

### 3. Electric Potential

3.1) Electric potential energy

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3.4) Equipotential surfaces

#### 3.1) Electric potential energy

⊗ Any fixed set of charges gives rise to a conservative electrostatic force

This follows from Coulomb's Law for the force between a charge  $q_1$  at the origin and a charge  $q_2$  at  $\vec{r}$ :

$$\vec{F}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

(Exact same form as gravity:  $\vec{F}(\vec{r}) = -G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \hat{r}$ ,

which we showed had potential energy function

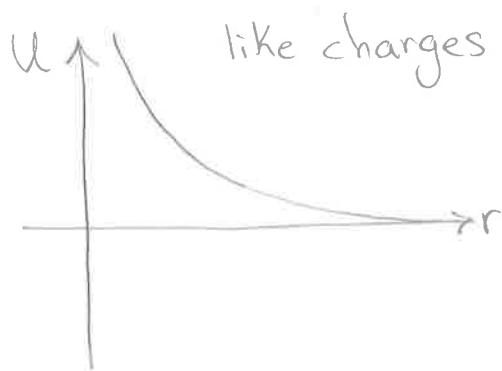
$$U(r) = -G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r} )$$

Repeat exact same calculation to get

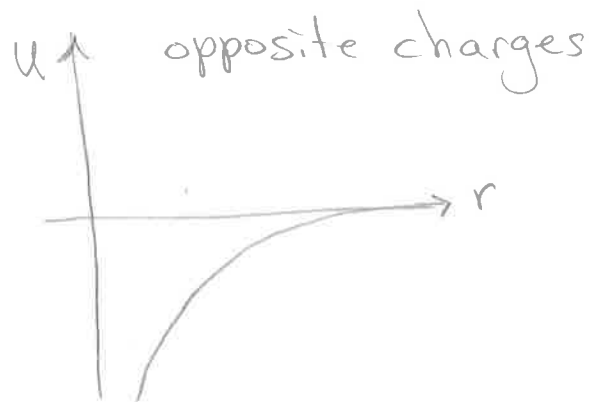
$$U_e(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r}$$

(only difference is sign  $\rightarrow$  gravity always attractive, but electric force can also be repulsive)

\* To be crystal clear,  $U_e(\vec{r})$  above is the electric potential energy between two charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  located a distance  $r$  apart and choosing the zero of potential energy at  $\infty$ :  $U(r=\infty) \equiv 0$ .



Bring same-charge particles together  
 $\Rightarrow$  increase  $U$



Bring opposite-charge particles together  
 $\Rightarrow$  decrease  $U$

\* Key Point: Potential energies from different sources just add up.

Recall that in mechanics we could drop an object that is attached to a spring and use energy conservation to find speed:

$$KE(y_1) + \underbrace{U_s(y_1) + U_g(y_1)} = KE(y_2) + U_s(y_2) + U_g(y_2)$$

Just added spring and gravitational potential energies to get total  $U$ .

(\*) For multiple point charges, just add up separate electric potential energies

Example: What is the potential energy of charge  $q_3$  in the vicinity of charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  below?

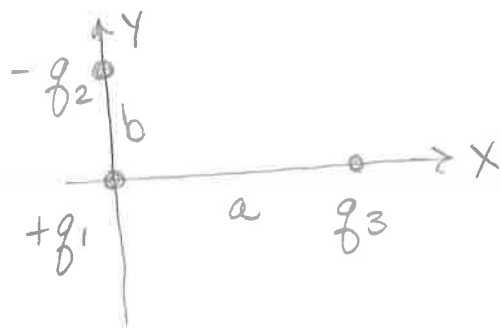
Solution: Just add  $U_{13}$  and

$U_{23}$  to get

$$U_{13} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_3}{a}$$

$$U_{23} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(-q_2)(q_3)}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}$$

$$U_{\text{total}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{q_1 q_3}{a} - \frac{q_2 q_3}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} \right)$$



So much easier than dealing with electric forces! Am I right?

3.2) Electric potential

Wait, wasn't this the title of the previous section??

No!

Electric potential  $\neq$  Electric potential energy

Recall that electric field allowed us to describe how a given charge affects the space surrounding it ( $\vec{E} \equiv \frac{\vec{F}_q}{q}$ )

Likewise we define the electric potential in the area around a point charge to be

$$V_1(r) = \frac{U_{12}(r)}{q_2} = \frac{1}{q_2} \left[ \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r}}$$

⊗ We say that the charge  $q$  creates an electric potential that depends only on the charge  $q$  and the distance  $r$  away from  $q$ .

\* Positive charges create positive potentials and negative charges create negative potentials.

\* Given the electric potential  $V(r)$ , we can easily calculate the electric potential energy of a point charge:

$$U_q(r) = qV(r)$$

\* There are 2 ways to compute the electric potential

① From the fundamental definition:

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r} \rightarrow dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r}$$

Point charges: add up

Charge distributions: integrate

② From the electric field  $\vec{E}(\vec{r})$ :

$$V(b) - V(a) = - \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

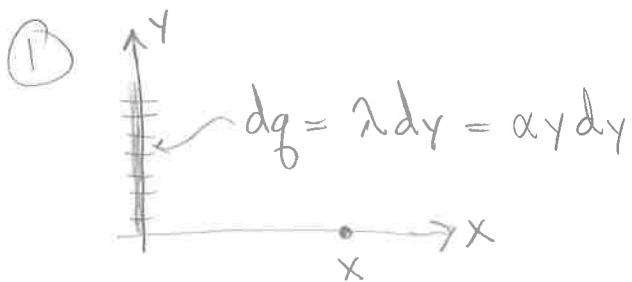
(Exactly analogous to  $U(b) - U(a) = - \int_a^b \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$ )

\* Use ① if given the distribution of charges and ② if you are given the electric field  $\vec{E}$ .

Example: Suppose there is rod of length  $L$  placed on the  $y$ -axis with one end at the origin. The rod has a non-uniform charge density  $\lambda(y) = \alpha y$ , where  $\alpha$  is a positive constant. Find the electric potential along the  $x$ -axis.

Solution: Note... we could first calculate  $\vec{E}$  and then integrate to get  $V$ , but that is overkill. Instead, just use fundamental definition  $dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r}$ .

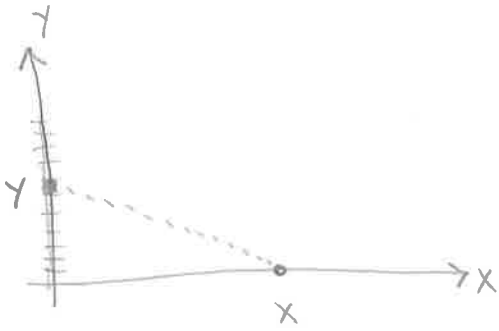
⊛ Follow same steps as with computing  $\vec{E}$  field, except we can drop the step where we broke  $\vec{E}$  into components.



Break up into pieces and determine  $dq$ .

② Integration region:  $\int_0^L dy$

③ Take arbitrary point in integration region and compute  $dV$ :



$$dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r}$$

$$dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda dy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

$$dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\alpha y dy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

④ Just integrate:

$$V(x) = \int dV = \int_0^L \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\alpha y}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} dy$$

$$= \frac{\alpha}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_0^L \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} dy$$

← Again, we will give you any non-trivial integrals.

Hopefully you recognize that this is much easier than computing the electric field!

Example: Suppose the electric field in a region of space

is given piecewise by

$$\vec{E}(r) = \begin{cases} K \frac{r}{R^3} \hat{u}_r & \text{for } r < R \\ K \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{u}_r & \text{for } r > R \end{cases}$$

Find the potential difference  $V(2R) - V(0)$ .

Solution: Since we are given the electric field,

$$\text{we use } V(2R) - V(0) = - \int_0^{2R} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$$= - \int_0^R \vec{E}_1 \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_R^{2R} \vec{E}_2 \cdot d\vec{r}$$

Since  $\vec{E}$  has different functional form, we break into 2 regions.

$$= - \int_0^R K \frac{r}{R^3} dr - \int_R^{2R} K \frac{1}{r^2} dr$$

$$= - \frac{K}{R^3} \left[ \frac{1}{2} r^2 \right]_0^R - K \left[ -\frac{1}{r} \right]_R^{2R}$$

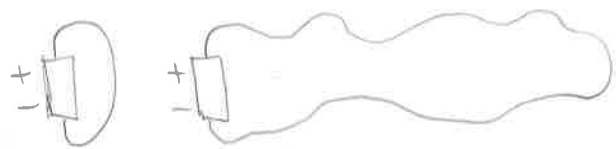
$$= - \frac{K}{R^3} \frac{1}{2} R^2 + K \left[ \frac{1}{2R} - \frac{1}{R} \right]$$

$$= - \frac{1}{2} \frac{K}{R} + K \left[ \frac{-1}{2R} \right] = \boxed{\frac{-K}{R}}$$

Sanity check: Since we are moving in the direction of  $\vec{E}$  field in going from 0 to  $2R$ , the potential should be decreasing and  $V(2R) - V(0) < 0$ , which is what we found.

⊛ Like changes in potential energy, changes in electric potential are path independent.

Very important for circuits!



Bend wires however we want!



3.3) Electric potential for infinite line charge

\* When integrating  $dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r}$  we have assumed that  $V(\infty) \equiv 0$ .

Sometimes we cannot make this assumption

Example: Suppose we have an infinitely long line charge with constant charge density  $\lambda_0$ . What is the electric field a distance  $d$  away?

$$\textcircled{1} dq = \lambda_0 dy$$

$$\textcircled{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy$$

$$\textcircled{3} dE = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda_0 dy}{y^2 + d^2}$$

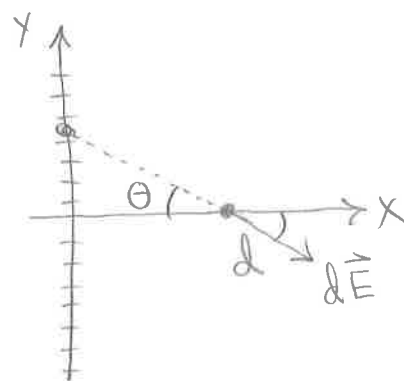
$$\textcircled{4} E_y = 0 \text{ by symmetry}$$

$$dE_x = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda_0 dy}{y^2 + d^2} \cos\theta = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda_0 dy}{y^2 + d^2} \frac{d}{\sqrt{y^2 + d^2}}$$

$$\textcircled{5} E_x = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \lambda_0 d \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{(y^2 + d^2)^{3/2}}}_{2/d^2} \quad (y = \tan u \text{ substitution})$$

$$E_x = \frac{\lambda_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0 d}$$

Perfectly well behaved.



What about electric potential at  $x=d$ , assuming we choose  $V(\infty) \equiv 0$ ?

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(x) - V(\infty) &= V(x) = - \int_{\infty}^x \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \\
 &= - \int_{\infty}^x \left( \frac{\lambda_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0 x} \hat{i}_x \right) \cdot (dx \hat{i}_x + dy \hat{i}_y) \\
 &= - \int_{\infty}^x \frac{\lambda_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{x} dx \\
 &= - \frac{\lambda_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \ln x \right]_{\infty}^x = - \frac{\lambda_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \ln x - \ln \infty \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Problem!

Electric potential at any point along  $x$ -axis would be infinite!

⊛ Sometimes we cannot choose  $V(\infty) \equiv 0$ , particularly if the charge distribution extends to  $\infty$ .

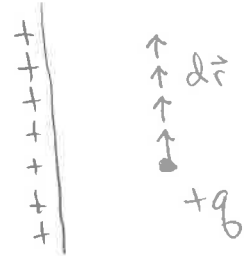
⊛ However, changes in electric potential are always well defined:

$$V(b) - V(a) = - \frac{\lambda_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \ln b - \ln a \right] = \boxed{\frac{\lambda_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{a}{b}}$$

3.4) Equipotential surfaces

What happens if we move a point charge upward and parallel to a very long line charge?

- (a) potential energy increases
- (b) potential energy decreases
- (c) potential energy stays the same



Answer: (c) because  $U(b) - U(a) = -\int_a^b \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$  and

$\vec{F}$  is perpendicular to  $d\vec{r} \Rightarrow \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$ .

We could move point charge anywhere on a cylinder centered on the line charge without doing work.

$\Rightarrow$  Cylinder is called an equipotential surface

⊗ Conservative forces do no work along equipotential surfaces:

$$W = \Delta KE = -\Delta U = 0$$

Question: What are the equipotential surfaces for a point charge?

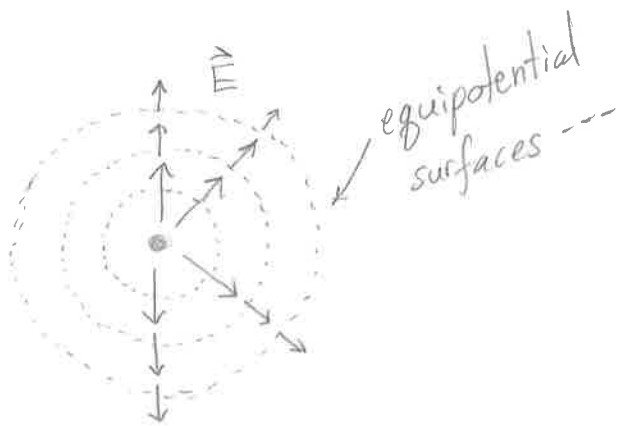
Answer: Concentric spheres centered at point charge

What is the relationship between equipotential surfaces and the electric field?

⊗ Equipotential surfaces always perpendicular to  $\vec{E}$  field

(by definition, no work is done  $\Rightarrow \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0.})$$



⊗ Plotting equipotential surfaces analogous to elevation maps

(topographic maps) for terrain.

Actually, more than just an analogy: curves on topographic maps are the equipotential surfaces for the gravitational force