Resumen Física para Computación FaMAF 2017 - P2: Electricidad

Agustín Curto

1 Electric fields

Summary

Definitions

The **electric field** $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ at some point in space is defined as the electric force $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_e$ that acts on a small positive test charge placed at that point divided by the magnitude q_0 of the test charge:

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} \equiv \frac{\vec{\mathbf{F}}_e}{q_0} \qquad \textbf{(23.7)}$$

Concepts and Principles

Electric charges have the following important properties:

- Charges of opposite sign attract one another, and charges of the same sign repel one another.
- The total charge in an isolated system is conserved.
- Charge is quantized.

Conductors are materials in which electrons move freely. **Insulators** are materials in which electrons do not move freely.

Coulomb's law states that the electric force exerted by a point charge q_1 on a second point charge q_2 is

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{12} = k_e \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}\,\hat{\mathbf{r}}_{12} \qquad \textbf{(23.6)}$$

where r is the distance between the two charges and $\hat{\mathbf{r}}_{12}$ is a unit vector directed from q_1 toward q_2. The constant k_e, which is called the **Coulomb constant,** has the value $k_e = 8.988 \times 10^9\ \mathrm{N \cdot m^2/C^2}$.

At a distance r from a point charge q, the electric field due to the charge is

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} = k_e \frac{q}{r^2}\,\hat{\mathbf{r}} \qquad \textbf{(23.9)}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$ is a unit vector directed from the charge toward the point in question. The electric field is directed radially outward from a positive charge and radially inward toward a negative charge.

The electric field due to a group of point charges can be obtained by using the superposition principle. That is, the total electric field at some point equals the vector sum of the electric fields of all the charges:

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} = k_e \sum_i \frac{q_i}{r_i^2}\,\hat{\mathbf{r}}_i \qquad \textbf{(23.10)}$$

The electric field at some point due to a continuous charge distribution is

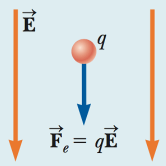
$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} = k_e \int \frac{dq}{r^2}\,\hat{\mathbf{r}} \qquad \textbf{(23.11)}$$

where dq is the charge on one element of the charge distribution and r is the distance from the element to the point in question.

Analysis Models for Problem Solving

Particle in a Field (Electric) A source particle with some electric charge establishes an **electric field** $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ throughout space. When a particle with charge q is placed in that field, it experiences an electric force given by

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_e = q\vec{\mathbf{E}} \qquad \textbf{(23.8)}$$



2 Gauss's law

Summary

Definition

Electric flux is proportional to the number of electric field lines that penetrate a surface. If the electric field is uniform and makes an angle θ with the normal to a surface of area A, the electric flux through the surface is

$$\Phi_E = EA\cos\theta \tag{24.2}$$

In general, the electric flux through a surface is

$$\Phi_E \equiv \int_{\text{surface}} \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{A}} \tag{24.3}$$

Concepts and Principles

Gauss's law says that the net electric flux Φ_E through any closed gaussian surface is equal to the *net* charge q_{in} inside the surface divided by ϵ_0:

$$\Phi_E = \oint \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{A}} = \frac{q_{\text{in}}}{\epsilon_0} \tag{24.6}$$

Using Gauss's law, you can calculate the electric field due to various symmetric charge distributions.

A conductor in **electrostatic equilibrium** has the following properties:

1. The electric field is zero everywhere inside the conductor, whether the conductor is solid or hollow.
2. If the conductor is isolated and carries a charge, the charge resides on its surface.
3. The electric field at a point just outside a charged conductor is perpendicular to the surface of the conductor and has a magnitude σ/ϵ_0, where σ is the surface charge density at that point.
4. On an irregularly shaped conductor, the surface charge density is greatest at locations where the radius of curvature of the surface is smallest.

3 Electric potential

Summary

Definitions

The **potential difference** ΔV between points Ⓐ and Ⓑ in an electric field $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ is defined as

$$\Delta V \equiv \frac{\Delta U}{q} = -\int_{Ⓐ}^{Ⓑ} \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{s}} \tag{25.3}$$

where ΔU is given by Equation 25.1 on page 767. The **electric potential** $V = U/q$ is a scalar quantity and has the units of joules per coulomb, where 1 J/C $\equiv$ 1 V.

An **equipotential surface** is one on which all points are at the same electric potential. Equipotential surfaces are perpendicular to electric field lines.

Concepts and Principles

When a positive charge q is moved between points Ⓐ and Ⓑ in an electric field $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$, the change in the potential energy of the charge–field system is

$$\Delta U = -q\int_{Ⓐ}^{Ⓑ} \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{s}} \tag{25.1}$$

The potential difference between two points separated by a distance d in a uniform electric field $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ is

$$\Delta V = -Ed \tag{25.6}$$

if the direction of travel between the points is in the same direction as the electric field.

If we define $V = 0$ at $r = \infty$, the electric potential due to a point charge at any distance r from the charge is

$$V = k_e \frac{q}{r} \qquad \textbf{(25.11)}$$

The electric potential associated with a group of point charges is obtained by summing the potentials due to the individual charges.

The **electric potential energy** associated with a pair of point charges separated by a distance r_{12} is

$$U = k_e \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} \qquad \textbf{(25.13)}$$

We obtain the potential energy of a distribution of point charges by summing terms like Equation 25.13 over all pairs of particles.

If the electric potential is known as a function of coordinates x, y, and z, we can obtain the components of the electric field by taking the negative derivative of the electric potential with respect to the coordinates. For example, the x component of the electric field is

$$E_x = -\frac{dV}{dx} \qquad \textbf{(25.16)}$$

The electric potential due to a continuous charge distribution is

$$V = k_e \int \frac{dq}{r} \qquad \textbf{(25.20)}$$

Every point on the surface of a charged conductor in electrostatic equilibrium is at the same electric potential. The potential is constant everywhere inside the conductor and equal to its value at the surface.

4 Capacitance and dielectrics

Summary

Definitions

A **capacitor** consists of two conductors carrying charges of equal magnitude and opposite sign. The **capacitance** C of any capacitor is the ratio of the charge Q on either conductor to the potential difference ΔV between them:

$$C \equiv \frac{Q}{\Delta V} \qquad \textbf{(26.1)}$$

The capacitance depends only on the geometry of the conductors and not on an external source of charge or potential difference. The SI unit of capacitance is coulombs per volt, or the **farad** (F): 1 F = 1 C/V.

The **electric dipole moment** $\vec{\mathbf{p}}$ of an electric dipole has a magnitude

$$p \equiv 2aq \qquad \textbf{(26.16)}$$

where $2a$ is the distance between the charges q and $-q$. The direction of the electric dipole moment vector is from the negative charge toward the positive charge.

Concepts and Principles

If two or more capacitors are connected in parallel, the potential difference is the same across all capacitors. The equivalent capacitance of a **parallel combination** of capacitors is

$$C_{\text{eq}} = C_1 + C_2 + C_3 + \cdots \qquad \textbf{(26.8)}$$

If two or more capacitors are connected in series, the charge is the same on all capacitors, and the equivalent capacitance of the **series combination** is given by

$$\frac{1}{C_{\text{eq}}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} + \cdots \qquad \textbf{(26.10)}$$

These two equations enable you to simplify many electric circuits by replacing multiple capacitors with a single equivalent capacitance.

Energy is stored in a charged capacitor because the charging process is equivalent to the transfer of charges from one conductor at a lower electric potential to another conductor at a higher potential. The energy stored in a capacitor of capacitance C with charge Q and potential difference ΔV is

$$U_E = \frac{Q^2}{2C} = \tfrac{1}{2}Q\Delta V = \tfrac{1}{2}C(\Delta V)^2 \qquad \textbf{(26.11)}$$

When a dielectric material is inserted between the plates of a capacitor, the capacitance increases by a dimensionless factor κ, called the **dielectric constant:**

$$C = \kappa C_0 \qquad (26.14)$$

where C_0 is the capacitance in the absence of the dielectric.

The torque acting on an electric dipole in a uniform electric field $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ is

$$\vec{\boldsymbol{\tau}} = \vec{\mathbf{p}} \times \vec{\mathbf{E}} \qquad (26.18)$$

The potential energy of the system of an electric dipole in a uniform external electric field $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ is

$$U_E = -\vec{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{E}} \qquad (26.20)$$

5 Current and resistance

Summary

Definitions

The electric **current** I in a conductor is defined as

$$I \equiv \frac{dQ}{dt} \qquad (27.2)$$

where dQ is the charge that passes through a cross section of the conductor in a time interval dt. The SI unit of current is the **ampere** (A), where 1 A = 1 C/s.

The **current density** J in a conductor is the current per unit area:

$$J \equiv \frac{I}{A} \qquad (27.5)$$

The **resistance** R of a conductor is defined as

$$R \equiv \frac{\Delta V}{I} \qquad (27.7)$$

where ΔV is the potential difference across the conductor and I is the current it carries. The SI unit of resistance is volts per ampere, which is defined to be 1 **ohm** (Ω); that is, 1 Ω = 1 V/A.

Concepts and Principles

The average current in a conductor is related to the motion of the charge carriers through the relationship

$$I_{\text{avg}} = nqv_dA \qquad (27.4)$$

where n is the density of charge carriers, q is the charge on each carrier, v_d is the drift speed, and A is the cross-sectional area of the conductor.

The current density in an ohmic conductor is proportional to the electric field according to the expression

$$J = \sigma E \qquad (27.6)$$

The proportionality constant σ is called the **conductivity** of the material of which the conductor is made. The inverse of σ is known as **resistivity** ρ (that is, $\rho = 1/\sigma$). Equation 27.6 is known as **Ohm's law,** and a material is said to obey this law if the ratio of its current density to its applied electric field is a constant that is independent of the applied field.

For a uniform block of material of cross-sectional area A and length ℓ, the resistance over the length ℓ is

$$R = \rho\frac{\ell}{A} \qquad (27.10)$$

where ρ is the resistivity of the material.

In a classical model of electrical conduction in metals, the electrons are treated as molecules of a gas. In the absence of an electric field, the average velocity of the electrons is zero. When an electric field is applied, the electrons move (on average) with a **drift velocity** $\vec{\mathbf{v}}_d$ that is opposite the electric field. The drift velocity is given by

$$\vec{\mathbf{v}}_d = \frac{q\vec{\mathbf{E}}}{m_e}\tau \qquad (27.13)$$

where q is the electron's charge, m_e is the mass of the electron, and τ is the average time interval between electron–atom collisions. According to this model, the resistivity of the metal is

$$\rho = \frac{m_e}{nq^2\tau} \qquad (27.16)$$

where n is the number of free electrons per unit volume.

The resistivity of a conductor varies approximately linearly with temperature according to the expression

$$\rho = \rho_0[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)] \quad \textbf{(27.18)}$$

where ρ_0 is the resistivity at some reference temperature T_0 and α is the **temperature coefficient of resistivity.**

If a potential difference ΔV is maintained across a circuit element, the **power,** or rate at which energy is supplied to the element, is

$$P = I\,\Delta V \quad \textbf{(27.21)}$$

Because the potential difference across a resistor is given by $\Delta V = IR$, we can express the power delivered to a resistor as

$$P = I^2R = \frac{(\Delta V)^2}{R} \quad \textbf{(27.22)}$$

The energy delivered to a resistor by electrical transmission T_{ET} appears in the form of internal energy E_{int} in the resistor.

6 Magnetic fields

Summary

Definition

The **magnetic dipole moment** $\vec{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ of a loop carrying a current I is

$$\vec{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \equiv I\vec{\mathbf{A}} \quad \textbf{(29.15)}$$

where the area vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ is perpendicular to the plane of the loop and $|\vec{\mathbf{A}}|$ is equal to the area of the loop. The SI unit of $\vec{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ is $\mathrm{A \cdot m^2}$.

Concepts and Principles

If a charged particle moves in a uniform magnetic field so that its initial velocity is perpendicular to the field, the particle moves in a circle, the plane of which is perpendicular to the magnetic field. The radius of the circular path is

$$r = \frac{mv}{qB} \quad \textbf{(29.3)}$$

where m is the mass of the particle and q is its charge. The angular speed of the charged particle is

$$\omega = \frac{qB}{m} \quad \textbf{(29.4)}$$

If a straight conductor of length L carries a current I, the force exerted on that conductor when it is placed in a uniform magnetic field $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$ is

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_B = I\vec{\mathbf{L}} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}} \quad \textbf{(29.10)}$$

where the direction of $\vec{\mathbf{L}}$ is in the direction of the current and $|\vec{\mathbf{L}}| = L$.

If an arbitrarily shaped wire carrying a current I is placed in a magnetic field, the magnetic force exerted on a very small segment $d\vec{\mathbf{s}}$ is

$$d\vec{\mathbf{F}}_B = I\,d\vec{\mathbf{s}} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}} \quad \textbf{(29.11)}$$

To determine the total magnetic force on the wire, one must integrate Equation 29.11 over the wire, keeping in mind that both $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$ and $d\vec{\mathbf{s}}$ may vary at each point.

The torque $\vec{\boldsymbol{\tau}}$ on a current loop placed in a uniform magnetic field $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$ is

$$\vec{\boldsymbol{\tau}} = \vec{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}} \quad \textbf{(29.17)}$$

The potential energy of the system of a magnetic dipole in a magnetic field is

$$U_B = -\vec{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{B}} \quad \textbf{(29.18)}$$

Particle in a Field (Magnetic) A source (to be discussed in Chapter 30) establishes a **magnetic field** $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$ throughout space. When a particle with charge q and moving with velocity $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$ is placed in that field, it experiences a magnetic force given by

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_B = q\vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}} \tag{29.1}$$

The direction of this magnetic force is perpendicular both to the velocity of the particle and to the magnetic field. The magnitude of this force is

$$F_B = |q|vB\sin\theta \tag{29.2}$$

where θ is the smaller angle between $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$. The SI unit of $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$ is the **tesla** (T), where 1 T = 1 N/A · m.