

## 23.01

### A Note About This Chapter

- Last chapter was fairly brutal
  - Physics is really about making hard problems easy with abstraction
    - \* This chapter will be less labor-intensive
- Through *symmetry*, we can skip parts of problems
  - Like how we only summed the vertical components of  $d\vec{E}$  in 22.04

### Gauss' Law

- **Gauss' law** = a law that relates net charge of a volume enclosed by a closed surface and the  $\vec{E}$  field about that closed surface
  - Discovered by Carl Friedrich Gauss
    - \* Lived from 1777 until 1855
- Imagine a particle of positive charge  $q$ 
  - Now superimpose a sphere centered at the particle
    - \* The surface of the sphere is called a **Gaussian surface**
    - \* The  $\vec{E}$  vectors around the surface point radially outwards
      - Because the particle is *positive*
    - \* Those same vectors are said to **pierce** the surface of the sphere
- The essential utility of **Gauss' Law** is that we can infer things about the net charge of an object by examining the  $\vec{E}$  field about its outer surface
  - Or, equivalently, we can use the net charge to infer information about the  $\vec{E}$  about the object's outer surface

### Electric Flux

- **Electric flux** = a metric of *how much* the  $\vec{E}$  field *pierces* the Gaussian surface
  - The symbol for **electric flux** is  $\phi$
- The best way to learn about this is to just do a bunch of examples
- The  $\phi$  is
  - Positive if  $\vec{E}$  pierces outward
  - Zero if  $\vec{E}$  is parallel to the differential area
  - Negative if  $\vec{E}$  pierces inward

## Electric Flux On a Flat Surface in a Uniform $\vec{E}$ Field

- Imagine we had a uniform  $\vec{E}$  field
  - Now superimpose a flat surface of area A
    - \* Orient it along with yz-plane with its center point at the origin
  - Denote the angle that the uniform  $\vec{E}$  vectors make with the x-axis as  $\theta$
  - Then, we can imagine splitting the  $\vec{E}$  vectors into two components
    - \* One that *directly* pierces the surface
      - Directly perpendicular to the surface
      - This vector is the **electric flux** for any given differential area
    - \* One that doesn't pierce the surface at all
      - Directly parallel to the surface
- We can define the magnitude of the electric flux in a subarea of A as

$$d\phi = |\vec{E}| \cos(\theta)$$

- This is valid, but there is a more elegant solution
  - This value can be calculated with a **dot product**

$$d\phi = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

- where  $d\vec{A}$  is a vector perpendicular to the surface with a magnitude equal to the area of the surface
- At some points, the  $\vec{E}$  field may pierce *into* the surface and in other points, it may pierce outwards
  - In order to find the **net electric flux**, we use integration

$$\phi = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

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## 23.02

### Gauss' Law

- **Gauss' law** = a mathematical model that relates **net flux**( $\phi$ ) and enclosed charge
- Mathematically it looks like this

$$\epsilon_0 \Sigma \phi = \Sigma q$$

- Or, substituting the definition of net flux, we get

$$\epsilon_0 \oint \left( \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} \right) = \Sigma q$$

- The charge of  $\Sigma q$  determines whether the flux is *inwards* or *outwards*
  - If  $\Sigma q$  is *positive*,  $\Sigma \phi$  points outward
  - If  $\Sigma q$  is *negative*,  $\Sigma \phi$  points inward
  - If  $\Sigma q$  is zero,  $\Sigma \phi$  is a zero
- The interesting thing about Gauss' law is that charges external to the enclosed volume do not affect the net flux
  - Think about that: *if you put a charged particle right up against the barrier, the field lines would change but the net flux wouldn't*

### Deriving Coulomb's Law with Gauss' Law

- Recall **Coulomb's law**

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2}$$

- This can actually be proven using Gauss' law
- Imagine we had a particle of point q
  - Now superimpose a gaussian sphere that envelops that particle
    - \* We can use the integral form of Gauss' law to set up an equation

$$\epsilon_0 \oint \left( \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} \right) = \Sigma q$$

- A property of dot products is that

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos(\theta)$$

- where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$
- Using that fact, we can rewrite our equation as

$$\epsilon_0 \oint \left( |\vec{E}| |d\vec{A}| \cos(\theta) \right) = \Sigma q$$

- Since our problem is basically a one-particle problem, we know that  $\vec{E}$  will radiate outwards perpendicular to concentric spheres
  - As such,  $\vec{E}$  and  $d\vec{A}$  actually point in the same direction
    - \* So,  $\theta$  is zero

$$\epsilon_0 \oint \left( |\vec{E}| |d\vec{A}| \cos(0) \right) = \Sigma q$$

$$\epsilon_0 \oint \left( |\vec{E}| |d\vec{A}| (1) \right) = \Sigma q$$

$$\epsilon_0 \oint \left( |\vec{E}| |d\vec{A}| \right) = \Sigma q$$

- At this point, we can rewrite  $\Sigma q$  as just  $q$ , since our gaussian sphere only contains that one particle

$$\epsilon_0 \oint \left( |\vec{E}| |d\vec{A}| \right) = q$$

- Now, the direction of  $\vec{E}$  clearly changes from point to point on the gaussian sphere
  - However, the *magnitude* does not change
    - \* So, we can pull it out of the integral

$$\epsilon_0 |\vec{E}| \oint |d\vec{A}| = q$$

- Now, surface integrals, which is what that  $\oint$  symbol denotes, aren't in the scope of this course
  - Really, all you need to know is that they integrate a function over every point on a surface (in this case, the surface area of the sphere)
  - If the function your surface integrates is just 1, then the surface integral returns the surface area
    - \* So, really, our surface integral just returns the surface area of our sphere
      - Which, if you remember from geometry is

$$SA = 4\pi r^2$$

- Substituting that, we get

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

- Then, some simple algebra gets us to

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


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## 23.03

### Gauss' Law and the Behavior of Conductors

- Gauss' law can actually be used to explain phenomenon regarding conductors with excess charge
  - For example, in a conductor with excess charge, the free electrons will disperse themselves amongst the outer surface of the object

- \* This kind of makes intuitive sense, as like charges repel, and that permutation ensures maximum distance between particles
- We can demonstrate this fact through Gauss' law
  - Imagine we had a chunk of copper with excess charge  $q$  hanging from an insulating thread
  - Now superimpose a Gaussian surface that is *just* inside of the outer surface of the copper
  - Now, if we assume there is no current *inside* the copper, we can deduce that  $\vec{E}$  is zero among all points inside of the surface
    - \* This is because, in order for there to be current, there must be a non-zero force pushing electrons around
      - Which cannot exist without a nonzero  $\vec{E}$  field
  - If we make that assumption, then we can use Gauss' law

$$\epsilon_0 \oint (\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}) = \Sigma q$$

$$\epsilon_0 \oint (\vec{0} \cdot d\vec{A}) = \Sigma q$$

- Now, any dot product between a vector and the zero vector( $\vec{0}$ ) is just equal to 0(the scalar this time)

$$\epsilon_0 \oint (\vec{0}) = \Sigma q$$

$$0 = \Sigma q$$

$$\Sigma q = 0$$

- As such, our excess charge  $q$  *cannot* exist *inside* of the chunk of copper
  - Rather, it must exist on the outer surface of it
- We can demonstrate similar properties with different conductor shapes

### Gauss' Law and a Conductor with a Cavity

- The same line of reasoning can be used on a conductor with a cavity
- Imagine a chunk of copper with excess charge  $q$  hanging from an insulating thread
  - Now, without changing the charge, remove some material from the core of the material
    - \* The result is like a tennis ball with thick material; hollow inside but solid on the exterior
- Now, making that same assumption that there is no internal current, we can form a Gaussian surface just inside of the very exterior of the object

- And, we can conclude the flux is zero, since there cannot be any net flux field if there is no current
  - \* Then, we use Gauss' law to conclude the charge enclosed by that Gaussian surface is zero
    - As such, the charge must only reside on the very outer surface of the object

### Gauss' Law and a Vanishing Conductor

- Now, imagine you had the hollow chunk of copper from the previous example
  - We know the charge carriers would distribute themselves along the outer surface of the object
  - Now, imagine we expanded the hollow core until the copper conductor simply didn't exist
    - \* For the purposes of visualization, also assume that the charge carriers didn't move during the process
  - At the very instant where that last shell of copper disappears, the  $\vec{E}$  field does not change
    - \* This is because the  $\vec{E}$  field is set up by charges, not by conductors
- The lesson here is that charged particles will try to space themselves as far from one another along the outer surface of an object
  - Not only that, but the particles are practically limited in mobility by the size of the conductor
    - \* If the conductor were instantly made larger, the particles would bubble up to the outer surface—this time farther apart from one another

### Gauss' Law and Surface Charge Density on Non-spherical conductors

- Recall that the symbol for surface charge density is  $\sigma$
- In any spherical conductor, electrostatic equilibrium will be attained the  $\sigma$  not changing over the surface
  - This makes sense, because of the nature of the sphere's symmetry
- However, in a non-spherical conductor, things get *interesting*
  - Imagine we had a non-spherical conductor and we selected a differential circular area along that surface
    - \* Label the differential area  $dA$ 
      - Note that this is distinct from  $d\vec{A}$ —a vector;  $dA$  just represents the patch of area along the surface

- Now, imagine creating a Gaussian cylinder whose bases are parallel to  $dA$ 
  - Since  $dA$  is assumed to be