

6.2 Mathematical Definition

Let's consider a charge Q in space

→ We want to bring in a test charge q from ∞ to point P in the presence of Q

→ This means we must do work to overcome the force exerted on q from Q 's \vec{E} -field

→ We define work to be:

$$W_I = \int_{\infty}^P \vec{F}_I \cdot d\vec{l} \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{array}{l} \vec{F}_I = \text{force I exert to move } q \\ d\vec{l} = \text{differential path element} \end{array}$$

Assuming zero-acceleration, the force I exert must be equal and opposite to the force from Q 's \vec{E} -field, which we know is $q\vec{E}$

$$\vec{F}_I = -q\vec{E}$$

$$W_I = - \int_{\infty}^P q\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

Electric Potential: the work done per positive test charge when $q \rightarrow 0$

$$V_P = \lim_{q \rightarrow 0} \frac{W_I}{q} = - \int_{\infty}^P \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$V_P = - \int_{\infty}^P \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad [V] \text{ units of } \underline{\underline{\text{volts}}}$$

- Important Points:
- ① V_P is always defined assuming a positive test charge
 - ② In general, the reference point is considered to be infinity
 - ③ Since \vec{E} -fields are conservative fields, we get the same electric potential no matter what path we take to get to P (we choose the easiest path → straight line or along \vec{E} -field line)

6.3 Electric Potential due to a Point Charge

To find the electric potential at point P due to a point charge we must integrate

Why? Because \vec{E} -field varies along the path so the work we do will vary

The simplest path would be a straight line from ∞ to P

How can we approach this?



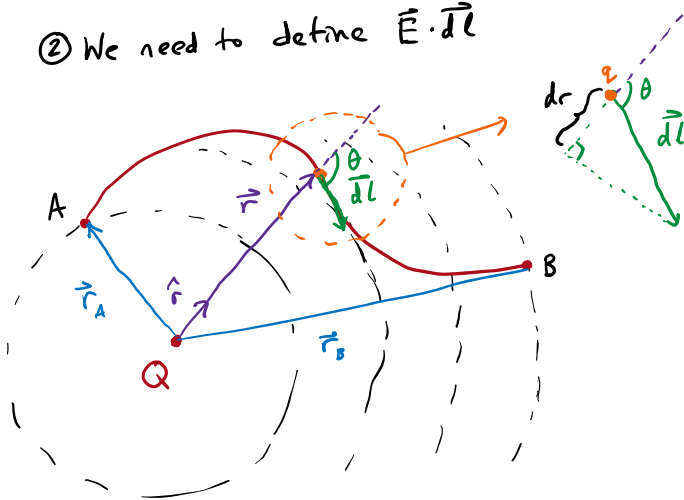
① We have already reached a point r' away from Q and we take a small step $d\vec{l}$ towards Q. It experiences an \vec{E} -field:

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

$$dV = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

↳ what is this?

② We need to define $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$



Here, q moves along the red path from A to B in a general case, moving $d\vec{l}$ along the path and making angle θ with the electric field vector along \vec{r} .

$$\text{So, we know } \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = |\vec{E}| |d\vec{l}| \cos\theta$$

$$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = |\vec{E}| |d\vec{l}| \left(\frac{dr}{dl} \right)$$

$$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = E dr \leftarrow \text{scalar!!}$$

③ We have a point r' away, so:

$$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = E dr'$$

Putting it all together: We have:

$$V_p = - \int_{\infty}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \int_{\infty}^r E dr = - \int_{\infty}^r \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'^2} dr' = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$V_p = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

ELECTRIC POTENTIAL
DUE TO POINT CHARGE

↳ If $Q > 0$, $V_p > 0$ → repulsion means positive work

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If $Q < 0$, $V_p < 0$ → attraction means negative work

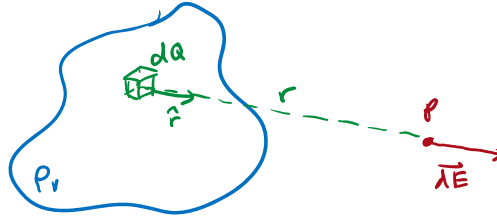
6.4 Electric Potential due to Distributed Charges

There are 2 main ways of calculating electric potential V_p :

Method #1 \rightarrow Find \vec{E} -field everywhere as a function of r and solving $V_p = -\int_{\infty}^r E dr$

Method #2 \rightarrow Apply superposition and consider the charge distribution as a summation of individual charges dQ

How do we use this?



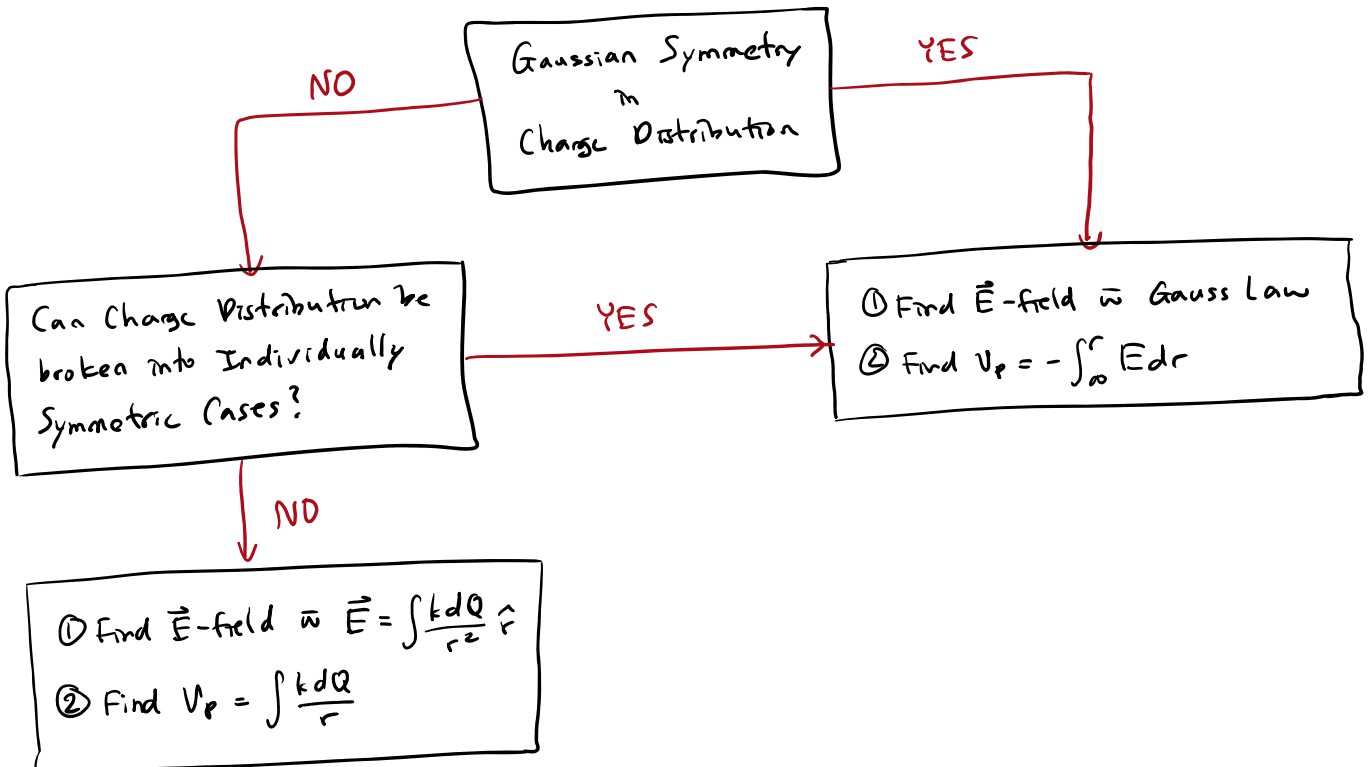
The differential potential dV_p due to a point charge is:

$$dV_p = \frac{dQ}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} = \frac{\rho_v dV}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$V_p = \int \frac{\rho_v dV}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

no need for symmetry!

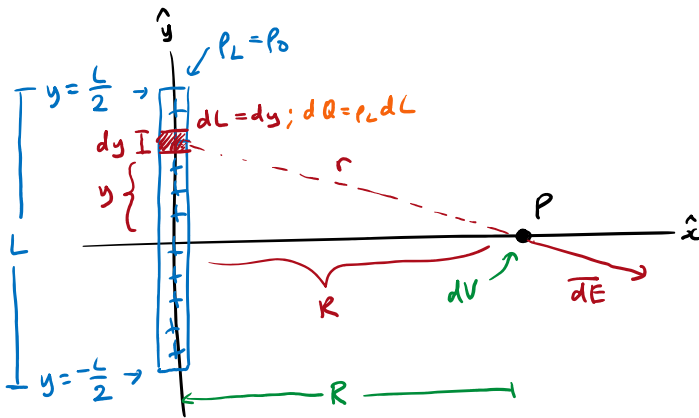
When to use which method?



6.4.1 Examples

Example #1. Find the electric potential due to a charge Q uniformly distributed over a line L at a point on the axis bisecting the line.

Diagram:



Find V :

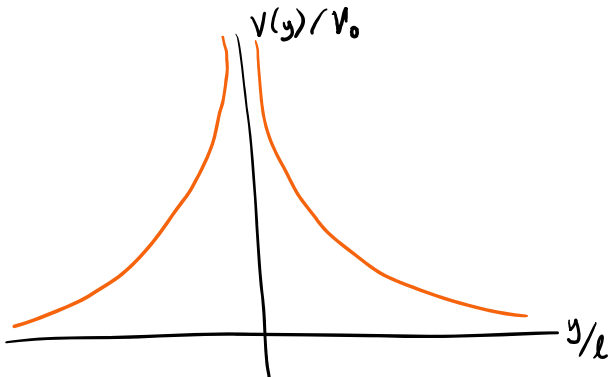
$$V = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{k\rho_L dy}{\sqrt{R^2 + y^2}}$$

Aside:

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2})$$

$$V = k\rho_L \ln \left[\frac{L/2 + \sqrt{(L/2)^2 + R^2}}{-L/2 + \sqrt{(-L/2)^2 + R^2}} \right]$$

Plotting the Potential



Pick Method:

→ we can't use Gauss Law for finite lengths

→ we must use superposition

Find dV :

$$dV = \frac{k dQ}{r} = \frac{k\rho_L dL}{r} = \frac{k\rho_L dy}{r}$$

→ must define r w.r.t. y :

$$r = \sqrt{R^2 + y^2}$$

$$dV = \frac{k\rho_L dy}{\sqrt{R^2 + y^2}}$$

Notes:

→ V_0 is $k\rho_L$ (a constant)

What happens for a +ve and -ve charge?

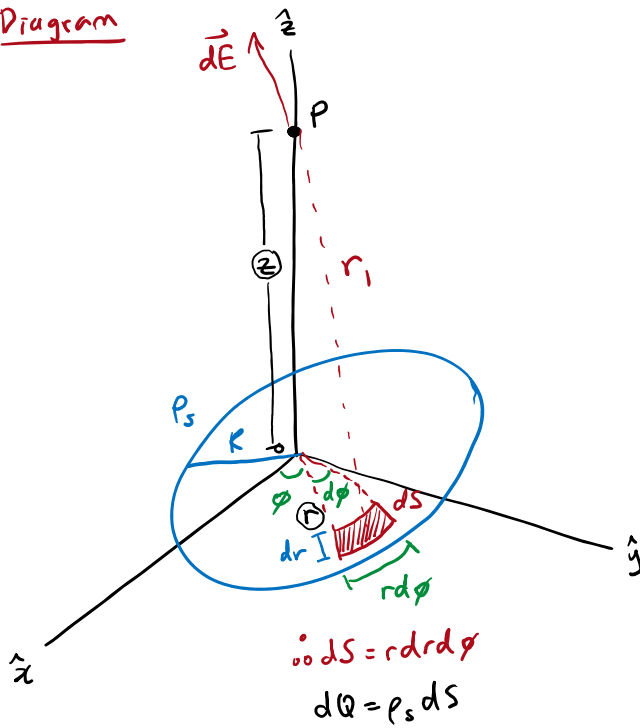
rolls down the hill and loses potential

climb the potential hill and rise to a higher potential

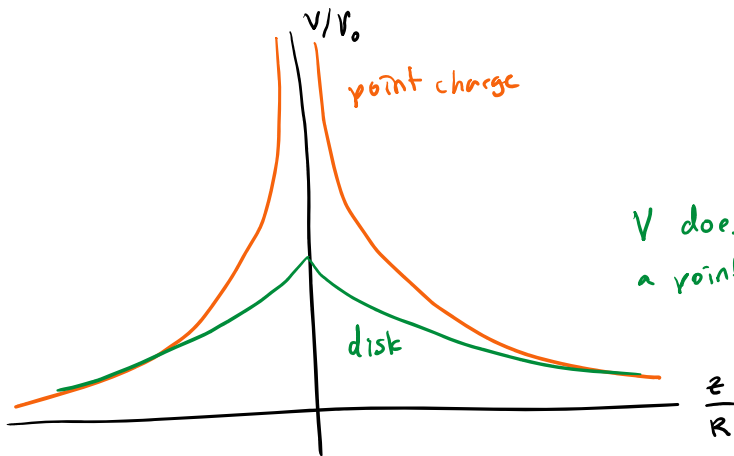
6.4.2 Examples

Example #2. A charge Q is distributed over a disk of radius R , with uniform charge density. Calculate the electric potential at point P , a distance z above the center of the disk.

Diagram



Plot the Potential



Pick Method: \rightarrow no Gaussian symmetry so we must use superposition

Find dV :

$$dV = \frac{k dQ}{r_i} = \frac{k \rho_s r dr d\phi}{r_i}$$

r_i
 \hookrightarrow dependent on r

$$r_i = \sqrt{r^2 + z^2}$$

$$dV = \frac{k \rho_s r dr d\phi}{\sqrt{r^2 + z^2}} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \phi: 0 \rightarrow 2\pi \\ r: 0 \rightarrow R \end{array} \right.$$

Find V :

$$V = k \rho_s \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^R \frac{r dr}{\sqrt{r^2 + z^2}}$$

$$V = k \rho_s (2\pi) \left[\sqrt{R^2 + z^2} - z \right]$$

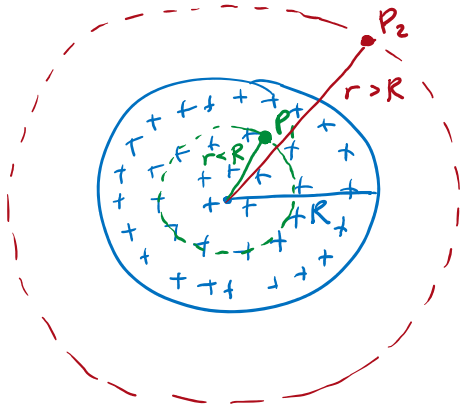
$$\underline{\underline{V = 2\pi k \rho_s \left[\sqrt{R^2 + z^2} - z \right]}}$$

V does not go to infinity like it does with a point charge!

6.4.3 Examples

Example #3. A charge Q is uniformly distributed over the volume of a sphere of radius R . Calculate the electric potential as a function of r from 0 to infinity.

Diagram



$r < R$ ($0 \leq r \leq R$)

We know from before that the

$$\vec{E}_1(r) = \frac{\rho_v r}{3\epsilon_0} \hat{r} \quad \text{where } \rho_v = \frac{Q}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3}$$

$$V_1(r < R) = -\int_{\infty}^r E_1 dr$$

$$V_1(r < R) = -\int_{\infty}^R E_2 dr + \left(-\int_R^r E_1 dr\right)$$

$$V_1(r < R) = V_2(R) - \int_R^r \frac{\rho_v r}{3\epsilon_0} dr$$

$$V_1(r < R) = \frac{kQ}{R} + \frac{\rho_v}{6\epsilon_0} [R^2 - r^2]$$

$$\underline{\underline{V_1(r < R) = \frac{kQ}{R} + \frac{Q[R^2 - r^2]}{8\pi R^3 \epsilon_0}}}$$

Pick Method We can use Gauss Law to find the \vec{E} -field by choosing a spherical Gaussian surface... this means we use Method 1
 \rightarrow We must remember there are 2 regions we must analyze: $r < R$, $r > R$

$r > R$ ($R \leq r \leq \infty$)

$$\vec{E}_2(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r}$$

$$V_2(r) = -\int_{\infty}^r E_2 dr = -\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\infty}^r \frac{1}{r^2} dr$$

$$\underline{\underline{V_2(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}}} \quad \vec{E}\text{-field behaves like a point charge, so should } V$$

\vec{E} -field changes with r , so we take an alternative approach and simplify our integral by splitting it up (outside \rightarrow in)

6.5 Electric Potential and Electrostatic Potential Energy

Are electric potential (V_p) and electrostatic potential energy (U), the same? NO!!

Analogy: → gravitational potential at a point in the gravitational field

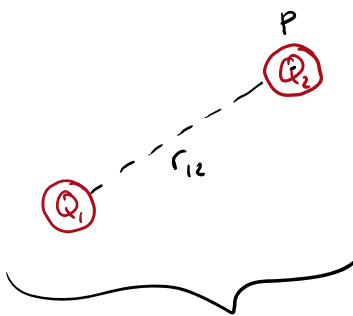
↳ this is the gravitational potential energy of a unit mass placed at that point

Similarly, the electric potential at any point in the \vec{E} -field is the electric potential energy of a unit positive charge at that point

→ electric potential is the amount of work done to bring q from $\infty \rightarrow P$

→ electric potential energy is the energy needed to move a charge against the electric field

Let's Take a Closer Look:



Once assembled, the total stored energy of the system is:

$$U_{\text{TOT}} = U_1 + U_2$$

$$U_{\text{TOT}} = 0 + \Delta U_e \quad (\text{initial energy of } Q_1 \text{ is } 0)$$

$$\underline{U_{\text{TOT}} = qV_p}$$

→ Q_1 alone has no force acting on it, so no stored energy

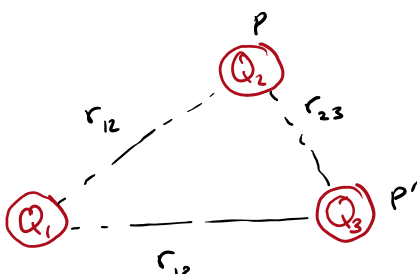
→ Q_2 at P will have electric potential of $\frac{kQ_1}{r_{12}}$
(work I have to do to bring $+1C$ charge to P)

→ This means the work to bring Q_2 to P is given by $Q_2 V_p$, stored as potential energy

$$\therefore \underline{\Delta U_e = qV_p} \quad \text{where } q = \text{charge we are bringing in}$$

$$V_p = V \text{ at that point } P$$

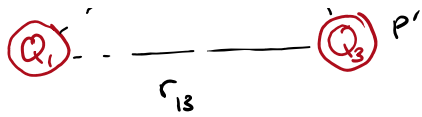
What happens if we bring in a third charge?



→ If we add a 3rd charge, we know the energy that's already stored in the system is:

$$U_i = \frac{kQ_1 Q_2}{r_{12}} \Rightarrow U_e = qV_p, \quad V_p = \frac{kQ_1}{r_{12}}$$

→ the electric potential at P' is:



→ the electric potential at P' is:

$$V_{P'} = \frac{kQ_1}{r_{13}} + \frac{kQ_2}{r_{23}}$$

→ the change in potential energy is:

$$\Delta U_e = Q_3 V_{P'} = \frac{kQ_1 Q_3}{r_{13}} + \frac{kQ_2 Q_3}{r_{23}}$$

→ the total energy stored in the system will be:

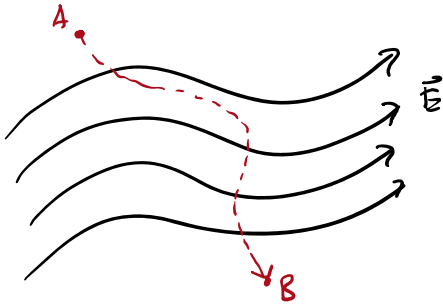
$$U_f = U_i + \Delta U_e = \frac{kQ_1 Q_2}{r_{12}} + \frac{kQ_1 Q_3}{r_{13}} + \frac{kQ_2 Q_3}{r_{23}}$$

For a general case:

$$U_{\text{TOT}} = k \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j>i}^N \frac{Q_i Q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

6.6 Electric Potential Difference Between Points

In many cases, we are interested in finding the potential difference between 2 points
So how can we calculate this?



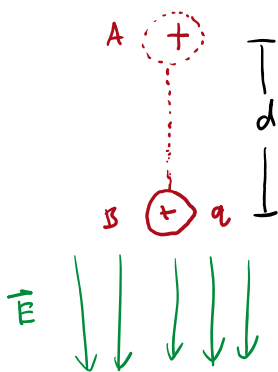
Calculating Potential Difference

$$\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = - \int_A^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = - \left(\int_{\infty}^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} - \int_{\infty}^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \right)$$

$$\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = - \int_{\infty}^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{\infty}^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \underline{\underline{V_B - V_A}}$$

What About Uniform \vec{E} -Fields?



$$\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = V_B - V_A = - \int_A^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -E \underbrace{\int_A^B dl}_{\text{total distance}}$$

$$\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = -Ed$$

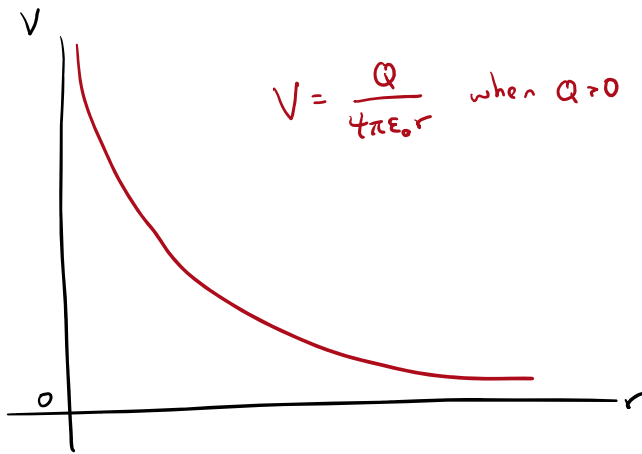
Or in general:

$$\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = V_B - V_A = \frac{kQ}{r_B} - \frac{kQ}{r_A}$$

$$\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = kQ \left(\frac{1}{r_B} - \frac{1}{r_A} \right)$$

6.7 Visualizing Electric Potential

How can we conceptualize electric potential?



When we place a positive test charge in the system ...

→ $+q$ will fall down the hill because it is repelled

When we place a negative test charge in the system ...

→ $-q$ will ride up the hill since it is attracted to Q

⚡ The greater the force, the steeper the hill ⚡

6.8 Electric Field from Electric Potential

We know that $dV = -\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$

↳ In Cartesian coordinates, we can write this as follows:

$$\vec{E} = E_x \hat{x} + E_y \hat{y} + E_z \hat{z} ; \quad d\vec{l} = dx \hat{x} + dy \hat{y} + dz \hat{z}$$
$$= \langle E_x, E_y, E_z \rangle \quad = \langle dx, dy, dz \rangle$$

$$dV = -(E_x dx + E_y dy + E_z dz)$$

$$E_x = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \quad E_y = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \quad E_z = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial z}$$

But the gradient or del operator is given as:

$$\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{z} \right)$$

We can simplify and condense the equations above:

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

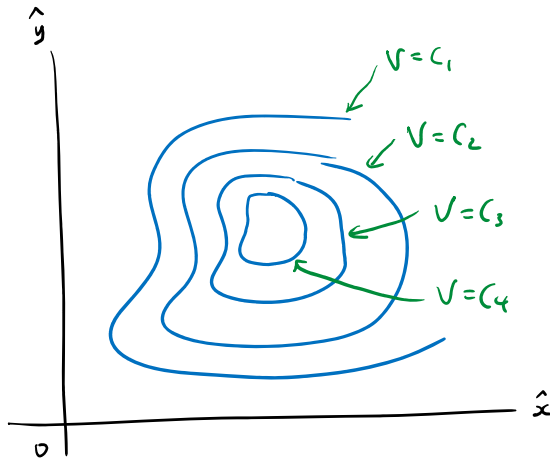
$$\boxed{\vec{E} = -\nabla V}$$

6.9 Equipotential Surfaces

Equipotential Surface: a curve characterized by a constant potential V

We can look at contour maps!

↳ We can use $V(x,y)$ in 2D:



Since $\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = -\int_A^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$, the only way $\Delta V_{A \rightarrow B} = 0$ is if \vec{E} is perp to $d\vec{l}$ so $\cos 90^\circ = 0$

∴ $\vec{E} \perp d\vec{l}$ for equipotential surfaces!

* no work is done to move the charges along these equipotentials *