

Magnetostatics

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Overview:

- Basic problems: Find \vec{B} by Biot-Savat law with integration
- Divergent-less of B-field
- Ampere's law, line integral, curl & Stokes' theorem
- Magnetic vector potential & Poisson equation

In electromagnetism, theoretically every problem can be solved through a set of PDEs called the **Maxwell Equations**.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} & \longrightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} & \longrightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \end{array}$$

However, a *system of PDEs* is just too complicate to be solved. So we need to learn different "tricks" to avoid them, which are enough for some simple scenarios.

Magnetostatics only concerns the 2nd and 4th equation of the set - Gauss's law on B-field and Ampere's law.

1 Basic Skill: Biot-Savat Law with Integration

Physically, currents are just moving charges. There is no such thing called "point current". However we can imagine a line of current being divided into many infinitestimally small segments such that each current segment "looks like" a vector point source.

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Current} \\ \text{line} \end{array} \right) = I \vec{L} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \int I d\vec{l} \sim \sum (\text{Current}) \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Unit} \\ \text{length} \end{array} \right)$$

(add figure here: current segment source)

This is why you will never find Biot-Savat law in your high school textbook.

$$\vec{B} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{I \vec{L}}{r^2} \times \hat{r} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \int d\vec{B} = \int_{\text{whole line}} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\vec{l}}{r^2} \times \hat{r}$$

Always remember that
You should not write this
Biot-Savat law can only be
written as an integral

Furthermore, because we are living in a 3D world, current does not always travel along a line segment, but may flow on a surface or through an object such that the current is position dependent. In these cases, we should describe current as a distribution of flow (i.e. vector field).

(add figure here: current volume density + surface density)

When current is travelling on a surface (so that each wire is like a ribbon strip), we can describe current as **surface current density** \vec{K} .

$$I d\vec{l} \implies \vec{K} ds$$

When current is travelling in an object (so that each wire is like a continuous volume), we can describe current as **volume current density** \vec{J} .

$$I d\vec{l} \implies \vec{J} d\tau$$

Caution:

In magnetostatics problem, we require the current to be a constant flow. Although you may have learnt that a moving point charge q traveling at velocity v acts like a point current source qv , this current is only temporary.

(add figure here: point charge not equal continuous flow)

The true formula of B-field by point charge needs to consider the travelling time of B-field. This is completely out of our scope.

Example 1.1. Suppose there is a wire lying on the x-axis, with its ends at $x = a$ and $x = b$. Let there be uniform current I flowing along it. What is the B-field on an arbitrary point on the z axis?

(add figure here: rod)

We can analyze by dividing the rod into infinitesimal pieces:

- Each segment has a length dx
- Each unit of current segment is thus $I d\vec{x} = I dx \hat{x}$.
- For the segment at position x , its distance from the targeted point is $\sqrt{z^2 + x^2}$.

(add figure here: infinte element)

Thus we can calculate \vec{B} by Biot-Savat law.

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_a^b \frac{I dx \hat{x}}{z^2 + x^2} \times \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{directon to} \\ \text{target point} \end{smallmatrix} \right)$$

To do the cross product, we need to resolve the direction's component from the segment to the target point. By the triangle:

(add figure here: component)

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{z^2 + x^2}} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2 + x^2}} \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$
$$\Rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}} \times \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2 + x^2}} (-\hat{\mathbf{y}})$$

In this situation, $-\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is the out of paper direction.

(add figure here: directions notation)

The B-field should be integrated by

$$B_y = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_a^b \frac{I dx}{z^2 + x^2} \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2 + x^2}}$$

2 Divergent-less of B-field

Similar to E-field, there is the **Gauss's law for B-field**, which has two different expressions:

$$\oiint \vec{\mathbf{B}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{s}} = 0 \quad (\text{Integral form})$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{B}} = 0 \quad (\text{Differential form})$$

This law is purely an observation to B-field, claiming that

| | | |
|---|-------------------|---|
| Magnetic point source does not exist | \Leftrightarrow | Total flux of B-field on a closed surface always = 0 |
|---|-------------------|---|

Because so far no one has found any magnetic monopoles, we determine that B-field lines must exist as closed loops, and can never form diverging/converging patterns like E-field does.

This law is not as important as the other 3 in the Maxwell equation because it does not involve any source terms. It is only sometimes useful when we need to make symmetry claims or simplify derivations.

3 Ampere's Law

The Ampere's Law (in magnetostatics) has two different expressions:

$$\oint \vec{\mathbf{B}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{l}} = \mu_0 I \quad (\text{Integral form})$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}} = \mu_0 \vec{\mathbf{J}} \quad (\text{Differential form})$$

It is easier to study the physical meaning and visualize by the integral form. After that we can generalize to the differential form by introducing an operator called **curl**.

3.1 Revisit: Dot Product Line Integral

The literal description in Ampere's law integral form is

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Dot product line integral} \\ \text{of magnetic field along a loop} \end{array} \right) = \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I = (\text{Constant})(\text{Current enclosed})$$

Recall that we can use the sign of a dot product between 2 vectors to determine if the vectors are in similar / opposite directions.

(add figure here: dot product sign)

Now consider that we are travelling in a vector field along some path. At each step, we can take note of field vector there and our travelling direction, then compute their dot product.

If the sum of all the dot products > 0 , we are travelling more or less the same direction relative to the field's flow.

If the sum of all the dot products < 0 , we are travelling more or less the opposite direction relative to the field's flow.

(add figure here: flow along + flow opposite)

If we divide our path into infinitesimal small segments, then the sum become line integral.

$$\int_{\text{path}} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} > 0 & \Rightarrow \sim \text{Our path is along the flow} \\ < 0 & \Rightarrow \sim \text{Our path is opposite to the flow} \end{array} \right.$$

3.2 Detection of Rotating Flow

The situation becomes interesting if we choose our path to be a closed loop - this loop integral becomes an indicator whether there are rotation trends around the loop.

By convention, we always use an anti-clockwise loop (Just like right hand rule).

- If $\oint_{\text{our loop}} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} > 0$, our loop may have enclosed some rotation centers of anti-clockwise flow.

(add figure here: High degree of anti clock flow)

(add figure here: loop overlay -i +ve)

- If $\oint_{\text{our loop}} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} < 0$, our loop may have enclosed some rotation centers of clockwise flow.

(add figure here: High degree of clock flow)

(add figure here: loop overlay -i -ve)

- If $\oint_{\text{our loop}} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} \approx 0$, our loop probably does not enclose any rotation centers.

(add figure here: No rotation flow)

(add figure here: loop overlay -i 0)

3.3 Curl

However there is a problem in using loop integral of dot product - if we choose the loop too arbitrarily, the calculated dot product is ambiguous to tell where the rotation centers are.

(add figure here: arbitrary surface)

E.g. If we choose an irregular loop, it may not catch the rotation centers.

To tackle this problem, we need to introduce the **curl** operator:

$$\underbrace{\vec{\nabla} \times}_{\substack{\text{Like gradient operator} \\ \text{but with a cross}}} \bullet \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left(\frac{\partial \bullet_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial \bullet_y}{\partial z} \right) \hat{x} + \left(\frac{\partial \bullet_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial \bullet_z}{\partial x} \right) \hat{y} + \left(\frac{\partial \bullet_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \bullet_x}{\partial y} \right) \hat{z} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{\text{curl}}_{\substack{\text{Sometimes we} \\ \text{just write "curl"}}} \bullet$$

The curl operator can be applied on a vector function, and will return another vector function.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} \times F &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} F_x & F_y & F_z \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{x} & \hat{y} & \hat{z} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ F_x & F_y & F_z \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial F_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial z} \right) \hat{x} + \left(\frac{\partial F_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial x} \right) \hat{y} + \left(\frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y} \right) \hat{z} \\ &= (\text{A vector}) \end{aligned}$$

Each component of the curl of a vector field is related to its **loop integral along an infinitesimal small loop in each direction**.

3.3.1 Geometrical Interpretation

To visualize, we can draw 3 infinitesimal small loop around a point (x, y, z) . Because of symmetry in all 3 directions, it suffices to just analyze the loop that is parallel to the x - y plane.

(add figure here: infinitesimal loops + floating loop)

The dot product on each side of the loop are calculated as follow:

(add figure here: magnify loop)

– Edge 1 :

– Vector field on the edge center = $\vec{F}(x, y + \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z)$

– Edge length = Δx , in $-\hat{x}$ direction

$$\Rightarrow \text{Dot product} = \vec{F}(x, y + \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z) \cdot (\Delta x)(-\hat{x}) = -F_x(x, y + \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z) \Delta x$$

(add figure here: edge 1)

– Edge 2 :

– Vector field on the edge center = $\vec{F}(x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z)$

– Edge length = Δy , in $-y$ direction

$$\Rightarrow \text{Dot product} = \vec{F}(x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z) \cdot (\Delta y)(-\hat{y}) = -F_y(x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z)\Delta y$$

(add figure here: edge 2)

– Edge 3 :

– Vector field on the edge center = $\vec{F}(x, y - \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z)$

– Edge length = Δx , in $+x$ direction

$$\Rightarrow \text{Dot product} = \vec{F}(x, y - \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z) \cdot (\Delta x)(+\hat{x}) = F_x(x, y - \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z)\Delta x$$

(add figure here: edge 3)

– Edge 4 :

– Vector field on the edge center = $\vec{F}(x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z)$

– Edge length = Δy , in $+y$ direction

$$\Rightarrow \text{Dot product} = \vec{F}(x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z) \cdot (\Delta y)(+\hat{y}) = F_y(x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z)\Delta y$$

(add figure here: edge 4)

Therefore the total dot product along the loop is

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{F_y(x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z)\Delta y}{\text{Edge 4}} - \frac{F_y(x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z)\Delta y}{\text{Edge 2}} - \frac{F_x(x, y + \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z)\Delta x}{\text{Edge 1}} + \frac{F_x(x, y - \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z)\Delta x}{\text{Edge 3}} \\ &= \left(\frac{F_x(x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z) - F_x(x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z)}{\Delta x} - \frac{F_x(x, y + \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z) - F_x(x, y - \frac{\Delta y}{2}, z)}{\Delta y} \right) (\Delta x \Delta y) \\ &= \left(\frac{F_x\left(\boxed{x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}}, y, z\right) - F_x\left(\boxed{x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}}, y, z\right)}{\boxed{\Delta x}} - \frac{F_x\left(x, \boxed{y + \frac{\Delta y}{2}}, z\right) - F_x\left(x, \boxed{y - \frac{\Delta y}{2}}, z\right)}{\boxed{\Delta y}} \right) (\Delta x \Delta y) \\ & \quad \text{This is exactly partial x} \qquad \text{This is exactly partial y} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y} \right) (\Delta x \Delta y) \\ &= \left(\begin{matrix} \text{Curl's} \\ z \text{ component} \end{matrix} \right) \left(\begin{matrix} \text{Unit area} \\ \text{parallel to xy plane} \end{matrix} \right) \\ &= \left(\begin{matrix} \text{Curl's} \\ z \text{ component} \end{matrix} \right) \left(\begin{matrix} \text{Unit area} \\ \text{normal to z direction} \end{matrix} \right) \end{aligned}$$

We can expect the similar results in the other 2 directions. Gather them together:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Loop integral} \\ \text{normal to} \\ x \text{ direction} \end{array} \right) = \left(\frac{\partial F_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial z} \right) (dy dz) = (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F})_x (dy dz) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Curl's} \\ x \text{ component} \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Unit area} \\ \text{normal to} \\ x \text{ direction} \end{array} \right) \\ \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Loop integral} \\ \text{normal to} \\ y \text{ direction} \end{array} \right) = \left(\frac{\partial F_z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial z} \right) (dz dx) = (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F})_y (dz dx) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Curl's} \\ y \text{ component} \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Unit area} \\ \text{normal to} \\ y \text{ direction} \end{array} \right) \\ \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Loop integral} \\ \text{normal to} \\ z \text{ direction} \end{array} \right) = \left(\frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y} \right) (dx dy) = (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F})_z (dx dy) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Curl's} \\ z \text{ component} \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Unit area} \\ \text{normal to} \\ z \text{ direction} \end{array} \right) \end{array} \right.$$

Therefore we can geometrically interpret curl as

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Curl's} \\ i^{\text{th}} \text{ component} \end{array} \right) = (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F})_i = \frac{(\text{Loop integral normal to } i^{\text{th}} \text{ direction})}{(\text{Area enclosed by the loop})} \sim \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{loop integral} \\ \text{density} \end{array} \right)$$

↑
This density
is by area

3.3.2 Stokes' Theorem

With the geometrical interpretation, we can directly state (without proof) a convenient formula related to divergence - the **Stokes' theorem**:

$$\oint \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = \iint (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{s}$$

which is basically

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Total} \\ \text{Loop integral} \end{array} \right) \sim \sum_{\text{All area}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Loop integral} \\ \text{per area} \end{array} \right) \times (\text{Area})$$

3.4 Ampere's Law - Explanation

The Ampere's law is purely an observation about the relation between B-field and currents:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \text{Total line integral of B-field} & \Leftrightarrow \\ \text{along a closed loop} \neq 0 & \text{There are currents} \\ & \text{circled by the loop} \end{array} \right]$$

The two forms of Ampere's law are describing this same observation:

– Integral form:

$$(\vec{B}'\text{'s loop integral}) \sim \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I \sim (\text{Current})$$

– Differential form:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \vec{B}'\text{'s loop integral} \\ \text{density} \end{array} \right) \sim \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} \sim \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Current} \\ \text{density} \end{array} \right)$$

And the two form can be inter-converted by Stokes' theorem.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} & = & \mu_0 I \\
 \text{Stokes' Theorem} \downarrow & & \downarrow \text{Current to current density} \\
 \iiint (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{s} & = & \mu_0 \iint \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s}
 \end{array}$$

3.5 Applying Ampere's Law Integral Form

In beginner electromagnetism, there is only one type of Ampere's law related problems:

Given the current distribution, find the B-field everywhere by Ampere's law integral form in some very symmetrical scenarios.

which is basically asking you to *revert* the loop integral calculation:

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I \quad \Rightarrow \quad \vec{B} = ??? \text{ in terms of } I$$

If I has a very ugly distribution, there is nothing we can do except solving some partial differential equations. But **if I distributes very symmetrically, \vec{B} should also be symmetrical**, such that the loop integral can be broken into multiplications.

In these cases, we can choose an "Ampere" loop to to be integrated where

1. \vec{B} has constant magnitude everywhere along the loop.
2. \vec{B} forms the same angle with the tangent vector everywhere along the loop.

Only then, the loop integral can be broken down as

$$\begin{aligned}
 \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} &= \oint \underbrace{|\vec{B}|}_{\text{Same magnitude everywhere}} \underbrace{|d\vec{l}| \cos \theta}_{\text{Form same angle everywhere}} \leftarrow \text{Just dot product } \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}||\vec{b}| \cos \theta \\
 &= \underbrace{|\vec{B}|}_{\text{Can move out of integral!}} \underbrace{\cos \theta}_{\text{Can move out of integral!}} \oint |d\vec{l}| \\
 &= |\vec{B}| \cos \theta (\text{Perimeter of loop})
 \end{aligned}$$

such that we can find the magnitude of \vec{B} with simple division

$$|\vec{B}| = \frac{(\text{Total loop integral})}{(\text{Perimeter of loop}) \cos \theta} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{(\text{Perimeter of loop}) \cos \theta}$$

In fact, there are not many of these "very symmetrical" cases. These examples below, with their respective Ampere loop, are basically all the variations you can find in textbooks.

(add figure here: different ampere loop)

Example 3.1. Given an infinitely long wire with current I flowing along. By cylindrical symmetry, the B-field must satisfy:

- Unchange when translate along the wire (z-axis).
- Unchange when rotate about the wire (z-axis).

Note that cylindrical symmetry does not restrict the B-field to be circle loops. For example, all of these configurations satisfy cylindrical symmetry:

(add figure here: loop (purely theta) vs spiral up (has z) vs spiral out (has r))

We need to rule out the 2 latter cases before we can use Ampere's law to find \vec{B} :

1. \vec{B} is divergent-less :

If the B-field has radial component, we can draw a cylindrical Gaussian surface around the wire. Then we would get the flux of $\vec{B} \neq 0$.

(add figure here: cyl gauss surface)

Therefore the B-field must not have r component.

2. Another Ampere's loop :

If the B-field has z component, we can draw an Ampere loop that is parallel to the wire. By Ampere's law, there is no current enclosed by this loop, so the loop integral should be 0.

(add figure here: alternative ampere loop)

- By translational symmetry, the dot product at the top (edge 1) and bottom (edge 3) should cancel each other.
- We can choose a loop which stretches to infinity far away. Because there should be no B-field at infinity, dot product is 0. So the dot product on the wire (edge 4) should also be 0.
- Then if we choose a loop that is not infinitely far, we can conclude that the dot product on edge 3 should be 0. This implies \vec{B} has no z component.

After all these symmetry arguments, we can finally conclude that B-field around a wire must be circular loops. We can choose a circular Ampere loop of radius r to find the magnitude of B-field at distance r from the wire.

$$\begin{aligned} |\vec{B}| &= \frac{\mu_0 I}{(\text{Perimeter of loop}) \cos \theta} \\ &= \mu_0 I \cdot \frac{1}{(2\pi r)} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos 0^\circ} \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{B-field = angular} \\ \therefore \text{Tangent to loop} \end{array} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \vec{B} &= \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \hat{\phi} \quad \leftarrow \text{You have to manually add the unit vector} \end{aligned}$$

Example 3.2. Give an infinitely long solenoid made of a uniform density of coils $\frac{N}{L}$, with a current I passing through. This is another cylindrical symmetry case so we can reuse similar arguments from the previous example.

Example 3.3. Given an infinitely long hollow cylinder with inner radius $= a$ and outer radius $= b$, and its charge density is proportional to distance from center r , i.e. $\rho(\vec{r}) = kr$. For cylinder, we can claim by rotational symmetry around the axis and translation symmetry along the axis, that the E-field must satisfy:

- Only point in r direction.
- Magnitude does not depend on θ or z .

(add figure here: cylinder symm)

Therefore we can choose the Gaussian surface to be a cylindrical sheet radius r and an arbitrary length L (which will be cancelled later) to find the magnitude of E-field at distance r from the rotation axis.

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\vec{E}| &= \frac{Q/\epsilon_0}{(\text{Total surface area}) \cos \theta} \\
 &= \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{1}{(2\pi r L)} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos 0^\circ} \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{E-field = radial} \\ \therefore \text{Normal to curved surface} \end{array} \\
 &= \frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r L} \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{E-field = radial} \\ \therefore \text{Only go through the curved surface} \\ \text{Top/bottom surface has no flux} \end{array} \\
 \Rightarrow \quad \vec{E} &= \frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r L} \hat{r} \quad \leftarrow \text{You have to manually add the unit vector}
 \end{aligned}$$

(add figure here: not side surface cuz flux = 0)

This time the charge density depends on position, so the total charge enclosed by the surface needs to be computed by integration.

1. For radial distance $r < a$, there is no charge enclosed because the cylinder is hollow. So $Q = 0$ implying $\vec{E} = 0$.

(add figure here: inner)

2. For radial distance $a < r < b$, total enclosed charge are distributed from radius $= a$ to radius $= r$, which calculates as

$$Q = \int_a^r \rho \cdot 2\pi r L dr = 2\pi k L \int_a^r r^2 dr = \frac{2\pi k L}{3} (r^3 - a^3)$$

So the E-field is

$$\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r L} \hat{r} = \frac{k}{3\epsilon_0} \left(r^2 - \frac{a^3}{r} \right) \hat{r}$$

(add figure here: middle)

3. For radial distance $r > b$, total enclosed charge are distributed from radius $= a$ to radius $= b$, which calculates as

$$Q = \int_a^b \rho \cdot 2\pi r L dr = 2\pi k L \int_a^b r^2 dr = \frac{2\pi k L}{3} (b^3 - a^3)$$

So the E-field is

$$\vec{E} = \frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r L} \hat{r} = \frac{k}{3\epsilon_0 r} (b^3 - a^3) \hat{r}$$

(add figure here: outer)

4 Magnetic Vector Potential

4.1 Mathematical Origin

Magnetic field also has a corresponding potential function $\vec{A}(\vec{r})$. But unlike electric potential, the magnetic potential is a vector function. The reason to create it is purely mathematical:

- Observation: B-field always form loops because we have never observed any magnetic point source. \Rightarrow B-field is divergent-less.
- Mathematical fact: Any divergent-less field can be expressed as the curl of some vector function (i.e. vector potential).

Therefore we can define a vector function $\vec{A}(\vec{r})$ such that

$$\boxed{\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}(\vec{r})}$$

(Procedures for computing the reverse exists, however basically no one would use it.)

4.2 Poisson Equation

If we substitute $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$ into the Ampere's law differential form, we arrive at a new equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_0 \vec{J} &= \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} \\ &= \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \\ &= \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) - \nabla^2 \vec{A} \\ &= -\nabla^2 \vec{A} \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 \vec{A}(\vec{r}) = -\mu_0 \vec{J}(\vec{r})}$$

This is the same

This equation belongs to a class of PDE called **Poisson equation**, which is one of the earliest studied PDEs in history. It is the general method to relate potential between charge distribution. that works for any configurations of potential or charge distribution.

(add figure here: find one and other, add $Q = \text{lap } V$ and $V = ??? Q$ with arrow)

However, being general does not mean it is always easy to solve:

- $V(\vec{r})$ to $\rho(\vec{r})$: The Laplacian operator is just a sum of 2nd order derivatives. Easy!
- $\rho(\vec{r})$ to $V(\vec{r})$: Need to solve the Laplacian equation, which is a 2nd order non-homogeneous linear PDE. Awful!

Unfortunately in realistic problems, it is more frequent to ask for $V(\vec{r})$ from $\rho(\vec{r})$, because we can usually confine the charge distribution in a small region by using a very small test object; but for potential, it is always everywhere.

(add figure here: charge in small object -i can treat like point charge. but V spread everywhere)

We are not going to discuss its general solution here - it can take several book chapters to derive and analyze the solution forms at different boundary conditions.

In 1D wave equation, the boundary conditions are just about the 2 end points. Either fixed or free.

(add figure here: wave eq vs possion bc)

In Poisson equation, the boundary conditions are about the line/face boundary of the region of interest. Too many variations.

(add figure here: wave eq vs possion bc)

Although the general case is terribly complicated, we have already learnt the solution in one very special case - When the region of interest is infinitely large + potential vanishes at the boundary, i.e. $V(\vec{r} = \infty) = 0$, the solution is exactly the Coulomb's law.

$$\begin{aligned} V(\vec{r}) &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \iiint_{\text{infinitely large space}} \frac{\rho(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} d^3\vec{r}' \\ &\sim \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{\text{everywhere}} \frac{(\text{charge})}{(\text{distance})} \\ &\equiv \text{Coulomb's law for electric potential} \\ &\quad (\text{But written in a fancier vector form}) \end{aligned}$$

(add figure here: infinitely large region + potential element plot)

4.3 Finding \vec{E} from Q

On the other hand, Poisson equation provides an alternative to calculate E-field distribution from charge distribution. If we compare the Gauss's law and Poisson equation:

- Poisson equation ($\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$) : $V(\vec{r})$ is a scalar function. Only 1 function $V(\vec{r})$ to be solved.
- Gauss's law ($\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$) : $\vec{E}(\vec{r})$ is a vector function with 3 components $E_x(\vec{r})$, $E_y(\vec{r})$, $E_z(\vec{r})$, which are 3 inter-depending functions to be solved.

Obviously, there is no reason to try to solve the more difficult PDE of \vec{E} if alternatively we can solve the easier PDE of V , and then take gradient to get \vec{E} (i.e. via $\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V$).

(add figure here: triangle)

Similar to potential, if the given boundary condition is $V(\vec{r} = \infty) = 0$, the solution for the Gauss's law as a PDE should also be the Coulomb's law.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E}(\vec{r}) &= -\vec{\nabla}V(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \iiint_{\text{infinitely large space}} \frac{\rho(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|^2} \left[\frac{\vec{r} - \vec{r}'}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \right] d^3\vec{r}' \\ &\sim \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{\text{everywhere}} \frac{(\text{charge})}{(\text{distance})^2} (\text{unit}_{\text{vector}}) \\ &\equiv \text{Coulomb's law for electric field} \\ &\quad (\text{But written in a fancier vector form}) \end{aligned}$$

Here we shall summarize the methods of solving magnetostatics problems:

1. Very symmetric configurations \Rightarrow Ampere's law integral form. No calculus required.
2. Not so symmetric but satisfies $\vec{A}(\vec{r} = \infty) = 0 \Rightarrow$ Multiple integral with Biot-Savat law.
3. All the above do not apply \Rightarrow Solve Poisson equation explicitly. PDE hell

— The End —