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# Chapter 30

# Inductance

# Goals for Chapter 30

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- To learn how current in one coil can induce an emf in another unconnected coil
- To relate the induced emf to the rate of change of the current
- To calculate the energy in a magnetic field
- To analyze circuits containing resistors and inductors
- To describe electrical oscillations in circuits and why the oscillations decay

# Introduction

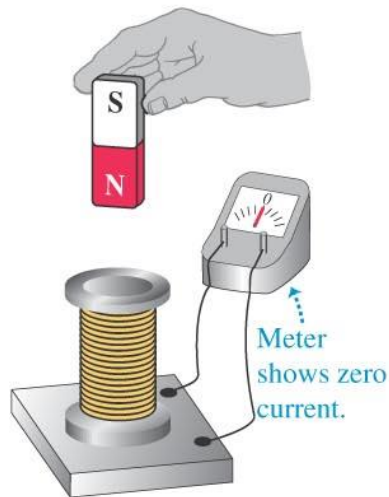
- How does a coil induce a current in a neighboring coil.
- A sensor triggers the traffic light to change when a car arrives at an intersection. How does it do this?
- Why does a coil of metal behave very differently from a straight wire of the same metal?
- We'll learn how circuits can be coupled without being connected together.



# Induced current

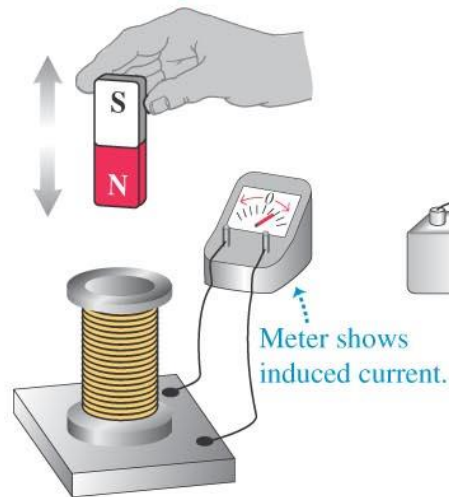
- A changing magnetic flux causes an *induced current*. See Figure 29.1 below.
- The *induced emf* is the corresponding emf causing the current.

(a) A stationary magnet does NOT induce a current in a coil.

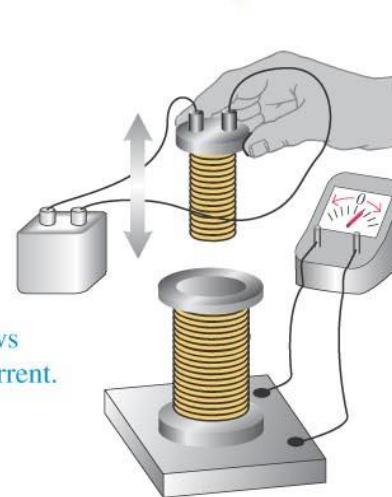


All these actions DO induce a current in the coil. What do they have in common?\*

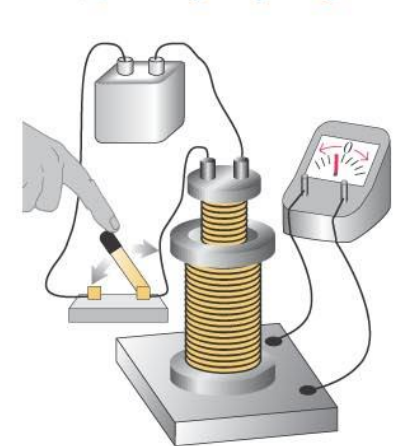
(b) Moving the magnet toward or away from the coil



(c) Moving a second, current-carrying coil toward or away from the coil



(d) Varying the current in the second coil (by closing or opening a switch)

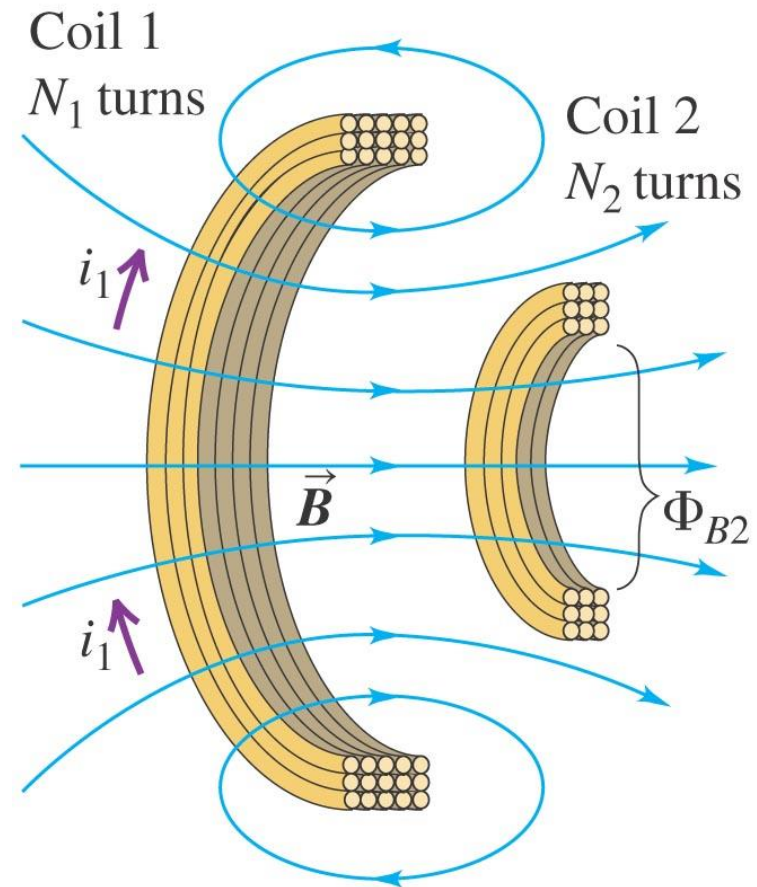


\*They cause the magnetic field through the coil to *change*.

# Mutual inductance

- *Mutual inductance:* A changing current in one coil induces a current in a neighboring coil. See Figure 30.1 at the right.
- Follow the discussion of mutual inductance in the text.

**Mutual inductance:** If the current in coil 1 is changing, the changing flux through coil 2 induces an emf in coil 2.



# Induced electric fields

$$\Phi_B = BA = \mu_0 n I A$$

$$\mathcal{E} = -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = -\mu_0 n A \frac{dI}{dt}$$

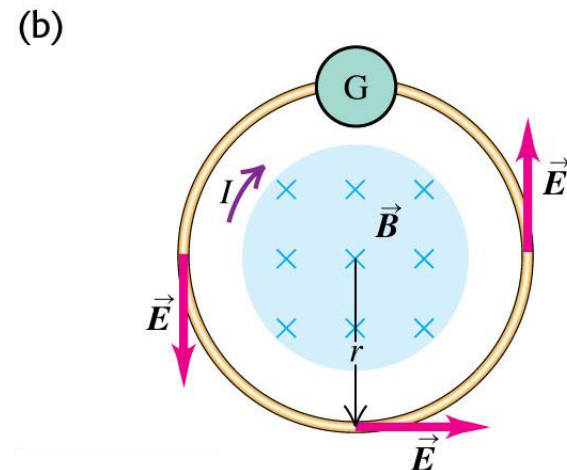
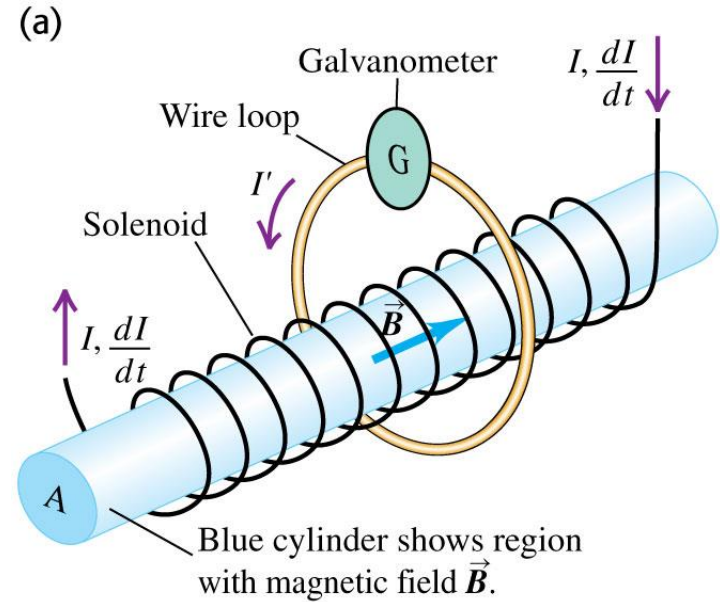
$$V_{ab} = \mathcal{E} \quad (\text{ideal source of emf}) \quad ; I' = \mathcal{E}/R.$$

induced electric field  $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mathcal{E}$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} \quad (\text{stationary integration path})$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 2\pi r E, \text{ and Eq. (29.10) gives}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2\pi r} \left| \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} \right|$$



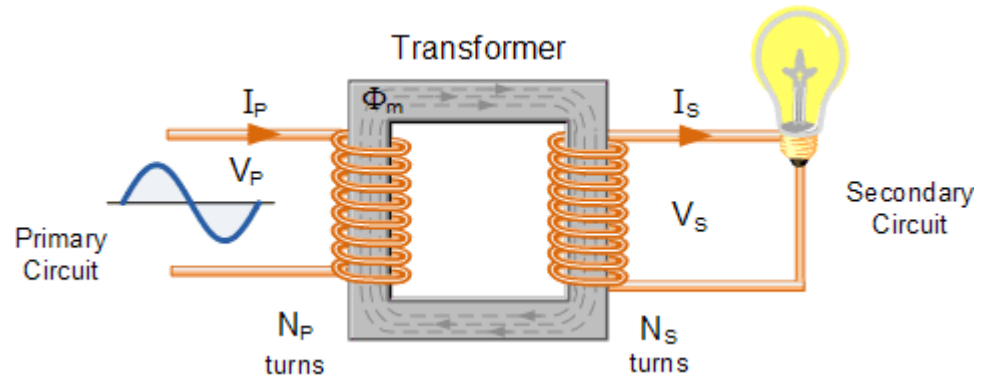
# Induced current

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# Induced current





# Mutual inductance

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\Phi_{B2}}{dt} \quad (30.1)$$

We could represent the proportionality of  $\Phi_{B2}$  and  $i_1$  in the form  $\Phi_{B2} = (\text{constant})i_1$ , but instead it is more convenient to include the number of turns  $N_2$  in the relationship. Introducing a proportionality constant  $M_{21}$ , called the **mutual inductance** of the two coils, we write

$$N_2 \Phi_{B2} = M_{21} i_1 \quad (30.2)$$

where  $\Phi_{B2}$  is the flux through a *single* turn of coil 2. From this,

$$N_2 \frac{d\Phi_{B2}}{dt} = M_{21} \frac{di_1}{dt}$$

and we can rewrite Eq. (30.1) as

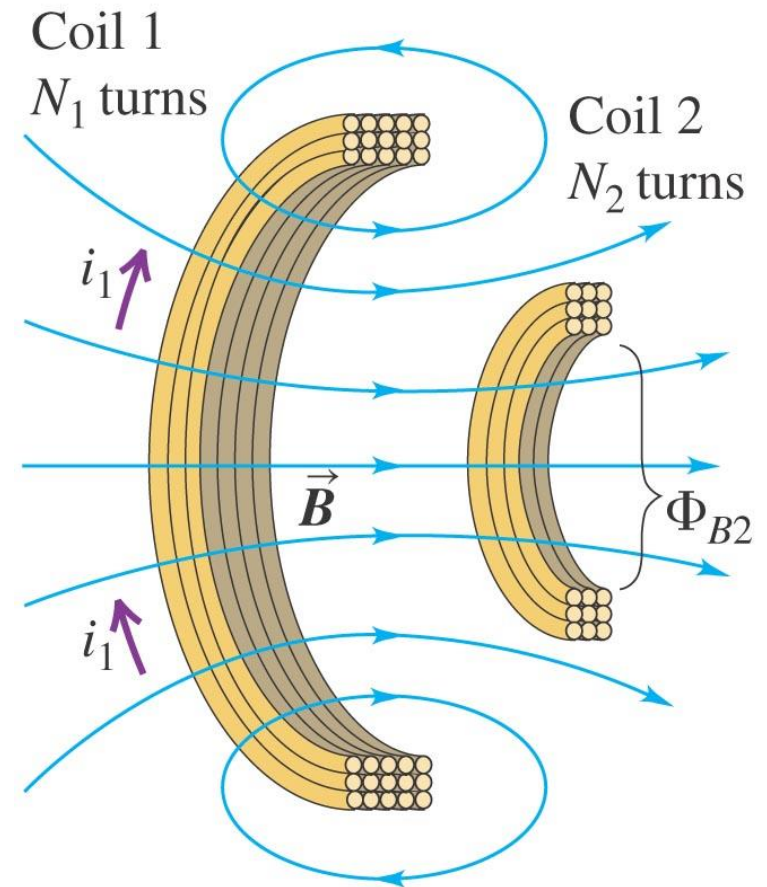
$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -M_{21} \frac{di_1}{dt} \quad (30.3)$$

That is, a change in the current  $i_1$  in coil 1 induces an emf in coil 2 that is directly proportional to the rate of change of  $i_1$  (Fig. 30.2).

We may also write the definition of mutual inductance, Eq. (30.2), as

$$M_{21} = \frac{N_2 \Phi_{B2}}{i_1}$$

**Mutual inductance:** If the current in coil 1 is changing, the changing flux through coil 2 induces an emf in coil 2.



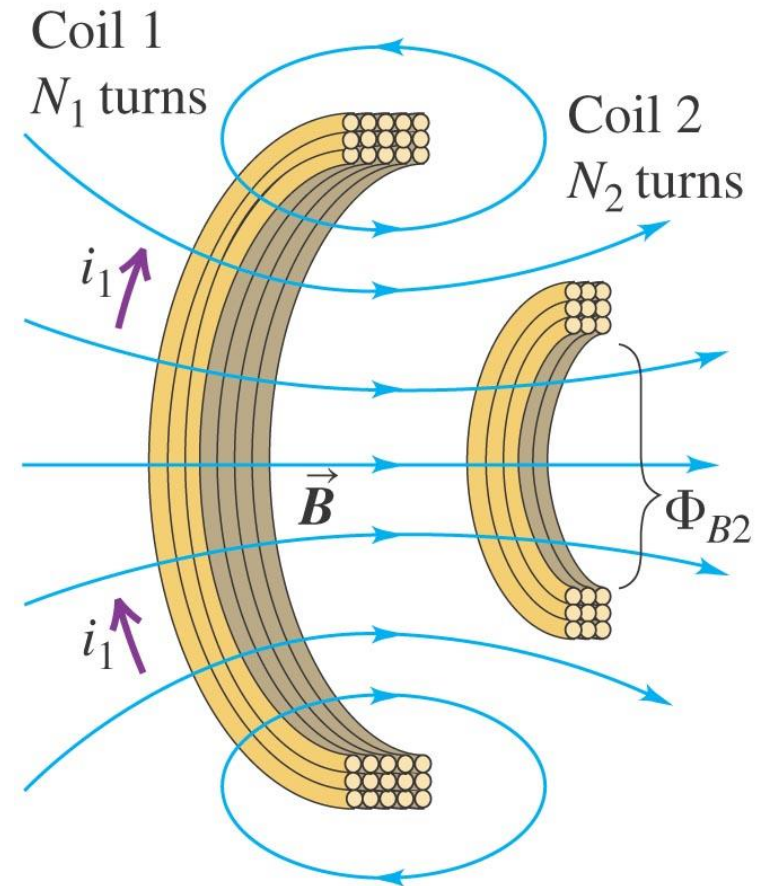
# Mutual inductance

B Flux is constant  
going through both coils

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

$$M = \frac{N_2 \Phi_{B2}}{i_1} = \frac{N_1 \Phi_{B1}}{i_2}$$

**Mutual inductance:** If the current in coil 1 is changing, the changing flux through coil 2 induces an emf in coil 2.



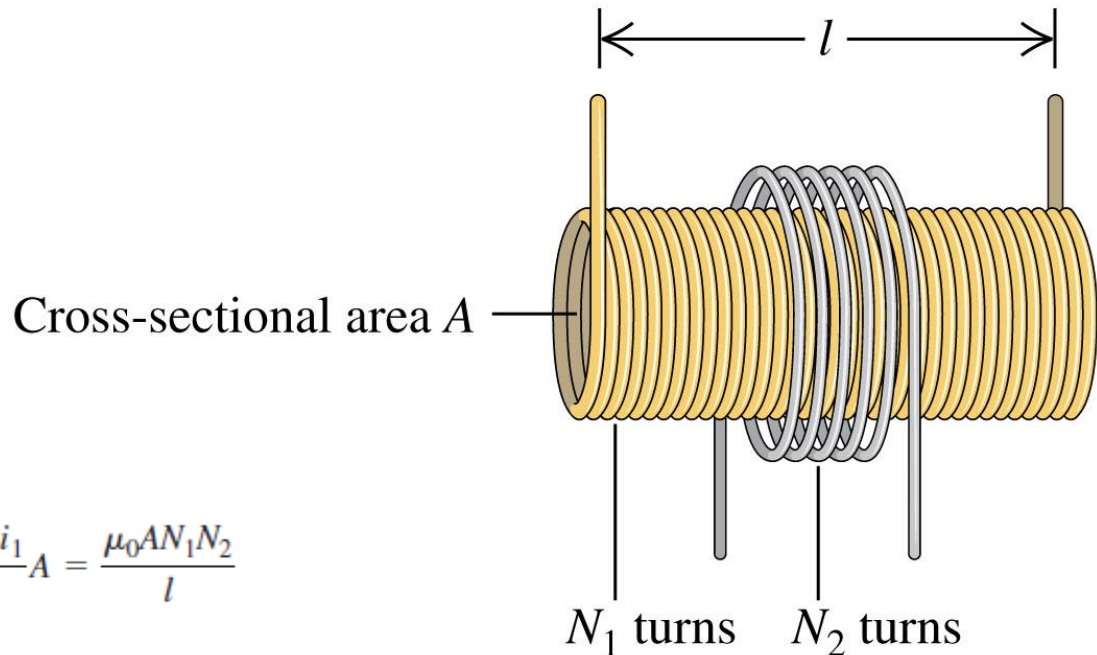
# Mutual inductance examples

- Follow Example 30.1, which shows how to calculate mutual inductance. See Figure 30.3 below.

$$n_1 = N_1/L.$$

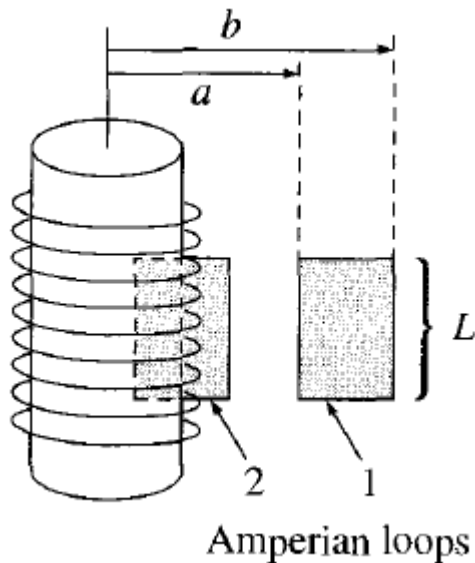
$$B_1 = \mu_0 n_1 i_1 = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 i_1}{l}$$

$$M = \frac{N_2 \Phi_{B2}}{i_1} = \frac{N_2 B_1 A}{i_1} = \frac{N_2}{i_1} \frac{\mu_0 N_1 i_1}{l} A = \frac{\mu_0 A N_1 N_2}{l}$$



# Field of a solenoid

- A *solenoid* consists of a helical winding of wire on a cylinder.
- Follow Example 28.9 using Figures 28.22–28.24 below.



$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = [B(a) - B(b)]L = \mu_0 I_{\text{enc}} = 0,$$

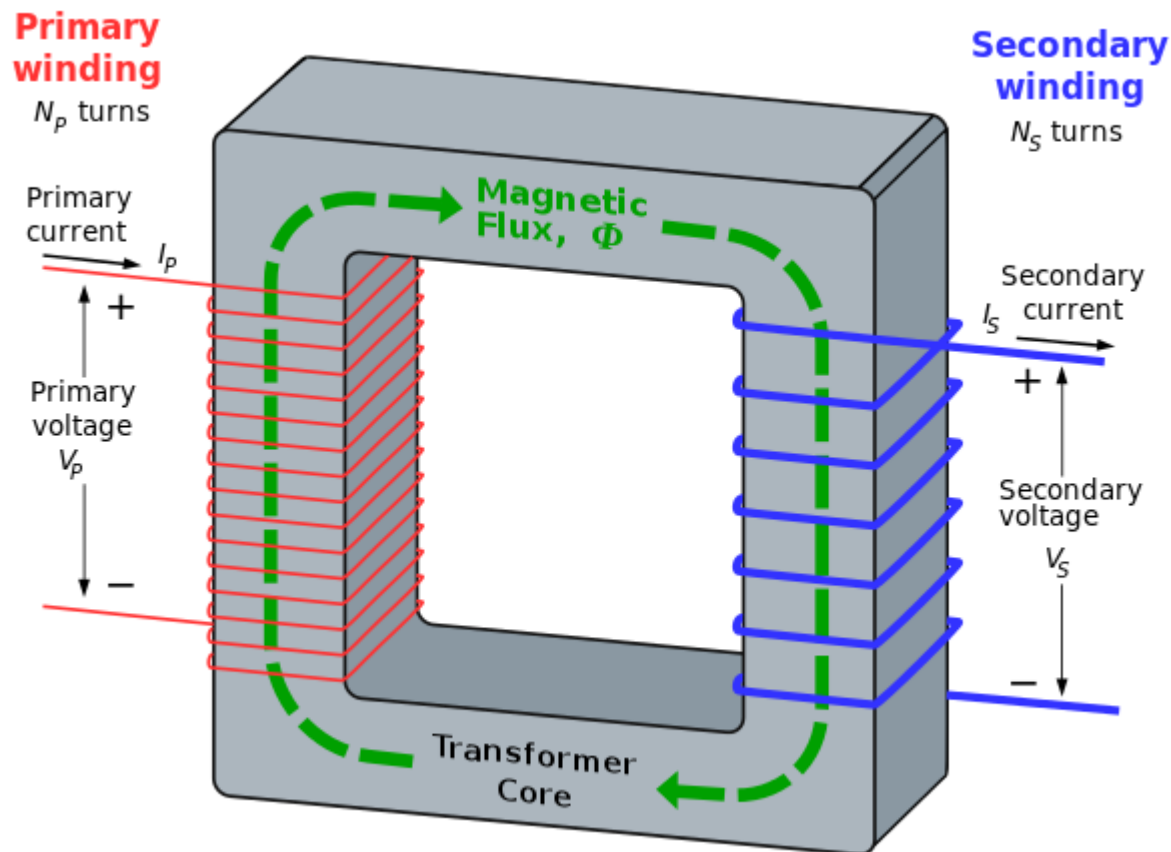
$$B(a) = B(b).$$

$$BL = \mu_0 nLI,$$

$$B = \mu_0 nI$$

Evidently the *field outside does not depend on the distance from the axis*. But we know that it goes to *zero* for large  $s$ . It must therefore be zero *everywhere*! (This astonishing result can also

# Mutual inductance examples



$$M = \frac{N_2 \Phi_{B2}}{i_1} = \frac{N_2 B_1 A}{i_1} = \frac{N_2}{i_1} \frac{\mu_0 N_1 i_1}{l} A = \frac{\mu_0 A N_1 N_2}{l}$$

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

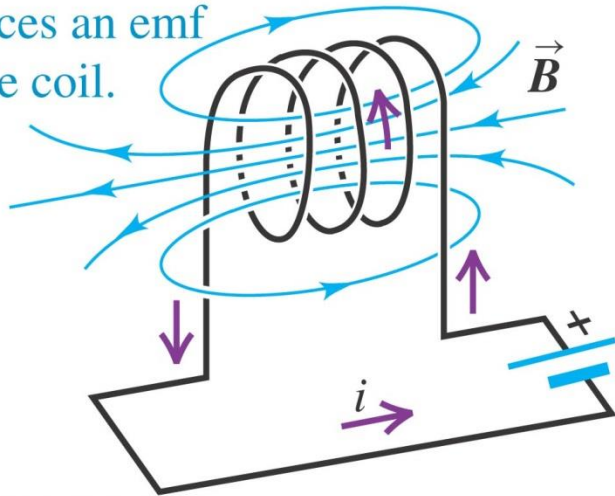


# Self-inductance

- *Self-inductance*: A varying current in a circuit induces an emf in that same circuit. See Figure 30.4 below.

$dl$

**Self-inductance:** If the current  $i$  in the coil is changing, the changing flux through the coil induces an emf in the coil.



By Lenz's law, a self-induced emf always opposes the change

$$L = \frac{N\Phi_B}{i} \quad (\text{self-inductance})$$

$$N \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$\mathcal{E} = -L \frac{di}{dt} \quad (\text{self-induced emf})$$

$$n_1 = N_1/L.$$

$$B_1 = \mu_0 n_1 i_1 = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 i_1}{l}$$

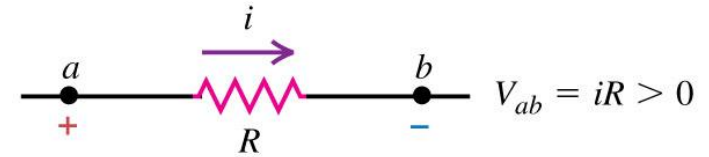
$$L = \frac{NBA}{i} = \frac{NuNiA}{i * l} = \frac{N^2 u A}{l}$$



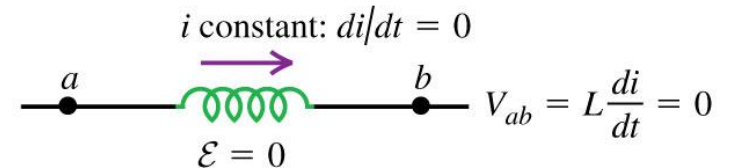
# Potential across an inductor

- The potential across an inductor depends on the rate of change of the current through it.
- Figure 30.6 at the right compares the behavior of the potential across a resistor and an inductor.
- The self-induced emf does *not* oppose current, but opposes a *change* in the current.

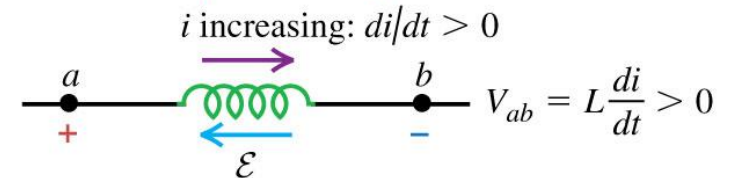
(a) Resistor with current  $i$  flowing from  $a$  to  $b$ : potential drops from  $a$  to  $b$ .



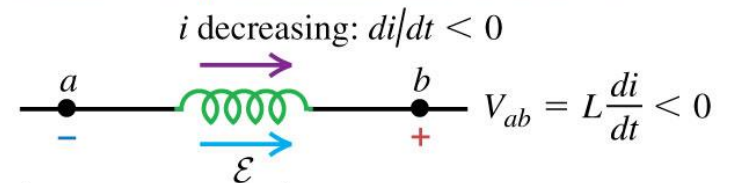
(b) Inductor with *constant* current  $i$  flowing from  $a$  to  $b$ : no potential difference.



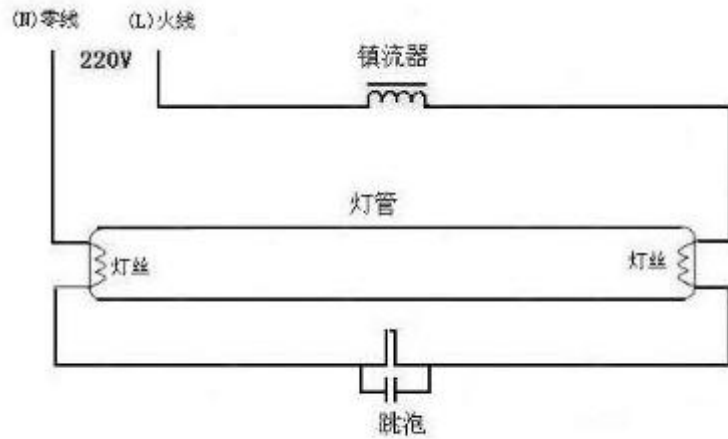
(c) Inductor with *increasing* current  $i$  flowing from  $a$  to  $b$ : potential drops from  $a$  to  $b$ .



(d) Inductor with *decreasing* current  $i$  flowing from  $a$  to  $b$ : potential increases from  $a$  to  $b$ .



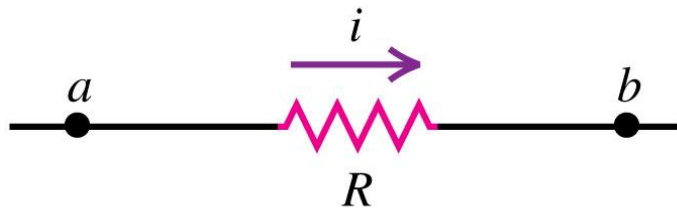
# self-induced emf



# Magnetic field energy

- The energy stored in an inductor is  $U = \frac{1}{2} LI^2$ . See Figure 30.9 below.
- The energy density in a magnetic field is  $u = B^2/2\mu_0$  (in vacuum) and  $u = B^2/2\mu$  (in a material).
- Follow Example 30.5.

Resistor with current  $i$ : energy is *dissipated*.

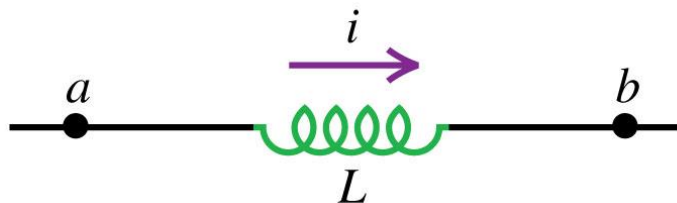


$$P = V_{ab}i = Li \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$dU = P \, dt,$$

$$dU = Li \, di$$

Inductor with current  $i$ : energy is *stored*.

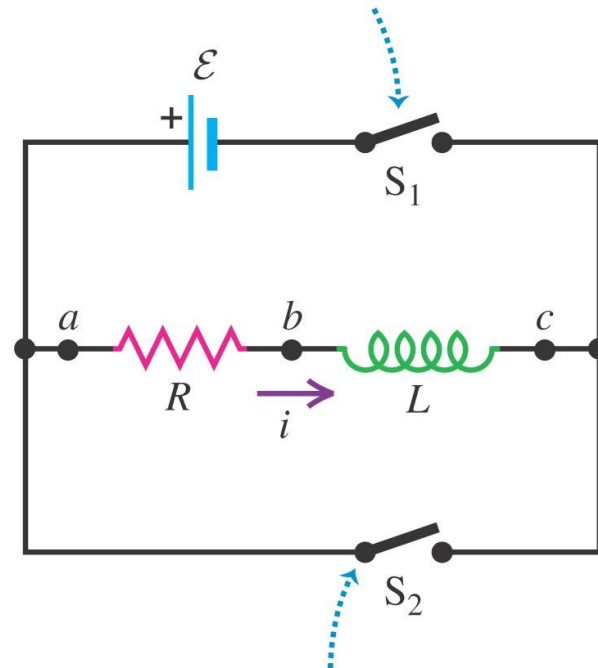


$$U = L \int_0^I i \, di = \frac{1}{2} LI^2 \quad (\text{energy stored in an inductor})$$

# The $R$ - $L$ circuit

- An  $R$ - $L$  circuit contains a resistor and inductor and possibly an emf source.
- Figure 30.11 at the right shows a typical  $R$ - $L$  circuit.
- Follow Problem-Solving Strategy 30.1.

Closing switch  $S_1$  connects the  $R$ - $L$  combination in series with a source of emf  $\mathcal{E}$ .



Closing switch  $S_2$  while opening switch  $S_1$  disconnects the combination from the source.

# Current growth in an $R$ - $L$ circuit

$$v_{ab} = iR$$

$$v_{bc} = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$\mathcal{E} - iR - L \frac{di}{dt} = 0$$

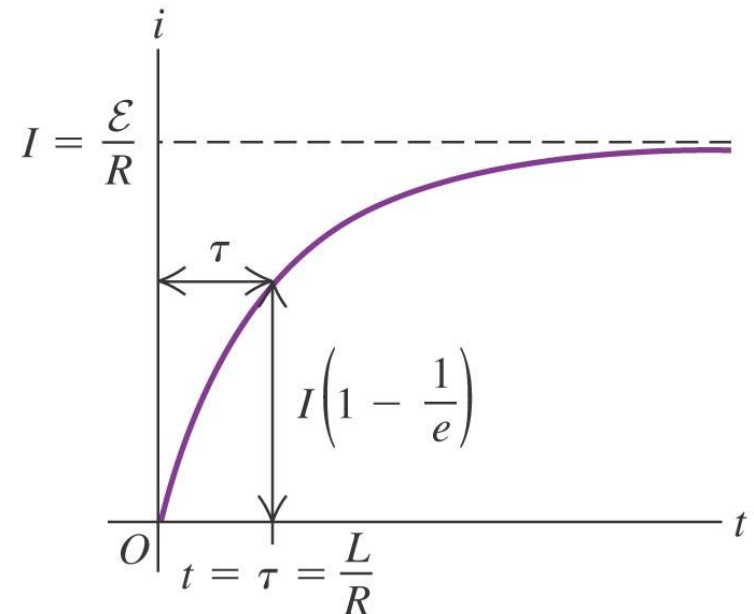
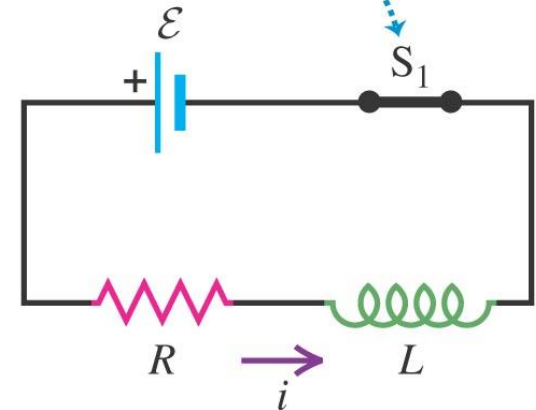
$$\frac{di}{dt} = \frac{\mathcal{E} - iR}{L} = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{L} - \frac{R}{L}i$$

$S_1$  is first closed,  $i = 0$

$$\left( \frac{di}{dt} \right)_{\text{initial}} = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{L}$$

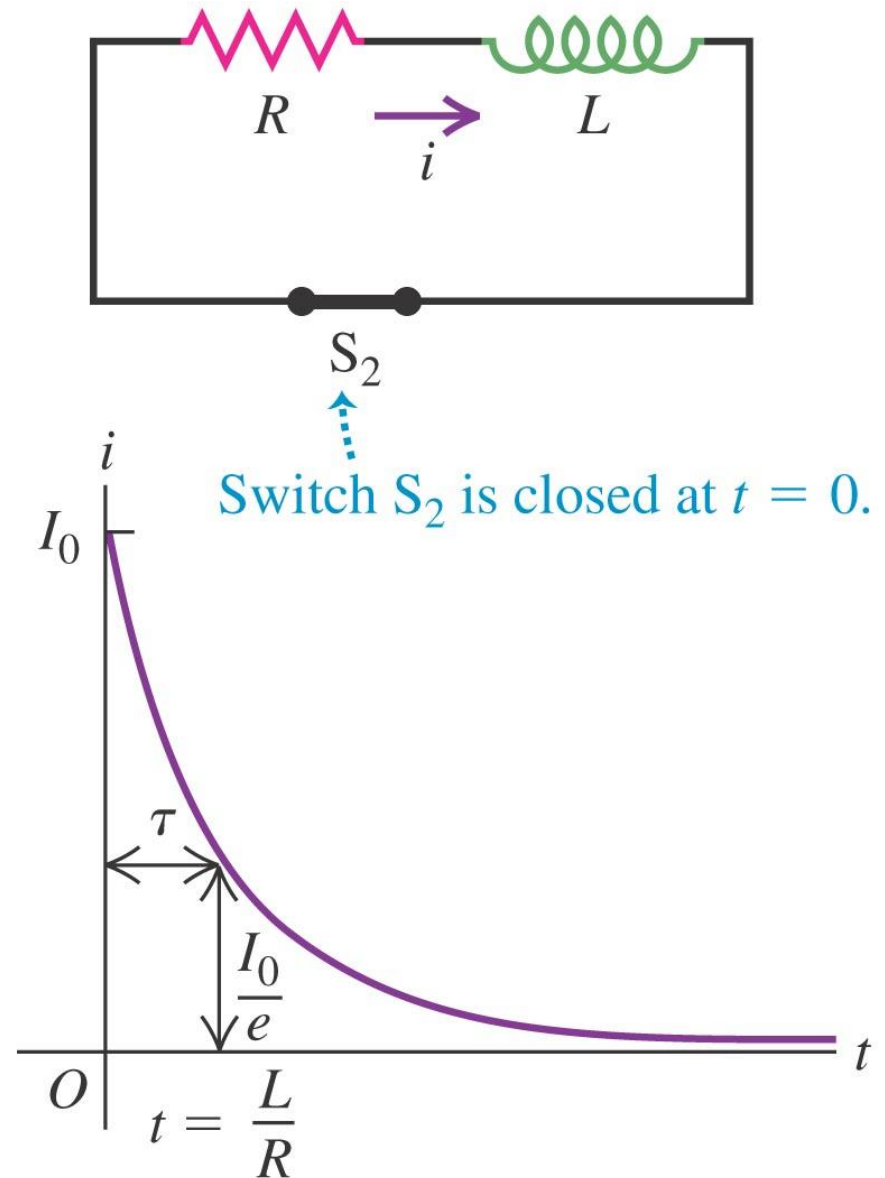
$$\left( \frac{di}{dt} \right)_{\text{final}} = 0 = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{L} - \frac{R}{L}I \quad \text{and}$$
$$I = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R}$$

Switch  $S_1$  is closed at  $t = 0$ .

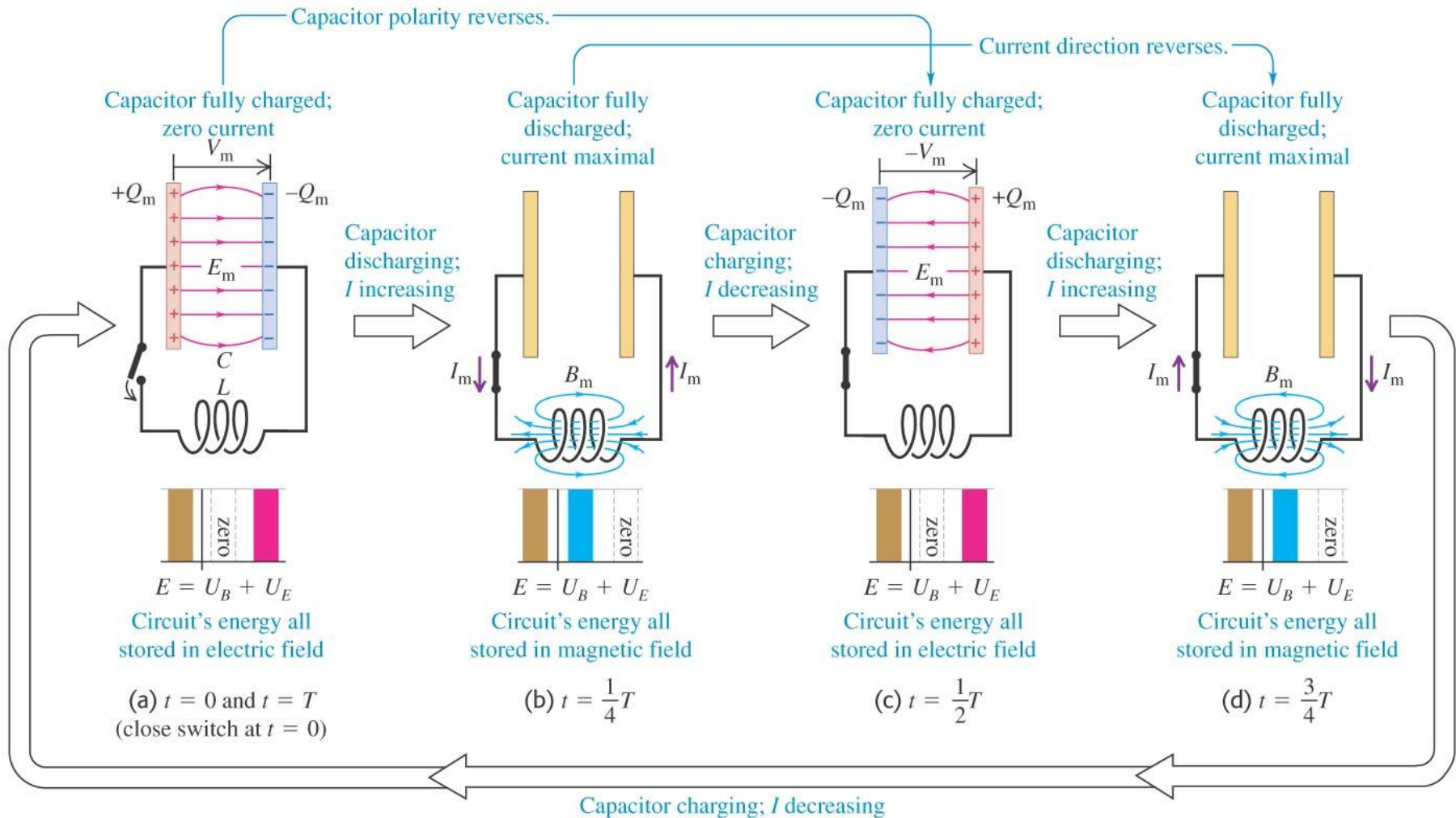


# Current decay in an $R$ - $L$ circuit

- Read the text discussion of current decay in an  $R$ - $L$  circuit.
- Figure 30.13 at the right shows a graph of the current versus time.
- Follow Example 30.7.



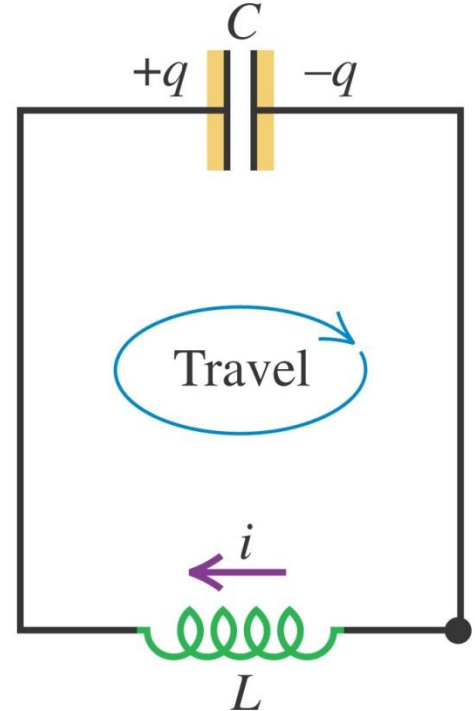
- An *L-C circuit* contains an inductor and a capacitor and is an *oscillating circuit*. See Figure 30.14 below.





# Electrical oscillations in an $L$ - $C$ circuit

- Follow the text analysis of electrical oscillations and energy in an  $L$ - $C$  circuit using Figure 30.15 at the right.



# Electrical and mechanical oscillations

- Table 30.1 summarizes the analogies between SHM and  $L$ - $C$  circuit oscillations.
- Follow Example 30.8.
- Follow Example 30.9.

**Table 30.1** Oscillation of a Mass-Spring System Compared with Electrical Oscillation in an  $L$ - $C$  Circuit

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## Mass-Spring System

$$\text{Kinetic energy} = \frac{1}{2}mv_x^2$$

$$\text{Potential energy} = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_x^2 + \frac{1}{2}kx^2 = \frac{1}{2}kA^2$$

$$v_x = \pm \sqrt{k/m} \sqrt{A^2 - x^2}$$

$$v_x = dx/dt$$

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

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

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## Inductor-Capacitor Circuit

$$\text{Magnetic energy} = \frac{1}{2}Li^2$$

$$\text{Electric energy} = q^2/2C$$

$$\frac{1}{2}Li^2 + q^2/2C = Q^2/2C$$

$$i = \pm \sqrt{1/LC} \sqrt{Q^2 - q^2}$$

$$i = dq/dt$$

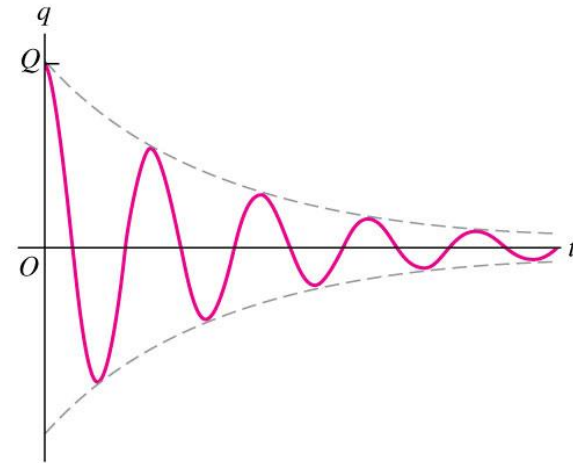
$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$$

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

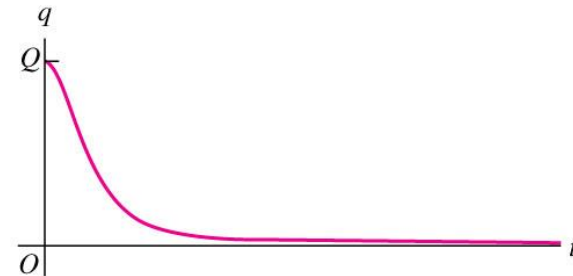
# The $L$ - $R$ - $C$ series circuit

- Follow the text analysis of an  $L$ - $R$ - $C$  circuit.
- An  $L$ - $R$ - $C$  circuit exhibits *damped harmonic motion* if the resistance is not too large. (See graphs in Figure 30.16 at the right.)
- Follow Example 30.10.

(a) Underdamped circuit (small resistance  $R$ )



(b) Critically damped circuit (larger resistance  $R$ )



(c) Overdamped circuit (very large resistance  $R$ )

