

#### S J P N Trust's

### Hirasugar Institute of Technology, Nidasoshi.

Inculcating Values, Promoting Prosperity

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ECE Dept. EE III Sem 2018-19

## Department of Electronics & Communication Engg.

Course: Engineering Electromagnetics -17EC36. Sem.: 3<sup>rd</sup> (2018-19)

**Course Coordinator:** 

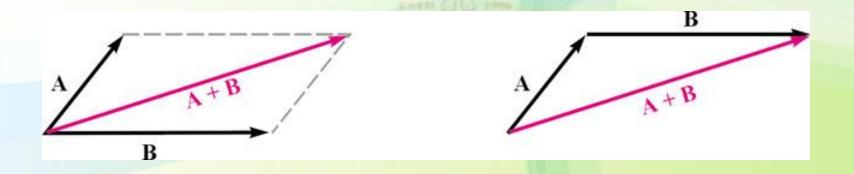
Prof. S. S. KAMATE

## **Vector Analysis**

Scalars and Vectors

Scalar Fields (temperature)
Vector Fields (gravitational, magnetic)

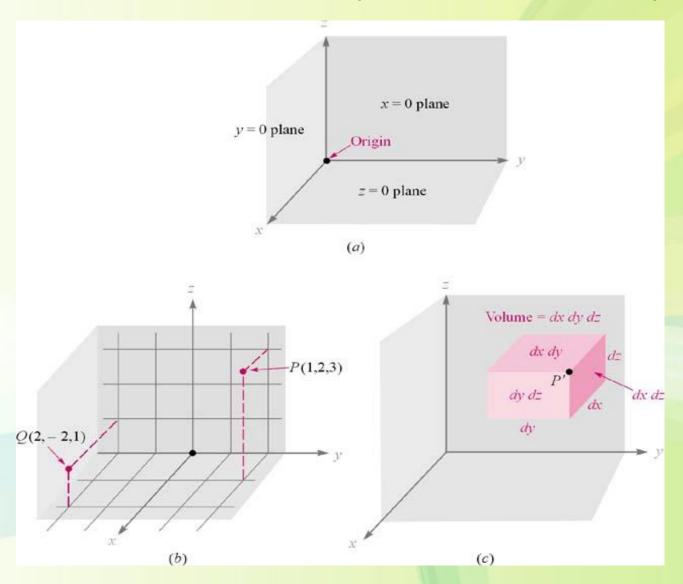
Vector Algebra



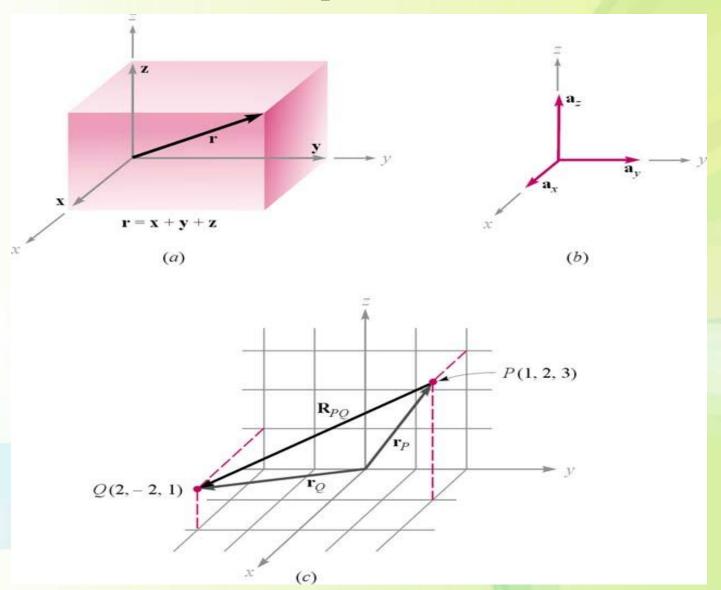
## There are three co-ordinate systems

- 1. Cartesian or rectangular co-ordinate system
- 2. Cylindrical co-ordinate System
- 3. Spherical co-ordinate System

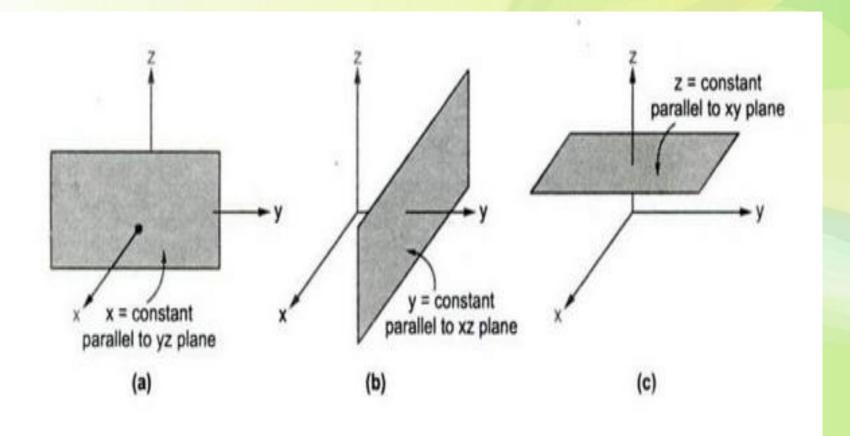
### The Cartesian Coordinate System: vertices are x,y,z



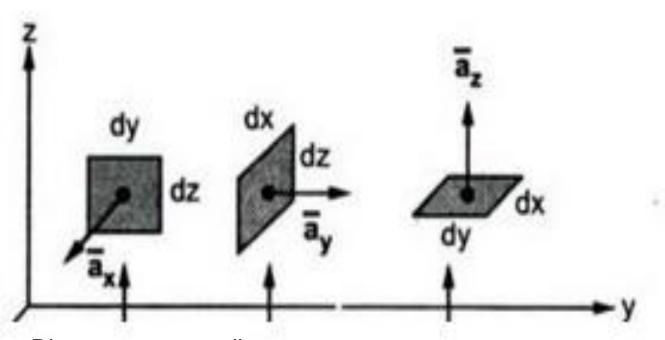
### **Vector Components and Unit Vectors**



## Constant planes



### Contd...

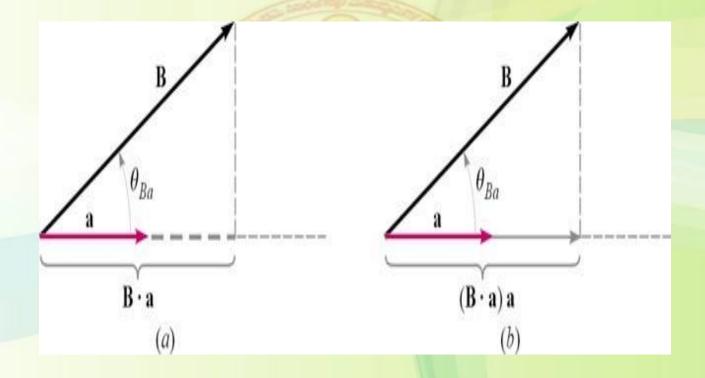


Distance vector - dl Differential surfaces dv =

### The Dot product

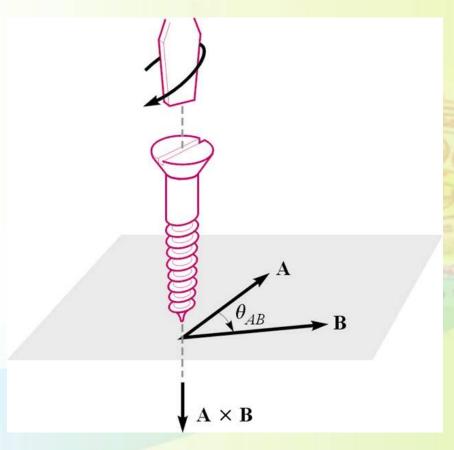
$$A.B = |A||B|\cos\theta_{AB}$$

B in the direction of A You need to normalize a before the dot product.



#### The Cross Product

$$A \times B = a_N |A| |B| \sin \theta_{AB}$$



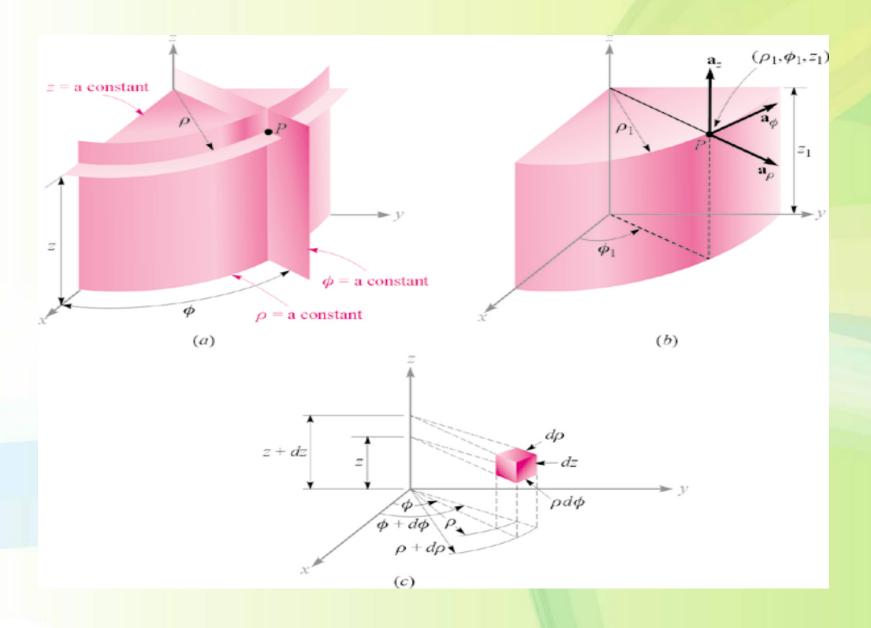
$$A \times B = \begin{pmatrix} ax & ay & az \\ Ax & Ay & Az \\ Bx & By & Bz \end{pmatrix}$$

### Example

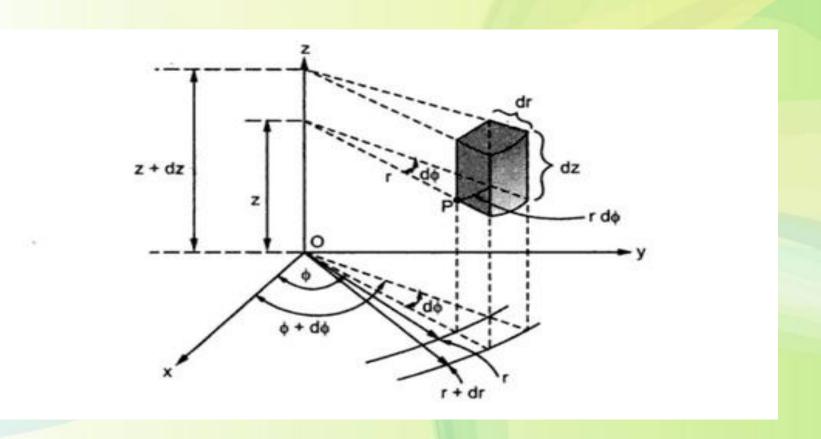
$$A := \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad B := \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ -2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

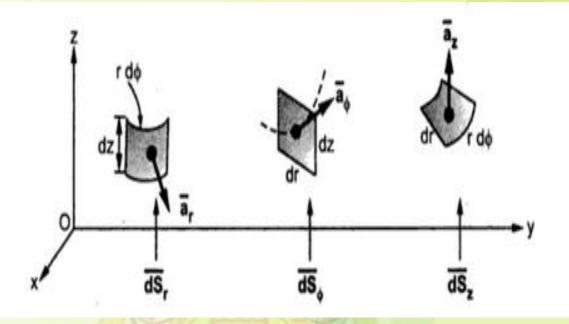
$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} -13 \\ -14 \\ -16 \end{pmatrix}$$

### Circular Cylindrical Coordinate System



### Differential volume

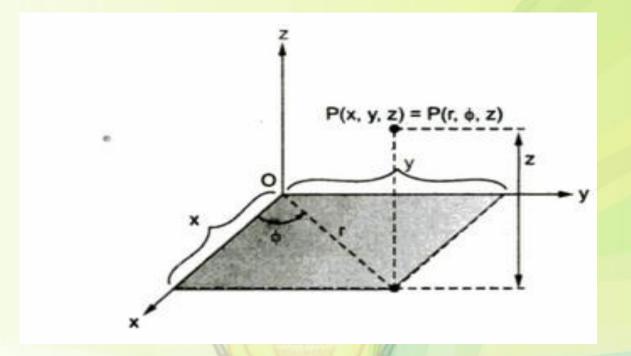




 $\overline{dS}_r$  = Differential vector surface area normal to r direction =  $r d\phi dz \overline{a}_r$ 

 $\overline{dS}_{\phi}$  = Differential vector surface area normal to  $\phi$  direction =  $dr dz \ \overline{a}_{\phi}$ 

 $\overline{dS}_z$  = Differential vector surface area normal to z direction =  $r dr d\phi \overline{a}_z$ 

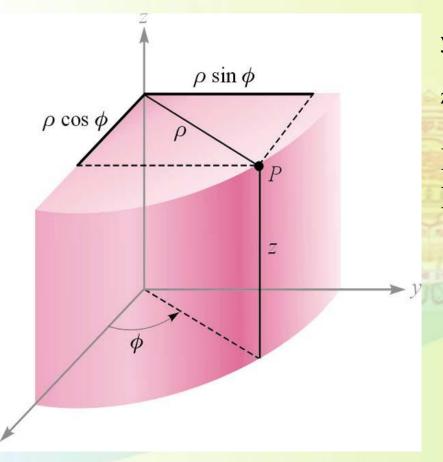


$$x = r \cos \phi$$
,  $y = r \sin \phi$  and  $z = z$ 

It can be seen that, r can be expressed interms of x and y as,

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

### Circular Cylindrical Coordinate System



$$x = \rho \cdot \cos(\phi)$$

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

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

$$p = 0$$

$$p = \sin(\phi)$$

$$p = \tan(\frac{y}{x})$$

$$p = x$$

z = z

Dot Product

 $A = Ax \cdot ax + Ay \cdot ay + Az \cdot az$ 

 $A = A\rho \cdot a\rho + A\phi a\phi + Az \cdot az$ 

 $A\rho = A \cdot a\rho$   $A\phi = A \cdot a\phi$  Az = Az

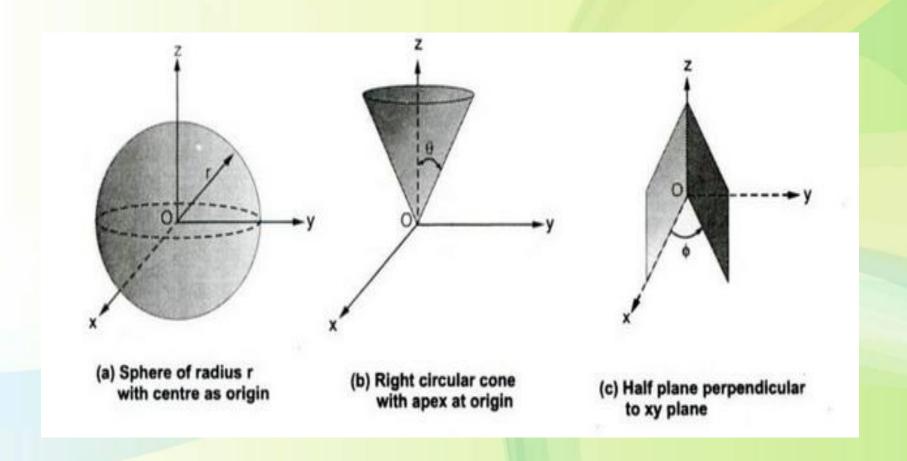
 $A\rho = (Ax \cdot ax + Ay \cdot ay + Az \cdot az) \cdot a\rho = Ax \cdot ax \cdot a\rho + Ay \cdot ay \cdot a\rho$ 

 $A\phi = (Ax \cdot ax + Ay \cdot ay + Az \cdot az) \cdot a\phi = Ax \cdot ax \cdot a\phi + Ay \cdot ay \cdot a\phi$ 

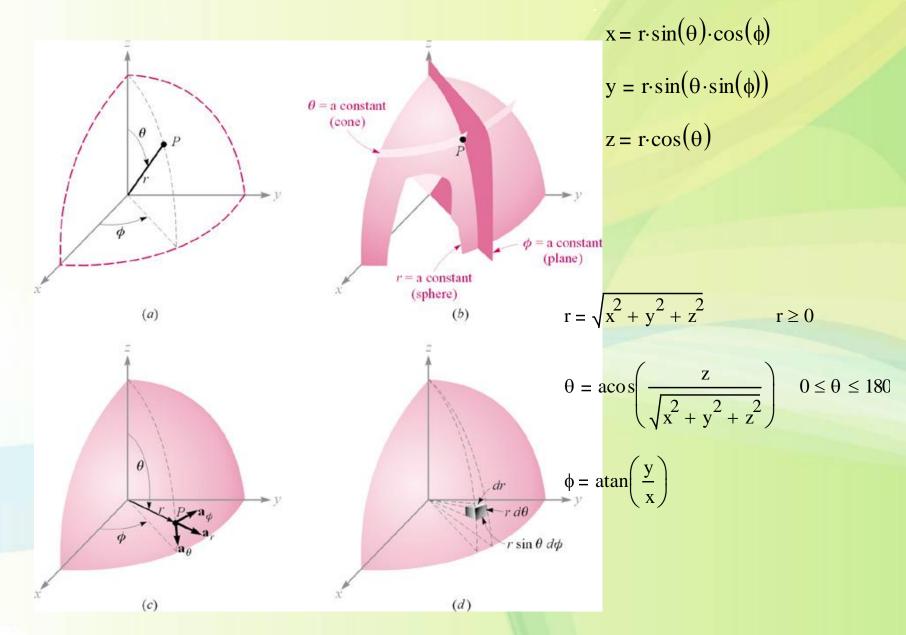
 $Az = (Ax \cdot ax + Ay \cdot ay + Az \cdot az) \cdot az = Az \cdot az \cdot az = Az$ 

 $az \cdot a\rho = az \cdot \phi = 0$ 

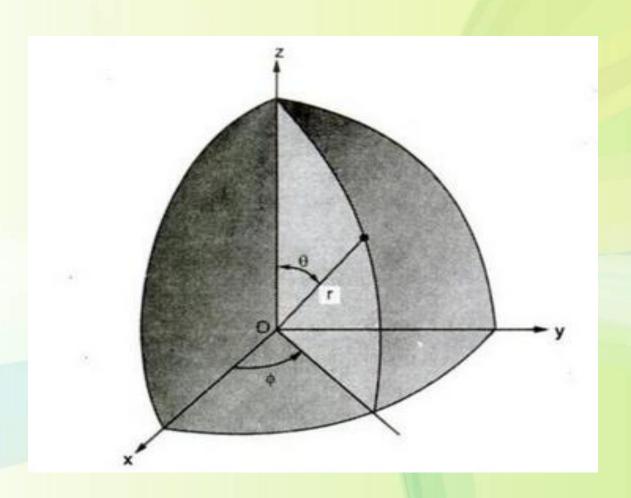
## Spherical co-ordinate system

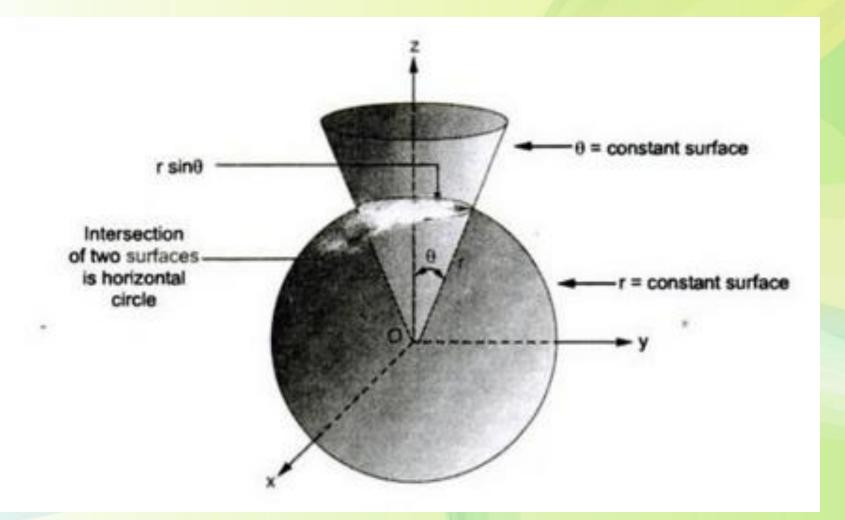


### The Spherical Coordinate System

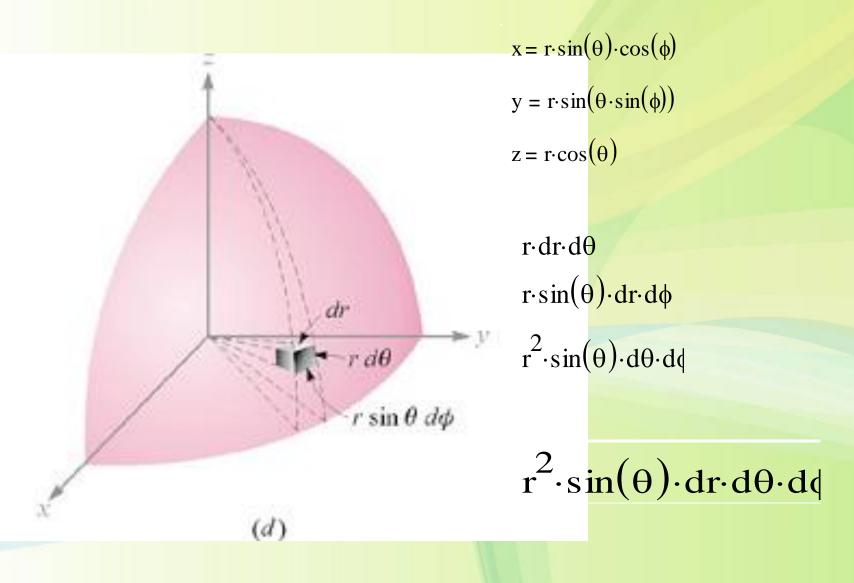


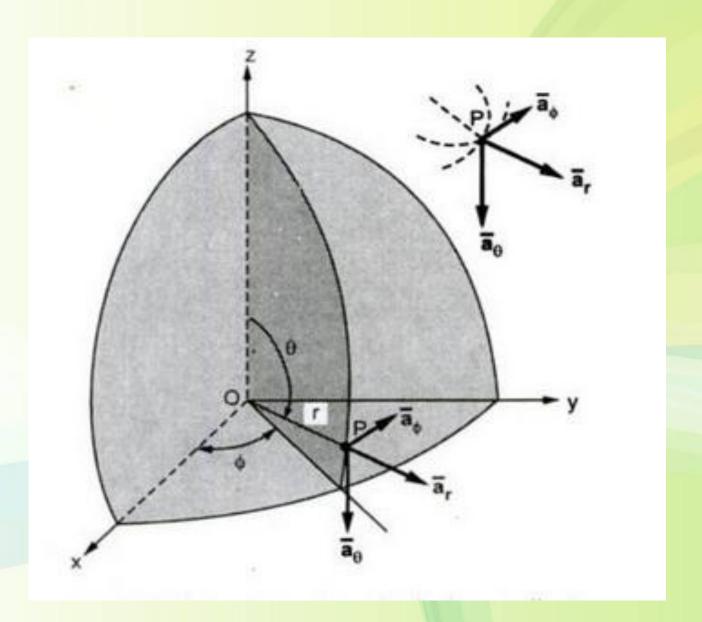
# **Sperical Co-ordinate System**

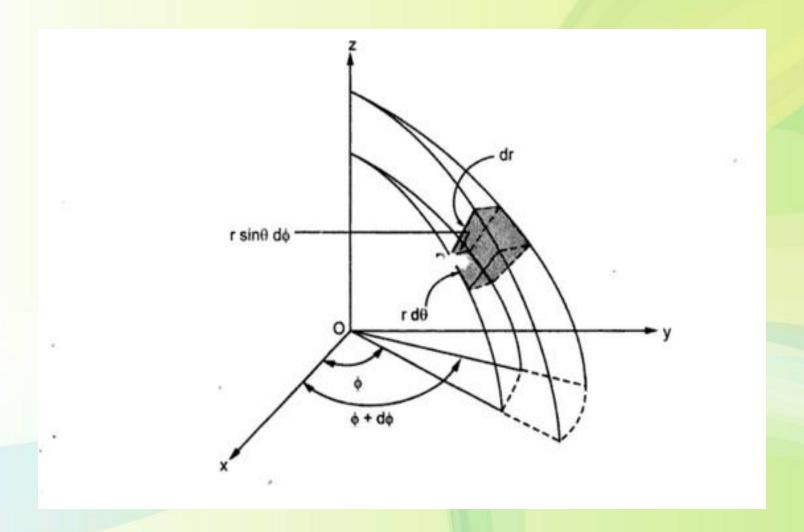


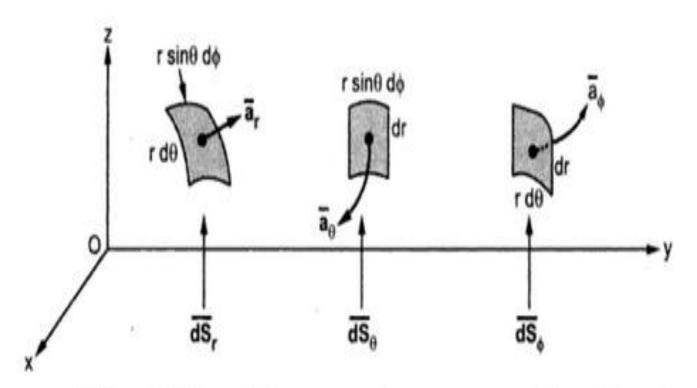


### The Spherical Coordinate System





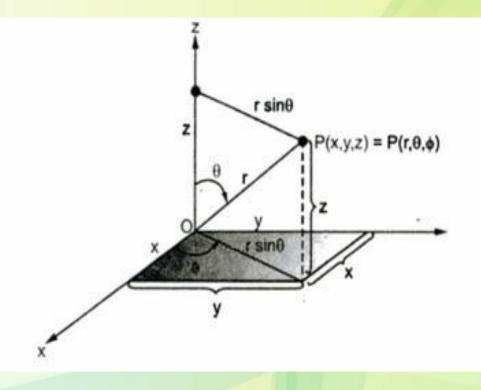




 $\overline{dS}_r$  = Differential vector surface area normal to r direction =  $r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$ 

 $\overline{dS}_{\theta}$  = Differential vector surface area normal to  $\theta$  direction =  $r \sin \theta dr d\phi$ 

 $\overline{dS}_{\phi}$  = Differential vector surface area normal to  $\phi$  direction =  $r dr d\theta$ 



$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$$
 and  $y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$ 

$$z = r \cos \theta$$

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

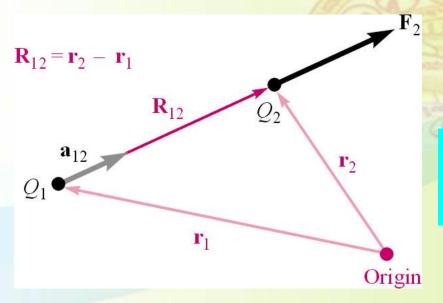
## The Experimental Law of Coulomb

$$F = k \cdot \frac{Q1 \cdot Q2}{R^2}$$

$$k = \frac{1}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \varepsilon_0}$$

$$\varepsilon_0 = 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12} = \frac{1}{36 \cdot \pi} \cdot 10^{-9}$$
 m

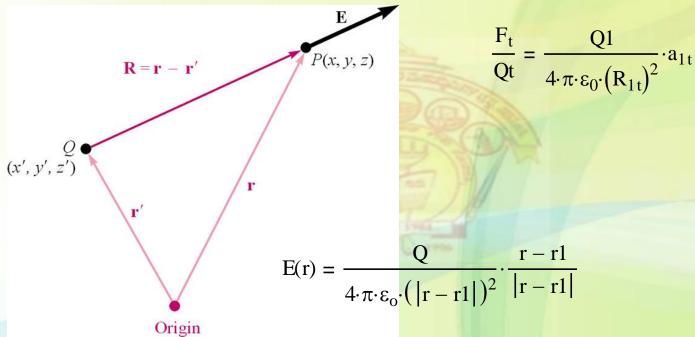
$$F = k \cdot \frac{Q1 \cdot Q2}{R^2} \qquad \qquad k = \frac{1}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0} \qquad \qquad \epsilon_0 = 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12} = \frac{1}{36 \cdot \pi} \cdot 10^{-9} \quad F = \frac{Q1 \cdot Q2}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot R^2}$$



$$F = \frac{Q1 \cdot Q2}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \varepsilon_0 \cdot R^2} \cdot a_{12} \qquad a_{12} = \frac{r2 - r1}{|r2 - r1|}$$

# **Electric Field Intensity**

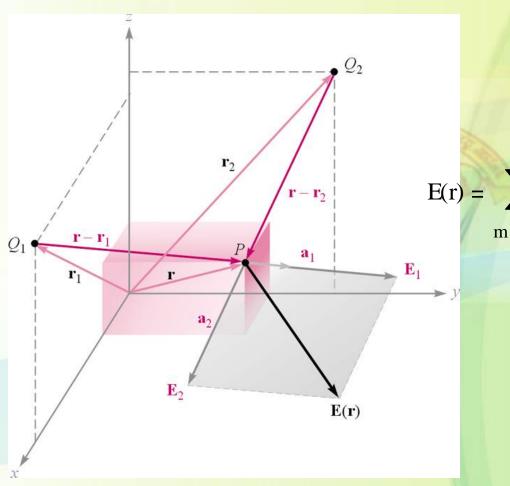
$$F_{t} = \frac{Q1 \cdot Qt}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \varepsilon_{0} \cdot (R_{1t})^{2}} \cdot a_{1t}$$



$$\mathbf{F}$$

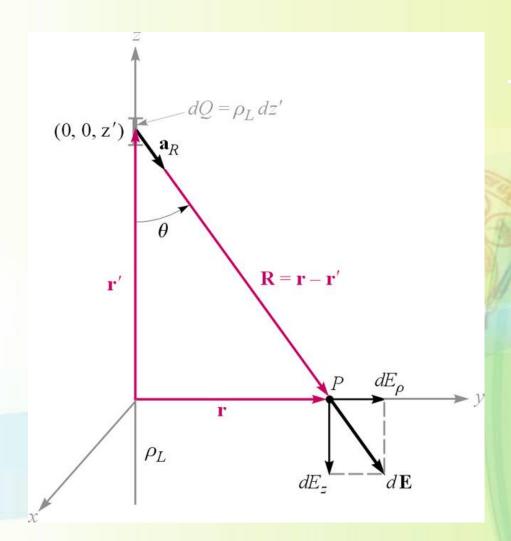
$$E(r) = \frac{Q \cdot \left[ (x - x1) \cdot a_x + (y - y1) \cdot a_y + (z - z1) \cdot a_z \right]}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \varepsilon_o \cdot \left[ (x - x1)^2 + (y - y1)^2 + (z - z1)^2 \right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

### **Electric Field Intensity**



$$E(r) = \sum_{m=1}^{n} \frac{Qm}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \varepsilon_{0} \cdot (|r - r_{m}|)^{2}} \cdot a_{m}$$

### Field of a Line Charge



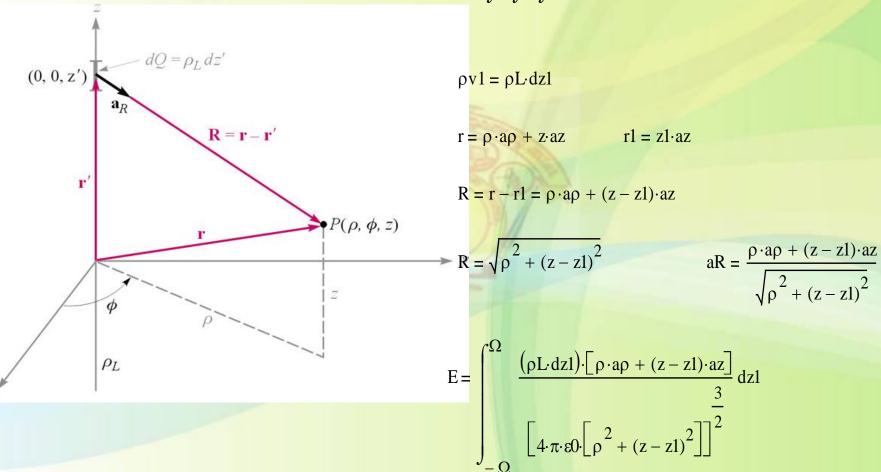
$$E\rho = \int_{-\Omega}^{\Omega} \frac{\rho L \cdot \rho}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \left(\rho^2 + z^2\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dz$$

$$E\rho = \frac{\rho L}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \rho}$$

$$E = \frac{\rho L}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \rho} \cdot a_{\rho}$$

### Field of a Line Charge (neglect symmetry)

$$E = \int \int \frac{\rho vq}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon 0} \cdot \frac{(r - r1)}{(|r - r1|)^3} dx 1 dy 1 dz 1$$



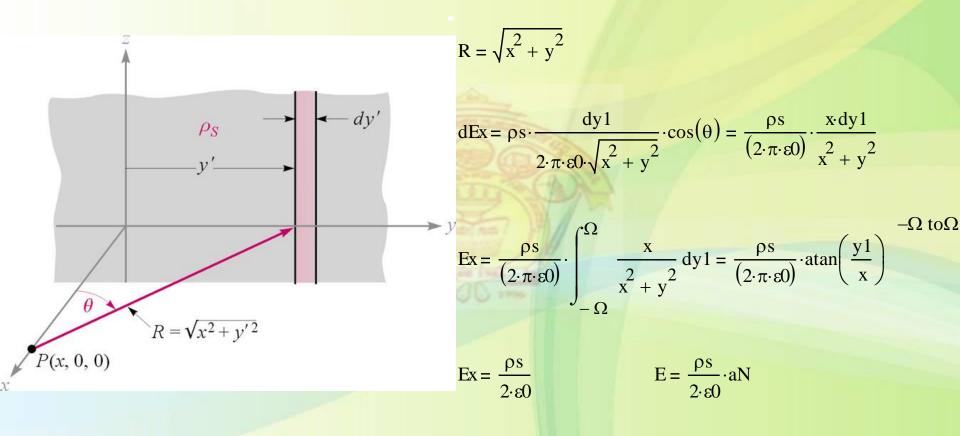
# Field of a Line Charge (neglect symmetry)

$$E = \frac{\rho L}{\left(4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon 0\right)} \cdot \left[ a\rho \cdot \int_{-\Omega}^{\Omega} \frac{\left(\rho \cdot dz1\right)}{\left[\left[\rho^{2} + (z-z1)^{2}\right]\right]^{2}} dz1 + az \cdot \int_{-\Omega}^{\Omega} \frac{\left((z-z1)\right)}{\left[\left[\rho^{2} + (z-z1)^{2}\right]\right]^{2}} dz1 \right]$$

$$E = \frac{\rho L}{\left(4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon 0\right)} \cdot \left[ a\rho \cdot \rho \cdot \frac{1}{\rho^2} \cdot \frac{-(z-z1)}{\sqrt{\rho^2 + (z-z1)^2}} + az \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho^2 + (z-z1)^2}} \right]$$

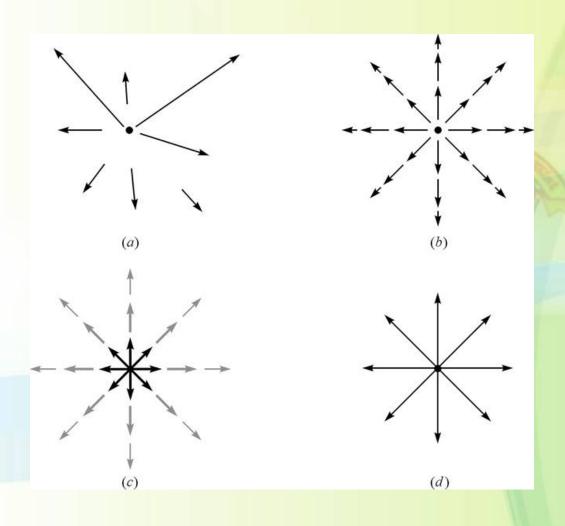
$$E = \frac{\rho L}{(4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon 0)} \cdot \left( a\rho \cdot \frac{2}{\rho} + az \cdot 0 \right) = \frac{\rho L}{(2 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon 0) \cdot \rho} \cdot a\rho$$

### Field of a Sheet of Charge



This is a very interesting result. The field is constant in magnitude and direction. It is as strong a million miles away from the sheet as it is right of the surface.

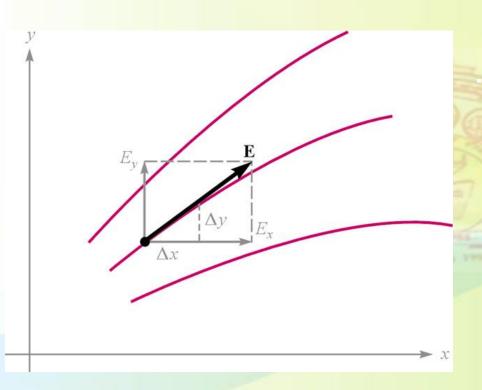
#### Streamlines and Sketches of Fields



Cross-sectional view of the line charge.

Lengths
proportional to the
magnitudes of E
and pointing in the
direction of E

#### Streamlines and Sketches of Fields



$$\frac{Ey}{Ex} = \frac{dy}{dz}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{\rho} \cdot a\rho \qquad E = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \cdot ax + \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} \cdot ay$$

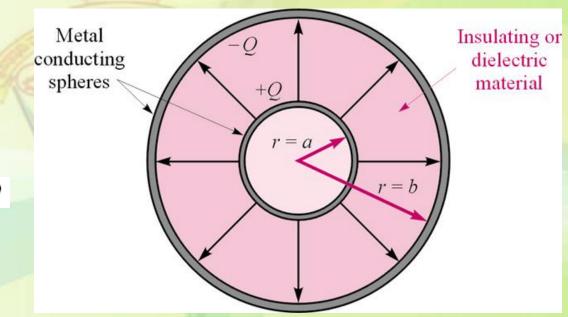
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{Ey}{Ex} = \frac{y}{x} \qquad \qquad \frac{dy}{y} = \frac{dx}{x}$$

$$ln(y) = ln(x) + C1$$
  $ln(y) = ln(x) + ln(c)$ 

$$y = C \cdot x$$

# 3.1 Electric Flux Density

Faraday's Experiment



Flux =  $\Psi$ , same units as Q

 $\Psi$  is responsible for creating -Q on outer sphere

# **Electric Flux Density, D**

- Units: C/m<sup>2</sup>
- 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 E).
- For a point charge:  $\mathbf{D} = \frac{Q}{4 \pi r^2} \mathbf{a}_r$
- For a general charge distribution,

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

#### **D3.1**

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

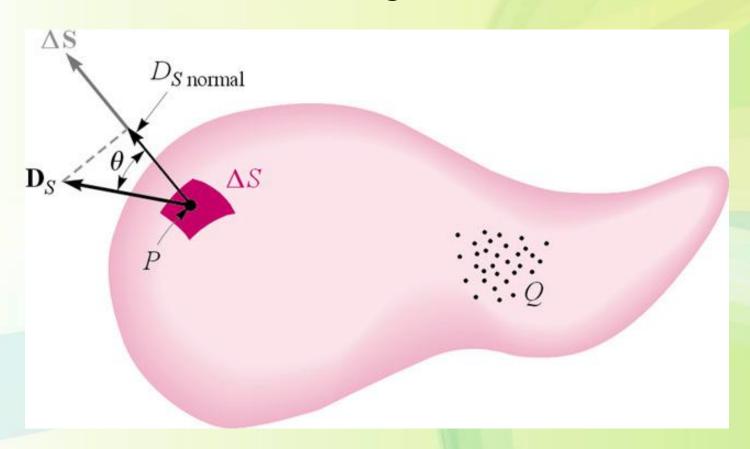
(a) That portion of the sphere r = 26 cm bounded by 0 < theta < Pi/2 and 0 < phi < Pi/2

## Gauss's Law

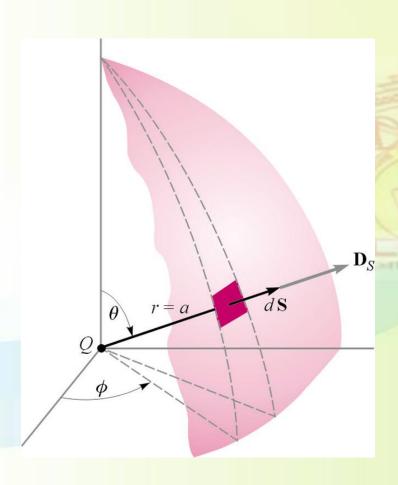
 "The electric flux passing through any closed surface is equal to the total charge enclosed by that surface."

$$\Psi = \oint_{S} \mathbf{D}_{S} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \text{charge enclosed} = Q$$

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



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

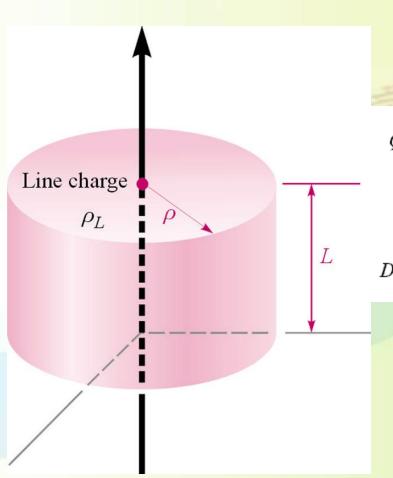


$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{q}{4\pi a^2} a^2 \sin[\theta] d\theta d\phi$$

## Symmetrical Charge Distributions

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

Gauss's law simplifies the task of finding **D** near an infinite line charge.

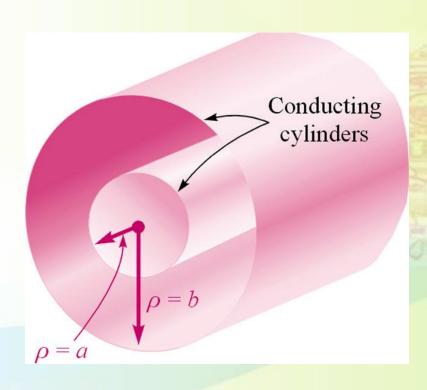


$$Q = \oint_{\text{cyl}} \mathbf{D}_{S} \cdot d\mathbf{I} \mathbf{S} = D_{S} \int_{\text{sides}} d\mathbf{I} S + 0 \int_{\text{top}} d\mathbf{I} S + 0 \int_{\text{bottom}} d\mathbf{I} S$$

$$= D_{S} \int_{Z=0}^{L} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \rho \, d\mathbf{I} \phi \, d\mathbf{I} z = D_{S} \, 2\pi \rho L$$

$$D_{S} = D_{\rho} = \frac{Q}{2\pi\rho L} = \frac{\rho_{L}}{2\pi\rho}$$

#### Infinite coaxial cable:

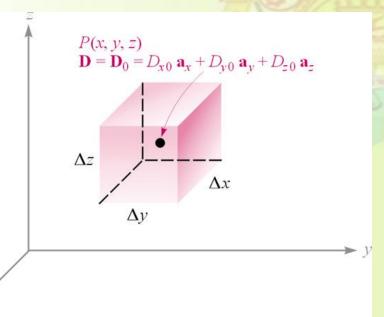


$$D = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\rho} \, \mathbf{a}_\rho \quad (a < \rho < b)$$

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

#### **Differential Volume Element**

If we take a small enough closed surface,
 then D is almost constant over the surface.



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

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

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

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

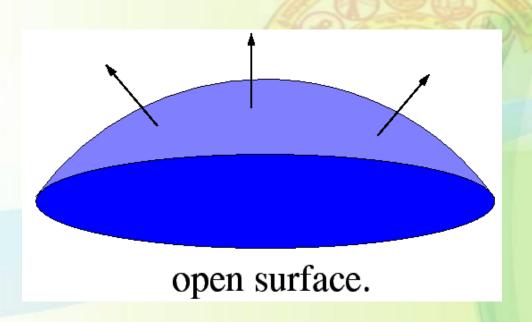
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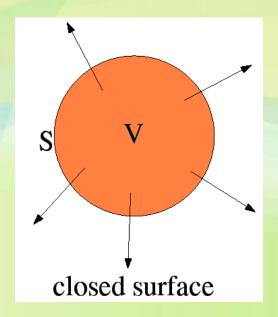
$$\oint_{S} \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{S} \doteq \left( \frac{\partial D_{x}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_{y}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_{z}}{\partial z} \right) \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

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

## Divergence

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





#### -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

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

Surface integral as the volume element ( $\Delta v$ ) approaches zero

D is the vector flux density

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

#### Divergence in Other Coordinate Systems

### Cylindrical

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

### Spherical

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{D}) = \frac{1}{r^2} \cdot \frac{\delta\left(D_r \cdot r^2\right)}{\delta r} + \frac{1}{r \cdot \sin(\theta)} \cdot \frac{\delta\left(D_{\theta} \cdot \sin(\theta)\right)}{\delta \theta} + \frac{1}{r \cdot \sin(\theta)} \cdot \frac{\delta D_{\phi}}{\delta \phi}$$

## 4.1 Energy to move a point charge through a Field

Force on Q due to an electric field

$$F_E = QE$$

Differential work done by an external source moving Q

$$dW = -QE \cdot dL$$

Work required to move a charge a finite distance

$$W = -Q \int_{\text{init}}^{\text{final}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{L}$$

## Line Integral

Work expression without using vectors

EL is the component of E in the dL direction

$$W = -Q \cdot \int_{\text{initial}}^{\text{final}} E_{L} dL$$

$$d\mathbf{L} = dx \, \mathbf{a}_x + dy \, \mathbf{a}_y + dz \, \mathbf{a}_z \qquad \text{(cartesian)}$$

$$d\mathbf{L} = d\rho \, \mathbf{a}\rho + \rho \, d\phi \, \mathbf{a}_\phi + dz \, \mathbf{a}_z \qquad \text{(cylindrical)}$$

$$d\mathbf{L} = dr \, \mathbf{a}_r + r \, d\theta \, \mathbf{a}_\theta + r \sin \theta \, d\phi \, \mathbf{a}_\phi \qquad \text{(spherical)}$$

Uniform electric field density

$$W = -QE \cdot L_{BA}$$

#### **Potential**

 Measure potential difference between a point and something which has zero potential "ground"

$$V_{AB} = V_A - V_B$$

## Potential Field of a Point Charge

Let V=0 at infinity

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

- Equipotential surface:
  - A surface composed of all points having the same potential

# Potential due to *n* point charges

Continue adding charges

$$V(r) = \frac{Q1}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot |r - r1|} + \frac{Q2}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot |r - r2|} + \dots + \frac{Qn}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot |r - r_n|}$$

$$V(r) = \sum_{m=1}^{n} \frac{Qm}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_{0} \cdot |r - r_{m}|}$$

## Potential as point charges become infinite

Volume of charge

$$V(r) = \int \frac{\rho_{v}(r_{prime})}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_{0} \cdot |r - r_{prime}|} dv_{prime}$$

Line of charge

$$V(r) = \int \frac{\rho L(r_{prime})}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_{0} |r - r_{prime}|} dL_{prime}$$

Surface of charge

$$V(r) = \int \frac{\rho \ S(r \text{ prime})}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \varepsilon \ 0 \cdot |r - r \text{ prime}|} \ dS \text{ prime}$$

## Potential as point charges become infinite

Volume of charge

$$V(r) = \int \frac{\rho_{v}(r_{prime})}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_{0} \cdot |r - r_{prime}|} dv_{prime}$$

Line of charge

$$V(r) = \int \frac{\rho L(r_{prime})}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \epsilon_{0} |r - r_{prime}|} dL_{prime}$$

Surface of charge

$$V(r) = \int \frac{\rho \ S(r \text{ prime})}{4 \cdot \pi \cdot \varepsilon \ 0 \cdot |r - r \text{ prime}|} \ dS \text{ prime}$$

# Gradients in different coordinate systems

The following equations are found on page 104 and inside the back cover of the text:

grad V = 
$$\frac{\delta V}{\delta x} \cdot a_x + \frac{\delta V}{\delta y} \cdot a_y + \frac{\delta V}{\delta z} \cdot a_z$$

Cartesian

$$\operatorname{grad} V = \frac{\delta V}{\delta \rho} \cdot a_{\rho} + \frac{1}{\rho} \cdot \frac{\delta V}{\delta \phi} \cdot a_{\phi} + \frac{\delta V}{\delta z} \cdot a_{z}$$

Cylindrical

$$\operatorname{grad} V = \frac{\delta V}{\delta r} \cdot a_r + \frac{1}{r} \cdot \frac{\delta V}{\delta \theta} \cdot a_{\theta} + \frac{1}{r \cdot \sin(\theta)} \cdot \frac{\delta V}{\delta \phi} \cdot a_{\theta}$$

Spherical

#### Chapter 7 – Poisson's and Laplace Equations

A useful approach to the calculation of electric potentials Relates potential to the charge density.

The electric field is related to the charge density by the divergence

$$\nabla \cdot E = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0}$$
 
$$E = \text{electric field}$$
 
$$\rho = \text{charge density}$$
 
$$\varepsilon_0 = \text{permittivity}$$

The electric field is related to the electric potential by a gradient relationship

$$E = -\nabla V$$

Therefore the potential is related to the charge density by Poisson's equation

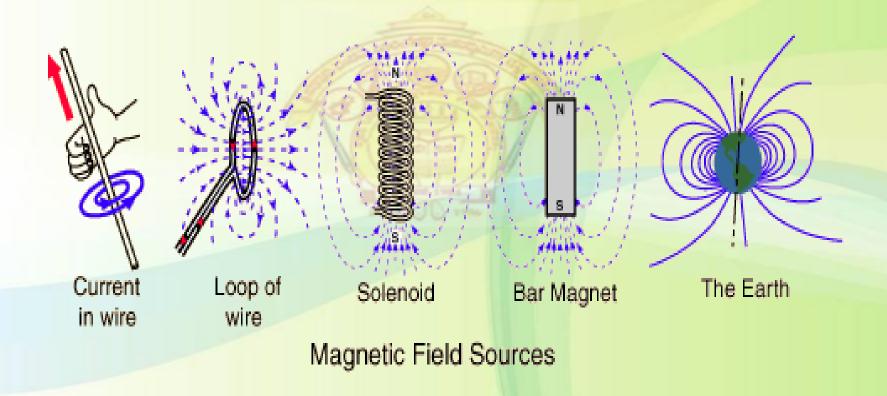
$$\nabla \cdot \nabla V = \nabla^2 V = \frac{-\rho}{\varepsilon_0}$$

In a charge-free region of space, this becomes Laplace's equation

$$\nabla^2 V = 0$$

### **Magnetic Field Sources**

Magnetic fields are produced by electric currents, which can be macroscopic currents in wires, or microscopic currents associated with electrons in atomic orbits.



#### Maxwell's equations

$$\nabla \times \underline{E} = -\frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} - \underline{K}_c - \underline{K}_i$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{H} = \frac{\partial \underline{D}}{\partial t} + \underline{J}_c + \underline{J}_i$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{D} = q_{ev}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{B} = q_{mv}$$

### Maxwell's equations for TVF

Differential form	Controlling principle	Integral form	
$\nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{H}} = \dot{\vec{\mathbf{D}}} + \vec{\mathbf{J}}$	Ampere's Circuital Law	$\oint \vec{\mathbf{H}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{L}} = \int \dot{\vec{\mathbf{D}}} + \vec{\mathbf{J}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}}$	(I)
$\nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{E}} = -\vec{\mathbf{B}}$	Potential around a closed path is zero	$\oint \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{L}} = -\int \dot{\vec{\mathbf{B}}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}}$	(II)
	Gauss's Law	$\oint \vec{\mathbf{D}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}} = \int \rho \ d\mathbf{v}$	(III)
$\nabla \bullet \vec{\mathbf{B}}$	Non-existence of isolated magnetic poles	$\oint \vec{\mathbf{B}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}} = 0$	(IV)

