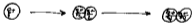


tatic or stationary electrical charges;  
we will see later that moving charges  
produce magnetic forces.)

Coulomb in 1784 developed a means  
of separating charge into known packages.  
No basic unit of charge, but by  
linking identical objects (one charged  
one not) into contact he reasoned that  
the charge must be equally distributed  
between the two objects. He could then  
divvy up charges into relatively known  
quantities.

e.g. Charge up body w/ some charge "q"



can get  $\frac{q}{2}$ ,  $\frac{q}{4}$  ...

Using a torsion balance (similar to that  
employed by Cavendish to determine grav.  
force)

Coulomb determined that:

Force depends on product of charges  
involved



Force depends on the product of the charges involved

$$F \propto q_1 \times q_2$$

Force depends upon inverse square of separation of charges

$$F \propto \frac{1}{r^2}$$

Then there must be some constant of proportionality to make units come out right

$$F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

Hopefully this looks a little familiar  
Remember

$$F_g = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$$

There are some very important similarities and some very important differences.



$$F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

Properties of Coulomb force

1) Directed along line between  $q_1$  &  $q_2$ ;  
 $F$  or  $a$  is a vector

2) Repulsive if  $q_1$  &  $q_2$  have the same sign  
( $F$  or  $a$  positive)

3) Attractive if  $q_1$  &  $q_2$  have opposite sign  
( $F$  or  $a$  negative)

In SI system

length = meter (m)

mass = kilogram (kg)

time = second (s)

force = Newton ( $N = \text{kg m s}^{-2}$ )

charge = Coulomb (C) by definition

then the force constant

$$k = 8.98755 \text{ N m}^2 \text{ C}^{-2} = 10^{-7} \text{ C}^2$$

we usually write this in a different form

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}^2}$$

where  $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} = k$

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$$

turns out this is more natural in some situations

# ELECTROSCOPE

## Comparison of gravitational force

mass  $\Rightarrow$  charge (but in electricity have  
two forms of charge:  
attraction/repulsion;  
grav only attraction)

Both have inverse square law

grav force vs. electrical force; compare  
grav force of a hydrogen atom vs  
electrical force

H = proton (carrier of positive  
charge) =  $1^+$  =  $+1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{C}$

mass =  $1 \text{ amu} = 1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

electron (carrier of negative  
charge) =  $1^-$  =  $-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{C}$

mass =  $1/1836 \text{ amu} = 9.10 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$


$$F_e = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{pe}^2}$$

$$F_g = G \frac{m_e m_p}{r_{pe}^2}$$

In a minute we'll consider the size of the hydrogen atom but for now

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{F_e}{F_g} &= \frac{k q_p q_e}{r^2} / \frac{G m_e m_p}{5r^2} \\ &= \frac{k q_p q_e}{G m_e m_p} \\ &= \frac{9 \times 10^9 \text{ N m}^2 \text{ C}^{-2} \cdot 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C} \cdot 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}}{6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{ N m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-2} \cdot 1.7 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} \cdot 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}} \\ &= 2.3 \times 10^{39} \end{aligned}$$

Electrical forces are nearly  $10^{40}$  times stronger than gravitational forces. Then why does grav. force seem to dominate daily life. Because charges cancel out  $\rightarrow +, -$  electrical charge but gravitational "charge" = mass has only one sign

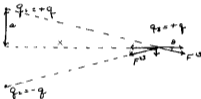
# Coulomb's Law

$$F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}^2}$$

where  $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$  "permittivity of free space"

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}^2}$$

Consider 3 charges



Find force on  $q_3$

$$F_{13} = k \frac{q_1 q_3}{r^2} = k \frac{q^2}{a^2 + x^2}$$

$$F_x = k \frac{q^2}{a^2 + x^2} \cos \theta \quad F_y = -k \frac{q^2}{a^2 + x^2} \sin \theta$$

$$\text{where } \cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{a}{r} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}$$

$$F^{13} = \frac{k q_1 q_2}{r^2} = -k \frac{q^2}{a^2 + x^2}$$

$$F_x^{13} = -\frac{k q^2}{a^2 + x^2} \cos \theta \quad F_y^{13} = -\frac{k q^2}{a^2 + x^2} \sin \theta$$

$$F_x = F_x^{13} + F_x^{23} = 0$$

$$F_y = F_y^{13} + F_y^{23} = -2k \frac{q^2}{a^2 + x^2} \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}$$

$$x \gg a \quad x^2 + a^2 \approx x^2$$

$$F_y = -\frac{2k a q^2}{x^3} \quad \text{Force falls off as } \frac{1}{\text{dist}^3}$$

Atom charge dist'n is called an electric dipole. Because most bodies are electrically neutral have equal # + & - charges, we can often treat electromagnetic interactions of material as interaction of large number of +/- dipoles.





## ELECTRIC FIELD



Suppose we place a charged body at point A and a charge  $q$  at point B the charge at B feels a force  $F$ . Just as we don't really know why matter attracts other matter via gravity, neither do we know the why or the details of the force between charged particles. We have, however, the experimental fact that there are forces between charged bodies and that they obey Coulomb's law

$$F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}^2}$$

What if we remove the charge at B. It is useful to think of the space in the vicinity of A as influenced by the presence of the electrical charge. No lines exist

FIG. 19.8 Suppose that the force between the sea and the earth was  $1.0 \times 10^{25}$  newtons. Assume that the charges on the sea and the earth are equal in magnitude but opposite in sign. Calculate this charge and compare it with a charge of an electron. [Ans.:  $q = 2.98 \times 10^{12}$  C  $\approx 1.88 \times 10^{31}$  e.]

### 19.4. The Concept of Electric Field

Newton's universal gravitation law and Coulomb's law enable us to calculate  $\mathbf{F}$  magnitudes as well as the directions of the gravitational and electrical forces, respectively. These laws are limited to describing only interactions of *two* point charges (or masses). On the contrary, the field concept is a powerful *aid* to handle a distributed and continuous charge and force interactions. But we see still no answer to the following most fundamental and basic questions: (a) what are the origins of these forces? (b) how are the forces transmitted from one mass to another or from one charge to another?

The answer to (a) is unknown; the existence of forces is accepted *de facto*. As ever since the formulation of the force laws, there have been theories proposed to explain (b). Most scientific thought has been divided along two axes: (1) the action-at-a-distance effect, and (2) the field effect or field theory. Here following we limit ourselves to the discussion of Coulomb or electrical force, but the same remarks apply equally to gravitational forces.

Action-at-a-distance means that the force between two charged bodies is conveyed directly and instantaneously (with no time delay) between the two sites. Accordingly, the force between two charges is considered to be a *one-step* process. Even though it is an experimental fact that the forces can be conveyed across empty space, the idea of action-at-a-distance has never been a *convincing* thought to scientists. There must be some agent or intermediate that transmits force, or charge or force, from one point to another.

The concept of a field theory was introduced by Michael Faraday (1791-1867) and it is becoming more and more useful and fundamental. According to the *field* concept, the interaction between two charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  separated by a vector  $\mathbf{r}$  is explained in the following manner. The charge  $q_1$  produces an electric field in the space surrounding it. This field exists whether there are *any* charges present in the space or not. But the presence of this field causes interaction with another charge  $q_2$  if brought into the field. The field of charge interacts with the test charge  $q_2$  to produce an electrical force. Thus, the interaction between  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  is a *two-step* process: (1) the charge  $q_1$  produces a field, and (2) the field interacts with charge  $q_2$  to produce a force  $\mathbf{F}$  on  $q_2$ . Two diagrams illustrated in Figure 19.8. The two processes are reversible; if we apply charge  $q_2$  may produce a field, and if a charge  $q_1$  is brought in the field of  $q_2$  at a distance of  $r$ , it feels a force  $-\mathbf{F}$ .

We know from Coulomb's law that the magnitude of the force  $F$  depends on the separating distance  $r$  between the two charges. In terms of the field concept, we say that the strength of the field is very high near charge  $q_1$  and weakens as  $1/r^2$ . We may define the electric field strength or electric field intensity  $\mathbf{E}$  due to a charge  $q$  at a distance  $r$  from it to be

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{\mathbf{F}}{q_2} \quad (19.7)$$



FIGURE 19.8. (a) Interaction of the electric field with the charge  $q_2$ . (b) Interaction of the field with the charge  $q_1$ .

at B if there is no charge present; nevertheless we say that there is an ELECTRIC FIELD present due to the charges at A. If a "test charge" is placed at B it will feel a force; we may describe this force as due to the electric field at B. The electric field is defined as the force felt by the test charge divided by the amount of the test charge

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

Units  
 $\text{N C}^{-1}$

In this view the electric field is a property of space in the neighborhood of A. Any charge placed in the field will feel a force  $\vec{F} = q \cdot \vec{E}$

(N.B. If "+" charge  $\vec{F}$  same direction as  $\vec{E}$   
 If "-" charge  $\vec{F}$  opposite direction



Now what we want in discussing the electric field are the characteristics of the space purely due to the charge at A. Obviously if we place significant charge at B we will alter the ~~field~~ distribution of charge on body A and hence the electric field, thus what we really want is

$$\vec{E} = \lim_{q' \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{F}}{q'}$$

### $\vec{E}$ FIELD OF A POINT CHARGE

If we have a point charge  $q$  & test charge  $q'$ , by Coulomb's law

$$F = k \frac{q q'}{r^2} \text{ at the}$$

point of the test charge. Then the electric field at that point

$$E = \frac{F}{q'} = k \frac{q}{r^2}$$

The electric field vector is along the radius vector connecting the point charge and the point in question.



$\vec{E}$  away from  $q$   
if  $q$  positive  
 $\vec{E}$  toward  $q$   
if  $q$  negative

There is convenient notation for specifying this direction

along  $\vec{r}$   $\hat{r} = \text{unit vector (magnitude = 1)}$   
 $\hat{r} = \frac{\vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|} \Rightarrow |\hat{r}| = \frac{|\vec{r}|}{|\vec{r}|} = 1$

then

$$\vec{E} = k \frac{q \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

NB

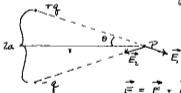
- 1)  $|\vec{E}| = \frac{kq}{r^2}$
- 2)  $q$  positive  $\vec{E}$  along  $\hat{r}$
- 3)  $q$  negative  $\vec{E}$  opposite  $\hat{r}$



If we have a number of point charges then the electric field at any point is the vector sum of the fields due to each of the individual charges (just as the force would be if we looked at the net  $\vec{F}$  on a test charge at that point)

$$\vec{E} = \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 + \vec{E}_3 + \dots = k \sum_i \frac{q_i \vec{r}_i}{r_i^2}$$

Recall an dipole (now w/o third "test charge")



$$\vec{E} = \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2$$

$$\vec{E}_1 = (E_{1x}, E_{1y})$$

$$\vec{E}_2 = (E_{2x}, E_{2y})$$

$$\vec{E}_1 = \frac{kq}{r_1^2} \hat{r}_1 = \frac{kq}{a^2 + x^2} \hat{r}_1 \quad E_2 = -\frac{kq}{a^2 + x^2} \hat{r}_2$$

$$E_{1x} = E_1 \cos \theta \quad \text{where } \cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+a^2}}$$

$$E_{1y} = E_1 \sin \theta \quad \text{where } \sin \theta = \frac{a}{r} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{x^2+a^2}}$$

$$E_{1x} = \frac{kq x}{(x^2+a^2)^{3/2}} \quad \text{Similarly } E_{2y} = -\frac{kq x}{(x^2+a^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$E_{1y} = \frac{kq a}{(x^2+a^2)^{3/2}} \quad E_{2y} = \frac{kq a}{(x^2+a^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$\vec{E} = \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 = (E_x, E_y)$$

$$E_x = E_{1x} + E_{2x} = 0$$

$$E_y = E_{1y} + E_{2y} = \frac{2kq a}{(x^2+a^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$x \gg a$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{kq a}{(x^2+a^2)^{3/2}} \hat{r}_y \approx \frac{kq a}{x^3} \hat{r}_y$$

of plane chg  $\neq 3$   
 $q_3 = +q$

$$\vec{F} = q_3 \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{F} = \frac{kq^2 a}{x^3} \hat{r}_y$$

Same as from Coulomb  
 law