Electromagnetic Induction and Faraday's Law

- *Michael Faraday* (1791-1867) discovered that a changing magnetic field could produce an electric current in a conductor placed in the magnetic field.
- Such a current is called an *induced current*.
- The phenomenon is called *electromagnetic induction*.

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Faraday's Law of Induction

Electromagnetic Induction

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• Faraday found that the induced *emf* is proportional to the rate of change of the magnetic flux Φ_B passing through a loop of area A.

$$\mathcal{E} = -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{B} = \int \boldsymbol{\bar{B}} \cdot \boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{\bar{A}}$$

• For magnetic fields that are constant:

• In general:

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{B} = \boldsymbol{B} \cdot \boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{A} \cos \boldsymbol{\theta}$$
Electromagnetic Induction

Faraday's Law of Induction

• If the flux pass through N loops the *induced emf* is:

$$\mathcal{E} = -N \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$
$$\mathcal{E} = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = -N \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

• The minus sign is necessary to give the correct direction the induced *emf* acts.

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Lenz's Law

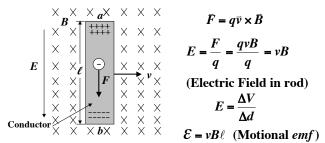
An induced emf always gives rise to a current whose magnetic field opposes the original change in flux.

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle B} = \boldsymbol{\bar{B}} \cdot \boldsymbol{\bar{A}} = \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{A} \cos \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

- Note: An *emf* is induced whenever there is change in flux and can be induced in three ways:
- 1.) By changing the magnetic field B
- **2.)** By changing the area A of the loop in the field
- 3.) By changing the orientation θ the magnetic field makes with the loop

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Motional emf



For a conductor of any shape, moving in any magnetic field.

 $\mathcal{E} = \int_{b}^{a} \left(\vec{v} \times B \right) \cdot d\vec{\ell}$ Electromagnetic Induction

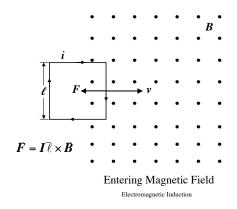
emf Induced in a Moving Conductor

Assume that a uniform magnetic field *B* is perpendicular to the area bounded by a U-shaped conductor and a movable rod resting on it. The rod is made to move at a speed *v*.

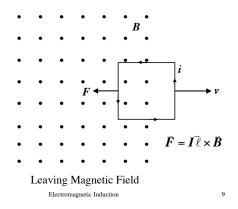
The magnitude of the induced *emf* is given by

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = \frac{d(\vec{B} \cdot \vec{A})}{dt} = \frac{d(BA\cos\theta)}{dt} = B\frac{dA}{dt} = B\frac{\ell dx}{dt} = B\ell v$$
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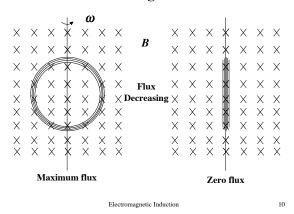
Electromagnetic Induction



Same Kind of Problem



Rotating Coils



Rotating Coils

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{\!\!B} = \boldsymbol{\bar{B}} \cdot \boldsymbol{\bar{A}} = \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{\cos \theta}$$

$$\frac{d\Phi_{B}}{dt} = \frac{dBA\cos\theta}{dt} = BA\frac{d\cos\theta}{dt}$$

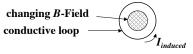
Since $\theta = \omega t$ (assuming constant angular speed)

$$\frac{d\Phi_{B}}{dt} = BA \frac{d\cos\omega t}{dt} = -\omega BA \sin\omega t$$

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Induced Electric Fields



There must be a force that make the charges move around the loop.

The changing magnetic flux causes an induced electric field in the loop.

$$\mathcal{E} = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

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Maxwell's Equations

1.) Gauss's Law for Electric Fields ∮

$$E \cdot d\bar{A} = \frac{Q_{enclosed}}{d\bar{A}}$$

 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{\mathrm{o}}$

- 2.) Gauss's Law for Magnetic Fields $\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$
- 3.) Ampere's Law

$$\oint \boldsymbol{B} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\bar{\ell}} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{o} \left(\boldsymbol{i}_{c} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{o} \, \frac{d\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{E}}{dt} \right)$$

4.) Faraday's Law

$$\oint E \cdot d\overline{\ell} = -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

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Inductance

Electromagnetic Induction

Mutual Inductance

Consider two neighboring coils of wire. A current flowing in coil 1 produces a magnetic flux through coil 2.

$$i_1 \longrightarrow B_1$$

Coil 1 Coil 2

If the current i_1 changes then it will induce a current in coil 2.

If $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{B2}$ is the flux in coil 2 due to the current in coil 1 then the induced *emf* will be

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\Phi_{B_2}}{dt}$$

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Mutual Inductance

If we introduce a proportionality constant M_{21} called the mutual inductance of the two coils

$$N_2 \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{B_2} = \boldsymbol{M}_{21} \boldsymbol{i}_1$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{B2}$ is the flux in a single turn of coil 2. Then

$$N_2 \frac{d\Phi_{B_2}}{dt} = M_{21} \frac{di_1}{dt}$$
$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\Phi_{B_2}}{dt} = -M_{21} \frac{di_1}{dt}$$

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Mutual Inductance

Mutual inductance (M) describes the coupling between two coils in which a changing current in one coil induces an emf in an adjacent coil.

$$M = \frac{N_2 \Phi_{B_2}}{i_1} = \frac{N_1 \Phi_{B_1}}{i_2}$$

The SI unit of mutual inductance is called the Henry (1 H).

$$1 \text{ H} = 1 \frac{\text{Wb}}{\text{A}} = 1 \frac{\text{V} \cdot \text{s}}{\text{A}} = 1 \Omega \cdot \text{s}$$

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Mutual Inductance

This can be repeated for the case where a current i_2 in coil 2 induces an emf in coil 1 resulting in

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = -N_1 \frac{d\Phi_{B_1}}{dt} = -M_{12} \frac{di_2}{dt}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{BI}$ is the flux in a single turn of coil 1.

It turns out that M_{21} is always equal to M_{12} and is written as M, and it completely characterizes the induced-emf interaction between the two coils. The mutually induced emf's are then

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = -M \frac{di_2}{dt}$$
 and $\mathcal{E}_2 = -M \frac{di_1}{dt}$

Electromagnetic Induction

Self Inductance

Any circuit that carries a varying current will have an emf induced in it by the variation in its own magnetic field. Such an *emf* is a called a self-induced emf.

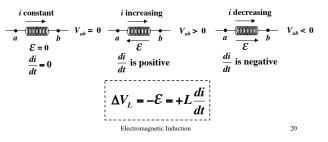
Self-inductance (*L*) of a circuit is given by:

$$L = \frac{N\Phi_B}{i}$$

$$Li = N\Phi_B \text{ or } L\frac{di}{dt} = N\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$
Since $\mathcal{E} = -N\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$ $\mathcal{E} = -L\frac{di}{dt}$ (self-induced *emf*)

Inductors

A circuit element designed to have a particular inductance is called an *inductor* (L). The potential difference V_{ab} between the terminals of the inductor is equal in magnitude to the self-induced *emf*.



Inductors and Energy

The total energy U needed to establish a final current I in an inductor with inductance L can also be determined.

$$P = \Delta V_L i = L i \frac{di}{dt}$$

The energy dU supplied to the inductor during time interval dt is:

$$\frac{dU = Pdt}{\begin{bmatrix} U_L = L \int i di = \frac{1}{2} L I^2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}$$
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Capacitors versus Inductors

Capacitors

$$\Delta v_c = \frac{q_c}{C} \text{ so } \Delta v_c = \frac{1}{C} \int i dt \qquad \Delta v_L = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

Stores energy in the form of an electric field.

$$U_C = \frac{1}{2}C\Delta V^2$$

Resist changes in voltage.

Stores energy in the form of a magnetic field.

$$U_L = \frac{1}{2}LI^2$$

Inductors

Resist changes in current.

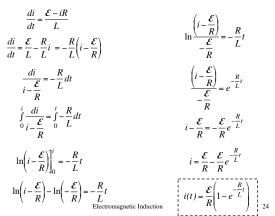
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RL Circuits (Current Growth) + -(000000)-Ŕ L $\mathcal{E} - v_{ab} - v_{bc} = 0$ $\mathcal{E} - iR - L\frac{di}{dt} = 0$ $\frac{di}{dt} = \frac{\mathcal{E} - iR}{L}$ 23

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RL Circuits (Current Growth)



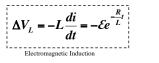
RL Circuits (Current Growth)

The current in an *RL* circuit varies according to:

$$i(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right)$$

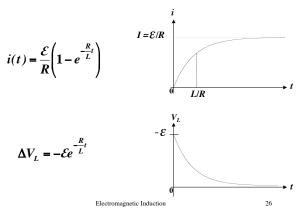
L/R is called the *time constant* (τ) and is the time it takes the current to become 63.2% of its final value.

The voltage across L varies according to:



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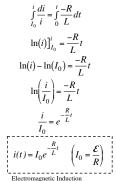




RL Circuits (Current Decay) $\downarrow + |i| +$

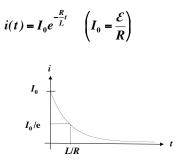
 $\frac{di}{i} = \frac{-R}{L}dt$

RL Circuits (Current Decay)

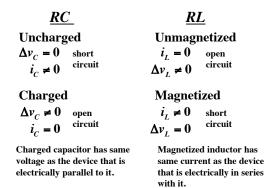


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RL Circuits (Current Decay)



RC versus RL Circuits



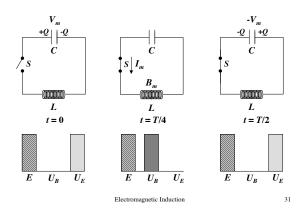
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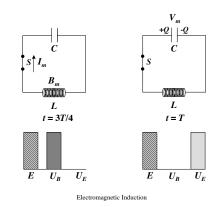
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LC Circuits (Electrical Oscillation)



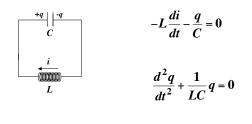
LC Circuits (Electrical Oscillation)



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LC Circuits

In an *LC* circuit with no energy losses the charge on the capacitor oscillates back and forth.



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LC Circuits

$$\frac{d^2q}{dt^2} + \frac{1}{LC}q = 0$$

This equation has exactly the same form as that for simple harmonic motion.

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \frac{k}{m}x = 0$$

whose solution was
$$x = A\cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

where
$$\boldsymbol{\omega} = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

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LC Circuits

$$\frac{d^2q}{dt^2} + \frac{1}{LC}q = 0$$

In the analogous electrical situation the capacitor charge q is given by

$$q = Q\cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

and the angular frequency $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ of the oscillation is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\omega} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$$