

# Lecture 24

## Faraday's Law

$$\Phi = \int \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA = \text{magnetic flux}$$

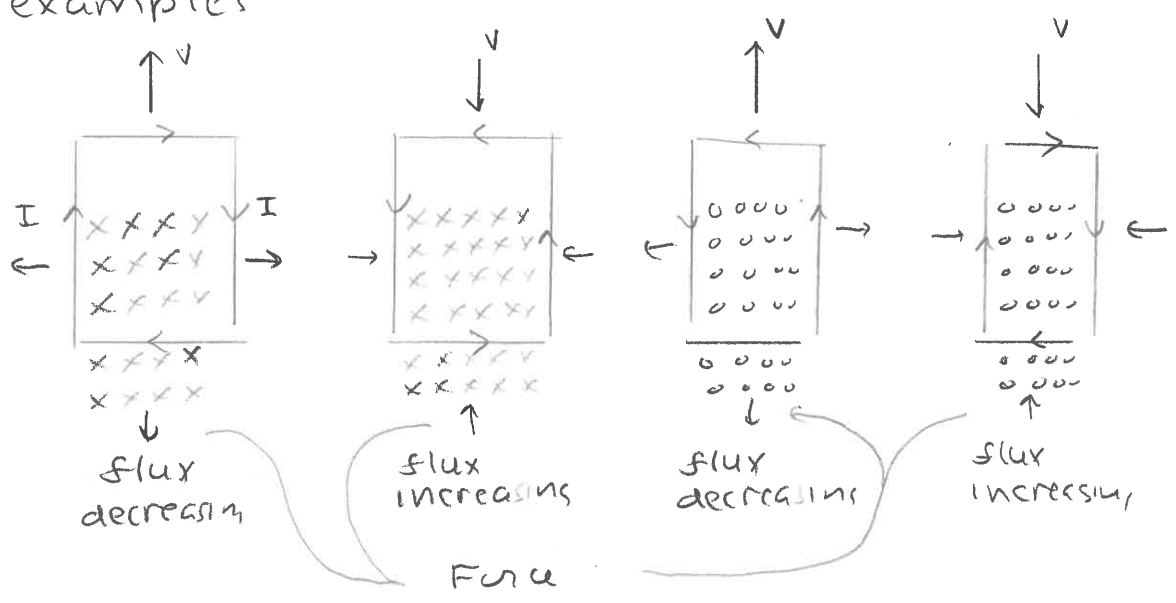
$$\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = - \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{e}$$

\* The integral is around the boundary of the area, counter clockwise relative to the normal vector for the area.

\* The - sign means that the created EMF opposes the change in the magnetic flux

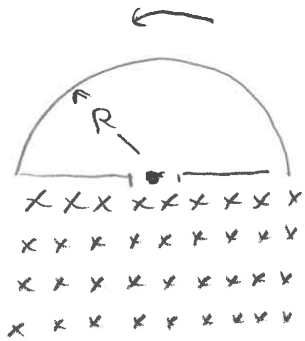
this is called Lenz's law

4 examples



illustrates - sign →

square wave generator



$$\phi = \omega t$$

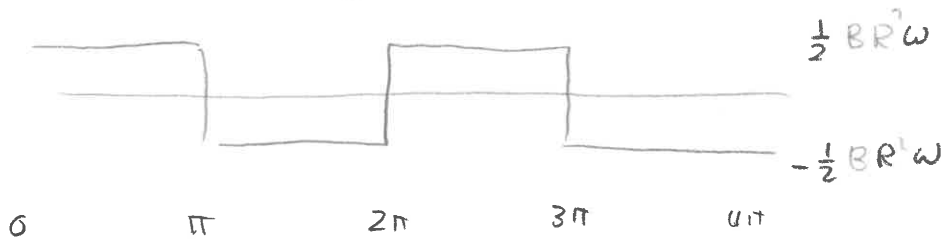
$\theta: 0 \rightarrow \pi$  flux increases


$$\Phi = B \cdot R^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = BR^2 \frac{\omega t}{2}$$

$\theta: \pi \rightarrow 2\pi$  flux decreases

$$\Phi = -BR^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = -BR^2 \frac{\omega t}{2}$$

$$\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} BR^2 \omega \begin{cases} + & 2n\pi < \theta < (2n+1)\pi \\ - & (2n+1)\pi < \theta < (2n+2)\pi \end{cases}$$



periodically flipping the wires at each multiple of  $\pi$   give

a dc emf.

differential form of Faradays Law

Let  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  be small and consider

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x \Delta y} \int_x^{x+\Delta x} dx' \int_y^{y+\Delta y} dy' \frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t}(x', y', z, t) \cdot \hat{z} =$$

$$- \frac{1}{\Delta x \Delta y} \left( \int_x^{x+\Delta x} E_x(x', y, z, t) dx' + \int_y^{y+\Delta y} E_y(x+\Delta x, y', z, t) dy' + \int_{x+\Delta x}^x dx' E_x(x', y+\Delta y, z, t) + \int_{y+\Delta y}^y E_y(x, y', z, t) dy' \right)$$

The differential form of Faradays law follows by taking the limit as  $\Delta x \Delta y \rightarrow 0$

To calculate this we only need to retain the leading terms

$$\frac{\Delta x \Delta y}{\Delta x \Delta y} \frac{\partial B_z(x,y,z,t)}{\partial t} + \frac{O(\Delta^3)}{\Delta x \Delta y} =$$

$$- \frac{1}{\Delta x \Delta y} ( E_y(x,y,z,t) \Delta x + E_y(x+\Delta x, y, z, t) \Delta y$$

$$- E_x(x, y+\Delta y, z, t) \Delta x - E_x(x, y, z, t) \Delta y$$

$$O(\Delta^3) ) =$$

$$- \frac{1}{\Delta x \Delta y} ( \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x}(x,y,z,t) \Delta x \Delta y - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y}(x,y,z,t) \Delta y \Delta x$$

$$+ O(\Delta^3) )$$

In the limit  $\Delta x \Delta y \rightarrow 0$  what survives

$$\frac{\partial B_z}{\partial t}(x,y,z,t) = - \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x}(x,y,z,t) + \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y}(x,y,z,t)$$

using the yz and zx planes gives

$$\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial t}(x,y,z,t) = - \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial y}(x,y,z,t) + \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial z}(x,y,z,t)$$

$$\frac{\partial B_y}{\partial t}(x,y,z,t) = - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial z}(x,y,z,t) + \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial x}(x,y,z,t)$$

we can express this in terms of unit vectors

$$\hat{z} \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial t}(x, y, z, t) = \underbrace{\left( -\hat{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \hat{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \times \left( \hat{x} \bar{E}_x + \hat{y} \bar{E}_y \right)}_{\text{the cross products give } \pm \hat{z}}$$

we can summarize all 3 equations using

$$\frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t}(x, y, z, t) = - \left( \hat{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \times \bar{E}$$

recall

$$\bar{\nabla} = \hat{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

which allows us to write Faraday's law as

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial \bar{B}}{\partial t} = - \bar{\nabla} \times \bar{E}}$$

If we integrate  $\int \hat{n} dA = 0$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int \bar{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA = - \int (\bar{\nabla} \times \bar{E}) \cdot \hat{n} dA$$

using Faraday's law

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int \bar{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA = - \oint \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{\ell}$$

equating both sides gives

$$* \quad \int_A (\nabla \times \vec{E}) \cdot \hat{n} dA = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell}$$

Here the magnetic field does not appear. This is a general result for any vector field

We can use this in ampere's law to get

$$\begin{aligned} \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} &= \mu_0 I = \mu_0 \int \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n} dA \\ &= \int (\nabla \times \vec{B}) \cdot \hat{n} dA \end{aligned}$$

Since this must hold for arbitrary surfaces we get the differential form of Ampere's Law

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

The integral relation that we derived is called Stoke's theorem.

## Inductors

consider a solenoid with  $n$  turns / length.  
The magnetic field in the solenoid follows from ampere's law

$$\oint B = \mu_0 n I l$$

$$B = \mu_0 n I$$

the total flux is

$$\Phi = BANl$$

putting these together

$$\Phi = (\mu_0 n I) A n l$$

$$\Phi = \mu_0 n^2 A l \cdot I$$

The ratio of the magnetic flux to the current in the solenoid is called the inductance " $L$ " of the solenoid

$$L \equiv \frac{\Phi}{I} = \frac{\text{Tesla} \cdot (\text{meter})^2}{\text{ampere}} = \text{Henry}$$

In this case

$$L = \mu_0 n^2 A l \quad \text{solenoid}$$

an inductor is a circuit element.  
It is expressed by a symbol

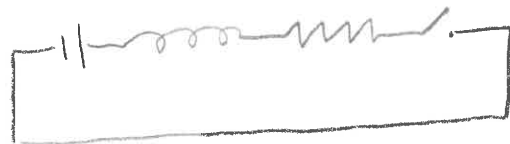


that looks like a solenoid. Since

$$\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = L \frac{dI}{dt} = -\mathcal{E}$$

gives the voltage drop across the inductor.

Consider RL circuits;



Initially the circuit is open.  
When the switch is closed the  
loop equation gives

$$\mathcal{E} - L \frac{dI}{dt} - IR = 0$$

Initially there is no current  
so  $I(0) = 0$ , this is a differential  
equation

$$L \frac{dI}{dt} = \mathcal{E} - IR$$

$$\frac{dI}{\mathcal{E} - IR} = \frac{dt}{L}$$

we write this as

$$\frac{dI}{I - \mathcal{E}/R} = -\frac{R}{L} dt$$

Let  $u = I - \mathcal{E}/R$      $du = dI$

$$\frac{du}{u} = -\frac{R}{L} dt$$

Integrating

$$\int_{I(0) - \mathcal{E}/R}^{I(t) - \mathcal{E}/R} \frac{du}{u} = -\int_0^t \frac{R}{L} dt$$

The integral gives

$$\ln(I(t) - \mathcal{E}/R) - \ln(I(0) - \mathcal{E}/R) = -\frac{R}{L} t$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{I(t) - \mathcal{E}/R}{I(0) - \mathcal{E}/R}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{\mathcal{E}/R - I(t)}{\mathcal{E}/R - I(0)}\right) = -\frac{R}{L} t$$

taking exponentials of both sides

$$\frac{\mathcal{E}/R - I(t)}{\mathcal{E}/R - I(0)} = e^{-\frac{R}{L} t}$$

solving for  $I(t)$



$$\epsilon/R - I(t) = (\epsilon/R - I(0)) e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$$

$$I(t) = \frac{\epsilon}{R} (1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}) + I(0) e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$$

If  $I(0) = 0$  this becomes

$$I(t) = \frac{\epsilon}{R} (1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t})$$

at time 0 the current vanishes -  
after a long time it becomes  $\epsilon/R$

Once the full current is established  
and the battery is shorted out

$$0 - L \frac{dI}{dt} - IR = 0$$

$$I(0) = \frac{\epsilon}{R}$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = -\frac{R}{L} I$$

$$\frac{dI}{I} = -\frac{R}{L} dt$$

Integrating

$$\int_{\epsilon/R}^{I(t)} \frac{dI}{I} = -\int_0^t \frac{R}{L} dt = -\frac{R}{L} t$$

$$\ln I(t) - \ln(\epsilon/R) = -\frac{R}{L} t$$

$$\frac{I(t)}{\frac{\mathcal{E}}{R}} = e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$$

$$I(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$$

in this case the current eventually goes to 0

the power dissipated in the resistor as a function of time

$$P = I^2(t)R$$

$$= \frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{R^2} R e^{-\frac{2R}{L}t}$$

$$P = \frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{R} e^{-\frac{2R}{L}t}$$

the total energy stored in the inductor "

$$\int_0^{\infty} P(t) dt = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{R} e^{-\frac{2R}{L}t} dt$$

$$u = \frac{2R}{L}t \quad du = \frac{2R}{L}dt \quad dt = \frac{L}{2R}du$$

$$\text{energy} = \frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{R} \cdot \frac{L}{2R} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} du$$

$$= \frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{2R^2} L (-e^{-\infty} + e^0)$$

This means that the energy stored in the inductor is

$$\text{energy} = \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}}{R}\right)^2 \frac{L}{2} = \frac{1}{2} I^2 L$$

This shows that inductors store energy. Note

$$\Phi = IL \quad I = \frac{\Phi}{L}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{energy} &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\Phi^2}{L^2}\right) L \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Phi^2}{L} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{energy} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(BNA)^2}{L}$$

for the case of a solenoid

$$L = \mu_0 n^2 A \ell$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{energy} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{(BNA)^2}{\mu_0 n^2 A \ell} = \\ &= \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \frac{(BN)^2 A \ell}{(n \ell)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \frac{(BN)^2}{N^2} A \ell \\ &= \frac{1}{2\mu_0} B^2 A \ell \end{aligned}$$

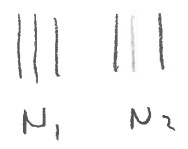
$$\boxed{\frac{\text{energy}}{Al} = \frac{1}{2\mu} B^2}$$

since for a solenoid all of the magnetic field is inside of the solenoid.

The energy density in a magnetic field is

$$\boxed{\left( \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{density}} \right) = \frac{1}{2\mu} B^2}$$

Mutual Induction - consider 2 solenoids adjacent to each other the first with  $N_1$  turns and the second with  $N_2$  turns



The magnetic field in the second inductor due to a current in the first inductor is

$$B_1 = \mu_0 N_1 I$$

The resulting magnetic flux

this is not exact because the solenoid is not infinite and we are at the edges

the flux through the second solenoid is

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_2 &= N_2 B_1 A_2 \\ &= N_2 (\mu_0 N_1 I_1) A_2 \\ &= (\mu_0 N_1 N_2 A) I_1\end{aligned}$$

If we differentiate both sides of this equation we get

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -\frac{d\Phi_2}{dt} = -(\mu_0 N_1 N_2 A) \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$

In this idealized example

$$M = \mu_0 N_1 N_2 A$$

is called the mutual inductance. In order to properly treat the non uniformity of the field we define

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -M_{21} \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = -M_{12} \frac{dI_2}{dt}$$

(changing the current in each coil induces an emf in the other coil.)

while it is not immediately obvious,  
in general

$$M_{12} = M_{21} = M$$

is called the mutual inductance.

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