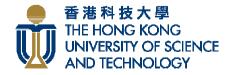
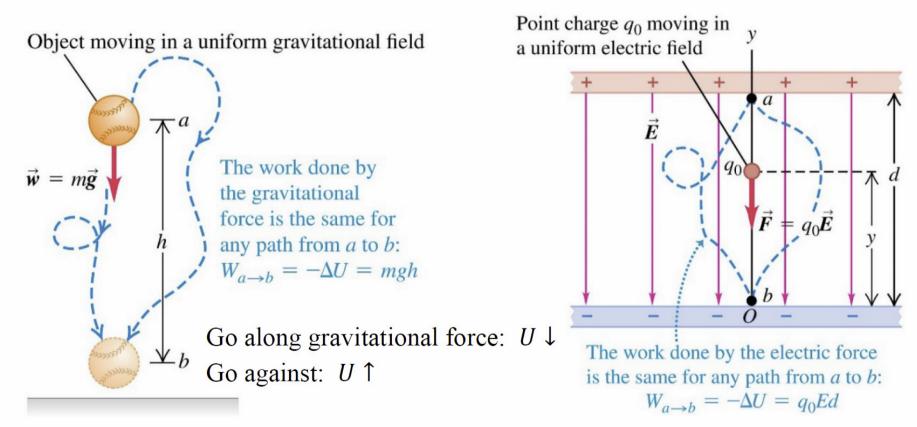
## **Electric Potential**





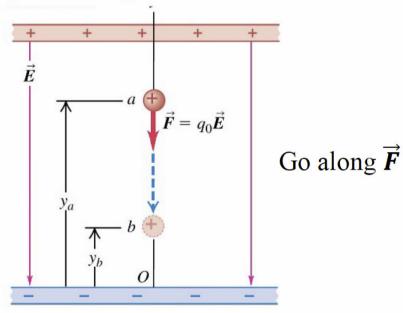
#### Analogy between a uniform gravitational field and electric field

Gravitation – a *conservative* field (from PHYS 1112)

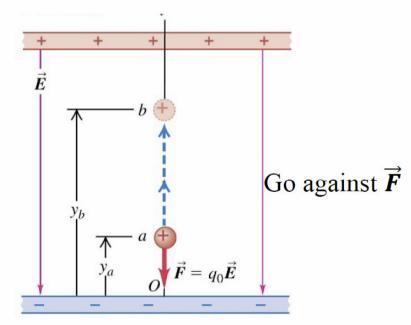


By analogy, electric field is also conservative (path independent)

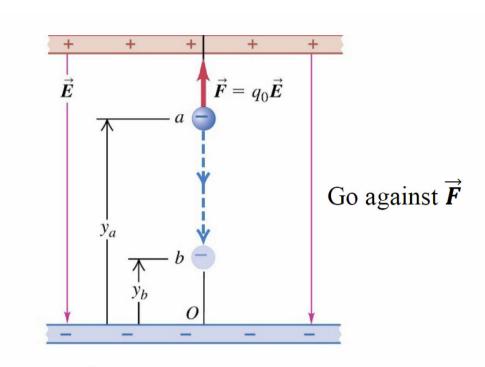
 $\triangle$  Complication:  $q_0$  can be +ve/-ve



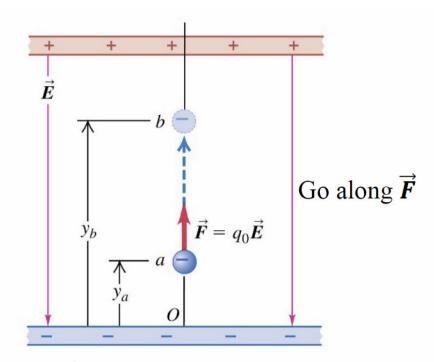
$$W = \overrightarrow{F} \cdot \overrightarrow{s} > 0 \implies \Delta U = -W < 0, :: U \downarrow$$



$$W = \overrightarrow{F} \cdot \overrightarrow{s} < 0 \implies \Delta U = -W > 0, :: U \uparrow$$



$$W = \overrightarrow{F} \cdot \overrightarrow{s} < 0 \implies \Delta U = -W > 0, :: U \uparrow$$

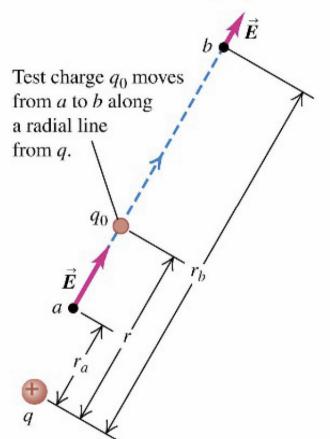


$$W = \overrightarrow{F} \cdot \overrightarrow{s} > 0 \implies \Delta U = -W < 0, :: U \downarrow$$

#### **Conclusion**:

U increases as  $q_0$  goes against electric force, decreases as it goes along electric force

In a radial field set up by a fixed charge q, test charge  $q_0$  moves from a to b

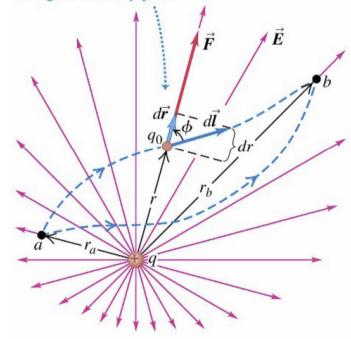


if a and b along the same radial line,  $d\vec{l} = d\vec{r}$ 

 $\triangle d\vec{l}$  is along the path whereas  $d\vec{r}$  is an outward vector

$$\begin{aligned} W_{a \to b} &= \int_a^b \left( q_0 \vec{\boldsymbol{E}} \right) \cdot d\vec{\boldsymbol{l}} = \int_a^b \left( q_0 \vec{\boldsymbol{E}} \right) \cdot d\vec{\boldsymbol{r}} \\ &= \int_a^b q_0 \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \right) dr = \frac{qq_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) \Big|_{r_a}^{r_b} \\ &= \frac{qq_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r_a} - \frac{1}{r_b} \right) \\ &= -(U(r_b) - U(r_a)) \end{aligned}$$

Test charge  $q_0$  moves from a to b along an arbitrary path.



If a and b not along the same radial line

$$dW = \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = Fdl\cos\phi = Fdr$$

$$W_{a \to b} = \int_{a}^{b} q_{0} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{qq_{0}}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{1}{r^{2}} dr = \frac{qq_{0}}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \left( \frac{1}{r_{a}} - \frac{1}{r_{b}} \right)$$

Exactly the same as before!

$$= -(U(r_b) - U(r_a))$$

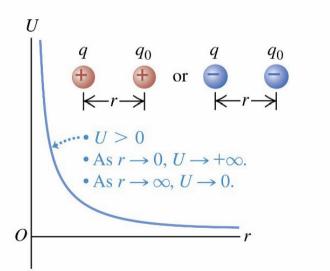
nath independent, confirms that electric field is conservative

 $\Delta U = -W_{a \to b} < 0$ ,  $U \downarrow \text{ since } q_0 \text{ goes } along \text{ electric force}$ 

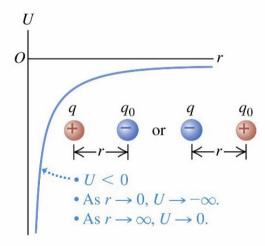
From  $W_{a\to b} = -\Delta U = (U_a - U_b)$ , define potential energy in this case to be

$$U = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r}$$

- $\Delta U = 0$  at  $r = \infty$  (zero level of potential energy is arbitrary)
- △  $U(r) = U(r) U(\infty) = W_{r\to\infty}$ , i.e., U(r) is the workdone by the field set up by q to bring  $q_0$  from r to  $\infty$ , or equivalently, the work needed to bring  $q_0$  from  $\infty$  to r against the electric force (preferred meaning)
- $\Delta$  U does not belong to test charge  $q_0$  only. It belongs to  $q_0$  and the field (set up by q) as a single system. Therefore can regard U as the potential energy of the two charges  $q_0$  and q at distance r apart
  - (a) q and  $q_0$  have the same sign.



(b) q and  $q_0$  have opposite signs.



#### Example 23.1

A positron  $e^+$  has mass  $9.11 \times 10^{-31}$  kg and charge  $+1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  C. An alpha particle  $\alpha$  has charge  $3.20 \times 10^{-19}$  C and mass  $6.64 \times 10^{-27}$ kg.  $\alpha$  can be considered to be at rest because it is a lot heavier than  $e^+$ . Initially  $e^+$  is at  $1.00 \times 10^{-10}$  m from  $\alpha$  when it is moving directly away at  $3.00 \times 10^6$  m/s.

When  $e^+$  is at  $2.00 \times 10^{-10}$  m from  $\alpha$ 

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_a^2 + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_\alpha q_{e^+}}{r_a} = \frac{1}{2}mv_b^2 + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_\alpha q_{e^+}}{r_b}$$
$$v_b = 3.8 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$$

 $\triangle e^+$  accelerates, because they are repulsive

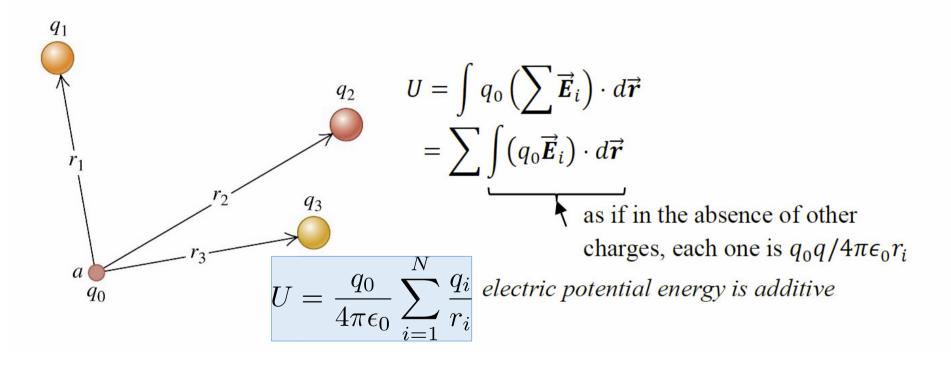
Replace  $e^+$  by an electron  $e^-$ , with the same mass but opposite charge. It decelerates until at a point  $r_d$  where it stops and turn back towards  $\alpha$ ,  $v_d = 0$ ,

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_a^2 + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_\alpha q_{e^-}}{r_a} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_\alpha q_{e^-}}{r_d}$$

$$r_d = 9.0 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$



If the field on  $q_0$  is due to several charges, each produces a field  $\vec{E}_i$ . U is the workdone by the total electric field to move  $q_0$  from that position to  $\infty$ 



A very different situation – no test charge (forget about  $q_0$ ): Suppose charges  $q_1, q_2, ...$  initially at infinity, bring them in place one by one by external force

Bring in  $q_1$ : No energy needed

Bring in 
$$q_2$$
: 
$$\frac{q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1}{r_{12}}$$

Bring in 
$$q_3$$
:  $\frac{q_3}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{q_1}{r_{13}} + \frac{q_2}{r_{13}} \right)$ 

Bring in 
$$q_4$$
: 
$$\frac{q_4}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{q_1}{r_{14}} + \frac{q_2}{r_{14}} + \frac{q_3}{r_{14}} \right)$$

Total energy needed to assemble the charge configuration

Bring in 
$$q_3$$
: 
$$\frac{q_3}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1}{r_{13}} + \frac{q_2}{r_{13}}$$
Bring in  $q_4$ : 
$$\frac{q_4}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{q_1}{r_{14}} + \frac{q_2}{r_{14}} + \frac{q_3}{r_{14}}\right)$$

$$i \neq j, \text{ a charge doesn't interact with itself}$$

$$i > j \text{ guarantee each pair counted once}$$

Define the **potential energy of a system of charge** as the *total energy needed to assemble it* from infinite distance apart

$$U = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i < j} \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

△ note the difference (both the form and interpretation) between this and the previous expression

#### Example 23.2

Two point charges,  $q_1 = -e$  at x = 0, and  $q_2 = +e$  at x = a.

Work needed to bring a third point charge  $q_3 = +e$  from infinity

to 
$$x = 2a$$

$$=\frac{q_3}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\left(\frac{q_1}{r_{13}}+\frac{q_2}{r_{23}}\right)=+\frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 a} \qquad \begin{array}{c} q_1=-e & q_2=+e & q_3=+e \\ \hline & & \\ \times=0 & \times=a & \times=2a \end{array} \right)$$

 $\triangle$  +ve work means have to push against effective repulsion on  $q_3$ 

Total potential energy of the three-charge system

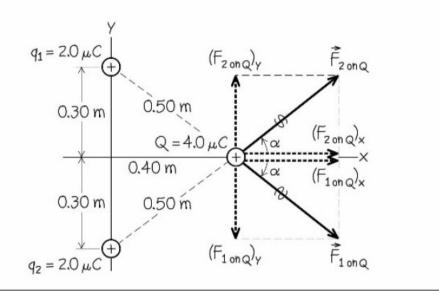
$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i>j} \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} + \frac{q_1 q_3}{r_{13}} + \frac{q_2 q_3}{r_{23}} \right) = -\frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 a}$$

• -ve total energy means the system is stable (compare to when they are at infinity apart)

## **Question**:

The total potential energy of this system is (+ve / -ve / zero)

The total amount of work needed to move these charges infinitely far from each other is (+ve / -ve / zero)



#### **Electric Potential**

Idea: just like we factor out the test charge from electric force,  $\vec{F} = q_0 \vec{E}$ , factor out  $q_0$  from U Define electric potential V by  $U = q_0 V$ 

e.g. For a field set up by a point charge

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r}$$

For a field set up by a system of charges

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum \frac{q_i}{r_i}$$

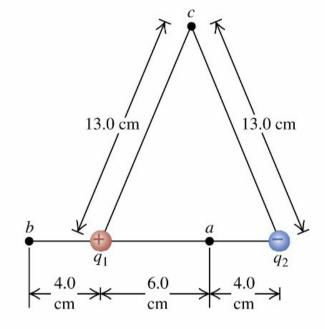
Unit: J/C = volt V, named after Volta

#### Example 23.4

An electric dipole with  $q_1 = +12$  nC and  $q_2 = -12$  nC. Compare the potential at the points a, b, and c. At c

$$V_c = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{+12 \text{ nC}}{13.0 \text{ cm}} + \frac{-12 \text{ nC}}{13.0 \text{ cm}} \right) = 0.00 \text{ V}$$

**Question**: Does V = 0 at a point implies  $\vec{E} = 0$  at that point?



$$\frac{W_{a \to b}}{q_0} = -\frac{\Delta U}{q_0} = -\left(\frac{U_b}{q_0} - \frac{U_a}{q_0}\right) = -(V_b - V_a) = V_a - V_b \equiv V_{ab}$$

 $V_{ab}$  is the potential difference between a and b, or the potential of a relative to b

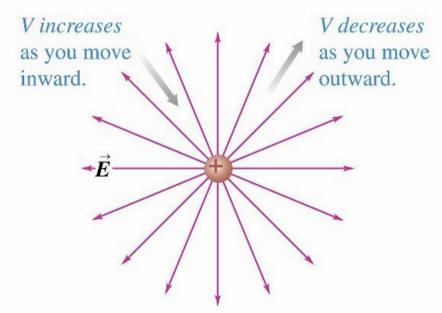
 $V_{ab}$  (in V) = workdone by electric force to move 1 C of charge from a to b, or equivalently

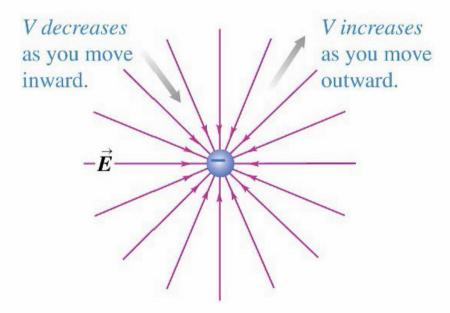
 $V_{ab}$  (in V) = work needed to move 1 C of charge from b to a against the electric force

## Finding Electric Potential from Electric Field

$$W_{a\to b} = \int_a^b \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{l}} = q_0 \int_a^b \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{l}} \implies V_{ab} = V_a - V_b = \int_a^b \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{l}} = -\int_b^a \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{l}}$$

- $\triangle$  since  $W_{a\rightarrow b}$  is path independent, so is  $V_{ab}$
- $\triangle$  go against  $\overrightarrow{E}$  increase potential (c.f. go against  $\overrightarrow{F}$  increases U)





 $\triangle$  another unit for electric field, V/m = N/C

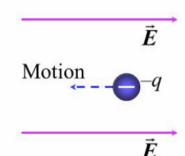
**Electron Volt** (eV) – a unit of *energy* 

1 eV is the energy needed to move one electron charge e through a potential difference 1 V  $W_{a\to b}=q_0V_{ab} \Rightarrow 1 \text{ eV}=(1.602\times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(1 \text{ V})=1.602\times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ , another unit of energy e.g. an  $\alpha$  particle (charge 2e) move through a potential difference 1000 V, change in potential energy is  $2e(1 \text{ V})=2000 \text{ eV}=2(1.602\times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(1000 \text{ V})=3.204\times 10^{-16} \text{ J}$ 

#### **Clicker Questions**

Q23.4

When a negative charge moves opposite to the direction of the electric field,

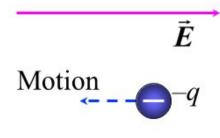


- A. the field does positive work on it and the potential energy increases.
- B. the field does positive work on it and the potential energy decreases.
- C. the field does negative work on it and the potential energy increases.
- D. the field does negative work on it and the potential energy decreases.
- E. the field does zero work on it and the potential energy remains constant.

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#### A23.4

When a negative charge moves opposite to the direction of the electric field,



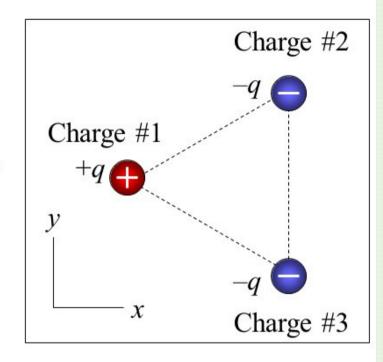
A. the field does positive work on it and the potential energy increases.



- B. the field does positive work on it and the potential energy decreases.
- C. the field does negative work on it and the potential energy increases.
- D. the field does negative work on it and the potential energy decreases.
- E. the field does zero work on it and the potential energy remains constant.

## Q23.8

The electric potential due to a point charge approaches zero as you move farther away from the charge. If the three point charges shown here lie at the vertices of an equilateral triangle, the electric potential at the center of the triangle is



A. positive.

B. negative.

C. zero.

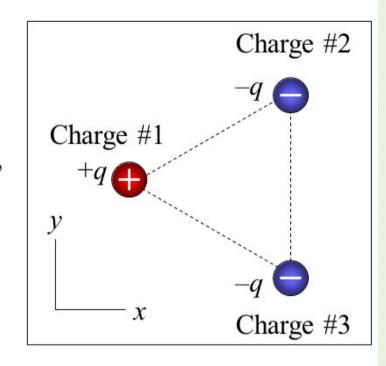
D. either positive or negative.

E. either positive, negative, or zero.

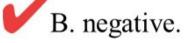
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#### A23.8

The electric potential due to a point charge approaches zero as you move farther away from the charge. If the three point charges shown here lie at the vertices of an equilateral triangle, the electric potential at the center of the triangle is



A. positive.



C. zero.

D. either positive or negative.

E. either positive, negative, or zero.

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Calculate Electric Potential of a System (if  $\vec{E}$  can be found readily, e.g. using Gauss's law)

$$\mathbf{z}V_{ab} \equiv V_a - V_b = \int_a^b \mathbf{\vec{E}} \cdot d\mathbf{\vec{l}} = -\int_b^a \mathbf{\vec{E}} \cdot d\mathbf{\vec{l}}$$

Potential of *a* relative to *b* 

Workdone by electric force to move one unit charge from *a* to *b* 

If take V to be zero at infinity,  $V_a = \int_a^\infty \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\int_\infty^a \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$ 

Workdone by external force to move one unit charge from *b* to *a* 

#### Potential of a Charged Conducting Sphere Example 23.6 and 23.8

Outside sphere, r > R:

Again  $\vec{E}$  radially outward

$$V(r) = V(r) - V(\infty) = \int_{r}^{\infty} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{r}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{q}{r^{2}} dr = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{q}{r} \Big|_{r}^{\infty} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{q}{r}$$

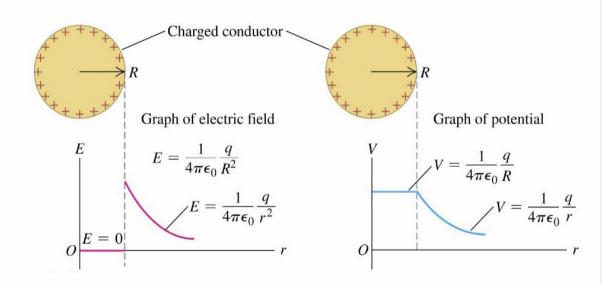
 $\triangle$  same as a point charge q located at the center of the sphere

Inside sphere, r < R:

$$\vec{E} = 0$$
 (why?),  $V(r) = V(R) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{R}$ , the constant value at the surface

inside and on the surface of the sphere, the potential is the same and  $\propto 1/R$ 

on the sphere's surface, E = V/R

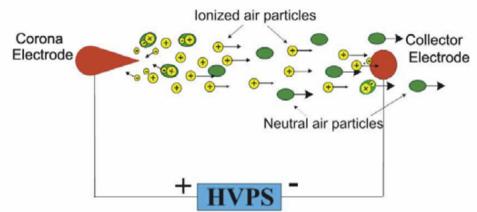


#### Corona Discharge

If *E* too large, air molecules will be ionized, leading to an **electric** 

#### breakdown

Sharp conductor (R small) – large E at the same potential, easier to cause breakdown



http://thefutureofthings.com/upload/image/articles/2007/ionic-wind/corona-discharge.jpg

#### Consequences:

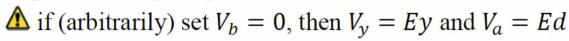
- 1. Lightning rods have round shape at the tip
- 2. The larger the metal sphere in a van de Graaff generator, the higher V it can build up

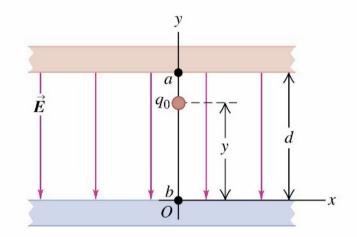
## **Oppositely Charged Parallel Plates** Example 23.9

Already know: E uniform between plates if they are infinitely large

$$V_y - V_b = \int_y^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = Ey$$

In particular,  $V_a - V_b = Ed$ 





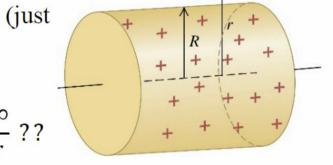
#### **Infinite Charged Conducting Cylinder** Example 23.10

Already know: E = 0 inside cylinder, and radially outward outside cylinder

Inside cylinder: *V* constant and equals to the value on the surface (just like the case of conducting sphere)

Outside:

$$V(r) = V(r) - V(\infty) = \int_{r}^{\infty} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{r}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_{0}r} dr = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_{0}} \ln \frac{\infty}{r} ??$$



(b)

 $\triangle$  cannot choose  $V(\infty) = 0$ , true in cases where charge distribution extends to infinity If choose V(R) = 0 (on the cylinder surface) instead

$$V(r) = -\int_{R}^{r} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\int_{R}^{r} \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_{0}r} dr = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_{0}} \ln \frac{R}{r} < 0$$

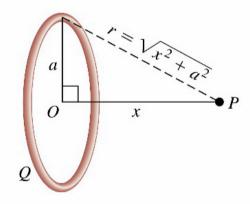
In the above examples,  $V_{ab} = \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$  to calculate V because E can be found easily using Gauss's law. Otherwise we go back to  $=\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\sum_{i=1}^{q_i} \frac{q_i}{r_i}$ , assuming  $V(\infty)=0$ 

#### A Ring of Charge Example 23.11

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \int dq = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}}$$

 $\triangle$  as  $x \to \infty$ , ring is just like a point charge,  $V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{x}$ 

 $\triangle$  compare to calculating E, no need to find vector sum



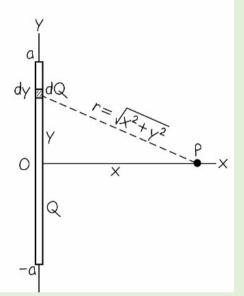
## A Finite Line of Charge Example 23.12

Charge of segment dy is  $dQ = \left(\frac{Q}{2a}\right) dy$ 

$$dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{2a} \frac{dy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$
 may try  
Wolfram Alpha  

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{2a} \int_{-a}^{a} \frac{dy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{2a} \ln \left( \frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} + a}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} - a} \right)$$



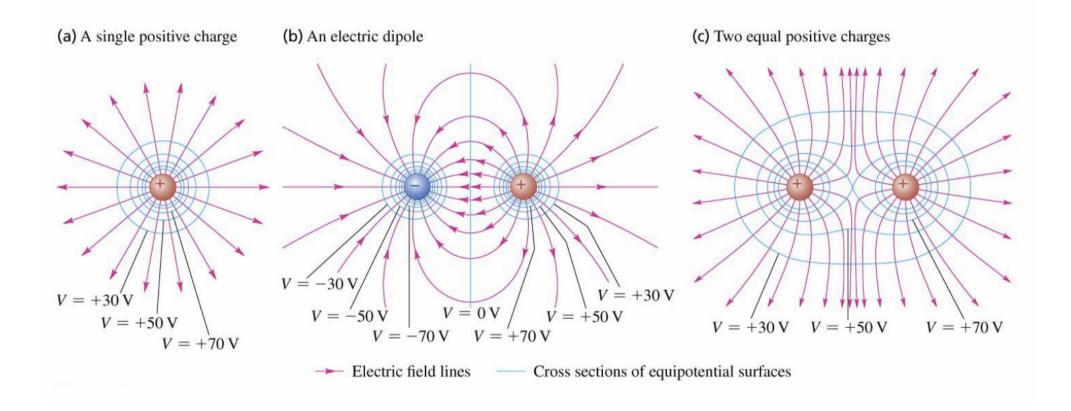
Question: does this result make sense for an infinitely long line,  $a \rightarrow \infty$ ?

#### **Equipotential Surface**

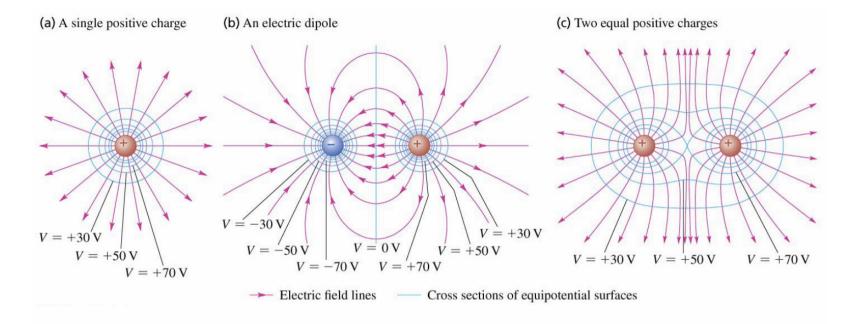
potential), c.f. a contour plot

Electric field is a vector field, visualized as vectors (electric field lines)

Potential is a scalar field, visualized as **equipotential surfaces** (on which every point has the







#### Properties of equipotential surfaces

- 1. No work is done when a test charge moves along an equipotential surface
- 2. Consequently field lines must be perpendicular to equipotential surfaces
- 3. Field lines go from high potential to low potential surfaces
- 4. A positive test charge "falls" from high potential to low potential, *c.f.* a mass fall down the hill
- 5. Equipotential surfaces closer together if electric field is stronger, c.f. a steeper hill
- ★ while field lines repel each other and cannot cross, equipotential surfaces can cross each other
- $\triangle$  E need not be constant on the same equipotential surface

#### **Conductor Revisited**

Consider a conductor of arbitrary shape, which may have a cavity inside. It may carry a surplus charge, but there is no free charge inside the cavity. It is assumed to be in electrostatic condition (no net current).

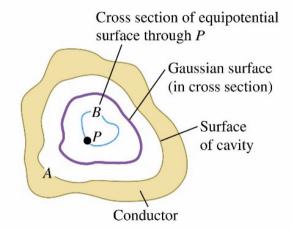
We already know from studying  $\vec{E}$  that

- 1. Inside the solid conductor (not including the cavity),  $\vec{E} = 0$
- 2. On the conductor surfaces (inner and outer),  $\vec{E}$  perpendicular to surface

# The potential anywhere on the surfaces, inside the conductor, and inside the cavity are all the same

#### To prove it:

- 1. On the surfaces (both inside and outside),  $E_{\perp} = 0$ , potential difference between any two points  $V_a V_b = \int E_{\perp} dl = 0$
- 2. Any two points inside the conductor (not including the cavity),  $V_a V_b = \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$   $\triangle$  already seen points 1 and 2 in a metal sphere
- 3. Inside the cavity, prove by contradiction:
  - Inner surface A is equipotential,  $V_A$
  - Assume a point P inside the cavity has different potential  $V_P \neq V_A$ . Construct an equipotential surface B through P
  - B cannot touch surface A (why?)
  - Anywhere between A and B,  $\vec{E}$  must point either from A to B if  $V_A > V_B$ , or B to A if  $V_A < V_B$
  - Construct a Gaussian surface sitting between surfaces
     A and B. It has non-zero flux but encloses no charge,
     a contradiction!!



Potential Gradient – electric field from potential

$$V_a - V_b = \int_b^a dV = -\int_b^a \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

True for any path and any endpoints,  $dV = -\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -(E_x dx + E_y dy + E_z dz)$ 

If vary x but hold y and z constant, dy = dz = 0

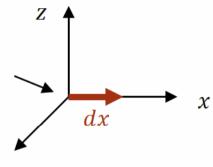
$$dV = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} dx = -E_x dx \quad \Rightarrow \quad E_x = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \quad \text{Differentiate}$$

$$V(x, y, z) \text{ as if } y$$

Likewise

$$E_y = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial y}, \quad E_z = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial z}$$

and z are constant



Therefore

$$\vec{E} = -\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\hat{\imath} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y}\vec{J} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z}\vec{k}\right) \equiv -\nabla V$$

 $\nabla \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \vec{k}$  is called the gradient operator, or grad

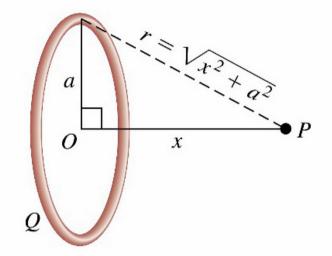
 $\nabla V$  (a vector !!) is called the **potential gradient**, i.e., the rate of change of V **1** already know that E stronger in places where equipotential surfaces are closer

## Example 23.14

We previous found that for P along the axis,

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}}$$

$$E_x = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Qx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}}, \qquad E_y = E_z = 0$$



if *V* depend on *x* only, then  $\vec{E}$  is along the *x* direction,  $\vec{E} = E_x \hat{\imath}$ . Likewise for *y* and *z*.

Likewise if V depends on radial distance r only, then  $\vec{E}$  is radially outward/inward,

$$\vec{E} = E_r \hat{r} = -(\partial V/\partial r)\hat{r}$$

e.g. for a point charge

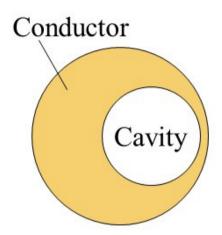
$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r} \implies E_r = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2}$$

Question: Suppose  $V(x, y, z) = A + Bx + Cy^3 + Dxy$ , where A, B, C and D are positive constants. Which of the followings is/are correct?

- 1) Increase A will increase the magnitude of  $\vec{E}$  at all points;
- 2) Increase A will decrease the magnitude of  $\vec{E}$  at all points;
- 3)  $\vec{E}$  has no z component;
- 4)  $\vec{E}$  at the origin is zero.

### Q23.11

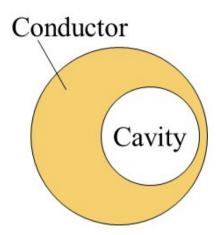
A solid spherical conductor has a spherical cavity in its interior. The cavity is *not* centered on the center of the conductor. If there is a net positive charge on the conductor, the electric field in the cavity



- A. points generally from the center of the conductor toward the outermost surface of the conductor.
- B. points generally from the outermost surface of the conductor toward the center of the conductor.
- C. is uniform and nonzero.
- D. is zero.
- E. cannot be determined from information given.

#### A23.11

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- C. is uniform and nonzero.
- D. is zero
  - E. cannot be determined from information given.

# **Capacitance and Dielectrics**

Any two conductors insulated from each other form a capacitor

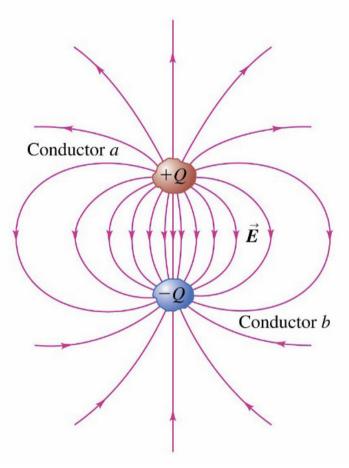
#### In practice:

- 1. Conductors contain equal and opposite charges  $\pm Q$
- 2. Although overall neutral, we refer to *Q* as the **charge** stored in the capacitor
- 3. **Potential difference**, or **voltage**, of the capacitor is the potential of conductor carrying +Q relative to that carrying -Q

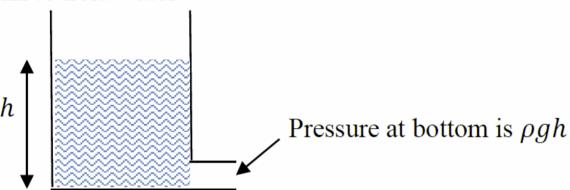
$$V_{ab} = V_a - V_b$$

⚠ electric field at any point  $\propto Q \Rightarrow V_{ab} \propto Q$ Define the proportionality constant as the **capacitance** C

$$C \equiv \frac{Q}{V_{ab}}$$



c.f. a tank to hold water





SI Unit: farad F, 1F = 1 C/V

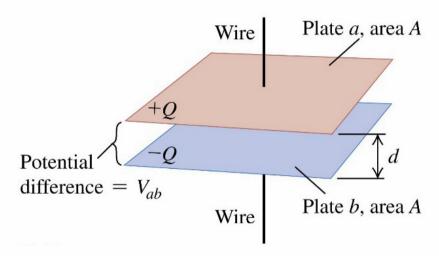
1F is a huge capacitor (because 1 C is a large amount of charge). More practical units of capacitance are  $\mu$ F (micro,  $10^{-6}$  F) and pF (pico,  $10^{-12}$  F)

 $\triangle$  C measures the ability of the conductors to hold charge at a certain voltage

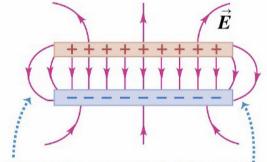
**C** depend on the geometry of the two conductors only

#### Parallel-Plate Capacitor

(a) Arrangement of the capacitor plates



(b) Side view of the electric field  $\vec{E}$ 



When the separation of the plates is small compared to their size, the fringing of the field is slight.

Assume plates infinitely large, i.e.,  $d \ll \sqrt{A}$ , ignore edge effect,  $E = \sigma/\epsilon_0 = Q/\epsilon_0 A$ 

$$V_{ab} = Ed = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \frac{Qd}{A}$$
$$C = \frac{Q}{V_{ab}} = \epsilon_0 \frac{A}{d}$$

⚠ for a 1 F parallel-plate capacity whose plates are 1.0 mm apart,

$$A = \frac{Cd}{\epsilon_0} = 1.1 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^2$$
 !!!!

#### **Spherical Capacitor** Example 24.3

Two concentric conductor shells, inside shell has +Q and outer has -Q Use Gauss's law to find field between the shells

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$
Inner shell, charge  $+Q$ 

$$E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2}$$
Outer shell, charge  $-Q$ 

$$V_{ab} = \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} E dr$$

$$= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{1}{r_a} - \frac{1}{r_b}\right)$$

$$= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{r_b - r_a}{r_a r_b}$$

$$C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 \frac{r_a r_b}{r_b - r_a}$$

 $\triangle$  outer shell with charge – Q has no effect on E,  $V_{ab}$ , nor C. It shields the field from outside.

same as parallel-plate capacity if  $d \to r_b - r_a$  and  $A \to 4\pi r_a r_b$  (**geometric mean** of inner and outer shell surfaces,  $4\pi r_a^2$  and  $4\pi r_b^2$ ).

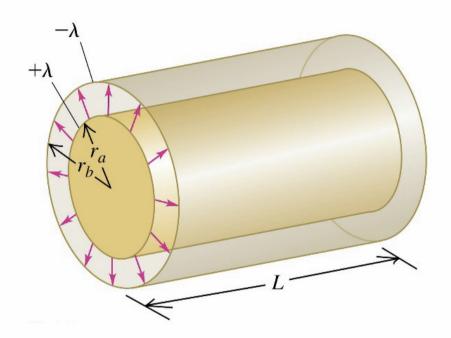
## Cylindrical Capacitor Example 24.4

Coaxial conductors with charge per unit length  $\pm \lambda$ 

$$E(2\pi rL) = \frac{\lambda L}{\epsilon_0} \implies E = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$V_{ab} = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} E dr = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{r_b}{r_a}$$

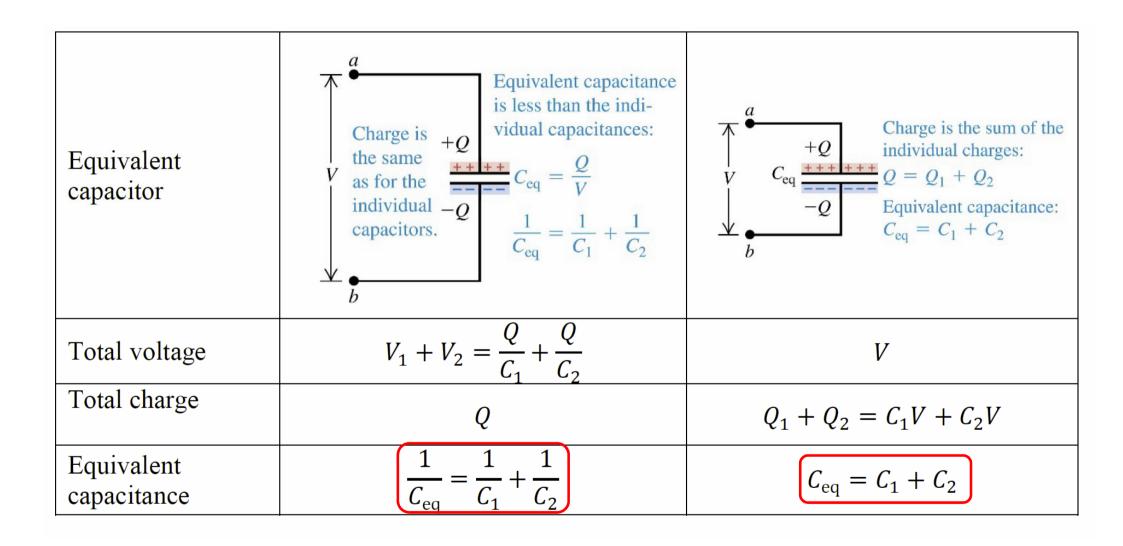
$$C = 2\pi\epsilon_0 \frac{L}{\ln(r_b/r_a)}$$



e.g. a typical TV coaxial cable has capacitance 69 pF/m

# Capacitors in series and parallel

	Two capacitors in series	Two capacitors in parallel	
Network	$V_{ab} = V$ $V_{ab} = V$ $V_{ab} = V$ $V_{ac} = V_{1}$ $V_{ac} = V_{1}$ $V_{ac} = V_{2}$ $V_{cb} = V_{2}$	$V_{ab} = V  C_1 \xrightarrow{++++} Q_1  C_2 \xrightarrow{++} Q_2$	
V across each capacitor	Different unless $C_1 = C_2$	same	
Q in each capacitor	same	Different unless $C_1 = C_2$	



#### **Example 24.6** A capacitor network

Work out the equivalent capacity from (a)  $\rightarrow$  (b)  $\rightarrow$  (c)  $\rightarrow$  (d)

$$\frac{1}{C_{\text{eq}}} = \frac{1}{12 \,\mu\text{F}} + \frac{1}{6 \,\mu\text{F}} \Rightarrow C_{\text{eq}} = 4 \,\mu\text{F}$$

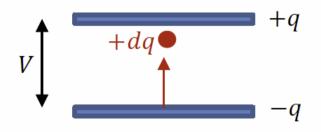
$$3 \,\mu\text{F} + 11 \,\mu\text{F} + 4 \,\mu\text{F} = 18 \,\mu\text{F}$$
(a)
$$\frac{12 \,\mu\text{C}}{3.0 \,\text{V}} = \frac{333 \,\mu\text{C}}{3.0 \,\text{V}} = \frac{12 \,\mu\text{C}}{3.0 \,\text{V}} = \frac{54 \,\mu\text{C}}{3.0 \,\text$$

If given  $V_{ab} = 9.0$  V, work out the charge and voltage of each capacitor in (a) in the reversed manner (d)  $\rightarrow$  (c)  $\rightarrow$  (b)  $\rightarrow$  (a) as shown in red.

#### **Energy Stored in Capacitors**

Start from uncharged conductors, add charge slowly
At some stage when charge is q and voltage V, workdone
by electric field to move dq across a potential difference V

$$= -Vdq = -\frac{q}{C}dq$$



Total workdone by electric field to build up charge from 0 to Q

$$W = -\int_0^Q \frac{q}{C} dq = -\frac{Q^2}{2C} = -(U(Q) - U(0))$$

If define U(0) = 0 (potential energy of an uncharged capacitor is zero)

$$U = \frac{Q^2}{2C} = \frac{1}{2}CV^2 = \frac{1}{2}QV$$

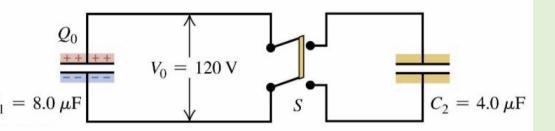
 $\triangle U \neq QV$  because the voltage is not constant during the charging process

 $\triangle$  U is also the work needed (provided by external agent) to charge the capacitor, i.e., -W

# Example 24.7

With switch S open:

 $C_1$  is at  $V_0 = 120$  V, while  $C_2$  uncharged charge of  $C_1$  is  $Q_0 = C_1V_0 = 960 \mu C$   $C_1 = 8.0 \mu F$  energy stored in  $C_1$  is  $U_0 = \frac{1}{2}C_1V_0^2 = 0.058$  J



With switch S close and charge stop flowing:

Conservation of charge  $Q_0 = Q_1 + Q_2$ 

$$V_1 = V_2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{Q_1}{C_1} = \frac{Q_2}{C_2}$$

We get  $Q_1 = 640 \,\mu\text{C}$ ,  $Q_2 = 320 \,\mu\text{C}$ ,  $V_1 = V_2 = 80 \,\text{V}$ 

Energy stored in  $C_1$  and  $C_2 = \frac{1}{2}V_1Q_1 + \frac{1}{2}V_2Q_2 = 0.038 \text{ J}$ 

Question: where goes the energy difference 0.058 J - 0.038 J = 0.020 J?

#### **Electric-Field Energy**

Charging a capacitor builds up electric field. Can <u>consider *U*</u> as energy stored in the electric field For parallel-plate capacitor, energy density (per unit volume) of electric field in between conductors

$$u = \frac{\frac{1}{2}CV^2}{Ad} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_0 A/d)(Ed)^2}{Ad} \Rightarrow u = \frac{\frac{1}{2}\epsilon_0 E^2}{\frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_0 A/d)(Ed)^2}$$

this formula is *not* limited to a parallel-plate capacitor. It holds for any electric field, whether uniform or not

**n** provide another way to interpret electric potential energy as stored locally in the field

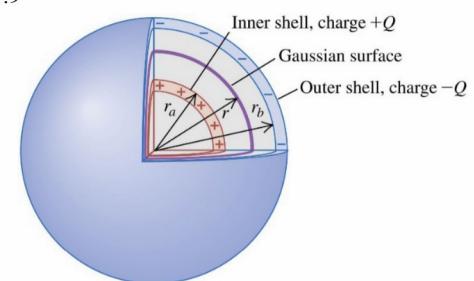
#### **Energy stored in spherical conductor** Example 24.9

Electric field radially outward between the shells From Gauss's law

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2}$$

And capacitance is

$$C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 \frac{r_a r_b}{r_b - r_a}$$



Two ways to interpret the potential energy of this capacitor

as work needed to assemble charge

as energy stored in electric field

work needed to assemble of 
$$U = \frac{Q^2}{2C}$$

$$= \frac{Q^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{r_b - r_a}{r_a r_b}$$

$$U = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} \left(\frac{1}{2}\epsilon_0 E^2\right) (4\pi r^2 dr)$$
$$= \frac{Q^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{1}{r_a} - \frac{1}{r_b}\right) = \frac{Q^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{r_b - r_a}{r_a r_b}$$

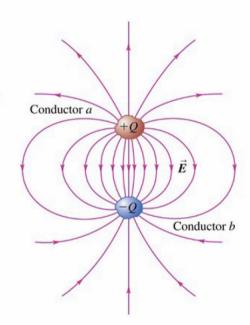
Question: You have a 4  $\mu$ F and a 8  $\mu$ F capactors.

- a) The voltage of the 4  $\mu$ F capacitor is greater than that of the 8  $\mu$ F one if they are (in series / in parallel / either series or parallel / neither series nor parallel).
- b) The charge of the 4  $\mu$ F capacitor is greater than that of the 8  $\mu$ F one if they are (in series / in parallel / either series or parallel / neither series nor parallel).
- c) The energy stored in the 4  $\mu$ F capacitor is greater than that of the 8  $\mu$ F one if they are (in series / in parallel / either series or parallel / neither series nor parallel).

## **Clicker Questions**

#### Q24.1

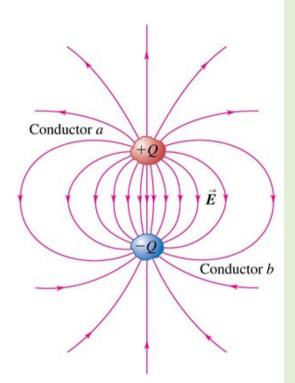
The two conductors a and b are insulated from each other, forming a capacitor. You increase the charge on a to +2Q and increase the charge on b to -2Q, while keeping the conductors in the same positions. As a result of this change, the capacitance C of the two conductors



- A. becomes four times as great.
- B. becomes twice as great.
- C. remains the same.
- D. becomes half as great.
- E. becomes one-quarter as great.

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# Q24.5

A 12- $\mu$ F capacitor and a 6- $\mu$ F capacitor are connected together as shown. What is the equivalent capacitance of the two capacitors as a unit?

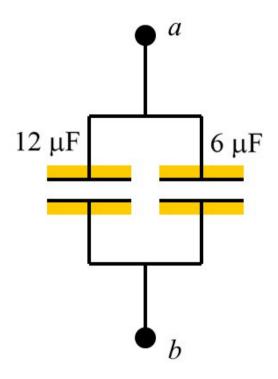
A. 
$$C_{eq} = 18 \mu F$$

B. 
$$C_{eq} = 9 \mu F$$

C. 
$$C_{\rm eq} = 6 \,\mu \rm F$$

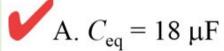
D. 
$$C_{\rm eq} = 4 \,\mu \rm F$$

E. 
$$C_{eq} = 2 \mu F$$



#### A24.5

A 12- $\mu$ F capacitor and a 6- $\mu$ F capacitor are connected together as shown. What is the equivalent capacitance of the two capacitors as a unit?

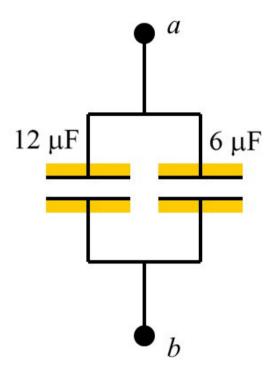


B. 
$$C_{eq} = 9 \mu F$$

C. 
$$C_{eq} = 6 \mu F$$

D. 
$$C_{eq} = 4 \mu F$$

E. 
$$C_{eq} = 2 \mu F$$



### Q24.7

You reposition the two plates of a capacitor so that the capacitance doubles. There is vacuum between the plates. If the charges +Q and -Q on the two plates are kept constant in this process, the energy stored in the capacitor

- A. becomes four times as great.
- B. becomes twice as great.
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# **Dielectric**

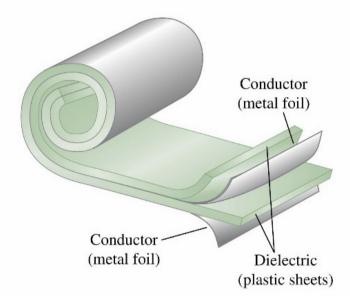
A dielectric is a non-conducting material, e.g., plastic, air, ...

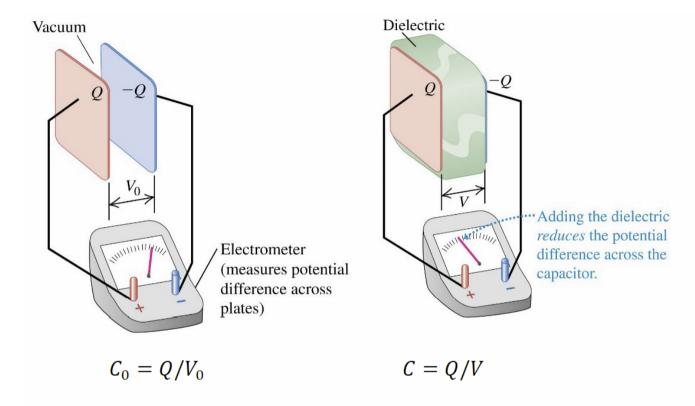
Practical capacitors have an insulating material (or dielectric) sandwiched between the conductors

#### Purpose:

- 1. Separate the two conductors
- 2. More difficult to breakdown than air, sustain a higher voltage ,i.e, stronger electric field
- 3. Increase the capacitance

(a) (b)





With Q remain constant (capacitor isolated), voltage V decreases upon insertion of dielectric, i.e., capacitance C = Q/V increases

#### Define dielectric constant

$$K = \frac{C}{C_0} > 1$$

or  $K = V_0/V$  provided Q remains the same

### TABLE 24.1 Values of Dielectric Constant K at 20°C

Material	K	Material	K
Vacuum	1	Polyvinyl chloride	3.18
Air (1 atm)	1.00059	Plexiglas <sup>®</sup>	3.40
Air (100 atm)	1.0548	Glass	5-10
Teflon	2.1	Neoprene	6.70
Polyethylene	2.25	Germanium	16
Benzene	2.28	Glycerin	42.5
Mica	3–6	Water	80.4
Mylar	3.1	Strontium titanate	310

▲ Dielectric constant of vacuum is 1

⚠ Dielectric constant of air is almost the same as vacuum

⚠ Pure water has large dielectric constant, but dissolved impurities conduct electricity easily making it unsuitable for capacitors

Under a strong electric field, a dielectric may be partially ionized and becomes conducting, called **dielectric breakdown**, e.g., corona discharge, or even lightning, is the dielectric breakdown of air

The maximum field a dielectric can sustain before breakdown is called the dielectric strength

# Dielectric Constant and Dielectric Strength of Some TABLE 24.2 Insulating Materials

Material	Dielectric Constant, K	Dielectric Strength, $E_{\rm m}$ (V/m)
Polycarbonate	2.8	$3 \times 10^{7}$
Polyester	3.3	$6 \times 10^{7}$
Polypropylene	2.2	$7 \times 10^{7}$
Polystyrene	2.6	$2 \times 10^{7}$
Pyrex glass	4.7	$1 \times 10^{7}$

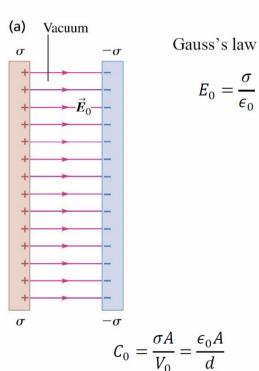
c.f. Air  $3 \times 10^6 V/m$ 

#### **Induced Charge on Dielectric**

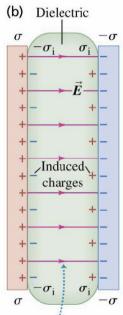
Again assume capacitor is isolated, the charge density  $\sigma$  on the conductors remains unchanged, and dielectric is assumed to be uncharged

$$V = \frac{V_0}{K} \qquad \Rightarrow \quad E = \frac{V}{d} = \frac{E_0}{K}$$

Smaller E, charge must be induced on dielectric



Energy density 
$$u = \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_0 E^2$$



Gauss's law
$$E = \frac{\sigma - \sigma_i}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{E_0}{K}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_i = \sigma \left( 1 - \frac{1}{K} \right)$$

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$$
where  $\epsilon = K\epsilon_0$ , the **permittivity** of the

dielectric c.f.,  $\epsilon_0$  is the **permittivity** in vacuum

$$C = \frac{\sigma A}{V} = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

$$u = \frac{1}{2}K\epsilon_0 E^2 = \frac{1}{2}\epsilon E^2$$

### Example 24.10 and 24.11

A parallel-plate capacitor with  $A = 2.00 \times 10^{-1}$  m<sup>2</sup> and  $d = 1.00 \times 10^{-2}$  m, originally charged to a voltage  $V_0 = 3.00 \times 10^3$  V and then disconnected. After inserting a plastic that completely fill the space between the plates, the voltage drops to  $1.00 \times 10^3$  V.

$$K = \frac{V_0}{V} = 3.00$$

Energy stored before inserting plastic

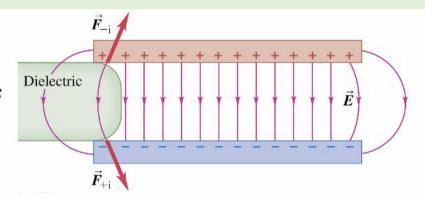
$$U_0 = \frac{1}{2}C_0V_0^2 = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2d}V_0^2 = \frac{(8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/\text{Nm}^2)(2.00 \times 10^{-1} \text{ m}^2)}{2(1.00 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m})}(3.00 \times 10^3 \text{ V})^2$$
$$= 7.97 \times 10^{-4} \text{ J}$$

Energy stored after inserting plastic

$$U = \frac{1}{2}CV^2 = \frac{1}{2}(KC_0)\left(\frac{V_0}{K}\right)^2 = \frac{U_0}{K} = 2.66 \times 10^{-4} \text{ J}$$

Where goes the energy? How can the field do work when  $\vec{E} \perp$  displacement?

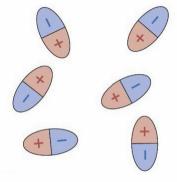
Answer: edge (fringe) effect. While inserting, field at boundary polarize the dielectric and pull it in, doing +ve work, so potential energy decreases,  $W = -\Delta U$ 



Question: a parallel-plate capacitor with a slab of dielectric in between carries a charge Q. It is isolated so that Q remains unchanged. If you pull the dielectric slab out, the energy stored in the capacitor will (increase / decrease / remain the same).

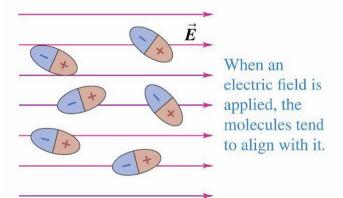
#### Molecular Model of Induced Charge

**Polar** – molecules are permanent dipoles even without external field, but are randomly oriented

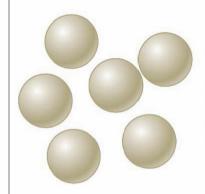


In the absence of an electric field, polar molecules orient randomly.

External field partially align dipoles, causing induced surface charge, i.e., the dielectric is **polarized** 

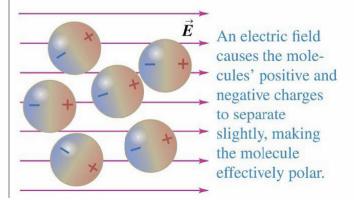


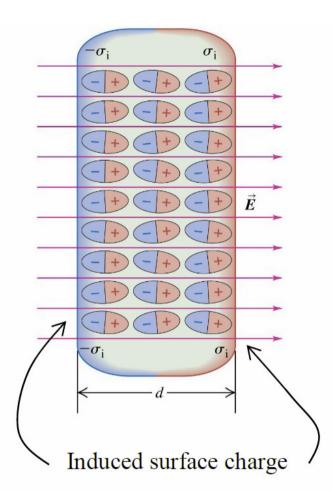
**Nonpolar** – molecules are not dipoles without external field



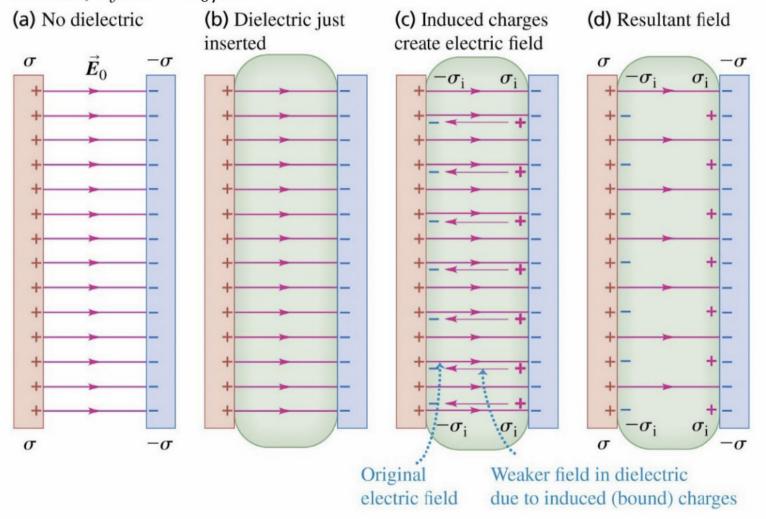
In the absence of an electric field, nonpolar molecules are not electric dipoles.

External field creates **induced dipoles**, polarize the dielectric and leads to induced surface charge





Induced charge creates a field in the dielectric *opposing* the external field, making the total field weaker,  $c.f. E = E_0/K$ 



Distinguish between two types of charge:

Free charge – reside on the conductor, can be added or removed

**Bound charge** – induced on dielectric, cannot move

#### Gauss's Law in Dielectric

Consider boundary between conductor and dielectric Free charge  $\sigma$  – those residing on conductor Bound charge  $\sigma_i$  – those residing on dielectric By Gauss's law:

$$EA = \frac{(\sigma - \sigma_i)A}{\epsilon_0}$$

Using 
$$\sigma_i = \sigma \left(1 - \frac{1}{K}\right)$$
, i.e.,  $\sigma - \sigma_i = \sigma/K$ 

$$EA = \frac{\sigma A}{K\epsilon_0}$$

General form of the Gauss's law with a dielectric medium

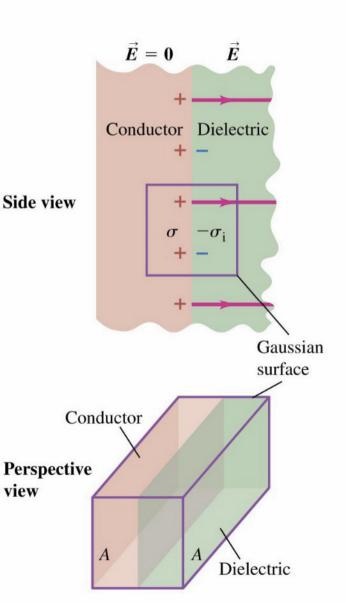
$$\oint K\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q_{\text{encl-free}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

 $Q_{\text{encl-free}}$  is the free charge only, excluding bound charge

If *K* is a constant in the dielectric, then

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q_{\text{encl-free}}}{\epsilon}$$

Again replace  $\epsilon_0 \rightarrow \epsilon$ 



view

# Example 24.12

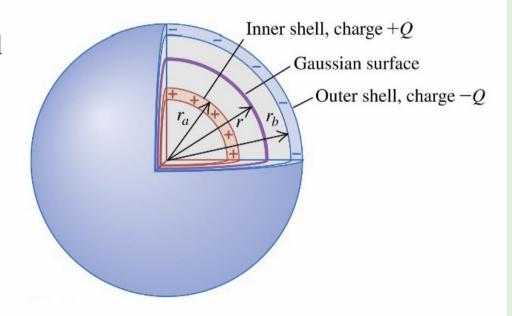
If space between concentric shells is filled with oil of dielectric constant *K* 

From Gauss's law

$$E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q}{K\epsilon_0} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon}$$

And

$$C = \frac{Q}{\int_{r_b}^{r_a} E dr} = \frac{4\pi \epsilon r_a r_b}{r_b - r_a}$$



Question: A single point charge q is embedded in a dielectric medium with dielectric constant K. At a point inside the dielectric at a distance r from the point charge, the magnitude of the electric field is  $(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} / \frac{K}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} / \frac{1}{4\pi K\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} / \frac{1}{4\pi K\epsilon_0}$ 

# **Clicker Questions**

Q24.10

You slide a slab of dielectric between the plates of a parallel-plate capacitor. As you do this, the *charges* on the plates remain constant. What effect does adding the dielectric have on the *energy stored* in the capacitor?

- A. The stored energy increases.
- B. The stored energy decreases.
- C. The stored energy remains the same.
- D. Two of A, B, and C are possible.
- E. All three of A, B, or C are possible.

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#### Q24.12

You slide a slab of dielectric between the plates of a parallel-plate capacitor. As you do this, the *potential difference* between the plates remains constant. What effect does adding the dielectric have on the *energy stored* in the capacitor?

- A. The stored energy increases.
- B. The stored energy decreases.
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## Q-RT24.1

An isolated parallel-plate capacitor has charges Q and -Q on its two plates. A dielectric slab with K = 4.00 is then inserted into the space between the plates, and completely fills the space. Rank the following electric-field magnitudes in order from largest to smallest.

- A. the field between the plates before the slab is inserted
- B. the resultant field between the plates after the slab is inserted
- C. the field between the plates due to the bound charges

#### A-RT24.1

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