

thus far we have dealt almost exclusively with static situations. In fact, we've had no time dependence at all even when current was involved.
 → current was steady.

Let's talk a bit more about current as we begin to bring in time dependent features.

Current

What makes current flow?

- Inside a material (wire, other circuit elements), there will be resistance to the motion of charges (they scatter, heat up - thermal motion, etc.)
- You need some force to maintain the motion - the current. (like friction in 183)

With free electrons → constant push means accelerating and thus increasing charges.

In most materials → constant push means a constant flow! current!

Model of this is known as Ohm's Law,

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{f} \quad \text{current density} \propto \text{force per unit charge.}$$

The constant of proportionality, σ , is a material dependent constant - conductivity.

(It is not surface charge!)

We can also rewrite this,

$$\vec{f} = \frac{1}{\sigma} \vec{J} = \rho \vec{J} \quad \rho \text{ is the resistivity} = 1/\sigma$$

(not charge density!)

It's often the case that the force responsible for this motion is the Lorentz force,

$$\vec{f} = \vec{F}_{\text{Lorentz}} = \vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

And typically \vec{v} & \vec{B} are small enough where only \vec{E} really affects the charges (more later) (on this)

So,

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{f} = \sigma (\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \approx \sigma \vec{E}$$

this is Ohm's Law, which is really a model that many materials seem to be able to be modeled by.

Note: $\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$ does not imply an increasing current even though $\vec{J} \propto \vec{v}$ (remember this?)

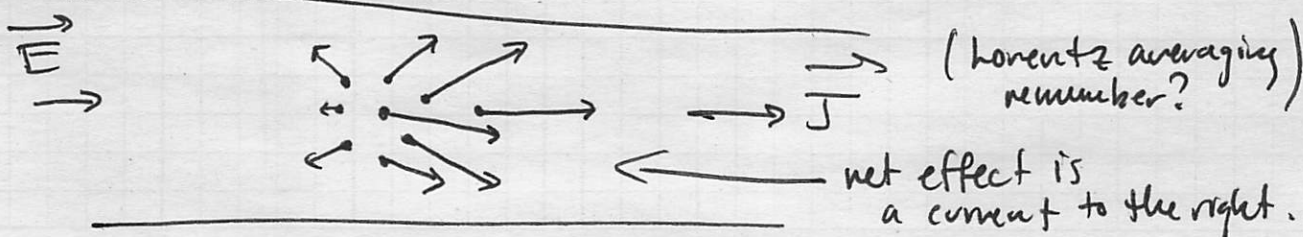
If there were no damping (collision, thermal losses), it would. But electrons in real materials are like a gas, they have large random \vec{v} 's depending on temperature. So applying a (small) force causes a drift, but the collisions tend to still randomize the motion (called thermalization).

→ think of the drag force & terminal velocity

→ v_{thermal} is big, but v_{drift} is small

So the current depends on that drift velocity

$$\vec{J} = nq\vec{v}_{\text{drift}} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{This is a classical model} \\ \text{called the Drude model} \end{array} \right\}$$



Comment! σ depends on the material

Materials w/ large conductivity are good conductors.
(you only need a small force to get a large flow)

- Copper is used in most household wiring

$$\sigma_{\text{Cu}} \approx 6 \cdot 10^7 \frac{\text{C/s} \cdot \text{m}^2}{\text{N/C}} = \frac{\text{C}^2 \text{s}}{\text{kgm}^3} = \frac{1}{\text{ohm m}} = \frac{1}{\Omega \text{m}}$$

- This is a huge conductivity. By contrast, wood (an insulator) has $\sigma_{\text{wood}} \approx 10^{-8}$ to $10^{-11} \frac{1}{\Omega \text{m}}$

- A resistor in a circuit would be more like 10^{+3} or $10^{+4} \frac{1}{\Omega \text{m}}$ ("mid range")

Comment! I thought $E=0$ in metals!

For static situations, yes that's true,

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E} \text{ so if } \vec{J} = 0 \text{ then } \vec{E} = 0.$$

For a metal σ is very large ($\sigma \rightarrow \infty$),

so that $\vec{E} = \vec{J} / \sigma \rightarrow 0$ even if there's finite current.

That is, very small \vec{E} fields are needed to drive currents in metals. and in our approximation that $\sigma \rightarrow \infty$, $\vec{E} \rightarrow 0$ still in this case.

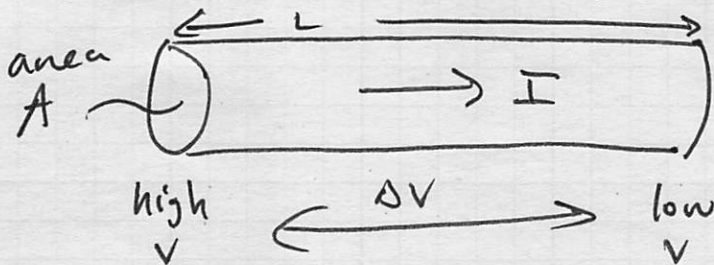
Final Comment! As there are collisions and thermal

losses when driving current, the power dissipated in the system must

$$\text{be } P = \Delta V I = \frac{\text{work}}{\text{charge}} \cdot \frac{\text{charge}}{\text{second}}$$

Example: Uniform Conducting Wire

Here's a bit of wire,



We can use Ohm's Law,

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

to find 184's Ohm's.

the current density is uniform: $J = I/A$ * here the electric field is also uniform: $E = \frac{\Delta V}{L}$
(* we will come back to this)

So,

$$\frac{I}{A} = \sigma \frac{\Delta V}{L} \Rightarrow \Delta V = \frac{L}{\sigma A} I$$

We can call $\frac{L}{\sigma A} = R$ the resistance of the material R depends on the geometry and the resistivity of the material. In this case,

$$R = \frac{L}{\sigma A} = \rho \frac{L}{A} \quad \text{where } \rho = 1/\sigma \text{ (remember!)}$$

$$[R] = \text{ohms} = [\Omega] \quad \text{so } \underline{\Delta V = RI} \text{ (like 184)}$$

Real wires have small E -fields in them and thus small ΔV 's. They are measurable, too!But, big ΔV 's occur across resistive elements; hence, we often focus on them!