

Integrals Over Charge Distributions

There were questions in office hours about how to use equations that describe continuous charge distributions, $\rho(r,\theta)$ or $\rho(x,y,z)$ in situations where the distribution is restricted to surface, $\sigma(x,y)$ or $\sigma(\theta)$, line, $\lambda(z)$, or discrete, q_i , distributions.

The calculation of many physical quantities involves the integral over a function times a charge distribution. For example:

$$\begin{array}{ll} Q_{\text{tot}} = \int \rho(x,y,z) dx dy dz & \text{or } Q_{\text{tot}} = 2\pi \int \rho(r,\theta) r^2 dr \sin\theta d\theta \\ p_z = \int z \rho(x,y,z) dx dy dz & \text{or } p_z = 2\pi \int r \cos\theta \rho(r,\theta) r^2 dr \sin\theta d\theta \\ \vec{F} = \int \vec{E}(x,y,z) \rho(x,y,z) dx dy dz & \text{or } \vec{F} = 2\pi \int \vec{E}(r,\theta) \rho(r,\theta) r^2 dr \sin\theta d\theta \end{array}$$

Note: A red arrow points from the text "From the ϕ integral" to the $d\theta$ term in the second column of equations.

Suppose the charge is restricted to a surface of constant r (a spherical shell of radius R). Then, we only need to integrate over θ , replacing r with R everywhere:

$$\vec{F} = 2\pi R^2 \int \vec{E}(R,\theta) \sigma(R,\theta) \sin\theta d\theta$$

Similarly for a line charge ($x = x_0, y = y_0$): $p_z = \int z \lambda(z) dz$

What about a collection of point charges? There's no integral to do!

If we have a collection of point charges, we must do a sum rather than an integral:

$$Q_{\text{tot}} = \int \rho(x, y, z) dx dy dz \quad \rightarrow \quad Q_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i q_i$$

$$p_z = \int z \rho(x, y, z) dx dy dz \quad \rightarrow \quad p_z = \sum_i z_i q_i$$

$$\vec{F} = \int \vec{E}(x, y, z) \rho(x, y, z) dx dy dz \quad \rightarrow \quad \vec{F} = \sum_i \vec{E}_i q_i$$

This seems intuitive, and it can be justified mathematically using Dirac delta functions. We can describe a distribution of point charges this way:

$$\rho(x, y, z) \quad \rightarrow \quad \sum_i q_i \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_i)$$

Remember that the δ -function is defined by its behavior in an integral:

$$\int f(x) \delta(x - x_0) dx = f(x_0) \text{ if } x_0 \text{ is in the range of the integral.}$$

If you let $f(x)$ be ρ , $z\rho$, or $V\rho$ as in the above integrals, you'll get the results as sums over the point charges. For example:

$$p_z = \int z \sum_i q_i \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_i) dx dy dz$$

Collections of dipoles (4.2.1)

In a macroscopic object, we have jillions of little dipoles, which may or may not be aligned. The macroscopic fields they produce will depend on averages.

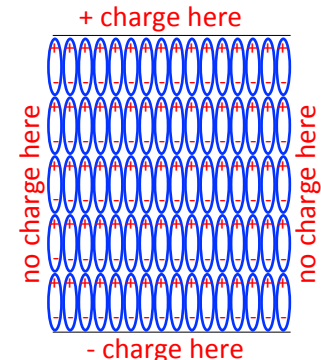
We define: $\text{Polarization} \equiv \frac{\text{dipole moment}}{\text{volume}}$. It is a density.

The E field of a polarized object

To calculate the field, we need to determine the charge density. Instead of going through a mathematical derivation, I'll give an intuitive description of what's happening. Griffiths does the math version.

Imagine a volume filled with a bunch of perfectly aligned dipoles: If the density of dipoles is uniform in the volume, then the + and – charges cancel.

In this situation, the only unpaired charges are at the top and bottom surfaces.



Let's calculate the bound surface charge density:

Imagine that each dipole has charges $\pm q$ separated by length d ($p = qd$).
Then, the polarization, P , is:

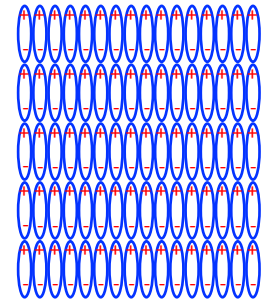
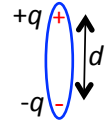
$$P = p\rho_d = qd\rho_d \leftarrow \text{volume density of dipoles}$$

$$\text{However, } \rho_d = \frac{\sigma_d}{d} \leftarrow \text{surface density of dipoles}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \sigma_b = q\sigma_d = qd\rho_d = P$$

\uparrow
(Bound) surface charge density

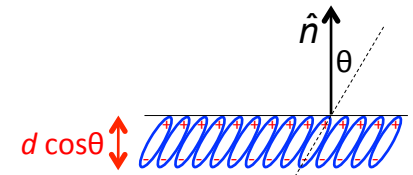
You can verify that the units of P are surface charge density (C/m²).



If the surface is not perpendicular to the dipoles:

then σ is smaller by $\cos\theta$, because $\rho_d = \frac{\sigma_d}{d \cos\theta}$.

$$\text{So, we can write: } \sigma_b = \vec{P} \cdot \hat{n}$$



We call it “**bound charge**”, because it's not free to move around.

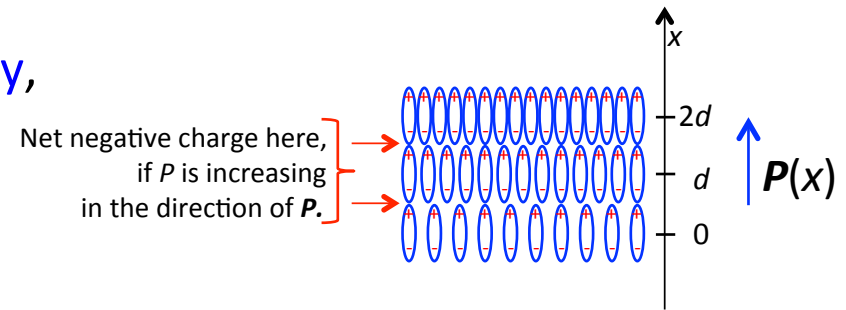
Suppose \mathbf{P} is not uniform:

Suppose there is a density variation along x (the polarization direction):

There will be a volume bound charge density,
because the dipoles don't cancel:

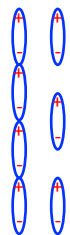
$$\begin{aligned}\rho_b &= \frac{-q\sigma_d(x=d) + q\sigma_d(x=0)}{d} \\ &= -\frac{qd\rho_d(d) - qd\rho_d(0)}{d} \\ &= -\frac{\vec{P}(d) - \vec{P}(0)}{d} = -\frac{dP_x}{dx}\end{aligned}$$

The y and z directions are similar
(if P_y or P_z is changing along y or z).
Thus: $\rho_b = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}$



- Dipole densities, σ_d and ρ_d
- $\sigma_d = d\rho_d$
- Polarization: $P = qd\rho_d$

"Sideways" derivatives,
e.g. dP_x/dy , don't contribute.



Griffiths derives this result more rigorously (pp. 166-168) but less intuitively.

Dielectrics (4.3.1)

One might wonder why it's useful to talk about bound charge.

ρ_f is the
"free" charge

After all, "charge is charge", and (for example) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$, where $\rho = \rho_b + \rho_f$.

This is a useful distinction to draw, because we usually have control over ρ_f , but ρ_b results from the response of the material to the applied external field.

Let's see where this leads:

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_0 \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} &= \rho_f + \rho_b \\ &= \rho_f - \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\underbrace{\epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}}_{\equiv \vec{D}}) = \rho_f$$

\mathbf{D} is called
(for historical reasons)
the electric displacement.

The divergence of \mathbf{D} depends only on the free charge density.

So, we have: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_f \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} = -\rho_b \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$

You'll have to live with the odd placement of \pm signs, and of ϵ_0 . They are features of SI units.

We'll see shortly that $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{D}$ is not always zero.

We can't always use Laplace's eq. to calculate \mathbf{D} .

Comments:

- \mathbf{D} is the field we can control by manipulating the free charge.
- \mathbf{E} is the total electric field. It depends on \mathbf{D} and the response, \mathbf{P} , of the material.
- The polarization reduces \mathbf{E} from what it would be in vacuum ($\mathbf{P} = 0$).
- **Caveat:** $\epsilon_0 \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{P}$. So, \mathbf{E} has different units (N/C or V/m) than \mathbf{D} or \mathbf{P} (C/m²).

Example:

A material with a linear response. Assume: $\vec{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi \vec{E}$.

χ is a positive, dimensionless number, called the **electric susceptibility**.

Then, the electric displacement is: $\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \epsilon_0 \chi \vec{E} = \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi) \vec{E}$

Definitions:

- $\epsilon_r \equiv 1 + \chi$ is called the **dielectric constant** of the material.
- $\epsilon \equiv \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi) = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$ is called the **permittivity**. $\mathbf{D} = \epsilon \mathbf{E}$.

Example:

A large (infinite) piece of linear material ($\chi \neq 0$) with an embedded charge, Q .

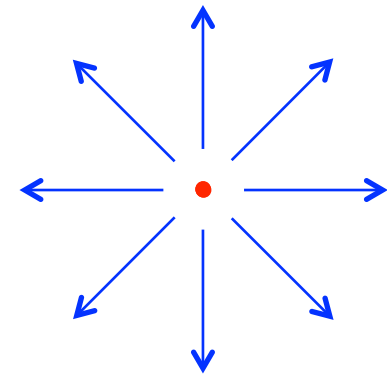
a: What is E everywhere?

Q determines \mathbf{D} : $\vec{D} = \frac{Q}{4\pi r^2} \hat{r}$. Note: No ϵ_0 .

If this were vacuum ($\chi = 0$), then $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{D}/\epsilon_0$, as expected.

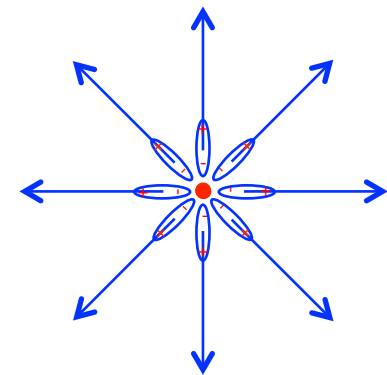
For $\chi \neq 0$: $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{D}/\epsilon = \mathbf{D}/(1+\chi)\epsilon_0$, smaller due to polarization.

This is a general feature of dielectrics: \mathbf{E} is reduced.



b: Where is the bound charge?

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_b &= -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} = -\epsilon_0 \chi \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} & \vec{P} &= \epsilon_0 \chi \vec{E} \\ &= -\frac{\chi}{1+\chi} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} & \vec{D} &= \epsilon_0 (1+\chi) \vec{E} \\ &= -\left(\frac{\chi}{1+\chi}\right) \rho_f & \rho_f & \text{ is } Q \text{ (the point charge)}\end{aligned}$$

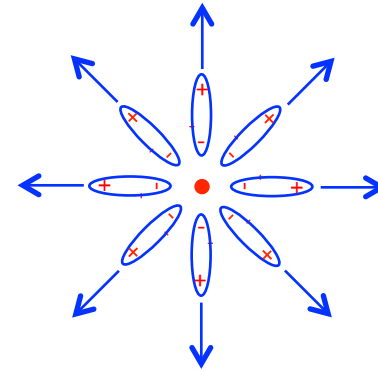


There is a bound point charge, $Q_b = -\left(\frac{\chi}{1+\chi}\right)Q$ at the same place as Q .

This is why a dielectric reduces \vec{E} .

The polarization generates a negative charge that “**screens**” the free charge.

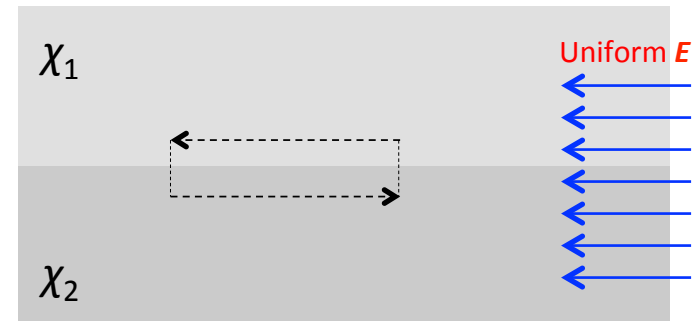
As χ becomes large, $Q_b \rightarrow -Q$, and $\vec{E} \rightarrow 0$.



Beware: If χ varies with position, then $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{P}$ and $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{P}$ might $\neq 0$.

Consider the interface between two materials:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{P}_1 &= \epsilon_0 \chi_1 \vec{E} && \neq \vec{P}_2 \\ \vec{D}_1 &= \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi_1) \vec{E} && \neq \vec{D}_2\end{aligned}$$



The integrals of \vec{P} and \vec{D} around loops that span the interface are not zero.

This means that you can't always use Laplace's equation to calculate \vec{D} or \vec{P} .

End 10/4/13