Electromagnetc Theory: PHYS330

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Summary

Week 2 Summary

- 1. Homework discussions
 - Proofs! Glorious proofs.
 - Exercises with checking fundamental theorems
- 2. Electrostatics and Coulomb forces
 - Charge distributions, superposition, and the Coulomb force
 - A note about the far-field
 - Setting up integrals, taking limits, checking units
 - The divergence of electric fields
 - The curl of electric fields
- 3. Electric Potential
 - Definitions, fundamental theorem for gradients
 - Reference points
 - Laplace equation ...
- 4. Work, energy, and conductors

Homework

Homework, Week 2

Unlike last week, these exercises come from *within* the chapter. Ideally, you should look at all of the problems within the chapter as you study.

- Exercise 2.5
- Exercise 2.6
- Exercise 2.9
- Exercise 2.12
- Exercsie 2.16
- Exercise 2.18
- Exercise 2.25
- Exercise 2.29

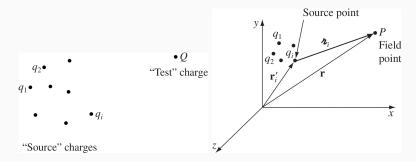


Figure 1: The basic problem of electrostatics. Note the definition of the separation vector, and the vectors to the field point and to all the source charges.

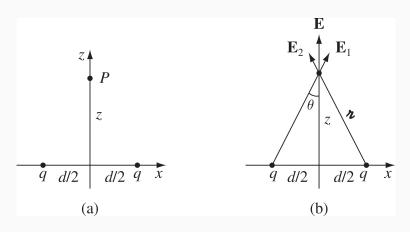


Figure 2: Begin with a dipole, and then a *physical* dipole.

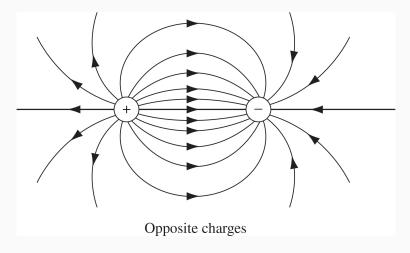


Figure 3: Field of a physical dipole.

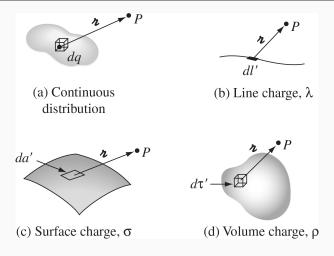


Figure 4: The continuous limit implies a variety of symmetries and geometries over which we integrate, rather than sum.

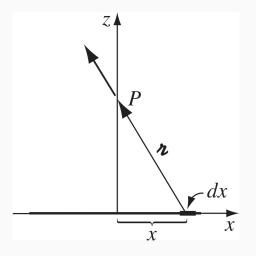


Figure 5: A coninuous line density of charge. Integration yields the electric field.

Useful calculations:

- 1. Continuous line charge, length L.
- 2. Continuous plane of charge, radius R.
- 3. Loop of charge, radius R, a distance z above the center.

Why are these interesting? One example is that these shapes are used as *antennas*. Give some alternating current at the right voltage and impedance to a shape of metal, then you've got your antenna that radiates a certain way.

Professor do these examples.¹

¹Remember from PHYS180? Remember? Yeah...good times.

A Note about the Far-Field

The Far-Field

One way to express the **far-field** approximation (compare to Fraunhofer and Fresnel limits in diffraction):

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r'} + \vec{z} \tag{1}$$

$$\vec{z} = \vec{r} - \vec{r'} \tag{2}$$

$$r = \sqrt{r^2 - 2\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r'} + r'^2}$$
 (3)

$$2 = r\sqrt{1 - 2\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r'}r^{-2} + r'^{2}r^{-2}}$$
 (4)

$$2 \approx r\sqrt{1 - 2\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r'}r^{-2}} \tag{5}$$

$$\lambda \approx r \left(1 - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r'} r^{-2} \right) \tag{6}$$

$$\tau \approx r - \hat{r} \cdot \vec{r'}$$
(8)

The Far-Field

Repeat the charged loop calculation, but replace $z \approx r - \hat{r} \cdot \vec{r}$ at the outset. What happens?

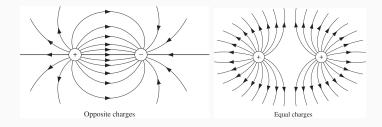


Figure 6: Field lines are an important theoretical concept.

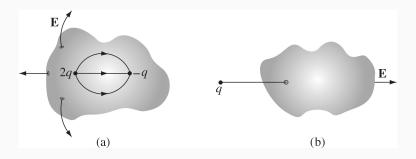


Figure 7: The concept of a closed Gaussian surface.

$$\oint \vec{E}_i \cdot d\vec{a} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{q_i \hat{r}}{r^2} \cdot r^2 \sin\theta \, d\theta \, d\phi \, \hat{r} = \frac{q_i}{\epsilon_0}$$
 (9)

$$\vec{E} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \vec{E}_i \tag{10}$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\oint \vec{E}_{i} \cdot d\vec{a} \right) \tag{11}$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{q_i}{\epsilon_0} \right) \tag{12}$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \frac{Q_{tot}}{\epsilon_0}$$
(13)

Gauss' Law: the total flux is proportional to the contained charge.

The divergence theorem:

$$\oint_{\mathcal{S}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} (\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) d\tau \tag{14}$$

Remark that the total charge is the integral over the 3D charge density:

$$\frac{Q_{tot}}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \rho d\tau \tag{15}$$

This implies

$$\oint_{\mathcal{S}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} (\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) d\tau = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \rho d\tau \tag{16}$$

Looking at the last two expressions:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{17}$$

Differential form of Gauss' Law:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{18}$$

Consider a different argument:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\hat{\mathbf{z}}}{2} \rho(\vec{r}) d\tau'$$
 (19)

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{\hat{\lambda}}}{r^2}\right) \rho(\vec{r}') d\tau'$$
 (20)

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int 4\pi \delta^3(\mathbf{r}) \rho(\vec{r}) d\tau'$$
 (21)

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{4\pi}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \delta^3(\vec{r} - \vec{r}') \rho(\vec{r}') d\tau'$$
 (22)

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho(\vec{r})/\epsilon_0 \tag{23}$$

(Refresh with delta-functions): Use this charge distribution and Eq. 19 to find the \vec{E} -field.

$$\rho(\vec{r}') = q\delta^3(\vec{r}' - x\hat{x}) - q\delta^3(\vec{r}' + x\hat{x})$$
(24)

Symmetry in the Application of Gauss' Law:

If the E-field and the area element are always orthogonal,

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \frac{Q_{tot}}{\epsilon_0}$$
(25)

$$|\vec{E}|A = \frac{Q_{tot}}{\epsilon_0} \tag{26}$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{Q_{tot}}{\epsilon_0 A} \hat{n} \tag{27}$$

This trick can be used even when the charge distribution is not uniform, but *does exhibit* symmetry.

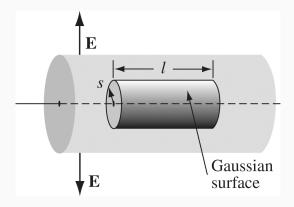


Figure 8: Use cylindrical symmetry to apply Gauss' Law. The charge distribution function is $\rho(s)=ks$. Obtain the field (a) *inside* the object, then (b) outside the object.

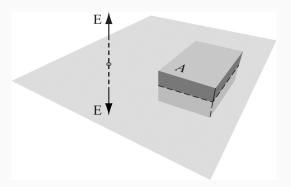


Figure 9: Use Cartesian symmetry to apply Gauss' Law. The charge distribution function is $\rho(x,y)=+\sigma$. Obtain the field above (or below) the charged plane.

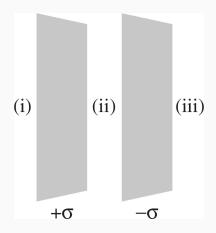


Figure 10: Combinations of "Gaussian charged objects." What about the field between two line charges?

The \vec{E} -field of a point charge at the origin ($\vec{r}'=0$), and the line element in spherical coordinates:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{r} \tag{28}$$

$$d\vec{l} = dr\hat{r} + rd\theta\hat{\theta} + r\sin\theta d\phi\hat{\phi}$$
 (29)

$$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} dr \tag{30}$$

$$\int_{\vec{a}}^{b} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{1}{r_a} - \frac{1}{r_b} \right) \tag{31}$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0 \quad (\vec{a} = \vec{b})$$
(32)

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0 \tag{33}$$

Any combination of point charges will also lead to zero curl. Why? Superposition.

Define a function, then, that encapsulates path-independence:

$$V(\vec{r}) = -\int_{\mathcal{O}}^{\vec{r}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \tag{34}$$

- $\mathcal O$ is a reference point, naturally taken to be ∞ (far from origin)
- $V(\vec{b}) V(\vec{a}) = -\int_{\vec{a}}^{\vec{b}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$
- $0 = V(\vec{a}) V(\vec{a}) = -\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$

Fundamental theorem for gradients:

$$V(\vec{b}) - V(\vec{a}) = \int_{\vec{a}}^{\vec{b}} \nabla V \cdot d\vec{l} = -\int_{\vec{a}}^{\vec{b}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$
 (35)

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V \tag{36}$$

Path independence:

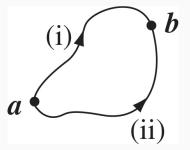


Figure 11: If the line integral was not path-independent, then path i minus path ii would not be zero. Path i and ii form a closed line integral.

Two more ideas:

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V \tag{37}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = -\nabla^2 V \tag{38}$$

$$\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{39}$$

Equation 39 is known as the *Poisson Equation*. If $\rho = 0$ in some region:

$$\nabla^2 V = 0$$
(40)

Equation 40 is known as the Laplacian of the potential or Laplace's Equation. Solving it is the subject of Ch. 3.

Show that the potential of a point charge q at the origin is

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r} \tag{41}$$

Indeed, collections of point charges lead to

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i} \frac{q_i}{r_i} \tag{42}$$

A collection of *many* point charges smoothed into a continuous distribution leads to

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho' d\tau'}{r}$$
 (43)

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho' d\tau'}{r} \tag{44}$$

(a) Derive the potential due to a line charge of length L, directly above the center of the line. (b) Take the gradient in cylindrical coordinates to obtain \vec{E} .

Conclusion

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