

# Electromagnetic

## Second year / First semester

### Lecture 1

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## Vector Analysis

**V**ector analysis is a mathematical subject that is better taught by mathematicians than by engineers. Most junior and senior engineering students have not had the time (or the inclination) to take a course in vector analysis, although it is likely that vector concepts and operations were introduced in the calculus sequence. These are covered in this chapter, and the time devoted to them now should depend on past exposure.

### 1.1 SCALARS AND VECTORS

The term *scalar* refers to a quantity whose value may be represented by a single (positive or negative) real number. The  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  we use in basic algebra are scalars, and the quantities they represent are scalars. If we speak of a body falling a distance  $L$  in a time  $t$ , or the temperature  $T$  at any point in a bowl of soup whose coordinates are  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ , then  $L$ ,  $t$ ,  $T$ ,  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  are all scalars. Other scalar quantities are mass, density, pressure (but not force), volume, volume resistivity, and voltage.

### 1.2 VECTOR ALGEBRA

With the definition of vectors and vector fields now established, we may proceed to define the rules of vector arithmetic, vector algebra, and (later) vector calculus. Some of the rules will be similar to those of scalar algebra, some will differ slightly, and some will be entirely new.

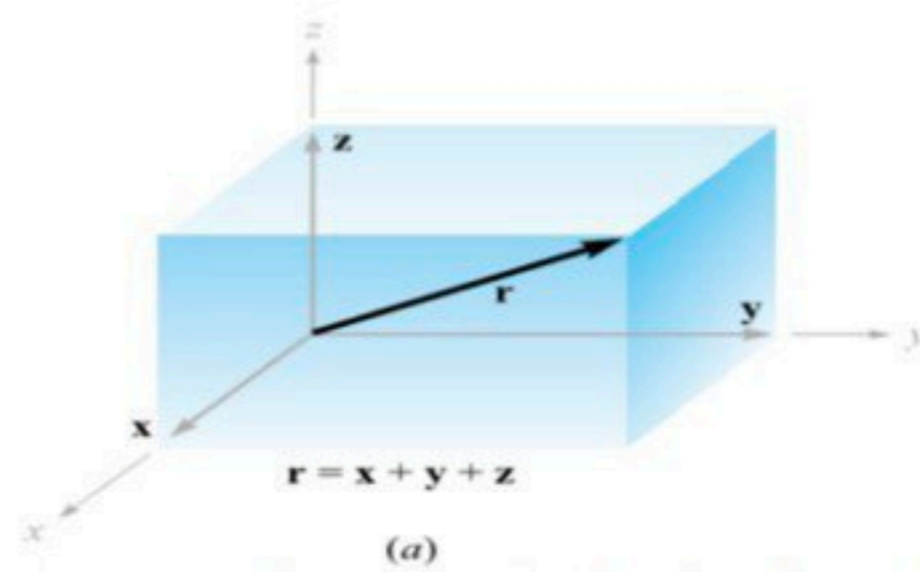
To begin, the addition of vectors follows the parallelogram law. Figure 1.1 shows the sum of two vectors,  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ . It is easily seen that  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$ , or that vector addition obeys the commutative law. Vector addition also obeys the associative law,

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

### 1.4 VECTOR COMPONENTS AND UNIT VECTORS

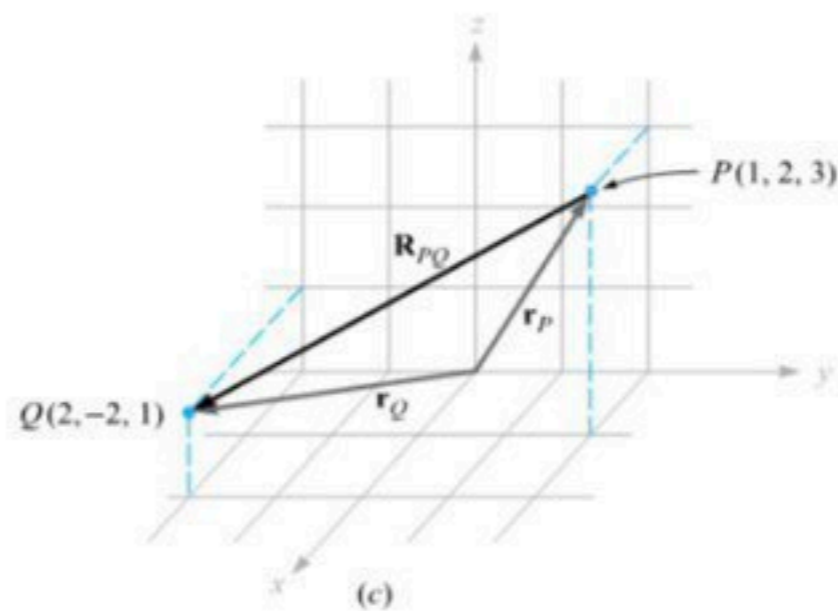
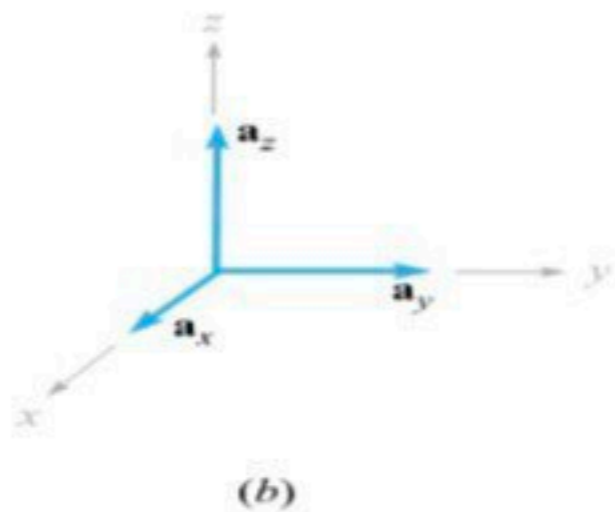
If the component vectors of the vector  $\mathbf{r}$  are  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}$ , and  $\mathbf{z}$ ,

then  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z}$ . The component vectors are shown in Figure 1.3a. Instead of one vector, we now have three, but this is a step forward because the three vectors are of a very simple nature; each is always directed along one of the coordinate axes.



The component vectors have magnitudes that depend on the given vector (such as  $\mathbf{r}$ ), but they each have a known and constant direction. This suggests the use of *unit vectors* having unit magnitude by definition; these are parallel to the coordinate axes and they point in the direction of increasing coordinate values. We reserve the symbol  $\mathbf{a}$  for a unit vector and identify its direction by an appropriate subscript. Thus  $\mathbf{a}_x$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_y$ , and  $\mathbf{a}_z$  are the unit vectors in the rectangular coordinate system.<sup>3</sup> They are directed along the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  axes, respectively, as shown in Figure 1.3b.

If the component vector  $\mathbf{y}$  happens to be two units in magnitude and directed toward increasing values of  $y$ , we should then write  $\mathbf{y} = 2\mathbf{a}_y$ . A vector  $\mathbf{r}_P$  pointing



from the origin to point  $P(1, 2, 3)$  is written  $\mathbf{r}_P = \mathbf{a}_x + 2\mathbf{a}_y + 3\mathbf{a}_z$ . The vector from  $P$  to  $Q$  may be obtained by applying the rule of vector addition. This rule shows that the vector from the origin to  $P$  plus the vector from  $P$  to  $Q$  is equal to the vector from the origin to  $Q$ . The desired vector from  $P(1, 2, 3)$  to  $Q(2, -2, 1)$  is therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{R}_{PQ} &= \mathbf{r}_Q - \mathbf{r}_P = (2 - 1)\mathbf{a}_x + (-2 - 2)\mathbf{a}_y + (1 - 3)\mathbf{a}_z \\ &= \mathbf{a}_x - 4\mathbf{a}_y - 2\mathbf{a}_z\end{aligned}$$

The vectors  $\mathbf{r}_P$ ,  $\mathbf{r}_Q$ , and  $\mathbf{R}_{PQ}$  are shown in Figure 1.3c.

Any vector  $\mathbf{B}$  then may be described by  $\mathbf{B} = B_x\mathbf{a}_x + B_y\mathbf{a}_y + B_z\mathbf{a}_z$ . The magnitude of  $\mathbf{B}$  written  $|\mathbf{B}|$  or simply  $B$ , is given by

$$|\mathbf{B}| = \sqrt{B_x^2 + B_y^2 + B_z^2} \quad (1)$$

Each of the three coordinate systems we discuss will have its three fundamental and mutually perpendicular unit vectors that are used to resolve any vector into its component vectors. Unit vectors are not limited to this application. It is helpful to write a unit vector having a specified direction. This is easily done, for a unit vector in a given direction is merely a vector in that direction divided by its magnitude. A unit vector in the  $\mathbf{r}$  direction is  $\mathbf{r}/\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ , and a unit vector in the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{B}$  is

$$\mathbf{a}_B = \frac{\mathbf{B}}{\sqrt{B_x^2 + B_y^2 + B_z^2}} = \frac{\mathbf{B}}{|\mathbf{B}|} \quad (2)$$

**D1.1.** Given points  $M(-1, 2, 1)$ ,  $N(3, -3, 0)$ , and  $P(-2, -3, -4)$ , find: (a)  $\mathbf{R}_{MN}$ ; (b)  $\mathbf{R}_{MN} + \mathbf{R}_{MP}$ ; (c)  $|\mathbf{r}_M|$ ; (d)  $\mathbf{a}_{MP}$ ; (e)  $|2\mathbf{r}_P - 3\mathbf{r}_N|$ .

**Ans.**  $4\mathbf{a}_x - 5\mathbf{a}_y - \mathbf{a}_z$ ;  $3\mathbf{a}_x - 10\mathbf{a}_y - 6\mathbf{a}_z$ ; 2.45;  $-0.14\mathbf{a}_x - 0.7\mathbf{a}_y - 0.7\mathbf{a}_z$ ; 15.56

## EXAMPLE 1.1

Specify the unit vector extending from the origin toward the point  $G(2, -2, -1)$ .

**Solution.** We first construct the vector extending from the origin to point  $G$ ,

$$\mathbf{G} = 2\mathbf{a}_x - 2\mathbf{a}_y - \mathbf{a}_z$$

We continue by finding the magnitude of  $\mathbf{G}$ ,

$$|\mathbf{G}| = \sqrt{(2)^2 + (-2)^2 + (-1)^2} = 3$$

and finally expressing the desired unit vector as the quotient,

$$\mathbf{a}_G = \frac{\mathbf{G}}{|\mathbf{G}|} = \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{a}_x - \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{a}_y - \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{a}_z = 0.667\mathbf{a}_x - 0.667\mathbf{a}_y - 0.333\mathbf{a}_z$$

A special symbol is desirable for a unit vector so that its character is immediately apparent. Symbols that have been used are  $\mathbf{u}_B$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_B$ ,  $\mathbf{1}_B$ , or even  $\mathbf{b}$ . We will consistently use the lowercase  $\mathbf{a}$  with an appropriate subscript.

## THE DOT PRODUCT

We now consider the first of two types of vector multiplication. The second type will be discussed in the following section.

Given two vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , the *dot product*, or *scalar product*, is defined as the product of the magnitude of  $\mathbf{A}$ , the magnitude of  $\mathbf{B}$ , and the cosine of the smaller angle between them,

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \cos \theta_{AB} \quad (3)$$

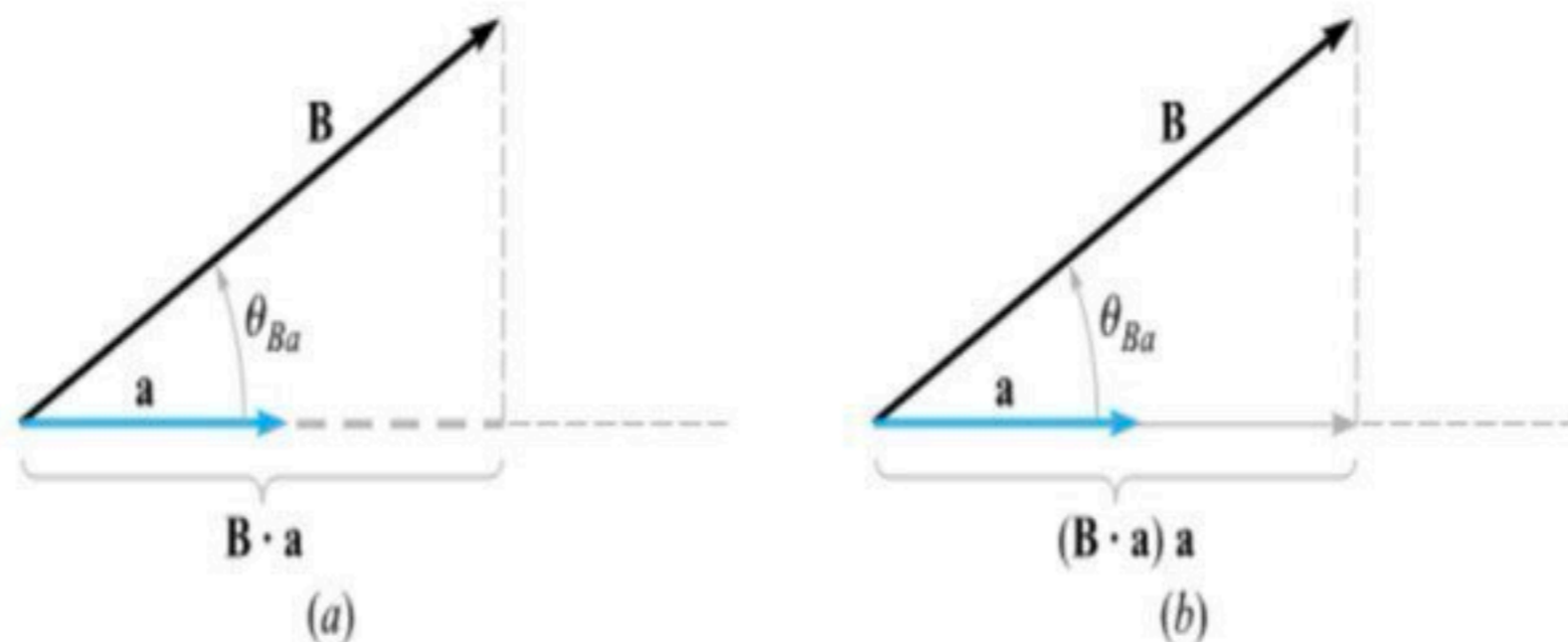
The dot appears between the two vectors and should be made heavy for emphasis. The dot, or scalar, product is a scalar, as one of the names implies, and it obeys the commutative law,

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A} \quad (4)$$

## Electromagnetic Waves

Finding the angle between two vectors in three-dimensional space is often a job we would prefer to avoid, and for that reason the definition of the dot product is usually not used in its basic form. A more helpful result is obtained by considering two vectors whose rectangular components are given, such as  $\mathbf{A} = A_x \mathbf{a}_x + A_y \mathbf{a}_y + A_z \mathbf{a}_z$  and  $\mathbf{B} = B_x \mathbf{a}_x + B_y \mathbf{a}_y + B_z \mathbf{a}_z$ . The dot product also obeys the distributive law, and, therefore,  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$  yields the sum of nine scalar terms, each involving the dot product of two unit vectors. Because the angle between two different unit vectors of the rectangular coordinate system is  $90^\circ$ , we then have

$$\mathbf{a}_x \cdot \mathbf{a}_y = \mathbf{a}_y \cdot \mathbf{a}_x = \mathbf{a}_x \cdot \mathbf{a}_z = \mathbf{a}_z \cdot \mathbf{a}_x = \mathbf{a}_y \cdot \mathbf{a}_z = \mathbf{a}_z \cdot \mathbf{a}_y = 0$$



**Figure 1.4** (a) The scalar component of  $\mathbf{B}$  in the direction of the unit vector  $\mathbf{a}$  is  $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{a}$ . (b) The vector component of  $\mathbf{B}$  in the direction of the unit vector  $\mathbf{a}$  is  $(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{a}) \mathbf{a}$ .

The remaining three terms involve the dot product of a unit vector with itself, which is unity, giving finally

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = A_x B_x + A_y B_y + A_z B_z \quad (5)$$

which is an expression involving no angles.

A vector dotted with itself yields the magnitude squared, or

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = A^2 = |\mathbf{A}|^2 \quad (6)$$

and any unit vector dotted with itself is unity,

$$\mathbf{a}_A \cdot \mathbf{a}_A = 1$$

One of the most important applications of the dot product is that of finding the component of a vector in a given direction. Referring to Figure 1.4a, we can obtain the component (scalar) of  $\mathbf{B}$  in the direction specified by the unit vector  $\mathbf{a}$  as

$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{B}| |\mathbf{a}| \cos \theta_{Ba} = |\mathbf{B}| \cos \theta_{Ba}$$

The sign of the component is positive if  $0 \leq \theta_{Ba} \leq 90^\circ$  and negative whenever  $90^\circ \leq \theta_{Ba} \leq 180^\circ$ .

To obtain the component *vector* of  $\mathbf{B}$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}$ , we multiply the component (scalar) by  $\mathbf{a}$ , as illustrated by Figure 1.4b. For example, the component of  $\mathbf{B}$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}_x$  is  $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{a}_x = B_x$ , and the component vector is  $B_x \mathbf{a}_x$ , or  $(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{a}_x) \mathbf{a}_x$ . Hence, the problem of finding the component of a vector in any direction becomes the problem of finding a unit vector in that direction, and that we can do.

The geometrical term *projection* is also used with the dot product. Thus,  $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{a}$  is the projection of  $\mathbf{B}$  in the  $\mathbf{a}$  direction.

**EXAMPLE 1.2**

In order to illustrate these definitions and operations, consider the vector field  $\mathbf{G} = y\mathbf{a}_x - 2.5x\mathbf{a}_y + 3\mathbf{a}_z$  and the point  $Q(4, 5, 2)$ . We wish to find:  $\mathbf{G}$  at  $Q$ ; the scalar component of  $\mathbf{G}$  at  $Q$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}_N = \frac{1}{3}(2\mathbf{a}_x + \mathbf{a}_y - 2\mathbf{a}_z)$ ; the vector component of  $\mathbf{G}$  at  $Q$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}_N$ ; and finally, the angle  $\theta_{Ga}$  between  $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}_Q)$  and  $\mathbf{a}_N$ .

**Solution.** Substituting the coordinates of point  $Q$  into the expression for  $\mathbf{G}$ , we have

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}_Q) = 5\mathbf{a}_x - 10\mathbf{a}_y + 3\mathbf{a}_z$$

Next we find the scalar component. Using the dot product, we have

$$\mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{a}_N = (5\mathbf{a}_x - 10\mathbf{a}_y + 3\mathbf{a}_z) \cdot \frac{1}{3}(2\mathbf{a}_x + \mathbf{a}_y - 2\mathbf{a}_z) = \frac{1}{3}(10 - 10 - 6) = -2$$

The vector component is obtained by multiplying the scalar component by the unit vector in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}_N$ ,

$$(\mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{a}_N)\mathbf{a}_N = -(2)\frac{1}{3}(2\mathbf{a}_x + \mathbf{a}_y - 2\mathbf{a}_z) = -1.333\mathbf{a}_x - 0.667\mathbf{a}_y + 1.333\mathbf{a}_z$$

The angle between  $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}_Q)$  and  $\mathbf{a}_N$  is found from

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{a}_N &= |\mathbf{G}| \cos \theta_{Ga} \\ -2 &= \sqrt{25 + 100 + 9} \cos \theta_{Ga}\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\theta_{Ga} = \cos^{-1} \frac{-2}{\sqrt{134}} = 99.9^\circ$$

**D1.3.** The three vertices of a triangle are located at  $A(6, -1, 2)$ ,  $B(-2, 3, -4)$ , and  $C(-3, 1, 5)$ . Find: (a)  $\mathbf{R}_{AB}$ ; (b)  $\mathbf{R}_{AC}$ ; (c) the angle  $\theta_{BAC}$  at vertex  $A$ ; (d) the (vector) projection of  $\mathbf{R}_{AB}$  on  $\mathbf{R}_{AC}$ .

**Ans.**  $-8\mathbf{a}_x + 4\mathbf{a}_y - 6\mathbf{a}_z$ ;  $-9\mathbf{a}_x + 2\mathbf{a}_y + 3\mathbf{a}_z$ ;  $53.6^\circ$ ;  $-5.94\mathbf{a}_x + 1.319\mathbf{a}_y + 1.979\mathbf{a}_z$



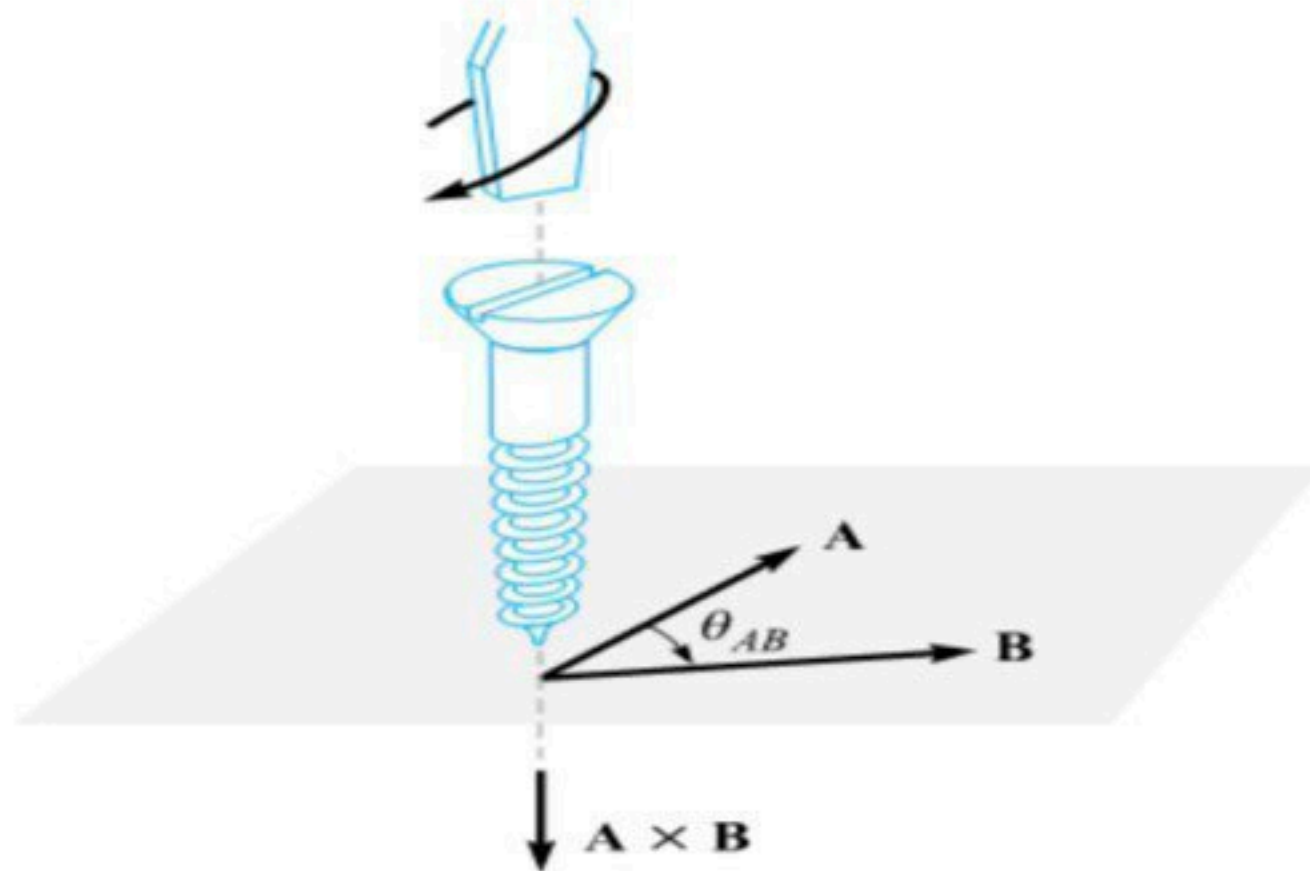
## THE CROSS PRODUCT

Given two vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , we now define the *cross product*, or *vector product*, of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , written with a cross between the two vectors as  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  and read “ $\mathbf{A}$  cross  $\mathbf{B}$ .” The cross product  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  is a vector; the magnitude of  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  is equal to the product of the magnitudes of  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$ , and the sine of the smaller angle between  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ ; the direction of  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  is perpendicular to the plane containing  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  and is along one of the two possible perpendiculars which is in the direction of advance of a right-handed screw as  $\mathbf{A}$  is turned into  $\mathbf{B}$ . This direction is illustrated in Figure 1.5. Remember that either vector may be moved about at will, maintaining its direction constant, until the two vectors have a “common origin.” This determines the plane containing both. However, in most of our applications we will be concerned with vectors defined at the same point.

As an equation we can write

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{a}_N |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \sin \theta_{AB}$$

(7)



**Figure 1.5** The direction of  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  is in the direction of advance of a right-handed screw as  $\mathbf{A}$  is turned into  $\mathbf{B}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} &= A_x B_x \mathbf{a}_x \times \mathbf{a}_x + A_x B_y \mathbf{a}_x \times \mathbf{a}_y + A_x B_z \mathbf{a}_x \times \mathbf{a}_z \\ &\quad + A_y B_x \mathbf{a}_y \times \mathbf{a}_x + A_y B_y \mathbf{a}_y \times \mathbf{a}_y + A_y B_z \mathbf{a}_y \times \mathbf{a}_z \\ &\quad + A_z B_x \mathbf{a}_z \times \mathbf{a}_x + A_z B_y \mathbf{a}_z \times \mathbf{a}_y + A_z B_z \mathbf{a}_z \times \mathbf{a}_z \end{aligned}$$

We have already found that  $\mathbf{a}_x \times \mathbf{a}_y = \mathbf{a}_z$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_y \times \mathbf{a}_z = \mathbf{a}_x$ , and  $\mathbf{a}_z \times \mathbf{a}_x = \mathbf{a}_y$ . The three remaining terms are zero, for the cross product of any vector with itself is zero, since the included angle is zero. These results may be combined to give

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = (A_y B_z - A_z B_y) \mathbf{a}_x + (A_z B_x - A_x B_z) \mathbf{a}_y + (A_x B_y - A_y B_x) \mathbf{a}_z \quad (8)$$

or written as a determinant in a more easily remembered form,

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_x & \mathbf{a}_y & \mathbf{a}_z \\ A_x & A_y & A_z \\ B_x & B_y & B_z \end{vmatrix} \quad (9)$$

Thus, if  $\mathbf{A} = 2\mathbf{a}_x - 3\mathbf{a}_y + \mathbf{a}_z$  and  $\mathbf{B} = -4\mathbf{a}_x - 2\mathbf{a}_y + 5\mathbf{a}_z$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_x & \mathbf{a}_y & \mathbf{a}_z \\ 2 & -3 & 1 \\ -4 & -2 & 5 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= [(-3)(5) - (1)(-2)]\mathbf{a}_x - [(2)(5) - (1)(-4)]\mathbf{a}_y + [(2)(-2) - (-3)(-4)]\mathbf{a}_z \\ &= -13\mathbf{a}_x - 14\mathbf{a}_y - 16\mathbf{a}_z \end{aligned}$$

**D1.4.** The three vertices of a triangle are located at  $A(6, -1, 2)$ ,  $B(-2, 3, -4)$ , and  $C(-3, 1, 5)$ . Find: (a)  $\mathbf{R}_{AB} \times \mathbf{R}_{AC}$ ; (b) the area of the triangle; (c) a unit vector perpendicular to the plane in which the triangle is located.

**Ans.**  $24\mathbf{a}_x + 78\mathbf{a}_y + 20\mathbf{a}_z$ ; 42.0;  $0.286\mathbf{a}_x + 0.928\mathbf{a}_y + 0.238\mathbf{a}_z$