



# Electromagnetic Fields

## EPM 112

Course instructor

**Prof. Dr. Naggar Hassan Saad**

**Email:** [naggar\\_hemdan@eng.asu.edu.eg](mailto:naggar_hemdan@eng.asu.edu.eg)

# Electromagnetic Fields

## EPM 112

### Chapter (2)

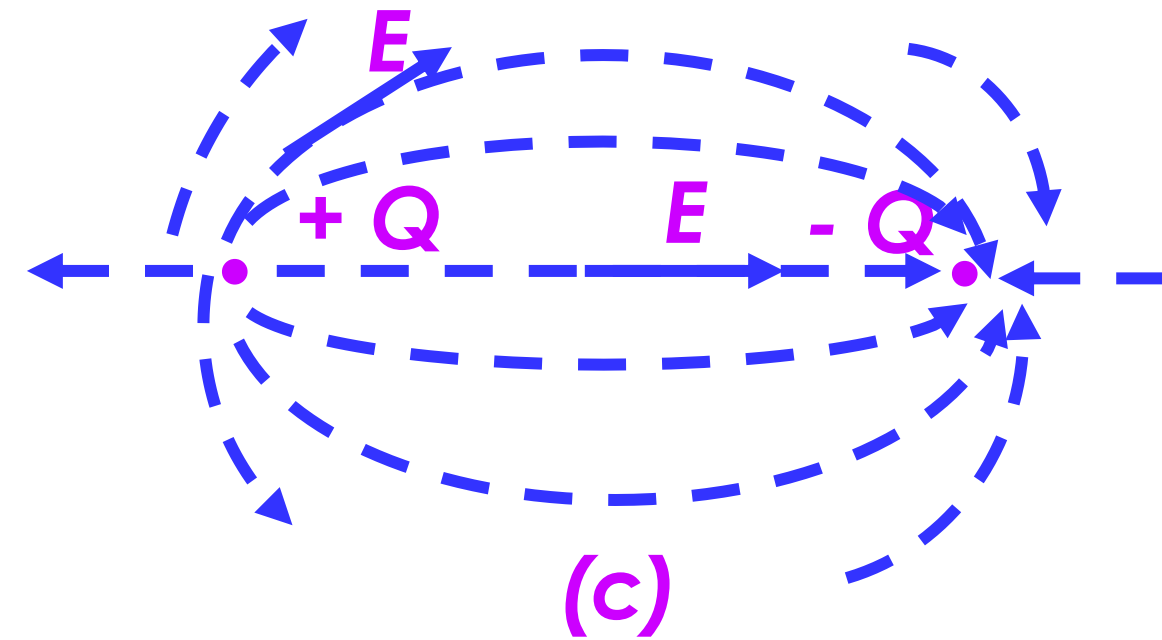
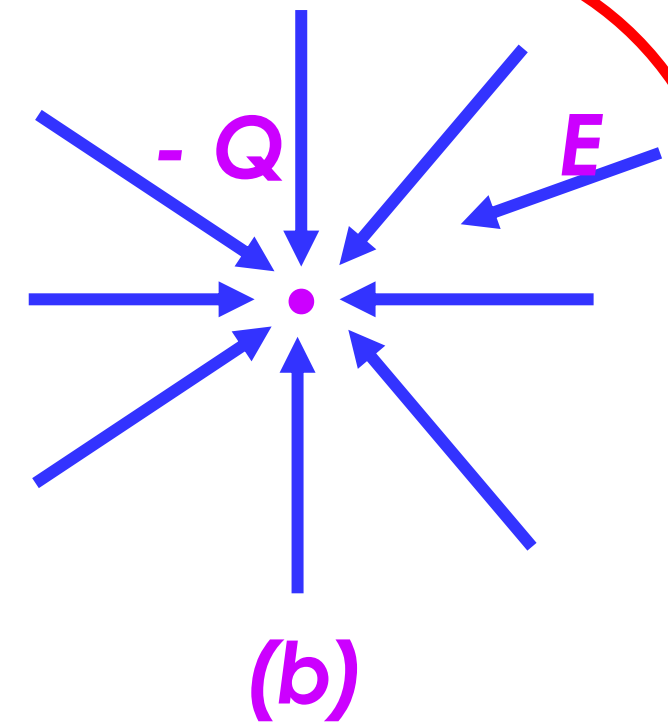
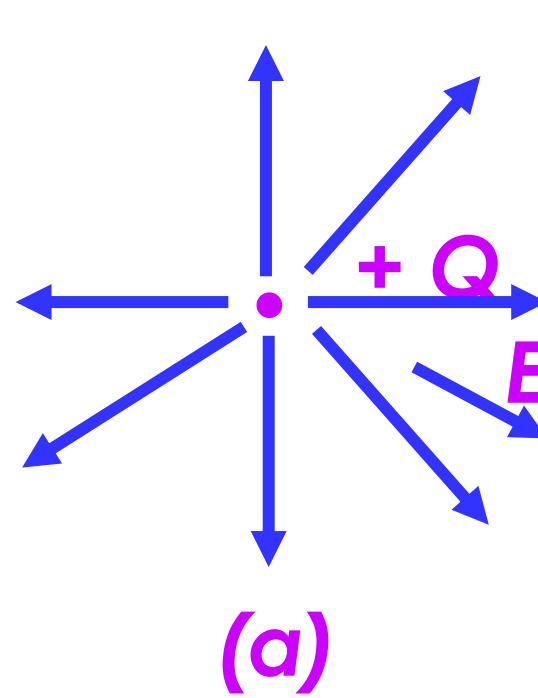
# The Electric Flux Density and Gauss Law

## 2. 1. Introduction

- In previous chapter, the concept of vector force field acting in a point charge was used to define the electric field intensity  $\vec{E}$ .
- However, in this chapter, the concept of the electric flux lines and their density have been introduced.
- The concept of the electric flux density will lead us to *Gauss's law*, divergence, and divergence theorem.
- Through the use of *Gauss's law*, we will be able to readily solve many problems possessing charge symmetry.

## 2. 2. Electric flux

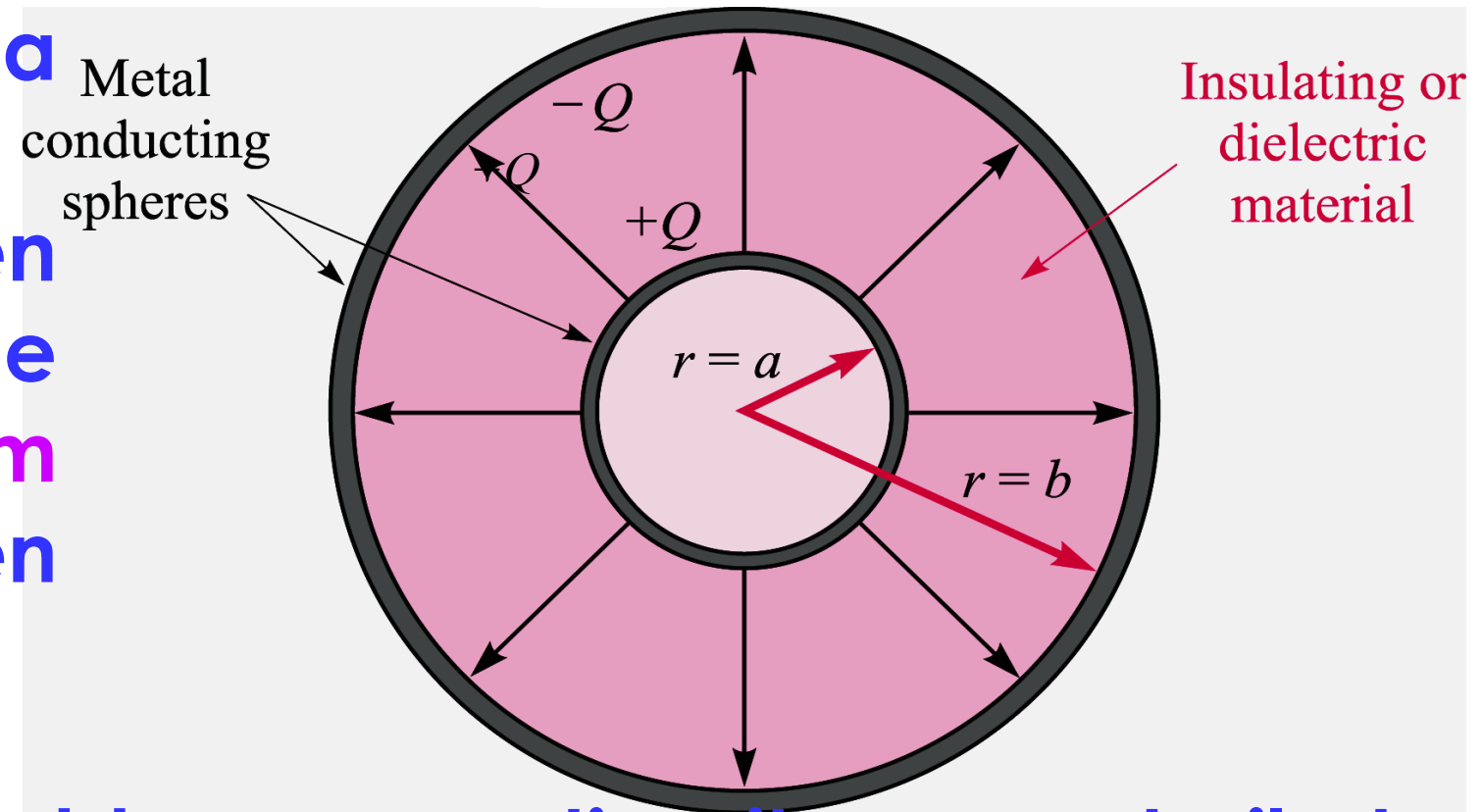
- *Michael Faraday* performed several basic experiments in electrostatic that related to the concept of **electric flux** or **electric flux lines**.
- We shall use the electric flux concept to improve our visual picture of the vector force field about the charges.
- This concept is illustrated by *two - dimensional* plots in Fig. a, b, and c



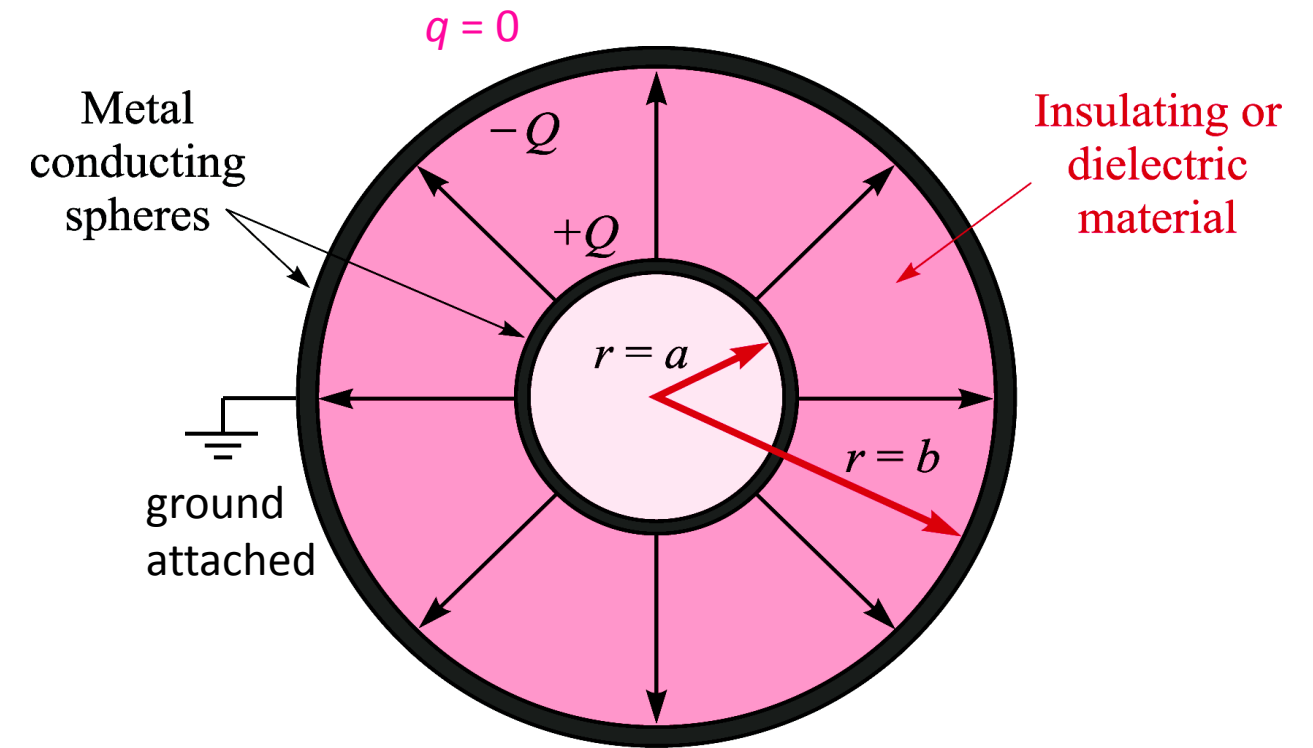
- Fig. (a) the electric flux generates from the positive charge  $+Q$  (c).
- Fig. (b) the electric flux for  $-Q$  (c).
- Fig. 2.1 (c) extends the flux concept to two point charges: one  $+Q$  (c) and the other  $-Q$  (c).

## 2. 3. Faraday Experiment

- Faraday started with a pair of metal spheres of different sizes; the larger one consisted of two hemispheres that could be assembled around the smaller sphere
- The inner sphere was given a known positive charge.
- The hemispheres were then clamped together around the charged sphere with about 2 cm of dielectric material between them.
- The outer sphere was discharged by connecting it momentarily to ground.
- The outer space was separated carefully, using tools made of insulating material in order not to disturb the induced charge on it, and the negative induced charge on each hemisphere was measured.



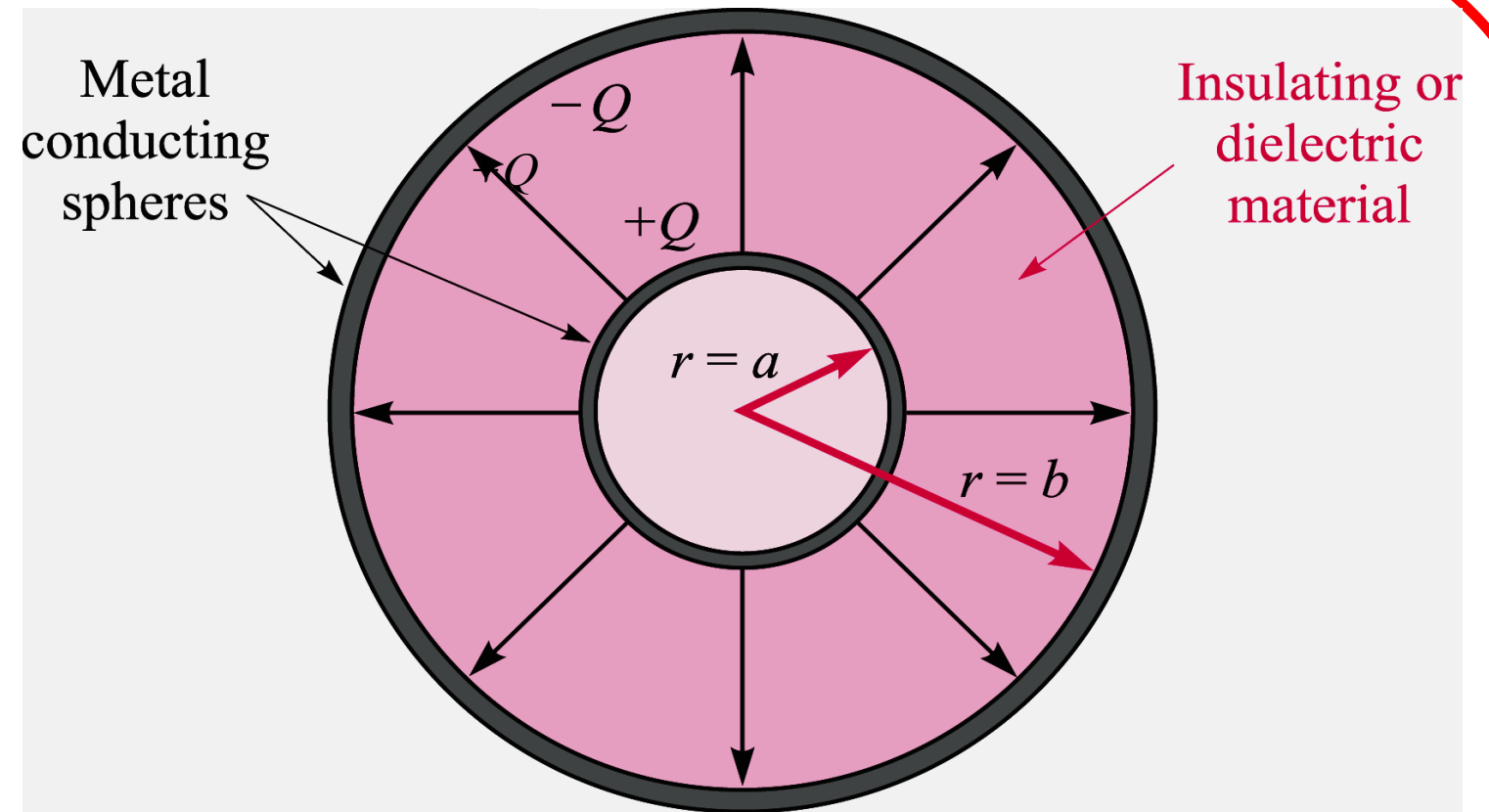
➤ The inner charge,  $+Q$ , induces an equal and opposite charge,  $-Q$ , on the inside surface of the outer sphere, by attracting free electrons in the outer material toward the positive charge.



- This means that before the outer sphere is grounded, charge  $+Q$  resides on the *outside* surface of the outer conductor.
- Attaching the ground connects the outer surface to an unlimited supply of free electrons, which then neutralize the positive charge layer. The net charge on the outer sphere is then the charge on the inner layer, or  $-Q$ .

- Faraday concluded that there occurred a charge “displacement” from the inner sphere to the outer sphere.
- Displacement involves a *flow* or *flux*,  $\Psi$ , existing within the dielectric, and whose magnitude is equivalent to the amount of “displaced” charge.
- Specifically:

$$\Psi = Q \quad C$$



- From Faraday experiment, electric flux concept is
- 1) The electric field intensity  $\vec{E}$  is radial and outward from the positive charge (direction of the electric flux).
  - 2) The magnitude of the electric field intensity  $\vec{E}$  is the same at a fixed radius (electric flux density is the same).
  - 3) The magnitude of the electric field intensity  $\vec{E}$  decreases with distance from the charge (electric flux density decreases with distance from the charge).
  - 4) The electric field intensity  $\vec{E}$  is symmetrical about the  $+Q$  (c) charge.



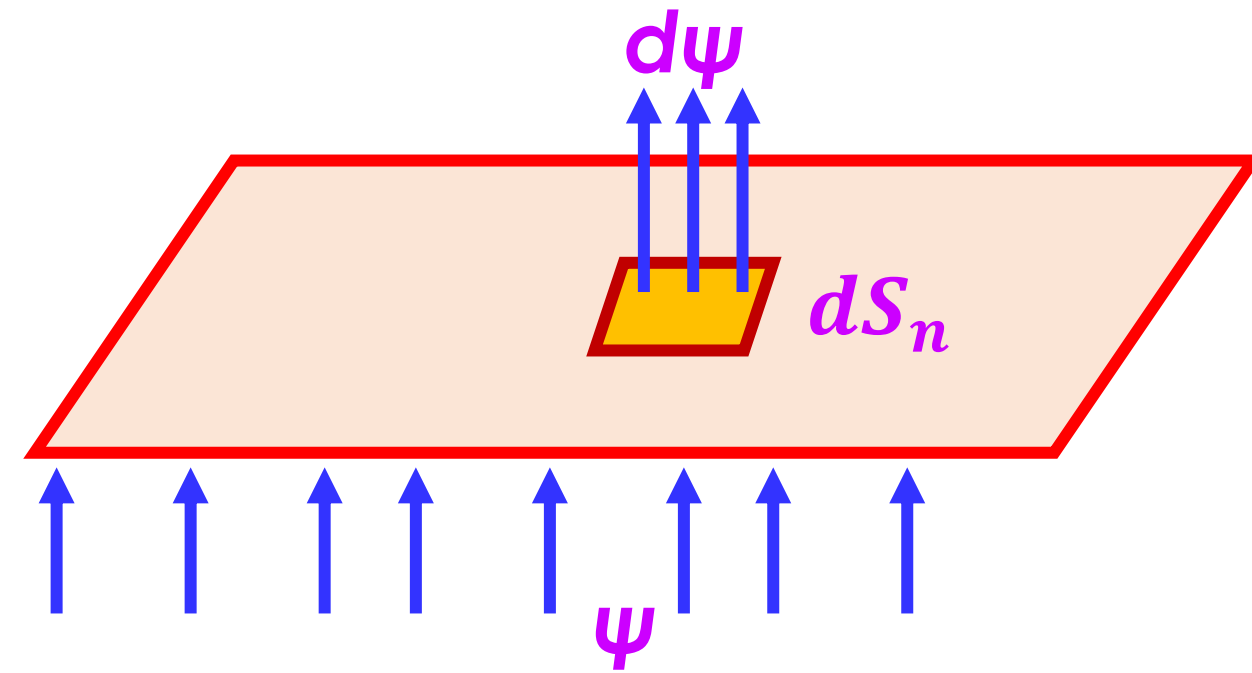
➤ The electric flux concept is based on the following rules:

- 1) Electric flux begins on the positive charge and terminates on negative charge.
- 2) Electric flux is in the same direction as electric field intensity  $\bar{E}$ .
- 3) Electric flux density is proportional to the magnitude of the electric field intensity  $\bar{E}$ .
- 4) In the **SI** system of units, the total flux emanating from a charge of  $Q$  (c) is  $Q$  (c). A single line will emanate from **1 C** of charge.

$$\Psi = Q \quad C$$

## 2. 4. Electric flux density ( $\bar{D}$ )

- In free space, the electric flux density vector  $\bar{D}$  is defined as the number of electric flux lines per unit normal area and in the same direction of the electric flux lines (same as  $\bar{E}$ ).

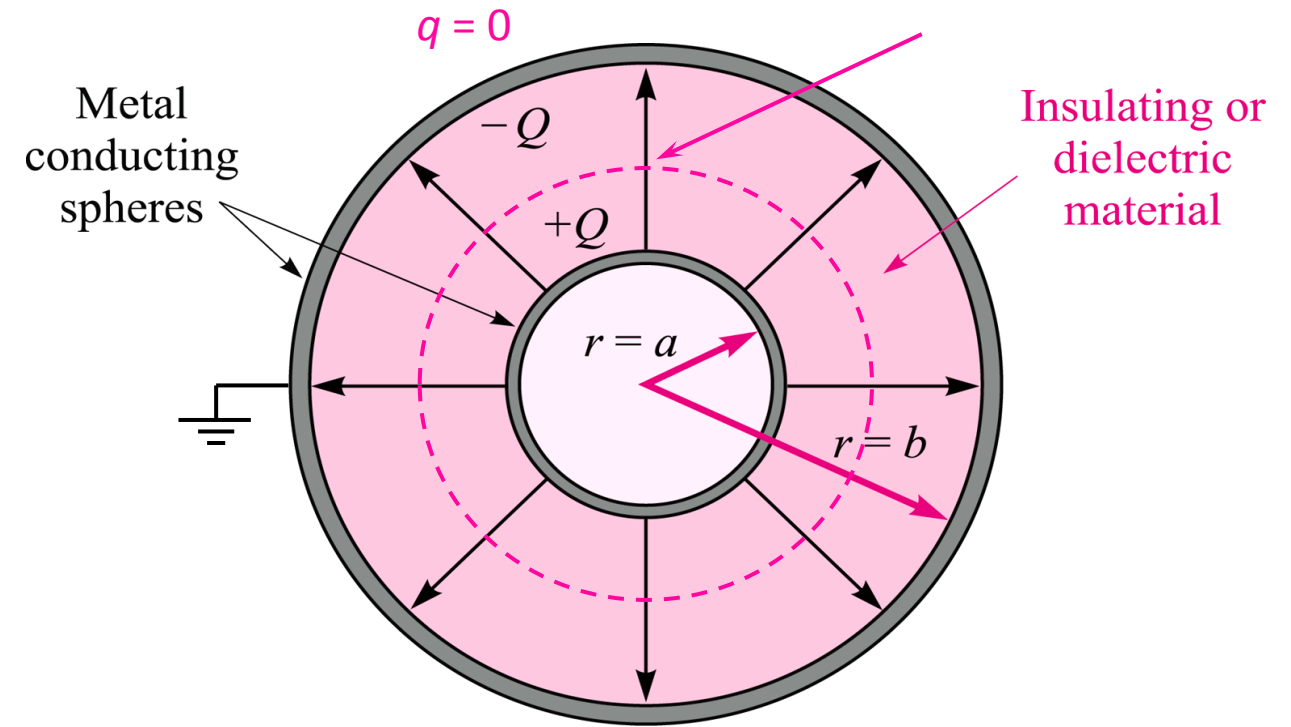


- The magnitude of the electric flux density is given by:

$$|\bar{D}| = \lim_{\Delta S_n \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{\Delta \psi}{\Delta S_n} \right] \quad (\text{Lines}/m^2 \text{ or } C/m^2)$$

- Where  $\Delta \psi$  equals the number of electric flux lines that are perpendicular to the surface  $\Delta S_n$  as shown in Fig

➤ Electric flux density, measured in coulombs per square meter (sometimes described as “*lines per square meter*” for each line is due to one coulomb), it is, also, called *displacement flux density* or *flux density*.



➤ Referring to Fig., the electric flux density is in the radial direction and has a value of:

$$\bar{D}\Big|_a = \frac{Q}{4\pi a^2} \bar{a}_r \text{ (Inner Sphere)} \quad \bar{D}\Big|_b = \frac{Q}{4\pi b^2} \bar{a}_r \text{ (Outer Sphere)}$$

➤ and at a radial distance  $r$ , where  $a \leq r \leq b$ ,

$$\bar{D} = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \bar{a}_r$$

# Point Charge Fields

- If we now let the inner sphere become smaller and smaller, while still retaining a charge of  $Q$ , it becomes point charge in the limit, but the electric flux density  $\bar{D}$  at a point  $r$  meters from the point charge is still given by:

$$\bar{D} = \frac{Q}{4 \pi r^2} \bar{a}_r \quad \frac{C}{m^2}$$

- The electric field intensity  $\bar{E}$  will be

$$\bar{E} = \frac{Q}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \bar{a}_r \quad \frac{V}{m}$$

- From the above equations, it can be concluded that; for free space we have:

$$\bar{D} = \epsilon_0 \bar{E} \quad C/m^2$$

# Finding E and D from Charge Distributions

- We learned in Chapter 1 that:

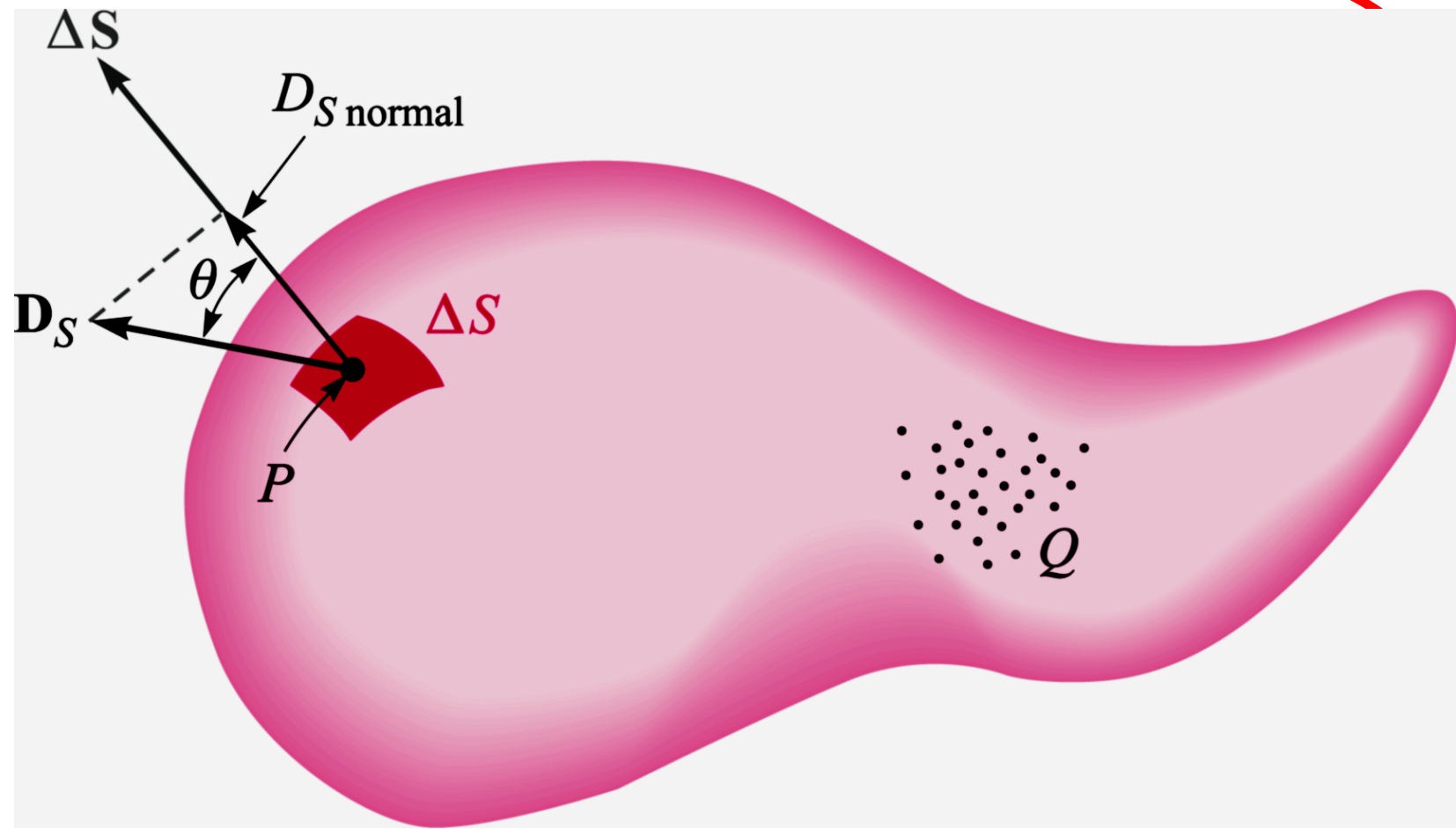
$$\overline{E} = \int_v \frac{\rho_v dv}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 R^2} \overline{a}_R \quad \textit{In Free Space}$$

- It now follows that:

$$\overline{D} = \int_v \frac{\rho_v dv}{4 \pi R^2} \overline{a}_R \quad \textit{In Free Space}$$

## 2.5. Gauss's law

- Gauss's law states that: 'The electric flux passing through any closed surface is equal to the total charge enclosed by that surface'.



- The flux crossing  $\Delta S$  is then the product of the normal component of  $\Delta S$  and  $\bar{D}$

$$\Delta \psi = \text{Flux Crossing } \Delta S = D_{S \text{ norm}} \Delta S = D_S \cos \theta \Delta S = \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$$

- The total flux passing through the closed surface is obtained by adding the differential contributions crossing each surface element  $\Delta S$  is given by:

$$\Psi = \int d\Psi = \oint_{\text{Closed Surface}} \bar{\mathbf{D}} \cdot d\bar{\mathbf{S}}$$

where  $d\bar{\mathbf{S}}$  is the differential surface element (it is called the surface vector).

## Mathematical Statement of Gauss' Law

$$\Psi = \oint_S \bar{\mathbf{D}} \cdot d\bar{\mathbf{S}} = Q = \text{Charge Enclosed}$$

- The charge enclosed might be several point charges, in which case:

$$Q = \sum Q_n$$

➤ For a line charge:

$$Q = \int_L \rho_L dL$$

➤ For a surface charge:

$$Q = \int_S \rho_S dS \quad (\text{not necessarily a closed surface})$$

➤ For a volume charge distribution,

$$Q = \int_{Vol} \rho_V dV$$

➤ Gauss's law may be written in terms of the charge distribution as:

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{Vol} \rho_V dV$$



## Example (2-1)

Let  $\bar{D} = \frac{r}{3} \bar{a}_r \text{ nC/m}^2$  in free space.

- a) Find  $\bar{E}$  at  $r = 0.2 \text{ m}$ .
- b) Find the total charge within the sphere  $r = 0.2 \text{ m}$ .
- c) Find the total flux leaving the sphere  $r = 0.3 \text{ m}$ .

## Solution

a) Since the electric field intensity is

$$\bar{E} = \frac{\bar{D}}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{r}{3 \epsilon_0} \bar{a}_r$$

Then at  $r = 0.2 \text{ m}$ , the electric field intensity  $\bar{E}$  will be

$$\bar{E} = \frac{0.2 \times 10^{-9}}{3 \times 8.854 \times 10^{-12}} \bar{a}_r = 7.53 \bar{a}_r \text{ V/m}$$

**b) The total charge with the sphere  $r = 0.2 \text{ m}$  is:**

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{0.2 \times 10^{-9}}{3} \bar{a}_r \cdot (0.2)^2 \sin \theta \, d\theta \, d\varphi \bar{a}_r = 33.5 \text{ pC} \end{aligned}$$

**c) The total flux leaving the sphere  $r = 0.3 \text{ m}$  is**

$$\begin{aligned} \psi &= \oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{0.2 \times 10^{-9}}{3} \bar{a}_r \cdot (0.3)^2 \sin \theta \, d\theta \, d\varphi \bar{a}_r \\ &= 113.1 \text{ pC} \end{aligned}$$

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## Some symmetrical charge distribution

- Let us now consider how we may use Gauss's law:

$$Q = \oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$$

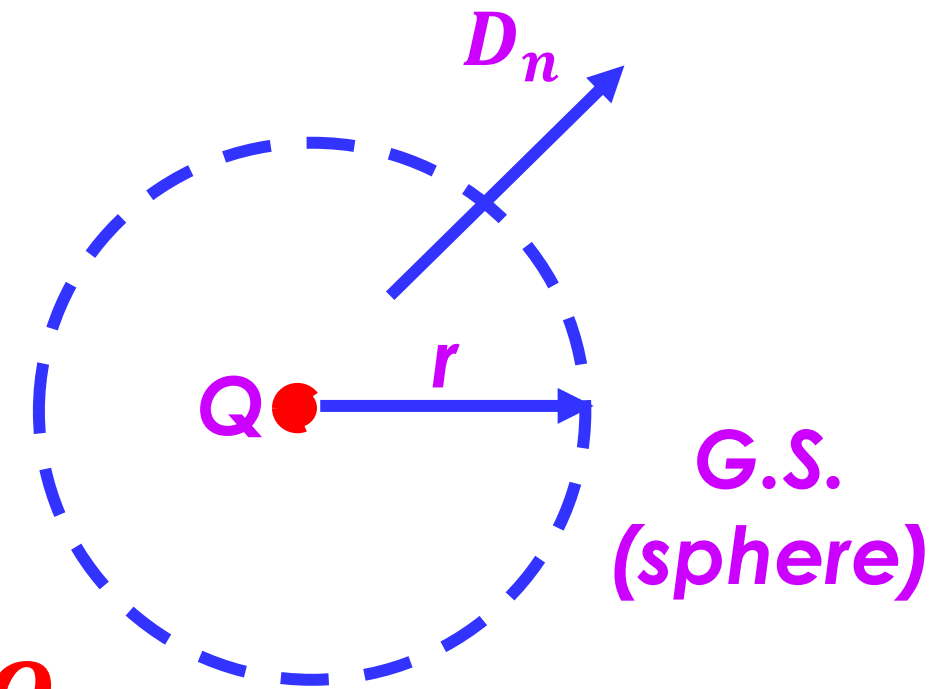
- Is used to determine  $\bar{D}$  if the charge distribution is known.
- The solution is easy if we are able to choose a closed surface which satisfies two conditions (*special Gaussian surface*):
  - a) The surface is closed.
  - b) Electric flux density  $\bar{D}$  is everywhere either normal or tangential to the closed surface, so that  $\bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$  becomes either  $D_n dS_n$  or zero, respectively.
  - c) On the portion of the closed surface for which  $\bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$  is not zero,  $D_n$  is constant.

- If these three conditions are satisfied at the same time, then:

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = D_n \times \text{Area of Gaussian Surface.}$$

## Point charge

- For the point charge, the Gaussian surface is a sphere, the point charge is the center of the sphere. For this case:



$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = D_r \times 4 \pi r^2 \quad Q_{en} = Q$$

- Then:

$$D_r \times 4 \pi r^2 = Q$$

- Or:

$$D_r = \frac{Q}{4 \pi r^2} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{D} = \frac{Q}{4 \pi r^2} \bar{a}_r \quad \frac{C}{m^2}$$

# Line charge

➤ For the infinite line charge with uniform line charge density  $\rho_L$ , the Gaussian surface is a cylinder; the line charge is the axis of the cylinder.

➤ For this case:  $D_n = D_r$ , and  $Q_{en} = \rho_L L$

*Area of Gaussian Surface =  $2 \pi r L$*

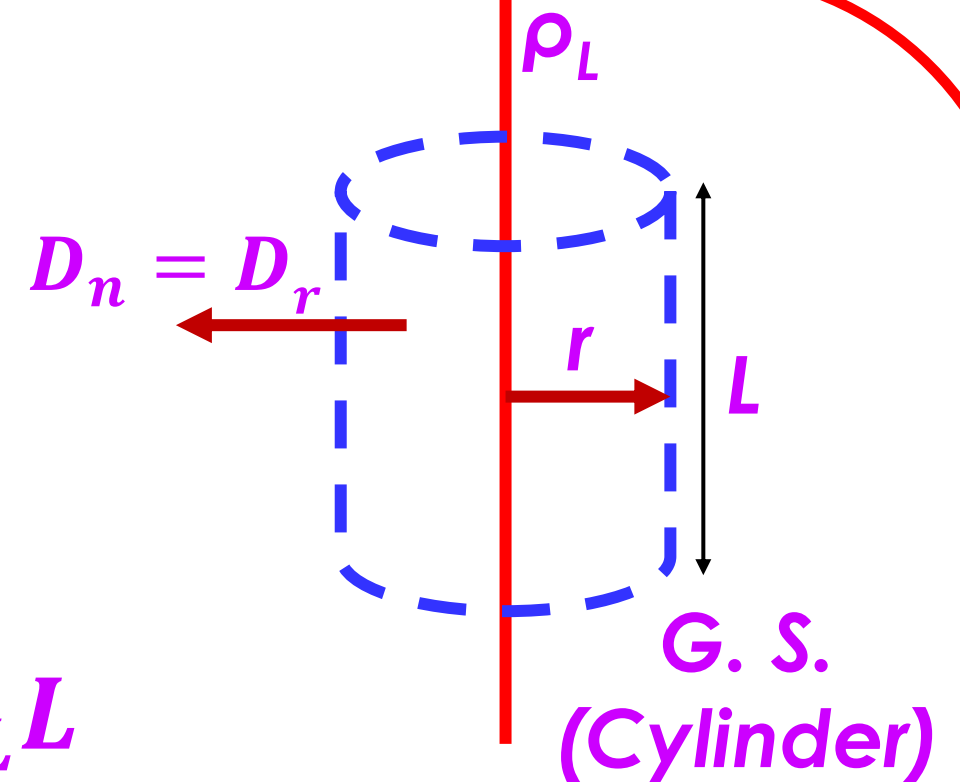
$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = D_n \times 2 \pi r L = D_r \times 2 \pi r L$$

➤ Then:

$$D_r \times 2 \pi r L = \rho_L L$$

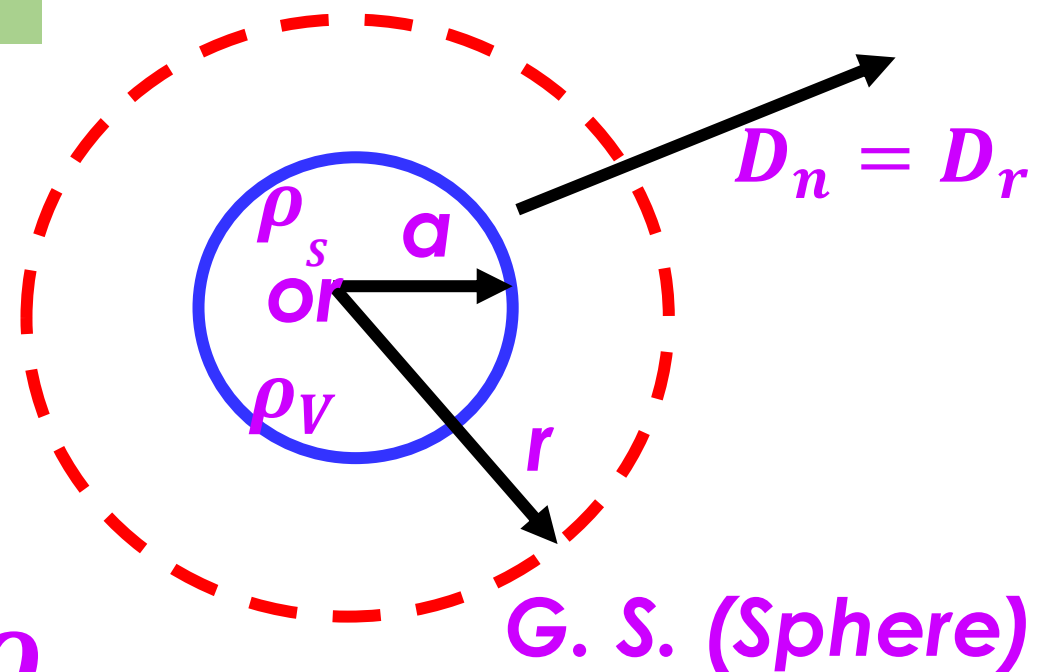
➤ Or:

$$D_r = \frac{\rho_L}{2 \pi r} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{D} = \frac{\rho_L}{2 \pi r} \bar{a}_r \quad \frac{C}{m^2}$$



# Spherical surface of charge

- For the spherical surface or volume charge density ( $\rho_s$  or  $\rho_v$  either constant or function in  $r$  only), the *Gaussian surface* is a sphere.



- For this case:

$$D_n = D_r, \text{ and } Q_{en} = Q$$

$$\text{Area of Gaussian Surface} = 4 \pi r^2$$

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = D_n \times 4 \pi r^2 = D_r \times 4 \pi r^2$$

- Then:

$$D_r \times 4 \pi r^2 = Q$$

- Or:

$$D_r = \frac{Q}{4 \pi r^2} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{D} = \frac{Q}{4 \pi r^2} \bar{a}_r \quad \frac{C}{m^2}$$

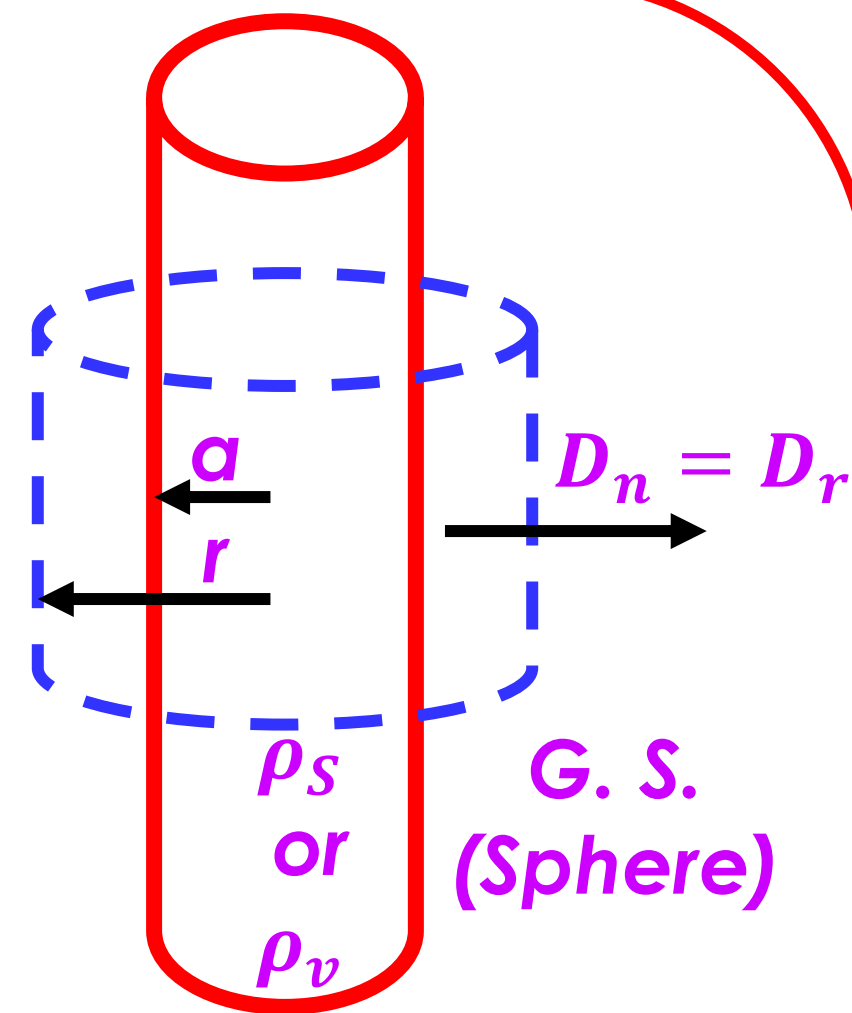
# Cylindrical surface of charge

- For the infinite cylindrical surface or volume charge density ( $\rho_s$  or  $\rho_v$  either constant or function in  $r$  only), the *Gaussian surface* is a cylinder.

- For this case:

$$D_n = D_r, \text{ and } Q_{en} = Q$$

$$\text{Area of Gaussian Surface} = 2 \pi r L$$



$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = D_n \times 2 \pi r L = D_r \times 2 \pi r L$$

- Then:

$$D_r \times 2 \pi r L = Q$$

- Or:

$$D_r = \frac{Q}{2 \pi r L} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{D} = \frac{Q}{2 \pi r L} \bar{a}_r \quad \frac{C}{m^2}$$

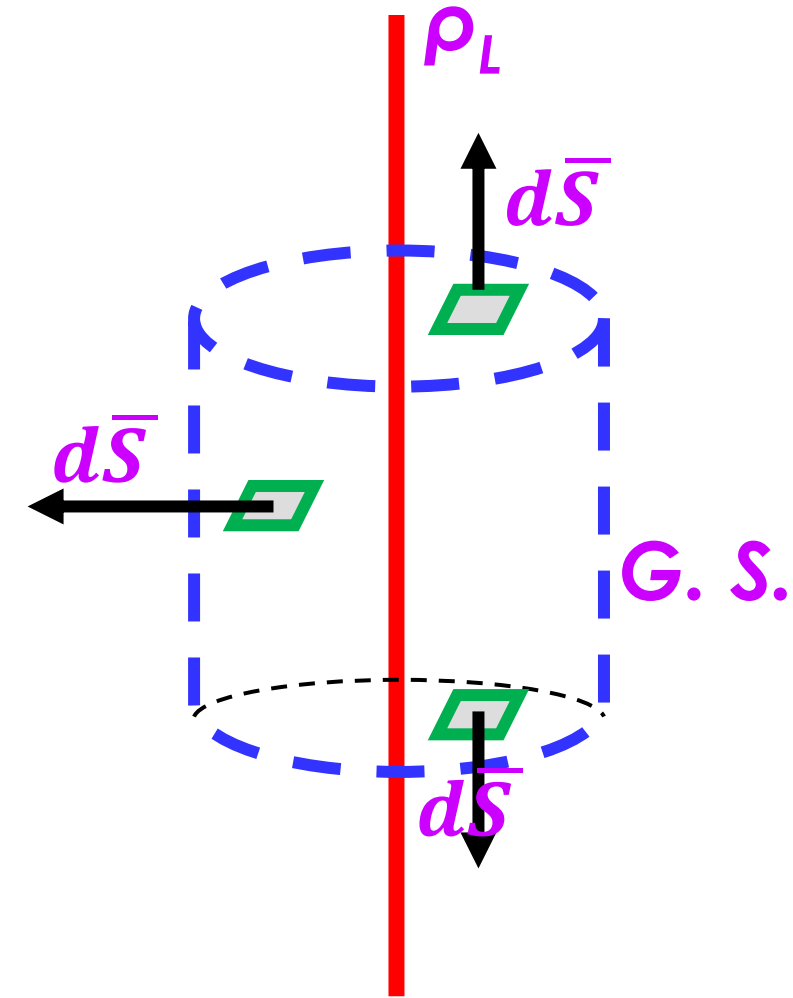
## Example (2-2)

Calculate  $\bar{D}$  and  $\bar{E}$  at a distance  $r$  due to a uniformly line charge distribution of  $\rho_L$  and infinite length

### Solution

- Since the uniform line charge has only a radial component of  $\bar{D}$ , or  $\bar{D} = D_r \mathbf{a}_r$
- The choice of a closed surface is simple, a cylindrical surface of radius  $r$  and length  $L$  is chosen in which  $D_r$  is everywhere normal to the sides of the cylinder.
- From Gauss's law:

$$Q = \oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{Sides} \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} + \int_{Top} \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} + \int_{Bottoms} \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$$





- The integral on the top or the bottom equal zero since  $\bar{D}$  and  $d\bar{S}$  are normal.

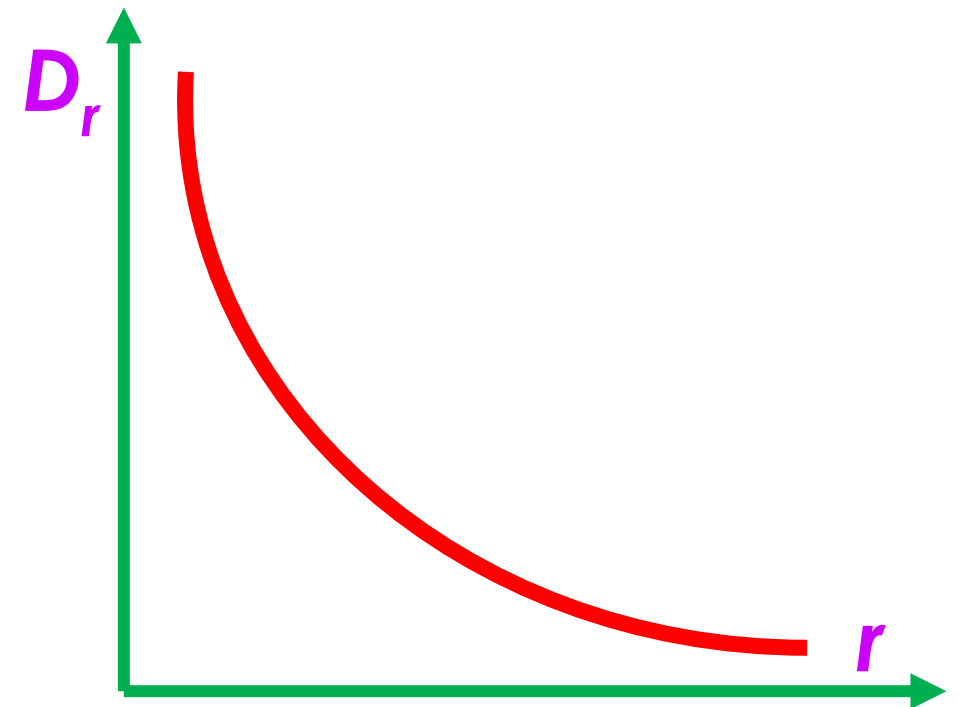
$$Q = \int_{Sides} \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = D_r \int_0^L \int_0^{2\pi} r d\phi dz = D_r \times 2\pi r L$$

- and  $Q = \rho_L L$

- Therefore,

$$\bar{D} = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi r} \bar{a}_r \quad C/m^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{E} = \frac{\bar{D}}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \bar{a}_r \quad V/m$$

- ❖ The variation of  $D_r$  versus  $r$  for infinite line charge with uniform  $\rho_L$  will be as shown



### Example (2-3)

Two concentric cylindrical conductors of radius  $a = 0.01\text{ m}$  and  $b = 0.08\text{ m}$ . The inner cylinder has a charge density  $\rho_{S a} = 40\text{ pC/m}^2$  while the outer cylinder has  $\rho_{S b}$  such that  $\bar{D}$  and  $\bar{E}$  field exists between the two cylinders but they are zero elsewhere.

a) Find  $\rho_{S b}$ .

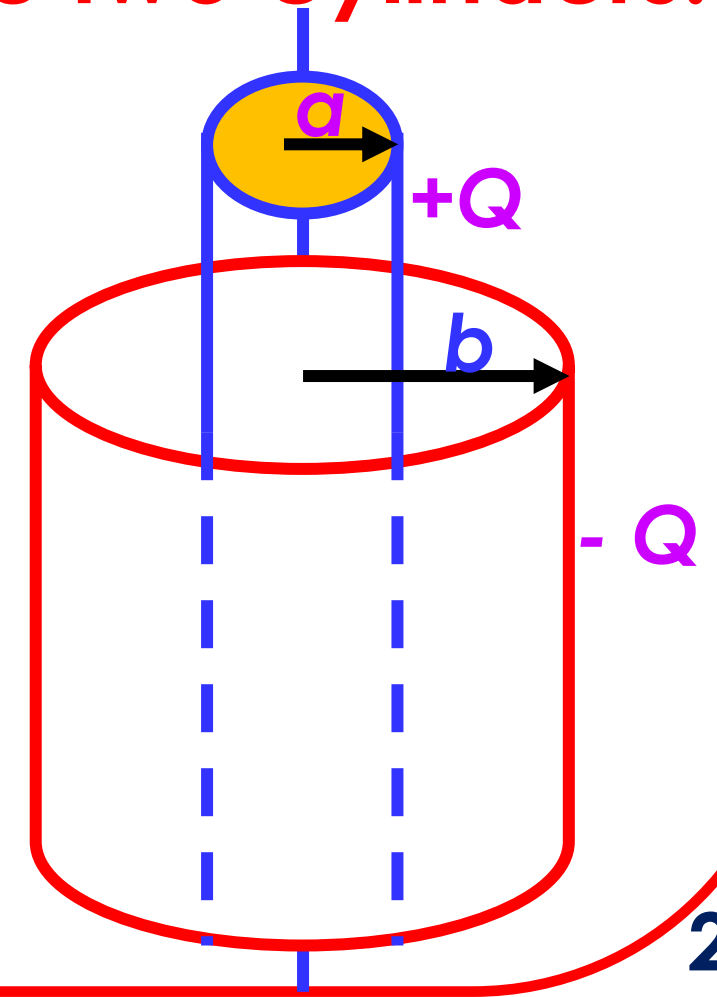
b) Drive an expression for  $\bar{D}$  and  $\bar{E}$  between the two cylinders.

### Solution

a) The density  $\rho_{S b}$  can be found as following:  
since  $\bar{D}$  and  $\bar{E}$  are equal zero in the region  $r > b$ , then:

$$Q_{en} = Q_a - Q_b = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad Q_a = -Q_b$$

$$\rho_{S a} 2 \pi a L = -\rho_{S b} 2 \pi b L$$



➤ Then,

$$\rho_{Sb} = -\rho_{Sa} \left( \frac{a}{b} \right) = -40 \times 10^{-12} \times \frac{0.01}{0.08} = -5 \text{ pC/m}^2$$

**b)** From symmetry, the field between the two cylinders must be radial and a function of  $r$  only. The application of Gauss's law results:

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = Q_{en} \quad \text{or} \quad D_r \times 2\pi r L = Q_{en}$$

$$\underline{0 < r < a}$$

$$Q_{en} = 0 \quad (\text{There is no charge inside the inner conductor})$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \bar{D} = 0 \text{ and } \bar{E} = 0$$

$$\underline{a < r < b}$$

$$Q = \int_0^L \int_0^{2\pi} \rho_{Sa} a d\varphi dz = 2\pi a L \rho_{Sa}$$

➤ Therefore

$$D_r = \frac{\rho_S a}{r} = \frac{40 \times 10^{-12} \times 0.01}{r} = \frac{4 \times 10^{-13}}{r} \text{ C/m}^2$$

➤ and

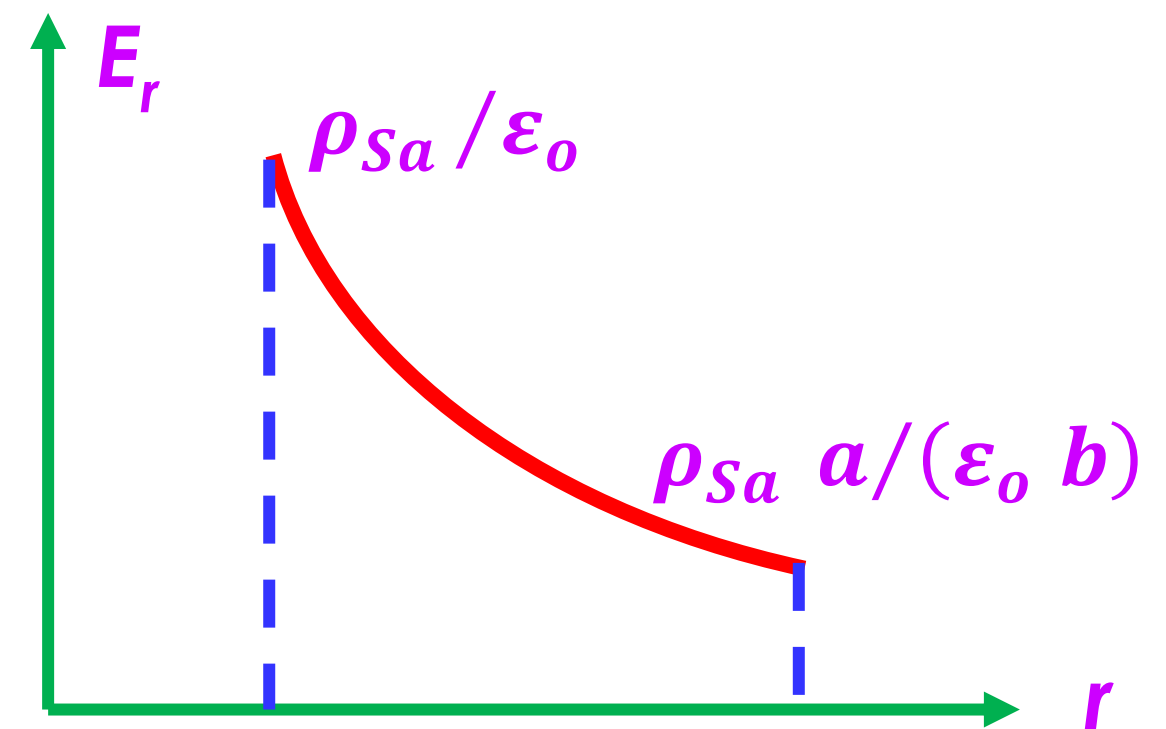
$$E_r = \frac{\rho_s a}{\epsilon_0 r} = \frac{4.52 \times 10^{-2}}{r} \text{ V/m}^2$$

$$\underline{b < r < \infty}$$

$$Q_{en} = Q - Q = 0$$

Therefore,  $\bar{D} = 0$  and  $\bar{E} = 0$

➤ The relationship between the field  $E_r$  as a function of the radial distance  $r$  is as shown in figure:



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## Example (2-4)

Two spherical conducting shells of radii  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $b > a$ . Assume a surface charge density of  $\rho_{s a}$  on the outer surface of the inner sphere. Find

(a)  $Q_a$

(b)  $\bar{D}$

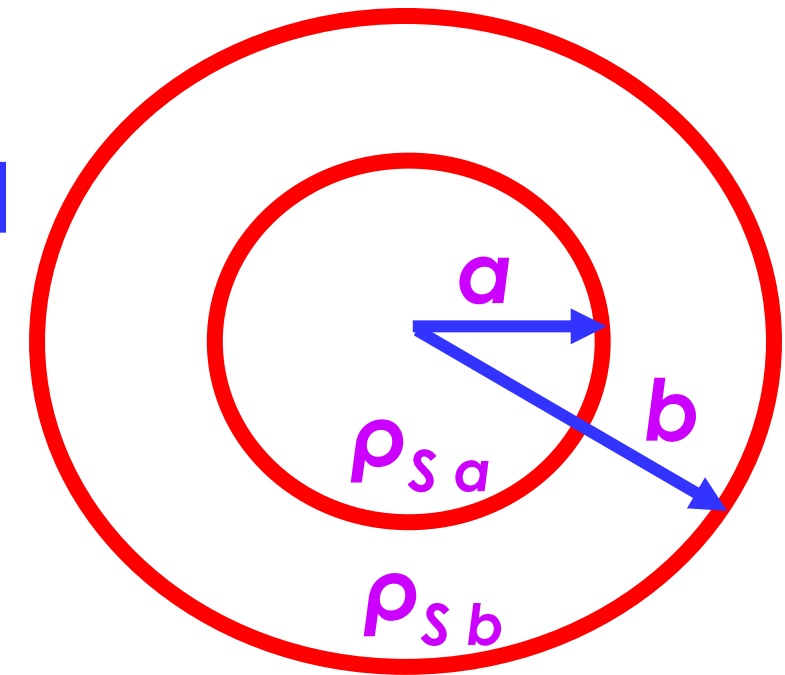
(c)  $Q_b$

(d)  $\rho_{s b}$ .

## Solution

a) On the surface of the inner sphere,  $r = a$  and

$$\begin{aligned} Q_a &= \int_S \rho_{s a} dS \\ &= \rho_{s a} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi a^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi = 4\pi a^2 \rho_{s a} C \end{aligned}$$



b) Use Gauss's theorem, from spherical symmetry, only the  $r$  – component of  $\bar{D}$  exists, therefore,

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = Q_{en} \quad \text{or} \quad D_r \times 4\pi r^2 = \rho_{S_a} 4\pi a^2 \quad \text{and} \quad D_r = \left(\frac{a}{r}\right)^2 \rho_{S_a}$$

c) For spherical capacitor,  $Q_b$  must be equal and opposite to  $Q_a$ ,

$$Q_b = -Q_a = -\rho_{S_a} 4\pi a^2 \quad C$$

d) The charge density on the spherical shell  $b$  is then

$$Q_b = \rho_{S_b} 4\pi b^2 = -\rho_{S_a} 4\pi ab^2$$

■ or

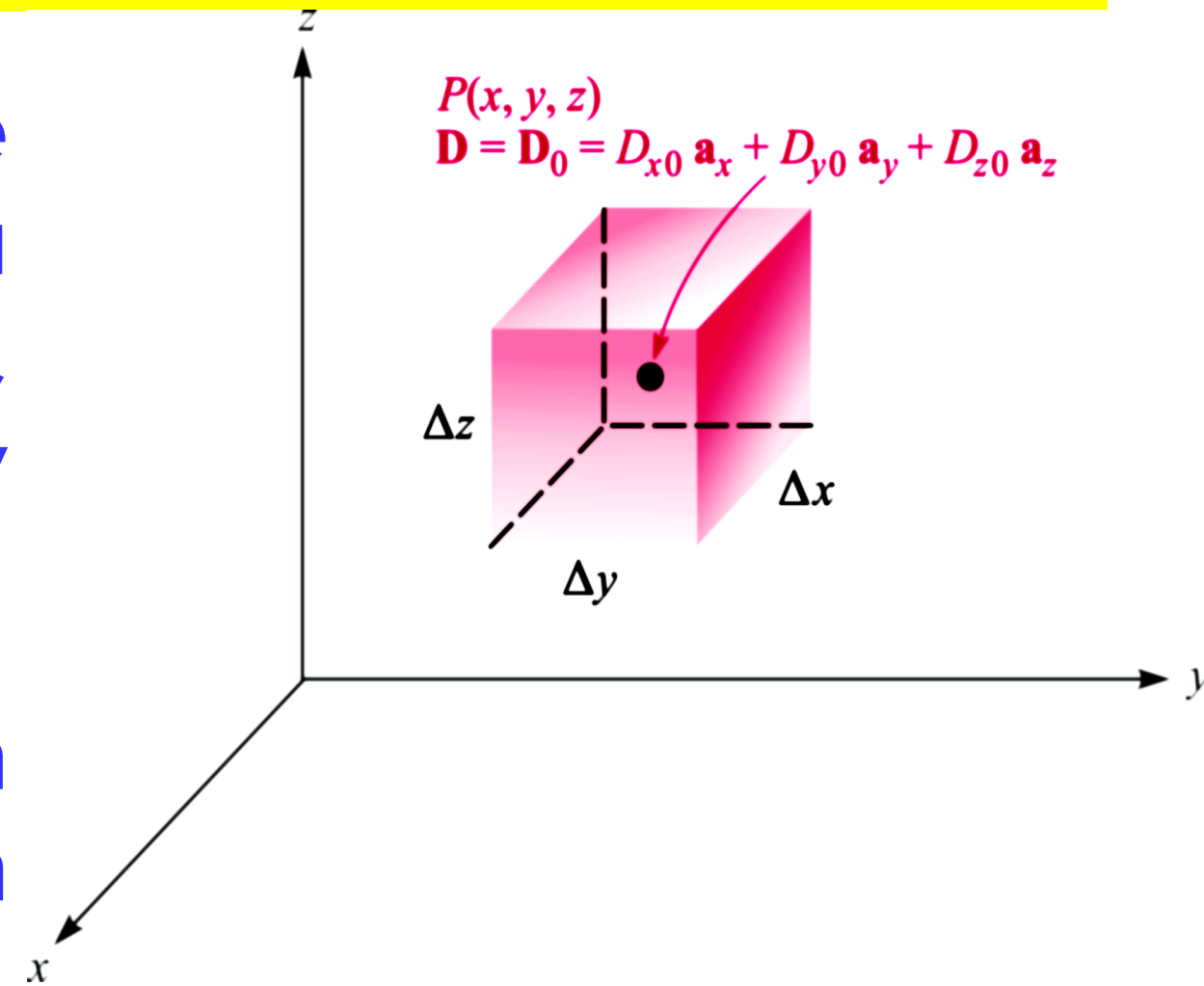
$$\rho_{S_b} = -\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^2 \rho_{S_a}$$

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## 2. 5. Electric Flux Within a Differential Volume Element

- We are now going to apply the methods of *Gauss's law* to a slightly different type of problem, one that does not possess any symmetry at all.
- Let the point  $P(x_o, y_o, z_o)$ , shown in Fig., located by a Cartesian coordinate system.
- The value of  $\bar{D}$  at any point  $P$  may be expressed in Cartesian components as follows:

$$\bar{D} = \bar{D}_o = D_{xo} \bar{a}_x + D_{yo} \bar{a}_y + D_{zo} \bar{a}_z$$



- We choose the closed surface as a small rectangular box, centered at **P**, having sides of  $\Delta x$ ,  $\Delta y$  and  $\Delta z$  as shown in Fig. Applying *Gauss's law*

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = Q_{en}$$

- In order to evaluate the integral over the closed surface, the integral must be broken up into **six** integrals, one over each face,

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{Front} + \int_{Back} + \int_{Left} + \int_{Right} + \int_{Top} + \int_{Bottom}$$

- Taking the front surface, for example, we have:

$$\int_{Front} = \bar{D}_{Front} \cdot \Delta\bar{S}_{Front} = \bar{D}_{Front} \cdot \Delta y \Delta z \bar{a}_x = D_{x,Front} \Delta y \Delta z$$

- The front face is at a distance of  $\Delta x/2$  from **P**, and hence:



$$D_{x,Front} = D_{x_0} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \times \text{Rate of change of } D_x \text{ with } x = D_{x_0} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \times \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x}$$

➤ We have now  $\int_{Front} = \left( D_{x_0} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} \right) \Delta y \Delta z$

➤ Consider now the back surface,

$$\int_{Back} = \left( -D_{x_0} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} \right) \Delta y \Delta z$$

minus sign because  $D_{x_0}$  is inward flux through the back surface

➤ If we combine these two integrals, we have

$$\int_{Front} + \int_{Back} = \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

➤ By exactly the same process we find that:

$$\int_{Right} + \int_{Left} = \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{Top} + \int_{Bottom} = \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

➤ All results are assembled to yield:

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

➤ or

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \left( \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \right) \Delta v = Q$$

where  $Q$  is the charge enclosed within volume  $\Delta v$ .

## 2. 6. Divergence

- To obtain the exact expression, the differential volume element  $\Delta v$  has to go to zero,

$$\frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}}{\Delta v} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{Q}{\Delta v} = \rho_v$$

- This equation contains too much information to discuss all at once, and we shall write it as two separate equations:

$$\frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}}{\Delta v}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} = \rho_v$$

- any vector  $\bar{A}$  to find  $\oint_S \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{S}$  for a small closed surface, leading to

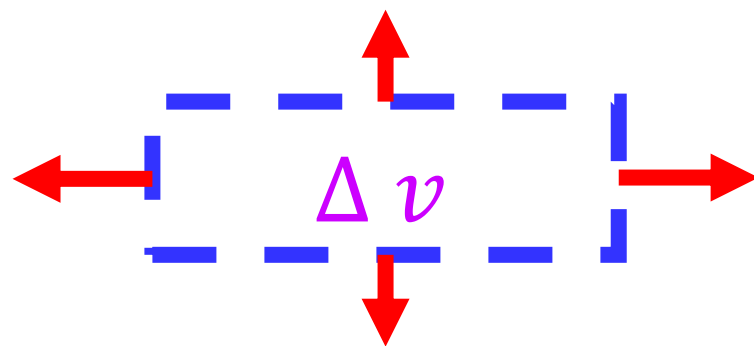
$$\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial z} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_S \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{S}}{\Delta v}$$

where  $\bar{A}$  could represent velocity, temperature gradient, force, or any other vector field.

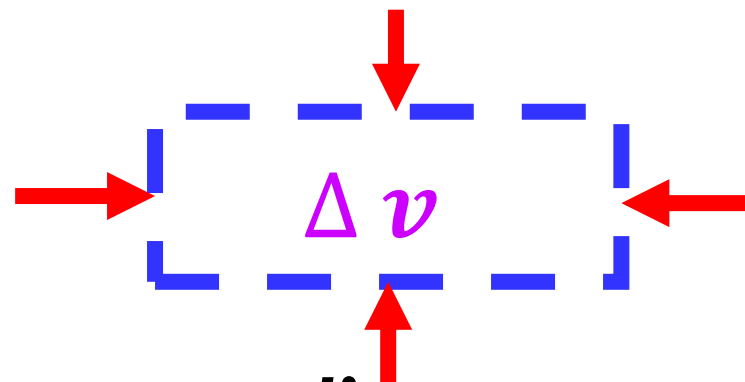
➤ The divergence of  $\bar{A}$  is defined as

$$\text{Divergence of } \bar{A} = \text{Div } \bar{A} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_S \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{S}}{\Delta v}$$

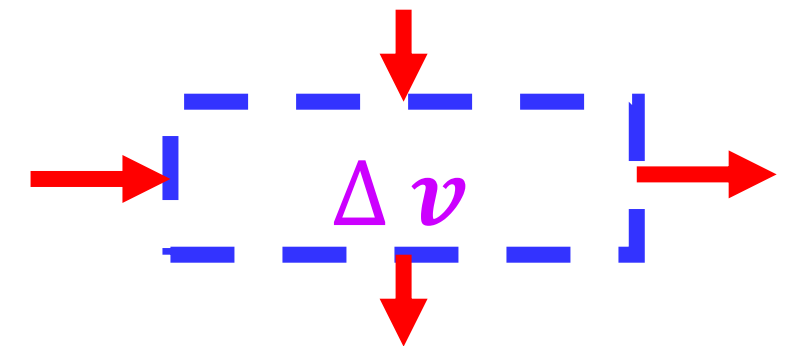
➤ The definition of the divergence is “The divergence of the vector flux density  $\bar{A}$  is the outflow of flux from a small closed surface per unit volume as the volume goes to zero”



**+ve divergence**  
(Source of flux)



**- ve divergence**  
(Sink of flux)



**Zero divergence**  
(Zero flux)

## ❖ Properties of the divergence:

- a) The divergence tells us how flux is leaving small volume, but it does not describe its direction.
- b) Divergence is a mathematical operation which performed on a vector and the result is a scalar.
- c) If the divergence of  $\bar{A}$  exists at a point in the space, then lines of  $\bar{A}$  diverge or emanate from that point.

## ❖ The mathematical expression of the divergence is given as:

$$\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{A} = \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \quad (\text{Cartesian})$$

$$\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{A} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (r A_r)}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial A_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial z} \quad (\text{Cylindrical})$$

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

## 2. 7. Maxwell's First Equation

In Electrostatic Fields

- From Gauss's law, we have

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = Q_{en}$$

- Per unit volume

$$\frac{\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}}{\Delta v} = \frac{Q_{en}}{\Delta v}$$

- As the volume goes to zero

$$\lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}}{\Delta v} = \lim_{\Delta v \rightarrow 0} \frac{Q_{en}}{\Delta v}$$

- we should see  $\text{div } \bar{D}$  on the left and the volume charge density on the right,

$$\text{Div } \bar{D} = \rho_v$$

- This is the first of *Maxwell's four equations* as they apply to electrostatics and steady magnetic fields.
- It states that “the electric flux per unit volume leaving a small volume is exactly equal to the volume charge density there”.
- This equation is called *the point form of Gauss's law*.
- *Gauss's law* relates the flux leaving any closed surface to the charge enclosed,
- *Maxwell's first equation* makes an identical statement on a per unit volume basis for a small volume, or at a point.
- *Maxwell's first equation* is also described as the differential equation form of the *Gauss's law*, and *Gauss's law* is recognized as the integral form of *Maxwell's first equation*.

## 2. 8. The vector operator $\bar{\nabla}$

- The *del (nippla)* operator  $\bar{\nabla}$  is defined as a vector operator,

$$\bar{\nabla} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \bar{a}_x + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \bar{a}_y + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \bar{a}_z$$

- Consider  $\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D}$ , signifying

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D} &= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \bar{a}_x + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \bar{a}_y + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \bar{a}_z \right) \cdot (D_x \bar{a}_x + D_y \bar{a}_y + D_z \bar{a}_z) \\ &= \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \end{aligned}$$

- This is recognized as the divergence of  $\bar{D}$ , so that we have:

$$\text{Div } \bar{D} = \bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D} = \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z}$$



## 2. 9. The Divergence Theorem

- From Gauss's law, we have

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = Q_{en} = \int_{vol} \rho_v dv$$

- and then replacing  $(\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D}) = \rho_v$ , we can get:

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = Q_{en} = \int_{vol} \rho_v dv = \int_{vol} (\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D}) dv$$

- The first and last expressions constitute the divergence theorem,

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{vol} (\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D}) dv$$

“ The integral of the normal component of any vector field over a closed surface is equal to the integral of the divergence of this vector field throughout the volume enclosed by the closed surface ”.

## Example (2-5)

Given that  $\bar{D} = \frac{10 r^3}{4} \bar{a}_r \text{ C/m}^2$  in the region  $0 < r < 3 \text{ m}$  in cylindrical coordinates and  $\bar{D} = \frac{810}{4r} \bar{a}_r \text{ C/m}^2$  elsewhere.

Find the charge density?

## Solution

➤ For  $0 < r < 3$   $\text{Div } \bar{D}$  in cylindrical coordinate is:

$$\text{Div } \bar{D} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (r D_r)}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial D_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z}$$

➤ Since  $\bar{D}$  is a function of  $r$  only (in radial direction), then

$$\text{Div } \bar{D} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (r D_r)}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (10 r^3 / 4)}{\partial r} = 10 r^2 \text{ C/m}^3$$

➤ Then

$$\rho_v = 10 r^2 \text{ C/m}^3$$

➤ For  $r > 3$

$$\text{Div } \bar{D} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (810 r / 4 r)}{\partial r} = 0$$

➤ Then

$$\rho_v = 0 \text{ C/m}^3$$

\*\*\*\*\*

### Example (2-6)

Given that  $\bar{D} = 30 e^{-r} \bar{a}_r - 2 z \bar{a}_z \text{ C/m}^2$  in cylindrical coordinates, evaluate both sides of the divergence theorem for the volume enclosed by  $r = 2 \text{ m}$ ,  $Z = 0$  and  $z = 5 \text{ m}$ .

### Solution

➤ The divergence theorem is:

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{vol} (\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D}) dv$$

➤ It is noted that  $D_z = 0$  for  $z = 0$  and hence  $\bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$  is *zero* over that part of the surface.

$$\oint_S \bar{\mathbf{D}} \cdot d\bar{\mathbf{S}} = \int_{side} \bar{\mathbf{D}} \cdot d\bar{\mathbf{S}} + \int_{top} \bar{\mathbf{D}} \cdot d\bar{\mathbf{S}}$$

$$= \int_0^5 \int_0^{2\pi} D_r \bar{\mathbf{a}}_r \cdot 2 d\varphi dz \bar{\mathbf{a}}_r + \int_0^5 \int_0^{2\pi} D_z \bar{\mathbf{a}}_z \cdot r dr d\varphi \bar{\mathbf{a}}_z = 129.4 \text{ C}$$

➤ For the right hand side of the divergence theorem:

$$\text{Div } \bar{\mathbf{D}} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (r D_r)}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial D_\varphi}{\partial \varphi} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (30 r e^{-r})}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial (-2 z)}{\partial z}$$

$$= \frac{30 e^{-r}}{r} - 30 e^{-r} - 2$$

➤ and

$$\int_{vol} (\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{D}}) dv = \int_0^5 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{30 e^{-r}}{r} - 30 e^{-r} - 2 \right) r dr d\varphi dz$$

$$= 129.4 \text{ C}$$

\*\*\*\*\*

## Example (2-5)

Given that  $\bar{D} = \frac{5r^2}{4} \bar{a}_r$  C/m<sup>2</sup> in spherical coordinates, evaluate both sides of the *divergence theorem* for the volume enclosed by  $r = 1$ , and  $r = 2m$ .

### Solution

➤ The *divergence theorem* is:

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{vol} (\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D}) dv$$

➤ For the right hand side of the *divergence theorem*:

$$\text{Div } \bar{D} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial (r^2 D_r)}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial (5r^4/4)}{\partial r} = 5r$$

➤ and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{vol} (\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{D}) dv &= \int_0^2 \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} (5r) r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\varphi \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^2 (5r^3) dr \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta = 75\pi \quad C \end{aligned}$$

➤ For the left hand side of the *divergence theorem*:

$$\begin{aligned}\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} &= \int_{\text{outer}} \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} + \int_{\text{inner}} \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} \\&= \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} D_r \bar{a}_r \cdot r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi \bar{a}_r \Big|_{r=2} \\&\quad + \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} D_r \bar{a}_r \cdot (-r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi \bar{a}_r) \Big|_{r=1} \\&= \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{5}{4}\right) (2)^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi - \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{5}{4}\right) (1)^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi \\&= 20 (2) (2\pi) - \left(\frac{5}{4}\right) (2) (2\pi) = 75\pi \text{ C}\end{aligned}$$

\*\*\*\*\*



**THE END  
OF CHAPTER (2)**



