

PHYS 1441 – Section 001

Lecture #22

Wednesday, Nov. 29, 2017

Dr. Jaehoon Yu

- Chapter 29: EM Induction & Faraday's Law
 - Transformer
 - Electric Field Due to Changing Magnetic Flux
- Chapter 30: Inductance
 - Mutual and Self Inductance
 - Energy Stored in Magnetic Field
 - Alternating Current and AC Circuits



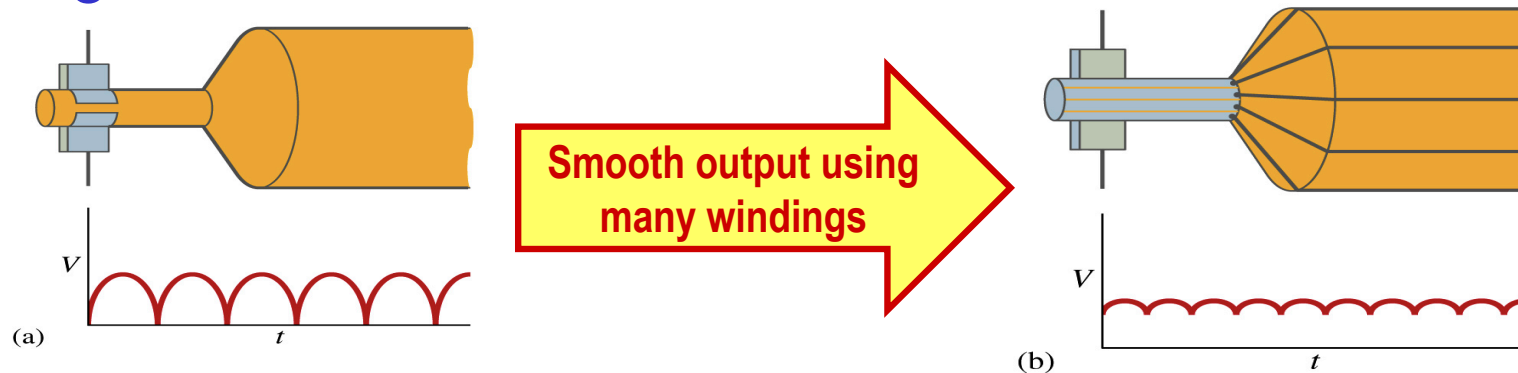
Announcements

- Reading Assignments
 - CH29.5 and 8
- Final exam
 - Date and time: 11am – 12:30pm, Monday, Dec. 11 in SH101
 - Comprehensive exam: covers CH21.1 through what we finish Wednesday, Dec. 6
 - Bring your calculator but DO NOT input formula into it!
 - Cell phones or any types of computers cannot replace a calculator!
 - BYOF: You may bring a one 8.5x11.5 sheet (front and back) of handwritten formulae and values of constants
 - No derivations, word definitions or solutions of any kind!
 - No additional formulae or values of constants will be provided!



A DC Generator

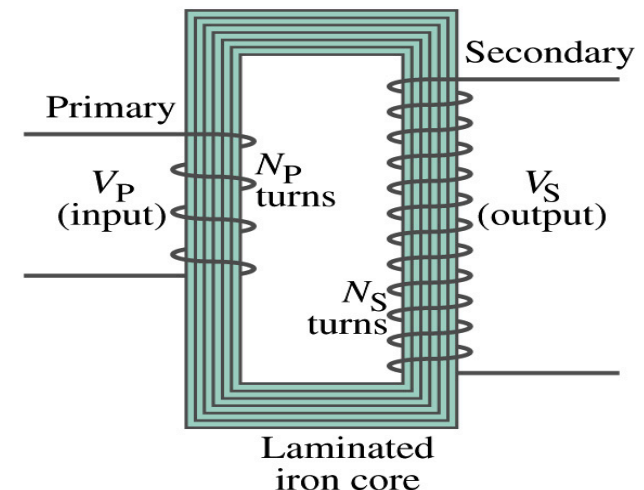
- A DC generator is almost the same as an AC generator except the slip rings are replaced by split-ring commutators



- Output can be smoothed out by placing a capacitor on the output
 - More commonly done using many armature windings

Transformer

- What is a transformer?
 - A device for increasing or decreasing an AC voltage
 - A few examples?
 - TV sets to provide High Voltage to picture tubes, portable electronic device converters, transformers on the pole, etc
- A transformer consists of two coils of wires known as the primary and the secondary
 - The two coils can be interwoven or linked by a laminated soft iron core to reduce losses due to Eddy current
- Transformers are designed so that all magnetic flux produced by the primary coil pass through the secondary

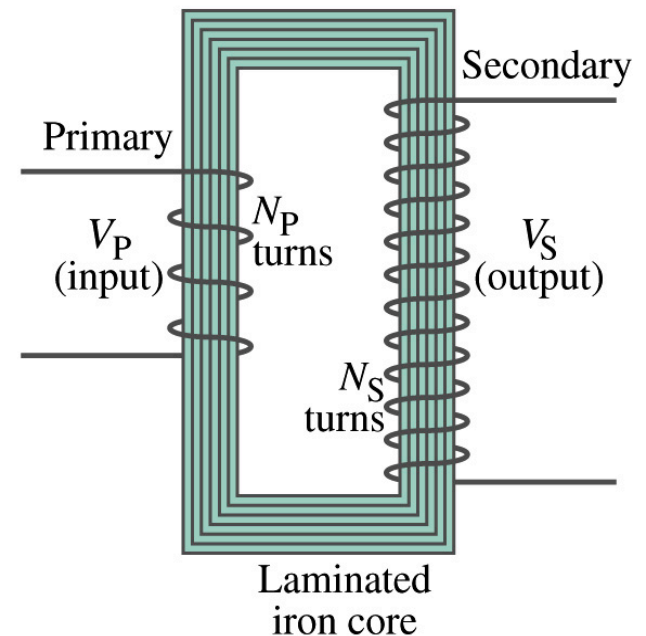


How does a transformer work?

- When an AC voltage is applied to the primary, the changing B it produces will induce voltage of the same frequency in the secondary wire
- So how would we make the voltage different?
 - By varying the number of loops in each coil
 - From Faraday's law, the induced emf in the secondary is
 - $V_S = N_S \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$
 - The input primary voltage is
 - $V_P = N_P \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$
 - Since $d\Phi_B/dt$ is the same, we obtain

$$\frac{V_S}{V_P} = \frac{N_S}{N_P}$$

Transformer
Equation



Transformer Equation

- The transformer equation does not work for DC current
 - Since there is no change of magnetic flux!!
- If $N_S > N_P$, the output voltage is greater than the input so it is called a step-up transformer while $N_S < N_P$ is called step-down transformer
- Now, it looks like energy conservation is violated since we can get more emf from smaller ones, right?
 - Wrong! Wrong! Wrong! Energy is always conserved!
 - A well designed transformer can be more than 99% efficient
 - The power output is the same as the input:

- $V_P I_P = V_S I_S$

- $\frac{I_S}{I_P} = \frac{V_P}{V_S} = \frac{N_P}{N_S}$

The output current for step-up transformer will be lower than the input, while it is larger for step-down x-former than the input.



Example for A Transformer

Portable radio transformer. A transformer for home use of a portable radio reduces 120-V AC to 9.0V AC. The secondary contains 30 turns, and the radio draws 400mA. Calculate (a) the number of turns in the primary (b) the current in the primary and (c) the power transformed.

(a) What kind of a transformer is this? A step-down x-former

Since $\frac{V_P}{V_S} = \frac{N_P}{N_S}$ We obtain $N_P = N_S \frac{V_P}{V_S} = 30 \frac{120V}{9V} = 400 \text{ turns}$

(b) Also from the transformer equation $\frac{I_S}{I_P} = \frac{V_P}{V_S}$ We obtain $I_P = I_S \frac{V_S}{V_P} = 0.4A \frac{9V}{120V} = 0.03A$

(c) Thus the power transformed is

$$P = I_S V_S = (0.4A) \cdot (9V) = 3.6W$$

How about the input power? The same assuming 100% efficiency.



Example 29 – 13: Power Transmission

Transmission lines. An average of 120kW of electric power is sent to a small town from a power plant 10km away. The transmission lines have a total resistance of 0.4Ω . Calculate the power loss if the power is transmitted at (a) 240V and (b) 24,000V.

We cannot use $P=V^2/R$ since we do not know the voltage along the transmission line. We, however, can use $P=I^2R$.

(a) If 120kW is sent at 240V, the total current is $I = \frac{P}{V} = \frac{120 \times 10^3}{240} = 500A$.

Thus the power loss due to transmission line is

$$P = I^2 R = (500A)^2 \cdot (0.4\Omega) = 100kW$$

(b) If 120kW is sent at 24,000V, the total current is $I = \frac{P}{V} = \frac{120 \times 10^3}{24 \times 10^3} = 5.0A$.

Thus the power loss due to transmission line is

$$P = I^2 R = (5A)^2 \cdot (0.4\Omega) = 10W$$

The higher the transmission voltage, the smaller the current, causing less loss of energy. This is why power is transmitted w/ HV, as high as 170kV.

Electric Field due to Magnetic Flux Change

- When the electric current flows through a wire, there is an electric field in the wire that moves electrons
- We saw, however, that changing magnetic flux induces a current in the wire. What does this mean?
 - There must be an electric field induced by the changing magnetic flux.
- In other words, a changing magnetic flux produces an electric field
- This results apply not just to wires but to any conductor or any region in space



Generalized Form of Faraday's Law

- Recall the relationship between the electric field and the potential difference $V_{ab} = \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$
- Induced emf in a circuit is equal to the work done per unit charge by the electric field

- $\mathcal{E} = \int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$
- So we obtain

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

- The integral is taken around a path enclosing the area through which the magnetic flux Φ_B is changing.



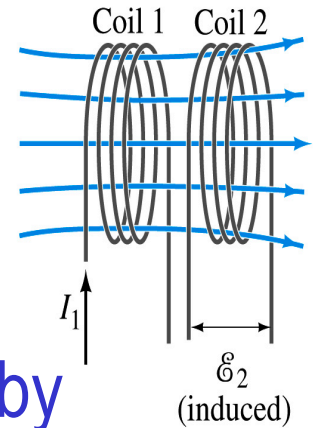
Inductance

- Changing magnetic flux through a circuit induce an emf in that circuit
- An electric current produces a magnetic field
- From these, we can deduce
 - A changing current in one circuit must induce an emf in a nearby circuit → Mutual inductance
 - Or induce an emf in itself → Self inductance



Mutual Inductance

- If two coils of wire are placed near each other, a changing current in one will induce an emf in the other.
- What is the induced emf, ε_2 , in coil2 proportional to?
 - Rate of the change of the magnetic flux passing through it
- This flux is due to current I_1 in coil 1
- If Φ_{21} is the magnetic flux in each loop of coil2 created by coil1 and N_2 is the number of closely packed loops in coil2, then $N_2\Phi_{21}$ is the total flux passing through coil2.
- If the two coils are fixed in space, $N_2\Phi_{21}$ is proportional to the current I_1 in coil 1, $N_2\Phi_{21} = M_{21} I_1$.
- The proportionality constant for this is called the Mutual Inductance and defined as $M_{21} = N_2\Phi_{21}/I_1$.
- The emf induced in coil2 due to the changing current in coil1 is



$$\varepsilon_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\Phi_{21}}{dt} = -\frac{d(N_2\Phi_{21})}{dt} = -M_{21} \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$

Mutual Inductance

- The mutual induction of coil2 with respect to coil1, M_{21} ,
 - is a constant and does not depend on I_1 .
 - depends only on “geometric” factors such as the size, shape, number of turns and relative position of the two coils, and whether a ferromagnetic material is present

What? Does this make sense?

 - The farther apart the two coils are the less flux can pass through coil, 2, so M_{21} will be less.

- In most cases the mutual inductance is determined experimentally
- Conversely, the changing current in coil2 will induce an emf in coil1

- $\varepsilon_1 = -M_{12} \frac{dI_2}{dt}$

- M_{12} is the mutual inductance of coil1 with respect to coil2 and $M_{12} = M_{21}$

$$\varepsilon_1 = -M \frac{dI_2}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon_2 = -M \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$

- We can put $M = M_{12} = M_{21}$ and obtain

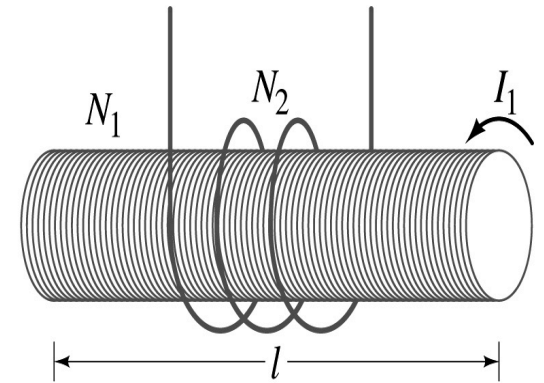
- SI unit for mutual inductance is henry (H)

$$1H = 1V \cdot s / A = 1\Omega \cdot s$$



Example 30 – 1

Solenoid and coil. A long thin solenoid of length l and cross-sectional area A contains N_1 closely packed turns of wire. Wrapped around it is an insulated coil of N_2 turns. Assuming all the flux from coil 1 (the solenoid) passes through coil 2, calculate the mutual inductance.



First we need to determine the flux produced by the solenoid.

What is the magnetic field inside the solenoid? $B = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 I_1}{l}$

Since the solenoid is closely packed, we can assume that the field lines are perpendicular to the surface area of the coils. Thus the flux through coil 2 is

$$\Phi_{21} = BA = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 I_1}{l} A$$

Thus the mutual inductance of coil 2 is $M_{21} = \frac{N_2 \Phi_{21}}{I_1} = \frac{N_2}{I_1} \frac{\mu_0 N_1 I_1}{l} A = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 N_2}{l} A$

Self Inductance

- The concept of inductance applies to a single isolated coil of N turns. How does this happen?
 - When a changing current passes through a coil
 - A changing magnetic flux is produced inside the coil
 - The changing magnetic flux in turn induces an emf in the same coil
 - This emf opposes the change in flux. Whose law is this?
 - Lenz's law
- What would this do?
 - When the current through the coil is increasing?
 - The increasing magnetic flux induces an emf that opposes the original current
 - This tends to impede its increase, trying to maintain the original current
 - When the current through the coil is decreasing?
 - The decreasing flux induces an emf in the same direction as the current
 - This tends to increase the flux, trying to maintain the original current



Self Inductance

- Since the magnetic flux Φ_B passing through N turn coil is proportional to current I in the coil, $N\Phi_B = LI$
- We define self-inductance, \mathcal{L} :

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

Self Inductance
- The induced emf in a coil of self-inductance \mathcal{L} is
 - $\varepsilon = -N \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$
 - What is the unit for self-inductance? $1H = 1V \cdot s/A = 1\Omega \cdot s$
- What does magnitude of \mathcal{L} depend on?
 - Geometry and the presence of a ferromagnetic material
- Self inductance can be defined for any circuit or part of a circuit




So what in the world is the Inductance?

- It is an impediment onto the electrical current due to the existence of changing flux
- So what?
- In other words, it behaves like a resistance to the varying current, such as AC, that causes the constant change of flux
- But it also provides means to store energy, just like the capacitance



Inductor

- An electrical circuit always contains some inductance but is normally negligibly small
 - If a circuit contains a coil of many turns, it could have large inductance
- A coil that has significant inductance, \mathcal{L} , is called an inductor and is express with the symbol 
 - Precision resistors are normally wire wound
 - Would have both resistance and inductance
 - The inductance can be minimized by winding the wire back on itself in opposite direction to cancel magnetic flux
 - This is called a “non-inductive winding”
- If an inductor has negligible resistance, inductance controls the changing current
- For an AC current, the greater the inductance the less the AC current
 - An inductor thus acts like a resistor to impede the flow of alternating current (not to DC, though. Why?)
 - The quality of an inductor is indicated by the term reactance or impedance



Example 30 – 3

Solenoid inductance. (a) Determine the formula for the self inductance \mathcal{L} of a tightly wrapped solenoid (a long coil) containing N turns of wire in its length l and whose cross-sectional area is A . (b) Calculate the value of \mathcal{L} if $N=100$, $l=5.0\text{cm}$, $A=0.30\text{cm}^2$ and the solenoid is air filled. (c) calculate \mathcal{L} if the solenoid has an iron core with $\mu=4000\mu_0$.

What is the magnetic field inside a solenoid? $B = \mu_0 nI = \mu_0 NI / l$

The flux is, therefore, $\Phi_B = BA = \mu_0 NIA / l$

Using the formula for self inductance: $L = \frac{N\Phi_B}{I} = \frac{N \cdot \mu_0 NIA / l}{I} = \frac{\mu_0 N^2 A}{l}$

(b) Using the formula above

$$L = \frac{\mu_0 N^2 A}{l} = \frac{(4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T} \cdot \text{m/A}) 100^2 (0.30 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2)}{5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}} = 7.5 \mu\text{H}$$

(c) The magnetic field with an iron core solenoid is $B = \mu NI / l$

$$L = \frac{\mu N^2 A}{l} = \frac{4000 (4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T} \cdot \text{m/A}) 100^2 (0.30 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2)}{5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}} = 0.030 \text{ H} = 30 \text{ mH}$$