

Unit-3, Magneto Statics

Magneto statics or Static Magnetic fields are having some similarities with Electro static fields. As \vec{E} and \vec{D} are related according to $\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}$ in Electro statics. The \vec{H} and \vec{B} are related according to $\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$ in Magneto Statics. Where \vec{H} is the Magnetic field intensity and \vec{B} is Magnetic flux Density and μ is the permeability of the medium given as $\mu = \mu_0 \mu_r$. μ_0 is having a value of $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m}$. The source for Magnetic fields is charges moving with Constant velocity or current. There are two major laws governing

Magnetostatic fields. They are ① Biot-Savart's Law, and ② Ampere's Circuit Law. Like Coulomb's law, Biot-Savart's Law is the general law of Magneto statics. Just as Gauss's Law is a special case of Coulomb's Law, Ampere's Law is a special case of Biot-Savart's Law and is easily applied in problems involving Symmetrical Current distribution.

Biot-Savart's Law :- It states that the magnetic field intensity $d\vec{H}$ produced at a point P, as shown in below figure, by the

① differential current element $\vec{I} d\vec{r}$ is proportional to the

product $\vec{I} d\vec{l}$ and sine of the angle, α between the current element and the line joining P

to the element and is inversely proportional to the square of the

distance, R between the point P

and the element. That is $d\vec{H} \propto \frac{\vec{I} d\vec{l} \sin \alpha}{R^2}$, or

$$d\vec{H} = \frac{K \vec{I} d\vec{l} \sin \alpha}{R^2} \text{ where } K \text{ is the Constant of proportionality}$$

and is given by $K = \frac{1}{4\pi}$. So, $d\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{I} d\vec{l} \sin \alpha}{4\pi R^2}$. From the

definition of Cross product, we can write

$$d\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{I} d\vec{l} \times \vec{a}_R}{4\pi R^2} = \frac{\vec{I} d\vec{l} \times \vec{R}}{4\pi R^3}$$

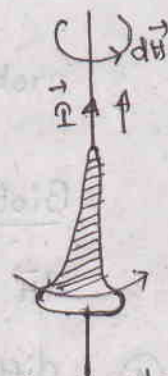
where $R = |\vec{R}|$ and $\vec{a}_R = \frac{\vec{R}}{R}$.

The direction of $d\vec{H}$ can be determined by the right hand thumb rule with the right-hand thumb pointing in the direction of current, the right-hand fingers encircling the wire in the direction of $d\vec{H}$ as shown in figure. Alternatively

we can use the right-handed screw rule to determine the direction of $d\vec{H}$. with the screw placed along the wire and pointed in the direction



Thumb rule



Screw rule

(2) of Current flow, the direction of

advance of the screw is the direction of $d\vec{H}$ as shown in figure. It is customary to represent the direction of the magnetic field intensity \vec{H} (or current \vec{I}) by a small circle with a dot or cross sign depending on whether \vec{H} (or \vec{I}) is out of or into the page as \odot and \otimes respectively.

Similar to the Continuous charge distributions in Electrostatics, there are 3-types of current sources in Magnetostatics. They are ① Line Current, $\vec{I} d\vec{l}$ ② Surface Current, $\vec{K} d\vec{S}$ and ③ Volume Current, $\vec{J} dv$. In terms of these currents, the Biot-Savart law becomes as

$$\vec{H} = \int_L \frac{\vec{I} d\vec{l} \times \vec{a}_R}{4\pi R^3} \dots \text{Line current}$$

$$\vec{H} = \int_S \frac{\vec{K} d\vec{S} \times \vec{a}_R}{4\pi R^3} \dots \text{Surface Current}$$

$$\vec{H} = \int_V \frac{\vec{J} dv \times \vec{a}_R}{4\pi R^3} \dots \text{Volume Current.}$$

Field due to Infinite Line Current :- Let us Consider

a conductor is placed along the z-axis of length AB in which a uniform line current of $\vec{I} d\vec{l}$ is flowing as shown in the figure. The upper end B subtending an angle α_2

③ and lower end A is subtending an angle α_1 to the point, P.

Considering the Contribution of $d\vec{H}$ at point P due to an elementary current filament $d\vec{l}$ at $(0, 0, z)$, From Biot-Savart Law,

$$d\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{I} d\vec{l} \times \vec{R}}{4\pi R^3}$$

Here, $d\vec{l} = dz \vec{a}_z$, $\vec{R} = \rho \vec{a}_\rho - z \vec{a}_z$. So

$$d\vec{l} \times \vec{R} = \rho dz \vec{a}_\phi$$

$$\text{Hence, } \vec{H} = \int_A^B \frac{\vec{I} \rho dz}{4\pi [\rho^2 + z^2]^{3/2}} \vec{a}_\phi$$

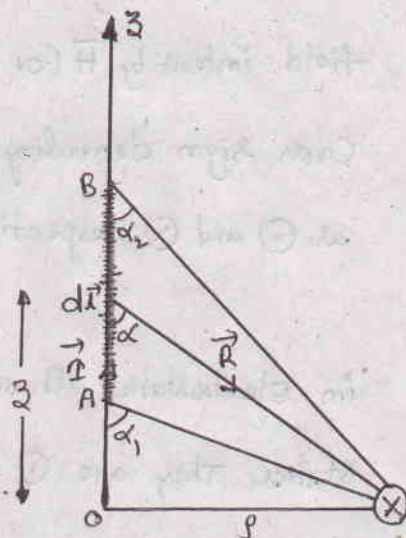
Let $z = \rho \cot \alpha$ then $dz = -\rho \csc^2 \alpha d\alpha$.

$$\therefore \vec{H} = \int_{\alpha_1}^{\alpha_2} \frac{-\vec{I} \rho \csc^2 \alpha d\alpha}{4\pi [\rho^2 + \rho^2 \cot^2 \alpha]^{3/2}} \vec{a}_\phi$$

$$= \frac{-\vec{I}}{4\pi} \int_{\alpha_1}^{\alpha_2} \frac{\rho \csc^2 \alpha d\alpha}{\rho^3 \csc^3 \alpha} \vec{a}_\phi$$

$$= \frac{-\vec{I}}{4\pi \rho} \vec{a}_\phi \int_{\alpha_1}^{\alpha_2} \sin \alpha d\alpha$$

$$\boxed{\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{I}}{4\pi \rho} (\cos \alpha_2 - \cos \alpha_1) \vec{a}_\phi}$$



This expression is applicable to any filamentary conductor of finite length. As a special case,

when the conductor is semifinite so that point A is at $(0, 0, 0)$

and point B is at $(0, 0, \infty)$ with $\alpha_1 = 90^\circ$ and $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$. Then

(4)

$$\vec{H} = \frac{I}{4\pi r} \vec{a}_\phi (\cos 0^\circ - \cos 90^\circ) = \frac{I}{4\pi r} \vec{a}_\phi. \text{ Another special case is}$$

when the conductor is infinite in length. For this case point A is at $(0, 0, -\infty)$ while B is at $(0, 0, \infty)$ with $\alpha_1 = 180^\circ$, and $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$.

$$\therefore \vec{H} = \frac{I}{4\pi r} \vec{a}_\phi (\cos 0^\circ - \cos 180^\circ)$$

$$\vec{H} = \frac{I}{2\pi r} \vec{a}_\phi (1 - (-1))$$

$$\boxed{\vec{H} = \frac{I}{2\pi r} \vec{a}_\phi} \text{ where } \vec{a}_\phi = \vec{a}_L \times \vec{a}_\rho. \vec{a}_L \text{ is unit vector}$$

along the line current and \vec{a}_ρ is a unit vector along the perpendicular line from line current to the field point.

Ampere's Circuit Law :- It states that the closed line integral of \vec{H} field around a closed path is same as the total current, I_{enc} enclosed by the path. i.e. $\boxed{\oint_L \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = I_{\text{enc}}}$.

Ampere's Law is similar to Gauss's Law and it is easily applied to determine \vec{H} when the current distribution is symmetrical. By applying Stoke's theorem to the left-hand

side of above equation, we get $I_{\text{enc}} = \oint_L \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{H}) \cdot d\vec{s}$

⑤

But $\vec{I}_{enc} = \int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S}$

Comparing the two surface integrals, we can write

$\boxed{\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J}}$ - Maxwell's 3rd equation.

This is called the Maxwell's 3rd equation showing that magnetostatic field is not conservative.

Applications of Ampere's Law :- We can apply this Law

to determine \vec{H} for an infinite line current, infinite surface or sheet of current and infinitely long co-axial transmission line.

(A). Infinite Line Current :- Consider an infinitely long filamentary current \vec{I} along the z-axis as shown in figure.

To determine \vec{H} at any general point, P we

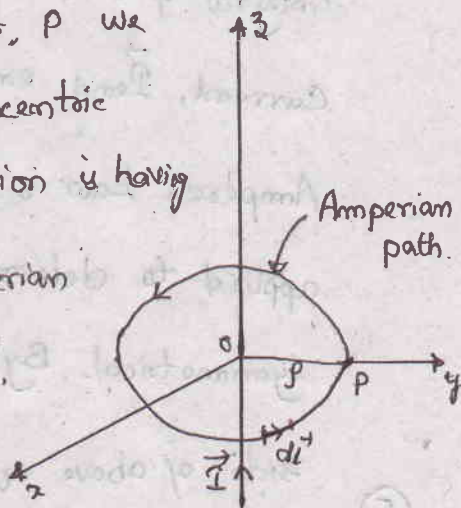
select the Amperian path as a concentric

circle because the current distribution is having

Circular Symmetry. Since the Amperian

path encloses the whole current, \vec{I} ,

according to Ampere's Law



⑥

$$\vec{I} = \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} H_{\phi} \vec{a}_{\phi} \cdot \rho d\phi \vec{a}_{\phi} = H_{\phi} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \rho d\phi = 2\pi \rho H_{\phi}$$

or $\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{I}}{2\pi \rho}$ or in general $\boxed{\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{I}}{2\pi \rho} \vec{a}_{\phi}}$ as expected.

(B). Infinite Sheet of Current:- Consider an infinite current

sheet in the $z=0$ plane. In this sheet assume a uniform current density $\vec{K} = K_y \vec{a}_y$ A/m as shown in figure. Applying Ampere's

Law to Rectangular Amperian path

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

For the current flowing in

y direction, the \vec{H} will

be in the x direction only. i.e. $\vec{H} = \begin{cases} H_x \vec{a}_x & \text{for } z > 0 \\ -H_x \vec{a}_x & \text{for } z < 0. \end{cases}$

Evaluating the line integral of \vec{H} along the closed path gives

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \left(\int_1^2 + \int_2^3 + \int_3^4 + \int_4^1 \right) \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

$$= 0(-a) + (-H_x)(-b) + 0(a) + H_x b$$

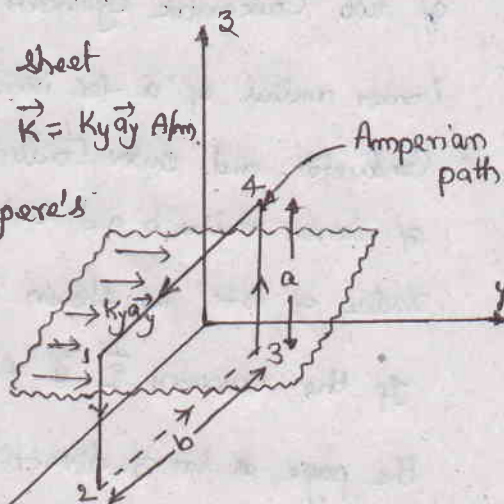
$$= 2H_x b.$$

or $H_x = \frac{1}{2} Ky$. or in general $\vec{H} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} Ky \vec{a}_x & \text{for } z > 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} Ky \vec{a}_x & \text{for } z < 0. \end{cases}$

or for the current in any direction, we can write

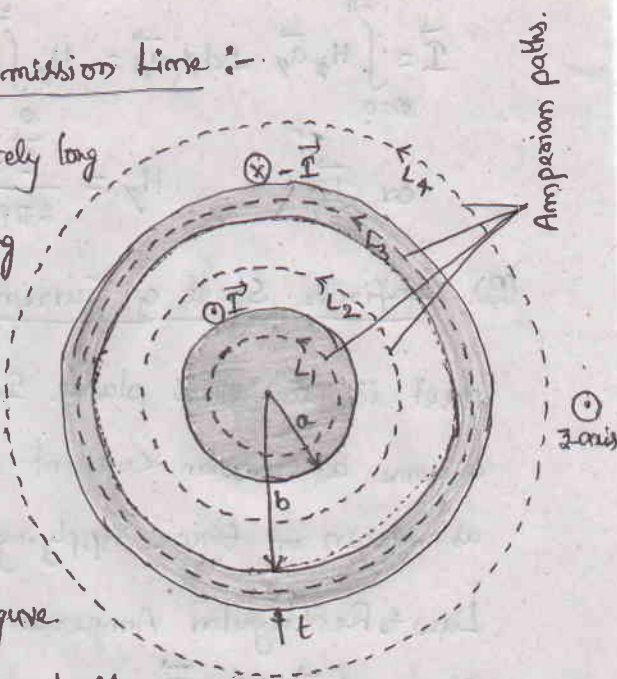
$$\boxed{\vec{H} = \frac{1}{2} \vec{K} \times \vec{a}_m}$$

where \vec{a}_m is the unit normal vector directed from current sheet to the point, P.



(c) Infinitely long Co-axial Transmission Line :-

Consider an infinitely long co-axial transmission line consisting of two concentric cylinders having inner radius of 'a' for inner conductor, and outer conductor of inner radius 'b' and outer radius of 'b+t' as shown in figure.



If the current \vec{I} is flowing out of the page as in \hat{z} -direction, the the current of $-\vec{I}$ will flows into the page in $-\hat{z}$ -direction. Since the current distribution is symmetrical, we apply Ampere's Law along the four possible Amperian paths: $0 < \rho < a$, $a < \rho < b$, $b < \rho < b+t$ and $\rho > b+t$.

For the first Amperian path (L_1): $0 < \rho < a$, Apply Ampere's Law

we get $\oint_{L_1} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \vec{I}_{enc}$

$$\vec{I}_{enc} = \int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{J} = \frac{\vec{I}}{\pi a^2} \hat{a}_z, \quad d\vec{S} = \rho d\rho d\phi \hat{a}_z$$

$$\vec{I}_{enc} = \int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{\vec{I}}{\pi a^2} \int_{\rho=0}^{\rho} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \rho d\rho d\phi = \frac{\vec{I}}{\pi a^2} \pi \rho^2 = \frac{\vec{I} \rho^2}{a^2}$$

⑧ $\therefore H_\phi \int d\vec{l} = H_\phi 2\pi \rho = \frac{\vec{I} \rho^2}{a^2}, \quad \boxed{H_\phi = \frac{\vec{I} \rho}{2\pi a^2}}$

For the second Amperian path (L_2): $a < \rho < b$, Applying Ampere's

Law, we get $\oint_{L_2} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \vec{I}_{\text{encl}}$

$$\vec{I}_{\text{encl}} = \vec{I}$$

$$\therefore \oint_{L_2} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \vec{I}$$

$$\int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} H_{\phi} \rho d\phi = \vec{I}, \quad H_{\phi} \rho [\phi]_0^{2\pi} = \vec{I}, \quad 2\pi \rho H_{\phi} = \vec{I}$$

$$H_{\phi} = \frac{\vec{I}}{2\pi \rho}$$

For the third Amperian path (L_3): $b < \rho < b+t$, Applying Ampere's

Law, we get $\oint_{L_3} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \vec{I}_{\text{encl}}$

$$\vec{I}_{\text{encl}} = \vec{I} + \int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S} \quad \text{Here } \vec{J} \text{ is the current density}$$

of the outer conductor along $-\vec{a}_3$ direction that is

$$\vec{J} = - \frac{\vec{I}}{\pi [(b+t)^2 - b^2]} \vec{a}_3$$

$$\text{Thus } \vec{I}_{\text{encl}} = \vec{I} - \frac{\vec{I}}{\pi [(b+t)^2 - b^2]} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\rho=b}^{\rho} \rho d\rho d\phi$$

$$\vec{I}_{\text{encl}} = \vec{I} \left[1 - \frac{\rho^2 - b^2}{2bt + t^2} \right]$$

$$\oint_{L_3} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} H_{\phi} \rho d\phi = 2\pi \rho H_{\phi} = \vec{I} \left[1 - \frac{\rho^2 - b^2}{2bt + t^2} \right]$$

⑨

$$H_{\phi} = \frac{\vec{I}}{2\pi \rho} \left[1 - \frac{\rho^2 - b^2}{2bt + t^2} \right]$$

For the fourth Amperian path, (L_4): $\rho > b+t$, Applying Ampere's Law

We get $\oint_{L_4} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \vec{I}_{\text{encl}}$

$$\vec{I}_{\text{encl}} = \vec{I} - \vec{I} = 0$$

$$\oint_{L_4} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} H_{\phi} \rho d\phi = 0$$

$$H_{\phi} = 0$$

Finally the magnetic field intensity, \vec{H} for an infinite co-axial line

$$\vec{H} = \begin{cases} \frac{\vec{I} \rho}{2\pi a^2} \vec{a}_{\phi} & \text{for } 0 < \rho < a \\ \frac{\vec{I}}{2\pi \rho} \vec{a}_{\phi} & \text{for } a < \rho < b \\ \frac{\vec{I}}{2\pi \rho} \left[1 - \frac{\rho^2 - b^2}{2bt + t^2} \right] \vec{a}_{\phi} & \text{for } b < \rho < b+t \\ 0 & \text{for } \rho > b+t \end{cases}$$

In this case it is observed that the magnetic field at the outside of the cable is zero.

Magnetic flux density:- The magnetic flux density \vec{B} is similar to the electric flux density \vec{D} . As $\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E}$ in free space,

the magnetic flux density, $\vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{H}$, where $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m}$ is

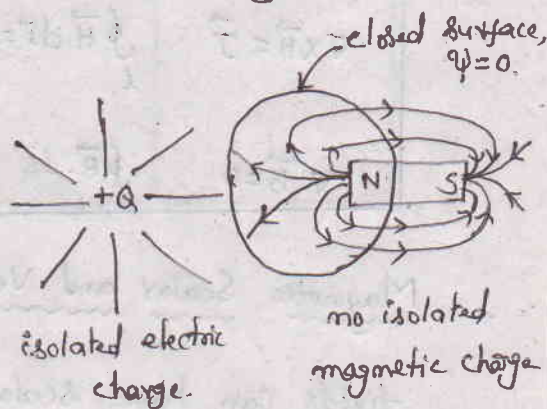
the permeability of free space. The magnetic flux, ψ through a surface, S is given by $\psi = \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S}$. where ψ is in webers (wb) and the magnetic flux density is in webers/square meter (wb/m²) or tesla. If we consider the surface as a closed one then the magnetic flux will be zero because all the magnetic flux lines are closed lines and there is no isolated magnetic charge or pole as we are having isolated electric charge in electrostatics. as shown in figure.

$$\therefore \psi = \oint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0.$$

Applying Divergence theorem

$$\text{we get } \oint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} = \int_V \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \, dv = 0$$

$$\text{or } \boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0} \text{ Maxwell's fourth equation.}$$



The above equation is called the Maxwell's fourth equation for static fields which says that the divergence of magnetic flux density is zero.

Now we can write all the 4 Maxwell's equations in different forms as in below table.

Differential-form (at point form)	Integral-form	Concept.
$\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_v$	$\oint_S \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{S} = \int_V \rho_v dv = \int_V \rho_v dv$	Gauss's Law
$\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$	$\oint_L \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$	Conservativeness of electrostatic field (Electric potential).
$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J}$	$\oint_L \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{H}) \cdot d\vec{S} = \int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S}$	Ampere's Law.
$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$	$\oint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$	Non existence of isolated magnetic charge or pole.

Magnetic Scalar and Vector potentials :- The magnetic

fields can have scalar potential V_m and vector potential, \vec{A} .

To define V_m and \vec{A} we will make use of the scalar and vector identities given by $\nabla \times \nabla V = 0$ and $\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{A}) = 0$. These two identities must be satisfied to any scalar or vector field.

Just as $\vec{E} = -\nabla V$, we define magnetic scalar potential V_m as

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

We know that $\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J}$

$$\nabla \times (-\nabla V_m) = 0 \quad \text{if } \vec{J} = 0.$$

We know that for a magnetic field $\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$. We can define the vector magnetic potential \vec{A} (wb/m) such that

$$\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}$$

Just as we defined $V = \int \frac{dq}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$ in Electrostatics. we can define

$$\vec{A} = \int_L \frac{\mu_0 \vec{I} dl}{4\pi R} \quad \text{for line current}$$

$$\vec{A} = \int_S \frac{\mu_0 \vec{K} d\vec{S}}{4\pi R} \quad \text{for surface current}$$

$$\vec{A} = \int_V \frac{\mu_0 \vec{J} dv}{4\pi R} \quad \text{for volume current.}$$

Forces due to Magnetic fields: There are Three ways in which

force due to magnetic fields can be happened. They are

- (a) due to a moving charged particle in \vec{B} -field
- (b) on a current element in an external \vec{B} -field.
- (c) between two current elements.

(a) force on a charged particle: If the charges are not moving at the initial stage, According to Coulomb's Law, we have $\vec{F}_e = Q\vec{E}$. If these charges start moving with constant velocity then the magnetic force can be expressed as

$\vec{F}_m = Q \vec{u} \times \vec{B}$. where \vec{u} is the velocity of charges. Force due to a moving charge, Q in the presence of both electric and magnetic fields will be $\boxed{\vec{F} = \vec{F}_e + \vec{F}_m = Q[\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B}]}$, this is called Lorentz force equation or Ampere's force equation.

(b). Force on a Current element :- If we are having a differential line current $\vec{I} d\vec{l}$ in a \vec{B} field, then the force on this current element can be expressed as $d\vec{F} = \vec{I} d\vec{l} \times \vec{B}$. If the current, \vec{I} is through a closed path L , the total force is given by $\boxed{\vec{F} = \oint_L \vec{I} d\vec{l} \times \vec{B}}$. Similarly for a surface current

element, $\boxed{\vec{F} = \oint_S \vec{K} d\vec{s} \times \vec{B}}$, and for a volume current

element $\boxed{\vec{F} = \int_V \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{v} \times \vec{B}}$.

(c). Force between two Current elements :- Let us now consider the force between two current elements $\vec{I}_1 d\vec{l}_1$ and $\vec{I}_2 d\vec{l}_2$. According to Biot-Savart's Law both currents produce magnetic fields. we can find the differential

force $d(d\vec{F}_1)$ on differential current element $d\vec{l}_1$ due to the differential magnetic field $d\vec{B}_2$ produced by $\vec{I}_2 d\vec{l}_2$ as shown in figure.

$$d(d\vec{F}_1) = \vec{I}_1 d\vec{l}_1 \times d\vec{B}_2$$

From Biot-Savart's Law,

$$d\vec{B}_2 = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{I}_2 d\vec{l}_2 \times \vec{a}_{R_{21}}}{4\pi R_{21}^2}$$

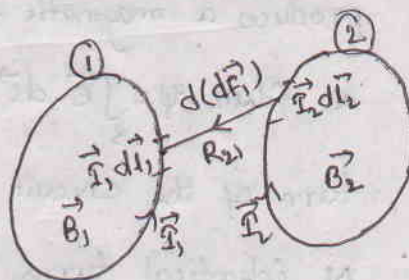
$$\therefore d(d\vec{F}_1) = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{I}_2 d\vec{l}_2 \times \vec{I}_1 d\vec{l}_1 \times \vec{a}_{R_{21}}}{4\pi R_{21}^2} \quad \text{or}$$

$$d(d\vec{F}_1) = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{I}_1 d\vec{l}_1 \times (\vec{I}_2 d\vec{l}_2 \times \vec{a}_{R_{21}})}{4\pi R_{21}^2} \quad \text{or}$$

$$\vec{F}_1 = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{I}_1 \vec{I}_2}{4\pi} \oint_{L_1} \oint_{L_2} \frac{d\vec{l}_1 \times (d\vec{l}_2 \times \vec{a}_{R_{21}})}{R_{21}^2}$$

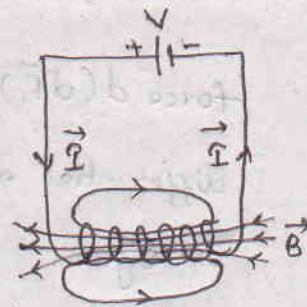
Similarly the force \vec{F}_2 on loop ② due to magnetic field \vec{B}_1 from loop ① is obtained by interchanging the subscripts 1 and 2.

$$\text{i.e. } \vec{F}_2 = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{I}_2 \vec{I}_1}{4\pi} \oint_{L_2} \oint_{L_1} \frac{d\vec{l}_2 \times (d\vec{l}_1 \times \vec{a}_{R_{12}})}{R_{12}^2} \quad \text{i.e. } \vec{F}_2 = -\vec{F}_1.$$



Inductors and Inductances :- A circuit or a closed conducting path carrying current \vec{I}

produces a magnetic field \vec{B} which causes a flux $\psi = \int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}$ to pass through each



turn of the circuit as shown in figure. If the circuit has N identical turns, we define the flux linkage, λ as

$\lambda = N\psi$. This flux linkage λ is proportional to the current, \vec{I} producing it. That is $\lambda \propto \vec{I}$ or $\lambda = L\vec{I}$, where L is a constant

of proportionality called inductance of the ckt. A ckt or part of a ckt. that has inductance is called an inductor. From

the above equation we can define $L = \frac{\lambda}{\vec{I}} = \frac{N\psi}{\vec{I}}$, the unit

of inductance is the Henry (H) which is same as webers/ampere.

This type of inductance can also be called as Self inductance

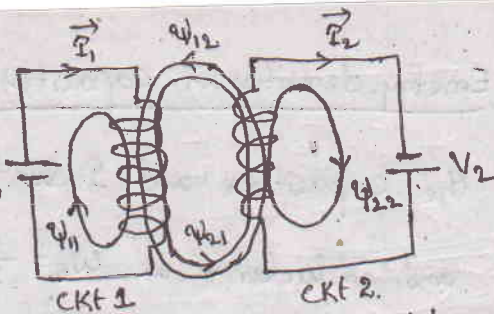
since the flux linkages are produced by the inductor itself.

Mutual Inductance :- Instead of having a single circuit, if

we have two ckt's carrying current \vec{I}_1 and \vec{I}_2 as shown

in the figure, a magnetic interaction exists b/w the ckt's.

Four Component fluxes ψ_{11} , ψ_{12} , ψ_{21} and ψ_{22} are produced. The flux ψ_{12} is the flux passing



through CKT 1 due to current \vec{I}_2 in CKT 2. This flux is mutually shared by the two CKTs. Similarly ψ_{21} is also mutually induced in the two circuits. We define the mutual inductance M_{12} as the ratio of flux linkage $\lambda_{12} = N_1 \psi_{12}$ on CKT 1 due to current \vec{I}_2 . That is

$$M_{12} = \frac{\lambda_{12}}{\vec{I}_2} = \frac{N_1 \psi_{12}}{\vec{I}_2}$$

Similarly the mutual inductance M_{21} is defined as the flux linkages of CKT 2 due to current \vec{I}_1 in CKT 1. That is

$$M_{21} = \frac{\lambda_{21}}{\vec{I}_1} = \frac{N_2 \psi_{21}}{\vec{I}_1}$$

We can define the self inductances of CKT 1 and 2 as

$$L_1 = \frac{\lambda_{11}}{\vec{I}_1} = \frac{N_1 \psi_{11}}{\vec{I}_1} \quad \text{and} \quad L_2 = \frac{\lambda_{22}}{\vec{I}_2} = \frac{N_2 \psi_{22}}{\vec{I}_2}$$

where $\psi_1 = \psi_{11} + \psi_{12}$ and

$\psi_2 = \psi_{22} + \psi_{21}$.

Energy densities in Capacitors and Inductors:- The Energies in the capacitors and Inductors can found from their Capacitance and inductance as $W_E = \frac{1}{2} CV^2$ in Electrostatics. and $W_{EM} = \frac{1}{2} LI^2$ in Magneto statics.

The same Energies can also be expressed in terms of the fields they are producing as

$$W_E = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \vec{D} \cdot \vec{E} dv = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \epsilon \vec{E} \cdot \vec{E} dv \quad \text{in electro statics.}$$

and $W_{EM} = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \vec{B} \cdot \vec{H} dv = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \mu \vec{H} \cdot \vec{H} dv \quad \text{in Magneto statics.}$