

Ch 30

30-1

Sources of Magnetic
Fields

— charge feels electric
forces
& creates electric fields
that cause electric forces
(although E-fields
can also be created
by Faraday induction
as we'll see in Ch 31)

So no surprise that
since currents feel magnetic forces
(or moving charge)
that currents (and moving
charge) create magnetic
fields that
cause magnetic forces

30-2

(but B-fields
can be created
another way as
we'll see in Ch. 34).

— Everything is kind of
entangled,
but that's what makes
E & M so much fun
(as generation of physics
students can attest).

§ 30.1

Soon after Oersted (1819)
showed that current caused
a magnetic field, two
French scientists Biot & Savart

made a detailed
^{experimental} study to find the
law that governed the created
field.

30-3

This law is the Biot-Savart
law

— which is a law of nature
and can't be derived

from more basic concepts
in ~~EM~~ classical E&M

(it can in modern physics)

→ but it can be derived from
equivalent laws summarized

in Maxwell's equations

(Ch. 34)

→ But ^{we} look at the equations,
not the derivations.

3A-4

The Biot-Savart law is

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

in differential form

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

in integrated form.

— it's slightly complex.

→ These are not the most general forms.

These are just for a thin line of current I .

Current ~~is~~ in surface or volume

Note

if $r \rightarrow 0$

B might become infinite.

We don't need to worry about

this explosion

since an infinitely

thin

line of

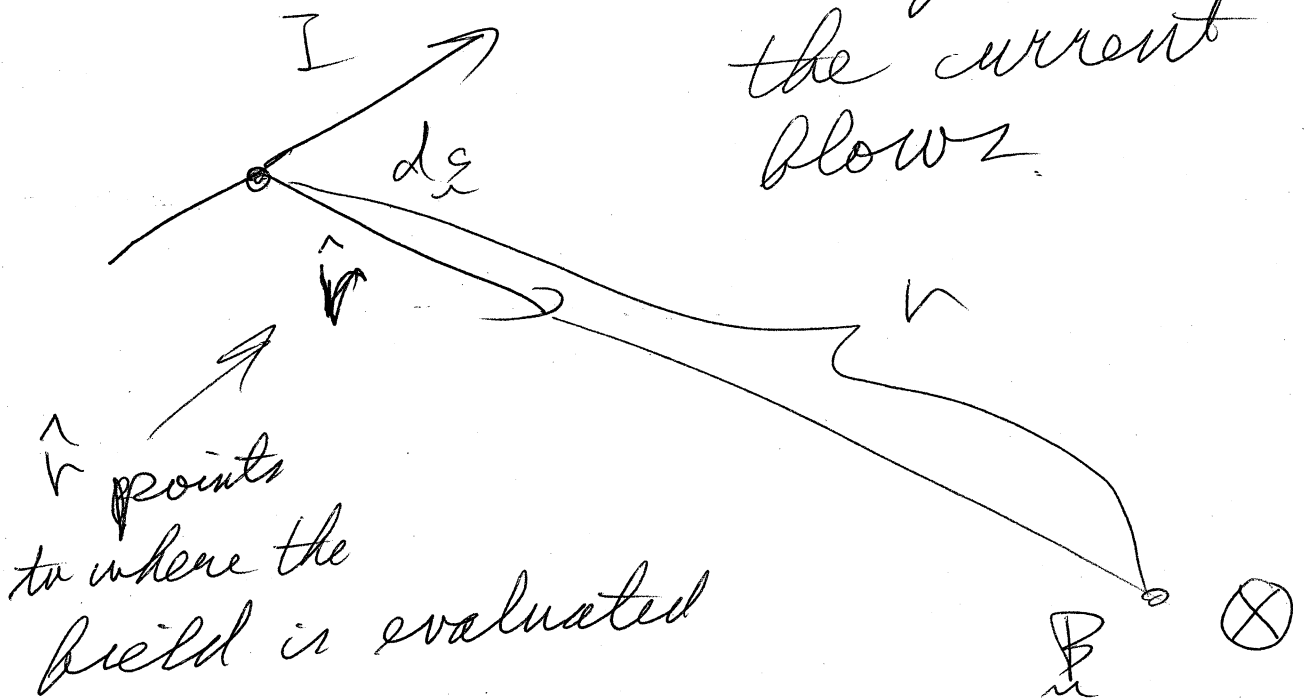
current

is an idealization

require some generalization. 70-5

I is the current.

$d\mathbf{s}$ is a differential bit of path vector along which the current flows.



\hat{r} points to where the field is evaluated

→ $d\mathbf{s} \times \hat{r}$ is a ~~the~~ cross product.

→ $\frac{1}{r^2}$ means the field (and so the magnetic force) ~~is an inverse~~ obeys an inverse-square law.

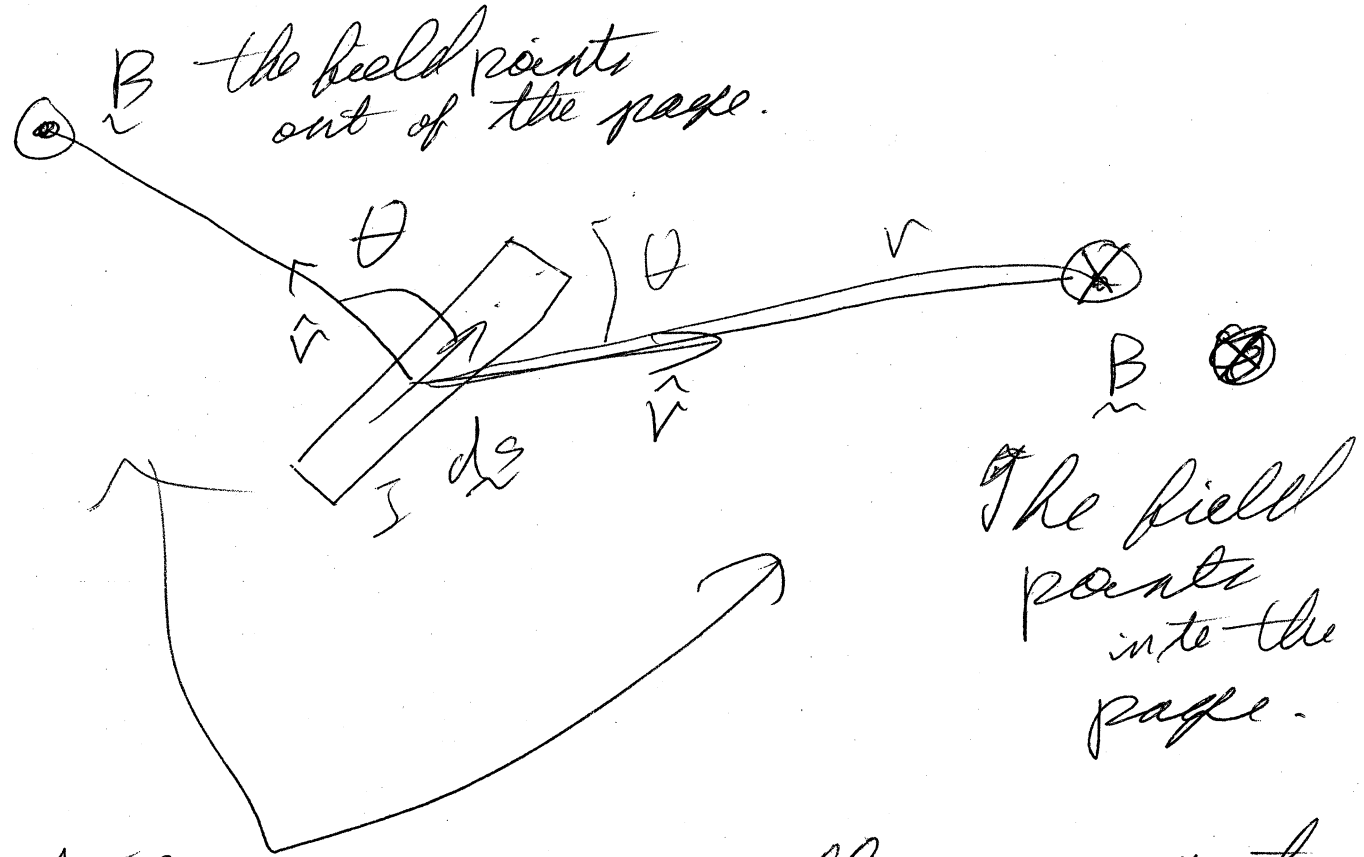
30-6

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T}\cdot\text{m/A}$$

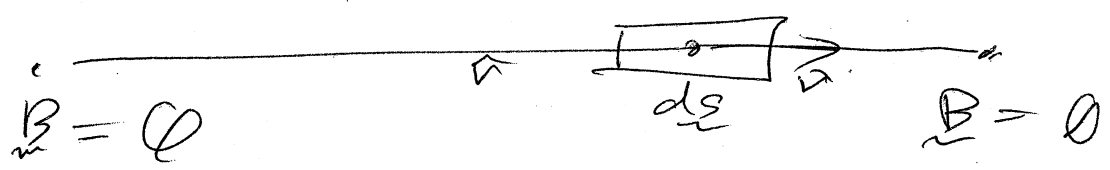
(is the vacuum permeability
→ it is exact by definition

— We'll see ~~ex~~ how
this constant is ~~fixed~~
~~in § 30.1~~ used
to define the Ampere and
the Coulomb in § 30.2

Let's just look a again at
the law ~~of~~ for a bit



These two results suggest something which is bound to be generally true — magnetic field lines tend to be loopy around currents.



30-8

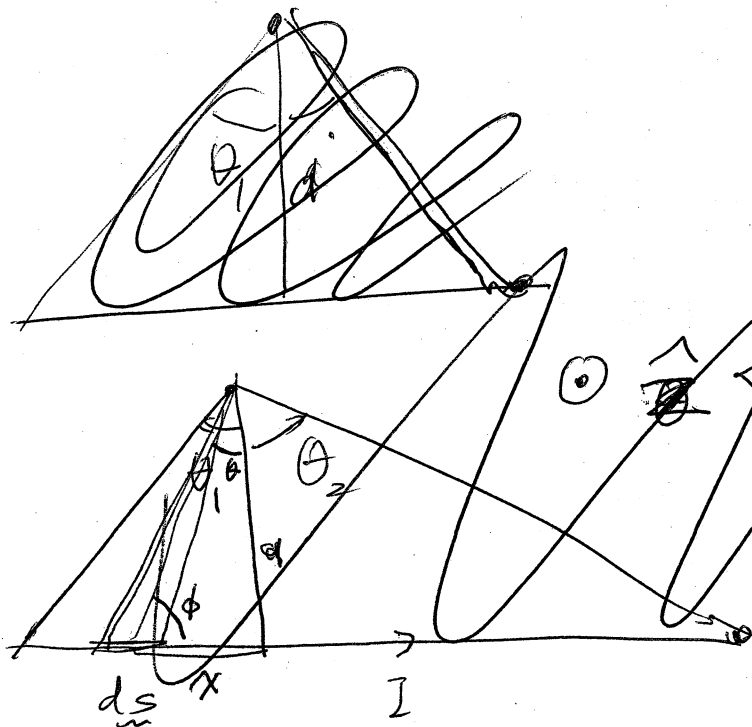
Because of the cross product

$$\sin \theta = \sin 0^\circ = 0$$

the ~~B~~ B-field due to a differential bit of current on axis ^{is zero.} is zero.

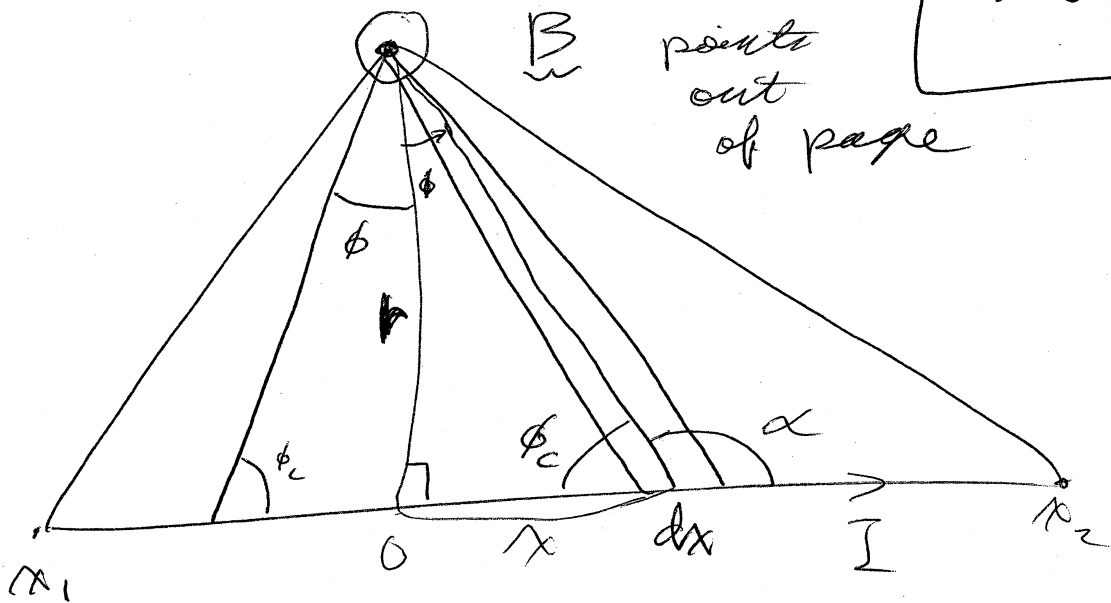
Ex 30.1

The Magnetic field of a straight current segment



the B-field must point out of the page
Let this be the \hat{z} direction

30-9



$$dB = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{dx \sin \alpha}{r^2 + x^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \quad \sin \alpha &= \sin(\pi - \phi_c) \\ &= \sin(\pi - (\frac{\pi}{2} - \phi)) \\ &= \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} + \phi) \\ &= \cos \phi \end{aligned}$$

valid
for $\phi > 0$
and $\phi < 0$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad x = r \tan \phi$$

$$dx = r \frac{1}{\cos^2 \phi} d\phi$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \frac{r^2}{r^2 + x^2} = \cos^2 \phi$$

$$\frac{1}{r^2 + x^2} = \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r^2}$$

30-10

$$\mathbf{dB} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi r} \int_{\phi_1}^{\phi_2} \cos \phi \, d\phi$$

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi r} (\sin \phi_2 - \sin \phi_1)$$

$$\sin \phi = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + r^2}}$$

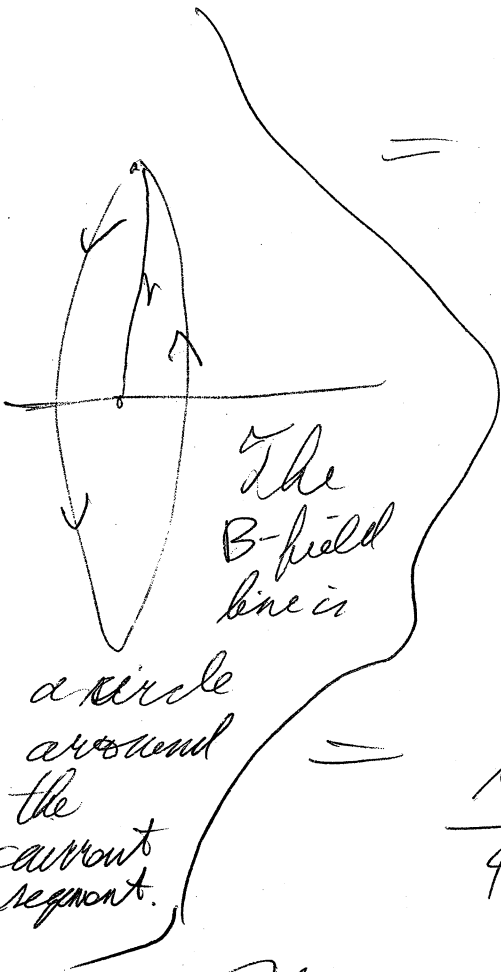
and so can recover an x variable region

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi r} \left(\frac{x_2}{\sqrt{x_2^2 + r^2}} - \frac{x_1}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + r^2}} \right)$$

Note if $r \gg x_2$ and $r \gg x_1$

then $B \approx \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi r^2} (x_2 - x_1)$

and the field falls



like $\sim \frac{1}{v^2}$

30-11

as a good inverse-square
law field ~~law~~ should.

But note an isolated
current segment that
appears from nowhere
and disappears to
nowhere is
an abstraction.

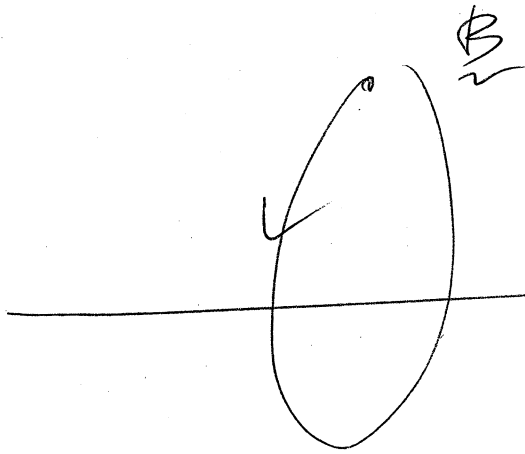
~~Maybe~~ I don't think it
can actually be built exactly
— some structures might
approximate it.

Actually the most
useful thing is the limit

30-12 } where

$$\phi_2 \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}, \mu\phi_2 = 1$$

$$\phi_1 \rightarrow -\frac{\pi}{2}, \mu\phi_1 = -1$$

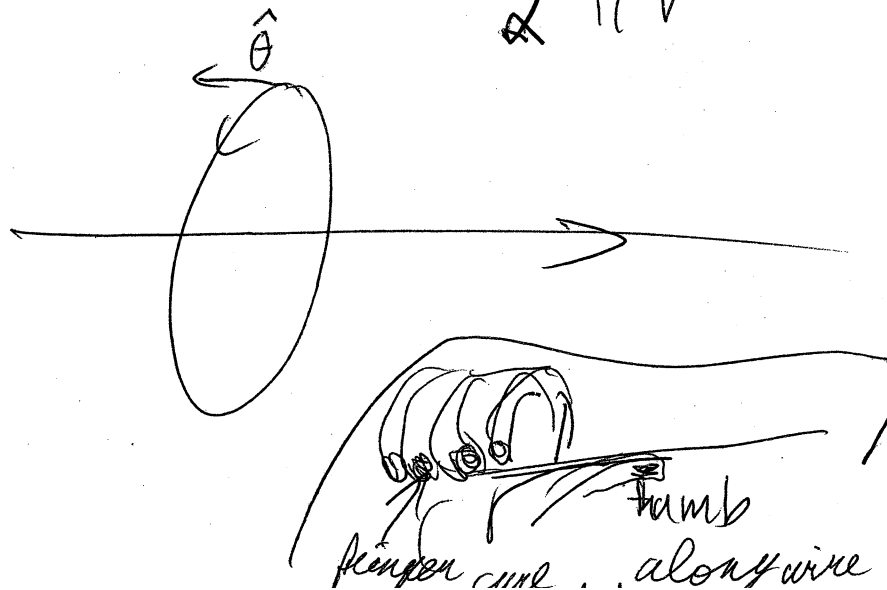


The B-field
of an infinite

straight ~~wire~~
line of current.

— ~~top~~ close a finite
line of current approximates
this idealization.

$$\underline{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \hat{\theta}$$



$\hat{\theta}$ vector
is tangent
to the circle
about
the line of
current
and
its direction
is determined
by a right-hand rule

finger curl... along wire

Magnetic Dipole

30-13

Any loop of current of any shape

has a magnetic

dipole moment. (Gr & EM - 242-245)



$$\vec{\mu} = I \vec{A}_{\text{vec}}$$

A_{vec}

or the
so called
"vector
area"

The the
loop is flat

it is just the ordinary A

$$\text{and } \vec{\mu} = I A \hat{n}$$

as we derived in Ch. 29

30-~~14~~

We won't do the proof
 but the far-field
magnetic dipole field
 has the same functional
 behavior ~~of~~ as an electric
 dipole in the far field limit.

$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 M}{4\pi r^3} (2 \cos\theta \hat{r} + \sin\theta \hat{\theta})$$

(Griffiths-296)

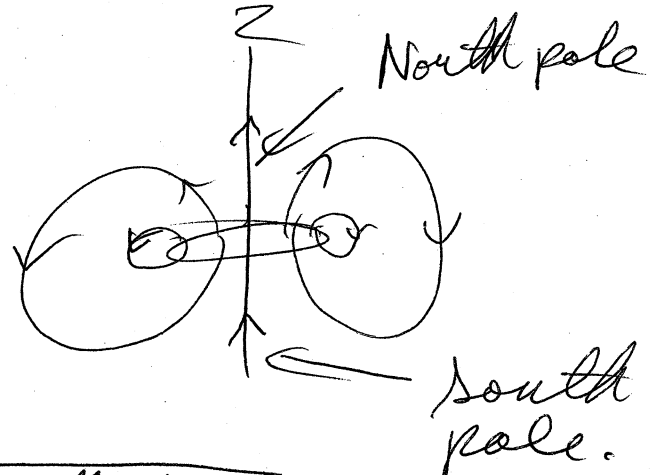
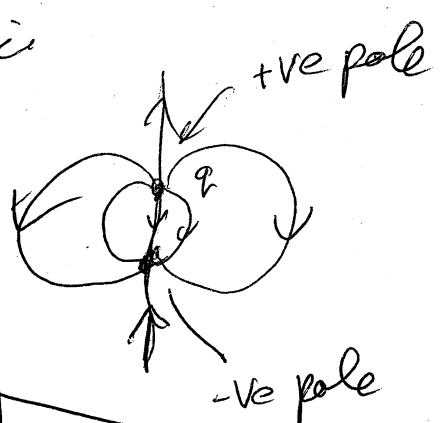
all
 off
 $\sim \frac{1}{r^3}$
 like a dipole
 not $\frac{1}{r^2}$
 like a monopole.

- for
 a localized
 current
 one
 always

has
 a
 dipole

$\sim \frac{1}{r^3}$ fall off
 since there
 are no
 magnetic
 monopoles
 it seems,

Up close to the
 sources fields do look different



unless $\mu = 0$ in which case you can have multiple dipoles...

We'll go into ~~how~~ why the north and south

- That the north pole field lines diverge at south, they converge conforming to my own qualitative definition of the poles.

The sense of the field lines can be derived by deforming a ^{current} line segment into a circle

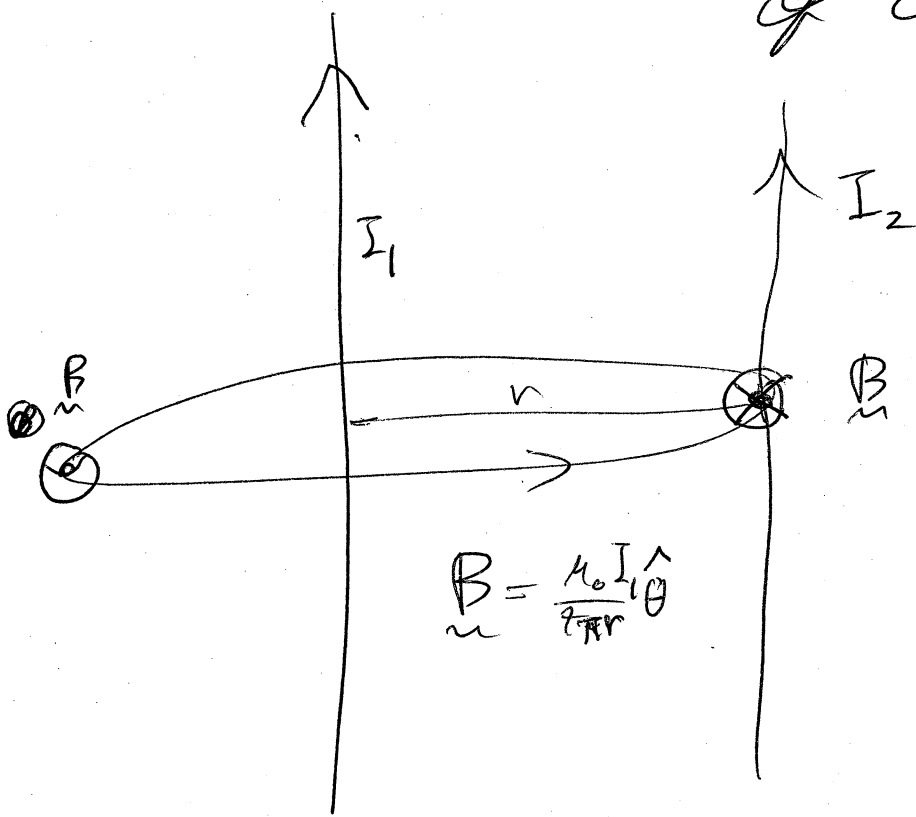


In the next section we'll see why like poles repel and unlike ones attract.

30-16

§ 30.2 Magnetic force

Between two parallel lines of current



Recall from Ch. 29

$$d\vec{F} = I d\vec{s} \times \vec{B}$$

\vec{F} is the force on a line of current.

Here

$$d\vec{F}_{12} = I_2 ds B (-\hat{r})$$

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi r} ds (-\hat{r})$$

Force of line 1 on line 2.

Cross product right-hand rule.

Integrating over
a finite length

30-17

$$F_{12} = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi r} l (-\hat{v})$$

or force per unit length

$$\frac{F_{12}}{l} = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi r} (-\hat{v})$$

— an attraction for I_1, I_2

Note we explicitly assumed
~~both~~ both currents flowed ^{flowing} up.

up.

If either flowed down,
then ~~we would~~
we would get a
repulsion.

30-18)

If both flowed down we'd get an attraction again.

We can incorporate this effect by just assigning a sign to the currents.

up	+ve
down	-ve

or vice versa

Parallel current attract
antiparallel currents repel.

Recall our ~~per~~ vacuum permittivity constant.

$$\mu_0 \equiv 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T}\cdot\text{m/A}$$

is defined to be exact.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} T = \frac{N}{A\cdot m} \\ T\cdot m/A = N/A^2 \end{array} \right.$$

the physical uncertainty is not attributed to a constant — but rather to our ~~measure~~ unit of current the Ampere

~~if one sets to long parallel currents~~ rather to our calibration of current measuring devices.

if one has long wires with parallel and equal current then

$$I = \sqrt{\frac{F \cdot 2\pi r}{2 \mu_0}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 10^{-7} \frac{N}{m} \cdot 2\pi \cdot 1m}{4\pi \times 10^{-7} \frac{N}{A^2}}} \sqrt{\frac{V}{1m}}$$

$$* \sqrt{\frac{F/r}{2 \times 10^{-7} \frac{N}{m}}}$$

30-20

$$I = 1 \text{ A} \sqrt{\frac{F}{1 \text{ m}}} \sqrt{\frac{F l_e}{2 \times 10^{-7} \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}}}$$

So a measurement of force per unit length F/l_e and separation ~~r~~ r gives the current in Amperes and allows ordinary ammeters to be calibrated.

For some ~~reason~~ experimental reason, this procedure is the most accurate way to set the current scale

Actually doing these precise measurements for setting the standard scale is ~~tricky~~ complex and uses more complicated

than our discussion
suggests

30-21

NIST & other bureaus
of standards use devices
called watt balances (w/k)

The Coulomb is then defined
as $1 \text{ A} \cdot 1 \text{ s} = 1 \text{ C}$

Vacuum permittivity

— Theoretically from
Maxwell's equations

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}}$$

or $\epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 c^2}$

$c \equiv 299792458 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$
is exact
by definition

$= 8.854... \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2 / (\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2)$

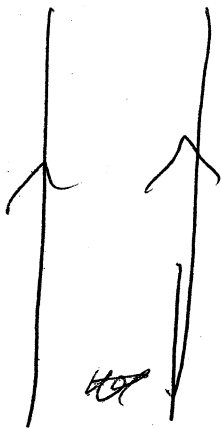
ϵ_0 is also an exact number
but since μ_0 is irrational,
so is ϵ_0 . The digits trail on forever

30-22

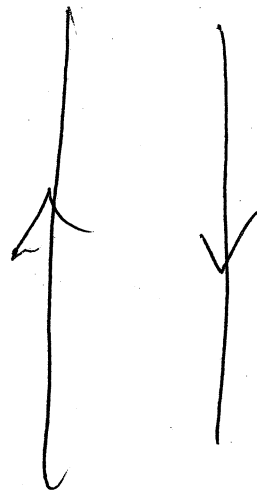
~~force~~

Poles like repel
unlike attract

We can now understand
this result qualitatively.

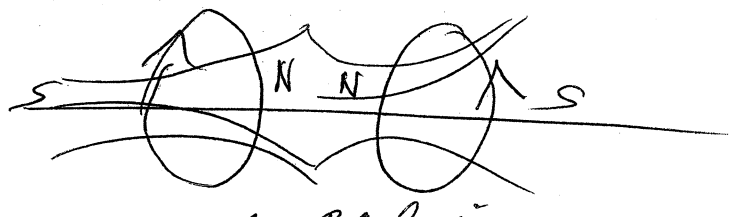
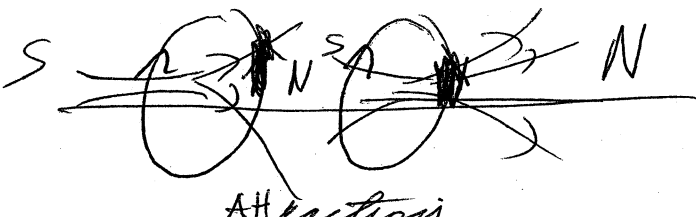


Parallel ~~wire~~ current
attract



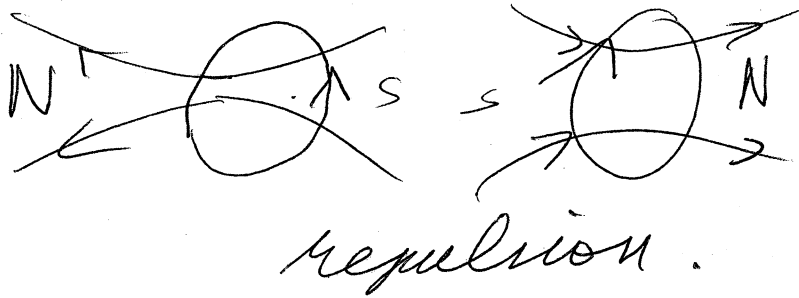
antiparallel
currents repel.

- deform these case into dipoles
- quantitatively the force must change but qualitatively the sense of the force should be unchanged.



or ~~the~~ ^{before the} other way

30-23



Examples

Two parallel wires

$$I_1 = I_2 = 1 \text{ A}$$

$$r = 1 \text{ m}$$

$$\frac{F}{l} = \frac{\mu_0 I I}{2\pi r} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

of course.

30.3 Ampère's Law

— It is an integral result that is equivalent to the Biot-Savart law

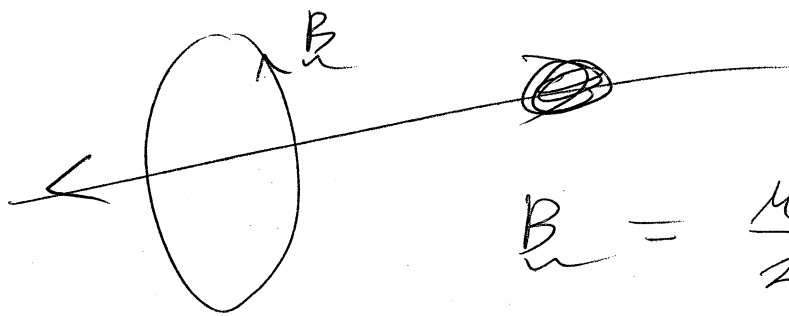
30-24

for steady currents.

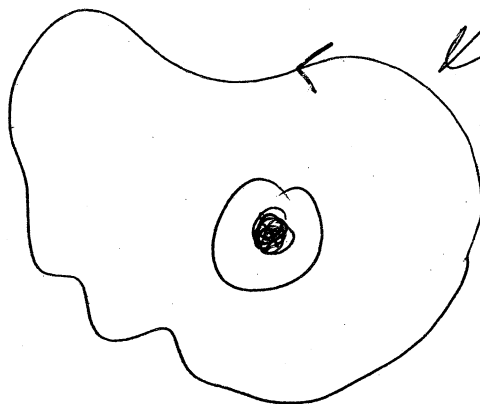
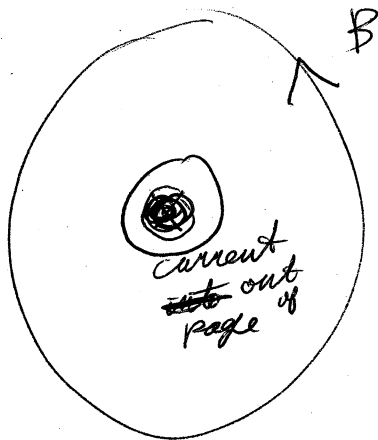
— equivalent means each can be derived from the other
(GrEM - 222, 224)

We can't do a full derivation
— the math is beyond us.

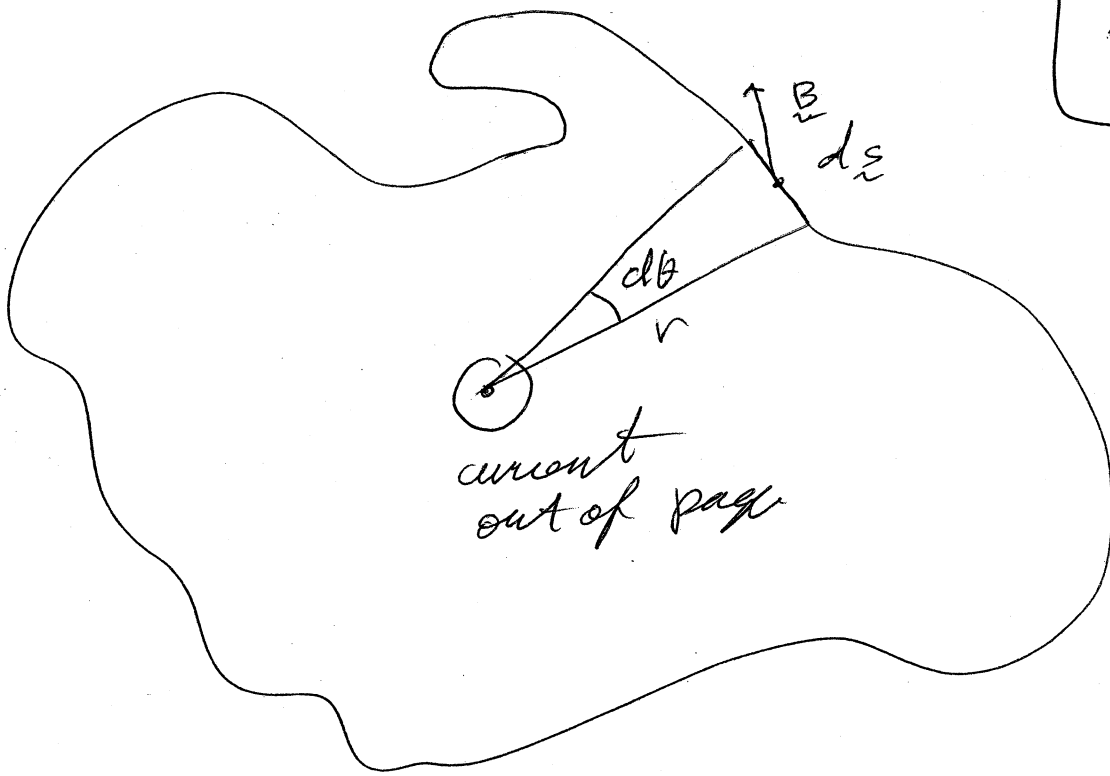
But consider special case
of an infinite ^{straight} line of current



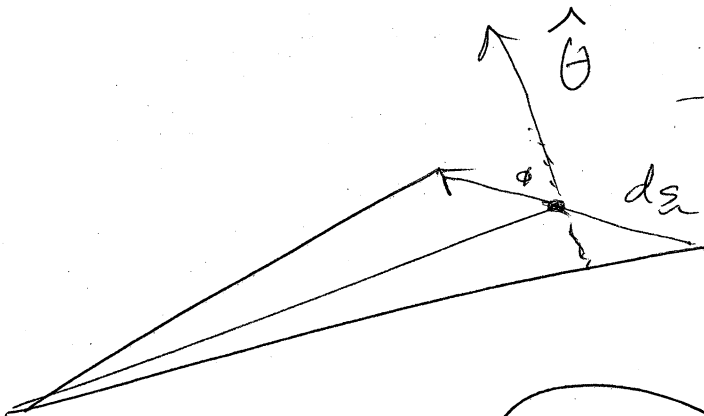
$$\underline{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \hat{\theta}$$



Consider a
general
phenomenon
about
the
current

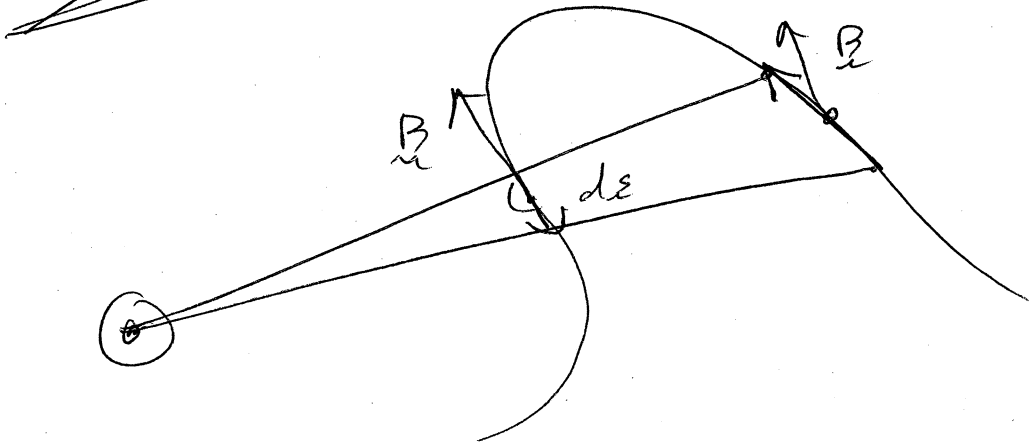


$$\vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \hat{\theta} \cdot d\vec{s}$$



$$\hat{\theta} \cdot d\vec{s} = dl > 0$$

for $d\vec{s}$ in counterclockwise sense of $d\vec{s}$



~~but~~
but $\hat{\theta} \cdot d\vec{s} = dl < 0$
for a clockwise sense of $d\vec{s}$

30-26)

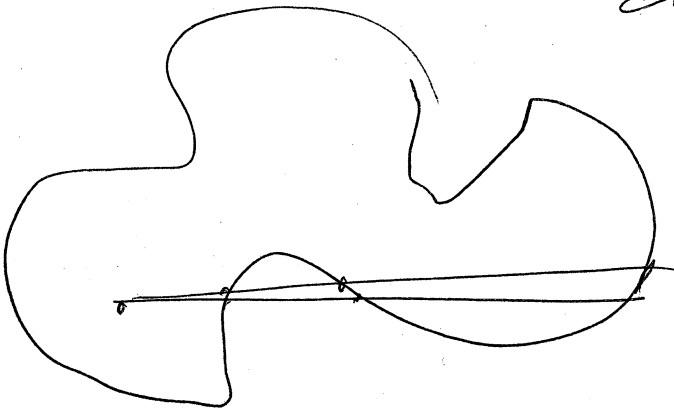
~~So~~

Now $\frac{\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{z}}{r} = \frac{d\theta}{r} = d\theta$

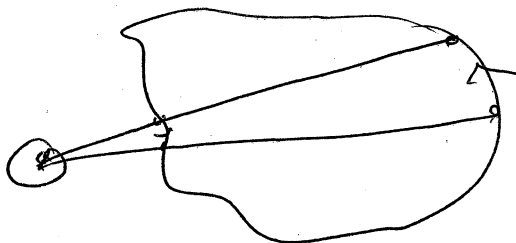
a differential
bit of
angle in
radians.

So $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{z} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta$
 $= \mu_0 I$

all ~~backward steps~~
 clockwise steps
 cancel out and
 you get 2π



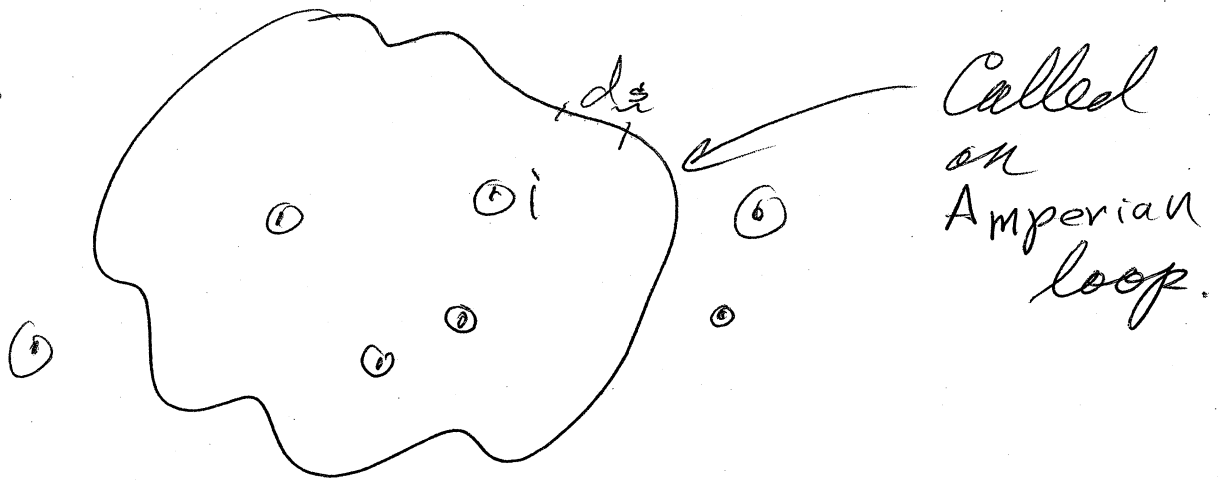
If the current is out of the loop



then the whole
 line integral
 cancels.

$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{z} = 0$

$$\oint \underline{B} \cdot d\underline{s} = \begin{cases} \mu_0 I & \text{for } \text{line current} \\ & \text{in loop} \\ \emptyset & \text{for outside.} \end{cases}$$



\therefore Sum over all currents i

$$\sum_i \oint \underline{B}_i \cdot d\underline{s} = \sum \mu_0 I_i$$

\hookrightarrow

$$\oint \underline{B} \cdot d\underline{s} = \mu_0 I_{\text{encl.}}$$

The result is also valid for nonplanar loops and non straight lines of current.

But beyond our scope to prove.

30-28)

The result can be further generalized for time-varying currents and then it is one of Maxwell's 4 equations (ST-999 (N39')) and ^{it can be} put in a differential equation form. (beyond our scope)

Like Gauss's law, Ampère's law in integral form can be used to find the B-field easily in a few cases of high symmetry, — very few,

Ex 30.7

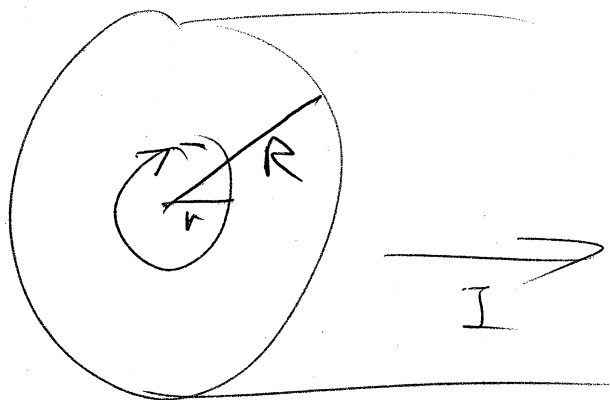
30-29

A straight infinite cylinder
of current I and radius R

The current is uniform
and so

the ~~total~~
enclosed
current out to r
is

$$i = I \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^2$$

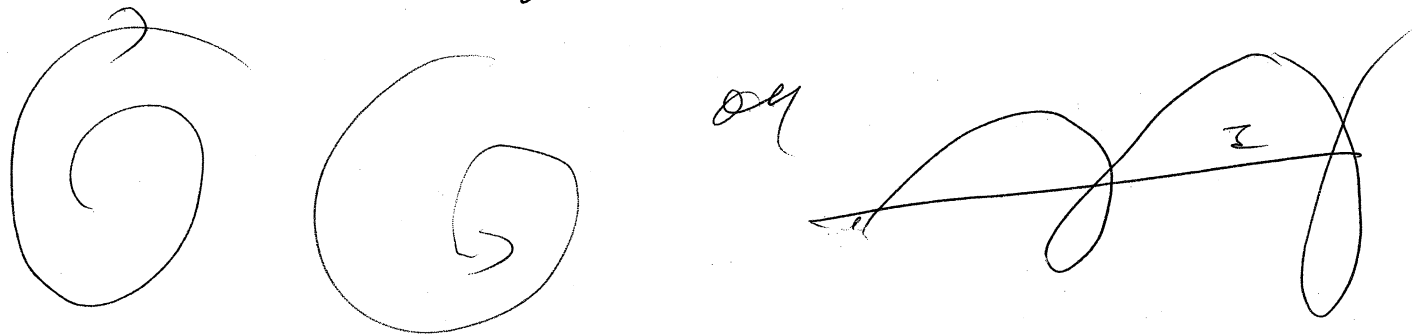


— in this case symmetry
tells us the B -field lines
should be circles concentric
with the axis of symmetry.

Actually a bit of knowledge
is needed to see this.
We know it is true for a
line of current

30-30

There is no out spiral
or in spiral or spiral

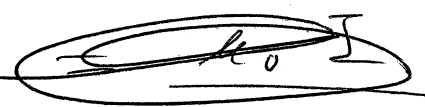


along the line of current
and so don't expect the
like in this case.

Slapping a bunch of lines of
current together shouldn't give
spirals or components of \vec{B}
along the axis.

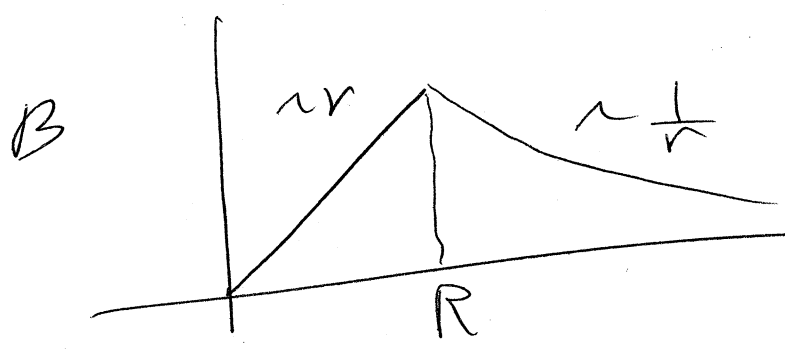
$$\text{Then } \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{r} = \mu_0 I_{\text{enc}} \text{ enclosed}$$

$$\hookrightarrow B 2\pi r = \begin{cases} \mu_0 I \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2 & \text{inside} \\ \mu_0 I & \text{outside} \end{cases}$$

B 

$$\underline{B} = \begin{cases} \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi R} \left(\frac{r}{R}\right) \hat{\theta} & \text{inside } r < R \\ \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \hat{\theta} & \text{outside } r > R \end{cases}$$

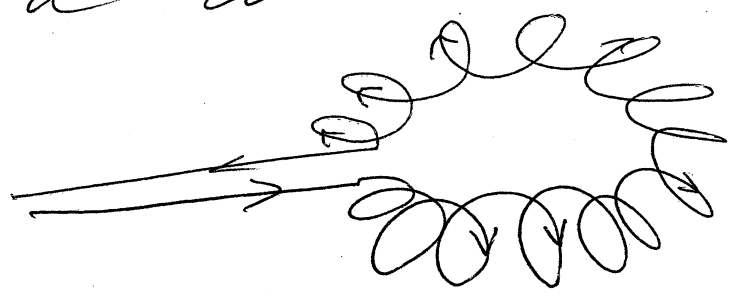
$\hat{\theta}$ is given by right-hand rule where thumb is along the current direction and fingers curl in sense of the B-field lines.



Ex 30.6

B-field of a toroid { torus shaped.

- a real coil deformed into a circle



30-32)

Toroid B-field
Have interesting properties

— A famous example
is the hope that nuclear
~~can~~ fusion can be efficiently
done in toroid B-fields that

(bottle up the hot plasma.

→ Actually other fields must
be used in conjunction

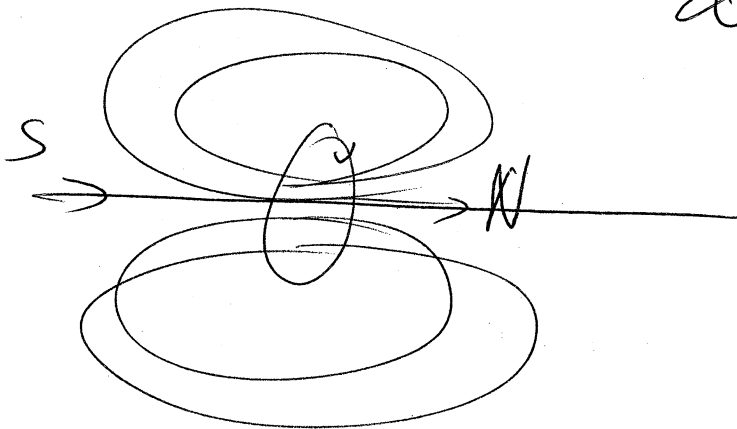
(Tokamaks are the primary
design idea)

But I've lost faith in fusion as
a commercial power source — maybe one day.

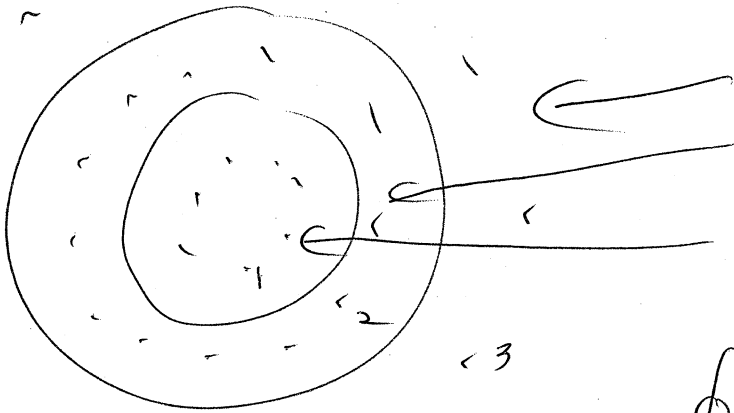
The ideal toroid would be a
set of current loops.

30-34) on the main axis.

— Our knowledge of the dipole field



doesn't suggest in out spirality or chirality is ~~of~~ possible for perfect symmetry.



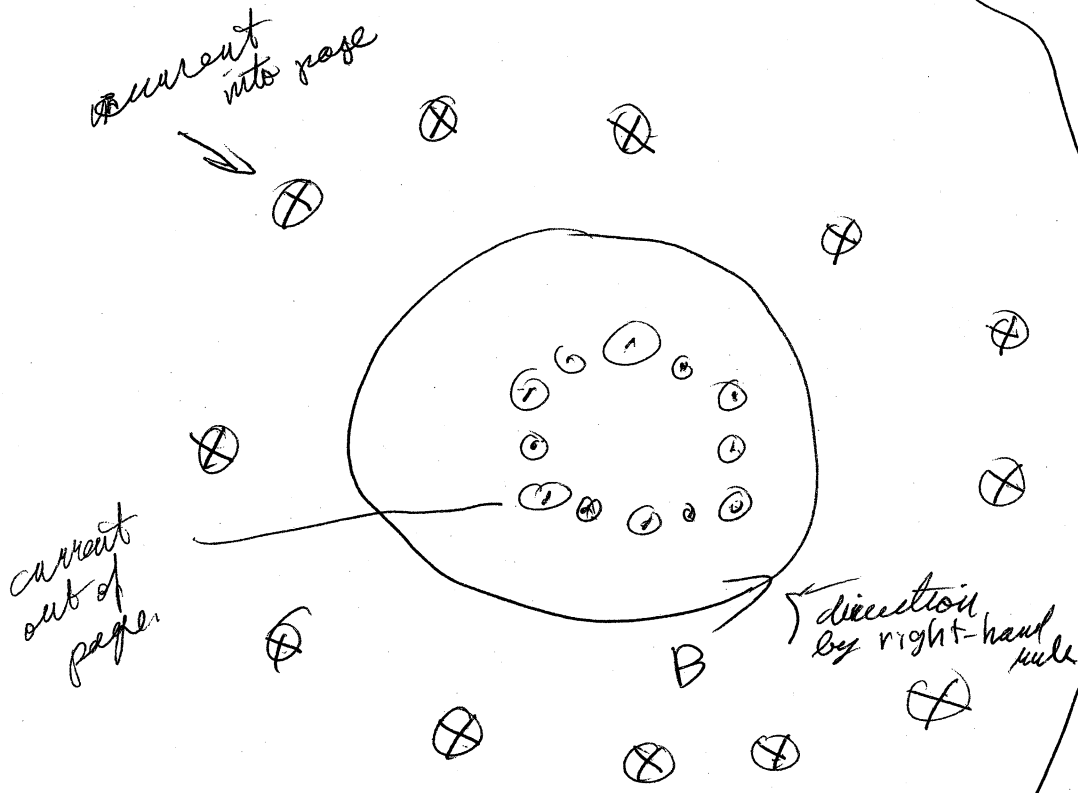
An Amperian loop at any height:

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \text{ for } 1 \text{ and } 3$$

$\therefore \mathbf{B} = 0$
~~inside~~ outside toroid.

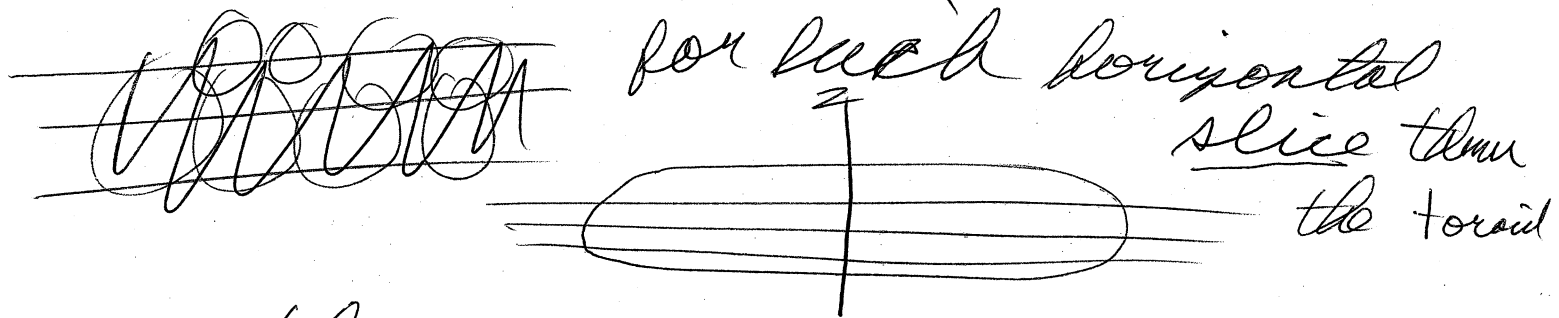
seen in cross-section

30-33



You have to imagine two perfect circles - current coming out of the central out wires, - current going into the outside wires.

If the circular symmetry were perfect



then we'd expect the B-field lines of constant magnitude B to be circles concentric

Inside toroid at any height \approx

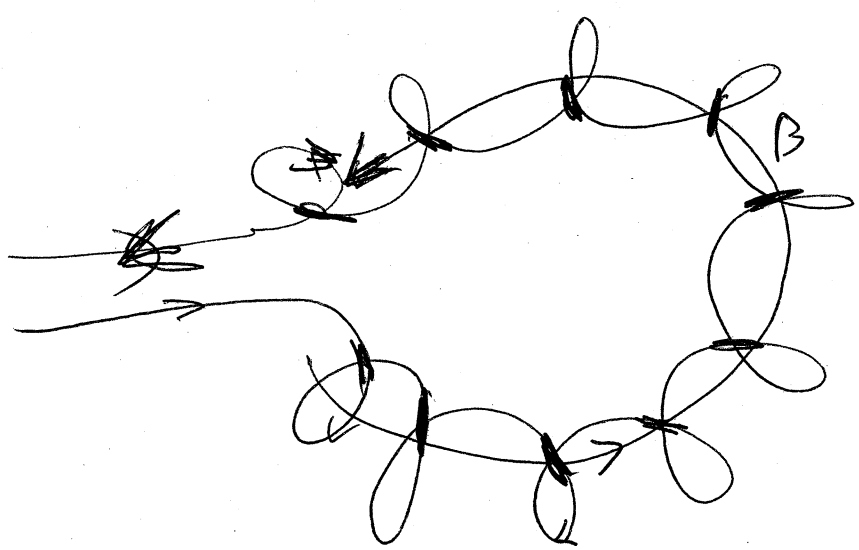
$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \mu_0 I_{encl}$$

$$= \mu_0 N I$$

← current in each turn

number of loops (turns) in the whole toroid

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



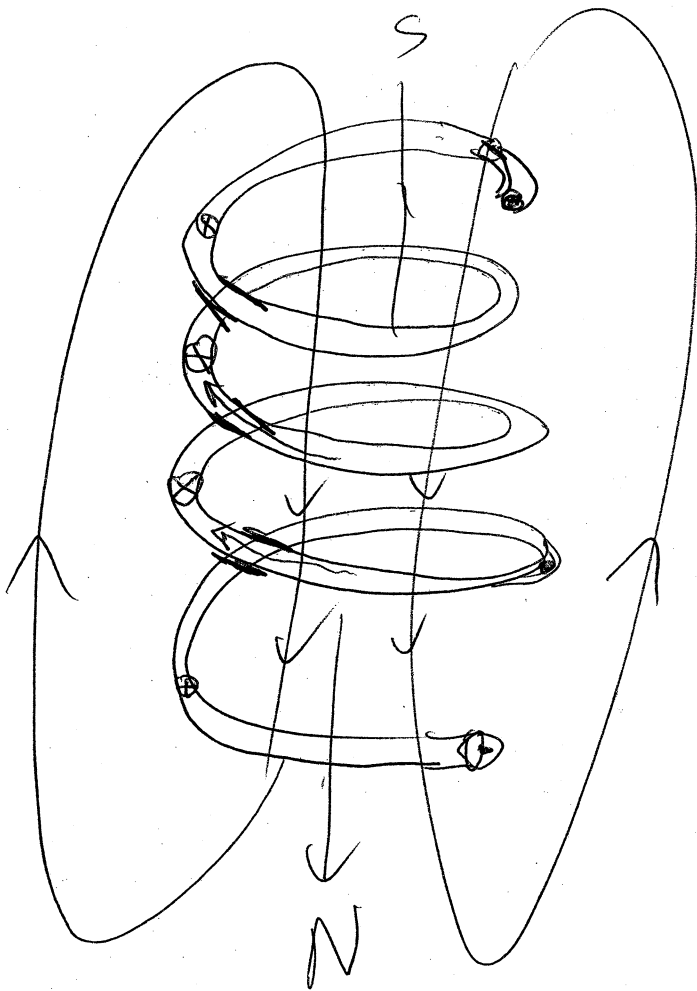
✓ a real toroid can't be perfect because it is a rolled up coil with leads to the outside and toroidal symmetry is NOT perfect

- Still one can get pretty good toroidal fields inside and almost no field outside

30-36

§ 30.4 Solenoid

— a solenoid is a straight coil (not a toroidal coil.)



The B-field is like a bunch of dipoles ~~strong~~

strung together.
— the sense ^{of the B-field} is ~~determined~~ determined by the right hand rule.



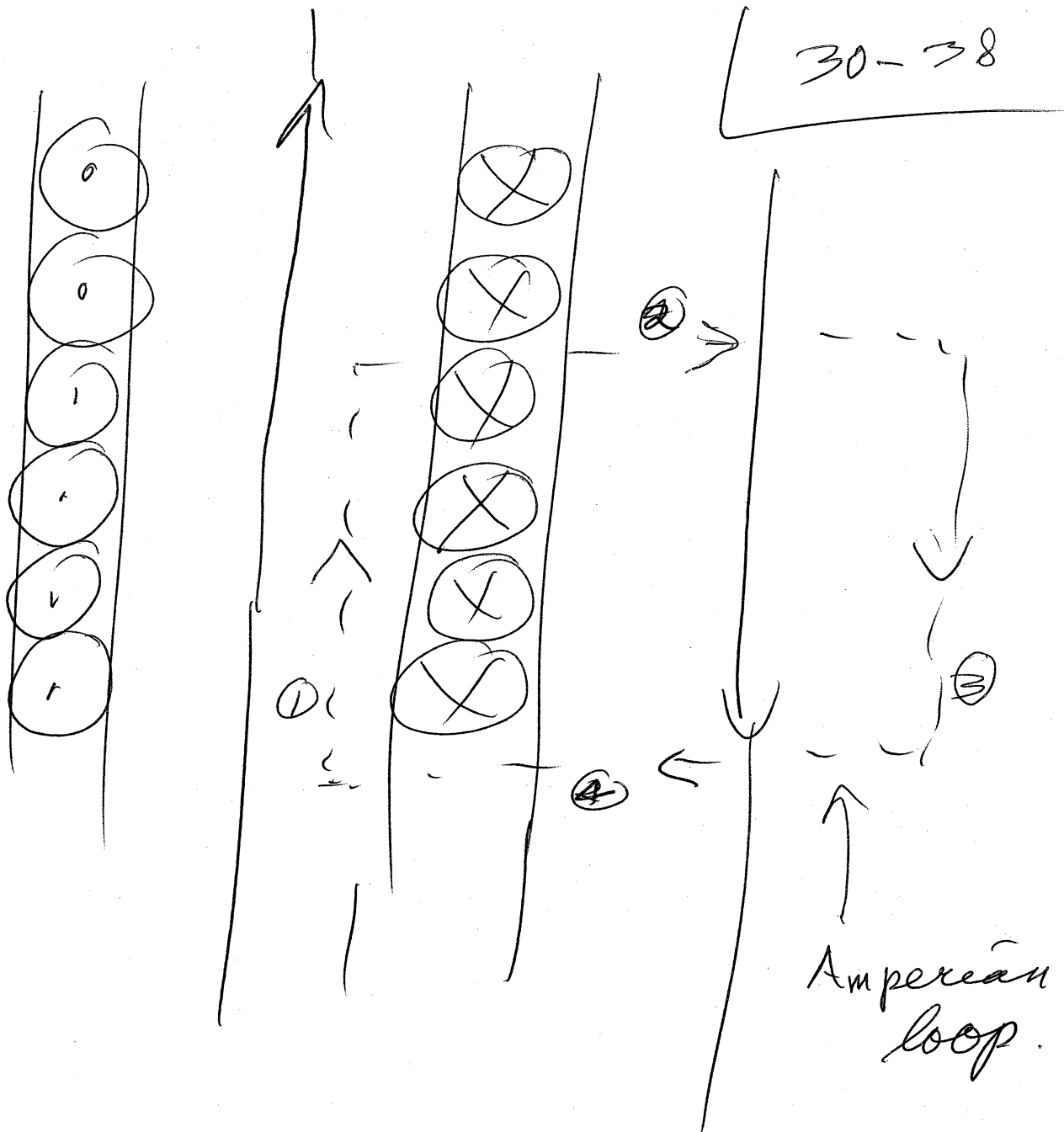
The ideal ~~solenoid~~ solenoid is one that extends to infinity.

— Symmetry for such
a solenoid

and

our knowledge of the
simple dipole field

suggests (proves?) that
the B-field lines must be
straight lines parallel to
the symmetry axis and
that \underline{B} is constant on
these lines.



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

$$B_1 l_1 + \underbrace{B_2 l_2 \cos(90^\circ)}_{0} + B_3 l_3 + \underbrace{B_4 l_4 \cos(90^\circ)}_{0} = \mu_0 I_{\text{encl}}$$

$$\text{So } B_1 l_1 + B_3 l_3 = \mu_0 I_{\text{encl}}$$

Now say we moved
the l_3 side off to infinity

— we expect $B_3 \Rightarrow 0$

(at least it should for
a finite solenoid and
I can't see how that
should change for
an infinite one).

But since
 ~~$B, l,$~~
 I_{enc}
are all
constants

B_3
actually
had
to be
zero
everywhere
outside
solenoid.

For away
a wire

with
no current?

Probably a
netted argument.

$B = 0$ for
current?

$$B_1 l_1 = \mu_0 I_{enc}$$

$$I_{enc} = N I$$

number of turns enclosed \swarrow current in each turn \nwarrow

$$B_1 = \mu_0 \frac{N}{l_1} I = \mu_0 n I$$

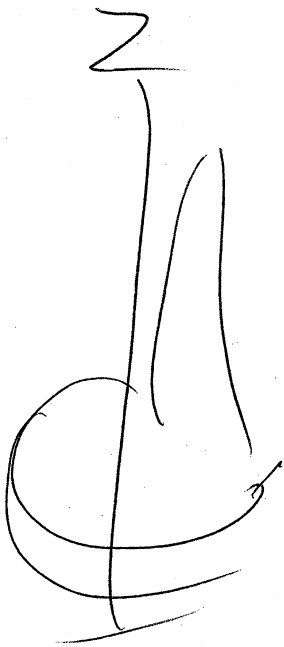
\uparrow
turns per unit length.

- No
- Not if
B-fields are
straight

30-40

so the upshot is

$$\underline{B} = \begin{cases} \mu_0 n I \hat{z} & \text{inside} \\ 0 & \text{outside} \end{cases}$$



and \hat{z} is determined by the right-hand rule.

Actually recall our toroid result

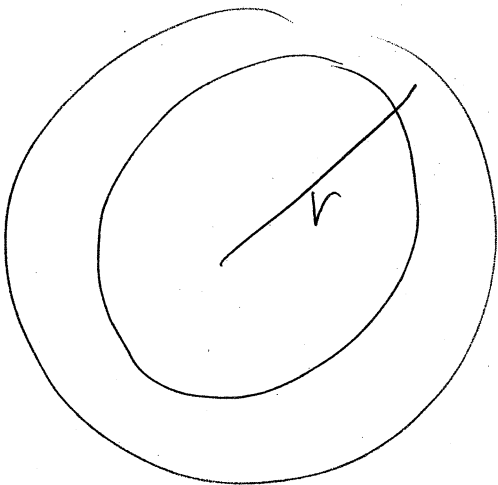
$$\underline{B} = \frac{\mu_0 N I}{2\pi r} \hat{\theta} = \mu_0 n I_0 \hat{\theta}$$

if $r \rightarrow \infty, N \rightarrow \infty$, ~~any~~ any segment looks like infinite solenoid

and we recover

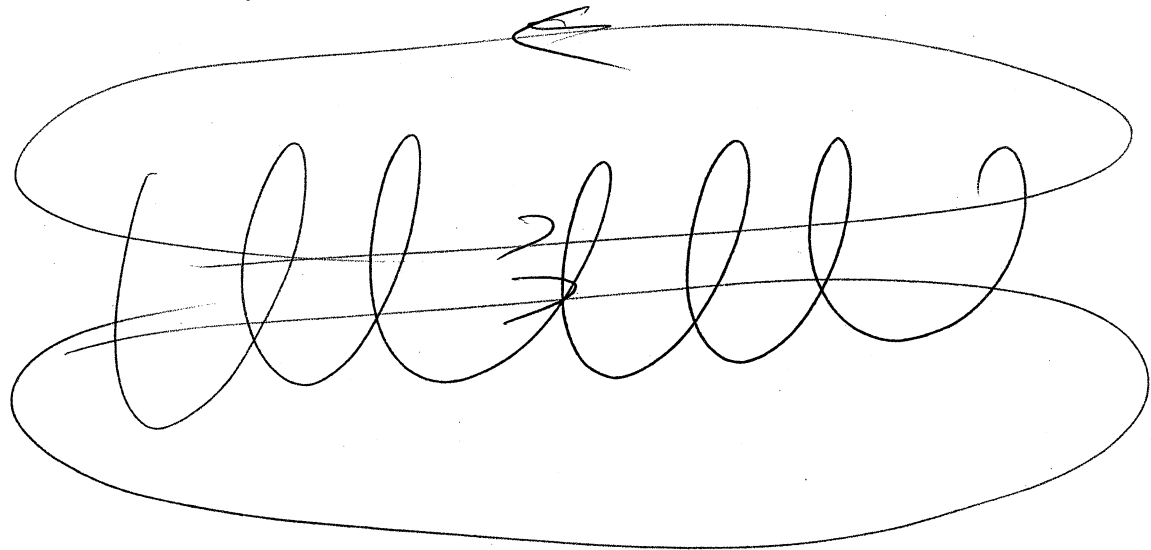
$$\underline{B} = \mu_0 n I \hat{z}$$

(changing the unit vector)



Of course there are no
infinite solenoids.

But a long finite
solenoid far from the ends



approximates one.

With a nearly constant
B-field inside
and nearly zero B-field
outside

I had a friend with
a giant solenoid for

30-42

plasma (ionized gas)
experiments that
was maybe $\sim \frac{1}{2}$ m in diameter
and ~ 4 m long.

— and there are bigger
ones.

— The constant B-field
is a great simplification
in many experimental
and technological applications
(one supposes).

§ 30.5 Magnetic Flux &

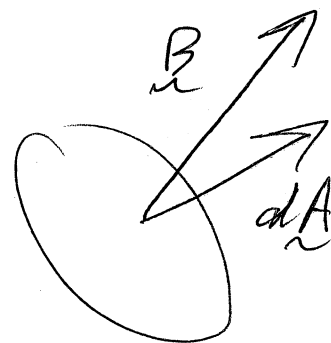
Gauss's Law for
Magnetism

30-43

Magnetic flux
is defined analogously
to electric flux

$$d\Phi = \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{A}$$

$$d\Phi_B = \underline{B} \cdot d\underline{A}$$



differential
bit of
area
vector

For a finite ~~region~~
surface one in general
needs an integral

$$\Phi_B = \int \underline{B} \cdot d\underline{A}$$

One can drop the subscript
if one knows what one means.

30-44

There is also

a Gauss's Law
for Magnetism.

(although GREM-232
calls it a law
with no name)

It can be derived from
the Biot-Savart Law
(GREM-223, 232)

and ~~it is not~~ different

it is one of Maxwell's
4 equations of electromagnetism
(S J-959)

— It also has a differential
equation form.

30-46

We won't derive it
(it really takes vector
calculus).

We'll just write it
down

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$$

↳ Gauss-law
of ~~electromagnetics~~
some
magnetism

The integral
is over any closed surface.

↳ It means flux
in must always cancel
flux out.

Recall the electric Gauss law

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

The magnetic version [30-47]
is different
because there are
no magnetic monopoles

— at least we've
never found any.

— Some advanced theories
say they should exist
but those theories could
be wrong.

We need magnetic
flux for Faraday's law
in Ch 31, but
we won't use Gauss's

30-48) law for magnetism
I think (I was wrong. We use it
once in Ch. 31 to prove
a result for Faraday's
law)

— It does have uses,
but I think they are
beyond our scope.

§ 30.6 Magnetism in Matter

— We been mostly thinking
of macroscopic currents
causing magnetic fields.

— But historically (by millennia)
it was magnetic materials
that ~~exhibited~~ people first
noticed as causing magnetic
effects

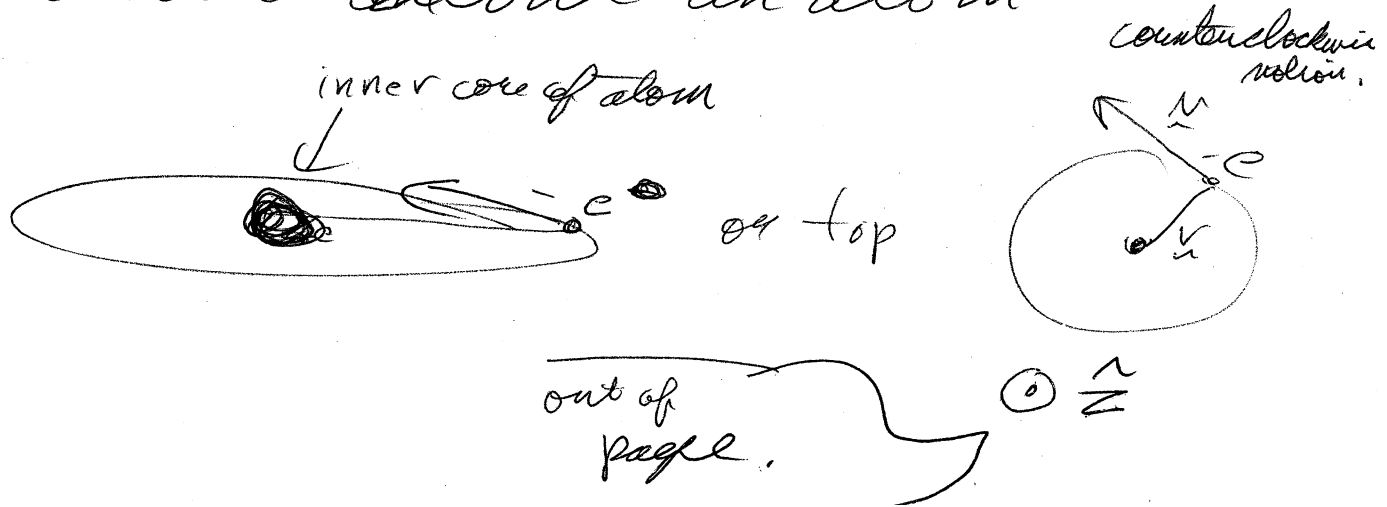
We now recognize that microscopic currents

give rise to magnetic fields and feel magnetic forces and these are what make magnetic materials magnetic.

→ These effects are actually all Quantum mechanical and a detailed examination is beyond our scope.

To get a bit of insight we can consider a classical picture.

Consider an electron in orbit about an atom



30-50]

The electron whirres
by a ~~to~~ point every
period T

$$\therefore I = \frac{-e}{T}$$

Current is -ve
because the fiducial current
is counterclockwise.

can be considered
current in
clockwise direction
~~though~~

From our
definition of
magnetic moment

$$\vec{\mu} = I A \hat{n}$$

$$= \left(\frac{-e}{T} \right) (\pi r^2) \hat{n}$$

→ actually considering
this a steady
current is only
approximately
correct

(GrEM-219)

— for a point charge,
but probably exactly
correct for a BM
probability current.

Now $T = \frac{2\pi r}{v}$ and ~~$\vec{L} = m \vec{v} \times \vec{r}$~~

$$\vec{L} = m \vec{v} \times \vec{r} = m v r \hat{n}$$

$$\vec{\mu} = (-e) (\pi r^2) \frac{v}{2\pi r} \hat{n}$$

$$= (-e) \frac{L}{2m} \hat{n} = -\frac{e}{2m} \vec{L}$$

Now why rewrite in terms of angular momentum?

↳ the short answer is that that leads to the right QM result despite our classical derivation.

In QM, angular momentum is quantized not ~~as~~ speed or ~~other~~ ~~time~~.

In fact for electrons in atoms

$$L = \sqrt{l(l+1)} \hbar$$

where $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ only

l is called a quantum number - a dimensionless index number of quantized value

$$\text{and } \hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi} = 1.054 \dots \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s}$$

h is Planck's constant
 \hbar is h-bar (or Dirac's constant)

30-52

J.s are the units of angular momentum

so

$$\mu = - \frac{e\hbar}{2m} \left(\frac{L}{\hbar} \right)$$

That negative sign is an annoyance. But there's no hope. The angular momentum vector and magnetic

~~given~~ dimensionless number of magnitude $\sqrt{l(l+1)}$

$$\mu_B = \frac{e\hbar}{2m} = 9.27 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J/T}$$

moment vectors point the opposite way because the electron has a negative charge.

is the Bohr magneton

Call Ben Franklin's fault

which is the basic unit of magnetic moment for electrons.

As well as being in orbit,

an electron has intrinsic spin

Spin is very nonclassical since thinking of an electron or proton as rotating seems unnecessary & maybe wrong.

Spin is an internal unchangeable ang. mom. → which is unlike classical ang. mom. (or orbital) (which can be changed)

$$S = |\underline{S}| = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \hbar \text{ always}$$

$$\text{and } \underline{\mu}_{spin} = -g \mu_B \left(\frac{\underline{S}}{\hbar} \right)$$

SJ-853 get this wrong

where $g = 2$

See ER-274

even though neutral they seem to have internal current

Nucleons (protons and neutrons) also have magnetic moments but they are $\sim \frac{1}{2000}$ smaller than electrons magnetic moment because the nuclear magneton

$$= \frac{e \hbar}{2 m_{proton}} \approx \frac{1}{2000} \mu_B$$

30-59)

— so nuclear magnetic moments have only a small effect on atomic properties.

The magnetic moments of orbital & spin of all ~~at~~ electrons in an atom have to be added vectorially, in a QM way.

And mostly they cancel, and so only some left over usually due to outermost electrons:

Atom or ion	μ
H	μ_B
He	0
Ne	0
Ce ³⁺	0 $\sim 2\mu_B$
V ³⁺	$\sim 4\mu_B$

Ferromagnetism (GREN-278)

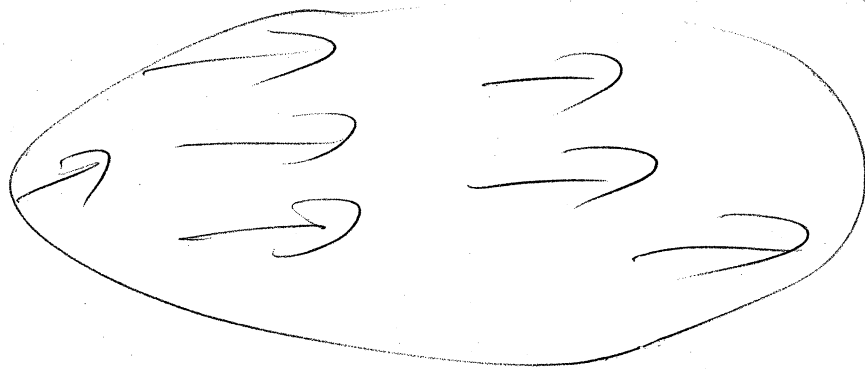
(30-55)

In some materials
iron, cobalt, Ni
and others including
rare earths

and
alloys
and
compounds
like
magnetite
 Fe_3O_4

the dipole moments of
the atoms strongly interact
and all align parallel

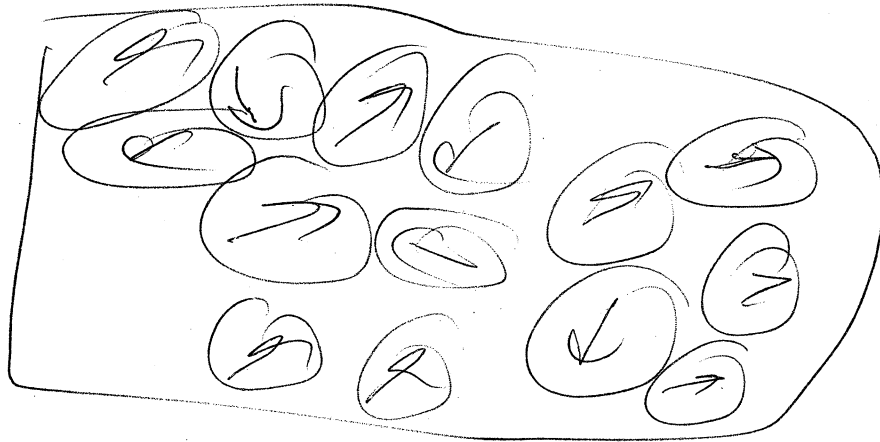
except
there is
temperature
perturbation



— these alignments though
are not everywhere the
same.

— the material is broken
up into domains of alignment.

30-56



— the domains are usually randomly oriented.

— so no net alignment or magnetic field.

But but a ferromagnetic in an ^{applied} magnetic field and the ~~at~~ domains ~~will~~ already aligned with the field will grow

→ and the material will develop an overall dipole moment and dipole field.

There are actually [30-57]

two kinds of behaviour

— "hard"

↳ which doesn't mean hard

— it means the material
tends to stay aligned
after the ^{applied} ~~permanent~~ field
is removed.

↳ so you create a
permanent magnet. (WIK)
(magnetic
core)

— "soft"

↳ which doesn't mean soft

↳ it means that when
the applied field is removed
the material's magnetization
~~is~~ vanishes mostly when
the applied field is removed.

30-58

— iron can go either
~~what~~ way.

— soft iron is ^{rather} chemically
pure iron.

→ it has great use in
electric motors & generators
and transformers, electromagnets.

→ soft iron can enhance
an applied field by

~50,000. (With
magnetic
core)

You get nothing for
free — you must input
energy to create the magnetic
field — but it can then be
used to do work or other
energy transformations.

permanent magnets

30-59

↳ actually aren't absolutely permanent.

↳ an ~~reverse~~ applied field in the opposite sense to the magnetic field can undo their magnetism (Gr & M-280)

— also ~~above~~ at the Curie point temperature

~~the~~ Ferromagnets undergo a phase transition to a state of unaligned atomic dipoles

Substance $T_{\text{Curie}} (\text{K})$ (Gr & M-281)

iron	1043
Cobalt	1394
Nickel	631
Fe_2O_3	873
Fe_3O_4	858 (W:K)

Magnetite

They stay unaligned when cooled.

30-60

I leave as ^{non-optional} reading
paramagnetism, diamagnetism,
§ 30.7 on Earth's magnetic field.