

# CHAPTER 25:

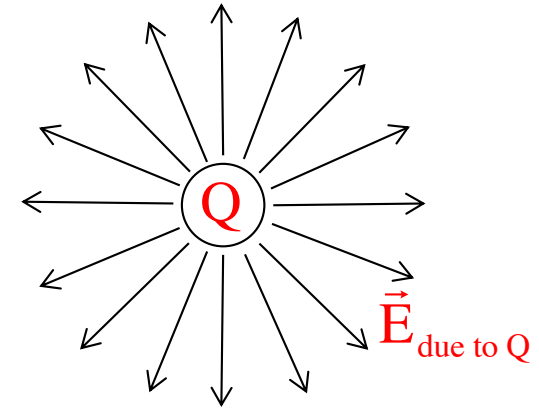
## *Electric Potentials and Energy Considerations*



courtesy of  
Mr. White

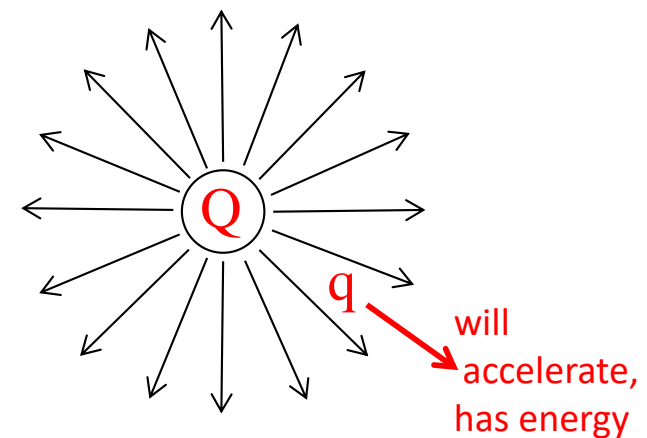
# Electric Potential Fields

*You should now* be comfortable with the idea that a *charge configuration* will produce an *electrical disturbance* in its vicinity, and that *knowing* how much *force per unit charge* is provided to the region around the *field-producing charge* (whether there be a *secondary charge* is in the region *experiencing* the force or not) in the form of an *electric field* is a *useful idea* to entertain.



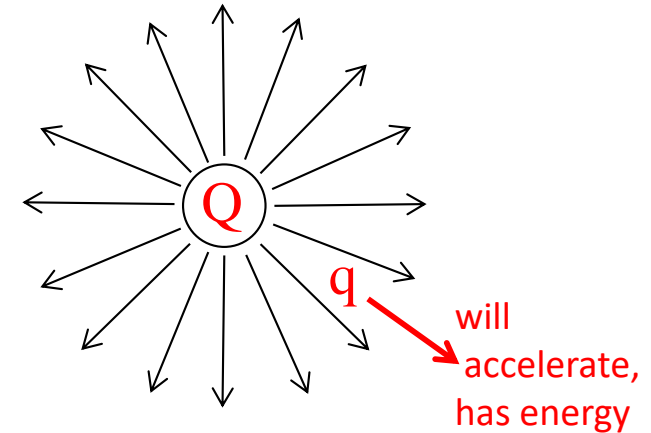
*It's time* to consider another related field, one associated with *energy*.

*If we release* a test charge *q* (or *any* charge, for that matter) in the *electrical disturbance* generated by our *field-producing charge*, the test charge **WILL ACCELERATE**.



*Why* will the test charge accelerate?

Because there is *POTENTIAL ENERGY* available to the test charge as it sits in the field.



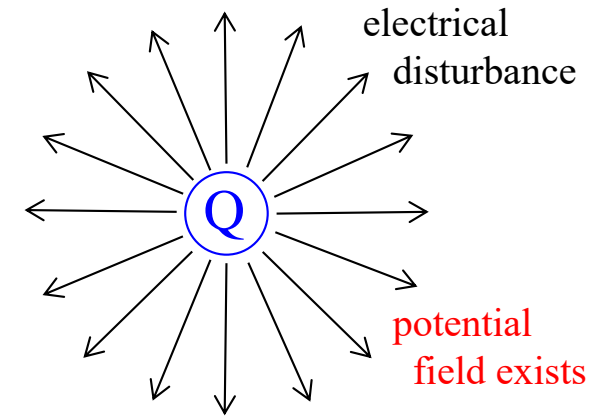
*We could* measure the amount of potential energy the test charge has, but that would be quite limiting (the information would be applicable only to that particular test charge).

*The clever thing to do* would be to mimic what we did with *electric fields*. We could measure the test charge's *potential energy* while in the field at a particular point, then divide by the size of the test charge to determine how much *POTENTIAL ENERGY PER UNIT CHARGE* is *AVAILABLE* at the point (whether the test charge is there to feel the effect or not).

*This quantity*, with units of *joules per coulomb* (or *volts*), is called the *ABSOLUTE ELECTRIC POTENTIAL* at the point of interest.

# An *ELECTRIC POTENTIAL*

*FIELD*, measuring the amount of *potential energy per unit charge AVAILABLE* at all points in the region of a *field-producing charge*, can be (and is) associated with *any charge configuration*.



An *ELECTRIC POTENTIAL FIELD* exists *wherever there is charge* (and, for that matter, *wherever there is an electric field*). For the potential fields to exist, there *doesn't need to be present a secondary charge to feel the effect*. And because *voltage-flds* tell us how much *energy is available PER UNIT CHARGE* at a point, the *electric potential field V* is defined as:

$$V = U/q$$

*Important note:* As an *absolute electric potential* is a function of the charge *q* that generates the field, a *negative charge* will produce a **NEGATIVE absolute electric potential** and a *positive charge* will produce a **POSITIVE absolute electric potential!**

*Example 1:* How much *potential energy* does a **2 C charge** have at a point where the *absolute electric potential* is  **$V_1 = 3$  joules/coulomb** ?

$$V_1 = \frac{U_1}{q} \Rightarrow U_1 = qV_1 \\ = (2 \text{ C})(3 \text{ J/C}) = \mathbf{6 \text{ J}}$$

*Example 2:* How much *potential energy* does a **-2 C charge** have at a point where the *absolute electric potential* is  **$V_1 = 3$  joules/coulomb** ?

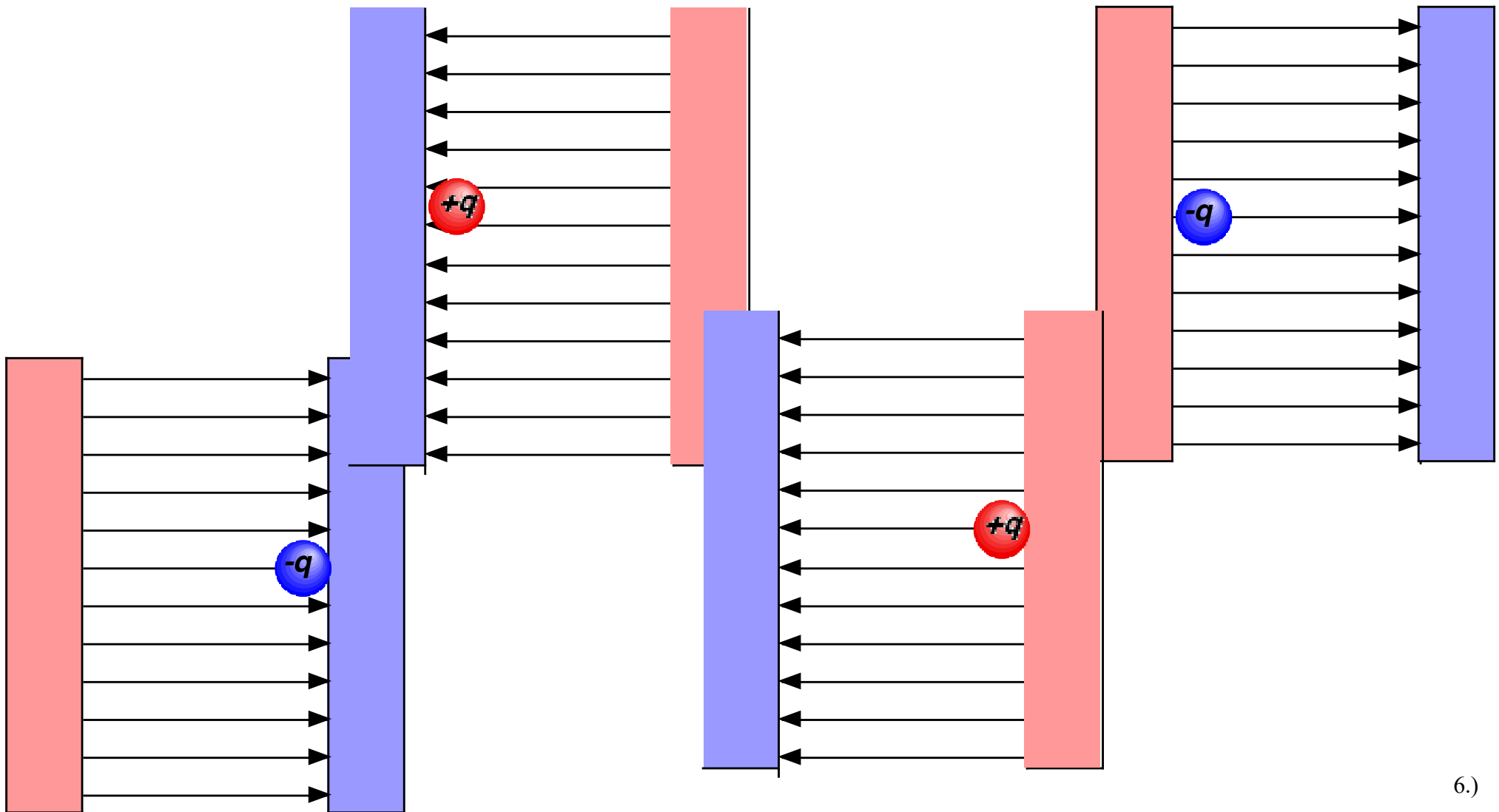
$$V_1 = \frac{U_1}{q} \\ \Rightarrow U_1 = qV_1 \\ = (-2 \text{ C})(3 \text{ J/C}) \\ = \mathbf{-6 \text{ J}}$$

*Example 3:* How much *potential energy* does a **-2 C charge** have at a point where the *absolute electric potential* is  **$V_1 = -3$  joules/coulomb** ?

$$V_1 = \frac{U_1}{q} \\ \Rightarrow U_1 = qV_1 \\ = (-2 \text{ C})(-3 \text{ J/C}) \\ = \mathbf{6 \text{ J}}$$

*Example 4* (courtesy of Mr. White)

Is the electric charge in each of these situations in a position of *high*  $U_e$  or *low*  $U_e$ ?



# Work and Electric-Potential (Voltage) Fields

**Note:** An *absolute electric potential field* is a *modified potential energy field*.

*Everything* you can do with *energy considerations*, you can do with *electric potential functions*:

*Just as* the *work done* on a *body moving* from one point to another in a *conservative force field* equals  $W = -\Delta U$ , we can use the *definition of absolute electric potential* to write:

$$W = -\Delta U = -q\Delta V$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{W}{q} = -\Delta V$$

and

*Apparently*, if you know the *voltage difference* between two points, you know how much *work per unit charge* AND *potential energy per unit charge* the field has available between the two points.

$$W = -\Delta U = -q\Delta V$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta U}{q} = \Delta V$$

**Example 5:** How much *work* does a field do on a moving *2 C charge* if the *potential difference* between its *beginning* and *end points* is *7 volts*?

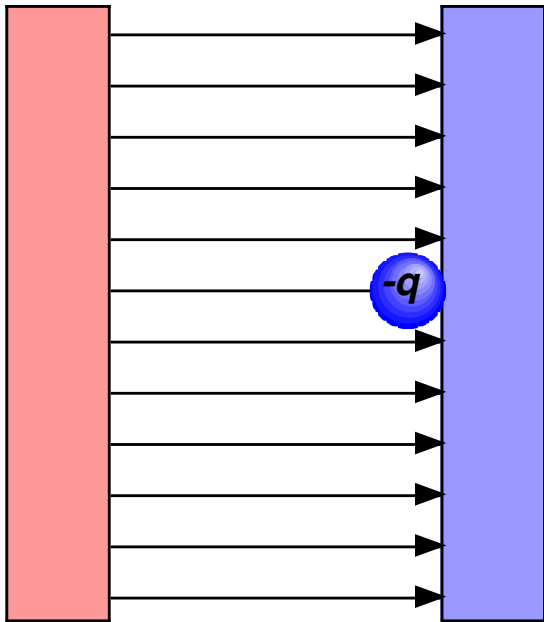
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{W}{q} = -\Delta V &\Rightarrow W = -q\Delta V \\ &= -(2 \text{ C})(7 \text{ J/C}) = -14 \text{ J} \end{aligned}$$

## Example 6: (courtesy of Mr. White)

An electron ( $e^-$ ) in a TV picture tube is accelerated from rest through a potential difference of 5000 V.

a.) *What is* the change in the  $U$  of the electron?

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta U &= q\Delta V = q(V_2 - V_1) \\ &= (-1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(5000 \text{ V} - 0) \\ &= -8 \times 10^{-16} \text{ J} \quad (= -5000 \text{ eV})^*\end{aligned}$$



b.) *What is* the final speed of the electron?

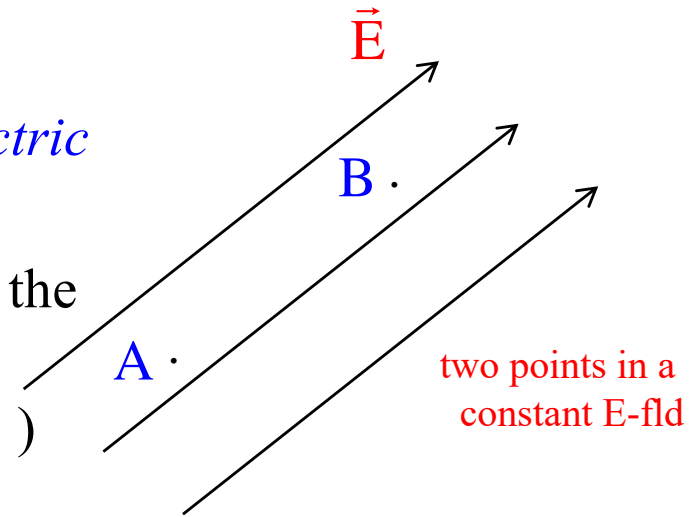
$$\begin{aligned}-\Delta U &= \Delta K \\ -(-8 \times 10^{-16} \text{ J}) &= \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \\ \Rightarrow v &= \sqrt{\frac{2(8 \times 10^{-16})}{9.11 \times 10^{-31}}} = 4.2 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s}\end{aligned}$$

*\*Fletch's note:* An **electron-volt (eV)** is defined as the **amount of energy** an **electron** picks up when accelerated through a **1 volt electrical potential difference**.



# Electric Potential Difference and E-flds

Assuming we are dealing with a *constant electric field* and a *straight-line path* between two points in the field, we can use the *definition of work* ( $W = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{d}$ ) with the manipulated *definition of the electric field* ( $\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$ ) to extend out *potential difference relationship* ( $\frac{W}{q} = -\Delta V$ ) into a very interesting proposition. Specifically:

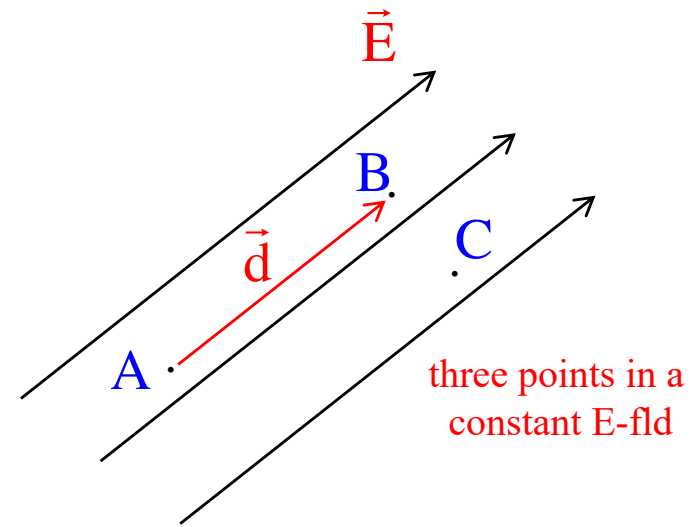


$$\begin{aligned} \frac{W_{AB}}{q} = -\Delta V_{AB} &\Rightarrow \frac{\vec{F} \cdot \vec{d}_{AB}}{q} = -\Delta V_{AB} \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{q\vec{E} \cdot \vec{d}_{AB}}{q} = -\Delta V_{AB} \\ &\Rightarrow \vec{E} \cdot \vec{d}_{AB} = -\Delta V_{AB} \end{aligned}$$

And what might we glean from this bit of amusement?

# Observations

*Example 7:* Points A, B and C are identified in a constant *electric field* as shown in the sketch.



a.) Which point has the **GREATER absolute electric potential**? (That is, **do electric fields run from higher voltage to lower, or vice versa**?)

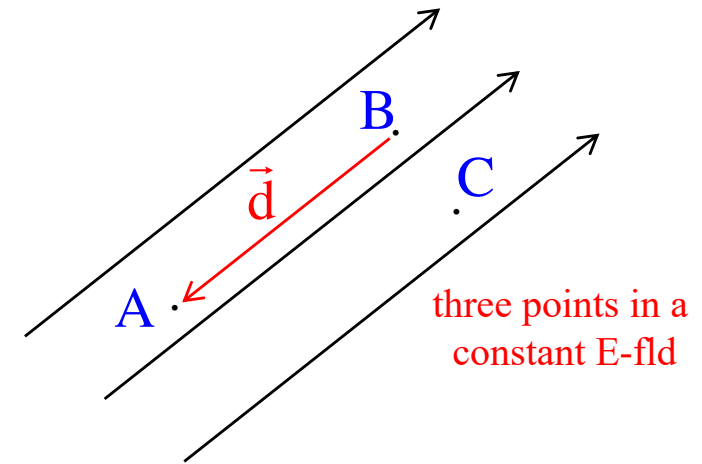
Traversing from A to B, so  $\vec{d}$  points along the line of  $\vec{E}$ , the *dot product* in our relationship falls out as:

$$\vec{E} \cdot \vec{d} = -\Delta V$$
$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}| |\vec{d}| \cos 0^\circ = -(V_B - V_A)$$

*By observation*, the **left-side** of the equation is **positive** (two magnitudes multiplied together), so the **right-side must also be positive**. For this to be true,  $V_A$  must be larger than  $V_B$ .

**IMPORTANT OBSERVATION:** This means that **ELECTRIC FIELDS** migrate from **HIGHER ELECTRIC POTENTIAL to LOWER**.

b.) Assume the *electric potential* at A is  $V_A = 11$  volts and the *electric potential* at B is  $V_B = 5$  volts. If the *distance* between the two points is 2 meters, derive an expression for the *magnitude* of the *electric field*.



*This time*, to point out how the angle works, we will *traverse from B to A*. Noticing that now the angle between  $\vec{d}$  and  $\vec{E}$  is  $180^\circ$ , we can write:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E} \cdot \vec{d} &= -\Delta V \\ \Rightarrow |\vec{E}| |\vec{d}| \cos 180^\circ &= -(V_A - V_B) \\ -|\vec{E}|(3\text{m}) &= -(11\text{v} - 5\text{v}) \\ \Rightarrow |\vec{E}| &= 2 \text{ V/m}\end{aligned}$$

**IMPORTANT SIDE POINT:** The *unit* for *ELECTRIC FIELDS* is *newtons per coulomb*, but it is *also*, apparently, *volts per meter*.

c.) A positive charge  $Q=1C$  and mass  $m=1\text{ kg}$  moves naturally along the  $E$ -fld lines.

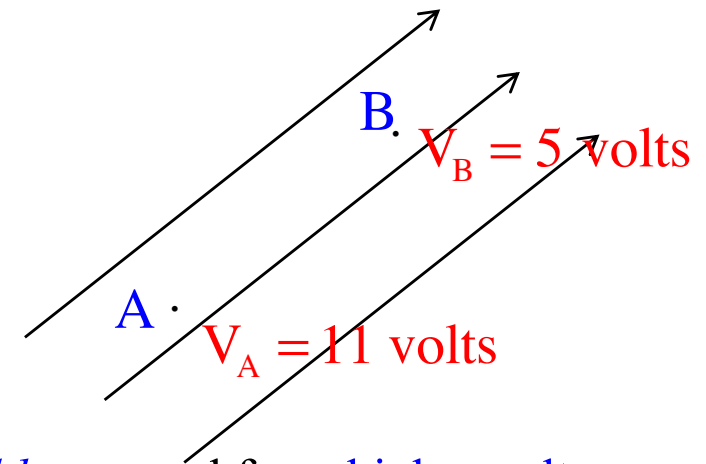
i.) Is the charge moving from *higher electrical potential to lower*, or *lower electric potential to higher*?

This has *nothing* to do with the charge. *Electric fields* proceed from *higher voltage to lower*, so it's doing the former.

ii.) Is the charge moving from *higher potential energy to lower*, or *lower potential energy to higher*?

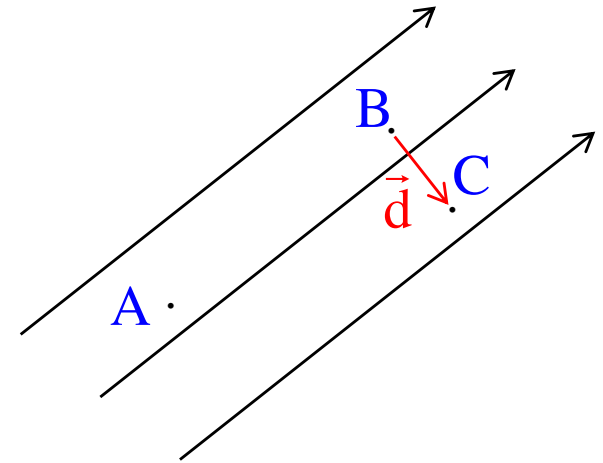
This has **EVERYTHING** to do with the charge. **POSITIVE CHARGES** naturally move from *higher to lower voltage along  $E$ -fld lines* (being by definition the direction a positive charge would naturally accelerate), so it is moving from *higher to lower potential energy*.

iii.) If  $Q$ 's initial velocity was  $3\text{ m/s}$  at **A**, what is its velocity at **B**? (Note that the voltages have been put on the sketch.)



$$\begin{aligned} \sum KE_1 + \sum U_1 + \sum W_{\text{ext}} &= \sum KE_2 + \sum U_2 \\ \frac{1}{2}mv_A^2 + (qV_A) + 0 &= \frac{1}{2}mv_B^2 + (qV_B) \\ \frac{1}{2}(1)(3)^2 + (1)(11) &= \frac{1}{2}(1)v_B^2 + (1)(5) \\ &\Rightarrow v_B = 4.58\text{ m/s} \end{aligned}$$

d.) Given the *electric potential* at B is  $V_B = 5$  volts and the *electric field*, as calculated in the previous part, is  $|\vec{E}| = 2$  V/m, what is the *voltage* (i.e., the *electric potential*) at C, assuming the *distance* between B and C is .5 meters?



*This is slightly tricky.* Define  $\vec{d}$  on your sketch as shown. Notice that the angle between  $\vec{d}$  and  $\vec{E}$  is  $90^\circ$ . With that, we write:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E} \cdot \vec{d} &= -\Delta V \\ \Rightarrow |\vec{E}| |\vec{d}| \cancel{\cos 90^\circ} &= -(V_C - V_B) \\ \Rightarrow 0 &= -(V_C - V_B) \\ \Rightarrow V_C &= V_B = 5 \text{ V/m}\end{aligned}$$

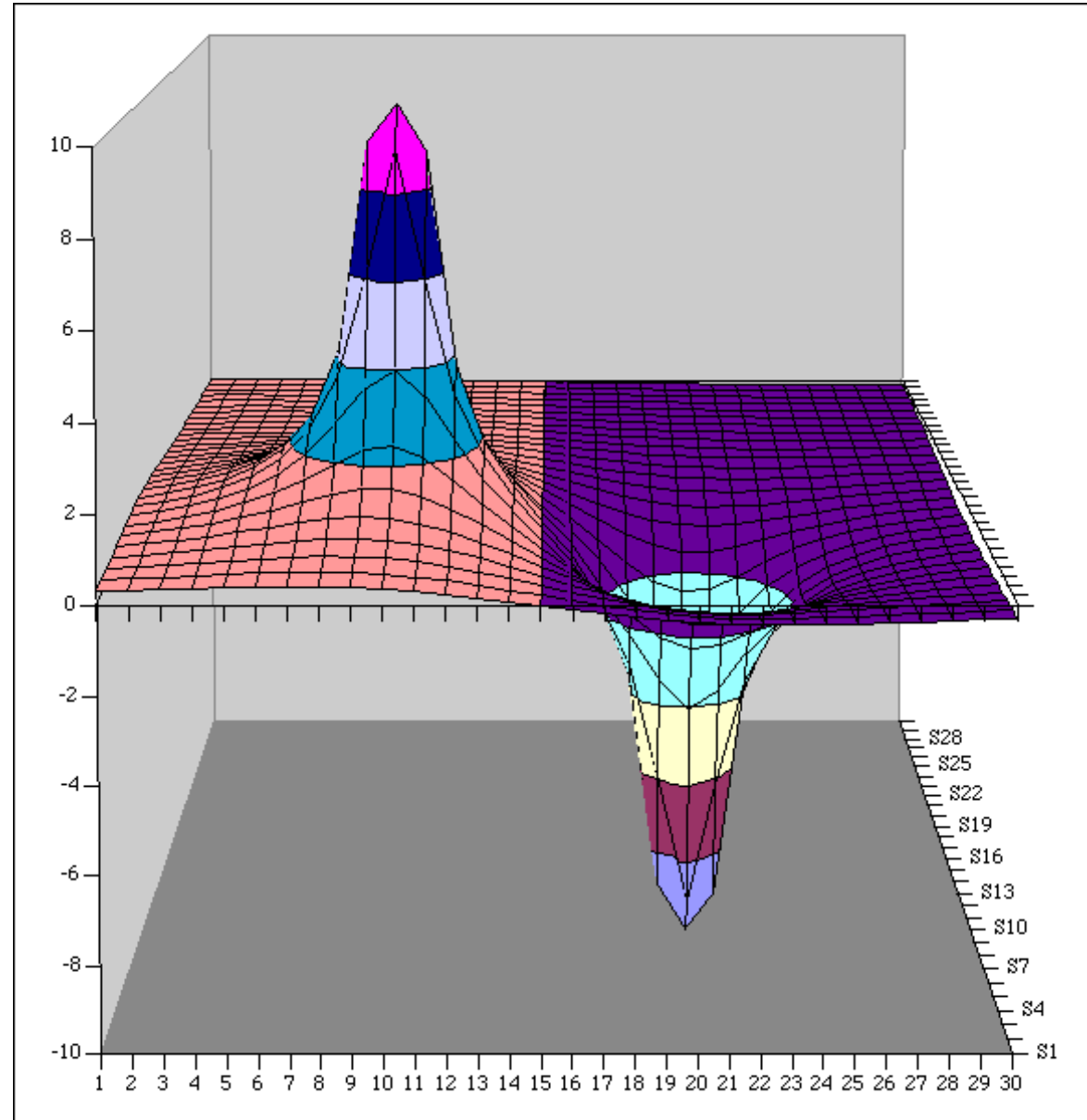
**IMPORTANT POINT:** An *EQUIPOTENTIAL LINE* is a line upon which every point has the same electrical potential. Points B and C are on the *5-volt equipotential line*.

**IMPORTANT POINT:** *Equipotential lines* are ALWAYS perpendicular to *electric field lines*.

# *Electric Potential contours* (courtesy of Mr.White)

What are the potentials of each of the charges shown here? What do these potential values represent?

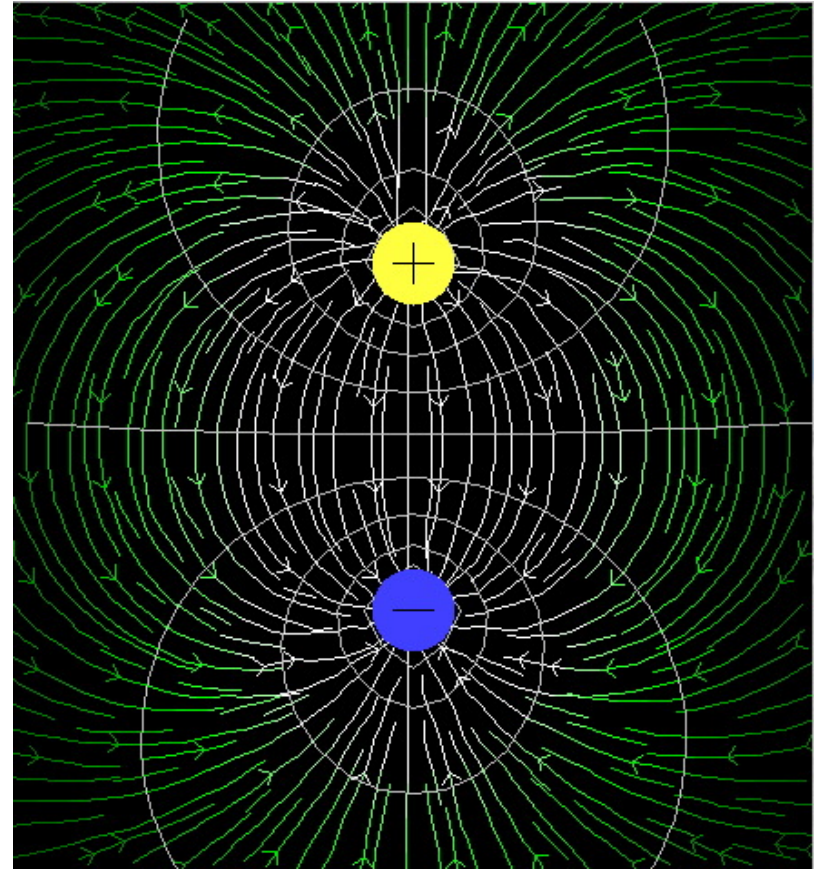
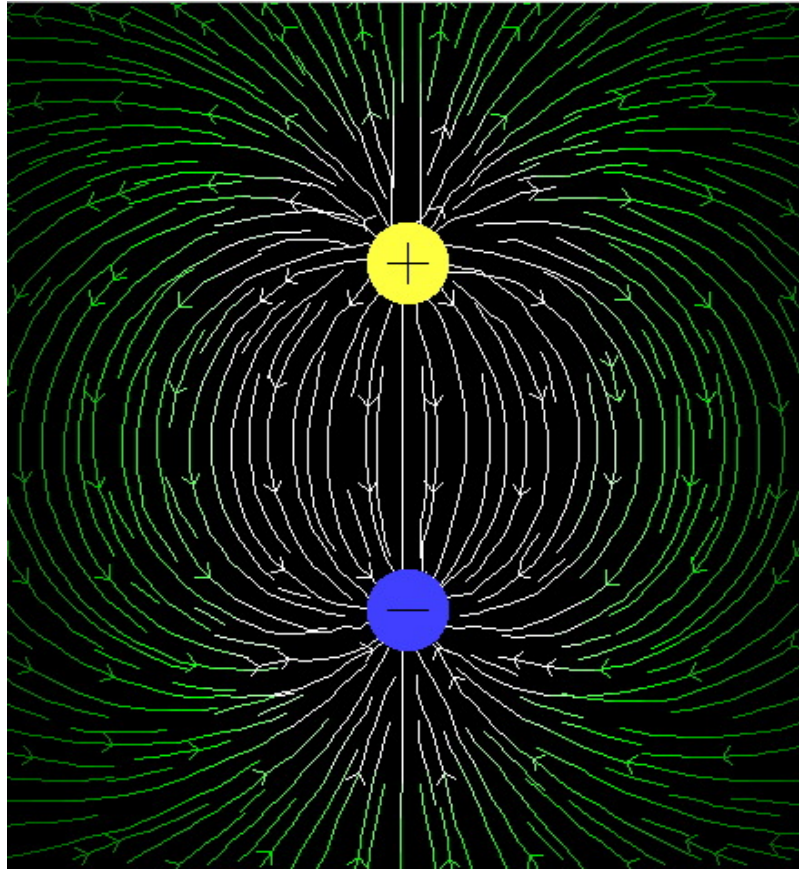
$$V_{net} = \sum_i k \frac{q_i}{r_i}$$



# Equipotential Lines

(courtesy of Mr. White)

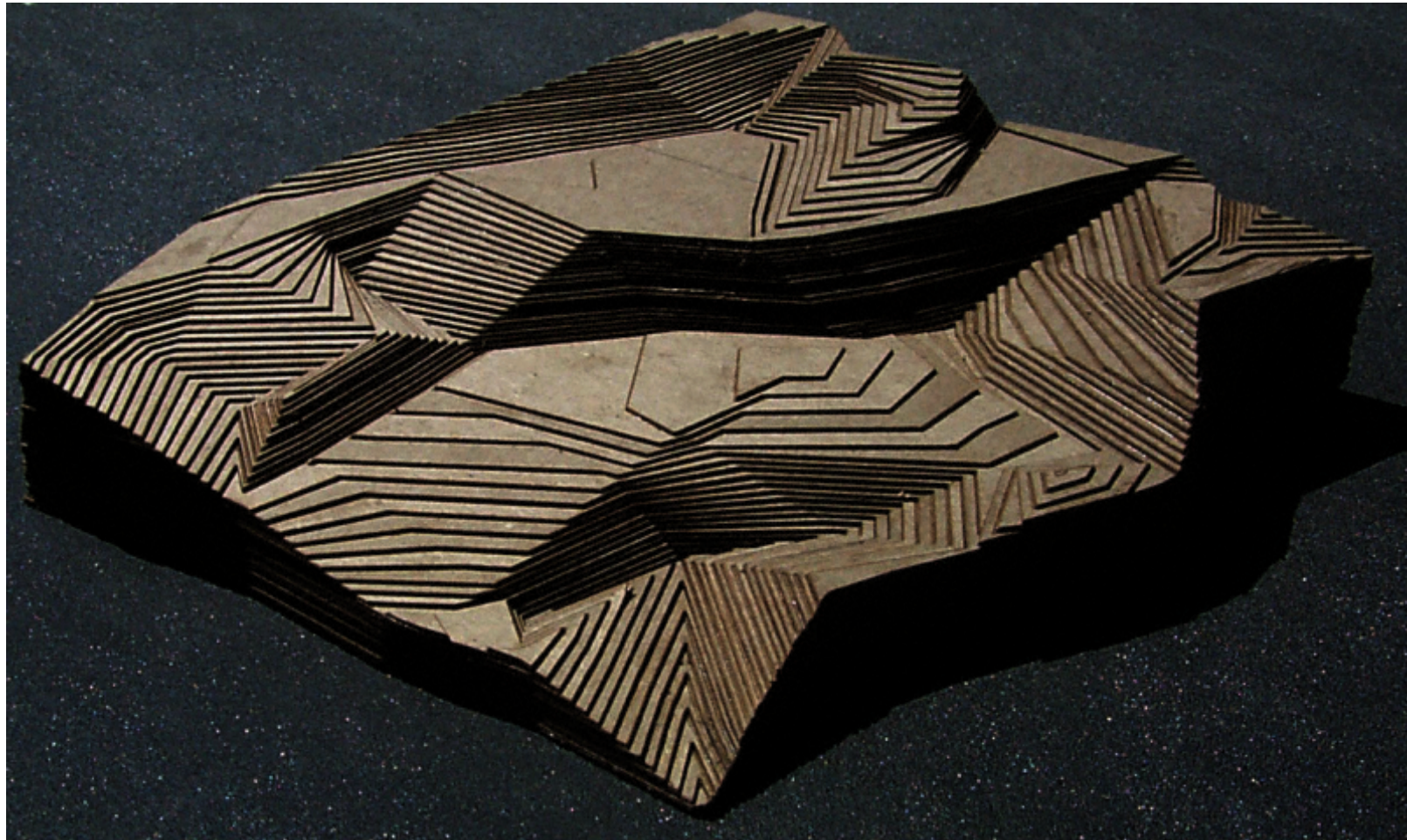
... are related to Electric Field lines. How?



# Equipotential Lines

(courtesy of Mr. White)

... can be visualized as a topographic map.

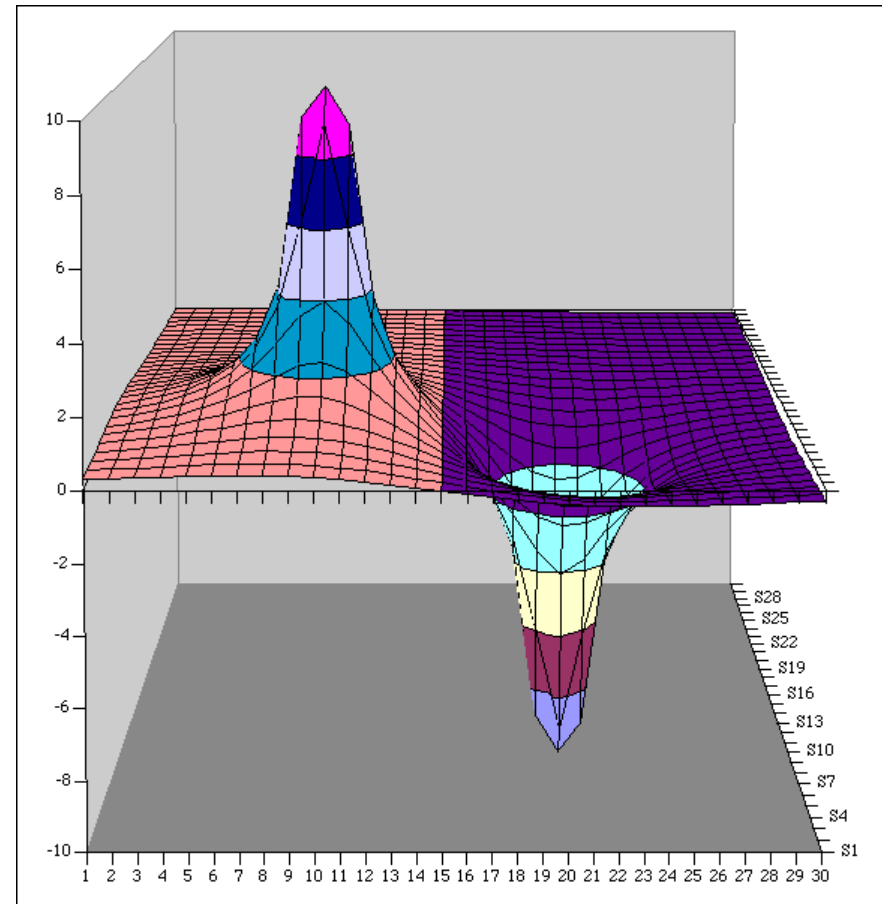
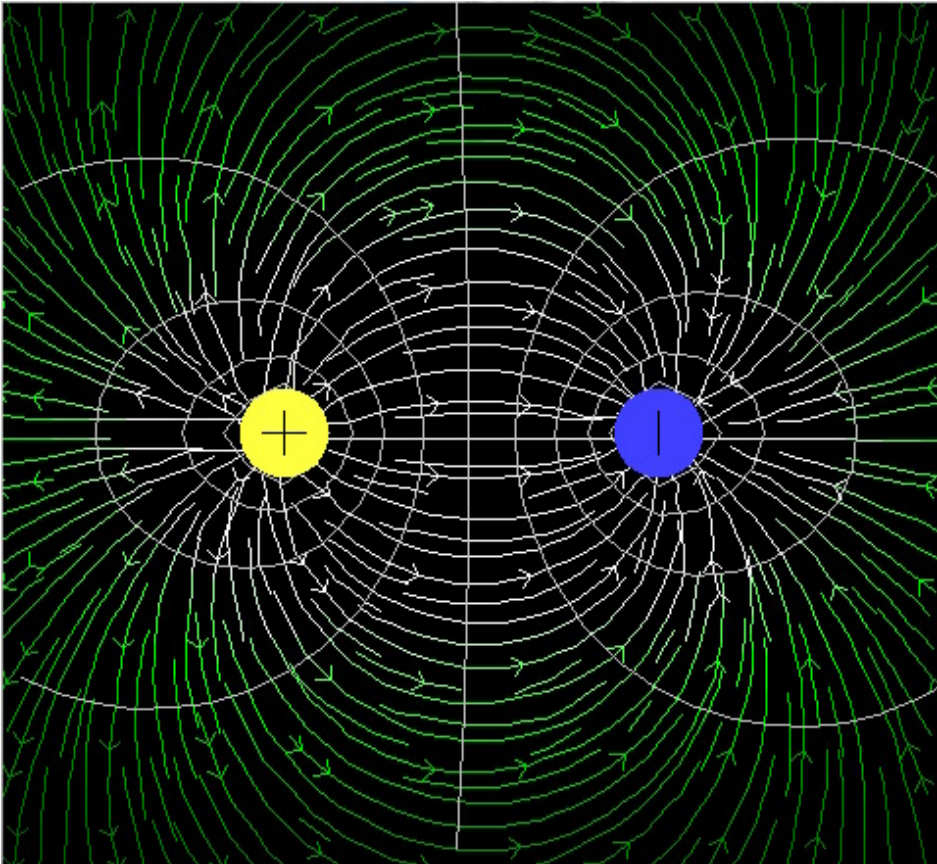




# Equipotential Lines

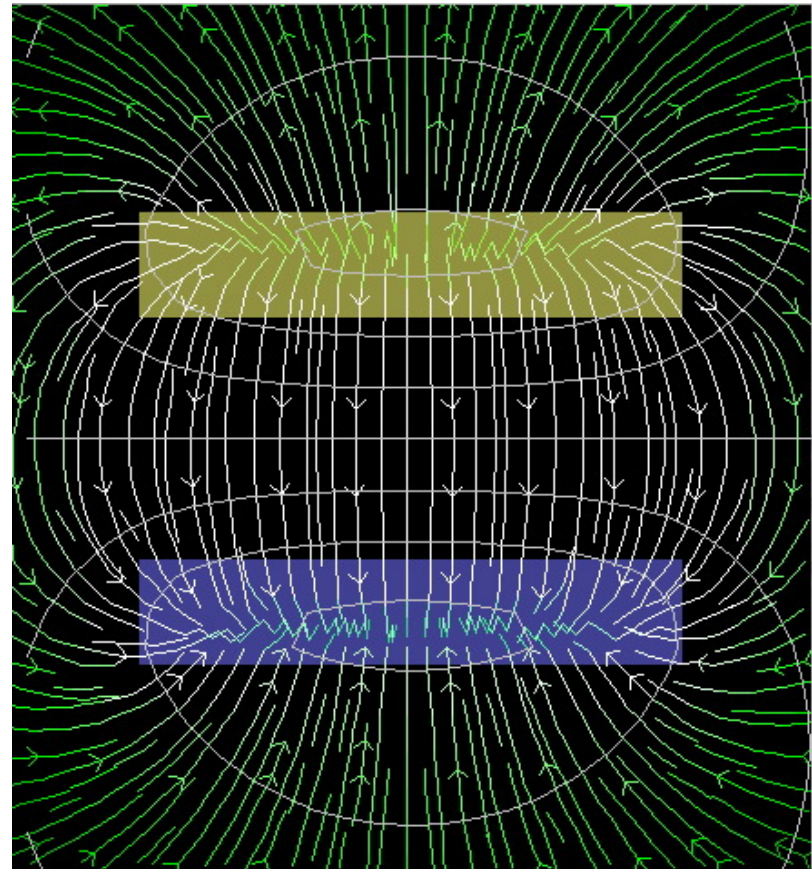
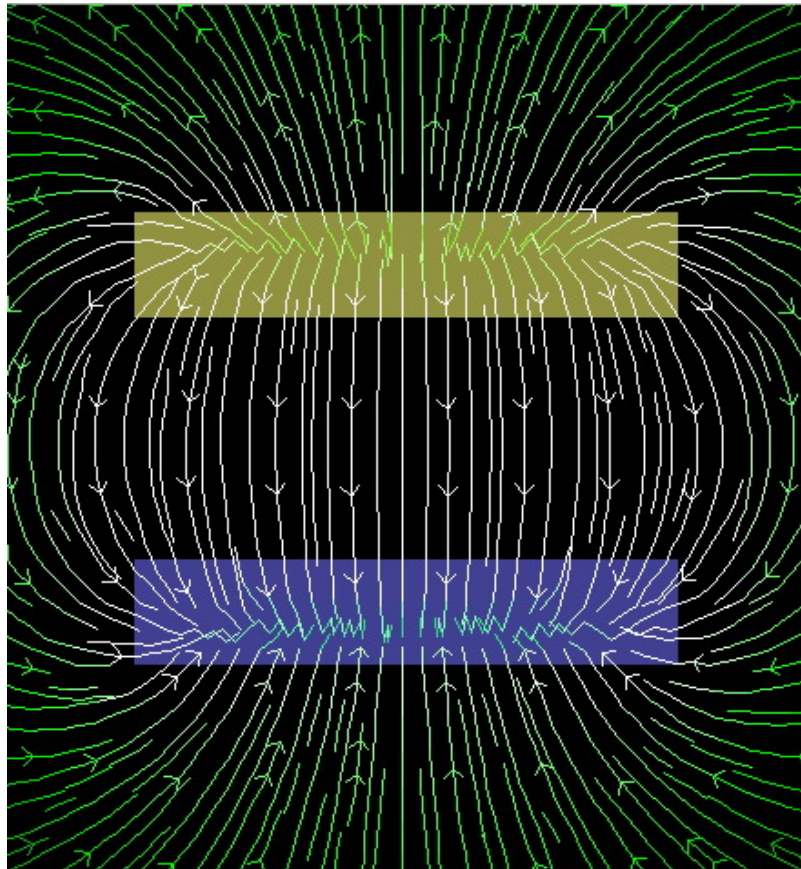
(courtesy of Mr. White)

... reveal areas of higher vs. lower electric potential.



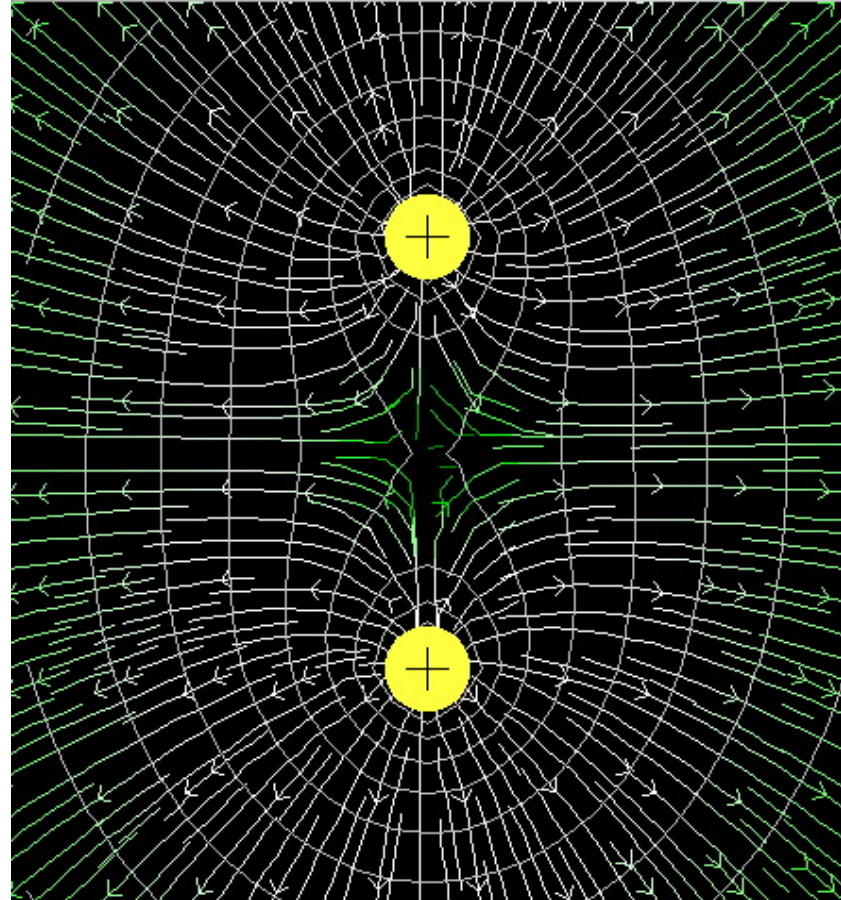
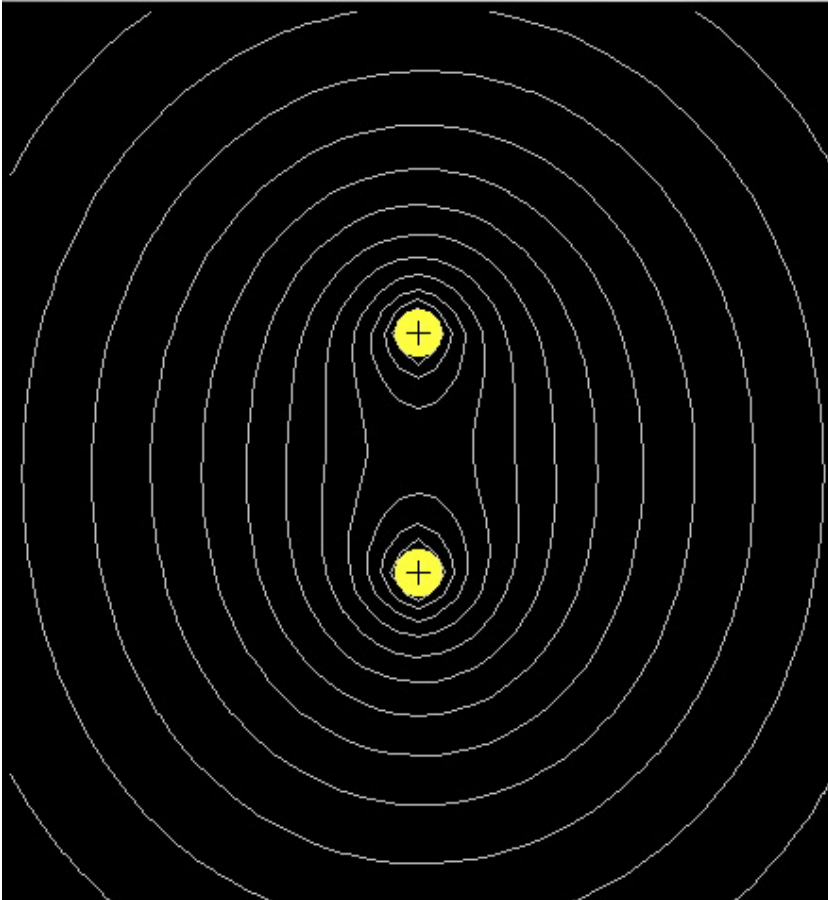
*Example 8:* (courtesy of Mr. White)

Draw appropriate equipotentials for this electric field.

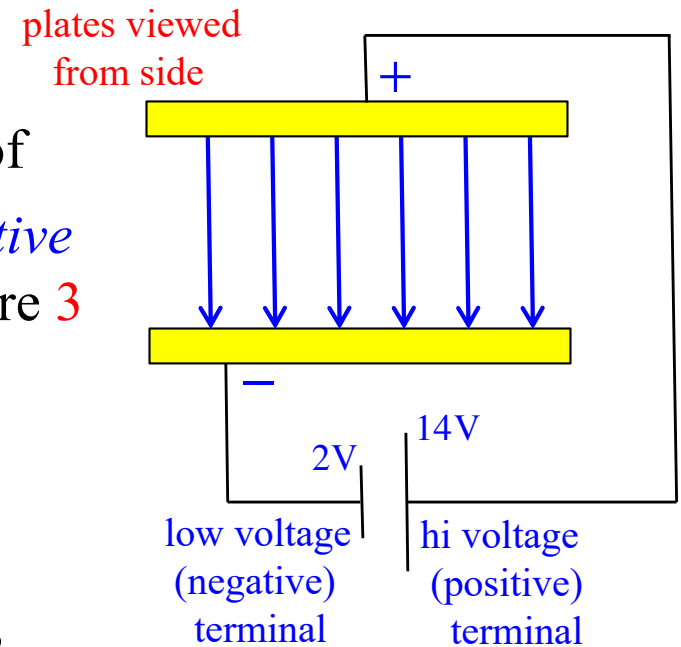


*Example 9:* (courtesy of Mr. White)

Draw appropriate field lines for these equipotentials.



**Example 10:** A battery has an *electric potential* of 14 volts at its *positive terminal* and 2 volts at its *negative terminal*. It is connected to parallel metal plates that are 3 millimeters apart and insulated from one another.



a.) From what you know about the voltages, draw in the *electric field lines* between the plates.

b.) How big is the *electric field* between the plates?

Traversing from the upper plate to the lower plate (i.e., from the higher voltage to the lower voltage plate ALONG THE *E-FLD LINES*, we can write:

$$\vec{E} \cdot \vec{d} = -\Delta V$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}| |\vec{d}| \cos 0^\circ = - (V_- - V_+)$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}| (3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}) = -((2 \text{ V}) - (14 \text{ V}))$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}| = 4000 \text{ V/m (or 4000 N/C)}$$

c.) Points A, B and C are identified between the plates.

A *positive charge* is placed successively at each point:

i.) *At which point* will the charge experience the greatest *electric field*?

(The *E-field* is *constant* between the plates—all points are the same.)

ii.) *At which point* will the charge experience the greatest *electric potential*?

(The *voltage* closest the positive plate will be highest, which is C.)

iii.) *At which point* will the charge experience the greatest *potential energy*?

(A charge's potential energy at a point is related to voltage as  $U = qV$ , so for a *positive charge*, that will be greatest at C . . . or as *close to the 14 volt plate* as possible.)

d.) *Now, a negative charge* is placed at each point:

i.) *At which point* will the charge experience the greatest *electric potential*?

(*Electrical potential* has NOTHING TO DO with the charge feeling the effect: it's still C.)

ii.) *At which point* will the charge experience the greatest *potential energy*?

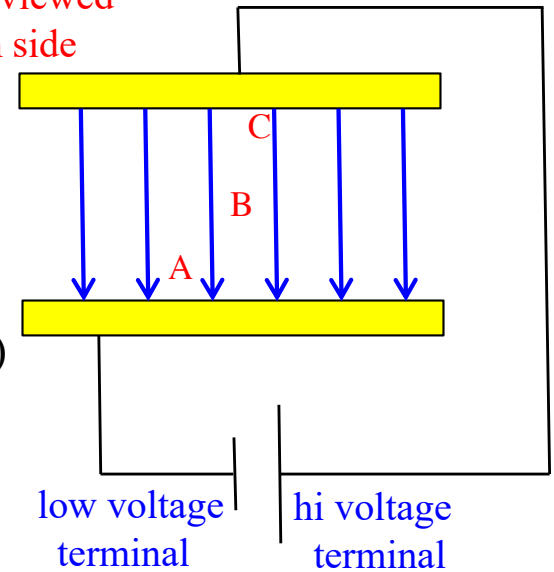
(Using  $U = qV$ , *sign included*, the greatest *potential energy* point for a *negative charge* is A.

This makes sense if you think about it. A *-1C charge* on the *negative plate* (pt A) would be *-2 joules* whereas on the *positive plate* (pt C) it would be *-14 joules*. A is bigger (closer to zero)!

*Also, where*, if you let a *negative charge* go, would it pick up the *most kinetic energy*?

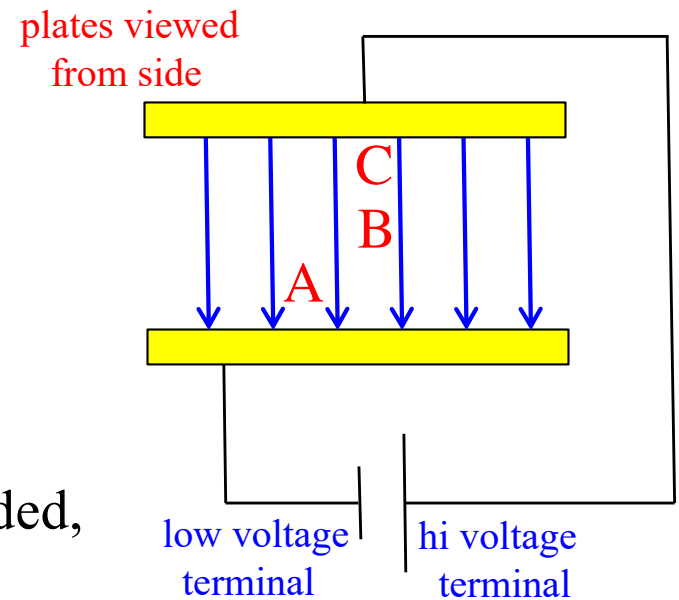
Certainly not if it was next to the positive plate. Definitely next to the negative plate at A!).

plates viewed  
from side



e.) An electron ( $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ ,  $m = 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$ ) accelerates between the plates. How fast is it moving if it started from rest?

*Note that the* electron (charge  $-e$ ) would accelerate from the **negative** the **positive plate**, and that the *potential energy* of a charge sitting at a point whose **potential** is  $V$  is  $U = qV$  with the **charge's sign** included, we can write:



$$\begin{aligned} \sum KE_1 + \sum U_1 + \sum W_{\text{ext}} &= \sum KE_2 + \sum U_2 \\ 0 + ((-e)V_-) + 0 &= \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + ((-e)V_+) \\ \Rightarrow (-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(2 \text{ V}) &= \frac{1}{2}(9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})v_B^2 + (-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(14 \text{ V}) \\ &\Rightarrow v = 2.1 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s} \end{aligned}$$

# Deriving an *Electric Potential* From an *Electric Field*

*We know* from our experience with energy considerations that if we want the *potential energy function* that goes with a *conservative force field*, we can derive it using:

$$U(r) - U(\text{zero pt}) = - \int_{\text{zero pt}}^r \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

*If the force* is the consequence of a charge in an *electric field*, we could divide everything by the size of the charge  $q$  feeling the effect, and have:

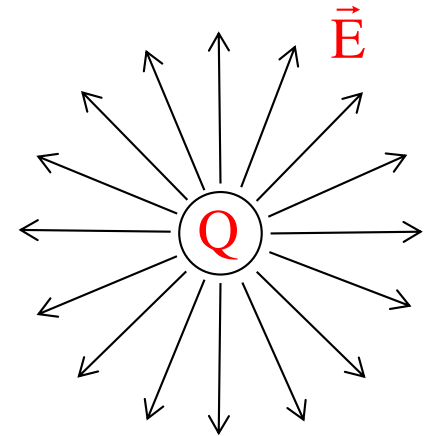
$$\frac{U(r)}{q} - \frac{U(\text{zero pt})}{q} = - \int_{\text{zero pt}}^r \frac{\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}}{q}$$
$$\Rightarrow V(r) - V(\text{zero pt}) = - \int_{\text{zero pt}}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

# A Specific Case--The Electric Potential Generated by a POINT CHARGE

*Example 11:* Derive a general expression for the *electric potential* generated by a point charge  $Q$ ?

Setting the zero point for the *electric potential* to be where the *electric field* is zero (i.e., at infinity), and using the *electric field function* for a point charge as  $\vec{E} = k \frac{Q}{r^2} \hat{r}$ , we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} V(r) - V(\infty) &= -\int_{\infty}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \\ &= -\int_{r=\infty}^r \left( k \frac{Q}{r^2} \hat{r} \right) \cdot d\vec{r} \\ &= -\int_{r=\infty}^r \left( k \frac{Q}{r^2} \right) dr (\cos 0^\circ) \\ &= -kQ \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) \Big|_{r=\infty}^r \\ \Rightarrow V(r)_{\text{pt chg}} &= \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{Q}{r} \end{aligned}$$





## Things to notice:

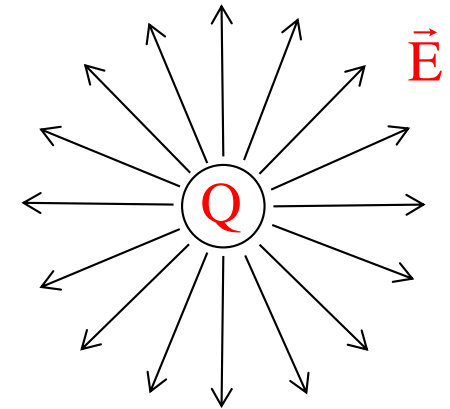
This function is good ONLY for point charges.

This is a SCALAR quantity ('cause electric potentials are NOT vectors).

Being a scale, a group of point charges will produce a net electric potential at a point that is simply the sum of the individual electric potentials. There is NO NEED to do anything with components . . . because again, voltages aren't vectors! Mathematically, this can be stated as:

Positive charges generate positive electric potentials while negative charges generate negative electric potentials, so the SIGN of the charge needs to be included in the use of  $V(\mathbf{r})_{\text{pt chg}} = k \frac{Q}{r}$ .

Any electric field generated by a static charge configuration will be conservative in nature, and can have an electric potential function derived for it using:



$$\begin{aligned} V_{\text{net at point 1}} &= \sum v_i \\ &= \sum \left( k \frac{q_i}{r_i} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$V(\mathbf{r}) - V(\infty) = - \int_{\infty}^{\mathbf{r}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

# So How Are Electric Fields and Electric Potentials Related?

*Remember back to* the Energy chapter when we related a conservative force function to its potential energy function. We found that the *spatial rate of change of potential energy* equals the *force* associated with the potential energy field, or  $\vec{F} = -\left(\frac{dU}{dx}\right)\hat{i}$ . There is an electrical analogue to this.

*That is*, the differential consequence of:

is

$$V(r) - V(\text{zero pt}) = -\int_{\text{zero pt}}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
$$dV = -\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

*But if that* is true, it must also be true that:  $\vec{E} = -\frac{dV}{dr}\hat{r}$

Except in *Cartesian coordinates* (assuming *E* is in the *x*-direction),  $\vec{E} = -\frac{dV}{dx}\hat{i}$

*which can be* expanded into multiple dimensions using the *del operator* as:

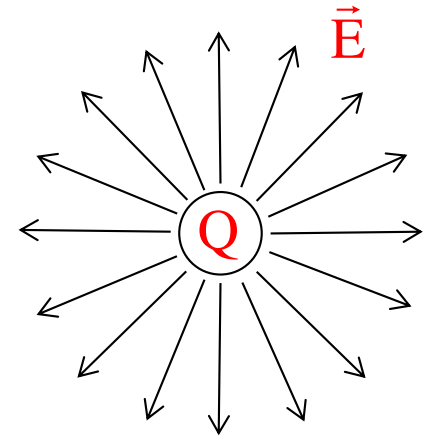
$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V = -\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\hat{i} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y}\hat{j} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z}\hat{k}\right)$$

# The Electric Field Generated by a POINT CHARGE as calculated from the Electric Potential

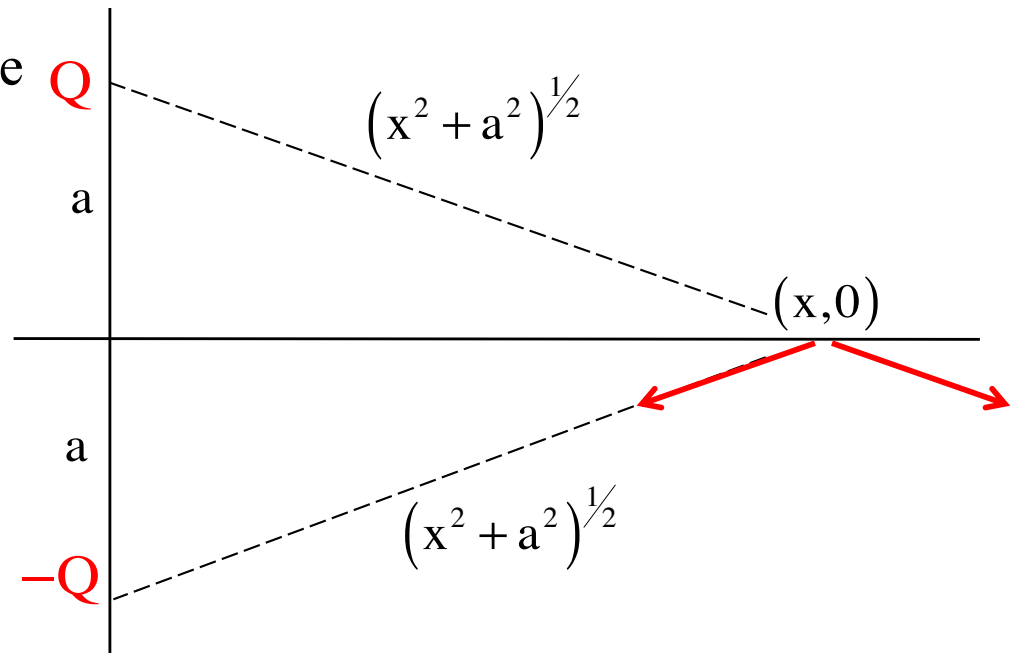
Using the del operator in polar spherical coordinates . . .

We'll come back to this shortly . . .

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E} &= -\vec{\nabla}V \\ &= -\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial r}\hat{r} + \dots\right) \\ &= -\frac{\partial\left(kQ/r\right)}{\partial r}\hat{r} \\ &= -\left(kQ\frac{\partial(r)^{-1}}{\partial r}\right)\hat{r} \\ &= -\left(kQ(-r^{-2})\right)\hat{r} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{Q}{r^2}\right)\hat{r}\end{aligned}$$



**Example 12:** Assume the charges are equal and opposite, and are placed symmetrically as shown.



a.) Is there an *electric field* at  $(x,0)$ .

If so, in what direction is it?

*There will be* an *E-field* at  $(x,0)$ . By inspection, its x-components will add to zero leaving it with only y-components.

b.) Is there an *absolute electric potential* at  $(x,0)$ . If so, in what direction is it?

**TRICK QUESTION**—*electric potentials* don't have directions as they are scalars.

As for magnitude:

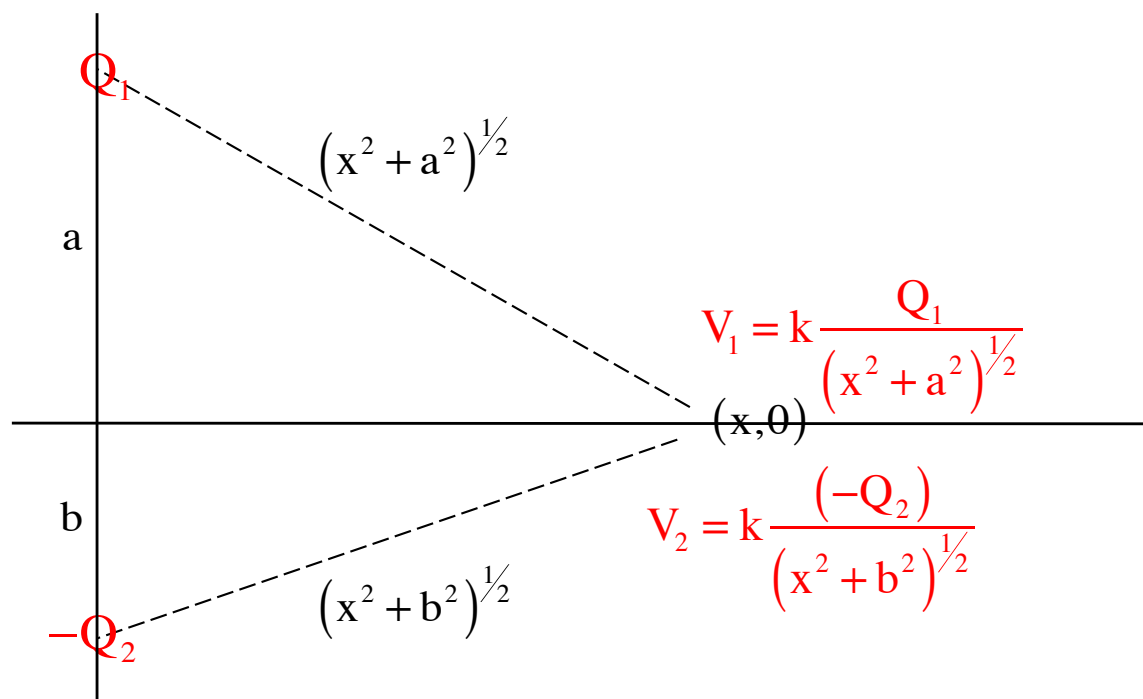
$$\begin{aligned}
 V_{\text{total}} &= V_Q + V_{-Q} \\
 &= \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{Q}{(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}} + \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{-Q}{(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}} \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

c.) Does this make sense?

*Yes, if you understand* how *E-flds* and *voltage flds* are related to one another.

c.) *How would* the problem change if the charges were no longer the same and their positions no longer symmetric?

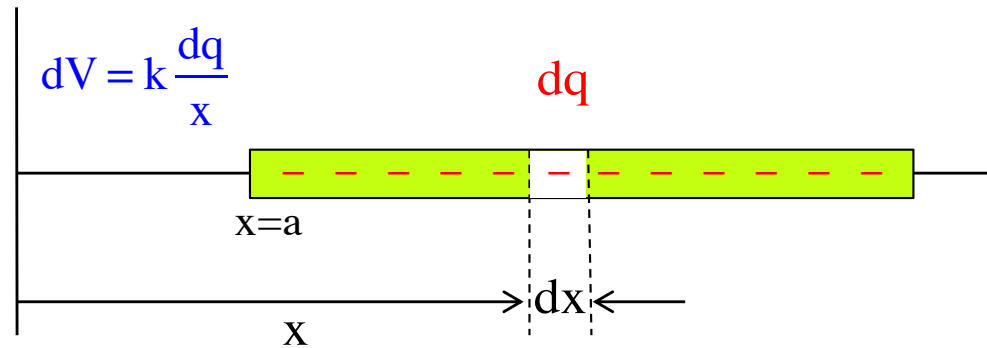
*The math* shows it all.



$$V_{\text{total}} = \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{Q_1}{(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}} - \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{Q_2}{(x^2 + b^2)^{1/2}}$$

### Example 13 (A non-AP problem):

Derive an expression for the electric potential at the origin due to a rod with charge  $-Q$  uniformly distributed over its length  $L$ .



*This extended charge distribution* is something you've already seen. The solving technique is exactly as was before. Define the differential electric potential at the origin due to a differential bit of charge, then sum that differential electrical potential over the entire rod. You'll again need to define a *linear charge density* function  $\lambda = -Q/L$

and

note that  $dq = \lambda dx$ .

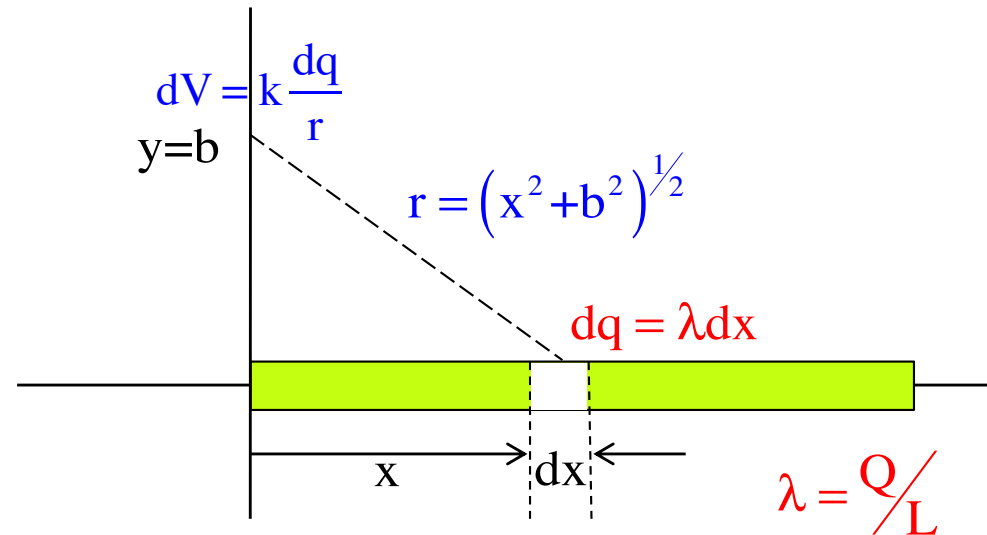
With that, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int dV = \int_{x=a}^{a+L} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{x} \\ &= \int_{x=a}^{a+L} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(\lambda dx)}{x} = \frac{\left(\frac{-Q}{L}\right)}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{x=a}^{a+L} \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \frac{\left(\frac{-Q}{L}\right)}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\ln x \Big|_{x=a}^{a+L}\right) = \frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 L} \left[ (\ln(a+L)) - (\ln a) \right] \\ &= \frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 L} \ln\left(\frac{a+L}{a}\right) \end{aligned}$$

## Example 14 (a non-AP question):

Derive an expression for the **electric potential** at an arbitrary point  $y = b$  on the  $y$ -axis due to a **rod** with charge  $Q$  **uniformly distributed** over its length  $L$ .

*SO NICE*, no components!



$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int dV \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{x=0}^L \frac{dq}{r} \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{x=0}^L \frac{(\lambda dx)}{(x^2 + b^2)^{1/2}} \\ &= \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{x=0}^L \frac{1}{(x^2 + b^2)^{1/2}} dx \quad (\text{whatever that is--what's important is the set-up}) \end{aligned}$$

*Example 15:* A ring situated in the  $x$ - $z$  plane (as shown) has  $-Q$ 's worth of charge on it.

a.) What is the direction of the  $E$ -fld at  $(x,0)$ ?

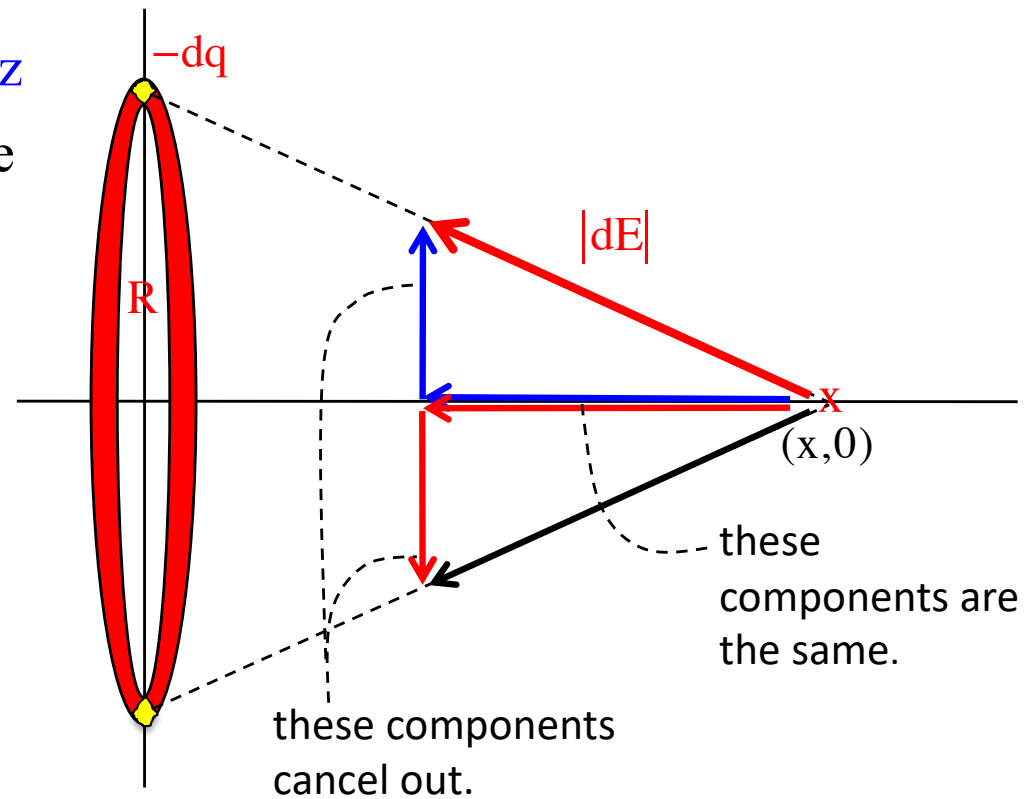
*From observation, it's  $-\hat{i}$ .*

b.) Derive an expression for  $V$  at  $(x,0)$ ?

$$\begin{aligned}
 V &= \int dV \\
 &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq}{(x^2 + R^2)^{1/2}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (x^2 + R^2)^{1/2}} \int dq \\
 &= \frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (x^2 + R^2)^{1/2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

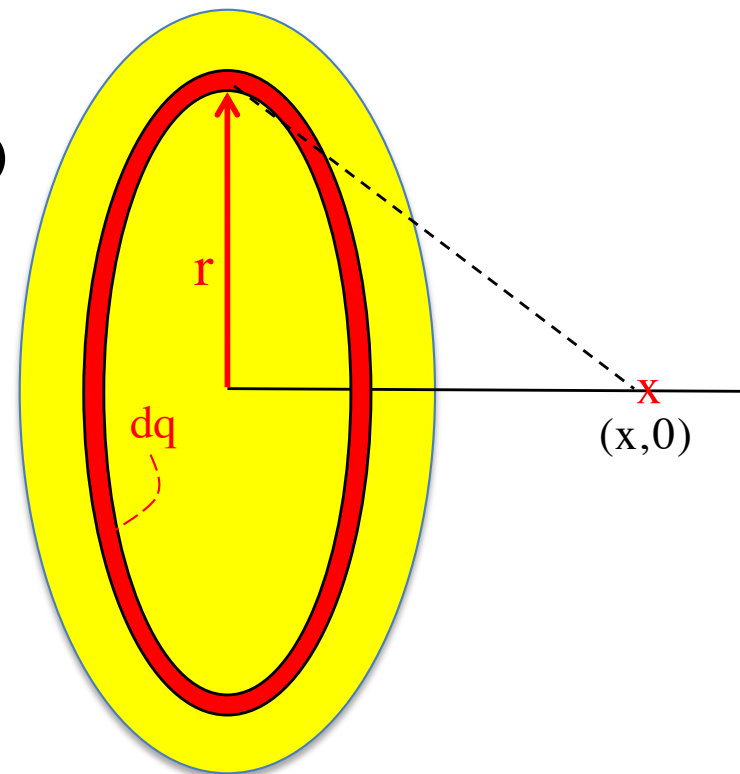
c.) Do the results from Parts a and b make sense together?

*sure*





*Example 17 (not):* Consider yourself lucky. A lab I had my students do for years (minus the data part) follows: Given a **charged copper disk**:



a.) *Use Gauss's Law* to derive an expression for the *electric field* due to the disk *very, very close* to the disk's central axis (i.e., at a coordinate  $(x,0)$  such that  $x \ll R$ ).

b.) *Use the differential-charges-dq-approach* to derive an expression for the *electric field* generated by the disk at some point down the x-axis  $(x,0)$ .

c.) *Using the relationship derived in Part b, assume* that  $x \ll R$  in that relationship and *see if that E matches up with the Gauss's Law expression*.

d.) *Using dq, derive an expression for the electric potential at  $(x,0)$ .*

e.) *Though not completely kosher, due to the vagaries of the symmetry, you could use the del operator on the electric potential function you derived in Part d to derive an expression for the electric field at  $(x,0)$ .* Do so and see if it matches your expression from Part a.

*Called THE LAB FROM HELL,* students lost a lot of sleep but learned a LOT. 34.)

*Example 18:* In the previous “lab” example identified as *Example 17*, it was stated in *Part e* that “although it is not kosher, you could use the del operator to derive an expression for the electric field at  $(x,0)$ .” What was up with that?

*The question* is asking us to use

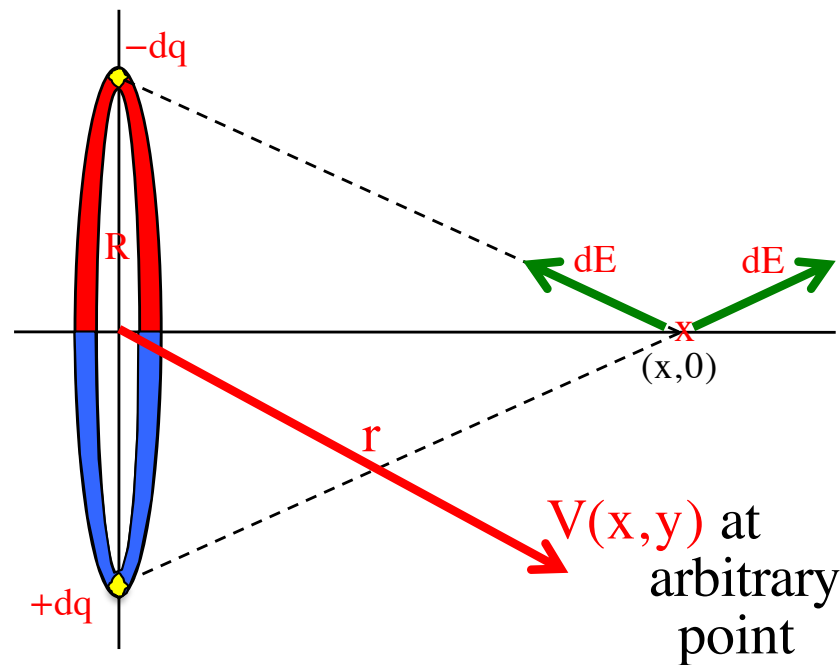
$$\vec{E} = -\frac{dV}{dx} \hat{i}$$

(or the del operator equivalent) to determine  $E$ . Why is this spooky?

*Consider a hoop.* What would happen if the **upper half** of the hoop was *negatively charged* while the **lower half** had an equal amount of *positive charge*?

*There would be* a net electric field at  $(x,0)$  in the  $y$ -direction, but the electric potential  $V$  at  $(x,0)$  would be ZERO. So how could you use  $\vec{E} = -\left(\frac{dV}{dx}\right) \hat{i}$ ?

To make things work, you need a general expression for  $V(\mathbf{r})$ , an expression for the electric potential *at an arbitrary point*, to use with  $\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$

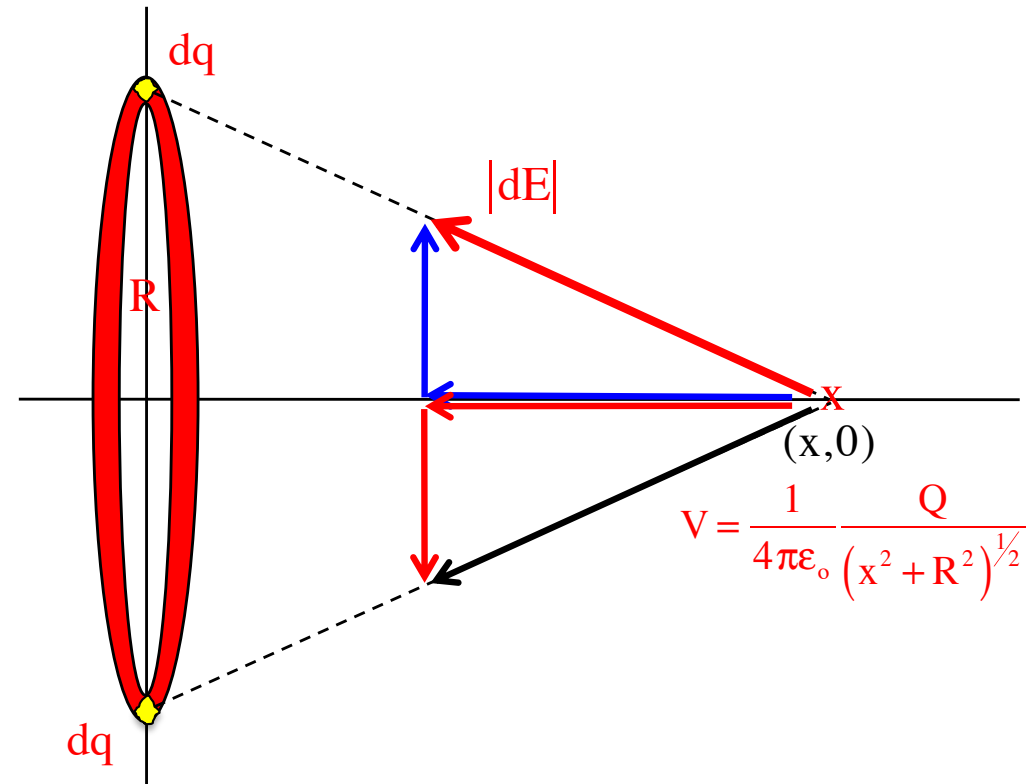


Due to the symmetry, a single-charge hoop has an electric field that is down the  $x$ -axis, and it has a  $V$ -function that is a function of  $x$ . As such, using  $\vec{E} = -\frac{dV}{dx}\hat{i}$

yields

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E} &= -\frac{dV}{dx}\hat{i} \\ &= -\frac{d\left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{Q}{(x^2 + R^2)^{1/2}}\right)}{dx}\hat{i} \\ &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{d\left((x^2 + R^2)^{-1/2}\right)}{dx}\hat{i} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)(2x)(x^2 + R^2)^{-3/2}\hat{i} \\ &= \frac{Qx}{4\pi\epsilon_0(x^2 + R^2)^{3/2}}\hat{i}\end{aligned}$$

which matches the derived E-fld expression from before.

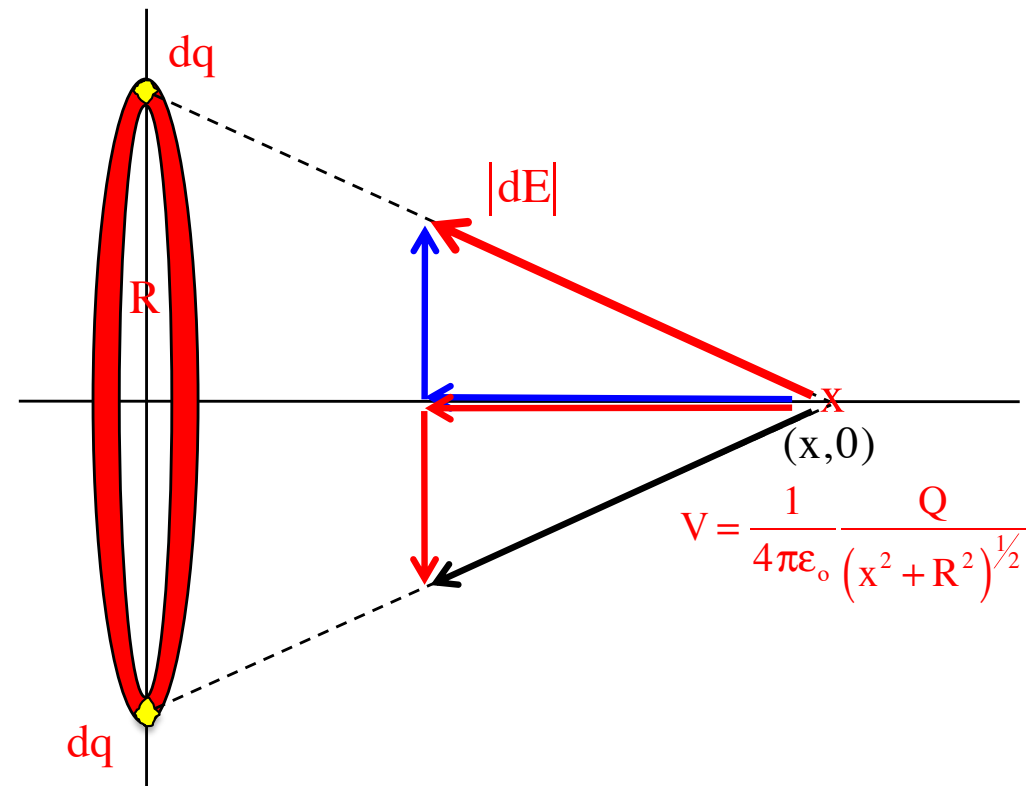


$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{Q}{(x^2 + R^2)^{1/2}}$$

*The point here* is that you can use

$$\vec{E} = -\frac{dV}{dx} \hat{i}$$

even if we **don't have** a **general expression** for  $V(r)$ . The key is in whether the **charge involved** is **all the same kind** (i.e., either all positive or all negative). If that be the case, you can fudge some (not kosher, but it gives you the right answer).



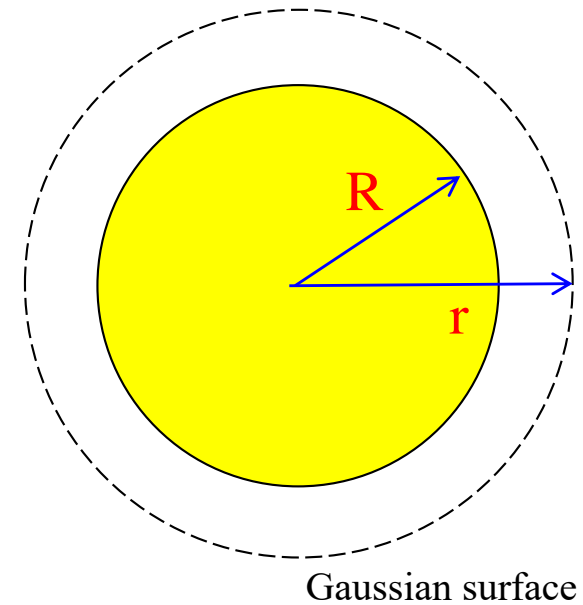
**Example 19:** A solid, charged, conducting sphere of radius  $R$  and  $Q$ 's worth of charge on it.

a.) Derive a general algebraic expression for the electric potential field for  $r > R$ .

If we are going to use  $V(r) - V(\text{zero pt}) = -\int_{\text{zero pt}}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$  we need to know the  $E$ -fld function for  $r > R$ .

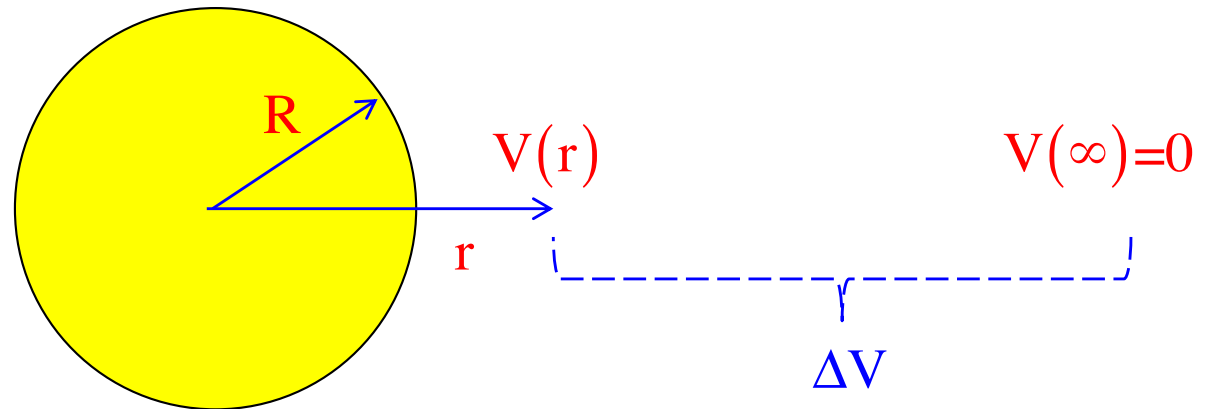
Gauss's Law was born to dispatch that problem.

Starting with a Gauss's surface, we can write:



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

Although it isn't stated, problems like assume the electric potential will be zero where the electric field is zero, which in this case is at infinity. So identifying  $\Delta V$ :



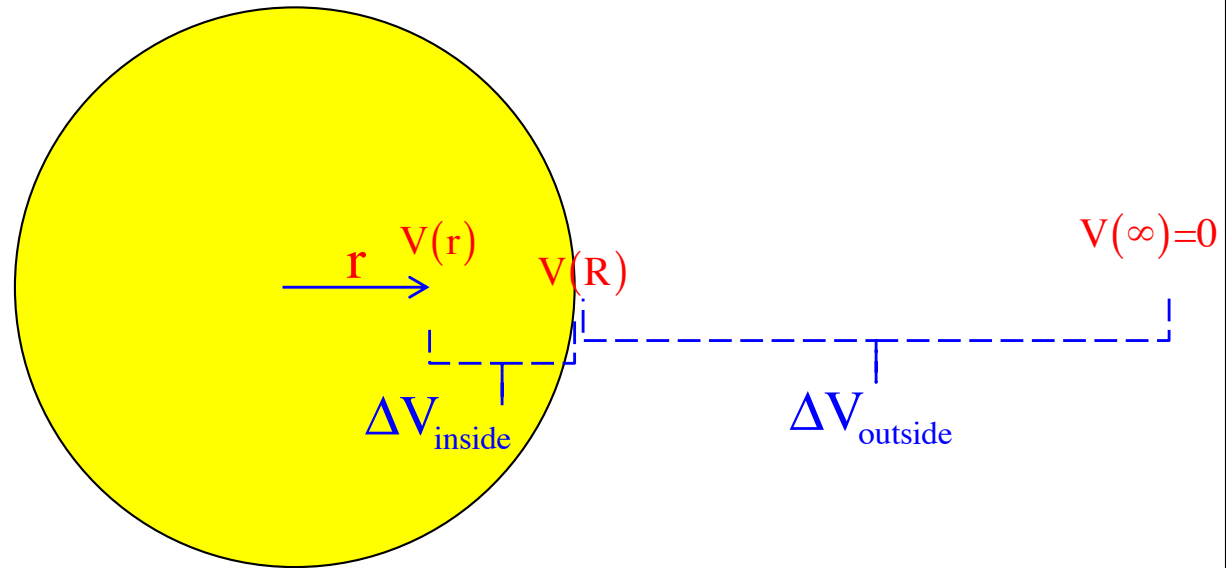
$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r) - V(\infty) &= - \int_{\infty}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \\
 &= - \int_{\infty}^r \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) \\
 &= - \int_{\infty}^r \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \right) dr \cos 0^\circ = - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\infty}^r \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \right) dr \\
 &= - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) \Big|_{r=\infty}^r = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{\infty} \right) \\
 \Rightarrow V(r) &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}
 \end{aligned}$$

b.) Derive a general algebraic expression for the *electric potential field* for  $r < R$ .

*This is where* it gets a bit tricky. Why? Because the *electric field inside the sphere and outside the sphere are different*, so we can't use one giant  $\Delta V$  in

$$\Delta V = - \int_{\text{zero pt}}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$

Also, because *electric potentials AREN'T* inverse square functions, you can't ignore the charge interior to the point of interest like you did with Gauss's Law!



*How to* deal with this? Derive for *each discrete region*  $\Delta V$  using each region's *known electric field function*, then *add them all up*. That is:

$$\Delta V_{\text{inside}} + \Delta V_{\text{outside}} = [V(r) - V(R)] + [V(R) - \cancel{V(\infty)}] = V(r)$$

*To execute these* changes, we need electric fields (as each  $\Delta V = - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$  over its limits), so normally we'd be back to *Gauss's Law*.

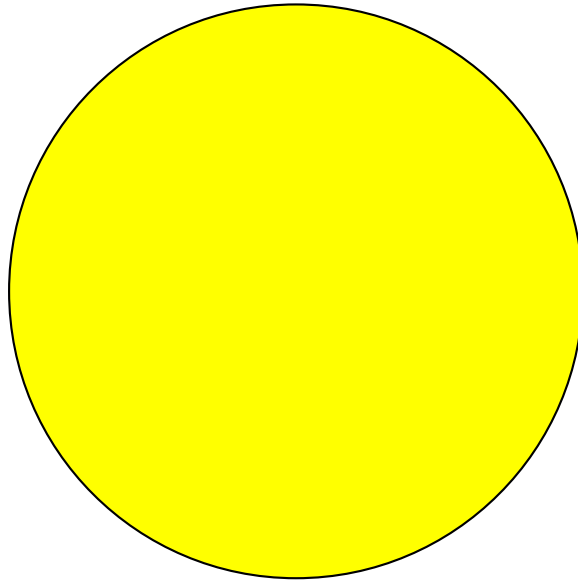
*In this problem*, though, we have the **electric field for the outside region**, and because the sphere is a **conductor**, we know the **electric field *inside* is zero**, so we can write:

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r) &= \Delta V_{\text{outside}} + \Delta V_{\text{inside}} \\
 &= [V(R) - V(\infty)] + [V(r) - V(R)] \\
 &= -\int_{\infty}^R \vec{E}_{\text{outside}} \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_R^r \vec{E}_{\text{inside}} \cdot d\vec{r} \\
 &= -\int_{\infty}^R \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) + 0 \\
 &\Rightarrow V(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R} \quad \text{for } r > R
 \end{aligned}$$

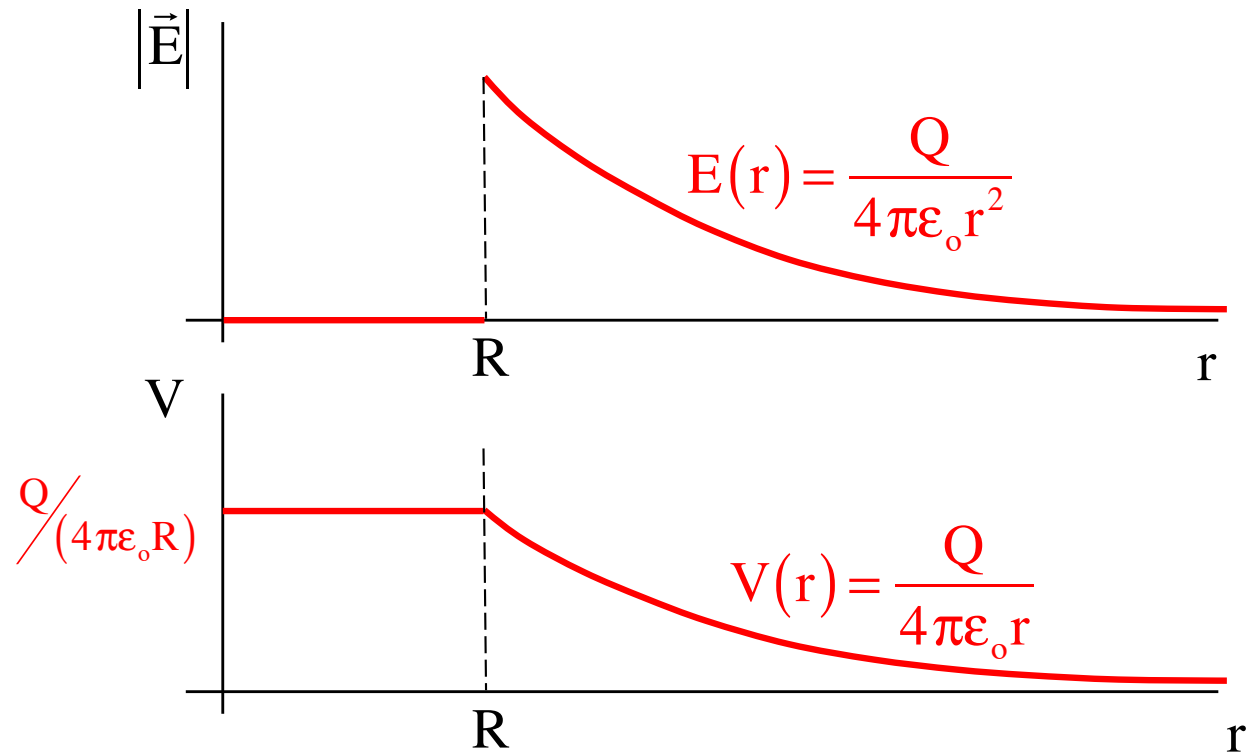
*Note:* If the **inner sphere** had been an **insulator**, we would have had to use *Gauss's Law* to determine the **electric field function in that region**, and that **second integral** would **not** have been **zero**. We'll try this in the next problem. In the meantime . . .



c.) Sketch the graph for:  
*E*-fld vs position  
 AND the *electric potential field* vs. position.



Notice that  
 whereas the *E*-fld  
 functions is  
*discontinuous*, the  
*V*-fld function is  
**CONTINUOUS!**



*Example 20:* A solid insulating sphere of radius  $R$

has  $Q$ 's worth of charge shot uniformly throughout.

a.) Derive a general algebraic expression for the electric potential field for  $r > R$ .

As before, Gauss's Law yields:

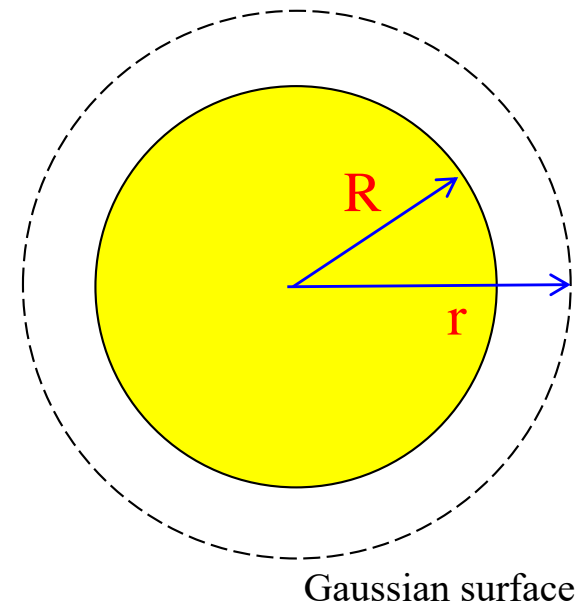
$$\int_s \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

and the electric potential function yields:

$$V(r) - V(\infty) = -\int_{\infty}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
$$= -\int_{\infty}^r \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r})$$

just as before ...

$$\Rightarrow V(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

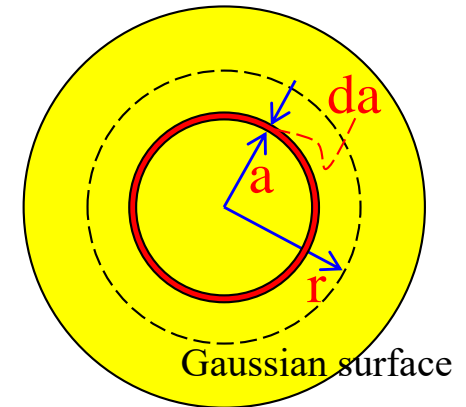


b.) for  $r < R$ :

We know the  $E$ -fld outside.

For the  $E$ -fld inside:

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



where the volume charge density is:  $\rho = \frac{Q}{\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3\right)}$

and the spherical shell's differential volume  $dV = (4\pi a^2) da$ , so:

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

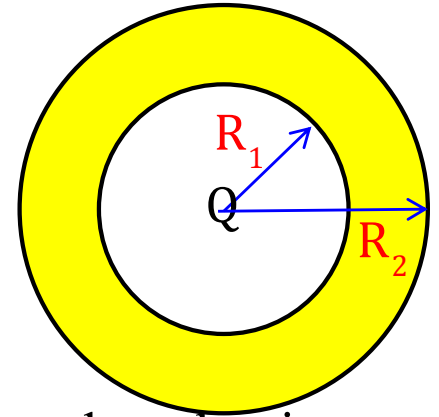
$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{\rho \int_{a=0}^r [4\pi a^2 da]}{\epsilon_0} = \rho \frac{\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3\right)}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi r^2} \left( \frac{Q}{\cancel{(4/3)\pi R^3}} \right) \frac{\cancel{(4/3)\pi r^3}}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} r$$

*So the electric potential is:*

$$\begin{aligned} V(\mathbf{r}) &= \Delta V_{\text{outside}} + \Delta V_{\text{inside}} \\ &= [V(\mathbf{R}) - V(\mathbf{R}\infty)] + [V(\mathbf{r}) - V(\mathbf{R})] \\ &= -\int_{\infty}^{\mathbf{R}} \vec{\mathbf{E}}_{\text{outside}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} - \int_{\mathbf{R}}^{\mathbf{r}} \vec{\mathbf{E}}_{\text{inside}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} \\ &= -\int_{\infty}^{\mathbf{R}} \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{\mathbf{r}}) - \int_{r=\mathbf{R}}^{\mathbf{r}} \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} r \hat{\mathbf{r}} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{\mathbf{r}}) \\ &= -\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\infty}^{\mathbf{R}} \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{\mathbf{r}}) - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} \int_{r=\mathbf{R}}^{\mathbf{r}} (r \hat{\mathbf{r}}) \cdot (dr \vec{\mathbf{r}}) \\ &\Rightarrow V(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) \Big|_{r=\infty}^{\mathbf{R}} - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} \left( \frac{r^2}{2} \right) \Big|_{r=\mathbf{R}}^{\mathbf{r}} \\ &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R} - \frac{Q}{8\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} (r^2 - R^2) \quad \text{for } r < R \end{aligned}$$

*Example 20:* A point charge at the center of a thick, uncharged conducting spherical shell of inside radius  $R_1$  and outside radius  $R_2$ . Determine the electrical potential for:



a.)  $r > R_2$

The first thing to note is that when you are asked to “determine” a value, that is not the same as “derive” a value. As long as you justify what you do, you can be as clever as you want. In this case, the observation to be made is that outside  $R_2$  (especially from a distance), this charge configuration just looks like a point charge (even with the charge redistributing itself on the conductor). We know the electric potential function for a point charge. It’s

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r}$$

b.)  $R_2 > r > R_1$

Again, being clever: You know the electric field inside a conductor is zero, so the electric potential difference between any two points must be zero. You also know that electric potential functions are continuous. Evaluating the field for  $r > R_2$  right at  $R_2$ , we get the electric potential at the outside edge of the conductor, which must be the electric potential throughout the conductor. That evaluation is:

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{R_2}$$

c.)  $r < R_1$

This is where things get tricky.

The temptation is to look at hollow region in which  $Q$  resides, think, “That’s a point charge with an electric field equal to:

$$|\vec{E}(r)| = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2}$$

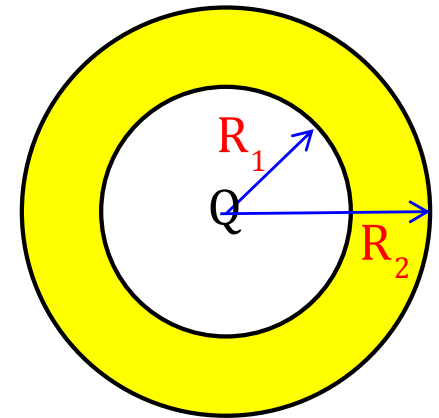
And conclude that because the electric field is that of a point charge, the electric potential must be that of a point charge, or

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r}$$

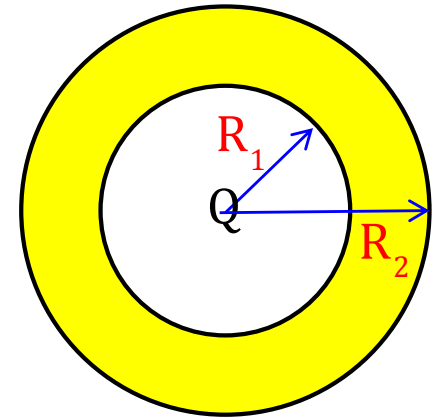
The problem with this is that this function, evaluated at  $r = R_1$  yields  $V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{R_1}$

But this is part of the conductor, and we’ve already concluded that the electric potential has to be  $V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{R_2}$  inside the conductor.

So what gives?



We know that for spherical symmetry, Gauss's Law states that an electric field is generated only by the charge *inside* the sphere upon which the point of interest resides. That is because the electric field generated by each individual point charge is an inverse square function in distance (i.e.,  $|\vec{E}(r)| = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2}$  )



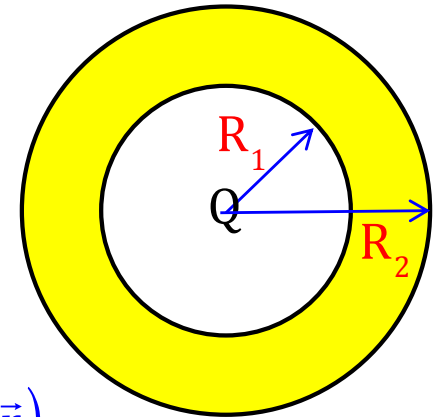
**Electric potentials** aren't like that. They are simply inverse distance functions, or  $V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r}$

To get the electric potential function for a charge geometry that is spherical in nature, we not only have to consider the charge *inside* the sphere upon which the point of interest resides, we also have to consider the charge *outside* that sphere, also. That means:

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r) &= \Delta V_{\text{outside}} + \Delta V_{\text{in\_conductor}} + \Delta V_{\text{inside}} \\
 &= \left[ V(R_2) - V(R_\infty) \right] + \left[ V(R_1) - V(R_2) \right] + \left[ V(r) - V(R_1) \right] \\
 &= - \int_{\infty}^{R_2} \vec{E}_{\text{outside}} \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_{R_2}^{R_1} \vec{E}_{\text{in\_conductor}} \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_{R_1}^r \vec{E}_{\text{inside}} \cdot d\vec{r}
 \end{aligned}$$

That is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r) &= \Delta V_{\text{outside}} + \Delta V_{\text{in\_conductor}} + \Delta V_{\text{inside}} \\
 &= \left[ V(R_2) - V(R_\infty) \right] + \left[ V(R_1) - V(R_2) \right] + \left[ V(r) - V(R_1) \right] \\
 &= - \int_\infty^{R_2} \vec{E}_{\text{outside}} \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_{R_2}^{R_1} \vec{E}_{\text{inside}} \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_{R_1}^r \vec{E}_{\text{inside}} \cdot d\vec{r} \\
 &= - \int_\infty^{R_2} \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) - \int_{R_2}^{R_1} (0\hat{r}) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) - \int_{R_1}^r \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) \\
 &= - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_\infty^{R_2} \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{R_1}^r \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) \\
 \Rightarrow V(r) &= - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) \Big|_\infty^{R_2} - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) \Big|_{R_1}^r \\
 &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_2} + \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{R_1} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$



Note that for  $r=R_1$ , this becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r=R_1) &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_2} + \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{R_1} \right) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_2} + \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_1} \right) \\
 &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_2} \quad \text{as expected for a point inside the conductor!}
 \end{aligned}$$



# SUMMARY—Conductors . . .

## *Electric Fields:*

- a.) **Free charge** on a conductor in a static setting **stays on the conductor's surface**.
- b.) **Close to the surface** of a conductor, the *E-field* is *perpendicular to the surface* and has a magnitude  $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$ .
- c.) **Inside a conductor**, the *E-field* is **zero** in a static charge situation (otherwise, electrons would migrate).

## *Electric Potentials:*

- a.) **Free charge** on a conductor will **distribute itself** so as to **create a equipotential surface** (the **voltage** will be **the same at every point** on the surface)..
- b.) As the **electric field inside** a conductor is **zero**, the *voltage field* (the electric potential field) **inside a conductor** will be **CONSTANT**.

*How do you* determine the total energy in a systems of particles? (We did a problem like this back in the Gravitation section). The idea is simple:

1.) *It takes* no energy to bring a charge  $q_1$  in from infinity. Once in, though, it will generate an electric potential field whose point-magnitude will (because it is a point-charge) equal to  $V_1 = k \frac{q_1}{r}$  with  $V = 0$  at infinity.

2.) *Bringing a second charge*  $q_2$  in from infinity will require work in the amount of  $W = -q_2 \Delta V$ . That work will go into the total energy wrapped up in the system. That new charge will produce it's own voltage field with a similar function defining it.

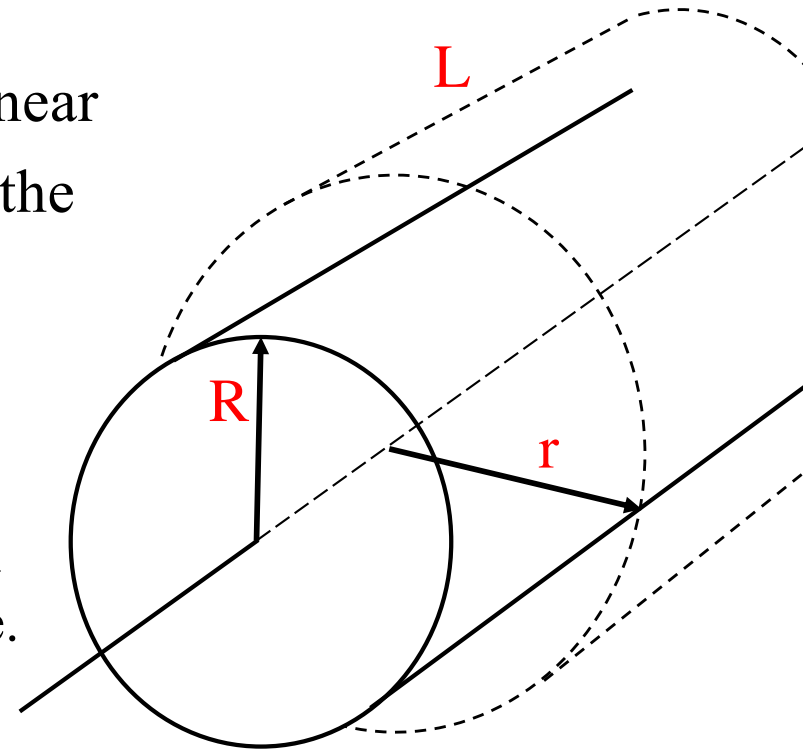
3.) *Bringing a third charge*  $q_3$  in from infinity will require work as it deals with the fields generated by both  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ , the the total amount of work done (and the total energy in the system) will become:

$$W_{\text{total}} = W(q_1 \text{ did on } q_2) + W(q_1 \text{ did on } q_3) + W(q_2 \text{ did on } q_3)$$

*Example 5:* A long wire of radius  $R$  has a linear charge density  $\lambda$  on it. What can we say about the electric potential function for:

*For  $r > R$*

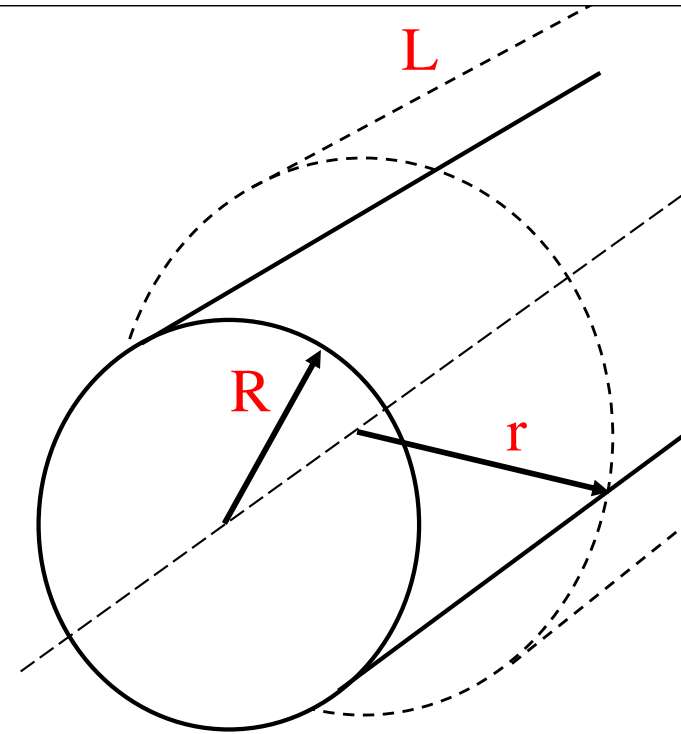
1.) *We need* the **electric field** function for this region so we can use the  $\Delta V = -\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$  approach to determine the electric potential outside the wire. Starting with a Gaussian surface whose outside surface area  $dS$  will be its circumference ( $2\pi r$ ) times its length  $L$ , and noting that the charge inside its length  $L$ , and noting that the charge inside the Gaussian surface will be equal to  $\lambda$  times the length of the Gaussian surface  $L$ , we can write:



$$\begin{aligned}\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} &= \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow |\vec{E}|(2\pi rL) &= \frac{\lambda L}{\epsilon_0} \\ \Rightarrow \mathbf{E} &= \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r}\end{aligned}$$

2.) *With the electric field*, we run into a problem if we try to assume the electric potential is zero at infinity. Following the math will show why:

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r) - V(\infty) &= - \int_{r=\infty}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \\
 &= \int_{r=\infty}^r \left( \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \hat{r}) = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{r=\infty}^r \frac{1}{r} dr \cos 0^\circ \\
 &= \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln(r) \Big|_{r=\infty}^r = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} [\ln(r) - \ln(\infty)] = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{r}{\infty}\right) \quad \text{yikes ...}
 \end{aligned}$$



*Bottom line:* Although you could be asked to use Gauss's Law to determine the electric field generated by an insulator or conductor whose geometry is cylindrical, you will not be asked to determine the electric potential relative to infinity.

*Having said that,* you COULD be asked to determine the electric potential DIFFERENCE between two points in the region around or inside a cylindrically symmetric charge configuration. That is:

*Let's say* you have a **coaxial cable** in which the inside wire has a **linear charge density** of  $\lambda$  on it while the outside sheath has a charge density of  $-\lambda$  on it. What is the voltage difference between the two cables?

1.) *We need* the E-fld between the structures. Gauss's Law to the rescue:

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

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{E}|(2\pi rL) = \frac{\lambda L}{\epsilon_0}$$

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

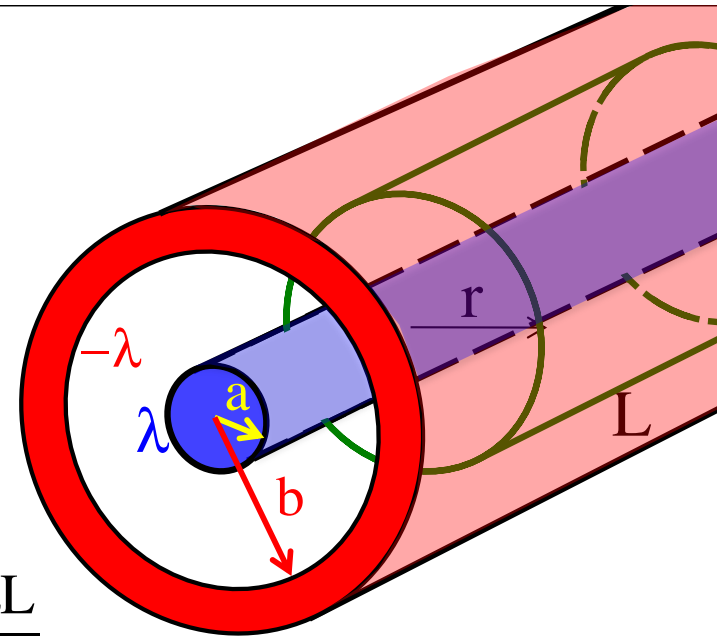
2.) *With the E-fld,* and assuming we are traversing from the inside-out (i.e., with the electric field), we can write:

$$\Delta V = -\int_{r=a}^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

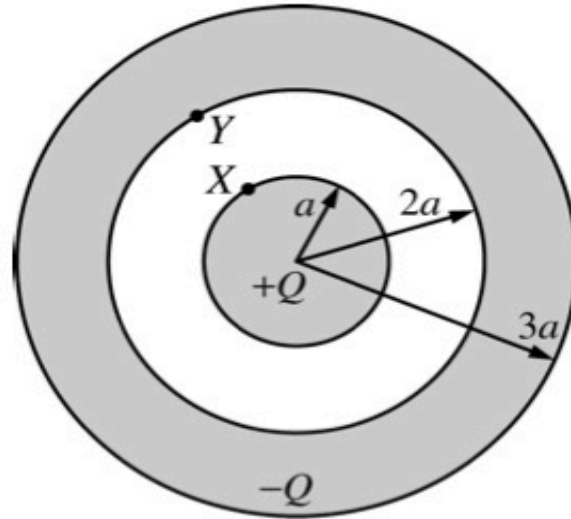
$$= -\int_{r=a}^b \left( \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \hat{r}) = -\frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{r=a}^b \frac{1}{r} dr \cos 0^\circ$$

$$= -\frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln(r) \Big|_{r=a}^b = -\frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} [\ln(b) - \ln(a)] = -\frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$$

*... Which makes sense* as electric potential drops as you go from positive to negative plates.



# Review slides/your notes (courtesy of Mr. White)



E&M 2.

In the figure above, a nonconducting solid sphere of radius  $a$  with charge  $+Q$  uniformly distributed throughout its volume is concentric with a nonconducting spherical shell of inner radius  $2a$  and outer radius  $3a$  that has a charge  $-Q$  uniformly distributed throughout its volume. Express all answers in terms of the given quantities and fundamental constants.

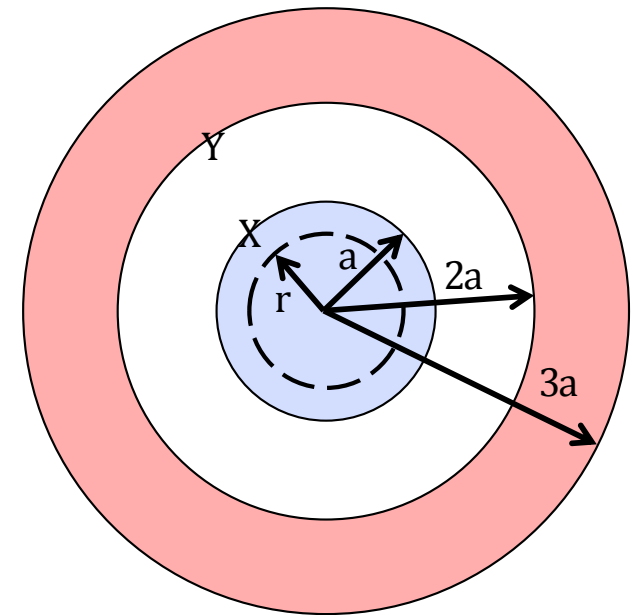
- (a) Using Gauss's law, derive expressions for the magnitude of the electric field as a function of radius  $r$  in the following regions.
- Within the solid sphere ( $r < a$ )
  - Between the solid sphere and the spherical shell ( $a < r < 2a$ )
  - Within the spherical shell ( $2a < r < 3a$ )
  - Outside the spherical shell ( $r > 3a$ )
- (b) What is the electric potential at the outer surface of the spherical shell ( $r = 3a$ )? Explain your reasoning.
- (c) Derive an expression for the electric potential difference  $V_X - V_Y$  between points  $X$  and  $Y$  shown in the figure.

a.) Note that the **positive charge** is in **blue** and the **negative charge** is in **redish**:

i.)  $r < a$

The **charge inside the Gaussian surface** is the fraction of charge inside  $r$ , or:

$$q_{\text{encl}} = \left( \frac{\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)\pi r^3}{\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)\pi a^3} \right) Q = \left( \frac{r^3}{a^3} \right) Q$$



For a **Gaussian surface inside  $a$** :

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

$$\Rightarrow \int_S E dA \cos 0^\circ = \frac{\text{(fraction of } q \text{ inside Gaussian surface)}}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \int_S dA = \frac{\left(\frac{r^3}{a^3}\right) Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

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

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

a.) Use Gauss's Law to derive the electric field for:

ii.)  $a < r < 2a$

For a Gaussian surface between  $a$  and  $2a$ :

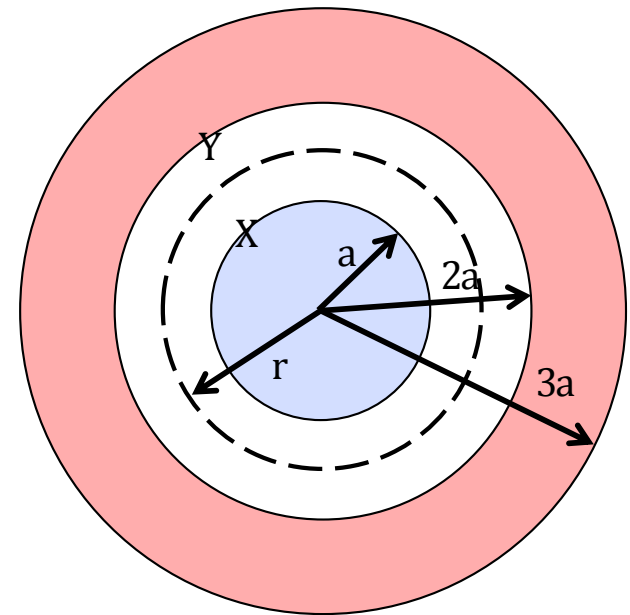
$$\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow E \int_S dA = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$





a.) Use Gauss's Law to derive the electric field for:

iii.)  $2a < r < 3a$

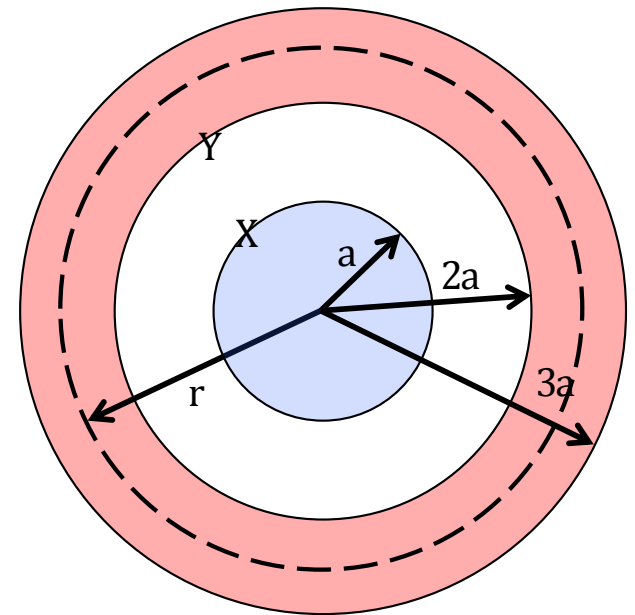
For a Gaussian surface between  $2a$  and  $3a$ :

We need the volume density function (this is the easiest way to go):

$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= \frac{-Q}{V} = \frac{-Q}{\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi R_3^3\right) - \left(\frac{4}{3}\pi R_2^3\right)} \\ &= \frac{-3Q}{4\pi (R_3^3 - R_2^3)} = \frac{-3Q}{4\pi ((3a)^3 - (2a)^3)} \\ &= \frac{-3Q}{4\pi} \frac{1}{19a^3}\end{aligned}$$

With the volume of a differential spherical shell of radius  $c$  and thickness  $dc$  inside the outer insulator being:

$$\begin{aligned}dV &= (\text{surface area})(\text{thickness}) \\ &= (4\pi c^2)dc\end{aligned}$$



With the density function:

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

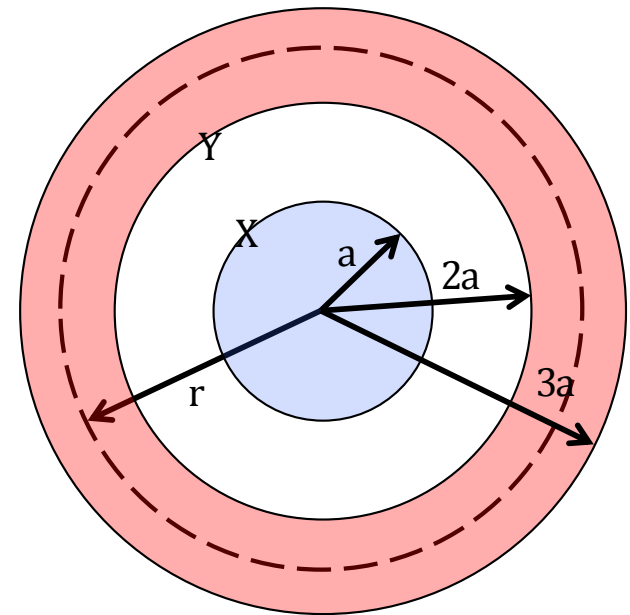
$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q + \int_{c=R_2}^r \rho dV}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q + \rho \int_{c=R_2}^r \rho dV}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q + \rho \int_{c=R_2}^r (4\pi c^2 dc)}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{Q + \rho(4\pi) \left( \frac{c^3}{3} \Big|_{c=R_2}^r \right)}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{Q + \frac{-3Q}{4\pi} \frac{1}{19a^3} (4\pi) \left( \frac{r^3}{3} - \frac{R_2^3}{3} \right)}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{19a^3} (r^3 - (2a)^3) \right)$$



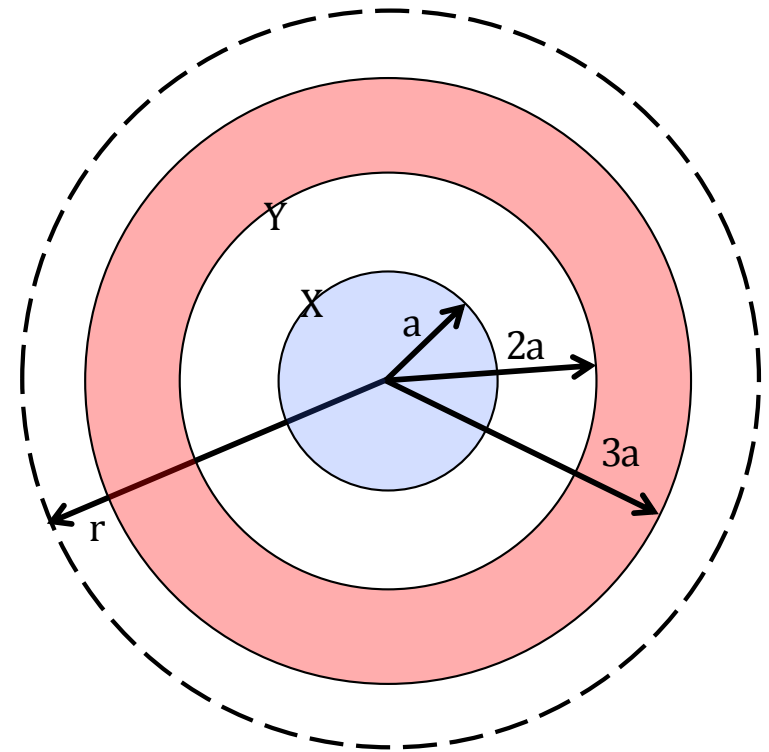
Note: As a check, if we went all the way out to  $r=3a$ , the E-field should be zero as there would be NO net charge enclosed in the Gaussian surface at that radius (+Q on the inside sphere and  $-Q$  on the outside sphere). Trying it, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E} &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{19a^3} \left( (3a)^3 - (2a)^3 \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{19a^3} (19a^3) \right) = 0 \quad (\text{yippee}) \end{aligned}$$

a. continued) Use **Gauss's Law** to derive the electric field for:

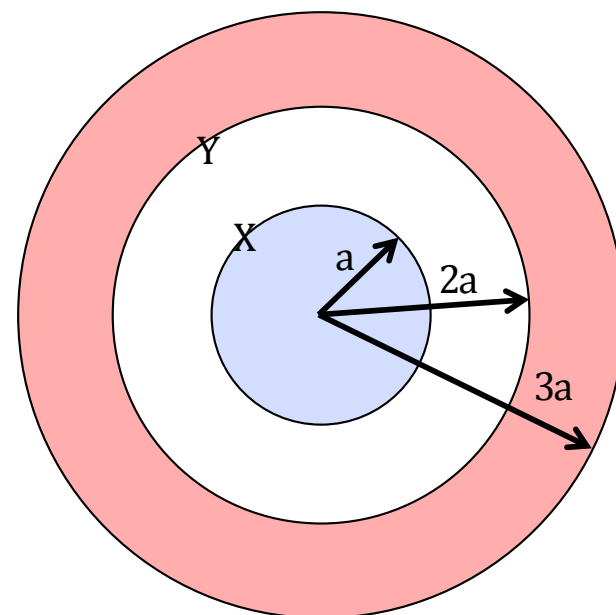
iv.)  $r > 3a$

For a Gaussian surface outside of  $3a$ , the enclosed charge will be zero and  $E = 0$ .



b.) What is the **electric potential** at the outside edge of the outer shell (i.e., at  $r = 3a$ )? Explain your response.

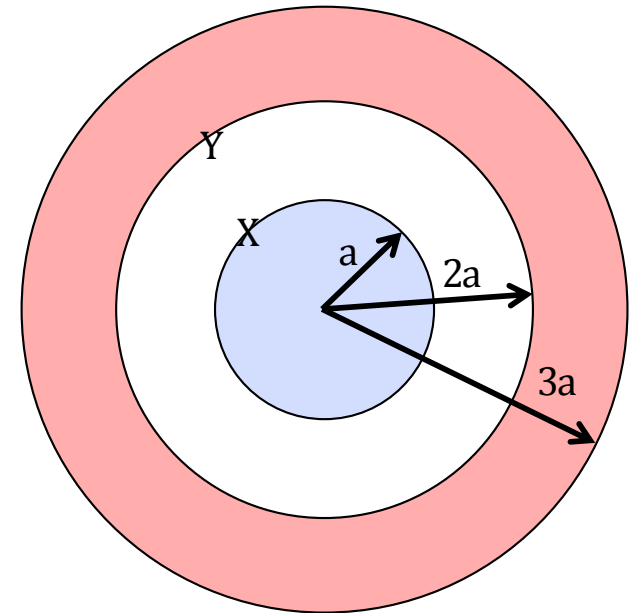
The **electric potential** at the outer edge is **ZERO**. This bit of trickery is based on the fact that the **electric field is zero in the outer region**, which means  $\Delta V$  between any two points in the region must be zero. If the **electric potential is zero at infinity**, it must be zero at the sphere's edge.



c.) Derive an expression for the electric potential difference between points  $X$  and  $Y$  as shown in the sketch.

To do this, we need the **electric potential function** for the volume between  $a$  and  $2a$ .

This is tricky. Because we've already used Gauss's Law to determine the electric fields in the system, the temptation might be to use the extended approach to determine electrical potential differences from infinity (assuming that  $V = 0$  at infinity) by setting up the integrals as shown below.



$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r) &= \Delta V_{\text{outside}} + \Delta V_{R_3 \text{ to } R_2} + \Delta V_{Y \text{ to } X} \\
 &= [V(3a) - V(\infty)] + [V(2a) - V(3a)] + [V(r) - V(2a)] \\
 &= - \int_{r=\infty}^{3a} \vec{E}_{\text{outside}} \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_{r=3a}^{2a} \vec{E}_{R_3 \text{ to } R_1} \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_{r=2a}^r \vec{E}_{Y \text{ to } X} \cdot d\vec{r} \\
 &= - \int_{r=\infty}^{3a} (0 \hat{r}) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) - \int_{r=3a}^{2a} \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left( \frac{1}{19a^3} \right) (r^3 - (2a)^3) \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r}) - \int_{r=2a}^r \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r} \right) \cdot (dr \vec{r})
 \end{aligned}$$

etc.

This horror clearly can't be the expected approach as this is an AP problems, and doing all of this would take an eternity, relatively speaking.

So how to proceed?

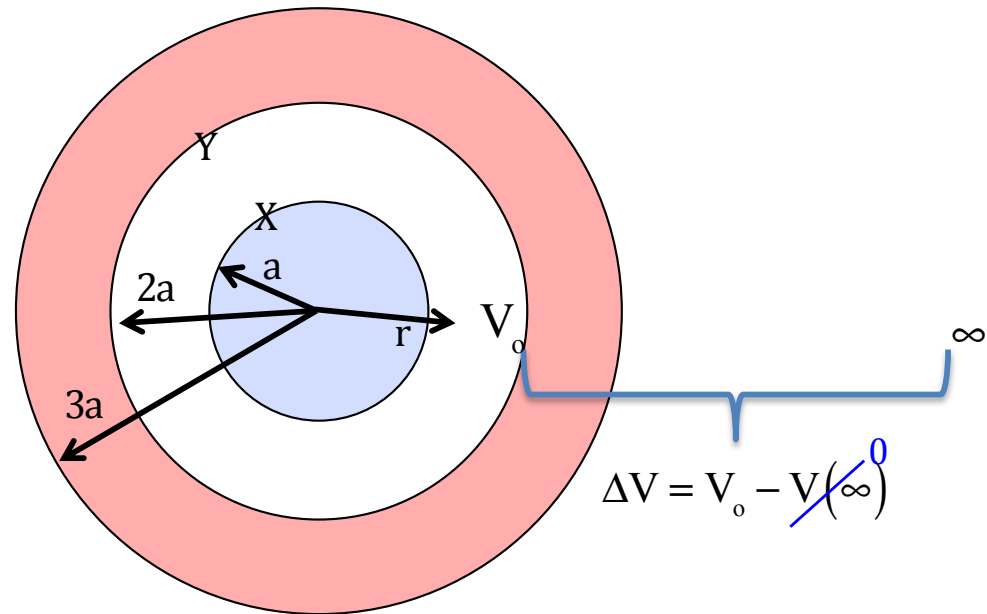
With the voltage at infinity zero, let's define  $V_o$  as the voltage on the inside surface of the outer shell due to the charge shot through the outside shell. The inside sphere will look like a point charge from the outside, so the net voltage at "r," where "r" is between "a" and "2a," will be the superposition of the voltage due to a point charge and  $V_o$ .

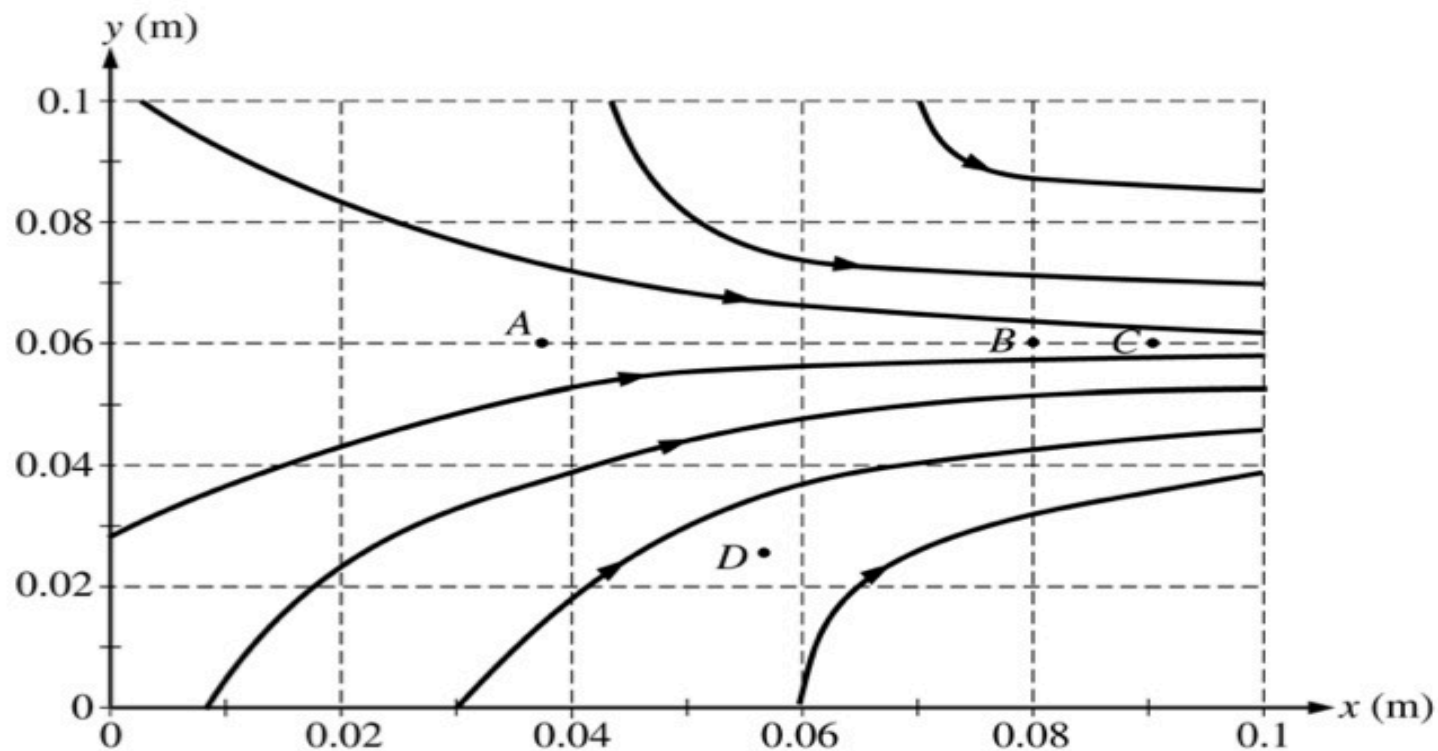
That is

$$V(r) = V_o + k \frac{Q}{r}$$

Evaluating this relationship at X (where  $r = a$ ) and Y (where  $r = 2a$ ), then subtracting the two to get the voltage difference between the two points, yields:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{X-Y} &= \left( V_o + k \frac{Q}{a} \right) - \left( V_o + k \frac{Q}{2a} \right) \\ &= k \frac{Q}{a} - k \frac{Q}{2a} = \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_o} \right) \left( \frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{2a} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_o} \right) \left( \frac{1}{2a} \right) = \frac{1}{8\pi\epsilon_o a} \end{aligned}$$





E&M. 1.

Consider the electric field diagram above.

(a) Points  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are all located at  $y = 0.06$  m .

- At which of these three points is the magnitude of the electric field the greatest? Justify your answer.
- At which of these three points is the electric potential the greatest? Justify your answer.

(b) An electron is released from rest at point  $B$ .

- Qualitatively describe the electron's motion in terms of direction, speed, and acceleration.
- Calculate the electron's speed after it has moved through a potential difference of 10 V.

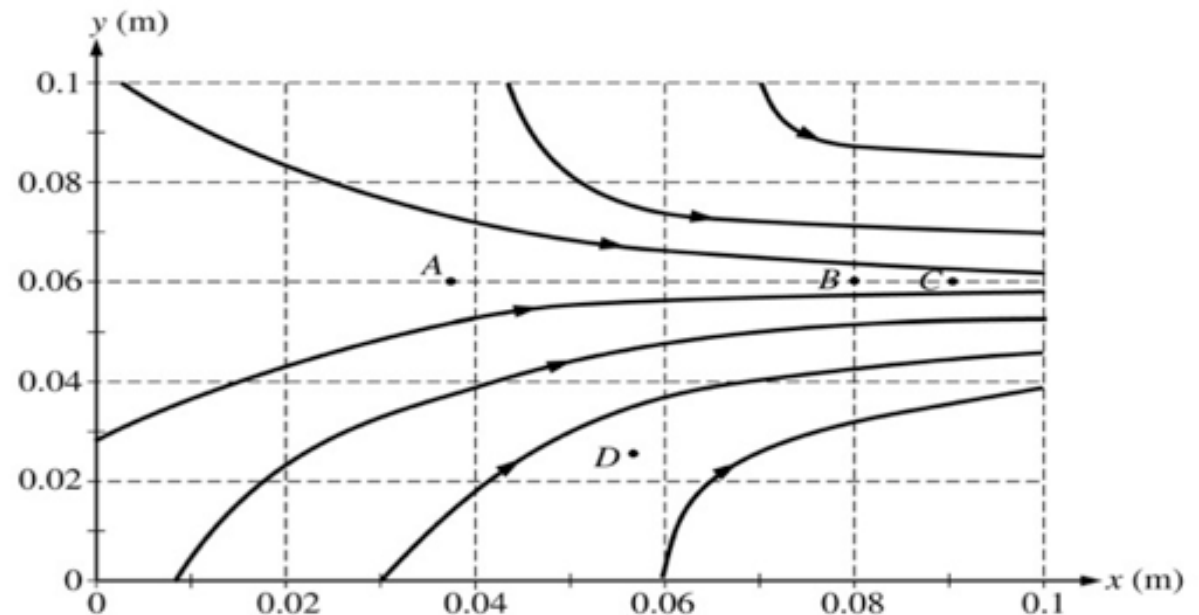
(c) Points  $B$  and  $C$  are separated by a potential difference of 20 V. Estimate the magnitude of the electric field midway between them and state any assumptions that you make.

(d) On the diagram, draw an equipotential line that passes through point  $D$  and intersects at least three electric field lines.

E&M 1: Consider the E-fld lines:

a-i.) Between A, B and C, where is the E-fld the greatest?

The E-fld is greatest at Point C as the field lines are the closest together at that point.



a-ii.) Between A, B and C, where is the electric potential the greatest?

The electric potential is greatest at Point A as electric potentials are always greatest upstream in E-flds (positive charges move along E-fld lines, and E-fld lines move from higher to lower voltages)

b-i.) Describe the motion of an electron released at Point B.

Electrons accelerate opposite the direction of E-flds, so an electron will accelerate toward the left. The acceleration will be a function of the magnitude of the field. From observation, the field lines get farther apart as one moves toward the left, so the E-fld gets smaller in that direction. That means the electric force and, hence, acceleration, will diminish as the electron proceeds, though the velocity will continually increase (just not at a steady pace).



b-ii.) The electron's speed after accelerating through a 10 volt potential difference?

Assuming the electron accelerates, for the sake of argument, from 2 volts to 12 volts, conservation of energy yields:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum KE_1 + \sum U_1 + \sum W_{\text{ext}} &= \sum KE_2 + \sum U_2 \\ 0 + (-eV_2) + 0 &= \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + (-eV_{12}) \\ \Rightarrow v &= \left( \frac{2e}{m}(V_{12} - V_2) \right)^{1/2} \\ &= \left( \frac{2(1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{C})}{(9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{kg})}(12\text{V} - 2\text{V}) \right)^{1/2} \\ &= 1.88 \times 10^6 \text{m/s}\end{aligned}$$

c.) If the voltage between B and C is 20 volts, estimate the magnitude of the E-fld halfway between them. State assumptions made:

Assuming the electric field is constant, or nearly constant in that region, assume (for the sake of the math) that  $V_B = 30V$  and  $V_C = 10V$  (thereby generating the 20 volt potential difference between the two), and noticing from the graph that the distance between the two points is approximately .01 m, we can write:

$$\vec{E} \cdot \vec{d} = -\Delta V$$

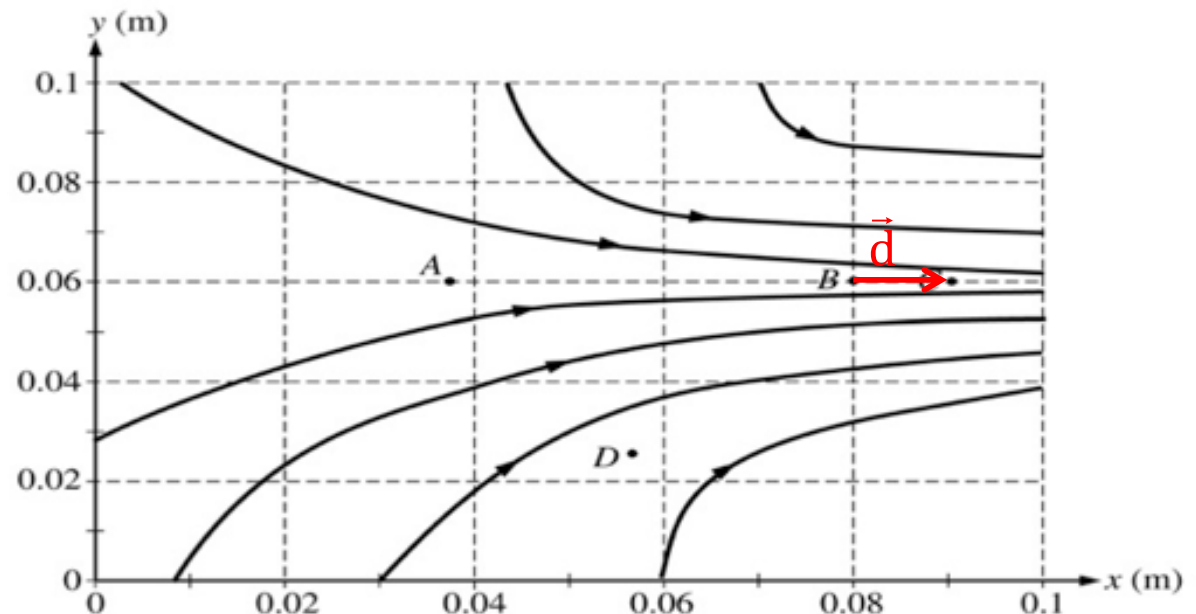
$$\Rightarrow E d \cos\theta = -(V_{\text{final}} - V_{\text{initial}})$$

If we take  $\vec{d}$  to be a vector between Points B and C in the direction of the E-fld, then the angle between  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{d}$  will be **zero** and that relationship becomes:

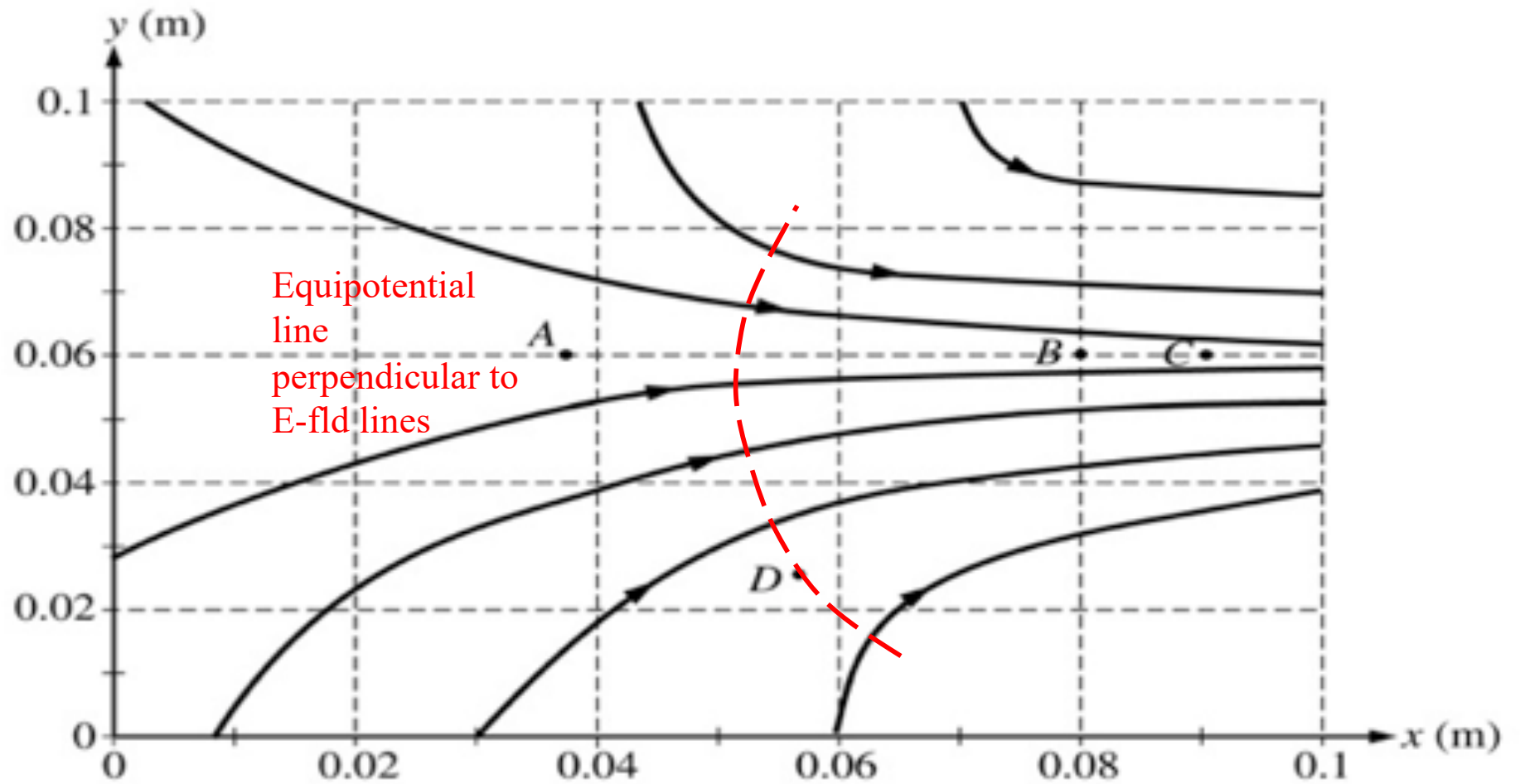
$$E d \cos 0^\circ = -(V_C - V_B)$$

$$E(.01\text{m})(1) = -(10V - 30V)$$

$$\Rightarrow E = 2000 \text{ V/m}$$

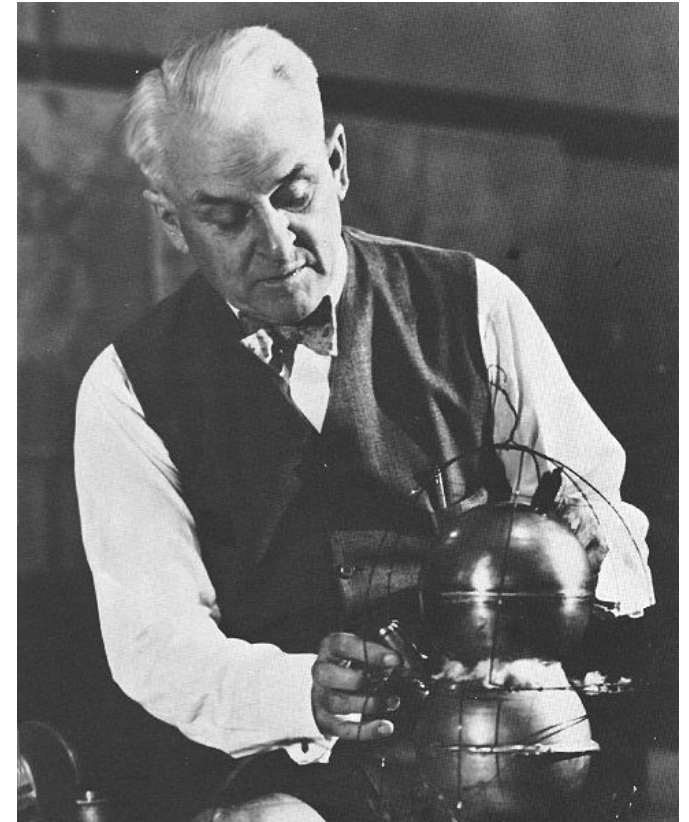
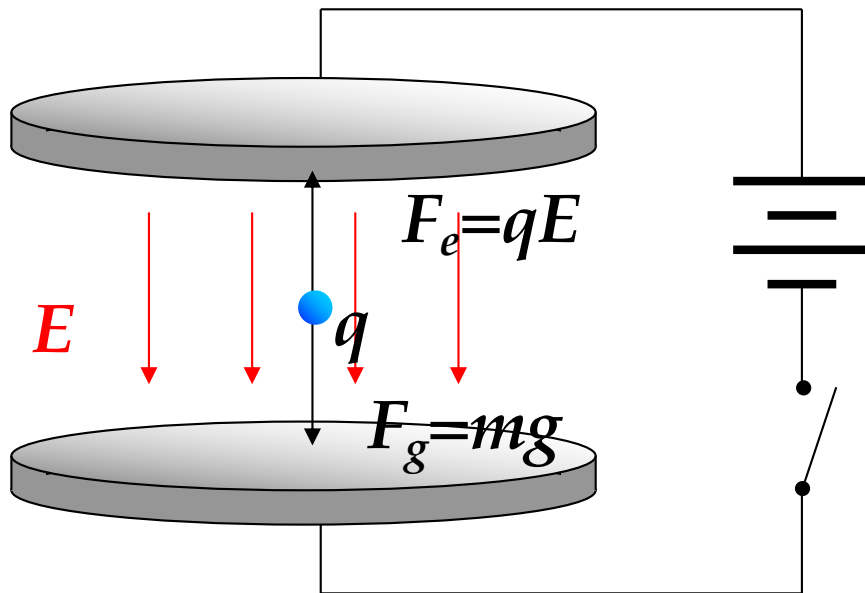


d.) Equipotential line through Point D:



# Millikan's Oil Drop Experiments (courtesy of Mr. White)

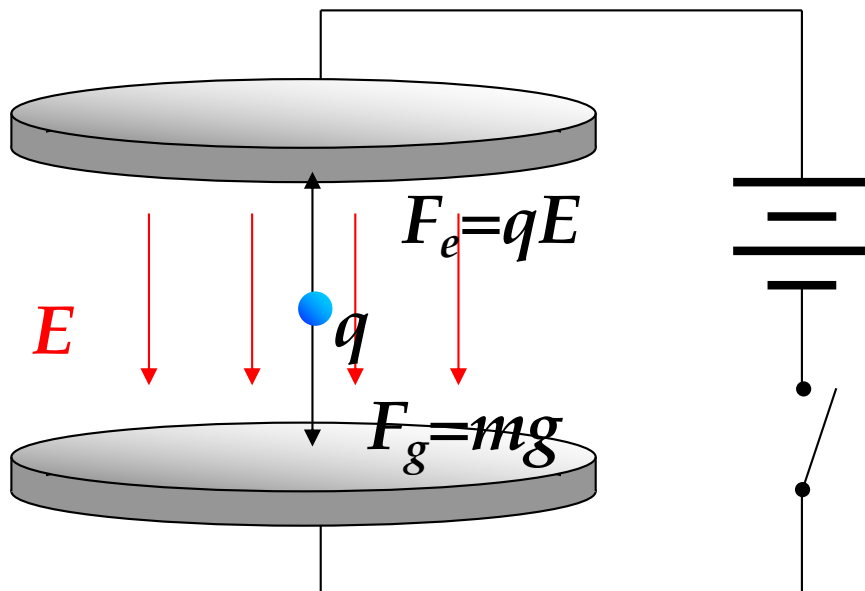
- Conducted from 1909-1913
- Determined the magnitude of electron charge
- Earned Millikan the Nobel Prize in 1923



# Millikan's Oil Drop Experiments

(courtesy of Mr. White)

Assume charged sphere with mass  $m$ , charge  $q$ . It should be possible to set up a specific electric field  $E$ , based on a specific potential  $V$ , that will cause mass to levitate.

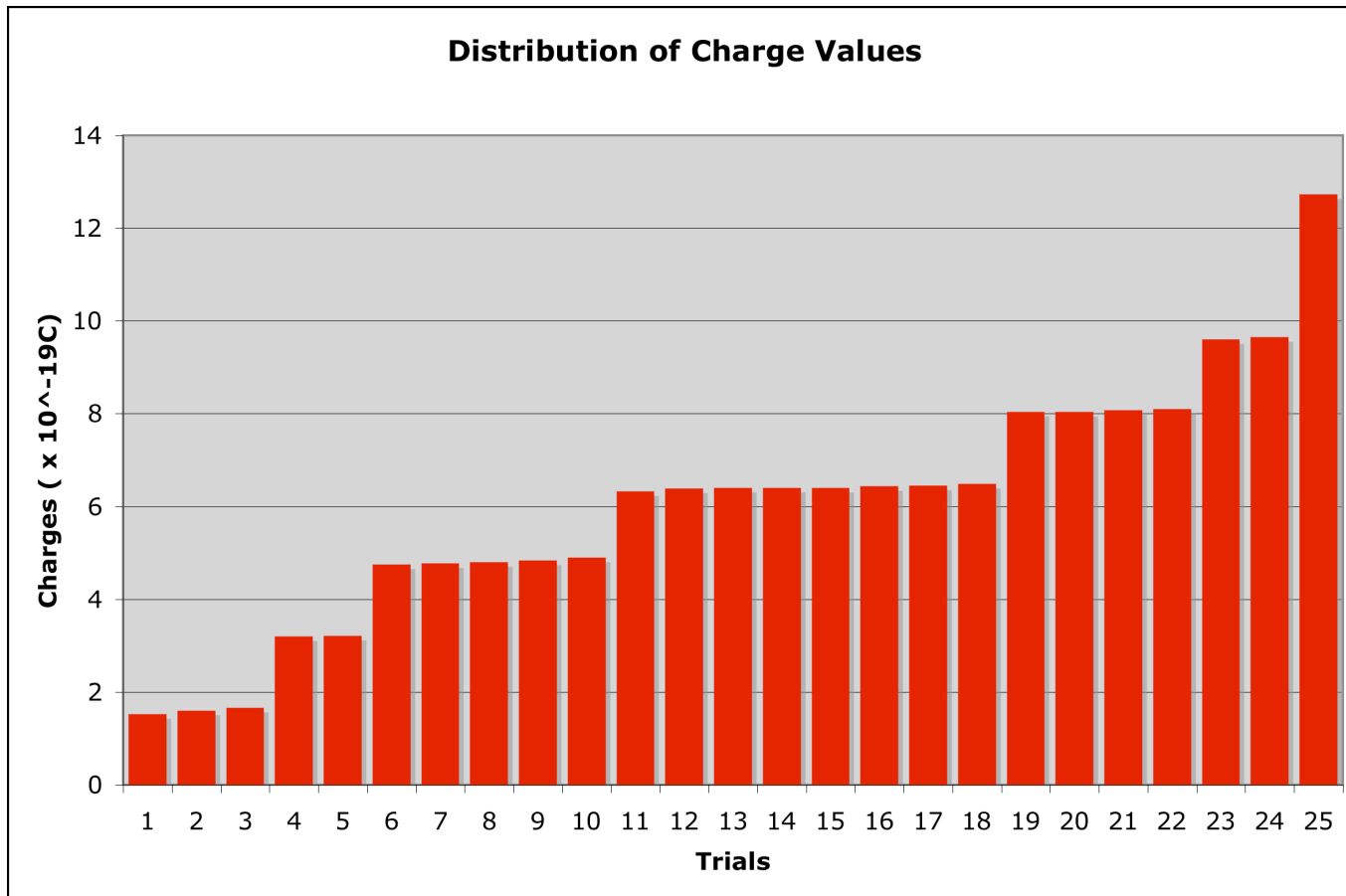


charge ( $\times 10^{-19}$ C )
8.04204
4.90212
6.408
6.3279
1.602
12.7359
9.612
6.408
4.806
6.45606
6.408
3.204
1.5219
6.4881
8.04204
6.44004
4.83804
3.22002
6.39198
8.07408
9.66006
8.10612
4.75794
4.77396
1.66608

# Millikan's Oil Drop Experiments

(courtesy of Mr. White)

By statistically grouping the results, it's possible to determine the fundamental unit of charge.



charge ( x10 <sup>-19</sup> C)
8.04204
4.90212
6.408
6.3279
1.602
12.7359
9.612
6.408
4.806
6.45606
6.408
3.204
1.5219
6.4881
8.04204
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8.07408
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1.66608