

21 November 95

First, a look back at the two common behaviors of substances in electrostatic + magnetostatic fields:

Place a para-electric substance in an electric field



Positive charge is attracted to the "lee-ward" side and negative charge to the "wind-ward" side

The polarization \vec{P} points from the negative charge to the positive, like the electric dipole vector, since \vec{P} is the electric dipole moment per unit volume.

Then using $\vec{D} = \vec{E} + 4\pi\vec{P}$ we see that the displacement field \vec{D} is enhanced in a para-electric substance compared to vacuum.

Now place a dia-magnetic substance in a magnetic field - (a free-electron model will work here).



Using the right-hand rule, we see that the magnetic dipole moment of the current loop is

directed opposite to the \vec{B} field, so \vec{M} the magnetization which is the magnetic dipole moment per unit volume also points in the direction opposite to \vec{B} .

Using $\vec{H} = \vec{B} - 4\pi\vec{M}$ we see that the intensity \vec{H} is enhanced in a dia-magnet. Later this lecture, we will draw \vec{H} in a ferro-magnet for contrast,

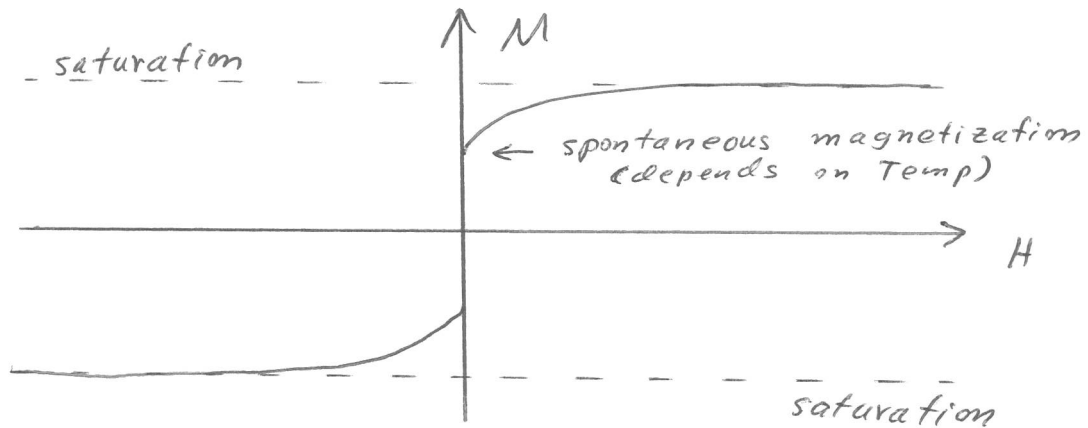
(iii) Ferromagnetism

Because of quantum Mechanical considerations (Pauli Exclusion Principle) atoms in a solid have a spin magnetic moment interaction between neighbors:

$$U_{12} = J \vec{m}_{(1)} \cdot \vec{m}_{(2)}$$

For some materials (depending on crystal lattice spacing, electronic wave function, etc.) J can be negative, and hence it is energetically favorable to have atomic magnetic dipole moments aligned. These are ferromagnetic materials ($\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$).

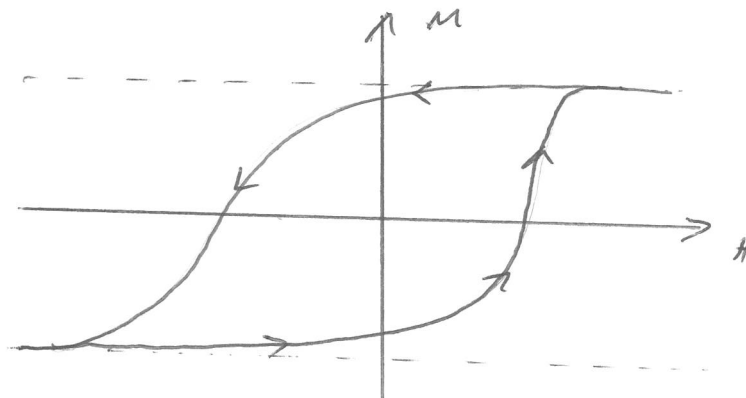
Below a certain temperature characteristic of the material (Curie temperature) a ferromagnetic sample would have a magnetization even in the absence of an external field \vec{H} . Turning on \vec{H} will then further increase \vec{M} by overcoming thermal effects until \vec{M} saturates [when all the dipoles are aligned with the field, \vec{M} can not grow any larger].



The spontaneous magnetization vanishes as $T \rightarrow T_{\text{Curie}}$.

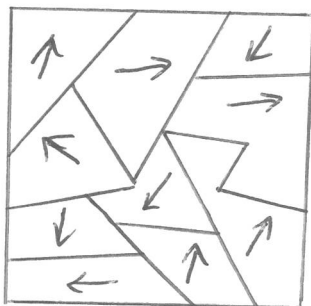
As the external field \vec{H} changes direction, the sample "remembers" its previous configuration.

This phenomenon is called hysteresis.



the arrows indicate time.

The origin of such a curve is in the domain structure of ferromagnetic materials. Each domain is like a small-scale magnet, but the



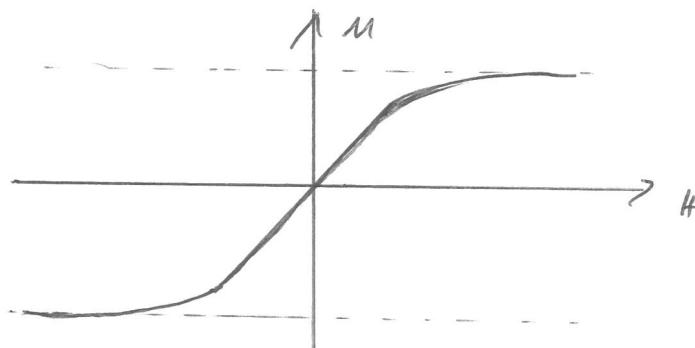
individual magnetizations are oriented randomly. Within each domain, we have a Magnetization curve like the one at the very top of the page.

Turning on \vec{H} then aligns the domains. Because of frictional effects, decreasing \vec{H} will not produce the same magnetization reversibly.

At $\vec{H} = 0$, there is still some residual magnetization.

In general, the relation between \vec{M} and \vec{H} is very difficult to describe mathematically, so we limit the discussion to 2 extreme cases:

- ① If a material has a very narrow hysteresis curve (essentially single-valued) then near $\vec{H} = 0$ there is a linear region



soft

ferro-magnetic material

in which we can use $\vec{M} = \chi_f \vec{H}$. In this approximation, we must avoid the large fields \vec{H} which would saturate the sample.

χ_f is the (soft) ferromagnetic susceptibility and it is very large compared to χ_p and χ_d .

$$\chi_d (\text{Bismuth}) = -14 \times 10^{-6}$$

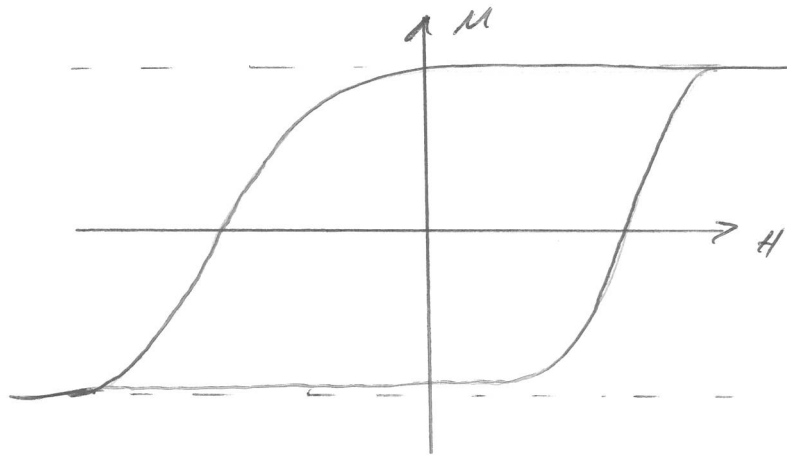
$$\chi_p (\text{Manganese}) = 300 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$\chi_f \sim 50 \rightarrow 1000$$

typically,

several million times larger.

In the other extreme case, the material has a very wide hysteresis loop, so that for a restricted range in H , M is approximately constant.



hard
ferromagnetic
material

The saturated values of M can be as large as 20,000 gauss = 2 Tesla.

When we are dealing with boundary-value problems, we will write

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} \quad \text{where} \quad \mu = 1 + 4\pi \chi$$

for χ_d - dia magnets

χ_p - para magnets

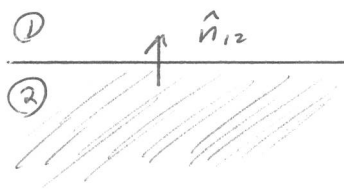
χ_f - soft ferro magnets

No such relation is possible for hard ferromagnets:

\vec{M} independent of \vec{H}

Magnetic Boundary Conditions

Consider the interface between two regions of different magnetic permeability.



Then $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ implies (as in the electrostatic case)

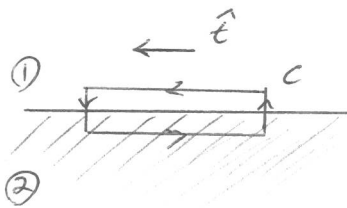
$$\text{that } \hat{n}_{12} \cdot (\vec{B}_1 - \vec{B}_2) = 0$$

(Choose a gaussian pillbox that straddles the interface.)

The normal component of \vec{B} is continuous across the interface.

The other magnetic Maxwell equation $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{J}_{\text{true}}$

gives via Stoke's Theorem:



$$\oint_C d\vec{l} \cdot \vec{H} = \frac{4\pi}{c} I_{\text{enclosed}}$$

Let the curve C shrink to zero in the direction perpendicular to the interface.

$$\hat{t} \cdot (\vec{H}_2 - \vec{H}_1) = \frac{4\pi}{c} K$$

where \hat{t} is a unit vector in the tangential direction (along the curve C) and K is the surface current density. We can also write this as

$$\hat{n}_{12} \times (\vec{H}_2 - \vec{H}_1) = \frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{K}$$

In the absence of true surface currents, the tangential components of \vec{H} are continuous across the interface.

These interface conditions can be written in terms of the induction \vec{B} or the intensity \vec{H} .

$$\hat{n}_{12} \cdot \vec{B}_1 = \hat{n}_{12} \cdot \vec{B}_2$$

$$\hat{n}_{12} \times \frac{\vec{B}_1}{\mu_1} = \hat{n}_{12} \times \frac{\vec{B}_2}{\mu_2}$$

$$\hat{n}_{12} \cdot \vec{H}_1 \mu_1 = \hat{n}_{12} \cdot \vec{H}_2 \mu_2$$

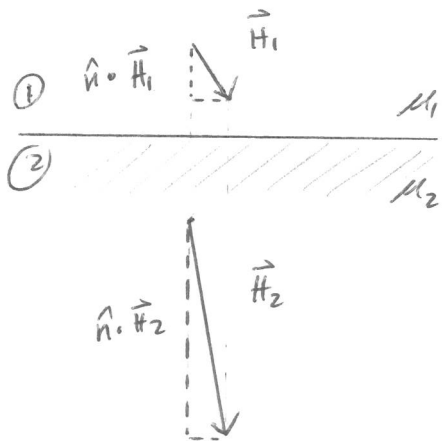
$$\hat{n}_{12} \times \vec{H}_1 = \hat{n}_{12} \times \vec{H}_2$$

If $\hat{n}_{12} \cdot \vec{H}_1 \neq 0$ and if $\mu_1 \gg \mu_2$ then

$$\hat{n}_{12} \cdot \vec{H}_2 \gg \hat{n}_{12} \cdot \vec{H}_1 \quad \text{while} \quad \hat{n}_{12} \times \vec{H}_1 = \hat{n}_{12} \times \vec{H}_2$$

Thus \vec{H}_2 is for all practical purposes normal to the interface.

The \vec{H}_2 field lines behave like Electric field lines near a conductor. This analogy can be exploited in solving problems.



We now work through a few sample problems.

① Hard ferromagnets in the absence of currents

(i) Solution via the magnetic scalar potential

Since $\vec{J} = 0$ we have $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{H} = -\vec{\nabla} \Phi_m$.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{H} + 4\pi \vec{M}) = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{H} = -4\pi \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M}.$$

$$\text{All together: } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \Phi_m(\vec{r}) = 4\pi \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M}(\vec{r})$$

This is Poisson's equation with "magnetic charge density" $\rho_m(\vec{r}) = -4\pi \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M}(\vec{r})$.

If there are no magnetic boundaries so that we only require $\Phi_m(\vec{r}) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ then the solution is:

$$\Phi_m(\vec{r}) = - \int dV' \frac{\vec{\nabla}_{r'} \cdot \vec{M}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$$

Next, we integrate by parts and neglect the surface term.

$$\Phi_m(\vec{r}) = + \int dV' \vec{M}(\vec{r}') \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{r'} \cdot \frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$$

Now change the gradient with respect to primed coordinates into unprimed coordinates (with a corresponding sign change) and pull the gradient out of the integral:

$$\Phi_m(\vec{r}) = - \vec{\nabla} \int dV' \frac{M(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$$

We now specialize to the case in which \vec{M} is uniform inside the volume V .

$$\Phi_m(\vec{r}) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \left[\vec{M} \int dV' \frac{1}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} \right]$$

If V is a sphere of radius a , then for $r > a$

$$\frac{1}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^{+l} \frac{4\pi}{2l+1} \left(\frac{r'}{r}\right)^l Y_{lm}^*(\theta', \phi') Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$$

and since $\int d^2\Omega' Y_{lm}^*(\theta', \phi') = \delta_{l0} \delta_{m0} \sqrt{4\pi}$

$r > a$:
$$\Phi_m(\vec{r}) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\vec{M}(\text{Vol})}{r} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{m} \frac{1}{r} = \frac{\vec{m} \cdot \vec{r}}{r^3}$$

where $\vec{m} = \vec{M} \cdot \text{Volume}$

Thus a uniformly magnetized sphere behaves outside like a point magnetic dipole at the origin with strength $\vec{m} = \vec{M} \cdot (\text{Volume of sphere})$. This is exact, not an approximation.

For $r < a$ we have

$$\frac{1}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} = \frac{1}{r_2} + \text{terms that involve } l > 0 \text{ and which integrate to zero.}$$

r_2 is $\max(r, r')$ so

$r < a$:
$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_m(\vec{r}) &= -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M} \left[\int_0^r 4\pi r'^2 dr' \frac{1}{r} + \int_r^a 4\pi r'^2 dr' \frac{1}{r'} \right] \\ &= -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M} \left[\frac{4\pi}{3} r^2 + \frac{4\pi}{2} (a^2 - r^2) \right] = +\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M} \frac{4\pi r^2}{6} \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{3} \vec{M} \cdot \vec{r} \end{aligned}$$

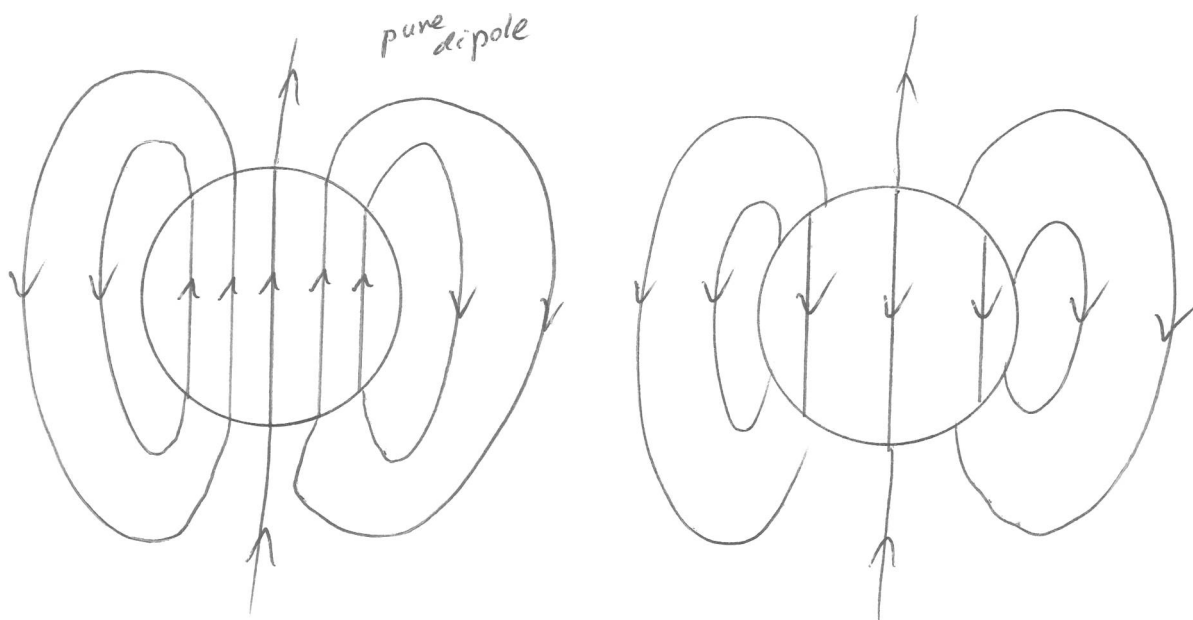
Thus inside we have $\vec{H} = -\vec{\nabla} \Phi_m(\vec{r}) = -\frac{4\pi}{3} \vec{M}$

while outside $\vec{H}_{(\neq)} = -\vec{\nabla} \Phi_m(\vec{r}) = \frac{4\pi a^3}{3} \frac{3(\vec{M} \cdot \vec{r})\vec{r} - r^2 \vec{M}}{r^5}$

and since $\vec{B} = \vec{H} + 4\pi \vec{M}$ we get

outside ; $\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \frac{4\pi a^3}{3} \frac{3(\vec{M} \cdot \vec{r})\vec{r} - r^2 \vec{M}}{r^5} = \vec{H}(\vec{r})$

inside : $\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = -\frac{4\pi}{3} \vec{M} + 4\pi \vec{M} = \frac{8\pi}{3} \vec{M}$



\vec{B} field lines

\vec{H} field lines

Note that the \vec{B} field lines close on themselves since they have no sources or sinks : $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$.

The \vec{H} field lines do have a source

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{H} = -4\pi \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M}; \text{ it is the surface magnetization.}$$

When \vec{M} changes from a constant value inside to zero outside, $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M}$ is infinite (a delta function) at the surface, and this behaves like a surface monopole density of "magnetic charge!"

(ii) Solution via vector potential for the same problem.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{H} + 4\pi \vec{M}) = 4\pi \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{M}$$

$$\text{since } \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{J} \text{ and } \vec{J} = 0$$

To simplify the math, we choose to work in Coulomb gauge: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}_0 = 0$

The solution is:

$$\vec{A}_0(\vec{r}) = \int dV' \frac{\vec{\nabla}_{r'} \times \vec{M}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$$

Again, we integrate by parts and neglect the surface term.

$$\vec{A}_0(\vec{r}) = \int dV' \vec{M}(\vec{r}') \times \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{r}'} \frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$$

Change the gradient from primed to unprimed:

$$\vec{A}_0(\vec{r}) = \vec{\nabla} \times \int dV' \frac{\vec{M}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$$

The integral is exactly the same as before.

For example, for a uniformly magnetized sphere

$$\text{with } \vec{m} = \vec{M} \frac{4\pi}{3} a^3$$

$$\vec{A}_0(\vec{r}) = \vec{\nabla} \times \frac{\vec{m}}{r} = \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \times \vec{m} = \frac{\vec{m} \times \vec{r}}{r^3} \quad \underline{r > a}$$

and

$$\vec{A}_0(\vec{r}) = -\vec{\nabla} \times \left(\vec{M} \frac{4\pi r^2}{6} \right) = \frac{4\pi}{3} \vec{M} \times \vec{r} \quad \underline{r < a}$$

This vector potential will lead to exactly the same \vec{B} and \vec{H} fields as the solution by scalar potential.

————— End Lecture #23 —————