

Topic Review for AS AQA Physics

Section 5: Electricity

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Teacher's Introduction

This Topic Review covers the first half of the AQA Physics A Level and the AQA specification. The purpose of this review is to go over the topics in the specification in a focused but comprehensive way, to help students to consolidate their learning and to prepare for their exams. The resource is divided into small sections for each small topic to allow students to test their understanding and ability to apply their knowledge. Worked answers are included with the questions so students can check their answers and see where they have gone wrong.

Each section of the review starts with a checklist of all the topics in the section, and a list of key equations and definitions to know about the topic before moving on. This can be used as a self-assessment tool for students to know where to focus their time, or at the end to ensure they have no gaps in their knowledge.

Worked examples are provided for calculations throughout (including derivations) to help students, giving students not only knowledge of the appropriate facts and equations, but also how to use them.

Exam style questions are provided for each topic, so that students can test their understanding of the topic for their upcoming exams. These exam style questions have worked mark schemes included, as used by the exam board, so that students can check their own answers and see where they have gone wrong.



Key equations and definitions are highlighted with a key symbol.



Equations in the data booklet are marked with a star so students can easily find them, and what they can refer to the data book for in the exam.



Required practicals are covered in the appropriate topic, ensuring students have a good understanding of how to perform the practical, and understand the practical itself.



Exam tips are included regularly throughout to help students avoid common mistakes and to give students a steer on things they need to know in revision.

Students should be able to work through this review in their own time, after a lesson, or during revision. I would be a great accompaniment for students' revision notes or an easy reference text as they do practice papers.

I hope that this review will be of real benefit.

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Chapter 5: Electricity

Chapter 5 checklist

By the end of this chapter you should be able to:

5.1

- Understand current as flow of charge.....
- Understand potential difference as work done per unit charge
- Calculate current, potential difference and resistance

5.2

- Understand current-voltage characteristics of ohmic conductors, diodes.....
- Understand Ohm's law
- Understand that ideal ammeters have zero resistance
- Understand that ideal voltmeters have infinite resistance.....

5.3

- Understand and calculate resistivity
- Understand the effect of temperature on the resistance of metals and thermistors.....
- Remember some applications of thermistors.....
- Understand superconductivity
- Remember some applications of superconductors

5.4

- Calculate the total resistance of resistors in series and parallel circuits
- Understand the relationships between current, potential differences and resistance in series and parallel circuits
- Calculate the energy and power of circuits.....
- Understand the conservation of charge and energy in DC circuits.....

5.5

- Understand how a potential divider works and what they are used for.....
- Calculate output voltages of a potential divider.....
- Design circuits using potential dividers

5.6

- Understand what is meant by emf, terminal potential difference and internal resistance.....
- Perform calculations involving cells with non-negligible internal resistance.....

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5.1 Basics of electricity

The modern world uses electricity all the time for communication, transport, and many other things. All electrical appliances work using the same basic electrical quantities – **current**, **voltage**, and **resistance**.


Current is the rate of flow of charge, or how quickly charge (carried by electrons) flows through a component.


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

Potential difference (sometimes called **voltage**) is the work done per unit charge by a component. The energy that can be transferred by a component.


$$V = \frac{W}{Q}$$

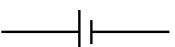



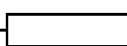


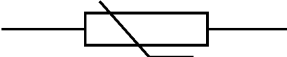
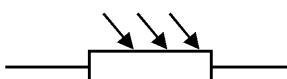
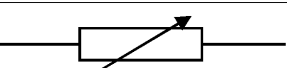
Resistance is a characteristic of a component that describes how much the component opposes the flow of current through it.


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

Electrical components

The table below shows some common components and the symbols we use to represent them in a circuit diagram.

This list isn't comprehensive, but covers a lot of the components you'll need in your AS Physics course.

Component	Symbol	Unit
Cell		Pr
Lamp		
Voltmeter		M
Ammeter		
Resistor		
Switch		C
Diode		A
Thermistor		
LDR (light dependent resistor)		C
Variable resistor		Re

A **battery** is multiple cells connected together.

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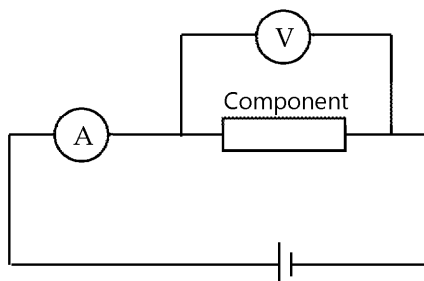


Measuring resistance

To determine the resistance of a component we need to measure the potential difference across the component and current through the component.

To measure **potential difference** across the component we place a **voltmeter** in parallel with the component.

To measure **current** through the component we place an **ammeter** in series with the component.



Exam tip

An **ideal voltmeter** has **infinite resistance** so that no current is drawn from the circuit.

An **ideal ammeter** has **zero resistance** so that there is no potential difference across it.

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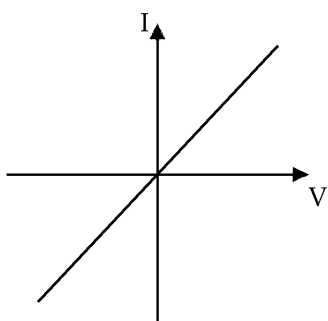
5.2 Current-voltage characteristics

Key term: Ohmic conductor

An ohmic conductor, such as a wire, is a component for which the potential difference is directly proportional to the current, and the resistance is constant.

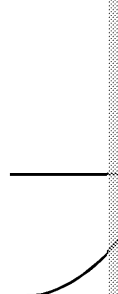
I–V graphs

Ohmic conductor



Ohmic conductors follow **Ohm's law**, a special case where $I \propto V$.

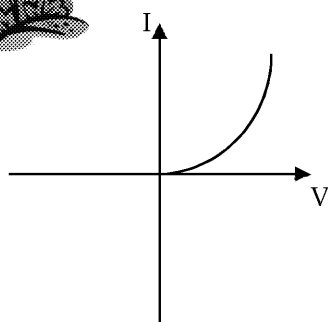
Filament



For a **filament lamp**, the resistance increases as the current increases, so the resistance is not constant.

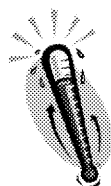


Semiconductor diode

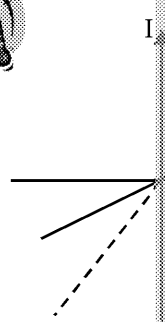


For a **semiconductor diode**, current is zero at negative potential differences.

This is because the semiconductor material is polarised so that current can only flow in one direction.



Thermistor



A **thermistor** is a component whose resistance changes with temperature. In this case, resistance decreases as temperature increases.

A **light dependent resistor** (LDR) is a component whose resistance changes with light intensity. In this case, resistance decreases as light intensity increases.

At higher light intensities, the resistance is lower.

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Exam tips

The straight line I - V graph for an ohmic conductor is of the form $y =$

So the gradient of the graph is $\frac{1}{R}$, or $\frac{1}{\text{Resistance}}$.

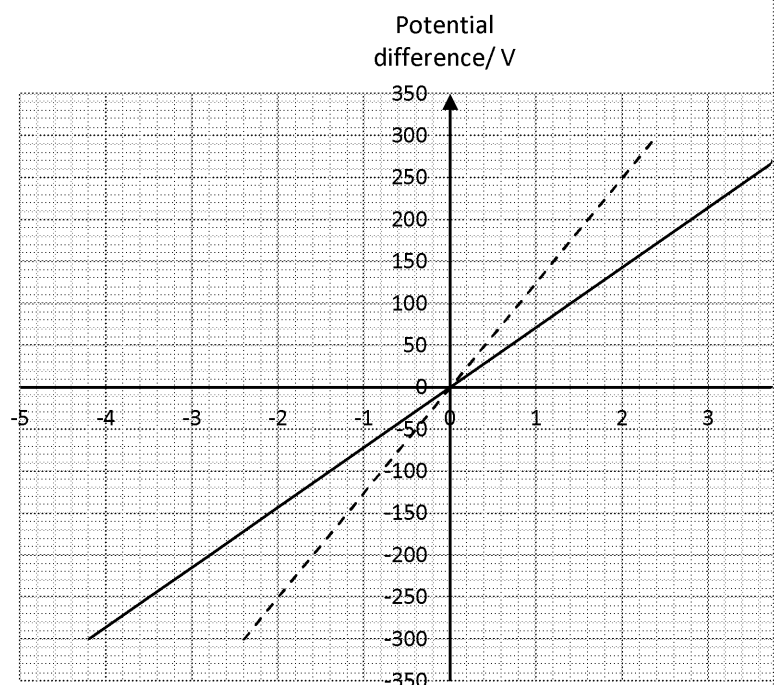
An experiment which measures the current through, and potential difference across, find the resistance of that component.

Pay close attention to axes!

All the graphs here have current on the y -axis and potential difference on the x -axis.

Questions

1. Draw I - V graphs for an ohmic conductor and a filament lamp. Explain the shapes of both.
2. a) 2.88×10^{20} electrons pass through a resistor every minute. Calculate the current passing through the resistor. The charge on an electron is 1.60×10^{-19} C
b) 750 kJ are used to transfer the electrons in the question above. Calculate the potential difference across the resistor.
c) Calculate the resistance of the resistor.
3. Lightning strikes a tree, passing through the tree to the ground in. The resistance of wet wood is $8.09 \times 10^5 \Omega$ and the lightning strike potential difference across the tree of 3.26×10^9 V.
a) What is the current passing through the tree?
b) How much charge travels through the tree?
c) How much energy does the lightning transfer to the tree?
4. The graph below shows an I - V graph of an LDR at two light intensities.
a) Find the resistance of the LDR at each light intensity.
b) Which line represents a higher light intensity?



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5.3 Resistivity

Key term: Resistivity

Resistivity, ρ , is the property of a material that determines how much it restricts

Resistivity is different from resistance because resistance is a property of an entire volume, while resistivity takes into account the material only.



Resistivity is given by:

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

ρ = resistivity

R = resistance

A = cross-sectional area

L = length

Resistivity and temperature

In **metal conductors**, resistivity increases with higher temperatures. The higher temperatures cause the conduction electrons to collide with the atoms, so the conduction electrons lose energy.

Thermistors are components that decrease in resistivity with higher temperatures. This is because the greater energies at higher temperatures liberate electrons from the atoms they are bound to, so the number of charge carriers increases.

Thermistors can be used in a variety of circuits that require temperature dependent components, such as temperature sensors or thermostats.

Determining resistivity of a wire

- Set up a circuit, as seen to the right, with a wire between the terminals of the voltmeter.
- Take readings of current and potential difference from the ammeter and voltmeter, respectively.
- Measure the length of the wire.
- Use a **micrometer** to take a measurement of the radius of the wire.
- Repeat the measurements for other lengths and thicknesses of wire and average the results.



Analysis

- Calculate resistance from $R = \frac{V}{I}$
- Calculate area of the wire from $A = \pi r^2$
- Calculate resistivity from $\rho = \frac{RA}{L}$

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Example

A copper rod has a resistance of $9.45 \mu\Omega$. The rod is 4.5 cm long and has an area of 80 mm^2 . What is the resistivity of copper?

To find resistivity, use $\rho = \frac{RA}{L}$.

First, all units need to be converted to SI units so that they are consistent

$$R = 9.45 \mu\Omega = 9.45 \times 10^{-6} \Omega$$

$$L = 4.5 \text{ cm} = 4.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}$$

$$A = 80 \text{ mm}^2 = 80 \times (10^{-3})^2 = 80 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$$

$$\rho = \frac{9.45 \times 10^{-6} \times 80 \times 10^{-6}}{4.5 \times 10^{-2}}$$

$$\rho = 1.68 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \text{ m}$$

Superconductors

A **superconductor** is a material with **zero resistance**.

A material will only become superconductive **at or below a certain temperature**, which is different for different materials.

Producing superconductors is incredibly difficult, requiring temperatures near absolute zero. For some materials maintain their superconductivity is even harder; as soon as the material reaches its critical temperature it will stop acting as a superconductor.

Material	Critical temperature/ K
HgBa ₂ Ca ₂ Cu ₃ O ₈	134
Yttrium barium copper oxide (YBa ₂ Cu ₃ O _{7-x})	92
Magnesium diboride (MgB ₂)	39
Niobium (Nb)	9.26
Tin (Sn)	3.72
Titanium (Ti)	0.39

Uses of superconductors

Superconductors have some incredible properties – because they have no resistance, there is no power loss when they carry a current.

Superconductors could revolutionise how we transmit energy from power plants to homes and businesses, as well as allow us to make generators and motors more efficient.

Superconductors can be used to generate incredibly strong magnetic fields. These magnetic fields can be used in MRI scanners and to contain and direct the incredibly high energy particle beams used in particle accelerators.

Magnetic fields can't penetrate superconductors. Instead, the magnetic field lines wrap around the superconductor and produce a repulsive magnetic force.

This effect is used in the "MagLev" train – a train that rests above the tracks so that it can travel with no friction.

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Questions

1.
 - a) A metal wire is in a circuit, with its resistance measured. The wire is placed into a beaker of water which is heated. Describe how the resistance of the wire changes as the temperature increases. Explain why this is.
 - b) The metal wire is replaced with a thermistor, and again placed in the beaker of water which is then heated. Describe how the resistance of the thermistor changes as the temperature increases. Explain why this is.
 - c) Draw a circuit that could be used to measure the resistivity of a wire. Explain how it would be used.
2. A wire has a resistance of $78.4 \text{ k}\Omega$, and is 22.9 cm long with a cross-sectional area of 0.1 mm^2 . What is the resistivity of the wire?
3.
 - a) Define what is meant by superconductor and describe the properties of a superconductor.
 - b) List some of the applications of superconductors.

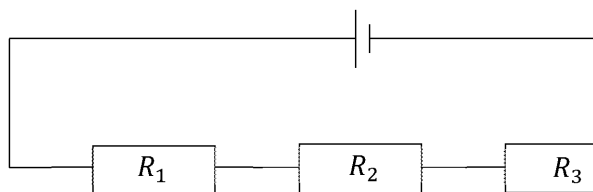
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5.4 Circuits

Components in a circuit can either be set up in **series** or in **parallel**.

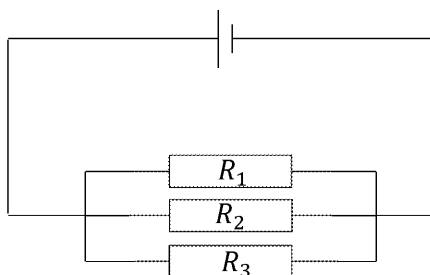
Series



The combined resistance of resistors in series is given by:

$$R_{total} = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots$$

Parallel



The combined resistance of resistors in parallel is given by:

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

	Series	
Current	The current is the same at all points of a series circuit $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = \dots$	The current is I_{total}
Potential difference	The potential difference is split across all components in a series circuit $V_{total} = V_1 + V_2 + V_3 + \dots$	The potential difference is V_{total}

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Exam tip

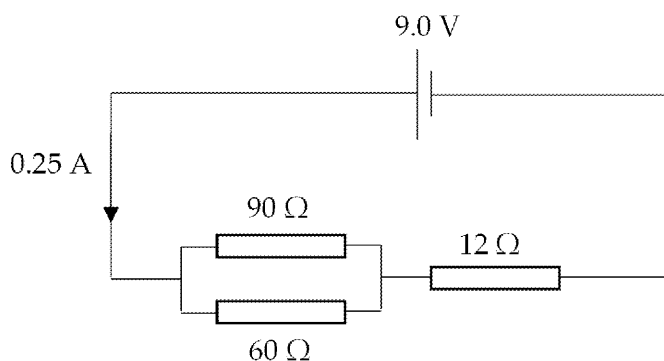
Think of current in terms of flow and potential difference in terms of energy.

In a series circuit, the flow is the same throughout, it can't go through in parallel, it takes a little bit of energy.

In a parallel circuit, the flow has to split up across different branches, but the two resistors have the same difference in energy.

Example

Three resistors are placed in a circuit, as seen below:



- What is the potential difference across the $12\ \Omega$ resistor?
- What is the current through the $60\ \Omega$ resistor?
- What is the total resistance of the circuit?

a) The two parallel resistors act as a single resistor, in series with the $12\ \Omega$ resistor. In a series circuit, the current is the same at all points, so the current through the $12\ \Omega$ resistor is 0.25 A . The potential difference across the resistor is $V = IR = 0.25 \times 12 = 3\text{ V}$.

b) The potential difference across the two resistors in parallel is 6 V ($9\text{ V} - 3\text{ V}$) across **both** resistors.

$$I = \frac{V}{R} = 0.1\text{ A}$$

c) For the resistors in parallel:

$$\frac{1}{R_{\text{total}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{60} + \frac{1}{90} = \frac{1}{36}$$

$$R_{\text{total}} = 36\ \Omega$$

We can treat the resistors in parallel as a single resistor in series with the $12\ \Omega$ resistor.

$$R_{\text{total}} = R_1 + R_2 = 36 + 12 = 48\ \Omega$$

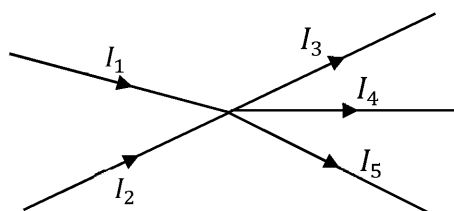
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Conservation in circuits

At a junction in a circuit, the current into the junction must equal the current due to **conservation of charge**.



For a complete loop of a circuit, the potential difference gained by the source is equal to the potential difference drops around the circuit. This is due to **conservation of energy**.

Energy in a circuit

The energy transferred to a component is given by:

$$E = IVt$$

As power is the rate of transfer of energy, the power of a component is given by:

★ $P = IV$

which, using $V = IR$, can be made into different forms.

★ $P = I^2 R$

★ $P = \frac{V^2}{R}$

$E = \text{energy}$
 $P = \text{rate of energy transfer}$
 $t = \text{time}$
 $I = \text{current}$
 $V = \text{potential difference}$
 $R = \text{resistance}$

Example

1. A battery provides 12 V and has 0.080 A through it. How much energy is dissipated in 30 minutes?

In this question, current, potential difference and resistance have been given and energy is needed.

Use $E = IVt = 0.080 \times 12 \times 30 \times 60 = \mathbf{1.72 \text{ kJ}}$

2. What is the power dissipated by a 28 kΩ resistor with 4.0 A flowing through it?

In this question, resistance and current have been given and power is needed.

Use $P = I^2 R = 4.0^2 \times 28 \times 10^3 = \mathbf{450 \text{ kW}}$

3. A bulb has a power rating of 40 W, and has 230 V across it. What is the resistance of the bulb?

In this question, power and potential difference have been given, and resistance is needed.

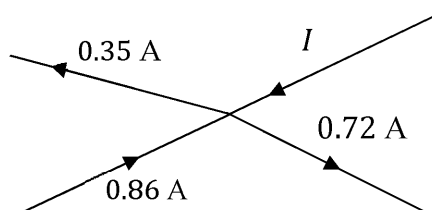
Use $P = \frac{V^2}{R}$ and rearrange for R to give $R = \frac{V^2}{P} = \frac{230^2}{40} = \mathbf{1300 \text{ } \Omega}$

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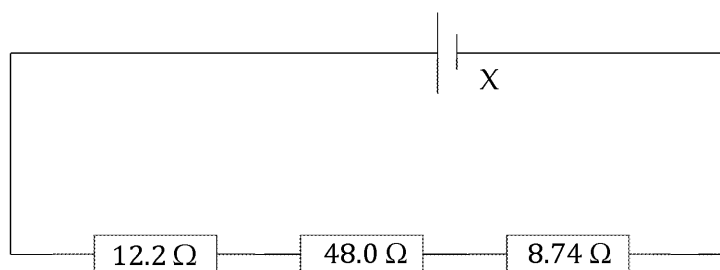


Questions

1. The diagram below shows a node in a circuit.

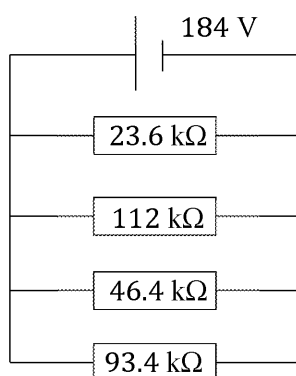


Calculate the value of I .



2. a) What is the total resistance in this circuit?
 b) The current at the point marked X is 0.38 A.
 What is the potential difference supplied by the cell?

3.



- a) What is the total resistance of this circuit?
 b) The potential difference supplied by the cell is 184 V.
 What is the total current supplied by the cell?
4. a) A phone charger draws a current of 866 mA and has a potential difference of 20.6 V.
 Calculate the power in the circuit
 b) How much energy is transferred to the charger in 1 hour?
5. a) A kettle has a potential difference across it of 230 V.
 It has a power rating of 1730 W.
 Calculate the resistance of the kettle.
 b) The bulb in a handheld torch has a resistance of 3.46Ω and a potential difference of 3.0 V.
 What is the current drawn by the bulb?

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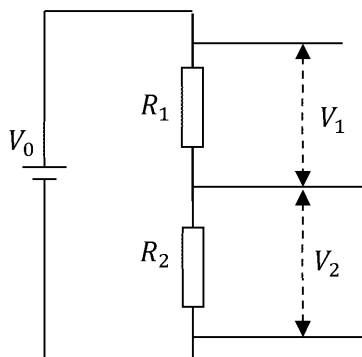


5.5 Potential dividers

Key term: Potential divider

A **potential divider** uses two resistors to provide a specific voltage. The potential difference is divided between the two resistors depending on their resistances. The voltage across one resistor can be changed by replacing it with a resistor with a different value of resistance.

The set-up below shows a potential divider that gives a fixed potential difference.



The total resistance of the two resistors is given by $R_{total} = R_1 + R_2$.

As the resistors are in series, the current in both resistors is the same and is given by:

$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{V_0}{R_1 + R_2}$$

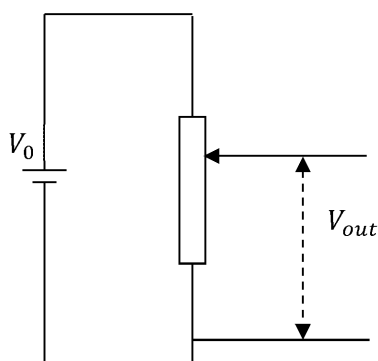
Using $V = IR$, we can find the potential differences across each resistor.

$$V_1 = IR_1 = \frac{V_0 R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$V_2 = IR_2 = \frac{V_0 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

By choosing resistors of specific values, we can select the output potential difference.

A **variable potential divider** uses a variable resistor, so that the circuit can provide a range of potential differences.



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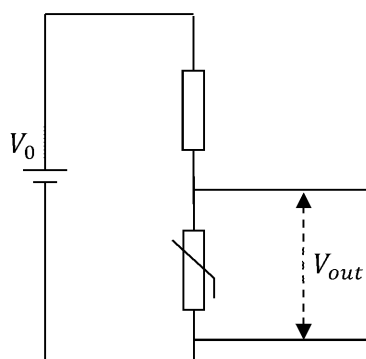
Applications of potential dividers

Potential dividers can be used as follows:

- Many digital electronics require specific potential differences to run – ensure a fixed voltage of a specific value.
- Scaling down a high voltage for easier measurement with a voltmeter.
- Sensing temperature or light by using a thermistor or LDR.

Sensors

A **thermistor** in a potential divider can be used to create a temperature sensor.



At a given temperature, the potential difference is shared between the resistor and thermistor.

When the temperature increases, the resistance of the thermistor decreases and the potential difference across it decreases.

The potential difference can be measured with a voltmeter. This makes the circuit a temperature sensor.

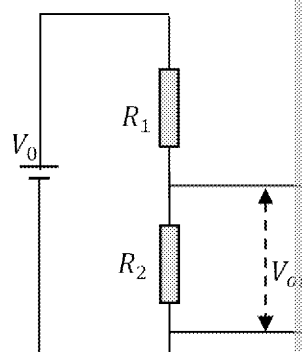
If the sensor only had the thermistor and no fixed resistor, it would always have the same potential difference across it.

A light dependent resistor (LDR) can be used in place of a thermistor to create a light sensor. (The resistance of the LDR decreases as light intensity increases.)

Example

Design a circuit which provides a fixed voltage of 8.0 V, using a battery which provides 18 V and one other resistor.

The best option for a circuit like this is a potential divider.



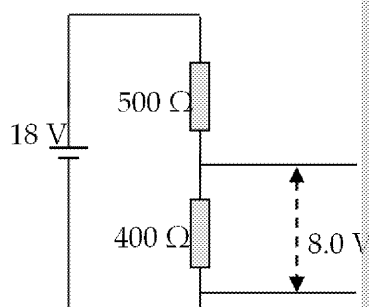
Call the 500 Ω resistor R_1 and the other resistor R_2 . 8.0 V can be produced across R_2 in this case it is being produced across R_2 .

Start with $V_{out} = \frac{V_0 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$ and rearrange for R_2 to give $R_2 = \frac{V_{out} R_1}{V_0 - V_{out}}$

Make sure that you can do this rearrangement!

$$R_2 = \frac{8.0 \times 500}{18 - 8.0} = 400 \, \Omega$$

So the circuit we've designed is:



5.6 Electromotive force and internal resistance

The **electromotive force (emf)** of a cell is the potential difference supplied by the cell.

The emf is defined as the energy supplied per unit charge.

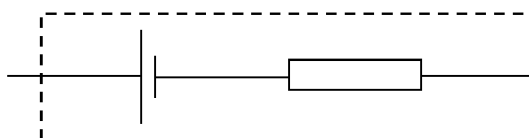
$$\epsilon = \frac{E}{Q}$$

The **internal resistance** of the cell is the resistance supplied by the cell itself. There is a loss of potential difference in the cell as the current passes through it.

$$\epsilon = I(R + r)$$

The terminal potential difference, given by Ir , is the potential difference across the external circuit.

Internal resistance is shown in a circuit diagram by a cell with a resistor in series, both, as shown below.

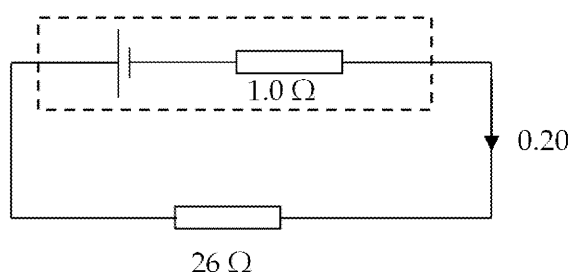


The power delivered by a cell is given by:

$$P = I\epsilon$$

$$P = I^2R + I^2r$$

Example



- What is the emf of the cell seen above?
- What is the power delivered by the cell in the above circuit?

- Use $\epsilon = I(R + r)$
 $\epsilon = 0.2 \times (26 + 1.0)$
 $\epsilon = 5.4 \text{ V}$

- Use $P = I^2R + I^2r$
 $P = 0.2^2 \times 26 + 0.2^2 \times 1.0 = 1.08 \text{ W}$

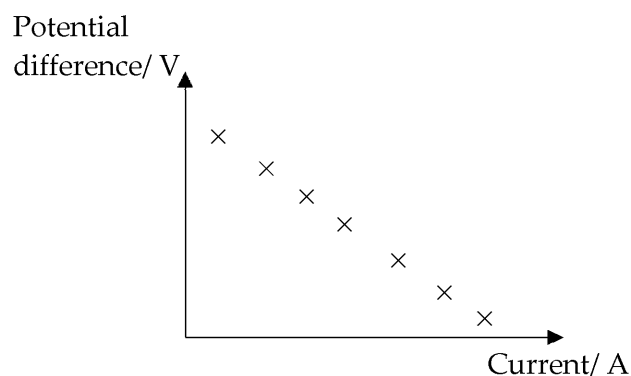
Note: $P = I\epsilon$ could also have been used for the same result.

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Investigation of emf and internal resistance of a battery

- Set up a circuit, as seen to the right.
- Take readings of current and potential difference from the ammeter and voltmeter, respectively.
- Change the resistance of the variable resistor.
- Plot potential difference against current for different resistances, giving a graph like the one below.



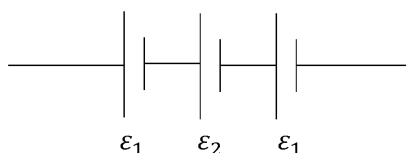
- We can substitute $V = IR$ into the equation for the emf of a cell, $\mathcal{E} = V + Ir$, and rearrange to give $V = \mathcal{E} - Ir$, which is in the form $y = mx + c$.
- The y-intercept, where the graph crosses the y-axis, is \mathcal{E} , the terminal voltage of the cell.
- The gradient of the graph is $-r$, where r is the internal resistance of the cell.

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Cells in series and parallel (from section 5.4)

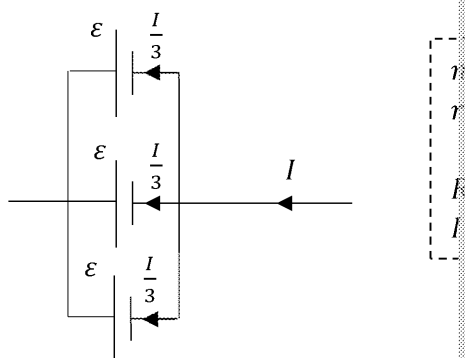
Series



For cells in series, the total emf provided by the cells to the circuit is the sum of the individual emfs.

$$\mathcal{E}_{total} = \mathcal{E}_1 + \mathcal{E}_2 + \mathcal{E}_3 + \dots$$

Parallel



For n identical cells in parallel, each with an emf of \mathcal{E} and an internal resistance of r , the current through each cell is given by $\frac{I}{n}$ where n is the number of cells.

The internal resistance of each cell causes a potential difference drop across it. The potential difference supplied by each cell is:

$$\text{Potential difference across the circuit} = \text{emf of cell} - \frac{\text{potential difference across internal resistance}}{\text{number of cells}}$$

$$IR = \mathcal{E} - \frac{Ir}{n}$$

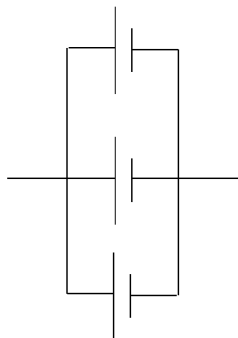
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Questions

1. A cell supplies 38.6 J of energy to 2.46×10^{22} electrons.
What is the emf produced by the cell?
The charge on an electron is 1.60×10^{-19} C.

2.

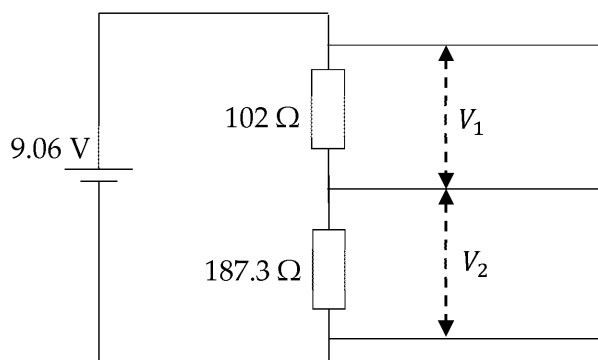


Each cell in the battery above produces an emf of 4.73 V and has an internal resistance of 18.7Ω .

The battery is connected up to a circuit with a resistance of 58.5Ω .
What is the current flowing through the circuit?

3. A circuit has a resistance of 12.2Ω .
The potential difference in the circuit is supplied by a cell which has an internal resistance of 0.5Ω and the current in the circuit is 3.11 A.
What is the internal resistance of the cell?

4.



Calculate the values of V_1 and V_2 in the circuit above

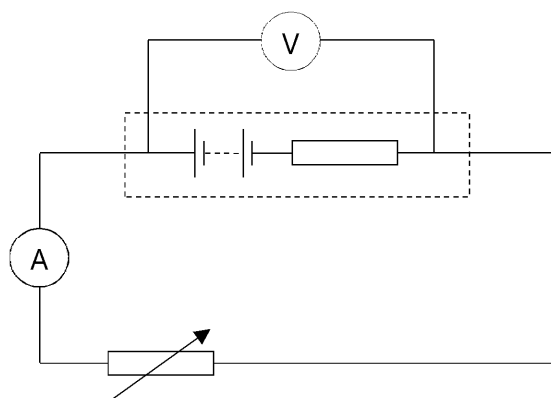
5. Design a circuit which will turn off a heater when the temperature falls below 20°C .
The heater should be designed such that it will turn off when it is supplied with a potential difference below 20 V.
In the circuit, use a power source which supplies a potential difference of 24 V and a thermistor which has resistance of 30Ω at 20°C .

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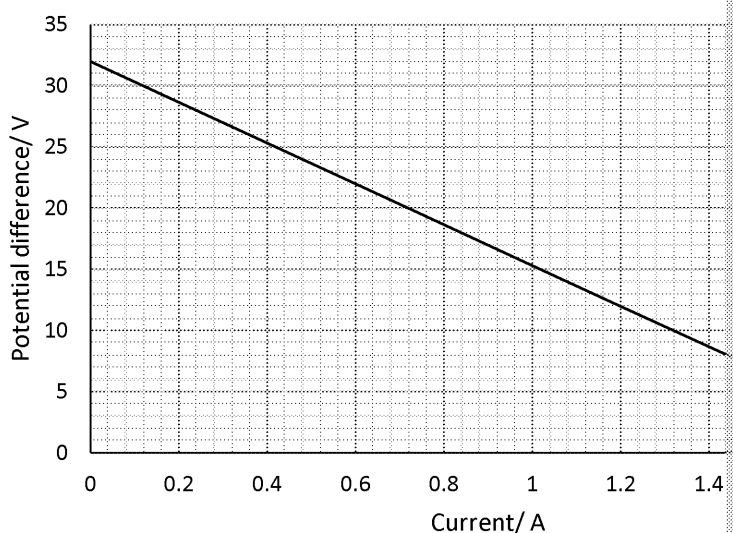


Exam style questions

1. A circuit is setup to determine the properties of a battery, as seen below.



The resistance of the variable resistor is changed and the data shown collected.



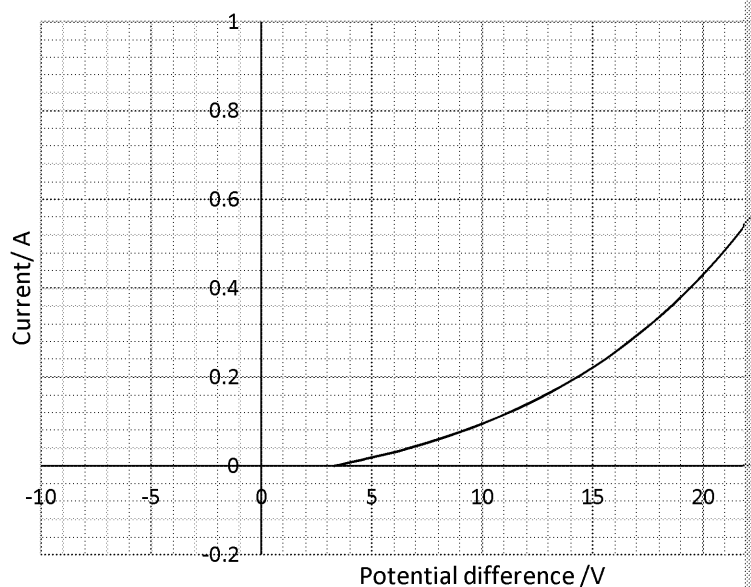
- 1.1 Describe what is meant by the term “internal resistance”.
- 1.2 What is the terminal potential difference of the battery in the circuit?
- 1.3 Calculate the internal resistance of the battery.
- 1.4 Why is the voltage provided by the battery always less than the terminal potential difference of the cell?
- 1.5 The resistance is set so that the current through the battery is 0.8 A. How much energy is dissipated by the battery during this 5 minutes?
- 1.6 Calculate the amount of charge that passes through the cell during the time detailed in 1.5.

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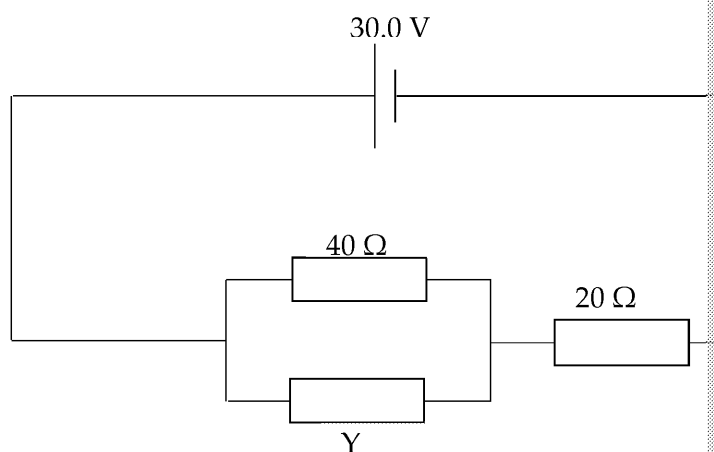
2. The graph of current against potential difference for Component W is shown.



2.1 Calculate the resistance of Component W when a current of 0.6 A flows through it.

2.2 What type of component has generated this graph? Explain.

Component Y is placed in the circuit below as shown.



2.3 Calculate the value of resistor Y.

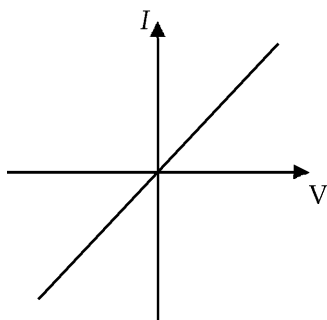
2.4 Resistor Y breaks, such that no current flows through it. Describe the current through each of the other resistors in the circuit.

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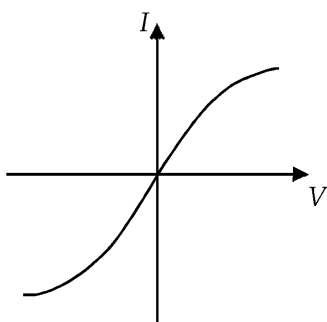
5.2 Current-voltage characteristics

1. Ohmic conductor



An ohmic conductor is a component with constant resistance i.e. current is proportional to voltage.

Filament lamp



At higher currents, a filament lamp heats up, increasing its resistance.

$$\begin{aligned} 2. \quad a) \quad Q &= \text{number of electrons} \times e \\ Q &= 2.88 \times 10^{20} \times 1.60 \times 10^{-19} = 46.08 \text{ C} \\ I &= \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = \frac{46.08}{60} \\ I &= 0.768 \text{ A} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} b) \quad V &= \frac{W}{Q} = \frac{750 \times 10^3}{46.08} = 16.28 \text{ kV} \\ V &= 16.3 \text{ kV} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c) \quad R &= \frac{V}{I} = \frac{16.28 \times 10^3}{0.768} \\ R &= 21.2 \text{ k}\Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 3. \quad a) \quad I &= \frac{V}{R} = \frac{3.26 \times 10^9}{8.09 \times 10^5} = 4029 \text{ A} \\ I &= 4.03 \text{ kA} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} b) \quad \Delta Q &= I \Delta t = 4.029 \times 10^3 \times 0.239 = 963.1 \text{ C} \\ \Delta Q &= 963 \text{ C} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c) \quad W &= QV = 963.1 \times 3.26 \times 10^9 \\ W &= 3.14 \times 10^{12} \text{ J} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 4. \quad a) \quad \text{Resistance} &= \text{gradient of line} = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \\ \text{Dashed line} \\ \text{Resistance} &= \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{250-0}{2.00-0} \\ \text{Resistance} &= 125 \Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solid line} \\ \text{Resistance} &= \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{285-0}{4.00-0} \\ \text{Resistance} &= 71.2 \Omega \end{aligned}$$

b) The solid line represents the higher light intensity – the resistance of LDRs decreases as light intensity increases.

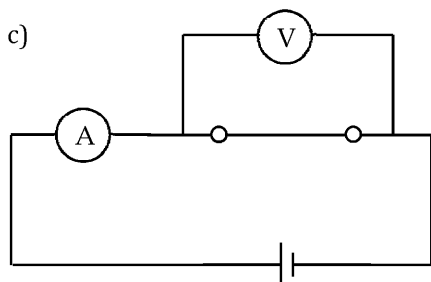
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5.3 Resistivity

1. a) The resistance of the wire increases as the temperature increases. Conductors frequently with atoms at higher temperatures due to the vibrations of the atoms and electrons to lose energy.
- b) The resistance of the thermistor decreases as the temperature increases. At higher temperatures, more energy, bound electrons gain enough energy to leave the atom, so they can move and to conduct electricity.



Potential difference measured with voltmeter. Current measured with ammeter.
Measure length and radius of component. Calculate area from radius.
Calculate resistivity from $\rho = \frac{RA}{L}$.

2. $\rho = \frac{RA}{L} = \frac{78.4 \times 10^3 \times 3.7 \times 10^{-6}}{22.9 \times 10^{-2}}$
 $\rho = 1.27 \, \Omega \, \text{m}$
3. a) A superconductor is a material with zero resistance.
 Superconductors become superconductive below a certain temperature.
 Superconductors can conduct energy with no power loss and magnetic field.
 b) “MagLev” trains; power transmission; particle accelerators; MRI scanners; etc.

5.4 Circuits

1. Total current into junction = total current out of junction
 $I + 0.86 = 0.35 + 0.72$
 $I = 0.35 + 0.72 - 0.86 = 0.21 \, \text{A}$
2. a) $R_{\text{total}} = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_4 = 12.2 + 48.0 + 8.74 + 64.1$
 $R_{\text{total}} = 133 \, \Omega$
 b) $V_{\text{total}} = V_1 + V_2 + V_3 + V_4$
 $V_{\text{total}} = IR_1 + IR_2 + IR_3 + IR_4 = IR_{\text{total}} = 0.38 \times 133$
 $V_{\text{total}} = 50.6 \, \text{V}$
3. a) $\frac{1}{R_{\text{total}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \frac{1}{R_4} = \frac{1}{23.6 \times 10^3} + \frac{1}{112 \times 10^3} + \frac{1}{46.4 \times 10^3} + \frac{1}{93.4 \times 10^3} = 8.356 \times 10^{-5}$
 $R_{\text{total}} = 12.0 \, \text{k}\Omega$
 b) $I_{\text{total}} = I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 = \frac{V}{R_1} + \frac{V}{R_2} + \frac{V}{R_3} + \frac{V}{R_4} = \frac{V}{R_{\text{total}}} = \frac{184}{12.0 \times 10^3}$
 $I_{\text{total}} = 15.4 \, \text{mA}$
4. a) $P = IV = 866 \times 10^{-3} \times 20.6$
 $P = 17.8 \, \text{W}$
 b) $E = IVt = Pt = 17.8 \times 60 \times 60$
 $E = 64.2 \, \text{kJ}$
5. a) $P = \frac{V^2}{R}$
 $R = \frac{V^2}{P} = \frac{230^2}{1730}$
 $R = 30.6 \, \Omega$
 b) $P = I^2 R$
 $I = \sqrt{\frac{P}{R}} = \sqrt{\frac{5.85}{3.46}}$
 $I = 1.30 \, \text{A}$

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5.6 Electromotive force and internal resistance

$$1. \quad \varepsilon = \frac{E}{Q} = \frac{38.6}{2.46 \times 10^{22} \times 1.60 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$\varepsilon = 9.81 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}$$

$$2. \quad IR = \varepsilon - \frac{Ir}{n}$$

$$I = \frac{\varepsilon}{R + \frac{r}{n}} = \frac{4.73}{58.5 + \frac{18.7}{3}}$$

$$I = 73 \text{ mA}$$

$$3. \quad \varepsilon = I(R + r)$$

$$r = \frac{\varepsilon - IR}{I} = \frac{52.6 - 3.11 \times 12.2}{3.11}$$

$$r = 4.71 \, \Omega$$

$$4. \quad V_1 = \frac{V_0 R_1}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{9.06 \times 102}{102 + 187.3}$$

$$V_1 = 3.19 \text{ V}$$

$$V_2 = \frac{V_0 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{9.06 \times 187.3}{102 + 187.3}$$

$$V_2 = 5.87 \text{ V}$$

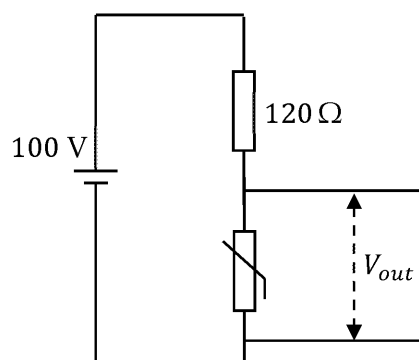
$$5. \quad V_{out} = \frac{V_0 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

We want $V_{out} = 20 \text{ V}$, $V_0 = 100 \text{ V}$, $R_2 = 30 \, \Omega$

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_0} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$\frac{20}{100} = \frac{1}{5} = \frac{30}{30 + R_1}$$

$$R_1 = 120 \, \Omega$$



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Exam style questions

Q1.1	The resistance of the power source in the circuit ✓
Q1.2	32 V ✓
Q1.3	Internal resistance = – gradient of graph ✓ $r = \frac{32-4}{1.68-0}$ $r = 16.7 \Omega$ ✓
Q1.4	There is always a potential drop across the internal resistance of the battery ✓
Q1.5	(emf = 32 V) $E = \varepsilon \times I \times t$ $E = 32 \times 0.8 \times 5 \times 60$ ✓ $E = 7680 \text{ J}$ ✓
Q1.6	$\varepsilon = \frac{E}{Q}$ $Q = \frac{E}{\varepsilon}$ $Q = \frac{7680}{32}$ ✓ $Q = 240 \text{ C}$ ✓

Q2.1	At $I = 0.6 \text{ A}$, $V = 22.5 \text{ V}$ $R = \frac{V}{I}$ $R = \frac{22.5}{0.6}$ ✓ $R = 37.5 \Omega$ ✓
Q2.2	(Semiconductor) diode ✓ No current flows through component below threshold voltage ✓
Q2.3	Potential difference across 20Ω resistor = $0.6 \times 20 = 12 \text{ V}$ Voltage across resistors in parallel is 18 V ✓ Total resistance of resistors in parallel is: $R_{\text{total}} = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{18}{0.6} = 30 \Omega$ ✓ $\frac{1}{R_{\text{total}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$ $\frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{R_{\text{total}}} - \frac{1}{R_1}$ $\frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{30} - \frac{1}{40}$ ✓ $\frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{120}$ $R_2 = 120 \Omega$ ✓
Q2.4	Current through 20Ω resistor stays the same ✓ Current through 40Ω resistor increases ✓

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