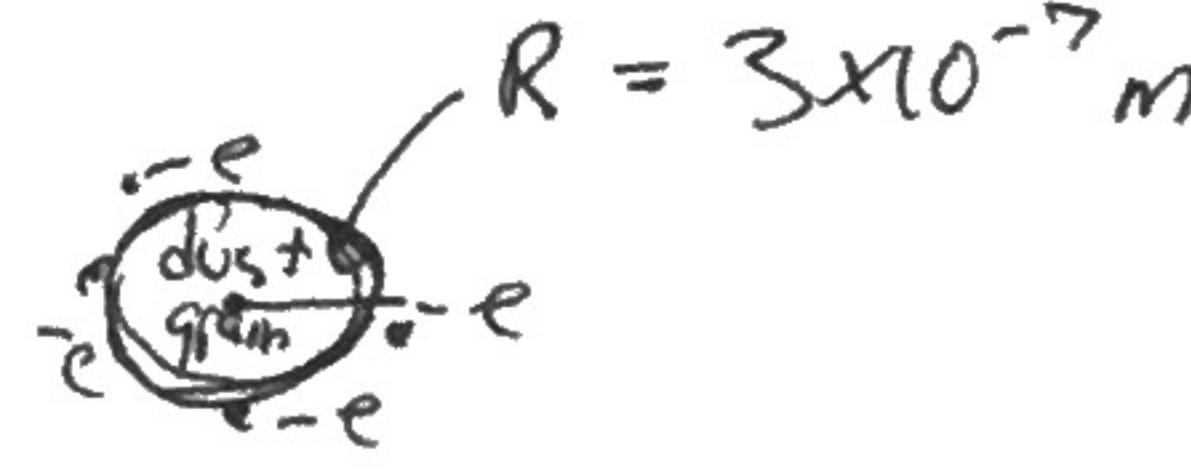


Problem Set #2 Solutions

(1)

#1) PM 2.38



Let Q be the total (negative) charge on the grain, and write $Q = -Ne$ where N = # of electrons and $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} C$. We want to find N .

We know

$$\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R} = -.15 V \quad (\text{since the grain is a sphere at } -.15 V \text{ potential, as given in the problem})$$

Thus

$$Q = -Ne = (-.15 V) \cdot 4\pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot R \quad (\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^2 \text{ C}^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow N = \frac{(-.15 V) \cdot 4\pi \cdot (8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2 \text{ s}^2)}{1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}} \cdot \frac{1}{m^3 \text{ Kg}}$$

$$\Rightarrow N \approx 31 \text{ electrons}$$

$$\text{At the surface, } \vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \hat{r} = -\frac{(31 \cdot 1.6 \times 10^{-19} C)}{4\pi \cdot 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \cdot (3 \times 10^{-7})^2} \text{ N/C}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} \approx -5 \times 10^5 \text{ N/C}$$

(Note, could also compute $\vec{E} = -\frac{-.15 V}{R}$ to get the same answer).

(2)

#2) PM 2.4Q To get the potential at the center of the sphere, we need to integrate up the potential from $r=\infty$ to $r=0$. However, the form of the E-field is different in the $a < r < \infty$ region than it is in the $0 < r < a$ region, ~~that's~~ so we need to be careful.

Namely $(Q = 79e)$
 $(a = 6 \times 10^{-15} m)$



$$E \sim \frac{1}{r^2}$$

$$)_{r=\infty}$$

for $r \geq a$,

$$\vec{E}_{\text{ext}} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r} = \frac{79e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r}.$$

For $0 < r < a$, Gauss says $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0}$

$$\oint_{S(r)} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0}, \quad \begin{matrix} \downarrow \\ \text{sphere of} \\ \text{radius } r \end{matrix}$$

charge enclosed in a sphere
of radius r

$$Q_{\text{enc}} = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \rho$$

$$\Rightarrow Q_{\text{enc}} = 79e \frac{r^3}{a^3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \frac{Q_{\text{TOT}}}{\frac{4}{3}\pi a^3} \\ &= \frac{79.3e}{4\pi a^3} \\ \Rightarrow \rho &= \frac{237e}{4\pi a^3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \cdot 4\pi r^2 = \frac{79e}{\epsilon_0} \frac{r^3}{a^3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}_{\text{mid}} = \frac{79e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{r}{a^3} \hat{r}.$$

Thus,

$$\phi(r=0) = - \int_{\infty}^0 \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \int_{\infty}^a \vec{E}_{\text{ext}} \cdot d\vec{l} - \int_a^0 \vec{E}_{\text{mid}} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

(Take $d\vec{l} = dr \hat{r}$)

$$\Rightarrow \phi(r=0) = - \int_{\infty}^a \frac{79e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dr}{r^2} - \int_a^0 \frac{79e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a^3} r dr$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(r=0) = -\frac{79e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\left(\int_{\infty}^a \frac{dr}{r^2} \right) + \frac{1}{a^3} \left(\int_a^0 r dr \right) \right] = \frac{79e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{2a} \right]$$

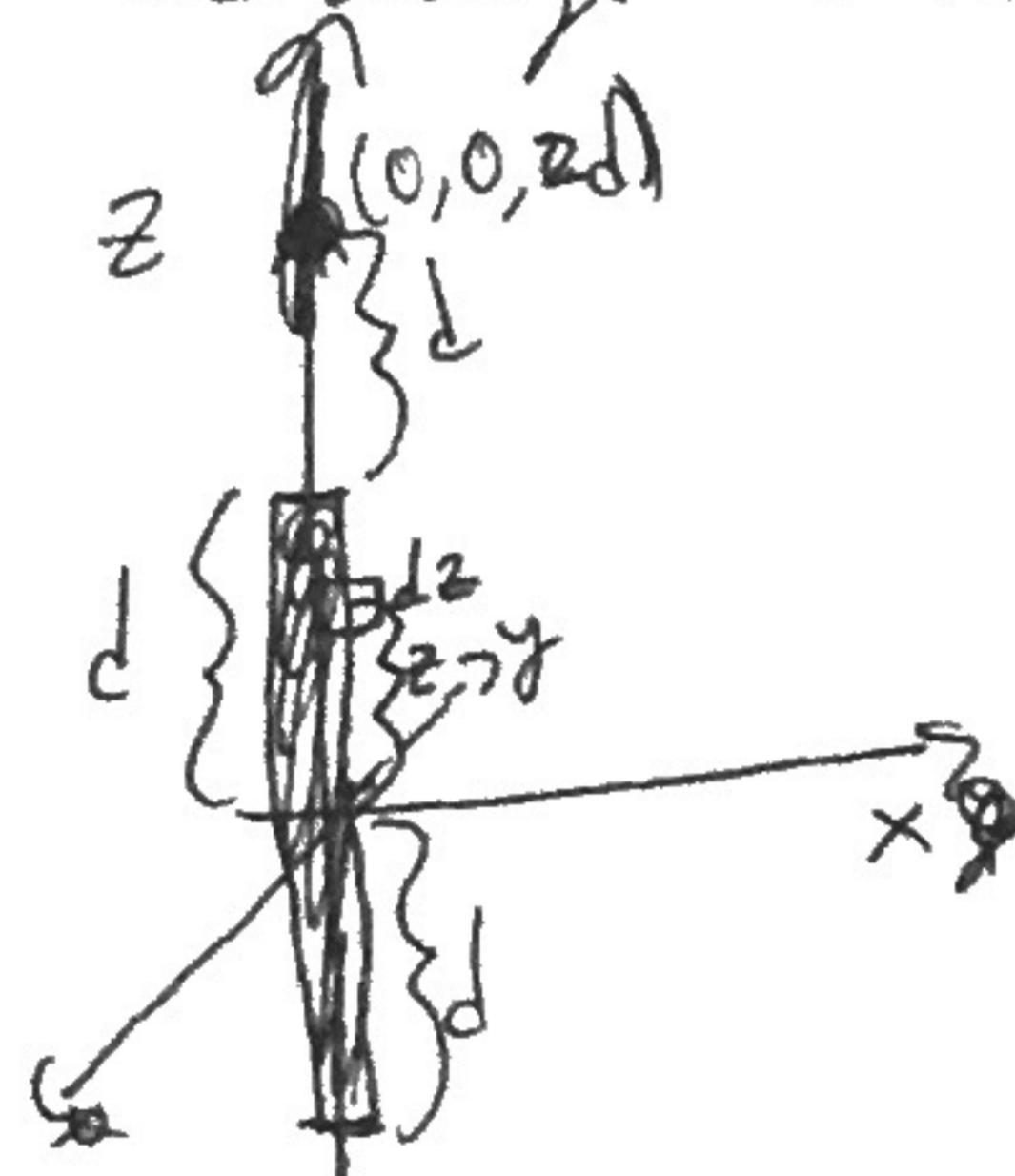
$$-\frac{1}{r} \Big|_{\infty}^a \quad \frac{1}{2} r^2 \Big|_a^0 = -\frac{a^2}{2}$$

Thus

$$\phi(0) = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{79e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \approx 28 \text{ megavolts}$$

(3)

#3) PM 2.43] As we know, the potential from a point charge q at a distance r from the origin when $\phi=0$ is defined at $r=\infty$ is given by $\phi(r) = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$. (Note: all of these requirements are important). As is usually the case for problems like these, we want to break up the distribution of charge (here, the rod) into lot of point charges $d\phi (= \lambda dz$ in this case) ~~then integrate~~, compute the ~~ϕ~~ from this $d\phi$ at our observation point, then integrate over all the $d\phi$'s, i.e., over the whole charge distribution. Here, we have:



Consider the point charge λdz located on the rod a distance z from the origin. It is then $2d-z$ from our observation point $(0,0,2d)$.

Thus, the contribution $d\phi$ from this λdz at $(0,0,2d)$ is $d\phi = \frac{\lambda dz}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (2d-z)}$. We now

just need to integrate this from $z=-d$ to $z=d$ to get ϕ at $(0,0,2d)$. We therefore have

$$\phi = \int d\phi = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-d}^d \frac{dz}{2d-z} = \frac{-\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{3d}^d \frac{du}{u} = \frac{-\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{d}{3d}\right)$$

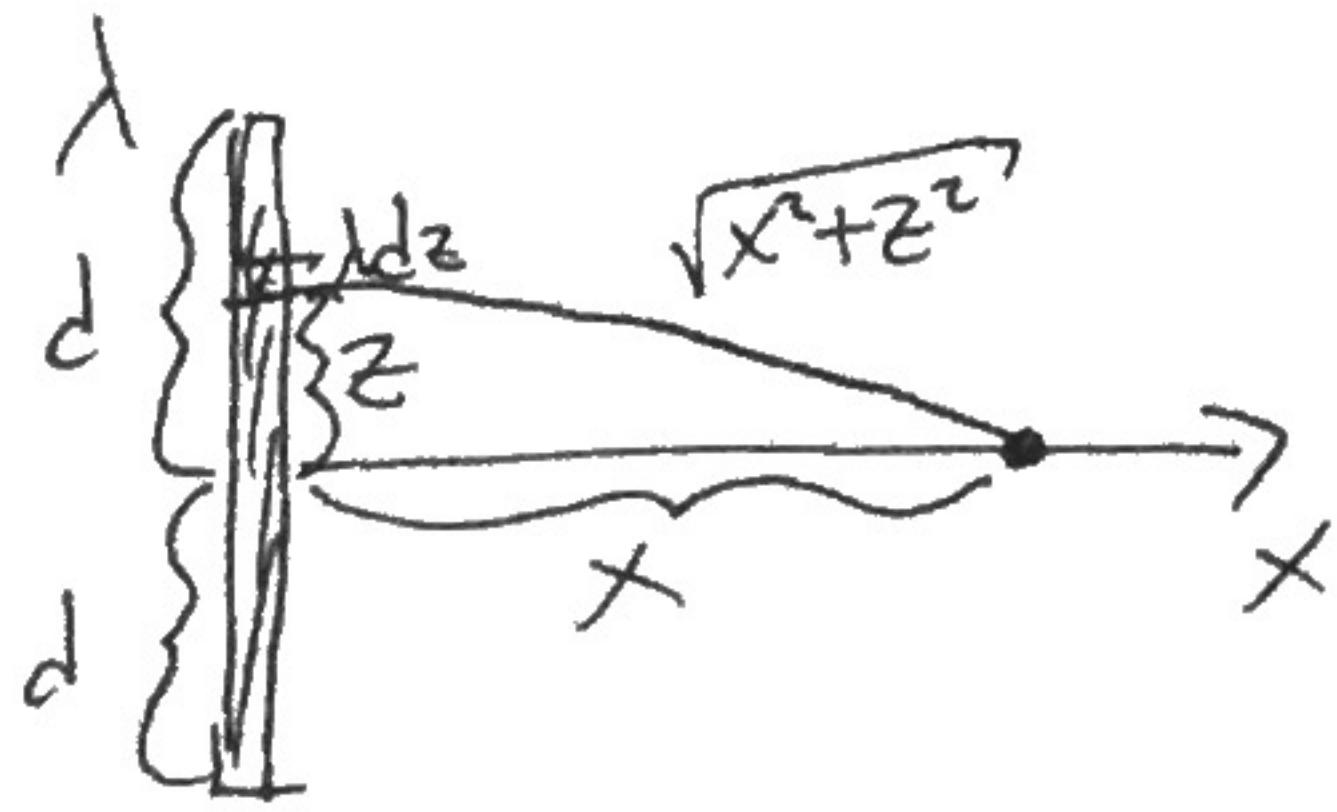
let $u = 2d-z$
 $du = -dz$

Thus $\phi(0,0,2d) = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \ln(3)$

(Note: independent of d ! Is this surprising? It should not be surprising, can you see why it's not surprising?) →

(4)

We now have our observation point at $\Phi(x, 0, 0)$:



Now, the contribution from each λdz at $\Phi(x, 0, 0)$ is given by

$$d\phi = \frac{\lambda dz}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}},$$

Thus, $\phi(x, 0, 0) = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-d}^d \frac{dz}{\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}}$

~~Integrating over the charge distribution~~

~~$= \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \int_{-d}^d \sqrt{1 + \frac{z^2}{x^2}}$~~

~~$= \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 x} \int_0^d \frac{dz}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{z^2}{x^2}}}$~~

~~Look up: $\int \frac{dz}{\sqrt{1 + z^2}} = \ln(\sqrt{z^2 + 1} + z) \Big|_{-d}^d$~~

$$\Rightarrow \phi(x, 0, 0) = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \ln(\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} + d) \Big|_{-d}^d = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} + d}{\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} - d}\right)$$

For $\phi(x, 0, 0) = \phi(0, 0, zd)$, we need $\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} + d}{\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} - d} = 3$

~~$(\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} + d)^2 = 9(\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} - d)^2$~~ $\Rightarrow \sqrt{x^2 + d^2} + d = 3\sqrt{x^2 + d^2} - 3d$

$\Rightarrow 4d = 2\sqrt{x^2 + d^2}$

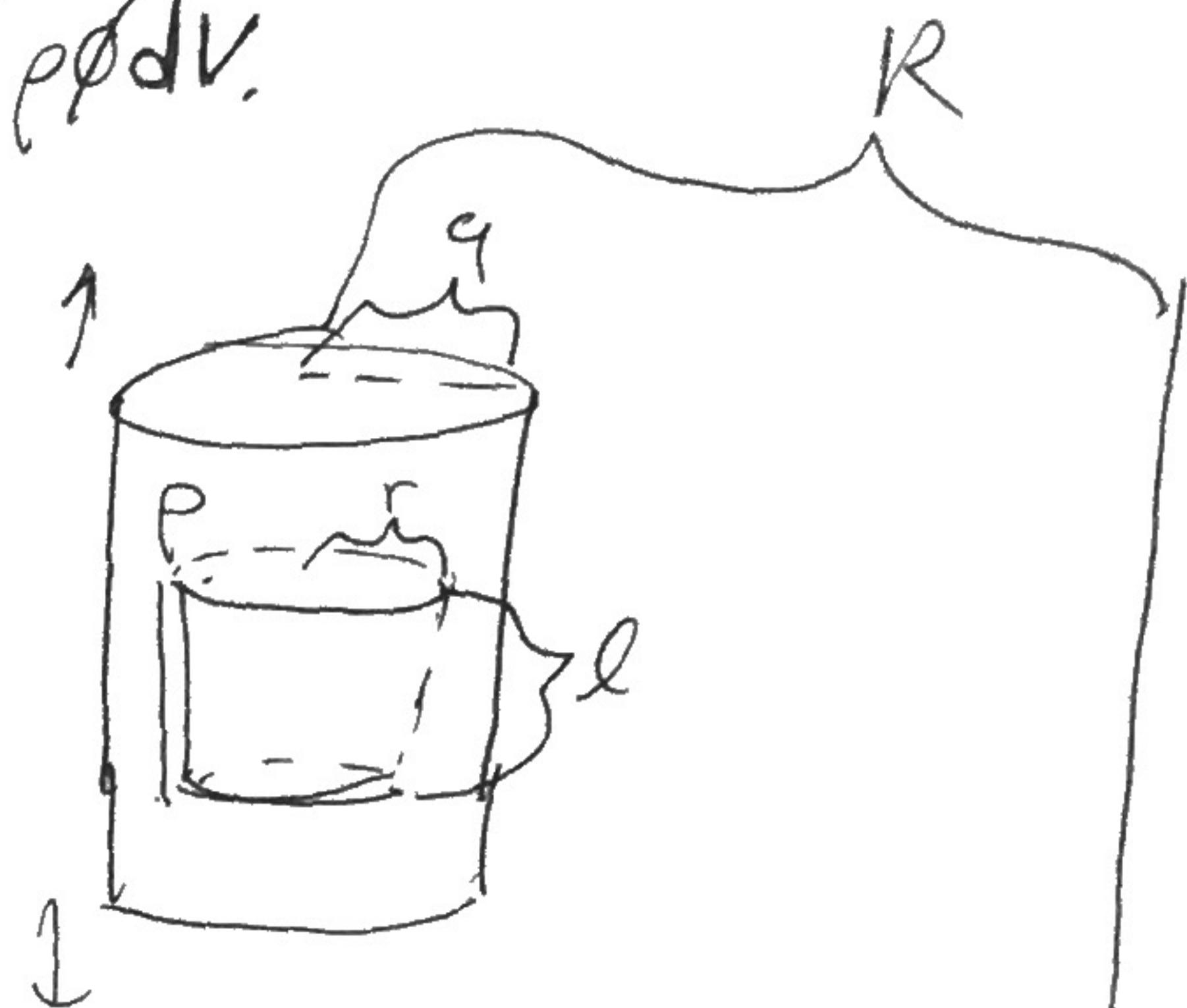
~~$16d^2 = 4(x^2 + d^2)$~~ $\Rightarrow 4d^2 = x^2 + d^2$

$\Rightarrow x = \sqrt{3}d$

(5)

#4) PM 2.59 Plan: First compute the \vec{E} -field outside of the cylinder, then integrate that up to get the potential, then use Eq. (2.32) as suggested, which says $U = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho \phi dV$.

We know that for $r > a$ we can view the cylinder as a line charge with $\lambda = \pi a^2 \rho$, since the total charge in the cylinder of length L is $Q_{\text{TOT}} = \pi a^2 L \rho$ so that the charge per length $\lambda = \frac{Q_{\text{TOT}}}{L} = \pi a^2 \rho$.



Thus, from Gauss's Law, and/or problem set 1 we have

$$\vec{E}_{\text{out}}(r > a) = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \hat{r} = \frac{\rho a^2}{2\epsilon_0 r} \hat{r}. \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E}_{\text{out}} = \frac{\rho a^2}{2\epsilon_0 r} \hat{r}}$$

cylindrical?

Again using Gauss's law for $r < a$ we have

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = E \cdot 2\pi l r = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\rho \cdot \pi r^2 l}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E}_{\text{inside}}(r < a) = \frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} r \hat{r}}.$$

surface area of
cylinder w/ radius
 r length l (see
picture)

Right now, for $U = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho \phi dV$, we note that $\rho = 0$ outside of the cylinder, so we only need to know ϕ inside the cylinder. We again need to be careful and break up ϕ into the integral from R to a and then from a to some $r < a$.



(6)

$$\phi(r \leq a) = - \int_R^a \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \int_R^a \vec{E} \cdot \vec{dl} - \int_a^r \vec{E} \cdot \vec{dl} \quad \text{where } \vec{dl} = dr \hat{r} \\ \text{is chosen to be}$$

$$\text{Then } \phi(r \leq a) = - \int_R^a \frac{\rho a^2}{2\epsilon_0 r} dr - \int_a^r \frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} r dr$$

$$= -\frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} \left[a^2 \int_R^a \frac{dr}{r} + \int_a^r r dr \right]$$

$$= -\frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} \left[a^2 \ln(\frac{a}{R}) + \frac{1}{2} (r^2 - a^2) \right].$$

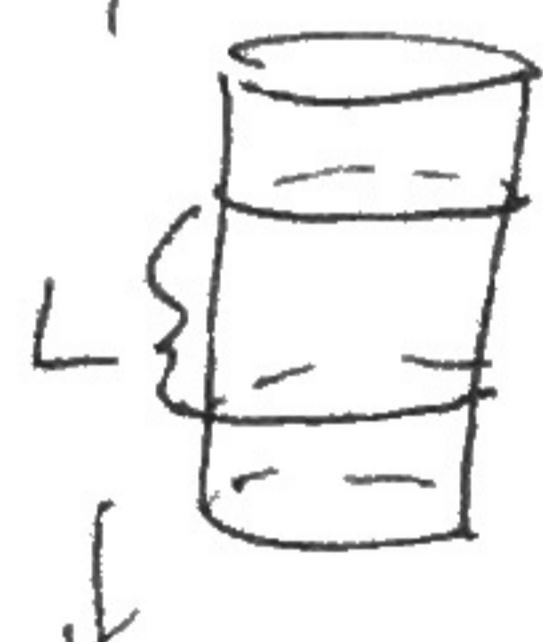
integrates to 2π

$$dV = r dr d\phi dz$$

integrates to L

$$\text{Now } \rho \text{ is constant so } U = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho \phi dV = - \frac{\rho^2}{4\epsilon_0} \int_{\text{cylinder}} \left[a^2 \ln(\frac{a}{R}) + \frac{1}{2} (r^2 - a^2) \right] dV$$

only integration over cylinder of length L
+ set U per length.



$$= -\frac{\rho^2}{4\epsilon_0} \cdot 2\pi \cdot L \int_0^a \left(a^2 \ln(\frac{a}{R}) + \frac{1}{2} (r^2 - a^2) \right) r dr$$

$$\Rightarrow U = -\frac{\rho^2 \pi L}{2\epsilon_0} \left[a^2 \ln(\frac{a}{R}) \left(\int_0^a r dr + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^a r^3 dr \right) - \frac{1}{2} a^2 \int_0^a r dr \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{U}{L} = -\frac{\pi \rho^2}{2\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{2} a^4 \ln(\frac{a}{R}) + \frac{1}{8} a^4 - \frac{1}{4} a^4 \right]$$

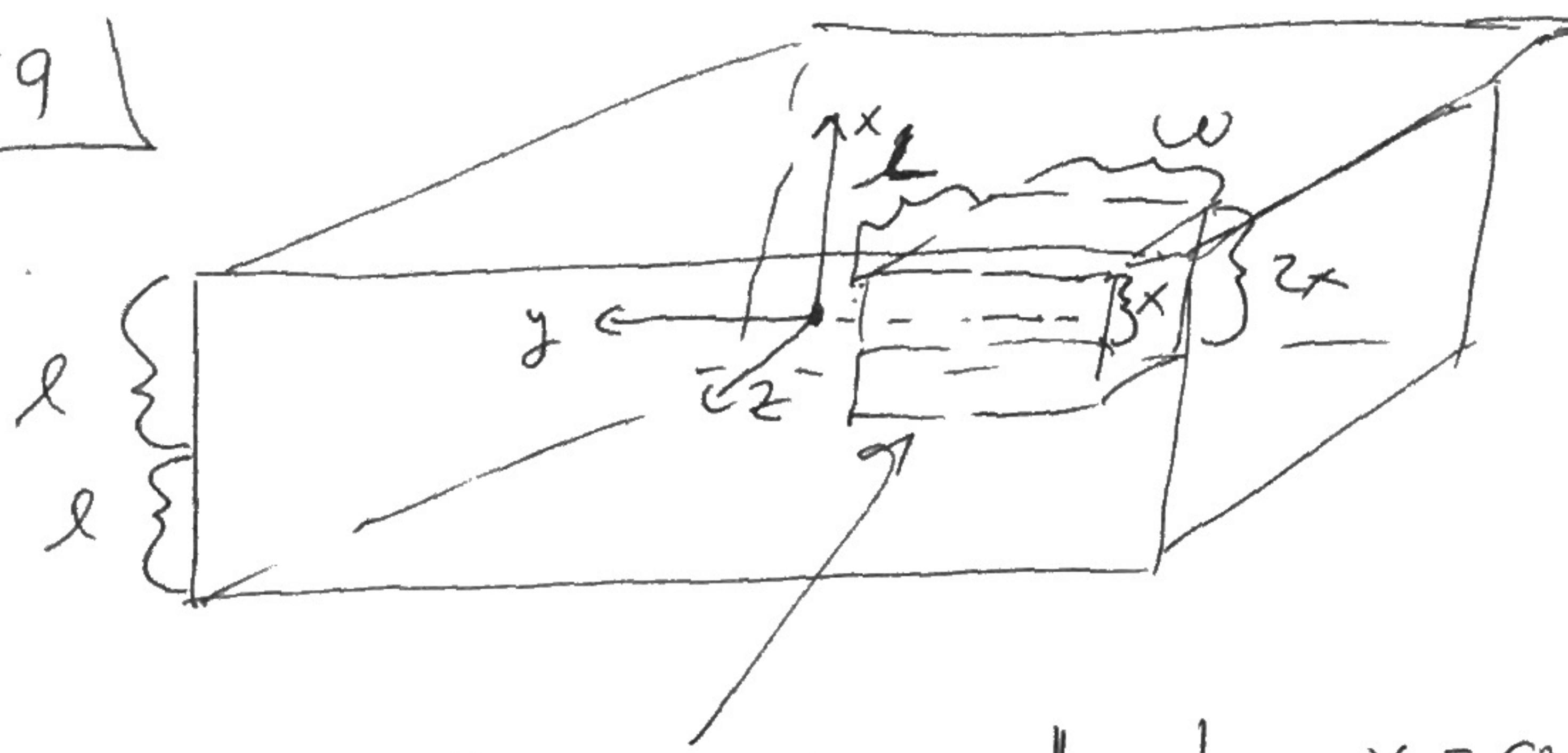
$$= -\frac{\pi \rho^2}{2\epsilon_0} \left[-\frac{1}{2} a^4 \ln(\frac{R}{a}) - \frac{1}{8} a^4 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{U}{L} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\pi a^4 \rho^2}{\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{4} + \ln(\frac{R}{a}) \right] = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{4} + \ln(\frac{R}{a}) \right]}$$

As desired, where $\underline{\lambda = \pi a^2 \rho}$

(7)

#5 PM 2.69



Gaussian surface centered on $x=0$ plane, i.e. has height $2x$, width w , length (into and out of page) l .

Due to symmetry, the E-field must point perpendicular out through the top ($x=\text{constant}$) and bottom faces. (outward if $\rho>0$, inward if $\rho<0$)

Thus $\int_{\text{rectangular prism}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = 2 \cdot w \cdot l E = \frac{Q_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\rho \cdot 2x \cdot w \cdot l}{\epsilon_0}^{\text{volume of rectangular prism}}$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}_{\text{in}} = \frac{\rho x}{\epsilon_0} \hat{x} \quad \text{for } |x| < l \quad (\text{note: this points in the correct direction both for } \rho > 0 \text{ and } \rho < 0, \text{ as well as for } x > 0, x < 0).$$

For $|x| > l$, this sheet acts as a surface charge with surface charge density $\sigma = \rho \cdot 2l$. To see this, note that in a rectangular patch of width Δy and length Δz , the total charge enclosed is $Q_{\text{TOT}} = 2\epsilon_0 \sigma y \Delta z$ (and height $2l$)

Thus, $\sigma = \frac{Q_{\text{TOT}}}{2y\Delta z} = 2l\rho$. We found in problem set #1 that the \vec{E} from an infinite sheet of charge is

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0} \hat{x} = \frac{\rho l}{\epsilon_0} \hat{x} \quad \text{for } x > l$$

and

$$\vec{E} = -\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \hat{x} = -\frac{\rho l}{\epsilon_0} \hat{x} \quad \text{for } x < l$$

(8)

(b) With $\phi=0$ at $x=0$, we have (with $\vec{d}l = \hat{x}\hat{x}$)

$$\text{for } x < l: \quad \phi(x) = - \int_0^x \vec{E} \cdot \vec{d}l = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \int_0^x x' dx' = -\frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} x^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\phi(x < l) = -\frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} x^2}$$

Now, for $x > l$, we have $\phi(x) = - \int_0^l \vec{E} \cdot \vec{d}l - \int_l^x \vec{E} \cdot \vec{d}l$

*need to consider $x < -l$
separately because \vec{E} is
different for $x > l$ and $x < -l$*

$$= - \int_0^l \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} x' dx' - \int_l^x \frac{-\rho l}{\epsilon_0} dx'$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} l^2 - \frac{\rho l}{\epsilon_0} (x-l)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\phi(x) = \frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} l^2 - \frac{\rho l x}{\epsilon_0}} \quad (\text{for } x > l).$$

Similarly, for $x < -l$, we have

$$\phi(x) = - \int_0^{-l} \vec{E} \cdot \vec{d}l - \int_{-l}^x \vec{E} \cdot \vec{d}l = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \int_0^{-l} x' dx' - \int_{-l}^x \frac{-\rho l}{\epsilon_0} dx' \quad \text{important minus sign!}$$

$$= -\frac{\rho l^2}{2\epsilon_0} + \frac{\rho l}{\epsilon_0} (x+l)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\phi(x) = \frac{\rho l^2}{2\epsilon_0} + \frac{\rho l x}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{for } x < -l.}$$

More succinctly, for $|x| > l$, we have

$$\boxed{\phi_{\text{out}}(|x| > l) = \frac{\rho l^2}{2\epsilon_0} - \frac{\rho l |x|}{\epsilon_0}}$$

(9)

$$\vec{E}_{in} = \frac{\rho x}{\epsilon_0} \hat{x}$$

(c) For \vec{E}_{in} , we have $\nabla \cdot \vec{E}_{in} = \partial_x E_x = \partial_x \left(\frac{\rho x}{\epsilon_0} \right) = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$, as desired. ✓

For \vec{E}_{out} , we have $\nabla \cdot \vec{E}_{out} = \partial_x E_x = \partial_x 0 = 0$ and $\rho = 0$ for $|x| > l$ as well, thus indeed $\epsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \vec{E}_{out} = \rho_{out} (= 0)$ ✓.

For ϕ_{in} , we have $\nabla^2 \phi_{in}(x) = \partial_x^2 \phi = \partial_x^2 \left(-\frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} x^2 \right) = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$, as desired ✓.

For ϕ_{out} , either for $x > l$ or $x < -l$, we see that ϕ_{out} is linear in x ,

thus $\nabla^2 \phi_{out} = \partial_x^2 \phi_{out} = 0$, in line with the fact that

$\rho = 0$ out here, thus $-\epsilon_0 \nabla^2 \phi_{out} = \rho (= 0)$, as desired.

Ex#6) PM 2.72

We have $\phi = \begin{cases} \frac{\rho_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) & \text{for } x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq a^2 \\ \frac{\rho_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(-a^2 + \frac{2a^3}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}}\right) & \text{for } x^2 + y^2 + z^2 > a^2 \end{cases}$

This is more conveniently written in spherical coordinates as:

$$\phi(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{\rho_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} r^2 & \text{for } r < a \\ \frac{\rho_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(-a^2 + \frac{2a^3}{r}\right) & \text{for } r > a. \end{cases}$$

We have $\vec{E} = -\nabla\phi = -\frac{d}{dr}\phi \hat{r}$

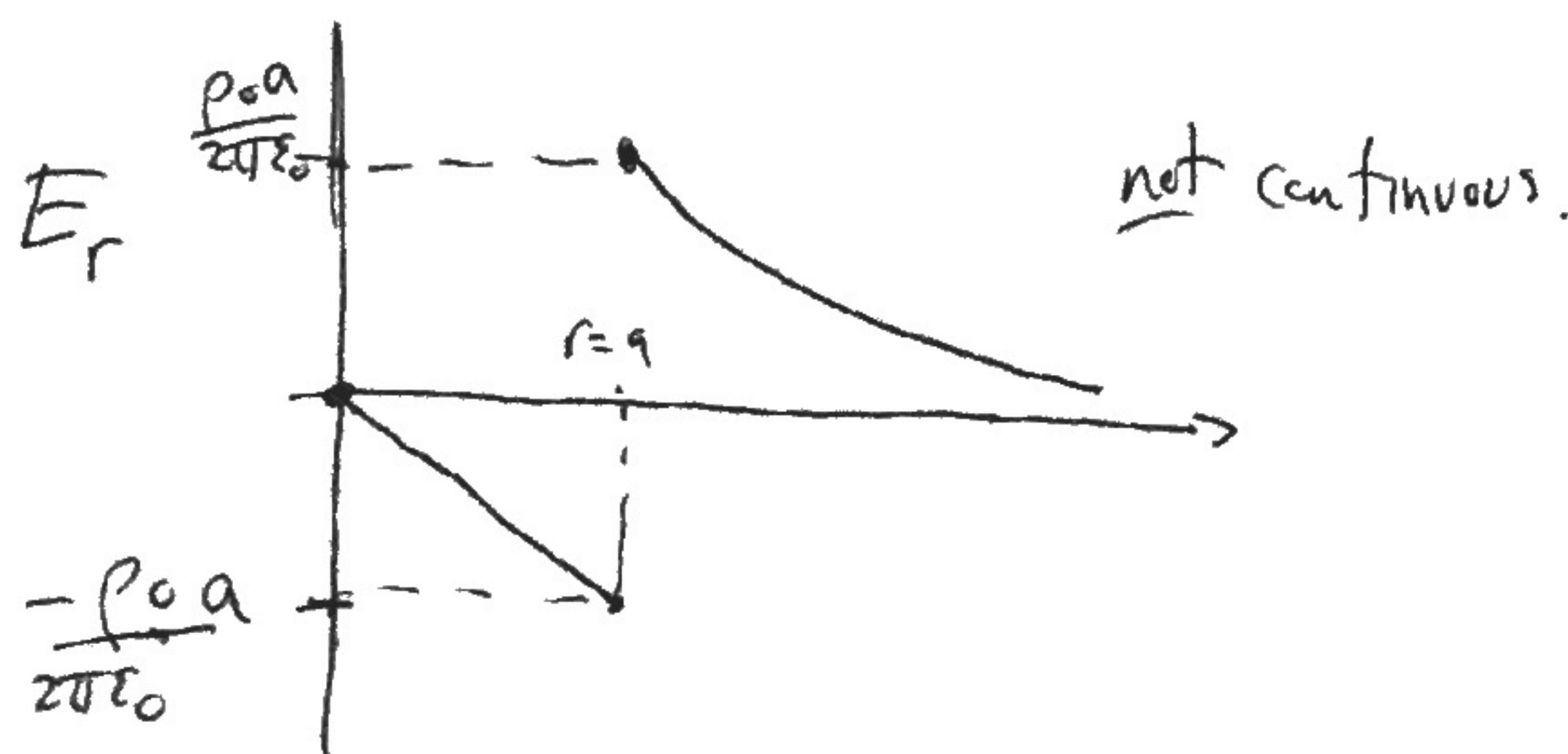
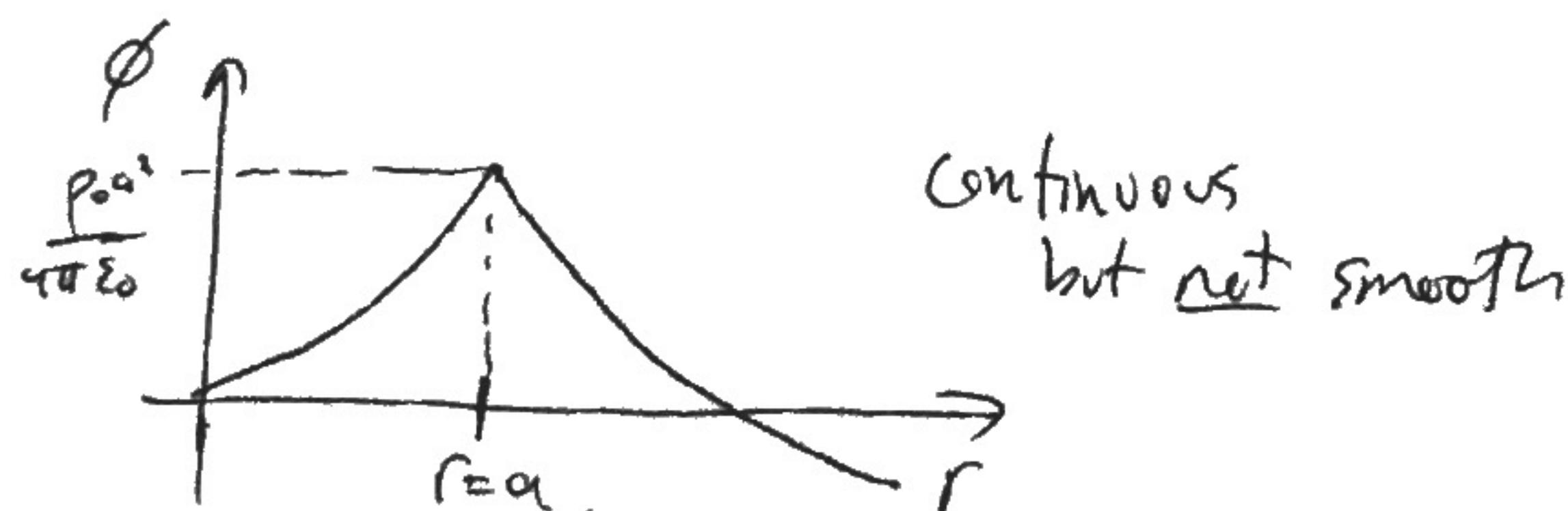
in spherical coordinates,
a function only of r

Thus for $r < a$, $\vec{E} = -\frac{\rho_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} r \hat{r}$

and for $r > a$, $\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_0 a^3}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r}$ i.e.,

$$\vec{E} = \begin{cases} -\frac{\rho_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} r \hat{r} & \text{for } r < a \\ \frac{\rho_0 a^3}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r} & \text{for } r > a. \end{cases}$$

Thus, we have



60

(11)

Now, for ρ , we use the fact that $\nabla \cdot \rho = -\epsilon_0 \nabla^2 \phi$.

In spherical coordinate for a function only of r , we have

$$\nabla^2 \phi = \frac{1}{r^2} \partial_r (r^2 \partial_r \phi) \quad (\phi_{in} = \frac{\rho_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} r^2) \text{ (for } r < a)$$

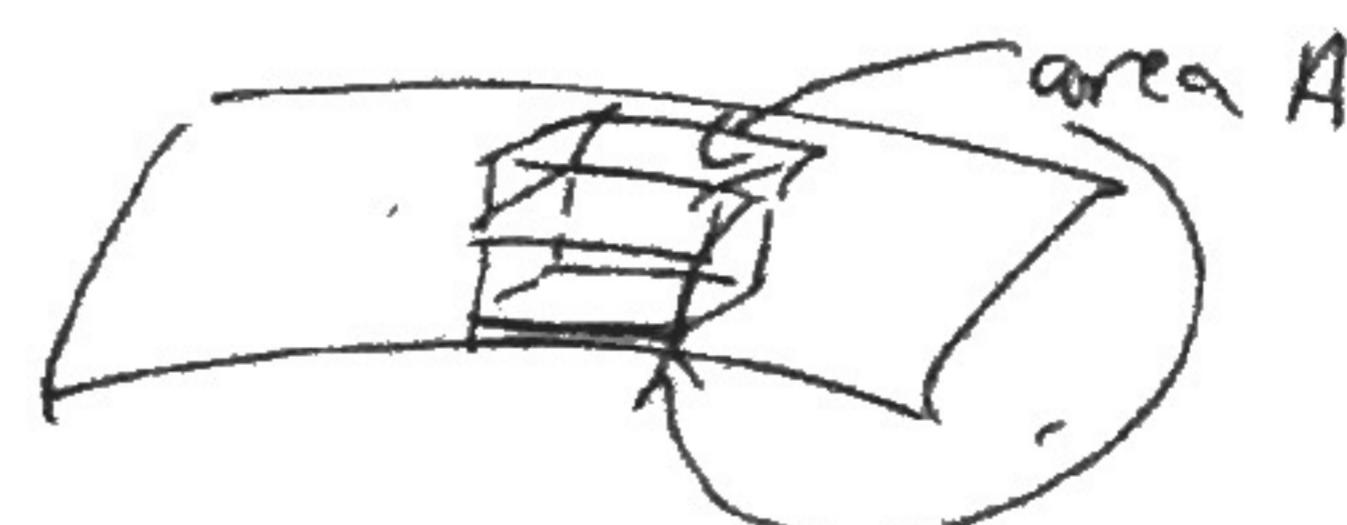
$$\text{Thus, } \nabla^2 \phi_{in} = \frac{1}{r^2} \partial_r \left(r^2 \cdot \frac{\rho_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot 2r \right) = \frac{3\rho_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r^2} \partial_r (r^3) = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\rho_0}{\pi\epsilon_0}.$$

Thus, for $r < a$, $\rho(r) = -\frac{3}{2} \frac{\rho_0}{\pi}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } r > a, \nabla^2 \phi &= \frac{1}{r^2} \partial_r \left(r^2 \partial_r \left(\frac{\rho_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} (-a^2 + \frac{2a^3}{r}) \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{r^2} \partial_r \left(r^2 \cdot \left(-\frac{\rho_0 a^3}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{r^2} \partial_r \left(\underbrace{-\frac{\rho_0 a^3}{2\pi\epsilon_0}}_{\text{constant!}} \right) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus for $r > a$, $\rho(r) = 0$

However, $\rho(r)$ is not continuous at $r=a$, because $\nabla^2 \phi$ is not continuous there. Indeed, there is a surface charge at $r=a$, which can be computed using an infinitesimally small Gaussian pillbox. Namely, let us consider an infinitesimally small box around a portion of the sphere.



In the limit that this box is infinitely small, the sphere looks like

(12)

an infinite plane, in which case we know \vec{E} on either side is $|\vec{E}| = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}$

Now, $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ over this small box is $E_{top} \cdot A - E_{bottom} \cdot A$,

where $E_{top} = \lim_{r \rightarrow a} E(r > a)$ and $E_{bottom} = \lim_{r \rightarrow a} E(r < a)$

so that $E_{top} = \frac{\rho_0 a}{2\pi\epsilon_0}$ and $E_{bottom} = -\frac{\rho_0 a}{2\pi\epsilon_0}$.

Thus $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{\rho_0 a}{2\pi\epsilon_0} A - \left(-\frac{\rho_0 a}{2\pi\epsilon_0}\right) A = \frac{\rho_0 a A}{\pi\epsilon_0}$. (*)

We also know $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q_{enc}}{\epsilon_0}$ where now $Q_{enc} = \sigma A$ where σ is (from Gauss's Law) the surface charge density that we're looking for.

Thus (*) and (**) $\Rightarrow \frac{\rho_0 a A}{\pi\epsilon_0} = \frac{\sigma A}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \sigma = \frac{\rho_0 a}{\pi}$.

Thus,

$\rho = \begin{cases} -\frac{3}{2} \frac{\rho_0}{\pi} & \text{for } r < a \\ 0 & \text{or } r > a \end{cases}$ and There is a surface charge of $\sigma = \frac{\rho_0 a}{\pi}$ at $r = a$.

#7 PM 2.75

$$(a) \vec{F} = (x+y, -x+y, -2z) \Rightarrow F_x = x+y, F_y = -x+y, F_z = -2z$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{F} = \partial_x F_x + \partial_y F_y + \partial_z F_z = \partial_x(x+y) + \partial_y(-x+y) + \partial_z(-2z) \\ = 1 + 1 - 2 = 0.$$

Thus $\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{F} = 0}$

$$\nabla \times \vec{F} = (\partial_y F_z - \partial_z F_y, \partial_z F_x - \partial_x F_z, \partial_x F_y - \partial_y F_x) \\ = (0-0, 0-0, -1-1) = (0, 0, -2) \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \times \vec{F} = (0, 0, -2)}$$

$$(b) \vec{G} = \begin{pmatrix} 2y \\ G_x \\ G_y \\ G_z \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{G} = \underbrace{\partial_x G_x}_0 + \underbrace{\partial_y G_y}_0 + \underbrace{\partial_z G_z}_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{G} = 0}$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{G} = (\partial_y G_z - \partial_z G_y, \partial_z G_x - \partial_x G_z, \partial_x G_y - \partial_y G_x) \\ = (3-3, 0-0, 2-2) = (0, 0, 0) \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \times \vec{G} = (0, 0, 0)}$$

Thus there exists a g such that $\vec{G} = \nabla g$. One possible g is found by integrating up \vec{G} from $(0,0,0)$ to some (a,b,c) along a path that first goes in the x -direction, then the y , then the z . We have

$$g(a,b,c) = \int_{(0,0,0)}^{(a,b,c)} \vec{G} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_0^a G_x(x,0,0) dx + \int_0^b G_y(a,y,0) dy + \int_0^c G_z(a,b,z) dz \\ = \int_0^a 0 \cdot dx + \int_0^b (2a+0) dy + \int_0^c 3b dz \\ = 2ab + 3bc.$$

Thus $\boxed{g(x,y,z) = 2xy + 3yz}$.

(19)

one can straightforwardly check that indeed $\vec{G} = \nabla(2xy + 3yz)$
 $= \nabla g$.

$$(C) \quad \vec{H} = \left(\underbrace{x^2 - z^2}_{H_x}, \underbrace{\frac{H_y}{2}}_{2}, \underbrace{H_z}_{2xz} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{H} = 2x + 0 + 2x = 4x. \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{H} = 4x}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \vec{H} &= (\partial_y H_z - \partial_z H_y, \partial_z H_x - \partial_x H_z, \partial_x H_y - \partial_y H_x) \\ &= (0 - 0, -2z - 2z, 0 - 0) = (0, -4z, 0). \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\boxed{\nabla \times \vec{H} = (0, -4z, 0)}$