Name	Symbol	Value
Speed of light in vacuum	с	$2.99792458 \times 10^8 \mathrm{m/s}$
Magnitude of charge of electron	е	$1.602176487(40) imes 10^{-19} \mathrm{C}$
Gravitational constant	G	$6.67428(67) \times 10^{-11} \mathrm{N \cdot m^2/kg^2}$
Planck's constant	h	$6.62606896(33) \times 10^{-34} \mathrm{J} \cdot \mathrm{s}^{-34}$
Boltzmann constant	k	$1.3806504(24) \times 10^{-23} \mathrm{J/K}$
Avogadro's number	N_A	$6.02214179(30) \times 10^{23}$ molecules/mol
Gas constant	R	8.314472(15) J/mol·K
Mass of electron	me	$9.10938215(45) \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$
Mass of proton	mp	$1.672621637(83) \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$
Mass of neutron	$m_{\rm n}^{\rm P}$	$1.674927211(84) \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$
Permeability of free space	μ_0	$4\pi \times 10^{-7} \mathrm{Wb/A} \cdot \mathrm{m}$
Permittivity of free space	$\epsilon_0 = 1/\mu_0 c^2$	$8.854187817 \times 10^{-12} \mathrm{C}^2/\mathrm{N} \cdot \mathrm{m}^2$
	$1/4\pi\epsilon_0$	$8.987551787 \times 10^9 \mathrm{N \cdot m^2/C^2}$

The physical world we see is electrical

MODERN ATOMIC PHYSICS (1900 – 1932): Rutherford, Bohr

- Charge is *quantized*: e = 1.6x10⁻¹⁹ coulombs (small).
 - Every charge is an exact multiple of +/- e. Milliken ~1900.
- Protons (+e) are in a small nucleus, $r \sim 10^{-15} \text{ m}$, $m_p = 1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$,
 - Ze = nuclear charge, Z = atomic number. There are neutrons too.
- Electrons (-e) are in stable orbital clouds with radius ~ 10⁻¹⁰ m.,
 - mass $m_e = 9.1 \times 10^{-31}$ kg. (small). Atoms are mostly space.
- A neutral atom has equal # of electrons and protons.
- An ion is charged + or and will attract opposite charges to become neutral



Charging a conducting sphere by induction



Atomic view of Conductors: charges free to move



- Regular lattice of fixed + ions
- conduction band free electrons wander when E field is applied
- Electrons and ions both free to move independently
- Normally random motion
- Electrons & ions move in opposite directions in an E field.

Insulators: Charges not free to move

Electrons are tightly bound to ions...

...BUT insulators can be induced to polarize by nearby charges



THE DIELECTRIC CONSTANT MEASURES MATERIALS' ABILITY TO POLARIZE

Semiconductors:

- Normally insulators, but can be weak conductors when voltage or doping is applied
- Bands are formed by overlapping atomic energy levels

ENERGY BAND GAP	conduction band	
	valence band	

Insulators and Conductors

- 2-2: Which of the following are good conductors of electricity?
- A. A plastic rod.
- B. A glass rod.
- C. A rock.
- D. A wooden stick.
- E. A metal rod.

2-3: Balls A, B, and D are charged plastic. Ball C is made of metal and has zero net charge on it. The forces between pairs are as shown in sketches 1,2, 3. In sketches 4 and 5 are the forces between balls attractive or repulsive?



Answer choices

- A. 4 is attractive, 5 is repulsive
- B. 4 is attractive, 5 is attractive
- C. 4 is repulsive, 5 is repulsive
- D. 4 is repulsive, 5 is attractive
- E. not enough information

Copyright R. Janow – Fall 2013

ELECTROSTATIC FORCE LAW (coulomb, 1785)



- Force is between pairs of point charges
- An electric field transmits the force (no contact, action at a distance)
- Symmetric in $q_1 \& q_2$ so $F_{12} = F_{21}$
- Inverse square law
- Electrical forces are strong compared to gravitation
- $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$ Why this value? Units

Unit of charge = Coulomb

 Coulomb = charge passing through a cross section of a wire carrying 1 Ampere of current in 1 second
Coulomb = 6.24x10¹⁸ electrons [= 1/e]

$$\mathsf{k} \equiv \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \approx 9 \times 10^9$$

Gravitation is weak

$$F_{12} = \frac{G m_1 m_2}{r_{12}^2}$$
$$F_{12} = \frac{G m_1 m_2}{r_{12}^2}$$
$$F_{12} = \frac{G m_1 m_2}{r_{12}^2}$$

chargeflow dq = idt ... or ... current $i = \frac{dq}{dt}$

Vector Form of Coulomb's Law



Superposition of forces & fields

The electrostatic force between a specific pair of point charges does not depend on interaction with other charges that may be nearby – there are no 3-body forces (same as gravitation)



Copyright R. Janow – Fall 2013

Calculate the Exact Location for the forces to balance

- Force on test charge Q is attractive toward both negative charges, hence they could cancel.
- By symmetry, position for +Q in equilibrium is along yaxis
- Coordinate system: call the total distance *L* and call y the position of charge +Q from charge –q.
- Net force is sum of the two force vectors, and has to be zero, so

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}_{\text{from2q}} + \mathbf{F}_{\text{fromq}} = \mathbf{k} \frac{2\mathbf{q}\mathbf{Q}}{(\mathbf{L} - \mathbf{y})^2} - \mathbf{k} \frac{\mathbf{q}\mathbf{Q}}{\mathbf{y}^2} = \mathbf{0}$$

 k, q, and Q all cancel due to zero on the right, so our answer does not depend on knowing the + charge value. We end up with

$$\frac{2}{\left(L-y\right)^2} = \frac{1}{y^2}$$

$$\frac{(L-y)^2}{y^2} = 2 \implies \frac{L-y}{y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

• Solving for y,

 $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}$

-2q -2q +Q +Q y y +Q

Copyright R. Janow – Fall 2013

How do we know that electrostatic force - not gravitational force - holds atoms & molecules together?

Example: Find the ratio of those forces in Hydrogen

- 1 proton in nucleus, neutral Hydrogen atom has 1 electron
- Both have charge $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} C$.
- $m_e = electron mass = 9.1 \times 10^{-31} kg.$
- m_p = proton mass = 1833 m_e
- $a_0 = radius$ of electron orbit = 10^{-8} cm = 10^{-10} m.

$$F_{elec} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{a_0^2} \qquad F_{grav} = G \frac{m_e m_p}{a_0^2}$$
$$\frac{F_{elec}}{F_{grav}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 G} \frac{a_0^2}{a_0^2} \frac{e^2}{1833 m_e^2} = \frac{9 \times 10^9}{6.67 \times 10^{-11}} \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-19})^2}{1833 (9.11 \times 10^{-31})^2}$$
$$\therefore \frac{F_{elec}}{F_{grav}} = 3.1 \times 10^{39}$$

- Electrostatics dominates atomic structure by a factor of ~ 10³⁹
- So why is gravitation important at all? Matter is normally Neutral!
- Why don't atomic nuclei with several protons break apart?

Example: Electron and two protons along a line (1 D)



Show forces on each of the objects in free body diagrams for # 1, 2, & 3



- There are 3 action-reaction pairs of forces
- Which forces are attractive/repulsive?
- Could net force on any individual charge be zero above?
- What if r₁₂ = r₂₃?



Solution:

$$\left|\vec{\mathsf{F}}_{12}\right| = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\left|q_1\right| \times \left|q_2\right|}{\mathsf{R}^2} = 9 \times 10^9 \times \frac{1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 3.2 \times 10^{-19}}{0.02^2}$$
$$\left|\vec{\mathsf{F}}_{12}\right| = 1.15 \times 10^{-24} \text{ N} \qquad \text{small!}$$

In vector notation:

$$\vec{F}_{12} = -1.15 \times 10^{-24} \hat{i} N$$
 $\vec{F}_{21} = +1.15 \times 10^{-24} \hat{i} N$

Copyright R. Janow – Fall 2013

EXAMPLE continued: add a 3rd charge on x-axis



What changes?

- Superposition implies: F₁₂ & F₂₁ not affected...but...
- \cdot Four new forces appear with only two distinct new magnitudes F_{13} and F_{23} FBDs below.



EXAMPLE continued: calculate magnitudes

Find net forces on each of the three charges by applying superposition

On 1:
$$\vec{F}_{net,1} = \vec{F}_{12} + \vec{F}_{13} = -1.15 \times 10^{-24} \hat{i} + 2.05 \times 10^{-24} \hat{i}$$
 $\vec{F}_{net,1} = 9.0 \times 10^{-25} \hat{i} N.$

On 2:
$$\vec{F}_{net,2} = \vec{F}_{23} + \vec{F}_{21} = -3.69 \times 10^{-23} \hat{i} + 1.15 \times 10^{-24} \hat{i}$$

$$\vec{F}_{net,2} = -3.58 \times 10^{-23} \hat{i} N.$$

On 3:
$$\vec{F}_{net,3} = \vec{F}_{31} + \vec{F}_{32} = -2.05 \times 10^{-24} \hat{i} + 3.69 \times 10^{-23} \hat{i}$$

$$\vec{F}_{net,3} = -3.49 \times 10^{-23} \hat{i} N.$$

Copyright R. Janow – Fall 2013

Now move charge off-axis – Now 2 dimensional EX 22-1-C FINS FINET, Z 3R 70 94 F14 \$ 750° Fr21 = K 992 = 1.15× 1024N $\vec{F}_{D} = -1.15 \times 10^{-29 N}$ unchanged $\begin{aligned} |\vec{F}_{r4}| &= 9 \times 10^{9} \cdot 9 \cdot 9 \cdot 9 = 9 \times 10^{9} \times 1.6 \times 10^{19} (32 \times 10^{19})^{19} \\ (375)^{2} (37$ As before: $q_1 = +e = +1.6 \times 10^{-19} C.$ $q_2 = +2e = +3.2 \times 10^{-19} C.$ $\vec{F}_{14} = 2.05 \times 10^{-24} \hat{F}$ $\vec{F} = corr co^{2} \hat{c}^{2} + sin co^{2} \hat{j}^{1}$ R = 0.02 mNow: q_3 gone $q_4 = -2e = -3.2 \times 10^{-19} C.$ $\vec{F}_{net,1} = \vec{F}_{12} + \vec{F}_{14} \left(\underbrace{\text{SUPPRITION}}_{29} \right) \\ = \hat{c} \left(-1.15 \times 10^{29} + 205 \times 10^{-29} \pm 2 \right)$ $\cos(60^{\circ}) = .5$ $sin(60^{\circ}) = .866$ + j (2.05 × 10 × .806 Frier, = 1:25×10-250 + 1.78×10-24 1

Example:

- Two identical conducting spheres. Radii small compared to a.
- Initially: Sphere A has charge +Q, sphere B is neutral
- Connect them by a wire. What happens and why?

Charge redistributes until???



Are the final charges equal if the spheres are not identical?

• Spheres repel each other. How big is the force? We applied shell theorem outside $(0/2)^2$

• Do the spheres approximate point charges? What about polarization?

$$F_{AB} = K \frac{(Q/2)^2}{a^2} = \frac{1}{16\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{Q}{a}\right)^2$$

Another Example: Find the final charges after the spheres below touch?



What determines how much charge ends up on each? What force does a spherical charge distribution (fixed) exert on a point charge nearby?



Shell Theorem (Similar to gravitational Shell Theorem)

- Holds for spherical symmetry only: shell or solid sphere
- Shell has radius R, total charge Q
- \cdot Uniform surface charge density σ not free to move

 $\sigma \equiv Q/A = Q/4\pi R^2$ dimensions are Coulombs/m²

Outside a shell, r > R: A uniform shell of charge attracts or repels a charged particle q outside it as if all the shell's charge is concentrated as a point charge at the center of the sphere.

Inside a shell, r < R: A charged particle q located inside a uniform hollow shell of charge feels zero net electrostatic force from the shell

Why does the shell theorem work? spherical symmetry \rightarrow cancellations

Charge on a spherical conductor – charge free to move

- Net charge Q on a conducting (metal) spherical shell will spread out everywhere over the surface.
- Tiny free charges inside the conductor push on the others and move as far apart as they can go. When do they stop moving?
- If no other charges are nearby ("isolated" system)
- Charges spread themselves out uniformly because of symmetry
- Sphere acts as if all of it's charge is concentrated at the center (for points outside the sphere) as in the Shell Theorem.
- Bring test charge q<<Q near the sphere



The test charge induces polarization charge on the sphere

- Charge distribution will NOT be uniform any more
- Extra surface charge is induced on the near and far surfaces of the sphere
- The net force will be more attractive than for point charges

The Shell Theorem works approximately for conductors if the test charge induces very little polarization; e.g., if $q \ll Q$ and/or $d \gg R$.

CHAPTER 21 SUMMARY

Electric charge, conductors, and insulators: The fundamental quantity in electrostatics is electric charge. There are two kinds of charge, positive and negative. Charges of the same sign repel each other; charges of opposite sign attract. Charge is conserved; the total charge in an isolated system is constant.

All ordinary matter is made of protons, neutrons, and electrons. The positive protons and electrically neutral neutrons in the nucleus of an atom are bound together by the nuclear force; the negative electrons surround the nucleus at distances much greater than the nuclear size. Electric interactions are chiefly responsible for the structure of atoms, molecules, and solids.

Conductors are materials in which charge moves easily; in insulators, charge does not move easily. Most metals are good conductors; most nonmetals are insulators.



When two or more charges each exert a force on a charge, the total force on that charge is the vector sum of the forces exerted by the individual charges. (See Examples 21.3 and 21.4.)

Electric field: Electric field \vec{E} , a vector quantity, is the force per unit charge exerted on a test charge at any point. The electric field produced by a point charge is directed radially away from or toward the charge. (See Examples 21.5-21.7.)

$$\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{|q_1q_2|}{r^2}$$
(21.2)

$$\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} = 8.988 \times 10^9 \,\mathrm{N}\cdot\mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{C}^2$$

F =

 $\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}_0}{q_0}$

 $\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{r}$



9

Superposition of electric fields: The electric field \vec{E} of any combination of charges is the vector sum of the fields caused by the individual charges. To calculate the electric field caused by a continuous distribution of charge, divide the distribution into small elements, calculate the field caused by each element, and then carry out the vector sum, usually by integrating. Charge distributions are described by linear charge density λ , surface charge density σ , and volume charge density ρ . (See Examples 21.8-21.12.)

Electric field lines: Field lines provide a graphical representation of electric fields. At any point on a field line, the tangent to the line is in the direction of \vec{E} at that point. The number of lines per unit area (perpendicular to their direction) is proportional to the magnitude of \vec{E} at the point.

Electric dipoles: An electric dipole is a pair of electric charges of equal magnitude q but opposite sign, separated by a distance d. The electric dipole moment \vec{p} has magnitude p = qd. The direction of \vec{p} is from negative toward positive charge. An electric dipole in an electric field \vec{E} experiences a torque $\vec{\tau}$ equal to the vector product of \vec{p} and \vec{E} . The magnitude of the torque depends on the angle ϕ between \vec{p} and \vec{E} . The potential energy U for an electric dipole in an electric field also depends on the relative orientation of \vec{p} and \vec{E} . (See Examples 21.13 and 21.14.)

 $\tau = pE \sin \phi$ $\vec{\tau} = \vec{p} \times \vec{E}$

 $U = -\vec{p} \cdot \vec{E}$



(21.15)

(21.16)

(21.18)



