

Physics 1200

Lecture 04

Spring 2024

Electric Potential Energy,
Electric Potential,
Equipotential Surfaces

Electric Potential Energy

- Work done by a force \vec{F} on an object moving from point A (at \vec{r}_A) to point B (at \vec{r}_B):

$$W_{AB} = \int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s},$$

where

$$d\vec{s} = dx\hat{i} + dy\hat{j} + dz\hat{k}$$

is path increment to get from A to B .

- Forces for which W_{AB} is independent of the path between the two endpoints are conservative forces.
 - Work by a conservative force depends only on locations of endpoints. Not the path to get from one point to the other.
 - Work done by a conservative force \vec{F}_{cons} for a closed path

$$W = \oint \vec{F}_{cons} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0.$$

Electric Potential Energy (2)

- For conservative forces, potential energy difference defined as

$$\Delta U = U(\vec{r}_B) - U(\vec{r}_A) \equiv -W_{AB} = - \int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} \vec{F}_{cons} \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

- Potential energy U is a scalar function of position. It is not a vector function!
- For static electric fields, the electric force is a conservative force. For a charge q in an electric field \vec{E} ,

$$\vec{F}_E = q\vec{E},$$

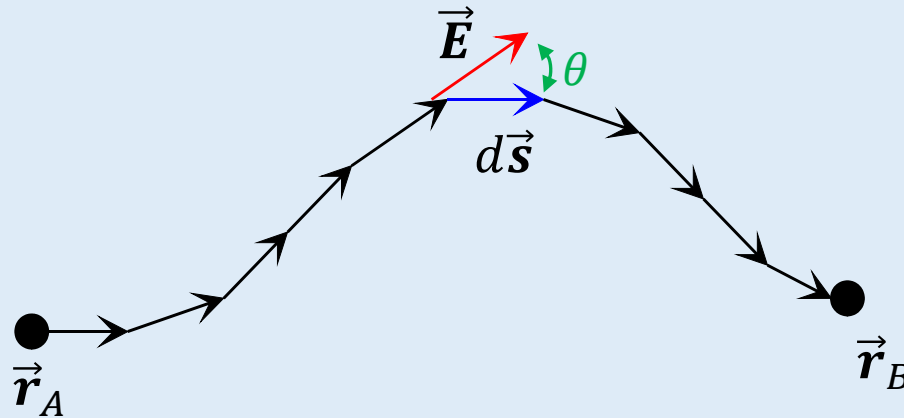
and the change in electrical potential energy

$$\Delta U_E = - \int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} q\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -q \int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

SI unit of work and energy is the Joule (J).

Integral Dot (Scalar) Product – Line Integrals

- When integrating along path, use component of \vec{E} in the direction of the local path increment $d\vec{s}$:



Using dot products, can write

$$\int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} E \cos \theta \, ds \quad (\text{angle } \theta \text{ in diagram}),$$

or,

$$\int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_{x_A}^{x_B} E_x \, dx + \int_{y_A}^{y_B} E_y \, dy + \int_{z_A}^{z_B} E_z \, dz.$$

These types of expressions are known as 'line integrals'.

Electric Potential

- Electric potential V is a scalar field created by electric charges. Useful for electrostatic situations.
- Change in potential V between the points A and B is defined by the relation

$$\Delta V \equiv \frac{\Delta U_E}{q} = - \int_{\vec{r}_A}^{\vec{r}_B} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} .$$

Electric potential is the electrostatic potential energy per Coulomb (i.e., per unit charge).

- SI unit of electric potential is the Volt, $1V = J/C$.
Be careful: don't confuse the potential (V) with its unit (V).
Sometimes the term 'voltage' is used for potential.

Electric Potential (2)

- From the defining relation, change in electric potential energy U_E of a charge q in a potential V is

$$\Delta U_E = q \Delta V.$$

- For a system of charges of finite extent, reference point where $V = 0$ is usually taken at infinity (i.e., very far away from the system). Follows that

$$V(r) - V(\infty) = V(r) - 0 = - \int_{\infty}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

Example: Potential of a Point Charge

- For a point charge q located at the origin,

$$\vec{E} = \frac{kq}{r^2} \hat{r},$$

where r is the distance from the charge.

- Since solution of the line integral for a conservative field is independent of path taken, choose the easiest path: $d\vec{s} = dr \hat{r}$.
- Follows that

$$V(r) = - \int_{\infty}^r \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = - \int_{\infty}^r \frac{kq}{r'^2} \hat{r} \cdot dr' \hat{r} = - \int_{\infty}^r \frac{kq}{r'^2} dr'$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V(r) = \frac{kq}{r}}.$$

Potential due to a point charge, relative to $V(\infty) = 0$.

Potential of a Point Charge (2)

- Notes on point-charge potential:

- It is a scalar function. Not a vector.

- $V(r) \propto \frac{1}{r}$, not $\frac{1}{r^2}$!

Don't get potential and electric fields for a point charge mixed up.

- The sign of the charge q must be included when calculating potential.
 V can be positive, negative, or zero.

Potential for a System of Charges

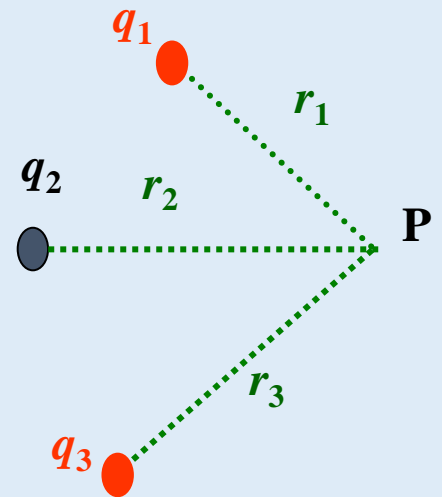
- For N discrete charges, the net electric potential is due to the net electric field. The potential at some position \vec{r} will be

$$\begin{aligned} V(r) &= - \int_{\infty}^{\vec{r}} \vec{E}_{\text{net}} \cdot d\vec{s} = - \int_{\infty}^{\vec{r}} \sum_{i=1}^N \vec{E}_i \cdot d\vec{s} = - \sum_{i=1}^N \int_{\infty}^{\vec{r}} \vec{E}_i \cdot d\vec{r} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N V_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{kq_i}{|\vec{r} - \vec{R}_i|} \\ \Rightarrow V(r) &= \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{kq_i}{r_i} . \end{aligned}$$

q_i = i-th charge, $V_i(r_i)$ = potential due to q_i ,

\vec{R}_i = position of q_i , and

$r_i = |\vec{r} - \vec{R}_i|$ = distance from q_i .



\therefore Net potential at a particular location is the arithmetic (not vector!) sum of the potentials from each individual point charge in the system.

Potential for a Continuous Charge Distribution

- For this case, summation becomes integration, charge increments dq' create the total system electrical potential at position (x, y, z) :

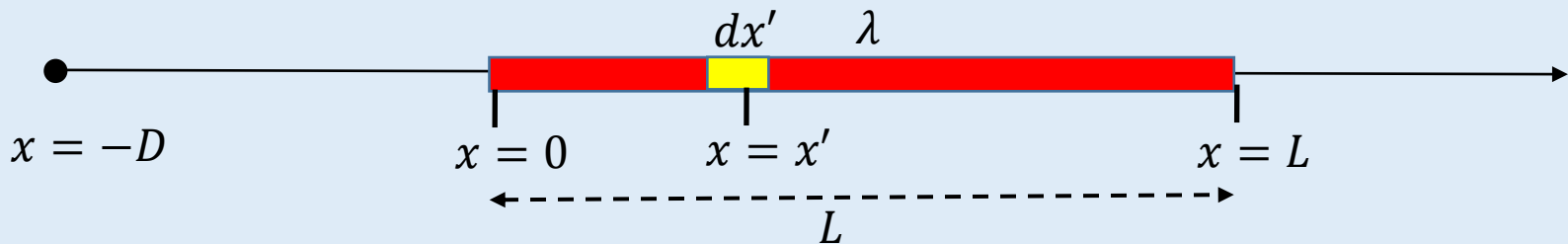
$$V(x, y, z) = k \int \frac{dq'}{\sqrt{(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2 + (z-z')^2}}.$$

Charge dq' is located at (x', y', z') , and integration is performed over the spatial extent of the charge distribution.

- Object with linear charge density λ : length element ds' has $dq' = \lambda ds'$.
- Surface with surface charge density σ : area element dA' has charge $dq' = \sigma dA'$.
- Volume with charge density ρ : volume element dv' has charge $dq' = \rho dv'$. (Note: using “ v ” here for volume, so as not to confuse it with potential “ V ”.)

Example: Potential at a point a distance from the end of a uniform line charge

- Choose axis along the rod.
- Calculate potential from small segment of the rod.
- Sum up contributions from all segments. That is, integrate. Include limits.



Amount of charge in dx' : $dq' = \lambda dx'$. Potential at $x = -D$ just from charge dq' at x' is $dV = \frac{k dq'}{r'} = k \frac{\lambda dx'}{D + x'}$.

Net potential at $x = -D$ (for constant λ) is:

$$V(x = -D) = \int dV = k \int_0^L \frac{\lambda dx'}{D + x'} = k \lambda \int_0^L \frac{dx'}{D + x'} = k \lambda \int_D^{D+L} \frac{du}{u}$$

$$V(x = -D) = k \lambda \ln \left(\frac{D+L}{D} \right).$$

Finding Field from the Potential

- For small changes in position, the variation in the electric potential $V(x, y, z)$ is:

$$dV = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} dz .$$

- Additionally, we know for small changes,

$$\begin{aligned} dV &= -\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -(E_x \hat{i} + E_y \hat{j} + E_z \hat{k}) \cdot (dx \hat{i} + dy \hat{j} + dz \hat{k}) \\ &\Rightarrow dV = -E_x dx - E_y dy - E_z dz . \end{aligned}$$

Equating expressions gives:

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

$\partial V / \partial x$ is the “partial derivative of the potential with respect to x ”,
 \Rightarrow differentiation with respect to x carried out while keeping the y and z values constant. Similar operations for $\partial V / \partial y$ and $\partial V / \partial z$.

Finding Field from the Potential (2)

- Expression for the electric field in terms of the potential can be written more compactly as

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

where

$$\vec{\nabla} \equiv \hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

is known as the “gradient” (or, “gradient operator”).

Question 4.1

- The electric potential in a region of space is given by the function

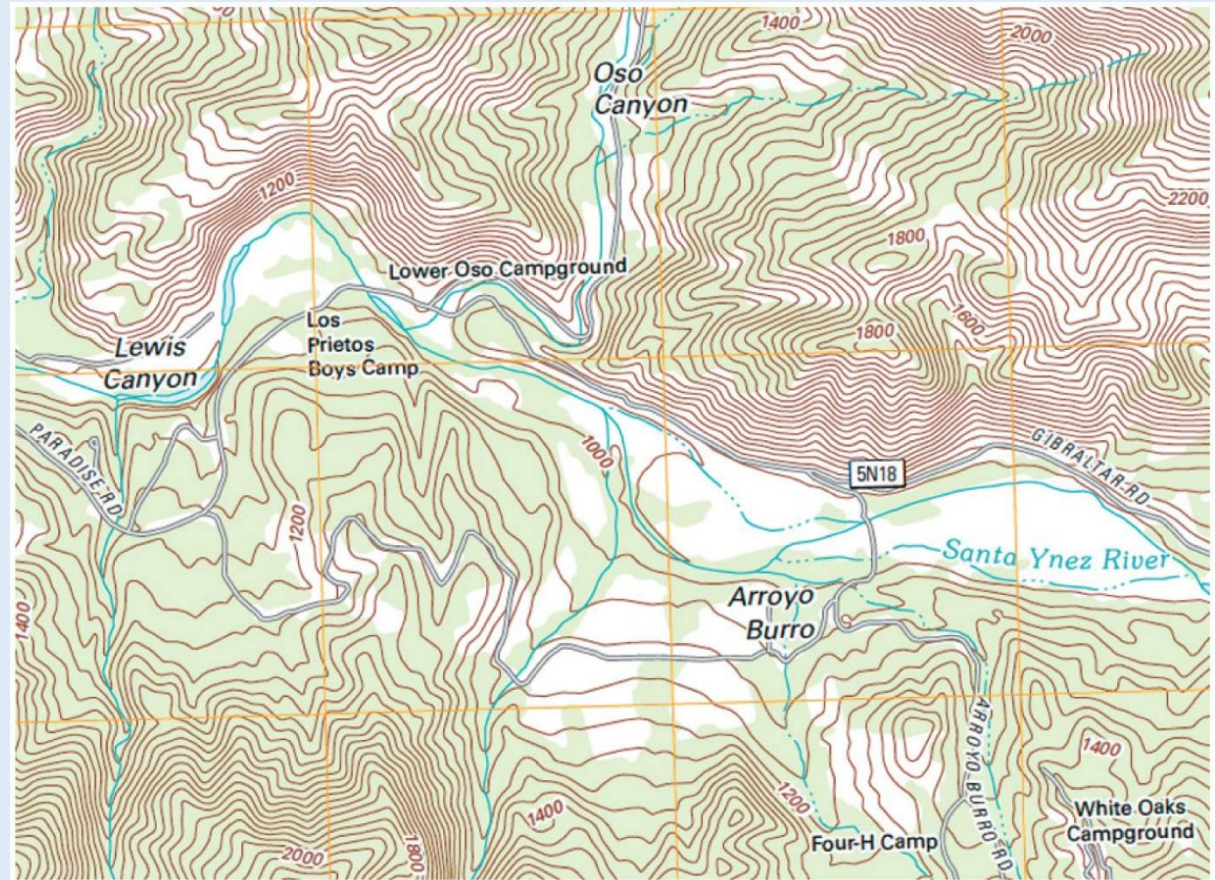
$$V(x, y, z) = 3x + 2y^2 + 5.$$

The resulting electric field for this potential is given by

- A. $\frac{3}{2}x^2\hat{i} + \frac{2}{3}y^3\hat{j} + 5z\hat{k}.$
- B. $3\hat{i} + 4y\hat{j} + 0\hat{k}.$
- C. $-\frac{3}{2}x^2\hat{i} - \frac{2}{3}y^3\hat{j} - 5z\hat{k}.$
- D. $3x\hat{i} + 2y^2\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}.$
- E. $-3\hat{i} - 4y\hat{j} - 0\hat{k}.$

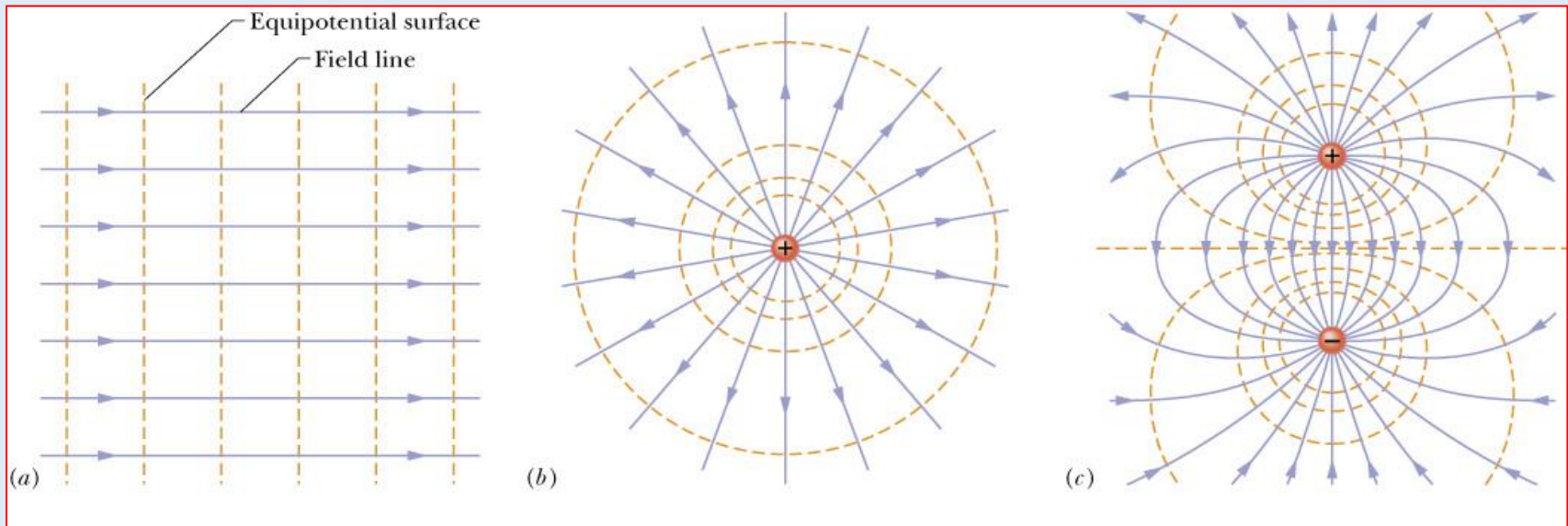
Equipotential Surfaces

- An equipotential surface is a surface that has a constant value of potential.
- Example: contour lines on a topographic map are curves of constant elevation = curves of constant gravitational potential energy.



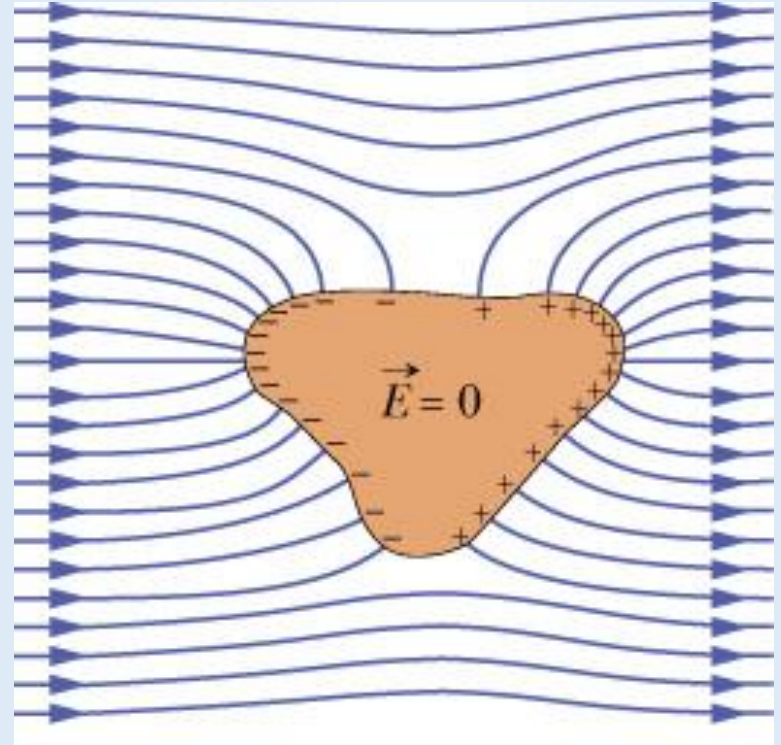
Equipotential Surfaces (2)

- From the relation between change in electric potential and the path integral of electric field, find that there is no electric field along an equipotential surface.
 \therefore The electric field is always perpendicular to an equipotential surface.



Conductors and Equipotentials

- When all charges are at rest (electrostatic situation):
 - All points of a conductor are at the same potential.
 - The electric field just outside the surface of a conductor is always perpendicular to the surface.



Electrostatic Potential Energy of a System

- Electrostatic potential energy of system of two charges is the 'assembly energy' of the system = work to bring one charge in the potential field of the other in from 'infinity' to a final distance r between them.
- For two charges q_1 and q_2 separated by a distance r_{12} , the electrostatic potential energy of the system is:

$$U_E = q_1 V_2 = q_1 \left(k \frac{q_2}{r_{12}} \right) = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} ,$$

or, equivalently, because distance $r_{21} = r_{12}$,

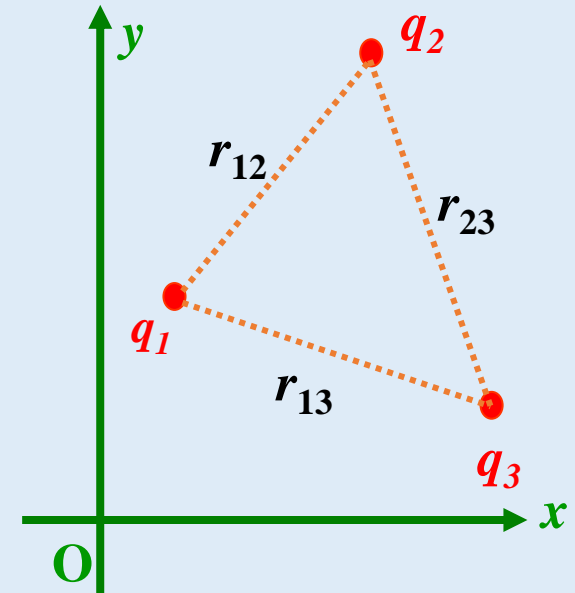
$$U_E = q_2 V_1 = q_2 \left(k \frac{q_1}{r_{21}} \right) = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{21}} = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} .$$

- Electrostatic energy for two charge-system can be thought of being the result of bringing q_1 in from infinity to r_{12} in the field of q_2 , or q_2 in from infinity to r_{21} in the field of q_1 . Result is the same for both cases.
- Must include signs of the charges! System energy can be positive, negative or zero, depending on charge signs.

Electrostatic Potential Energy of a System (2)

- For systems with more than two charges, idea of 'assembly energy' still holds.
- Calculate work done by bringing in the first charge from infinity in the presence of zero (i.e., no) charges. Then calculate work of bringing a second charge in from infinity in the field of the first. Then the work done by bringing in a third charge from infinity in the fields of the first and second. And so on...
- For a three-charge system this yields total system energy:

$$U_E = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} + k \frac{q_1 q_3}{r_{13}} + k \frac{q_2 q_3}{r_{23}} .$$



Note: total electrostatic potential energy of a system of point charges is the sum of the potential energy of all of the unique, individual pairs of charges.

Electrostatic Potential Energy of a System (3)

- For a system of N charges, the total electrostatic potential energy of the system can be calculated in two different (but equally valid) ways:

$$(A) \quad U_E = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i} k \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} .$$

$$(B) \quad U_E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N k \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} , \quad j \neq i .$$

- Factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ in (B) corrects for double-counting in summation of electrostatic energy pairs (e.g., $\frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} = \frac{q_2 q_1}{r_{21}}$).
- Exclusion of $j = i$ in summation prevents occurrence of terms $r_{11} = 0$, $r_{22} = 0$, etc. , which would lead to divergences (i.e., infinities) in the electrostatic potential energy.
- For either (A) or (B), still find that total energy is equal to the total sum of each unique, individual pair of charges.

The Electron Volt

- From defining relation, change in potential energy ΔU_E for a charge q having a change in potential ΔV is

$$\Delta U_E = q\Delta V.$$

- If a charge $q = e$ has a potential change of 1 V,

$$\Delta U_E = (1 e)(1 V) = (1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{C})(1 V) = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}.$$

- The unit of energy known as the electron volt (eV) is defined to be

$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}.$$

- This unit appears frequently in many fields. It's the natural energy scale for atomic and molecular physics, chemistry, and biochemistry.
- The keV (kilo-electron volt = 10^3 eV) and the MeV (mega-electron volt = 10^6 eV) are often used in x-ray and medical physics, nuclear physics and engineering, and particle physics.

Question 4.2

- The 'classical' model of the hydrogen atom has an electron ($q_e = -e = -1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{C}$) in a circular orbit of radius $r = 5.30 \times 10^{-11} \text{m}$ about a fixed central proton ($q_p = +e$). Calculate the electrostatic potential energy (in eV) of the 'classical' hydrogen atom. Use $k = 9.0 \times 10^9 \text{N} \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{C}^2}$.
- A. 13.6 eV.
- B. -27.2 eV.
- C. -13.6 eV.
- D. -3.34 eV.
- E. -1.51 eV.
- F. 27.2 eV.

Example Problem 4.1

An object with charge $q = -4.00 \text{ nC}$ is placed in a region of uniform electric field $\vec{E} = -E\hat{i}$ and is released from rest at point A on the x -axis. After the charge has moved to point B ($+0.500 \text{ m}$ to the right of point A) it has a kinetic energy $5.00 \times 10^{-7} \text{ J}$.

1. If the electric potential at point A is $+30.0 \text{ V}$, what is the electric potential at point B ?
2. What is the magnitude of the electric field $|\vec{E}|$?

Example Problem 4.2

A total electric charge of $+2.00 \text{ nC}$ is distributed uniformly over the surface of a metal sphere with a radius of 30.0 cm . The potential is zero at a point at infinity.

1. Find the potential 50.0 cm from the center of the sphere.
2. Find the potential 25.0 cm from the center of the sphere.

