

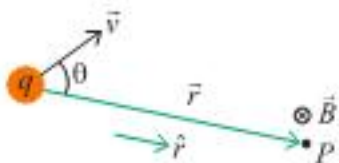
Chapter 7

Magnetic Field

7.1 Magnetic Field

A moving charge $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{experiences magnetic force in B-field.} \\ \text{can generate B-field.} \end{array} \right.$

Magnetic field \vec{B} due to moving point charge:

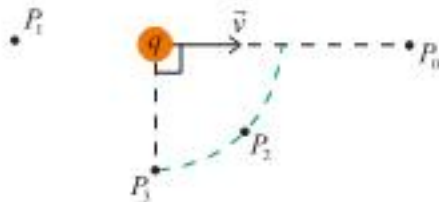


$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{q\vec{v} \times \hat{r}}{r^2} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{q\vec{v} \times \vec{r}}{r^3}$$

where $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ Tm/A (N/A}^2\text{)}$

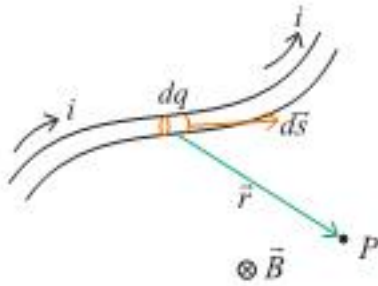
Permeability of free space (Magnetic constant)

$$|\vec{B}| = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{qv \sin \theta}{r^2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{maximum when } \theta = 90^\circ \\ \text{minimum when } \theta = 0^\circ/180^\circ \end{array} \right.$$



$$\begin{array}{l} \vec{B} \text{ at } P_0 = 0 = \vec{B} \text{ at } P_1 \\ \vec{B} \text{ at } P_2 < \vec{B} \text{ at } P_3 \end{array}$$

However, a single moving charge will NOT generate a steady magnetic field.
stationary charges generate steady E-field.
steady currents generate steady B-field.



Magnetic field at point P can be obtained by *integrating* the contribution from individual current segments. (Principle of Superposition)

$$\therefore d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{dq \vec{v} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

Notice: $dq \vec{v} = dq \cdot \frac{d\vec{s}}{dt} = i d\vec{s}$

$$\boxed{d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{i d\vec{s} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}} \quad \text{Biot-Savart Law}$$

For current around a whole circuit:

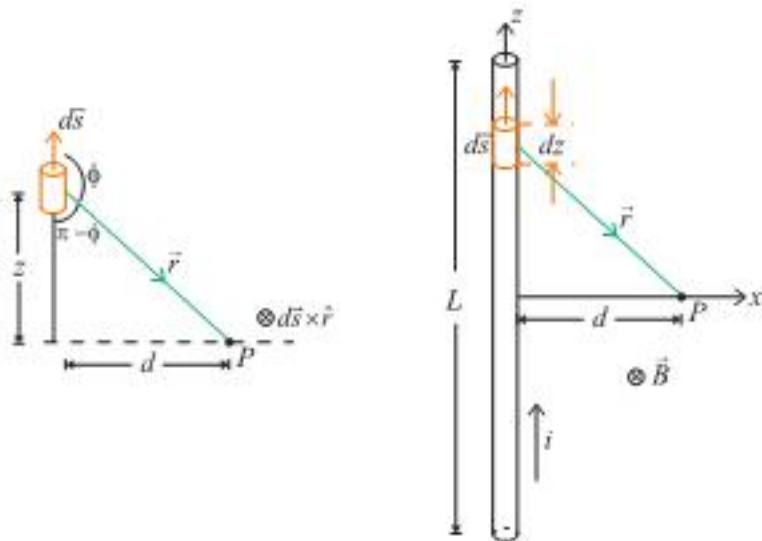
$$\vec{B} = \int_{\text{entire circuit}} d\vec{B} = \int_{\text{entire circuit}} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{i d\vec{s} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

Biot-Savart Law is to *magnetic field* as
Coulomb's Law is to *electric field*.

Basic element of E-field: *Electric charges* dq

Basic element of B-field: *Current element* $i d\vec{s}$

Example 1 : Magnetic field due to straight current segment



$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore |d\vec{s} \times \vec{r}| &= dz \sin \phi \\
 &= dz \sin(\pi - \phi) \quad (\text{Trigonometry Identity}) \\
 &= dz \cdot \frac{d}{r} = \frac{d \cdot dz}{\sqrt{d^2 + z^2}} \\
 dB &= \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{i dz}{r^2} \cdot \frac{d}{r} = \frac{\mu_0 i}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{d}{(d^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} dz \\
 \therefore B &= \int_{-L/2}^{+L/2} dB = \frac{\mu_0 i d}{4\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{+L/2} \frac{dz}{(d^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \\
 B &= \frac{\mu_0 i}{4\pi d} \cdot \frac{z}{(z^2 + d^2)^{1/2}} \Big|_{-L/2}^{+L/2} \\
 B &= \frac{\mu_0 i}{4\pi d} \cdot \frac{L}{\left(\frac{L^2}{4} + d^2\right)^{1/2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

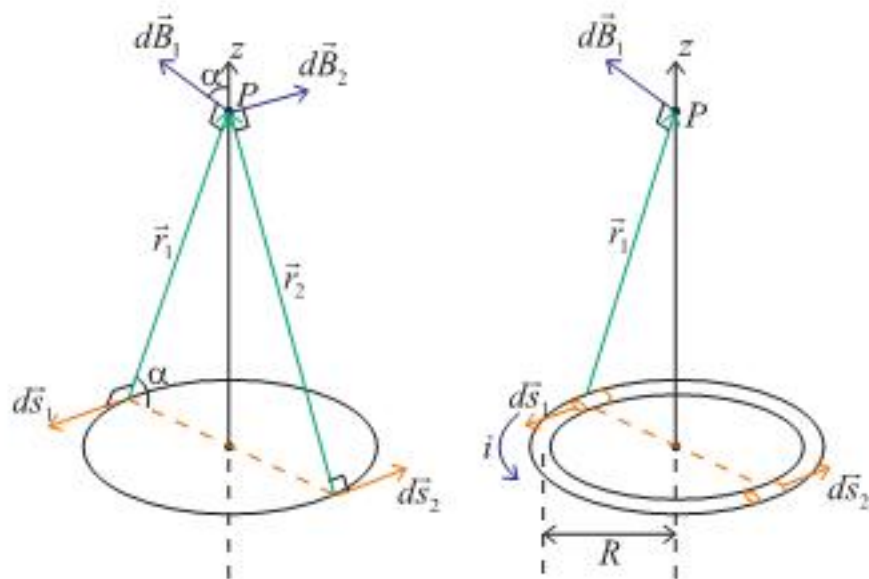
Limiting Cases : When $L \gg d$ (B-field due to long wire)

$$\left(\frac{L^2}{4} + d^2\right)^{-1/2} \approx \left(\frac{L^2}{4}\right)^{-1/2} = \frac{2}{L}$$

$$\therefore B = \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi d}; \quad \text{direction of B-field determined from right-hand screw rule}$$

Recall : $E = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 d}$ for an infinite long line of charge.

Example 2 : A circular current loop



Notice that for every current element $id\vec{s}_1$, generating a magnetic field $d\vec{B}_1$ at point P , there is an opposite current element $id\vec{s}_2$, generating B-field $d\vec{B}_2$ so that

$$d\vec{B}_1 \sin \alpha = -d\vec{B}_2 \sin \alpha$$

\therefore Only vertical component of B-field needs to be considered at point P .

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{i ds \sin \overbrace{90^\circ}^{d\vec{s} \perp \vec{r}}}{r^2}$$

\therefore B-field at point P :

$$B = \int_{\text{around circuit}} dB \underbrace{\cos \alpha}_{\text{consider vertical component}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore B &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\mu_0 i \cos \alpha}{4\pi r^2} \cdot \underbrace{ds}_{R d\theta} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 i}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{R}{r^3} \underbrace{\int_0^{2\pi} ds}_{\text{Integrate around circumference of circle} = 2\pi R} \\ \therefore B &= \frac{\mu_0 i R^2}{2r^3} \end{aligned}$$

$B = \frac{\mu_0 i R^2}{2(R^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$	direction of B-field determined from <i>right-hand screw rule</i>
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Limiting Cases :

(1) B-field at center of loop:

$$z = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boxed{B = \frac{\mu_0 i}{2R}}$$

(2) For $z \gg R$,

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 i R^2}{2z^3 \left(1 + \frac{R^2}{z^2}\right)^{3/2}} \approx \frac{\mu_0 i R^2}{2z^3} \propto \frac{1}{z^3}$$

Recall E-field for an electric dipole: $E = \frac{p}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^3}$

\therefore A circular current loop is also called a **magnetic dipole**.

(3) A current arc:



$$\begin{aligned}
 B &= \int_{\text{around circuit}} dB \underbrace{\cos \alpha}_{\substack{z=0 \Rightarrow \\ \alpha=0 \text{ here.}}} \\
 &= \frac{\mu_0 i}{4\pi} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{R}{r^3}}_{\substack{R=r \\ \text{when } \alpha=0}} \cdot \int_0^\theta \underbrace{\frac{ds}{Rd\theta}}_{\text{length of arc}} \\
 B &= \frac{\mu_0 i \theta}{4\pi R}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 3 : Magnetic field of a solenoid

Solenoid is used to produce a *strong and uniform* magnetic field inside its coils.



Solenoid



Tightly-packed coils of wire

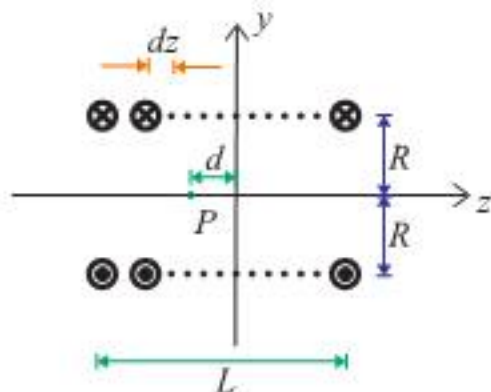
Consider a solenoid of length L consisting of N turns of wire.

Define: n = Number of turns per unit length = $\frac{N}{L}$

Consider B-field at distance d from the center of the solenoid:

For a segment of length dz , number of current turns = ndz

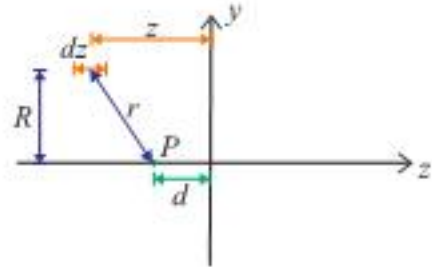
\therefore Total current = $ni dz$



Using the result from one coil in Example 2, we get B-field from coils of length dz at distance z from center:

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0(ni dz)R^2}{2r^3}$$

However $r = \sqrt{R^2 + (z - d)^2}$



$$\begin{aligned} \therefore B &= \int_{-L/2}^{+L/2} dB \quad (\text{Integrating over the entire solenoid}) \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 ni R^2}{2} \int_{-L/2}^{+L/2} \frac{dz}{[R^2 + (z - d)^2]^{3/2}} \\ B &= \frac{\mu_0 ni}{2} \left[\frac{\frac{L}{2} + d}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\frac{L}{2} + d)^2}} + \frac{\frac{L}{2} - d}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\frac{L}{2} - d)^2}} \right] \\ &\quad \text{along negative } z \text{ direction} \end{aligned}$$

Ideal Solenoid :

$$L \gg R$$

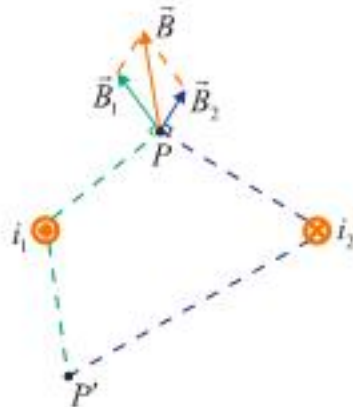
$$\text{then } B = \frac{\mu_0 ni}{2} [1 + 1]$$

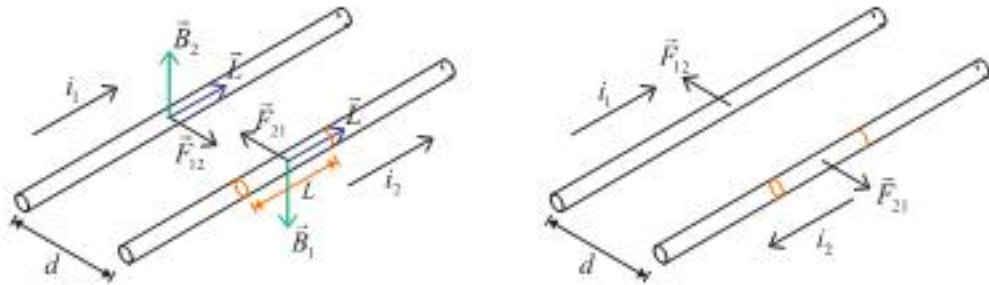
$$\therefore \boxed{B = \mu_0 ni ; \text{ direction of B-field determined from right-hand screw rule}}$$

Question : What is the B-field at the end of an ideal solenoid? $B = \frac{\mu_0 ni}{2}$

7.2 Parallel Currents

Magnetic field at point P \vec{B} due to two currents i_1 and i_2 is the *vector sum* of the \vec{B} fields \vec{B}_1 , \vec{B}_2 due to individual currents. (**Principle of Superposition**)



Force Between Parallel Currents :

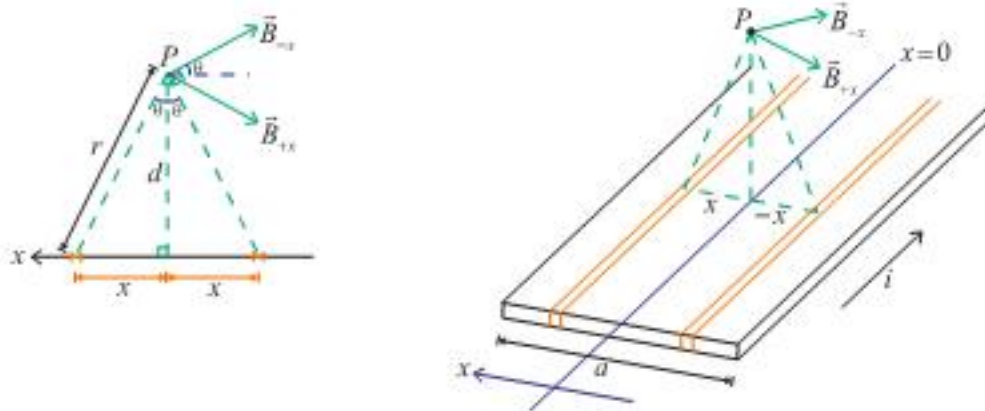
Consider a segment of length L on i_2 :

$$\vec{B}_1 = \frac{\mu_0 i_1}{2\pi d} \quad (\text{pointing down}) \quad \vec{B}_2 = \frac{\mu_0 i_2}{2\pi d} \quad (\text{pointing up})$$

Force on i_2 coming from i_1 :

$$|\vec{F}_{21}| = i_2 \vec{L} \times \vec{B}_1 = \frac{\mu_0 L i_1 i_2}{2\pi d} = |\vec{F}_{12}| \quad (\text{Def'n of ampere, } A)$$

\therefore Parallel currents attract, anti-parallel currents repel.

Example : Sheet of current

Consider an infinitesimal wire of width dx at position x , there exists another element at $-x$ so that vertical \vec{B} -field components of \vec{B}_{+x} and \vec{B}_{-x} cancel.

\therefore Magnetic field due to dx wire:

$$dB = \frac{\mu_0 \cdot di}{2\pi r} \quad \text{where } di = i \left(\frac{dx}{a} \right)$$

\therefore Total B-field (pointing along $-x$ axis) at point P :

$$B = \int_{-a/2}^{+a/2} dB \cos \theta = \int_{-a/2}^{+a/2} \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi a} \cdot \frac{dx}{r} \cdot \cos \theta$$

Variable transformation (Goal: change r, x to d, θ , then integrate over θ):

$$\begin{cases} d = r \cos \theta & \Rightarrow r = d \sec \theta \\ x = d \tan \theta & \Rightarrow dx = d \sec^2 \theta d\theta \end{cases}$$

Limits of integration: $-\theta_0$ to θ_0 , where $\tan \theta_0 = \frac{a}{2d}$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore B &= \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi a} \int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0} \frac{d \sec^2 \theta d\theta}{d \sec \theta} \cdot \cos \theta \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi a} \int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0} d\theta \\ B &= \frac{\mu_0 i \theta_0}{\pi a} = \frac{\mu_0 i}{\pi a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{a}{2d} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Limiting Cases :

(1) $d \gg a$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{a}{2d} \Rightarrow \theta \approx \frac{a}{2d}$$

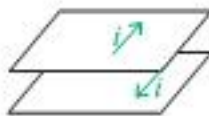
$$\therefore B = \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi a} \quad \text{B-field due to infinite long wire}$$

(2) $d \ll a$ (Infinite sheet of current)

$$\tan \theta = \frac{a}{2d} \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\therefore B = \frac{\mu_0 i}{2a} \quad \text{Constant!}$$

Question : Large sheet of opposite flowing currents.



What's the B-field between & outside the sheets?

7.3 Ampère's Law

In our study of electricity, we notice that the **inverse square force law** leads to **Gauss' Law**, which is useful for *finding E-field for systems with high level of symmetry*.

For magnetism, Gauss' Law is simple

$$\oiint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0 \quad \therefore \text{There is no magnetic monopole.}$$

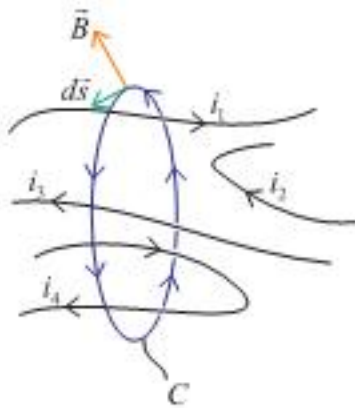
A more useful law for calculating B-field for highly symmetric situations is **the Ampère's Law**:

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \mu_0 i$$

\oint_C = Line integral evaluated around a closed loop C (**Amperian curve**)

i = Net current that penetrates the area bounded by curve C^* (topological property)

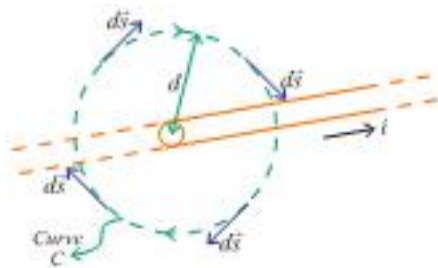
Convention : Use the **right-hand screw rule** to determine the *sign* of current.



$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} &= \mu_0(i_1 - i_3 + i_4 - i_2) \\ &= \mu_0(i_1 - i_3) \end{aligned}$$

Applications of the Ampere's Law :

(1) Long-straight wire



Construct an Amperian curve of radius d :

By symmetry argument, we know \vec{B} -field only has *tangential component*

$$\therefore \oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \mu_0 i$$

Take $d\vec{s}$ to be the tangential vector around the circular path:

$$\therefore \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = B ds$$

$$B \oint_C ds = \mu_0 i$$

Circumference
of circle = $2\pi d$

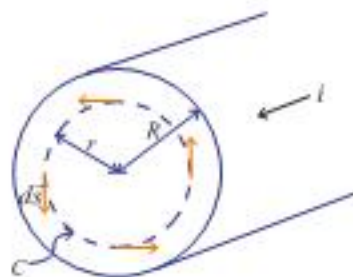
$$\therefore B(2\pi d) = \mu_0 i$$

B-field due to long,
straight current

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi d}$$

(Compare with 7.1 Example 1)

(2) Inside a current-carrying wire

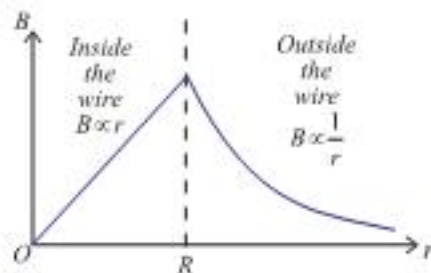


Again, symmetry argument
implies that \vec{B} is *tangential*
to the Amperian curve and
 $\vec{B} \rightarrow B(r)\hat{\theta}$

Consider an Amperian curve of radius $r (< R)$

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = B \oint ds = B(2\pi r) = \mu_0 i_{\text{included}}$$

But $i_{\text{included}} \propto$ cross-sectional area of C



$$\therefore \frac{i_{\text{included}}}{i} = \frac{\pi r^2}{\pi R^2}$$

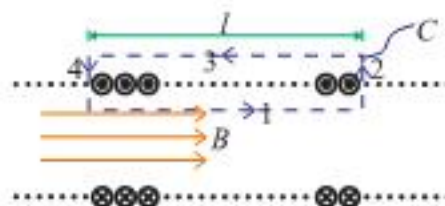
$$\therefore i_{\text{included}} = \frac{r^2}{R^2} i$$

$$\therefore B = \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi R^2} \cdot r \propto r$$

Recall: Uniformly charged infinite long rod

(3) Solenoid (Ideal)

Consider the rectangular
Amperian curve 1234.



$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_1 \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} + \int_2 \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} + \int_3 \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} + \int_4 \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$\int_2 = \int_4 = 0 \quad \therefore \begin{cases} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0 & \text{inside solenoid} \\ \vec{B} = 0 & \text{outside solenoid} \end{cases}$$

$$\int_3 = 0 \quad \therefore \vec{B} = 0 \quad \text{outside solenoid}$$

$$\therefore \oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_1 \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = Bl = \mu_0 i_{tot}$$

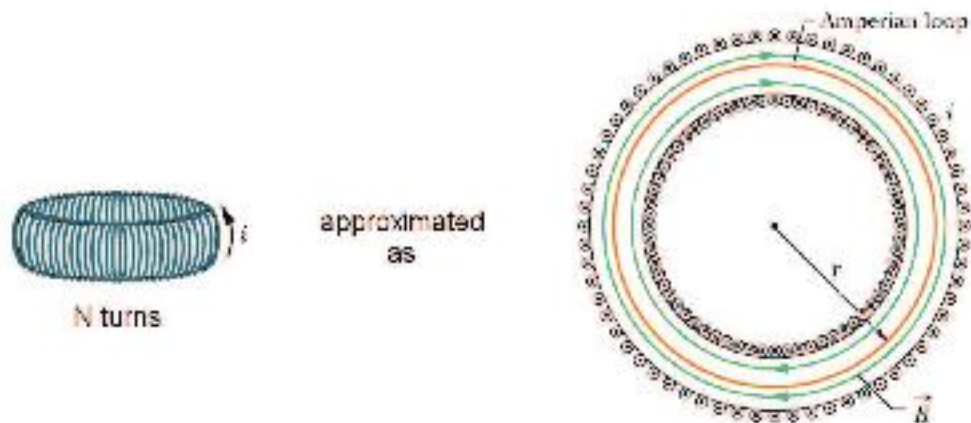
But $i_{tot} = \underbrace{nl}_{\text{Number of coils included}} \cdot i$

$$\therefore \boxed{B = \mu_0 ni}$$

Note :

- (i) The assumption that $\vec{B} = 0$ outside the ideal solenoid is only *approximate*. (Halliday, Pg.763)
- (ii) B-field everywhere inside the solenoid is a *constant*. (for ideal solenoid)

(4) Toroid (A *circular solenoid*)



By symmetry argument, the B-field lines form *concentric circles inside the toroid*.

Take Amperian curve C to be a circle of radius r inside the toroid.

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = B \oint_C ds = B \cdot 2\pi r = \mu_0 (Ni)$$

$$\therefore B = \frac{\mu_0 Ni}{2\pi r} \quad \text{inside toroid}$$

Note :

- (i) $B \neq$ constant inside toroid
- (ii) Outside toroid:
Take Amperian curve to be circle of radius $r > R$.

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = B \oint_C ds = B \cdot 2\pi r = \mu_0 \cdot i_{\text{incl}} = 0$$

$$\therefore B = 0$$

Similarly, in the central cavity $B = 0$

7.4 Magnetic Dipole

Recall from §6.4, we define the **magnetic dipole moment** of a rectangular current loop

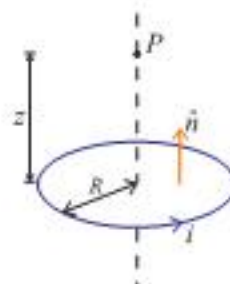
$$\boxed{\vec{\mu} = NiA\hat{n}}$$

- where \hat{n} = area unit vector with direction
determined by the right-hand rule
- N = Number of turns in current loop
- A = Area of current loop

This is actually a *general definition* of a magnetic dipole, i.e. we use it for current loops of all shapes.

A common and symmetric example: circular current.

Recall from §7.1 Example 2, magnetic field at point P (height z above the ring)

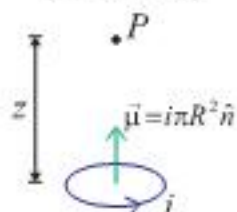


$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 i R^2 \hat{n}}{2(R^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{\mu}}{2\pi(R^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

At distance $z \gg R$,

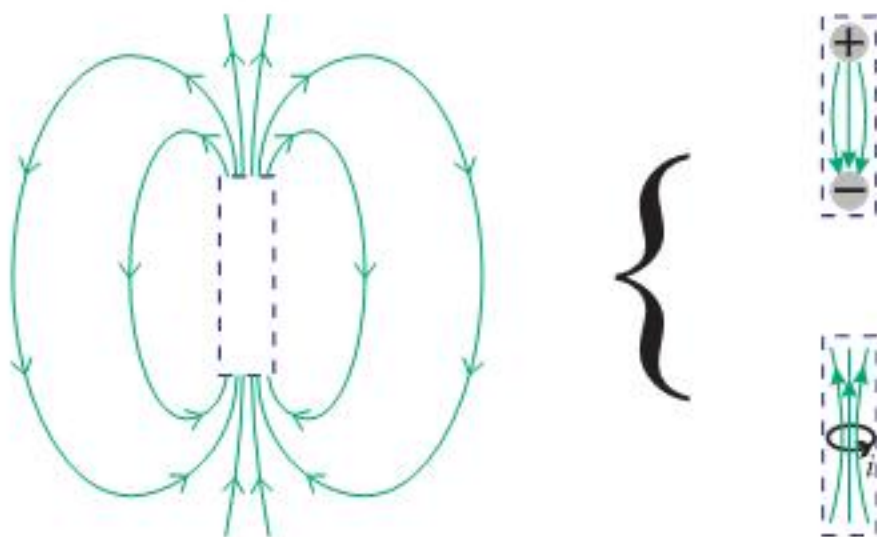
$$\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 \vec{\mu}}{2\pi z^3}$$

due to *magnetic dipole*
(for $z \gg R$)



$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{p}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 z^3}$$

due to *electric dipole*
(for $z \gg d$)

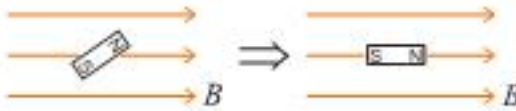


Also, notice $\vec{\mu}$ = magnetic dipole moment $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Unit: } \text{Am}^2 \\ \text{J/T} \end{array} \right]$
 μ_0 = Permeability of free space
 $= 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{Tm/A}$

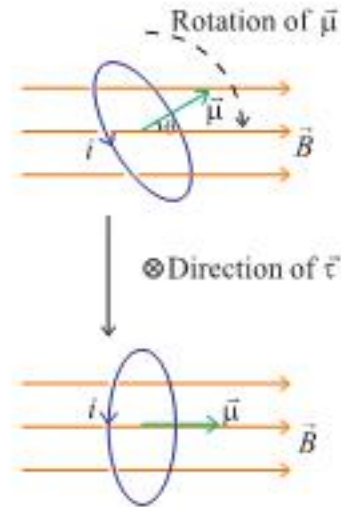
7.5 Magnetic Dipole in A Constant B-field

In the presence of a constant magnetic field, we have shown for a *rectangular current loop*, it experiences a **torque** $\vec{\tau} = \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B}$. It applies to any magnetic dipole in general.

∴ External magnetic field aligns the magnetic dipoles.



Similar to electric dipole in a E-field, we can consider the work done in rotating the magnetic dipole. (refer to Chapter 2)



$$dW = -dU, \quad \text{where } U \text{ is potential energy of dipole}$$

$$U = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}$$

Note :

- (1) We cannot define the potential energy of a magnetic field in general. However, we can define the potential energy of a magnetic dipole in a constant magnetic field.
- (2) In a *non-uniform external B-field*, the magnetic dipole will *experience a net force (not only net torque)*

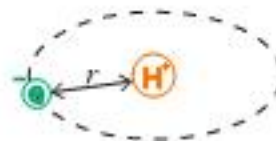
7.6 Magnetic Properties of Materials

Recall intrinsic electric dipole in molecules:



Intrinsic dipole (magnetic) in atoms:

In our classical model of atoms, electrons revolve around a positive nuclear.



$$\therefore \text{ "Current" } i = \frac{e}{P}, \quad \text{where } P \text{ is period of one orbit around nucleus}$$

$$P = \frac{2\pi r}{v}, \quad \text{where } v \text{ is velocity of electron}$$

\therefore **Orbit magnetic dipole** of atom:

$$\mu = iA = \left(\frac{ev}{2\pi r}\right)(\pi r^2) = \frac{erv}{2}$$

Recall: angular momentum of rotation $l = mrv$

$$\therefore \mu = \frac{e}{2m} \cdot l$$

In *quantum mechanics*, we know that

$$l \text{ is quantized, i.e. } l = N \cdot \frac{h}{2\pi}$$

where $N =$ Any positive integer (1,2,3, ...)

$h =$ Planck's constant ($6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$)

\therefore **Orbital magnetic dipole moment**

$$\mu_l = \frac{eh}{4m\pi} \cdot N$$

Bohr's magneton $\mu_B = 9.27 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J/T}$

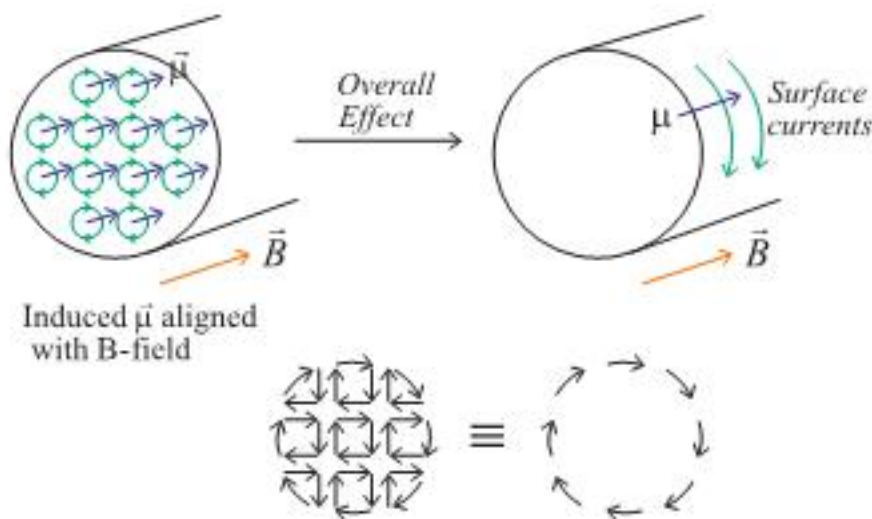
There is another source of intrinsic magnetic dipole moment inside an atom:

Spin dipole moment: coming from the intrinsic "spin" of electrons.

Quantum mechanics suggests that e^- are *always* spinning and it's either an "up" spin or a "down" spin

$$\mu_e = 9.65 \times 10^{-27} \approx \mu_B$$

So can there be induced magnetic dipole?



Recall: for electric field

$$\boxed{E_{\text{dielectric}} = K_e E_{\text{vacuum}} ; K_e \geq 1}$$

For magnetic field in a material:

$$\vec{B}_{\text{net}} = \vec{B}_0 + \vec{B}_M$$

\uparrow \uparrow
 applied B-field produced
 B-field by induced dipoles

In many materials (except ferromagnets),

$$\vec{B}_M \propto \vec{B}_0$$

Define :

$$\boxed{\vec{B}_M = \chi_m \vec{B}_0}$$

χ_m is a *number* called **magnetic susceptibility**.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \vec{B}_{\text{net}} &= \vec{B}_0 + \chi_m \vec{B}_0 \\ &= (1 + \chi_m) \vec{B}_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{B}_{\text{net}} = \kappa_m \vec{B}_0 ; \kappa_m = 1 + \chi_m}$$

Define : κ_m is a *number* called **relative permeability**.

One more term

Define : the **Magnetization** of a material:

$$\vec{M} = \frac{d\vec{\mu}}{dV} \quad \text{where } \vec{\mu} \text{ is magnetic dipole moment, } V \text{ is volume}$$

(or, the net magnetic dipole moment per unit volume)

In most materials (except ferromagnets),

$$\boxed{\vec{B}_M = \mu_0 \vec{M}}$$

Three types of magnetic materials:

(1) **Paramagnetic:**

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \kappa_m \geq 1 \\ (\chi_m \geq 0) \end{array} \right\} \text{ induced magnetic dipoles } \textit{aligned} \\ \textit{with the applied B-field.}$$

e.g. Al ($\chi_m \doteq 2.2 \times 10^{-5}$), Mg (1.2×10^{-5}), O_2 (2.0×10^{-6})

(2) **Diamagnetic:**

$\kappa_m \leq 1$ induced magnetic dipoles *aligned*
 $(\chi_m \leq 0)$, *opposite* with the applied B-field.

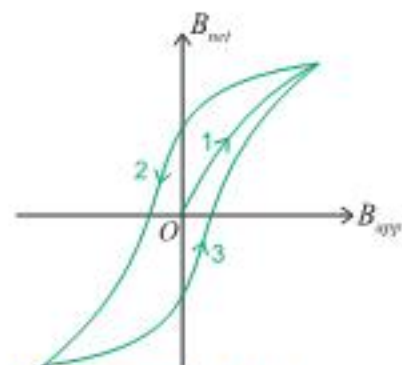
e.g. Cu ($\chi_m \approx -1 \times 10^{-5}$), Ag (-2.6×10^{-5}), N_2 (-5×10^{-9})

(3) **Ferromagnetic:**

e.g. Fe, Co, Ni

Magnetization not linearly proportional to applied field.

$\Rightarrow \frac{B_{net}}{B_{app}}$ not a constant (can be as big as $\sim 5000 - 100,000$)



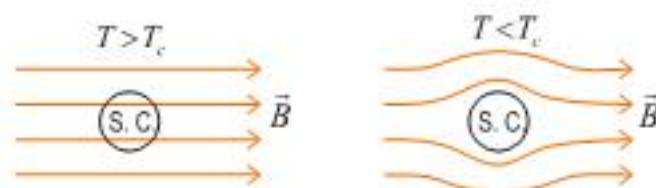
hysteresis curve

(hysteros: [Greek] later, behind)

Interesting Case : Superconductors

$$\chi_m = -1$$

A perfect diamagnetic.
 NO magnetic field inside.



Chapter 8

Faraday's Law of Induction

8.1 Faraday's Law

In the previous chapter, we have shown that *steady electric current* can give *steady magnetic field* because of the symmetry between electricity & magnetism.

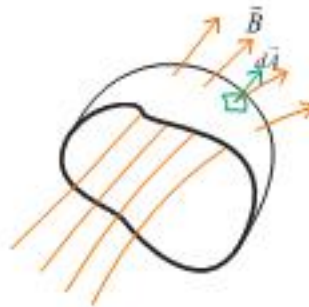
We can ask: *Steady magnetic field can give steady electric current.* ×
OR *Changing magnetic field can give steady electric current.* ✓

Define :

(1) Magnetic flux through surface S:

$$\Phi_m = \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

Unit of Φ_m : Weber (Wb)
 $1\text{Wb} = 1\text{Tm}^2$



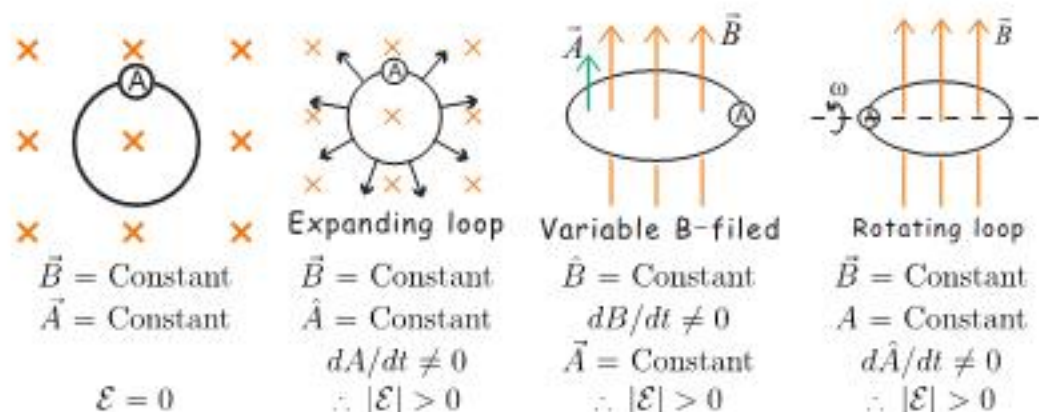
(2) Graphical:

$\Phi_m =$ Number of magnetic field lines passing through surface S

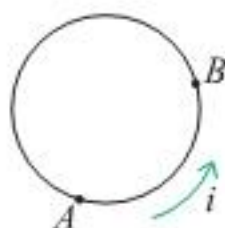
Faraday's law of induction:

$$\text{Induced emf } |\mathcal{E}| = N \left| \frac{d\Phi_m}{dt} \right|$$

where $N =$ Number of coils in the circuit.

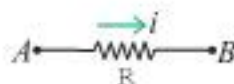


Note : The *induced emf* drives a current throughout the circuit, similar to the function of a *battery*. However, the difference here is that the induced emf is *distributed throughout the circuit*. The consequence is that *we cannot define a potential difference between any two points in the circuit*.



Suppose there is an *induced current* in the loop, can we define ΔV_{AB} ?

Recall:



$$\Delta V_{AB} = V_A - V_B = iR > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_A > V_B$$

Going *anti-clockwise* (same as i),

If we start from A, going to B, then we get $V_A > V_B$.
 If we start from B, going to A, then we get $V_B > V_A$.

\therefore We cannot define ΔV_{AB} !!

This situation is like when we study *the interior of a battery*.

A battery	}	provides the energy needed to drive the	{	chemical reactions.
The loop		charge carriers around the circuit by		changing magnetic flux.
<i>sources of emf</i>				<i>non-electric means</i>

8.2 Lenz' Law

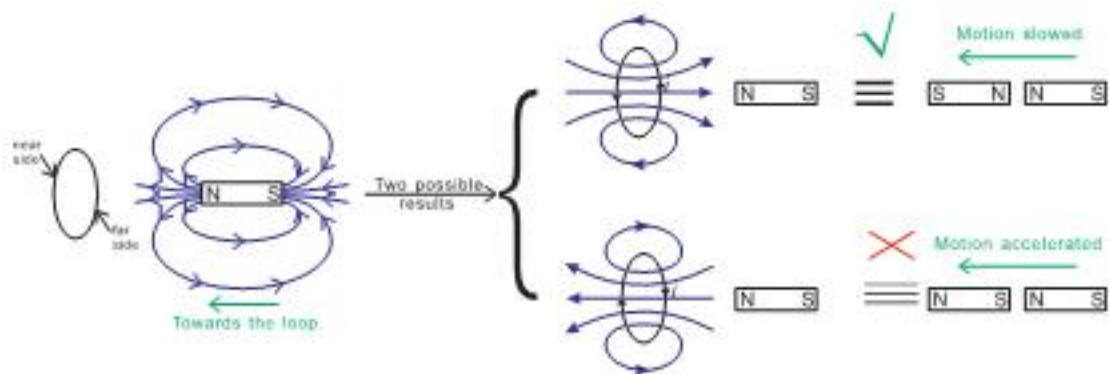
- (1) The flux of the magnetic field due to induced current *opposes* the change in flux that causes the induced current.

- (2) The induced current is in such a direction as to *oppose* the changes that produces it.
- (3) Incorporating Lenz' Law into Faraday's Law:

$$\mathcal{E} = -N \frac{d\Phi_m}{dt}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{If } \frac{d\Phi_m}{dt} > 0, \Phi_m \uparrow &\Rightarrow \mathcal{E} \text{ appears} \Rightarrow \text{Induced current appears.} \\ \Rightarrow \vec{B}\text{-field due to} &\Rightarrow \text{change in } \Phi_m \xrightarrow{\text{so that}} \Phi_m \downarrow \\ \text{induced current} & \end{aligned}$$

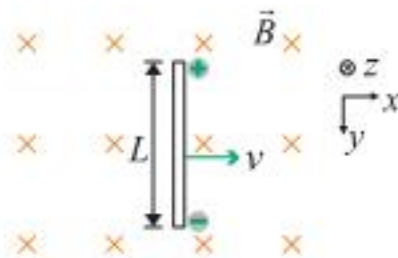
- (4) Lenz' Law is a consequence from *the principle of conservation of energy*.



8.3 Motional EMF

Let's try to look at a special case when the *changing magnetic flux* is carried by *motion in the circuit wires*.

Consider a conductor of length L moving with a velocity v in a magnetic field \vec{B} .



Hall Effect for the charge carriers in the rod:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{F}_E + \vec{F}_B &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow q\vec{E} + q\vec{v} \times \vec{B} &= 0 \quad (\text{where } \vec{E} \text{ is Hall electric field}) \\ \Rightarrow \vec{E} &= -\vec{v} \times \vec{B}\end{aligned}$$

Hall Voltage inside rod:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta V &= -\int_0^L \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \\ \Delta V &= -EL\end{aligned}$$

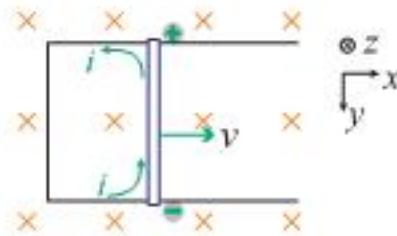
$$\therefore \text{Hall Voltage : } \boxed{\Delta V = vBL}$$

Now, suppose the moving wire *slides without friction* on a stationary U-shape conductor. The motional emf can drive an electric current i in the U-shape conductor.

\Rightarrow Power is dissipated in the circuit.

$\Rightarrow P_{out} = Vi$ (Joule's heating)

(see Lecture Notes Chapter 4)



What is the source of this power?

Look at the forces acting on the conducting rod:

- Magnetic force:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{F}_m &= i\vec{L} \times \vec{B} \\ F_m &= iLB \quad (\text{pointing left})\end{aligned}$$

- For the rod to continue to move at constant velocity v , we need to *apply an external force*:

$$\vec{F}_{ext} = -\vec{F}_m = iLB \quad (\text{pointing right})$$

\therefore Power required to keep the rod moving:

$$\begin{aligned}P_m &= \vec{F}_{ext} \cdot \vec{v} \\ &= iBLv \\ &= iBL \frac{dx}{dt} \\ &= iB \frac{d(xL)}{dt} \quad (xL = A, \text{ area enclosed by circuit}) \\ &= i \frac{d(BA)}{dt} \quad (BA = \Phi_m, \text{ magnetic flux})\end{aligned}$$

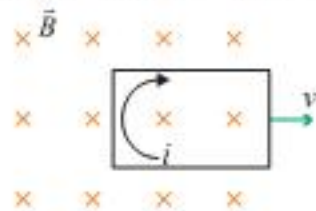
Since energy is not being stored in the system,

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore P_{in} + P_{out} &= 0 \\ iV + i \frac{d\Phi_m}{dt} &= 0\end{aligned}$$

We "prove" Faraday's Law \Rightarrow $V = -\frac{d\Phi_m}{dt}$

Applications :

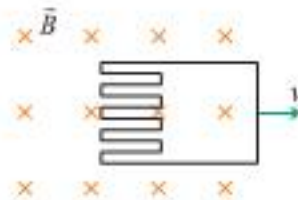
- (1) Eddy current: moving conductors in presence of magnetic field



Induced current

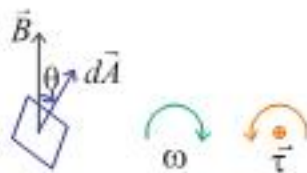
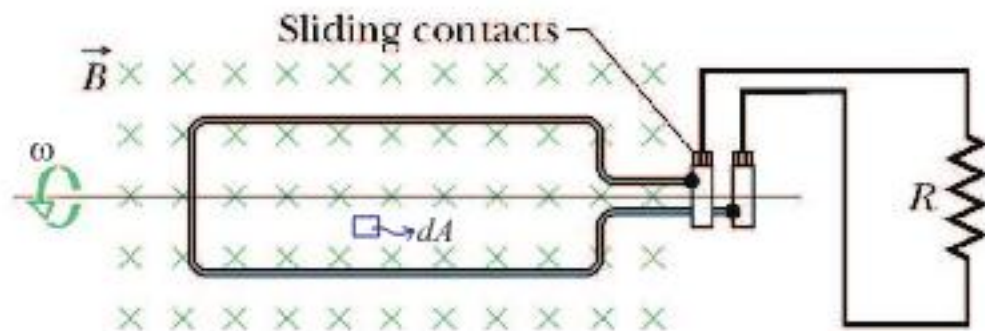
$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \text{Power lost in Joule's heating } &\left(\frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{R}\right) \\ \Rightarrow \text{Extra power input to keep moving}\end{aligned}$$

To reduce Eddy currents:



- (2) Generators and Motors:

Assume that the circuit loop is rotating at a constant angular velocity ω , (Source of rotation, e.g. steam produced by burner, water falling from a dam)



Magnetic flux through the loop

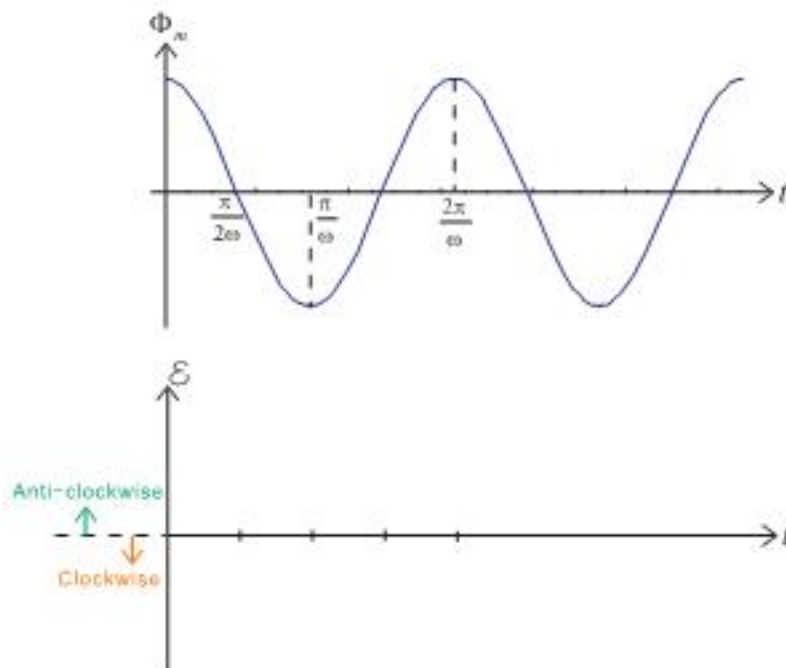
$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Number of coils} \\ \downarrow \\ \Phi_B = N \int_{\text{loop}} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = NBA \cos \theta \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{changes with time! } \theta = \omega t \end{array}$$

$$\therefore \Phi_B = NBA \cos \omega t$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Induced emf: } \mathcal{E} &= -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = -NBA \frac{d}{dt}(\cos \omega t) \\ &= NBA\omega \sin \omega t \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Induced current: } i = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} = \frac{NBA\omega}{R} \sin \omega t$$

Alternating current (AC) voltage generator



Power has to be provided by the source of rotation to overcome the torque acting on a current loop in a magnetic field.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\tau} &= \overbrace{Ni\vec{A}}^{\vec{\mu}} \times \vec{B} \\ \therefore \tau &= NiAB \sin \theta \end{aligned}$$

The net effect of the torque is to *oppose* the rotation of the coil.

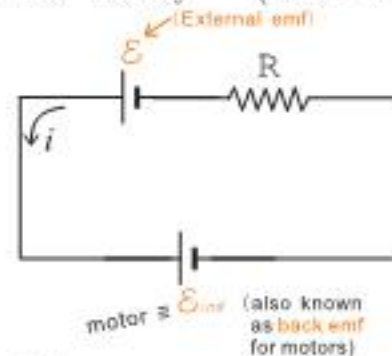
An *electric motor* is simply a *generator operating in reverse*.
 \Rightarrow Replace the load resistance R with a battery of emf \mathcal{E} .



With the battery, there is a current in the coil, and it experiences a torque in the B-field.

\Rightarrow Rotation of the coil leads to an induced emf, \mathcal{E}_{ind} , in the direction opposite of that of the battery. (Lenz' Law)

$$\therefore i = \frac{\mathcal{E} - \mathcal{E}_{ind}}{R}$$

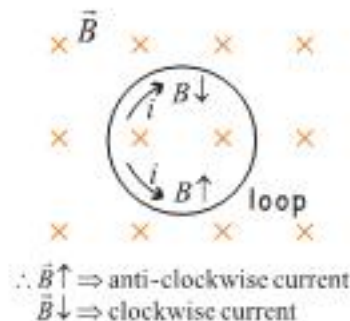


\Rightarrow As motor speeds up, $\mathcal{E}_{ind} \uparrow$, $\therefore i \downarrow$
 \therefore mechanical power delivered = torque delivered = $NiAB \sin \theta \downarrow$
 In conclusion, we can show that

$P_{electric}$	$=$	$i^2 R$	$+$	$P_{mechanical}$
Electric power input				Mechanical power delivered

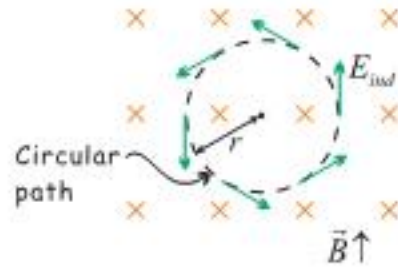
8.4 Induced Electric Field

So far we have discussed that a *change* in magnetic flux will lead in an induced emf distributed in the loop, resulting from an induced E-field.



However, even in the *absence* of the loop (so that there is no induced current), the induced E-field will still accompany a change in magnetic flux.

\therefore Consider a circular path in a region with changing magnetic field.



The induced E-field only has tangential components. (i.e. radial E-field = 0)
Why?

Imagine a point charge q_0 travelling around the circular path.

$$\text{Work done by induced E-field} = \underbrace{q_0 E_{ind}}_{\text{force}} \cdot \underbrace{2\pi r}_{\text{distance}}$$

Recall work done also equals to $q_0 \mathcal{E}$, where \mathcal{E} is induced emf

$$\therefore \mathcal{E} = E_{ind} 2\pi r$$

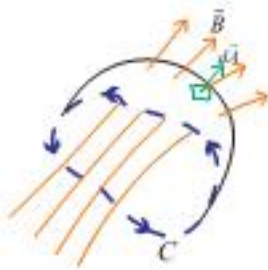
Generally,

$$\mathcal{E} = \oint \vec{E}_{ind} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

where \oint is line integral around a closed loop, \vec{E}_{ind} is induced E-field, \vec{s} is tangential vector of path.

\therefore Faraday's Law becomes

$$\boxed{\oint_C \vec{E}_{ind} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}}$$



L.H.S. = Integral around a closed loop C

R.H.S. = Integral over a surface bounded by C

Direction of $d\vec{A}$ determined by direction of line integration C (Right-Hand Rule)

"Regular" E-field

created by charges

E-field lines start from +ve and end on -ve charge



can define electric potential so that we can discuss potential difference between two points



Conservative force field

Induced E-field

created by changing B-field

E-field lines form closed loops



Electric potential cannot be defined (or, potential has no meaning)



Non-conservative force field

The classification of electric and magnetic effects *depend on the frame of reference of the observer*. e.g. For motional emf, observer in the reference frame of the moving loop, will NOT see an induced E-field, just a "regular" E-field.

(Read: Halliday Chap.33-6, 34-7)