Physics 1



Lecture 5: Charges and electric field

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Name : Matr nr. Physics 1 for Nanoscience & Nanotechnology Level of knowledge 3 20.11.19

1. What is the kinetic energy of a harmonic oscillation of a spring?

2. Give ansatz to derive the eigen frequency of a harmonic oscillator ? What is the period of scillation of a spring oscillator ?

3. Express the wave equation ?

4. What is the relation between speed, frequency and wavelengh of a travelling wave

5. Give a relation between length of wire and the harmonics that can be excited

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1. What is the kinetic energy of harmonic oscillation of a spring ?

$$E = K + U = \frac{1}{2}ku^2$$

2. Give ansatz to derive the eigen frequency of a harmonic oscillator ? What is the period of scillation of a spring oscillator ?

m d²x/dt² + k x = 0; x(t)= x₀ cos (
$$\omega$$
t) ; $T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m}{k}}$ (period).

3. Express the wave equation ?

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}$$

4. What is the relation between speed, frequency and wavelengh of a travelling wave

$$v = \lambda f$$

5. Give a relation between length of wire and the harmonics that can be excited

$$\lambda = \frac{2L}{n}$$
, for $n = 1, 2, 3, ...$ $f = \frac{v}{\lambda} = n \frac{v}{2L}$, for $n = 1, 2, 3, ...$

charges

F

Charges with the same electrical sign repel each other, and charges with opposite electrical signs attract each other.

Charges are quantized

$$q = ne, \quad n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots,$$

Elementary charge $e = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \,\mathrm{C}.$



(a)

Glass

Glass

F

| Table 21-1The Charges of Three Particles | | |
|--|---------|----|
| | | |
| Electron | e or e- | -e |
| Proton | р | +e |
| Neutron | n | 0 |

(b)

Coulomb's law





(a) Figure 21-8*a* shows two positively charged particles fixed in place on an *x* axis. The charges are $q_1 = 1.60 \times 10^{-19}$ C and $q_2 = 3.20 \times 10^{-19}$ C, and the particle separation is R = 0.0200 m. What are the magnitude and direction of the electrostatic force \vec{F}_{12} on particle 1 from particle 2?

KEY IDEAS

Because both particles are positively charged, particle 1 is repelled by particle 2, with a force magnitude given by Eq. 21-4. Thus, the direction of force \vec{F}_{12} on particle 1 is *away from* particle 2, in the negative direction of the *x* axis, as indicated in the free-body diagram of Fig. 21-8*b*.

Two particles: Using Eq. 21-4 with separation R substituted for r, we can write the magnitude F_{12} of this force as

$$F_{12} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{|q_1||q_2|}{R^2}$$

= (8.99 × 10⁹ N · m²/C²)
× $\frac{(1.60 × 10^{-19} \text{ C})(3.20 × 10^{-19} \text{ C})}{(0.0200 \text{ m})^2}$
= 1.15 × 10⁻²⁴ N.

Thus, force \vec{F}_{12} has the following magnitude and direction (relative to the positive direction of the *x* axis):

$$1.15 \times 10^{-24} \,\mathrm{N}$$
 and 180° . (Answer)

We can also write \vec{F}_{12} in unit-vector notation as

$$\vec{F}_{12} = -(1.15 \times 10^{-24} \,\mathrm{N})\hat{i}.$$
 (Answer)

(b) Figure 21-8*c* is identical to Fig. 21-8*a* except that particle 3 now lies on the *x* axis between particles 1 and 2. Particle 3 has charge $q_3 = -3.20 \times 10^{-19}$ C and is at a distance $\frac{3}{4}R$ from particle 1. What is the net electrostatic force $\vec{F}_{1,net}$ on particle 1 due to particles 2 and 3?

KEY IDEA

The presence of particle 3 does not alter the electrostatic force on particle 1 from particle 2. Thus, force \vec{F}_{12} still acts on particle 1. Similarly, the force \vec{F}_{13} that acts on particle 1 due to particle 3 is not affected by the presence of particle 2. Because particles 1 and 3 have charge of opposite signs, particle 1 is attracted to particle 3. Thus, force \vec{F}_{13} is directed *toward* particle 3, as indicated in the free-body diagram of Fig. 21-8d.

Three particles: To find the magnitude of \vec{F}_{13} , we can rewrite Eq. 21-4 as

$$F_{13} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{|q_1||q_3|}{(\frac{3}{4}R)^2}$$

= (8.99 × 10⁹ N · m²/C²)
× $\frac{(1.60 × 10^{-19} \text{ C})(3.20 × 10^{-19} \text{ C})}{(\frac{3}{4})^2(0.0200 \text{ m})^2}$
= 2.05 × 10⁻²⁴ N.

We can also write \vec{F}_{13} in unit-vector notation:

$$\vec{F}_{13} = (2.05 \times 10^{-24} \,\mathrm{N})\hat{i}$$

The net force $\vec{F}_{1,net}$ on particle 1 is the vector sum of \vec{F}_{12} and \vec{F}_{13} ; that is, from Eq. 21-7, we can write the net force $\vec{F}_{1,net}$ on particle 1 in unit-vector notation as

$$\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}} = \vec{F}_{12} + \vec{F}_{13}$$

= $-(1.15 \times 10^{-24} \text{N})\hat{i} + (2.05 \times 10^{-24} \text{N})\hat{i}$
= $(9.00 \times 10^{-25} \text{N})\hat{i}$. (Answer)

Thus, $\vec{F}_{1,net}$ has the following magnitude and direction (relative to the positive direction of the *x* axis):

$$9.00 \times 10^{-25} \,\text{N}$$
 and 0° . (Answer)

(c) Figure 21-8*e* is identical to Fig. 21-8*a* except that particle 4 is now included. It has charge $q_4 = -3.20 \times 10^{-19}$ C, is at a distance $\frac{3}{4}R$ from particle 1, and lies on a line that makes an angle $\theta = 60^{\circ}$ with the *x* axis. What is the net electrostatic force $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ on particle 1 due to particles 2 and 4?

KEY IDEA

The net force $\vec{F}_{1,net}$ is the vector sum of \vec{F}_{12} and a new force \vec{F}_{14} acting on particle 1 due to particle 4. Because particles 1 and 4 have charge of opposite signs, particle 1 is attracted to particle 4. Thus, force \vec{F}_{14} on particle 1 is directed *toward* particle 4, at angle $\theta = 60^{\circ}$, as indicated in the free-body diagram of Fig. 21-8*f*.

Four particles: We can rewrite Eq. 21-4 as

$$F_{14} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{|q_1||q_4|}{(\frac{3}{4}R)^2}$$

= (8.99 × 10⁹ N · m²/C²)
× $\frac{(1.60 × 10^{-19} \text{ C})(3.20 × 10^{-19} \text{ C})}{(\frac{3}{4})^2(0.0200 \text{ m})^2}$
= 2.05 × 10⁻²⁴ N.

Then from Eq. 21-7, we can write the net force $\vec{F}_{1,net}$ on particle 1 as

$$\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}} = \vec{F}_{12} + \vec{F}_{14}.$$

Because the forces \vec{F}_{12} and \vec{F}_{14} are not directed along the same axis, we *cannot* sum simply by combining their magnitudes. Instead, we must add them as vectors, using one of the following methods.

Method 1. Summing directly on a vector-capable calculator. For \vec{F}_{12} , we enter the magnitude 1.15×10^{-24} and the angle 180°. For \vec{F}_{14} , we enter the magnitude 2.05×10^{-24} and the angle 60°. Then we add the vectors.

Method 2. Summing in unit-vector notation. First we rewrite \vec{F}_{14} as

$$\vec{F}_{14} = (F_{14}\cos\theta)\hat{i} + (F_{14}\sin\theta)\hat{j}.$$

Substituting 2.05 \times 10⁻²⁴ N for F_{14} and 60° for θ , this becomes

$$\vec{F}_{14} = (1.025 \times 10^{-24} \,\mathrm{N})\hat{i} + (1.775 \times 10^{-24} \,\mathrm{N})\hat{j}.$$

Then we sum:

$$\begin{split} \vec{F}_{1,\text{net}} &= \vec{F}_{12} + \vec{F}_{14} \\ &= -(1.15 \times 10^{-24} \text{N})\hat{i} \\ &+ (1.025 \times 10^{-24} \text{N})\hat{i} + (1.775 \times 10^{-24} \text{N})\hat{j} \\ &\approx (-1.25 \times 10^{-25} \text{N})\hat{i} + (1.78 \times 10^{-24} \text{N})\hat{j}. \end{split}$$
(Answer

Method 3. Summing components axis by axis. The sum of the x components gives us

$$F_{1,\text{net},x} = F_{12,x} + F_{14,x} = F_{12} + F_{14} \cos 60^{\circ}$$

= -1.15 × 10⁻²⁴ N + (2.05 × 10⁻²⁴ N)(cos 60°)
= -1.25 × 10⁻²⁵ N.

The sum of the y components gives us

$$F_{1,\text{net},y} = F_{12,y} + F_{14,y} = 0 + F_{14} \sin 60^{\circ}$$

= (2.05 × 10⁻²⁴ N)(sin 60°)
= 1.78 × 10⁻²⁴ N.

The net force $\vec{F}_{1,net}$ has the magnitude

$$F_{1,\text{net}} = \sqrt{F_{1,\text{net},x}^2 + F_{1,\text{net},y}^2} = 1.78 \times 10^{-24} \text{ N.}$$
 (Answer)

To find the direction of $\vec{F}_{1,net}$, we take

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{F_{1, \text{net}, y}}{F_{1, \text{net}, x}} = -86.0^{\circ}.$$

However, this is an unreasonable result because $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ must have a direction between the directions of \vec{F}_{12} and \vec{F}_{14} . To correct θ , we add 180°, obtaining

$$-86.0^{\circ} + 180^{\circ} = 94.0^{\circ}$$
. (Answer)

Electric field

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{q_0}$$
 (electric field).

Electric field exists independent from a test charge



Some Electric Fields Field Location or Situation Value (N/C) At the surface of a uranium nucleus 3×10^{21} Within a hydrogen atom, at a radius of 5.29×10^{-11} m 5×10^{11} Electric breakdown occurs in air 3×10^{6} Near the charged drum of a photocopier 10⁵ Near a charged comb 10^{3} In the lower atmosphere 10^{2} Inside the copper wire of household circuits 10^{-2}

Pointing always from positive to negative charge



[N/C]



Electric field of a point charge

$$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \,.$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{q_0} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$
 (point charge).

$$\vec{F}_0 = \vec{F}_{01} + \vec{F}_{02} + \cdots + \vec{F}_{0n}.$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}_0}{q_0} = \frac{\vec{F}_{01}}{q_0} + \frac{\vec{F}_{02}}{q_0} + \cdots + \frac{\vec{F}_{0n}}{q_0}$$
$$= \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 + \cdots + \vec{E}_n.$$



Figure 22-7*a* shows three particles with charges $q_1 = +2Q$, $q_2 = -2Q$, and $q_3 = -4Q$, each a distance *d* from the origin. What net electric field \vec{E} is produced at the origin?

KEY IDEA

Charges q_1 , q_2 , and q_3 produce electric field vectors \vec{E}_1 , \vec{E}_2 , and \vec{E}_3 , respectively, at the origin, and the net electric field is the vector sum $\vec{E} = \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 + \vec{E}_3$. To find this sum, we first must find the magnitudes and orientations of the three field vectors.

Magnitudes and directions: To find the magnitude of \vec{E}_1 , which is due to q_1 , we use Eq. 22-3, substituting d for r and 2Q for q and obtaining

$$E_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{2Q}{d^2}.$$

Similarly, we find the magnitudes of \vec{E}_2 and \vec{E}_3 to be



Fig. 22-7 (a) Three particles with charges q_1, q_2 , and q_3 are at the same distance d from the origin. (b) The electric field vectors $\vec{E_1}, \vec{E_2}$, and $\vec{E_3}$, at the origin due to the three particles. (c) The electric field vector $\vec{E_3}$ and the vector sum $\vec{E_1} + \vec{E_2}$ at the origin.

$$E_2 = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{2Q}{d^2}$$
 and $E_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{4Q}{d^2}$.

We next must find the orientations of the three electric field vectors at the origin. Because q_1 is a positive charge, the field vector it produces points directly *away* from it, and because q_2 and q_3 are both negative, the field vectors they produce point directly *toward* each of them. Thus, the three electric fields produced at the origin by the three charged particles are oriented as in Fig. 22-7b. (*Caution:* Note that we have placed the tails of the vectors at the point where the fields are to be evaluated; doing so decreases the chance of error. Error becomes very probable if the tails of the field vectors are placed on the particles creating the fields.)

Adding the fields: We can now add the fields vectorially just as we added force vectors in Chapter 21. However, here we can use symmetry to simplify the procedure. From Fig. 22-7b, we see that electric fields \vec{E}_1 and \vec{E}_2 have the same direction. Hence, their vector sum has that direction and has the magnitude

$$E_1 + E_2 = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{2Q}{d^2} + \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{2Q}{d^2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{4Q}{d^2},$$

which happens to equal the magnitude of field \vec{E}_{3} .

We must now combine two vectors, \vec{E}_3 and the vector sum $\vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2$, that have the same magnitude and that are oriented symmetrically about the x axis, as shown in Fig. 22-7c. From the symmetry of Fig. 22-7c, we realize that the equal y components of our two vectors cancel (one is upward and the other is downward) and the equal x components add (both are rightward). Thus, the net electric field \vec{E} at the origin is in the positive direction of the x axis and has the magnitude

$$E = 2E_{3x} = 2E_3 \cos 30^\circ$$

= (2) $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{4Q}{d^2} (0.866) = \frac{6.93Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 d^2}.$ (Answer)

Elementary charge

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{E},$$

Probe the field by a "test" charge q

$$q = ne$$
, for $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$,



Fig. 22-14 The Millikan oil-drop apparatus for measuring the elementary charge e. When a charged oil drop drifted into chamber C through the hole in plate P₁, its motion could be controlled by closing and opening switch S and thereby setting up or eliminating an electric field in chamber C. The microscope was used to view the drop, to permit timing of its motion.

Sample Problem

Motion of a charged particle in an electric field

Figure 22-17 shows the deflecting plates of an ink-jet printer, with superimposed coordinate axes. An ink drop with a mass m of 1.3×10^{-10} kg and a negative charge of magnitude $Q = 1.5 \times 10^{-13}$ C enters the region between the plates, initially moving along the x axis with speed $v_x = 18$ m/s. The length L of each plate is 1.6 cm. The plates are charged and thus produce an electric field at all points between them. Assume that field \vec{E} is downward directed, is uniform, and has a magnitude of 1.4×10^6 N/C. What is the vertical deflection of the drop at the far edge of the plates? (The gravitational force on the drop is small relative to the electrostatic force acting on the drop and can be neglected.)

KEY IDEA

The drop is negatively charged and the electric field is directed *downward*. From Eq. 22-28, a constant electrostatic force of magnitude *QE* acts *upward* on the charged drop. Thus, as the drop travels parallel to the x axis at constant speed v_x , it accelerates upward with some constant acceleration a_y .

Calculations: Applying Newton's second law (F = ma) for components along the y axis, we find that

$$a_y = \frac{F}{m} = \frac{QE}{m}.$$
 (22-30)



Fig. 22-17 An ink drop of mass *m* and charge magnitude *Q* is deflected in the electric field of an ink-jet printer.

Let *t* represent the time required for the drop to pass through the region between the plates. During *t* the vertical and horizontal displacements of the drop are

$$y = \frac{1}{2}a_y t^2$$
 and $L = v_x t$, (22-31)

respectively. Eliminating t between these two equations and substituting Eq. 22-30 for a_v , we find

$$y = \frac{QEL^2}{2mv_x^2}$$

= $\frac{(1.5 \times 10^{-13} \text{ C})(1.4 \times 10^6 \text{ N/C})(1.6 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m})^2}{(2)(1.3 \times 10^{-10} \text{ kg})(18 \text{ m/s})^2}$
= $6.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$
= $0.64 \text{ mm}.$ (Answer)

Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*



Torque and energy of an electric dipole in an electric field

A neutral water molecule (H₂O) in its vapor state has an electric dipole moment of magnitude 6.2×10^{-30} C \cdot m.

(a) How far apart are the molecule's centers of positive and negative charge?

KEY IDEA

A molecule's dipole moment depends on the magnitude q of the molecule's positive or negative charge and the charge separation d.

Calculations: There are 10 electrons and 10 protons in a neutral water molecule; so the magnitude of its dipole moment is

$$p = qd = (10e)(d),$$

in which d is the separation we are seeking and e is the elementary charge. Thus,

$$d = \frac{p}{10e} = \frac{6.2 \times 10^{-30} \,\mathrm{C} \cdot \mathrm{m}}{(10)(1.60 \times 10^{-19} \,\mathrm{C})}$$

= 3.9 × 10⁻¹² m = 3.9 pm. (Answer

This distance is not only small, but it is also actually smaller than the radius of a hydrogen atom.

(b) If the molecule is placed in an electric field of 1.5×10^4 N/C, what maximum torque can the field exert on it? (Such a field can easily be set up in the laboratory.)

KEY IDEA

The torque on a dipole is maximum when the angle θ between \vec{p} and \vec{E} is 90°.

Calculation: Substituting $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ in Eq. 22-33 yields

$$\tau = pE \sin \theta$$

= (6.2 × 10⁻³⁰ C·m)(1.5 × 10⁴ N/C)(sin 90°)
= 9.3 × 10⁻²⁶ N·m. (Answer)

(c) How much work must an *external agent* do to rotate this molecule by 180° in this field, starting from its fully aligned position, for which $\theta = 0$?

KEY IDEA

The work done by an external agent (by means of a torque applied to the molecule) is equal to the change in the molecule's potential energy due to the change in orientation.

Calculation: From Eq. 22-40, we find

$$\begin{split} W_a &= U_{180^\circ} - U_0 \\ &= (-pE\cos 180^\circ) - (-pE\cos 0) \\ &= 2pE = (2)(6.2 \times 10^{-30} \text{ C} \cdot \text{m})(1.5 \times 10^4 \text{ N/C}) \\ &= 1.9 \times 10^{-25} \text{ J.} \end{split}$$
(Answer)

The Electric Field Due to a Charged Disk

$$dq = \sigma \, dA = \sigma \, (2\pi r \, dr),$$

Surface charge density

C/m²

 σ

$$dE = \frac{z\sigma 2\pi r\,dr}{4\pi\varepsilon_0(z^2+r^2)^{3/2}},$$

$$dE = \frac{\sigma z}{4\varepsilon_0} \frac{2r \, dr}{(z^2 + r^2)^{3/2}}.$$

$$E = \int dE = \frac{\sigma z}{4\varepsilon_0} \int_0^R (z^2 + r^2)^{-3/2} (2r) \, dr.$$

$$X = (z^2 + r^2),$$
$$\int X^m dX = \frac{X^{m+1}}{m+1},$$

$$E = \frac{\sigma z}{4\varepsilon_0} \left[\frac{(z^2 + r^2)^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} \right]_0^R.$$

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0} \left(1 - \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2 + R^2}} \right) \quad \text{(charged disk)}$$

Gauss law

Gauss' law relates the electric fields at points on a (closed) Gaussian surface to the net charge enclosed by that surface.



Flux (of air flow)



Electrical flux



$$\Phi = \sum \vec{E} \cdot \Delta \vec{A}.$$

Surface integral

$$\Phi=\oint \vec{E}\cdot d\vec{A}$$

(electric flux through a Gaussian surface).

Flux through a closed cylinder, uniform field

Figure 23-4 shows a Gaussian surface in the form of a cylinder of radius *R* immersed in a uniform electric field \vec{E} , with the cylinder axis parallel to the field. What is the flux Φ of the electric field through this closed surface?

KEY IDEA

We can find the flux Φ through the Gaussian surface by integrating the scalar product $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ over that surface.

Calculations: We can do the integration by writing the flux as the sum of three terms: integrals over the left cylinder cap a, the cylindrical surface b, and the right cap c. Thus, from Eq. 23-4,

$$\Phi = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$$
$$= \int_{a} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} + \int_{b} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} + \int_{c} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}. \qquad (23-5)$$

For all points on the left cap, the angle θ between \vec{E} and $d\vec{A}$ is 180° and the magnitude E of the field is uniform. Thus,

$$\int_{a} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int E(\cos 180^\circ) \, dA = -E \int dA = -EA,$$

where $\int dA$ gives the cap's area A (= πR^2). Similarly, for the



FIG. 23-4 A cylindrical Gaussian surface, closed by end caps, is immersed in a uniform electric field. The cylinder axis is parallel to the field direction.

right cap, where $\theta = 0$ for all points,

$$\int_{c} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int E(\cos 0) \, dA = EA.$$

Finally, for the cylindrical surface, where the angle θ is 90° at all points,

$$\int_{b} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int E(\cos 90^\circ) \, dA = 0.$$

Substituting these results into Eq. 23-5 leads us to

$$\Phi = -EA + 0 + EA = 0.$$
 (Answer)

The net flux is zero because the field lines that represent the electric field all pass entirely through the Gaussian surface, from the left to the right.

Flux through two charges



$$\varepsilon_0 \Phi = q_{\rm enc}$$
 (Gauss' law).

$$\varepsilon_0 \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = q_{\text{enc}}$$
 (Gauss' law).

- Surface S_1 . The electric field is outward for all points on this surface. Thus, the flux of the electric field through this surface is positive, and so is the net charge within the surface, as Gauss' law requires. (That is, in Eq. 23-6, if Φ is positive, q_{enc} must be also.)
- Surface S_2 . The electric field is inward for all points on this surface. Thus, the flux of the electric field through this surface is negative and so is the enclosed charge, as Gauss' law requires.
- Surface S_3 . This surface encloses no charge, and thus $q_{enc} = 0$. Gauss' law (Eq. 23-6) requires that the net flux of the electric field through this surface be zero. That is reasonable because all the field lines pass entirely through the surface, entering it at the top and leaving at the bottom.
- Surface S_4 . This surface encloses no *net* charge, because the enclosed positive and negative charges have equal magnitudes. Gauss' law requires that the net flux of the electric field through this surface be zero. That is reasonable because there are as many field lines leaving surface S_4 as entering it.

Gauss law and Coulomb law

$$\varepsilon_0 \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \varepsilon_0 \oint E \, dA = q_{\text{enc}}.$$
$$\varepsilon_0 E(4\pi r^2) = q$$
$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2}.$$



surface centered on a point charge q.

Enclosed

charge is q

Gaussian

surface

Gauss law for speherical density distribution



E-Field of a conducting plate



$$\varepsilon_{0} \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = q_{\text{enc}},$$

$$\varepsilon_{0}(EA + EA) = \sigma A,$$

$$\sigma - \text{surface charge density}$$
(a)

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{2\varepsilon_{0}}$$
 (sheet of charge).

E-Field of two conducting plates





Figure 23-17*a* shows portions of two large, parallel, nonconducting sheets, each with a fixed uniform charge on one side. The magnitudes of the surface charge densities are $\sigma_{(+)} = 6.8 \ \mu\text{C/m}^2$ for the positively charged sheet and $\sigma_{(-)} =$ 4.3 $\mu\text{C/m}^2$ for the negatively charged sheet.

Find the electric field \vec{E} (a) to the left of the sheets, (b) between the sheets, and (c) to the right of the sheets.

KEY IDEA

With the charges fixed in place (they are on nonconductors), we can find the electric field of the sheets in Fig. 23-17*a* by (1) finding the field of each sheet as if that sheet were isolated and (2) algebraically adding the fields of the isolated sheets via the superposition principle. (We can add the fields algebraically because they are parallel to each other.)

Calculations: At any point, the electric field $\vec{E}_{(+)}$ due to the positive sheet is directed *away* from the sheet and, from Eq. 23-13, has the magnitude

$$E_{(+)} = \frac{\sigma_{(+)}}{2\varepsilon_0} = \frac{6.8 \times 10^{-6} \,\text{C/m}^2}{(2)(8.85 \times 10^{-12} \,\text{C}^2/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2)}$$

= 3.84 × 10⁵ N/C.

Similarly, at any point, the electric field $\vec{E}_{(-)}$ due to the negative sheet is directed *toward* that sheet and has the magnitude

$$E_{(-)} = \frac{\sigma_{(-)}}{2\varepsilon_0} = \frac{4.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C/m}^2}{(2)(8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2)}$$

= 2.43 × 10⁵ N/C.

Figure 23-17*b* shows the fields set up by the sheets to the left of the sheets (L), between them (B), and to their right (R).

The resultant fields in these three regions follow from the superposition principle. To the left, the field magnitude is

$$E_L = E_{(+)} - E_{(-)}$$

= 3.84 × 10⁵ N/C - 2.43 × 10⁵ N/C
= 1.4 × 10⁵ N/C. (Answer)

Because $E_{(+)}$ is larger than $E_{(-)}$, the net electric field \vec{E}_L in this region is directed to the left, as Fig. 23-17*c* shows. To the right of the sheets, the electric field has the same magnitude but is directed to the right, as Fig. 23-17*c* shows.

Between the sheets, the two fields add and we have

$$E_B = E_{(+)} + E_{(-)}$$

= 3.84 × 10⁵ N/C + 2.43 × 10⁵ N/C
= 6.3 × 10⁵ N/C. (Answer)

The electric field \vec{E}_B is directed to the right.



Electrical potential energy

$$\Delta U = U_f - U_l = -W.$$



Work done to move a charge from infinity to *i*

$$U = -W_{\infty}$$
.

Electrical potential (potential per unit charge)

$$V = \frac{U}{q}.$$

$$\Delta V = V_f - V_i = \frac{U_f}{q} - \frac{U_l}{q} = \frac{\Delta U}{q}.$$

$$\Delta V = V_f - V_i = -\frac{W}{q}$$

$$V = -\frac{W_{\infty}}{q} \quad \text{(potential defined),}$$

$$1 \text{ volt} = 1 \text{ joule per coulomb.}$$

$$\Delta U = U_f - U_i = W_{\text{app}}.$$

$$\Delta U = U_f - U_i = W_{\text{app}}.$$

$$W_{\text{appl}} = q \Delta V$$

$$1 \text{ eV} = e(1 \text{ V})$$

$$= (1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(1 \text{ J/C}) = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}.$$

$$For E:$$

$$1 \text{ N/C} = \left(1 \frac{N}{C}\right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ V} \cdot \text{C}}{1 \text{ J}}\right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ J}}{1 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}}\right)$$

$$= 1 \text{ V/m.}$$

Electrons are continually being knocked out of air molecules in the atmosphere by cosmic-ray particles coming in from space. Once released, each electron experiences an electrostatic force \vec{F} due to the electric field \vec{E} that is produced in the atmosphere by charged particles already on Earth. Near Earth's surface the electric field has the magnitude E = 150 N/C and is directed downward. What is the change ΔU in the electric potential energy of a released electron when the electrostatic force causes it to move vertically upward through a distance d = 520 m (Fig.24-1)?

KEY IDEAS

(1) The change ΔU in the electric potential energy of the electron is related to the work W done on the electron by the electric field. Equation 24-1 ($\Delta U = -W$) gives the relation.



Fig. 24-1 An electron in the atmosphere is moved upward through displacement \vec{d} by an electrostatic force \vec{F} due to an electric field \vec{E} .

(2) The work done by a constant force \vec{F} on a particle undergoing a displacement \vec{d} is

$$W = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{d}. \tag{24-3}$$

(3) The electrostatic force and the electric field are related by the force equation $\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$, where here q is the charge of an electron (= -1.6 × 10⁻¹⁹ C).

Calculations: Substituting for \vec{F} in Eq. 24-3 and taking the dot product yield

$$W = q\vec{E} \cdot \vec{d} = qEd\cos\theta, \qquad (24-4)$$

where θ is the angle between the directions of \vec{E} and \vec{d} . The field \vec{E} is directed downward and the displacement \vec{d} is directed upward; so $\theta = 180^{\circ}$. Substituting this and other data into Eq. 24-4, we find

$$W = (-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(150 \text{ N/C})(520 \text{ m}) \cos 180^{\circ}$$

= 1.2 × 10⁻¹⁴ J.

Equation 24-1 then yields

$$\Delta U = -W = -1.2 \times 10^{-14} \,\text{J.}$$
 (Answer)

This result tells us that during the 520 m ascent, the electric potential energy of the electron *decreases* by 1.2×10^{-14} J.

$$\Delta V = \Delta U/q = -1.2 \times 10^{-14} \text{ J} / 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

= -7.5 x 10⁴ V

Equipotential surfaces

From definition of work : $W_{appl} = q \Delta V$



No work is done on a equipotential plane if $\Delta V=0$



Calculating potential in an electric field

$$dW = \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

$$dW = q_0 \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

$$W = q_0 \int_{I}^{f} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

$$V_f - V_I = -\int_{I}^{f} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

set $V_i = 0,$

$$V = -\int_{I}^{f} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s},$$

Give the potential V at any point f

Path Field line
$$g_0$$

 g_0
 $g_0 = d\vec{s}$
 $g_0 \vec{E}$



We can find the potential difference between any two points in an electric field by integrating $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$ along a path connecting those two points according to Eq. 24-18.

Calculations: We begin by mentally moving a test charge q_0 along that path, from initial point *i* to final point *f*. As we move such a test charge along the path in Fig. 24-5*a*, its differential displacement $d\vec{s}$ always has the same direction as \vec{E} . Thus, the angle θ between \vec{E} and $d\vec{s}$ is zero and the dot product in Eq. 24-18 is

$$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = E \, ds \cos \theta = E \, ds. \tag{24-20}$$

Equations 24-18 and 24-20 then give us

$$V_f - V_i = -\int_i^f \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\int_i^f E \, ds.$$
 (24-21)

Since the field is uniform, E is constant over the path and can be moved outside the integral, giving us

$$V_f - V_i = -E \int_i^f ds = -Ed,$$
 (Answer)

in which the integral is simply the length d of the path. The minus sign in the result shows that the potential at point f in Fig. 24-5*a* is lower than the potential at point *i*. This is a general

(a) Figure 24-5*a* shows two points *i* and *f* in a uniform electric field \vec{E} . The points lie on the same electric field line (not shown) and are separated by a distance *d*. Find the potential difference $V_f - V_i$ by moving a positive test charge q_0 from *i* to *f* along the path shown, which is parallel to the field direction.

result: The potential always decreases along a path that extends in the direction of the electric field lines.

(b) Now find the potential difference $V_f - V_i$ by moving the positive test charge q_0 from *i* to *f* along the path *icf* shown in Fig. 24-5*b*.

Calculations: The Key Idea of (a) applies here too, except now we move the test charge along a path that consists of two lines: *ic* and *cf*. At all points along line *ic*, the displacement $d\vec{s}$ of the test charge is perpendicular to \vec{E} . Thus, the angle θ between \vec{E} and $d\vec{s}$ is 90°, and the dot product $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$ is 0. Equation 24-18 then tells us that points *i* and *c* are at the same potential: $V_c - V_i = 0$.

For line *cf* we have $\theta = 45^{\circ}$ and, from Eq. 24-18,

$$V_f - V_i = -\int_c^f \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\int_c^f E(\cos 45^\circ) \, ds$$
$$= -E(\cos 45^\circ) \int_c^f ds.$$

The integral in this equation is just the length of line cf; from Fig. 24-5*b*, that length is $d/\cos 45^\circ$. Thus,

$$V_f - V_i = -E(\cos 45^\circ) \frac{d}{\cos 45^\circ} = -Ed. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

This is the same result we obtained in (a), as it must be; the potential difference between two points does not depend on the path connecting them. Moral: When you want to find the potential difference between two points by moving a test charge between them, you can save time and work by choosing a path that simplifies the use of Eq. 24-18.

Potential due to a point charge

$$V_{f} - V_{i} = -\int_{R}^{\infty} E \, dr.$$

$$0 - V = -\frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \int_{R}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r^{2}} \, dr = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \left[\frac{1}{r}\right]_{R}^{\infty}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{q}{r}$$

A system of point charges

A system of point charges

$$V = \sum_{i=1}^{n} V_i = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i}{r_i}.$$

Net potential of several charged particles

What is the electric potential at point P, located at the center of the square of point charges shown in Fig. 24-8*a*? The distance d is 1.3 m, and the charges are

$$q_1 = +12 \text{ nC},$$
 $q_3 = +31 \text{ nC},$
 $q_2 = -24 \text{ nC},$ $q_4 = +17 \text{ nC}.$

KEY IDEA

The electric potential V at point P is the algebraic sum of the electric potentials contributed by the four point charges.



Fig. 24-8 (a) Four point charges are held fixed at the corners of a square. (b) The closed curve is a cross section, in the plane of the figure, of the equipotential surface that contains point *P*. (The curve is drawn only roughly.)

(Because electric potential is a scalar, the orientations of the point charges do not matter.)

Calculations: From Eq. 24-27, we have

$$V = \sum_{i=1}^{4} V_i = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \left(\frac{q_1}{r} + \frac{q_2}{r} + \frac{q_3}{r} + \frac{q_4}{r} \right)$$

The distance r is $d/\sqrt{2}$, which is 0.919 m, and the sum of the charges is

$$q_1 + q_2 + q_3 + q_4 = (12 - 24 + 31 + 17) \times 10^{-9} \text{ C}$$

= 36 × 10⁻⁹ C.

Thus,
$$V = \frac{(8.99 \times 10^9 \,\mathrm{N \cdot m^2/C^2})(36 \times 10^{-9} \,\mathrm{C})}{0.919 \,\mathrm{m}}$$

 $\approx 350 \,\mathrm{V}.$ (Answer)

Close to any of the three positive charges in Fig. 24-8*a*, the potential has very large positive values. Close to the single negative charge, the potential has very large negative values. Therefore, there must be points within the square that have the same intermediate potential as that at point *P*. The curve in Fig. 24-8*b* shows the intersection of the plane of the figure with the equipotential surface that contains point *P*. Any point along that curve has the same potential as point *P*.

Potential Due to an Electric Dipole

$$V = \sum_{i=1}^{2} V_i = V_{(+)} + V_{(-)} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \left(\frac{q}{r_{(+)}} + \frac{-q}{r_{(-)}} \right)$$
$$= \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{r_{(-)} - r_{(+)}}{r_{(-)}r_{(+)}}.$$

$$r_{(-)} - r_{(+)} \approx d \cos \theta$$
 and $r_{(-)}r_{(+)} \approx r^2$.

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{d\cos\theta}{r^2},$$

Dipole moment *p*= *q d*

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{p\cos\theta}{r^2} \qquad \text{(electric dipole)},$$



Calculating E from V

$$-q_0 dV = q_0 E(\cos \theta) ds,$$
$$E \cos \theta = -\frac{dV}{ds}.$$

 $E \cos \theta$ is the component of \vec{E} in the direction of $d\vec{s}$,

$$E_s = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial s}.$$



The component of \vec{E} in any direction is the negative of the rate at which the electric potential changes with distance in that direction.

Since **E** is vector

$$E_x = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}; \qquad E_y = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial y}; \qquad E_z = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial z}.$$
$$\vec{E} = -gradV = -(\frac{\delta V}{\delta x}\vec{e_x} + \frac{\delta V}{\delta y}\vec{e_y} + \frac{\delta V}{\delta z}\vec{e_z})$$

The electric potential at any point on the central axis of a uniformly charged disk is given by Eq. 24-37,

$$V = \frac{\sigma}{2\varepsilon_0} \left(\sqrt{z^2 + R^2} - z \right).$$

Starting with this expression, derive an expression for the electric field at any point on the axis of the disk.

KEY IDEAS

We want the electric field \vec{E} as a function of distance z along the axis of the disk. For any value of z, the direction of \vec{E} must be along that axis because the disk has circular symmetry about that axis. Thus, we want the component E_z of \vec{E} in the direction of z. This component is the negative of the rate at which the electric potential changes with distance z.

Calculation: Thus, from the last of Eqs. 24-41, we can write

$$E_{z} = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial z} = -\frac{\sigma}{2\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{d}{dz} (\sqrt{z^{2} + R^{2}} - z)$$
$$= \frac{\sigma}{2\varepsilon_{0}} \left(1 - \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^{2} + R^{2}}}\right).$$
(Answer)

This is the same expression that we derived in Section 22-7 by integration, using Coulomb's law.

Electric Potential Energy

The electric potential energy of a system of fixed point charges is equal to the work that must be done by an external agent to assemble the system, bringing each charge in from an infinite distance.

V(q₁) and position of q₂:
$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{q_1}{r}$$
.
 $\stackrel{q_1}{\underbrace{\oplus}} r \xrightarrow{q_2} \underbrace{U = W = q_2 V = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r}}_{\underbrace{\oplus}}$.

Example : Potential energy of 3 point charges



$$\begin{split} U &= U_{12} + U_{13} + U_{23} \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \left(\frac{(+q)(-4q)}{d} + \frac{(+q)(+2q)}{d} + \frac{(-4q)(+2q)}{d} \right) \\ &= -\frac{10q^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 d} \end{split}$$

= -17 mJ.

Capacity calculation

Two charged plates separated by distance d form a capacitor

Gaussian
$$\varepsilon_0 \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} =$$
 surface

$$\varepsilon_0 \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = q.$$

$$q = \varepsilon_0 E A$$
,

Bottom side of bottom plate has charge
$$+q$$
 (a) (b)

The charge q and the potential difference V between the plates are proportional to each other

Electric field lines

۲J

1

q = CV.

$$V = \int_{-}^{+} E \, ds = E \int_{0}^{d} ds = E d.$$

C - capacity

Area A

$$\varepsilon_0 EA = CEd$$

 $\varepsilon_0 A$



1 farad = 1 F = 1 coulomb per volt = 1 C/V.

Charging the plates in a parallel-plate capacitor

In Fig. 25-7*a*, switch S is closed to connect the uncharged capacitor of capacitance $C = 0.25 \,\mu\text{F}$ to the battery of potential difference V = 12 V. The lower capacitor plate has thickness L = 0.50 cm and face area $A = 2.0 \times 10^{-4} \,\text{m}^2$, and it consists of copper, in which the density of conduction electrons is $n = 8.49 \times 10^{28}$ electrons/m³. From what depth *d* within the plate (Fig. 25-7*b*) must electrons move to the plate face as the capacitor becomes charged?

KEY IDEA

The charge collected on the plate is related to the capacitance and the potential difference across the capacitor by Eq. 25-1 (q = CV).

Calculations: Because the lower plate is connected to the negative terminal of the battery, conduction electrons move up to the face of the plate. From Eq. 25-1, the total charge



FIG. 25-7 (a) A battery and capacitor circuit. (b) The lower capacitor plate.

magnitude that collects there is

$$q = CV = (0.25 \times 10^{-6} \,\mathrm{F})(12 \,\mathrm{V})$$

= 3.0 × 10⁻⁶ C.

Dividing this result by e gives us the number N of conduction electrons that come up to the face:

$$N = \frac{q}{e} = \frac{3.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C}}{1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}}$$
$$= 1.873 \times 10^{13} \text{ electrons.}$$

These electrons come from a volume that is the product of the face area A and the depth d we seek. Thus, from the density of conduction electrons (number per volume), we can write

$$n = \frac{N}{Ad},$$

or

$$d = \frac{N}{An} = \frac{1.873 \times 10^{13} \text{ electrons}}{(2.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2) (8.49 \times 10^{28} \text{ electrons/m}^3)}$$

= 1.1 × 10⁻¹² m = 1.1 pm. (Answer)

In common speech, we would say that the battery charges the capacitor by supplying the charged particles. But what the battery really does is set up an electric field in the wires and plate such that electrons very close to the plate face move up to the negative face.

Parallel and Series connection of capacities

$$q = q_{1} + q_{2} + q_{3} = (C_{1} + C_{2} + C_{3})V.$$

$$C_{eq} = \frac{q}{V} = C_{1} + C_{2} + C_{3},$$

$$C_{eq} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} C_{j}$$

$$V = V_{1} + V_{2} + V_{3} = q\left(\frac{1}{C_{1}} + \frac{1}{C_{2}} + \frac{1}{C_{3}}\right).$$

$$C_{eq} = \frac{q}{V} = \frac{1}{1/C_{1}} + \frac{1}{1/C_{2}} + \frac{1}{C_{3}},$$

$$\frac{1}{C_{eq}} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{C_{j}}$$

$$R_{eq} = \frac{q}{V} = \frac{1}{1/C_{1}} + \frac{1}{C_{2}} + \frac{1}{C_{3}},$$

$$\frac{1}{C_{eq}} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{C_{j}}$$

$$Series capacitors$$

(a) Find the equivalent capacitance for the combination of capacitances shown in Fig. 25-10a, across which potential difference V is applied. Assume

 $C_1 = 12.0 \,\mu\text{F}, \quad C_2 = 5.30 \,\mu\text{F}, \text{ and } C_3 = 4.50 \,\mu\text{F}.$

(g)

(f)

$$C_{12} = C_1 + C_2 = 12.0 \ \mu\text{F} + 5.30 \ \mu\text{F} = 17.3 \ \mu\text{F}.$$
$$\frac{1}{C_{123}} = \frac{1}{C_{12}} + \frac{1}{C_3}$$
$$= \frac{1}{17.3 \ \mu\text{F}} + \frac{1}{4.50 \ \mu\text{F}} = 0.280 \ \mu\text{F}^{-1},$$

the charge.

 $q_{123} =$

 $q_2 =$ $13.7 \ \mu C$

(*i*)

 $C_2 = - V_2 =$

(*h*)

Capacitor 1, with $C_1 = 3.55 \ \mu\text{F}$, is charged to a potential difference $V_0 = 6.30 \text{ V}$, using a 6.30 V battery. The battery is then removed, and the capacitor is connected as in Fig. 25-11 to an uncharged capacitor 2, with $C_2 = 8.95 \ \mu\text{F}$. When switch S is closed, charge flows between the capacitors. Find the charge on each capacitor when equilibrium is reached.



$$q_0 = C_1 V_0 = (3.55 \times 10^{-6} \,\mathrm{F}) \,(6.30 \,\mathrm{V})$$

= 22.365 × 10⁻⁶ C.

When switch S in Fig. 25-11 is closed and capacitor 1 begins to charge capacitor 2, the electric potential and charge on capacitor 1 decrease and those on capacitor 2 increase until

$$V_1 = V_2$$
 (equilibrium).

From Eq. 25-1, we can rewrite this as

$$\frac{q_1}{C_1} = \frac{q_2}{C_2} \qquad (\text{equilibrium}).$$

Because the total charge cannot magically change, the total after the transfer must be

 $q_1 + q_2 = q_0$ (charge conservation);

We can now rewrite the second equilibrium equation as

 $q_2 = q_0 - q_1$.

thus

$$\frac{q_1}{C_1} = \frac{q_0 - q_1}{C_2}.$$

Solving this for q_1 and substituting given data, we find

$$q_1 = 6.35 \,\mu\text{C.} \qquad (\text{Answer})$$

The rest of the initial charge ($q_0 = 22.365 \ \mu\text{C}$) must be on capacitor 2: $q_2 = 16.0 \ \mu\text{C}$. (Answer)