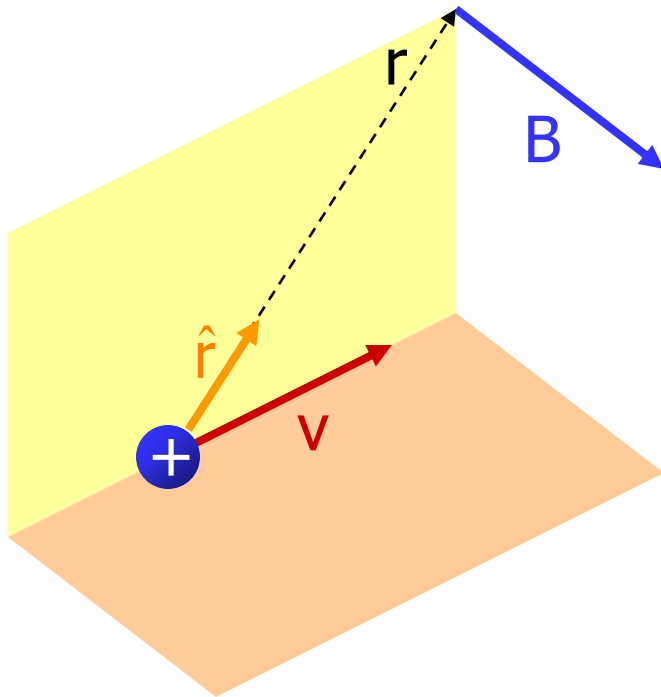


# **Lecture-1**

## **Biot-Savart Law: magnetic field of a current element**

# Biot-Savart Law: magnetic field of a current element

Let's start with the magnetic field of a moving charged particle.



It is experimentally observed that a moving point charge  $q$  gives rise to a magnetic field

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{q\vec{v} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}.$$

$\mu_0$  is a constant, and its value is  
 $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T}\cdot\text{m/A}$

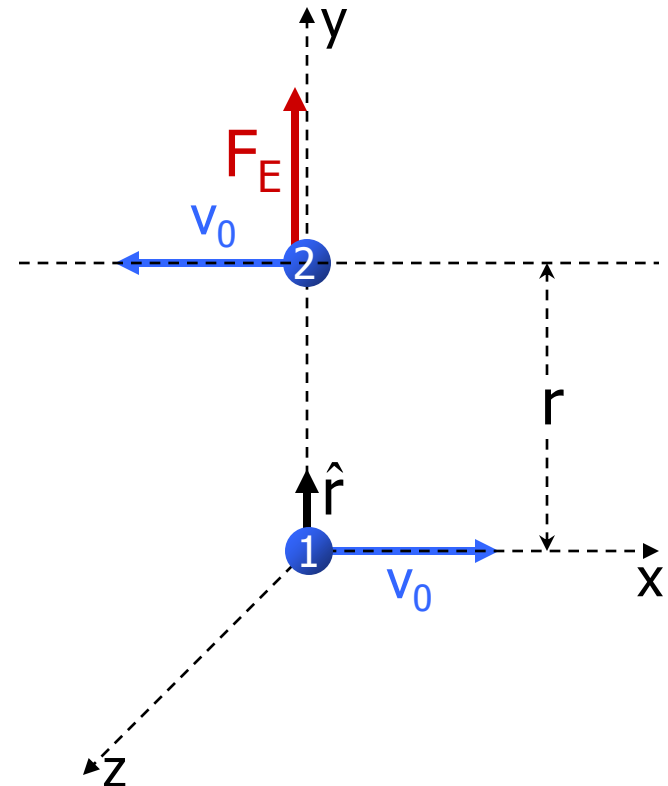
Example: proton 1 has a speed  $v_0$  ( $v_0 \ll c$ ) and is moving along the x-axis in the +x direction. Proton 2 has the same speed and is moving parallel to the x-axis in the -x direction, at a distance  $r$  directly above the x-axis. Determine the electric and magnetic forces **on** proton 2 at the instant the protons pass closest to each other.

This is example 28.1 in your text.

The electric force is

$$\vec{F}_E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

$$\vec{F}_E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r^2} \hat{j}$$

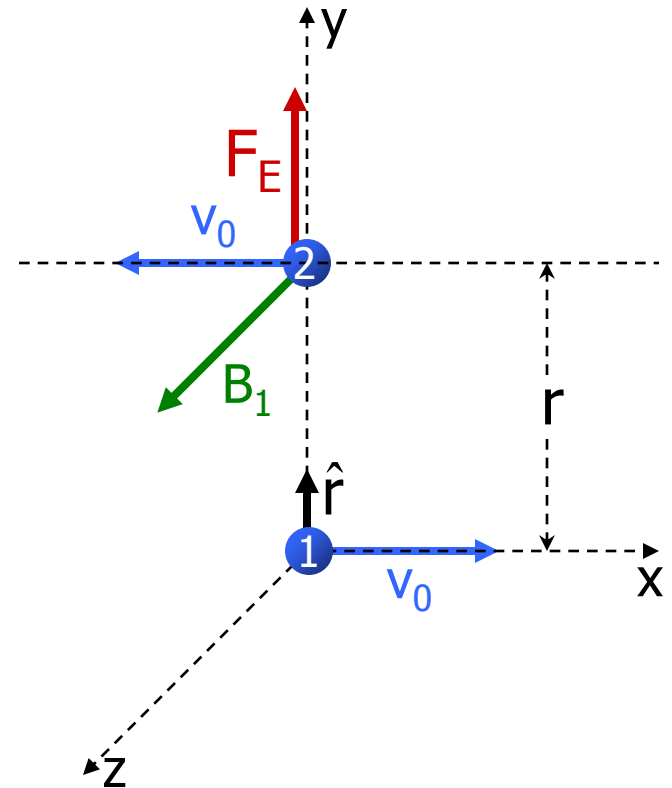


At the position of proton 2 there is a magnetic field due to proton 1.

$$\vec{B}_1 = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{q_1 \vec{v}_1 \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

$$\vec{B}_1 = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{ev_0 \hat{i} \times \hat{j}}{r^2}$$

$$\vec{B}_1 = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{ev_0}{r^2} \hat{k}$$

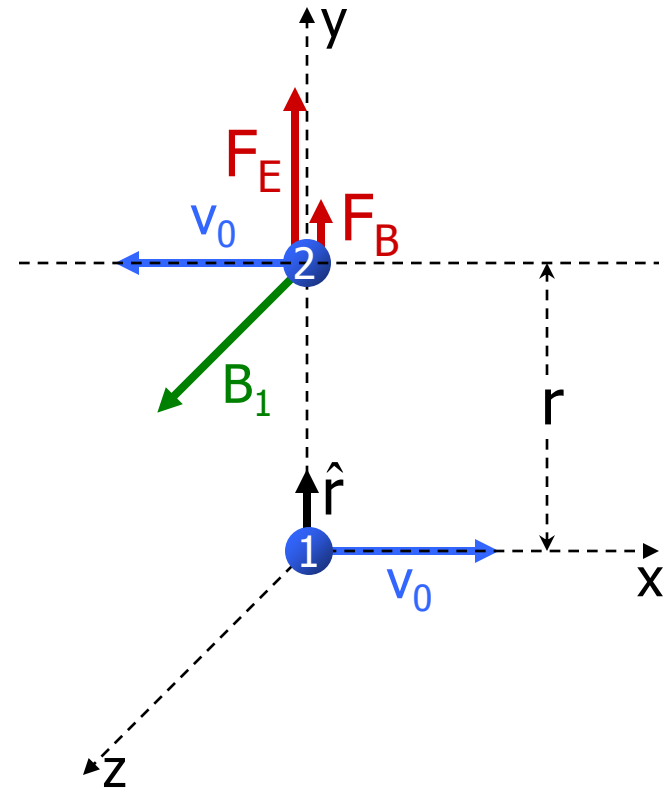


Proton 2 “feels” a magnetic force due to the magnetic field of proton 1.

$$\vec{F}_B = q_2 \vec{v}_2 \times \vec{B}_1$$

$$\vec{F}_B = ev_0 (-\hat{i}) \times \left( \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{ev_0}{r^2} \hat{k} \right)$$

$$\vec{F}_B = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{e^2 v_0^2}{r^2} \hat{j}$$



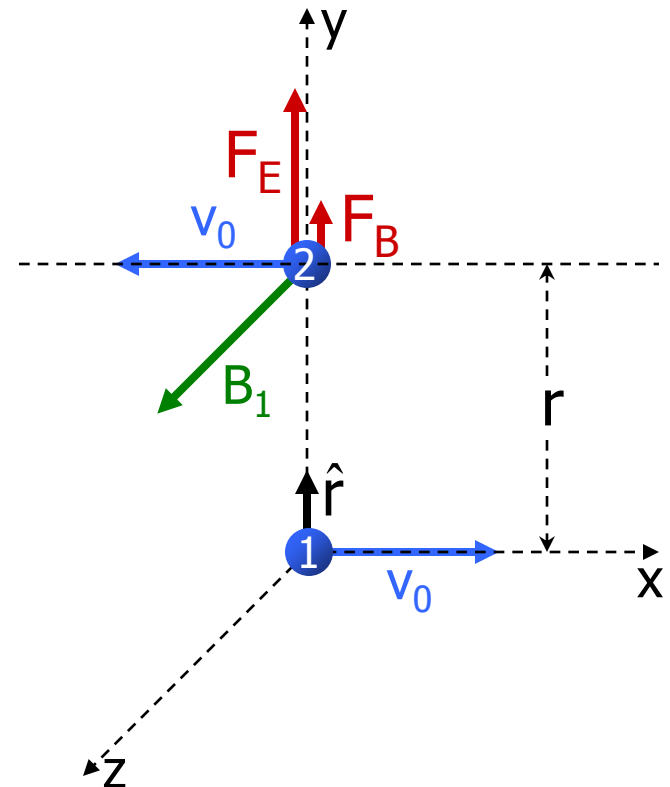
Both forces are in the +y direction. The ratio of their magnitudes is

$$\frac{F_B}{F_E} = \frac{\left( \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{e^2 v_0^2}{r^2} \right)}{\left( \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r^2} \right)}$$

$$\frac{F_B}{F_E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 v_0^2$$

Later we will find that

$$\mu_0 \epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{c^2}$$

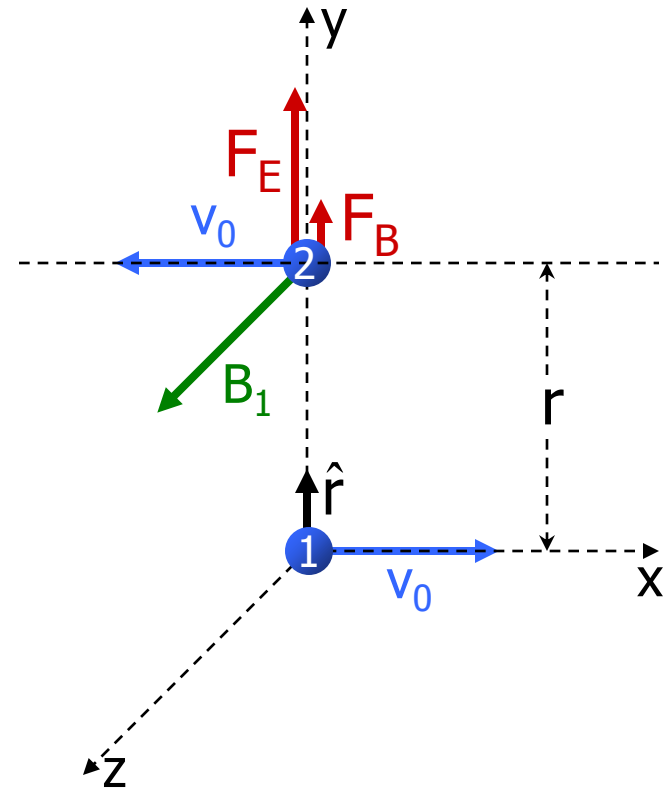


Thus  $\frac{F_B}{F_E} = \frac{v_0^2}{c^2}$

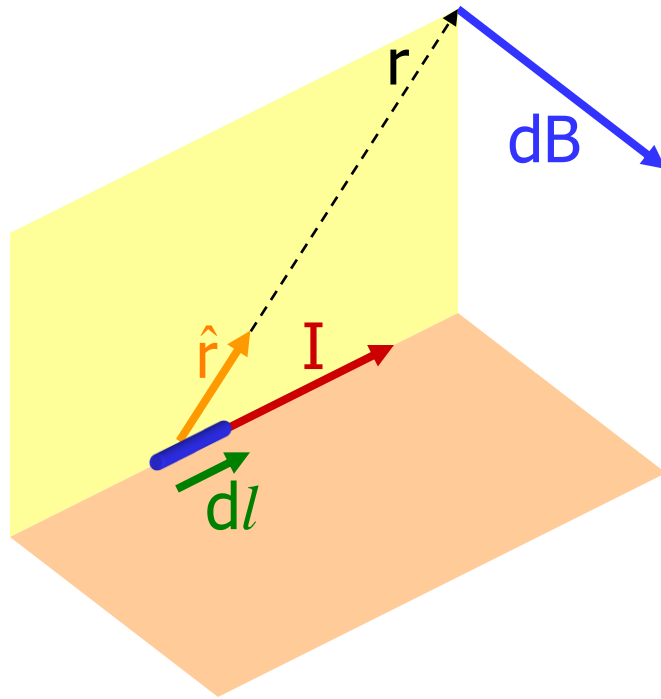
If  $v_0 = 10^6$  m/s, then

$$\frac{F_B}{F_E} = \frac{(10^6)^2}{(3 \times 10^8)^2} = 1.11 \times 10^{-5}$$

Don't you feel sorry for the poor, weak magnetic force?



From the equation for the magnetic field of a moving charged particle, it is “easy” to show that a current  $I$  in a little length  $d\ell$  of wire gives rise to a little bit of magnetic field.



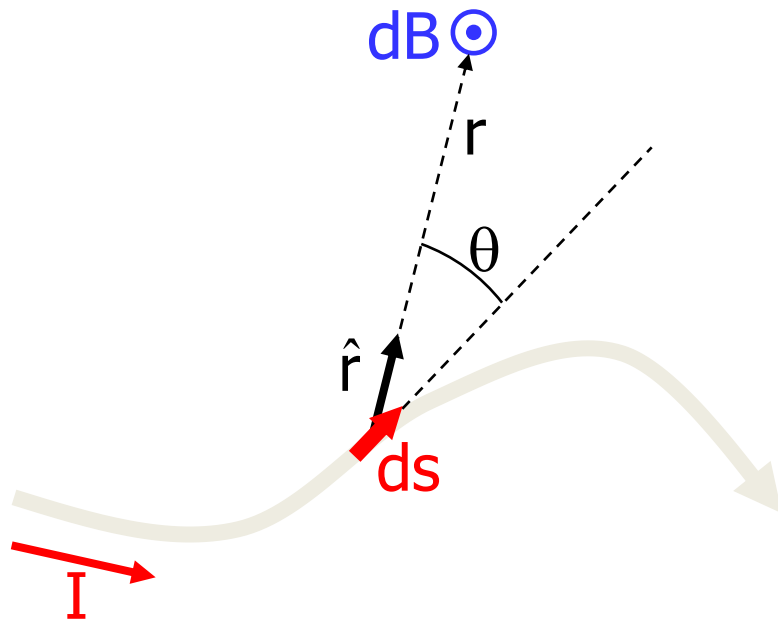
$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\vec{\ell} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

The Biot-Savart Law

You may see the equation written using  $\vec{r} = r \hat{r}$ .



# Applying the Biot-Savart Law

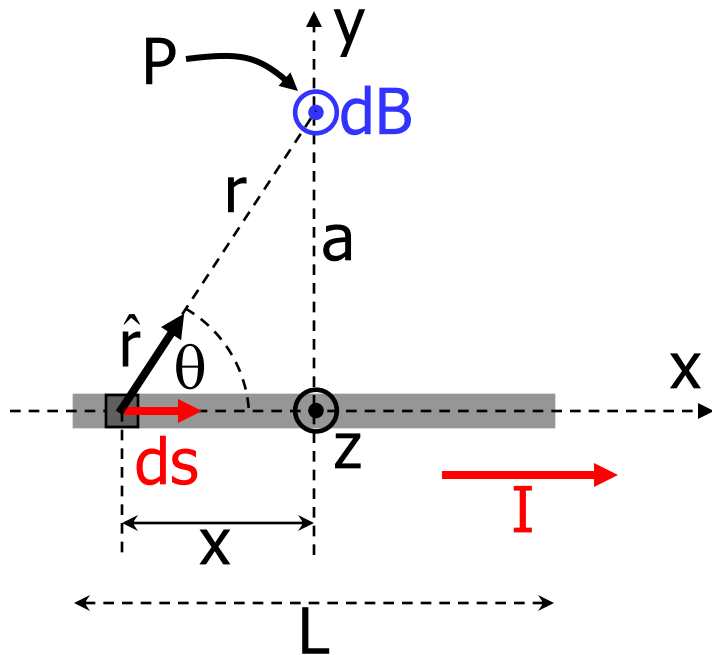


$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\vec{s} \times \hat{r}}{r^2} \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{r} = \frac{\vec{r}}{r}$$

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I ds \sin \theta}{r^2}$$

$$\vec{B} = \int d\vec{B}$$

Example: calculate the magnetic field at point P due to a thin straight wire of length L carrying a current I. (P is on the perpendicular bisector of the wire at distance a.)



$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\vec{s} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

$$d\vec{s} \times \hat{r} = ds \sin\theta \hat{k}$$

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I ds \sin\theta}{r^2}$$

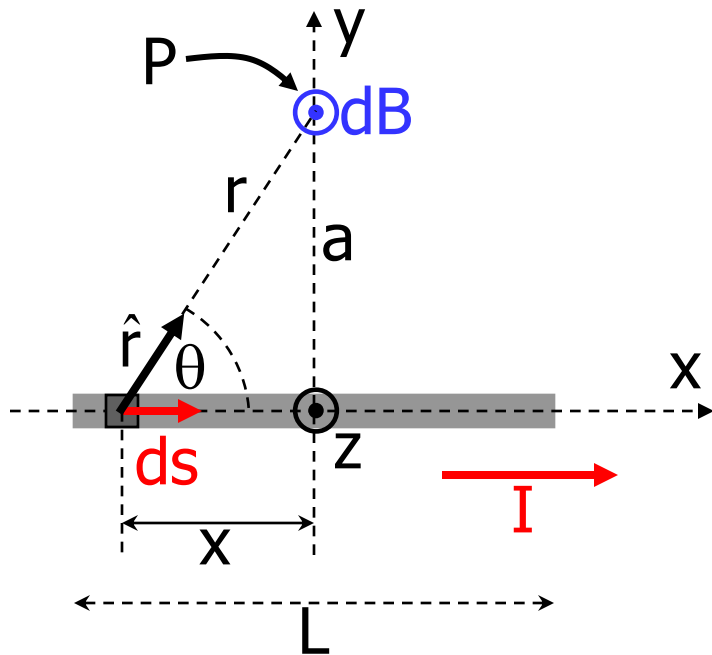
ds is an infinitesimal quantity in the direction of dx, so

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I dx \sin\theta}{r^2}$$

$$\sin\theta = \frac{a}{r}$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + a^2}$$

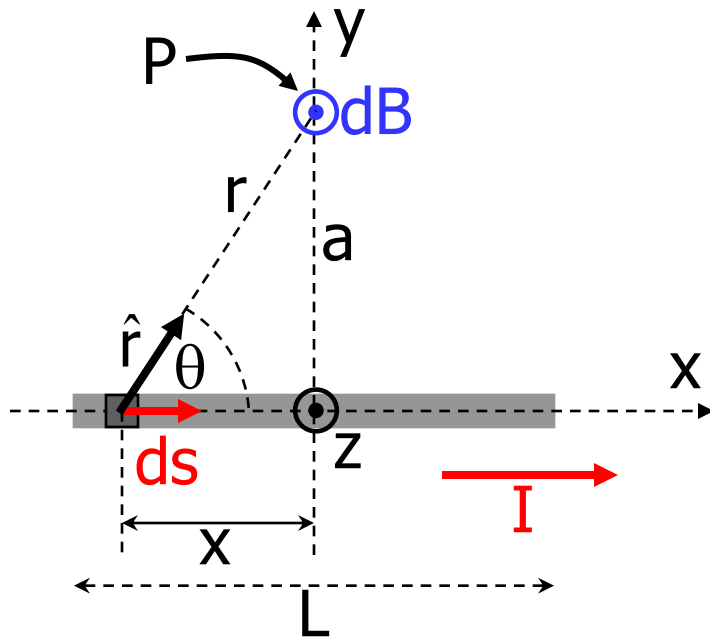
$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I dx \sin\theta}{r^2}$$



$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I dx a}{r^3} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I dx a}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$B = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I dx a}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I a}{4\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}}$$



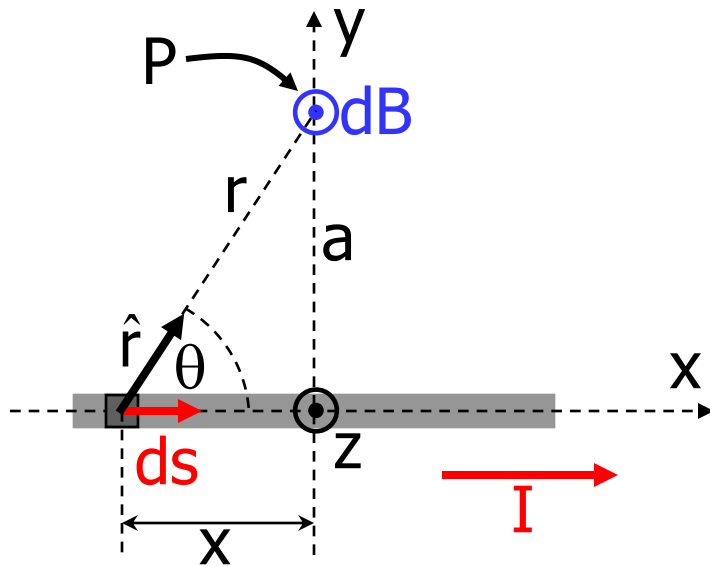
$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I a}{4\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}}$$

look integral up in tables, use the [web](#), or use trig substitutions

$$\int \frac{dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{x}{a^2 (x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I a}{4\pi} \frac{x}{a^2 (x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}} \bigg|_{-L/2}^{L/2}$$

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I a}{4\pi} \left[ \frac{L/2}{a^2 \left( (L/2)^2 + a^2 \right)^{1/2}} - \frac{-L/2}{a^2 \left( (-L/2)^2 + a^2 \right)^{1/2}} \right]$$

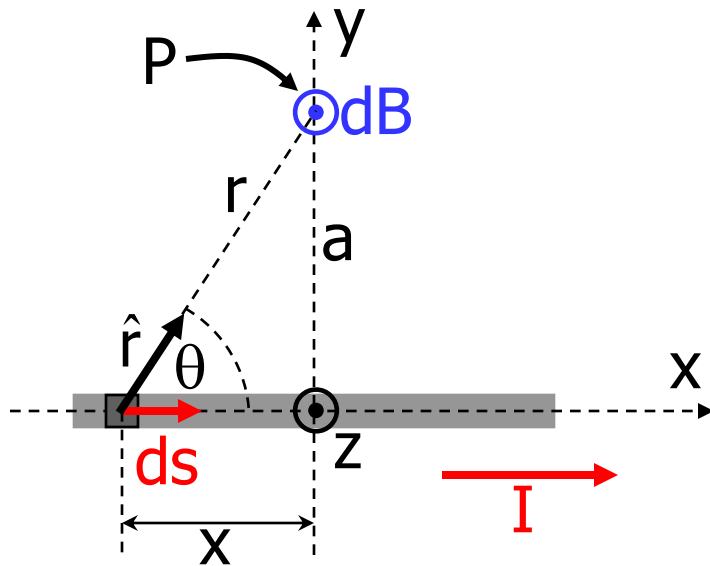


$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I a}{4\pi} \left[ \frac{2L/2}{a^2 (L^2/4 + a^2)^{1/2}} \right]$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I L}{4\pi a} \frac{1}{(L^2/4 + a^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I L}{2\pi a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{L^2 + 4a^2}}$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{4a^2}{L^2}}}$$



$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{4a^2}{L^2}}}$$

When  $L \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi a}$ .

or  $B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$

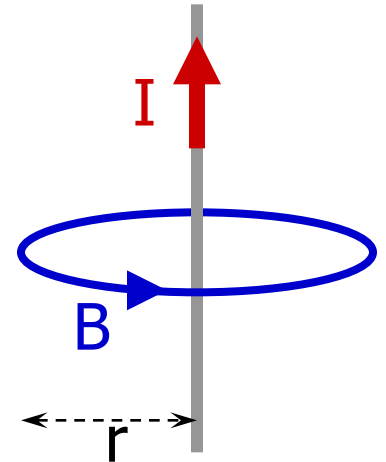
The  $r$  in this equation has a different meaning than the  $r$  in the diagram!

# Magnetic Field of a Long Straight Wire

We've just derived the equation for the magnetic field around a long, straight wire\*

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$$

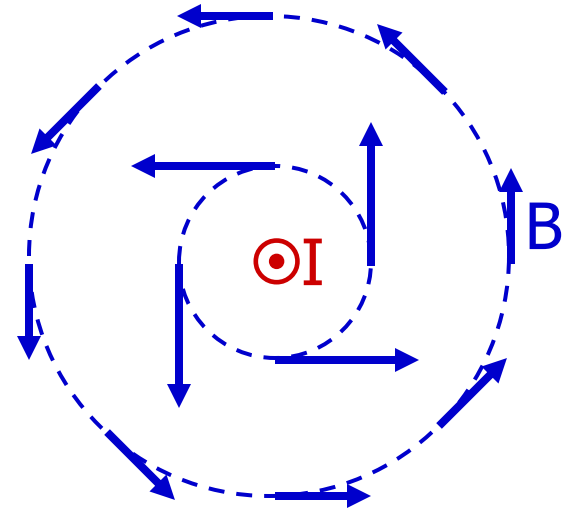
with a direction given by a "new" right-hand rule.



\*Don't use this equation unless you have a long, straight wire!

Looking “down” along the wire:

The magnetic field is not constant.

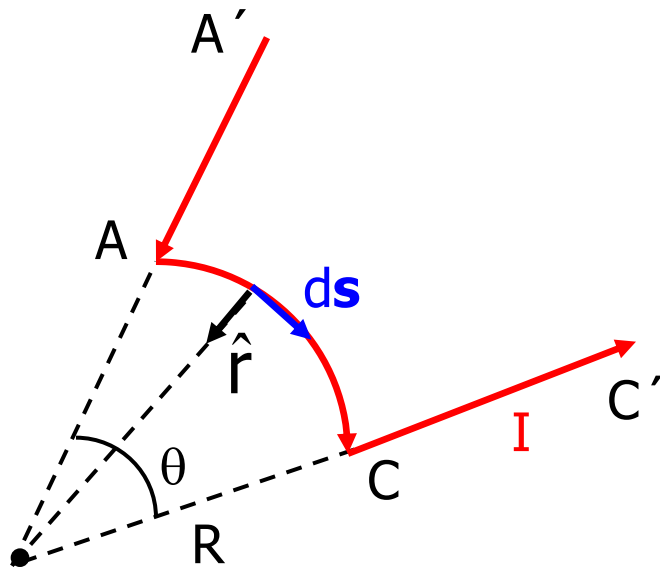


At a fixed distance  $r$  from the wire, the **magnitude** of the magnetic field is constant.

The magnetic field **direction** is always tangent to the imaginary circles drawn around the wire, and perpendicular to the radius “connecting” the wire and the point where the field is being calculated.

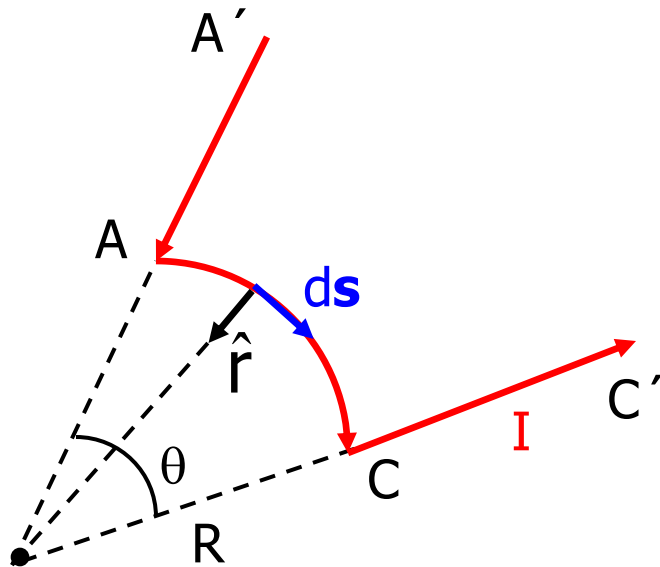


Example: calculate the magnetic field at point O due to the wire segment shown. The wire carries uniform current  $I$ , and consists of two straight segments and a circular arc of radius  $R$  that subtends angle  $\theta$ .



Important technique, handy for exams:

The magnetic field due to wire segments A'A and CC' is zero because  $d\vec{s}$  is parallel to  $\hat{r}$  along these paths.



Important technique, handy for exams:

Along path AC,  $d\vec{s}$  is perpendicular to  $\hat{r}$ .

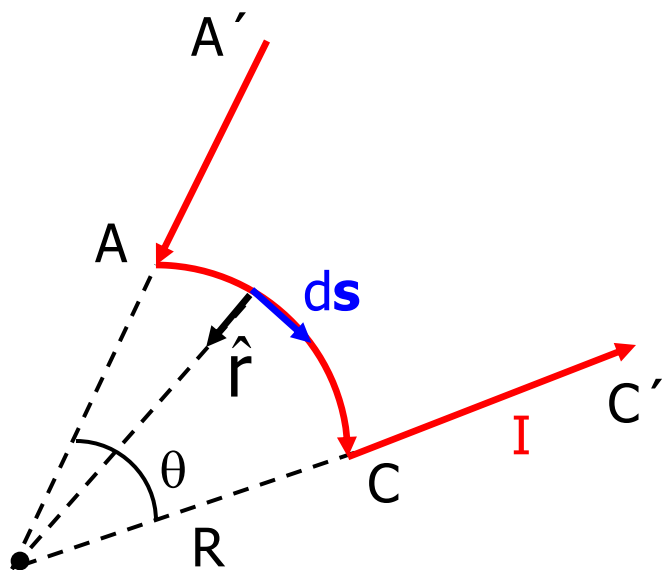
$$d\vec{s} \times \hat{r} = -ds \hat{k}$$

If we use the "usual" xyz axes.

$$|d\vec{s} \times \hat{r}| = ds$$

$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\vec{s} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{ds}{R^2}$$



$$dB = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{ds}{R^2}$$

$$B = \int \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{ds}{R^2}$$

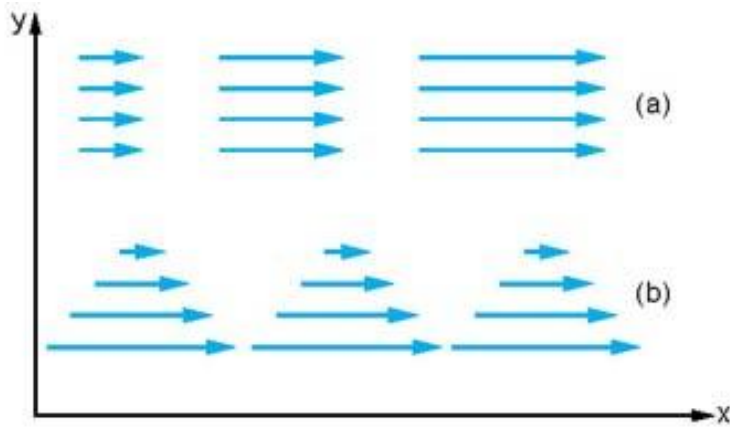
$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi R^2} \int ds$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi R^2} \int R d\theta$$

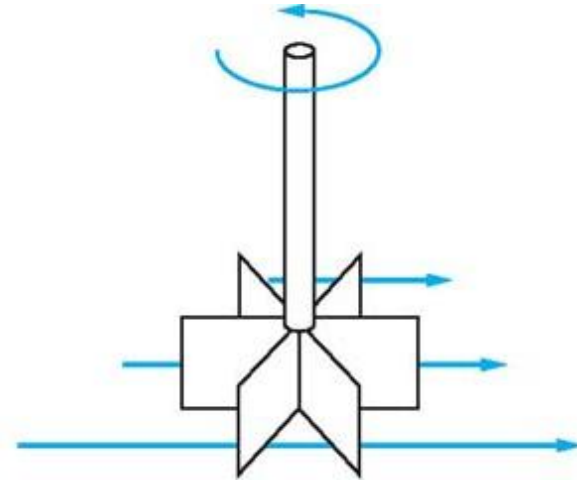
$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi R} \int d\theta$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi R} \theta$$

# Physical view of curl



- a) Field lines indicating divergence
- b) Field lines indicating curl



A simple way to see the direction of curl using right hand rule

# Stokes's Theorem

- *Stokes's Theorem* relates a closed line integral into a surface integral

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{L} = \int (\nabla \times \vec{H}) \cdot d\vec{S}$$

# Magnetic flux density, B

- Magnetic flux density is related to the magnetic field intensity in the free space by  $\vec{B}$

$$\vec{H}$$

- Magnetic flux  $\phi$  (units of Webers) passing through a surface is found by

$$\vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{H} \quad \text{Weber/m}^2 \text{ or Tesla (T)}$$

1 Tesla = 10,000 Gauss.

where  $\mu_0$  is the *free space permeability*, given in units of henrys per meter, or

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m.}$$

$$\phi = \int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

# Gauss's law for magnetic fields

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$$

or

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0.$$

EX1 A solid conductor of circular cross section is made of a homogeneous nonmagnetic material. If the radius  $a = 1$  mm, the conductor axis lies on the  $z$  axis, and the total current in the direction  $\hat{a}_z$  is 20 A, find

a)  $H_\phi$  at  $\rho = 0.5$  mm

b)  $B_\phi$  at  $\rho = 0.8$  mm

c) The total magnetic flux per unit length inside the conductor



# Maxwell's equations for static fields

## Integral form

$$\oint \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{S} = Q_{enc}$$

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{L} = 0$$

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{L} = I_{enc}$$

## Differential form

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_v$$

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

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = J$$

# The scalar and vector magnetic potentials (1)

- **Scalar magnetic potential ( $V_m$ )**  $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$  is the simple practical concept to determine the electric field. Similarly, the scalar magnetic potential,  $V_m$ , is defined to relate to the magnetic field but there is  $\vec{H}$  no physical interpretation.

Assume

$$\vec{H} = -\nabla V_m$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J} = \nabla \times (-\nabla V_m) = 0$$

To make the above statement true,  **$\vec{J} = 0$** .

# The scalar and vector magnetic potentials (2)

From  $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \nabla \times \vec{H} = 0$

$$\mu_0 \nabla \times (-\nabla V_m) = 0$$

$$\therefore \nabla^2 V_m = 0$$

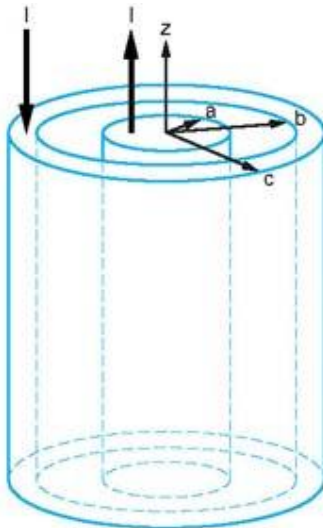
## **Laplace's equation**

This equation's solution to determine the potential field requires that the potential on the boundaries is known.

# The scalar and vector magnetic potentials (3)

■ The difference between  $V$  (electric potential) and  $V_m$  (scalar magnetic potential) is that the electric potential is a function of the positions while there can be many  $V_m$  values for the same position.

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{L} = I_{enc}$$



# The scalar and vector magnetic potentials (4)

While for the electrostatic case

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{L} = 0$$

$$V_{ab} = -\int_b^a \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{L} \quad \text{does not depend on path.}$$

# The scalar and vector magnetic potentials (5)

■ **Vector magnetic potential ( $\vec{A}$ )** is useful to find a magnetic field for antenna and waveguide.

From 
$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

Let assume 
$$\vec{B} = (\nabla \times \vec{A})$$

so 
$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{A}) = 0$$

and 
$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \vec{A}$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A} = \vec{J} \neq 0$$

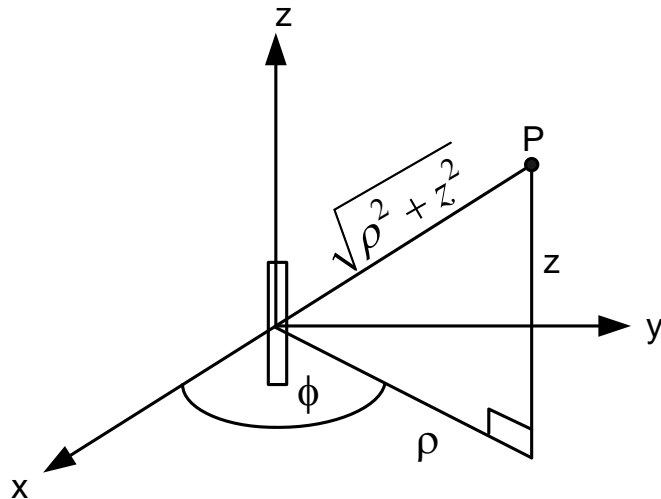
# The scalar and vector magnetic potentials (6)

■ It is simpler to use the vector magnetic potential to determine the magnetic field. By transforming from Bio-savart law, we can write

$$A = \oint \frac{\mu_0 I d\vec{L}}{4\pi R}.$$

The differential form  $d\vec{A} = \frac{\mu_0 I d\vec{L}}{4\pi R}.$

Ex: Determine the magnetic field from the infinite length line of current using the vector magnetic potential



$$d\vec{L} = dz\hat{a}_z$$

Find  $\vec{A}$  at point P( $\rho, \phi, z$ )

$$d\vec{A} = \frac{\mu_0 I dz \hat{a}_z}{4\pi \sqrt{\rho^2 + z^2}}$$

then  $d\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times d\vec{A} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \left( -\frac{\partial dA_z}{\partial \rho} \right) \hat{a}_\phi$

$$d\vec{H} = \frac{I \rho dz}{4\pi (\rho^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \hat{a}_\phi$$



# Vector magnetic potential for other current distributions

- For current sheet

$$A = \oint_S \frac{\mu_0 \vec{K} dS}{4\pi R}$$

- For current volume

$$A = \oint_{vol} \frac{\mu_0 \vec{J} dv}{4\pi R}$$

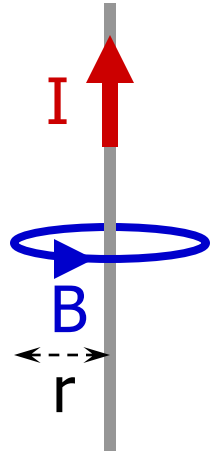
# Magnetic Field of a Current-Carrying Wire

It is **experimentally observed** that parallel wires exert forces on each other when current flows.

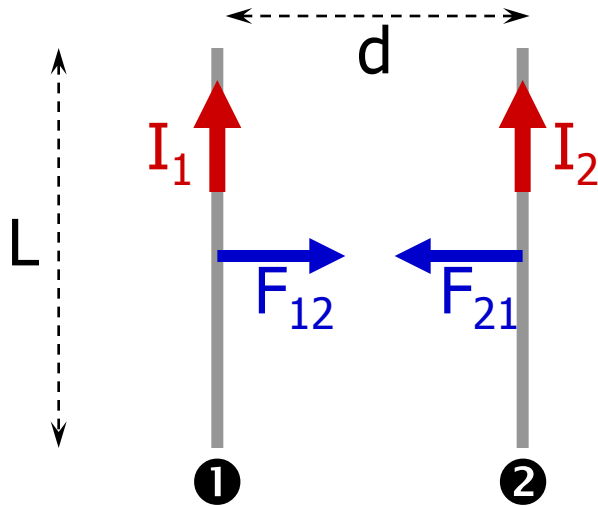


We showed that a long straight wire carrying a current  $I$  gives rise to a magnetic field  $B$  at a distance  $r$  from the wire given by

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$$



The magnetic field of one wire exerts a force on a nearby current-carrying wire.



The magnitude of the force depends on the two currents, the length of the wires, and the distance between them.

$$F = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2 L}{2\pi d}$$

This is NOT a starting equation

The wires are electrically neutral, so this is not a Coulomb force.

Example: use the expression for B due to a current-carrying wire to calculate the force between two current-carrying wires.

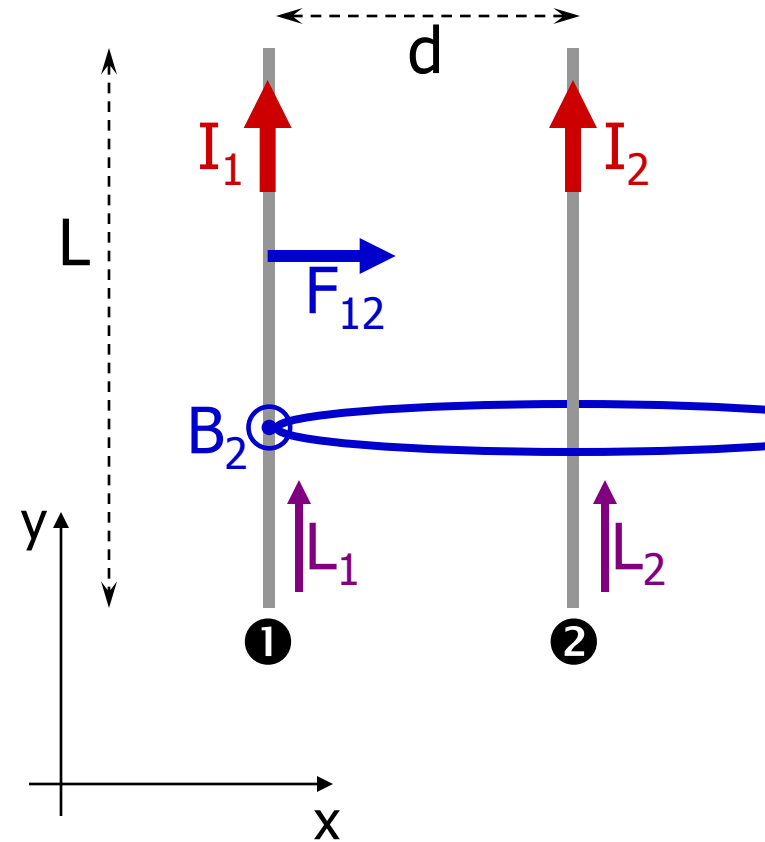
$$\vec{F}_{12} = I_1 \vec{L}_1 \times \vec{B}_2$$

$$\hat{B}_2 = \frac{\mu_0 I_2}{2\pi d} \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{F}_{12} = I_1 L \hat{j} \times \frac{\mu_0 I_2}{2\pi d} \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{F}_{12} = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2 L}{2\pi d} \hat{i}$$

The force per unit length of wire is  $\frac{\vec{F}_{12}}{L} = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi d} \hat{i}$ .

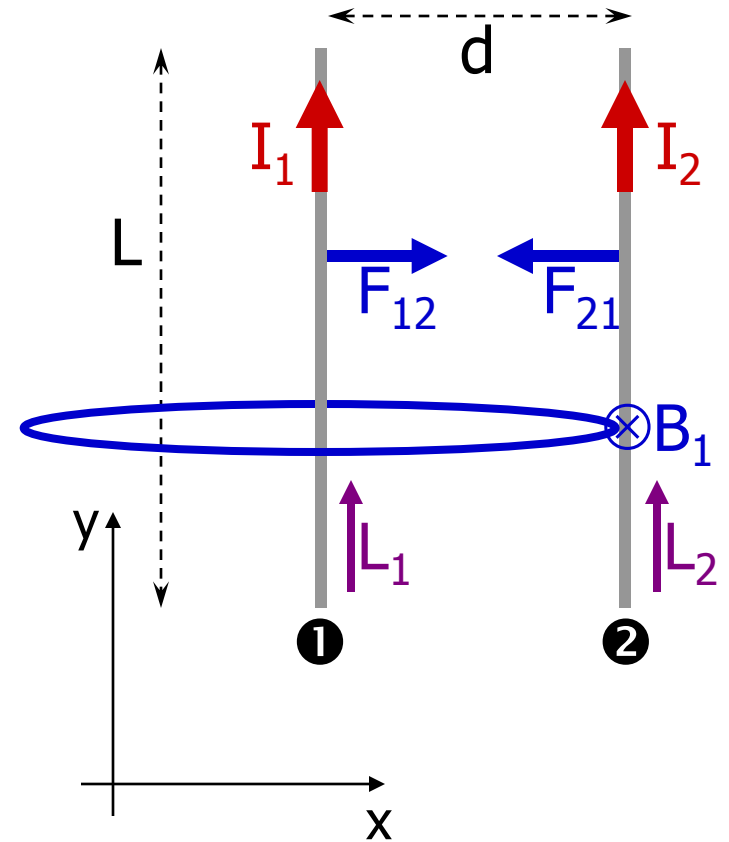


$$\vec{F}_{21} = I_2 \vec{L}_2 \times \vec{B}_1$$

$$\vec{B}_1 = -\frac{\mu_0 I_1}{2\pi d} \hat{k}$$

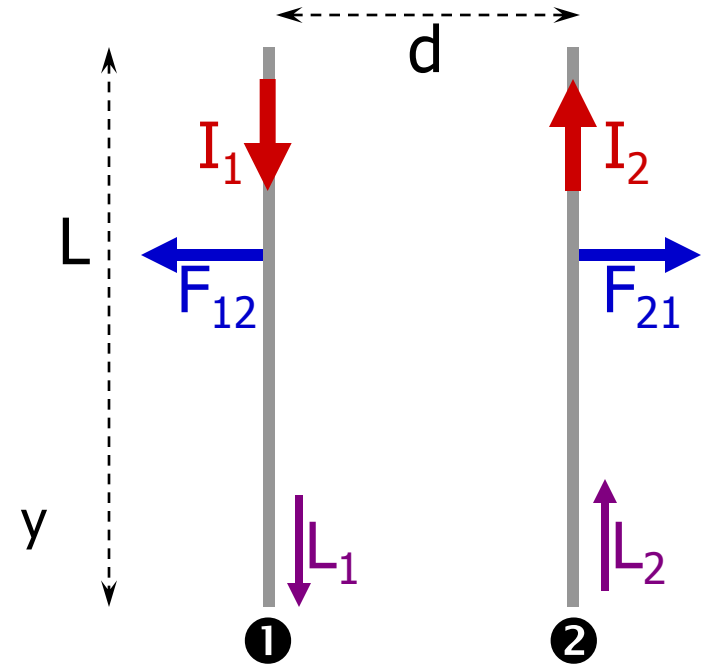
$$\vec{F}_{21} = I_2 L \hat{j} \times \left( -\frac{\mu_0 I_1}{2\pi d} \hat{k} \right)$$

$$\vec{F}_{21} = -\frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2 L}{2\pi d} \hat{i}$$



The force per unit length of wire is  $\frac{\vec{F}_{21}}{L} = -\frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi d} \hat{i}$ .

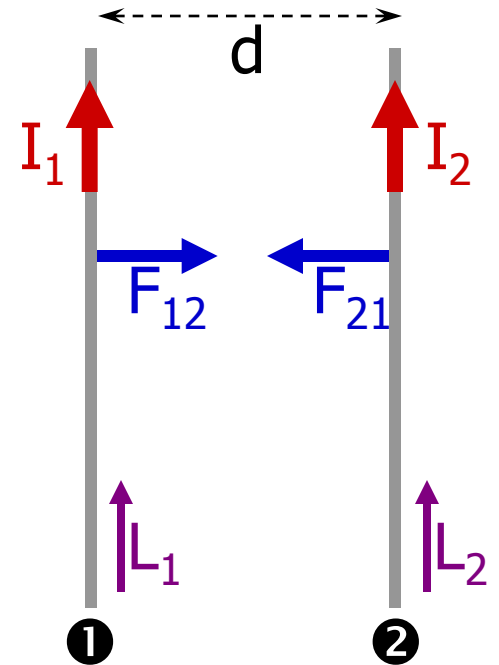
If the currents in the wires are in the opposite direction, the force is repulsive.



$$F_{12} = F_{21} = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2 L}{2\pi d}$$

$$F_{12} = F_{21} = \frac{4\pi \times 10^{-7} I_1 I_2 L}{2\pi d} = 2 \times 10^{-7} I_1 I_2 \frac{L}{d}$$

The official definition of the Ampere: 1 A is the current that produces a force of  $2 \times 10^{-7}$  N force per meter of length between two long parallel wires placed 1 meter apart in empty space.



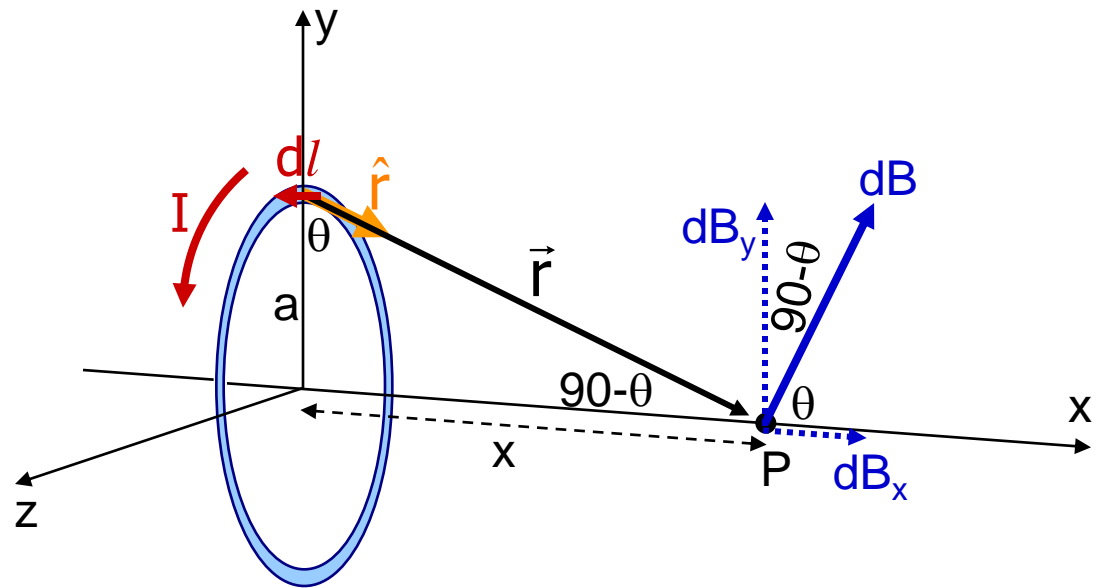
# Magnetic Field of a Current Loop

A circular ring of radius  $a$  carries a current  $I$  as shown. Calculate the magnetic field at a point  $P$  along the axis of the ring at a distance  $x$  from its center.

Complicated diagram!  
You are supposed to visualize the ring lying in the  $yz$  plane.

$d\vec{\ell}$  is in the  $yz$  plane.  $\hat{r}$  is in the  $xy$  plane and is perpendicular to  $d\vec{\ell}$ . Thus  $|d\vec{\ell} \times \hat{r}| = d\ell$ .

Also,  $d\vec{B}$  must lie in the  $xy$  plane (perpendicular to  $d\vec{\ell}$ ) and is perpendicular to  $\vec{r}$ .

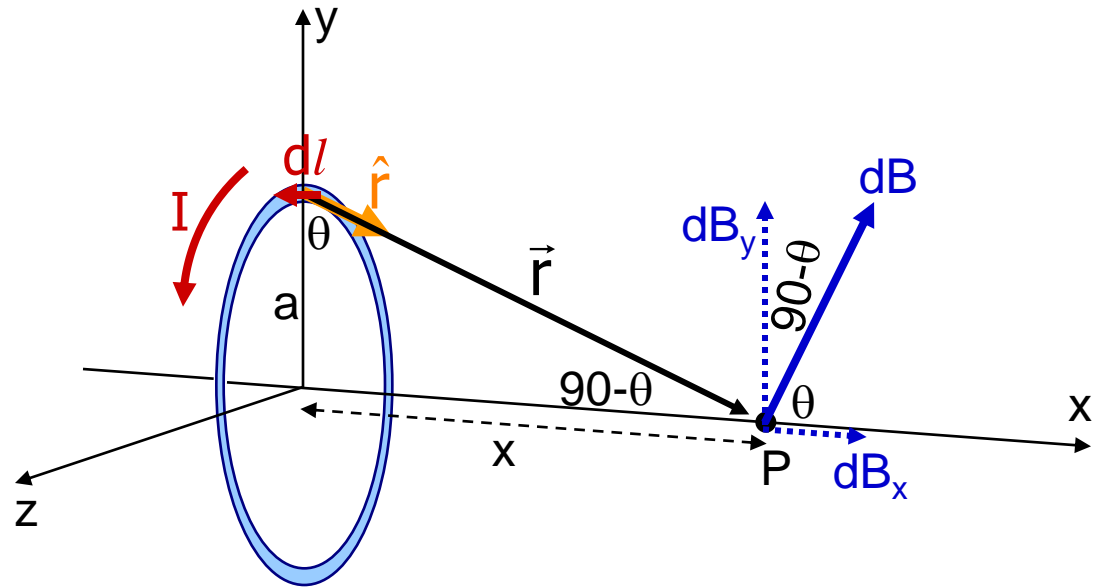




$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\vec{\ell} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\ell}{r^2}$$

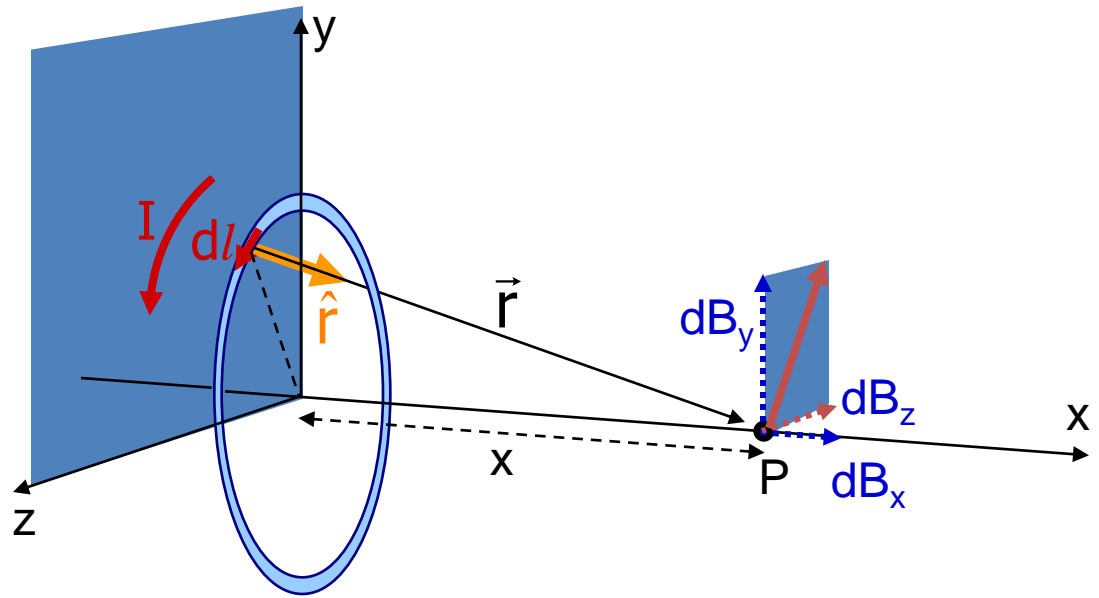
$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\ell}{(x^2 + a^2)}$$



$$dB_x = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\ell}{(x^2 + a^2)} \cos\theta = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\ell}{(x^2 + a^2)} \frac{a}{(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$dB_y = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\ell}{(x^2 + a^2)} \sin\theta = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I d\ell}{(x^2 + a^2)} \frac{x}{(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}}$$

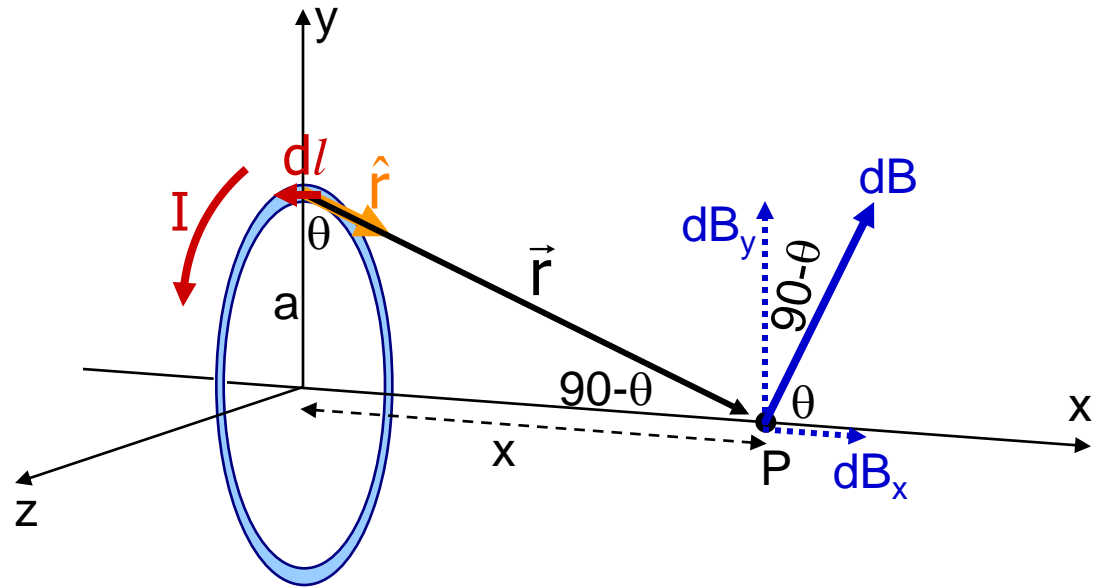
By symmetry,  $B_y$  will be 0. Do you see why?



When  $d\vec{l}$  is not centered at  $z=0$ , there will be a z-component to the magnetic field, but by symmetry  $B_z$  will still be zero.

$$dB_x = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I a d\ell}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$B_x = \int_{\text{ring}} dB_x$$



$I$ ,  $x$ , and  $a$  are constant as you integrate around the ring!

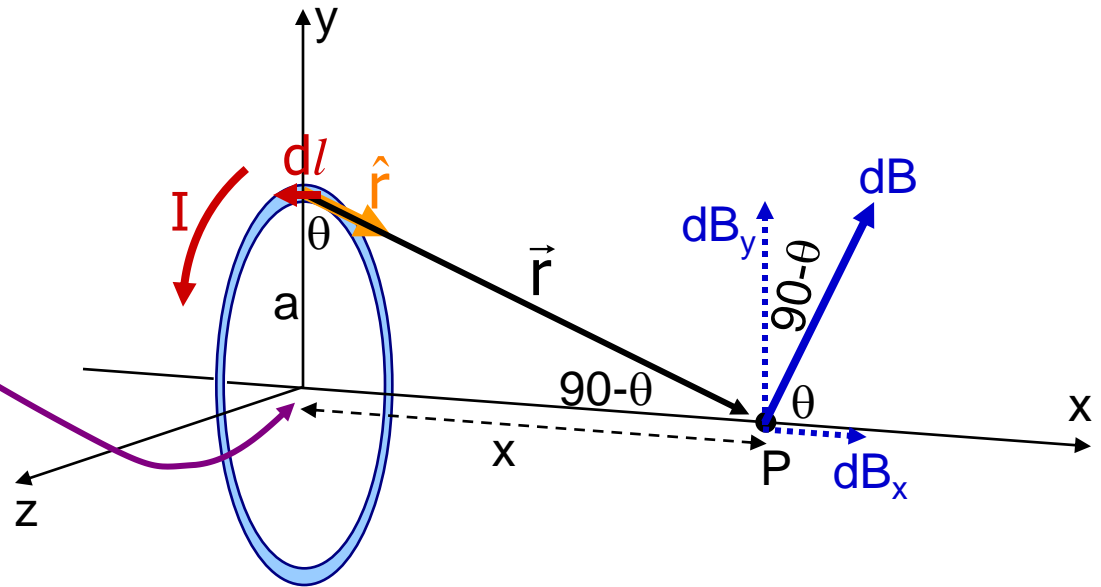
$$B_x = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I a}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} \int_{\text{ring}} d\ell = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I a}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} 2\pi a$$

$$B_x = \frac{\mu_0 I a^2}{2(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}}$$

At the center of the ring,  $x=0$ .

$$B_{x,\text{center}} = \frac{\mu_0 I a^2}{2(a^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$B_{x,\text{center}} = \frac{\mu_0 I a^2}{2a^3} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2a}$$



For  $N$  tightly packed concentric rings (a coil)...

$$B_{x,\text{center}} = \frac{\mu_0 N I}{2a}$$