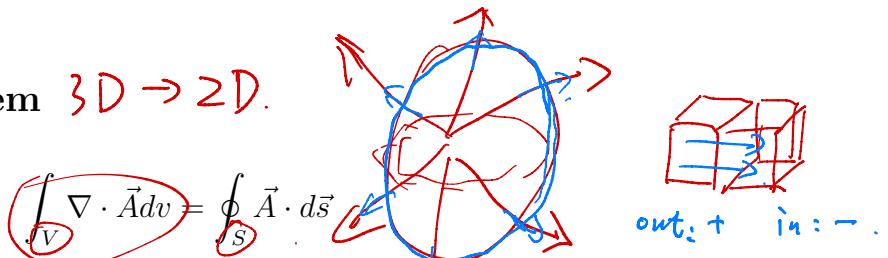


RC2

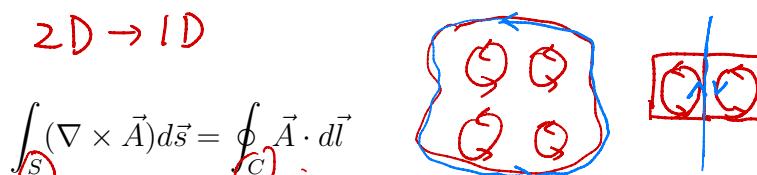
1 Vector Calculus

1.1 Divergence Theorem $3D \rightarrow 2D$



The volume integral of the divergence of a vector field equals the total outward flux of the vector through the surface that bounds the volume.

1.2 Stokes's Theorem $2D \rightarrow 1D$



The surface integral of the curl of a vector field over an open surface is equal to the closed line integral of the vector along the contour bounding the surface.

1.3 Null Identities

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

$$\nabla \times (\nabla V) \equiv 0$$

- The curl of the gradient of any scalar field is identically zero.
- Another interpretation: If a vector field is curl-free, it can be expressed as the gradient of a scalar field.

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \equiv 0 \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{F} = 0 \quad \vec{F} = \nabla \times \underline{\underline{A}}$$

- The divergence of the curl of any vector field is identically zero.
- Another interpretation: if a vector field is divergenceless, it can be expressed as the curl of another vector field.
- Divergenceless field is called solenoidal field.

1.4 Exercise

- (HW1-4) Find the divergence of the following radial vector fields:

a) $f_1(\mathbf{R}) = \underline{\underline{a_R}} R^n$,

b) $f_2(\mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{a}_R \frac{k}{R^2}$

~~ϕ, θ~~

In spherical coordinates, $\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{1}{R^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial R} (R^2 A_R)$ if $\vec{A} = \vec{a}_R A_R$

a) $\vec{A} = f_1(\vec{R}) = \vec{a}_R R^n, A_R = R^n$

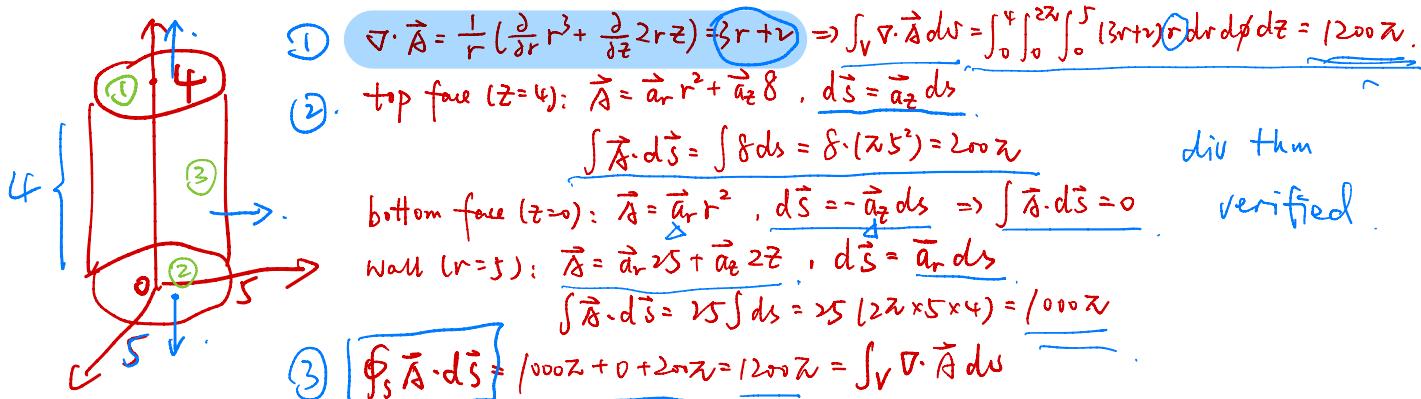
$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{1}{R^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial R} (R^{n+1}) = (n+2) R^{n-1}$$

b) $\vec{A} = f_2(\vec{R}) = \vec{a}_R \frac{k}{R^2}, A_R = \frac{k}{R^2}$

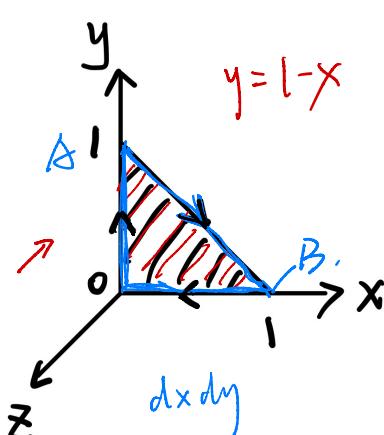
$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{1}{R^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial R} (k) = 0$$

$h_1=1, h_2=r, h_3=1$

- (HW1-5) For vector function $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{a}_r r^2 + \mathbf{a}_z 2z$, verify the divergence theorem for the circular cylindrical region enclosed by $r = 5$, $z = 0$, and $z = 4$.



- Given $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{a}_x xy - \mathbf{a}_y 2x$, verify Stokes's theorem using the triangle in the following picture.



① $\nabla \times \vec{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{a}_x & \vec{a}_y & \vec{a}_z \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ xy & -2x & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -\vec{a}_z (x+2)$

② $\oint_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} -\vec{a}_z (x+2) \cdot (-\vec{a}_z dx dy)$
 $= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (x+2) dx dy = \frac{7}{6}$

③ i) $O \rightarrow A: x=0, \vec{F}=0$

$$\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

ii) $B \rightarrow O: y=0, \vec{F} = -\vec{a}_y 2x, \oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$

$$\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = (-\vec{a}_y 2x)(\vec{a}_x dx + \vec{a}_y dy) = 0$$

iii) $A \rightarrow B, \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = (\vec{a}_x xy - \vec{a}_y 2x)(\vec{a}_x dx + \vec{a}_y dy)$

$$\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^1 (-x^2 + 3x) dx = \frac{7}{6}$$

$$= xy dx - 2x dy$$

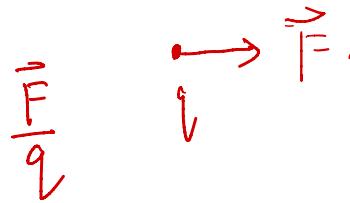
$$= x(1-x) dx + 2x dx = (-x^2 + 3x) dx$$

2 Electrostatics in Free Space

Static electric charges (source) in free space → electric field

2.1 Electric field intensity

$$\mathbf{E} = \lim_{q \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{F}}{q} \quad (\text{V/m})$$



2.2 Fundamental Postulates of Electrostatics

- Differential form:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad (\text{divergence})$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \quad (\text{curl})$$

$$\mathbf{P} = \epsilon_0 \cdot (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}).$$

where ρ is the volume charge density of free charges (C/m^3), ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space, a universal constant.

- Integral form:

$$\oint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{— Gauss's Theorem}$$

$$\oint_C \mathbf{E} \cdot d\ell = 0 \quad (\text{Stokes's theorem}),$$

where Q is the total charge contained in volume V bounded by surface S . Also, the scalar line integral of the static electric field intensity around any closed path vanishes.

\mathbf{E} is **not solenoidal** (unless $\rho = 0$), but **irrotational (conservative)**

3 Coulomb's Law

3.1 Electric Field due to a System of Discrete Charges

- a single point charge (charge on the origin):

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{a}_R E_R = \mathbf{a}_R \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \quad (\text{V/m})$$

$$|E| \propto \frac{1}{R^2}$$

- a single point charge (charge is not on the origin):

$$\mathbf{E}_p = \frac{q(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}')}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}'|^3} \quad (\text{V/m})$$

When a point charge q_2 is placed in the field of another point charge q_1 at the origin, a force \mathbf{F}_{12} is experienced by q_2 due to the electric field intensity \mathbf{E}_{12} of q_1 at q_2 . Then we have:

$$\mathbf{F}_{12} = q_2 \mathbf{E}_{12} = \mathbf{a}_R \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2}$$



$q_1 > 0, q_2 > 0$

3

$q_1 > 0, q_2 > 0$

- several point charges:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{q_k (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}'_k)}{|\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}'_k|^3}$$

vectors
 \vec{E}

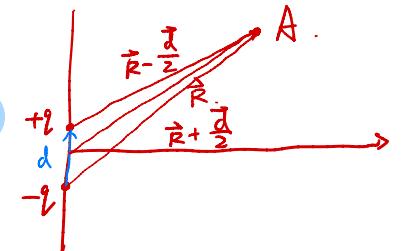
3.2 Electric Dipole

- Electric Field general expression:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left\{ \frac{\mathbf{R} - \frac{\mathbf{d}}{2}}{|\mathbf{R} - \frac{\mathbf{d}}{2}|^3} - \frac{\mathbf{R} + \frac{\mathbf{d}}{2}}{|\mathbf{R} + \frac{\mathbf{d}}{2}|^3} \right\}$$

if $d \ll R$:

$$\mathbf{E} \approx \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} \left[3 \frac{\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{d}}{R^2} \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{d} \right]$$

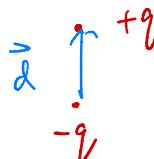


- Electric Dipole Moment

Definition:

$$\mathbf{p} = q\mathbf{d}$$

, where q is the charge, vector \mathbf{d} goes from $-q$ to $+q$.



$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{a}_z p = p (\mathbf{a}_R \cos \theta - \mathbf{a}_\theta \sin \theta)$$

$$\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{p} = Rp \cos \theta$$

- Electric Field: (spherical coordinate)

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{p}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} (\mathbf{a}_R 2 \cos \theta + \mathbf{a}_\theta \sin \theta) \quad (\text{V/m})$$

3.3 Electric Field due to a Continuous Distribution of Charge

- General Differential Element:

$$d\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{a}_R \frac{(\rho dv')}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \quad \rho dv' = dq$$

, where dv' is the differential volume element.

- Line Charge:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{L'} \mathbf{a}_R \frac{\rho_\ell}{R^2} d\ell' \quad (\text{V/m})$$

- Surface Charge:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_S \mathbf{a}_R \frac{\rho_s}{R^2} ds' \quad (\text{V/m})$$

- Volume Charge:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} \mathbf{a}_R \frac{\rho}{R^2} dv' \quad (\text{V/m})$$

3.4 Exercise

- (HW2-1) A line charge of uniform density ρ_l in free space forms a semicircle of radius b . Determine the magnitude and direction of the electric field intensity at the center of the semicircle.

of the semicircle.

$$d\vec{E} = \frac{P_e b d\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b^2} = \frac{P_e d\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b}$$

$$d\vec{E}_I = \frac{P_e d\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b} \sin\theta$$

$$\int_0^\pi \frac{P_e d\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b} \sin\theta = \frac{P_e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b} \int_0^\pi \sin\theta d\theta = \boxed{\frac{P_e}{2\pi\epsilon_0 b}}$$

magnitude

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{a}_{my} \frac{P_e}{2\pi\epsilon_0 b}$$

↓
dir.
mag.

- (HW2-2) Three uniform line charges— ρ_{l1} , ρ_{l2} , and ρ_{l3} , each of length L —form an equilateral triangle. Assuming that $\rho_{l1} = 2\rho_{l2} = 2\rho_{l3}$, determine the electric field intensity at the center of the triangle.

$E_1 = \frac{\rho dx}{4\pi\epsilon_0(x^2+h^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \cdot \frac{h}{\sqrt{x^2+h^2}}$

$E_1 = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{\rho h dx}{4\pi\epsilon_0(x^2+h^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$

$= \frac{\rho h}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{1}{(x^2+h^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dx.$

$\vec{E} = \bar{A}_y \frac{3\rho}{2\pi\epsilon_0 h} \quad h = \frac{L}{2\sqrt{3}}$

4 Gauss's Law and Application

4.1 Definition

The total outward flux of the E-field over any closed surface in free space is equal to **the total charge enclosed in the surface** divided by ϵ_0 . (Note that we can choose arbitrary surface S for our convenience.)

$$\oint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

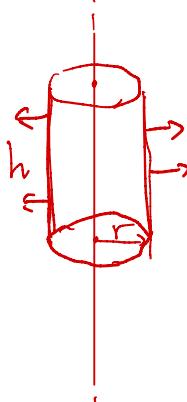
4.2 Application

- Conditions for Maxwell's Integral Equations:

There is a **high degree of symmetry** in the charge distribution or in the electrical field (i.e., spherically symmetric, planar, line charge, etc.).

4.3 Example

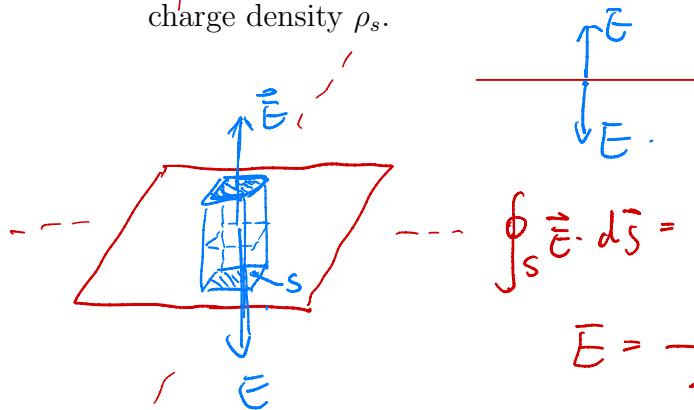
- Determine the electric field intensity of an infinitely long, straight, line charge of a uniform density ρ_e .



$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = E \cdot 2\pi rh = \frac{\rho_e \cdot h}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E = \frac{\rho_e}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r} \propto \frac{1}{r}.$$

- Determine the electric field intensity of an infinite planar charge with a uniform surface charge density ρ_s .



$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = E \cdot 2s = \frac{\rho_s \cdot s}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0}.$$

4.4 Exercise

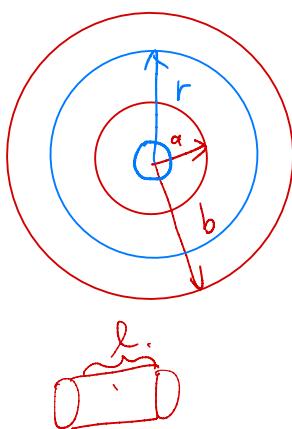
- (HW2-3) Two infinitely long coaxial cylindrical surfaces, $r = a$ and $r = b$ ($b > a$), carry surface charge densities ρ_{sa} and ρ_{sb} , respectively.

b). $a\rho_{sa} + b\rho_{sb} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{b}{a} = -\frac{\rho_{sa}}{\rho_{sb}}$$

a) Determine \mathbf{E} everywhere.

b) What must be the relation between a and b in order that \mathbf{E} vanishes for $r > b$?



a) i) $r < a$

No enclosed charge

$$E = 0$$

ii) $a < r < b$

$$Q = \rho_{sa} \cdot 2\pi al$$

$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = E \cdot 2\pi rl.$$

iii) $r > b$

$$Q = \rho_{sa} \cdot 2\pi al + \rho_{sb} \cdot 2\pi bl.$$

$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = E \cdot 2\pi rl.$$

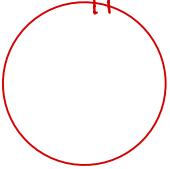
$$\frac{\rho_{sa} \cdot 2\pi al + \rho_{sb} \cdot 2\pi bl}{\epsilon_0} = E \cdot 2\pi rl$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{a\rho_{sa} + b\rho_{sb}}{\epsilon_0 r}.$$

$$\frac{\rho_{sa} \cdot 2\pi al}{\epsilon_0} = E \cdot 2\pi rl \Rightarrow E = \frac{a\rho_{sa}}{\epsilon_0 r}$$

4.5 Several Useful Models (paste on your ctp!)

Note: The charge distribution should be **uniform**.

different models	E (magnitude)
infinitely long, line charge	$E = \frac{\rho_\ell}{2\pi r \epsilon_0}$
infinite planar charge	$E = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0}$
uniform spherical surface charge with radius R 	$\begin{cases} E = 0 & (r < R) \\ E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} & (r > R) \end{cases}$
uniform sphere charge with radius R 	$\begin{cases} E = \frac{Qr}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} & (r < R) \\ E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} & (r > R) \end{cases}$
infinitely long, cylindrical charge with radius R 	$\begin{cases} E = \frac{\rho_v r}{2\epsilon_0} & (r < R) \\ E = \frac{\rho_v R^2}{2r\epsilon_0} & (r > R) \end{cases}$

3.4 Exercise

(HW2-2) Calculation of $\int_{-h}^{h} \frac{1}{(x^2+h^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dx$

Let $x = htan\theta$, then $\int_{-h}^{h} \frac{1}{(x^2+h^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dx = \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{h^3 \sec^3 \theta} dh \tan \theta$

$$= \frac{1}{h^2} \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^3 \theta \cdot \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} d\theta = \frac{1}{h^2} \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos \theta d\theta = \frac{1}{h^2} \sin \theta \Big|_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{h^2}$$