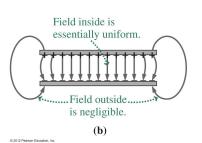


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Conducting plates with area *A* are a small distance *d* apart.

# **University Physics 227N/232N**

# Capacitors, Field Energy, Current and Ohm's Law



(a)

#### Lab deferred to Fri Feb 28 QUIZ this Friday! (Feb 21) Fred lectures Monday! (Feb 24)

Dr. Todd Satogata (ODU/Jefferson Lab) satogata@jlab.org

http://www.toddsatogata.net/2014-ODU

#### Wednesday, February 19 2014

Happy Birthday to Victoria Justice, Immortal Technique, Benicio del Toro, Copernicus, and David Gross (2004 Nobel Prize)



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#### **Capacitor Review**

- A capacitor is a pair of conductors, insulated from each other, and used to store charge and energy.
  - The two conductors are given equal but opposite charges  $\pm Q$
  - Definition of capacitance:  $C \equiv Q/V$  Q = CV
  - Capacitance is a physical property of the capacitor.
- A parallel plate capacitor has two parallel conductors of equal area A separated by distance d, possibly a dielectric

$$C_{\text{parallel plate}} = \kappa \frac{A}{4\pi kd} = \kappa C_0$$
  $C_0 = \frac{A}{4\pi kd}$   $\kappa > = 1$ 

- The dielectric constant  $\kappa$  for a vacuum is 1
- Energy stored in a capacitor

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 $U_{\text{stored in capacitor}} = \frac{1}{2}CV^2 = \frac{1}{2}QV = \frac{1}{2}\frac{Q^2}{C}$ 



## **Capacitor Example**

$$C \equiv Q/V \qquad Q = CV$$

$$L_2 = 1.0 \text{ cm}$$

$$L_1 = 1.5 \text{ cm}$$

$$d = 1.0 \ \mu\text{m}$$

$$C_{\text{parallel plates}} = \frac{\epsilon_0}{c}$$

- A (vacuum) capacitor is made of two (parallel) plates of sides
   1.5 cm and 1.0 cm separated by 1.0 μm.
  - What is its capacitance?

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If it is rated at 1 kV, how much charge can it store?

$$C = \frac{A}{4\pi kd} = \frac{1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2}{4\pi (9 \times 10^9 \text{ N m}^2/\text{C}^2)(10^{-6} \text{ m})} = \boxed{1.3 \text{ nF} = C}$$

$$Q = CV = (1.3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ F})(10^3 \text{ V}) = 1.3 \,\mu\text{C} = Q$$

- If we wanted to raise the capacitance, we would need to increase the surface area A or decrease the separation d
  - Or change the material between the plates
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 $4\pi k a$ 

#### **Dielectric Constants**

- The dielectric constant, κ, is a property of the dielectric material that gives the reduction in field and thus the increase in capacitance.
  - For a parallel-plate capacitor with a dielectric between its plates, the capacitance is

$$C = \kappa \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d} = \kappa C_0 \qquad C_0 = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d} \qquad \kappa \ge 1$$

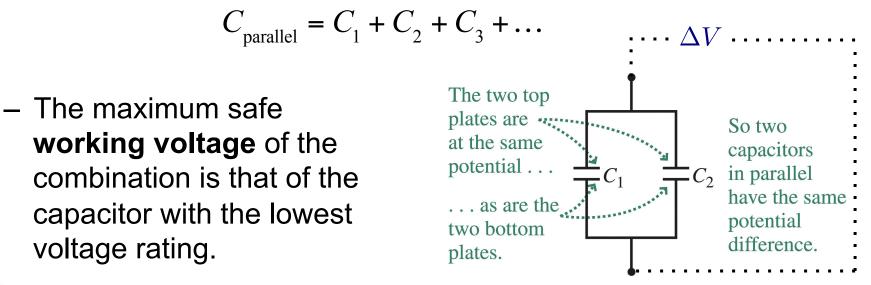
Table 23.1 Properties of Some Common Dielectrics

Dielectric Material	<b>Dielectric Constant</b>	Breakdown Field (MV/m)	
Air	1.0006	3	
Aluminum oxide	8.4	670	
Glass (Pyrex)	5.6	14	
Paper	3.5	14	Titanium dioxide $\kappa$ =100!
Plexiglas	3.4	40	
Polyethylene	2.3	50	But breakdown fields
Polystyrene	2.6	25	Only up to about 50 MV/m
Quartz	3.8	8	
Tantalum oxide	26	500	
Teflon	2.1	60	
Water	80	depends on time and put	rity



# **Connecting Capacitors in Parallel**

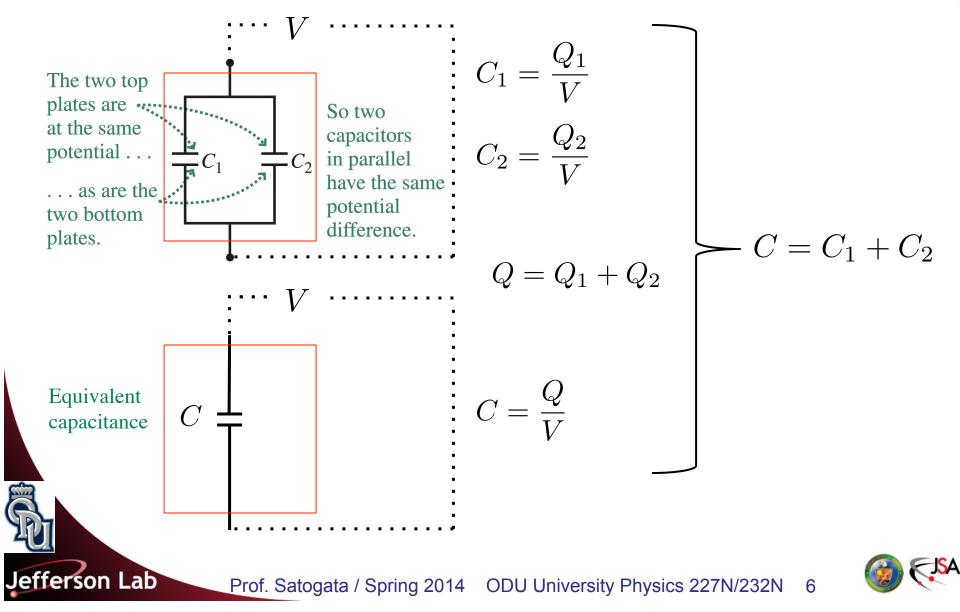
- Capacitors connected in **parallel** have their top plates connected together and their bottom plates connected together.
  - Therefore the potential difference  $\Delta V$  across the two capacitors (between the conductive wires on either side) is the same.
  - The capacitance of the combination is the sum of the capacitances:





# **Connecting Capacitors in Parallel**

We usually just write the voltage difference as *V* even though it's a difference! Here the capacitors have the **same potential difference** *V*.



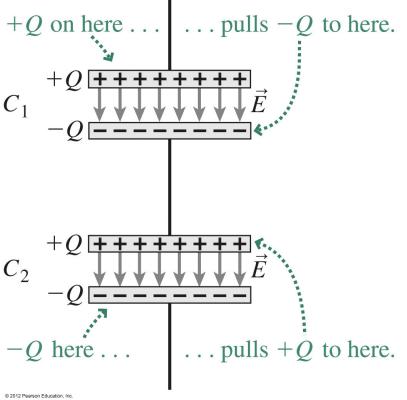
# **Connecting Capacitors in Series**

- Capacitors connected in series are wired so that one capacitor follows the other.
  - The figure shows that this makes the charge on the two capacitors the same.
  - With series capacitors, capacitance adds reciprocally:

$$\frac{1}{C_{\text{series}}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} + \dots$$

Thus the combined capacitance is lower than that of any individual capacitor.

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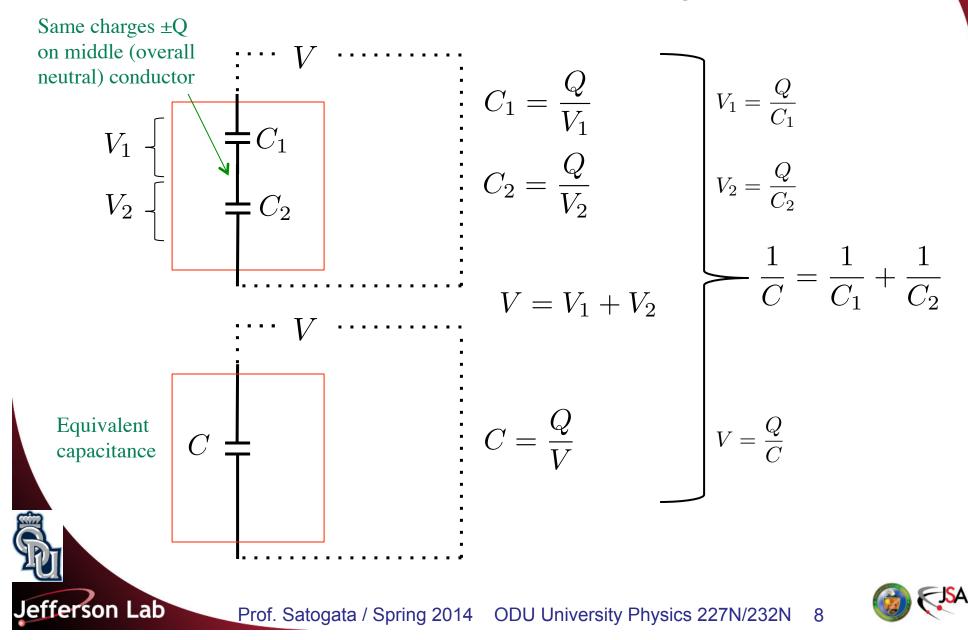


 The working voltage of the combination is higher than that of any individual capacitor.



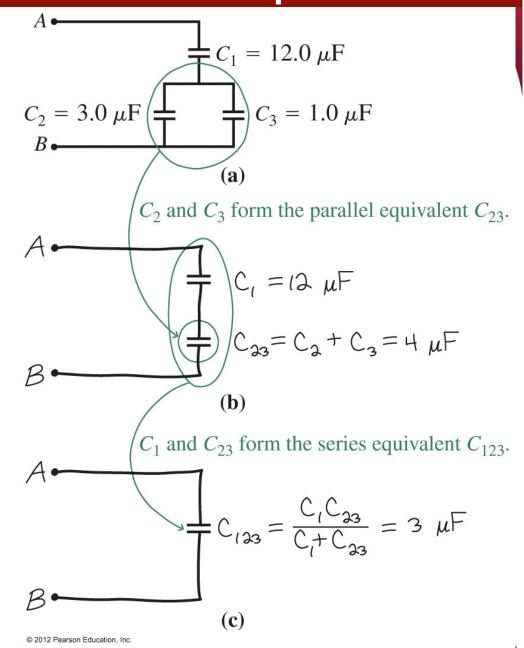
## **Connecting Capacitors in Series**

Here the capacitors have the same charge Q.

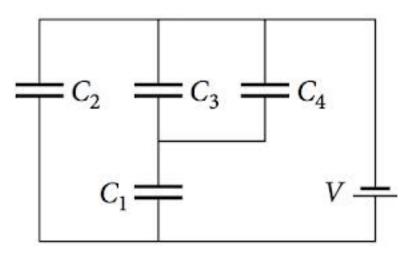


## **Circuits with Parallel and Series Capacitors**

- To analyze a circuit with several capacitors, look for series and parallel combinations.
  - Calculate the equivalent capacitances, and redraw the circuit in simpler form.
  - This technique will work later for more general electric circuits.
  - You don't have to draw every single equivalent circuit as long as it's clear to you what you're doing.



#### Let's Try It Out

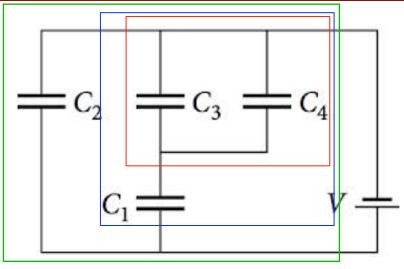


 $C_1 = C_2 = C_3 = C_4 = 4 \ \mu \mathbf{F}$  $V = 30 \ \mathbf{V}$ 

- Find the equivalent capacitance of the capacitors
- Find the charge on each capacitor



#### Let's Try It Out: Hint



 $C_1 = C_2 = C_3 = C_4 = 4 \,\mu\text{F}$ 

$$V = 30 \text{ V}$$

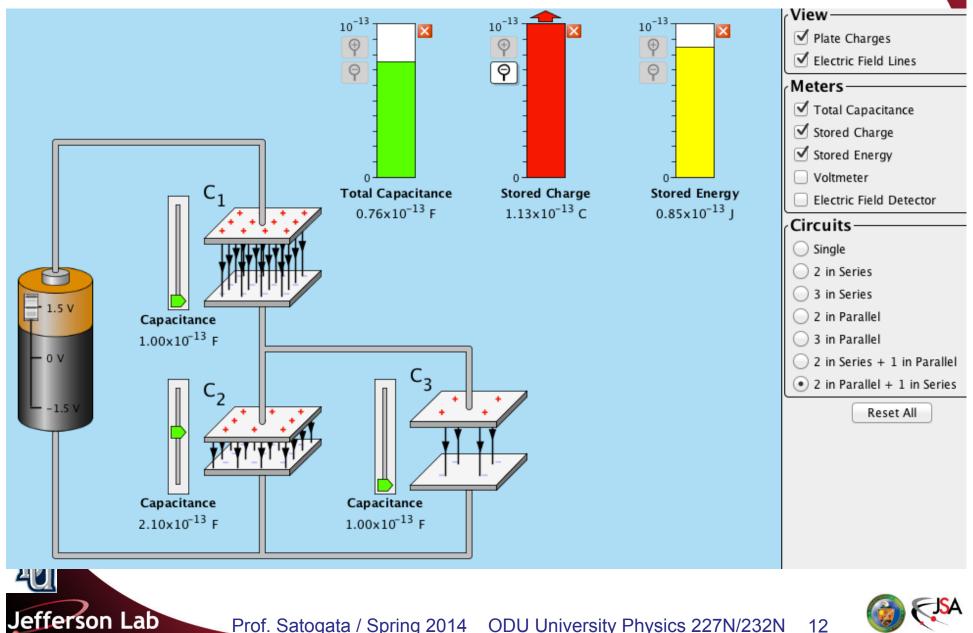
- Find the equivalent capacitance of the capacitors
- Find the charge on each capacitor
- "Unwrap" the circuit from the inside out
  - Red: two capacitors in parallel

- Blue: two capacitors (using the above) in series
- Green: two capacitors (using the above) in parallel



#### It's Time For Java App Wednesday™

#### http://phet.colorado.edu/en/simulation/capacitor-lab



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# **Energy in the Electric Field**

- The electrostatic energy associated with a charge distribution is stored in the electric field of the charge distribution.
  - Considering the uniform field of the parallel-plate capacitor shows that the electric energy density is

Energy per unit volume!

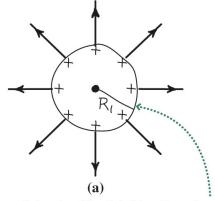
$$u_{\rm E} = \frac{E^2}{8\pi k}$$

This is a universal result:

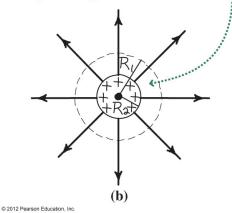
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*Every* electric field contains energy with this density.

$$U_{\rm E \ in \ volume \ V} = \frac{E^2 V}{8\pi k}$$



The work involved in shrinking the sphere ends up as energy in the electric field here.

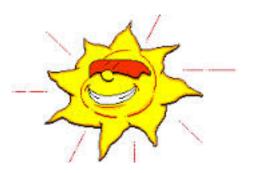




## What's The Electric Field of Sunlight?

- Energy/area at the Earth is about 1350 W/m<sup>2</sup>
- Let's say sunlight travels at the speed of light, c=3x10<sup>8</sup> m/s
- One second of sunlight over one square meter therefore contains about 3x10<sup>8</sup> m<sup>3</sup> of sunlight and 1350 J of energy.

$$u = \frac{1350 \text{ J}}{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3} = 4.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ J/m}^3$$
$$u_{\rm E} = \frac{E^2}{8\pi k}$$



$$E = \sqrt{8\pi k (4.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ J/m}^3)} = 1 \text{ kV/m}$$

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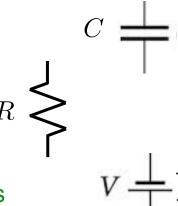
This is pretty close, but a little high for reasons we'll get to next week. (The actual answer is still about 800 V/m!)

## Chapter 24: Current, Resistors, and Ohm's Law

- "Classical" analog electronic circuits are made from four types of elements
  - Capacitors
    - Electrical energy storage: "springs"
  - Resistors

- Electrical energy dissipation: "friction"
- Voltage sources (EMF)
  - Electrical energy (potential difference) sources
- Conductive wires
  - Treated as perfectly conductive
  - (But we know they really have some small resistance too)
- We characterize electrical circuits with
  - **Voltage** (potential) differences *V* between various points
  - Current (electron) flow / between various points
  - DC: Constant current (including zero) AC: time-varying current





## **Electric Current**

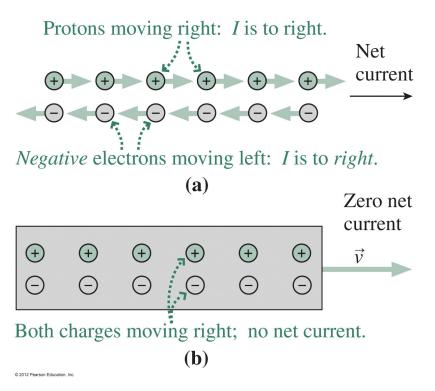
- Electric current is a net flow of electric charge.
  - Quantitatively, current is the rate at which charge crosses a given area.
  - For steady current, I =
  - When current varies with time, its instantaneous value is given by

$$\left| I = \frac{dQ}{dt} \right| \quad \text{Am}$$

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 $npere \equiv \frac{Coulomb}{sec}$ 

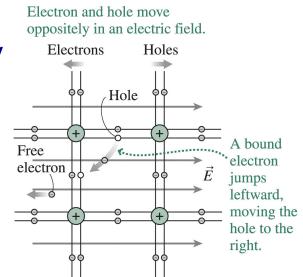
- The direction of the current corresponds to the direction of flow of the **positive** charges.
- Current has a direction





# **Conduction Mechanisms**

- Conduction occurs differently in different types of materials:
  - In metallic conductors, current is carried by free electrons.
  - In ionic solutions, current is carried by positive and negative ions.
  - Plasmas are ionized gases, with current carried by electrons and ions.
  - Semiconductors involve current carried by both electrons and "holes"—absences of electrons in a crystal structure.
    - Semiconductors are at the heart of modern electronics.
    - Their electrical properties can be altered by the controlled addition of small amounts of impurities.

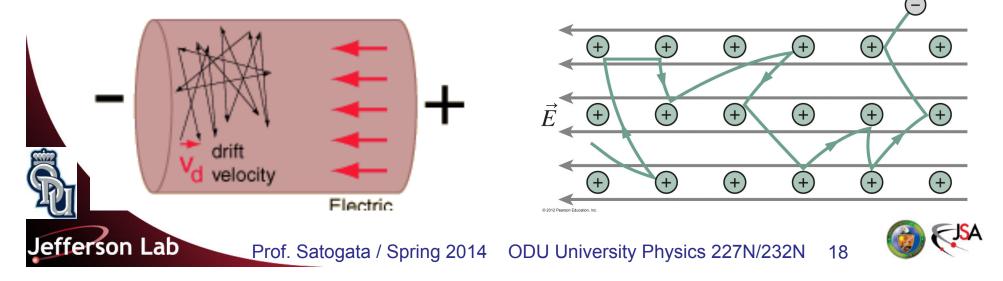


- Superconductors offer zero resistance to the flow of current, and thus can transmit electric power without loss of energy.
  - Known superconducting materials all require temperatures far below typical ambient temperatures.



## **Conduction in Metals**

- A metal contains a "sea" or "gas" of free electrons:
  - They're confined to the metal (conductor) but not bound to individual atoms.
  - The electrons move about in random directions with high thermal velocities.
    - On average, there's no current associated with thermal motion.
  - Applying an electric field adds a small drift velocity on the electrons' motion.
    - All electrons share the drift velocity, so it results in a current.



# **Ohm's Law: Microscopic**

- Electrons often collide with ions (nuclei) in the metal's crystal structure
  - They usually lose energy this way
  - This limits how easily the electrons "flow" through the material
- This produces resistance to current flow
  - Quantified as  ${\bf conductivity} \ \sigma$  of the metal
  - Current per unit area, or current density  $\vec{J}$  is then

$$J = \sigma \vec{E}$$

- Resistivity: 
$$ho\equiv -\sigma$$

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 Table 24.1
 Resistivities

Material	Resistivity $({f \Omega} m{\cdot} {f m})$
Metallic conductors (2	20°C)
Aluminum	$2.65 \times 10^{-8}$
Copper	$1.68 \times 10^{-8}$
Gold	$2.24 \times 10^{-8}$
Iron	$9.71 \times 10^{-8}$
Mercury	$9.84 \times 10^{-7}$
Silver	$1.59 \times 10^{-8}$
Ionic solutions (in wate	er, 18°C)
1-molar CuSO <sub>4</sub>	$3.9 \times 10^{-4}$
1-molar HCl	$1.7 \times 10^{-2}$
1-molar NaCl	$1.4 \times 10^{-4}$
H <sub>2</sub> O	$2.6 \times 10^{5}$
Blood, human	0.70
Seawater (typical)	0.22
Insulators	
Ceramics	$10^{11} - 10^{14}$
Glass	$10^{10} - 10^{14}$
Polystyrene	$10^{15} - 10^{17}$
Rubber	$10^{13} - 10^{16}$
Wood (dry)	$10^8 - 10^{14}$

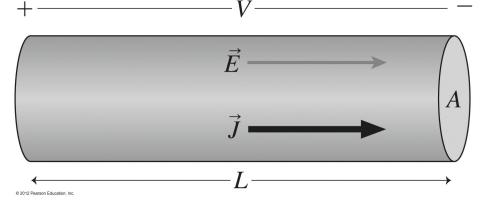
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## **Ohm's "Law" for Resistive Devices**

How do we relate this to electric current and voltage?



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- V: potential difference
- $\vec{E}$  : Electric field
- $\vec{J}$ : Current density
- I : Electric current
- We can calculate a total resistance to current flowing based on the resistivity  $\rho$  and physical properties of the resistor

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$$

A general rule (called a law though it's really not truly a law):

$$V = IR$$

Ohm's "Law"



# **Ohm's "Law": Microscopic and Macroscopic**

Table 24.2 Microscopic and Macroscopic Quantities and Ohm's Law

Macroscopic	Relation	
Voltage, V	$\overrightarrow{E}$ is defined at each point in a material; V is the integral of $\overrightarrow{E}$ over a path. In a uniform field, $V = EL$ .	
Current, I	$\vec{J}$ is defined at each point in a material; <i>I</i> is the integral of $\vec{J}$ over an area. With uniform current density, $I = JA$ .	
Resistance, R	$\rho$ is a property of a given material; <i>R</i> is a property of a particular piece of that material. In a piece with uniform cross section, $R = \rho L/A$ .	
Ohm's law $I = \frac{V}{R}$	Microscopic version relates current density to electric field at a point in a material. Macroscopic version relates current through to voltage across a given piece of material.	
	Voltage, V Current, I Resistance, R Ohm's law	





## **Power Dissipated In A Resistor**

We had a formula for the energy stored in a capacitor

$$U_{\text{stored in capacitor}} = \frac{1}{2}CV^2 = \frac{1}{2}QV = \frac{1}{2}\frac{Q^2}{C} \qquad C \equiv \frac{Q}{V}$$

- This is the energy stored in a capacitor at a particular charge
- Now we're considering circuits where charges is moving

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$

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 The power P (energy per unit time!) dissipated by a resistive device with resistance R is

$$P = IV = I^2R = \frac{V^2}{R} \qquad V = IR$$

