

## Electrostatics

The Physics of stationary electric charges, i.e. charges at rest called electrostatics

- ❖ The charges are acquired by the bodies on rubbing with each other
- ❖ Like charges repel and unlike charges attract each other
- ❖ Electrons have negative charge.  $e = -1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  Coulomb
- ❖ Protons have positive charge.  $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  Coulomb

### Quantization of charge

All physical existing charge in the universe is in integral multiples of electronic charge.

Charge  $Q = ne$

charge exists in discrete packets rather than in continuous amounts. Hence the charge is quantized.

### Conservation of charge

The total electric charge in an isolated system never changes. or

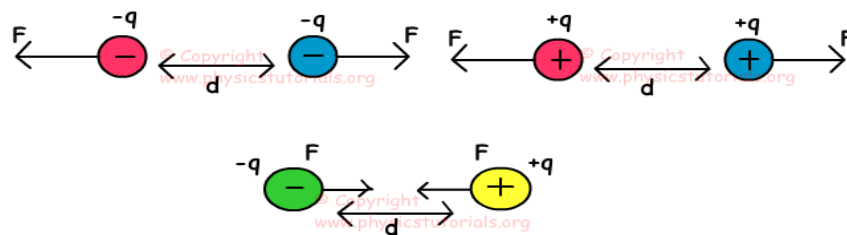
The algebraic sum of the electric charges remains constant in a closed system implies that charge can neither be created nor destroyed

### Electric field

The region surrounding an electric charge or a group of charges in which another charge experiences a force is called the Electric field

### Coulomb's inverse square law

The electrostatic force of attraction or repulsion between two charges is directly proportional to the product of their charges and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them .



$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 \times q_2}{r^2} \quad \text{Here } \epsilon_0 \text{ is called permittivity of free space or air}$$

When the charges are placed in a medium of dielectric constant  $k$ , then

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \frac{q_1 q_2}{d^2}$$

### Intensity of electric field (E)

The intensity of electric field at a point in the field is defined as the force experienced by a unit positive charge placed at that point.

Let 'F' be the force experienced by a test charge  $q_0$  placed at a point in the electric field.

The intensity of electric field  $E = \frac{F}{q_0}$  newton/coulomb

E is a vector quantity. Its direction will be the same as the direction of force.

### Intensity of electric field due to a point charge

Consider an isolated point charge  $+q$  coulomb is placed 'O' in air. A test charge  $q_0$  placed at 'P'.

According to Coulomb's law, the electric force acting on  $q_0$  is given

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q \times q_0}{r^2} \text{ N} \quad \text{----- (1)}$$



We know that the intensity of electric field at any point is given by

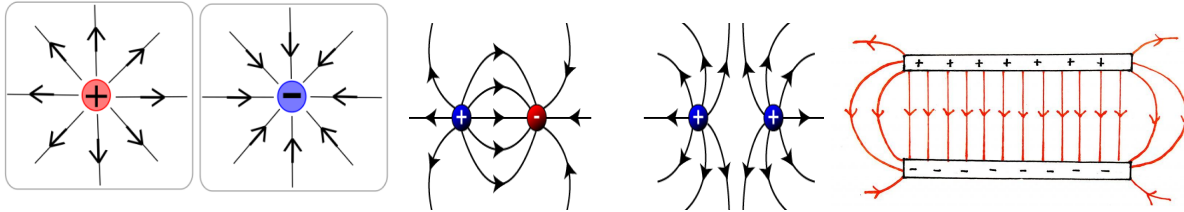
$$E = \frac{F}{q_0} \quad \text{----- (2)}$$

From equation (1) and (2)

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} N/C$$

### Electric field lines

An electric field line is that imaginary smooth drawn in an electric field along which a free isolated positive charge will move. The tangent at any point on this curve gives the direction of the electric field at that point. The intensity of electric field at any point can also be defined as the number of lines of force passing through unit area around that point normally

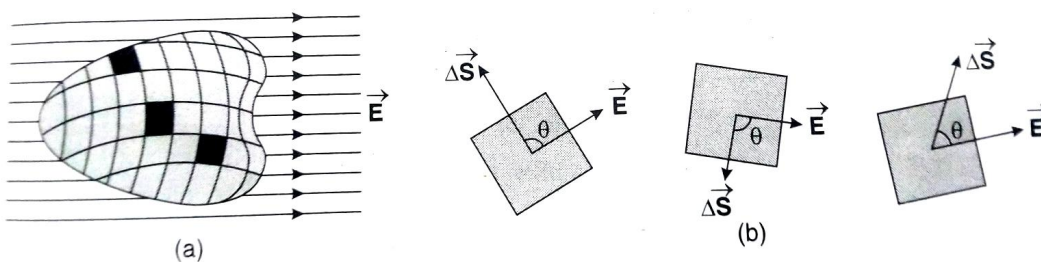


### Properties of Electric field lines:

1. The electric lines of force start from a positive charge and end on a negative charge.
2. The tangent drawn at any point on the line of force gives the direction of the electric field at that point.
3. No two lines of force intersect each other. The reason is that if they do so, then at the point of intersection two tangents can be drawn, i.e., two directions of force are possible at that point which is impossible.
4. The number of lines of force crossing the unit area in a normal direction is proportional to the electric intensity.
5. The lines of force have a tendency to contract in length. This explains the attraction between opposite charges.
6. The lines of force have a tendency to separate from each other in direction perpendicular to their lengths. This explains repulsion between like charges.
7. The lines of force are perpendicular to conducting surfaces at points close to them.
8. The electric lines of force are perpendicular to equipotential surfaces.

### Electric Flux ( $\Phi$ )

The electric flux through a surface placed inside an electric field represents the total number of electric lines of force crossing the surface in a direction normal to the surface.



**Fig. (3)** (a) Surface immersed in electric field  
(b) Enlarged view of the three squares on surface.

Let us consider an electric field. An arbitrary closed surface immersed in this field. Let the surface be divided into a number of elementary squares. Each square on the surface may be represented by a vector  $\Delta S$ , whose magnitude is equal to its area and the direction taken as the outward normal drawn on the surface.

Let  $E$  be the electric field vector acting on the surface.

The scalar product  $E \cdot \Delta S$  is defined as the electric flux for the surface.

The total flux  $\Phi_E = \oint E \cdot \Delta S = E \cdot S$

If  $\theta$  is the angle between  $E$  and  $\Delta S$

$$E \cdot \Delta S = E dS \cos \theta$$

$$\Phi_E = \oint E \cdot dS = \oint E dS \cos \theta = E \cos \theta \oint dS = EA \cos \theta$$

**Note:** For a closed surface  $\Phi_E$  is taken positive if the lines of force point outward everywhere and negative if they point inward.

### Gauss's Law

Gauss's law states that total normal electric flux  $\Phi_E$  over a closed surface is  $(\frac{1}{\epsilon_0})$  times the total charge 'Q' enclosed within the surface.

$$\Phi_E = \oint E \cdot dS = \oint E dS \cos \theta = (\frac{1}{\epsilon_0}) Q$$

Here  $\epsilon_0$  is the permittivity of the free space.

### Proof:

#### i) when the charges within the surface

Let a charge '+Q' be placed at 'O' within a closed surface. Now take a small area  $dS$  around P. The normal to the surface  $dS$  is represented by a vector  $dS$ , which makes an angle  $\theta$  with the direction of electric field  $E$  along OP.

The electric flux  $d\Phi_E$  outwards through the area  $dS$  is given by

$$d\Phi_E = E \cdot dS = E dS \cos \theta \text{ ----- (1)}$$

where  $\theta$  is an angle between  $E$  and  $dS$

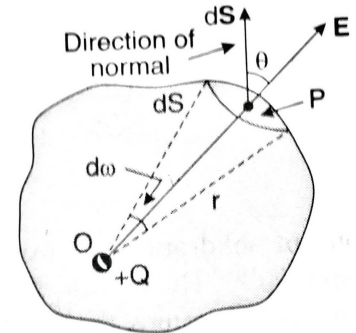
For Coulomb's law, the electric intensity  $E$  at a point P distance  $r$  from a

$$\text{point charge } Q \text{ is given by } E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2} \text{ ----- (2)}$$

From equations (1) and (2), we get

$$d\Phi_E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{dS \cos \theta}{r^2} \right) = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} d\omega,$$

$$\text{here solid angle } d\omega = \frac{dS \cos \theta}{r^2}$$



The total flux  $\Phi_E = \oint \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} d\omega = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \oint d\omega$  Where  $\oint d\omega$  is the solid angle subtended by the whole surface at

O. This is equal to  $4\pi$ .

$$\therefore \Phi_E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \times 4\pi = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

#### ii) When the charge is outside the surface

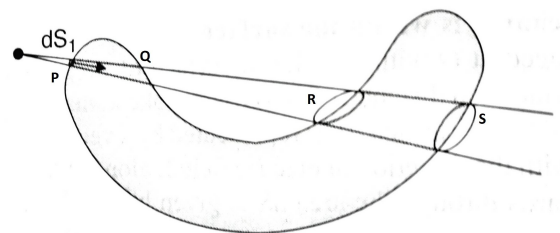
Let a point charge +Q be situated at point O, outside the closed surface. Now, a cone of solid angle  $d\omega$  from O cuts the surface areas  $dS_1, dS_2, dS_3$  and  $dS_4$  at points P, Q, R and S respectively.

$$\text{The electric flux at P through area } dS_1 = \left( \frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) d\omega$$

$$\text{The electric flux at Q through area } dS_2 = \left( \frac{+Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) d\omega$$

$$\text{The electric flux at R through area } dS_3 = \left( \frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) d\omega$$

$$\text{The electric flux at S through area } dS_4 = \left( \frac{+Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) d\omega$$



$$\text{The electric flux} = \left(\frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\right)d\omega + \left(\frac{+Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\right)d\omega + \left(\frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\right)d\omega + \left(\frac{+Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\right)d\omega = 0$$

The total electric flux over the whole surface due to an external charge is zero

### Differential form of Gauss's law

According to Gauss's law

$$\oint E \cdot dS = \left(\frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}\right) \quad \text{or} \quad \epsilon_0 \oint E \cdot dS = Q \quad (1)$$

Let a charge  $Q$  be distributed uniformly over a volume  $V$  and  $\rho$  be the density of charge,

$$\text{Then } Q = \iiint \rho dV \quad (2)$$

$$\text{From equations (1) and (2)} \quad \epsilon_0 \oint E \cdot dS = \iiint \rho dV \quad (3)$$

$$\text{According to divergence theorem } \oint E \cdot dS = \iiint \text{div } E dV \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Substituting equation (4) in (3)} \quad \epsilon_0 \iiint \text{div } E dV = \iiint \rho dV \quad (5)$$

Equation (5) is true for any arbitrary volume. Hence integrands must be equal.

$$\epsilon_0 \text{div } E = \rho \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{div } E = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\nabla \cdot E = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{This is the differential form of Gauss's law}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{In vacuum} \quad D &= \epsilon_0 E \quad \Rightarrow \quad E = \frac{D}{\epsilon_0} \\ \text{div } D &= \rho \quad \text{or} \quad \nabla \cdot D = \rho \end{aligned}$$

### Applications of Gauss's law

#### 1. Electric field due to an infinitely long charge distribution

Consider an infinitely long line charge having a linear density  $\lambda$ .

To calculate electric field at a point 'P' at a distance 'r' from the line charge.

As the charge distribution is linear, we construct a cylindrical Gaussian surface of radius 'r' and length 'l'.

All the points on the curved surface are at the same perpendicular distance from the line charge.

The direction of the field at any point on the curved surface is normal to the cylindrical surface.

At the ends of the cylinder  $E$  will be perpendicular to  $dS$ .

The net flux through the cylindrical Gaussian surface is

$$\Phi = \oint E \cdot dS = \underbrace{\oint_{\text{left end}} E \cdot dS} + \underbrace{\oint_{\text{right end}} E \cdot dS} + \underbrace{\oint_{\text{curved surface}} E \cdot dS}$$

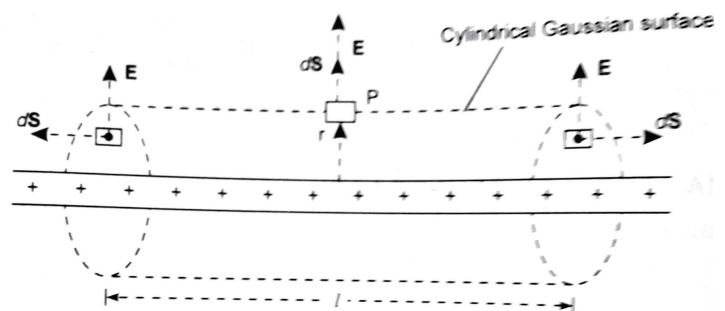
At both the ends of the Gaussian cylinder,  $E$  is perpendicular to the axial area vector  $dS$ .

Hence  $E \cdot dS = 0$

On the curved surface,  $E$  is in the direction of  $dS$ . So,  $E \cdot dS = E dS \cos\theta = E \cdot dS$

$$\Phi = 0 + 0 + \underbrace{\oint_{\text{curved surface}} E \cdot dS}_{\text{curved surface}} = E \cdot 2\pi r l \quad \text{here } \oint dS = 2\pi r l = \text{surface area of the cylinder.}$$

The charge enclosed by Gaussian surface is  $q = \lambda l$



According to the Gauss's law

$$\Phi = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E \cdot 2\pi r l = \frac{\lambda l}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

This gives the electric field due to an infinitely long charge distribution..

### Electric field due to infinite conducting sheet of charge

A charged conducting surface of charge density  $\sigma$ . To determine the electric field at a point near the surface and outside the conductor, construct a cylindrical Gaussian surface. The direction of the electric field near the surface is perpendicular to the surface as the conducting surface is an equipotential surface.

Electric flux through the cylindrical Gaussian surface results from the two ends and curved surface of the cylinder. At the right,  $E$  is parallel to  $dS$  and at the left end there is no electric field. Therefore, the flux through the two ends are  $E \cdot dS$  and zero respectively. The electric flux through the curved surface is zero as  $E$  and  $dS$  are perpendicular.

$$\Phi = \int_{\text{right end}} E \cdot dS + \int_{\text{left end}} E \cdot dS + \int_{\text{curved surface}} E \cdot dS$$

$$\Phi = ES + 0 + 0 = ES \Rightarrow ES = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

### Electric field due to an uniformly charged sphere

#### Case (i): At a point outside the charged sphere

Consider a sphere of radius  $R$  with centre  $O$ . Let a charge  $q$  be uniformly distributed over it. Suppose  $P$  be an external point at a distance  $r$  from the centre of the sphere. We shall find the electric field at this point. For this purpose we construct a Gaussian surface of radius  $OP$  which is concentric with sphere  $A$ .

The electric flux through the entire Gaussian surface is given by

$$\Phi_E = \int E \cdot dS = E \int dS = E(4\pi r^2)$$

According to Gauss's law  $E(4\pi r^2) = \left(\frac{q}{\epsilon_0}\right)$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \times \frac{q}{r^2} \text{ newton/coulomb}$$

#### Case (ii): At a point on the surface

when the point  $P$  lies on the surface of the sphere, then  $r = R$ .

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \times \frac{q}{R^2}$$

#### Case (iii). At a point inside the charged sphere.

To find the electric field at a point  $P$ , which is inside the charged sphere at a distance  $r$  from the centre.

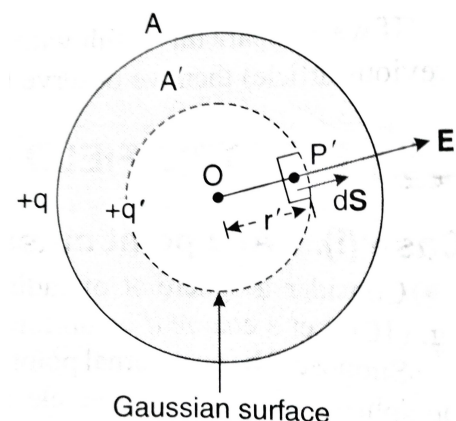
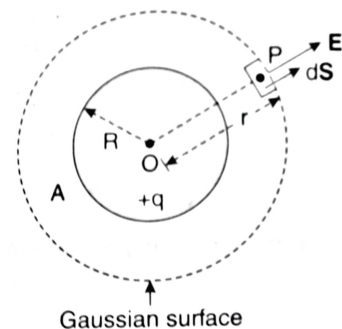
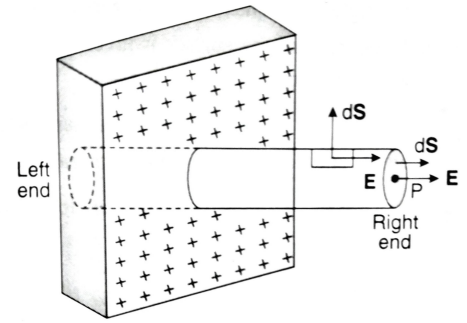
The electric flux through the entire surface is given by

$$\Phi_E = \int E \cdot dS = E \int dS = E(4\pi r^2)$$

The total charge enclosed by the Gaussian surface

$$q = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \times \rho$$

$$\rho = \frac{q}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3} \Rightarrow \frac{3q}{4\pi R^3}$$



Charge enclosed in Gaussian surface  $\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \times \frac{3q}{4\pi R^3} = q\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^3$

From Gauss's law  $E(4\pi r^2) = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \times q\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^3 \Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \times \frac{qr}{R^3}$

### Conservative nature of electric field

We know that the electric field  $E$  at a distance  $r$  due to a point charge  $+q$  placed at origin  $O$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \times \frac{q}{r^2}$$

Further, consider any two arbitrary points  $A$  and  $B$  in the electric field region of charge  $+q$ .

The potential difference between two points  $A$  and  $B$  is given by

$$\int_{r_A}^{r_B} E \cdot dr = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{r_A}^{r_B} \frac{q}{r^2} dr \Rightarrow \int_A^B E \cdot dr = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{q}{r_A} - \frac{q}{r_B} \right]$$

Where  $r_A$  and  $r_B$  are position vectors of points  $A$  and  $B$  respectively.

If  $A$  and  $B$  are same points, the  $r_A = r_B$

Then  $\oint_C E \cdot dr = 0$

Applying Stoke's theorem, we get

$$\oint_C E \cdot dr = \oint_S (\nabla \times E) \cdot ds = 0 \Rightarrow \nabla \times E = 0$$

### Irrotational field

The general meaning of curl is rotation. When the curl of a vector field is zero, it means that no rotation is attached with  $E$ . On the other hand, if  $\text{curl } E$  is non zero, it means that rotation is attached with vector  $E$ . Therefore,  $\text{curl } E = 0$ , then  $E$  is an irrotational field.

### Potential difference

The work done in moving unit positive charge from one point to another point in an electric field is called potential difference between the two points.

$$V_A - V_B = \frac{W}{q_0}$$

The ratio of work done in taking a test charge from one point to another point in an electric field to the magnitude of the test charge is defined as the electric potential difference between these points.

### Electric potential

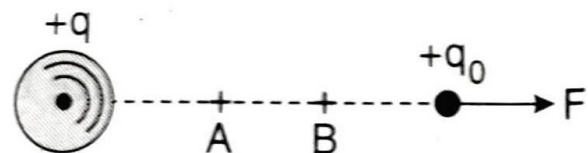
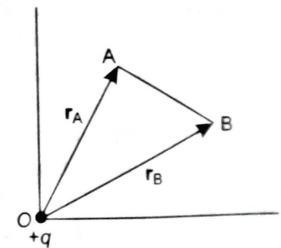
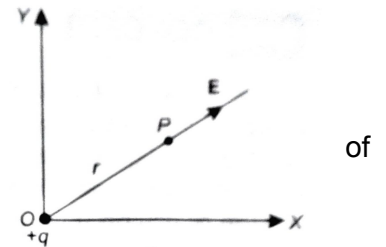
The work done in moving a unit positive charge from infinity to a point against the electric force of the field is called the electric potential at that point

$$V_A = \frac{W}{q_0}$$

Electric potential at a point in the electric field is defined as the work done by an external agent in carrying a unit positive test charge from infinity to that point against the electric force of the field

### Equipotential surfaces

Equipotential surfaces are those surfaces that have the same potential at all points



### Properties:

1. Electric field along the equipotential surface is zero.
2. The electric field is always normal to the surface
3. The work done in moving a charge on the equipotential surface is zero.
4. When the charge is infinite, the equipotential surface is plane.
5. The equipotential surfaces act as wave- fronts in optics.

### Potential as a function of electric field

Suppose a positive test charge  $q_0$  is moved by an external agent without acceleration between two points A and B in the electric field. The electric force on the charge  $q_0$  is  $q_0 E$ . The direction of this force is in the direction of electric field strength  $E$ , which points downwards. To move the charge in the upward direction by an external agent, an equal and opposite force  $-q_0 E$  must be applied. Let the charge  $q_0$  be moved through a small distance  $dl$  by the external agent.

The work done  $dw$  by the external agent is given by  $dw = F \cdot dl = -q_0 E \cdot dl$

Therefore, the total work done  $W_{AB}$  in carrying  $q_0$  from A to B will be

$$W_{AB} = \int_A^B -q_0 E \cdot dl = -q_0 \int_A^B E \cdot dl$$

$$V_B - V_A = \frac{W_{AB}}{q_0}$$

Potential difference between two points A and B will be

$$V_B - V_A = - \int_A^B E \cdot dl$$

If the reference point A is taken at infinity, the  $V_A = 0$

$$V_B - V_A = - \int_{\infty}^B E \cdot dl$$

The electric potential at a point in the electric field can be expressed as a line integral of the electric field.

### Relation between electric potential (V) and electric field (E) or Field as the gradient of potential

Consider two surfaces of potential  $V$  and  $V + dV$  in an electric field. Let positive test charge  $q_0$  at a point A on the surface  $V$  be moved to the point B on the surface  $V + dV$  along the vector displacement  $dl$  by any external agent. The force experienced by the test charge  $q_0$  at A due to the electric field will be  $q_0 E$ . This force is in the direction of  $E$ , which is at right angles to the surface  $V$ . In order to move the test charge  $q_0$  without acceleration, the external agent must apply an equal and opposite force  $F$ .

$$F = -q_0 E$$

The work done by the external agent to move the test charge from A to B along  $dl$  is given by

$$dw = F \cdot dl \Rightarrow dw = -q_0 E \cdot dl \Rightarrow \frac{dw}{q_0} = -E \cdot dl$$

$$\text{We know that } \frac{dw}{q_0} = dV$$

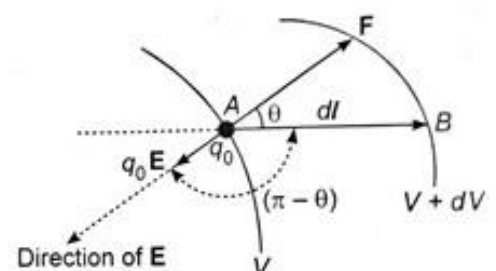
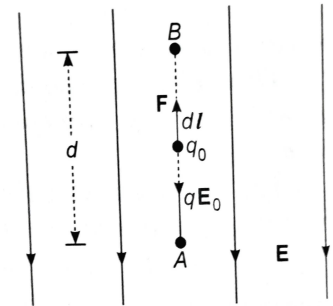
$$dV = -E \cdot dl \text{ ----- (1)}$$

Let the coordinates of A and B be  $(x,y,z)$  and  $(x+dx, y+dy, z+dz)$  respectively. The potential difference  $dV$  between A and B can be expressed as

$$dV = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} dz$$

$$= \left[ i \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \right] \cdot (dx i + dy j + dz k)$$

$$( \text{grad } V ) \cdot dl = \nabla V \cdot dl \text{ ----- (2)}$$





$$\left[ i \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \right] = \text{grad } V \text{ and } dx i + dy j + dz k \text{ is the displacement vector } dl \text{ between A and B.}$$

Comparing equations (1) and (2), we get

$$qE = -\text{grad } V = -\nabla V \text{ -----(3)}$$

If  $E_x$ ,  $E_y$  and  $E_z$  be the components of  $E$ , then equation (3) can be written as

$$E_x i + E_y j + E_z k = - \left[ \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} i + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} j + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} k \right]$$

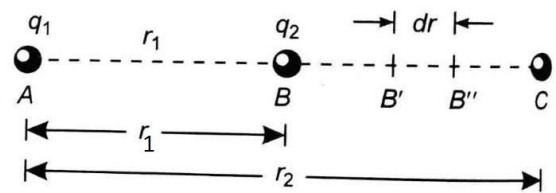
$$E_x = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}, E_y = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial y}, E_z = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial z}$$

The electric intensity at a point in the electric field is equal to the negative potential gradient in that direction.

### Potential energy of system of charges

Consider a system of two charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  separated by distance  $r_1$ . The charge  $q_1$  is fixed at point A. Let the charge  $q_2$  be taken from position B to position C along the line ABC.

Let  $AC = r_2$ . Consider a small displacement of charge  $q_2$  from a distance  $r$  to  $(r + dr)$  between B and C (i.e., from position B' to B'').



The electric force on charge  $q_2$  at position B' is

$$F = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \text{ towards AB} \text{ ..... (1)}$$

The work done by this force for a small displacement  $dr$  is

$$dW = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 r^2} dr \text{ ..... (2)}$$

The total work done when charge  $q_2$  is moved from B to C is

$$W = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{q_1 q_2}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 r^2} dr = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4 \pi \epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right] \text{ ..... (3)}$$

The change in potential energy is

$$U(r_2) - U(r_1) = -W = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4 \pi \epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{r_2} - \frac{1}{r_1} \right] \text{ ..... (4)}$$

The potential energy of two charge systems is taken as zero when they have infinite separation. Thus

$$U(r) = U(r_2) - U(\infty)$$

$$U(r) = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4 \pi \epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{r_2} - \frac{1}{\infty} \right]$$

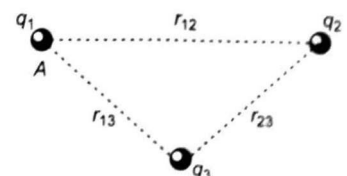
$$U(r) = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 r}. \text{ ..... (5)}$$

Or

Eq(5) give the potential energy of a system composed of two charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ .

For a system of three charges the potential energy is given by

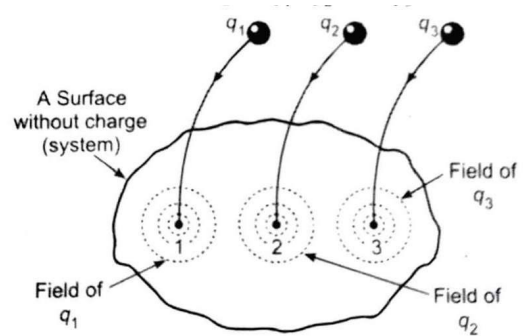
$$U = \frac{1}{4 \pi \epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} + \frac{q_2 q_3}{r_{23}} + \frac{q_1 q_3}{r_{13}} \right] \text{ ..... (6)}$$





## ENERGY DENSITY IN ELECTROSTATIC FIELD

Let a test charge be moved from a point of lower potential to a point of higher potential in an electric field. In this process, the external agent that moves the point charge has to do some work on it. As a result, the potential energy of the system is increased, i.e., the system has a positive energy. On the other hand, if the test charge is moved from higher potential to lower potential in an electric field, then the electric field does work on the test charge. Therefore, the potential energy of the system is decreased, i.e., there is a loss of potential energy. This energy is supplied to the test charge.



Now, we shall calculate the potential energy of a system consisting of a number (say  $n$ ) of charges. First of all we shall find the potential energy of the system due to three charges,  $q_1$ ,  $q_2$  and  $q_3$  and then generalize it for  $n$  charges. For this purpose, we have to calculate the work done by external sources in positioning these charges on a surface as shown in fig. The surface is assumed to be without charge. In bringing the charge  $q_1$  from infinity to position 1, no work is done because the field does not exist on the system. so,  $W_1 = 0$

Now consider that charge  $q_2$  is taken from infinity to position 2. The movement of this charge will take place in the field of charge  $q_1$ . This requires a certain amount of work. The work done is given by

$$W_2 = \text{charge} \times \text{potential} = q_2 V_{21} \text{ where } V_{21} \text{ is the potential at the location of } q_2 \text{ due to } q_1.$$

Similarly, in bringing the charge  $q_3$  from infinity to position 3, the movement will be in the field of charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ . The work done is given by  $W_3 = q_3 V_{31} + q_3 V_{32}$ , where  $V_{31}$  and  $V_{32}$  are the potentials at position 3 due to the charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  respectively.

*total work done = Potential energy of the field*

$$W_E = 0 + (q_2 V_{21}) + (q_3 V_{31} + q_3 V_{32}) \quad \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

Consider that the three charges are brought in the reverse order, i.e., charge  $q_3$  is taken first and then charge  $q_2$  and finally charge  $q_1$ . The total work done in this situation is given by

$$W_E = 0 + (q_2 V_{23}) + (q_1 V_{12} + q_1 V_{13}) \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

Adding eq(1) and eq(2), we get

$$\begin{aligned} 2W_E &= (q_1 V_{12} + q_1 V_{13}) + (q_2 V_{21} + q_2 V_{23}) + (q_3 V_{31} + q_3 V_{32}) \\ \text{or} \quad 2W_E &= q_1(V_{12} + V_{13}) + q_2(V_{21} + V_{23}) + q_3(V_{31} + V_{32}) \\ \text{or} \quad 2W_E &= q_1 V_1 + q_2 V_2 + q_3 V_3 \quad \dots\dots\dots (3) \end{aligned}$$

Where  $V_1 = V_{12} + V_{13} = \text{total potential of charge } q_1$ ,

$$\therefore W_E = \frac{1}{2} [q_1 V_1 + q_2 V_2 + q_3 V_3] \quad \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

If we consider a number of charges, then in general

$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} q_i V_i \quad \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

### General Expression

To get the **general expression** for energy stored in a region of continuous charge distribution, we replace the summation by integration and we substitute  $q$  by  $\rho \, dV$

$$\therefore W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int \int \int_V \rho \, dV \quad \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

According to Gauss's law,  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot D = \rho$

So, 
$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \int_V \int_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot D) V dV \dots\dots\dots (7)$$

Where  $V$  is scalar and  $D$  is a vector field.

To obtain the value of volume integral, we use the following vector identity

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (V D) \equiv V(\vec{\nabla} \cdot D) + D \cdot (\vec{\nabla} V) \dots\dots\dots (8)$$

or 
$$V(\vec{\nabla} \cdot D) \equiv \vec{\nabla} \cdot (V D) - D(\vec{\nabla} V)$$

Substituting this value in eq(7). We get

$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} [\int_V \int_V \int_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot V D) dV - \int_V \int_V \int_V D \cdot (\vec{\nabla} V) dV].$$

Using divergence theorem, the first volume integral of this equation can be changed into closed surface integral, Now, we have

$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} [\oint_s V D dS - \int_V \int_V \int_V D \cdot (\vec{\nabla} V) dV \dots\dots\dots (9)$$

The surface integral over this closed surface is zero.

$$W_E = -\frac{1}{2} \int_V \int_V \int_V D \cdot (\vec{\nabla} V) dV = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \int_V \int_V D \cdot (-\vec{\nabla} V) dV$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_V \int_V \int_V (D \cdot E) dV \quad (\because E = -\vec{\nabla} V)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_V \int_V \int_V (\epsilon_0 \cdot E \cdot E) dV \quad (\because D = \epsilon_0 E)$$

or 
$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \int_V \int_V \epsilon_0 E^2 dV \dots\dots\dots (10)$$

This is known as **energy density** or **energy stored** for any field **E**.

## POTENTIAL DUE TO A POINT CHARGE

Consider a point charge  $+q$ . Its electric field **E** is outward along a radial line. The aim of this article is to calculate the potential at a point B situated at a distance  $r_b$  from the charge  $+q$ . For this purpose we select two points A and B along the radial line (for convenience). Let a test charge  $q_0$

be moved from reference point A to B.

The force exerted by the field of charge  $q$  on test charge  $q_0$  is  $q_0 E$ .

Now to move the test charge  $q_0$  towards B, a force  $-q_0 E$  must be applied. The work done by external agent to move the charge  $q_0$  through a small distance  $dr$  is given by

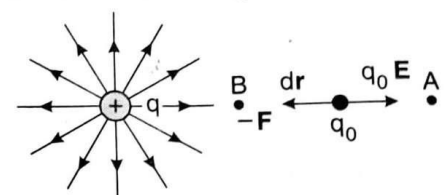
$$dW = q_0 E \cdot dr = q_0 E dr \cos 180^\circ = -q_0 E dr$$

Further 
$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r^2} \quad \because dW = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q q_0}{r^2} \cdot dr$$

Now the total work done in moving the test charge from A to B

$$W_{AB} = \int_{r_A}^{r_B} -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q q_0}{r^2} \cdot dr$$

When  $r_A$  is the distance of point A from  $q$ .



$$= -\frac{q q_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ -\frac{1}{r} \right]_{r_A}^{r_B} = \frac{q q_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{r_B} - \frac{1}{r_A} \right].$$

So the potential difference between two points will be

$$V_B - V_A = \frac{W_{AB}}{q_0} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{r_B} - \frac{1}{r_A} \right].$$

To find the potential at point  $B$ , the reference point  $A$  is taken at infinity so that  $V_A = 0$ . Hence,

$$V_B = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r_B}$$

On dropping the suffix, the required expression becomes

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r}$$

## POTENTIAL (V) FOR SPHERICAL CHARGE DISTRIBUTION FROM ELECTRIC FIELD (E)

### (a) When point lies outside the sphere

Consider a conducting charged spherical conductor with centre  $O$  and the radius  $R$ .

Let  $q$  be the total charge on the sphere. The charge is distributed on the spherical surface.

The aim of this article is to find the potential at a point  $P$  distant  $r$  from centre  $O$  of the sphere *i.e.*,  $r > R$

The electric field intensity at point  $P$  is

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r^2} \quad \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

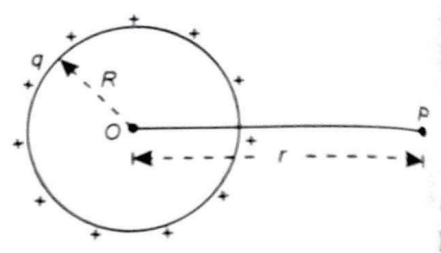
We know that

$$V = - \int_A^B E \cdot dr \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

$$\therefore V = - \int_0^r \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r^2} dr = - \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_0^r \frac{1}{r^2} dr$$

$$\text{or} \quad V = - \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ -\frac{1}{r} \right]_0^r$$

$$\text{or} \quad V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r} \quad \dots\dots\dots (3)$$



### (b) When point lies on the surface of sphere

When the point  $P$  lies on the surface of the sphere *i.e.*,  $r = R$ , the potential is given by

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{R} \quad \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

### (c) When the point lies inside the sphere

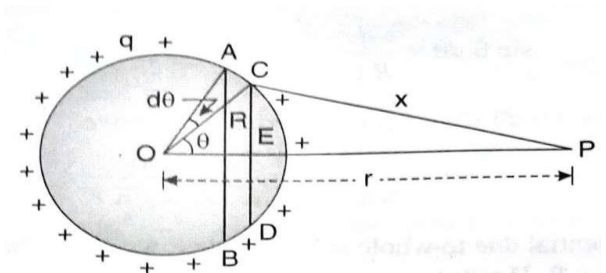
When the point  $P$  lies inside the sphere *i.e.*, ( $r < R$ ), then the potential inside the sphere is the same as on the surface of the sphere. In this case

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{R} \quad \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

## POTENTIAL DUE TO CHARGED SPHERICAL CONDUCTOR

### ( i ) When point P lies outside the sphere

Consider a conducting charged spherical conductor with centre  $O$  and radius  $R$ . Let  $\sigma$  be the surface charge density and the total charge be  $q$ . When a conducting sphere is given charge, the whole is distributed uniformly on the surface of the sphere and there will be no charge inside the sphere. Now the problem is to find out the potential at the external point  $P$  distant  $r$  from the centre of the spherical conductor, For this purpose, we divide the sphere into a



number of rings with centres on  $OP$ . Further consider one such ring  $ABCD$  between two planes  $AB$  and  $CD$ . Let  $CP = x$ ,  $\angle COP = \theta$  and  $\angle AOC = d\theta$ .

From the right angled triangle  $OEC$ ,

$$CE = OC \sin \theta = R \sin \theta$$

From sector  $AOC$ ,  $AC = R d\theta$

The circumference of the ring  $= 2\pi \times (R \sin \theta)$

$$\therefore \text{Area of the ring} = 2\pi R \sin \theta \times R d\theta \\ = 2\pi R^2 \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$\therefore \text{Charge on the ring} = \text{area of the ring} \times \text{surface density} \\ = 2\pi R^2 \sin \theta d\theta \times \sigma$$

Where  $\sigma = \frac{\text{total charge on shell}}{\text{total surface area}} = \frac{q}{4\pi R^2}$

$$\therefore \text{charge on the ring} \quad dq = 2\pi R^2 \sin \theta d\theta \times \left(\frac{q}{4\pi R^2}\right) \\ = \frac{q \sin \theta d\theta}{2} \quad \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

So the potential at P due to the charge on the ring

$$dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{dq}{x} \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

(Every point of the narrow ring  $ABCD$  is at the same distance  $x$  from the point P)

$$dV = \frac{q \sin \theta d\theta}{8\pi \epsilon_0 x} \quad \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

From figure,  $x^2 = R^2 + r^2 - 2Rr \cos \theta$

Differentiating this equation, we get

$$2x dx = 2Rr \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$\text{or} \quad \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{x dx}{Rr} \quad \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

Substituting the value of  $\sin \theta d\theta$  from eq (4) in eq (3), we have

$$dV = \frac{q x dx}{8\pi \epsilon_0 R r x} = \frac{q dx}{8\pi \epsilon_0 R r} \quad \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

In order to obtain the potential due to whole spherical shell we integrate the above equation within the limits  $x = r - R$  and  $x = r + R$ . Hence,

$$V = \int_{r-R}^{r+R} dV = \int_{r-R}^{r+R} \frac{q dx}{8\pi \epsilon_0 R r} = \frac{q}{8\pi \epsilon_0 R r} [x]_{r-R}^{r+R} \\ = \frac{q}{8\pi \epsilon_0 R r} [r + R - r + R] = \frac{q}{8\pi \epsilon_0 R r} \times 2R \\ \therefore V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r} \quad \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

This expression shows that the potential at an external point is the same as if the total charge on the shell were concentrated at the centre. Further, the potential decreases with distance in inverse proportion.

**( i i ) When P lies on the surface.**

In this case  $r = R$

$$\text{Potential at the surface} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r} \quad \dots\dots\dots (7)$$

**( i i i ) When P lies inside the sphere.**

In this case,  $V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r} \quad \dots\dots\dots (8)$

Thus, the potential at an internal point is the same as that on the surface.

The variation of potential with distance is shown in fig.

