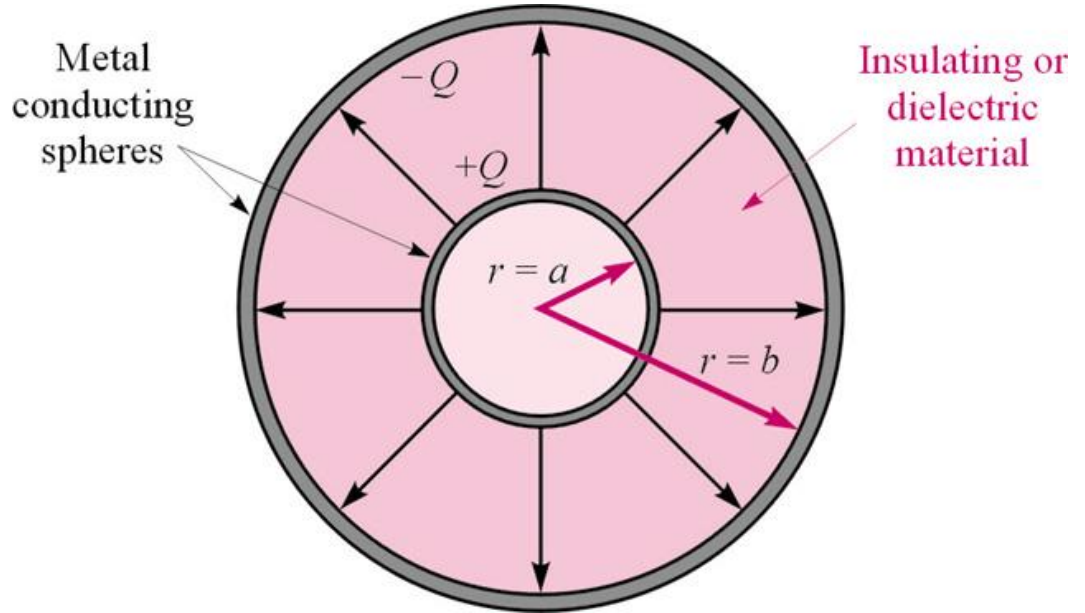


Electric Flux Density, Gauss's Law, and Divergence

3.1 Electric Flux Density

- Faraday's Experiment



Flux = Ψ , same units as Q

Ψ is responsible for creating $-Q$ on outer sphere

Electric Flux Density, \mathbf{D}

- Units: C/m^2
- Magnitude: Number of flux lines (coulombs) crossing a surface normal to the lines divided by the surface area.
- Direction: Direction of flux lines (same direction as \mathbf{E}).
- For a point charge: $\mathbf{D} = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \mathbf{a}_r$
- For a general charge distribution,

$$\mathbf{D} = \epsilon_0 \mathbf{E} = \int_{\text{vol}} \frac{\rho_v d\mathbf{v}}{4\pi R^2} \mathbf{a}_r$$

D3.1

Given a 60- μC point charge located at the origin, find the total electric flux passing through:

- (a) That portion of the sphere $r = 26 \text{ cm}$ bounded by $0 < \theta < \pi/2$ and $0 < \phi < \pi/2$

D3.2

Calculate D in rectangular coordinates at point $P(2,-3,6)$ produced by : (a) a point charge $Q_A = 55\text{mC}$ at $Q(-2,3,-6)$

$$P := \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Q := \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Q_A := 55 \cdot 10^{-3}$$

$$\epsilon_0 := 8.85410^{-12}$$

$$R := P - Q$$

$$r := \frac{P - Q}{|P - Q|}$$

$$D := \frac{Q_A}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot (|R|)^2} \cdot r$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 6.38 \times 10^{-6} \\ -9.57 \times 10^{-6} \\ 1.914 \times 10^{-5} \end{pmatrix}$$

(b) a uniform line charge $\rho_{LB} = 20 \text{ mC/m}$ on the x axis

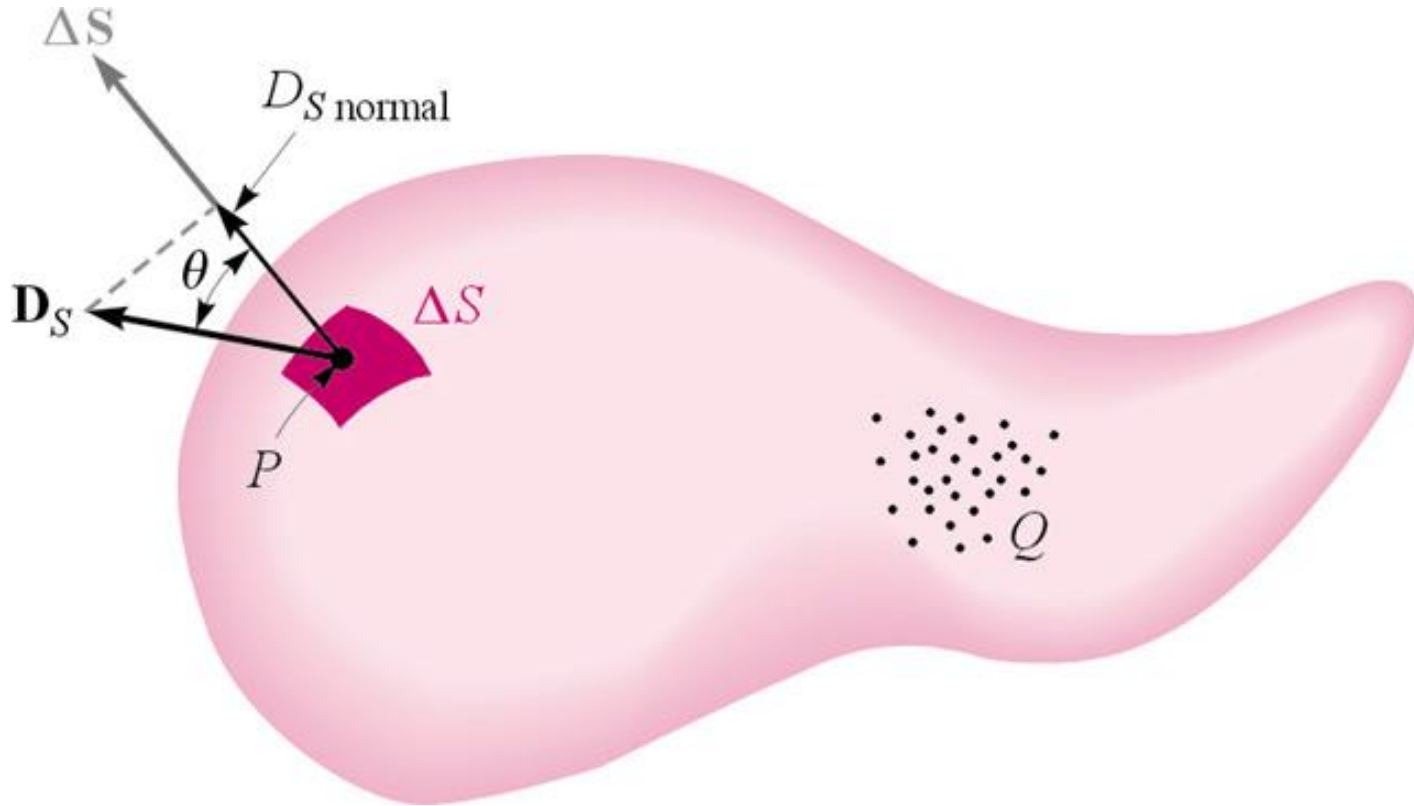
(c) a uniform surface charge density $\rho_{SC} = 120 \text{ uC/m}^2$ on the plane $z = -5 \text{ m}$.

Gauss's Law

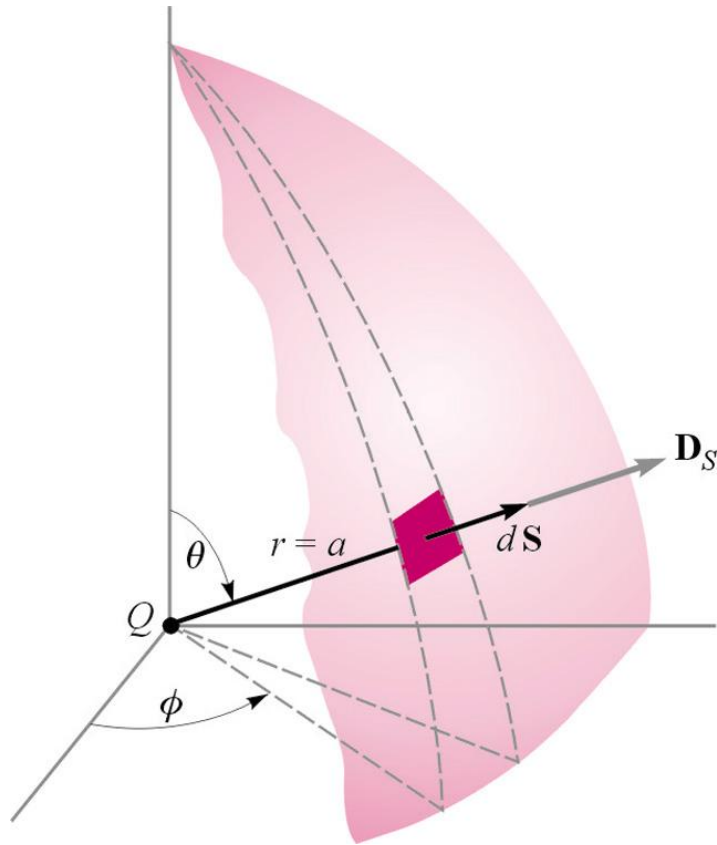
- “The electric flux passing through any closed surface is equal to the total charge enclosed by that surface.”

$$\Psi = \oint_S \mathbf{D}_S \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \text{charge enclosed} = Q$$

- The integration is performed over a *closed* surface, i.e. *gaussian surface*.



- We can check Gauss's law with a point charge example.



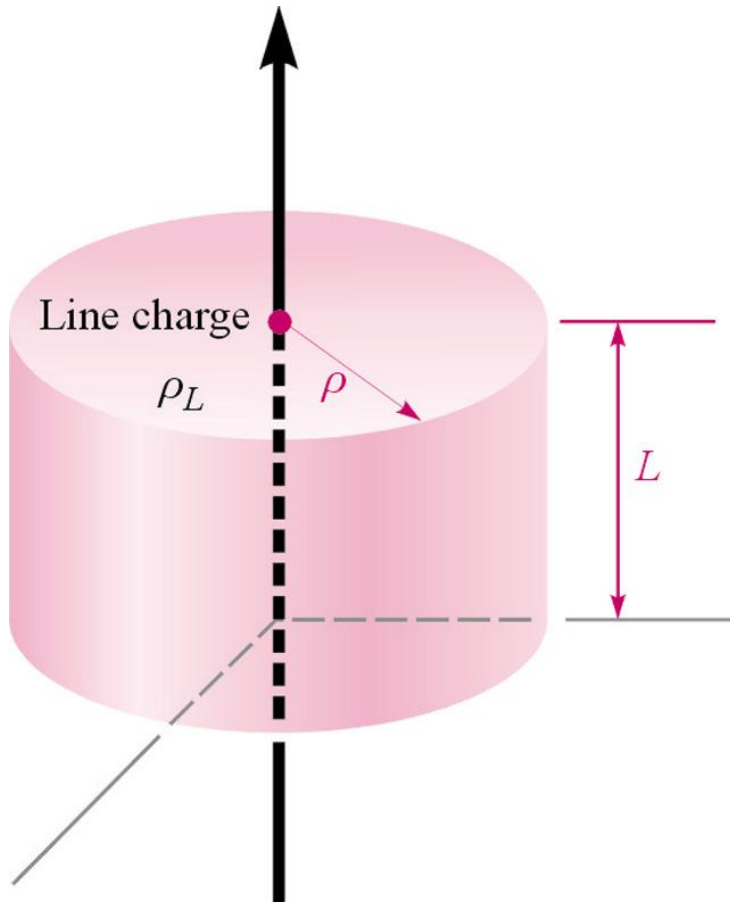
$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{q}{4\pi a^2} a^2 \sin[\theta] d\theta d\phi$$

q

Symmetrical Charge Distributions

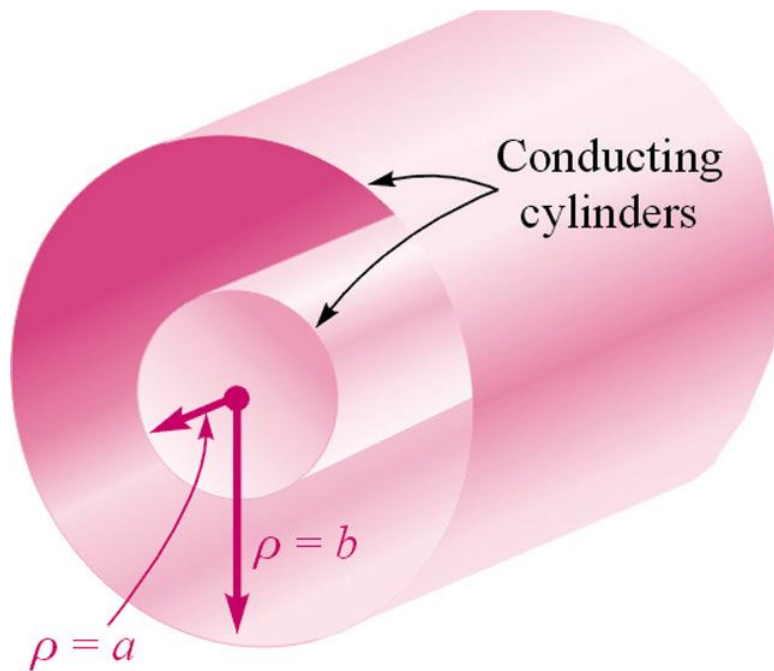
- Gauss's law is useful under two conditions.
 1. \mathbf{D}_S is everywhere either normal or tangential to the closed surface, so that $\mathbf{D}_S \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ becomes either $D_S dS$ or zero, respectively.
 2. On that portion of the closed surface for which $\mathbf{D}_S \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ is not zero, $D_S = \text{constant}$.

Gauss's law simplifies the task of finding \mathbf{D} near an infinite line charge.



$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \oint_{\text{cyl}} \mathbf{D}_S \cdot d\mathbf{S} = D_S \int_{\text{sides}} dS + 0 \int_{\text{top}} dS + 0 \int_{\text{bottom}} dS \\ &= D_S \int_{z=0}^L \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \rho d\phi dz = D_S 2\pi\rho L \\ D_S &= D_\rho = \frac{Q}{2\pi\rho L} = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\rho} \end{aligned}$$

Infinite coaxial cable:

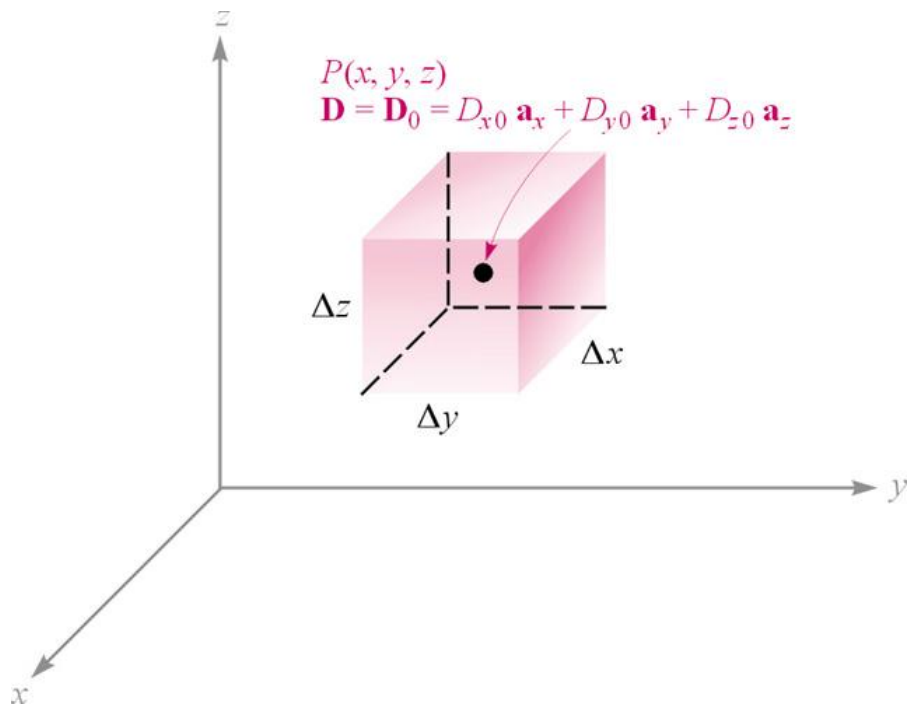


$$D = \frac{\rho L}{2\pi\rho} \mathbf{a}_\rho \quad (a < \rho < b)$$

$$D = 0 \quad (\rho > b)$$

Differential Volume Element

- If we take a small enough closed surface, then \mathbf{D} is almost constant over the surface.



$$\oint_S \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_{\text{front}} + \int_{\text{back}} + \int_{\text{left}} + \int_{\text{right}} + \int_{\text{top}} + \int_{\text{bottom}}$$

$$\int_{\text{front}} \doteq \left(D_{x0} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} \right) \Delta y \Delta z$$

$$\int_{\text{back}} \doteq \left(-D_{x0} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} \right) \Delta y \Delta z$$

$$\int_{\text{front}} + \int_{\text{back}} \doteq \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

⋮

$$\oint_S \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{S} \doteq \left(\frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \right) \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

$$\text{Charge enclosed in volume } \Delta v \doteq \left(\frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \right) \times \text{volume } \Delta v$$

D3.6a

$$D(x, y, z) := \begin{pmatrix} 8 \cdot x \cdot y \cdot z^4 \\ 4 \cdot x^2 \cdot z^4 \\ 16 x^2 \cdot y \cdot z^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\int_1^3 \int_0^2 D(x, y, 2) \cdot 10^{-12} dx dy = 1.365 \times 10^{-9}$$

D3.6b

$$D(x, y, z) := \begin{pmatrix} 8 \cdot x \cdot y \cdot z^4 \\ 4 \cdot x^2 \cdot z^4 \\ 16 \cdot x^2 \cdot y \cdot z^3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot 10^{-12}$$

$$\varepsilon_0 := 8.85410^{-12}$$

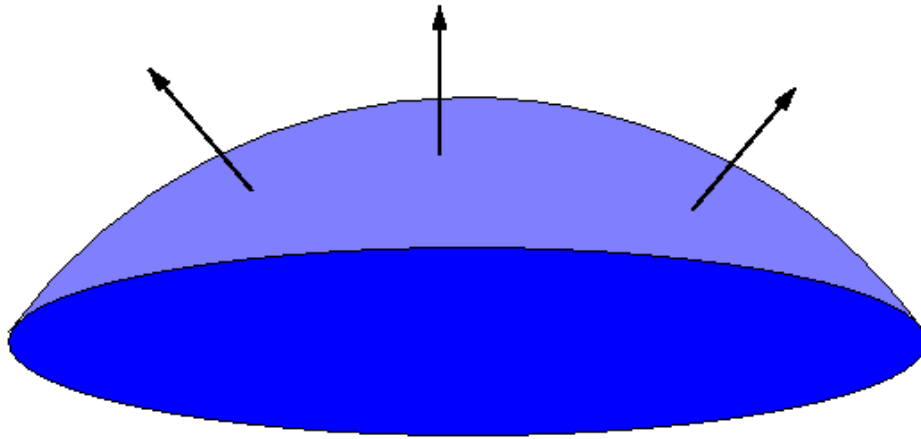
$$P := \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E := \frac{D(2, -1, 3)}{\varepsilon_0}$$

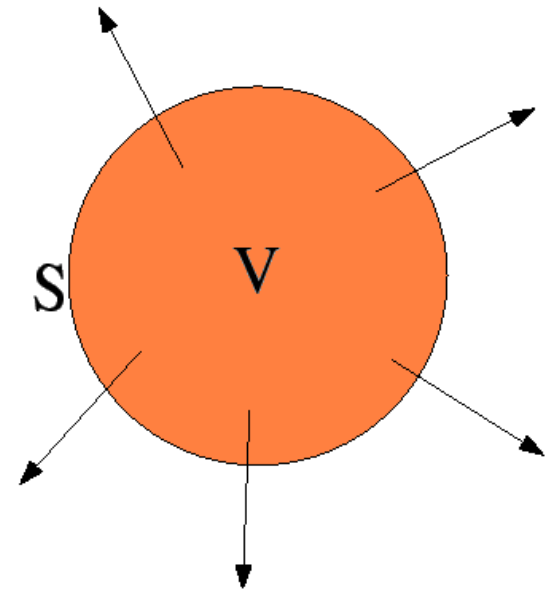
$$E = \begin{pmatrix} -146.375 \\ 146.375 \\ -195.166 \end{pmatrix}$$

Divergence

Divergence is the outflow of flux from a small closed surface area (per unit volume) as volume shrinks to zero.



open surface.



closed surface

-Water leaving a bathtub

-Closed surface (water itself) is essentially incompressible

-Net outflow is zero

-Air leaving a punctured tire

-Divergence is positive, as closed surface (tire) exhibits net outflow



Mathematical definition of divergence

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \int \frac{\mathbf{D}}{\Delta v} d\mathbf{S}$$

Surface integral as the volume element (Δv) approaches zero

\mathbf{D} is the vector flux density

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \left(\frac{\delta D_x}{\delta x} + \frac{\delta D_y}{\delta y} + \frac{\delta D_z}{\delta z} \right)$$

- Cartesian

Divergence in Other Coordinate Systems

Cylindrical

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \frac{1}{\rho} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\delta \rho} (\rho \cdot \mathbf{D}_\rho) + \frac{1}{\rho} \cdot \frac{\delta \mathbf{D}_\phi}{\delta \phi} + \frac{\delta \mathbf{D}_z}{\delta z}$$

Spherical

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \frac{1}{r^2} \cdot \frac{\delta (\mathbf{D}_r \cdot r^2)}{\delta r} + \frac{1}{r \cdot \sin(\theta)} \cdot \frac{\delta (\mathbf{D}_\theta \cdot \sin(\theta))}{\delta \theta} + \frac{1}{r \cdot \sin(\theta)} \cdot \frac{\delta \mathbf{D}_\phi}{\delta \phi}$$

Divergence at origin for given *vector flux density* **A**

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-x} \cdot \sin(y) \\ -e^{-x} \cdot \cos(y) \\ 2 \cdot z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\delta}{\delta x} (e^{-x} \cdot \sin(y)) + \frac{\delta}{\delta y} (-e^{-x} \cdot \cos(y)) + \frac{\delta}{\delta z} (2 \cdot z)$$

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{A}) = -e^{-x} \cdot \sin(y) + e^{-x} \cdot \sin(y) + 2$$

3-6: Maxwell's First Equation

$$\int_S \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = Q$$

Gauss' Law...

$$\frac{\int_S \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{S}}{\Delta v} = \frac{Q}{\Delta v}$$

...per unit volume

Volume shrinks to zero

$$\lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_S \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{S}}{\Delta v} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{Q}{\Delta v}$$

Electric flux per unit volume is equal to the volume charge density



Maxwell's First Equation

$$\lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_S \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{S}}{\Delta v} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{Q}{\Delta v}$$

$$\text{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \rho_v$$

Sometimes called the point form of Gauss' Law

Enclosed surface is reduced to a single point

3-7: ∇ and the Divergence Theorem

$\nabla \rightarrow$ *del* operator



What is **del**?

$$\nabla = \frac{\delta(\mathbf{a}_x)}{\delta x} + \frac{\delta(\mathbf{a}_y)}{\delta y} + \frac{\delta(\mathbf{a}_z)}{\delta z}$$

∇ 's Relationship to Divergence

$$\text{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D}$$

True for all coordinate systems

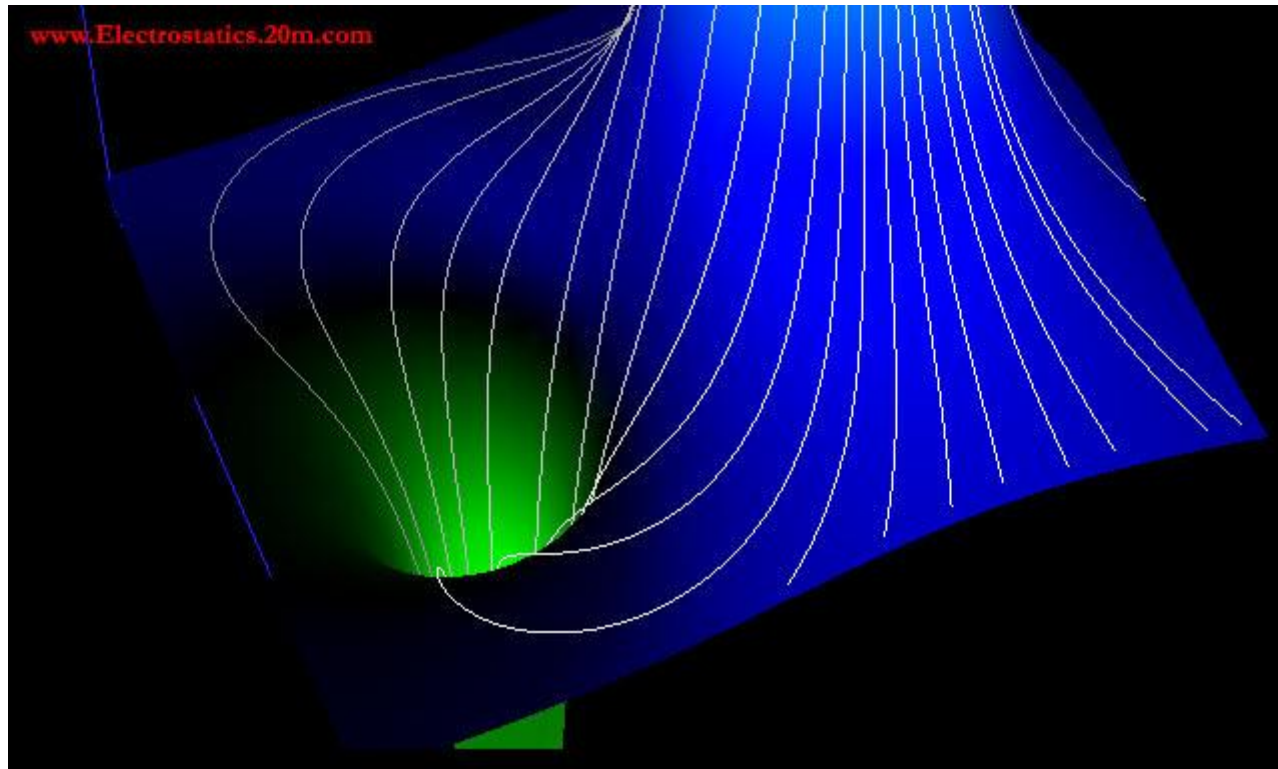
$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} &= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} x + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} y + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} z \right] \cdot [A_x x + A_y y + A_z z] \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} \right) + \left(\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial y} \right) + \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial z} \right) ;\end{aligned}$$

Other ∇ Relationships

Gradient – results from ∇ operating on a function

$$\nabla f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right) \mathbf{x} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) \mathbf{y} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\right) \mathbf{z} .$$

Represents direction of greatest change



Curl – cross product of ∇ and

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \mathbf{x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \mathbf{y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \mathbf{z} \right] \times \left[A_x \mathbf{x} + A_y \mathbf{y} + A_z \mathbf{z} \right] =$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} \right) (\mathbf{z}) + \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} \right) (-\mathbf{y}) + \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \right) (-\mathbf{z}) + \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial y} \right) (\mathbf{x}) + \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} \right) (\mathbf{y}) + \left(\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial z} \right) (-\mathbf{x})$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial z} \right) \mathbf{x} + \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} \right) \mathbf{y} + \left(\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \right) \mathbf{z}$$

Relates to work in a field

If curl is zero, so is work

Examination of ∇ and flux

Cube defined by $1 < x, y, z < 1.2$

$$\mathbf{D} = 2 \cdot x^2 \cdot y \cdot \mathbf{a}_x + 3 \cdot x^2 \cdot y^2 \cdot \mathbf{a}_y$$

Calculation of total flux

$$Q = \int_S \mathbf{D} d\mathbf{S} = \int_{\text{vol}} \rho_v dv = \Phi$$

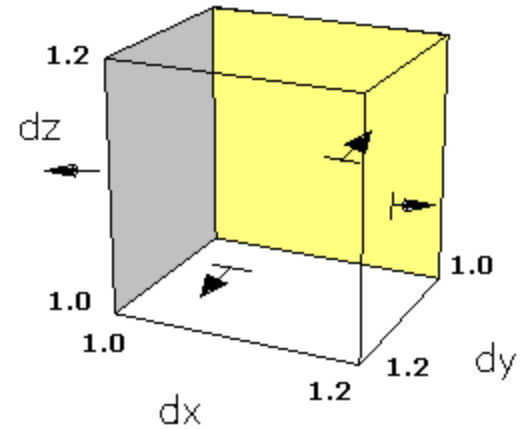
$$\Phi_{\text{total}} = \Phi_{\text{left}} + \Phi_{\text{right}} + \Phi_{\text{front}} + \Phi_{\text{back}}$$

$$\Phi_{x1} := \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} -2 \cdot x_1^2 \cdot y \, dy \, dz$$

$$\Phi_{x2} := \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} 2 \cdot x_2^2 \cdot y \, dy \, dz$$

$$\Phi_{y1} := \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} -3 \cdot x^2 \cdot y_1^2 \, dx \, dz$$

$$\Phi_{y2} := \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} 3 \cdot x^2 \cdot y_2^2 \, dx \, dz$$



$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &:= 1 & x_2 &:= 1.2 \\ y_1 &:= 1 & y_2 &:= 1.2 \\ z_1 &:= 1 & z_2 &:= 1.2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Phi_{\text{total}} := \Phi_{x1} + \Phi_{x2} + \Phi_{y1} + \Phi_{y2}$$

$$\Phi_{\text{total}} = 0.103$$

Evaluation of $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D}$ at center of cube

$$\text{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \frac{d}{dx} (2 \cdot x^2 \cdot y) + \frac{d}{dy} (3 \cdot x^2 \cdot y^2)$$

$$\text{div}(\mathbf{D}) = 4 \cdot x \cdot y + 6 \cdot x^2 \cdot y$$

$$\text{divD} := 4 \cdot (1.1) \cdot (1.1) + 6 \cdot (1.1)^2 \cdot (1.1)$$

$$\text{divD} = 12.826$$

Non-Cartesian Example

Inside the cylindrical shell, $3 < \rho < 4$ m, the electric flux density is given as

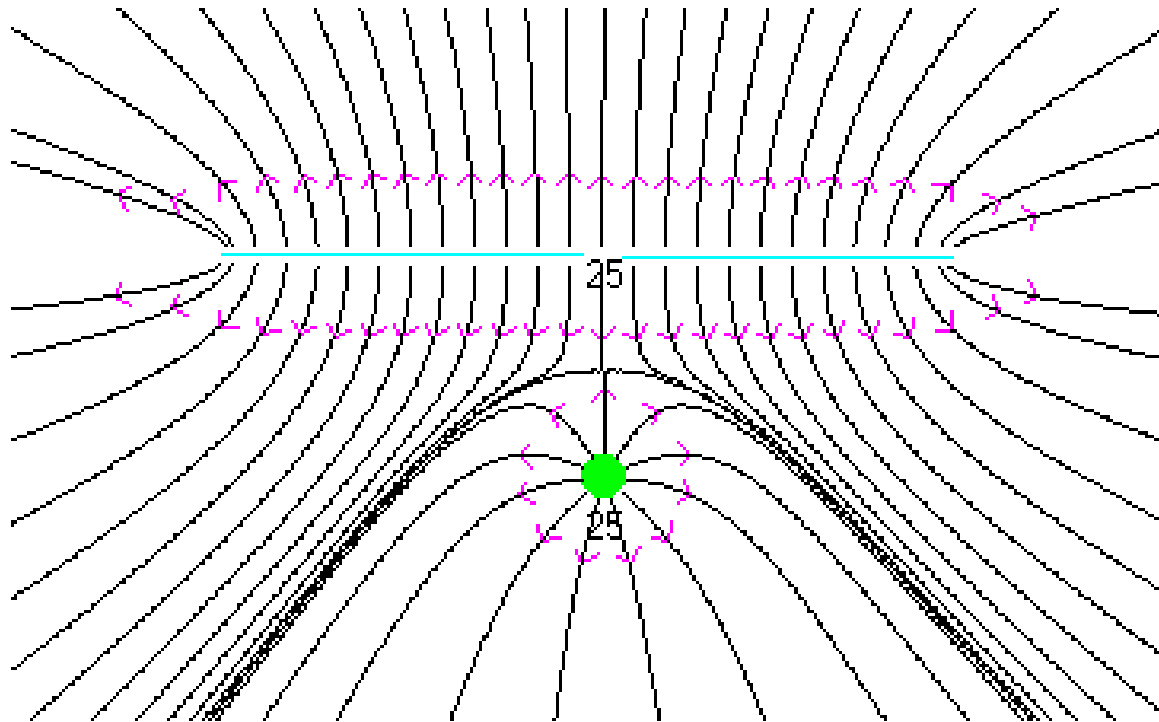
$$\mathbf{D} = 5(\rho - 3)^3 \mathbf{a}_\rho \text{ C/m}^2$$

a) What is the volume charge density at $\rho = 4$ m? In this case we have

$$\rho_v = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d}{d\rho} (\rho D_\rho) = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d}{d\rho} [5\rho(\rho - 3)^3] = \frac{5(\rho - 3)^2}{\rho} (4\rho - 3) \text{ C/m}^3$$

Evaluating this at $\rho = 4$ m, we find $\rho_v(4) = \underline{\underline{16.25 \text{ C/m}^3}}$

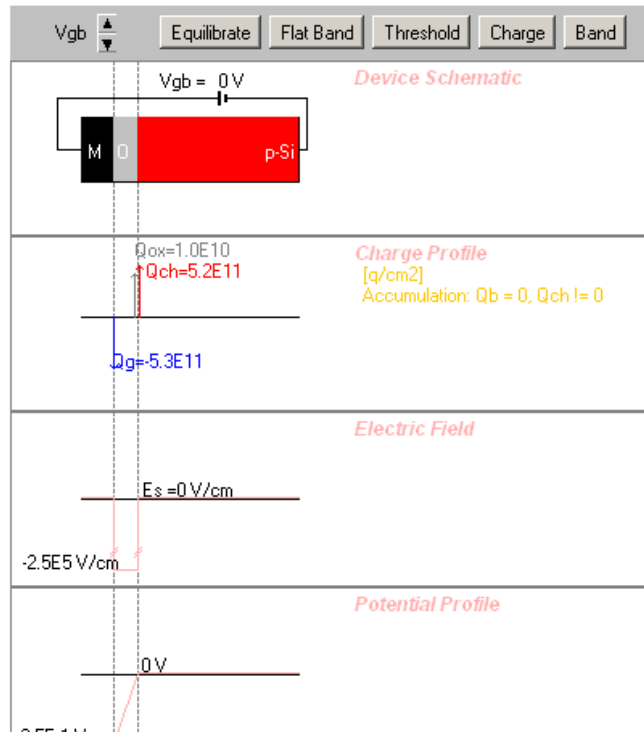
Equipotential Surfaces – Free Software



MOS Capacitor with Bias

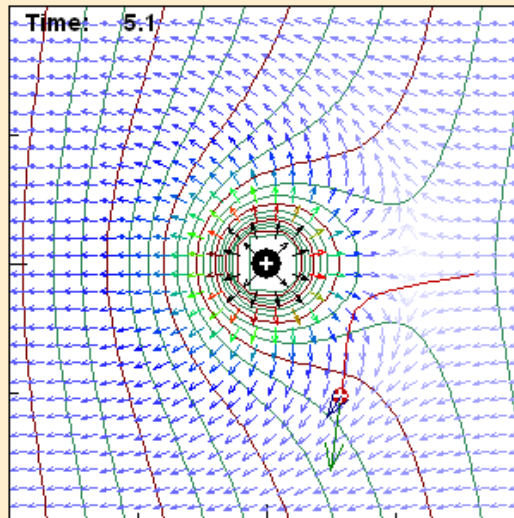
Device-Charge-Field-Potential

Warning: do not click the reload or refresh button on your browser. It hides part of the applet view.



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- [App. Tutorial](#)
- [Worksheet](#)
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Dynamics



play pause <<step step>> reset

A positive test charge is placed into a potential field consisting a point charge and a background field in the $-x$ direction. Both the test charge and the fixed charge can be dragged to new positions. Observe the dynamics. [Start](#)

Script Example

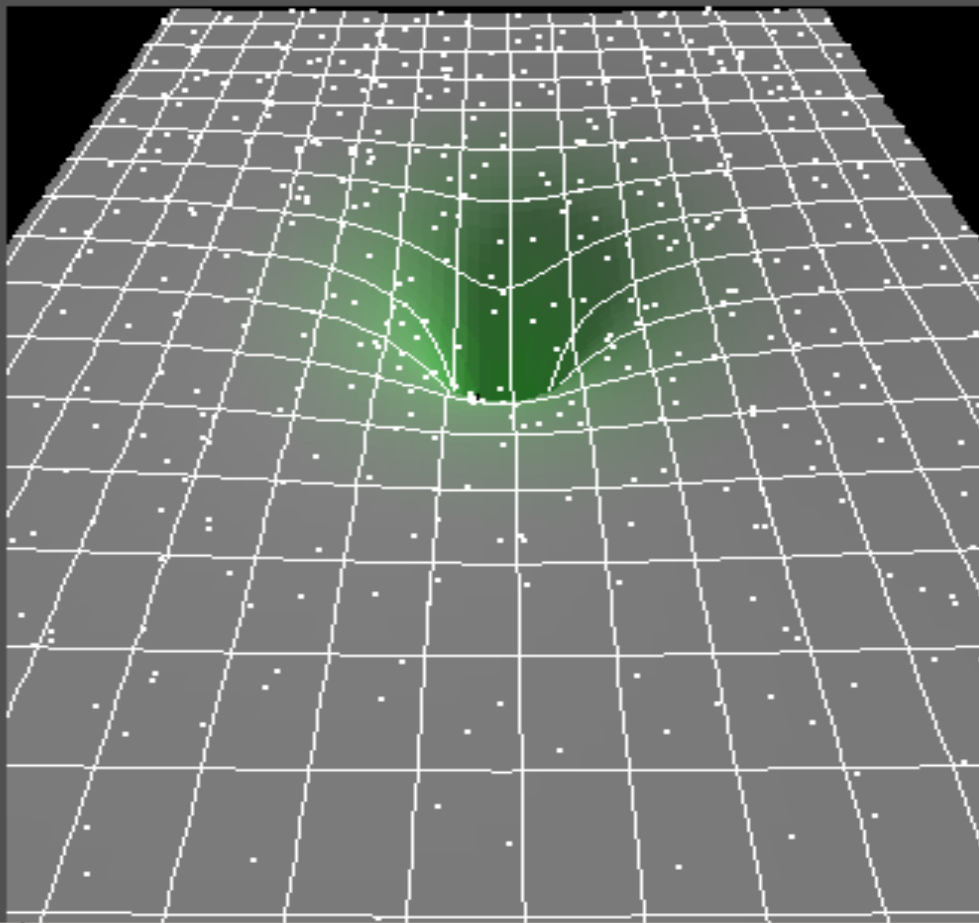
```
<script language="JavaScript">
function dynamics() {
    document.EField.setDefault();
    document.EField.setNoDrag(0);
    document.EField.setShowForce(0);
}
```

Vector Field Simulation - Microsoft Internet Explorer

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Semiconductor Application - Device Charge Field Potential

Applications of Gauss's Law

