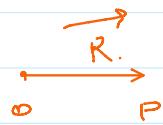


Scalar  $\rightarrow$  magnitude (eg - Temp, mass, ...)

Vector  $\rightarrow$  magnitude & direction. (eg, force, velocity, acceleration)



$$\vec{A} \neq \vec{B}$$

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

vector of unit mag  $\rightarrow$  unit vector

vector  $\vec{A}$  can be written as

$$\boxed{\vec{A} = A \cdot \vec{a}_A}$$

unit vector in the same direction  
magnitude of  $\vec{A}$

$$\vec{a}_A = \frac{\vec{A}}{A}$$

**Textbooks:**

1. Electromagnetic Waves and Radiating Systems- Jordan and Balmain, PHI, 2nd edition
2. Principles of Electromagnetics Engineering- Matthew N. O.Sadiku , S.V.Kulkarni, Oxford university press, 6<sup>th</sup> edition
3. Antenna Theory: Analysis and Design, Costantine A. Balanis, John Wiley Publication, 4<sup>th</sup> edition
4. Antenna and wave Propagation, John D Kraus, A S Khan, McGraw Hill, 4<sup>th</sup> edition
5. Antenna Theory and Design. Stutzman, Theile, John Wiley and Sons, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition

**Reference Books:**

1. Engineering Electromagnetics, William H Hayt and John A Buck, Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited, 7<sup>th</sup> edition
2. Antennas and Radio Wave Propagation, R. E. Collin, McGraw Hill, International Student Edition

## Introduction to Electrostatic Field

- Source:

Stationary Charge

- What is Charge?

Excess or deficiency of Electron in an atomic structure

- Example

Rub the surface of the balloon with the cloth and hold the balloon a short distance above your head and watch your hair stick to it!



- The balloon gains electrons from the cloth and becomes negatively-charged, so it attracts your hair, which is positively-charged

- Coulomb's Law
- Electric Field Intensity,
- Electric Field due to
  - { Point charge
  - Line charge and
  - Surface charge distributions

## \* Coulomb's Law.

- Experimental law deals with force between two point charges
- The law states that the force  $F$  between two point charges  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  is-
  - directly proportional to the products ( $Q_1 \times Q_2$ ) of the charges
  - Inversely proportional to square of distance ( $R$ ) between them
  - along the line joining them.
  - depends upon medium
  - depends upon the nature of charges (+ or -).



- The force is expressed as -
- $F = \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$
- where  $\epsilon$  is permittivity of the medium. For free space  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r = \epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}$  i.e.  $\epsilon_r = 1$

$$F = \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$$

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \cdot \epsilon_r$$

$$\epsilon_r = 1$$

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_0$$

## Vector Form:

- The force  $\bar{F}_2$  on  $Q_2$  due to  $Q_1$  is given by-

$$\therefore \bar{F}_2 = \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_{12}^2} \bar{a}_{12}$$

Where  $\bar{a}_{12}$  is unit vector in the direction of  $\bar{R}_{12}$

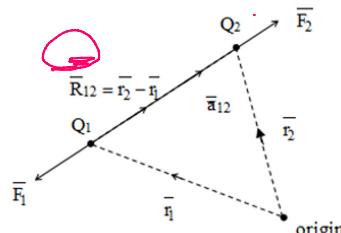
$$\bar{a}_{12} = \frac{\bar{R}_{12}}{|\bar{R}_{12}|} = \frac{\bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_1}{|\bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_1|}$$

Similarly, force  $\bar{F}_1$  on  $Q_1$  due  $Q_2$  is given by

$$\bar{F}_1 = \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_{21}^2} \bar{a}_{21}$$

$$= \frac{-Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_{12}^2} \bar{a}_{12}$$

$$\bar{F}_1 = -\bar{F}_2$$



$$\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$$

$$\epsilon_r \approx 1$$

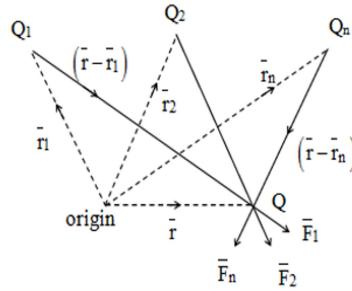
$$\epsilon = \epsilon_0$$

## Principle of Superposition:

- Consider system of  $n$  point charges. The total force is given as-

$$\bar{F} = \bar{F}_1 + \bar{F}_2 + \bar{F}_3 + \dots + \bar{F}_n$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{QQ_1(\bar{r} - \bar{r}_1)}{4\pi\epsilon_0(\|\bar{r} - \bar{r}_1\|)^3} + \frac{QQ_2(\bar{r} - \bar{r}_2)}{4\pi\epsilon_0(\|\bar{r} - \bar{r}_2\|)^3} + \dots + \frac{QQ_n(\bar{r} - \bar{r}_n)}{4\pi\epsilon_0(\|\bar{r} - \bar{r}_n\|)^3} \\ &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{Q_k(\bar{r} - \bar{r}_k)}{\|\bar{r} - \bar{r}_k\|^3} \end{aligned}$$



$\Rightarrow$

Consider charge  $Q_1 = 3 \times 10^{-4} C$  at  $M(1, 2, 3)$  &  
 $Q_2 = -10^{-4} C$  at  $N(2, 0, 5) \rightarrow$  in a vacuum  
we desire to find the force exerted on  $Q_2$  by  $Q_1$

The force exerted on  $Q_2$  by  $Q_1$  is given by

$$\rightarrow F_2 = \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_{12}^2} \cdot \vec{a}_{12} = F_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}_{12} &= \vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1 = (2-1)\hat{a}_x + (0-2)\hat{a}_y + (5-3)\hat{a}_z \\ R_{12} &= \sqrt{a_x^2 + a_y^2 + a_z^2} \end{aligned}$$

Find  $|R_{12}|$  & the unit vector

$$|\vec{r}_{12}| = 3$$

$$\rightarrow \vec{a}_{12} = \frac{\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1}{|\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1|} = \frac{1}{3} (a_x - 2a_y + 2a_z)$$

$$\therefore F_2 = \frac{3 \times 10^{-4} \times (-10^{-4})}{4\pi (1/36\pi) \times 10^{-9} \times (3)^2} \times \frac{1}{3} (a_x - 2a_y + 2a_z)$$

$$\therefore F_2 = \frac{3 \times 10^{-4} \times (-10^4)}{4\pi(1/36\pi) \times 10^{-9} \times (3)^2} \times \frac{1}{3} (q_2 - 2q_1 + 2q_3)$$

$$F_2 = -30 \left( \frac{q_2 - 2q_1 + 2q_3}{3} \right) N$$

$$F_2 = -10 q_2 + 20 q_1 - 20 q_3 N$$

P1. Three point charges  $Q_1=1 \text{ mC}$ ,  $Q_2=2 \text{ mC}$  and  $Q_3=-3 \text{ mC}$  are respectively located at  $(0,0,4)$ ,  $(-2,6,1)$  and  $(3,-4,-8)$ . Calculate force on  $Q_1$ .

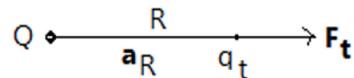
## Electric Field Intensity(E):

- Consider source charge  $Q$ .
- Place test charge( $q_t$ ) in the region surrounding it
- The force experienced by test charge is –

$$F_t = \frac{Qq_t \hat{a}_R}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$$

- Express it as force per unit charge
- $\frac{F_t}{q_t} = \text{Electric Field Intensity}(E)$

$$E = \frac{Q \hat{a}_R}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$$



- The electric field intensity( E ) is defined as the force per unit charge.
- Unit=Volts/meter

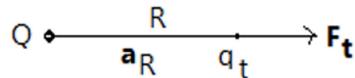
## Electric Field Intensity(E):

- Consider source charge Q.
- Place test charge( $q_t$ ) in the region surrounding it
- The force experienced by test charge is -

$$\mathbf{F}_t = \frac{Qq_t \hat{\mathbf{a}}_R}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$$

- Express it as force per unit charge
- $\frac{\mathbf{F}_t}{q_t}$  = Electric Field Intensity(E)

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{Q \hat{\mathbf{a}}_R}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$$



- The electric field intensity( E) is defined as the force per unit charge.
- Unit=Volts/meter

### \* Principle of superposition

The electric field intensity ( $\bar{E}$ ) due to 'n' pt charges at a pt in free space = vector sum of the ( $E$ ) due to each charge acting alone.

The charges are located by  $\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \dots, \vec{r}_n$  & the field pt is located by radius vector  $\vec{r}$

$$\bar{E} = \frac{Q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(\vec{r}-\vec{r}_1)}{|r-r_1|^3} + \frac{Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(\vec{r}-\vec{r}_2)}{|r-r_2|^3} + \dots + \frac{Q_n}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(\vec{r}-\vec{r}_n)}{|r-r_n|^3}$$

$$\boxed{\bar{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{k=1}^n Q_k \frac{(\vec{r}-\vec{r}_k)}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}_k|^3}} \rightarrow \textcircled{R}$$

- Q) Two pt charges of  $20\text{nC}$  &  $-20\text{nC}$  are situated at  $(1, 0, 0)$  &  $(0, 1, 0)$  in free space. Determine the  $\bar{E}$  at  $(0, 0, 1)$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} q_1 = 20 \text{ nC at } (1, 0, 0) \rightarrow r_1 = a_x \\ q_2 = -20 \text{ nC at } (0, 1, 0) \rightarrow r_2 = a_y \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} r - r_1 &= (a_z - a_{x_0}) \\ r - r_2 &= (a_z - a_{y_0}) \end{aligned}$$

$$G \bar{E} \text{ at } (0, 0, 1) \rightarrow r = a_z$$

$$\text{w.k.t. } E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{q_k (r - r_k)}{|r - r_k|^3} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{q_k (r - r_{k'})}{|r - r_{k'}|^3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{20 \times 10^{-9} (a_z - a_x)}{(\sqrt{2})^3} + \frac{(-20 \times 10^{-9}) (a_z - a_y)}{(\sqrt{2})^3} \right]$$

$$E = -63.63 a_x + 63.63 a_y \quad \text{V/m (N/C)}$$

## \* Charge Configurations

- 1) Point charge .
- 2) line charge
- 3) Surface charge
- 4) Volume charge

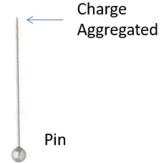
### (1) Point charge

- Point charge: A point charge mean a charge whose dimensions are much smaller than other relevant dimensions

### 2) Line charge

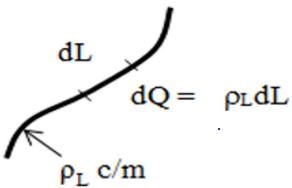
- It has filament like distribution of charge e.g. sharp beam in CRT, charged conductor of very small radius.

- Examples
- Charge aggregated on pin head



- Metallic spheres



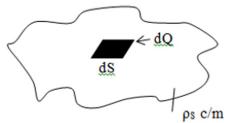


- Consider  $dQ = \rho_L dL$
- We define the line charge density  $\rho_L$  C/m as charge per unit length.
- Hence

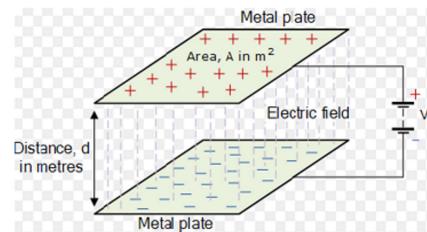
$$\therefore \rho_L = \lim_{dL \rightarrow 0} \frac{dQ}{dL} \text{ C/m}$$

### 3) Surface charge

- An electric charge accumulated on a surface is called surface charge.
- Example: Parallel plate capacitor



- Consider incremental charge  $dQ = \rho_s ds$
- We define the surface charge density ( $\rho_s$ ) as the charge per unit area.
- Hence  $\therefore \rho_s = \lim_{ds \rightarrow 0} \frac{dQ}{ds} \text{ C/m}^2$

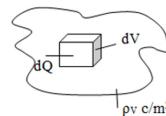


### 4) Volume charge

Here charge is confined within a volume.

It is volume like distribution of charge

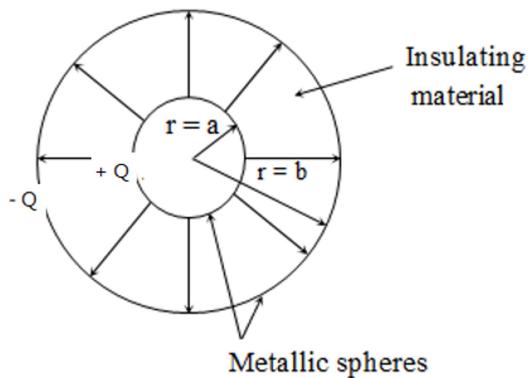
e.g. Region surrounding cathode in CRT



- Consider  $dQ = \rho_v dv$
- We define the volume charge density  $\rho_v$  C/m as charge per unit volume.
- Hence

$$\rho_v = \lim_{dv \rightarrow 0} \frac{dQ}{dv} \text{ C/m}^3$$

## Faraday's Experiment



- With the equipment dismantled, the inner sphere was given a known positive charge ( $+Q$ )
- The hemisphere were then clamped together around the charged sphere with dielectric material between them.
- The outer sphere was discharged.
- The charge on inner surface of outer sphere is measured.
- Faraday found that the total charge on the outer sphere was equal in magnitude to the original charge placed on the inner sphere
- This was true regardless of the dielectric material separating the two spheres
- He concluded that, there was some sort of 'displacement' from the inner sphere to the

- From Faraday's experiment,
- Electric Flux ( $\psi$ )  $\propto$  charge ( $Q$ )
- $\therefore \psi = KQ$
- In SI system,  $K = 1$
- $\therefore \psi = Q$  coulomb

- Faraday found that the total charge on the outer sphere was equal in magnitude to the original charge placed on the inner sphere
- This was true regardless of the dielectric material separating the two spheres
- He concluded that, there was some sort of 'displacement' from the inner sphere to the outer which was independent of the medium
- We will refer this as displacement flux or simply electric flux( $\psi$ )

#### From Faraday's experiment,

- Electric Flux ( $\psi$ )  $\propto$  charge (Q)
- $\therefore \psi = KQ$
- In SI system,  $K = 1$
- $\therefore \psi = Q$  coulomb



## Electric Flux Density( $D$ )

- The electric flux density(**D**) at any point is defined as electric flux or electric displacement per unit area.
- It is a vector quantity.
- Its direction being taken as that of the normal to the surface element which makes the displacement through the element of area a maximum

- The flux density is-**

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{\text{Flux}}{\text{Area}} = \frac{Q}{4\pi R^2} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r$$

## \* Relation between **E** and **D**

The electric flux density ( $\bar{D}$ ) at a point P which is at distance  $r$  meters from point charge Q is given as-

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

Similarly  $\bar{E}$  at a point P in free space is-

$$\bar{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_r$$

From above equations

$$\therefore \bar{D} = \epsilon_0 \bar{E} \quad (\text{for free space})$$

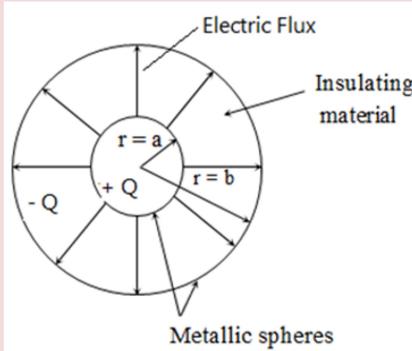
- The Electric field intensity(**E**) is dependent on the medium in which the charge is placed.
- Electric flux density(**D**) is independent of medium
- D** provides the same information as **E** does

## \* Maxwell's Equation for Static Field

### Gauss's Law

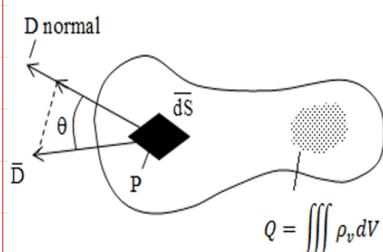
- From Faraday's experiment,
    - Electric Flux ( $\psi$ )  $\propto$  charge (Q)
    - $\therefore \psi = KQ$
    - In SI system,  $K = 1$
    - $\therefore \psi = Q$  coulomb
  - Statement: The electric flux passing through any closed surface is equal to the total charge enclosed by that surface
- 

### • Faraday's Experiment



## Mathematical Form

- Consider volume like distribution of charge, surrounded by a closed surface of any shape
- Let D be the flux density on surface which will vary in magnitude and direction from point to point on the surface.
- The incremental flux( $d\Psi$ ) through incremental surface ( $d\mathbf{S}$ ) are given as-
- $d\Psi = D_{\text{normal}} dS = D \cos \theta dS = \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$



$\therefore$  total flux through the closed surface

$$\Psi = \int d\Psi = \oint \bar{D} \cdot \bar{dS} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

*closed surface*

$= \Phi = \text{charge enclosed.}$

$$d\psi = D_{\text{normal}} dS$$

$$d\psi = D \cos\theta \cdot dS \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$d\psi = \bar{D} \cdot \bar{dS} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\Psi = \int d\psi = \oint \bar{D} \cdot \bar{dS} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

closed surface

$\underline{Q}$  = charge enclosed

For volume charge density ( $\rho_v$ ), we can write

$$\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot \bar{dS} = \int_{\text{Vol}} \rho_v \cdot dv \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

↳ Eqn (4) represents

MAXWELL's EQUATION → Integral form

\* Differential or Point form of Gauss's Law

To obtain point form → use divergence theorem

↓  
relates surface integral with volume integral

$$\oint_S \bar{A} \cdot \bar{dS} = \int_{\text{Vol}} (\nabla \cdot \bar{A}) dv$$

Applying Divergence theorem to eqn (4)

$$\therefore \oint_S \bar{D} \cdot \bar{dS} = \int_{\text{Vol}} (\nabla \cdot \bar{D}) \cdot dv = \int_{\text{Vol}} \rho_v dv \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

Comparing two volume integrals

$$\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_v \quad \text{--- (6)} \quad \text{--- (Maxwell's eqn point-form)}$$

## Divergence defined in all coordinate system

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{D} = \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \quad (\text{cartesian})$$

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r D_r) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial D_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \quad (\text{cylindrical})$$

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 D_r) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta D_\theta) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial D_\phi}{\partial \phi} \quad (\text{spherical})$$

\* Applications of Gauss's Law

used to determine  $\vec{D}$  &  $\vec{E}$  → symmetrize charge distributions

$\vec{D}$  &  $\vec{E}$  derivations { → L Point-charge  
→ Uniform line charge  
→ → Infinite surface charge

(i) Point-charge

$$\vec{D} = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \hat{ar}$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{ar} \quad \left\{ \vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \right\}$$

(ii) Uniform line charge

$$\vec{D} = \frac{\epsilon_L}{2\pi r} \hat{a}_\theta$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\epsilon_L}{2\pi \epsilon_0 r} \hat{a}_\theta$$

(iii) Infinite surface charge

$$\vec{D} = \frac{\epsilon_S}{2} \hat{a}_z$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\epsilon_S}{2\epsilon_0 (z)} \hat{a}_z$$

$$dW = -Q_t \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad \text{Joules} \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{6}$$

The total work done  $\rightarrow$  by integrating the diff work done over the distance from initial position to the final position

$\therefore$  From eqn 6 we have

$$W = \int_{\text{Initial}}^{\text{Final}} dW = \int_{\text{Initial}}^{\text{Final}} -Q_t \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\therefore W = -Q \int_{\text{Initial}}^{\text{Final}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{7}$$

### \* Potential diff (V)

w.k.t. work done in moving the p+ charge  $Q$  from pt-B to pt-A in the electric field  $\vec{E}$  is given by

$$W = -Q \int_B^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

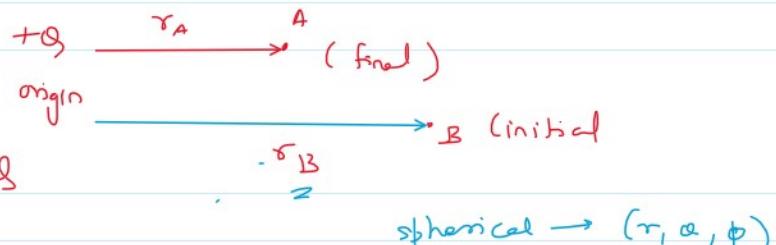
Potential diff (V) is defn as the work done per unit charge in moving the unit charge from B to A in the field  $\vec{E}$

$$V_{AB} = V = \frac{W}{Q} = - \int_B^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Ex:- Find the potential diff. b/w pts A & B at radial distance  $r_A$  &  $r_B$  from the p+ charge  $Q$

Consider charge  $Q$  at origin

$$\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r}$$



$$dl = dr \hat{r} + r d\theta \hat{\theta} + r \sin\theta d\phi \hat{\phi}$$

## Relationship between $\bar{E}$ & $\bar{V}$ — Maxwell's equation

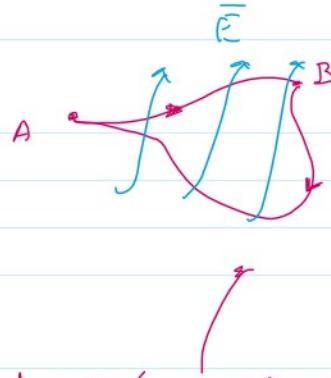
The pot. diff. between pt A & B is independent of the path. Hence,

$$V_{AB} = -V_{BA} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\therefore V_{AB} + V_{BA} = \oint_L \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

(OR)

$$\oint_L \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l} = 0 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$



This shows that the line integral of  $\bar{E}$  along a closed path (ref. fig.) must be zero.

$\Rightarrow$  Physically this implies that no net work is done in moving a charge along the closed path in an electrostatic field

Apply Stokes theorem to eq (3)

Stokes theorem relates line integral with surface integral

$$\oint_L \bar{A} \cdot d\bar{l} = \int_S (\nabla \times \bar{A}) \cdot d\bar{s}$$

$$\therefore \oint_L \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l} = \int_S (\nabla \times \bar{E}) \cdot d\bar{s} = 0$$

$$\therefore \nabla \times \bar{E} = 0 \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Any vector field that satisfies eq (3) & eq (4) is said to be conservative or irrotational field

\* Potential gradient

$$\text{w.k.t. } V = - \int \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l}$$

$$dV = -\bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l} = -E_x dx - E_y dy - E_z dz$$

(a)

## \* Current, Current density and continuity equation

(i) Current  $\rightarrow$  electric charge in motion constitutes CIn

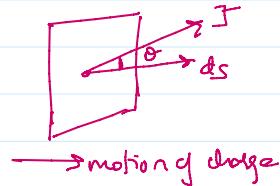
$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

(ii) Current density ( $\bar{J}$ )

$\bar{J}$  at a given pt. is defined as the CIn through a unit normal area at that pt. The incremental amount of CIn  $dI$  crossing an incremental surface  $ds$  is

$$dI = J ds \cos\theta \\ = \bar{J} \cdot \bar{ds}$$

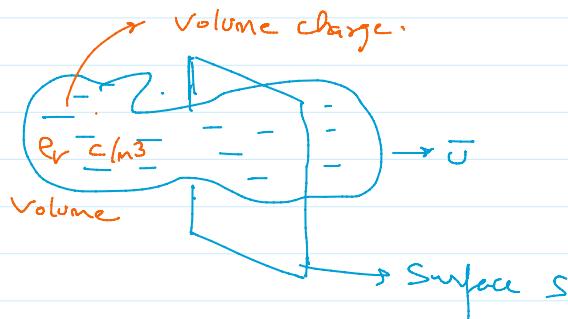
$\therefore$  The total CIn is given by



$$I = \int_s \bar{J} \cdot \bar{ds} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

## \* Convection CIn density

when charge passes through surface 's' it constitutes a convection CIn with density ( $\bar{J}$ )



$$\bar{J} = \rho_v \bar{v} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

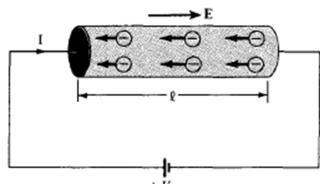
where  $\rho_v \rightarrow$  vol. charge density

\* Do not satisfy Ohm's law

$\bar{v} \rightarrow$  velocity to the right

- It occurs when current flows through insulating medium such as liquid, vacuum etc. Example: Electron beam in CRT

## \* Conduction CIn density



## POYNTING THEOREM

27 February 2023 20:03

### Poynting Theorem :

When electromagnetic waves propagate through space from their source to distant receiving points, there is a transfer of energy from the source to the receivers. In order to find the power in an electromagnetic waves, it is necessary to develop a power theorem, which is known as Poynting theorem. It can be obtained from Maxwell's equation as follows

Consider Maxwell's equation from modifies Ampere's circuit law,

$$\nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} + \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t} \quad \dots (1)$$

Dot each side of equation (1) with  $\bar{E}$

$$\bar{E} \cdot (\nabla \times \bar{H}) = \bar{E} \cdot \bar{J} + \bar{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t} \quad \dots (2)$$

Now make use of vector identity,

$$\nabla \cdot (\bar{E} \times \bar{H}) = \bar{H} \cdot \nabla \times \bar{E} - \bar{E} \cdot \nabla \times \bar{H} \quad \dots (3)$$

from (2) and (3)

$$\therefore \bar{H} \cdot \nabla \times \bar{E} - \nabla \cdot (\bar{E} \times \bar{H}) = \bar{E} \cdot \bar{J} + \bar{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t} \quad \dots (4)$$

but  $\nabla \times \bar{E} = -\frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t}$

and therefore,

$$-\bar{H} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t} - \nabla \cdot (\bar{E} \times \bar{H}) = \bar{E} \cdot \bar{J} + \bar{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t} \quad \dots (5)$$

or

$$-\nabla \cdot (\bar{E} \times \bar{H}) = \bar{E} \cdot \bar{J} + \epsilon \bar{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{E}}{\partial t} + \mu \bar{H} \cdot \frac{\partial \bar{H}}{\partial t} \quad \dots (6)$$

Q) If a potential  $V = x^2yz + Ay^3z$

(i) Find  $A$  so that Laplace's eq<sup>n</sup> is satisfied.

(ii) With the value of 'A' determine elec. field at  $(2, 1, -1)$

$$V = x^2yz + Ay^3z \leftarrow$$

(i) Find  $A$

Laplace's eq<sup>n</sup> in CCS (RCS)

$$\nabla^2 V = \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2} = 0 \quad \text{---(1)}$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = 2xyz; \quad \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} = 2yz$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial y} = x^2z + 3Ay^2z; \quad \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} = 0 + 6Ayz$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial z} = x^2y + Ay^3; \quad \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

Substituting above values in eq<sup>n</sup> (1)

$$\nabla^2 V = 2yz + 6Ayz = 0$$

$$\therefore A = -1/3$$

(ii)  $\vec{E}$  at  $(2, 1, -1)$

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V = - \left[ \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \hat{a}_x + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \hat{a}_y + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \hat{a}_z \right]$$

w.k.t.

$$V = x^2yz - \frac{1}{3}y^3z$$

$$\vec{E} = -(2xyz) \hat{a}_x + (x^2z - \frac{3y^2z}{3}) \hat{a}_y + (x^2y - \frac{y^3}{3}) \hat{a}_z$$

$$\therefore \vec{E} \text{ at } (2, 1, -1) = 4 \hat{a}_x + 3 \hat{a}_y - \frac{11}{3} \hat{a}_z$$

\* Steady Magnetic field

$\rightarrow$  Biot Savart's Law (Coulomb's Law)

Biot-Savart's is also called as Ampere's law for the (Co) element -

### Applications

(i)  $\vec{H}$  due to infinitely long straight conductor

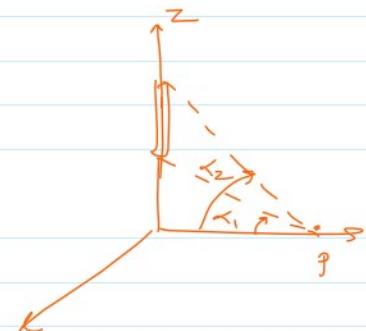
$$\rightarrow \vec{H} = \frac{I}{2\pi r} \hat{a}_\phi \text{ Am}$$

$$\rightarrow \vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} = \frac{\mu I}{2\pi r} \hat{a}_\phi \text{ wb/m}^2$$

(ii)  $\vec{H}$  due to straight conductor of finite length

$$\vec{H} = \frac{I}{4\pi r} [\sin \alpha_2 - \sin \alpha_1] \hat{a}_\phi \text{ Am}$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} = \frac{\mu I}{4\pi r} [\sin \alpha_2 - \sin \alpha_1] \hat{a}_\phi \text{ wb/m}^2$$



(iii)  $\vec{H}$  at the centre of a circular conductor

$$\vec{H} = \frac{I}{2R} \hat{a}_\theta \text{ Am}$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} = \frac{\mu I}{2R} \hat{a}_\theta \text{ wb/m}^2$$

### \* Ampere's Circuital Law

#### Statement :-

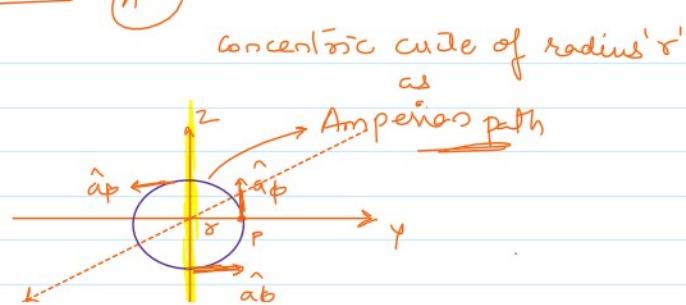
Ampere's circuital law states that the line integral of the tangential component of the magnetic field around a closed path is equal to the (Co) enclosed by the path.

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = I_{\text{enc}} \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

Proof :- Here  $\vec{H} = H_\phi \hat{a}_\phi$

$$\therefore d\vec{l} = r d\phi \hat{a}_\phi \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

while  $\vec{H}$  obtained at pt P, from Biot-Savart's



## \* Scalar Magnetic Potential ( $V_m$ ), Vector potential ( $\bar{A}$ )

Mag. potential  $\begin{cases} \text{Scalar } (V_m) \\ \text{Vector } (\bar{A}) \end{cases}$

### ① Scalar Mag. Potential ( $V_m$ )

The mag. field intensity ( $\bar{H}$ )

$$\bar{H} = -\nabla V_m \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Minus signs  $\rightarrow$  analogy to the electric potential

This definition must satisfy results of magnetic fields.  
i.e., example.

$$\nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

from (1) & (2)

$$\nabla \times (-\nabla V_m) = \bar{J} \Rightarrow$$

w.r.t. curl of gradient of any scalar  $\Rightarrow$

Thus to define  $\bar{H}$  as gradient of a scalar mag. potential, the curl density must be zero throughout the region in which scalar mag. potential is defined.

$$\therefore \bar{H} = (-\nabla V_m) \text{ if } \bar{J} = 0 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

## \* Vector mag potential ( $\bar{A}$ )

From magnetostatic field w.r.t.,

$$\nabla \cdot \bar{B} = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Also from vector calculus, divergence of curl of any vector field is zero

$\hookrightarrow$  i.e.  $\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \bar{A}) = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$

In order to satisfy eqs ① & ② simultaneously

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \frac{d}{dt} \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

There are 2 conditions for the induced emf as explained below

case(i) :- A closed circuit stationary, while a mag. flux density varying with time. (Time changing flux linking a stationary closed path)

∴ from eqn (5) we have

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \int_S \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{s} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

This is similar to transformer action & emf  $\Rightarrow$  transformer e.m.f.

Using Stokes theorem, a line integral can be converted to surface integral

$$\oint_S (\nabla \times \vec{E}) \cdot d\vec{s} = - \int_S \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{s} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

Assuming that both the surfaces  $\int_S$  taken over identical surfaces.

$$(\nabla \times \vec{E}) \cdot d\vec{s} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

Finally we have,

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

Eqn (8)  $\rightarrow$  represents one of the Maxwell's eqn.

If  $\vec{B}$  is not varying with time, then eqn (6) & (8)  $\rightarrow$  give the results obtained previously (electrostatic)

$$\therefore \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0 \quad \&$$

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

case(ii) :-

A magnetic flux density stationary, while a closed path moving.

Here the emf induced is called as generator emf (motional emf)

Consider that a charge  $q$  is moved in a mag. field  $\vec{B}$  with a velocity  $\vec{v}$ . Then the force on a charge is given by

$$\text{eqn } \bar{E} = |E| \cos(\omega t + \phi) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{mag} \\ \uparrow \\ \omega t + \phi \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \downarrow \\ \text{phase} \end{matrix}$$

\* Maxwell's eq<sup>n</sup> - Phasor representation (Time Varying field)

The partial derivative of a phasor w.r.t. time is equivalent to multiplying the corresponding phasor by  $j\omega$

Similarly → the second derivative is equivalent to  $(j\omega)^2$

\* Maxwell's eq<sup>n</sup> in Phasor form (Time Varying field)

Differential form

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_V$$

Integral form

$$\oint \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{s} = \int \rho_V dV$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \nabla \cdot \bar{B} = 0$$

$$\oint \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{s} = 0$$

**PHASOR  
REPRESENT.**

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \nabla \times \bar{E} = -\frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\oint \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{s}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad \nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} + \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t}$$

$$\oint \bar{H} \cdot d\bar{l} = \int \left( \bar{J} + \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\bar{s}$$

**PHASOR REPRESENTATION**

Point form

$$\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_V$$

Integral form

$$\oint \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{s} = \int \rho_V dV$$

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

$$\oint \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{s} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \bar{E} = -j\omega \bar{B}$$

$$\oint \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l} = -j\omega \int \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{s}$$

$$\nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} + j\omega \bar{D}$$

$$\oint \bar{H} \cdot d\bar{l} = \int \bar{J} \cdot d\bar{l} + j\omega \int \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{s}$$

## \* Boundary conditions

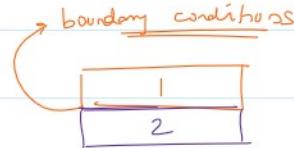
→ Integral form of Maxwell's eq<sup>n</sup>

ii) Electrostatic boundary conditions

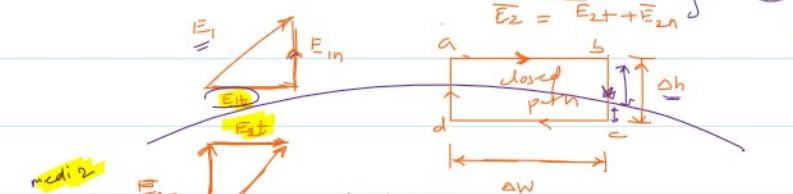
$$\oint \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{l} = 0 \quad \textcircled{1} \quad \&$$

$$\oint \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{s} = Q_{\text{end.}} \quad \textcircled{2}$$

$$\bar{E} = \bar{E}_t + \bar{E}_{n\perp} \quad \& \quad \bar{D} = \bar{D}_t + \bar{D}_{n\perp} \quad \textcircled{3}$$



\* Dielectric-Dielectric boundary cond'n



Medium 1

$$\epsilon_1 = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$$

\* Tangential component

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \bar{E}_{1t} = \bar{E}_{2t}$$

$$\int \bar{E}_{1t} = \bar{E}_{2t}$$

Tangential comp. of  $\bar{E}$  are same on the 2 sides of boundary

→ we make use of Gauss's Law for magnetic fields

$$\oint \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{s} = 0 \quad \rightarrow (1)$$

& Ampere circ law

$$\oint \bar{H} \cdot d\bar{l} = I \quad \rightarrow (2)$$

$$B_{1n} = B_{2n} \quad \text{or} \quad \mu_1 H_{1n} = \mu_2 H_{2n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{B} &\rightarrow \bar{B}_t + \bar{B}_n \\ \bar{H} &\rightarrow \bar{H}_t + \bar{H}_n \end{aligned}$$

normal component of  $\bar{B}$  is continuous at the boundary whereas normal component of  $\bar{H}$  is discontinuous at the boundary

$$H_{1t} = H_{2t} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{B_{1t}}{\mu_1} = \frac{B_{2t}}{\mu_2}$$

The tangential component of  $\bar{H}$  is continuous while that of  $\bar{B}$  is discontinuous at the boundary.

(i) Derive wave equation (Helmholtz wave eq?)

(ii) Determine solution of vector wave equations.

## \* WAVE PROPAGATION

In the solution of any EM problem the fundamental relations that must be satisfied are the four

Solving (13) and (16)

$$\beta = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\mu\epsilon}{2}} \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\omega^2\epsilon^2}} + 1 \right) \quad \dots (17)$$

$$\text{and } \alpha = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\mu\epsilon}{2}} \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\omega^2\epsilon^2}} - 1 \right) \quad \dots (18)$$

Propagation constant -

$r = \alpha + j\beta$

←  
attenuation constant -

→  
phase constant -  
(wave number)

## \* Solution of wave eq

From eqn (9) we have.

$$\nabla^2 E - \gamma^2 E = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \bar{E} = \gamma^2 \bar{E}$$

from eqn (5)

 $(\lambda, \gamma, z)$ 

$$\gamma^2 = j\omega\mu(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)$$

Expanding  $\nabla^2$  and  $\bar{E}$  in Cartesian co-ordinate system.

$$\nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}, \text{ and } \bar{E} = E_x \hat{a}_x + E_y \hat{a}_y + E_z \hat{a}_z$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) (E_x \hat{a}_x + E_y \hat{a}_y + E_z \hat{a}_z) = \gamma^2 (E_x \hat{a}_x + E_y \hat{a}_y + E_z \hat{a}_z)$$

Thus equation (9) is equivalent to three scalar equations

One for each component of  $\bar{E}$  along  $\hat{a}_x$ ,  $\hat{a}_y$  and  $\hat{a}_z$ .

The wave equation reduces to a very simple form if uniform plane wave is considered.

Consider uniform plane wave traveling in  $+\hat{a}_z$  direction,  $\bar{E}$  is independent of  $x$  and  $y$  and there is no component in the direction of propagation.

Therefore equation (9) reduces to,

$$\nabla^2 \bar{E} = \frac{\partial^2 \bar{E}}{\partial z^2} = \gamma^2 \bar{E} \quad \dots (19)$$

which is equivalent to

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial z^2} = \gamma^2 E_x \quad \dots 20(a)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_y}{\partial z^2} = \gamma^2 E_y \quad \dots 20(b)$$

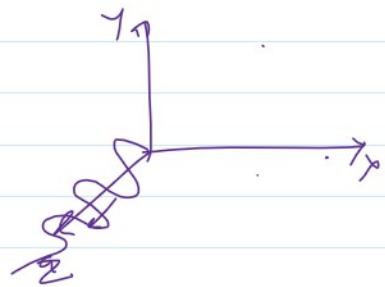
$$\frac{\partial^2 E_z}{\partial z^2} = \gamma^2 E_z = 0 \quad \dots 20(c)$$

In general for uniform plane wave traveling in  $z$  direction,  $\bar{E}$  may have  $x$  and  $y$  component but not  $E_z$ .

Proof: In a region in which there is no charge density,

$$\nabla \cdot \bar{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \nabla \cdot \bar{D} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial z} = 0$$

For uniform plane in which  $\bar{E}$  is independent of  $x$  and  $y$ , the first two terms of this relation are equal to zero so that it reduces to  $\frac{\partial E_z}{\partial z} = 0$ 

$$\nabla^2 E = \gamma^2 E$$

$(E_x, E_y, E_z)$

 $D & E$ 

$$\nabla \cdot E = 0$$

$$D = \epsilon E$$

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

Intrinsic Impedance ( $\eta$ )

Now taking ratio

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{E_x}{H_y} &= \frac{E_0 e^{-\gamma z}}{\gamma E_0 e^{-\gamma z}} = \frac{j\omega\mu}{\gamma} \\ &= \frac{j\omega\mu}{\sqrt{j\omega\mu(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)}} = \sqrt{\frac{j\omega\mu}{(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)}} = \text{complex quantity} \\ &= \eta \text{ (intrinsic impedance)}\end{aligned}$$

$\eta = \frac{\text{Elec field}}{\text{Mag field}}$

where  $\eta$  is complex quantity, which may be expressed as

$$\eta = \sqrt{\frac{j\omega\mu}{(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)}} = |\eta| e^{j\theta_n} = |\eta| e^{j\theta_n}$$

$$\therefore \quad \begin{aligned} &\omega^2 \epsilon^2 \\ &\omega \mu \\ &\omega^2 \epsilon^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \theta_n = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{\sigma \omega \mu}{\omega^2 \mu \epsilon} = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon}$$

$$|\eta| = \sqrt{\frac{\mu/\epsilon}{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon}\right)^2}}$$

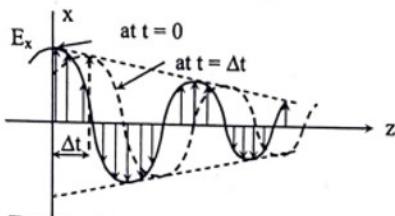
Hence the equation (27) may be written as -

$$H_y = \frac{E_0}{|\eta| e^{j\theta_n}} e^{j\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z)$$

$$\bar{H}(z, t) = \frac{E_0}{|\eta|} e^{-\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z - \theta_n) \hat{a}_y \quad \dots (28)$$

$$\therefore \bar{E}(z, t) = E_0 e^{-\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z) \hat{a}_x \quad \dots (25)$$

From equation (25) and (28), as the wave propagates along  $+\hat{a}_z$ , it decreases or attenuates in amplitude by a factor  $e^{-\alpha z}$ , hence  $\alpha$  is known as the attenuation constant or factor of the medium. It is a measure of the spatial rate of decay of the wave in the medium, measured in nepers per meter (Np/m) or in decibels per meter (dB/m). An attenuation of 1 neper denotes a reduction to  $e^{-1}$  of the original value whereas an increase of 1 neper indicates an increase by a factor of  $e$ .

Fig :  $\bar{E}$  field with y-comp. traveling in  $+\hat{a}_x$  direction

The quantity  $\beta$  is a measure of the phase shift per length and is called the phase constant or wave number.

In terms of  $\beta$ , the velocity of propagation and wavelength are given by,

$$v = \frac{\omega}{\beta}, \quad \lambda = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \quad \dots (29)$$

$$E_x = E_0 e^{-\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z) \quad \dots (24)$$

$$\therefore H_y = \frac{\gamma E_0}{j\omega\mu} e^{-\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z) \quad \dots (27)$$

$$\beta = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\mu\epsilon}{2} \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\omega^2 \epsilon^2}} + 1 \right)}$$

(1)

... (17) ←

$$\alpha = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\mu\epsilon}{2} \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\omega^2 \epsilon^2}} - 1 \right)}$$

(2)

... (18) ←

$$\theta_n = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{\sigma \omega \mu}{\omega^2 \mu \epsilon} = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon}$$

(3)

$$\eta = n \angle \theta_n$$

$$|\eta| = \frac{\sqrt{\mu/\epsilon}}{\left[1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon}\right)^2\right]^{1/4}}$$

(4)

### Wave Motion in Perfect (Lossless) Dielectrics :

It is a special case of lossy dielectrics.

Here  $\sigma \ll \omega \epsilon$ ,

$$\therefore \sigma \approx 0, \epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r, \mu = \mu_0 \mu_r \quad \dots \dots \dots (31)$$

Substituting above relations into equation (17), (18)

$$\alpha = 0 \quad \dots \dots \dots (32)$$

$$\beta = \omega \sqrt{\mu \epsilon} \quad \dots \dots \dots (33)$$

$$v = \frac{\omega}{\beta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu \epsilon}} \quad \dots \dots \dots (34)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} = \quad \dots \dots \dots (35)$$

$$\text{Also, } \eta = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \angle 0^\circ \quad \dots \dots \dots (36)$$

Thus  $\bar{E}$  and  $\bar{H}$  are in time phase with each other.

## Intrinsic Impedance

Now taking ratio

$$\frac{E_x}{H_y} = \frac{E_0 e^{-\gamma z}}{\frac{\gamma E_0}{j\omega\mu} e^{-\gamma z}} = \frac{j\omega\mu}{\gamma}$$

$$= \frac{j\omega\mu}{\sqrt{j\omega\mu(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)}} = \sqrt{\frac{j\omega\mu}{(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)}} = \text{complex quantity}$$

$$= \eta \text{ (intrinsic impedance)}$$

where  $\gamma^2 = j\omega\mu(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{j\omega\mu(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)}$$

$$e^{j\theta_n}$$

$$\eta = |\eta| \angle \theta_n$$

where  $\eta$  is complex quantity, which may be expressed as

$$\rightarrow \eta = \sqrt{\frac{j\omega\mu}{(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)}} = |\eta| \angle \theta_n = |\eta| e^{j\theta_n}$$

$$\eta = \frac{E}{H}$$

$$H = \frac{E}{\eta}$$

$$|\eta| \angle \theta_n$$

$$E =$$

$$\therefore \eta^2 = \frac{j\omega\mu(\sigma - j\omega\epsilon)}{\sqrt{(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)(\sigma - j\omega\epsilon)}} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega^2\mu\epsilon + j\sigma\omega\mu}{\sigma^2 + \omega^2\epsilon^2}}$$

$$\therefore \theta_n = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{\sigma\omega\mu}{\omega^2\mu\epsilon} = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{\sigma}{\omega\epsilon}$$

$$\rightarrow |\eta| = \sqrt{\frac{\mu/\epsilon}{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\omega\epsilon}\right)^2}}$$

Hence the equation (27) may be written as -

$$\rightarrow H_y = \frac{E_0}{|\eta| \angle \theta_n} e^{j\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z)$$

$$\rightarrow \bar{H}(z, t) = \frac{E_0}{|\eta|} e^{-j\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z - \theta_n) \hat{a}_y$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\}$$

$$(28)$$

$$\rightarrow \bar{E}(z, t) = E_0 e^{-j\alpha z} \cos(\omega t - \beta z) \hat{a}_x$$

$$\dots (25)$$

## Condition at a Boundary Surface

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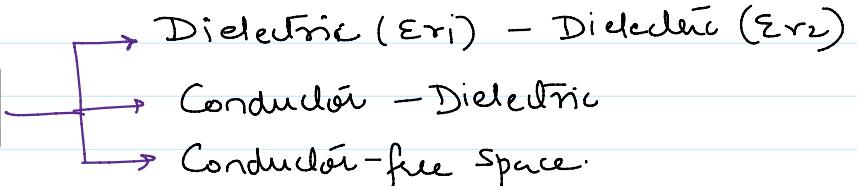
### Generalized Form of Maxwell's Equation:

| Differential form   | Integral form   | Remarks                                 |
|---|---|---|
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_v$   | $\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{\text{vol}} \rho_v dv$  | Gauss's Law                             |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{B} = 0$  | $\oint_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S} = 0$  | Gauss's Law for magnetic field          |
| $\nabla \times \bar{E} = -\frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t}$          | $\oint_S \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{L} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S}$                          | Faraday's law                           |
| $\nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} + \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t}$ | $\oint_S \bar{H} \cdot d\bar{L} = \int_S \left( \bar{J} + \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\bar{S}$ | Modified form of Ampere's circuital law |

### Maxwell's Equation in Phasor Form:

| Point Form  | Integral Form  |
|---|--|
| $\nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} + j\omega \bar{D}$ | $\oint_L \bar{H} \cdot d\bar{L} = \int_S \bar{J} \cdot d\bar{S} + j\omega \int_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$ |
| $\nabla \times \bar{E} = -j\omega \bar{B}$          | $\oint_L \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{L} = -j\omega \int_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S}$                                |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_v$                     | $\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{\text{vol}} \rho_v dv$   |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{B} = 0$                          | $\oint_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S} = 0$   |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{J} = -j\omega \rho_v$            | $\oint_S \bar{J} \cdot d\bar{S} = -j\omega \int_{\text{vol}} \rho_v dv$                                  |

### Condition at a Boundary Surface:



If the field exist in a region consisting of two different media, the conditions that must satisfy at the interface separating the media are called boundary conditions.

The integral form of Maxwell's equation can be used to determine boundary conditions.

## Electric and Magnetic field boundary conditions

02 February 2023 08:48

### Generalized Form of Maxwell's Equation:

| Differential form   | Integral form   | Remarks                                 |
|---|---|---|
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_v$   | $\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{\text{vol}} \rho_v dv$  | Gauss's Law                             |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{B} = 0$  | $\oint_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S} = 0$  | Gauss's Law for magnetic field          |
| $\nabla \times \bar{E} = -\frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t}$          | $\oint_L \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{L} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S}$                          | Faraday's law                           |
| $\nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} + \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t}$ | $\oint_S \bar{H} \cdot d\bar{L} = \int_S \left( \bar{J} + \frac{\partial \bar{D}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\bar{S}$ | Modified form of Ampere's circuital law |

### Maxwell's Equation in Phasor Form:

| Point Form  | Integral Form  |
|---|--|
| $\nabla \times \bar{H} = \bar{J} + j\omega \bar{D}$ | $\oint_L \bar{H} \cdot d\bar{L} = \int_S \bar{J} \cdot d\bar{S} + j\omega \int_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S}$ |
| $\nabla \times \bar{E} = -j\omega \bar{B}$          | $\oint_L \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{L} = -j\omega \int_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S}$                                |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_v$                     | $\oint_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{S} = \int_{\text{vol}} \rho_v dv$   |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{B} = 0$                          | $\oint_S \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S} = 0$   |
| $\nabla \cdot \bar{J} = -j\omega \rho_v$            | $\oint_S \bar{J} \cdot d\bar{S} = -j\omega \int_{\text{vol}} \rho_v dv$                                  |

### Boundary conditions

If the field exist in a region consisting of two different media, the conditions that must satisfy at the interface separating the media are called boundary conditions.

### Electrostatic Boundary conditions

## Introduction to EM waves

11 February 2022 09:15

Waves are a means for transferring energy or information from one place to another

Electromagnetic waves as the name suggests, are a means for transferring electromagnetic energy

Plane wave :- If each field has same direction at every pt in any plane  $\perp$  to the direction of wave travel, it is called as plane wave

Uniform Plane Wave :- If the field has the same direction and magnitude at every point in any plane  $\perp$  to the direction of wave travel, it is called as Uniform plane wave

Electromagnetic (EM) waves.

All forms of EM energy share 3 fundamental characteristics

- (i) They all travel at high velocity
- (ii) In travelling, they assume the properties of waves.
- (iii) They radiate outward from a source.

\* EM wave propagation through various media

(i) Free Space ( $\sigma = \epsilon_0 ; \epsilon = \epsilon_0, \mu = \mu_0$ )

(ii) Lossless dielectric ( $\sigma \ll \omega \epsilon, \epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r, \mu = \mu_0 \mu_r$ )

## Extra Numericals

27 January 2022 10:29

- Q1) Consider 2 pt charges  $q_1 = 2 \text{ mC}$  at  $(-3, 7, 4)$  &  $q_2 = 5 \text{ mC}$  at  $(2, 4, -1)$ .  
Find force  $F_2$  on  $q_2$  ( $F_2$  &  $F_1$ )



(i) Force  $F_2$  on  $q_2$  is given by

$$F_2 = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{12}^2} \hat{a}_{12}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}_{12} = \vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1 &= (2\hat{a}_x + 4\hat{a}_y - \hat{a}_z) - (-3\hat{a}_x + 7\hat{a}_y + 4\hat{a}_z) \\ &= 5\hat{a}_x - 3\hat{a}_y - 5\hat{a}_z \end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow \hat{a}_{12} = \frac{\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1}{|\vec{r}_{12}|} = \frac{5\hat{a}_x - 3\hat{a}_y - 5\hat{a}_z}{\sqrt{25+9+25}} = \frac{5\hat{a}_x - 3\hat{a}_y - 5\hat{a}_z}{7.6811}$$

$$\therefore \hat{a}_{12} = 0.651 \hat{a}_x - 0.391 \hat{a}_y - 0.651 \hat{a}_z$$

$$\rightarrow \therefore \vec{F}_2 = \frac{2 \times 10^{-3} \times 5 \times 10^{-3}}{4\pi \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \times (7.6811)^2} (0.651 \hat{a}_x - 0.391 \hat{a}_y - 0.651 \hat{a}_z)$$

$$\vec{F}_2 = \frac{10 \times 10^{-6}}{6561.45 \times 10^{-12}} (0.651 \hat{a}_x - 0.391 \hat{a}_y - 0.651 \hat{a}_z)$$

$$= 1524.05 (0.651 \hat{a}_x - 0.391 \hat{a}_y - 0.651 \hat{a}_z)$$

$$\boxed{\vec{F}_2 = 992.158 \hat{a}_x - 595.91 \hat{a}_y - 990.63 \hat{a}_z \text{ N}}$$

Note:- As  $\hat{a}_{21} = -\hat{a}_{12}$   
 $\therefore \vec{F}_1 = -\vec{F}_2$

(ii) Force  $F_1$  on  $q_1$

$$\therefore \vec{F}_1 = -992.158 \hat{a}_x + 595.91 \hat{a}_y + 990.63 \hat{a}_z \text{ N}$$

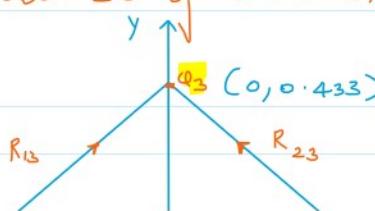
- Q2) Three pt charges  $q_1 = 10^{-6} \text{ C}$ ;  $q_2 = 10^{-6} \text{ C}$  &  $q_3 = 0.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C}$  are located at the corners of an equilateral triangle of 50 cm side. Determine force on charge  $q_3$ .



$$q_1 = 10^{-6} \text{ C at } (-0.25, 0)$$

$$q_2 = 10^{-6} \text{ C at } (0.25, 0)$$

$$q_3 = 0.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C at }$$



- Experimental law deals with force between two point charges
- The law states that the force F between two point charges  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  is-
  - directly proportional to the products ( $Q_1 \times Q_2$ ) of the charges
  - Inversely proportional to square of distance (R) between them
  - along the line joining them.
  - depends upon medium
  - depends upon the nature of charges (+ or - ).



- The force is expressed as –
- $F = \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon R^2}$
- where  $\epsilon$  is permittivity of the medium. For free space  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0\epsilon_r = \epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}$  i.e.  $\epsilon_r = 1$