

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial z} \quad [$$

40

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r A_r) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial A_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial z} \quad [\text{cylindrical}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 \sin \theta A_r) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (r \sin \theta A_\theta)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} (r A_\phi)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 A_r) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta A_\theta) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial A_\phi}{\partial \phi}$$

[spherical]

curl

$$\nabla \times \vec{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ h_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial u} & h_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial v} & h_3 \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \\ h_1 A_u & h_2 A_v & h_3 A_w \end{vmatrix}$$

Static Electric field:

Fundamental of colombs ^{law} behind is Gauss ^{law} Law.

(41)

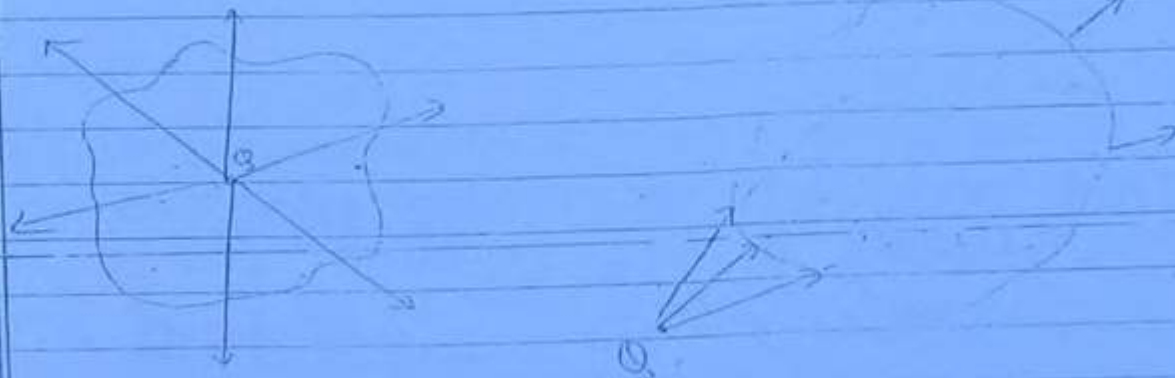
Gauss Law:

Statement: The ^{Total} net electric flux ^{effects} leaving any closed surface is always equal to the ^{cause} charge enclosed in that volume

The complete effects from any cause are analysed by considering an encapsulating surface i.e. closed surface. Hence.

$$\psi_{e(\text{total})} = Q$$

unit of electric flux is coulomb



If the charge is inside the surface there are net flux line crossing the surface outwards.

If the same charge is outside flux entering the volume or surface should be equal to flux leaving.

Summary: charge - source/sink for flux lines

Note: Gauss law never define for an open surface i.e. for an open surface flux only out through it we cannot define entering/leaving flux

$$\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{i} = Q$$

Integral form of Gauss law

classmate
Date _____
Page _____

$\mathbf{D} =$ Flux density displacement

(42)

Strength of flux = Flux = $\frac{C}{m^2}$ = Instantaneous flux at every point

$$\int \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{i} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}$$

Not Gauss law.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_v$$

point form of Gauss law.

$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \frac{\text{outflow}}{\text{volume}} = \text{flux density} = \frac{\text{charge}}{\text{volume}} = \rho_v$

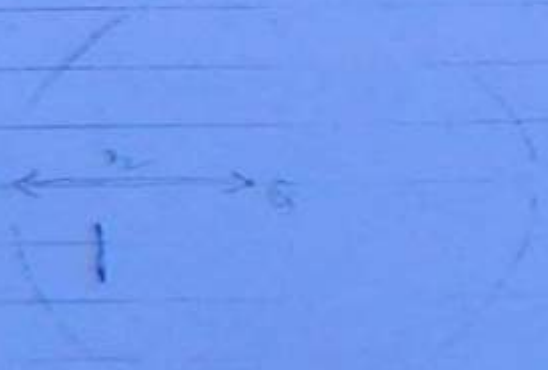
$$\frac{1}{m} \times \frac{C}{m^2} = \frac{C}{m^3}$$

Diverging ability always depends on charge density.

Gauss law: Application 1: Strength of the field due to a point charge Q

$$\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{i} = Q$$

2 - with spherical surface
Equidistant from the charge



Strength varies everywhere around the charge at the same rate. Gauss law states that the flux is

be used for any closed surface.

In this example we choose a symmetric spherical surface for applying Gauss law.

The choice of a sphere is because the surface is equidistant from the charge and hence its strength is constant and hence the integration converges to multiplication

$$D(r) \cdot \text{Area of the sphere} = Q$$

$$D(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \cdot a_r$$

C/m²

Chosen surface is an $r = \text{const}$ sphere having a r direction so by logic D also have same direction as $a_r \cdot a_r = 1$. Hence the field is radially outward and divergent from the source or charge.

Coulomb have a different measure of field strength which was in terms of force b/w charges per unit charge

$$E = \frac{f}{q}$$

He called it ^{as} intensity or electric field intensity with unit $\frac{\text{Newton}}{\text{Coulomb}}$.

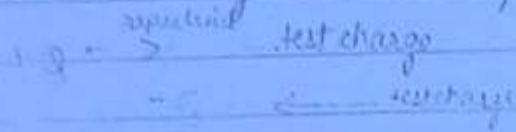
He also proved that charge having a mass should have force and hence in the field E and relate

$$F = \frac{D}{\epsilon}$$

hence $E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \cdot a_r$
 N/C

(44)

NOTE: Electric field direction E is the direction of flux line, it is the direction of the repulsive force on a positive charge and hence it is always outward from a charge.



Static Magnetic fields.

Biot Savart's Law. [Ampere's law for current element]

- Biot Savart's law derived from Ampere's law.
- applying that a small length I carrying wire can be treated as the basic cause of magnetic fields.

Ampere's law = Ampere's circuital law

Biot Savart's law states -

$I dl$ → small current element - vector quantity.
 current - cause.

H → magnetic field strength - field intensity

- effect.

Ampere's Law

$$H(r) = \frac{I dl \times a_r}{4\pi r^2}$$

The strength expression is very similar to the electric field and point charge.

but the direction is not as if in electric field. (45)

The direction of magnetic field is always current direction multiplied with radial direction to the point from the current.

$$\vec{B} = \text{current direction} \times \text{radial dir}^n \text{ to point from the current}$$

$$\text{Intensity } H(r) = \frac{\text{Amp} \cdot m \times ar}{m^2}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Amp}}{m^2}$$

Lorentz's basic force eqⁿ defines the field strength in magnetic field at flux density (weber / m²) Hence as shown below

$$B = \frac{\bar{F}}{I dl} = \frac{\text{force}}{\text{Basic cause}}$$

$$F = q(\vec{v} \times B) \rightarrow \text{Lorentz's force eq}^n$$

$$dF = dq \left(\frac{dl}{dt} \times B \right) = I dl \times B$$

q = charge

v = velocity of the moving charge

$\frac{dl}{dt} = v_d$ = drift, in a conductor of length l

Given $B(r) = \mu H$

$$B(r) = \frac{F}{I dl} = \frac{\text{Newton}}{\text{Amp} \cdot m}$$

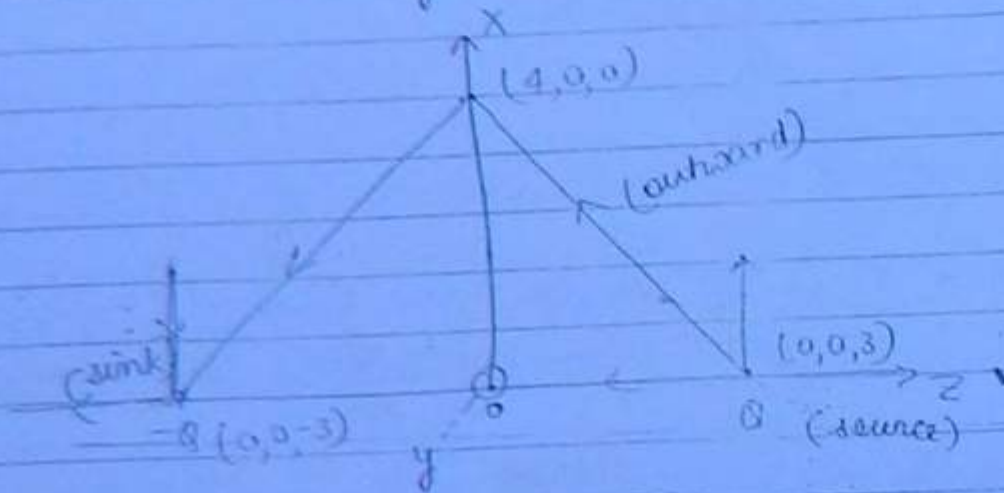
ii relates current and force b/w currents

46

Note: B's direction is physically the direction which a moving charge tracing when it enters a magnetic field.

WorkBook:

1. static electromagnetic fields.



$$r = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2 + (-3)^2} = \sqrt{16 + 9} = 5$$

$$E_1 = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left[\frac{4a_x - 3a_z}{\sqrt{4^2 + 3^2}} \right] \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a_r = \frac{\vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|} \\ |\vec{r}| \end{array} \right.$$

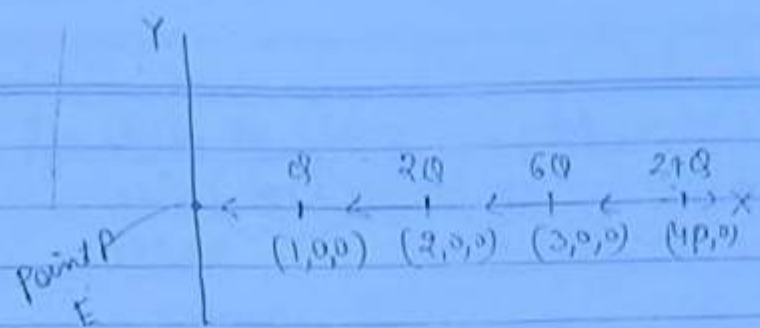
$$E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (5)^2} \left[\frac{4a_x - 3a_z}{\sqrt{4^2 + 3^2}} \right] \quad \begin{array}{l} E_1 = a_x / -a_z \\ E_2 = -a_x - a_z \end{array}$$

$$E_2 = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left[\frac{4a_x + 3a_z}{\sqrt{4^2 + 3^2}} \right]$$

$$r = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2 + (-3)^2} = 5$$

$$E_2 = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (5)^2} \left[\frac{4a_x + 3a_z}{\sqrt{4^2 + 3^2}} \right]$$

2.



$\Rightarrow \pi_1(Q)$ (47)

direction $(-a_x)$

$$E_T = \left(\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(1)^2} + \frac{2Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(2)^2} + \frac{6Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(3)^2} + \frac{24Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(4)^2} \right) (-a_x)$$

$$E_T = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{2} \right] (-a_x)$$

As distance increases the charge is also increases.
So 4th one has strongest charge and the 2nd one has the least charge contributed

4.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} -5 < x < 5 \\ -5 < y < 5 \\ -5 < z < 5 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{cube}$$

8C \rightarrow (1, 2, 3)

(inside) 8C \rightarrow (2, -1, -3)

(inside) -12C \rightarrow (-4, 0, 1)

-4C, Any

entering flux is dominating

5

center - origin

$d_1 = \sqrt{4^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{16 + 4 + 9} = \sqrt{29} > 6$

$d_2 = \sqrt{2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{4 + 1 + 1} = \sqrt{6} < 6$ — 8C (enclosed)

$d_3 = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2} = \sqrt{16} = \sqrt{16} < 6$ — 12C (enclosed)

-4C - int

6

$$d_1 = \sqrt{2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} > 6$$

$$d_2 = \sqrt{0^2 + 2^2 + 5^2} < 6 \quad \text{--- SG}$$

$$d_3 = \sqrt{4^2 + 3^2 + 2^2} > 6$$

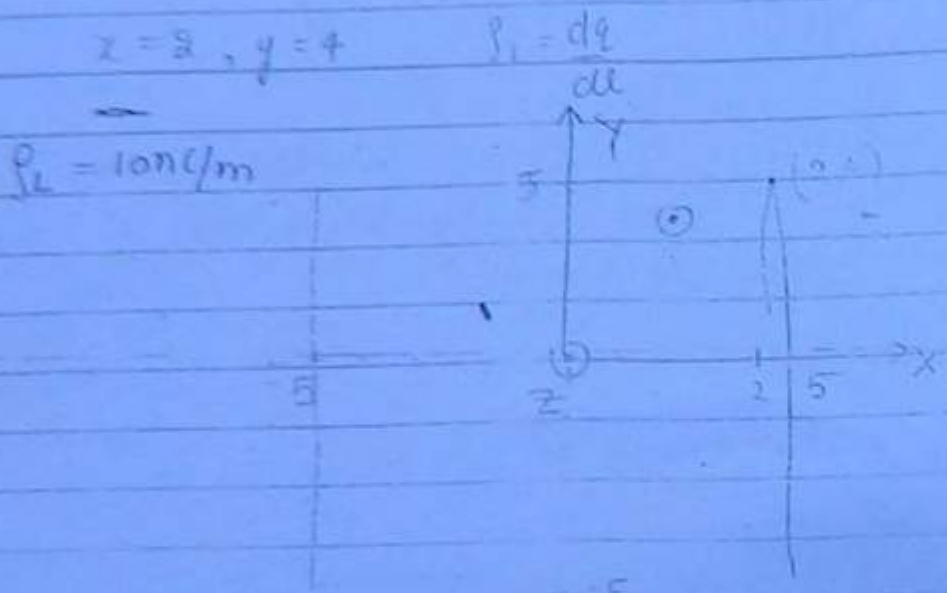
(48)

SG Ans

Ex. 10.10
Problem

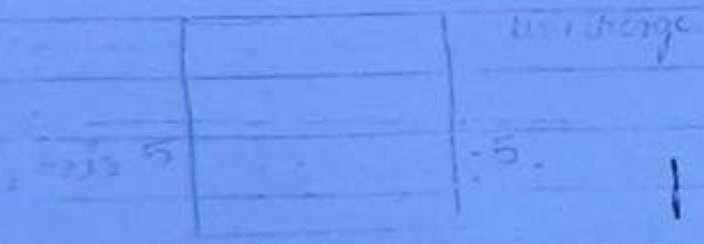
calculate the net flux leaving the surface $-5 \leq x \leq 5$
 $-5 \leq y \leq 5$, $-5 \leq z \leq 5$ due to a line charge $\rho_L = 10 \text{ nC/m}$
 located at $x=2$, $y=1$ for all z

Soln



flux leaving = charge enclosed = part of a line charge
 How much part of the ^{line} charge is in the cube.

2nd view



length of the line inside the cube = 10 m
 (-5 to 5 of z)

$$Q = \rho_L \cdot l$$

$$10 \text{ nC/m} \cdot 10 \text{ m} = 100 \text{ nC}$$

H.W

If line is along $y=x$ line in the $z=4$ plane
Hint = Repeat the question $z=0, y=x$ line
Hint $z=b, y=x$ line

49

8. Coulomb's laws cannot apply because it is for point charge not for volume. we use $\oint D \cdot d\mathbf{s} = Q$
E/p inside the charge.

The gaussian surface considered is concentric sphere of $r < R$ so that the strength on the surface same everywhere and hence loop $\oint D \cdot d\mathbf{s} = Q$



D-area = charge

$$\frac{\rho_v \times \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3}{\epsilon/m^3 \times m^3} = C$$

$$D(r) = \frac{\text{charge inside}}{\text{Area}} = \frac{\rho_v \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3}{4 \pi r^2} = \frac{\rho_v r}{3}$$

$$E(r) = \frac{\rho_v r}{3 \epsilon}$$

$$E(R/2) = \frac{\rho_v R}{6 \epsilon}$$

E at the center is perfectly zero on the and maximum on the surface





(58)

$$\oint \rho \cdot dV = Q$$

$$D(r) = \frac{\text{charge inside}}{\text{area}} = \frac{\int \frac{4}{3} \rho r^3}{4\pi r^2} = \frac{\rho \cdot R^3}{3r^2}$$

$$E(r) = \frac{\rho R^3}{3r^2 \epsilon}$$

$$E(2R) = \frac{\rho (2R)^3}{3(2R)^2 \epsilon} = \frac{\rho R}{\epsilon}$$

$$E(R) = \frac{\rho R}{12\epsilon}$$

$$D(r) = \frac{\rho R^3}{3r^2}$$

$$E(r) = \frac{\rho (R)^3}{3\epsilon (r)^2}$$

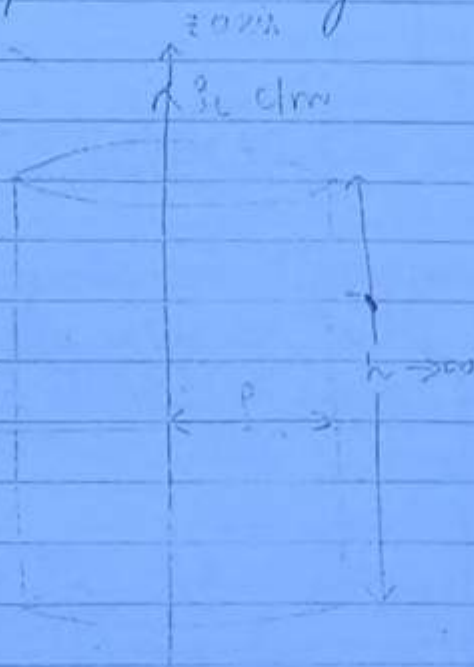
$$E(2R) = \frac{\rho R^3}{3\epsilon (2R)^2} = \frac{\rho R^3}{12\epsilon R^2} = \frac{\rho R}{12\epsilon}$$

Line charges & I carrying wires

(57)

Gauss Law. Application 2: strength E due to an infinite length line charge.

The application of Gauss law involves choosing an cylindrical surface. If $\rho = \text{const}$ value. The surface have equidistant nature from the charge and hence D is const everywhere.



$$\oint D \cdot d\mathbf{a} = Q$$

$D(\rho) \times \text{area} = \text{charge enclosed}$

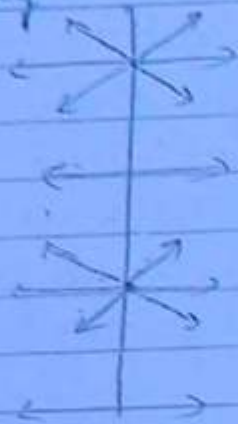
$$D(\rho) = \frac{\rho_L h}{2\pi \rho h} = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi \rho}$$

The closed surface is a curved surface area, hence the flux will only through the surface with top and bottom surfaces are ignored.

As the eq surface is $\rho = \text{const}$ surface ds is a_ρ directed
 from by logic. D is a_ρ directed.

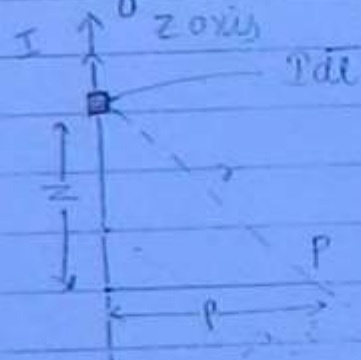
(52)

$a_\rho =$ radially outward from the line



Strength H due to an infinite length I carrying wire

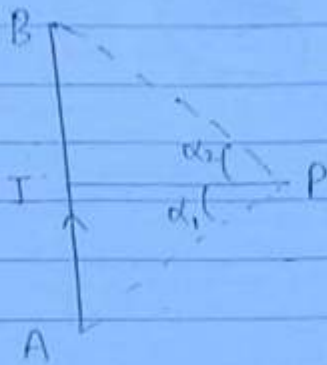
Consider a current carrying wire along the z axis.
 Let us calculate the field strength at ρ distance from it



- For any infinite length or finite length.
- Identify a small incremental length element dl , such that $|dl| \rightarrow 0$
- Find the incremental strength dH due to this length.

$$dH = \frac{\mu_0 I dl \times a_r}{4\pi r^2}$$

3. When applied for a finite length current carrying wire



(53)

$$H = \frac{I}{4\pi r} (\sin \alpha_1 + \sin \alpha_2) a\phi$$

* If E is to be calculated in wire charge in Electrostatics

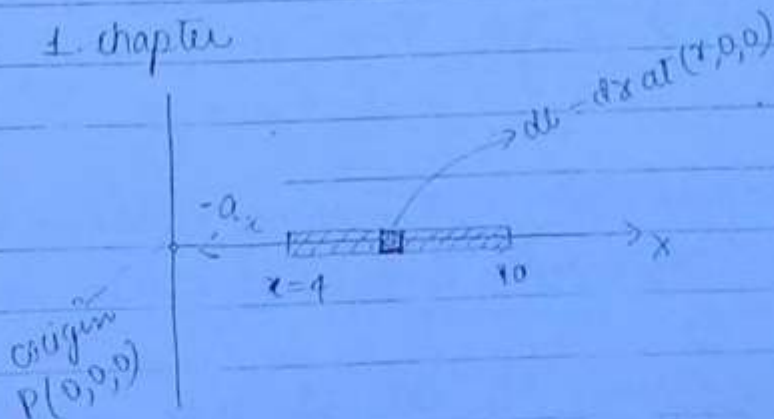
$$E(r) = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon r} a_r = \frac{D(r)}{\epsilon}$$

If B is to be calculated in I carrying wire in Magnetostatics:

$$B(r) = \mu H = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} a\phi$$

Work Book 1. chapter

3.



Let small length dl on this wire.
find dH due to this length using $\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi r^2}$

$$q = \rho_L dx$$

$$q = x$$

$$a_x = -ax$$

(54)

$$dE = \frac{\rho_L dx (-ax)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^2}$$

$$E = \int_{x=4}^{10} \frac{\rho_L dx (-ax)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^2}$$

$$= \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_4^{10} \frac{1}{x^2} dx (-ax)$$

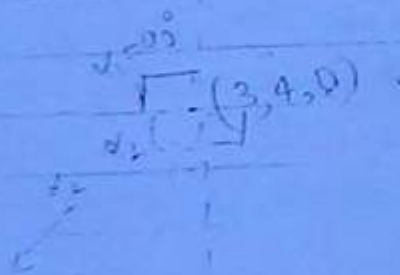
$$= \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[-x^{-2+1} \right]_4^{10} \Rightarrow \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[-\left[\frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{4} \right] \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[-\frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{4} \right] \Rightarrow \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{-4+10}{10 \times 4} \right] \Rightarrow \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{6}{40} \right) (-a_x)$$

10 Ans 3, 4

- (1) Volume is same then no effect on flux ϕ_E
- (2) Gauss law. the flux leaving the surface is equal to the source i.e. charge.

y axis
z axis



Q Repeat the same quest if the current was flowing on the entire y-axis.

y axis ↓

(55)

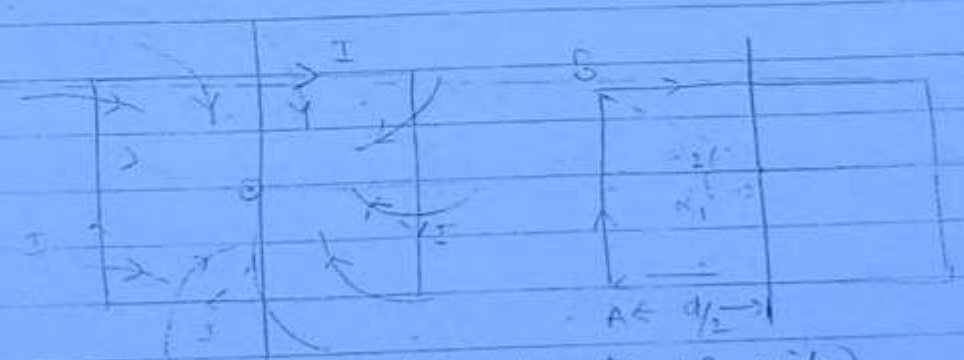
$\rho = 3$ $(3, 4, 0)$

For infinite line

$$H = \frac{I}{2\pi\rho} = \frac{8}{2\pi(3)} a_z = \frac{1.33}{\pi} a_z$$

The field in L shape is stronger and in infinite line is weak as in L shape the same come close.

w.B
12



H direction at the centre (due to AB side)

$$a_y \times a_x = -a_z$$

Note for a symmetric current distribution magnetic field at the geometric centre is always maximum.

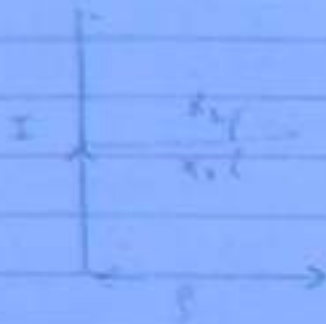
H magnitude due to side AB

$$H = \frac{I}{4\pi\rho} (\sin\alpha_1 + \sin\alpha_2)$$

$$\frac{I}{4\pi\rho} (\sin 45^\circ + \sin 45^\circ)$$

Break the L-shape wire into two part and then calculate the H for y-axis and H for x-axis separately and then take the vector sum.

(56)



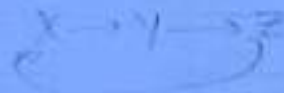
$$H = \frac{I}{4\pi r} (\sin \alpha_1 + \sin \alpha_2) \text{ amp}$$

$$H_{(y\text{-axis})} = \frac{8}{4\pi(3)} (\sin 90^\circ + \sin \alpha_2) \text{ amp}$$

$$H_{(y\text{-axis})} = \frac{8}{4\pi(3)} \left(1 + \frac{4}{5}\right) \text{ amp}$$

direction current direction \times radial dirⁿ to the point from the current

$$(-a_y \times a_x) = a_z$$



$$H_{(x\text{-axis})} = \frac{8}{4\pi(4)} (\sin \alpha_1 + \sin \alpha_2)$$

$$= \frac{8}{16\pi} \left(1 + \frac{3}{5}\right)$$

$$= \frac{8}{16\pi} \left(\frac{8}{5}\right)$$

$$= \frac{64}{16 \times 5} = \frac{8}{2 \times 5} = \frac{8}{10\pi} = \frac{4}{5\pi} a_z$$

$$x = y = z$$

$$a = a_1$$



$$\frac{I}{4\pi(d/2)} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) (-a_2)$$

H at the centre, totally due to 4 sides

(57)

$$H = \frac{4\pi I}{4\pi d/2} \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \right) (-a_2)$$

$$= \frac{2I}{\pi d} \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \right) (-a_2)$$

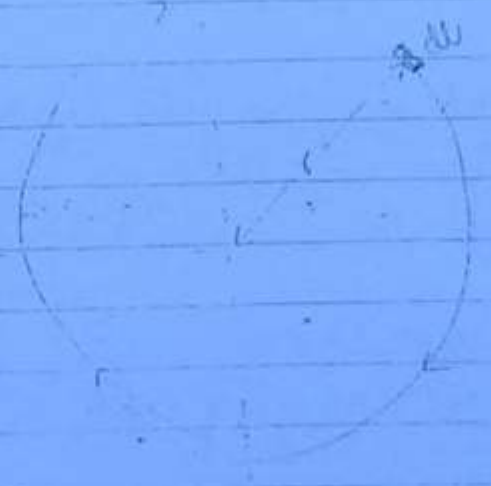
$$= \frac{4I}{\sqrt{2}\pi d} (-a_2)$$

$$= \frac{2\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2}I}{\sqrt{2}\pi d} (-a_2)$$

$$= \frac{2\sqrt{2}I}{\pi d} (-a_2)$$

$$H = \frac{2(\times 1.41)I}{3.14 d} = \frac{0.9I}{d}$$

Q Repeat the same question for circle - find the H at the centre . 0



using Biot savart law.

$$dH = \frac{I dl \times a_r}{d^2}$$

$$dl = r d\phi$$

$$H = \frac{I}{4\pi} \int \frac{r d\phi}{r^2}$$

(58)

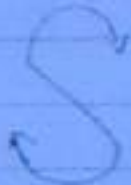
$$H = \frac{I}{4\pi} \int \frac{d\phi}{r}$$

$$H = \frac{I}{4\pi r} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$

$$H = \frac{I}{4\pi r} (2\pi) \Rightarrow \frac{I}{2r} = \frac{I}{d}$$

clockwise current - H field direction into the paper.
All current carrying wires that are closed (square, circle) and have a finite area of enclosure are referred as magnetic dipole.

clockwise current I flow side - South pole



anticlockwise current I flow side North pole



Atom is a example of dipole -
dipole, closed current carrying wire.

$$\tan^{-1} \infty = \pi/2$$

$$\tan^{-1}(-\infty) = -\pi/2$$

$$\tan^{-1}(0) = 0$$

using Biot Savart's law.

$$dH = \frac{I dz a_z}{4\pi (r^2 + z^2)} \times (a_r)$$

(59)

$$r = \sqrt{r^2 + z^2}$$

$$a_r = \hat{r} = \frac{\bar{r}}{|\bar{r}|}$$

$$\hat{r} = \frac{\bar{r}}{|\bar{r}|} = \frac{(r a_r - z a_z)}{\sqrt{r^2 + z^2}}$$

$$dH = \frac{I dz a_z}{4\pi (r^2 + z^2)} \times \frac{(r a_r - z a_z)}{\sqrt{r^2 + z^2}}$$

The total strength \bar{H} is

$$H = \int_{z=-\infty}^{\infty} dH = \int \frac{I dz}{4\pi (r^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} a_z \times (r a_r - z a_z)$$

$$H = \int \frac{I dz}{4\pi (r^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} a_\phi$$

$$= \frac{I \cdot r}{4\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dz}{(r^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

put $z = r \tan \theta$

$dz = r \sec^2 \theta d\theta$

$$r^2 + r^2 \tan^2 \theta = r^2 \sec^2 \theta$$

(60)

$$H = \int dH$$

$$= \frac{I \cdot r}{4\pi} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \frac{r \sec^2 \theta \, d\theta}{r^3 \sec^3 \theta}$$

$$= \frac{I \cdot r}{4\pi} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{r^2 \sec \theta} \, d\theta$$

$$= \frac{I \cdot r}{4\pi r^2} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos \theta \, d\theta$$

$$= \frac{I}{4\pi r} \left[\sin \theta \right]_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2}$$

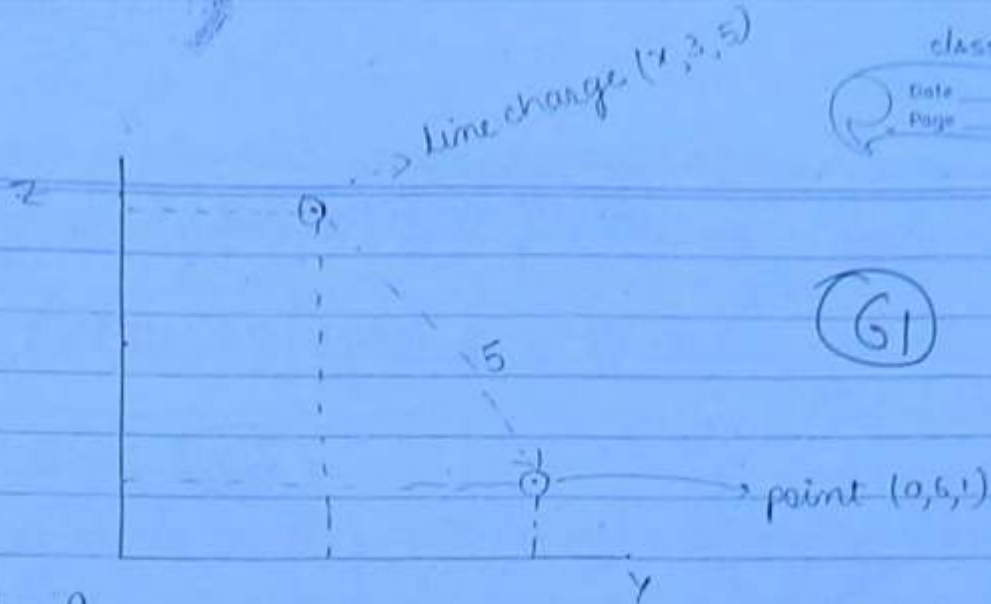
$$= \frac{I}{4\pi r} \left[\sin \pi/2 - \sin(-\pi/2) \right]$$

$$= \frac{I}{4\pi r} \left[1 - (-1) \right] \Rightarrow \frac{I \times 2}{4\pi r} \Rightarrow \frac{I}{2\pi r}$$

$$H = \frac{I}{2\pi r} a_\phi$$

∴ a_ϕ - The H direction which is $(a_z \times a_\phi)$ is circulatory around the current.

∴ the expression is similar to $D = \frac{I}{2\pi r} a_\phi$



$$E = \frac{q_L}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r^2}$$

$$E \propto \frac{1}{r}$$

r between (0, 6, 1) & (0, 3, 5)

$$r = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$$

$E = ?$ at (5, 6, 1)

$$E \propto \frac{1}{r}$$

$r = 5$ in both cases

E is the same

note: If z axis is defined as (0, 0, z)

Any point (x, y, z) had a radial distance

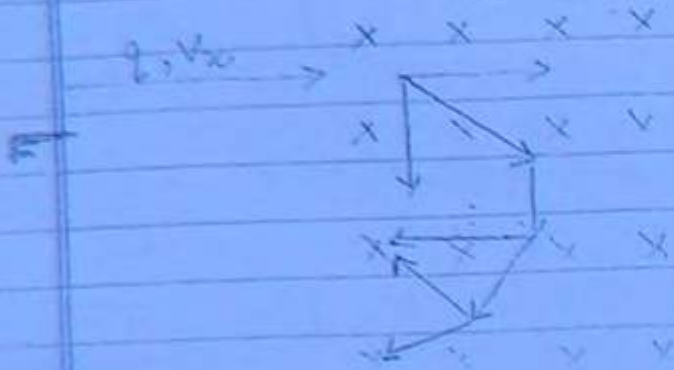
$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

which is independent of z

Maxwell's III $\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$ - closed surface integral of \mathbf{B} .

B_z

$$F_y = q (\mathbf{v}_x \times \mathbf{B}_z)$$



(62)

1. The nature of magnetic field line is always to form closed loop around the current as seen in H due to a line current carrying wire (of direction)
2. Any phenomena that is circulatory or closed never has a distinct starting/ending point

There are no source/sink points for magnetic flux lines

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

Because:

- Hence divergence of magnetic flux density is zero everywhere because divergence needs a distinct start or an end

Maxwell's IIIrd $\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$ in point form.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

Mathematically this property is called as solenoidal nature of \mathbf{H} field

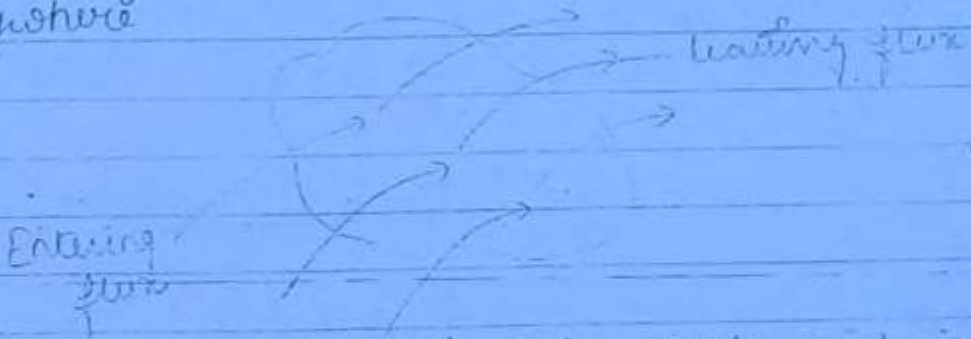
Applying divergence theorem for the point form. (63)

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B}) \cdot d\mathbf{v} \quad [\text{Divergence theorem}]$$

$\therefore \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$

$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = 0$	Maxwell's III Eq ⁿ - Integral form.
--	--

✓ Magnetic Monopoles don't exist because entering flux into any closed surface ^{enclosed} is always be equal to leaving flux as flux cannot start from anywhere or terminate anywhere



Hence we conclude that only dipole exist in magnetic fields i.e the basic cause of magnetic fields is a current I which flows only in closed circuits. It flows only when both the polarities (dipoles) exist.

Summary - E fields Vs H fields

- | | | |
|----|---|--|
| 1. | Q - Basic cause in E-fields
- scalar quantity. | $I \cdot dl$ - Point current - in H-field elements
- vector quantity. |
| 2. | ρ_l - line charge density | I - flow in line |
| 3. | ρ_v - volume charge density | I - flow in surface |

4

\vec{D} is called as flux density in E-field (64)

\vec{B} is called as flux density in magnetic field.

It is always a measure of strength in terms of charge.
It is always independent of ϵ .

It is always a measure of strength - force.
It is always μ dependent.

\vec{E} - field intensity in E field.

\vec{H} - field intensity in magnetic field.

It is always a measure of strength - force.
It is always $\frac{1}{\epsilon}$ dependent.

It is always a measure of strength in terms of current (cause).
It is always independent μ .

5

$F \propto E \propto \frac{1}{\epsilon (10^9)}$

$F \propto B \times \mu (10^7)$

Strongest
E field is one of the strongest force.

Weakest
B field is one of the weakest force in nature.

Potential, Gradient, closed line Integral of E

Potential -

1 A scalar measure of field strength of E field in terms of its energy at a point or in terms of work done to reach the point.

It is the work done to reach the point from a reference pt. e.g.

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{Q} \quad V = \frac{W}{Q}$$

$$V = \frac{W}{Q} = \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{coulomb}} = \text{volts}$$

(65)

Note: work done by the charge is the measure of potential and never work done on the charge.

work = force · displacement

$$W = F \cdot l$$

$$dW = F \cdot dl$$

$$dW = -Q E \cdot dl$$

Note: work is done by the charge only when it goes against the field (against the repulsive force) (lots of -ve sign)

$$W = - \int Q \cdot E \cdot dl$$

$$W = -Q \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$V = \frac{W}{Q} = - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$V \rightarrow$ Potential function of space but it is a scalar function.

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \hat{x} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \hat{y}$$

\rightarrow It is similar to intensity function which is an vector function

If the potential is evaluated b/w two distinct point with reference at B then V_{AB} is called potential difference with b/w A & B.

(Potential difference) $V_{AB} = \int_{\text{ref B}}^{\text{at A}} E \cdot dl$ (Potential difference b/w A & B)

(66)

→ If ref B is assumed to be zero value; then $V_A =$ absolute potential w.r.t B.

eg. Ground is taken zero in most electric ckt
Infinite distance is zero potential.

14/7/11

Thursday

$$V = - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$= - \int \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} dr$$

When the field intensity is radially directed the potential calculation is simplified when $d\vec{l}$ is dr

$$V = - \int \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} dr$$

$$= - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dr}{r^2}$$

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

Note: If E decreases at $\frac{1}{r^2}$ V decreases at $\frac{1}{r}$

$E\left(\frac{1}{r^2}\right) \rightarrow \text{vector}$

$V\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) \rightarrow \text{scalar}$

If $r = \text{const}$ then $v = \text{const}$ the locus of all these points forms a sphere around the charge. where the potential is constt this is called as equipotential surface. The family of equipotential surfaces graphically represent the changes in potential



(67)
if $r = \text{const}$
concentric sphere

Potential of a line charge

$$V = - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$= - \int \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} a_r \cdot dr a_r$$

{ Always use
natural log
not a

$$= - \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dr}{r}$$

$$V = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)$$

$$\left\{ - \int \frac{dr}{r} = \ln\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) \right\}$$

1. $E\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) \rightarrow \text{vector}$

$V\left(\ln\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)\right) \rightarrow \text{scalar}$

If $r = \text{const}$ then $v = \text{const}$ then we get concentric cylinders.

$$\frac{-1}{20} \left(x^{\frac{3}{2}+1} \right) \Big|_0^4 - 4 \left[\frac{y^3}{3} \right]_0^1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-1}{20} \left[x^{\frac{5}{2}} \right]_0^4 - 4 \left[\frac{1}{3} \right]$$

(68)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-1}{20} \left[\frac{2^{\frac{5}{2}}}{\frac{5}{2}} \right] - \frac{4}{3}$$

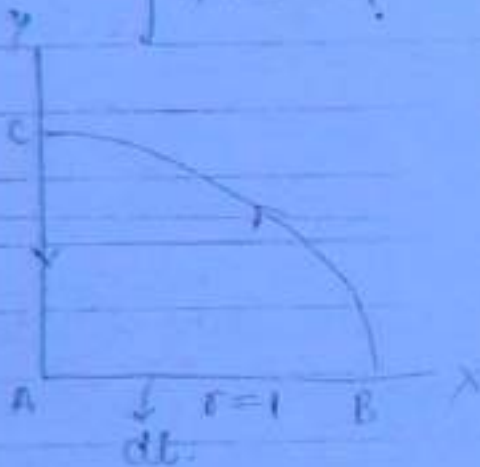
$$\Rightarrow \frac{-1}{3} \left[4^{\frac{3}{2}} \right] - \frac{4}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-8}{3} - \frac{4}{3} \Rightarrow -4$$

$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l}$

$$\vec{A} = 2\rho \cos\phi \hat{a}_\rho$$

$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = ?$$



$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = 3 \text{ lines}$$

$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_A^B \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_B^C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_C^A \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$(1) \int_A^B \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{\rho=0}^1 2\rho d\rho = 1$$

$$d\vec{l} = d\rho \hat{a}_\rho$$

$$\phi = 0$$

$$\vec{A} = 2\rho \hat{a}_\rho$$

2. B to c

$$dl = r d\phi a_\phi$$

$$\bar{A} = 2r \cos\phi a_\phi$$

(69)

$$\int_B^c \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{l} = 0$$

3. c to A

$$dl = dr a_r$$

$$\phi = 90^\circ$$

$$\int_B^c \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{l} = \int_B^c 2r \cos\phi$$

$$= 0$$

Potential Gradient

Scalar Eqⁿ of a gradient vector Direction of the surface.
surface

In maths the gradient is used to find direction vector of any scalar surface Eqⁿ. i.e gradient is used to find a normal vector everywhere given to the surface.

eg. Linear surface

$$f = 3x - 4y - 8z = 100$$

$$\nabla f = 3a_x - 4a_y - 8a_z$$



Non linear.

$$g = 4x^2y - 8xz = 100$$

$$\nabla g = (8xy - 8z)a_x + 4x^2a_y - 8xa_z$$



$$V = - \int E \cdot dl$$

$$dV = - E \cdot dl$$

(70)

$$dV = - |E| \cdot dl \cos \theta$$

$$\frac{dV}{dl} = - E \cos \theta$$

Case I
If $\theta = 90^\circ$ i.e. the change of potential per unit length is analysed orthogonal to or \perp to the electric field direction. The potential has the same value. Hence the locus of all the points \perp to E field constitutes equi-potential surface.

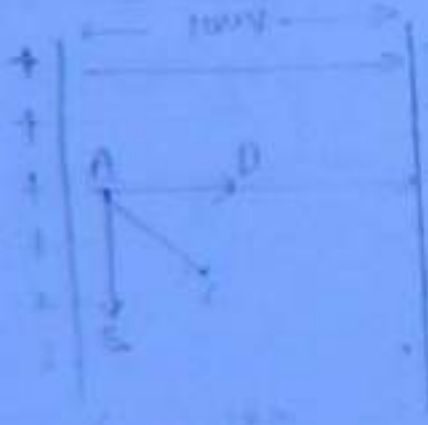
$$\theta = 90^\circ$$

$$V = \text{const.}$$

Case II
If $\theta = 0/180^\circ$

$$\left. \frac{dV}{dl} \right|_{\text{max}} = |E|$$

→ The magnitude of the E field intensity is the maximum rate of change of potential per unit length.



Case D)

$$\theta = 0^\circ$$

(71)

$$\left. \frac{dV}{dt} \right|_{\text{max}} = -E$$

The direction of E field intensity is the direction in which potential decrease at a maximum rate

Hence every scalar can have a vector defined from a unique direction of change by maximum and the rate of change by maximum. This is called as gradient operation of the vector is \vec{E} the scalar is V .

then

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V$$

$\frac{\text{Volts}}{\text{meter}}$

Potential gradient means E field intensity (E)

Potential \vec{E}^n $\xrightarrow{\text{Gradient}}$ Vector Intensity

unit of electric field intensity (E) is $\frac{\text{Volts}}{\text{meter}}$

Formula for gradient operation

If $V =$ scalar function of space

$$V(u, v, w)$$

$$\nabla \cdot V = \frac{1}{h_1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u} a_u + \frac{1}{h_2} \frac{\partial V}{\partial v} a_v + \frac{1}{h_3} \frac{\partial V}{\partial w} a_w$$

Q given the potential fun $V = 2z(x^2 + y^2)$ for all z . find the \vec{E}^n of the equipotential surface passing through the pt. (1, 1, 1)

Solⁿ

(3111)

22

Eqⁿ of equipotential surface is

$$V = 25(x^2 - y^2) = k$$

(a) voltage is const on equipotential surface

$$25(x^2 - y^2) = k$$

$$25(x^2 - y^2) = k \text{ at } (3, 1, 1)$$

$$25(9 - 1) = k \Rightarrow k = 200$$

$$x^2 - y^2 = k'$$

$$25(x^2 - y^2) = 200 \Rightarrow x^2 - y^2 = 8$$

The potential funⁿ given in the question is itself equipotential surface definition

given $V = \frac{4 \cos \theta}{r^2}$. find \vec{E} at $(2, \pi/3, \pi/2)$

$$V = \frac{4 \cos \theta}{r^2}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot V = \frac{1}{h_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{4 \cos \theta}{r^2} \right) a_r + \frac{1}{h_2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\frac{4 \cos \theta}{r^2} \right) a_\theta$$

$$+ \frac{1}{h_3} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot V = \frac{4 \cos \theta}{r^3} (-2) + \frac{1}{r^2} (-\sin \theta) a_\theta$$

$$= -8 \cos \theta \left(\frac{1}{r^3} \right) + \frac{4}{r^2} (-\sin \theta) a_\theta$$

$$= -8 \cos \pi/3 \left(\frac{1}{8} \right) + \frac{4}{8} (-\sin \pi/3) a_\theta$$

$$= 1 \hat{a}_r - \frac{1}{2} \hat{a}_\theta$$

Closed line integral of E - Maxwell's II Eqⁿ

$$\int E \cdot dl = \text{potential}$$

(73)

$$\oint E \cdot dl = 0$$



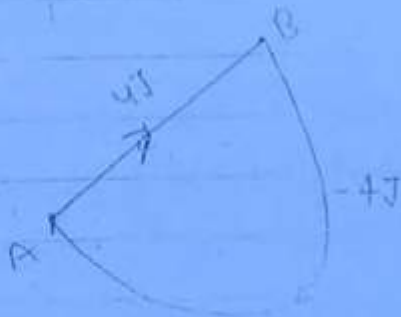
- Potential at a point in space is always unique at a point of time
- Potential cannot be a multivalued function
- The work done in moving a charge in any closed loop is zero. i.e. in a closed loop we sometimes acquire energy sometimes lose energy. such that energy is conserved.

Hence E field is a conservative field.

- E -field lines never forms closed loop, the lines are always outwardly divergent from a charge.

E field is an irrotational vector

$$\nabla \times E = 0$$



Work done in moving a charge b/w two points is independent of path of consideration

Note: $\oint E \cdot dl = 0$ - Maxwell's II Eqⁿ in integral form

but not $\int \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -V$

(74)

Similarly $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0$ — Maxwell's II eqⁿ in point form.

but not $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V$

Note: To identify whether a given vector/field is a valid
E or H put $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0$ = valid Electric (E) field

put $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$ = valid Magnetic field.

* — In static E/H only.

Potential, Vector Potential, Maxwell IV Eqⁿ (Ampere's law)

Potential in Magnetic fields expressed as a scalar quantity is called as MMF (Magneto motive force)

$$V_m = \int \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \quad (\text{ampere})$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \nabla V_m$$

Its unit is ampere but it is never similar to current
it is equal to current when analyzed for a closed
path. As current flows only in closed circuits hence

$$\oint \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = I$$

Ampere's law in integral form.

Maxwell IV Eqⁿ in integral form.

but not $V_m = \int H \cdot dl$

(75)

Statement of Ampere's Law:

The circulation of magnetic field intensity in any closed loop is always equal to the current crossing the surface enclosed.

→ circulation means the effects which are around the current.

→ current means the cause of the effects

$$\nabla \times H = \text{curl of } H = \frac{\text{circulation}}{\text{area}} = \frac{\text{current}}{\text{area}} = J \quad \text{A/m}^2$$

$\nabla \times H = J$	Ampere's law in point form Maxwell IV Eq ⁿ in point form
-----------------------	--

eg:



$$\oint H \cdot dl = I$$

$$H(r) = \frac{I}{2\pi r}$$

As the length of the circulation increases the strength of the effect is reduced. If the circulation is in a length of $2\pi r$ strength is $\frac{I}{2\pi r}$

26 W-13



given $r < R$
 $H(r) = ?$



Case I $r < R$

To apply ampere's law consider a circular line concentric and symmetric with the current, so the strength (H) is const everywhere

$$\oint H \cdot dl = I$$

$H(r) \times \text{length of circulation} = \text{current in the area}$

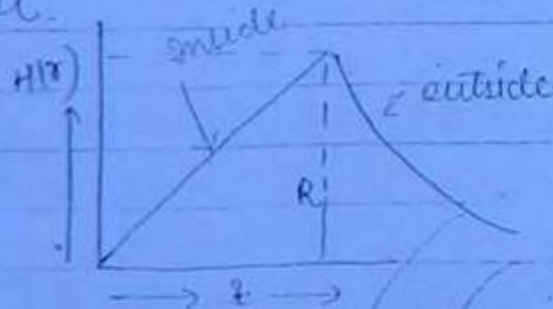
current density $\rightarrow \left(\frac{I}{\pi R^2} \right) \times \pi r^2 = \text{current crossing the area formed by the closed line}$

Total area

$$H(r) = \frac{I \times \pi r^2}{\pi R^2 \times 2\pi r}$$

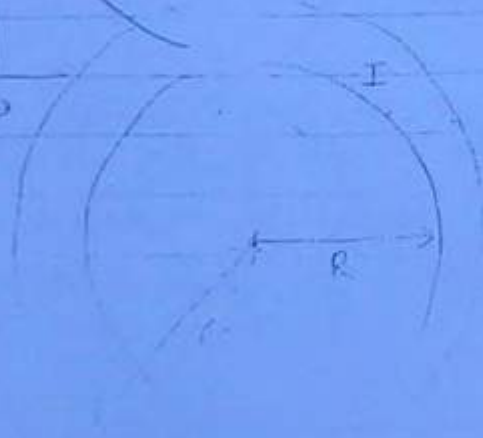
$$= \frac{I r^2}{2\pi R^2 r} \Rightarrow \frac{I r}{2\pi R^2}$$

Note: The field is zero at the centre of the conductor and max^m of the conductor.



Case II $r = R$

$$H(r) = \frac{I}{2\pi r}$$



22 W.B

A sphere has the same geometry as that of point and hence a potential can be calculated on the same basis as.

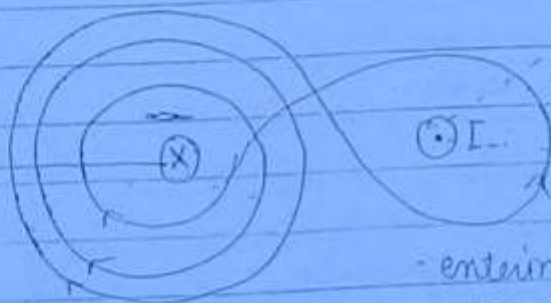
$$V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

(77)

$$V = \frac{2 \times 10^{-8}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (10 \text{ cm})} \Rightarrow \frac{2 \times 10^{-8}}{4\pi \times 10^{-2}}$$

25 N.B

current clockwise



current anticlockwise

leaving current of the board

entering current to the board

$$I + I + I - (-I) = 4I$$

Vector Magnetic Potential \vec{A}

Failure of MMF in certain regions

$$H = \nabla V_m$$

$$\nabla \times E = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot (-\nabla V) = 0$$

$$\nabla \times H = J$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla V_m) = 0 = J$$

Hence $H = \nabla V_m$ definition is correct and exist only in those regions where there is no current density, i.e. in free space or current free regions only. But not inside conductor.

How we define potential in magnetic field and how it is different from electric potential which exist only in electrostatic field.

of the curl of vector potential is B . as divergence of B is 0 everywhere this definition satisfied for any point in magnetic field

$$B = \nabla \times \vec{A}$$

$$\nabla \cdot B = 0$$

78

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) = 0$$

$$\text{Div. (curl of vector)} = 0$$

\vec{A} has the unit of $\frac{\text{weber}}{\text{meter}}$

From faraday's law.

$$\frac{\text{weber}}{\text{second}} = \text{volts} = \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{Coulombs}}$$

$$\left\{ \therefore \text{volts} = \frac{W}{Q} = \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{Coulombs}} \right\}$$

$$\text{weber} = \frac{\text{Joule} \times \text{sec}}{\text{Coulombs}} \Leftrightarrow \frac{\text{Joule}}{\frac{\text{Coulombs}}{\text{sec}}}$$

$$\text{weber} = \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{Amp}}$$

$$\frac{\text{weber}}{\text{meter}} = \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{Amp-meter}}$$

$$\vec{A} = \frac{W}{I \cdot dl}$$

potential energy or energy measured per unit charge of the field when calculated. signifies the line source of the field.

current element $I d\vec{l}$ is a vector quantity classmate
Date _____
Page _____

$$\vec{A} = \frac{W}{I d\vec{l}}$$

Note 1

If $\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{Q}$ $\vec{B} = \frac{\vec{F}}{I d\vec{l}}$

(79)

If $\vec{\nabla} = \frac{W}{Q}$ $\vec{A} = \frac{W}{I d\vec{l}}$

$E = \nabla V$ $B = \nabla \times \vec{A}$

If $V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$ — point

Expression of A is obtained by duality of expression of V

$$\vec{A} = \frac{\mu_0 I d\vec{l}}{4\pi r^2} \quad \text{point current element.}$$

The direction of \vec{A} is always the current direction itself.

Q. ✓
The closed line integral of vector \vec{A} magnetic potential is $\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{\text{weber}}{\text{meter}} \times \text{meter} = \text{weber}$

Magnetic flux crossing the open surface formed by the closed line

$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$= \int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

∴ Magnetic flux = ∫ B · ds

Note: $\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$ = Entering flux
 = Leaving flux. $\textcircled{0}$
 Maxwell III Eqⁿ

But $\int \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \Psi_m$ = cutting flux
 this is not Maxwell III Eqⁿ

15/7/11 Friday

Laplace / Poisson's Equation -

The most common form of charge is a volume charge moving inside materials. hence $\rho_v = ne$ for most applications
 where n = no. of carriers per unit volume
 e = charge of the carrier

Poisson Eqⁿ relates in potential develop around any volume charge.

$$V \rightarrow \rho_v$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_v$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \epsilon \mathbf{E}$$

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\epsilon \mathbf{E}) = \rho_v$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\epsilon (-\nabla V)) = \rho_v$$

ϵ = permittivity of the material

$$V = \frac{-6a^5}{\epsilon_0}$$

(81)

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 V &= \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(h_2 h_3 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{-6r^5}{\epsilon_0} \right) \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[r^2 \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{-6r^5}{\epsilon_0} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[\frac{r^2 \sin \theta (-6 \times 5 r^4)}{\epsilon_0} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[\frac{-30 r^6 \sin \theta}{\epsilon_0} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \left(\frac{-30 \sin \theta}{\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial r} [r^6] \\ &= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \left(\frac{-30 \sin \theta}{\epsilon_0} \right) 6 r^5 \\ &= \frac{-180 r^3}{\epsilon_0} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{or } \nabla^2 V &= \frac{-\rho_V}{\epsilon} \\ \nabla^2 V &= \frac{-180 r^3}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{-\rho_V}{\epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

$$\rho_V = 180 r^3$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Step 2 } Q &= \int \rho_V \, dV \\ &= \int_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi 180 r^3 r^2 \sin \theta \, d\theta \, d\phi \, dr \end{aligned}$$

$$150 \left[\frac{8}{6} \lambda^3 \right]' \left[-\cos \theta \right]' \left[\phi \right]'_{\theta}^{2\lambda}$$

$$150 \times \frac{1}{6} (2\lambda) = 120\lambda \quad (P_2)$$

Alternative Methode

$$D \leftarrow E = -\nabla V$$

↓

$$\oint D \cdot dl = Q$$

Bl w-B

$$\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho_V}{\epsilon}$$

given E & V are zero } Initial condition
 ↓
 function zero

$$\nabla^2 V = E = \frac{dV}{d\rho}$$

$$\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left(\rho \cdot \frac{\partial V}{\partial \rho} \right) = + \frac{10^{-8} (1 + 10\rho)}{36\pi \times 10^9}$$

$$\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left(\rho \cdot \frac{\partial V}{\partial \rho} \right) = 360\pi (1 + 10\rho)$$

$$\rho \frac{\partial V}{\partial \rho} = \int 360\pi (\rho + 10\rho^2) d\rho$$

$$\rho \cdot \frac{\partial V}{\partial \rho} = 360\pi \left(\frac{\rho^2}{2} + \frac{10\rho^3}{3} \right)$$

$$V = \int_{\rho=50m}^{\rho} 360\pi \left(\frac{\rho}{2} + \frac{10\rho^2}{3} \right) d\rho$$

$$V = 360 \pi \int_{\rho=20m}^{50m} \left(\frac{\rho^2}{4} + \frac{10\rho^3}{9} \right) d\rho$$

(88)

$$V = 360 \pi \left[\frac{\rho^2}{4} + \frac{10\rho^3}{9} \right]_{2 \times 10^{-2}}^{5 \times 10^{-2}}$$

$$V =$$

32. $\nabla^2 V = \frac{-\rho_v}{\epsilon}$ $V = [20x^3 + 10y^4]$

$$\nabla^2 V = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [60x^2] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} [40y^3]$$

$$\Rightarrow (120x + 120y) = \frac{-\rho_v}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow 240 = \frac{-\rho_v}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \boxed{-240\epsilon_0 = \rho_v} \quad \underline{\underline{Ans}}$$

34.

$\phi \rightarrow$ 1 dimensional fm - Laplace

$\nabla^2 \phi = 0$

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 0$$

$\phi \rightarrow$ linear fun

$\phi \rightarrow$ changes at constt. rate

$$y = mx + c$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = m$$

{ A linear funⁿ have constt
in first derivative and it
mean the slope is constt

(change per unit length) $\frac{\phi_2 - \phi_1}{d} = \frac{\phi_3 - \phi_2}{2d}$

$$\frac{\phi_2 - \phi_1}{d} = \frac{\phi_3 - \phi_2}{2d}$$

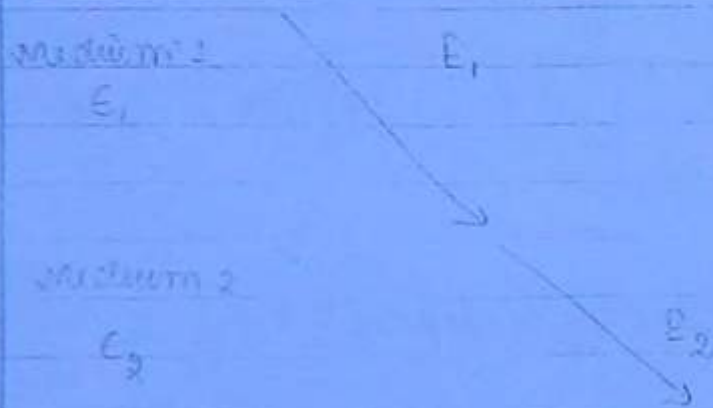
(84)

$$2\phi_2 - 2\phi_1 = \phi_3 - \phi_2 \Rightarrow \frac{\phi_3 - \phi_1}{\phi_3} \quad \phi_2 = \frac{2\phi_1 + \phi_3}{3}$$

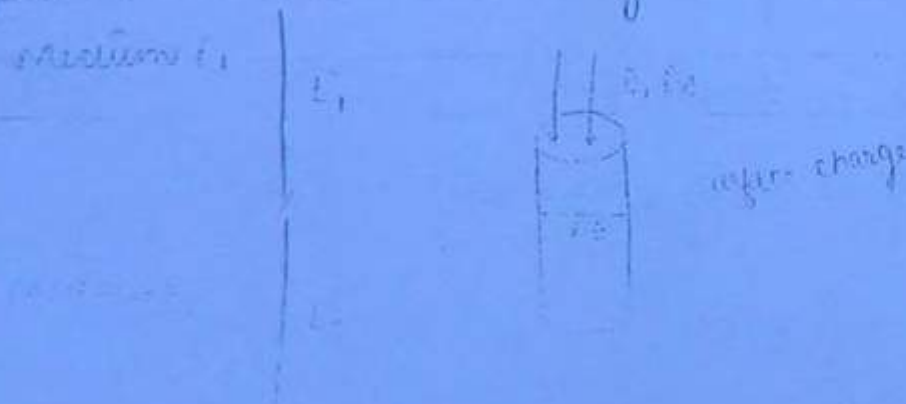
Imp in Conv

Boundary conditions (dielectric-dielectric)

- If a field is known in one medium and the field is to be calculated in the adjacent medium we use boundary conditions.
- Boundary condition can be defined for only two types of fields for normal and tangential directions only.



Case I E field is normal to the boundary



$$\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho_v}{\epsilon}$$

Poisson's Eqⁿ

$\epsilon = \text{const}$

If $\rho_v = 0$ charge free regions

(85)

eg. free space

$$\nabla^2 V = 0$$

Laplace Eqⁿ

∇^2 - scalar Laplacian operator

Note 1 Laplace and Poisson's are second order differential Eqⁿ but don't have two solutions we always have a unique solution. This is called as Uniqueness Theorem.

Voltage at a point is unique it cannot have multiple value. This is the physical meaning of uniqueness theorem.

Laplace and Poisson in magnetic fields.

In magnetic field the same relationship exist b/w vector potential \vec{A} and current density \vec{J} .

$$\begin{array}{l} \nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_v \longrightarrow \nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J} \\ \vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E} \longrightarrow \vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} \\ \vec{E} = -\nabla V \longrightarrow \vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A} \end{array}$$

$$\nabla \times \left(\frac{\vec{B}}{\mu} \right) = \vec{J}$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{A} = \vec{B}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times A) = \mu J$$

$$\nabla (\nabla \cdot A) - \nabla^2 A = \mu J$$

$\Rightarrow \{(\nabla \cdot A) = 0 \text{ as magnetic field does not have divergence}$
 $\text{it has only curly nature}\}$

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 A = -\mu J}$$

(86)

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 A = 0}$$

if $J = 0$ current free region

Formula for Laplace operation on scalar V

if $V = V(u, v, w) = \text{scalar function of space}$

$$\nabla \cdot (\underbrace{\nabla V}_{\text{vector}}) = \nabla^2 \underbrace{V}_{\text{scalar}}$$

Divergence of vector gives scalar (∇^2)

$$\nabla^2 V = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left(\frac{h_2 h_3}{h_1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \left(\frac{h_3 h_1}{h_2} \frac{\partial V}{\partial v} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \left(\frac{h_1 h_2}{h_3} \frac{\partial V}{\partial w} \right) \right]$$

W.B $\oint \mathcal{G} = \int \rho_v dv \quad \text{step 2.}$

$$\nabla^2 V = \frac{-\rho_v}{\epsilon} \quad \text{step 1.}$$

$V(x)$ only so it reduces the calculation

consider a cylinder symmetrically in both the medium.
and use the $\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = Q$ (87)

As there is no charge enclosed in the cylinder
entering flux equals to the leaving flux because
cylinder is consist of material and atoms has no
charge inside it is electrically neutral.

$$\text{SO. } D_1 \Delta l = D_2 \Delta l$$

$$D_1 = D_2$$

$$\epsilon E_1 = \epsilon E_2$$

If the Boundary has surface charge $\rho_s \text{ C/m}^2$

$$D_2 \cdot \Delta l = D_1 \cdot \Delta l + \rho_s \cdot \Delta l$$

$$(D_2 - D_1) = \rho_s$$

Words statement of Boundary Condition

1. The normal component of flux density are continuous on either sides if there is no surface charge else discontinuous (not equal) (some gap) by amount equal to the surface charge density on the boundary

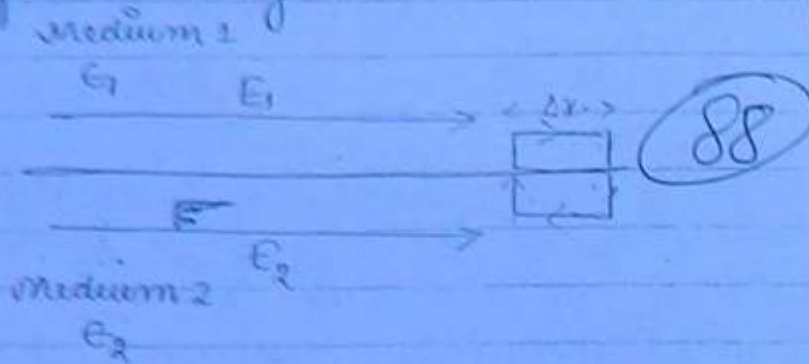
$$D_{n1} = D_{n2}$$

$$\text{or. } D_{n2} - D_{n1} = \rho_s$$

n indicates that it is for normal

PART II

E field is tangential to the boundary.



Using Maxwell Eqⁿ (II) $\oint E \cdot dl = 0$

Take a closed line symmetrical in both the media that has Δx length.

$$\oint E \cdot dl = 0$$

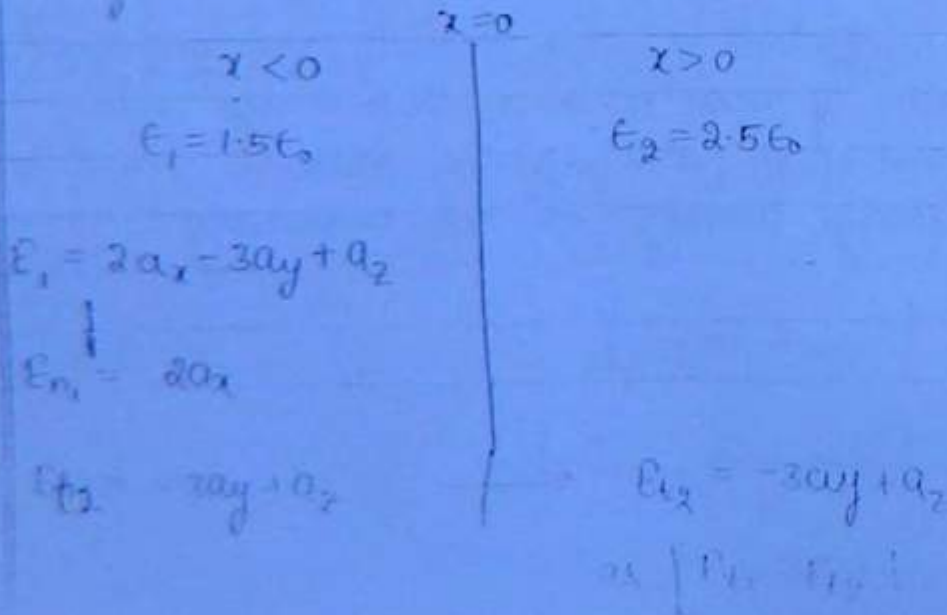
$$E_1 \Delta x - E_2 \Delta x = 0$$

$$\boxed{E_1 = E_2}$$

Statement.

The tangential components of electric field intensity are always continuous.

36 WB



$x = \text{const}$ surface. (89) } $x-5=0$
 Normal is always a_x (take gradient)
 direction " " a_x $1a_x$

$$D_{n1} = \epsilon E \longrightarrow D_{n2} = 3\epsilon_0 a_x$$

$$= 1.5\epsilon_0 2a_x$$

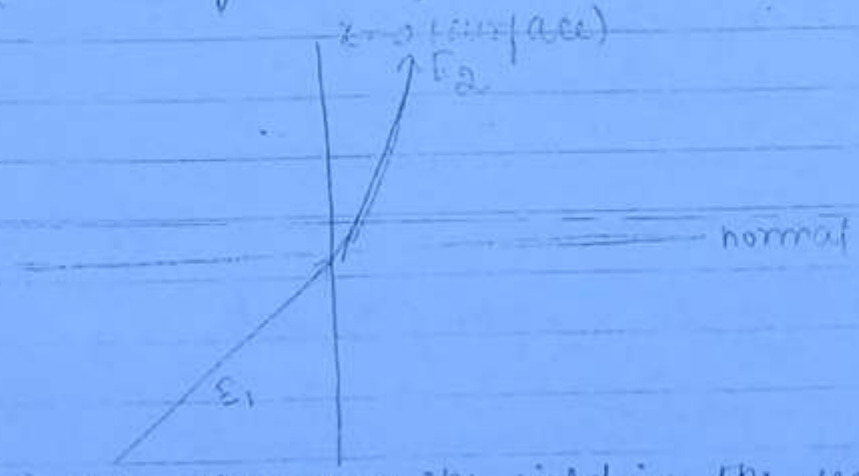
$$= 3\epsilon_0 a_x$$

$$E_{n2} = \frac{D_{n2}}{\epsilon} = \frac{3\epsilon_0 a_x}{2.5\epsilon_0} = 1.2a_x$$

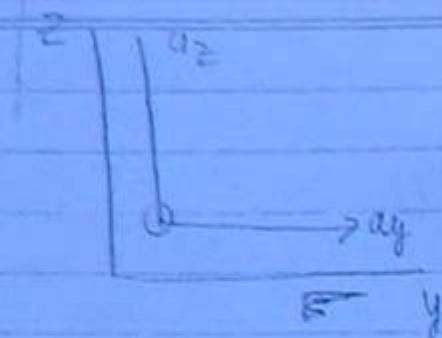
$$E_g = 1.2a_x - 3a_y + a_z \quad \underline{\underline{Ans}}$$

$$D_1 = \epsilon_0 (3a_x - 4.5a_y + 1.5a_z) \quad D_2 = \epsilon_0 (3a_x - 7.5a_y + 2.5a_z)$$

Note 3

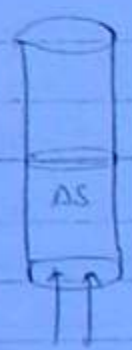
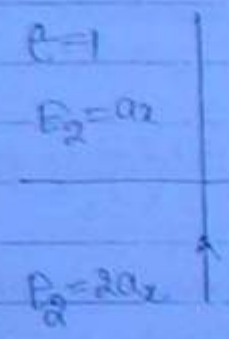


As seen in the diagram the field in the second medium is shifting away from the normal which can be understood the decrease normal components in ϵ_2 .
 It can also be understood that the field is shifting towards the boundary increase tangential component as seen in D_2 .



$y-z$ plane
 $x=0$ plane
 $a_2 \rightarrow$ normal
 $a_y, a_z \rightarrow$ tangential

37 Q.8



ϵ_0

$$\begin{aligned}
 2 \cdot 2\epsilon_0 \cdot \Delta S &= \text{Entering} \\
 1 \cdot 1\epsilon_0 \cdot \Delta S &= \text{Leaving} \\
 P_s \cdot \Delta S &= -3\epsilon_0 \Delta S \\
 P_s &= -3\epsilon_0
 \end{aligned}$$

Sink at the boundary

Extension: Magnetic Boundary Conditions

1. $B_{n1} = B_{n2}$ Apply Maxwell III ϵ_0^v
 Always $\oint B \cdot dl = 0$
2. $H_{t1} = H_{t2}$ Apply Maxwell IV ϵ_0^v
 not always $\oint H \cdot dl = I$
 $H_{t1} = H_{t2} + I$

\bar{K} = surface current density A/m

(91)

Note:

D and ρ_c

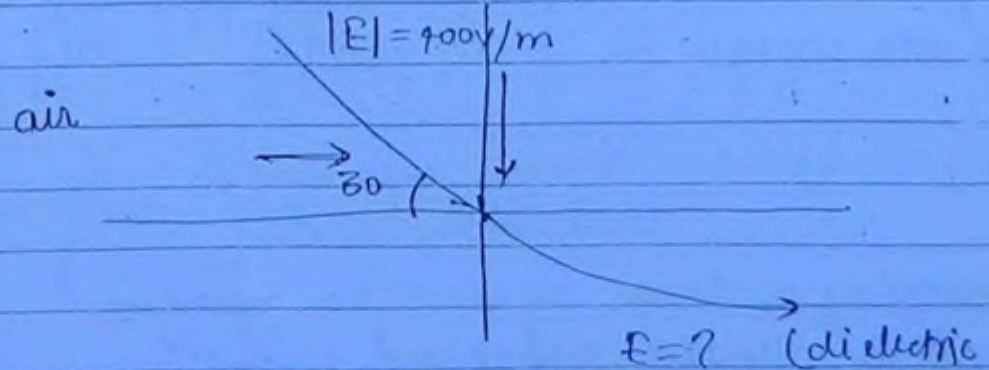
have same units C/m^2 \bar{H} and \bar{K} have the same units.

A/m

38 W.B

$z < 0$	$z > 0$
$\mu_{R1} = 2$	$\mu_{R2} = 1$
$\bar{B}_1 = 1.2\bar{a}_x + 0.8\bar{a}_y + 0.4\bar{a}_z$	B_2
$B_{n1} = 0.4\bar{a}_z$	$H_2 = ?$
$\therefore z=0$	$B_{n2} = 0.4\bar{a}_z$
$B_{t1} = 1.2\bar{a}_x + 0.8\bar{a}_y$	$H_{t2} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} (0.6\bar{a}_x + 0.4\bar{a}_y)$
$H_{t1} = \frac{B_{t1}}{\mu_{R1}}$	$H_{n2} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} (0.4\bar{a}_z)$
$= \frac{1}{2\mu_0} (1.2\bar{a}_x + 0.8\bar{a}_y)$	
$= \frac{1}{\mu_0} (0.6\bar{a}_x + 0.4\bar{a}_y)$	

39 W.B



\cos is tangential as it is adjacent
 \sin is taken as normal.

$$E_{11} = 400 \cos 30^\circ = 400 \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = 200\sqrt{3} = E_{12}$$

$$E_{11} = 400 \sin 30^\circ = 200$$

(92)

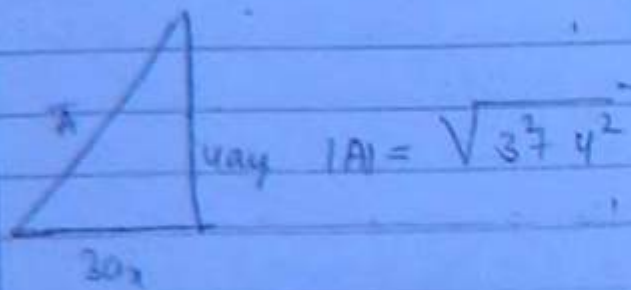
$$D_{n1} = 200 \epsilon_0 = D_{n2}$$

$$E_{n2} = \frac{200 \epsilon_0}{\epsilon_r}$$

$$\left\{ \epsilon_r = 20 \epsilon_0 \right\}$$

$$E_{n2} = \frac{200 \epsilon_0}{20 \epsilon_0} = 10$$

(magnitude) $E_2 = \sqrt{(200\sqrt{3})^2 + (10)^2} \approx 200\sqrt{3}$



Energy Density in a electric field.

Consider a system of n discrete point charges having a electric field E and the total energy W_E .
The total energy can be equal to the energy expended in assembling the charges in their positions.

Total energy in E field = Energy expended in assembly the charges

It involves bringing a charge against the repulsive force of the quanta already assembled charge.

V_{21} = potential of 2 due to charge 1

(93)

$$W_E \left\{ \begin{aligned} W_1 &= 0 \\ W_2 &= -Q_2 V_{21} \\ W_3 &= -Q_3 V_{31} - Q_3 V_{32} \\ W_4 &= -Q_4 V_{41} - Q_4 V_{42} - Q_4 V_{43} \\ &\vdots \\ W_n &= -Q_n V_{n1} - Q_n V_{n2} - \dots - Q_n V_{n(n-1)} \end{aligned} \right.$$

The total energy W_E is the sum of all the energy

The subscript can be interchange without changing the meaning hence

$$Q_2 \cdot V_{21} = \frac{Q_2 \cdot Q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{21}}$$

$$Q_1 \cdot V_{12} = \frac{Q_1 \cdot Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{12}}$$

$$W_E \left\{ \begin{aligned} W_1 &= 0 \\ W_2 &= -Q_1 V_{12} \\ W_3 &= -Q_1 V_{13} - Q_2 V_{23} \\ W_4 &= -Q_1 V_{14} - Q_2 V_{24} - Q_3 V_{34} \\ &\vdots \\ W_n &= -Q_1 V_{1n} - \dots - Q_{n-1} V_{(n-1)n} \end{aligned} \right.$$

$$2W_E = -Q_1 V_1 - Q_2 V_2 - Q_3 V_3 - \dots - Q_n V_n$$

total energy

$$W_E = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n Q_i V_i$$

for continuous charges & E fields

$$W_E = -\frac{1}{2} \int \rho_v V dv \quad \left\{ Q = \int \rho_v dv \right\}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \int (\nabla \cdot D) V dv$$

$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int D (\nabla \cdot \nabla) dv$$

$$W_E = \int \frac{1}{2} (D \cdot E) dv$$

(94)

$$\frac{dW_E}{dv} = \frac{1}{2} D \cdot E$$

$$\frac{dW_E}{dv} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2$$

$\frac{dW_E}{dv}$ = strength of the energy at every point in the E field.

$$\frac{dW_E}{dv} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2$$

Note 1.

$$D \cdot E = \frac{\text{Joule}}{m^3} = \frac{\text{Newton} \times \text{meter}}{m^3} = \frac{\text{Newton}}{m^2}$$

$$\frac{N \cdot C}{C \cdot m^2} \Rightarrow \frac{\text{Newton}}{m^2} = \text{Pressure.}$$

2. $W_E = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon V^2$ is similar to $\frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2$

Extension:-

$$\frac{dW_H}{dv} = \frac{1}{2} \mu H^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} B \cdot H$$

It is similar to $\frac{1}{2} \mu I^2$

Ohm's law and Continuity Eqⁿ.

$$I = \frac{Q}{t} = \frac{Ne}{t} = \frac{NeVA}{eA}$$

$$I = neAV$$

(95)

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int \rho_v dv = \int \frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t} dv$$

Q = continuous volume charge movement

the current can be considered as the current crossing the closed surface formed by the volume charge. Hence in this case

$$I = \oint \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

Note: Generally $\oint \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = 0$ (loop integral) means law of conservation of charge because entering charge is equal to the leaving charge.

Apply divergence theorem

$$\oint \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}) dv$$

Hence by comparison.

$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} = \frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t}$	continuity Eq ⁿ .
--	------------------------------

This is called as continuity Eqⁿ which is the definition of current in field theory.

- outflow of current depends on movement of volume charge density

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial x}$$

Apply for y-axis.

$$\nabla \cdot J = \frac{\partial J_y}{\partial z}$$

(96)

$$\nabla \cdot J = \frac{\partial J}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial J_y}{\partial z}$$

$$\partial J = \rho_v \frac{\partial x}{\partial t}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \therefore \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} &= v_d \\ &\text{drift velocity} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$J = \rho_v v_d$$

$$v_d \propto E$$

$$v_d = \mu E$$

mobility (ability to move)

$$J = \rho_v \mu E$$

on point form

$$J = \sigma E$$

Ohm's law & continuity Eqn in

here $\sigma = \rho_v \mu$ conductivity

Hence conductivity is ability to allow current in to the medium. It is the product of availability and ability to move.

$\sigma \rightarrow$ very good conductor

$$\frac{J}{\sigma} = E$$

$$J = \sigma E$$

$$E = 0$$

- E field cannot exist inside a good conductor
- only flow exist but not accumulation of charge - Hence only current exist but not E field.

$$V = \int \rho \cdot dl = \text{const} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (97)$$

Every conductor is an equipotential surface
Potential diff. b/w any 2 points is zero.

For conductor surface as $\sigma = \infty$ on the surface

1. $E_{\text{along the surface}} = E_{\text{tan}} = 0 = E_t$
(Electric field never be parallel) to the conductor surface.

2. $D_{\text{normal to the surface}} = D_{\text{normal}} \neq 0$

$$\boxed{D_n = \rho_s}$$

case 2 $\sigma = 0$ very good dielectric

$$J = \sigma E \Rightarrow J = 0 \times E$$

$$J = 0$$

- E field can exist inside a good dielectric
- not flow exist but accumulation exists hence only E field exist

$$\nabla \cdot J = \frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t}$$

$$J = \sigma E$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\sigma E) = \frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t}$$

$$\sigma \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{D}{\epsilon} \right) = \frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \rho_v$$

(78)

The solution of the ρ_v^n is - an exponentially decaying function (derivative back the same function is exponential) since

$$\rho_v(t) = \rho_{v0} \cdot e^{-\frac{t\sigma}{\epsilon}}$$

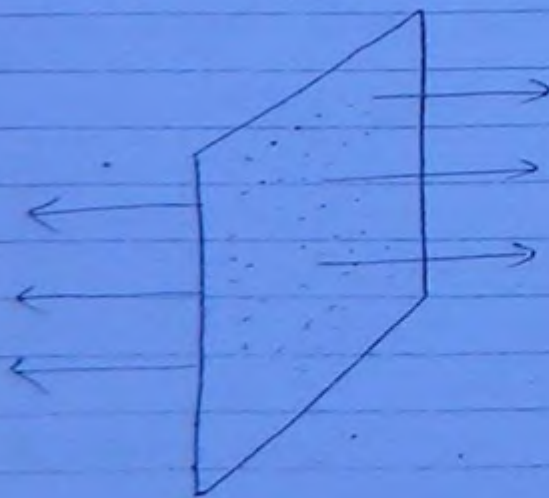
The ρ_v^n shows the any charge placed in any medium exponentially spread into the medium with the time constt depending on (ϵ/σ)

This time constt is called as relaxation time or Average spreading time -

$$\frac{\epsilon}{\sigma} = \text{Relaxation time}$$

If $\sigma = \infty$, good conductor $\frac{\epsilon}{\sigma} = 0$

Sheet charges of ρ_s C/m² & uniform fields.



$$D = \frac{\rho_s}{2}$$

$$E \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$$

$$E \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$$

E (uniform)

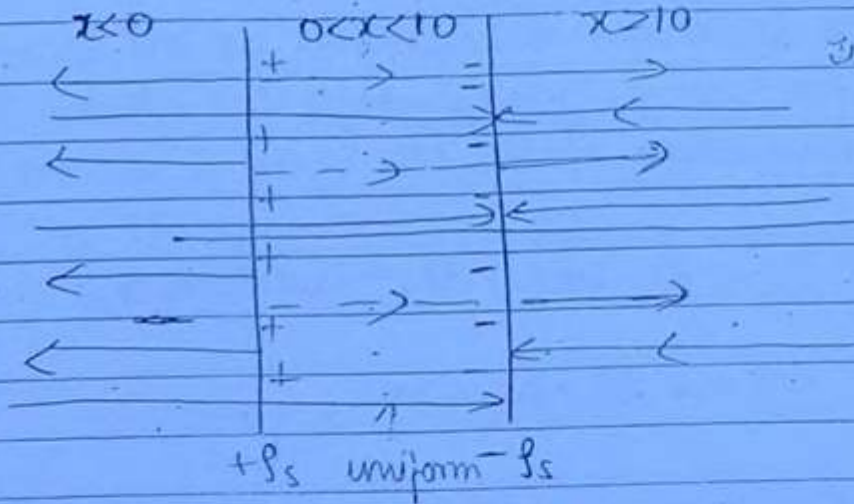
$$E(x)$$

$$|d\vec{l}| = \vec{k} ds = \vec{j} dv$$

$$H = \frac{\mu_0 K}{2} \times a_N$$

$$D = \frac{\rho_s}{2} a_N$$

99



Two opposite field
of equal strength
cancel each
other

$$E_1 = \left| \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} \right| (-a_x)$$

$$E_2 = \left| \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} \right| (a_x)$$

left side $E=0$

Right side two fields because of two sheets.

$$E_1 = \left| \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} \right| a_x$$

$$E_2 = \left| \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} \right| (-a_x)$$

$E_0 = 0$ on right also.

field in b/w.

$$E = \frac{\rho_s}{\epsilon_0} a_x$$

- consider an infinite sheet of charge density ρ_s C/m² the field can be found Normal to the sheet and only to the right or left of the sheet.

(10)

- The sheet is ^{being} infinitely large the lines are not divergent but are parallel to themselves.

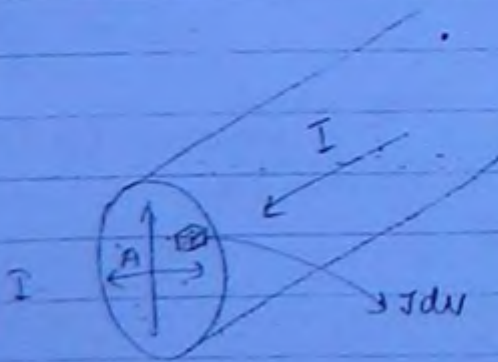
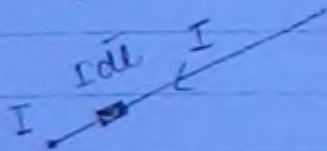
Later lines are best example

- Hence the strength is same everywhere as the spacing b/w the lines is the same everywhere the flux density is same everywhere Hence the field is a uniform field.

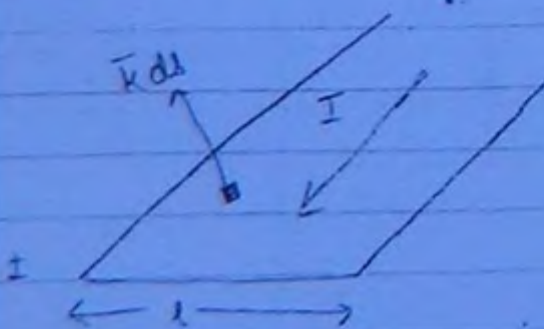
Hence the density: $D = \frac{\rho_s}{\epsilon_0}$ with the direction a_N

where $a_N =$ unit normal to the sheet.

Sheet of currents K A/m



$$J = \frac{I}{A} = \frac{\text{Ampere}}{\text{m}^2}$$



$$K = \frac{I}{l} = \frac{\text{Amp}}{\text{meter}}$$

Two infinite sheets of charge density equivalent opposite nature have field only b/w the sheets and cancel out everywhere else

(20)

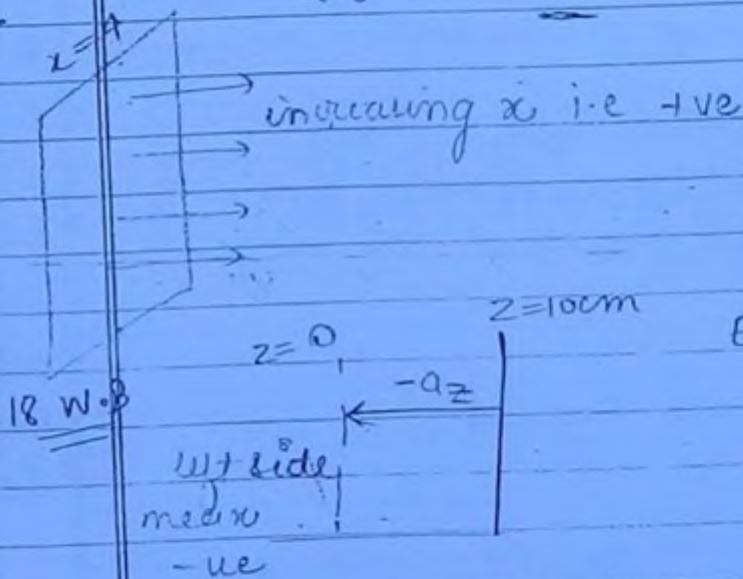
W.B

3 infinite sheets — $18 \text{ nC/m}^2 \pm a_x$ at $x=4$
 $9 \text{ nC/m}^2 \pm a_y$ at $y=3$
 $-24 \text{ nC/m}^2 \pm a_z$ at $z=0$

$$E = E_1 a_x + E_2 a_y + E_3 a_z$$

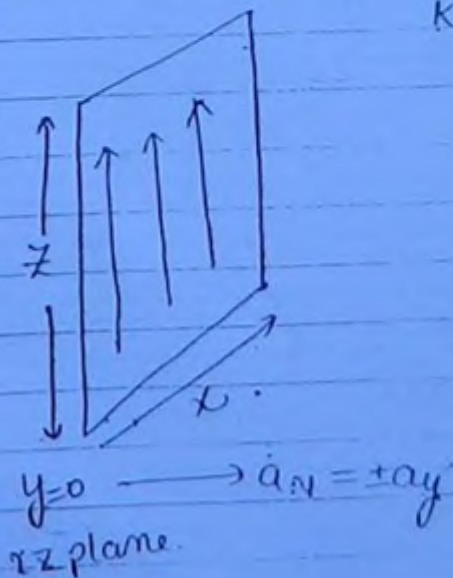
$$E = \frac{D}{\epsilon} = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon} a_n$$

$$E_1 = \frac{18}{2\epsilon_0} a_x \quad E_2 = \frac{+9}{2\epsilon_0} a_y \quad E_3 = \frac{-24}{2\epsilon_0} a_z$$



$$E = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon} = \frac{20 \times 10^9}{2 \times 1} = -360 \times 10^9 \text{ V/m}$$

19 W.B



$$\bar{K} = 30 \hat{k} = 30 a_z \text{ mA/m}$$

$$H \text{ at } (1, 20, -2) = ?$$

$$H = \frac{\bar{K} \times a_n}{2}$$

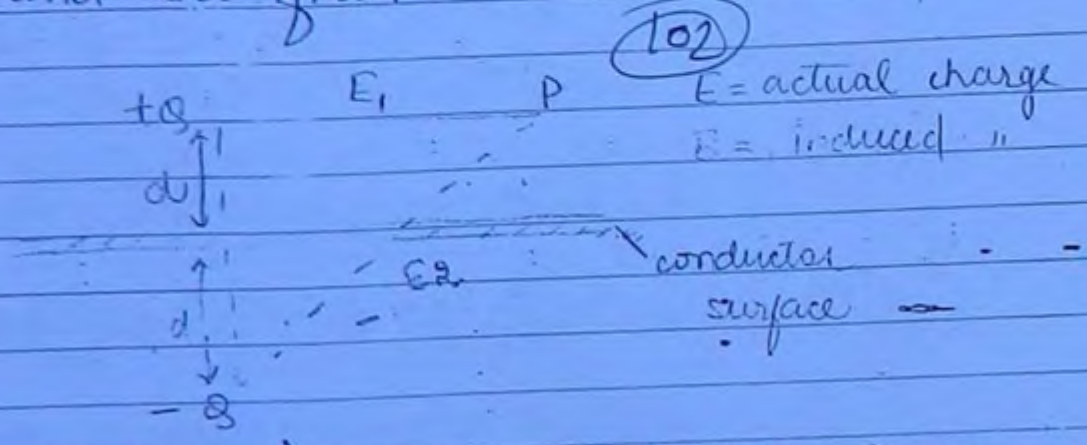
$$= \frac{30 \times a_n}{2}$$

$$= 15 (a_z \times a_y)$$

$$= -15 a_x$$

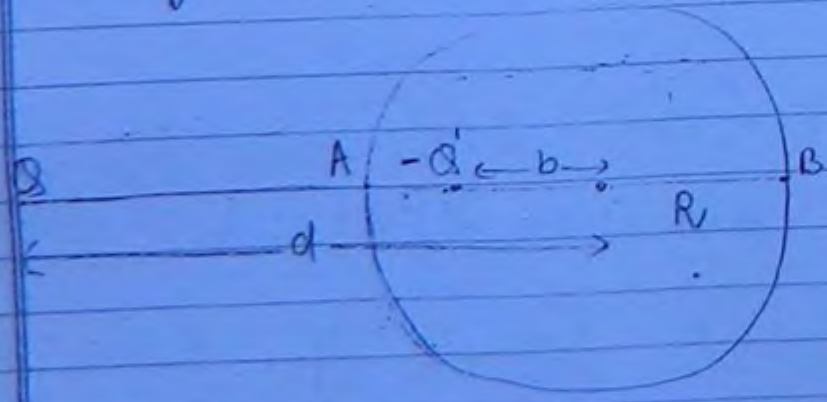
current direction

When charge is brought to the near a conductor surface. The charges inside a conductor are redistributed due to the field of the charge that is the charges are displaced. Hence the final field anywhere is sum of the field of the actual charge and the field due to this induced charge.



This induced charge is represented with a image charge following the dynamics of a mirror. Hence for a flat conductor the charges are equal the image has opposite sign.

Q.W.8 Image should always be with coaxial.



Let induced charge = image charge = $-Q'$
let the image be at b distance

Every conductor is a equipotential surface

$$\text{Let } V_A = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(d-R)} - \frac{Q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0(R-b)} = 0 \quad (103)$$

Let find potential at B also so that eqⁿ become simple.

$$V_B = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(d+R)} - \frac{Q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0(R+b)} = 0$$

Potential at A and B are zero because the sphere is given a grounded sphere.

$$\frac{Q}{R-b} = \frac{d-R}{R+b} = \frac{d+R}{R+b}$$

29 W.B

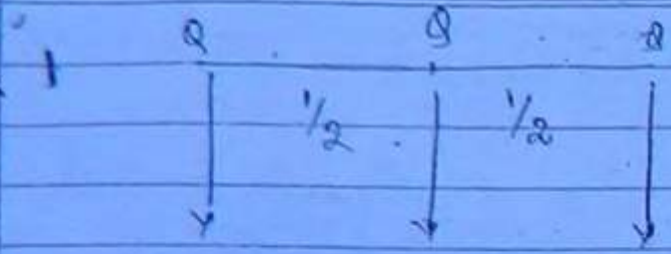
$$W_E = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n Q_i V_i$$

$$W_E = -\frac{1}{2} \sum Q_i \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$W_E \propto \frac{1}{r}$$

$$\frac{W_1}{W_2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

not the method



104

$$W_1 = 0$$

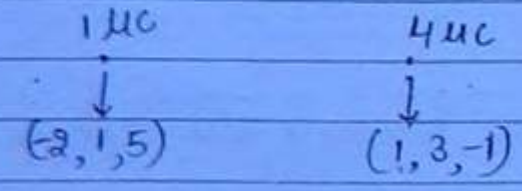
$$W_2 = \frac{Q \cdot Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}$$

$$W_3 = \frac{Q \cdot Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (1)} + \frac{Q \cdot Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}$$

$$W_E = \frac{5Q^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

$$W_{E2} = \frac{5Q^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0}$$

QR W.B



$$W_1 = 0$$

$$W_2 = \frac{-Q_1 \cdot Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$W_2 = \frac{1 \times 4 \times 10^{-12}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \sqrt{3^2 + 2^2 + 6^2}}$$

$$W_E = W_1 + W_2 = 5.14 \text{ mJ}$$

We can also use $W_E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^2 Q_i V_i$

70 W.B

$D_n = \rho_s$ as the surface charge density is

$$\rho_s = \frac{2 \sqrt{(1)^2 + (\sqrt{3})^2}}{2\sqrt{4}}$$

$$\rho_s = 2 \times 2$$

$$\rho_s = 4 \text{ C/m}^2$$

$$\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = 0 \quad \oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = 0$$

i) $Q = 0$

ii) $+Q, -Q$

(105)

Magnetic dipole in magnetic field.

- Whenever a current flows in a closed line it is treated as magnetic dipole.
- finite Area.

Dipole moment $m = I \times \text{area} = I \cdot A$

Electric dipole in Electric field

- whenever two charges of equal and opposite are separated by a finite distance

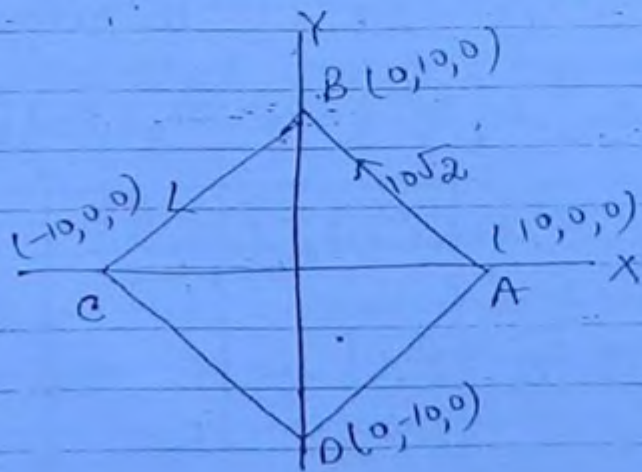
Electric-dipole
finite distance

Dipole moment $p = Q \cdot d$

The importance of dipole moment is it inside the torque or the moment of the dipole in an external field such that magnetic torque is equal $= T = M \times B$

Electric torque is equal $T = P \times E$

$B \cdot W \cdot B$



$$M = I \times \text{Area}$$

$$= 0.01 \times (10\sqrt{2})^2$$

$$= 2$$

- M 's direction is the direction of the area surface of the loop

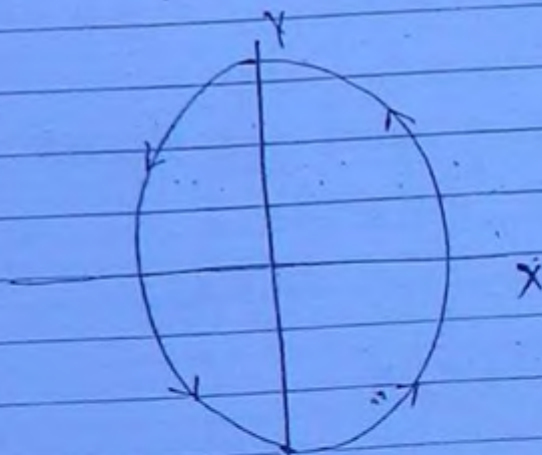
Surface $z = 0$, xy plane

Direction = $\pm a_z$

0.1

current is anticlockwise as per RHS thumb direction
M direction $(+ve +a_z)$ $\pi y + 2a_z$

45 W.B.



$$\begin{aligned}\text{Magnetic dipole moment (Torque)} &= I \times A \\ M &= I \times (\pi r^2) \\ &= (0.1) \times \pi \times (10^{-3})^2 a_z\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Torque} &= M \times B \\ &= [(0.1) \times \pi \times (10^{-3})^2 a_z] \times [10^{-5} (2a_x - 2a_y + a_z)] \\ &= [10^{-7} \pi a_z] \times [10^{-5} (2a_x - 2a_y + a_z)] \\ &= [2 \times 10^{-12} \pi a_y - 2 \times 10^{-12} \pi a_x] \\ &= 2 \times 10^{-12} \pi [a_y + a_x]\end{aligned}$$

capacitors & Inductors:

(107)

- Capacitors -

Ability to hold E field confining it into a small region

$$C = \text{Farads} = \frac{\oint D \cdot d\mathbf{s}}{\int E \cdot d\mathbf{l}} = \frac{\epsilon \oint E \cdot d\mathbf{s}}{\int E \cdot d\mathbf{l}} = \frac{Q}{V}$$

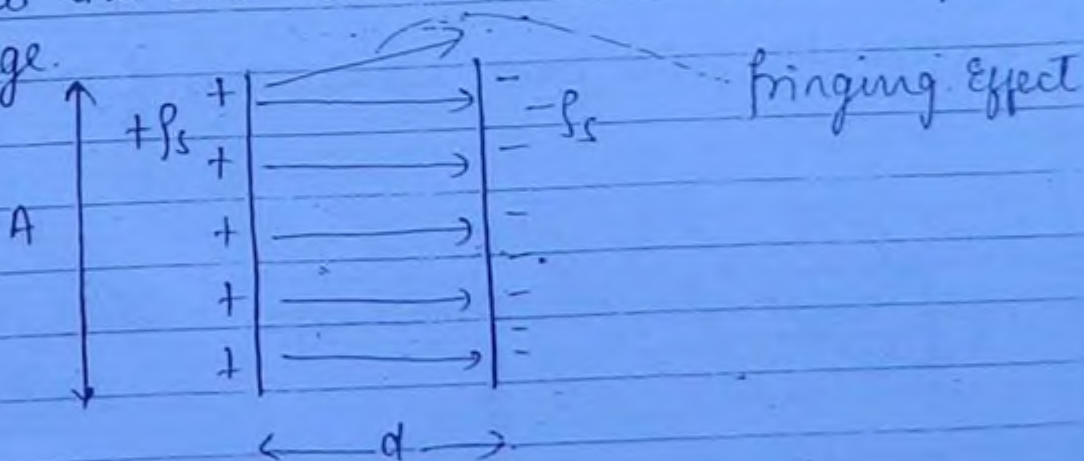
• It is always measure in terms of charge utilize and the potential develop by this charge. because potential is accumulation and hence the measure of holding ability.

• The best examples of capacitor are geometry involving
eg. Parallel plates
concentric cylinders
concentric spheres.

Parallel Plate capacitors.

- Two sheet charge of Area A
separation d ($A \gg d$)

- since the sheet can be considered an infinite sheet of charge.



$$C = \frac{Q}{V} \quad Q = \rho_s A$$

$$V = Ed = \frac{P_c d}{\epsilon}$$

so

$$C = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

(108)

$$C = \epsilon \oint E \cdot ds$$

$$\oint E \cdot dl$$

$E = \text{const.}$ for uniform field.

$$C = \frac{\epsilon EA}{E \cdot d} = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

Total energy held by the field

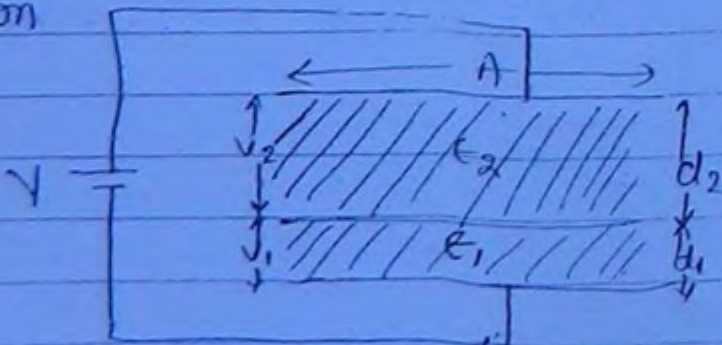
$$W_E = \left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2 \right) (Ad)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\epsilon A}{d} (Ed)^2$$

$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} CV^2$$

Multiple dielectrics in parallel plate capacitor

(i) Dielectric & capacitor plates have equal area of cross section



ϵ_1 and $\epsilon_2 \rightarrow$ series

$$C_1 = \frac{\epsilon_1 A}{d_1}$$

$$C_2 = \frac{\epsilon_2 A}{d_2}$$

(100)

voltage divides b/w the dielectrics.

$$\boxed{V_1 + V_2 = V}$$

$$C_{eq} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2}} \quad (\text{in series})$$

$$= \frac{C_1 C_2}{C_1 + C_2}$$

$$C_{eq} \Rightarrow \frac{C_1 C_2}{C_1 + C_2}$$

$$C_{eq} = \frac{\epsilon_1 A}{d_1} \cdot \frac{\epsilon_2 A}{d_2}$$

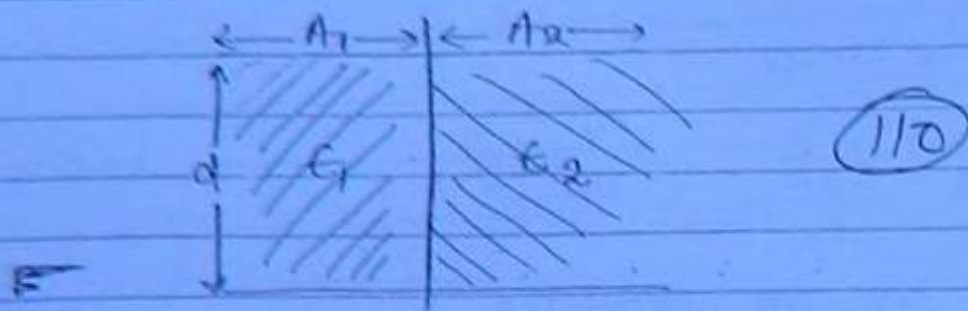
$$\frac{\epsilon_1 A}{d_1} + \frac{\epsilon_2 A}{d_2}$$

$C_1 V_1 = C_2 V_2$ (as charge is common and voltage divides in series).

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{C_2}{C_1}$$

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{\epsilon_2 \cdot d_1}{d_2 \cdot \epsilon_1}$$

re(ri) Dielectrics & capacitor plates have equal separation / thickness



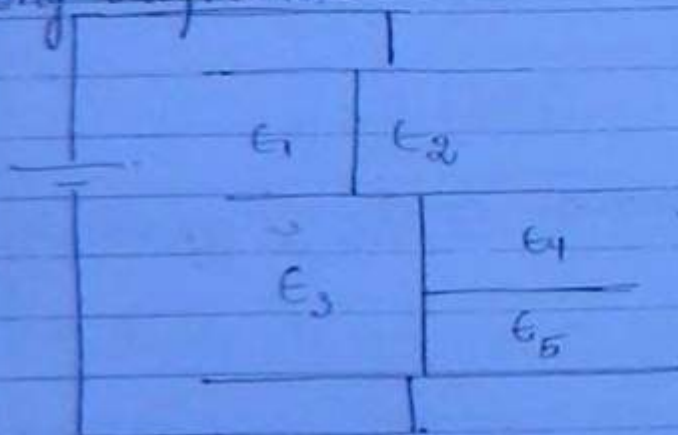
$C_1, C_2 \rightarrow$ are in shunt parallel.

voltage applied to plates = voltage b/w the dielectrics

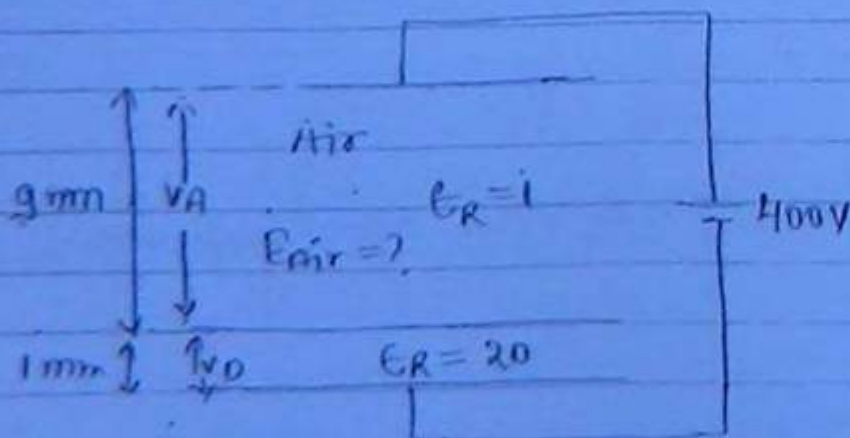
$$C_{eq} = C_1 + C_2$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_1 A_1}{d} + \frac{\epsilon_2 A_2}{d}$$

Identify the equivalent capacitance in the following diagram:



$$C_{eq} = (C_1 \text{ parallel } C_2) \text{ series } (C_3 \text{ parallel } (C_4 \text{ series } C_5))$$



$$V_A + V_D = 400$$

$$\frac{V_A}{V_D} = \frac{20 \times 9}{1 \times 1}$$

$$\frac{V_A}{V_D} = 180$$

$$180V_D + V_D = 400$$

$$181V_D = 400$$

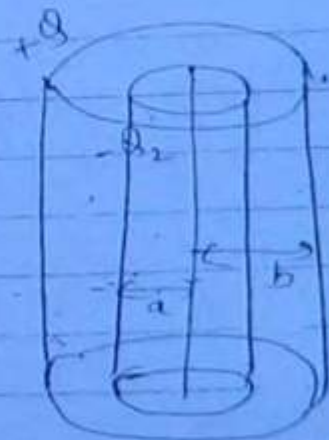
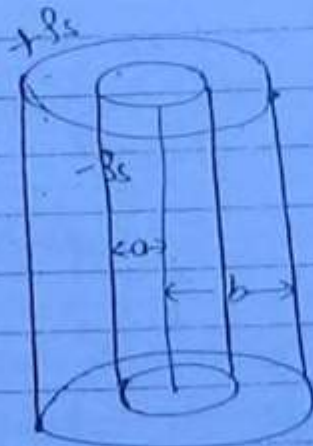
$$V_D = 2.21$$

$$V_A + 2.21 = 400$$

$$V_A = 397.8V$$

$$E = \frac{V_A}{d} = \frac{397.8V}{9\text{mm}} \approx 44\text{KV/m}$$

concentric cylinders:



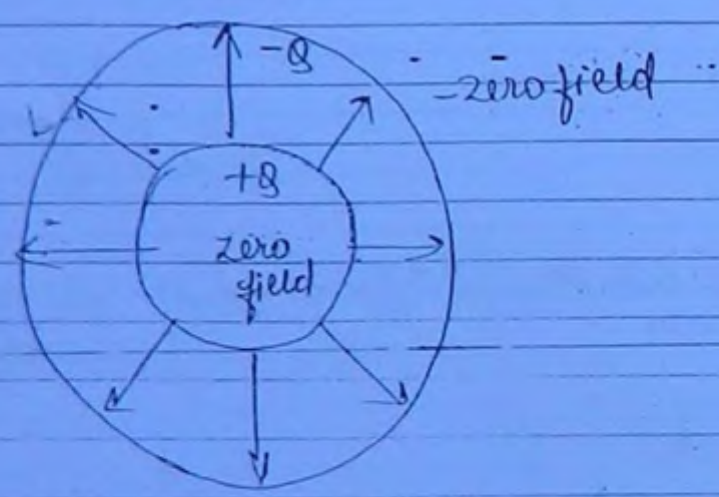
- (i) If two concentric cylinders have equal and opposite charge densities that means the charges are unequal on their surfaces. Hence a field or flux leaving exist outside the cylinder also.

ii If two concentric cylinders have equal and opposite charge the densities are unequally spread but net flux outside of cylinder is zero. Hence the field is confined b/w the cylinders

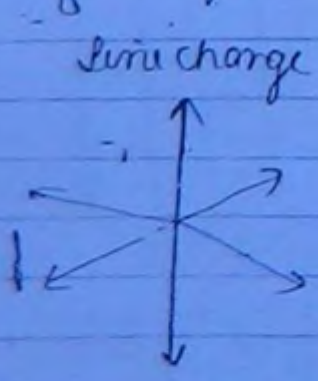
(112)

$$\rho_{s1} = \frac{Q}{2\pi b h}$$

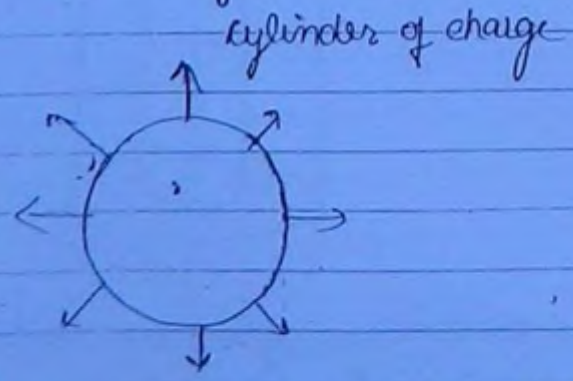
$$\rho_{s2} = \frac{-Q}{2\pi a h}$$



A charge on the cylindrical surface has the same radial field, divergent from the surface similar to that of a field from a line charge.



$$E \propto \frac{1}{r}$$



$$E \propto \frac{1}{r}$$

Inductors:

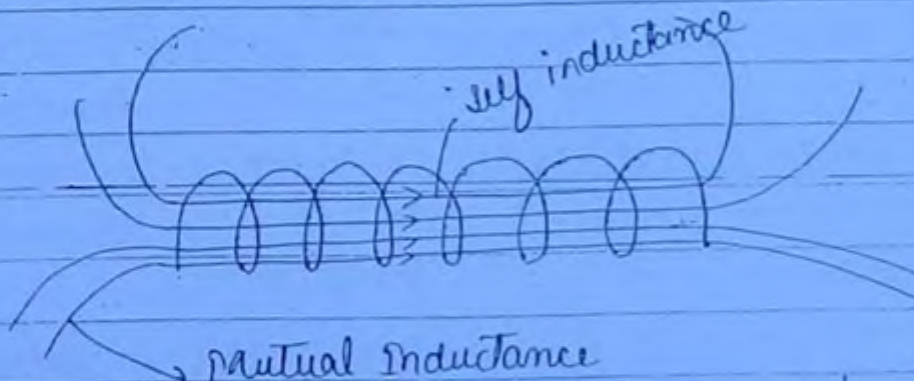
- Ability to hold magnetic field (H) confined into a small region is called as Inductance.

(113)

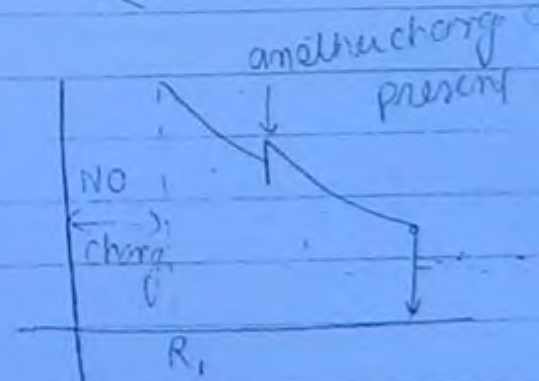
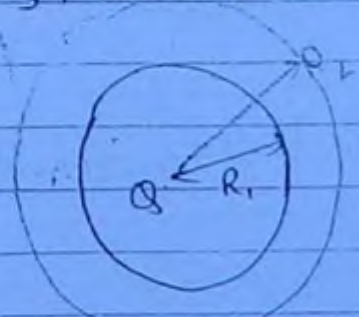
Henry $L = \frac{\int B \cdot ds}{\int H \cdot dl} = \frac{\mu \int H \cdot ds}{\int H \cdot dl} = \frac{\Psi_m = \text{flux}}{I \cdot \text{current}}$

Inductance is a measure of the confined flux and the current utilize for this confinement.

- Geometries :- Solenoids } All the have some or
 - concentric cylinders } other circular dielectro
 - Toroids. }



47 W.B



- The graph shows that the field is zero upto R_1 distance hence there is no charge enclosed upto R_1 so that charge is hollow sphere of charge Q , and radius R_1 .

51. $J \cdot A = \frac{\text{Amp} \times \text{weber}}{m^2 \cdot m}$

$\frac{\text{weber}}{m} = \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{Amp} \cdot m}$

$$\frac{\text{number}}{m} = \frac{W}{\text{Joules}}$$

(114)

$$I \cdot A = \frac{\text{Amp}}{m^2} \times \frac{\text{number}}{m} = \frac{\text{Amp}}{m^2} \times \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{Amp} \cdot m} = \frac{\text{Joule}}{m^3}$$

Summary 1

Scalar function $\xrightarrow{\nabla = \text{gradient}}$ Vector
Intensity per m

eg. voltage $V \xrightarrow{\nabla \cdot V} E$ volts/m

vector function $\xrightarrow{\nabla \times \text{curl}}$ vector function
Intensity per m \rightarrow Density per m^3

eg. Intensity

vector function \rightarrow scalar function

Density \rightarrow (per m^3) volume

C/m^2 flux density $\xrightarrow{\nabla \cdot D} \rho_v$ (C/m^3)

summary 2.
Maxwell's Equations:
Integral form

(115)

Point form

Not Maxwell's Eqⁿ.
Open integrals.

1. $\oint D \cdot d\ell = Q$

1. $\nabla \cdot D = \rho_v$

2. $\oint E \cdot d\ell = 0$ ✓

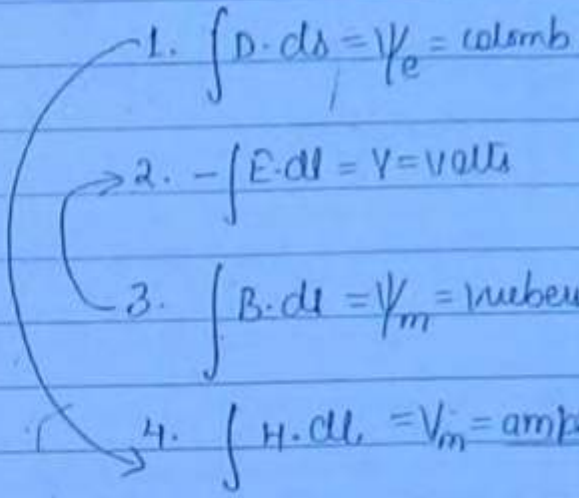
2. $\nabla \times E = 0$

3. $\oint B \cdot d\ell = 0$

3. $\nabla \cdot B = 0$

4. $\oint H \cdot d\ell = I$ ✓

4. $\nabla \times H = J$



Note: - Rate of change of magnetic flux with time is EMF voltage.
 Rate of change of electric flux with the time is current.

weber = volts [Faraday's Law]
 sec

colomb = amps
 sec

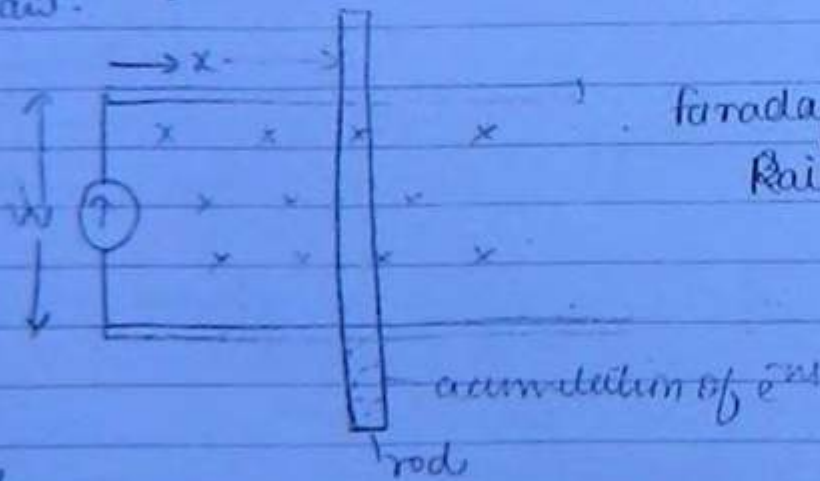
Time varying fields & Maxwell's Eqⁿ (116)

- Maxwell's Ist and IIIrd Eqⁿ i.e surface integrals are unmodified and are consistent for time varying fields also. However the line integrals are modified.

Faraday's Law and Maxwell's II Eqⁿ

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \quad \& \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0$$

Faraday's law states that the EMF is produced even in a closed conductor and the magnetic flux through the area of the conductor changes with the time. Induced voltage opposes the changing flux - that is Lenz law.



Faraday's sliding Rod experiment.

using $\frac{d\phi}{dt}$

Hence
$$\mathcal{V} = \oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = - \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

$$V = \frac{-d}{dt} (B \cdot A)$$

$$(F_y = q(V_x \times B_z))$$

(117)

$$= -B W \frac{dx}{dt}$$

$$V = -B \cdot W \cdot v_x$$

$$V = \oint E \cdot dl = \frac{-d}{dt} \int B \cdot dl$$

$$(\nabla \times E) \cdot dl = \oint E^2 \cdot dl = \int \frac{-\partial B}{\partial t} \cdot dl$$

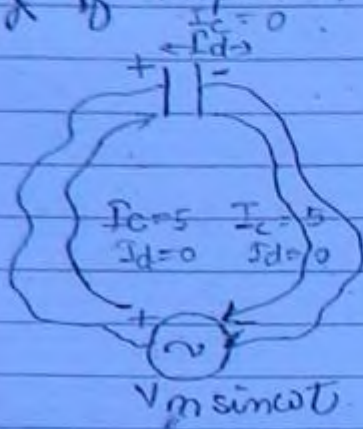
$$\oint E \cdot dl = \int \frac{-\partial B}{\partial t} \cdot ds \quad \& \quad \nabla \times E = \frac{-\partial B}{\partial t}$$

$\nabla \times E = \frac{-\partial B}{\partial t}$	Hence modified
--	----------------

Note: Potential at a point is unique at a time but it can change at various time. Hence the modification

Inconsistency of Amper's law

Maxwell's IV Eqⁿ.



118

$$I = \frac{cdv}{dt}$$

$$I = \epsilon \cdot w \cdot v_m \sin(\omega t + 90^\circ)$$

$$v_m \sin \omega t = \left(\frac{1}{j\omega \epsilon} \right) I \quad - \{ e^{j90} = j \}$$

$$V = IX$$

It is clear from the eqⁿ that a current flows in the wire and on the plate of the capacitor but there is no current b/w capacitor plates. Hence ampere's law fails to explain the closed nature of current in the ckt.

Maxwell added a term I_d or J_d which is said to flow b/w the capacitor plates making the ckt closed.

Applying continuity Eqⁿ.

$$\nabla \cdot J_d = \frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot J_d = \frac{\partial (\nabla \cdot D)}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot J_d = \nabla \cdot \frac{\partial D}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{220}{\sqrt{2}} = 230V$$

$$\oint \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = I_c + I_d$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J}_c + \mathbf{J}_d$$

classmate

Date _____

Page _____

$$I_d = \int \frac{\partial D}{\partial t} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

$$J_d = \frac{\partial D}{\partial t}$$

(119)

The term J_d is called as displacement current density and it accepted as a current format but it is not due to a moving electron it is due to a time varying electric flux line.

Physical interpretation of flow in a capacitor.

When a time varying voltage is given to the capacitor the plates are alternately charge and discharge in accordance to the polarity changes. This is itself a continuous process and hence the wires always have a I_c or I_c .

Between the plates of the capacitor there is an electric flux changing due to charge and discharge of the plates. This is a form of current this is J_d or I_d .

Mathematically

$$|I_c| = |I_d|$$

In this example

Summary:

$$1. \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{J}_c$$

$$= \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} + \sigma \mathbf{E} \quad (\text{Time varying electric field})$$

$$2. \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = -\mu \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t}$$