

# 1 Lecture 6

The force between long parallel wires defines the ampere. As a reminder, last class we found the formula

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

Consider two parallel, infinitely-long wires that are carrying current. If the currents are going in the same direction, then we use the right-hand rule to find that the wires have an attractive force between them. We find that the force acting on wire 2 is

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{F} &= I_2 \vec{L} \times \vec{B}_1 \\ &= I_2 L \frac{\mu_0 I_1}{2\pi r} \text{ to the left,}\end{aligned}$$

so we have

$$F_2 = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{I_1 I_2 L}{r}.$$

Rearranging some more, we get

$$\frac{F_2}{L} = (2 \cdot 10^{-7}) \frac{I_1 I_2}{r} \text{ Newtons.}$$

What happens when we ave  $I_1 = I_2$ ? Well, we get that

$$\frac{F}{L} = (2 \cdot 10^{-7}) \frac{I^2}{r},$$

which we can rearrange to get

$$I = \underbrace{\left( r \cdot \frac{F}{L} \cdot \frac{1}{2 \cdot 10^{-7}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}_{\text{defines the Ampere}}.$$

## 1.1 Ampere's Law

Just like Coulomb's Law leads to Gauss' Law (which is an integral), the Biot-Savart Law leads to Ampere's Law (also an integral). Remember the Biot-Savart Law from before:

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

### Theorem — Ampere's Law

The amount of magnetic field in a loop can give you the current, given by

$$\oint_{\text{loop}} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 I_{\text{enc}}.$$

The analogue to the Gaussian surface is what we call an *Amperium loop*. There is no radial component to  $\vec{B}$  because there are no monopoles. Thus we have that  $\vec{B} \parallel d\vec{\ell}$ , and  $\vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = B d\ell$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\oint B d\ell &= B \oint d\ell \\ &= B \cdot 2\pi r \\ &= \mu_0 I,\end{aligned}$$

so

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

The differential form of Ampere's Law is given by:

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

where  $\vec{J}$  is the current density.

### 1.1.1 Ampere's Law Example—Long Wire, Thin but Finite Thickness

Consider a wire with radius  $R$  that has uniform current density  $J$ . We define current density to be the current per unit area, in other words

$$J = \frac{I}{\pi R^2}, \text{ a constant.}$$

We have a few cases here:

(a) Outside the wire, i.e.  $r > R$ .

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 I_{\text{encl}}$$

$$2\pi r B = \mu_0 I$$

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

(b) Inside the wire, i.e.  $r < R$ .

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 I_{\text{encl}}$$

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

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

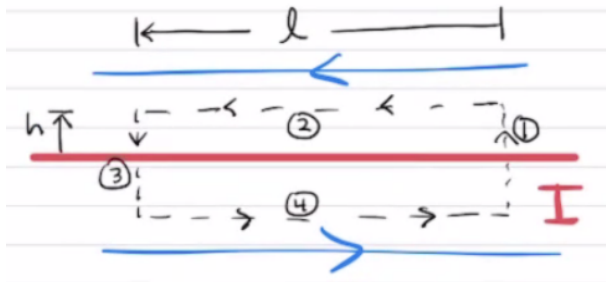
$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I r}{2\pi R^2}.$$

Pictorially, we can draw a graph for the magnetic field as a function of the distance to the centre of the wire as follows:



### 1.1.2 Ampere's Law Example—Plane of Current

If we have two parallel wires next to each other with the currents moving in the same direction, by superposition of field lines we generate a space with zero field between the wires. Extending this idea to more than just two wires (read: an infinite number, creating a plane of current), we create a planar magnetic field.



Applying Ampere's Law, we have

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 I_{\text{encl}}$$

$$\int_1 + \int_2 + \int_3 + \int_4 = \mu_0 NI$$

$$2 \int_4 \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 NI$$

$$2B\ell = \mu_0 NI$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 n I}{2}.$$

We define the winding density  $n$  to be the number of wires per unit length, or  $n = \frac{N}{\ell}$ .