# **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

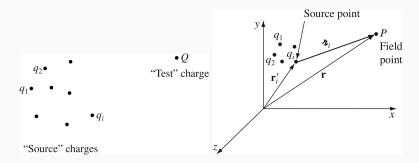
#### Homework, Week 2

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.

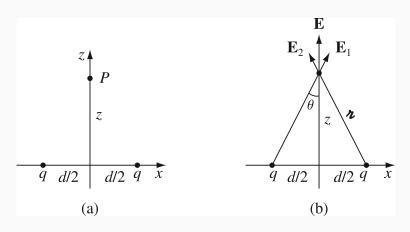
- Exercise 2.5
- Exercise 2.6
- Exercise 2.9
- Exercise 2.12
- Exercsie 2.16
- Exercise 2.18
- Exercise 2.25
- Exercise 2.29

Charge distributions, Superposition,

and the Coulomb Force



**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.

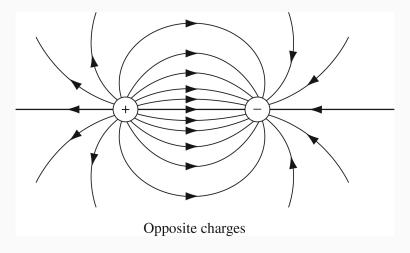
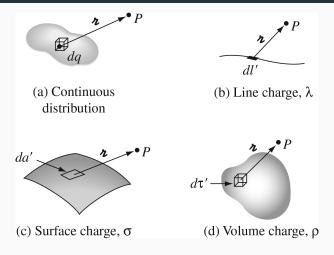
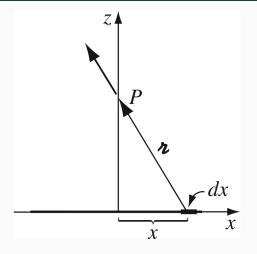


Figure 3: Field of a *physical* dipole.



**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.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Remember 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):

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

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

$$\lambda = \sqrt{r^2 - 2\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r'} + r'^2} \tag{3}$$

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

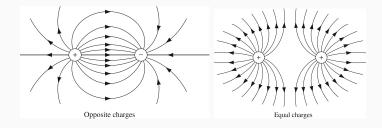
$$2 \approx r\sqrt{1 - 2\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r'}r^{-2}} \tag{5}$$

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

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

#### The Far-Field

Repeat the charged loop calculation, but replace  $2 \approx r - \hat{r} \cdot \vec{r'}$  at the outset. What happens?



**Figure 6:** Field lines are an important theoretical concept.

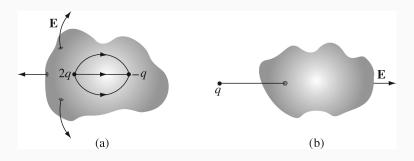


Figure 7: The concept of a closed Gaussian surface.

$$\left| \oint \vec{E_i} \cdot d\vec{a} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{q_i \hat{r}}{r^2} \cdot r^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi \hat{r} = \frac{q_i}{\epsilon_0} \right|$$
 (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:

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

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

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

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

#### Symmetry in the Application of Gauss' Law:

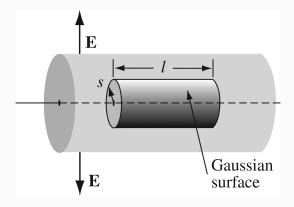
If the E-field and the area element are always orthogonal,

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \frac{Q_{tot}}{\epsilon_0}$$
(24)

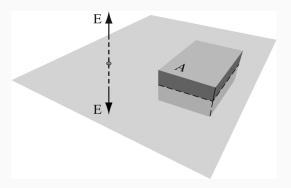
$$|\vec{E}|A = \frac{Q_{tot}}{\epsilon_0} \tag{25}$$

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

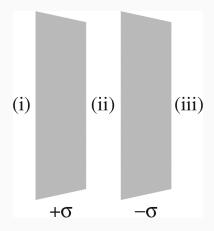
This trick can be used even when the charge distribution is not uniform, but *does exhibit* symmetry.



**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:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{r} \tag{27}$$

$$d\vec{l} = dr\hat{r} + rd\theta\hat{\theta} + r\sin\theta d\phi\hat{\phi}$$
 (28)

$$\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} dr \tag{29}$$

$$\int_{\vec{a}}^{b} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r_a} - \frac{1}{r_b} \right) \tag{30}$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0 \quad (\vec{a} = \vec{b})$$
(31)

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0 \tag{32}$$

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

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

$$V(\vec{r}) = -\int_{\mathcal{O}}^{\vec{r}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \tag{33}$$

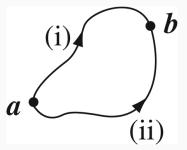
- ullet  ${\mathcal O}$  is a reference point, naturally taken to be  $\infty$  (far from origin)
- $V(\vec{b}) V(\vec{a}) = -\int_{\vec{a}}^{\vec{b}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$
- $0 = V(\vec{a}) V(\vec{a}) = -\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$

Fundamental theorem for gradients:

$$V(\vec{b}) - V(\vec{a}) = \int_{\vec{a}}^{\vec{b}} \nabla V \cdot d\vec{l} = -\int_{\vec{a}}^{\vec{b}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$
 (34)

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V \tag{35}$$

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:

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

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = -\nabla^2 V \tag{37}$$

$$\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{38}$$

Equation 38 is known as the *Poisson Equation*. If  $\rho = 0$  in some region:

$$\nabla^2 V = 0 \tag{39}$$

Equation 39 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

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r} \tag{40}$$

Indeed, collections of point charges lead to

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i} \frac{q_i}{r_i} \tag{41}$$

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

$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{dq}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho' d\tau'}{r}$$
 (42)

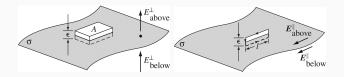
$$V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho' d\tau'}{r} \tag{43}$$

(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  $\vec{E}$ .

**Brief Remark about Boundary** 

**Conditions** 

# **Boundary Conditions**



**Figure 12:** (Left) By Gauss' Law, we may find the discontinuity in the orthogonal E-field component. (Right) Via a closed-loop line integral, we may find that the parallel component of the E-field is continuous.

$$(\nabla V_{top} - \nabla V_{bottom}) \cdot \hat{n} = -\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$
 (44)

$$(\nabla V_{top} - \nabla V_{bottom}) \cdot \hat{s} = 0 \tag{45}$$

# **Boundary Conditions**

Which of the following functions has a discontinuity *in the derivative* but not the function itself, at x = 0?

- A: tan(x)
- B: |x| = abs(x)
- C:  $\sqrt{x}$
- D:  $\theta(x)$  (Heaviside step-function)

#### **Boundary Conditions**

Consult your notes regarding the charge distribution with spherical symmetry.

- What was the formula for the electric field as a function of r, when r < R?
- What is the correct formula for the electric field as a function of r, when  $r \geq R$ ? (Think of Gauss' Law).
- What is the voltage just outside the radius *R*?
- What is the voltage just inside the radius *R*?

The work required to assemble point charges by bring each in from infinity is

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{i} \left( \sum_{j \neq i}^{n} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{q_{j}}{2 i_{j}} \right)$$
 (46)

The parentheses contains the potential due to all charges except  $q_i$ :

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} q_i V(\vec{z}_i)$$
 (47)

Note that it doesn't matter when charge  $q_i$  arrived; we have to pay for the energy used to keep  $q_i$  there as everyone else arrives as well.

Continuous limit:

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho(r') V(r') d\tau'$$
 (48)

This result can be re-written:

$$W = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \left\{ -\int \vec{E} \cdot (\nabla V) d\tau + \oint V \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} \right\}$$
 (49)

Like any integration by parts, there is an integral term and a surface term (the second term). Use  $-\vec{E} = \nabla V$ , and expand the Gaussian surface so far that all contributions from the second term vanish:

$$W = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int E^2 d\tau \tag{50}$$

Since we do not specify the shape of the volume, we can speak about the *energy per unit volume*:

$$u_E = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} E^2 \tag{51}$$

- E-fields contain energy
- This equation is valid even if E-field values vary in space (of course)
- Consider the simple example of a capacitor ...

Start with the E-field inside a parallel-plate capacitor:

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \tag{52}$$

$$u_E = \frac{1}{2\epsilon_0} \sigma^2 \tag{53}$$

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{Ad}{2\epsilon_0} \sigma^2 \tag{54}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{Q}{A} \tag{55}$$

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d} \tag{56}$$

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} = \frac{1}{2} C V^2 = U \tag{57}$$

Energy conservation.

# Conclusion

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  - The curl of electric fields
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  - Definitions, fundamental theorem for gradients
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  - Laplace equation ...
- 4. Work, energy, and conductors