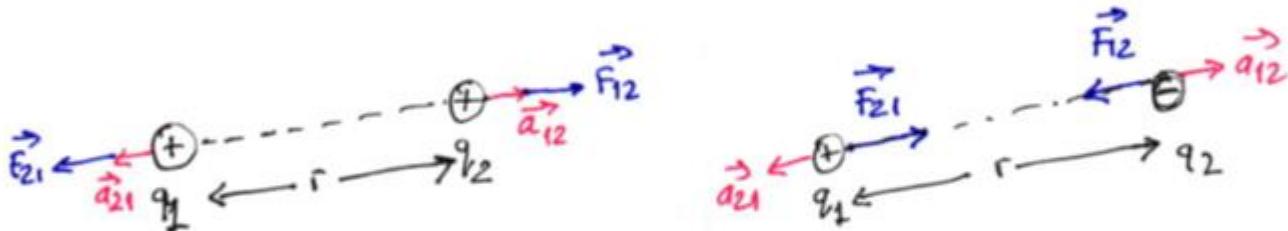


$$\vec{E} = \lim_{q \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{F}}{q} [N/C, V/m] \quad \text{Electric Field intensity } (\vec{E}) ; \text{ the force per unit charge}$$

### Coulomb's Law

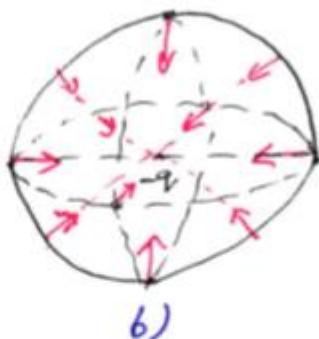
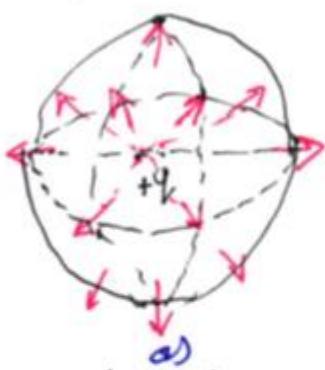


Force between opposite signed charges is attractive while like-signed charges repel each other:

$$\vec{F}_{12} = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \vec{a}_{12}; \quad k \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \text{Coulomb constant } (1/4\pi\epsilon_0)$$

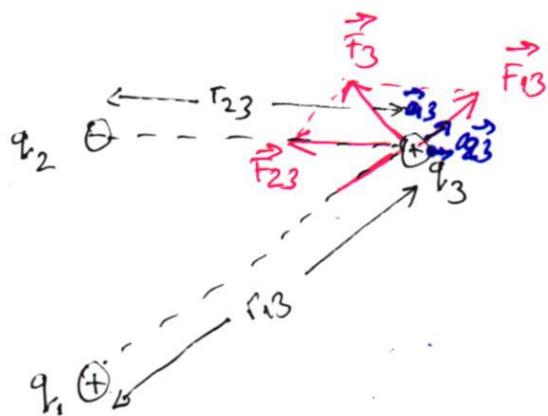
Using definition of  $\vec{E}$ , one may formulate the electric field intensity due to a single charge;

$$\vec{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \cdot \vec{a}_r; \quad \vec{a}_r \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \text{unit vector in radial direction}$$



An illustration of  $\vec{E}$  vectors for a single charge  
a) positive charge      b) negative charge

- Principle of Superposition (more than two charges)



$$\vec{F}_3 = \vec{F}_{13} + \vec{F}_{23} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{q_1 q_3}{r_{13}^2} \vec{a}_{13} + \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{23}^2} \vec{a}_{23} \right)$$

Similarly total  $\vec{E}$  on  $q_3$  is  $\vec{E}_{13} + \vec{E}_{23}$

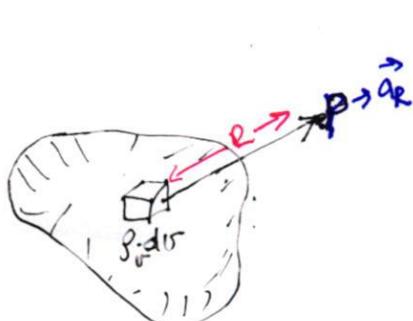
In the presence of  $N$  charges, one may write;

$$\vec{F}_j = \sum_{i=1, i \neq j}^N \vec{F}_{ij}$$

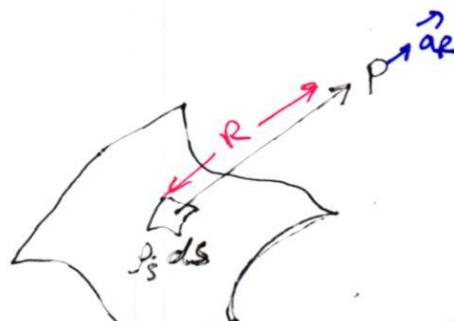
Similarly, the total  $\vec{E}$  at a given point can be calculated via principle of superposition

$$\vec{E} = \sum_{i=1}^N \vec{E}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_i}{r_i^2} \cdot \vec{a}_i$$

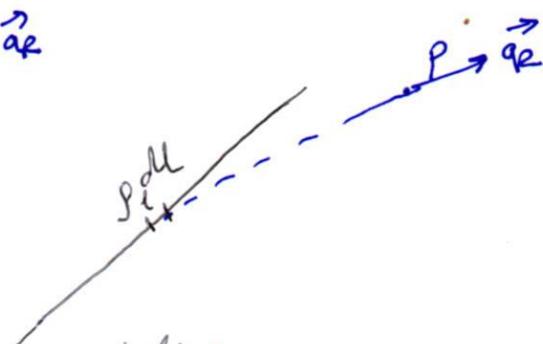
- Continuous Distribution of charges



a) volume



b) surface



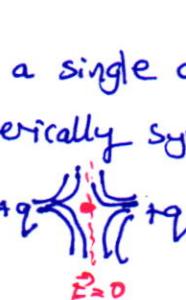
c) line

$$\vec{E}_p = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_V \vec{a}_R \frac{\rho_v(\vec{r})}{R^2} dV; \quad \vec{E}_p = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_S \vec{a}_R \frac{\rho_s(\vec{r})}{R^2} dS; \quad \vec{E}_p = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_L \vec{a}_R \frac{\rho_L(\vec{r})}{R^2} dL$$

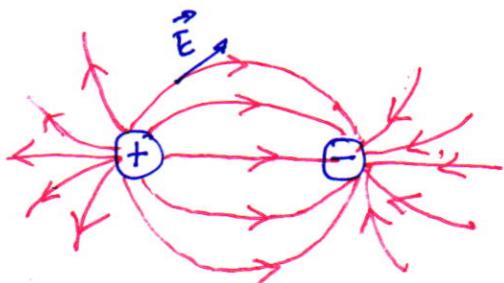
$$\rho_v(\vec{r}) = \lim_{\Delta V_i \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta q_i}{\Delta V_i}, \quad \Theta = \sum_{i=1} \Delta q_i = \int_V \rho_v(\vec{r}) dV$$

## Electric Field Lines

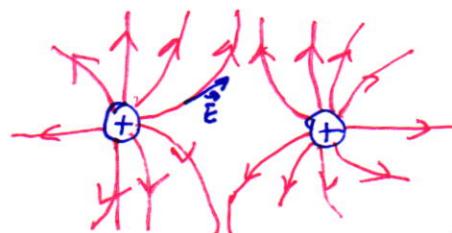
- Field lines are radially outward and inward for + and - charges, respectively
- Very close to a charge, field lines are dominated by it. Hence, in this region lines are radial and spherically symmetric
- In the far field, pattern seems to be as of a single charge  $\vec{Q} = \sum_i^N Q_i$ , unless total  $Q_i = 0$ . So, field lines become radial and spherically symmetric.
- There may exist null point in which  $\vec{E} = 0$



- Direction of  $\vec{E}$  is tangential to the field lines
- Field lines should never cross



a.k.a "dipole"



A mathematical approach: Let the differential length on field lines be  $d\vec{l}$  which is;

$$d\vec{l} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \vec{a}_i \cdot d\alpha_i \cdot h_i \rightarrow \begin{matrix} \text{metric coefficient} \\ \downarrow \\ \text{unit differential} \\ \text{vector thereint} \end{matrix}$$

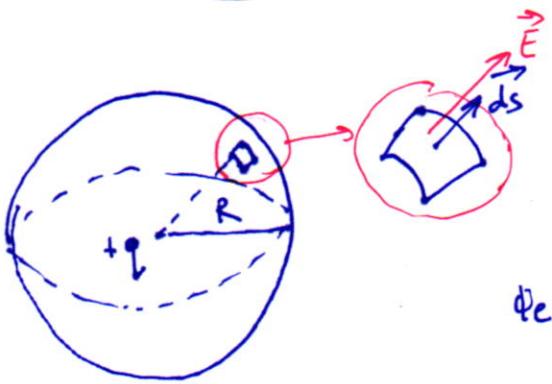
Since  $\vec{E}$  and  $d\vec{l}$  are parallel as stated above,  $\vec{E} \times d\vec{l} = 0$ . Therefore

$$\vec{E} \times d\vec{l} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \vec{a}_3 \\ E_1 & E_2 & E_3 \\ h_1 \cdot d\alpha_1 & h_2 \cdot d\alpha_2 & h_3 \cdot d\alpha_3 \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{h_1 \cdot d\alpha_1}{E_1} = \frac{h_2 \cdot d\alpha_2}{E_2} = \frac{h_3 \cdot d\alpha_3}{E_3}$$

# In cartesian coordinates  $\frac{dx}{Ex} = \frac{dy}{Ey} = \frac{dz}{EZ}$

# In cylindrical coordinates  $\frac{d\phi}{Ep} = \frac{z \cdot d\phi}{E\phi} = \frac{dz}{EZ}$

## GAUSS'S LAW



Net electric field flux through  $d\mathbf{s}$ ;

$$d\Phi_E = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

Summing over all sphere

$$\Phi_E = \sum_i d\Phi_E = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = |E| \cdot 4\pi R^2 = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

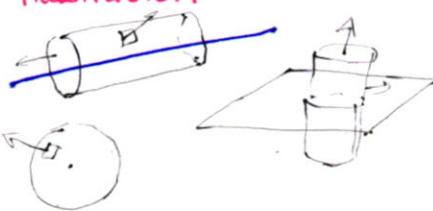
In the above configuration, a sphere is chosen. In fact, for an arbitrarily chosen shape, same result would be obtained. The net flux through any closed surface is proportional to the net charge enclosed is the Gauss's Law. Namely;

$$\Phi_E = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{\sum q}{\epsilon_0} \rightarrow \text{Total Charges in the Gauss Surface}$$

Gauss's Law provides a utility to determine electric field, but requires symmetry of the system. Some common applications are listed below.

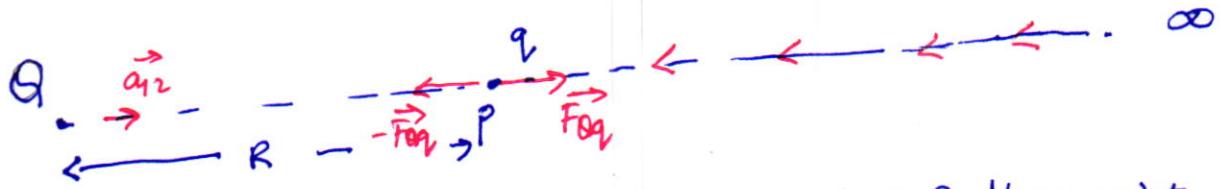
Symmetry	System	Gaussian Surface
Cylindrical	Infinite Rod	Coxial Cylinder
Planar	Infinite Plane	Pillbox
Spherical	Sphere	Sphere

Illustration



Examples (will be explained in the classroom)

## ELECTRIC POTENTIAL



Let one brings the test charge  $q$ , from  $\infty$  to point  $P$ . At any point, the force acting on test charge  $q$ , due to the  $Q$ , was found as;

$$F_{Qq} = q \cdot \frac{\theta_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \vec{a}_{12}$$

So, to move test charge  $q$ , one should apply force in  $-\vec{a}_{12}$  direction with magnitude  $F_{Qq}$ . Total work done by force will be;

$$W = \int_{\infty}^P F_{Qq} \cdot \vec{a}_{12} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{\infty}^R \frac{-\theta_1 q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \cdot dr = \frac{\theta_1 q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\infty}^R \frac{-dr}{r^2} = \frac{\theta_1 q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R}$$

work done ~~per~~<sup>on</sup> unit charge ( $W/q$ ) in an electric field is defined as electric potential

Hence the electric potential of  $Q$  at point  $P$  is;

$$V_p = \frac{\theta_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R} [J_C, V] \quad \text{Note that it is } \underline{\text{scalar}}$$

Using same concept, one may define potential difference between two points as;

$$V_2 - V_1 = - \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

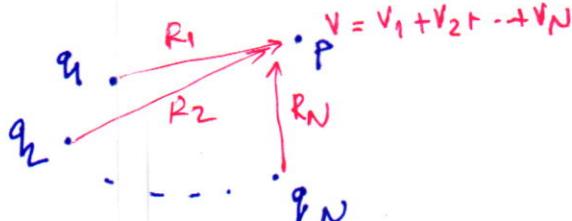
Also, it is consistent with previous postulates. That is, using  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$  and gradient theorem, one may say;

$$V_2 - V_1 = + \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \nabla V \cdot d\vec{l} = V(P_2) - V(P_1) = V_2 - V_1$$

\* Note that, unless opposite is specified  $V(\infty) \rightarrow 0$

The electric potential of a system, consisting  $N$  discrete charges can be determined using superposition principle,

$$V_p = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{q_i}{R_i}$$



## ELECTRIC POTENTIAL (continued)

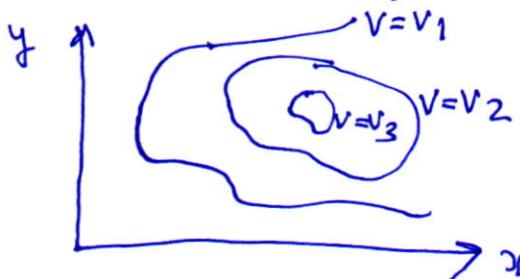
The potential of a continuous charge system can be determined in terms of integrating the relation, that is;

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho}{R} dV ; \text{ where } dV \text{ is the differential for volume, surface or line}$$

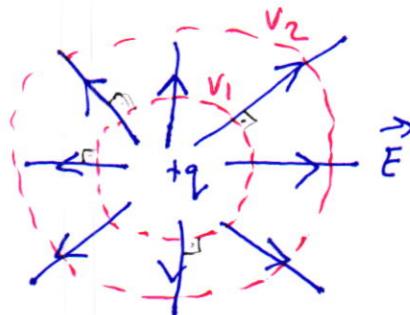
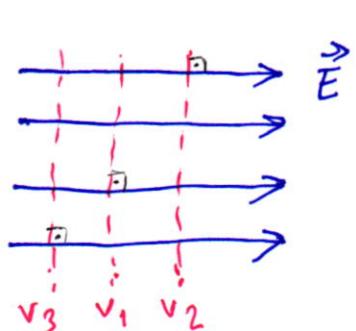
Since  $V$  is a scalar, it is more suitable to obtain  $\vec{E}$  using  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$

### Equipotentials

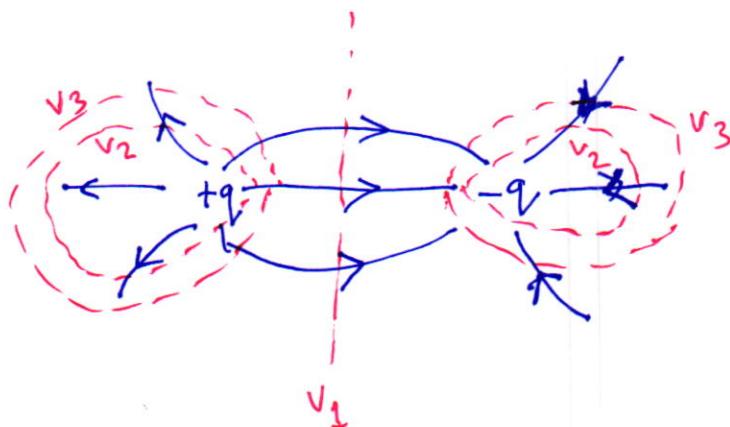
The curves drawn by constant  $V(r)$  are called equipotential curves.



In 3-D case, we obtain equipotential surfaces for which  $V(r)$  is constant. Using the relation  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$ , one may say  $\vec{E}$  is perpendicular to  $V$  curves.



$V_1, V_2, V_3$  constant

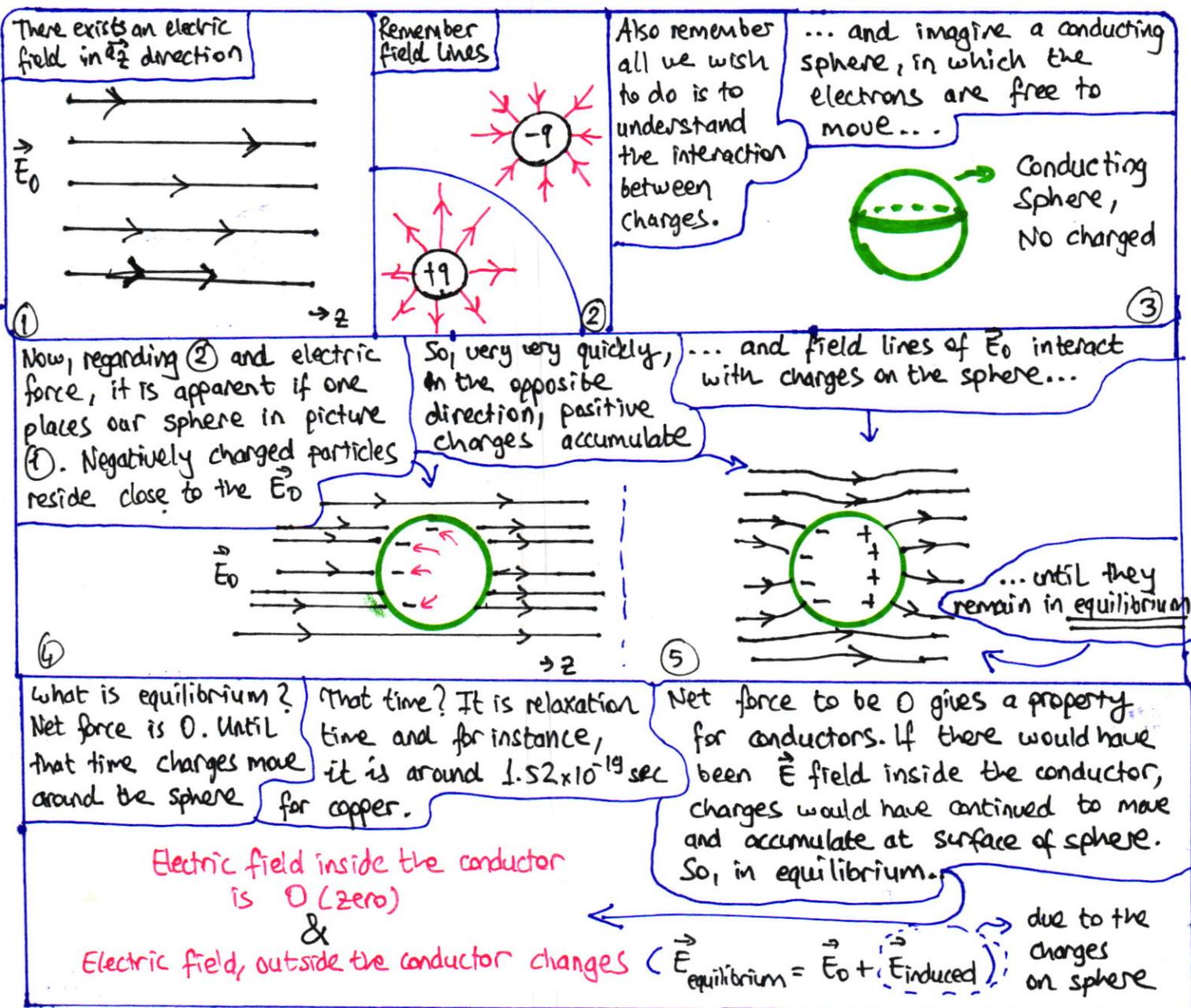


Note that  $\vec{E} \perp V$   
Therefore no work is done  
to move a charge along an  
equipotential curve  
(that is  $-\int \vec{E} d\vec{l} = 0$ )

## CONDUCTORS in STATIC ELECTRIC FIELD

Inside a conductor, electrons are free to move.

Therefore, if a conductor is placed in a static electric field, charges start to move. Recalling the field lines of charges, one may easily predict this mobility. Look at the cartoon below.

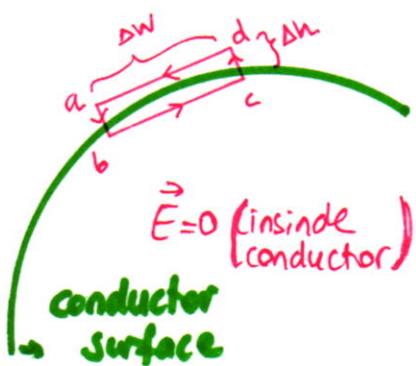


This story is real for any shaped conductor, but charge distribution around the conductor varies. Charge density increases around the sharp parts. This is why lightning arresters are fabricated as they are.

## Conductors in static electric field (continued)

Note that, in equilibrium, since  $\vec{E} = 0$  inside the conductor, all the charges must be distributed over the surface of conductors.

If so, then tangential field of  $\vec{E}$  must be zero on the surface. If it would not be like that, tangential component would have forced charges to move. And this is what disequilibrium is ( $\sum \vec{F}_{\text{net}} \neq 0$ ). Let's analyze mathematically;



- \* Since  $\vec{E} = 0$  inside the conductor,  $\vec{E}$  on bc line is 0 (zero)
- \* If we take  $\Delta h \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\vec{E}$  vanishes on ab and dc
- \* Remember, in electrostatics,  $\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$
- \* ... and stokes's theorem  $\oint \nabla \times \vec{E} ds = \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$   
That path is abcda
- \*  $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_E^{\perp} E \cdot dw + \dots$   
↓ ad {Zero as mentioned above  
unit vector in tangential direction}

\* So, one may say ..>

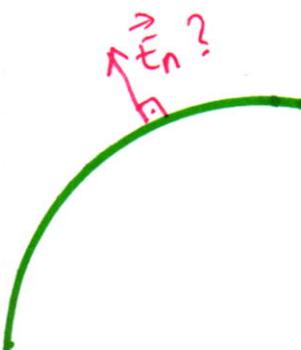
Tangential component on the surface of a conductor is 0 (for  $\vec{E}$  field!!)

$$\vec{E}_t = 0$$

If so, then one may say; inside the conductor every point is at the same potential. You may infer from the fact that  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$

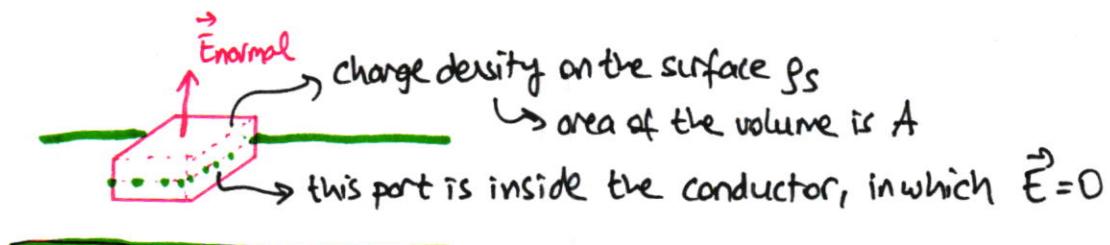
A conductor is equipotential!!!

What about normal component?



## conductors in electrostatic field (continued, 2)

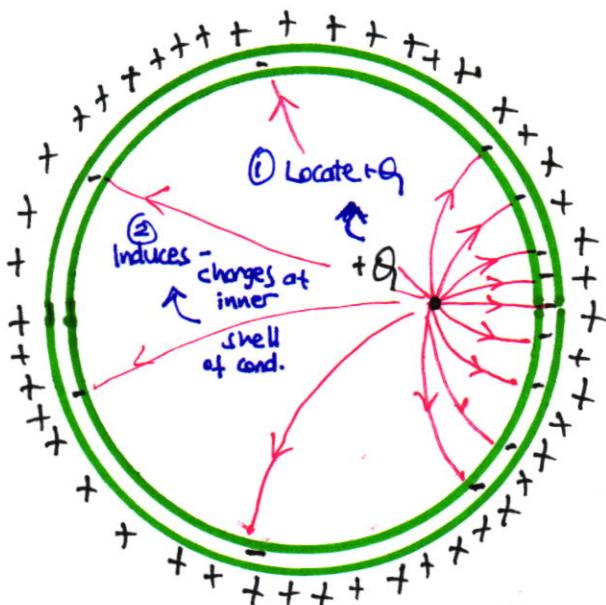
To answer this question, imagine the gauss' law for a pill-box, cylinder or any other shape.



Tangential component are 0 (zero). Now, let's utilize divergence theorem.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \nabla \cdot \vec{E} dV &= \frac{\rho_s \cdot A}{\epsilon_0} \rightarrow \text{total charge enclosed by the volume} / \epsilon_0 \quad \text{and remember all excess charge is on the surface, which is related to } \rho_s \\ &= \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \rightarrow \text{tangential components and } \vec{E} \text{ inside the conductor is 0(zero). Hence} \\ &= E_{\text{normal}} \cdot A \cdot \hat{a}_n \rightarrow \text{unit vector outward the surface, normally} \\ &= \rho_s \cdot A / \epsilon_0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E}_n = \frac{\rho_s}{\epsilon_0} \hat{a}_n} \end{aligned}$$

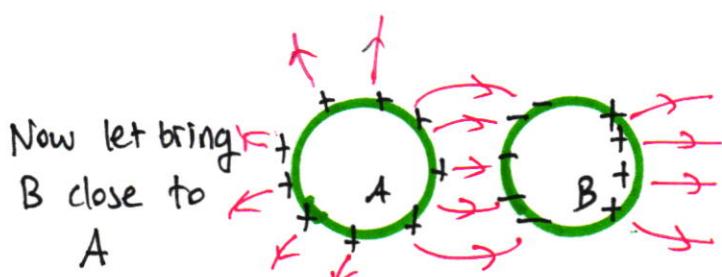
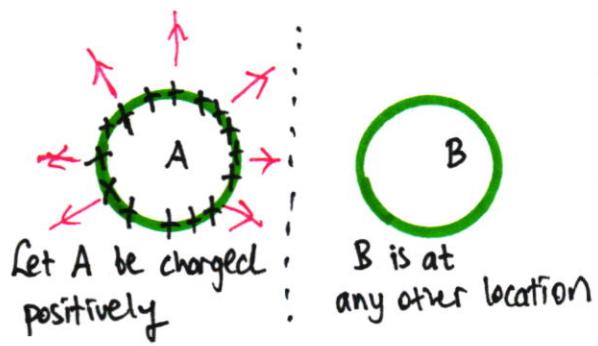
Some examples on electrostatic induction



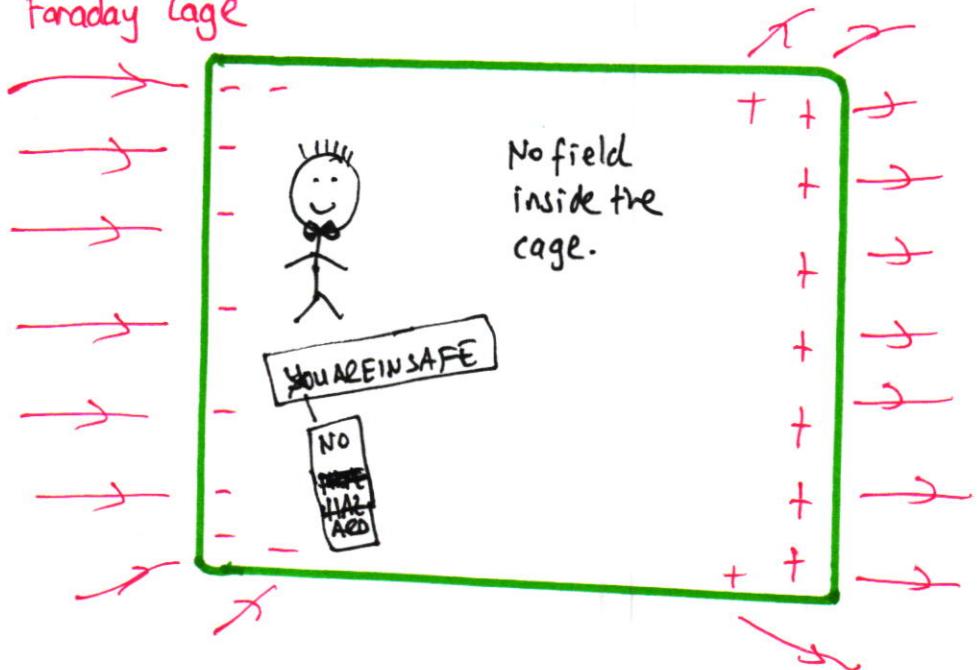
If one locates  $+Q$  (or  $-Q$ ) inside a conductor (at any point), it will induce  $-Q$  (totally) on the inside shell. If you choose a Gauss surface inside the conductor, since  $\vec{E}=0$ , it is reasonable that inner shell to be charged with a total amount of  $-Q$ . But note that, it is not uniformly distributed. Close to the inducing charge  $+Q$ , induced charges (-) form a dense distribution.

Also, due to the conservation of charges and no charge can exist in the conductor, the outer shell induces with positive charges. This time,  $+Q$  appears uniformly distributed on the surface (since it is not connected with  $-Q$  or  $Q_{\text{inside}}$  and must be distributed)

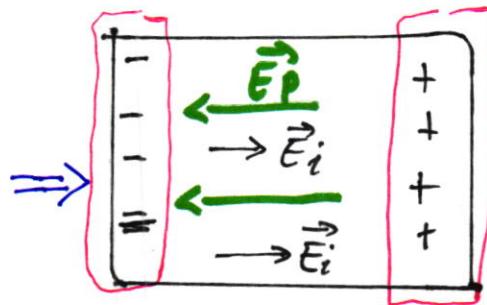
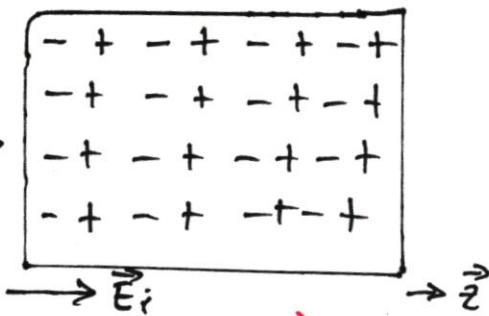
## conductors in static electric field (continued, 3)



### Faraday Cage



## DIELECTRICS in STATIC ELECTRIC FIELD



If we apply an  $\vec{E}$  field in  $\vec{z}$  direction, molecules in dielectric will be oriented as above

+ & - charges can be considered as a source for internal Electric field. Let's say  $\vec{E}_p$ . As per superposition principle, the total field inside is the vectorial sum of  $\vec{E}_i$  &  $\vec{E}_p$  that is,  $\vec{E} = \vec{E}_i + \vec{E}_p$

For linear dielectrics, it is observed that,  $\vec{E}_p$  is in equilibrium with total field inside, in a linear relation;

$$\vec{E}_p = -\chi \vec{E}$$

Here, negative sign is due to the direction and  $\chi > 0$  (otherwise,  $\vec{E}$  should have been created out of nothing)

Therefore, one may formulate

$$\vec{E}_i = (1+\chi) \vec{E}$$

Here,  $\vec{E}_i$  can be considered as the incident field in vacuum, while  $\vec{E}$  is the field inside the dielectric.  $\chi$  is a relation constant with respect to the material property and called as "electric susceptibility".

Note that, in the presence of a dielectric medium, Electric field decreases w.r.t the material property, i.e., electric susceptibility  $\chi$ . This is the core of dielectric capacitor idea (As we will see later, decreased  $\vec{E}$  fields increase the capacity)

## dielectrics in electrostatic field (continued, 1)

Now, let's consider free charges inside dielectric - Using Gauss' law;

$$\int \epsilon_0 \vec{E}_i \cdot d\vec{s} = \sum Q_{\text{free}} = \int \rho \cdot dV$$

This holds, because  $Q_{\text{free}}$  exist whether dielectric media exists or not.

Replacing  $\vec{E}_i$  with that of the field relation inside dielectric;

$$\boxed{\int \epsilon_0 (1+\chi) \vec{E} ds = \int \rho dV}$$

Later on, for clarity of terminology, we will call  $(1+\chi)$  as the "relative permittivity"  $\epsilon_r$ .

Also, we will express  $\epsilon_0 \cdot \epsilon_r \cdot \vec{E}$  as "electric flux density"  $\vec{D}$  [ $C/m^2$ ].

Using new concepts, we may write;

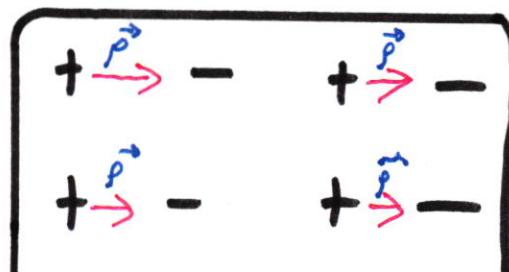
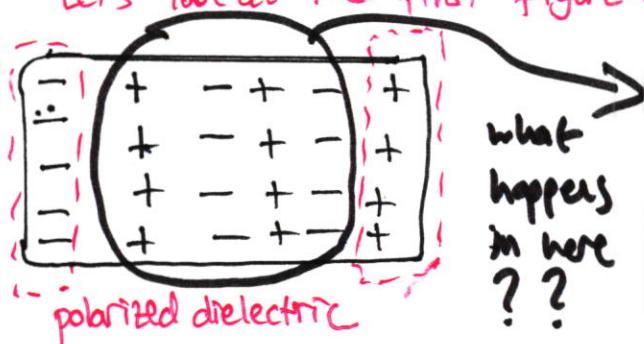
$$\boxed{\int \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int \rho \cdot dV}$$

which simply gives

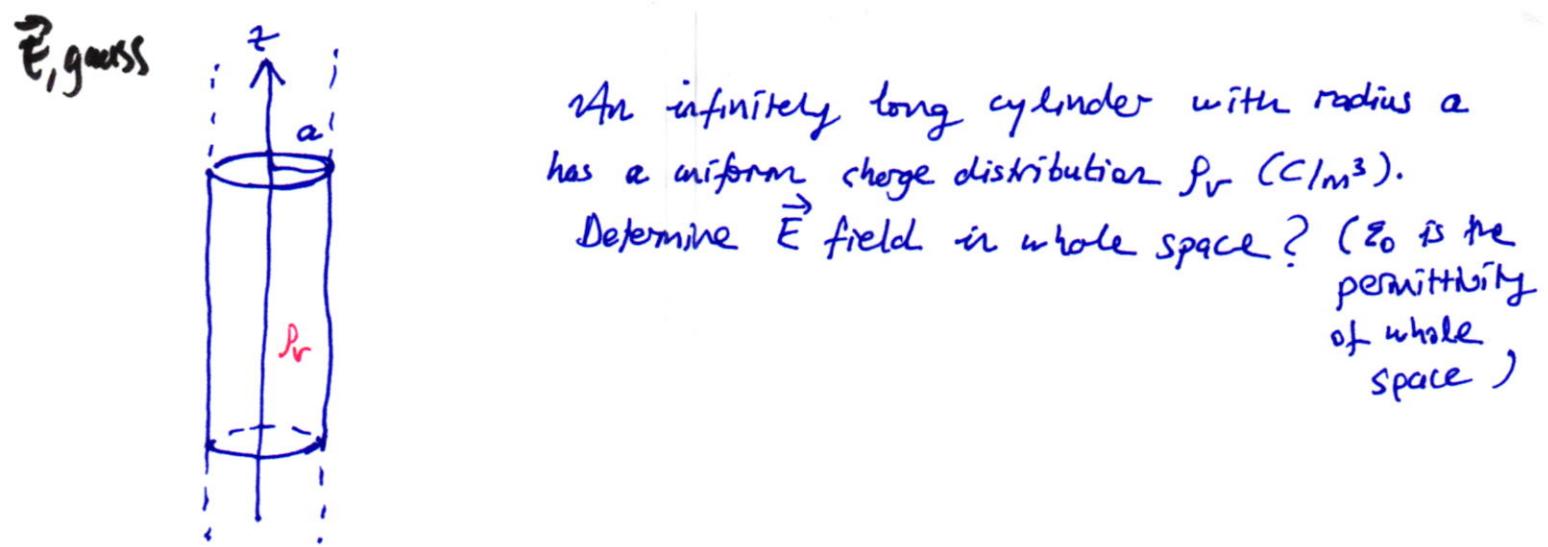
$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho}$$

Note that,  $\rho$  is "free charge" in the medium (Not correlated with polarized charges)

Let's look at the first figure again



polarization



An infinitely long cylinder with radius  $a$  has a uniform charge distribution  $\rho_v$  ( $C/m^3$ ). Determine  $\vec{E}$  field in whole space? ( $\epsilon_0$  is the permittivity of whole space)

### answer

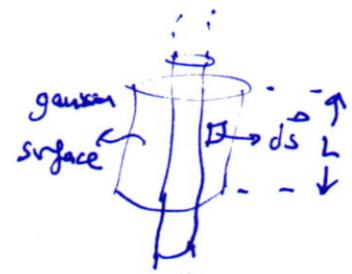
it is convenient to utilize gauss' law due to the symmetry of the problem by a cylindrical gaussian surface.

Due to the cylindrical symmetry, space can be subdivided to 2 regions in terms of  $\vec{E}$  field.  $0 < r < a$  &  $r > a$

$$0 < r < a$$

$$\oint \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = \sum \Delta \Phi_{\text{inside}} \quad d\vec{s} = \rho \cdot dr \cdot dz \hat{a}_r, \quad \vec{D} = D_r \hat{a}_r$$

$$\Rightarrow \oint \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iint_D \rho \Delta \Phi \, dr \, dz = 2\pi L \rho \Delta \Phi$$



$$= \sum \Delta \Phi_{\text{inside}} = \int_{\rho_v} \rho \, dr \, dz = \rho_v \cdot \underbrace{\pi r^2 L}_{\text{volume of closed gaussian surface}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta \Phi = \frac{\rho_v \cdot \pi r^2 L}{2\pi L \rho} = \rho_v \cdot r / 2$$

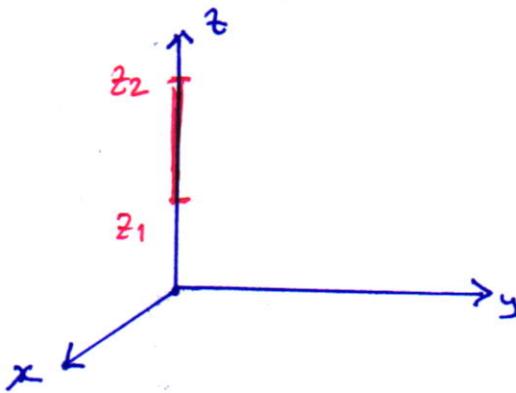
Recall that on the top and bottom surfaces, fields are cancelled due to the symmetry in vertical axis (i.e.,  $\Phi_z = 0$ )

$$\Rightarrow E_r = \Delta \Phi / \epsilon_0 = \frac{\rho_v \cdot r}{2\epsilon_0} [V/m] \text{ for } 0 < r < a$$

$$r > a$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \oint \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = 2\pi L \rho \Delta \Phi \text{ and } \sum \Delta \Phi_{\text{inside}} = \rho_v \cdot \pi a^2 \cdot L$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta \Phi = \frac{\rho_v a^2}{2\rho} \quad \& \quad E_r = \Delta \Phi / \epsilon_0 = \frac{\rho_v a^2}{2\rho \epsilon_0} [V/m]$$

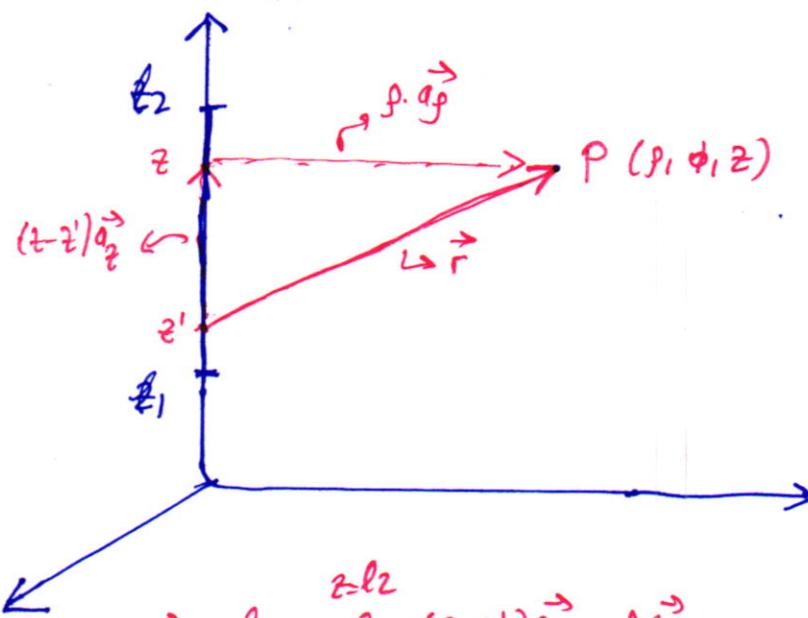


A charged line with  $\rho_e$  density is located at z-axis between  $z_1$  &  $z_2$  positions

Determine  $\vec{E}$  field at any given point P.

### answer

Due to the cylindrical symmetry, one may not regard the  $\vec{E}$  field component in  $\phi$  direction. Obviously in  $\phi$  direction  $\vec{E}$  is invariant.



$$\therefore \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{z=z_1}^{z=z_2} \frac{(z-z')\vec{a}_2 + \rho \vec{a}_\phi}{[(z-z')^2 + \rho^2]^{3/2}} dz' \quad \text{let's arrange integral}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \vec{a}_\phi \frac{\rho_e \cdot \rho}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \int_{z=z_1}^{z=z_2} \frac{dz'}{[(z-z')^2 + \rho^2]^{3/2}} \right] + \vec{a}_2 \frac{\rho_e \rho}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \int_{z=z_1}^{z=z_2} \frac{(z-z')dz'}{[(z-z')^2 + \rho^2]^{3/2}} \right]$$

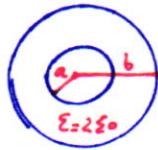
① ↓    ② ↓

$$\frac{1}{\rho^2} \cdot \left[ \frac{z'-z}{[\rho^2 + (z-z')^2]^{1/2}} \right] \Big|_{z=z_1}^{z=z_2}$$

Integrals  
are derived  
in next page

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \vec{a}_\phi \left[ \frac{z_2 - z}{[\rho^2 + (z-z_2)^2]^{1/2}} - \frac{z_1 - z}{[\rho^2 + (z-z_1)^2]^{1/2}} \right] \frac{1}{\rho} + \vec{a}_2 \left[ \frac{1}{[\rho^2 + (z-z_2)^2]^{1/2}} - \frac{1}{[\rho^2 + (z-z_1)^2]^{1/2}} \right] \times \frac{\rho_e}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

# $\vec{E}$ , $V$ , work



A  $1\mu C$  charge is uniformly distributed on a conducting sphere with radius  $a$  ( $a = 1\text{ m}$ ).

A dielectric material is loaded between the outer ~~conducting~~ shell with radius  $b$  and conducting sphere with radius  $a$  ( $b = 2\text{ m}$ )

a) Determine  $\vec{E}$  field everywhere?

b) Determine  $V$  everywhere?

c) How much work must be performed to bring a  $Q = 2\mu C$  charge from  $A(2, 0, 0)$  to  $B(0, 0, 1)$ ?

- - - - -

a)  $r < a$

Since inside the conductor  $\vec{E}$  field does not exist  $\vec{E}_I = 0$

$$a < r < b$$

$$\oint \vec{D} ds = \Sigma Q_{\text{inside}} \quad \text{where } \vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E}_{\text{II}}$$

$\underbrace{\phantom{\int \vec{D} ds}}_{4\pi r^2}$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}_{\text{II}} = \frac{1\mu C}{2\epsilon_0 4\pi r^2} \hat{r} \quad (\text{note that } \vec{E} \text{ is radially outward})$$

$$(\text{units } C/(F/m) \cdot m^2 = \frac{C}{Fm} = \frac{C}{V} = V/m; 1 \text{ Farad} = \frac{1C}{1V})$$

$$\frac{r < b}{\oint \vec{D} ds = \Sigma Q_{\text{inside}} \text{ where } \vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E}_{\text{III}}}$$

$\underbrace{\phantom{\oint \vec{D} ds}}_{4\pi r^2}$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}_{\text{III}} = \frac{1\mu C}{\epsilon_0 4\pi r^2} \hat{r}$$

$$b) V = - \int \vec{E} dr \quad (\vec{E} = -\nabla V) \quad V_I \text{ is constant} \quad (\text{conductor is an equipotential volume})$$

$$V_{\text{II}} = - \int \vec{E}_{\text{II}} dr = - \int \frac{10^{-6}}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} dr = - \frac{10^{-6}}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) + C_1 \rightarrow \text{indefinite integral constant}$$

$$V_{\text{III}} = - \int \vec{E}_{\text{III}} dr = - \int \frac{10^{-6}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} dr = \frac{10^{-6}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + C_2$$



We know that,  $V(\infty) = 0$  and  $V_{\text{III}}(\infty) = 0 \rightarrow C_2 = 0$

Also at  $r=b$ ,  $V_{\text{II}} = V_{\text{III}}$  (Potential is continuous)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{10^{-6}}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{1}{b} + C_1 = \left. \frac{10^{-6}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b} \right|_{b=2m} \rightarrow C_1 = \frac{10^{-6}}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

Similarly, at  $r=a$ ,  $V_{\text{I}} = V_{\text{II}}$

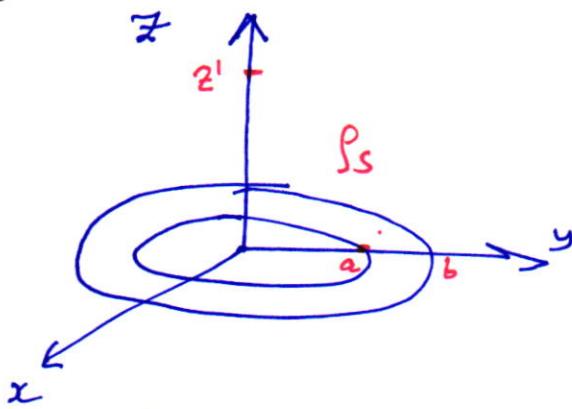
$$V_{\text{I}} = \frac{10^{-6}}{8\pi\epsilon_0} + \frac{10^{-6}}{16\pi\epsilon_0} = \frac{3 \cdot 10^{-6}}{16\pi\epsilon_0} \text{ V}$$

$$V_{\text{II}} = \underbrace{\frac{10^{-6}}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r}}_{C_1} + \underbrace{\frac{10^{-6}}{16\pi\epsilon_0}}_{C_1}, \quad V_{\text{III}} = \frac{10^{-6}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

c) Point A is on the sphere with radius  $b$  while Point B is on the sphere with radius  $a$ . Note that work to be performed is independent on the path. Also potential was work performed for unit charge.

Namely;

$$W_{AB} = q(V_B - V_A) = 2 \cdot 10^{-6} \left( \frac{3 \cdot 10^{-6}}{16\pi\epsilon_0} - \frac{10^{-6}}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \text{ Joule}$$

$\vec{E}$ 

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \vec{q} \rho_s \cdot d\vec{s} / r^2$$

Let's insert  
into the  
equation

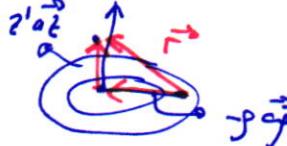
$$\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_s}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{(-\vec{q}_p + \vec{z}' \vec{a}_z) \rho d\rho d\phi}{(r^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_s}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=a}^b \vec{a}_z \frac{z' \rho d\rho d\phi}{(r^2)^{3/2}}$$

A ring shaped charge system with uniform charge density  $\rho_s$  is depicted on the left.  $\rho_s$  is distributed over  $[\rho, \phi, z] = [a, b], [0, 2\pi], 0$

Determine  $\vec{E}$  field at  $(0, 0, z')$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} &= -\rho \vec{a}_\rho + z' \vec{a}_z \\ \vec{a}_\rho &= \frac{\vec{r}}{(r^2)^{1/2}} \\ d\vec{s} &= \rho d\rho d\phi \end{aligned}$$



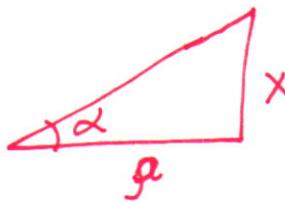
Due to the cylindrical symmetry, no contribution to the  $\vec{E}$  field exists due to the  $\rho$ - component. So, one may eliminate the terms within  $\vec{a}_\rho$  direction.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\rho_s z'}{2\epsilon_0} \int_{\rho=a}^b \frac{\rho d\rho}{((\rho^2 + z'^2)^{3/2})^{1/2}} \vec{a}_z &\rightarrow \text{Recall Type ② integral} \\ -\frac{1}{(\rho^2 + z'^2)^{1/2}} & \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_s z'}{2\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{z'^2 + b^2} - \sqrt{z'^2 + a^2}}{\sqrt{(z'^2 + a^2)(z'^2 + b^2)}} \right] \vec{a}_z}$$

## Type ④ integral

$$\int \frac{dz'}{\left[(z-z')^2 + p^2\right]^{3/2}} = ?$$



$$\tan \alpha = x/p = \frac{\sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha}$$

Let's write  $z-z' = x$   
 $-dz' = dx$

$$\Rightarrow x = p \frac{\sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha} \Rightarrow dx = p \frac{\cos^2 \alpha - (-\sin^2 \alpha)}{\cos^2 \alpha} d\alpha$$

Let's arrange w.r.t. above identities

$$\int \frac{dz'}{\left[(z-z')^2 + p^2\right]^{3/2}} = \int \frac{-dx}{\left[x^2 + p^2\right]^{3/2}} = -p \int \frac{dx}{\cos^2 \alpha \underbrace{\left[p^2(1 + \frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{\cos^2 \alpha})\right]}_{x^2 + p^2}^{3/2}}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{p^2} \int \frac{dx}{\cos^2 \alpha^{-1}} \quad x^2 + p^2$$

$$= -\frac{1}{p^2} \underbrace{\sin \alpha}_{\text{ }} = -\frac{1}{p^2} \underbrace{\frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + p^2}}}_{\text{ }}$$

## Type ⑤ integral

$$\int \frac{(z-z')dz'}{\left[(z-z')^2 + p^2\right]^{3/2}} = ?$$

Let  $x = z-z'$   
 $\Rightarrow dx = -dz'$

$$\Rightarrow - \int \frac{x dx}{\underbrace{\left(x^2 + p^2\right)^{3/2}}_{u \Rightarrow du = 2x dx}} = ?$$

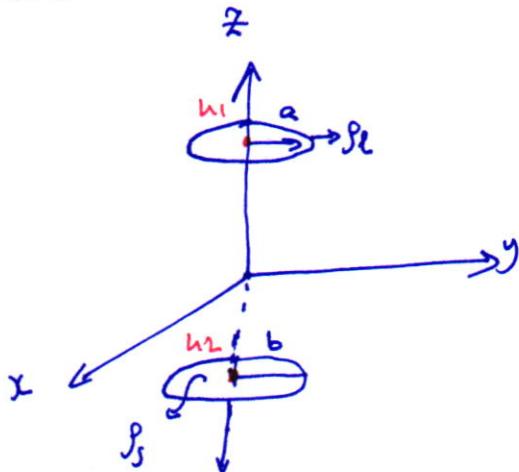
$$\Rightarrow - \int \frac{du/2}{u^{3/2}} - ? = \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(z-z')^2 + p^2}}$$

$\Leftarrow$

$$\Rightarrow - \int \frac{x dx}{\underbrace{\left(x^2 + p^2\right)^{3/2}}_{\text{ }}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + p^2}}$$

# $\vec{E}$ & $V$



If a line charged (with  $ρ_l [C/m]$ ) circle and a surface charged disk (with  $ρ_s [C/m^2]$ ) are located at  $(0,0,h_1)$  and  $(0,0,-h_2)$ , respectively.

a) Determine the  $\vec{E}$  field at origin?

b) If  $\vec{E} = 0$ ,  $ρ_s / ρ_l$  ? (at origin)

c) If  $\vec{E} = 0$  at origin, determine the potential there?

For ring with  $ρ_l$  charge distribution

$$dl = ad\phi$$

$$\vec{R}_1 = -a\hat{a}_\theta - h_1 \hat{a}_z, r_1 = \sqrt{a^2 + h_1^2}$$

for disk with  $ρ_s$  charge distribution

$$ds = pd\rho d\phi$$

$$\vec{R}_2 = -p\hat{a}_\rho + h_2 \hat{a}_z$$

Since disk has a surface, each discrete point in the integral varies with  $p$  (why it's not "b" as in ring)

$$R_2 = \sqrt{p^2 + h_2^2}$$

$$\vec{E}_{tot} = \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 \quad (\text{superposition principle})$$

$$\vec{E}_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho_l \vec{a}_\theta dl}{r^2} = \frac{\rho_l}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{(-a\hat{a}_\theta - h_1 \hat{a}_z) ad\phi}{(a^2 + h_1^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$= \frac{-\rho_l a}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{h_1 \hat{a}_z d\phi}{(a^2 + h_1^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{-\rho_l a h_1}{2\epsilon_0 (a^2 + h_1^2)^{3/2}} \hat{a}_z$$

$$\vec{E}_2 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho_s \vec{a}_\rho ds}{r^2} = \frac{\rho_s}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^b \frac{(-p\hat{a}_\rho + h_2 \hat{a}_z)}{(p^2 + h_2^2)^{3/2}} pd\rho d\phi$$

$$= \frac{\rho_s h_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot 2\pi \int_{0}^b \frac{pd\rho \hat{a}_z}{(p^2 + h_2^2)^{3/2}} \rightarrow \text{Recall Type 1 integral}$$

$$\int_{0}^b \frac{1}{\sqrt{p^2 + h_2^2}} dp = \frac{1}{h_2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{b^2 + h_2^2}}$$

We may cancel  $\hat{a}_\theta$  component as to cylindrical symmetry or you may expand  $\hat{a}_\theta$  in cartesian coordinates and evaluate mathematically

$$2\pi \text{cally} \\ \int pd\rho = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}_2 = \frac{\rho_s h_2}{2\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{h_2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{b^2 + h_2^2}} \right] \vec{a}_2 \quad \vec{E}_{\text{tot}} = \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 = \dots$$

b)  $\vec{E}_{\text{tot}}(t=0) \quad \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{a}_2 \left( \frac{-\rho_s h_1}{2\epsilon_0 (a^2 + h_1^2)^{3/2}} + \frac{\rho_s h_2}{2\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{h_2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{b^2 + h_2^2}} \right] \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\rho_s l}{\rho_s} = \frac{2\epsilon_0 (a^2 + h_1^2)^{3/2} \cdot h_2 \left[ \frac{1}{h_2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{b^2 + h_2^2}} \right]}{a h_1 \cdot 2\epsilon_0 (a^2 + h_1^2)^{3/2}}$$

=

c)  $V_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho_s dl}{r} = \frac{\rho_s l}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{ad\phi}{\sqrt{a^2 + h_1^2}} = \frac{\rho_s l}{2\epsilon_0 \sqrt{a^2 + h_1^2}}$

$$V_2 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \iint \frac{\rho_s ds}{r} = \frac{\rho_s s}{2\epsilon_0} \left| \int_{\rho=0}^b \frac{\rho d\phi}{\sqrt{\rho^2 + h_2^2}} \right| = \frac{\rho_s s}{2\epsilon_0} \left( \sqrt{b^2 + h_2^2} - h_2 \right)$$

$\downarrow$   
 $u = \rho^2 + h^2 \rightarrow du = 2\rho d\rho$

$$\int \frac{du/2}{\sqrt{u}} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{u} \cdot 2 \Big|_{u=h^2}$$

$$V_{\text{tot}} = V_1 + V_2$$

# WORK

How much work is performed to bring a  $5\mu C$  charge from origin to  $(2, \pi/4, \pi/2)$  point if a static electric field is defined as  $\vec{E} = 5e^{-R/4} \vec{a}_r + \frac{10}{R\sin\theta} \vec{a}_\phi$ ?

$$W = - \int_1^2 \vec{F} d\vec{l} \quad \text{where } \vec{F} = Q \vec{E}$$

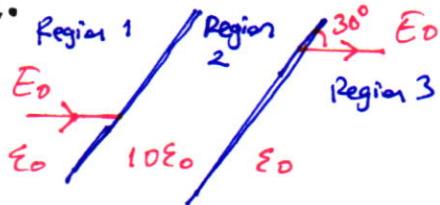
$$\text{in spherical coordinates: } d\vec{l} = dR \vec{a}_R + R d\theta \vec{a}_\theta + R \sin\theta d\phi \vec{a}_\phi$$

$$d = \pi/2$$

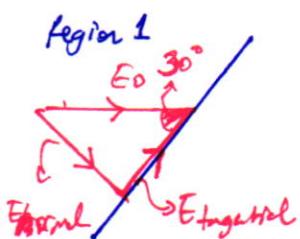
$$\Rightarrow W = - \int_{R=0}^{R=2} \underbrace{5 \cdot 10^{-6}}_Q \underbrace{5 e^{-R/4}}_{E_R} dR + - \int_{\phi=0}^{\phi=\pi/2} \frac{10 R \sin\theta}{R \sin\theta} d\phi$$

$$\Rightarrow W = -5 \cdot 10^{-6} \left\{ -5 \cdot 4 e^{-R/4} \Big|_0^2 + 10 \phi \Big|_0^{\pi/2} \right\} \approx -118 \mu J$$

B.C.



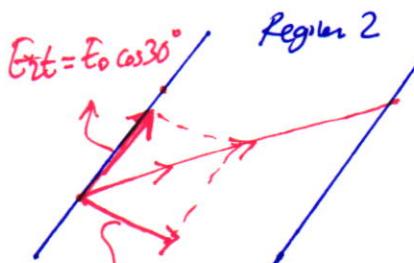
Determine the components (normal & normal) of  $\vec{E}$  field in Region 2, as well as the magnitude?



Under normal conditions, no surface charge exists on dielectric-dielectric interface. Since  $\Delta_{1n} = \Delta_{2n} \rightarrow \epsilon_0 E_{1n} = 10 \epsilon_0 E_{2n}$   
also tangential components are continuous on the interface  
That is  $E_{1t} = E_{2t}$ . Let's use them

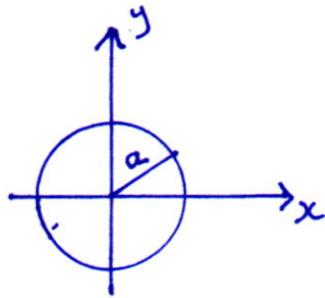
$$|E_{1n}| = \frac{E_0 \sin 30^\circ}{\sin 30^\circ}, \quad |E_{1t}| = E_0 \cos 30^\circ$$

$$\frac{\epsilon_0 E_{1n}}{10 \epsilon_0} = E_{2n} = \frac{E_0 \sin 30^\circ}{10}; \quad \frac{E_{1t}}{\cancel{E_{1t}}} = E_{2t} = \frac{E_0 \cos 30^\circ}{\cancel{E_{1t}}}$$



$$E_{2n} = \frac{E_0 \sin 30^\circ}{10}$$

$$|E_2| = \sqrt{|E_{2n}|^2 + |E_{2t}|^2} \\ = E_0 \sqrt{\frac{\sin^2 30^\circ}{100} + \cos^2 30^\circ} \\ \approx \frac{E_0}{20} 17.35$$



A ring shape charge system is distributed on a circle with radius  $a$  as;

$$\rho_{\text{ring}} = \begin{cases} \rho_L, & x > 0 \\ -\rho_P, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Determine electric field intensity  $\vec{E}$  at origin

answer

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho_{\text{ring}} \cdot \vec{a}_r}{r^2} dl \quad \text{where } \vec{a}_r \text{ is in the opposite direction of } \vec{a}_p$$

$dl = a \cdot d\phi$   
↳ metric coefficient

Positioning

$$r = a$$

Direction of  $\vec{a}_r$  (i.e.,  $-\vec{a}_p$ ) is  $\phi$ -dependent, hence it is more convenient to express position vector in cartesian coordinates. That is;

$$\vec{a}_p = a_x \cos \phi \hat{i} + a_y \sin \phi \hat{j}$$

Our integral line is constituted of three regions (invariant) in terms of integral variables. That is;

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \int_{\phi=0}^{\pi/2} \frac{\rho_{\text{ring}} \vec{a}_r}{r^2} \frac{dl}{a \cdot d\phi} + \int_{\phi=\pi/2}^{3\pi/2} \frac{-\rho_L \cdot \vec{a}_r}{r^2} \frac{dl}{a \cdot d\phi} + \int_{\phi=3\pi/2}^{2\pi} \frac{\rho_P \cdot \vec{a}_r}{r^2} \frac{dl}{a \cdot d\phi} \right]_{r=a}$$

If we arrange integral; (note that  $\vec{a}_r = -\vec{a}_p$ )

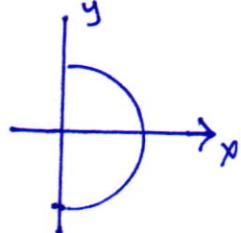
$$\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a^2} \left[ \int_{\phi=0}^{\pi/2} -(\vec{a}_x \cos \phi + \vec{a}_y \sin \phi) d\phi + \int_{\phi=\pi/2}^{3\pi/2} -(-(\vec{a}_x \cos \phi + \vec{a}_y \sin \phi)) d\phi \right. \\ \left. + \int_{\phi=3\pi/2}^{2\pi} -(\vec{a}_x \cos \phi + \vec{a}_y \sin \phi) d\phi \right]_{r=a}$$

Recall  $\int \cos \phi d\phi = \sin \phi + C$   
 $\int \sin \phi d\phi = -\cos \phi + C$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{f_l}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left[ \vec{a}_x (-\sin\phi) + \vec{a}_y \frac{\cos\phi}{r} \right]_{\phi=0}^{\pi/2} + \left[ \vec{a}_x \sin\phi + \vec{a}_y \cos\phi \right]_{\phi=\pi/2}^{3\pi/2} \\ + \left[ \vec{a}_x (-\sin\phi) + \vec{a}_y (-\cos\phi) \right]_{\phi=3\pi/2}^{2\pi} \end{array} \right.$$

$$= \frac{f_l}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \left[ -\vec{a}_x - \vec{a}_y + 2\vec{a}_x \theta \vec{a}_y - \vec{a}_x + \vec{a}_y \right] = \frac{f_l}{\pi\epsilon_0 a} (-\vec{a}_x) \quad [V/m \text{ or } N/C]$$

Also, using direction of  $\vec{E}$ , one could rearrange geometry as;



$$\rho_{ring} = \begin{cases} 0, & x > 0 \\ 2\rho_l, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{or } \rho_l = \begin{cases} -2\rho_l, & x < 0 \\ 0, & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

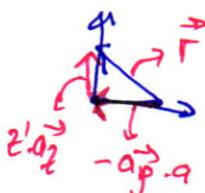
$V$  A ring shaped charge system with charge density  $\rho_l$  is located and centered at  $xy$  plane and origin, respectively. Determine the potential at  $z'$

answer

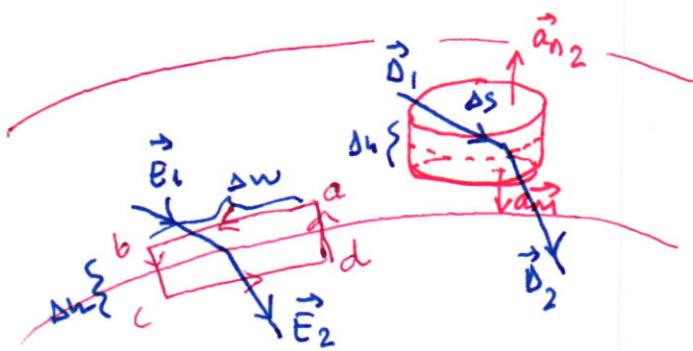
$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \frac{\rho_l}{r} d\phi$$

$$r = |\vec{r}| \text{ where } \vec{r} = -\vec{a}_\rho \cdot \vec{a} + \vec{a}_z \cdot z' \\ \Rightarrow r = \sqrt{a^2 + z'^2}$$

$$V = \frac{\rho_l}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + z'^2}} d\phi = \frac{\rho_l \cdot a}{2\epsilon_0 \sqrt{a^2 + z'^2}} \quad [V \text{ or } J/C]$$



## Boundary Conditions for Electrostatic fields



Consider the interface between two media. Recall that

$$\oint \vec{E} d\vec{l} = 0$$

$$\int \vec{D} d\vec{s} = \rho_v$$

Tangential let's analyze  $\int \vec{E} d\vec{l}$  on abcda path. As  $\Delta h \rightarrow 0$  and ab & cd lines tend to a point like line we have;

$$\int \vec{E} d\vec{l} = E_{ct} \cdot \Delta w - E_{2t} \Delta w = 0, \text{ here bc \& ad paths do not contribute to the integral}$$

Hence, one may write;

$$\boxed{E_{1t} = E_{2t}}$$

Since the  $\vec{E}$  field vanishes inside a conductor, no tangential component exist on the conductor surface even in the presence of charges. Also, this equality says that the tangential components of  $\vec{E}$  fields are continuous.

Normal let's analyze  $\int \vec{D} d\vec{s} = \rho_v$  through the pillbox. As  $\Delta h \rightarrow 0$ , integral becomes

$$(\vec{D}_1 \vec{a}_{n2} + \vec{D}_2 \vec{a}_{n1}) \Delta S = \underbrace{\rho_v \cdot \Delta S}_{\text{total charge}} \quad \text{and } \vec{a}_{n2} = -\vec{a}_{n1}, \text{ (normal vector is outward)}$$

Then one may write

$$\vec{a}_{n2} (\vec{D}_1 - \vec{D}_2) = \rho_v \quad \text{Here } \rho_v \text{ becomes } \rho_s \text{ since tending } \Delta h \rightarrow 0 \text{ forms volume to surface}$$

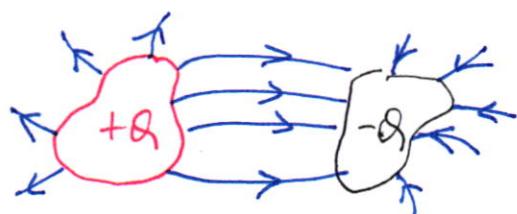
Finally,

$$\boxed{D_{1n} - D_{2n} = \rho_s}$$

Note that, under normal conditions there is no charge discontinuity between dielectric interfaces. Also, since  $\vec{E}$  field is 0 inside a conductor, the normal component outward from the surface becomes  $D_{1n} = \rho_s$  or  $E_{1n} = \rho_s / \epsilon$  as we obtained in conductors lecture.

## CAPACITANCE

Capacitors vary in geometry but are composed of two conductors carrying **equal** and **opposite sign** charges.



Basic Configuration  
of a capacitor

If one charges (as in physics lab experiments) the capacitor system (e.g., conductors) an amount of  $Q$  charges moves from one conductor to other conductor and a potential difference  $\Delta V$  occurs between them.

Experimentally, it is observed that the amount of charge accumulated at the capacitor is linearly related to the potential difference  $\Delta V$ . This linear dependency is related with the concept of **capacitance**. Namely;

$$Q = C \Delta V$$

So, we may say that **C** capacitance is a measure of the **capacity** of storing charge per applied potential difference. Hence, unit is **C/V** [Coulomb/Volt] and which is **farad [F]** in SI unit system. This system is called as **capacitor** and conductors are separated by free-space or a dielectric medium.

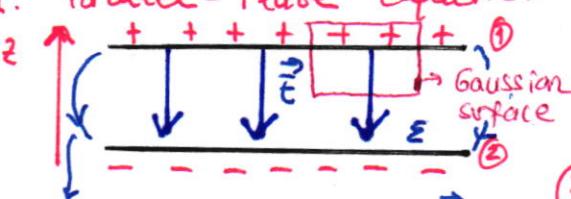
Now, let's analyze a capacitor and determine its capacitance. Our strategy is to calculate potential difference for an amount of  $Q$ . So, we may relate  $\vec{E}$  field and  $\Delta V$  as;

$\Delta V = V_{1,2} = - \int \vec{E} d\vec{l}$ . Here  $\Delta V$  is the potential difference between 1 & 2 conductors. If we know geometry and distribution of  $Q$ , we may define  $\vec{E}$  in terms of charges (gauss' law or other relations). Finally we may calculate capacitance  $C = Q / \Delta V$

## CAPACITANCE (continued 2)

Let's work with some examples.

### 1. Parallel-Plate Capacitor



Since plates are not infinite, all  $\vec{E}$  field lines are not straight. These curved lines (fringing fields) are ignored in the analysis.

$\vec{E}$  field will be directed in  $-z$  direction and as we derived previously

$$\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{\theta}{\epsilon}$$

(1) Let the cross-sectional (perpendicular to the  $z$  direction) of gaussian surface be  $S$  and the charge density of parallel plate is  $\theta/S$  (here the gaussian surface encloses whole plate). Then,  $\vec{E}$  will be in the direction  $-\vec{a}_z$  (+ charges to - charges) with an amplitude of  $\theta/\epsilon S$ . So;  $\vec{E} = -\vec{a}_z \frac{\theta}{\epsilon S}$  [V/m]

(2) Potential difference between plate 1 & plate 2 is;

$$V_{12} = V_1 - V_2 = - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} - \left[ - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \right] = - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

Note that  $d\vec{l} = \vec{a}_z dz$ . So;

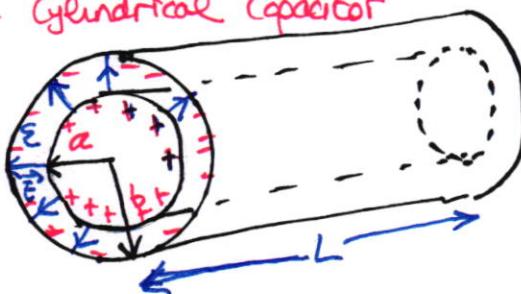
$$V_{12} = - \int_0^d \left( -\vec{a}_z \frac{\theta}{\epsilon S} \right) (\vec{a}_z dz) = \frac{\theta d}{\epsilon S} = \Delta V$$

(3) Simply read the linear relation between potential difference and  $\theta$  in terms of  $C$  as;

$$C = \frac{\theta}{V_{12}} = \epsilon \frac{S}{d} \quad [F, C/V]$$

Note that  $C$  is a positive scalar and depends only geometric configuration.

### 2. Cylindrical Capacitor



A dielectric with  $\epsilon$  permittivity is loaded between conductors.

If  $\theta (+)$  is distributed uniformly on the inner cylinder with radius  $a$ . As we examined before

(1)  $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \theta / \epsilon$  where  $\vec{E}$  is in  $\vec{a}_\phi$  direction and  $d\vec{s} = 2\pi r L$   
So;  $\vec{E} = \vec{a}_\phi \frac{\theta}{2\pi \epsilon L r}$  [V/m]

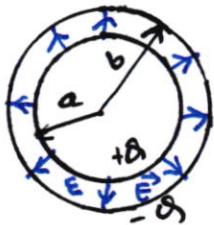
$$(2) V_{ab} = V_a - V_b = - \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} - \left[ - \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \right] = - \int_a^b \frac{\theta}{2\pi \epsilon L r} \cdot \vec{a}_\phi dr$$

$$V_{ab} = \frac{\theta}{2\pi \epsilon L} \cdot \left[ \ln b - \ln a \right] = \frac{\theta}{2\pi \epsilon L} \ln(b/a)$$

$$(3) C = \frac{\theta}{V_{ab}} = \frac{2\pi \epsilon L}{\ln(b/a)} \quad [C/V, F]$$

## CAPACITANCE (Continued 3)

### 3. Spherical Capacitor



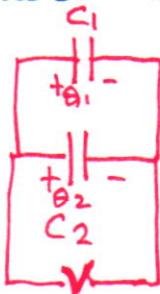
$$\textcircled{1} \quad S \vec{E} d\vec{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \hat{r}$$

$4\pi R^2$  → area of the spherical gaussian surface

$$\textcircled{2} \quad V_{ab} = - \int_{a}^{b} \vec{E} d\vec{l} = - \int_{a}^{b} \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} dR = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \right)$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad C = \frac{Q}{V} = \frac{Q}{V_{ab}} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \left( \frac{a}{b} - 1 \right)} \quad [F, C/V]$$

### Parallel Connection of Capacitors



= ?

Both capacitors have some potential difference  $V$

$$C_1 = \frac{Q_1}{V}, \quad C_2 = \frac{Q_2}{V}$$

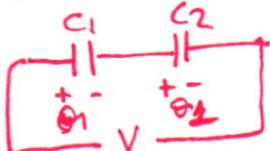
Total amount of charge of the system is  $Q_1 + Q_2$

$$\text{Hence } C_{eq} = \frac{Q_1 + Q_2}{V} = C_1 + C_2$$

Equivalent of any number of capacitors is

$$C_{eq} = C_1 + C_2 + \dots + C_N = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i$$

### Series Connection of Capacitors



Potential difference of capacitors are respectively

$$V_1 = \frac{Q_1}{C_1}, \quad V_2 = \frac{Q_2}{C_2}$$

Total potential difference and total charge are

$$V = V_1 + V_2, \quad Q = Q_1 = Q_2$$

Then, equivalent capacitor is

$$C_{eq} = \frac{Q}{V} = \frac{Q_1}{\frac{Q_1}{C_1} + \frac{Q_2}{C_2}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2}}$$

Any number of capacitors have an equivalent capacity of

$$C_{eq} = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{C_i} \right]^{-1}$$

## ELECTROSTATIC ENERGY

How much work would be performed to assemble a group of charges?

Recall electrostatic field is conservative ( $\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$ ) and hence, can be expressed in terms of a scalar potential ( $\nabla \times (\nabla V) = 0$ , vector null identity) as  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$

Also, the electric force on a charge  $q$ , was identified in terms of  $\vec{E}$  as  $\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$

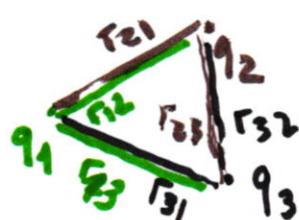
Besides, the work to be performed in order to bring charge  $q$ , under  $\vec{E}$  field was;

$$W = - \int_A^B \vec{F} d\vec{l} = -q \int_A^B \vec{E} d\vec{l} = q \int_A^B \nabla V d\vec{l} = q [V(B) - V(A)] \quad (\text{from } A \text{ to } B)$$

gradient theorem

Recall, the potential due to a charge  $q$ , at any point with distance  $r$  is  $V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$

regarding all these concepts, consider a 3 charges system as below



At first, let locate  $q_1$ , and we are not to do work since no  $\vec{E}$  field at first stage exist. Now, if we bring  $q_2$ , the work to be done is;

$$W_2 = q_2 \left( \frac{q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{12}} \right) \rightarrow V_{12}$$

Now if we bring a third charge to the system; we have to do work against electrostatic fields generated by  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ . Namely

$$W_3 = q_3 \left( \frac{q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{13}} + \frac{q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{23}} \right) \rightarrow V_{13}$$

The entire work to assemble 3 charges is a superposition of all works, that is;

$$W = W_2 + W_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}} + \frac{q_1 q_3}{r_{13}} + \frac{q_2 q_3}{r_{23}} \right]$$

If we were to bring  $N$  charges together, the work to be performed would be (in the same manner as 3 charge system);

$$W = W_2 + W_3 + \dots + W_N = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i}^N \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

Since  $r_{ij} = r_{ji}$  and commutative property ( $q_i q_j = q_j q_i$ ), we may write down

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

↑ note that      ↓ note that

This is the potential energy of charge system. If system were dissolved, this much kinetic energy would be released. Question is where the potential energy is stored

Now, we may write  $W$  briefly as;

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N q_i V_i \quad \text{where } V_i = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N \frac{q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

Let's generalize in the presence of continuous charge distribution. ( $\Sigma \rightarrow S$ )

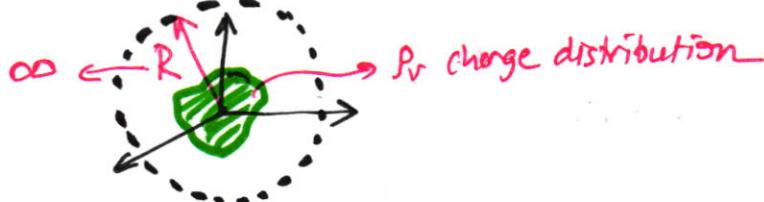
$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho_V \cdot \vec{V} \cdot dV \quad \begin{matrix} \xrightarrow{\text{potential}} \\ \text{generated by the charge density} \end{matrix}$$

Recall,  $\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_V$  and  $\nabla \cdot (\vec{D} \cdot \vec{V}) = \vec{V} \cdot \nabla \cdot \vec{D} + \vec{D} \cdot \nabla \cdot \vec{V}$  (vector identity). So;

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int \nabla \cdot \vec{D} \cdot \vec{V} dV = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int \underbrace{\nabla \cdot (\vec{D} \cdot \vec{V}) dV}_{\substack{\text{apply gauss' law} \\ \rightarrow -\vec{E}}} \rightarrow \int \vec{D} \cdot \vec{V} dV \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow W = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int \underbrace{\vec{D} \cdot \vec{V} ds}_{\substack{\text{surface bounding} \\ \text{volume } V}} + \int \underbrace{\vec{E} \cdot \vec{D} dV}_{\substack{\text{in the volume enclosing all charges}}} \right]$$

Now consider volume  $V$  is a sphere with radius  $R$  which tends to infinity



Consider  $\int \vec{D} \cdot \vec{V} ds$ .  $\vec{D}$  and  $\vec{V}$  falls off like  $1/r^2$  and  $1/r$ , respectively ( $ds \propto r^2$ )

So, in the limit case  $\int \vec{D} \cdot \vec{V} ds \rightarrow 0$  and can be neglected. Then,

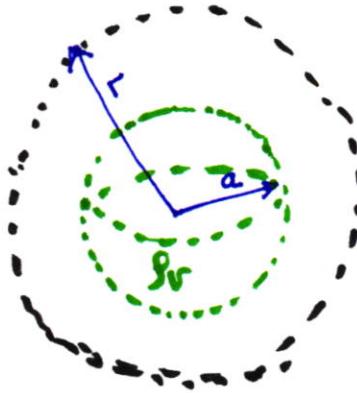
$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int \vec{E} \cdot \vec{D} dV \quad \xrightarrow{\substack{\text{over all space} \\ \rightarrow}} \text{This says that potential energy of the charge system is stored in } \vec{E} \text{ field } (\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E})$$

For clarity let's express  $W$  in terms of  $\vec{E}$  as;

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \int \vec{E}^2 dV$$

and since it's volume integral, the energy density is simply

$$U = \frac{\epsilon_0 E^2}{2}$$



Suppose a cloud of charges (with a total amount of  $\rho_v$ ) uniformly distributed in a sphere with radius  $a$ . Let's check the potential energy in the classical sense and with the formula we've derived.

Let there be a small sphere with charge function  $q(r)$  at the first stage and let force to bring a  $dq$ , amount of charge into a spherical shell at  $r+dr$  position

$$\Downarrow \quad \text{The work to be done is;}$$

$$(q) \xleftarrow{dr} dq \quad dW = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q(r) dq}{r}$$

Recall that a uniformly distributed charge in spherical form acts as if the whole charges were in the center. Now,  $q(r)$  in terms of  $\rho_v$  and  $dq$ , are

$$q(r) = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \rho_v, \quad dq = \underbrace{4\pi r^2 dr}_{\text{surface area}} \xrightarrow{\text{thickness of shell}}$$

Then, total amount of work to construct the whole sphere (radius  $a$ ) is;

$$W = \frac{4\pi}{3\epsilon_0} \rho_v^2 \int_0^a r^4 dr = \frac{4\pi}{15\epsilon_0} \rho_v^2 a^5$$

Now, let's derive in terms of  $\vec{E}$  ( $W = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \int E^2 ds$ )

$$\text{for } r \leq a$$

$$\int \vec{E} ds = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int \rho_v \frac{4\pi r^2 dr}{r^2} \rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \cdot \rho_v \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 = \frac{\rho_v r}{3\epsilon_0} \vec{e}_r$$

$$W_I = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^a \frac{\rho_v^2 r^2}{9\epsilon_0^2} \cdot \frac{4\pi r^2 dr}{ds} = \frac{\epsilon_0 \rho_v^2}{2 \cdot 9\epsilon_0^2} \cdot 4\pi \int_0^a r^4 dr = \frac{2\pi \rho_v^2}{\epsilon_0 45} a^5$$

$$\text{for } r > a$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \cdot \rho_v \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3 = \frac{\rho_v a^3}{3\epsilon_0 r^2} \vec{e}_r$$

$$W_{II} = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^\infty \frac{\rho_v^2 a^6}{9\epsilon_0^2 r^4} \cdot \frac{4\pi r^2 dr}{ds} = \frac{\rho_v^2 a^6}{18\epsilon_0} \cdot 4\pi \int_a^\infty \frac{dr}{r^2} = \frac{\rho_v^2 a^5 2\pi}{9\epsilon_0}$$

Total work  $\rightarrow W_I + W_{II} = \frac{\rho_v^2 a^5 2\pi}{\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{45} + \frac{1}{9} \right)$  which yields the same result with classical approach -

## Poisson's and Laplace Equations

Recall  $\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho_v / \epsilon$        $\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0 \rightarrow \vec{E} = -\nabla V$        $\left. \begin{array}{l} \nabla \cdot (\nabla V) = -\rho_v / \epsilon \\ \nabla \times (\nabla V) = 0 \end{array} \right\}$  Poisson's equation in electrostatics

$\nabla \cdot \nabla \equiv \nabla^2 \rightarrow$  Laplacian operator stands for "the divergence of gradient of..."

Here,  $\rho_v$  and  $\epsilon$  are the charge density and dielectric permittivity of simple medium, respectively.  $\rho$  may be a function of space coordinates.

Second order poisson's equation holds everywhere while 2<sup>nd</sup> order derivatives exist.

In cartesian coordinates

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2} = -\rho_v / \epsilon \quad [V/m^2]$$

In cylindrical coordinates

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2} = -\rho_v / \epsilon$$

In spherical coordinates

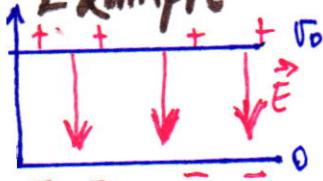
$$\frac{1}{R^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial R} \left( R^2 \frac{\partial V}{\partial R} \right) + \frac{1}{R^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{R^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2} = -\rho_v / \epsilon$$

If no free charge exists ( $\rho_v=0$ ) poisson's equation simplifies as;

$$\nabla^2 V = 0 \quad \text{which is known as Laplace's equation}$$

Once the scalar potential is obtained through the solution of partial differential equation, one may determine  $\vec{E}$  utilizing  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$ .

Example



Potential between plates? Surface density at plates? (fringing effects are ignored)

Since no free charges exist between plates,  $\nabla^2 V = 0$ . also,  $V$  varies only in  $z$  direction ( $dV/dx = dV/dy = 0$ ). Hence, if we integrate  $\nabla^2 V$  two times w.r.t  $z$ , we obtain;

$$V = Az + B \quad \text{where } A \& B \text{ are constants.}$$

Now, utilizing boundary conditions at  $z=d$  and  $z=0$

$$V(d) = V_0 = Ad + B \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} B=0 \\ A=V_0/d \end{array} \right\}$$

$$V(0) = 0 = B$$

So,  $V(z) = \frac{V_0}{d} z$

Surface charge densities can be written in terms of  $\vec{E}$  field and  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$ .

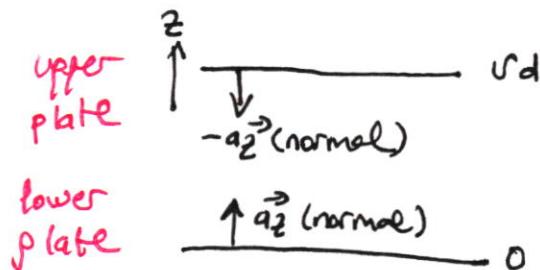
Only  $z$  variation exists, hence;

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V = -\frac{dV}{dz} \hat{a}_z = -\frac{\sigma_0}{d} \hat{a}_z$$

Recall the boundary condition on conductor surface ( $E_{in} = \sigma_s/\epsilon$ ). For upper plate normal of surface is in  $-\hat{a}_z$  direction which is  $\hat{a}_z$  for lower plate. Therefore;

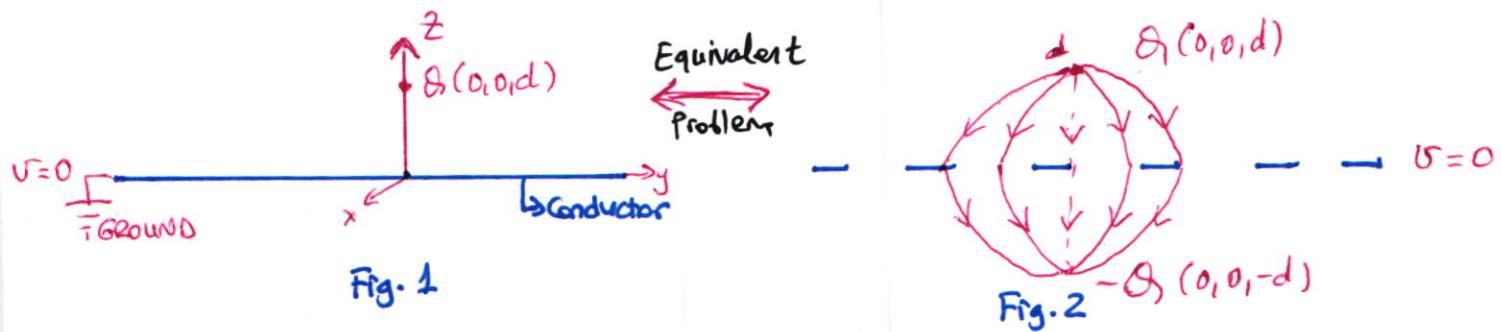
$$E_{in} = \vec{E} \cdot \underbrace{(-\hat{a}_z)}_{\text{normal}} = \sigma_s/\epsilon \Rightarrow \sigma_s = \epsilon \frac{\sigma_0}{d}$$

$$E_{in} = \vec{E} \cdot \underbrace{(\hat{a}_z)}_{\text{normal}} = \sigma_s/\epsilon \Rightarrow \sigma_s = -\epsilon \frac{\sigma_0}{d}$$



## Example

## Method of Images



Consider the problem shown in Fig. 1. A positive  $\vec{Q}$  charge is located at  $z=d$  ( $x,y=0$ ) point and we want to determine  $\vec{E}$  field and potential at any point given at  $z \geq 0$  half-space. Utilizing Coulomb's law or Gauss' law is impractical for the solution of the considered problem. Another way we examined so far is to solve Poisson's equation under appropriate boundary conditions ( $\nabla^2 U = -\rho_s/\epsilon$ ,  $U(x,y,z=0)=0$ ) which is not an easy task.

On the other hand, any solution of a Poisson's (or Laplace) equation which satisfies the same boundary conditions must be the only solution irrespective of the method of the solution. Now, examine Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. In Fig. 1, conductor plane at  $z=0$  is grounded. In Fig. 2, a  $-Q$  charge is located at  $(0,0,-d)$  point which satisfies  $U(x,y,z=0)$  potential to be 0 together with  $Q$  charge potential. That is;

$$U(x,y,z=0) = \left[ \frac{Q}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2+d^2}} + \frac{-Q}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2+(-d)^2}} \right] \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} = 0 \Rightarrow$$

Here,  $-Q$  charge is the mirror of  $Q$  charge and the configuration in Fig. 2 is an easier and alternative way for the solution of the problem considered in Fig. 1. Note that, problem is considered in  $z \geq 0$  half-space. So, at any given point at  $z \geq 0$ ,  $\vec{E}$  field or  $U$  scalar potential can be obtained by solving the problem, depicted in Fig. 2.

The scalar potential & electric field intensity at any given point at  $z \geq 0$  half-space now can be determined by;

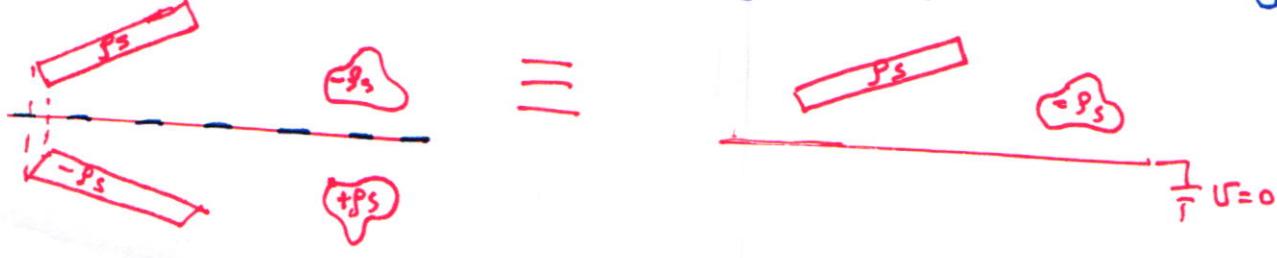
$$U(x,y,z) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{Q}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2+(z-d)^2}} + \frac{-Q}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2+(z+d)^2}} \right]$$

$$\vec{E}(x,y,z) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r_1^2} \hat{a}_{r_1} + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{-Q}{r_2^2} \hat{a}_{r_2}$$

$$r_1^2 = x^2 + y^2 + (z-d)^2$$

$$r_2^2 = x^2 + y^2 + (z+d)^2$$

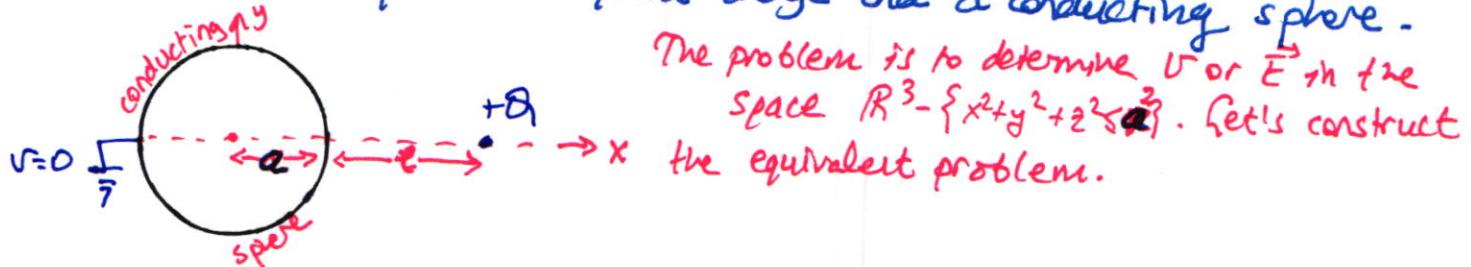
Some examples of method of images for grounded conducting plane



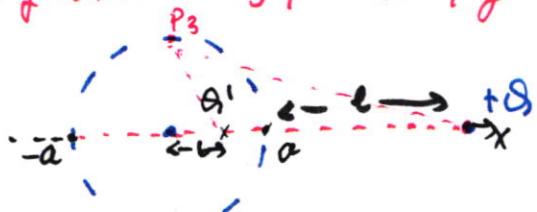
Also, we may bear an analogy for the tangential component of  $\vec{E}$  field on conductors.



Another example is a point charge and a conducting sphere.



Boundary condition is  $V=0$  at  $x^2+y^2+z^2=a^2$ . Due to the symmetry, we may only consider  $xy$  plane, simply.



Let's locate  $Q'$  at  $(b, 0, 0)$  point. The potential at  $P_1(a, 0, 0)$  and  $P_2(-a, 0, 0)$  are 0 as well as at  $P_3(0, a, 0)$ . The potential at  $P_3$  is;

$$V_{P_3} = \left. \frac{Q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0\sqrt{b^2+a^2}} + \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0\sqrt{a^2+r^2}} \right|_{r=a+l} = 0$$

Potentials at  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are

$$V_{P_1} = \left. \frac{Q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0(a-b)} + \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(R-a)} \right|_{R=a+l}, \quad V_{P_2} = \left. \frac{Q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0(a+b)} + \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0(R+a)} \right|_{R=a+l} = 0$$

Utilizing expressions of  $V_{P_1}$  and  $V_{P_2}$   $\Rightarrow \frac{a-b}{R-a} = \frac{a+b}{R+a} \Rightarrow b = \frac{a^2}{R}$  (position of  $Q'$ )

Putting  $b$  in terms of  $a$  &  $R$

into  $V_{P_3}$ , one may obtain  $Q' = -\frac{a}{R}Q$  (amount of  $Q'$  charge in terms of  $Q$ )

Now, one may calculate  $\vec{E}$  or  $V$  in the defined space  $R^3 - \{x^2+y^2+z^2 \leq a^2\}$  letting whole space is homogeneous in terms of  $\epsilon$ .

E, U, B.C.

$$U = e^{-x} \cos y, x > 0$$

$\vec{E}$  field in whole space?



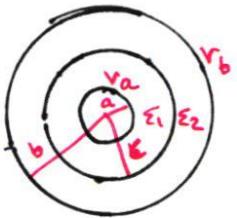
$$U = -\sin x \cdot \cos z, x < 0$$

$$\rho_s(y, z) = ?$$

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla U \Rightarrow \vec{E} = \begin{cases} -(-e^{-x} \cos y \hat{a}_x - e^{-x} \sin y \hat{a}_y), & x > 0 \\ -(-\cos x \cos z \hat{a}_x + \sin x \sin z \hat{a}_z), & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\vec{D}_{in} - \vec{D}_{out} = \epsilon_1 \vec{E}_{in} - \epsilon_2 \vec{E}_{out} = \rho_s(y, z), \quad x=0 \text{ plane. Note that normal components of } \vec{E}_1 \text{ and } \vec{E}_2 \text{ are } x\text{-components on } yz \text{ plane. Hence } \epsilon_1 e^{-x} \cos y - \epsilon_2 \cos x \cos z = \rho_s$$

$$x=0$$



Two conducting cylinders ( $r=a$ ,  $r=b$ ) are concentric and are at potentials  $V_a$  and  $V_b$ , respectively.  
 $W_1, V_1, \vec{E}_1, B_1$ ?

$\nabla^2 V = 0$  ( $a < r < b$ ) Laplace's equation. In cylindrical coordinates;

$$\nabla^2 V = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d}{d\rho} \left( \rho \frac{dV}{d\rho} \right) + \frac{1}{\rho^2} \frac{d^2 V}{d\phi^2} + \frac{d^2 V}{dz^2} = 0$$

Note that,  $V(\phi) \& V(z) = 0$ . Hence  $\nabla^2 V = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d}{d\rho} \left( \rho \frac{dV}{d\rho} \right) = 0$

$\Rightarrow$  we may integrate with respect to  $\rho$ , 2 times which yields;  
 $V(\rho) = A \ln \rho + B$  "  $\left( \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d}{d\rho} \left( \frac{d(A \ln \rho + B)}{d\rho} \right) \right) = 0$  " where  $A$  &  $B$  are coefficients

Boundary conditions  $r=a, r=b, r=c$

$$\begin{aligned} V(a) &= V_a & V(b) &= V_b & V(c) &= V_2(c) & \Delta_1(c) &= \Delta_2(c) \\ \Rightarrow A_1 \ln a + B_1 &= V_a & A_2 \ln b + B_2 &= V_b & A_1 \ln c + B_1 &= A_2 \ln c + B_2 & \Delta_1(c) - \Delta_2(c) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

4 unknowns, 4 equations, sufficient to determine  $A_{1,2}, B_{1,2}$

$$\begin{cases} \Delta_{1n} = \epsilon_1 E_{1n} \text{ and } \vec{E}_1 = -\nabla V_1. \text{ Note that } \vec{E}_1 \text{ has only } \rho \text{ component} \\ \Delta_{2n} = \epsilon_2 E_{2n} \text{ and } \vec{E}_2 = -\nabla V_2. \text{ Note that } \vec{E}_2 \text{ has only } \rho \text{ component} \\ \rightarrow \epsilon_2 A_2 / c = \epsilon_1 - A_1 / c \end{cases}$$

Once  $A_1, A_2, B_1, B_2$  are determined, one may find  $V_1, V_2$  as well as  $\vec{E}_1 = -\nabla V_1$  and  $\vec{E}_2 = -\nabla V_2$ . Then using gauss' law  $\oint \vec{E} d\vec{s} = Q/\epsilon_0$  total amount of  $Q$  can be determined. (Note that  $\sigma_A = \sigma_B$ )

We will perform tedious calculations at class

$$W_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^c \epsilon_1 E_1^2 \rho d\rho d\phi dz, \quad W_2 = \frac{\epsilon_2}{2} \int_a^b \int_0^{2\pi} \int_c^b \epsilon_2 E_2^2 \rho d\rho d\phi dz$$