

Electromagnetic Field
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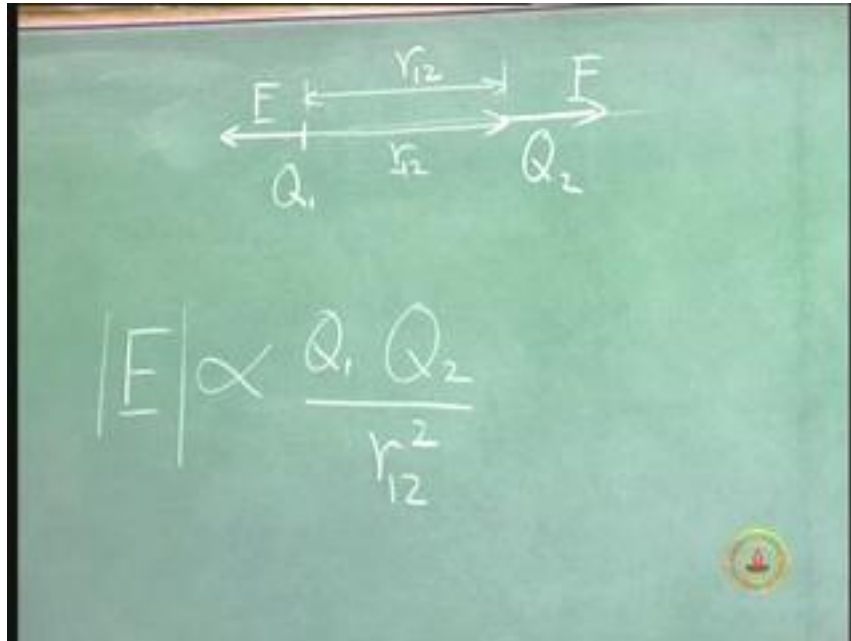
Lecture - 3
Introduction to Vector

Good morning!

This is the third lecture **on** the electromagnetic field for EEE students. **In the** last two lectures we had covered vectors basically and this lecture I want to introduce the first application of vectors, namely Coulomb's law.

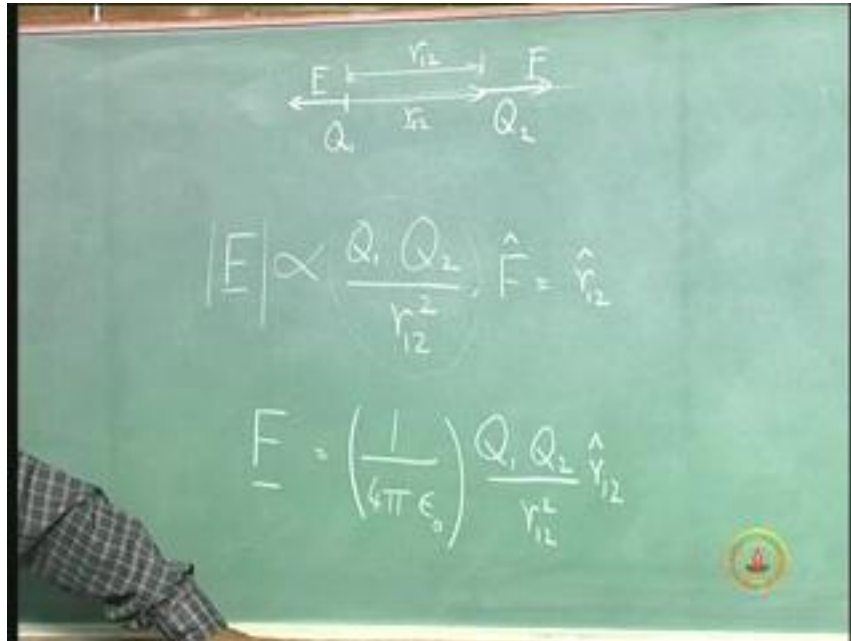
So we had already seen Coulomb's law before in many courses, so I don't have to go into it. If you put two charges Q_1 and Q_2 then the charge Q_2 feels a force from the presence of charge Q_1 and the force is on a line joining the two charges. And it is pointing away from Q_1 when it is applied to Q_2 . The same two charges apply the force opposite to it, that is, Q_1 feels a force from charge Q_2 . It is an equal and opposite force. How large is this force? Well if this distance, we call this r_{12} - when I label things like r_{12} , I mean put the foot of the vector at 1, draw an arrow to 2 and that vector is called r_{12} . Then the force is proportional to the strength Q_1 . It is also proportional to the strength Q_2 and it is inversely proportional to the square of the distance, that is, it is inversely proportional to r_{12}^2 . This is the well known Coulomb's law and I am sure you met it many times before. This is the force and forces are vectors, which mean that this is the magnitude of the force. The force also has a direction and the direction of force is given by the direction of r_{12} . When I put a cap on top of any symbol it means unit vector along the direction of that symbol.

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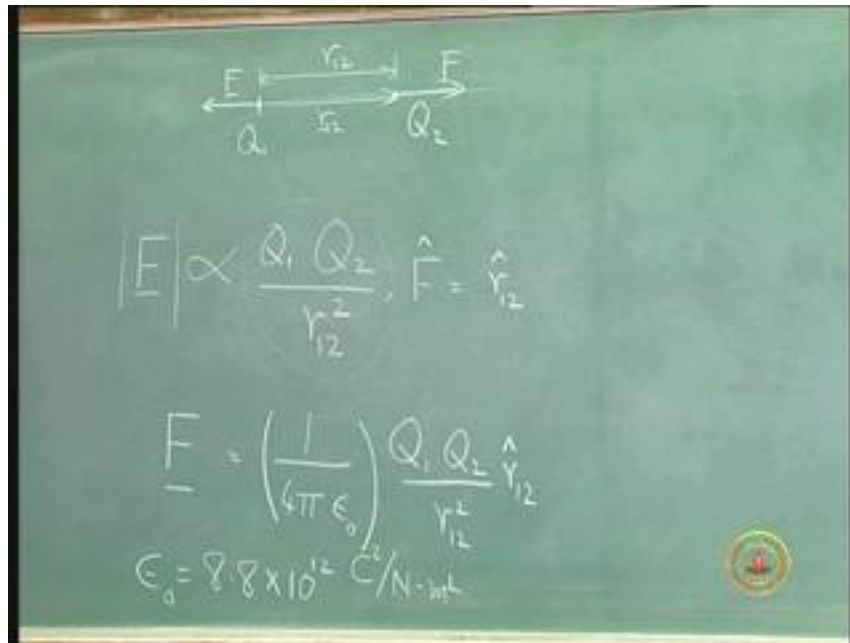
So the force is along r_{12} and it has a magnitude that is proportional to $Q_1 Q_2$ over r_{12} square. Now the proportionality is completely arbitrary. There are coordinate systems, namely the CGS system, where we would actually write F is equal to $Q_1 Q_2$ over r_{12} square, but in this course we will be using the SI system, the Standard International system, and in the standard system this proportionality constant is not 1, it has got a value. So the full equation looks like F , which is a vector, is equal to this proportionality constant times $Q_1 Q_2$ over r_{12} square along the direction r_{12} and for SI units, this proportionality constant is called 1 over $4\pi\epsilon_0$.

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This, as I told you, is completely arbitrary. In another coordinate system **then** this proportionality constant would be different. For now what is all important to know is that epsilon, which is called the permittivity of free space, has a value which is “eight point eight” into ten to the minus twelve. And if you look at the units that it must have, you can take r square to this side, $Q_1 Q_2$ down, so what will you get? You will get the 1 over epsilon has the units of newtons meter square per Coulomb square. So epsilon naught must have the units of Coulomb s square per newton meter square.

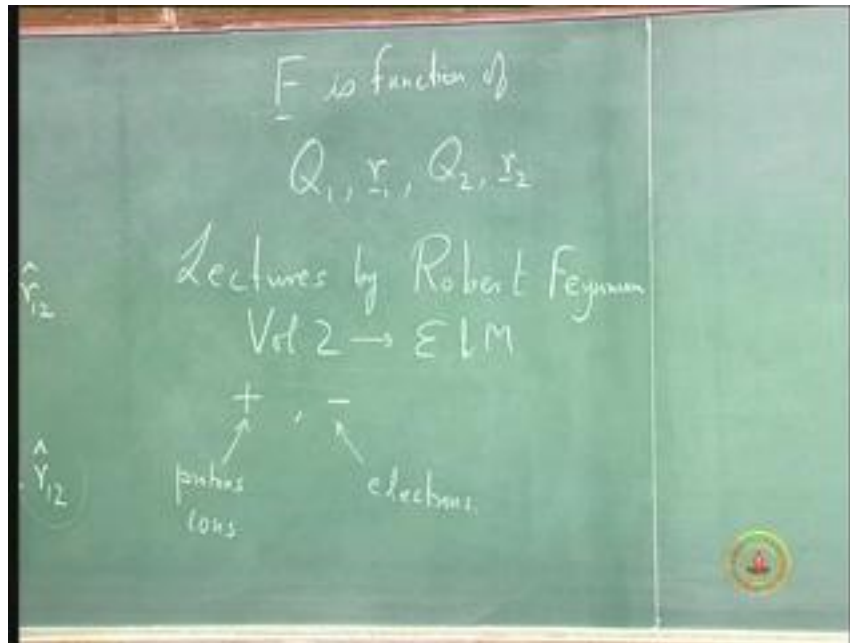
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More conventionally it is defined in terms of capacitance but we will come to that later. So this is a vector equation. It defines a vector F in terms of another vector and some scalars. Now this F , which is the electrostatic force F , is a function of Q_1 , the location of Q_1 , Q_2 and the location of Q_2 . How strong is this force? For this, let me go back to Feynman lectures; Robert Feynman, 1 of the most famous physicists in the twentieth century, he wrote three volumes; Lectures of Feynman, which is probably the finest introduction to physics that has ever been written, and in volume two he talks about electricity and magnetism. I strongly suggest you read chapter 1 of volume two and I am going to take an example from there.

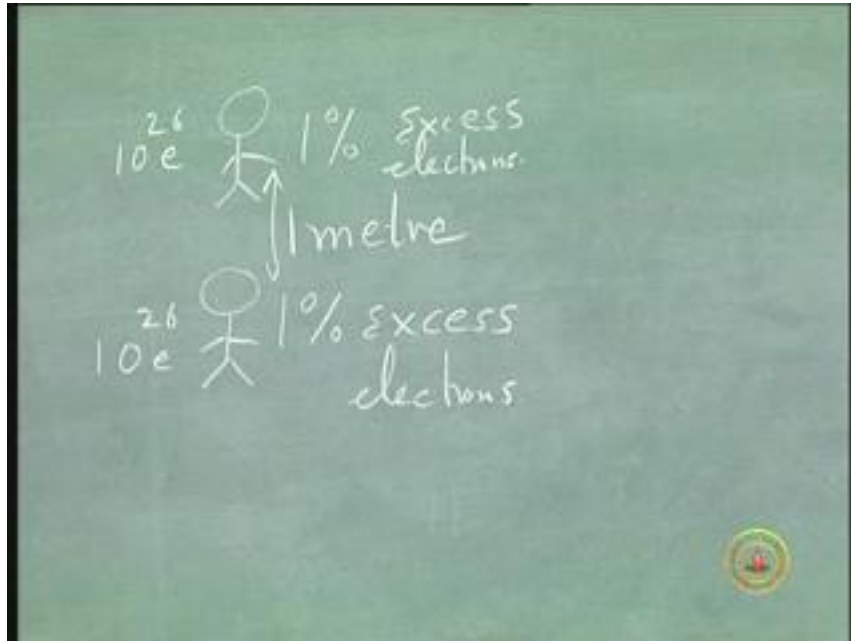
You know that charges come in two types: there is positive charge and there is negative charge. Positive charges include protons, ions; negative charges include electrons and any human body contains enormous number of both.

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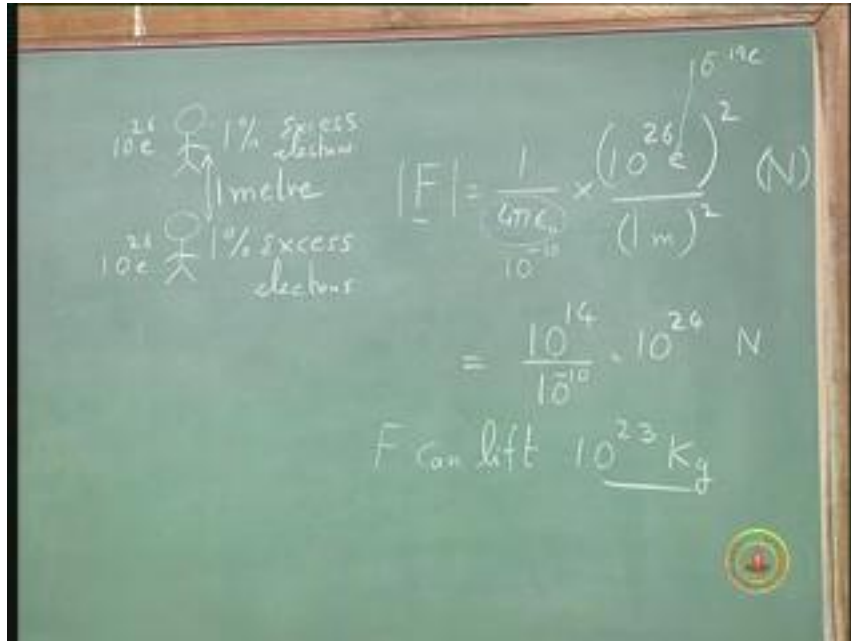
Now supposing humans **were not** did not have equal number of electrons and protons; supposing we had an excess of electrons: how much? Let us say we had a 1 percent excess of electrons? And to simplify all our mathematics, I will assume a human being weighs hundred kilograms. So roughly 1 kg worth of protons equivalent charge in electrons is excess. Human density is 1 gram per centimeter cubed, so 1 kg contains thousand centimeter cubed. Each centimeter cubed contains around ten to the twenty three protons or electrons. So we will say 1 percent corresponds to thousand times ten to the twenty three electrons. Now what does that give us in terms of a force? Supposing you had human being 1 percent excess electrons and this human being is standing below another human being who will also have 1 percent excess electrons. So each of them has ten to the twenty six electrons; that is ten to the twenty six more electrons than protons.

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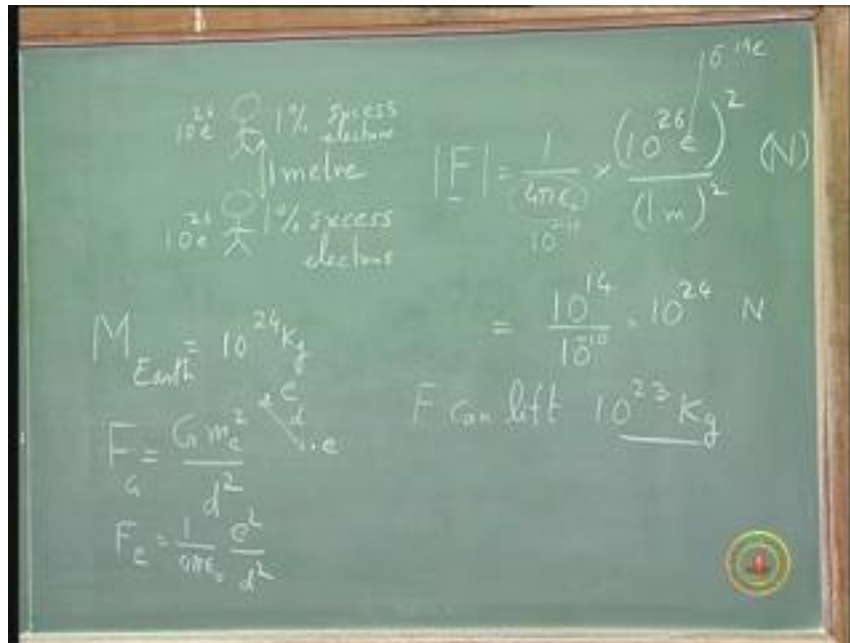
So we can apply Coulomb's Law. Let us say they are about 1 meter apart, so we will say that the force magnitude is equal to $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{10^{26} e^2}{1^2}$, because both of them have the same charge, divided by the distance which is 1 meter whole square, and this force should be newtons. We already know what epsilon is, epsilon is 8.8×10^{-12} . 4π is 12, so if you combine the two, this is around 10^{-10} . Charge of the electrons is 10^{-19} Coulombs. So if you put it all together, what do you get? You get $10^{26} \times 10^{-19} \times 10^{-10}$ that is 10^7 whole squared, 10^{14} divided by 10^{10} minus 10 which is 10^{24} newtons. Having this, 4 times 10^{24} . Ten newtons is the weight of 1 kg that is the force of gravitation is 10 newtons per kilogram.

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So this force can lift 10^{23} kilograms and you know what the weight of the earth is; the mass of the earth is 10^{24} kilograms. So if two of us happen to be having an excess of electrons of 1 percent, the force between us could lift the earth. That is how strong this electric force is. It is unimaginably strong. You can compare it with the gravitational force because if you have two people they attract each other gravitationally and they also interact through electrical forces. So supposing I take two electrons there is an electron and another electron, they are separated by a distance d . The force due to gravity is the gravitational constant times the mass of the electron square divided by d square. This is the force with which 1 electron attracts another electron, this gravitational attraction. The electrical attraction force due to the electric field is $1 / (4\pi\epsilon_0) \cdot e^2 / d^2$ - the charge of the electron square, divided by the same d square.

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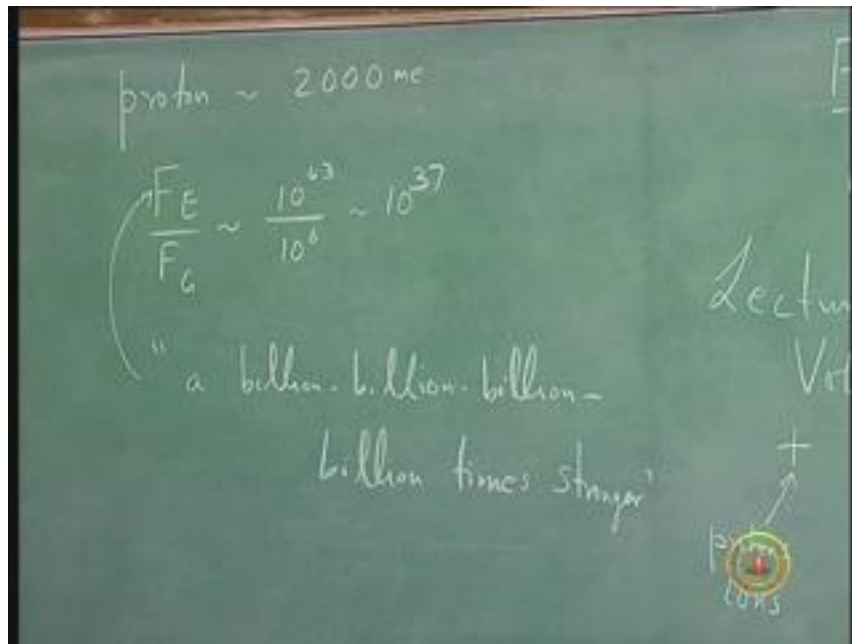


So we can work out how much stronger the electric field is compared to the gravitational field. How much is it? Well, the d square will cancel out, so what you get is F electric divided by F gravitation, is e square over four pi epsilon naught, divided by G times m e square. As before the electric charge is 1.6 into 10 to the minus 19 Coulomb s. The mass of the electron is 9.1 into 10 to the minus 31 kg. Now the gravitational field- the universal constant of gravitation, is 6.7 into 10 to the minus 11 and the units are again gotten from here which is newton meters per kg square.

Now you can see I am going to take 10 to the minus 30 square, 10 to the minus 60 ; and then I have a 10 to the minus 11 . I am going to take it all to the numerator, I have here 10 to the minus 19 times 10 to the 10 . So a huge number is going to come out. Well you can work it out and what you find is that this is of order 10 to the 43 . That is, the electric force between two electrons is 43 orders of magnitude stronger than the gravitational force between those electrons. Now naturally the gravitational force is proportional to mass, whereas the electric force is proportional to the charge.

So if we took a heavier particle with the same charge, you will get a better answer. Well how much better? If you took the proton **proton** has a mass which is around 2000 times, well, 1800 and something times electrons. So in that case, this ratio gets divided by 2000 square, so then you will find that F_E **upon** F_G will be like 10 to the 43 divided by 10 to the 6 , which is 10 to the 37 . It doesn't get any better than this because the proton is basically a heavy particle, most of our body is built out of units which is the weight of the proton. So this is why Feynman says that the force due to electricity is a billion billion billion billion times strong.

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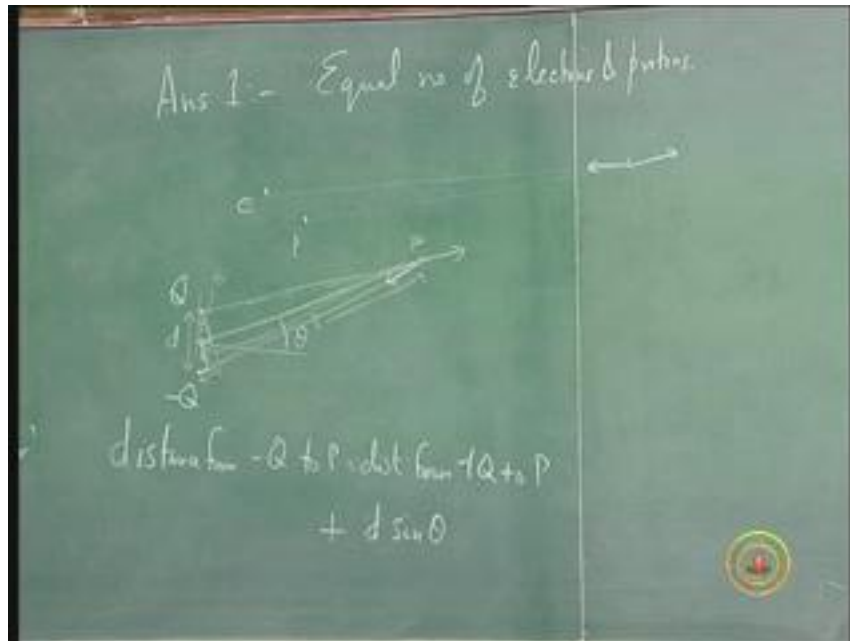
Four billions in a row, because a billion is ten to the nine. We put four of them next to each other, ten to the nine to the power of four is ten to the thirty six, this ratio is actually ten to the thirty seven. So the electric field is enormously more powerful than the magnetic field, than the sorry, the gravitational field. However, in our normal experience there is no electric field. In fact, if you look at the ancient records you will find they talk about gravitation but they don't talk about electricity. They knew lightning and the Greeks knew a little bit about amber- they knew amber could be rubbed, then it will it

will attract things. They knew about some magnetic materials, that was it. This force that is a billion billion billion billion times stronger is missing. It is not there, so where does it go? How is it that when you get to larger and larger scales the electric field becomes less and less important, whereas when you get to larger and larger scales the gravitational field becomes extremely important?

Let us take a look at that. There are several answers that are given. Let us take them. Answer 1: equal number of electrons and protons, so the result is if you have an electron and you have a proton and they are both close to each other, then far away this electron is, let us say it is a positive charge, it is attracting the charge, the proton is repelling the charge, and so there is a very slight force only. And so all these huge forces that are being exerted by the body, they all cancel. There is a problem with that argument- if you see that problem. Let us work out what happens in such a case. Supposing I have a charge Q and I have a charge minus Q , that is I am thinking of the proton and electron and they are separated by a distance d , I want to know what is the field due to this proton and electron combination far away. Now if you look at this, you can construct what the forces will be. You will draw a straight line **to this** to this point and the force will be away from Q . We will draw another straight line connecting minus Q to this point and the force will be towards minus Q . Now the forces will mostly cancel.

However, if we write out what the forces are, you can see that this distance from the point P to minus Q is a larger distance than from the point P to plus Q . How much larger? Well, you can draw perpendiculars and see that this distance is equal to this distance plus a little extra, whereas this distance is equal to this distance plus again a little extra. So the distance from minus Q to P is equal to distance from plus Q to P plus this quantity and how much is that quantity? It is a standard calculation; you have $d \sin \theta$ in your optics- when you do interference if you take this angle as θ that angle is the same as this angle θ . So you can say that the difference in distance is $2d \sin \theta$. So $d \sin \theta$, the total distance is d so this distance is $d \sin \theta$.

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So the distance from minus Q to this point P is the distance from Q to this point d plus this extra distance and this extra distance is nothing but this $d \sin \theta$. Sine is nothing but the opposite side over the hypotenuse. So now if I want to find out what the force is, well the force- I am only calculating the force along the radius; there is actually a force in this direction- we will work that out later when we work what the electrostatic potential is. But the force along the radius, so $F_{\text{sub } r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2}$ over- I will call this r_1 - square minus Q over r^2 square so this is r_1 , this is r_2 .

In other words, the force along the radial direction is due to the fact that one charge is nearer, one charge is further away. So the one over r^2 is not the same. So I can write down what this will come out to. The radial component of the force is $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r_1^2} - \frac{Q}{r_2^2}$ times, of course the charge of the at the point P there is a small charge q it should also be multiplied.

Now I can write these in terms of each other because I have already written the distance from minus P to P is the distance from plus P to P plus $d \sin \theta$. I will write that out,

it is $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2} - \frac{Q}{r^2} \frac{1}{1 + d \sin \theta}$ whole square times small q .

Now what does that mean? I know that I am looking from a point far away, so this r is much larger than this d . So I can say $r^2 + 2d \sin \theta r$ is approximately equal to r^2 plus two $d \sin \theta$ times r . That is, I am neglecting the $d^2 \sin^2 \theta$ because it is very small. Then I substitute that here and I expand, so my F_r becomes capital Q small q over $4\pi\epsilon_0$ times $\frac{1}{r^2} \left(1 - \frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}\right)$.

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$$F_r = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{Q}{r^2} - \frac{Q}{r^2} \frac{1}{1 + d \sin \theta} \right) q$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{Q}{r^2} - \frac{Q}{(r + d \sin \theta)^2} \right) q$$

$r \gg d$

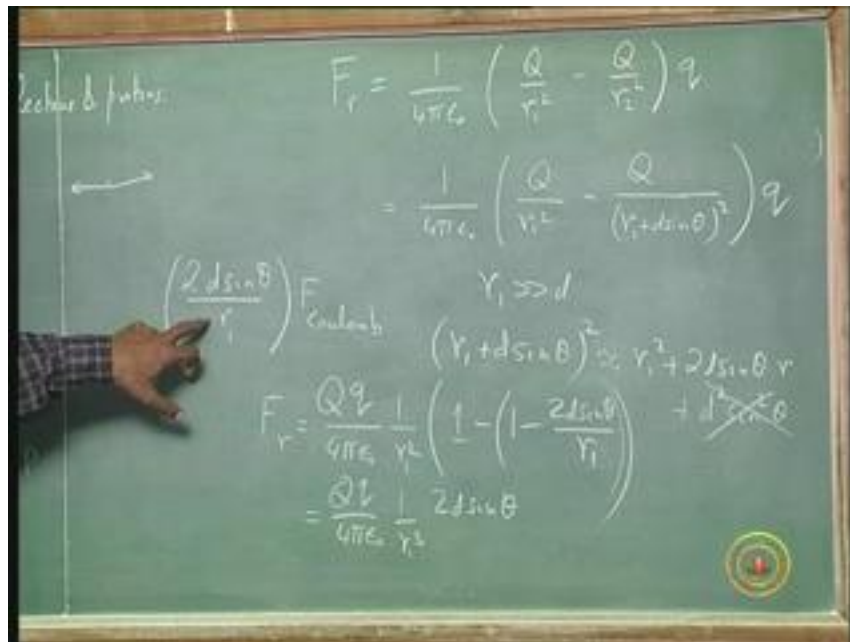
$$(r + d \sin \theta)^2 \approx r^2 + 2d \sin \theta r + d^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$F_r = \frac{Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}} \right)$$

It's a very small quantity because d is small compared to r so I can expand this, and I will expand it in case when I will take it to the numerator this $1 + \frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}$ will become $1 - \frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}$. It becomes $1 - \frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}$. The 1 will cancel out and what you are left with is $\frac{Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3} \frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}$. There is $\frac{1}{r^3}$ and a $2d \sin \theta$ so ultimately what have we gained the $\frac{Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3} \frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}$.

$\frac{2d \sin \theta}{r^2}$ is Coulomb's law. You have an extra term that goes like $\frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}$ over r times F_{Coulomb} .

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So the fact that you had electrons and protons close together buys you this factor. It means that if electrons and protons are on average d distance apart then at a distance r the force is smaller by this factor. But does that explain why gravitation dominates? Let us see the numbers. We have the numbers here already. We have that gravitation dominates by a factor of ten to the thirty six, thirty seven. Now typically electrons and protons are 1 angstrom apart, so d is of the order of ten to minus ten meters. We are talking about a distance 1 meter away for this calculation so r is 1 meter. So what does that factor give you? It gives you a factor of $\frac{2d \sin \theta}{r}$, is roughly equal to $\frac{d}{r}$ which is ten to the ten.

Now ten to the ten can reduce ten to the thirty seven to ten to the twenty seven ten to twenty seven is still a large number which means that this talk about equal number of electrons and protons does not explain why gravitational dominance. If it were really just

that then electromagnetics would have dominated and you would have never noticed gravitation. We would all have been floating around like charge dust and you would never have noticed that there is a huge planet which is trying to pull us to itself. But that's not what happens.

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proton $\sim 2000 mc$

$$\frac{F_E}{F_G} \sim \frac{10^{43}}{10^6} \sim 10^{37}$$

$d \sim 10^{-10}$ metres

$r \sim 1$ m

$$\frac{245.0}{r} \approx 10^{10}$$

dist

F_E

Now there is an answer to this. The answer has to do with a slightly different explanation in this and to explain this we have to really go back to all the forces. If you look at the universe there is gravitation that's the weakest force, then you have magnetism that's the next weakest that we know of, electricity and then you get to the nuclear forces and these are the strongest forces we know about. There may be stronger forces than these but we don't know.

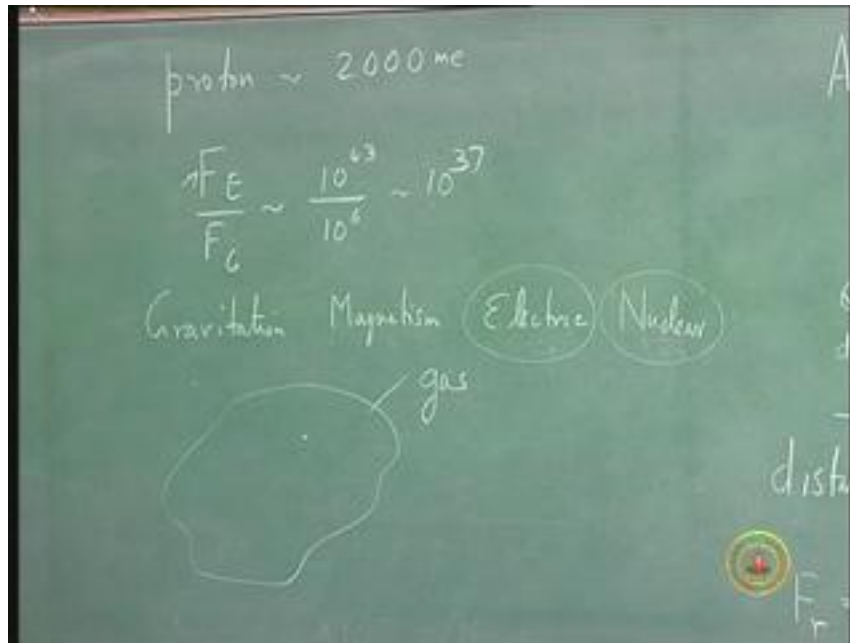
Now it turns out that when we talk about electricity and magnetism we don't take into account nuclear forces. When we talk about gravitation we don't consider electric fields. Sometimes we consider magnetic fields but not often. In fact gravitation is by itself. Electromagnetism is by itself. Nuclear forces are by themselves. That's how you will find

out in textbooks. The reason is there is such a large range of force here. Each is unimaginably stronger than the other that they cannot compete. If you see electric forces it means nuclear forces have cancelled completely, if you see magnetic forces in normal materials it means the electric forces have cancelled completely and if you see gravitation it means all these forces have been cancelled completely.

So how does this cancellation work? Supposing you take a gas containing charged particles, so there are positive particles and negative particles- electrons and protons. So they all are busy exercising Coulomb's law and Coulomb's law is ten to the thirty seven or ten to the forty three times stronger than gravitation. Now such a gas for example is found in astronomical nebulae- nebulae that are heated by nearby stars, they are all charged. See you will have enormous amount of charged particles in these gases so you would imagine that electric forces are dominating, but that's not the case.

Now what happens inside is these charged particles adjust themselves to other charged particles. By that I mean a charged particle has only as much energy as its temperature allows so its rattling around and if it has hundred degrees of temperature or thousand degrees of temperature that limits the amount of rattling it can do.

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So if a very strong electric field develops, all other particles move and in moving they cancel that electric field and they do this at every point in this gas- everywhere till finally there is no electric field at all. Now we know one case of this which is a conductor. We know that inside a conductor you cannot have an electric field, you cannot have forces. The same idea happens here as well. In fact if you look inside a gas you can show, not going to show, but you can show that the force due to Coulomb actually decays like $e^{-r/\lambda}$. It does not go as inverse square law at all; it goes exponentially small. This value of λ depends on the material; it can be very large but usually it is very tiny.

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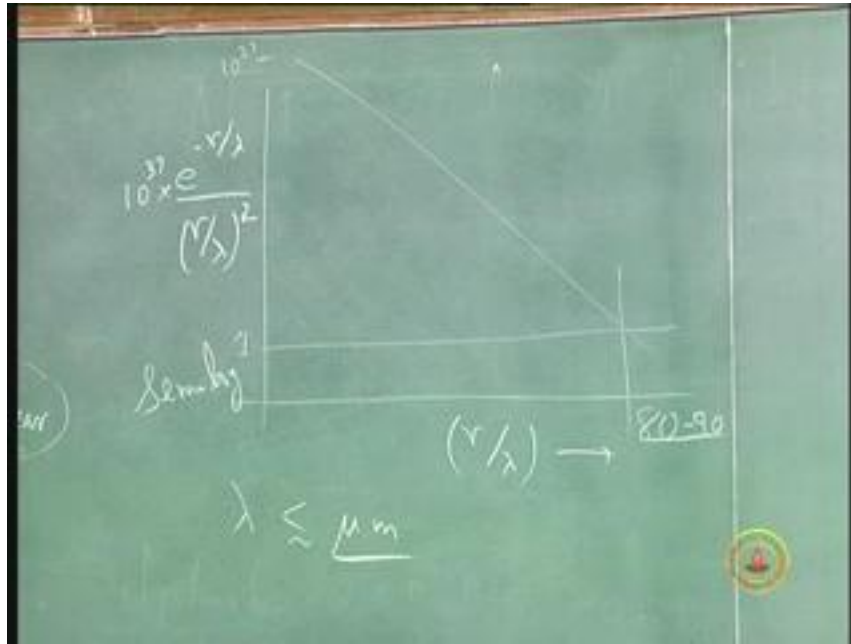


So now if you now take this model and you try and compare our body magnetic- I mean gravitational versus electric- the answer becomes very different because you are no longer comparing inverse square law to inverse square law; you are comparing exponential decay to inverse square law. When you do that you can ask when does $e^{-r/\lambda}$ divided by r/λ square becomes approximately ten to the minus thirty seven. If that happens, then the ten to the thirty seven extra number will cancel out. Well you can plot this and what you find is the following. You can plot $e^{-r/\lambda}$ divided by r/λ square versus r/λ . This is a logarithmic plot; it's a semi log. You will find more or less a straight line that intersects 1. It starts out at ten to the thirty seven over table number, so this is ten to the thirty seven. It reaches 1 at around eighty to ninety.

So around ten to the two around a hundred r/λ , the electric field has become as weak as the gravitational. So it depends really on the value of λ . For most materials λ is very small for conductors- it is angstroms. It is small for a weak conductor- it may be micrometers. So within a centimeter the gravitational field has taken over from

the electric field. Now this is really the reason why we never see the electric field in large scale. Normally it is very rare to see that the moment you have electric fields from many many particles, the particles adjust to cancel out that electric field.

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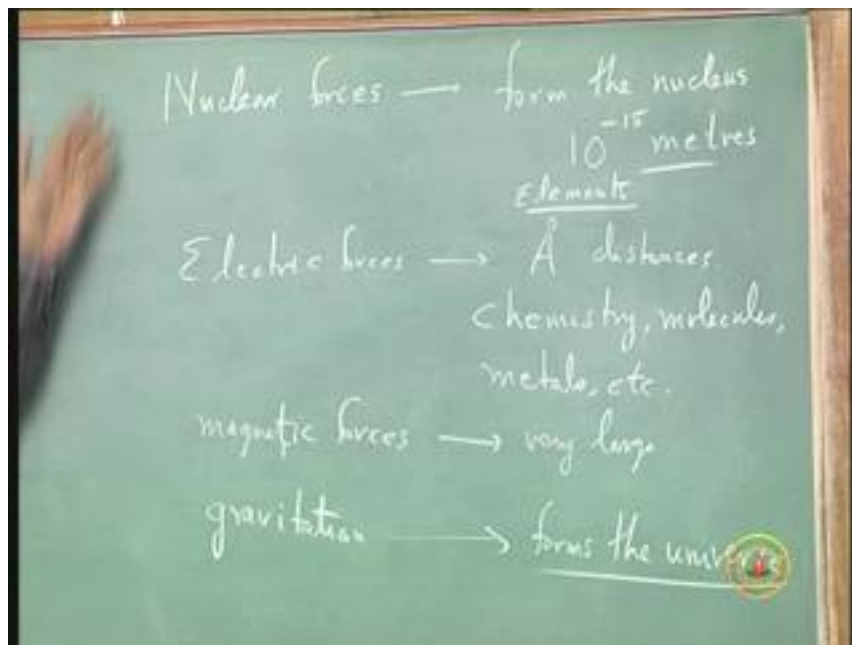


But particles cannot adjust to cancel out the gravitational field. The reason is there is no positive gravitational field and negative gravitational field- all masses attract each other. You don't have a negative kind of mass which repels. So gravitational field is phenomenally weak but it always adds. The electric field is phenomenally strong but it cancels as you go to larger and larger scales. The electric field becomes unimportant, so we can draw a diagram now explaining the various forces. We had nuclear forces, they form the nucleus. The kind of scale length on which they work is ten to the minus fifteen meters. Once you get away from ten to the minus fifteen meters the nuclear forces become attenuated, that is, they tend to adjust and cancel themselves out the electric forces. They work at the scale lengths of chemistry that is at angstrom distances, so due to nuclear forces we get elements. Due to electric forces, we get chemistry. We get

molecules. We also get metals and other kinds of properties. The magnetic forces they have much longer scale lengths, in fact they can have galactic scale lengths.

So they are very large scale lengths but they are very weak. Much, much weaker than the electric forces. For example the earth's ionosphere is dominated by the magnetic field. The entire solar system is dominated by the solar magnetic field. Entire galaxy is dominated by galactic magnetic field and finally we have gravitation. Ultimately the weakest force gravitation becomes the strongest force and it actually forms the universe. So there is a very peculiar kind of ordering.

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The strongest force cancels itself out earliest. The next strongest cancels it itself out next. the next strongest works up to a galactic scale length and gravitation finally conquers everything, and in this picture we are looking here we want to understand electric forces and we want to understand magnetic forces.

Now anticipated myself several times but still I will repeat just to make sure I have got my point across. We have the Coulomb force, it's a vector, goes like 1 over $4\pi\epsilon_0$ charge 1 times charge 2 divided by r_{12} square along the direction of r_{12} - this is the definition. This is the definition if you have two charges, but supposing I had a collection of charges and I want to know the force on a charge here. So I have Q_1 Q_2 Q_3 Q_4 and I have a charge q , what is the force on charge q ? Well Coulomb not only found this law he also found out how this law works when multiple charges are present. He found out that you ignore all but one. Find out what Coulomb's Law says about that one.

Now you ignore all but another. Find out what Coulomb's Law says about the next and then vectorially you add them up. The result is the total force. If you want to write this mathematically, what it says is the force is equal to 1 over $4\pi\epsilon_0$ this charge q times Q_1 divided by r_1 square along r_1 . So this distance is called r_1 , this is r_2 r_3 and r_4 plus 1 over $4\pi\epsilon_0$ $q Q_2$ over r_2 square r_2 plus 1 over $4\pi\epsilon_0$ $q Q_3$ over r_3 square plus 1 over $4\pi\epsilon_0$ $q Q_4$ over r_4 square r_4 .

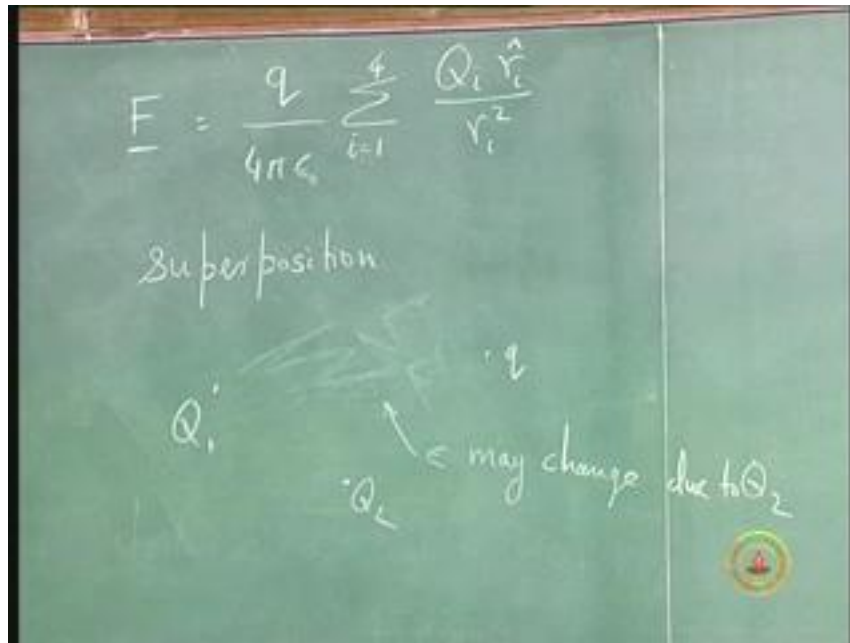
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Now you can see that q is common, so I can pull it out and when I do that, I can write the formula as follows: F is equal to q over $4\pi\epsilon_0$ times the summation from $i=1$ to n of Q_i times \hat{r}_i divided by r_i^2 . This summation is simply saying substitute $i=1$, substitute $i=2$, substitute $i=3$, and substitute $i=4$ and add up all the results.

Now this interesting formula is known as superposition. What it really is saying is the following; it is saying that whatever interaction there is between this charge q and this charge Q_i , one is not affected by the presence of the other charges. Let me give you an example where this would not be true. Supposing I had my charge Q_1 and my q and supposing the medium in between were affecting Coulomb's law and supposing the medium, its properties, change because of Q_2 , for example, the medium has an epsilon, we have **been** writing epsilon naught but the medium may have a different epsilon and this epsilon may change due to Q_2 . If epsilon changes, it means the force between Q_1 and q is the function of whether Q_2 is present or Q_2 is absent. In that case, this would not work. This would be wrong, but luckily Coulomb's Law has been verified and it is known that it is correct that if you do this experiment in vacuum that this superposition rule is accurate to some twenty digits.

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I will explain later with just how they come up with such statements, but in a certain sense Coulomb's Law is the most accurately known law in physics. There is no law that they know better. For instance we know the speed of light to about ten digits, we know the gravitational constant, it is about the similar number of digits. We are not at all really sure whether we understand the law of gravitation, but we know the power of two here correct to twenty digits.

So this is the most accurately known most precisely tested theory that we have in physics, so we have come up with superposition, and we can put point charges, and I already used this idea without telling you when I calculated the force due to a dipole because I had a charge Q I had a charge minus Q and I had a charge small q and I choose to calculate this force first and then this force next. That is only correct if superposition is true. However that's a very simple example.

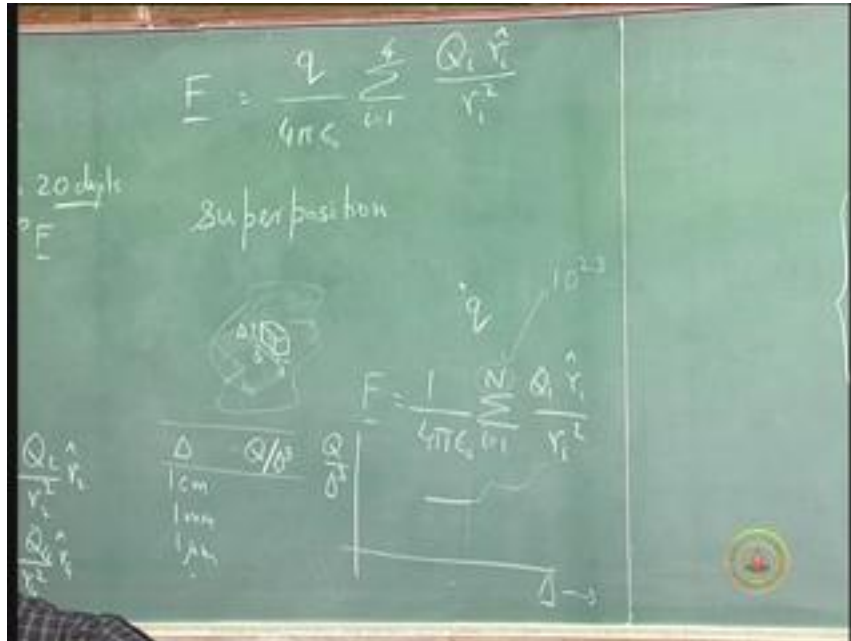
Supposing I had a cloud of charge. Lot of charge and it is distributed over a region, and I want to know what the force on a charge q somewhere else is. Well this equation is still

true. The force is equal to $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{Q_i}{r_i^2}$, but this number N may be very large. Maybe it is 10^{23} . If you are talking about all the charges in a small amount of a metal then this will be a very large number and we cannot carry out practically such a sum. Luckily just when we struggle to carry out such sums we have a new way of looking at things which make things simple.

If there is a very large N then we can make a little box inside the volume. This box would have sides which are very small and we would count the number of charges amount of charge inside the box. So we could take box of size Δ and we could plot. We could calculate the amount of charge in it so you could make a table and we could say, take Δ 1 centimeter 1 millimeter 1 micrometer and so on and work out what the charge is. Now obviously the charge will become less and less, however, if you plot charge per unit volume, that is, you calculate the charge and divide by the volume of this cube, divide by Δ^3 , well what do you expect? What we expect is like this- this is Δ , this is Q over Δ^3 .

For very large Δ , the fact that the charge is not uniform- there may be more charge out here, less charge out here, we are not- our cube is spanning all these different regions- so you will expect some variation. Then as the Δ becomes small, the distribution of charge inside that small region is more or less uniform. So we expect that the charge will stabilize.

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That is charge per unit volume will stabilize. Then when this box becomes very, very small so small that the number of charges inside this box becomes only a few, then you will start having noise. This is the kind of picture any experimentalist will tell you is present- we want a box around there, we want a box where we are not inside the noise but we are corrupted by the fact that our box is too big. If we take a box like that, we can replace a sum on individual charges via **some1 boxes**, and we all know what a **some1 boxes** is. This is nothing but $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \text{volume} \text{ integral charge density over the volume}$. I will continue this next time but the idea is basically here and we will continue next time.