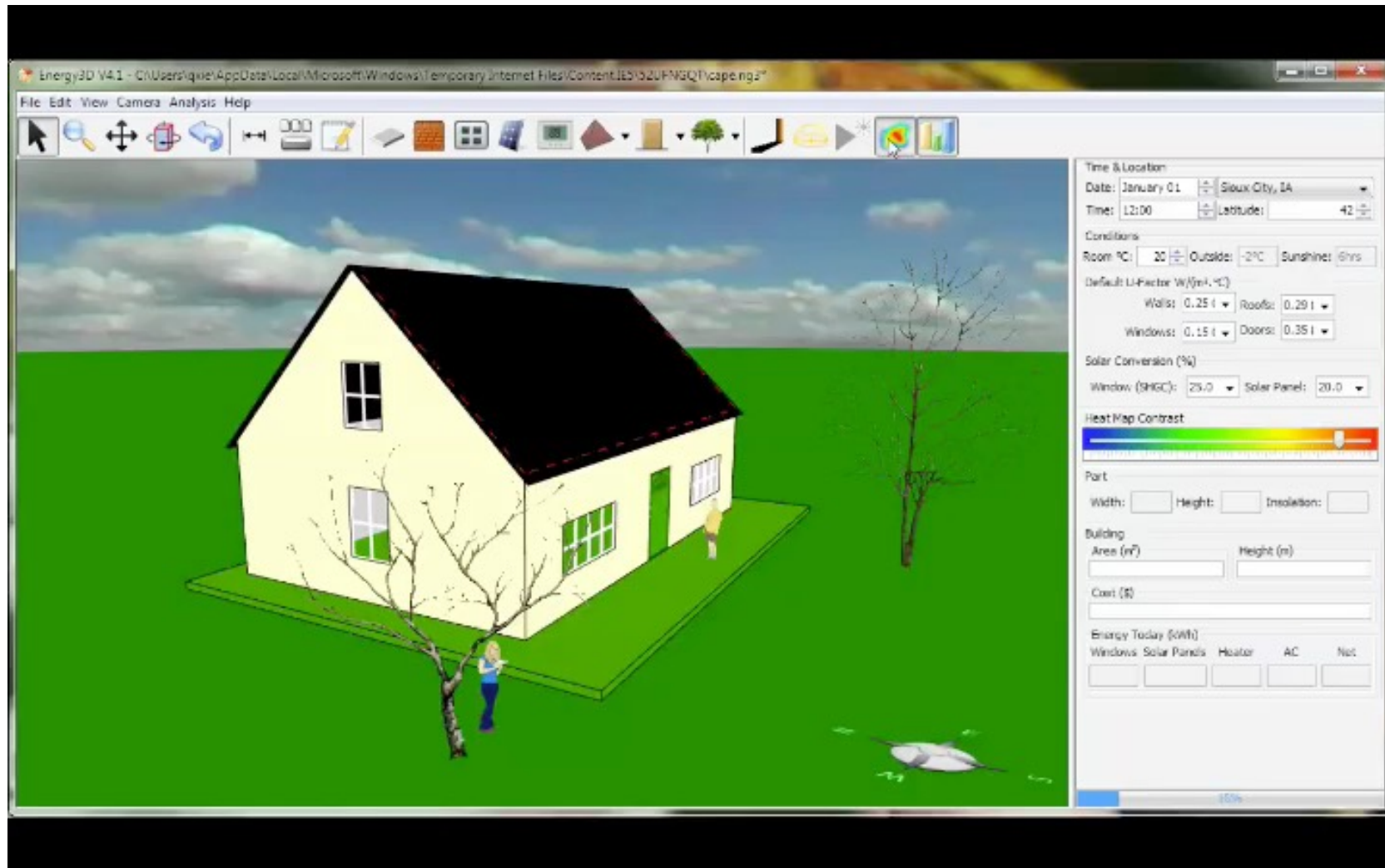


# Heat flux

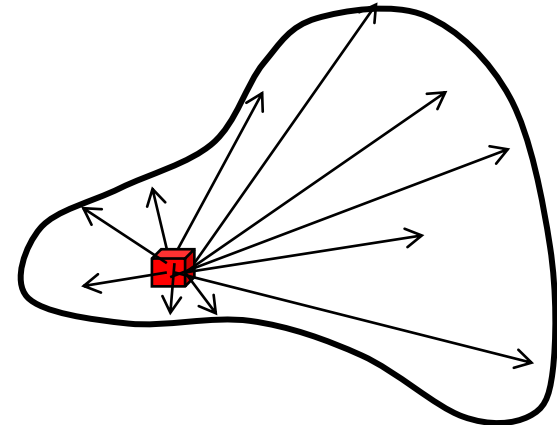
*Energy radiating through a surface*



# CHAPTER 24:

## Gauss's Law

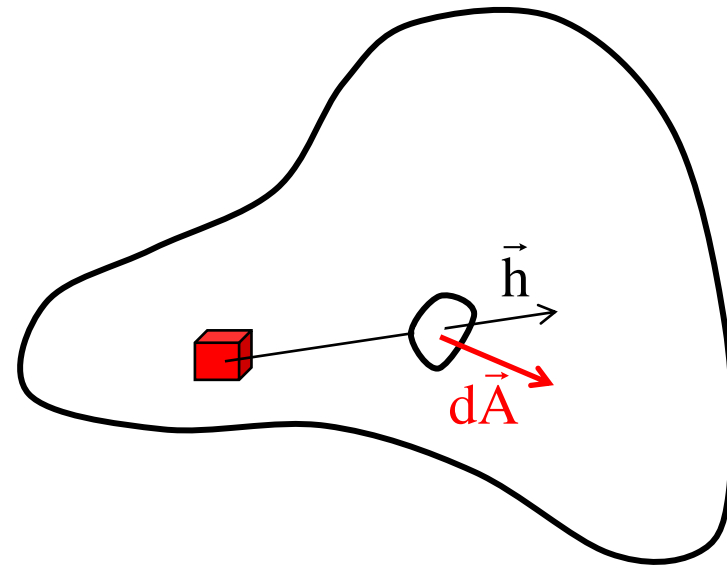
Consider a heat source asymmetrically placed inside an irregularly shaped, closed surface. Assume the amount of *heat per unit area per unit time* passing through the surface is defined by a position function  $h$  (that is, you give me a coordinate and I give you the goods). How much *heat per unit time* passes through the entire surface?



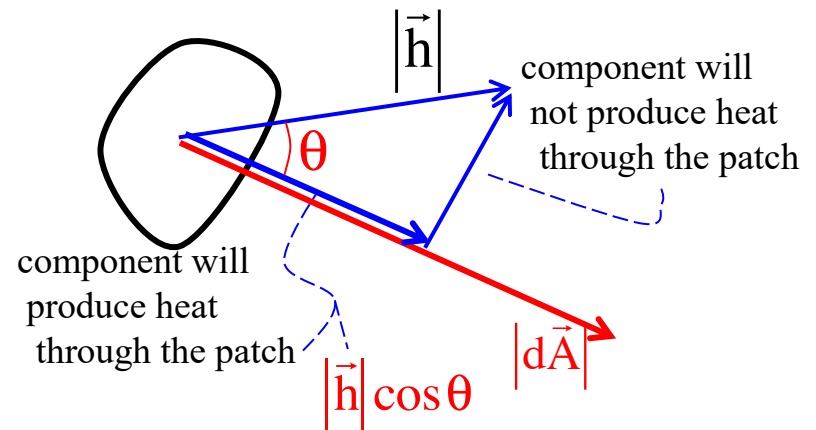
If we could identify a *differential surface area* through which heat was passing, we could multiply the *heat per unit area per unit time* function  $h$  by that *surface area*  $dA$  to produce the *heat per unit time* through that area. Summing (*integrating*) over all the areas for the entire surface would generate the amount of heat that passes through the *entire surface per unit time*.

So how does the math work on this?

We start by defining on the surface a differential surface area vector  $d\vec{A}$  whose magnitude  $dA$  is equal to the surface area of the differentially small patch and whose direction is perpendicularly out from the surface. That vector, along with  $\vec{h}$ , is shown to the right.



What we are interested in is the component of  $\vec{h}$  along the line of  $d\vec{A}$  times the magnitude of  $d\vec{A}$ . In other words, we want the differential heat flux through the patch, which will equal:



$$d\Phi_{\text{heat}} = (|\vec{h}| \cos \theta) |d\vec{A}|$$

$$= \vec{h} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

This is the mathematical definition of flux. Any vector field can have a flux through a surface, whether it be an open surface or a closed surface.

*So let's assume* our hot object is actually a **point charge**  $q$ . What can we do with that situation?

*Gauss made the* simple but powerful observation that there would be an *electric flux* through the closed surface, called a *Gaussian Surface*, as long as there was *charge enclosed inside the surface*.

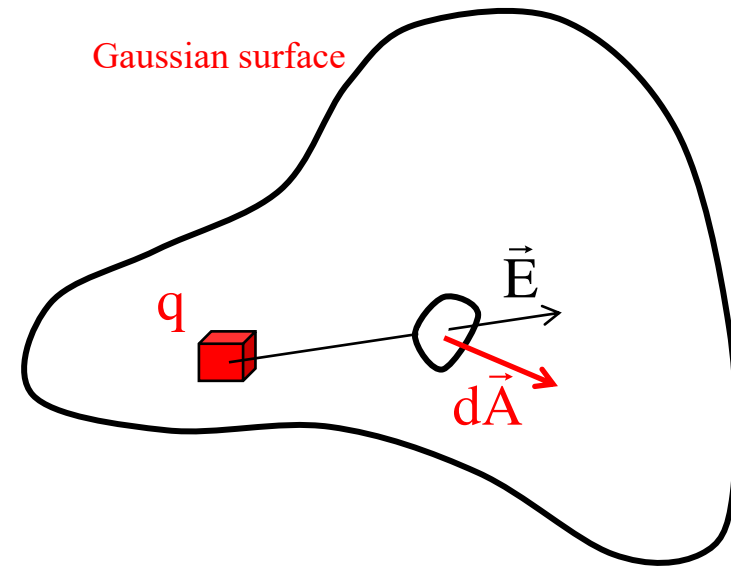
*What's more*, he surmised that the *amount of flux* would have to be *proportional to* the *amount of charge enclosed* inside the Gaussian surface. In other words, mathematically:

$$\Phi_E = \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} \text{ proportional to } q_{\text{enclosed}}$$

*The proportionality constant* that made the relationship into an equality was the inverse of our old friend, the *permittivity of free space* (i.e.,  $1/\epsilon_0$ ), so Gauss's Law is written as:

$$\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

(Tiny note: Some books use  $d\vec{S}$  as the *surface area vector*, so  $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$ .)



# Some Observations About Flux:

1.) Remember back to the *impulse relationship*  $F_x \Delta t = \Delta p_x$  and the instances when you were asked to determine the *impulse on an object*. You had the *choice* of *determining the namesake* of the operation ( $F_x \Delta t$ ) OR, you *could determine*  $\Delta p_x$ , depending upon what you knew.

*You have a* similar situation when asked to *determine* the *electric flux* through a *closed surface*. You *can* determine  $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$  over the surface, OR you could just determine the *total net charge enclosed* inside the surface and use  $q_{\text{enclosed}} / \epsilon_0$  to *determine the flux*. The two will be the same.

2.) *The units* for *electric flux* are  $N \cdot m^2 / C$ .

3.) *The area vector*  $d\vec{A}$  used in *electric flux calculations* is ALWAYS defined *perpendicularly outward* from the Gaussian surface.

4.) *Charge outside* a *Gaussian surface* will *generate no net flux* through the closed surface. (Think about it, *charge outside the surface* will produce *electric field lines* that *first pass into* the surface, *but then will pass out of the surface* on the other side *generating no net flux* through the surface).

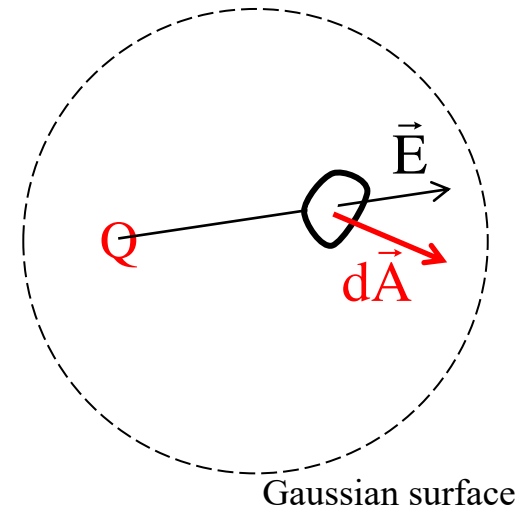
# Back to Gauss's Law

Gauss's Law is *ALWAYS TRUE*, no matter how the geometry shakes out, but it is pretty useless unless you can exploit symmetry in a problem.

*Example 1:* Use *Gauss's Law* on the spherical surface of radius  $R$  and charge  $Q$  as shown.

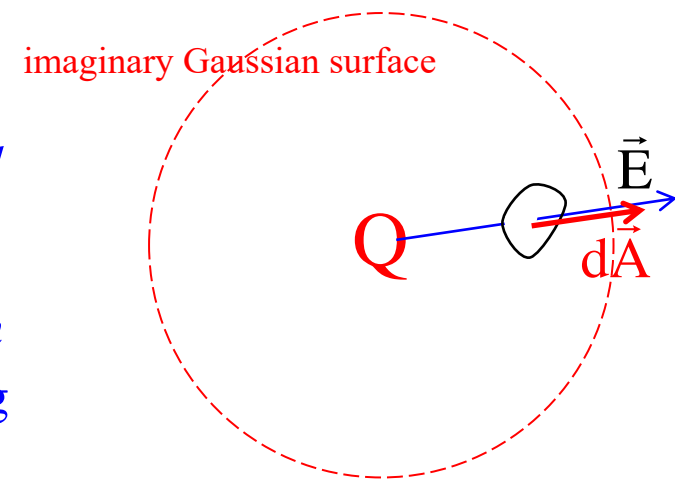
What the integral  $\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$  is apparently asking us to do is to **define** an arbitrary, differential surface area  $dA$  (remember,  $dA$  has a magnitude equal to the area of the enclosed surface and is directed perpendicularly outward from the surface), **evaluate** both the *direction* and *magnitude* of the electric field *at that surface*, **dot** the  $\vec{E}$  and  $d\vec{A}$  into one another, then **do** that for all the differential surfaces over the entire structure and **sum** them by **integrating**.

*Gauss was right.* That flux **WOULD** equal  $Q/\epsilon_0$ . But because no two points on the surface are the same distance from the charge  $Q$ , and no two dot products are going to be the same (angles different), doing that integral would be a **NIGHTMARE**. In short, this is an impossible problem to do!!!!!!



*Example 2:* This is *Example 1* done more reasonable: Derive an expression for the *electric field function* for a point charge  $Q$ .

*Important observation:* There is *no given Gaussian surface* to begin with in this problem, just a hanging charge. We need to create an *imaginary Gaussian surface around the charge*, one that *exploits the symmetry* of the *charge's electric field*. That is, we need to create a surface such that *every point* on the surface is *equidistant from the charge*.



With the *imaginary Gaussian surface centered on the charge*, ANY differential area vector  $d\vec{A}$  will be radially outward, which is to say, *in the direction of  $E$* , and the *angle between the electric field vector and the differential area vector* will be *zero* (so the *cosine in the dot product* will equal *1*). With that, we can draw (see sketch), then write:

$$\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

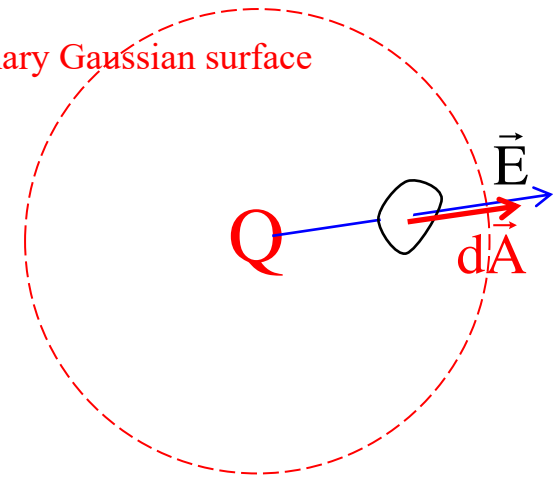
$$\Rightarrow \int_S |\vec{E}| |d\vec{A}| \cos 0 = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

Herein lies the beauty of the method. Because every point on the surface is equidistant from the charge, the evaluation of the magnitude of  $E$  at every differential surface  $dA$  WILL BE THE SAME, which is to say, IS A CONSTANT VALUE, and because it is a constant, we can pull it out of the integral. (Note that we couldn't do that with the original Example 1 because each point was a different distance from  $Q$ .) With that, we can write:

That makes life wonderful, as now the only thing inside the integral is the differential surface area  $dA$ , and summing that over the surface simply yields the total surface area of the sphere ( $4\pi R^2$ ) . . . So we can further write

Look familiar? It should. It's the same as the electric field function we derived for a point charge using Coulomb's Law!

imaginary Gaussian surface



$$\int_s |\vec{E}| |d\vec{A}| = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}| \int_s |d\vec{A}| = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$|\vec{E}| \int_s |d\vec{A}| = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}| (4\pi R^2) = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

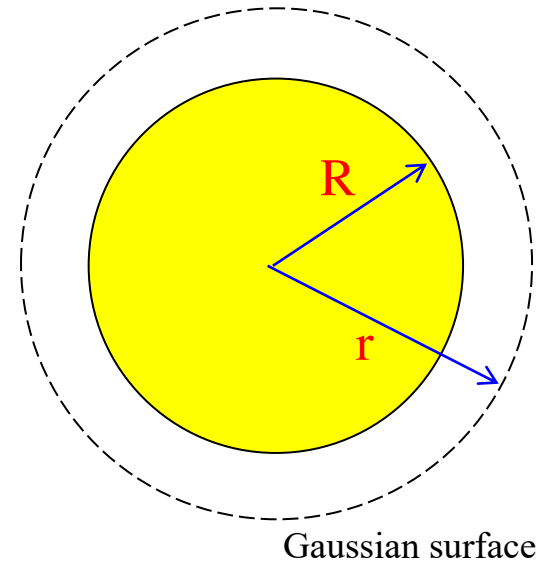
$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}| = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2}$$



# Insulators and Gauss's Law

What is characteristic of *insulators* is that **free charge stays put** in an insulator, it **doesn't migrate around** in response to an electric field. With that in mind:

**Example 3:** Derive the *electric field function*, both inside and outside, for a **spherical insulator** of radius **R**, that has **charge -Q** evenly distributed throughout its volume.



*a.) for  $r > R$ :* Start with an **imaginary Gaussian sphere** of **radius  $r$** , where  $r > R$ , and write out *Gauss's Law* for the situation (**there are notes on the process on the next page**):

$$\begin{aligned}\int_s \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} &= \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow \int_s E dA \cos 0^\circ &= \frac{-Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E \int_s dA &= \frac{-Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) &= \frac{-Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E &= -\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}\end{aligned}$$

*And yes, this looks like a point charge!* <sub>9.)</sub>

## Subtleties:

1.) *The LEFT SIDE* of *Gauss's Law* is always the **EASY PART** of the equation. Assuming you've picked the appropriate geometry, the magnitude of  $\vec{E}$ , which is what the *dot product* is interested in, should be the same everywhere. That means  $|\vec{E}|$  will be a constant and you will **ALWAYS** pull it out of the *integral* which, in turn, means you will **ALWAYS** end up integrating over  $dA$ . So for *spherical symmetry*, the left side will **ALWAYS** end up equaling:

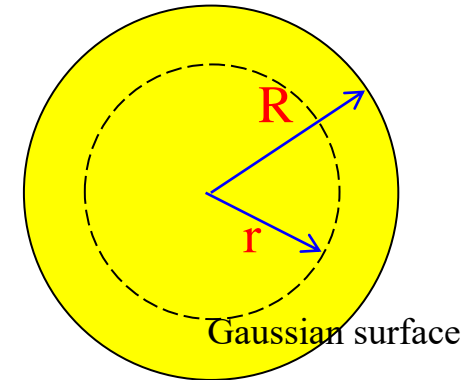
$$E(4\pi r^2)$$

2.) *The dot product* deals with magnitudes, so the  $E$  being determined by Gauss's Law should be the magnitude of the electric field as evaluated at (or on) the Gaussian surface. So what's the deal with the negative sign?

*To make the math easy*, always assume that  $\vec{E}$  is *outward* in the same direction as  $d\vec{A}$ . That will make the *dot product* positive. If you are clever, though, and include the sign of the charge in  $q_{\text{enclosed}}$ , a negative sign showing up in the final expression for  $E$  will tell you that you've *assumed the wrong direction for  $\vec{E}$*  (i.e., it's inward, not outward). In other words, the negative sign *doesn't technically mean a negative electric field direction*, but it sorta does . . . This will be a lot more important when you get to complicated charge configurations.

b.) for  $r < R$ : Again, start with an **imaginary Gaussian sphere** of radius  $r$ , this time with  $r < R$ , and write out *Gauss's Law* for the situation.

*Note that* we need to figure out how much **charge** is **inside**  $r$ . We can do this two way. I'll show both.



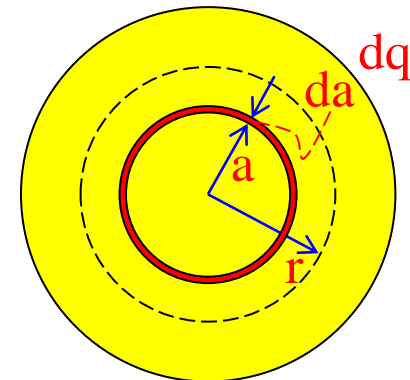
*Straight ratio* (works only for constant density)

$$\begin{aligned}
 q_{\text{enclosed}} &= (\text{fraction of } Q \text{ inside } r)(-Q) \\
 &= \left[ \frac{\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3\right)}{\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3\right)} \right] (-Q) \\
 &= -\left(\frac{r^3}{R^3}\right)Q
 \end{aligned}$$

*Using density function* (works for all situations)

Noting that:  $\rho = \frac{\text{chg}}{\text{vol}} = \frac{-Q}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3}$  and  $dV_{\text{shell}} = \underbrace{4\pi a^2}_{\text{surface area}} da$

$$\begin{aligned}
 q_{\text{enc}} &= \int dq = \int_{a=0}^r \rho dV \\
 &= \rho \int_{a=0}^r (4\pi a^2) da \\
 &= \frac{-Q}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3} (4\pi) \int_{a=0}^r a^2 da \\
 &= \frac{3(-Q)}{R^3} \left(\frac{a^3}{3}\right) \Big|_{a=0}^r = -\left(\frac{r^3}{R^3}\right)Q
 \end{aligned}$$



b.) for  $r < R$ : (con't.—doing this with the *density function* . . . though either way would do here)

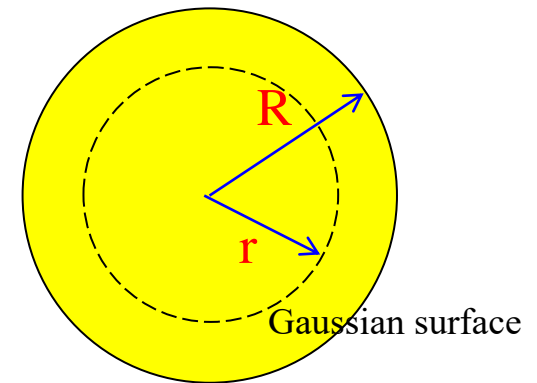
$$\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{\int_{a=0}^r \rho dV}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_S E dA \cos 0^\circ = \frac{\int_{a=0}^r \left[ \left( \frac{-Q}{\cancel{4} \cancel{3} \pi R^3} \right) \right] \left[ \cancel{4} \pi a^2 da \right]}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \int_S dA = \frac{3(-Q) \int_{a=0}^r a^2 da}{\epsilon_0 R^3} = \frac{\cancel{3}(-Q) \left( \frac{a^3}{\cancel{3}} \Big|_{a=0}^r \right)}{\epsilon_0 R^3}$$

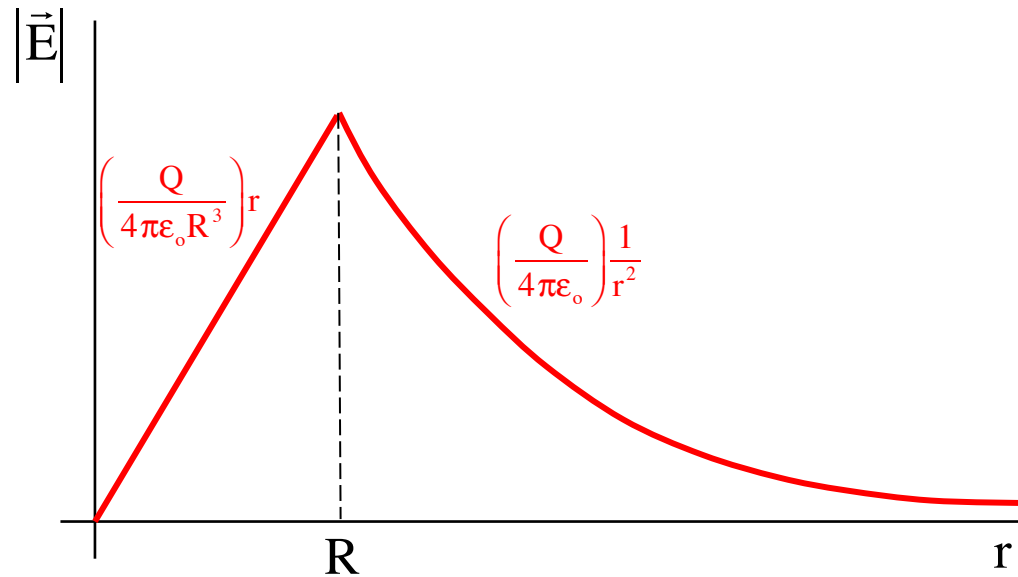
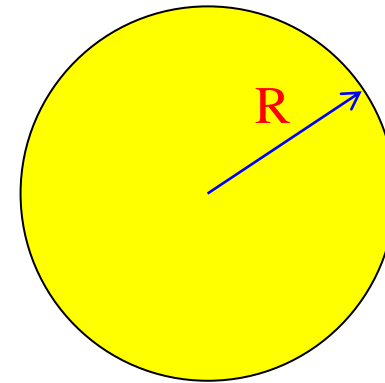
$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{-Q}{\epsilon_0 R^3} r^3$$

$$\Rightarrow E = -\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} r$$



*Note that* this is a *linear E-field* inside the sphere!

c.) What does the graph look like for *electric field magnitude versus position*?



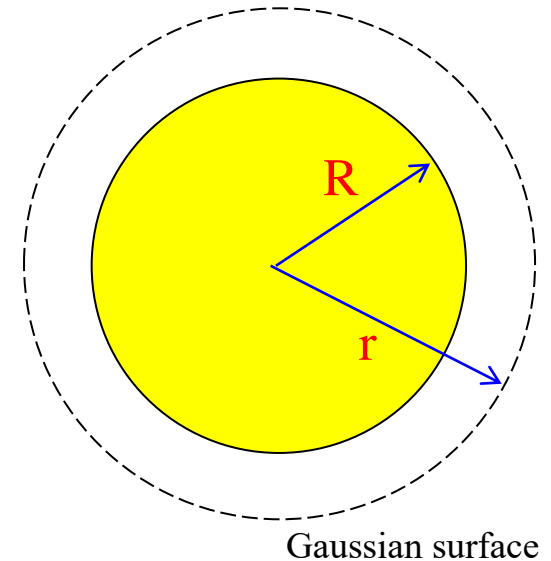
# Conductors and Gauss's Law

What is characteristic of conductors is that free charge can move around freely within the conductor, migrating in response to an electric field. With that in mind:

**Example 4:** Derive the electric field function, both inside and outside, for a spherical conductor of radius  $R$ , that has charge  $Q$  placed on it.

a.) for  $r > R$ : The imaginary Gaussian sphere of radius  $r$ , where  $r > R$ , looks just like it did for the insulator, except the charge is not shot through the volume but resides on the volume's surface (like-charge attempts to get as far away from like charge as possible). So . . .

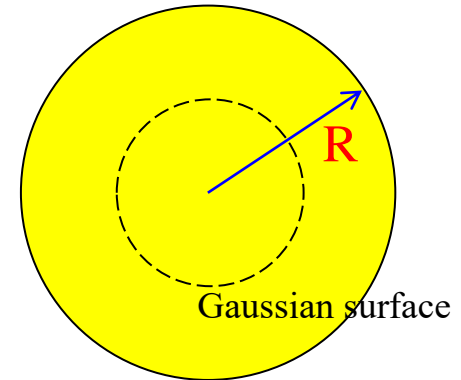
$$\begin{aligned}\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} &= \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow \int_S E dA \cos 0^\circ &= \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E \int_S dA &= \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) &= \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}\end{aligned}$$



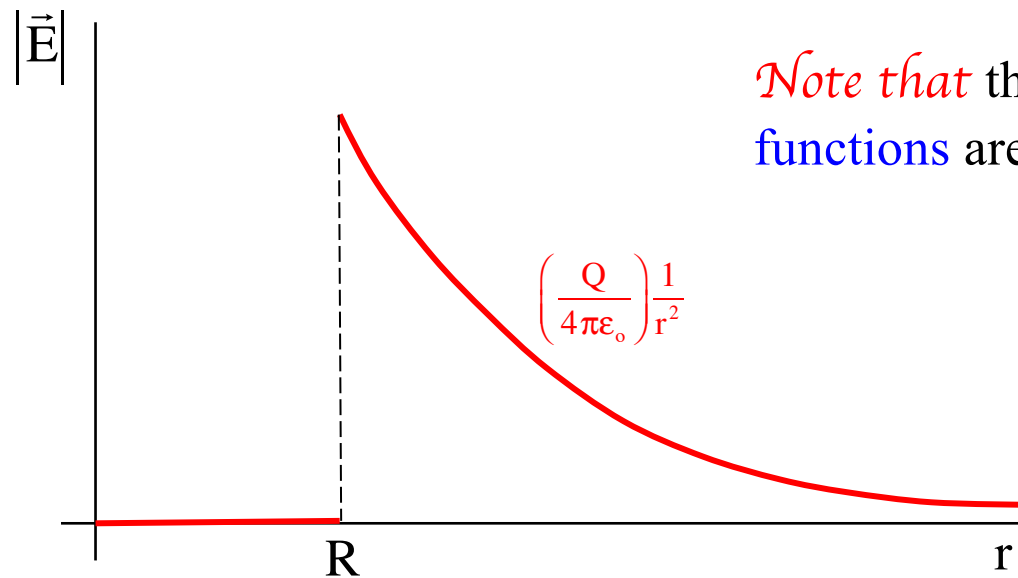
Still looks like a point charge!

b.) for  $r < R$ : This is easy. With all the charge on the surface, the charge enclosed inside the Gaussian surface is zero and:

$$\int_s \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{0}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\Rightarrow E = 0$$



c.) What does the graph look like for  $E$ -field magnitude versus position?



Note that this suggests that  $E$ -fld functions are discontinuous . . .

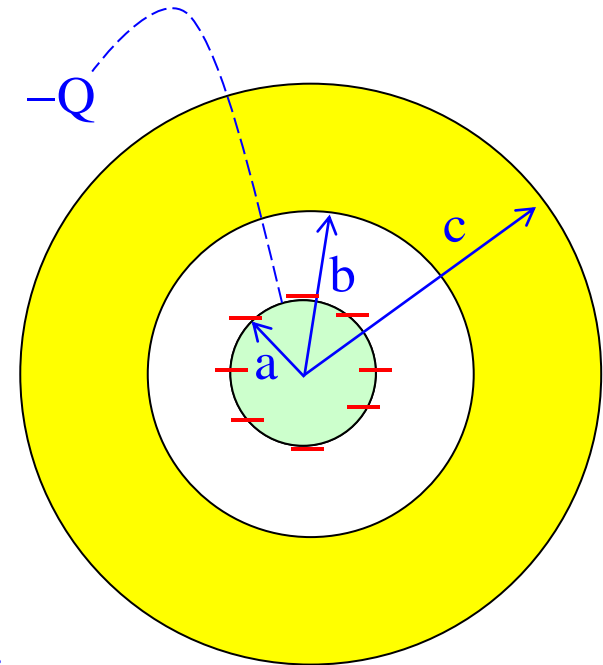
# Now for the Real Fun

**Example 5:** A thick skinned, **conducting, spherical shell** with **inside radius  $b$**  and **outside radius  $c$**  has a **net charge  $3Q$**  on it. At its center is a **solid conducting sphere** of **radius  $a$**  that has a **net charge of  $-Q$**  on it.

a.) **How will charge distribute** itself on these structure?

**OBSERVATIONS:**

- 1.) **The electric field inside a conductor** in a **static situation** will **always be ZERO**. Why? Because if an electric field existed, electrons would respond to it and move until the field was nullified.
- 2.) **For the  $\mathcal{E}$ -field to be zero inside the conducting sphere**, the **net charge inside a Gaussian surface in that region must be zero**. How can this be? **Free charge** in the amount  **$-Q$**  (i.e., **electrons**) must migrate to **the outside surface of the conductor** (hence the total charge inside the Gaussian surface inside the shell will sum to zero).





a.) (con't)

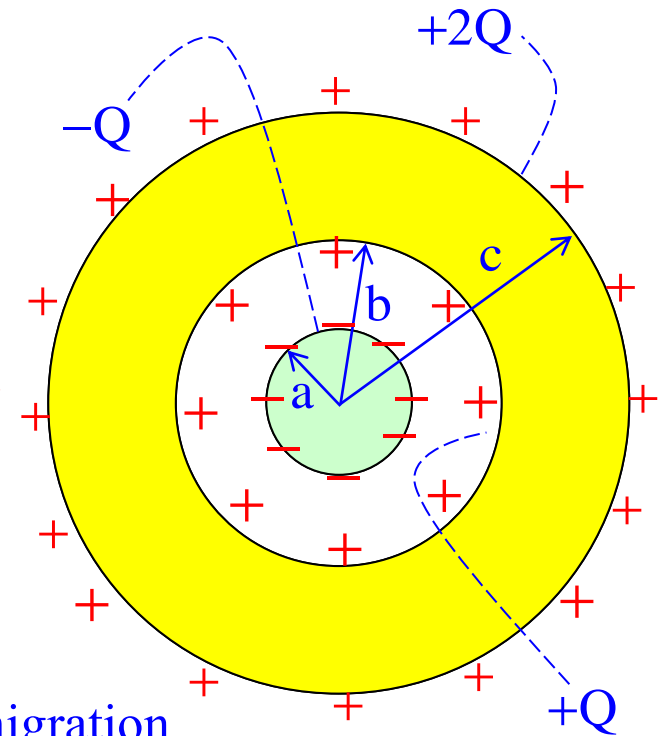
### OBSERVATIONS (con't)

3.) Being a conductor, the electric field inside the shell must also be zero. As there is  $-Q$ 's worth of charge on the solid sphere at the center, electrons in the shell will be repulsed and migrate out from the inside to outside wall leaving the inside surface with  $+Q$ 's worth of charge on it and no charge enclosed for a Gaussian surface inside the shell.

4.) IF the shell had been electrically neutral, the migration of electrons in the shell due to the  $-Q$  at the center would have left the inside surface at  $+Q$  and the outside surface at  $-Q$ .

5.) IF the charge at the center didn't exist, on the other hand, the  $+3Q$  net charge on the shell (meaning  $3Q$ 's worth of electrons had been removed) would reside on the outside surface.

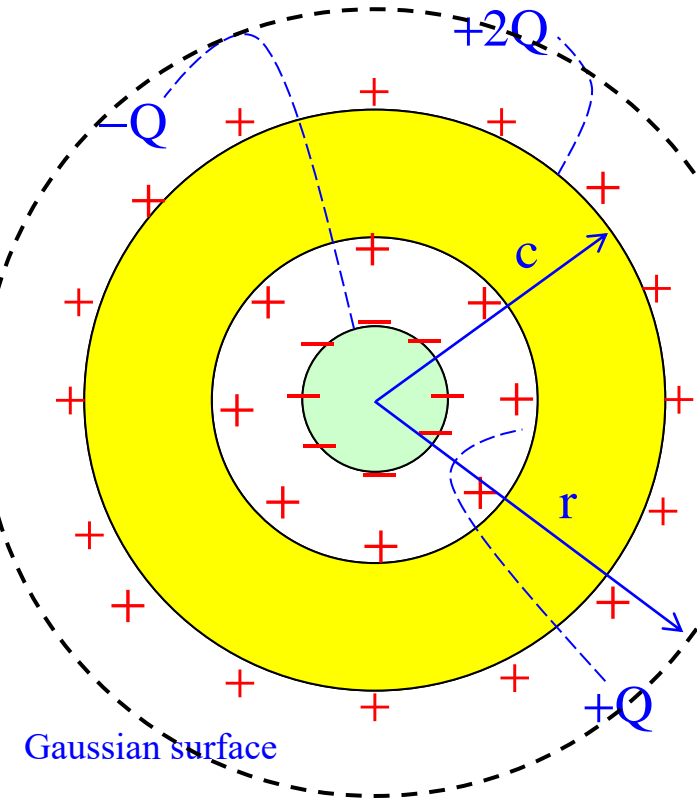
6.) Combining observations 4 and 5 leaves us with a net charge on the outside surface of  $+2Q$  and a net charge on the shell of  $+3Q$  (look at sketch).



b.) Derive an expression for the  $E$ -fld for  $r > c$ .

Using an imaginary Gaussian sphere of radius  $r$ , where  $r > c$ , and including ALL the charge enclosed, we can write:

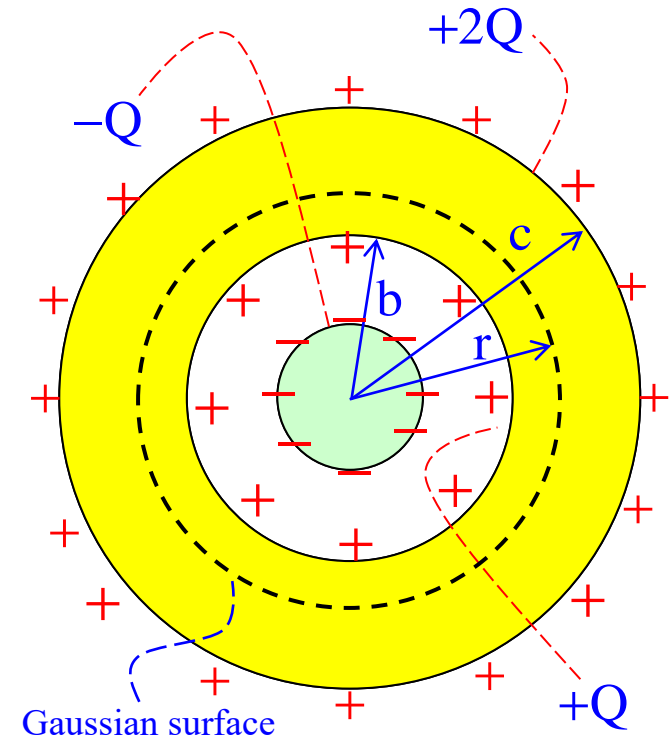
$$\begin{aligned}\int_s \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} &= \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow \int_s E dA \cos 0^\circ &= \frac{+2Q + Q - Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E \int_s dA &= \frac{2Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) &= \frac{2Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E &= \frac{2Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}\end{aligned}$$



c.) Derive an expression for the *E*-fld for  $b < r < c$ .

Using an imaginary Gaussian sphere of radius  $r$ , where  $r$  is *inside the shell*, we can write:

$$\int_s \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\Rightarrow \int_s E dA \cos 0^\circ = \frac{+Q - Q}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{0}$$

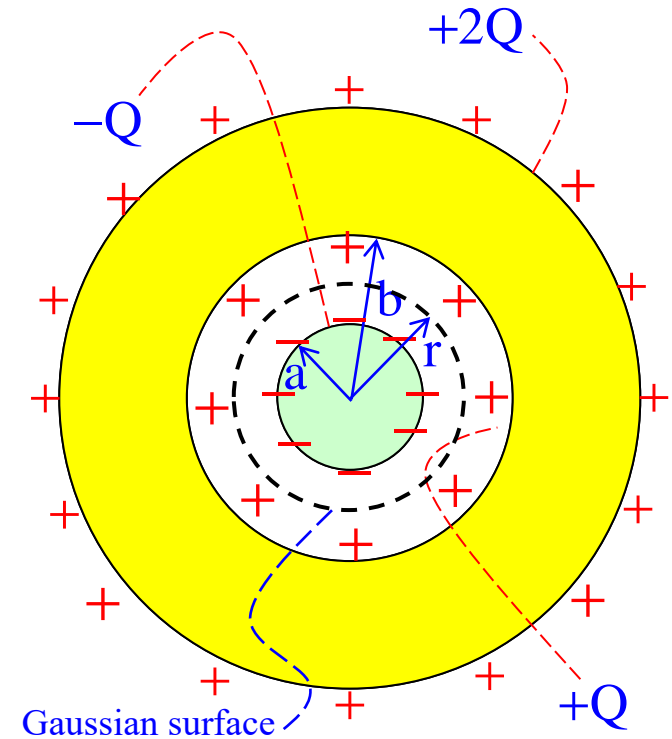


d.) Derive an expression for the  $E$ -fld for  $a < r < b$ .

Using an imaginary Gaussian sphere of radius  $r$ , where  $r$  is between the shell and the sphere, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} &= \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow \int_S E dA \cos 0^\circ &= \frac{-Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E \int_S dA &= \frac{-Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) &= \frac{-Q}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E &= -\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \end{aligned}$$

where the negative sign tells us the  $E$ -fld is not outward as assumed but, instead, opposite the assumed direction and inward (you'd expect this with net negative charge on the inside of the region and net positive charge on the outside).



e.) Derive an expression for the  $E$ -fld for  $r < a$ .

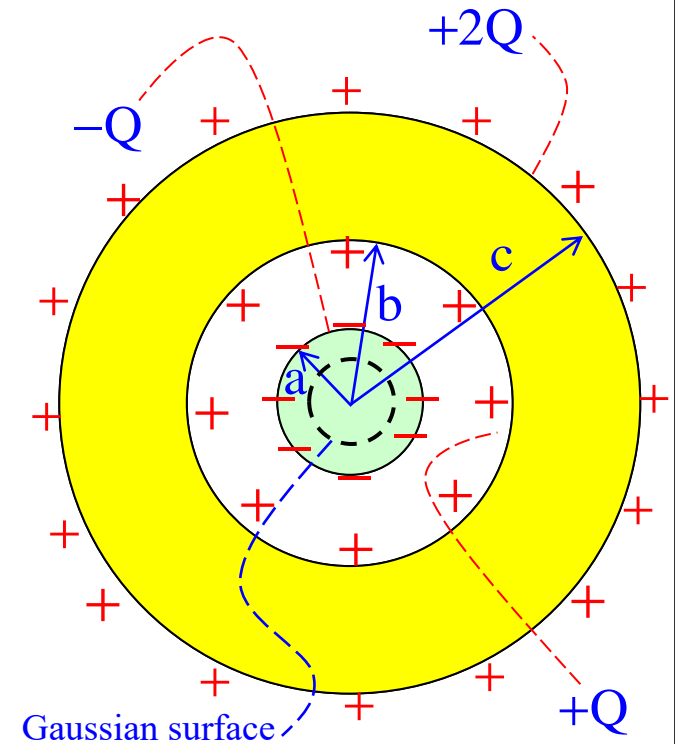
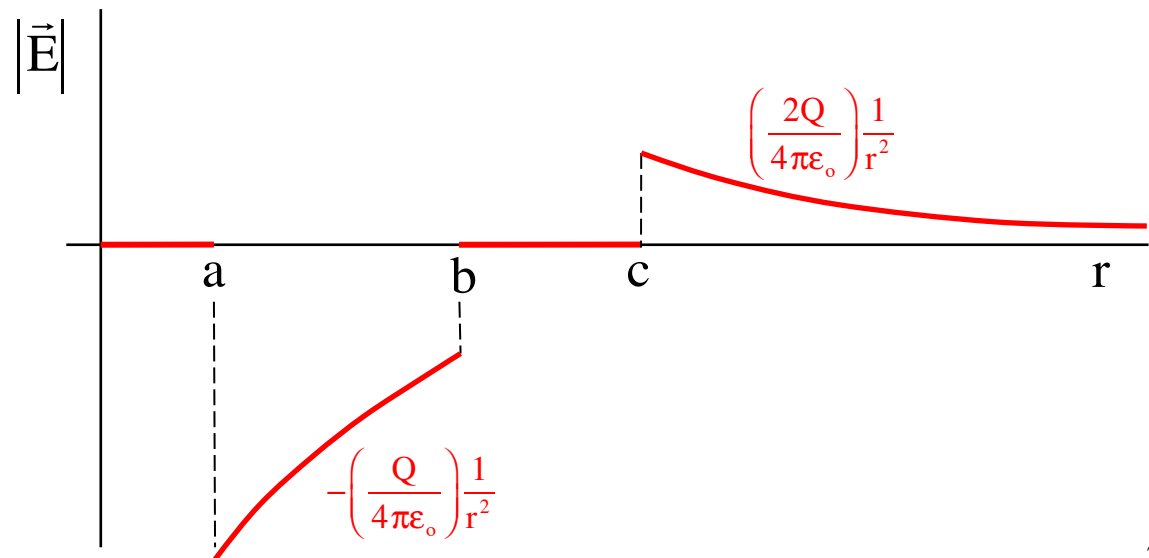
Using an imaginary Gaussian sphere of radius  $r$ , where  $r$  is inside the sphere:

$$\int_s \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_s E dA \cos 0^\circ = \frac{0}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = 0$$

f.) What does the graph look like for  $E$ -field as a vector versus position?



# Real Fun With a Twist

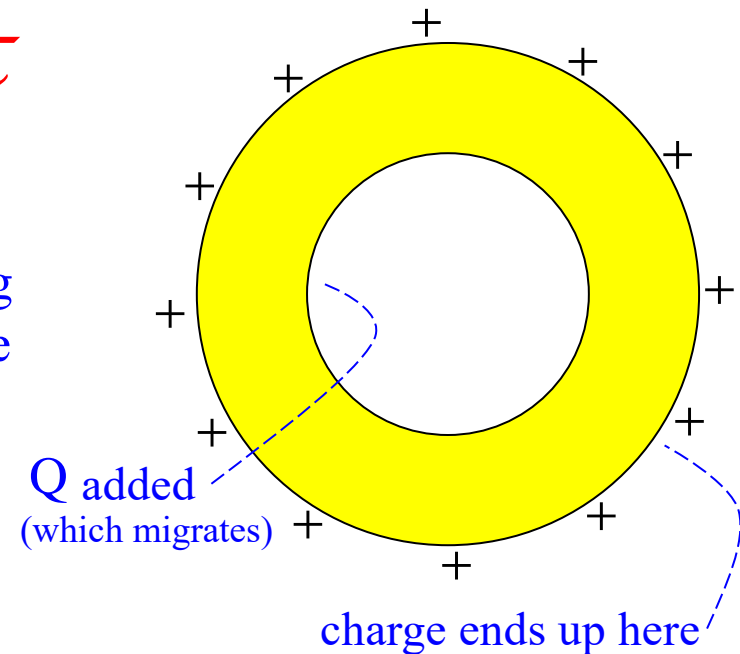
*Example 6: Let's assume* that someone touches an insulator to the **inside of the conducting shell**, and in doing so transfers  $Q$ 's worth of **charge** to the shell. **What is going to happen in that case?**

1.) *An important point*, which I haven't mentioned yet, is that physicist have no qualms about looking at situations like this from the **perspective** of the motion of **POSITIVE CHARGE**.

That is not what is really happening, but you can view theoretical situations as though it *was* happening, and come out with reasonable conclusion.

*Doing that in this case* suggests the following will happen: The **bits of positive charge making up** the **transferred  $Q$**  will migrate to the **outside edge of the shell** leaving it with a net charge of  $Q$  on that surface.

2.) *In reality*, **electrons** are drawn from the shell's **outside edge**, leaving it with a net charge of  $Q$ , **migrating through the shell to the inside edge** where they jump to the **insulator** (that's how the **shell becomes more positive**).

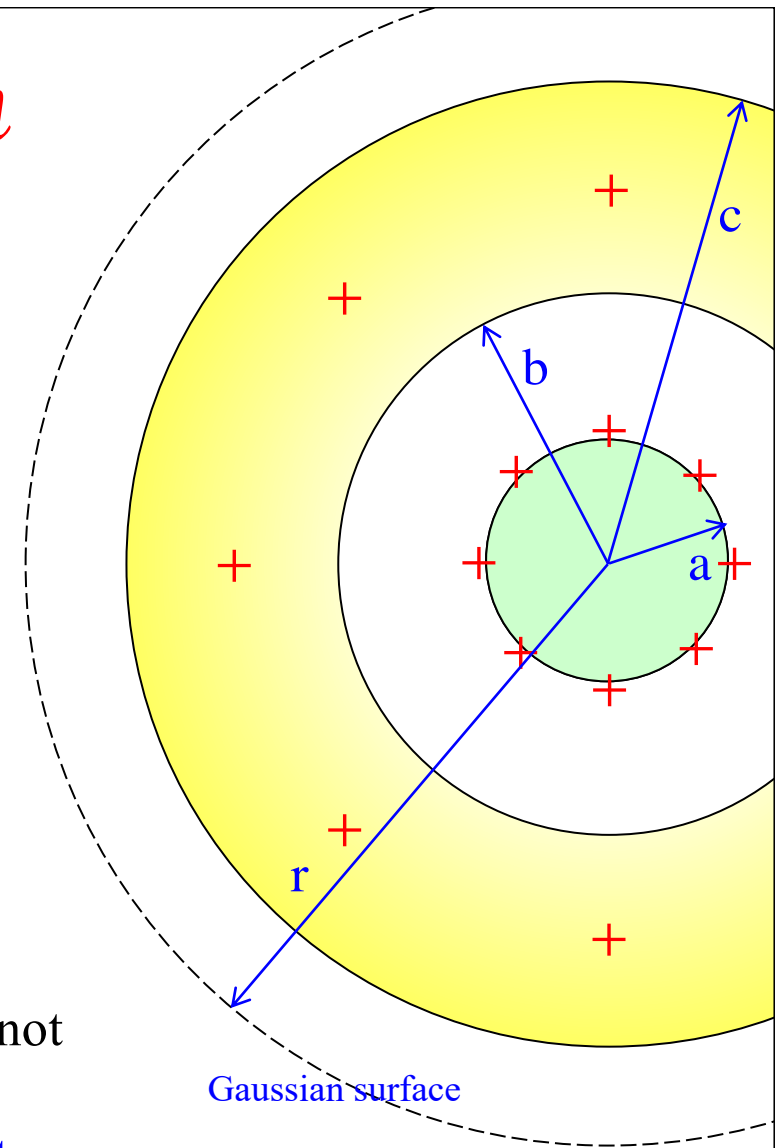


# And Even More Fun

*Example 7:* A thick skinned, insulating *spherical shell* with *inside radius*  $b$  and *outside radius*  $c$  has a *volume charge density*  $\rho = kr$ , where the constant  $k = 1 \text{ C/m}^4$ . At its center is a *solid conducting sphere* of *radius*  $a$  that has a *net charge* of  $Q$  on it.

a.) *Derive an expression* for the magnitude of the *electric field* for  $r > c$ .

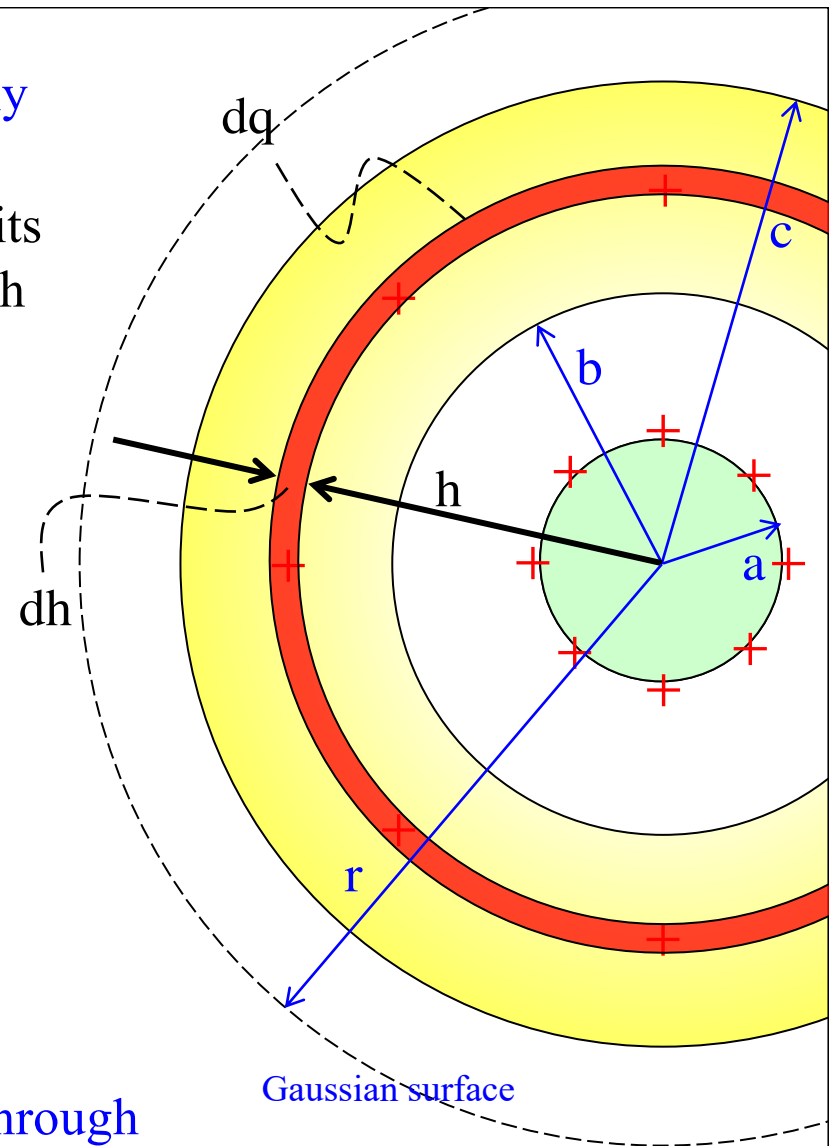
*We need* the *total charge* inside a *Gaussian surface* that *engulfs* the *entire charge configuration*. The  $Q$  on the center sphere is *easy*, but the *charge shot through the shell* is not so easy as it is *slight* at the inside and gets *heavier* as one moves outward (that is, it *isn't uniform*). To do this, we need to be clever.



*Define* a differential volume  $dV$  as a differentially thin shell of radius  $h$  and thickness  $dh$ . Its magnitude will be its surface area ( $4\pi h^2$ ) times its differential thickness  $dh$ , or  $dV = (4\pi h^2 dh)$ . With a given volume charge density of  $\rho = kh$ , where  $\rho$  has been evaluated at  $h$ , we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \frac{dq}{dV} \\ \Rightarrow dq &= \rho dV \\ &= \rho(4\pi h^2 dh) \\ &= (kh)(4\pi h^2 dh) \\ &= 4\pi kh^3 dh \end{aligned}$$

*With this*, we can determine the charge shot through the entire shell, or through just part of the shell.





With  $dq = \rho(4\pi h^2 dh)$ ,  
 and figuring out the charge between  $b$  and  $c$  inside  
 the Gaussian radius  $r$ , we can write:

$$\int_s \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

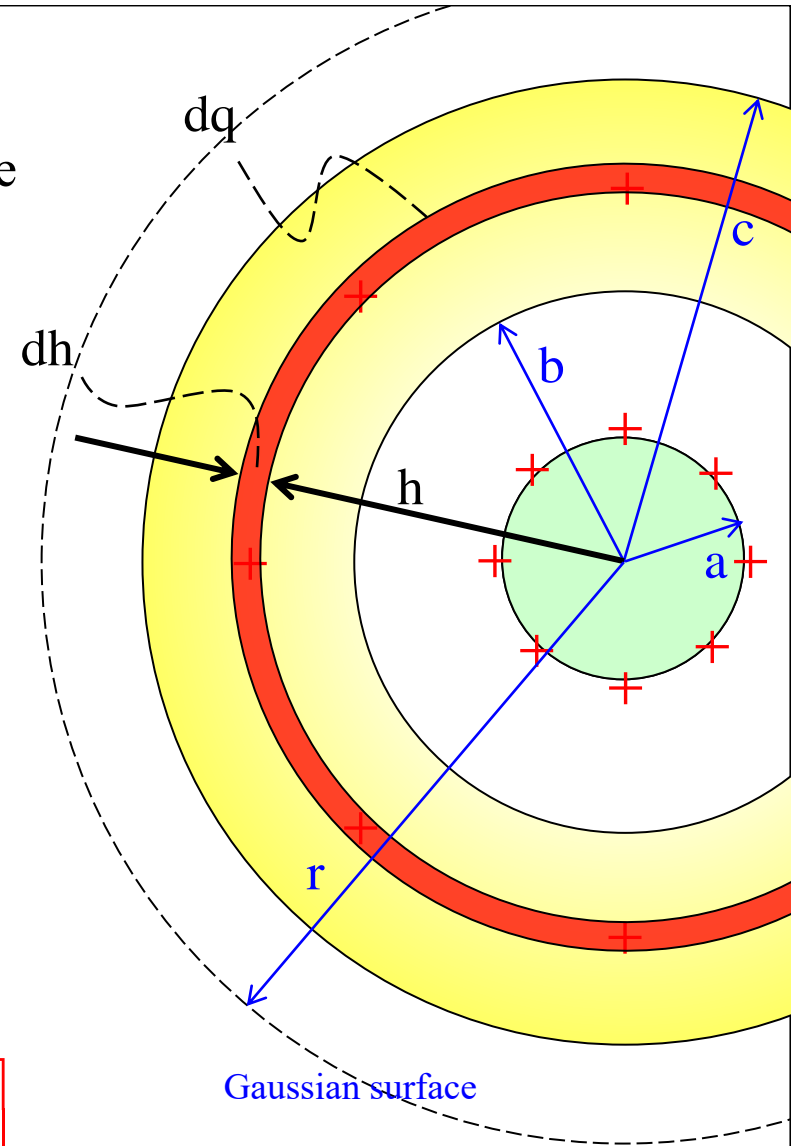
$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q + \int_{h=b}^c \rho dV}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{E} = \frac{Q + \int_{h=b}^c (kh)(4\pi h^2 dh)}{4\pi r^2 \epsilon_0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \left[ Q + (4\pi k) \int_{h=b}^c h^3 dh \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \left[ Q + (4\pi k) \left( \frac{h^4}{4} \right) \Big|_{r=b}^c \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \left[ Q + (4\pi k) \left( \frac{c^4}{4} - \frac{b^4}{4} \right) \right]$$



b.) Derive an expression for the magnitude of the electric field for  $c > r > b$ .

This is easy as it's the same as Part a except the shell's contribution to the charge is only the charge out to the Gaussian radius  $r$ . That is:

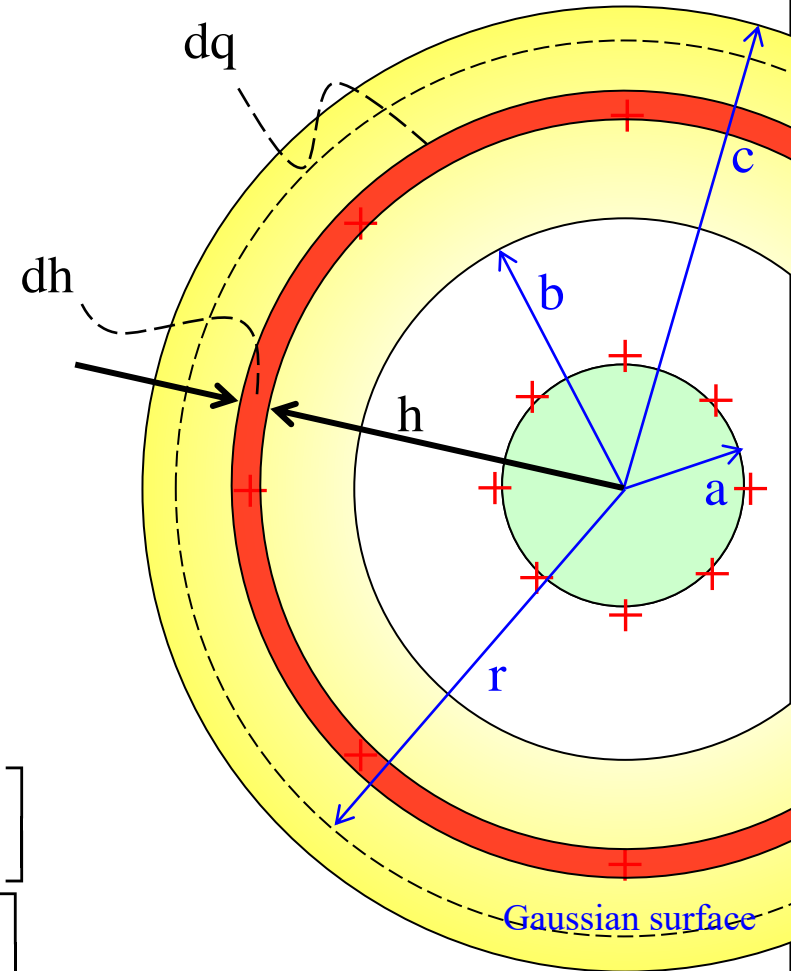
$$\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{E}(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q + \int_{a=b}^r (kh)(4\pi h^2 dh)}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left[ Q + (4\pi k) \int_{h=b}^r h^3 dh \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left[ Q + (4\pi k) \left( \frac{h^4}{4} \right) \Big|_{r=b}^r \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left[ Q + (4\pi k) \left( \frac{r^4}{4} - \frac{b^4}{4} \right) \right]$$



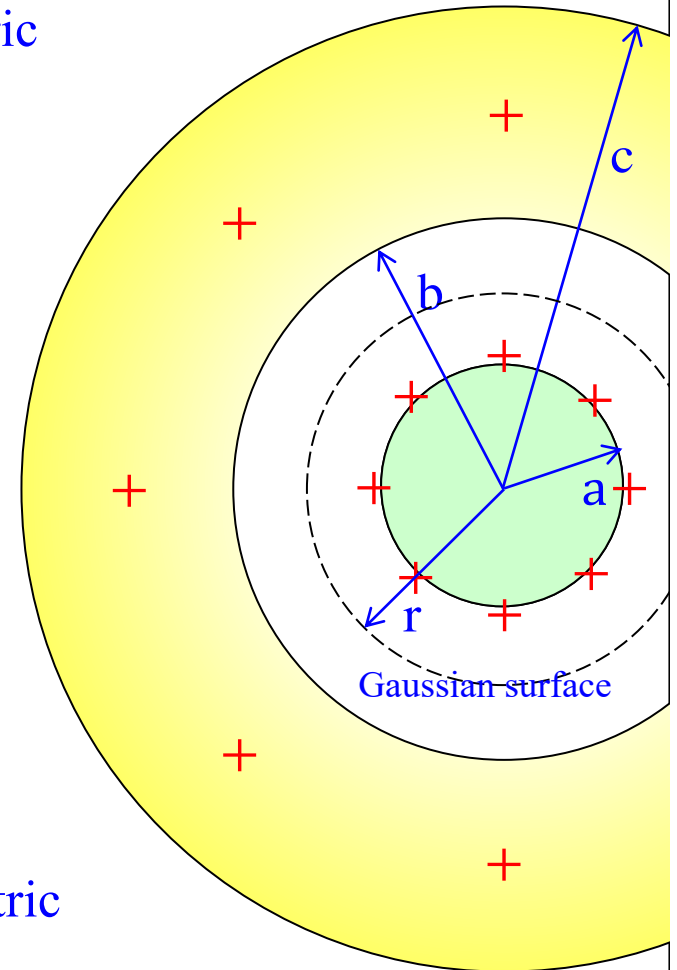
c.) Derive an expression for the magnitude of the electric field for  $b > r > R$ .

The only charge inside the Gaussian surface for this section is that on the inner conductor, which is  $Q$ , so:

$$\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

d.) Derive an expression for the magnitude of the electric field for  $r < R$ .

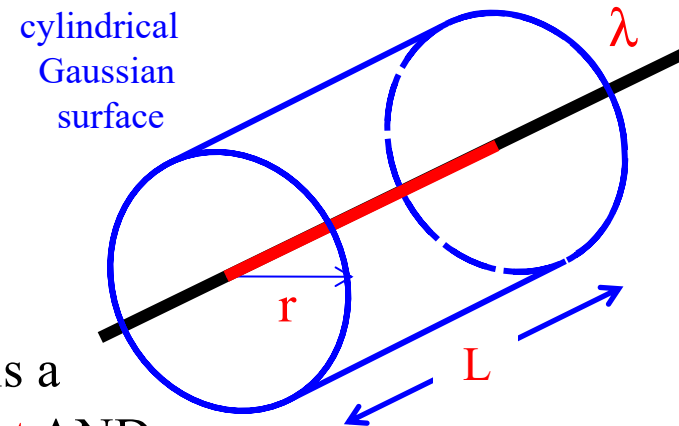
No charge enclosed inside the Gaussian surface, so  $E = 0$ .



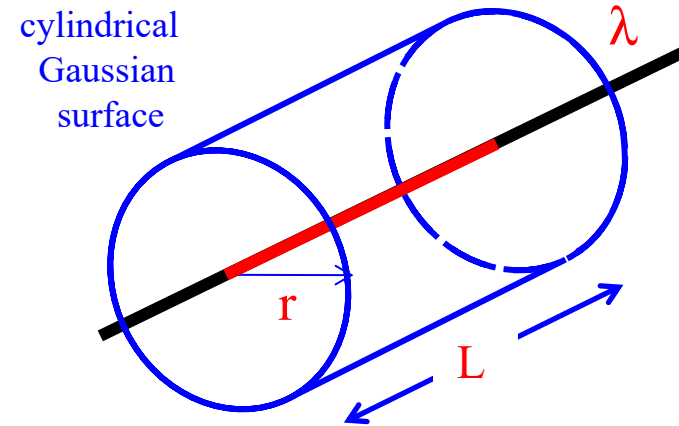
# Cylindrical Symmetry and Gauss's Law

**Example 8:** Derive an expression for the *electric field function* for an “infinitely long” insulating rod whose **linear charge density** is a constant  $\lambda$ .

*What you are* looking for in a **Gaussian surface** is a surface upon which the **magnitude of E is constant** AND the **dot product** is either the **same everywhere**, or zero. With a **linear charge distribution**, a **sphere** clearly **won't do**. What will work, if you are clever, is a cylinder. How so? **If** the charge configuration is infinitely long (or in a pinch, very, very long), the **electric field will be radially outward** (or inward, depending upon the charge). A **Gaussian cylinder** will have **ends whose  $dA$ 's will be perpendicular to the electric field** (hence producing no electric flux and a zero dot product) and a **curved surface whose  $dA$ 's are along the line of E**. In short, a cylindrical Gaussian surface will do the job.



*Noting that* the amount of **charge inside** an imaginary, cylindrical, Gaussian surface will be the **linear charge density times** the **length** of the surface, and the *surface area* of a cylinder is the **circumference  $2\pi r$**  times the **length  $L$** , we can write:



$$\int_{\text{curve}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{curve}} + 2 \int_{\text{end}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{end}} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\text{curve}} E dA_{\text{curve}} \cos 0^\circ + 2 \int_{\text{end}} E dA_{\text{end}} \cos 90^\circ = \frac{\lambda L}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \int_{\text{curve}} dA_{\text{curve}} = \frac{\lambda L}{\epsilon_0}$$

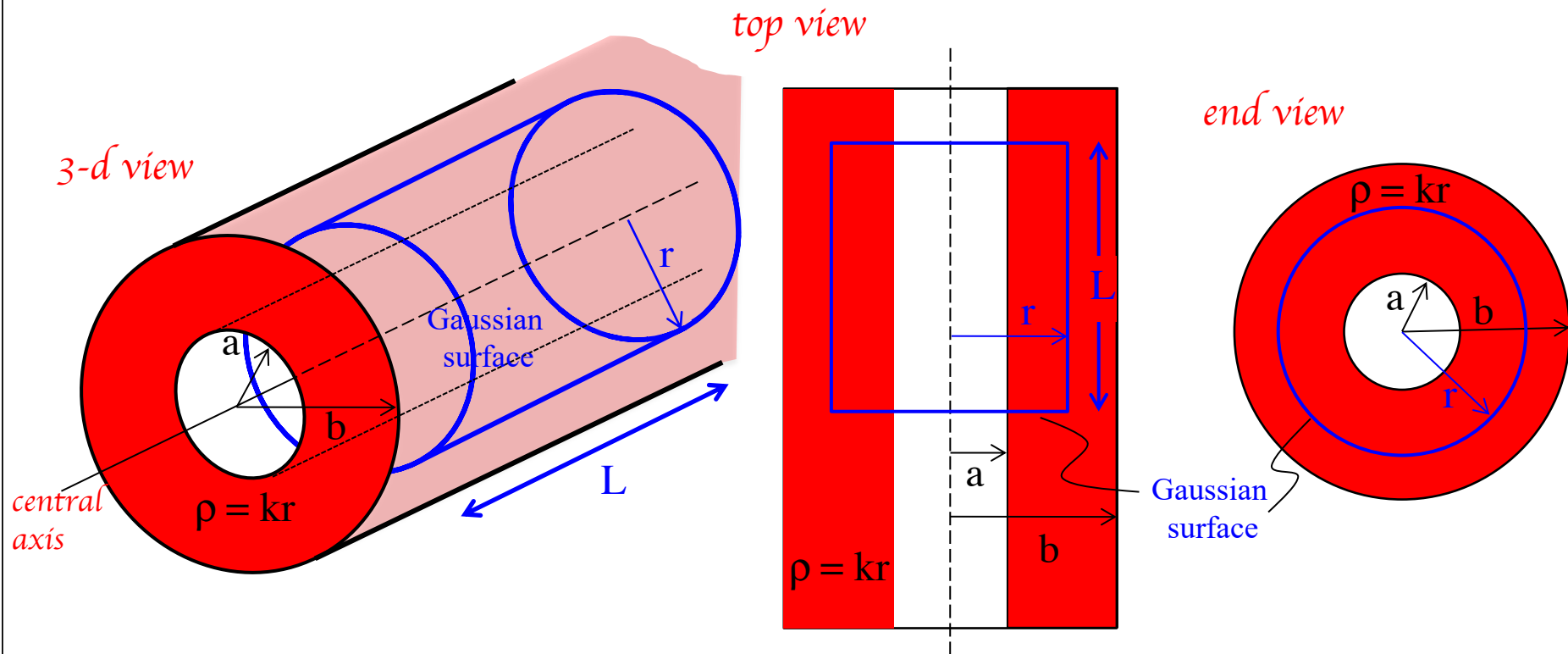
$$\Rightarrow E(2\pi r L) = \frac{\lambda L}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi \epsilon_0 r}$$

*Example 9:* A cylinder of inside radius  $a$  and outside radius  $b$  has a volume charge density that varies as  $r$  (i.e.,  $\rho = kr$ , where  $k$  is a constant).

a.) Derive the electric field function for  $a < r < b$ :

The set-up is shown below:



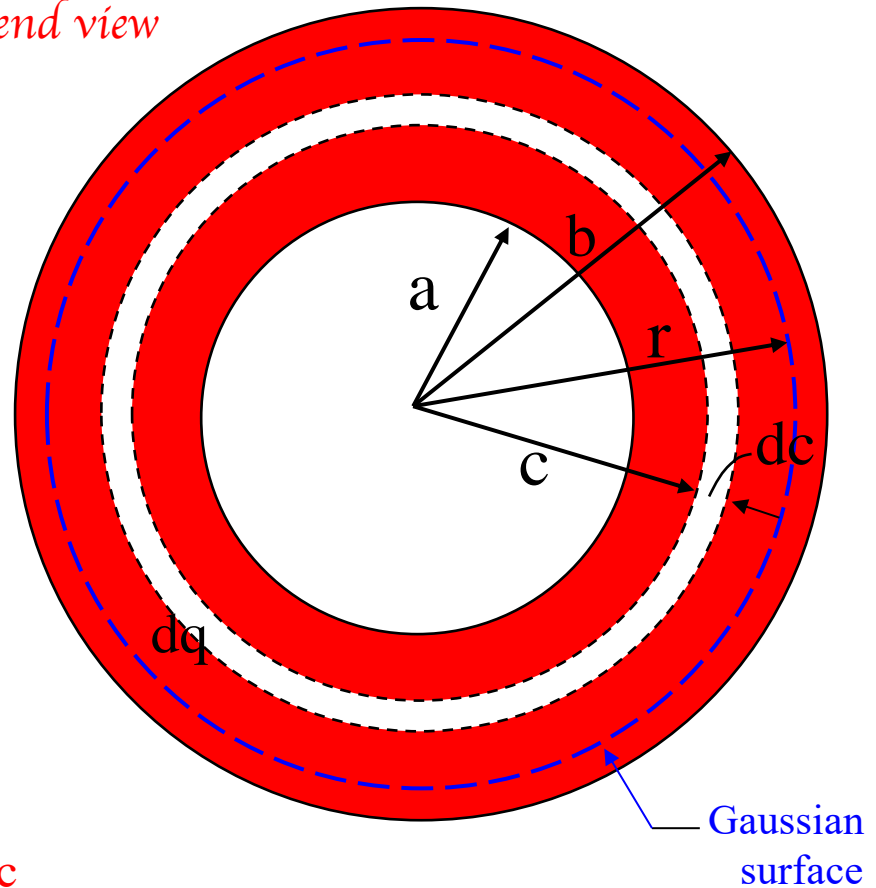
We need the total charge inside a Gaussian cylinder, but as the density varies, we need to determine the charge in a *differentially thin cylindrical shell* inside the Gaussian surface, then integrate over all the shells.

The differential volume of a *differentially thin cylindrical shell* of radius  $c$  is the circumference of the shell ( $2\pi c$ ) times the differential thickness of the shell  $dc$  times the length of the Gaussian cylinder  $L$ . That is:  $dV = (2\pi cL)dc$

Knowing that  $dq = \rho dV$ , we can write  $dq$  evaluated at  $c$  as:

$$\begin{aligned} dq &= \rho dV \\ &= (kc) [(2\pi cL)dc] \end{aligned}$$

end view



With that, Gauss's Law becomes:

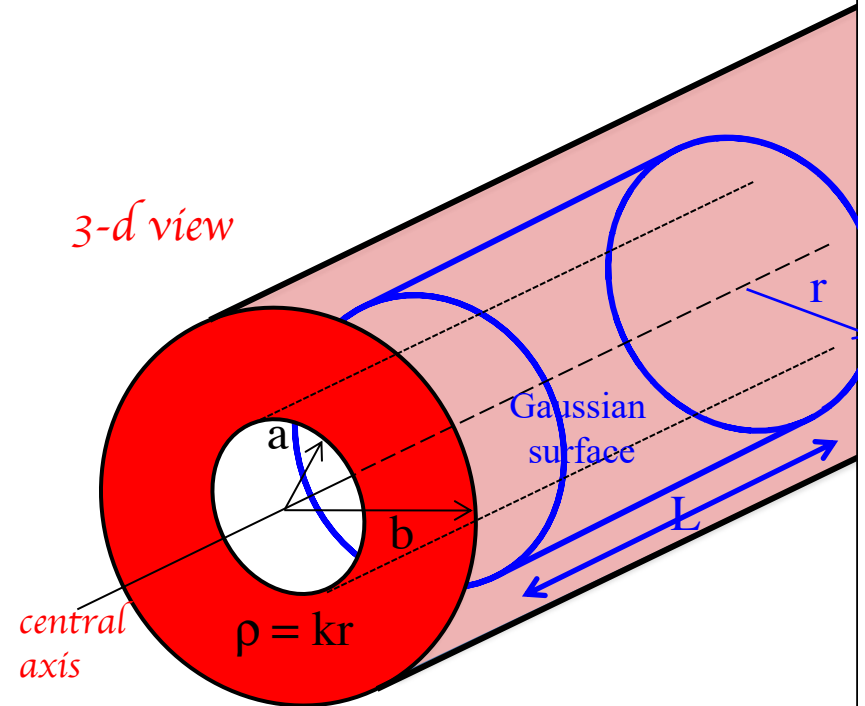
$$\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{\int_{c=a}^r \rho dV}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E(2\pi rL) = \frac{\int_{c=a}^r (kc) [(2\pi cL) dc]}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{\cancel{2\pi kL}}{\cancel{2\pi \epsilon_0 rL}} \int_{c=a}^r c^2 dc$$

$$= \frac{k}{\epsilon_0 r} \left( \frac{c^3}{3} \right) \Big|_{c=a}^r$$

$$= \frac{k}{3\epsilon_0 r} (r^3 - a^3)$$



b.) Derive an electric field for  $r < a$ : (It's zero as no charge inside Gaussian surface.)

c.) Derive an electric field for  $r > b$ :

Same problem as Part a exception of the limits of the integration are different (you are now adding up ALL the charge inside the cylinder, so the limits go from  $c = a$  to  $c = b$  instead of  $c = a$  to  $c = \text{the Gaussian radius } r$ .)



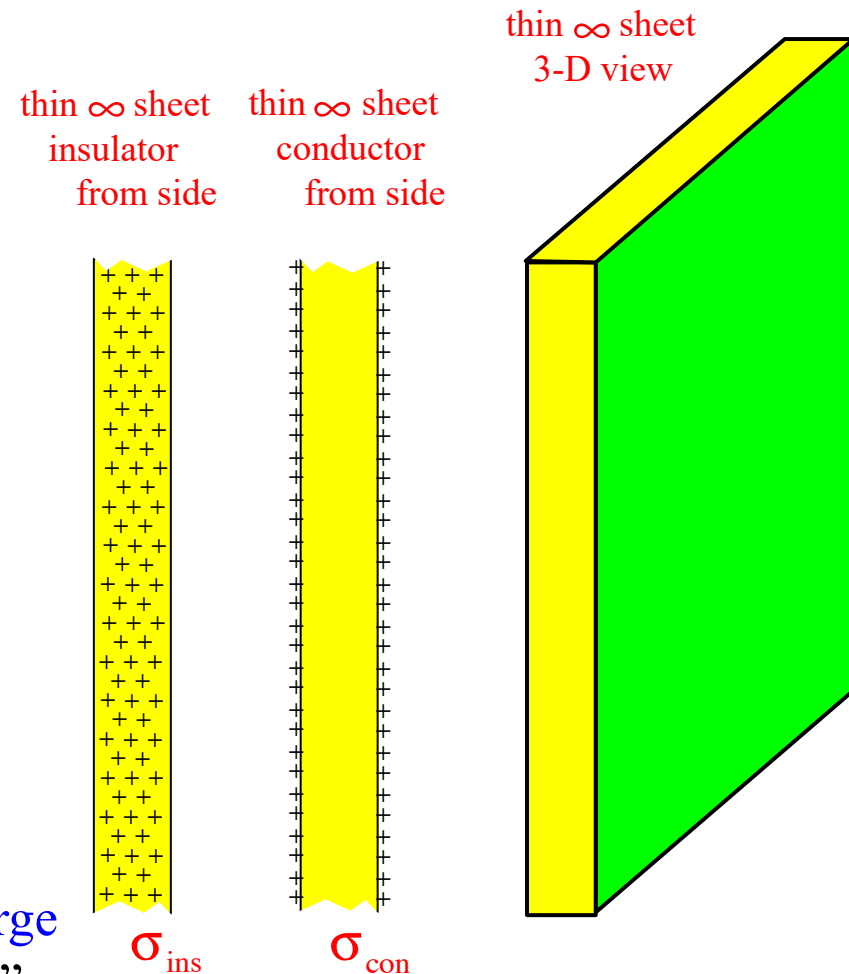
# Flat Sheets of Charge and Gauss's Law

There is a subtlety we need to look at before we can make sense out of sheets of charge.

--An *insulator* typically has free charge infused throughout its volume. For *insulators*, an *area charge density function*  $\sigma_{\text{ins}}$  say, "Multiply me by a surface area and you get how much charge is *behind that surface* shot through the structure."

--A *conductor* has charge on its surface with **NO free charge in its interior**. For *conductors*, an *area charge density function*  $\sigma_{\text{con}}$  say, "Multiply me by a surface area and you get how much charge is *on the surface* of the area in question."

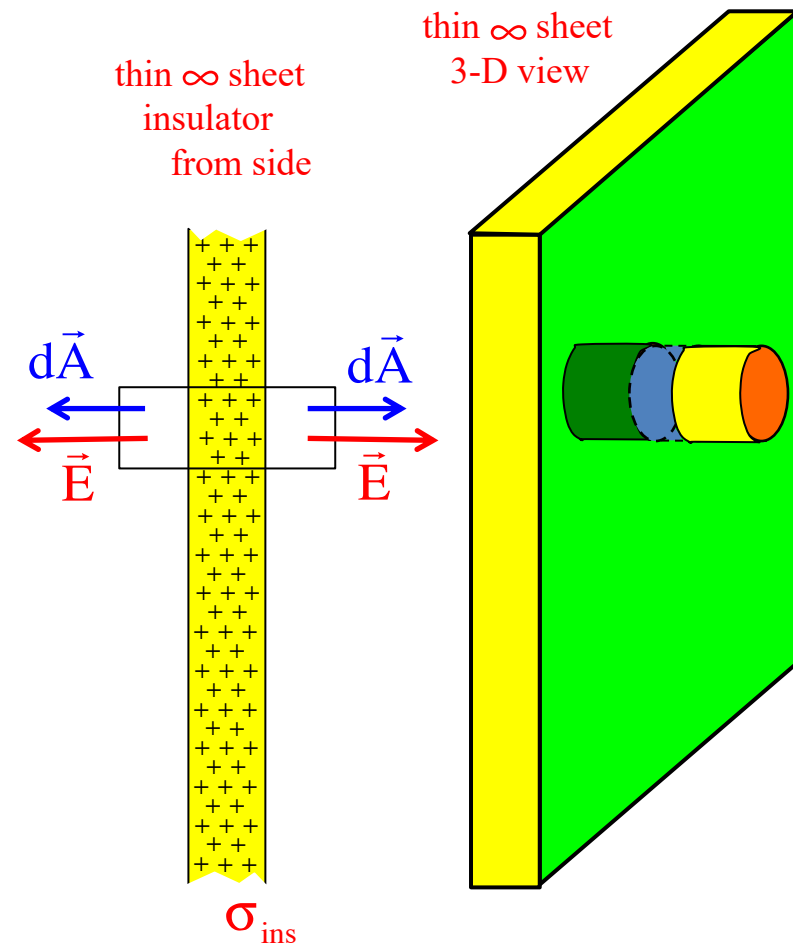
*These are two very different critters!*



*With that in mind:*

*Example 10:* Derive an expression for the *electric field function* for an “infinite” sheet of insulating material whose **area charge density** is a constant  $\sigma_{\text{ins}}$ .

*We need a* Gaussian surface whose faces either yield *zero flux* or a *flux* whose *electric field evaluation* is a **constant**. It turns out that **a plug** whose end-faces are **symmetrically placed on either side of the slab** will do the job. The **flux** through the **curved section** will be **zero** as  $E$  and  $dA$  will be at right-angles with one another, and with  $dA$  defined as **outward** on **both outside faces**,  $E$  will both have the same evaluation and will provide the **same dot product**. That is:



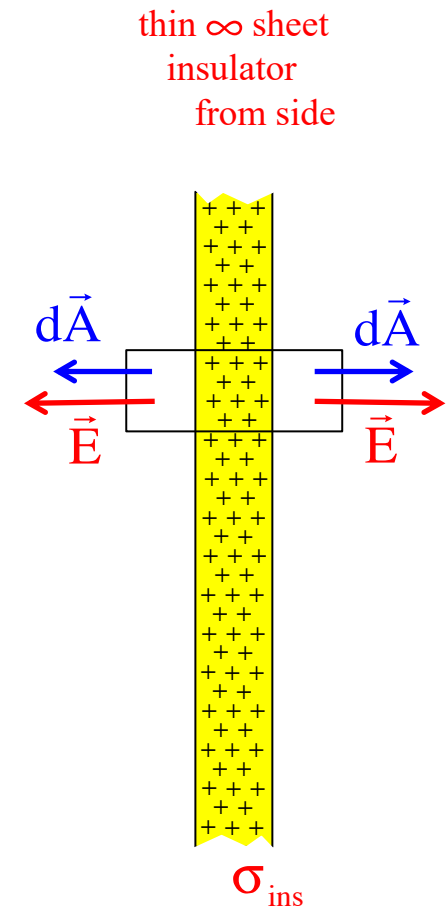
$$\int_{\text{curve}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{curve}} + 2 \int_{\text{end}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{end}} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\text{curve}} (E) dA_{\text{curve}} \cos 90^\circ + 2 \int_{\text{end}} (E) dA_{\text{end}} \cos 0^\circ = \frac{\sigma_{\text{ins}} A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2E \int_{\text{end}} dA_{\text{end}} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{ins}} A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2EA_{\text{end}} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{ins}} A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{\sigma_{\text{ins}}}{2\epsilon_0}$$



*Example 11:* Derive an expression for the *electric field function* for an “infinite” sheet of *conducting material* whose *area charge density* is a constant  $\sigma_{\text{con}}$ .

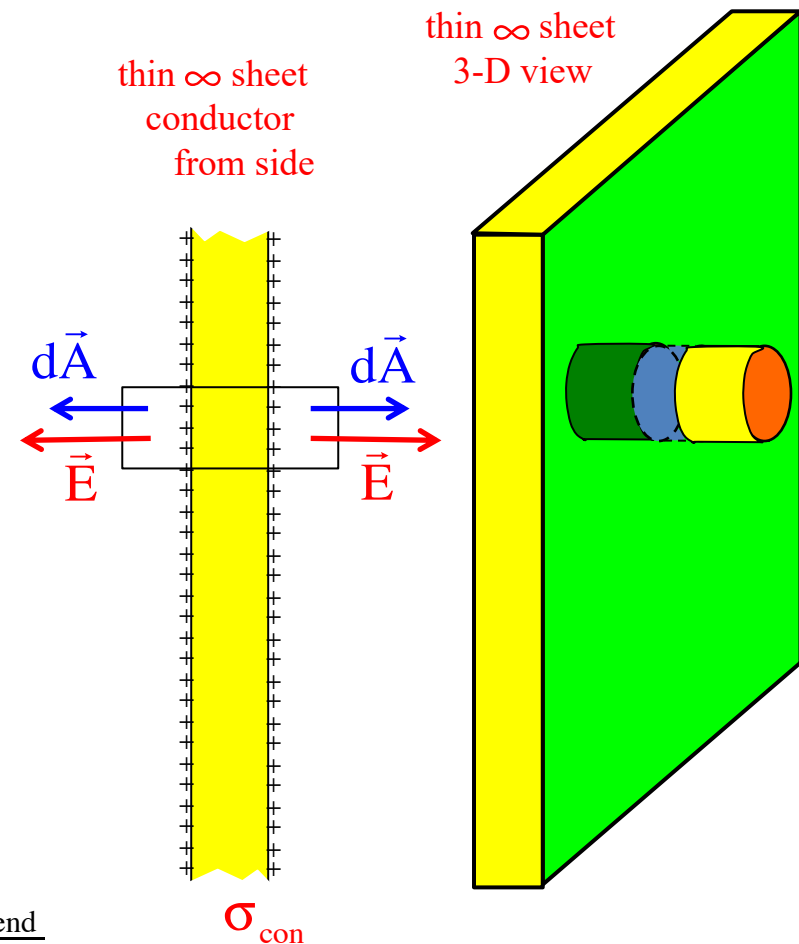
*Here is where* the *difference in the charge configurations* comes into play. We could use the *same plug* we used with the insulator, but there would be *two surfaces upon which there was charge placed*, each of which would have a charge density of  $\sigma_{\text{con}}$ . That means:

$$\int_{\text{curve}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{curve}} + 2 \int_{\text{end}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{end}} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2E \int_{\text{end}} dA_{\text{end}} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{con}} A_{\text{end}} + \sigma_{\text{con}} A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2EA_{\text{end}} = \frac{2\sigma_{\text{con}} A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{\sigma_{\text{con}}}{\epsilon_0}$$



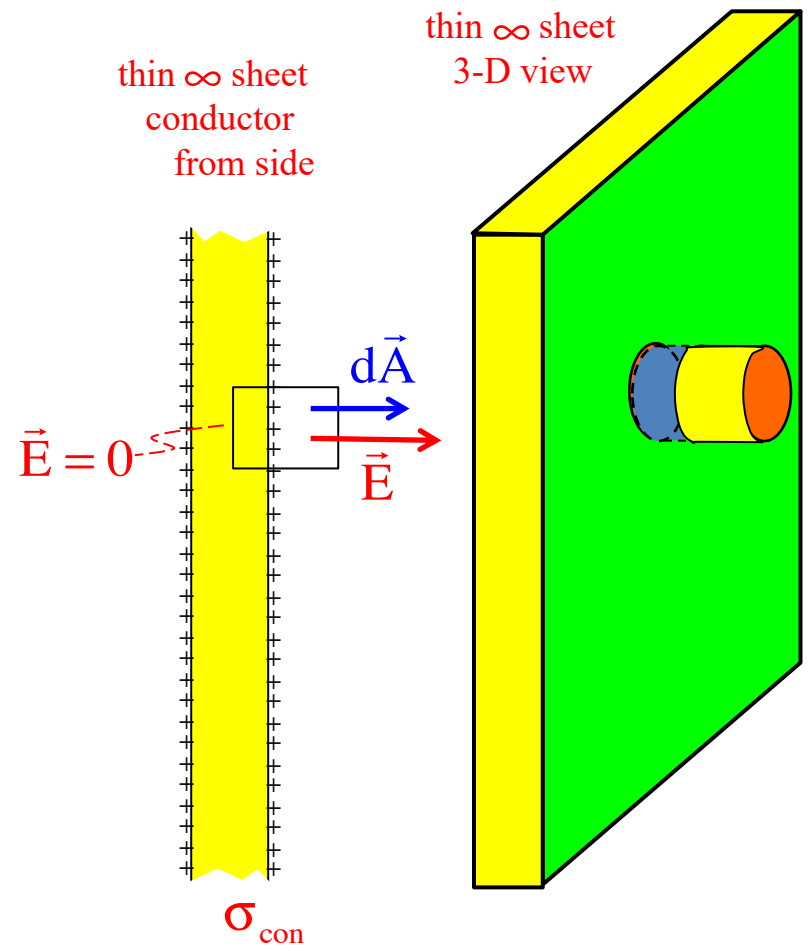
*As a side point,* another possibility would be to utilize the fact that *inside the conductor*, the **electric field is zero**. That means the Gaussian surface *could* have looked like:  
*and:*

$$\int_{\text{curve}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{curve}} + \int_{\text{end}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\text{end}} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \int_{\text{end}} dA_{\text{end}} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{con}} A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E A_{\text{end}} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{con}} A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{\sigma_{\text{con}}}{\epsilon_0}$$



*Same result either way!*

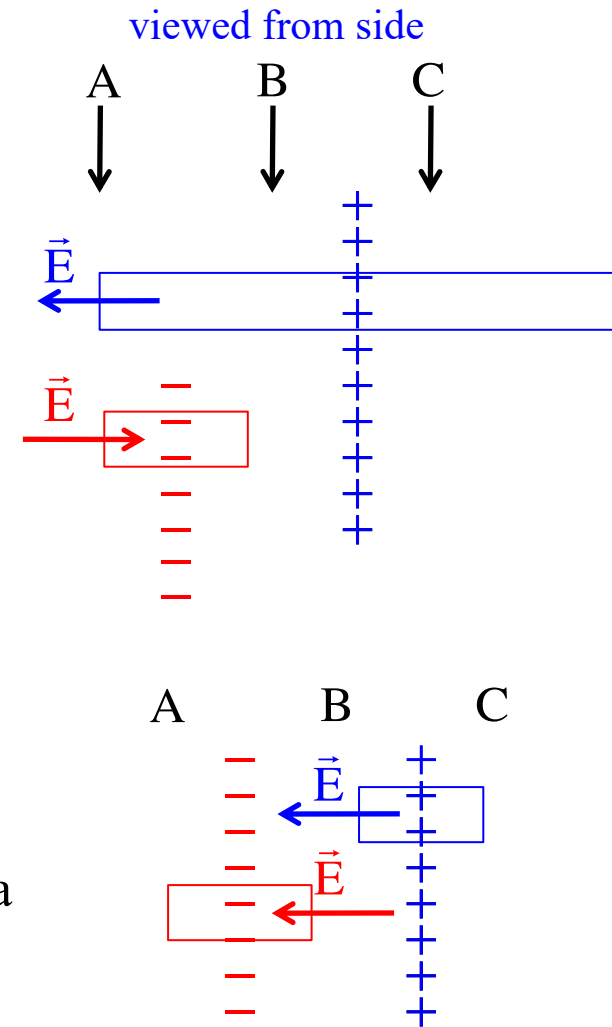
# Parallel Sheets of Charge

**Example 12:** Two infinite, parallel sheets of opposite charge sit side by side and have a charge density of  $\sigma$  on each. What is the electric field intensity on either side, and in-between the configurations?

The Gaussian surfaces for both the positive and negative charge configuration is shown for region A. Each is identical to the configuration associated with an insulator. As such, each electric field magnitude will be equal to  $\sigma/2\epsilon_0$ . As the fields will be in opposite directions, though, they will add to zero. The same will be true in region C.

Between the sheets in region B, the fields are in the same direction with the same magnitude, so we have a net field of

$$2\left(\frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}\right) = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$



# Parallel Plates and a Bit of Trickery

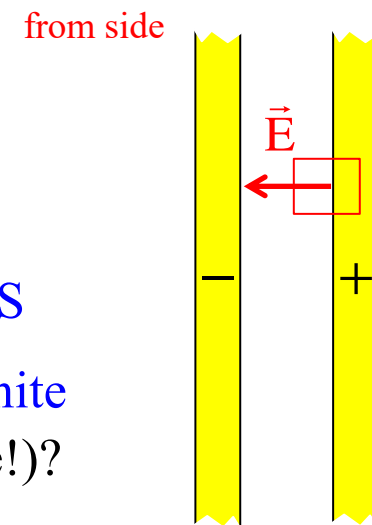
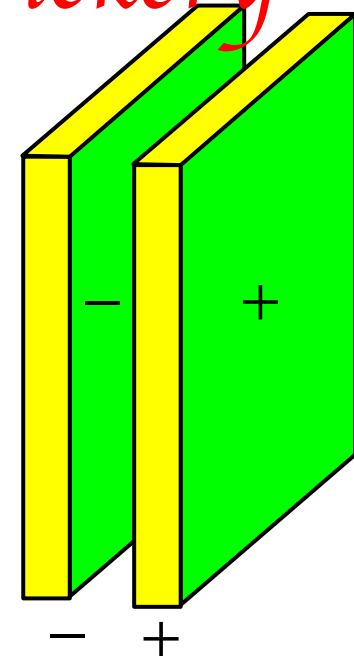
*Example 13:* Two infinite *conducting plates* with equal but opposite *charge densities*  $\sigma$  on them sit side by side.

What is the *electric field intensity* between the plates?

*Assuming the plates are very close together* (in comparison to their plate area), we can *approximate them as infinite conducting sheets*. If we do that, *Gauss's Law* yields:

$$\begin{aligned} E \int_{\text{end}} dA_{\text{end}} &= \frac{\sigma A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow EA_{\text{end}} &= \frac{\sigma A_{\text{end}}}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow E &= \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \end{aligned}$$

*But an intrepid observer* will undoubtedly notice that **THIS IS THE SAME FUNCTION** we got for a **SINGLE** infinite sheet . . . so *how can that be* ('cause there's two sheets here!)?

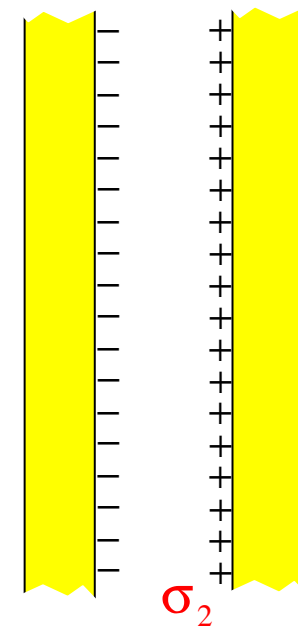
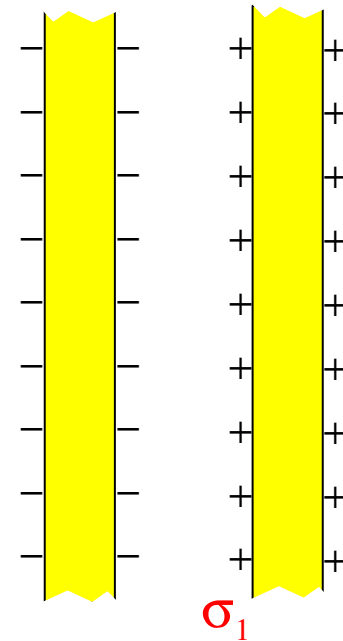


*The trickiness is, again, in the definition of  $\sigma$ .*

*If you start* with a sheet that has **charge density  $\sigma_1$**  on it, then **bring a similar but oppositely charged plate in** parallel to it, what's going to happen to the original plate?

*Electrons in the original plate* will migrate away from the negative charge on the encroaching plate, leaving the original plate's **inside surface MORE ELECTRICALLY POSITIVE** than it had been (and as that happens, **more negative charge will be drawn to the inside surface of the encroaching plate keeping the charge distributions equal and opposite**). In other words, its *plate charge density* will have changed to a new value  $\sigma_2$ .

*In other words, Gauss's Law* will still work, but the **charge density function will be altered** from the original situation.

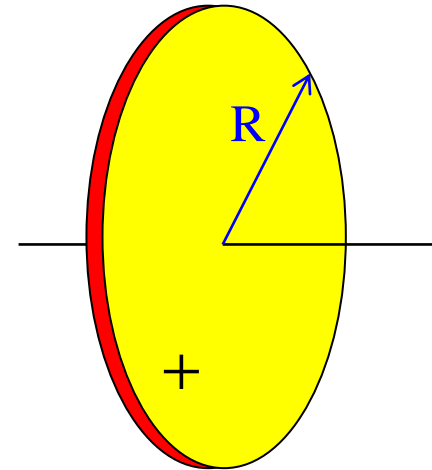




# A Disk

*Example 14:* Can you use Gauss's Law to determine the *electric field function* for a **flat, finite, positively charged disk**?

*Technically, there is no Gaussian surface* that will accommodate the symmetry (or lack of symmetry) associated with a disk. However, you could **use a plug** and the technique used with the **infinite sheet of charge** as long as your **point of interest was close to the central axis** and  $r$  was **small in comparison to the radius  $R$**  of the disk.

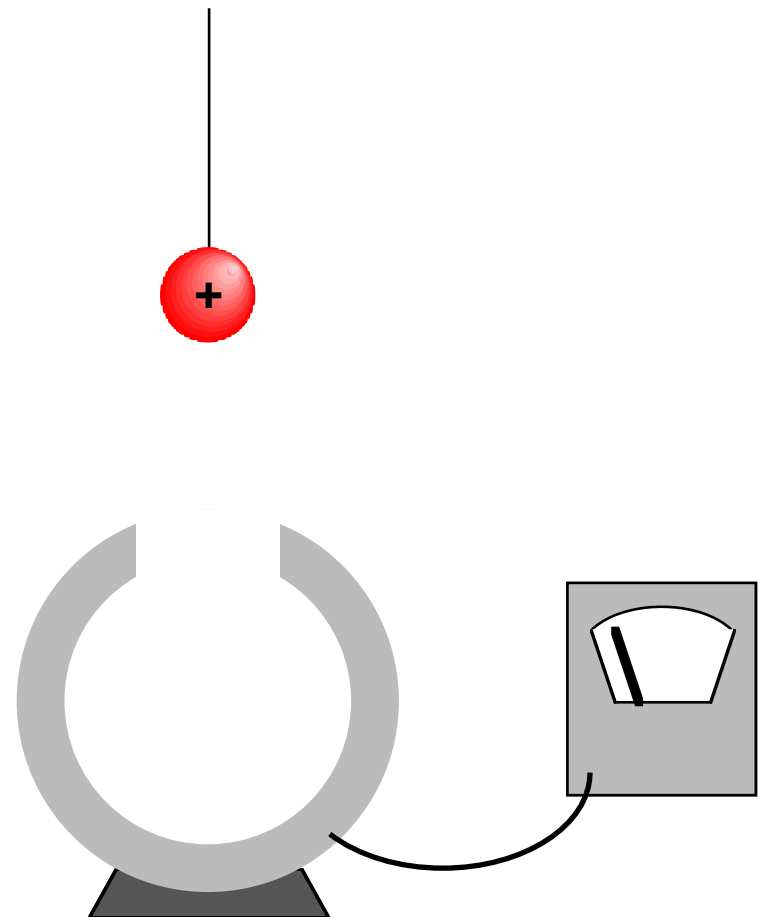


# Example 15

Physlet E.24.3

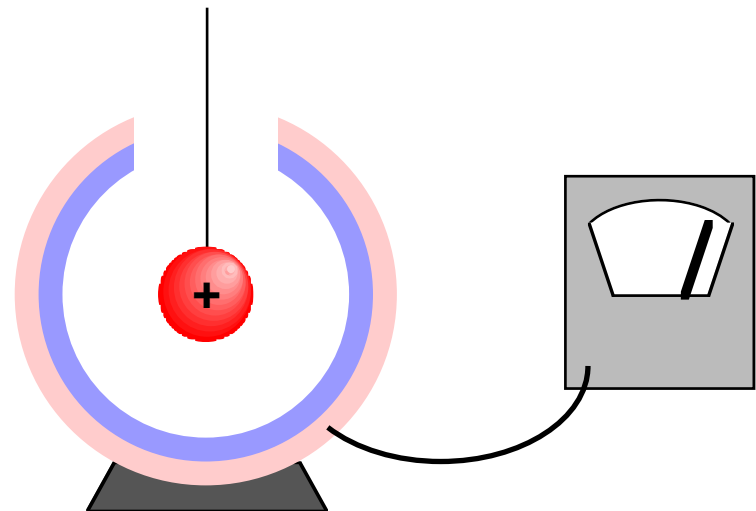
# Example 16 - Faraday's Ice Pail Experiment

Courtesy of Mr. White:



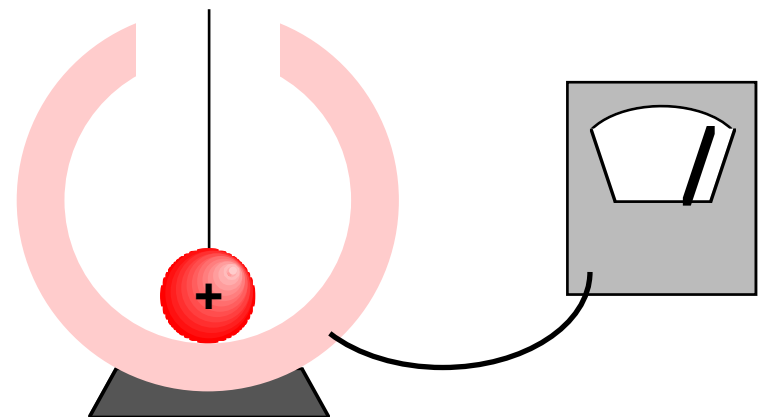
# Example 16 - Faraday's Ice Pail Experiment

Courtesy of Mr. White:



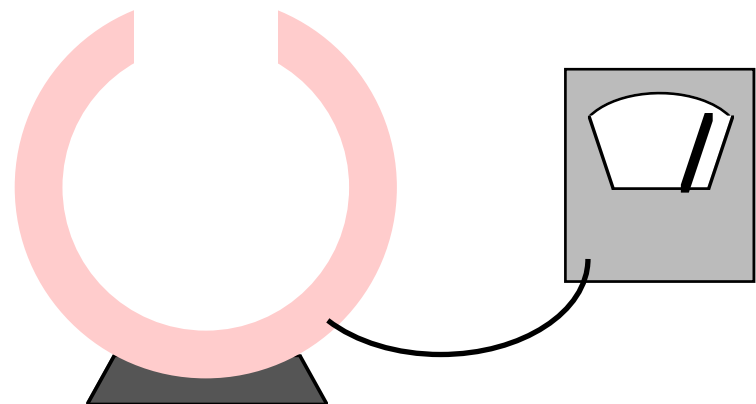
# Example 16 - Faraday's Ice Pail Experiment

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