Engineering Physics Physics for Forestry

Electricity

- <u>Electrostatics</u> deals with the interaction of electric charges at rest and the electric fields associated with them

- Each atom consists of a positively charged nucleus containing protons and neutrons, surrounded by negatively charged electrons (neutrons are neutral)
- In an electrically neutral atom, there are just as many electrons (e-) outside the nucleus as there are protons in the nucleus (e+)
- The smallest charge (charge of electron or proton): the elementary charge $e = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19}$ C (SI unit of charge is coulomb C)
- Every electric charge is quantized all charges are integer multiples of the elementary charge

- \underline{lon} - an atom that has either lost one or more electrons, making it positively charged (+Q), or gained one or more electrons, making it negatively charged (-Q)

Coulomb's Law

The magnitude of force between two point charges is directly proportional to the product of charges Q and Q_0 , and is inversely proportional to the square of the distance d between them: $F_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon}\cdot\frac{QQ_0}{d^2}$, where

 ε – permittivity of medium: $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r$

 $\varepsilon_0 = 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12}$ F/m – the permittivity of vacuum

 ε_r – relative permittivity

- Between any charges acts force:
- consonant charges repel each other repulsive force
- discordant charges attract each other attractive force

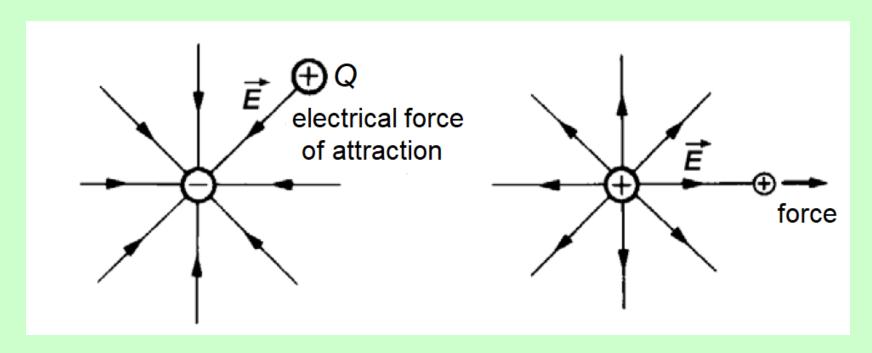
Electric field

- There is a space around the charge in which a force field an electric field can be detected
- The electric field around a charge at rest the electrostatic field
- A force is exerted on a charged object placed in an electric field
- The intensity of electric field \vec{E} around charge Q at any point at distance d:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{Q_0}$$
 – the force \vec{F} acting on the unit positive charge (1C)

- SI unit of intensity of electric field [E] = N/C or V/m (volt per metre)

- From Coulomb's law, the magnitude of the intensity of electric field E around a point charge Q at distance d: $E = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon} \cdot \frac{Q}{d^2}$
- The intensity of electric field \vec{E} a vector quantity, the direction of this vector at any point is the direction of the force that would act on a positive charge located at that point see Fig.



Electric potential

- The *electric potential* V_A at point A is defined as the work done by the electric field in moving a unit positive charge from this point to infinity:

$$V_A = \frac{W_{A\infty}}{Q} = \int_A^{\infty} \frac{\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}}{Q} = \int_A^{\infty} \frac{\vec{E} \cdot Q}{Q} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_A^{\infty} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

- The electric potential of a point charge at a distance d: $V(d) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon} \cdot \frac{Q}{d}$
- Electric potential: a scalar quantity, positive for positive charge and negative for negative charge

Voltage: difference in electric potentials between two points:

$$U_{AB} = V_A - V_B$$

- Unit of electric potential and potential difference – volt [V] = [U] = J/C = V

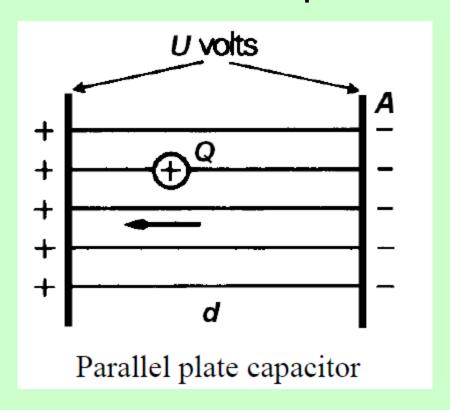
Conductors and insulators

- Insulators or non-conductors: materials such as glass, rubber, porcelain, etc. do not allow the free passage of charge
- Conductors: metals, carbon and some liquids charge can flow through them
- The best conductors: copper, silver and gold
- There is also a category "between" conductors and non-conductors: semiconductors

Capacitance and capacitors

- If a charge is given to a conductor, the electric potential of the conductor is raised
- The capacitance C of a conductor for storing charge: the ratio of its charge Q to the potential difference U between two conductors or between a conductor and ground: C = Q/U
- SI unit of capacitance: [C] = C/V = F (farad)
- A capacitor the device for storing charge
- The simplest example of a capacitor: parallel plate capacitor see Fig.
- It consists of two metal plates of area A, distance d separating them
- The space between the plates is filled by dielectric (insulating material) of permittivity ε

- The capacitance *C* of parallel plate capacitor: $C = \frac{\varepsilon A}{d}$
- The capacitance constant for a given capacitor
- The value of the capacitance depends on area of metal plates, on their relative position and on the material that separates them



Application

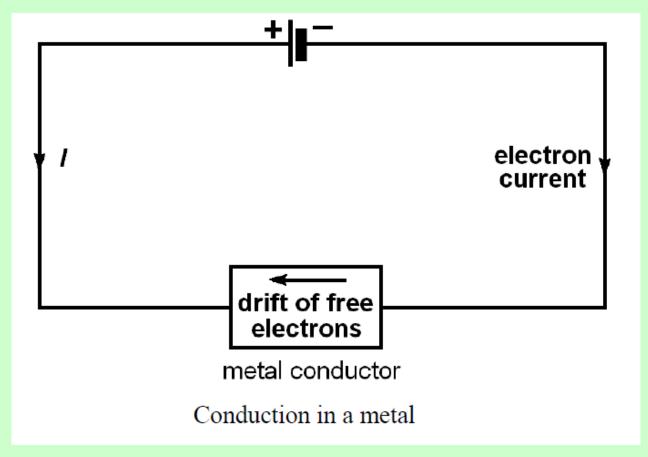
- A charged capacitor stores electrical energy
- The energy stored in the capacitor is equal to the work done in charging it
- The work required to add a small charge dQ from one plate to the other plate: dW = U dQ, where U is the potential difference across the plates
- Total work done: $W = \int_0^Q U \ dQ = \frac{1}{C} \int_0^Q Q \ dQ = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C}$
- Energy stored in capacitor: $E = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} = \frac{1}{2} C U^2 = \frac{1}{2} Q U$
- It gives for a parallel plate capacitor: $E=\frac{1}{2}CU^2=\frac{1}{2}\Big(\frac{\varepsilon\,A}{d}\Big)E^2d^2=\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon AE^2d$
- This storing a large amount of energy can be released during a very short time for example flashlight of camera

Example 8.4:

Two point electric charges act on each other in paraffin from a distance $d_1 = 2$ cm with a force of magnitude F. To act on each other in air with a force of the same magnitude F, they must be separated by $d_2 = 2.9$ cm. What is the relative permittivity of paraffin ε_{r1} ? The relative permittivity of air $\varepsilon_{r2} = 1$.

$$[\varepsilon_{\rm r1}=2.1]$$

- Electric current the ordered movement of electric charges
- An electric force is required to move the charge
- The force on the electrons in the conductor produces a current
- In a battery (potential difference source), one plate has a positive potential and the other plate has a negative potential
- The battery provides the *electromotive force* (e.m.f.) for electrons to flow through the metal conductor
- When the conductor is placed in a circuit containing the battery, the movement of free electrons is directed toward the positive plate
- The flow of electrons is directed from the negative to the positive plate
- The speed of the free electrons in random thermal motion becomes directional *drift speed* see Fig.



- Conventional electric current *I* – the direction of positive charge in an electric field; from a point of positive (higher) potential to a point of negative (lower) potential

- The electric current I- the amount of charge Q which passes through the cross-section of wire per unit of time t: $I=\frac{Q}{t}$
- Unit of current coulomb per second ampere, basic unit of SI system:[/] = C/s = A
- Current can flow in a circuit if there is a potential difference U the terminals of the potential source (battery) are connected by conductors (metallic wire) and form an electrical circuit
- The electric current in the metallic conductor is proportional to the potential difference applied to its ends $(I \sim U)$
- The ratio of the potential difference to the current = constant
- The value of this constant the resistance R of the conductor:
- R = U/I or U = RI Ohm's law; the SI unit of resistance: ohm $[R] = \Omega$

- The resistance R of a homogeneous isotropic metal wire is directly proportional to its length l and inversely proportional to the cross-sectional area A of the wire: $R = \frac{\rho \ l}{A}$,

- ρ resistivity the material constant of wire, $[\rho] = \Omega$.m
- The resistance of materials depends on the temperature
- The resistance of conductors directly proportional to the actual temperature: $\Delta R = R_0 \alpha \Delta t$, where
- $\Delta R = R R_0$, R the resistance for final temperature t,
- R_0 resistance for initial temperature t_0 ,
- $\Delta t = t t_0$ change of temperature,
- α the temperature coefficient of resistance [α] = K⁻¹

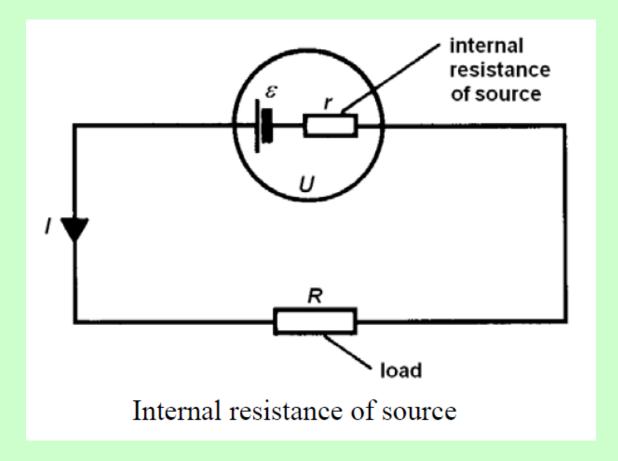
Example 8.19:

Calculate the length of a constantan wire (60 % Cu, 40 % Ni) of diameter d = 0.1 mm if its resistance is to be R = 1000 Ω . The resistivity of the constantan ρ = 0.49 $\mu\Omega$ ·m.

[l = 16.03 m]

Resistors

- All electric components in a circuit have a resistance
- The internal resistance *r* is inside the power source, for example a battery see Fig.
- If the circuit is disconnected, no current flows through it \Rightarrow the electromotive force ε (e.m.f.) is across the terminals of the power supply
- If the circuit is connected, the source energizes the circuit, current I flows in the circuit, and the potential loss $I \cdot r$ is converted to heat inside the source \Rightarrow the potential difference (voltage) U across the source terminals is less: $U = \varepsilon I \cdot r$

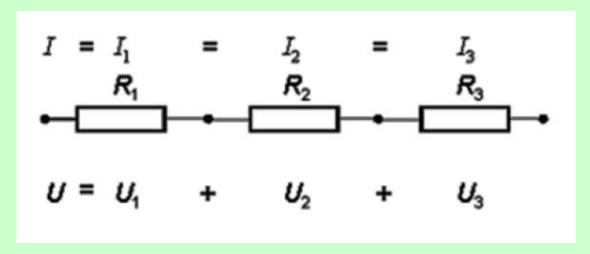


The current I which flows in a circuit is determined with a *total resistance* $R_{total} = R + r$ and with e.m.f. ε of the power supply:

$$I = \frac{\varepsilon}{R + r}$$

Combination of resistors

Resistors connected in series – see Fig.



- The current / must be the same throughout the circuit because it has only one path
- If R is the total resistance of the combination of resistors and U is the total potential difference across them, then U = IR, the total potential difference U is the sum of the potential differences across resistors R_1 , R_2 , R_3

- Thus:

$$U = U_1 + U_2 + U_3$$

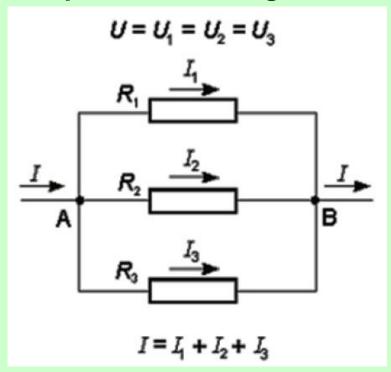
and $U = I R_1 + I R_2 + I R_3$
therefore $I R = I R_1 + I R_2 + I R_3$
and hence $R = R_1 + R_2 + R_3$

- The total resistance of the series connected resistors R is the sum of the individual resistances R_1 , R_2 , R_3

- The same result can be applied to *n* resistors in series:

$$R = \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i$$

Resistors connected in parallel – see Fig.



- The total current *I* in the main circuit is equal to the sum of the currents flowing in the parallel branches
- In a parallel circuit, the total current entering the junction must equal the total current leaving the junction

- The potential difference *U* across all parallel resistors is the same
- If R is total resistance of the combination and I is the total current, then:

$$I=\frac{U}{R}$$
,

but I is the sum of the currents flowing in resistors R_1 , R_2 , R_3

Thus
$$I = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$$
, therefore $\frac{U}{R} = \frac{U}{R_1} + \frac{U}{R_2} + \frac{U}{R_3}$ and hence $\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$

- The reciprocal value of the total resistance of the resistors connected in parallel is the sum of the reciprocal values of the individual resistors R_1 , R_2 , R_3
- The same result can be applied to *n* resistors in parallel:

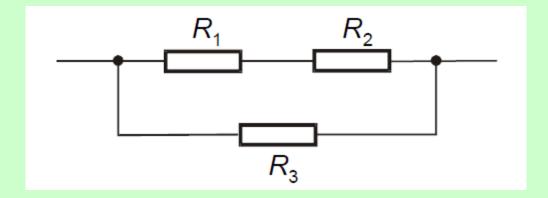
$$\frac{1}{R} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{R_i}$$

Example 8.22:

Three resistors with resistances R_1 = 100 Ω , R_2 = 200 Ω and R_3 = 400 Ω are connected according to the diagram.

Calculate their resulting resistence R.

$$[R = 171 \Omega]$$



Electric energy

- From the definition of potential difference (voltage) and electric current it follows that if a potential difference U is applied to the ends of a conductor and a charge Q passes through it, then the work W done in time t: W = U I t

Application

- The work of an electric current electrical energy is converted into other forms of energy
- In an electric heater it is converted into heat Q = UIt, in an electric bulb into light and heat, in an electric motor into mechanical energy of rotation, etc.

Electric power

- The definition of power P is the rate of work W done and time t taken
- Using the equations for electric energy and Ohm's law:

$$P = \frac{W}{t} = UI = RI^2 = \frac{U^2}{R}$$
, [P] = W (watt)

Application

From the definition of power $P = \frac{W}{t} \Rightarrow W = P t \Rightarrow$

- \Rightarrow unit of work (electric energy) [W] = [P] \cdot [t] = W \cdot s
- The commercial unit of electric energy kilowatt-hour (kWh):
- 1 kWh = 1000 . 3600 W.s (J) = 3.6 MJ
- Electricity is billed using the unit kilowatt-hour
- Total energy consumed (number of kWh) x price per unit = total electricity charge