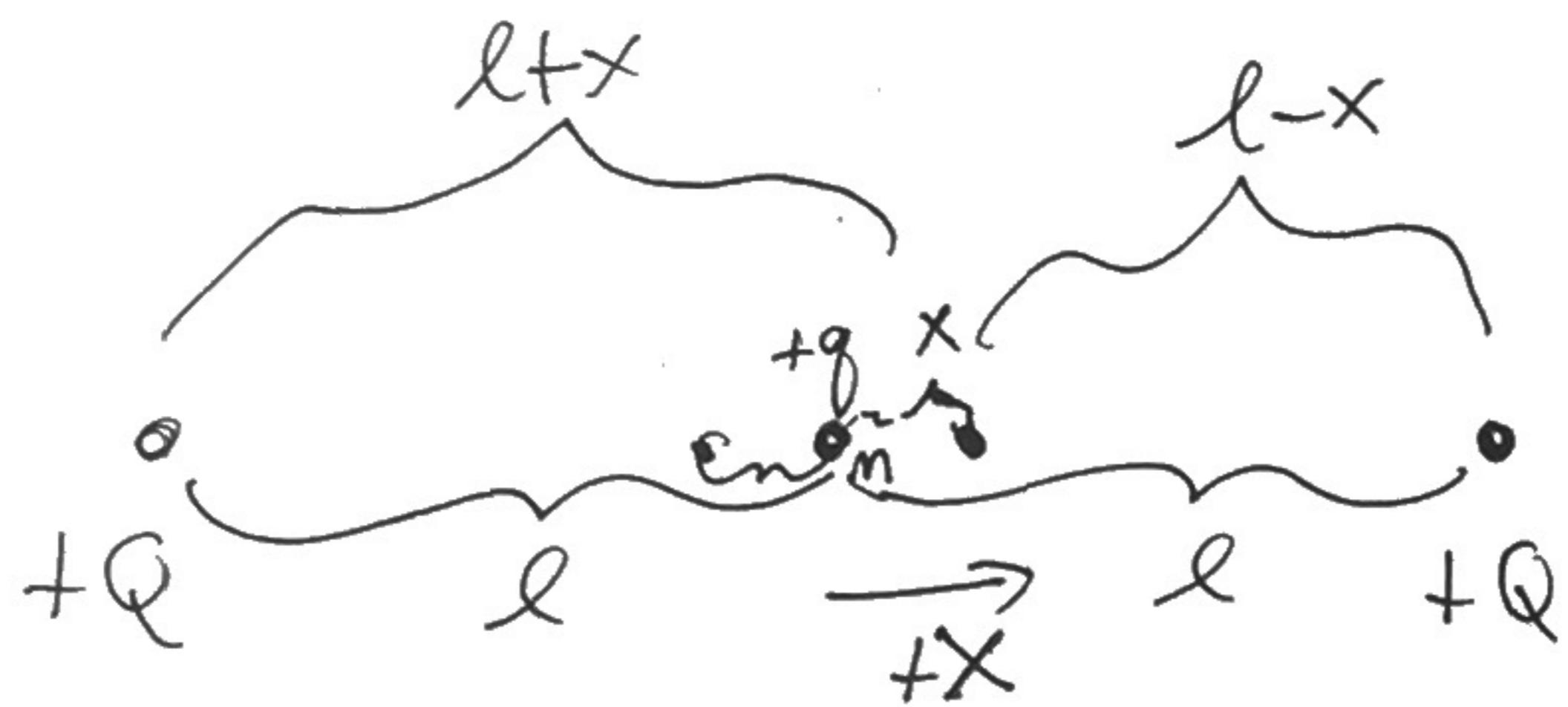


Problem Set #1 Solutions

(1)

#1) PMI-38)



Let x be the (small) displacement from the origin, in particular, $\frac{x}{l} \ll 1$.

~~Suppose the~~ The force on the particle when it is displaced by a distance x is

$$F(x) = -\frac{Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0(l-x)^2} + \frac{Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0(l+x)^2}$$

(i.e., negative)

(Note the signs: when x is positive, we know the force must be to the left because all charges are positive and x being positive means that q is closest to the $+Q$ on the right, and equivalently when x is negative we know the force must be to the right (i.e., positive)).

Thus we have

$$m\ddot{x} = -\frac{Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{1}{(l-x)^2} - \frac{1}{(l+x)^2} \right). \quad (*)$$

Newton's 2nd Law

This equation is exact. We now use the fact that $\frac{x}{l} \ll 1$ and Taylor expand to get the approximate motion. First, we rewrite (*)

(exactly) as

$$m\ddot{x} = -\frac{Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0 l^2} \left[\left(1 - \frac{x}{l}\right)^2 - \left(1 + \frac{x}{l}\right)^2 \right].$$

still exact.

Now a general fact, if $\alpha \ll 1$, then $(1+\alpha)^a \approx 1+a\alpha$.

Proof:

Proof on next page →

(2)

Proof: General Taylor expansion: ~~$f(x) = f(c) + (x-c)f'(c) + \dots$~~

For x near c , namely, for $|x-c| \ll 1$, we have

$$f(x) = f(c) + (x-c)f'(c) + \dots \quad (\text{Taylor's theorem}).$$

Here, our "f(x)" is $(1+\alpha)^a$ (namely, our variable "x" is now α and our function $f(x)$ is $f(\alpha) = (1+\alpha)^a$ for some a).

~~Thus~~ Also, here, c is just 0 since α is near 0.

Thus $f(x) = (1+\alpha)^a \approx f(0) + \alpha f'(0)$.

Now $f(0) = (1+\alpha)^a \Big|_{\alpha=0} = 1$.

$$f'(\alpha) = a(1+\alpha)^{a-1} \text{ so that } f'(0) = a(1+\alpha)^{a-1} \Big|_{\alpha=0} = a.$$

Thus $f(x) = (1+\alpha)^a \approx \frac{1+\alpha^a}{f(0)} \frac{a}{f'(0)}, \text{ as desired.}$

Returning, we have (A) $\Rightarrow M\ddot{x} = -\frac{Qg}{4\pi\epsilon_0 l^2} \left((1-\frac{x}{l})^{-2} - (1+\frac{x}{l})^{-2} \right)$.

Using the above result with ~~$\alpha = -\frac{x}{l} \ll 1$~~ and $a = -2$ gives $(1-\frac{x}{l})^{-2} \approx 1 + 2\frac{x}{l}$ and again with $\alpha = \frac{x}{l} \ll 1$ and $a = -2$ gives $(1+\frac{x}{l})^{-2} \approx 1 - 2\frac{x}{l}$.

Thus (A) $\Rightarrow M\ddot{x} \approx -\frac{Qg}{4\pi\epsilon_0 l^2} \left(1 + 2\frac{x}{l} - \left(1 - 2\frac{x}{l} \right) \right) = -\frac{Qg}{\pi\epsilon_0 l^3} x$

Thus $M\ddot{x} = -\frac{Qg}{\pi\epsilon_0 l^3} x$ which is Hooke's law with $K = \frac{Qg}{\pi\epsilon_0 l^3}$

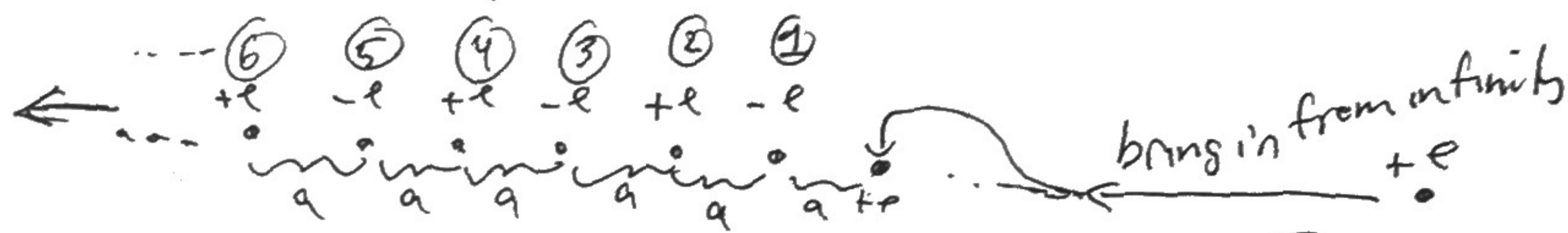
The frequency is thus

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{Qg}{\pi M \epsilon_0 l^3}}$$

(3)

#2) PM #1-42).

Suppose the chain is built infinitely far off to the left up to a particular negative charge:



Now if we bring in another positive charge:

~~the potential~~ The external work needed to do this is then

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(-\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{2a} - \frac{1}{3a} + \frac{1}{4a} - \frac{1}{5a} + \dots \right)$$

↓ from particle ① ↓ from particle ③
 ↓ from particle ②

$$\Rightarrow W_{\text{ext}} = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \underbrace{\left(1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \dots \right)}_{(1)}.$$

Now, as the hint says, we want to know $\ln(1+x)$. After some Wikipedia-ing (or explicitly calculating it, as you're encouraged to do at least once in your life) we have $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots$.

Thus we see that $(A = \ln(1+x)|_{x=1} = \ln(2) \approx .693$.

Thus $\boxed{W_{\text{ext}} = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \ln(2)}$, and this is therefore the energy of this positive charge. checked, we'd get the same result (as you should check) if we brought in a negative charge, and since the chain is infinitely long, this is indeed the (equal) potential energy per ion.

Numerically, $\frac{-e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \ln(2) \approx -\frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-19})^2 \cdot .693}{4\pi (8.85 \times 10^{-12})(250 \times 10^{-12})} \text{ J} \approx 6.4 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ per particle



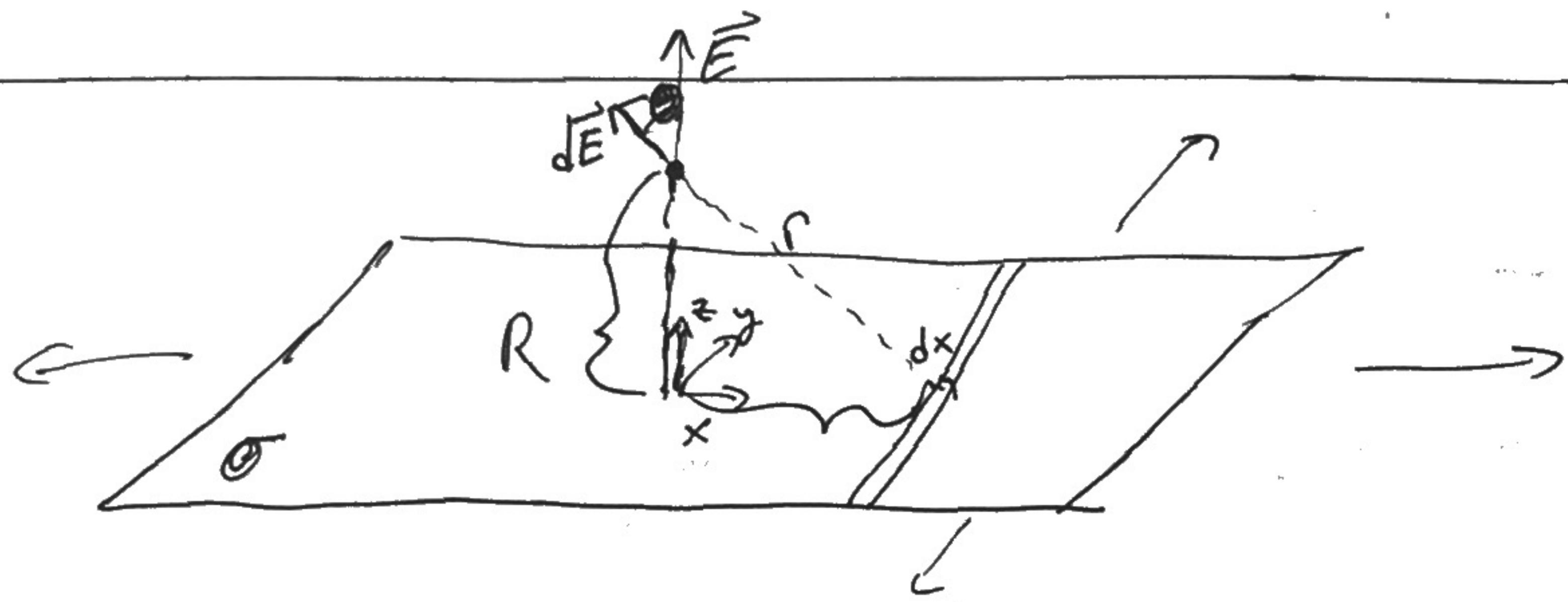
(4)

Thus, per mole, our result is $-(6.4 \times 10^{-19}) \times 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ J/mol $\approx -384 \text{ kJ/mol}$,

which is only off by a factor of 2 from the result for NaCl of -787 kJ/mol , which is a pretty good approximation.

Question: what would happen if all the particles in our chain were positively charged? Is this reasonable?

#3)



Consider a point a distance R above the infinite charged sheet with σ (and $[\sigma] = \frac{C}{m^2}$). Due to symmetry, it doesn't matter where in the x - y plane we put the point. (Indeed, we'll soon see that the z -direction doesn't matter either!)

Consider a thin, infinitely long slice in the y -direction with width dx . The E -field from this ~~strip~~ point as shown above, and by symmetry the only component that doesn't cancel is the z -component ~~dE_z~~ given by $dE_z = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \cos\theta$ where $\lambda = \sigma dx$ (note that this is indeed a line charge, i.e., $[\lambda] = \frac{C}{m}$), and where the magnitude of dE (of which we took the $\cos\theta$ component) is given in the problem statement as $\frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r}$. We then just need to integrate over each thin slice, i.e., $E = \int dE_z$.



(5)

We have $E = \int dE_z = \int_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma dx}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \cos\theta$.

Now, $r = \sqrt{R^2+x^2}$ and $\cos\theta = \frac{R}{r} = \frac{R}{\sqrt{R^2+x^2}}$

Thus

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma dx}{2\pi\epsilon_0 \sqrt{R^2+x^2}} \cdot \frac{R}{\sqrt{R^2+x^2}} = \frac{\sigma R}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{R^2+x^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{\sigma}{2\pi\epsilon_0 R} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+\left(\frac{x}{R}\right)^2}$$

Symmetry $\Rightarrow E = \frac{\sigma}{2\pi\epsilon_0 R} \cdot 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+\left(\frac{x}{R}\right)^2}$,

Now substitute

$$\tan\theta = \frac{x}{R}$$

~~Then $\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{R}\right)$~~

Then $\frac{dx}{d\theta} = R \sec^2\theta \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{R} = \sec^2\theta d\theta$,

Now for the limits of the integral: $\tan\theta = 0 \Rightarrow \theta = 0$
 $\tan\theta = \infty \Rightarrow \theta = \pi/2$.

Thus

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{2\pi\epsilon_0 R} \cdot 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+\left(\frac{x}{R}\right)^2} = \frac{\sigma}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sec^2\theta d\theta}{1+\tan^2\theta}$$

But $\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1 \Rightarrow 1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta$.

Thus,

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_0^{\pi/2} d\theta = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}$$

(in the ^{positive} \hat{z} direction)

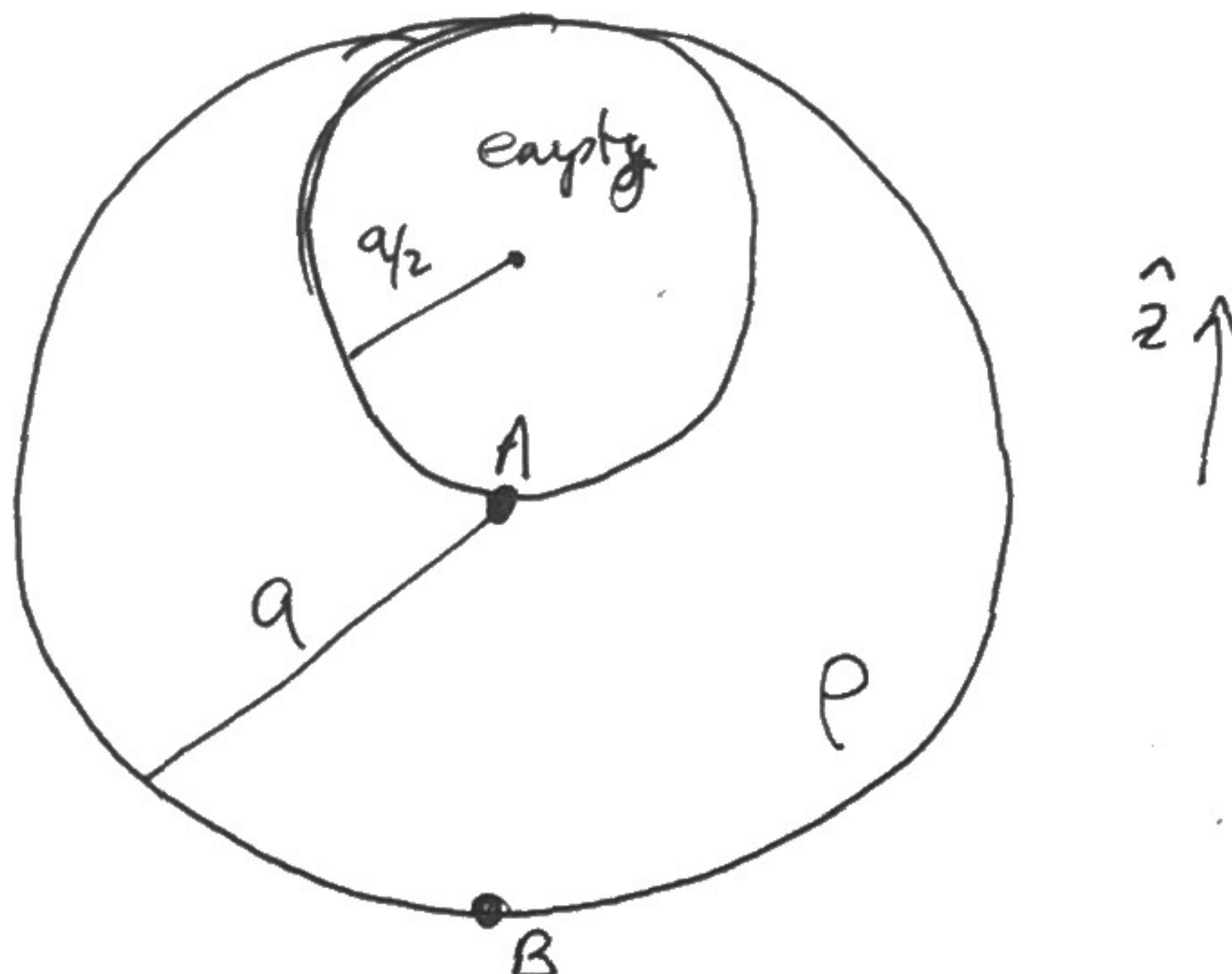
as desired.

Note: This is independent of R !

Is this surprising or expected?

(6)

#9] PM - 1.69



This setup is equivalent to a uniformly charged sphere (with no cavity) of charge density ρ superimposed with an off-set sphere of radius $a/2$ of charge density $-\rho$. The E-field at A and B are the sums of these two contributions (call these respective contributions E_p and E_q).

Since A is at the center of the radius a sphere, it gets no contribution from the $+\rho$ (radius a) sphere. ~~Only Gauss's law~~ We can take the contribution E_p as coming from a point charge at the origin of the $a/2$ sphere with charge $-\rho \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi(\frac{a}{2})^3$. Since this sphere is negatively charged, the E-field at A will be pointing upwards.

$$\text{Thus, } \vec{E}_A = \frac{\cancel{\rho \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi(\frac{a}{2})^3}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \cancel{(\frac{a}{2})^2}} \hat{z} = \frac{\rho}{3\epsilon_0} \frac{a}{2} \hat{z} \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E}_A = \frac{\rho a}{6\epsilon_0} \hat{z}}$$

Now \vec{E}_B comes from the point charge $-\rho \frac{4}{3}\pi(\frac{a}{2})^3$ located at the center of the $-\rho$, radius $a/2$ sphere (and the E-field at B from this charge is therefore pointing up) and from the point charge $\rho \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3$ located at the center of the $+\rho$, radius a sphere. Thus we have

$$\vec{E}_B = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{\cancel{\rho \frac{4}{3}\pi(\frac{a}{2})^3}}{(3\frac{a}{2})^2} \hat{z} - \frac{\cancel{\rho \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3}}{a^2} \hat{z} \right] = \frac{\rho a}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{4\pi}{3 \cdot 3^3 \cdot 2} - \frac{4\pi}{3} \right] \hat{z} = -\frac{\rho a}{\epsilon_0} \frac{17}{54} \hat{z}$$

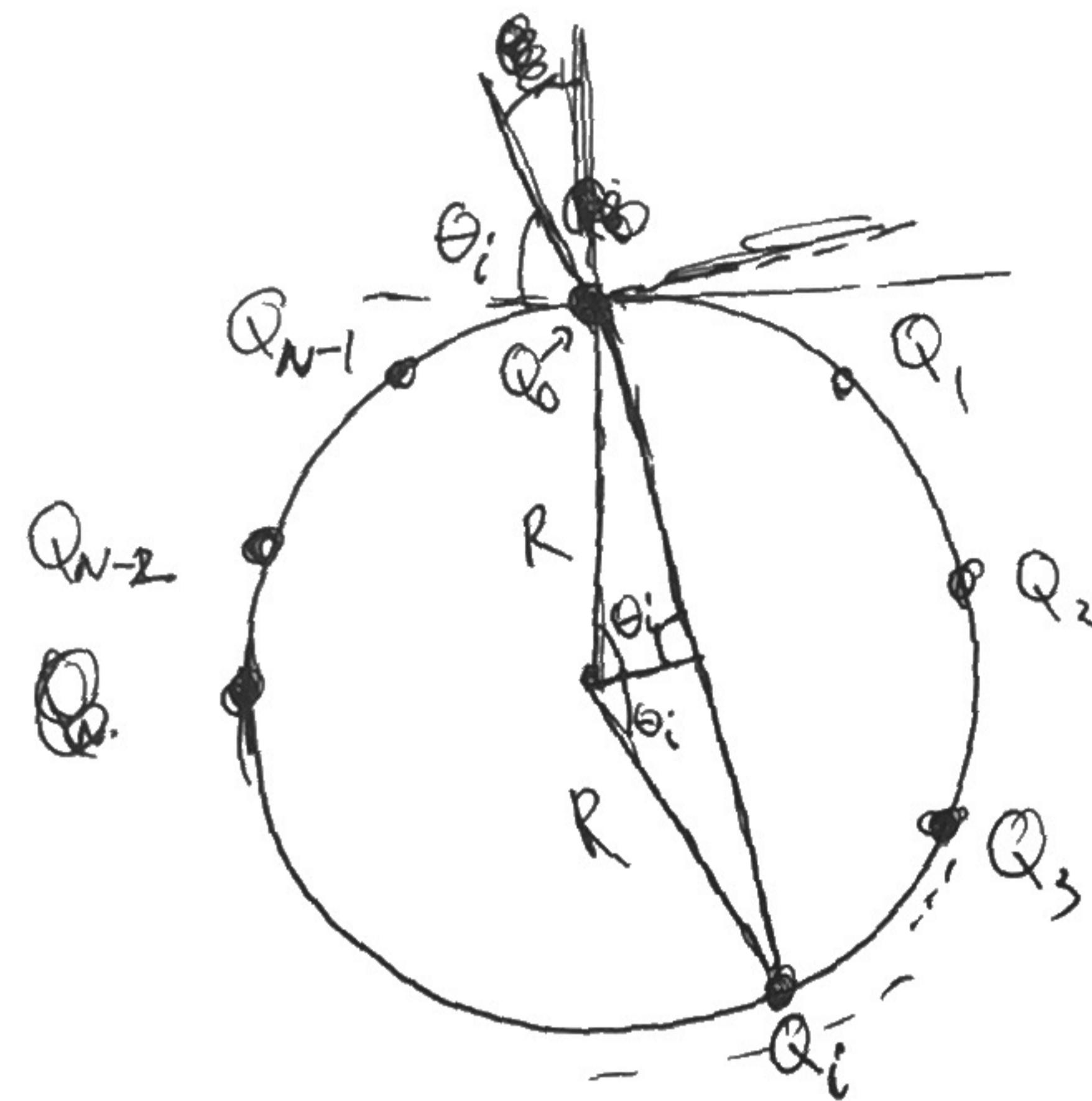
↑ pt charge located
 + sign since
 pointing up
 a distance $\frac{3a}{2}$
 from B

↑ contributor
 from $+\rho$
 sphere
 points down
 at B
 ↑ a distance
 a from B

Thus $\boxed{\vec{E}_B = -\frac{17}{54} \frac{\rho a}{\epsilon_0} \hat{z}}$

(7)

#5) PM. I-51

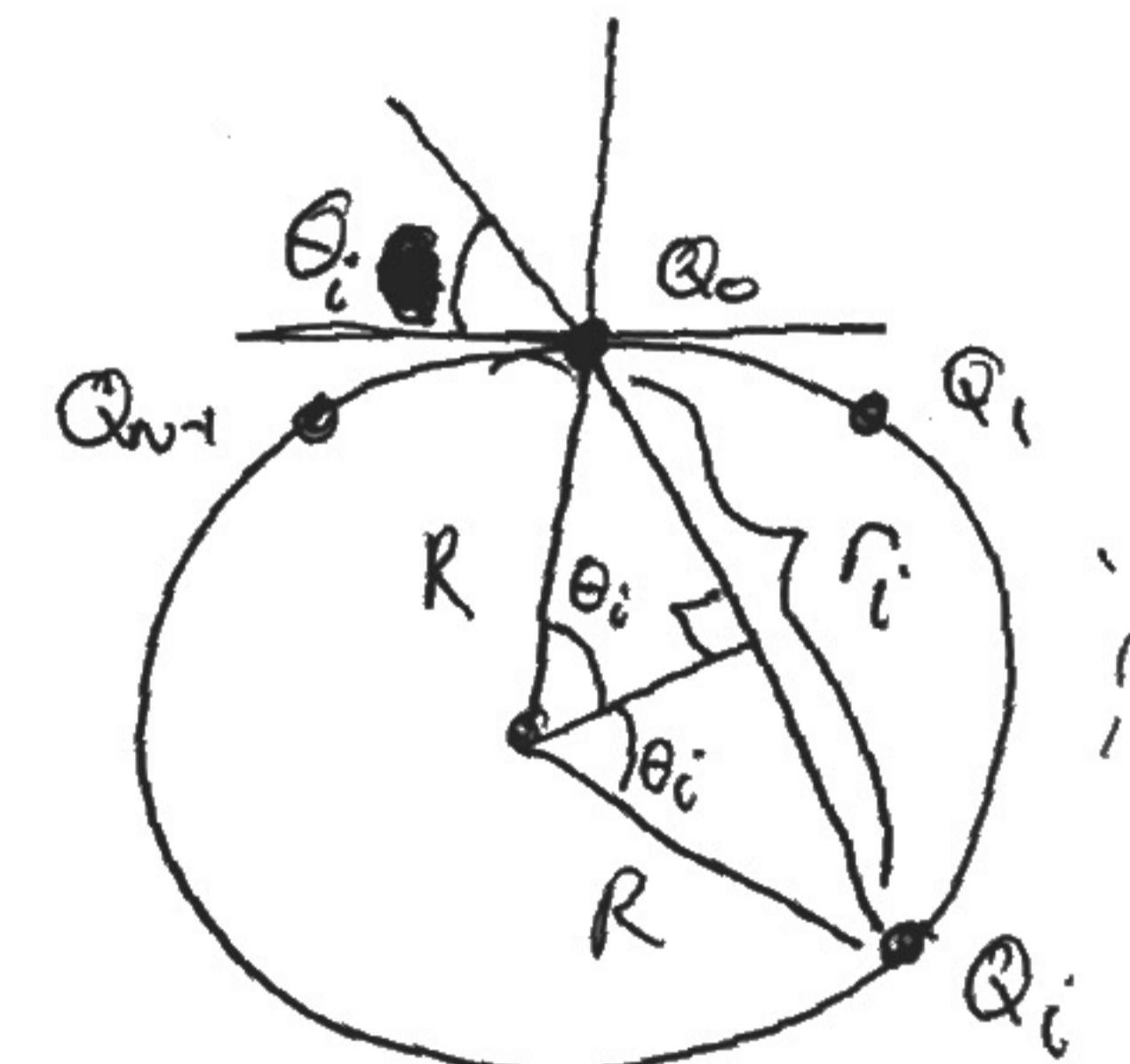
N charges Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_{N-1}

$$\text{each } Q_i = \frac{Q}{N}$$

Let us find the field at Q_0 . Due to symmetry, the only component that doesn't cancel is the component pointing up. Let's look at the contribution from the i^{th} particle Q_i , (as shown above)..

~~Below~~ Let me redraw the above picture:

Due to the symmetric placements of the charges, we see that we have $\theta_i = \frac{i\pi}{N}$.



The distance r_i is $2 \cdot R \sin \theta_i \Rightarrow r_i = 2R \sin\left(\frac{i\pi}{N}\right)$.

Thus E_i , the contribution (in the upwards direction) from Q_i at Q_0

$$\begin{aligned} E_i &= \frac{Q_i}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r_i^2} \sin \theta_i = \frac{Q/N}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\sin\left(\frac{i\pi}{N}\right)}{(2R \sin\left(\frac{i\pi}{N}\right))^2} \\ \Rightarrow E_i &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{1}{4R^2 N \sin^2\left(\frac{i\pi}{N}\right)}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $E_{\text{TOT}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} E_i = \frac{Q}{16\pi\epsilon_0 R^2 N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2\left(\frac{i\pi}{N}\right)}$ in the upwards direction

Now, for small i (i.e., $\frac{i}{N} \ll 1$), $\sin(\frac{i\pi}{N}) \approx \frac{i\pi}{N}$ and our sum is

$$E_{\text{tot}} \approx \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2 N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\frac{i\pi}{N}} \sim \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{i} \quad \text{because the } N's \text{ cancel,}$$

and this diverges like $\log(N)$

For the force, however, we ~~also~~ multiply in another factor of

$$Q_0 = \frac{Q}{N} \quad \text{so that the force, for large } N, \text{ goes}$$

$$\text{like } F \sim \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{i} \sim \frac{\log(N)}{N} \quad \text{and this is indeed finite as } N \rightarrow \infty.$$

Note that the approximation $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sin(\frac{i\pi}{N})} \underset{as N \rightarrow \infty}{\approx} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\frac{i\pi}{N}}$ is valid even for i not necessarily small because ~~as~~ as $N \rightarrow \infty$ the only charges that contribute to the ~~E~~ E-field and/or force are those that are very close to Q_0 , since all other charges die off as $\frac{Q}{N} \rightarrow 0$ so that charges must become infinitesimally close to Q_0 to contribute.

(9)

#6) PM 1-76

$$\rho(r) = -C e^{-2r/a_0}$$

The fraction^{frac} of negative charge inside a sphere of radius a_0

is

$$\text{frac} = \frac{\int_0^{a_0} \rho dV}{\int_0^{\infty} \rho dV} = \frac{\int_0^{a_0} -C e^{-2r/a_0} \cdot 4\pi r^2 dr}{\int_0^{\infty} -C e^{-2r/a_0} \cdot 4\pi r^2 dr} = \frac{\int_0^{a_0} r^2 e^{-2r/a_0} dr}{\int_0^{\infty} r^2 e^{-2r/a_0} dr},$$

(Note: don't have to solve for C!)

Let $x = \frac{2r}{a_0}$ then $dr = \frac{a_0}{2} dx$ so and we have (being careful with

the limits of integration

$$\text{frac} = \frac{\int_0^2 x^2 e^{-x} dx}{\int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x} dx}.$$

Now, using integration by parts or the cool trick that I'll show
~~below~~ in class in more detail, we have (or Google)

$$\int_a^b x^2 e^{-x} dx = -(x^2 + 2x + 2)e^{-x} \Big|_a^b$$

$$\text{Thus } \int_0^2 x^2 e^{-x} dx = -(x^2 + 2x + 2)e^{-x} \Big|_0^2 = 2 - 10e^{-2}$$

$$\text{and } \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x} dx = -(x^2 + 2x + 2)e^{-x} \Big|_0^{\infty} = 2.$$

Thus $\text{frac} = \frac{2 - 10e^{-2}}{2} = \frac{2 - 5/e^2}{2} \approx 0.323$ is the fraction of the full negative charge in the sphere of radius a_0 . Then the net charge in this sphere (including the proton at the center) is $Q_{\text{net}} = (1 - 0.323)e = (1 - 0.323)(1.6 \times 10^{-19}) C$
 $\Rightarrow Q_{\text{net}} \approx 1.08 \times 10^{-19} C$

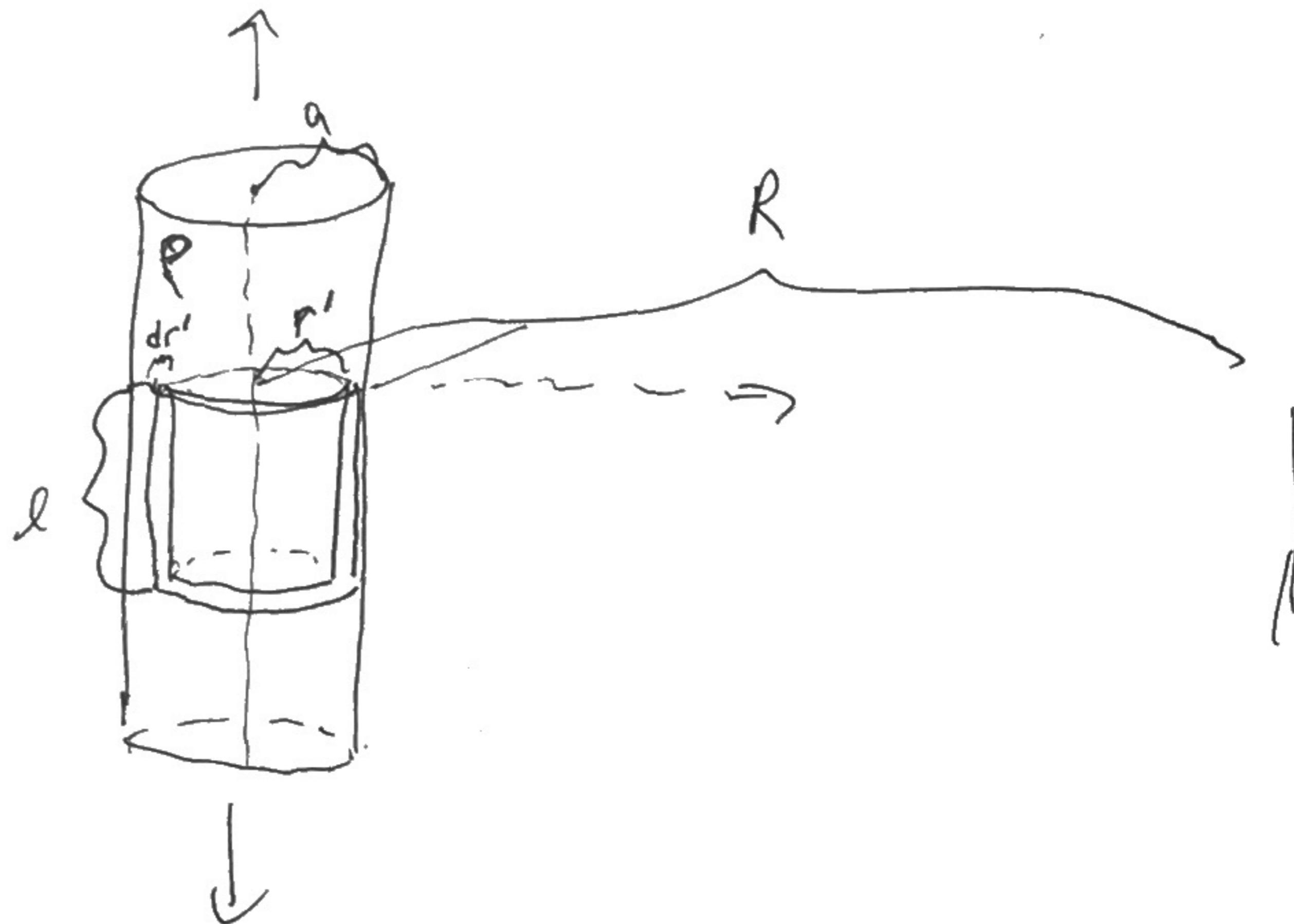
The field at $r = a_0$ is then

$$E = \frac{Q_{\text{net}}}{4\pi \epsilon_0 a_0^2} = \frac{(1.08 \times 10^{-19} C)}{(5.3 \times 10^{-10} m)^2} \cdot \left(9 \times 10^9 \frac{N \cdot C^2}{m^2} \right) \approx 3.5 \times 10^{11} N/C$$

(which is massive!)

(10)

#7) PM 1-24 and 1-83)



For the moment take the cylinders to be infinitely long, and then we'll calculate the energy per unit length.

By Gauss's law, or by problem #3, the \vec{E} -field outside a uniformly charged line charge is $\vec{E} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \hat{r}$ where (r, θ, z) are cylindrical coordinates.

Consider moving a thin shell of radius r , thickness dr , and length l (as shown above) out to some radius $R (< \infty)$. We want to compute the work required to do so, and then integrate over each shell. Namely, we first move the shell at ~~at~~ $r = a$ out to $r = R$, then that at $r = a + dr$ out to $r = R$, and so on.

For a shell at radius r' , the field from the charges at ~~radius~~^{total charge inside} $r < r'$ is given by $\vec{E} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \hat{r}$ with $\lambda = \frac{\rho \cdot (\pi r'^2 l)}{length} = \pi \rho r'^2$

Thus $\vec{E} = \frac{\rho r'^2}{2\epsilon_0} \hat{r}$ is the \vec{E} -field that the cylindrical shell of radius r' sees, ~~on the shell at radius~~ ~~on the shell at radius~~
~~shameless~~

(11)

The force on this shell is therefore the ^{total} charge of the shell times this \vec{E} -field, so that

$$\vec{F}_{\text{on shell}} = Q_{\text{shell}} \vec{E} \quad \text{where } Q_{\text{shell}} = \rho \cdot \text{Vol}_{\text{shell}} \\ = \rho \cdot l \cdot 2\pi r' dr'$$

Thus $\vec{F}_{\text{on shell}} = \rho l 2\pi r' dr' \cdot \frac{\rho r'^2}{2\epsilon_0} \hat{r}$ (Note: don't confuse r' with r !
These are different variables!)

$$= \frac{\pi \rho^2 r'^3 l dr'}{\epsilon_0} \hat{r}$$

The work dW done by ~~this force~~ to move the shell from $r=r'$ to $r=R$ is therefore (with $d\vec{r} = dr \hat{r}$)

$$dW = \int_{r=r'}^{r=R} \vec{F}_{\text{on shell}} \cdot d\vec{r} = \frac{\pi \rho^2 r'^3}{\epsilon_0} dr' \underbrace{\int_{r=r'}^{r=R} \frac{dr}{r}}$$

Note: dr' comes outside the integral.

$$= \frac{\pi \rho^2 l}{\epsilon_0} r'^3 dr' \ln(R/r')$$

Now for the total work done we compute $W = \int_{r'=a}^{r=0} dW$, i.e., integrate up starting with the shell at $r'=a$ in towards the shell at $r'=0$.

We have $W = \frac{\pi \rho^2 l}{\epsilon_0} \int_a^0 r'^3 \ln(R/r') dr' = \frac{\pi \rho^2 l}{\epsilon_0} \int_0^a r'^3 \ln(\frac{R}{r'}) dr'$

Let $x = \frac{r'}{R}$. Then $dr' = Rdx$, so $W = \frac{\pi \rho^2 l}{\epsilon_0} R^4 \int_0^{a/R} x^3 \ln(x) dx$
(or Google)

Integration by parts gives $\int_a^b x^3 \ln(x) dx = x^4 \left(\frac{1}{4} \ln(x) - \frac{1}{16} \right)$

Thus $W = \frac{\pi \rho^2 l}{\epsilon_0} R^4 \cdot \left[x^4 \left(\frac{1}{4} \ln(x) - \frac{1}{16} \right) \right]_0^{a/R} = \frac{\pi \rho^2 l a^4}{\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{4} \ln\left(\frac{a}{R}\right) - \frac{1}{16} \right]$

(12)

$$\text{using } \ln\left(\frac{a}{R}\right) = -\ln(R/a) \text{ and } \lambda = \pi p a^2$$

Thus $-\frac{W}{l} = \frac{\text{potential energy per unit length}}{\text{}} = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{4} + \ln\left(\frac{R}{a}\right) \right] = \frac{U}{l}$

Note that as $R \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{U}{l} \rightarrow \infty$. Physically, why does this happen?

Now PM-183]

eq. (153) says $U = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{\text{entire field}} E^2 dV$. Instead of integrating over the entire field let us instead only integrate up to some finite R . We will first integrate the field outside the cylinder, from $r=a$ to $r=R$, then that inside the cylinder, from $r=0$ to $r=a$.

We already know that the field outside the cylinder is

Given by $\vec{E} = \frac{\rho a^3}{2\epsilon_0} \hat{r}$ (just plug in $r'=a$ in the equation at the bottom of the first page of the solution to this problem).

Thus $U_{\text{outside}} = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{R=a}^R \left(\frac{\rho a^3}{2\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \frac{1}{r^2} \cdot 2\pi r dr \cdot l$
 $\Rightarrow U_{\text{outside}} = \frac{\pi \rho^2 a^4 l}{4\epsilon_0} \int_a^R \frac{dr}{r} = \frac{\pi \rho^2 a^4 l}{4\epsilon_0} \ln(R/a)$

We now use Gauss's law to find the field inside the sphere, at $0 < r < a$.

~~Then after using method in the first equation~~



Gauss: $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0}$. $Q_{\text{enc}} = \text{charge inside cylinder of length } l, \text{ radius } r < a$
 $= \rho \pi r^2 l$

$E \cdot 2\pi r \cdot l$ Thus $E \cdot 2\pi r l = \frac{\rho \pi r^2 l}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E = \frac{\rho r}{2\epsilon_0}$

Thus $\vec{E}_{\text{inside}} = \frac{\rho r}{2\epsilon_0} \hat{r}$