

# UNIT-III

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## Electrostatic Fields

- Electrostatics is a branch of science that deals with the static (or in rest) electric charges.
- It is a branch that studies the time invariant electric fields in a space (or) vacuum produced by various types of static charge distributions i.e. line/surface/volume configurations.

### Coulomb's Law:

It deals with the force that one point charge exerts on another point charge. The polarity of charges may be positive (or) negative.

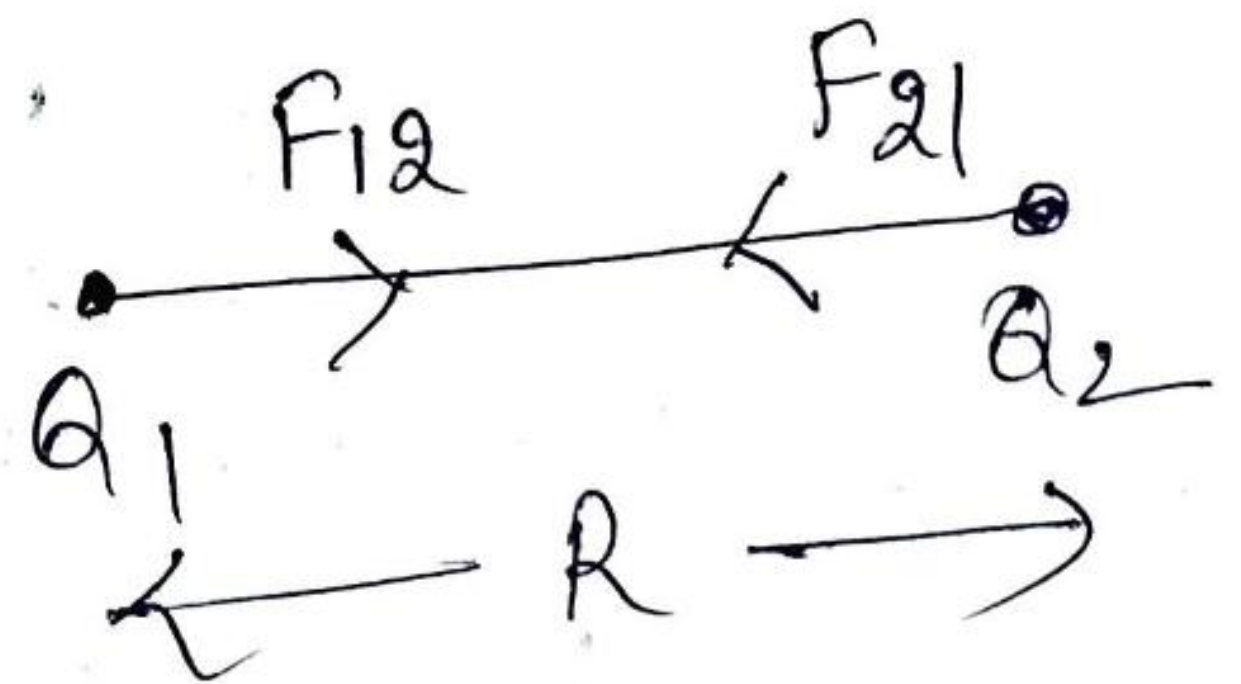
Statement:- It states that the force ( $F$ ) between the 2 point charges  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$ ,

- (i) lies along the line joining the charges
- (ii) directly proportional to product of the charges
- (iii) Inversely proportional to square of the distance ( $R$ ) between them.

$$\text{Mathematically, } F = \frac{kQ_1Q_2}{R^2}$$

where  $k = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon}$  - proportionality constant

where  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0\epsilon_r$ ;  $\epsilon_0$  - permittivity in free space  
 $\epsilon_r$  - permittivity in any medium.





$$\therefore \boxed{F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{R^2}} \text{ Newton} \quad \left( \text{since } \epsilon_r = 1 \text{ for freespace (or) vacuum} \right)$$

Note:-  $\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m} = \frac{1}{36\pi} \times 10^9 \text{ F/m}$

$$k = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} = 9 \times 10^9 \text{ m/F}$$

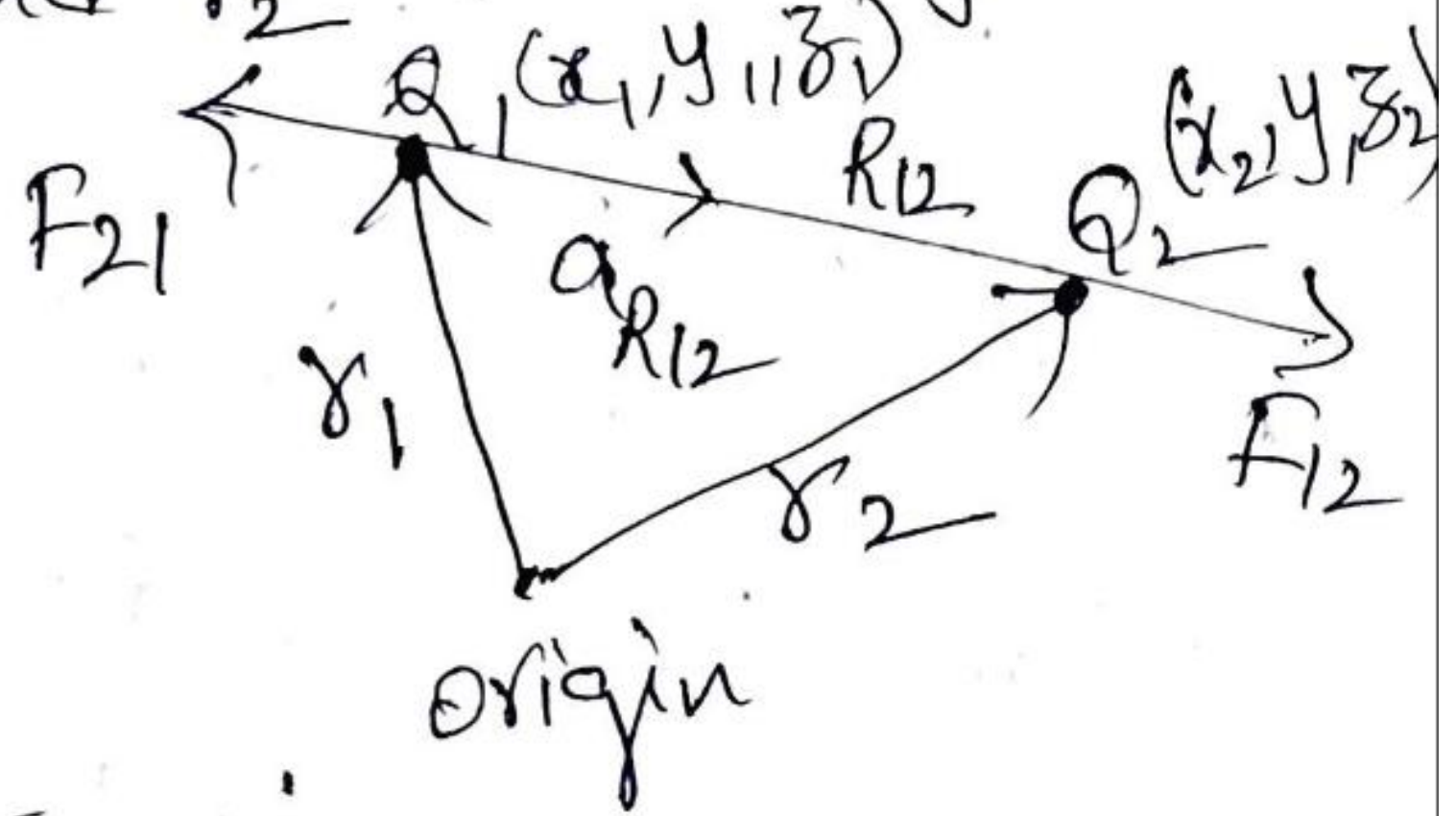
$$1 \text{ C} = 6 \times 10^{18} e^-$$

$$1 e^- = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

Typical values for problems.

### Force in vector form:-

→ If 2 point charges  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  are located at points having position vectors  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  from origin as shown below:



The position vectors are given as:

$$\vec{r}_1 = x_1 a_x + y_1 a_y + z_1 a_z$$

$$\vec{r}_2 = x_2 a_x + y_2 a_y + z_2 a_z$$

$$\therefore \text{Radial distance } \vec{R}_{12} = (r_2 - r_1) = (x_2 - x_1)a_x + (y_2 - y_1)a_y + (z_2 - z_1)a_z$$

$$\text{Also, } \boxed{F_{12} = -F_{21}}$$

→ The force  $F_{12}$  on  $Q_2$  due to  $Q_1$  is:

$$F_{12} = + \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |R_{12}|^2} a_{R12}$$

where,  $\vec{R}_{12} = r_2 - r_1$  and unit vector  $a_{R12} = \frac{\vec{R}_{12}}{|R_{12}|}$



$$\therefore F_{12} = + \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |R_{12}|^2} \cdot \frac{\vec{R}_{12}}{|R_{12}|}$$

$$= + \frac{Q_1 Q_2 (r_2 - r_1)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |R_{12}|^3} = \pm \frac{Q_1 Q_2 (r_2 - r_1)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |r_2 - r_1|^3} \text{ Newton}$$

Note:- unit vector always indicates the direction of force.

- if Force  $\rightarrow$  positive value  $\rightarrow$  Force of repulsion
- if Force  $\rightarrow$  negative value  $\rightarrow$  Force of attraction.

Force for N-charges:-

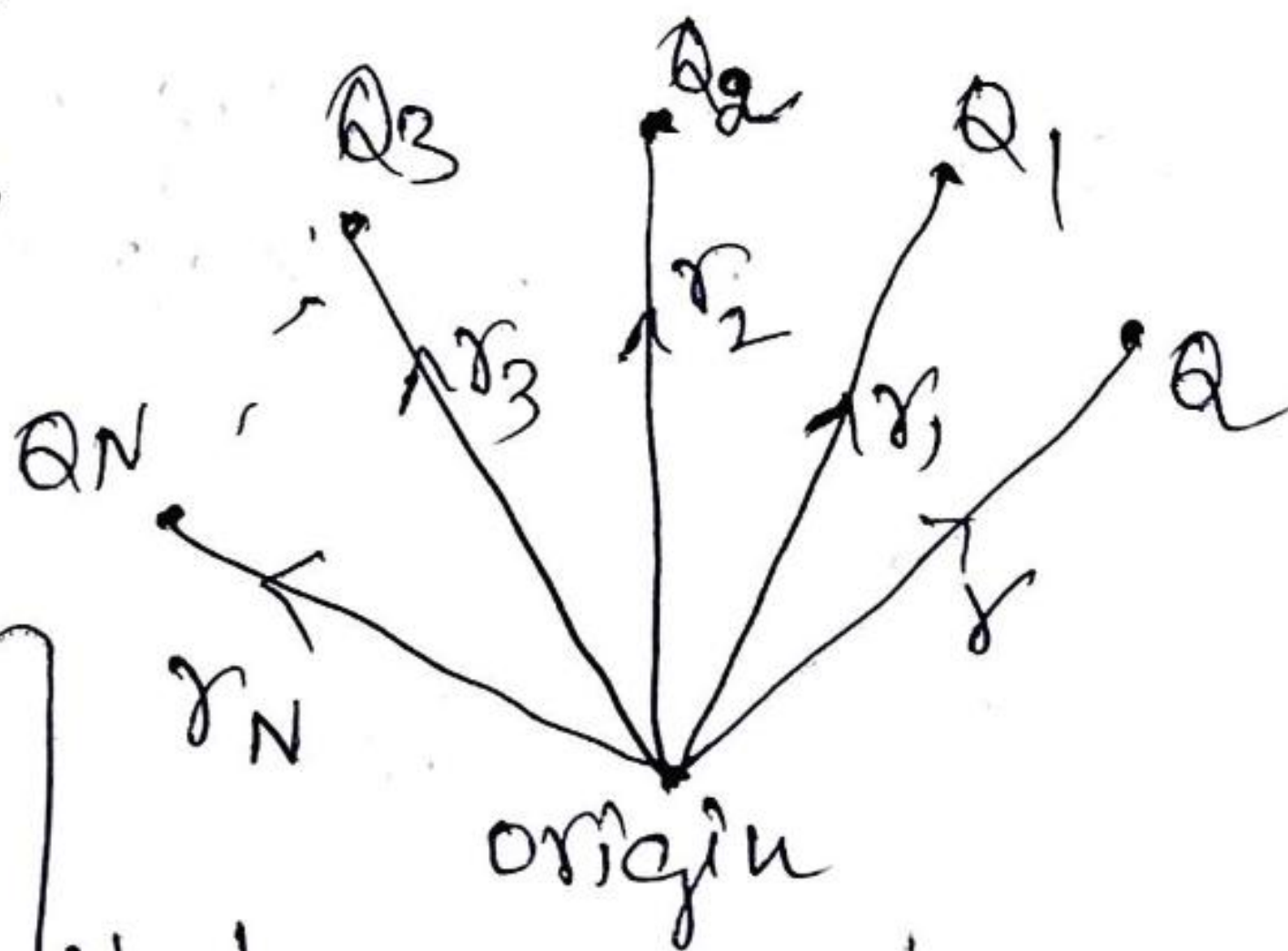
$\rightarrow$  If there are more than 2 points, we use principle of superposition (since force is linear quantity) to determine force on a particular charge.

Note:- coulomb's law is linear, obeys superposition theorem.

$\rightarrow$  let  $Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_N$  be N-charges located at points with position vectors  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N$  as shown in fig:

• then the resultant force is

$$F_T = F_1 + F_2 + F_3 + \dots + F_N$$



$$\therefore F = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{m=1}^N \frac{Q_k (r - r_m)}{|r - r_m|^3} \text{ Newton}$$

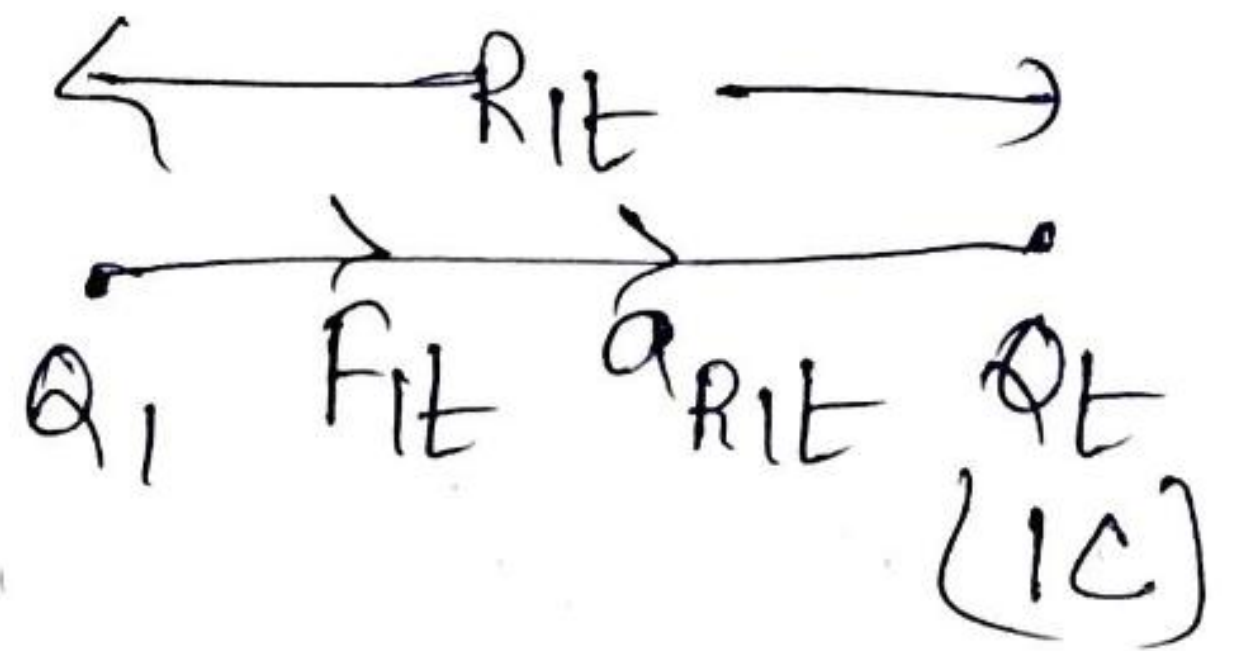
$\approx$



## Electric Field Intensity ( $\vec{E}$ ):

→ The electrostatic force acting on a unit charge placed at that point.

$$F_{it} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_1 Q_t}{|R_{it}|^2} a_{R_{it}}$$



$$\Rightarrow \frac{F_{it}}{Q_t} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_1}{|R_{it}|^2} a_{R_{it}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{|R|^2} a_R} \text{ V/m — for point charge.}$$

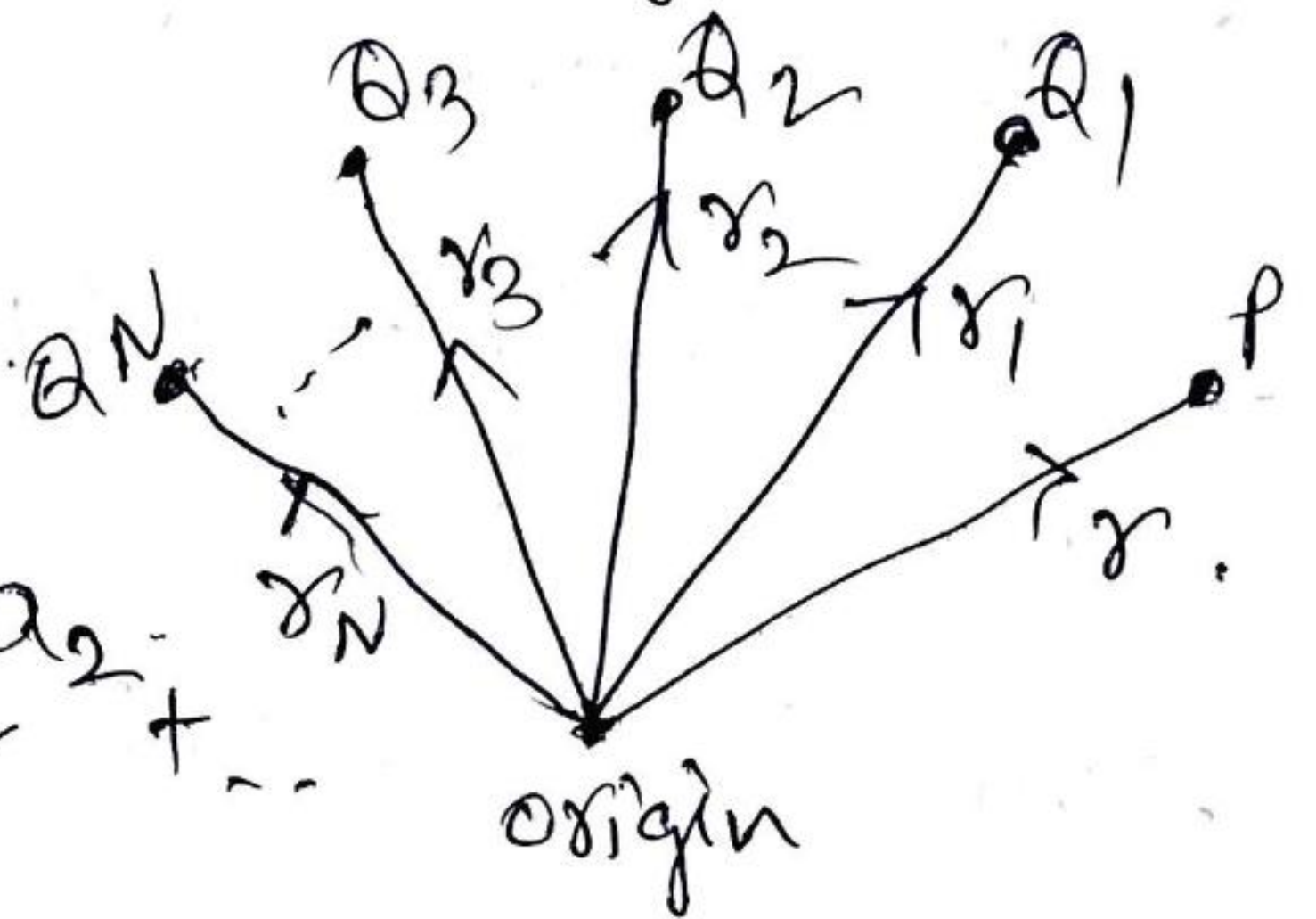
where  $\vec{E} = \frac{F_{it}}{Q_t} = \frac{F}{Q}$  N/C. (Standard definition)

## $\vec{E}$ for N-charges:-

→ Electric field intensity ( $\vec{E}$ ) is linear, obeys the law of superposition.

$$\therefore \vec{E}_T = \vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2 + \vec{E}_3 + \dots + \vec{E}_N$$

$$\vec{E}_T = \frac{Q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |r-r_1|^2} a_1 + \frac{Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |r-r_2|^2} a_2 + \dots$$



$$\therefore \boxed{\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{m=1}^N \frac{Q_m}{|r-r_m|^2} a_m} \text{ V/m.}$$

z.



## Electric Field Intensity due to Infinite Line charge: (3)

→ Consider, a line charge (sequence of point charges) is placed on  $z$ -axis, having charge density  $\rho_L$  (C/m).

• Also, consider a small differential length  $dl$  carrying a charge  $dq$  along  $z$ -axis, hence  $dl = dz$

(i)  $\therefore dq = \rho_L \cdot dz$

(ii) Let  $P$  - observation point

&  $R$  - distance b/w source & point  $P$ .

$\therefore R = r - r'$

$\vec{R} = \rho_{ap} - z' a_z$

•  $|\vec{R}| = \sqrt{\rho^2 + z'^2}$

• direction  $a_{\vec{R}} = \frac{\vec{R}}{|\vec{R}|} = \frac{\rho a_{\rho} - z' a_z}{\sqrt{\rho^2 + z'^2}} \quad \text{--- (1)}$

→ For every charge on +ve  $z$ -axis, there is equal charge present on -ve  $z$ -axis.

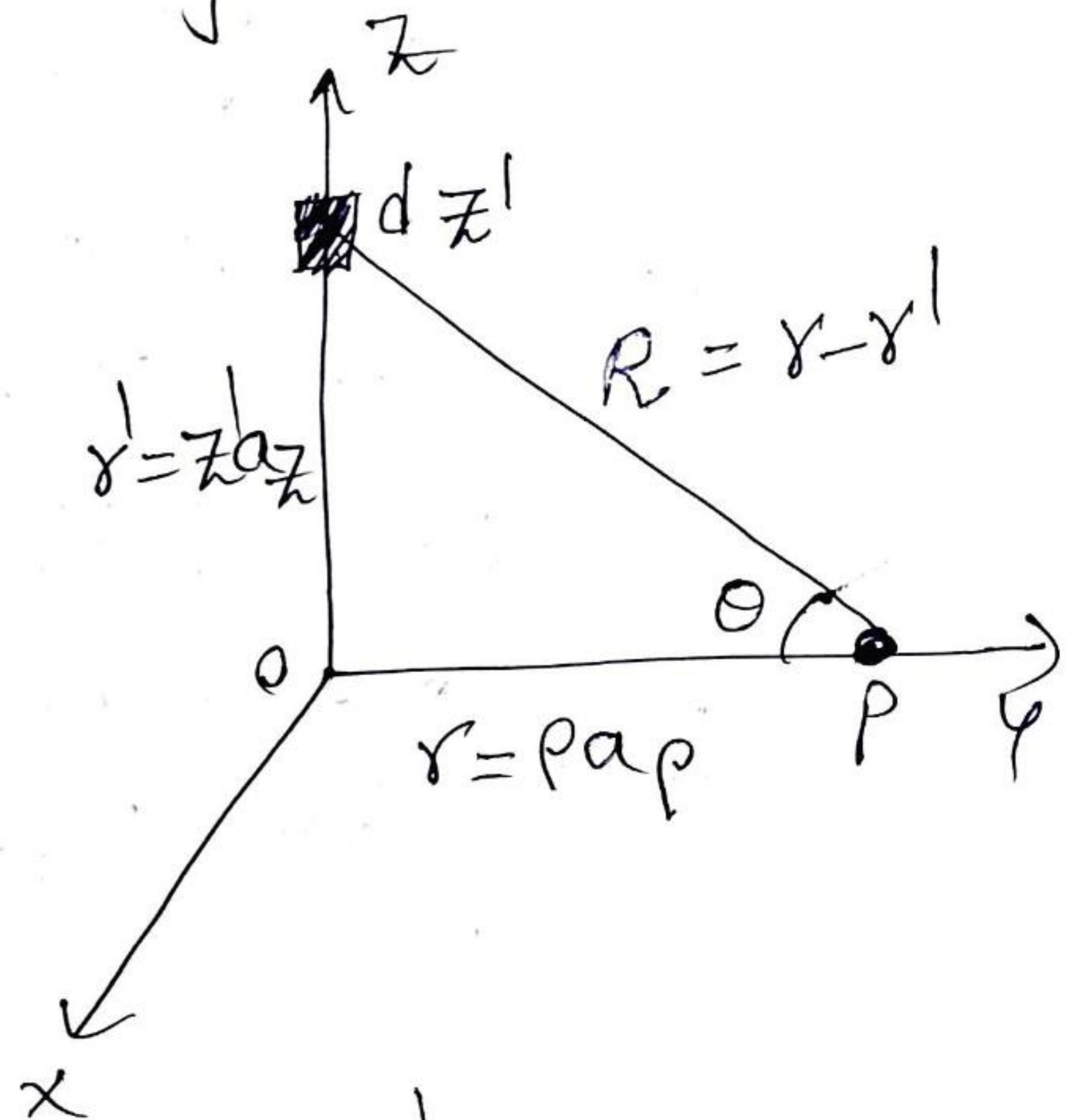
$\therefore \vec{E}$  cancel each other in  $z$ -direction.

$\therefore E_z = 0 \Rightarrow$  no  $z$ -component of  $\vec{E}$

Eq (1) becomes,

$\therefore a_{\vec{R}} = \frac{\rho a_{\rho}}{\sqrt{\rho^2 + z'^2}}$

(since  $a_z = 0$ )





→ We know that:  $\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^2} \hat{a}_R$  (for point charge).

$$dE = \frac{dQ}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |R|^2} \hat{a}_R$$

$$= \frac{\rho_L \cdot dz'}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \sqrt{\rho^2 + z'^2}} \left( \frac{\rho \hat{a}_\rho}{\sqrt{\rho^2 + z'^2}} \right)$$

$$dE = \frac{\rho_L \cdot dz' \rho \hat{a}_\rho}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (\rho^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}}$$

Integrating on both sides

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dE = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\rho_L \cdot \rho \hat{a}_\rho}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (\rho^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}} dz'$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\rho \hat{a}_\rho}{(\rho^2 + z'^2)^{3/2}} dz'$$

Let  $z' = \rho \tan \theta \Rightarrow dz' = \rho \sec^2 \theta d\theta$

$-\infty = \rho \tan \theta \Rightarrow \theta = -\pi/2$   
 $+\infty = \rho \tan \theta \Rightarrow \theta = \pi/2$  } limits.

$$\therefore \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \frac{\rho \hat{a}_\rho}{(\rho^2 + \rho^2 \tan^2 \theta)^{3/2}} \rho \sec^2 \theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{\rho_L}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \frac{\rho^2 \sec^2 \theta d\theta \hat{a}_\rho}{\rho^3 \sec^3 \theta}$$

Since  $\frac{\rho}{\rho(1+\tan^2 \theta)}$   
 $= \sec^2 \theta$



$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_L a \rho}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \rho^2} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos \theta d\theta \quad (4)$$

$$= \frac{\rho_L a \rho}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \rho^2} (\sin \theta) \Big|_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2}$$

$$= \frac{\rho_L a \rho}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \rho^2} (2) = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi \epsilon_0 \rho} a \rho$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi \epsilon_0 \rho} a \rho \text{ V/m}} \text{ for line charge.}$$

Electric Field Intensity due to infinite sheet charge:-

→ Consider, a sheet charge is placed in  $yz$ -plane & point of observation (P) on  $x$ -axis, then

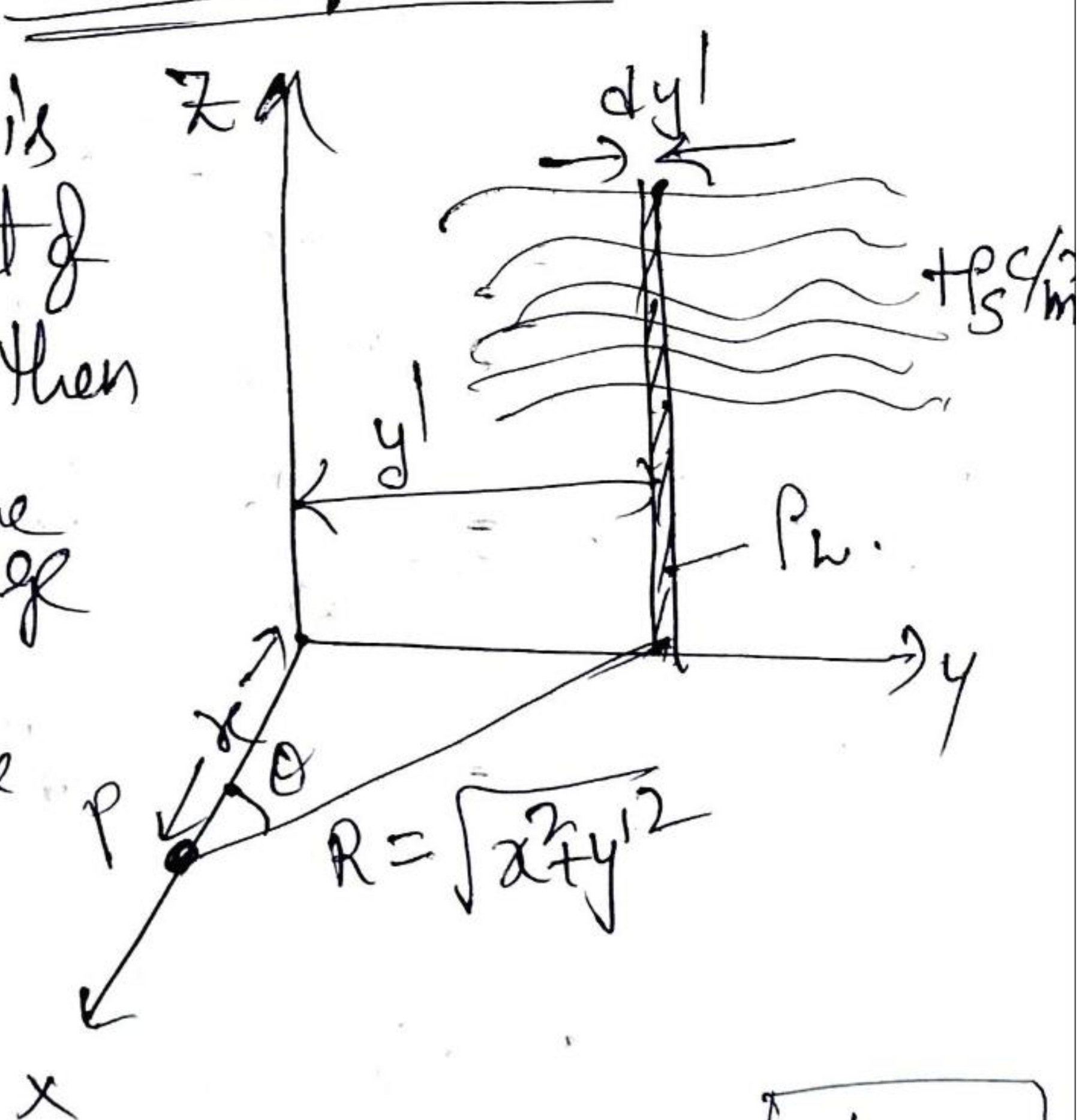
(i)  $\rho_L = \rho_S dy'$  — charge

(ii)  $R = \sqrt{x^2 + y'^2}$  — distance

→ let  $\vec{E}$  due to line charge is

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi \epsilon_0 \rho} a \rho = \frac{\rho_S dy'}{2\pi \epsilon_0 \sqrt{x^2 + y'^2}} \cos \theta$$

$$\boxed{\text{here } \rho = R}$$





here,  $\cos\theta$  — it can give the contribution of 'p' in any direction.

$$\therefore d\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_s dy' \cos\theta}{2\pi\epsilon_0 \sqrt{x^2 + y'^2}}$$

$$= \frac{\rho_s dy'}{2\pi\epsilon_0 \sqrt{x^2 + y'^2}} \cdot \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y'^2}} \quad \left(\text{since } \cos\theta = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y'^2}} \text{ from figure.}\right)$$

$$d\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_s dy' x}{2\pi\epsilon_0 (x^2 + y'^2)}$$

Integrate on both sides.

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_s}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2 + y'^2} dy'$$

$$= \frac{\rho_s}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{y'}{x} \right)_{-\infty}^{\infty}$$

$$= \frac{\rho_s}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \right)$$

$$= \frac{\rho_s}{2\pi\epsilon_0} (\pi) = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} \quad (\text{in } x\text{-direction})$$

$$\therefore \boxed{E_x = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0}} \quad \text{V/m}$$

Note:-  $\vec{E}$  due to surface charge is independent of distance.



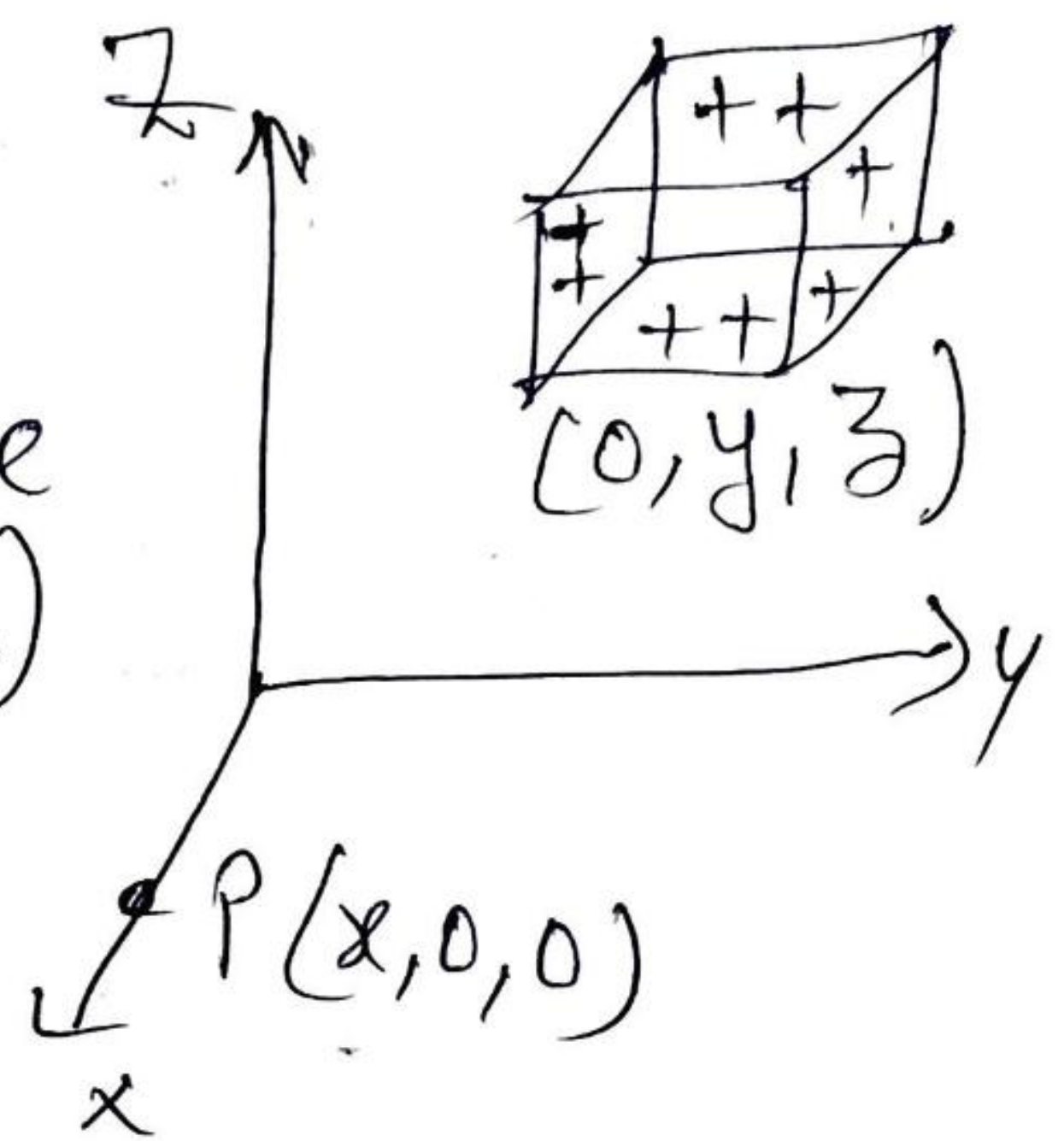
## Electric Field Intensity due to Infinite Volume Charge

→ Consider infinite volume charge cube in  $yz$ -plane and  $P$  (point of observation) on  $x$ -axis, where  $\vec{E}$  is to be found.

here,  $\rho_v = \frac{dq}{dv} \rightarrow$  volume charge density ( $C/m^3$ )

$$\Rightarrow dq = \rho_v dv$$

$$\Rightarrow q = \int_V \rho_v dv$$



(ii) distance b/w source & point ( $P$ ) is

$$\vec{R} = x\hat{a}_x - y\hat{a}_y - z\hat{a}_z$$

$$|\vec{R}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

$$\text{Let } \vec{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\vec{R}|^2} \hat{a}_R \quad (\text{for point charge})$$

$$= \frac{\int_V \rho_v dv}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\vec{R}|^2} \cdot \frac{\vec{R}}{|\vec{R}|} = \int_V \frac{\rho_v dv \cdot \vec{R}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\vec{R}|^3}$$

$$\vec{E} = \int_V \frac{\rho_v dv (x\hat{a}_x - y\hat{a}_y - z\hat{a}_z)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\vec{R}|^3}$$

Eliminating  $y$  and  $z$ -components of  $\vec{E}$

$$\vec{E} = \int_V \frac{\rho_v dv x\hat{a}_x}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\vec{R}|^3}$$



$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\rho_v (r \sin \theta \, dr \, d\theta \, d\phi) \, x a_x}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^3}$$

since  $dv = r^2 \sin \theta \, dr \, d\theta \, d\phi$  (for spherical coordinate system)

& let  $R = r$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_v}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{r} \, dr \cdot \int_0^{\pi} \sin \theta \, d\theta \cdot \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \, x a_x \right]$$

$$= \frac{\rho_v}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \left( \ln r \Big|_0^{\infty} \right) \left( -\cos \theta \Big|_0^{\pi} \right) \left( \phi \Big|_0^{2\pi} \right) x a_x$$

$$= \frac{\rho_v}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \cdot (\ln r - 1) \cdot 2 \cdot 2\pi \cdot x a_x$$

$$\boxed{\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_v}{\epsilon_0} (\ln r - 1) x a_x} \quad \text{V/m}$$

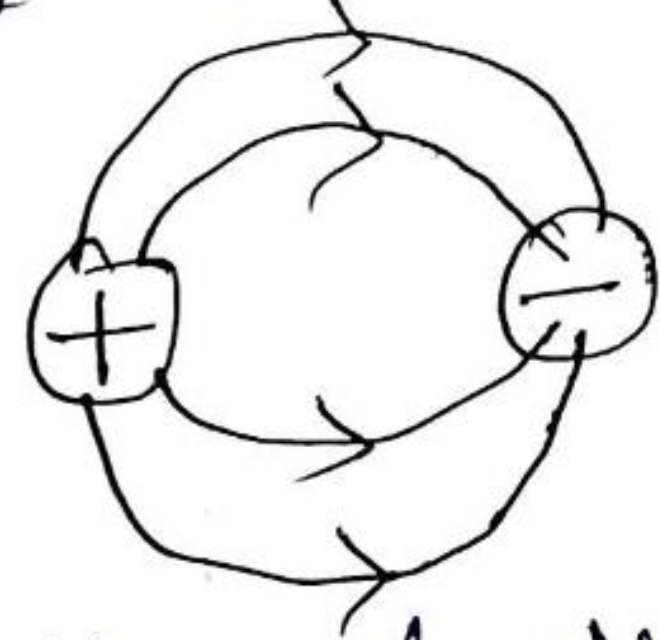
z.



Electric Flux : It is the total number of lines of force in any direction, denoted by  $(\Psi)$ , measured in coulomb (c). ⑥

→ The flux lines start from positive charge and terminate on negative charge.

- The flux lines are parallel and never cross each other.



Electric Flux density :

→ The number of flux lines passing through the unit surface area is called electric flux density, denoted by  $(\bar{D})$ . Units are  $C/m^2$ .  $\bar{D} = \frac{\text{Flux}}{\text{unit surface area}} = \frac{d\psi}{dS}$

- This is also called displacement flux density (or) displacement density.

Gauss's Law : It constitutes one of the fundamental laws of electromagnetism.

→ It states that the total electric flux  $(\Psi)$  through any closed surface is equal to the total charge enclosed by that surface.

i.e.  $\Psi = Q$



Relation between  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{D}$ :

→ We know that:  $\vec{D} = \frac{d\psi}{ds}$

$$\Rightarrow d\psi = \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} \Rightarrow \psi = \int \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

• From Gauss law  $\psi = Q \Rightarrow \boxed{Q = \int \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}}$

$\Rightarrow Q = \vec{D} \int d\vec{s}$  (since  $\vec{D}$  — same at all points of Gaussian surface).  
 $\therefore \vec{D}$  — constant

$$= D \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} r^2 \sin\theta \, d\theta \, d\phi \quad (\because d\vec{s} = r^2 \sin\theta \, d\theta \, d\phi)$$

$$= D r^2 \int_0^{\pi} \sin\theta \, d\theta \cdot \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$

$$\therefore Q = D r^2 (2)(2\pi) = 4\pi D r^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{D} = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \hat{a}_r} \text{ } \frac{C}{m^2} \text{ — for point charge.}$$

we know:  $\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{a}_r \text{ } \frac{V}{m} \text{ — for point charge.}$

$\therefore$  Relating these (2) equations:

$$\boxed{\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E}} \quad (\text{or}) \quad \boxed{\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}}$$

since  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$



## proof of Gauss Law:-

$$\psi = \int D \cdot ds = \int \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} ds \quad \left( \because D = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \right)$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \cdot r^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$$
$$= \frac{Q}{4\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin\theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$
$$= \frac{Q}{4\pi} (2)(2\pi) = Q.$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\psi = Q}$$

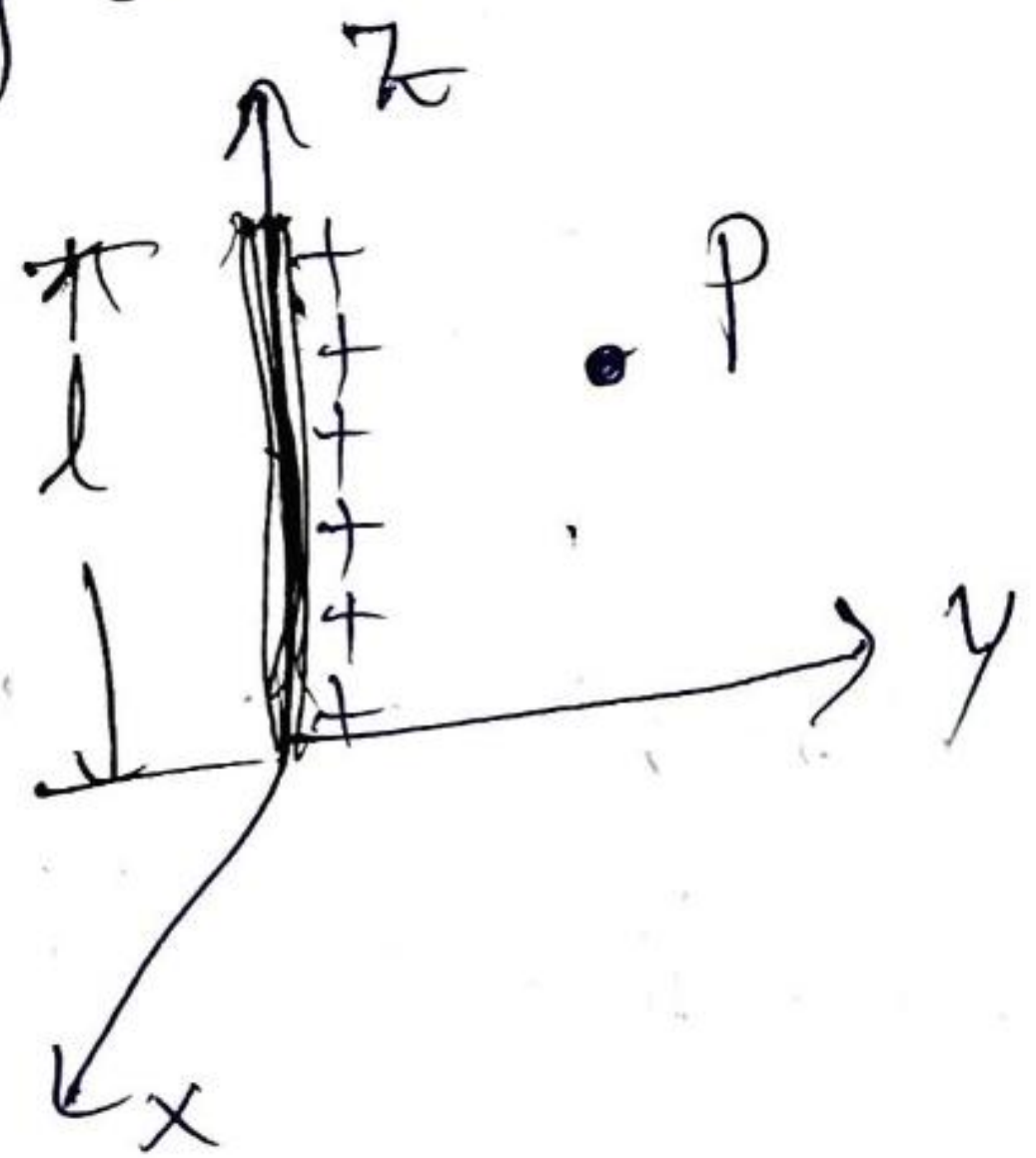
## Gauss Law Applications:-

(i) Electric Flux density due to infinite line charge:-  
Consider, infinite line charge along z-axis as shown,  
Find the electric flux density at a point (P).

→ According to Gauss law:

$$Q = \int D \cdot ds$$
$$\int \rho_L dz = \int D \cdot ds$$

$$\rho_L \cdot l = D \int ds$$
$$= D \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\phi dz \rho$$





$$\Rightarrow P_L \cdot l = D \rho \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz$$

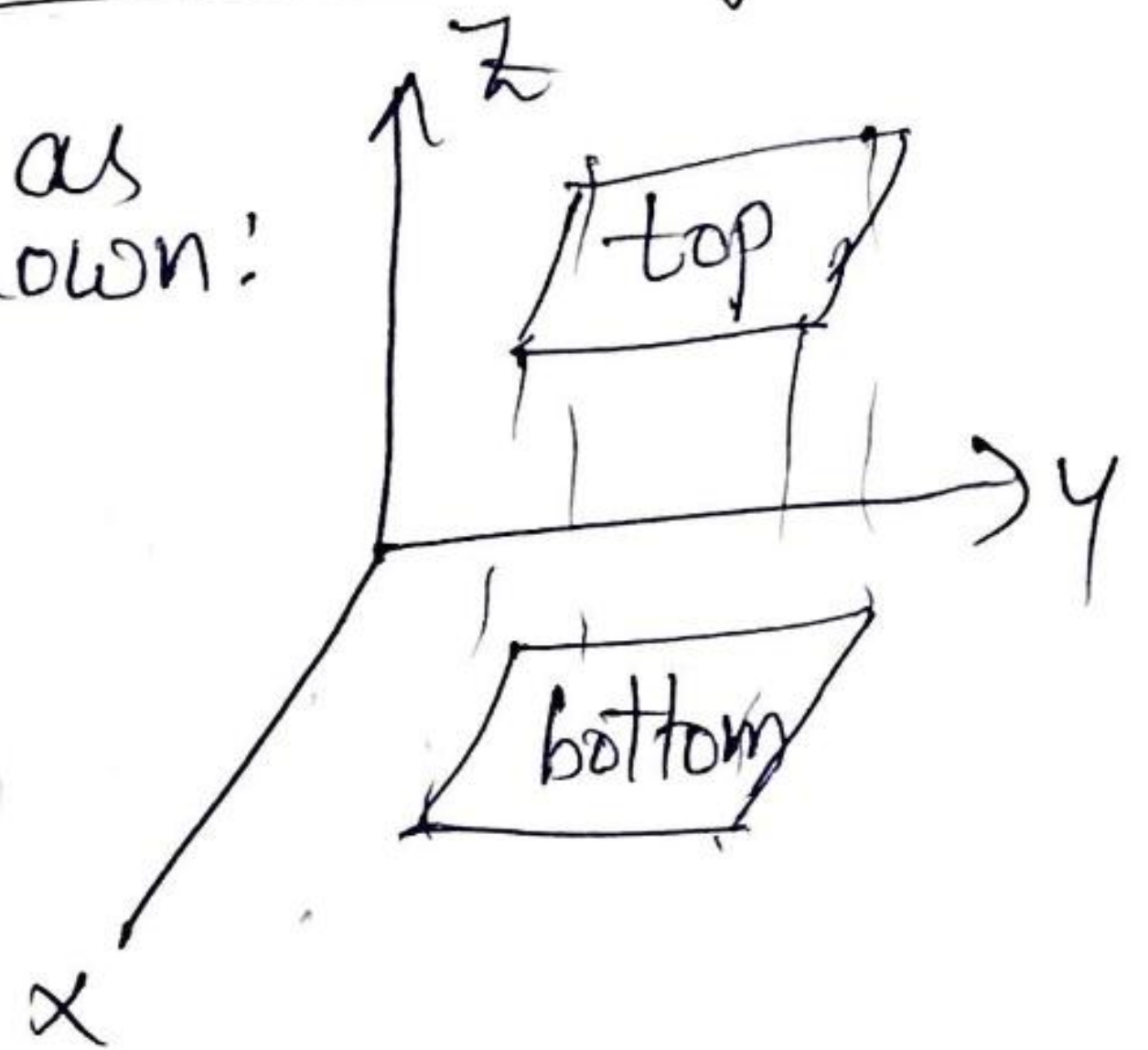
$$\Rightarrow P_L \cdot l = \bar{D} \rho (2\pi) (l)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\bar{D} = \frac{P_L}{2\pi \rho} \rho} \text{ C/m}^2$$

(ii) Electric flux density due to sheet charge:-

Consider, the sheet in xy plane as shown:

→ According to Gauss law:



$$Q = \int \bar{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

$$\int \rho_s d\mathbf{s} = \int \bar{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

$$\rho_s \int d\mathbf{s} = \int_{\text{top}} \bar{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s} + \int_{\text{bottom}} \bar{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho_s \int d\mathbf{s} = 2 \bar{D} \int d\mathbf{s}$$

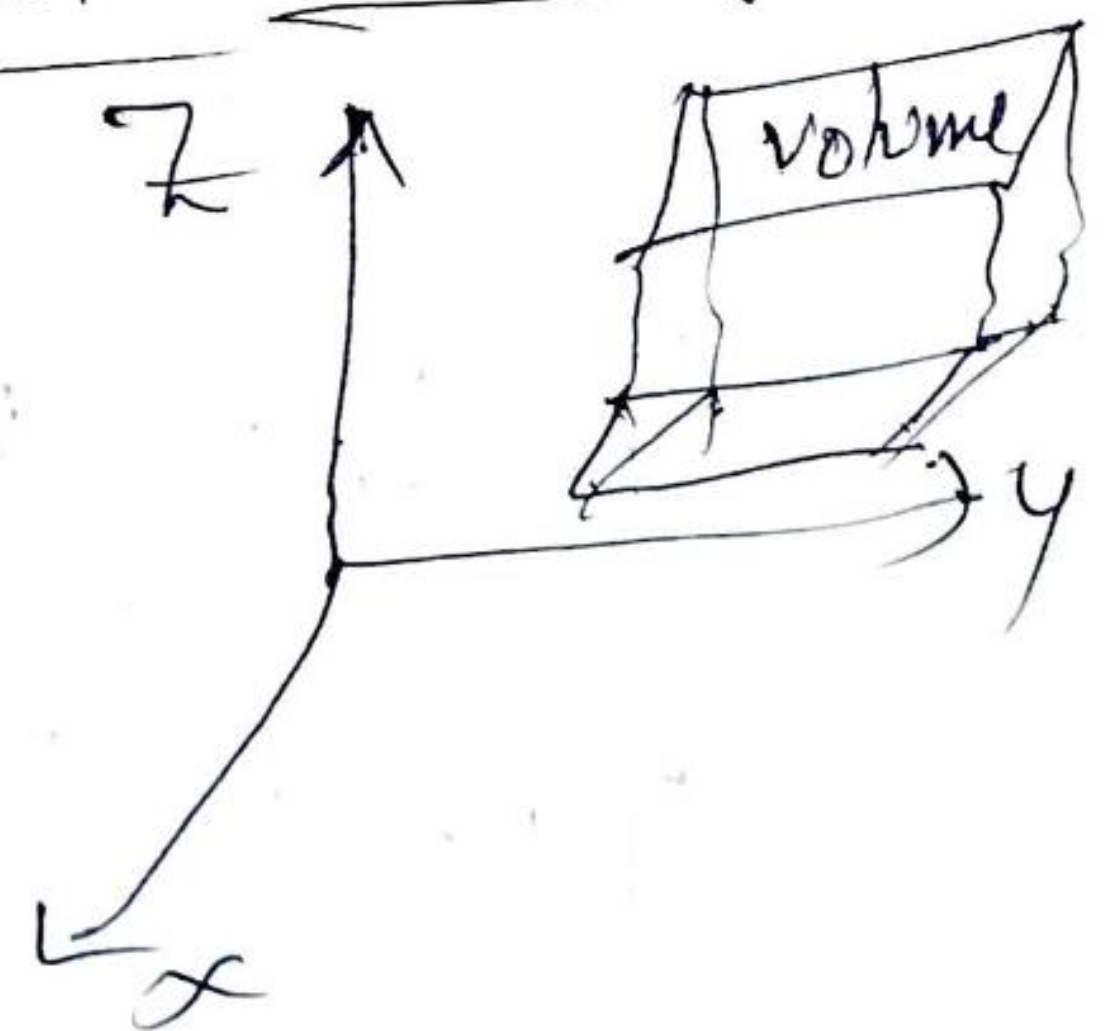
$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\bar{D} = \frac{\rho_s}{2}} \text{ C/m}^2$$

(iii) Electric flux density due to volume charge:-

According to Gauss law:

$$Q = \int \bar{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

$$\int \rho_v dV = \int \bar{D} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$





$$\rho_v \int_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi r^2 \sin\theta \, dr \, d\theta \, d\phi = \bar{D} \int_0^a \int_0^\pi r \, dr \, d\theta \quad (8)$$

$$\rho_v \int_0^a r^2 \, dr \int_0^\pi \sin\theta \, d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = \bar{D} \int_0^a r \, dr \int_0^\pi d\theta$$

$$\rho_v \cdot \frac{r^3}{3} \times 2 \times 2\pi = \bar{D} \frac{a^2}{2} \times \pi$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\bar{D} = \frac{8\rho_v r^3}{3a^2}} \text{ C/m}^2$$

Statement of Gauss's law (Integral Form):

The integral of the normal component of the flux density evaluated over a closed surface must be equal to the charge enclosed by the closed surface.

$$\boxed{Q_{en} = \oint_S \bar{D}_n \cdot dS}$$

Limitations of Gauss's law:

- ① charges should be uniformly distributed.
- ② It can be applied to closed surface (Gaussian surface).

Gaussian surface: - An imaginary closed surface of arbitrary shape used to find  $\vec{E}$ .



- ③ For line charge distribution  $\rightarrow$  cylindrical  
Spherical charge distribution  $\rightarrow$  concentric sphere.  
Surface charge distribution  $\rightarrow$  cylindrical.
- ④ Field point must lie on gaussian surface.
- ⑤ charge must be inside gaussian surface.
- ⑥ It satisfies only when all charges are symmetrical

$\approx$



# Gauss Divergence Theorem :

(9)

Divergence: It converts the integral form of Gauss law into point form.

• Gauss law integral form: 
$$Q_{en} = \oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_V \rho_v dV$$

• Divergence is of 3 types:-

- (1) positive divergence:- The flow of flux from inside to outside & the volume becomes zero. ex:- balloon
- (2) Negative divergence:- The flow of flux from outside to inside is negative divergence. ex:- vacuum created room.
- (3) zero divergence:- The net flow of flux is zero when the inward flux = outward flux. ex:- water tank

→ Mathematically, divergence can be expressed as:

$$\text{div } \vec{D} = \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}}{\Delta V} = \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} \frac{Q_{en}}{\Delta V} = \rho_v \text{ C/m}^3 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

• Also, it can be expressed using mathematical operators.

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

let  $\vec{D} = D_x \vec{a}_x + D_y \vec{a}_y + D_z \vec{a}_z$  (component form of vector)

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Equating equations (1) & (2), 
$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_v}$$
 Point form of Gauss law.

↳ Maxwell's 1st equation

Note:- unit of divergence:-  $\text{C/m}^3$ . (and  $\nabla$  unit -  $1/\text{m}$ )



## Statement of divergence theorem:-

→ The integral of normal component of the flux density evaluated over a closed surface must be equal to the integral of the divergence of flux density throughout the volume enclosed by the closed surface.

We know from Gauss law: Maxwell's 1st equation.

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{en} &= \oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_V \rho_v dv \quad \text{--- (1) (Integral form)} \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{D} &= \rho_v \quad \text{--- (2) (point form)} \end{aligned}$$

substituting (2) in (1),

$$\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{D}) dv \quad \text{Gauss divergence theorem}$$

i.e. surface integral converted into volume integral.

≡

Note:-  $\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \frac{\partial D_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial D_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z}$  (Cartesian)

Divergence formulae  $\left\{ \begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \vec{D} &= \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} (\rho D_\rho) + \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial D_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial D_z}{\partial z} \quad \text{(cylindrical)} \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{D} &= \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 D_r) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta D_\theta) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial D_\phi}{\partial \phi} \quad \text{(spherical)} \end{aligned} \right.$

≡



# Electric potential:

→ It is defined as the amount of work done required to bring/move a unit of electric charge from a reference point to the specific point against an electric field. i.e.  $V = \frac{W}{Q_t}$

→ It is a scalar, used to develop vector ( $\vec{E}$ ).

→ Consider a positive charge ( $Q_m$ ) placed in an external electric field, let a test charge ( $Q_t$ ) is placed at a point A.

• Due to  $\vec{E}$  around  $Q_m$ ,  $Q_t$  will experience an electrostatic force  $F_e$  directed away from the charge.

• Since both charges are same, repulsive force exerted.  
i.e.  $F_{ext} = -F_e$

→ As per Coulomb's law:

$$F_e = \vec{E} Q_t \quad \text{(since } \vec{E} = \frac{F}{Q_t} \text{)}$$

As we know: work done = force x distance

$$dW = E Q_t \times dh$$

$$\int dW = - \int_{initial}^{final} E Q_t \cdot dh$$

(since -ve sign is due to work done by test charge).

$$W = -Q_t \int_{initial}^{final} \vec{E} \cdot dh$$

Now, potential  $V = \frac{W}{Q_t} = - \int_{initial}^{final} \vec{E} \cdot dh$

J/C (or) volts.

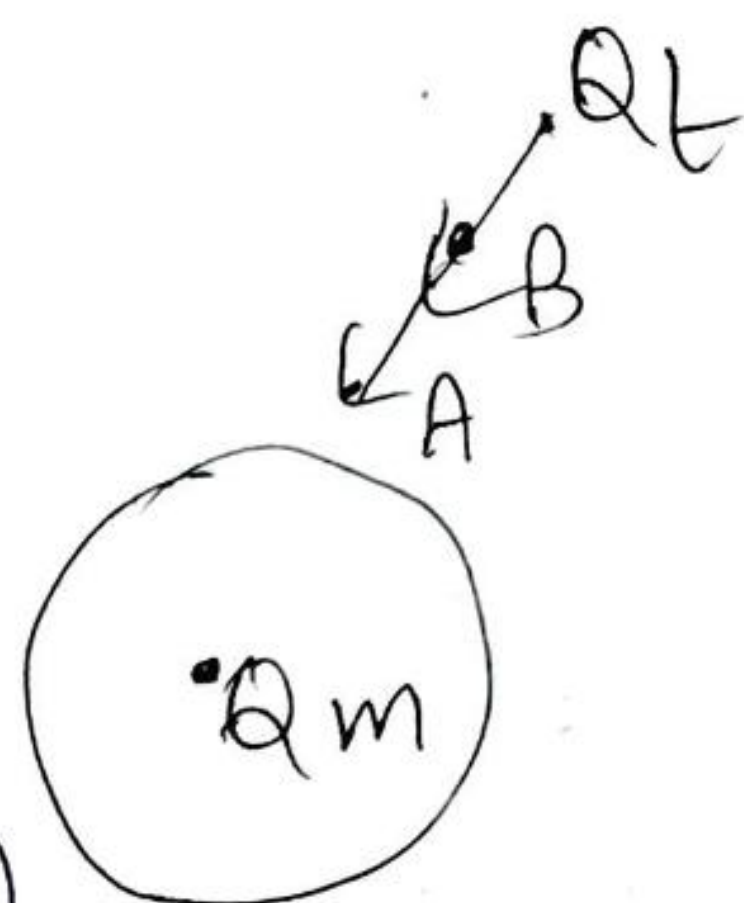


(i) potential at any (single) point:

At point (B), potential is

$$V_B = - \int_{\infty}^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{h}$$

whereas  $\infty$  - reference point where potential is zero (i.e.  $V_{\infty} = 0$ ).



(ii) potential difference between 2 points:-  
 potential difference between A & B is given as

$$V_{AB} = - \int_B^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{h} = V_A - V_B$$

① potential of a point charge:  $V = - \int_{\text{initial}}^{\text{final}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{h}$   
 In general,

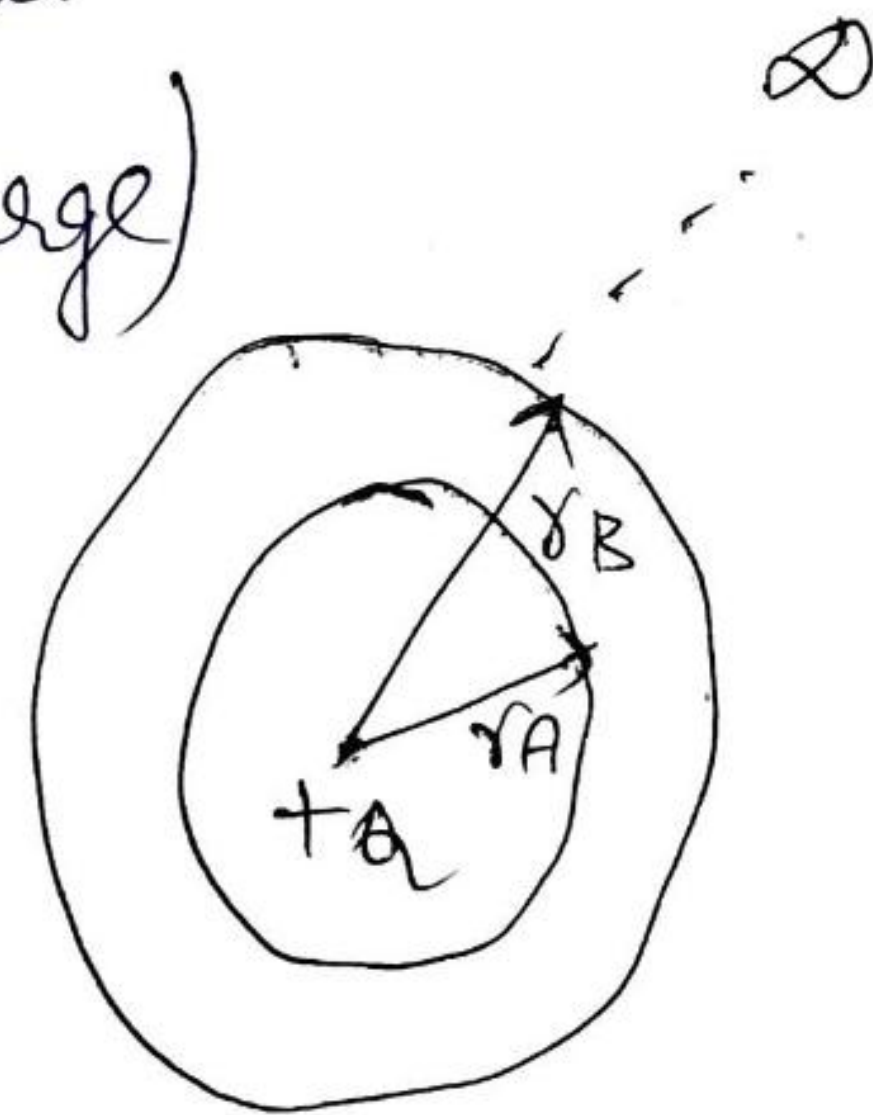
where  $\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{a}_r$  (for point charge)

$$\therefore V = - \int_{r_B}^{r_A} \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{a}_r \cdot dr \hat{a}_r$$

$$= - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{r_B}^{r_A} \frac{1}{r^2} dr \quad (\hat{a}_r \cdot \hat{a}_r = 1)$$

$$= - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) \Big|_{r_B}^{r_A} \right]$$

$$= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{1}{r_A} - \frac{1}{r_B} \right]$$



\*  $d\vec{h} = dr \hat{a}_r$   
 moving in radial direction

if  $r_B \rightarrow \infty$ , In general

$$V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_A} \quad \left[ V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right] \text{ volts.}$$

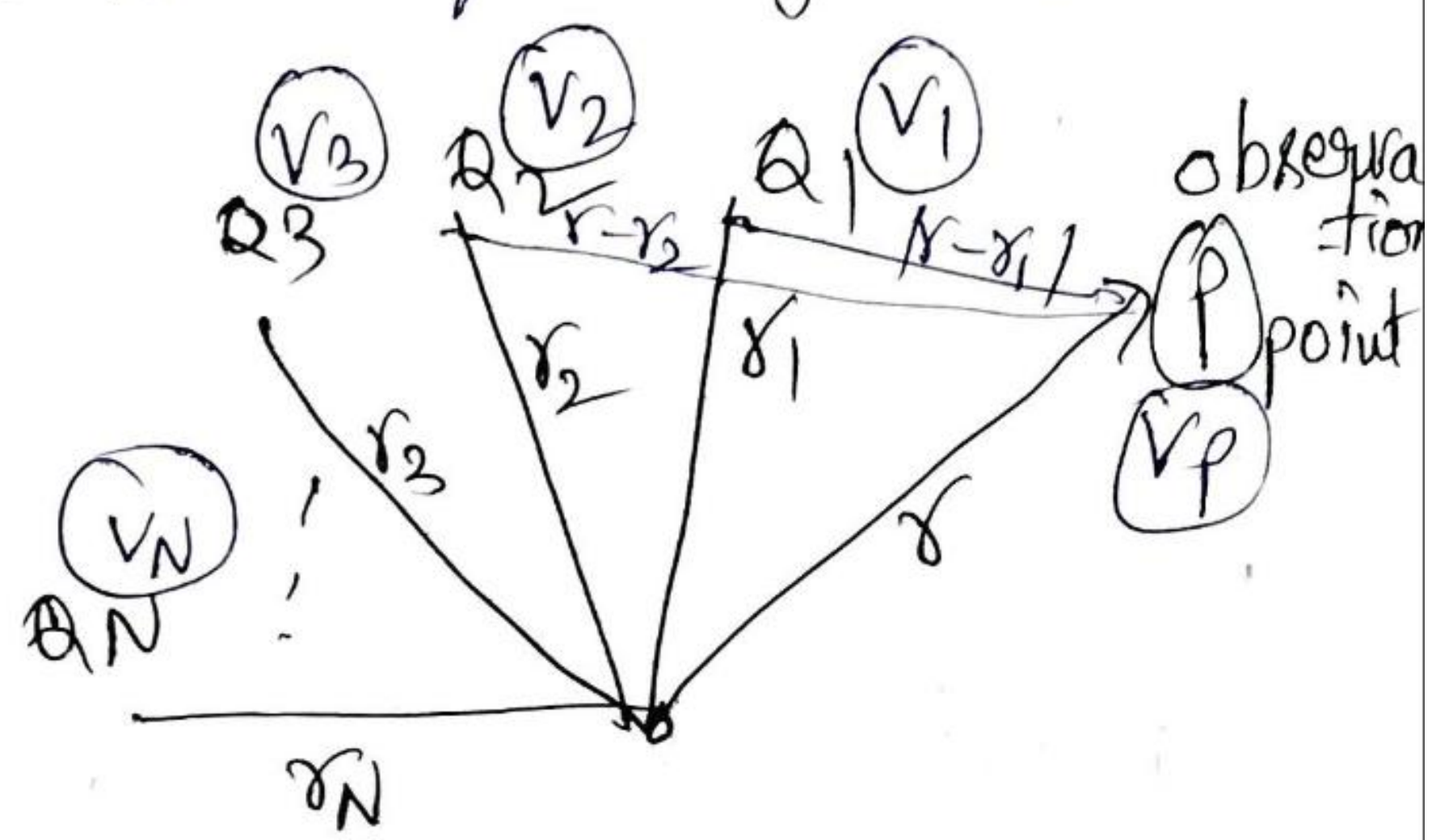


Potential of a system comprising N-point charges: (11)

→ As potential is linear, it obeys superposition theorem.  
 • hence, it can be apply for N-no. of charges system.

∴ According to superposition theorem:

$$V_p = V_1 + V_2 + \dots + V_N$$



i.e

$$V_p = \frac{Q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}_1|} + \frac{Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}_2|} + \dots$$

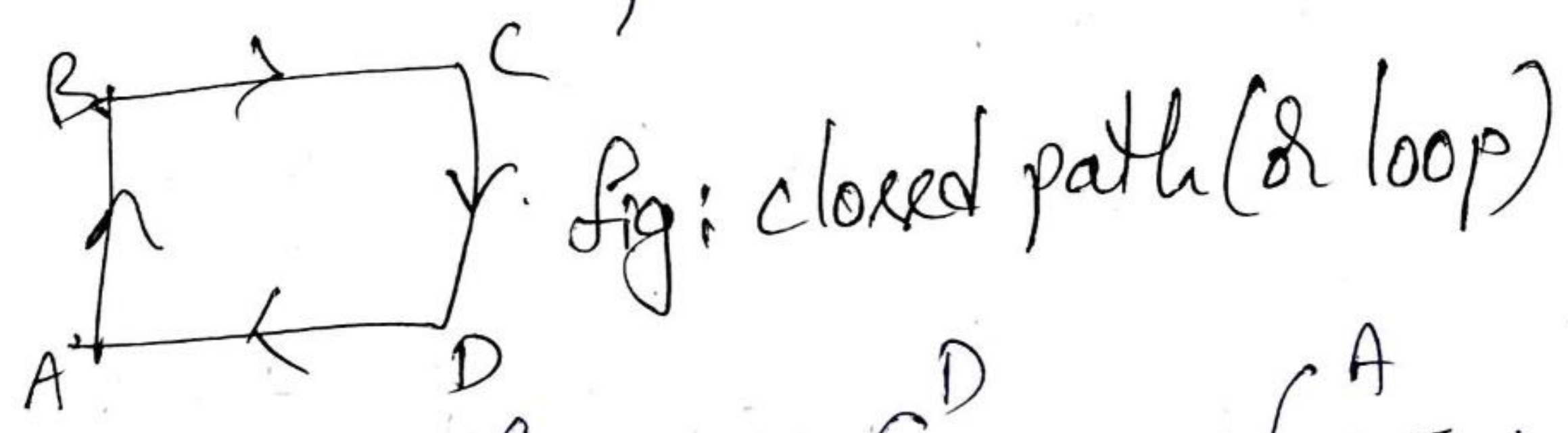
$$\therefore V_p = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{m=1}^N \frac{Q_m}{|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}_m|} \text{ volts.}$$

Law of Conservative Field: (KVL in EMF Theory)

→ The algebraic sum of all the potentials around a closed loop must be zero.

i.e  $\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{h} = 0$

Let:



if  $\int_A^B \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{h} + \int_B^C \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{h} + \int_C^D \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{h} + \int_D^A \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{h} = 0$ .

i.e if  $\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{h} = 0$  → conservative law in electrostatics.  
 Maxwell's 2<sup>nd</sup> equation.



Curling: cross-product

→  $\nabla \times \vec{E}$  denotes how much vector  $\vec{E}$  curls around the point.

→ The curl of  $\vec{E}$  is an axial vector, whose magnitude is the maximum circulation of  $\vec{E}$  per unit area tends to zero whose direction is the normal direction of area when the area is oriented, so as to make circulation maximum.

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = \text{curl } \vec{E} = \left[ \lim_{\Delta S \rightarrow 0} \frac{\oint_L \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{h}}{\Delta S} \right] \hat{a}_{n \max}$$

where  $\Delta S$  — area bounded by the curve  $L$ .

$\hat{a}_n$  — unit vector normal to surface  $\Delta S$   
— determined by right hand rule.

→ By using curling, the integral form of law of conservative field is converted to point form (or) differential form as:

$$\boxed{\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0} \rightarrow \text{point form of Maxwell's 2nd Equation.}$$

Maxwell's Equations for electrostatic fields:

	<u>Integral form</u>	<u>Point form</u>
① Maxwell's 1 <sup>st</sup> Equation: (Gauss law).	$\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{S} = \int_V \rho_v dV$	$\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_v$
② Maxwell's 2 <sup>nd</sup> Equation: (law of conservation of electrostatic field)	$\oint_L \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{h} = 0$	$\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$



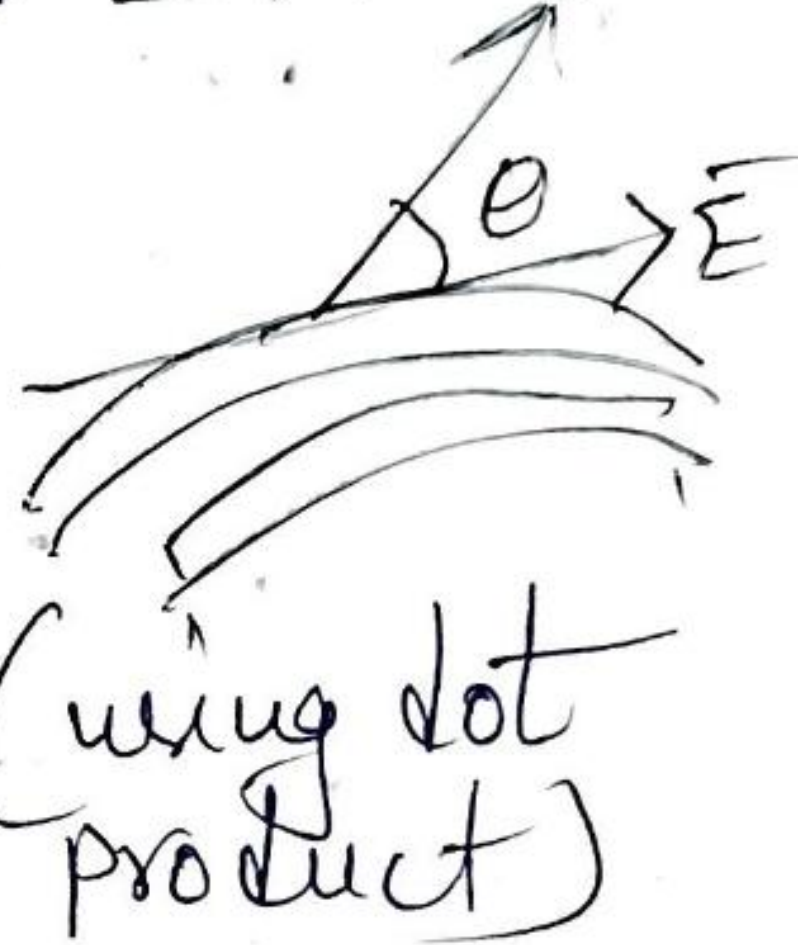
## Potential Gradient:

\* The gradient of a scalar quantity ( $v$ ) gives a vector that represents both magnitude & direction of a Maximum rate of change of potential ( $v$ ).

$$\boxed{E = -\nabla V} \quad \text{where } \text{grad } v = \nabla v \quad dl$$

proof: we know that:  $v = -\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$

$$dv = -\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$
$$dv = -E dl \cos \theta \quad (\text{using dot product})$$



$$\Rightarrow \frac{dv}{dl} = -E \cos \theta$$

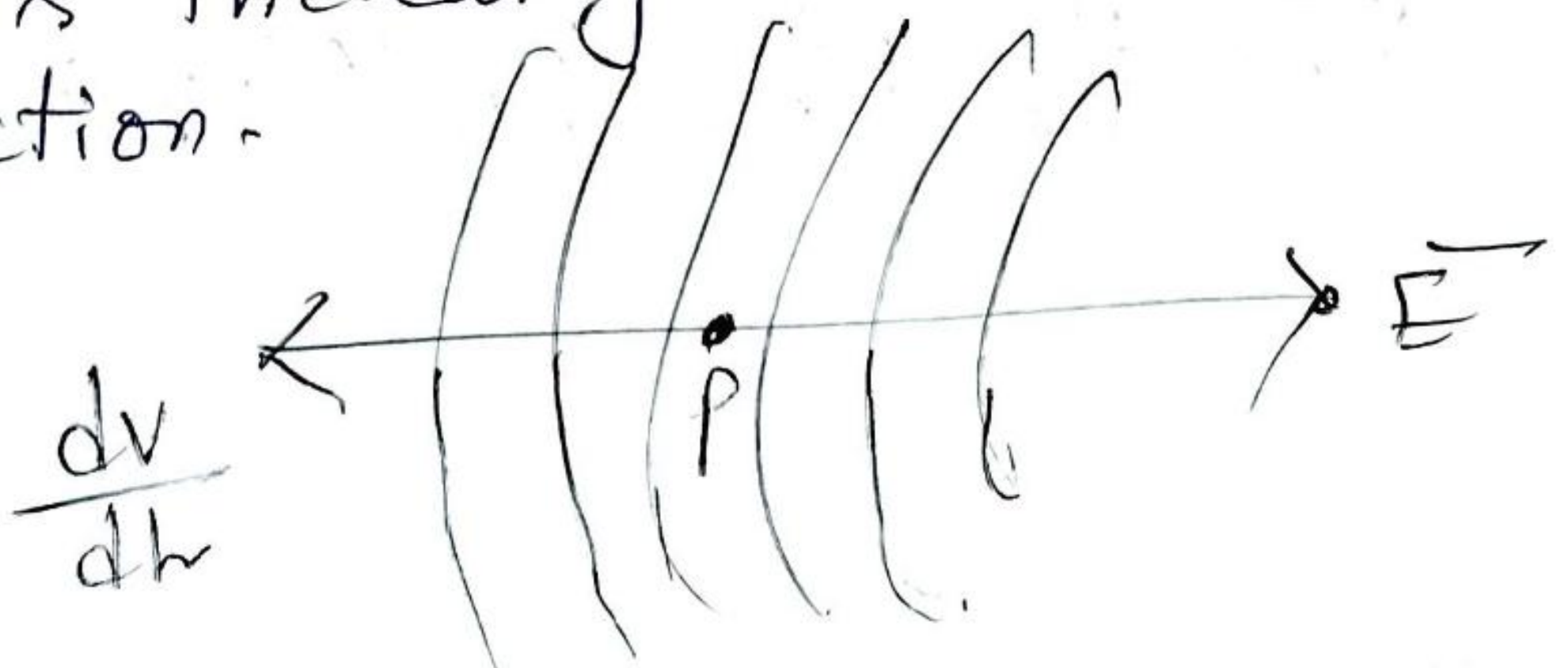
(i) if  $\theta = 90^\circ \Rightarrow \frac{dv}{dl} = 0 \Rightarrow$  No work done  $\Rightarrow$  equipotential surface.

(ii) if  $\theta = 180^\circ \Rightarrow \frac{dv}{dl} = \bar{E} \Rightarrow \left. \frac{dv}{dl} \right|_{\text{max}} = \bar{E}_{\text{max}}$

• This indicates maximum rate of change of potential with distance gives maximum electric field intensity.

$$\therefore \boxed{\vec{E} = -\text{grad } v = -\nabla V}$$

i.e. Maximum value is obtained for  $\vec{E}$  when potential is increasing most rapidly in opposite direction.





Mathematical proof:-

→ let  $v$  is a function of  $(x, y, z)$  then

$$dv = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} dz \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

we know:  $v = - \int E \cdot dl$

$$\Rightarrow dv = - E \cdot dl$$

$$= - [E_x a_x + E_y a_y + E_z a_z] \cdot [dx a_x + dy a_y + dz a_z]$$

$$\Rightarrow dv = - [E_x dx + E_y dy + E_z dz] \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Equating (1) & (2)  $\Rightarrow E_x = \frac{-\partial v}{\partial x}; E_y = \frac{-\partial v}{\partial y}; E_z = \frac{-\partial v}{\partial z}$

$$\therefore \vec{E} = - \left[ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} a_x + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} a_y + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} a_z \right]$$
$$= - \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} a_x + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} a_y + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} a_z \right] v$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\vec{E} = -\nabla v}$$

Note:- Formulae for Gradient in 3 coordinate systems:

(1)  $\nabla v = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} a_x + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} a_y + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} a_z$  (Cartesian coordinate system)

(2)  $\nabla v = \frac{\partial v}{\partial \rho} a_\rho + \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \phi} a_\phi + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} a_z$  (cylindrical " )

(3)  $\nabla v = \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} a_r + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} a_\theta + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \phi} a_\phi$  (spherical)

Z



## \* Energy & Energy Density:-

(13)

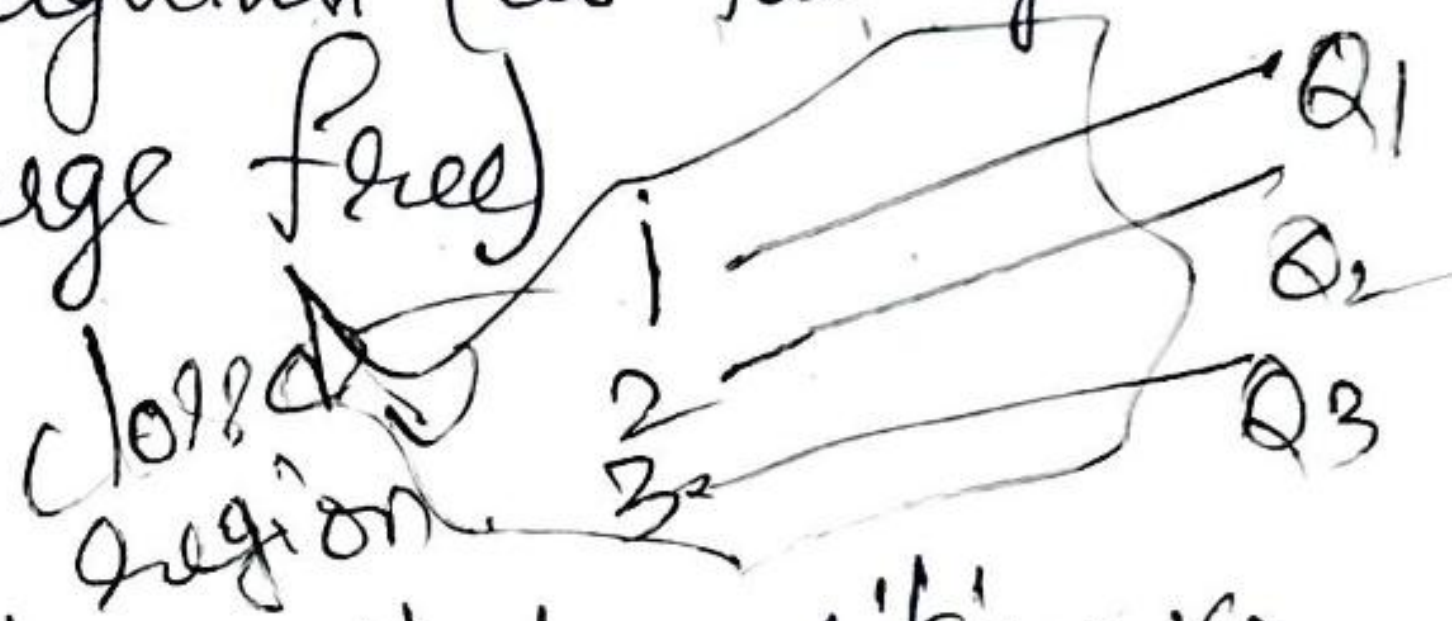
→ Energy density is the amount of energy stored in a given system (or) region of space per unit volume.

→ Consider,

(i) a point charge  $Q_1$  transferred from infinity to position  $r_1$  in the system.

• It takes no work to bring the first charge since there is no electric field against (as the system is initially empty i.e. charge free)

$$\therefore W_1 = 0 \text{ J}$$



(ii) another point charge  $Q_2$  to bring it to position  $r_2$  from infinity.

• Do some work against the electric field generated by  $Q_1$ . (since  $V = \frac{W}{Qt} \Rightarrow W = VA \text{ J}$ ).

$$\therefore W_2 = Q_2 V_{21} \text{ J}$$

where  $V_{21}$  — electrostatic potential at position  $r_2$  due to  $Q_1$ .

(iii) Similarly, the work required to bring  $Q_3$  is

$$W_3 = Q_3 V_{31} + Q_3 V_{32} = Q_3 (V_{31} + V_{32}) \text{ J}$$

where  $V_{31}$  &  $V_{32}$  — potentials at  $r_3$  due to  $Q_1$  &  $Q_2$ .



→ Thus, the total work done in assembling the 3 charges is given as

$$W_E = W_1 + W_2 + W_3$$

$$= 0 + Q_2 V_{21} + Q_3 (V_{31} + V_{32}) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

→ if the charges were positioned in reverse order such as: Let

$$Q_2 V_{21} = Q_2 \frac{Q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_{21}} = Q_1 \frac{Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R_{12}} \\ \therefore [Q_2 V_{21} = Q_1 V_{12}] = Q_1 V_{12}$$

substituting this reverse logic, Eq<sup>n</sup> (1) becomes,

$$W_E = Q_1 V_{12} + Q_1 V_{13} + Q_2 V_{23} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

→ Adding Eq<sup>n</sup> (1) & (2)  $\Rightarrow 2W_E = Q_1 (V_{12} + V_{13}) + Q_2 (V_{21} + V_{23}) + Q_3 (V_{31} + V_{32})$

$$\therefore 2W_E = Q_1 V_1 + Q_2 V_2 + Q_3 V_3$$

$$\Rightarrow W_E = \frac{1}{2} [Q_1 V_1 + Q_2 V_2 + Q_3 V_3] \text{ where}$$

$V_1, V_2, V_3$  — potentials at  $r_1, r_2$  &  $r_3$ .

for N-point charges :- 
$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m=1}^N Q_m V_m \text{ Joules}$$

for single charge :- 
$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} QV \text{ J}$$

ex:- energy storage in capacitor is 
$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} CV^2 \text{ J}$$
  
since capacitance  $C = \frac{Q}{V}$



Note: (i) Energy equation represents potential energy of the system. (14)

(ii) This is the work done in bringing static charges from infinity & assembling them in the system.

(iii) when charges return back to  $\infty \Rightarrow$  system gets dissolved  $\Rightarrow$  kinetic energy released.

Continuous charge configurations:

$\rightarrow$  if the system has continuous charge distribution (in place of point charge) then energy equation becomes:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad Q = \int_L \rho_L dl \quad ; \quad W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_L \rho_L \cdot V dl \quad \text{J (line charge)}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad Q = \int_S \rho_S ds \quad ; \quad W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_S \rho_S \cdot V ds \quad \text{J (surface charge)}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad Q = \int_V \rho_V dv \quad ; \quad W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \rho_V \cdot V dv \quad \text{J (volume charge)}$$

For most practical configuration (volume):

$$Q = \int_V \rho_V dv \Rightarrow W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \rho_V \cdot V dv$$

Energy density in terms of  $\vec{D}$  &  $\vec{E}$ :

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{D}) V dv \quad \text{since } \rho_V = \nabla \cdot \vec{D}$$

From vector identity:  $\nabla \cdot V \vec{D} \equiv V(\nabla \cdot \vec{D}) + \vec{D} \cdot (\nabla V)$



$$\therefore W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V (\nabla \cdot \bar{D}) dv - \frac{1}{2} \int_V (\bar{D} \cdot \nabla V) dv$$

• As per divergence theorem:

$$\int_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{s} = \int_V (\nabla \cdot \bar{D}) dv$$

$$\therefore W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_S \bar{D} \cdot d\bar{s} - \frac{1}{2} \int_V (\bar{D} \cdot \nabla V) dv$$

$$= 0 - \frac{1}{2} \int_V (\bar{D} \cdot \nabla V) dv$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \int_V \bar{D} \cdot (-\bar{E}) dv \quad (\text{since } \bar{E} = -\nabla V)$$

$$\boxed{W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \bar{D} \cdot \bar{E} dv} \quad \text{Joules.}$$

$$\text{Also } \boxed{W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \epsilon_0 \bar{E}^2 dv} \quad \text{Joules (since } \bar{D} = \epsilon_0 \bar{E}\text{)}$$

Energy Density: Energy density =  $\frac{\text{energy}}{\text{unit volume}}$

$$\therefore W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \bar{D} \cdot \bar{E} dv$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{dW_E}{dv} = \frac{1}{2} (\bar{D} \cdot \bar{E}) = \frac{1}{2} (\epsilon_0 \bar{E}^2) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\bar{D}^2}{\epsilon_0}} \quad \text{J/m}^3$$

Energy density  $\left(\frac{dW_E}{dv}\right)$ , measured in  $\text{J/m}^3$ .



# Equation of continuity (Electrostatic fields):

(15)

→ We know that:

(i) current — rate of change of charge.  $I = \frac{dq}{dt}$  A

(ii) current density — current per unit area.

(i)  $J = \frac{I}{A}$  A/m<sup>2</sup> (valid for uniform current on the surface)

(ii)  $J = \frac{dI}{ds}$  A/m<sup>2</sup> (practically, current is non-uniform throughout the surface).

$$\therefore dI = J \cdot ds$$

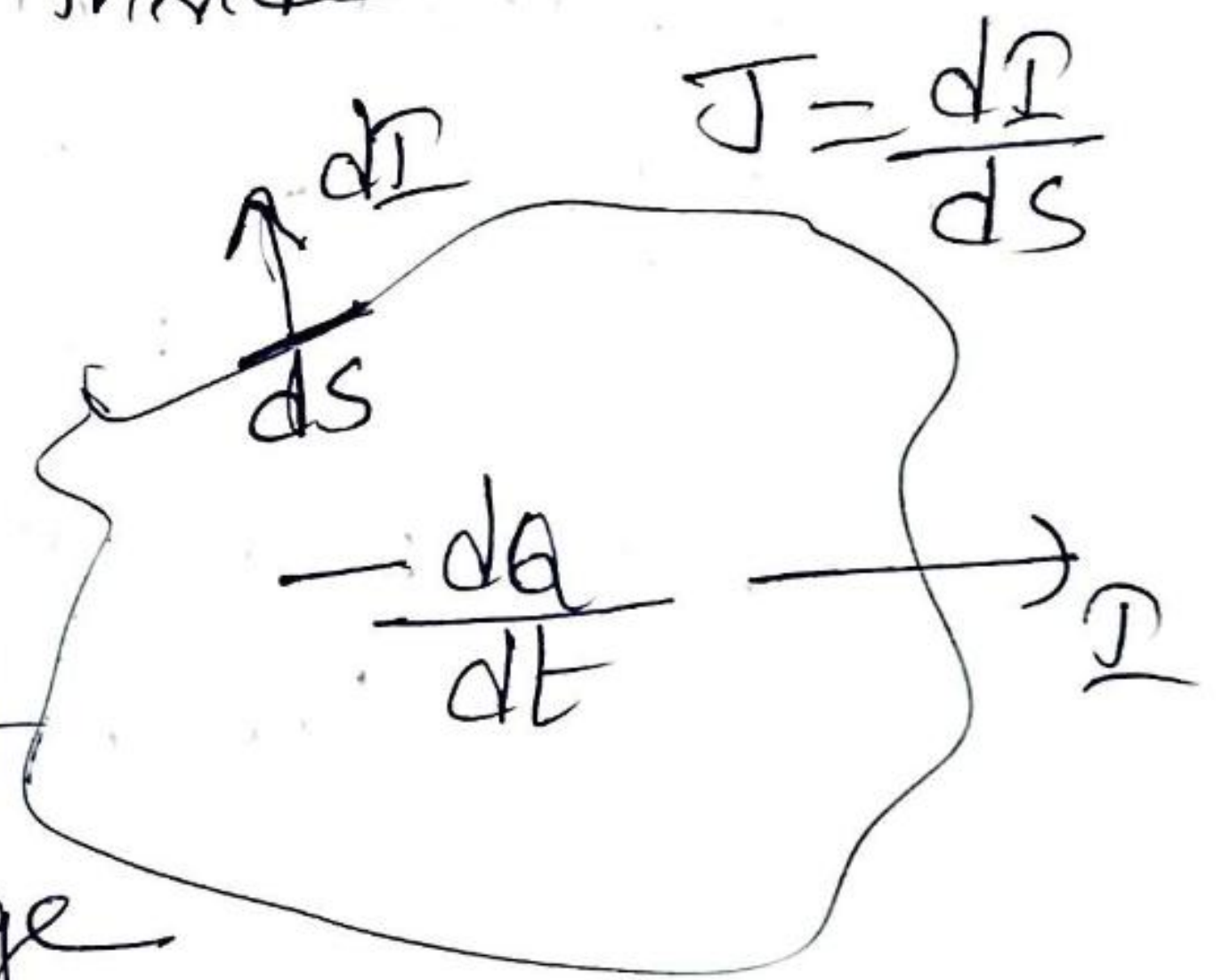
$$\Rightarrow \boxed{I = \oint_S J \cdot ds} \text{ A}$$

## Statement for equation of continuity:

The net outward flow of charges must be equal to continuous decrease of <sup>positive</sup> charges inside the closed surface.

i.e.  $I = -\frac{dq}{dt}$

$$\oint_S J \cdot ds = -\frac{dq}{dt} \text{ ; a-point charge}$$



• For most practical configuration i.e. volume:

$$Q = \int_V \rho_v dv$$

$$\therefore \oint_S J \cdot ds = -\int_V \frac{\partial \rho_v}{\partial t} dv$$

Use divergence theorem:  $\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot ds = \int_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{D}) dv$



$$\therefore \int_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{J}) dV = - \int_V \frac{\partial \rho_V}{\partial t} dV$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{J} = -\frac{\partial \rho_V}{\partial t}} \rightarrow \text{for time-varying fields}$$

• But, for static fields:  $\rho_V$  - constant  $\therefore \frac{\partial \rho_V}{\partial t} = 0$

$$\therefore \boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{J} = 0} \rightarrow \text{for static fields.}$$

### Conduction Current Density:

→ If the current flows through the conductors, it is called as conduction current.

→ A conductor is characterized by large amount of free electrons that provide conduction current due to an impressed electric field.

$$\Rightarrow F = -e\vec{E}$$

• An electron having mass 'm',  $\vec{E}$ , mobility  $\mu$ .

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{m\mu}{\tau} = -e\vec{E} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\mu = \frac{-e\tau}{m} \vec{E} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

where  $\tau$  - average time interval b/w the collisions.

• if there are 'n' no. of electrons per unit volume,

$$\rho_V = -ne \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\therefore \text{current density } (\vec{J}) = \rho_V \mu = (-ne) \left( \frac{-e\tau}{m} \vec{E} \right)$$



$$\Rightarrow \vec{J} = \frac{n e^2 \tau}{m} \vec{E}$$

(16)

$\therefore \boxed{\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}}$  — ohm's law for electrostatic fields. (point form of ohm's law)

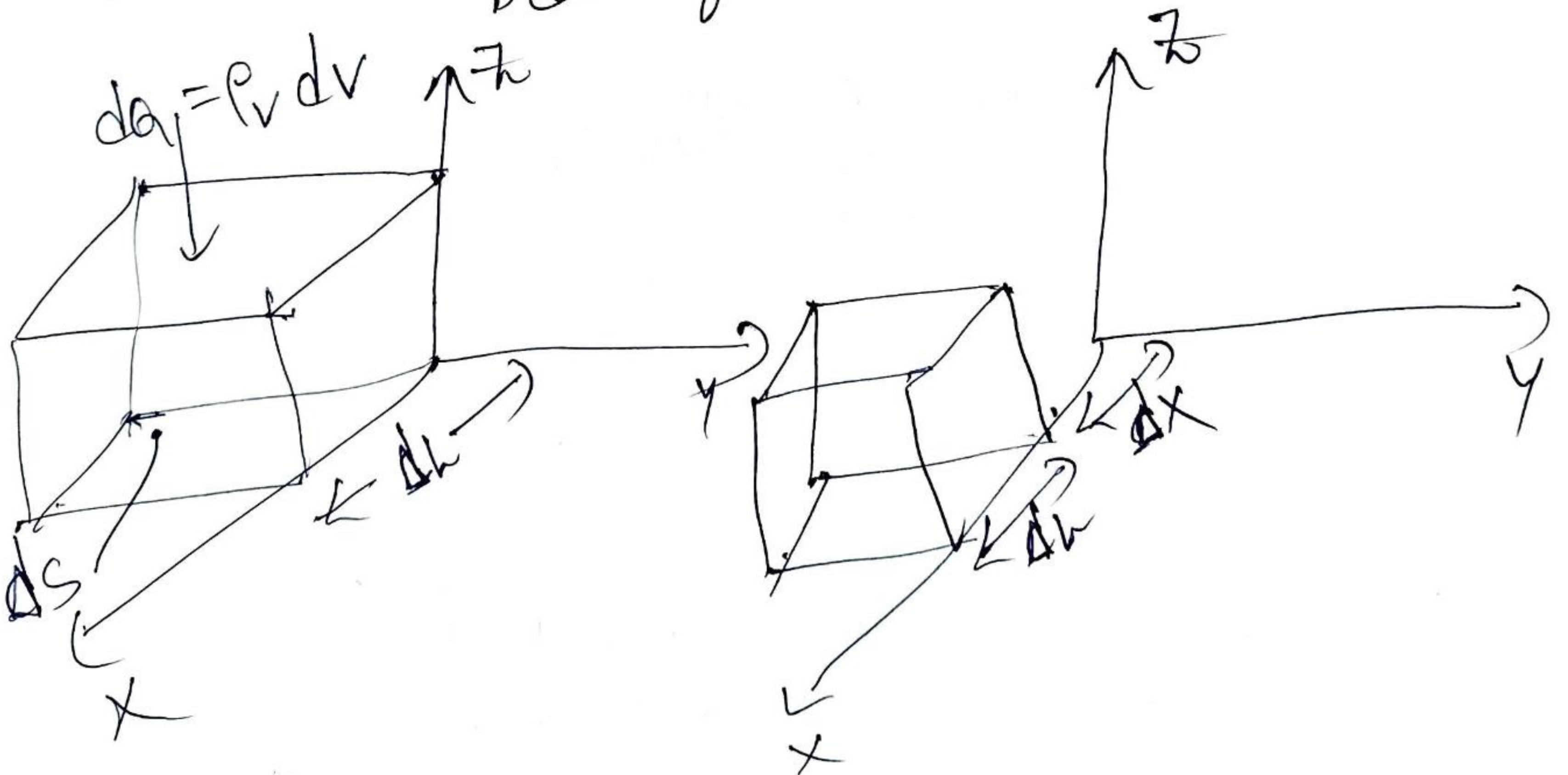
where  $\sigma = \frac{n e^2 \tau}{m}$  (conductivity of the material)

$\vec{J}$  — conduction current density ( $A/m^2$ ).

$\therefore \boxed{\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E}}$  — Equation of conduction current density.

Convection current density:

- if the current flows in insulators like liquids, rarefied gases etc.
- It does not require any conductors
- It does not obey the ohm's law.
- ex: current flow in vacuum tube by using beam of electrons (electron bunches).





→ consider the bunch of charge element

$$dQ = \rho_v dv = \rho_v ds dh$$

• if the block moves  $dx$  in time  $dt$

$$dI = \frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{\rho_v ds dx}{dt} \quad (\text{since } dh = dx)$$

$$dI = \rho_v ds \cdot v_x \quad (\text{where velocity in } x\text{-direction})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dI}{ds} = \rho_v \cdot v_x \quad \left( v_x = \frac{dx}{dt} \right)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{J_c = \rho_v \cdot v_x} \rightarrow \text{convection current density}$$

Dielectric constant or Relative Permittivity

(i) If two charges  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  separated by a distance  $r$  in vacuum, then electrostatic force between them

$$\text{is: } F_v = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \quad \text{--- (1) (Coulomb's law)}$$

(ii) Now, when the same charges with same separation placed in a medium of absolute permittivity  $\epsilon$ , then electrostatic force between them is:

$$F_m = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\therefore \text{let } \frac{F_v}{F_m} = \frac{\left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \right)}{\left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \right)} = \epsilon_r \quad \left[ \therefore \epsilon_r = \frac{F_v}{F_m} \right]$$

definition: dielectric constant of a medium is defined as the ratio of electrostatic force between 2 point charges when placed in vacuum to the force between the same charges placed in a medium.



# Poisson's & Laplace Equations:

(17)

→ point form :  $\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_v$  — (1)

$$\bar{D} = \epsilon \bar{E} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\bar{E} = -\nabla V \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

substituting (2) & (3) in (1)

$$\nabla \cdot \epsilon \bar{E} = \rho_v$$

$$\nabla \cdot \epsilon (-\nabla V) = \rho_v$$

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla V = -\frac{\rho_v}{\epsilon}$$

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho_v}{\epsilon}} \rightarrow \text{poisson's equation.}$$

if  $\rho_v = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^2 V = 0} \rightarrow \text{laplace's equation.}$

Note:- (1)  $\nabla^2 V = \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2}$  (cartesian)

(2)  $\nabla^2 V = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left( \rho \frac{\partial V}{\partial \rho} \right) + \frac{1}{\rho^2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2} \right) + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2}$  (cylindrical)

(3)  $\nabla^2 V = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2}$  (spherical)

Note:- (1)  $\nabla \cdot \bar{D} = \rho_v$  — Maxwell's 1st equation

(2)  $\nabla \times \bar{E} = 0$  — Maxwell's 2nd equation

(3)  $\nabla V = -\bar{E}$  — potential gradient.

(4)  $\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho_v}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \text{laplace's equation}$   
( $\rho_v = 0$ ).



# Capacitors & its types:-

→ Capacitance: It is the charge required to develop the potential between the two oppositely charged surfaces/plates. i.e.  $C = \frac{Q}{V}$  mF/ $\mu$ F/nF.  
since  $1F = \frac{1C}{1V}$ .

## (i) parallel-plate capacitor:

→ It consists of 2 parallel plates separated by a distance (d).

• The space between plates is filled with dielectric of permittivity ( $\epsilon$ ).

• Let A — area of cross section of plates.

→ As  $C = \frac{Q_{encl}}{V}$  — (1)

(i)  $Q_{encl}$  (charge enclosed):-

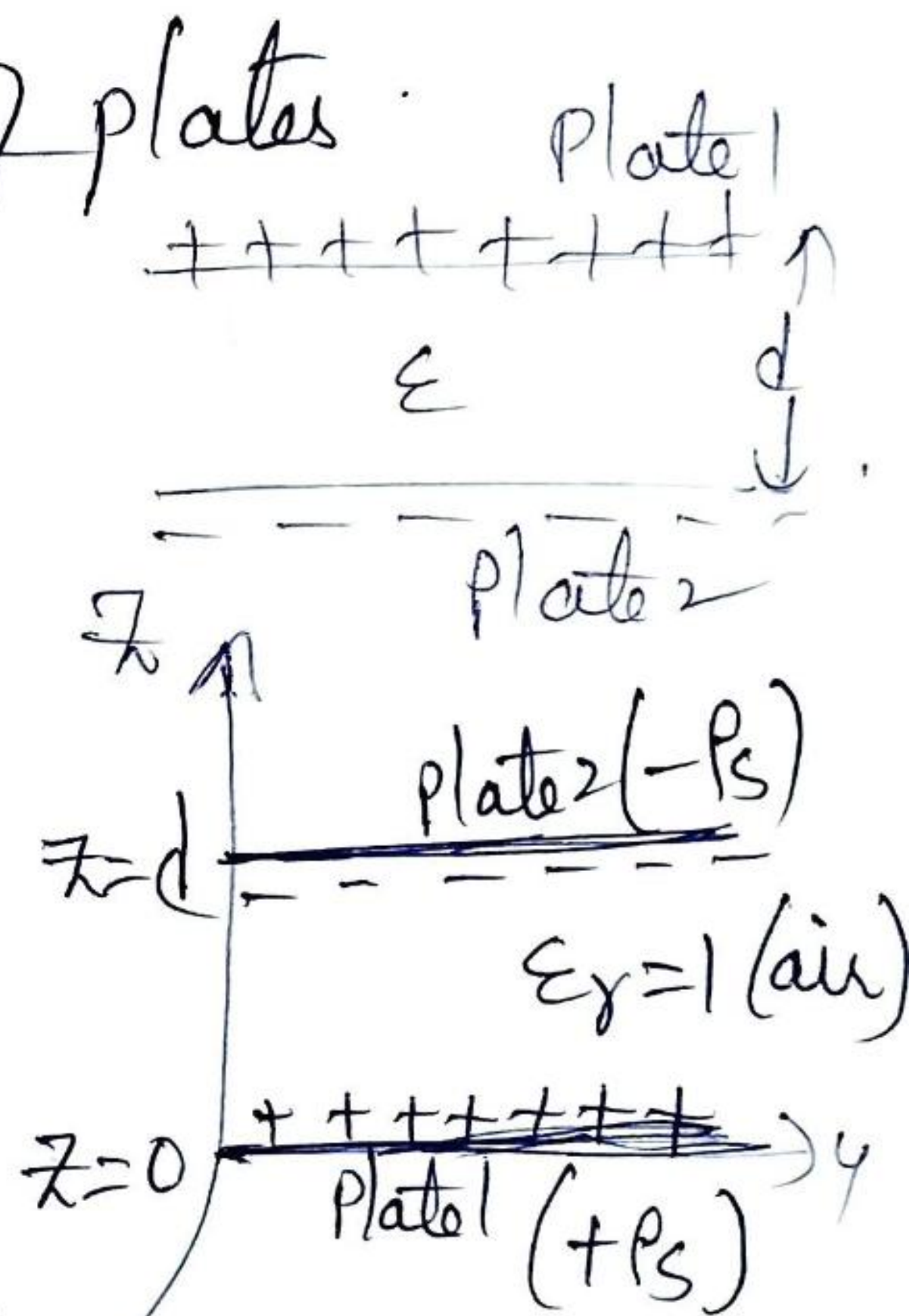
• Using Gauss's law:  $Q_{encl} = \oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s}$

$Q_{encl} = \rho_s \cdot A$  — (2)

where  $\rho_s$  — surface charge density of plate ( $C/m^2$ )

(ii) potential: we know:  $V = - \int_{initial}^{final} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{L}$

where  $\vec{E} = \vec{E}_{plate1} + \vec{E}_{plate2} = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} + \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} = \frac{\rho_s}{\epsilon_0} \frac{V}{m}$





∴ since  $\vec{E}$  for surface charge configuration  $= \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon_0} \hat{z}$  (18)

∴ potential  $V = - \int_d^0 \frac{\rho_s}{\epsilon_0} \hat{z} \cdot d\vec{z} \hat{z}$  (since  $d\vec{h} = dz \hat{z}$ )

$$= - \frac{\rho_s}{\epsilon_0} (0 - d) = \frac{\rho_s d}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

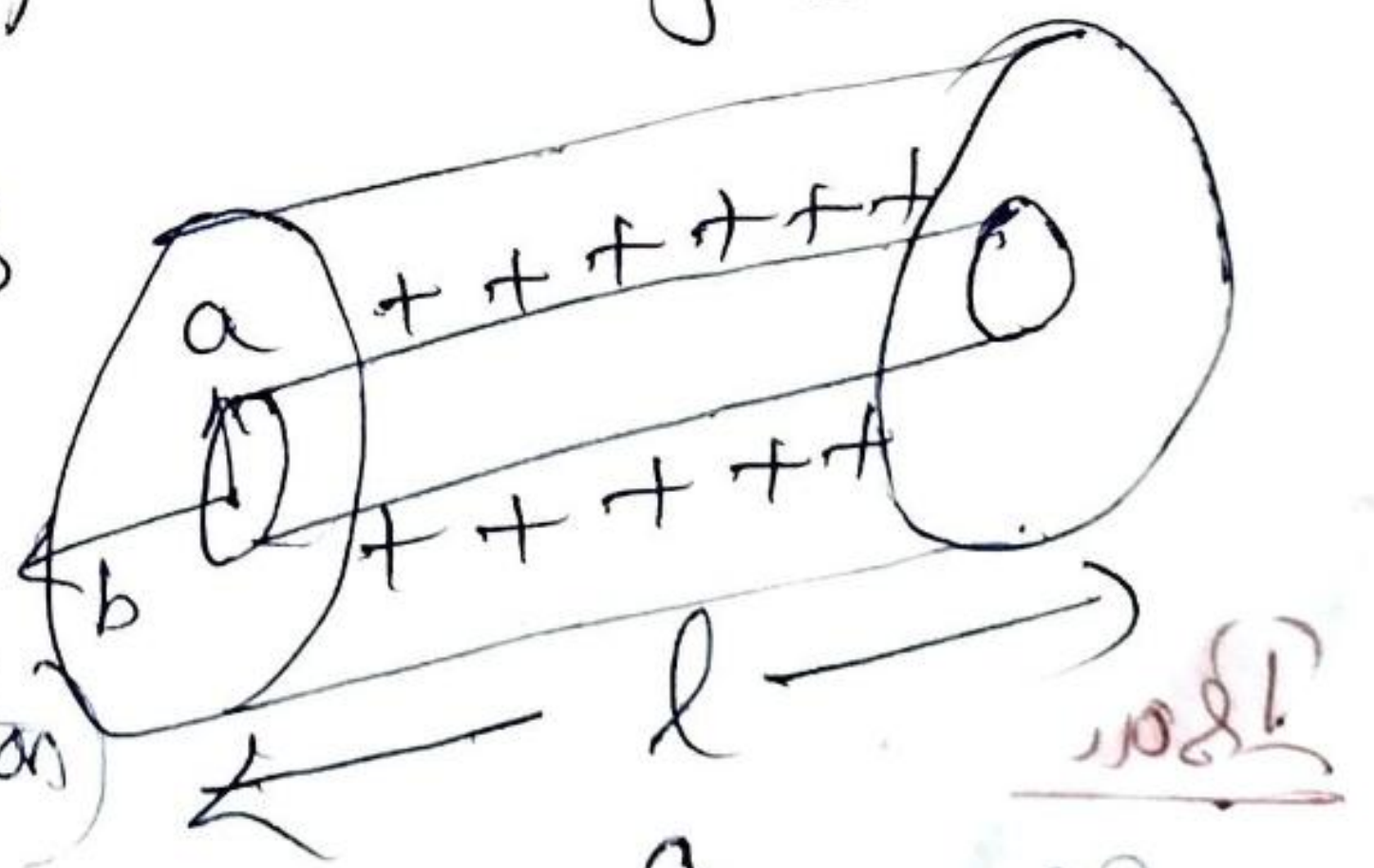
• substitute (2) & (3) in (1) gives,

capacitance  $C = \frac{\rho_s \cdot A}{\frac{\rho_s d}{\epsilon_0}} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$

∴  $C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$  Farads (or)  $C = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$  Farads where  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$ .

(ii) Coaxial Cable capacitor:

→ Consider length ( $l$ ) of two coaxial conductors of inner radius ( $a$ ) and outer radius ( $b$ ).  
 • The space between the conductors is filled with homogeneous dielectric with permittivity ( $\epsilon$ ).



(i)  $Q = \int \rho_h dh$  (since, it's of line charge configuration)  $= \rho_h \cdot h$  --- (2)

(ii)  $V = - \int_{\text{initial}}^{\text{final}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$   
 $= - \int_a^b \frac{\rho_h}{2\pi\epsilon_0 \rho} \hat{\rho} \cdot d\rho \hat{\rho} = - \frac{\rho_h}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_b^a \frac{1}{\rho} d\rho$



$$= \frac{-\rho_h}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \ln r \Big|_b^a \right]$$

converges,  
(E-for line charge)

$$= \frac{-\rho_h}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \ln\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) \right) = \frac{\rho_h}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

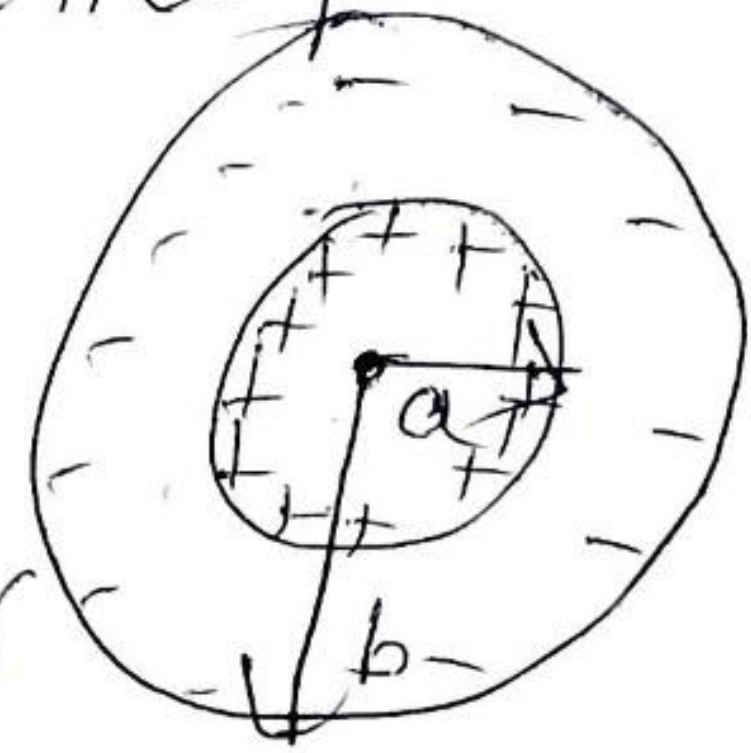
Substitute (2) & (3) in (1)

$$C = \frac{Q}{V} = \frac{\rho_h \cdot h}{\frac{\rho_h}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)} = \frac{2\pi\epsilon_0 h}{\ln(b/a)} \text{ Farade.}$$

### Spherical Capacitor:

→ Consider, 2 concentric spherical conductors with inner sphere radius (a) & outer sphere radius (b), separated by dielectric medium with permittivity  $\epsilon$ .

Let  $C = \frac{Q_{en}}{V} = \frac{Q}{\int_{\text{initial}}^{\text{final}} E \cdot dr} = \frac{Q}{\int_a^b \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} dr}$



(E-for point charge)

$$= \frac{Q}{\frac{4\pi\epsilon_0}{a} \int_a^b \frac{1}{r^2} dr}$$

$$= \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0}{\left(\frac{-1}{r}\Big|_a^b\right)} = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0}{\left(\frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b}\right)} = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 ab}{b-a} \text{ Farade.}$$

### Isolated Capacitor:

→ For an isolated capacitor i.e.  $b \rightarrow \infty$  (subcase of spherical capacitor)

$$\therefore C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 a \text{ Farade.}$$