

Electricity and Magnetism (83313)

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<https://github.com/outofink/notes>

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ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM

1

INTRODUCTION

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Definition (Operator). An *operator* is an mathematical object which takes a *function* and returns a *function*.

For example, the *derivative*: $\frac{df}{dx}$.

Note. This is not a fraction!

The most common *operator* in electromagnetism is the *nabla* (∇):

$$\vec{\nabla} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\hat{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\hat{k}$$

1.1 Gradient

$$\vec{f}(x, y, z) = \nabla\phi = \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x}\hat{i} + \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial y}\hat{j} + \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial z}\hat{k} = \text{grad}(\phi)$$

What can we use the *gradient* for?

1.1.1 Directional derivative

The *derivative* of the function in the certain direction.

$$\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial\hat{n}} = \nabla\phi \cdot \hat{n}$$

Where \hat{n} is the unit vector in the desired direction.

Conservative Fields

$$\phi(\vec{r}_2) - \phi(\vec{r}_1) = \int_{\gamma} \nabla\phi \cdot d\vec{r}$$

1.2 Divergence

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{f}(x, y, z) &= f_x(x, y, z)\hat{i} + f_y(x, y, z)\hat{j} + f_z(x, y, z)\hat{k} \\ \text{div}(\vec{f}) &= \nabla \cdot \vec{f} = \frac{df_x}{dx} + \frac{df_y}{dy} + \frac{df_z}{dz}\end{aligned}$$

It's much easier to work in cases that are symmetrical (cylinders and infinite planes).

$$\vec{f}(x, y, z) = xy\hat{x} + yz\hat{y} + xz\hat{z} \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{f} = y + z + x$$

Integration on Surfaces

Suppose we have a vector field $\vec{f}(x, y, z)$ and a surface defined by $s(x, y, z) = c$ (a sphere).

$$\iint_S \vec{f}(x, y, z) d\vec{s} \quad d\vec{s} = ds \cdot \hat{n}$$

Note. We define the direction to be *outward*.

$$\begin{aligned}ds &= R^2 \sin(\theta) d\theta d\phi \hat{r} \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi, \quad 0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi \\ \vec{f}(\vec{r}) &= \vec{r} \\ \int \vec{f}(\vec{r}) d\vec{r} &= \oiint \hat{r} R^2 \sin(\theta) d\phi d\theta \cdot \hat{r} = R^2 \oiint \sin(\theta) d\phi d\theta = 4\pi R^2\end{aligned}$$

1.2.1 Gauss's Law

$$\oiint_{S(V)} \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \vec{f}) \cdot dV$$

Where $S(V)$ is the area which encloses the V .

1.3 Curl

$$\begin{aligned}f(x, y, z) &= f_x\hat{x} + f_y\hat{y} + f_z\hat{z} \\ \text{curl}(f) &= \nabla \times f = \left(\frac{\partial f_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial z} \right) \hat{x} + \left(\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial f_z}{\partial x} \right) \hat{y} + \left(\frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y} \right) \hat{z}\end{aligned}$$

1.3.1 Stokes' Law

$$\oint_{l(A)} \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_A (\nabla \times \vec{f}) \cdot d\vec{s} \quad d\vec{s} = ds \cdot \hat{n}$$

Note. We define the direction using the *right hand rule*.

1.4 What is electricity?

$$e = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

There exists *conservation of charge*.

1.4.1 Coulomb's Law

Definition (Coulomb's Law). *Coulomb's Law* defines the vector (magnitude and direction) of the force between two charges in space given charges q_1, q_2 at distances r_1, r_2 respectively.

$$\vec{r}_{1,2} = \vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2 \quad \hat{r}_{1,2} = \frac{\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2}{\|\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2\|}$$

$$\vec{F}_{1,2} = \frac{kq_1q_2}{\|\vec{r}_{1,2}\|^2} \hat{r}_{1,2}$$

Where $k = 8.99 \cdot 10^9 \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2}{\text{C}^2}$. Sometimes we define k in terms of ϵ_0 (dielectric constant in a vacuum):

$$k = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \quad \epsilon_0 = 8.8542 \cdot 10^{-12} \frac{\text{C}^2}{\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2}$$

More simply, we say:

$$\vec{F} = \frac{kq_1q_2}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

1.5 Superposition Principle

Definition (Superposition Principle). Given a system of charges, the force on a single particle is the *vector sum* of all of the forces in the system on that particle.

In order to more simply use the superposition principle, we can use:

$$\frac{\hat{r}_{1,2}}{\|\vec{r}_{1,2}\|^2} = \frac{\vec{r}_{1,2}}{\|\vec{r}_{1,2}\|^3}$$

$$\vec{F}_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{kq_iq_j}{\|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j\|} (\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j)$$

1.5.1 Work and Energy

$$\vec{F}_{2,1} = k \frac{q_1q_2}{|r'_2 - r_1|^2} \hat{r}'_{2,1}$$

$$W = - \int_{\infty}^{r_2} \vec{F}_{2,1} \cdot d\vec{r}'_2$$

Note. The work being done is *conservative*, which means it is not dependent on the path taken.

Doing a change a variables:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{r}' &= \bar{r}'_2 - \bar{r}_1 \\ |\bar{r}'_2 - \bar{r}_1| &= |r'| \\ dr' &= dr'_2\end{aligned}$$

Back to finding the work:

$$W = - \int_{\infty}^{\bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_1} k \frac{q_1 q_2}{|r'|^2} dr' = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{|r'|} \Big|_{\infty}^{\bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_1} = \frac{k q_1 q_2}{|\bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_1|}$$

The about of work required to bring q_2 from infinity to distance r from r_1 is equal to the amount of work q_1 needs to push q_2 from r to infinity.

If we wanted to bring in a third particle q_3 :

$$\begin{aligned}U_{1,2,3} &= \frac{k q_1 q_2}{|\bar{r}_2 - \bar{r}_1|} + \frac{k q_1 q_3}{|\bar{r}_3 - \bar{r}_1|} + \frac{k q_2 q_3}{|\bar{r}_3 - \bar{r}_2|} \\ U &= \sum_i \sum_{j < i} \frac{k q_i q_j}{|\bar{r}_i - \bar{r}_j|} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{k q_i q_j}{|\bar{r}_i - \bar{r}_j|}\end{aligned}$$

1.6 Electric Fields

Given a fixed charge q_0 and a free charge q_1 :

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{F}_{0,1} &= k \frac{q_0 q_1}{|\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}_1|^2} \hat{r}_{0,1} \\ \vec{E}(\vec{r}_0) &= \frac{\vec{F}(\vec{r}_0)}{q_0} = k \frac{q_1}{|\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}_1|^2} \hat{r}_{0,1} \left[\frac{\text{N}}{\text{C}} \right]\end{aligned}$$

Where \vec{E} represents the electric field and \vec{r}_0 is the location at which we are measuring the field.

For an arbitrary number of points in the field:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}_0) = \sum_i \frac{k q_i}{|\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}_i|^2} \hat{r}_{0,i}$$

And assuming there's one large charge Q :

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = k \frac{Q}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

1.6.1 Characteristics

- $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = 0$
- $\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$

1.7 Flux

Definition (Flux).

$$\phi = EA$$

Where ϕ is *flux*, E is the electric field, and A is the area.

If the field and the area are perpendicular, then we can say:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi &= \vec{E} \cdot \vec{A} = |E||A| \cos \theta \\ \phi &= \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s}\end{aligned}$$

1.8 Charge Densities

Definition (Volume Charge Density).

$$\rho \left[\frac{\text{C}}{\text{m}^3} \right] \implies q = \int_V \rho dV$$

Definition (Surface Charge Density).

$$\sigma \left[\frac{\text{C}}{\text{m}^2} \right] \implies q = \int_S \sigma dS$$

Definition (Linear Charge Density).

$$\lambda \left[\frac{\text{C}}{\text{m}} \right] \implies q = \int_{\ell} \lambda d\ell$$

1.9 Electric Field

Per *Coulomb's Law*, we can build a “force field” by a single charge q_1 :

$$\vec{F}(\vec{r}_0) = \frac{kq_0q_1}{|\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}_1|^2} \hat{r}_{0,1}$$

Where q_0 is a *test charge* at any point in space. From this, we can build an *electric field*:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}_0) = \frac{\vec{F}(\vec{r}_0)}{q_0} = \frac{kq_1}{|\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}_1|^2} \hat{r}_{0,1}$$

Or in general:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}_0) = \frac{\vec{F}(\vec{r}_0)}{q_0} = \sum_i \frac{kq_i}{|\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}_i|^2} \hat{r}_{0,i}$$

Example 1.9.1. Suppose we have a charged two-dimensional disk on the xy -plane with radius R and *charge density* σ (constant). What is the *electric field* on the z -axis?

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E}(z) &= \int \frac{k\sigma ds'}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|^2} \hat{r}_{0,i} \quad \hat{r}_{0,i} = \frac{\vec{r} - \vec{r}'}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \implies \\ \vec{E}(z) &= \int k \frac{\sigma(\vec{r} - \vec{r}') ds'}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|^3} \\ \vec{r}(0, 0, z) \quad \vec{r}'(r' \cos(\phi'), r' \sin(\phi'), 0) \\ 0 \leq r' \leq R \quad 0 \leq \phi' \leq 2\pi \\ \vec{r} - \vec{r}' &= (-r' \cos(\phi'), -r' \sin(\phi'), z) \\ |\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|^3 &= (r'^2 + z^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \\ ds' &= r' dr' d\phi' \\ \vec{E}(z) &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R \frac{k\sigma}{(r'^2 + z^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \cdot (-r' \cos \phi', -r' \sin \phi', z) \cdot r' dr' d\phi' \\ &= 2\pi k\sigma z \int_0^R \frac{r' dr'}{(r'^2 + z^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \\ \vec{E}(z) &= 2\pi k\sigma z \hat{z} \cdot \left. \frac{-1}{\sqrt{r'^2 + z^2}} \right|_0^R = \left(2\pi k\sigma - \frac{2\pi k\sigma z}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2}} \right) \hat{z} \\ \boxed{\vec{E}(z \rightarrow 0) &= 2\pi k\sigma \hat{z}} \end{aligned}$$

Which is the *electric field* for an infinite plane.

$$\begin{aligned} z &\gg R \\ \vec{E}(z) &\approx 2\pi k\sigma \left(1 - \left(-\frac{R^2}{2z^2} \right) \right) \hat{z} = \frac{\pi R^2 k\sigma}{z^2} \hat{z} = \frac{kq}{z^2} \hat{z} \end{aligned}$$

Which is reminiscent of *Coulomb's law*, which makes sense intuitively, for something with a finite radius from very far away appears and behaves point-like.

1.10 Gauss's Law

Where Φ is the *electric flux* through a closed surface S :

$$\Phi = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{q}{\varepsilon_0} = 4\pi k \cdot q$$

This expresses that in order to find the *flux* on a closed surface, we only need to know how much charge is within the surface, regardless of the shape of the surface and the charges outside the surface.

$$\boxed{\oint \vec{E} d\vec{S} = \frac{q}{\varepsilon_0}} \quad (\text{Integral Form})$$

Gauss's law is useful because it allows us to choose whatever surface we would like, namely a sphere, and to take advantage of its symmetries, in order to simplify our calculations.

1.10.1 Charged sphere without thickness of radius a

$$\vec{E}(r) = \begin{cases} 0 & r < a \\ \frac{kq}{r^2} \hat{r} & a > r \end{cases} \quad q = 4\pi a^2 \sigma$$

1.10.2 Differential form of Gauss's Law

$$\oiint \vec{E} d\vec{S} = \frac{q}{\varepsilon_0} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_0} \iiint \rho dV$$

We can use *Gauss's theorem (divergence theorem)*, which states:

$$\oiint_{S(\sigma)} \vec{E} ds = \iiint_{\sigma} \nabla \cdot \vec{E} dV$$

which provides:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \nabla \cdot \vec{E} dV &= \int \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0} dV \\ \Rightarrow \quad &\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0}} \end{aligned}$$