

Chapter 32

Inductance

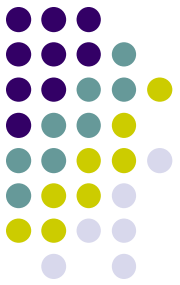


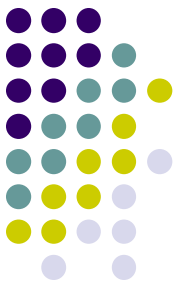
Joseph Henry

- 1797 – 1878
- American physicist
- First director of the Smithsonian
- Improved design of electromagnet
- Constructed one of the first motors
- Discovered self-inductance
- Unit of inductance is named in his honor



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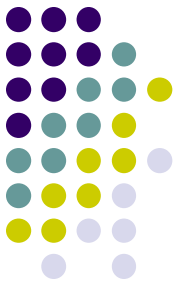
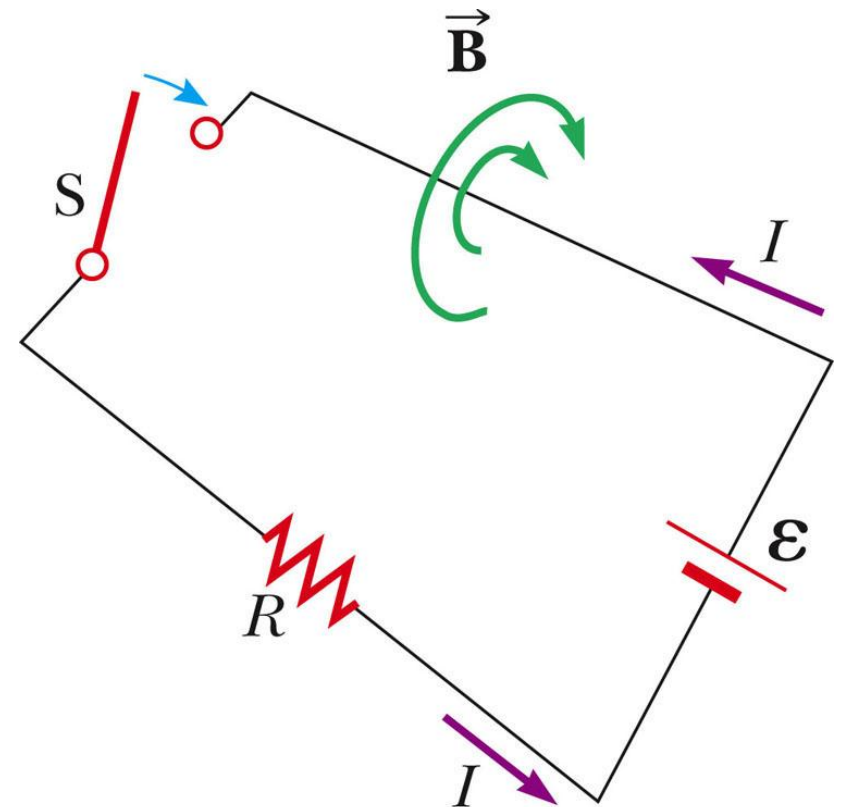


Some Terminology

- Use *emf* and *current* when they are caused by batteries or other sources
- Use *induced emf* and *induced current* when they are caused by changing magnetic fields
- When dealing with problems in electromagnetism, it is **important to distinguish between the two situations**

Self-Inductance

- When the switch is closed, **the current does not immediately reach its maximum value**
- **Faraday's law** can be used to **describe the effect**

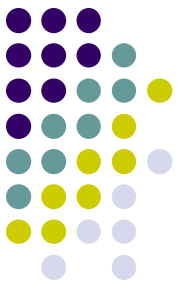


Self-Inductance, 2



- As the **current increases with time**, the **magnetic flux** through the circuit loop **due to this current also increases with time**
- This **increasing flux** creates **an induced emf in the circuit**

Self-Inductance, 3



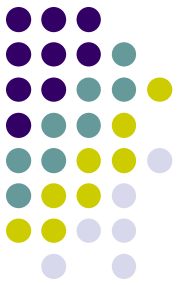
- The **direction of the induced emf** is such that it **would cause an induced current** in the loop which **would establish a magnetic field opposing the change** in the original magnetic field
- The **direction of the induced emf** is **opposite the direction of the emf** of the battery
- This **results in a gradual increase** in the current to its final equilibrium value

Self-Inductance, 4



- This effect is called **self-inductance**
- Because **the changing flux** through the circuit and the **resultant induced emf** arise from the circuit itself
- The **emf ε_L** is called a **self-induced emf**

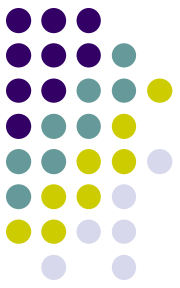
Self-Inductance, Equations



- An induced emf is **always proportional** to **the time rate of change of the current**
 - The emf is proportional to **the flux**, which is proportional to **the field** and the field is proportional to **the current**

$$\varepsilon_L = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$$

- **L** is a constant of proportionality called the inductance of the coil and it depends on the **geometry of the coil and other physical characteristics**



Inductance of a Coil

- A closely spaced coil of N turns carrying current I has an inductance of

$$L = \frac{N\Phi_B}{I} = -\frac{\varepsilon_L}{dI/dt}$$

- Note, $\varepsilon_L = -d\Phi_L/dt$ and $\varepsilon_L = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$
- **The inductance** is a **measure of the opposition to a change** in current



Inductance Units

- The SI unit of inductance is the **henry** (H)

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

- Named for Joseph Henry

Inductance of a Solenoid



- Assume a **uniformly wound solenoid** having **N** turns and length **ℓ**
 - Assume ℓ is much greater than the radius of the solenoid
- The **flux through each turn of area A** is

$$\Phi_B = BA = \mu_0 n I A = \mu_0 \frac{N}{\ell} I A$$

Inductance of a Solenoid, cont




- The inductance is

$$L = \frac{N\Phi_B}{I} = \frac{\mu_0 N^2 A}{\ell}$$

- This shows that **L depends on the geometry of the object**



RL Circuit, Introduction

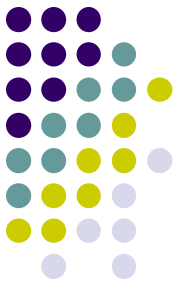
- A circuit element that has a large self-inductance is called **an inductor**
- The circuit symbol is 
- We assume the self-inductance of the rest of the circuit is negligible compared to the inductor
 - However, even without a coil, a circuit will have some self-inductance

Effect of an Inductor in a Circuit

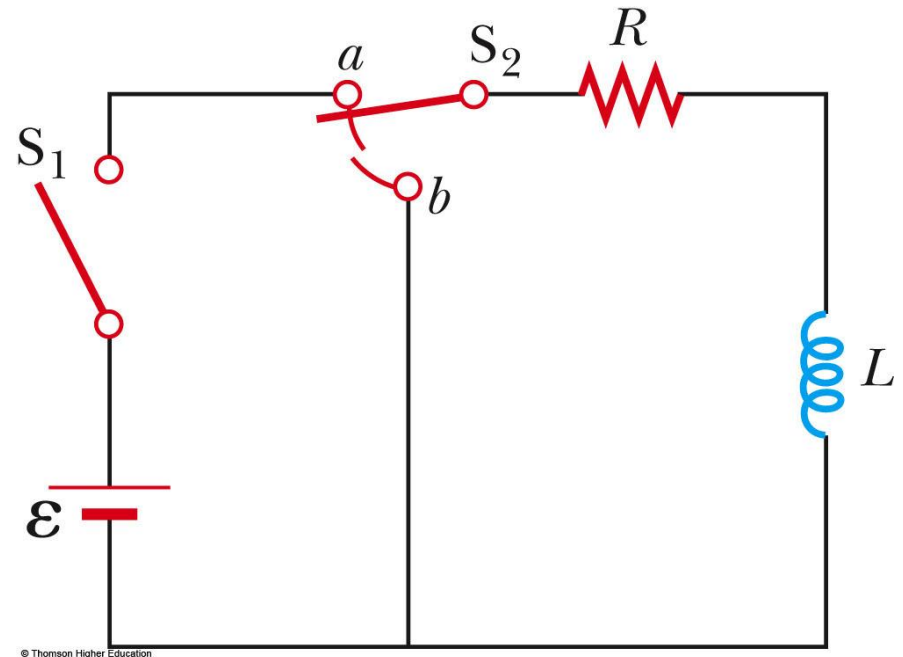


- The **inductance results in a back emf**
- Therefore, the **inductor in a circuit** **opposes changes in current in that circuit.**
 - The **inductor** attempts to **keep the current the same way** it was before the change occurred
 - The **inductor** can cause the circuit **to be “sluggish”** as it reacts to changes in the voltage

RL Circuit, Analysis



- An *RL* circuit contains an inductor and a resistor
- Assume S_2 is connected to **a**
- When switch S_1 is **closed (at time $t = 0$)**, the current begins to increase
- At the same time, a **back emf is induced** in the inductor that **opposes the original increasing current**



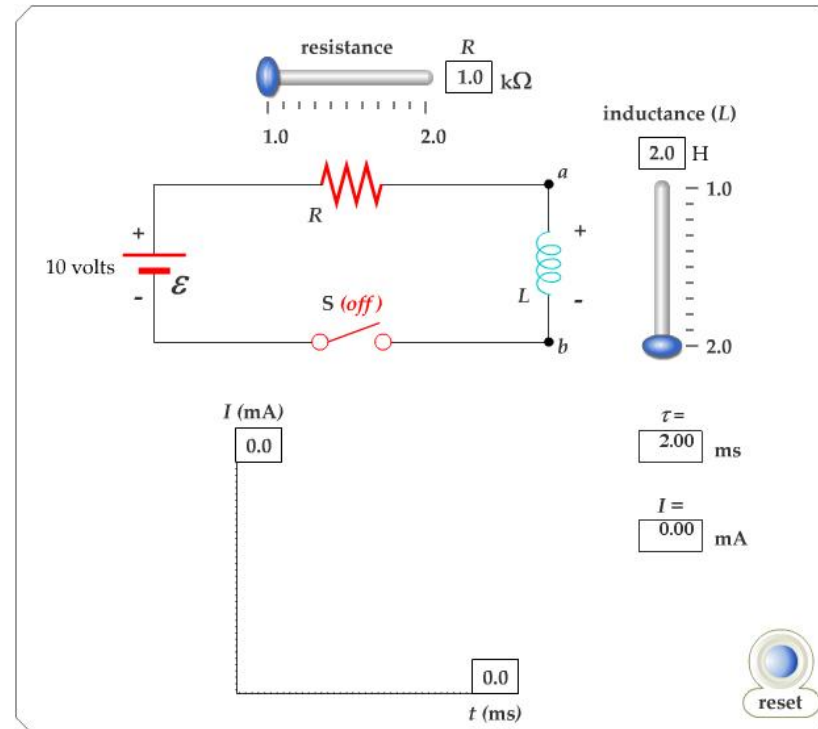
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PLAY
ACTIVE FIGURE



Active Figure 32.2 (a)

Use the active figure to set R and L and see the effect on the current



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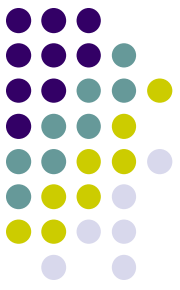
RL Circuit, Analysis, cont.

- Applying Kirchhoff's loop rule to the previous circuit **in the clockwise** direction gives

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

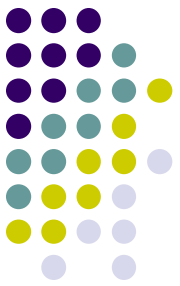
- Looking at **the current**, we find

$$I = \frac{\varepsilon}{R} \left(1 - e^{-Rt/L} \right)$$



RL Circuit, Analysis, Final

- The inductor **affects the current exponentially**
- The current **does not instantly increase** to its final equilibrium value
- **If there is no inductor, the exponential term goes to zero** and the current would **instantaneously reach its maximum value** as expected



RL Circuit, Time Constant

- The expression for the current can also be expressed in terms of **the time constant, τ** , of the circuit

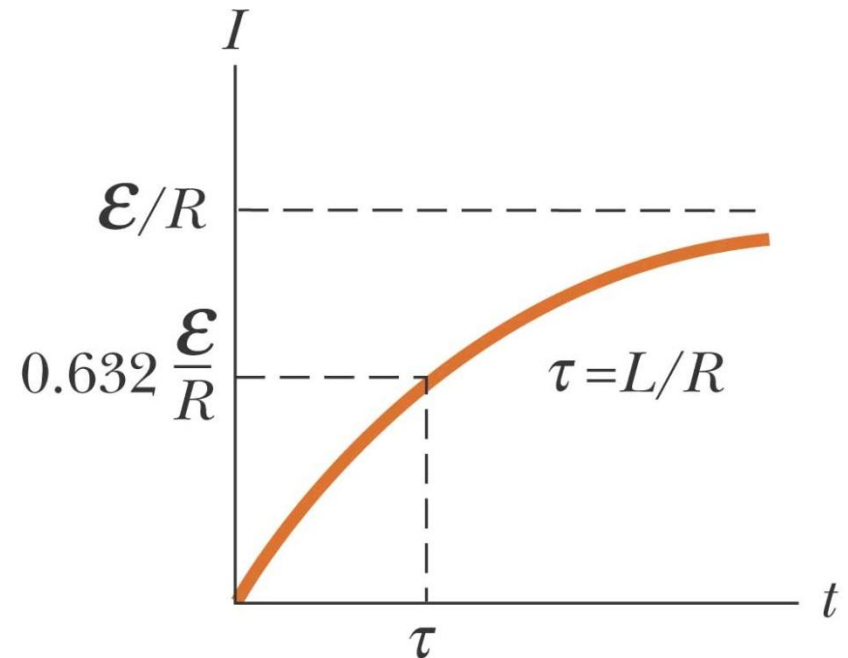
$$I = \frac{\varepsilon}{R} \left(1 - e^{-t/\tau} \right)$$

- **where $\tau = L / R$**
- **Physically, τ is the time required for the current to reach 63.2% of its maximum value**

RL Circuit, Current-Time Graph, (1)



- The **equilibrium value of the current is ϵ/R** and is reached as **t approaches infinity**
- The current **initially increases very rapidly**
- The current then gradually approaches the equilibrium value
- Use the active figure to watch the graph



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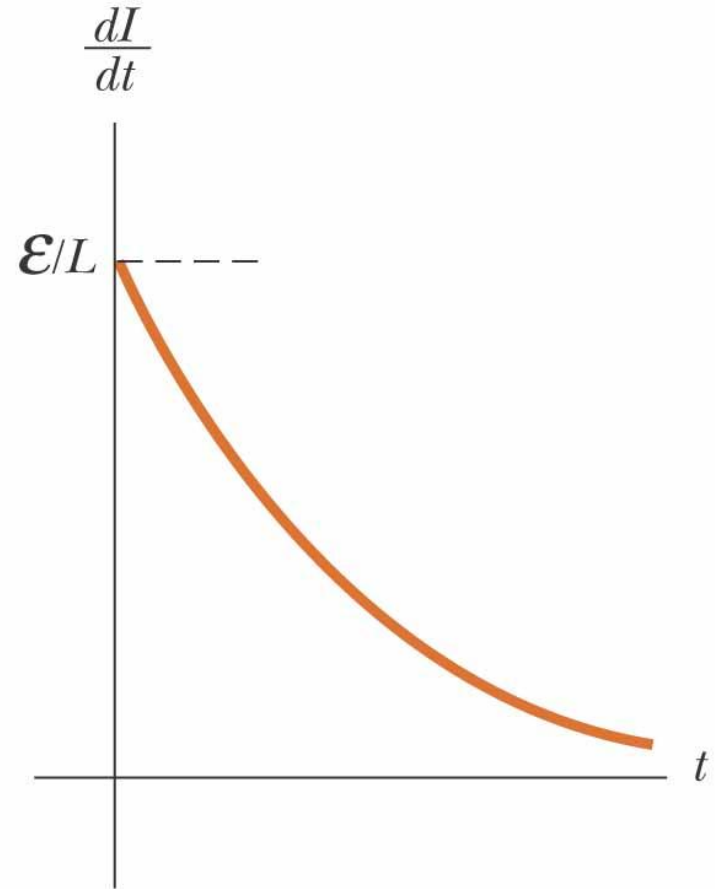
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ACTIVE FIGURE

RL Circuit, Current-Time Graph, (2)

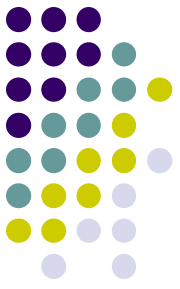


- The time rate of change of the current is a **maximum at $t = 0$**
- It falls off exponentially as t approaches infinity
- In general,

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{\varepsilon}{L} e^{-t/\tau}$$

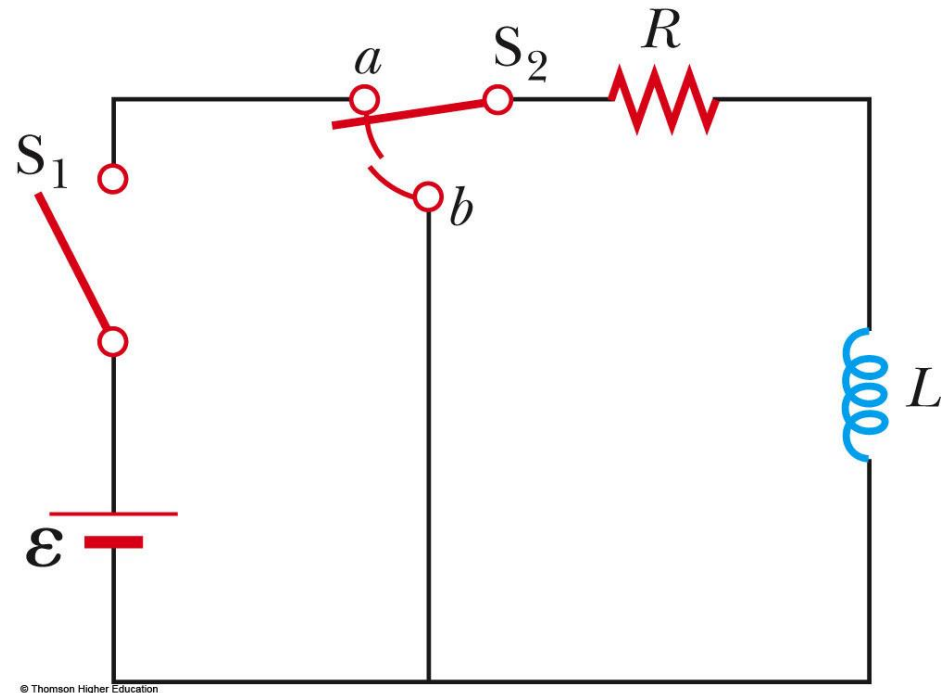


RL Circuit Without A Battery



- Now set S_2 to position b
- The circuit now contains **just the right hand loop**
- The **battery has been eliminated**
- The expression for the **current becomes**

$$I = \frac{\varepsilon}{R} e^{-t/\tau} = I_i e^{-t/\tau}$$



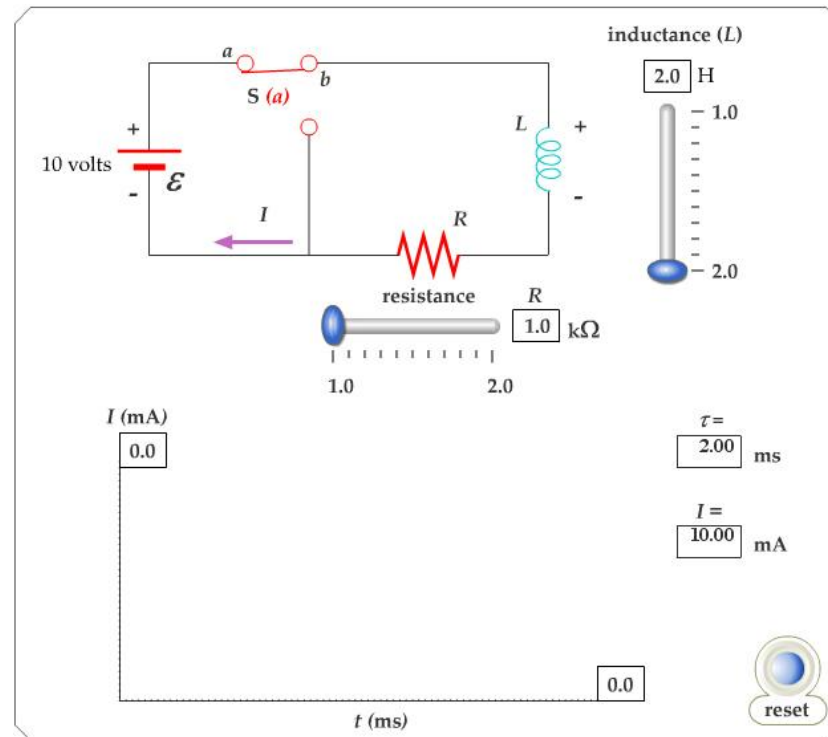
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ACTIVE FIGURE



Active Figure 32.2 (b)

Use the active figure to change the values of R and L and watch the result on the graph



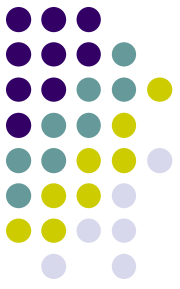
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ACTIVE FIGURE**



Energy in a Magnetic Field

- In a circuit with an inductor, **the battery must supply more energy** than in a circuit without an inductor
- Part of the energy supplied by the battery appears as internal energy in **the resistor**
- The **remaining energy** is stored in the magnetic field of **the inductor**

Energy in a Magnetic Field, cont.



- Looking at **this energy (in terms of rate)**

$$I\varepsilon = I^2 R + LI \frac{dI}{dt}$$

- **$I\varepsilon$** is the rate at which energy is being supplied by the battery
- **$I^2 R$** is the rate at which the energy is being delivered to the resistor
- Therefore, **$LI (dI/dt)$** must be the rate at which the energy is being stored in the magnetic field

Energy in a Magnetic Field, final



- Let **U** denote the energy stored in the inductor at any time
- The **rate at which the energy is stored** is

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = LI \frac{dI}{dt}$$

- To find **the total energy**, integrate:

$$U = L \int_0^I I \, dI = \frac{1}{2} LI^2$$

Energy Density of a Magnetic Field



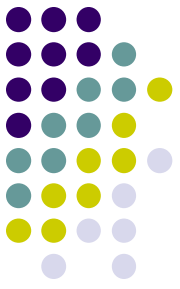
- Given $U = \frac{1}{2} L I^2$ and assume (for simplicity) a solenoid with $L = \mu_0 n^2 V$

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 n^2 V \left(\frac{B}{\mu_0 n} \right)^2 = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0} V$$

- Since V is the volume of the solenoid, **the magnetic energy density, u_B is**

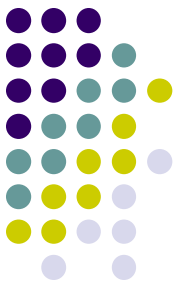
$$u_B = \frac{U}{V} = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0}$$

- This applies to any region in which a magnetic field exists (not just the solenoid)



Energy Storage Summary

- A resistor, inductor and capacitor all store energy through different mechanisms
 - Charged capacitor
 - Stores energy as electric potential energy
 - Inductor
 - When it carries a current, stores energy as magnetic potential energy
 - Resistor
 - Energy delivered is transformed into internal energy



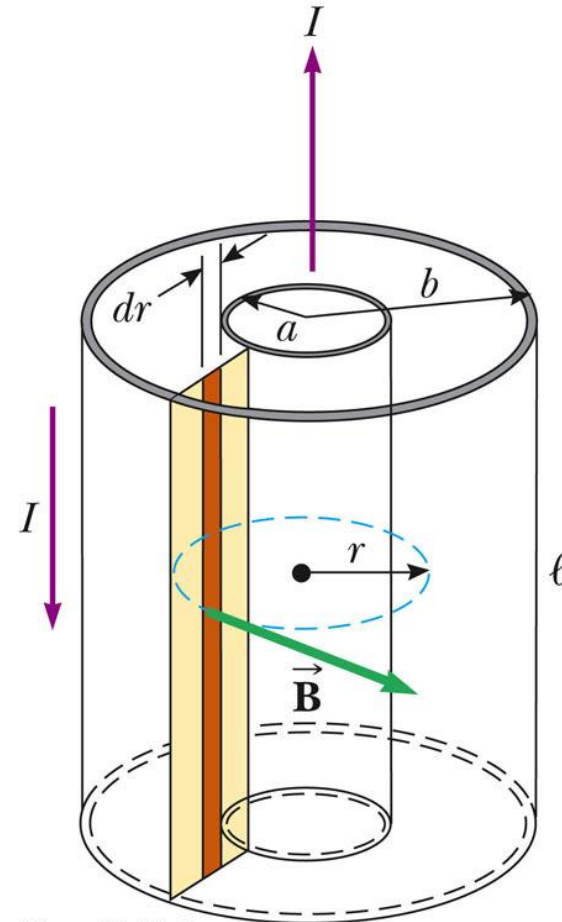
Example: The Coaxial Cable

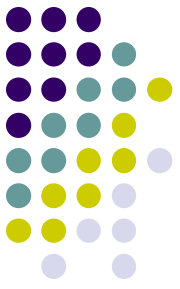
- Calculate L for the cable
- The total flux is

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_B &= \int B \, dA = \int_a^b \frac{\mu_o I}{2\pi r} \ell \, dr \\ &= \frac{\mu_o I \ell}{2\pi} \ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, L is

$$L = \frac{\Phi_B}{I} = \frac{\mu_o \ell}{2\pi} \ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$$

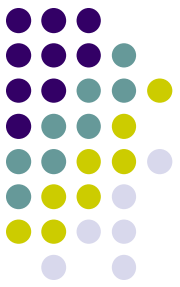




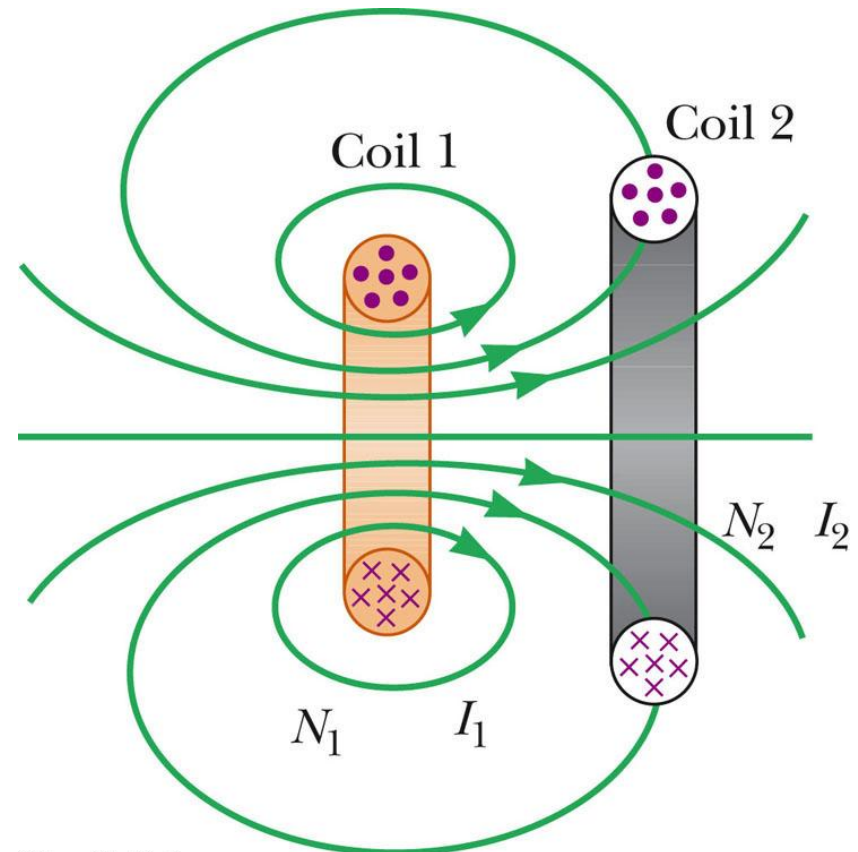
Mutual Inductance

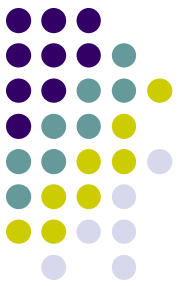
- The **magnetic flux** through the area enclosed by a circuit often varies with time because of **time-varying currents in nearby circuits**
- This process is known as ***mutual induction*** because it depends **on the interaction of two circuits**

Mutual Inductance, 2



- The current in coil 1 sets up a magnetic field
- Some of the magnetic field lines pass through coil 2
- Coil 1 has a current I_1 and N_1 turns
- Coil 2 has N_2 turns





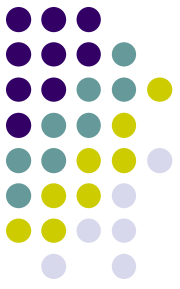
Mutual Inductance, 3

- The **mutual inductance** M_{12} of **coil 2** with respect to **coil 1** is

$$M_{12} \equiv \frac{N_2 \Phi_{12}}{I_1}$$

- Mutual inductance depends on the geometry of both circuits and on their orientation with respect to each other

Induced emf in Mutual Inductance

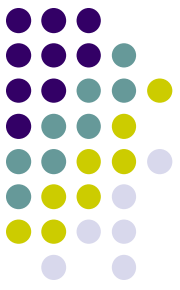


- If current I_1 varies with time, **the emf induced by coil 1 in coil 2** is

$$\varepsilon_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\Phi_{12}}{dt} = -M_{12} \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$

- If the current is in coil 2, there is a mutual inductance M_{21}
- **If current 2 varies with time, the emf induced by coil 2 in coil 1 is**

$$\varepsilon_1 = -M_{21} \frac{dI_2}{dt}$$



Mutual Inductance, Final

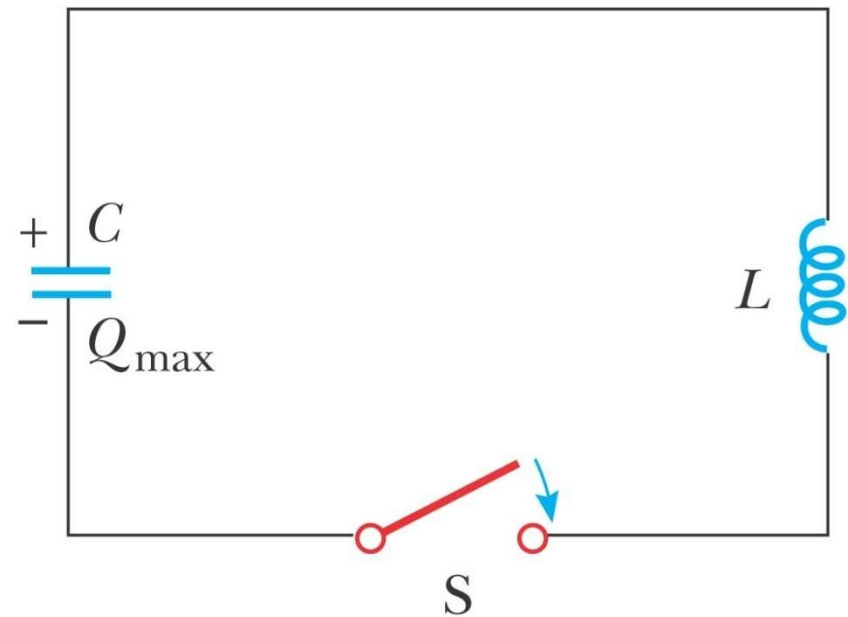
- In mutual induction, **the emf induced in one coil is always proportional** to the rate at which the current in the other coil is changing
- The mutual inductance in one coil is equal to the mutual inductance in the other coil
 - $M_{12} = M_{21} = M$
- **The induced emf's can** be expressed as

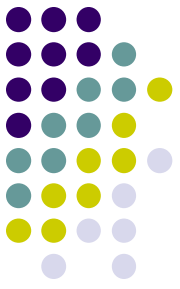
$$\varepsilon_1 = -M \frac{dI_2}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon_2 = -M \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$



LC Circuits

- A capacitor is connected to an inductor in an LC circuit
- Assume the capacitor is initially charged and then the switch is closed
- Assume no resistance and no energy losses to radiation

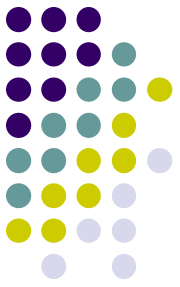




Oscillations in an *LC* Circuit

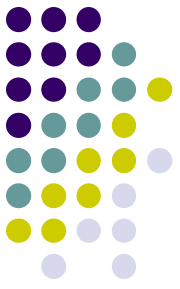
- Under the previous conditions, the current in the circuit and the charge on the capacitor oscillate between maximum positive and negative values
- With zero resistance, no energy is transformed into internal energy
- Ideally, the oscillations in the circuit persist indefinitely
 - The idealizations are no resistance and no radiation

Oscillations in an *LC* Circuit, 2



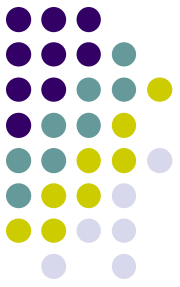
- The capacitor is fully charged
 - The energy U in the circuit is stored in the electric field of the capacitor
 - The energy is equal to $Q_{\max}^2 / 2C$
 - The current in the circuit is zero
 - No energy is stored in the inductor
- The switch is closed

Oscillations in an *LC* Circuit, 3



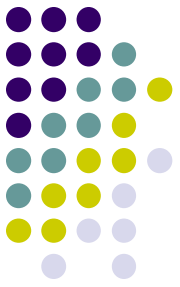
- The current is equal to the rate at which the charge changes on the capacitor
 - As the capacitor discharges, the energy stored in the electric field decreases
 - Since there is now a current, some energy is stored in the magnetic field of the inductor
 - Energy is transferred from the electric field to the magnetic field

Oscillations in an *LC* Circuit, 4



- Eventually, the capacitor becomes fully discharged
 - It stores no energy
 - All of the energy is stored in the magnetic field of the inductor
 - The current reaches its maximum value
- The current now decreases in magnitude, recharging the capacitor with its plates having opposite their initial polarity

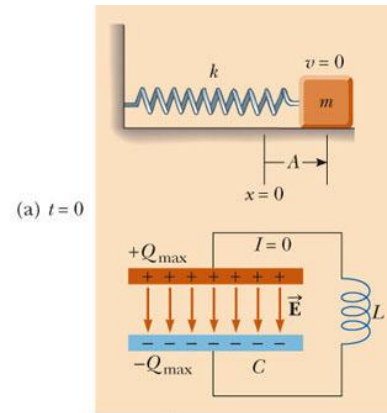
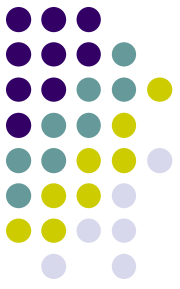
Oscillations in an *LC* Circuit, final



- The capacitor becomes fully charged and the cycle repeats
- The energy continues to oscillate between the inductor and the capacitor
- The total energy stored in the LC circuit remains constant in time and equals

$$U = U_C + U_L = \frac{Q^2}{2C} + \frac{1}{2} L I^2$$

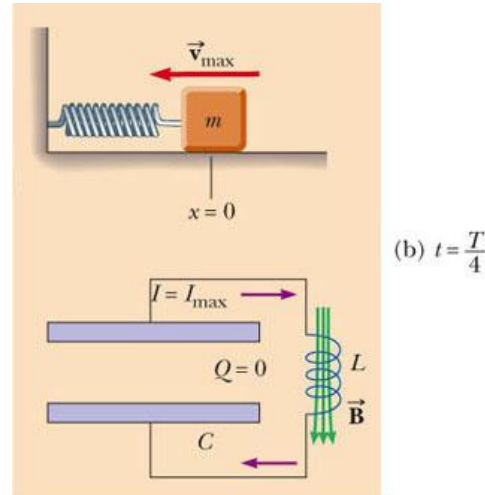
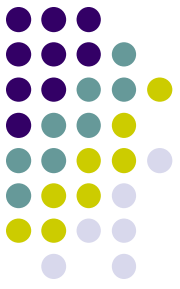
LC Circuit Analogy to Spring-Mass System, 1



- The potential energy $\frac{1}{2}kx^2$ stored in the spring is analogous to the electric potential energy $(Q_{\max})^2/(2C)$ stored in the capacitor
- All the energy is stored in the capacitor at $t = 0$
- This is analogous to the spring stretched to its amplitude

PLAY
ACTIVE FIGURE

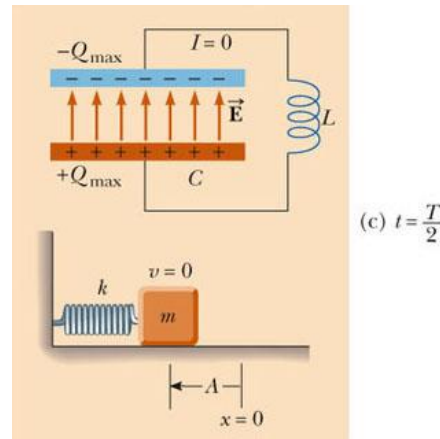
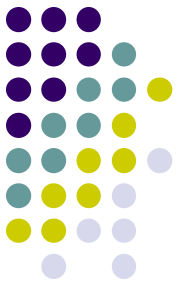
LC Circuit Analogy to Spring-Mass System, 2



- The kinetic energy ($\frac{1}{2} mv^2$) of the spring is analogous to the magnetic energy ($\frac{1}{2} L I^2$) stored in the inductor
- At $t = \frac{1}{4} T$, all the energy is stored as magnetic energy in the inductor
- The maximum current occurs in the circuit
- This is analogous to the mass at equilibrium

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ACTIVE FIGURE**

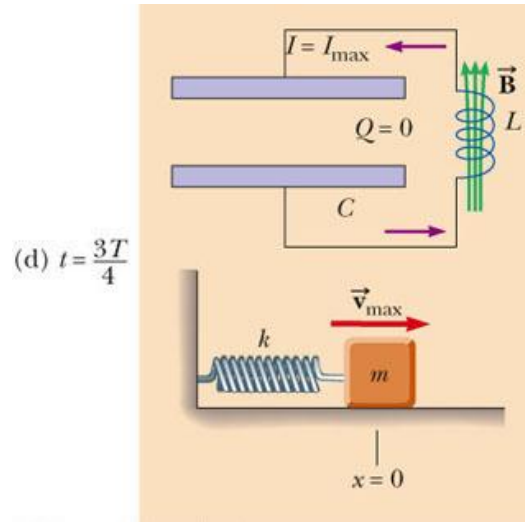
LC Circuit Analogy to Spring-Mass System, 3



- At $t = \frac{1}{2} T$, the energy in the circuit is completely stored in the capacitor
- The polarity of the capacitor is reversed
- This is analogous to the spring stretched to $-A$

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ACTIVE FIGURE

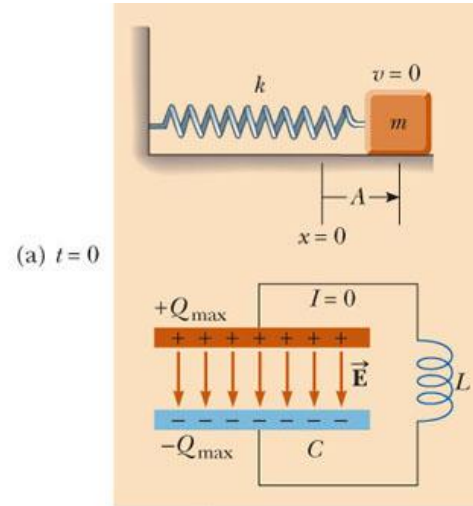
LC Circuit Analogy to Spring-Mass System, 4



- At $t = \frac{3}{4} T$, the energy is again stored in the magnetic field of the inductor
- This is analogous to the mass again reaching the equilibrium position

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ACTIVE FIGURE

LC Circuit Analogy to Spring-Mass System, 5



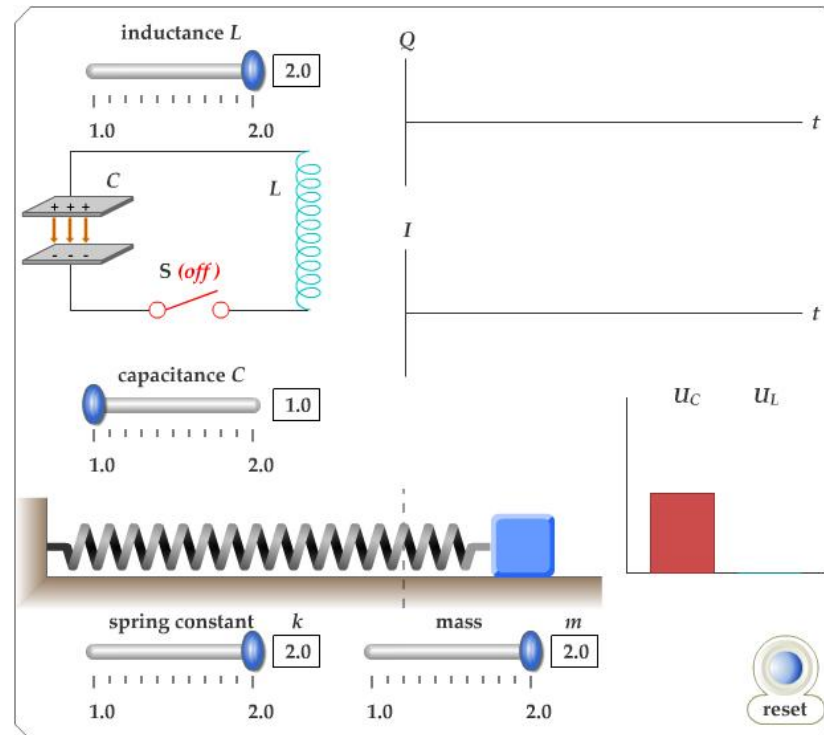
- At $t = T$, the cycle is completed
- The conditions return to those identical to the initial conditions
- At other points in the cycle, energy is shared between the electric and magnetic fields

**PLAY
ACTIVE FIGURE**



Active Figure 32.11

Use the active figure to adjust the values and L and C and see the effects on the current



**PLAY
ACTIVE FIGURE**

Time Functions of an *LC* Circuit



- In an LC circuit, charge can be expressed as a function of time
 - $Q = Q_{\max} \cos (\omega t + \varphi)$
 - This is for an ideal LC circuit
- The angular frequency, ω , of the circuit depends on the inductance and the capacitance
 - It is the natural frequency of oscillation of the circuit

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

Time Functions of an LC Circuit, 2



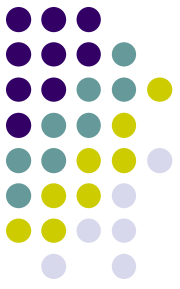
- The current can be expressed as a function of time

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = -\omega Q_{max} \sin(\omega t + \varphi)$$

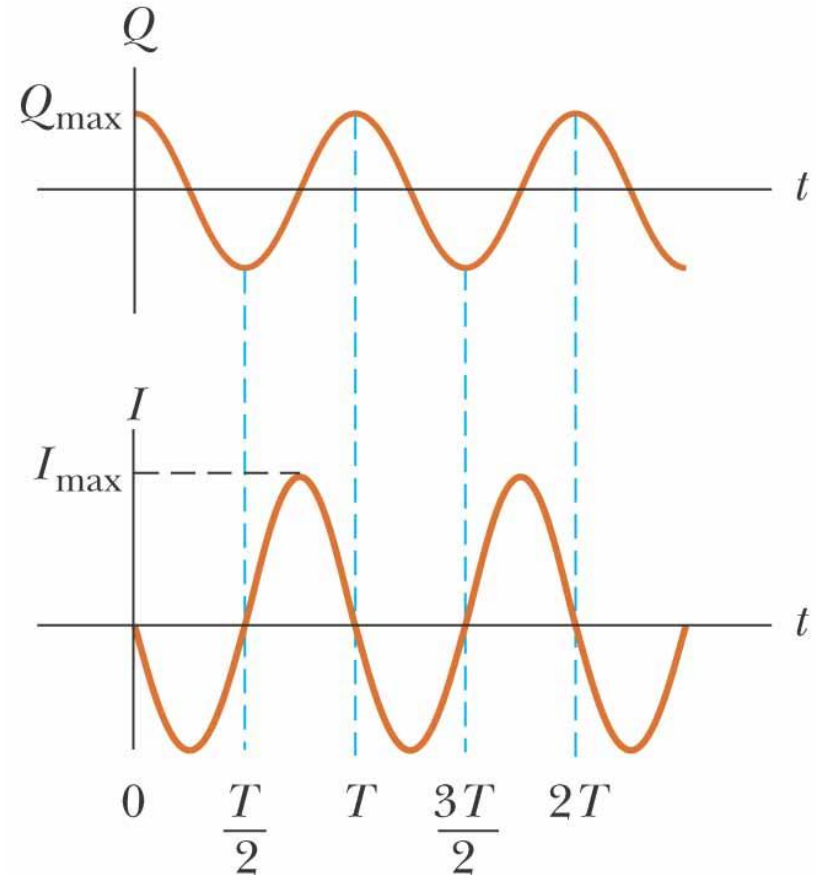
- The total energy can be expressed as a function of time

$$U = U_C + U_L = \frac{Q_{max}^2}{2C} \cos^2 \omega t + \frac{1}{2} L I_{max}^2 \sin^2 \omega t$$

Charge and Current in an LC Circuit



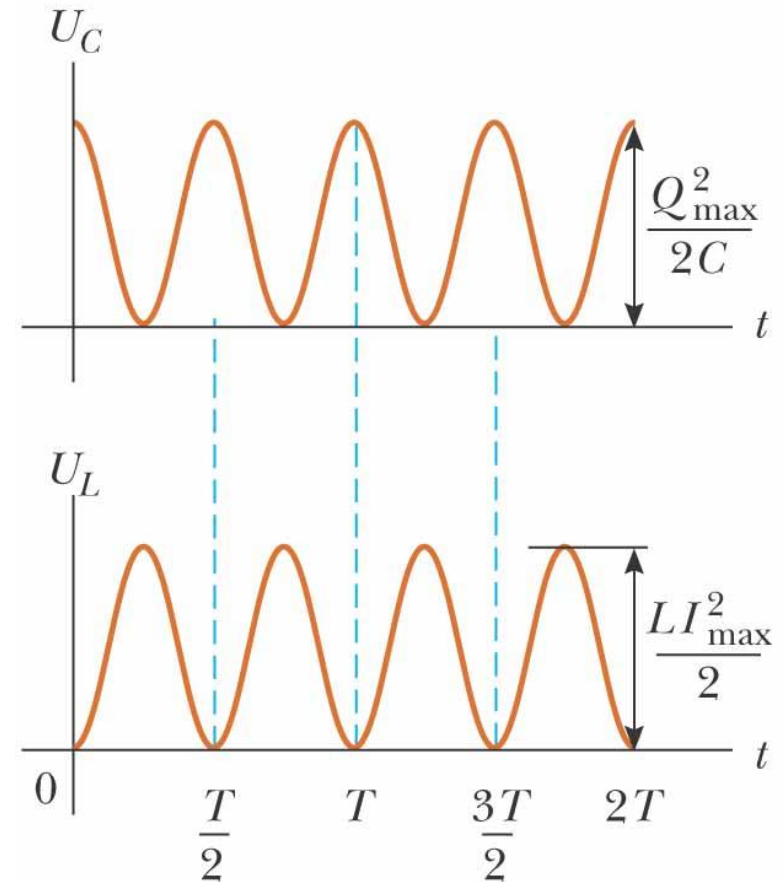
- The charge on the capacitor oscillates between Q_{\max} and $-Q_{\max}$
- The current in the inductor oscillates between I_{\max} and $-I_{\max}$
- Q and I are 90° out of phase with each other
 - So when Q is a maximum, I is zero, etc.



Energy in an LC Circuit – Graphs



- The energy continually oscillates between the energy stored in the electric and magnetic fields
- When the total energy is stored in one field, the energy stored in the other field is zero

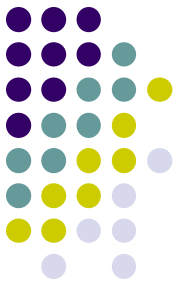


Notes About Real *LC* Circuits

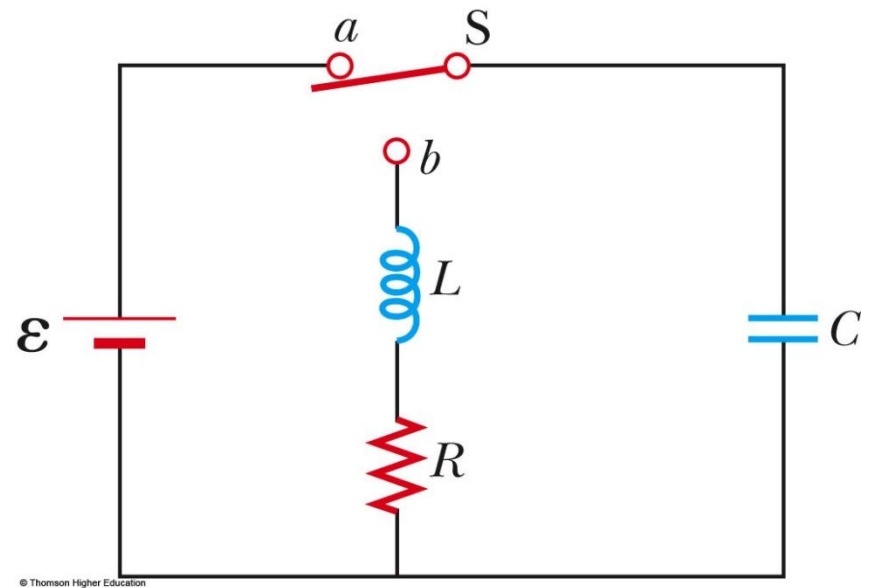


- In actual circuits, there is always some resistance
- Therefore, there is some energy transformed to internal energy
- Radiation is also inevitable in this type of circuit
- The total energy in the circuit continuously decreases as a result of these processes

The *RLC* Circuit



- A circuit containing a resistor, an inductor and a capacitor is called an ***RLC* Circuit**
- Assume the resistor represents the total resistance of the circuit

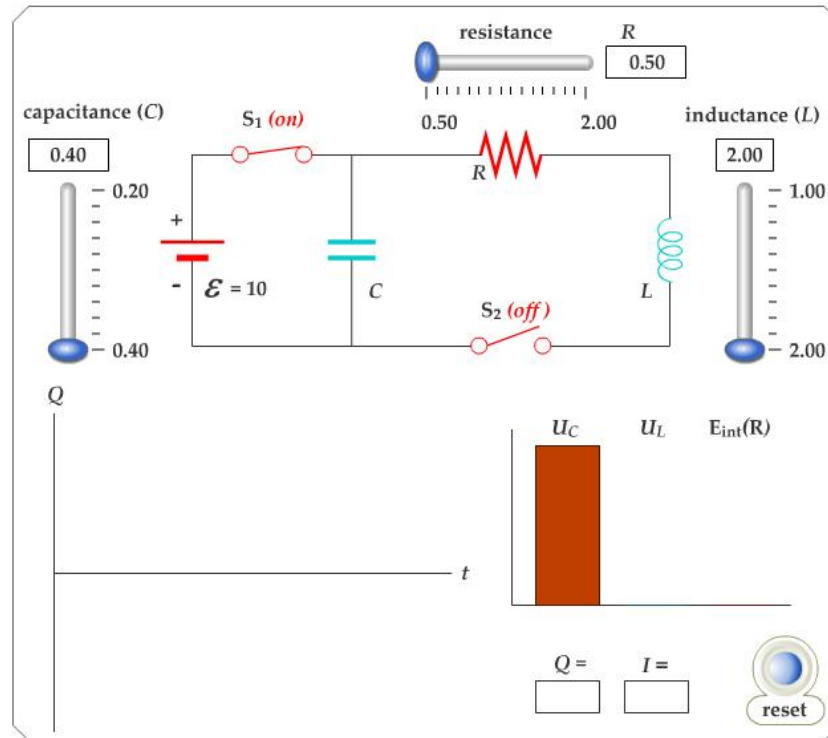


PLAY
ACTIVE FIGURE



Active Figure 32.15

Use the active figure to adjust R , L , and C . Observe the effect on the charge



PLAY
ACTIVE FIGURE



RLC Circuit, Analysis

- The **total energy is not constant**, since there is a transformation **to internal energy** in the resistor at the rate of $dU/dt = -I^2 R$
 - Radiation losses are still ignored
- The **circuit's operation can be expressed as**

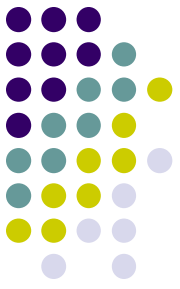
$$L \frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2} + R \frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{Q}{C} = 0$$

RLC Circuit Compared to Damped Oscillators



- The *RLC* circuit is analogous to a damped harmonic oscillator
- **When $R = 0$**
 - The **circuit reduces to an *LC* circuit** and is equivalent to no damping in a mechanical oscillator

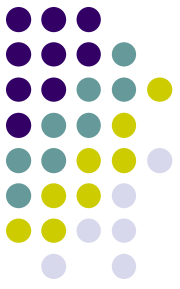
RLC Circuit Compared to Damped Oscillators, cont.



- When R is small:
 - The RLC circuit is analogous to light damping in a mechanical oscillator
 - $Q = Q_{\max} e^{-Rt/2L} \cos \omega_d t$
 - ω_d is the angular frequency of oscillation for the circuit and

$$\omega_d = \left[\frac{1}{LC} - \left(\frac{R}{2L} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

RLC Circuit Compared to Damped Oscillators, final



- When R is very large, the oscillations damp out very rapidly
- There is a critical value of R above which no oscillations occur

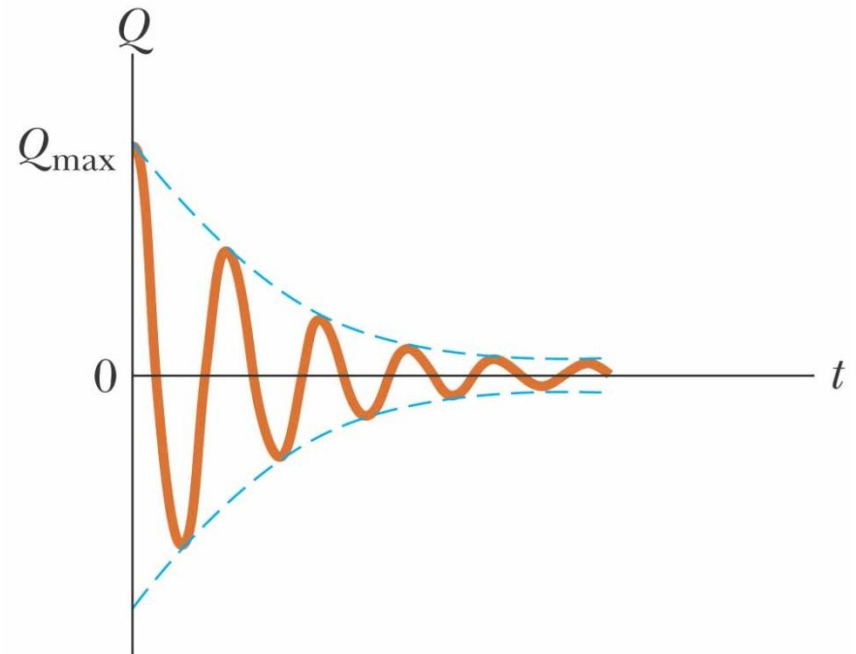
$$R_C = \sqrt{4L/C}$$

- If $R = R_C$, the circuit is said to be *critically damped*
- When $R > R_C$, the circuit is said to be *overdamped*



Damped RLC Circuit, Graph

- The maximum value of Q decreases after each oscillation
 - $R < R_C$
- This is analogous to the amplitude of a damped spring-mass system



(a)

Summary: Analogies Between Electrical and Mechanical Systems

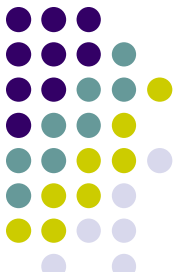


TABLE 32.1

Analogies Between Electrical and Mechanical Systems

Electric Circuit		One-Dimensional Mechanical System
Charge	$Q \leftrightarrow x$	Position
Current	$I \leftrightarrow v_x$	Velocity
Potential difference	$\Delta V \leftrightarrow F_x$	Force
Resistance	$R \leftrightarrow b$	Viscous damping coefficient
Capacitance	$C \leftrightarrow 1/k$	($k =$ spring constant)
Inductance	$L \leftrightarrow m$	Mass
Current = time derivative of charge	$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} \leftrightarrow v_x = \frac{dx}{dt}$	Velocity = time derivative of position
Rate of change of current = second time derivative of charge	$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{d^2Q}{dt^2} \leftrightarrow a_x = \frac{dv_x}{dt} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$	Acceleration = second time derivative of position
Energy in inductor	$U_L = \frac{1}{2}LI^2 \leftrightarrow K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$	Kinetic energy of moving object
Energy in capacitor	$U_C = \frac{1}{2}\frac{Q^2}{C} \leftrightarrow U = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$	Potential energy stored in a spring
Rate of energy loss due to resistance	$I^2R \leftrightarrow bv^2$	Rate of energy loss due to friction
<i>RLC</i> circuit	$L\frac{d^2Q}{dt^2} + R\frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{Q}{C} = 0 \leftrightarrow m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + b\frac{dx}{dt} + kx = 0$	Damped object on a spring