Charge and the electric field

About 200 years ago, people noticed that *charged* objects exerted a force on each other.



The force was observed to be:

- 1. Directed along a line between the two objects
- 2. Proportional to the product of the charges Qq

3. Proportional to the *inverse square* of the distance between them

We can write the force as a <u>vector</u>. In the coordinate system centred on the positive charge, we have

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{Qq}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

The *electric charge* is measured in *Coulombs* C.

 $\varepsilon_0$  is an experimentally-measured number, called the vacuum *permittivity*:

 $\varepsilon_0 = 8.854188 \times 10^{-12} \mathrm{A}^2 \mathrm{s}^2 / \mathrm{N} / \mathrm{m}^2$ 

The current understanding<sup>\*</sup> is that small electric *charges* emit a *vector field*. This field in turn exerts a force on other charges.



The electric field from a charge Q is

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

\*of classical theory; quantum theory has its own fields!

In 3D the electric field can look a bit more complicated:



Meanwhile, each of the other charges emits its own contribution to the field.



$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{\varphi_1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{1}}{|\mathbf{r}_1|^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}_1} + \frac{\varphi_2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{1}}{|\mathbf{r}_2|^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}_2}$$

We consider a single "point charge" charge q, centred at the origin. The E field is

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

We now compute the *flux integral* of **E** over a spherical surface of radius R:



The resulting integral does not depend on the radius, or (it turns out) on the shape of the surface. In general we have

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{S} = \frac{Q_{\mathrm{enc}}}{\varepsilon_0}$$

where S is *any surface enclosing the charge*.

What happens when we apply the divergence theorem?



So we have found

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{S} = \iiint_{V} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) \,\mathrm{d}V = \frac{Q_{\mathrm{enc}}}{\varepsilon_{0}}$$

But we can write the total enclosed charge in terms of the *charge density*  $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ :

The only way this works for any volume V is if

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r})}{\varepsilon_0}$$

This is known as *Coulomb's law* and it is the first of Maxwell's equations.

What does Coulomb's law tell us?

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r})}{\varepsilon_0}$$

1. Positive charge is a *source* of electric field, while negative charge is a *sink*.



2. The flux integral

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{S} = \frac{Q_{\mathrm{enc}}}{\varepsilon_0}$$

only depends on the enclosed charge – charges outside the surface do not contribute anything.

Example: Compute the electric field for a sphere of radius R, having a uniform charge density  $\rho$ .

Example: A continuous line of charge can be represented by a *line charge density (charge per unit length)*  $\lambda(\mathbf{r})$ . Compute the Electric field for an infinite line charge aligned along the z axis.

What about the <u>curl</u> of the electric field?

| onsider the field from a point charge:                                |   |  |
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So the Electric field is irrotational:

 $abla imes \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{0}$ 

We can therefore express it as the gradient of a potential function:

By convention

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V$$

where V is known as the electrostatic potential. Taking the divergence leads to

$$\nabla \cdot (-\nabla V) = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

## Electric current and the magnetic field

## An electric current is a moving line of charges, in which positive and negative charges are moving continuously in opposite directions



## Observation: electric currents exert forces on each other



The force per unit length is

- 1. Directed along a line between the two currents
- 2. Proportional to the product of the currents  $I_1I_2$

3. *Inversely proportional* to the distance between them

Each current emits a magnetic field B, which circles around the z-axis:



$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \frac{I_1}{r} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

And the resulting force per unit length on *another current is* 

$$\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{I_2} \times \mathbf{B}$$

The constant  $\mu_0$  can be measured experimentally, and is called the *vacuum permeability* 

$$\mu_0 = 1.256637 \times 10^{-6} \mathrm{N/A}^2$$

We now take the vector line integral of

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \frac{I_1}{r} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

along a loop of radius R enclosing the wire:





So

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{r} = \mu_0 I_{\mathrm{enc}}$$

Where  $I_{enc}$  is the enclosed charge. Note that this does not depend on the radius of the loop.

By Stokes' theorem

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times B \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{S} = \mu_0 I_{\mathrm{enc}}$$



But we can also write the current in terms of *the current density* J(r):

$$I_{
m enc} = \iint_S \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{S}$$

Therefore:

We have found an expression for the curl of the magnetic field:



We therefore have the following equations for the magnetic field:

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

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

Maxwell's equations

What have we found so far?

For the electric field

For the magnetic field

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r})}{\varepsilon_0} \qquad \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

 $abla imes \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{0}$   $abla imes \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J}$ 

The constants  $\varepsilon_0$  and  $\mu_0$  are well established from the measurement of optical forces on charges and currents:

$$\mu_0 = 1.256637 \times 10^{-6} \text{N/A}^2$$
$$\varepsilon_0 = 8.854188 \times 10^{-12} \text{A}^2 \text{s}^2/\text{N/m}^2$$

Experiments by Faraday showed that a *changing magnetic field* Produced a force that acted in *exactly the same way as an electric field*.



This showed that the electric field and the magnetic field were *coupled together*:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

That is: *a changing magnetic field causes rotation of the electric field* 

These equations now look unbalanced.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r})}{\varepsilon_0} \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \qquad \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J}$$

In 1873, Maxwell proposed a modification of the curl equation for the magnetic field

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

What are the consequences of this?



## Maxwell's equations:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r})}{\varepsilon_0} \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \qquad \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

Consider an electric and magnetic field pair in free space, So that  $\rho = 0$  and J = 0 everywhere. Maxwell's equations are

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0 \qquad \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \qquad \qquad \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

Take the curl of the third equation:

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \mu_0 \varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

This is a *wave equation* (we will do this in a few weeks).

It has solutions which are waves with a velocity

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \varepsilon_0}} \qquad \qquad \mu_0 = 1.256637 \times 10^{-6} \text{N/A}^2$$
$$\varepsilon_0 = 8.854188 \times 10^{-12} \text{A}^2 \text{s}^2/\text{N/m}^2$$

Plot of E-field of an electromagnetic plane wave:

