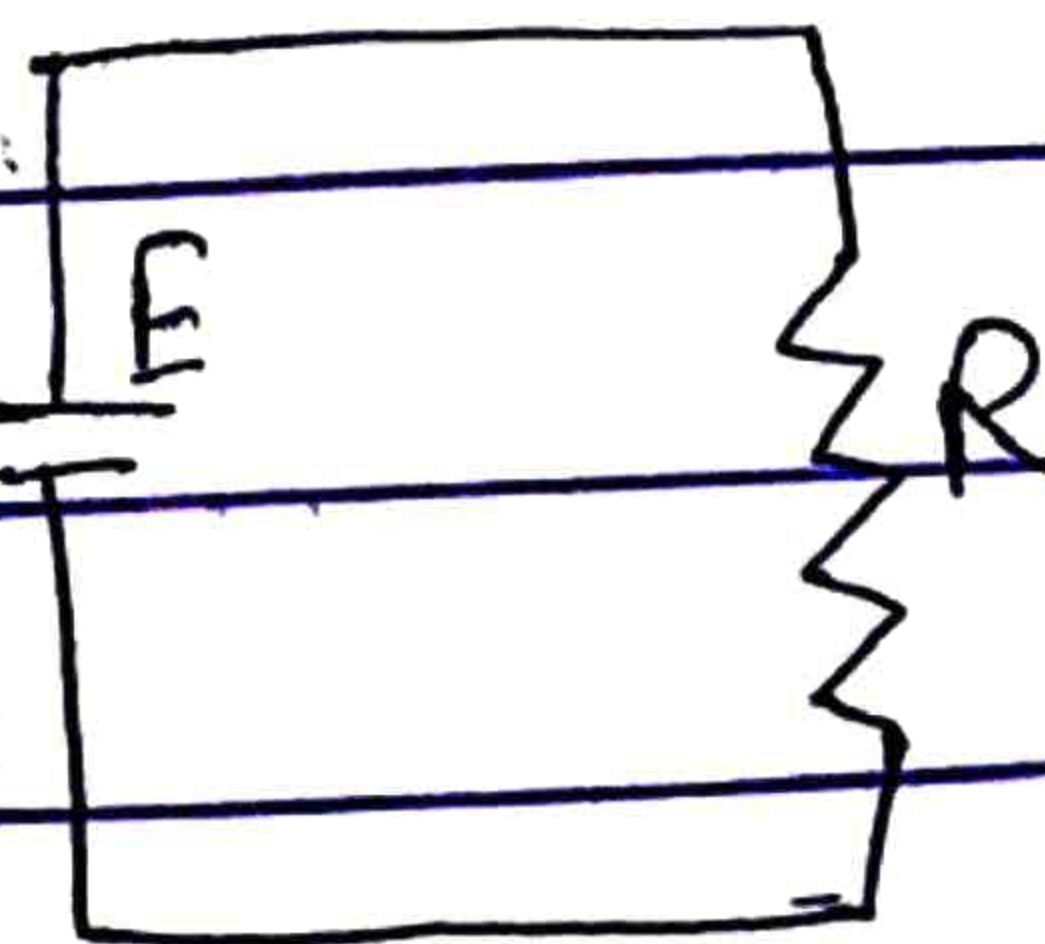
$$E = \frac{\Delta W}{\Delta Q}$$

Unit:

It may be noticed that electromotive force is not a force and we do not measure it in newton. The unit of emf is Joule/Coulomb which is Volt (V)

Explanation:

The cell continuously supply energy which is dissipated in the resistance of the circuit.



Suppose when a steady current has been established in the circuit.

The charge ΔQ passes through

any cross section of the circuit in time Δt . During the course of motion this charge enters the cell at its low potential and leave at its high potential. The source must supply energy ΔW to the positive charge to force it to go to the point of high potential.

Source of emf:



The energy supplied by the cell to the charge carrier is derived from the conversion of chemical energy into electrical energy inside the cell.

Internal Resistance:

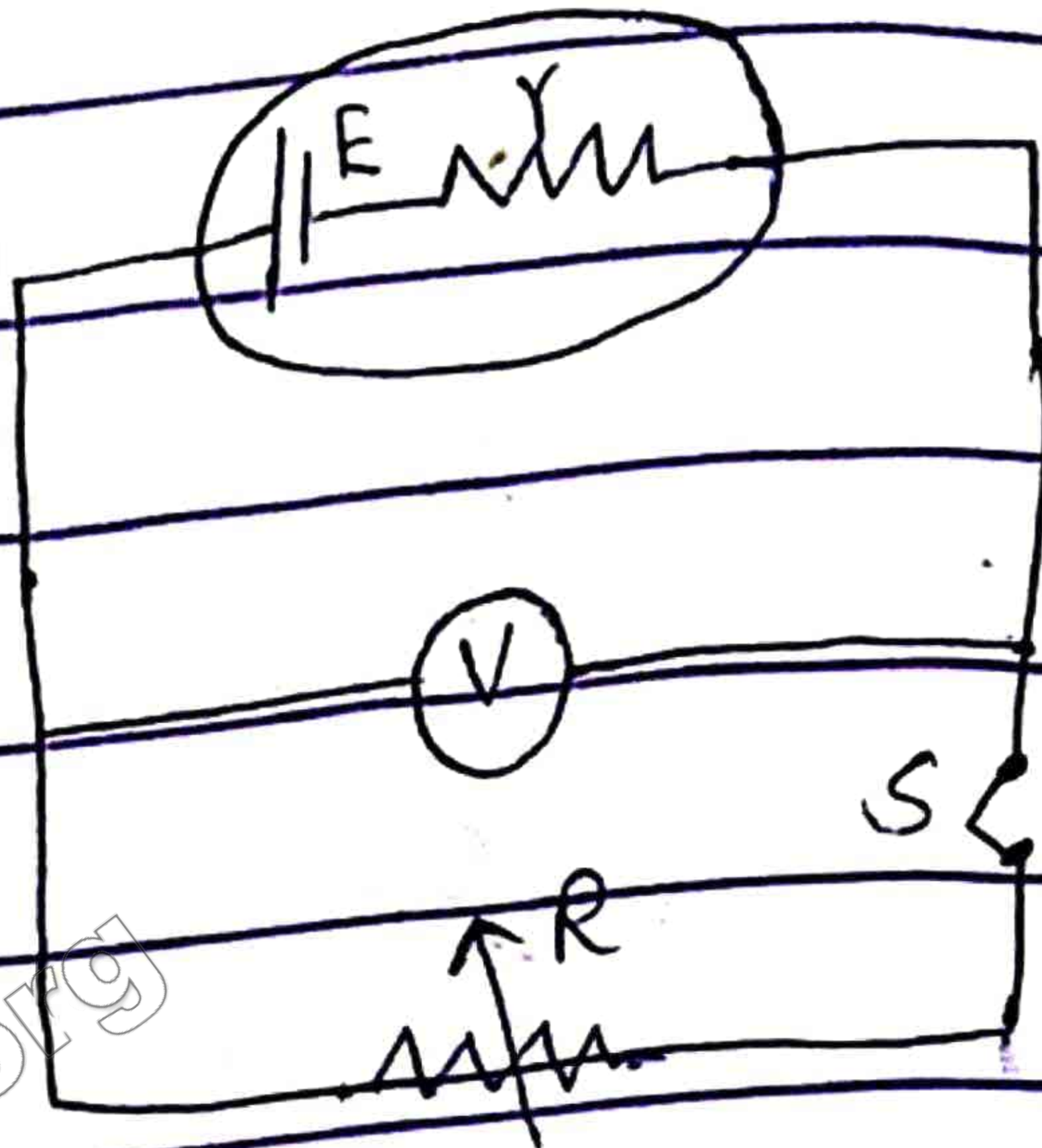
like other components in the circuit a cell also offers some resistance. The resistance is due to the electrolyte present between the two electrodes of the cell is

Called internal Resistance ' r '
of the cell.

Mathematical Expression:

Let us

Consider the
performance
of a cell of
emf E and



internal resistance r as
shown in the figure. A
voltmeter of infinite resistance
measure the potential difference
across the external resistance
 R or the potential difference
 V across the terminal of
the cell. The current I
flowing through the circuit
is given by.

$$I = \frac{E}{R+r}$$

$$E = IR + Ir$$

$$E = V_t + Ir$$

Terminal potential difference:

$IR = V$ is the terminal potential difference of the cell in the presence of current I . When the switch S is open no current passes through the resistance. In this case the Volt meter reads the emf as terminal voltage. Thus terminal voltage in the presence of the current would be less than the emf by Ir .

Emf and law of conservation of energy:

The left side of the equation is the emf of the cell which is equal to energy gained by unit charge as it passes through the cell from its negative to positive terminal. The right side of the equation gives



an account of the utilization of this energy as the current passes through the circuit. It states that, as a unit charge passes through the circuit a part of this energy is dissipated in the cell and the rest of energy is dissipated in the external resistance R .

Comparison between emf and potential difference.

- The emf is the "cause" and potential difference is its "effect"
- The emf is also present even when no current is drawn through the battery or the cell.
- The potential difference across the conductor is zero when no current flows through it.

Maximum Power Output:

When the current I flows in the circuit due to potential difference V . Then the power delivered by the battery or power dissipated across the resistance is given by:

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$$P = VI$$

According to Ohm's law:

$$V = IR$$

$$P = (IR)I$$

$$P = I^2 R$$

We know that if r is the internal resistance of the battery.

$$I = \frac{E}{R+r}$$

So,

$$P = \left(\frac{E}{R+r}\right)^2 R$$

$$P = \frac{E^2 R}{(R+r)^2}$$

$$P = \frac{E^2 R}{R^2 + r^2 + 2Rr} = \frac{E^2 R}{R^2 + r^2 + 2Rr + 2Rr - 2Rr}$$

$$P = \frac{E^2 R}{R^2 + r^2 + 2Rr + 2Rr - 2Rr}$$

For the maximum power output. The denominator should be minimum.

$$R - r = 0$$

$$R = r$$

So,

$$P_{\max} = \frac{E^2 R}{0 + 4RR} = \frac{E^2 R}{4R^2}$$

$$P_{\max} = \frac{E^2}{4R}$$

So, the power output is maximum when the internal resistance of the battery is equal to the external resistance.

Kirchhoff's Rules:

For any simple circuit Ohm's law is valid. But for a complex circuit Kirchhoff's rules are applied. A complex circuit may consist many resistors and many batteries. There are two rules for Kirchhoff's observations.

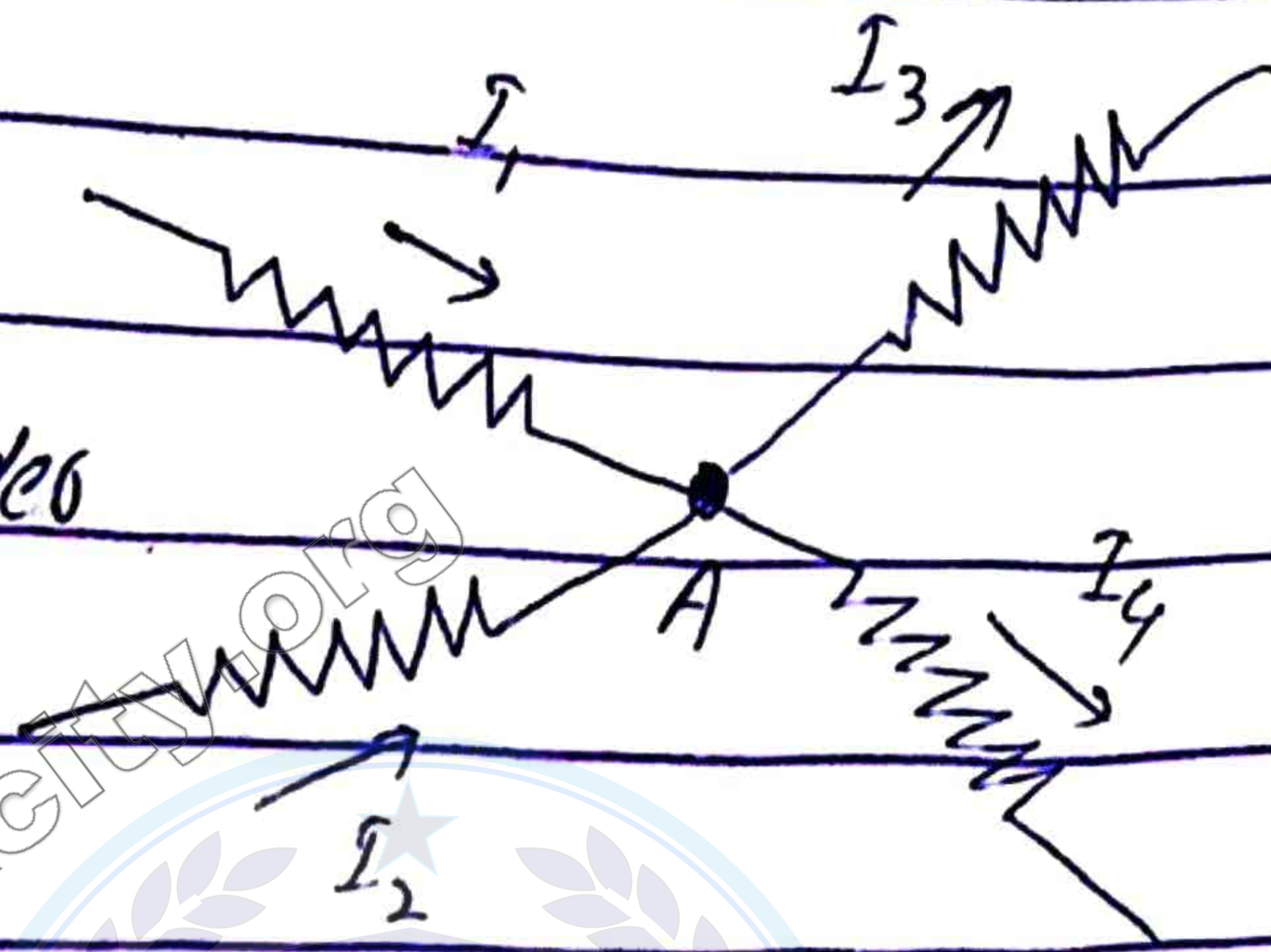
Kirchhoff's First Rule:

statement: The sum of all the current meeting at a point in a circuit is zero. mathematically,

$$\sum I = 0$$

Example:

For example, consider a point A through which four



currents I_1 , I_2 , I_3 and I_4 are passing. The currents flowing towards the point are taken as positive while the currents flowing away from that point are taken as negative.

$$I_1 + I_2 + (-I_3) + (-I_4) = 0$$

$$I_1 + I_2 - I_3 - I_4 = 0$$

$$I_1 + I_2 = I_3 + I_4$$

2nd Statement:

The sum of all the currents flowing towards a point is equal to the sum of all the currents flowing away from that point.

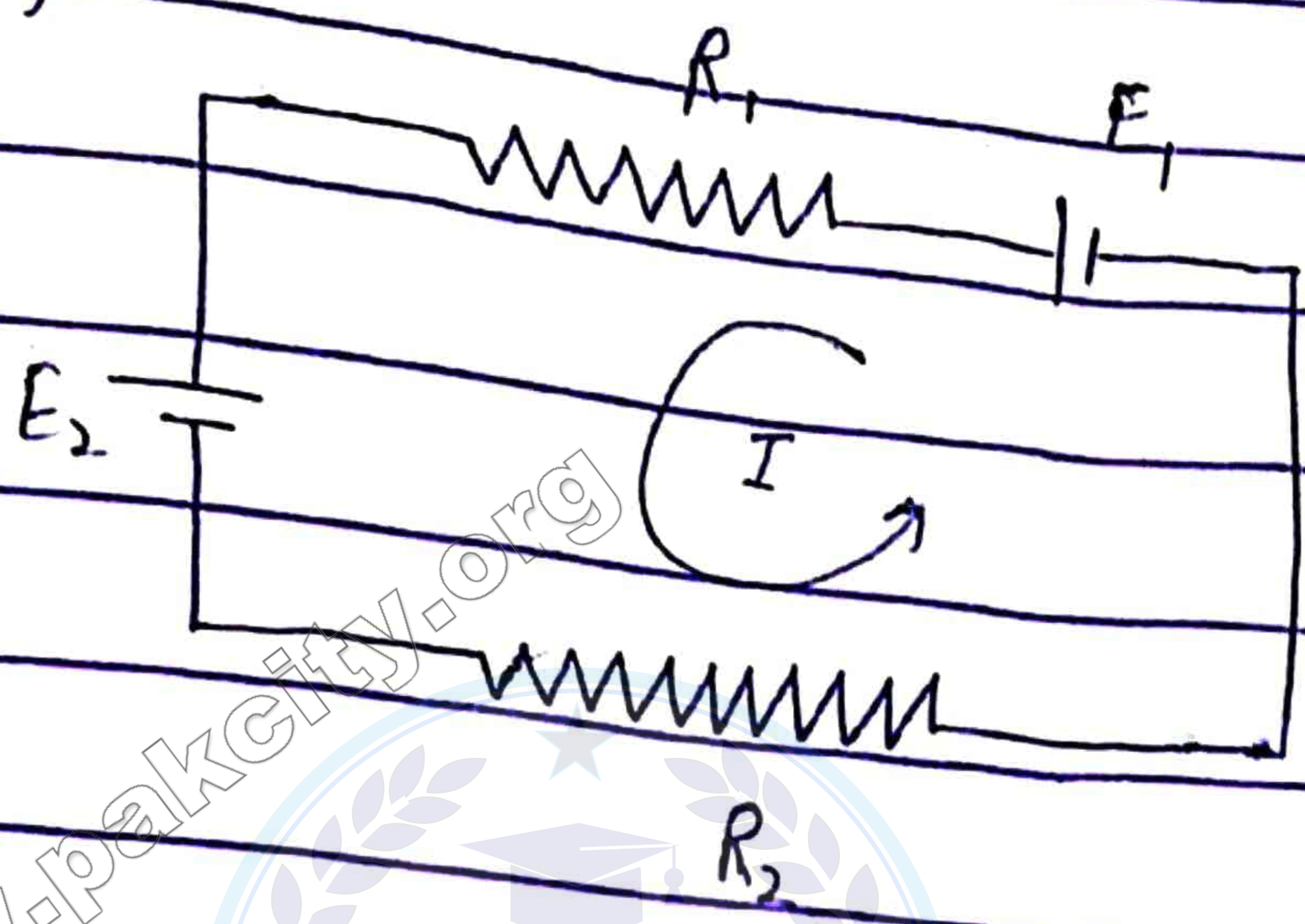
Condition: Kirchhoff's first rule satisfy the law of conservation of charge. This rule is also called Kirchhoff's point rule.

The point through which all the currents are passing should neither act as sink nor as source.

Kirchhoff's Second Rule: Statement:

The algebraic sum of potential changes in a closed surface is zero.

Explanation: Consider a circuit which consists of two batteries of emf E_1 and E_2 and two resistors R_1 and R_2 are connected in series as shown in the figure. The terminals of the figure. The



resistors are opposite in the circuit.

So, the current will flow due to the battery having greater emf. We suppose that $E_1 > E_2$ so the current will flow in anti-clockwise direction. If ΔQ amount of charge is passing in the circuit, we will consider the energy changes in the circuit.

Energy gain through E_1 :

The charges ΔQ are moving from low potential to

high potential through E_1 . So, they will gain energy.

Energy gained through $E_1 = \Delta Q E_1$

Energy loss through R_1 :

When the charges ΔQ pass through R_1 , they lose energy given by.

Energy loss through $R_1 = -\Delta Q V_1$

 $= -\Delta Q I R_1$

Energy loss through E_2 .

When the charges ΔQ pass through E_2 , they move from high potential to low potential. So, they will lose energy given by:

Energy loss through $E_2 = -\Delta Q E_2$

Energy loss through R_2 :

When the charges ΔQ pass through R_2 , they lose energy given by

$$\text{Energy loss through } R_2 = -\Delta Q V_2 \\ = -\Delta Q I R_2$$

In this way the charges ΔQ move in the circuit and total change in energy for the closed circuit should be zero. According to law of conservation of energy.

$$\Delta Q E_1 - \Delta Q I R_1 - \Delta Q E_2 - \Delta Q I R_2 = 0$$

$$\Delta Q (E_1 - I R_1 - E_2 - I R_2) = 0$$

$$E_1 - I R_1 - E_2 - I R_2 = 0$$

This is the mathematical expression for Kirchhoff's second rule. It satisfies the law of conservation of energy.

Rules for finding potential changes:

1- If the source of emf is traversed from negative to positive terminal the potential change is positive. It is negative in the opposite direction.

2- If the resistor is traversed in the direction of current the change in potential is negative. It is positive in opposite direction.

Wheatstone Bridge:

Purpose:

Wheatstone bridge is an electrical circuit which is used to measure the unknown resistance.

Construction:

Wheatstone bridge consists of four resistors

R_1 , R_2 , R_3 and R_4 connected in

the form of a mesh ABCDA.

The resistors are connected

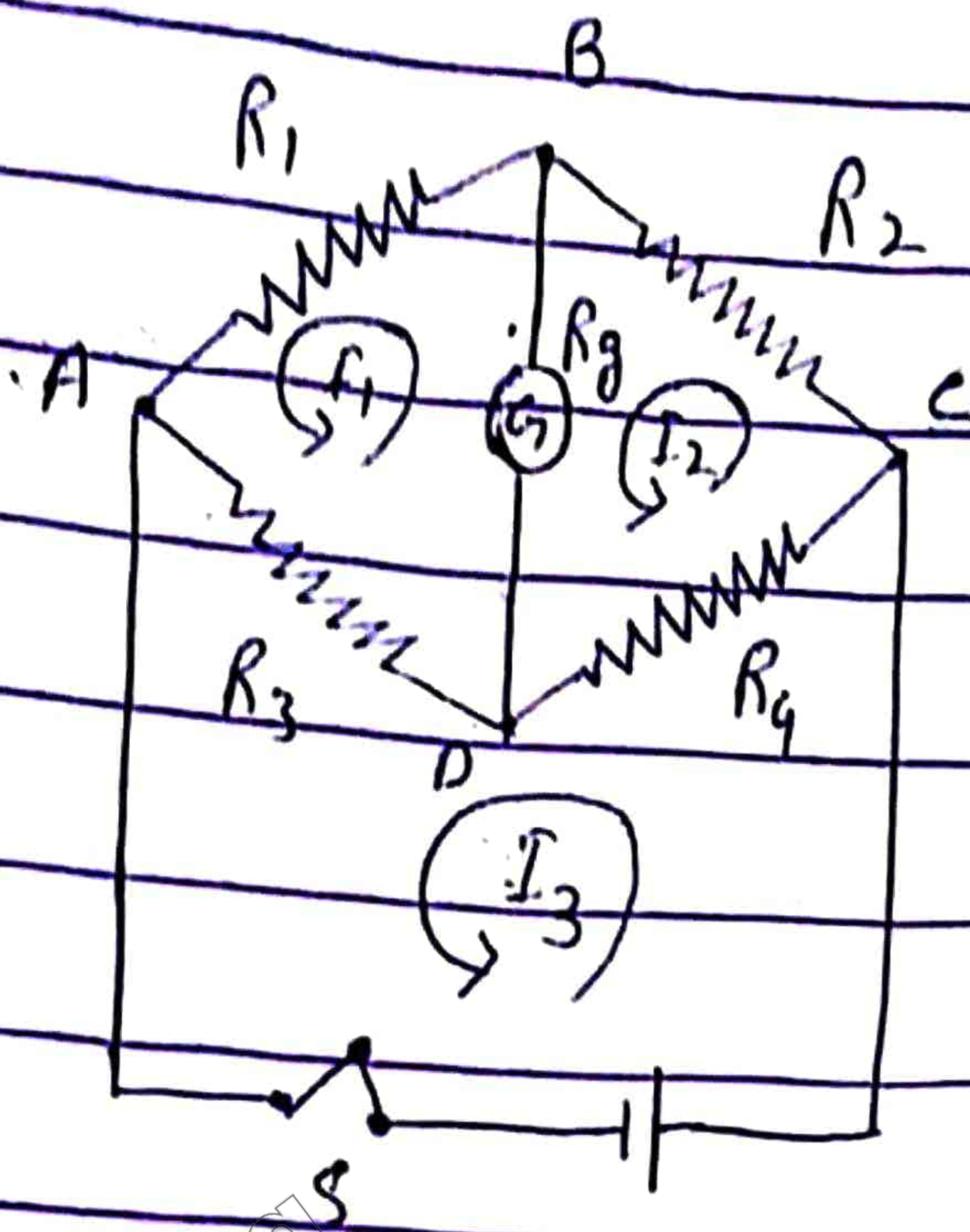
to the switch's

and battery.

When the

switch is

closed



the current

flows in the circuit through

three different loops I_1 ,

through ADBA, I_2 through DCBD

and I_3 through ADCA.

Condition: To calculate the

value of unknown resistance

the circuit is adjusted such

that the current through

galvanometer is zero.

Mathematical Expression:

When the switch is

closed the currents I_1 , I_2

and I_3 flows in the circuit

through different loops. Now we will apply Kirchhoff's second rule on the loops to calculate the mathematical expression.

For loop ADBA: The energy will be lost through R_1 , R_3 and R_g in this loop. So, algebraic sum of potential changes will be:

$$-I_1 R_1 - (I_1 - I_2) R_g - (I_1 - I_3) R_3 = 0 \rightarrow (1)$$

For loop DCBD: The algebraic sum of potential changes will be:

$$-I_2 R_2 - (I_2 - I_1) R_g - (I_2 - I_3) R_4 = 0 \rightarrow (2)$$

According to the condition of wheatstone bridge. The current through galvanometer should be zero. So,

$$I_1 = I_2 = I$$

$$I_1 - I_2 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad I_2 - I_1 = 0$$

Now above equations can be modified as:

$$1) \Rightarrow -IR_1 - 0 - (I - I_3)R_3 = 0$$

$$-IR_1 = (I - I_3)R_3 \rightarrow (3)$$

$$2) \Rightarrow -IR_2 - 0 - (I - I_3)R_4 = 0$$

$$-IR_2 = (I - I_3)R_4 \rightarrow (4)$$

By dividing eq. (3) by eq. (4)

$$\frac{-IR_1}{-IR_2} = \frac{(I - I_3)R_3}{(I - I_3)R_4}$$

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

This is the mathematical expression for wheatstone bridge.

Result:

If we connect three Resistance R_1 , R_2 and R_3 of known adjustable values and the 4th Resistance

R_4 of unknown values and the resistances R_1 , R_2 and R_3 are so adjusted that the galvanometer shows no deflection. Then from the known resistances R_1 , R_2 and R_3 the unknown resistance R_4 can be determined by using equation.

Potentiometer

Definition:

Potentiometer is an electrical instrument which measures the potential difference of a battery or some other source. It can also compare the potential difference of two sources.

Comparison with other potential measuring instruments:

Some instruments like voltmeter and cathode ray

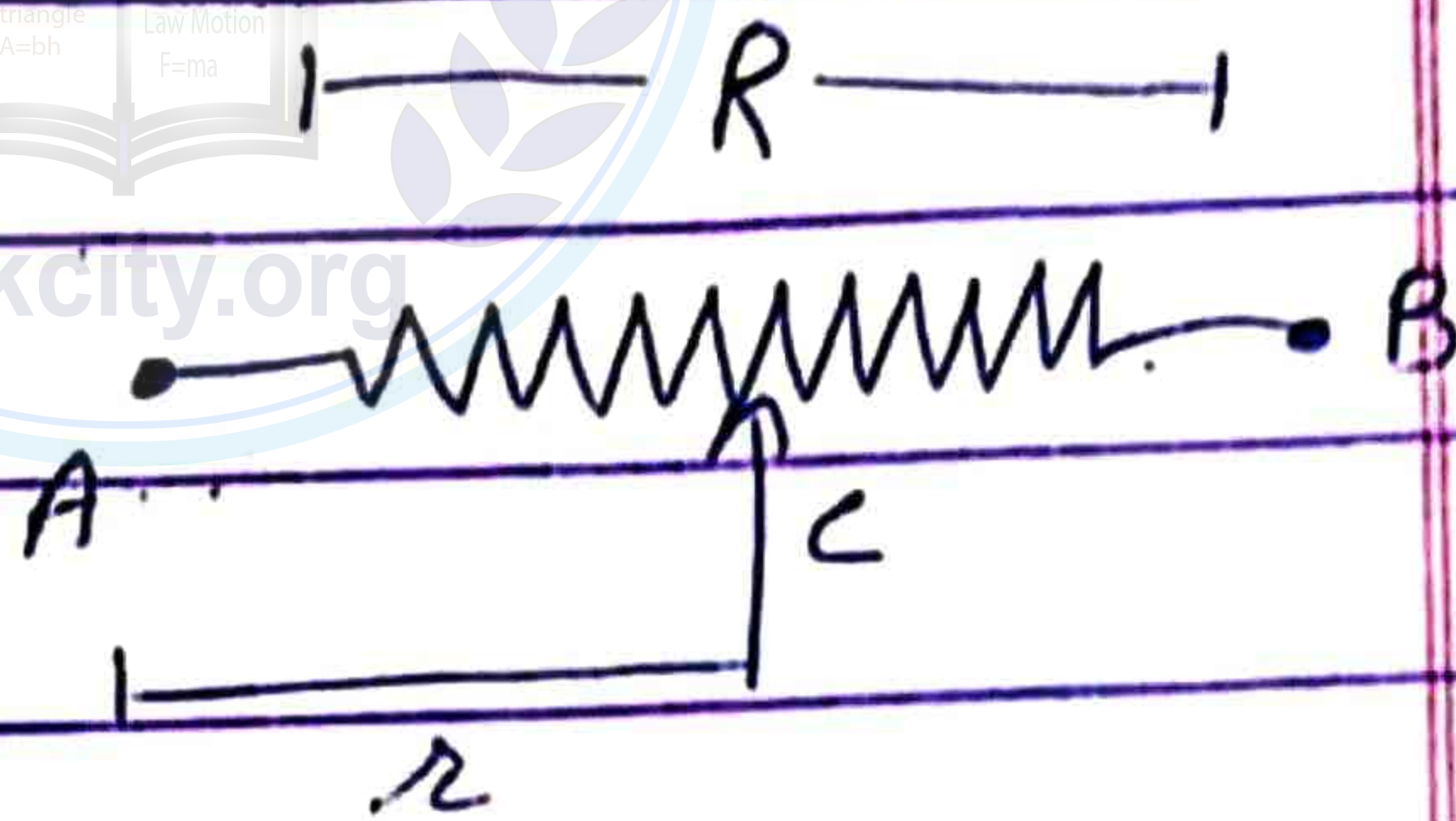
oscilloscope (CRO) are also used to measure the potential difference. These instrument are expensive and difficult to use as compared to potentiometer.



Working: A potentiometer also works as variable resistor and potential divider.

As variable Resistor:

Consider the two fixed terminals A and B



while C is

the movable sliding contact

The total resistance is R

and used resistance between

A and C is r . If sliding

contact moves from A to

B its resistance increases

from 0 to R.

As potential divider:

Potentiometer

can also

act as

potential

divider. The

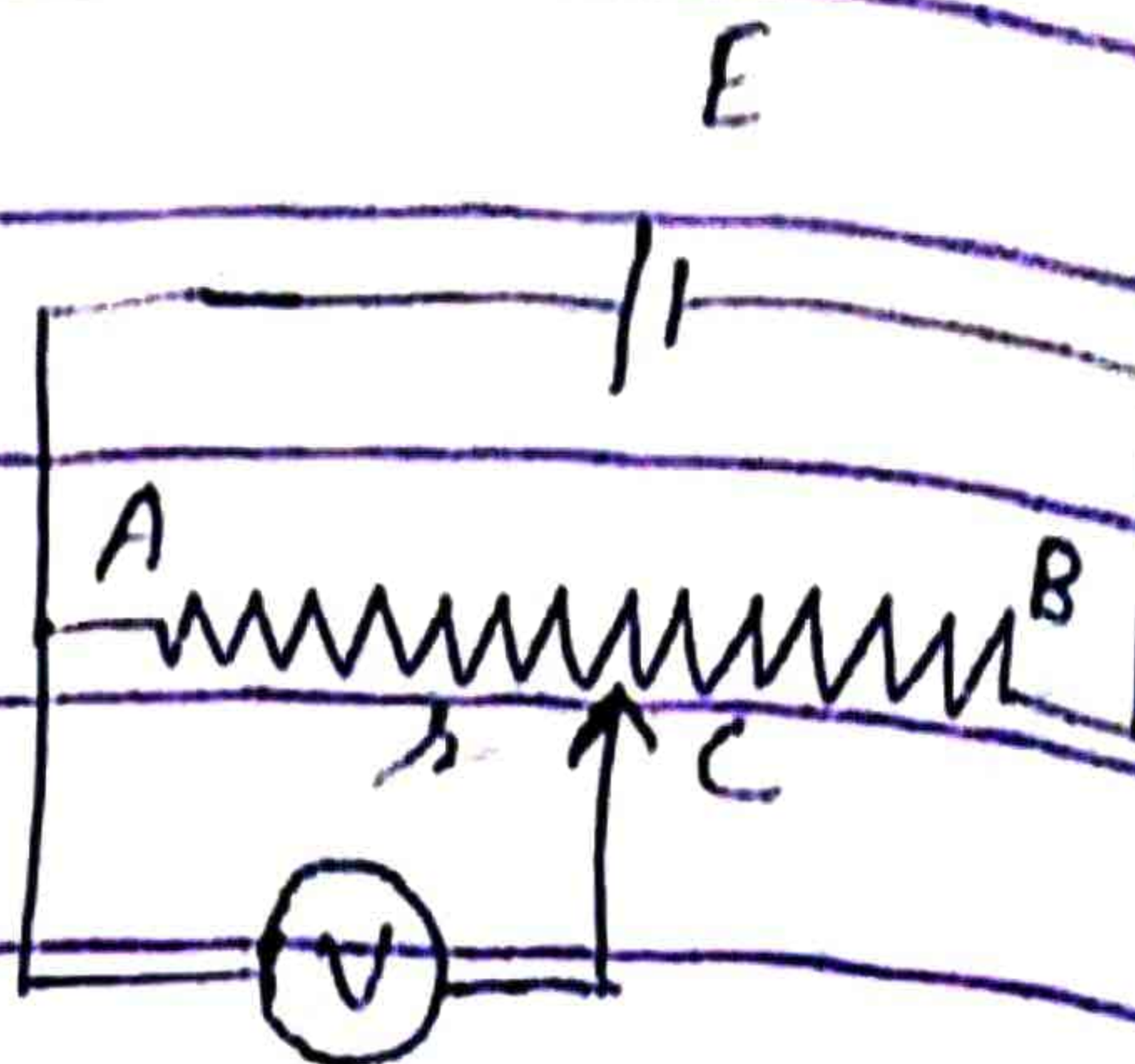
voltage

drop across

the points A and C is

given by

$$\text{voltage drop across A and C} = \frac{r}{R} E$$



When sliding contact C moves from A to B the potential drop increases from 0 to E.

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Measurement of unknown emf:

To

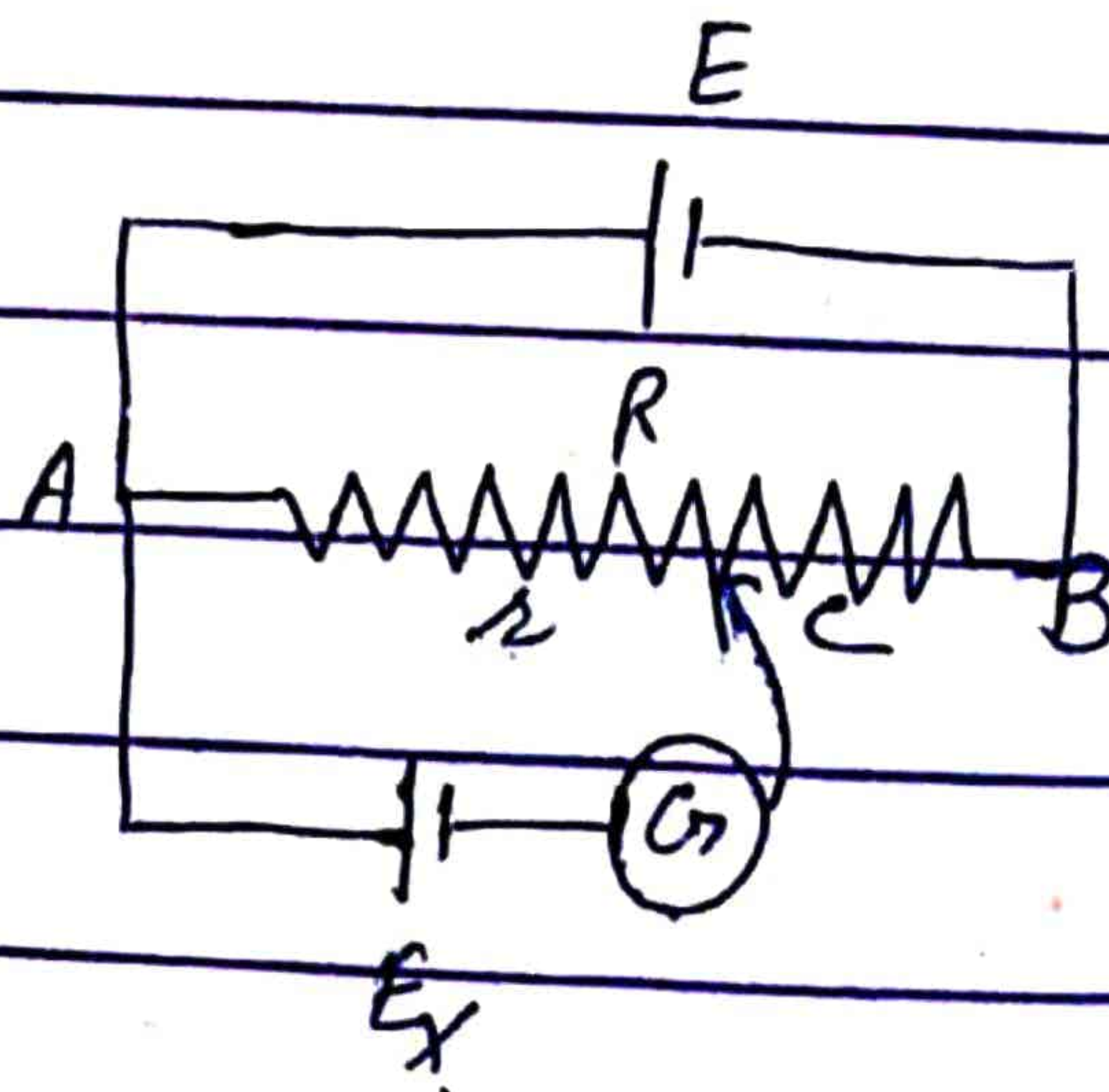
measure the

unknown

emf E_x

the positive

terminal of battery is



connected with the positive terminal of the potentiometer. Then we adjust the sliding contact c such that the galvanometer shows zero deflection. At this point the emf of unknown source and that of potentiometer will become equal. So, the unknown emf E_x can be calculated as:

$$E_x = \frac{l}{L} E$$

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The resistance is proportional to the length. So,

$$E_x = \frac{l}{L} E$$

Here l is the length between A and c while L is the total length of AB .

Comparison of emf of two cells:

The method to measuring the emf of the cell can be used to compare the emfs E_1 and E_2 of cells. The balancing length l_1 and l_2 are found separately from the two cells.

$$E_1 = E \frac{l_1}{L}$$

$$E_2 = E \frac{l_2}{L}$$

$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = \frac{E l_1 / K}{E l_2 / K}$$

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

∴ So, the ratio of emfs is equal to ratio of the balancing lengths.

Short Questions

Q.1: The average velocity of the electrons while passing through the ^{conductor} copper wire is called drift velocity.

i- By increasing the potential difference across the copper wire, the energy of the electrons will be increased so, drift velocity will increase.

ii- By decreasing the length and temperature of the wire resistance of wire will decrease. So, drift velocity will increase.

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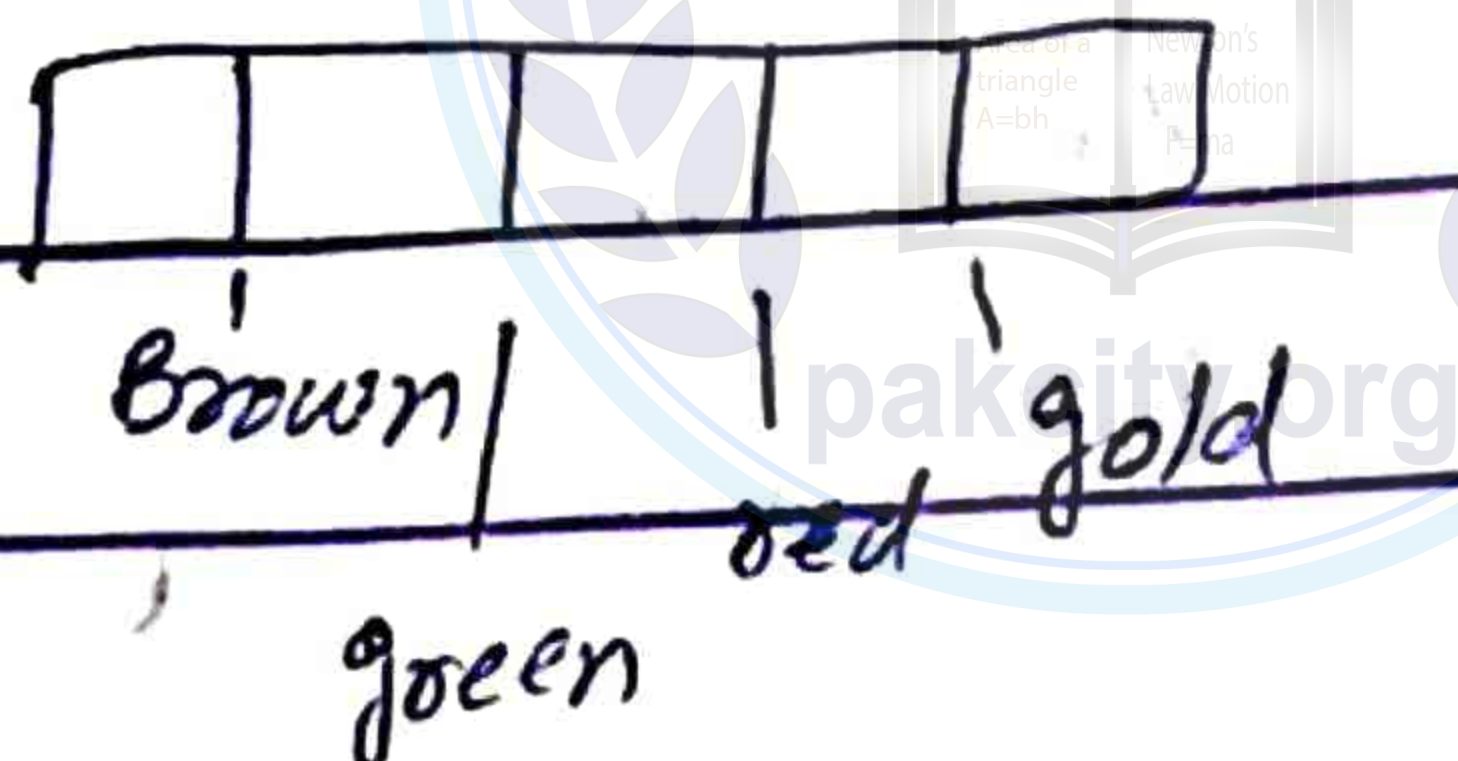
Q.2: No, bends in a wire does not affect its electrical resistance. Because the resistance of a wire depends upon the length, cross sectional area and resistivity of the wire.

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

Due to bends none of

the above factor changes
So, resistance does not
change due to bends.

13.3: The possible variation
from the marked value
called tolerance
Silver band indicate tolerance
of $\pm 10\%$ and gold band indicate
the tolerance of $\pm 5\%$. If there is
no fourth band tolerance is
 $\pm 20\%$.



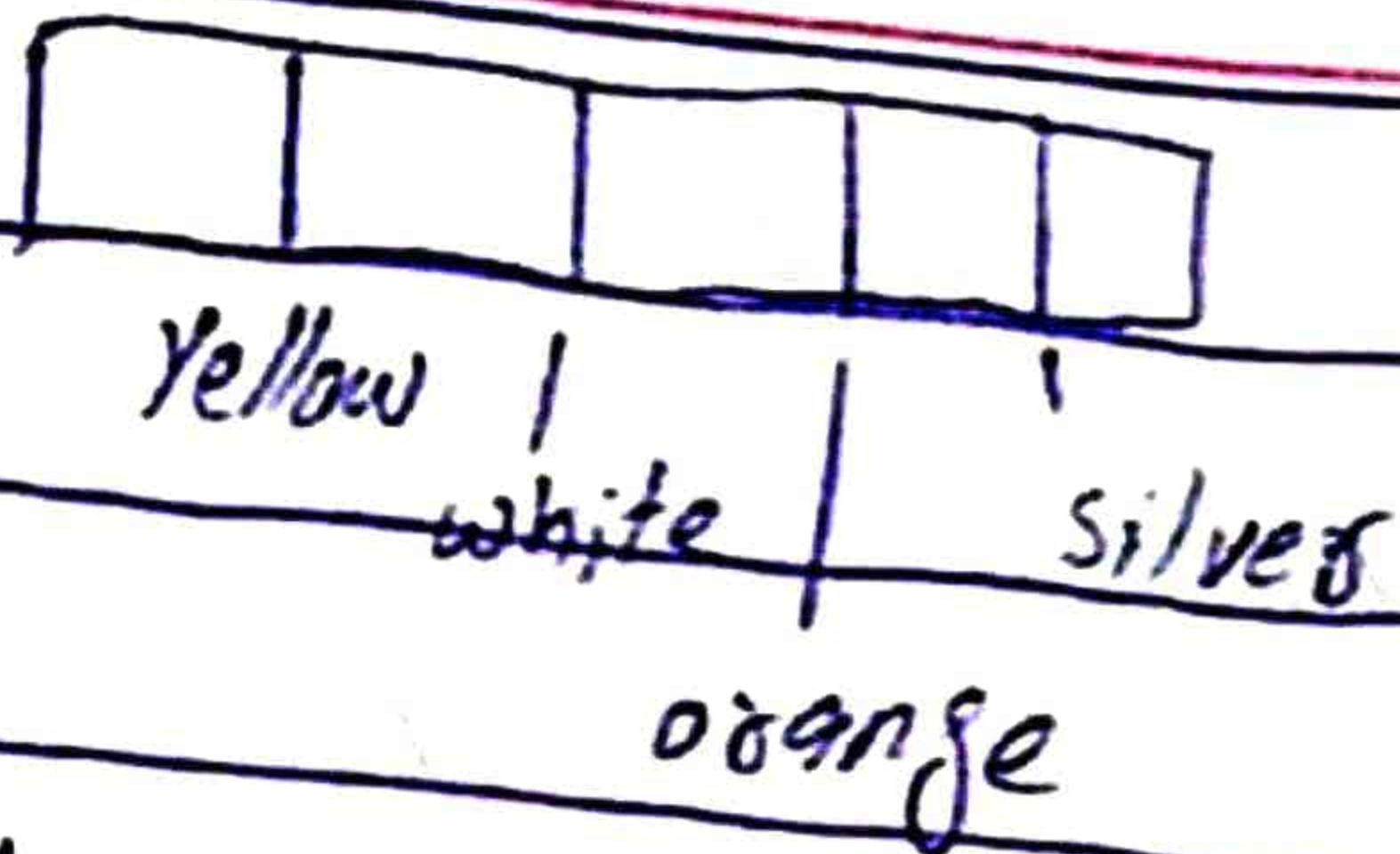
$$\text{Resistance} = 1500 \Omega \pm 5\%$$

$$\text{Tolerance} = 75 \Omega$$

The resistance will lie between

$$1500 + 75 \quad \text{and} \quad 1500 - 75$$

$$1575 \Omega \quad \text{and} \quad 1425 \Omega$$



$$\text{Resistance} = 49000 \Omega + 10\%$$

$$\text{Tolerance} = 4900 \Omega$$

The resistance will lie between:

$$49000 + 4900 \quad \text{and} \quad 49000 - 4900$$

$$53900 \Omega \quad \text{and} \quad 44100 \Omega$$

13.6



Case.1

Case.2

$$R = ?, P = 500W$$

$$R = ?, P = 100W$$

$$V = 220V$$

$$V = 220V$$

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

$$R = \frac{V^2}{P}$$

$$R = \frac{V^2}{P}$$

$$= \frac{(220)^2}{100}$$

$$= \frac{(220)^2}{500}$$

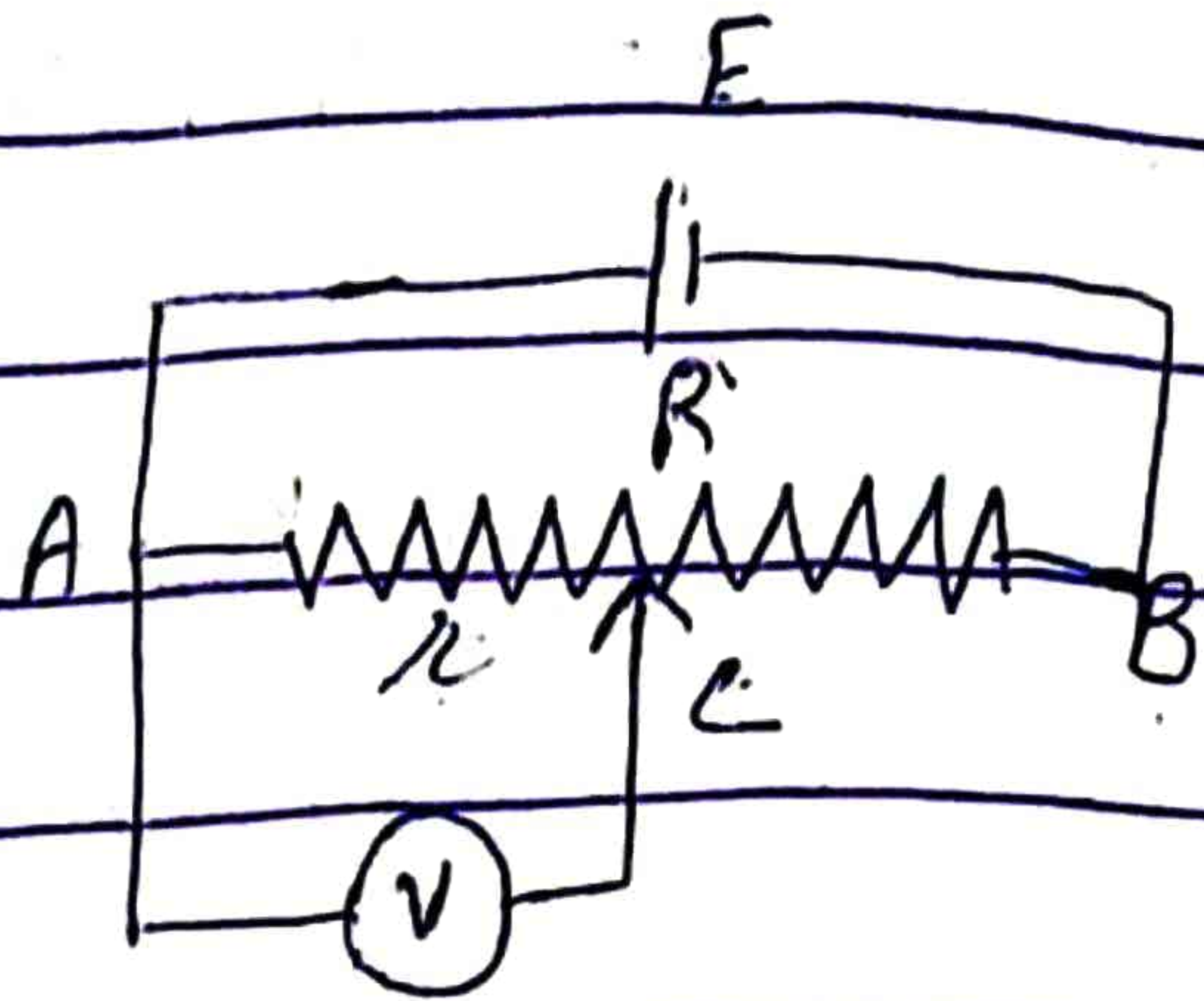
$$R = 484 \Omega$$

$$R = 96.8 \Omega$$

So, the resistance for case.1 is less than case.2

13.7: The circuit which will give continuously varying potential is shown.

The voltage drop across a point A and C as given by



$$\frac{R}{R+r} E$$

When sliding contact C moves from A to B the potential drop increases from zero to E.

13.8: The terminal potential difference is given by

$$V_t = E - IR$$

When the current drawn from the battery increases the voltage drop across the battery (IR) also increases. Therefore

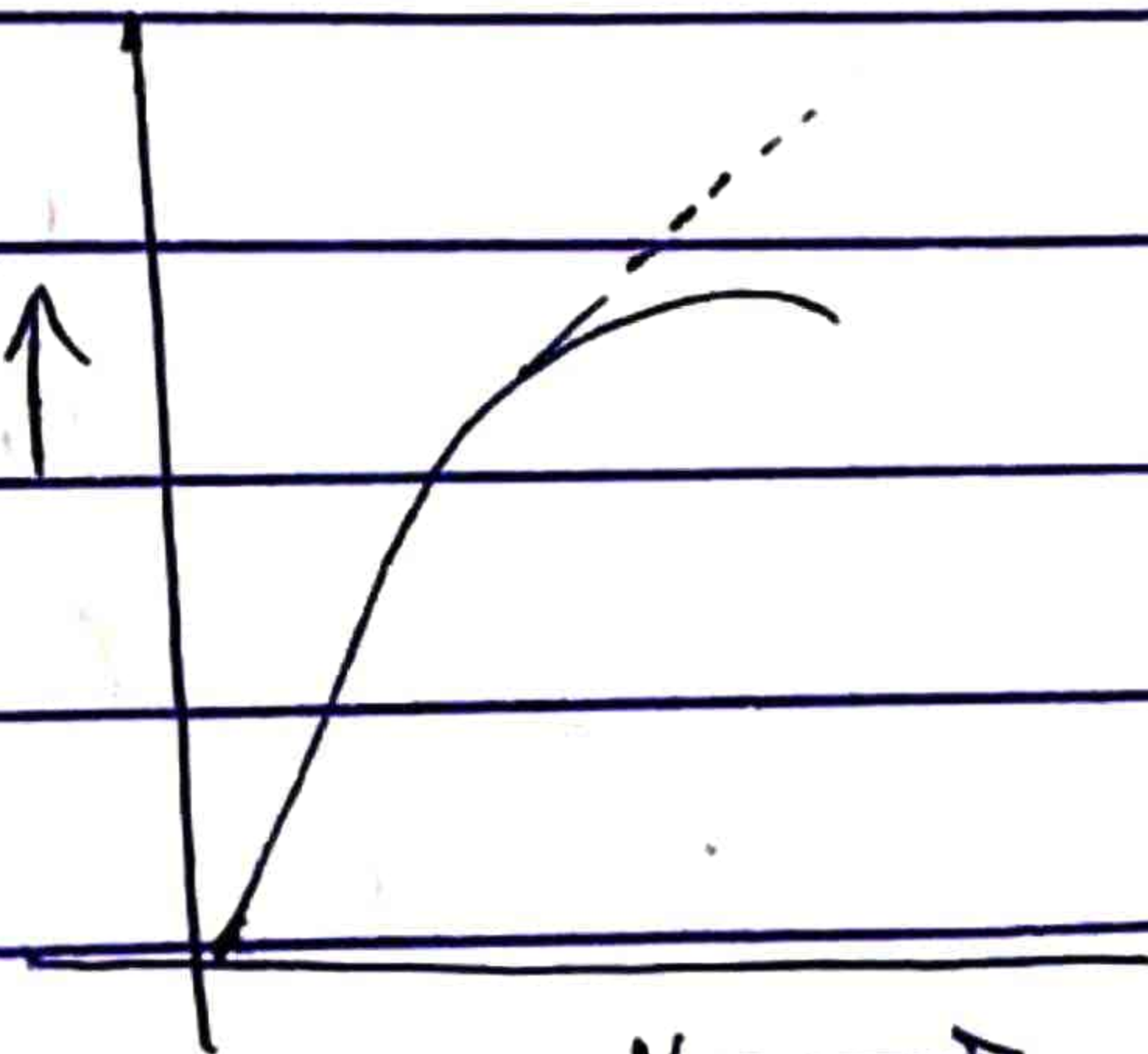
the terminal potential difference will decrease.

13.4:

When a temperature of the specific conductor increases, the kinetic energy of the electrons and the atoms also increases. Then they vibrate with greater amplitude and collision also increases. Therefore the resistance of the conductor increases.

13.5:

When the current flowing through the bulb. The current increases due to increase



in potential difference. After some time the filament heats up. As a result the resistance increases and

current decreases. So, the proportionality is no longer obeyed. Therefore filament bulb does not obey ohm's law.



13.9: Definition

It is an electrical instrument circuit which is used to measure the unknown resistance.

Result:

If we connect three resistance R_1 , R_2 and R_3 of ~~known~~ adjustable values and the 4th resistance R_4 of unknown value. The resistance R_1 , R_2 and R_3 are so adjusted then the galvanometer show no deflection. Then from the known resistance the unknown resistance can be determined by using equation

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

13.1 Data

number of electrons = n = ?

time = $t = 1 \text{ min} = 60 \text{ s}$

current = $I = 300 \text{ mA}$

$I = 300 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A}$

charge on one electron = $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

Solution: we know that



$$I = \frac{Q}{t}$$

here

total charge = $Q = ne$

$$I = \frac{ne}{t}$$

$$It = ne$$

$$\frac{It}{e} = n$$

$$300 \times 10^{-3} \times 60$$

$$n = \frac{\quad}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$n = 1.12 \times 10^{20} \text{ electrons}$$

13.2 Data

$$\text{charge} = Q = 90 \text{ C}$$

$$\text{time} = t = 1 \text{ hour } 15 \text{ min.}$$

$$= 75 \text{ min}$$

$$= 75(60) \text{ s}$$

$$t = 4500 \text{ s}$$

$$\text{current} = I = ?$$

Solution:

$$I = \frac{Q}{t}$$

$$I = \frac{90}{4500}$$

$$I = 0.02 \text{ A}$$

$$= 20 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A}$$

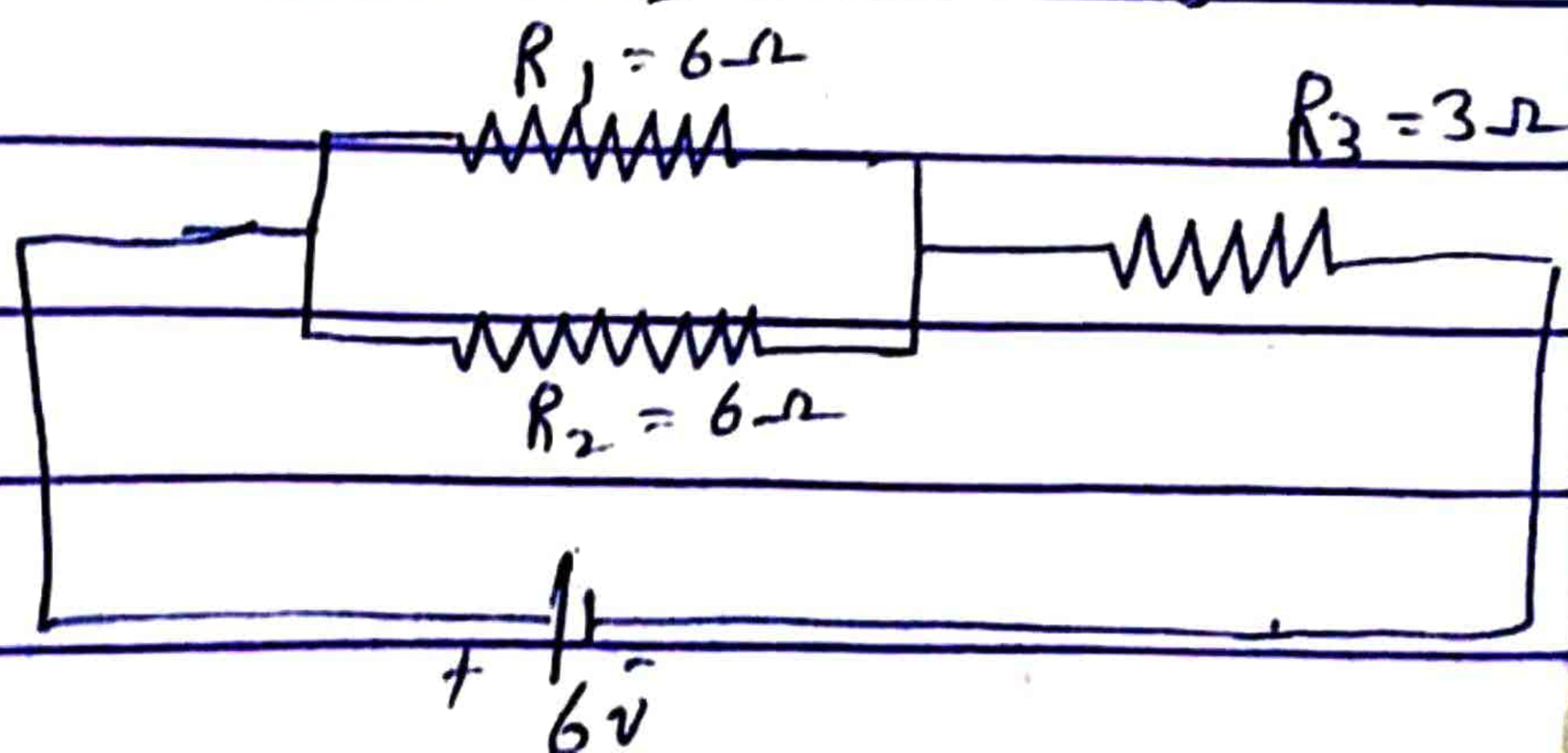
$$I = 20 \text{ mA}$$

13.3 Data

Equivalent resistance = $R_e = ?$

Total current = $I = ?$

$$I_1 = ? , I_2 = ? , I_3 = ?$$



Solution:

As R_1 and R_2 are
connected parallel

$$\frac{1}{R'} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$$

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

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

$$\frac{1}{R'}$$

$$R' = 3 \Omega$$

Now R' and R_3 are
in series.

$$R_e = R' + R_3$$

$$= 3 + 3$$

$$\boxed{R_e = 6 \Omega}$$

$$\text{Total current} = I = \frac{V}{R_e}$$

$$I = \frac{6}{6}$$

$$\boxed{I = 1 A}$$

As the resistors R_1 and R_2 are in series - so, current will same through R_2 as the circuit current.

$$I_3 = 1 \text{ A}$$

While the current through R_1 and R_2 will be divided half.

$$I_1 = 0.5 \text{ A}$$

$$I_2 = 0.5 \text{ A}$$

13.4 Data

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cross-sectional area of rectangular iron bar

$$= A = 2 \text{ cm} \times 2 \text{ cm}$$

$$A = \frac{2}{100} \text{ m} \times \frac{2}{100} \text{ m}$$

$$A = 4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{length of bar} = L = 40 \text{ cm}$$

$$L = \frac{40}{100} \text{ m}$$

$$L = 0.4 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{resistance} = R = ?$$

$$\text{resistivity of iron} = \rho = 11 \times 10^{-8} \text{ } \Omega \cdot \text{m}$$

Solution:

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

$$R = \frac{11 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.4}{41 \times 10^{-4}}$$

$$R = 1.1 \times 10^{-4} \Omega$$



13.5 Data

temperature = $t_1 = 0^\circ\text{C} = 0 + 273 \text{ K}$

$$t_1 = 273 \text{ K}$$

resistance = $R_0 = 1 \times 10^4 \Omega$

resistance = $R_t = ?$

second temperature = $t_2 = 500^\circ\text{C}$

$$t_2 = 500 + 273 \text{ K}$$

$$t_2 = 773 \text{ K}$$

$$t = t_2 - t_1$$

$$= 773 - 273$$

$$t = 500 \text{ K}$$

temperature coefficient

$$\alpha = 5.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1}$$

Solution:

$$\alpha = \frac{R_t - R_0}{R_0 t}$$

$$\alpha R_0 t = R_t - R_0$$

$$R_0 + \alpha R_0 t = R_t$$

$$R_t = 10^4 \times (5.2 \times 10^{-3}) (10^4) (500)$$

$$R_t = 36000 \Omega$$

$$R_t = 3.6 \times 10^4 \Omega$$