20 ELECTRIC CURRENT, RESISTANCE, AND OHM'S LAW

Figure 20.1 Electric energy in massive quantities is transmitted from this hydroelectric facility, the Srisailam power station located along the Krishna River in India, by the movement of charge—that is, by electric current. (credit: Chintohere, Wikimedia Commons)

Chapter Outline

Introduction to Electric Current, Resistance, and Ohm's Law

The flicker of numbers on a handheld calculator, nerve impulses carrying signals of vision to the brain, an ultrasound device sending a signal to a computer screen, the brain sending a message for a baby to twitch its toes, an electric train pulling its load over a mountain pass, a hydroelectric plant sending energy to metropolitan and rural users—these and many other examples of electricity involve *electric current, the movement of charge*. Humankind has indeed harnessed electricity, the basis of technology, to improve our quality of life. Whereas the previous two chapters concentrated on static electricity and the fundamental force underlying its behavior, the next few chapters will be devoted to electric and magnetic phenomena involving current. In addition to exploring applications of electricity, we shall gain new insights into nature—in particular, the fact that all magnetism results from electric current.

20.1 Current

Electric Current

Electric current is defined to be the rate at which charge flows. A large current, such as that used to start a truck engine, moves a large amount of charge in a small time, whereas a small current, such as that used to operate a hand-held calculator, moves a small amount of charge over a long period of time. In equation form, **electric current** I is defined to be

$$I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}, \tag{20.1}$$

where ΔQ is the amount of charge passing through a given area in time Δt. (As in previous chapters, initial time is often taken to be zero, in which case $\Delta t = t$.) (See **Figure 20.2**.) The SI unit for current is the **ampere** (A), named for the French physicist André-Marie Ampère (1775–1836). Since $I = \Delta Q / \Delta t$, we see that an ampere is one coulomb per second:

$$1\text{ A} = 1\text{ C/s} \tag{20.2}$$

Not only are fuses and circuit breakers rated in amperes (or amps), so are many electrical appliances.

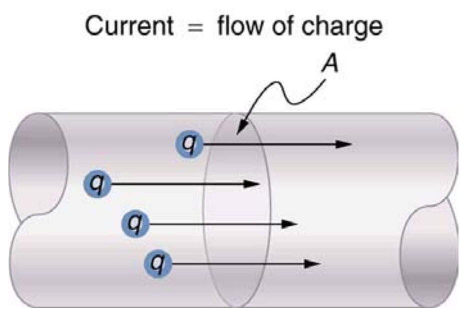

Figure 20.2 The rate of flow of charge is current. An ampere is the flow of one coulomb through an area in one second.

Example 20.1 Calculating Currents: Current in a Truck Battery and a Handheld Calculator

(a) What is the current involved when a truck battery sets in motion 720 C of charge in 4.00 s while starting an engine? (b) How long does it take 1.00 C of charge to flow through a handheld calculator if a 0.300-mA current is flowing?

Strategy

We can use the definition of current in the equation $I = \Delta Q / \Delta t$ to find the current in part (a), since charge and time are given. In part (b), we rearrange the definition of current and use the given values of charge and current to find the time required.

Solution for (a)

Entering the given values for charge and time into the definition of current gives

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = \frac{720\text{ C}}{4.00\text{ s}} = 180\text{ C/s} \\ &= 180\text{ A.} \end{aligned} \tag{20.3}$$

Discussion for (a)

This large value for current illustrates the fact that a large charge is moved in a small amount of time. The currents in these "starter motors" are fairly large because large frictional forces need to be overcome when setting something in motion.

Solution for (b)

Solving the relationship $I = \Delta Q / \Delta t$ for time Δt, and entering the known values for charge and current gives

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta t &= \frac{\Delta Q}{I} = \frac{1.00\text{ C}}{0.300\times 10^{-3}\text{ C/s}} \\ &= 3.33\times 10^{3}\text{ s.}\end{aligned} \tag{20.4}$$

Discussion for (b)

This time is slightly less than an hour. The small current used by the hand-held calculator takes a much longer time to move a smaller charge than the large current of the truck starter. So why can we operate our calculators only seconds after turning them on? It's because calculators require very little energy. Such small current and energy demands allow handheld calculators to operate from solar cells or to get many hours of use out of small batteries. Remember, calculators do not have moving parts in the same way that a truck engine has with cylinders and pistons, so the technology requires smaller currents.

Figure 20.3 shows a simple circuit and the standard schematic representation of a battery, conducting path, and load (a resistor). Schematics are very useful in visualizing the main features of a circuit. A single schematic can represent a wide variety of situations. The schematic in **Figure 20.3** (b), for example, can represent anything from a truck battery connected to a headlight lighting the street in front of the truck to a small battery connected to a penlight lighting a keyhole in a door. Such schematics are useful because the analysis is the same for a wide variety of situations. We need to understand a few schematics to apply the concepts and analysis to many more situations.

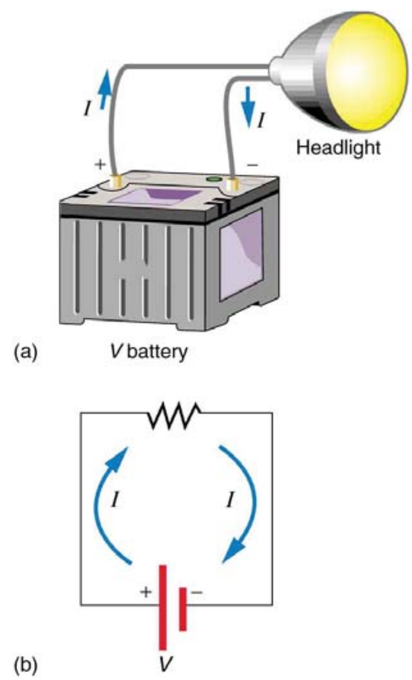

Figure 20.3 (a) A simple electric circuit. A closed path for current to flow through is supplied by conducting wires connecting a load to the terminals of a battery. (b) In this schematic, the battery is represented by the two parallel red lines, conducting wires are shown as straight lines, and the zigzag represents the load. The schematic represents a wide variety of similar circuits.

Note that the direction of current flow in **Figure 20.3** is from positive to negative. *The direction of conventional current is the direction that positive charge would flow*. Depending on the situation, positive charges, negative charges, or both may move. In metal wires, for example, current is carried by electrons—that is, negative charges move. In ionic solutions, such as salt water, both positive and negative charges move. This is also true in nerve cells. A Van de Graaff generator used for nuclear research can produce a current of pure positive charges, such as protons. **Figure 20.4** illustrates the movement of charged particles that compose a current. The fact that conventional current is taken to be in the direction that positive charge would flow can be traced back to American politician and scientist Benjamin Franklin in the 1700s. He named the type of charge associated with electrons negative, long before they were known to carry current in so many situations. Franklin, in fact, was totally unaware of the small-scale structure of electricity.

It is important to realize that there is an electric field in conductors responsible for producing the current, as illustrated in **Figure 20.4**. Unlike static electricity, where a conductor in equilibrium cannot have an electric field in it, conductors carrying a current have an electric field and are not in static equilibrium. An electric field is needed to supply energy to move the charges.

Making Connections: Take-Home Investigation—Electric Current Illustration

Find a straw and little peas that can move freely in the straw. Place the straw flat on a table and fill the straw with peas. When you pop one pea in at one end, a different pea should pop out the other end. This demonstration is an analogy for an electric current. Identify what compares to the electrons and what compares to the supply of energy. What other analogies can you find for an electric current?

Note that the flow of peas is based on the peas physically bumping into each other; electrons flow due to mutually repulsive electrostatic forces.

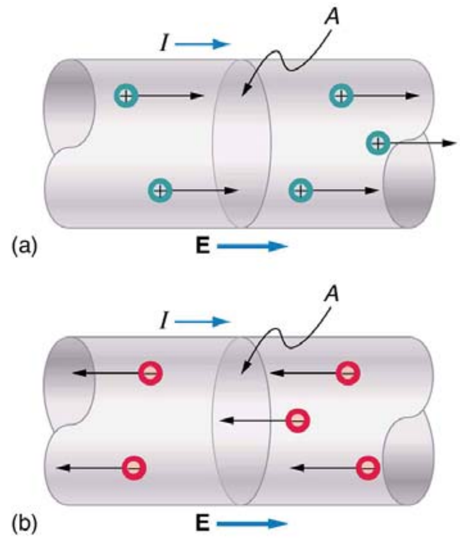

Figure 20.4 Current I is the rate at which charge moves through an area A, such as the cross-section of a wire. Conventional current is defined to move in the direction of the electric field. (a) Positive charges move in the direction of the electric field and the same direction as conventional current. (b) Negative charges move in the direction opposite to the electric field. Conventional current is in the direction opposite to the movement of negative charge. The flow of electrons is sometimes referred to as electronic flow.

Example 20.2 Calculating the Number of Electrons that Move through a Calculator

If the 0.300-mA current through the calculator mentioned in the **Example 20.1** example is carried by electrons, how many electrons per second pass through it?

Strategy

The current calculated in the previous example was defined for the flow of positive charge. For electrons, the magnitude is the same, but the sign is opposite, $I_{\text{electrons}} = -0.300\times10^{-3}\text{ C/s}$ .Since each electron (e^{-}) has a charge of $-1.60\times10^{-19}\text{ C}$, we can convert the current in coulombs per second to electrons per second.

Solution

Starting with the definition of current, we have

$$I_{\text{electrons}} = \frac{\Delta Q_{\text{electrons}}}{\Delta t} = \frac{-0.300\times10^{-3}\text{ C}}{\text{s}}. \tag{20.5}$$

We divide this by the charge per electron, so that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{e^-}{\text{s}} &= \frac{-0.300\times10^{-3}\text{ C}}{\text{s}}\times\frac{1\ e^-}{-1.60\times10^{-19}\text{ C}}\\ &= 1.88\times10^{15}\ \frac{e^-}{\text{s}}.\end{aligned} \tag{20.6}$$

Discussion

There are so many charged particles moving, even in small currents, that individual charges are not noticed, just as individual water molecules are not noticed in water flow. Even more amazing is that they do not always keep moving forward like soldiers in a parade. Rather they are like a crowd of people with movement in different directions but a general trend to move forward. There are lots of collisions with atoms in the metal wire and, of course, with other electrons.

Drift Velocity

Electrical signals are known to move very rapidly. Telephone conversations carried by currents in wires cover large distances without noticeable delays. Lights come on as soon as a switch is flicked. Most electrical signals carried by currents travel at speeds on the order of 10^8 m/s , a significant fraction of the speed of light. Interestingly, the individual charges that make up the current move *much* more slowly on average, typically drifting at speeds on the order of 10^{-4} m/s . How do we reconcile these two speeds, and what does it tell us about standard conductors?

The high speed of electrical signals results from the fact that the force between charges acts rapidly at a distance. Thus, when a free charge is forced into a wire, as in **Figure 20.5**, the incoming charge pushes other charges ahead of it, which in turn push on charges farther down the line. The density of charge in a system cannot easily be increased, and so the signal is passed on rapidly. The resulting electrical shock wave moves through the system at nearly the speed of light. To be precise, this rapidly moving signal or shock wave is a rapidly propagating change in electric field.

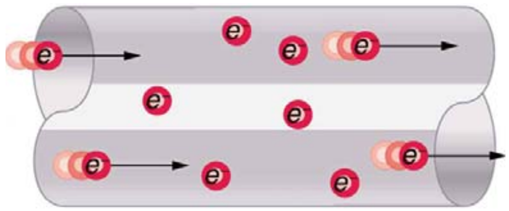

Figure 20.5 When charged particles are forced into this volume of a conductor, an equal number are quickly forced to leave. The repulsion between like charges makes it difficult to increase the number of charges in a volume. Thus, as one charge enters, another leaves almost immediately, carrying the signal rapidly forward.

Good conductors have large numbers of free charges in them. In metals, the free charges are free electrons. **Figure 20.6** shows how free electrons move through an ordinary conductor. The distance that an individual electron can move between collisions with atoms or other electrons is quite small. The electron paths thus appear nearly random, like the motion of atoms in a gas. But there is an electric field in the conductor that causes the electrons to drift in the direction shown (opposite to the field, since they are negative). The **drift velocity** v_d is the average velocity of the free charges. Drift velocity is quite small, since there are so many free charges. If we have an estimate of the density of free electrons in a conductor, we can calculate the drift velocity for a given current. The larger the density, the lower the velocity required for a given current.

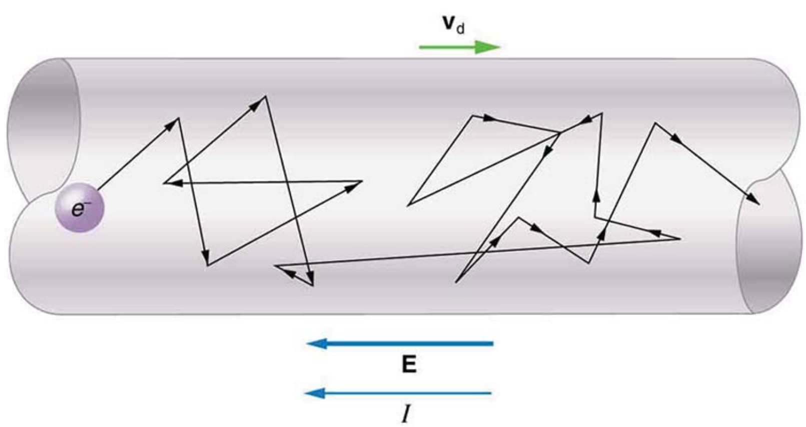

Figure 20.6 Free electrons moving in a conductor make many collisions with other electrons and atoms. The path of one electron is shown. The average velocity of the free charges is called the drift velocity, v_d , and it is in the direction opposite to the electric field for electrons. The collisions normally transfer energy to the conductor, requiring a constant supply of energy to maintain a steady current.

Conduction of Electricity and Heat

Good electrical conductors are often good heat conductors, too. This is because large numbers of free electrons can carry electrical current and can transport thermal energy.

The free-electron collisions transfer energy to the atoms of the conductor. The electric field does work in moving the electrons through a distance, but that work does not increase the kinetic energy (nor speed, therefore) of the electrons. The work is transferred to the conductor's atoms, possibly increasing temperature. Thus a continuous power input is required to keep a current flowing. An exception, of course, is found in superconductors, for reasons we shall explore in a later chapter. Superconductors can have a steady current without a continual supply of energy—a great energy savings. In contrast, the supply of energy can be useful, such as in a lightbulb filament. The supply of energy is necessary to increase the temperature of the tungsten filament, so that the filament glows.

Making Connections: Take-Home Investigation—Filament Observations

Find a lightbulb with a filament. Look carefully at the filament and describe its structure. To what points is the filament connected?

We can obtain an expression for the relationship between current and drift velocity by considering the number of free charges in a segment of wire, as illustrated in **Figure 20.7**. *The number of free charges per unit volume* is given the symbol n and depends on the material. The shaded segment has a volume Ax, so that the number of free charges in it is nAx. The charge ΔQ in this segment is thus $qnAx$, where q is the amount of charge on each carrier. (Recall that for electrons, q is $-1.60\times10^{-19}\text{ C}$.) Current is charge moved per unit time; thus, if all the original charges move out of this segment in time Δt, the current is

$$I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = \frac{qnAx}{\Delta t}. \tag{20.7}$$

Note that $x / \Delta t$ is the magnitude of the drift velocity, v_d, since the charges move an average distance x in a time Δt. Rearranging terms gives

$$I = nqAv_\text{d}, \tag{20.8}$$

where I is the current through a wire of cross-sectional area A made of a material with a free charge density n. The carriers of the current each have charge q and move with a drift velocity of magnitude v_d.

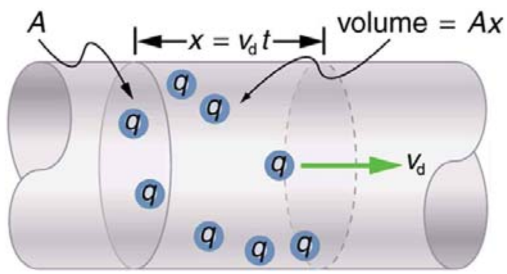

Figure 20.7 All the charges in the shaded volume of this wire move out in a time t, having a drift velocity of magnitude $v_\text{d} = x / t$. See text for further discussion.

Note that simple drift velocity is not the entire story. The speed of an electron is much greater than its drift velocity. In addition, not all of the electrons in a conductor can move freely, and those that do might move somewhat faster or slower than the drift velocity. So what do we mean by free electrons? Atoms in a metallic conductor are packed in the form of a lattice structure. Some electrons are far enough away from the atomic nuclei that they do not experience the attraction of the nuclei as much as the inner electrons do. These are the free electrons. They are not bound to a single atom but can instead move freely among the atoms in a “sea” of electrons. These free electrons respond by accelerating when an electric field is applied. Of course as they move they collide with the atoms in the lattice and other electrons, generating thermal energy, and the conductor gets warmer. In an insulator, the organization of the atoms and the structure do not allow for such free electrons.

Example 20.3 Calculating Drift Velocity in a Common Wire

Calculate the drift velocity of electrons in a 12-gauge copper wire (which has a diameter of 2.053 mm) carrying a 20.0-A current, given that there is one free electron per copper atom. (Household wiring often contains 12-gauge copper wire, and the maximum current allowed in such wire is usually 20 A.) The density of copper is $8.80\times10^3\text{ kg/m}^3$.

Strategy

We can calculate the drift velocity using the equation $I = nqAv_\text{d}$. The current $I = 20.0\text{ A}$ is given, and $q = -1.60\times10^{-19}\text{C}$ is the charge of an electron. We can calculate the area of a cross-section of the wire using the formula $A = \pi r^2,$ where r is one-half the given diameter, 2.053 mm. We are given the density of copper, $8.80\times10^3\text{ kg/m}^3,$ and the periodic table shows that the atomic mass of copper is 63.54 g/mol. We can use these two quantities along with Avogadro’s number, $6.02\times10^{23}\text{ atoms/mol},$ to determine $n,$ the number of free electrons per cubic meter.

Solution

First, calculate the density of free electrons in copper. There is one free electron per copper atom. Therefore, is the same as the number of copper atoms per m^3. We can now find n as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \frac{1\ e^-}{\text{atom}}\times\frac{6.02\times10^{23}\text{ atoms}}{\text{mol}}\times\frac{1\text{ mol}}{63.54\text{ g}}\times\frac{1000\text{ g}}{\text{kg}}\times\frac{8.80\times10^3\text{ kg}}{1\text{ m}^3} \\ &= 8.342\times10^{28}\ e^-/\text{m}^3. \end{aligned} \tag{20.9}$$

The cross-sectional area of the wire is

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \pi r^2 \\ &= \pi\left(\frac{2.053\times10^{-3}\text{ m}}{2}\right)^2 \\ &= 3.310\times10^{-6}\text{ m}^2. \end{aligned} \tag{20.10}$$

Rearranging $I = nqAv_\text{d}$ to isolate drift velocity gives

$$\begin{aligned} v_\text{d} &= \frac{I}{nqA} \\ &= \frac{20.0\text{ A}}{(8.342\times10^{28}/\text{m}^3)(–1.60\times10^{-19}\text{ C})(3.310\times10^{-6}\text{ m}^2)} \\ &= –4.53\times10^{-4}\text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \tag{20.11}$$

Discussion

The minus sign indicates that the negative charges are moving in the direction opposite to conventional current. The small value for drift velocity (on the order of 10^{-4} m/s) confirms that the signal moves on the order of 10^{12} times faster (about 10^8 m/s) than the charges that carry it.

20.2 Ohm's Law: Resistance and Simple Circuits

What drives current? We can think of various devices—such as batteries, generators, wall outlets, and so on—which are necessary to maintain a current. All such devices create a potential difference and are loosely referred to as voltage sources. When a voltage source is connected to a conductor, it applies a potential difference V that creates an electric field. The electric field in turn exerts force on charges, causing current.

Ohm's Law

The current that flows through most substances is directly proportional to the voltage V applied to it. The German physicist Georg Simon Ohm (1787–1854) was the first to demonstrate experimentally that the current in a metal wire is *directly proportional to the voltage applied*:

$$I \propto V. \tag{20.12}$$

This important relationship is known as **Ohm's law**. It can be viewed as a cause-and-effect relationship, with voltage the cause and current the effect. This is an empirical law like that for friction—an experimentally observed phenomenon. Such a linear relationship doesn't always occur.

Resistance and Simple Circuits

If voltage drives current, what impedes it? The electric property that impedes current (crudely similar to friction and air resistance) is called **resistance** R. Collisions of moving charges with atoms and molecules in a substance transfer energy to the substance and limit current. Resistance is defined as inversely proportional to current, or

$$I \propto \frac{1}{R}. \tag{20.13}$$

Thus, for example, current is cut in half if resistance doubles. Combining the relationships of current to voltage and current to resistance gives

$$I = \frac{V}{R}. \tag{20.14}$$

This relationship is also called Ohm's law. Ohm's law in this form really defines resistance for certain materials. Ohm's law (like Hooke's law) is not universally valid. The many substances for which Ohm's law holds are called **ohmic**. These include good conductors like copper and aluminum, and some poor conductors under certain circumstances. Ohmic materials have a resistance R that is independent of voltage V and current I. An object that has simple resistance is called a *resistor*, even if its resistance is small. The unit for resistance is an **ohm** and is given the symbol Ω (upper case Greek omega). Rearranging $I = V/R$ gives $R = V/I$, and so the units of resistance are 1 ohm = 1 volt per ampere:

$$1\ \Omega = 1\frac{V}{A}. \tag{20.15}$$

Figure 20.8 shows the schematic for a simple circuit. A **simple circuit** has a single voltage source and a single resistor. The wires connecting the voltage source to the resistor can be assumed to have negligible resistance, or their resistance can be included in R .

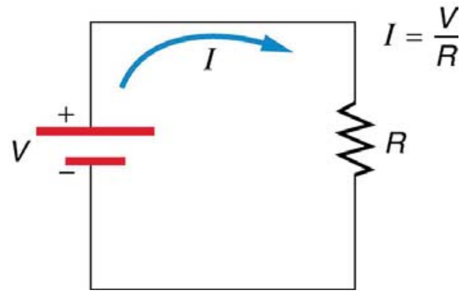

Figure 20.8 A simple electric circuit in which a closed path for current to flow is supplied by conductors (usually metal wires) connecting a load to the terminals of a battery, represented by the red parallel lines. The zigzag symbol represents the single resistor and includes any resistance in the connections to the voltage source.

Example 20.4 Calculating Resistance: An Automobile Headlight

What is the resistance of an automobile headlight through which 2.50 A flows when 12.0 V is applied to it?

Strategy

We can rearrange Ohm's law as stated by $I = V/R$ and use it to find the resistance.

Solution

Rearranging $I = V/R$ and substituting known values gives

$$R = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{12.0\text{ V}}{2.50\text{ A}} = 4.80\ \Omega. \tag{20.16}$$

Discussion

This is a relatively small resistance, but it is larger than the cold resistance of the headlight. As we shall see in **Resistance and Resistivity**, resistance usually increases with temperature, and so the bulb has a lower resistance when it is first switched on and will draw considerably more current during its brief warm-up period.

Resistances range over many orders of magnitude. Some ceramic insulators, such as those used to support power lines, have resistances of $10^{12}\ \Omega$ or more. A dry person may have a hand-to-foot resistance of $10^{5}\ \Omega$, whereas the resistance of the human heart is about $10^{3}\ \Omega$. A meter-long piece of large-diameter copper wire may have a resistance of $10^{-5}\ \Omega$, and superconductors have no resistance at all (they are non-ohmic). Resistance is related to the shape of an object and the material of which it is composed, as will be seen in **Resistance and Resistivity**.

Additional insight is gained by solving $I = V/R$ for $V,$ yielding

$$V = IR. \tag{20.17}$$

This expression for V can be interpreted as the *voltage drop across a resistor produced by the flow of current* I . The phrase IR *drop* is often used for this voltage. For instance, the headlight in **Example 20.4** has an IR drop of 12.0 V. If voltage is measured at various points in a circuit, it will be seen to increase at the voltage source and decrease at the resistor. Voltage is similar to fluid pressure. The voltage source is like a pump, creating a pressure difference, causing current—the flow of charge. The resistor is like a pipe that reduces pressure and limits flow because of its resistance. Conservation of energy has important consequences here. The voltage source supplies energy (causing an electric field and a current), and the resistor converts it to another form (such as thermal energy). In a simple circuit (one with a single simple resistor), the voltage supplied by the source equals the voltage drop across the resistor, since $\text{PE} = q\Delta V$, and the same q flows through each. Thus the energy supplied by the voltage source and the energy converted by the resistor are equal. (See **Figure 20.9**.)

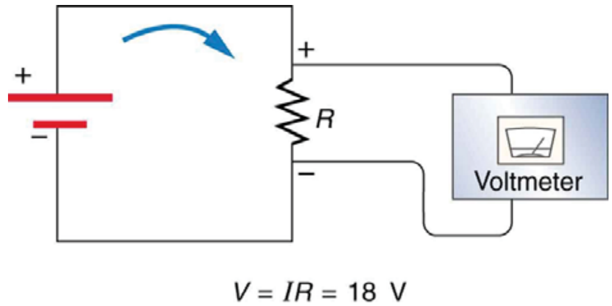

Figure 20.9 The voltage drop across a resistor in a simple circuit equals the voltage output of the battery.

Making Connections: Conservation of Energy

In a simple electrical circuit, the sole resistor converts energy supplied by the source into another form. Conservation of energy is evidenced here by the fact that all of the energy supplied by the source is converted to another form by the resistor alone. We will find that conservation of energy has other important applications in circuits and is a powerful tool in circuit analysis.

PhET Explorations: Ohm's Law

See how the equation form of Ohm's law relates to a simple circuit. Adjust the voltage and resistance, and see the current change according to Ohm's law. The sizes of the symbols in the equation change to match the circuit diagram.

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Figure 20.10

20.3 Resistance and Resistivity

Material and Shape Dependence of Resistance

The resistance of an object depends on its shape and the material of which it is composed. The cylindrical resistor in **Figure 20.11** is easy to analyze, and, by so doing, we can gain insight into the resistance of more complicated shapes. As you might expect, the cylinder's electric resistance R is directly proportional to its length L, similar to the resistance of a pipe to fluid flow. The longer the cylinder, the more collisions charges will make with its atoms. The greater the diameter of the cylinder, the more current it can carry (again similar to the flow of fluid through a pipe). In fact, R is inversely proportional to the cylinder's cross-sectional area A.

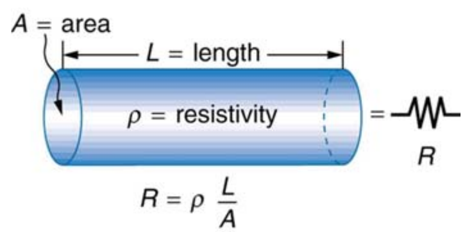

Figure 20.11 A uniform cylinder of length L and cross-sectional area A. Its resistance to the flow of current is similar to the resistance posed by a pipe to fluid flow. The longer the cylinder, the greater its resistance. The larger its cross-sectional area A, the smaller its resistance.

For a given shape, the resistance depends on the material of which the object is composed. Different materials offer different resistance to the flow of charge. We define the **resistivity** ρ of a substance so that the **resistance** R of an object is directly proportional to ρ. Resistivity ρ is an *intrinsic* property of a material, independent of its shape or size. The resistance R of a uniform cylinder of length L, of cross-sectional area A, and made of a material with resistivity ρ, is

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A}. \tag{20.18}$$

Table 20.1 gives representative values of ρ. The materials listed in the table are separated into categories of conductors, semiconductors, and insulators, based on broad groupings of resistivities. Conductors have the smallest resistivities, and insulators have the largest; semiconductors have intermediate resistivities. Conductors have varying but large free charge densities, whereas most charges in insulators are bound to atoms and are not free to move. Semiconductors are intermediate, having far fewer free charges than conductors, but having properties that make the number of free charges depend strongly on the type and amount of impurities in the semiconductor. These unique properties of semiconductors are put to use in modern electronics, as will be explored in later chapters.

Table 20.1 Resistivities ρ of Various materials at 20°C

Material	Resistivity ρ ($\Omega \cdot \text{m}$)
Conductors	
Silver	1.59×10^{-8}
Copper	1.72×10^{-8}
Gold	2.44×10^{-8}
Aluminum	2.65×10^{-8}
Tungsten	5.6×10^{-8}
Iron	9.71×10^{-8}
Platinum	10.6×10^{-8}
Steel	20×10^{-8}
Lead	22×10^{-8}
Manganin (Cu, Mn, Ni alloy)	44×10^{-8}
Constantan (Cu, Ni alloy)	49×10^{-8}
Mercury	96×10^{-8}
Nichrome (Ni, Fe, Cr alloy)	100×10^{-8}
Semiconductors[1]	
Carbon (pure)	3.5×10^{-5}
Carbon	$(3.5 - 60)\times10^{-5}$
Germanium (pure)	600×10^{-3}
Germanium	$(1 - 600)\times10^{-3}$
Silicon (pure)	2300
Silicon	0.1–2300
Insulators	
Amber	5×10^{14}
Glass	$10^{9} - 10^{14}$
Lucite	$>10^{13}$
Mica	$10^{11} - 10^{15}$
Quartz (fused)	75×10^{16}
Rubber (hard)	$10^{13} - 10^{16}$
Sulfur	10^{15}
Teflon	$>10^{13}$
Wood	$10^{8} - 10^{11}$

Example 20.5 Calculating Resistor Diameter: A Headlight Filament

A car headlight filament is made of tungsten and has a cold resistance of $0.350\ \Omega$. If the filament is a cylinder 4.00 cm long (it may be coiled to save space), what is its diameter?

Strategy

We can rearrange the equation $R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$ to find the cross-sectional area A of the filament from the given information. Then its diameter can be found by assuming it has a circular cross-section.

Solution

The cross-sectional area, found by rearranging the expression for the resistance of a cylinder given in $R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$, is

$$A = \frac{\rho L}{R}. \tag{20.19}$$

Substituting the given values, and taking ρ from **Table 20.1**, yields

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{(5.6 \times 10^{-8}\ \Omega \cdot \text{m})(4.00 \times 10^{-2}\ \text{m})}{0.350\ \Omega} \\ &= 6.40 \times 10^{-9}\ \text{m}^2. \end{aligned} \tag{20.20}$$

The area of a circle is related to its diameter D by

$$A = \frac{\pi D^2}{4}. \tag{20.21}$$

Solving for the diameter D, and substituting the value found for A, gives

$$\begin{aligned} D &= 2\left(\frac{A}{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 2\left(\frac{6.40 \times 10^{-9}\ \text{m}^2}{3.14}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= 9.0 \times 10^{-5}\ \text{m}. \end{aligned} \tag{20.22}$$

Discussion

The diameter is just under a tenth of a millimeter. It is quoted to only two digits, because ρ is known to only two digits.

Temperature Variation of Resistance

The resistivity of all materials depends on temperature. Some even become superconductors (zero resistivity) at very low temperatures. (See **Figure 20.12**.) Conversely, the resistivity of conductors increases with increasing temperature. Since the atoms vibrate more rapidly and over larger distances at higher temperatures, the electrons moving through a metal make more collisions, effectively making the resistivity higher. Over relatively small temperature changes (about 100°C or less), resistivity ρ varies with temperature change ΔT as expressed in the following equation

$$\rho = \rho_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T), \tag{20.23}$$

where ρ_0 is the original resistivity and α is the **temperature coefficient of resistivity**. (See the values of α in **Table 20.2** below.) For larger temperature changes, α may vary or a nonlinear equation may be needed to find ρ. Note that α is positive for metals, meaning their resistivity increases with temperature. Some alloys have been developed specifically to have a small temperature dependence. Manganin (which is made of copper, manganese and nickel), for example, has α close to zero (to three digits on the scale in **Table 20.2**), and so its resistivity varies only slightly with temperature. This is useful for making a temperature-independent resistance standard, for example.

1. Values depend strongly on amounts and types of impurities

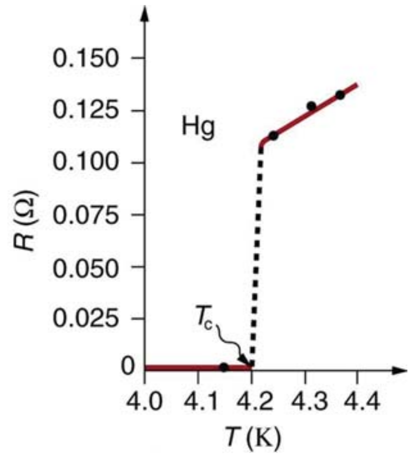

Figure 20.12 The resistance of a sample of mercury is zero at very low temperatures—it is a superconductor up to about 4.2 K. Above that critical temperature, its resistance makes a sudden jump and then increases nearly linearly with temperature.

Table 20.2 Tempature Coefficients of Resistivity α

Material	Coefficient α (1/°C)[2]
Conductors	
Silver	3.8×10^{-3}
Copper	3.9×10^{-3}
Gold	3.4×10^{-3}
Aluminum	3.9×10^{-3}
Tungsten	4.5×10^{-3}
Iron	5.0×10^{-3}
Platinum	3.93×10^{-3}
Lead	3.9×10^{-3}
Manganin (Cu, Mn, Ni alloy)	0.000×10^{-3}
Constantan (Cu, Ni alloy)	0.002×10^{-3}
Mercury	0.89×10^{-3}
Nichrome (Ni, Fe, Cr alloy)	0.4×10^{-3}
Semiconductors	
Carbon (pure)	-0.5×10^{-3}
Germanium (pure)	-50×10^{-3}
Silicon (pure)	-70×10^{-3}

Note also that α is negative for the semiconductors listed in **Table 20.2**, meaning that their resistivity decreases with increasing temperature. They become better conductors at higher temperature, because increased thermal agitation increases the number of free charges available to carry current. This property of decreasing ρ with temperature is also related to the type and amount of impurities present in the semiconductors.

The resistance of an object also depends on temperature, since R_0 is directly proportional to ρ . For a cylinder we know

2. Values at 20°C.

$R = \rho L / A$, and so, if L and A do not change greatly with temperature, R will have the same temperature dependence as ρ . (Examination of the coefficients of linear expansion shows them to be about two orders of magnitude less than typical temperature coefficients of resistivity, and so the effect of temperature on L and A is about two orders of magnitude less than on ρ .) Thus,

$$R = R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T) \tag{20.24}$$

is the temperature dependence of the resistance of an object, where R_0 is the original resistance and R is the resistance after a temperature change ΔT . Numerous thermometers are based on the effect of temperature on resistance. (See **Figure 20.13**.) One of the most common is the thermistor, a semiconductor crystal with a strong temperature dependence, the resistance of which is measured to obtain its temperature. The device is small, so that it quickly comes into thermal equilibrium with the part of a person it touches.

Figure 20.13 These familiar thermometers are based on the automated measurement of a thermistor's temperature-dependent resistance. (credit: Biol, Wikimedia Commons)

Example 20.6 Calculating Resistance: Hot-Filament Resistance

Although caution must be used in applying $\rho = \rho_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$ and $R = R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$ for temperature changes greater than 100°C , for tungsten the equations work reasonably well for very large temperature changes. What, then, is the resistance of the tungsten filament in the previous example if its temperature is increased from room temperature (20°C) to a typical operating temperature of 2850°C ?

Strategy

This is a straightforward application of $R = R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$, since the original resistance of the filament was given to be $R_0 = 0.350\ \Omega$, and the temperature change is $\Delta T = 2830^\circ\text{C}$.

Solution

The hot resistance R is obtained by entering known values into the above equation:

$$\begin{aligned} R &= R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T) \\ &= (0.350\ \Omega)[1 + (4.5\times10^{-3}/^\circ\text{C})(2830^\circ\text{C})] \\ &= 4.8\ \Omega. \end{aligned} \tag{20.25}$$

Discussion

This value is consistent with the headlight resistance example in **Ohm's Law: Resistance and Simple Circuits**.

PhET Explorations: Resistance in a Wire

Learn about the physics of resistance in a wire. Change its resistivity, length, and area to see how they affect the wire's resistance. The sizes of the symbols in the equation change along with the diagram of a wire.

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Figure 20.14

20.4 Electric Power and Energy

Power in Electric Circuits

Power is associated by many people with electricity. Knowing that power is the rate of energy use or energy conversion, what is the expression for **electric power**? Power transmission lines might come to mind. We also think of lightbulbs in terms of their power ratings in watts. Let us compare a 25-W bulb with a 60-W bulb. (See **Figure 20.15**(a).) Since both operate on the same voltage, the 60-W bulb must draw more current to have a greater power rating. Thus the 60-W bulb's resistance must be lower than that of a 25-W bulb. If we increase voltage, we also increase power. For example, when a 25-W bulb that is designed to operate on 120 V is connected to 240 V, it briefly glows very brightly and then burns out. Precisely how are voltage, current, and resistance related to electric power?

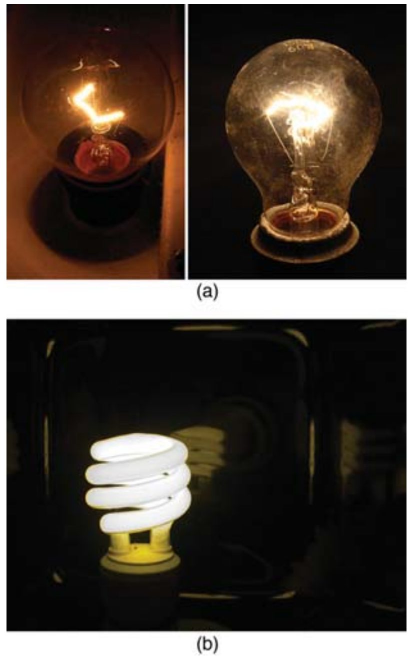

Figure 20.15 (a) Which of these lightbulbs, the 25-W bulb (upper left) or the 60-W bulb (upper right), has the higher resistance? Which draws more current? Which uses the most energy? Can you tell from the color that the 25-W filament is cooler? Is the brighter bulb a different color and if so why? (credits: Dickbauch, Wikimedia Commons; Greg Westfall, Flickr) (b) This compact fluorescent light (CFL) puts out the same intensity of light as the 60-W bulb, but at 1/4 to 1/10 the input power. (credit: dbgg1979, Flickr)

Electric energy depends on both the voltage involved and the charge moved. This is expressed most simply as $\text{PE} = qV$, where q is the charge moved and V is the voltage (or more precisely, the potential difference the charge moves through). Power is the rate at which energy is moved, and so electric power is

$$P = \frac{PE}{t} = \frac{qV}{t}. \tag{20.26}$$

Recognizing that current is $I = q/t$ (note that $\Delta t = t$ here), the expression for power becomes

$$P = IV. \tag{20.27}$$

Electric power (P) is simply the product of current times voltage. Power has familiar units of watts. Since the SI unit for potential energy (PE) is the joule, power has units of joules per second, or watts. Thus, $1 \text{ A} \cdot \text{V} = 1 \text{ W}$. For example, cars often have one or more auxiliary power outlets with which you can charge a cell phone or other electronic devices. These outlets may be rated at 20 A, so that the circuit can deliver a maximum power $P = IV = (20 \text{ A})(12 \text{ V}) = 240 \text{ W}$. In some applications, electric power may be expressed as volt-amperes or even kilovolt-amperes ($1 \text{ kA} \cdot \text{V} = 1 \text{ kW}$).

To see the relationship of power to resistance, we combine Ohm's law with $P = IV$. Substituting $I = V/R$ gives $P = (V/R)V = V^2/R$. Similarly, substituting $V = IR$ gives $P = I(IR) = I^2R$. Three expressions for electric power are listed together here for convenience:

$$P = IV \tag{20.28}$$

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R} \tag{20.29}$$

$$P = I^2R. \tag{20.30}$$

Note that the first equation is always valid, whereas the other two can be used only for resistors. In a simple circuit, with one voltage source and a single resistor, the power supplied by the voltage source and that dissipated by the resistor are identical. (In more complicated circuits, P can be the power dissipated by a single device and not the total power in the circuit.)

Different insights can be gained from the three different expressions for electric power. For example, $P = V^2/R$ implies that the lower the resistance connected to a given voltage source, the greater the power delivered. Furthermore, since voltage is squared in $P = V^2/R$, the effect of applying a higher voltage is perhaps greater than expected. Thus, when the voltage is doubled to a 25-W bulb, its power nearly quadruples to about 100 W, burning it out. If the bulb's resistance remained constant, its power would be exactly 100 W, but at the higher temperature its resistance is higher, too.

Example 20.7 Calculating Power Dissipation and Current: Hot and Cold Power

(a) Consider the examples given in **Ohm's Law: Resistance and Simple Circuits** and **Resistance and Resistivity**. Then find the power dissipated by the car headlight in these examples, both when it is hot and when it is cold. (b) What current does it draw when cold?

Strategy for (a)

For the hot headlight, we know voltage and current, so we can use $P = IV$ to find the power. For the cold headlight, we know the voltage and resistance, so we can use $P = V^2 / R$ to find the power.

Solution for (a)

Entering the known values of current and voltage for the hot headlight, we obtain

$$P = IV = (2.50\text{ A})(12.0\text{ V}) = 30.0\text{ W}. \quad (20.31)$$

The cold resistance was $0.350\ \Omega$, and so the power it uses when first switched on is

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{(12.0\text{ V})^2}{0.350\ \Omega} = 411\text{ W}. \quad (20.32)$$

Discussion for (a)

The 30 W dissipated by the hot headlight is typical. But the 411 W when cold is surprisingly higher. The initial power quickly decreases as the bulb's temperature increases and its resistance increases.

Strategy and Solution for (b)

The current when the bulb is cold can be found several different ways. We rearrange one of the power equations, $P = I^2 R$, and enter known values, obtaining

$$I = \sqrt{\frac{P}{R}} = \sqrt{\frac{411\text{ W}}{0.350\ \Omega}} = 34.3\text{ A}. \quad (20.33)$$

Discussion for (b)

The cold current is remarkably higher than the steady-state value of 2.50 A, but the current will quickly decline to that value as the bulb's temperature increases. Most fuses and circuit breakers (used to limit the current in a circuit) are designed to tolerate very high currents briefly as a device comes on. In some cases, such as with electric motors, the current remains high for several seconds, necessitating special "slow blow" fuses.

The Cost of Electricity

The more electric appliances you use and the longer they are left on, the higher your electric bill. This familiar fact is based on the relationship between energy and power. You pay for the energy used. Since $P = E / t$, we see that

$$E = Pt \quad (20.34)$$

is the energy used by a device using power P for a time interval t . For example, the more lightbulbs burning, the greater P used; the longer they are on, the greater t is. The energy unit on electric bills is the kilowatt-hour ($\text{kW} \cdot \text{h}$), consistent with the relationship $E = Pt$. It is easy to estimate the cost of operating electric appliances if you have some idea of their power consumption rate in watts or kilowatts, the time they are on in hours, and the cost per kilowatt-hour for your electric utility. Kilowatt-hours, like all other specialized energy units such as food calories, can be converted to joules. You can prove to yourself that $1\text{ kW} \cdot \text{h} = 3.6 \times 10^6\text{ J}$.

The electrical energy (E) used can be reduced either by reducing the time of use or by reducing the power consumption of that appliance or fixture. This will not only reduce the cost, but it will also result in a reduced impact on the environment. Improvements to lighting are some of the fastest ways to reduce the electrical energy used in a home or business. About 20% of a home's use of energy goes to lighting, while the number for commercial establishments is closer to 40%. Fluorescent lights are about four times more efficient than incandescent lights—this is true for both the long tubes and the compact fluorescent lights (CFL). (See **Figure 20.15**(b).) Thus, a 60-W incandescent bulb can be replaced by a 15-W CFL, which has the same brightness and color. CFLs have a bent tube inside a globe or a spiral-shaped tube, all connected to a standard screw-in base that fits standard incandescent light sockets. (Original problems with color, flicker, shape, and high initial investment for CFLs have been addressed in recent years.) The heat transfer from these CFLs is less, and they last up to 10 times longer. The significance of an investment in such bulbs is addressed in the next example. New white LED lights (which are clusters of small LED bulbs) are even more efficient (twice that of CFLs) and last 5 times longer than CFLs. However, their cost is still high.

Making Connections: Energy, Power, and Time

The relationship $E = Pt$ is one that you will find useful in many different contexts. The energy your body uses in exercise is related to the power level and duration of your activity, for example. The amount of heating by a power source is related to the power level and time it is applied. Even the radiation dose of an X-ray image is related to the power and time of exposure.

Example 20.8 Calculating the Cost Effectiveness of Compact Fluorescent Lights (CFL)

If the cost of electricity in your area is 12 cents per kWh, what is the total cost (capital plus operation) of using a 60-W incandescent bulb for 1000 hours (the lifetime of that bulb) if the bulb cost 25 cents? (b) If we replace this bulb with a compact fluorescent light that provides the same light output, but at one-quarter the wattage, and which costs $1.50 but lasts 10 times longer (10,000 hours), what will that total cost be?

Strategy

To find the operating cost, we first find the energy used in kilowatt-hours and then multiply by the cost per kilowatt-hour.

Solution for (a)

The energy used in kilowatt-hours is found by entering the power and time into the expression for energy:

$$E = Pt = (60\text{ W})(1000\text{ h}) = 60{,}000\text{ W}\cdot\text{h}. \tag{20.35}$$

In kilowatt-hours, this is

$$E = 60.0\text{ kW}\cdot\text{h}. \tag{20.36}$$

Now the electricity cost is

$$\text{cost} = (60.0\text{ kW}\cdot\text{h})(\$0.12/\text{kW}\cdot\text{h}) = \$7.20. \tag{20.37}$$

The total cost will be $7.20 for 1000 hours (about one-half year at 5 hours per day).

Solution for (b)

Since the CFL uses only 15 W and not 60 W, the electricity cost will be $7.20/4 = $1.80. The CFL will last 10 times longer than the incandescent, so that the investment cost will be 1/10 of the bulb cost for that time period of use, or 0.1($1.50) = $0.15. Therefore, the total cost will be $1.95 for 1000 hours.

Discussion

Therefore, it is much cheaper to use the CFLs, even though the initial investment is higher. The increased cost of labor that a business must include for replacing the incandescent bulbs more often has not been figured in here.

Making Connections: Take-Home Experiment—Electrical Energy Use Inventory

1) Make a list of the power ratings on a range of appliances in your home or room. Explain why something like a toaster has a higher rating than a digital clock. Estimate the energy consumed by these appliances in an average day (by estimating their time of use). Some appliances might only state the operating current. If the household voltage is 120 V, then use $P = IV$. 2) Check out the total wattage used in the rest rooms of your school's floor or building. (You might need to assume the long fluorescent lights in use are rated at 32 W.) Suppose that the building was closed all weekend and that these lights were left on from 6 p.m. Friday until 8 a.m. Monday. What would this oversight cost? How about for an entire year of weekends?

20.5 Alternating Current versus Direct Current

Alternating Current

Most of the examples dealt with so far, and particularly those utilizing batteries, have constant voltage sources. Once the current is established, it is thus also a constant. **Direct current** (DC) is the flow of electric charge in only one direction. It is the steady state of a constant-voltage circuit. Most well-known applications, however, use a time-varying voltage source. **Alternating current** (AC) is the flow of electric charge that periodically reverses direction. If the source varies periodically, particularly sinusoidally, the circuit is known as an alternating current circuit. Examples include the commercial and residential power that serves so many of our needs. **Figure 20.16** shows graphs of voltage and current versus time for typical DC and AC power. The AC voltages and frequencies commonly used in homes and businesses vary around the world.

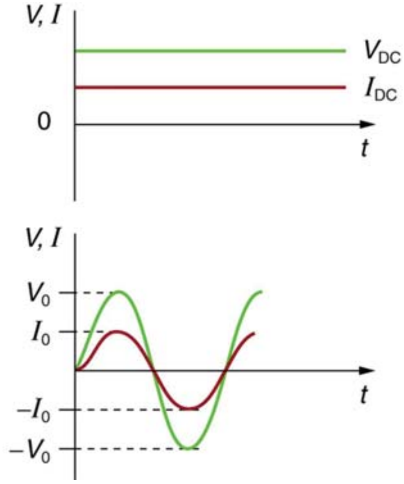

Figure 20.16 (a) DC voltage and current are constant in time, once the current is established. (b) A graph of voltage and current versus time for 60-Hz AC power. The voltage and current are sinusoidal and are in phase for a simple resistance circuit. The frequencies and peak voltages of AC sources differ greatly.

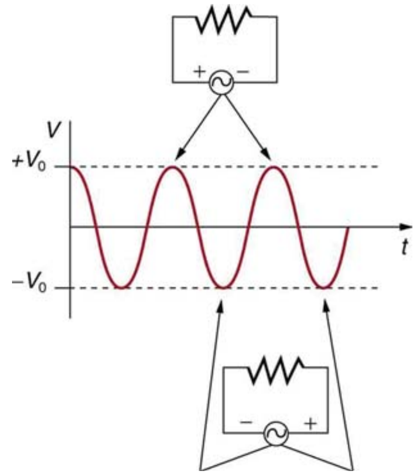

Figure 20.17 The potential difference V between the terminals of an AC voltage source fluctuates as shown. The mathematical expression for V is given by $V = V_0 \sin 2\pi ft$.

Figure 20.17 shows a schematic of a simple circuit with an AC voltage source. The voltage between the terminals fluctuates as shown, with the **AC voltage** given by

$$V = V_0 \sin 2\pi ft, \tag{20.38}$$

where V is the voltage at time t , V_0 is the peak voltage, and f is the frequency in hertz. For this simple resistance circuit, $I = V/R$, and so the **AC current** is

$$I = I_0 \sin 2\pi ft, \tag{20.39}$$

where I is the current at time t , and $I_0 = V_0/R$ is the peak current. For this example, the voltage and current are said to be in phase, as seen in **Figure 20.16**(b).

Current in the resistor alternates back and forth just like the driving voltage, since $I = V/R$. If the resistor is a fluorescent light bulb, for example, it brightens and dims 120 times per second as the current repeatedly goes through zero. A 120-Hz flicker is too rapid for your eyes to detect, but if you wave your hand back and forth between your face and a fluorescent light, you will see a stroboscopic effect evidencing AC. The fact that the light output fluctuates means that the power is fluctuating. The power supplied is $P = IV$. Using the expressions for I and V above, we see that the time dependence of power is $P = I_0 V_0 \sin^2 2\pi ft$, as shown in **Figure 20.18**.

Making Connections: Take-Home Experiment—AC/DC Lights

Wave your hand back and forth between your face and a fluorescent light bulb. Do you observe the same thing with the headlights on your car? Explain what you observe. *Warning: Do not look directly at very bright light*.

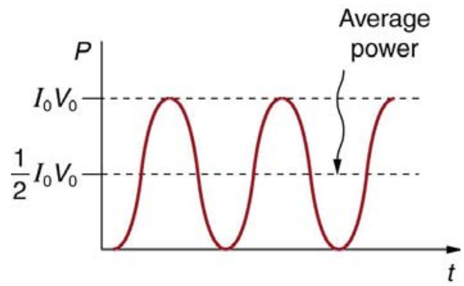

Figure 20.18 AC power as a function of time. Since the voltage and current are in phase here, their product is non-negative and fluctuates between zero and I_0V_0. Average power is $(1/2)I_0V_0$.

We are most often concerned with average power rather than its fluctuations—that 60-W light bulb in your desk lamp has an average power consumption of 60 W, for example. As illustrated in **Figure 20.18**, the average power P_{ave} is

$$P_{\text{ave}} = \frac{1}{2}I_0V_0. \tag{20.40}$$

This is evident from the graph, since the areas above and below the $(1/2)I_0V_0$ line are equal, but it can also be proven using trigonometric identities. Similarly, we define an average or **rms current** I_{rms} and average or **rms voltage** V_{rms} to be, respectively,

$$I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{20.41}$$

and

$$V_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}}. \tag{20.42}$$

where rms stands for root mean square, a particular kind of average. In general, to obtain a root mean square, the particular quantity is squared, its mean (or average) is found, and the square root is taken. This is useful for AC, since the average value is zero. Now,

$$P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}}V_{\text{rms}}, \tag{20.43}$$

which gives

$$P_{\text{ave}} = \frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2}I_0V_0, \tag{20.44}$$

as stated above. It is standard practice to quote I_{rms}, V_{rms}, and P_{ave} rather than the peak values. For example, most household electricity is 120 V AC, which means that V_{rms} is 120 V. The common 10-A circuit breaker will interrupt a sustained I_{rms} greater than 10 A. Your 1.0-kW microwave oven consumes $P_{\text{ave}} = 1.0\text{ kW}$, and so on. You can think of these rms and average values as the equivalent DC values for a simple resistive circuit.

To summarize, when dealing with AC, Ohm's law and the equations for power are completely analogous to those for DC, but rms and average values are used for AC. Thus, for AC, Ohm's law is written

$$I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}}{R}. \tag{20.45}$$

The various expressions for AC power P_{ave} are

$$P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}}V_{\text{rms}}, \tag{20.46}$$

$$P_{\text{ave}} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}^2}{R}, \tag{20.47}$$

and

$$P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}}^2R. \tag{20.48}$$

Example 20.9 Peak Voltage and Power for AC

(a) What is the value of the peak voltage for 120-V AC power? (b) What is the peak power consumption rate of a 60.0-W AC light bulb?

Strategy

We are told that V_{rms} is 120 V and P_{ave} is 60.0 W. We can use $V_{rms} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}}$ to find the peak voltage, and we can manipulate the definition of power to find the peak power from the given average power.

Solution for (a)

Solving the equation $V_{rms} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}}$ for the peak voltage V_0 and substituting the known value for V_{rms} gives

$$V_0 = \sqrt{2}V_{rms} = 1.414(120\text{ V}) = 170\text{ V}. \tag{20.49}$$

Discussion for (a)

This means that the AC voltage swings from 170 V to -170 V and back 60 times every second. An equivalent DC voltage is a constant 120 V.

Solution for (b)

Peak power is peak current times peak voltage. Thus,

$$P_0 = I_0V_0 = 2\left(\frac{1}{2}I_0\,V_0\right) = 2P_{ave}. \tag{20.50}$$

We know the average power is 60.0 W, and so

$$P_0 = 2(60.0\text{ W}) = 120\text{ W}. \tag{20.51}$$

Discussion

So the power swings from zero to 120 W one hundred twenty times per second (twice each cycle), and the power averages 60 W.

Why Use AC for Power Distribution?

Most large power-distribution systems are AC. Moreover, the power is transmitted at much higher voltages than the 120-V AC (240 V in most parts of the world) we use in homes and on the job. Economies of scale make it cheaper to build a few very large electric power-generation plants than to build numerous small ones. This necessitates sending power long distances, and it is obviously important that energy losses en route be minimized. High voltages can be transmitted with much smaller power losses than low voltages, as we shall see. (See **Figure 20.19**.) For safety reasons, the voltage at the user is reduced to familiar values. The crucial factor is that it is much easier to increase and decrease AC voltages than DC, so AC is used in most large power distribution systems.

Figure 20.19 Power is distributed over large distances at high voltage to reduce power loss in the transmission lines. The voltages generated at the power plant are stepped up by passive devices called transformers (see **Transformers**) to 330,000 volts (or more in some places worldwide). At the point of use, the transformers reduce the voltage transmitted for safe residential and commercial use. (Credit: GeorgHH, Wikimedia Commons)

Example 20.10 Power Losses Are Less for High-Voltage Transmission

(a) What current is needed to transmit 100 MW of power at 200 kV? (b) What is the power dissipated by the transmission lines if they have a resistance of $1.00\ \Omega$? (c) What percentage of the power is lost in the transmission lines?

Strategy

We are given $P_{\text{ave}} = 100 \text{ MW}$, $V_{\text{rms}} = 200 \text{ kV}$, and the resistance of the lines is $R = 1.00 \ \Omega$. Using these givens, we can find the current flowing (from $P = IV$) and then the power dissipated in the lines ($P = I^2R$), and we take the ratio to the total power transmitted.

Solution

To find the current, we rearrange the relationship $P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}}V_{\text{rms}}$ and substitute known values. This gives

$$I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{P_{\text{ave}}}{V_{\text{rms}}} = \frac{100\times10^6 \text{ W}}{200\times10^3 \text{ V}} = 500 \text{ A}. \tag{20.52}$$

Solution

Knowing the current and given the resistance of the lines, the power dissipated in them is found from $P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}}^2 R$. Substituting the known values gives

$$P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}}^2 R = (500 \text{ A})^2 (1.00 \ \Omega) = 250 \text{ kW}. \tag{20.53}$$

Solution

The percent loss is the ratio of this lost power to the total or input power, multiplied by 100:

$$\% \text{ loss} = \frac{250 \text{ kW}}{100 \text{ MW}} \times 100 = 0.250 \ \%. \tag{20.54}$$

Discussion

One-fourth of a percent is an acceptable loss. Note that if 100 MW of power had been transmitted at 25 kV, then a current of 4000 A would have been needed. This would result in a power loss in the lines of 16.0 MW, or 16.0% rather than 0.250%. The lower the voltage, the more current is needed, and the greater the power loss in the fixed-resistance transmission lines. Of course, lower-resistance lines can be built, but this requires larger and more expensive wires. If superconducting lines could be economically produced, there would be no loss in the transmission lines at all. But, as we shall see in a later chapter, there is a limit to current in superconductors, too. In short, high voltages are more economical for transmitting power, and AC voltage is much easier to raise and lower, so that AC is used in most large-scale power distribution systems.

It is widely recognized that high voltages pose greater hazards than low voltages. But, in fact, some high voltages, such as those associated with common static electricity, can be harmless. So it is not voltage alone that determines a hazard. It is not so widely recognized that AC shocks are often more harmful than similar DC shocks. Thomas Edison thought that AC shocks were more harmful and set up a DC power-distribution system in New York City in the late 1800s. There were bitter fights, in particular between Edison and George Westinghouse and Nikola Tesla, who were advocating the use of AC in early power-distribution systems. AC has prevailed largely due to transformers and lower power losses with high-voltage transmission.

PhET Explorations: Generator

Generate electricity with a bar magnet! Discover the physics behind the phenomena by exploring magnets and how you can use them to make a bulb light.

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Figure 20.20

20.6 Electric Hazards and the Human Body

There are two known hazards of electricity—thermal and shock. A **thermal hazard** is one where excessive electric power causes undesired thermal effects, such as starting a fire in the wall of a house. A **shock hazard** occurs when electric current passes through a person. Shocks range in severity from painful, but otherwise harmless, to heart-stopping lethality. This section considers these hazards and the various factors affecting them in a quantitative manner. **Electrical Safety: Systems and Devices** will consider systems and devices for preventing electrical hazards.

Thermal Hazards

Electric power causes undesired heating effects whenever electric energy is converted to thermal energy at a rate faster than it can be safely dissipated. A classic example of this is the **short circuit**, a low-resistance path between terminals of a voltage source. An example of a short circuit is shown in **Figure 20.21**. Insulation on wires leading to an appliance has worn through, allowing the two wires to come into contact. Such an undesired contact with a high voltage is called a *short*. Since the resistance of the short, r, is very small, the power dissipated in the short, $P = V^2 / r$, is very large. For example, if V is 120 V and r is $0.100 \ \Omega$, then the power is 144 kW, *much* greater than that used by a typical household appliance. Thermal energy delivered at this rate will very quickly raise the temperature of surrounding materials, melting or perhaps igniting them.

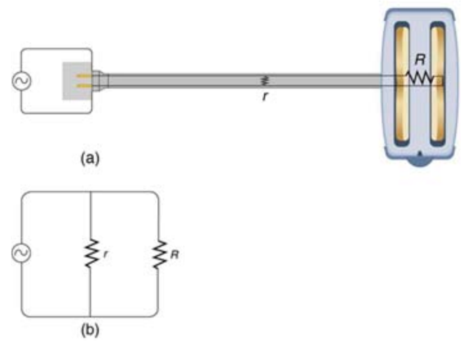

Figure 20.21 A short circuit is an undesired low-resistance path across a voltage source. (a) Worn insulation on the wires of a toaster allow them to come into contact with a low resistance r . Since $P=V^2/r$, thermal power is created so rapidly that the cord melts or burns. (b) A schematic of the short circuit.

One particularly insidious aspect of a short circuit is that its resistance may actually be decreased due to the increase in temperature. This can happen if the short creates ionization. These charged atoms and molecules are free to move and, thus, lower the resistance r . Since $P=V^2/r$, the power dissipated in the short rises, possibly causing more ionization, more power, and so on. High voltages, such as the 480-V AC used in some industrial applications, lend themselves to this hazard, because higher voltages create higher initial power production in a short.

Another serious, but less dramatic, thermal hazard occurs when wires supplying power to a user are overloaded with too great a current. As discussed in the previous section, the power dissipated in the supply wires is $P=I^2R_\text{w}$, where R_w is the resistance of the wires and I the current flowing through them. If either I or R_w is too large, the wires overheat. For example, a worn appliance cord (with some of its braided wires broken) may have $R_\text{w}=2.00\ \Omega$ rather than the $0.100\ \Omega$ it should be. If 10.0 A of current passes through the cord, then $P=I^2R_\text{w}=200\text{ W}$ is dissipated in the cord—much more than is safe. Similarly, if a wire with a $0.100\text{-}\ \Omega$ resistance is meant to carry a few amps, but is instead carrying 100 A, it will severely overheat. The power dissipated in the wire will in that case be $P=1000\text{ W}$. Fuses and circuit breakers are used to limit excessive currents. (See **Figure 20.22** and **Figure 20.23**.) Each device opens the circuit automatically when a sustained current exceeds safe limits.

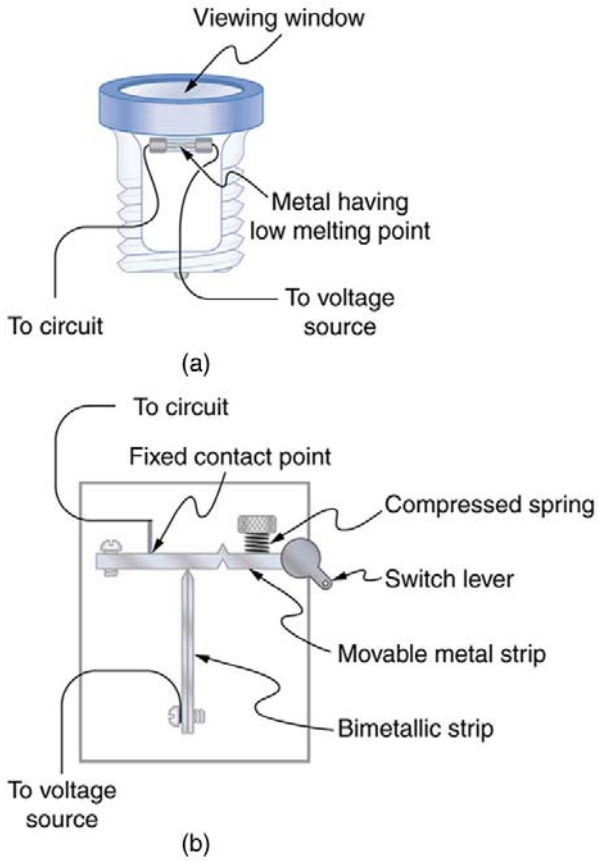

Figure 20.22 (a) A fuse has a metal strip with a low melting point that, when overheated by an excessive current, permanently breaks the connection of a circuit to a voltage source. (b) A circuit breaker is an automatic but restorable electric switch. The one shown here has a bimetallic strip that bends to the right and into the notch if overheated. The spring then forces the metal strip downward, breaking the electrical connection at the points.

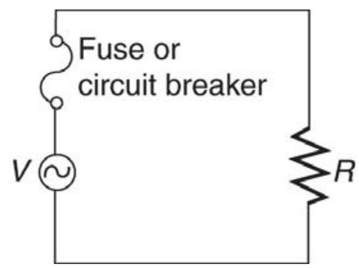

Figure 20.23 Schematic of a circuit with a fuse or circuit breaker in it. Fuses and circuit breakers act like automatic switches that open when sustained current exceeds desired limits.

Fuses and circuit breakers for typical household voltages and currents are relatively simple to produce, but those for large voltages and currents experience special problems. For example, when a circuit breaker tries to interrupt the flow of high-voltage electricity, a spark can jump across its points that ionizes the air in the gap and allows the current to continue flowing. Large circuit breakers found in power-distribution systems employ insulating gas and even use jets of gas to blow out such sparks. Here AC is safer than DC, since AC current goes through zero 120 times per second, giving a quick opportunity to extinguish these arcs.

Shock Hazards

Electrical currents through people produce tremendously varied effects. An electrical current can be used to block back pain. The possibility of using electrical current to stimulate muscle action in paralyzed limbs, perhaps allowing paraplegics to walk, is under study. TV dramatizations in which electrical shocks are used to bring a heart attack victim out of ventricular fibrillation (a massively irregular, often fatal, beating of the heart) are more than common. Yet most electrical shock fatalities occur because a current put the heart into fibrillation. A pacemaker uses electrical shocks to stimulate the heart to beat properly. Some fatal shocks do not produce burns, but warts can be safely burned off with electric current (though freezing using liquid nitrogen is now more common). Of course, there are consistent explanations for these disparate effects. The major factors upon which the effects of electrical shock depend are

1. The amount of current I
2. The path taken by the current

3. The duration of the shock
4. The frequency f of the current ($f = 0$ for DC)

Table 20.3 gives the effects of electrical shocks as a function of current for a typical accidental shock. The effects are for a shock that passes through the trunk of the body, has a duration of 1 s, and is caused by 60-Hz power.

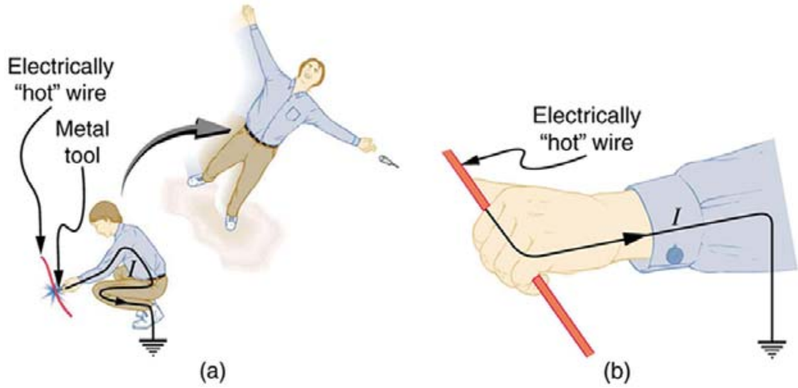

Figure 20.24 An electric current can cause muscular contractions with varying effects. (a) The victim is "thrown" backward by involuntary muscle contractions that extend the legs and torso. (b) The victim can't let go of the wire that is stimulating all the muscles in the hand. Those that close the fingers are stronger than those that open them.

Table 20.3 Effects of Electrical Shock as a Function of Current[3]

Current (mA)	Effect
1	Threshold of sensation
5	Maximum harmless current
10–20	Onset of sustained muscular contraction; cannot let go for duration of shock; contraction of chest muscles may stop breathing during shock
50	Onset of pain
100–300+	Ventricular fibrillation possible; often fatal
300	Onset of burns depending on concentration of current
6000 (6 A)	Onset of sustained ventricular contraction and respiratory paralysis; both cease when shock ends; heartbeat may return to normal; used to defibrillate the heart

Our bodies are relatively good conductors due to the water in our bodies. Given that larger currents will flow through sections with lower resistance (to be further discussed in the next chapter), electric currents preferentially flow through paths in the human body that have a minimum resistance in a direct path to earth. The earth is a natural electron sink. Wearing insulating shoes, a requirement in many professions, prohibits a pathway for electrons by providing a large resistance in that path. Whenever working with high-power tools (drills), or in risky situations, ensure that you do not provide a pathway for current flow (especially through the heart).

Very small currents pass harmlessly and unfelt through the body. This happens to you regularly without your knowledge. The threshold of sensation is only 1 mA and, although unpleasant, shocks are apparently harmless for currents less than 5 mA. A great number of safety rules take the 5-mA value for the maximum allowed shock. At 10 to 20 mA and above, the current can stimulate sustained muscular contractions much as regular nerve impulses do. People sometimes say they were knocked across the room by a shock, but what really happened was that certain muscles contracted, propelling them in a manner not of their own choosing. (See **Figure 20.24**(a).) More frightening, and potentially more dangerous, is the "can't let go" effect illustrated in **Figure 20.24**(b). The muscles that close the fingers are stronger than those that open them, so the hand closes involuntarily on the wire shocking it. This can prolong the shock indefinitely. It can also be a danger to a person trying to rescue the victim, because the rescuer's hand may close about the victim's wrist. Usually the best way to help the victim is to give the fist a hard knock/blow/jar with an insulator or to throw an insulator at the fist. Modern electric fences, used in animal enclosures, are now pulsed on and off to allow people who touch them to get free, rendering them less lethal than in the past.

Greater currents may affect the heart. Its electrical patterns can be disrupted, so that it beats irregularly and ineffectively in a condition called "ventricular fibrillation." This condition often lingers after the shock and is fatal due to a lack of blood circulation. The threshold for ventricular fibrillation is between 100 and 300 mA. At about 300 mA and above, the shock can cause burns, depending on the concentration of current—the more concentrated, the greater the likelihood of burns.

Very large currents cause the heart and diaphragm to contract for the duration of the shock. Both the heart and breathing stop. Interestingly, both often return to normal following the shock. The electrical patterns on the heart are completely erased in a

3. For an average male shocked through trunk of body for 1 s by 60-Hz AC. Values for females are 60–80% of those listed.

manner that the heart can start afresh with normal beating, as opposed to the permanent disruption caused by smaller currents that can put the heart into ventricular fibrillation. The latter is something like scribbling on a blackboard, whereas the former completely erases it. TV dramatizations of electric shock used to bring a heart attack victim out of ventricular fibrillation also show large paddles. These are used to spread out current passed through the victim to reduce the likelihood of burns.

Current is the major factor determining shock severity (given that other conditions such as path, duration, and frequency are fixed, such as in the table and preceding discussion). A larger voltage is more hazardous, but since $I = V/R$, the severity of the shock depends on the combination of voltage and resistance. For example, a person with dry skin has a resistance of about $200\text{ k }\Omega$. If he comes into contact with 120-V AC, a current $I = (120\text{ V}) / (200\text{ k }\Omega) = 0.6\text{ mA}$ passes harmlessly through him. The same person soaking wet may have a resistance of $10.0\text{ k }\Omega$ and the same 120 V will produce a current of 12 mA—above the “can’t let go” threshold and potentially dangerous.

Most of the body’s resistance is in its dry skin. When wet, salts go into ion form, lowering the resistance significantly. The interior of the body has a much lower resistance than dry skin because of all the ionic solutions and fluids it contains. If skin resistance is bypassed, such as by an intravenous infusion, a catheter, or exposed pacemaker leads, a person is rendered **microshock sensitive**. In this condition, currents about 1/1000 those listed in **Table 20.3** produce similar effects. During open-heart surgery, currents as small as $20\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ can be used to still the heart. Stringent electrical safety requirements in hospitals, particularly in surgery and intensive care, are related to the doubly disadvantaged microshock-sensitive patient. The break in the skin has reduced his resistance, and so the same voltage causes a greater current, and a much smaller current has a greater effect.

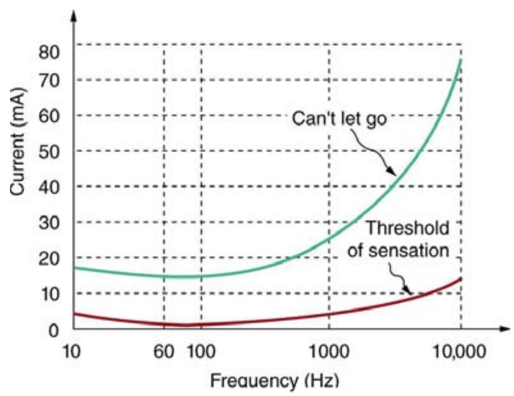

Figure 20.25 Graph of average values for the threshold of sensation and the “can’t let go” current as a function of frequency. The lower the value, the more sensitive the body is at that frequency.

Factors other than current that affect the severity of a shock are its path, duration, and AC frequency. Path has obvious consequences. For example, the heart is unaffected by an electric shock through the brain, such as may be used to treat manic depression. And it is a general truth that the longer the duration of a shock, the greater its effects. **Figure 20.25** presents a graph that illustrates the effects of frequency on a shock. The curves show the minimum current for two different effects, as a function of frequency. The lower the current needed, the more sensitive the body is at that frequency. Ironically, the body is most sensitive to frequencies near the 50- or 60-Hz frequencies in common use. The body is slightly less sensitive for DC ($f = 0$), mildly confirming Edison’s claims that AC presents a greater hazard. At higher and higher frequencies, the body becomes progressively less sensitive to any effects that involve nerves. This is related to the maximum rates at which nerves can fire or be stimulated. At very high frequencies, electrical current travels only on the surface of a person. Thus a wart can be burned off with very high frequency current without causing the heart to stop. (Do not try this at home with 60-Hz AC!) Some of the spectacular demonstrations of electricity, in which high-voltage arcs are passed through the air and over people’s bodies, employ high frequencies and low currents. (See **Figure 20.26**.) Electrical safety devices and techniques are discussed in detail in **Electrical Safety: Systems and Devices**.

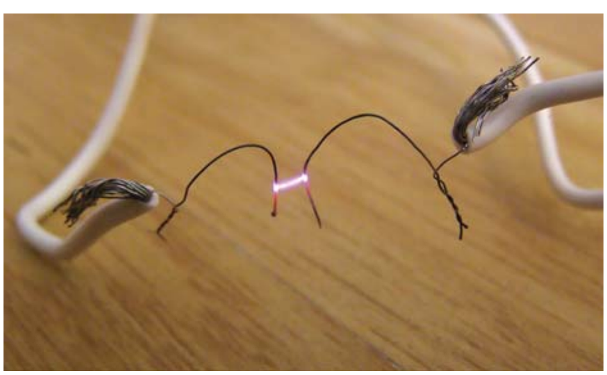

Figure 20.26 Is this electric arc dangerous? The answer depends on the AC frequency and the power involved. (credit: Khimich Alex, Wikimedia Commons)

20.7 Nerve Conduction–Electrocardiograms

Nerve Conduction

Electric currents in the vastly complex system of billions of nerves in our body allow us to sense the world, control parts of our body, and think. These are representative of the three major functions of nerves. First, nerves carry messages from our sensory organs and others to the central nervous system, consisting of the brain and spinal cord. Second, nerves carry messages from the central nervous system to muscles and other organs. Third, nerves transmit and process signals within the central nervous system. The sheer number of nerve cells and the incredibly greater number of connections between them makes this system the subtle wonder that it is. **Nerve conduction** is a general term for electrical signals carried by nerve cells. It is one aspect of **bioelectricity**, or electrical effects in and created by biological systems.

Nerve cells, properly called *neurons*, look different from other cells—they have tendrils, some of them many centimeters long, connecting them with other cells. (See **Figure 20.27**.) Signals arrive at the cell body across *synapses* or through *dendrites*, stimulating the neuron to generate its own signal, sent along its long *axon* to other nerve or muscle cells. Signals may arrive from many other locations and be transmitted to yet others, conditioning the synapses by use, giving the system its complexity and its ability to learn.

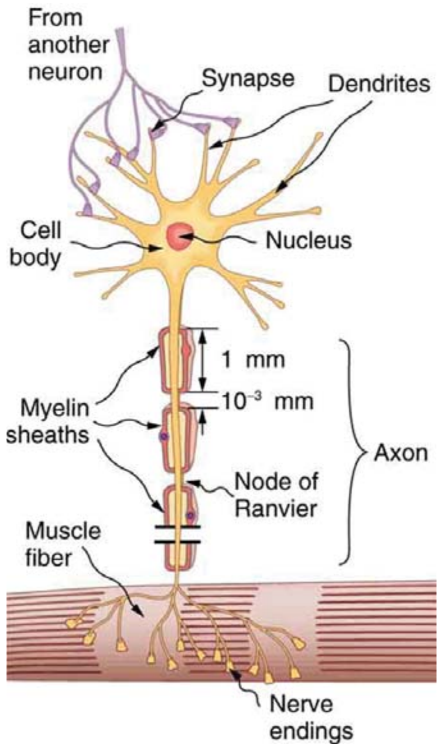

Figure 20.27 A neuron with its dendrites and long axon. Signals in the form of electric currents reach the cell body through dendrites and across synapses, stimulating the neuron to generate its own signal sent down the axon. The number of interconnections can be far greater than shown here.

The method by which these electric currents are generated and transmitted is more complex than the simple movement of free charges in a conductor, but it can be understood with principles already discussed in this text. The most important of these are the Coulomb force and diffusion.

Figure 20.28 illustrates how a voltage (potential difference) is created across the cell membrane of a neuron in its resting state. This thin membrane separates electrically neutral fluids having differing concentrations of ions, the most important varieties being Na^+, K^+, and Cl^- (these are sodium, potassium, and chlorine ions with single plus or minus charges as indicated). As discussed in **Molecular Transport Phenomena: Diffusion, Osmosis, and Related Processes**, free ions will diffuse from a region of high concentration to one of low concentration. But the cell membrane is **semipermeable**, meaning that some ions may cross it while others cannot. In its resting state, the cell membrane is permeable to K^+ and Cl^-, and impermeable to Na^+. Diffusion of K^+ and Cl^- thus creates the layers of positive and negative charge on the outside and inside of the membrane. The Coulomb force prevents the ions from diffusing across in their entirety. Once the charge layer has built up, the repulsion of like charges prevents more from moving across, and the attraction of unlike charges prevents more from leaving either side. The result is two layers of charge right on the membrane, with diffusion being balanced by the Coulomb force. A tiny fraction of the charges move across and the fluids remain neutral (other ions are present), while a separation of charge and a voltage have been created across the membrane.

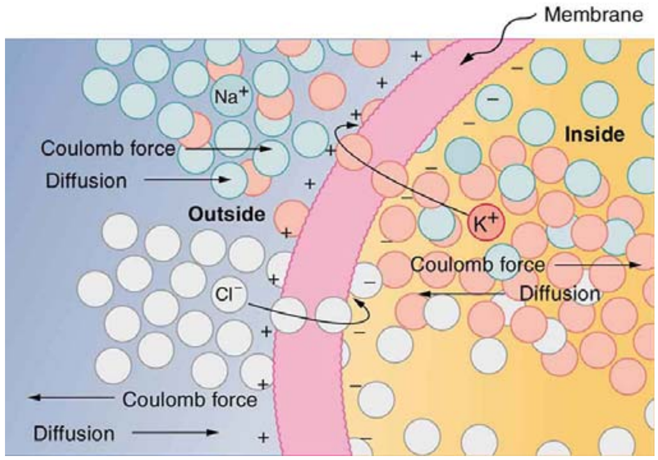

Figure 20.28 The semipermeable membrane of a cell has different concentrations of ions inside and out. Diffusion moves the K^+ and Cl^- ions in the direction shown, until the Coulomb force halts further transfer. This results in a layer of positive charge on the outside, a layer of negative charge on the inside, and thus a voltage across the cell membrane. The membrane is normally impermeable to Na^+ .

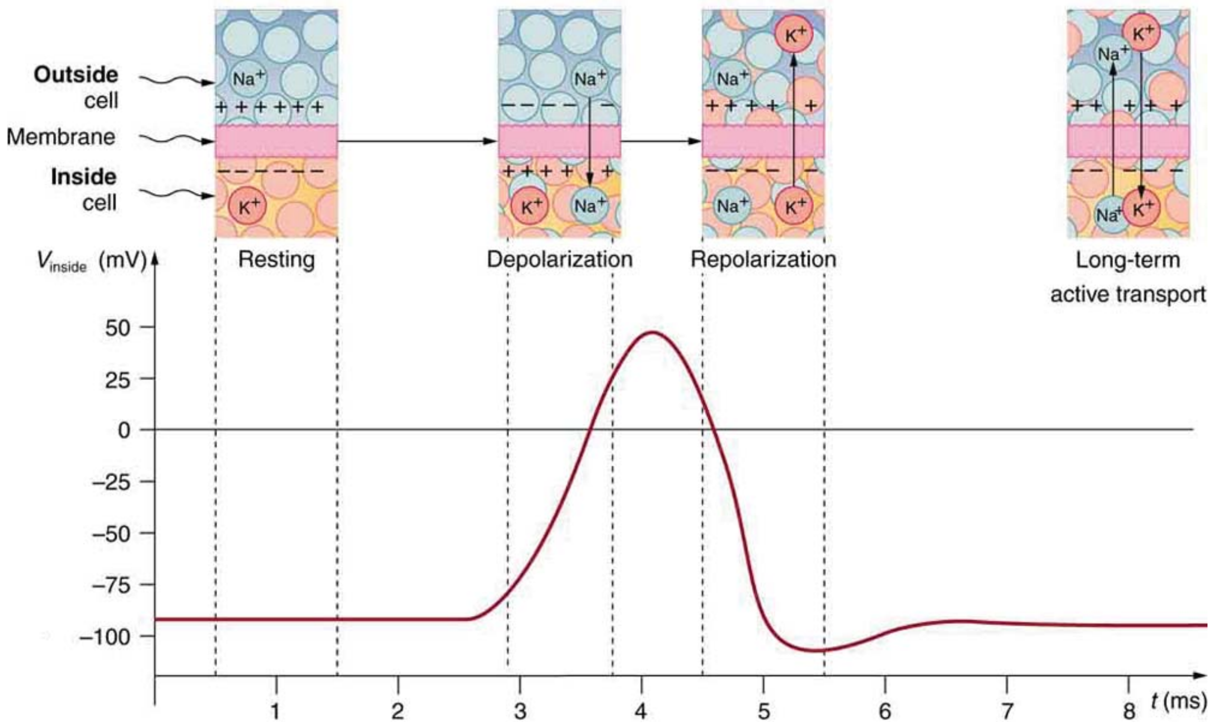

Figure 20.29 An action potential is the pulse of voltage inside a nerve cell graphed here. It is caused by movements of ions across the cell membrane as shown. Depolarization occurs when a stimulus makes the membrane permeable to Na^+ ions. Repolarization follows as the membrane again becomes impermeable to $Na^+,$ and K^+ moves from high to low concentration. In the long term, active transport slowly maintains the concentration differences, but the cell may fire hundreds of times in rapid succession without seriously depleting them.

The separation of charge creates a potential difference of 70 to 90 mV across the cell membrane. While this is a small voltage, the resulting electric field ($E = V / d$) across the only 8-nm-thick membrane is immense (on the order of 11 MV/m!) and has fundamental effects on its structure and permeability. Now, if the exterior of a neuron is taken to be at 0 V, then the interior has a *resting potential* of about –90 mV. Such voltages are created across the membranes of almost all types of animal cells but are largest in nerve and muscle cells. In fact, fully 25% of the energy used by cells goes toward creating and maintaining these potentials.

Electric currents along the cell membrane are created by any stimulus that changes the membrane's permeability. The membrane thus temporarily becomes permeable to Na^+ , which then rushes in, driven both by diffusion and the Coulomb force. This inrush of Na^+ first neutralizes the inside membrane, or *depolarizes* it, and then makes it slightly positive. The depolarization causes the membrane to again become impermeable to Na^+ , and the movement of K^+ quickly returns the cell to its resting potential, or *repolarizes* it. This sequence of events results in a voltage pulse, called the *action potential*. (See **Figure 20.29**.) Only small fractions of the ions move, so that the cell can fire many hundreds of times without depleting the excess concentrations of Na^+ and K^+. Eventually, the cell must replenish these ions to maintain the concentration differences that create bioelectricity. This sodium-potassium pump is an example of *active transport*, wherein cell energy is used to move ions across membranes against diffusion gradients and the Coulomb force.

The action potential is a voltage pulse at one location on a cell membrane. How does it get transmitted along the cell membrane, and in particular down an axon, as a nerve impulse? The answer is that the changing voltage and electric fields affect the permeability of the adjacent cell membrane, so that the same process takes place there. The adjacent membrane depolarizes, affecting the membrane further down, and so on, as illustrated in **Figure 20.30**. Thus the action potential stimulated at one location triggers a *nerve impulse* that moves slowly (about 1 m/s) along the cell membrane.

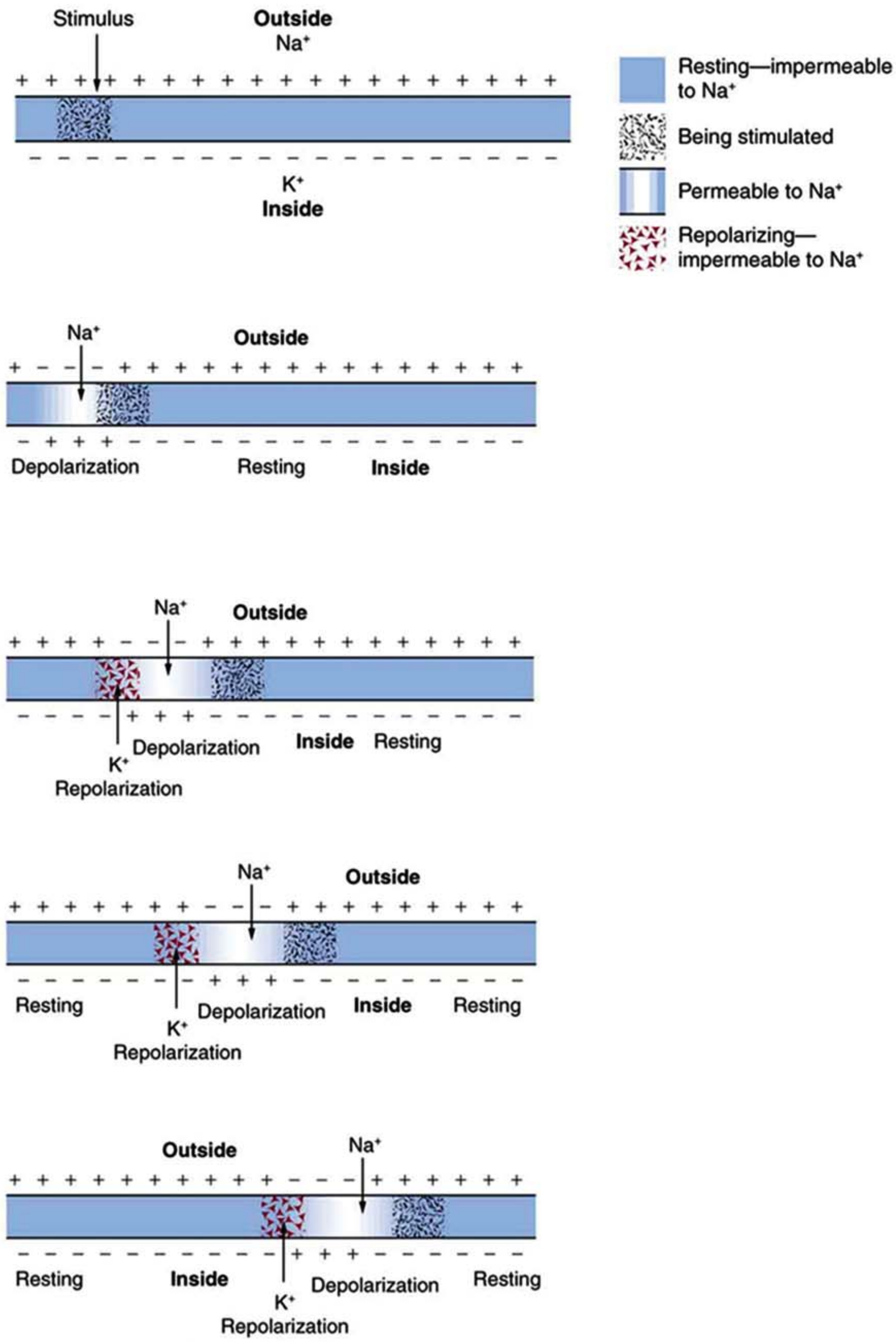

Figure 20.30 A nerve impulse is the propagation of an action potential along a cell membrane. A stimulus causes an action potential at one location, which changes the permeability of the adjacent membrane, causing an action potential there. This in turn affects the membrane further down, so that the action potential moves slowly (in electrical terms) along the cell membrane. Although the impulse is due to Na^+ and K^+ going across the membrane, it is equivalent to a wave of charge moving along the outside and inside of the membrane.

Some axons, like that in **Figure 20.27**, are sheathed with *myelin*, consisting of fat-containing cells. **Figure 20.31** shows an enlarged view of an axon having myelin sheaths characteristically separated by unmyelinated gaps (called nodes of Ranvier). This arrangement gives the axon a number of interesting properties. Since myelin is an insulator, it prevents signals from jumping between adjacent nerves (cross talk). Additionally, the myelinated regions transmit electrical signals at a very high speed, as an ordinary conductor or resistor would. There is no action potential in the myelinated regions, so that no cell energy is used in them. There is an IR signal loss in the myelin, but the signal is regenerated in the gaps, where the voltage pulse triggers the action potential at full voltage. So a myelinated axon transmits a nerve impulse faster, with less energy consumption, and is better protected from cross talk than an unmyelinated one. Not all axons are myelinated, so that cross talk and slow signal transmission are a characteristic of the normal operation of these axons, another variable in the nervous system.

The degeneration or destruction of the myelin sheaths that surround the nerve fibers impairs signal transmission and can lead to numerous neurological effects. One of the most prominent of these diseases comes from the body's own immune system attacking the myelin in the central nervous system—multiple sclerosis. MS symptoms include fatigue, vision problems, weakness of arms and legs, loss of balance, and tingling or numbness in one's extremities (neuropathy). It is more apt to strike younger adults, especially females. Causes might come from infection, environmental or geographic affects, or genetics. At the moment there is no known cure for MS.

Most animal cells can fire or create their own action potential. Muscle cells contract when they fire and are often induced to do so by a nerve impulse. In fact, nerve and muscle cells are physiologically similar, and there are even hybrid cells, such as in the heart, that have characteristics of both nerves and muscles. Some animals, like the infamous electric eel (see **Figure 20.32**), use muscles ganged so that their voltages add in order to create a shock great enough to stun prey.

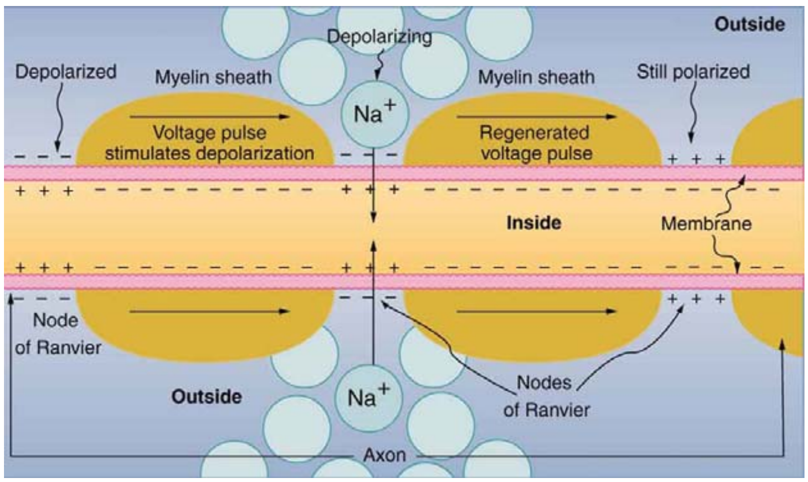

Figure 20.31 Propagation of a nerve impulse down a myelinated axon, from left to right. The signal travels very fast and without energy input in the myelinated regions, but it loses voltage. It is regenerated in the gaps. The signal moves faster than in unmyelinated axons and is insulated from signals in other nerves, limiting cross talk.

Figure 20.32 An electric eel flexes its muscles to create a voltage that stuns prey. (credit: chrisbb, Flickr)

Electrocardiograms

Just as nerve impulses are transmitted by depolarization and repolarization of adjacent membrane, the depolarization that causes muscle contraction can also stimulate adjacent muscle cells to depolarize (fire) and contract. Thus, a depolarization wave can be sent across the heart, coordinating its rhythmic contractions and enabling it to perform its vital function of propelling blood through the circulatory system. **Figure 20.33** is a simplified graphic of a depolarization wave spreading across the heart from the *sinoarterial (SA) node*, the heart's natural pacemaker.

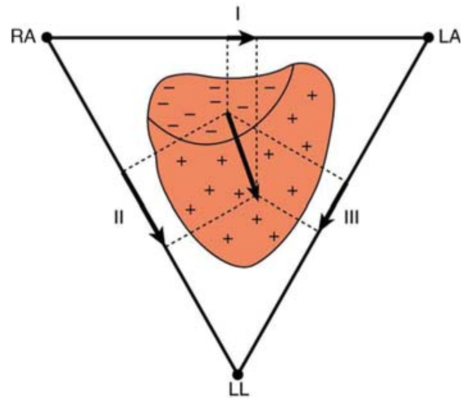

Figure 20.33 The outer surface of the heart changes from positive to negative during depolarization. This wave of depolarization is spreading from the top of the heart and is represented by a vector pointing in the direction of the wave. This vector is a voltage (potential difference) vector. Three electrodes, labeled RA, LA, and LL, are placed on the patient. Each pair (called leads I, II, and III) measures a component of the depolarization vector and is graphed in an ECG.

An **electrocardiogram (ECG)** is a record of the voltages created by the wave of depolarization and subsequent repolarization in the heart. Voltages between pairs of electrodes placed on the chest are vector components of the voltage wave on the heart. Standard ECGs have 12 or more electrodes, but only three are shown in **Figure 20.33** for clarity. Decades ago, three-electrode ECGs were performed by placing electrodes on the left and right arms and the left leg. The voltage between the right arm and the left leg is called the *lead II potential* and is the most often graphed. We shall examine the lead II potential as an indicator of heart-muscle function and see that it is coordinated with arterial blood pressure as well.

Heart function and its four-chamber action are explored in **Viscosity and Laminar Flow; Poiseuille's Law**. Basically, the right and left atria receive blood from the body and lungs, respectively, and pump the blood into the ventricles. The right and left ventricles, in turn, pump blood through the lungs and the rest of the body, respectively. Depolarization of the heart muscle causes it to contract. After contraction it is repolarized to ready it for the next beat. The ECG measures components of depolarization and repolarization of the heart muscle and can yield significant information on the functioning and malfunctioning of the heart.

Figure 20.34 shows an ECG of the lead II potential and a graph of the corresponding arterial blood pressure. The major features are labeled P, Q, R, S, and T. The *P wave* is generated by the depolarization and contraction of the atria as they pump blood into the ventricles. The *QRS complex* is created by the depolarization of the ventricles as they pump blood to the lungs and body. Since the shape of the heart and the path of the depolarization wave are not simple, the QRS complex has this typical shape and time span. The lead II QRS signal also masks the repolarization of the atria, which occur at the same time. Finally, the *T wave* is generated by the repolarization of the ventricles and is followed by the next P wave in the next heartbeat. Arterial blood pressure varies with each part of the heartbeat, with systolic (maximum) pressure occurring closely after the QRS complex, which signals contraction of the ventricles.

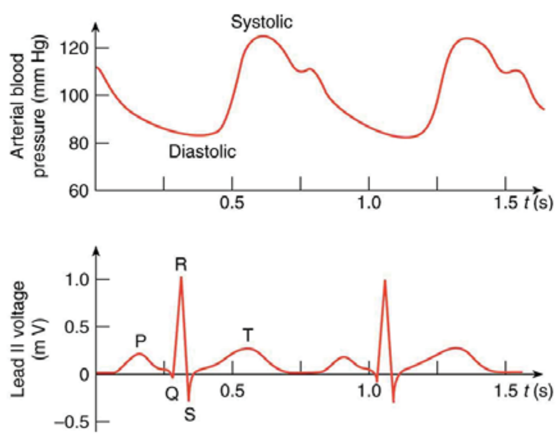

Figure 20.34 A lead II ECG with corresponding arterial blood pressure. The QRS complex is created by the depolarization and contraction of the ventricles and is followed shortly by the maximum or systolic blood pressure. See text for further description.

Taken together, the 12 leads of a state-of-the-art ECG can yield a wealth of information about the heart. For example, regions of damaged heart tissue, called infarcts, reflect electrical waves and are apparent in one or more lead potentials. Subtle changes due to slight or gradual damage to the heart are most readily detected by comparing a recent ECG to an older one. This is particularly the case since individual heart shape, size, and orientation can cause variations in ECGs from one individual to another. ECG technology has advanced to the point where a portable ECG monitor with a liquid crystal instant display and a printer can be carried to patients' homes or used in emergency vehicles. See **Figure 20.35**.

Figure 20.35 This NASA scientist and NEEMO 5 aquanaut's heart rate and other vital signs are being recorded by a portable device while living in an underwater habitat. (credit: NASA, Life Sciences Data Archive at Johnson Space Center, Houston, Texas)

PhET Explorations: Neuron

Stimulate a neuron and monitor what happens. Pause, rewind, and move forward in time in order to observe the ions as they move across the neuron membrane.

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Figure 20.36

Glossary

AC current: current that fluctuates sinusoidally with time, expressed as $I = I_0 \sin 2\pi ft$, where I is the current at time t, I_0 is the peak current, and f is the frequency in hertz

AC voltage: voltage that fluctuates sinusoidally with time, expressed as $V = V_0 \sin 2\pi ft$, where V is the voltage at time t, V_0 is the peak voltage, and f is the frequency in hertz

alternating current: (AC) the flow of electric charge that periodically reverses direction

ampere: (amp) the SI unit for current; 1 A = 1 C/s

bioelectricity: electrical effects in and created by biological systems

direct current: (DC) the flow of electric charge in only one direction

drift velocity: the average velocity at which free charges flow in response to an electric field

electric current: the rate at which charge flows, $I = \Delta Q/\Delta t$

electric power: the rate at which electrical energy is supplied by a source or dissipated by a device; it is the product of current times voltage

electrocardiogram (ECG): usually abbreviated ECG, a record of voltages created by depolarization and repolarization, especially in the heart

microshock sensitive: a condition in which a person's skin resistance is bypassed, possibly by a medical procedure, rendering the person vulnerable to electrical shock at currents about 1/1000 the normally required level

nerve conduction: the transport of electrical signals by nerve cells

ohm: the unit of resistance, given by 1Ω = 1 V/A

ohmic: a type of a material for which Ohm's law is valid

Ohm's law: an empirical relation stating that the current I is proportional to the potential difference V, $\propto V$; it is often written as $I = V/R$, where R is the resistance

resistance: the electric property that impedes current; for ohmic materials, it is the ratio of voltage to current, $R = V/I$

resistivity: an intrinsic property of a material, independent of its shape or size, directly proportional to the resistance, denoted by ρ

rms current: the root mean square of the current, $I_{\text{rms}} = I_0 / \sqrt{2}$, where I_0 is the peak current, in an AC system

rms voltage: the root mean square of the voltage, $V_{\text{rms}} = V_0 / \sqrt{2}$, where V_0 is the peak voltage, in an AC system

semipermeable: property of a membrane that allows only certain types of ions to cross it

shock hazard: when electric current passes through a person

short circuit: also known as a “short,” a low-resistance path between terminals of a voltage source

simple circuit: a circuit with a single voltage source and a single resistor

temperature coefficient of resistivity: an empirical quantity, denoted by *α*, which describes the change in resistance or resistivity of a material with temperature

thermal hazard: a hazard in which electric current causes undesired thermal effects

Section Summary

20.1 Current

- Electric current I is the rate at which charge flows, given by

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

  where ΔQ is the amount of charge passing through an area in time Δt .
- The direction of conventional current is taken as the direction in which positive charge moves.
- The SI unit for current is the ampere (A), where $1 \text{ A} = 1 \text{ C/s}.$
- Current is the flow of free charges, such as electrons and ions.
- Drift velocity v_{d} is the average speed at which these charges move.
- Current I is proportional to drift velocity v_{d} , as expressed in the relationship $I = nqAv_{\text{d}}$. Here, I is the current through a wire of cross-sectional area A . The wire's material has a free-charge density n , and each carrier has charge q and a drift velocity v_{d} .
- Electrical signals travel at speeds about 10^{12} times greater than the drift velocity of free electrons.

20.2 Ohm's Law: Resistance and Simple Circuits

- A simple circuit *is* one in which there is a single voltage source and a single resistance.
- One statement of Ohm's law gives the relationship between current I , voltage V , and resistance R in a simple circuit to be $I = \frac{V}{R}.$
- Resistance has units of ohms (Ω), related to volts and amperes by $1 \ \Omega = 1 \text{ V/A}$.
- There is a voltage or IR drop across a resistor, caused by the current flowing through it, given by $V = IR$.

20.3 Resistance and Resistivity

- The resistance R of a cylinder of length L and cross-sectional area A is $R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$, where ρ is the resistivity of the material.
- Values of ρ in **Table 20.1** show that materials fall into three groups—*conductors, semiconductors, and insulators*.
- Temperature affects resistivity; for relatively small temperature changes ΔT , resistivity is $\rho = \rho_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$, where ρ_0 is the original resistivity and α is the temperature coefficient of resistivity.
- **Table 20.2** gives values for α , the temperature coefficient of resistivity.
- The resistance R of an object also varies with temperature: $R = R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$, where R_0 is the original resistance, and R is the resistance after the temperature change.

20.4 Electric Power and Energy

- Electric power P is the rate (in watts) that energy is supplied by a source or dissipated by a device.
- Three expressions for electrical power are

$$P = IV,$$

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

  and

$$P = I^2 R.$$

- The energy used by a device with a power P over a time t is $E = Pt$.

20.5 Alternating Current versus Direct Current

- Direct current (DC) is the flow of electric current in only one direction. It refers to systems where the source voltage is constant.
- The voltage source of an alternating current (AC) system puts out $V = V_0 \sin 2\pi ft$, where V is the voltage at time t, V_0 is the peak voltage, and f is the frequency in hertz.
- In a simple circuit, $I = V/R$ and AC current is $I = I_0 \sin 2\pi ft$, where I is the current at time t, and $I_0 = V_0/R$ is the peak current.
- The average AC power is $P_{\text{ave}} = \frac{1}{2} I_0 V_0$.
- Average (rms) current I_{rms} and average (rms) voltage V_{rms} are $I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}}$ and $V_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}}$, where rms stands for root mean square.
- Thus, $P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}} V_{\text{rms}}$.
- Ohm's law for AC is $I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}}{R}$.
- Expressions for the average power of an AC circuit are $P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}} V_{\text{rms}}$, $P_{\text{ave}} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}^2}{R}$, and $P_{\text{ave}} = I_{\text{rms}}^2 R$, analogous to the expressions for DC circuits.

20.6 Electric Hazards and the Human Body

- The two types of electric hazards are thermal (excessive power) and shock (current through a person).
- Shock severity is determined by current, path, duration, and AC frequency.
- **Table 20.3** lists shock hazards as a function of current.
- **Figure 20.25** graphs the threshold current for two hazards as a function of frequency.

20.7 Nerve Conduction–Electrocardiograms

- Electric potentials in neurons and other cells are created by ionic concentration differences across semipermeable membranes.
- Stimuli change the permeability and create action potentials that propagate along neurons.
- Myelin sheaths speed this process and reduce the needed energy input.
- This process in the heart can be measured with an electrocardiogram (ECG).

Conceptual Questions

20.1 Current

1. Can a wire carry a current and still be neutral—that is, have a total charge of zero? Explain.

2. Car batteries are rated in ampere-hours ($\text{A} \cdot \text{h}$). To what physical quantity do ampere-hours correspond (voltage, charge, . . .), and what relationship do ampere-hours have to energy content?

3. If two different wires having identical cross-sectional areas carry the same current, will the drift velocity be higher or lower in the better conductor? Explain in terms of the equation $v_\text{d} = \frac{I}{nqA}$, by considering how the density of charge carriers n relates to whether or not a material is a good conductor.

4. Why are two conducting paths from a voltage source to an electrical device needed to operate the device?

5. In cars, one battery terminal is connected to the metal body. How does this allow a single wire to supply current to electrical devices rather than two wires?

6. Why isn't a bird sitting on a high-voltage power line electrocuted? Contrast this with the situation in which a large bird hits two wires simultaneously with its wings.

20.2 Ohm's Law: Resistance and Simple Circuits

7. The IR drop across a resistor means that there is a change in potential or voltage across the resistor. Is there any change in current as it passes through a resistor? Explain.

8. How is the IR drop in a resistor similar to the pressure drop in a fluid flowing through a pipe?

20.3 Resistance and Resistivity

9. In which of the three semiconducting materials listed in **Table 20.1** do impurities supply free charges? (Hint: Examine the range of resistivity for each and determine whether the pure semiconductor has the higher or lower conductivity.)

10. Does the resistance of an object depend on the path current takes through it? Consider, for example, a rectangular bar—is its resistance the same along its length as across its width? (See **Figure 20.37**.)

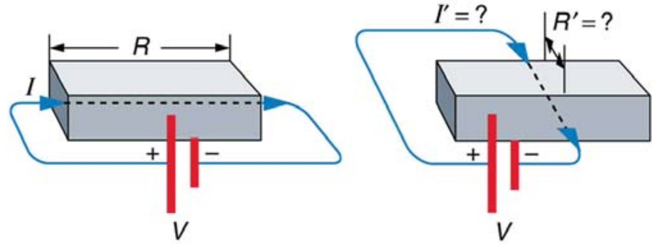

Figure 20.37 Does current taking two different paths through the same object encounter different resistance?

11. If aluminum and copper wires of the same length have the same resistance, which has the larger diameter? Why?

12. Explain why $R = R_0(1 + \alpha\Delta T)$ for the temperature variation of the resistance R of an object is not as accurate as $\rho = \rho_0(1 + \alpha\Delta T)$, which gives the temperature variation of resistivity ρ .

20.4 Electric Power and Energy

13. Why do incandescent lightbulbs grow dim late in their lives, particularly just before their filaments break?

14. The power dissipated in a resistor is given by $P = V^2 / R$, which means power decreases if resistance increases. Yet this power is also given by $P = I^2R$, which means power increases if resistance increases. Explain why there is no contradiction here.

20.5 Alternating Current versus Direct Current

15. Give an example of a use of AC power other than in the household. Similarly, give an example of a use of DC power other than that supplied by batteries.

16. Why do voltage, current, and power go through zero 120 times per second for 60-Hz AC electricity?

17. You are riding in a train, gazing into the distance through its window. As close objects streak by, you notice that the nearby fluorescent lights make *dashed* streaks. Explain.

20.6 Electric Hazards and the Human Body

18. Using an ohmmeter, a student measures the resistance between various points on his body. He finds that the resistance between two points on the same finger is about the same as the resistance between two points on opposite hands—both are several hundred thousand ohms. Furthermore, the resistance decreases when more skin is brought into contact with the probes of the ohmmeter. Finally, there is a dramatic drop in resistance (to a few thousand ohms) when the skin is wet. Explain these observations and their implications regarding skin and internal resistance of the human body.

19. What are the two major hazards of electricity?

20. Why isn't a short circuit a shock hazard?

21. What determines the severity of a shock? Can you say that a certain voltage is hazardous without further information?

22. An electrified needle is used to burn off warts, with the circuit being completed by having the patient sit on a large butt plate. Why is this plate large?

23. Some surgery is performed with high-voltage electricity passing from a metal scalpel through the tissue being cut. Considering the nature of electric fields at the surface of conductors, why would you expect most of the current to flow from the sharp edge of the scalpel? Do you think high- or low-frequency AC is used?

24. Some devices often used in bathrooms, such as hairdryers, often have safety messages saying "Do not use when the bathtub or basin is full of water." Why is this so?

25. We are often advised to not flick electric switches with wet hands, dry your hand first. We are also advised to never throw water on an electric fire. Why is this so?

26. Before working on a power transmission line, linemen will touch the line with the back of the hand as a final check that the voltage is zero. Why the back of the hand?

27. Why is the resistance of wet skin so much smaller than dry, and why do blood and other bodily fluids have low resistances?

28. Could a person on intravenous infusion (an IV) be microshock sensitive?

29. In view of the small currents that cause shock hazards and the larger currents that circuit breakers and fuses interrupt, how do they play a role in preventing shock hazards?

20.7 Nerve Conduction–Electrocardiograms

30. Note that in **Figure 20.28**, both the concentration gradient and the Coulomb force tend to move Na^+ ions into the cell. What prevents this?

31. Define depolarization, repolarization, and the action potential.

32. Explain the properties of myelinated nerves in terms of the insulating properties of myelin.

Problems & Exercises

20.1 Current

1. What is the current in milliamperes produced by the solar cells of a pocket calculator through which 4.00 C of charge passes in 4.00 h?

2. A total of 600 C of charge passes through a flashlight in 0.500 h. What is the average current?

3. What is the current when a typical static charge of $0.250\ \mu\text{C}$ moves from your finger to a metal doorknob in $1.00\ \mu\text{s}$?

4. Find the current when 2.00 nC jumps between your comb and hair over a $0.500\text{-}\mu\text{s}$ time interval.

5. A large lightning bolt had a 20,000-A current and moved 30.0 C of charge. What was its duration?

6. The 200-A current through a spark plug moves 0.300 mC of charge. How long does the spark last?

7. (a) A defibrillator sends a 6.00-A current through the chest of a patient by applying a 10,000-V potential as in the figure below. What is the resistance of the path? (b) The defibrillator paddles make contact with the patient through a conducting gel that greatly reduces the path resistance. Discuss the difficulties that would ensue if a larger voltage were used to produce the same current through the patient, but with the path having perhaps 50 times the resistance. (Hint: The current must be about the same, so a higher voltage would imply greater power. Use this equation for power: $P = I^2R$.)

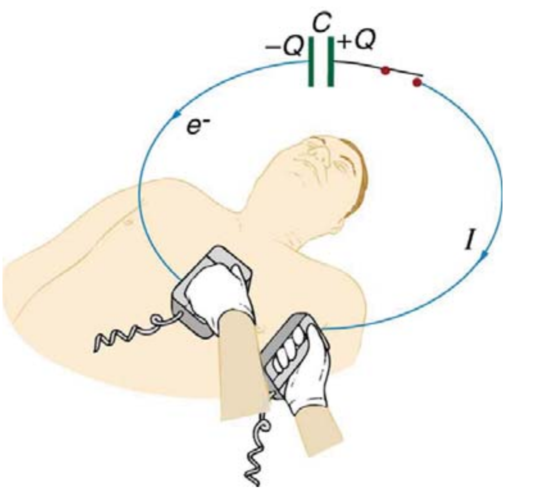

Figure 20.38 The capacitor in a defibrillation unit drives a current through the heart of a patient.

8. During open-heart surgery, a defibrillator can be used to bring a patient out of cardiac arrest. The resistance of the path is $500\ \Omega$ and a 10.0-mA current is needed. What voltage should be applied?

9. (a) A defibrillator passes 12.0 A of current through the torso of a person for 0.0100 s. How much charge moves? (b) How many electrons pass through the wires connected to the patient? (See figure two problems earlier.)

10. A clock battery wears out after moving 10,000 C of charge through the clock at a rate of 0.500 mA. (a) How long did the clock run? (b) How many electrons per second flowed?

11. The batteries of a submerged non-nuclear submarine supply 1000 A at full speed ahead. How long does it take to move Avogadro's number (6.02×10^{23}) of electrons at this rate?

12. Electron guns are used in X-ray tubes. The electrons are accelerated through a relatively large voltage and directed onto a metal target, producing X-rays. (a) How many electrons per second strike the target if the current is 0.500 mA? (b) What charge strikes the target in 0.750 s?

13. A large cyclotron directs a beam of He^{++} nuclei onto a target with a beam current of 0.250 mA. (a) How many He^{++} nuclei per second is this? (b) How long does it take for 1.00 C to strike the target? (c) How long before 1.00 mol of He^{++} nuclei strike the target?

14. Repeat the above example on **Example 20.3**, but for a wire made of silver and given there is one free electron per silver atom.

15. Using the results of the above example on **Example 20.3**, find the drift velocity in a copper wire of twice the diameter and carrying 20.0 A.

16. A 14-gauge copper wire has a diameter of 1.628 mm. What magnitude current flows when the drift velocity is 1.00 mm/s? (See above example on **Example 20.3** for useful information.)

17. SPEAR, a storage ring about 72.0 m in diameter at the Stanford Linear Accelerator (closed in 2009), has a 20.0-A circulating beam of electrons that are moving at nearly the speed of light. (See **Figure 20.39**.) How many electrons are in the beam?

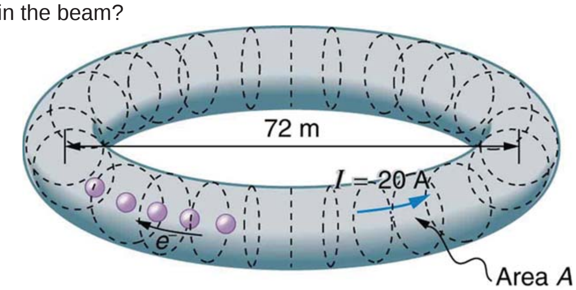

Figure 20.39 Electrons circulating in the storage ring called SPEAR constitute a 20.0-A current. Because they travel close to the speed of light, each electron completes many orbits in each second.

20.2 Ohm's Law: Resistance and Simple Circuits

18. What current flows through the bulb of a 3.00-V flashlight when its hot resistance is $3.60\ \Omega$?

19. Calculate the effective resistance of a pocket calculator that has a 1.35-V battery and through which 0.200 mA flows.

20. What is the effective resistance of a car's starter motor when 150 A flows through it as the car battery applies 11.0 V to the motor?

21. How many volts are supplied to operate an indicator light on a DVD player that has a resistance of $140\ \Omega$, given that 25.0 mA passes through it?

22. (a) Find the voltage drop in an extension cord having a $0.0600\text{-}\ \Omega$ resistance and through which 5.00 A is flowing. (b) A cheaper cord utilizes thinner wire and has a resistance of $0.300\ \ \Omega$. What is the voltage drop in it when 5.00 A flows? (c) Why is the voltage to whatever appliance is being used reduced by this amount? What is the effect on the appliance?

23. A power transmission line is hung from metal towers with glass insulators having a resistance of $1.00 \times 10^9\ \ \Omega$. What current flows through the insulator if the voltage is 200 kV? (Some high-voltage lines are DC.)

20.3 Resistance and Resistivity

24. What is the resistance of a 20.0-m-long piece of 12-gauge copper wire having a 2.053-mm diameter?

25. The diameter of 0-gauge copper wire is 8.252 mm. Find the resistance of a 1.00-km length of such wire used for power transmission.

26. If the 0.100-mm diameter tungsten filament in a light bulb is to have a resistance of $0.200\ \Omega$ at 20.0°C , how long should it be?

27. Find the ratio of the diameter of aluminum to copper wire, if they have the same resistance per unit length (as they might in household wiring).

28. What current flows through a 2.54-cm-diameter rod of pure silicon that is 20.0 cm long, when $1.00 \times 10^3\ \text{V}$ is applied to it? (Such a rod may be used to make nuclear-particle detectors, for example.)

29. (a) To what temperature must you raise a copper wire, originally at 20.0°C , to double its resistance, neglecting any changes in dimensions? (b) Does this happen in household wiring under ordinary circumstances?

30. A resistor made of Nichrome wire is used in an application where its resistance cannot change more than 1.00% from its value at 20.0°C . Over what temperature range can it be used?

31. Of what material is a resistor made if its resistance is 40.0% greater at 100°C than at 20.0°C ?

32. An electronic device designed to operate at any temperature in the range from $-10.0^\circ\text{C to } 55.0^\circ\text{C}$ contains pure carbon resistors. By what factor does their resistance increase over this range?

33. (a) Of what material is a wire made, if it is 25.0 m long with a 0.100 mm diameter and has a resistance of $77.7\ \ \Omega$ at 20.0°C ? (b) What is its resistance at 150°C ?

34. Assuming a constant temperature coefficient of resistivity, what is the maximum percent decrease in the resistance of a constantan wire starting at 20.0°C ?

35. A wire is drawn through a die, stretching it to four times its original length. By what factor does its resistance increase?

36. A copper wire has a resistance of $0.500\ \ \Omega$ at 20.0°C , and an iron wire has a resistance of $0.525\ \ \Omega$ at the same temperature. At what temperature are their resistances equal?

37. (a) Digital medical thermometers determine temperature by measuring the resistance of a semiconductor device called a thermistor (which has $\alpha = -0.0600 / ^\circ\text{C}$) when it is at the same temperature as the patient. What is a patient's temperature if the thermistor's resistance at that temperature is 82.0% of its value at 37.0°C (normal body temperature)? (b) The negative value for α may not be maintained for very low temperatures. Discuss why and whether this is the case here. (Hint: Resistance can't become negative.)

38. Integrated Concepts

(a) Redo **Exercise 20.25** taking into account the thermal expansion of the tungsten filament. You may assume a thermal expansion coefficient of $12 \times 10^{-6} / ^\circ\text{C}$. (b) By what percentage does your answer differ from that in the example?

39. Unreasonable Results

(a) To what temperature must you raise a resistor made of constantan to double its resistance, assuming a constant temperature coefficient of resistivity? (b) To cut it in half? (c) What is unreasonable about these results? (d) Which assumptions are unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

20.4 Electric Power and Energy

40. What is the power of a $1.00 \times 10^2\ \text{MV}$ lightning bolt having a current of $2.00 \times 10^4\ \text{A}$?

41. What power is supplied to the starter motor of a large truck that draws 250 A of current from a 24.0-V battery hookup?

42. A charge of 4.00 C of charge passes through a pocket calculator's solar cells in 4.00 h. What is the power output, given the calculator's voltage output is 3.00 V? (See **Figure 20.40**.)

Figure 20.40 The strip of solar cells just above the keys of this calculator convert light to electricity to supply its energy needs. (credit: Evan-Amos, Wikimedia Commons)

43. How many watts does a flashlight that has $6.00 \times 10^2\ \text{C}$ pass through it in 0.500 h use if its voltage is 3.00 V?

44. Find the power dissipated in each of these extension cords: (a) an extension cord having a $0.0600\ \text{-}\ \ \Omega$ resistance and through which 5.00 A is flowing; (b) a cheaper cord utilizing thinner wire and with a resistance of $0.300\ \ \Omega$.

45. Verify that the units of a volt-ampere are watts, as implied by the equation $P = IV$.

46. Show that the units $1 \text{ V}^2 / \Omega = 1\text{W}$, as implied by the equation $P = V^2 / R$.

47. Show that the units $1 \text{ A}^2 \cdot \Omega = 1 \text{ W}$, as implied by the equation $P = I^2 R$.

48. Verify the energy unit equivalence that $1 \text{ kW} \cdot \text{h} = 3.60 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$.

49. Electrons in an X-ray tube are accelerated through $1.00 \times 10^2 \text{ kV}$ and directed toward a target to produce X-rays. Calculate the power of the electron beam in this tube if it has a current of 15.0 mA.

50. An electric water heater consumes 5.00 kW for 2.00 h per day. What is the cost of running it for one year if electricity costs $12.0 \text{ cents/kW} \cdot \text{h}$? See **Figure 20.41**.

Figure 20.41 On-demand electric hot water heater. Heat is supplied to water only when needed. (credit: aviddavid, Flickr)

51. With a 1200-W toaster, how much electrical energy is needed to make a slice of toast (cooking time = 1 minute)? At $9.0 \text{ cents/kW} \cdot \text{h}$, how much does this cost?

52. What would be the maximum cost of a CFL such that the total cost (investment plus operating) would be the same for both CFL and incandescent 60-W bulbs? Assume the cost of the incandescent bulb is 25 cents and that electricity costs 10 cents/kWh. Calculate the cost for 1000 hours, as in the cost effectiveness of CFL example.

53. Some makes of older cars have 6.00-V electrical systems. (a) What is the hot resistance of a 30.0-W headlight in such a car? (b) What current flows through it?

54. Alkaline batteries have the advantage of putting out constant voltage until very nearly the end of their life. How long will an alkaline battery rated at $1.00 \text{ A} \cdot \text{h}$ and 1.58 V keep a 1.00-W flashlight bulb burning?

55. A cauterizer, used to stop bleeding in surgery, puts out 2.00 mA at 15.0 kV. (a) What is its power output? (b) What is the resistance of the path?

56. The average television is said to be on 6 hours per day. Estimate the yearly cost of electricity to operate 100 million TVs, assuming their power consumption averages 150 W and the cost of electricity averages $12.0 \text{ cents/kW} \cdot \text{h}$.

57. An old lightbulb draws only 50.0 W, rather than its original 60.0 W, due to evaporative thinning of its filament. By what factor is its diameter reduced, assuming uniform thinning along its length? Neglect any effects caused by temperature differences.

58. 00-gauge copper wire has a diameter of 9.266 mm. Calculate the power loss in a kilometer of such wire when it carries $1.00 \times 10^2 \text{ A}$.

59. Integrated Concepts

Cold vaporizers pass a current through water, evaporating it with only a small increase in temperature. One such home device is rated at 3.50 A and utilizes 120 V AC with 95.0% efficiency. (a) What is the vaporization rate in grams per minute? (b) How much water must you put into the vaporizer for 8.00 h of overnight operation? (See **Figure 20.42**.)

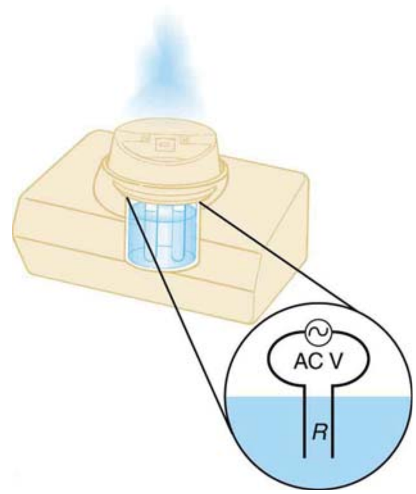

Figure 20.42 This cold vaporizer passes current directly through water, vaporizing it directly with relatively little temperature increase.

60. Integrated Concepts

(a) What energy is dissipated by a lightning bolt having a 20,000-A current, a voltage of $1.00 \times 10^2 \text{ MV}$, and a length of 1.00 ms? (b) What mass of tree sap could be raised from $18.0 ^\circ\text{C}$ to its boiling point and then evaporated by this energy, assuming sap has the same thermal characteristics as water?

61. Integrated Concepts

What current must be produced by a 12.0-V battery-operated bottle warmer in order to heat 75.0 g of glass, 250 g of baby formula, and $3.00 \times 10^2 \text{ g}$ of aluminum from $20.0 ^\circ\text{C}$ to $90.0 ^\circ\text{C}$ in 5.00 min?

62. Integrated Concepts

How much time is needed for a surgical cauterizer to raise the temperature of 1.00 g of tissue from $37.0 ^\circ\text{C}$ to $100 ^\circ\text{C}$ and then boil away 0.500 g of water, if it puts out 2.00 mA at 15.0 kV? Ignore heat transfer to the surroundings.

63. Integrated Concepts

Hydroelectric generators (see **Figure 20.43**) at Hoover Dam produce a maximum current of $8.00\times10^3\text{ A}$ at 250 kV. (a) What is the power output? (b) The water that powers the generators enters and leaves the system at low speed (thus its kinetic energy does not change) but loses 160 m in altitude. How many cubic meters per second are needed, assuming 85.0% efficiency?

Figure 20.43 Hydroelectric generators at the Hoover dam. (credit: Jon Sullivan)

64. Integrated Concepts

(a) Assuming 95.0% efficiency for the conversion of electrical power by the motor, what current must the 12.0-V batteries of a 750-kg electric car be able to supply: (a) To accelerate from rest to 25.0 m/s in 1.00 min? (b) To climb a $2.00\times10^2\text{-m}$ -high hill in 2.00 min at a constant 25.0-m/s speed while exerting $5.00\times10^2\text{ N}$ of force to overcome air resistance and friction? (c) To travel at a constant 25.0-m/s speed, exerting a $5.00\times10^2\text{ N}$ force to overcome air resistance and friction? See **Figure 20.44**.

Figure 20.44 This REVAi, an electric car, gets recharged on a street in London. (credit: Frank Hebbert)

65. Integrated Concepts

A light-rail commuter train draws 630 A of 650-V DC electricity when accelerating. (a) What is its power consumption rate in kilowatts? (b) How long does it take to reach 20.0 m/s starting from rest if its loaded mass is $5.30\times10^4\text{ kg}$, assuming 95.0% efficiency and constant power? (c) Find its average acceleration. (d) Discuss how the acceleration you found for the light-rail train compares to what might be typical for an automobile.

66. Integrated Concepts

(a) An aluminum power transmission line has a resistance of $0.0580\ \Omega/\text{km}$. What is its mass per kilometer? (b) What is the mass per kilometer of a copper line having the same resistance? A lower resistance would shorten the heating time. Discuss the practical limits to speeding the heating by lowering the resistance.

67. Integrated Concepts

(a) An immersion heater utilizing 120 V can raise the temperature of a $1.00\times10^2\text{-g}$ aluminum cup containing 350 g of water from 20.0°C to 95.0°C in 2.00 min. Find its resistance, assuming it is constant during the process. (b) A lower resistance would shorten the heating time. Discuss the practical limits to speeding the heating by lowering the resistance.

68. Integrated Concepts

(a) What is the cost of heating a hot tub containing 1500 kg of water from 10.0°C to 40.0°C, assuming 75.0% efficiency to account for heat transfer to the surroundings? The cost of electricity is $9\text{ cents/kW}\cdot\text{h}$. (b) What current was used by the 220-V AC electric heater, if this took 4.00 h?

69. Unreasonable Results

(a) What current is needed to transmit $1.00\times10^2\text{ MW}$ of power at 480 V? (b) What power is dissipated by the transmission lines if they have a $1.00\text{-}\Omega$ resistance? (c) What is unreasonable about this result? (d) Which assumptions are unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

70. Unreasonable Results

(a) What current is needed to transmit $1.00\times10^2\text{ MW}$ of power at 10.0 kV? (b) Find the resistance of 1.00 km of wire that would cause a 0.0100% power loss. (c) What is the diameter of a 1.00-km-long copper wire having this resistance? (d) What is unreasonable about these results? (e) Which assumptions are unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

71. Construct Your Own Problem

Consider an electric immersion heater used to heat a cup of water to make tea. Construct a problem in which you calculate the needed resistance of the heater so that it increases the temperature of the water and cup in a reasonable amount of time. Also calculate the cost of the electrical energy used in your process. Among the things to be considered are the voltage used, the masses and heat capacities involved, heat losses, and the time over which the heating takes place. Your instructor may wish for you to consider a thermal safety switch (perhaps bimetallic) that will halt the process before damaging temperatures are reached in the immersion unit.

20.5 Alternating Current versus Direct Current

72. (a) What is the hot resistance of a 25-W light bulb that runs on 120-V AC? (b) If the bulb's operating temperature is 2700ºC, what is its resistance at 2600ºC?

73. Certain heavy industrial equipment uses AC power that has a peak voltage of 679 V. What is the rms voltage?

74. A certain circuit breaker trips when the rms current is 15.0 A. What is the corresponding peak current?

75. Military aircraft use 400-Hz AC power, because it is possible to design lighter-weight equipment at this higher frequency. What is the time for one complete cycle of this power?

76. A North American tourist takes his 25.0-W, 120-V AC razor to Europe, finds a special adapter, and plugs it into 240 V AC. Assuming constant resistance, what power does the razor consume as it is ruined?

77. In this problem, you will verify statements made at the end of the power losses for **Example 20.10**. (a) What current is needed to transmit 100 MW of power at a voltage of 25.0 kV? (b) Find the power loss in a $1.00\text{-}\ \Omega$ transmission line. (c) What percent loss does this represent?

78. A small office-building air conditioner operates on 408-V AC and consumes 50.0 kW. (a) What is its effective resistance? (b) What is the cost of running the air conditioner during a hot summer month when it is on 8.00 h per day for 30 days and electricity costs $9.00\text{ cents/kW}\cdot\text{h}$?

79. What is the peak power consumption of a 120-V AC microwave oven that draws 10.0 A?

80. What is the peak current through a 500-W room heater that operates on 120-V AC power?

81. Two different electrical devices have the same power consumption, but one is meant to be operated on 120-V AC and the other on 240-V AC. (a) What is the ratio of their resistances? (b) What is the ratio of their currents? (c) Assuming its resistance is unaffected, by what factor will the power increase if a 120-V AC device is connected to 240-V AC?

82. Nichrome wire is used in some radiative heaters. (a) Find the resistance needed if the average power output is to be 1.00 kW utilizing 120-V AC. (b) What length of Nichrome wire, having a cross-sectional area of 5.00mm^2, is needed if the operating temperature is 500° C? (c) What power will it draw when first switched on?

83. Find the time after $t=0$ when the instantaneous voltage of 60-Hz AC first reaches the following values: (a) $V_0/2$ (b) V_0 (c) 0.

84. (a) At what two times in the first period following $t=0$ does the instantaneous voltage in 60-Hz AC equal V_{rms}? (b) $-V_{\text{rms}}$?

20.6 Electric Hazards and the Human Body

85. (a) How much power is dissipated in a short circuit of 240-V AC through a resistance of $0.250\ \Omega$? (b) What current flows?

86. What voltage is involved in a 1.44-kW short circuit through a $0.100\text{-}\ \Omega$ resistance?

87. Find the current through a person and identify the likely effect on her if she touches a 120-V AC source: (a) if she is standing on a rubber mat and offers a total resistance of $300\text{ k}\Omega$; (b) if she is standing barefoot on wet grass and has a resistance of only $4000\text{ k}\Omega$.

88. While taking a bath, a person touches the metal case of a radio. The path through the person to the drainpipe and ground has a resistance of $4000\ \Omega$. What is the smallest voltage on the case of the radio that could cause ventricular fibrillation?

89. Foolishly trying to fish a burning piece of bread from a toaster with a metal butter knife, a man comes into contact with 120-V AC. He does not even feel it since, luckily, he is wearing rubber-soled shoes. What is the minimum resistance of the path the current follows through the person?

90. (a) During surgery, a current as small as $20.0\ \mu\text{A}$ applied directly to the heart may cause ventricular fibrillation. If the resistance of the exposed heart is $300\ \Omega$, what is the smallest voltage that poses this danger? (b) Does your answer imply that special electrical safety precautions are needed?

91. (a) What is the resistance of a 220-V AC short circuit that generates a peak power of 96.8 kW? (b) What would the average power be if the voltage was 120 V AC?

92. A heart defibrillator passes 10.0 A through a patient's torso for 5.00 ms in an attempt to restore normal beating. (a) How much charge passed? (b) What voltage was applied if 500 J of energy was dissipated? (c) What was the path's resistance? (d) Find the temperature increase caused in the 8.00 kg of affected tissue.

93. Integrated Concepts

A short circuit in a 120-V appliance cord has a $0.500\text{-}\ \Omega$ resistance. Calculate the temperature rise of the 2.00 g of surrounding materials, assuming their specific heat capacity is $0.200\text{ cal/g}\cdot\text{ºC}$ and that it takes 0.0500 s for a circuit breaker to interrupt the current. Is this likely to be damaging?

94. Construct Your Own Problem

Consider a person working in an environment where electric currents might pass through her body. Construct a problem in which you calculate the resistance of insulation needed to protect the person from harm. Among the things to be considered are the voltage to which the person might be exposed, likely body resistance (dry, wet, …), and acceptable currents (safe but sensed, safe and unfelt, …).

20.7 Nerve Conduction–Electrocardiograms

95. Integrated Concepts

Use the ECG in **Figure 20.34** to determine the heart rate in beats per minute assuming a constant time between beats.

96. Integrated Concepts

(a) Referring to **Figure 20.34**, find the time systolic pressure lags behind the middle of the QRS complex. (b) Discuss the reasons for the time lag.