

Lesson 11 Magnetostatics in Free Space

■ Introduction

When a small test charge q travels with velocity \vec{u} in a magnetic field characterized by a magnetic flux density \vec{B} (Wb/m²), it will experience a magnetic force $\vec{F}_m = q\vec{u} \times \vec{B}$. If there is an electric field \vec{E} as well, the total electromagnetic force is governed by the Lorentz's force equation:

$$\vec{F} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B}) \quad (11.1)$$

Historically, \vec{B} is defined by measuring \vec{F}_m and \vec{u} experimentally. However, we will start with two fundamental postulates of magnetostatics in free space to define \vec{B} , from which all experimental laws and the concept of magnetic “potential” can be derived.

11.1 Fundamental Postulates

■ Definition and physical meaning

By Helmholtz's theorem ([Lesson 5](#)), \vec{B} can be uniquely specified if its divergence and curl are given:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad (11.2)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} \quad (11.3)$$

where \vec{J} is the volume current density (A/m²), and μ_0 is the permeability of vacuum. [Eq's \(11.2\), \(11.3\)](#) indicate that: (1) there is no “flow source” of magnetic field, (2) \vec{J} acts as the “vortex source” of magnetic field, respectively.

■ Integral forms

By integrating both sides of eq (11.2) over a volume enclosed by surface S and applying the divergence theorem [eq. (5.24)], we derive:

$$\oint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0 \quad (11.4)$$

This means that the magnetic flux lines always close upon themselves, and there is no isolated “magnetic pole”.

By integrating both sides of eq. (11.3) over a surface bounded by contour C and applying the Stokes’ theorem [eq. (5.29)], we derive the Ampère’s circuital law:

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I \quad (11.5)$$

As the Gauss’s law in electrostatics, eq. (11.5) relates the magnetic source (I) and field \vec{B} .

11.2 Ampère’s Circuital Law

■ Definition and applications

If the current distribution has certain symmetry, such that the tangential component of \vec{B} is constant over a contour C , eq. (11.5) becomes convenient in determining \vec{B} .

Example 11-1: Consider an infinitely long conducting wire with circular cross section of radius b , and carrying a steady current I (A) in the $+z$ direction. Find \vec{B} inside and outside the conductor.

Ans: By cylindrical symmetry, $\Rightarrow \vec{B} = \begin{cases} \vec{a}_\phi B_{\phi_1}(r), & \text{if } r < b \\ \vec{a}_\phi B_{\phi_2}(r), & \text{if } r > b \end{cases}$. Choose a circle of radius r as

the integral path C (Fig. 11-1a).

(1) For $r < b$: $\oint_{C_1} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = 2\pi r B_{\phi_1}(r) = \mu_0 \left(\frac{r}{b}\right)^2 I, \Rightarrow B_{\phi_1}(r) = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi b^2} r (\propto r).$

(2) For $r > b$: $\oint_{C_2} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = 2\pi r B_{\phi_2}(r) = \mu_0 I, \Rightarrow B_{\phi_2}(r) = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} (\propto r^{-1}).$

This example shows that a conducting wire creates a “circulating” magnetic field outside the wire itself:

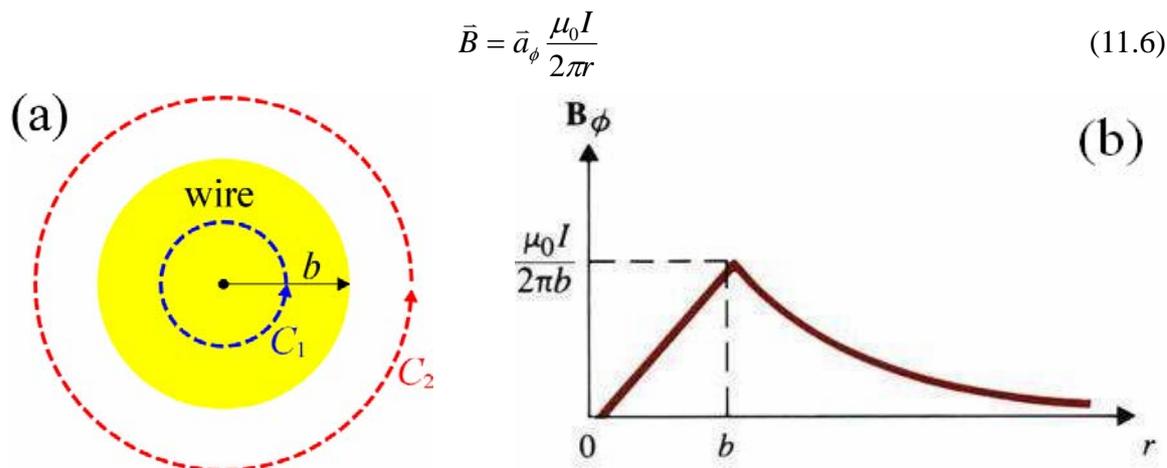


Fig. 11-1. (a) Cross-section of the conducting wire. (b) Magnitude of magnetic flux density (after DKC).

Example 11-2: Consider an infinitely long solenoid with air core, n turns per unit length, and carrying a steady current I . Find \vec{B} inside the solenoid.

Ans: Since (1) $\vec{B} = 0$ outside the solenoid, (2) \vec{B} is constant and in axial direction inside the solenoid,

\Rightarrow choose a rectangular contour C (Fig. 11-2). $\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = BL = \mu_0(nL)I, \Rightarrow$

$$B = \mu_0 n I \tag{11.7}$$

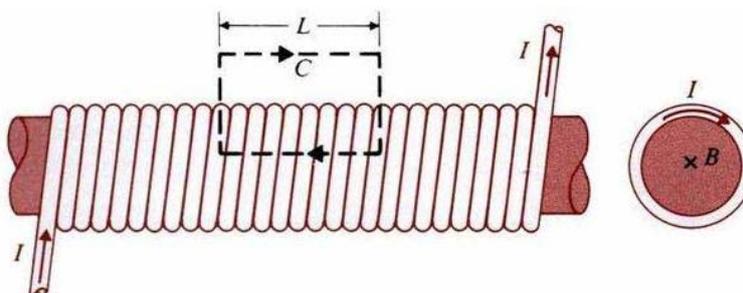


Fig. 11-2. A current-carrying solenoid (after DKC).

11.3 Vector Magnetic Potential

■ Definition and physical meaning

From the null identity of eq. (5.35) and the fundamental postulate of eq. (11.2), magnetic flux density \vec{B} is divergence-free and can be expressed as the curl of some vector potential field:

$$\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A} \quad (11.8)$$

The flux Φ of \vec{B} over a given area S bounded by contour C is:

$$\Phi \text{ (Wb)} = \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot d\vec{s} = \oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{l}.$$

The line integral of \vec{A} over a contour C equals the total magnetic flux passing through the area bounded by C (physical meaning of \vec{A}).

Unlike scalar electric potential V , we need to specify the divergence of \vec{A} (in addition to the curl of \vec{A} , specified by eq. (11.8)) to uniquely define the vector magnetic potential \vec{A} .

In magnetostatics, we choose the Coulomb's gauge:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0 \quad (11.9)$$

Substitute eq's (11.3), (11.8), (11.9) into the definition of vector Laplacian eq. (5.31):

$$\nabla^2 \vec{A} \equiv \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) - \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A} = 0 - \nabla \times \vec{B} = -\mu_0 \vec{J},$$

i.e., the vector magnetic potential \vec{A} is satisfied with a vector Poisson's equation:

$$\nabla^2 \vec{A} = -\mu_0 \vec{J} \quad (11.10)$$

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Coulomb's gauge is chosen to simplify eq. (11.10). We will choose different gauges in time-varying fields (Lesson 15).

■ Evaluation

Eq. (11.10) can be solved by the following procedures:

(1) By eq. (5.33), eq. (11.10) is equivalent to three scalar Poisson's equations:

$$\nabla^2 A_i = -\mu_0 J_i \quad (i = x, y, z)$$

in Cartesian coordinates.

(2) The solution to the scalar Poisson's equation $\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho_v}{\epsilon_0}$ [eq. (8.1)] is:

$$V(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_{v'} \frac{\rho_v(\vec{r}')}{R(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')} dv' \quad [\text{eq. (6.15)}].$$

(3) By analogy, the solution to the scalar Poisson's equation $\nabla^2 A_i = -\mu_0 J_i$ is:

$$A_i(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_{v'} \frac{J_i(\vec{r}')}{R(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')} dv'.$$

(4) Combining x -, y -, z -components, \Rightarrow

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_{v'} \frac{\vec{J}(\vec{r}')}{R(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')} dv' \quad (\text{Wb/m}) \quad (11.11)$$

Example 11-3: Find the magnetic potential \vec{A} and magnetic flux density \vec{B} in the “bisecting plane $z = 0$ ” (not for the entire 3-D space) created by a straight current-carrying wire of length $2L$ and current I (Fig. 11-3a).

Ans: In cylindrical coordinates, an arbitrary observation point and a source point are located at $\vec{r} = (r, \phi, 0) = \vec{a}_r r$ ($\phi = 0 \sim 2\pi$), and $\vec{r}' = (0, \phi, z') = \vec{a}_z z'$ ($z' = -L \sim L$), respectively. \Rightarrow

$R(\vec{r}, \vec{r}') = |\vec{r} - \vec{r}'| = \sqrt{r^2 + z'^2}$, $\vec{J}(\vec{r}') = \vec{a}_z \frac{I}{S}$ (S is the cross-sectional area of the wire),

$dv' = S dz'$. By eq. (11.11), $\vec{A}(r, \phi, 0) = \vec{a}_z \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \left(\int_{-L}^L \frac{dz'}{\sqrt{r^2 + z'^2}} \right) = \vec{a}_z \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi} \ln \left[\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + (r/L)^2}}{(r/L)} \right]$.

By eq. (11.8), $\vec{B}(r, \phi, 0) = \nabla \times (\vec{a}_z A_z) = \vec{a}_r \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial \phi} - \vec{a}_\phi \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial r} = \vec{a}_\phi \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r \sqrt{1 + (r/L)^2}}$. Fig. 11-3b

compares the magnetic fields caused by an infinitely wire [dashed, eq. (11.6)] and a finite

wire (solid), respectively.

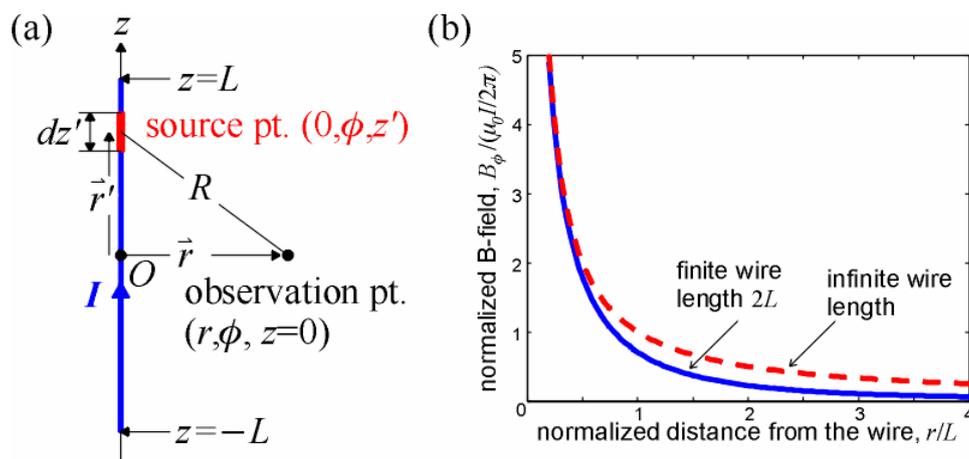


Fig. 11-3. (a) Geometry of a section of straight wire of length $2L$ carrying current I . (b) Normalized magnitude of magnetic flux density in the bisecting plane.

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- 1) Since eq. (11.11) is a vector integral, determining \vec{B} by way of calculating \vec{A} is less helpful in comparison with determining \vec{E} by way of calculating scalar potential V .
- 2) $\vec{B}(r, \phi, 0) \rightarrow \vec{a}_\phi \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$ when $r \ll L$, consistent with that derived in Example 11-1.

11.4 Biot-Savart Law

■ Magnetic field created by current loops

For a closed current loop C' made by thin wire carrying a current I (typical magnetic source), the term $\vec{J}(\vec{r}')dv'$ in eq. (11.11) becomes $I d\vec{l}'$, \Rightarrow

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint_{C'} \frac{d\vec{l}'}{R(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')} \quad (11.12)$$

The resulting magnetic flux density \vec{B} is governed by Biot-Savart law:

$$\vec{B} = \oint_C d\vec{B}, \quad d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{d\vec{l}' \times \vec{a}_R}{R^2}, \quad (11.13)$$

where $\vec{a}_R(\vec{r}, \vec{r}') = \frac{\vec{r} - \vec{r}'}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$ is the unit vector in the direction from the source point \vec{r}' to the

observation point \bar{r} , $R(\bar{r}, \bar{r}') = |\bar{r} - \bar{r}'|$, $d\bar{B}$ is the magnetic field contributed by a differential current segment.

Proof:

$$(1) \text{ By eq. (11.12), } \bar{B} = \nabla \times \bar{A} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \nabla \times \left[\oint_C \frac{d\bar{l}'}{R(\bar{r}, \bar{r}')} \right] = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint_C \nabla \times \left[\frac{d\bar{l}'}{R(\bar{r}, \bar{r}')} \right].$$

$$(2) \text{ By vector identify: } \nabla \times (R^{-1} d\bar{l}') = R^{-1} (\nabla \times d\bar{l}') + \nabla (R^{-1}) \times d\bar{l}'.$$

(3) $\nabla \times d\bar{l}' = 0$, for $\nabla \times$ is performed with respect to \bar{r} while $d\bar{l}'$ only changes with \bar{r}'

(analogous to the fact: $\frac{d}{dy} f(x) = 0$).

$$(4) R = \sqrt{(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2 + (z-z')^2}, \quad \nabla(R^{-1}) = \bar{a}_x \frac{\partial R^{-1}}{\partial x} + \bar{a}_y \frac{\partial R^{-1}}{\partial y} + \bar{a}_z \frac{\partial R^{-1}}{\partial z} = -\bar{a}_R R^{-2}. \Rightarrow$$

Eq. (11.13) is derived.

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1) Eq. (11.13) allows for direct evaluation of \bar{B} from current distribution without first calculating \bar{A} . Its counterpart in electrostatics is the Coulomb's law [eq. (6.10)].

2) In non-Cartesian coordinates, pay attention to the “position-dependent” unit vectors (e.g. $\bar{a}_R \neq \bar{a}'_R$).

Example 11-4: Find the magnetic flux density \bar{B} “on the axis” of a circular loop (not for the entire 3-D space) of radius b and carrying a current I (Fig. 11-4a).

Ans: (1) In cylindrical coordinates, an arbitrary on-axis observation point P and a source point on the loop C' are located at: $\bar{r} = (0, 0, z) = \bar{a}_z z$ and $\bar{r}' = (b, \phi', 0) = \bar{a}'_r b$, respectively.

\Rightarrow The displacement vector from the source point to the observation point is: $\bar{r} - \bar{r}' = \bar{a}_R R$,

where $R = \sqrt{z^2 + b^2}$, $\bar{a}_R = \frac{\bar{a}_z z - \bar{a}'_r b}{R}$.

(2) The differential displacement of the source point is: $d\bar{l}' = \bar{a}'_\phi b d\phi'$, \Rightarrow

$$d\vec{l}' \times \vec{a}_R = (\vec{a}'_\phi b d\phi') \times \frac{\vec{a}_z z - \vec{a}'_r b}{R} = \frac{bd\phi'}{R} (\vec{a}'_r z + \vec{a}_z b)$$

(3) By eq. (11.13),

$$\vec{B}(0,0,z) = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint_C \frac{d\vec{l}' \times \vec{a}_R}{R^2} = \frac{\mu_0 I b}{4\pi R^3} \left[z \int_0^{2\pi} \vec{a}'_r(\phi') d\phi' + b \vec{a}_z \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi' \right] = \vec{a}_z \frac{\mu_0 I}{2b} \left[1 + (z/b)^2 \right]^{-3/2}.$$

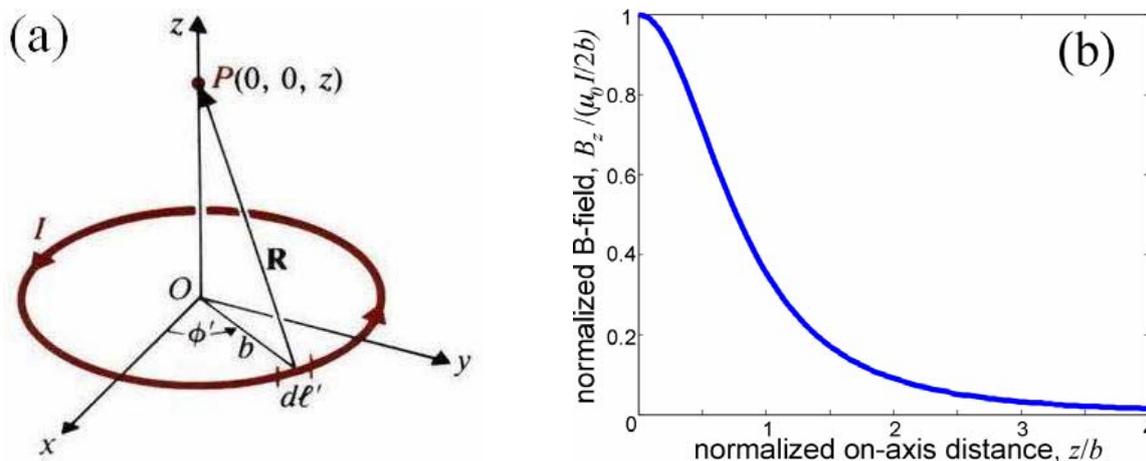


Fig. 11-4. (a) A circular loop of radius b carrying current I (after DKC). (b) Normalized magnitude of magnetic flux density on the z -axis.

11.5 Magnetic Dipole

A circular current-carrying loop forms a magnetic dipole (Fig. 11-5). The resulting \vec{A} and \vec{B} at any position $\vec{r} = \vec{a}_R R$ (not just on the loop axis) far away from the loop ($R \gg b$) are:

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) \approx \frac{\mu_0 \vec{m} \times \vec{a}_R}{4\pi R^2} \quad (11.14)$$

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}) \approx \frac{\mu_0 m}{4\pi R^3} [\vec{a}_R 2 \cos \theta + \vec{a}_\theta \sin \theta] \quad (11.15)$$

where $\vec{m} = \vec{a}_z I \pi b^2$ represents the magnetic dipole moment. In general, any current loop forms a magnetic dipole, where the dipole moment \vec{m} has a magnitude equal to the product of current I and loop area S , and is in the direction of right thumb as the remaining four fingers follow the direction of current flow:

$$\vec{m} = \vec{a}_m IS \quad (11.16)$$

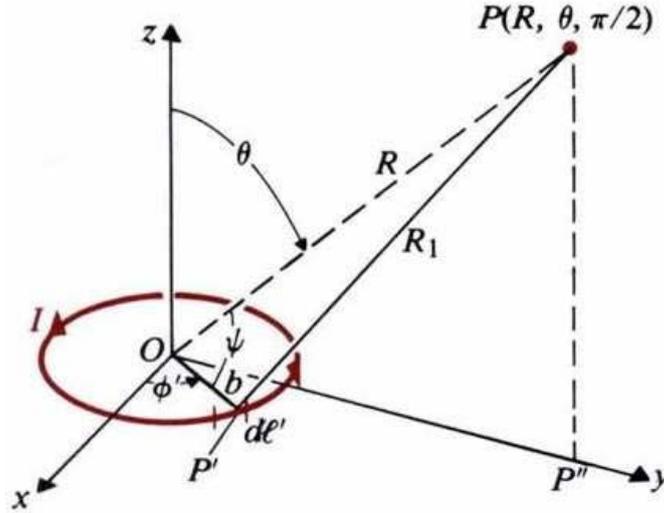


Fig. 11-5. Evaluation of far-fields generated by a magnetic dipole (after DKC).

Proof: (1) The geometry has ϕ -symmetry in spherical coordinates. It is sufficient to consider an observation point on the yz -plane ($\phi = \pi/2$) with position vector:

$$\bar{r} = (R, \theta, \pi/2) = R\bar{a}_R(\theta, \pi/2) = R(\bar{a}_y \sin \theta + \bar{a}_z \cos \theta).$$

An arbitrary source point on the current loop is located at:

$$\bar{r}' = (b, \pi/2, \phi') = b\bar{a}'_R(\pi/2, \phi') = b(\bar{a}_x \cos \phi' + \bar{a}_y \sin \phi'), \quad \phi' = 0 \sim 2\pi.$$

The displacement vector from the source point to the observation point is:

$$\bar{R}_1 = \bar{r} - \bar{r}' = R\bar{a}_R(\theta, \pi/2) - b\bar{a}'_R(\pi/2, \phi'), \Rightarrow R_1^2 = \bar{R}_1 \cdot \bar{R}_1 = R^2 + b^2 - 2Rb(\bar{a}_R \cdot \bar{a}'_R),$$

where $\bar{a}_R \cdot \bar{a}'_R = \cos \psi = (\bar{a}_y \sin \theta + \bar{a}_z \cos \theta) \cdot (\bar{a}_x \cos \phi' + \bar{a}_y \sin \phi') = \sin \theta \sin \phi', \Rightarrow$

$$R_1^{-1} = (R^2 + b^2 - 2Rb \sin \theta \sin \phi')^{-1/2} \approx \frac{1}{R} \left(1 + \frac{b}{R} \sin \theta \sin \phi' \right), \text{ given } R \gg b.$$

The differential displacement of the source point is:

$$d\bar{l}' = \bar{a}'_\phi b d\phi' = b d\phi' (-\bar{a}_x \sin \phi' + \bar{a}_y \cos \phi').$$

$$\begin{aligned} (2) \text{ By eq. (11.11), } \bar{A}(\bar{r}) &= \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \oint_C \frac{d\bar{l}'}{R_1} \approx \frac{\mu_0 I b}{4\pi R} \oint_C \left(1 + \frac{b}{R} \sin \theta \sin \phi' \right) (-\bar{a}_x \sin \phi' + \bar{a}_y \cos \phi') d\phi' \\ &\approx \frac{\mu_0 I b}{4\pi R} \left[-\bar{a}_x \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\sin \phi' + \frac{b}{R} \sin \theta \sin^2 \phi' \right) d\phi' + \bar{a}_y \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\cos \phi' + \frac{b}{R} \sin \theta \sin \phi' \cos \phi' \right) d\phi' \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I b}{4\pi R} \left(-\bar{a}_x \frac{b}{R} \sin \theta \cdot \pi \right) = -\bar{a}_x \frac{\mu_0 I \pi b^2 \sin \theta}{4\pi R^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\vec{m} = \vec{a}_z I \pi b^2$, $\vec{m} \times \vec{a}_R(\theta, \pi/2) = (\vec{a}_z I \pi b^2) \times (\vec{a}_y \sin \theta + \vec{a}_z \cos \theta) = -\vec{a}_x I \pi b^2 \sin \theta$, \Rightarrow

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{m} \times \vec{a}_R}{4\pi R^2},$$

as predicted by eq. (11.14). For a general observation point ($\phi \neq \pi/2$), $-\vec{a}_x = \vec{a}_\phi(\theta, \pi/2)$ is

generalized to $\vec{a}_\phi(\theta, \phi)$, $\Rightarrow \vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \vec{a}_\phi A_\phi$, where $A_\phi(R, \theta) = \frac{\mu_0 m \sin \theta}{4\pi R^2}$.

(3) By eq. (11.8) and the curl formula in spherical coordinates,

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \nabla \times (\vec{a}_\phi A_\phi) \approx \vec{a}_R \frac{1}{R \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (A_\phi \sin \theta) - \vec{a}_\theta \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial}{\partial R} (A_\phi R).$$

$$(i) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (A_\phi \sin \theta) = \frac{\mu_0 m}{4\pi R^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin^2 \theta) = \frac{\mu_0 m}{4\pi R^2} \sin 2\theta$$

$$(ii) \frac{\partial}{\partial R} (A_\phi R) = \frac{\mu_0 m \sin \theta}{4\pi} \frac{\partial}{\partial R} \left(\frac{1}{R} \right) = -\frac{\mu_0 m \sin \theta}{4\pi R^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{B}(\vec{r}) \approx \vec{a}_R \frac{1}{R \sin \theta} \frac{\mu_0 m}{4\pi R^2} \sin 2\theta + \vec{a}_\theta \frac{1}{R} \frac{\mu_0 m \sin \theta}{4\pi R^2} = \frac{\mu_0 m}{4\pi R^3} [\vec{a}_R 2 \cos \theta + \vec{a}_\theta \sin \theta],$$

as predicted by eq. (11.15).

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Resemblance between eq's (11.14), (6.18) and eq's (11.15), (6.16) implies that the "far-field" patterns established by electric and magnetic dipoles are similar if the electric dipole moment is replaced by the magnetic dipole moment ($\vec{p} \rightarrow \vec{m}$) and permittivity is replaced by the inverse of permeability ($\epsilon_0 \rightarrow \frac{1}{\mu_0}$).

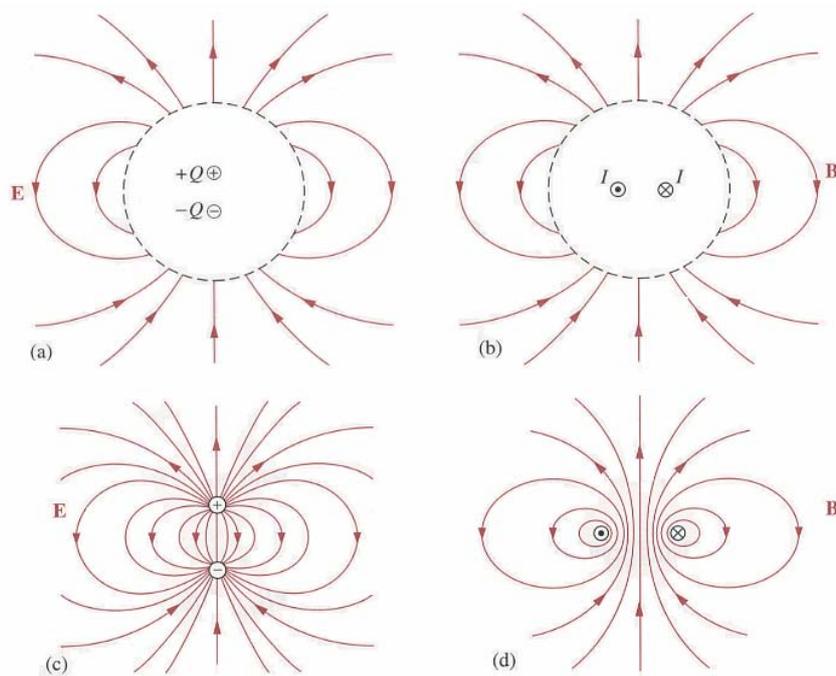


Fig. 11-6. (a) E-field lines far away from an electric dipole. (b) M-field lines far away from a magnetic dipole. (c) Close-up view of (a). (d) Close-up view of (b) (after Inans).