# Short Introduction to

(Classical) Electromagnetic Theory

(.. and applications to accelerators)

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(http://cern.ch/Werner.Herr/CAS2014/lectures/EM-Theory.pdf)



#### **OUTLINE**

- Reminder of some mathematics, see also lecture R. Steerenberg
- Basic electromagnetic phenomena
- Maxwell's equations
- Lorentz force
- Motion of particles in electromagnetic fields
- Electromagnetic waves in vacuum
- Electromagnetic waves in conducting media
  - Waves in RF cavities
  - Waves in wave guides

# Reading Material

- (1) J.D. Jackson, Classical Electrodynamics (Wiley, 1998 ..)
- (2) L. Landau, E. Lifschitz, Klassische Feldtheorie, Vol2. (Harri Deutsch, 1997)
- (3) W. Greiner, Classical Electrodynamics, (Springer, February, 22nd, 2009)
- (4) J. Slater, N. Frank, Electromagnetism, (McGraw-Hill, 1947, and Dover Books, 1970)
- (5) R.P. Feynman, Feynman lectures on Physics, Vol2.

For many details and derivations: (1) and (2)

#### Variables and units used in this lecture

Formulae use SI units throughout.

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\begin{array}{lcl} \vec{E} & = & \text{electric field [V/m]} \\ \vec{H} & = & \text{magnetic field [A/m]} \\ \vec{D} & = & \text{electric displacement [C/m}^2] \\ \vec{B} & = & \text{magnetic flux density [T]} \\ q & = & \text{electric charge [C]} \\ \rho & = & \text{electric charge density [C/m}^3] \\ \vec{j} & = & \text{current density [A/m}^2] \\ \mu_0 & = & \text{permeability of vacuum, } 4 \pi \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ [H/m or N/A}^2] \\ \epsilon_0 & = & \text{permittivity of vacuum, } 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12} \text{ [F/m]} \\ c & = & \text{speed of light, } 2.99792458 \cdot 10^8 \text{ [m/s]} \\ \end{array}
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Scalar and vector fields

Electric phenomena:  $\vec{E}$ ,  $\vec{D}$  and  $\Phi$ 

Magnetic phenomena:  $\vec{H}$ ,  $\vec{B}$  and  $\vec{A}$ 

- Need to know how to calculate with vectors (see lecture by R. Steerenberg)
  - Scalar and vector products
  - Vector calculus

## Vector calculus ...

We can define a special vector  $\nabla$  (sometimes written as  $\vec{\nabla}$ ):

$$\nabla = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \ \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \ \frac{\partial}{\partial z})$$

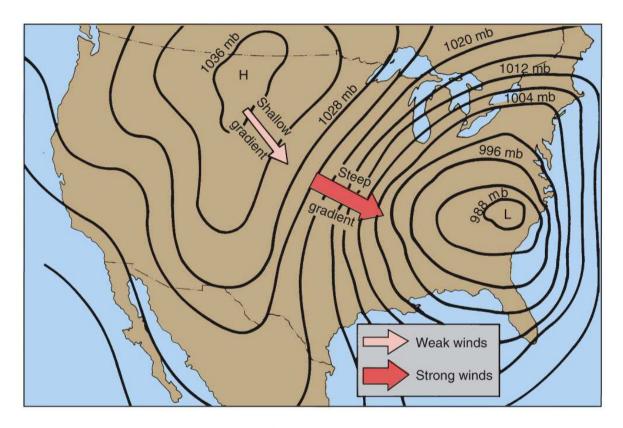
It is called the "gradient" and invokes "partial derivatives". It can operate on a scalar function  $\phi(x, y, z)$ :

$$\nabla \phi = (\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}) = \vec{G} = (G_x, G_y, G_z)$$

and we get a vector  $\vec{G}$ . It is a kind of "slope" (steepness ..) in the 3 directions.

Example:  $\phi(x,y,z) = C \cdot \ln(r^2)$  with  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ 

# Gradient (slope) of a scalar field



Lines of pressure (isobars)

Gradient is large (steep) where lines are close (fast change of pressure)

## Vector calculus ...

The gradient  $\nabla$  can be used as scalar or vector product with a vector  $\vec{F}$ , sometimes written as  $\vec{\nabla}$  Used as:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{F}$$
 or  $\nabla \times \vec{F}$ 

Same definition for products as before,  $\nabla$  treated like a "normal" vector, but results depends on how they are applied:

 $\nabla \cdot \Phi$  is a vector

 $\nabla \cdot \vec{F}$  is a scalar

 $\nabla \times \vec{F}$  is a vector

# Operations on vector fields ...

Two operations of  $\nabla$  have special names:

Divergence (scalar product of gradient with a vector):

$$\operatorname{div}(\vec{F}) = \nabla \cdot \vec{F} = \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial z}$$

Physical significance: "amount of density", (see later)

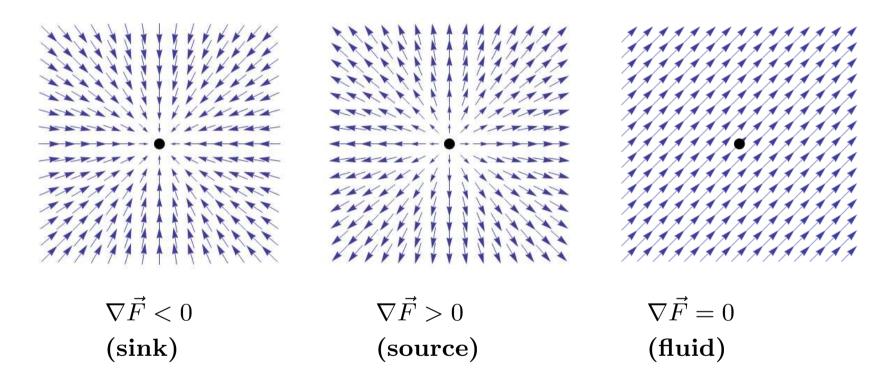
Curl (vector product of gradient with a vector):

$$\operatorname{curl}(\vec{F}) = \nabla \times \vec{F} = \left(\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial z}, \ \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial x}, \ \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial y}\right)$$

Physical significance: "amount of rotation", (see later)

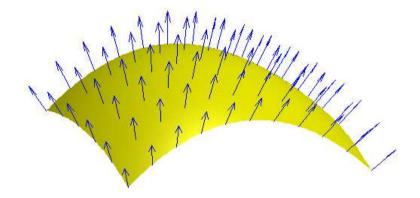
# Meaning of Divergence of fields ...

Field lines of a vector field  $\vec{F}$  seen from some origin:



The divergence (scalar, a single number) characterizes what comes from (or goes to) the origin

## How much comes out?



Surface integrals: integrate field vectors passing (perpendicular) through a surface S (or area A), we obtain the Flux:

Density of field lines through the surface

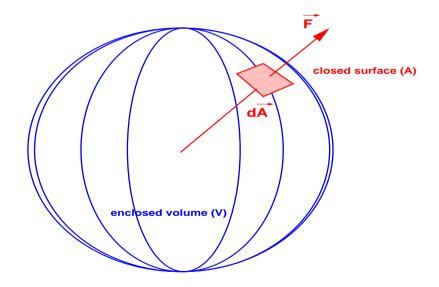
(e.g. amount of heat passing through a surface)

# Surface integrals made easier ...

Gauss' Theorem:

Integral through a closed surface (flux) is integral of divergence in the enclosed volume

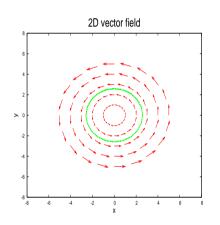
$$\int \int_{\mathbf{A}} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int \int_{\mathbf{V}} \nabla \cdot \vec{F} \cdot dV$$

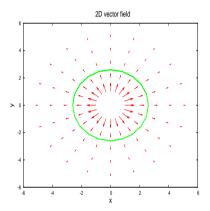


Relates surface integral to divergence

## Meaning of curl of fields

The <u>curl</u> quantifies a rotation of vectors:





Line integrals: integrate field vectors along a line C:

$$\longrightarrow \oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

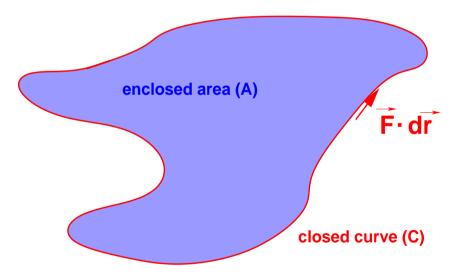
"sum up" vectors (length) in <u>direction</u> of line C (e.g. work performed along a path ...)

## Line integrals made easier ...

Stokes' Theorem:

Integral along a closed line is integral of curl in the enclosed area

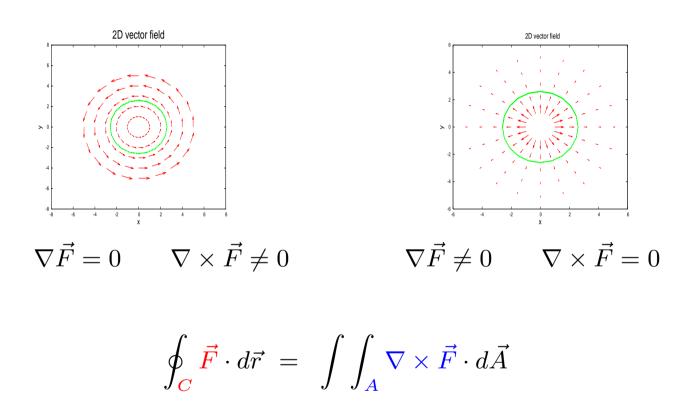
$$\oint_{C} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int \int_{A} \nabla \times \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A}$$



Relates line integral to curl

## Integration of (vector-) fields

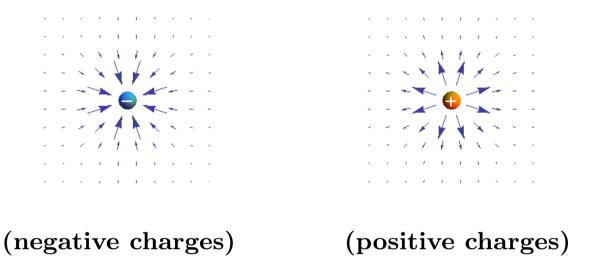
Two vector fields:



Line integral for second vector field vanishes ...

_	APPLICATIONS to ELECTRODYNAMICS	-

## Electric fields from charges



Assume fields from a positive or negative charge q Electric field  $\vec{E}$  is written as (Coulomb law):

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\pm q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\cdot\frac{\vec{r}}{|r|^3}$$
 with:  $\vec{r}=(x,y,z), \qquad |r|=\sqrt{x^2+y^2+z^2}$ 

# Applying Divergence and charges ...

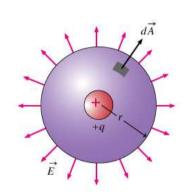


We can do the (non-trivial\*) computation of the divergence:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{div}\vec{E} \ = \ \nabla\vec{E} \ = \ \frac{dE_x}{dx} + \frac{dE_y}{dy} + \frac{dE_z}{dz} \ = \ \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \\ \\ \text{(negative charges)} \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{E} < 0 & \nabla \cdot \vec{E} > 0 \end{array}$$

Divergence related to charge density  $\rho$  generating the field  $\vec{E}$  \*) for a point charge for example ..

# More formal/general: Gauss's Theorem (Maxwell's first equation ...)



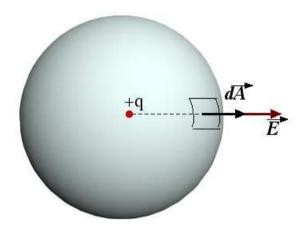
$$\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int \int_A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int \int \int_V \nabla \vec{E} \cdot dV = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\nabla \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

Flux of electric field  $\vec{E}$  through any closed surface proportional to net electric charge q enclosed in the region (Gauss's Theorem).

Written with charge density  $\rho$  we get Maxwell's <u>first</u> equation:

$$\mathrm{div} ec{E} = 
abla \cdot ec{E} = rac{
ho}{\epsilon_0}$$

## Example: field from a charge q



A charge q generates a field  $\vec{E}$  according to:

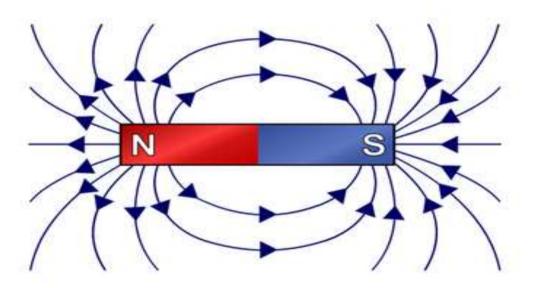
$$\vec{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3}$$

Enclose it by a sphere:  $\vec{E} = const.$  on a sphere (area is  $4\pi \cdot r^2$ ):

$$\int \int_{sphere} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \int_{sphere} \frac{dA}{r^2} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

Surface integral through sphere A is charge inside the sphere

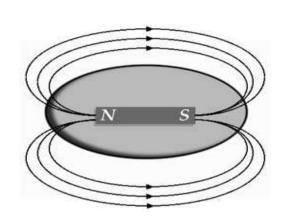
# Divergence of magnetic fields



#### **Definitions:**

Magnetic field lines from North to South

# Maxwell's second equation ...



$$\int \int_{A} \vec{B} d\vec{A} = \int \int \int_{V} \nabla \vec{B} dV = 0$$
$$\nabla \vec{B} = 0$$

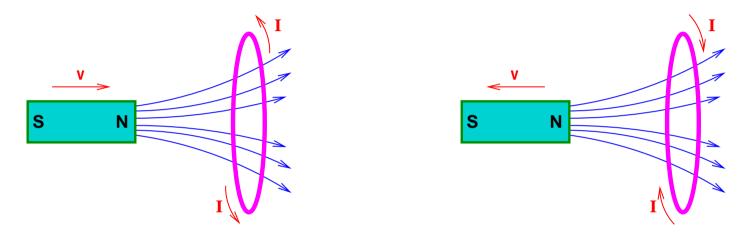
Closed field lines of magnetic flux density  $(\vec{B})$ : What goes out ANY closed surface also goes in, Maxwell's second equation:

$$\nabla \vec{B} = \mu_0 \nabla \vec{H} = 0$$

→ Physical significance: no Magnetic Monopoles

# Maxwell's third equation ... (schematically)

Faradays law (electromagnetic induction):



- Changing magnetic flux through area of a coil introduces electric current  $\mathbf{I}$
- Can be changed by moving <u>magnet</u> or <u>coil</u>

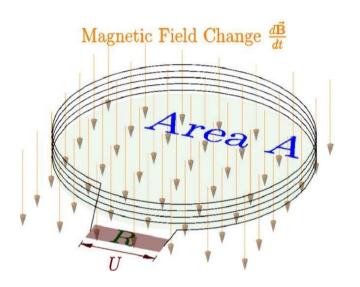
## Maxwell's third equation ... (formally)

A changing flux  $\Omega$  through an area A produces circulating electric field  $\vec{E}$ , i.e. a current I (Faraday)

$$-\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \underbrace{\int_{A} \vec{B} d\vec{A}}_{flux \ \Omega} = \oint_{C} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

- Flux can be changed by:
- Change of magnetic field  $\vec{B}$  with time t (e.g. transformers)
- Change of area A with time t (e.g. dynamos)

# Formally: Maxwell's third equation ...



$$-\int_{A} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} d\vec{A} = \underbrace{\int_{A} \nabla \times \vec{E} \ d\vec{A}}_{Stoke's formula} = \underbrace{\int_{C} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}}_{Stoke's formula}$$

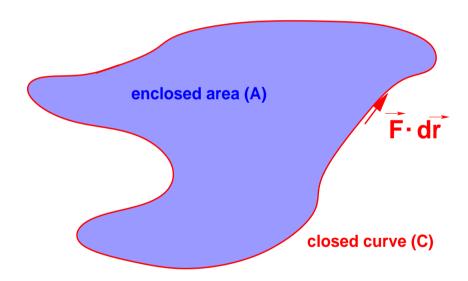
Changing magnetic field through an area induces circular electric field in coil around the area (Faraday)

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

Remember: large curl = strong circulating field

## More general:

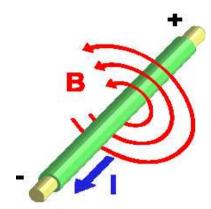
$$-\int_{A} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} d\vec{A} = \underbrace{\int_{A} \nabla \times \vec{E} \ d\vec{A}}_{Stoke's formula} = \underbrace{\int_{C} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}}_{Stoke's formula}$$



Changing field through <u>any</u> area induces electric field in the (arbitrary) boundary

# Maxwell's fourth equation (part 1) ...

From Ampere's law, for example current density  $\vec{j}$ :



Static electric current induces circulating magnetic field

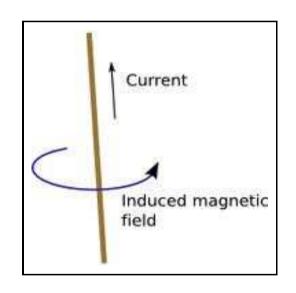
$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j}$$

or in integral form the currect density becomes the current *I*:

$$\int \int_{A} \nabla \times \vec{B} \ d\vec{A} = \int \int_{A} \mu_{0} \vec{j} \ d\vec{A} = \mu_{0} \vec{I}$$

# Maxwell's fourth equation - application

For a static electric current I in a single wire we get Biot-Savart law (we have used Stoke's theorem and area of a circle  $A = r^2 \cdot \pi$ ):



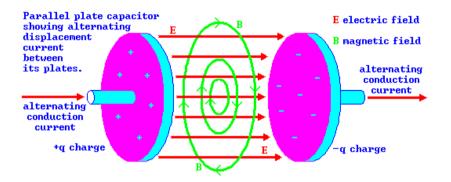
$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \oint \vec{I} \cdot \frac{\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r}}{r^3}$$

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \frac{\vec{I}}{r}$$

For magnetic field calculations in electromagnets

## Do we need an electric current?

From displacement current, for example charging capacitor  $\vec{j}_d$ :



Defining a Displacement Current  $\vec{I_d}$ :

Not a current from moving charges

But a current from time varying electric fields

# Maxwell's fourth equation (part 2) ...

Displacement current  $I_d$  produces magnetic field, just like "actual currents" do ...

Time varying electric field induce magnetic field (using the current density  $\vec{j}_d$ 

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j_d} = \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

Remember: strong curl = strong circulating field

# Maxwell's complete fourth equation ...

Magnetic fields  $\vec{B}$  can be generated by two ways:

$$abla imes ec{B} = \mu_0 ec{j} \qquad ext{(electrical current)}$$

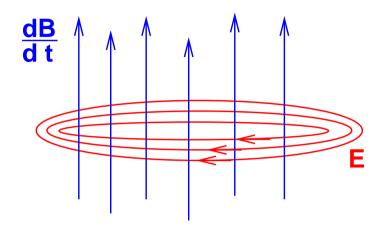
 $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j_d} = \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$  (changing electric field) or putting them together:

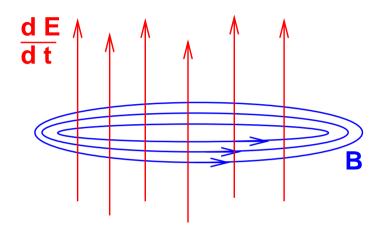
$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0(\vec{j} + \vec{j_d}) = \mu_0 \vec{j} + \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

or in integral form (using Stoke's formula):

$$\underbrace{\oint_{C} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{A} \nabla \times \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}}_{Stoke's formula} = \int_{A} \left( \mu_{0} \vec{j} + \epsilon_{0} \mu_{0} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\vec{A}$$

## Summary: Static and Time Varying Fields

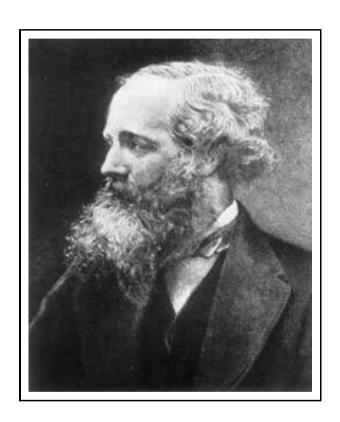




- Time varying magnetic fields produce circulating electric field:  $\text{curl}(\vec{E}) = \nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{\partial t}$
- Time varying electric fields produce circulating magnetic field:  $\text{curl}(\vec{B}) = \nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{\partial t}$

because of the  $\times$  they are perpendicular:  $\vec{E} \perp \vec{B}$ 

# Put together: Maxwell's Equations



$$\int_{A} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_{0}}$$

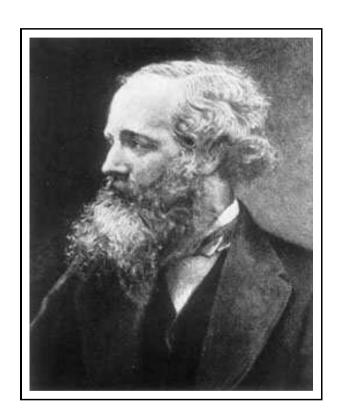
$$\int_{A} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$$

$$\oint_{C} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = -\int_{A} \left(\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}\right) \cdot d\vec{A}$$

$$\oint_{C} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{A} \left(\mu_{0}\vec{j} + \mu_{0}\epsilon_{0}\frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}\right) \cdot d\vec{A}$$

Written in Integral form

# Put together: Maxwell's Equations



$$\nabla \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} 
\nabla \vec{B} = 0 
\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} 
\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt}$$

Written in Differential form

## Maxwell in Physical terms

- 1. Electric fields  $\vec{E}$  are generated by charges and proportional to total charge
- 2. Magnetic monopoles do not exist
- 3. Changing magnetic flux generates circulating electric fields/currents
- 4.1 Changing electric flux generates circulating magnetic fields
- 4.2 Static electric current generates circulating magnetic fields

## Interlude and Warning!!

Maxwell's equation can be written in other forms.

Often used: cgs (Gaussian) units instead of SI units, example:

Starting from (SI):

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

we would use:

$$\vec{E}_{cgs} = \frac{1}{c} \cdot \vec{E}_{SI}$$
 and  $\epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{4\pi \cdot c}$ 

and arrive at (cgs):

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = 4\pi \cdot \rho$$

Beware: there are more different units giving:  $\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho$ 

### Electromagnetic fields in material

### In vacuum:

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \cdot \vec{E}, \qquad \vec{B} = \mu_0 \cdot \vec{H}$$

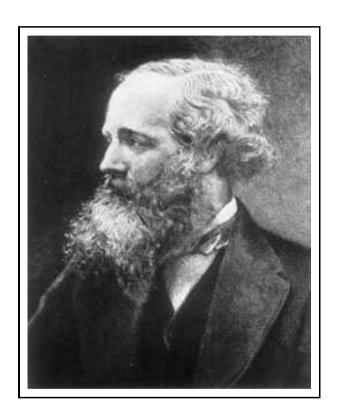
In a material:

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon_r \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \vec{E}, \qquad \vec{B} = \mu_r \cdot \mu_0 \cdot \vec{H}$$

$$\epsilon_r$$
 is relative permittivity  $\approx [1-10^5]$   
 $\mu_r$  is relative permeability  $\approx [0(!)-10^6]$ 

Origin: polarization and Magnetization

# Once more: Maxwell's Equations



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

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

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{j} + \frac{d\vec{D}}{dt}$$

Re-factored in terms of the free current density  $\vec{j}$  and free charge density  $\rho$  ( $\mu_0 = 1, \epsilon_0 = 1$ ):

### Something on potentials:

Fields can be written as derivative of scalar and vector potentials  $\Phi(x, y, z)$  and  $\vec{A}(x, y, z)$ :

	Electric fields	Magnetic fields
using:	$\vec{E} = -\nabla\Phi$	$\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}$
with:	$\nabla \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$	$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j}$
<b></b>	$\nabla^2 \vec{\Phi} = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$	$\nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A} = \mu_0 \vec{j}$
in short $^{*)}$ :	$\Delta \vec{\Phi} = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$	$\nabla^2 \times \vec{A} = \mu_0 \vec{j}$

Potentials are linked to charge  $\rho$  and current  $\vec{j}$ 

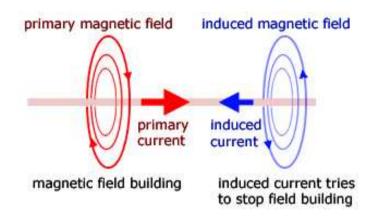
À bientôt -> Special Relativity ...

\*) (with some vector analysis and definitions ...)

# Applications of Maxwell's Equations

- Powering of magnets
- > Lorentz force, motion in EM fields
  - Motion in electric fields
  - Motion in magnetic fields
- > EM waves (in vacuum and in material)
- **>** Boundary conditions
- > EM waves in cavities and wave guides

# Powering and self-induction



- Induced magnetic flux  $\vec{B}$  changes with changing current
- Induces a current and magnetic field  $\vec{B}_i$  voltage in the conductor
- → Induced current will oppose change of current (Lenz's law)
- → We want to change a current to ramp a magnet ...

# Powering and self-induction

Ramp rate defines required Voltage:

$$U = -L \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}$$

Inductance L in Henry (H)

- **Example LHC:** 
  - Typical ramp rate: 10 A/s
  - With L = 15.1 H per powering sector
- ightharpoonup Required Voltage is  $\approx 150 \text{ V}$

# Lorentz force on charged particles

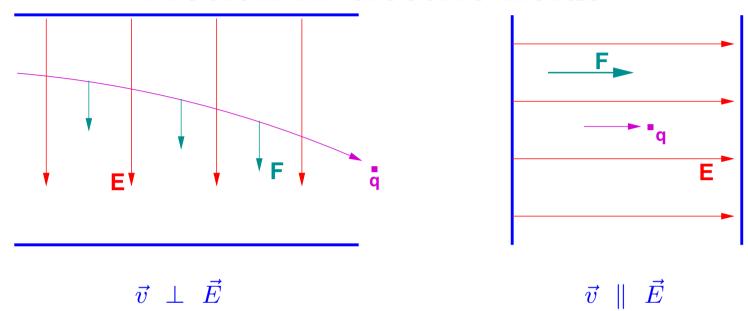
Moving  $(\vec{v})$  charged (q) particles in electric  $(\vec{E})$  and magnetic  $(\vec{B})$  fields experience a force  $\vec{f}$  like (Lorentz force):

$$\vec{f} = q \cdot (\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

for the equation of motion we get (using Newton's law);

$$\frac{d}{dt}(m_0\vec{v}) = \vec{f} = q \cdot (\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

### Motion in electric fields

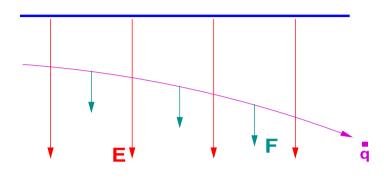


Assume no magnetic field:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(m_0\vec{v}) = \vec{f} = q \cdot \vec{E}$$

Force always in direction of field  $\vec{E}$ , also for particles at rest.

### Motion in electric fields



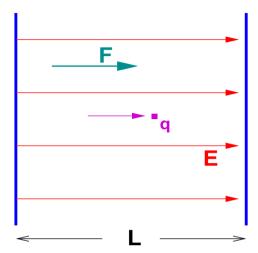
$$\frac{d}{dt}(m_0\vec{v}) = \vec{f} = q \cdot \vec{E}$$

The solution is:

$$\vec{v} = \frac{q \cdot \vec{E}}{m_0} \cdot t$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\vec{x} = \frac{q \cdot \vec{E}}{2m_0} \cdot t^2$  (parabola)

Constant E-field deflects beams: TV, electrostatic separators (SPS,LEP)

### Motion in electric fields



$$\frac{d}{dt}(m_0\vec{v}) = \vec{f} = q \cdot \vec{E}$$

For constant field  $\vec{E}=(E,0,0)$  in x-direction the kinetic energy gain is:

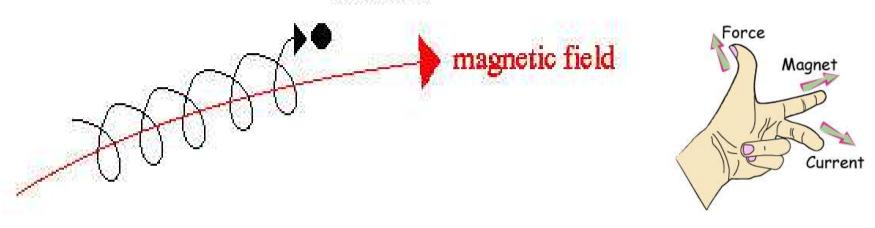
$$\Delta T = qE \cdot L$$

It is a line integral of the force along the path!

Constant E-field gives uniform acceleration over length L

# Motion in magnetic fields

### electron



Assume first no electric field:

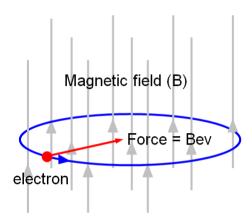
$$\frac{d}{dt}(m_0\vec{v}) = \vec{f} = q \cdot \vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

Force is perpendicular to both,  $\vec{v}$  and  $\vec{B}$ 

No forces on particles at rest!

Particles will spiral around the magnetic field lines ...

# Motion in magnetic fields



Assuming that  $v_{\perp}$  is perpendicular to  $\vec{B}$ We get a circular motion with radius  $\rho$ :

$$\rho = \frac{m_0 v_{\perp}}{q \cdot B}$$

defines the Magnetic Rigidity:  $B \cdot \rho = \frac{m_0 v}{q} =$ 

Magnetic fields deflect particles, but no acceleration (synchrotron, ..)

(but can accelerate in betatron!)

# Motion in magnetic fields

#### Practical units:

$$B[T] \cdot \rho[m] = \frac{p[ev]}{c[m/s]}$$

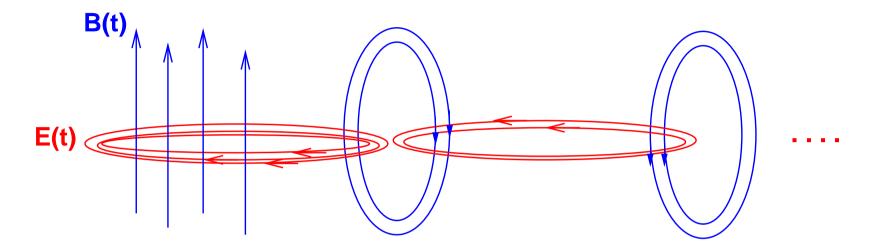
### Example LHC:

$$B = 8.33 T$$
,  $p = 7000 GeV/c \rightarrow \rho = 2804 m$ 

### Use of static fields (some examples, incomplete)

- Magnetic fields
  - > Bending magnets
  - Focusing magnets (quadrupoles)
  - Correction magnets (sextupoles, octupoles, orbit correctors, ..)
- Electric fields
  - Electrostatic separators (beam separation in particle-antiparticle colliders)
  - > Very low energy machines
- What about non-static, time-varying fields?

### Time Varying Fields (very schematic)



Time varying magnetic fields produce circulating electric fields

Time varying electric fields produce circulating magnetic fields

Can produce self-sustaining, propagating fields (i.e. waves)

### Electromagnetic waves in vacuum

Vacuum: only fields, no charges  $(\rho = 0)$ , no current (j = 0) ...

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

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

$$\Rightarrow -(\nabla^2 \vec{E}) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\nabla \times \vec{B})$$

$$\Rightarrow -(\nabla^2 \vec{E}) = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

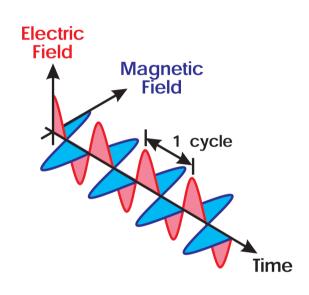
It happens to be:  $\mu_0 \cdot \epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{c^2}$ 

$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} = \mu_0 \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

Similar expression for the magnetic field:

$$\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2} = \mu_0 \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2}$$

# Electromagnetic waves

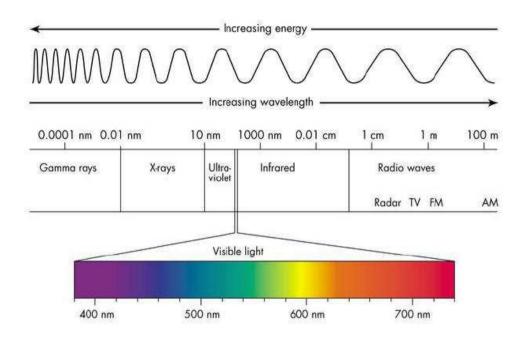


$$ec{E} = ec{E_0} e^{i(\omega t - ec{k} \cdot ec{x})}$$
 $ec{B} = ec{B_0} e^{i(\omega t - ec{k} \cdot ec{x})}$ 
 $|ec{k}| = rac{2\pi}{\lambda} = rac{\omega}{c} \quad ext{(propagation vector)}$ 
 $\lambda = ext{(wave length, 1 cycle)}$ 
 $\omega = ext{(frequency} \cdot 2\pi)$ 
 $c = rac{\omega}{k} = ext{(wavevelocity)}$ 

Magnetic and electric fields are transverse to direction of propagation:  $\vec{E} \perp \vec{B} \perp \vec{k}$ 

Velocity of wave in vacuum: 299792458.000 m/s

### Spectrum of Electromagnetic waves



```
Example: yellow light \rightarrow \approx 5 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ Hz (i.e.} \approx 2 \text{ eV !)}
gamma rays \rightarrow \leq 3 \cdot 10^{21} \text{ Hz (i.e.} \leq 12 \text{ MeV !)}
LEP (SR) \rightarrow \leq 2 \cdot 10^{20} \text{ Hz (i.e.} \approx 0.8 \text{ MeV !)}
```

# Waves interacting with material

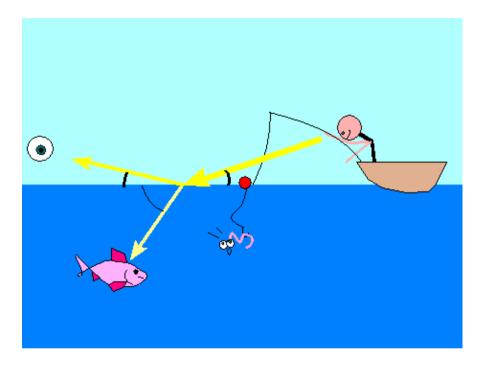
Need to look at the behaviour of electromagnetic fields at boundaries between different materials (air-glass, air-water, vacuum-metal, ...).

Have to consider two particular cases:

- ▶ Ideal conductor (i.e. no resistance), apply to:
  - RF cavities
  - Wave guides
- Conductor with finite resistance, apply to:
  - Penetration and attenuation of fields in material (skin depth)
  - Impedance calculations

Can be derived from Maxwell's equations, here only the results!

### Observation: between air and water



- Some of the light is reflected
- Some of the light is transmitted and refracted
- Reason are boundary conditions for fields between two materials

### Extreme case: ideal conductor

For an ideal conductor (i.e. no resistance) the tangential electric field must vanish, otherwise a surface current becomes infinite. Similar conditions for magnetic fields. We must have:

$$\vec{E_{\parallel}} = 0, \quad \vec{B_n} = 0$$

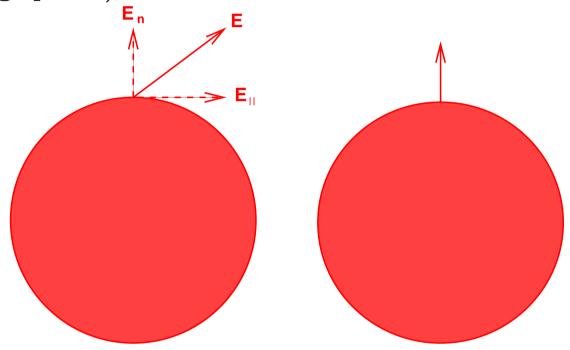
#### This implies:

- All energy of an electromagnetic wave is reflected from the surface.
- Fields at any point in the conductor are zero.
- Only some fieldpatterns are allowed in waveguides and RF cavities

A very nice lecture in R.P.Feynman, Vol. II

### Boundary conditions: air and perfect conductor

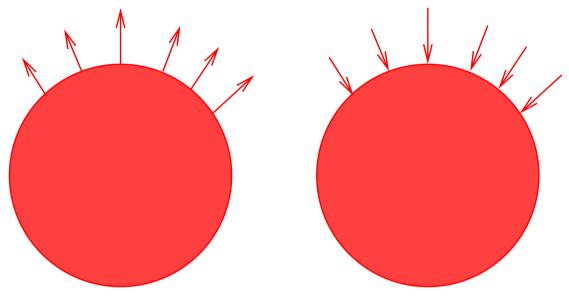
A simple case as demonstration ( $\vec{E}$ -fields on an ideally conducting sphere):



- Field parallel to surface  $E_{\parallel}$  cannot exist (it would move charges and we get a surface current)
- $\triangleright$  Only field normal to surface  $E_n$  is possible

### Boundary conditions for fields

All electric field lines must be normal (perpendicular) to surface of a perfect conductor.



All conditions for  $\vec{E}, \vec{D}, \vec{H}, \vec{B}$  can be derived from Maxwell's equations (see bibliography, e.g. R.P.Feynman or J.D.Jackson)

# General boundary conditions for fields

Electromagnetic fields at boundaries between different materials with different permittivity and permeability  $(\epsilon^a, \epsilon^b, \mu^a, \mu^b)$ .

The requirements for the components are (summary of the results, not derived here!):

$$(E_{\parallel}^a = E_{\parallel}^b), (E_n^a \neq E_n^b)$$

$$\triangleright (D^a_{\parallel} \neq D^b_{\parallel}), (D^a_n = D^b_n)$$

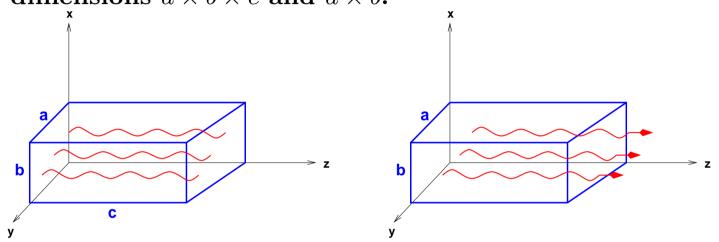
$$> (H_{\parallel}^a = H_{\parallel}^b), (H_n^a \neq H_n^b)$$

$$\geqslant (B_{\parallel}^a \neq B_{\parallel}^b), (B_n^a = B_n^b)$$

Conditions are used to compute reflection, refraction and refraction index n.

# Examples: cavities and wave guides

Rectangular, conducting cavities and wave guides (schematic) with dimensions  $a \times b \times c$  and  $a \times b$ :



- > RF cavity, fields can persist and be stored (reflection!)
- Plane waves can propagate along wave guides, here in z-direction

### Fields in RF cavities

Assume a rectangular RF cavity (a, b, c), ideal conductor.

Without derivations, the components of the fields are:

$$E_x = E_{x0} \cdot \cos(k_x x) \cdot \sin(k_y y) \cdot \sin(k_z z) \cdot e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$E_y = E_{y0} \cdot \sin(k_x x) \cdot \cos(k_y y) \cdot \sin(k_z z) \cdot e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$E_z = E_{z0} \cdot \sin(k_x x) \cdot \sin(k_y y) \cdot \cos(k_z z) \cdot e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$B_{x} = \frac{i}{\omega} (E_{y0}k_{z} - E_{z0}k_{y}) \cdot \sin(k_{x}x) \cdot \cos(k_{y}y) \cdot \cos(k_{z}z) \cdot e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$B_{y} = \frac{i}{\omega} (E_{z0}k_{x} - E_{x0}k_{z}) \cdot \cos(k_{x}x) \cdot \sin(k_{y}y) \cdot \cos(k_{z}z) \cdot e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$B_{z} = \frac{i}{\omega} (E_{x0}k_{y} - E_{y0}k_{x}) \cdot \cos(k_{x}x) \cdot \cos(k_{y}y) \cdot \sin(k_{z}z) \cdot e^{-i\omega t}$$

### Consequences for RF cavities

Field must be zero at conductor boundary, only possible under the condition:

$$k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2}$$

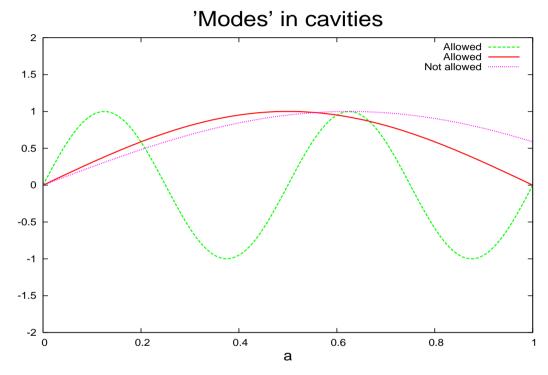
and for  $k_x, k_y, k_z$  we can write:

$$k_x = \frac{m_x \pi}{a}, \qquad k_y = \frac{m_y \pi}{b}, \qquad k_z = \frac{m_z \pi}{c},$$

The integer numbers  $m_x, m_y, m_z$  are called mode numbers, important for shape of cavity!

It means that a half wave length  $\lambda/2$  must always fit exactly the size of the cavity.

### Allowed modes



Only modes which 'fit' into the cavity are allowed

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda}{2} = \frac{a}{4}, \qquad \frac{\lambda}{2} = \frac{a}{1}, \qquad \frac{\lambda}{2} = \frac{a}{0.8}$$

No electric field at boundaries, wave most have "nodes" at the boundaries

### Fields in wave guides

Similar considerations lead to (propagating) solutions in (rectangular) wave guides:

$$E_x = E_{x0} \cdot \cos(k_x x) \cdot \sin(k_y y) \cdot e^{-i(k_z z - \omega t)}$$

$$E_y = E_{y0} \cdot \sin(k_x x) \cdot \cos(k_y y) \cdot e^{-i(k_z z - \omega t)}$$

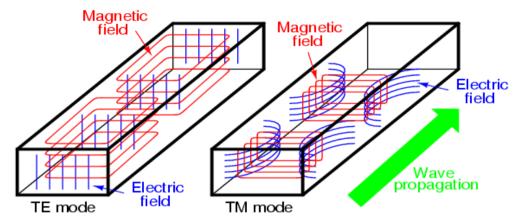
$$E_z = i \cdot E_{z0} \cdot \sin(k_x x) \cdot \sin(k_y y) \cdot e^{-i(k_z z - \omega t)}$$

$$B_x = \frac{1}{\omega} (E_{y0}k_z - E_{z0}k_y) \cdot \sin(k_x x) \cdot \cos(k_y y) \cdot e^{-i(k_z z - \omega t)}$$

$$B_y = \frac{1}{\omega} (E_{z0}k_x - E_{x0}k_z) \cdot \cos(k_x x) \cdot \sin(k_y y) \cdot e^{-i(k_z z - \omega t)}$$

$$B_z = \frac{1}{i \cdot \omega} (E_{x0}k_y - E_{y0}k_x) \cdot \cos(k_x x) \cdot \cos(k_y y) \cdot e^{-i(k_z z - \omega t)}$$

### The fields in wave guides



Magnetic flux lines appear as continuous loops Electric flux lines appear with beginning and end points

- Electric and magnetic fields through a wave guide
- > Shapes are consequences of boundary conditions!
- Can be Transverse Electric (TE, no E-field in z-direction) or Transverse Magnetic (TM, no B-field in z-direction)

# Consequences for wave guides

Similar considerations as for cavities, no field at boundary. We must satisfy again the condition:

$$k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2}$$

This leads to modes like:

$$k_x = \frac{m_x \pi}{a}, \qquad k_y = \frac{m_y \pi}{b},$$

The numbers  $m_x, m_y$  are called mode numbers for planar waves in wave guides!

### Consequences for wave guides

Re-writing the condition as:

$$k_z^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - k_x^2 - k_y^2$$

Propagation without losses requires  $k_z$  to be real, i.e.:

$$\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} > k_x^2 + k_y^2 = \left(\frac{m_x \pi}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{m_y \pi}{b}\right)^2$$

which defines a cut-off frequency  $\omega_c$ . For lowest order mode:

$$\omega_c = \frac{\pi \cdot c}{a}$$

- Above cut-off frequency: propagation without loss
- Below cut-off frequency: attenuated wave (means it does not "really fit" and k is complex).

# Other case: finite conductivity

#### Starting from Maxwell equation:

$$abla imes ec{H} = ec{j} + rac{dec{D}}{dt} = \underbrace{\sigma \cdot ec{E}}_{Ohm's\ law} + \epsilon rac{dec{E}}{dt}$$

#### Wave equations:

$$\vec{E} = \vec{E_0}e^{i(\omega t - \vec{k}\cdot\vec{x})}, \qquad \vec{H} = \vec{H_0}e^{i(\omega t - \vec{k}\cdot\vec{x})}$$

We have:

$$\frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} = i\omega \cdot \vec{E}, \qquad \frac{d\vec{H}}{dt} = i\omega \cdot \vec{H}, \qquad \nabla \times \vec{E} = -i\vec{k} \times \vec{E}, \qquad \nabla \times \vec{H} = -i\vec{k} \times \vec{H}$$

Put together:

$$\vec{k} \times \vec{H} = i\sigma \cdot \vec{E} - \omega \epsilon \cdot \vec{E} = (i\sigma - \omega \epsilon) \cdot \vec{E}$$

# Finite conductivity - Skin Depth

#### Starting from:

$$\vec{k} \times \vec{H} = i\sigma \cdot \vec{E} - \omega \epsilon \cdot \vec{E} = (i\sigma - \omega \epsilon) \cdot \vec{E}$$

With  $\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$ :

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -i\vec{k} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = -\mu \frac{\partial \vec{H}}{\partial t} = -i\omega\mu\vec{H}$$

Multiplication with  $\vec{k}$ :

$$\vec{k} \times (\vec{k} \times \vec{E}) = \omega \mu (\vec{k} \times \vec{H}) = \omega \mu (i\sigma - \omega \epsilon) \cdot \vec{E}$$

After some calculus and  $\vec{E} \perp \vec{H} \perp \vec{k}$ :

$$k^2 = \omega \mu (-i\sigma + \omega \epsilon)$$

# Finite conductivity - Skin Depth

With:

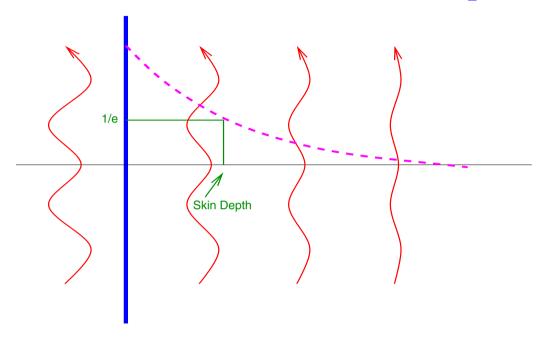
$$k^2 = \omega \mu (-i\sigma + \omega \epsilon)$$

For a good conductor  $\sigma \gg \omega \epsilon$ :

$$k^2 \approx -i\omega\mu\sigma$$
  $\qquad \qquad k \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu\sigma}{2}}(1-i) = \frac{1}{\delta}(1-i)$ 

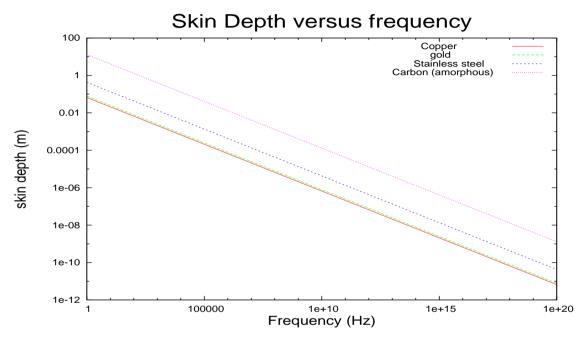
$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega\mu\sigma}}$$
 is the Skin Depth

### Attenuated waves - skin depth



- Waves in conducting material are attenuated
- > Defines Skin depth (attenuation to 1/e)
- **Wave form:**  $e^{i(\omega t kx)} = e^{i(\omega t (1-i)x/\delta)} = e^{\frac{-x}{\delta}} \cdot e^{i(\omega t \frac{x}{\delta})}$

#### Skin depth - examples



- ightharpoonup Copper: 1 GHz  $\delta \approx$  2.1  $\mu$ m, 50 Hz  $\delta \approx$  10 mm
- ightharpoonup Gold 50 Hz  $\delta \approx 11$  mm
- > Q1: why do we use many cables for power lines??
- Q2: why are SC cables very thin?

# Skin Depth - beam dynamics

For metal walls thicker than  $\delta$  we get Resistive Wall Impedances, see later on collective effects.

$$Z(\omega) \propto \delta \propto \omega^{-1/2}$$

- Largest impedance at low frequencies
- Cause longitudinal and transverse instabilities (see later)

#### Done ...

- Review of basics and Maxwell's equations
- Lorentz force
- Motion of particles in electromagnetic fields
- Electromagnetic waves in vacuum
- Electromagnetic waves in conducting media
  - Waves in RF cavities
  - Waves in wave guides
  - > Penetration of waves in material

To make things easier: say "good bye" to Maxwell and "hello" to Einstein ...

# - BACKUP SLIDES -

## Scalar products

Define a scalar product for (usual) vectors like:  $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$ ,

$$\vec{a} = (x_a, y_a, z_a) \qquad \vec{b} = (x_b, y_b, z_b)$$

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = (x_a, y_a, z_a) \cdot (x_b, y_b, z_b) = (x_a \cdot x_b + y_a \cdot y_b + z_a \cdot z_b)$$

This product of two vectors is a <u>scalar</u> (number) not a vector.

(on that account: Scalar Product)

#### Example:

$$(-2,2,1) \cdot (2,4,3) = -2 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 3 = 7$$

## Vector products (sometimes cross product)

Define a vector product for (usual) vectors like:  $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ ,

$$\vec{a} = (x_a, y_a, z_a) \qquad \vec{b} = (x_b, y_b, z_b)$$

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = (x_a, y_a, z_a) \times (x_b, y_b, z_b)$$

$$= (\underbrace{y_a \cdot z_b - z_a \cdot y_b}_{x_{ab}}, \underbrace{z_a \cdot x_b - x_a \cdot z_b}_{y_{ab}}, \underbrace{x_a \cdot y_b - y_a \cdot x_b}_{z_{ab}})$$

This product of two vectors is a <u>vector</u>, not a scalar (number), (on that account: Vector Product)

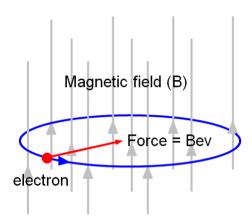
#### Example 1:

$$(-2,2,1) \times (2,4,3) = (2,8,-12)$$

Example 2 (two components only in the x-y plane):

$$(-2,2,0) \times (2,4,0) = (0,0,-12)$$
 (see R. Steerenberg)

## Is that the full truth?



If we have a circulating E-field along the circle of radius R?

→ should get acceleration!

Remember Maxwell's third equation:

$$\oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

$$- 2\pi R E_\theta = -\frac{d\Phi}{dt}$$

# Motion in magnetic fields

- This is the principle of a Betatron
  - Time varying magnetic field creates circular electric field!
  - Time varying magnetic field deflects the charge!

For a constant radius we need:

$$-\frac{m \cdot v^2}{R} = e \cdot v \cdot B \longrightarrow B = -\frac{p}{e \cdot R}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} B(r, t) = -\frac{1}{e \cdot R} \frac{dp}{dt}$$

$$\longrightarrow B(r, t) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\pi R^2} \int \int B dS$$

B-field on orbit must be half the average over the circle

→ Betatron condition

#### Some popular confusion ...

V.F.A.Q: why this strange mixture of  $\vec{E}, \vec{D}, \vec{B}, \vec{H}$ ??

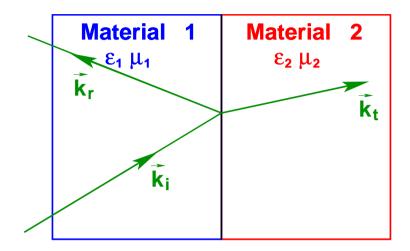
Materials respond to an applied electric E field and an applied magnetic B field by producing their own internal charge and current distributions, contributing to E and B. Therefore H and D fields are used to re-factor Maxwell's equations in terms of the free current density  $\vec{j}$  and free charge density  $\rho$ :

$$\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu_0} - \vec{M}$$

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

 $\vec{M}$  and  $\vec{P}$  are Magnetization and Polarisation in material

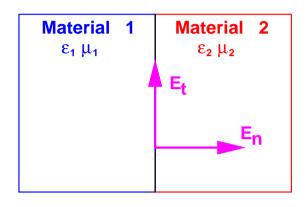
## Boundary conditions for fields

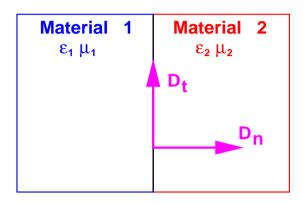


What happens when an incident wave  $(\vec{K_i})$  encounters a boundary between two different media ?

- Part of the wave will be reflected  $(\vec{K_r})$ , part is transmitted  $(\vec{K_t})$
- What happens to the electric and magnetic fields?

# Boundary conditions for fields

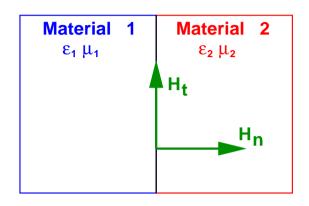


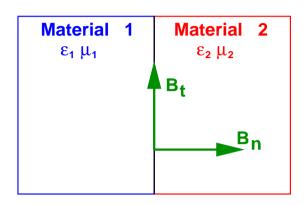


Assuming <u>no</u> surface charges:

- ightharpoonup tangential  $\vec{E}$ -field constant across boundary  $(E_{1t} = E_{2t})$
- ightharpoonup normal  $\vec{D}$ -field constant across boundary  $(D_{1n} = D_{2n})$

# Boundary conditions for fields





#### Assuming <u>no</u> surface currents:

- $\blacktriangleright$  tangential  $\vec{H}$ -field constant across boundary  $(H_{1t} = H_{2t})$
- ightharpoonup normal  $\vec{B}$ -field constant across boundary  $(B_{1n} = B_{2n})$