PH 431 Review for Midterm

Electrostatics in Vacuum

Coulomb's law for the force on a test charge Q due to a single point charge q is:

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qQ}{d^2} \hat{\mathbf{d}} \tag{1}$$

Where we use $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'$. The Factoring out the test charge Q allows us to define the electric field which depends only on the charged object.

$$\mathbf{F} = Q\mathbf{E} \tag{2}$$

We can define the Electric field for a collection of charges q_i or can extend the concept to continuous distributions:

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i} \frac{q_i}{d_i^2} \hat{\mathbf{d}}_{\mathbf{i}}$$
 (3)

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\lambda(\mathbf{r}')}{d^2} \hat{\mathbf{d}} dl' \tag{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\sigma(\mathbf{r}')}{d^2} \hat{\mathbf{d}} da' \tag{5}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{d^2} \hat{\mathbf{d}} d\tau' \tag{6}$$

Now let's right down the vector identities i.e. Maxwell's equations for electrostatics:

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \frac{Q_{enc}}{\epsilon_0} \tag{7}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho \tag{8}$$

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \tag{9}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \tag{10}$$

Since the curl of **E** is zero, we can define a scalar potential ϕ such that

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla \phi \tag{11}$$

$$\Delta \phi = -\int_{O}^{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \tag{12}$$

The divergence and curl of **E** in terms of ϕ become Laplace and Poisson's equations.

$$\nabla^2 \phi = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{13}$$

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 0 \tag{14}$$

The second equation is Laplace's equation which applies for a region where there is zero free charge. From our definition of $\Delta \phi$ we can deduce definitions for the Electric potential.

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i} \frac{q_i}{d_i} \tag{15}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{d} d\tau' \tag{16}$$

Boundary Conditions

The electric field \mathbf{E} always undergoes a discontinuity across a surface charge σ . The amount of this jump can be found using the electric field for a infinite surface and a Gaussian pillbox. The tangential component must always be continuous because $\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$. Here I use a for above and b for below.

$$\mathbf{E}_{a}^{\perp} - \mathbf{E}_{a}^{\perp} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_{0}} \sigma \tag{17}$$

$$\mathbf{E}_a^{\parallel} = \mathbf{E}_b^{\parallel} \tag{18}$$

In general for any surface, these become the following in terms of the potential (n refers to the 'normal' direction i.e. $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = \nabla \phi \cdot \hat{n}$)

$$\frac{\partial \phi_a}{\partial n} - \frac{\partial \phi_b}{\partial n} = -\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \tag{19}$$

First Uniqueness Theorem: The solution to Laplace's equation in some volume V is uniquely determined if V is specified on the boundary surface S.

Image Charge Method

The image charge method is the process of using a combination of fake point charges to simulate the potential of a given surface charge distribution. You need to satisfy Laplace's equation in a particular region ($\nabla^2 \phi_{ind} = 0$). Also $\phi_T = \phi_Q + \phi_{ind}$. Apply boundary conditions and insure image charges satisfy (ex: $\phi_{ind} \to 0$ as $r \to \infty$)

Separation of Variables

Given a problem with azimuthal symmetry (i.e. symmetric about z axis) we can immediately write solution to Laplace's equation as:

$$\sum_{L=0}^{\infty} \left(A_L r^L + \frac{B_L}{r^{L+1}} \right) P_L(\cos(\theta)) \tag{20}$$

The first 3 Legendre Polynomials of $cos(\theta)$ are:

$$P_1 = 1 \tag{21}$$

$$P_2 = \cos(\theta) \tag{22}$$

$$P_3 = \frac{1}{2} \left(3\cos^2(\theta) - 1 \right) \tag{23}$$

In general you just need to find A_L, B_L that satisfy b.c.'s. For example if $\phi_{in} \to 0$ as $r \to \infty$ then $A_L = 0 \quad \forall L$. If you need ϕ_{in} to be defined at r = 0 then $B_L = 0 \quad \forall L$.

Multi-pole expansion

The multi-pole expansion is the expansion of the potential for any distribution into powers of 1/r. Note that:

$$\frac{1}{d} = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{r'}{r}\right)^n P_n(\cos(\alpha)) \tag{24}$$

Plugging this into our definition of ϕ gives us the multi-expansion:

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r^{n+1}} \int (\mathbf{r}')^n P_n(\cos(\alpha)) \rho(\mathbf{r}') d\tau'$$
(25)

So that you can use the famous physics method of **Guess It**, here are the monopole and dipole terms at large r:

$$\phi(\mathbf{r})_{mon} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r} \tag{26}$$

$$\phi(\mathbf{r})_{dip} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}}{r^2} \tag{27}$$

for a physical dipole, $\mathbf{p} = q\mathbf{d}$ where d goes from negative to positive.

Electric Fields In Matter

A dipole in a uniform electric field experiences a torque $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{p} \times \mathbf{E}$. The force on the dipole can be written as: $\mathbf{F} = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{E}$.

For polarizable materials we will consider collections of dipoles that we can describe with a dipole moment density. We will denote this as \mathbf{P} which has dimensions of dipole per volume. Now if we want to construct the potential for this distribution, we can take equation (27).

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V} \frac{\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}') \cdot \hat{\mathbf{d}}}{d^2}$$

This formulation is equivalent to a group of surface bound charges and volume bound charges:

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \oint_{S} \frac{\sigma_b da'}{d} + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \oint_{V} \frac{\rho_b d\tau'}{d}$$
 (28)

Where $\sigma_b = \mathbf{P} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and $\rho_b = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P}$.

If we assume materials to be linearly polarizable, we can define some useful fields with corresponding differential vector equations.

$$\mathbf{D} \equiv \epsilon_0 \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P} \tag{29}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \nabla \cdot (\epsilon_0 \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P}) = \rho_f \tag{30}$$

$$\mathbf{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \mathbf{E} \tag{31}$$

Dielectric Boundary Conditions

The boundary conditions we have from the homework are:

$$\phi_{in} = \phi_{out}, \quad r = R \tag{32}$$

$$\epsilon_1 \frac{\partial \phi_{in}}{\partial r} = \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial \phi_{out}}{\partial r} \tag{33}$$

The boundary equations essentially are that ϕ is continuous across the interface, $\epsilon \partial_{\perp} \phi$ is continuous across interface and $\partial_{\parallel} \phi$ is continuous across the interface.

Strategies for polarizable materials: Solve for the displacement field **D** then we want to go from ρ_f to our **D** field. To do that we need *symmetry*. Then you want to take **D** and derive **E**, **P** i.e. use $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_f$. We assume that the free charge ρ_f will be given. Now for linearly polarizable materials we have $\mathbf{D} = \epsilon \mathbf{E}$ and $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$. Now to get **P**, you use $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{D} - \epsilon_0 \mathbf{D}$.

At a boundary, we derived that $\Delta \mathbf{E} = \frac{\sigma_b}{\epsilon_0}$... Katy wanted me to add this... so here it is.

Energy in a Dielectric System

The energy stored in a dielectric configuration is equivalent to the work required to form the system. This is given by:

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E} d\tau \tag{34}$$

Also the energy of a capacitor is given by $U = \frac{1}{2}CV^2$

Magnetostatics

The magnetic force on a particle moving through magnetic and electric fields is given by the Lorentz force law (taken to be true based off of observation). It is:

$$\mathbf{F}_{E/M} = Q)[\mathbf{E} + \vec{v} \times \mathbf{B}] \tag{35}$$

Notice that because the magnetic force always points PERPENDICULAR to velocity, **the magnetic field does NO work**.

The equivalent of charge densities to magnetostatics are current densities. They are:

$$\mathbf{I} = \lambda \vec{v} \tag{36}$$

$$\mathbf{K} = \sigma \vec{v} \tag{37}$$

$$\mathbf{J} = \rho \vec{v} \tag{38}$$

From the last density, we will write the general equation for the magnetic force as:

$$\mathbf{F} = \int \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B} d\tau \tag{39}$$

For steady current systems, the magnetic field can be calculated via the Biot-Savart law:

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{J} \times \vec{d}}{d^3} d\tau' \tag{40}$$

The equivalent of Gauss's law for magnetostatics is called Ampere's law. It is:

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I_{enc} \tag{41}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J} \tag{42}$$

Now we can summarize the equations into Maxwell's laws for vacuum:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho \tag{43}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \tag{44}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \tag{45}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J} \tag{46}$$

Also, since the divergence of the $\bf B$ field is zero, we can define a vector potential $\bf A$ since the divergence of the curl is always zero:

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}')}{d} d\tau' \tag{47}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \tag{48}$$

The magnetic dipole moment, **m**, is given by:

$$\mathbf{m} \equiv I \int d\mathbf{a} \tag{49}$$

Magnetic Fields in Matter

Similar to electric forces, magnetic dipoles in a magnetic field experience a torque defined by:

$$\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{B} \tag{50}$$

This torque is what accounts for paramagnetism since it aligns the dipole to be parallel with the magnetic field. The force for an infinitesimal loop around a dipole \mathbf{m} in a field \mathbf{B} is:

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla(\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \tag{51}$$

As with electrically polarizable materials we can consider materials as collections of magnetic dipoles which we will account for by the magnetic dipole density \mathbf{M} which has dimensions of magnetic dipole per volume. The magnetic vector potential for such a distribution is given by:

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}') \times \hat{\mathbf{d}}}{d^2} d\tau'$$
 (52)

We can show this is equivalent to a surface bound current \mathbf{K}_b and a volume bound current \mathbf{J}_b such that:

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{J_b}(\mathbf{r}')d^3\mathbf{r}'}{d} + \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{K_b}(\mathbf{r}')d^2\mathbf{r}'}{d}$$
(53)

Where $\mathbf{J_b} = \nabla \times \mathbf{M}$ and $\mathbf{K_b} = \mathbf{M} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}}$

Now recall that for magnetostatics we know that:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J} \tag{54}$$

$$\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{J}_f + \mathbf{J}_b \tag{55}$$

$$= \mathbf{J}_f + \nabla \times \mathbf{M} \tag{56}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times (\frac{1}{\mu_0} \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{M}) = \mathbf{J} - \mathbf{J_b} = \mathbf{J_f}$$
 (57)

$$\mathbf{H} \equiv \frac{1}{\mu_0} \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{M} \tag{58}$$

Now we have our analogous field to the displacement field with the vector identity that:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J_f} \tag{59}$$

Thus the correspondence is that given \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{H} we can solve for \mathbf{B} using (58). Then we have that $\mathbf{B} = \mu \mathbf{H}$ for linearly polarizable materials where $\mu = \mu_0 (1 + \chi_m)$. Then we can solve for the bound current densities using equations $\mathbf{J_b} = \nabla \times \mathbf{M}$ and $\mathbf{K_b} = \mathbf{M} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}}$.

usefull stuff...

the magnetic field for a naked wire is given by:

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \hat{\phi} \tag{60}$$

The magnetic field for a solenoid of n turns per length is given by:

$$\mathbf{B} = \mu_0 n I \hat{z} \tag{61}$$