

Electric charge is a conserved quantity which can have either sign. We use a continuum approach, with an electric charge density $\rho(\mathbf{x}, t)$, so that the total charge in a volume V is

$$Q(t) = \int_V \rho(\mathbf{x}, t) dV \quad (1.2)$$

Flux of charge constitutes electric currents. A charge density ρ moving with velocity \mathbf{v} constitutes an electric current density, $\mathbf{j} = \rho \mathbf{v}$ (1.3). Note that because electrons can move relative to positively charged ions frequently a current density \mathbf{j} exists even though the net charge density $\rho = 0$. The current I flowing across an area A with unit normal $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is

$$I = \int_A \mathbf{j} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS \quad (1.4)$$

The conservation of charge is expressed by the **charge conservation law**

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0. \quad (1.5)$$

Charges and currents give rise to an electric field \mathbf{E} and a magnetic field \mathbf{B} . These quantities are related by **Maxwell's equations**, which in S.I. units are

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho/\varepsilon \quad (1.6)$$

$$\nabla \wedge \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad (1.7)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad (1.8)$$

$$\nabla \wedge \mathbf{B} = \mu \left(\mathbf{j} + \varepsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \right) \quad (1.9)$$

The equations include two physical quantities which are assumed constant for the medium in question, the permittivity ε and permeability μ . In a vacuum $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0 \simeq 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$ and $\mu = \mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$. The speed of light in a vacuum, c , is given by $c^2 \varepsilon_0 \mu_0 = 1$.

Notes: (1) (1.6) relates the total charge in a volume to the total electric field coming out (Gauss' Law) $Q = \varepsilon \oint \mathbf{E} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS$. (1.10)

(2) (1.7) is Faraday's Law of induction. Changing magnetic fields generate electric fields and potentials. If $\partial \mathbf{B} / \partial t = 0$, we have **electrostatics**, when we write

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla \phi(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla^2 \phi = -\rho/\varepsilon \quad (1.11)$$

(3) The lack of a RHS in (1.8) means there are no "magnetic charges" (or monopoles). Magnetic dipoles exist, however (think of a little bar magnet)

(4) The last term in (1.9) is called the **displacement current** and in many circumstances it can be neglected, as it is a relativistic correction. $\nabla \wedge \mathbf{B} = \mu \mathbf{j}$ is **Ampère's Law**. The magnetic vector potential \mathbf{A} is then defined by

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \wedge \mathbf{A}, \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0 \quad \nabla^2 \mathbf{A} = -\mu \mathbf{j} \quad (1.12)$$

(5) Maxwell's equations are relativistic, so that they remain invariant if we make a Lorentz transformation of (\mathbf{x}, t) . We shall not deal with relativity in this course, but we need to know how the fields seen by a moving charge relate to the ones seen in the laboratory frame. A particle moving with speed \mathbf{v} sees fields

$$\mathbf{B}^{part} = \mathbf{B}^{lab}, \quad \mathbf{E}^{part} = \mathbf{E}^{lab} + \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{B}^{lab} \quad (1.21)$$

A moving charge q feels a force $\mathbf{f} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{B})$ (1.22), so that the force density on a continuum is

$$\mathbf{F} = \rho\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{j} \wedge \mathbf{B} \quad (1.24)$$

The last term in (1.24) is called the **Lorentz force**.

Ohm's Law: The extent to which an electric field can cause charges to move in a medium is represented by the **conductivity** σ , so that in a stationary medium $\mathbf{j} = \sigma\mathbf{E}$ or in general

$$\mathbf{j} = \sigma(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{B}) \quad (1.23)$$

If $\sigma = 0$, we say the medium is an insulator, otherwise a conductor. An initial charge distribution $\rho(\mathbf{x}, 0)$ in a conductor decays to zero on the charge relaxation time-scale $\tau = \epsilon/\sigma$, as the free charges combine or move away towards the boundary of the conducting region.

At a boundary between two different media, we must allow for surface current density \mathbf{j}_s and a surface charge density ρ_s . Across an interface where the electric properties $\epsilon_1, \mu_1, \sigma_1$ change to $\epsilon_2, \mu_2, \sigma_2$, Maxwell's equations require

$$[\mathbf{B} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}] = 0, \quad [\hat{\mathbf{n}} \wedge \mathbf{E}] = 0, \quad [\mathbf{j} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}] = 0, \quad [\epsilon \mathbf{E} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}] = \rho_s, \quad [\hat{\mathbf{n}} \wedge \mathbf{B}/\mu] = \mathbf{j}_s \quad (1.20)$$

where the square brackets denote the change in values across the interface, so that for example $\rho_s = \epsilon_2 \mathbf{E}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} - \epsilon_1 \mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}$. Thus normal \mathbf{B} and tangential \mathbf{E} are continuous. This latter condition means the electric potential ϕ is continuous everywhere.

The stress on a surface can be found using the Maxwell stress tensor, T_{ij} , given by

$$T_{ij} = \epsilon(E_i E_j - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{ij} |\mathbf{E}|^2) + (1/\mu)(B_i B_j - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{ij} |\mathbf{B}|^2) \quad (1.25)$$

The stress (or traction) on a surface with normal $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is $[T_{ij} n_j]$. Jumps in electric properties tend to lead to forces on the interface. Exercise: If the fields are steady, show that

$$F_i = \frac{\partial T_{ij}}{\partial x_j}. \quad (1.26)$$

The rate of working by the force \mathbf{f} is $w = \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{v}$. This work is converted into heat, so that the Ohmic decay, or Joule heating rate density W is given by

$$W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{E} \quad (1.27)$$

If $\mathbf{v} = 0$, then $W = |\mathbf{j}|^2/\sigma$.