

Charge

- Know the value and unit of e
- Understand quantization and conservation
- Be able to state attraction vs. repulsion
- Lecture 1 concepts support later laws (Coulomb, electric field)

1. Electric Charge

Electric charge is a fundamental property of matter responsible for electric forces.

- Two types: positive (protons) and negative (electrons)
- SI unit: coulomb (C)

$$q_p = +e = +1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}, \quad q_e = -e$$

2. Elementary Charge

The smallest unit of free charge is the elementary charge e .

- Protons carry $+e$
- Electrons carry $-e$
- Neutrons carry zero charge

3. Charge Quantization

All observable charges appear as integer multiples of the elementary charge:

$$q = ne, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Fractional charges do not appear in isolation.

4. Charge Conservation

In an isolated system, total electric charge remains constant.

- Charge can move between objects
- Charge cannot be created or destroyed

5. Electric Force (Qualitative)

Electric forces arise due to charge interactions:

- Like charges repel
- Opposite charges attract

The force acts along the line connecting the charges.

Coulomb's Law

- Know both **magnitude** and **vector form** of the force
- Direction errors are a common mistake
- Coulomb's Law applies only to **point charges**
- Leads directly to the definition of the **electric field**

1. Statement of Coulomb's Law

The electric force between two stationary point charges is proportional to the product of the charges and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them.

2. Magnitude of the Force

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{|q_1 q_2|}{r^2}$$

where:

- q_1, q_2 are the **charges**
- r is the **distance** between them
- ϵ_0 is the **permittivity of free space**

3. Permittivity of Free Space

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2 / (\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2)$$

This constant determines the strength of electric interactions in vacuum.

4. Direction of the Force

- Like charges \rightarrow **repulsion**
- Opposite charges \rightarrow **attraction**

The force always acts along the straight line connecting the two charges.

5. Vector Form of Coulomb's Law

The force on charge q_2 due to charge q_1 is:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{|\mathbf{R}_2 - \mathbf{R}_1|^3} (\mathbf{R}_2 - \mathbf{R}_1)}$$

where:

- $\mathbf{R}_1, \mathbf{R}_2$ are the **position vectors**

- $(\mathbf{R}_2 - \mathbf{R}_1)$ gives the **direction**

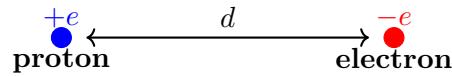
6. Newton's Third Law

Electric forces come in equal and opposite pairs:

$$\mathbf{F}_{12} = -\mathbf{F}_{21}$$

7. Example: Electric vs. Gravitational Force

- **Proton** ($+e$) and **electron** ($-e$)
- Separation distance: $d = 10^{-12} \text{ m}$



Electric force magnitude:

$$|F_E| = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{d^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi(8.854 \times 10^{-12})} \frac{(1.602 \times 10^{-19})^2}{(10^{-12})^2} \approx 2.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N}$$

Gravitational force magnitude:

$$|F_G| = G \frac{m_p m_e}{d^2} = (6.67 \times 10^{-11}) \frac{(1.67 \times 10^{-27})(9.11 \times 10^{-31})}{(10^{-12})^2} \approx 1.0 \times 10^{-43} \text{ N}$$

Comparison:

$$\frac{|F_E|}{|F_G|} \sim 10^{39}$$

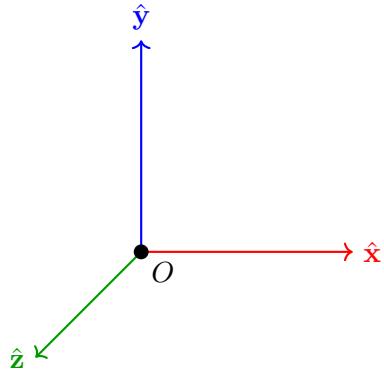
- **Electric force** is overwhelmingly stronger than gravity
- Explains why gravity is negligible at the **atomic scale**
- Justifies focusing on **electromagnetic forces** in E&M

Coordinate Systems

- Choice of system depends on **symmetry**

1. Cartesian Coordinate System

- Unit vectors: $\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z}$
- Unit vectors are **constant**
- Best for **rectangular geometry**



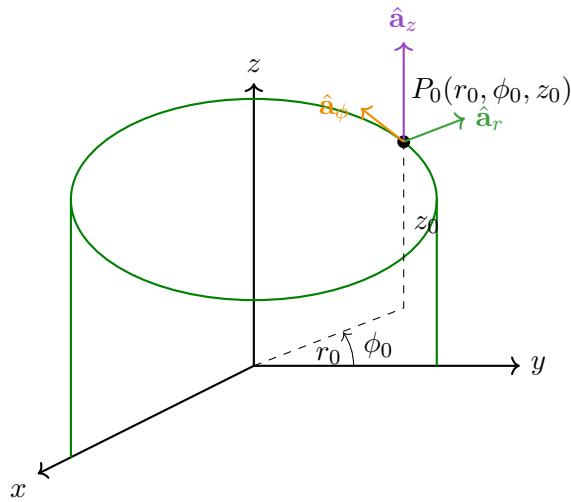
Coordinates:

$$(x, y, z)$$

Position vector:

$$\mathbf{R} = x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + z \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

2. Cylindrical Coordinate System



Coordinates:

$$(r, \phi, z)$$

Position vector:

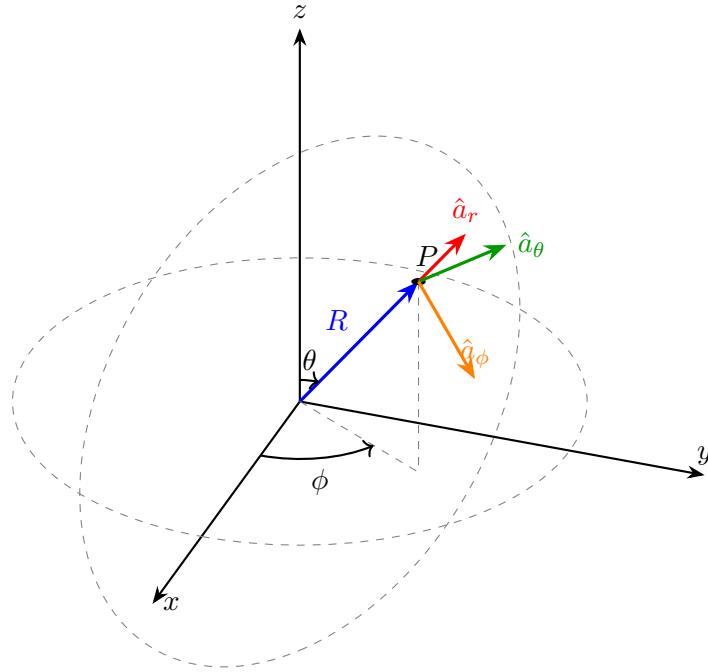
$$\mathbf{R} = r \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r + z \hat{\mathbf{a}}_z$$

Unit vectors:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}_r = \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}}, \quad \hat{\mathbf{a}}_\phi = -\sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

- Used for **lines, cylinders, rotational symmetry**
- Unit vectors **depend on position**

3. Spherical Coordinate System



Coordinates:

$$(R, \theta, \phi)$$

Position vector:

$$\mathbf{R} = R \hat{\mathbf{a}}_R(\theta, \phi)$$

- Used for **point charges** and **spherical symmetry**
- Simplifies Coulomb's law and electric field expressions

4. Differential Length Elements

The differential displacement vector $d\mathbf{l}$ depends on the coordinate system.

Cartesian:

$$d\mathbf{l} = dx \hat{\mathbf{x}} + dy \hat{\mathbf{y}} + dz \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

Cylindrical:

$$d\mathbf{l} = dr \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r + r d\phi \hat{\mathbf{a}}_\phi + dz \hat{\mathbf{a}}_z$$

Spherical:

$$d\mathbf{l} = dR \hat{\mathbf{a}}_R + R d\theta \hat{\mathbf{a}}_\theta + R \sin \theta d\phi \hat{\mathbf{a}}_\phi$$

The extra factors (r , R , $R \sin \theta$) come from **arc length**.

5. Integration Elements

Line integrals use $d\mathbf{l}$.

Surface area elements:

- Cylindrical surface ($r = \text{const}$):

$$dS = r d\phi dz$$

- Spherical surface ($R = \text{const}$):

$$dS = R^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

Volume elements:

$$dV_{\text{Cartesian}} = dx dy dz$$

$$dV_{\text{Cylindrical}} = r dr d\phi dz$$

$$dV_{\text{Spherical}} = R^2 \sin \theta dR d\theta d\phi$$

6. Which Coordinate System to Use

Choose the coordinate system that matches the **symmetry** of the problem:

- Point charge \rightarrow **spherical**
- Infinite line charge \rightarrow **cylindrical**
- Rectangular geometry \rightarrow **Cartesian**

Superposition

- Always identify symmetry FIRST
- Choose coordinates matching geometry
- State which components cancel
- Check units and limiting cases

Core Concept

Total electric field = vector sum of individual fields:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{E} = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{E}_i \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{E} = \int d\mathbf{E}}$$

Point Charge

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}')}{|\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}'|^3}$$

Continuous Distributions

Line charge: $dq = \lambda dl'$

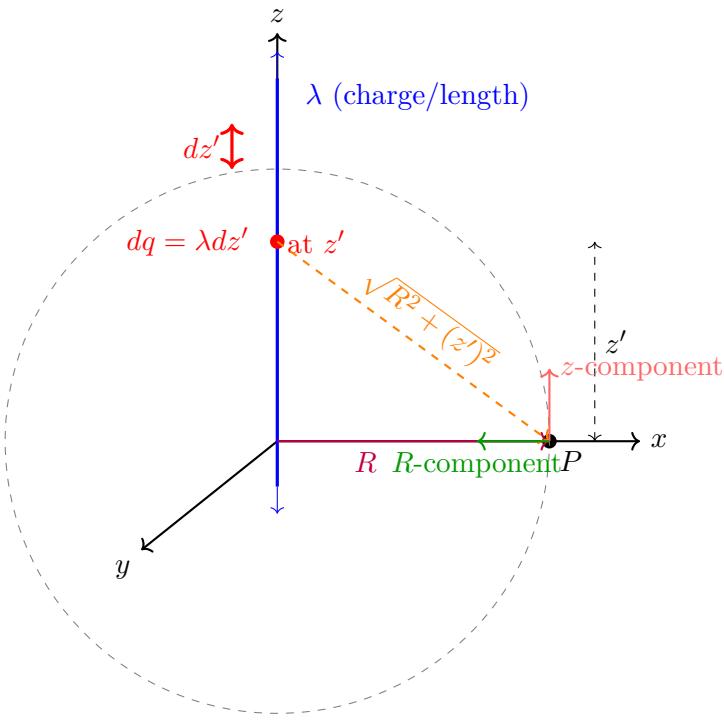
Surface charge: $dq = \sigma dS'$

Volume charge: $dq = \rho dV'$

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}')}{|\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}'|^3}$$

Example 1: Infinite Line of Charge

Consider an infinite line charge with uniform linear charge density λ along the z -axis. Find \mathbf{E} at distance R from the line.



Setup using cylindrical coordinates:

- Source element: $dq = \lambda dz'$ at $(r' = 0, \phi' = x, z')$
- Field point: P at $(R, \phi, z = 0)$
- Distance: $|\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}'| = \sqrt{R^2 + (z')^2}$

Solution:

The electric field contribution from element dz' :

$$d\mathbf{E} = \frac{\lambda dz'}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{R^2 + (z')^2} \frac{(R\hat{\mathbf{a}}_R - z'\hat{\mathbf{a}}_z)}{\sqrt{R^2 + (z')^2}}$$

$$= \frac{\lambda dz'}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{[R^2 + (z')^2]^{3/2}} (R\hat{\mathbf{a}}_R - z'\hat{\mathbf{a}}_z)$$

By symmetry, the z -components cancel when integrating over all z' . Only the radial component survives:

$$E_R = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{R dz'}{[R^2 + (z')^2]^{3/2}}$$

Using the integral:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dz'}{[R^2 + (z')^2]^{3/2}} = \frac{2}{R^2}$$

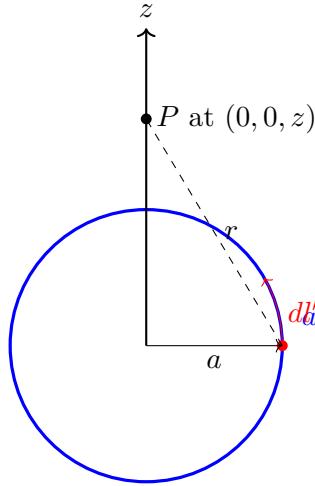
We get:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{E} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 R} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_R}$$

Key result: Field points radially outward (for $\lambda > 0$) and falls off as $1/R$.

Example 2: Uniformly Charged Ring

A ring of radius a carries uniform charge density λ . Find \mathbf{E} on the axis at distance z from the center.



Setup:

- Ring in xy -plane with radius a
- Charge element: $dq = \lambda dl' = \lambda a d\phi'$
- Distance from element to field point: $r = \sqrt{a^2 + z^2}$

Solution:

Each charge element dq produces a field:

$$d\mathbf{E} = \frac{\lambda a d\phi'}{4\pi\epsilon_0(a^2 + z^2)} \frac{(-a \cos \phi' \hat{x} - a \sin \phi' \hat{y} + z \hat{z})}{\sqrt{a^2 + z^2}}$$

By symmetry, the horizontal components (x and y) cancel. Only the z -component survives:

$$\begin{aligned} E_z &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\lambda a}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{z d\phi'}{(a^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \\ &= \frac{\lambda a z}{4\pi\epsilon_0(a^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi' = \frac{\lambda a z}{4\pi\epsilon_0(a^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \cdot 2\pi \end{aligned}$$

Total charge: $Q = \lambda \cdot 2\pi a$

$$\boxed{\mathbf{E} = \frac{Qz}{4\pi\epsilon_0(a^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \hat{z}}$$

Limiting cases:

- At center ($z = 0$): $\mathbf{E} = 0$ (by symmetry)
- Far from ring ($z \gg a$): $\mathbf{E} \approx \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 z^2} \hat{z}$ (point charge behavior)

Gauss's Law

- Relates electric flux through a **closed surface** to enclosed charge
- Works for **any** closed surface, but choose one with symmetry for easy calculation
- Only charge distributions with enough symmetry make Gauss's Law useful
- Can be used to identify a **Gaussian surface**

Integral Form

$$\oint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

When to use: Only with high symmetry (spherical, cylindrical, planar)

Choosing Gaussian Surface

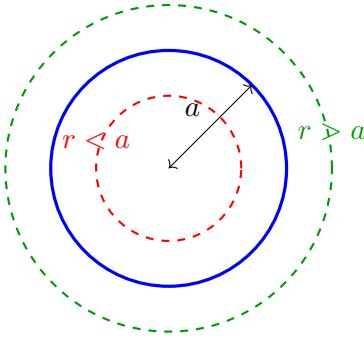
Requirements:

1. $\mathbf{E} \perp d\mathbf{S}$ everywhere (or $\mathbf{E} \parallel d\mathbf{S} = 0$ flux)

2. $|\mathbf{E}| = \text{constant}$ on surface

Common choices: - Sphere for spherical symmetry - Cylinder for cylindrical symmetry - Pillbox for planar symmetry

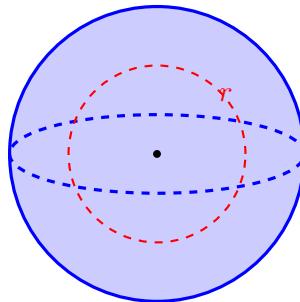
Example 1: Spherical Shell (radius a , charge Q)



Inside ($r < a$): $Q_{\text{enc}} = 0 \implies \boxed{\mathbf{E} = 0}$

Outside ($r > a$): $Q_{\text{enc}} = Q \implies \boxed{\mathbf{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}} \text{ (acts like point charge!)}$

Example 2: Uniformly Charged Solid Sphere



Sphere radius a , density ρ

A solid sphere of radius a has uniform volume charge density ρ . Find the electric field \mathbf{E} everywhere.

Total charge:

$$Q = \rho \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3$$

Symmetry:

By spherical symmetry, the electric field must be purely radial and depend only on the distance from the center:

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}}) = E_r(r_{\text{obs}}) \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r$$

Inside the sphere ($r_{\text{obs}} < a$):

Choose a **spherical Gaussian surface** of radius r_{obs} , centered at the origin.

The charge enclosed is the charge contained within radius r_{obs} :

$$Q_{\text{enc}} = \rho \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi r_{\text{obs}}^3$$

Gauss's law:

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{A} = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

On a spherical surface, \mathbf{E} is radial and constant in magnitude, so

$$E_r(r_{\text{obs}}) (4\pi r_{\text{obs}}^2) = \frac{\rho \frac{4}{3}\pi r_{\text{obs}}^3}{\epsilon_0}$$

Solving,

$$\boxed{\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}}) = \frac{\rho}{3\epsilon_0} r_{\text{obs}} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r \quad (r_{\text{obs}} < a)}$$

Outside the sphere ($r_{\text{obs}} > a$):

The Gaussian surface now encloses the **entire charge distribution**:

$$Q_{\text{enc}} = Q = \rho \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3$$

Applying Gauss's law:

$$E_r(r_{\text{obs}}) (4\pi r_{\text{obs}}^2) = \frac{\rho \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3}{\epsilon_0}$$

Solving,

$$\boxed{\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}}) = \frac{\rho a^3}{3\epsilon_0 r_{\text{obs}}^2} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r \quad (r_{\text{obs}} > a)}$$

Key physical interpretation:

- For $r_{\text{obs}} < a$, only charge at $r_{\text{src}} < r_{\text{obs}}$ contributes to the field.
- For $r_{\text{obs}} > a$, the sphere behaves like a point charge located at the origin.

Gauss's Law - Differential Form

The differential form relates \mathbf{E} to charge density at each point:

$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}}$$

This is one of Maxwell's equations.

Connection to integral form:

Using the divergence theorem:

$$\oint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) dV = \int_V \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} dV = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

Work in Electrostatics

Work done by electric field:

To move a charge q from point A to point B :

$$W = \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = q \int_A^B \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Work done by external force:

To move a charge q **against** the electric field (at constant velocity):

$$W_{\text{ext}} = -q \int_A^B \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Conservative field:

The electric field is **conservative**, meaning:

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$$

for any closed path. This means work is **path independent**.

Summary Table

Configuration	Gaussian Surface	Electric Field $\mathbf{E}(r_{\text{obs}})$
Point charge Q	Sphere (radius r_{obs})	$\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{\text{obs}}^2} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r$
Spherical shell (outside)	Sphere ($r_{\text{obs}} > a$)	$\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{\text{obs}}^2} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r$
Spherical shell (inside)	Sphere ($r_{\text{obs}} < a$)	0
Solid sphere (outside)	Sphere ($r_{\text{obs}} > a$)	$\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{\text{obs}}^2} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r$
Solid sphere (inside)	Sphere ($r_{\text{obs}} < a$)	$\frac{Q r_{\text{obs}}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a^3} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r$
Infinite line charge λ	Cylinder (radius r_{obs})	$\frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r_{\text{obs}}} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_R$
Infinite plane charge σ	Pillbox	$\frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0} \hat{\mathbf{n}}$

Electric Potential, Work, and Voltage

Two Charges You Must Never Confuse

Rule:

- q_{source} : creates the electric field and potential
- q_{test} : small charge used to probe the field
- \mathbf{E} and V depend only on q_{source}
- Forces, work, and energy depend on q_{test}

Work Done by an Electric Field

Force on a test charge:

$$\mathbf{F} = q_{\text{test}} \mathbf{E}$$

Work done by the electric field moving q_{test} from A to B :

$$W_{\text{field}} = \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = q_{\text{test}} \int_A^B \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Key idea:

- If the field does positive work, the charge loses potential energy

Electric Potential Difference (Voltage)

We define electric potential difference as:

$$V(B) - V(A) = - \int_A^B \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Why the minus sign?

- Electric fields naturally move positive charges downhill in potential

Work–potential relationship:

$$W_{\text{field}} = q_{\text{test}}(V(A) - V(B))$$

Very important:

- Voltage depends only on the field, not on q_{test}
- Voltage is energy per unit charge

Electric Potential (Absolute)

Electric potential at a point is defined using a reference point:

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = - \int_{\text{ref}}^{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Standard reference:

$$V(\infty) = 0$$

Why this works:

- Electrostatic fields are conservative
- The integral is path independent

Point Charge Source

Let a source charge q_{source} be at the origin.

Electric potential:

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_{\text{source}}}{r}$$

intuition:

- Bringing a positive test charge closer requires work
- That stored work shows up as higher potential

Compare with electric field:

$$E \propto \frac{1}{r^2}, \quad V \propto \frac{1}{r}$$

From Potential to Field

Electric field is the spatial rate of change of potential:

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V$$

In Cartesian coordinates:

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

Physical meaning:

- Field points from high V to low V
- Steeper V change \Rightarrow stronger field

Multiple Source Charges

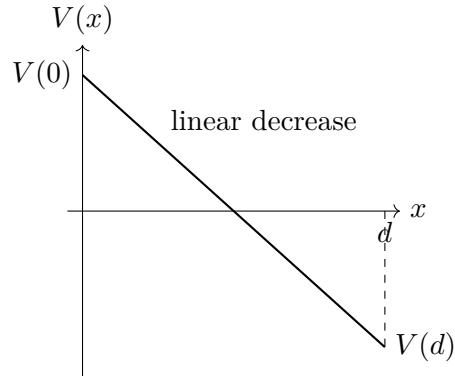
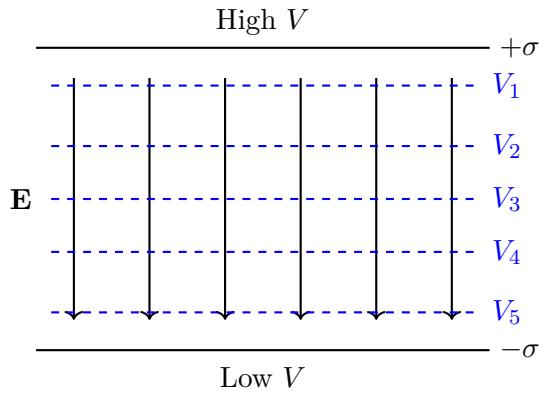
For multiple source charges q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n :

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{q_i}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_i|}$$

Why potential is powerful:

- Potentials add as scalars
- Fields require vector addition

Example: Parallel Plates



Two infinite plates with surface charge densities $+\sigma$ and $-\sigma$.

Electric field:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \hat{x}$$

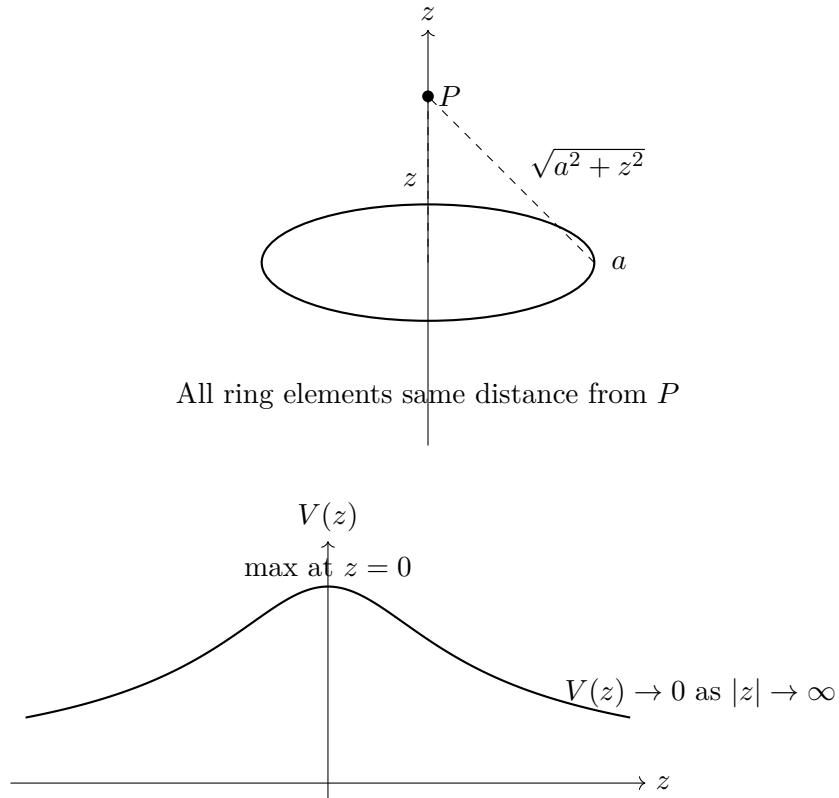
Potential difference:

$$V(x) = -\frac{\sigma x}{\epsilon_0}$$

Teaching insight:

- Uniform field \Rightarrow linear potential
- Motion along field direction lowers potential

Example: Charged Ring (Axis)



Ring radius a , total source charge Q .

Potential on axis:

$$V(z) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0\sqrt{a^2 + z^2}}$$

Electric field from potential:

$$E_z = -\frac{dV}{dz} = \frac{Qz}{4\pi\epsilon_0(a^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

Why this works:

- All charge elements are same distance from point
- Symmetry cancels transverse field components

Equipotential Surfaces

Surfaces where:

$$V = \text{constant}$$

Properties:

- \mathbf{E} is perpendicular to equipotentials
- No work is done moving along an equipotential
- Closer spacing \Rightarrow stronger field

Example:

- Point charge \Rightarrow spherical equipotentials

Continuous Charge Distributions

Line charge:

$$V(\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\lambda dl_{\text{src}}}{|\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}} - \mathbf{r}_{\text{src}}|}$$

Surface charge:

$$V(\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\sigma dS_{\text{src}}}{|\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}} - \mathbf{r}_{\text{src}}|}$$

Volume charge:

$$V(\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho dV_{\text{src}}}{|\mathbf{r}_{\text{obs}} - \mathbf{r}_{\text{src}}|}$$