
Today in Physics 218: gauge transformations

More updates as we move from quasistatics to dynamics:

- ❑ #3: potentials
- ❑ For better use of potentials:
gauge transformations
- ❑ The Coulomb and Lorentz
gauges
- ❑ #4: force, energy, and
momentum in
electrodynamics



The spectre of the Brocken. Photo by Galen Rowell.

Update #3: potentials

In electrodynamics the divergence of \mathbf{B} is still zero, so according to the Helmholtz theorem and its corollaries (#2, in this case), we can still define a magnetic vector potential as

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \quad .$$

However, the curl of \mathbf{E} isn't zero; in fact it hasn't been since we started magnetoquasistatics. What does this imply for the electric potential? Note that Faraday's law can be put in a suggestive form:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \quad , \text{ or}$$

$$\nabla \times \left(\mathbf{E} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) = 0 \quad .$$

Potentials (continued)

Thus Corollary #1 to the Helmholtz theorem allows us to define a scalar potential for that last bracketed term:

$$\mathbf{E} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} = -\nabla V \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{E} = -\nabla V - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t}$$

so we can still use the scalar electric potential in electrodynamics, but now both the scalar and the vector potential must be used to determine \mathbf{E} .

“Reference points” for potentials

Our usual reference point for the scalar potential in electrostatics is $V \rightarrow 0$ at $r \rightarrow \infty$. For the vector potential in magnetostatics we imposed the condition $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$.

- These reference points arise from exploitation of the built-in ambiguities in the static potentials: one can add any gradient to \mathbf{A} and any constant to V , and still get the same fields.
- So we decided to add whatever was necessary to make the second-order differential equations in \mathbf{A} and V look like Poisson's equation (i.e. easy to solve).

In electrodynamics these choices no longer produce that last result:

“Reference points” for potentials (continued)

For instance, Gauss’s law gives us

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 4\pi\rho &\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \left(-\nabla V - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) = 4\pi\rho \\ \Rightarrow \nabla^2 V + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} &= -4\pi\rho \quad ,\end{aligned}$$

which with $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$ still leaves us with a Poisson equation, but Ampère’s law gives

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) = \frac{4\pi}{c} \mathbf{J} - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \nabla V - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{A}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{A} = \quad \quad \quad \text{(P.R. #11)}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \left(\nabla^2 \mathbf{A} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{A}}{\partial t^2} \right) - \nabla \left(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} \right) = -\frac{4\pi}{c} \mathbf{J} \quad .$$

“Reference points” for potentials (continued)

This latter equation does not of course reduce to a Poisson equation with any of the reference conditions we have imposed. Thus we must look harder to use the built-in ambiguity of the potentials to make the differential equations simpler. The general way to do this, which we will cover next time, is called a gauge transformation.

Gauge transformations

In electro- and magnetostatics, we showed that we could always choose our conventional reference points,

$$V \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } r \rightarrow \infty \qquad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$$

without placing any peculiar constraints on \mathbf{E} or \mathbf{B} . Now we have two, more complicated equations to simplify, and a more general approach is more fruitful.

Consider performing a transformation on \mathbf{A} and V : add a vector to \mathbf{A} and a scalar to V , giving *new* potential functions:

$$\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A} + \boldsymbol{\alpha} \qquad V' = V + \beta$$

Gauge transformations (continued)

Now, we can't add just any old thing to the potentials; we need for the *fields* arising from the new potentials to be the same as those from the old:

$$\mathbf{B}' = \mathbf{B}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{A}' = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} + \nabla \times \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

\Downarrow

$$\nabla \times \boldsymbol{\alpha} = 0 \quad , \quad \text{or}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \nabla \lambda' \quad ,$$

$$\mathbf{E}' = \mathbf{E}$$

$$\nabla V' = \nabla V + \nabla \beta$$

$$-\mathbf{E}' - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}'}{\partial t} = -\mathbf{E} - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} + \nabla \beta$$

$$\nabla \beta = \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}') = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}}{\partial t}$$

where λ' is a scalar function of \mathbf{r} and t .

Gauge transformations (continued)

Combine those last two results:

$$\nabla\beta = -\frac{1}{c}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\nabla\lambda'$$
$$\nabla\left(\beta + \frac{1}{c}\frac{\partial\lambda'}{\partial t}\right) = 0$$

and integrate the second one over volume, applying the fundamental theorem of calculus:

$$\beta + \frac{1}{c}\frac{\partial\lambda'}{\partial t} = f(t)$$

The integration “constant”
 f is not a function of
position

Gauge transformations (continued)

We can combine the integration “constant” f with λ' by defining

$$\lambda = \lambda' - c \int_0^t f(t') dt$$

$$\text{Then, } \beta = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \lambda'}{\partial t} + f(t) = -\frac{1}{c} \left(\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t} + cf(t) \right) + f(t) = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t}$$

$$\alpha = \nabla \lambda' = \nabla \lambda \quad ,$$

Thus for any scalar function $\lambda = \lambda(\mathbf{r}, t)$, the transformation

$$V' = V - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t} \quad A' = A + \nabla \lambda$$

Gauge
transformation

makes new potentials but leaves the fields E and B unchanged.

Gauge transformations (continued)

This sort of operation on potentials is called a gauge transformation, and a particular choice of λ is called a gauge condition.

□ Clever choices of λ can simplify one or the other of the second-order differential equations for the potentials.

□ The solution of these simpler equations for the transformed potentials gives the same fields as the solutions to the untransformed, complicated equations

For instance, to simplify $\nabla^2 V + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = -4\pi\rho$, we could pick λ such that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$$

Coulomb gauge

Gauge transformations (continued)

which, as we showed in PHY 217 (see

http://www.pas.rochester.edu/~dmw/phy217/Lectures/Lect_28b.pdf)

we can always do; that is, there always exists a function λ that we can add to A to give an A' with zero divergence. With this gauge condition,

$$\nabla^2 V' = -4\pi\rho \quad ,$$

just like in electrostatics (hence the name).

- Coulomb gauge only does a lot of good in magnetoquasistatics, because otherwise the time derivative of A gets big enough that you have to remember that

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \quad .$$

Lorentz gauge

It's hard to compute A in Coulomb gauge. On the other hand, we could choose λ such that

$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} = 0}, \quad \text{Lorentz gauge}$$

for which the second-order PDEs we saw several pages back become

$$\nabla^2 V + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = -4\pi\rho$$
$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^2 V - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial t^2} = -4\pi\rho}$$

Lorentz gauge (continued)

and

$$\left(\nabla^2 A - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial t^2} \right) - \nabla \left(\nabla \cdot A + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} \right) = -\frac{4\pi}{c} J$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^2 A - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial t^2} = -\frac{4\pi}{c} J}$$

- ❑ Not utterly simple, but at least V and A are separately determined, and the four equations are very similar to one another.
- ❑ In fact, the four second-order PDEs here are (inhomogeneous) **wave equations**, the solution of which will concern us for the bulk of this semester.

Lorentz gauge (continued)

Can one always use the Lorentz gauge? I think so, because:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}' + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial V'}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{A} + \nabla \lambda) + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(V - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t} \right) = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \lambda - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \lambda}{\partial t^2} = - \left(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} \right) = g(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

That is, the Lorentz gauge condition λ always obeys an inhomogeneous wave equation, just as do the potentials *in* Lorentz gauge. In MTH 281 you proved the existence of solutions to such equations; we'll demonstrate such solutions this semester.

Update #4: force, energy, and momentum in electrodynamics

The Lorentz force law,

$$\mathbf{F} = q \left(\mathbf{E} + \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B} \right)$$

hasn't changed since we first learned it, but can be used to illuminate the relation of the potentials to mechanics. To wit:

$$\mathbf{F} = q \left(-\nabla V - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \times \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \right)$$

According to product rule #4, written for \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{A} ,

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A}) &= \mathbf{v} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) + \cancel{\mathbf{A} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v})} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} + \cancel{(\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{v}} \\ &= \mathbf{v} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} \end{aligned}$$

because \mathbf{v} doesn't depend explicitly on \mathbf{r}

Force, energy, and momentum in electrodynamics (continued)

so

$$F = -q \left(\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{c} (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) A + \nabla \left(V - \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \right) \right)$$

It will be useful to introduce total time derivatives:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dA}{dt} &= \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial A}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial A}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dt} \\ &= \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + \left(v_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) A = \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) A \end{aligned}$$

so

$$F = -q \left(\frac{1}{c} \frac{dA}{dt} + \nabla \left(V - \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \right) \right)$$

Force, energy, and momentum in electrodynamics (continued)

But $F = dp/dt$, where p is the momentum of the point charge q , so

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -q \left(\frac{1}{c} \frac{dA}{dt} + \nabla \left(V - \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \right) \right)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\mathbf{p} + \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A} \right) = -\nabla \left(q \left[V - \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \right] \right)$$

This has the form $F = \frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{p}_{\text{canonical}} = -\nabla U$, where the canonical momentum is

$$\mathbf{p}_{\text{canonical}} = \mathbf{p} + \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A} \quad ,$$

and the related potential energy is

$$U = q \left(V - \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \right) .$$

Since $\mathbf{v} = d\mathbf{r}/dt$, \mathbf{r} is the conjugate canonical coordinate

Force, energy, and momentum in electrodynamics (continued)

In quantum mechanics one normally uses the Hamiltonian formulation of dynamics; this last result represents the easiest way to incorporate electrodynamics into quantum mechanics. From correspondence to classical mechanics, the Hamiltonian

$$H = \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{canonical}} \cdot \mathbf{p}_{\text{canonical}} - L$$

gives rise to the quantum-mechanical equations of motion,

$$H\psi = E\psi \quad ,$$

as well as the classical ones,

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{p}_{\text{canonical}}} = \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{canonical}} \quad , \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{\text{canonical}}} = \dot{\mathbf{p}}_{\text{canonical}} \quad .$$

Force, energy, and momentum in electrodynamics (continued)

The classical Lagrangian for a charge q in an electromagnetic field is therefore

$$L = \frac{1}{2} m \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{canonical}}^2 - U = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 - qV + \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \quad ,$$

so the classical Hamiltonian is

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{canonical}} \cdot \mathbf{p}_{\text{canonical}} - L = m v^2 + \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} - \frac{1}{2} m v^2 + qV - \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} m v^2 + qV = \frac{p^2}{2m} + qV = \boxed{\frac{1}{2m} \left| \mathbf{p}_{\text{canonical}} - \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A} \right|^2} + qV \quad . \end{aligned}$$

In quantum mechanics, $\mathbf{p}_{\text{canonical}} \rightarrow -i\hbar\nabla$.