Chapter 23

Electric Potential

Goals for Chapter 23

- To calculate the electric potential energy of a group of charges
- To know the significance of electric potential
- To calculate the electric potential due to a collection of charges
- To use equipotential surfaces to understand electric potential
- To calculate the electric field using the electric potential

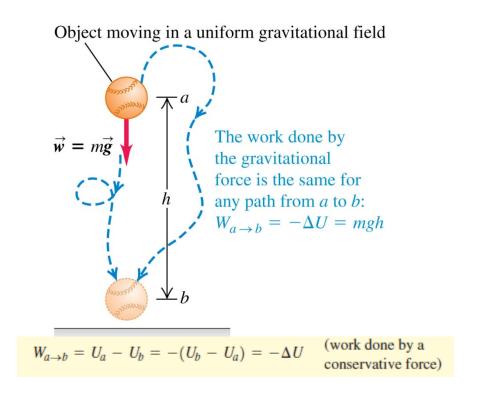
Introduction

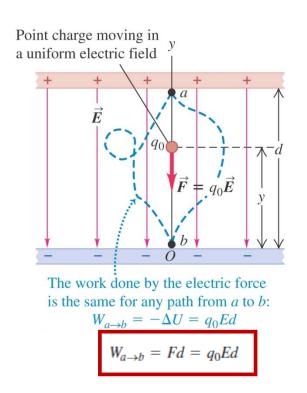
- How is electric potential related to welding?
- Electric potential energy is an integral part of our technological society.
- What is the difference between electric potential and electric potential energy?
- How is electric potential energy related to charge and the electric field?



Electric potential energy in a uniform field

 The behavior of a point charge in a uniform electric field is analogous to the motion of a baseball in a uniform gravitational field



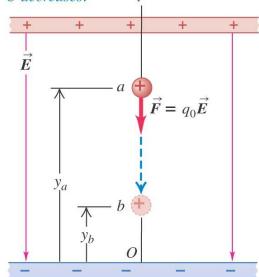


A positive charge moving in a uniform field

• If the positive charge moves in the direction of the field, the potential energy *decreases*, but if the charge moves opposite the field, the potential energy *increases*.

(a) Positive charge moves in the direction of \vec{E} :

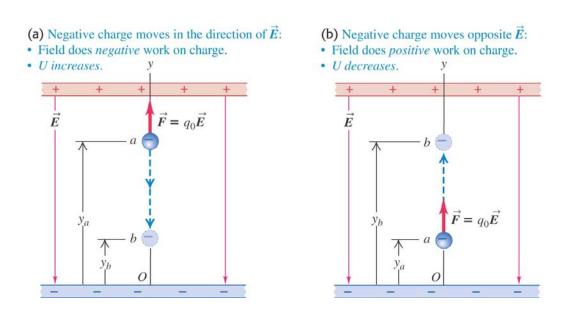
- Field does *positive* work on charge.
- U decreases.



- (b) Positive charge moves opposite \vec{E} :
- Field does negative work on charge.
- U increases. y \overrightarrow{E} \overrightarrow{V} y_b y_a \overrightarrow{V} $\overrightarrow{F} = q_0 \overrightarrow{E}$

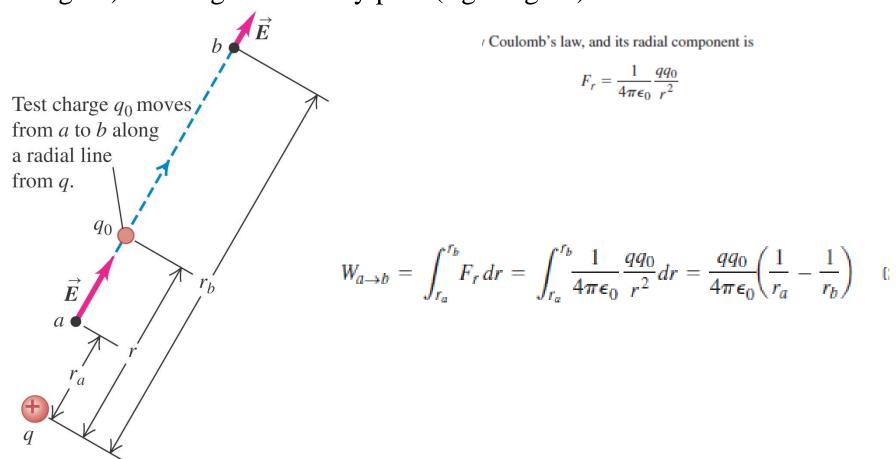
A negative charge moving in a uniform field

- If the negative charge moves in the direction of the field, the potential energy *increases*, but if the charge moves opposite the field, the potential energy *decreases*.
- Figure 23.4 below illustrates this point.



Electric potential energy of two point charges

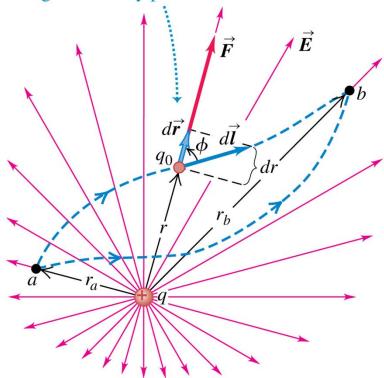
- Follow the discussion of the motion of a test charge q_0 in the text.
- The electric potential is the same whether q_0 moves in a radial line (left figure) or along an arbitrary path (right figure).



Electric potential energy of two point charges

- Follow the discussion of the motion of a test charge q_0 in the text.
- The electric potential is the same whether q_0 moves in a radial line (left figure) or along an arbitrary path (right figure).

Test charge q_0 moves from a to b along an arbitrary path.



$$W_{a\to b} = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} F\cos\phi \, dl = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r^2} \cos\phi \, dl$$

Fig. 23.6 shows that $\cos \phi \, dl = dr$.

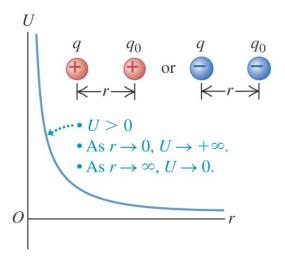
Graphs of the potential energy

• The sign of the potential energy depends on the signs of the two charges.

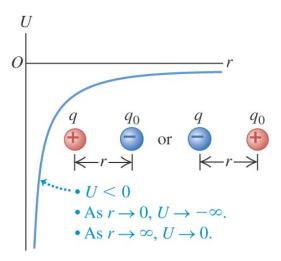
$$W_{a \to b} = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} F_r dr = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r^2} dr = \frac{qq_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{1}{r_a} - \frac{1}{r_b}\right) \quad (4)$$

$$U = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r}$$

(electric potential energy of two point charges q and q_0) (a) q and q_0 have the same sign.

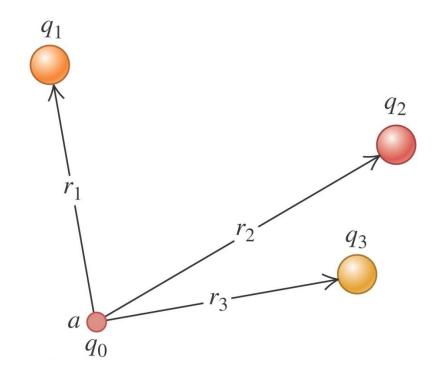


(b) q and q_0 have opposite signs.



Electrical potential with several point charges

- The potential energy associated with q_0 depends on the other charges and their distances from q_0 , as shown in Figure 23.8 at the right.
- Follow the derivation in the text of the formula for the total potential energy *U*.
- Follow Example 23.2.



$$U = \frac{q_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{q_1}{r_1} + \frac{q_2}{r_2} + \frac{q_3}{r_3} + \cdots \right) = \frac{q_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i} \frac{q_i}{r_i}$$
 (point charge q_0 and collection of charges q_i)

Electric potential

- Potential is potential energy per unit charge.
- We can think of the potential difference between points a and b in either of two ways. The potential of a with respect to b ($V_{ab} = V_a V_b$) equals:
 - \checkmark the work done by the electric force when a *unit* charge moves from a to b.
 - \checkmark the work that must be done to move a *unit* charge slowly from b to a against the electric force.
- Follow the discussion in the text of how to calculate electric potential.

Electric potential

• Potential is potential energy per unit charge.

$$V = \frac{U}{q_0} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r}$$
 (potential due to a point charge)

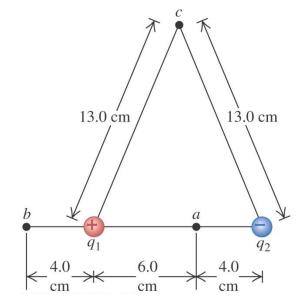
$$V = \frac{U}{q_0} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i} \frac{q_i}{r_i}$$
 (potential due to a collection of point charge)

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq}{r}$$
 (potential due to a continuous distribution of charge)

Potential zero at ∞ .

Potential due to two point charges

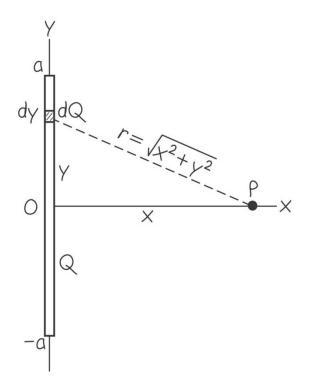
- Follow Example 23.4 using Figure 23.13 at the right.
- Follow Example 23.5.



$$V_a = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_i \frac{q_i}{r_i} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_2}{r_2}$$

A finite line of charge

Follow Example 23.12 using Figure 23.21 below.



EXECUTE: As in Example 21.10, the element of charge dQ corresponding to an element of length dy on the rod is dQ = (Q/2a)dy. The distance from dQ to P is $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, so the contribution dV that the charge element makes to the potential at P is

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

To find the potential at P due to the entire rod, we integrate dV over the length of the rod from y = -a to y = a:

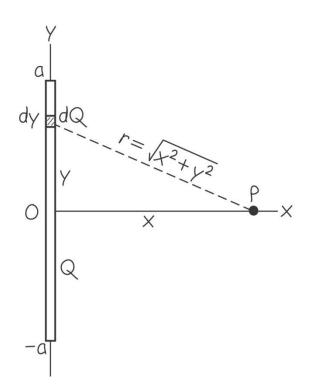
$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{2a} \int_{-a}^{a} \frac{dy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

You can look up the integral in a table. The final result is

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{2a} \ln\left(\frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2 + a}}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} - a}\right)$$

A finite line of charge

Follow Example 23.12 using Figure 23.21 below.



$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{x\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} \hat{i}$$
 (21.9)

$$V_a - V_b = \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

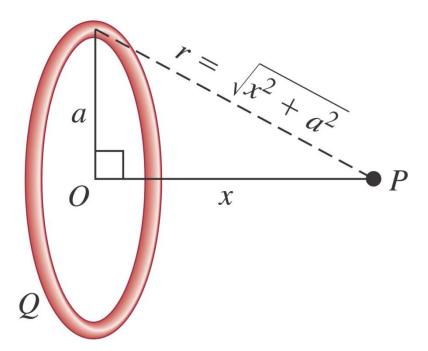
$$W_{a \to b} = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} F_r dr = \int_{r_a}^{r_b} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r^2} dr = \frac{qq_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{1}{r_a} - \frac{1}{r_b} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$U = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r}$$

(electric potential energy of two point charges q and q_0)

A ring of charge

Follow Example 23.11 using Figure 23.20 below.



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

 $P V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq}{r} (potential due to a continuous distribution of charge)$

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} \int dq = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}}$$

$$\vec{E} = E_x \hat{i} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Qx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} \hat{i}$$
 (21.8)

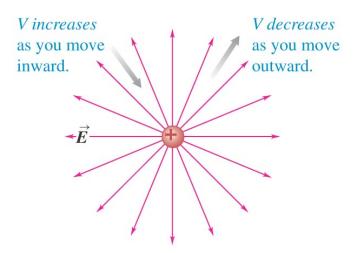
Finding electric potential from the electric field

• If you move in the direction of the electric field, the electric potential *decreases*, but if you move opposite the field, the potential *increases*. (See Figure 23.12 at the right.)

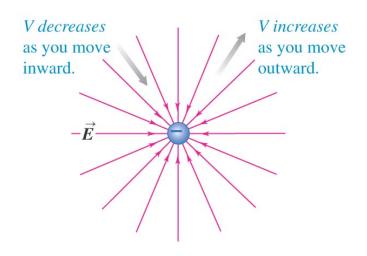
$$V_a - V_b = \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_a^b E \cos \phi \, dl$$
 (potential difference as an integral of \vec{E})

$$\cos \phi \, dl = dr.$$

(a) A positive point charge

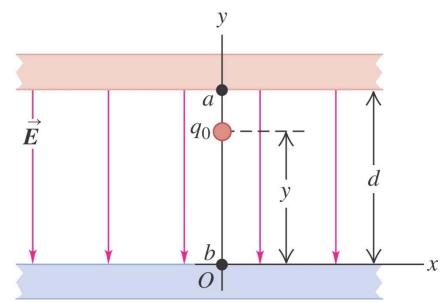


(b) A negative point charge



Oppositely charged parallel plates

• Follow Example 23.9 using Figure 23.18 below.



EXECUTE: The potential V(y) at coordinate y is the potential energy per unit charge:

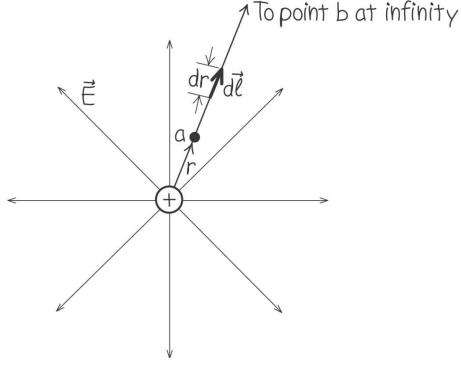
$$V(y) = \frac{U(y)}{q_0} = \frac{q_0 E y}{q_0} = E y$$

The potential decreases as we move in the direction of \vec{E} from the upper to the lower plate. At point a, where y = d and $V(y) = V_a$,

$$V_a - V_b = Ed$$
 and $E = \frac{V_a - V_b}{d} = \frac{V_{ab}}{d}$

Point Charge

• Example 23.6 shows how to find the potential by integration. Follow this example using Figure 23.14 at the right.



$$V - 0 = V = \int_{r}^{\infty} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$= \int_{r}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{q}{r^{2}} \hat{r} \cdot \hat{r} dr = \int_{r}^{\infty} \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}r^{2}} dr$$

$$= -\frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}r} \Big|_{r}^{\infty} = 0 - \left(-\frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}r} \right)$$

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}r}$$

potential to be zero at an infinite distance from the charge q.

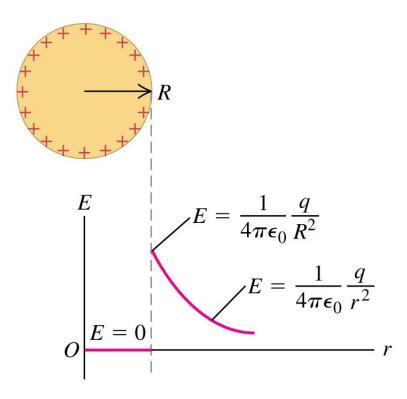
Calculating electric potential

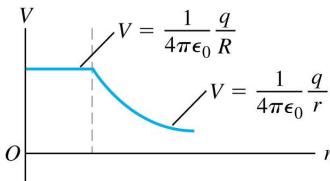
- Read Problem-Solving Strategy 23.1.
- Follow Example 23.8 (a charged conducting sphere) using Figure 23.16 at the right.

Outside:
$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r}$$

Inside: \vec{E} is zero everywhere. I

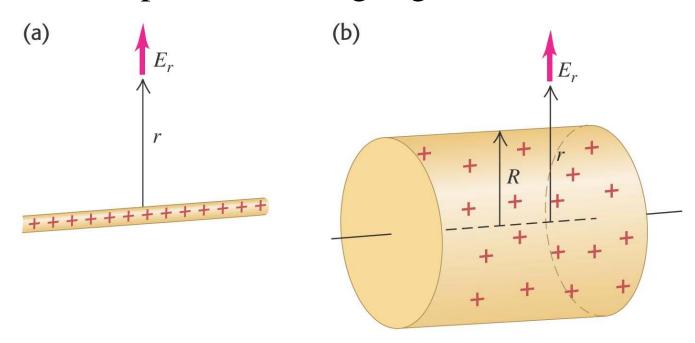
"Zero potential" is arbitrary





An infinite line charge or conducting cylinder

• Follow Example 23.10 using Figure 23.19 below.

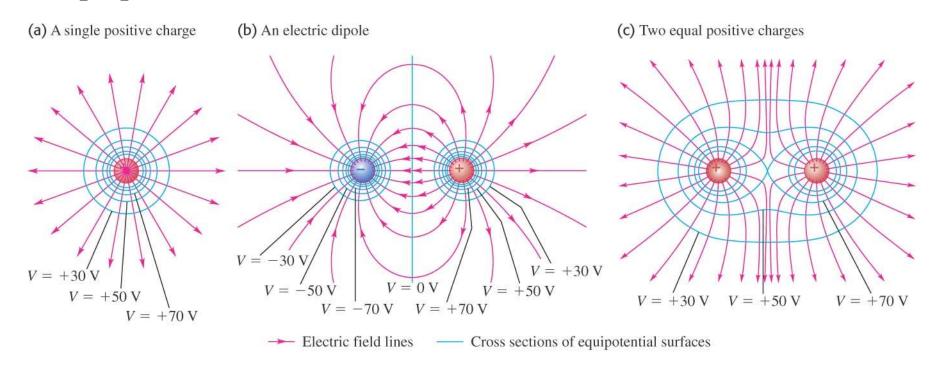


$$E = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda}{r}$$
 (field of an infinite line of charge)

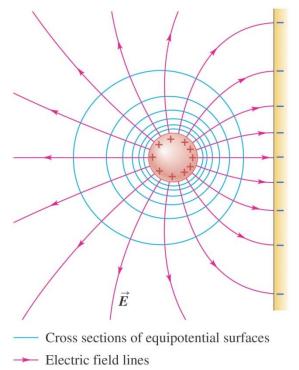
$$V_a - V_b = \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_a^b E_r dr = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{r_a}^{r_b} \frac{dr}{r} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{r_b}{r_a}$$

Equipotential surfaces and field lines

- An *equipotential surface* is a surface on which the electric potential is the same at every point.
- Figure 23.23 below shows the equipotential surfaces and electric field lines for assemblies of point charges.
- Field lines and equipotential surfaces are always mutually perpendicular.

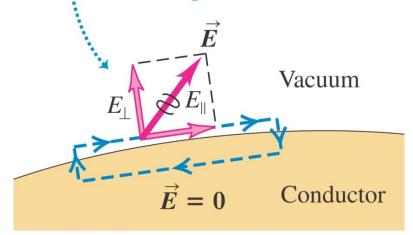


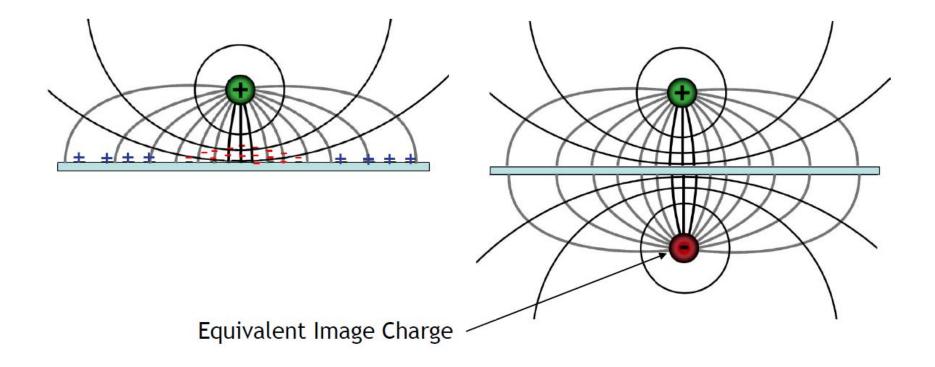
- When all charges are at rest:
 - ✓ the surface of a conductor is always an equipotential surface.
 - ✓ the electric field just outside a conductor is always perpendicular to the surface (see figures below).
 - ✓ the entire solid volume of a conductor is at the same potential.

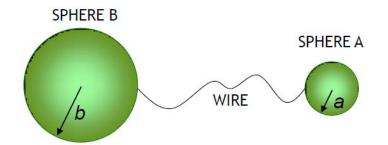


An impossible electric field

If the electric field just outside a conductor had a tangential component E_{\parallel} , a charge could move in a loop with net work done.







Because the two spheres are far apart, we can assume that charges are uniformly distributed across the surfaces of the two spheres, with charge q_a on the surface of sphere A and q_b on the surface of sphere B

 $q_a + q_b = q$

$$V_b = \frac{q_b}{4\pi\epsilon b}$$

$$V_b = \frac{q_b}{4\pi\epsilon b} \qquad V_a = \frac{q_a}{4\pi\epsilon a}$$

since
$$V_b = V_a$$
 then

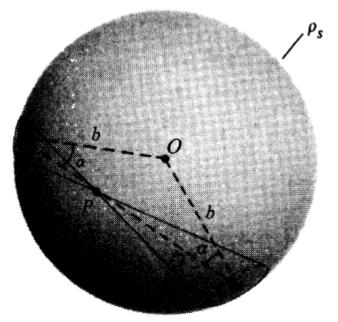
$$q_b = q \frac{b}{a+b} \qquad q_a = q \frac{a}{a+b}$$

... and the E-field on the surface of the spheres is:

$$E_b = \frac{q_b}{4\pi\epsilon b^2} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon(a+b)b} \qquad \mathbf{E}_{\alpha} = \frac{q_a}{4\pi\epsilon a^2} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon(a+b)a}$$

Note that $E_a > E_b$ if b > a

from Shen and Kong



es ds_1 and ds_2 is, from Eq. (3-12),

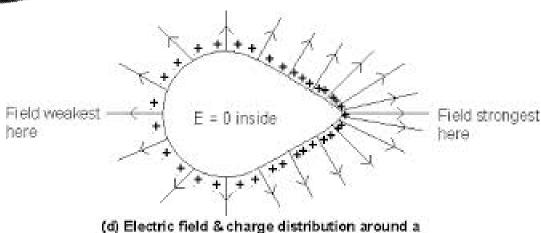
$$dE = \frac{\rho_s}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{ds_1}{r_1^2} - \frac{ds_2}{r_2^2} \right).$$

ingle $d\Omega$ equals

$$d\Omega = \frac{ds_1}{r_1^2}\cos\alpha = \frac{ds_2}{r_2^2}\cos\alpha.$$

expressions of dE and $d\Omega$, we find that

$$dE = \frac{\rho_S}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{d\Omega}{\cos\alpha} - \frac{d\Omega}{\cos\alpha} \right) = 0.$$



pear-shaped conductor

