

## HL Potential (gravitational and electric)

### DESCRIBING FIELDS: $g$ and $E$

The concept of field lines can be used to visually represent:

- the gravitational field,  $g$ , around a mass (or collection of masses)
- the electric field,  $E$ , around a charge (or collection of charges).

Magnetic fields can also be represented using field lines (see page 61). In all cases the field is the force per unit test point object placed at a particular point in the field with:

- gravitational field = force per unit test point mass (units:  $\text{N kg}^{-1}$ )
- electric field = force per unit test point positive charge (units:  $\text{N C}^{-1}$ )

Forces are vectors and field lines represent both the magnitude and the direction of the force that would be felt by a test object.

- The **magnitude** of the force is represented by how close the field lines are to one another (for an example of a more precise definition, see definition of magnetic flux on page 112).

- The **direction** of the force is represented by the direction of the field lines.

This means that, for both gravitational and electric fields, as a test object is moved:

- **along** a field line, work will be done (force and distance moved are in the same direction)
- **at right angles** to a field line, no work will be done (force and distance moved are perpendicular).

An alternative method of mapping the fields around an object is to consider the energy needed to move between points in the field. This defines the new concepts of electric potential and gravitational potential (see below).

### POTENTIAL, $V$ (GRAVITATIONAL OR ELECTRIC)

The *field* (gravitational or electric) is defined as the force per unit test point object placed at a particular point in the field. In an analogous definition, the *potential* (gravitational,  $V_g$ , or electric,  $V_e$ ) is defined as the energy per unit test point object that the object has as a result of the field. The full mathematical relationships are shown on page 110.

$$\text{Gravitational potential, } V_g = \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{mass}}$$

$$\text{Units of } V_g = \text{J kg}^{-1}$$

$$\text{Electric potential, } V_e = \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{charge}}$$

$$\text{Units of } V_e = \text{J C}^{-1} \text{ (or volts)}$$

### POTENTIAL DIFFERENCE $\Delta V$ (ELECTRIC AND GRAVITATIONAL)

Potential is the energy per unit test object. In general, moving a mass between two points, A and B, in a gravitational field (or moving a charge between two points, A and B, in an electric field) means that work is done. When work is done, the potential at A and the potential at B will be different. Between the points A and B, there will be a potential difference,  $\Delta V$ .

- If positive work is done *on* a test object as it moves between two points then the potential between the two points must increase.
- If work is done *by* the test object as it moves between the two points then the potential between the two points must decrease.

Gravitational potential difference between two points,

$$\Delta V_g = \frac{\text{work done moving a test mass}}{\text{test mass}}$$

$$\text{Units of } \Delta V_g = \text{J kg}^{-1}$$

Electric potential difference between two points,

$$\Delta V_e = \frac{\text{work done moving a test charge}}{\text{test charge}}$$

$$\text{Units of } \Delta V_e = \text{J C}^{-1} \text{ or V (volts)}$$

Thus to calculate the work done,  $W$ , in moving a charge  $q$  or a mass  $m$  between two points in a field we have:

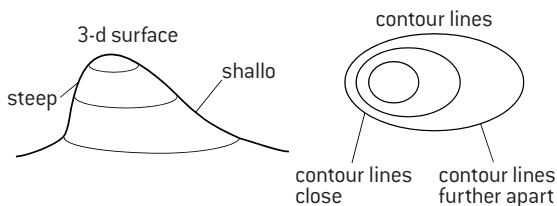
$$W = q\Delta V_e$$

$$W = m\Delta V_g$$

# HL Equipotentials

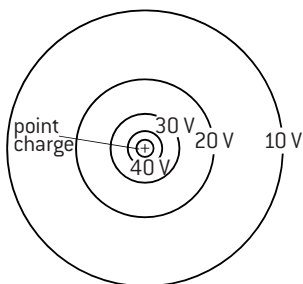
## EQUIPOTENTIAL SURFACES

The best way of representing how the electric potential varies around a charged object is to identify the regions where the potential is the same. These are called **equipotential surfaces**. In two dimensions they would be represented as lines of equipotential. A good way of visualizing these lines is to start with the contour lines on a map.



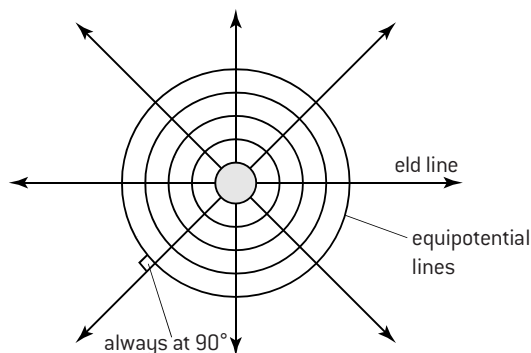
The contour diagram on the right represents the changing heights of the landscape on the left. Each line joins up points that are at the same height. Points that are high up represent a high value of gravitational potential and points that are low down represent a low gravitational potential. Contour lines are lines of equipotential in a gravitational field.

The same can be done with an electric field. Lines are drawn joining up points that have the same electric potential. The situation right shows the equipotentials for an isolated positive point charge.



## RELATIONSHIP TO FIELD LINES

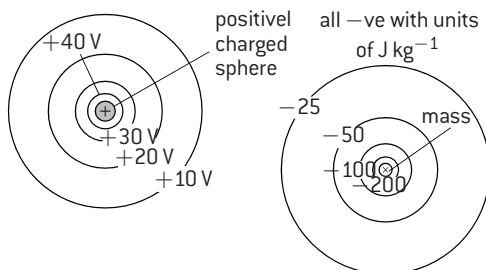
There is a simple relationship between electric field lines and lines of equipotential – they are always at right angles to one another. Imagine the contour lines. If we move along a contour line, we stay at the same height in the gravitational field. This does not require work because we are moving at right angles to the gravitational force. Whenever we move along an electric equipotential line, we are moving between points that have the same electric potential – in other words, no work is being done. Moving at right angles to the electric field is the only way to avoid doing work in an electric field. Thus equipotential lines must be at right angles to field lines as shown below.



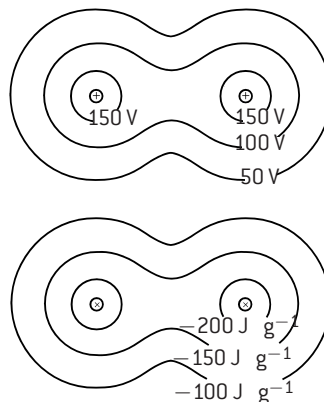
Field lines and equipotentials are at right angles

## EXAMPLES OF EQUIPOTENTIALS

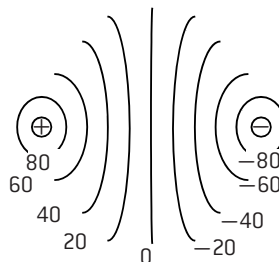
The diagrams below show equipotential lines for various situations.



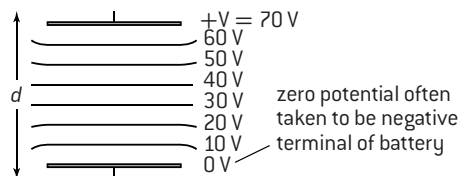
Equipotentials outside a charge-conducting sphere and a point mass.



Equipotentials for two point charges (same charge) and two point masses.



Equipotentials for two point charges (equal and opposite charges).



Equipotential lines between charged parallel plates.

It should be noted that although the correct definition of zero potential is at infinity, most of the time we are not really interested in the actual value of potential, we are only interested in the value of the difference in potential. This means that in some situations (such as the parallel conducting plates) it is easier to imagine the zero at a different point. This is just like setting sea level as the zero for gravitational contour lines rather than correctly using infinity for the zero.

# HL Gravitational potential energy and potential

## GRAVITATIONAL POTENTIAL ENERGY

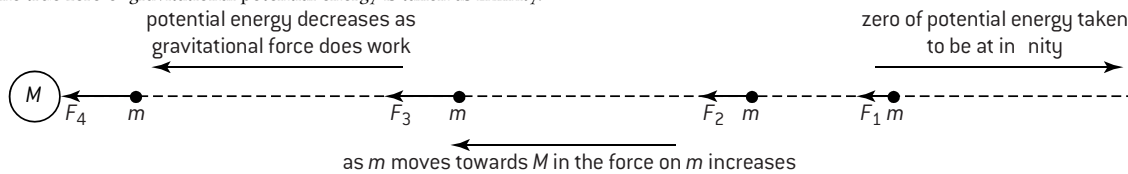
It is easy to work out the difference in gravitational energy when a mass moves between two different heights near the Earth's surface.

$$\text{The difference in energies} = mg(h_2 - h_1)$$

There are two important points to note:

- this derivation has assumed that the gravitational field strength  $g$  is constant. However, Newton's theory of universal gravitation states that the field **MUST CHANGE** with distance. **This equation can only be used if the vertical distance we move is not very large.**
- the equation assumes that the gravitational potential energy gives zero PE at the surface of the Earth. This works for everyday situations but it is not fundamental.

The true zero of gravitational potential energy is taken as infinity.



If the potential energy of the mass,  $m$ , was zero at infinity, and it lost potential energy moving in towards mass  $M$ , the potential energy must be **negative** at a given point,  $P$ .

The value of gravitational potential energy of a mass at any point in space is defined as the work done in moving it from infinity to that point. The mathematics needed to work this out is not trivial since the force changes with distance.

It turns out that

$$\text{Gravitational potential energy of mass } m = -\frac{GMm}{r}$$

(due to  $M$ )

This is a scalar quantity (measured in joules) and is independent of the path taken from infinity.

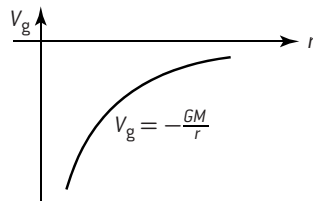
## GRAVITATIONAL POTENTIAL

We can define the **gravitational potential**  $V_g$  that measures the energy per unit test mass.

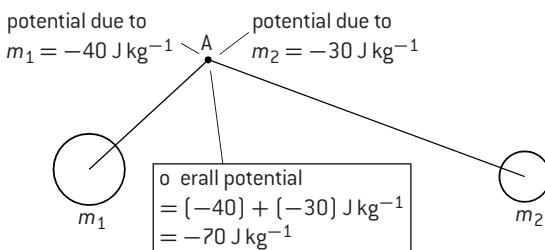
$$V_g = \frac{W}{m} \quad \left( \frac{\text{work done}}{\text{test mass}} \right)$$

The SI units of gravitational potential are  $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ . It is a scalar quantity.

Using Newton's law of universal gravitation, we can work out the gravitational potential at a distance  $r$  from a point mass.



This formula and the graph also works for spherical masses (planets etc.). The gravitational potential as a result of lots of masses is just the addition of the individual potentials. This is an easy sum since potential is a scalar quantity.



Once you have the potential at one point and the potential at another, the difference between them is the energy you need to move a unit mass between the two points. It is independent of the path taken.

## ESCAPE SPEED

The escape speed of a rocket is the speed needed to be able to escape the gravitational attraction of the planet. This means getting to an infinite distance away.

We know that gravitational

$$\text{potential at the surface of a planet} = -\frac{GM}{R_p}$$

(where  $R_p$  is the radius of the planet)

This means that for a rocket of

mass  $m$ , the difference between

$$\text{its energy at the surface and at infinity} = \frac{GMm}{R_p}$$

There are the minimum kinetic energy needed  $= \frac{GMm}{R_p}$

In other words,

$$\frac{1}{2} m (v_{\text{esc}})^2 = \frac{GMm}{R_p}$$

so

$$v_{\text{esc}} = \sqrt{\left( \frac{2GM}{R_p} \right)}$$

This derivation assumes the planet is isolated.

## EXAMPLE

The escape speed from an isolated planet like Earth (radius of Earth  $R_E = 6.37 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$ ) is calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{\text{esc}} &= \sqrt{\left( \frac{2 \times 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \times 5.98 \times 10^{24}}{6.37 \times 10^6 \text{ m}} \right)} \\ &= \sqrt{(1.25 \times 10^8) \text{ m s}^{-1}} \\ &= 1.12 \times 10^4 \text{ m s}^{-1} \\ &\approx 11 \text{ km s}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

The vast majority of rockets sent into space are destined to orbit the Earth so they leave with a speed that is less than the escape speed.

# HL Orbital motion

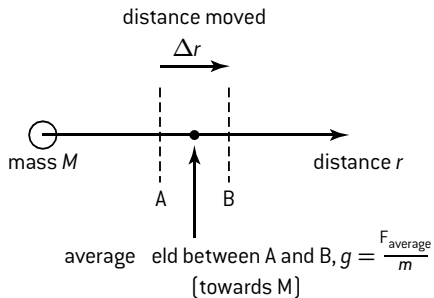
## GRAVITATIONAL POTENTIAL GRADIENT

In the diagram below, a point test mass  $m$  moves in a gravitational field from point A to point B.

The difference in gravitational potential,  $\Delta V_g$   

$$= \frac{\text{average force} \times \text{distance moved}}{m} = -g \times \Delta r$$

The negative sign is because  $g$  is directed towards  $M$ , but the force doing the work is directed away from  $M$  and thus in the opposite direction from  $g$ . Since the gravitational force is attractive, work has to be done in going from A to B, so the potential at A < potential at B.



$$\Delta V_g = -g \times \Delta r$$

$$g = -\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta r}$$

$\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta r}$  is called the potential gradient. It has units of  $\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$  (which are the same as  $\text{N kg}^{-1}$  or  $\text{m s}^{-2}$ ).

The gravitational field strength is equal to minus the potential gradient. The equivalent relationship also applies for electric fields (see page 109).

## ENERGY OF AN ORBITING SATELLITE

We already know that the gravitational energy =  $-\frac{GMm}{r}$

The kinetic energy =  $\frac{1}{2} m v^2$  but  $v = \sqrt{\left(\frac{GM}{r}\right)}$  (Circular motion)

$$\text{kinetic energy} = \frac{1}{2} m \frac{GM}{r} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{GMm}{r}$$

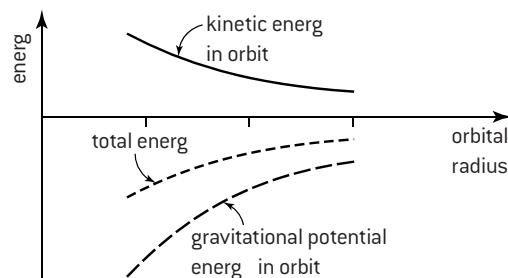
So total energy = KE + PE

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{GMm}{r} - \frac{GMm}{r} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{GMm}{r}$$

Note that:

- In the orbit the magnitude of the KE =  $\frac{1}{2}$  magnitude of the PE.
- The overall energy of the satellite is negative. (A satellite must have a total energy less than zero otherwise it would have enough energy to escape the Earth's gravitational field.)
- In order to move from a small radius orbit to a large radius orbit, the total energy must increase. To be precise, an increase in orbital radius makes the total energy go from a large negative number to a smaller negative number – this is an increase.

This can be summarized in graphical form.



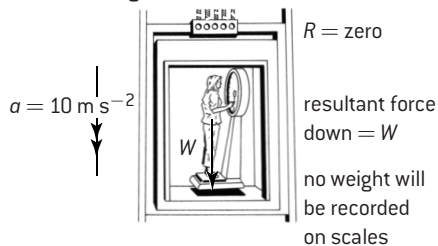
## WEIGHTLESSNESS

One way of defining the weight of a person is to say that it is the value of the force recorded on a supporting scale.

If the scales were set up in a lift, they would record different values depending on the **acceleration** of the lift.

An extreme version of these situations occurs if the lift cable breaks and the lift (and passenger) accelerates down at  $10 \text{ m s}^{-2}$ .

**accelerating down at  $10 \text{ m s}^{-2}$**

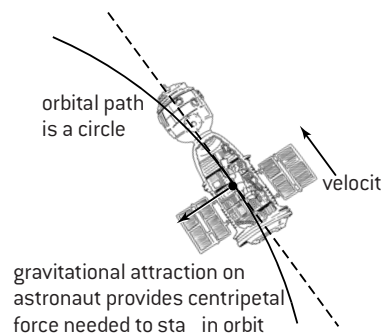


The person would appear to be weightless for the duration of the fall. Given the possible ambiguity of the term 'weight', it is better to call this situation the **apparent weightlessness** of objects in free-fall together.

An astronaut in an orbiting space station would also appear weightless. The space station and the astronaut are in free-fall together.

In the space station, the gravitational pull on the astronaut provides the centripetal force needed

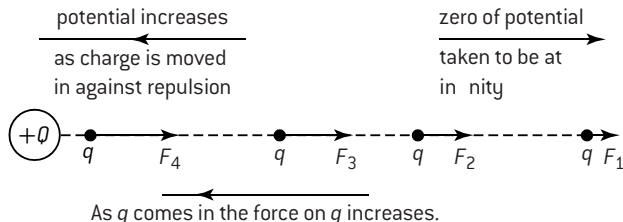
to stay in the orbit. This resultant force causes the centripetal acceleration. The same is true of the gravitational pull on the satellite and the satellite's acceleration. There is no contact force between the satellite and the astronaut so, once again, we have apparent weightlessness.



# HL Electric potential energy and potential

## POTENTIAL AND POTENTIAL DIFFERENCE

The concept of electrical potential difference between two points was introduced on page 105. As the name implies, potential difference is just the difference between the potential at one point and the potential at another. Potential is simply a measure of the total electrical energy per unit charge at a given point in space. The definition is very similar to that of gravitational potential.



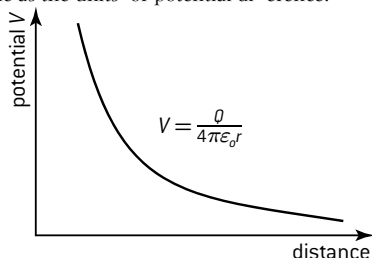
If the total work done in bringing a positive test charge  $q$  from infinity to a point in an electric field is  $W$ , then the electric potential at that point,  $V$ , is defined to be

$$V = \frac{W}{q}$$

The units of potential are the same as the units of potential difference:  $\text{J C}^{-1}$  or volts.

$$V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

This equation only applies to a single point charge.

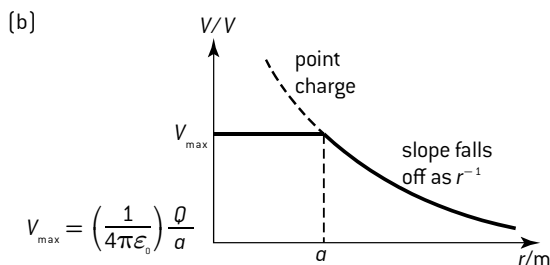
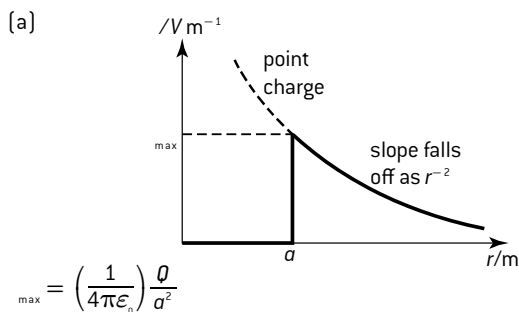


## POTENTIAL INSIDE A CHARGED SPHERE

Charge will distribute itself uniformly on the outside of a conducting sphere.

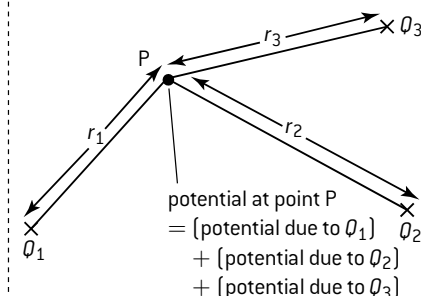
- **Outside the sphere**, the field lines and equipotential surfaces are the same as if all the charge was concentrated at a point at the centre of the sphere.
- **Inside the sphere**, there is no net contribution from the charges outside the sphere and the electric field is zero. The potential gradient is thus also zero meaning that every point inside the sphere is at the same potential – the potential at the sphere's surface.

The graphs below show how field and potential vary for a sphere of radius  $a$ .



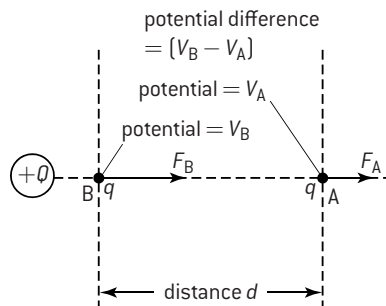
## POTENTIAL DUE TO MORE THAN ONE CHARGE

If several charges all contribute to the total potential at a point, it can be calculated by adding up the individual potentials due to the individual charges.

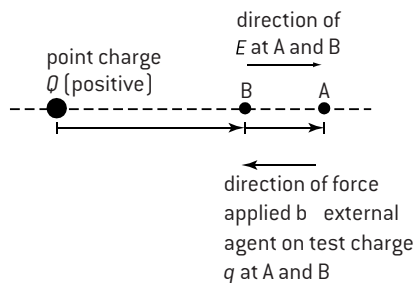


The electric potential at any point outside a charged conducting sphere is exactly the same as if all the charge had been concentrated at its centre.

## POTENTIAL AND FIELD STRENGTH



Bringing a positive charge from A to B means work needs to be done against the electrostatic force.



The work done  $\delta W = -Eq\delta$  [the negative sign is because the direction of the force is opposite to the direction of  $E$ ]

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } E &= -\frac{1}{q} \frac{\delta W}{\delta} \\ &= -\frac{\delta V}{\delta} \quad \left[ \text{since } \delta V = \frac{\delta W}{q} \right] \end{aligned}$$

In words,

electric field = - potential gradient

Units =  $\frac{\text{volt}}{\text{metre}}$  ( $\text{V m}^{-1}$ ),  $\text{N C}^{-1}$

# HL Electric and gravitational fields compared

## COMPARISON BETWEEN ELECTRIC & GRAVITATIONAL FIELD

### Electrostatics

Force can be attractive or repulsive

Coulomb's law – or point charges

$$F_E = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

Electric field

electric field

$$E = \frac{F}{q_2} = \frac{q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = k \frac{q_1}{r^2}$$

charge producing field

test charge

### Gravitational

Force always attractive

Newton's law – or point masses

$$F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$$

Gravitational field

gravitational field

$$g = \frac{F}{m_2} = \frac{Gm_1}{r^2}$$

mass producing field

test mass

Electric potential due to a point charge

$$V_e = \frac{q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} = k \frac{q_1}{r}$$

Gravitational potential due to a point mass,  $m_1$

$$V_g = -\frac{Gm_1}{r}$$

Electric potential gradient

$$E = -\frac{V_e}{r}$$

Gravitational potential gradient

$$g = -\frac{V_g}{r}$$

Electric potential energy

$$E_p = qV_e = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r}$$

Gravitational potential energy

$$E_p = mV_g = -\frac{GMm}{r}$$

## UNIFORM FIELDS

Field strength is equal to minus the potential gradient.

A constant field thus means:

- A constant potential gradient i.e. a given increase in distance will equate to a fixed change in potential.
- In 3D this means that equipotential surfaces will be flat planes that are equally spaced apart. In 2D equipotential lines will be equally spaced.
- Field lines (perpendicular to equipotential surfaces) will be equally spaced parallel lines.

### 1. Constant gravitational field

The gravitational field near the surface of a planet is effectively constant. At the surface of the Earth, the field lines will be perpendicular to the Earth's surface. Since  $g = 9.81 \text{ m s}^{-2}$ , the potential gradient must also be  $9.81 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ . Equipotential surfaces that are 1,000 m apart represent changes of potential approximately equal to  $10 \text{ kJ kg}^{-1}$ .

PE using  $PE = mgh$

zero at surface

PE from 1st principles

zero at infinity

30 000 J ..... height = 3 km .....  $-6.2575 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$

20 000 J ..... height = 2 km .....  $-6.2584 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$

10 000 J ..... height = 1 km .....  $-6.2593 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$

PE difference,  $\Delta PE = 10\,000 \text{ J}$

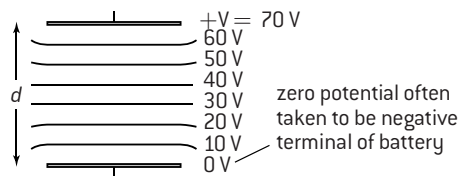
0 J ..... surface of Earth .....  $-6.2603 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$

### 2. Constant electrical field

The electric field in between charged parallel plates (e.g. a capacitor – see page 52) is effectively constant in the middle section.

In the diagram below, the potential difference across the plates is  $V$  and the separation of the plates is  $d$ . Thus the electric potential gradient is  $\frac{V}{d}$  and the constant field in the centre of the plates,  $E = \frac{V}{d}$ . The units  $\text{V m}^{-1}$  and  $\text{N C}^{-1}$  are equivalent and can both be used for  $E$ .

Strictly, the electric field between two charged parallel plates cannot remain uniform throughout the plates and there will be an edge effect. It is straightforward to show that at the edge, the field must have dropped to half the value in the centre, but modelling the field as constant everywhere between the parallel plates with the edge effects occurring beyond the limits of the plates can be acceptable.



Equipotential lines between charged parallel plates.

