

Lecture 5. Poisson's and Laplace's equations. The curl of $\underline{E}$.

Last time:

① Gauss's law in differential form:

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho \quad \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{give me } \underline{E} \text{ \& I can calculate } \rho \\ \rightarrow \text{Eq \# 1 from Maxwell's equations} \end{array}$$

Easy way to go from $\underline{E}$ to the charge distrib that created it.

② Electric potential

$$\varphi(r) = - \int_{\infty}^r \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} \quad \text{work done to move a unit charge from } \infty \text{ to point } r$$

$$\underline{E} = -\nabla \varphi \quad \text{it's a scalar, much easier to work with than } \underline{E}.$$

Today: Deep dive on applications of vector calculus to electrostatics
(i.e. the math needed to describe the physics)

Electrostatics $\rightarrow$ find $\underline{E}$ of a given stationary charge distribution

charges
DON'T
move

How do we do this?

$$\underline{E}(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(r')}{r^2} dV \quad \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{ugly integrals} \\ \rightarrow \text{sometimes can be solved by applying Gauss's law} \\ \text{ONLY when the problem has symmetries.} \end{array}$$

Strategy we learnt last class:

$$\varphi(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{1}{r} \rho(r') dV \quad \text{we defined a scalar potential}$$

advantage: scalar function

disadvantages: integrals are still ugly

what happens if we don't know ρ in advance? conductors (next week) charge is free to move

Another helpful strategy: Recast the problem in differential form

We start with Gauss's law in differential form:

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho$$

and use our definition of potential:

$$\underline{E} = -\nabla \varphi$$

Then:

$$\nabla \cdot (-\nabla \varphi) = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^2 \varphi = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho} \quad \text{Poisson's equation}$$

In regions where there is no charge this reduces to:

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 \varphi = 0} \quad \text{Laplace's equation}$$

Let's take a step back. The Laplacian operator

if we go back to the definition of the "del" operator (lecture 1)

$$\nabla \equiv \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \nabla f &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{z} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{y} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \hat{z} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) f \equiv \nabla^2 f \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 f \equiv \nabla \cdot \nabla f}$$

Laplacian operator "The divergence of a gradient"

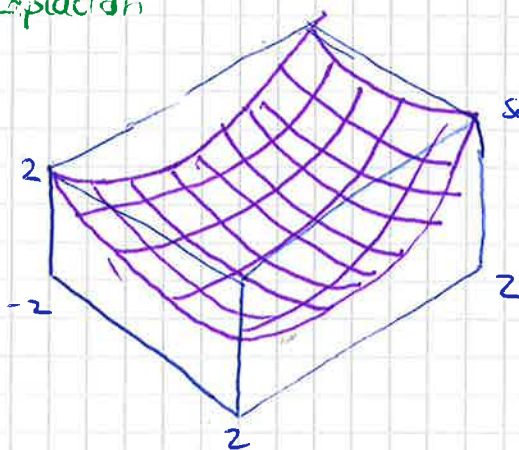
- second derivative
- gives the curvature of a function

Geometrical interpretation of the Laplacian

Consider $\varphi(x, y) = \frac{a}{4}(x^2 + y^2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \varphi &= \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \varphi \\ &= \frac{a}{4}(2+2) = a \end{aligned}$$

curvature of a function



beware of curvilinear coordinates where you might have some extra terms in the derivatives
See Purcell appendix F (F.1)

What does this mean in terms of Laplace's equation?

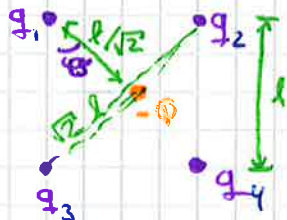
$\nabla^2 \varphi = 0 \Rightarrow$ If φ satisfies Laplace's eq, then its curvature must be zero everywhere in the region
 $\Rightarrow$ the potential has no local maxima or minima in that region.

What does this mean physically?

Earnshaw's theorem:

It's impossible to have a charge in stable equilibrium with electrostatic fields, (i.e. the potential has no minima)

Let's think about the problem from lecture 2: Find Q such that the ΣF @ the corner is zero



Is this system in stable equilibrium? Let's compute the energy

$$U = \frac{k}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

$$\text{where } k = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

$$= k \left[\frac{4(1-Q)q}{l\sqrt{2}} + \frac{4q^2}{l} + \frac{2q^2}{\sqrt{2}l} \right] = \frac{4\sqrt{2}q}{l} K \left(-Q + \frac{q}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{q}{4} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow Q = q \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \text{ which is what we found before.}$$

We found that

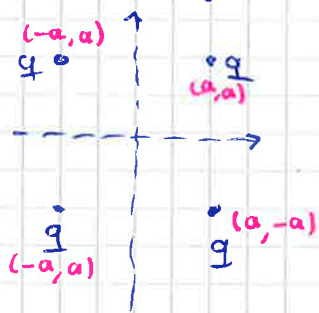
$$Q = q \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = 0.957q$$

for $\Sigma F = 0$ on the corner

$$|F| = k \left[\frac{2q^2}{l^2} \cos 45^\circ + \frac{q^2}{(\sqrt{2}l)^2} - \frac{qQ}{(l\sqrt{2})^2} \right] = 0$$

$$\therefore U = 0$$

But is this system in stable equilibrium?



where $k_1 = \frac{-Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$

$$V(x, y) = k_1 \left\{ \frac{1}{[(a-x)^2 + (a-y)^2]^{1/2}} + \frac{1}{[(a-x)^2 + (-a-y)^2]^{1/2}} + \frac{1}{[(-a-x)^2 + (a-y)^2]^{1/2}} + \frac{1}{[(-a-x)^2 + (-a-y)^2]^{1/2}} \right\}$$

distances from q 's to the point (x, y) are given by:

$$[(\pm a - x)^2 + (\pm a - y)^2]^{1/2}$$

then re-write this so I can Taylor expand it...

$$V(x, y) \approx \frac{-Qq}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \left(2\sqrt{2} + \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sqrt{2}a^2} \right)$$

the energy decreases with x & y , so the equilibrium is unstable for any direction of motion of $-q$ in the xy plane.



Did we need to go through this?

NO, just use Earnshaw's theorem.

Note on Laplace's equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 0$$

→ ubiquitous equation → 2D steady-state heat conduction

solutions to this eq. are called harmonic functions (we know that $1/r$ is a solution!)

- static deflection of a membrane
- irrotational flows
- electrostatic potential

In 1D:

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} = 0$$

has a general solution

$$\phi(x) = mx + b$$

ordinary differential eq.

where m & b are const and determined by the boundary conditions of the problem

example: $\phi(1) = 4$ and $\phi(5) = 0 \Rightarrow \phi(x) = -x + 5$



$\phi(x)$ is the average of $\phi(x+a)$ and $\phi(x-a)$ $\forall a$

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{2} [\phi(x+a) + \phi(x-a)]$$

assign $\phi(x)$ the average of the values to the left & right of it.

In 2D:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

partial differential eq.

It's not possible to write a general solution in closed form (i.e. doesn't have a simple analytical solution)

properties of the 1D eq. hold:

- value of ϕ at (x, y) is equal to the average value of ϕ around this point.

$$\phi(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi R} \oint \phi dl = \frac{1}{2\pi R} \oint \phi R d\theta$$

↳ path integral along a circle of arbitrary R centered at (x, y)

Demo ISS soap films

- ϕ has no local max or min, all extrema occur at the boundaries

- ↳ "no hills or valleys" just the smoothest possible surface.
- Minimizes the surface area spanning a given boundary

In 3D:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

No simple analytical solution or intuition for 3D

Properties of the solution in 1D & 2D still hold:

- Value of ψ at (x, y, z) is equal to the average value of ψ around this point

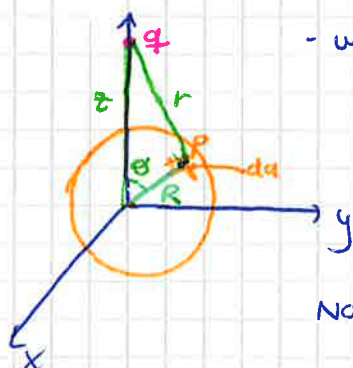
$$\psi(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{4\pi R^2} \oint_{\text{sphere}} \psi da = \frac{1}{4\pi R^2} \int_{\text{sphere}} \psi R^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

Surface integral is across the surface of a sphere of arbitrary radius centered at (x, y, z) with radius R .

- ψ has no local min or max. Extrema occur at the boundary.

We can prove the first property considering the electrostatic potential.

Let's calculate the electrostatic potential over a spherical surface of radius R due to a single charge located **outside** the sphere:



- we define our coord system such that q lies on the z axis and center the sphere at the origin.

- the potential generated by q felt at a pt. P on the surface:

$$\psi_P = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r} \quad \text{where } r \text{ is the distance between } q \text{ \& } P$$

Now using trig we can express r in terms of z , R and θ

$$r^2 = z^2 + R^2 - 2zR \cos \theta$$

$\Rightarrow$ potential at point P :

$$\psi_P = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{[z^2 + R^2 - 2zR \cos \theta]^{1/2}}$$

and we can obtain the average potential on the surface of the sphere by integrating ψ_P across the surface of the sphere:

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_{av} &= \frac{1}{4\pi R^2} \int_0^\pi \psi_P R^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = \frac{1}{4\pi R^2} \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_0^\pi [z^2 + R^2 - 2zR \cos \theta]^{-1/2} R^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \\ &= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{2zR} [z^2 + R^2 - 2zR \cos \theta]^{1/2} \Big|_0^\pi \\ &= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{2zR} [(z+R) - (z-R)] = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{z} \leftarrow \text{this is the same as the potential due to } q \text{ at the center of the sphere.} \end{aligned}$$

If we apply the principle of superposition we can see that the average ψ generated by a collection of pt charges is equal to the net potential they produce at the center of the sphere.

Example: Find the general solution to Laplace's equation in spherical coordinates for the case that ψ only depends on r

In spherical coord Laplace's eq becomes

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} = 0$$

$\psi = \psi(r)$

so Laplace's eq. reduces to:

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) = 0$$

if this derivative is zero $\Rightarrow r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r}$ is a constant

$$\Rightarrow r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} = K \text{ where } K \text{ is a constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} = \frac{K}{r^2} \Rightarrow d\psi = \int \frac{K}{r^2} dr$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi = -\frac{K}{r} + b \text{ where } b \text{ is a const}$$

if we follow the convention where $\psi(\infty) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(r) = -\frac{K}{r}$$

Boundary conditions & the uniqueness theorem

$\nabla^2 \psi = 0$ we need appropriate boundary conditions to determine ψ

First uniqueness theorem: The solution to Laplace's equation in some volume V is UNIQUELY determined if ψ is specified on the boundary surfaces.



ψ is specified at this surface

let's assume that there $\exists$ two solutions to Laplace's eq. that fulfill the specified value at their face.

$$\nabla^2 \psi_1 = 0, \nabla^2 \psi_2 = 0$$

$$\text{let } \psi_3 = \psi_1 - \psi_2$$

because ψ_1 & ψ_2 obey Laplace's eq

$$\Rightarrow \nabla^2 \psi_3 = \nabla^2 \psi_1 - \nabla^2 \psi_2 = 0$$

since ψ_1 & ψ_2 are equal at the boundary by construction

$$\Rightarrow \psi_3 = 0 \text{ at the boundary}$$

Because ψ_3 is a solution of Laplace's eq $\Rightarrow$ its min & max are located at the boundary $\Rightarrow$ max & min of ψ_3 are both zero $\Rightarrow \psi_3$ is zero everywhere

$$\Rightarrow \psi_1 = \psi_2$$

Why should I care about this?

It doesn't matter how you arrive at your solution if ψ :

- ψ satisfies Laplace's eq
- has the correct value at the boundaries $\Rightarrow$ it's the solution

such that the potential at the boundary location has the desired value.

Usefulness of this statement will become evident when using the method of images. we can replace a problem containing boundaries by one without a boundary but w/ additional charge added

First uniqueness theorem also applies to Poisson's equation! Throw in some charge & consider ϕ_1 & ϕ_2 both solutions to Poisson's eq:

$$\nabla^2 \phi_1 = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho, \quad \nabla^2 \phi_2 = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho$$

$$\text{Let } \phi_3 = \phi_1 - \phi_2 \Rightarrow \nabla^2 \phi_3 = \nabla^2 \phi_1 - \nabla^2 \phi_2 = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho + \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi_3 \text{ satisfies Laplace's equation}$$

I can make the same argument about the min & max of ϕ_3 located at the boundary & since ϕ_3 at the boundary is zero $\Rightarrow \phi_3$ is zero everywhere $\Rightarrow \phi_1 = \phi_2$

Corollary: The potential in a volume V is uniquely determined if:

- the charge density through the region and
- the value of ϕ on all boundaries are specified

Stokes theorem

Analogy of (the divergence theorem (From last lecture: $\int_V (\nabla \cdot \underline{v}) dV = \oint_S \underline{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$)

$$\boxed{\int_S (\nabla \times \underline{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \oint_P \underline{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}}$$

Relates a surface integral of a derivative (in this case the curl) with the value of the function at the boundary.

Geometrical interpretation:

What is the curl? $\rightarrow$ Measures the twist of vectors $\underline{v}$.



We can think of the $\int$ of the curl over a surface as the total amount of "swirl"

More precisely we know $\int_S \underline{f} \cdot d\mathbf{a} \equiv \Phi_f$ so in this case we have the "flux of the curl" over that surface.

What about the second term?

$\oint_P \underline{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$ This is called the **circulation**

"going around the edge & finding how much the flow is following the boundary."

We could picture the statement of Stokes theorem as:

$$\int_S (\nabla \times \underline{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \oint_P \underline{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

same boundary,
bigger surfaces

(soap bubble
analogy)

(balloon
analogy)

Corollary 1: $\int (\nabla \times \underline{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a}$ depends only on the boundary line, not particular surface used

Corollary 2: $\oint (\nabla \times \underline{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 0$ for a closed surface, since the boundary line shrinks to a point

Application of Stokes's theorem

Because $\underline{F}_e$ is conservative we have that

$$\oint \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} = 0 \quad (\text{Lecture 3}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \oint \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_S \nabla \times \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{q} = 0$$

↑
using Stokes's theorem

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla \times \underline{E} = 0} \quad \text{the curl of the electrostatic field is zero.}$$

are you surprised by this?

→ We used this implicitly, in our definition of potential

$$\oint \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} = 0 \Rightarrow \int \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} \text{ is path independent}$$

so we can define a potential ψ in an unambiguous manner $(\Delta\psi \equiv -\int_{\gamma}^P \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s})$
recall

→ Also in general we have that

$$\nabla \times (\nabla f) = 0$$

the curl of a gradient is zero

Distinguishing the Physics from the math

What have we learned so far? (Griffiths fig. 2.35)

