

## Magnetic Force between Two Parallel Conductors:

We now look into the magnetic force on a current carrying conductor when the conductor is in an external magnetic field. Let's consider two current-carrying conductors placed in each other's vicinity.

Each generates a magnetic field that would apply force to the other conductor:

using  $\vec{B}$  derived for a wire that is long compared with the distance from the point at which  $B$  is measured:

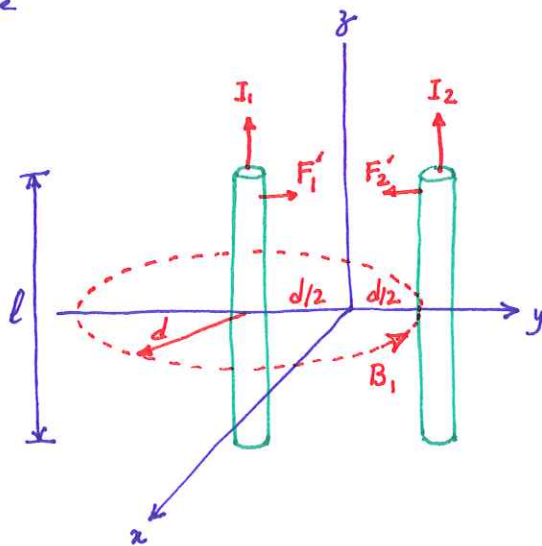
$$\vec{B}_1 = -\hat{x} \frac{\mu_0 I_1}{2\pi d} \quad \vec{F}_2 = I_2 \vec{L} \times \vec{B}_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{F}_2 &= I_2 \vec{L} \times \vec{B}_1 = I_2 \vec{L} \times (-\hat{x}) \frac{\mu_0 I_1}{2\pi d} \\ &= -\hat{y} \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2 L}{2\pi d} \end{aligned}$$

The force per unit length is:

$$\vec{F}'_2 = \frac{\vec{F}_2}{L} = -\hat{y} \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi d}$$

And similarly:  $\vec{F}'_1 = \hat{y} \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi d} \rightarrow$  The two wires attract each other.



## Maxwell's Magnetostatic Equations

Gauss's Law for Magnetism:

for electrostatics we had:  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_v \iff \oint_s \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{s} = Q$

For magnetostatics we have:  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \iff \oint_s \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0$

This relation is also called law of conservation of magnetic flux, or law of non-existence of isolated magnetic monopoles. In other words, magnetic field lines always form continuous closed loops.

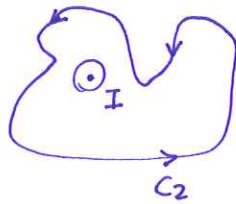
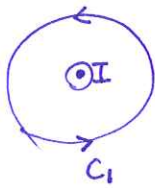
# Ampère's Law

Ampere's law comes from the Maxwell's equation of  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \vec{J}$

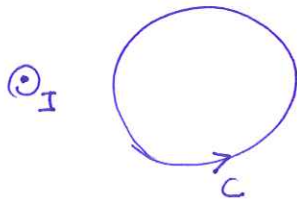
$$\int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} = I$$

$$\int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \oint_C \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = I \quad (\text{Ampère's law})$$

So Ampere's law states that the line integral of current on a closed contour is equal to the current traversing the surface of the contour:



$$\oint_{C1} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \oint_{C2} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = I$$



$$\oint_C \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0 \quad \text{as there is no current crossing the surface.}$$

## Example Magnetic flux of a long wire

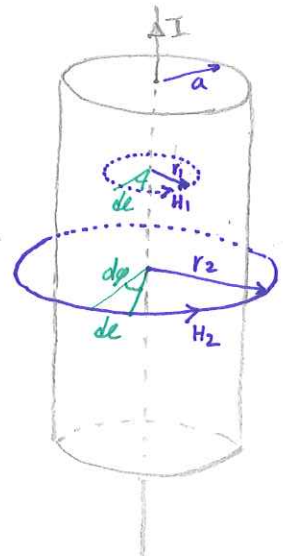
Find the magnetic flux around a wire with radius "a" and current I (a) inside the wire ( $r \leq a$ ) (b) outside the wire ( $r > a$ ).

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = I \rightarrow \oint \vec{H}_1 \cdot d\vec{l} = I_1$$

$$I_1 = \int_{S_1} \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{s} = J \int_{S_1} ds = J \pi r^2 \quad J = \frac{I}{\pi a^2} \Rightarrow I_1 = I \frac{r^2}{a^2}$$

$$\oint \vec{H}_1 \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^{2\pi} (H_1 \hat{\phi}) \cdot (\hat{\phi} r d\phi) = 2\pi r_1 H_1$$

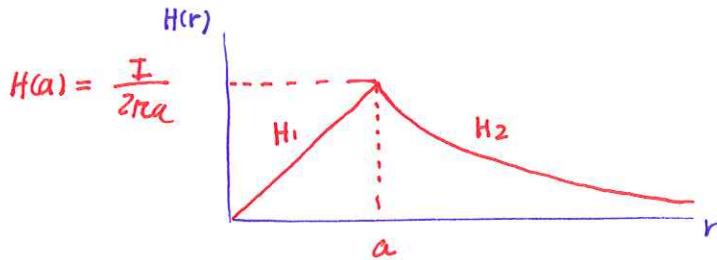
$$\rightarrow 2\pi r_1 H_1 = I \frac{r_1^2}{a^2} \rightarrow \vec{H}_1 = \frac{r_1}{2\pi a^2} I \hat{\phi} \quad r_1 \leq a$$



$$\oint \vec{H}_2 \cdot d\vec{l} = I_2 \quad I_2 = I$$

$$\oint \vec{H}_2 \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^{2\pi} (H_2 \hat{\phi}) \cdot (\hat{\phi} r_2 d\phi) = H_2 2\pi r_2 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} H_2 2\pi r = I \rightarrow H_2 = \frac{I}{2\pi r} \hat{\phi} \quad r_2 \geq a \end{array} \right\}$$

This similar expression as we got using the Biot-Savart law.



### Example Magnetic field inside a Toroidal Coil

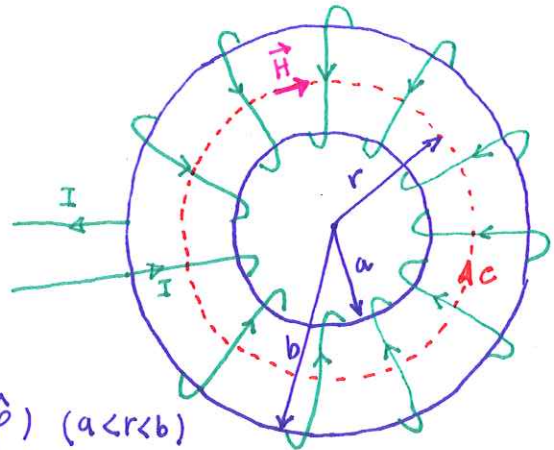
Calculate the magnetic field inside a toroidal coil (also called torus or toroid).

$$\vec{H} = -\hat{\phi} H$$

$$\oint_C \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = -NI \quad (\text{we use } \ominus \text{ sign as the current is going into the surface})$$

$$\oint_C \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_0^{2\pi} (-H \hat{\phi}) \cdot (\hat{\phi} r d\phi)$$

$$= -2\pi r H = -NI \rightarrow \vec{H} = \frac{NI}{2\pi r} (-\hat{\phi}) \quad (a < r < b)$$



### Example Magnetic Field of an infinite Current Sheet

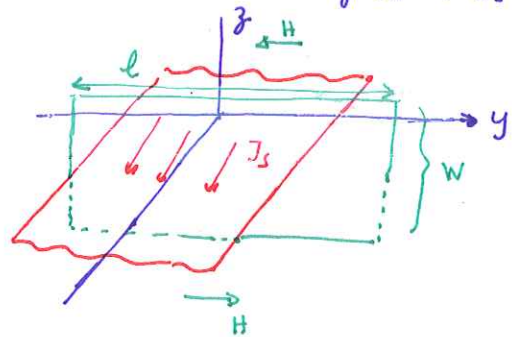
Now consider a thin current sheet in the xy plane with surface current density  $\vec{J}_s = \hat{x} J_s$ .

$$H = \begin{cases} -\hat{y} H & \text{for } z > 0 \\ \hat{y} H & \text{for } z < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\oint_C \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{\frac{w}{2}}^{\frac{w}{2}} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{-\frac{w}{2}}^{-\frac{w}{2}} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = Hl + Hl = 2Hl$$

$$I = J_s l$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{H} = \begin{cases} -\hat{y} \frac{J_s}{2} & \text{for } z > 0 \\ \hat{y} \frac{J_s}{2} & \text{for } z < 0 \end{cases}$$





## Vector Magnetic Potential

In our discussion of electrostatic field we introduced the electrostatic potential  $V$  and defined

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}V. \text{ Here we wish to define a magnetic potential that results in magnetic flux } B.$$

Since  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ , a good magnetic potential is such that  $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$  so that divergence of the curl is always zero. So we define the vector magnetic potential  $\vec{A}$ :

$$\boxed{\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}} \quad (\text{Wb/m}^2)$$

Note that  $V$  was a scalar potential, but  $\vec{A}$  is a vector.

$$\text{we had } \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \vec{J} \rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu \vec{J} \quad (\text{as } \vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}).$$

$$\text{If we replace } B = \nabla \times A \rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = \mu \vec{J}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For any vector the laplacian is: } \nabla^2 \vec{A} &= \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) - \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \\ &= \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) - \mu \vec{J} \end{aligned}$$

We chose  $\vec{A}$  such that  $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$ . However this has many solutions for  $A$ , unless we define another property for  $A$ . Here we choose  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$  to simplify the above relation:

$$\text{Choose } \boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0} \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^2 \vec{A} = -\mu \vec{J}}$$

This is similar to the poisson's equ.  $\nabla^2 V = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} \rho$ .

$$\text{Note that in Cartesian coordinate: } \nabla^2 \vec{A} = \frac{\partial^2 \vec{A}}{\partial x^2} \hat{x} + \frac{\partial^2 \vec{A}}{\partial y^2} \hat{y} + \frac{\partial^2 \vec{A}}{\partial z^2} \hat{z} = \hat{x} \nabla_x^2 A + \hat{y} \nabla_y^2 A + \hat{z} \nabla_z^2 A$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla^2 A_x = -\mu J_x$$

$$\nabla^2 A_y = -\mu J_y$$

$$\nabla^2 A_z = -\mu J_z$$

This is very similar to the Poisson's equation:

$$\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon} \longrightarrow V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \int_V \frac{\rho}{R} dv$$

$$\nabla^2 A_x = -\mu J_x \longrightarrow A_x = \frac{\mu}{4\pi} \int_V \frac{J_x}{R} dv \quad (\text{wb/m})$$

And similarly for  $A_y$  and  $A_z$ . So we can write:

$$\vec{A} = \frac{\mu}{4\pi} \int_V \frac{\vec{J}}{R} dv \quad (\text{wb/m})$$

If the current is on a surface with surface current density,  $\vec{J} dv$  is replaced with  $\vec{J}_s ds$  and  $v$  by  $s$ . Same if it's a line current density,  $\vec{J} dv$  is replaced with  $\vec{J}_l dl$  and  $v$  by  $l$ . The above relation, is another approach to calculate the magnetic field resulted from a current (besides the Ampere's law and Biot-Savart).

### Magnetic flux, $\Phi$

Magnetic flux  $\Phi$  is defined as:  $\Phi = \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}$  (wb)  $\vec{B}$  is mag. flux density.

$$\rightarrow \Phi = \int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad (\text{wb}) \rightarrow$$

$$\Phi = \oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l} \quad (\text{wb})$$

## Magnetic Properties of Materials

Materials are classified in terms of their magnetic properties as:

**Diamagnetic:** Atoms have no permanent magnetic moments. (Bi, Cu, Au, Pb, Ag, Si, Hg, diamond)

**Paramagnetic:** Atoms have permanent magnetic moments, with no hysteresis (Al, Ca, Cr, Mg, Pt, W, Nb)

**Ferromagnetic:** Atoms have permanent magnetic moments and have hysteresis (Fe, Ni, Co)

## Orbital and Spin Magnetic Moments

In a classical picture, electron rotates in a circular orbit of radius  $r$  with a constant velocity  $u$ .

one complete rotation takes  $T = \frac{2\pi r}{u}$  time.

This constitutes a tiny current loop with  $I$  as:

$$I = -\frac{e}{T} = -\frac{eu}{2\pi r}$$

The magnitude of the orbital magnetic moment  $m_o$  is:

$$m_o = IA = \left(-\frac{eu}{2\pi r}\right)(\pi r^2) = -\frac{eur}{2} = -\left(\frac{e}{2m_e}\right) \overbrace{meur}^{L_e \text{ : angular momentum of electron with mass } m_e}$$

$$m_o = -\left(\frac{e}{2m_e}\right) L_e$$

According to quantum physics, the angular momentum is quantized:  $L_e$  is always an integer multiple

of  $\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$ :  $L_e = 0, \hbar, 2\hbar, 3\hbar, \dots$  So the smallest non-zero orbital magnetic moment is:

$$m_o = -\frac{e\hbar}{2m_e}$$

Although all materials have electrons and electrons have magnetic moment dipole moments, most materials are effectively nonmagnetic. This is because the electron magnetic moments in absence of external  $\vec{B}$  are randomly oriented and cancel each other's effect.



In addition to angular magnetic moment, electrons generate a **spin magnetic moment**,  $m_s$ .

Classically, this is due to its spinning motion about its own axis:



The magnitude of  $m_s$  predicted from **quantum** physics is:

$$m_s = -\frac{e\hbar}{2m_e}$$

which equal to the minimum orbital magnetic moment  $m_o$ . Atoms with even number of electrons usually have electrons with pairs of having opposite spin directions, therefore cancel each other's spin magnetic moments. If the number of electrons is odd, the atom will have a nonzero spin magnetic moment.

The nucleus of an atom also has a spinning motion (classically) and a spin magnetic moment. But as the mass of nucleus is much larger than that of electron, its spin magnetic moment is very smaller (on the order of  $10^{-3}$  of that of electron)

## Magnetic Permeability

**Magnetization vector  $M$**  of a material is the sum of all magnetic dipole moments of the atoms contained in a unit volume of the material. The correspondingly magnetic flux density is:

$\vec{B}_m = \mu_0 \vec{M}$ . Hence in presence of an external  $\vec{H}$ , the total magnetic flux density is:

$$\vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{H} + \mu_0 \vec{M} = \mu_0 (\vec{H} + \vec{M})$$

In general, the material is magnetized in response to the external  $\vec{H}$ . So  $\vec{M} = \chi_m \vec{H}$

where  $\chi_m$  is dimensionless and called **magnetic susceptibility**. In diamagnetic and paramagnetic materials  $\chi_m$  is constant so  $M$  is a linear function of  $H$ . But in ferroelectric materials  $\chi_m$  also depends on the **history** of the material. Also  $\chi_m$  depends on the

magnitude of  $H$ ; hence,  $M$  is a non-linear function of  $H$ .

We can now write for  $B$ :

$$\vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{H} + \mu_0 \vec{M} = \mu_0 \vec{H} + \mu_0 \chi_m \vec{H} = \overbrace{\mu_0 (1 + \chi_m)}^{\mu} \vec{H}$$

or:  $\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$  where  $\mu$  is the magnetic permeability give by:

$$\mu = \mu_0 (1 + \chi_m) \quad (\text{H/m})$$

We can also define the relative permeability  $\mu_r$ :

$$\mu_r = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = 1 + \chi_m$$

Diamagnetic materials have negative susceptibilities and paramagnetic materials have positive  $\chi_m$ . However magnitude of  $\chi_m$  is very small in both materials in the order of  $10^{-5}$ . So  $\chi_m \ll 1 \Rightarrow \mu_r \approx 1$  or  $\mu \approx \mu_0$  for dia- and paramagnetics, which includes dielectrics and most metals.

for ferroelectrics  $|\mu_r| \gg 1$ . For example for pure Iron  $\mu_r \approx 2 \times 10^5$ .