

flow—essentially zero current—through the diode and the resistor. As the voltage applied to the circuit increases, the current remains essentially zero, until the voltage reaches the breakdown voltage and the diode conducts current, as shown in **Figure 9.22**. When the battery and the potential across the diode are reversed, making the anode positive and the cathode negative, the diode conducts and current flows through the diode if the voltage is greater than 0.7 V. The resistance of the diode is close to zero. (This is the reason for the resistor in the circuit; if it were not there, the current would become very large.) You can see from the graph in **Figure 9.22** that the voltage and the current do not have a linear relationship. Thus, the diode is an example of a nonohmic device.

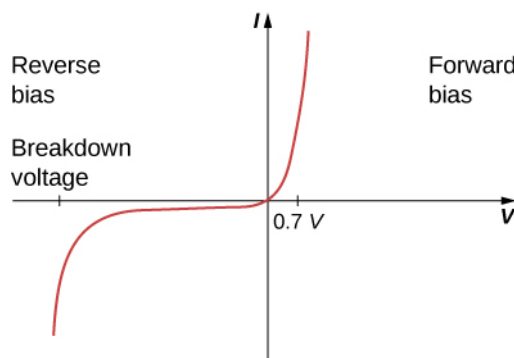


Figure 9.22 When the voltage across the diode is negative and small, there is very little current flow through the diode. As the voltage reaches the breakdown voltage, the diode conducts. When the voltage across the diode is positive and greater than 0.7 V (the actual voltage value depends on the diode), the diode conducts. As the voltage applied increases, the current through the diode increases, but the voltage across the diode remains approximately 0.7 V.

Ohm's law is commonly stated as $V = IR$, but originally it was stated as a microscopic view, in terms of the current density, the conductivity, and the electrical field. This microscopic view suggests the proportionality $V \propto I$ comes from the drift velocity of the free electrons in the metal that results from an applied electrical field. As stated earlier, the current density is proportional to the applied electrical field. The reformulation of Ohm's law is credited to Gustav Kirchhoff, whose name we will see again in the next chapter.

9.5 | Electrical Energy and Power

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Express electrical power in terms of the voltage and the current
- Describe the power dissipated by a resistor in an electric circuit
- Calculate the energy efficiency and cost effectiveness of appliances and equipment

In an electric circuit, electrical energy is continuously converted into other forms of energy. For example, when a current flows in a conductor, electrical energy is converted into thermal energy within the conductor. The electrical field, supplied by the voltage source, accelerates the free electrons, increasing their kinetic energy for a short time. This increased kinetic energy is converted into thermal energy through collisions with the ions of the lattice structure of the conductor. In **Work and Kinetic Energy** (<http://cnx.org/content/m58307/latest/>), we defined power as the rate at which work is done by a force measured in watts. Power can also be defined as the rate at which energy is transferred. In this section, we discuss the time rate of energy transfer, or power, in an electric circuit.

Power in Electric Circuits

Power is associated by many people with electricity. Power transmission lines might come to mind. We also think of light bulbs in terms of their power ratings in watts. What is the expression for **electric power**?

Let us compare a 25-W bulb with a 60-W bulb (**Figure 9.23(a)**). The 60-W bulb glows brighter than the 25-W bulb. Although it is not shown, a 60-W light bulb is also warmer than the 25-W bulb. The heat and light is produced by from the conversion of electrical energy. The kinetic energy lost by the electrons in collisions is converted into the internal energy of the conductor and radiation. How are voltage, current, and resistance related to electric power?

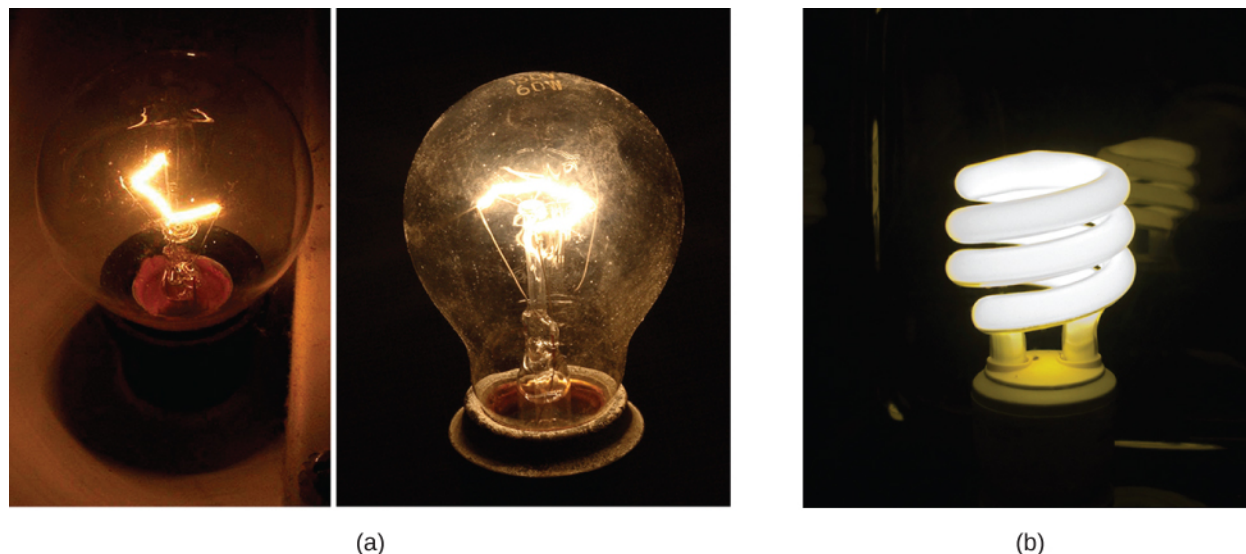


Figure 9.23 (a) Pictured above are two incandescent bulbs: a 25-W bulb (left) and a 60-W bulb (right). The 60-W bulb provides a higher intensity light than the 25-W bulb. The electrical energy supplied to the light bulbs is converted into heat and light. (b) This compact fluorescent light (CFL) bulb puts out the same intensity of light as the 60-W bulb, but at 1/4 to 1/10 the input power. (credit a: modification of works by “Dickbauch”/Wikimedia Commons and Greg Westfall; credit b: modification of work by “dbgg1979”/Flickr)

To calculate electric power, consider a voltage difference existing across a material (**Figure 9.24**). The electric potential V_1 is higher than the electric potential at V_2 , and the voltage difference is negative $V = V_2 - V_1$. As discussed in **Electric Potential**, an electrical field exists between the two potentials, which points from the higher potential to the lower potential. Recall that the electrical potential is defined as the potential energy per charge, $V = \Delta U/q$, and the charge ΔQ loses potential energy moving through the potential difference.

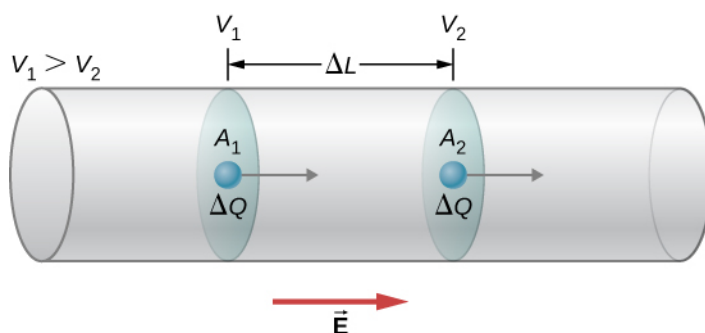


Figure 9.24 When there is a potential difference across a conductor, an electrical field is present that points in the direction from the higher potential to the lower potential.

If the charge is positive, the charge experiences a force due to the electrical field $\vec{F} = m \vec{a} = \Delta Q \vec{E}$. This force is necessary to keep the charge moving. This force does not act to accelerate the charge through the entire distance ΔL because of the interactions of the charge with atoms and free electrons in the material. The speed, and therefore the kinetic energy, of the charge do not increase during the entire trip across ΔL , and charge passing through area A_2 has the same drift velocity v_d as the charge that passes through area A_1 . However, work is done on the charge, by the electrical field, which changes the potential energy. Since the change in the electrical potential difference is negative, the electrical field is

found to be

$$E = -\frac{(V_2 - V_1)}{\Delta L} = \frac{V}{\Delta L}.$$

The work done on the charge is equal to the electric force times the length at which the force is applied,

$$W = F\Delta L = (\Delta QE)\Delta L = \left(\Delta Q \frac{V}{\Delta L}\right)\Delta L = \Delta QV = \Delta U.$$

The charge moves at a drift velocity v_d so the work done on the charge results in a loss of potential energy, but the average kinetic energy remains constant. The lost electrical potential energy appears as thermal energy in the material. On a microscopic scale, the energy transfer is due to collisions between the charge and the molecules of the material, which leads to an increase in temperature in the material. The loss of potential energy results in an increase in the temperature of the material, which is dissipated as radiation. In a resistor, it is dissipated as heat, and in a light bulb, it is dissipated as heat and light.

The power dissipated by the material as heat and light is equal to the time rate of change of the work:

$$P = \frac{\Delta U}{\Delta t} = -\frac{\Delta QV}{\Delta t} = IV.$$

With a resistor, the voltage drop across the resistor is dissipated as heat. Ohm's law states that the voltage across the resistor is equal to the current times the resistance, $V = IR$. The power dissipated by the resistor is therefore

$$P = IV = I(IR) = I^2 R \text{ or } P = IV = \left(\frac{V}{R}\right)V = \frac{V^2}{R}.$$

If a resistor is connected to a battery, the power dissipated as radiant energy by the wires and the resistor is equal to $P = IV = I^2 R = \frac{V^2}{R}$. The power supplied from the battery is equal to current times the voltage, $P = IV$.

Electric Power

The electric power gained or lost by any device has the form

$$P = IV. \quad (9.12)$$

The power dissipated by a resistor has the form

$$P = I^2 R = \frac{V^2}{R}. \quad (9.13)$$

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 9.9

Calculating Power in Electric Devices

A DC winch motor is rated at 20.00 A with a voltage of 115 V. When the motor is running at its maximum power, it can lift an object with a weight of 4900.00 N a distance of 10.00 m, in 30.00 s, at a constant speed. (a) What is the power consumed by the motor? (b) What is the power used in lifting the object? Ignore air resistance. (c) Assuming that the difference in the power consumed by the motor and the power used lifting the object are dissipated as heat by the resistance of the motor, estimate the resistance of the motor?

Strategy

(a) The power consumed by the motor can be found using $P = IV$. (b) The power used in lifting the object at a constant speed can be found using $P = Fv$, where the speed is the distance divided by the time. The upward force supplied by the motor is equal to the weight of the object because the acceleration is constant. (c) The resistance of the motor can be found using $P = I^2 R$.

Solution

- a. The power consumed by the motor is equal to $P = IV$ and the current is given as 20.00 A and the voltage is 115.00 V:

$$P = IV = (20.00 \text{ A})(115.00 \text{ V}) = 2300.00 \text{ W}.$$

- b. The power used lifting the object is equal to $P = Fv$ where the force is equal to the weight of the object (1960 N) and the magnitude of the velocity is $v = \frac{10.00 \text{ m}}{30.00 \text{ s}} = 0.33 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$,

$$P = Fv = (4900 \text{ N})(0.33 \text{ m/s}) = 1633.33 \text{ W}.$$

- c. The difference in the power equals $2300.00 \text{ W} - 1633.33 \text{ W} = 666.67 \text{ W}$ and the resistance can be found using $P = I^2 R$:

$$R = \frac{P}{I^2} = \frac{666.67 \text{ W}}{(20.00 \text{ A})^2} = 1.67 \Omega.$$

Significance

The resistance of the motor is quite small. The resistance of the motor is due to many windings of copper wire. The power dissipated by the motor can be significant since the thermal power dissipated by the motor is proportional to the square of the current ($P = I^2 R$).



9.9 Check Your Understanding Electric motors have a reasonably high efficiency. A 100-hp motor can have an efficiency of 90% and a 1-hp motor can have an efficiency of 80%. Why is it important to use high-performance motors?

A fuse (**Figure 9.25**) is a device that protects a circuit from currents that are too high. A fuse is basically a short piece of wire between two contacts. As we have seen, when a current is running through a conductor, the kinetic energy of the charge carriers is converted into thermal energy in the conductor. The piece of wire in the fuse is under tension and has a low melting point. The wire is designed to heat up and break at the rated current. The fuse is destroyed and must be replaced, but it protects the rest of the circuit. Fuses act quickly, but there is a small time delay while the wire heats up and breaks.



Figure 9.25 A fuse consists of a piece of wire between two contacts. When a current passes through the wire that is greater than the rated current, the wire melts, breaking the connection. Pictured is a “blown” fuse where the wire broke protecting a circuit (credit: modification of work by “Shardayyy”/Flickr).

Circuit breakers are also rated for a maximum current, and open to protect the circuit, but can be reset. Circuit breakers react

much faster. The operation of circuit breakers is not within the scope of this chapter and will be discussed in later chapters. Another method of protecting equipment and people is the ground fault circuit interrupter (GFCI), which is common in bathrooms and kitchens. The GFCI outlets respond very quickly to changes in current. These outlets open when there is a change in magnetic field produced by current-carrying conductors, which is also beyond the scope of this chapter and is covered in a later chapter.

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 $P = \frac{dE}{dt}$, we see that

$$E = \int P dt$$

is the energy used by a device using power P for a time interval t . If power is delivered at a constant rate, then the energy can be found by $E = Pt$. For example, the more light bulbs 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 electrical 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 into 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 not only reduces the cost but also results 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, and 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 (CFLs). (See **Figure 9.23(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 than incandescent bulbs. 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 five times longer than CFLs.

Example 9.10

Calculating the Cost Effectiveness of LED Bulb

The typical replacement for a 100-W incandescent bulb is a 20-W LED bulb. The 20-W LED bulb can provide the same amount of light output as the 100-W incandescent light bulb. What is the cost savings for using the LED bulb in place of the incandescent bulb for one year, assuming \$0.10 per kilowatt-hour is the average energy rate charged by the power company? Assume that the bulb is turned on for three hours a day.

Strategy

- Calculate the energy used during the year for each bulb, using $E = Pt$.
- Multiply the energy by the cost.

Solution

- Calculate the power for each bulb.

$$E_{\text{Incandescent}} = Pt = 100 \text{ W} \left(\frac{1 \text{ kW}}{1000 \text{ W}} \right) \left(\frac{3 \text{ h}}{\text{day}} \right) (365 \text{ days}) = 109.5 \text{ kW} \cdot \text{h}$$

$$E_{\text{LED}} = Pt = 20 \text{ W} \left(\frac{1 \text{ kW}}{1000 \text{ W}} \right) \left(\frac{3 \text{ h}}{\text{day}} \right) (365 \text{ days}) = 21.90 \text{ kW} \cdot \text{h}$$

- b. Calculate the cost for each.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cost}_{\text{Incandescent}} &= 109.5 \text{ kW}\cdot\text{h} \left(\frac{\$0.10}{\text{kW}\cdot\text{h}} \right) = \$10.95 \\ \text{cost}_{\text{LED}} &= 21.90 \text{ kW}\cdot\text{h} \left(\frac{\$0.10}{\text{kW}\cdot\text{h}} \right) = \$2.19\end{aligned}$$

Significance

A LED bulb uses 80% less energy than the incandescent bulb, saving \$8.76 over the incandescent bulb for one year. The LED bulb can cost \$20.00 and the 100-W incandescent bulb can cost \$0.75, which should be calculated into the computation. A typical lifespan of an incandescent bulb is 1200 hours and is 50,000 hours for the LED bulb. The incandescent bulb would last 1.08 years at 3 hours a day and the LED bulb would last 45.66 years. The initial cost of the LED bulb is high, but the cost to the home owner will be \$0.69 for the incandescent bulbs versus \$0.44 for the LED bulbs per year. (Note that the LED bulbs are coming down in price.) The cost savings per year is approximately \$8.50, and that is just for one bulb.



9.10 Check Your Understanding Is the efficiency of the various light bulbs the only consideration when comparing the various light bulbs?

Changing light bulbs from incandescent bulbs to CFL or LED bulbs is a simple way to reduce energy consumption in homes and commercial sites. CFL bulbs operate with a much different mechanism than do incandescent lights. The mechanism is complex and beyond the scope of this chapter, but here is a very general description of the mechanism. CFL bulbs contain argon and mercury vapor housed within a spiral-shaped tube. The CFL bulbs use a “ballast” that increases the voltage used by the CFL bulb. The ballast produce an electrical current, which passes through the gas mixture and excites the gas molecules. The excited gas molecules produce ultraviolet (UV) light, which in turn stimulates the fluorescent coating on the inside of the tube. This coating fluoresces in the visible spectrum, emitting visible light. Traditional fluorescent tubes and CFL bulbs had a short time delay of up to a few seconds while the mixture was being “warmed up” and the molecules reached an excited state. It should be noted that these bulbs do contain mercury, which is poisonous, but if the bulb is broken, the mercury is never released. Even if the bulb is broken, the mercury tends to remain in the fluorescent coating. The amount is also quite small and the advantage of the energy saving may outweigh the disadvantage of using mercury.

The CFL light bulbs are being replaced with LED light bulbs, where LED stands for “light-emitting diode.” The diode was briefly discussed as a nonohmic device, made of semiconducting material, which essentially permits current flow in one direction. LEDs are a special type of diode made of semiconducting materials infused with impurities in combinations and concentrations that enable the extra energy from the movement of the electrons during electrical excitation to be converted into visible light. Semiconducting devices will be explained in greater detail in **Condensed Matter Physics** (<http://cnx.org/content/m58591/latest/>).

Commercial LEDs are quickly becoming the standard for commercial and residential lighting, replacing incandescent and CFL bulbs. They are designed for the visible spectrum and are constructed from gallium doped with arsenic and phosphorous atoms. The color emitted from an LED depends on the materials used in the semiconductor and the current. In the early years of LED development, small LEDs found on circuit boards were red, green, and yellow, but LED light bulbs can now be programmed to produce millions of colors of light as well as many different hues of white light.

Comparison of Incandescent, CFL, and LED Light Bulbs

The energy savings can be significant when replacing an incandescent light bulb or a CFL light bulb with an LED light. Light bulbs are rated by the amount of power that the bulb consumes, and the amount of light output is measured in lumens. The lumen (lm) is the SI -derived unit of luminous flux and is a measure of the total quantity of visible light emitted by a source. A 60-W incandescent light bulb can be replaced with a 13- to 15-W CFL bulb or a 6- to 8-W LED bulb, all three of which have a light output of approximately 800 lm. A table of light output for some commonly used light bulbs appears in **Table 9.2**.

The life spans of the three types of bulbs are significantly different. An LED bulb has a life span of 50,000 hours, whereas the CFL has a lifespan of 8000 hours and the incandescent lasts a mere 1200 hours. The LED bulb is the most durable, easily withstanding rough treatment such as jarring and bumping. The incandescent light bulb has little tolerance to the same treatment since the filament and glass can easily break. The CFL bulb is also less durable than the LED bulb because of its glass construction. The amount of heat emitted is 3.4 btu/h for the 8-W LED bulb, 85 btu/h for the 60-W incandescent bulb, and 30 btu/h for the CFL bulb. As mentioned earlier, a major drawback of the CFL bulb is that it contains mercury, a

neurotoxin, and must be disposed of as hazardous waste. From these data, it is easy to understand why the LED light bulb is quickly becoming the standard in lighting.

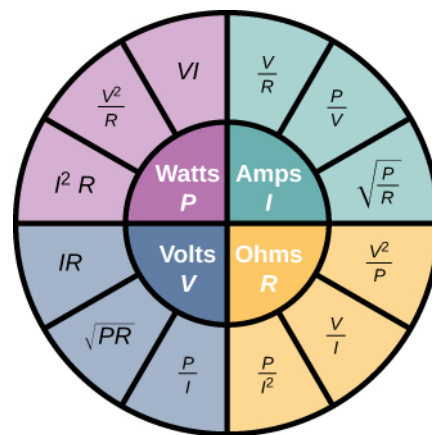
Light Output (lumens)	LED Light Bulbs (watts)	Incandescent Light Bulbs (watts)	CFL Light Bulbs (watts)
450	4–5	40	9–13
800	6–8	60	13–15
1100	9–13	75	18–25
1600	16–20	100	23–30
2600	25–28	150	30–55

Table 9.2 Light Output of LED, Incandescent, and CFL Light Bulbs

Summary of Relationships

In this chapter, we have discussed relationships between voltages, current, resistance, and power. **Figure 9.26** shows a summary of the relationships between these measurable quantities for ohmic devices. (Recall that ohmic devices follow Ohm's law $V = IR$.) For example, if you need to calculate the power, use the pink section, which shows that $P = VI$,

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R}, \text{ and } P = I^2 R.$$



P = Power I = Current
 V = Voltage R = Resistance

Figure 9.26 This circle shows a summary of the equations for the relationships between power, current, voltage, and resistance.

Which equation you use depends on what values you are given, or you measure. For example if you are given the current and the resistance, use $P = I^2 R$. Although all the possible combinations may seem overwhelming, don't forget that they all are combinations of just two equations, Ohm's law ($V = IR$) and power ($P = IV$).

9.6 | Superconductors

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the phenomenon of superconductivity
- List applications of superconductivity

Touch the power supply of your laptop computer or some other device. It probably feels slightly warm. That heat is an unwanted byproduct of the process of converting household electric power into a current that can be used by your device. Although electric power is reasonably efficient, other losses are associated with it. As discussed in the section on power and energy, transmission of electric power produces $I^2 R$ line losses. These line losses exist whether the power is generated from conventional power plants (using coal, oil, or gas), nuclear plants, solar plants, hydroelectric plants, or wind farms. These losses can be reduced, but not eliminated, by transmitting using a higher voltage. It would be wonderful if these line losses could be eliminated, but that would require transmission lines that have zero resistance. In a world that has a global interest in not wasting energy, the reduction or elimination of this unwanted thermal energy would be a significant achievement. Is this possible?

The Resistance of Mercury

In 1911, Heike Kamerlingh Onnes of Leiden University, a Dutch physicist, was looking at the temperature dependence of the resistance of the element mercury. He cooled the sample of mercury and noticed the familiar behavior of a linear dependence of resistance on temperature; as the temperature decreased, the resistance decreased. Kamerlingh Onnes continued to cool the sample of mercury, using liquid helium. As the temperature approached 4.2 K (−269.2 °C), the resistance abruptly went to zero (**Figure 9.27**). This temperature is known as the **critical temperature** T_c for mercury.

The sample of mercury entered into a phase where the resistance was absolutely zero. This phenomenon is known as **superconductivity**. (Note: If you connect the leads of a three-digit ohmmeter across a conductor, the reading commonly shows up as 0.00 Ω . The resistance of the conductor is not actually zero, it is less than 0.01 Ω .) There are various methods to measure very small resistances, such as the four-point method, but an ohmmeter is not an acceptable method to use for testing resistance in superconductivity.

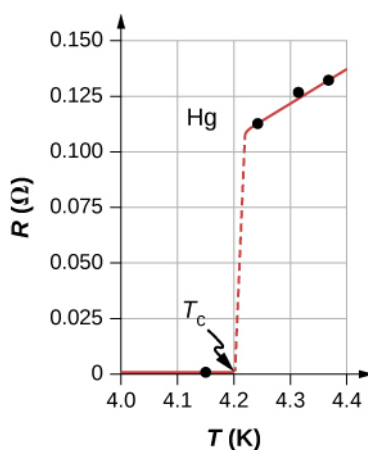


Figure 9.27 The resistance of a sample of mercury is zero at very low temperatures—it is a superconductor up to the temperature of about 4.2 K. Above that critical temperature, its resistance makes a sudden jump and then increases nearly linearly with temperature.

Other Superconducting Materials

As research continued, several other materials were found to enter a superconducting phase, when the temperature reached near absolute zero. In 1941, an alloy of niobium-nitride was found that could become superconducting at $T_c = 16$ K (−257 °C) and in 1953, vanadium-silicon was found to become superconductive at $T_c = 17.5$ K (−255.7 °C).

The temperatures for the transition into superconductivity were slowly creeping higher. Strangely, many materials that make good conductors, such as copper, silver, and gold, do not exhibit superconductivity. Imagine the energy savings if transmission lines for electric power-generating stations could be made to be superconducting at temperatures near room temperature! A resistance of zero ohms means no $I^2 R$ losses and a great boost to reducing energy consumption. The problem is that $T_c = 17.5$ K is still very cold and in the range of liquid helium temperatures. At this temperature, it is not cost effective to transmit electrical energy because of the cooling requirements.

A large jump was seen in 1986, when a team of researchers, headed by Dr. Ching Wu Chu of Houston University, fabricated a brittle, ceramic compound with a transition temperature of $T_c = 92$ K (−181 °C). The ceramic material, composed of yttrium barium copper oxide (YBCO), was an insulator at room temperature. Although this temperature still seems

quite cold, it is near the boiling point of liquid nitrogen, a liquid commonly used in refrigeration. You may have noticed refrigerated trucks traveling down the highway labeled as “Liquid Nitrogen Cooled.”

YBCO ceramic is a material that could be useful for transmitting electrical energy because the cost saving of reducing the I^2R losses are larger than the cost of cooling the superconducting cable, making it financially feasible. There were and are many engineering problems to overcome. For example, unlike traditional electrical cables, which are flexible and have a decent tensile strength, ceramics are brittle and would break rather than stretch under pressure. Processes that are rather simple with traditional cables, such as making connections, become difficult when working with ceramics. The problems are difficult and complex, and material scientists and engineers are coming up with innovative solutions.

An interesting consequence of the resistance going to zero is that once a current is established in a superconductor, it persists without an applied voltage source. Current loops in a superconductor have been set up and the current loops have been observed to persist for years without decaying.

Zero resistance is not the only interesting phenomenon that occurs as the materials reach their transition temperatures. A second effect is the exclusion of magnetic fields. This is known as the **Meissner effect** (**Figure 9.28**). A light, permanent magnet placed over a superconducting sample will levitate in a stable position above the superconductor. High-speed trains have been developed that levitate on strong superconducting magnets, eliminating the friction normally experienced between the train and the tracks. In Japan, the Yamanashi Maglev test line opened on April 3, 1997. In April 2015, the MLX01 test vehicle attained a speed of 374 mph (603 km/h).

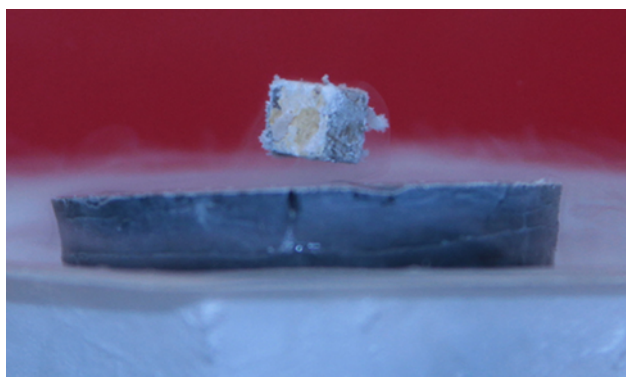


Figure 9.28 A small, strong magnet levitates over a superconductor cooled to liquid nitrogen temperature. The magnet levitates because the superconductor excludes magnetic fields. (credit: Joseph J. Trout)

Table 9.3 shows a select list of elements, compounds, and high-temperature superconductors, along with the critical temperatures for which they become superconducting. Each section is sorted from the highest critical temperature to the lowest. Also listed is the critical magnetic field for some of the materials. This is the strength of the magnetic field that destroys superconductivity. Finally, the type of the superconductor is listed.

There are two types of superconductors. There are 30 pure metals that exhibit zero resistivity below their critical temperature and exhibit the Meissner effect, the property of excluding magnetic fields from the interior of the superconductor while the superconductor is at a temperature below the critical temperature. These metals are called Type I superconductors. The superconductivity exists only below their critical temperatures and below a critical magnetic field strength. Type I superconductors are well described by the BCS theory (described next). Type I superconductors have limited practical applications because the strength of the critical magnetic field needed to destroy the superconductivity is quite low.

Type II superconductors are found to have much higher critical magnetic fields and therefore can carry much higher current densities while remaining in the superconducting state. A collection of various ceramics containing barium-copper-oxide have much higher critical temperatures for the transition into a superconducting state. Superconducting materials that belong to this subcategory of the Type II superconductors are often categorized as high-temperature superconductors.

Introduction to BCS Theory

Type I superconductors, along with some Type II superconductors can be modeled using the BCS theory, proposed by John Bardeen, Leon Cooper, and Robert Schrieffer. Although the theory is beyond the scope of this chapter, a short summary of the theory is provided here. (More detail is provided in **Condensed Matter Physics** (<http://cnx.org/content/m58591/latest/>) .) The theory considers pairs of electrons and how they are coupled together through lattice-vibration interactions. Through the interactions with the crystalline lattice, electrons near the Fermi energy level feel a small attractive

force and form pairs (Cooper pairs), and the coupling is known as a phonon interaction. Single electrons are fermions, which are particles that obey the Pauli exclusion principle. The Pauli exclusion principle in quantum mechanics states that two identical fermions (particles with half-integer spin) cannot occupy the same quantum state simultaneously. Each electron has four quantum numbers (n , l , m_l , m_s). The principal quantum number (n) describes the energy of the electron, the orbital angular momentum quantum number (l) indicates the most probable distance from the nucleus, the magnetic quantum number (m_l) describes the energy levels in the subshell, and the electron spin quantum number (m_s) describes the orientation of the spin of the electron, either up or down. As the material enters a superconducting state, pairs of electrons act more like bosons, which can condense into the same energy level and need not obey the Pauli exclusion principle. The electron pairs have a slightly lower energy and leave an energy gap above them on the order of 0.001 eV. This energy gap inhibits collision interactions that lead to ordinary resistivity. When the material is below the critical temperature, the thermal energy is less than the band gap and the material exhibits zero resistivity.

Material	Symbol or Formula	Critical Temperature T_c (K)	Critical Magnetic Field H_c (T)	Type
Elements				
Lead	Pb	7.19	0.08	I
Lanthanum	La	(α) 4.90 – (β) 6.30		I
Tantalum	Ta	4.48	0.09	I
Mercury	Hg	(α) 4.15 – (β) 3.95	0.04	I
Tin	Sn	3.72	0.03	I
Indium	In	3.40	0.03	I
Thallium	Tl	2.39	0.03	I
Rhenium	Re	2.40	0.03	I
Thorium	Th	1.37	0.013	I
Protactinium	Pa	1.40		I
Aluminum	Al	1.20	0.01	I
Gallium	Ga	1.10	0.005	I
Zinc	Zn	0.86	0.014	I
Titanium	Ti	0.39	0.01	I
Uranium	U	(α) 0.68 – (β) 1.80		I
Cadmium	Cd	11.4	4.00	I
Compounds				
Niobium-germanium	Nb ₃ Ge	23.20	37.00	II
Niobium-tin	Nb ₃ Sn	18.30	30.00	II
Niobium-nitride	NbN	16.00		II
Niobium-titanium	NbTi	10.00	15.00	II
High-Temperature Oxides				
	HgBa ₂ CaCu ₂ O ₈	134.00		II
	Tl ₂ Ba ₂ Ca ₂ Cu ₃ O ₁₀	125.00		II
	YBa ₂ Cu ₃ O ₇	92.00	120.00	II

Table 9.3 Superconductor Critical Temperatures

Applications of Superconductors

Superconductors can be used to make superconducting magnets. These magnets are 10 times stronger than the strongest electromagnets. These magnets are currently in use in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), which produces high-quality images of the body interior without dangerous radiation.

Another interesting application of superconductivity is the **SQUID** (superconducting quantum interference device). A SQUID is a very sensitive magnetometer used to measure extremely subtle magnetic fields. The operation of the SQUID is based on superconducting loops containing Josephson junctions. A **Josephson junction** is the result of a theoretical prediction made by B. D. Josephson in an article published in 1962. In the article, Josephson described how a supercurrent can flow between two pieces of superconductor separated by a thin layer of insulator. This phenomenon is now called the Josephson effect. The SQUID consists of a superconducting current loop containing two Josephson junctions, as shown in **Figure 9.29**. When the loop is placed in even a very weak magnetic field, there is an interference effect that depends on the strength of the magnetic field.

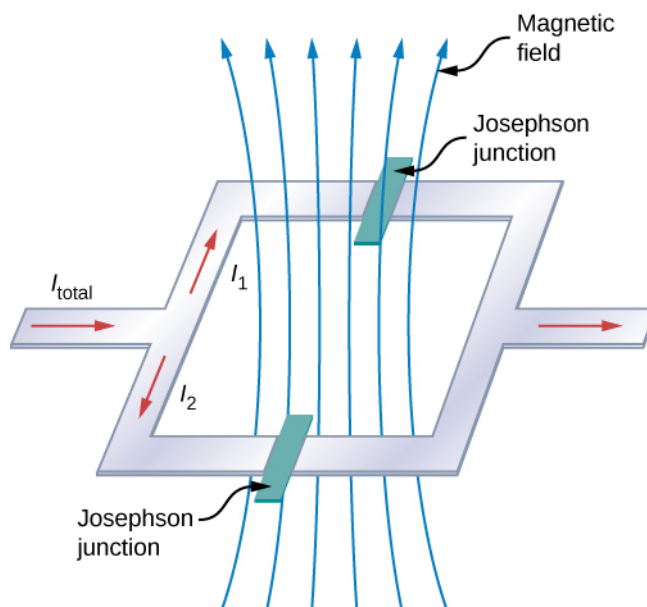


Figure 9.29 The SQUID (superconducting quantum interference device) uses a superconducting current loop and two Josephson junctions to detect magnetic fields as low as 10^{-14} T (Earth's magnet field is on the order of 0.3×10^{-5} T).

Superconductivity is a fascinating and useful phenomenon. At critical temperatures near the boiling point of liquid nitrogen, superconductivity has special applications in MRIs, particle accelerators, and high-speed trains. Will we reach a state where we can have materials enter the superconducting phase at near room temperatures? It seems a long way off, but if scientists in 1911 were asked if we would reach liquid-nitrogen temperatures with a ceramic, they might have thought it implausible.