Electrostatics (RECAP) Electric Current



- Electric charge: conserved and quantized
- Electric field:
 - force per unit charge, field lines, adding vectors
- Flux: amount of field passing through an area
- Electric potential:
 - energy per unit charge, integral of field
 - new unit: electron volt (eV)
- **Dipole moment:** paired + and charges
- **Capacitance:** device to store charge and energy
- **Dielectrics:** polarization, dielectric constant

Fundamental Laws

Coulomb's Law:

1.
$$F = kQq / r^{2}$$

2. $E = kQ / r^{2}$
3. $V = kQ / r$

Gauss's Law:

The outward flux of the electric field through any closed surface equals the net enclosed charge divided by ε_0 .

Relations between potential and field:

The potential difference between A and B is the work required to carry a unit positive charge from A to B.

$$\Delta V = -\int E_x dx \qquad E_x = -\frac{dV}{dx} \quad etc.$$

Terminology

Words whose precise definitions you must know:

Field

Flux

Potential

Potential difference

Dipole moment

Capacitance

Dielectric constant

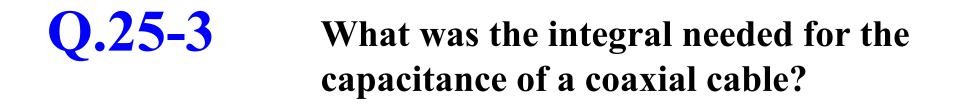
And of course the <u>SI units</u> for all these things.



In the text, this formula is derived for the capacitance per unit length of a long cylindrical capacitor, such as a coaxial cable.

In this derivation, the potential difference was calculated by means of an integral over the electric field. What was that integral?

(1)
$$\int r \, dr$$
 (2) $\int r^2 \, dr$ (3) $\int \frac{dr}{r}$ (4) $\int \frac{dr}{r^2}$

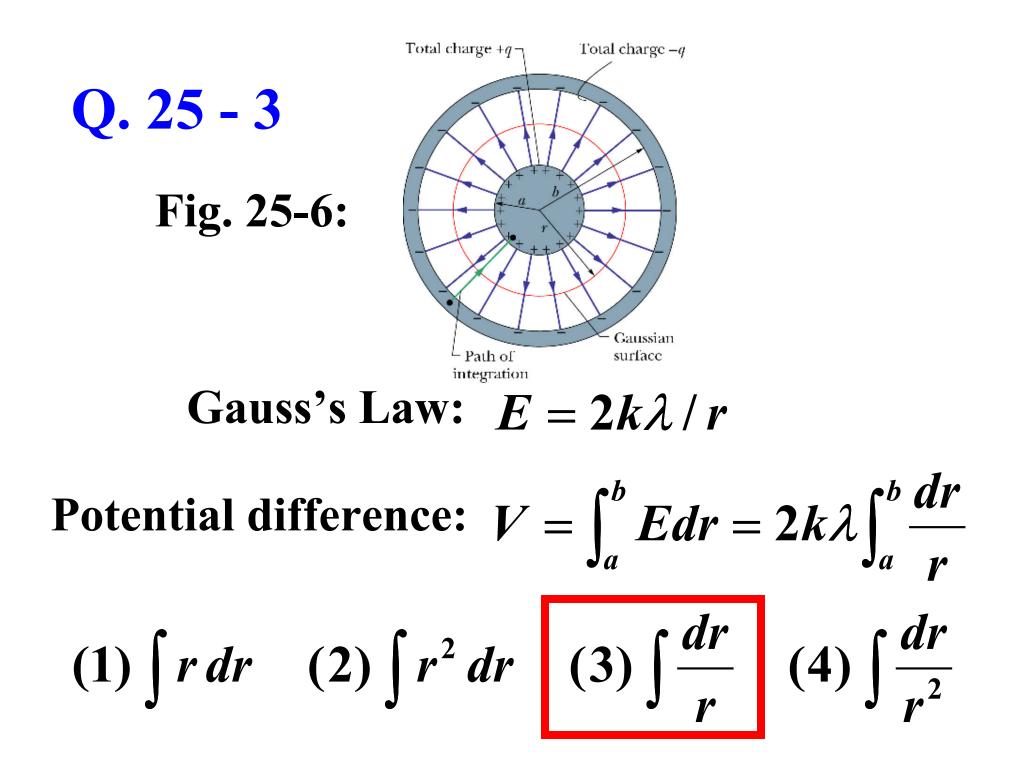


- 1) ∫r dr
 2) ∫r² dr
- 3) $\int (1/r) dr$
- 4) $\int (1/r^2) dr$

Gauss's Low for cylindrical symmetry

Long Line of Charge

LONG cylinder, uniform charge density 2 (Gububs / meter) Concentric imaginary gaussian surface of radius r, length l. $\oint \vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} \vec{A} = EA = 2\pi r I E \frac{3}{2}$ $Q_{in} = I\lambda$ Gauss's Law $\Rightarrow E(r) = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon}$

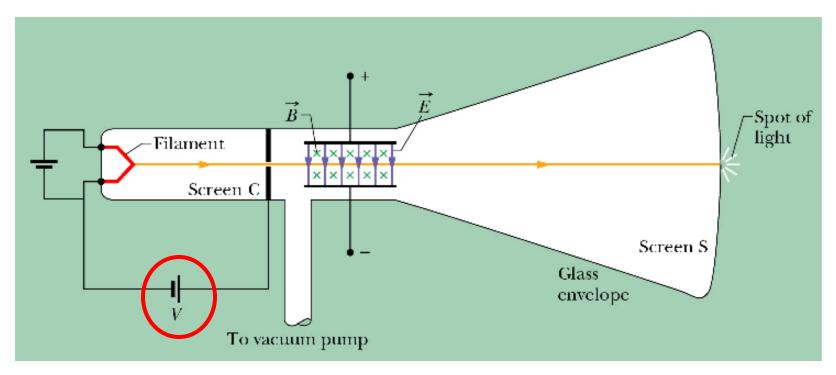


Review: The electron-volt

- One eV is the energy to move an electron through a potential difference of one volt.
- Note this is a unit of energy, not potential.
- This is not an SI unit but is used in all processes involving electrons, atoms, etc.

$$U = qV \quad \text{So if V=1 and q=e then:} \\ U = 1 \ eV = e \times V \\ = (1.6 \times 10^{-19} \ C) \times (1 \ V) = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \ J$$

Cathode Ray Tube



Electron gun: potential V gives electron energy in eV.

$$K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = qV$$

So if V = 500 volts, electron energy is K = 500 eV

High energies

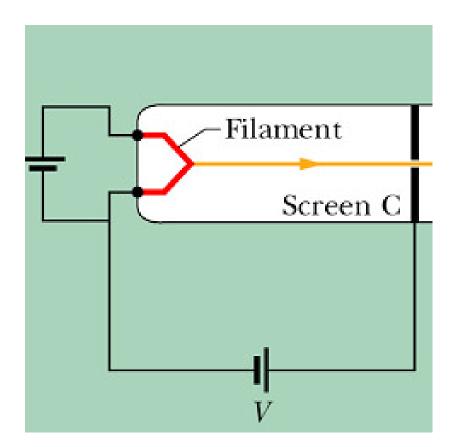
• For X-ray machines, accelerate electrons with potentials of thousands of volts, so we speak of kinetic energies in keV. $10^3 eV$

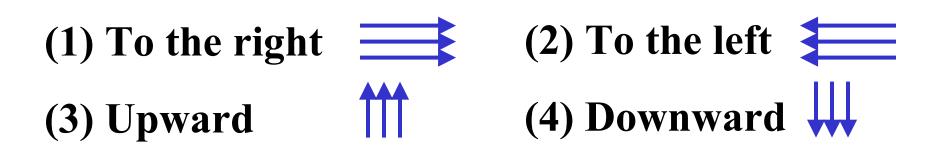
 $10^{6} eV$

- In nuclear physics, accelerators produce beams of particles with energies in *MeV*.
- In elementary-particle physics, high-energy particles beams have energies measured in giga-volts: GeV. $10^9 eV$

Q. 25-4

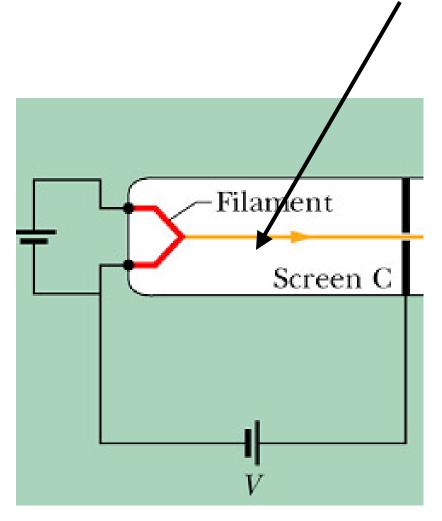
Which direction will the electric field lines point in this electron gun?







Which way does E point in the accelerating region?



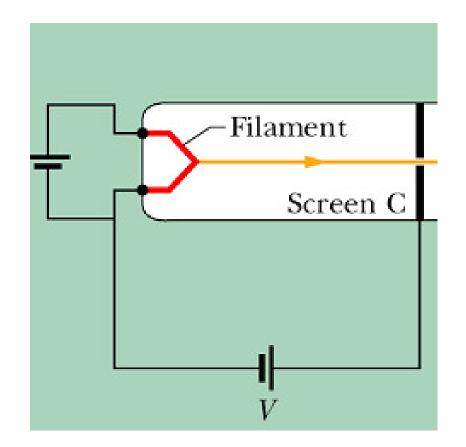
- 1) To the right.
- 2) To the left.
- 3) Upward.
- 4) Downward.

Q. 25-4

Which direction will the electric field lines point in this electron gun?

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{E} = -e\vec{E}$$

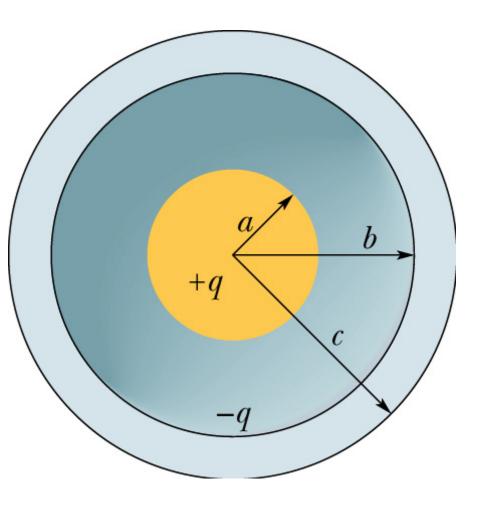
So for force to the right, we need field to the left!



Text problem 23-49

•Nonconducting sphere of radius a with charge q uniformly distributed

•Concentric metal shell of inner radius b, outer radius c, with total charge –q.

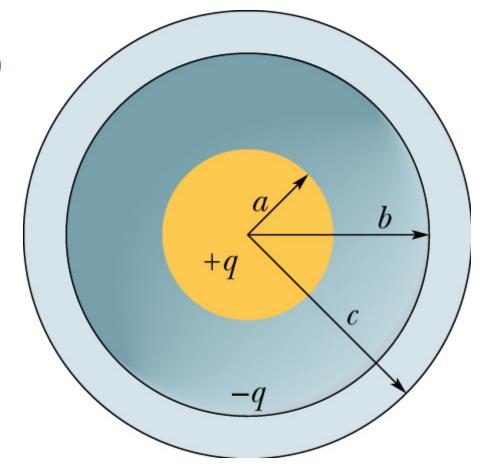


(a) Find field everywhere.

(b) How is charge distributed on shell?

Text problem 49(a)

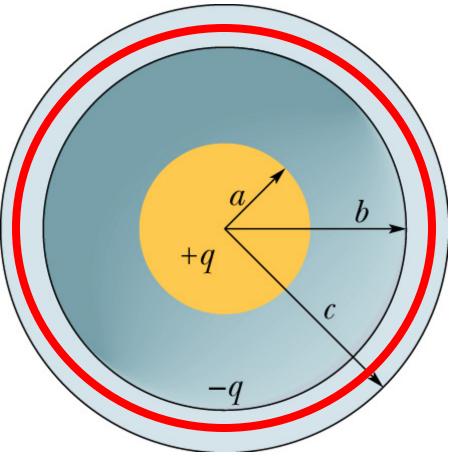
- For r<a, have previous solution: $E = \frac{\rho r}{\rho r}$
- For a<r<b, shell
theorem gives: $E = \frac{1}{3\varepsilon_0}$
E = $\frac{kq}{2}$
- For b<r<c, we're inside metal, so **E** = **0**.
- For c<r, shell theorem gives $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{0}$.



In all cases, field is radially outward.

Text problem 49(b)

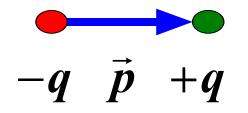
- Draw *gaussian sphere of radius r* with b<r<c.
- Because we're inside a metal, E = 0.
- **Therefore** flux = 0.
- Therefore enclosed charge = 0.

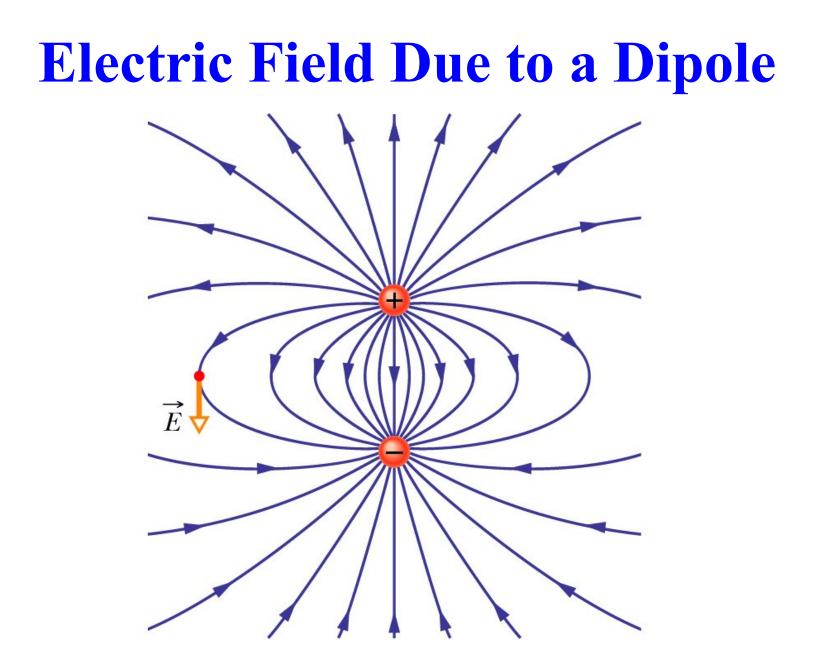


- Therefore there is –q on inner surface of shell.
- Therefore there is no charge on outer surface.

Electric Dipole

- The combination of two charges of equal but opposite sign is called a dipole.
- If the charges +q and -q are separated by a distance d, then the *dipole moment* p
 is defined as a vector pointing from -q to +q of magnitude p = qd.





Potential due to a dipole

Exact potential at P:

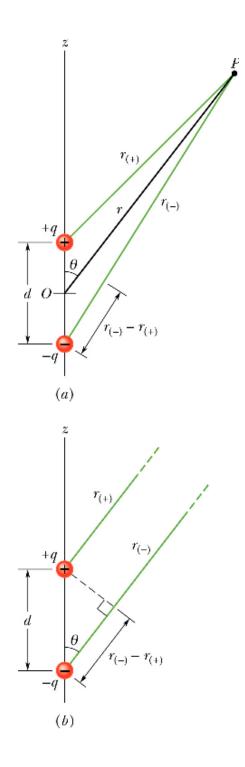
$$V = kq / r_{+} - kq / r_{-}$$

$$r_{+} = \sqrt{r^{2} + (d/2)^{2} - rd\cos\theta}$$

$$r_{-} = \sqrt{r^{2} + (d/2)^{2} + rd\cos\theta}$$

Approx. potential at P, r>>d:

$$V \approx kp\cos\theta / r^2$$



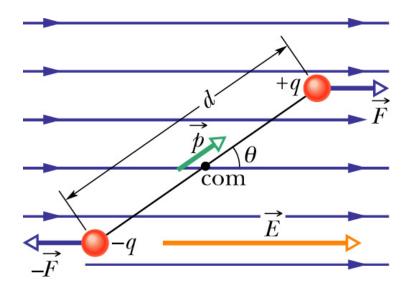
Result: the dipole potential

So we have found that for large r, the *potential produced* by a dipole is: \vec{p} $V(\vec{r}) = kp \cos \theta / r^2$

Note this can also be written:

$$V(\vec{r}) = k \frac{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{p}}{r^3}$$

Torque on a Dipole in a Field

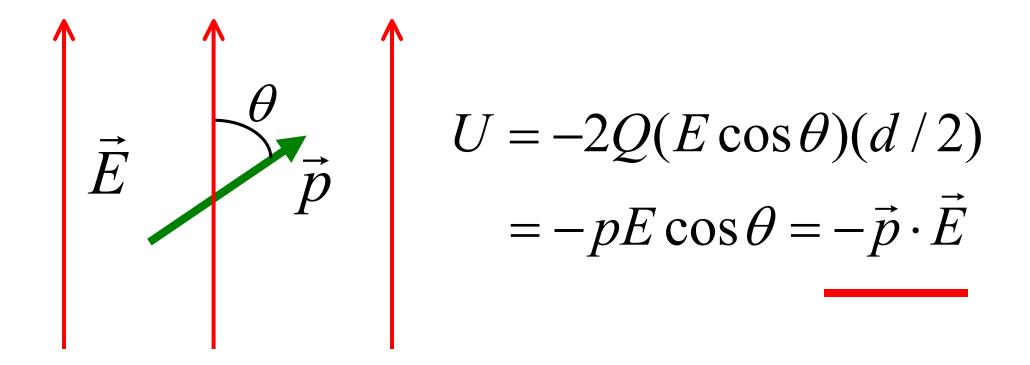


$$\tau = 2 \times F \times \left(\frac{d}{2}\sin\theta\right) = qE \times d\sin\theta = pE\sin\theta$$

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{p} \times \vec{E}$$



Energy of dipole in given field



So dipole tends to *align with* an applied field.



Interaction of two dipoles \vec{p}_1 \vec{r} \vec{p}_2

$$U = qV(r + d/2) - qV(r - d/2)$$

= $\frac{kqp}{(r + d/2)^2} - \frac{kqp}{(r - d/2)^2} = -k\frac{p_1p_2}{r^3}$

Attractive potential: work required to pull apart.

Current and Resistance

Chapters 26, 27

TODAY:

- Ohm's Law
- Ideal Meters
- Sources of Voltage and Power
- Resistors in series and parallel

Current is rate of flow of charge

- If you watch closely at a fixed point as current is flowing along a wire, the current is the amount of charge that passes by per unit time.
- SI unit is the Ampere: 1A = 1C/s.
- Example: In a cathode-ray tube, n = 3x10¹⁵ electrons leave the electron gun per second. What is the current of this electron beam?
- Solution:

 $ne = 3 \times 10^{15} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} = 5 \times 10^{-4} C / s = 0.5 mA$

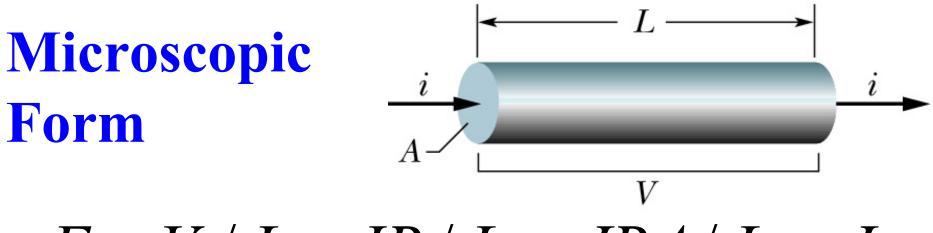
Current and Resistance

- When a current flows through a *perfect* conductor (*e.g.* copper wire) there is no change in potential.
- When current flows through an *imperfect* conductor (*resistor*) there must be a field E to make it flow and thus a change in potential V = Ed for a distance d.
- If the current I is proportional to the field E which is causing it, then it will be proportional to the potential change V. This is Ohm's "Law" and the proportionality constant is called the <u>resistance</u> R.

$$V = IR$$

Notes on Ohm's Law

- This is not a fundamental law of nature like Gauss's Law. It's just a proportionality which is approximately true for some materials under some conditions.
- The entire electronics industry is based on materials which *violate* Ohm's Law.
- Ohm's Law should really be written as a *potential drop* ∆V = –IR because if you follow the current the potential decreases.



 $E = V / L = IR / L = JRA / L = J\rho$

So we define *resistivity* ρ : $R = \rho L / A$

and *current density j*: J = I / A

So the *microscopic form* of Ohm's Law is $E = J\rho$

Resistance

- So for a given object (resistor) we can measure its resistance R = V/I.
- The SI unit of resistance is the ohm (Ω).
- Clearly $1\Omega = 1V/A$ (ohm = volt/amp).
- Thus resistivity ρ has units Ω -m.
- But remember Ohm's Law is only an approximation. For example, resistance normally changes with temperature.

Example: Problem 26-15

- A wire is 2 m long, with a diameter of 1 mm.
- If its resistance is 50 m Ω , what is the resistivity of the material?

SZM

$$R = \rho l / A$$

$$\rho = RA / l = \frac{\left(50 \times 10^{-3} \ \Omega\right) \times \pi \times \left(0.5 \times 10^{-3} \ m\right)^2}{2}$$

$$= 2 \times 10^{-8} \ \Omega m$$

(Note this is consistent with table on page 689.)

Voltage and Power Sources

When a battery or any other voltage source delivers a current *i* at a potential difference *V* it is supplying <u>power</u> P = iV.

$$P = \frac{U}{t} = \frac{qV}{t} = iV$$

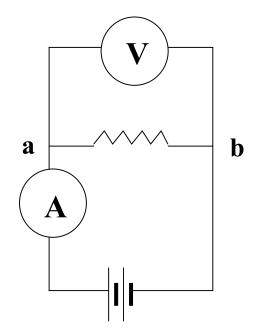
When a current *i* flows through a resistor with a voltage drop *V*, a friction-like process called <u>Joule</u> <u>heating</u> converts this power P=iV into heat.

Note on P = I V

This is the easiest equation in the world to remember, IF you know what the three quantities mean:

 $voltage \times current = \frac{energy}{charge} \times \frac{charge}{time} = \frac{energy}{time} = power$

Ideal Meters



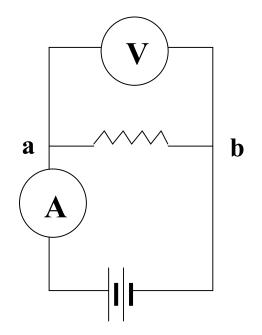
"Ideal ammeter" Measures current and has zero potential drop (zero R)

"Ideal voltmeter" Measures V_{ab}=V_a-V_b but draws zero current (infinite R)

"Ideal wires" V is constant along any wire (zero R)

Example

Meter A reads i = 2Aflowing upward as shown, and meter V reads V = 6V.



(a) What is resistance R?

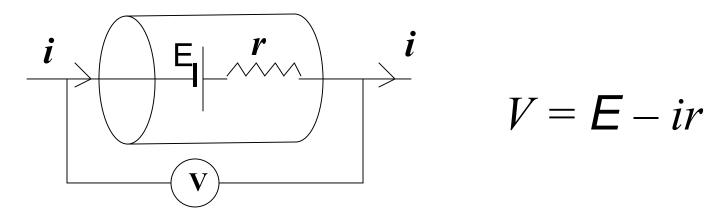
$R = V / i = 6V / 2A = 3\Omega$

(b) Which point is at the higher potential, A or B?

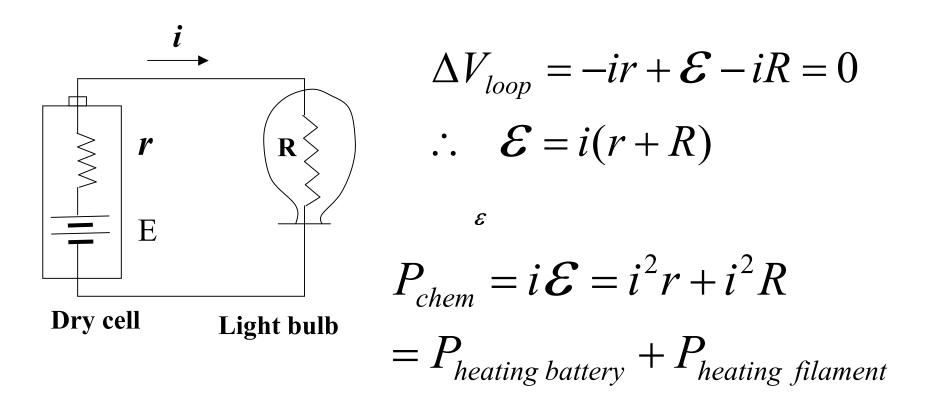
Point A because potential drops by 6 volts.

EMF

- Electromotive force (emf) is not a force: it's the potential difference provided by a power supply.
- For a battery providing a current i, the terminal voltage V is less than the emf E because there is an internal resistance r:



Power in a Simple Circuit



Example

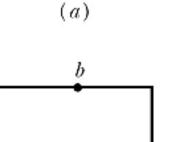
For a battery with internal resistance $r = 25 \Omega$, what load resistor R will get maximum power?

$$P_{load} = i^{2}R = \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}}{r+R}\right)^{2}R = \mathcal{E}^{2}\left(\frac{R}{(r+R)^{2}}\right)$$
$$\frac{d}{dR}\left(\frac{R}{(r+R)^{2}}\right) = \frac{(r+R)^{2} - 2R(r+R)}{(r+R)^{4}} = 0$$
$$(r+R)^{2} = 2R(r+R)$$
$$r+R = 2R$$
$$R = r = 25\Omega$$

Resistors in Series

- Voltage drops add
- Currents are equal.

$$V_b - V_a = \mathcal{E} = iR_1 + iR_2 + iR_3$$



a

(b)

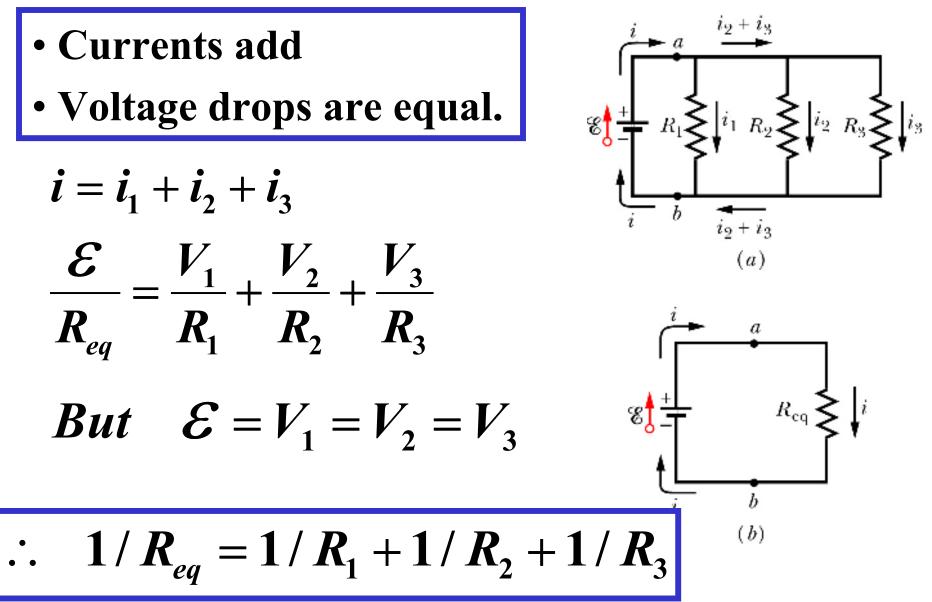
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 $R_{\rm eq}$

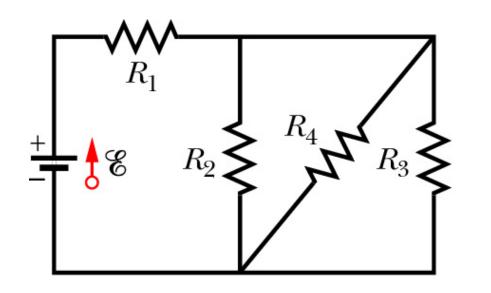
But we want
$$\mathcal{E} = iR_{eq}$$

$$\therefore \quad \boldsymbol{R}_{eq} = \boldsymbol{R}_1 + \boldsymbol{R}_2 + \boldsymbol{R}_3$$

Resistors in Parallel



Example: Problem 27-30

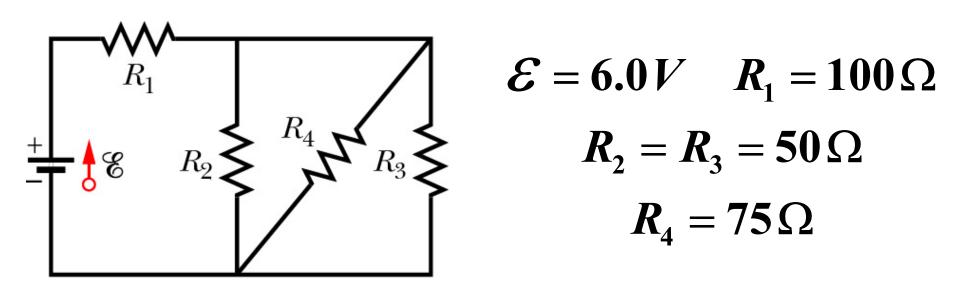


$$\mathcal{E} = 6.0V$$
 $R_1 = 100\Omega$
 $R_2 = R_3 = 50\Omega$
 $R_4 = 75\Omega$

(a) Find the equivalent resistance of the network.

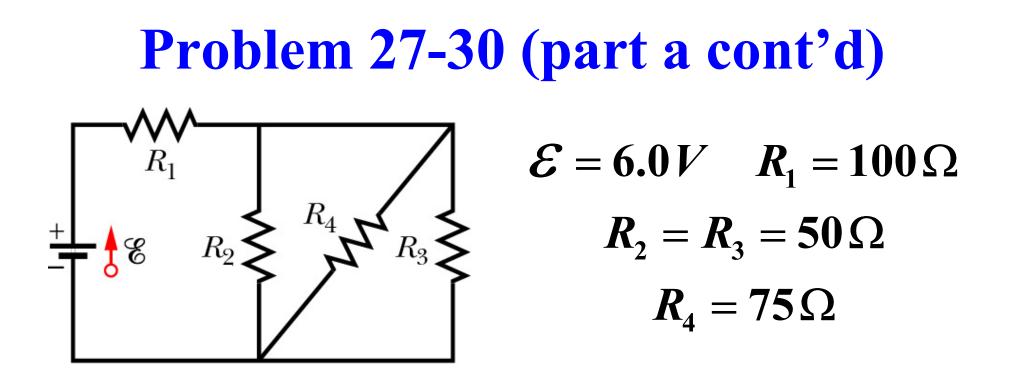
(b) Find the current in each resistor.

Problem 27-30 (part a)



(a) Find the equivalent resistance of the network.

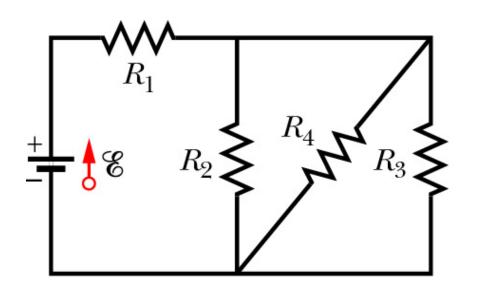
$$\frac{1}{R_{234}} = \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \frac{1}{R_4}$$
$$= \frac{1}{50} + \frac{1}{50} + \frac{1}{50} + \frac{1}{75} = \frac{16}{300}$$
$$So \quad R_{234} = \frac{300}{16} = \frac{19}{\Omega}$$



(a) Find the equivalent resistance of the network.

Now R_1 and R_{234} are inseries so $R_{eq} = R_1 + R_{234} = 100 \,\Omega + 19 \,\Omega = 119 \,\Omega$

Problem 27-30 (part b)

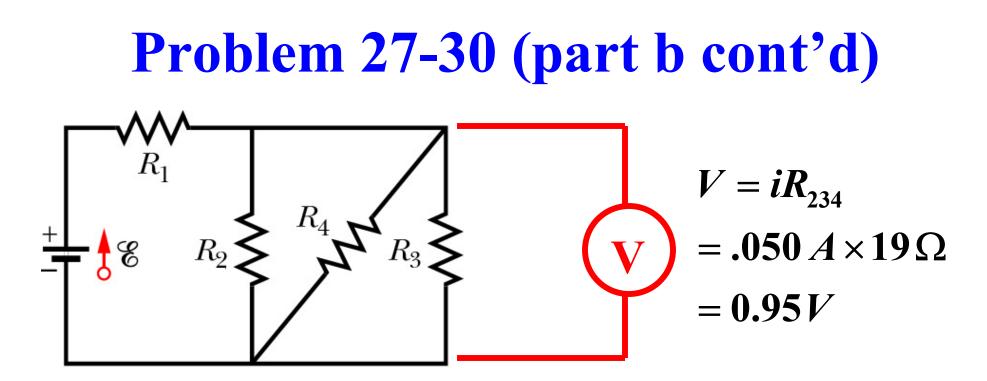


 $\mathcal{E} = 6.0V \quad R_1 = 100\,\Omega$ $R_2 = R_3 = 50\,\Omega$ $R_4 = 75\,\Omega$

(b) Find the current in each resistor.

First get the total current from the battery, which is also the current through R_1 :

$$i_1 = \mathcal{E} / R_{eq} = 6.0 / 119 = .050 A = 50 mA$$

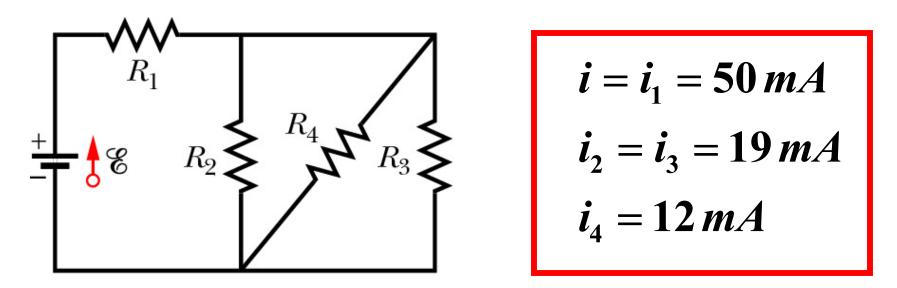


(b) Find the current in each resistor.

$$i_2 = V / R_2 = .95 / 50 = 19 mA$$

 $i_3 = V / R_3 = .95 / 50 = 19 mA$
 $i_4 = V / R_4 = .95 / 75 = 12 mA$

Problem 27-30 (check)



Check by adding the currents in the three branches:

$$i_2 + i_3 + i_4 = 19 + 19 + 12 = 50 \, mA$$

= $i_1 \, \nu$