

## Gauss's Law

In differential form:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_V$$

When integrated over a volume, we have

$$\int_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} \, dv = \int_V \rho_V \, dv = Q$$

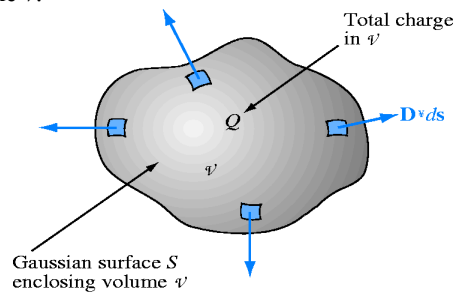
where  $Q$  is the total charge in volume  $v$ .

Using Gauss's theorem:

$$\int_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} \, dv = \oint_S \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

We obtain the integral form:

$$\oint_S \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = Q$$



Ulaby Figure 4-8

9.1

## Gauss's Law

### Applications

In some simple cases with high symmetry, solutions may be found directly

- A point charge

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{R}) / \epsilon = \hat{\mathbf{R}} \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$$

— This just reproduces Coulomb's law

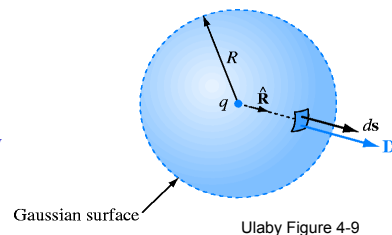
- A line charge

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{E}(r, \phi, z) = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{R}) / \epsilon = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{\rho_l}{2\pi\epsilon r}$$

- A planar charge

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{E}(r, \phi, z) = \mathbf{E}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{R}) / \epsilon = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon}$$

— We obtained this result earlier by direct integration



Ulaby Figure 4-9

9.2

## Gauss's Law

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### Applications

The line charge in more detail:

— From symmetry,  $\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{D}(r, \phi, z) = \mathbf{D}(r) = \hat{\mathbf{r}} D_r(r)$

Only the  $r$ -component of  $\mathbf{D}$  is present, and it points in the  $r$ -direction

We consider a cylinder of height  $h$  surrounding the line charge. It contains a charge  $Q = \rho_l h$

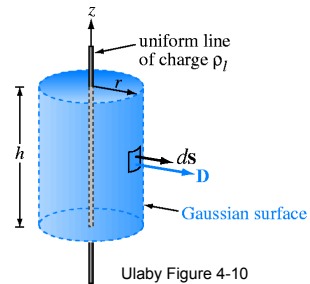
We thus find

$$\int_{z=0}^h \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \hat{\mathbf{r}} D_r \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} r d\phi dz = \rho_l h$$

which implies  $2\pi h D_r r = \rho_l h$

from which we conclude

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{R}) = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{D_r}{\epsilon} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{\rho_l}{2\pi\epsilon r}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-10

9.3

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## Gauss's Law

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### Applications

*An even more important application of the integral formulation in today's world is to serve as the starting point for numerical approaches!*

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## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

### Physical Meaning

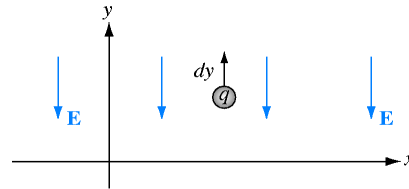
*The voltage  $V$  between two points indicates the work (energy) required to move a unit charge from the first point to the second*

The field exerts a force  $\mathbf{F}_e = q\mathbf{E}$  on the charge. An external source of energy — like a battery — is required to move the charges; the external force must counteract the electrical force;  $\mathbf{F}_{\text{ext}} = -\mathbf{F}_e = -q\mathbf{E}$ .

We have

$$dV = \frac{dW}{q} = -\mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}, \text{ which integrates to}$$

$$V_{21} = V_2 - V_1 = -\int_{P_1}^{P_2} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-11 9.5

## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

### Physical Meaning

*The voltage  $V$  between two points is independent of the path that is used to go between those two points*

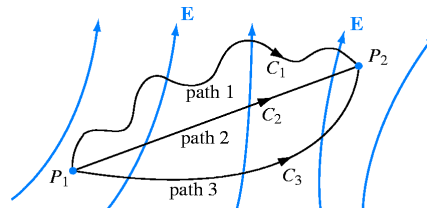
This is the source of: **Kirchhoff's Voltage Law**

An important consequence:  $\oint_C \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$

In an axiomatic approach, we may derive this result from the second equation of electrostatics:  $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0$ .

Using Stokes theorem, we have

$$\int_s (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \oint_C \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$$



Ulaby Figure 4-12 9.6

## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

### Physical Meaning

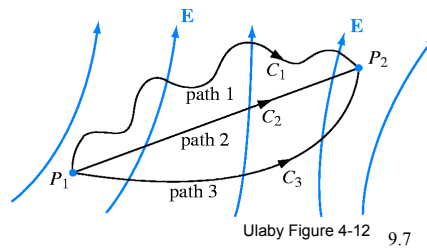
*More generally,  $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} \neq 0$  due to a changing magnetic field and Kirchoff's law breaks down!*

### The Concept of Ground

Voltage is defined as *the potential difference* between two points.

To set an absolute voltage reference, we assume that the voltage is zero in the ground, which corresponds to bringing a particle from  $\infty$ .

$$V = -\int_{\infty}^P \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$



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## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

### Voltage due to Point Charges

From a single charge, using  $\mathbf{E} = \hat{\mathbf{R}}(q/4\pi\epsilon R^2)$

$$V = -\int_{\infty}^{P(\mathbf{R})} \left( \hat{\mathbf{R}} \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon R^2} \right) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{R}} dR = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon R}$$

From a charge  $q$  that is at  $\mathbf{R}_1 \neq 0$ , we have

$$V(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon |\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}_1|}$$

For multiple charges  $q_i, i=1,2,\dots,N$  located at  $\mathbf{R}_i, i=1,2,\dots,N$ , we have

$$V(\mathbf{R}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{q_i}{4\pi\epsilon |\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}_i|}$$

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## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

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### Voltage due to Continuous Distributions

By analogy with our earlier definition of the fields due to charge distributions, we have

$$V(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \int_{v'} \frac{\rho_v dv'}{R'} \quad (\text{volume distribution})$$

$$V(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \int_{s'} \frac{\rho_s ds'}{R'} \quad (\text{surface distribution})$$

$$V(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \int_{l'} \frac{\rho_l dl'}{R'} \quad (\text{line distribution})$$

*Voltages are typically much easier to calculate than fields because there is just one scalar quantity to calculate instead of three vector components!*

## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

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### Calculating the Electric Field from the Voltage Field

From the equation  $dV = -\mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$ , we infer

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V$$

*The preferred approach to calculating the field is to first determine the voltage field and then use the equation  $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V$  to determine the electric field*

## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

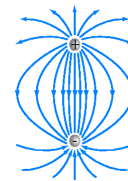
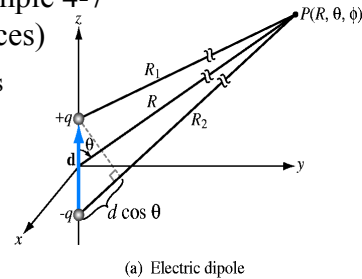
### Electric Dipole: Ulaby and Ravaioli Example 4-7 (extended to arbitrary distances)

**Question:** An electric dipole has two charges with same the same magnitude and the opposite sign separated by a distance  $d$ . Determine the voltage and the field

**Answer:** In contrast to Ulaby's example, we calculate the field at any distance. We start with cylindrical coordinates, which are more convenient when the distances are arbitrary. We have

$$V(r, z) = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon \left[ r^2 + (z - d/2)^2 \right]^{1/2}} - \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon \left[ r^2 + (z + d/2)^2 \right]^{1/2}}$$

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Ulaby Figure 4-13 9.11

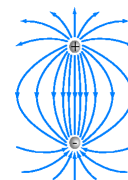
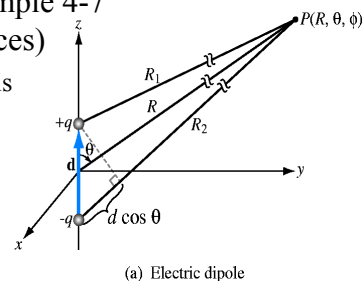
## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

### Electric Dipole: Ulaby and Ravaioli Example 4-7 (extended to arbitrary distances)

**Answer (continued):** We note that the field is independent of  $\phi$ . So, the electric field becomes

$$\mathbf{E}(r, z) = \frac{q[\hat{\mathbf{r}}r + \hat{\mathbf{z}}(z - d/2)]}{4\pi\epsilon \left[ r^2 + (z - d/2)^2 \right]^{3/2}} - \frac{q[\hat{\mathbf{r}}r + \hat{\mathbf{z}}(z + d/2)]}{4\pi\epsilon \left[ r^2 + (z + d/2)^2 \right]^{3/2}}$$

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Ulaby Figure 4-13 9.12

## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

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Electric Dipole: Ulaby and Ravaioli Example 4-7  
(extended to arbitrary distances)

**Answer (continued):** In spherical coordinates, we have

$$\mathbf{E}(R, \theta) = \frac{q \left\{ \hat{\mathbf{R}} [R - (d/2) \cos \theta] + \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} (d/2) \sin \theta \right\}}{4\pi\epsilon \left[ R^2 - R d \cos \theta + (d/2)^2 \right]^{3/2}} - \frac{q \left\{ \hat{\mathbf{R}} [R + (d/2) \cos \theta] - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} (d/2) \sin \theta \right\}}{4\pi\epsilon \left[ R^2 + R d \cos \theta + (d/2)^2 \right]^{3/2}}$$

In the limit  $R \gg d$

$$\frac{1}{\left[ R^2 \mp R d \cos \theta + (d/2)^2 \right]^{3/2}} \approx \frac{1}{R^3} \left( 1 \pm \frac{3d}{2R} \cos \theta \right)$$

## The Scalar Potential – Voltage

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Electric Dipole: Ulaby and Ravaioli Example 4-7  
(extended to arbitrary distances)

**Answer (continued):** We conclude

$$\mathbf{E}(R, \theta) = \frac{qd}{4\pi\epsilon R^3} (\hat{\mathbf{R}} 2 \cos \theta + \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sin \theta)$$

*Note the cubic falloff with distance and the proportionality to the charge separation! This behavior is characteristic of dipoles.*

## Electrical Properties of Materials

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### Conductors and Dielectrics

In electromagnetic theory, we treat materials as conductors or dielectrics

- In conductors, the charges and currents appear in  $\rho$  and  $\mathbf{J}$ .
- In dielectrics, the charges and currents appear in  $\epsilon$  and  $\mu$ .

#### *What about semiconductors?*

The answer is complicated. It depends on

- The material properties
- Electric field properties; particularly the frequency

It can be useful to treat different currents and charges in the same material differently; there can be both bound and free charges and currents in the same medium.

## Conductance and Resistance

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### Ohm's Law:

The simplest model that relates the current to the electric field is Ohm's law,

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

Two important limits:

- A perfect (ideal) conductor;  $\sigma = \infty$ ,  $\mathbf{E} = 0$ .
- A perfect (ideal) dielectric;  $\sigma = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{J} = 0$ .

Real materials can be more complicated; other effects can include

- A tensor response or a nonlinear response.
- A portion of the current that is due to the magnetic field.



## Conductance and Resistance

### Conductivity and Resistance:

We may relate the conductivity and the resistance in a wire of length  $l$  and area  $A$ :

$$V = V_1 - V_2 = -\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = E_x l$$

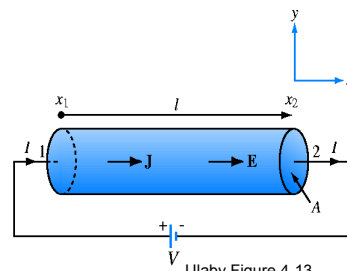
$$I = \int_A \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_A \sigma \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \sigma E_x A$$

From the relation  $V = IR$ , we conclude  $R = l / \sigma A$

$$R = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{-\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}}{\int_A \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s}} = \frac{-\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}}{\int_A \sigma \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s}}$$

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NOTE: Conductance is defined as  $G = 1/R$



Ulaby Figure 4-13

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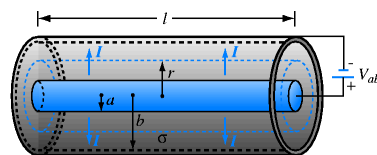
## Conductance and Resistance

### Conductance of a coaxial cable: Ulaby and Ravaioli Example 4-9

**Question:** We are now ready to derive the transmission line parameter  $G'$  for the coaxial cable geometry. This is the first transmission line parameter that we will derive! A coaxial cable of length  $l$  has inner and outer conductors of radius  $a$  and  $b$  and an insulating layer with a conductivity  $\sigma$ . What is  $G'$ ?

**Answer:** Let  $I$  be the current that flows from the inner conductor to the outer conductor. At any distance  $r$ , the area through which the current flows is  $A = 2\pi r l$ . We now have,

$$\mathbf{J} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{I}{A} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{I}{2\pi r l} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{E} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{I}{2\pi \sigma r l}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-15 9.18

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## Conductance and Resistance

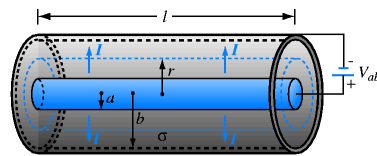
Conductance of a coaxial cable: Ulaby and Ravaioli Example 4-9

**Answer (continued):** We now have,

$$V_{ab} = -\int_b^a \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -\int_b^a \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{I}{2\pi\sigma r l} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} dr = \frac{I}{2\pi\sigma l} \ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$$

from which we conclude

$$G' = \frac{G}{l} = \frac{1}{Rl} = \frac{I}{V_{ab}l} = \frac{2\pi\sigma}{\ln(b/a)}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-15 9.19

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## Conductance and Resistance

Joule's Law: Power dissipation in a resistor

From basic mechanical theory, we have  $\Delta P = \mathbf{F}_V \cdot \mathbf{u}_V = \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{J} \Delta v$

where

- $\mathbf{F}_V$  = the average force acting on a small volume of charges
- $\mathbf{u}_V$  = the average drift velocity of a small volume of charges

and we use  $\mathbf{F}_V = \rho_V \mathbf{E} \Delta v$  and  $\mathbf{J} = \rho_V \mathbf{u}_V$

from which we may integrate to obtain

$$P = \int_V \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{J} dv$$

This relationship is general. When Ohm's law holds

$$P = \int_V \sigma |\mathbf{E}|^2 dv$$

In the one-dimensional geometry for an electrical wire,

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$$P = \int_A \sigma E_x ds \int_l E_x dl = (\sigma E_x A)(E_x l) = IV = I^2 R$$

*This explains the standard circuit formulae for power dissipation!*

9.20

## Tech Brief 7: Resistive Sensors

### Electrical Sensors

- Respond to applied stimulus by generating an electrical signal
- Electrical signal changes depending on intensity of stimulus
  - Voltage, current, or other attribute
- Stimuli include physical, chemical, biological quantities
  - Temperature, pressure, position, distance, motion, velocity, acceleration, concentration (gas or liquid), blood flow, etc.
- Types of sensors
  - **Resistive**
  - Capacitive, inductive, emf sensors (covered later)



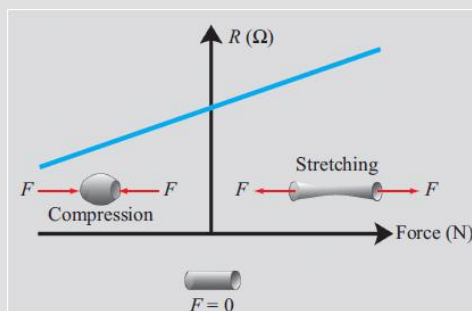
9.21

## Tech Brief 7: Resistive Sensors

Piezoresistivity  $R = \frac{l}{\sigma A}$ , Eq. (4.70)

- Stretching a conductor by an external force decreases  $A$  and increases  $l$
- Greek work *piezein* means to press
- Resistance relationship approximately modeled by a linear equation, where  $a_0$  is the piezoresistive coefficient

$$R = R_0 \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha F}{A_0} \right)$$



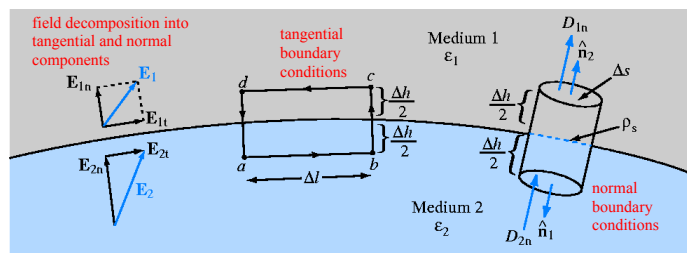
9.22

## Boundary Conditions

### Field Decomposition:

We first decompose the fields in media 1 and 2, indicated  $\mathbf{E}_1$  and  $\mathbf{E}_2$  into tangential and normal components

$$\mathbf{E}_1 = \mathbf{E}_{1t} + \mathbf{E}_{1n} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{E}_2 = \mathbf{E}_{2t} + \mathbf{E}_{2n}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-18

9.23

## Boundary Conditions

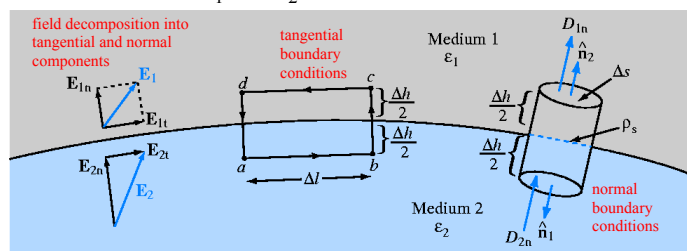
### Tangential conditions:

We follow the path  $abcd$  shown in the figure, we use  $\oint_C \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$ , and we let  $\Delta h \rightarrow 0$ . We also note that in this limit,  $|b-a| = |d-c| = \Delta l$ . We have

$$\oint_C \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_a^b \mathbf{E}_2 \cdot d\mathbf{l} + \int_c^d \mathbf{E}_1 \cdot d\mathbf{l} = (E_{2t} - E_{1t})\Delta l = 0,$$

We conclude:

$$E_{1t} = E_{2t} \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \frac{D_{1t}}{\epsilon_1} = \frac{D_{2t}}{\epsilon_2}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-18

9.24

## Boundary Conditions

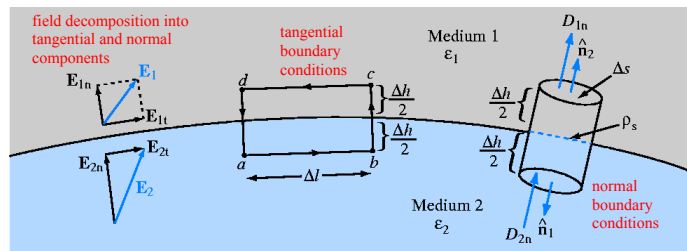
Normal conditions:

We use Gauss's law on the bottom and top of the pill box in the figure,

$$\oint_s \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_{\text{top}} \mathbf{D}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}_2 ds + \int_{\text{bottom}} \mathbf{D}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}_1 ds = \rho_s \Delta s$$

Along with the relation  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}_1 = -\hat{\mathbf{n}}_2$ , to obtain

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot (\mathbf{D}_1 - \mathbf{D}_2) = D_{1n} - D_{2n} = \rho_s \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \epsilon_1 E_{1n} - \epsilon_2 E_{2n} = \rho_s$$



Ulaby Figure 4-18

9.25

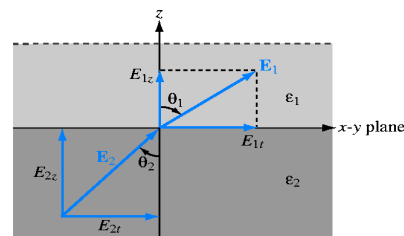
## Boundary Conditions

Application of Boundary Conditions: Ulaby and Ravaioli, Ex. 4-10

**Question:** The  $x$ - $y$  plane at  $z = 0$  is a charge-free boundary separating two dielectric media with permittivities  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$ . If the electric field in medium 1 is  $\mathbf{E}_1 = \hat{\mathbf{x}} E_{1x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} E_{1y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} E_{1z}$ , find the electric field  $\mathbf{E}_2$  in medium 2 and the angles  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$ .

**Answer:** Let  $\mathbf{E}_2 = \hat{\mathbf{x}} E_{2x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} E_{2y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} E_{2z}$ . From the boundary conditions, we have  $E_{2x} = E_{1x}$ ,  $E_{2y} = E_{1y}$ , and  $E_{2z} = (\epsilon_1 / \epsilon_2) E_{1z}$ . We conclude

$$\mathbf{E}_2 = \hat{\mathbf{x}} E_{1x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} E_{1y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\epsilon_1}{\epsilon_2} E_{1z}.$$



Ulaby Figure 4-19

9.26

## Boundary Conditions

Application of Boundary Conditions: Ulaby and Ravaioli Ex. 4-10

**Answer (continued):** The tangential and normal components of  $\mathbf{E}_1$  and  $\mathbf{E}_2$  are given by

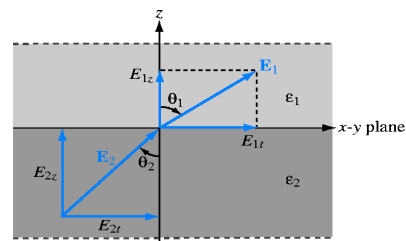
$$E_{1t} = (E_{1x}^2 + E_{1y}^2)^{1/2}, \quad E_{2t} = (E_{2x}^2 + E_{2y}^2)^{1/2}, \quad E_{1n} = E_{1z}, \quad E_{2n} = E_{2z}$$

from which we infer

$$\tan \theta_1 = \frac{E_{1t}}{E_{1n}} = \frac{(E_{1x}^2 + E_{1y}^2)^{1/2}}{E_{1z}}, \quad \tan \theta_2 = \frac{E_{2t}}{E_{2n}} = \frac{(E_{2x}^2 + E_{2y}^2)^{1/2}}{E_{2z}} = \frac{(E_{1x}^2 + E_{1y}^2)^{1/2}}{(\epsilon_1 / \epsilon_2) E_{1z}}$$

The angles are related by

$$\frac{\tan \theta_2}{\tan \theta_1} = \frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-19

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## Boundary Conditions

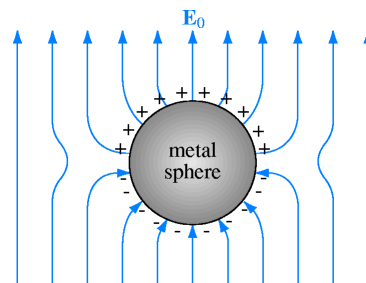
Dielectric-Conductor Interface:

If medium 2 is the conductor, then we have  $\mathbf{E}_2 = 0$  and  $\mathbf{D}_2 = 0$  everywhere — including the interface with medium 1

It follows that  $E_{1t} = D_{1t} = 0$  and  $\epsilon_1 E_{1n} = D_{1n} = \rho_s$

which can be combined to yield  $\mathbf{D}_1 = \epsilon_1 \mathbf{E}_1 = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \rho_s$  at the conductor surface

*Field lines are always normal to the surface of a conductor!*



Ulaby Figure 4-21

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## Capacitance

We are now ready to derive the capacitances that we used in the section on transmission lines

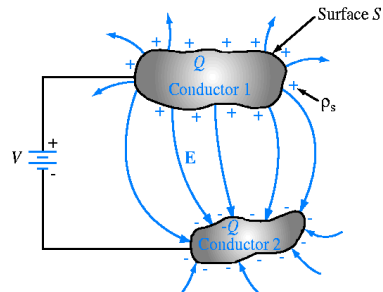
### Basic theory:

When a voltage is applied between two conductors, the conductors accumulate an equal and opposite charge that distributes itself so that the surface is at a single potential and there is no electric field to move charges on the surface.

**Definition of capacitance:**  $C = Q/V$

The electric field at the surface of a conductor is given by

$$E = E_n = \hat{n} \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho_s / \epsilon$$



Ulaby Figure 4-23

9.29

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## Capacitance

### Basic theory:

On the  $+V$  surface, we have

$$Q = \int_S \rho_s ds = \int_S \epsilon \hat{n} \cdot \mathbf{E} ds = \int_S \epsilon \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

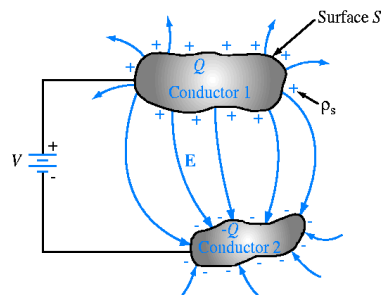
The voltage  $V$  is related to  $\mathbf{E}$  by

$$V = V_{12} = -\int_{P_1}^{P_2} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

where  $P_1$  is on the  $+V$  conductor and  $P_2$  is on the  $-V$  conductor

We conclude:

$$C = \frac{\int_S \epsilon \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s}}{-\int_l \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}}$$



Ulaby Figure 4-23

9.30

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## Capacitance

### Relation of Resistance and Capacitance:

When the material between the conductors has conductivity  $\sigma$ , we found earlier (slide 9.17)

$$R = \frac{-\int_l \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}}{\int_s \sigma \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s}}$$

When  $\sigma$  and  $\epsilon$  are uniform, it follows:  $RC = \epsilon / \sigma$ .

*Hence, if we know one, we can find the other!*

Example: A coaxial cable.

We showed earlier (slide 9.19):  $R = \ln(b/a) / 2\pi\sigma l$ . It follows that  $C = 2\pi\epsilon l / \ln(b/a)$ .

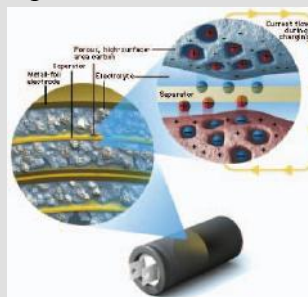
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## Tech Brief 8: Supercapacitors as Batteries

### Electrochemical double-layer capacitor (EDLC)

- Energy storage process a hybrid of capacitor and electrochemical voltaic battery
- Batteries store more energy than capacitors, but capacitors charge and discharge more rapidly.
- Energy density (measured in watt-hours per kg) lower for capacitors and supercapacitors compared to batteries
- Power density is opposite case



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## Tech Brief 8: Supercapacitors as Batteries

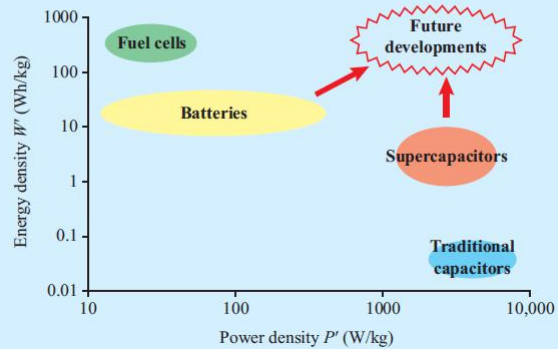


Figure TF8-2: Examples of systems that use supercapacitors. (Courtesy of Railway Gazette International; BMW; NASA; Applied Innovative Technologies.)

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### Energy Storage Devices

Feature	Traditional Capacitor	Supercapacitor	Battery
Energy density $W'$ (Wh/kg)	$\sim 10^{-2}$	1 to 10	5 to 150
Power density $P'$ (W/kg)	1,000 to 10,000	1,000 to 5,000	10 to 500
Charge and discharge rate $T$	$10^{-3}$ sec	$\sim 1$ sec to 1 min	$\sim 1$ to 5 hrs
Cycle life $N_c$	$\infty$	$\sim 10^6$	$\sim 10^3$



9.33

## Boundary Conditions

### Parallel Plate Capacitor: Ulaby and Ravaioli Example 4-11

**Question:** Find the capacitance of a parallel plate capacitor in which each plate has surface area  $A$  and they are separated by a distance  $d$ . Ignore the fringing fields that appear in any real capacitor.

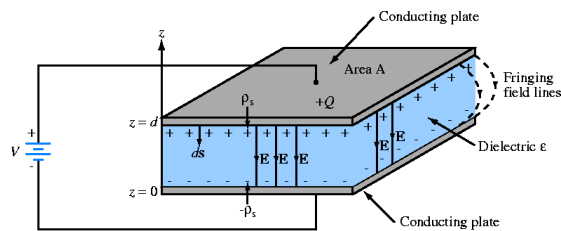
**Answer:** On the upper plate, we have  $\rho_s = Q/A$ . It follows that  $\mathbf{E} = -\hat{\mathbf{z}}E = -\hat{\mathbf{z}}(Q/\epsilon A)$ . We also have

$$V = -\int_0^d \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = Ed$$

We conclude:

$$C = \frac{Q}{V} = \frac{Q}{Ed} = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

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Ulaby Figure 4-24

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## Electrostatic Energy

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### Work performed in charging a capacitor:

The charges already on a capacitor repel new charges that are added. Work must be done to add the new charges. The voltage on the capacitor is related to its charge by the relation:  $V = q / C$ . The increment of work that is required to add an increment of charge is:  $dW_e = V dq = (q / C) dq$ . We conclude that

$$W_e = \int_0^Q \frac{q}{C} dq = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} = \frac{1}{2} CV^2 \quad (V = Q / C)$$

### Field Energy

The energy may be written in terms of the electric field as

$$W_e = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\epsilon A}{d} (Ed)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2 (Ad) = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2 v \quad (v = \text{volume})$$

## Electrostatic Energy

---

### Field Energy

We now define an electrostatic potential energy density as

$$w_e = \frac{W_e}{v} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2$$

The electrostatic potential energy generalizes to

$$W_e = \frac{1}{2} \int_v \epsilon E^2 dv$$

in any geometry. We can use this energy to do work on other charges.

*Where is the energy?*

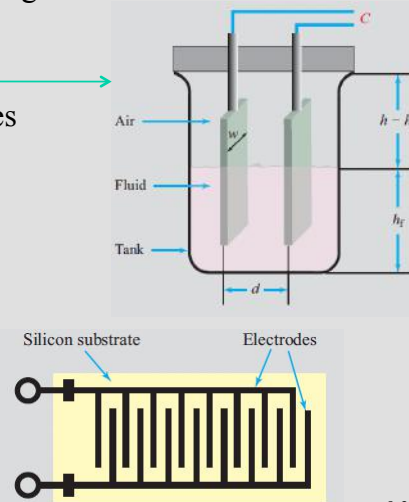
*Is it in the fields or in the charges?*

## Tech Brief 9: Capacitive Sensors

Capacitive sensors respond to changes in geometry (space between conductors) or dielectric effects (changes in the insulator between conductors)

- Field gauge
  - Sensitive to permittivity changes

- Humidity Sensor
  - Patterned to enhance  $A/d$  ratio
  - Relative humidity affects air permittivity

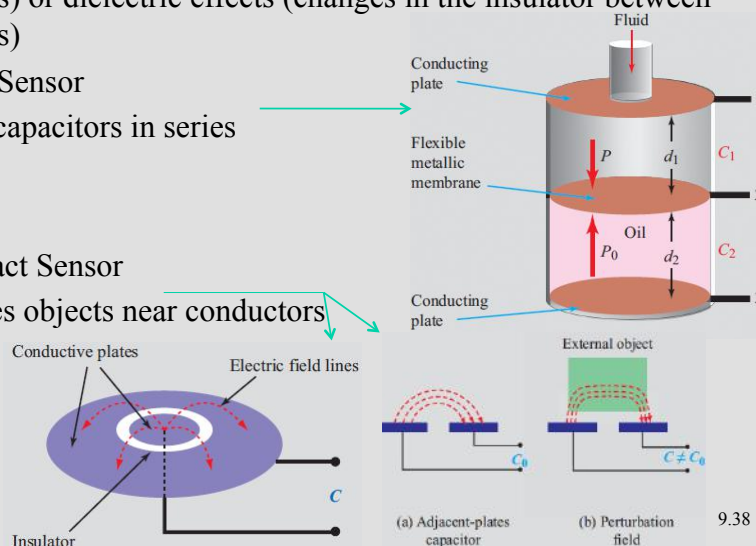


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## Tech Brief 9: Capacitive Sensors

Capacitive sensors respond to changes in geometry (space between conductors) or dielectric effects (changes in the insulator between conductors)

- Pressure Sensor
  - Two capacitors in series
- Noncontact Sensor
  - Senses objects near conductors

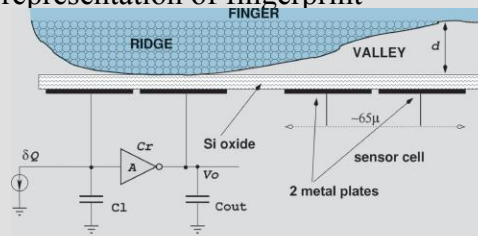


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## Tech Brief 9: Capacitive Sensors

Capacitive sensors respond to changes in geometry (space between conductors) or dielectric effects (changes in the insulator between conductors)

- Fingerprint Imager
  - Two dimensional array of capacitive sensors
  - Records electrical representation of fingerprint



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Figure TF9-7: Fingerprint representation. (Courtesy of Dr. M. Tartagni, University of Bologna, Italy.)

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## Assignment

**Reading:** Ulaby and Ravaioli, Chapter 5

**Problem Set 5:** Some notes.

- There are 8 problems. As always, YOU MUST SHOW YOUR WORK TO GET FULL CREDIT!
- Please watch significant digits.
- Get started early!

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