DISTRIBUTION OF CHARGE

- Let's look @ an example of how we can use Gauss's Law to determine the electric field of a very symmetric distribution of charge <u>without</u> setting up and evaluating Coulomb integrals.

- First, Gauss's Law is <u>always true</u>. It is a basic fact about electric fields & the charges that produce them:

A charged

 $d\vec{a} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{q_{enc}}{\varepsilon_0}$ $d\vec{s} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{q_{enc}}{\varepsilon_0}$ $d\vec{s} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{q_{enc}}{\varepsilon_0}$ $d\vec{s} \cdot \vec{E} \cdot \vec{E}$

- We often talk about charge being spread over an object or throughout its volume. So once we describe a charge distribution, you may have a particular surface in mind (i.e., a sphere, or a cube, etc).

- But usually that is <u>not</u> the surface we are talking about with Gauss's Law. Instead, we have some imaginary surface in mind. It may (as we'll see below) have a similar shape but a different size. Or it may be some entirely different shape.

To avoid confusion, I will use S and V to denote a surface and volume associated with an actual charged object. And I will use GS and GV to describe a Gaussian surface ' - a surface I am using in Gauss's Law - and the volume inside it.

This cube is an acheal physical object w/ charge density p in its volume V & surface charge density t on its surface S. This Gaussian surface has a totally unrelated This cube is a Gaussian surface w/ the same shape as the object, but its bigger.

- If I tell you about a distribution of charge, and then I describe a G.S. to you, it should be straightforward (in principle) for you to tell me how much of the charge is enclosed by the G.S.

the charge in the part of the blue blop inside the G.S. Now, Gauss's Law can help us determine È when the distribution of charge producing the electric field is <u>very symmetric</u>.

The procedure for Finding È will involve Gaussian surfaces that have the same basic shape or symmetry as the charge. So let's look C a simple example to see how it works.

- Suppose I show you a sphere w/ radius R that has a uniform charge density. We'll call the constant charge density go.

- This distribution of charge has <u>SPHERICAL SYMMETRY</u> because I can give you a complete description of the charge using only the distance r from a single point - the center of the sphere:

 $p = p_{0}$ $p(\vec{r}) = \begin{cases} p_{0}, r < R \\ 0, r > R \end{cases}$ $p(\vec{r}) = \begin{cases} p_{0}, r < R \\ 0, r > R \end{cases}$

- What surfaces have spherical symmetry? Well, what surfaces can I describe using only the distance r from a central point? Spheres.

- So we'll use spheres w/ radius r é centered on the same point as our Gaussian surfaces.



- So how does this let us determine Ê? - First, we expect that the symmetries of the charge distribution tell us about E. - In this case, if we use SPC w/ the origin @ the center of the sphere, it seems like E cauld depend on r, but not O or of. We expect E to get bigger or smaller as we more toward or away from the sphere. But it looks the same from all directrons (spherical symmetry!) so $\theta \in \phi$ can't be relevant. - Likewise, symmetry suggests E could point in the \hat{r} direction, but not $\hat{\Theta}$ or $\hat{\phi}$.

By symmetry, contributions to É in ô é à dir. will all cancel aut. Net result is É in f direction.

> A spherically symm. Charge distribution looks the same from two pts. w/ same r & different 0, \$\$.

- So a spherically symmetric charge distribution (w/r=0 @ its center) implies an electric field of the form:

 $\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = E(r)\hat{r}$

- Now recall Gauss's Law!

$\int d\vec{a} \cdot \vec{r} E(r) = \frac{q_{enc}}{\varepsilon_0}$

- Suppose the G.S. is a sphere centered @ F= O (the center of the charged sphere). Then:

 $\int d\vec{a} \cdot \hat{r} E(r) = \int d\phi \int d\Theta \sin \Theta r^2 \hat{r} \cdot \hat{r} E(r)$

$= 4\pi r^2 E(r)$

We don't <u>know</u> E(r) yet, but this doesn't stop us from evaluating the integral blc every point on ar G.S. has the <u>same</u> value of r. It's a sphere!

- If the radius of the G.S. is $\Gamma > \mathbb{R}$, then $q_{enc} = \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 \rho_{enc}$

 $4\pi r^2 E(r) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \rho_0$

Flux of spherically Charge enclosed by symm. E through a that G.S. when F>R. spherical G.S.

 $\Rightarrow E(r > R) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \rho_0 \frac{1}{r^2}$

 $\Rightarrow \vec{E}(r > R) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \rho_0 \frac{\hat{r}}{r^2}$

In other words, outside (F>R) a spherically symm. distribution of charge, the electric field is the same as for a point charge.

- But what about r < R? When the G.S. is smaller than the charged sphere it encloses only <u>part</u> of its charge: $q_{enc} = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^{3} g_{0}$

$4 \pi r^{2} E(r) = \frac{1}{\epsilon_{0}} \frac{4}{3} \pi r^{3} \rho_{0}$

$\Rightarrow E(r < R) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon}, \frac{4}{3}\pi r p_{0}$

This has the same units as E(r>R), but instead of a factor of R^3/r^2 it has a factor of r. We could also write it as:

$E(\Gamma < R) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \rho_0 \frac{\Gamma}{R^3}$

 $\Rightarrow \vec{E}(r < R) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 p_0 \frac{\Gamma}{R^3} \hat{r}$

So inside the uniform charged sphere, the electric field grows linearly. At r= R, the two expressions (for r>R & r<R) agree.
If we use Q = 4πR³so, then È is:

 $\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = \begin{cases} \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\Gamma}{R^3} \hat{r}, r \in R \\ \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\hat{r}}{R^2}, r \gg R \end{cases}$

- Here's a plot: For r < E, the flox is a $r^2 E(r)$, $|\vec{E}|$ $|\vec{E}|$ $|\vec{E}|$

In this example, our expressions for genc were specific to a <u>uniform</u> (p= constant) charge clensity.
 But evenything else we did (our assumptions about É, our expressions for the flux) depended <u>only</u> on spherical symmetry.

- Thurefore, if we had p(r) rather than g which is still spherically symmetric - the analysis would be exactly the same except for the part where we calculate gene!

Gauss's Law can help us out in three situations:
 1) Spherical symmetry : p(r) = p(r), where r is the distance from a central point (r=0).

- 2) Cylindrical or axial Symmetry: $p(\vec{r}) = p(s)$, where s is the distance from a central <u>axis</u> (s=0).
- 3) Planar Symmetry: $p(\vec{r}) = p(z)$, where z is the distance from a central plane (z=0).

Gauss's Law is <u>always</u> true, for any G.S. But those 3 situatrons are the only ones where we can exploit it to find \vec{E} without having to set up \vec{e}_i evaluate Coulomb integrals.

Finally, to use Gauss's Law we have to be able to say something about the flux

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even though we don't yet $\underline{knaw} \stackrel{\sim}{E}$. The key is to identify what we do know about $\stackrel{\sim}{E}$ and thun pick the right surface.

- If we know that É depends on a single coordinate ne é has direction É:

$\vec{E} = E(n) \hat{E}$

then we look for a G.S. that has $\mathcal{U} = \text{constant}$, or is made up of multiple surfaces some of which have $\mathcal{U} = \text{constant} \notin$ some of which have $\hat{\mathcal{U}} \cdot \hat{\mathcal{E}} = \mathcal{O}$.

- For example, with planar symmetry (p = p(z)) we expect $\vec{E} = E(z)\hat{z}$. So for our \hat{u} . So we might use 'boxes' w/ bottom $C = z = z_1$, top $C = z = z_2$, and sides where $\hat{n} = \pm \hat{x} = \hat{y}$ so $\hat{n} \cdot \hat{z} = 0$.