

Classical Electrodynamics

Lecture Series (Course MSPHY 201)

By

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Lecture 01:

Introduction:

If we look around, all kinds of processes that are happening can be traced to be due to four fundamental interactions. These interactions are strong and weak, dominant in subatomic world and electromagnetic plus gravitational which dictate almost all phenomena at macroscopic level. Most of the phenomena that we directly interact are electromagnetic in origin. Ordinary pull or push, normal reaction on a book resting on a table, friction experienced by a rolling object, tension in a rope that pulls a cart, forces generated by our muscles are all electromagnetic in origin. Understanding of electromagnetic interactions between current and charge distributions and their behaviour in the presence of fields is technically called Classical Electrodynamics.

At deeper level classical electrodynamics is unified theory of electricity, magnetism and optics which was shaped by Carl Maxwell through his beautiful equations famously called Maxwell's equations of electrodynamics. The impact of this theory was immense on future developments in theoretical physics. Modern theories of physics like QFT, QCD and even string theories (An attempt of a unified theory of everything) are actually extensions of classical electrodynamics.

We start with brief introduction of electrostatics. Initially electrostatics, magnetism and optics were separate subjects besides thermodynamics and mechanics. It was Maxwell's genius that we were able to crack symmetry and could understand nature in a better way.

Electrostatics (A brief introduction) : We begin with Coulomb's law, experiments at classical level reveal that the force between static charge distributions can be understood if we assume force between two charged particles is directly proportional to product of charges between the particles and inversely related with square of displacement between them. This statement is called Coulomb's law. Further it is also assumed that forces occur pairwise (superposition principle). Mathematically we express this fact through the following equation

$$F(r) = \frac{qq'(r - r')}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |r - r'|^3}$$
$$= \frac{-qq'}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \nabla \left(\frac{1}{|r - r'|} \right)$$

Where ' q ' and ' q' ' are two point charges separated by displacement vector $(r - r')$. The above equation is expressed in terms of system of international units. The main drawback of the above expression of force is that the interaction is instantaneous and is action at a distance statement. This feature is ugly in any kind of theoretical structure as it implies instantaneous transfer of information (something that seems absurd). The problem of action

at a distance is addressed by introducing the concept of field. Fields fill empty space between the charges and make interaction between two bodies local .i.e the test charges are locally influenced by fields created by source charges. Initially Fields were introduced to make interaction local as mathematical concepts but with progress of our understanding fields turned out to be physical entities expressing physical reality of our universe. Today we understand everything in terms of fields, even mass is due to a field called Higgs.

Electrostatic interaction is expressed in terms of a vector field called electric field as

$$\begin{aligned} E(r) &= \frac{q'(r - r')}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |r - r'|^3} \\ &= \frac{-q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \nabla \left(\frac{1}{|r - r'|} \right) = \frac{-q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \nabla' \left(\frac{1}{|r - r'|} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

In the presence of several source charges, the net field is vector sum of fields due to individual charges. We write

$$E(r) = \sum_i \frac{q'_i(r - r'_i)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |r - r'_i|^3} \quad (2)$$

In case of continuous charge distribution, we introduce electric charge density “ ρ ” located at r' within volume V' . Then the field for this kind of distribution is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} E(r) &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} d^3r' \rho(r') \frac{r - r'}{|r - r'|^3} \\ &= -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} d^3r' \rho(r') \nabla \left(\frac{1}{|r - r'|} \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \nabla \int_{V'} d^3r' \frac{\rho(r')}{|r - r'|} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

The above expression for any distribution of charges including discrete charges for which we use Dirac delta distribution

$$\rho(r') = \sum_i q'_i \delta(r' - r'_i) \quad (4)$$

If we insert equation (4) in equation (3), we recover equation (2). Now for the general expression of electric field defined through equation (3), we take divergence and use property of Dirac delta function, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla \cdot E(r) &= \nabla \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} d^3r' \rho(r') \frac{r - r'}{|r - r'|^3} \\
&= -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} d^3r' \rho(r') \nabla \cdot \nabla \left(\frac{1}{r - r'} \right) \\
&= -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} d^3r' \rho(r') \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r - r'} \right) \\
&= -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int_{V'} d^3r' \rho(r') \delta(r - r')
\end{aligned}$$

$$\nabla \cdot E(r) = \frac{\rho(r)}{\epsilon_0} \quad (5)$$

Equation (5) is differential form of Gauss law in electrostatics. Since curl of divergence is zero for any field in R^3 (three dimensional), we can easily write down

$$\nabla \times E(r) = 0 \quad (6)$$

Thus we prove that electrostatic field is irrotational. A curl less field represents conservative nature of force which defines the field.

Electrostatics can completely be described by two vector partial differential equations (5) and (6). These represent four scalar equations. Since curl of electric field vanishes, because in equation (3), we expressed electric field in terms of divergence of scalar function. We name this scalar function as scalar potential and express it by V . Hence we write

$$E(r) = -\nabla V \quad (7)$$

Inserting equation (7) in (6), we obtain

$$\nabla^2 V = \frac{-\rho(r)}{\epsilon_0} \quad (8)$$

This second order differential equation turns out to be master equation of electrostatics called Poisson's equation. In regions devoid of charges, this equation reduces to Laplace equation given as

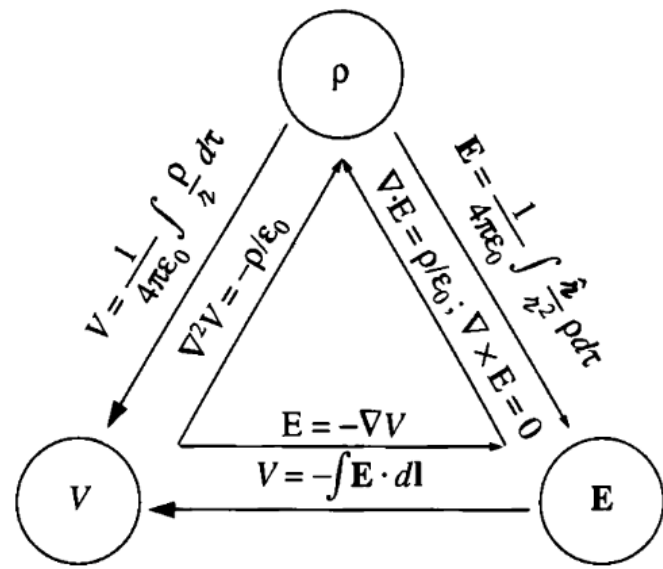
$$\nabla^2 V = 0 \quad (9)$$

In the next lecture we will discuss electrostatic boundary conditions.

Lecture 02: Electrostatic Boundary conditions

Normally the problem of electrostatics is that we have some given charge distribution $\rho(r)$ and our job is to calculate Electric field due to this static distribution. The approach is to first look for symmetry that might allow to implement Gauss's law. If we can figure out a simple symmetric Gaussian surface then we generally adopt procedure to calculate potential first as intermediate step.

Thus there are three fundamental quantities $\rho(r)$, $\mathbf{E}$ and V . There are six relations that relate these quantities depicted by this triangle which originate from consideration of Coulomb's law and the principle of superposition - the fundamental building blocks of electrostatics.

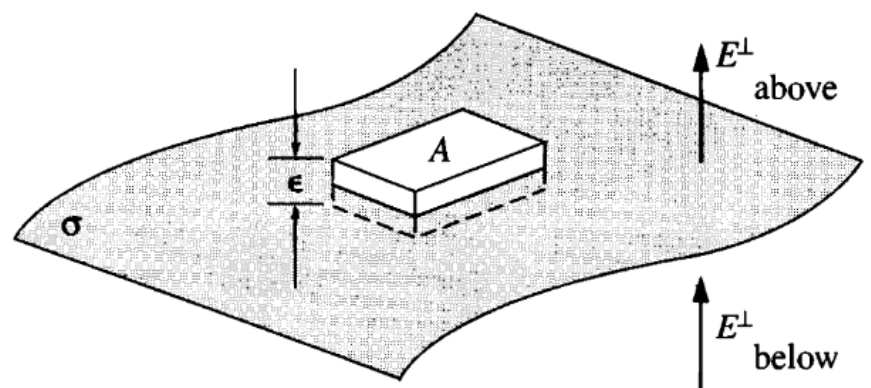


In the light of relations described in the above triangle it is very easy to obtain variation of $\mathbf{E}$ field across and parallel to a boundary sprayed with surface charge density σ as shown in the figure given below. We draw a pillbox extending just across the surface. Now we write

$$\oint_s \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\sigma A}{\epsilon_0} \quad \dots\dots\dots (10)$$

“A” is the area of pillbox lid. Since the sides of pillbox contribute nothing to the flux and in the limit as thickness $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, we retain

$$E_{above}^\perp - E_{below}^\perp = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \quad \dots\dots\dots (11)$$



From equation (11) we conclude that the normal component of “ $\mathbf{E}$ ” is discontinuous by an amount $\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$ at any boundary. In case there are no surface charges, then $\mathbf{E}$ field would be continuous.

The tangential component will always be continuous due to the fact that $\mathbf{E}$ - field is conservative and follows

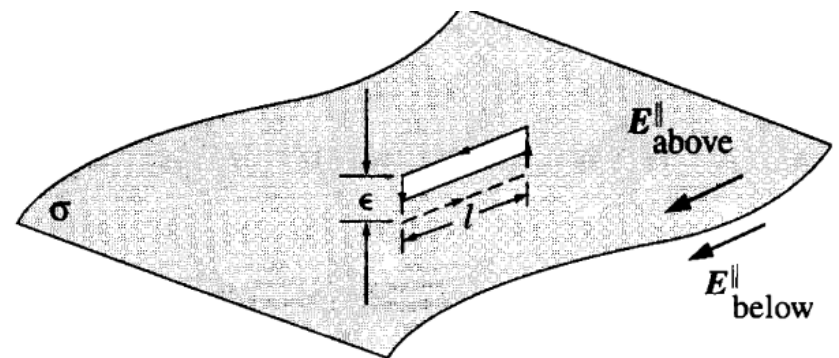
$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \quad (12)$$

To prove the continuity of tangential component of “E”, draw a rectangular loop of very small width tending to zero as shown in figure. Implementing equation (12), we obtain

$$E_{above}^{\parallel} = E_{below}^{\parallel} \quad \dots\dots\dots (13)$$

The boundary conditions on “E” can be combined into a single formula.

$$E_{above} - E_{below} = \frac{\sigma \hat{n}}{\epsilon_0} \quad \dots\dots\dots (14)$$



Potential difference can be written as

$$V_{above} - V_{below} = - \int_a^b \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \quad (15)$$

The internal will vanish as path length shrinks to zero, thus

$$V_{above} = V_{below} \quad (16)$$

Gradient of V will be discontinuous in accordance with equation (10), we write

$$\nabla V_{above} - \nabla V_{below} = - \frac{\sigma \hat{n}}{\epsilon_0} \quad (17)$$

Thus what we have understood so far is that if a static charge distribution is given, we may discover some symmetry in the distribution which would allow us to exploit Gauss law and in case we could not solve the problem we will try to calculate potential first and workout field. We do come across problems where even this step is challenging for instance problems involving conductor ρ itself may not be known in advance as for conductors charge can freely move around so one can only control net charge of a conductor. In these problems the differential form of potential (Poisson equation) together with appropriate boundary conditions allows us to evaluate the potential field and thus address complicated problems of electrostatics.

Laplace equation:

If we distribute charge in some region but are interested to look at potential where no charges are present, Poisson equation reduces to Laplace equation given by

$$\nabla^2 V = 0 : \quad (19)$$

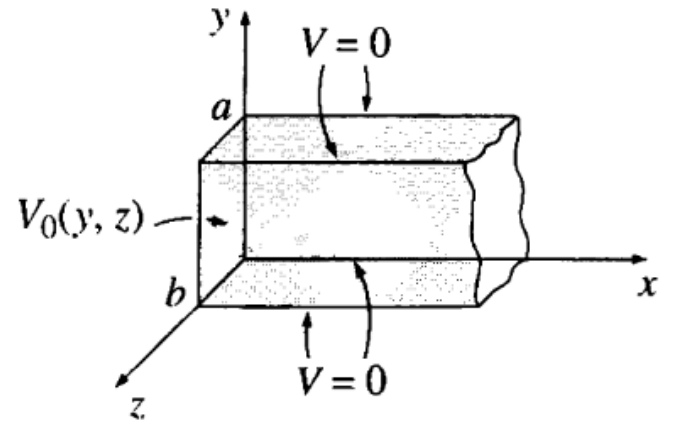
Problem 1: (D J Griffith- 3rd edition)

An infinitely long rectangular metal pipe (sides a and b) is grounded, but one end, at $x=0$, is maintained at a specified potential $V_0(x, y)$, as indicated in figure. Find the potential inside the pipe.

Solution :

This is a three dimensional problem with Cartesian symmetry, therefore we attempt to solve the problem in Cartesian coordinates. Writing Laplace equation in Cartesian form, we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial^2 x} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial^2 y} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial^2 z} = 0 \quad (20)$$



The given problem is subjected to following boundary conditions

- i. $V = 0$ When $y = 0$
- ii. $V = 0$ When $y = a$
- iii. $V = 0$ When $z = 0$
- iv. $V = 0$ When $z = b$
- v. $V \rightarrow 0$ When $x \rightarrow \infty$
- vi. $V = V_0(y, z)$ When $x = 0$

In order to solve the given problem we look for solutions that satisfy the product assumption

$$V(x, y, z) = X(x)Y(y)Z(z) \quad (21)$$

Substituting (21) in (20) and dividing by V , we get

$$\frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial^2 x} + \frac{1}{Y} \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial^2 y} + \frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial^2 z} = 0 \quad (22)$$

All terms in the above equation are functions of one independent variable. Therefore the only way the above equation makes sense is that each term is individually equal to some constant and all the three constants sum up to zero. We say,

$$\frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial^2 x} = C_1, \frac{1}{Y} \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial^2 y} = C_2, \frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial^2 z} = C_3 \quad (23)$$

With

$$C_1 + C_2 + C_3 = 0. \quad (24)$$

Now the problem is that one may think that we can choose these constants arbitrarily positive and negative to satisfy equation (24) but one has to be careful because our solution has to satisfy boundary conditions, therefore we try many combinations and it turns out that following choice is proper recipe

$$C_2 = -k^2, C_3 = -l^2 \text{ which fixes } C_1 = k^2 + l^2 \text{ and hence}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial^2 x} = (k^2 + l^2)X, \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial^2 y} = -k^2 Y, \frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial^2 z} = -l^2 Z \quad (25)$$

With the help of separation of variables, we have converted three dimensional partial differential equation into three one dimensional ordinary differential equations. Solving ordinary differential equations is straight forward and procedures are well understood.

Solving three equations in (25) independently we have following solutions

$$X(x) = Ae^{\sqrt{k^2 + l^2}x} + Be^{-\sqrt{k^2 + l^2}x}$$

$$Y(y) = C \sin ky + D \cos ky$$

$$Z(z) = E \sin lz + F \cos lz$$

Implementing boundary conditions from (i) to (iv), requires $A = 0, D = 0, F = 0$ and

$k = \frac{n\pi}{a}$ and $l = \frac{m\pi}{b}$, where n and m are positive integers. Combing the remaining constants, we are left with

$$V(x, y, z) = Ce^{-\pi \sqrt{(\frac{n}{a})^2 + (\frac{m}{b})^2}x} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi z}{b}\right) \quad (26)$$

The above solution meets all boundary conditions except last one. General solution can be expressed as double sum over n, m as

$$V(x, y, z) = \sum_n \sum_m C_{n,m} e^{-\pi \sqrt{(\frac{n}{a})^2 + (\frac{m}{b})^2} x} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi z}{b}\right) \quad (27)$$

Coefficients $C_{n,m}$ can be determined by multiplying above equation (27) by $\sin\left(\frac{n'\pi y}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m'\pi z}{b}\right)$, and implementing last boundary condition. On integrating both sides we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_n \sum_m C_{n,m} \int_0^a \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n'\pi y}{a}\right) dy \int_0^b \sin\left(\frac{m\pi z}{b}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m'\pi z}{b}\right) dz \\ = \int_0^a \int_0^b V_0(y, z) \sin\left(\frac{n'\pi y}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m'\pi z}{b}\right) dy dz \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

Evaluating, we obtain

$$C_{n,m} = \frac{4}{ab} \int_0^a \int_0^b V_0(y, z) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi z}{b}\right) dy dz \quad (29)$$

Further, the above integral takes zero value for even n and m and for odd values integrals converge to $\frac{16V_0}{\pi^2 nm}$, thus we obtain final solution as

$$V(x, y, z) = \frac{16V_0}{\pi^2} \sum_{n,m=1,3,5..} \frac{1}{nm} e^{-\pi \sqrt{(\frac{n}{a})^2 + (\frac{m}{b})^2} x} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi z}{b}\right) \quad (30)$$

Successive terms decrease rapidly, a good approximation can be obtained by keeping first few terms only.

Home Assignment 1:

Write Mathematica code for visualisation of equation (30). Compare approximate solutions.

