Electromagnetic Field Theory

Books:

Electrical

- 1. Sadiku, Matthew N, "Elements of Electromagnetics", Oxford University Press, ISBN: 0195103688, Latest Edition.
- 2. William Hayt and John A. Buck, "Engineering Electromagnetics", McGraw-Hill, ISBN: 0073104639, Latest Edition.
- 3. Kong J. A., "Electromagnetic Wave Theory", Cambridge, Latest Edition.
- 4. John D. Kraus, "Engineering Electromagnetics", McGraw-Hill Inc., New York, Latest Edition
- 5. N. N. Rao, "Elements of Engineering Electromagnetics", Pearson Education, Latest Edition

Electronics

- 1. Electromagnetic waves & radio system by Jorden R.F.
- 2. Principle and applications of Electromagnetic fields by Ptonsey R and Collin R.P
- 3. Applied Electromagnetic by Planus M.A.

Fundamentals of Applied Electromagnetics by Fawaz T. Ulaby et. al. latest edition

Distribution of Marks

- Assignments = 12.5 marks
- Quizzes = 12.5 marks
- Mid term exam = 25 marks
- Final term exam = 50 marks

Introduction

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[Electromagnetic Field Theory – Spring 2018]

Electromagnetics or Electromagnetism is about the combination of electricity and

magnetism

We know the relation between electricity and magnetism

Field is any area. In this case, field is the area where the combined effect of

electricity and magnetism can be felt

Theory is simply defined as a system of ideas intended to explain something

Wireless communication (Antennas)

RADAR

Machines and Drives

Biomedical applications

Sensors

Short Review of Some Fundamentals

Dimension	Unit	Symbol
Length	meter	m
Mass	kilogram	kg
Time	second	S
Electric Current	ampere	А
Temperature	kelvin	K
Amount of substance	mole	mol

Derived Units

Prefixes to Represent Numbers/Units

Prefix	Symbol	Magnitude
exa	Е	10 ¹⁸
peta	Р	10^{15}
tera	Т	10^{12}
giga	G	10 ⁹
mega	Μ	10 ⁶
kilo	k	10 ³
milli	m	10-3
micro	μ	10 ⁻⁶
nano	n	10 ⁻⁹
pico	р	10^{-12}
femto	f	10^{-15}
atto	a	10^{-18}

Scalar Quantity

Physical quantities requiring magnitude for complete description

Represented by medium-weighted italic font

Vector Quantity

Physical quantities requiring magnitude and direction for complete description

Represented by bold face font (or a normal letter with arrow above it)

Magnitude is represented by a medium-weighted italic font

Direction is represented by a unit vector (bold face letter with circumflex

above it)

The Nature of Electromagnetism

Electromagnetic force is one of the natures fundamental forces

It operates at the atomic scale

Its effects can be transmitted through electromagnetic waves through free space

and material media

Source of electric and magnetic fields

Combination of electric and magnetic fields (electromagnetic field)

Electric Field

Electric Field

Source of electric field is electric charge

Electric charge may have positive or negative polarity

The resulting force may be attractive or repulsive

All matter is composed of neutrons (neutral), protons (positively charged), and

electrons (negatively charged)

The fundamental quantity of charge is that of a single electron denoted by e

 $e = 1.6x10^{-19}Coulomb$

Charge of a single electron is $q_e = -e$, and that of a proton is $q_p = e$



Coulomb's experiments demonstrated that:

- two like charges repel one another, whereas two charges of opposite polarity attract,
- (2) the force acts along the line joining the charges, and
- (3) its strength is proportional to the product of the magnitudes of the two charges and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them.



Where F_{e21} is the electric force acting on charge q2 due to charge q1

 R_{12} is the distance between the two charges

 $\widehat{R_{12}}$ is the unit vector pointing from q1 to q2

 ε_0 is a universal constant called the electrical permittivity of free space

$$\varepsilon_0 = 8.854 \ge 10^{-12} F/m$$

$$F_{e12} = -F_{e21}$$

Electric Field Intensity



$$\mathbf{E} = \hat{\mathbf{R}} \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 R^2}$$
 (V/m) (in free space),

If any point charge q' is present in an electric field **E** (due to other charges), the point charge will experience a force acting on it equal to $\mathbf{F}_{e} = q'\mathbf{E}$.

The electric field intensity, due to any charge q, can be defined as

$$\mathbf{E} = \hat{\mathbf{R}} \frac{q}{4\pi \varepsilon_0 R^2}$$
 (V/m) (in free space),

If any point charge q' is present in an electric field \mathbf{E} (due to other charges), the point charge will experience a force acting on it equal to $\mathbf{F}_{e} = q'\mathbf{E}$.

Where, R is the distance between charge and the point of observation

 \widehat{R} is the unit vector pointing away from the charge

Two Important Properties of Electric Charge

- 1. Law of Conservation of Charge: The electric charge (net) can neither be created nor destroyed
 - if a volume contains n_e number of electrons and n_p number of protons, then

the total charge q is given by $q = n_p e - n_e e = (n_p - n_e)e$

2. Principle of linear superposition: the total vector electric field at a point in space

due to a system of point charges is equal to the vector sum of electric fields at

that point due to the individual fields.

Polarization of atoms of a dielectric material:

Two Important Properties of Electric Charge

Polarization of atoms of a dielectric material due to a positive charge q: Under

normal conditions, electric field at any point inside a molecule is zero. When a

positive charge q is placed inside the material, the electrons of all the atoms

get attracted to q, hence giving rise to electric dipoles. The overall process of

electric dipole creation and their alignment is called polarization.



Electrons exist around the nucleus of atoms under normal conditions, but if

due to any external force the electrons get concentrated on one side, leaving

the rest of the charge on other side, such a polarized atom is known as electric

dipole

The intensity of polarization depends upon the distance of the atom from the

test charge



The electric field intensity at a point near a test charge, is different in vacuum as

compared to that in a material. It is given by

$$\mathbf{E} = \hat{\mathbf{R}} \frac{q}{4\pi \varepsilon R^2} \qquad (\text{V/m})$$

ɛ is the permittivity of the material

Normally the permittivity of different materials is given with reference to that of

free space as $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 (F/m)$, where ε_r is the relative permittivity of that material

For vacuum ε_r =1, while for air near earth's surface ε_r =1.0006

$D = \varepsilon E \quad (C/m^2)$

Magnetic Field

Magnets occurred naturally

The idea of magnetic field lines, their direction, and poles was presented using the

compass needle as a testing instrument



Magnetic field lines surrounding the magnet shows the magnetic flux density

represented by *B*

Magnetic field is also generated by the flow of electric charge.

The following relation, known as Biot-savart law, describes the magnitude of

magnetic flux density around a current carrying conductor

$$\mathbf{B} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \; \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \qquad \text{(T)}$$

 μ_0 is called the magnetic permeability of free space and its value is

$$4\pi \ge 10^{-7} H/m$$

It is analogous to the electric permittivity ε_0

Biot-Savart Law

The magnetic field induced by a steady state current flowing in the z-direction



As discussed for electric permittivity, for magnetic permeability we have

 $\mu = \mu_r \mu_0$

Also, in analogy to the relation between electric field intensity and electric flux

density, we have

 $B = \mu H$

Where *B* is the magnetic flux density, while *H* is the magnetic field intensity

Vector Analysis

Vector Analysis

Vector representation

Need of vector analysis in EMF

Vector Analysis

Appearance of vector

Magnitude and direction of vector

Unit vector





Base Vectors



Components of a Vector

$$\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}A_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}A_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z$$



$$\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}A_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}A_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z$$

$$A = |\mathbf{A}| = \sqrt[4]{A_x^2 + A_y^2 + A_z^2}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{\mathbf{A}}{A} = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{x}}A_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}A_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z}{\sqrt[4]{A_x^2 + A_y^2 + A_z^2}}$$

Components of a Vector

$$\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}A = \hat{\mathbf{x}}A_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}A_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z,$$
$$\mathbf{B} = \hat{\mathbf{b}}B = \hat{\mathbf{x}}B_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}B_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}B_z,$$

then $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$ if and only if A = B and $\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \hat{\mathbf{b}}$, which requires that $A_x = B_x$, $A_y = B_y$, and $A_z = B_z$.

Equality of two vectors does not necessarily imply that they are identical; in Cartesian coordinates, two displaced parallel vectors of equal magnitude and pointing in the same direction are equal, but they are identical only if they lie on top of one another. The sum of two vectors **A** and **B** is a vector $\mathbf{C} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} C_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}} C_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}} C_z$, given by

$$C = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$$

= $(\hat{\mathbf{x}}A_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}A_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z) + (\hat{\mathbf{x}}B_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}B_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}B_z)$
= $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(A_x + B_x) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}(A_y + B_y) + \hat{\mathbf{z}}(A_z + B_z)$
= $\hat{\mathbf{x}} C_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}} C_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}} C_z$.

Hence, vector addition is commutative:

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}.$$

Addition of Two Vectors (Graphically)



(a) Parallelogram rule



(b) Head-to-tail rule

Subtraction of Vectors





Position vector of a point P in space is a vector from origin to point P

$$\mathbf{R}_1 = \overrightarrow{OP_1} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}x_1 + \hat{\mathbf{y}}y_1 + \hat{\mathbf{z}}z_1,$$
$$\mathbf{R}_2 = \overrightarrow{OP_2} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}x_2 + \hat{\mathbf{y}}y_2 + \hat{\mathbf{z}}z_2,$$

Distance vector from *P*1 to *P*2 is defined as

$$\mathbf{R}_{12} = \overrightarrow{P_1 P_2}$$

= $\mathbf{R}_2 - \mathbf{R}_1$
= $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(x_2 - x_1) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}(y_2 - y_1) + \hat{\mathbf{z}}(z_2 - z_1),$
$$\mathbf{R}_{12} - \mathbf{R}_2 = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$$

= $\mathbf{R}_1 - \mathbf{R}_2$
 $y_1 - y_2 - y_2$

Position and Distance Vectors

The distance d between P1 and P2 equals the magnitude of R12





Simple Product: multiplying a constant k to a vector **A** to get vector **B**

$$\mathbf{B} = k\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}kA = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(kA_x) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}(kA_y) + \hat{\mathbf{z}}(kA_z)$$
$$= \hat{\mathbf{x}}B_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}B_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}B_z.$$

Scalar Product/dot product:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = AB \cos \theta_{AB}.$$



 $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ (commutative property), $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}$ (distributive property). $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}|^2 = A^2$ $A = |\mathbf{A}| = \sqrt[4]{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}}$ $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}} = 1,$ $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}} = 0.$ If $\mathbf{A} = (A_x, A_y, A_z)$ and $\mathbf{B} = (B_x, B_y, B_z)$, then $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = (\hat{\mathbf{x}}A_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}A_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z) \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{x}}B_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}B_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}B_z).$ $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = A_x B_x + A_y B_y + A_z B_z.$

Vector/Cross Product:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \ AB \sin \theta_{AB}$$

where **n** is a unit vector normal to the plane containing A and B



Properties of Vector/Cross Product:

 $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$ (anticommutative)

 $\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C}$ (distributive),

 $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{A} = 0.$

 $\hat{x} \times \hat{y} = \hat{z}$ $\hat{y} \times \hat{z} = \hat{x}$ $\hat{z} \times \hat{x} = \hat{y}$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} \times \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} \times \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \times \hat{\mathbf{z}} = 0$$

Properties of Vector/Cross Product:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = (\hat{\mathbf{x}}A_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}A_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z) \times (\hat{\mathbf{x}}B_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}B_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}B_z)$$

= $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(A_yB_z - A_zB_y) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}(A_zB_x - A_xB_z)$
+ $\hat{\mathbf{z}}(A_xB_y - A_yB_x).$

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$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} =$	A_x	Ay	Az
	B_x	By	Bz

Example



a) Vector A, its magnitude, and a unit vector in the direction of A

$$A = \hat{\mathbf{x}}2 + \hat{\mathbf{y}}3 + \hat{\mathbf{z}}3,$$

$$A = |\mathbf{A}| = \sqrt{2^2 + 3^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{22},$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{\mathbf{A}}{A} = (\hat{\mathbf{x}}2 + \hat{\mathbf{y}}3 + \hat{\mathbf{z}}3)/\sqrt{22}.$$

Example

b) angle β between Vector **A** and y – axis

or

 $\mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{y}} = |\mathbf{A}| |\hat{\mathbf{y}}| \cos \beta = A \cos \beta,$

$$\beta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{y}}}{A}\right) = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{\sqrt{22}}\right) = 50.2^{\circ}$$

c) Vector **B**

$$\mathbf{B} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(1-2) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}(-2-3) + \hat{\mathbf{z}}(2-3) = -\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}5 - \hat{\mathbf{z}}.$$

d) Angle θ_{AB} between **A** and **B**

$$\theta_{AB} = \cos^{-1} \left[\frac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}}{|\mathbf{A}||\mathbf{B}|} \right] = \cos^{-1} \left[\frac{(-2 - 15 - 3)}{\sqrt{22}\sqrt{27}} \right]$$
$$= 145.1^{\circ}.$$

Example

e) the perpendicular distance from origin to vector B

$$|\overrightarrow{OP_3}| = |\mathbf{A}| \sin(180^\circ - \theta_{AB})$$

= $\sqrt{22} \sin(180^\circ - 145.1^\circ) = 2.68.$

Coordinate Systems

Coordinate Systems

Orthogonal

Cartesian

Cylindrical

Spherical

Unorthogonal

- **Differential lengths**
- Differential surface
- Differential volume



Cylindrical Coordinate System

- A point is defined by three variables r, ϕ, z
- *r* is the radial distance from the z-axis
- Ø is the azimuth angle as measured with reference to the positive x-axis
- *z* is the same as that in Cartesian coordinate system



Cylindrical Coordinate System

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}}, \qquad \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \times \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{r}}, \qquad \hat{\mathbf{z}} \times \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{r}}=\hat{\mathbf{\phi}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{\phi}}=\hat{\mathbf{z}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{z}}=1$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \times \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \times \hat{\mathbf{z}} = 0.$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}|\mathbf{A}| = \hat{\mathbf{r}}A_r + \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}A_\phi + \hat{\mathbf{z}}A_z$$

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \sqrt[+]{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}} = \sqrt[+]{A_r^2 + A_\phi^2 + A_z^2}.$$

Cylindrical Coordinate System

$$dl_{r} = dr, \qquad dl_{\phi} = r \ d\phi, \qquad dl_{z} = dz.$$

$$d\mathbf{I} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \ dl_{r} + \hat{\phi} \ dl_{\phi} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \ dl_{z} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \ dr + \hat{\phi} \ d\phi + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \ dz.$$

$$d\mathbf{s}_{r} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \ dl_{\phi} \ dl_{z} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \ d\phi \ dz \qquad (\phi - z \text{ cylindrical surface}),$$

$$d\mathbf{s}_{\phi} = \hat{\phi} \ dl_{r} \ dl_{z} = \hat{\phi} \ dr \ dz \qquad (r - z \text{ plane}),$$

$$d\mathbf{s}_{z} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \ dl_{r} \ dl_{\phi} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \ dr \ d\phi \qquad (r - \phi \text{ plane}).$$

$$dV = dl_r \ dl_\phi \ dl_z = r \ dr \ d\phi \ dz.$$

Spherical Coordinate System



Continued ...