#### **Electric Fields in Matter**

PYL101: Electromagnetics & Quantum Mechanics

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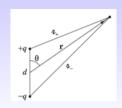
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#### References

- ▶ Introduction to Electrodynamics, David J. Griffiths [IEDJ]
  - ► Chapter IV, Electric Fields in Matter

# Electric Dipole



- An **electric dipole** consists of two **equal** and **opposite** charges  $(\pm q)$  separated by a distance d.
- ightharpoonup Its *potential* at point r is<sup>1</sup>,

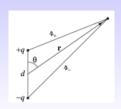
$$V_{\mathrm{dip.}}(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{q}{s_+} - \frac{q}{s_-} \right) \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qd\cos\theta}{r^2}$$
 (far-field)

when **r** is *relatively* large, *i.e.*,  $r \gg d$ .

► The *far-field* potential of a dipole *falls off* as  $\frac{1}{r^2}$ , as opposed to an isolated point charge, which falls off as  $\frac{1}{r}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>HW: Prove this using the **law of cosines**, *i.e.*,  $s_+^2 = \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^2 + r^2 - 2\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)r\cos\theta$ , and  $\cos(\pi - \theta) = -\cos\theta$ .

## The Dipole Moment



► The **dipole moment** is defined as,

$$p \equiv qd$$

where d is the displacement vector pointing from the – charge to the + charge.<sup>2</sup>

▶ We may recast the *far-field* potential due to the dipole as,

$$V_{\text{dip.}}(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{q d \cos \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = \frac{\mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = \frac{p \cos \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}$  is directed from the *center* of the dipole to the observation point.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Opposite to how the electric field lines point.

#### The Electric Field E due to p



Given that,

$$V_{\text{dip.}}(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{p \cos \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

and using  $E = -\nabla V$  expressed in **spherical coordinates** we get,

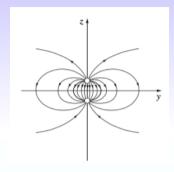
$$E_{\text{dip.}}(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{p}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3} (2\cos\theta \,\hat{\mathbf{r}} + \sin\theta \,\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$$

assuming that p is oriented along  $\hat{z}$ .

Notice that the far-field<sup>3</sup>  $E_{\text{dip.}}(r)$  falls off as  $\frac{1}{r^3}$ , whereas a single point charge would've fallen off as  $\frac{1}{r^2}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Again,  $E_{\text{din}}(\mathbf{r})$  is only valid if  $r \gg d$ .

# The Coordinate-Free Far Field Dipole Field $E_{ m dip.}$



▶ Without stipulating that the dipole p points in  $\hat{z}$  direction, the dipole field in the far-field  $(r \gg d)$  is<sup>4</sup>,

$$E_{\text{dip.}}(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3} [3(\mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}})\hat{\mathbf{r}} - \mathbf{p}]$$

, and is evidently valid for any coordinate system.

<sup>4</sup>HW: Prove it!

#### Induced Dipoles



- **Problem:** What happens to a neutral atom when it's placed in an external electric field  $E_{\text{ext}}$ ?
- ▶ While the atom is electrically neutral as a whole, it consists of a positively nucleus and a negatively charged electron cloud surrounding it.
- The negatively charged electron cloud is *drawn* to the  $E_{\text{ext.}}$  relative to the positively charged nucleus, and when **equilibrium** is reached, the atom is said to be **polarized**.

#### Induced Dipoles



- Each polarized atom can be seen as a tiny dipole consisting of charges +q in the nucleus and q at the center of the electron cloud.
- Each such dipole sets up a small induced electric field, pointing from the positively charged nucleus to the center of the equally but negatively charged electron cloud.
- This induced electric field  $E_{\text{ind.}}$ , called a **polarization field**, is weaker than and usually opposite in direction to  $E_{\text{ext.}}$ .

### Polarizability

H He Li Be C Ne	Na	Ar	K	Cs
0.667 0.205 24.3 5.60 1.67 0.396	24.1	1.64	43.4	59.4

Figure: Atomic polarizabilities for different isolated atoms. [IEDJ]

Phenomenologically, each individual atom now has a dipole moment p proportional to the externally applied electric field,  $E_{\text{ext.}}^{5}$ ,

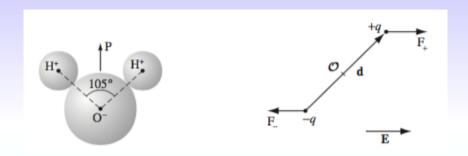
$$m{p} \propto m{E}_{
m ext.} m{p} = q d = lpha m{E}_{
m ext.} \pmod{d}$$
 pointing in the same direction as  $m{E}_{
m ext.}$ 

 $ightharpoonup \alpha$  is known as the **atomic polarizability**<sup>6</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>This is an empirical/phenomenological relation valid for relatively small electric fields.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> In general,  $\alpha$  is a **tensor** quantity, and thus p may not point exactly in the direction of E.

#### Polar Molecules



- Thus far we've discussed molecules that had no built-in dipole moment. Their dipole moment was **induced** due to the external electric field.
- ► However, there exist molecules like water,  $H_2O$  and ethanol that have a **built-in** dipole moment.
- **Problem:** How does a polar molecule respond to an external field  $E_{\text{ext.}}$ ?

## The Torque on $\boldsymbol{p}$ due to $\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathrm{ext.}}$



▶ If  $E_{\text{ext.}}$  is uniform, the figure above suggests a **torque** N,

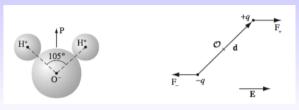
$$N = (r_+ \times F_+) + (r_- \times F_-) = qd \times E_{\text{ext.}} = p \times E_{\text{ext.}}$$

ightharpoonup Notice that the torque N is in such a direction as to line up,

#### $p \parallel E$

, *i.e.*, a polar molecule that is free to rotate will swing around until its dipole moment points in the direction of the applied field.<sup>7</sup>

## The Force on $\boldsymbol{p}$ due to $\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathrm{ext.}}$



▶ If the external field is **not** spatially uniform, then  $F_+$  will not exactly balance  $F_-$ , and there will be a **net force** F on the dipole,

$$F = (F^{+} + F^{-}) = q(E_{\text{ext.}}^{+} - E_{\text{ext.}}^{-})$$

$$= p \quad \lim_{d \to 0} \frac{E_{\text{ext.}}(\mathbf{r} + d\hat{\mathbf{n}}) - E_{\text{ext.}}(\mathbf{r})}{d}$$

directional derivative of a vector function

$$= p[(\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \cdot \nabla) \boldsymbol{E}_{\text{ext.}}] = (\boldsymbol{p} \cdot \nabla) \boldsymbol{E}_{\text{ext.}}$$

assuming the dipole is *relatively* **short**<sup>8</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>What does a *relatively shor*t dipole mean in this context?

### The Energy of a Dipole

- **Problem:** What's the energy of a tiny dipole p in an external electric field  $E_{\text{ext.}}$ ?
- For a dipole with charge +q at r+d, and charge -q at r, its energy in the external field  $E_{\text{ext.}}$  is<sup>9</sup>,

$$U = q(V_{\text{ext.}}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{d})) - q(V_{\text{ext.}}(\mathbf{r})) = q \left[ -\int_{\mathbf{r}}^{\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{d}} \mathbf{E}_{\text{ext.}} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \right]$$

Since our dipole is relatively **tiny**, *i.e.*,  $d \rightarrow 0$ , we may take  $E_{\text{ext.}}$  there to be uniform, giving us<sup>10</sup>,

$$U = -q\mathbf{E}_{\text{ext.}} \cdot \mathbf{d} = -\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{\text{ext.}}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>How does *U* differ from the work required to *assemble* a physical dipole? <sup>10</sup>Can you justify the negative sign?

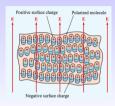
#### **Polarization**

- ▶ **Problem:** What happens to a piece of **dielectric** material when it's placed in an electric field?
- If the substance consists of **nonpolar molecules/atoms**, the field will <u>induce</u> in <u>each</u> of them a tiny dipole moment  $p \parallel E$ .
- ▶ If the material is made up of **polar molecules**, each permanent dipole will experience a torque, again tending to line it up  $p \parallel E$ .
- ► We now define a **macroscopic** measure of polarization for the entire material (gazillions of atoms),

 ${m P}\equiv {
m dipole}$  moment per unit volume called **polarization (density)** such that,

$$p_{\text{total}} = \sum_{\text{all atoms}} p_{\text{ind.}} \equiv \int_{\mathcal{V}} P(r') d\tau'$$

#### Polarization

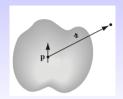


Instead of dealing with individual dipoles ( $p_{ind.}$ ), we prefer to deal with the dipoles **collectively**,

$$\boldsymbol{p}_{\mathrm{total}} = \sum \boldsymbol{p}_{\mathrm{ind.}}$$

and therefore the polarization (density) P.

- ► This is essentially because the **dipolar field** distribution of an **individual** dipole is quite complex.
- ▶ While the electric field/potential due to the polarization (density) *P* arising from a regular (periodic) arrangement of atoms is quite "well-behaved".
- Also, once P is known, the potential V (and thus the field  $E_{\text{dip.}}$ ) due to it becomes easy to calculate, as we will see next...



- **Problem:** What's the potential V(r) produced due to a collection of dipoles that constitute a polarized medium described by a known polarization (density) P?
- $\triangleright$  Recall that for a single dipole located at r', the far-field potential is,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{\mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{s}}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 s^2}$$

Integrating over <u>all</u> the individual dipoles constituting, and using the polarization density P, gives us,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r'}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{s}}}{\mathbf{s}^2} d\tau'$$

where  $d\tau'$  is the volume element.

Using the mathematical identity,

$$\nabla'\left(\frac{1}{s}\right) = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{s}}}{s^2}$$

we get,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \mathbf{P} \cdot \nabla' \left(\frac{1}{s}\right) d\tau'$$

▶ and then invoking the **divergence theorem**, and **integration by parts** which finally gives,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \oint_{\mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{s} \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{a}' - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{1}{s} (\nabla' \cdot \mathbf{P}) d\tau'$$

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \oint_{\mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{s} \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{a}'}_{\text{first term}} \quad \underbrace{-\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{1}{s} (\nabla' \cdot \mathbf{P}) d\tau'}_{\text{second term}}$$

► The *first term* is the potential due to a **surface charge density** 

$$\sigma_b \equiv \mathbf{P} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}' \quad \left[ \frac{C}{m^2} \right]$$

► The *second term* is the potential due to a **volume charge density** 

$$\rho_b \equiv -\nabla' \cdot \mathbf{P} \quad \left[ \frac{C}{m^3} \right]$$

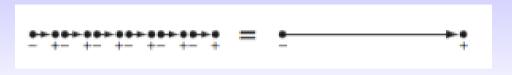
▶ In both cases, the <u>primed notation</u> ' *emphasizes* that the relation only applies in the volume in which polarization exists.

Finally, we may write,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \oint_{\mathcal{S}} \frac{\sigma_b}{s} da' + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\rho_b}{s} d\tau'$$

- ▶ We've concluded that the potential (and, hence also the associated electric field) of a macroscopic, polarized object in the *far-field* is equivalent to that produced by,
  - ▶ a surface bound charge density  $\sigma_b \equiv \mathbf{P} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}'$
  - **a** volume bound charge density  $\rho_b \equiv -\nabla' \cdot \mathbf{P}$
- ▶ We're saved from doing the work of **summing** the contributions of each of the **individual** dipoles constituting the material, and instead . . .
- Instead we *first* calculate/find these **bound charges** (both  $\sigma_b$ , and  $\rho_b$ ), and simply calculate the fields they produce using the <u>familiar</u> formula for the potential due to a charge distribution.

# Physical Interpretation of Bound Surface Charges $\sigma_b$



- Consider the case of **uniform polarization** first, *i.e.*,  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P} = 0$ , *e.g.*, a long, linear string of *identical* dipoles.
- ▶ Along the line, the head of one effectively cancels the tail of its neighbor, but at the ends (aka the 'surface') there are two charges left over: **plus** at the right end and **minus** at the left.
- ▶ These are essentially the surface bound charges  $\sigma_b$ .
- ▶ We call the net charges at the ends **bound** charges<sup>11</sup> to emphasize that they **cannot be removed**, as they are always bound to their respective positively charged ions.

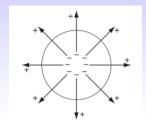
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>Bound charges may be present even in the **absence** of an external electric field, e.g., an electret.

# Physical Interpretation of Bound Volume Charges $\rho_b$



- ▶ On the other hand, if the polarization is **non-uniform**, *i.e.*,  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P} \neq 0$  we get <u>accumulations</u> of bound volume charge within the material, besides those on the surface due to  $\sigma_h$ .
- A **diverging** P results in a pileup of **negative** charge (at that point) because the higher the  $\nabla \cdot P$  the more the bound charges would tend to cancel  $E_{\text{ext.}}$ .

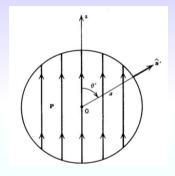
# Physical Interpretation of Bound Volume Charges $\rho_b$



• Overall charge neutrality dictates that the overall volume bound charge enclosed in a dielectric  $q_{bv}$  must be **exactly cancelled** by the charge on <u>all</u> its surfaces  $q_{bs}$ , *i.e.*,

$$\oint_{\mathcal{S}} \underbrace{(\mathbf{P} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}})}_{\sigma_b} da + \int_{\mathcal{V}} \underbrace{(-\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P})}_{\rho_b} d\tau = 0$$

#### The Field Due To A Uniformly Polarized Sphere



**Problem**: Find the electric field E, and potential V both inside and outside a uniformly polarized  $P = P\hat{z}$ , solid sphere of radius R.

#### The Field Due To A Uniformly Polarized Sphere

1. Using Gauss' law, and the far-field of a dipole



- ▶ One way to *imagine* bound charges in the **uniformly polarized** case is that we have...
- two slightly displaced uniformly charged spheres: a positive sphere and a negative sphere.
- ▶ Without polarization the two are perfectly superimposed and cancel out completely.
- This *leftover* charge (at either end) is the bound surface charge  $\sigma_b$ .

#### The Field Due To A Uniformly Polarized Sphere

1. Using Gauss' law, and the far-field of a dipole



► The field in the **region of overlap** <u>between</u> two uniformly charged spheres is given by 12

$$E = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q\mathbf{d}}{R^3} \quad \text{(uniform)}$$

where q is the total charge of the positive sphere, d is the vector from the negative  $\rightarrow$  positive center.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup>Work this out by applying Gauss' law!

1. Using Gauss' law, and the far-field of a dipole



ightharpoonup We can express this in terms of the **uniform polarization** P of the sphere,

$$\mathbf{p} = q\mathbf{d} = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \mathbf{P}$$

as

$$E = -\frac{1}{3\epsilon_0} P$$
 (inside)

1. Using Gauss' law, and the far-field of a dipole



For points **outside**, it's as though all the charge on each sphere were concentrated at the respective center. We have, at the far-field, a simple dipole, with potential

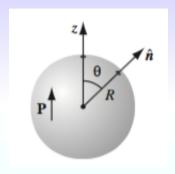
$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\boldsymbol{p} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{r}}}{r^2}$$

with  $p = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^{3} P$ .

► The field outside (far-field) the sphere can be determined by

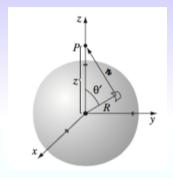
$$\boldsymbol{E} = -\boldsymbol{\nabla} V$$

2. Using the method of bound charges



- ightharpoonup For convenience, we choose the z axis to coincide with the direction of polarization P.
- ► Since **P** is given to be uniform, the volume charge density  $\rho_b \equiv -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P} = 0$
- While the surface charge density is  $\sigma_b = P \cdot \hat{n} = P \hat{z} \cdot \hat{r} = P \cos \theta$

2. Using the method of bound charges



- We've thus reduced the problem to calculating the field due to solely a surface charge density,  $\sigma_b = P \cos \theta$ !
- From the law of cosines,

$$s = \sqrt{R^2 + z^2 - 2Rz\cos\theta}$$

2. Using the method of bound charges



ightharpoonup The potential due to a surface charge density  $\sigma$  is,

$$\begin{split} V(\mathbf{r}) &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\sigma}{s} da' \\ &= \frac{P}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \frac{(\cos\theta) R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2 - 2Rz\cos\theta}} \\ &= \frac{\pi P R^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \sqrt{R^2 + z^2}} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \frac{\sin 2\theta}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{2Rz}{R^2 + z^2}\cos\theta}} d\theta \end{split}$$

2. Using the method of bound charges



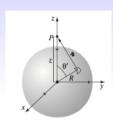
▶ We now make use of the result,

$$\int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \frac{\sin 2\theta}{\sqrt{1-k\cos \theta}} = -\frac{4\left(2\left(\sqrt{1-k}-\sqrt{k+1}\right)+k\left(\sqrt{1-k}+\sqrt{k+1}\right)\right)}{3k^2}$$

to finally give us,

$$V(r, \theta, \phi) = \begin{cases} \frac{P}{3\epsilon_0} r \cos \theta & r < R \\ \frac{P}{3\epsilon_0} \frac{R^3}{r^2} \cos \theta & r \ge R \end{cases}$$

2. Using bound charges



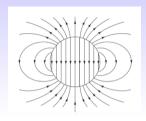
Recognizing that  $r\cos\theta = z$ , the field **inside** the sphere is **uniform**<sup>13</sup>:

$$E = -\nabla V = -\frac{P}{3\epsilon_0}\hat{z} = -\frac{1}{3\epsilon_0}P$$
  $(r < R)$ 

exactly as we found in Method 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>Alternatively, use the formula for the gradient in spherical coordinates:  $\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} \hat{r} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} \hat{\theta} + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \phi} \hat{\phi}$ 

2. Using the method of bound charges



▶ **Outside** the sphere, the potential is identical to the *far-field potential* of a dipole at the origin,

$$V = \frac{P}{3\epsilon_0} \frac{R^3}{r^2} \cos \theta = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\boldsymbol{p} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{r}}}{r^2} \quad (r \ge R)$$

whose dipole moment is, *unsurprisingly*, equal to the total dipole moment of the sphere

$$\boldsymbol{p} = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \boldsymbol{P}$$

#### Gauss Law in the Presence of Dielectrics

▶ Within a dielectric, the total charge density could be written as,

$$\rho = \underbrace{\rho_b}_{\text{polarization}} + \underbrace{\rho_f}_{\text{everything else}}$$

where  $\rho_f$  might consist of electrons in a conductor or ions embedded in the dielectric material or whatever; any charge, in other words, **not** a result of polarization!

**▶** Using **Gauss' Law**, *i.e.*,  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$ , and the definition of the volume bound charge density  $\rho_b \equiv \nabla \cdot \mathbf{P}$ , we see that,

$$\underbrace{\rho}_{\epsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{E}} = \underbrace{\rho_b}_{\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{P}} + \rho_f$$

ightharpoonup We **define** the **electric displacement** D as,

$$\boldsymbol{D} \equiv \epsilon_0 \boldsymbol{E} + \boldsymbol{P}$$

and rearrange terms such that,

$$abla \cdot (\epsilon_0 \pmb{E} + \pmb{P}) = 
abla \cdot \pmb{D} = 
ho_f$$
beys its own **Gauss' law**<sup>14</sup>.

showing that D obeys its own Gauss' law<sup>14</sup>,

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_f$$
 or,  $\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = q_f$ 

▶ But there's a catch...

 $<sup>^{14}</sup>$ The same symmetry-related caveats apply to being able to apply Gauss' law for D in practice as was the case with E.

▶ Note that *even in* the **electrostatic regime**, *in general*,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{D} \neq 0$$

since  $\nabla \times \mathbf{P} \neq 0$ , in general!

Since, in general,  $\nabla \times D \neq 0$ , Helmholtz's theorem tells us that there's <u>no</u> Coulomb's law associated with D, i.e.,

$$D(r) \neq \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{\hat{\mathbf{s}}}{s^2} \rho_f(r') d\tau'$$

, or, alternatively, knowledge of  $\rho_f$  alone is **not** sufficient to determine  ${\it D}$ .

▶ While **Gauss' law** does hold, in general, for **D**, i.e.,

$$\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = q_f$$

it's **not** useful to actually calculate  $\dot{D}$ .

- Also, in general, since  $\nabla \times \mathbf{D} \neq 0$ , we have no scalar potential associated with  $\mathbf{D}$ .
- However,  $\nabla \times \mathbf{P} = \nabla \times \mathbf{D} = 0$  is *guaranteed* when **symmetries** such as spherical, cylindrical, or plane are present, and, only in such cases we may use Coulomb's law/Gauss' law to <u>evaluate</u>  $\mathbf{D}$  given  $\rho_f$ .

## Example: **D**



- **Problem:** A long, straight wire, carrying uniform line charge  $\lambda$ , is surrounded by **rubber** insulation out to a radius a. Find the electric displacement D.
- Since we <u>do have</u> cylindrical symmetry, we may <u>use</u> Gauss' Law for evaluating **D** given  $\lambda_f = \lambda$ ,

$$D(2\pi sL) = \lambda L$$

and thus,

$$\boldsymbol{D} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi s} \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}$$

- ▶ Notice that this formula holds *both* within the insulation and outside it.
- ► Can we determine *E* inside the rubber yet?

## Continuity Conditions for **D**

▶ Using the same procedure of constructing a Gaussian *pillbox* as for the **normal** component  $E_{\perp}$  we get<sup>15</sup>,

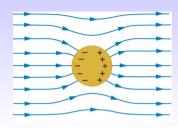
$$\boldsymbol{D}_{\perp}^{\mathrm{above}} - \boldsymbol{D}_{\perp}^{\mathrm{below}} = \sigma_f$$

while the continuity of the **tangential** component  $E_{\parallel}$  implies,

$$\boldsymbol{D}_{\parallel}^{\mathrm{above}} - \boldsymbol{D}_{\parallel}^{\mathrm{below}} = \boldsymbol{P}_{\parallel}^{\mathrm{above}} - \boldsymbol{P}_{\parallel}^{\mathrm{below}}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>Think carefully about why we've able to use Gauss' law *without* being guaranteed that  $\nabla \times \mathbf{D} = 0$ .

## Revisiting the Uniformly Polarized Sphere



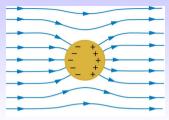
- **Problem:** For the uniformly polarized sphere with  $P = P\hat{x}$ , what's D just **outside** the sphere?
- ► We'd seen earlier that,

$$E_{\text{outside}} \neq 0$$

▶ Indeed, just outside the sphere we have vacuum, and hence zero polarization, i.e.,

$$P_{\text{outside}} = 0$$

## Revisiting the Uniformly Polarized Sphere



ightharpoonup Using the definition of D, we find that

$$\mathbf{P}_{\text{outside}} = \epsilon_0 \mathbf{E}_{\text{outside}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{outside}}$$

despite there being no free charge  $\rho_f$  anywhere outside!

► However,

$$\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = q_f = 0 \quad \text{or,} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_f = 0$$

still holds for any surface everywhere, yet is consistent with  $\mathbf{D} \neq 0$ .

**Bottom line**: Even if  $\rho_f = 0$ , in general, we **cannot** conclude that  $\mathbf{D} = 0$ .

revisited

**Issue**: *In the presence of a dielectric*, the **total** charge density  $\rho$  **appears to neglect** the contribution of the surface charge density  $\sigma_b$ , and *should* instead be written as,

$$\rho = \rho_b + \rho_{bs} + \rho_f$$

$$= \rho_b + \sum_i \sigma_{bi} \delta(\eta - \eta_i) + \rho_f \quad (!!?)$$

where  $\eta_i$  represents the direction normal to the surface charge  $\sigma_{bi}$ . for say the surface charge lying along the x-y plane.

► This *issue* arises because in the expression for the potential due to a macroscopic polarization **P**, *i.e.*,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{1}{s} (-\nabla' \cdot \mathbf{P}) d\tau' + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \oint_{\mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{s} \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{a}'$$

we had  $\underline{not}$  properly accounted for the fact that P is a **vector function** and should be defined for all space.

ightharpoonup While, V(r) above is OK, since the *limits of integration* were **restricted** to the periphery of the dielectric, it creates trouble later on...

## Gauss Law in the Presence of Dielectrics revisited

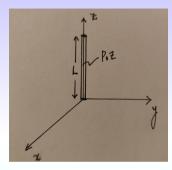
A more **mathematically** *sound* way to write the potential due to a **polarization** vector field **P** is:

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{\text{all space}} \frac{1}{s} (-\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P}) d\tau$$

where the "surface term" seemingly vanishes.

▶ Claim: In this *representation*, the volume charge density  $\rho_b = -\nabla \cdot P$  actually contains the contribution of the bound surface charge density  $\sigma_b$  term, as would be made clear by the next example...

### A 'Uniformly' Polarized Wire



- **Problem:** Consider a **square** wire of length L, and sides a with a 'uniform' polarization density  $P_0 = \text{const.}$  along its axis  $\hat{z}$ . **Find the bound charges**.
- ▶ We can write the **three-dimensional** polarization **vector field**<sup>16</sup> representing the wire as,

$$P = P_0 [H(x) - H(x - a)] [H(y) - H(y - a)] [H(z) - H(z - L)] \hat{z}$$

where H(x) is the Heaviside step function.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup>A vector field must be defined for all space.

### A 'Uniformly' Polarized Wire

► The negative of the **divergence** is,

$$\rho_b = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

$$= 0 - P_0 \left[ H(x) - H(x - a) \right] \left[ H(y) - H(y - a) \right] \left[ \delta(z) - \delta(z - L) \right]$$

- ► The **first term** is **zero** (only for this particular example), and constitutes the bound volume charge density.
- While the **second term** above is really **two** surface charges  $\sigma_b = P_0 [H(x) H(x-a)] [H(y) H(y-a)]$  lying at z = 0 and z = L as,

$$\rho_{bs} = -\sigma_b \delta(z) + \sigma_b \delta(z - L)$$

- ► Thus, once you write P properly as a **vector function**,  $\rho_b = -\nabla \cdot P$ , actually <u>includes</u> the contribution of **both** the volume and the surface charges!
- ► Thus, the relationship,

$$\rho = \rho_f + \rho_b \quad (\checkmark)$$

is perfectly valid, and does not neglect the surface charge!

#### Susceptibility

► For many substances, the polarization is proportional to the field, provided *E* is not too strong:

$$\mathbf{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \mathbf{E}$$

- $\chi_e$  is called the **electric susceptibility** of the medium ( $\epsilon_0$  has been extracted to make  $\chi_e$  dimensionless).
- ► The susceptibility is a **material property**, and substances that obey this *constitutive relation*<sup>17</sup> are called **linear dielectrics**.
- For such linear materials,

$$\mathbf{D} = \epsilon_0 \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P} = \epsilon_0 (1 + \gamma_e) = \epsilon \mathbf{E}$$

where  $\epsilon$  is called the **permittivity** of the material, while

$$\epsilon_r \equiv 1 + \chi_e$$

is known as the relative permittivity or dielectric constant.

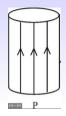
 $<sup>^{17}</sup>$ A **constitutive relation** is a relation between two physical quantities that is specific to a material or substance, and approximates the response of that material to external stimuli.

#### Common Dielectric Constants

	Dielectric		Dielectric
Material	Constant	Material	Constant
Vacuum	1	Benzene	2.28
Helium	1.000065	Diamond	5.7-5.9
Neon	1.00013	Salt	5.9
Hydrogen (H <sub>2</sub> )	1.000254	Silicon	11.7
Argon	1.000517	Methanol	33.0
Air (dry)	1.000536	Water	80.1
Nitrogen (N <sub>2</sub> )	1.000548	Ice (-30° C)	104
Water vapor (100° C)	1.00589	KTaNbO <sub>3</sub> (0° C)	34,000

- ▶ Notice the variation of nearly 5 orders of magnitude!
- ▶ What explains the wide variation in dielectric constant between materials?

#### HW: The Bar Electret



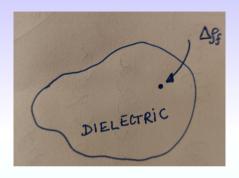
- **Problem**: [*Griffiths P.11*] A short cylinder, of radius a and length L, carries a frozen-in uniform polarization P, parallel to its axis<sup>18</sup>. Find the bound charge, and **sketch** the **electric field** E, and the **displacement field** D.
  - 1. L >> a
  - 2. *L* << *a*
  - 3.  $L \approx a$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup>An *electret* is the electrostatic analogue of a permanent magnet.

- ▶ **Problem**: What's the **work** required to charge up a **dielectric** material?
- ► **Claim**: We can simply use the expression derived earlier for the work required to assemble a set of charges, *i.e.*,

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho V d\tau = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int |E|^2 d\tau$$

- ▶ **Q**: Is this view correct?
- ▶ Ans: It's close but **not** quite, because the work required to charge up a dielectric is **not only** of an electrostatic nature, there's also a change in the **internal energy** such as bond twisting, and stretching (think of springs) holding the electrons and their ionic cores together, which we must account for.



- Suppose you're given a fixed piece of dielectric having an exisiting *macroscopic* free charge density  $q_f$ , potential V, and fields E and D.
- ightharpoonup We now bring a tiny amount of incremental **free charge**  $\delta q_f$ , to the dielectric.
- In *response* to  $\delta q_f$ , the polarization **P** (and thus **E**, and **D**) of the dielectric will change, and therefore the bound charge distribution  $\rho_b$  till **equilibrium** is achieved.

▶ We will track the incremental work done on an incremental/tiny amount of free charge  $\delta \rho_f$  brought in from  $\infty$  to the dielectric material which provides a potential V is,

$$\delta W = (\delta q_f)(V - 0)$$

which can be rewritten as,

$$\delta W = \int_{\text{all space}} (\delta \rho_f) V d\tau$$

► From **Gauss' Law**  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_f$ , and for a small change  $\delta$ ,

$$\delta(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D}) = (\nabla \cdot \delta \mathbf{D}) = \delta \rho_f$$

and thus,

$$\delta W = \int_{\text{all space}} (\nabla \cdot \delta \mathbf{D}) V d\tau$$

► Using the **vector identity**,

$$\nabla \cdot [(\delta \mathbf{D})V] = [\nabla \cdot (\delta \mathbf{D})]V + \delta \mathbf{D} \cdot (\nabla V)$$

. . .

... and then using integration by parts we get,

$$\delta W = \int_{\text{all space}} \nabla \cdot [(\delta \mathbf{D}) V] d\tau + \int_{\text{all space}} (\delta \mathbf{D}) \cdot \mathbf{E} d\tau$$

Applying the divergence theorem to the first term gives a surface integral,

$$\delta W = \oint_{\text{all space}} [(\delta \mathbf{D})V] d\mathbf{a} + \int_{\text{all space}} (\delta \mathbf{D}) \cdot \mathbf{E} d\tau$$

- The first term/surface integral then **vanishes** over all space, *i.e.*, even for **point charges**,  $V\delta \mathbf{D} \propto \frac{1}{r} \frac{1}{r^2} \propto \frac{1}{r^3}$ , thus going to zero faster than  $\frac{1}{r^2}$ , and hence the **surface integral** over all space goes to zero.
- Therefore, the incremental work done is,

$$\delta W = \int_{\text{all space}} (\delta D) \cdot \mathbf{E} \ d\tau \quad \text{(applies to any material)}$$

### Energy in Linear Dielectric Systems

Now, if the medium is a **linear dielectric**, *i.e.*,  $D = \epsilon E$ ,

$$\frac{1}{2}\delta(\boldsymbol{D}\cdot\boldsymbol{E}) = \frac{1}{2}\delta(\epsilon E^2) = \epsilon(\delta\boldsymbol{E})\cdot\boldsymbol{E} = (\delta\boldsymbol{D})\cdot\boldsymbol{E}$$

► We then get,

$$\delta W_{\text{linear}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} \delta(\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E}) \ d\tau$$

Finally, we build up the free charge density up from zero to the final configuration:  $\rho_f$ , which corresponds to integrating from zero field up to the final field D(E)

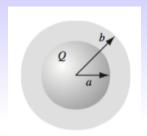
$$W_{\text{linear}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} \int_{0}^{\mathbf{D}} \delta(\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E}) \ d\tau$$

giving us

$$W_{\text{linear}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E} \ d\tau$$

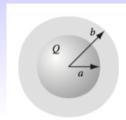
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup>Such an integration is known as a **functional integration**, in which the domain of an integral is no longer a region of space, but a space of functions..

## Example: metal sphere surrounded by a linear dielectric



- ▶ **Problem:** A **metal** sphere of radius a carries a charge Q. It's surrounded, to radius b, by a linear dielectric of permittivity  $\epsilon$ .
- ▶ 1. Find the potential V at the center (relative to  $\infty$ ),
  - 2. the bound charges  $\rho_b$ , and  $\sigma_b$ ,
  - 3. the total energy stored in the configuration  $W_T$ , and,
  - 4. the energy stored in the "springs"  $W_S$ , or the internal energy due to polarization inside the dielectric.

# Example: metal sphere surrounded by a linear dielectric D and E fields



▶ Using Gauss' law for **D**, i.e,  $\oint \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = q_f$ , to obtain<sup>20</sup> **D**, we find,

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{cases} 0 & r \le a \\ \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} & r > a \end{cases}$$

ightharpoonup ... and thus using  $D = \epsilon E$ ,

$$\boldsymbol{E} = \begin{cases} 0 & r \le a \\ \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon r^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{r}} & a < r < b \\ \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{r}} & r > b \end{cases}$$

## Example: metal sphere surrounded by a linear dielectric

potential V at center



ightharpoonup Calculating the potential at the center r = 0

$$V = -\int_{\infty}^{0} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -\int_{\infty}^{b} \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}r^{2}} \right) dr - \int_{b}^{a} \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon r^{2}} \right) dr - \int_{a}^{0} (0) dr$$
$$= \frac{Q}{4\pi} \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon_{0}b} + \frac{1}{\epsilon a} - \frac{1}{\epsilon b} \right)$$

► As for **P**, since,

$$\mathbf{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \mathbf{E} = \frac{\epsilon_0 \chi_e Q}{4\pi \epsilon r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \quad (a < r < b)$$

# Example: metal sphere surrounded by a linear dielectric bound charges



► The bound volume charge density is,

$$\rho_h = -\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{P} = 0$$

▶ While the surface bound charge density is,

$$\sigma_b = \mathbf{P} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} = \begin{cases} -\frac{\epsilon_0 \chi_e Q}{4\pi \epsilon a^2} & \text{inner surface} \\ \frac{\epsilon_0 \chi_e Q}{4\pi \epsilon b^2} & \text{outer surface} \end{cases}$$

Note that  $\sigma_b(r=a)$  is negative, which is *natural*, since the positively charged metal sphere would induce negative charges adjacent to it.

## Example: metal sphere surrounded by a linear dielectric

total stored energy



▶ In order to calculate the **total stored energy** in the configuration we employ,

$$\begin{split} W_T &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} \boldsymbol{D} \cdot \boldsymbol{E} \ d\tau \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_a^b \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{r}} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon r^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{r}} \right) \ d\tau + \int_b^\infty \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{r}} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{r}} \right) \ d\tau \right] \\ &= \frac{Q^2}{32\pi^2} (4\pi) \left[ \frac{1}{\epsilon} \int_a^b \frac{1}{r^2} dr + \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int_b^\infty \frac{1}{r^2} dr \right] \\ &= \frac{Q^2}{8\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left( \frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{b} \right) \right] \end{split}$$

## Example: metal sphere surrounded by a linear dielectric

► For the **stored electrostatic energy** in the configuration we invoke,

$$W_E = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} |E|^2 d\tau$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \left[ \int_a^b \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon r^2} \right)^2 d\tau + \int_b^\infty \left( \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \right)^2 d\tau \right]$$

$$= \frac{Q^2 \epsilon_0}{32\pi^2} (4\pi) \left[ \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \int_a^b \frac{1}{r^2} dr + \frac{1}{\epsilon_0^2} \int_b^\infty \frac{1}{r^2} dr \right]$$

$$= \frac{Q^2}{8\pi} \left[ \frac{\epsilon_0}{\epsilon^2} \left( \frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{b} \right) \right]$$

► The energy stored in the "springs" is then

'spring' energy

$$W_S = W_T - W_E = \frac{Q^2(\epsilon - \epsilon_0)}{8\pi\epsilon^2} \left(\frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b}\right)$$