

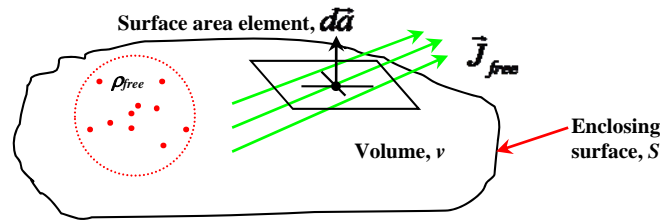
LECTURE NOTES 1

CONSERVATION LAWS

Conservation of energy E , linear momentum \vec{p} , angular momentum \vec{L} and electric charge q are of fundamental importance in electrodynamics (*n.b.* this is also true for all fundamental forces of nature – the weak, strong, *EM* and gravitational force, both microscopically (locally), and hence macroscopically (globally - *i.e.* the entire universe)!

Electric Charge Conservation

Previously (*i.e.* last semester in Physics 435), we discussed electric charge conservation:



Electric current flowing outward from volume v through closed bounding surface S at time t :

$$I_{free}(t) = \oint_S \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot d\vec{a} \quad (\text{Amperes})$$

Electric charge contained in volume v at time t :

$$Q_{free}(t) = \int_v \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau \quad (\text{Coulombs})$$

An outward flow of current through surface S corresponds to a decrease in charge in volume v :

$$I_{free}(t) = -\frac{dQ_{free}(t)}{dt} \quad (\text{Amperes} = \text{Coulombs/sec}) \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \frac{dQ_{free}(t)}{dt} < 0, \quad I_{free}(t) = -\frac{dQ_{free}(t)}{dt} > 0$$

Global conservation of electric charge:

$$I_{free}(t) = \oint_S \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot d\vec{a} = -\frac{dQ_{free}(t)}{dt}$$

But:
$$\frac{dQ_{free}(t)}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int_v \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau = \int_v \frac{\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} d\tau$$

Use the divergence theorem on the LHS of the global conservation of charge equation:

$$\int_v \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau = -\int_v \frac{\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} d\tau \quad \Leftarrow \text{Integral form of the continuity equation.}$$

This relation must hold for any arbitrary volume v associated with the enclosing surface S ; hence the integrands in the above equation must be equal – we thus obtain the continuity equation (in differential form), which expresses local conservation of electric charge at (\vec{r}, t) :

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = -\frac{\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} \quad \Leftarrow \text{Differential form of the continuity equation.}$$

n.b. The continuity equation doesn't explain why electric charge is conserved – it merely describes mathematically that electric charge is conserved!!

Poynting's Theorem and Poynting's Vector $\vec{S}(\vec{r}, t)$

We know that the work required to assemble a *static* charge distribution is:

$$W_E(t) = \frac{\epsilon_o}{2} \int_v E^2(\vec{r}, t) d\tau = \frac{\epsilon_o}{2} \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau = \frac{1}{2} \int_v (\vec{D}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau$$

SI units:
Joules

Linear Dielectric Media

Likewise, the work required to get electric currents flowing, *e.g.* against a back *EMF* is:

$$W_M(t) = \frac{1}{2\mu_o} \int_v B^2(\vec{r}, t) d\tau = \frac{1}{2\mu_o} \int_v (\vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau = \frac{1}{2} \int_v (\vec{H}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau$$

SI units:
Joules

Linear Magnetic Media

Thus the total energy, U_{EM} stored in *EM* field(s) is (by energy conservation) = total work done:

$$U_{EM}(t) = W_{tot}(t) = W_{EM}(t) = W_E(t) + W_M(t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_v \left(\epsilon_o E^2(\vec{r}, t) + \frac{1}{\mu_o} B^2(\vec{r}, t) \right) d\tau = \int_v u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau$$

SI units:
Joules

$$U_{EM}(t) = \int_v u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau = \frac{1}{2} \int_v \left(\epsilon_o E^2(\vec{r}, t) + \frac{1}{\mu_o} B^2(\vec{r}, t) \right) d\tau$$

SI units:
Joules

where u_{EM} = total energy density: $u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\epsilon_o E^2(\vec{r}, t) + \frac{1}{\mu_o} B^2(\vec{r}, t) \right)$ (SI units: *Joules/m³*)

Suppose we have some charge density $\rho(\vec{r}, t)$ and current density $\vec{J}(\vec{r}, t)$ configuration(s) that at time t produce *EM* fields $\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)$ and $\vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)$. In the next instant dt , *i.e.* at time $t + dt$, the charge moves around. What is the amount of infinitesimal work dW done by *EM* forces acting on these charges / currents, in the time interval dt ?

The Lorentz Force Law is: $\vec{F}(\vec{r}, t) = q(\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) + \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t))$

The infinitesimal amount of work dW done on an electric charge q moving an infinitesimal distance $d\vec{\ell} = \vec{v}dt$ in an infinitesimal time interval dt is:

$$dW = \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{\ell} = q\vec{E} \cdot \vec{v}dt + \underbrace{q(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \vec{v}dt}_{=0} = q\vec{E} \cdot \vec{v}dt$$

(*n.b.* magnetic forces do no work!!)

But: $\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau$ and: $\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)$

The (instantaneous) rate at which (total) work is done on all of the electric charges within the volume v is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dW(t)}{dt} &= \int_v \vec{F}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot (d\vec{\ell}(\vec{r}, t)/dt) = \int_v \vec{F}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) = \int_v q_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) \\ &= \int_v \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) \quad \text{using: } q_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau \\ &= \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau \quad \text{but: } \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\frac{dW(t)}{dt} = \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau = P(t)} = \text{instantaneous power (SI units: Watts)}$$

The quantity $\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)$ is the (instantaneous) work done per unit time, per unit volume – *i.e.* the instantaneous power delivered per unit volume (aka the power density).

Thus:
$$\boxed{P(t) = \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau} \quad (\text{SI units: Watts} = \frac{\text{Joules}}{\text{sec}})$$

We can express the quantity $(\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}_{free})$ in terms of the *EM* fields (alone) using the Ampere-Maxwell law (in differential form) to eliminate \vec{J}_{free} .

Ampere's Law with Maxwell's Displacement Current correction term (in differential form):

Thus:
$$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \mu_o \{ \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) + \vec{J}_D(\vec{r}, t) \} = \mu_o \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) + \mu_o \epsilon_o \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}}$$

Then:
$$\boxed{\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{\mu_o} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)) - \epsilon_o \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}}$$

Then:
$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) &= \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \left\{ \frac{1}{\mu_o} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)) - \epsilon_o \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{\mu_o} \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)) - \epsilon_o \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} \end{aligned}}$$

Now: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) = \vec{B} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) - \vec{E} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B})$ Griffiths Product Rule #6 (see inside front cover)

Thus: $\vec{E} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = \vec{B} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) - \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$

But Faraday's Law (in differential form) is:
$$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}}$$

$$\therefore \vec{E} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = -\vec{B} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} - \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$$

However: $\vec{B} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{B} \cdot \vec{B}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (B^2)$ and similarly: $\vec{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{E}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (E^2)$

Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r},t) &= -\frac{1}{\mu_0} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (B^2(\vec{r},t)) - \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r},t)) \right\} - \epsilon_0 \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (E^2(\vec{r},t)) \right\} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\epsilon_0 E^2(\vec{r},t) + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2(\vec{r},t) \right) - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r},t))\end{aligned}$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}P(t) &= \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r},t)) d\tau \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_v \left(\epsilon_0 E^2(\vec{r},t) + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2(\vec{r},t) \right) d\tau - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \underbrace{\int_v \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r},t)) d\tau}_{\uparrow}\end{aligned}$$

Apply the divergence theorem to this term, get:

Poynting's Theorem = "Work-Energy" Theorem of Electrodynamics:

$$P(t) = \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_v \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left(\epsilon_0 E^2(\vec{r},t) + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2(\vec{r},t) \right) \right\} d\tau - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \oint_S (\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r},t)) \cdot d\vec{a}$$

Physically, $\frac{1}{2} \int_v \left(\epsilon_0 E^2(\vec{r},t) + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2(\vec{r},t) \right) d\tau$ = instantaneous energy stored in the *EM* fields ($\vec{E}(\vec{r},t)$ and $\vec{B}(\vec{r},t)$) within the volume v (SI units: Joules)

Physically, the term $-\frac{1}{\mu_0} \oint_S (\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r},t)) \cdot d\vec{a}$ = instantaneous rate at which *EM* energy is carried / flows out of the volume v (carried microscopically by virtual (and/or real!) photons across the bounding/enclosing surface S by the *EM* fields \vec{E} and \vec{B} – *i.e.* this term represents/is the instantaneous *EM* power flowing across/through the bounding/enclosing surface S (SI units: *Watts* = *Joules/sec*).

Poynting's Theorem says that:

The instantaneous work done on the electric charges in the volume v by the *EM* force is equal to the decrease in the instantaneous energy stored in *EM* fields (\vec{E} and \vec{B}), minus the energy that is instantaneously flowing out of/through the bounding surface S .

We define **Poynting's vector:** $\vec{S}(\vec{r},t) \equiv \frac{1}{\mu_0} (\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r},t))$ = energy / unit time / unit area,

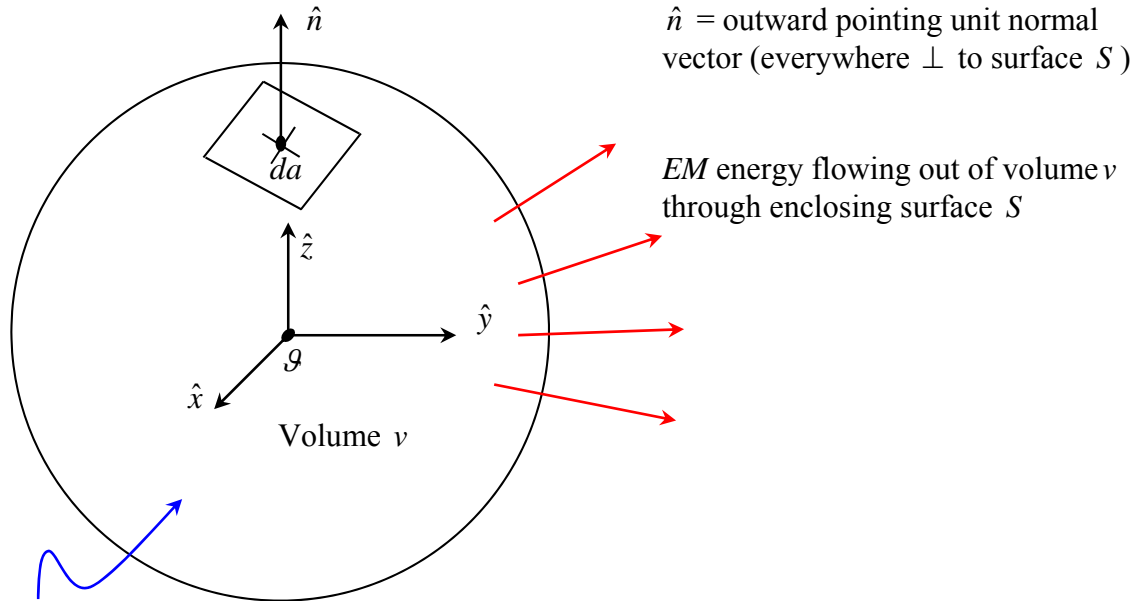
transported by the *EM* fields (\vec{E} and \vec{B}) across/through the bounding surface S

n.b. Poynting's vector \vec{S} has SI units of Watts/m² – *i.e.* an energy flux density.

Thus, we see that:

$$P(t) = \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = -\frac{dU_{EM}(t)}{dt} - \oint_S \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot d\vec{a}$$

where $\vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot d\vec{a}$ = instantaneous power (energy per unit time) crossing/passing through an infinitesimal surface area element $d\vec{a} = \hat{n} da$, as shown in the figure below:



Poynting's vector: $\vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) \equiv \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)$ = Energy Flux Density (SI units: *Watts/m²*)

The work W done on the electrical charges contained within the volume v will increase their mechanical energy – kinetic and/or potential energy. Define the (instantaneous) mechanical energy density $u_{mech}(\vec{r}, t)$ such that:

$$\frac{du_{mech}(\vec{r}, t)}{dt} = \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \quad \text{Hence:} \quad \frac{dU_{mech}}{dt} = \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau$$

Then:

$$P(t) = \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = \frac{dU_{mech}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int_v u_{mech}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau = \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau$$

However, the (instantaneous) EM field energy density is:

$$u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\epsilon_0 E^2(\vec{r}, t) + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2(\vec{r}, t) \right) \quad (\text{Joules/m}^3)$$

Then the (instantaneous) EM field energy contained within the volume v is:

$$U_{EM}(t) = \int_v u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau \quad (\text{Joules})$$

Thus, we see that:
$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V (u_{mech}(\vec{r}, t) + u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau = -\oint_S \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot d\vec{a} = -\int_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau$$

Using the Divergence theorem

The integrands of LHS vs. {far} RHS of the above equation **must** be equal for each/every space-time point (\vec{r}, t) within the source volume V associated with bounding surface S . Thus, we obtain:

The Differential Form of Poynting's Theorem:
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} [u_{mech}(\vec{r}, t) + u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t)] = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t)$$

Poynting's theorem = Energy Conservation "book-keeping" equation, *c.f.* with the **Continuity equation = Charge Conservation** "book-keeping" equation:

The Differential Form of the Continuity Equation:
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho(\vec{r}, t) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}(\vec{r}, t)$$

Since $\frac{\partial u_{mech}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)$, we can write the differential form of Poynting's theorem as:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) + \frac{\partial u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t)$$

Or:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) + \frac{\partial u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) = 0$$

Poynting's Theorem / Poynting's vector $\vec{S}(\vec{r}, t)$ represents the (instantaneous) flow of *EM* energy in exactly the same/analogous way that the free current density $\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)$ represents the (instantaneous) flow of electric charge.

In the presence of *linear* dielectric / *linear* magnetic media, if one is ONLY interested in FREE charges and FREE currents, then:

$$u_{EM}^{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{2} (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{D}(\vec{r}, t) + \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{H}(\vec{r}, t))$$

$$\vec{D}(\vec{r}, t) = \epsilon \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)$$

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_o (1 + \chi_e)$$

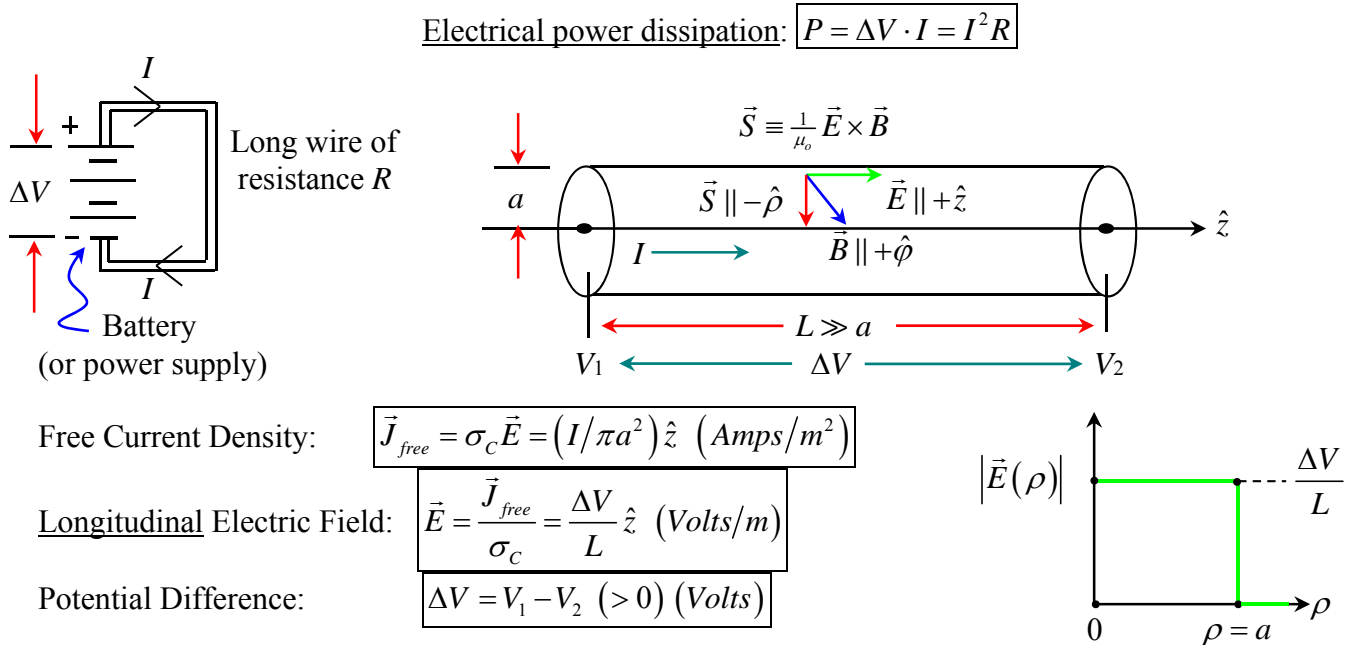
$$\vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{\mu} \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \times \vec{H}(\vec{r}, t)$$

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \mu \vec{H}(\vec{r}, t)$$

$$\mu = \mu_o (1 + \chi_m)$$

Griffiths Example 8.1:

 Poynting's vector \vec{S} , power dissipation and Joule heating of a long, current-carrying wire.

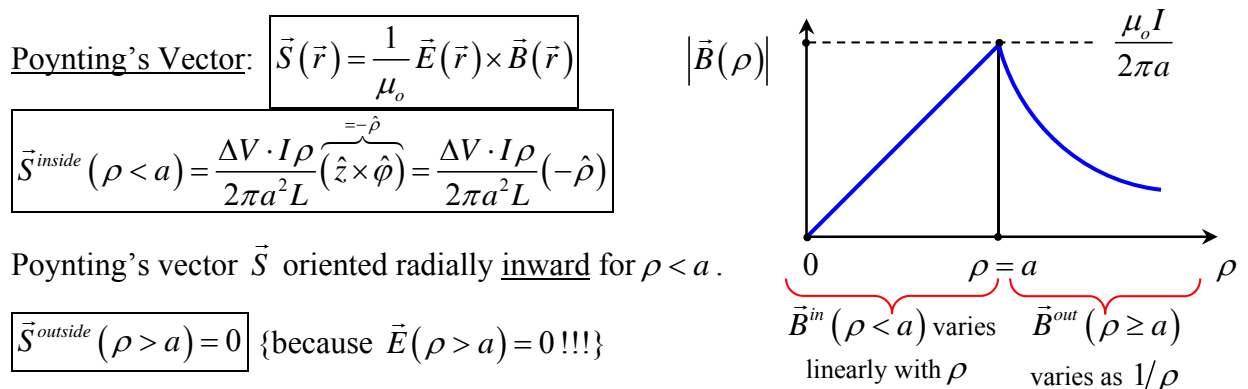
 When a steady, free electrical current I (\neq function of time, t) flows down a long wire of length $L \gg a$ (a = radius of wire) and resistance R ($= L/\pi a^2 \sigma_c$), the electrical energy is dissipated as heat (*i.e.* thermal energy) in the wire.


n.b. The {steady} free current density $\vec{J}_{free} (= \sigma_c \vec{E} = I/\pi a^2)$ and the longitudinal electric field $\vec{E} = (\Delta V/L) \hat{z}$ are uniform across (and along) the long wire, everywhere within the volume of the wire ($\rho < a$). \Rightarrow Thus, this particular problem has no time-dependence...

From Ampere's Law: $\vec{B}^{inside} (\rho < a) = \frac{\mu_0 I \rho}{2\pi a^2} \hat{\phi}$ $\rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ in cylindrical coordinates

$\left\{ \oint_C \vec{B}(\vec{r}) \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 I_{encl} \right\}$ $\vec{B}^{outside} (\rho \geq a) = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi \rho} \hat{\phi}$ (Tesla)

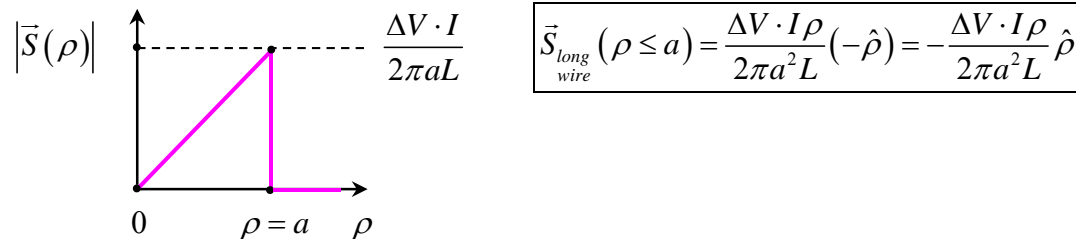
n.b. for simplicity's sake, we have approximated the finite length wire by an ∞ -length wire. This will have unphysical, but understandable consequences later on...



Note the following result for Poynting's vector evaluated at the surface of the long wire, *i.e.* @ $\rho = a$:

$$\vec{S}^{inside}(\rho = a) = \frac{\Delta V \cdot I}{2\pi a L} (-\hat{\rho}) \quad (\text{SI units: Watts/m}^2)$$

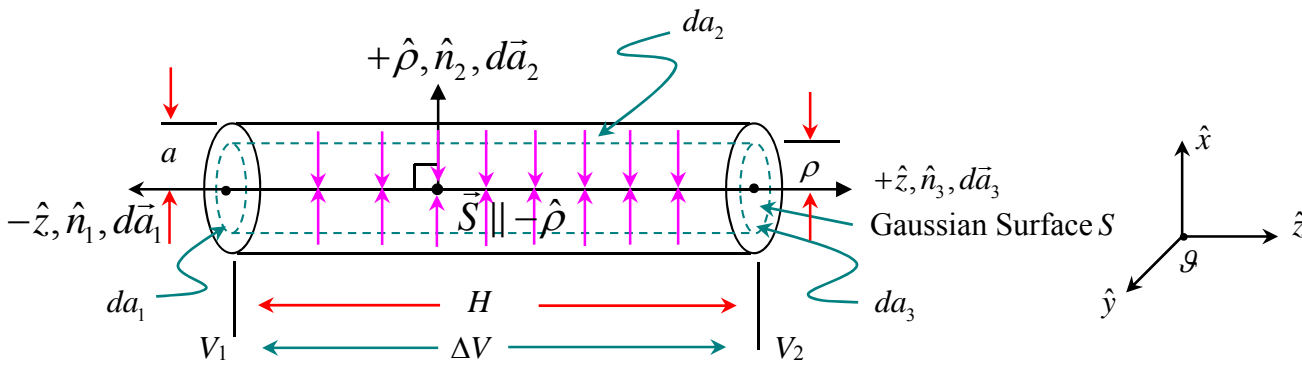
Since $\vec{E}^{outside}(\rho \geq a) = 0$: $\vec{S}^{outside}(\rho = a) = 0 \Rightarrow \exists$ a **discontinuity** in \vec{S} at $\rho = a$!!!



Now let us use the *integral* version of Poynting's theorem to determine the *EM* energy flowing through an imaginary Gaussian cylindrical surface S of radius $\rho < a$ and length $H \ll L$:

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &= \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = \frac{dU_{mech}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int_v u_{mech}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau = \int_v (\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau \\ &= -\frac{dU_{EM}(t)}{dt} - \oint_S \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot d\vec{a} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_v u_{EM}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau - \int_v (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t)) d\tau \end{aligned}$$

Since this is a static/steady-state problem, we assume that $dU_{EM}(t)/dt = 0$.



Then for an imaginary Gaussian surface taken *inside* the long wire ($\rho < a$) :

$$P_{wire} = -\oint_S \vec{S}_{wire} \cdot d\vec{a} = -\underbrace{\int_{LHS}^{=0} \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a}_1}_{d\vec{a}_1 = da_1(-\hat{z})} - \underbrace{\int_{cyl} \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a}_2}_{d\vec{a}_2 = da_2 \hat{\rho}} - \underbrace{\int_{RHS}^{=0} \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a}_3}_{d\vec{a}_3 = da_3(+\hat{z})}$$

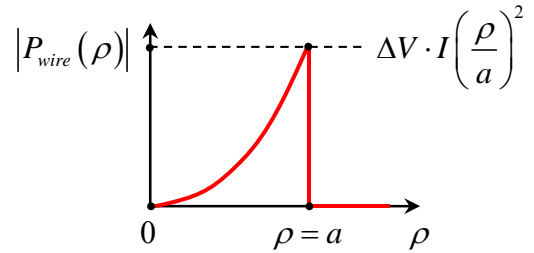
$\vec{S}(\parallel -\hat{\rho})$ is \perp to $d\vec{a}_1(\parallel -\hat{z})$; $\vec{S}(\parallel -\hat{\rho})$ is anti- \parallel to $d\vec{a}_2(\parallel +\hat{\rho})$; $\vec{S}(\parallel -\hat{\rho})$ is \perp to $d\vec{a}_3(\parallel +\hat{z})$

Only surviving term is:

$$P_{wire}(\rho) = -\int_{cyl} \vec{S}(\rho) \cdot d\vec{a}_2 = -\int_{z=-H/2}^{z=+H/2} \int_{\phi=0}^{\phi=2\pi} \left(-\frac{\Delta V \cdot I \rho}{2\pi a^2 H} \hat{\rho} \right) \rho d\phi dz \hat{\rho} = \left(\frac{\Delta V \cdot I}{2\pi a^2 H} \rho \right) (2\pi \rho H) = \Delta V \cdot I \left(\frac{\rho^2}{a^2} \right)$$

Thus:
$$P_{\text{wire}}(\rho) = \Delta V \cdot I \left(\frac{\rho}{a} \right)^2 \quad (\text{Watts})$$

And:
$$P_{\text{wire}}(\rho = a) = \Delta V \cdot I \quad (\text{Watts})$$



This *EM* energy is dissipated as heat (thermal energy) in the wire – also known as Joule heating of the wire. Since $|P_{\text{wire}}(\rho)| \propto \rho^2$, note also that the Joule heating of the wire occurs primarily at/on the outermost portions of the wire.

From Ohm's Law:
$$\Delta V = I \cdot R_{\text{wire}} \quad \text{where} \quad R_{\text{wire}} = \text{resistance of wire} = \rho_c^{\text{wire}} L / A_{\perp}^{\text{wire}} = L / \sigma_c^{\text{wire}} A_{\perp}^{\text{wire}}$$

Joule Heating
of current-
carrying wire

$$P_{\text{wire}}(\rho) = -I^2 R_{\text{wire}} \left(\frac{\rho}{a} \right)^2$$

$$P_{\text{wire}}(\rho = a) = -I^2 R_{\text{wire}}$$

Power losses in wire show up / result in Joule heating of wire. Electrical energy is converted into heat (thermal) energy – At the microscopic level, this is due to *kinetic* energy losses associated with the ensemble of individual drift/conduction/free electron scatterings inside the wire!

Again use the integral version of Poynting's theorem to determine the *EM* field energy flowing through an imaginary Gaussian cylindrical surface S of radius $\rho \geq a$ and length $H \ll L$.

We expect that we should get the same answer as that obtained above, for the $\rho < a$ Gaussian cylindrical surface. However, for $\rho \geq a$, $\vec{S}^{\text{outside}}(\rho > a) = 0$, because $\vec{E}^{\text{outside}}(\rho > a) = 0$!!!

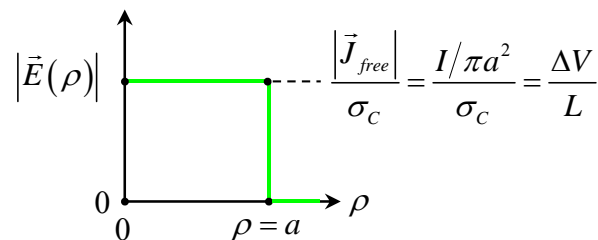
Thus, for a Gaussian cylindrical surface S taken with $\rho \geq a$ we obtain: $P_{\text{wire}} = -\oint_S \vec{S}_{\text{wire}} \cdot d\vec{a} = 0$!!!

What??? How can we get two different P_{wire} answers for $\rho < a$ vs. $\rho \geq a$??? This can't be!!!

⇒ We need to re-assess our assumptions here...

It turns out that we have neglected an important, and somewhat subtle point...

The longitudinal electric field $\vec{E} = (\Delta V/L) \hat{z}$ formally/mathematically has a discontinuity at $\rho = a$:

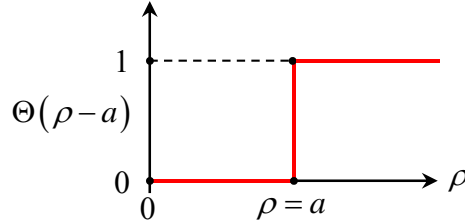


i.e. The tangential (\hat{z}) component of \vec{E} is discontinuous at $\rho = a$.

Formally/mathematically, we need to write the longitudinal electric field for this situation as:

$$\vec{E}(\rho) = \frac{\vec{J}_{free}}{\sigma_c} [1 - \Theta(\rho - a)] = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} [1 - \Theta(\rho - a)] \hat{z}$$

where the **Heaviside step function** is defined as: $\Theta(\rho - a) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \rho < a \\ 1 & \text{for } \rho \geq a \end{cases}$ as shown below:



Furthermore, note that: $\Theta(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \delta(t) dt$ and that: $\frac{d}{dx} \Theta(x) = \delta(x)$,

where $\delta(x)$ is the Dirac delta function.

Now, in the process of **deriving** Poynting's theorem (above), we used Griffith's Product Rule # 6 to obtain $\vec{E} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = \vec{B} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) - \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$, and then used Faraday's law (in differential form)

$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\partial \vec{B} / \partial t$ and then used $\vec{B} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{B} \cdot \vec{B}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (B^2)$ and $\vec{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{E} \cdot \vec{E}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (E^2)$

with $u_{EM} = \frac{1}{2} (\epsilon_o E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_o} B^2)$ to finally obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &= \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = \frac{dU_{mech}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int_v u_{mech} d\tau = \int_v \vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}_{free} d\tau \\ &= -\frac{dU_{EM}(t)}{dt} - \oint_s \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_v u_{EM} d\tau - \int_v \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S}(\vec{r}, t) d\tau \end{aligned}$$

So here, in this specific problem, what is $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$???

In cylindrical coordinates, the only non-vanishing term is:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} E_z \hat{\phi} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left\{ -\frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} [1 - \Theta(\rho - a)] \right\} \hat{\phi} = +\frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \frac{\partial \Theta(\rho - a)}{\partial \rho} \hat{\phi} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\text{In other words: } \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \rho < a \\ \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{\phi} & \text{for } \rho = a \\ 0 & \text{for } \rho > a \end{cases}$$

Thus, {only} for $\rho > a$ integration volumes, we {very definitely} need to {explicitly} include the δ -function such that its contribution to the integral at $\rho = a$ is properly taken into account!

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(t) &= \frac{dW(t)}{dt} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_V u_{EM} d\tau - \oint_S \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a} \\
 &= -\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \frac{1}{2} (\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2) d\tau - \oint_S \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \int_V \frac{d}{dt} E^2 d\tau - \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \int_V \frac{d}{dt} B^2 d\tau - \oint_S \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a} \\
 &= -\epsilon_0 \int_V \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} d\tau - \frac{1}{\mu_0} \int_V \vec{B} \cdot \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} d\tau - \oint_S \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a} \\
 &= -\epsilon_0 \int_V \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} d\tau + \frac{1}{\mu_0} \int_V \vec{B} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} d\tau - \oint_S \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a} \\
 &= -\epsilon_0 \int_V \vec{E} \cdot \frac{d\vec{E}}{dt} d\tau + \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\mu_0 \sigma_C} \int_V \vec{B} \cdot \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi} d\tau - \oint_S \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{a}
 \end{aligned}$$

For this specific problem: $d\vec{E}/dt = 0$ and for $\rho > a$, $\vec{S}(\rho > a) = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \underbrace{\vec{E}(\rho > a)}_{=0} \times \vec{B}(\rho > a) = 0$.

Thus for $\rho > a$:

$$P(t) = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\mu_0 \sigma_C} \int_V \vec{B} \cdot \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi} d\tau = 2\pi a L \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\mu_0 \sigma_C} |\vec{B}(\rho = a)| = \cancel{2\pi a L} \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\mu_0 \sigma_C} \frac{\cancel{\mu_0} I}{\cancel{2\pi a}} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_C} I \cdot L$$

But: $\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{J}_{free}}{\sigma_C} = \frac{\Delta V}{L} \hat{z}$, and thus, finally we obtain, for $\rho > a$: $P(t) = \frac{\Delta V}{L} I \cdot L = \Delta V \cdot I$,

which agrees precisely with that obtained earlier for $\rho < a$: $P(t) = \Delta V \cdot I$!!!

For an *E&M* problem that nominally has a **steady-state** current I present, it is indeed curious that

$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_C} \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$ is non-zero, and in fact singular {at $\rho = a$ }! The singularity is a consequence of the discontinuity in \vec{E} on the $\rho = a$ surface of the long, current-carrying wire.

The relativistic nature of the 4-dimensional space-time world that we live in is **encrypted** into Faraday's law; here is one example where we come face-to-face with it!

Let's pursue the physics of this problem a bit further – and calculate the magnetic vector potential $\vec{A}(\vec{r})$ inside ($\rho < a$) and outside ($\rho > a$) the long wire...

In general, we know/anticipate that {here}: $\vec{A}(\vec{r}) \parallel \vec{J}(\vec{r}) \parallel +\hat{z}$ since: $\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_o}{4\pi} \int_{V'} \frac{\vec{J}(\vec{r}')}{r} d\tau'$

where $r = |\vec{r}| \equiv |\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|$.

We don't need to carry out the above integral to obtain $\vec{A}(\vec{r})$ – a simpler method is to use $\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}(\vec{r})$ in cylindrical coordinates. Since $\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = A_z(\vec{r}) \hat{z}$ (only, here), the only non-zero contribution to this curl is: $\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = -\frac{\partial A_z(\vec{r})}{\partial \rho} \hat{\phi}$.

$$\text{For } \rho < a: \vec{B}(\rho < a) = \frac{\mu_o I \rho}{2\pi a^2} \hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_o J \rho \hat{\phi} = -\frac{\partial A_z(\rho < a)}{\partial \rho} \hat{\phi} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \vec{A}(\rho < a)}{\partial \rho} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J \rho \hat{z}$$

$$\text{For } \rho \geq a: \vec{B}(\rho \geq a) = \frac{\mu_o I}{2\pi \rho} \hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_o J a^2 \left(\frac{1}{\rho}\right) \hat{\phi} = -\frac{\partial A_z(\rho \geq a)}{\partial \rho} \hat{\phi} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \vec{A}(\rho \geq a)}{\partial \rho} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J a^2 \left(\frac{1}{\rho}\right) \hat{z}$$

Using $\rho = a$ as our reference point for carrying out the integration {and noting that as in the case for the scalar potential $V(\vec{r})$, we similarly have the freedom to *e.g.* add any constant vector to $\vec{A}(\vec{r})$ }:

$$\vec{A}(\rho < a) = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J \int \rho d\rho \hat{z} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J \frac{1}{2} (\rho^2 - c_1^2) \hat{z} = -\frac{1}{4} \mu_o J (\rho^2 - c_1^2) \hat{z}$$

$$\vec{A}(\rho \geq a) = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J a^2 \int \left(\frac{1}{\rho}\right) d\rho \hat{z} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J a^2 \ln(\rho/c_2) \hat{z}$$

where c_1 and c_2 are constants of the integration(s).

Physically, we demand that $\vec{A}(\rho)$ be continuous at $\rho = a$, thus we must have:

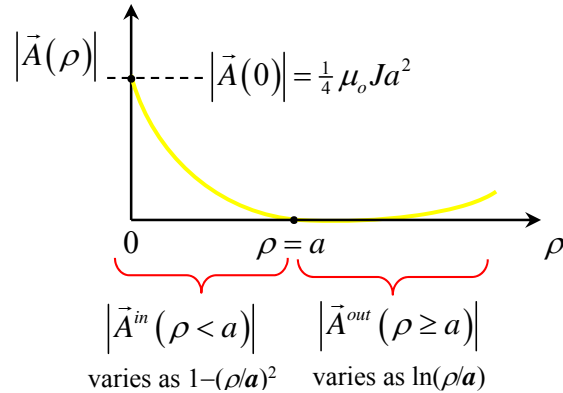
$$\vec{A}(\rho = a) = -\frac{1}{4} \mu_o J (a^2 - c_1^2) \hat{z} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J a^2 \ln(a/c_2) \hat{z}$$

Obviously, the only way that this relation can be satisfied is if $c_1 = c_2 = \pm a$, because then $\vec{A}(\rho = a) = 0$ {*n.b.* $\ln(1) = \ln e^0 = 0$ }.

Additionally, we demand that $\vec{A}(\vec{r}) \parallel \vec{J}(\vec{r}) \parallel +\hat{z}$, hence the physically acceptable solution is $c_1 = c_2 = -a$, and thus the solutions for the magnetic vector potential $\vec{A}(\vec{r})$ for this problem are:

$$\vec{A}(\rho < a) = -\frac{1}{4} \mu_o J (\rho^2 - a^2) \hat{z} = +\frac{1}{4} \mu_o J (a^2 - \rho^2) \hat{z}$$

$$\vec{A}(\rho \geq a) = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J a^2 \ln(\rho/-a) \hat{z} = +\frac{1}{2} \mu_o J a^2 \ln(\rho/a) \hat{z}$$



Note that: $\vec{A}(\rho \geq a) = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 J \ln(\rho/a) \hat{z}$ has a {logarithmic} divergence as $\rho \rightarrow \infty$, whereas:

$$\vec{B}(\rho \rightarrow \infty) = \nabla \times \vec{A}(\rho \rightarrow \infty) = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 J a^2 \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) \hat{\phi} \rightarrow 0$$

This is merely a consequence associated with the {computationally-simplifying} choice that we made at the beginning of this problem, that of an *infinitely* long wire – which is unphysical. It takes *infinite EM* energy to power an *infinitely* long wire... For a *finite* length wire carrying a steady current I , the magnetic vector potential is mathematically well-behaved {but has a correspondingly more complicated mathematical expression}.

It is easy to show that both of the solutions for the magnetic vector potential $\vec{A}(\rho \lesseqgtr a)$ satisfy the Coulomb gauge condition: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}(\vec{r}) = 0$, by noting that since $\vec{A}(\rho \lesseqgtr a) = A_z(\rho \lesseqgtr a) \hat{z}$ are functions only of ρ , then in cylindrical coordinates: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}(\rho \lesseqgtr a) = \partial A_z(\rho \lesseqgtr a) / \partial z = 0$.

Let us now investigate the ramifications of the non-zero curl result associated with Faraday's law at $\rho = a$ for the \vec{A} -field at that radial location:

$$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}}$$

Since $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = -\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial \rho} \hat{\phi}$ {here, in this problem}, then:

$$\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial \rho} \right) \hat{\phi} = -\frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi} \quad \text{or:} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial \rho} \right) = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \delta(\rho - a)$$

$$\text{Then: } \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial t} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \underbrace{\int \delta(\rho - a) d\rho}_{\equiv \Theta(\rho - a)} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \Theta(\rho - a) \quad \text{or:} \quad \boxed{\frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \Theta(\rho - a) \hat{z}}$$

Now, recall that the {correct!} electric field for this problem is:

$$\vec{E}(\rho) = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} [1 - \Theta(\rho - a)] \hat{z}$$

However, in general, the electric field is defined in terms of the scalar and vector potentials as:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = -\vec{\nabla}V(\vec{r}, t) - \frac{\partial \vec{A}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$$

Since {here, in this problem}: $\frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \Theta(\rho - a) \hat{z}$, we see that: $-\vec{\nabla}V = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{z}$

and hence {in cylindrical coordinates} that: $V(z) = -\frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} z$, then:

$$-\vec{\nabla}V = +\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} z \right) \hat{z} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (z) \hat{z} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{z}.$$

Note that the {static} scalar field $V(z) = -\frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} z$ pervades all space, as does $\vec{A}(\rho \lesseqgtr a) \parallel \hat{z}$.

Explicitly, due to the behavior of the Heaviside step function $\Theta(\rho - a)$ we see that the electric

field contribution $\frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \Theta(\rho - a) \hat{z}$ is: $\frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \rho < a \\ \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{z} & \text{for } \rho \geq a \end{cases}$.

Explicitly writing out the electric field in this manner, we see that:

$$\vec{E}(\rho \lesseqgtr a) = -\vec{\nabla}V(\rho \lesseqgtr a) - \frac{\partial \vec{A}(\rho \lesseqgtr a)}{\partial t} = \begin{cases} \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{z} + 0 = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{z} & \text{for } \rho < a \\ \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{z} - \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_c} \hat{z} = 0 & \text{for } \rho \geq a \end{cases}$$

Thus, for $\rho \geq a$ we see that the $-\partial \vec{A}(\rho \geq a)/\partial t$ contribution to the \vec{E} -field outside the wire {which arises from the non-zero $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ of Faraday's law at $\rho = a$ } exactly cancels the $-\vec{\nabla}V(\rho \geq a)$ contribution to the \vec{E} -field outside the wire, everywhere in space outside the wire, despite the fact that $\vec{A}(\rho \geq a)$ varies logarithmically outside the wire!!!!

The long, current-carrying wire can thus also be equivalently viewed as an **electric flux tube**:

$$\Phi_E = \int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \left(\left| \vec{J}_{free} \right| / \sigma_C \right) \int_S [1 - \Theta(\rho - a)] \hat{z} \cdot d\vec{a} = I / \sigma_C$$

The electric field \vec{E} is **confined** within the tube (= the long, current carrying wire) by the $-\partial\vec{A}(\rho \geq a)/\partial t$ contribution arising from the Faraday's law effect on the $\rho = a$ boundary of the flux tube, due to the {matter geometry-induced} discontinuity in the electric field at $\rho = a$!

The $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = \left(\left| \vec{J}_{free} \right| / \sigma_C \right) \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi} = -\partial\vec{B}/\partial t$ effect at $\rho = a$ also predicts a **non-zero** “induced” *EMF* in a loop/coil of wire: $\mathcal{E} = -\partial\Phi_m/\partial t$. The magnetic flux through a loop of wire is:

$\Phi_m = \oint_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{a} \approx B \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}$ where A_{\perp}^{loop} is the cross-sectional area of a loop of wire {whose plane is perpendicular to the magnetic field at that point}. Note further that the width, w of the coil only needs to be large enough for the coil to accept the $\partial\vec{B}/\partial t$ contribution from the δ -function at $\rho = a$. Then, here in **this** problem, since the magnetic field at the surface of the wire is oriented in the $\hat{\phi}$ -direction, and:

$$\frac{\partial\vec{B}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\left| \vec{J}_{free} \right|}{\sigma_C} \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi}, \text{ then we see that: } \mathcal{E} = -\frac{\partial\Phi_m}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial\vec{B} \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}}{\partial t} = \frac{\left| \vec{J}_{free} \right| \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}}{\sigma_C} \delta(\rho - a)$$

For a **real** wire, *e.g.* made of copper, how large will this *EMF* be – is it something *e.g.* that we could actually measure/observe in the laboratory with garden-variety/every-day lab equipment???

A number 8 AWG (American Wire Gauge) copper wire has a diameter $D = 0.1285'' = 0.00162 \text{ m}$ ($\sim 1/8'' = 0.125''$) and can easily carry $I = 10$ Amps of current through it.

The current density in an 8 AWG copper wire carrying a steady current of $I = 10$ Amps is:

$$J_{8AWG} = \frac{I}{\pi a^2} = \frac{4 \cdot I}{\pi D^2} = \frac{4 \cdot 10}{\pi (0.001632)^2} \approx 4.8 \times 10^6 \text{ (Amps/m}^2\text{)}$$

The electrical conductivity of {pure} copper is: $\sigma_C^{Cu} = 5.96 \times 10^7 \text{ (Siemens/m)}$.

If our “long” 1/8” diameter copper wire is $L = 1 \text{ m}$ long, and if we can *e.g.* make a loop of ultra-fine gauge wire that penetrates the surface of the wire and runs parallel to the surface, then if we approximate the radial delta function $\delta(\rho - a)$ at $\rho = a$ as \sim a narrow Gaussian of width

$w \sim 10 \text{ \AA} = 1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$ (*i.e.* \sim the order of the inter-atomic distance/spacing of atoms in the copper lattice { 3.61 \AA }), noting also that the delta function $\delta(\rho - a)$ has physical SI units of inverse length (*i.e.* m^{-1}) and, neglecting the sign of the *EMF*, an estimate of the magnitude of the “induced” *EMF* is:

$$\mathcal{E}_{Cu} = \frac{J_{8AWG} \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}}{\sigma_C^{Cu}} \delta(\rho - a) \approx \frac{J_{8AWG} \cdot L \cdot \cancel{w}}{\sigma_C^{Cu}} \cdot \cancel{w} = \left(\frac{J_{8AWG}}{\sigma_C^{Cu}} \right) \cdot L \approx \left(\frac{4.8 \times 10^6 \text{ (Amps/m}^2\text{)}}{6 \times 10^7 \text{ (Siemens/m)}} \right) \cdot 1 \text{ m} \approx 80 \text{ mV !!!}$$

This size of an *EMF* is **easily** measureable with a modern *DVM*...

Using Ohm's Law: $V = I \cdot R$, note that the voltage drop V_{drop} across a $L = 1\text{ m}$ length of 8 AWG copper wire with $I = 10\text{ Amps}$ of current flowing thru it is:

$$V_{drop}^{1m} = I \cdot R_{1m} = I \cdot \frac{\rho_C^{Cu} L}{A_{\perp}^{wire}} = \left(J_{8AWG} \cdot \cancel{A_{\perp}^{wire}} \right) \cdot \frac{L}{\cancel{\sigma_C^{Cu} A_{\perp}^{wire}}} = \frac{J_{8AWG}}{\sigma_C^{Cu}} \cdot L = \varepsilon_{Cu} !!!$$

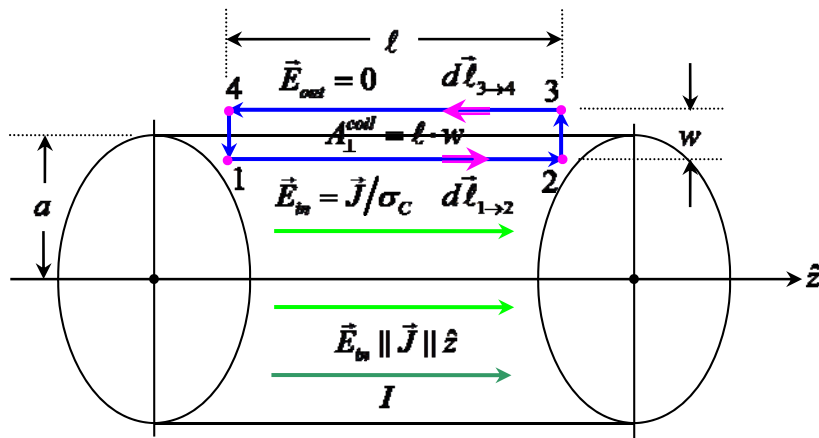
In other words, the “induced” EMF , $\varepsilon = \left(\left| \vec{J}_{free} \right| \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop} / \sigma_C \right) \delta(\rho - a)$ in the one-turn loop coil of length L {oriented as described above} is **precisely** equal to the voltage drop $V_{drop} = \left(\left| \vec{J}_{free} \right| / \sigma_C \right) \cdot L$ along a length L of a portion of the long wire with steady current I flowing through it, even though the 1-turn loop coil is completely electrically isolated from the current-carrying wire!!!

This can be easily understood... Using Stoke's theorem, the surface integral of $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ can be converted to a line integral of \vec{E} along a closed contour C bounding the surface of integration S ; likewise, a surface integral of $\partial \vec{B} / \partial t = \vec{\nabla} \times \partial \vec{A} / \partial t$ can be converted to a line integral of $\partial \vec{A} / \partial t$ along a closed contour C bounding the surface of integration S :

$$\varepsilon = \int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) \cdot d\vec{a} = \oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = -\frac{\partial \Phi_m}{\partial t} = -\int_S \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{a} = -\int_S \left(\vec{\nabla} \times \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\vec{a} = -\oint_C \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{\ell}$$

$$n.b.: \oint_C -\vec{\nabla} V \cdot d\vec{\ell} \equiv 0$$

Then for any closed contour C associated with the surface S that encloses the Faraday law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ δ -function singularity at $\rho = a$, e.g. as shown in the figure below:



the “induced” EMF ε can thus also be calculated from the line integral $\int_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell}$ taken around the closed contour C . From the above discussion(s), the electric field inside (outside) the long current-carrying wire is $\vec{E}_{in} = \vec{J} / \sigma_C$ ($\vec{E}_{out} = 0$), respectively {n.b. \Rightarrow tangential \vec{E} is **discontinuous** across the boundary of a {volume} current-carrying conductor!}. Then:

$$\varepsilon = \int_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \int_1^2 \underbrace{\vec{E}_{in}^{1 \rightarrow 2} \cdot d\vec{\ell}_{1 \rightarrow 2}}_{=J/\sigma_C = E\ell = \Delta V_{1 \rightarrow 2}} + \int_2^3 \underbrace{\vec{E}^{2 \rightarrow 3} \cdot d\vec{\ell}_{2 \rightarrow 3}}_{=0} + \int_3^4 \underbrace{\vec{E}_{outside}^{3 \rightarrow 4} \cdot d\vec{\ell}_{3 \rightarrow 4}}_{=0} + \int_4^1 \underbrace{\vec{E}^{4 \rightarrow 1} \cdot d\vec{\ell}_{4 \rightarrow 1}}_{=0} = E \cdot \ell = \Delta V_{1 \rightarrow 2}$$

The presence of a non-zero Faraday's law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\partial \vec{B} / \partial t = \left(|\vec{J}_{free}| / \sigma_C \right) \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi}$ term at the surface of the long current-carrying wire implies that the “induced” *EMF* $\varepsilon = \left(|\vec{J}_{free}| \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop} / \sigma_C \right) \delta(\rho - a)$ can also be viewed as arising from the **mutual** inductance M (*Henrys*) associated with the long wire and the coil {oriented as described above}, and a non-zero $\partial I / \partial t$:

$$\varepsilon = -\frac{\partial \Phi_m}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B} \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}}{\partial t} = -M \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}| \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}}{\sigma_C} \delta(\rho - a)$$

We can obtain a relation between $\partial \vec{B} / \partial t$ and $\partial I / \partial t$ using the integral form of Ampere's law: $\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_o I_{encl}$. Taking the partial derivative of both sides of this equation with respect to time:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} \right) = \oint_C \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_o \frac{\partial I_{encl}}{\partial t}$$

The contour of integration C needs to be taken just outside the surface of the long wire, along the $\hat{\phi}$ -direction, since $\vec{B} \parallel \hat{\phi}$ at $\rho = a$, i.e. $d\vec{\ell} \parallel \hat{\phi}$ in order to include the non-zero Faraday's law effect at the surface of the long wire.

$$\text{Then: } \frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{\mu_o}{2\pi a} \right) \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = -\frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_C} \delta(\rho - a) \quad \text{or:} \quad \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{2\pi a}{\mu_o} \right) \frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = -\left(\frac{2\pi a}{\mu_o} \right) \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}|}{\sigma_C} \delta(\rho - a)$$

$$\text{Then: } \varepsilon = -\frac{\partial \Phi_m}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B} \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}}{\partial t} = -M \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}| \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop}}{\sigma_C} \delta(\rho - a)$$

Solving for the mutual inductance, we obtain a rather simple result: $M = \mu_o \left(\frac{A_{\perp}^{loop}}{2\pi a} \right)$ (*Henrys*)

Note that the mutual inductance, M involves the magnetic permeability of free space $\mu_o = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ (*Henrys/m*) {*n.b.* which has SI units of inductance/length} and geometrical aspects {only!} of the wire (its radius, a) and the cross-sectional area of the loop, A_{\perp}^{loop} .

What is astonishing {and unique} *r.e.* the “induced” Faraday's law *EMF* $\varepsilon = \left(|\vec{J}_{free}| \cdot A_{\perp}^{loop} / \sigma_C \right) \delta(\rho - a)$ associated with a long, steady current-carrying wire is that “normal” induced *EMF*'s **only** occur in electrical circuits that operate at **non-zero** frequencies, i.e. $f > 0$ Hz. However, **here**, in **this** problem, we have an example of a **DC** induced *EMF* – i.e. an induced *EMF* that occurs at $f \equiv 0$ Hz, arising from the non-zero Faraday's law effect $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\partial \vec{B} / \partial t = \left(|\vec{J}_{free}| / \sigma_C \right) \delta(\rho - a) \hat{\phi}$ due to the longitudinal \vec{E} -field discontinuity at the surface ($\rho = a$) of a long, **steady** current-carrying wire!!!

Instead of using a long wire to carry a steady current I to observe this effect, one might instead consider using *e.g.* a long, hollow steady current-carrying **pipe** of inner (outer) radius a , (b) respectively. Following the above methodology, one can easily show that for such a long, hollow current-carrying pipe, **two opposing** non-zero Faraday law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ radial δ -function contributions occur – one located at the $\rho = a$ inner surface, and the other located at the $\rho = b$ outer surface of the long hollow current-carrying pipe:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\partial \vec{B} / \partial t = -\left(|\vec{J}_{free}| / \sigma_C \right) [\delta(\rho - a) - \delta(\rho - b)] \hat{\phi}$$

The \vec{E} -field is:

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} V - \partial \vec{A} / \partial t = \left(|\vec{J}_{free}| / \sigma_C \right) [1 + \bar{\Theta}(\rho - a) - \Theta(\rho - b)] \hat{z}$$


where: $\bar{\Theta}(\rho - a) \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } \rho < a \\ 0 & \text{for } \rho \geq a \end{cases}$ is the **complement** of the Heaviside step function, such that:

$d\Theta(x)/dx = -\delta(x)$ and: $\bar{\Theta}(x) = -\int_{-\infty}^x \delta(t) dt$ where: $\delta(x)$ is the Dirac delta-function.

Hence, a 1-turn coil {oriented as described above} enclosing the $\rho = a$ inner surface **and** the $\rho = b$ outer surface of a current-carrying hollow pipe will have a “null” induced *EMF*, *i.e.* $\varepsilon = 0$ due to the wire loop **simultaneously** enclosing the **two opposing** non-zero Faraday law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ radial δ -function contributions, one located at $\rho = a$, the other at $\rho = b$:

$$\varepsilon = -\frac{\partial \Phi_m}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B} \cdot \vec{A}_{\perp}^{loop}}{\partial t} = \frac{|\vec{J}_{free}| \cdot \vec{A}_{\perp}^{loop}}{\sigma_C} (\delta(\rho - a) - \delta(\rho - b)) = 0$$

In general, **any** penetration/hole made into the metal conductor of a long, steady current-carrying wire will result in a non-zero Faraday law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ δ -function on the boundary/surface of that penetration/hole! Since the current density $\vec{J}_{free} = 0$ in the penetration/hole, $\vec{E} = 0$ there and thus a discontinuity in \vec{E} exists on the boundary of the penetration/hole, hence a non-zero Faraday law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ δ -function exists on the boundary of the penetration/hole!

This fact {unfortunately} has **important** ramifications for the experimental detection / observation of the predicted non-zero *DC* induced *EMF* in a coil {oriented as described above}, Embedding a portion of a physical wire loop inside the long, steady current-carrying wire requires making a penetration/hole {no matter how small} into the wire, which **will** result in a non-zero Faraday law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ δ -function on the boundary/surface of that penetration/hole in the wire! Thus, the wire loop will in fact enclose **not only** the Faraday law $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}$ radial singularity at $\rho = a$ on the surface of the wire, but will **also** enclose **another, opposing** singularity located on the boundary/surface of the penetration/hole made into the long wire {which was made to embed a portion of the wire loop in a long, steady current-carrying wire in the first place}, thus experimentally, a “null” induced *EMF*, *i.e.* $\varepsilon = 0$ is expected/anticipated, because of this... 

Hence, in the **real** world of experimental physics, it appears that embedding a portion of a **real** wire loop in a long, steady current-carrying wire in an attempt to observe this effect is doomed to failure...