



## Chapter Two

# ELECTROSTATIC POTENTIAL AND CAPACITANCE



### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapters 6 and 8 (Class XI), the notion of potential energy was introduced. When an external force does work in taking a body from a point to another against a force like spring force or gravitational force, that work gets stored as potential energy of the body. When the external force is removed, the body moves, gaining kinetic energy and losing an equal amount of potential energy. The sum of kinetic and potential energies is thus conserved. Forces of this kind are called conservative forces. Spring force and gravitational force are examples of conservative forces.

Coulomb force between two (stationary) charges, like the gravitational force, is also a conservative force. This is not surprising, since both have inverse-square dependence on distance and differ mainly in the proportionality constants – the masses in the gravitational law are replaced by charges in Coulomb's law. Thus, like the potential energy of a mass in a gravitational field, we can define electrostatic potential energy of a charge in an electrostatic field.

Consider an electrostatic field  $\mathbf{E}$  due to some charge configuration. First, for simplicity, consider the field  $\mathbf{E}$  due to a charge  $Q$  placed at the origin. Now, imagine that we bring a test charge  $q$  from a point R to a point P against the repulsive force on it due to the charge  $Q$ . With reference



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- (ii) Equation (2.2) defines *potential energy difference* in terms of the physically meaningful quantity *work*. Clearly, potential energy so defined is undetermined to within an additive constant. What this means is that the actual value of potential energy is not physically significant; it is only the difference of potential energy that is significant. We can always add an arbitrary constant  $\alpha$  to potential energy at every point, since this will not change the potential energy difference:

$$(U_P + \alpha) - (U_R + \alpha) = U_P - U_R$$

Put it differently, there is a freedom in choosing the point where potential energy is zero. A convenient choice is to have electrostatic potential energy zero at infinity. With this choice, if we take the point R at infinity, we get from Eq. (2.2)

$$W_{\infty P} = U_P - U_{\infty} = U_P \quad (2.3)$$

Since the point P is arbitrary, Eq. (2.3) provides us with a definition of potential energy of a charge  $q$  at any point. *Potential energy of charge  $q$  at a point* (in the presence of field due to any charge configuration) *is the work done by the external force* (equal and opposite to the electric force) *in bringing the charge  $q$  from infinity to that point.*

### 2.2 ELECTROSTATIC POTENTIAL

Consider any general static charge configuration. We define potential energy of a test charge  $q$  in terms of the work done on the charge  $q$ . This work is obviously proportional to  $q$ , since the force at any point is  $q\mathbf{E}$ , where  $\mathbf{E}$  is the electric field at that point due to the given charge configuration. It is, therefore, convenient to divide the work by the amount of charge  $q$ , so that the resulting quantity is independent of  $q$ . In other words, work done per unit test charge is characteristic of the electric field associated with the charge configuration. This leads to the idea of electrostatic potential  $V$  due to a given charge configuration. From Eq. (2.1), we get:

Work done by external force in bringing a unit positive charge from point R to P

$$= V_P - V_R \quad \left( = \frac{U_P - U_R}{q} \right) \quad (2.4)$$

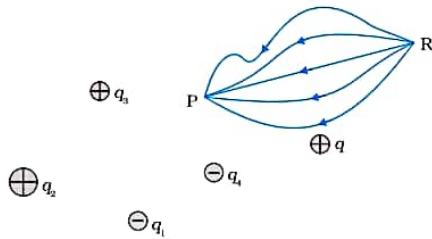
where  $V_P$  and  $V_R$  are the electrostatic potentials at P and R, respectively. Note, as before, that it is not the actual value of potential but the potential difference that is physically significant. If, as before, we choose the potential to be zero at infinity, Eq. (2.4) implies:

Work done by an external force in bringing a unit positive charge from infinity to a point = electrostatic potential ( $V$ ) at that point.



**Count Alessandro Volta (1745 - 1827)** Italian physicist, professor at Pavia. Volta established that the *animal electricity* observed by Luigi Galvani, 1737-1798, in experiments with frog muscle tissue placed in contact with dissimilar metals, was not due to any exceptional property of animal tissues but was also generated whenever any wet body was sandwiched between dissimilar metals. This led him to develop the first *voltaic pile*, or battery, consisting of a large stack of moist disks of cardboard (electrolyte) sandwiched between disks of metal (electrodes).

COUNT ALESSANDRO VOLTA (1745 - 1827)



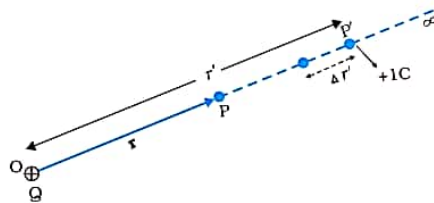
**FIGURE 2.2** Work done on a test charge  $q$  by the electrostatic field due to any given charge configuration is independent of the path, and depends only on its initial and final positions.

In other words, the electrostatic potential ( $V$ ) at any point in a region with electrostatic field is the work done in bringing a unit positive charge (without acceleration) from infinity to that point.

The qualifying remarks made earlier regarding potential energy also apply to the definition of potential. To obtain the work done per unit test charge, we should take an infinitesimal test charge  $\delta q$ , obtain the work done  $\delta W$  in bringing it from infinity to the point and determine the ratio  $\delta W/\delta q$ . Also, the external force at every point of the path is to be equal and opposite to the electrostatic force on the test charge at that point.

### 2.3 POTENTIAL DUE TO A POINT CHARGE

Consider a point charge  $Q$  at the origin (Fig. 2.3). For definiteness, take  $Q$  to be positive. We wish to determine the potential at any point  $P$  with position vector  $\mathbf{r}$  from the origin. For that we must calculate the work done in bringing a unit positive test charge from infinity to the point  $P$ . For  $Q > 0$ ,



**FIGURE 2.3** Work done in bringing a unit positive test charge from infinity to the point  $P$ , against the repulsive force of charge  $Q$  ( $Q > 0$ ), is the potential at  $P$  due to the charge  $Q$ .

the work done against the repulsive force on the test charge is positive. Since work done is independent of the path, we choose a convenient path – along the radial direction from infinity to the point  $P$ .

At some intermediate point  $P'$  on the path, the electrostatic force on a unit positive charge is

$$\frac{Q \times 1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}' \quad (2.5)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{r}}'$  is the unit vector along  $OP'$ . Work done against this force from  $\mathbf{r}'$  to  $\mathbf{r}' + \Delta\mathbf{r}'$  is

$$\Delta W = -\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'^2} \Delta r' \quad (2.6)$$

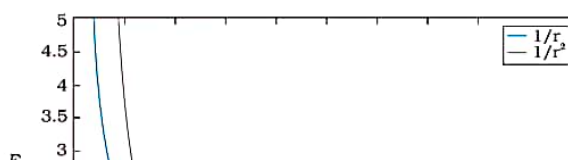
The negative sign appears because for  $\Delta r' < 0$ ,  $\Delta W$  is positive. Total work done ( $W$ ) by the external force is obtained by integrating Eq. (2.6) from  $r' = \infty$  to  $r' = r$ ,

$$W = -\int_{\infty}^r \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'^2} dr' = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'} \Big|_{\infty}^r = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad (2.7)$$

This, by definition is the potential at  $P$  due to the charge  $Q$

$$V(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad (2.8)$$

Equation (2.8) is true for any sign of the charge  $Q$ , though we considered  $Q > 0$  in its derivation. For  $Q < 0$ ,  $V < 0$ , i.e., work done (by the external force) per unit positive test charge in bringing it from



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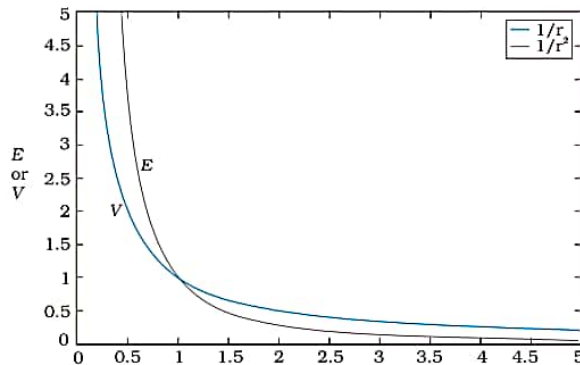
This, by definition is the potential at P due to the charge  $Q$

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$$V(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad (2.8)$$

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Equation (2.8) is true for any sign of the charge  $Q$ , though we considered  $Q > 0$  in its derivation. For  $Q < 0$ ,  $V < 0$ , i.e., work done (by the external force) per unit positive test charge in bringing it from infinity to the point is negative. This is equivalent to saying that work done by the electrostatic force in bringing the unit positive charge from infinity to the point P is positive. [This is as it should be, since for  $Q < 0$ , the force on a unit positive test charge is attractive, so that the electrostatic force and the displacement (from infinity to P) are in the same direction.] Finally, we note that Eq. (2.8) is consistent with the choice that potential at infinity be zero.



**FIGURE 2.4** Variation of potential  $V$  with  $r$  [in units of  $(Q/4\pi\epsilon_0) \text{ m}^{-1}$ ] (blue curve) and field with  $r$  [in units of  $(Q/4\pi\epsilon_0) \text{ m}^{-2}$ ] (black curve) for a point charge  $Q$ .

Figure (2.4) shows how the electrostatic potential ( $\propto 1/r$ ) and the electrostatic field ( $\propto 1/r^2$ ) varies with  $r$ .

### Example 2.1

- Calculate the potential at a point P due to a charge of  $4 \times 10^{-7} \text{ C}$  located 9 cm away.
- Hence obtain the work done in bringing a charge of  $2 \times 10^{-9} \text{ C}$  from infinity to the point P. Does the answer depend on the path along which the charge is brought?

### Solution

$$(a) \quad V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r} = 9 \times 10^9 \text{ Nm}^2 \text{ C}^{-2} \times \frac{4 \times 10^{-7} \text{ C}}{0.09 \text{ m}} = 4 \times 10^4 \text{ V}$$

$$(b) \quad W = qV = 2 \times 10^{-9} \text{ C} \times 4 \times 10^4 \text{ V} = 8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ J}$$

No, work done will be path independent. Any arbitrary infinitesimal path can be resolved into two perpendicular displacements: One along  $\mathbf{r}$  and another perpendicular to  $\mathbf{r}$ . The work done corresponding to the later will be zero.

EXAMPLE 2.1

## 2.4 POTENTIAL DUE TO AN ELECTRIC DIPOLE

As we learnt in the last chapter, an electric dipole consists of two charges  $q$  and  $-q$  separated by a (small) distance  $2a$ . Its total charge is zero. It is characterised by a dipole moment vector  $\mathbf{p}$  whose magnitude is  $q \times 2a$  and which points in the direction from  $-q$  to  $q$  (Fig. 2.5). We also saw that the electric field of a dipole at a point with position vector  $\mathbf{r}$  depends not just on the magnitude  $r$ , but also on the angle between  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{p}$ . Further,

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Using Eqs. (2.9) and (2.13) and  $p = 2qa$ , we get

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2a\cos\theta}{r^2} = \frac{p\cos\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \quad (2.14)$$

Now,  $p\cos\theta = \mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}$

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where  $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$  is the unit vector along the position vector  $\mathbf{OP}$ .

The electric potential of a dipole is then given by

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}}{r^2}; \quad (r \gg a) \quad (2.15)$$

Equation (2.15) is, as indicated, approximately true only for distances large compared to the size of the dipole, so that higher order terms in  $a/r$  are negligible. For a point dipole  $\mathbf{p}$  at the origin, Eq. (2.15) is, however, exact.

From Eq. (2.15), potential on the dipole axis ( $\theta = 0, \pi$ ) is given by

$$V = \pm \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{p}{r^2} \quad (2.16)$$

(Positive sign for  $\theta = 0$ , negative sign for  $\theta = \pi$ .) The potential in the equatorial plane ( $\theta = \pi/2$ ) is zero.

The important contrasting features of electric potential of a dipole from that due to a single charge are clear from Eqs. (2.8) and (2.15):

- The potential due to a dipole depends not just on  $r$  but also on the angle between the position vector  $\mathbf{r}$  and the dipole moment vector  $\mathbf{p}$ . (It is, however, axially symmetric about  $\mathbf{p}$ . That is, if you rotate the position vector  $\mathbf{r}$  about  $\mathbf{p}$ , keeping  $\theta$  fixed, the points corresponding to P on the cone so generated will have the same potential as at P.)
- The electric dipole potential falls off, at large distance, as  $1/r^2$ , not as  $1/r$ , characteristic of the potential due to a single charge. (You can refer to the Fig. 2.5 for graphs of  $1/r^2$  versus  $r$  and  $1/r$  versus  $r$ , drawn there in another context.)

### 2.5 POTENTIAL DUE TO A SYSTEM OF CHARGES

Consider a system of charges  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n$  with position vectors  $\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_n$  relative to some origin (Fig. 2.6). The potential  $V_1$  at P due to the charge  $q_1$  is

$$V_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1}{r_{1P}}$$

where  $r_{1P}$  is the distance between  $q_1$  and P.

Similarly, the potential  $V_2$  at P due to  $q_2$  and  $V_3$  due to  $q_3$  are given by

$$V_2 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_2}{r_{2P}}, \quad V_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_3}{r_{3P}}$$

where  $r_{2P}$  and  $r_{3P}$  are the distances of P from charges  $q_2$  and  $q_3$ , respectively; and so on for the potential due to other charges. By the superposition principle, the potential  $V$  at P due to the total charge configuration is the algebraic sum of the potentials due to the individual charges

$$V = V_1 + V_2 + \dots + V_n \quad (2.17)$$

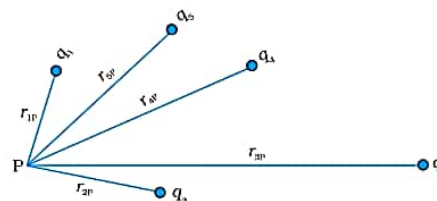


FIGURE 2.6 Potential at a point due to a system of charges is the sum of potentials due to individual charges.