

Currents and B Fields (5.2)

For now, we'll consider situations with **steady currents**.

This means not only that \mathbf{J} is constant,
but also that ρ is constant.

The latter condition implies that $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$ **everywhere**.

This can only work if **current flows in loops**:

If the lines end anywhere, then charge will pile up at the ends: ρ won't be constant.

There is no such thing as a point steady current, unlike a point charge.

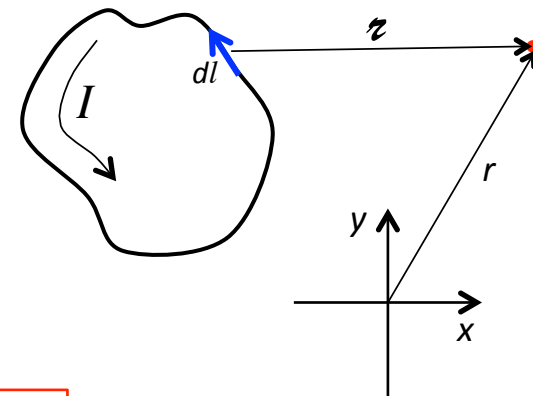
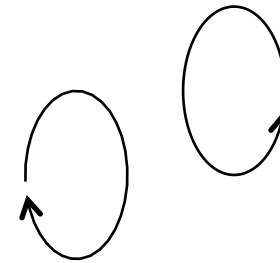
In this situation, we have (empirically) the **Biot-Savart Law**:

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \oint \frac{\vec{I} \times \hat{r}}{r^2} d\vec{l} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint \frac{d\vec{l} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

One can generalize this to surface
or volume current densities.

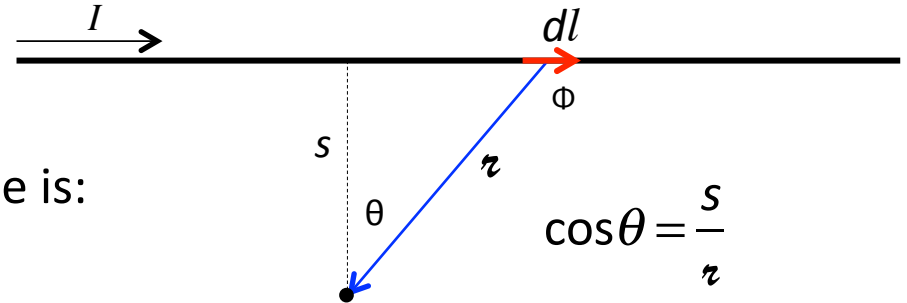
- Replace \vec{I} with \vec{K} or \vec{J} .
- Replace $d\vec{l}$ with $d\vec{a}$ or $dVol$.

Biot-Savart is the magnetic equivalent of Coulomb's law.



Example:

Consider an infinitely long straight wire:



$d\vec{l} \times \hat{r}$ points into the page. Its magnitude is:

$$|d\vec{l} \times \hat{r}| = dl \sin\phi = dl \cos\theta = dl \left(s / r \right)$$

$$\text{Also, } \frac{1}{r^2} = \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{s^2}$$

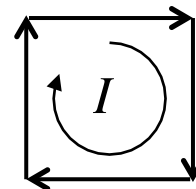
$$\text{Here is the integral we must do: } \vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\cos^3 \theta}{s^2} dl$$

$$\text{Write } dl \text{ in terms of } d\theta: \quad dl = s d(\tan\theta) = s \sec^2 \theta d\theta = \frac{s d\theta}{\cos^2 \theta}$$

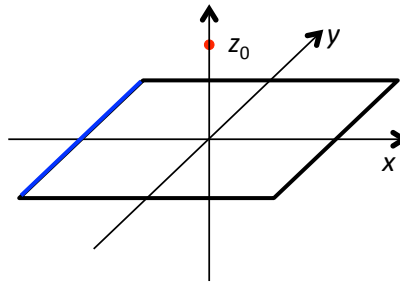
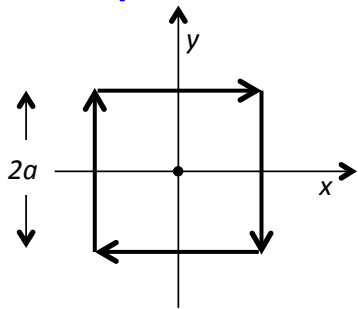
$$\text{Thus: } \vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi s} \int_{\theta_{\min}}^{\theta_{\max}} \cos\theta d\theta = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi s} \left[\sin\theta \right]_{\theta_{\min}}^{\theta_{\max}}$$

=2 for an ∞ wire

Note: This is valid for a finite wire as long as it is part of a complete loop (e.g., a square):



Example: The magnetic field on the axis, at $(0, 0, z_0)$ of a square loop:



By symmetry, B must point along the z -axis.
All four segments produce the same B_z . Look at one.

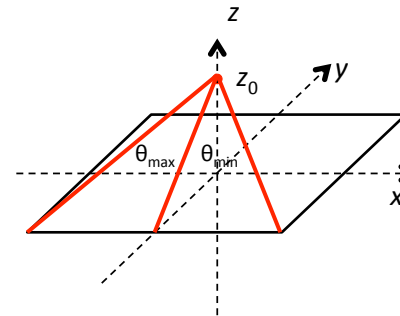
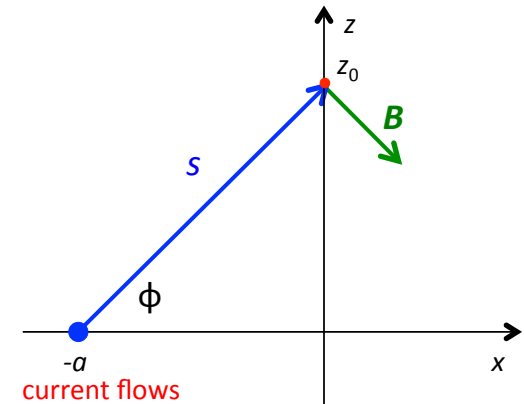
$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi s} \left[\sin\theta \right]_{\theta_{\min}}^{\theta_{\max}}$$

$$s = (a^2 + z_0^2)^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \cos\phi = \frac{a}{s}$$

$$\sin\theta_{\max} = \frac{a}{(a^2 + s^2)^{1/2}} = \frac{a}{(2a^2 + z_0^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\text{So, } B_z = -B \cos\phi = -\frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{1}{(a^2 + z_0^2)^{1/2}} \frac{2a}{(2a^2 + z_0^2)^{1/2}} \frac{a}{(a^2 + z_0^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$= -\frac{\mu_0 I a^2}{2\pi (a^2 + z_0^2)(2a^2 + z_0^2)^{1/2}} \quad \text{4 (four sides)}$$



For large z_0 , $B \propto \frac{1}{z_0^3}$.

This is a magnetic dipole.
There are no monopoles.

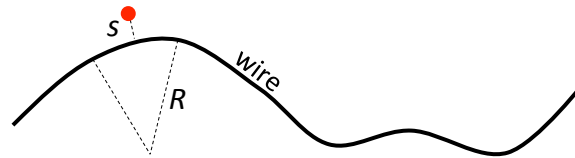
Ampere's Law (5.3)

Let's consider the curl and divergence of \mathbf{B} .

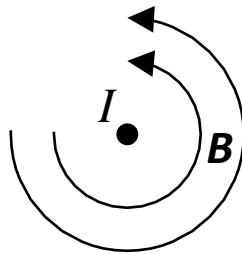
The B field near a current-carrying wire is: $\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi s} \hat{\phi}$

Cylindrical coordinates:
This is for I along the $+z$ axis.
Use the right-hand rule.

Note: This holds for any wire,
if $s \ll$ the radius of curvature:



Look at it end-on:
 I is out of the picture.



Because \mathbf{B} is inversely proportional to s ,
the integral around a loop of radius s is

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi s} \oint dl = \mu_0 I \quad \text{independent of } s.$$

- In fact, this is true for any loop (any shape) that goes once around the wire.
- Any loop that does not go around the wire has $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$.

This is an important result, so we'll prove it.

Proof that $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I$ for any loop around a wire.

Do it in cylindrical coordinates. (s, Φ, z) . $\vec{B} = \left(0, \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi s}, 0 \right)$, and $d\vec{l} = (ds, s d\phi, dz)$

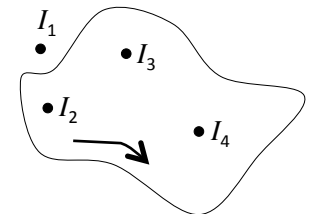
Thus, $\vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi} d\phi$.

Neither radial (s) nor longitudinal (z) motion contributes to the integral.

And $\int_{\phi_1}^{\phi_2} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi} (\phi_2 - \phi_1)$.

- A complete loop gives $\mu_0 I$.
- Multiple loops (N times around) gives $N\mu_0 I$.
- Going the other way around ($d\phi$ becomes $-d\phi$) changes the sign.

We can generalize this result using superposition: $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 \sum_i I_i$
Only the wires that pass through the loop contribute.

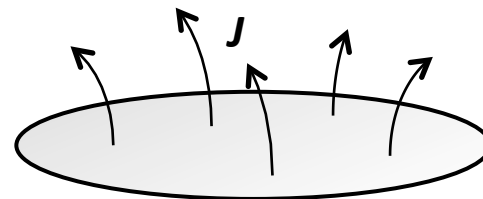


Clearly, we can let the discrete wires become distributed currents:

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 \int \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n} da$$

surface

The current flux
through the loop.



Now, remember our friend, Stokes' theorem: $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{\text{surface}} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \hat{n} da$

So, we have: $\mu_0 \int_{\text{any surface}} \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n} da = \int_{\text{any surface}} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \hat{n} da$

As we did with the electric field (because it works for any surface through any loop), this can be written as a local (differential) equation:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}$$

This is Ampere's Law.
It is one of Maxwell's equations

In a current-free region, $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = 0$.

Example: (G, 5.13a)

Consider a circular wire of radius R that carries total current I .
Suppose the current density is uniform in the wire:

Calculate \mathbf{B} inside and outside the wire.

Symmetry tells us that \mathbf{B} has only a ϕ component.

$$J = \frac{I}{\pi R^2} . \text{ Units are Amp/m}^2.$$

For $r < R$: $\oint \mathbf{B} d\mathbf{l} = \mu_0 I_{\text{enclosed}}$

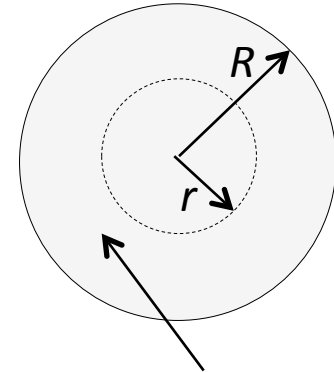
$$2\pi r B = \mu_0 \cdot J \cdot \text{Area} = \mu_0 \frac{I}{\pi R^2} \pi r^2$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi R} \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)$$

For $r > R$: $I_{\text{enclosed}} = I$, and $B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$

The same as from
a line current

End 10/14/13



Uniform J inside.

This is the actual
situation for DC
currents in wires.

Cylindrical symmetry makes current
problems simple, just as spherical
symmetry does for charges.