

Short Introduction to (Classical) Electromagnetic Theory

(.. and applications to accelerators)

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(http://cern.ch/Werner.Herr/CAS2014_Chavannes/em.pdf)



Why electrodynamics ?

■ Accelerator physics relies on electromagnetic concepts:

- Beam dynamics
- Magnets, cavities
- Beam instrumentation
- Powering
- ...



OUTLINE

- Some mathematics (intuitive, mostly illustrations),
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

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

First some mathematics (vectors, potential, calculus)



Reminder: mathematics used here

- Addition to previous lecture (R.S.)
 - Not all details are strictly needed to understand, but required for calculations
 - I shall introduce:
 - Scalar and vector fields
 - Calculation on fields (vector calculus)
 - Illustrations and examples ...
- Remark: many illustrations only in 2 dimensions

A bit on scalar fields (potentials)

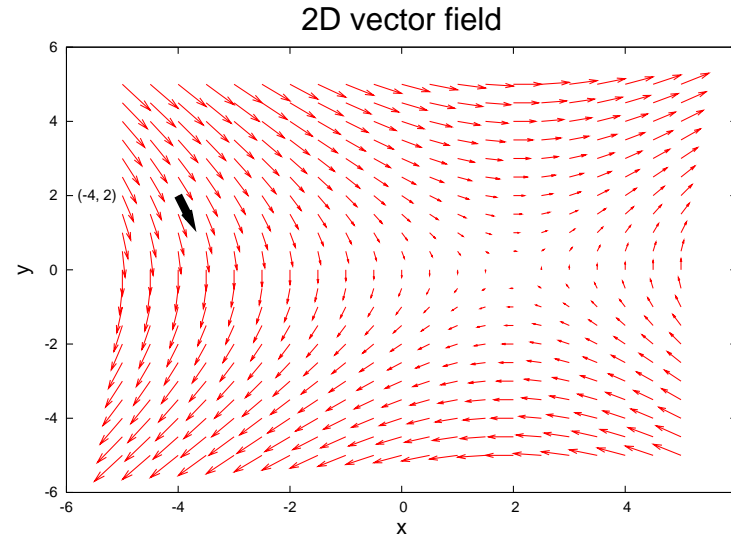
■ At each point in space has assigned a quantity with a value (real or complex)

■ Described by a scalar $\phi(x, y, z)$ (a number)

Example: $\phi(x, y, z) = 0.1x^2 - 0.2 \cdot x \cdot y + z^2$

→ We get for $(x = 4, y = 2, z = 1)$: $\phi(-4, 2, 1) = 4.2$

A bit on vector fields ...



At each point in space (or plane): a quantity with a **length** and **direction**, (typically 2, 3, 4, 6 components)




A vector with 3 components: $\vec{F}(x, y, z) = (F_x, F_y, F_z)$

Example (in 2D): $\vec{F}(x, y) = (0.1y, 0.1x - 0.2)$




→ We get: $\vec{F}(-4, 2) = (0.2, -0.6)$

Examples:

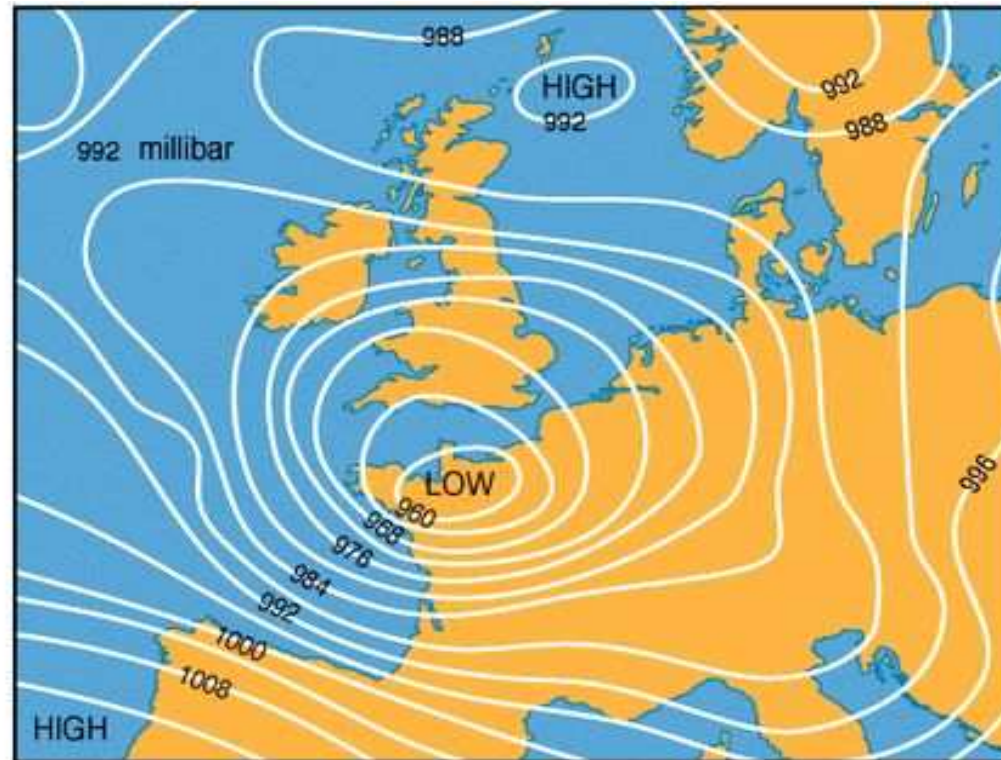
Scalar fields:

-  Atmospheric pressure
-  Temperature in a room
-  Density of molecules in a gas

Vector fields:

-  Speed and direction of wind ..
-  Heat flow
-  Velocity and direction of moving molecules in a gas

Example: scalar field/potential ...



Lines of pressure (isobars)

Function of longitude, latitude and altitude (x, y, z)

Example: vector field ...



Example for an extreme vector field ..

What we shall talk about

Maxwell's equations relate Electric and Magnetic fields from charge and current distributions (SI units).

\vec{E} = electric field [V/m]

\vec{H} = magnetic field [A/m]

\vec{D} = electric displacement [C/m²]

\vec{B} = magnetic flux density [T]

q = electric charge [C]

ρ = electric charge density [C/m³]

\vec{j} = current density [A/m²]

μ_0 = permeability of vacuum, $4 \pi \cdot 10^{-7}$ [H/m or N/A²]

ϵ_0 = permittivity of vacuum, $8.854 \cdot 10^{-12}$ [F/m]

c = speed of light, $2.99792458 \cdot 10^8$ [m/s]



Electromagnetic fields

In electrodynamics we talk about vector fields:

Electric phenomena: \vec{E} and \vec{D}

Magnetic phenomena: \vec{H} and \vec{B}

- ➔ Electrodynamics: need vectors with 3 components
- ➔ Need to know how to calculate with vectors
 - Scalar and vector products
 - Vector calculus products

Scalar products

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

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

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

This product of two vectors is a scalar (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: $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$,

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

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{a} \times \vec{b} &= (x_a, y_a, z_a) \times (x_b, y_b, z_b) \\ &= \left(\underbrace{y_a \cdot z_b - z_a \cdot y_b}_{x_{ab}}, \underbrace{z_a \cdot x_b - x_a \cdot z_b}_{y_{ab}}, \underbrace{x_a \cdot y_b - y_a \cdot x_b}_{z_{ab}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

This product of two vectors is a vector, 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):

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

Vector calculus ...

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

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

It is called the "gradient" and invokes "partial derivatives".

It can operate on a scalar function $\phi(x, y, z)$:

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

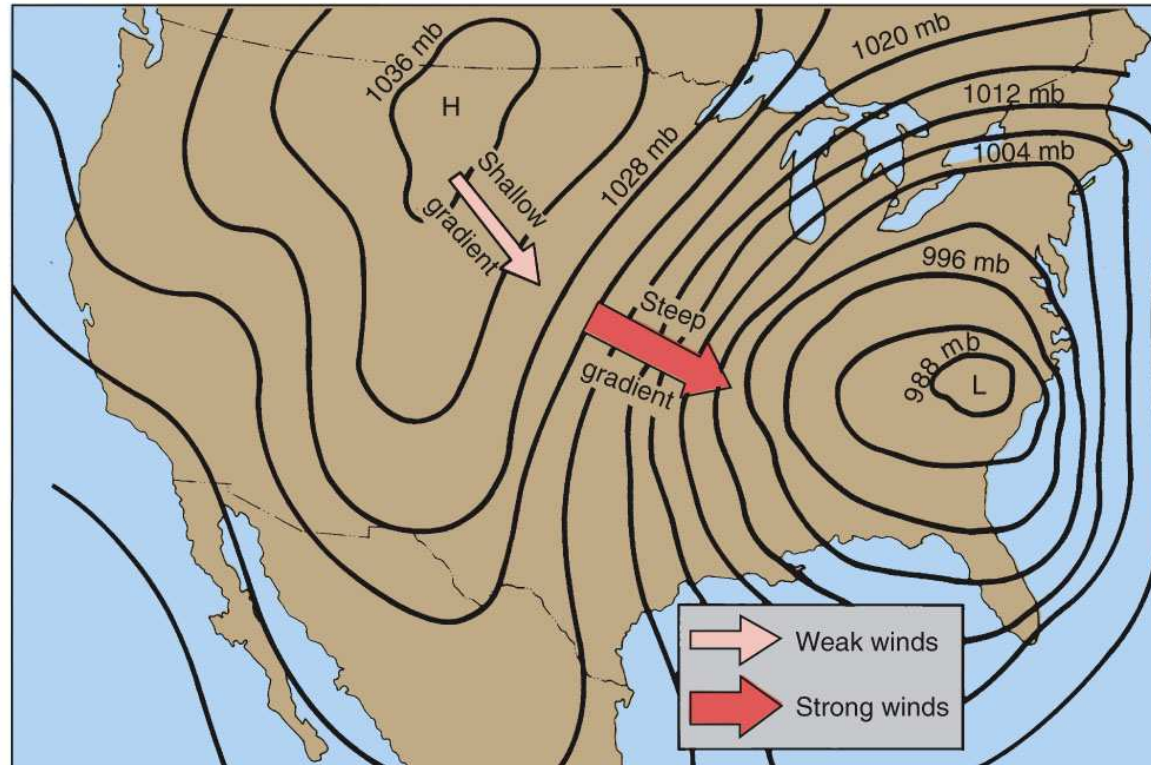
and we get a vector \vec{G} . It is a kind of "slope" (steepness ..) in the 3 directions.

Example: $\phi(x, y, z) = 0.1x^2 - 0.2 \cdot x \cdot y + z^2$



$$\nabla\phi = \vec{G}(x, y, z) = (G_x, G_y, G_z) = (0.2x - 0.2y, -0.2x, 2z)$$

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

Used as:

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

Same definition for products as before, ∇ 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 ∇ 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)

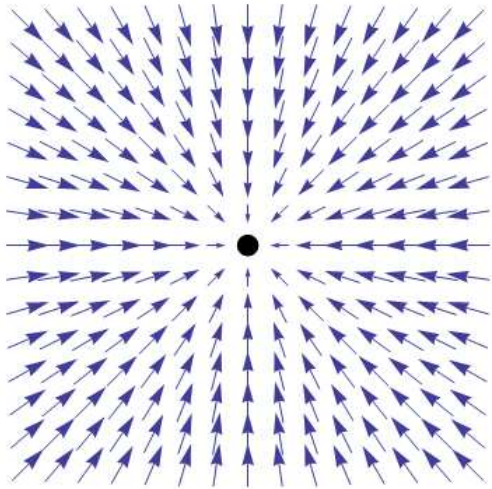
Curl (vector product of gradient with a vector):

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

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

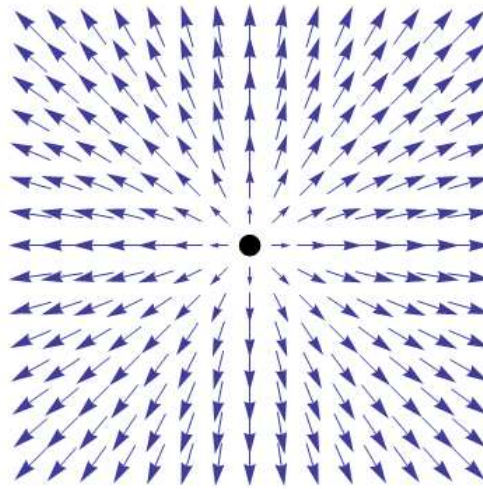
Meaning of Divergence of fields ...

Field lines seen from some origin:



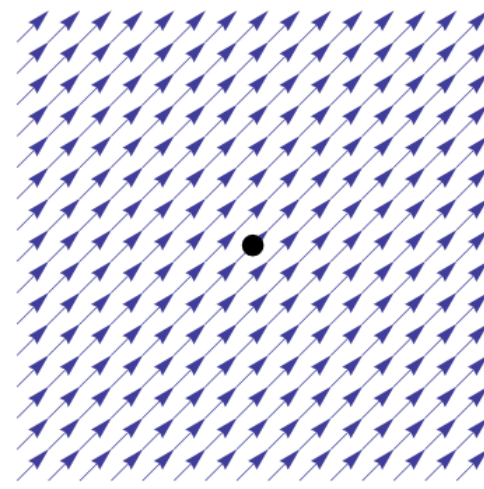
$$\nabla \vec{F} < 0$$

(sink)



$$\nabla \vec{F} > 0$$

(source)

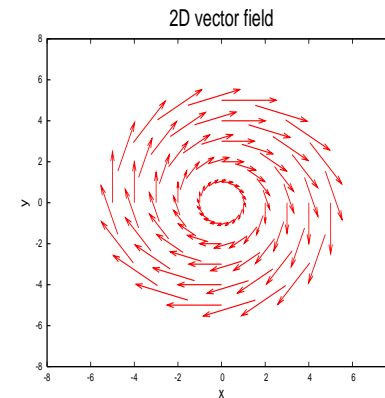
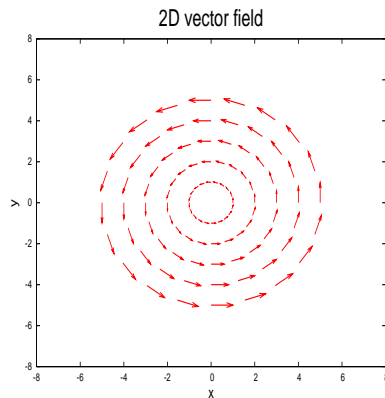


$$\nabla \vec{F} = 0$$

(fluid)

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

Meaning of Curl of fields ...



Here we have fields in $x - y$ plane::

$$\vec{F}_1 = (-0.2y, +0.2x, 0)$$

$$\vec{F}_2 = (+0.5y, -0.5x, 0)$$

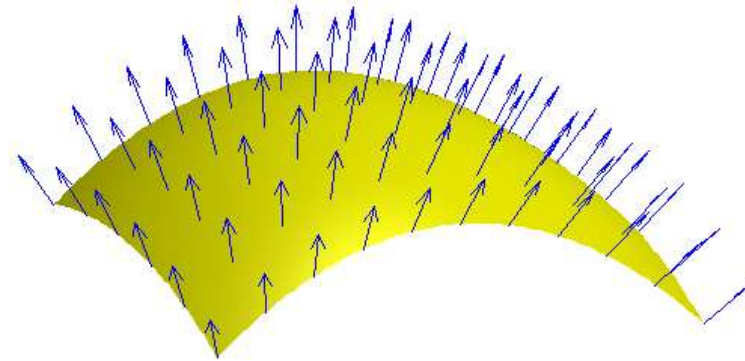
$$\nabla \times \vec{F}_1 = \text{curl} \vec{F}_1 = (0, 0, +0.4)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{F}_2 = \text{curl} \vec{F}_2 = (0, 0, -1.0)$$

Vectors in z-direction, perpendicular to $x - y$ plane

Values characterize "strength" and "direction" of rotation

Integration of (vector-) fields



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

$$\rightarrow \int \int_A \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

Density of field lines through the surface

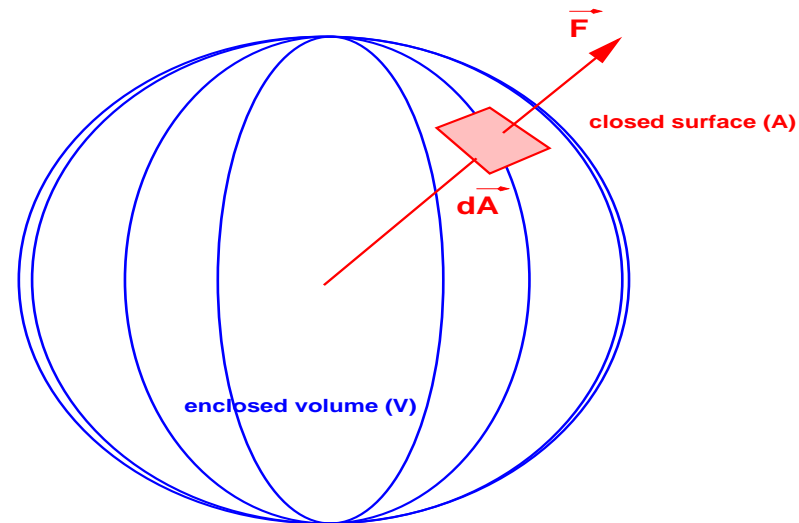
(e.g. amount of heat passing through a surface)

Easier Integration of (vector-) fields

Gauss' Theorem:

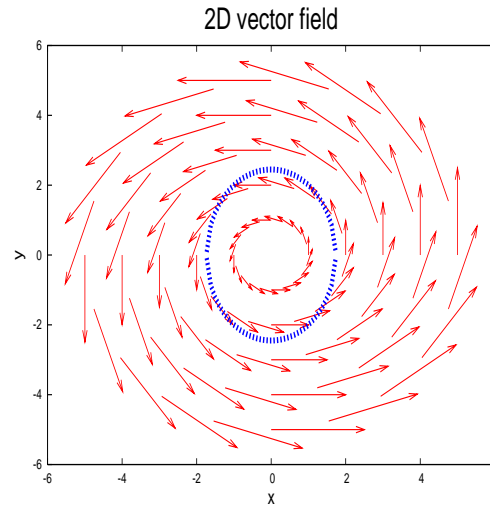
Integral through a **closed** surface (flux) is integral of divergence
in the enclosed volume

$$\int \int_A \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int \int_V \nabla \cdot \vec{F} \cdot dV$$



Relates surface integral to divergence

Integration of (vector-) fields



Line integrals: integrate field vectors along a line **C**:

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

”sum up” vectors (length) in direction of line **C**

Integral often called **Circulation**.

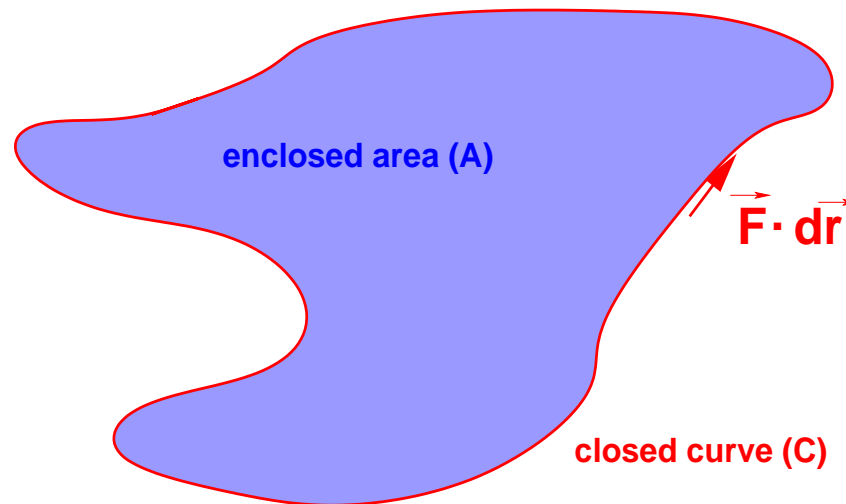
(e.g. work performed along a path ...)

Easier Integration of (vector-) fields

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

To remember: ...

Not really rigorous, but:

- *DIV* measures what is coming out (or going in),
integral is called the **FLUX**
- *CURL* measures what is circulating,
integral is called the **CIRCULATION**

In general: a closed surface or closed line "measures" what is happening inside ...

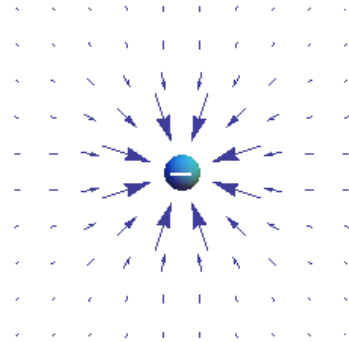
- **BACK to ELECTRODYNAMICS** -

How do we use all that stuff ?

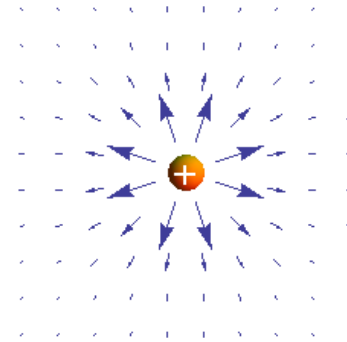
Some generalities

- Electric fields \vec{E} are generated by charges
- Magnetic fields \vec{B} are generated by moving charges
- Quantified by strength and density of field vectors

Electric fields from charges



(negative charges)



(positive charges)

Assume fields from a positive or negative charge q

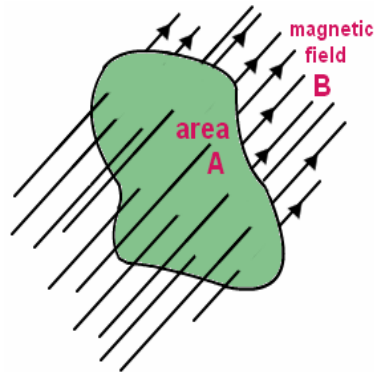
Electric field \vec{E} is written as (Coulomb law):

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

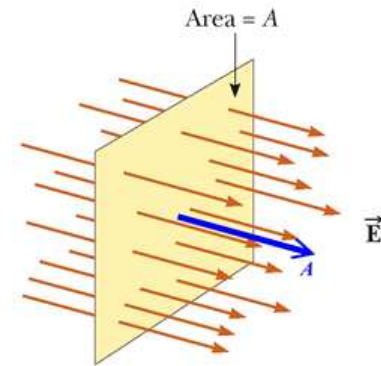
with:

$$\vec{r} = (x, y, z), \quad |r| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

Electric and Magnetic flux



$$\int \int_A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}$$



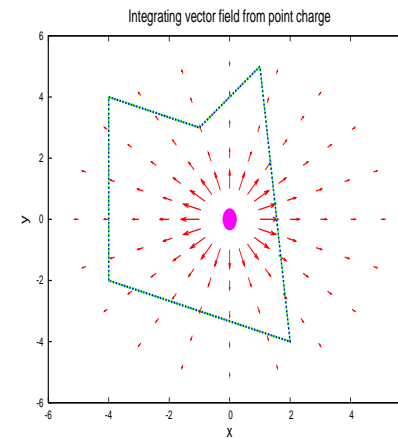
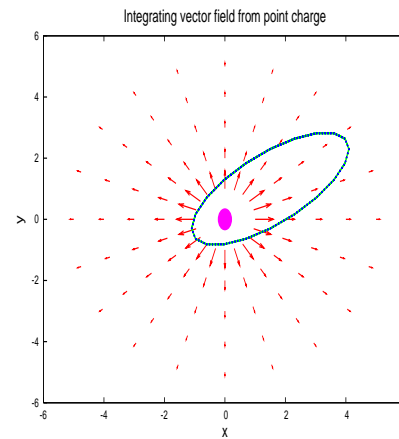
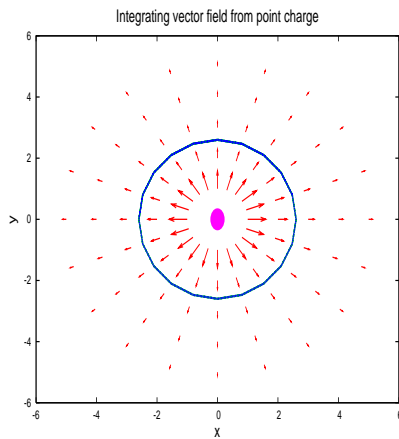
$$\int \int_A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

Integrate (count) field vectors through an area (or surface)

”Measures” the strength of the fields

Gives flux of electric and magnetic fields

Integrating fields from charges (2D !) ..



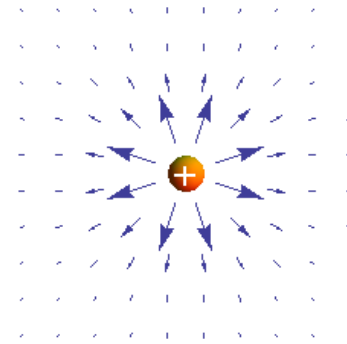
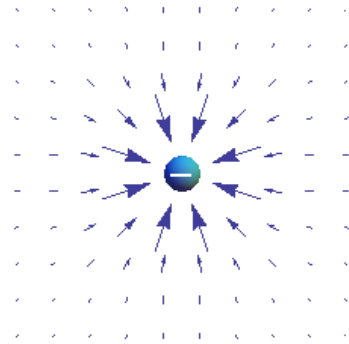
■ To compute the flux, add field lines through the surface: $\int \int_A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$

■ Put any closed surface around charges (sphere, box, ...).
If all charges are enclosed: independent of shape !

➡ If positive: total net charge enclosed positive

➡ If negative: total net charge enclosed negative

Applying Divergence and charges ..



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

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{E} = \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{dE_x}{dx} + \frac{dE_y}{dy} + \frac{dE_z}{dz} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

(negative charges)

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

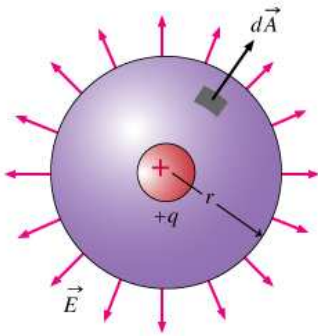
(positive charges)

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

Divergence related to charge density ρ generating the field \vec{E}

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

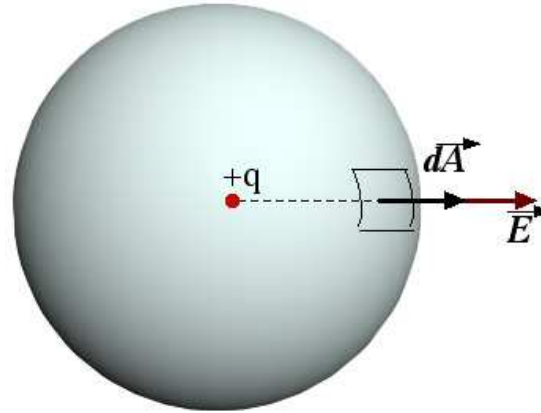
$$\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int \int_A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int \int \int_V \nabla \cdot \vec{E} \cdot dV = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$



Flux of electric field \vec{E} through a closed surface proportional to net electric charge q enclosed in the region (**Gauss's Theorem**).
Written with charge density ρ we get Maxwell's first equation:

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

Example: field from a charge q



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

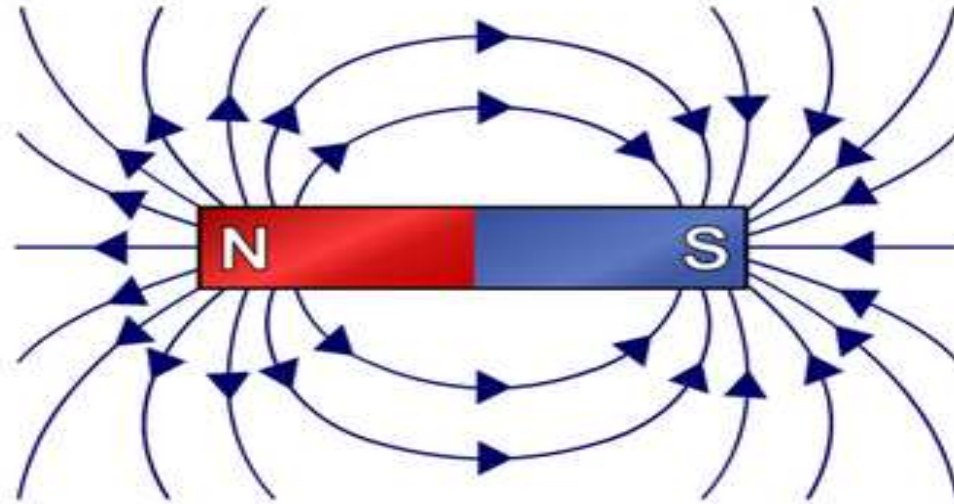
$$\vec{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3}$$

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

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

Surface integral through sphere A is charge inside the sphere

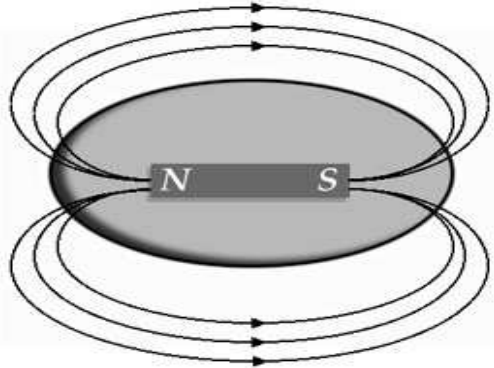
Divergence of magnetic fields



Definitions

- Magnetic field lines from **North** to **South**
- Q: which is the direction of the earth magnetic field lines ?

Maxwell's second equation ...



$$\int \int_A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int \int_V \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \, dV = 0$$

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

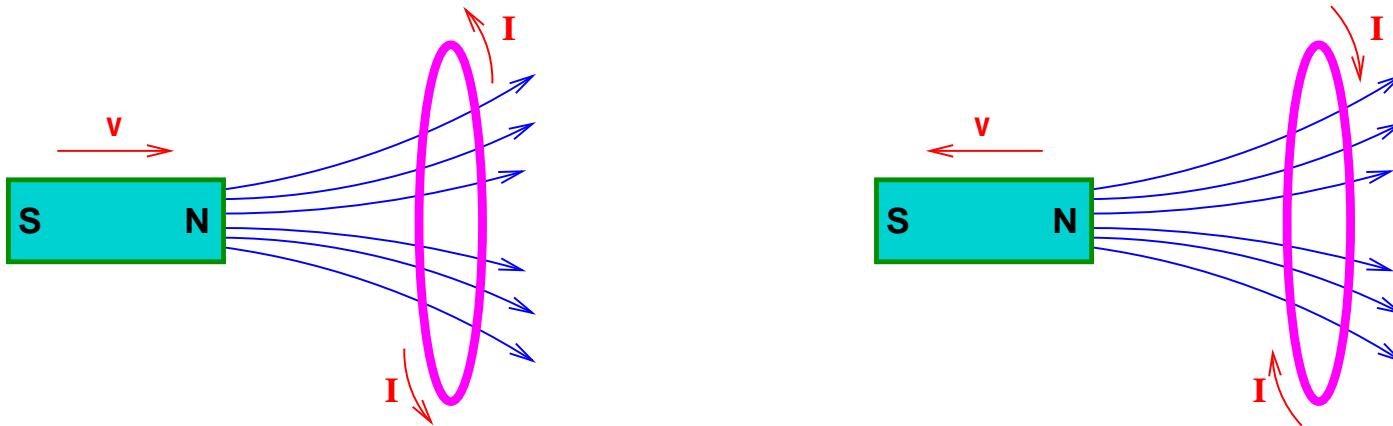
Closed field lines of magnetic flux density (\vec{B}): What goes out **ANY** closed surface also goes in, Maxwell's second equation:

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

➡ Physical significance: no Magnetic Monopoles

Maxwell's third equation ...

Faradays law:



- Changing magnetic flux through area of a coil introduces electric current I
- Can be changed by moving magnet or coil

Maxwell's third equation ...

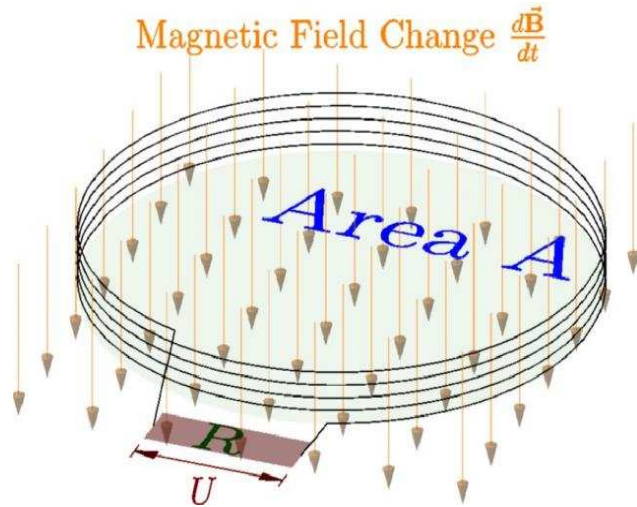
A changing flux Ω through an area A produces circulating electric field \vec{E} , i.e. a current I (Faraday)

$$-\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \underbrace{\int_A \vec{B} d\vec{A}}_{\text{flux } \Omega} = \oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

➤ 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 ...



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

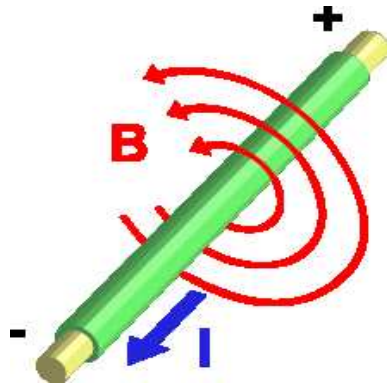
Changing magnetic field through an area induces electric field in coil around the area (Faraday)

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

Remember: strong *curl* = strong circulating field

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

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



Static electric current induces circulating magnetic field

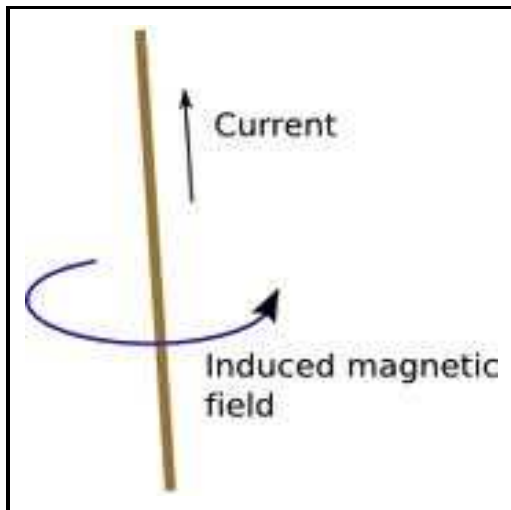
$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j}$$

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

$$\int \int_A \nabla \times \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_A \mu_0 \vec{j} \cdot d\vec{A} = \mu_0 I$$

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 $A = r^2 \cdot \pi$):

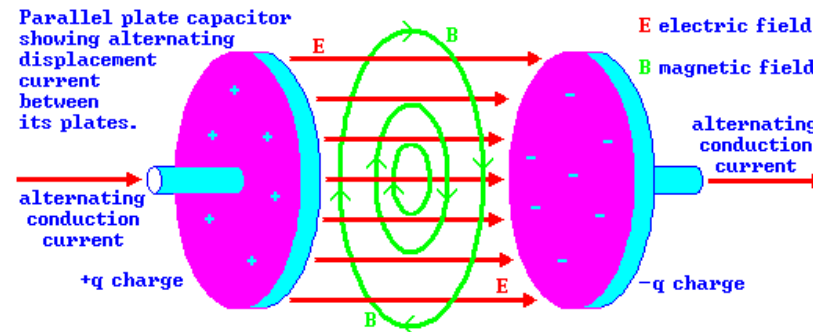


$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \oint \vec{I} \cdot \frac{\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r}}{r^3}$$
$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$$

For magnetic field calculations in electromagnets

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

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:

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j} \quad (\text{electrical current})$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j}_d = \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \quad (\text{changing electric field})$$

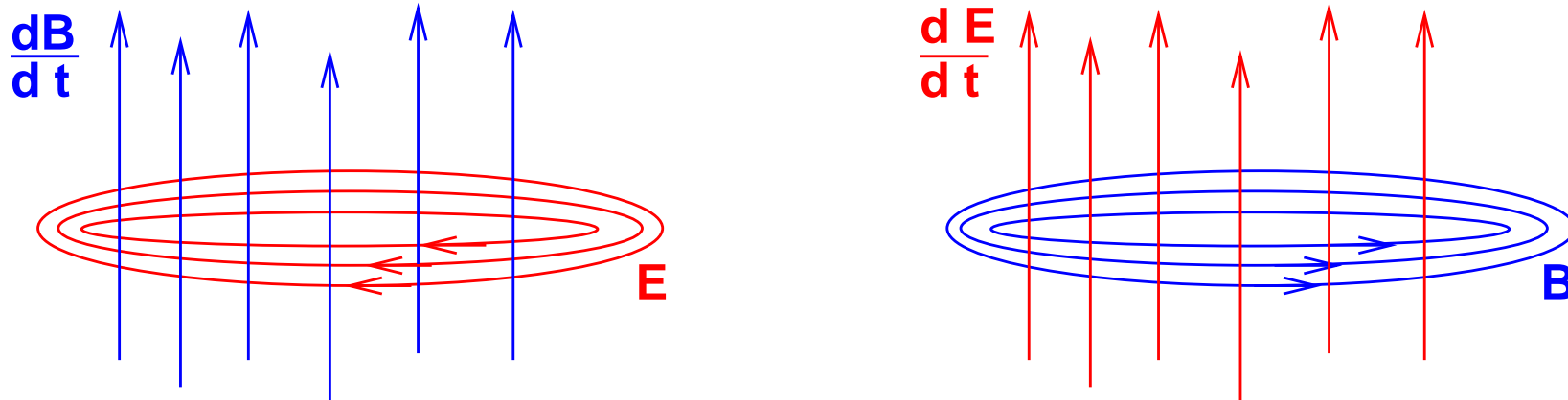
or putting them together:

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

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

$$\underbrace{\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{r}}_{\text{Stoke's formula}} = \int_A \nabla \times \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_A \left(\mu_0 \vec{j} + \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\vec{A}$$

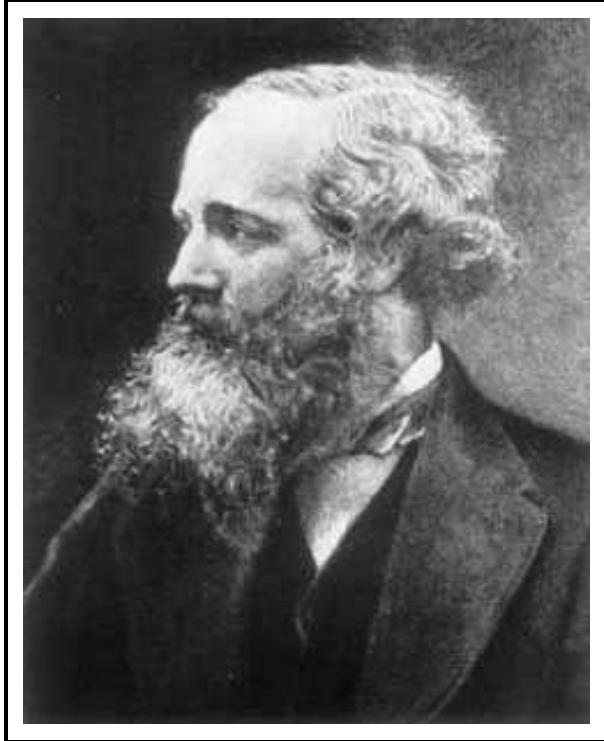
Summary: Static and Time Varying Fields



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

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

Summary: Maxwell's Equations



$$\int_A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

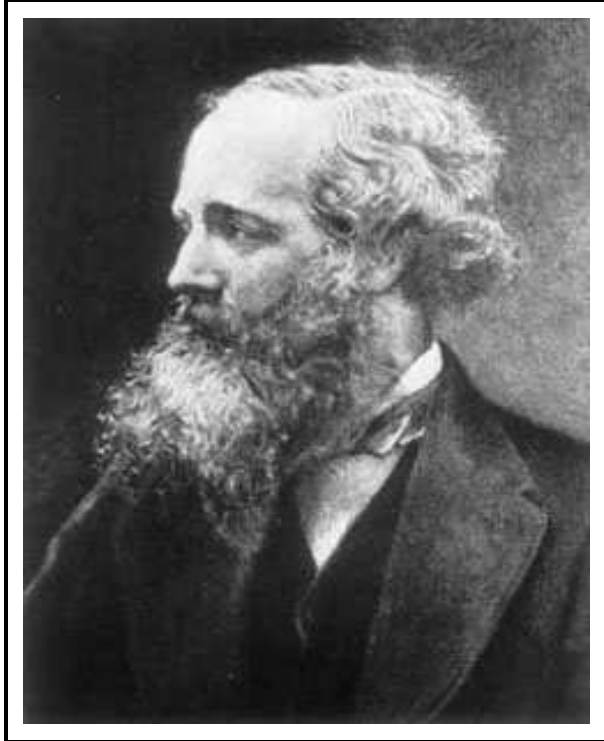
$$\int_A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$$

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

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_A \left(\mu_0 \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} \right) \cdot d\vec{A}$$

Written in **Integral form**

Summary: 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**

Summary: Maxwell's Equations

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

Written in **Physical terms**

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:

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

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:

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

In a material:

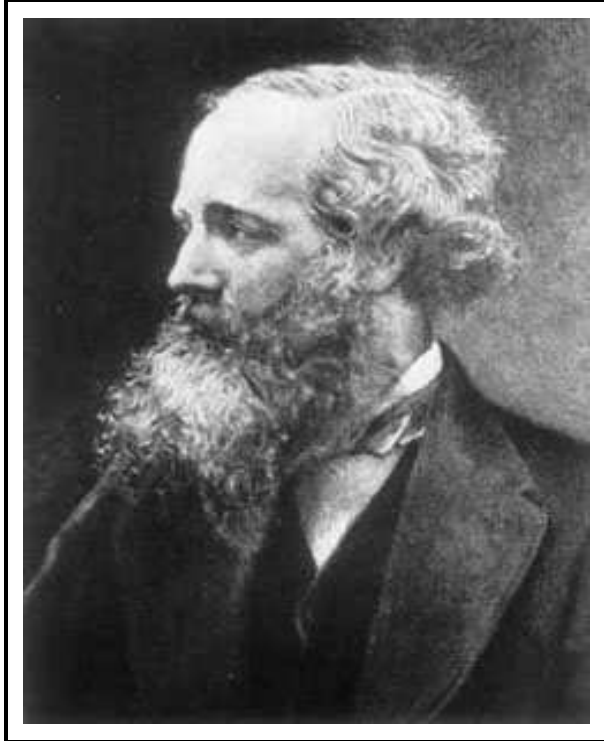
$$\vec{D} = \epsilon_r \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \vec{E}, \quad \vec{B} = \mu_r \cdot \mu_0 \cdot \vec{H}$$

ϵ_r is relative permittivity $\approx [1 - 10^5]$

μ_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 ρ ($\mu_0 = 1, \epsilon_0 = 1$):

Applications of Maxwell's Equations

- 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

Lorentz force on charged particles

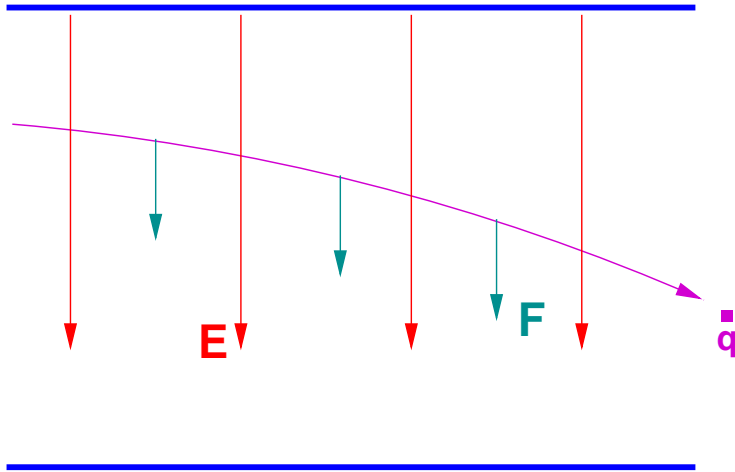
Moving (\vec{v}) charged (q) particles in electric (\vec{E}) and magnetic (\vec{B}) fields experience a force \vec{f} like (Lorentz force):

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

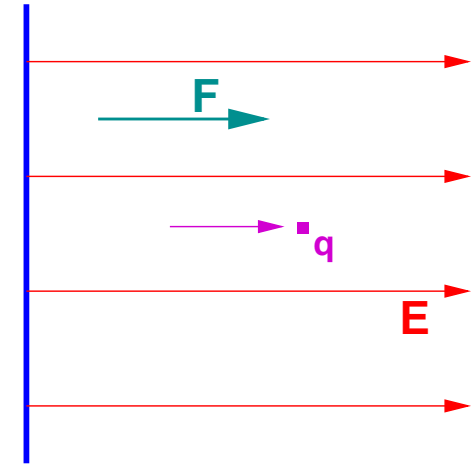
for the equation of motion we get (using Newton's law and relativistic γ);

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

Motion in electric fields



$$\vec{v} \perp \vec{E}$$



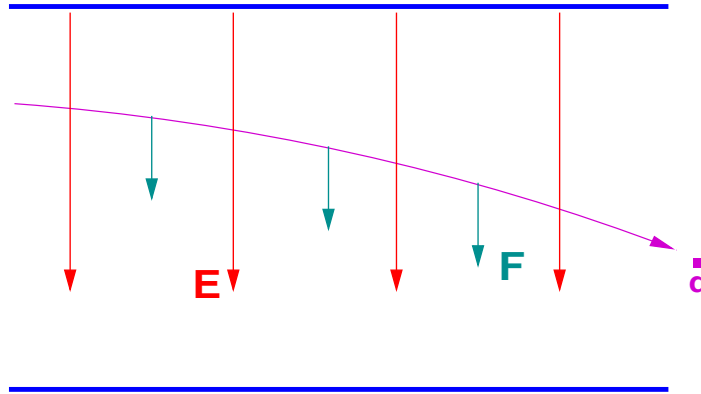
$$\vec{v} \parallel \vec{E}$$

Assume no magnetic field:

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

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

Motion in electric fields



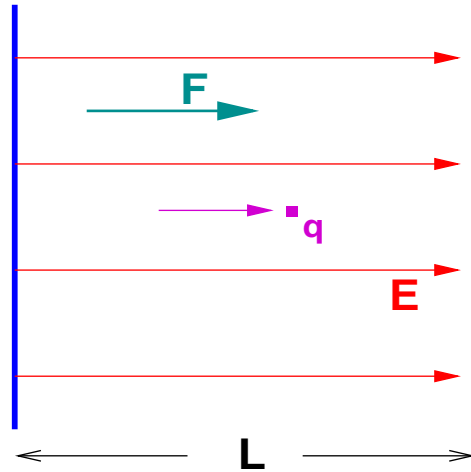
$$\frac{d}{dt}(m_0\gamma\vec{v}) = \vec{f} = q \cdot \vec{E}$$

The solution is:

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

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

Motion in electric fields



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

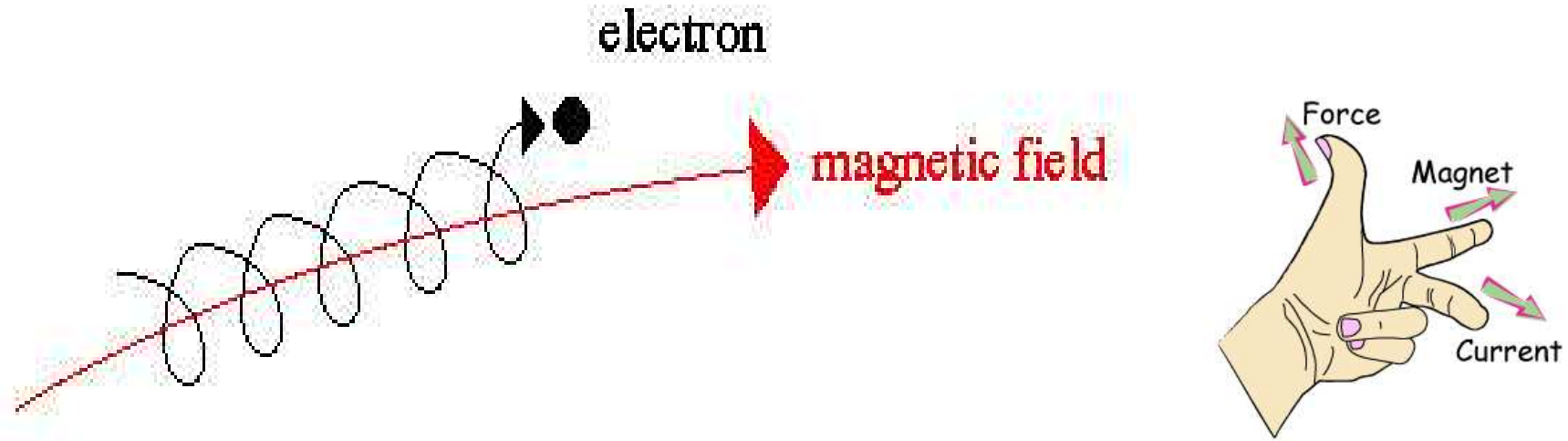
For constant field $\vec{E} = (E, 0, 0)$ in x-direction the energy gain is:

$$m_0c^2(\gamma - 1) = qE \cdot L$$

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

Constant E-field gives uniform acceleration over length L

Motion in magnetic fields



Assume first no electric field:

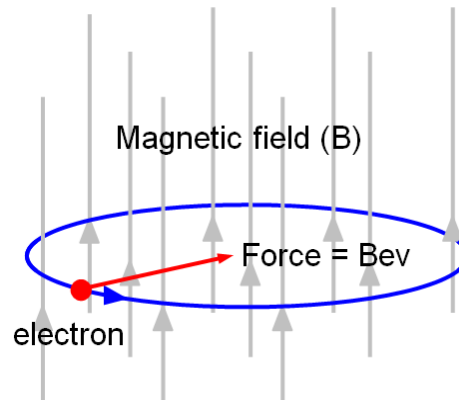
$$\frac{d}{dt}(m_0\gamma\vec{v}) = \vec{f} = q \cdot \vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

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 ρ :

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

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

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

Motion in magnetic fields

Practical units:




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

Example LHC:



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

Use of static fields (some examples, incomplete)

Magnetic fields

-  Bending magnets
-  Focusing magnets (quadrupoles)
-  Correction magnets (sextupoles, octupoles, orbit correctors, ..)

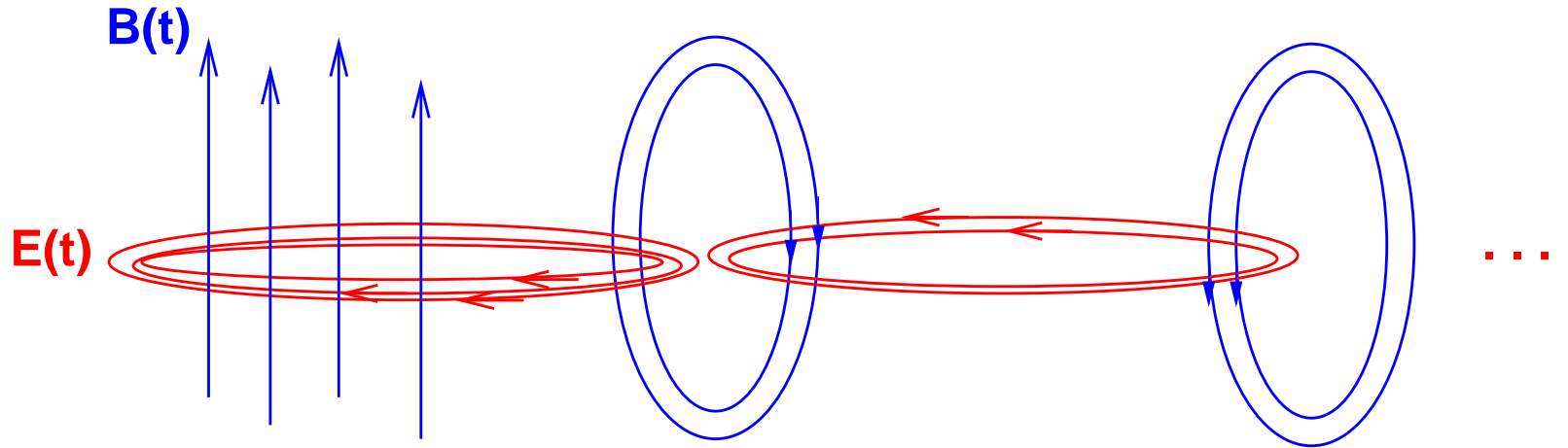
Electric fields

-  Electrostatic separators (beam separation in particle-antiparticle colliders)
-  Very low energy machines

What about non-static, time-varying fields ?



Time Varying Fields



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 ($j = 0$) ...

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

$$\begin{aligned} \implies \nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{E}) &= -\nabla \times \left(\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}\right) \\ \implies -(\nabla^2 \vec{E}) &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\nabla \times \vec{B}) \\ \implies -(\nabla^2 \vec{E}) &= -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} \end{aligned}$$

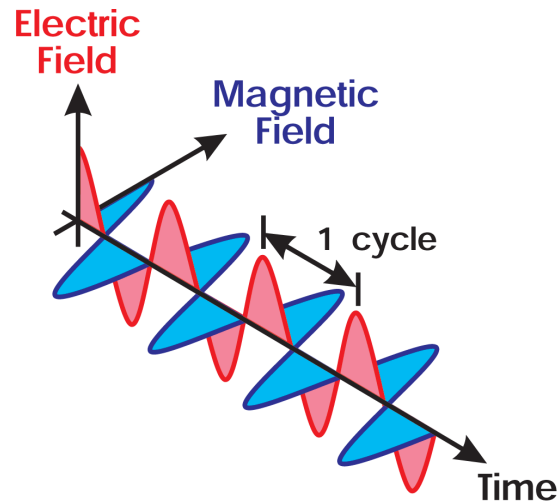
$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} = \mu_0 \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

Similar expression for the magnetic field:

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

Equation for a plane wave with velocity: $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \cdot \epsilon_0}}$

Electromagnetic waves



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

$$\vec{B} = B_0 e^{i(\omega t - \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x})}$$

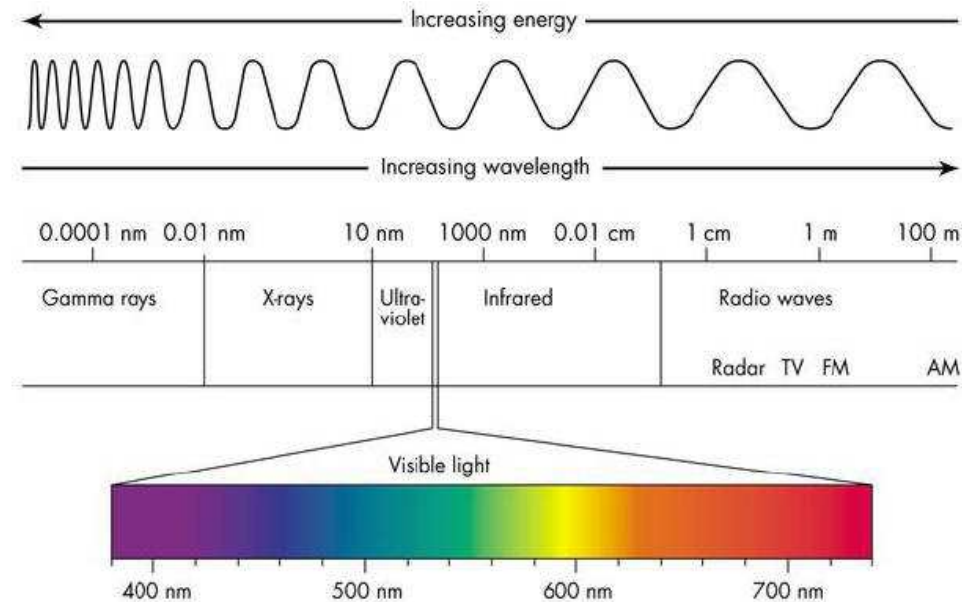
$$|\vec{k}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{\omega}{c} \quad (\text{propagation vector})$$

$$\lambda = (\text{wave length, 1 cycle})$$

$$\omega = (\text{frequency} \cdot 2\pi)$$

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

Spectrum of Electromagnetic waves






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

Waves hitting material

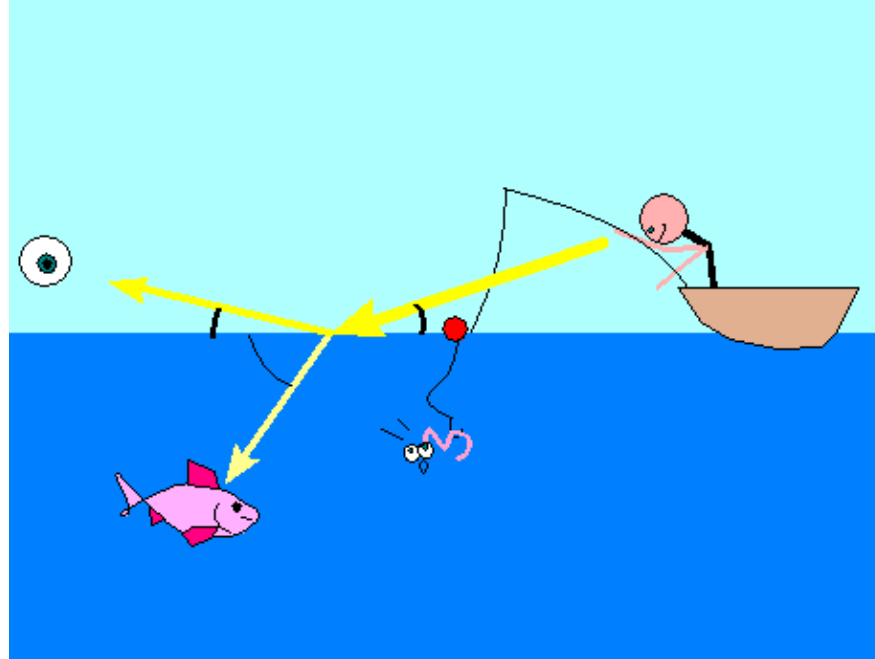
Need to look at the behaviour of electromagnetic fields at boundaries between different materials (air-glass, air-water, vacuum-metal, ...).

Important for highly conductive materials, e.g.:

-  RF systems
-  Wave guides
-  Impedance calculations

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

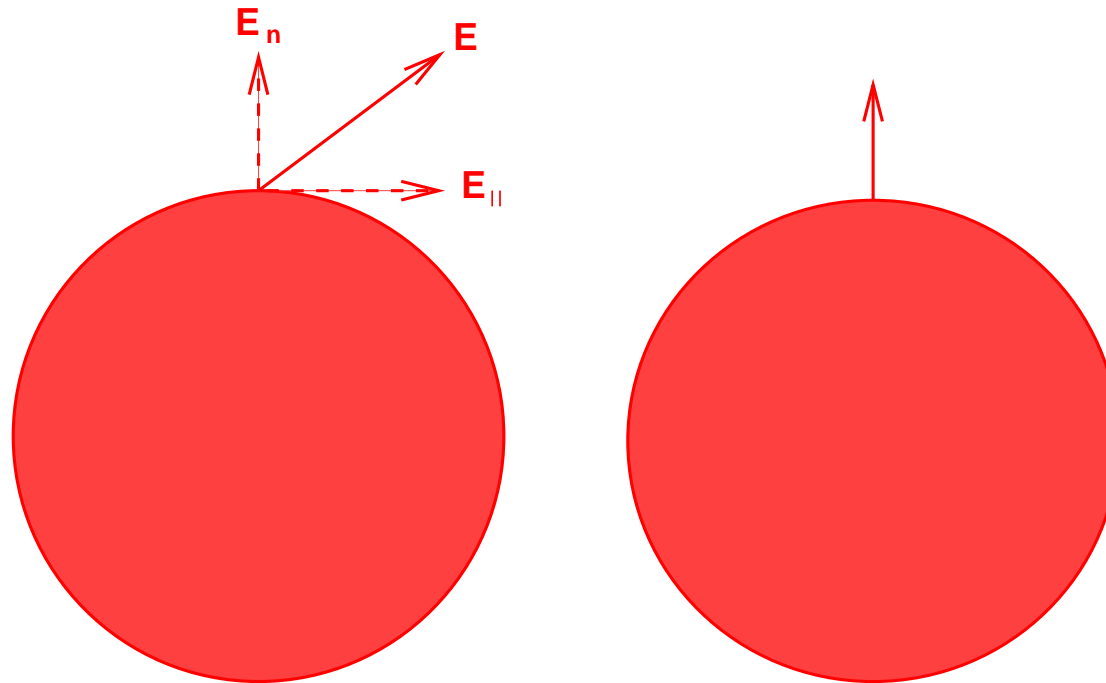
Observation: between air and water



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

Boundary conditions: air and conductor

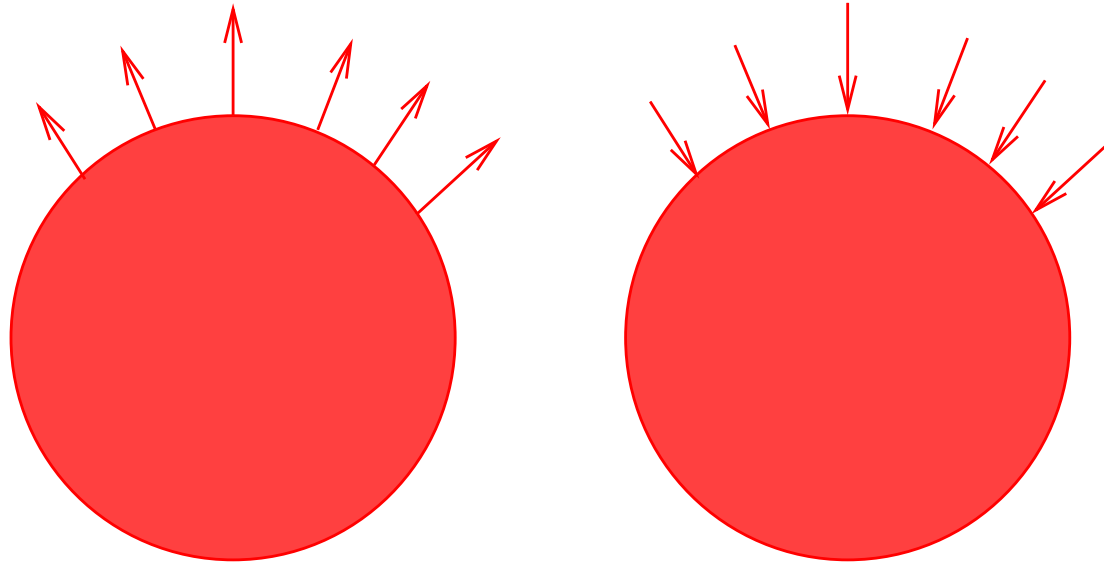
A simple case as demonstration (\vec{E} -fields on a conducting sphere):



- Field parallel to surface $E_{||}$ cannot exist (it would move charges and we get a surface current)
- 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 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)


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 !):

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

 $(D_{\parallel}^a \neq D_{\parallel}^b), (D_n^a = D_n^b)$

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

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

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

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:

$$\vec{E}_{\parallel} = 0, \quad \vec{B}_n = 0$$

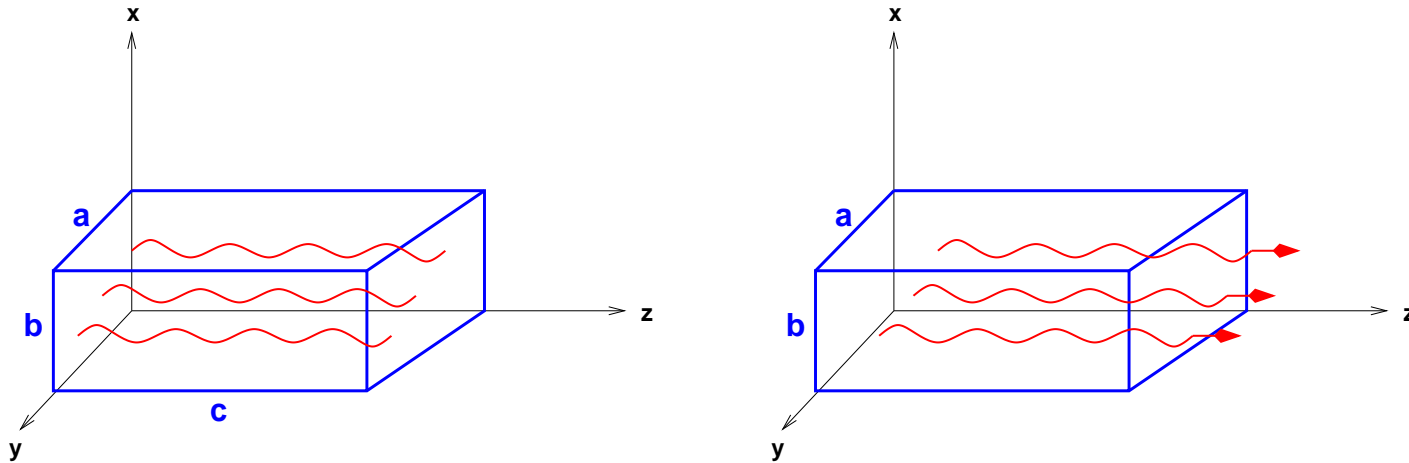
This implies:

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

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

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:

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

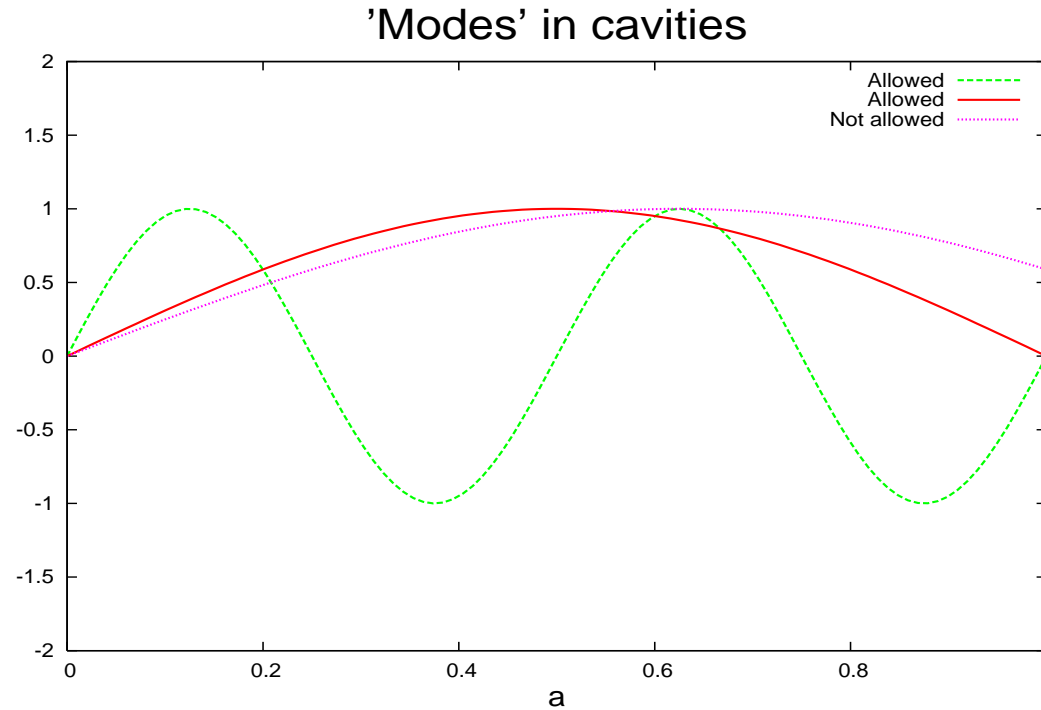
and for k_x, k_y, k_z we can write:

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

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

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

➤ No electric field at boundaries

Fields in wave guides

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

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

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

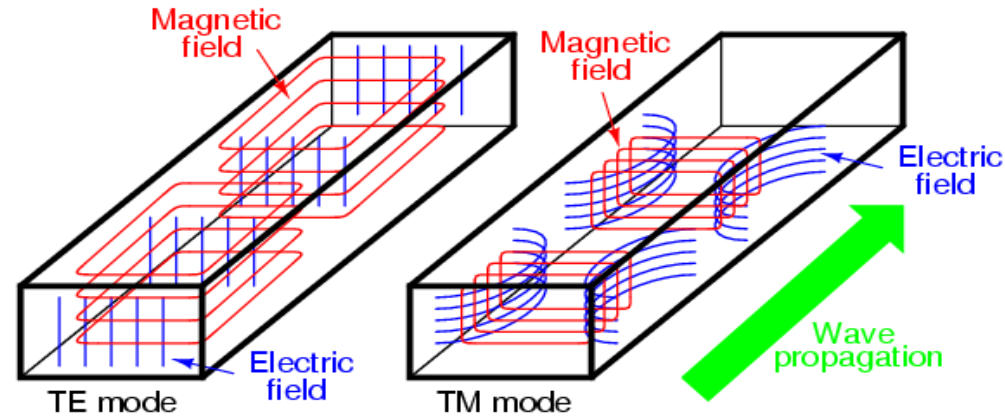
$$E_z = i \cdot E_{z0} \cdot \sin(k_x x) \cdot \sin(k_y y) \cdot e^{-i(k_z z - \omega t)}$$

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

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

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

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:

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

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 ω_c .

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

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



- BACKUP SLIDES -

Some popular confusion ..

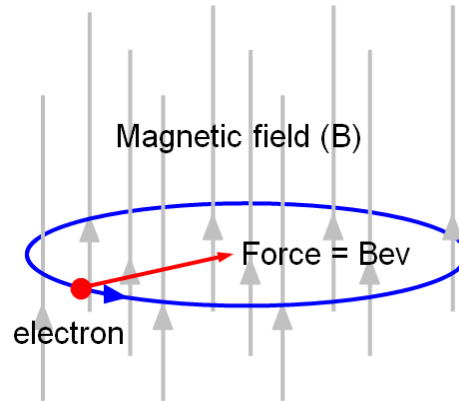
V.F.A.Q: why this strange mixture of \vec{E} , \vec{D} , \vec{B} , \vec{H} ??

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

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{H} &= \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu_0} - \vec{M} \\ \vec{D} &= \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}\end{aligned}$$

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

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:

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

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



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:

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

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

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

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

→ **Betatron condition**



Other case: finite conductivity

Assume conductor with finite conductivity ($\sigma_c = \rho_c^{-1}$), waves will penetrate into surface. Order of the skin depth is:

$$\delta_s = \sqrt{\frac{2\rho_c}{\mu\omega}}$$

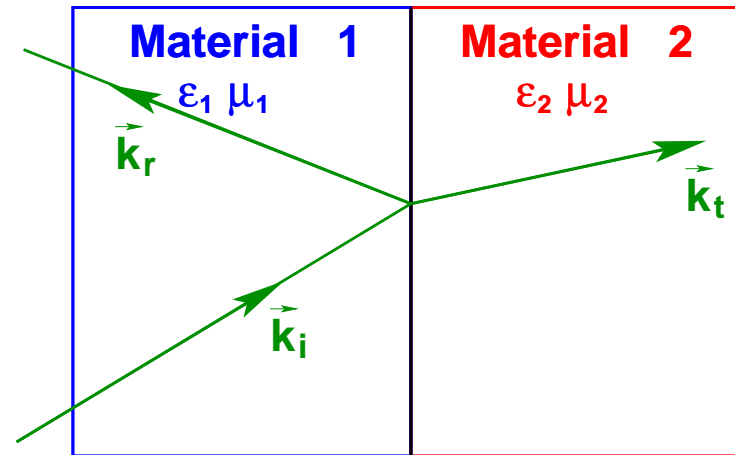
i.e. depend on resistivity, permeability and frequency of the waves (ω).

We can get the **surface impedance** as:

$$Z = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} = \frac{\mu\omega}{k}$$

the latter follows from our definition of k and speed of light. Since the wave vector k is complex, the impedance is also complex. We get a phase shift between electric and magnetic field.

Boundary conditions for fields

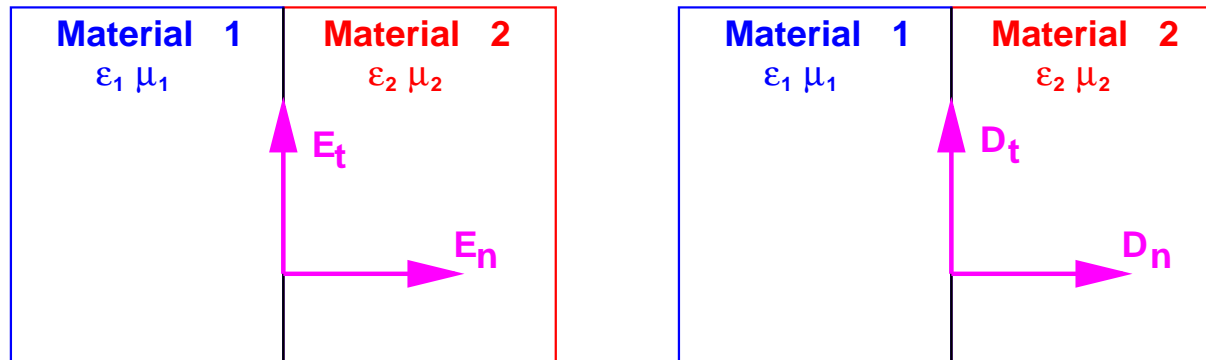


What happens when an incident wave (\vec{K}_i) encounters a boundary between two different media ?

- 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

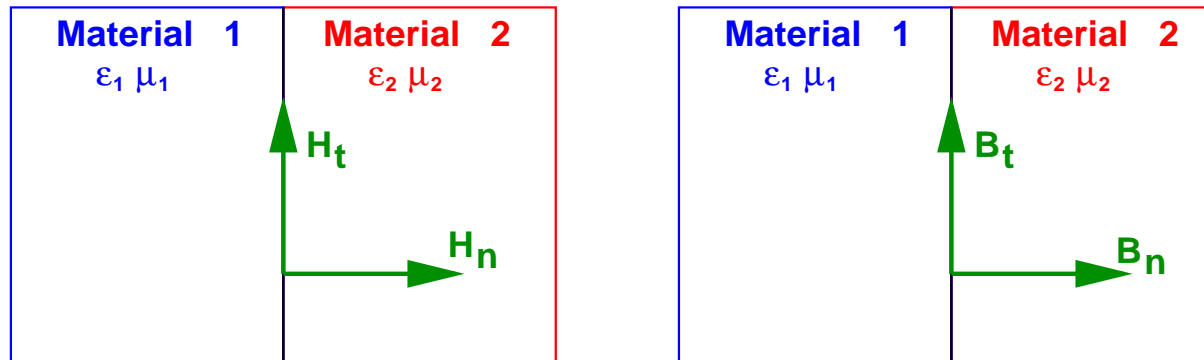


Assuming no surface charges:

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



Boundary conditions for fields



Assuming no surface currents:

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

