EA Notes (Scen 101), Tillery

Chapter 6

Electricity (& Magnetism)

Introduction

- First five chapters were "Newtonian Physics", mechanical explanations based on Newton's Laws applied to motion of particles.
- In the early 1800's, science tried to extend mechanical models to electricity, magnetism, and light, but were unsuccessful.
- Now we successfully use <u>Field Models</u>, which examine how objects modify the space around them.
- This chapter discusses two fields: <u>Electric</u> and <u>Magnetic</u>.
- Electricity & Magnetism are <u>strongly interrelated</u>.

(Electric) Charge

Electric Charge Discovery (Ben Franklin & Volta)

- <u>Basic property</u> related to ability to interact with an <u>Electric Force</u>.
- {DEMO} Early (1750–70) experiments proved: two kinds of charge.
- Like charges repel, opposites attract. (Ben Franklin & Volta)
- To help calculations, charges are named **positive** and **negative**.
 - The assignment of which acted positive and which acted negative was <u>unfortunately made before we knew the **TRUE origin** of these <u>charges</u>.</u>

Electron Theory of Charge (1890s)

Electric Charges (& Forces)

- ALL Charges come from the parts of atoms called:
 <u>Protons</u> (+) and <u>Electrons</u>. (-) (See Fig.6.2.)
 - Atoms also have neutral **<u>Neutrons</u>**.
 - <u>Proton & Electron Charges</u> have the **same magnitude** (later slide), called the <u>Basic Charge</u>.

• <u>Net Charge</u> = (Num. of Protons – Num. of Electrons) × Basic Charge.

- Most objects have the same number of each, and are uncharged. (They show NO **Electric** attraction.)
- In drawings we use a few + or signs to indicate charge on object.
- <u>Protons stay put, electrons move around</u>.
 - Most atoms are electrically neutral. But we define:
 - **<u>Positive Ion</u>**: Somehow **lost** electron(s).
 - **<u>Negative Ion</u>**: Somehow **gained** electron(s).

(See Fig.6.3, p.153)

Electrostatic Charge

- Recall that most objects are initially **uncharged** (<u>have **NO** net</u> <u>charge</u>).
- However, <u>Electrons</u> can be moved from one <u>object</u> to <u>another</u>.
 - (Franklin's early theory said both charges moved.)
- The **RESULT** is an "electrostatic NET charge" that the object keeps.
- Methods of Charging:
 - <u>Friction</u>:
 - Rubbing one object over another Adds or Removes Electrons.
 - <u>Contact</u>: { BOARD }
 - Touching an already **charged** object to another.
 - <u>Induction</u>: { BOARD }
 - Occurs without touching.
 - Nearby charged object separates **+ &** charges in other object.
 - Not really a transfer of charges.
 - Process is **reversible**.

Electrical Conductors and Insulators

• <u>**Conductor**</u>: Charge <u>flows through</u> it **VERY** easily. Metals, moisture, <u>human bodies</u>, and a few others.

In Conductors, the ELECTRONS ARE FREE TO MOVE.

- **Insulator**: All other materials **resist** the flow of charge.
- **<u>Grounding</u>**: {BOARD} Placing an object in electrical contact with the Earth. Grounded objects lose charge to the Earth.

Measuring Electrical Charges

- <u>Symbol for Charge</u>: q <u>Unit</u>: Coulomb [C].
- Coulomb is very large. Typical charge on object is about $10^{-6} C [\mu C]$.
- <u>Experimentally Discovered Fact</u>: {ABOUT 1910} <u>Objects do not charge in a continuous fashion</u> {DRAW}. Therefore:
- Charged objects **MUST** have **INTEGER multiples** of some basic charge.
- <u>Basic Charge</u>: Proton = $+1.60 \times 10^{-19}$ C; Electron = -1.60×10^{-19} C
- <u>(Net) Charge on obj.</u> = (Num. of Prot Num. of Elect) × Basic Charge.

Measuring Electrical Forces

• <u>Coulomb's Law</u>: F_e

$$=\frac{\mathbf{k}\mathbf{q}_{1}\mathbf{q}_{2}}{\mathbf{d}^{2}}$$

- Where \mathbf{q}_1 , \mathbf{q}_2 are charges on objects 1 and 2, separated a distance \mathbf{d} , and $\mathbf{k} = 9.00 \times 10^9 \,\mathrm{N} \cdot \mathrm{m}^2 / \mathrm{C}^2$.
- <u>Action at a distance force</u>, like gravitational force.
- There are similarities between electric and gravitational forces.
- But there are also differences. The biggest are:
 - Electric Forces can be much, much stronger.
 - Electric Forces can be attractive or repulsive.

Force Fields

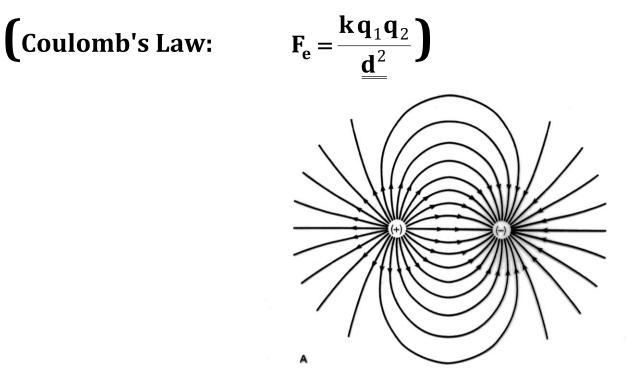
- **<u>Contact forces</u>** are applied directly by obvious physical links,
- Action at a distance forces seem to appear mysteriously.
 - Physicists found that a new idea, called the (Force) <u>Field Model</u>, helped them draw, and <u>make calculations on</u>, these kinds of forces.
 - First success was with the <u>Electric Force</u>, and later extended to Magnetic (and Gravitational) Forces.
 - We <u>assume</u> that electrically <u>charged objects</u> somehow modify the space around them to create an <u>electric (force) field</u>.
 - Other <u>charged objects</u> brought near the original objects, react to this field.

Drawing an Electric Field:

- **DEMO** Start with 1 positive (+) charge:
 - We draw the field as lines with arrows.
 - Arrows show the direction a small positive <u>test</u> charge moves in the field created around the original charge.

Drawing an Electric Field: (Continued)

- **DEMO** Add 1 negative (-) charge: **Fig.6.7.A, p.157**.
 - The field lines start and/or end on the charges.
 - Arrows point from **plus** to **minus** everywhere.
 - Field lines never cross since at each point in the field, the test charge can move in only one direction.
 - Closer line spacing represents stronger electric forces.



Electric Potential

- {DRAW} To move charged object against (electric) force, you do work.
- <u>Work done</u> (W) on charge = <u>increase in Electric Potential Energy</u>.
- A more useful concept is **work done per unit charge**. This is the **Electric Potential**, which depends only on the Electric Field.
- <u>Electric Potential</u> is often also called the <u>potential difference</u> **PD** (between two points in field).
- <u>Potential Diff. Def</u>: $PD = \frac{W}{q}$ [volts, V] $\left\{ 1 V = 1 \frac{J}{C} \right\}$
 - We'll use this concept in describing how charges flow around circuits.

Electric Current

• Now we'll talk about Moving Charges, or **(Electric) Currents**.

• Current Definition:
$$I = \frac{q}{t}$$
 [Ampere, A] $\left\{ 1A = 1\frac{C}{s} \right\}$

• Do <u>Ex. B-5, p.190</u>.

SHOULD READ: What is the magnitude of the least possible **NON-ZERO** current that could flow in <u>ONE SECOND</u>.

The Electric Circuit

- A **conducting path** through which current can flow.
- The path is **closed** ("circuit" means "closed path").
- Circuits <u>must contain</u>:
 - An **Energy source** to give electrons <u>higher Electric Potential</u>. **PD [V]**
 - **<u>Voltage Source</u>**: common name for energy source.
 - An **Energy sink** where electrons <u>do work</u> and thus <u>lose energy</u>.
 - **<u>Voltage Drop</u>**: common name for energy sink.
- In a circuit: <u>Experiments show</u>: $I \propto PD$.
- **<u>Voltage</u>** *V* : COMMON name for potential difference <u>in circuits</u>.
- \therefore <u>In a circuit</u>: $I \propto V$.

The Nature of Current

- {DRAW conductor} With no voltage, the free electrons in a conductor constantly move in a **random** fashion. The **NET MOTION is ZERO**.
- <u>Voltage sources have + and CHARGED terminals</u>.
 - The charges create an electric field in the conductor.
 - (Experiments show the Field is not set up instantly along the whole conductor. It "travels" at about the speed of light, ≈ 1 ft/ns.)
 - This Field adds a **SLOW** "<u>drift velocity</u>" towards the + terminal.
- <u>Electron Current</u>: is the direction electrons actually drift.
 (From to +.)
- <u>Conventional Current</u>: Ben Franklin assumed that both positive and negative charges flow. The "conventional" current direction is the direction positive charges would drift. (From + to -.)
- Either current can be used in problems. <u>Most</u> use Conventional.

Two Types of Current

- **Direct Current ("dc"):** {DRAW}
 - The + and terminals of the voltage source stay the same.
 - Electrons always drift in one direction.
 - Batteries and solar cells produce **dc**.
- <u>Alternating Current ("ac"):</u> {DRAW}
 - The + and terminals of the voltage source switch back and forth many times per second.
 - Electrons drift one direction and then the other.
 - <u>Electric utilities produce **ac**</u> for use in industry and homes. (Why they make AC is on the next to last slide)

Electrical Resistance

- Recall, <u>experiments showed</u> that <u>in a circuit</u>: $I \propto V$.
- <u>Electrical resistance</u> is the property that measures how difficult it is for a PD to get current to flow.
- **Experiments also show**: Smaller resistance, larger current for fixed *V*.
- <u>These 2 Experiments Together Show</u>:
- <u>Resistance Def</u>: $R = \frac{V}{I}$
 - <u>Unit</u>: Ohm [Ω]

$$1\Omega = 1\frac{V}{A}$$
 (m-k-s definition)

 $I \propto \frac{V}{2}$

- (Extra Info Used Later: For a given wire, $\mathbf{R} \propto \frac{\text{Length}}{\mathbf{x}.\mathbf{s}.\text{Area}}$.)
- <u>Ohm's Law</u>: V = IR

Electrical Power and Electrical Work

- From the definitions of electric potential, power, and current we can derive the:
- <u>Power Eqn</u>: P=IV
- Do <u>Ex. B-8, p.191</u>.
 - Electric Utility Meters:
 - These meters measure $P \times t = Work$ Done = Energy Supplied.
 - The meter's unit is kW-hr. = 3,600,000 J.
- <u>Electricity Cost Eqn</u>: Cost [\$] = Rate [$\frac{kW}{k}$ Power [kW] × time on [hr]

<u>Magnetism</u> [Reading Assignment = Perm. Magnets & Earth's Magnetism]

Magnetic Poles

- **Experiments** with magnets show that: { DEMO }
 - Each end of a magnet attracts one end and repels the other end of another magnet.
 - The two ends act like the two kinds of charge.
 - The ends are called **magnetic poles**.
 - <u>Like poles repel, unlike poles attract.</u>
 - We name them <u>North</u> and <u>South</u>,
 - N points in the approximate direction NORTH on Earth.
 - The poles always appear in pairs called <u>dipoles</u>.
 - Because the source of <u>ALL</u> magnets' magnetism is from <u>electron</u> <u>current</u> loops in their individual atoms (to be discussed later),

They cannot be broken into magnetic monopoles.

Magnetic Fields

- We imagine that the poles modify the space around them to create a **<u>magnetic field</u>**, then OTHER magnets react to this field.
- We draw the field as lines with arrows. **Fig.6.20**, **p.168**.
- The arrows show the direction a **compass N-pole** would point.
- Field lines never cross.
- Closer line spacing represents stronger magnetic forces.
- Lines run N to S outside magnet and return S to N inside.

<u>The Source of Magnetic Fields</u>

- Oersted discovered <u>experimentally</u> in 1820 that any moving charge creates a magnetic field (remember, <u>moving charge = current</u>).
- We now believe **all magnetic fields** (even those around a magnet) are **created by moving charges** as described in next section.
- <u>Permanent Magnets</u>: Reading Assignment.
- <u>Earth's Magnetic Field</u>: Reading Assignment. Earth's field comes from electric currents created by Earth's rotation.

Electric Currents and Magnetism

- **Fig.6.23, p.160** shows how Oersted accidentally found that currents create magnetic fields.
- <u>He later did a better experiment:</u>
- DEMO Show: Oersted's Better Experiment: (Fig.6-25)
 - Vertical wire running through a horizontal table.
 - With <u>Zero</u> **current** in the wire,
 - Compass needles everywhere will point North.
 - With <u>Electron</u> Current flowing UP,
 - Compass needles everywhere will point **CW** around the wire.
 - Reverse the current,
 - all needles will point **CCW**.
 - Field **direction** is given by "<u>Left Hand Rule</u>" (for wires).

Current Loops

- Here's how currents make magnets:
- **DEMO** Show: (**Fig.6.26**)
 - Loop of wire, with <u>Electron</u> Current flowing CW around it.
 - **Inside** loop, a compass needle will always point **<u>UP</u>**.
 - **<u>Outside</u>** loop, it will always point **<u>DOWN</u>**.
 - Reverse the current, and the magnetic field reverses.
 - ("Left hand rule" (for loops) gives the Field direction inside.
 - Note that fields are **similar** to **Bar Magnet's**:

<u>Atomic Dipoles:</u>

- <u>All magnetism is caused by the electrical currents generated by</u>
 - electrons orbiting around the nucleus of the atom and
 - electrons spinning on their own axis (like spinning tops).
- That's why you can't break a big magnet into a monopole <u>Each atom is its own little **atomic dipole magnet**.</u>
- <u>The atoms of most materials are non-magnetic.</u>
 - The orbits and spins of their electrons are oriented so that the magnetic fields tend to cancel each other.
- Only the few "*ferromagnetic*" materials have magnetic atoms.

Applications of Electromagnets

- <u>Solenoid</u>: (See Fig.6.27, p.171).
 - Many loops of wire formed into a cylinder.
 - Inside cylinder, fields from each loop add for stronger field.
- <u>Electromagnet:</u>
 - Magnet made from a solenoid.
 - **<u>Field strength varies</u>** with the current in the solenoid.

Electric Meters (See Fig. 6.28, p. 172).

- The "<u>Galvanometer</u>" is the basic electric meter.
 ALL <u>Analog Electric Meters</u> use a Galvanometer to measure current.
 - Blue is a spring that keeps the pointer at 0 with no current.
 - The Solenoid is the small gray part. Its **axis** should be shown **parallel to the red pointer**.
- Current in solenoid creates field parallel to pointer.
- Pointer rotates against the restoring force of the spring.
- Rotation amount varies with current.

<u>Electromagnetic Switches (Relays)</u> (See Fig.6.29, p.173).

- Low current in solenoid creates magnetic field, which attracts the iron part of a switch contact.
- Contact can control a much larger voltage or current.

<u>Telephones and Loudspeakers</u> (See Fig.6.30, p.174)

- The <u>Loudspeaker</u> is the electromagnetic part.
 - Audio Frequency current in an electromagnet creates a varying magnetic field, making it vibrate in the permanent magnet's field.
 - This vibrating electromagnet is attached to the base of the speaker cone; thus the whole cone vibrates and **emits a sound wave**.

Electric Motors (See Fig.6.31, p.174)

- Very much like the galvanometer, but:
 - no springs that would keep the solenoid centered,
 - added "<u>commutator</u>" to change current direction in solenoid each half revolution.
 - External field is usually supplied by an **electromagnet**, as shown.

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Electromagnetic Induction

• Scientific question: since electric currents produce magnetic fields, might magnetic fields produce currents?

Induction Discovery (1831)

- Experiments in both US and England similar to **Fig.6.32** (p.165).
 - Current direction reverses along with the magnet's motion.
 - <u>Same effect with either coil or magnet moving.</u>
 - <u>Current magnitude is proportional to:</u>
 - Number of wire loops.
 - Strength of magnetic field.
 - Speed of magnet motion relative to wires (unexpected).

<u>Generators</u>

- Generator construction is similar to motor, **Fig.6.31** (RE-SHOW).
 - but Uses a mechanical power source to rotate the Armature axle.
 - Fig.6.33: A.C. generators use brushes & NO commutator.
 - Current alternates + and (at 60 Hz in the US).
 - (Power Company AC generators use 3 armatures spaced 120° apart & 4 brushes.)
 - **DEMO:** D.C. generators use brushes & must also **have** a commutator.
 - Current varies, but stays +.
 - The gap in the commutator ring wears out the brushes much more rapidly than in the A.C. Generator.

<u>Transformers</u>

- Uses electromagnetic induction to change AC voltage.
- A simple construction geometry is shown in **Fig.6.34** (DEMO).
 - **P**rimary AC current makes Alternating magnetic field in iron ring.
 - Alternating magnetic field **induces** current in <u>s</u>econdary.
 - <u>Voltage ratio</u>: $\frac{V_p}{V_s} = \frac{N_p}{N_s}$. Going to more turns, *V* steps <u>up</u>.
 - <u>Transformer energy conservation</u>: Power In = Power Out $I_n V_n = I_s V_s$
 - <u>**Current ratio</u>**: $\frac{I_p}{I_s} = \frac{N_s}{N_p}$. Going to more turns, *I* steps <u>**down**</u>.</u>

• Do Ex. B-16, p.191.

<u>Commercial Power Transmission</u> (See "Current War" top of p.176)

- Homes today have a capacity to use up to 24,000 W at 240 V, which requires a current supply of 100 A.
- Power loss due to a wire's resistance: **Power Loss = I^2 R**
 - Recall: $\mathbf{R} \propto \frac{\text{Length}}{\text{Diameter}^2}$, where Length is the distance power must be transmitted.
 - The fattest wire available for transmitting 100 A loses too much power when $I^2 = 10,000 A^2$.
- **Solution**: after generator, step up to **High V**, Low I for transmission.
 - <u>Example</u>: boosting to 240,000 V drops I to 0.1 A and I^2 to 0.01 A^2 .
- Before entering house, step down to **240 V**, **100 A** to supply power being used in house.

<u>Producing Radio Waves</u> (Preview of next chapter.)

Maxwell's Electromagnetic Wave Theory (1865) (Theorist)

- <u>Suggested Theoretically That</u>:
 - ••{BOARD} <u>Electromagnetic Waves</u>: In an antenna, vibrating electrons produce a **spreading** wave of **varying magnetic field** that, in turn, **creates** a **varying electric field**.
 - ••Energy is carried by these varying E and M fields, which can exist in ANY material AND in a vacuum.
- <u>Heinrich Hertz (1887)</u> (Experimentalist)
 - Used Maxwell's suggestions to
 - <u>Produce</u>,
 - <u>Transmit over a Significant Distance</u>, and
 - <u>Detect these "Radio" Waves</u>.