8.07 Lecture Slides 15 October 30, 2019

ELECTRIC FIELDS IN MATTER

Announcements

Quiz 2 will be given on Wednesday, November 13, two weeks from today. Problem Set 6 is due this Friday, 11/1/19, and Problem Set 7 will be due the next Friday, 11/8/19. The quiz will include material through Problem Set 7.



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Review of Lecture 14

Electric Dipoles

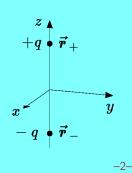
The dipole term of the multipole expansion looks like

$$V_{\mathrm{dip}}(\vec{r}) = rac{ec{p} \cdot \hat{r}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = rac{p\cos\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \;, \quad \mathrm{where} \quad ec{p} = \int
ho(ec{r}') ec{r}' \, \mathrm{d}^3 x' \;.$$

A **physical dipole** is defined to be two charges, +q and -q, at positions \vec{r}_+ and \vec{r}_- , respectively.

$$\vec{\boldsymbol{p}} = q(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}_+ - \vec{\boldsymbol{r}}_-) \ .$$

An **ideal dipole** is the limit of a physical dipole as $|\vec{r}_+ - \vec{r}_-| \to 0$, $q \to \infty$, with \vec{p} fixed. An ideal dipole is a pure dipole, with no moments other than the dipole moment.



Review of Lecture 14

Properties of Electric Dipoles

Charge Density:

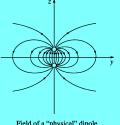
$$\rho_{\rm dip}(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}) = -\vec{\boldsymbol{p}}\cdot\vec{\boldsymbol{\nabla}}_{\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}}\delta^3(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}-\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}_0) \; , \label{eq:rhodip}$$

where \vec{r}_0 is the position of the dipole.

Electric Field:

$$\begin{split} \vec{\boldsymbol{E}}_{\mathrm{dip}}(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}) &= -\vec{\boldsymbol{\nabla}} V_{\mathrm{dip}} \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3(\vec{\boldsymbol{p}}\cdot\hat{\boldsymbol{r}})\,\hat{\boldsymbol{r}} - \vec{\boldsymbol{p}}}{r^3} - \frac{1}{3\epsilon_0} \vec{\boldsymbol{p}}\,\delta^3(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}})\;. \end{split}$$

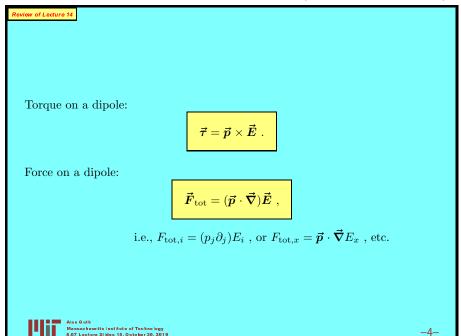
The delta function describes the contribution to $\int d^3x \, \vec{E}(\vec{r})$ of the strong \vec{E} field at the center of the dipole, as shown in the diagram.



Field of a "physical" dipole
FIGURE 3.37

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Microscopic and Macroscopic Fields

In matter,

$$\rho_{\rm micro}(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}) = \sum_i q_i \delta^3(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}} - \vec{\boldsymbol{r}}_i) \; , \label{eq:rhomicro}$$

Define a macroscopic field by

 $ho_{
m macro}(\vec{r}) = {
m average} \ {
m of} \
ho_{
m micro} \ {
m in} \ {
m small} \ {
m region} \ {
m centered} \ {
m at} \ \vec{r} \, .$ $= \langle
ho_{
m micro}(\vec{r})
angle \ .$

Choose size of region to be

- (a) large compared to the size of atoms.
- (b) small compared to macroscopic dimensions (i.e., the sizes of physical objects).

We will treat $\rho_{\text{macro}}(\vec{r})$ as a smooth function.

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Similarly, in matter we distinguish between $\vec{E}_{\text{micro}}(\vec{r})$ and $\vec{E}_{\text{macro}}(\vec{r})$.

Convention: in matter, with no subscript, $\rho(\vec{r})$ and $\vec{E}(\vec{r})$ refer to the macro quantities.

Bound Charges

Matter can become "polarized," meaning that it acquires a nonzero density of dipoles.

 $\vec{P}(\vec{r}) =$ dipole moment per unit volume.

 $\vec{P}(\vec{r})$ is just a particular way of describing a distribution of charge. In principle, one can equivalently use $\rho(\vec{r})$

Given $\vec{P}(\vec{r})$, what is $\rho(\vec{r})$?

Answer:

ew of Lecture 14

$$\rho_b(\vec{r}) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}(\vec{r}) ,$$

and on the surface of a polarized material,

$$\sigma_b = \vec{P} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \; ,$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}$ is the outward unit normal.

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Review of Lecture 14

Derivation of Bound Charge Density

We will explore **THREE** ways to derive this important relation.

Method 1 (from Griffiths, Sec. 4.2.1, pp. 173–174, done on blackboard in Lecture 14):

$$V(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{(\vec{r} - \vec{r}') \cdot \vec{P}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|^3} d^3x'$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left\{ -\int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} d^3x' + \int_{S} \frac{\vec{P}(\vec{r}') \cdot \hat{n}}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} da' \right\}.$$

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$$V(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{(\vec{r} - \vec{r}') \cdot \vec{P}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|^3} d^3x'$$
$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left\{ -\int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} d^3x' + \int_{S} \frac{\vec{P}(\vec{r}') \cdot \hat{n}}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} da' \right\}.$$

For comparison, for an arbitrary charge density $\rho(\vec{r})$ and surface charge density $\sigma(\vec{r})$,

$$V(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left\{ -\int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\rho(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \,\mathrm{d}^3 x' + \int_{S} \frac{\sigma(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \,\mathrm{d}a' \right\} .$$

Comparing the two expressions, we see that

$$ho(\vec{r}) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}(\vec{r})$$
, and $\sigma(\vec{r}) = \vec{P}(\vec{r}) \cdot \hat{n}$.

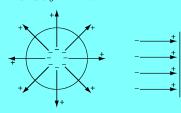
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The total charge on a polarized object is zero:

$$Q_{\text{tot}} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} \rho_b \, \mathrm{d}^3 x + \int_{S} \sigma_b \, \mathrm{d} a = 0 \ .$$

Pictures of $\rho_b = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}$ and $\sigma_b = \vec{P} \cdot \hat{n}$:



Shortcoming of Method 1: It makes it seem that Coulomb's law and $V(\vec{r})$ are relevant. They are not!

FIGURE 4.14

Derivation of Bound Charge Density Method 2: from Feynman Lectures

Calculate total charge in an arbitrary volume \mathcal{V} .

Dipoles completely within the volume do not contribute. Only dipoles cut by the surface contribute.

On surfaces, consider first dipoles perpendicular to surface:

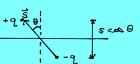
Look at an infinitesimal patch of surface. Can treat as a plane. Layer of dipoles of thickness s contribute. Extra charge on surface is $\Delta q = -s \operatorname{d} a \mathcal{N} q$, where $\operatorname{d} a = \operatorname{area}$ of patch, $\mathcal{N} = \operatorname{number density}$ of dipoles.



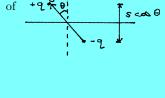


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Now consider the case where \vec{P} is at an angle θ relative to the normal. Now a layer of +2 $\frac{5}{100}$ thickness $s\cos\theta$ contributes. Then



$$\Delta q = -s (da \cos \theta) \mathcal{N} q$$
$$= -\mathcal{N}(q\vec{s}) \cdot da$$
$$= -\vec{P} \cdot d\vec{a}.$$



So, using the divergence theorem,

$$Q = -\int_{S} \vec{P} \cdot d\vec{a} = -\int_{\mathcal{V}} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} d^{3}x ,$$

so
$$\rho_b = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}$$
.



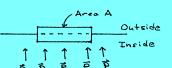
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But what about σ_b ?

It is okay to use **only** $\rho_b = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}$, if one uses it over all space, including at the boundaries the polarized material:

Applying divergence theorem to a Gaussian pillbox that straddles the surface of the material. The only contribution is from the bottom surface:



$$Q_{\text{enc}} = -\int_{\mathcal{V}} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} \, d^3 x$$
$$= -\int_{S} \vec{P} \cdot d\vec{a} = A \vec{P} \cdot \hat{n} ,$$

$$\sigma_b = rac{Q_{
m enc}}{A} = \vec{P} \cdot \hat{m{n}} \; .$$

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Derivation of Bound Charge Density Method 3: Use δ -functions

Reminder about microscopic and macroscopic charge density:

$$\rho_{\rm micro}(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}}) = \sum_i q_i \delta^3(\vec{\boldsymbol{r}} - \vec{\boldsymbol{r}}_i) \; , \label{eq:rhomicro}$$

$$ho_{
m macro}(ec{m{r}}) = \left\langle \sum_i q_i \delta^3(ec{m{r}} - ec{m{r}}_i)
ight
angle \; .$$

Similarly,

$$ec{P}_{
m micro}(ec{m{r}}) = \sum_i ec{m{p}}_i \delta^3(ec{m{r}} - ec{m{r}}_i) \; ,$$

$$ec{P}_{
m macro}(ec{m{r}}) = \left\langle \sum_i ec{m{p}}_i \delta^3 (ec{m{r}} - ec{m{r}}_i)
ight
angle \; .$$

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For one dipole, $\rho = -\vec{\boldsymbol{p}} \cdot \vec{\boldsymbol{\nabla}} \delta^3 (\vec{\boldsymbol{r}} - \vec{\boldsymbol{r}}_0)$. For ρ_b , $ho_{b, ext{micro}} = -\sum_{i} \vec{m{p}}^{(i)} \cdot \vec{m{
abla}} \delta^{3}(\vec{m{r}} - \vec{m{r}}_{i})$ $= \sum_{i} p_j^{(i)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \delta^3(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_i)$ $= -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \sum_{i} p_j^{(i)} \delta^3(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_i) .$ $\rho_{b,\text{macro}} = -\left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \sum_{i} p_j^{(i)} \delta^3(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_i) \right\rangle$ $=-rac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left\langle \sum_{i}p_{j}^{(i)}\delta^{3}(ec{m{r}}-ec{m{r}}_{i})
ight
angle$ $= -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}_{macro}$.

