# PHYS2114 Cheat Sheet

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## 1 Mathematics Preliminary

#### 1.1 IMPORTANT NOTE

The following notations are taken from Griffths' 'Introduction to Electromechanics'.  $\![1]$ 

Where as the line, area and volume integral elements are the following:

- Line integral element: dl.
- Area integral element: da.
- Volume integral element:  $d\tau$ .

#### 1.2 Cartesian Coordinates

The line and volume integral elements are

$$d\mathbf{l} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} \, dx + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \, dy + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \, dz,$$

$$d\tau = dx dy dz$$
.

And the following are some common operators

$$\nabla t = \frac{\partial t}{\partial x}\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial t}{\partial y}\hat{\mathbf{y}} + \frac{\partial t}{\partial z}\hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z},$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{v} = \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial z}\right) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x}\right) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \left(\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y}\right) \hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

$$\nabla^2 t = \frac{\partial^2 t}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 t}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 t}{\partial z^2}.$$

## 1.3 Cylindrical Coordinates

The conversion of Cartesian to Cylindrical coordinates[2] are

$$x = r \cos \phi$$
,

$$y = r \sin \phi$$
,

$$z = z$$
,

note that  $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$ .

And the surface integral element with radius r constant is

$$d\mathbf{S} = r d\phi dz$$

The line and the volume integral elements are

$$d\mathbf{l} = \hat{\mathbf{s}} ds + s\hat{\phi} d\phi + \hat{\mathbf{z}} dz.$$

$$d\tau = s ds d\phi dz.$$

The following are some common vector operators

Gradient: 
$$\nabla t = \frac{\partial t}{\partial s} \hat{\mathbf{s}} + \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial t}{\partial \phi} \hat{\phi} + \frac{\partial t}{\partial z} \hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

Divergence: 
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} + \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial v_{\phi}}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial v_{z}}{\partial z},$$

Curl: 
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{v} = \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial z}\right) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x}\right) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \left(\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y}\right) \hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

Laplacian: 
$$\nabla^2 t = \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left( s \frac{\partial t}{\partial s} \right) + \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{\partial^2 t}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 t}{\partial z^2}.$$

#### 1.4 Spherical Coordinates

Note that  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  denotes the angle between z-axis and the vector of interest, and that  $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$  denotes the angle between x-axis and the projection of the vector of interest on to the xy-plane.[2]

The conversion of Cartesian to Spherical coordinates are shown as the follows  $\,$ 

$$x = r\sin(\theta)\cos(\phi),$$
  $y = r\sin(\theta)\sin(\phi),$   $z = r\cos(\theta).$ 

And the line and volume integral elements are

$$d\mathbf{l} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} dr + r\hat{\theta} d\theta + r\sin(\theta)\hat{\phi} d\phi, \qquad d\tau = r^2\sin(\theta) dr d\theta d\phi.$$

with the surface integral with the radius r constant is

$$d\mathbf{S} = \sin\theta \,d\theta \,d\phi.$$

The following are the common operators

Gradient: 
$$\nabla t = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{\partial t}{\partial r} + \frac{\hat{\theta}}{r} \frac{\partial t}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\hat{\phi}}{r \sin(\theta)} \frac{\partial t}{\partial \phi},$$

Divergence: 
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 v_r \right) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( v_\theta \sin \theta \right) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial v_\phi}{\partial \phi}$$

Curl: 
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sin(\theta) v_{\phi} - \frac{\partial v_{\theta}}{\partial \phi} \right) \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$
$$+ \frac{1}{r} \left( \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial v_{r}}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r v_{\phi} \right) \hat{\theta} + \frac{1}{r} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r v_{\theta} - \frac{\partial v_{r}}{\partial \theta} \right) \hat{\phi},$$

$$\text{Laplacian:} \qquad \nabla^2 t = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial t}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial t}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 t}{\partial \phi^2}$$

#### 1.5 Gauss' Divergence Theorem

Suppose V is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (in the case of n=3, V represents a volume in three-dimensional space) which is compact and has a piecewise smooth boundary S (also indicated with  $\partial V=S$ ). If **F** is a continuously differentiable vector filed defined on a neighbourhood of V, then:

$$\iiint_V (\mathbf{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{F}) \ \mathrm{d}V = \oiint_S (\mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}) \ \mathrm{d}S.$$

The left side is a volume integral over the volume V, the right side is the surface integral over the boundary of the volume V. The closed manifold  $\partial V$  is oriented by outward-pointing normal, and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the outward pointing normal at each point on the boundary  $\partial V$ . (d**S** may be used as a shorthand for  $\mathbf{n} dS$ .) In terms of the intuitive description above, the left-hand side of the equation represents the total of the sources in the volume V, and the right-hand side represents the total flow across the boundary S.[3]

#### 1.6 Stokes' Theorem

Suppose we have a boundary  $\partial \Sigma = S$  that bounds the surface  $\Sigma$  with  ${\bf F}$  defined in  $\Sigma,$  then

$$\iint_{\Sigma} (\mathbf{\nabla} \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, \mathrm{d}S = \oint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{l}.$$

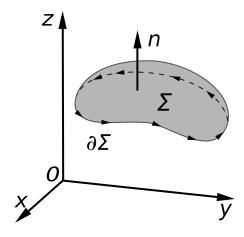


Figure 1: A visual representation for the Stokes' theorem[4]

## 2 Electrostatics

## 2.1 The Holy Trinity

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \iiint_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\rho}{\imath} \, \mathrm{d}\tau \tag{2.1.1}$$

$$\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0} \tag{2.1.2}$$

$$E = -\nabla V \tag{2.1.3}$$

$$V = -\int \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \tag{2.1.4}$$

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \iiint_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\imath}}}{\hat{\boldsymbol{\imath}}^2} \rho \, d\tau \tag{2.1.5}$$

$$\nabla \cdot E = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0}; \quad \nabla \times E = 0$$
 (2.1.6)

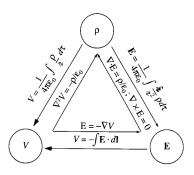


Figure 2: The Griffith's holy trinity of electrostatics[1]

### 2.2 Electrostatic Boundary Conditions

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot [\mathbf{E}_1 - \mathbf{E}_2] = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon_0} \tag{2.2.1}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}}_2 \times [\mathbf{E}_1 - \mathbf{E}_2] = 0 \tag{2.2.2}$$

$$V_1 - V_2 = 0 (2.2.3)$$

Note that here the "1" and "2" just refer to the different sides of the interface.

#### 2.3 Work and Energy in Electrostatics

Three important equations for Energy in work and energy in electro statics: For discrete charges that are not very closed together,

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} q_i V(\mathbf{r}_i). \tag{2.3.1}$$

For volume charge density  $\rho$ ,

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \iiint_{\mathcal{V}} \rho V \, d\tau. \tag{2.3.2}$$

And even more simply, we can have,

$$W = \frac{\varepsilon_0}{2} \iiint_{\mathbb{R}^3} E^2 \, \mathrm{d}\tau. \tag{2.3.3}$$

#### 2.4 Conductors

There are **five** fundamental properties of a conductors,

- 1. E = 0 inside a conductor.
- 2.  $\rho = 0$  inside a conductor.
- 3. Any net charge resides on the surface.
- 4. A conductor is an equipotential.
- 5. E is perpendicular to the surface, just outside a conductor.

Now, let's consider the force per unit area  $\mathbf{f}$  on any charges that rests on the surface of the conductor, with references to page 102 in the book, we know that

$$\mathbf{f} = \sigma \mathbf{E}_{\text{average}} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma (\mathbf{E}_{\text{above}} - \mathbf{E}_{\text{below}}).$$
 (2.4.1)

In particular, that for conductors, where we know  $\mathbf{E}_{below} = 0$  (equipotential inside the conductor), we obtain

$$\mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon_0} \sigma^2 \hat{\mathbf{n}} \tag{2.4.2}$$

#### 2.5 Capacitors

$$Q = CV$$
.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>'The book' is exclusively used in this note to 'Introduction to Electromagnetism' by David J. Griffths

## 3 Special Techniques

#### 3.1 Uniqueness Theorems

First uniqueness theorem: The solution to Laplace's equation in some volume  $\mathcal{V}$  is uniquely determined if V is specified on the boundary surface S.

**Second uniqueness theorem:** In a volume  $\mathcal{V}$  surrounded by conductors and containing a specified charge density  $\rho$ , the electric field is uniquely determined if the *total charge* on each conductor is given. (The region as a whole can be bounded by another conductor, or else unbounded.)[1]

#### 4 Electric Field in Matter

#### 4.1 Induced Dipoles

Suppose we have an uniform electric field **E**, and an atom (dipole) is in this field. This atom will now posses some dipole moment. The dipole moment is **most of the times** approximately proportional to the field.

$$\mathbf{p} = \alpha \mathbf{E}.\tag{4.1.1}$$

#### 4.2 Bound Charges

Let's suppose we have a blob of polarised material, with dipole moment  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}') \, \mathrm{d}\tau'$  in each volume element. The total potential is

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \iiint_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\imath}} \cdot \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}')}{\hat{\boldsymbol{\imath}}^2} \, \mathrm{d}\tau'.$$

And after some maths, we then obtain

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \iint_{\mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{a}' - \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \iiint_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (\mathbf{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{P}) d\tau'. \tag{4.2.1}$$

Notice that

$$\underline{\sigma_b = \mathbf{P} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}}$$
 , and  $\underline{\rho_b = -\mathbf{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{P}}$  . Surface bound charge

Those are called bound charges (surface bound charges & volume bound charge), we can just find them to get the voltage of the polarised dialectic blob instead of calculating the massive integral.

#### 4.3 The Electric Displacement

#### 4.3.1 Gauss's Law in the Presence of Dielectrics

Blah blah blah there is something called the "free charge" because we don't live in a perfect world. So the total charge density is now

$$\rho = \rho_b + \rho_f.$$

and Gauss' law reads

$$\varepsilon_{0} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho = \rho_{b} + \rho_{f} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P} + \rho_{f};$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \qquad \rho_{f} = \nabla \cdot (\varepsilon_{0} \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P});$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \qquad \mathbf{D} = \varepsilon_{0} \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P}; \qquad (4.3.1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_{f}; \qquad (4.3.2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \qquad \oint_{S} \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = Q_{f_{\text{enc}}}. \qquad (4.3.3)$$

Trick: In most of cases, **D** is determined exclusively by the free charge if we are dealing with symmetrical systems.

#### **Boundary Conditions** 4.3.2

$$D_{\text{above}}^{\perp} - D_{\text{below}}^{\perp} = \sigma_f; \tag{4.3.4}$$

$$\mathbf{D}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel} - \mathbf{D}_{\text{below}}^{\parallel} = \mathbf{P}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel}; \tag{4.3.5}$$

$$\mathbf{D}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel} - \mathbf{D}_{\text{below}}^{\parallel} = \mathbf{P}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel}; \tag{4.3.5}$$

$$E_{\text{above}}^{\perp} - E_{\text{below}}^{\perp} = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon_0}; \tag{4.3.6}$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel} - \mathbf{E}_{\text{below}}^{\parallel} = 0. \tag{4.3.7}$$

#### **Linear Dielectrics**

Iff a space that is entirely filled with a homogeneous linear dielectric, then

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_f$$
 and  $\nabla \times \mathbf{D} = 0$ .

And, also

$$\mathbf{D} = \varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E}_{\text{vac}}$$

where  $\mathbf{E}_{\mathrm{vac}}$  is the filed the same free charge would produce in the absence of

So, we can conclude that

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_r} \mathbf{E}_{\text{vac}}.$$
 (4.4.1)

Now, just for the sake of a very simple example, if we have a free charge qthat is embedded in a large dielectric, the field it produces is

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}.\tag{4.4.2}$$

### References

- [1] David J Griffiths. Introduction to electrodynamics; 3rd ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1999. URL: https://cds.cern.ch/record/611579.
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