Chapter 5

Capacitance and DC Circuits

5.1 Capacitors

A capacitor is a system of two conductors that carries equal and opposite charges. A capacitor stores charge and energy in the form of electro-static field.

We define capacitance as

$$C = \frac{Q}{V}$$
 Unit: Farad(F)

where

Q = Charge on one plate

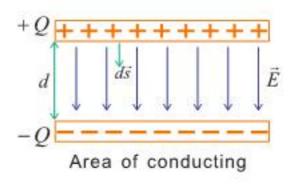
V = Potential difference between the plates

Note: The C of a capacitor is a constant that depends only on its shape and material.

i.e. If we increase V for a capacitor, we can increase Q stored.

5.2 Calculating Capacitance

5.2.1 Parallel-Plate Capacitor



Recall from Chapter 3 note,

$$|\vec{E}| = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0 A}$$

(2) Recall from Chapter 4 note.

$$\Delta V = V_+ - V_- = - \int_-^+ \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

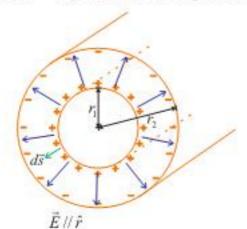
Again, notice that this integral is independent of the path taken.

 \therefore We can take the path that is parallel to the \vec{E} -field.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \therefore & \Delta V & = & \int_{+}^{-} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \\ \\ & = & \int_{+}^{-} E \cdot ds \\ \\ & = & \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0 A} \underbrace{\int_{+}^{-} ds}_{\text{Length of path taken}} \\ \\ & = & \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0 A} \cdot d \end{array}$$

(3) :
$$C = \frac{Q}{\Delta V} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$$

5.2.2 Cylindrical Capacitor



Consider two concentric cylindrical wire of innner and outer radii r_1 and r_2 respectively. The length of the capacitor is L where $r_1 < r_2 \ll L$. Using Gauss' Law, we determine that the E-field between the conductors is (cf. Chap3 note)

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{\lambda}{r} \, \hat{r} = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{Q}{Lr} \, \hat{r}$$

where λ is charge per unit length

(2)

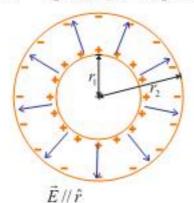
$$\Delta V = \int_{+}^{-} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

Again, we choose the path of integration so that $d\vec{s} \parallel \hat{r} \parallel \vec{E}$

$$\therefore \quad \Delta V = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} E \, dr = \frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon_0 L} \underbrace{\int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{dr}{r}}_{\ln(\frac{r_2}{r_1})}$$

$$C = \frac{Q}{\Delta V} = 2\pi \epsilon_0 \frac{L}{\ln(r_2/r_1)}$$

5.2.3 Spherical Capacitor



For the space between the two conductors,

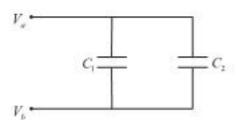
$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{Q}{r^2};$$
 $r_1 < r < r_2$

Choose ds // r

$$\begin{split} \Delta V &= \int_{+}^{-} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \\ &= \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{Q}{r^2} dr \\ &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right] \\ \hline C &= 4\pi\epsilon_0 \left[\frac{r_1 r_2}{r_2 - r_1} \right] \end{split}$$

Capacitors in Combination 5.3

(a) Capacitors in Parallel



In this case, it's the potential difference $V = V_a - V_b$ that is the same across the capacitor.

BUT: Charge on each capacitor different

Total charge
$$Q = Q_1 + Q_2$$

 $= C_1V + C_2V$
 $Q = \underbrace{(C_1 + C_2)}_{\text{Equivalent capacitance}} V$

- For capacitors in parallel: $C = C_1 + C_2$
- (b) Capacitors in Series

$$V_a$$
 V_a
 V_c
 V_c
 V_c
 V_b
The charge across capacitors are the same.

BUT: Potential difference (P.D.) across capacitors different

$$\Delta V_1 = V_a - V_c = \frac{Q}{C_1}$$
 P.D. across C_1
 $\Delta V_2 = V_c - V_b = \frac{Q}{C_2}$ P.D. across C_2

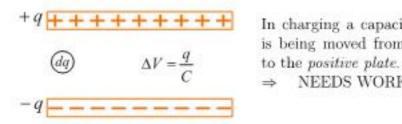
Potential difference

$$\begin{split} \Delta V &= V_a - V_b \\ &= \Delta V_1 + \Delta V_2 \\ \Delta V &= Q \left(\frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2}\right) = \frac{Q}{C} \end{split}$$

where C is the Equivalent Capacitance

$$\therefore \frac{1}{C} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2}$$

Energy Storage in Capacitor 5.4



In charging a capacitor, positive charge is being moved from the negative plate

⇒ NEEDS WORK DONE!

Suppose we move charge dq from -ve to +ve plate, change in potential energy

$$dU = \Delta V \cdot dq = \frac{q}{C} dq$$

Suppose we keep putting in a total charge Q to the capacitor, the total potential energy

$$U=\int dU=\int_0^Q \frac{q}{C}\,dq$$

$$\therefore \quad U=\frac{Q^2}{2C}=\frac{1}{2}\,C\Delta V^2 \qquad (:Q=C\Delta V)$$

The energy stored in the capacitor is stored in the electric field between the plates.

Note: In a parallel-plate capacitor, the E-field is constant between the plates.

We can consider the E-field energy

density u =
$$\frac{\text{Total energy stored}}{\text{Total volume with E-field}}$$

 $\therefore u = \frac{U}{\underbrace{Ad}}$
Rectangular volume

Recall

$$\begin{cases}
C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d} \\
E = \frac{\Delta V}{d} \Rightarrow \Delta V = Ed
\end{cases}$$

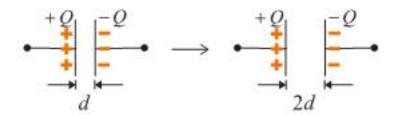
$$u = \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}) \cdot (\frac{(\Delta V)^2}{Ed})^2 \cdot \frac{1}{Ad}$$

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

Energy per unit volume of the electrostatic field

can be generally applied

Example : Changing capacitance



Isolated Capacitor:

Charge on the capacitor plates remains constant.

BUT:
$$C_{new} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2d} = \frac{1}{2} C_{old}$$

$$U_{new} = \frac{Q^2}{2C_{new}} = \frac{Q^2}{2C_{old}/2} = 2U_{old}$$
In pulling the plates apart work

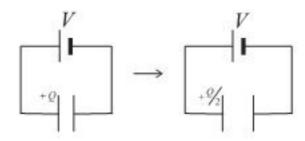
 \therefore In pulling the plates apart, work done W > 0

Summary :

(2) Capacitor connected to a battery:

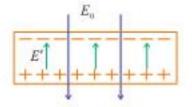
Potential difference between capacitor plates remains constant.
$$U_{new} = \frac{1}{2}\,C_{new}\Delta V^2 = \frac{1}{2}\cdot\frac{1}{2}\,C_{old}\Delta V^2 = \frac{1}{2}\,U_{old}$$
 ... In pulling the plates apart, work done by battery < 0

Summary :



5.5 Dielectric Constant

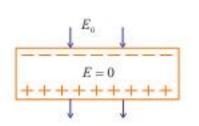
We first recall the case for a conductor being placed in an external E-field E_0 .



In a conductor, charges are free to move inside so that the *internal E-field E'* set up by these charges



so that E-field inside conductor = 0.



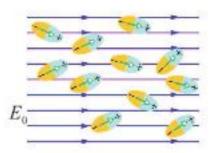
Generally, for dielectric, the atoms and molecules behave like a dipole in an E-field.

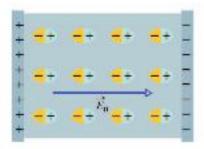


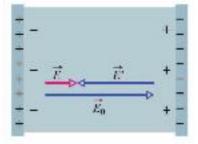


Or, we can envision this so that in the absence of E-field, the direction of dipole in the dielectric are randomly distributed.









The aligned dipoles will generate an induced E-field E', where $|E'| < |E_0|$. We can observe the aligned dipoles in the form of induced surface charge.

Dielectric Constant: When a dielectric is placed in an external E-field E₀, the E-field inside a dielectric is induced. E-field in dielectric

$$E = \frac{1}{K_e} E_0$$

 $K_e = {
m dielectric\ constant} \quad \geq 1$

Example:

Vacuum	$K_e = 1$
Porcelain	$K_e = 6.5$
Water	$K_e \sim 80$
Perfect conductor	$K_e = \infty$
Air	$K_e = 1.00059$

5.6 Capacitor with Dielectric

Case I:

Again, the charge remains constant after dielectric is inserted.

BUT:
$$E_{new} = \frac{1}{K_e} E_{old}$$

$$\therefore \Delta V = Ed \implies \Delta V_{new} = \frac{1}{K_e} \Delta V_{old}$$

$$\therefore C = \frac{Q}{\Delta V} \implies C_{new} = K_e C_{old}$$

For a parallel-plate capacitor with dielectric:

$$C = \frac{K_e \epsilon_0 A}{d}$$

We can also write $C = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$ in general with

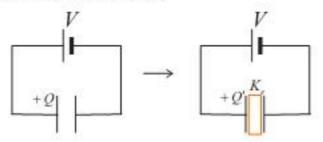
$$\epsilon = K_e \epsilon_0$$
 (called permittivity of dielectric)

(Recall ϵ_0 = Permittivity of free space)

Energy stored
$$U = \frac{Q^2}{2C}$$
;
 $U_{new} = \frac{1}{K_c} U_{old} < U_{old}$

.. Work done in inserting dielectric < 0

Case II: Capacitor connected to a battery



Voltage across capacitor plates remains constant after insertion of dielectric.

In both scenarios, the E-field inside capacitor remains constant $(\cdot; E = V/d)$

BUT: How can E-field remain constant?

ANSWER: By having extra charge on capacitor plates.

Recall: For conductors,

$$\begin{array}{rcl} E & = & \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} & & \text{(Chapter 3 note)} \\ \\ \Rightarrow & E & = & \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0 A} & & \text{(σ = charge per unit area} = Q/A) \end{array}$$

After insertion of dielectric:

$$E' = \frac{E}{K_s} = \frac{Q'}{K_s \epsilon_0 A}$$

But E-field remains constant!

$$E' = E \implies \frac{Q'}{K_e \epsilon_0 A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0 A}$$

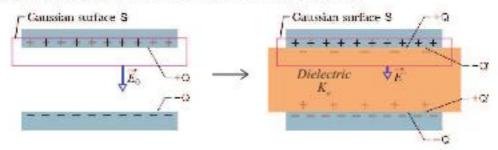
$$\Rightarrow Q' = K_e Q > Q$$

.. Capacitor
$$C = Q/V$$
 \Rightarrow $C' \rightarrow K_eC$ Energy stored $U = \frac{1}{2}CV^2$ \Rightarrow $U' \rightarrow K_eU$ (i.e. $U_{new} > U_{old}$)

Work done to insert dielectric > 0

Gauss' Law in Dielectric 5.7

The Gauss' Law we've learned is applicable in vacuum only. Let's use the capacitor as an example to examine Gauss' Law in dielectric.



Free charge on plates

 $\pm Q$

 $\pm Q$

Induced charge on dielectric

0

Gauss' Law Gauss' Law:

$$\oint_{S} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_{0}} \qquad \oint_{S} \vec{E}' \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q - Q'}{\epsilon_{0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow E_{0} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_{0}A} \qquad (1) \qquad : E' = \frac{Q - Q'}{\epsilon_{0}A} \qquad (2)$$

$$E' = \frac{E_{0}}{K_{\epsilon}} \qquad (3)$$

However, we define $E' = \frac{\tilde{E}_0^{0.7}}{K_e}$ (3) From (1), (2), (3) $\frac{Q}{K_e \epsilon_0 A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0 A} - \frac{Q'}{\epsilon_0 A}$

.. Induced charge density
$$\sigma' = \frac{Q'}{A} = \sigma \left(1 - \frac{1}{K_e}\right) < \sigma$$

where σ is free charge density.

Recall Gauss' Law in Dielectric:

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_0 \oint_S \vec{E}' \cdot d\vec{A} = Q - Q \left[1 - \frac{1}{K_e} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_0 \oint_S \vec{E}' \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{K_e}$$

$$\oint_{S} K_{e}\vec{E}' \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_{0}} \quad \text{Gauss' Law}$$
in dielectric

Note:

- (1) This goes back to the Gauss' Law in vacuum with $E = \frac{E_0}{K_e}$ for dielectric
- (2) Only free charges need to be considered, even for dielectric where there are induced charges.
- (3) Another way to write:

$$\oint_{S} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon}$$

where \vec{E} is E-field in dielectric, $\epsilon = K_c \epsilon_0$ is Permittivity

Energy stored with dielectric:

Total energy stored: $U = \frac{1}{2}CV^2$

With dielectric, recall $C = \frac{K_e \epsilon_0 A}{d}$

$$V = Ed$$

... Energy stored per unit volume:

$$u_e = \frac{U}{Ad} = \frac{1}{2}K_e\epsilon_0E^2$$

and
$$u_{dielectric} = K_e u_{vacuum}$$

... More energy is stored per unit volume in dielectric than in vacuum.

5.8 Ohm's Law and Resistance

ELECTRIC CURRENT is defined as the flow of electric charge through a cross-sectional area.

$$i = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$
 Unit: Ampere (A)
= C/second

Convention:

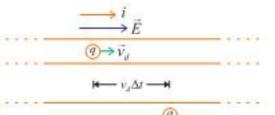
- Direction of current is the direction of flow of positive charge.
- Current is NOT a vector, but the current density is a vector.

 \vec{j} = charge flow per unit time per unit area

$$i = \int \vec{j} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

Drift Velocity:

Consider a current i flowing through a cross-sectional area A:



In time Δt, total charges passing through segment:

$$\Delta Q = q \underbrace{A(V_d \Delta t)}_{\text{Volume of charge}} n$$
Volume of charge passing through

where q is charge of the current carrier, n is density of charge carrier per unit volume

Current Density:
$$\vec{j} = nq\vec{v}_d$$

Note: For metal, the charge carriers are the free electrons inside.

 $\vec{j} = -ne\vec{v}_d$ for metals

Inside metals, \vec{j} and \vec{v}_d are in opposite direction.

We define a general property, conductivity (σ) , of a material as:

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

Note : In general, σ is NOT a constant number, but rather a function of position and applied E-field.

A more commonly used property, resistivity (ρ) , is defined as $\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma}$

$$\vec{E} = \rho \vec{j}$$

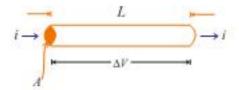
Unit of ρ : Ohm-meter (Ωm) where Ohm $(\Omega) = \text{Volt/Ampere}$

OHM'S LAW:

Ohmic materials have resistivity that are independent of the applied electric field.
i.e. metals (in not too high E-field)

Example :

Consider a **resistor** (ohmic material) of length L and cross-sectional area A.



... Electric field inside conductor:

$$\Delta V = \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = E \cdot L \implies E = \frac{\Delta V}{L}$$

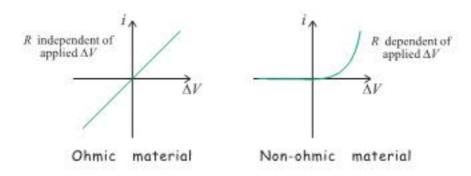
Current density: $j = \frac{i}{A}$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \therefore & \rho & = & \frac{E}{j} \\ \\ \rho & = & \frac{\Delta V}{L} \cdot \frac{1}{i/A} \end{array}$$

$$\frac{\Delta V}{i} = R = \rho \frac{L}{A}$$

where R is the resistance of the conductor.

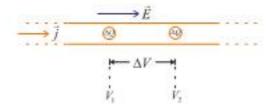
Note: $\Delta V = iR$ is NOT a statement of Ohm's Law. It's just a definition for resistance. 5.9. DC CIRCUITS 64



(Read Chap. 29-4 of Halliday Vol 2)

ENERGY IN CURRENT:

Assuming a charge ΔQ enters with potential V_1 and leaves with potential V_2 :



Potential energy lost in the wire:

$$\Delta U = \Delta Q V_2 - \Delta Q V_1$$

 $\Delta U = \Delta Q (V_2 - V_1)$

Rate of energy lost per unit time

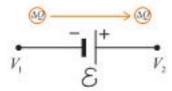
$$\frac{\Delta U}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} \left(V_2 - V_1 \right)$$
 Joule's heating
$$P = i \cdot \Delta V = \frac{\text{Power dissipated}}{\text{in conductor}}$$

For a resistor
$$R$$
, $P = i^2R = \frac{\Delta V^2}{R}$

5.9 DC Circuits

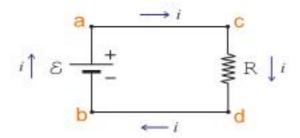
A battery is a device that supplies electrical energy to maintain a current in a circuit.

In moving from point 1 to 2, electric potential energy increase by $\Delta U = \Delta Q(V_2 - V_1) = \text{Work done by } \mathcal{E}$



Define
$$\mathcal{E} = \text{Work done/charge} = V_2 - V_1$$

Example:



$$\left. egin{array}{ll} V_a &=& V_c \\ V_b &=& V_d \end{array} \right\} \quad {\rm assuming^{(1)} \; perfect \; conducting \; wires.} \end{array}$$

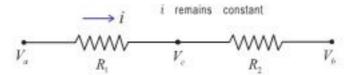
By Definition:
$$V_c - V_d = iR$$

$$V_a - V_b = \mathcal{E}$$

$$\therefore \quad \mathcal{E} = iR \quad \Rightarrow \quad i = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R}$$

Also, we have assumed⁽²⁾ zero resistance inside battery.

Resistance in combination :



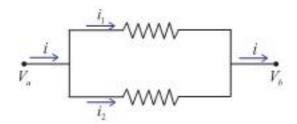
Potential differece (P.D.)

$$V_a - V_b = (V_a - V_c) + (V_c - V_b)$$

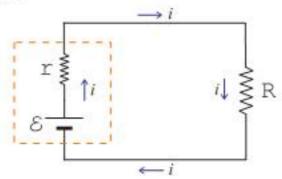
= $iR_1 + iR_2$

... Equivalent Resistance

$$\begin{split} R &= R_1 + R_2 & \text{for resistors in series} \\ \frac{1}{R} &= \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} & \text{for resistors in parallel} \end{split}$$



Example:



For real battery, there is an internal resistance that we cannot ignore.

$$\mathcal{E} = i(R+r)$$
 $i = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R+r}$

Joule's heating in resistor R:

$$P = i \cdot (P.D. \text{ across resistor } R)$$

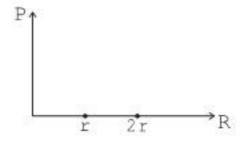
 $= i^2 R$
 $P = \frac{\mathcal{E}^2 R}{(R+r)^2}$

Question: What is the value of R to obtain maximum Joule's heating?

Answer: We want to find R to maximize P.

$$\frac{dP}{dR} = \frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{(R+r)^2} - \frac{\mathcal{E}^2 2R}{(R+r)^3}$$

Setting
$$\frac{dP}{dR} = 0$$
 \Rightarrow $\frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{(R+r)^3}[(R+r) - 2R] = 0$
 \Rightarrow $r - R = 0$
 \Rightarrow $R = r$



ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX CIRCUITS:

KIRCHOFF'S LAWS:

 First Law (Junction Rule): Total current entering a junction equal to the total current leaving the junction.



(2) Second Law (Loop Rule):

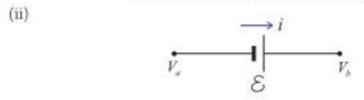
The sum of potential differences around a complete circuit loop is zero.

Convention:

(i)
$$i$$
 V_a
 V_b

 $V_a > V_b \implies \text{Potential difference} = -iR$

i.e. Potential drops across resistors

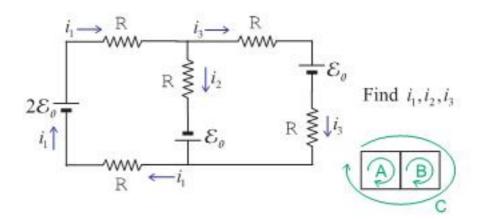


 $V_b > V_a$ \Rightarrow Potential difference = $+\mathcal{E}$

i.e. Potential rises across the negative plate of the battery.

Example :

5.9. DC CIRCUITS 68



By junction rule:

$$i_1 = i_2 + i_3$$
 (5.1)

By loop rule:

Loop A
$$\Rightarrow 2\mathcal{E}_0 - i_1R - i_2R + \mathcal{E}_0 - i_1R = 0$$
 (5.2)

Loop B
$$\Rightarrow$$
 $-i_3R - \mathcal{E}_0 - i_3R - \mathcal{E}_0 + i_2R = 0$ (5.3)

Loop C
$$\Rightarrow 2\mathcal{E}_0 - i_1R - i_3R - \mathcal{E}_0 - i_3R - i_1R = 0$$
 (5.4)

BUT: (5.4) = (5.2) + (5.3)

General rule: Need only 3 equations for 3 current

$$i_1 = i_2 + i_3$$
 (5.1)

$$3\mathcal{E}_0 - 2i_1R - i_2R = 0 \qquad (5.2)$$

$$-2\mathcal{E}_0 + i_2R - 2i_3R = 0 \qquad (5.3)$$

Substitute (5.1) into (5.2):

$$3\mathcal{E}_0 - 2(i_2 + i_3)R - i_2R = 0$$

 $\Rightarrow 3\mathcal{E}_0 - 3i_2R - 2i_3R = 0$ (5.4)

Subtract (5.3) from (5.4), i.e. (5.4)-(5.3)

$$3\mathcal{E}_0 - (-2\mathcal{E}_0) - 3i_2R - i_2R = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $i_2 = \frac{5}{4} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{R}$

Substitute i_2 into (5.3):

$$-2\mathcal{E}_0 + \left(\frac{5}{4} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{R}\right)R - 2i_3R = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $i_3 = -\frac{3}{8} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{R}$

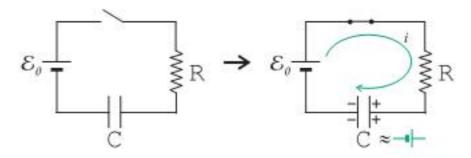
Substitute i_2 , i_3 into (5.1):

$$i_1 = \left(\frac{5}{4} - \frac{3}{8}\right) \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{R} = \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{R}$$

Note: A negative current means that it is flowing in opposite direction from the one assumed.

5.10 RC Circuits

(A) Charging a capacitor with battery:



Using the loop rule:

$$+\mathcal{E}_0 - \underbrace{iR}_{\text{P.D.}} - \underbrace{\frac{Q}{C}}_{\text{across R}} = 0$$

Note: Direction of i is chosen so that the current represents the rate at which the charge on the capacitor is *increasing*.

$$\mathcal{E} = R \frac{\widehat{dQ}}{dt} + \frac{Q}{C} \qquad \text{1st order differential eqn.}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \frac{dQ}{\mathcal{E}C - Q} = \frac{dt}{RC}$$

Integrate both sides and use the initial condition:

t = 0, Q on capacitor = 0

$$\int_{0}^{Q} \frac{dQ}{\mathcal{E}C - Q} = \int_{0}^{t} \frac{dt}{RC}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &-\ln(\mathcal{E}C-Q)\Big|_0^Q = \frac{t}{RC}\Big|_0^t \\ \Rightarrow &-\ln(\mathcal{E}C-Q) + \ln(\mathcal{E}C) = \frac{t}{RC} \\ \Rightarrow &\ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\frac{Q}{\mathcal{E}C}}\right) = \frac{t}{RC} \\ \Rightarrow &\frac{1}{1-\frac{Q}{\mathcal{E}C}} = e^{t/RC} \\ \Rightarrow &\frac{Q}{\mathcal{E}C} = 1 - e^{-t/RC} \\ \Rightarrow &Q(t) = \mathcal{E}C(1-e^{-t/RC}) \end{aligned}$$

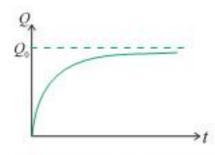
Note: (1) At
$$t = 0$$
, $Q(t = 0) = \mathcal{E}C(1 - 1) = 0$

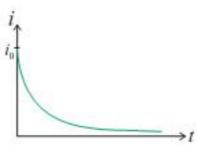
(2) As
$$t \to \infty$$
, $Q(t \to \infty) = \mathcal{E}C(1 - 0) = \mathcal{E}C$
= Final charge on capacitor (Q_0)

(3) Current:

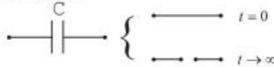
$$i = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$

 $= \mathcal{E}C\left(\frac{1}{RC}\right)e^{-t/RC}$
 $i(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R}e^{-t/RC}$
 $\begin{cases} i(t=0) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} = \text{Initial current} = i_0 \\ i(t \to \infty) = 0 \end{cases}$

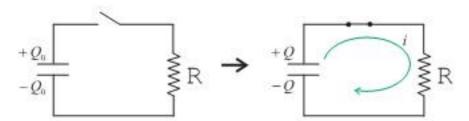




- (4) At time = 0, the capacitor acts like short circuit when there is zero charge on the capacitor.
- (5) As time → ∞, the capacitor is fully charged and current = 0, it acts like a open circuit.



- (6) $\tau_c = RC$ is called the **time constant**. It's the time it takes for the charge to reach $\left(1 - \frac{1}{e}\right)Q_0 \simeq 0.63Q_0$
- (B) Discharging a charged capacitor:



Note: Direction of i is chosen so that the current represents the rate at which the charge on the capacitor is decreasing.

$$i = -\frac{dQ}{dt}$$

Loop Rule:

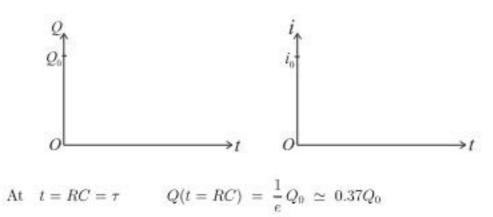
$$V_c - iR = 0$$

 $\Rightarrow \frac{Q}{C} + \frac{dQ}{dt}R = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{dQ}{dt} = -\frac{1}{RC}Q$

Integrate both sides and use the initial condition:

$$t = 0$$
, Q on capacitor $= Q_0$

$$\begin{split} \int_{Q_0}^Q \frac{dQ}{Q} &= -\frac{1}{RC} \int_0^t dt \\ \Rightarrow & \ln Q - \ln Q_0 = -\frac{t}{RC} \\ \Rightarrow & \ln \left(\frac{Q}{Q_0}\right) = -\frac{t}{RC} \\ \Rightarrow & \frac{Q}{Q_0} = e^{-t/RC} \\ \Rightarrow & Q(t) = Q_0 \, e^{-t/RC} \\ (i = -\frac{dQ}{dt}) & \Rightarrow & i(t) = \frac{Q_0}{RC} \, e^{-t/RC} \\ (At \ t = 0) & \Rightarrow & i(t = 0) = \frac{1}{R} \cdot \frac{Q_0}{C} \\ & & \text{Initial P.D. across capacitor} \\ i_0 = \frac{V_0}{R} \end{split}$$



Chapter 6

Magnetic Force

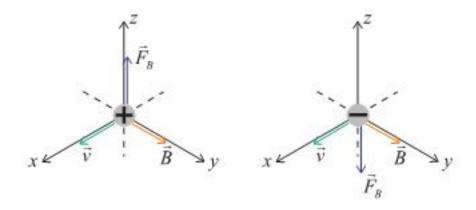
6.1 Magnetic Field

For stationary charges, they experienced an electric force in an electric field.

For moving charges, they experienced a magnetic force in a magnetic field.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Mathematically,} & \vec{F}_E = q \vec{E} & \mbox{(electric force)} \\ & \vec{F}_B = q \vec{v} \times \vec{B} & \mbox{(magnetic force)} \end{array}$$

Direction of the magnetic force determined from right hand rule.



Magnetic field \vec{B} : Unit = Tesla (T) 1T = 1C moving at 1m/s experiencing 1N

Common Unit: 1 Gauss (G) = 10^{-4} T \approx magnetic field on earth's surface

Example: What's the force on a 0.1C charge moving at velocity $\vec{v} = (10\hat{j} - 20\hat{k})ms^{-1}$ in a magnetic field $\vec{B} = (-3\hat{i} + 4\hat{k}) \times 10^{-4}T$

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

=
$$+0.1 (10\hat{j} - 20\hat{k}) \times (-3\hat{i} + 4\hat{k}) \times 10^{-4}N$$

= $10^{-5} (-30 \cdot -\hat{k} + 40\hat{i} + 60\hat{j} + 0)N$

Effects of magnetic field is usually quite small.

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

 $|\vec{F}| = qvB\sin\theta$, where θ is the angle between \vec{v} and \vec{B}

... Magnetic force is maximum when θ = 90° (i.e. v \(\vec{t} \) \(\vec{B}\)) Magnetic force is minimum (0) when θ = 0°, 180° (i.e. v \(\vec{t} \) \(\vec{B}\))

Graphical representation of B-field: Magnetic field lines Compared with Electric field lines:

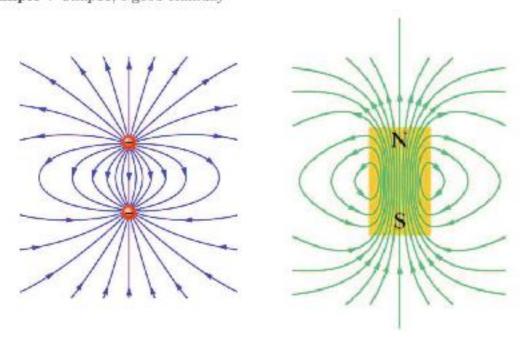
Similar characteristics :

- Direction of E-field/B-field indicated by tangent of the field lines.
- Magnitude of E-field/B-field indicated by density of the field lines.

Differeces :

- (1) $\vec{F}_E \parallel$ E-field lines; $\vec{F}_B \perp$ B-field lines
- (2) E-field line begins at positive charge and ends at negative charge; B-field line forms a closed loop.

Example: Chap35, Pg803 Halliday

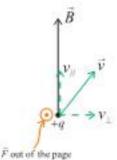


<u>Note</u>: Isolated magnetic monopoles do not exist.

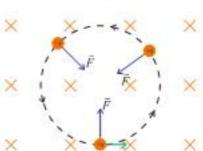
Motion of A Point Charge in Magnetic Field 6.2

Since $\vec{F}_B \perp \vec{v}$, therefore B-field only changes the direction of the velocity but not its magnitude.

Generally, $\vec{F}_B = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B} = q \, v_\perp B$, ... We only need to consider the motion component \(\pm \) to B-field.



We have circular motion. Magnetic force provides the centripetal force on the moving charge particles.



$$F_B = m \frac{v^2}{r}$$

$$|q| vB = m \frac{v^2}{r}$$

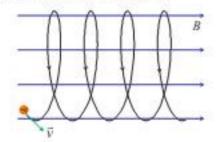
$$r = \frac{mv}{|q|B}$$

where r is radius of circular motion.

Time for moving around one orbit:

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v} = \frac{2\pi m}{qB}$$
 Cyclotron Period

- Independent of v (non-relativistic)
- (2) Use it to measure m/q



Generally, charged particles with constant velocity moves in helix in the presence of constant B-field.

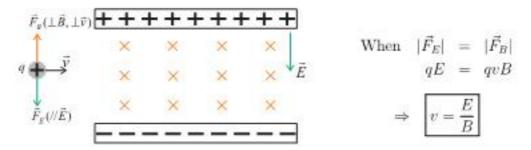
Note:

- B-field does NO work on particles.
- (2) B-field does NOT change K.E. of particles.

Particle Motion in Presence of E-field & B-field:

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{E} + q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$
 Lorentz Force

Special Case : $\vec{E} \perp \vec{B}$



∴ For charged particles moving at v = E/B, they will pass through the crossed E and B fields without vertical displacement.

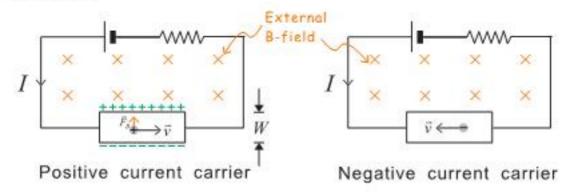
⇒ velocity selector

Applications :

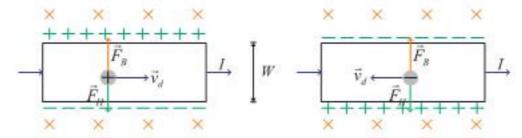
- Cyclotron (Lawrence & Livingston 1934)
- Measuring e/m for electrons (Thomson 1897)
- Mass Spectrometer (Aston 1919)

6.3 Hall Effect

Charges travelling in a conducting wire will be pushed to one side of the wire by the external magnetic field. This separation of charge in the wire is called the Hall Effect.



The separation will stop when F_B experienced by the current carrier is balanced by the force \vec{F}_H caused by the E-field set up by the separated charges.



Define:

$$\Delta V_H = \text{Hall Voltage}$$

= Potential difference across the conducting strip

... E-field from separated charges:
$$E_H = \frac{\Delta V_H}{W}$$

where $W = width$ of conducting strip

In equilibrium: $q\vec{E}_H + q\vec{v}_d \times \vec{B} = 0$, where \vec{v}_d is drift velocity

$$\therefore \frac{\Delta V_H}{W} = v_d B$$

Recall from Chapter 5.

$$i = naAv_{d}$$

where n is density of charge carrier,

A is cross-sectional area = width \times thickness = $W \cdot t$

$$\frac{\Delta V_H}{W} = \frac{i}{nqWt} B$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $n = \frac{iB}{qt\Delta V_H}$ To determine density of charge carriers

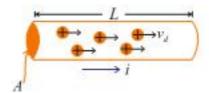
Suppose we determine n for a particular metal (\cdot , q = e), then we can measure B-field strength by measuring the Hall voltage:

$$B = \frac{net}{i} \Delta V_H$$

6.4 Magnetic Force on Currents

Current = many charges moving together

Consider a wire segment, length L, carrying current i in a magnetic field.



Recall $i = nqv_dA$

. Magnetic force on current
$$\vec{F} = i\vec{L} \times \vec{B}$$

where $\vec{L} = \text{Vector}$ of which: $|\vec{L}| = \text{length}$ of current segment; direction = direction of current

For an infinitesimal wire segment $d\vec{l}$

$$d\vec{F} = i \, d\vec{l} \times \vec{B}$$

Example 1: Force on a semicircle current loop

By symmetry argument, we only need to consider vertical forces, $dF \cdot \sin \theta$

Net force
$$F = \int_{0}^{\pi} dF \sin \theta$$

 $= iRB \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin \theta d\theta$
 $F = 2iRB$ (downward)

Method 2: Write $d\vec{l}$ in \hat{i} , \hat{j} components

$$d\vec{l} = -dl \sin \theta \, \hat{i} + dl \cos \theta \, \hat{j}$$

$$= R \, d\theta \, (-\sin \theta \, \hat{i} + \cos \theta \, \hat{j})$$

$$\vec{B} = -B \, \hat{k} \quad (\text{into the page})$$

$$\therefore d\vec{F} = i \, d\vec{l} \times \vec{B}$$

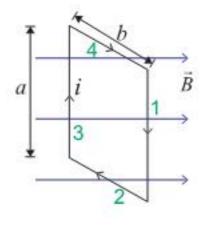
$$= -iRB \sin \theta \, d\theta \, \hat{j} - iRB \cos \theta \, \hat{i}$$

$$\vec{F} = \int_0^{\pi} d\vec{F}$$

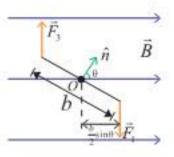
$$= -iRB \left[\int_0^{\pi} \sin \theta \, d\theta \, \hat{j} + \int_0^{\pi} \cos \theta \, d\theta \, \hat{i} \right]$$

$$= -2iRB \, \hat{j}$$

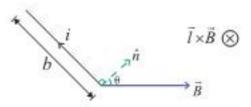
Example 2: Current loop in B-field



View from top



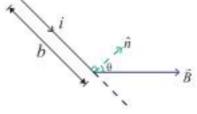
For segment2:



$$F_2 = ibB \sin(90^{\circ} + \theta) = ibB \cos \theta$$
 (pointing downward)

(Domen's downward)

For segment4:



$$F_2 = ibB \sin(90^\circ - \theta) = ibB \cos \theta$$
 (pointing upward)