Formulations for Potentials

We wish to define suitable time-varying potential consistent with Maxwell's equations to aid their solution. Recall from electrostatics, the potentials are defined according to

$$\boldsymbol{E} = -\nabla V \tag{1}$$

and

$$\boldsymbol{B} = \nabla \times \boldsymbol{A}.\tag{2}$$

Equation (2) seems okay, since

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{B} = \nabla \cdot \nabla \times \boldsymbol{A} \equiv 0 \tag{3}$$

However, Faraday's Law has a problem because on the one hand,

$$\nabla \times \boldsymbol{E} = \nabla \times (-\nabla V) \equiv 0, \tag{4}$$

yet we know that in fact

$$\nabla \times \boldsymbol{E} = -\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{B}}{\partial t} \tag{5}$$

or equivalently

$$\nabla \times \left(\boldsymbol{E} + \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t} \right) = 0.$$
(6)

Since the term in parentheses is solenoidal (has no curl), it must be the gradient of some scalar function which we will call scalar electric potential Φ

$$\boldsymbol{E} + \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \Phi \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{E} = -\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t},$$
 (7)

where we have retained the minus sign to be consistent with electrostatic relations. From Gauss' Law,

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{E} = \nabla \cdot \left(-\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t} \right) = \frac{\rho_{ev}}{\epsilon_0},\tag{8}$$

$$\nabla^2 \Phi + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) = -\frac{\rho_{ev}}{\epsilon_0}$$
(9)

From Ampère's Law,

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \nabla \times \boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{J} + \epsilon_0 \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(-\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t} \right) \right]$$
(10)

$$-\nabla(\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{A}) + \nabla^2 \boldsymbol{A} - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \left(\nabla \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial^2 \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t^2}\right) = -\mu_0 \boldsymbol{J}$$
(11)

$$\nabla^{2}\boldsymbol{A} - \frac{1}{c^{2}}\frac{\partial^{2}\boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t^{2}} - \nabla\left(\nabla\cdot\boldsymbol{A} + \frac{1}{c^{2}}\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial t}\right) = -\mu_{0}\boldsymbol{J}.$$
(12)

We would really like to decouple equations (9) and (12). At this point, we need to recognize that the Helmholtz theorem states that a vector field is uniquely defined only when both its curl and divergence are specified. For example, say $A_y = A_z = 0$. Then, $\boldsymbol{B} = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \times \boldsymbol{A}$ gives

$$B_x = 0 \tag{13}$$

$$B_y = \partial A_x / \partial z \tag{14}$$

$$B_z = -\partial A_x / \partial y \tag{15}$$

which provides no information on the possible variation of A_x with x. If we knew the divergence of A, i.e.

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{A} = \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x},\tag{16}$$

our dilemma would be resolved.

The definition of B is also arbitrary in that the gradient of some scalar function could be added to A without changing B; that is, a transformation of the form

$$A \to A + \nabla \Lambda,$$
 (17)

does not change B. Λ is a gauge function. A is unchanged because the curl of a gradient is zero. Similarly, E in (7) must be unchanged, requiring a corresponding transformation of Φ defined by

$$\Phi \to \Phi - \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial t} \tag{18}$$

yields

$$\boldsymbol{E} = \nabla \left(\Phi - \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial t} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\boldsymbol{A} + \nabla \Lambda) = -\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t}.$$
 (19)

(17) and (18) collectively define a gauge transformation. The choice of a certain Λ changes the specification of $\nabla \cdot A$, but not the fields E and B. This means these fields are gauge invariant. The apparent freedom in defining A and Φ means that we can choose them advantageously to suit the problem at hand. Since we wish to form a wave equation, the Lorenz gauge

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} \tag{20}$$

is particularly convenient, since then (12) becomes

$$\nabla^2 \boldsymbol{A} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial t^2} = -\mu_0 \boldsymbol{J},$$
(21)

which is the vector wave equation.

Note that in (21) and (9) we now must solve second-order PDEs for the potentials, but in exchange, these equations only depend on potentials and they can be differentiated to find the fields E and B.

It is possible to use other potential functions to represent E and H. For example, it is possible to define a Hertzian potential Π_e such that

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\Pi}_e}{\partial t} \tag{22}$$

$$\boldsymbol{E} = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\Pi}_e) - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \boldsymbol{\Pi}_e$$
(23)

$$\boldsymbol{H} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \nabla \times \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\Pi}_e}{\partial t} \tag{24}$$

which allows the fields E and B to be found upon solving the wave equation for Π_e ,

$$\nabla^2 \Pi_e - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \Pi_e}{\partial t^2} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \mathbf{P}^i, \qquad (25)$$

where P^i is an impressed polarization current that is independent of E and defined according to $D = \epsilon_0 E + P + P^i$. There is also a dual Hertzian potential Π_m for magnetic current, which defines

$$\boldsymbol{F} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\Pi}_m}{\partial t} \tag{26}$$

$$\boldsymbol{D} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \nabla \times \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\Pi}_h}{\partial t}$$
(27)

$$\boldsymbol{H} = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\Pi}_h) - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \boldsymbol{\Pi}_h$$
(28)

where F is the vector electric potential. The corresponding wave equation is

$$\nabla^2 \Pi_h - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \Pi_h}{\partial t^2} = -\boldsymbol{M}^i,$$
⁽²⁹⁾

where M^i is the impressed magnetization current.