

I Electrostatics and magnetostatics

①

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \rho$$

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

and

$$\vec{F} = q[\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B}]$$

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

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t} + \vec{J}$$

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{B}$$

②

Static is defined by

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \vec{J}}{\partial t} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0.$$

For consistency we require the statement of charge conservation to be

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$$

③ Thus, we have.

Electrostatics

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \rho$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0$$

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E}$$

Magnetostatics

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

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \vec{J}$$

$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{B}$$

$$(\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0)$$

$\rightarrow \vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$  are decoupled.

## II Uniqueness of solutions in electrostatics

① Maxwell's equations for electrostatics are.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\epsilon_0 \vec{E}) = \rho$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} \phi$$

② Together, they read

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot [\epsilon_0 \vec{\nabla} \phi] = \rho$$

③ What about boundary conditions? Let us show that  $\vec{E} = 0$ , at  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , is sufficient condition to require unique boundary conditions.

④ We shall prove this by contradiction. Let  $\vec{E}_1$  and  $\vec{E}_2$  be distinct (the non-unique) solutions,

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \epsilon_0 \vec{E}_1 = \rho \qquad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \epsilon_0 \vec{E}_2 = \rho$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}_1 = 0 \qquad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}_2 = 0$$

⑤ Subtracting the equations gives.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \epsilon_0 (\vec{E}_1 - \vec{E}_2) = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{E}_1 - \vec{E}_2) = 0$$

⑥ Let  $\vec{E} = \vec{E}_1 - \vec{E}_2$   $\epsilon_0$  is position independent.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{7} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) &= \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E} \\ &\quad \downarrow = 0 \qquad \qquad \downarrow = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow \nabla^2 \vec{E} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

⑧ Let us consider one of the components  
 $\nabla^2 E_x = 0$   
 $E_x \nabla^2 E_x = 0$   
 (since  $\vec{E}_1$  &  $\vec{E}_2$  are distinct assumed to be  $E_x$  is not zero.)

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} \cdot (E_x \vec{\nabla} E_x) - (\vec{\nabla} E_x)^2 &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \left( \frac{1}{2} E_x^2 \right) - (\vec{\nabla} E_x)^2 &= 0 \\ \int_{V=\text{sph}} d^3x \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \left( \frac{1}{2} E_x^2 \right) - \int d^3x (\vec{\nabla} E_x)^2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$4\pi R^2 \frac{d}{dR} \left( \frac{1}{2} E_x^2 \right) - \int d^3x (\vec{\nabla} E_x)^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dR} \left( \frac{1}{2} E_x^2 \right) - \frac{1}{4\pi R^2} \int d^3x (\vec{\nabla} E_x)^2 = 0$$

$$\int_0^\infty dR \frac{d}{dR} \frac{1}{2} E_x^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^\infty dR \frac{1}{R^2} \int d^3x (\vec{\nabla} E_x)^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2} E_x^2 \Big|_{\text{at } R=\infty} - \frac{1}{2} E_x^2 \Big|_{\text{at } R=0} - \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^\infty dR \frac{1}{R^2} \int d^3x (\vec{\nabla} E_x)^2 = 0$$

⑨ If  $E_x$  at  $R \rightarrow \infty$  is 0, then two positive quantities can be zero only if each is zero.

Thus,

(i)  $E_x(0) = 0$

(ii)  $\vec{\nabla} E_x = 0$ , everywhere.

⑩ Since, our choice of origin of sphere was arbitrary, we also have  $E_x(0)$ , everywhere.

⑪ Thus, we have contradicted the first assumption  $\vec{E} = \vec{E}_1 - \vec{E}_2 = 0$ ,

which implies that solution to electrostatics is unique.

→ Also refer to problems in Schwinger et al., chapter 1.

### III Earnshaw's Theorem

①  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \epsilon_0 \vec{E} = \rho$   
 $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0$

② Let us investigate if the electric field created by  $\rho$  at another point ( $\rho=0$ ) can stabilize a charge.

③ In the region where  $\rho=0$  we have.

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$   
 $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0$

④  $\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E}$   
 $\hookrightarrow = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \nabla^2 \vec{E} = 0$

⑤  $f(x)$ ,  $\frac{d}{dx} f = 0$ ,  $\frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \begin{cases} > 0 & \text{minima} \\ < 0 & \text{maxima} \\ = 0 & \text{saddle pt.} \end{cases}$

⑥ Since each component of  $\vec{E}$  satisfies  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$ , we can not have stability.

- ⑦ Seemingly contradictory examples:
- Levitron  $\rightarrow$  spinning top (not static)
  - Levitating frog (diamagnetism)
  - Levitating magnet near surfaces (presence of boundaries)
  - Can Stark effect stabilize ions (see work in Univ of Oklahoma Physics department.)

## IV Potential for a point charge.

- ① Charge density for a point charge is

$$\rho(\vec{r}) = q \delta^{(3)}(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a)$$

$\vec{r}$  - space variable  
 $\vec{r}_a$  - position of charge.

- ② From electrostatic Maxwell's equation we have

$$-\nabla^2 \phi(\vec{r}) = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \delta^{(3)}(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a)$$

- ③ Fourier transformation in 1-D.

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dk}{2\pi} e^{ikx} \tilde{f}(k)$$

$$\tilde{f}(k) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx e^{-ikx} f(x)$$

$$\delta(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dk}{2\pi} e^{ikx} \cdot 1.$$

$$1 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx e^{-ikx} \delta(x).$$

- ④ Let (generalizing it to 3-D)

$$\phi(\vec{r}) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a)} \tilde{\phi}(\vec{k})$$

- ⑤ Using ④ in ②

$$k^2 \tilde{\phi}(\vec{k}) = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$


$$\tilde{\phi}(\vec{k}) = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{k^2}$$

$\rightarrow \vec{\nabla} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{R}} = i\vec{k} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{R}}$   
 $\rightarrow e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{R}}$  forms a complete set.

⑥

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi(\vec{r}) &= \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a)} \tilde{\phi}(\vec{k}) \\
&= \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a)} \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{k^2} \\
&= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty k^2 dk \int_0^\pi \sin\theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi e^{ikR \cos\theta} \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{k^2} \\
&= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty dk \int_0^\pi \sin\theta d\theta e^{ikR \cos\theta} 2\pi \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \\
&= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty dk \int_{-1}^1 dt e^{ikRt} \\
&= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty dk \frac{1}{ikR} (e^{ikR} - e^{-ikR}) \\
&= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{dk}{kR} \sin kR \\
&= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{R} \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \sin x \\
&= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{R} \\
&= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a|}
\end{aligned}$$

$\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a = \vec{R}$   
 choose  $\vec{R}$  along  
 the z-direction.

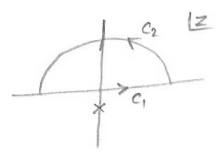


$t = \cos\theta$   
 $dt = -\sin\theta d\theta$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \sin x = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

(7) 
$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x+ie} e^{ix}$$

Consider the complex integral  $\int_C \frac{dz}{z+ie} e^{iz}$



$\epsilon > 0$  :

$$\int_{c_1} \frac{dx}{x+ie} e^{ix} + \int_{c_2} \frac{dz}{z+ie} e^{iz} = 0$$

$$I + \int_0^\pi \frac{iR e^{i\theta} d\theta}{(R e^{i\theta} + i\epsilon)} e^{iR \cos\theta - R \sin\theta} = 0$$

for large R we have

$$I + \int_0^\pi \frac{id\theta}{1} e^{-R \sin\theta} = 0$$

$\rightarrow 0$

$I = 0$

$\epsilon < 0$  : Pole contributes and we will get

$$I = 2\pi i e^\epsilon$$

Thus we have

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x+ie} e^{ix} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \epsilon > 0 \\ 2\pi i e^\epsilon & \text{if } \epsilon < 0 \end{cases}$$

(8) Taking the complex conjugate we have

$$I^* = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x-ie} e^{-ix} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \epsilon > 0 \\ -2\pi i e^\epsilon & \text{if } \epsilon < 0 \end{cases}$$



9 Using 8 we can conclude, by switching the sign

of  $\epsilon$ ,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x+i\epsilon} e^{-ix} = \begin{cases} -2\pi i e^{-\epsilon} & \text{if } \epsilon > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \epsilon < 0 \end{cases}$$

10 Together we have.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x+i\epsilon} e^{ix} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \epsilon > 0 \\ 2\pi i e^{\epsilon} & \text{if } \epsilon < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x+i\epsilon} e^{-ix} = \begin{cases} -2\pi i e^{-\epsilon} & \text{if } \epsilon > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \epsilon < 0 \end{cases}$$

11 Subtracting the two expressions we have.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x+i\epsilon} (e^{ix} - e^{-ix}) = \begin{cases} 2\pi i e^{\epsilon} & \text{if } \epsilon > 0 \\ 2\pi i e^{\epsilon} & \text{if } \epsilon < 0 \end{cases}$$

We can get rid of the  $\epsilon$  dependence now by taking the limit  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x} (e^{ix} - e^{-ix}) = 2\pi i, \text{ everywhere.}$$

12 Thus,  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x} \sin x = \pi$