

HAND WRITTEN
NOTES OF
COMPLETE
SYLLABUS OF
ELECTRICITY,
MAGNETISM AND
EMT FOR BSc 1st
YEAR.

CHAPTER-I Vector Analysis

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• Scalar quantity:— A scalar quantity which is completely specified by its magnitude or size is called scalar quantity.

VECTORS

Ex:— Mass, length, time, volume, Density, temp, speed etc.

Vectors: It is the quantity and it has present in both magnitude and direction. Called Vector.

Magnitude \Rightarrow Magnitude refers to the size of an object or its speed while travelling.

Direction \Rightarrow Direction means that a vector simply moves a one point to another point is called direction.

Ex. of vector: Acceleration, displacement, velocity, Force, Momentum, Electric field etc.

- Vector physical quantity cannot be added, subtracted by using simple algebra. But, they added subtracted, multiplying by (the) using the vector algebra.

Position Vector: The position vector is a vector representing the position of an object.

\Rightarrow It consists of two characteristics:

- Kabre
- It gives the straight line distance of the object from the origin. $\vec{OA} = \text{position vector}$
 - It gives the direction of the object with respect to origin.

Object: A material thing that can be seen or touched is called object.

Types of Vectors: — Vectors are divided into two categories.

(i) Polar vectors: — A vector quantity whose direction is along the positive or negative of the motion of the body of the particle is known as Polar vector.
Ex: — Displacement, velocity, momentum, force etc.

⇒ Negative Vector: A negative vector is a vector which points in the direction opposite to the reference positive direction is called negative vector.

⇒ Equal Vector: Two vectors are said to be Equal Vectors if they have same magnitude and direction. Called Equal Vectors.

⇒ Co-initial Vector: Two vectors (have) are said to be Co-initial Vector if, they have common initial point, is called Co-initial Vector.

(Co-Start)
Initial →
Starting point

⇒ Co-linear vector: Two vectors having Equal or Unequal magnitude but either act on same line, parallel lines and directions, parallel lines are in opposite direction are called Co-linear Vector.

$$\text{Resultant vector } (\vec{R}) = \vec{P} + \vec{Q}$$

⇒ Unit vector: A vector which have only one magnitude is called unit vector.

$$\hat{A} = \frac{\vec{A}}{|\vec{A}|} \quad \text{unit vector,}$$

• unit vector is denoted by (Caps) \hat{A} .

⇒ Zero-vector: A vector having zero magnitude are known as zero-vector. And, it is also known as null vector.

It is representing by $\vec{0}$.

→ (ii) Axial vector? — A vector quantity whose direction is along the axis of rotation of body or particle is called axial vector.

EX:- Angular velocity ($\vec{\omega}$), Angular acceleration ($\vec{\alpha}$), torque ($\vec{\tau}$) etc.

Resolution of vector: The process of splitting up a vector into two or more vectors is known as Resolution of vectors.

Addition of vectors:—

(i) Triangle law of vector addition:—

If two vectors are represented both in magnitude and direction by two sides of triangle taken in the same order, then the resultant of these vectors is represented both in magnitude and direction by third side of the triangle taken in the opposite order.

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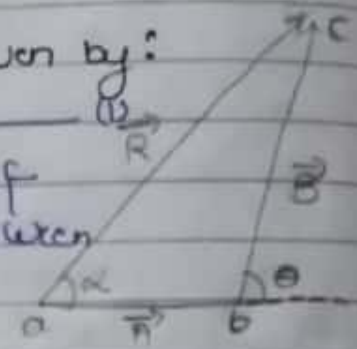
Let two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} are represented by two sides ab and bc of a triangle abc , then the resultant of these vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is \vec{R} , which is represented by the third side ac of the triangle abc .

$$\text{i.e. } \vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$$

• Magnitude of Resultant vector \vec{R} is given by:

$$R = \sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + 2AB \cos \theta}$$

where A and B are the magnitudes of vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} . θ is the angle between vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} .

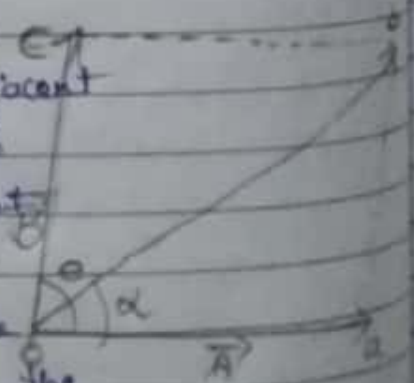


Definition of the resultant vector \vec{R} with vector \vec{A} is given by:

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{B \sin \theta}{A + B \cos \theta} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

(ii) Parallelogram Law of Vectors addition:—

If two vectors are represented both in magnitude and direction by the two adjacent sides of these two vectors, then the llgm drawn from a point, then the resultant vector of these vectors is represented both in magnitude and direction by the diagonal of the llgm passing through the same point.



Let vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} be represented by the two adjacent sides of a parallelogram $OACB$, then the resultant vector \vec{R} of these vectors is given by: -

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

Magnitude of resultant vector \vec{R} is given by: -

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$$R = \sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + 2AB \cos \theta} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Where A and B are the magnitudes of vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} . θ is the angle betⁿ vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} .

Direction of the resultant of vector \vec{R} with velocity vector \vec{A} is:

$$\Rightarrow \tan \alpha = \frac{B \sin \theta}{A + B \cos \theta}$$

Properties of vector addition: -

(i) Vectors obeys commutative law: $\vec{A} + \vec{B} = \vec{B} + \vec{A}$

(ii) Vectors addⁿ obeys associative law: $(\vec{A} + \vec{B}) + \vec{C} = \vec{A} + (\vec{B} + \vec{C})$.

* Scalar and dot product of two vectors: ->

The scalar and dot product of two non-zero vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is: -

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos \theta$$

Where A is the mag. of vector \vec{A} and B is the mag. of \vec{B} and θ is the angle betⁿ A and B .

\Rightarrow The scalar or dot product of two vectors gives the scalar physical quantity.

• Vector or cross product of two vectors:—

The vector or cross product of two vectors of non-zero vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is

$$\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = (AB \sin \theta) \hat{n}$$

where A, B are the magnitudes of \vec{A} and \vec{B} . So, θ is the angle betⁿ the vector \vec{A} and \vec{B} . i.e. \hat{n} is the unit vector \perp to the plane containing vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} .

* Definition of Field:—

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If a physical quantity (scalar or vector) varies from point to point in space. It can be expressed as a continuous function of the position of a point in the region or space. Such a continuous fund. is called function of position. The region in which function is specified the physical quantity is called field.

⇒ Types of fields:

(i) Scalar Field:— The region of space in which scalar quantity has unique value at every point is called scalar field.

S.F can be represented as:—

$$\phi = \phi(\vec{r})$$

$$\phi = \phi(x, y, z), \text{ } \phi \text{ is a scalar quantity.}$$

Example:— Distribution of temp., Electric potential, density etc.

(ii) Vector field:— The region of space in which vector quantity has unique value at every point is called vector field.

V. f is repre. as:—

$$\vec{A} = \vec{A}(\vec{r})$$

$$\vec{A} = \vec{A}(x, y, z)$$

Example:— Electric field intensity, magnetic field intensity, gravitational field etc.

• DEL OPERATOR:

The del operator (∇) is called the vector differential operator. This operator was

introduced by Sir Hamilton and read as del.

$$\vec{\nabla} = \frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k}$$

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• Laplacian operator:

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = \nabla^2$ is called the Laplacian operator.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] \cdot \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right]$$

$\hat{i} \cdot \hat{i} = 1$
 $\hat{j} \cdot \hat{j} = 1$
 $\hat{k} \cdot \hat{k} = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla^2 = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2}{dz^2}$$

• Gradient of Scalar Field: (ϕ)

When a scalar field (ϕ) is operated upon by a del operator ($\vec{\nabla}$), we get a vector function which is called the gradient of scalar field (ϕ)

• Gradient of Scalar field:

$$\text{grad } \phi = \vec{\nabla} \phi = \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] \phi$$

$$= \frac{d\phi}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d\phi}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d\phi}{dz} \hat{k}, \quad \text{Gradient of } \phi \text{ is a vector}$$

quantity.

Ex. of v. quantities which are expressed as the gradient of scalar fields are:-

- (i) Gravitational force $\vec{F} = -\vec{\nabla} U$ (U is Gravitational Potential Energy)
- (ii) Electric field due to static charge distribution $\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} V$ (V is Electric Potential)

Physical meaning of Gradient of the scalar function:

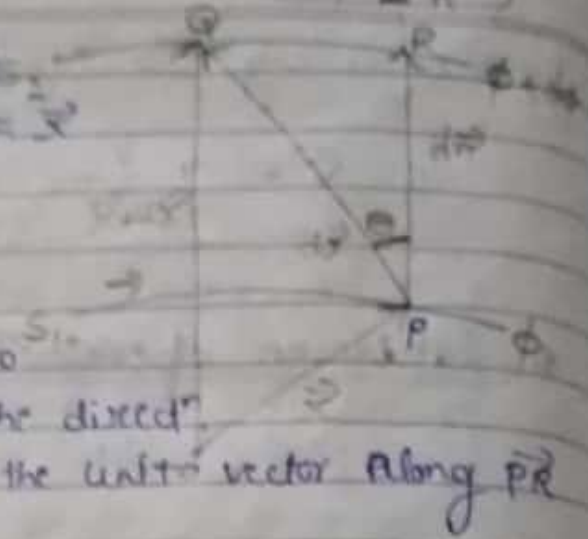
Let two-level surfaces S_1 and S_2 represents the scalar function ϕ and $\phi + d\phi$.

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Let P and Q are the two points on these surfaces such that $\vec{OP} = \vec{x}$ and $\vec{OQ} = \vec{x} + d\vec{x}$.

Such that $\vec{PQ} = d\vec{x}$.

Let the least dist. betⁿ the two surfaces S_1 and S_2 in $|\vec{PR}|$ in the direction of normal at point P. \hat{n} be the unit vector along \vec{PR} and $\vec{PR} = dn$.



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$$dn = dx \cos \theta = \hat{n} \cdot d\vec{x} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

θ is the angle betⁿ \hat{n} and $d\vec{x}$.

The rate of increase of ϕ at P in the direction of PQ will be $\frac{d\phi}{dx}$ and it becomes maximum if dx is minimum.

minim^m value of dx is along \vec{PR} .

Max^m rate of $\phi = \frac{d\phi}{dn}$ along \hat{n} .

$$d\phi = \frac{d\phi}{dn} dn.$$

Using Eqn. (i) we get.

$$d\phi = \frac{d\phi}{dn} \hat{n} \cdot d\vec{x} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$d\phi = \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{x} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Comparing Eqn.s (2) and (3), we get

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{x} = \frac{d\phi}{dn} \hat{n} \cdot d\vec{x}$$

$$\nabla \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial h} \hat{n} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$\Rightarrow \nabla \phi = \frac{d\phi}{dh} \hat{n}$ Gradient of scalar function ϕ is a vector

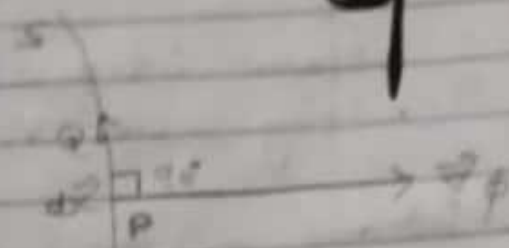
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whose magnitude at any point of is equal to the max^m rate of increase of ϕ and is directed along the directⁿ in which the rate of change of the function ϕ is maximum.

Geometrical Interpretation of Grad ϕ (Show that $\nabla \phi$ is \perp to the level surface).

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Scalar function ϕ is represented by a level surface. Consider one such surface S having $\phi = \text{const}$.



Let we move along the surface S through a distⁿ $d\vec{r}$ from a point P to point Q . The change in ϕ in going from P to Q is zero.

$$d\phi = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

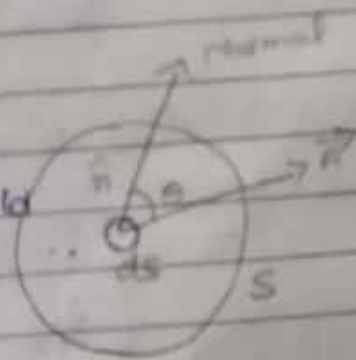
$$d\phi = \nabla \phi \cdot d\vec{r}$$

Using Eqn (1) we get $\nabla \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$

This shows that $\nabla \phi$ is \perp to $d\vec{r}$.

Surface Integral:

Consider a surface S in the vector field \vec{A} . Let ds be the area of small element on this surface.



Let \hat{n} be the unit vector showing the directⁿ of area vector ds and θ be the angle betⁿ \vec{A} and \hat{n} .

The flux of \vec{A} through the element of area ds ,
 $d\phi = \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \vec{A} \cdot ds \hat{n}$

The total flux through the whole surface S is given by $\phi = \iint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}$.

$\iint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}$ is called surface integral of \vec{A} through the whole surface S .

Now $\phi = \iint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}$.

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$$= \iint (A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}) \cdot (ds_x \hat{i} + ds_y \hat{j} + ds_z \hat{k})$$

$$= \iint (A_x ds_x + A_y ds_y + A_z ds_z) \text{ Ans}$$

Volume integral: — If we consider a surface enclosing volume V , then $\iiint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{v}$ is the volm.

integral of the vector field \vec{A} for the whole volume V over the surface.

*** Curl of a vector:** —

The cross product of $\vec{\nabla}$ and a vector field \vec{A} is called the curl of vector field \vec{A} and is written by $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$.

Let a vector field \vec{A} is represented as

$$\vec{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}$$

$$\text{Curl } \vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{k} \right] \times (A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k})$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ A_x & A_y & A_z \end{vmatrix} = \hat{i} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ A_y & A_z \end{vmatrix} - \hat{j} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ A_x & A_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$+ \hat{k} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ A_x & A_y \end{vmatrix} = \left[\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial z} \right] \hat{i} - \left[\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} \right]$$

$$+ \hat{k} \left[\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \right]$$

Irrotational and 2 components of \vec{A} are given by:-

$$\Rightarrow |(\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})_x| = \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial z} \right)$$

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$$\Rightarrow |(\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})_y| = \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} \right) \Rightarrow |(\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})_z| = \left(\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \right)$$

Curl of vector field \vec{A} is a vector quantity.

Example 45:- Verify Stokes's theorem for the function $\vec{E} = x(\hat{i}x + \hat{j}y)$, integrated around the square in the plane $z=0$, whose sides are along the lines $x=0, y=0, x=a, y=a$.

Solution:- OABC is a square with side $= a$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{OA} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{AB} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{BC} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{CO} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\int_{OA} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^a x(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}) \cdot \hat{i} dx = \int_0^a x^2 dx = \frac{a^3}{3} \quad \text{along OA, } y=0$$

$$\int_{AB} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^a x(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}) \cdot \hat{j} dy = \int_0^a xy dy = \frac{a^3}{3} \quad \text{along AB, } x=a$$

$$\int_{BC} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^a x(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}) \cdot (-\hat{i}) dx = -\int_0^a x^2 dx = -\frac{a^3}{3} \quad \text{along BC, } y=a$$

$$\int_{CO} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^a x(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}) \cdot (-\hat{j}) dy = 0 \quad \text{along CO, } x=0$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{1}{3}a^3 + \frac{a^3}{3} - \frac{a^3}{3} + 0 = \frac{a^3}{3}$$

Acc. to Stokes's theorem:-

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{r}$$

$$= \nabla \times (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j})$$

$$\iint_S \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \nabla \times (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}) \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_V \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (y\hat{j}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x\hat{i}) \right] \cdot (x^2\hat{i} + xy\hat{j}) \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

where $\nabla \times (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}) = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{k} \right] \times (x^2\hat{i} + xy\hat{j})$

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$$= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x^2 & xy & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \hat{i} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ xy & 0 \end{vmatrix} - \hat{j} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x^2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + \hat{k} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ x^2 & xy \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[0 - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (xy) \right] + \hat{j} \left[0 - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (x^2) \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (xy) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x^2) \right]$$

$$= 0 + 0 + y\hat{k} = y\hat{k} \Rightarrow \iint_S \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S y\hat{k} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

$$= \iint_S y \, ds = \iint_0^a \int_0^a y \, dx \, dy = \int_0^a y \, dy = a \times \frac{a^2}{2} = \frac{a^3}{2}$$

Hence, Stokes's theorem is verified. Ans.

(ms) not change with

(ii) Unit of resistivity is $\Omega \cdot m$, ^{unit} conductivity $\Omega^{-1} m^{-1}$.

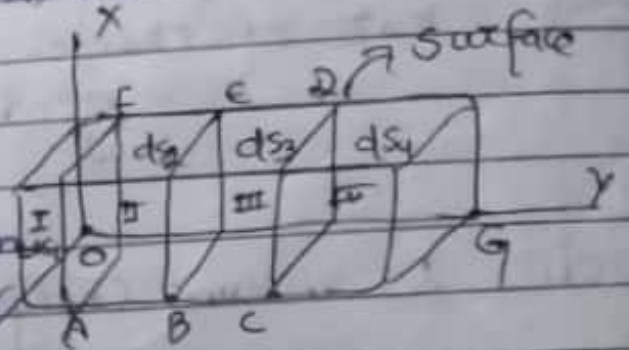
★ Gauss's Divergence Theorem:—

The surface integral of vector field \vec{A} over a closed surface is equal to the volume integral of divergence of vector field \vec{A} taken over any ^{the} closed volume enclosed by the closed surface.

$$\oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) dV$$

Proof:— let us consider the surface S in the region. Consider \vec{A} be the vector

field in the given region. let the vol^m is made up of large no of elementary volumes in the form of parallelepiped.



Consider the V^m parallelepiped over the V^m . V surface $d\vec{s}_j$.

Now, Consider the whole volume is divided into three elementary volume I, II, III. $\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}_j$ is

the normal directed outward from the V^m . Under consideration. The elementary V^m I is directed in inward of elementary V^m II, elementary V^m II is inward the elementary V^m III and so on. The sum of integral of elementary V^m will be cancel each other.

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Now,

$$\sum \oint_{S_j} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}_j = \oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} \Rightarrow \oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \sum \oint_{S_j} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}_j \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

\Rightarrow Multiply and divide ∇v_j on right hand side,

$$\oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \sum \frac{1}{\nabla v_j} \left[\oint_{S_j} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}_j \right] \nabla v_j \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Now, let us suppose the V^m by the surface S divided in elementary V^m . We get:

$$\oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \lim_{\nabla v_j \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\nabla v_j} \left[\oint_{S_j} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}_j \right] \nabla v_j \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\lim_{\nabla v_j \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\nabla v_j} \left[\oint_{S_j} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}_j \right] \nabla v_j = (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Put (3) Eqn. in (4)

$$\oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) \cdot dV$$

Now, $\nabla \cdot \vec{A} \rightarrow \text{ie } \nabla \cdot \vec{A}$ becomes val^m integral of $\text{over val}^m (V)$.

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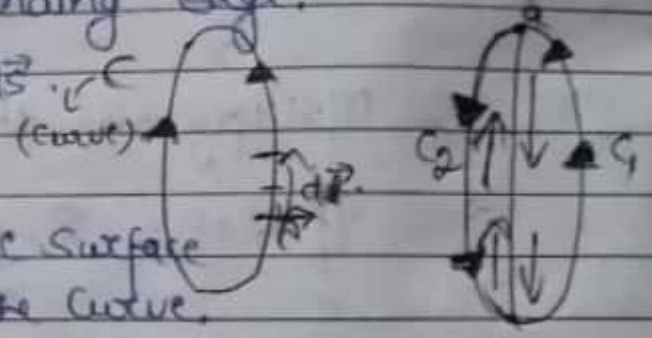
$$\text{So, } \oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) \cdot dV$$

Which is the Gauss's divergence theorem.

★ Stoke's Theorem.

The line integral of vector field \vec{A} around any closed curve is Equal to the surface integral of the curl of vector field \vec{A} taken over any surface S which the curve is bounding edge.

$$\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{P} = \iint_S (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s}$$



Proof:- Let S be the surface of the edge. C be the curve. \vec{A} be the vector field acting on the surface enclosed by the closed surface.

\vec{A} along a closed curve is,
 $\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{P}$.

Now, where, $d\vec{P}$ be the small element of the area path.

If we divide the area enclosed by the closed surface G_1 and G_2 with two equal parts drawn a line a and b . We have a two equal part

of closed path curve C and S

Now, $\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} + \oint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} \dots (1)$

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If, the area enclosed by closed curve C is divided into large no. of small elements dS_n bounded by the curves C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n

Now, $\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \sum_n \oint_{C_n} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} \dots (2)$

Acc. to definition of curl

$\Rightarrow \sum_n \oint_{C_n} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \text{curl} \cdot \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{S}_n \dots (3)$

\Rightarrow put $\oint_{C_n} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l}$ in eqn. (2), we get,

$\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \sum \text{curl} \cdot \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{S}_n \dots (4)$

$\Rightarrow dS_n$ is the surface area of the curve

Now, $dS_n \rightarrow 0$, $\sum \text{curl} \cdot \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{S}_n = \iint_S \text{curl} \cdot \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{S}$

In eqn. (4) we get

$\Rightarrow \oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint_S \text{curl} \cdot \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{S}$

$\Rightarrow \oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint_S (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{S}$

i.e. which is the Stokes's theorem. Ans.

- Prove that $\text{div}(\text{curl } \vec{A}) = 0$, where \vec{A} is a vector function.

Solution: — $\text{div}(\text{curl } \vec{A}) = 0$

Acc. to Stokes theorem,

$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s}$$

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Due to curl of \vec{A} , the closed curve reduces to a point

$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

$$\text{Then, } \iint (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s} = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Acc. to Gauss Div. Theorem,

$$\iint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) \, dv \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Taking curl on both sides, we get.

$$\Rightarrow \iint \text{curl } \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint \text{curl}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) \, dv \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\text{or } \iint (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) \, dv \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \iiint \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \, dv$$

Using Eqn (1),

$$\Rightarrow \iiint \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \, dv = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = 0 \quad \text{or } \text{div}(\text{curl } \vec{A}) = 0$$

- Prove that $\text{curl}(\text{grad } \phi) = 0$, where ϕ is a scalar function.

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$$\Rightarrow \text{Acc to Stoke's theorem,}$$

$$\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{S}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \phi$$

$$\oint_C \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot d\vec{S}$$

$$\Rightarrow \oint_C \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{l} = 0 \text{ i.e. } \iint_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \phi = 0 \text{ or } \text{curl}(\text{grad } \phi) = 0$$

★ GREEN'S THEOREM

The Green's theorem is the extension of Stoke's theorem and Gauss's divergence theorem.

If ϕ and ψ are the scalar function.

$$\Rightarrow \iiint_V (\psi \nabla^2 \phi - \phi \nabla^2 \psi) dV = \iint_S \psi \vec{\nabla} \phi - \phi \vec{\nabla} \psi$$

Proof:- let a vector field $\vec{A} = \psi \vec{\nabla} \phi - \phi \vec{\nabla} \psi$

Acc to ^{Gauss} divergence theorem $\iint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{S} = \iiint_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) dV$

$$\iint_S (\psi \vec{\nabla} \phi - \phi \vec{\nabla} \psi) \cdot d\vec{S} = \iiint_V \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\psi \vec{\nabla} \phi - \phi \vec{\nabla} \psi) dV$$

$$\text{div}(\psi \nabla \phi - \phi \nabla \psi) = \text{div}(\psi \nabla \phi) - \text{div}(\phi \nabla \psi)$$

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$$= \psi \text{div} \nabla \phi + \nabla \phi \cdot \nabla \psi - (\phi \text{div} \nabla \psi + \nabla \psi \cdot \phi)$$

$$= \psi \nabla^2 \phi + \nabla \phi \cdot \nabla \psi - \phi \nabla^2 \psi - \nabla \psi \cdot \phi$$

$$= \psi \nabla^2 \phi - \phi \nabla^2 \psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \iiint_V (\psi \nabla^2 \phi - \phi \nabla^2 \psi) dV = \iiint_V \text{div}(\psi \nabla \phi - \phi \nabla \psi) dV$$

$$\Rightarrow \iiint_V \text{div}(\psi \nabla \phi - \phi \nabla \psi) dV = \iint_S (\psi \nabla \phi - \phi \nabla \psi) \cdot d\vec{s}$$

which is Green's theorem.

Ex. 6:-

Solution:- $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$
 $|\vec{r}| = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}$

$$\frac{1}{|\vec{r}|} = \frac{1}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{|\vec{r}|} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{grad} \left[\frac{1}{|\vec{r}|} \right] = \nabla \left[\frac{1}{|\vec{r}|} \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{k} \right] \cdot (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2}$$

$$= \hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2}$$

$$= \hat{i} \frac{1}{2z} \left[\frac{1}{z} \right] (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} (2x) + \hat{j} \left[\frac{1}{z} \right] (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} (2y) + \hat{k} \left[\frac{1}{z} \right] (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} (2z)$$

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$$= \hat{i} \frac{1}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} - \frac{4x}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} - \frac{2x}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \left[\frac{1}{|r|} \right] = -\frac{(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k})}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} = -\frac{r}{r^3} = -\frac{1}{r^2}$$

$[\nabla \cdot \vec{r} = \nabla \cdot \vec{x}]$

① ⇒ Irrotational field.

Given $\vec{E} = 6xy\hat{i} + (3x^2 - 3y^2)\hat{j}$

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

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 6xy & 3x^2 - 3y^2 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{i} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y} (0) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (3x^2 - 3y^2) \right] + \hat{j} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (0) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (6xy) \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (3x^2 - 3y^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (6xy) \right] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{i} [0] + \hat{j} [0] + \hat{k} [6x - 6x] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 0\hat{i} + 0\hat{j} + (6x - 6x)\hat{k} = 0$$

i.e. $\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$, & \vec{E} is irrotational field.

Q. Verify that $\nabla \left(\frac{1}{r^3} \right) = -\frac{3}{r^5} \vec{r}$ [ie $\vec{r} = \frac{\vec{r}}{r}$]

$r = \frac{|\vec{r}|}{r}$
 $\vec{r} = \frac{\vec{r}}{r}$
 $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$
 $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$

$\nabla \left[\frac{1}{r^3} \right] = -\frac{3\vec{r}}{r^5}$
 $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$
 $r = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}$
 and $r^3 = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}$

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Now, $\left[\frac{1}{r^3} \right] = \frac{1}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$
 $= (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-3/2}$

$\nabla \left[\frac{1}{r^3} \right] = \nabla (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-3/2}$
 $= \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-3/2}$

$= -\hat{i} \left(\frac{3}{2} \right) (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-5/2} (2x) - \hat{j} \left(\frac{3}{2} \right) (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-5/2} (2y)$
 $- \hat{k} \left(\frac{3}{2} \right) (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-5/2} (2z)$

$= -\frac{3x\hat{i}}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{5/2}} - \frac{3y\hat{j}}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{5/2}} - \frac{3z\hat{k}}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{5/2}}$

$= -\frac{3}{r^5} (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}) = -\frac{3}{r^5} \vec{r}$

$\nabla \left[\frac{1}{r^3} \right] = -\frac{3}{r^5} \vec{r}$

ie Hence proved.

Example-8

③ $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$ is the p.v. grad. of r^n .

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$r = |\vec{r}| = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}$$

$$\text{and } |\vec{r}|^n = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2}$$

$$\text{grad. of } (r^n) = \vec{\nabla} |\vec{r}|^n$$

$$= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{k} \right] (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2}$$

$$= \frac{n}{2} \hat{i} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} (2x) + \frac{n}{2} \hat{j} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} (2y) +$$

$$\frac{n}{2} \hat{k} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} (2z)$$

$$= n x \hat{i} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} + n y \hat{j} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} +$$

$$n z \hat{k} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1}$$

$$= n (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} [x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}]$$

$$= n |\vec{r}|^{n-2} (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k})$$

$$\text{grad. } (r^n) = n \cdot |\vec{r}|^{n-2} \cdot \vec{r}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} r^n = n \cdot |\vec{r}|^{n-2} \cdot \vec{r}}$$

Example-9.

$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$ and \vec{A} is const. vector,

grad. $(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{r})$.
 $\nabla(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{r}) = \vec{A}$.

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$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}.$$

$$\vec{A} = A_x\hat{i} + A_y\hat{j} + A_z\hat{k}.$$

(A · r)

$$(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{r}) = xA_x + yA_y + zA_z.$$

$$\nabla(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{r}) = \left[\frac{d}{dx}\hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy}\hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz}\hat{k} \right] [xA_x + yA_y + zA_z]$$

$$= A_x\hat{i} + A_y\hat{j} + A_z\hat{k} = \vec{A}.$$

Example-10.

$$\nabla(uv) = u\nabla v + v\nabla u, \quad u \text{ and } v \text{ are Scalars.}$$

$$\nabla(uv) = \left[\frac{d}{dx}\hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy}\hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz}\hat{k} \right] (uv).$$

$$= \frac{d(uv)}{dx}\hat{i} + \frac{d(uv)}{dy}\hat{j} + \frac{d(uv)}{dz}\hat{k}.$$

$$= u \cdot \frac{dv}{dx}\hat{i} + v \cdot \frac{du}{dx}\hat{i} + u \frac{dv}{dy}\hat{j} + v \frac{du}{dy}\hat{j} + u \frac{dv}{dz}\hat{k} + v \frac{du}{dz}\hat{k}.$$

$$= u \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx}(v) + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy}(v) + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz}(v) \right] + v \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx}(u) + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy}(u) + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz}(u) \right].$$

$$= u \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] v + v \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] u$$

$$\boxed{\nabla(uv) = u \nabla v + v \nabla u.} \quad \text{QED.}$$

24 Example - 11.

$$\phi(x, y, z) = 3x^2y - y^3z^2, \quad \phi \text{ at the point } (1, -2, -1).$$

$$\text{Sol} \Rightarrow \phi(x, y, z) = 3x^2y - y^3z^2.$$

$$\phi = \nabla \phi = \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] [3x^2y - y^3z^2]$$

$$= \hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} (3x^2y - y^3z^2) + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} (3x^2y - y^3z^2) + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} (3x^2y - y^3z^2).$$

$$\nabla \phi = \hat{i} (6xy) + \hat{j} (3x^2 - 3y^2z^2) + \hat{k} (-2y^3z)$$

$$\phi(x, y, z) = (1, -2, -1) \text{ then } \nabla \phi(1, -2, -1) = -12\hat{i} - 9\hat{j} - 16\hat{k}$$

Example - 12.

$$\text{Find } \nabla \phi \quad \phi = x^{3/2} + y^{3/2} + z^{3/2}$$

$$\nabla \phi = \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] (x^{3/2} + y^{3/2} + z^{3/2}).$$

$$= \hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} (x^{3/2} + y^{3/2} + z^{3/2}) + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} (x^{3/2} + y^{3/2} + z^{3/2}) + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} (x^{3/2} + y^{3/2} + z^{3/2}).$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} x^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{i} + \frac{3}{2} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{j} + \frac{3}{2} z^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{k}$$

$$\nabla \phi = \frac{3}{2} [x^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{i} + y^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{j} + z^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{k}]$$

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Example -13.

$$v = x^2 y + y^2 z + z^2 x + 3xyz$$

$$\nabla v = \left(\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right) (x^2 y + y^2 z + z^2 x + 3xyz)$$

$$= \hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} (x^2 y + y^2 z + z^2 x + 3xyz) + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} (x^2 y + y^2 z + z^2 x + 3xyz) + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} (x^2 y + y^2 z + z^2 x + 3xyz)$$

$$= (2xy + z^2 + 3yz) \hat{i} + (x^2 + 2yz + 3xz) \hat{j} + (y^2 + 2zx + 3xy) \hat{k}$$

$$\nabla v = (z^2 + 2xy + 3yz) \hat{i} + (x^2 + 2yz + 3xz) \hat{j} + (y^2 + 2zx + 3xy) \hat{k}$$

Example -14.

Here, $V = \frac{kq}{r} = \frac{kq}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$ where, $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$
and $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

\vec{E} be the Electric field due to charge q at distance r ,

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V = -\left(\frac{d}{dx}\hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy}\hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz}\hat{k}\right)\left[\frac{kq}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}\right]$$

$$= -kq \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right] + \frac{d}{dy} \left[\frac{1}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right] \hat{j} + \right.$$

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$$\left. \frac{d}{dz} \left[\frac{1}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right] \hat{k} \right].$$

$$= -kq \left[\frac{d}{dx} (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} \hat{k} \right].$$

$$= -kq \left[\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2} (2x) + \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2} (2y) + \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2} (2z) \right].$$

$$= -kq \left[-\frac{3x}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} \hat{i} - \frac{3y}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} \hat{j} - \frac{3z}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} \hat{k} \right]$$

$$= kq \left[\frac{(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k})}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right].$$

$$= kq \left[\frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} \right].$$

Example-15.

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

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$$\text{div } \vec{r} = \nabla \cdot \vec{r} = \left(\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right) \cdot (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k})$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} x + \frac{d}{dy} y + \frac{d}{dz} z = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$$

Example-16.

$$\nabla \cdot (r^n \vec{r}) = (n+3)r^n, \text{ where } \vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$\text{and } r = |\vec{r}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \text{ or } (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}$$

$$r^n = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (r^n \vec{r}) = \left(\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right) \cdot \left[(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}) \right]$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} \cdot x + \frac{d}{dy} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} \cdot y + \frac{d}{dz} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} \cdot z$$

Product rule

$$= (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} \cdot 1 + x \cdot \frac{n}{2} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} \cdot 2x + (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} \cdot 1$$

$$+ y \cdot \frac{n}{2} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} \cdot 2y + (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} \cdot 1 + z \cdot \frac{n}{2} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} \cdot 2z$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 3(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{n/2} + n(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{n/2-1} (x^2+y^2+z^2) \\
 &= 3(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{n/2} + n(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{n/2} \\
 &= (n+3)(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{n/2} = (n+3)x^n
 \end{aligned}$$

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Example 18

∇ · $\left[\frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} \right] = 0$, where $\vec{r} = (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k})$

$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$
 $r = |\vec{r}| = \sqrt{x^2+y^2+z^2} \text{ or } (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{1/2}$

Now, $r^3 = (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}$

∇ · $\left[\frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} \right] = \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] \cdot \left[\frac{x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right]$

$= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{x}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right] + \frac{d}{dy} \left[\frac{y}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right] + \frac{d}{dz} \left[\frac{z}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} \right]$

$= \frac{d}{dx} \left[x \cdot (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} \right] + \frac{d}{dy} \left[y \cdot (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} \right] +$

$\frac{d}{dz} \left[z \cdot (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2} \right]$

$= x \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2} (2x) + y \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2} (2y)$

$+ z \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2} (2z) = -3(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2} (x^2+y^2+z^2)$

$$= \frac{-3x^2}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} + \frac{1}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} - \frac{3y^2}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} + \frac{1}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$- \frac{3z^2}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} + \frac{1}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$$

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$$= \frac{-3(x^2+y^2+z^2)}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} + \frac{3}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$= \frac{-3(x^2+y^2+z^2)(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-5/2}}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} + \frac{3}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$$

$\frac{1}{x^2+y^2+z^2} = \frac{1}{x^2+y^2+z^2}$

$$= \frac{-3(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{-3/2}}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{5/2}} + \frac{3}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$= \frac{-3}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} + \frac{3}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$= 0 \text{ Ans.}$$

Example-19

Prove that \Rightarrow

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{A} + \vec{B}) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}$$

\vec{A} and \vec{B} are two vectors are expressed as

$$\vec{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}, \quad \vec{B} = B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k}$$

$$(\vec{A} + \vec{B}) = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k} + B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k}$$

$$(\vec{A} + \vec{B}) = (A_x + B_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y) \hat{j} + (A_z + B_z) \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{A} + \vec{B}) = \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot \left[(A_x + B_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y) \hat{j} + (A_z + B_z) \hat{k} \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{d}{dx} A_x + \frac{d}{dy} A_y + \frac{d}{dz} A_z \right] + \left[\frac{d}{dx} B_x + \frac{d}{dy} B_y + \frac{d}{dz} B_z \right]$$

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot \left[(A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}) \right] + \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot \left[(B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k}) \right]$$

$$= \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}$$

< Hence proved >

Example - 20

$$\vec{v} = x^2 z \hat{i} - 2y^3 z^2 \hat{j} + 2y z^2 \hat{k}$$

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}$ at point (1, 1, 1)

Given $\vec{v} = x^2 \hat{i} - 2y^3 z^2 \hat{j} + xy^2 z \hat{k}$.

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = \left[\hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right] (x^2 \hat{i} - 2y^3 z^2 \hat{j} + xy^2 z \hat{k})$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^2 z) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (-2y^3 z^2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (xy^2 z)$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = 2xz - 6y^2 z^2 + xy^2$$

Now at point $(1, 1, 1)$ i.e. $x=1, y=1$ and $z=1$.

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = 2 \times 1 \times 1 - 6(-1)^2 (1)^2 + (1)(1)^2$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = 2 - 6(1)(1) + (1)(1)$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = -4 + 1$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = -3 \text{ Ans.}$$

Example - 21.

$\phi = 2x^3 y z^2$ (div of grad ϕ)

$$\nabla \phi = \left[\hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right] (2x^3 y z^2)$$

$$= \hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2x^3 y z^2) + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2x^3 y z^2) + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (2x^3 y z^2)$$

$$\nabla \phi = 6x^2 y z^2 \hat{i} + 2x^3 z^2 \hat{j} + (2x^3 y 2z) \hat{k}$$

$(4x^3 y z)$

div (grad ϕ) = $\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \phi)$

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right] \cdot \left[6x^2 y z^2 \hat{i} + 2x^3 z^2 \hat{j} + (2x^3 y 2z) \hat{k} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (6x^2 y z^2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2x^3 z^2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (4x^3 y z)$$

$$\text{div}(\text{grad } \phi) = \nabla \cdot \nabla \phi$$

$$= 12xyz^2 + 0 + 4x^3y$$

$$\text{div}(\text{grad } \phi) = 12xyz^2 + 4x^3y \text{ Ans}$$

Examp 22.

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$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi = \nabla^2 \phi$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \phi$$

$$= \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} \phi + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} \phi + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \phi \right]$$

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} \phi + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} \phi + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \phi \right]$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{d\phi}{dx} \right) + \frac{d}{dy} \left(\frac{d\phi}{dy} \right) + \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{d\phi}{dz} \right)$$

$$= \frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 \phi}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2 \phi}{dz^2}$$

$$= \phi \left[\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2}{dz^2} \right]$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi = \nabla^2 \phi$$

$$\nabla^2 = \left[\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2}{dz^2} \right] \text{ is called}$$

Laplacian operator.

Examp. 23

$$\vec{A} = 3y^2 z^2 \hat{i} + 4x^3 z^2 \hat{j} - 3x^2 y^2 \hat{k} \text{ is called a Solenoidal vector}$$

Sol \Rightarrow The vector \vec{A} will be the solenoid of vector

$$\text{if } \text{div } \vec{A} = 0 \text{ or } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0.$$

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$$\text{div } \vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot [3y^2z^2 \hat{i} + 4x^3z^2 \hat{j} - 3x^2y^2 \hat{k}]$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} (3y^2z^2) + \frac{d}{dy} (4x^3z^2) + \frac{d}{dz} (-3x^2y^2)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} (3y^2z^2) + \frac{d}{dy} (4x^3z^2) - \frac{d}{dz} (3x^2y^2)$$

$$= 0 + 0 - 0 = 0.$$

$$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0}$$

Examp. 24.

$$\vec{F} = 2x^2 \hat{i} + (4y^2 + z^2) \hat{j} - 3yz \hat{k}$$

$$\text{Sol} \Rightarrow \vec{F} = 2x^2 \hat{i} + (4y^2 + z^2) \hat{j} - 3yz \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot [2x^2 \hat{i} + (4y^2 + z^2) \hat{j} - 3yz \hat{k}]$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} (2x^2) + \frac{d}{dy} (4y^2 + z^2) + \frac{d}{dz} (-3yz)$$

$$= 4x + 8y - 3y = 4x + 5y$$

Example-25.

Sol: The vector field \vec{A} will be the Solenoidal.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0.$$

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$$\vec{A} = x^2 \hat{i} + (y - 2xy) \hat{j} + (x + bz) \hat{k}.$$

Sol: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$

$$\left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot [x^2 \hat{i} + (y - 2xy) \hat{j} + (x + bz) \hat{k}] = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} (x^2) + \frac{d}{dy} (y - 2xy) + \frac{d}{dz} (x + bz) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x + (1 - 2x) + b = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x + 1 - 2x + b = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + b = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{b = -1}$$

Example-26.

$$\phi = x^2 + ay - z^2.$$

find div. grad. ϕ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Grad. } \phi &= \vec{\nabla} \phi = \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] (x^2 + ay - z^2) \\ &= \hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + ay - z^2) + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} (x^2 + ay - z^2) + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} (x^2 + ay - z^2) \end{aligned}$$

div. grad. of ϕ

$$= \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi = \text{div. (grad of } \phi) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi$$

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$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot [2x\hat{i} + 2y\hat{j} - 2z\hat{k}]$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx}(2x) + \frac{d}{dy}(2y) - \frac{d}{dz}(-2z)$$

div (grad. of ϕ) = 2 + 0 - 2 = 0. (Ans)

Ex. 27.

Sol $\Rightarrow \vec{A} = (x+3y)\hat{i} + (2y+3z)\hat{j} + (x+az)\hat{k}$
is a solenoidal vector.

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0$$

$$\left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot [(x+3y)\hat{i} + (2y+3z)\hat{j} + (x+az)\hat{k}] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}(x+3y) + \frac{d}{dy}(2y+3z) + \frac{d}{dz}(x+az) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + 2 + a = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 3 + a = 0 \Rightarrow a = -3$$

Examp. 28.

Sol $\Rightarrow F_x = x+ty; F_y = x+ty; F_z = -2z$

Here the vector field, $\vec{F} = (F_x\hat{i} + F_y\hat{j} + F_z\hat{k})$

divergence $\vec{F} = (x+ty)\hat{i} + (x+ty)\hat{j} + (-2z)\hat{k}$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{F} = \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \cdot [(x+ty)\hat{i} + (x+ty)\hat{j} - 2z\hat{k}]$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx}(x+ty) + \frac{d}{dy}(x+ty) + \frac{d}{dz}(-2z)$$

$$= 1 + 1 - 2 = 0$$

Exam 29.

Solⁿ $\vec{x} = 0$, $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{x} = 0$. \vec{x} is the p.u. of \vec{x}
 $= x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$.

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Curl of $\vec{x} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{x}$.

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \times (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}).$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{d}{dx} & \frac{d}{dy} & \frac{d}{dz} \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix} = \hat{i} \left[\frac{d}{dy} z - \frac{d}{dz} y \right] - \hat{j} \left[\frac{d}{dx} z - \frac{d}{dz} x \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{d}{dx} y - \frac{d}{dy} x \right].$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[\frac{d}{dy} z - \frac{d}{dz} y \right] - \hat{j} \left[\frac{d}{dx} z - \frac{d}{dz} x \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{d}{dx} y - \frac{d}{dy} x \right] = 0.$$

Since, $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{x} = 0$. Ans.

Examp - 30

Solⁿ $\vec{A} = xyz^2\hat{i} + 2xyyz\hat{j} + 2xyz^3\hat{k}$
at point $(1, -1, -1)$.

$$\text{Curl } \vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \times [xyz^2\hat{i} + 2xyyz\hat{j} + 2xyz^3\hat{k}].$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ xyz^2 & 2xyz & 2xy^2 \end{vmatrix} = \hat{i} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 2xyz & 2xy^2 \end{vmatrix} - \hat{j} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ xyz^2 & 2xy^2 \end{vmatrix} + \hat{k} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ xyz^2 & 2xyz \end{vmatrix} \\
 &= \hat{i} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2xy^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (2xyz) \right] + \hat{j} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2xy^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (xyz^2) \right] \\
 &\quad + \hat{k} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2xyz) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (xyz^2) \right] \\
 &= \hat{i} [2xz^2 - 2xy] + \hat{j} [2xz - 2yz^2] + \hat{k} [2yz - 0]
 \end{aligned}$$

At point (1, -1, -1) we get,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{curl of } \vec{A} &= \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \hat{i}[0] + \hat{j}[-4] + \hat{k}[2] \\
 &= -4\hat{j} + 2\hat{k}
 \end{aligned}$$

Ex. 31.

$$\text{curl of } k\vec{A} = k \text{curl } \vec{A} - \vec{A} \times \text{grad } k$$

$$\text{curl } k\vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \times k\vec{A}$$

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right] \times \left[kA_x \hat{i} + kA_y \hat{j} + kA_z \hat{k} \right]$$

Example-32.

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} U = 0.$$

curl of grad is zero.

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} U = \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \times \left[\hat{i} \frac{dU}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{dU}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{dU}{dz} \right]$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{d}{dx} & \frac{d}{dy} & \frac{d}{dz} \\ \frac{dU}{dx} & \frac{dU}{dy} & \frac{dU}{dz} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{d}{dy} & \frac{d}{dz} \\ \frac{dU}{dy} & \frac{dU}{dz} \end{vmatrix} + \hat{j} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{d}{dx} & \frac{d}{dz} \\ \frac{dU}{dx} & \frac{dU}{dz} \end{vmatrix} + \hat{k} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{d}{dx} & \frac{d}{dy} \\ \frac{dU}{dx} & \frac{dU}{dy} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[\frac{d}{dy} \left(\frac{dU}{dz} \right) - \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{dU}{dy} \right) \right] + \hat{j} \left[\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dU}{dz} \right) - \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{dU}{dx} \right) \right]$$

$$+ \hat{k} \left[\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dU}{dy} \right) - \frac{d}{dy} \left(\frac{dU}{dx} \right) \right]$$

$$= \hat{i} [0] + \hat{j} [0] + \hat{k} [0] = 0. \text{ Ans.}$$

Exam. 33.

$$\text{curl } |\vec{r}|^n \vec{r} = 0.$$

$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$. is the p.v.

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Solⁿ $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$
 $|\vec{r}| = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}$

$$|\vec{r}|^n = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2}$$

$$\text{curl } |\vec{r}|^n \vec{r} = \nabla \times |\vec{r}|^n \vec{r}$$

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$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \times |\vec{r}|^n (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k})$$

$$\nabla \times |\vec{r}|^n \vec{r} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{d}{dx} & \frac{d}{dy} & \frac{d}{dz} \\ |\vec{r}|^n x & |\vec{r}|^n y & |\vec{r}|^n z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[\frac{d}{dy} |\vec{r}|^n z - \frac{d}{dz} |\vec{r}|^n y \right] + \hat{j} \left[\frac{d}{dz} |\vec{r}|^n x - \frac{d}{dx} |\vec{r}|^n z \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{d}{dx} |\vec{r}|^n y - \frac{d}{dy} |\vec{r}|^n x \right]$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[\frac{d}{dy} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} z - \frac{d}{dz} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} y \right] + \hat{j} \left[\frac{d}{dz} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} x - \frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} z \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} y - \frac{d}{dy} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2} x \right]$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[n (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} \cdot yz - n (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} yz \right] + \hat{j} \left[n (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} xz - n (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} xz \right] + \hat{k} \left[n (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} xy - n (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2 - 1} xy \right] = \mathbf{0}$$

Exam 34

(sol. $(\vec{A} \times \vec{r}) = \vec{v} \times (\vec{A} \times \vec{r})$.

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$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \times \left[A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k} \right] \times \left[x \hat{i} + y \hat{j} + z \hat{k} \right]$$

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \times \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ A_x & A_y & A_z \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{d}{dx} + \hat{j} \frac{d}{dy} + \hat{k} \frac{d}{dz} \right] \times \left[\hat{i} (zA_y - yA_z) + \hat{j} (xA_z - zA_x) + \hat{k} (yA_x - xA_y) \right]$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{d}{dx} & \frac{d}{dy} & \frac{d}{dz} \\ (zA_y - yA_z) & (xA_z - zA_x) & (yA_x - xA_y) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[\frac{d}{dy} (yA_x - xA_y) - \frac{d}{dz} (xA_z - zA_x) \right] + \hat{j} \left[\frac{d}{dz} (zA_y - yA_z) - \frac{d}{dx} (yA_x - xA_y) \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{d}{dx} (xA_z - zA_x) - \frac{d}{dy} (zA_y - yA_z) \right]$$

$$= \hat{i} [A_x + A_x] + \hat{j} [A_y + A_y] + \hat{k} [A_z + A_z]$$

$$= 2A_x \hat{i} + 2A_y \hat{j} + 2A_z \hat{k}$$

$$= 2 [A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}] = 2 \vec{A}$$

$$\text{curl}(\vec{A} \times \vec{r}) = 2\vec{A}$$

Examp. 40.

\vec{E} will be irrotational field if $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0$

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$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 6xy & (3x^2 - 3y^2) & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left[0 - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (3x^2 - 3y^2) \right] \hat{i} + \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} (6xy) - \right.$$

$$\left. \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (3x^2 - 3y^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (6xy) \right] \hat{k}$$

$$= 0 \hat{i} + 0 \hat{j} + (6x - 6x) \hat{k}$$

$$= 0 \text{ Ans}$$

< GAUSS'S DIVERGENCE

Physics:
Q1 Define scalar or dot products of two vectors.

Ans: The scalar or dot product of two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos \theta$, A is the magnitude of \vec{A} and B is the magnitude of \vec{B} , and θ is the angle betⁿ these two vectors.

The scalar or dot product of two vectors gives the scalar physical quantity.

Q2 Write the condⁿ for two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} to be \perp to each other.

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Ans: $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos \theta$, \vec{A} and \vec{B} are \perp to each other.

Now, $\theta = 90^\circ$, $\cos \theta = 0 \Rightarrow \cos 90^\circ = 0$,

So, $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos 90^\circ = 0$. If two vectors are \perp to each other, their dot product is zero.

Q3 If $|\vec{A} + \vec{B}| = |\vec{A} - \vec{B}|$, show that vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} are \perp to each other.

Ans: $|\vec{A} + \vec{B}| = |\vec{A} - \vec{B}|$
 $|\vec{A} + \vec{B}|^2 = |\vec{A} - \vec{B}|^2$, Now, $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} = A^2 = |\vec{A}|^2$

So, $(\vec{A} + \vec{B}) \cdot (\vec{A} + \vec{B}) = (\vec{A} - \vec{B}) \cdot (\vec{A} - \vec{B})$

$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} + \vec{B} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B} = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} - \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} - \vec{B} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B}$

$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} + \vec{B} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B} - \vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} - \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} - \vec{B} \cdot \vec{A} - \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$

$4 \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$, $4 \neq 0$

$\Rightarrow \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$, for condⁿ \vec{A} and \vec{B} is zero.

Q4. Define two vectors or Cross product of Vectors?

Ans: The vector or cross product of two non-zero vectors is given by \vec{A} and \vec{B} is $\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = (AB \sin \theta) \hat{n}$, where A and B are the magnitudes of \vec{A} and \vec{B} , \hat{n} is the unit vector \perp to the plane containing vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} .

Q5. Write the condⁿ for two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} be \perp to each other.

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Ans: The two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} are \perp to each other, $\theta = 0^\circ$, $\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = (AB \sin 0^\circ) \hat{n} = 0$, if \vec{A} & \vec{B} are \perp to each other then their cross product is zero.

Q6. \hat{i}, \hat{j} and \hat{k} are the orthogonal unit vectors. Write the values of (i) $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{i}, \hat{j} \cdot \hat{j}$ and $\hat{k} \cdot \hat{k}$ (ii) $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j}$ and $\hat{j} \cdot \hat{k}$, (iii) $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j}, \hat{j} \cdot \hat{k}$ and $\hat{k} \cdot \hat{i}$.

Ans: Given \hat{i}, \hat{j} and \hat{k} are mutually \perp to each other.

(i) $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{i} = |\hat{i}| \times \cos 0^\circ = 1$ (ii) $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = |\hat{i}| \times |\hat{j}| \times \cos 90^\circ = 0$
 $\hat{j} \cdot \hat{j} = |\hat{j}| \times \cos 0^\circ = 1$ $\hat{j} \cdot \hat{k} = |\hat{j}| \times |\hat{k}| \times \cos 90^\circ = 0$
 $\hat{k} \cdot \hat{k} = |\hat{k}| \times \cos 0^\circ = 1$
 (iii) $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = (|\hat{i}| \times |\hat{j}| \times \sin 90^\circ) \hat{k} = \hat{k}$ $\hat{j} \cdot \hat{k} = (|\hat{j}| \times |\hat{k}| \times \sin 90^\circ) \hat{i} = \hat{i}$
 $\hat{k} \cdot \hat{i} = \hat{j}$

Q8. Distinguish betⁿ. Scalar and Vector Fields.

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Ans: - Scalar field: The region of space in which the scalar physical quantity has unique value at every point in the space is called Scalar field. Ex:- Density field, temp. field etc.

The region of space in which the vector physical quantity has unique value at every point in the space are called Vector field. Eg: Electric field intensity, Magnetic field intensity etc.

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Q9. What does gradient of scalar functions represent?

Ans: - The gradient of scalar function $\phi(\vec{r}, t)$ is defined that max^m rate of change of function and is directed along the directⁿ in which the rate of change of ϕ is max^m.

Q10. What do you understand by line integral?

Ans: The integration of vector field along a curve is known as line integral.

Q11. What do you understand by Conservative field or lamellar field?

Ans: - Conservative / lamellar field: - A vector field

whose line integral over any path is zero is called conservative field / lamellar field.

1) Vector field \vec{E} is said to be

Now, $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$. Ans. Conservative

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Q12* Define div. of vector field. What is the physical meaning of div. of vector field?

45 Ans: Div. of vector field is the amount of flux flowing per unit Vol^m. If div. of vector field is positive at given point, then ^{the} fluid is Expanding or its density at that point decrease.

If div. of vector field \vec{A} is -ve. Then the fluid is contracting or its density increase.

If $\vec{A} = 0$ Flux entering any element of the space, neither the fluid Expands nor contracts,

Q13* What do you understand by Solenoid Vector?

Ans: A vector is said to be div. of vector is zero. Let \vec{A} be vector, it will be solenoid, if $\text{div. } \vec{A} = 0$.

Q14* What is irrotational field?

Ans: Irrotational field: - A field whose curl is zero is called Irrotational field. $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = 0$
 \vec{A} is called irrotational field.

Q18 State Gauss's div. theorem?
 Ans:- Gauss's Div. theorem: The surface integral of vector field \vec{A} around a closed surface is equal to Vol^m integral of vector field divergence of vector field over a Vol^m enclosed by the closed surface.

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$$\oiint_S \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) dV$$

Q19 State Stoke's theorem?
 Ans:- The line integral of vector field (\vec{A}) around any closed path is equal to the surface integral of curl of vector field taken over any surface of which the curve is bounding edge.

$$\oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iint_S (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s}$$

Q20 What is scalar and vector quantity?

Ans:- Scalar quantity:- A physical quantity which is completely specified by its magnitude is called scalar quantity. Ex: Mass, length, time, Volume etc

Vector quantity:- A physical quantity which is completely specified by its magnitude and direction its space is called vector quantity.

Ex:- Displa. velocity, acceleration, force etc.

Unit Vector: A vector of unit magnitude and whose direction is same as that of given vector is called unit vector. $\hat{A} = \frac{\vec{A}}{|\vec{A}|}$

$A = |\vec{A}| \hat{A}$
 $\hat{A} = \frac{\vec{A}}{|\vec{A}|}$

Curl of Vectors: The cross product of $\vec{\nabla}$ and vector field \vec{A} is called curl of vector.
 $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$.

Gradient of Scalar field: When scalar field (ϕ) is operated upon by a del operator $\vec{\nabla}$, we get a vector function which is called gradient of scalar field.

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$$\text{grad. } \phi = \vec{\nabla} \phi = \left[\frac{d}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d}{dz} \hat{k} \right] \phi$$

$$= \frac{d\phi}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{d\phi}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{d\phi}{dz} \hat{k}$$

Grad. ϕ is a vector fund.

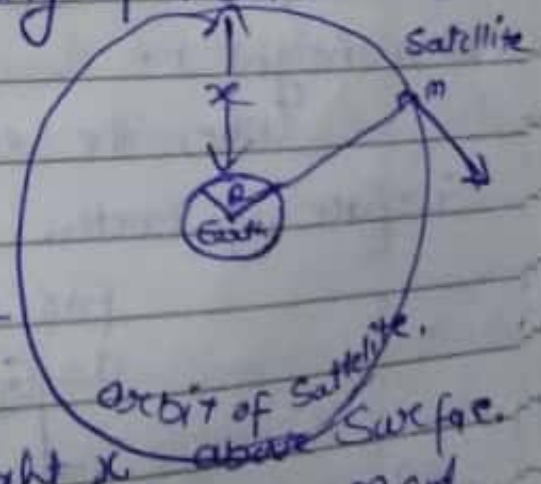
Ex 209 Grad. of scalar funct.

- (i) Gravitational force: $\vec{F} = -\vec{\nabla} U$ $\int U$ Gr. Potent. Energy.
- (ii) Electric field due to static charge distri. $\vec{F} = -\vec{\nabla} V$ $\int V$ Electric Potent. Energy.

Mechanics:

Orbital Velocity and the time period of satellite.

(a) **Orbital Velocity:** Orbital velocity of a satellite is the velocity required to put a satellite into its orbit around the Earth.



Suppose that a satellite of mass m has to put into circular orbit around the Earth at height x above surface. Consider that Earth is a sphere of mass M and Radius R . The radius of orbit of satellite will be $R+x$. Suppose that v is the req. orbital velocity.

$$\frac{(x^2+y^2)dx + 2x dx + 2y dy}{x^2+y^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{x^2+y^2} = \log|x^2+y^2|$$

$$dx + d[\log(x^2+y^2)] = 0$$

$$d[x + \log(x^2+y^2)] = 0$$

Int. we get :-

$$x + \log(x^2+y^2) = C \text{ which is req. sol.}$$

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Physics :-

1. If $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$

Ans :- \vec{A} and \vec{B} are \perp to each other.

2. Vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} lie in x-y plane and $\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = AB$ (sin) \hat{n} . The direction of \hat{n} is along

- (i) +ve x-axis
- (ii) +ve y-axis
- (iii) +ve z-axis
- (iv) -ve z-axis

Ans :- +ve z-axis

3. The vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} such that $|\vec{A} + \vec{B}| = |\vec{A} - \vec{B}|$. The angle betⁿ \vec{A} and \vec{B} is

- (i) 30°
- (ii) 60°
- (iii) 75°
- (iv) 90°

Ans :- 90°

i.e. \vec{A} and \vec{B} are \perp to each other.

4. The angle betⁿ $\vec{A} = s\hat{i} - s\hat{j}$ and $\vec{B} = s\hat{i} + s\hat{j}$ is:

- (i) 0°
- (ii) 45°
- (iii) 60°
- (iv) 90°

Ans :- 0° Ans

$$|\vec{A} + \vec{B}| = |\vec{A} - \vec{B}|$$

$$\Rightarrow |s\hat{i} - s\hat{j} + s\hat{i} + s\hat{j}| = |s\hat{i} - s\hat{j} - (s\hat{i} + s\hat{j})|$$

$$\Rightarrow |2s\hat{i}| = |-2s\hat{j}|$$

$$\Rightarrow 2s = 2s$$

Q8. The angle betⁿ \vec{A} and \vec{B} is
 (i) 30° (ii) 45° (iii) 90° (iv) 120°

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Ans: 0°

Q9. If the dot and cross products of two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} are equal in magnitude, then the angle betⁿ vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is:

- (i) 45° (ii) 90° (iii) 120° (iv) 180°

Ans: 45°

Q10. Directⁿ of grad. ϕ is:

- (i) Always normal to the surface $\phi = \text{constant}$
- (ii) Always parallel to the surface $\phi = \text{constant}$
- (iii) Normal to it to the surface depending upon its shape.
- (iv) None of these.

Ans: Always normal to the surface $\phi = \text{const}$

Q11. For a Conservative or lamthar^{ic} field.

- (i) $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = E \cdot l$ (ii) $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 1$ (iii) $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$
- (iv) $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = E \cdot dl \cos \theta$

Ans: $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$ Acc. to defn. of conservative field.

Q12. A vector \vec{V} is solenoidal if

- (i) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{V} = 0$ (ii) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V} = 0$ (iii) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = 1$ (iv) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 1$

Ans: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V} = 0$

Q10. A vector field \vec{A} is irrotational if.

- (i) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = 0$ (ii) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$ (iii) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = 1$
- (iv) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 1$

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Ans: $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = 0$.

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Q11. Which type of field can be expressed as gradient of scalar field function?

Ans: Lamellar field.

Q12. A vector field is said to be conservative if it can always be written as

- (i) $\vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot U$ (ii) $\vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \times U$ (iii) $\vec{A} = -\vec{\nabla} V$ (iv) $\vec{A} = \nabla^2 U$

Ans: $\vec{A} = -\vec{\nabla} V$.

Q13. Which type of field can be expressed as gradient of scalar function?

Ans: Solenoid.

Q14. The div. of curl of vector is always

Ans: Zero.

Q15. The directⁿ of $\vec{\nabla} \phi$ (ϕ being constt.) is always,

- (i) \perp to surface
- (ii) \parallel to the "
- (iii) \perp or \parallel to the surface

Ans: \perp to the surface.

Q16: Show that $\text{curl } \vec{r} = 0$, where
 $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$.

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Solution: $\text{curl } \vec{r} = \nabla \times \vec{r}$.

$$= \left[\hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right] \times [x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}]$$

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$$= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix} = \hat{i} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ y & z \end{vmatrix} + \hat{j} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x & z \end{vmatrix} + \hat{k} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ x & y \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i} \left[\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \right] + \hat{j} \left[\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \right] + \hat{k} \left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial y} \right]$$

$$= 0 \quad \underline{\text{Ans.}}$$

Electrostatics

Coulomb's Law :- Charles A. Coulomb

Gave a law to determine the force of attraction or force of repulsion betⁿ two point charges at rest.

The force betⁿ two point charges at rest is called **Electrostatic force or Coulomb's force**

- Actual definition is the force of repulsion betⁿ two point charges is directly proportional to the product of magnitude of the charges and (ii) inversely proportional to the square of distⁿ betⁿ them.

Let us consider two like point charges of mag. q_1 and q_2 separated by distⁿ x . The force of attraction and repulsion betⁿ them is given by:-

$$F \propto \begin{matrix} \text{(i)} q_1 q_2 \\ \text{(ii)} \frac{1}{x^2} \end{matrix} \Rightarrow F \propto \frac{q_1 q_2}{x^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{x^2} \quad \text{where } k \text{ is const. of proportionality.}$$

In vector form, we may write:

$$\vec{F} = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \hat{i}, \quad \hat{i} \text{ is the unit vector in the directⁿ from } q_1 \text{ to } q_2.$$

\vec{F} is the force on the charge q_2 due to charge q_1 .
 The force on charge q_1 due to charge q_2 is equal and opposite to \vec{F} .

• value of K depends upon the choice of system and nature of the medium.

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CGS system, $K = \frac{1}{K}$, K is the dielectric constant of medium,
 for vacuum and air, $K = 1$

$$F = \frac{1}{K} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow F_0 = \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \Rightarrow K = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}, \epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$$

and is called permittivity of free space and ϵ_r is called the relative permittivity of the medium.

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

For air and vacuum $\epsilon_r = 1$.
 $\Rightarrow F_0 = 9 \times 10^9 \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$ Ans.

Units of charge:-

In CGS sys.: Unit of electric charge is esu or statcoulomb

In SI syst.: " " " " is Coulomb by C

units of charge:- C.G.S e.s.u.
SI Coulomb (C)

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Electric field:- The space or region around a charged body, electric influence (like force of attraction and repulsion) can be experienced by another charge is called Electric field.

Electric field vector:- Electric field vector at a point in the space, the Electrostatic force can be experienced by the unit positive test charge q_0 .

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{q_0}$$

Unit of Electric field:- NC^{-1}

\Rightarrow Electric field due to a point source charge

Consider a point source charge $+Q$ which creates the electric field in the source charge. On the other hand q_0 is the test charge placed in the electric field at distⁿ x .

$$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_0}{x^2} \hat{x}$$

\hat{x} is the unit vector is directed from point source charge $+Q$ to test charge q_0 .

Electric field due to point source charge is,

$$\vec{E} = \vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{x^2} \hat{r}$$

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$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{x^2}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{x^2}$$

Electric field due to point source charge is directly proportional to the magnitude of the source charge and inversely proportional to the square of the radius of point source charge.

Electric field lines:-

The concept of Electric field lines and Electric lines of force was introduced by Faraday.



• Electric field lines is a curve that a tangent at any point on it gives the electric field at that point.

Properties of Electric field lines:-

- (i) The field lines is originate from the charge and on -ve charge.
- (ii) The tangent to a field line at any point on it gives the Electric field at that point.
- (iii) Two field lines can't cross each other. This is because the intensity of electric field has point a single value. But, if, we have to take two

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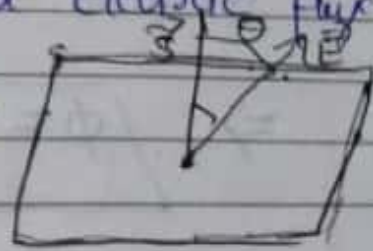
lines are cross each other. Then, there will be two tangents and two values of the intensity of Electric field.

(ii) If, the Electric field lines are very closer then the Electric field is strong. But, on the other hand If, the Electric field lines are far away then the Electric field is so weak.

Electric Flux (ϕ_E).

• Electric flux through any surface is defined as that, the no. of lines of Electric field lines passing through the surface, the surface being \perp to the Electric field called Electric flux.

Consider a surface S . Let the Electric field intensity makes an angle θ with \vec{S} .



$$\phi = \vec{E} \cdot \vec{S} = ES \cos \theta \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

(Special Case:—

(i) If $\theta = 0^\circ$, the \vec{E} is in the direction of \vec{S} . Then, $\phi_E = ES \cos 0^\circ = ES$ (Maximum). The Electric flux through a given surface is something value.

(ii) If $\theta = 90^\circ$, the \vec{E} is \perp to the \vec{S} . Then, $\phi_E = ES \cos 90^\circ = 0$, The Electric flux through a given surface is zero.

Gauss's theorem of Electrostatics (Integral Form)

Gauss's theorem states that the total Electric flux through a closed surface is equal to $\frac{1}{\epsilon_0}$ times the total charge enclosed by the closed surface.

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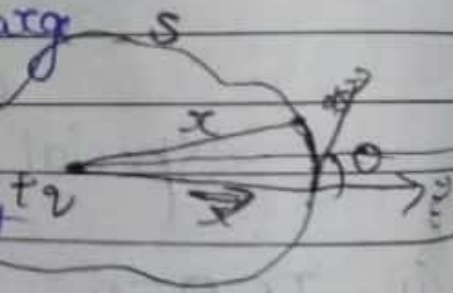
Electric flux ϕ through a closed surface is given by:—

$$\phi = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

The net charge enclosed by the closed surface is zero.

$$\Rightarrow \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0$$

Proof:— Consider a test charge $+q$ inside the surface and radius x and, Electric field intensity of the element area ds of the surface.



$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^2} \hat{r}$$

\Rightarrow The Electric flux through the area ds is given by $d\phi = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$. $\Rightarrow d\phi = |\vec{E}| |ds| \cos\theta$

$$\phi = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^2} \int \hat{r} \cdot \hat{s} |ds| \cos\theta$$

$$d\phi = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{|\vec{ds}| \cos\theta}{x^2} \quad \int \frac{|\vec{ds}| \cos\theta}{x^2} = d\Omega$$

$$d\phi = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{|\vec{ds}| \cos\theta}{x^2} \Rightarrow \phi = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} d\Omega$$

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i.e. $d\Omega$ is the solid angle subtended by the surface.

Now, Total Electric flux through the closed surface is

$$\phi = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \Rightarrow \phi = \vec{E} \cdot \oint_S d\vec{s}$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^2} \hat{r} \cdot \oint_S d\vec{s} \quad \left. \vphantom{\vec{E}} \right\} \int_S d\vec{s} = 4\pi$$

$$\phi = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^2} \cdot 4\pi$$

$$\phi = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 x^2} \Rightarrow \phi = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\phi = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \Rightarrow \phi = \left(\vec{E} \cdot \oint_S d\vec{s} \right)$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \phi = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} q \cdot \oint_S d\vec{s}$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot 4\pi \Rightarrow \phi = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\phi = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\epsilon_0 \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = q$$

$$\oint_S \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = q$$

$$\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = q$$

- (i) Outward Electric flux through a closed surface takes as +ve.
 (ii) Inward electric flux through a closed surface takes as -ve.

Gauss Theorem in Differential Form.

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Acc. to Gauss's theorem i.e.

$$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

When the charge is distributed over a vol^m. \cup such that ρ is the vol^m. density of the charge.

$$q = \iiint_V \rho \, dV \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

\Rightarrow Substituted in Eqn. (1), we get.

$$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \iiint_V \rho \, dV$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_0 \oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint_V \rho \, dV \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Acc. to Gauss's Divergence theorem,

$$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) \, dV \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

put in Eqn. (3),

$$\epsilon_0 \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) \, dV = \iiint_V \rho \, dV$$

\rightarrow Integrand must be Equal to,

$$\epsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

\downarrow
Displacement current

$$\epsilon_0 \vec{D} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

which is the Gauss's theorem differential form

Mag. of acceleration is: —

CHAPTER II

$$a = |\vec{a}| = \sqrt{|\vec{a}_x|^2 + |\vec{a}_y|^2 + |\vec{a}_z|^2}$$

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Solid Angle

The ratio of the area of any sphere intercepted by the cone to the square of the radius of particular sphere is const. is called Solid angle.

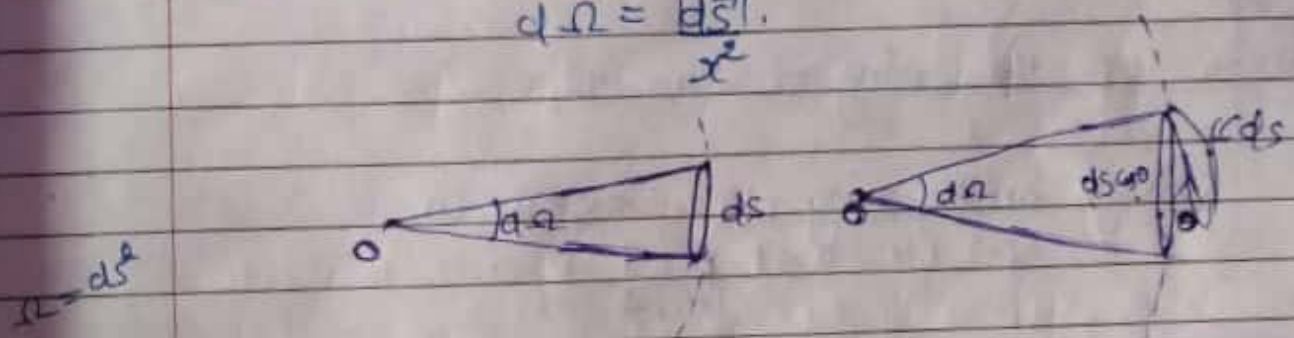
It is denoted by Ω .

i.e. S is the area of surface of radius x .

Now,

(i) The solid angle is subtended by area ds at point o at distⁿ x .

$$d\Omega = \frac{ds \cos \theta}{x^2}$$



(ii) The solid angle is subtended by area ds at point o at distⁿ x .

$$\Omega = \int \frac{ds \cos \theta}{x^2}$$

(iii) The solid angle is subtended at the center of the closed surface.

$$\oint ds = 4\pi r^2$$

$$\Omega = \int d\Omega = \oint \frac{ds}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} \oint ds$$

$$\Rightarrow \Omega = \frac{1}{x^2} \times 4\pi x^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \Omega = 4\pi \text{ steradian / Ans}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{D} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \vec{E}$$

$$\Rightarrow \oint \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \rho / \epsilon_0$$

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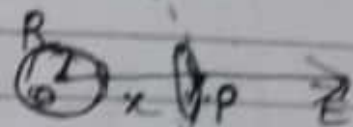
Electric flux is directly proportional to the magnitude of the charge.

Applications of Gauss's Theorem:-

(A) Electric field due to Sym Spherically Symmetric charge distribution.

(i) At a point outside the charged

Solid Sphere:- Consider a charged sphere of a radius R on which the q is uniformly distributed.



Let point P outside the ^{charged} solid sphere on the Gaussian surface whose distⁿ from O to P is x . Then, Now draw an imaginary sphere of radius x with O as centre. The imaginary sphere is called Gaussian sphere. The electric field intensity at every point on the Gaussian surface is same and is directed radially outwards.

We assume small element ds in this given surface,

Now, Electric flux over the whole Gaussian surface,

$$d\phi = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

Total Electric flux over a whole Gaussian surface is given,

$$\Rightarrow \phi = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

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i.e. \vec{E} and $d\vec{s}$ are parallel to each other (i.e. $\theta = 0^\circ$)

$$\oint E ds \cos 0 = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E \oint ds = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

i.e. $\oint ds =$ Surface area of the Gaussian sphere
 $= 4\pi r^2$

$$\Rightarrow E \times 4\pi r^2 = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

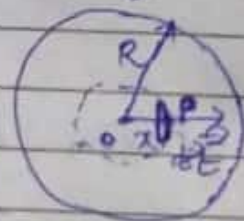
$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r^2}$$

(b) At a point on the surface of the charged sphere: —
Electric field intensity can be ^{calculated by} substituted
 $R = r$.

$$\text{i.e. } E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{R^2}$$

(c) At a point inside the solid charged sphere: —
Consider a solid charged sphere of radius x

\Rightarrow let point P inside the solid charged sphere whose distⁿ x from O to P . Consider $d\vec{s}$ be the



small element in this spherical charged sphere.

Draw an imaginary surface w^h center O to P is x .
The imaginary surface is called Gaussian surface.

Let ρ be the charge density of the sphere
 $\rho = \frac{\text{charge}}{\text{Vol}^m \text{ of the sphere}} = \frac{q}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3}$

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charge on the Gaussian Surface is,
 $q' = \rho \times \text{Vol}^m \text{ of the Gaussian Surface}$

$$\Rightarrow q' = \rho \times \frac{4}{3}\pi x^3$$

$$\Rightarrow q' = \frac{q}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3} \times \frac{4}{3}\pi x^3$$

$$\Rightarrow q' = \frac{q x^3}{R^3}$$

Now, Acc. to Gauss's theorem

$$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q'}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \times \frac{q x^3}{R^3}$$

Since, \vec{E} and $d\vec{s}$ are parallel $\theta = 0^\circ$

$$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \cos 0^\circ = \frac{q'}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\oiint_S E ds = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \times \frac{q x^3}{R^3}$$

$\oiint_S ds = \text{Surface area of the Gaussian surface}$

$$E \oiint_S ds = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \times \frac{q x^3}{R^3}$$

$$E \times 4\pi x^2 = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \times \frac{q x^3}{R^3}$$

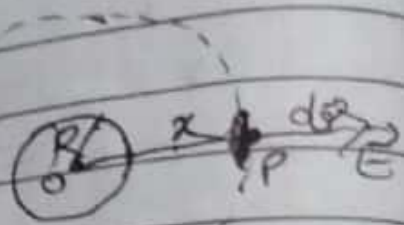
$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \times \frac{q x}{R^3}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \times \frac{q}{R^2}$$

Electric field intensity inside the charged solid sphere is proportional to the distⁿ of the point of observation.

63 Electric field due to charged spherical shells:—

(a) At a point outside the charged spherical shell:— Consider a charged spherical shell a infinitesimally.



Let point P of the charged sphere is to from O to P is x. Draw a sphere of radius x from O to P.

Electric field intensity \vec{E} at every point of this sphere.

Acc. to Gauss's theorem

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

\vec{E} and \vec{s} are parallel.

$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E \oint ds = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E \times 4\pi x^2 = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^2}$$

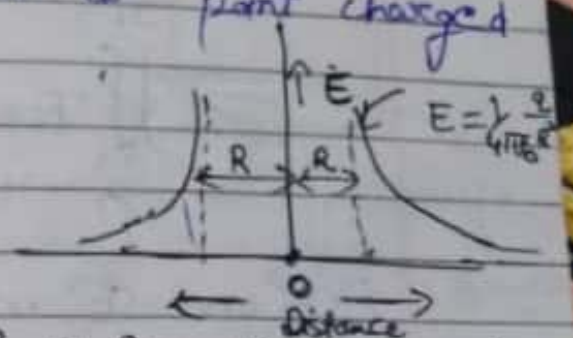
Electric field intensity outside the charged spherical shell behaves as if whole charge concentrated at the centre and \vec{E} is directed outward.

(b) At a point on the surface of charged spherical shell :- Electric field intensity can be calculated, substituted $R=x$.

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$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{R^2}$$

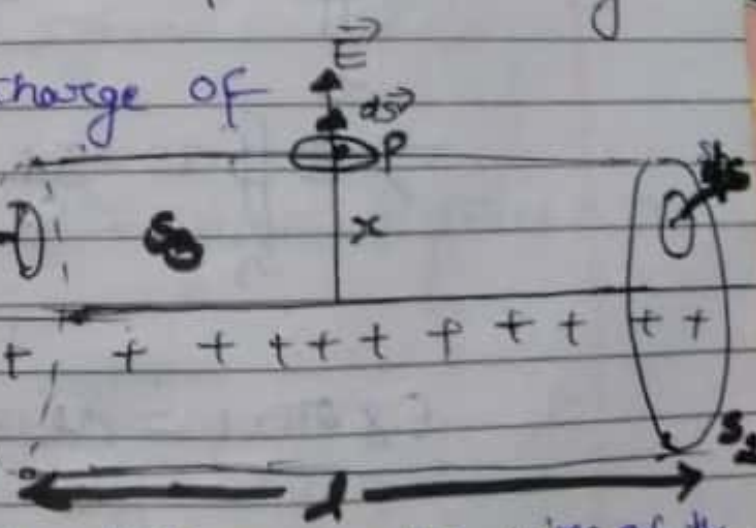
(c) At a point inside the charged spherical shell :- The Gaussian surface lying inside the shell encloses no charge. Acc to Gauss's theorem, an Electric field intensity at a point charged spherical shell is zero.
 $E=0$



★ Electric field due to infinite line charge :-

• Consider an infinite line charge of negligible thickness. Let linear charge density λ is placed in air. Let point P is on the Gaussian surface in the form of infinite line charge at distⁿ. x on the wire of the charge.

So, The Gaussian surface has divided into three equal parts are S_1, S_2 and S_3 .



Acc. to Gauss's theorem

$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\lambda l}{\epsilon_0}$$

lineal charge density
 $\lambda = \frac{q}{l}$
 $q = \lambda l$

Now, $\oint_{S_1} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} + \oint_{S_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} + \oint_{S_3} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{\lambda l}{\epsilon_0}$

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Now, \vec{E} is \perp to the $d\vec{s}$ for sections S_1 and S_2

$$\oint_{S_1} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \cos 90^\circ = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \oint_{S_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \cos 90^\circ = 0$$

i.e. \vec{E} and $d\vec{s}$ are parallel in surface S_3 is

$$\oint_{S_3} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \cos 0^\circ = E \oint_{S_3} ds = \frac{\lambda l}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \oint_{S_3} ds = \frac{\lambda l}{\epsilon_0} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{i.e. } \oint_{S_3} ds = (\text{circumference}) \\ = 2\pi r l \end{array} \right.$$

$$E \times 2\pi r l = \frac{\lambda l}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2\lambda}{r}$$

$E = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda}{r}$, Dividing and multiply by 2

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2\lambda}{r}$$

The directⁿ. of \vec{E} is radially outward from infinite line charge.

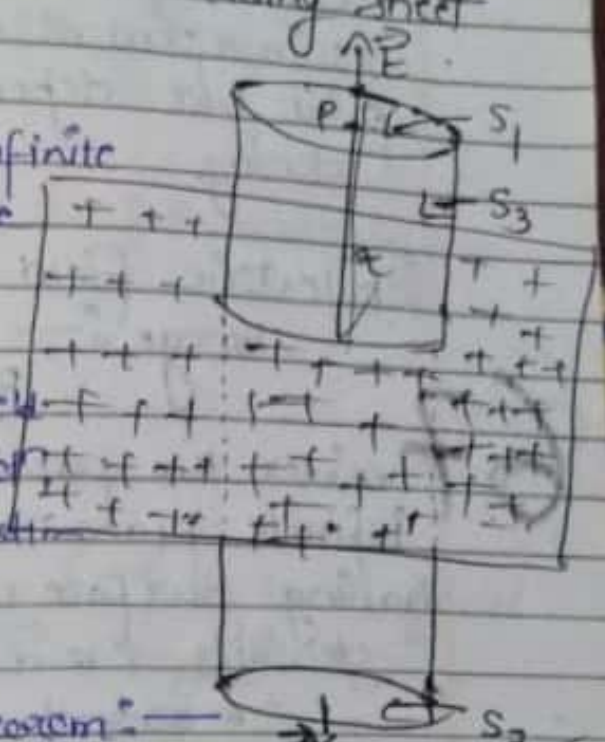
• Electric field due to Non-Conducting sheet of charge: -

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Consider a non-conducting infinite thin sheet having surface charge density σ . So,

let P be a point at distⁿ x and \vec{E} Electric field is radially outward direction.

Now, we have three Gaussian surfaces S_1, S_2 and S_3 .



So, Applying Gauss's theorem: -

$$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \iint_{S_1} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} + \iint_{S_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} + \iint_{S_3} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{S} \Rightarrow \vec{E}$ and $d\vec{s}$ are \perp to the S_3 surface,

$$\iint_{S_3} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \iint_{S_3} E ds \cos 90^\circ = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E \iint_{S_3} ds = 0$$

\vec{E} and $d\vec{s}$ are parallel to S_1 and S_2 .

$$\iint_{S_1} E ds \cos 0^\circ + \iint_{S_2} E ds \cos 0^\circ = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \iint_{S_1} ds + E \iint_{S_2} ds = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$2ES = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E = \frac{\sigma S}{2\epsilon_0 S}$$

$$\boxed{E = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}}$$

• Electric field intensity E $S + ES = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$

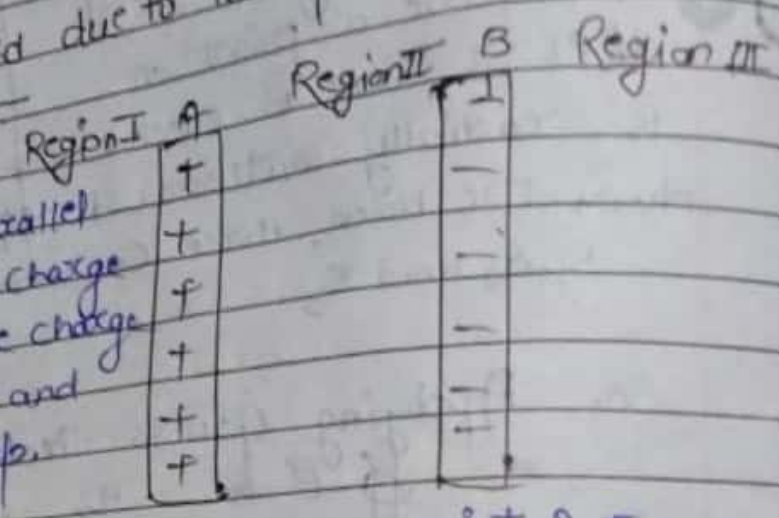
due to non-conducting charged sheet is independent of the distⁿ of obsⁿ Point but only depends on the Surface charge density.

Electric field intensity due to Non-Conducting sheet is independent of the distⁿ of the observation point but dependent of the surface charge density.

Electric field due to two parallel sheets of charge:

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Consider two parallel infinite plane charge having surface charge densities $+\sigma$ and $-\sigma$ etc.



⇒ Electric field intensity due to point A $E = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}$

The directⁿ of Electric field intensity E_A is away from sheet A.

⇒ Electric field intensity due to point B $E = -\frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}$

The -ve sign shows the directⁿ of E_B is toward the sheet B.

Magnitude of E_A = Magnitude of E_B

There are three regions I, II, III. I. to the left side of sheet A, II. region betⁿ the sheet A and sheet B. III. region to the right side of the sheet B.

Now, Electric field intensity due to sheet A...

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In the region I, $\vec{E} = E_A(\hat{i}) + E_B(\hat{i})$
 $= \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}(\hat{i}) + \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}(\hat{i}) = 0$

⇒ Electric field intensity due to Both sheets A and B, Region II = $E_A \hat{i} + E_B \hat{i}$

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$$= \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

⇒ Electric field intensity due to Both sheets A and B In the region III, $\vec{E} = E_A(\hat{i}) + E_B(\hat{i})$

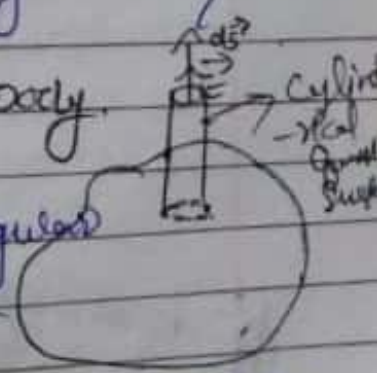
$$= \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}(\hat{i}) + \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}(\hat{i}) = 0$$

Now, Electric field intensity due to both sheets A and B are equally and oppositely charged $\vec{E} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$

positive charge is in the region I to left side of the region I in sheet A and region of the -vely charged sheet B to the right side. $\vec{E} = 0$

- Electric field due to a charged body.

Consider a charged conductor of irregular shape. Let σ be the surface charge density. Here we have in sphere the Gaussian surface in the form of cylinder. The Gaussian surface is the form of cylinder whose half portion is embedded in the cond. and half portion outside the conductor.



The Gaussian surface has three parts, two circular ends of the and one curved portion.
 \Rightarrow The Electric field \vec{E} is \perp to the surface of the conductor. Electric field inside the conductor is zero. No electric flux is linked with the one circular end of the Gaussian surface.

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\Rightarrow The Electric field intensity is \perp to the one curved portion of the surface of cond. So, no electric flux is linked with one curved portion. But it is when, only when electric flux is linked circular end of the Gaussian surface outside the conductor.

Consider a small element of area vector $d\vec{s}$ of the circular end.

\Rightarrow Electric flux through the small element is

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

Total electric flux through the small element

$$\phi = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

\Rightarrow Acc. to Gauss's theorem,

$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$dS \cos 0 = S$

$$E \int dS = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E \cdot S = \frac{\sigma S}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}}$$

- Derivation of Coulomb's law from Gauss's law.

Consider an Isolated charge q . Now imaginary sphere of radius r which is called Gaussian Surface.

Acc. to Gauss's theorem:—

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

$$\Rightarrow \oint_S E ds \cos 0^\circ = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \oint_S E ds = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \oint_S ds = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E \times 4\pi r^2 = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

\Rightarrow Value of E is Const. for all point on the Gaussian Surface.

In vector form is,

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

Q:- Derive units of Electric flux.

Ans:- Units of Electric flux:-

$$\text{Electric flux } d\phi = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$\text{Unit of flux} = E \times ds$$

$$= \text{Nm}^2 \text{C}^{-1}$$

$$\boxed{d\phi = \text{Nm}^2 \text{C}^{-1}} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

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[SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTION]

Q1. State Coulomb's law for static electric charges. Write the mathematical expression of Coulomb's law of the Electric charge?

Ans \Rightarrow The force of attraction or repulsion between two point charges at rest is directly to the product of magnitude of the charges and inversely proportional to the square of the distⁿ betⁿ two charges. This is known as Coulomb's law for static charges.

Expressions of Coulomb's law is,

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{x^2} = K \frac{q_1 q_2}{x^2}$$

F is the Coulomb's forces, q_1 and q_2 betⁿ any two point charges and x is the distⁿ betⁿ the any two point charges.

Q2. Define dielectric constt. of a medium,

Ans \Rightarrow Dielectric constt. of a medium is defined that the ratio of Coulomb's force betⁿ point charges placed at a certain distance apart in vacuum to the Coulomb's force betⁿ the same two "any" charges placed at the same distance apart in the vacuum.

Q3. Coulomb's force between two point charges kept at a distance d apart in air is F . If, the same two point charges separated by a distⁿ

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are placed in dielectric constt. k , what is the new Coulomb's force betⁿ the two point charges?

Ans \Rightarrow Acc. to the definition of dielectric constt k is given by,

$$k = \frac{F}{F_m}$$

where, F is Coulomb's force

betⁿ two point charges separated by distⁿ. d in air and F_m is the charge Coulomb's force betⁿ the same point charges in medium. Coulomb's force betⁿ the point charges in medium is given by,

$$F_m = \frac{F}{k}$$

Q 6 \Rightarrow What is meant by the "test charge" and "Source charge"?

Ans \Rightarrow The charge on which the force is exerted by the another charge is called test charge. Then, while the charge which exerts the force on the test charge is called source charge.

Q 7. While the definition of intensity of Electric field, the test charge should be infinitesimally small. Explain

or
What is the advantage of defining

$$\vec{E} = \lim_{q_0 \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{\vec{F}}{q_0} \right]$$

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Q8. Why two electric lines of force do not cross each other?

Ans \Rightarrow This is because, the intensity of electric field at any point has a single value. But, if two electric lines of force (intersect) cross each other, then there will be two tangents hence two values of the electric field at that point, which is not possible.

Q9. What do you understand by the point charge in physics?

Ans \Rightarrow By point charge, we mean on the charged body whose spatial dimensions are very - a small as compared to the other distances involved in the problem under consideration. Then, the point charge does not influence the electric field produced by the source charge.

Q10. Define electric field. What are its units?

Ans \Rightarrow Electric field: The space around the charged body with which its electric influence (force of attraction and repulsion) can be explained by the other charge is called electric field.

Units of electric field

SI: (N/C)

(C.G.S): $(\text{dyne/Stat Coulomb})$

Q11. Coulomb's force is two body interaction. Explain.

Ans \Rightarrow The Coulomb's force betⁿ the two charged bodies is not affected by the presence of another charged bodies, hence, Coulomb's force is two body interaction.

Q12. What are the limitations of Coulomb's law?

Ans \Rightarrow (i) This law holds good for the charge at rest.
(ii). This law holds good for point charge because, if the charges are extended, then it is difficult to determine the distance betⁿ them.

Q13. Is it possible to have finite electric field due to an electric infinite charge distribution? If so, give an example?

Ans \Rightarrow Yes, The value of electric field due to an infinite line of charge is finite

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2\lambda}{r}$$

Q14. Is the volume charge density is invariant?

Ans \Rightarrow Volume charge density = $\frac{\text{charge}}{\text{Volume}}$, since, the volume is not invariant, then the volume charge density is also not invariant.

Q15. What do you understand by Electric flux?

Ans \Rightarrow Electric flux through any surface area is defined as the no. of electric lines of force pass through the given area is called Electric flux.

Q16. State Gauss theorem.

Ans \Rightarrow According to this theorem, the total Electric flux through a closed surface is equal to $\frac{1}{\epsilon_0}$ times the total charge enclosed by the

75 surface. i.e. $\phi = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$.

Q17. Write down Gauss's law in differential form.

Ans $\Rightarrow \text{div} \vec{E} = \rho / \epsilon_0$. $\Rightarrow \rho$ is the volume charge density.

Q18. What do you understand by the Electric flux density?

Ans \Rightarrow Electric flux density is defined as the Electric flux per unit area.

Q19. What do you understand by the Gaussian surface?

Ans \Rightarrow An imaginary closed surface containing net electric charge is called Gaussian surface. The Electric field intensity at every point on the

Gaussian Surface is constt.

Q20. What is the Electric flux through a closed surface surrounding an Electric dipole?

Ans \Rightarrow Electric dipole consists of two equal and opposite charges. Hence, the net charge inside the closed surface is zero. Electric flux through a closed surface surrounding an Electric dipole is zero.

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Q21. A charged conductor has Energy Explain.

Ans \Rightarrow A charged conductor is always under a stress acting outward due to the electric field. Due to this, surface of the conductor is displaced and work is done. This work done is stored as the Energy of the conductor.

Q22. Derive units of Electric flux.

Ans \Rightarrow Electric flux, $d\phi = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}$.
 So, unit of Electric flux = Unit of \vec{E} \times Unit of $d\vec{s}$
 $= \text{NC}^{-1} \times \text{m}^2$
 $= \text{Nm}^2\text{C}^{-1}$.

Units of Electric flux = Nm^2C^{-1} @

CHAPTER-III Electrostatic Potential

• Electrostatic potential Energy :-

Electrostatic potential energy of a charge at a point

In the Electric field due to any charge \vec{E}

(called source charge) work done by an External force (beginning) bringing a test charge from infinity to that point in the Electric field.

Let a +ve test charge q_0 is placed in the Electric field due to another positive charge.

The force acting on the test charge in the Electric field \vec{E} is,

$$\Rightarrow \vec{F} = q_0 \vec{E}$$

The force moves to test charge in the direction of Electric field.

Suppose \vec{F}_0 is an External force to overcome the force \vec{F}_e on the test charge move it without any acceleration towards source charge.

If the test charge is displaced by $d\vec{l}$ from point A to point B in the Electric field.

Work done by the External force is,

$$W_{AB} = \int_A^B \vec{F}_0 \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\vec{F}_0 = -\vec{F}_e = -q_0 \vec{E}$$

$$\Rightarrow W_{AB} = -\int_A^B q_0 \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -q_0 \int_A^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

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This work done gives the difference in Electrical Potential Energy of the charge field system betⁿ points A and B.

$$W_{AB} = U_B - U_A = -q_0 \int_A^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

\Rightarrow If point A is at infinity, then there is no Electrostatic force (of attraction) betⁿ source charge Q and test charge q_0 at infinity is zero. The work done to displace test charge from infinity to the point B in the electric field.

$$U_B - U_\infty = U_{\infty B} = U_B - 0 = U_B$$

$$\Rightarrow U_B = U_{\infty B} = -q_0 \int_\infty^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

• This work done is equal to the Electrostatic potential Energy of the system at any point in the electric field.

• Electrostatic potential and potential difference :-

\Rightarrow It may be defined as that the work done per unit positive charge from infinity to that point against Electrostatic force of electric field of the source charge called potential difference.

$V = \frac{U}{q_0}$

Let U be the Electrostatic potential Energy at a point in the Electric field. Electric potential at that point of the Electric field is,

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{U}{q_0}$$

potential Energy on a test charge q_0 at a point in the Electric field.

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$$\Rightarrow U = -q_0 \int_A^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

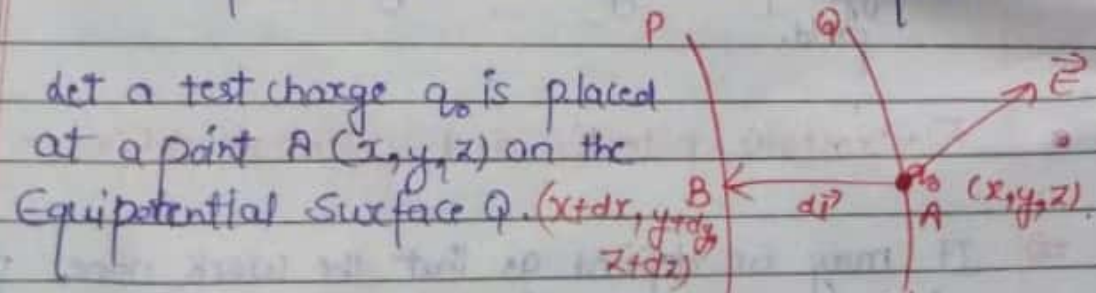
Electric potential at that point in the Electric field is,

$$V = \frac{U}{q_0} \Rightarrow V = - \int_{\infty}^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

\Rightarrow Electric potential is a scalar quantity.
• SI unit of Electric potential is Volt (V)

\Rightarrow Relation Betⁿ Electric field (\vec{E}) and Electric potential:-

Consider two Equipotential Surfaces P and Q having Electric potential V and $V+dV$ in Electric field.



Let a test charge q_0 is placed at a point $A(x, y, z)$ on the Equipotential Surface $Q(x+dx, y+dy, z+dz)$

The force acting on the test charge in the Electric field is,

$$\vec{F} = q_0 \vec{E} \quad (i)$$

Let the test charge q_0 is moved from point A(x, y, z) on equipotential surface Q to point B(x+dx, y+dy, z+dz) on the equipotential surface P by an external force \vec{F} without any acceleration.

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External force acting on the test charge:-
 $\vec{F}_e = -\vec{F} = -q_0 \vec{E}$

\Rightarrow If $d\vec{r}$ is the displacement of the test charge from point A to point B, work done of charge is

$$dW = \vec{F}_e \cdot d\vec{r} = -q_0 \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$$\frac{dW}{q_0} = \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dW}{q_0} = dV$$

$$\Rightarrow dV = -\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$$\Rightarrow dV = \frac{dV}{dx} dx + \frac{dV}{dy} dy + \frac{dV}{dz} dz$$

$$= \left[\frac{dV}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{dV}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{dV}{dz} \hat{k} \right] \cdot (dx \hat{i} + dy \hat{j} + dz \hat{k})$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\frac{dV}{dx} \hat{i} + \frac{dV}{dy} \hat{j} + \frac{dV}{dz} \hat{k} \right] \cdot (dx \hat{i} + dy \hat{j} + dz \hat{k})$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} V \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} V \cdot d\vec{r} = -\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} V$$

$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}v$ Ans.

⇒ **Electric dipole**:- A system of two equal and opposite charges separated by certain distⁿ. called **Electric dipole**.

⇒ **Electric Dipole Moment**:- (\vec{p}) The product of the magnitude of either ^{charge} dipole moment is of the Electric dipole at the dipole length are called **Electric Dipole Moment**.

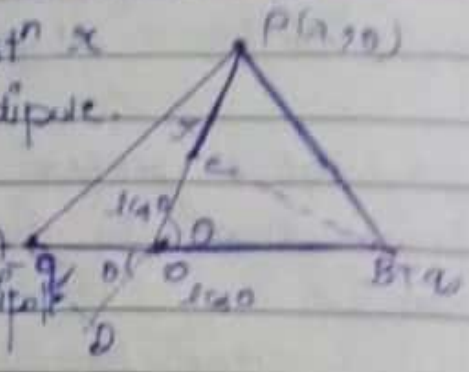
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$\vec{p} = q \times 2a \hat{i}$

⇒ SI unit of Electric Dipole Moment is **Coulomb meter (Cm)**.

Physics:-
 * Electric Potential Due to an Electric Dipole

Consider an electric dipole. Let us calculate the potential V at point P at distⁿ x from mid point O of the dipole.



Date: 19/04/20
 The line joining P and O makes an angle θ with the dipole moment \vec{p} .

Co-ordinates of point $P(x, \theta)$

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Potential at P due to $+q$ charge is:—

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{BP}$$

Potential at P due to $-q$ charge is:—

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{-q}{AP}$$

Total potential at P due to the dipole is:—

$$V = V_1 + V_2 = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{BP} - \frac{1}{AP} \right] \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$BP = PC = OP - OC = x - l \cos \theta$$

$$AP = DC = OP + OD = x + l \cos \theta$$

Put these values in Eqn. (1).

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{(x - l \cos \theta)} - \frac{1}{(x + l \cos \theta)} \right]$$

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{(x + l \cos \theta) - (x - l \cos \theta)}{x^2 - l^2 \cos^2 \theta} \right]$$

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{x + l \cos \theta - x + l \cos \theta}{x^2 - l^2 \cos^2 \theta} \right]$$

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{2l \cos \theta}{x^2 - l^2 \cos^2 \theta} \right]$$

i.e. $q \times 2l = p$ (dipole moment of electric dipole).

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{p \cos \theta}{r^2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

If point P is far away from the centre of the electric dipole, then r^2 is large as compared to $l^2 \cos^2 \theta$.
i.e. then $l^2 \cos^2 \theta$ can be neglected.

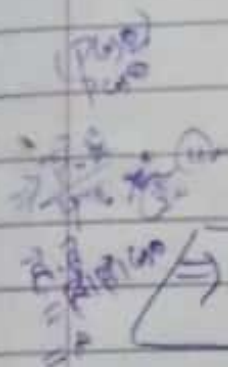
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i.e. $V = \frac{p \cos \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \quad \text{--- (3)}$

θ is the angle betⁿ \vec{p} and \vec{r}

$$V = \frac{\vec{p} \cdot \hat{r}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

where \hat{r} is unit vector.



$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{\hat{r}}{r^2}$$

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \frac{\hat{r}}{r^2}$$

Now, Eqn. (4) becomes,

$$V = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \vec{p} \cdot \nabla \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

- Electric potential due to an Electric dipole is inversely proportional to the square of the dist of the point of observation from the Electric dipole. Then, $V \propto \frac{1}{r^2}$.
Electric potential due to Electric dipole decreases rapidly with distⁿ r .

If $V = 0$ at all points at which $\theta = 90^\circ$.

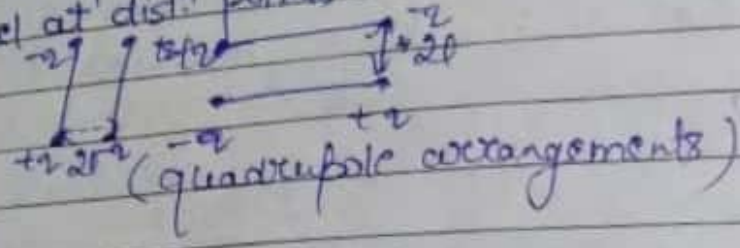
Electric potential due to an Electric dipole at all points on the flat bisector of the Electric dipole is zero.

It means that no work is done in bringing a test charge from infinity to any point on the flat bisector of the Electric dipole.

Electric Quadrupole:-

A quadrupole consists of two equal and opposite charges separated by a small distⁿ. They do not coincide in space so that their electric effects do not cancel at distⁿ points.

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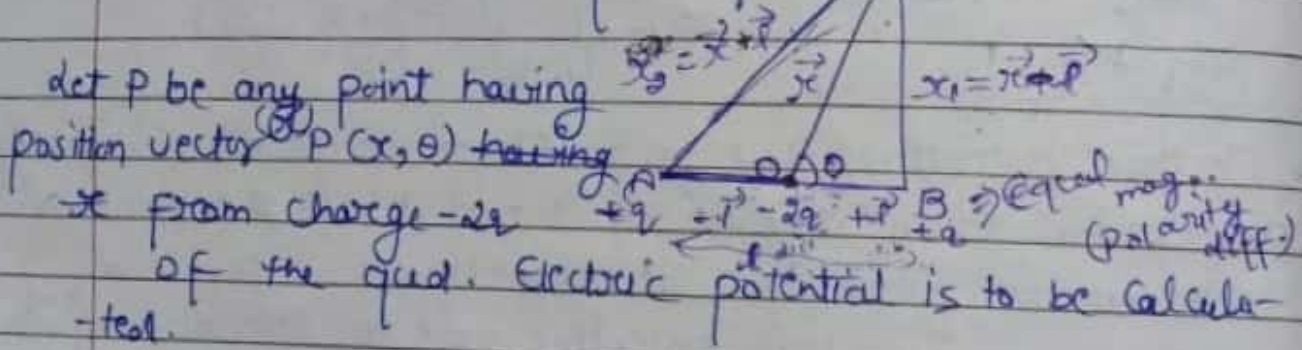


Quadrupole moment is:-
 $Q_d = 2q p^2$

⇒ Unit of Quadrupole is Cm^2 . Ans

Potential Due to a Quadrupole:-

Consider a linear quadrupole



Let $\vec{OP} = \vec{r}$, $\vec{BP} = \vec{r}_1$ and $\vec{AP} = \vec{r}_2$.

Using a law of vector addⁿ:-

$$\vec{OB} + \vec{BP} = \vec{OP} = \vec{r}$$

$$\vec{BP} = \vec{r} - \vec{OB}$$

$$\vec{BP} = \vec{r} - (-\vec{p})$$

$$\vec{BP} = \vec{r} + \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{OA} + \vec{AP} = \vec{OP} \text{ or } \vec{AP} = \vec{OP} - \vec{OA}$$

$$\vec{AP} = \vec{r} - (-\vec{p})$$

$$\vec{AP} = \vec{r} + \vec{p}$$

i.e. $\vec{BP} = \vec{r} + \vec{p}$

Potential at P due to +q charge is given by:-

$$V_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r_1}$$

Potential at p due to +q at a is:

$$V_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x}$$

Potential at p due to +q at B is:

$$V_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x_3}$$

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Total Potential at p due to quad.
 $V = V_1 + V_2 + V_3$

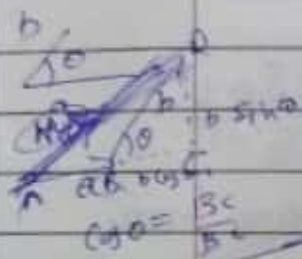
$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{q}{x_1} - \frac{2q}{x} + \frac{q}{x_3} \right]$$

$$= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{x_1} - \frac{2}{x} + \frac{1}{x_3} \right]$$

Using a draw line
 i.e. $x_4 = |\vec{x} + \vec{r}| = (x^2 + r^2 - 2xr \cos\theta)^{1/2}$



θ is the angle betⁿ \vec{x} and \vec{r}
 $x_4 = (x^2 + r^2 - 2xr \cos\theta)^{1/2}$



$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x_4} = \frac{1}{(x^2 + r^2 - 2xr \cos\theta)^{1/2}}$$

$$AD = \frac{(a+b \cos\theta) + 1 \cos\theta}{x_4} = \frac{1}{x} \left[1 + \frac{r^2 - 2r \cos\theta}{x} \right]^{-1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x} \left[1 + \frac{r^2 - 2r \cos\theta}{x} \right]^{-1/2}$$

Binomial theorem

Using Binomial theo. $(1+x)^n = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} x^2 + \dots$

$$\frac{1}{x_4} = \frac{1}{x} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{r^2 - 2r \cos\theta}{x} \right) + \frac{(-1/2)(-3/2)}{2} \left(\frac{r^2 - 2r \cos\theta}{x} \right)^2 + \dots \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x_4} = \frac{1}{x} \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{r^2}{x^2} + \frac{2r \cos\theta}{x} - \frac{3}{8} \frac{r^4 - 4r^2 \cos\theta}{x^3} + \dots \right]$$

Since $x \gg r$, i.e. $\frac{r}{x} \ll 1$ and neglecting higher terms.
 $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x_4} = \frac{1}{x} \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{r^2}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x} \cos\theta + \frac{3}{8} \frac{4r^2 \cos^2\theta}{x^2} \right]$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x_4} = \frac{1}{x} \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{r^2}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x} \cos\theta + \frac{3}{2} \frac{r^2 \cos^2\theta}{x^2} \right]$$

$\frac{1}{2} \frac{r^2}{x^2}$ or neglected

$$\frac{1}{x_4} = \frac{1}{x} \left[1 + \frac{r^2}{2x^2} (3 \cos^2\theta - 1) + \frac{1}{x} \cos\theta \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x} \left[1 + \frac{l^2}{2x^2} (3\cos^2\theta - 1) - \frac{1}{x} \cos\theta \right]$$

Substitute the value of $\frac{1}{x^2}$ in Eqn (1).

$$\text{Now, } V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \left[1 + \frac{l^2}{2x^2} (3\cos^2\theta - 1) - \frac{1}{x} \cos\theta \right] - 2 +$$

$$1 + \frac{l^2}{2x^2} (3\cos^2\theta - 1) - \frac{1}{x} \cos\theta$$

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \left[\frac{l^2}{2x^2} (3\cos^2\theta - 1) \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{q l^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} (3\cos^2\theta - 1)$$

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Dividing and multiplying by 2 term.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2 q l^2 (3\cos^2\theta - 1)}{8\pi\epsilon_0 x^3}$$

$$q l = Q_d \text{ Quad. moment} = Q_d \frac{(3\cos^2\theta - 1)}{8\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} \Rightarrow V = \frac{Q_d (3\cos^2\theta - 1)}{8\pi\epsilon_0 x^3}$$

Potential due to linear quad. Varies inversely proportional to cube of the distⁿ.

Spec. Cases:-

If point p on the axial line of quad. $\theta = 0^\circ$

$$V = \frac{Q_d (3-1)}{8\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} \Rightarrow V = \frac{Q_d}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3}$$

If point P on the Equatorial line of quad. $\theta = 90^\circ$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{Q_d}{8\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} \text{ (Ans)}$$

500000
10000
1000
739

759207
1

20590041

825952

$\Rightarrow V = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}}{r^3}$, Electric potential due to electric dipole is inversely proportional to the square of the distⁿ of the point of observation,

\Rightarrow From $V = 0$ at all points at which $\theta = 90^\circ$. Electric potential due to electric dipole at all points on the perpendicular bisector of the electric dipole is zero. No work done to bring a test charge from infinity to any point on the perpendicular bisector of the electric field.

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*** Electric field of a dipole: -**

The Electric potential due to electric dipole of dipole moment \vec{p} at point $P(x, \theta)$.

$$V(x, \theta) = \frac{p \cos \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = \frac{\vec{p} \cdot \hat{r}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

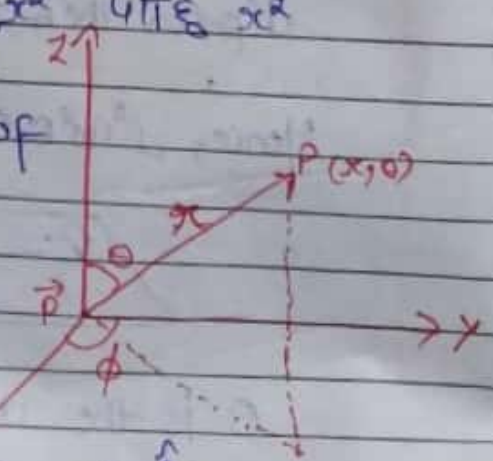
- Electric field is equal to the negative gradient of potential.

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$$

In Spherical co-ordinates:-

$$\vec{\nabla} = \frac{d}{dx} \hat{e}_r + \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{d\theta} \hat{e}_\theta + \frac{1}{x \sin \theta} \frac{d}{d\phi} \hat{e}_\phi$$

where $\hat{e}_r, \hat{e}_\theta$ and \hat{e}_ϕ are unit vectors in the directⁿ. inc. x, θ and ϕ .



$$\vec{E} = - \left[\frac{dV}{dx} \hat{e}_x + \frac{1}{x} \frac{dV}{d\theta} \hat{e}_\theta + \frac{1}{x \sin\theta} \frac{dV}{d\phi} \hat{e}_\phi \right]$$

$$\vec{E} = E_x \hat{e}_x + E_\theta \hat{e}_\theta + E_\phi \hat{e}_\phi$$

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E_x , E_θ and E_ϕ are the unit vectors components of Electric field \vec{E} in the direction of \hat{e}_x , \hat{e}_θ and \hat{e}_ϕ .

$$\Rightarrow E_x \hat{e}_x + E_\theta \hat{e}_\theta + E_\phi \hat{e}_\phi = \left[\frac{dV}{dx} \hat{e}_x - \frac{1}{x} \frac{dV}{d\theta} \hat{e}_\theta - \frac{1}{x \sin\theta} \frac{dV}{d\phi} \hat{e}_\phi \right]$$

Comparing the coeff. of \hat{e}_x , \hat{e}_θ and \hat{e}_ϕ

$$E_x = - \frac{dV}{dx}$$

$$E_\theta = - \frac{1}{x} \frac{dV}{d\theta}$$

$$E_\phi = - \frac{1}{x \sin\theta} \frac{dV}{d\phi}$$

$$E_x = - \frac{dV}{dx} = - \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{p \cos\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^2} \right]$$

$$= - \frac{p \cos\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{d}{dx} (x^{-2})$$

$$= \frac{2p \cos\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3}$$

$$E_\theta = - \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[\frac{p \cos\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^2} \right] = - \frac{p}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} \frac{d}{d\theta} (\cos\theta)$$

$$= - \frac{p}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} (-\sin\theta) = \frac{p \sin\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3}$$

$$= \frac{p \sin \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3}$$

$$E_\phi = \frac{1}{x \sin \theta} \int \phi \left(\frac{p \sin \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \right) = \frac{1}{x \sin \theta} \times 0 = 0$$

Electric field of a dipole at point p is given by,

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$$\vec{E}(x, \theta) = E_x \hat{e}_x + E_\theta \hat{e}_\theta + E_\phi \hat{e}_\phi$$

$$= \frac{2p \cos \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} \hat{e}_x + \frac{p \sin \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3} \hat{e}_\theta$$

$$\vec{E}(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{p}{x^3} (2 \cos \theta \hat{e}_x + \sin \theta \hat{e}_\theta)$$

Magnitude of electric ^{field} dipole of a dipole is,

$$|\vec{E}(x, \theta)| = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{p}{x^3} \sqrt{4 \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{p}{x^3} \sqrt{3 \cos^2 \theta + 1}$$

$$|\vec{E}(x, \theta)| = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{p}{x^3} \sqrt{3 \cos^2 \theta + 1}$$

Electric field due to quadrupole:-

Electric field at point p due to quadrupole has two components (i) Radial Component (ii) Transverse Component

(ii) Radial component of Electric field is,
(E_r)

$$E_r = -\frac{dV}{dx} = -\frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_d}{2x^3} (3\cos^2\theta - 1) \right]$$

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$$\Rightarrow E_r = -\frac{Q_d}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(3\cos^2\theta - 1)}{2} \frac{d}{dx} (x^{-3})$$

$$= -\frac{Q_d}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(3\cos^2\theta - 1)}{2} (-3)x^{-4}$$

$$E_r = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Q_d}{2x^4} (3\cos^2\theta - 1)$$

(iii) Transverse Component :-

$$E_\theta = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{dV}{d\theta} = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_d}{2r^3} (3\cos^2\theta - 1) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{r} \times \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_d}{2r^3} \frac{d}{d\theta} (3\cos^2\theta - 1)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_d}{2r^4} [3 \times 2\cos\theta (-\sin\theta)]$$

$$E_\theta = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Q_d \cdot 2\cos\theta \sin\theta}{2r^4}$$

$$E_\theta = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Q_d \sin 2\theta}{2r^4}$$

$$E_\theta = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Q_d \sin 2\theta}{2r^4}$$

Resultant Electric field at point p due to quadrupole :-

$$E = \sqrt{E_r^2 + E_\theta^2}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[\sqrt{9(\cos^2\theta - 1)^2 + (\sin 2\theta)^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[\sqrt{9\cos^4\theta + 1 - 6\cos^2\theta + 4\sin^2\theta\cos^2\theta} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[\sqrt{9\cos^4\theta + 1 - 6\cos^2\theta + 4\sin^2\theta\cos^2\theta} \right]^{1/2}$$

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$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[9\cos^4\theta + 1 - 6\cos^2\theta + 4\sin^2\theta\cos^2\theta \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[9\cos^4\theta + 1 - 6\cos^2\theta + 4(1 - \cos^2\theta)\cos^2\theta \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[9\cos^4\theta + 1 - 6\cos^2\theta + 4\cos^2\theta - 4\cos^4\theta \right]$$

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[5\cos^2\theta - 2\cos^2\theta + 1 \right]^{1/2}$$

• Special Cases:—

If $\theta = 0^\circ$ it lies at point on the axial line

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[5(\cos^2(0)) - 2(\cos^2(0)) + 1 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[5 - 2 + 1 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[3 + 1 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[4 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{x^4}$$

axial $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{x^4}$

(iii) If $\theta = 90^\circ$, at point p lies on the Equatorial line of the quadrupole.

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[5 \cos^4(90^\circ) - 2 \cos^2(90^\circ) + 1 \right]^{3/2}$$

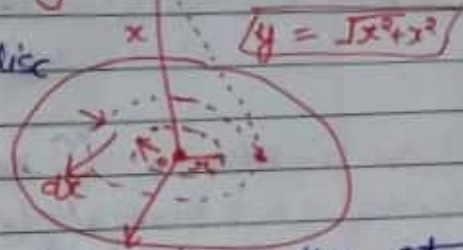
$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \left[5(0) - 2(0) + 1 \right]^{3/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow E_{\text{equ.}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3Qd}{2x^4} \Rightarrow E_{\text{axial}} = 2 \times E_{\text{equ.}}$$

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• **★ Electric potential due to charged disc:—**

Consider a uniformly charged disc of radius R having surface charge density σ .



Let q be the charge on the disc. Point P is on the axis of disc at distⁿ x .

Now, this disc is assumed to be concentric ring of radius R .

The area of the ring = $2\pi r dx$.

\Rightarrow Charge on the ring $dq = \sigma \times 2\pi r dx$ i.e. $\sigma = \frac{q}{4\pi R^2}$

Electric potential at p due to charged disc.

$$\int dv = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{(x^2 + r^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\sigma \times 2\pi r dx}{(x^2 + r^2)^{3/2}}$$

Electric potential due to charged disc is,

$$\int dV = \int_0^R \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2\pi r \sigma dr}{(x^2+r^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$V = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0} \int_0^R \frac{r dr}{(x^2+r^2)^{3/2}} \quad (2)$$

93 $\Rightarrow x = \sqrt{y^2+x^2}$
 $\Rightarrow \sqrt{y^2+x^2} = y$

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

$$2x dx = dy$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2x dx}{2} = \frac{dy}{2}$$

Now, $\int_0^R \frac{2x dx}{(x^2+x^2)^{3/2}} = \int_{x^2}^{x^2+R^2} \frac{(y)^{-3/2} dy}{2} = \left[y^{-1/2} \right]_{x^2}^{x^2+R^2}$

$$\int_0^R \frac{2x dx}{(x^2+x^2)^{3/2}} = \left[(x^2+R^2)^{-1/2} - x^{-1} \right] \quad (3)$$

Now, using Eqn. (2) & (3) we get.

$$V = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0} \left[(x^2+R^2)^{-1/2} - x^{-1} \right] \quad (4)$$

Which is the required expression for the electric potential due to charged disc at distance x on the axis of the disc.

$$\Rightarrow (x^2+R^2)^{1/2} = x \left[1 + \frac{R^2}{x^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

Hence Eqn. (4) can be written as, $\left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{R^2}{x^2} + \dots \right]$

$$V = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0} \left[x + \frac{R^2}{2x} - x \right] \Rightarrow V = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{R^2}{2x} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{\sigma R^2}{4\epsilon_0 x}$$

i.e. $\sigma = \frac{q}{4\pi R^2}$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{q}{4\pi R^2} \times \frac{R^2}{4\epsilon_0 x} \Rightarrow V = \frac{q}{4\pi} \times \frac{1}{4\epsilon_0 x}$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{q}{16\pi \epsilon_0 x}$$

$\Rightarrow V = \frac{1}{16\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x}$ i.e. which is equal to the Electric potential due to point charge at distⁿ x . Ans

Q1:- An Electrostatic field is curl free? Explain why?
Acc. to Electric field is -ve gradient of potential

Ans:- $\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$

Taking curl on both sides,
 $\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla}V$

\Rightarrow But $-\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla}V$ i.e. curl of grad. of scalar function is zero.

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

i.e. An Electrostatic field is curl free or Non-Curl field. Ans

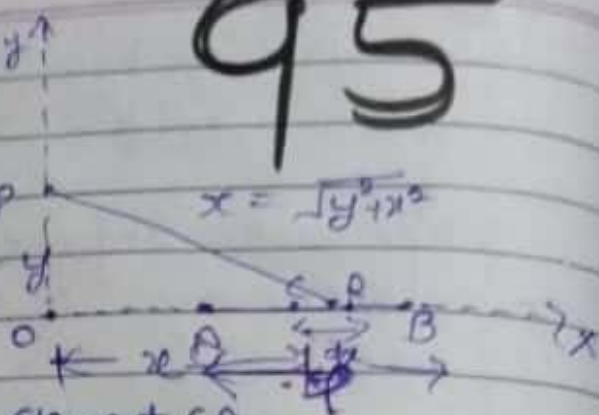
* Electric potential due to a long uniformly charged wire

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Date

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Consider a long uniformly charged wire AB of length and linear charge density λ . Let q be the charge uniformly distributed on the wire.



The charge on the element dx ,

$$dq = \lambda dx = \frac{q}{l} dx$$

Surface charge density

Electric potential due to small element at a point P at a distance r from the charged element is:-

$$dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \frac{dx}{r}$$

Electric potential at point P due to whole wire is-

$$\int dV = \int_a^{l+a} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{y^2 + x^2}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \int_a^{l+a} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{y^2 + x^2}}$$

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 l} \int_a^{l+a} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{y^2 + x^2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + y^2}}$$

\log

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 l} \left[\log_e \left\{ x + \sqrt{y^2 + x^2} \right\} \right]_a^{l+a}$$

$$= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 l} \left[\log_e \left\{ (l+a) + \sqrt{y^2 + (l+a)^2} \right\} - \log_e \left\{ a + \sqrt{y^2 + a^2} \right\} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 l} \left[\log_e \left[\frac{(l+a) + \sqrt{y^2 + (l+a)^2}}{a + \sqrt{y^2 + a^2}} \right] \right]$$

sp. case 3.

IF point P is on x-axis
then $y=0$.

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Eqn. (1) becomes:-

$$V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{l} \left[\log_e \left(\frac{2a+l}{a} \right) \right]$$

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log \left(1 + \frac{l}{a} \right) \right]$$

$\frac{1+a}{a} \cdot \frac{1}{a(1+\frac{l}{a})}$
 $V = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{a} \left[\log \left(\frac{1+a+l}{1+a} \right) \right]$

IF $l \ll a$, $V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{a}$, which is the value of potⁿ due to point charge q .

ii) If point P is \perp to the length of the wire.

Then, $a=0$, Eqn. (1) becomes

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log \left(\frac{l + \sqrt{y^2 + l^2}}{a + \sqrt{y^2 + l^2}} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log \left(\frac{l}{y} + \sqrt{1 + \frac{l^2}{y^2}} \right) \right]$$

Point P

IF Point P is far away from the wire i.e. $y \gg l$

$$\text{i.e. } \left[1 + \frac{l^2}{y^2} \right]^{1/2} = 1 + \frac{l^2}{2y^2}$$

$\frac{1}{2} \left[\log \left(\frac{2l + \sqrt{4l^2 + 4y^2}}{2l + \sqrt{4l^2 + 4y^2}} \right) \right]$
 $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\log \left(\frac{2l + 2\sqrt{l^2 + y^2}}{2l + 2\sqrt{l^2 + y^2}} \right) \right]$
 $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\log \left(\frac{l + \sqrt{l^2 + y^2}}{l + \sqrt{l^2 + y^2}} \right) \right]$

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log_e \left(1 + \frac{l}{y} \right) \right] = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \frac{l}{y}$$

$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{y}$ i.e. long uniformly charged wire behave as a point charge if the distⁿ of the point of obs. is far away from the wire.

$\frac{1}{y} + \sqrt{1 + \frac{l^2}{y^2}}$
 $\log \left(\frac{1}{y} + \sqrt{1 + \frac{l^2}{y^2}} \right)$

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log_e \left(\frac{a+l}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{(a+l)^2 + y^2}}{\sqrt{a^2 + y^2}} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log_e \left(\frac{a+l}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{(a+l)^2 + y^2}}{\sqrt{a^2 + y^2}} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log_e \left(\frac{a+l}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{(a+l)^2 + y^2}}{\sqrt{a^2 + y^2}} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log_e \left(\frac{2a+l}{2a} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{l} \left[\log_e \left(\frac{2a+l}{2a} \right) \right]$$

- (Electrostatic Potential)
- Q1 Explain the terms (i) Electric potential
(ii) Electric potential difference.

Ans \Rightarrow Electric potential: The amount of work done to bring a unit +ve charge from infinity to a given point in the electric field is called potential at that point is called Electric potential.

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Electric potential difference: The amount of work done to move a unit +ve charge from one point to another point in the electric field is called Electric potential difference.

- Q2. What is the relation betⁿ Electric field and Electric potential?

Ans \Rightarrow $\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$, \vec{E} is Electric field and V is Electric potential.

- Q3. What is the significance of -ve sign in the Equation.
- $$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$$

Ans \Rightarrow Negative sign shows that the Electric field points in the directⁿ of decreasing potential.

- Q4. What will be the value of \vec{E} (i) in a region where potential V is constant, (ii) at a point where $V=0$?

Ans \Rightarrow We know,

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$$

(i) When $V = \text{constant}$, $\vec{E} = 0$.

(ii) When $\vec{E} = \text{const.}$, then $V = 0$.

Q5. An Electrostatic field is curl free. Explain why?

Ans \Rightarrow

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$$

• Taking curl on both sides,

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla}V$$

$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla}V$, curl of gradient of scalar function is zero.

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

Thus, Electrostatic field \vec{E} is curl free or non-curl field.

CHAPTER - 4

Electric Current and Invariance of charge.

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Electric Current:— The Electric Current in a conductor depends upon on the flow of the amount of Electric charge (negative) in the conductor.

• Amount of electric charge flowing through cross-section of cond. per unit time.

Let Q be the electric charge crossing through a cross-section of a conductor in time t , then Electric current (I) through the conductor is given by

$I = \frac{Q}{t}$, In n electrons each charge crossing through a cross-section of conductor in time t , then the total electric charge passing through a cross-section of the conductor is

$$Q = ne, \quad I = \frac{Q}{t} = \frac{ne}{t}$$

If ΔQ be the net charge crossing a cross-section of conductor in time Δt , instantaneous value of electric current through the conductor is

$$I(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} \right] = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$

Unit of current: (i) SI Syst. The unit of current is Ampere (A).

Current is Equal to the one Ampere if one Coulomb of charge flows through the cross-section of the conductor in one sec.

$$1A = \frac{1C}{1s} \quad 1C = 3 \times 10^9 \text{ e.s.u.}$$

$$1A = \frac{1C}{1s} = \frac{3 \times 10^9 \text{ stat-Coulomb}}{1s} = 3 \times 10^9 \text{ Stat ampere}$$

(ii) C.G.S unit:— Current is equal to 1 e.m.u., if 1 e.m.u. of charge 3×10^{10} e.s.u. of charge = 10 C) flows through the cross-section of the conductor in one second.

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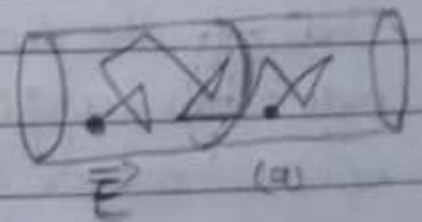
$$1 \text{ e.m.u.} = \frac{1 \text{ e.m.u. of charge}}{1s}$$

$$= \frac{3 \times 10^{10} \text{ e.s.u. of charge}}{1s}$$

$$= 3 \times 10^{10} \text{ e.s.u. of current}$$

* Electric Current in Conductors:—

In a conductor, the free electrons move randomly in zig-zag path



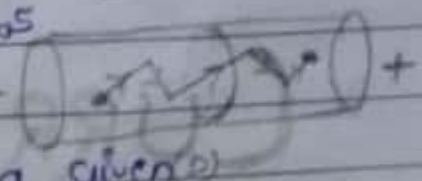
with a thermal speed of order of 10^5

to 10^6 ms^{-1} at room temp. The no.

of electrons (-ve charges) crossing a given

cross-section of the conductor to the right side is

Equal to the no. of electrons (-ve charges) crossing the cross-section of the cond. to left side. The



net flow of -ve charges through the
- section of the cond. is zero. There
is no electric current in
the conductor.

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Let us apply electric field $E = \left(\frac{V}{l}\right)$ across the
conductor by connecting its ends to battery.
 V is the potential difference across the ends of
the conductor of length l . Each electron experiences

• - since a force $\vec{F} = -e\vec{E}$ in the direction
opposite to the directⁿ of applied electric field.

The free electrons ~~are~~ in the conductor are
accelerated in the directⁿ of opposite to the
directⁿ of applied electric field. The accelerated e-
- tron remains in motion until it collides with an
ion in the crystal lattice of the conductor.

After collision, the electrons again accelerated under
influence of applied electric field and comes to
rest after colliding with ion of the crystal lattice.

The electrons in the conductor drift from one
end of the conductor to other end of the conductor
under the applied electric field with the drift velocity
of the order 10^{-4} ms^{-1} .

CURRENT DENSITY:-

The current density at any point defined as the
current flowing per unit area normal to the
directⁿ of current at that point. This is called

Current density. The direction of current density is the direction of positive charge at that point. An Electron at that point would move in the direction of \vec{J} .

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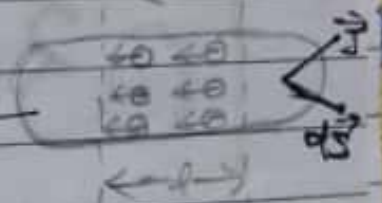
If current I is uniformly distributed across the uniformly cross-sectional area S , then the magnitude of current density for all points on that cross-section is given by

$\vec{J} = \frac{I}{S}$, General relationship betⁿ \vec{J} and I for a particular surface in a conductor is given by

102 $I = \iint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s}$, $d\vec{s}$ is the surface area of the element of the conductor and integral is taken over the whole surface.

Eqn. (2) is clearly that I is scalar bec^z $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s}$ is a scalar. ^{show} \wedge

Rise of Potential



Units of current density:

From Eqn. (i)

$$J = \frac{I}{S}$$

A \vec{E} \rightarrow B

Units of current density = $\frac{\text{Units of Current}}{\text{Units of area}}$

$$J = \frac{A}{m^2} = A m^{-2} \text{ Ans.}$$

Drift Velocity: → It is defined as the average velocity with which free electrons in a conductor drift in the direction of opposite the direction of applied electric field.

Consider a conductor of length l whose ends are connected to a battery of voltage V . The electric field $E = \frac{V}{l}$ is set up across the ends of the conductor.

The force acting on the electrons in the conductor is given by, $\vec{F} = -eE$. -ve sign shows that the direction of force on an electron is opposite to the direction of the electric field. The acceleration is produced in the electrons,

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$$\vec{a} = \frac{\vec{F}}{m} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{F} = -eE$$

The accelerated electron gain extra velocity but this velocity is destroyed at each collision between electron and ion in the conductor. At this time electron again accelerated by the electric force from its rest position. The average initial velocity of electron is zero.

Average velocity of all electrons is given by :-

$\vec{v}_d = u + at$ — (2), t is the average time betⁿ two successive collisions and is known as relaxation time.

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Let τ the time taken by the electron to achieve velocity \vec{v}_d , then $t = \frac{0+t}{2} = \frac{\tau}{2}$

But $\vec{u} = 0$ and $\vec{a} = -\frac{e\vec{E}}{m}$

i.e. Eqn. (2) becomes

$$\vec{v}_d = 0 - \frac{e\vec{E}\tau}{2m} \Rightarrow \vec{v}_d = -\frac{e\vec{E}\tau}{2m} \quad (3)$$

Drift velocity is the velocity with which electrons are drifted through the conductor under influence of an external field.

* Stationary or Steady Currents — Continuity Eqn. 1

The relation betⁿ current and current density is

$$I = \iint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{dq}{dt}$$

If the value of current density \vec{J} remains unchanged with time, the current is said to be steady.

Consider a closed surface enclosing volume V . If ρ be the charge density of Vol^m , then infinitesimally $\text{Vol}^m \cdot dV$, $\iiint \rho dV$ represents the total charge inside the Vol^m .

According to the law of conservation of charge, the rate of flow of charge through the enclosed surface is equal to the rate of decrease of charge in it.

$$\oint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\frac{d}{dt} \iiint_V \rho dV = -\iiint_V \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right) dV$$

Acc. to Gauss's divergence theorem

$$\oint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{J}) dV \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

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From relation (i) and (ii) we get

$$\iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{J}) dV = \iiint_V \left[-\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right] dV$$

Above relation holds good for arbitrary volume

So, $\nabla \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{d\rho}{dt} \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{J} + \frac{d\rho}{dt} = 0$ --- (iii)

Eqn. (iii) is called the **Eqn. of continuity** and represents the physical fact of conservation of charge.

When steady current flows through the conductor the electric charge do not accumulates at any point on the conductor. This means that the total amount of charge entering volume V through cross-section A is same as the total of charge leaving the volume V through section A' .

There is no change in the charge density in the volume V or $\frac{d\rho}{dt} = 0$

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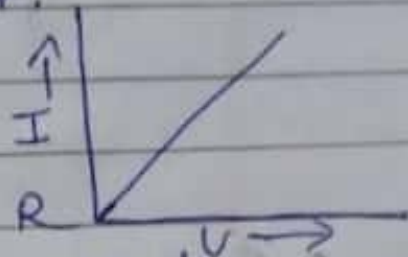
from Eqn. (iii) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$ for steady currents.
 $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$ (iv)

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OHM'S LAW:- The potential diff. betⁿ the ends of the conductor is directly proportional to the current flowing through it. It's called ohm's law.

Potential diff. & Current.

$$\frac{\text{P.D.}}{\text{Current}} = \text{Constt.}$$



This Constt. is called the resistance R of the conductor. If V be the potential diff. across the ends of the conductor through which current I flows.

$$\Rightarrow R = \frac{V}{I}$$

• **Resistance:-** It may be defined as that the ratio of potential diff. (V) betⁿ these points and current I , flowing through the conductor.

$$R = \frac{V}{I} \quad \text{General form of ohm's law.}$$

Unit of Resistance:- SI unit of resistance is ohm Ω .

• **Resistivity:**— Resistivity is a characteristic of material of conductor. It may be defined as that the ratio of electric field intensity to current density.

$$\rho = \frac{\text{Electric field intensity}}{\text{Current density}} = \frac{E}{J}$$

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Unit of Resistivity, SI unit $\rho = \frac{\Omega \times m^2}{m} = \Omega m$

Definition of Resistivity ρ :

$$\rho = R \cdot \frac{A}{l} \Rightarrow l = 1 \text{ unit}$$

$$A = 1 \text{ unit}$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho = R$$

• **Conductance and Conductivity:**— The reciprocal of resistance of known as conductance. Conductance is represented by G .

SI unit of Conductance is Ω^{-1} (mho) is called Simen.

$$G = \frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{\rho \cdot \frac{l}{A}} = \frac{1}{\rho} \cdot \frac{A}{l} = \sigma \cdot \frac{A}{l}$$

i.e. $\sigma = \frac{1}{\rho}$ is termed as the conductivity.

SI unit of Conductivity:—

$$G = \sigma \cdot \frac{A}{l}$$

$$\sigma = G \cdot \frac{l}{A} = \text{Simen} \times \frac{\text{metre}}{\text{metre}^2}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Simen}}{\text{metre}}$$

CHAPTER-5 Magnetism:

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Magnetic field: The space around a magnet within which its effect can be experienced. This field is known as magnetic field. It is denoted by (\vec{M}) .

Ampere's Circuital Law:

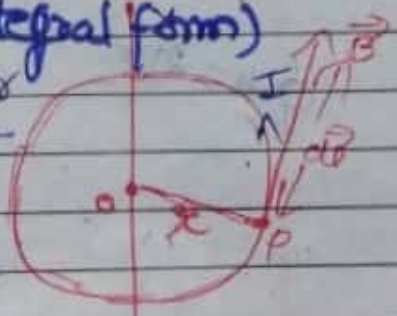
Ampere's Circuital Law: It states that the line integral of magnetic field (\vec{B}) around any closed circular path is equal to μ_0 (times) (permeability of free space). The total current I threading the closed circuit is called Ampere's Circuital Law.

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I$$

Integral form:

To prove the Ampere's Circuital Law for circular path in (Integral form)

Consider, a long straight conductor XY. Let point P be any point on the conductor. Current flows through the cond. X and Y due to current.



Magnetic field will be produced anticlockwise the direction of conductor. Magnetic field will be produced when the current flows through the wire.

Acc to Right hand rule:

Magnetic field at point P be tangent to the circular path.

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$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{P} = \oint B dl \cos 0^\circ$$

$$= B \oint dl$$

$$= \oint B dl \cdot 1, \vec{B} \text{ and } d\vec{P} \text{ are same in direction}$$

Now, Magnetic field due to current carrying straight conductor.

$$\Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 \cdot 2I}{4\pi r}$$

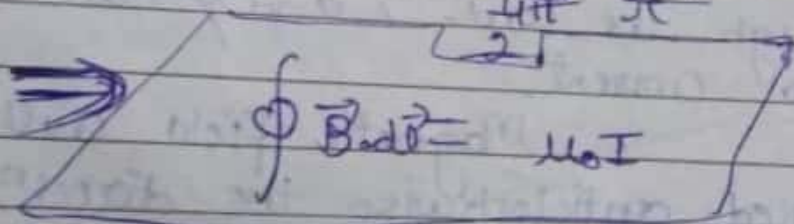
Substituting the value of magnetic field is given by:-

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \oint B dl = \oint \frac{\mu_0 \cdot 2I \cdot dl}{4\pi r}$$

$$= \frac{\mu_0 \cdot 2I}{4\pi r} \oint dl$$

$$= \frac{\mu_0 \cdot 2I}{4\pi r} \times 2\pi r$$

$$\oint dl = 2\pi r$$



The line integral of magnetic field \vec{B} around closed path bound current is Independent of path.

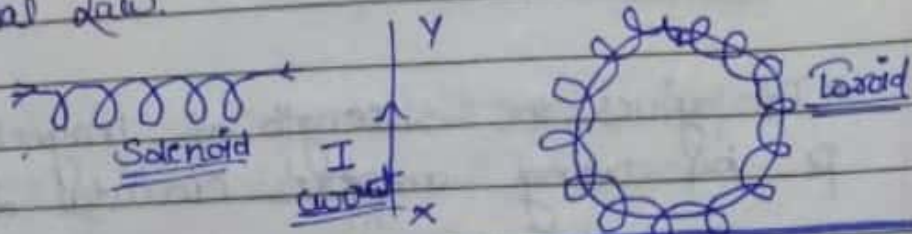
• If the closed path does not bound any current

$$\Rightarrow \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

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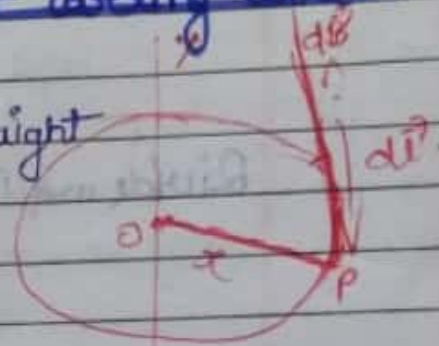
Applications of Ampere's circuital law -

- The Ampere's circuital law can be used to derive the expression of magnetic field due to straight line, Solenoid and toroid etc. Uses of Ampere's Circuital law.



Magnetic field due to current carrying wire

Consider an infinitesimally long straight wire XY. Suppose P is at point on the wire at distⁿ x from the centre of the wire.



We know that, the magnetic field will be produced, when current flows through the conductor.

Ampere's Circuital law.

$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l}$ = line integral of magnetic field along circular path.

⇒ Acc. to Ampere's circuital law,

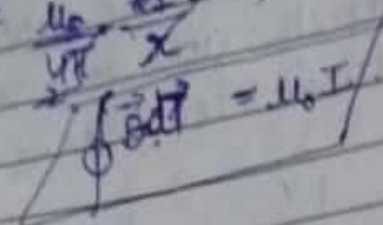
$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I \quad \text{--- (1)} \quad \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \oint B dl \cos 0^\circ$$

$$= B \oint dl$$

$$\oint dl = 2\pi r$$

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = B \cdot 2\pi r \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$= B \cdot 2\pi r$$

$$\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{2I}{r} \cdot 2\pi r = \mu_0 I$$


• It gives the strength of magnetic field at P by using ampere's circuital law.

putting eqn. (i) and (ii) we get

$$\Rightarrow B \cdot 2\pi r = \mu_0 I \Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$$

Divide and Multiply by $2\pi r$ we get.

$$\Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$$

$$\Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \text{ Ans.}$$

Curl of a magnetic field (Ampere's Circuital Law)

(Diff. form) Integral form—

Consider a region of space flowing through the current. The current density \vec{J} varies from point to point times.

So, The total steady current I is given by

$$I = \iint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Where, \vec{J} is the current density and $d\vec{s}$ is an element of the surface S ,

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

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put I in Eqn (2).

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 \iint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

⇒ Acc. to Stoke's theorem apply in (3) Eqn.

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint_S (\nabla \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{s} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

⇒ Eqn (4) is put in (3) Eqn.

$$\iint_S (\nabla \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \mu_0 \iint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}$$

$$\text{curl } \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}$$

i.e which is the differential form of Ampere's law.

• Magnetic field due to current carrying wire.

(i) Magnetic field outside the wire: —

let us consider a straight wire AB carrying current I. The magnetic field lines are concentric circles centered on the wire in planes perpendicular to wire.



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$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I \Rightarrow \oint B dl = \mu_0 I$$

$$\Rightarrow B \oint dl = \mu_0 I \Rightarrow B \cdot 2\pi r = \mu_0 I$$

$$\Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

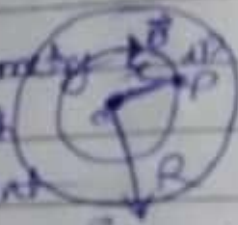
(ii) Magnetic field at the surface:—

If $r = R$

$$\text{Now, } B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi R} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

(iii) Magnetic field at a point inside the wire:—

Point p is inside the wire, then symmetry suggests that \vec{B} is tangent to the path of concentric circles. If the current is steady and uniformly distributed uniformly through the cross-section of the wire.



$$I' = \frac{I}{\pi R^2} \times \pi r^2 = \frac{I r^2}{R^2}$$

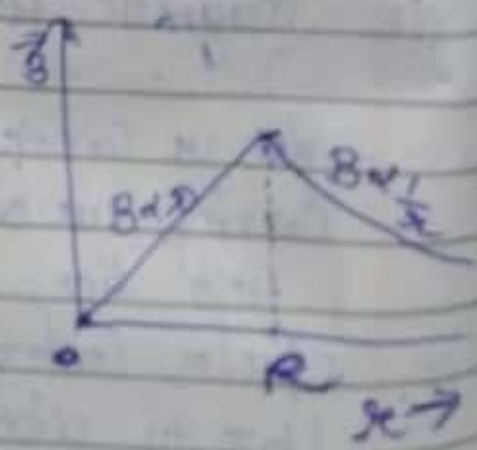
from Ampere's circuital law,

$$\Rightarrow \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I'$$

$$\Rightarrow B \cdot 2\pi r = \mu_0 \frac{I r^2}{R^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I r}{2\pi R^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I r}{2\pi R^2}$$



$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I n}{2\pi R^2} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

114 Magnetic field due to a long Solenoid

A Solenoid is tightly wound helical loop from an insulated wire. Its length is larger as compared to its diameter are called Solenoid.

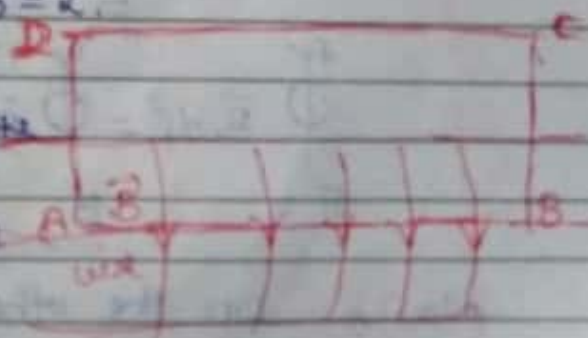


Consider a Solenoid having n turns from an insulated wire, Solenoid having n turns per unit length and current I is passed through the magnetic field. (Solenoid)

It may be also noted that, the magnetic field is produced by solenoid inside it is parallel to the (Solenoid) length of the Solenoid. To find, the magnetic field inside the Solenoid to take rectangular path from ABCD.

Such that, $AB = l$.

The no. of turns of the Solenoid is enclosed by the rectangle is equal to $n \cdot l$.



⇒ The current flows through it. Total current

Threading the solenoid.

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$AB = d$
 Total current $= (ndI)$

Acc. to Ampere's circuital law,

$$\Rightarrow \oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 (ndI) \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{1}$$

Now, Taking d.H.s

$$\oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_A^B \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_B^C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_C^D \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_D^A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

\Rightarrow AD and BC are \perp to each other, then

$$\Rightarrow \oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_A^D \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_B^A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

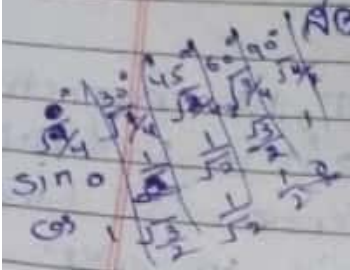
$$= \int_A^D B dl \cos 90^\circ + \int_B^A B dl \cos 90^\circ$$

$$= B \int_A^D dl + B \int_B^A dl = 0 + 0$$

$$= 0$$

$$\oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_B^A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

Now, on the other hand,



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$$\oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_A^B \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_B^D \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

⇒ Solenoid whose length is equal to its diameter. But, the magnetic field outside the solenoid is practically zero.

$$\text{Now, } \oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_C^D \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

$$\text{Now, } \oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_A^B \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_A^B B dl \cos 0^\circ$$

(dl = d)
 $\int dl = 2\pi r$

$$= B \int_A^B dl = Bd$$

$$\oint_{ABCD} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = Bd \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Put in Eqn. (1) we get
 $Bd = \mu_0 n I l$

$$\Rightarrow B = \mu_0 n I \quad \text{Ans}$$

Magnetic field due to toroidal solenoid :-

Consider a toroidal solenoid consisting an anchor ring at point O.

Let n be no. of turns per unit length of a solenoid wound of the ring.



Suppose that, current I is flowing through the toroid

Magnetic field is same at all the points on the circumference of the ring and its diameter is large to the circular ring.

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Acc. to Ampere's Circuital Law's -
 $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 \times I$ Current flowing through the solenoid.

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 (2\pi r n I) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Taking d.H.S.

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \oint B dl = B \oint dl$$

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = B 2\pi r \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

\Rightarrow put @ eqn. in (1) Eqn.

$$B 2\pi r = \mu_0 (2\pi r n I)$$

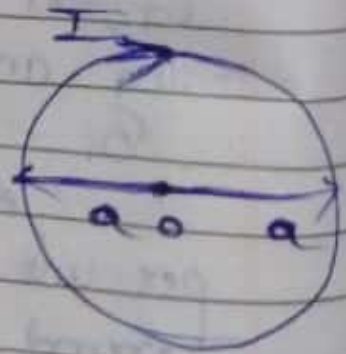
$$\Rightarrow \underline{B = \mu_0 n I} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Magnetic field due to ^{portion of} circular coil, carrying current.

Magnetic field due to $\frac{1}{2}$ portion of the coil.

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 \times 2\pi I}{4\pi a}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{B = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mu_0 \times \pi I}{4\pi a}}$$



which gives the acceleration in rotating frame \rightarrow multiplying by m

$m \vec{a}_R = m \vec{a}_S - 2m(\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_R) - m\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})$

$\vec{F}_R = \vec{F}_S + \vec{F}_{Cor} + \vec{F}_{Centri}$

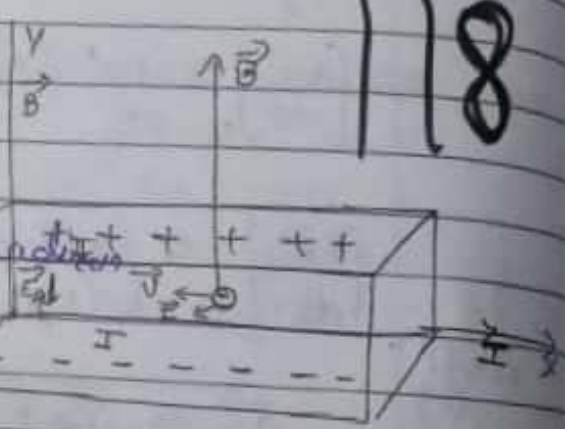
Here, $\vec{F}_{Cor} = -2m(\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_R)$ is the Coriolis force

$\vec{F}_{Centri} = -m\vec{\omega} \times \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}$ is the Centrifugal force

Physics:-

|| Add EFFECT :- When a conductor (metal or

Semiconductor) carrying current is placed in transverse magnetic field, an electric field is produced inside the conductor in direction normal to both current and magnetic field. This is known as Hall Effect.



It was discovered by E.H. Hall

Hall Effect helps us to know about the nature of charge carriers.

Case I :-

Negatively charged particles:-

Consider a conductor through which the current flows along with positive x-axis. The negatively charged particles are electrons (e). Let a uniform magnetic field \vec{B} acts along in direction of y-axis.

Then Each Electron experiences a magnetic force is given by:-

$\vec{F} = -e(\vec{v} \times \vec{B})$

$\vec{v} =$ Drift velocity of electrons

Acc. to Fleming's left hand rule, the direction of force \vec{F} acts along z-axis. The current carriers (Electrons) are deflected towards z-axis.

Transverse p.d are called Hall Voltage
 \Rightarrow Transverse potential diff. or electric field is called Hall field.

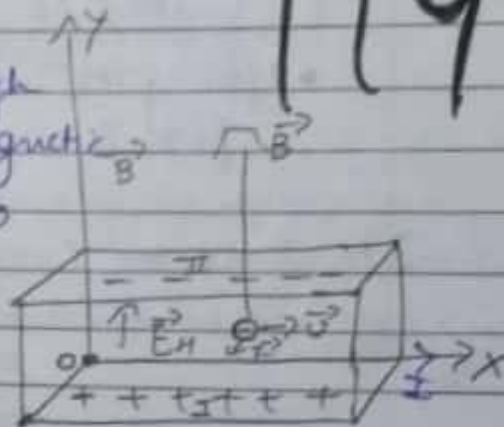
Case II :-

Positively charged particles :-
 Let I current is flowing through the cond. along x-axis, and magnetic field \vec{B} acts along y-axis. If the current carriers are holes.

Each hole experience a force i.e

$$\vec{F} = +e(\vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

\vec{v} = drift velocity of the hole.



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\Rightarrow Acc. to Fleming's left hand Rule, the direction of this force \vec{F} is along z-axis. They will move towards face I. face I becomes positively charged and face II becomes -vely charged.

Conclusion :- (i) If the face I is -vely charged due to flow of current through the specimen along y-axis, current carriers are Electrons, given specimen is Conductor

(ii) If face I is +vely charged due to flow of current through the specimen along x-axis, current carriers are holes, given specimen is semiconductor.

* Hall Effect [Expression for Hall Constant]

\vec{E}_H is the Hall field along z-direction. Current carriers are 'e' is $e\vec{E}_H$.

Magnetic force on the current carriers $e(\vec{v}_d \times \vec{B})$

Net force on the current carriers is zero:-

$$eE_H + e(v_d \times B) = 0$$

$$E_H = -v_d \times B \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

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i.e. B is \perp to v_d

$$E_H = -v_d B \sin \theta$$

$$E_H = -v_d B \sin 90^\circ$$

$$\Rightarrow E_H = -v_d B \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

• Hall field is directly proportional to magnetic field B .

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If J be the current density in the x -direction

$$J = ne v_d$$

$\Rightarrow n =$ Conc. of current carriers

$\Rightarrow v_d =$ Drift velocity of charge carriers

Hall voltage is given by $\Rightarrow v_d = \frac{J}{ne}$ --- (ii) $\cdot d$ is the distⁿ betⁿ faces I and II .

$$\Rightarrow V_H = E_H d \Rightarrow E_H = \frac{V_H}{d}$$

Using eqn (1) $V_H = E_H d = -v_d B d \Rightarrow v_d = \frac{E_H}{B}$

Substituting this value in eqn (ii)

$$\frac{E_H}{B} = -v_d B$$

$$\frac{E_H}{B} = \frac{J}{ne} \text{ or } \frac{E_H}{JB} = \frac{1}{ne} = R_H$$

i.e. R_H is called Hall constant or Hall Coefficient.

3. * Determination of Hall Coeff.:-

Hall Co-eff. is given by:-

$$R_H = \frac{E_H}{JB} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$



Cond. of width w and thickness d connected with battery is placed in uniform magnetic field B .

Area of cross-section of cond $A = d \times w$.

$$\Rightarrow \text{Current density } J = \frac{I}{A} = \frac{I}{d \times w}$$

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$$\Rightarrow E_H = \frac{V_H}{d}$$

(1) Eqn. becomes: -

$$R_H = \frac{V_H}{\frac{I}{d \times w} \times B} \Rightarrow R_H = \frac{V_H \times d \times w}{I \times B}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[R_H = \frac{V_H \times w}{I \times B} \right] \text{ * knowing the values of } V_H, w, I \text{ and } B, \text{ we can}$$

* Applications of Hall Effect: - determine the Hall Co-eff. (R_H) Ans

i) Determination of Carrier Concentration: -

$$R_H = \frac{1}{ne}$$

Hall Coeff.

$$\left[n = \frac{1}{R_H \cdot e} \right]$$

(ii) Determination of type of Semiconductor: -

$$\left[R_H = \frac{1}{ne} \right] \text{ For n-type semicond. carrier for current}$$

carriers are electrons, R_H will be $-ve$ and p-type semicond. current carriers are holes, R_H will be $+ve$.

Uses of Hall Effect: -

(i) It is used to find the nature of charge carriers.

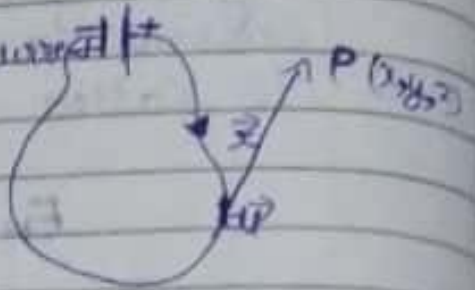
(ii) It is used to find the no. of charge carriers.

Divergence of Magnetic field vector \vec{B} .

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- Diff. form of Gauss's theo in magneto-static.

Magnetic field produced by a current element $I d\vec{l}$ at a point $P(x, y, z)$.



Acc. to Biot's (Savart) theo: -

$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I d\vec{l} \times \vec{r}}{4\pi r^3}$$

Magnetic field at point P due to whole current loop: -

$$\oint d\vec{B} = \oint \frac{\mu_0 I d\vec{l} \times \vec{r}}{4\pi r^3}$$

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint \frac{d\vec{l} \times \vec{r}}{r^3} \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{1}$$

Taking divergence on both sides, we get

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint \nabla \cdot \left[\frac{d\vec{l} \times \vec{r}}{r^3} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint \nabla \cdot \left[\frac{d\vec{l} \times \vec{r}}{r^3} \right] \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{2}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\vec{A} \times \vec{B}) = \vec{B} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{A}) - \vec{A} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{B})$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint \left[\frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} \cdot (\nabla \times d\vec{l}) - d\vec{l} \cdot (\nabla \times \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3}) \right]$$

dP is not function of x, y and z so $\vec{\nabla} \times dP = 0$.

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i.e. $\vec{\nabla} \times \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = -\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = 0$ (4)

$\int \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = -\vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right)$

Curl of gradient is zero.

$\vec{\nabla} \times \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = -\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = 0 = 0$ (5)

Using Eqn. (4) and (5) Eqn. (3) becomes $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ (6)

Divergence of \vec{B} is zero.

A vector whose divergence is zero is called Solenoidal. Eqn. (6) is called differential form of Gauss's law in magnetostatics.

Diff. betⁿ. Electrostatic field and Magnetostatic field.

Electrostatic field

Magnetostatics field

(i) Electrostatic field is due to charges ~~are~~ at rest or in motion.

Magnetostatics / Magnetic field is due to only in motion.

(ii) line integral of ~~magn~~ Electric field along a closed path is zero.

line integral of magnetic field is equal to μ_0 times.

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

The total current threading the circuit,

$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I$

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(iii) $\text{curl of } \vec{E} = \nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$

$\text{curl } \vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j}$

(iv) $\text{div } \vec{E} = \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho/\epsilon_0$

$\text{div } \vec{B} = \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$

(v) It is conservative in nature.

It is non conservative in nature.

Q1:- What do you understand by toroid?

Ans:- Toroid:- A toroid is just a solenoid of finite length bent into a circle so that it has no ends. It is also called anchor ring.

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Magnetic Vector Potential:-

Acc to magnetostatics is,
 $\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ (1)

If \vec{A} is another vector such that
 $\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}$ (2)

$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \nabla \cdot \nabla \times \vec{A}$ (3)

Divergence of curl is always zero

$\nabla \cdot \nabla \times \vec{A} = 0$ (3)

Comparing eqn (1) and (3),
 $\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}$

A vector \vec{A} is known as magnetic vector potential

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★ Expression of Magnetic Vector Potential (A).

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Acc. to Biot-Savart's law,

$$dB \rightarrow = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{dl \times \vec{r}}{r^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Instead of current element, consider a vol^m distribution of current. We can write $d\vec{l} = \vec{J} ds$ for a vol^m element

$\left(\frac{1}{s} = \vec{J}\right)$

$$I d\vec{l} = \int \frac{1}{s} ds \vec{l} = \int \vec{J} \cdot ds = \int \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{v}$$

Eqn (1),

$$dB \rightarrow = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{\int \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{v} \times \vec{r}}{r^2} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \left(\frac{\vec{J} \times \vec{r}}{r^2} \right) d\vec{v}$$

Magnetic field \vec{B} at any point at a distⁿ x from the vol^m distribution of current of vol^m density \vec{J}

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint_V \left(\frac{\vec{J} \times \vec{r}}{r^2} \right) d\vec{v}$$

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint_V \vec{J} \times \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) d\vec{v}$$

⇒ Vector identity:—

$$-\vec{J} \times \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \times \vec{J} = \vec{\nabla} \times \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{J}$$

for steady current $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{J} = 0$

$$-\vec{J} \times \vec{r} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \vec{r} \times \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right)$$

Eqn. (2) becomes

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \vec{r} \times \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv$$

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$$\vec{B} = \vec{r} \times \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{B} = \text{curl } \vec{A} = \vec{r} \times \vec{A}$$

$$\vec{r} \times \vec{A} = \vec{r} \times \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{A} = \vec{r} \times \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv$$

(e) where \vec{A} is called Vector potential.

[Divergence of \vec{A}]

$$\vec{A} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv$$

Acc. to the definition of vector potential:-

$$\vec{A} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv$$

Taking the divergence of both sides,

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv$$

$$= \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iiint \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) dv \dots \text{--- (1)}$$

Acc. to Gauss's divergence theorem -

$$\iiint_V \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) d\omega = \iint_S \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) \cdot d\vec{s}$$

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$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \iint_S \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) \cdot d\vec{s} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

For finite current distribution, $\vec{J} = 0$ at infinity. Since the integral of Eqn. (1) is on the bounding surface at infinity,

$$\iint_S \left(\frac{\vec{J}}{r} \right) \cdot d\vec{s} = 0,$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

CHAPTER-6

Field of Moving charges

i.e. charge is invariant quantity i.e.

$$\oint_{S(t)} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \oint_{S'(t')} \vec{E}' \cdot d\vec{s}'$$

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The transformation Equations for the Components of electric field is:—

$$\begin{aligned} E'_x &= E_x \\ E'_y &= E_y \\ E'_z &= E_z \end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

Q1: What is the diff. betⁿ charge invariance and charge Conservation?

Ans:— Charge invariance means that charge does not change with the motion of charged body called charge invariance and charge Conservation means charge of an isolated system remains always const.

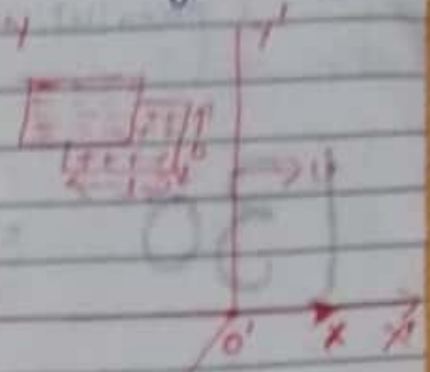
Q2:— Derive the relation betⁿ the Components of Electric field in laboratory frame and moving frame of reference and show:—

$$E'_{||} = E_{||} \quad \text{and} \quad E'_{\perp} = \gamma E_{\perp}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

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Ans:- Consider two parallel thin sheet having charge density σ and $-\sigma$ is placed in a stationary in a frame of reference S . Let l be the length and b be the breadth of the each plate. We have to take another frame of reference S' moving along positive direction of X -axis with velocity u .



We have to hence have three cases

Case I:- When the sheets are parallel to YZ plane such that the electric field is along X -axis.

Electric field along direction of X -axis is,

Since, frame S , the electric field is,

$$E_x = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$(\sigma = \frac{q}{ab})$$

$$\Rightarrow E_x = \frac{q}{ab \times \epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

\Rightarrow Also, in the frame S' , if E'_x is

$$\Rightarrow E'_x = \frac{\sigma'}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- (2), } \sigma \text{ is the charge density on each plate.}$$

$$\sigma' = \frac{q'}{l'b'} = \frac{q}{l'b'} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} q' = q \text{ due to invariance of charge} \end{array} \right.$$

the motion is along X-axis, and l and b are parallel to Y and Z-axis.

$$l' = l \text{ and } b' = b.$$

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Eqn. (2) becomes,

$$E'_x = \frac{\sigma'}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{q}{l'b'\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E'_x = \frac{q}{lb\epsilon_0}$$

$$\text{Now, } \underline{E'_x = E_x} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Case II:— When the sheets are parallel to XZ plane i.e. the electric field is along Y-axis.

In frame S:—

let E_y be the electric field as observed in frame S.

$$E_y = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$E_y = \frac{q}{lb\epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

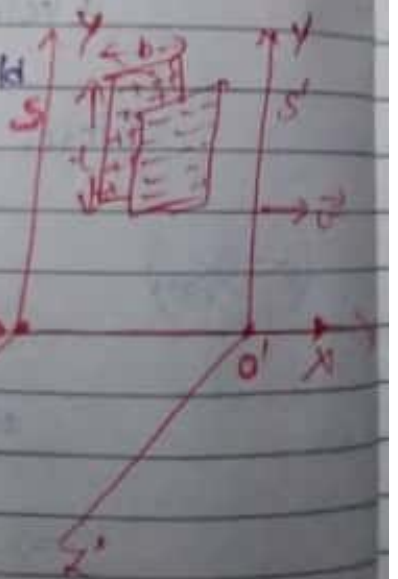
In frame S':

let E'_y be the electric field as observed in frame S'.

$$E'_y = \frac{\sigma'}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E'_y = \frac{\sigma'}{lb'\epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

Since, b' is the length of the sheets in the Y-direction.



$$b' = b$$

[3]

Since l' is lying parallel to x -axis, length contraction occurs,

$$l' = l \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} = \frac{l}{\gamma}$$

Where, $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$

Eqn. (5) can be written as,

$$E_y = \frac{q}{\frac{l}{\gamma} b \epsilon_0} = \gamma \frac{q}{l b \epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E'_y = \gamma E_y$$

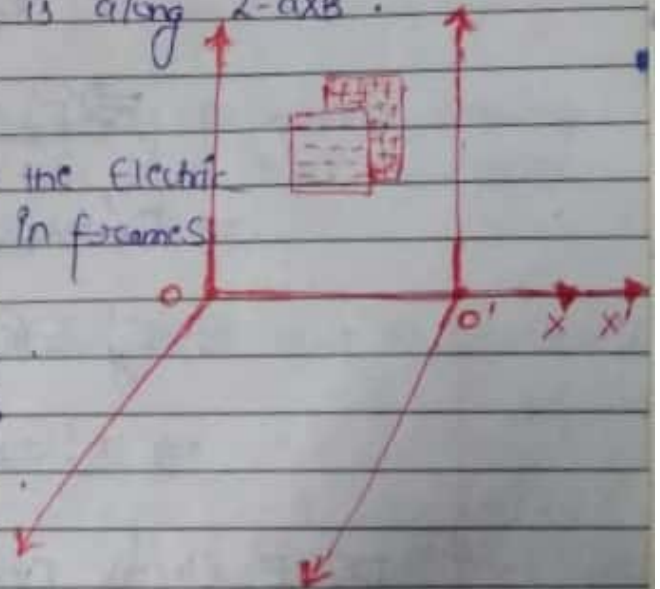
Case III: — When the sheets are parallel to XY plane, i.e. Electric field is along Z -axis.

In frame S : —

Let E_z be the Electric field as observed in frame S .

$$E_z = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow E_z = \frac{q}{l b \epsilon_0}$$

$$E_z = \frac{q}{l b \epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{+}$$



In frame S' : —

Let E'_z be the Electric field as observed in frame S .

$$E'_z = \frac{\sigma'}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{q}{l' b' \epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{+}$$

d is \parallel to x -axis, it does not get contracted.

$$d' = d$$

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But, since b is \parallel to y -axis, length contraction takes place is,

$$b' = b \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

$$= \frac{b}{\gamma} \quad \text{where } \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

Eqn. (1) becomes -

$$E'_z = \frac{q}{b' \epsilon_0} = \frac{q}{\frac{b \epsilon_0}{\gamma}} = \gamma \frac{q}{b \epsilon_0} = \gamma E_z$$

$$\Rightarrow E'_z = \gamma E_z$$

$$\Rightarrow E'_x = E_x$$

$$\Rightarrow E'_y = \gamma E_y$$

$$\Rightarrow E'_z = \gamma E_z$$

If \vec{E} Electric field measured in frame S due to charges stationary in it and \vec{E}' is Electric field measured in system S' moving with velocity v .

Electric field along the direction of motion

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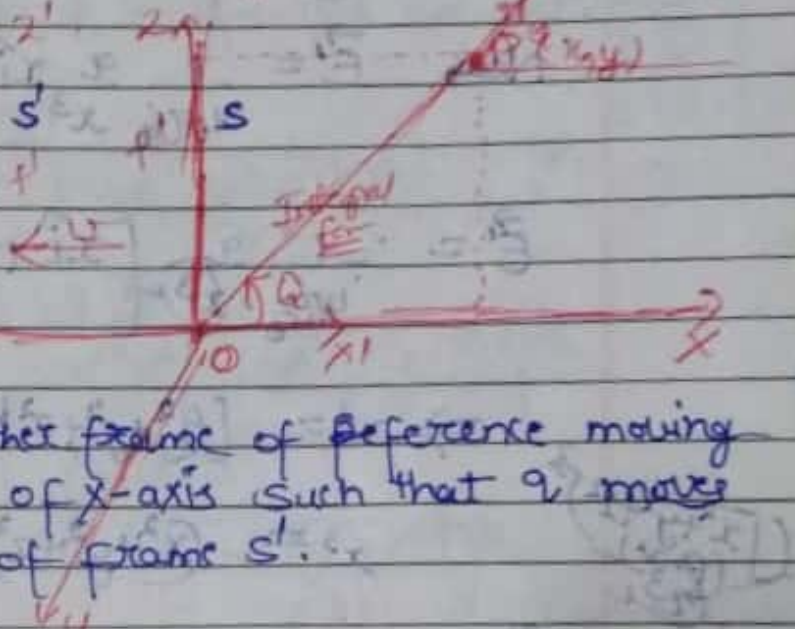
$$E_{\parallel} = E_{\parallel}$$

$$E_{\perp} = \gamma E_{\perp}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

Q.1 - Derive an expression for an electric field of a charge moving with velocity v .

Ans - Consider a charge q is placed in laboratory frame where the charge is at rest.



Let S' be the another frame of reference moving along +ve direction of x -axis such that q moves along -ve y axis of frame S' .

Let \vec{E} be the electric field due to observed as frame S is,

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^3} \vec{r} \Rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^3} (x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k})$$

$$E_x = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^3} x \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$E_y = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^3} y \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$E_z = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^3} z \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

If \vec{E} be the Electric field due to q as observed in frame S' .

Now, $E'_x = E_x, E'_y = \gamma E_y, E'_z = \gamma E_z$.

Now, $\vec{E}' = E'_x \hat{i} + E'_y \hat{j} + E'_z \hat{k}$.

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$\vec{E}' = E_x \hat{i} + \gamma E_y \hat{j} + \gamma E_z \hat{k}$

Using Eqns. (1), (2) and (3) we get.

Now, $\vec{E}' = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^3} x \hat{i} + \frac{\gamma}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^3} y \hat{j} + \frac{\gamma}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^3} z \hat{k}$

$\vec{E}' = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{x^3} [x \hat{i} + \gamma y \hat{j} + \gamma z \hat{k}]$ (4)

$\Rightarrow x^3 = [x^2 + y^2 + z^2]^{3/2}$

$(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2})^3$

$x^3 = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}$

$x = \gamma x', y = y' \text{ and } z = z'$

$x^3 = \frac{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}{\gamma^2}$

$x^3 = [(\gamma x')^2 + y'^2 + z'^2]^{3/2}$

$= \frac{1}{\gamma^3} [x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2]^{3/2}$

$= (\gamma^2 x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}$

$= [(\gamma x')^2 + y'^2 + z'^2]^{3/2}$

$x^3 = (\gamma^2 x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}$

$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$
 $\gamma^2 = \frac{1}{1 - v^2/c^2} \Rightarrow \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2} = \frac{1}{\gamma}$

$v/c = \beta$

$$x^3 = \gamma^3 [x'^2 + (1-\beta^2)(y'^2 + z'^2)]^{3/2}$$

$$= \gamma^3 [x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 - \beta^2(y'^2 + z'^2)]^{3/2}$$

$$= \gamma^3 [x'^2 - \beta^2(y'^2 + z'^2)]^{3/2}$$

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$$x^3 = \gamma^3 x'^3 [1 - \beta^2 \frac{(y'^2 + z'^2)}{x'^2}]^{3/2} \quad (5)$$

$$\Rightarrow x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k} = \gamma x'\hat{i} + \gamma y'\hat{j} + \gamma z'\hat{k} = \gamma \vec{x}' \quad (6)$$

Using (5) and (6) in Eqn. (4) we get:

$$\vec{E}' = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q \gamma \vec{x}'}{\gamma^3 x'^3 [1 - \beta^2 \frac{(y'^2 + z'^2)}{x'^2}]^{3/2}}$$

$$\vec{E}' = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q \vec{x}'}{x'^3 \gamma^2 [1 - \beta^2 \frac{(y'^2 + z'^2)}{x'^2}]^{3/2}}$$

$$\vec{E}' = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q (1-\beta^2) \vec{x}'}{x'^3 [1 - \beta^2 \frac{(y'^2 + z'^2)}{x'^2}]^{3/2}}$$

which gives the Electric field due to moving charges. $\left[\gamma^2 = \frac{1}{1-\beta^2} \right]$

(conditions)

(i) $v \ll c, \beta = \frac{v}{c}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{v}{c} \ll 1, \beta \ll 1$. Now, we can neglect $(1-\beta^2)$.

$$E' = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x'^2}$$

(ii) $E' = \frac{q(1-\beta^2)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x'^2} \left[\frac{1}{1-\beta^2 \sin^2 \theta'} \right]^{3/2}$ q is dependent

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If $Q=0$ (a) $E'_{||} = \frac{Q(1-\beta^2)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'^2}$
charge velocity move

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(b) $E'_{\perp} = \frac{Q(1-\beta^2)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'^2(1-\beta^2)^{3/2}}$

$\Rightarrow E'_{\perp} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r'^2(1-\beta^2)^{1/2}}$

(PART 2)

From (1) Eqn: —

$$\Rightarrow \sin x = 0 + x(1) + \frac{x^3}{6}(-1) + \frac{x^5}{120}(-1) + \dots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \frac{\sin(n\pi/2)}{2} + \frac{x^n}{n!} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$$

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$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120} - \dots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \frac{\sin(n\pi/2)}{2} + \frac{x^n}{n!} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$$

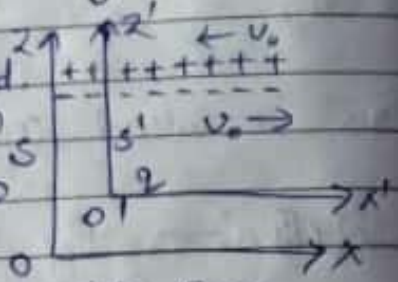
$(\frac{n\pi}{2})$, $(\frac{n\pi}{2}) < \frac{\pi}{2}$

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Physics: —

Interaction betⁿ moving charge and other moving charges:—

Consider two parallel cond. carrying current in the same direction. Each other force comes into the play when the charges are in motion. Such forces are called magnetic force.



Ampere put forward hypothesis that a mag. field contain permanent circulating electric currents. Hence mag. interaction of electric current is corollary of Coulomb's law, if the postulates of relativity are valid.

Interaction betⁿ moving charges, Consider a syst^m consisting a long array of positive charge moving towards left with a speed v_0 and superimposed on it and array of -ve charge moving towards right with the same speed v_0 .

Let the linear charge density of +ve and -ve charges are measured in lab. frame be λ_0 . Net charge density of the line in the lab. frame is zero. It means that, Electric field E in lab. frame is zero a neutral wire carrying steady current.

In lab frame, the +ve and -ve charges distribution would be contracted (length contraction) X-direct. by factor $[1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}]^{1/2}$ which would be very dense in frame in which +ve and -ve charges at rest.

The d.c.d λ in the moving frame of reference is related to λ_0 by the i-

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \left(1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

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If test charge q is at rest, then ~~they~~ it will not experience any force bec^z the \vec{E} is zero.

Consider a frame S' moving with test charge. The mag. of velocity of +ve charges in frame S' is

$$v_+^{\prime} = \frac{v_0 - v}{1 - \frac{v_0 v}{c^2}} = \frac{c^2 (v_0 - v)}{c^2 - v_0 v} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

-ve charges is:-

$$v_-^{\prime} = \frac{v_0 + v}{1 + \frac{v_0 v}{c^2}} = \frac{c^2 (v_0 + v)}{c^2 + v_0 v} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

\Rightarrow linear charge density of +ve charges in S' .

$$\lambda_+^{\prime} = \frac{\lambda}{\left(1 + \frac{v_+^{\prime 2}}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}} = \lambda_0 \frac{\left(1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}}{\left(1 + \frac{v_+^{\prime 2}}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}}$$

$$\lambda_+^{\prime} = \lambda_0 \frac{\gamma_+^{\prime}}{\gamma_0} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\gamma_0 = \frac{1}{\left[1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right]^{1/2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_+^{\prime} = \frac{1}{\left[1 - \frac{v_+^{\prime 2}}{c^2}\right]^{1/2}} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

\Rightarrow linear charge density of -ve charges in frame S' .

$$\lambda_-^{\prime} = \lambda_0 \frac{\gamma_-^{\prime}}{\gamma_0}$$

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Date

$$\lambda'_+ - \lambda'_- = \frac{\lambda_0}{\gamma_0} [\gamma'_+ - \gamma'_-] \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

using Eqn. (5)

$$\lambda'_+ - \lambda'_- = \frac{\lambda_0}{\gamma_0} \left[\frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}} - \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}} \right] \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

Now,

$$\left[\frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}} - \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}} \right] = \frac{1}{\left[1 - \frac{c^4 (v_0 - v)^2}{c^2 (c^2 - v_0 v)^2}\right]^{1/2}} - \frac{1}{\left[1 - \frac{c^4 (v_0 + v)^2}{c^2 (c^2 - v_0 v)^2}\right]^{1/2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\left[1 - \frac{c^2 (v_0 - v)^2}{(c^2 - v_0 v)^2}\right]^{1/2}} - \frac{1}{\left[1 - \frac{c^2 (v_0 + v)^2}{(c^2 - v_0 v)^2}\right]^{1/2}} = \frac{c^2 - v_0 v - c^2 v_0 v}{(c^2 - v_0 v)^2}$$

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$$= \frac{-2 v_0 v}{\left[(c^2 - v_0 v)^2 (c^2 - v_0 v)^2\right]^{1/2}} = \frac{-2 v_0 v}{c^2 \left(1 - \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2} \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}}$$

$$= -\frac{2 v_0 v \gamma_0 \gamma}{c^2}$$

Substitute this value in Eqn. (8), we get net d.c.D

$$\lambda'_+ - \lambda'_- = \frac{\lambda_0}{\gamma_0} \left[\frac{-2 v_0 v \gamma_0 \gamma}{c^2} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{2 \lambda_0 \gamma_0 v}{c^2} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

Eqn. (10) gives the d.c.D of the wire as meas. in S'.

Electric field E' due to this d.c.D in frame S' is:

$$E' = \frac{(\lambda'_+ - \lambda'_-)}{2\pi \epsilon_0 r}$$

where r is the dist. of the charge.

$$E' = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0 r} = \frac{-2 \lambda_0 \gamma_0 v}{c^2}$$

$$E = -\frac{2 \lambda_0 \gamma_0 v}{r \pi \epsilon_0 c^2} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

$c = (\text{Velocity of light}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$
 $c^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}$. i.e. μ_0 is the permeability of free space and ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space.

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Substituting the value of c^2 in Eqn (10),

$$E' = -\frac{2\lambda_0 r V_0 V}{2\pi \epsilon_0 x \cdot 1} \Rightarrow E' = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{4\lambda_0 r V_0 V}{x} \quad (11)$$

Force on charge q as measured in S' is:—

$$F'_z = q E' = \frac{dq'_z}{dt'} = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{4q \lambda_0 r V_0 V}{x^2} \quad (12)$$

$$F_z = \frac{1}{\gamma} F'_z = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{4q \lambda_0 r V_0 V}{x^2} \quad (13)$$

(9) $(I = I)$ the current through the wire are measured in S due to the motion of charges.

$$F_z = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{2I_0 I}{x} \quad (14)$$

\Rightarrow A arrays of charges carry current in the same direction! -ve sign in (14) Eqn shows the +ve array of charges is attracted towards the -ve array of charges.

$\Rightarrow F_z$ is proportional to the product of current,
 \Rightarrow " is inversely prop to the dist².

CHAPTER-7
Capacitor and properties
of Dielectrics:

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Q1:- What is a Capacitor?

Ans:- **Capacitor:**— A system consisting of two conductors carrying equal and opposite charges separated by a certain distⁿ. through a non-(uniform) conducting medium is known as capacitor.

• It is used to store charge and energy in the form of the electric field.

Q2: Define Capacitance of Capacitor. State and define its SI units?

Ans:- Capacitance of a capacitor is defined as that the ratio of magnitude of charge on the capacitor to the potential difference betⁿ the conductors of the capacitor.

$$C = \frac{Q}{V}$$

The SI unit of capacitance of conductor is Faraday, (F).

Q3: Define polarization Vector? State its SI unit?

Ans:- **Polarization Vector:**— It may be defined as that the ratio of induced dipole moment to the vol^m. of the subⁿ. is called polarization vector.

SI unit of P.V :- Cm^{-2}

Q6: What is a dielectric?

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Ans:— A dielectric is an insulating material in which all the electrons are tightly bounded to the nuclei of the atom, and there are no free electrons available for conduction of currents. Under the application of external electric field these materials can be polarized.

Q7: Define dielectric constant?

Ans:— It may be defined as that the ratio of original electric field E_0 to the reduced value of the electric field (E) inside dielectric when it is placed in betⁿ parallel plates of capacitance are called Dielectric Constt.

Q8: Why is the dielectric strength of vacuum is infinite?

Ans:— Dielectric strength of vacuum is infinite bec^z there are no molecule in (the) vacuum to be polarized.

Q9: An atom having spherically charge distribution is non-polar? why?

Ans:— It is non-polar, bec^z in case of spherically symmetric charge distribution the positive charge centre coincide with the negative charge centre.

Q10: What is meant by dielectric strength of a dielectric?

Ans:— It is the maximum value of electric field that a dielectric

Q4: What is difference bet? free charges and bound charges?

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Ans:- The Electric charges on the plates of the capacitor are called **Free charges**. They can move freely. On the other hand, the charges induced on the opposite sides of dielectrics due to polarization. Hence, it is called **bound charges**.

Q5: Distinguish bet? polar and non-polar molecules?

Ans:- **Polar molecules.** **Non-polar molecules.**

(i) The molecules in which the centre of mass of the positive charge does not coincide with the negative charge are called polar molecules.

(i) The molecules in which the centre of mass of the positive charge coincides with negative charge are called non-polar molecules.

(ii) They have a net dipole moment.

(ii) They have a zero dipole moment.

(iii) Ex. of polar molecules are HCl and H_2O etc.

(iii) Ex. of N.P. M are CO_2 , CH_4 etc.

material without breakdown when placed in an Electric field.

Q10: State the factors on which dielectric strength depends?

Ans:— The dielectric strength depends upon the shape of the dielectric material. It also depends upon the medium that surrounds the insulator.

Q11: Express the Clausius - Mossotti Eqn?

Ans:— Clausius - Mossotti Eqn:—

$$\alpha = \frac{3\epsilon_0}{N} \left[\frac{K-1}{K+2} \right]$$

Q12: Molecules consisting of dissimilar atoms are usually polar. Why?

Ans:— It is due to fact that molecules consisting of dissimilar atoms are usually polar as asymmetric charge distribution.
Ex:— In an Ionic molecule, the electrons are transferred from one atom to the same other atom in the molecule.

Q13: Define relative permittivity and dielectric constant. What is the relation betⁿ them?

Ans:— Relative permittivity:— The ratio of the force acting betⁿ two charges placed in a vacuum to the force acting betⁿ the same charges placed at same distⁿ apart in medium. It is called Relative permittivity.

• **Dielectric Constant:**— The ratio of original Electric field (E_0) to the reduced value of the Electric field is called Dielectric Constant.

The relative permittivity is Equal to dielectric Const. :-

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{\epsilon_r} = K$$

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Q1:- Derive molecular interpretation of Clausius-Mossotti Equation?

Ans:- **Clausius-Mossotti Eqn.:**— Consider a spherical cavity of radius x surrounding a point p inside a polarized dielectric placed in the Electric field produced in betⁿ. the plates of parallel plate of capacitor. Let p lies at the centre of the cavity. The Electric field at point p is called molecular Electric field is,

$$E_m = E_1 + E_2 + E_3 + E_4.$$

• E_1 is the External electric field applied when there is no dielectric.

$$E_1 = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

• E_2 is the Electric field intensity due to polarization of dielectric. The magnitude of the Electric field is due to :-

$$E_2 = \frac{\sigma_p}{\epsilon_0}$$

• E_3 is the Electric field intensity due to polarization of the surface of the cavity,

$$\frac{\vec{P}}{n\alpha} = \vec{E} + \frac{\vec{P}}{3\epsilon_0} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\vec{P}}{n\alpha} - \frac{\vec{P}}{3\epsilon_0} = \vec{E}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \left[\frac{1}{n\alpha} - \frac{1}{3\epsilon_0} \right] \vec{P} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{P} = \frac{\vec{E}}{\left[\frac{1}{n\alpha} - \frac{1}{3\epsilon_0} \right]} \quad (3)$$

We know that $\vec{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi \vec{E} = \epsilon_0 (K-1) \vec{E}$.
(Krai)

Comparing Eqn. (3) and (4)

$$\epsilon_0 (K-1) = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{n\alpha} - \frac{1}{3\epsilon_0} \right)}$$

\Rightarrow Solving the above expression,

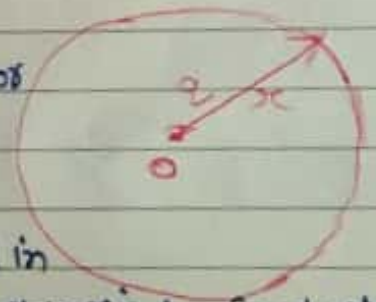
$$\alpha = \frac{3\epsilon_0 (K-1)}{n(K-2)}$$

This Eqn. is known as Clausius-Mossotti Equation.

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Q1:- Capacitance of a spherical conductor:-

Consider, an Isolated Spherical Conductor of radius r having charge q on it.



Suppose that, the Cond. is placed in air or Vacuum. The charge on the spherical conductor may be defined as that as considered as point o . The potential at the surface of the conductor at any p

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r} \quad (1)$$

Capacitance is:-

$$C = \frac{q}{V} \Rightarrow C = \frac{q}{\frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}} \Rightarrow C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2$$

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$$\Rightarrow C = \frac{q}{\frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}} \Rightarrow C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2$$

Capacitance

Factor of capacitance:-

$$C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2$$

$$\epsilon = 711 \mu\text{f}$$

Principle of Capacitance:-

- A Capacitance is a device in which used for storing the large amount of Electric charge.

Two metallic conductors, when one Cond. is connected to the Earth and other has an ability to store the Electric charge of the conductors.

★ **Parallel plate Capacitor:-** It is most commonly used capacitor. It consists of two conducting parallel plates. Its plates are separated through a certain small distⁿ. due to a separation betⁿ the plates, the Electric field on the boundaries of the plate is negligible.

[Expression for Capacitance of parallel plate capacitor]

Consider that +q charges given to the plate A. Then, induced -q charges is produced on the left phase of the plate A. Right phase of the plate B

When, plate B is on Earth, the charge (charge) produced on the right to the plate B flows to the Earth due to charge q_2 on plate A.

Electric field is set up betⁿ. the plates:-

$$E = -\frac{dv}{dx}$$

$$E = \frac{dv}{dx} \text{ (In magnitude)}$$

If, V be the potential difference betⁿ. two plates and d is the separation betⁿ. the plates.

$$E = \frac{V}{d} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$V = Ed \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

i.e σ is the Surface charge density.

$$E = \frac{V}{d}$$

$$V = Ed$$

$$E = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A}$$

$$C = q/V$$

$$E = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A}$$

$$E = \frac{2q}{4\pi R^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{q \cdot d}{\epsilon_0 A}$$

$$C = \frac{q}{V} \Rightarrow C = \frac{q \cdot \epsilon_0 A}{q \cdot d}$$

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- (3)} \Rightarrow V = \frac{\sigma d}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{q}{A}$$

$$V = \frac{q \cdot d}{\epsilon_0 A}$$

Now, Acc. to the definition of Capacitance:-

$$C = \frac{q}{V}$$

fixed capacitance

~~Variable capacitance~~

$$C = \frac{q}{\frac{q \cdot d}{\epsilon_0 A}} \Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d} \text{ Ans.}$$

Q:- Capacitance of a parallel plate capacitor when a dielectric slab partially fills the space betⁿ. the plates?

Ans:- Consider a parallel plate capacitor,

let A be the area of each plate and d be the separation betⁿ. plates.

$$C = \frac{\epsilon^0 A}{d}$$

So plate A is the potential and plate B is -ve potential.

E_0 is set up betⁿ. the plates place a dielectric slab of thickness t betⁿ. the two plates.

Electric field betⁿ. plates reduced value.

$$E = E_0 - E_p$$

$$\Rightarrow E = E_0 - \frac{P}{\epsilon_0}$$

Potential diff. betⁿ. two plates of capacitor.

$$V = Et - E_0(d-t) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$K = \frac{E_0}{E} \Rightarrow E = \frac{E_0}{K} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Now, put E in eqn. (1),

$$V = \frac{E_0 t}{K} - E_0(d-t)$$

$$\Rightarrow V = E_0 \left(d - t + \frac{t}{K} \right)$$

Acc. to capacitance

$$C = \frac{q}{V} \Rightarrow C = \frac{q}{\frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A} \left(d - t + \frac{t}{K} \right)}$$

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{(t + t/k)} \Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d \left[1 - \frac{1}{k} \right]}$$

Dielectric completely fills the space,
 $t = d$.

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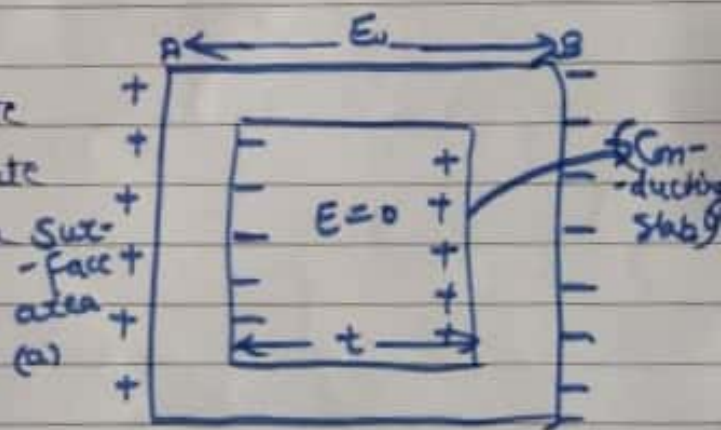
$$\Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d \left[1 - \frac{1}{k} \right]} \Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d \left[\frac{k-1}{k} \right]}$$

$$\Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{(d/k)} \Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A k}{d}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{C = C_0 k} \quad [k > 1]$$

$C_0 = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$ Capacitance of a parallel plate capacitor, when conducting slab is introduced betⁿ the plates of the capacitor.

Ans:— Consider a parallel plate capacitor having each plate of area A and d is the separation betⁿ the plates.



$C_0 = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$ Suppose that, an Electric field E_0 is placed produced betⁿ the plate of the capacitor and conducting slab is placed inside the plate of capacitor. Potential difference betⁿ the plates will be ϕ —

$$V = Et + E_0(d-t)$$

$$E = 0$$

now, $\Rightarrow V = E_0(d-t)$

$$\left(E_0 = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A} \right)$$

$$V = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A} (d-t) \Rightarrow \text{Acc. to the definition of Capacitors, } C = \frac{q}{V}$$

$$\Rightarrow C = \frac{q}{\frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A} (d-t)} \Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{(d-t)}$$

$$\Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d \left(1 - \frac{t}{d} \right)} \Rightarrow C = \frac{C_0}{1 - \frac{t}{d}}$$

put $t = d \Rightarrow C = \frac{C_0}{1 - \frac{d}{d}} \Rightarrow C = \frac{C_0}{1-1}$

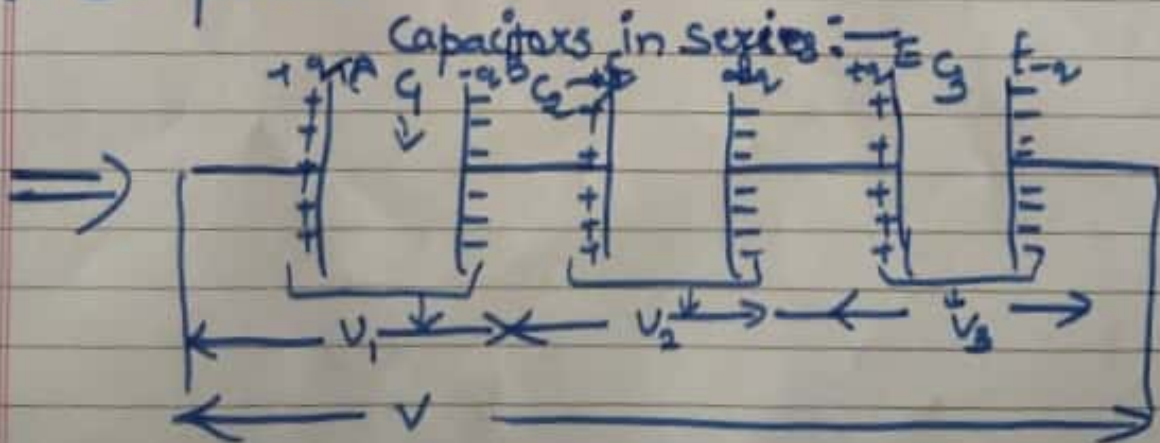
$$\Rightarrow C = \frac{C_0}{0} \Rightarrow C = \infty \text{ Capacitor is infinite.}$$

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★

Grouping of Capacitors:-

- (i) In series.
- (ii) In parallel.



We have to connect three capacitance C_1, C_2 and C_3 .

Now, let V_1, V_2 and V_3 be the potential diff. across the series combination of three capacitors.

Let V is the total potential difference of three components:—

$$\boxed{V = V_1 + V_2 + V_3} \text{ — (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow q = CV$$

$$\Rightarrow q = C_1 V_1 \Rightarrow V_1 = \frac{q}{C_1} \text{ — (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow q = C_2 V_2 \Rightarrow V_2 = \frac{q}{C_2} \text{ — (3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow q = C_3 V_3 \Rightarrow V_3 = \frac{q}{C_3} \text{ — (4)}$$

Now, put V_1, V_2 and V_3 in Eqn. (1), we get

$$\frac{q}{C} = \frac{q}{C_1} + \frac{q}{C_2} + \frac{q}{C_3}$$

$$\frac{q}{C} = q \left[\frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{1}{C} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3}}$$

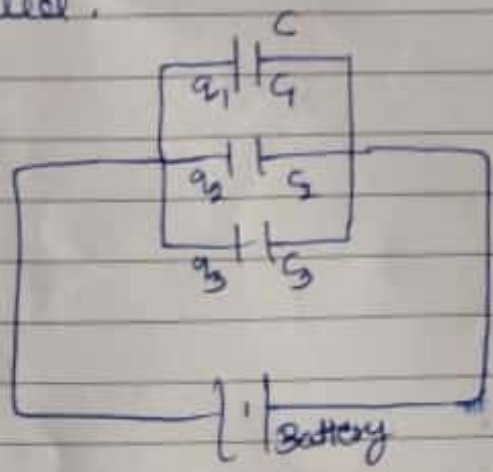
Capacitors are connected in series the reciprocal of the resultant

capacitance in series is equal to the sum of the reciprocal of the individual capacitors.

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(ii) Capacitors in parallel:

Three capacitors of capacitance are connected in parallel.



$$\Rightarrow q = CV \Rightarrow q = CV$$

$$\Rightarrow q_1 = C_1V \text{ --- (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow q_2 = C_2V \text{ --- (3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow q_3 = C_3V \text{ --- (4)}$$

$$\Rightarrow q = q_1 + q_2 + q_3 \text{ --- (1)}$$

Charge is directly proportional to potential diff.

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Put Eqn. (2), (3) and (4) in Eqn. (1), we get -

$$q = C_1V + C_2V + C_3V$$

$$\Rightarrow CV = C_1V + C_2V + C_3V$$

$$\Rightarrow C = C_1 + C_2 + C_3$$

$$\Rightarrow C_p = C_1 + C_2 + C_3$$

Capacitor of capacitance of parallel plate is equal to sum of the three capacitors C_1 , C_2 and C_3 . Ans.

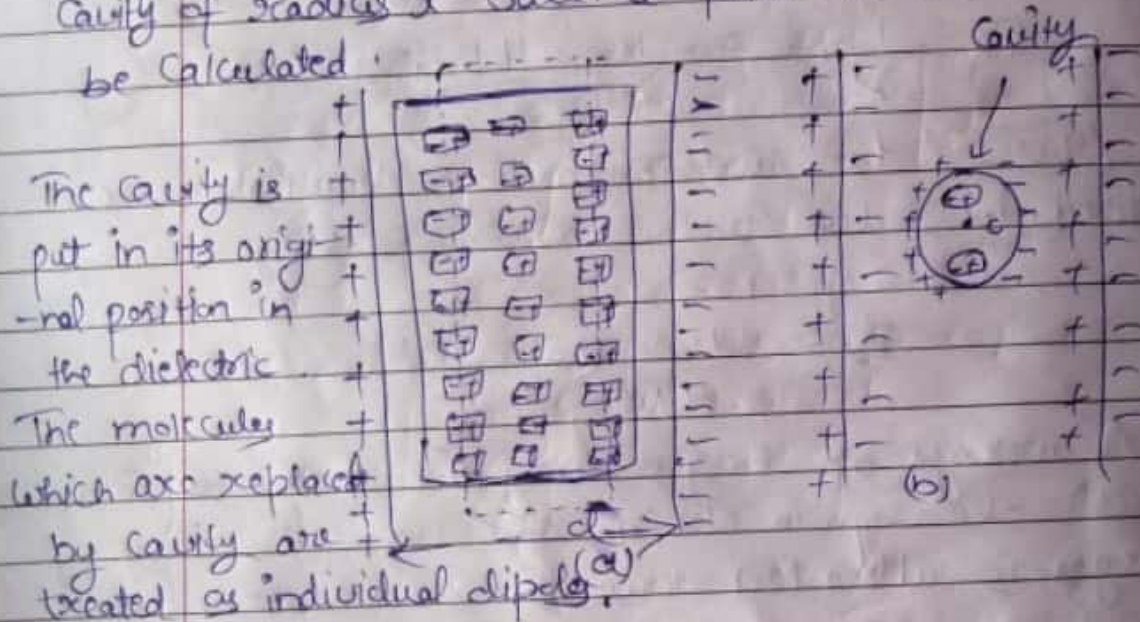
CHAPTER 7 Clausius-Mossotti Eqn.

* Molecular field in a dielectric
 ⇒ The Electric field \vec{E} which polarizes a molecule of dielectric is known as molecular field. It is denoted by \vec{E}_m .

This Electric field is not equal to the external electric field intensity which is given by $E = \frac{V}{d}$, V is the p.d bet. equally and oppositely charge plates in the dielectric.

* Molecular field can be calculated. Consider a dielectric slab in bet. the plates of a capacitor.

(a) The dielectric is polarized and its opposite faces acquire equal and opposite charges. Now cut a spherical cavity of radius r such a point in which the M.F can be calculated.



The cavity is put in its original position in the dielectric. The molecules which are replaced by cavity are treated as individual dipoles.

Electric field Intensity at the centre (C) of the cavity is: —

$$E_m = E_1 + E_2 + E_3 + E_4 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$E_1 = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$, is the the electric field intensity bet. the plates of capacitor with no dielectric in it.

$\sigma =$ Surface charge density of the charge on the plates of the capacitor.

$E_2 = -\frac{\sigma_p}{\epsilon_0}$ is the electric field intensity due to the polarized charges on the opposite faces of the dielectric.

σ_p = Surface charge density due to polarized charges on the opposite faces of the dielectric.

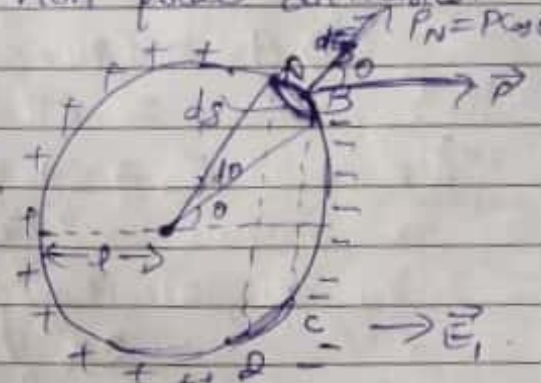
E_3 is the electric field intensity due to polarized charges on the surface of the cavity.

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E_4 is the electric field intensity due to dipoles inside the cavity which is zero for non-polar dielectrics.

Eqn. (i) becomes? —

$$E_m = \frac{E_1}{\epsilon_0} - \frac{\sigma_p}{\epsilon_0} + E_3 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$



Consider a small element ^{area} ds and angular width $d\theta$ at an angle θ with the direction of E_1 on the spherical cavity. $\text{dot } \vec{P}$ be the polarisation vector at an element of area ds . The component of \vec{P} normal to the surface of the element is:—

$$P_N = P \cos \theta$$

The small charge on the small element:—

$$dq = (P \cos \theta) ds$$

\Rightarrow Electric field intensity ^{at the} cavity due to this charge.

$$dE_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{x^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(P \cos \theta) ds}{x^2} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Resolve dE_3 into two components (i) $dE_3 \cos \theta$ along the polarisation vector (ii) $dE_3 \sin \theta$ \perp to polarisation vector.

$dE_3 \sin \theta$ components of upper and lower halves of the cavity cancel each other, $dE_3 \cos \theta$ comp. gets added up.

Net Electric field intensity at the center of the cavity due to the charges on the cavity is: -

$$\int dE_3 = \int dE_3 \cos \theta$$

$$E_3 = \int \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(\rho \cos \theta) ds}{x^2} \cos \theta$$

$$E_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\rho}{x^2} \int \cos^2 \theta ds$$

$$\Rightarrow ds = (2\pi x \sin \theta) x d\theta = 2\pi x^2 \sin \theta d\theta$$

Area of the ring

$$E_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\rho}{x^2} \int 2\pi x^2 \sin \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta$$

$$E_3 = \frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} \int \sin \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta$$

$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$
 $\frac{2}{2} \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\rho}{2\epsilon_0} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{\rho}{3\epsilon_0}$$

Evaluation of $\int \sin \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta$

$$\int_0^\pi \sin \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta = \frac{2}{3}$$

Put $x = \cos \theta$, $dx = -\sin \theta d\theta$

at change from $\theta = 0$ to $x = 1$ and from $\theta = \pi$ to $x = -1$

$$\int_0^\pi \sin \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta = \int_1^{-1} -x^2 dx = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx$$

$$= 2 \int_0^1 x^2 dx = 2 \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$

Put this value in Eqn. (2)

$$E_m = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} - \frac{\sigma \rho}{\epsilon_0} + \frac{\rho}{3\epsilon_0}$$

$$E_m = E + \frac{\rho}{3\epsilon_0} \quad (4)$$

$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} - \frac{\sigma \rho}{\epsilon_0}$ is the net electric field intensity betⁿ the plates of the capacitor on the Ind. of diele. slab

Electric field is known as polarizing field

$$\alpha = \frac{p}{E_m}$$

$$\vec{P} = n \alpha \vec{E}_m \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

if n no. of molecules per unit vol^m, then \vec{P} is:—

$$\vec{P} = n \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{P} = n \alpha \vec{E}_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}_m = \frac{\vec{P}}{n \alpha} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{p}{E_m}$$

put this value in Eqn. (5)

$$\frac{\vec{P}}{n \alpha} = \left[\vec{E} + \frac{\vec{P}}{3 \epsilon_0} \right]$$

$$\vec{P} = n \alpha \left[\vec{E} + \frac{\vec{P}}{3 \epsilon_0} \right] \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

$K = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}$, K is dielectric const.

$$\vec{P} = (K-1) \epsilon_0 \vec{E}$$

$$\text{or } \vec{E} = \frac{\vec{P}}{(K-1) \epsilon_0}$$

put this value in Eqn. (8)

$$\vec{P} = n \alpha \left[\frac{\vec{P}}{(K-1) \epsilon_0} + \frac{\vec{P}}{3 \epsilon_0} \right]$$

$$1 = n \alpha \left[\frac{1}{(K-1) \epsilon_0} + \frac{1}{3 \epsilon_0} \right]$$

$$= n \alpha \left[\frac{3 + K - 1}{3(K-1) \epsilon_0} \right]$$

$$= n \alpha \left[\frac{(K+2)}{3(K-1) \epsilon_0} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\frac{3 \epsilon_0 + (K-1) \epsilon_0}{3 \epsilon_0 (K-1) \epsilon_0}}$$

$$= \frac{3 \epsilon_0 + \epsilon_0 (K-1)}{3 \epsilon_0 (K-1) \epsilon_0}$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_0 (3 + K - 1)}{3 \epsilon_0 (K-1) \epsilon_0}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{3 \epsilon_0 (K-1)}{n (K+2)}$$

Eqn. (9) is known as

Claussius-Mossotti Eqn.

Dipole moment of a molecule per unit polarising electric field is known as Polarizability (α)

CHAPTER-9

Magnetic Fields in Matter.

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(i) **Ferromagnetic Substance:**— These are those substances which are strongly attracted by the magnets. Eg:— Fe, Ni, Co, steel etc. These substances get magnetized in the direction of applied magnetic field, called Ferromagnetic substance.

(ii) **Paramagnetic Substance:**— These are those substances which are feebly attracted by magnets. Eg:— Al and Na etc. So, these substances get magnetized in the direction of applied magnetic field.

(iii) **Diamagnetic Substance:**— These are those substances which are feebly repelled by the magnets. Eg:— Cu, Bi, Pd etc. These substances get magnetized in a direction opposite to the direction of applied magnetic field.

Q1:— What are Non-Magnetic Substance?

Ans:— Non-Magnetic Substance:— There are certain atoms in which the electrons are completely paired. For each electron spinning in one direction, on the other electron spinning in opposite direction. Thus, the resultant of magnetic moment is zero. They are called non-magnetic substance.

• Vacuum is the only non-magnetic substance.

Q2:— What do you mean by atomic dipole?

Ans:- Atomic dipole :- The moving electrons around the nucleus constitute a current loop and hence behaves like a dipole called Atomic dipole.

Q3: What is Bohr magneton? Calculate its value.

Ans:- Magnetic moment of the orbiting electron is

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$$\mu_m = n \left[\frac{eh}{4\pi m_e} \right]$$

=> Bohr magneton is equal to the magnetic dipole moment of an atom in which electron revolves around the nucleus.

Q4: What is gyromagnetic orbital?

Ans:- The ratio of orbital magnetic moment dipole to the angular momentum of the orbiting electron, are called gyromagnetic orbital.

Q5: What is magnetisation?

Ans:- When a magnetic subⁿ. is placed in magnetic field. Then, the atoms and molecules get aligned in the direction of applied field. The substance gets magnetised and phenomenon are called magnetisation.

$$\vec{\mu} = -\mu_m$$

Q6: What is magnetisation vector?

Ans:— It is the ratio of magnetic dipole moment to the Vol^m, is called magnetization vector.

Q7: How can a magnet be demagnetised completely?

156 Ans:— A magnet is demagnetised completely if the atomic dipoles are randomly oriented. The alignment of dipoles are broken and thermal energy increases. Magnet can be magnetized completely by heating it.

Q8: Magnetic behaviour of magnetic substance dec with increasing temp. Explain.

Ans:— Magnetic behaviour of magnetic subⁿ is due to alignment of magnetic dipoles in a particular directⁿ. The alignment is disturbed by the thermal energy. When temp. increases, the magnetic dipole moment disturbed and the subⁿ loses the magnetic properties.

Q9: Why does a paramagnetic substance move from weaker to stronger part of non-uniform magnetic field?

Ans:— Paramagnetic subⁿ are feebly attract by the magnet. It experiences a more force in the stronger field to the weaker field.

Q10: Compare soft iron and hard steel as magnetic material?

Ans: (i) Susceptibility: - The susceptibility of soft iron is more than that of hard steel.

157 (ii) Permeability: - The permeability of soft iron is more than that of hard steel.

(iii) Retentivity: - The retentivity of soft iron is more than that of hard steel.

(iv) Hysteresis loss: - The area of hysteresis loop per unit Vd^m of soft iron is less than that of hard steel.

(v) Coercivity: - The coercivity of soft iron is less than that of hard steel.

Q11: What type of substance would you prefer for making a permanent magnets?

Ans: (i) High Retentivity.
(ii) High Coercivity.

Q12: What would be prefer while consideration for making Electromagnets?

Ans: (i) High permeability.
(ii) Low coercivity.
(iii) Low Retentivity.
(iv) Low Hysteresis loss.

Q13: What would be consideration for making core of transformers?

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Ans: - (i) High permeability
(ii) low Hysteresis.

Q14: What are permalloys?

Ans: - These are some alloys of iron and nickel which have high permeability bec^s of which they are widely used in the cores of transformers and chokes.

Q15: Why are steel and alnico used for making permanent magnets?

Ans: - They are used for making permanent magnets bec^s they have very large value of Retentivity of Coercivity.

Q16: What is Curie temp?

Ans: - The temp at which the ferromagnetic substance becomes paramagnetic substance called Curie temp.

Q17: Why an ordinary iron piece does not behave as a magnet?

Ans: - An ordinary iron piece has large no. of atoms. Each atoms behaves a magnetic dipole. The magnetic dipole is distributed in the iron piece in the absence of any external magnetic field.

159 The net magnetic dipole moment of the iron piece is zero. An ordinary iron piece does not behave as a magnet.

Q18: Why is ferromagnetism not found in liquid and gases?

Ans:- Ferromagnetic occurs when many atoms is anisotropically align into its domain and we get to give a magnetic dipole moment in solids. The atoms of liquid and gases do not align in same direction due to thermal fluctuations and ferromagnetism is not found in liquids and gases.

Magnetic field Intensity (H) :-

⇒ The current flowing through the conductor and which can be measured with ammeter are called free currents. The source of these currents may have battery and other source of EMF in the circuit. The current which are associated with molecular and atomic dipole are called bound currents. Magnetization vectors are also called bound currents.

For steady currents, the Ampere's circuital law is,

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

⇒ The total current density is the sum of current densities of free and bound charges of bound charges.

$$\vec{J} = \vec{J}_f + \vec{J}_m \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

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Using Eqn. (1), we have,

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 (\vec{J}_f + \vec{J}_m) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{J}_m = \nabla \times \vec{M}$$

Now, put \vec{J}_m in Eqn. (3) we get

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 [\vec{J}_f + (\nabla \times \vec{M})]$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{B} = [\mu_0 \vec{J}_f + \mu_0 (\nabla \times \vec{M})]$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{B} - \mu_0 (\nabla \times \vec{M}) = \mu_0 \vec{J}_f$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times [\vec{B} - \mu_0 \vec{M}] = \mu_0 \vec{J}_f$$

Dividing by μ_0 on both sides, we get,

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \left[\frac{\vec{B} - \mu_0 \vec{M}}{\mu_0} \right] = \vec{J}_f$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J}_f$$
 which is called differential form of Ampere's law.

Integrating Eqn. (4) over a surface, we get

$$\Rightarrow \iint_S \nabla \times \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{S} = \iint_S \vec{J}_f \cdot d\vec{S}$$

Acc. to Stoke's theorem,

$$\Rightarrow \iint_S \nabla \times \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{S} = \oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint_S \vec{J}_f \cdot d\vec{S}$$

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$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = I_f$$

⇒ which is known as Integral form of Ampere's law for magnetic materials.

SI unit of Magnetic field Intensity :- $A m^{-1}$

• **Magnetic Induction :-** (B) Magnetic Material is placed in current carrying solenoid, then the material gets magnetised and sum of total magnetic field is given by,

$$B = B_0 + B_m \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

where, B_0 is the mag $B_0 = \mu_0 n I$ is the applied magnetic field due to current carrying solenoid. On the other hand B_m is the magnetic field due to magnetism.

$$\text{So, } B_m = \mu_0 M \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Now, B_0 and B_m put in eqn. (1), we get.

$$\Rightarrow B = \mu_0 n I + \mu_0 M$$

$\oint \vec{H} = I$
Magnetic field intensity

$$\Rightarrow B = \mu_0 H + \mu_0 M$$

$$\Rightarrow B = \mu_0 (H + M)$$

⇒ which is called magnetic Induction (B)
∴ SI unit of Magnetic Induction is ~~Wb/m²~~ (T) Tesla

• **Magnetic permeability** :- It is denoted by μ .
Magnetic permeability of the material is the measure of degree extent to which magnetic field can penetrate the material.

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It has been found Experimentally that the magnetic Induction \vec{B} is directly proportional to the Magnetic field Intensity.

$$\vec{B} \propto \vec{H}$$
$$\Rightarrow \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{H}$$

where, μ is the magnetic permeability.

Now, $\mu = \frac{B}{H}$

SI unit of magnetic permeability is Hm^{-1}

• **Magnetic susceptibility (χ_m)** :-

Magnetic Susceptibility of the material is the measure of ease with which the material gets magnetised. Magnetic susceptibility indicates that the degree of Magnetization of the (magnetic) material in response to the magnetic field.

Now, Magnetization vector (\vec{M}) is directly proportional to the Magnetic field intensity \vec{H} .

$$\Rightarrow \vec{M} \propto \vec{H}$$
$$\Rightarrow \vec{M} = \chi_m \vec{H}$$
$$\Rightarrow \chi_m = \frac{M}{H}$$

Since, M and H have the dimensions. But, χ_m has dimensionless quantity.

*Relation Betⁿ. Magnetic Permeability and Magnetic Susceptibility

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$$\underline{B = \mu_0 (H + M)} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

\Rightarrow Dividing b.s by H .

$$\Rightarrow \frac{B}{H} = \mu_0 \left(1 + \frac{M}{H} \right) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{B}{H} = \mu, \quad \frac{M}{H} = \chi_m \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Now, put in Eqn. 2 put in (3)

Eqn. 3 is put in @ Eqn. we get.

$$\Rightarrow B = \mu = \mu_0 (1 + \chi_m)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = (1 + \chi_m)$$

$$\int \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = \mu_r$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\mu_r = (1 + \chi_m)}$$

i.e. $\frac{\mu}{\mu_0}$ is the relative permeability of the material. It is dimensionless quantity. Ans.

★ Properties of Dia, Para and Ferrimagnetic Substance:—

164 Properties of diamagnetic substance:—

- (i) They are repelled by magnet.
- (ii) A diamagnetic substance moves from stronger to weaker part of the magnetic field.
- (iii) A dia. subⁿ. is placed in magnetic field, the lines of force do not prefer the magnetic field.
- (iv) A dia. subⁿ. the permeability of this subⁿ. is less than one $\mu < 1$.
- (v) A dia. subⁿ. is weakly magnetized in direction opposite to the direction of magnetic field.
- (vi) The susceptibility of dia. subⁿ. is $-ve$.
- (vii) The dia. subⁿ. does not obey Curie law.

★ Properties of paramagnetic substance:—

- (i) They are feebly attract the magnet.
- (ii) A para. subⁿ. moves from weaker part to the stronger part of the magnetic field.

(iii) A para. subⁿ. is placed in magnetic field, then the lines of force prefer to pass through it.

(iv) The permeability of para. subⁿ. is ~~greater~~ than 1 ($\mu > 1$).

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(v) The para. subⁿ. gets magnetized weakly in the direction of applied magnetic field.

(vi) The susceptibility of para. subⁿ. is +ve.

(vii) The paramagnetic subⁿ. obey Curie's law.

Properties of ferromagnetic subⁿ. :-

(i) They are strongly attract the magnet.

(ii) A ferromagnetic subⁿ. moves from weaker part to the stronger part of the magnetic field.

(iii) A ferromagnetic subⁿ. is placed in magnetic field, the lines of force prefer to pass through it.

(iv) The permeability of ferro. subⁿ. is larger than 1 ($\mu \gg 1$).

(v) The ferro. subⁿ. gets strongly magnetized in the direction of applied magnetic field.

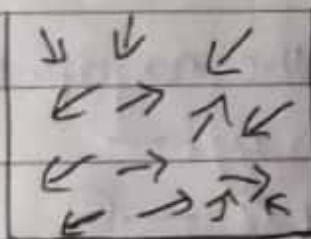
(vi) The susceptibility of ferro. subⁿ. is +ve.

Langevin's theory of Paramagnetism

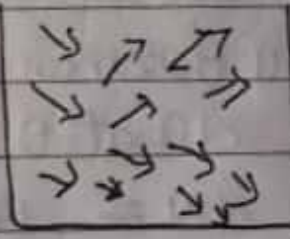
The orbital and spin motion of an electron of an atom, which give rise to dipole moments. A subⁿ is paramagnetic, ^{if $\mu_{net} \neq 0$} net dipole moment. But the atoms in the materials are randomly distributed, dipole moments are also randomly distributed. Net dipole moment is zero.

When an External magnetic field is applied, the dipoles start aligning in the directⁿ of applied field, But the thermal motion of an atom does not allow the Complete alignment. If the strength of M.F is increased, temp. is dec. The ^{alignment of} dipole moment tends to be Complete and material is said to be magnetised.

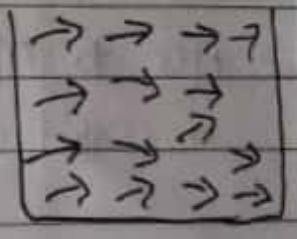
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Without magnetic field.
(a)



Weak magnetic field
(b)



In Strong Magnetic field.
(c)

Langevin Explained the paramagnetic behaviour of Kinetic theory of gases of the dipoles.

Consider unit Vol^m of paramag. Sam^{pl}

having N is the no. of atoms.

Torque $\vec{\tau} = \vec{\mu}_m \times \vec{H}$ acting on the dipole. μ_m is the magnetic dipole moment of each dipole and \vec{H} is the magnetic field intensity.

μ_m is the magnetic dipole moment of each dipole and \vec{H} is the magnetic field intensity.

$\tau = \mu_m H \sin \theta$
 Small amount of work done by external agency displacing the dipole through an angle $d\theta$.

$$dW = \mu_m H \sin \theta d\theta$$

Total work done in displacing the dipole from $\theta=0$ and $\theta=\theta$ is: —

$$W = \int dW = \int_0^\theta \mu_m H \sin \theta d\theta = -\mu_m H \cos \theta$$

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$$W = -\vec{\mu}_m \cdot \vec{H}$$

This work done is stored in magnetic potential energy U .

$$U = -\vec{\mu}_m \cdot \vec{H} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Acc. to Maxwell Boltzmann law, the no. of dipoles with a solid angle $d\Omega$ at θ is given by: —

$$dN = A e^{-U/kT} d\Omega \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

A is a Const. of prop. and k is Boltzmann const.

$d\Omega =$ area of ring bet. θ and $d\theta = \frac{2\pi R \sin \theta \cdot R d\theta}{R}$

$$d\Omega = 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$dN = A \times 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta e^{-U/kT}$$

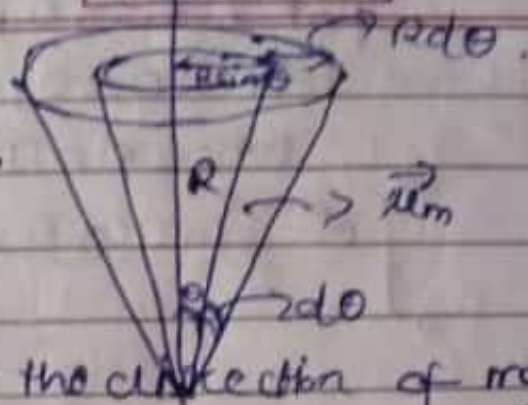
$$dN = C e^{-\vec{\mu}_m \cdot \vec{H} / kT} \cdot \sin \theta d\theta$$

$c = 2\pi A$ is const.
 $\frac{\mu_m H \cos \theta}{kT}$
 $dN = c e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\theta$

$dN = c e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\theta$

$dN = c e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\theta$ — (3)

$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{\mu_m H}{kT}$ — (4)



Component of dipole moment in the direction of magnetizing field $\mu_m \cos \theta$,
 Total dipole moment per unit Vol^m is

$\Rightarrow dP_m = dN \mu_m \cos \theta$

$= c e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\theta \mu_m \cos \theta$

$= c e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \mu_m \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta$

Total dipole moment of all dipoles per unit vol^m is

$\Rightarrow P_m = \int_0^\pi c e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \mu_m \sin \theta \cos \theta d\theta$ — (5)

Total no. of atom in sample: —

$\Rightarrow N = \int_0^\pi dN = \int_0^\pi c e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\theta$ — (6)

Average dipole moment per unit atom in the direction of magnetic field is: —

$\bar{\mu}_m = \frac{P_m}{N} = \frac{c \int_0^\pi e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta \cos \theta d\theta}{c \int_0^\pi e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\theta}$ — (7)

Consider $\int_0^\pi e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta \cos \theta d\theta$,

Put $x = \cos \theta$, $dx = -\sin \theta d\theta$.

When $\theta = 0$, $\cos \theta = 1$.

When $\theta = \pi$, $x = \cos \pi = -1$.

$$\int_0^\pi e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta \cos \theta d\theta = - \int_1^{-1} e^{\alpha x} x dx$$

$$= \int_{-1}^1 x \cdot e^{\alpha x} dx = \int_{-1}^1 x \cdot e^{\frac{UmH}{KT}} dx \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

At very high temp. ---

$$\frac{UmH}{KT} \ll 1$$

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$$e^{\frac{UmH}{KT}} = \left[1 + \frac{UmHx}{KT} \right] \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

Eqn. (8) becomes: ---

$$\int_0^\pi e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta \cos \theta d\theta = \int_{-1}^1 x \left[1 + \frac{UmHx}{KT} \right] dx$$

$$= \left[\int_{-1}^1 x dx + \int_{-1}^1 \frac{UmH}{KT} x^2 dx \right]$$

$$= \left[\left\{ \frac{x^2}{2} \right\}_{-1}^1 + \frac{UmH}{KT} \left\{ \frac{x^3}{3} \right\}_{-1}^1 \right]$$

$$= \left[0 + \frac{2UmH}{3KT} \right] = \left[\frac{2}{3} \frac{UmH}{3KT} \right]$$

Also $\int_0^\pi e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\theta$

$$= - \int_1^{-1} e^{\alpha x} dx = \int_{-1}^1 e^{\alpha x} dx$$

$$= \int_{-1}^1 e^{\frac{\mu_m H x}{KT}} dx.$$

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Eqn (9) we get.

$$\int_0^{\pi} e^{\frac{\mu_m H \cos \theta}{KT}} \sin \theta d\theta = \int_{-1}^1 \left[1 + \frac{\mu_m H x}{KT} \right] dx.$$

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$$= \left[(x) + \frac{\mu_m H}{KT} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right] \right]_{-1}^1.$$

$$= [1 + \frac{1}{2} \mu_m H / KT] - [-1 + \frac{1}{2} \mu_m H / KT] = 2 - \text{--- (10)}$$

Using Eqn. (10) and (11) in (9) Eqn. we get

$$\bar{\mu}_m = \frac{\mu_m \times \frac{2}{3} \mu_m H / KT}{2} = \frac{\mu_m^2 H}{3KT}$$

Magnetising produced in the sample is:—

$$M = N \bar{\mu}_m$$

$$M = N \frac{\mu_m^2 H}{3KT}$$

$$M = \chi_m H \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{M} = \chi H$$

$$\chi_m = \frac{N \mu_m^2}{3KT} \text{ is the magnetic susceptibility}$$

for paramagnetic substance.

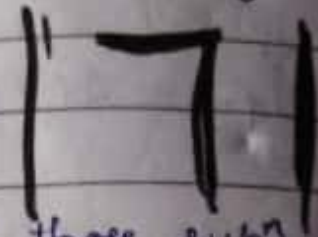
$\Rightarrow \chi_m \propto \frac{1}{T}$, This is called Curie law. Paramag-

netic substance obey Curie law.

$$= \cos y \cdot x^2 \sin y \cos y (\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z) + x \sin y \cdot x \sin^2 y (\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z)$$

$$= x^2 \sin y \cos^2 y + x^2 \sin^3 y = x^2 \sin y (\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y)$$

$$= x^2 \sin y \text{ Ans.}$$



Physics:-

* Ferromagnetic substance:- are those subⁿ. which are strongly attracted by the magnet are called ferromagnetic subⁿ. These subⁿ. gets strongly magnetized in the directⁿ. of magnetic field.
Example are:- Fe, Ni, Co and Steel etc.

* Antiferromagnetism:- are those subⁿ. which have no external magnetic moment. They are not attracted in the macroscopic sense.

Now,

* The main diff. betⁿ ferromagnetism and antiferromagnetism is the alignment of parallel magnetic moment. Ferromagnetic subⁿ/materials have magnetic moments that align parallel to the applied magnetic field and antiferromagnetic material have antiparallel magnetic moments.
Antiferromagnetism
Ex: Hematite, Gc, alloys and FeMn.

* Paramagnetic substance:- are those subⁿ. which are feebly attracted by the magnets in applied magnetic field. These subⁿ. get feebly magnetized in the directⁿ. of applied magnetic field.
Ex:- Al, Na, NiSO₄ etc.

⇒ Diamagnetism - Sub/Material: — are those material which are feebly repelled by the magnetic field. These are called Diamagnetism materials. These subⁿ get weakly or feebly magnetized in "direct" opposite to the directⁿ of applied magnetic field.
 Ex.: — Cu, Bi, Pb, NaCl etc.

** Hysteresis: — The lagging of intensity of magnetization (M) behind the magnetizing field H , when a ferromagnetic subⁿ is taken through a cycle of magnetisation and demagnetization is called Hysteresis.

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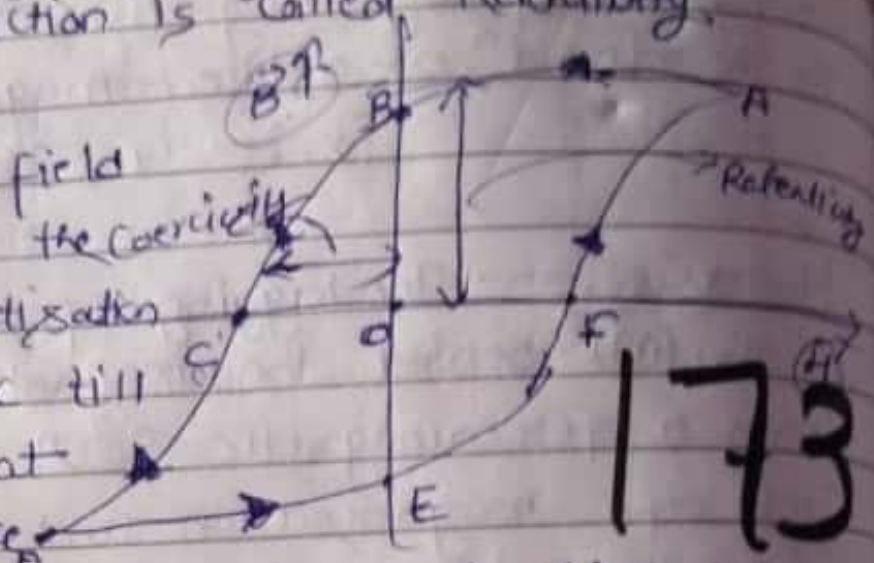
Advantage of Hysteresis

The significance of Hysteresis loop is that it provides information such as retentivity, coercivity, susceptibility and energy loss during one cycle of magnetization for each ferromagnetic material.

* Hysteresis loop: — Consider an unmagnetized bar of a ferromagnetic subⁿ. It is placed in a magnetising field H whose strength can be changed. If H is increased and bar is slowly magnetized. The intensity of magnetization and m and magnetic field H increase with inc. in magnetic induction B inc. with inc. in magnetising field H . If (H) magnetising field is slowly decreased and B also decreases. Magnetising field is made

is made zero, the intensity of magnetic field is zero, but equal to OB .
 This intensity of magnetisation as magnetic induction is called Retentivity.

If H magnetising field is reversed, then the Coercivity intensity of magnetisation (M) reduces along BC till it becomes to zero at point C . To reduce the retentivity to zero, we have to apply a magnetising field H equal to OC , in the reverse direction.



The magnetising field require to make retentivity zero is called Coercivity.

If the reverse magnetising field H is further increased the M is further change in CD . The point D represents the saturation (value) of the material. On dec. the field again in steps and then increasing in reverse direction. The curve follows the $DEFA$.

The closed curve is $ABCDEF A$ is called hysteresis curve/loop. The hysteresis word means "a lagging behind".

* The lagging of Intensity of magnetisation (M) behind the magnetising field H per cycle of magnetisation or when a ferromagnetic subⁿ is taken through a cycle of magnetisation and demagnetisation are called Hysteresis loop.

M-H Curve

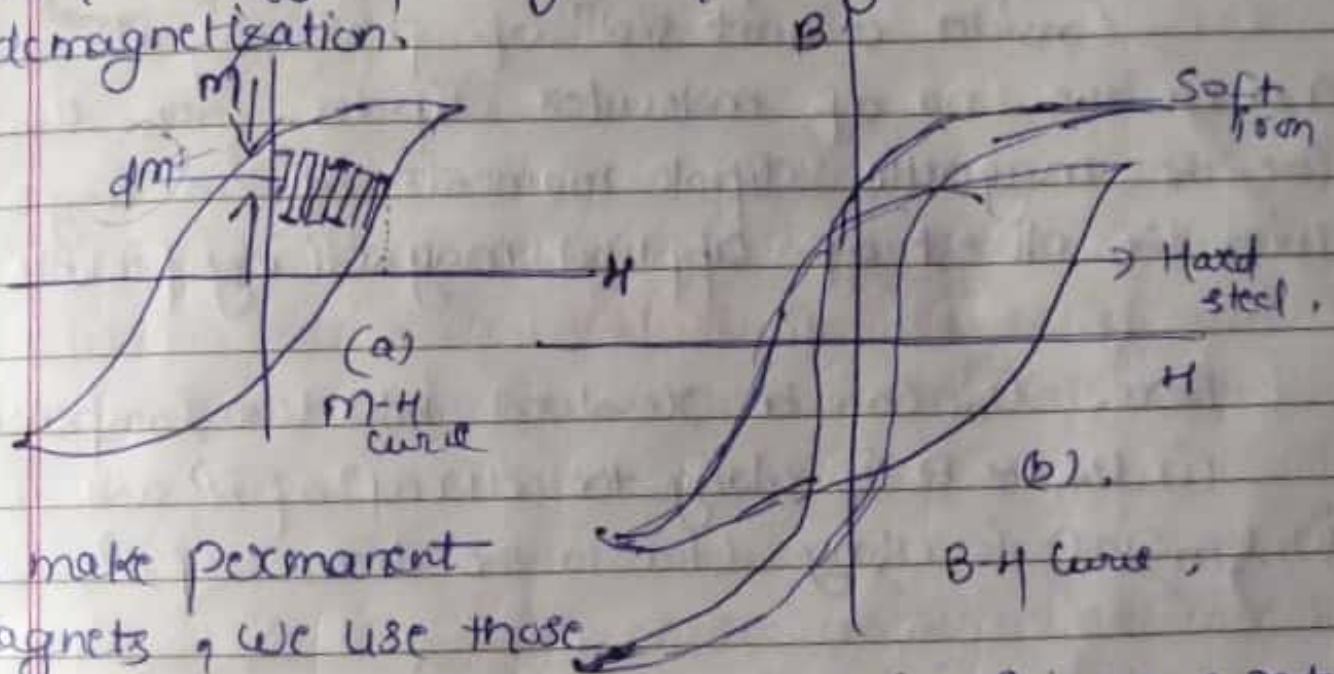
The M-H curve is identical to B-H curve with the only diff. in case of M-H. we get a saturation stage

When the curve is straight and parallel to the abscissa, B-H curve, the saturation is not parallel to abscissa.

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Diff. materials have different hysteresis loop. So, diff. betⁿ Soft iron and Hard steel. It may be noted that, the area of loop represents the loss of energy per cycle of magnetisation or demagnetization.



To make permanent magnets, we use those

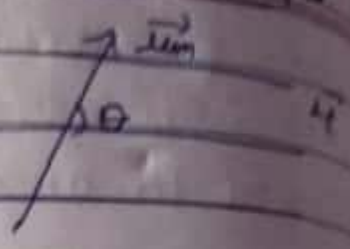
subⁿ which have large value of coercivity and retentivity. Hard steel, Cobalt steel (contain Cobalt, tungsten, carbon and iron) are the ex. of such subⁿ.

Now a days alloy alnico [Iron (54%), Nickel (18%), Cobalt (12%), Aluminium (10%) and Copper (6%)] is widely used to make permanent magnets.

Loss of Energy Due to Hysteresis

When a ferromagnetic subⁿ. is taken through a magnetisation and demagnetisation. There are always

occur some loss of energy, bec^s, work done on the specimen during magnetisation are not recovered completely on demagnetisation. A net loss of energy takes place through a hysteresis cycle is called hysteresis loss.



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Consider a unit vol^m. of ferromagnetic subⁿ. A n be the no. of molecular dipoles. Then $\vec{\mu}_m$ be the magnetic dipole moment at an angle θ with the direct of applied magnetising field (\vec{H}).

Here, $\vec{\mu}_m$ can be resolved into two components:-

- (i) $\mu_m \cos \theta$ is along the directⁿ. of \vec{H} and
- (ii) $\mu_m \sin \theta$ is along \perp to the directⁿ. of \vec{H} .

There is no magnetisation \perp to \vec{H} , sum of all components of $\vec{\mu}_m \perp$ to \vec{H} is zero

$$\sum \mu_m \sin \theta = 0.$$

⇒ Specimen acquire magnetisation m in the direct of H

$$m = \sum \mu_m \cos \theta$$

$$dM = -\sum \mu_m \sin \theta d\theta \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

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Torque acting on the dipole is placed in the field H .

$$\vec{T} = \vec{\mu}_m \times \vec{H}$$

$$\Rightarrow T = \mu_m H \sin \theta$$

\Rightarrow Work done in rotating the dipole through small angle $(-d\theta)$.

$$dW = T(-d\theta)$$

$$= -\mu_m H \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$dW = H(-\sum \mu_m \sin \theta d\theta) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

(Clockwise)

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Using Eqn. (2), we get

$$\Rightarrow dW = H dM \quad (\text{Area of the strip})$$

Total work done in taking the subⁿ. through complete cycle of magnetisation and demagnetisation is,

$$W = \int dW = \int H dM$$

$$W = \text{area of } M-H \text{ loop} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

* Total energy dissipated during one cycle of magnetisation and demagnetisation is given by $M-H$ loop.

$$\Rightarrow \text{Hysteresis loss} = \text{area of } M-H \text{ loop.}$$

* Ferromagnetism is a subⁿ. characterized by magnetization in which two types of ions of unequal magnetic moment are polarized in opposite direction, Ex:- Al, Co, Ni, Zn etc.

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* Domain Theory of ferromagnetism:-

In ferromagnetic subⁿ. the interaction betⁿ. different d^o. is very complex is called Exchange interaction. Due to



Exchange interaction, the large no. of atomic dipoles get aligned in the same directⁿ. They are so strong even thermal vibration can't destroy their alignment.

The small region in which all the atoms have their magnetic moments aligned are called domains.

Each arrow shows the total magnetic moment of the domain. A domain has vol^m. of order of 10^2 cm^3 to 10^5 cm^3 may contain about 10^{16} or more atomic dipoles. The ferromagnetic substances are intrinsically magnetised even in the absence of magnetic field and net magnetic moment is zero.

When an external magnetic field is applied the atoms domain are aligned themselves along the directⁿ. of magnetic field. It means the domains in which atoms ~~were not~~ are aligned in the direction of

applied magnetic field expand at the cost of other domain in which atoms were ~~not~~ aligned.

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Now External field, the atoms are partially aligned. But the strength of field is increase.

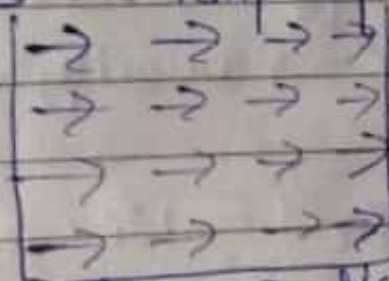
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At very high fields, all the domains get aligned further there is no increase in the magnetisation.

Decreasing Magnetic field: all the domains do not retain their original state.

As the temp. of the material gets raised,

its internal energy increases and this causes all the atoms their neighbours and Curie temp.



to break loose from at a particular temp called

All the atomic dipoles loose their alignment.

(iii) Why is ferromagnetism not found in liquids and gases?

Ans: - Ferromagnetism occurs when many atoms can align themselves into its domain and give a net magnetic dipole moment in solids. Thus, the ferromagnetism are not found in liquid and gases due to thermal fluctuations.

(iv) What is ferrites. Which type of ferrites. Uses of ferrites?

Ans: - Ferrites: - The difference betⁿ the magnetic moments of two adjacent atom is not equal to zero. These having properties are known as ferrites.

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• Ferrites are non-conducting subⁿ, which are derived from an ion oxide.

Two types of ferrites: -

(i) Soft ferrites: - Low coercivity, high retentivity occurs.
Eg: - NiZn, MgZn, etc.

(ii) Hard ferrites: - High coercivity, high retentivity occurs. These are the permanent magnets.
Eg: - Ba ferrites and strontium ferrites

Uses of ferrites: -

(i) Ferrites are poor conductors of electricity. These are most suitable to make core of transformer. Soft ferrites are used to make purposes.

(ii) The hysteresis loop of Mg-Mn ferrites is nearly rectangular. Due to Mg-Mn ferrites are used in memory circuits of computers.

(iii) The coercivity of hard ferrites is very high, due to large value of coercivity. These ferrites are used to make permanent magnets.

(v):- What is an irrotational fields? Give two examples?

Ans:- Irrotational field:- A field whose curl is zero is called Irrotational field. \vec{A} is an irrotational field. $\nabla \times \vec{A} = 0$.

Eg:- Irrotational field is, Electrostatic field and Gravitational field.

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(vi) What is the physical interpretation of gradient of a scalar function?

Ans:- The gradient of a scalar function $\phi(x, y, z)$ at a point represents a vector field, whose magnitude is equal to the maximum spatial rate of change of field ϕ at that point and is directed along max. rate of change.

$$\text{grad. } \phi = \left(\frac{d\phi}{dx} \right)_{\text{max.}}$$

(vii) Is Volume charge density invariant?

Ans:- The vol^m charge density of a body having charge Q in frame S is given by,

CHAPTER-10

Maxwell's Equations and Electromagnetic wave Equation:-

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① Displacement Current :- \rightarrow This ^{changing the} Electric field produces ^{to} Electric current. In betⁿ. the plates of capacitor, changing the flux during the charging of the capacitor.

The current is produced betⁿ. the plates of capacitor. Maxwell called this current. It is called displacement current.

The SI unit of Displacement current is:- Ampere (A).

Acc. to Ampere's circuital law in the differential form:-

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Taking the divergence on both sides.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = \mu_0 (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Divergence of curl is zero. then $\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{B}) = 0$

Now, Acc. to Eqn. of Continuity: $\nabla \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{d\rho}{dt}$

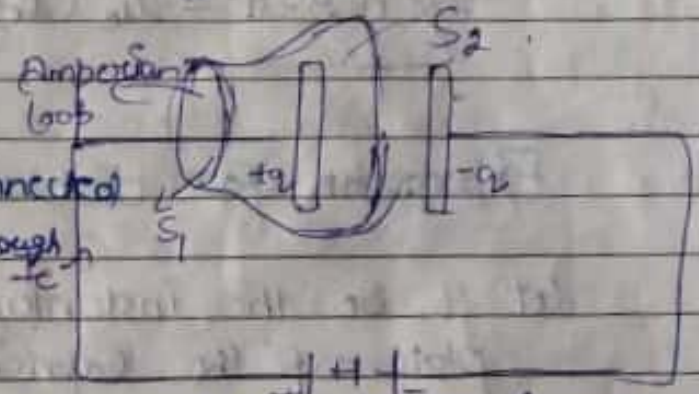
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$\nabla \cdot \vec{J} = 0$ for steady currents.
 and $\nabla \cdot \vec{J} \neq 0$ for non-steady currents or varying currents.

Ampere's circuital law in diff. Eqn. (1) is valid for steady current but not non-steady current.

Then, Ampere's circuital law needs modification for varying currents.

- Consider a parallel plate capacitor, connected to battery with through the wires.



\Rightarrow When conduction current I_c passes in the wires connecting in the parallel plate capacitor. The charge on positive plate capacitor changes but no conduction current exist betⁿ the gap of the parallel plate capacitor.

Consider, Amperian loop consisting two surfaces S_1 and S_2 , around positively charged plate of the capacitor.

for S_1 surface: $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I_c$ (I_c be the condⁿ current enclosed by the surface S_1).

for surface S_2 :

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{bec.} \\ \text{no cond.}^n \text{ current enclosed} \\ \text{by the surface } S_2 \end{array} \right.$$

Maxwell resolved this problem by postulating that changing electric field plate of capacitor is Equivalent to current through the gap betⁿ the plate of the capacitor.

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Maxwell modified the Ampere's circuital law is called Maxwell - Ampere's law.

$$\Rightarrow \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 (I_c + I_d)$$

Expression for displacement current:-

Let q be the instantaneous charge of the plate of the capacitor is,

$$q = CV \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$C = \frac{q}{V}$$

$$\Rightarrow C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

now, A is the area of each plate of the capacitor and d is the distⁿ of the separation betⁿ the plate of capacitor.

If, V be the instantaneous potential diff. betⁿ the plates of the capacitor, magnitude of the electric field in the gap betⁿ the plates

$$\boxed{E = \frac{V}{d}} \Rightarrow \boxed{V = E d} \quad (3)$$

Using Eqn. (2) and (3) in Eqn. (1),

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$$q = \left[\frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d} \right] E d = \epsilon_0 A E$$

$$\boxed{E = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A}}$$

$$E = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A} \quad (4)$$

Electric flux through the surface S_2 of Amperian loop is:

$$\phi_E = E A = \left[\frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A} \right] A = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \quad (5)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\phi_E}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} (I_d)$$

$$I_d = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_E}{dt}$$

$$= \epsilon_0 \frac{d(EA)}{dt} = \epsilon_0 A \frac{dE}{dt} \quad (6)$$

ie which is the Expression for the displacement current.

Displacement current density: $J_d = \frac{I_d}{A}$

$$\boxed{J_d = \frac{1}{A} \times \epsilon_0 A \frac{dE}{dt}} \Rightarrow J_d = \epsilon_0 \frac{dE}{dt}$$

(7)

In Dielectric medium of permittivity ϵ fill the gap betⁿ the plates of the capacitor. (6) and (7) Eqn.

$$I_d = \epsilon A \frac{dE}{dt} \quad (8)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{J_d = \frac{I_d}{A} = \epsilon \frac{dE}{dt}} \quad (9)$$

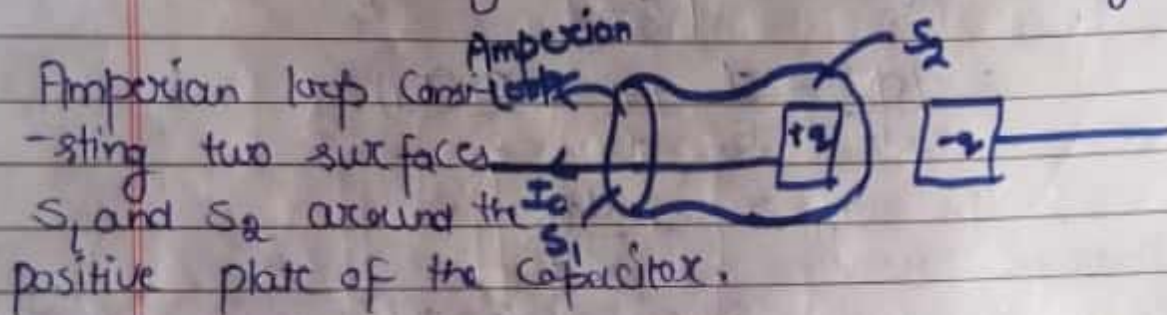
Maxwell-Ampere circuital law can be written as :-

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 \left[I_c + \epsilon_0 A \frac{dE}{dt} \right]$$

$$= \mu_0 \left[I_c + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt} \right]$$

② Continuity of Current :-

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$$\text{Now, } I_c + I_d = I_c + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Surface S_1 encloses the conduction current. But, charge is not accumulated on the wire, there is no change in the electric flux in the closed surface S_1 , i.e. $\frac{d\phi_e}{dt} = 0$.

$$\text{Now, } I_c + I_d = I_c = \frac{dq}{dt} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

There is no conduction current betⁿ the gap betⁿ the plates of capacitor ($I_c = 0$) but,
 • Electric flux through the closed surface exist b.c. of the accumulating of the charge on the positive plate of the capacitor.

$$I_c + I_d = I_d = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_E}{dt} \quad (3)$$

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$$\phi_E = E \cdot A = \left[\frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A} \right] A \Rightarrow \phi_E = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$I_d = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_E}{dt} \quad \frac{I_d}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow I_d = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_E}{dt} \Rightarrow I_d = \frac{dq}{dt}$$

$$I_d = \frac{dq}{dt} \quad \Rightarrow I_d = \frac{dq}{dt} \quad (4) \quad \text{Eqn. (3) and (4) is clear}$$

that the sum of conduction current and displacement current is continuous along any closed path, conduction current and displacement current are equal.

③ Differential form of Ampere - Maxwell Law:-

Ampere's circuital law is:-

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I = \mu_0 \oint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} \quad (1)$$

Acc. to Stokes's theorem:-

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint_S (\nabla \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{s} \quad (2)$$

⇒ Using Eqn. (2) in (1) Eqn.,

$$\Rightarrow \iint_S (\nabla \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \mu_0 \iint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$\Rightarrow \iint_S \nabla \times \vec{B} = \iint_S \mu_0 \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}$$

$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}$ (3) This Eqn. is valid for steady currents. let us Examine the non-steady current is :-

• Acc. to Gauss's law in mag Electrostatics :-

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$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \rho = \epsilon_0 (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) \quad (4)$$

Acc. to Eqn. of Continuity :-

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{d\rho}{dt} \quad (5)$$

Eqn. (4) in (5),

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{d}{dt} (\epsilon_0 (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}))$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \quad (6)$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left[\vec{J} + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \right] = 0 \quad (7)$$

Which is the Eqn. of Continuity for non-steady currents.

Maxwell suggested that in Eqn. (3), \vec{J} must be replaced by $\left(\vec{J} + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \right)$ for non-steady currents

For non-steady currents :-
Eqn. (3),

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \left(\vec{J} + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \quad (8)$$

\Rightarrow Eqn. (8) is called diff. form of Ampere-Maxwell law

Maxwell's Equation:—

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Maxwell gives the set of four fundamental Eqn. describing the Electric field and magnetic fields and their sources. This Eqn. is called Maxwell's Eqn.

Maxwell's Eqn. in differential form:

a. Gauss's law for Electrostatics:— This law relates the electric field and charge produces on it.

$\text{div } \vec{E} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \rho / \epsilon_0$. This law signifies that Electric flux through the closed surface is Equal to the Enclosed by the closed surface. Eqn. (a) is called Maxwell's first Eqn.

b. Gauss's law for magnetostatics:—

$$\text{div } \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

This law signifies that magnetic monopole does not exist.

c. Maxwell Ampere's circuital law:—

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \text{grad } \dot{\phi}$$

This law signifies that the changing the electric field produces the magnetic field and this changing magnetic field produces the electric field.

④. Faraday's law of Electromagnetic Induction:-

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}} \quad \text{--- (4) This law signifies that the set up}$$

due to magnetic field. Eqn. (4) is called Maxwell's Eqn. for 4th Eqn.

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In free space, $\vec{J} = 0$ and $\rho = 0$.

Maxwell's Eqn. are:-

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

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

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}}$$

Maxwell's Equations in Integral form.

①. Gauss's law for Electrostatics:-

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot (\epsilon_0 \vec{E}) = \rho$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_0 \vec{E} = \vec{D} \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho$$

Integrating over the vol^m. of a surface?

$$\iiint_V \nabla \cdot \vec{D} \, dV = \iiint_V \rho \, dV$$

$$\Rightarrow \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{D}) \, dV = \oint_S (\vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}) \quad \text{(Gauss's div. theorem)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \iiint \rho \, dV = Q_{enc} \quad (\text{Total charge enclosed in the } V_{(m)}).$$

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$$\Rightarrow \oint (\vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}) = Q_{enc}$$

which is called integral form of Gauss's law of Electrostatics
(Halkar Kavit)

②. Gauss's law for magnetostatics :-

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

Integrating over a closed $V_{(m)}$ of a surface,

$$\iiint (\nabla \cdot \vec{B}) \, dV = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Acc. to Gauss's div theorem :-

$$\iiint (\nabla \cdot \vec{B}) \, dV = \oint (\vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Put (3) in (2) Eqn.

$$\text{Now, } \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0$$

which is the integral form of Gauss's law of magnetostatics.

③. Maxwell - Ampere's circuital law :-

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J} + \frac{d\vec{D}}{dt}$$

Integ. over a (closed $V_{(m)}$) surface enclosed by closed surface :-

$$\oint_S (\vec{H} \cdot d\vec{s}) = \oint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} + \int_S \frac{d\vec{D}}{dt} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

Acc. to Stokes's theorem:-

$$\oint_S (\nabla \times \vec{H}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \oint_C \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\oint_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} = I_{enc}$$

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Now, $\oint_C \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = I_{enc} + \frac{d}{dt} \oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}$ $\int_C \vec{B}$

• which is the integral form of Maxwell-Ampere's circuital law.

④ Faraday's law of Electromagnetic Induction:-

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

Intg. over a surface enclosed by closed loop

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

⇒ Acc. to Stokes's theorem:-

$$\oint_S (\nabla \times \vec{E}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$\oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \frac{d}{dt} \oint_S (\vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}) \quad (1)$$

• which is called Integral form of Faraday's law of Electromagnetic Induction.

Q1:- What do you understand by Electromagnetic waves? Give their imp properties?

Ans:- Electromagnetic waves:- Electromagnetic waves consists of time varying Electric and magnetic fields, which are mutually \perp to each other and also perpendicular to the directⁿ of wave propagation of wave.

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=> Properties of Electromagnetic waves:-

- (i) Electromagnetic waves do not require any material medium for their propagation.
- (ii) Electromagnetic waves are transverse in nature.
- (iii) Electromagnetic waves travel in free space with the velocity $3 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$.
- (iv) Electromagnetic waves obey principle of superposition.

Q2:- Define Poynting vector? What does it represents? Give its SI unit?

Ans:- Poynting Vector:- The cross product of Electric field \vec{E} and magnetic field vector \vec{H} is called Poynting vector. It is denoted by \vec{S} .

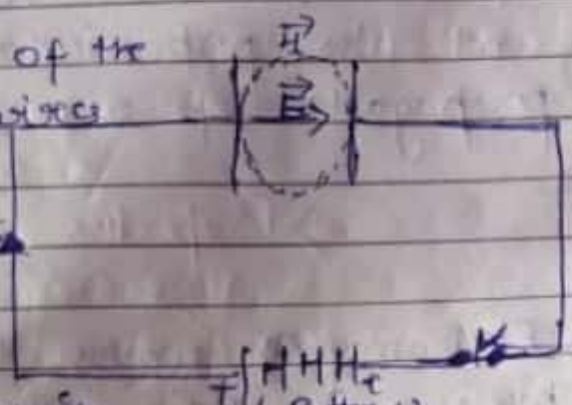
$$\vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{H}$$

Poynting vector gives the time rate of flow of Electromagnetic waves Energy per unit area of the medium.

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Poynting Vector:-

Consider a circuit to flow of the conduction current in the wires of the circuit. Circuit containing parallel plate capacitor connecting to a battery. Consider a key K is also present in this circuit.



When the key K is closed, the capacitor gets charged.

⇒ A conduction current I flows through the circuit and displacement current of density $\frac{dD}{dt}$ is set up in betⁿ the plates of the capacitor.

The Poynting vector is everywhere directed into the electric field as magnetic lines of force are circled and electric field is directed downwards inside the plates.

⇒ SI unit of Poynting vector is Wm^{-2} .

Poynting theorem: — This theorem states that the rate of work done on charges in Vol^m V enclosed by surface S by the Lorentz force is equal to rate of dec. of Energy stored in Electromagnetic field minus the rate at which Energy flows out of the surface S.

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$$\frac{dW}{dt} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int \frac{1}{2} (\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2) dV - \int (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{S}$$

Proof: —

→ (fractional change)

Let us consider some charges and current distribution in Vol^m V enclosed by surface S. Let \vec{E} and \vec{B} are the Electric field and magnetic field are produced in the region of surface. Charges moves slightly through a distⁿ dl small distⁿ dt.



Lorentz force acting on a charge dq.

$$\vec{F} = dq [\vec{E} + (\vec{v} \times \vec{B})] \Rightarrow dq \left[\vec{E} + (\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \right]$$

⇒ Work done by the Lorentz force in displacing charge dq through dl.

$$dW = \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = dq [\vec{E} + (\vec{v} \times \vec{B})] \cdot d\vec{l} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

If \vec{E} is the acts for small time dt on the charge then velocity of charge is,

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{l}}{dt} \text{ or } d\vec{l} = \vec{v} dt$$

Substitute in Eqn. (1) we get.

$$dw = dq [\vec{E} + (\vec{v} \times \vec{B})] \cdot \vec{v} dt$$

$$dw = [\vec{E} dq + (\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) dq] \cdot \vec{v} dt$$

$$\Rightarrow dw = (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{v}) dq dt + \underbrace{(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \vec{v}}_{=0} dq dt$$

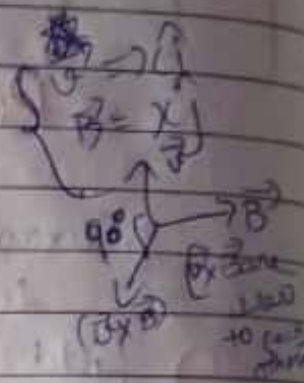
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• $(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \vec{v} = 0$

∵ \vec{v} and $(\vec{v} \times \vec{B})$ are \perp to each other

$$\boxed{dw = (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{v}) dq dt}$$

If $\rho = \text{Vol}^m \text{ charge density}$,
 $\rho = \frac{dq}{dV} \Rightarrow dq = \rho dV$



Now, $dw = (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{v}) \rho dV dt$

$$\Rightarrow dw = (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{v} \rho) dV dt$$

$$\vec{v} \rho = \vec{J}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v} \rho = \vec{J}$$

$$\vec{J} = \frac{dq}{dV} \vec{v} = \rho \vec{v}$$

$$dw = (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}) dV dt$$

$$\boxed{\frac{dw}{dt} = (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}) dV}$$

\Rightarrow Rate at which total work is done on all the charges in Vol^m V .

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \iiint_V (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}) dV \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$\Rightarrow \vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}$ represents work done per unit time per unit vol^m by \vec{E} or power dissipated per unit vol^m.

work done \vec{B} is zero,

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \left[\vec{J} + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0} (\nabla \times \vec{B}) = \vec{J} + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

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$$\vec{J} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} (\nabla \times \vec{B}) - \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{E} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{B}) - \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \quad (3)$$

Using vector identity :-

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot (\vec{A} \times \vec{B}) = \vec{B} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{A}) - \vec{A} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{B})$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{B}) = \vec{B} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{A}) - \nabla \cdot (\vec{A} \times \vec{B}) \quad (4)$$

Using Eqn. (4) in Eqn. (3),

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \left[\vec{B} \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{E}) - \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \right] - \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

Acc. to Faraday's law :-

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \left[\vec{B} \cdot \left(\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} \right) - \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \right] - \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{1}{\mu_0} \left[\vec{B} \cdot \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} - \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\mu_0} \frac{d}{dt} (2\vec{B} \cdot \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}) - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt} (2\vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}) - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{E}) = \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} + \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} = 2\vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\vec{B} \cdot \vec{B}) = 2\vec{B} \cdot \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

$$\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{1}{2\mu_0} \frac{d}{dt} (2\vec{B} \cdot \vec{B}) - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt} (2\vec{E} \cdot \vec{E}) - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$$

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$$\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\epsilon_0 \frac{dE^2}{dt} + \frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{dB^2}{dt} \right] - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$$

Substituting $\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}$ in eqn. (2)

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \iiint_V -\frac{1}{2} \left[\epsilon_0 \frac{dE^2}{dt} + \frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{dB^2}{dt} \right] - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \, dV$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dw}{dt} = -\frac{d}{dt} \iiint_V \frac{1}{2} \left[\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2 \right] dV - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \iiint_V \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \, dV$$

\Rightarrow Acc to divergence theorem

$$\iiint_V \nabla \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \, dV = \oiint_S (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{S}$$

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = -\frac{d}{dt} \iiint_V \frac{1}{2} \left[\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2 \right] dV - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \oiint_S (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{S} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$\Rightarrow \frac{dw}{dt}$ represents the rate at which work is done on all the charges in vol^m. V .

This is the required expression for Poynting theorem.

$$\iiint \frac{1}{2} (\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2) dV = U_{em} \text{ represents}$$

the total Energy stored in the Electric and magnetic field.

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$\frac{1}{\mu_0} \oint_S (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{s}$ represents the rate at which Energy flows out of the surface S Enclosing the volume V .

\Rightarrow The vector $\frac{1}{\mu_0} (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$ represents the amount of ^{energy} flow per unit time per unit area by the field and is called Poynting Vector.

$$\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} [\vec{E} \times \vec{B}]$$

Electromagnetic wave Equations in a medium having finite permittivity and permeability but with conductivity $\sigma = 0$

• Medium is a "sub" that makes possible wave Eqn. satisfied by \vec{E} and \vec{B} in transfer of energy from one dielectric medium to another dielectric medium. — It may be defined as that a dielectric medium in which the electric conductivity is not another, equal to zero yet it is not good conductor.

Especially in waves called **Dielectric**: — Insulating material, a very medium, poor conductor of electric current.

Ex:- plastics, Glass, various metal oxides and even dry air is also ex. of dielectric.

In a dielectric medium, there are no free charges: —

$$\rho = 0 \text{ (vol. charge density)}$$

$$\sigma = 0 \text{ (conductivity)}$$

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$\vec{J} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \vec{A}$
 $\vec{E} = -\nabla \phi - \dot{\vec{A}}$
 $\vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{H}$ (magnetic induction)
 $\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \vec{A}$ (magnetic field intensity)

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E} = 0$$

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

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$$

→ vacuum permittivity of free space → permeability

Where ϵ and μ have finite values. Maxwell's **Para-metric** Equations are: —

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu \left[\vec{J} + \epsilon \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \right]$$

$$= \mu \epsilon \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \quad \text{--- (4)} \quad \begin{cases} (\epsilon \vec{E} = \vec{D}) \\ (\vec{J} = 0) \end{cases}$$

(a) Wave Equation for Electric field vector \vec{E} :

Taking curl of both sides of Eqn. (3) we get.

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{E}) = -\nabla \times \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

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Using Identity: $\nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{A}) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) - \nabla^2 \vec{A}$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{E}) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E}$$

$$\nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = -\nabla \times \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

$$\nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = -\nabla \times \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

$$\nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = -\frac{d}{dt}(\nabla \times \vec{B})$$

Using Eqn. (1) and Eqn. (4).

$$0 - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = -\frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{\mu \epsilon \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}}{dt} \right]$$

$$+\nabla^2 \vec{E} = +\mu \epsilon \frac{d^2 \vec{E}}{dt^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu \epsilon \frac{d^2 \vec{E}}{dt^2} \quad \text{This is general Electromagnetic}$$

Wave Eqn. in terms of electric field vector \vec{E} in a dielectric medium (non-conducting).

(b) wave Eqn. for magnetic field (\vec{B}).

Taking curl of both sides of Eqn. (1),

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = \vec{\nabla} \times \mu \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{B} \times \vec{C}) = \vec{B}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{C}) - \vec{C}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B})$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}) - \vec{B}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) = \vec{\nabla} \times \mu \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}) - \nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu \epsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt}(\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E})$$

Using Eqn. (2) and (3) we get

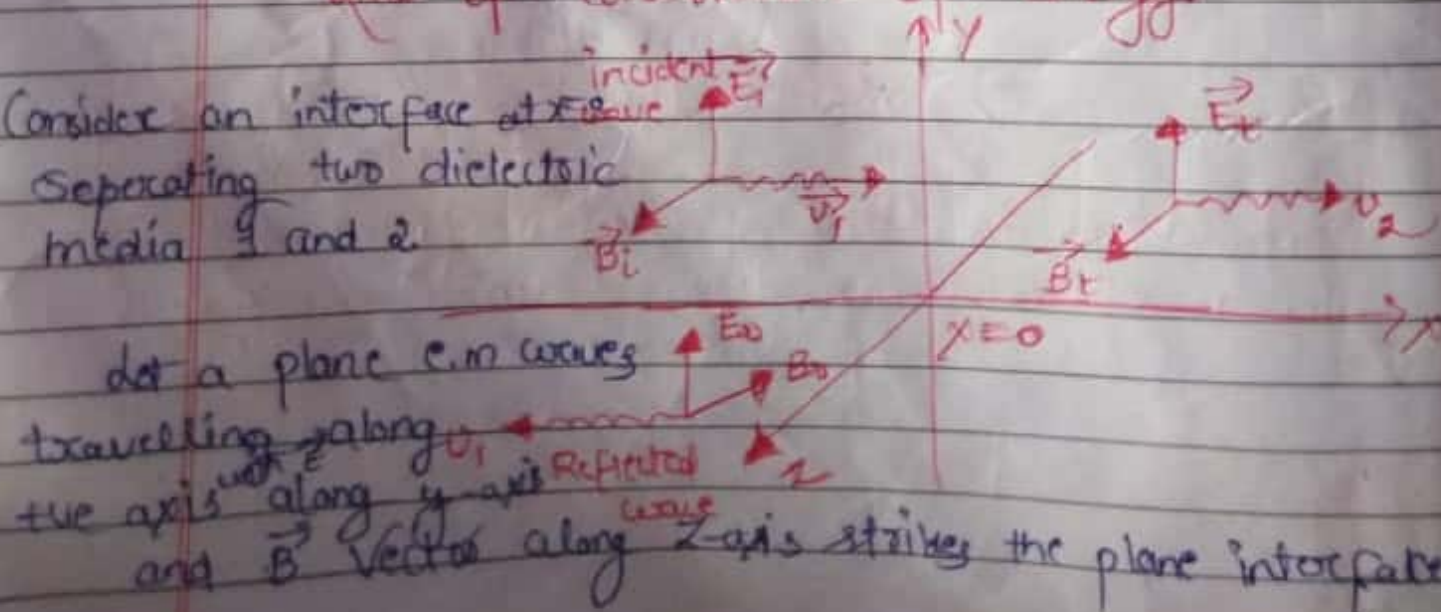
$$0 - \nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu \epsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt} \left[-\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} \right]$$

$$\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu \epsilon_0 \frac{d^2 \vec{B}}{dt^2}$$

This is the general electromagnetic wave Eqn. in terms of magnetic field \vec{B} in dielectric medium.

Reflection and Transmission of E.M waves at Normal incidence at a plane Boundary of two Dielectrics or Law of Conservation of Energy.

Consider an interface at $x=0$ separating two dielectric media 1 and 2.



Physics:

Solution of wave Equation in a Conducting medium:

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Page No. $\frac{2}{1} + 2 \times 10 = 22$

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* Wave Eqn. for electric field vector \vec{E} in a conducting medium is:-

$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} - \frac{\mu \sigma}{c} \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} - \frac{\mu \epsilon}{c^2} \frac{d^2 \vec{E}}{dt^2} = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

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Let the wave is propagating along x-direction with \vec{E} along y-axis and \vec{B} vector along z-axis.

i.e. $E_y \neq 0, E_x = 0$ and $E_z = 0$

\vec{E} is the funct. of x and t only. There is no vib. of \vec{E} y and z-axis.

Eqn. (1) can be written as:-

$$\frac{d^2 \vec{E}}{dx^2} - \frac{\mu \sigma}{c} \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} - \frac{\mu \epsilon}{c^2} \frac{d^2 \vec{E}}{dt^2} = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Plane Solⁿ. of this Eqn. is: $\vec{E} = E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$ --- (3)

* Subst. this Eqn. in (2) we get.

$$\frac{d^2 (E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)})}{dx^2} - \frac{\mu \sigma}{c} \frac{d E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)}}{dt} - \frac{\mu \epsilon}{c^2} \frac{d^2 E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)}}{dt^2} = 0.$$

$$i^2 k^2 E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)} - \mu \sigma (-i\omega) E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)} - \mu \epsilon (i^2 \omega^2) E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)} = 0$$

$$E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)} [-k^2 + i\mu\sigma\omega + \mu\epsilon\omega^2] = 0.$$

$$-k^2 + i\mu\sigma\omega + \mu\epsilon\omega^2 = 0$$

$$k^2 = \mu\epsilon\omega^2 + i\mu\sigma\omega \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

This Eqn. shows that the conducting medium, propagation constant k is a complex quantity

$$\text{Let } k = \alpha + i\beta \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

where the real part α is called attenuation constt. and imaginary part β is called phase constt.

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Squaring Eqn. (5).

$$k^2 = \alpha^2 - \beta^2 + 2i\alpha\beta \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

Comparing real and imaginary part of Eqn. (4) and (6) Eqn.

$$\alpha^2 - \beta^2 = \mu\epsilon\omega^2 \quad \text{--- (7)} \quad 2\alpha\beta = \mu\sigma\omega \quad \text{--- (8)} \quad \beta = \frac{\mu\sigma\omega}{2\alpha} \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

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Substituting Eqn. (9) in Eqn. (7) we get

$$\alpha^2 - \left(\frac{\mu\sigma\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^2 = \mu\epsilon\omega^2 \Rightarrow \alpha^2 - \frac{\mu^2\sigma^2\omega^2}{4\alpha^2} = \mu\epsilon\omega^2$$

Multi. or divide by α^2 :-

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^4 - \frac{\mu^2\sigma^2\omega^2}{4} = (\mu\epsilon\omega^2)\alpha^2 \Rightarrow \alpha^4 - (\mu\epsilon\omega^2)\alpha^2 - \frac{\mu^2\sigma^2\omega^2}{4} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^2 = \frac{\mu\epsilon\omega^2 \pm \sqrt{(\mu\epsilon\omega^2)^2 + 4\left(\frac{\mu^2\sigma^2\omega^2}{4}\right)}}{2} \Rightarrow \alpha^2 = \frac{\mu\epsilon\omega^2 \pm \sqrt{(\mu\epsilon\omega^2)^2 + \mu^2\sigma^2\omega^2}}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^2 = \frac{\mu\epsilon\omega^2 \pm \mu\epsilon\omega^2 \sqrt{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2\omega^2}}}{2} \Rightarrow \text{Choosing the +ve sign}$$

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

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

for a good conduc., $\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon\omega} \gg 1$,

neglecting 1 as compared to $\left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2$, $\alpha = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\mu\epsilon}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon\omega}\right)}$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \sqrt{\frac{\mu\sigma\omega}{2}} \Rightarrow \text{Subs. } \alpha \text{ in Eqn. (9)} \Rightarrow \beta = \frac{\mu\sigma\omega}{2} \times \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu\sigma\omega}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\mu\sigma\omega}{2}} \Rightarrow \alpha = \beta = \sqrt{\frac{\mu\sigma\omega}{2}} \cdot \text{Subst. the value of } k \text{ from Eqn. (5) in Eqn. (3)}$$

$$\vec{E} = E_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)} = E_0 e^{i(\alpha + i\beta - \omega t)} = E_0 e^{-\beta x} \times e^{i(\alpha x - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

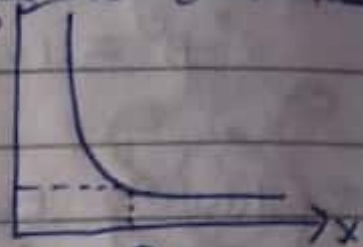
Eqn (2) is the Eqn. of plane e.m wave whose amplitude of $E_0 e^{-\beta x}$. This shows that the amplitude of e.m wave dec. exp. as wave travels in the conducting medium.

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*

Skin Depth: It states that the distance travelled by Electromagnetic wave or Electric Field vector in a Conductor during which the amplitude of wave decays to $\frac{1}{e}$ times its value on the surface of the Cond.



It is denoted by δ .

$E_a(\delta) = \frac{1}{e} E_0$ (1), when electromagnetic wave travels through the conducting medium, the wave is attenuated. This means that amplitude of the wave of both electric and magnetic field of e.m. waves decreases with distⁿ.

Let wave is propagated along x-direction. Then, the amplitude of Electric field in the conductor is:-

$E_a(x) = E_0 e^{-\beta x}$, E_0 is the Electric field at the surf. of the conductor. , $\beta = \sqrt{\frac{\mu \sigma \omega}{2}}$, $\omega =$ angular freq. of waves
 $\mu =$ permeability of Cond. and $\sigma =$ conductivity of cond.

* Amplitude of Electric field at a distⁿ $x = \delta$.

$E_a(\delta) = E_0 e^{-\beta \delta}$ (2). From Eqn. (1) and (2) we get
 $E_0 e^{-\beta \delta} = \frac{E_0}{e} \Rightarrow E_0 e^{-\beta \delta} = e^{-1} E_0 \Rightarrow \beta \delta = 1$.

$\delta = \frac{1}{\beta} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu \sigma \omega}}$ (4) $\beta = \frac{E}{E_{surf}}$
 This Eqn shows that the

Skin depth is inversely proportional to the square root of

the angular frequency. E-m wave of highest frequency travels small distⁿ through a conducting medium.

For perfect conductor $\sigma = \infty$,

skin depth $\delta = 0$ i.e. It means that no e.m wave can penetrate through a perfect conductor.

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* Wave or Phase Velocity of E-m waves in a conducting Medium or Conductor :-

The wave velocity of e.m wave in a medium is given by :-

$v = \frac{\omega}{k}$, ω is the angular frequency and k is propagation constt., For conducting medium, k is complex quantity.

$k = \alpha + i\beta$. — (2), For a good conductor,

$\alpha = \left[\frac{\mu \sigma \omega}{2} \right]^{1/2}$ (3) As the wave velocity is always real

So take part of k i.e. i.e. $k = \alpha$, Eqn (1) becomes

$$v = \frac{\omega}{\alpha}$$

Using Eqn. (3) we get -

$$v = \frac{\omega}{\sqrt{\frac{\mu \sigma \omega}{2}}} = \frac{(\omega \mu)^{1/2}}{\sigma \omega} = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi \mu}{\sigma \mu}} \quad (4) \text{ Hence}$$

The wave or phase of velocity of Electro-magnetic wave in a conducting medium or conductor is depends upon its frequency. Ans.

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* Characteristic Impedance or Intrinsic Impedance or wave impedance of free space.

Definition: - The ratio of magnitude of Electric field intensity (\vec{E}) to the magnitude of magnetic field intensity (\vec{H}).

$$Z_0 = \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}}$$

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S.I unit of characteristic impedance is ohm (Ω)

Derivation: - The wave equations for Electromagnetic waves in free space are

$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

The plane wave solution of the above Egn. can be written as:-

$$\vec{E} = \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

For free space, Maxwell's third Egn. is

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

Substituting Eqn. (3) and (4) in Eqn. (5)

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} = -\frac{d}{dt} \vec{B}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$i\vec{k} \times \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} = -(-i\omega) \vec{B}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$i\vec{k} \times \vec{E} = i\omega \vec{B}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{k} \times \vec{E} = \omega \vec{B} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

\vec{B} is \perp to both \vec{k} and \vec{E} . The vectors $\vec{E}, \vec{B}, \vec{k}$ form a right handed orthogonal set.

But $\vec{k} = k\hat{n}$, where \hat{n} is a unit vector along the direction of propagation of Em wave.

Eqn. (6) can be written as:

$$k(\hat{n} \times \vec{E}) = \omega \vec{B} \Rightarrow \vec{B} = \frac{\omega}{k} \vec{H}$$

$$k(\hat{n} \times \vec{E}) = \mu_0 \omega \vec{H} \Rightarrow \vec{H} = \frac{k}{\mu_0 \omega} (\hat{n} \times \vec{E}),$$

$$\text{Now } k = \frac{\omega}{c}, \vec{H} = \frac{\omega}{c \times \mu_0} (\hat{n} \times \vec{E}).$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0 c} (\hat{n} \times \vec{E}). \Rightarrow \vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0 c} |\vec{E}|$$

$$|\vec{E}| = \mu_0 c |\vec{H}| \Rightarrow c = \frac{\mu_0 c}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

In free space

$$\frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \mu_0 c \Rightarrow \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}}$$

The unit of E is Volt/metre and unit of H is Am⁻¹.

The unit ratio of $\frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|}$ is equal to $\frac{\text{volt}}{\text{ampere}} = \text{ohm}$, classmate

$\frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|}$ has same unit as those of impe-

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-dence and is called as characteristic or intrinsic impedance of free space.

It is denoted by Z_0 .

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$$Z_0 = \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi \times 10^{-7}}{8.85 \times 10^{-12}}} = 376.6 \text{ ohms}$$

377 ohm

Important Note:—

• Free space offers an impedance of 377 ohm to the e.m. wave travelling through it.

Also the ratio of $\frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|}$ is real and positive. \vec{E} and \vec{H} are the same phase of vibration. When the

amplitude of \vec{E} is max^m then the amplitude of \vec{H} is also max^m.

*** Characteristic impedance or Intrinsic impedance of a Dielectric medium to E.M wave.**

Definition:— The ratio of magnitude of electric field intensity to the amplitude of magnetic field intensity ($|\vec{H}|$).

$$Z_d = \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}}$$

Derivation: — The wave Eqn. for e.m. waves in a dielectric medium is given by:

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$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu \epsilon \frac{d^2 \vec{E}}{dt^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu \epsilon \frac{d^2 \vec{B}}{dt^2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

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The plane wave solutions of above Eqn. can be written as:

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{B} = \vec{B}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

For dielectric medium, Maxwell's third Eqn. is

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = - \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

Substituting Eqns (3) and (4) in Eqn. (5) we get

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} = - \frac{d}{dt} \vec{B}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$i\vec{k} \times \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} = - (i\omega) \vec{B}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$i\vec{k} \times \vec{E} = i\omega \vec{B}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{k} \times \vec{E} = \omega \vec{B}$$

\vec{B} is \perp to both \vec{k} and \vec{E} .

But $\vec{K} = k\hat{n}$, \hat{n} is the unit vector along the direction of propagation of the E-m waves.

$$k(\hat{n} \times \vec{E}) = \omega \vec{B}$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} \Rightarrow k(\hat{n} \times \vec{E}) = \omega(\mu \vec{H})$$

$$\vec{H} = \frac{k}{\omega \mu} (\hat{n} \times \vec{E}) = \frac{k}{\omega \mu} = \frac{\omega}{v} \Rightarrow \vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu v} (\hat{n} \times \vec{E})$$

$$\text{or } \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \mu v \Rightarrow v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu \epsilon}} \Rightarrow \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \mu \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu \epsilon}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \Rightarrow \text{The ratio of } \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} \text{ has units equal}$$

to $\frac{\text{Volt}}{\text{amp.}} = \text{ohm.}$

$\frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|}$ has same units of those of impedance

and it is called as characteristic or intrinsic impedance of dielectric medium. It is denoted by Z . It is denoted by Z .

$$Z = \frac{|\vec{E}|}{|\vec{H}|} = \left[\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \right]$$

Since, $\mu = \mu_r \mu_0$ and $\epsilon = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0$

$$Z = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_r \mu_0}{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_r \times \mu_0}{\epsilon_r \times \epsilon_0}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_r}{\epsilon_r}} \times Z_0$$

Where $Z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}}$ is the impedance of free space

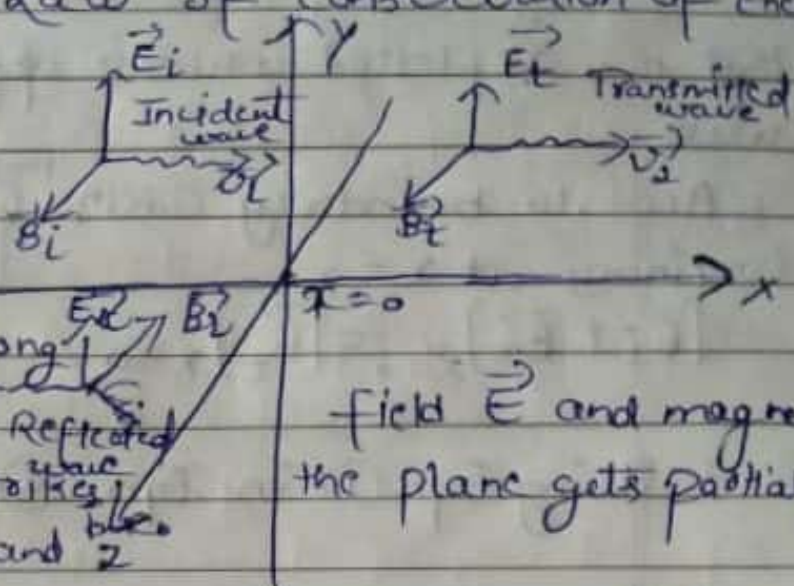
This is the relationship betⁿ. impedance
of dielectric medium
and impedance of free space.

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Physics:

Reflection and transmission of EM wave at normal incidence at a plane boundary of two dielectrics of law of conservation of Energy

Consider an interface at $x=0$ in two dielectric media I and II. Let a plane EM travelling along the x -axis with Electric field \vec{E} along z -axis. It is partially reflected, transmitted and



field \vec{E} and magnetic the plane gets partially

Let ϵ_1, ϵ_2 and μ_1, μ_2 are the electrical permittivity and electrical permeability of two dielectrics. v_1, v_2 are the velocities of e.m in med 1 and 2. k_1 and k_2 are the propagation vectors in these two media.

The Electric field associated with incident, reflected and transmitted are:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{E}_i &= E_0 i e^{i(k_1 x - \omega t)} \\ \vec{E}_r &= E_0 r e^{i(k_1 x - \omega t)} \\ \vec{E}_t &= E_0 t e^{i(k_2 x - \omega t)} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{--- (1)}$$

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(where, ω is same in both dielectric media 1, 2 and propagation constt. are:

$$k_1 = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi}{v_1} = \frac{\omega}{v_1} \text{--- (2)}$$

$$k_2 = \frac{\omega}{v_2} \text{--- (3), } \vec{B} = \vec{E} \times \hat{n}$$

The magnetic field corresponding to the incident, reflected and transmitted waves are:

$$\vec{B}_i = \frac{1}{v_1} E_{oi} e^{i(k_1 x - \omega t)} \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{B}_r = -\frac{1}{v_1} E_{ox} e^{i(-k_1 x - \omega t)} \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{B}_t = \frac{1}{v_2} E_{ot} e^{i(k_2 x - \omega t)} \hat{k}$$

— (4)

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The minus sign shows

that the reflected wave is opposite to the incident wave.

Acc. to boundary Condⁿ tang. Components of \vec{E} must be continuous at $x=0$.

$$[\vec{E}_i + \vec{E}_r]_{x=0} = [\vec{E}_t]_{x=0} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

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Using Eqn. (i) in Eqn. (5), we get.

$$E_{oi} + E_{ox} = E_{ot} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

By \vec{H} must also be conti. at $x=0$,

$$[\vec{H}_i + \vec{H}_r]_{x=0} = [\vec{H}_t]_{x=0}, \quad \vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} \quad \text{(m.f.l)}$$

magn. Induction

$$\text{Now, } \frac{1}{\mu_1} [\vec{B}_i + \vec{B}_r]_{x=0} = \frac{1}{\mu_2} [\vec{B}_t]_{x=0} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

Using Eqn. (4) in Eqn. (7) we get,

$$\frac{1}{\mu_1} \left[\frac{E_{oi}}{v_1} - \frac{E_{ox}}{v_1} \right] = \frac{1}{\mu_2} \frac{E_{ot}}{v_2}$$

$$E_{oi} - E_{ox} = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} E_{ot}, \quad \text{For non-magnetic media } \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_0$$

$$\frac{\mu_0}{\mu_0} E_{oi} - E_{ox} = \frac{v_1}{v_2} E_{ot} \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

$$E_{oi} + E_{ox} = 2 E_{oi}$$

Adding Eqn. (6) and (8), we get.

$$= E_{ot}$$

$$n^2 E_{oi} = \left[1 + \frac{v_1}{v_2} \right] E_{ot} = \left[\frac{v_2 + v_1}{v_2} \right] E_{ot}$$

$$E_{ot} = \left[\frac{2v_2}{v_1 + v_2} \right] E_{oi} \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

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Using Eqn. (9) in Eqn. (6) we get

$$E_{oi} + E_{ox} = \left[\frac{2v_2}{v_1 + v_2} \right] E_{oi}$$

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$$E_{ox} = \left[\frac{2v_2}{v_1 + v_2} \right] E_{oi} - E_{oi} \Rightarrow E_{ox} = \left[\frac{2v_2}{v_1 + v_2} - 1 \right] E_{oi}$$

$$E_{ox} = \left[\frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_1 + v_2} \right] E_{oi} \Rightarrow E_{ox} = \left[\frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_1 + v_2} \right] E_{oi} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

If $v_2 > v_1$, the reflected wave is in phase with incident wave. i.e. $v_2 < v_1$, the reflected wave is out phase with the incident wave.

$$n = \frac{c}{v} \quad \text{or} \quad v = \frac{c}{n} \quad \text{--- (11)} \quad \text{Eqn. (9) and (10) can be written as:--}$$

$$E_{ot} = \frac{2 \frac{c}{n_2}}{\left[\frac{c}{n_1} + \frac{c}{n_2} \right]} E_{oi} = \left[\frac{2n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \right] E_{oi} \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

$$E_{ox} = \frac{\left[\frac{c}{n_2} - \frac{c}{n_1} \right]}{\left[\frac{c}{n_1} + \frac{c}{n_2} \right]} E_{oi} = \left[\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right] E_{oi} \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

Intensity of em wave is given by: $I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 v E_0^2$

Intensity of incident, reflected and transmitted wave :-

$$\Rightarrow I_i = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 v_1 E_{oi}^2$$

$$I_x = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_1 v_1 E_{ox}^2$$

$$I_t = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_2 v_2 E_{ot}^2$$

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(i) Reflection Co-efficient (R): It states that the ratio of intensity of (incident) Reflected wave to the intensity of incident wave is called Reflection Co-efficient.

$$R = \frac{I_x}{I_i} = \left[\frac{E_{ox}}{E_{oi}} \right]^2$$

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Using Eqn. (13) we get, $R = \left[\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right]^2$ — (14)

(ii) Transmission Co-efficient (T): It states that the ratio of intensity of transmitted wave to the intensity of incident wave.

$$T = \frac{I_t}{I_i} = \frac{\epsilon_2 v_2}{\epsilon_1 v_1} \left[\frac{E_{ot}}{E_{oi}} \right]^2$$

Using Eqn. (12) we get

$$T = \frac{\epsilon_2 v_2}{\epsilon_1 v_1} \left(\frac{2n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2, \quad n \propto \sqrt{\epsilon} \text{ and } n \propto \frac{1}{v}$$

$$\frac{\epsilon_2 v_2}{\epsilon_1 v_1} = \frac{n_2^2 n_1}{n_1^2 n_2} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \Rightarrow T = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \left(\frac{2n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2$$

$$T = \frac{4n_1 n_2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2} \quad \text{--- (15)}$$

Adding (14) and (15), we get.

$$R + T = \frac{(n_1 - n_2)^2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2} + \frac{4n_1 n_2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2}$$

$$R + T = \frac{n_1^2 + n_2^2 - 2n_1 n_2 + 4n_1 n_2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2} = \frac{n_1^2 + n_2^2 + 2n_1 n_2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2}$$

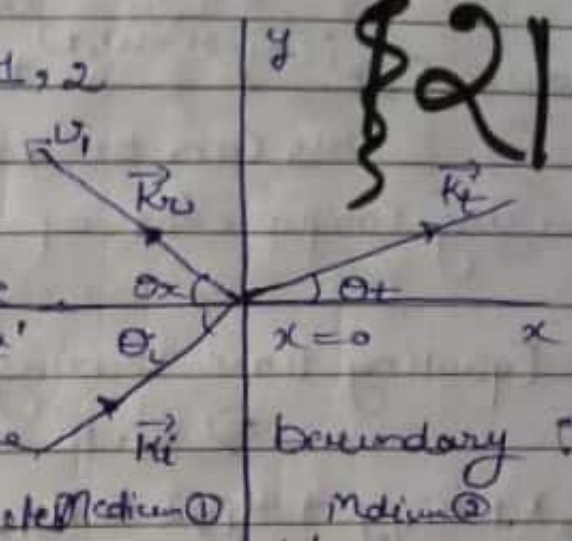
$$R + T = \frac{(n_1 + n_2)^2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2} = 1 \Rightarrow R + T = 1$$

This is the law of Conservation of Energy.

Reflection and Transmission of Electromagnetic waves at Oblique Incidence at a plane boundary of Dielectric

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Consider two dielectric media 1, 2 separated by yy' at $x=0$. Let a plane EM wave with wave vector \vec{k}_i and angular frequency ω_i be incident at an angle θ_i on a plane boundary.



It is partially reflected at an angle θ_r and partially transmitted at an angle θ_t . n_1 and n_2 are the refractive indices. μ_1 and μ_2 are the Electrical permeabilities of media 1 and 2.

\vec{k}_r and \vec{k}_t be the wave vector of reflected and transmitted wave. is?

ω_r and ω_t are frequencies of reflected and transmitted wave.

For incident wave, $i(\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_i t)$

$$\vec{E}_i = E_{oi} e^{i(\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_i t)}$$

$$\vec{B}_i = \frac{\vec{k}_i \times \vec{E}_i}{\omega_i}$$

For Reflected wave $i(\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_r t)$

$$\vec{E}_r = E_{or} e^{i(\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} - \omega_r t)}$$

$$\vec{B}_r = \frac{\vec{k}_r \times \vec{E}_r}{\omega_r}$$

For transmitted wave:

$$\vec{E}_t = E_{0t} e^{i(\vec{k}_t \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$\vec{B}_t = \vec{k}_t \times \vec{E}_t$$

Acc. to boundary cond

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Now, $E_{0i} e^{i(\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} + E_{0r} e^{i(\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} = E_{0t} e^{i(\vec{k}_t \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$

This can be satisfied its time and space varying components of phase are equal.

Equating time varying components,

$$\Rightarrow \vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}_t \cdot \vec{r}$$

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$$k_{ix}x + k_{iy}y + k_{iz}z = k_{rx}x + k_{ry}y + k_{rz}z = k_{tx}x + k_{ty}y + k_{tz}z$$

At interface $x=0$,

$$k_{iy}y + k_{iz}z = k_{ry}y + k_{rz}z = k_{ty}y + k_{tz}z$$

y and z are independent

$$k_{iy} = k_{ry} = k_{ty}$$

$$k_{iz} = k_{rz} = k_{tz}$$

Let \vec{k}_i lies in xy plane,

But $k_{iz} = 0$,

Then, $k_{rz} = k_{tz} = 0$.

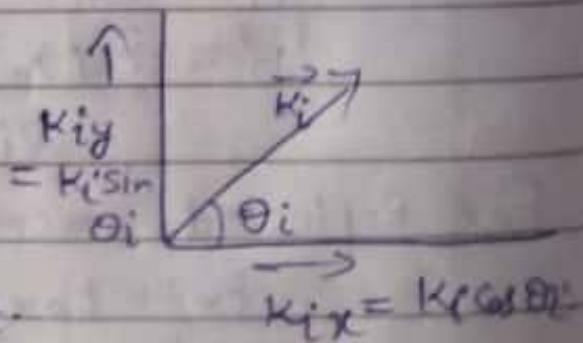
\vec{k}_i and \vec{k}_t also lie in $x-y$ plane.

Normal \hat{n} is along x -axis,

$$k_{iy} = k_i \sin \theta_i$$

$$k_{ry} = k_r \sin \theta_r$$

$$k_{ty} = k_t \sin \theta_t$$



From Eqn (1)

$$k_i \sin \theta_i = k_r \sin \theta_r = k_t \sin \theta_t$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i = k_r$$

$$\sin \theta_i = \sin \theta_r$$

$$\theta_i = \theta_r$$

$$k_i \sin \theta_i = k_t \sin \theta_t$$

$$k_i = \frac{\omega}{v_1}, k_t = \frac{\omega}{v_2}$$

$$\frac{\omega}{v_1} \sin \theta_i = \frac{\omega}{v_2} \sin \theta_t \Rightarrow \frac{1}{v_1} \sin \theta_i = \frac{1}{v_2} \sin \theta_t$$

$$\frac{c}{v_1} \sin \theta_i = \frac{c}{v_2} \sin \theta_t$$

$$n_1 = \frac{c}{v_1} \text{ ref. index of medium (1)}$$

$$n_2 = \frac{c}{v_2}, \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$n_1 \sin \theta_i = n_2 \sin \theta_t$$

$\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_t} = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$, This is known as Snell's law.

* Reflection and Transmission Co-efficients:

Applying boundary Condⁿ: i-

$$(i) (\vec{E}_i + \vec{E}_r)_{x=0} = (\vec{E}_t)_{x=0}$$

$$E_{oi} \cos \theta_i + E_{or} \cos \theta_r = E_{ot} \cos \theta_t \quad (3)$$

$$(ii) \frac{1}{\mu_1} [\vec{B}_i + \vec{B}_r]_{x=0} = \frac{1}{\mu_2} [\vec{B}_t]_{x=0}$$

$$\frac{1}{\mu_1 v_1} (E_{oi} - E_{or}) = \frac{1}{\mu_2 v_2} E_{ot}$$

$$E_{oi} - E_{or} = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} E_{ot} \quad \text{where } v = \frac{c}{n} \text{ and } \mu = \frac{\mu_0}{n}$$

$\frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} = A$
Assume

$$\text{Now, } E_{oi} - E_{or} = A E_{ot} \quad (4)$$

$$A = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} = \frac{\mu_1 n_2}{\mu_2 n_1} \quad (5)$$

$$\theta_i = \theta_r$$

$$\text{Now, } E_{oi} + E_{ox} = \left[\frac{\cos \theta_t}{\cos \theta_i} \right] E_{ot}$$

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$$E_{oi} + E_{ox} = B E_{ot} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

$$B = \frac{\cos \theta_t}{\cos \theta_i} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

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Adding Eqn. (4) and (6) we get.

$$2 E_{oi} = (A+B) E_{ot}$$

$$E_{ot} = \left[\frac{2}{A+B} \right] E_{oi} \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

From Eqn. (6), we get.

$$E_{ox} = B E_{ot} - E_{oi} = \left[\frac{2B}{A+B} \right] E_{oi} - E_{oi}$$

$$= \left[\frac{B-A}{A+B} \right] E_{oi} \quad \text{--- (9)}, \text{ Eqn. (8) and (9) are known as Fresnel's Eqn.}$$

$$\text{From Eqn. (7), } B = \frac{\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_t}}{\cos \theta_i}$$

Acc. to Snell's law

$$\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_t} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \text{ or } \sin \theta_t = \left[\frac{n_1}{n_2} \right] \sin \theta_i$$

$$B = \frac{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{n_1}{n_2} \right)^2 \sin^2 \theta_i}}{\cos \theta_i} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

(i) If $\theta_i = 0$, $B = 1$ Eqn. (8) and (9),

$$E_{ot} = \left[\frac{2}{1+A} \right] E_{oi} = \frac{2 E_{oi}}{\left[\frac{1 + \mu_1 n_2}{\mu_2 n_1} \right]} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

$$E_{ox} = \left[\frac{1-A}{1+A} \right] E_{oi} = \frac{\left[\frac{1 - \mu_1 n_2}{\mu_2 n_1} \right] E_{oi}}{\left[\frac{1 + \mu_1 n_2}{\mu_2 n_1} \right]}$$

$$\left[\frac{\mu_1 n_1 - \mu_2 n_2}{\mu_1 n_1 + \mu_2 n_2} \right] E_{oi} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

If $\theta_i = 90^\circ$ and $\theta_t = \theta_B$ angle of incidence, reflected and transmitted all appears i.e. $E_{ox} = 0$

From Eqn. (1), $A = B$.

$$B = \frac{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 \sin^2 \theta_B}}{\cos \theta_B}, \quad 1 - \left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 \sin^2 \theta_B = B^2 \cos^2 \theta_B$$

$$\sin^2 \theta_B = \frac{1 - B^2 \cos^2 \theta_B}{\left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2} = \frac{1 - B^2 (1 - \sin^2 \theta_B)}{\left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 \sin^2 \theta_B - B^2 \sin^2 \theta_B = 1 - B^2$$

$$\sin^2 \theta_B = \frac{1 - B^2}{\left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 - B^2} \quad \left\{ B = A \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \frac{\mu_1 n_1}{\mu_2 n_2} \quad \text{if } \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

$$\sin^2 \theta_B = \frac{\left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{\mu_1 n_1}{\mu_2 n_2}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{n_2}{n_1}\right)^2} = \frac{n_1^2 - n_2^2 / n_1^2}{\left(\frac{n_1^2}{n_2^2} - \frac{n_2^2}{n_1^2}\right)} = \frac{(n_1^2 - n_2^2) / n_1^2}{\frac{n_1^4 - n_2^4}{n_1^2 n_2^2}}$$

$$= \frac{n_2^2 (n_1^2 - n_2^2)}{(n_1^2 - n_2^2)(n_1^2 + n_2^2)} = \frac{n_2^2}{(n_1^2 + n_2^2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin \theta_B = \frac{n_2}{\sqrt{n_1^2 + n_2^2}} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos \theta_B = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_B} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{n_2^2}{n_1^2 + n_2^2}}$$

$$\cos \theta_B = \frac{n_1}{\sqrt{n_1^2 + n_2^2}} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\tan \theta_B = \frac{\sin \theta_B}{\cos \theta_B} = \left[\frac{n_2}{n_1} \right] \quad (15)$$

Intensity of wave making at an angle

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θ with the normal to the surface is:—

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 v E_0^2 \cos \theta$$

i - Intensities of incident wave, reflected wave and transmitted wave:—

$$I_i = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_1 v_1 E_{oi}^2 \cos \theta_i$$

$$I_r = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_1 v_1 E_{or}^2 \cos \theta_r$$

$$I_t = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_2 v_2 E_{ot}^2 \cos \theta_t$$

Reflection Co-efficient for e.m wave is:

$$R = \frac{I_r}{I_i} = \left[\frac{E_{or}}{E_{oi}} \right]^2 \frac{\cos \theta_r}{\cos \theta_i} = \left[\frac{E_{or}}{E_{oi}} \right]^2, \quad \theta_i = \theta_r$$

Using Eqn. (9) $R = \left[\frac{B-A}{A+B} \right]^2 \quad (17)$

The transmission Co-efficient of e.m wave

$$T = \frac{I_t}{I_i} = \left[\frac{\epsilon_2 v_2}{\epsilon_1 v_1} \right] \left[\frac{E_{ot}}{E_{oi}} \right]^2 \left[\frac{\cos \theta_t}{\cos \theta_i} \right] \quad (18)$$

$$T = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu \epsilon}}, \quad \star \epsilon = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu v^2}}$$

$$\frac{\epsilon_2 v_2}{\epsilon_1 v_1} = \frac{v_2}{v_1} \times \frac{\mu_1 v_1^2}{\mu_2 v_2^2} = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} = A \quad (19)$$

Using Eqn. (7), (8) and (9) in Eqn. (18),

$$T = AB \left[\frac{2}{A+B} \right]^2 \quad (20)$$

Adding Eqn. (17) and (20),

$$R+T = \left[\frac{B-A}{A+B} \right]^2 + \frac{4AB}{(A+B)^2} = 1.$$

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$$\frac{B^2A^2 - 2BA^2 + A^2AB}{(A+B)^2}$$

$$R+T = 1$$

which is law of Conservation

of Energy, Ans

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