

ECE230

<u>Lecture – 5</u>

Date: 19.01.2015

- Electric Field due to a Line Charge (contd.)
- Electric Field due to a Surface Charge
- Electric Field Lines
- Electric Flux
- Gauss Law
- Applications of Gauss Law



Electric Field due to a Line Charge

- Let us assume an infinite straight-line charge, with charge density ρ_l C/m, lying along the z-axis.
- What is electric field \vec{E} at P(0, y, 0)?



• For the calculation of electric field \vec{E} at P(0, y, 0), the first step is to determine the incremental field at P due to the incremental charge $dQ = \rho_l dz$ '





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Electric Field due to a Line Charge (contd.)



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 $z = \infty$

 d_7

Electric Field due to a Line Charge (contd.)

Now:

AND:

Therefore:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = E_{\rho}\hat{a}_{\rho} - E_{z}\hat{a}_{z} = \frac{\rho_{l}}{2\pi\varepsilon_{0}\rho}\hat{a}_{\rho}$$

BTW, there are multiple ways of solving this problem. You can master this art through practice!



Example – 1

• Determine electric field \vec{E} at P(x, y, z)



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Example – 1 (contd.)







Recall unit vector \hat{a}_{ρ} is the direction that **points away from** the z-axis.

Thus, the electric field produced by the uniform line charge points away from the line charge, just like the electric field produced by a point charge points away from the charge.

- Note the magnitude of the electric field is proportional to 1/ρ, therefore the electric field diminishes as we get further from the line charge.
- Note however, the electric field does not diminish as quickly as that generated by a point charge. Recall in the case of point charge, the magnitude of the electric field diminishes as 1/r².



Example – 2

- Oh yes! It is important to note that not all the line charges will be located along the *z*-axis.
- For example, let us consider an infinite line charge parallel to the *z*-axis at x = 6, y = 8. We wish to find \vec{E} at the general field point P(x, y, z).





Example – 3

- A ring of charge of radius b is characterized by a uniform line charge density of positive polarity ρ_l . The ring, with its center at (0,0,0), resides in free medium and is positioned in the xy-plane.
 - i. Determine \vec{E} at point P = (0, 0, h) along the axis of the ring at a distance h from the center.
 - ii. What values of h gives the maximum value of \vec{E} .
 - iii. If the total charge on the ring is Q, find \vec{E} as $b \rightarrow 0$.



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Example – 3 (contd.)

(i) Let us start by considering the electric field generated by a differential ring segment -1 with cylindrical coordinates (b, ϕ , 0) as shown.



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Example – 3 (contd.)

Therefore:

Electric Field at P = (0, 0, h) due to charge in segment-1 is:





Example – 3 (contd.)

- The field \overrightarrow{dE}_1 has component $\overrightarrow{dE}_{1\rho}$ along $-\hat{a}_{\rho}$ and \overrightarrow{dE}_{1z} along \hat{a}_z .
- From symmetry, the field \vec{dE}_2 generated by segment-2, which is located diametrically opposite to segment-1, is identical to \vec{dE}_1 except that the \hat{a}_{ρ} components in the sum cancel and \hat{a}_z components add.



• The sum of two contributions are:

$$\overrightarrow{dE} = \overrightarrow{dE}_1 + \overrightarrow{dE}_2 = \frac{\rho_l bh}{2\pi\varepsilon_0 \left(b^2 + h^2\right)^{3/2}} d\phi \hat{a}_z$$



Example – 3 (contd.)

- For every segment-1 in the first half, there is a segment-2 in the other half.
- Therefore, we can set the integration limit as: $0 < \phi < \pi$.
- Thus the total electric field \vec{E} is:





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Example – 3 (contd.)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\rho_l b}{2\varepsilon_0} \left\{ \frac{\left(b^2 + h^2\right)^{3/2} (1) - \frac{3}{2} (h) 2h \left(b^2 + h^2\right)^{1/2}}{\left(b^2 + h^2\right)^{3/2}} \right\} = 0$$

$$(b^2 + h^2)^{1/2} \left[h^2 + b^2 - 3h^2\right] = 0 \implies b^2 - 2h^2 = 0 \implies h = \pm \frac{b}{\sqrt{2}}$$

(iii) Since the charge is uniformly distributed, the line charge density is:

$$\rho_l = \frac{Q}{2\pi b}$$

Therefore:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\rho_l bh}{2\varepsilon_0 (b^2 + h^2)^{3/2}} \hat{a}_z = \frac{Qh}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 (b^2 + h^2)^{3/2}} \hat{a}_z$$
For, $b \to 0$:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 h^2} \hat{a}_z$$
Same as that of a point charge !

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Example – 4

A vector field $\vec{B} = (\cos \phi / \rho) \hat{a}_{\rho}$, verify Stoke's Theorem for a segment of a cylindrical surface defined by $\rho = 2, \frac{\pi}{3} \le \phi \le \frac{\pi}{2}, and \ 0 \le z \le$ 3 (as shown).



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Stoke's Theorem:

$$\bigoplus_{S} \left(\nabla \times \vec{B} \right) \cdot \vec{ds} = \bigoplus_{C} \vec{B} \cdot \vec{dl}$$



Example – 4 (contd.)

Left Hand Side

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial B_{\phi}}{\partial z}\right) \hat{a}_{\rho} + \left(\frac{\partial B_{\rho}}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial \rho}\right) \hat{a}_{\phi} + \frac{1}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial \left(\rho B_{\phi}\right)}{\partial \rho} - \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial \phi}\right) \hat{a}_z$$
$$\therefore \nabla \times \vec{B} = -\frac{\sin \phi}{\rho^2} \hat{a}_{\rho} + \frac{\cos \phi}{\rho^2} \hat{a}_{\phi}$$

• The integration of $\nabla \times \vec{B}$ over the specified surface S is:

$$\bigoplus_{S} (\nabla \times \vec{B}) \cdot \vec{ds} = \int_{z=0}^{3} \int_{\phi=\frac{\pi}{3}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left(-\frac{\sin\phi}{\rho^{2}} \hat{a}_{\rho} + \frac{\cos\phi}{\rho^{2}} \hat{a}_{\phi} \right) \cdot \rho d\phi dz \hat{a}_{\rho} = \int_{z=0}^{3} \int_{\phi=\frac{\pi}{3}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} -\frac{\sin\phi}{\rho} d\phi dz = -\frac{3}{2\rho}$$
Given, $\rho = 2$: $(\therefore \bigoplus_{S} (\nabla \times \vec{B}) \cdot \vec{ds} = -\frac{3}{4})$

Example – 4 (contd.)

Right Hand Side

• The direction of *C* is chosen such that it is compatible with the surface normal \hat{a}_{ρ} by the right hand rule.

$$\oint_{C} \vec{B} \cdot \vec{dl} = \int_{a}^{b} \vec{B}_{ab} \cdot \vec{dl} + \int_{b}^{c} \vec{B}_{bc} \cdot \vec{dl} + \int_{c}^{d} \vec{B}_{cd} \cdot \vec{dl} + \int_{d}^{d} \vec{B}_{da} \cdot \vec{dl}$$

- Over segments ab and cd the integral is zero considering that $\vec{B} \cdot \vec{dl} = 0$ over these segments.
- Over segment *bc*, $\varphi = \frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore: $\vec{B}_{hc} = 0$





Example – 4 (contd.)

- Therefore: $\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot \vec{dl} = \int_d^a \vec{B}_{da} \cdot \vec{dl}$
- Over segment da, $\varphi = \frac{\pi}{3}$. Therefore:

$$\vec{B}_{da} = \frac{\cos\frac{\pi}{3}}{2}\hat{a}_z = \frac{1}{4}\hat{a}_z$$
$$\vec{dl} = -dz\hat{a}_z$$

• So:
$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot \vec{dl} = \int_0^3 \frac{1}{4} \hat{a}_z \cdot (-dz\hat{a}_z) \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \oint_C \vec{B} \cdot \vec{dl} = -\frac{3}{4}$$

Hence, Stoke's Theorem Verified



Electric Field due to a Surface Charge

• Consider a **disk of radius a**, centered at the origin, and lying entirely on the xy-plane (i.e., z = 0 plane). Let us also assume that this disk carries a uniform charge density of $\rho_s C/m^2$.



Challenge: determine electric field at point P



• From Coulomb's Law:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = \iint_{S} \frac{\rho_{s}(r')}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{\vec{r} - \vec{r'}}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r'}|^{3}} dS'$$

$$dS' = \rho' d\rho' d\phi' \qquad 0 < \rho' < a \qquad 0 < \phi' < 2\pi$$

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{a}_{x} + y\hat{a}_{y} + z\hat{a}_{z}$$

$$\vec{r}' = x'\hat{a}_{x} + y'\hat{a}_{y}$$
were to

Convert to cylindrical

$$\therefore \vec{R} = \vec{r} - \vec{r'} = (x - \rho' \cos \phi')\hat{a}_x + (y - \rho' \sin \phi')\hat{a}_y + z\hat{a}_z$$

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$$\left|\vec{R}\right|^{3} = \left|\vec{r} - \vec{r'}\right|^{3} = \left[\left(x - \rho'\cos\phi'\right)^{2} + \left(y - \rho'\sin\phi'\right)^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}$$



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Electric Field due to a Surface Charge (contd.)

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = \iint_{S} \frac{\rho_{S}(r')}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{\vec{r} - \vec{r'}}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r'}|^{3}} dS'$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{S}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{(x - \rho'\cos\phi')\hat{a}_{x} + (y - \rho'\sin\phi')\hat{a}_{y} + z\hat{a}_{z}}{\left[(x - \rho'\cos\phi')^{2} + (y - \rho'\sin\phi')^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \rho'd\rho'd\phi'$$

$$\text{Yikes! What a mess!}$$

• To **simplify** our integration let's determine the electric field $\vec{E}(\vec{r})$ along the **z-axis** only. In other words, set x = 0 and y = 0.

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}(x=0, y=0, z) = \frac{\rho_s}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{(0-\rho'\cos\phi')\hat{a}_x + (0-\rho'\sin\phi')\hat{a}_y + z\hat{a}_z}{\left[\left(0-\rho'\cos\phi'\right)^2 + \left(0-\rho'\sin\phi'\right)^2 + z^2\right]^{3/2}} \rho'd\rho'd\phi'$$

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Electric Field due to a Surface Charge (contd.)

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\rho_{s}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{(\rho'\cos\phi')\hat{a}_{x} + (\rho'\sin\phi')\hat{a}_{y} + z\hat{a}_{z}}{\left[(\rho'\cos\phi')^{2} + (\rho'\sin\phi')^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \rho'd\rho'd\phi'$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{s}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{(\rho'\cos\phi')\hat{a}_{x} + (\rho'\sin\phi')\hat{a}_{y} + z\hat{a}_{z}}{\left[\rho'^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \rho'd\rho'd\phi'$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{s}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{(\rho'\cos\phi')\hat{a}_{x}}{\left[\rho'^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \rho'd\rho'd\phi'$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{s}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{(\rho'\sin\phi')\hat{a}_{y}}{\left[\rho'^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \rho'd\rho'd\phi'$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{s}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{(\rho'\sin\phi')\hat{a}_{y}}{\left[\rho'^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \rho'd\rho'd\phi'$$

$$\frac{We \text{ know:}}{\int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin\phi d\phi = 0} = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos\phi d\phi$$

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Electric Field due to a Surface Charge (contd.)

$$\vec{E}(x=0, y=0, z) = \frac{\rho_{s}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \left[\int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=0}^{a} \frac{z\hat{a}_{z}}{\left[\rho'^{2}+z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \rho' d\rho' d\phi' \right]$$

$$\vec{E}(x=0, y=0, z) = \frac{\rho_{s}}{2\varepsilon_{0}} \hat{a}_{z} \left[1 - \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^{2}+a^{2}}} \right] \qquad \text{If } z > 0$$

$$\frac{\rho_{s}}{2\varepsilon_{0}} \hat{a}_{z} \left[-1 - \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^{2}+a^{2}}} \right] \qquad \text{If } z < 0$$

From this expression, we can conclude **two** things. The first is that **above** the disk (z > 0), the electric field points in the direction \hat{a}_z , and below the disk (z < 0), it points in the direction $-\hat{a}_z$.



• What a surprise (not)! The electric field **points away** from the charge. It appears to be **diverging** from the charged disk



 Likewise, it is evident that as we move further and further from the disk, the electric field will diminish. In fact, as distance z goes to infinity, the magnitude of the electric field approaches zero. This of course is similar to the point or line charge; as we move an infinite distance away, the electric field diminishes to nothing.



Say that we have a very large charge disk. So large, in fact, that its radius a approaches infinity !

Q: What electric field is created by this infinite plane?

A: We **already** know! Just evaluate the charge disk solution for the case where the disk **radius** *a* is **infinity**.





- First, we note that the electric field **points away** from the plane if ρ_s is positive, and toward the plane if ρ_s is negative.
- Second, we notice that the magnitude of the electric field is a constant the magnitude is independent of the distance from the infinite plane!

$$\rho_{s} > 0$$



Example – 5

• An infinite sheet with uniform surface charge density ρ_s is located at z=0 (x-y plane), and another infinite sheet with $-\rho_s$ is located at z=2m, both in free space. Determine \vec{E} everywhere.

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Electric Field of a Charged Sphere

Involves tricky triple integration. Lets first learn Gauss Theorem. It will simplify this problem.



Electric Field Lines

- Electric *field lines* are a pictorial representation of the electric field. These consist of directed lines indicating the direction of electric field at various points in space.
- There is no rule as to how many lines are to be shown. However, it is customary to draw number of lines proportional to the charge. Thus if N number of lines are drawn from or into a charge Q, 2N number of lines would be drawn for charge 2Q.
- Lines are dense close to a source of the electric field and become sparse as one moves away.
- Lines originate from a positive charge and end either on a negative charge or move to infinity.
- Lines of force due to a solitary negative charge is assumed to start at infinity and end at the negative charge.
- Field lines do not cross each other. (if they did, the field at the point of crossing will not be uniquely defined.)





Electric Field Lines (contd.)









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Electric Field Lines (contd.)

 They never cross They start on • Where they are positive charges close together, the and end on field is strong negative charges •The bigger the (or infinity charge, the more field lines come ou



Electric Field Lines (contd.)

Note:

- Near field: very close to a charge, the field due to that charge predominates. Therefore, the lines are radial and spherically symmetric.
- Far field: far from the system of charges, the pattern should look like that of a single point charge of value $Q = \sum_i Q_i$. Thus, the lines should be radially inward or outward, unless Q = 0.
- The direction of the electric field vector \vec{E} at a point is always tangent to the field lines.



Electric Flux

- The concept of *flux* is borrowed from flow of water through a surface.
 - The amount of water flowing through a surface **depends** on the velocity of water, the area of the surface and the orientation of the surface with respect to the direction of velocity of water.
 - Similarly, the electric flux through a surface depends on the electric field, the area of the surface and the orientation of the surface to the direction of electric field lines.
- Though an area is generally considered as a scalar, an element of area may be considered to be a vector because:
 - It has magnitude (measured in m²).
 - If the area is infinitesimally small, it can be considered to be in a plane. We can then associate a direction with it. For instance, if the area element lies in the x-y plane, it can be considered to be directed along the z-direction. (Conventionally, the direction of the area is taken to be along the outward normal.)



Electric Flux (contd.)

 Simply speaking, electric flux is the amount of electric field going through a surface. It is defined in terms of a direction, unit vector, perpendicular to the surface.



$$d\psi = \vec{E}.\hat{n}dS$$
 \longrightarrow $\left| \therefore d\psi = \left| \vec{E} \right| dS \cos \theta$

• For an arbitrary surface S, the flux is obtained by integrating over all the surface elements.

$$\psi = \int_{S} d\psi = \int_{S} \vec{E} \cdot \hat{n} dS$$

• If the electric field is uniform, the angle θ is constant and we have:

$$\psi = E(S\cos\theta)$$

Thus the flux is equal to the product of magnitude of the electric field and the projection of area perpendicular to the field.





Electric Flux (contd.)

When the surface is flat, and the fields are constant, you can just use multiplication to get the flux.





• When the surface is curved, or the fields are not constant, you have to perform an integration:

$$\boldsymbol{\psi} = \int \vec{E} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS$$



Example – 6

Calculate the flux through the base of the cone of radius R shown below.



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Example – 7

 Calculate the flux coming out through the curved surface of the cone in the example – 6.



- Let us consider a circular strip of radius r at a depth h from the apex of the cone. The angle between the electric field through the strip and the vector \overrightarrow{dS} is $(\pi/2)$ - θ , where θ is the semi-angle of the cone.
- If *dl* is the length element along the slope, the area of the strip is $2\pi rdl$.

Then:

$$\vec{E}.\vec{dS} = 2\pi r dl \left| \vec{E} \right| \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = 2\pi r dl \left| \vec{E} \right| \sin \theta$$

• We have, $dl = dh/\cos\theta$. Further, $r = h\tan\theta$. Substituting, we get:

$$\vec{E}.\vec{dS} = 2\pi h \tan^2 \theta \left| \vec{E} \right| dh \qquad \therefore \psi = \int_{h=0}^{h=H} 2\pi h \tan^2 \theta \left| \vec{E} \right| dh = E\pi H^2 \tan^2 \theta = \pi R^2 E$$



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Gauss Law

- In practice, electric field intensity is dependent on the medium in which the charge is placed (free space in our discussion).
- Let us define a new vector \vec{D} that relates the medium and the electric field as:



• According to Gauss [full name: Carl Friedrich Gauss], the total electric flux ψ through any closed surface is equal to the total charge enclosed by that surface.





Gauss Law (contd.)

• Therefore:



First of the four Maxwell's

equations

Gauss's Law can be used to solve three types of problems:

- 1. Finding the total charge in a region when you know the electric field outside that region
- 2. Finding the total flux out of a region when the charge is known
 - It can also be used to find the flux out of one side in symmetrical problems ↔ In such cases, you must first argue from symmetry that the flux is identical through each side
- 3. Finding the electrical field in highly symmetrical situations
 - One must first use reason to find the direction of the electric field everywhere
 - Then draw a Gaussian surface over which the electric field is constant
 - Use this surface to find the electric field using Gauss's Law
 - Works generally only for spherical, cylindrical, or planar-type problems



Gauss Law (contd.)

- 1. A continuous charge distribution has rectangular symmetry if it depends only on x (or y or z), cylindrical symmetry if it depends only on ρ , and spherical symmetry if it depends only on r (independent of θ and φ).
- 2. Gauss's Law is also valid for asymmetric charge distribution. However, you can't apply Gauss's Law to determine \vec{E} or \vec{D} . In such situations, apply Coulomb's Law.
- 3. Gaussian surface is chosen such that \vec{D} is normal or tangential to the surface. When \vec{D} is normal to the surface then $\vec{D} \cdot \vec{ds} = \vec{D}$ and for tangential \vec{D} we get $\vec{D} \cdot \vec{ds} = 0$.



Applications of Gauss's Law

Point Charge

- Suppose a point charge is located at origin.
- Determine \vec{D} at a point P.
- Choose a spherical surface containing P.
- \vec{D} is everywhere normal to the Gaussian surface.

$$Q = \oint_{S} \overrightarrow{D}.\overrightarrow{dS} = \oint_{S} DdS \cos 0^{\circ} = \oint_{S} DdS = D \oint_{S} dS = D \times 4\pi r^{2}$$

$$\therefore D = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2}$$



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Applications of Gauss's Law (contd.)

Infinite Line Charge

- To determine \overrightarrow{D} at a point P, lets choose a cylindrical surface of arbitrary length l.
- \vec{D} is normal to side surface, doesn't exist on the top and bottom surface (because there is no z-component of \vec{D}).
- <u>Therefore:</u>

$$Q = \rho_l l = \oint_S \vec{D}.\vec{dS} = D_\rho \oint_S dS = D_\rho \times 2\pi\rho$$
$$D_\rho = \frac{\rho_l}{2\pi\rho}$$

$$\therefore D = \frac{\rho_l}{2\pi\rho} \hat{a}_{\rho}$$



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Applications of Gauss's Law (contd.)

Infinite Sheet Charge

- To determine \overrightarrow{D} at a point P, lets choose a rectangular box with top and bottom area A
- \overrightarrow{D} is normal to the top and bottom, doesn't exist on the side surface
- Therefore:

$$Q = \rho_{S} \int dS = \oint_{S} \overrightarrow{D}.\overrightarrow{dS} = D_{z} \left[\int_{top} dS + \int_{bottom} dS \right]$$



Infinite sheet of charge: $\rho_s C/m^2$

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Applications of Gauss's Law (contd.)

Uniformly Charged Sphere

- A sphere of radius *a* has uniform charge density ρ_v throughout. What is the direction and magnitude of the electric field everywhere?
 - To determine \overrightarrow{D} everywhere, let us construct Gaussian surfaces for cases $\mathbf{r} \leq \mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{r} \geq \mathbf{a}$ separately.





- Clearly, all directions are created equal in this problem
- Certainly the electric field will point away from the sphere at all points
- The electric field must depend only on the distance

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Applications of Gauss's Law (contd.)

Uniformly Charged Sphere

Case-I: r < a

• When computing the flux for a Gaussian surface, only include the electric charges *inside* the surface. Here, the enclosed charge is:

$$Q_{enc} = \int_{v} \rho_{v} dv = \rho_{v} \int_{v} dv = \rho_{v} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \int_{r=0}^{r} r^{2} \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi \qquad (\therefore Q_{enc})$$

$$\therefore Q_{enc} = \rho_v \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3$$

• The total flux:

$$\psi = \oint_{S} \overrightarrow{D}.\overrightarrow{dS} = D_r \oint_{S} dS = D_r \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} r^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi \qquad (\therefore \psi = D_r 4\pi r^2)$$

• From Gauss's Law: $\psi = Q_{enc} \qquad \Rightarrow D_r 4\pi r^2 = \rho_v \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \qquad \Rightarrow D_r = \frac{\rho_v}{3}r$

$$\overrightarrow{D} = \frac{r}{3} \rho_v \hat{a}_r$$





Applications of Gauss's Law (contd.)

Uniformly Charged Sphere

Case-II: $r \ge a$

The charge enclosed in this case is the entire charge:

$$Q_{enc} = \int_{v} \rho_{v} dv = \rho_{v} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \int_{r=0}^{a} r^{2} \sin\theta dr d\theta d\phi \qquad \therefore Q_{enc} = \rho_{v} \frac{4}{3} \pi a^{3}$$

• While:

$$\psi = \oint_{S} \overrightarrow{D}.\overrightarrow{dS} = D_{r} \oint_{S} dS = D_{r} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} r^{2} \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \qquad (\therefore \psi = D_{r} 4\pi r^{2})$$

• From Gauss's Law: $\Psi = Q_{enc} \implies D_r 4\pi r^2 =$

$$Q_{enc} \implies D_r 4\pi r^2 = \rho_v \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3 \implies D_r = \frac{a^3}{3r^2}\rho_v$$
$$\therefore \vec{D} = \frac{a^3}{3r^2}\rho_v \hat{a}_r$$



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Applications of Gauss's Law (contd.)

Uniformly Charged Sphere

