

(1)

Electric fields in matter

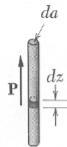
Q = charge = "monopole moment"

→ potential φ falls off like $1/r$
→ field \vec{E} falls off like $1/r^2$

\vec{p} = "dipole moment" = relative displacement of positive & negative charges
 $= \int \rho(\vec{r}) \vec{r}' d\tau = \sum_{\substack{\text{volume} \\ \text{of charge} \\ \text{distribution}}} q_i \vec{r}_i$

→ potential φ falls off like $1/r^2$
→ field \vec{E} falls off like $1/r^3$

\vec{P} = "polarization" = dipole moment per unit volume
 (e.g. $N\vec{p}$ where N = # of molecules/cm³
 and \vec{p} = dipole moment of single molecule)



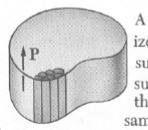
is equivalent to:

$$q = P da$$

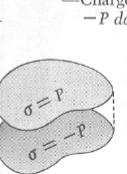
$$q = -P da$$

$$\vec{p}_{\text{bound}} = -\vec{D} \cdot \vec{P}$$

because a bit of polarized matter, volume $da \cdot dz$, has dipole moment equal to that of:



A uniformly polarized block can be subdivided into such rods. Hence the block has the same external field:



as two sheets of surface charge with

$$\sigma = p_n$$

[More generally, for nonuniform polarization, polarized matter is equivalent to a charge distribution $\rho = -\text{div } \vec{P}$]

$\langle \vec{E} \rangle$ = average \vec{E} inside material = exactly what you would calculate from this simple macroscopic charge distribution picture, ignoring the messy microscopics

(2)

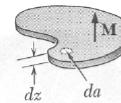
Magnetic fields in matter

(?) = "magnetic monopole" - DOES NOT EXIST, as far as we know

\vec{m} = "dipole moment" = size & strength of current loop
 $= \frac{Ia}{c}$ (cgs) or Ia (SI)

→ field \vec{B} falls off like $1/r^3$

\vec{M} = "magnetization" = dipole moment per unit volume
 (e.g. $N\vec{m}$ where N = # of molecules/cm³
 and \vec{m} = dipole moment of single molecule)



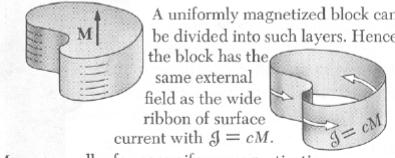
is equivalent to:

$$\frac{I}{c} = M dz$$

because a bit of magnetized matter, volume $da \cdot dz$, has dipole moment

$$\text{equal to that of: } \frac{da}{cM dz}$$

$$\vec{J}_{\text{bound}} = c \vec{D} \times \vec{M}$$



A uniformly magnetized block can be divided into such layers. Hence the block has the same external field as the wide ribbon of surface current with $J = cM$.

[More generally, for nonuniform magnetization, magnetized matter is equivalent to a current distribution $J = c \text{curl } \vec{M}$]

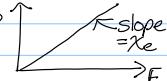
$\langle \vec{B} \rangle$ = average \vec{B} inside material = exactly what you would calculate from this simple macroscopic current loop picture, ignoring the messy microscopics

(3)

α = "polarizability" = tendency of a non-polar molecule to acquire a dipole moment in an applied \vec{E} -field, defined by $\vec{p} = \alpha \vec{E}$
typically $\alpha \sim a^3$ where a = dimension of molecule

χ_e = "dielectric susceptibility" = tendency of a macroscopic material to acquire a macroscopic polarization \vec{P} in the presence of an applied \vec{E} defined by $\vec{P} = \chi_e \vec{E}$

Note: not all materials obey this nice linear relation, but most do, for reasonable ranges of \vec{E} .

For a linear material: $\chi_e = \frac{\epsilon - 1}{4\pi}$ 

2 kinds of materials:

non-polar: molecules have no spontaneous dipole moment, but applied \vec{E} -field moves negative charge cloud

- molecule always acquires \vec{p} in the same direction as \vec{E}
- relatively weak effect
- exhibited by ALL molecules (molecules that are polar to begin with just have their dipole moment shifted slightly)

polar: molecules each have a dipole moment even when $\vec{E} = 0$, but they are all randomly oriented (canceling) due to thermal agitation

- \vec{E} -field applies torque to each dipole
- dipoles tend to orient with \vec{p} in the same direction as \vec{E}
- thermal agitation prevents all from completely aligning

$$\chi_e = \frac{Np^2}{K_B T}$$

- relatively strong effect

Note: both types of materials acquire \vec{P} parallel to \vec{E}

(4)

"magnetizability" - no letter exists to represent it

χ_m = "magnetic susceptibility" = tendency of a macroscopic material to acquire a macroscopic magnetization \vec{M} in the presence of an applied field \vec{H} defined by $\vec{M} = \chi_m \vec{H}$

2 kinds of materials:

diamagnetic: all electron spins are paired $\uparrow\downarrow$
no free spins

entire magnetic moment comes from "orbital" e^- motion
relatively weaker effect

orbital e^- motion changes in applied \vec{B} due to Lenz' law

$$\Delta \vec{m} = -\frac{e^2 r^2}{4\pi e c^2} \Delta \vec{B}$$

↑ note the negative sign!

$\Delta \vec{m}$ is opposite the direction of $\Delta \vec{B}$

paramagnetic: some unpaired "free" electron spins
each spin carries its own spontaneous dipole moment $he/2me$, even when $\vec{B} = 0$
but they are all randomly oriented (canceling) due to thermal agitation

- \vec{B} -field applies torque to each dipole
- dipoles tend to orient with \vec{m} in the same direction as \vec{B}
- thermal agitation prevents all from completely aligning

$$\chi_{pm} = \frac{Nm^2}{K_B T}$$

- relatively strong effect

Note: all materials acquire a small \vec{M} anti-parallel to \vec{B} from the diamagnetic effect

some materials acquire an additional, stronger \vec{M} parallel to \vec{B} from the paramagnetic effect, which totally cancels out the weak diamagnetic effect

(5)

ϵ = "dielectric constant" - property of a material such that :

- ① if material is stuck between capacitor plates, the charge on the plates is increased from vacuum value Q_0 to $Q = \epsilon Q_0$.
- ② more generally, electric fields produced by free charges in the material are reduced by a factor ϵ with respect to vacuum

For a linear material, $\epsilon = 4\pi \chi_e + 1$

\vec{D} = "displacement current" $\equiv \vec{E} + 4\pi \vec{P}$

For a linear material, this reduces to

$$\vec{E} + 4\pi \left(\frac{\epsilon - 1}{\epsilon}\right) \vec{E} = \epsilon \vec{E}$$

\vec{D} is a convenient definition that allows us to simplify Maxwell's laws in matter.

You can sort of think of \vec{D} as the "field produced by the free charges" but it's not a perfect analogy because $\vec{D} \times \vec{D} \neq 0$

Note: \vec{D} is not a very useful concept, because usually in the lab we do actually control \vec{E} directly, because we can easily apply voltages with batteries or power supplies. If we control V , then \vec{E} follows directly from ∇V , regardless of what material is there.

It's not actually so easy to control the free charge in the laboratory (only in our theoretical classroom minds).

Modified Maxwell's eqns:

general:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = 4\pi \rho_{\text{free}}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t} + \frac{4\pi}{C} \vec{J}_{\text{free}}$$

linear material:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\epsilon \vec{E}) = 4\pi \rho_{\text{free}}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial (\epsilon \vec{E})}{\partial t} + \frac{4\pi}{C} \vec{J}_{\text{free}}$$

(6)

μ = "magnetic permeability" = property of a material such that the fundamental magnetic field \vec{B} differs from the applied magnetic field \vec{H} by $\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$. Also, $\mu = 1 + 4\pi \chi_m$ (This only makes sense for linear materials.)

\vec{H} = "magnetic field H " $\equiv \vec{B} - 4\pi \vec{M}$

For a linear material, this reduces to

$$\vec{H} = \vec{B} - 4\pi \chi_m \vec{H} \Rightarrow \vec{B} = (1 + 4\pi \chi_m) \vec{H} = \mu \vec{H}$$

\vec{H} is a convenient definition that allows us to simplify Maxwell's laws in matter

You can sort of think of \vec{H} as the "field produced by the free currents" but it's not a perfect analogy because $\vec{D} \cdot \vec{H} \neq 0$.

Note: \vec{H} is a much more useful concept than \vec{D} , because usually in the lab we do actually control H directly, because we do supply and control the free currents.

It's this practical difference (the ease of controlling \vec{E} directly but only controlling \vec{B} indirectly via \vec{H}) that leads to the annoying asymmetry in the definitions:

$$\vec{P} = \chi_e \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{D} \equiv \vec{E} + 4\pi \vec{P}$$

$$\epsilon = 1 + 4\pi \chi_e$$

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{M} = \chi_m \vec{H}$$

$$\vec{H} = \vec{B} - 4\pi \vec{M}$$

$$\mu = 1 + 4\pi \chi_m$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$$

Modified Maxwell's eqns:

general:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t} + \frac{4\pi}{C} \vec{J}_{\text{free}}$$

linear material:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\frac{1}{\mu} \vec{B}) = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial (\epsilon \vec{E})}{\partial t} + \frac{4\pi}{C} \vec{J}_{\text{free}}$$

(7)

Speed of light in matter:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\epsilon \vec{E}) = 4\pi \rho_{\text{free}} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \left(\frac{1}{\mu} \vec{B} \right) = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial (\epsilon \vec{E})}{\partial t} + \frac{4\pi}{C} \vec{J}_{\text{free}} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

Assume this is a homogeneous material
 → no free charge or free currents

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\epsilon \vec{E}) = 0 \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \left(\frac{1}{\mu} \vec{B} \right) = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial (\epsilon \vec{E})}{\partial t} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

Because it's homogeneous, we can take ϵ and μ out of derivatives:

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

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \frac{\epsilon \mu}{C} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\text{Eliminate } \vec{B}: \quad \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = -\frac{\epsilon \mu}{C^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{speed of light in matter is } \frac{C}{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu}}$$

$$\text{index of refraction } n = \sqrt{\epsilon \mu}$$