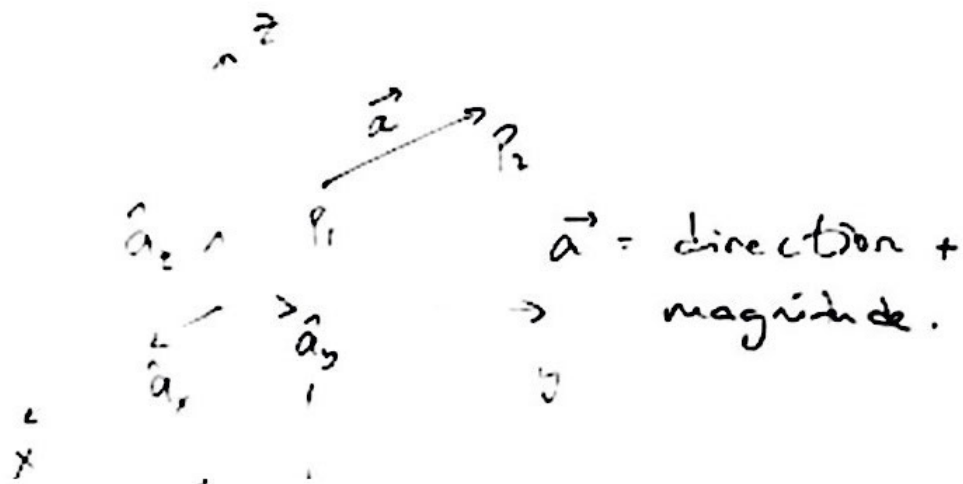


Vectors:



Unit vectors magnitude = 1

direction in the major axis.

$P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)$

Direction unit vector
Magnitude

Then,

$$\vec{a} = \langle x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, z_2 - z_1 \rangle = \hat{a}_x(x_2 - x_1) + \hat{a}_y(y_2 - y_1) + \hat{a}_z(z_2 - z_1)$$

Components of the vector \vec{a}

where

$\hat{a}_x, \hat{a}_y, \hat{a}_z$ are unit vectors.

$$|\hat{a}_x| = \text{Magnitude of } \hat{a}_x \\ = 1$$

$$|\hat{a}_y| = 1, |\hat{a}_z| = 1$$

If $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$

Then

$$|\vec{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}$$

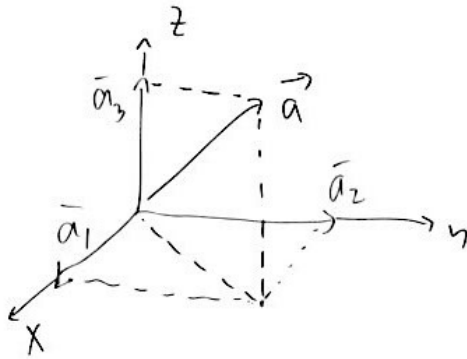


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Differentials:

$\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z$

In the limit case

$\lim \Delta x = dx$

$\Delta x = x_1 - x_2 \rightarrow 0$

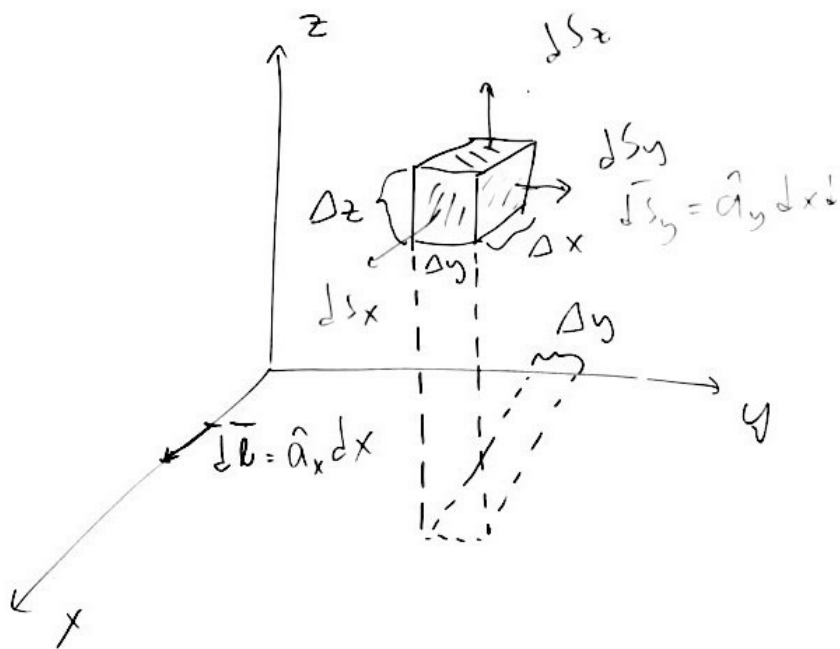


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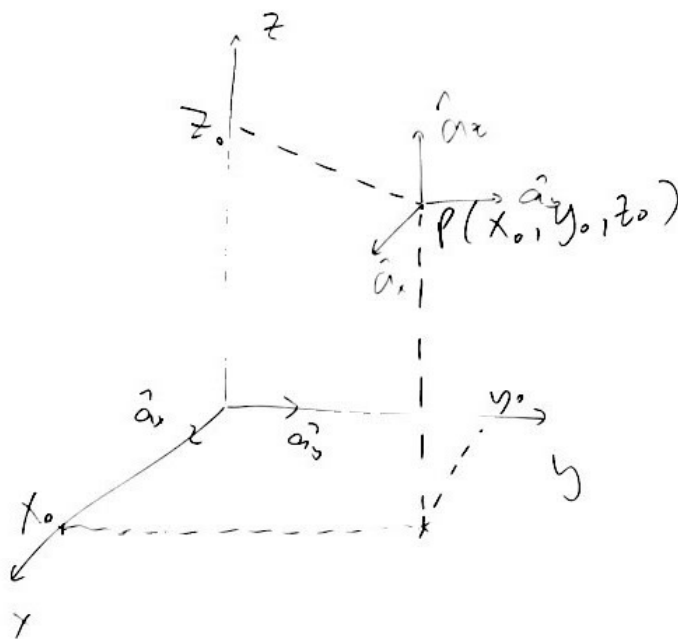
Coordinate Systems:

1) Rectangular (Cartesian) Coord. System.

Base axes are x, y, z . ! Base vectors:

A point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$

$\hat{a}_x, \hat{a}_y, \hat{a}_z$



$$\hat{a}_x \cdot \hat{a}_y = 0$$

$$\hat{a}_y \cdot \hat{a}_z = 0$$

$$\hat{a}_x \cdot \hat{a}_z = 0$$

$$\hat{a}_x \times \hat{a}_y = \hat{a}_z$$

$$\hat{a}_y \times \hat{a}_z = \hat{a}_x$$

$$\hat{a}_z \times \hat{a}_x = \hat{a}_y$$

Differential lengths:

$$dx, dy, dz$$

Differential areas:

$$dS_x = dy dz$$

$$dS_y = dx dz$$

$$dS_z = dx dy$$

Vector Differentials:

$$\vec{dl} = \hat{a}_x dx + \hat{a}_y dy + \hat{a}_z dz \quad (\text{Diff. length vector})$$

Vector Surface Differentials:

$$\vec{dS}_x = \hat{a}_x dy dz$$

$$\vec{dS}_y = \hat{a}_y dx dz$$

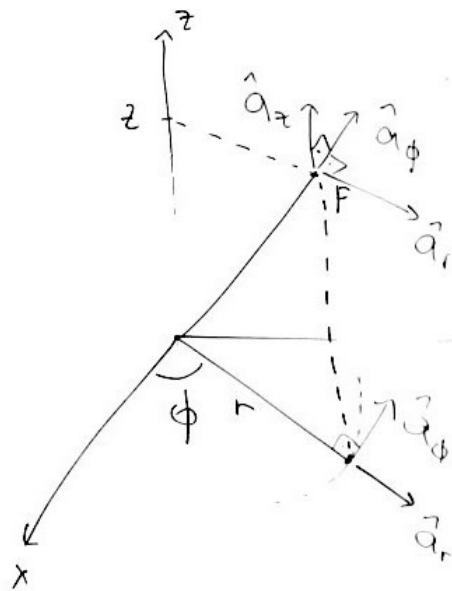
$$\vec{dS}_z = \hat{a}_z dx dy$$

2) Cylindrical Coord. System:

Base axis are r, ϕ, z
 (s)

$\hat{a}_r, \hat{a}_\phi, \hat{a}_z =$
 Base vectors.

A point $P(r, \phi, z)$

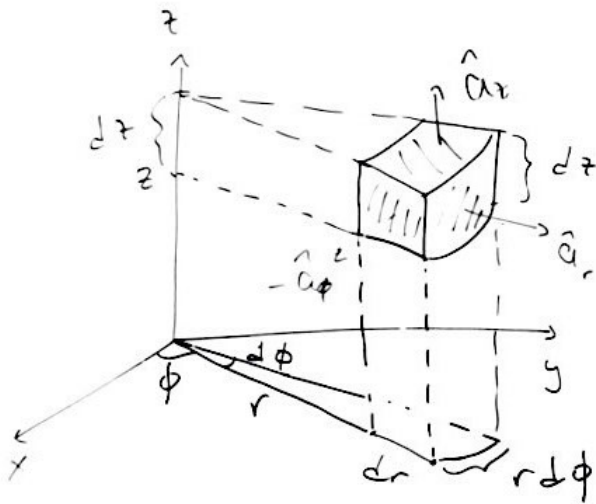


$$\begin{aligned}\hat{a}_r \cdot \hat{a}_\phi &= 0 \\ \hat{a}_r \cdot \hat{a}_z &= 0 \\ \hat{a}_\phi \cdot \hat{a}_z &= 0\end{aligned}$$

$\rightarrow y$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{a}_r \times \hat{a}_\phi &= \hat{a}_z \\ \hat{a}_\phi \times \hat{a}_z &= \hat{a}_r \\ \hat{a}_z \times \hat{a}_r &= \hat{a}_\phi\end{aligned}$$

Differentials:



Diff. Lengths:

$$dr, r d\phi, dz$$

Diff. Areas:

$$dS_r = r d\phi dz$$

$$dS_\phi = dr dz$$

$$dS_z = r d\phi dr \\ = r dr d\phi$$

Vector Differentials:

$$d\vec{l} = \hat{a}_r dr + \hat{a}_\phi r d\phi + \hat{a}_z dz$$

and the surface diff. vectors are.

$$d\vec{S}_r = \hat{a}_r r d\phi dz, \quad d\vec{S}_\phi = \hat{a}_\phi dr dz, \quad d\vec{S}_z = r dr d\phi$$

Given a point $P(x, y, z)$
 and $P(r, \phi, z)$ can be
 related as

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \quad \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}, \quad z = z$$

or

$$x = r \cos \phi, \quad y = r \sin \phi, \quad z = z$$

Given a vector $\vec{A} = \langle A_x, A_y, A_z \rangle$
 and $\vec{A} = \langle A_r, A_\phi, A_z \rangle$ are
 related as

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi & 0 \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_r \\ A_\phi \\ A_z \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} A_r \\ A_\phi \\ A_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi & 0 \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{bmatrix}$$

Base vectors are $\hat{a}_r, \hat{a}_\theta, \hat{a}_\phi$
Coordinate variables are : R, θ, ϕ

A point $P(R, \theta, \phi)$ is shown as

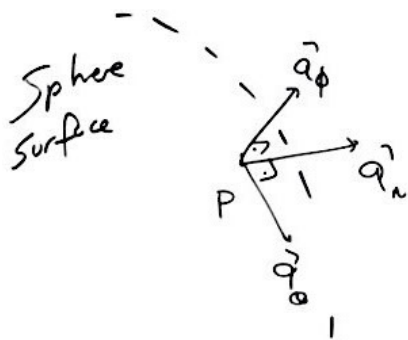
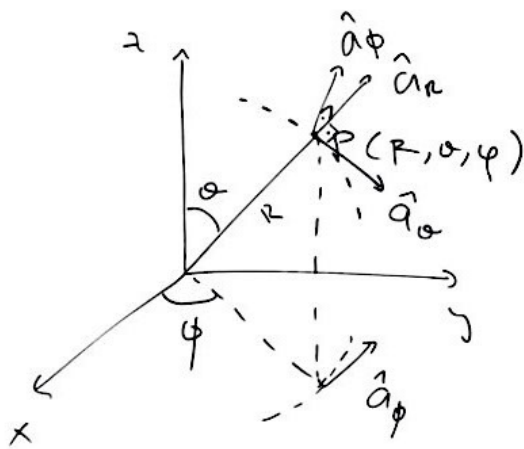
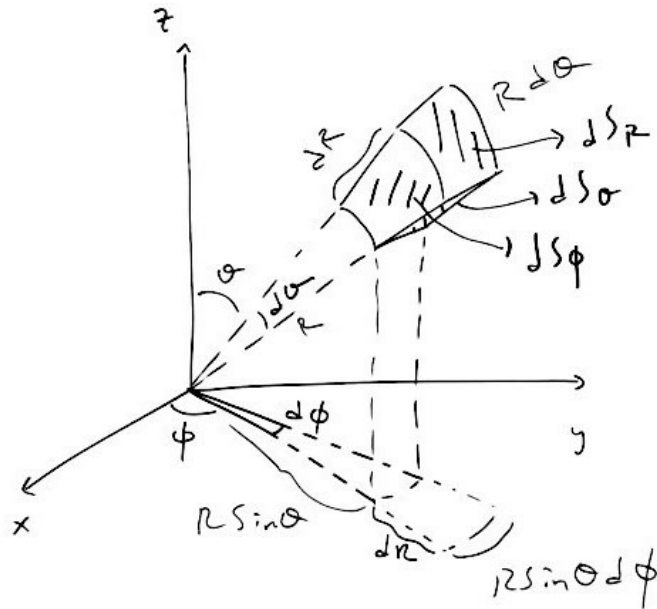


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Differentials:



Diff. Lengths: dr , $R d\theta$, $R \sin\theta d\phi$

Diff. Areas:

$$dS_R = R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$$

$$dS_\theta = R \sin\theta dr d\phi$$

$$dS_\phi = R dr d\theta$$

Differential length vector:

$$\vec{dl} = \hat{a}_r dr + \hat{a}_\theta r d\theta + \hat{a}_\phi r \sin\theta d\phi$$

Differential area vectors:

$$d\vec{S}_r = \hat{a}_r dS_r$$

$$d\vec{S}_\theta = \hat{a}_\theta dS_\theta$$

$$d\vec{S}_\phi = \hat{a}_\phi dS_\phi$$

} (Directions are normal to the surfaces)

Given a point $P(x, y, z)$ and $P(r, \theta, \phi)$ are related as

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2, \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}{z}, \quad \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$$

and

$$x = r \sin\theta \cos\phi, \quad y = r \sin\theta \sin\phi, \quad z = r \cos\theta$$

Vector Transformations:

Given a vector

$$\vec{A} = \hat{a}_x A_x + \hat{a}_y A_y + \hat{a}_z A_z \quad \text{and}$$

$$\vec{A} = \hat{a}_r A_r + \hat{a}_\theta A_\theta + \hat{a}_\phi A_\phi \quad \text{are related as}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sin\theta \cos\phi & \cos\theta \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ \sin\theta \sin\phi & \cos\theta \sin\phi & \cos\phi \\ \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_r \\ A_\theta \\ A_\phi \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_r \\ A_\theta \\ A_\phi \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sin\theta \cos\phi & \cos\theta \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ \sin\theta \sin\phi & \cos\theta \sin\phi & \cos\phi \\ \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{bmatrix}$$

Vector Calculus:

Vector Field:

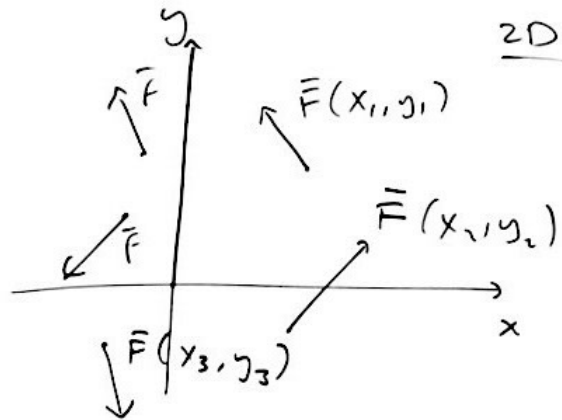
Let D be a set in \mathbb{R}^2 , A "vector field on \mathbb{R}^2 " is a function F that assigns to each point (x, y) in D a vector $\vec{F}(x, y)$.

Ex:

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = P(x, y)\hat{a}_x + Q(x, y)\hat{a}_y$$

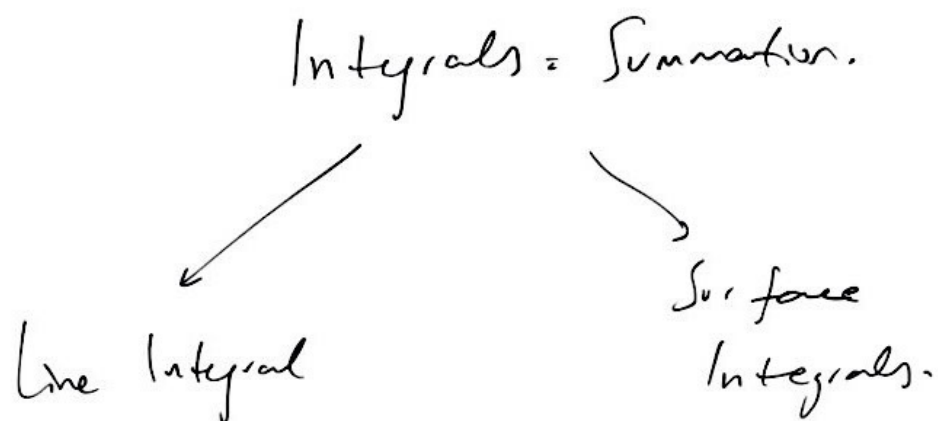
where

$P(x, y)$ and $Q(x, y)$ are functions of x and y .



The definition can be extended to 3D.

The electric field and magnetic field are vector fields.



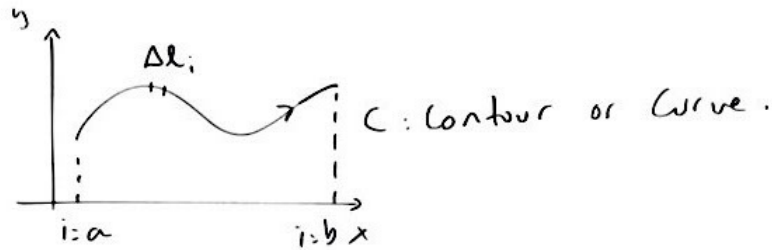
1-) Line Integrals (Curve Integrals)

↙
Line Integral of Scalar
Functions.

↓
Line Integral of
Vector Fields

★

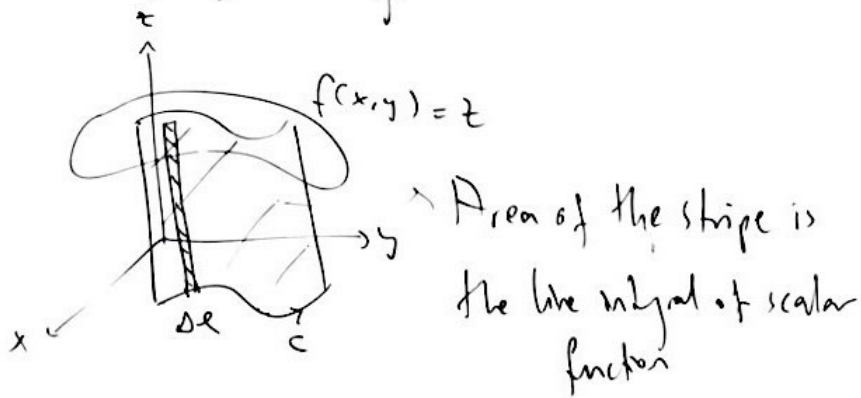
Line Integral of Scalar Functions



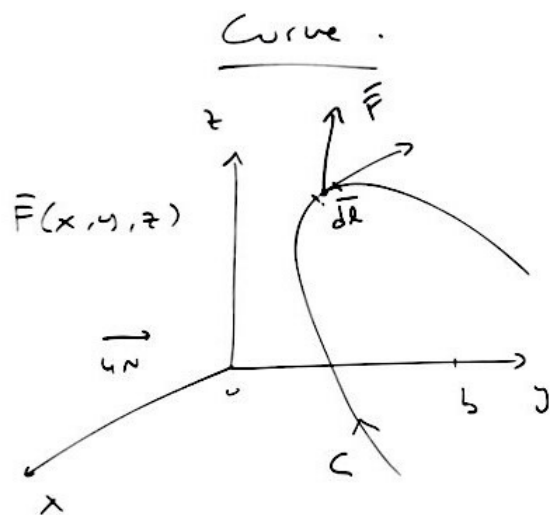
The definition is

$$\lim_{\Delta L \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=a}^b f(x_i, y_i) \Delta L_i = \int_a^b f(x, y) dl$$

$f(x, y)$ = Scalar function.



b-) Line Integral of Vector Fields:



The definition:

$$W = \int_C \vec{F}(x, y, z) \cdot d\vec{r}$$
$$= \int_0^b 4\hat{a}_y \cdot \hat{a}_y dy = \underline{4b} = \underline{F d}$$

$d\vec{l}$ in this definition is the differential length vector and will be used as in rectangular, cylindrical or spherical coord. depending on the geometry of the problem.

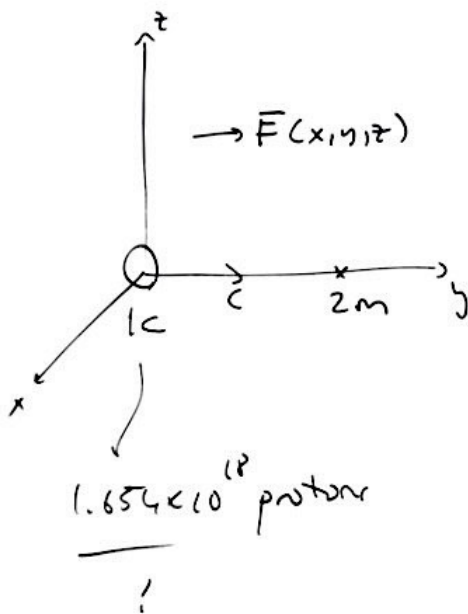
The limits of the integral will be according to the geometry.

Ex.

Given the force field $\vec{F}(x, y, z) = 4\hat{a}_y$ (N)

Determine the work done by a 1C of charge by the force field in moving along the y axis from $y=0$ to $y=2\text{m}$.

Ans:



$$\text{Work} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\text{where } \vec{F} = \vec{F}(x, y, z) = \hat{a}_y 4 \text{ (N)}$$

$$\text{and } d\vec{l} = ?$$

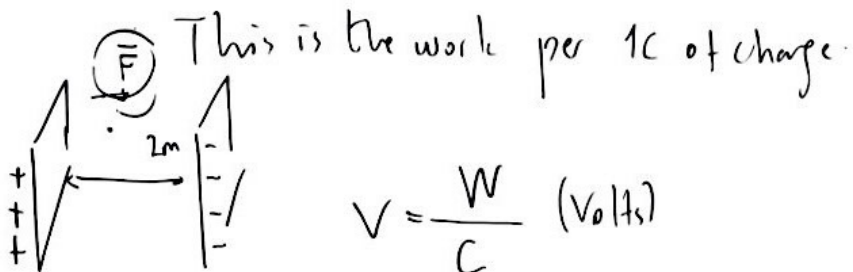
Use the rectangular coord.

$$\text{Then, } d\vec{l} = \hat{a}_y dy$$

Then,

$$W = \int_C (\hat{a}_y 4) \cdot (\hat{a}_y dy) = \int_0^2 4 dy$$

$$= 4 \cdot 2 = 8 \text{ joules}$$



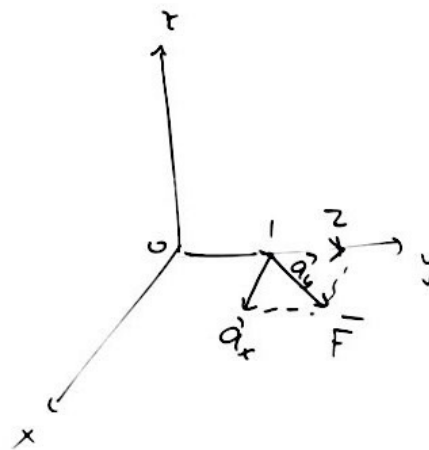
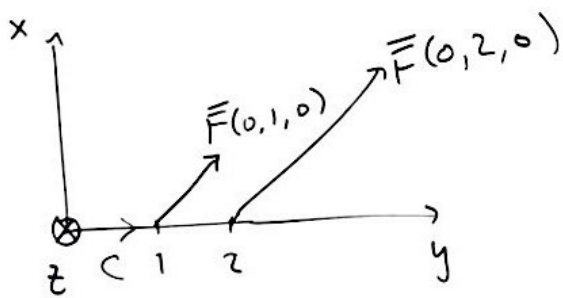
$$V = \frac{W}{C} \text{ (Volts)}$$

Given the force field

$$\vec{F}(x, y, z) = y\hat{a}_x + y\hat{a}_y$$

Determine the work by the force field
in moving a 1C of charge along the y-axis
from $y=0$ to $y=2$.

Ans:



$$W = \int_C \bar{F} \cdot d\bar{e}$$

$$\bar{F} = y \hat{a}_x + y \hat{a}_y$$

$$d\bar{e} = \hat{a}_y dy$$

Thus,

$$W = \int (y \hat{a}_x + y \hat{a}_y) \cdot (\hat{a}_y dy)$$

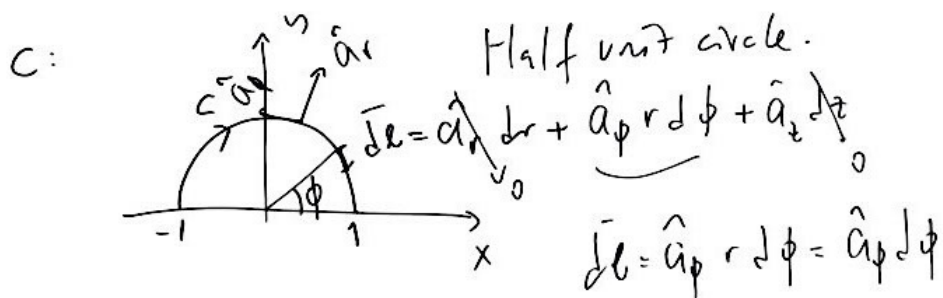
$$= \int_0^2 y dy = \frac{1}{2} y^2 \Big|_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = \underline{2 \text{ Volt}}$$

Ex:

Given the force field

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = x \hat{a}_x + y \hat{a}_y$$

Determine the work done by this force for q in moving a IC of charge along the contour defined as:



Ans:

Use the cylindrical or spherical coord.

In cylindrical coord.

$$\bar{d}l = \hat{a}_\phi d\phi$$

Thus,

$$W = \int_C \bar{F} \cdot \bar{d}l = \int (x\hat{a}_x + y\hat{a}_y) \cdot (\hat{a}_\phi d\phi)$$

Transform $\bar{F} = (x\hat{a}_x + y\hat{a}_y)$ vector into cylindrical form.

$$\bar{F} = \underbrace{x}_{f_x} \hat{a}_x + \underbrace{y}_{f_y} \hat{a}_y$$

Given that

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_r \\ F_\phi \\ F_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & \sin \phi & 0 \\ -\sin \phi & \cos \phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_x \\ F_y \\ F_z \end{bmatrix}$$

The $\vec{F} = \hat{a}_r F_r + \hat{a}_\phi F_\phi + \hat{a}_z F_z$

we only need F_ϕ since $d\vec{e} = \hat{a}_\phi d\phi$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} F_\phi &= -\sin \phi F_x + \cos \phi F_y \\ &= -\sin^2 \phi + \cos \phi \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_0^\pi F_\phi d\phi = \int_0^\pi \left(-\sin^2 \phi + \frac{\cos \phi \sin \phi}{2} \right) d\phi \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

$$\int_0^{\pi} 1 - \frac{\cos 2\phi + 1}{2} + \frac{\sin 2\phi}{2} d\phi$$

$$\pi - \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\cos 2\phi}{2} d\phi + \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{2} d\phi + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} \sin 2\phi d\phi$$

$$\pi - \frac{\sin 2\phi}{4} \Big|_0^{\pi} + \frac{\phi}{2} \Big|_0^{\pi} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\cos 2\phi}{2} \Big|_0^{\pi}$$

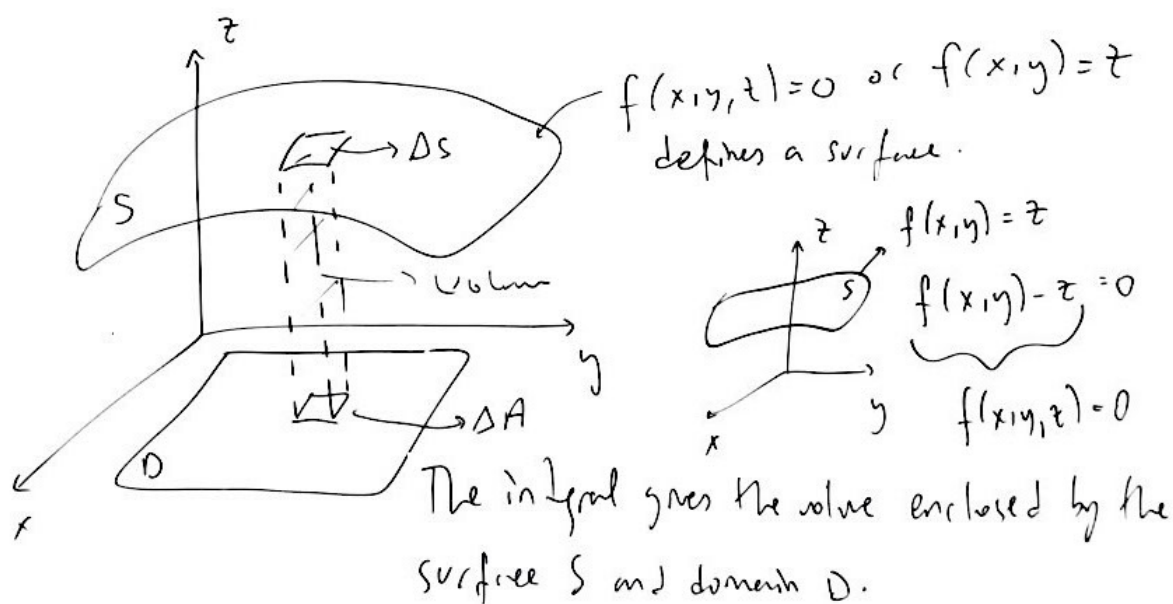
$$\pi + \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{3\pi}{2} //$$

2-) Surface Integrals

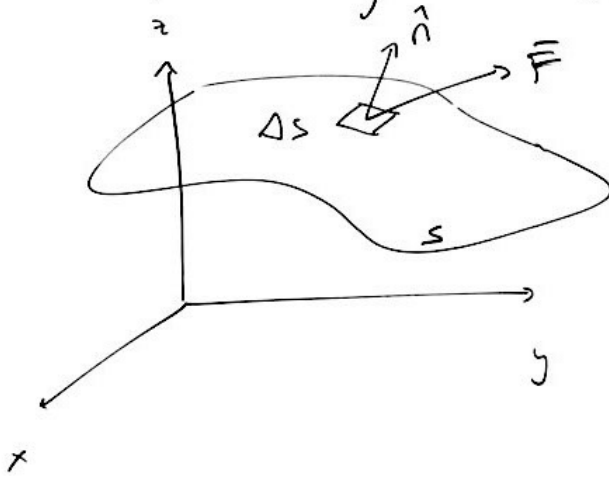
a-) Surface Integrals of Scalar Functions:

By definition

$$\lim_{|P| \rightarrow 0} \sum_i \sum_j f(P_{ij}) \Delta S_{ij} = \iint_S f(x, y) dS$$



b) Surface Integral of vector fields:

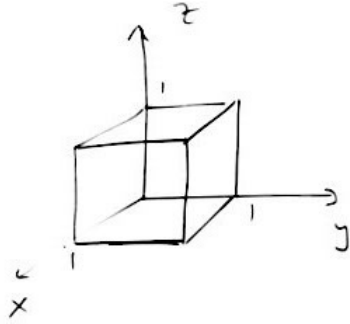


By definition

$$\text{Flux} = \int_S (\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}) = \int_S (\vec{F} \cdot \hat{n}) ds$$

Ex

Evaluate the flux on a cube



Given that $\vec{F} = \hat{a}_x x^2 + \hat{a}_y xy + \hat{a}_z yz$

Ans:

$$\iint_S \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iint_{S_1} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}_1 + \iint_{S_2} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}_2 + \dots + \iint_{S_6} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}_6$$

Front face: $x=1, d\vec{s}_1 = \hat{a}_x dy dz$

$$\iint \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}_1$$

$\hat{a}_x dy dz$ (surface ^{vector} element)

Then

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 \, dy \, dz = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 dy \, dz = 1.$$

Back face: $x=0$, $d\vec{s}_2 = -\hat{a}_x \, dy \, dz$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}_2 = 0$$

Left face: $y=0$, $d\vec{s}_3 = -\hat{a}_y \, dx \, dz$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}_3 = 0$$

Right face: $y=1$, $d\vec{s}_4 = \hat{a}_y \, dx \, dz$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy \, dx \, dz &= \int_0^1 \left. \frac{1}{2} x^2 \right|_0^1 dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 dz = \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Top face: $z=1$, $\bar{d}s_5 = \hat{a}_z dx dy$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 yz dx dy = \frac{1}{2}$$

Bottom face: $z=0$, $\bar{d}s_6 = -\hat{a}_z dx dy$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \bar{F} \cdot \bar{d}s_6 = 0$$

Then, the total flux is

$$\text{Flux} = 1 + 0 + 0 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + 0 = 2$$



Ex:

Evaluate the flux $\iint_S \vec{F} \cdot \vec{dS}$

where

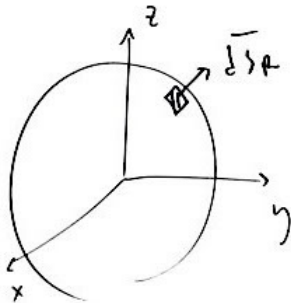
$$\vec{F} = R^2 \hat{a}_R$$

and S is the region $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ (sphere)

Ans:

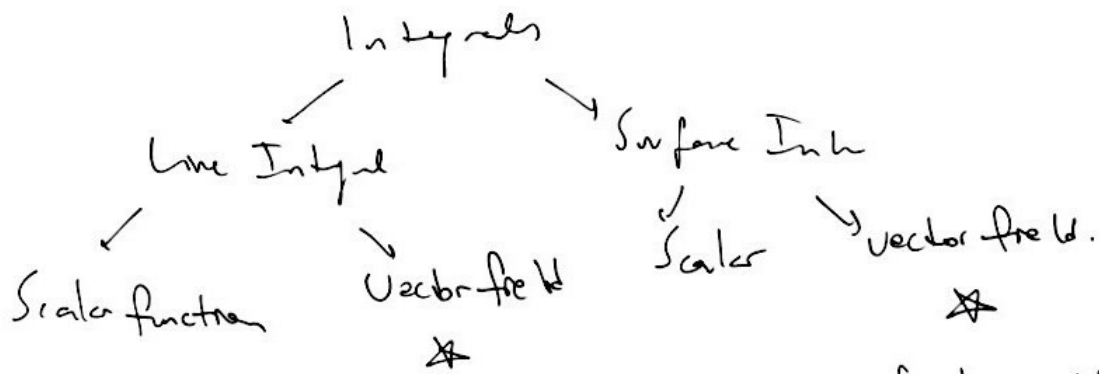
$$\vec{F} \text{ flux} = \iint_S \vec{F} \cdot \vec{dS}$$

Use spherical coord. $\Rightarrow \vec{dS} = \hat{a}_R R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$



$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Flux} &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin \theta \, d\theta \, d\phi \\
 &= - \int_0^{2\pi} \underbrace{\cos \theta \Big|_0^{\pi}}_{\substack{\cos \pi - \cos 0 \\ -1 \quad 1}} d\phi = 2 \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 4\pi
 \end{aligned}$$

In summary,



The reason we are interested in the vector fields is that the electric and magnetic fields (force fields) are vector fields.

Gradient Vector:

Define $\vec{\nabla} = \text{Grad} = \text{Del}$

such that

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \underbrace{f(x,y)}_{\substack{\text{scalar} \\ \text{function}}} = \langle f_x(x,y), f_y(x,y) \rangle$$

is called the "Gradient of f ".

Intuitively, it gives the rate of change vector at $x=x_0$, $y=y_0$.

For $f = f(x,y,z)$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot f(x,y,z) = \langle f_x, f_y, f_z \rangle$$

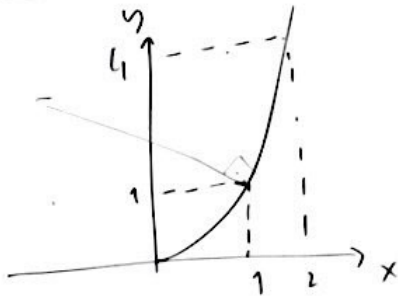
Note that Gradient vector is always perpendicular to the given point.

Ex:

$$f(x,y) = y - x^2 = 0$$

$$\text{Find } \bar{\nabla} \cdot f \Big|_{(1,1)} = ?$$

Ans:



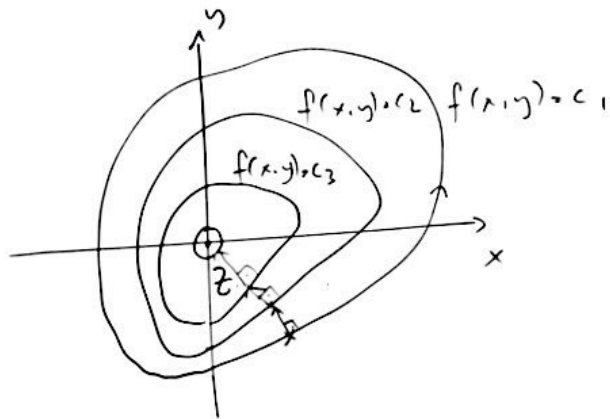
For example
at $x=1$

$$\bar{\nabla} f(1,1) = \langle -2, 1 \rangle$$

$$\bar{\nabla} f = \langle -2x, 1 \rangle$$

Suppose we have several functions

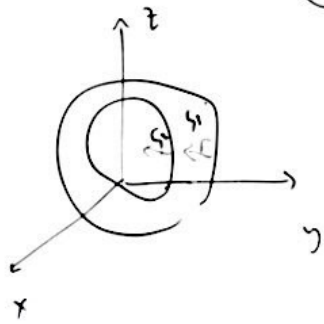
$$f(x, y) = c_i = \text{constant}$$



In 3D,

$$f(x, y, z) = c_i$$

for example a constant temperature



Divergence of a Vector Field:

By definition, the divergence of a vector field is defined as

$$\operatorname{div} \bar{A} = \bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{A} = \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_S \bar{A} \cdot \bar{d}s}{\Delta V}$$

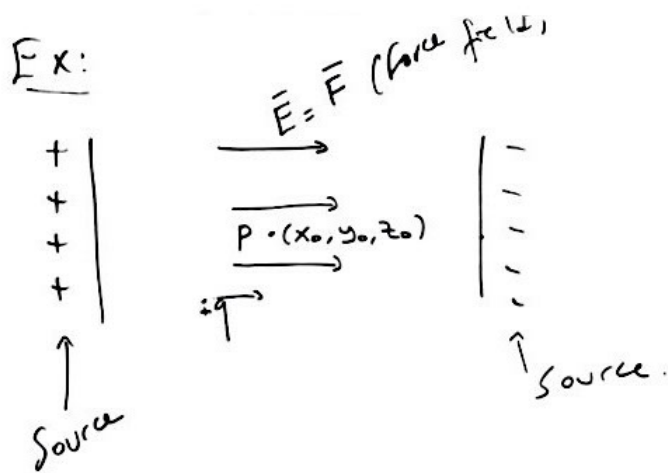
where



S : closed surface.

ΔV = volume bounded by S .

Intuitively, divergence gives us the total flux per unit volume as the unit volume becomes smaller and smaller (point).



$$\text{Div } \vec{E} \Big|_P = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}(x_0, y_0, z_0)$$

$P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$

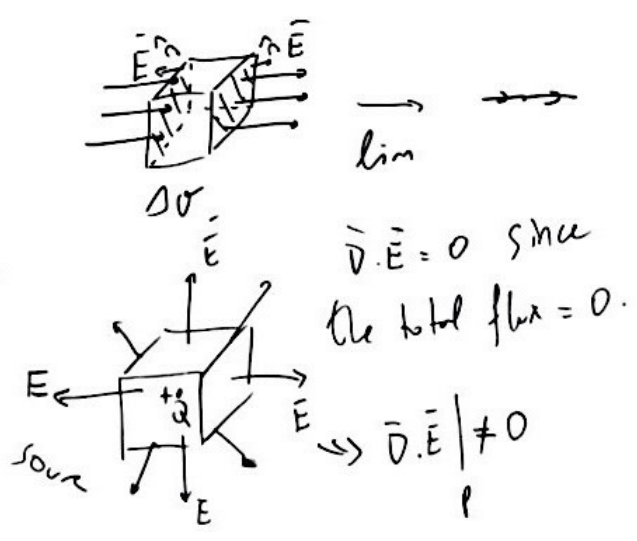
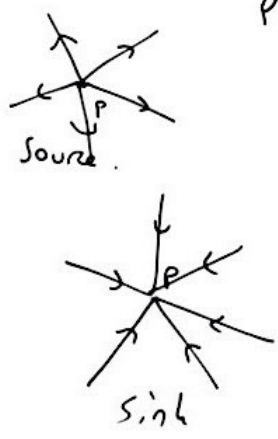


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Thus, if the divergence is nonzero, this implies the existence of a source or a sink at the point P . If the divergence is zero at P , this means that there is no source at P .

Analytically, we will use the following formula for evaluating the flux,

$$\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{A} = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} (h_2 h_3 A_1) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} (h_1 h_3 A_2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3} (h_1 h_2 A_3) \right]$$

where

$$\bar{A} = \langle A_1, A_2, A_3 \rangle = \hat{a}_{u_1} A_1 + \hat{a}_{u_2} A_2 + \hat{a}_{u_3} A_3$$

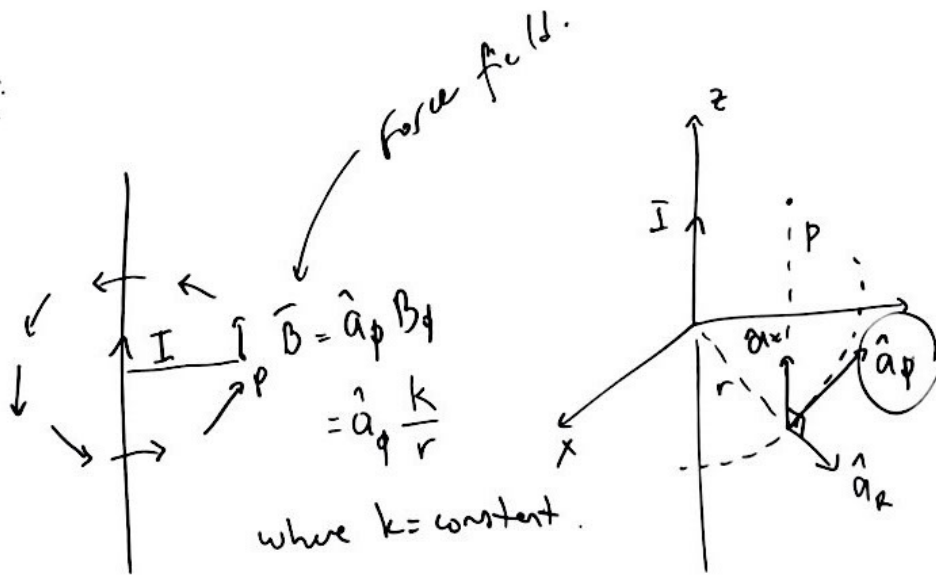
where

	(x, y, z) Cartesian	(r, φ, z) Cylindrical	(r, θ, φ) Spherical
\hat{a}_{u1}	\hat{a}_x	\hat{a}_r	\hat{a}_r
\hat{a}_{u2}	\hat{a}_y	\hat{a}_ϕ	\hat{a}_θ
\hat{a}_{u3}	\hat{a}_z	\hat{a}_z	\hat{a}_ϕ
h_1	1	1	1
h_2	1	r	r
h_3	1	1	r sin θ

Ex:

The magnetic flux density \vec{B} outside a very long current carrying wire is circumferential and is inversely proportional to the distance to the axis of the wire. Find $\nabla \cdot \vec{B}$.

Ans:

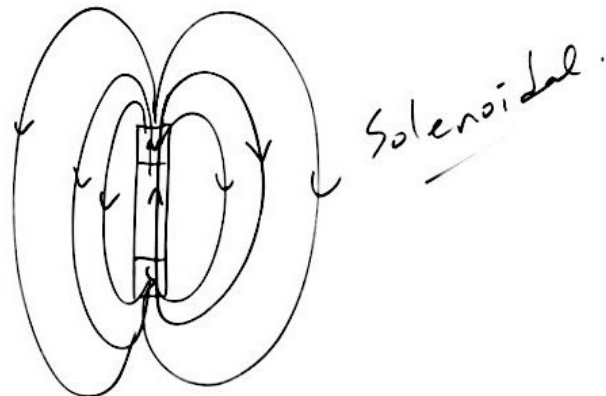


$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r B_r) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial B_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial B_\phi}{\partial \phi} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{k}{r} \right) = 0.$$

What does this result mean?

- No source outside
- Vector field \vec{B} close upon itself.
(solenoidal field)



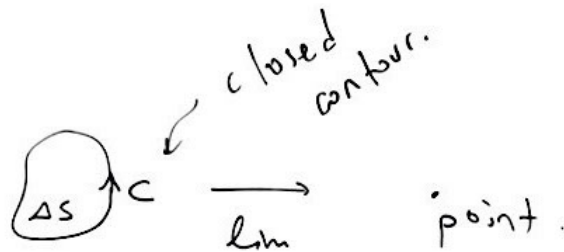
Curl of a Vector Field:

By definition

$$\text{curl } \vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \lim_{\Delta S \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{\ell}}{\Delta S}$$

Circulation

where

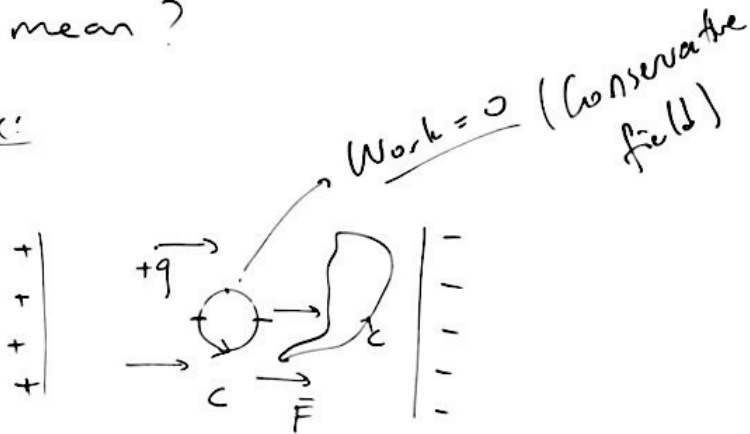


Analytically,

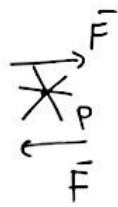
$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \begin{vmatrix} \hat{a}_{u_1} h_1 & \hat{a}_{u_2} h_2 & \hat{a}_{u_3} h_3 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3} \\ h_1 A_1 & h_2 A_2 & h_3 A_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Intuitively, what does curl mean?

Ex:



$$\nabla \times \vec{F} = 0 \text{ (Conservative field)}$$



← If the wheel rotates at P,

$$\nabla \times \vec{F} \neq 0$$

If it doesn't rotate

$$\nabla \times \vec{F} = 0 \text{ at } P. \text{ (Conservative field at } P)$$

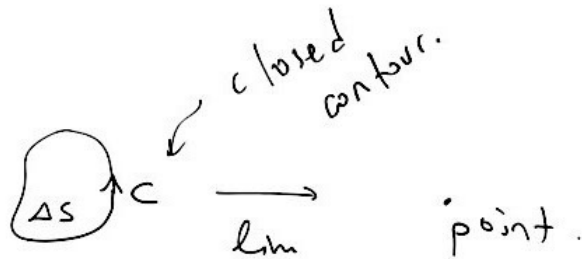
Curl of a Vector Field:

By definition

$$\text{curl } \vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \lim_{\Delta S \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{\ell}}{\Delta S}$$

Circulation

where

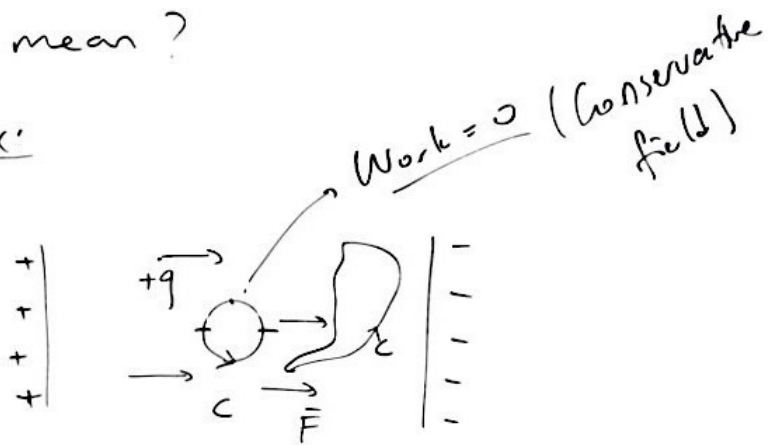


Analytically,

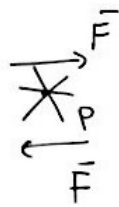
$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \begin{vmatrix} \hat{a}_{u_1} h_1 & \hat{a}_{u_2} h_2 & \hat{a}_{u_3} h_3 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3} \\ h_1 A_1 & h_2 A_2 & h_3 A_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Intuitively, what does curl mean?

Ex:



$$\nabla \times \vec{F} = 0 \text{ (Conservative field)}$$



← If the wheel rotates at P,
 $\nabla \times \vec{F} \neq 0$
 If it doesn't rotate
 $\nabla \times \vec{F} = 0$ at P.
 (Conservative for \forall P)

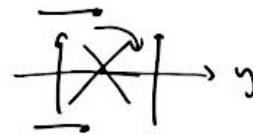
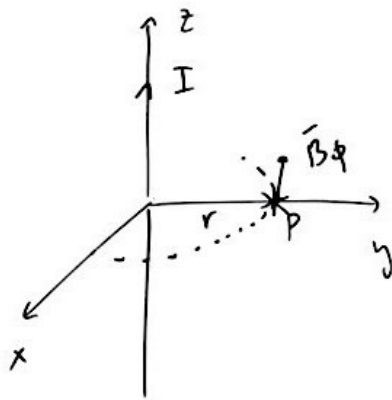
Ex:

Find the curl of a vector field

$$\vec{B} = \hat{a}_\phi \frac{k}{r} = \hat{a}_r B_r + \hat{a}_\phi B_\phi + \hat{a}_z B_z$$

given in the previous question.

Ans:



$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \vec{b} &= \frac{1}{r} \begin{vmatrix} \hat{a}_r & r \hat{a}_\phi & \hat{a}_z \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \cancel{B_r} & r B_\phi & \cancel{B_z} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \left\{ \hat{a}_r \left[-\frac{\partial}{\partial z} (r B_\phi) \right] + r \hat{a}_\phi [0] + \hat{a}_z \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r B_\phi) - 0 \right] \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \left\{ \hat{a}_r \left[-\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(r \frac{k}{r} \right) \right] + r \hat{a}_\phi [0] + \hat{a}_z \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{k}{r} \right) \right] \right\} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

A curl-free vector field is called irrotational or conservative field.

HW#1: Why is this field is irrotational.

Divergence Theorem:

$$\int_V \nabla \cdot \bar{A} \, dV = \int_S \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{S}$$



Stoke's Theorem:

$$\int_S (\nabla \times \bar{A}) \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_C \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{l}$$



Also, note that $\nabla \cdot \bar{A}$ is scalar and $\nabla \times \bar{A}$ is a vector quantities.

Identities:

$$1-) \quad \bar{\nabla} \times (\bar{\nabla} V) = 0$$

or

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

$$2-) \quad \bar{\nabla} \cdot (\bar{\nabla} \times \bar{A}) = 0$$

The curl of a vector field \bar{E} is curl-free.

Then \bar{E} can be written in terms of the gradient of a scalar (V).

Divergence of the curl of any vector field \bar{A} is zero.

\bar{A} can not be conservative and rotational at the same time.

or vice versa.

Helmholtz Theorem:

1-) Solenoidal and irrotational

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{F} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \times \vec{F} = 0$$

Ex: Static Electric field in charge-free region

2-) Solenoidal but not irrotational

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{F} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \times \vec{F} \neq 0$$

Ex: Static magnetic field in current carrying conductors

3-) Irrotational but not solenoidal

$$\nabla \times \vec{F} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{F} \neq 0$$

Ex: Static electric field in charged region

4-) Neither solenoidal nor irrotational

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{F} \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \times \vec{F} \neq 0$$

Ex: Electric field in charged region with time-varying magnetic field.

Helmholtz's Theorem: A vector field is determined if both its divergence and curl are specified everywhere.

Ex:

Given a vector function

$$\vec{F} = \hat{a}_x(3y - c_1z) + \hat{a}_y(c_2x - 2z) - \hat{a}_z(c_3y + z)$$

Determine the constants c_1 , c_2 , and c_3 if \vec{F} is irrotational.

Ans:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = 0$$

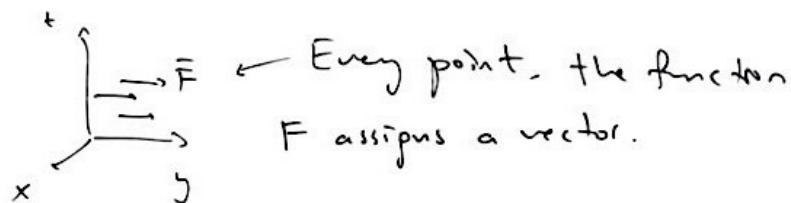
$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{a}_x & \hat{a}_y & \hat{a}_z \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 3y - c_1z & c_2x - 2z & -(c_3y + z) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{a}_x(-c_3 + 2) - \hat{a}_y c_1 + \hat{a}_z(c_2 - 3) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow c_1 = 0, c_2 = 3, c_3 = 2.$$

Until now, we reviewed;

- Vectors \rightarrow summation, multiplication
dot \swarrow \searrow cross.
- Rectangular, cylindrical, spherical coord.
- Vector Fields.



- Integrals = Summation

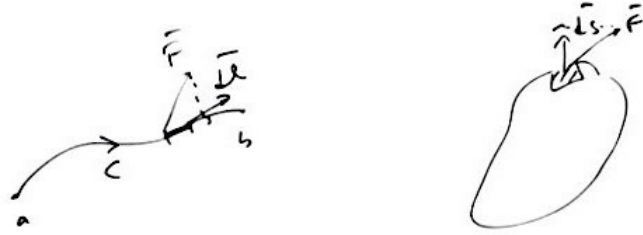
Line

$$\text{Work} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

\uparrow
Vector field.

Surface.

$$\text{Flux} = \int_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$



- Divergence $\nabla \cdot \vec{F} = \text{Scalar}$
 - Curl $\nabla \times \vec{F} = \text{Vector}$
- } Point forms.

If $\nabla \cdot \vec{F} = 0 \rightarrow \text{Source-free}$

$\nabla \cdot \vec{F}(x_0, y_0, z_0)$

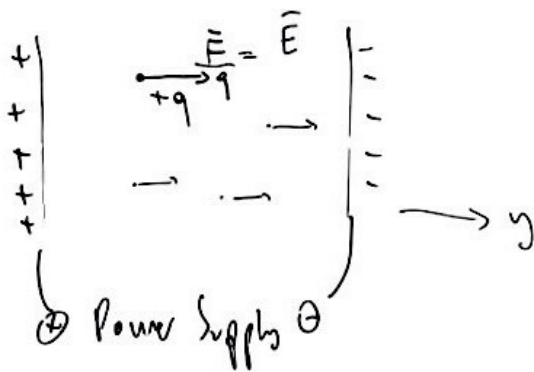
If $\nabla \times \vec{F} = 0 \rightarrow \text{irrotational.}$

Static Electric Field: (Chp. 3)

What is the Electric Field?

E-field = Force Field = Vector Field.

Ex:



$$1C = 1.654 \times 10^{18}$$

A diagram showing a positive charge $(P+)$ in a circle, with several electrons (e^-) nearby. A curved arrow indicates the movement of electrons towards the positive charge.

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{q} = \text{Force field per charge} \cdot \left(\frac{N}{C}\right)$$

Ex:

If the $\vec{E} = \hat{a}_y 4 \left(\frac{N}{C}\right)$

If we put 1C of charge, it would experience

$$\vec{F} = \vec{E} \cdot Q = \hat{a}_y 4 \text{ Newtons.}$$

If we put 2C of charge,

$$\vec{F} = \vec{E} \cdot Q = \underline{8 \hat{a}_y} \text{ (N)}$$

There are two equations obtained by measurement or lab experiments (postulates) for static electric field,

↳?

The electric field does not change with time.

$$\left(\frac{d}{dt} = 0 \right)$$

$$1.) \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

(Divergence depends on the source at (x_0, y_0, z_0)).

and

$$2.) \quad \nabla \times \vec{E} = 0 \quad (\text{irrotational})$$

} Point form

where

$$\epsilon_0 = \text{constant} = \frac{1}{36\pi \times 10^9} = 8.854 \times 10^{-12}$$

and

$\rho =$ ^{volume} charge density $\left(\frac{C}{m^3}\right)$

In solving problems, these two equations are difficult to use, thus we sum or integrate both sides, then we get

By divergence theorem

$$\int_V \nabla \cdot \vec{E} \, dV = \int_V \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \, dV$$

$$1.) \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \quad (\text{Gauss law}) \quad (\text{Integral form})$$

where S is a closed surface that bounds the volume V . The Q is the total charge inside S .



Similarly, if we integrate both sides of the second equation, we get

$$\int_S \nabla \times \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

As Stokes' Theorem

$$\int_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0 \quad (\text{Integral form})$$

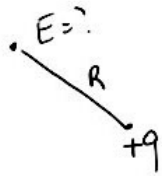
where the contour C closes the surface S .



meaning that the static E -field is conservative.

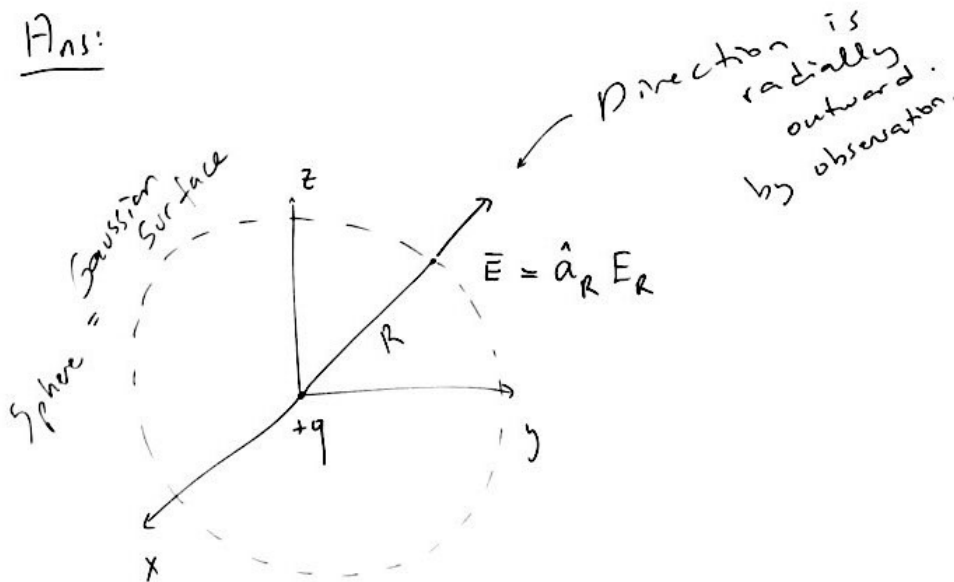
Ex:

Find the electric field created by a static charge q .



$$q \neq q(t)$$

Ans:



$$\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$\vec{E} \rightarrow \hat{a}_r E_r$
 $d\vec{s} \rightarrow \hat{a}_r R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (\hat{a}_r E_r) \cdot (\hat{a}_r R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi) = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} E_r R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

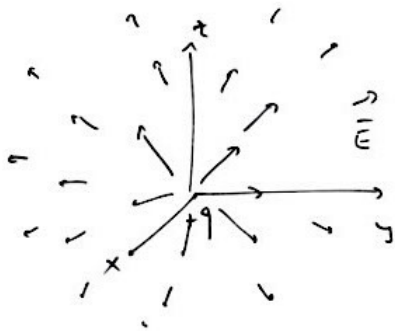
Since $E_r \neq E_r(\theta, \phi)$

Here can be taken out of the integral

$$E_r \underbrace{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi}_{4\pi R^2} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

Thus,

$$\vec{E} = \hat{a}_R \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \left(\frac{N}{C}\right)$$



From this result, we can calculate the force as

$$\vec{F} = \hat{a}_R \frac{q_t q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \quad (N)$$

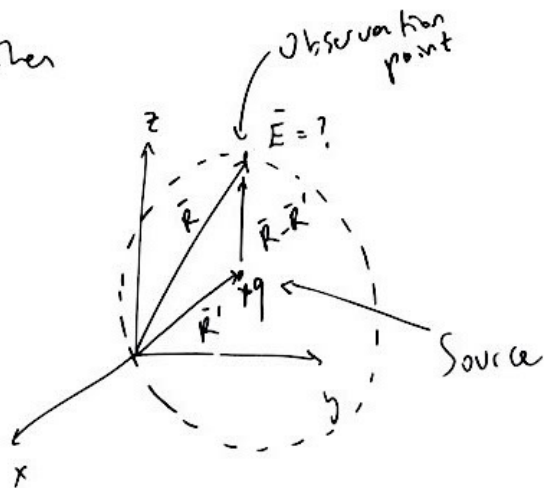
(Coulomb's law)

Note that the Gaussian surface must be selected such that

1-) The Electric field on the surface must have the same magnitude and direction everywhere on the surface.

2-) It must be a symmetrical surface.

If the source charge is not placed at the origin then



$$\vec{E} = \frac{q(\vec{R} - \vec{R}')}{4\pi\epsilon_0|\vec{R} - \vec{R}'|^3}$$

Ex:

Determine the E-field at

$P(-0.2, 0, -2.3)$ due to a

point charge of $+5\text{nC}$ at $Q(0.2, 0.1, -2.5)$

in air.

Ans:

$$\vec{R} = \vec{OP} = -\hat{a}_x 0.2 - \hat{a}_z 2.3$$

$$\vec{R}' = \vec{OQ} = \hat{a}_x 0.2 + \hat{a}_y 0.1 - \hat{a}_z 2.5$$

$$\vec{R} - \vec{R}' = -\hat{a}_x 0.4 - \hat{a}_y 0.1 + \hat{a}_z 0.2$$

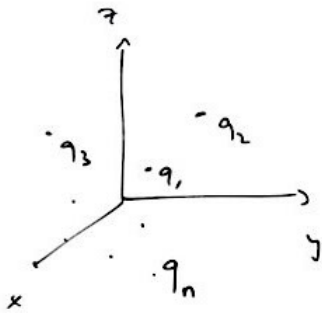
$$|\vec{R} - \vec{R}'| = [(-0.4)^2 + (-0.1)^2 + (0.2)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.458\text{ (m)}$$

Then,

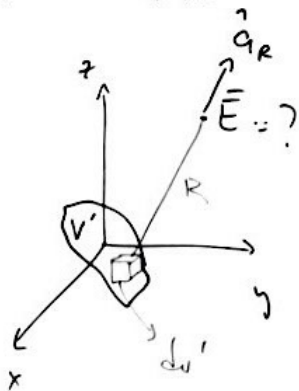
$$\vec{E} = \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{q(\vec{R} - \vec{R}')}{|\vec{R} - \vec{R}'|^3} = 214.5 \left(-\hat{a}_x 0.873 - \hat{a}_y 0.218 + \hat{a}_z 0.437 \right) \left(\frac{\text{N}}{\text{C}} \right)$$

Electric Field due to System of Discrete charges:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{q_k (\vec{R} - \vec{R}'_k)}{|\vec{R} - \vec{R}'_k|^3} \quad (\text{for } n \text{ discrete charge.})$$



Electric Field due to Continuous Distribution of Charge:



Total charge inside dv' is

$$\rho dv'$$

The electric field due to $\rho dv'$ is

let's say

$$d\vec{E} = \hat{a}_R \frac{\rho dv'}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2}$$

The electric field due to v'
is the summation of $d\vec{E}$'s.

Then,

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{v'} \hat{a}_R \frac{\rho}{R^2} dv'$$

$$\text{Since } \hat{a}_R = \frac{\vec{R}}{R}$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{v'} \rho \frac{\vec{R}}{R^3} dv'$$

If the source exists on a surface,

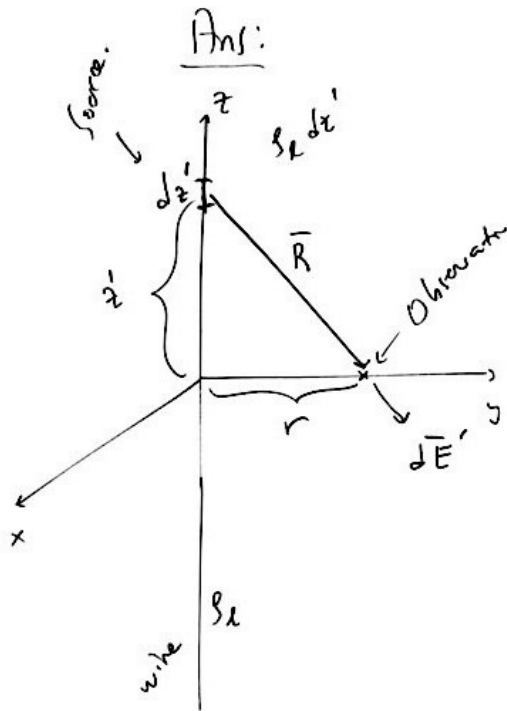
$$\bar{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{s'} \hat{a}_R \frac{\rho_s}{R^2} ds' \quad , \quad \text{where } \rho_s = \left(\frac{C}{m^2}\right) = \text{Surface charge density.}$$

If the source is on a line (not necessarily straight)

$$\bar{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{L'} \hat{a}_R \frac{\rho_L}{R^2} dl' \quad , \quad \rho_L = \text{Line charge density } \left(\frac{C}{m}\right)$$

Ex:

Determine the \bar{E} -field of an infinitely long, straight, line charge of uniform density ρ_L in air.



$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_L \rho_L \frac{\vec{R}}{R^3} dz'$$

Thus, we need \vec{R} .

$$\vec{R} = \hat{a}_r r - \hat{a}_z z'$$

$$\text{Then, } d\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_L dz'}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(\hat{a}_r r - \hat{a}_z z')}{(r^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}}$$

$d\vec{E} = d\vec{E}_r + \cancel{d\vec{E}_z}$ drops since the contributions from $-z$ and $+z$ cancel out.

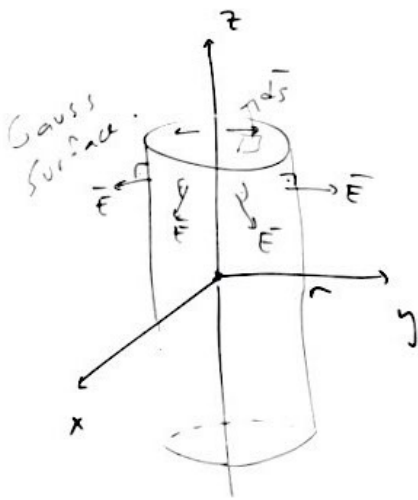
$$dE_r = \frac{\rho_L r dz'}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (r^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}} \Rightarrow \vec{E} = \hat{a}_r \frac{\rho_L r}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dz'}{(r^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$\vec{E} = \hat{a}_r \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \left(\frac{z}{L}\right)$$

If $r \ll$ Wire length then this result is a good approximation to the real problem.

The same problem could be solved by Gauss' law

Ex:



$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot \vec{dS} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

Gauss Surface:

- 1.) Symmetry w.r.t. coord. variables.
- 2.) On the surface \vec{E} -field must be constant.

$$\iint \vec{E} \cdot \vec{ds} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

where

$$\vec{E} = \hat{a}_r E_r, \quad \vec{ds} = \hat{a}_r r d\phi dz$$

and

$$Q = \rho_e L (c)$$

Then

$$\int_0^L \int_0^{2\pi} \hat{a}_r E_r \cdot \hat{a}_r r d\phi dz = \frac{\rho_e L}{\epsilon_0}$$

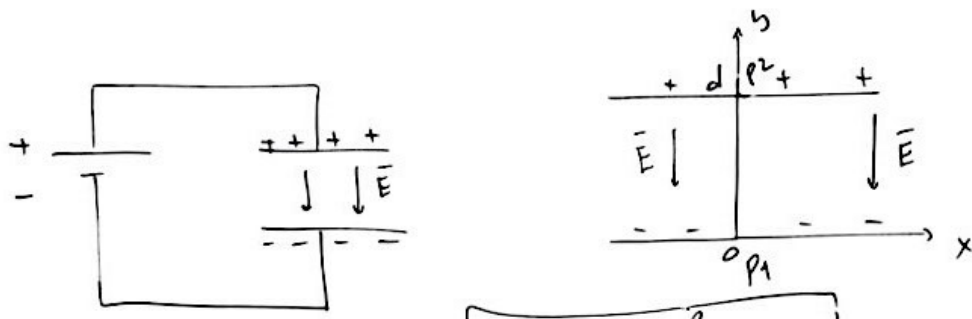
$$\int_0^L \int_0^{2\pi} E_r r d\phi dz = \frac{\rho_e L}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E_r r \int_0^L \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi dz = \frac{\rho_e L}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E_r r \times 2\pi = \frac{\rho_e L}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E_r = \frac{\rho_e}{2\pi \epsilon_0 r} \left(\frac{L}{L} \right)$$

This result is the same as before, the Gauss Law is easier, but it needs a Gaussian Surface which is not always easy to obtain.

Electric Potential: (Voltage)



By definition

$$V_2 - V_1 = - \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad (\text{Potential difference})$$

$$V = \frac{\int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l}}{q} = \frac{W}{q} \quad \left(\frac{\text{joule}}{\text{Coulomb}} = V \right)$$

Hence, the volta (electric potential) is the potential energy per charge.

Ex:

$$\vec{E} = -\hat{a}_y E_y$$

and

$$d\vec{l} = \hat{a}_y dy$$

Then

$$V = V_2 - V_1 = -\int_0^d (-\hat{a}_y E_y) \cdot (\hat{a}_y dy)$$

$$= \int_0^d E_y dy = d E_y = E \cdot d$$

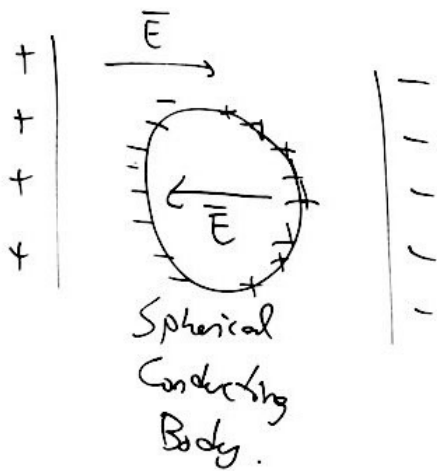
↑
Uniform \vec{E}
field over the
region.

Take the derivative of both sides =

$$V = - \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

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

Conductors in Static Electric Field:

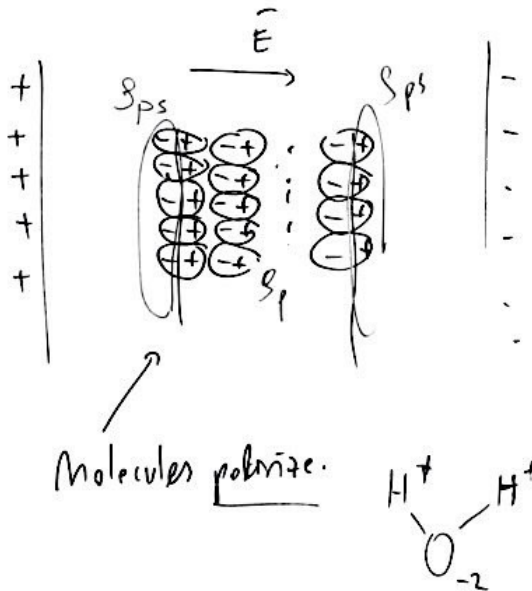


Inside the conductors:


$$\boxed{\vec{E} = 0}, \quad \boxed{\rho = 0}$$

Dielectrics in Static Electric Field:

- Dielectrics do not contain free-charges.
- Conductor (metals) do contain many free-charges.



Define dipole moment:



$\vec{p} = \text{dipole moment}$

$\vec{p} = \vec{d} \cdot q$

Define the polarization vector:

$$\vec{P} = \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_k \vec{P}_k}{\Delta V} = \text{Volume density of dipole moments.}$$

∴ After some manipulations;

Polarization surface charge density $\rightarrow \rho_{ps} = \vec{P} \cdot \hat{a}_n$, $\rho_p = -\nabla \cdot \vec{P}$ Polarization volume charge density

The fundamental eqn. for electrostatics

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{(\rho + \rho_p)}{\epsilon_0}$$

free charge density
polarization charge density.

$$\nabla \cdot \epsilon_0 \vec{E} = \rho - \nabla \cdot \vec{P}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}) = \rho$$

$\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}$ is called the displacement vector or electric flux density.

and

$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho}$$
 is more general form.

or

$$\boxed{\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot \vec{dS} = Q}$$

(General Gauss Law)

(Includes the effect of the polarisation)

$$\vec{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \vec{E}$$

χ_e : Electric susceptibility.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{D} &= \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \epsilon_0 \chi_e \vec{E} \\ &= \epsilon_0 \underbrace{(1 + \chi_e)}_{\epsilon_r} \vec{E} \\ &= \underbrace{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}_{\epsilon} \vec{E} \\ &= \epsilon \vec{E} \end{aligned}$$

where ϵ = Permittivity, and ϵ_r = Relative permittivity.

Relative Permittivities of some materials:

	ϵ_r		ϵ_r
Free space	1		
Air	1.00059 \approx 1	water (distilled)	80
Glass	4-10	Seawater	72
Paper	2-4		
Rubber	2.3-4		

In summary,

Electric Field ?

Force Field acting on charges.

Vector field

$$\vec{E}(x, y, z) = \hat{a}_x \underbrace{E_x(x, y, z)} + \hat{a}_y \underbrace{E_y(x, y, z)} + \hat{a}_z \underbrace{E_z(x, y, z)}$$

functions
of x, y and z .

$$\vec{E}(x, y, z) = \frac{\vec{F}(x, y, z)}{q} \quad (\text{force field})$$

Static Electric Field:

No time variation ($\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 0$)

Two equations (for \vec{E} computation)

1.) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$ → $\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot \vec{dS} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$

2.) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0$ → $\oint_C \vec{E} \cdot \vec{dl} = 0$

- Usually we use Gauss' law to solve problems.

- We must define a Gaussian surface.

- If we can't define such surface, then we can use the integral techniques



||

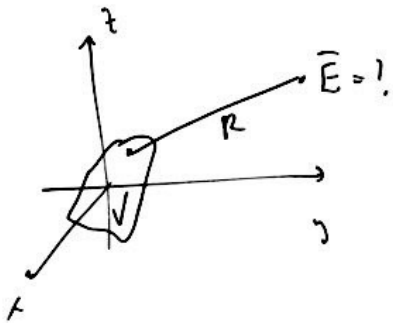
$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} \hat{a}_R \frac{\rho}{R^2} dV'$$

or

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{S'} \hat{a}_R \frac{\rho_s}{R^2} dS'$$

or

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{C'} \hat{a}_R \frac{\rho_L}{R^2} dl'$$



$$\text{Voltage} = \frac{W}{q} \quad \left(\frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{Coulomb}} = \text{Volts} \right)$$

$$V = - \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{E}{q} = \frac{1}{q} - \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

Work.

force · distance

or

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

Conductors in Electric field:

1. \hookrightarrow Many free-electrons.

Inside the conductors

$$\vec{E} = 0$$

Dielectrics in Electric field:

1. \hookrightarrow Not many free-electrons.
(insulators, ... etc.)

When dielectrics are put inside static electric field, they polarize.

Due to the polarization, the electric field inside the dielectric is decreased.

The measure of polarization is the permittivity constant. (ϵ)

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0$$

Relative permittivity Constant

Free space $\rightarrow \epsilon_r = 1$
Air $\rightarrow \epsilon_r \approx 1$
:
High Polarized \rightarrow Water $\rightarrow \epsilon_r = 70$

In solving the \vec{E} -field inside dielectrics we use

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E} \quad \left| \quad \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \rightarrow \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \vec{E} = \epsilon \vec{E} = \vec{D}\right.$$

Displacement vector

and

$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{Q}{(\epsilon_r \epsilon_0)} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon}$$

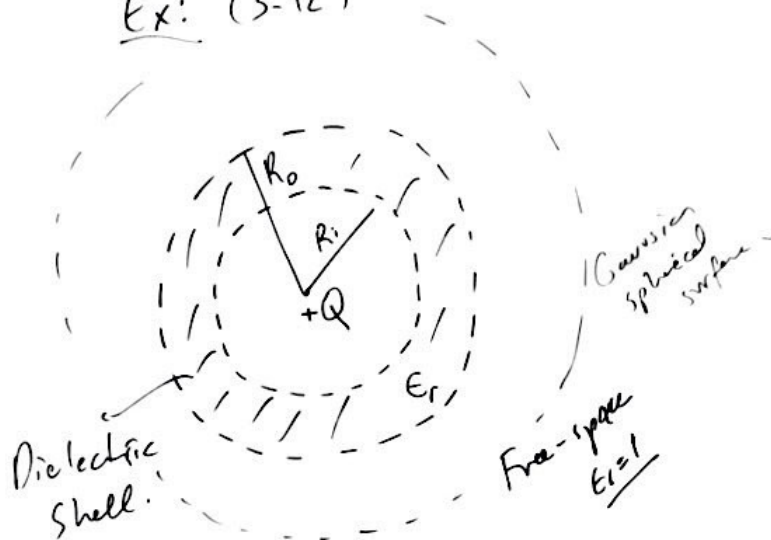
$$\oint_S \epsilon \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = Q$$

$$\boxed{\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = Q} \quad (\text{General Gauss' law})$$

and also,

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}$$

Ex: (3-12)



Determine \vec{E} , \vec{D} and \vec{P} everywhere.

Ans:

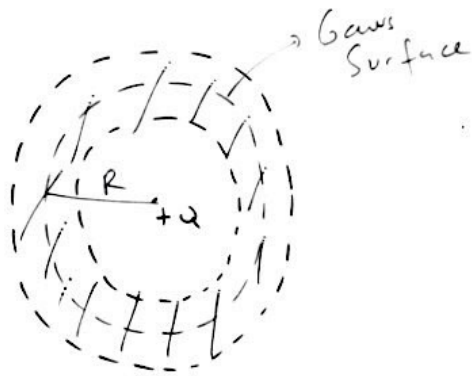
$r > R_0$:

$$\vec{E}_{R_1} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \left(\frac{\hat{v}}{m}\right) \text{ as before.}$$

$$\vec{D}_{R_1} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E}_{R_1} = \frac{Q}{4\pi R^2} \hat{r}, \quad \vec{P}_{R_1} = 0$$

In the region

$R_i < R < R_o$:



$$\oint \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{S} = Q$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \cdot \hat{a}_r R \sin\theta d\theta d\phi = Q$$

$$\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E_{R2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} R \sin\theta d\theta d\phi = Q$$

$4\pi R^2$ (Area of the Gauss Sphere)

$$\vec{E}_{R2} = \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r R^2} \left(\frac{V}{m} \right)$$

$$D_{R2} = \frac{Q}{4\pi R^2}$$

$$P_{R2} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{\epsilon_r} \right) \frac{Q}{4\pi R^2}$$

For $R < R_i$:

$$E_{R3} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2}$$

$$D_{R3} = \frac{Q}{4\pi R^2}$$

$$P_{R3} = 0$$

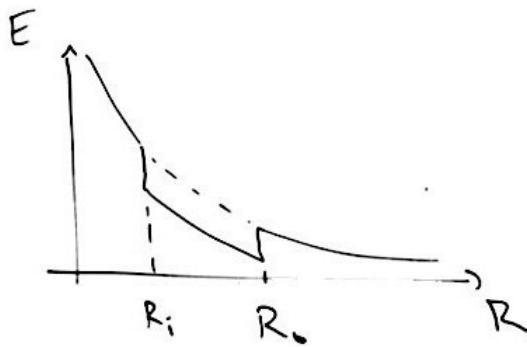


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