

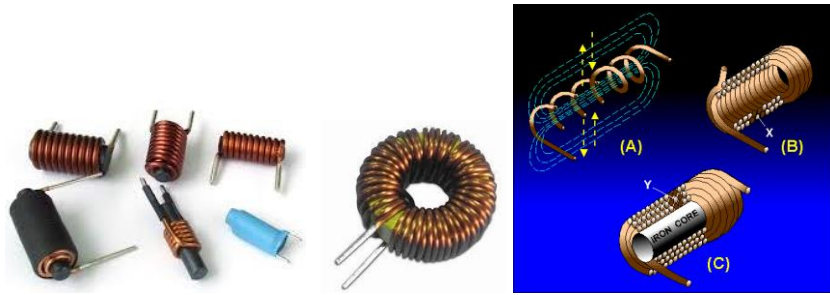
4.4 – Inductance

Self-Induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} of an inductor

An inductor is a coil. The circuit symbol for an inductor is



When an inductor is connected to a source, current will flow through it and this current will produce magnetic field inside the coil. That is there is magnetic flux crossing the loops of the coil due to its own magnetic field. If the current changes with time, then the magnetic field inside the coil will change with time which implies the magnetic flux crossing the coil will change with time. According to Faraday's law, this change in magnetic flux will produce induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} in the coil. This kind of induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} is called self induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} because it is caused by the current in the coil itself.



Self-induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} is directly proportional to the rate of change of current in the coil. The constant of proportional between the self induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} and the rate of change of current in the coil is called **inductance** (L) of the coil.

$$\mathcal{E}_{self} = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$$

$\mathcal{E}_{self} \rightarrow$ self induced \mathcal{E}_{mf}

$L \rightarrow$ Inductance $\frac{dI}{dt}$, rate of change of current with time.

The negative sign indicates that the polarity of the self-induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} is in such a way as to oppose the cause for the change in flux which is the rate of change of current with time. (It essentially represents Lenz's rule)

The unit of measurement for inductance is *volt/(Ampere/second)* which is defined to be the Henry, abbreviated as **H**.

The average induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} in a given time interval Δt can be obtained by integrating \mathcal{E}_{self} with time in a time interval Δt & then dividing by Δt

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{\varepsilon}_{self} &= -\frac{L}{\Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} \frac{dI}{dt} dA \\
&= -\frac{L}{\Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta I} dI \\
&= -L \frac{\Delta I}{\Delta t}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\bar{\varepsilon}_{self} = -L \frac{\Delta I}{\Delta t} = -L \frac{(I_f - I_i)}{\Delta t}}$$

$\bar{\varepsilon}_{self} \rightarrow$ Average induced εmf in a time interval Δt

$\Delta I = I_f - I_i \rightarrow$ Change in current in a time interval Δt

Using Faraday's law, the inductance of a coil can be expressed in terms of the crossing the coil and the current in the coil

$$\text{Faraday's law} \Rightarrow \varepsilon_{self} = -N \frac{d\phi_B}{dt}$$

Where N is the number of turns & ϕ is magnetic flux per turn. Thus

$$\varepsilon_{self} = -N \frac{d\phi_B}{dt} = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(N\phi_B) = \frac{d}{dt}(LI)$$

$$N\phi_B = LI + \text{constant}$$

The constant can be replaced without loss of generality because the physical theory depends on derivatives. Therefore the inductance can also be given as

$$\boxed{L = \frac{N\phi_B}{I}}$$

$N \rightarrow$ Number of turns

$\phi_B \rightarrow$ Magnetic flux per turns

$I \rightarrow$ Current in the coil

Example

The current in an inductor of inductance 5H, the current varies with time according to the equation

$$I = 2 \sin 10t \text{ (A)}$$

- a) Give a formula for the self induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} as a function of time
- b) Calculate the value of the induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} after $\frac{\pi}{40}$ sec

Solution

a) **Given:** $L = 5H$, $I = 2 \sin 10t$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E}_{self} &= -L \frac{dI}{dt} \\ &= -5 \frac{d}{dt}(2 \sin 10t) \\ &= \underline{-100 \cos 10t \text{ V}}\end{aligned}$$

b) $\mathcal{E}_{self}(t) = -100 \cos 10t$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E}_{self}\left(t = \frac{\pi}{40}\right) &= -100 \cos\left(10 \frac{\pi}{40}\right) \\ &= \underline{-70 \text{ V}}\end{aligned}$$

Example

The current in a 2mH inductor changed from 10A to 4A in 0.2 seconds. Calculate the average induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} in the inductor?

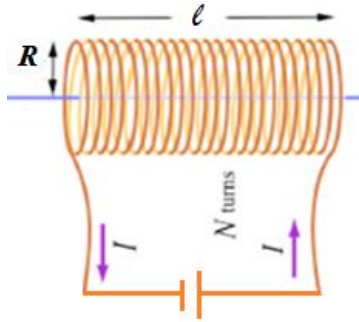
Solution

Given: $L = 2 \text{ mH}$, $I_i = 10 \text{ A}$, $I_f = 4 \text{ A}$, $\Delta t = 0.2 \text{ s}$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{\mathcal{E}}_{self} &= -L \frac{(I_f - I_i)}{\Delta t} \\ &= -2 \times 10^{-3} \left(\frac{4 - 10}{0.2} \right) \\ &= \underline{0.06 \text{ V}}\end{aligned}$$

Inductance of a Solenoid in terms of its geometry

The inductance of an inductor depends on the geometry of the coil only. Consider a solenoid of length ℓ , radius R and number of turns N .



The magnetic flux crossing a single coil due its own current is $\phi_B = BA$ ($\theta = 0$) inside the solenoid the field is approximately parallel to its axis. But

$$A = \pi R^2 \text{ \& } B = \mu_0 \frac{NI}{\ell}$$

Thus
$$L = \frac{N\phi_B}{I}$$

$$= \frac{N}{I} \frac{\mu_0 N \pi I R^2}{\ell}$$

$$L = \frac{\mu_0 N^2 \pi R^2}{\ell}$$

Inductance of a solenoid in terms of its geometry

$N \rightarrow$ Number of turns

$R \rightarrow$ Radius of solenoid

$\ell \rightarrow$ Length of solenoid

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \frac{TM}{A}$$

Magnetic Energy Stored by an inductor

Consider an inductor connected to a source. According to Lenz's rule, the self-induced \mathcal{E}_{mf} should oppose the source because it is the cause for the change of flux. Therefore the source has to do work to push a charge through the inductor. This work is stored by the inductor as magnetic energy. The work done by the source in pushing a charge dq across the inductor is

$$dw_{ext} = -dq \mathcal{E}_{self}$$

The negative sign is needed because the work done by the external force (source) is opposite to the self-induced \mathcal{E}_{mf}

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E}_{self} &= -L \frac{dI}{dt} \\ dw_{ext} &= -dq \left(-L \frac{dI}{dt} \right) \\ &= L \frac{dq}{dt} dI \quad \text{but } \frac{dq}{dt} = I \\ &= \underline{LI dI}\end{aligned}$$

dw_{ext} is equal to the amount of magnetic energy (dU_B) stored in transferring a charge dq

$$dw_{ext} = dU_B = LI dI$$

The amount of magnetic energy stored in increasing the current from zero to I is

$$\begin{aligned}U_B &= \int dU_B = \int_0^I LI dI \\ &= \frac{1}{2} LI^2 \\ \Delta U_B &= \frac{1}{2} LI^2\end{aligned}$$

Assuming the magnetic energy at $I = 0$ is zero result.

$$\boxed{U_B = \frac{1}{2} LI^2}$$

$U_B \rightarrow$ Magnetic energy stored in an inductor with current I

Example

Obtain an expression for the magnetic energy density (magnetic energy per a unit volume) of a solenoid in terms of magnetic field

Solution

$$\text{Magnetic energy density} = \frac{U_B}{V}$$

Where V is the volume of solenoid

$$\text{But } U_B = \frac{1}{2} LI^2 \text{ \& } V = \ell A = \ell \pi R^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{U_B}{V} &= \frac{\frac{1}{2} LI^2}{\ell \pi R^2} & \text{But } L &= \frac{\mu_0 N^2 \pi R^2}{\ell} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mu_0 N^2 \pi R^2 I^2}{\ell^2 \pi R^2} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 N^2 I^2}{2 \ell^2} \end{aligned}$$

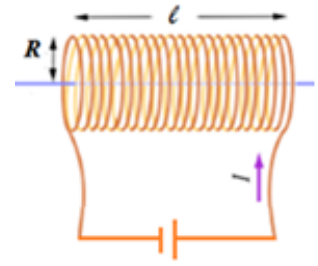
$$\text{But } B = \frac{\mu_0 NI}{\ell} \text{ or } I = \frac{B \ell}{\mu_0 N}$$

$$\frac{U_B}{V} = \frac{\mu_0 N^2}{2 \ell^2} \frac{B^2 \ell^2}{\mu_0^2 N^2}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{U_B}{V} = \frac{B^2}{2 \mu_0}}$$

$$\frac{U_B}{V} \rightarrow \text{Magnetic energy density}$$

$$B \rightarrow \text{Magnetic field}$$



Example

A solenoid of length 10 cm, number of turns 200 and cross-sectional radius 2 cm is carrying a current of 2A.

- a) Calculate the magnetic energy density inside the solenoid
- b) Calculate the total magnetic energy stores inside the solenoid

Solution

a) **Given:** $\ell = 0.1m$, $R = 0.02m$, $N = 200$, $I = 2A$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 NI}{\ell} = \frac{(4\pi \times 10^{-7})(200)(2)}{0.1} = 16000\pi \times 10^{-7} = 16\pi \times 10^{-4} \text{ T}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{U_B}{V} &= \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0} \\ &= \frac{(16\pi \times 10^{-4})^2}{2(4\pi \times 10^{-7})} \\ &= 32\pi \times 10^{-1} \\ &= \underline{3.2\pi \text{ J / m}^3} \end{aligned}$$

b) Find U_B ?

$$\frac{U_B}{V} = 3.2\pi \Rightarrow U_B = 3.2\pi V$$

$$\text{But } V = \ell A = \ell \pi R^2 = (0.1)\pi(0.02)^2 = 4\pi \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2$$

$$U_B = 3.2\pi(4\pi \times 10^{-5}) \approx \underline{1.26 \times 10^{-3} \text{ J}}$$

Or

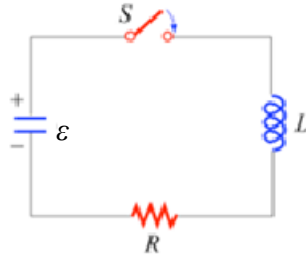
Alternatively, first L can be calculated from

$$L = \frac{\mu_0 N^2 \pi R^2}{\ell} = \frac{(4\pi \times 10^{-7})(200^2)(\pi)(0.02)^2}{0.1} \approx 6.316 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$U_B = \frac{1}{2} LI^2 = \frac{1}{2} (6.316 \times 10^{-4})(2^2) \approx \underline{1.26 \times 10^{-3} \text{ J}}$$

A series combination of an inductor and a resistor connected to a dc source

Consider a battery of \mathcal{E} connected to a series combination of a resistor of resistance R and an inductor of inductance L .



As the switch is closed, the current will increase from zero to a certain value. That is $\frac{dI}{dt}$ is positive.

Therefore the self-induced $\mathcal{E}_{self} = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$ is negative which means the potential energy of the charges decrease as they cross the inductor. That means the right end of the inductor is more positive than the left end as shown. As the current crosses the resistor, the electric potential energy of the charge decrease because some of it will be converted to heat energy, which means the right end of the resistor is more positive than its left end as shown.

Now applying Kirchhoff's rule with a clockwise transverse direction

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

Obtaining $I(t)$

$$L \frac{dI}{dt} = \mathcal{E} - IR$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{\mathcal{E} - IR}{L}$$

$$\int_0^I \frac{dI}{\mathcal{E} - IR} = \int_0^t \frac{dt}{L} \quad d(\mathcal{E} - IR) = -RdI$$

$$-\frac{1}{R} \int_0^I \frac{d(\mathcal{E} - IR)}{\mathcal{E} - IR} = \int_0^t \frac{dt}{L}$$

$$-\left[\frac{1}{R} \ln|\mathcal{E} - IR| \right]_0^I = \frac{1}{L} [t]_0^t$$

$$-\frac{1}{R} (\ln|\mathcal{E} - IR| - \ln \mathcal{E}) = \frac{1}{L} t$$

$$\ln \frac{\mathcal{E} - IR}{\mathcal{E}} = -\frac{R}{L} t$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{E} - IR}{\mathcal{E}} = e^{-\frac{R}{L} t}$$

$$\mathcal{E} - IR = \mathcal{E} e^{-\frac{R}{L} t}$$

$$IR = \mathcal{E} - \mathcal{E} e^{-\frac{R}{L} t}$$

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

Dependence of current on time for a series combination of an inductor and a resistor connected to a dc (constant) $\mathcal{E}mf$.

At $t = 0$

$$I(t=0) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}0} \right) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} (1-1) = 0 \quad (\text{As expected})$$

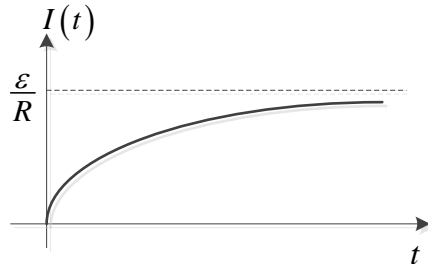
The current attains its maximum value at infinitely

$$\begin{aligned} I_{\max} &= \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) \\ &= \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} \left(1 - \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) \quad \text{but } \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} = 0 \\ &= \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} \end{aligned}$$

$$I_{\max} = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R}$$

$I_{\max} \rightarrow$ Maximum value of current

The current approached its maximum value asymptotically with time. The following the graph of the current as a function of time.



The value $\frac{R}{L}$ determines how fast the current approaches its maximum value and is called the time constant the current. The greater the time constant the faster the current approaches its maximum value.

The value across the resistor as a function of time is given by

$$\begin{aligned} V_R(t) &= IR = R \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) \\ \Rightarrow V_R(t) &= \mathcal{E} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) \end{aligned}$$

The self-induced $\mathcal{E}mf$ across the inductor as a function of time is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon_{self} &= \left| -L \frac{dI}{dt} \right| \\ &= L \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon}{R} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) \right\} \\ &= L \frac{\varepsilon}{R} \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ -e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right\} \\ &= L \frac{\varepsilon}{R} \frac{R}{L} e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}\end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\varepsilon_{self}(t) = \varepsilon e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}}$$

The sum of $V_R(t)$ and ε_{self} is always ε as expected

$$V_R + \varepsilon_{self} = \varepsilon \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) + \varepsilon e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} = \underline{\varepsilon}$$

Example

A series combination of a $1000 \, \Omega$ resistor and a 20H inductor is connected to a battery of $\mathcal{E}mf$ 20V .

- Calculate the maximum current
- Calculate the time constant of the circuit
- Calculate the current in the circuit 0.1 second after the switch is closed
- Calculate the voltages across the resistor and inductor after 0.01 second

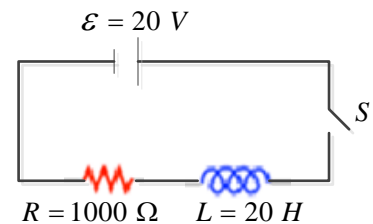
Solution

$$a) \quad I_{\max} = \frac{\varepsilon}{R} = \frac{20}{1000} = \underline{0.02 \text{ A}}$$

$$b) \quad \text{Time constant} = \frac{R}{L} = \frac{1000}{20} = \underline{50 \, \frac{\Omega}{\text{H}}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}c) \quad I(t) &= \frac{\varepsilon}{R} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) \\ &= 0.02 \left(1 - e^{-50t} \right) \\ I(t = 0.1) &= 0.02 \left(1 - e^{-50(0.1)} \right) = \underline{0.1987 \text{ A}}\end{aligned}$$

$$d) \quad V_R(t) = \varepsilon \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \right) = 20 \left(1 - e^{-50t} \right)$$



$$V_R(t = 0.01) = 20 \left(1 - e^{-50(0.01)} \right) \approx 7.869 \text{ V}$$

$$\varepsilon_{self}(t) = \varepsilon e^{-\frac{R}{L}t} = 20e^{-50t}$$

$$\varepsilon_{self}(t = 0.01) = 20e^{-50(0.01)} \approx 12.131 \text{ V}$$

Note: $V_R + \varepsilon_{self} = 7.869 + 12.131 = 20 = \varepsilon \quad \checkmark$

Mutual Induction

When two coils carrying time dependent currents are in the vicinity of each other, they will induce $\mathcal{E}mf$ on each other. This kind of induction is called **mutual induction**.

Consider two coils, coil 1 & coil 2, in the vicinity of each other, the mutual inductance of coil 2 with respect to coil 1 (M_{12}) is defined to be the ratio between the flux crossing coil 2 due to the current in coil 1. If the number of turns of coil 2 is N_2 and the magnetic flux per coil crossing coil 2 is ϕ_{12} , then

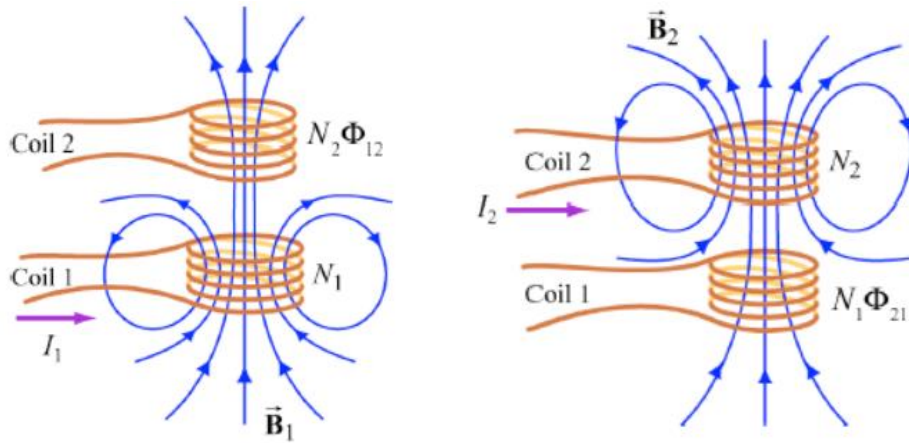
$$M_{12} = \frac{N_2 \phi_{12}}{I_1}$$

$M_{12} \rightarrow$ Mutual inductance of coil 2 with respect to coil 1

$N_2 \rightarrow$ Number of turns of coil 2

$\phi_{12} \rightarrow$ Flux per turn due to current in coil 1 crossing coil 2

$I_1 \rightarrow$ Current in coil 1



Similarly, the mutual inductance of coil 1 with respect to coil 2 is defined to be

$$M_{21} = \frac{N_1 \phi_{21}}{I_2}$$

It can be shown that $M_{12} = M_{21} = M$ where M is called the mutual inductance of the coils.

$$M = \frac{N_1 \phi_{21}}{I_2} = \frac{N_2 \phi_{12}}{I_1}$$

Applying Faraday's law, the $\mathcal{E}mf$ induced in coil 2 (\mathcal{E}_2) is given by

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\phi_{12}}{dt} \quad \text{but} \quad \phi_{12} = \frac{MI_1}{N_2}$$

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{MI_1}{N_2} \right\}$$

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = M \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$

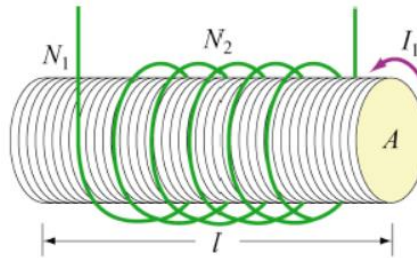
$\mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \text{emf}$ induced in coil 2 due to current in coil 1

Similarly, the emf induced in coil 1 (\mathcal{E}_1) due to coil 2 is given by

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = M \frac{dI_2}{dt}$$

Example

Consider the two concentric solenoid shown with the inner solenoid being coil 1 & the outer being coil 2.



Obtain an expression for the mutual inductance of the coils.

Solution

$$M = M_{12} = \frac{N_2 \phi_{12}}{I_1}$$

$$\phi_{12} = B_1 A$$

where A is the area of the inner coil is used because B_1 is approximately zero outside coil 1

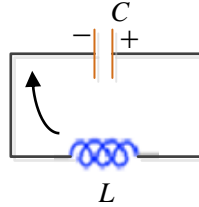
$$B_1 = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 I_1}{\ell}$$

$$\phi_{12} = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 I_1 A}{\ell}$$

$$M = \frac{N_2 \phi_{12}}{I_1} = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 N_2 I_1 A}{\ell I_1}$$

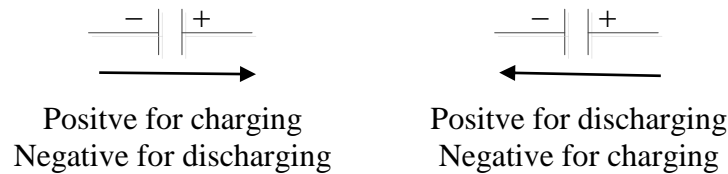
$$M = \frac{\mu_0 N_1 N_2 A}{\ell}$$

A charged Capacitor Connected to an inductor



First let's state the sign conventions for the potential differences across a capacitor & an inductor in applying Kirchhoff's loop rule.

Capacitors: As a capacitor is transversed from its negative to its positive terminal, it is taken to be positive if it is being charged and negative if it is being discharged and when it is transversed from its positive to its negative terminal, its potential difference is taken to be negative if being charged and positive if being discharged.



Inductors: When an inductor is transversed in the direction of the current, its potential difference is taken to be $-L \frac{dI}{dt}$, and when transversed opposite to the direction of the current, its potential difference is taken to be $L \frac{dI}{dt}$.

Applying these sign conventions to Kirchhoff's loop rule to LC circuit shown using the transersing direction shown, the following equation is obtained

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\frac{Q}{C} - L \frac{dI}{dt} &= 0 & \left(V_C = \frac{Q}{C} \right) \\
 L \frac{dI}{dt} + \frac{Q}{C} &= 0 \\
 \frac{dI}{dt} + \frac{1}{LC} Q &= 0 & \text{but } I = \frac{dQ}{dt} \\
 \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dQ}{dt} \right) + \frac{1}{LC} Q &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2} + \frac{1}{LC} Q} &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

It can be shown that the general solution of this equation is

$$Q = C_1 \cos \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} t + C_2 \right)$$

Where C_1 & C_2 are arbitray constants. C_1 & C_2 can be calculated from intial conditions.

Let the initial charge of the capacitor be Q_{\max} i.e $Q(t=0) = Q_{\max}$

$$Q(t=0) = C_1 \cos\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} (0) + C_2\right)$$

$$Q_{\max} = C_1 \cos(C_2) \quad (1)$$

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = -\frac{C_1}{\sqrt{LC}} \sin\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} t + C_2\right)$$

$$I(t=0) = -\frac{C_1}{\sqrt{LC}} \sin\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} (0) + C_2\right)$$

$$0 = -\frac{C_1}{\sqrt{LC}} \sin(C_2) \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{(2)}{(1)} \rightarrow -\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \tan(C_2) = 0$$

$$\tan(C_2) = 0 \Rightarrow C_2 = 0$$

$$(1) \Rightarrow Q_{\max} = C_1 \cos(C_2) = C_1 \cos(0)$$

$$\Rightarrow Q_{\max} = C_1$$

Therefore the solution is

$$Q(t) = Q_{\max} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

$$I(t) = -\frac{Q_{\max}}{\sqrt{LC}} \sin\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

The coefficient of time $\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}\right)$ represents the angular frequency (number of radians executed per second) & is denoted by ω

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

$\omega \rightarrow$ Angular frequency of an LC circuit

The frequency (Number of cycles per second) is related with angular frequency by $\omega = 2\pi f$ (since there are 2π radians in a cycle). Therefore

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$$

$f \rightarrow$ Frquency of an LC circuit

The period (time taken for one cycle) is the inverse of the frequency

$$\boxed{T = 2\pi\sqrt{LC}} \quad T \rightarrow \text{Period of an LC circuit}$$

Example

Show by substitution that $Q(t) = Q_{\max} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$ is a solution to the equation of an LC circuit

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

Solution

$$Q = Q_{\max} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = -\frac{Q_{\max}}{\sqrt{LC}} \sin\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

$$\frac{d^2Q}{dt^2} = -\frac{Q_{\max}}{LC} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

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

$$-\frac{Q_{\max}}{LC} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right) + \frac{Q_{\max}}{LC} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right) = 0$$

$$0 = 0 \quad \checkmark \text{ proved}$$

Example

A 20 F capacitor is connected to a 10 V battery. Then it is disconnected from the battery and connected to a 5 H inductor. Then it is disconnected from the battery and connected to a 5 H inductor.

- Calculate the maximum charge of the capacitor
- Calculate the angular frequency of the circuit
- How many cycles does the circuit execute per second
- Calculate the time taken for one cycle
- Give expressions for the charge & current as a function of time
- Show the graph of charge as a function of time & current as a function of time

Solution

$$\text{Given: } L = 5\text{ H}, \quad C = 20\text{ F}, \quad V = 10$$

$$a) \quad Q_{\max} = CV = (20)(10) = \underline{200\text{ C}}$$

$$b) \quad \omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{100}} = \underline{0.1 \text{ rad / s}}$$

$$c) \quad f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{100}} = \underline{\frac{1}{20\pi}}$$

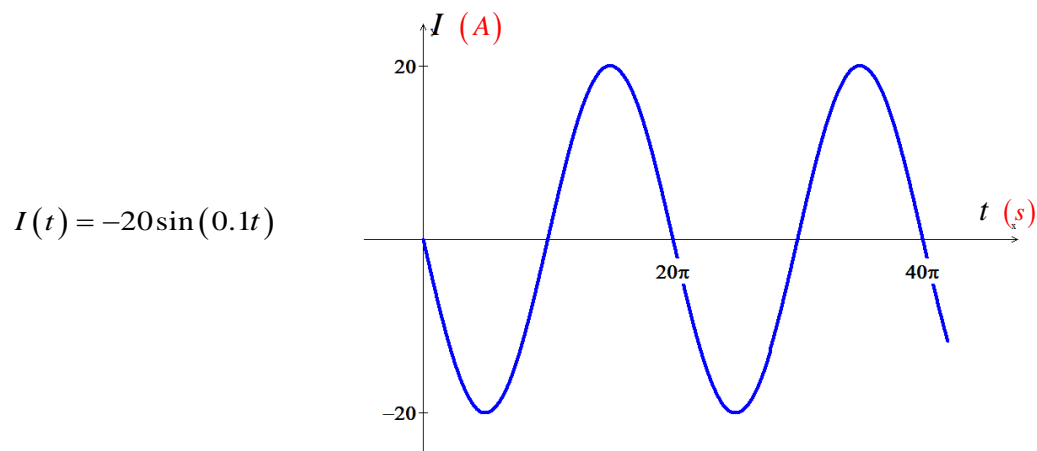
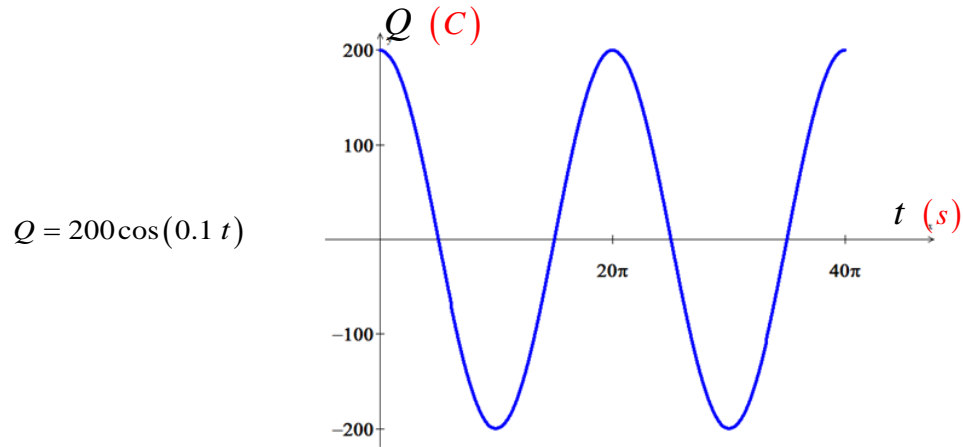
$$d) \quad T = \frac{1}{f} = \underline{20\pi \text{ s}}$$

$$e) \quad Q = Q_{\max} \cos(\omega t)$$

$$\underline{Q = 200 \cos(0.1 t) \text{ C}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I(t) &= -Q_{\max} \omega \sin(\omega t) \\ &= -(200)(0.1) \sin(0.1 t) \\ &= \underline{-20 \sin(0.1 t) \text{ A}} \end{aligned}$$

f)



Energy of an LC Circuit

From Kirchhoff's loop rule

$$\frac{Q}{C} + L \frac{dI}{dt} = 0$$

$$L \frac{dI}{dt} = -\frac{Q}{C}$$

Multiply the right side by $\frac{dQ}{dQ}$

$$L \frac{dI}{dt} \frac{dQ}{dQ} = -\frac{Q}{C}$$

$$L \frac{dI}{dQ} \frac{dQ}{dt} = -\frac{Q}{C} \quad \text{but} \quad \frac{dQ}{dt} = I$$

$$LI dI = -\frac{Q}{C} dQ$$

$$\int LI dI = -\int \frac{Q}{C} dQ$$

$$\frac{1}{2} LI^2 = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{C} Q^2 + \text{constant}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} LI^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} = \text{constant}$$

But $\frac{1}{2} LI^2$ represents the magnetic energy stored by the capacitor & $\frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C}$ represents the electrical energy stored by the capacitor.

Therefore the expression $\frac{1}{2} LI^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{C} Q^2$ represents the total energy of the circuit. Thus it follows that the total energy of the circuit is a constant. The process involves interchange between magnetic and electrical energy but not loss of energy.

Since the energy is a constant, it should be equal to the initial energy stored in the capacitor which is

$$\frac{Q_{\max}^2}{2C}$$

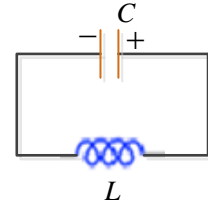
$$E = \frac{1}{2} LI^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} = \frac{Q_{\max}^2}{2C}$$

$E \rightarrow$ Total energy of the circuit.

Again since the energy is constant, the rate of dissipation of energy (power) for an LC circuit is zero

$$P = \frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{Q_{\max}^2}{2C} \right) = 0$$

Unlike a resistor, there is no dissipation of energy in a capacitor & an inductor.



Example

Use the expressions for the charge and the current to show that the energy of an LC circuit is always

equal to $\frac{Q_{max}^2}{2C}$, independent of time.

Solution

$$Q = Q_{max} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

$$I = -\frac{Q_{max}}{\sqrt{LC}} \sin\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2} LI^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} L \left[-\frac{Q_{max}}{\sqrt{LC}} \sin\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right) \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2C} \left[Q_{max} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right) \right]^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2C} Q_{max}^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right) + \frac{1}{2C} Q_{max}^2 \cos^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2C} Q_{max}^2 \left\{ \sin^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right) + \cos^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} t\right) \right\} \quad \sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$$

$$= \frac{Q_{max}^2}{2C} \quad \checkmark$$

Example

A 16F capacitor is connected to an 8V battery and disconnected from the battery. Then it is connected to a 4H inductor.

- Calculate the total energy of the circuit at any time
- Calculate the current in the circuit when the charge is half of the maximum value
- Calculate the maximum value of the current

Solution

Given: $L = 4H$, $C = 16F$, $V = 8V$

$$a) \quad E = \frac{Q_{max}^2}{2C}$$

$$Q_{max} = Q(t=0) = VC = (8)(16) = 128 \text{ C}$$

$$E = \frac{128^2}{2(16)} = 512 \text{ J}$$

$$b) \quad Q = \frac{1}{2}Q_{max} = \frac{1}{2}(128) = \underline{64 \text{ C}}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2}LI^2 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{Q^2}{C} = 512 \text{ J}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(4)I^2 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{64^2}{16} = 512$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(4)I^2 = 384$$

$$I^2 = \frac{384}{2} = 192$$

$$I = \sqrt{192} = \underline{8\sqrt{3} \text{ A}}$$

c) The maximum value of the current occurs when $Q = 0$

$$\frac{1}{2}LI^2 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{Q^2}{C} = 512 \text{ J}$$

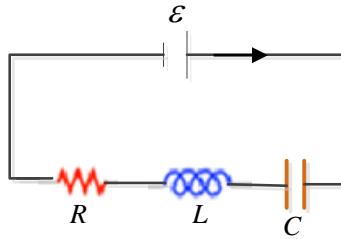
$$\frac{1}{2}(4)I_{max}^2 = 512$$

$$I_{max}^2 = \frac{512}{2} = 256$$

$$I_{max} = \sqrt{256} = \underline{16 \text{ A}}$$

Series *RLC* Circuit connected to a *DC* source

Consider a battery of \mathcal{E} connected to a series combination of a resistor of resistance R , an inductor of inductance L and a capacitor of capacitance C .



Applying Kichhoff's loop rule, the following equation holds

$$\mathcal{E} - IR - L \frac{dI}{dt} - \frac{1}{C} Q = 0$$

$$L \frac{dI}{dt} + RI + \frac{1}{C} Q = \mathcal{E} \quad \text{but} \quad I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$

$$L \frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2} + R \frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} Q = \mathcal{E}$$

$$\frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2} + \frac{R}{L} \frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{1}{LC} Q = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{L}$$

But $\frac{R}{L} = 2\beta$ where β is the damping constant

And Let $\frac{1}{LC} = \omega_0^2$ where ω_0 is the natural frequency which is the angular frequency of an LC circuit.

$$\frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2} + 2\beta \frac{dQ}{dt} + \omega_0^2 Q = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{L}$$

The general solution of this equation is the sum of the general solution of the homogeneous equation

$$\frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2} + 2\beta \frac{dQ}{dt} + \omega_0^2 Q = 0$$

And a particular solution to the inhomogeneous equation (the actual equation)

The particular solution can be cahnge that is independent of time. If Q_p is independent of time, then

$$\frac{d^2 Q_p}{dt^2} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dQ_p}{dt} = 0.$$

It follows that

$$\omega_0^2 Q_p = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{L}$$

$$Q_p = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{\omega_0^2 L} \quad \text{but} \quad \omega_0 = \frac{1}{LC}$$

$$\boxed{Q_p = \mathcal{E}C}$$

→ A particular solution to the inhomogeneous equation

The homogeneous equation is a 2nd order differential equation with constant coefficients. Its solution has been discussed in detail when leading with a damped harmonic motion. There are 3 types of solutions based on the value of $\beta^2 - \omega_0^2$

1- Underdamped oscillations

Under damped oscillation occurs when $\beta^2 - \omega_0^2 < 0$; and the solution to the homogeneous equation, Q_h is given as

$$Q_h = Ae^{-\beta t} \cos(\omega t - \phi)$$

Where A & ϕ are constants and $\omega = \sqrt{\beta^2 - \omega_0^2}$.

Therefore the general solution to the inhomogeneous equation $Q = Q_h + Q_p$ is given by

$$Q = Ae^{-\beta t} \cos(\omega t - \phi) + \varepsilon C$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} I = \frac{dQ}{dt} &= -\beta Ae^{-\beta t} \cos(\omega t - \phi) - A\omega e^{-\beta t} \sin(\omega t - \phi) \\ &= -Ae^{-\beta t} [\beta \cos(\omega t - \phi) + \omega \sin(\omega t - \phi)] \end{aligned}$$

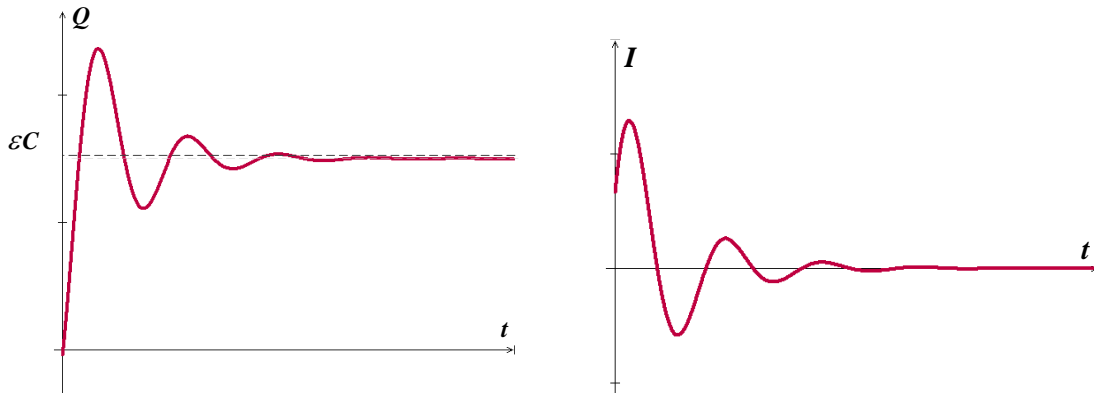
The cosine and sine can be combined into a single cosine with the transformation equation for β & ω as $\beta = c_1 \cos \delta$ & $\omega = c_1 \sin \delta$ where c_1 & δ are constants.

$$\begin{aligned} I &= -Ae^{-\beta t} [c_1 \cos \delta \cos(\omega t - \phi) + c_1 \sin \delta \sin(\omega t - \phi)] \\ &= -Ac_1 e^{-\beta t} [\cos \delta \cos(\omega t - \phi) + \sin \delta \sin(\omega t - \phi)] \\ &= -Ac_1 e^{-\beta t} \cos(\omega t - \phi - \delta) \end{aligned}$$

And with $-Ac_1 = A'$ & $\phi + \delta = \phi'$

$$I = A'e^{-\beta t} \cos(\omega t - \phi')$$

Note that the charge and the current have the same frequency and the same damping. The charge approaches εC as $t \rightarrow \infty$ & the current approaches 0 as $t \rightarrow \infty$.



2. Overdamped Oscillation

Overdamped oscillation occurs when $\beta^2 - \omega_0^2 > 0$; and the solution to the homogeneous equation, Q_h is given as

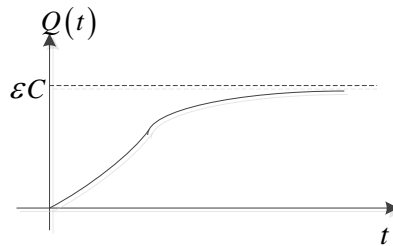
$$Q_h = c_1 e^{\sqrt{(-\beta + \beta^2 - \omega_0^2)}t} + c_2 e^{\left(-\beta - \sqrt{\beta^2 - \omega_0^2}\right)t}$$

Where c_1 & c_2 are arbitrary constants.

The general solution to the inhomogenous equation ($Q = Q_h + Q_p$) is given as

$$Q = c_1 e^{\sqrt{(-\beta + \beta^2 - \omega_0^2)}t} + c_2 e^{\left(-\beta - \sqrt{\beta^2 - \omega_0^2}\right)t} + \varepsilon C$$

The charge approaches the value εC & slowly as time increases without oscillation



3. Critically damped oscillation

Critically damped oscillation occurs when $\beta^2 - \omega_0^2 = 0$; and the solution to the homogeneous equation, Q_h is given as

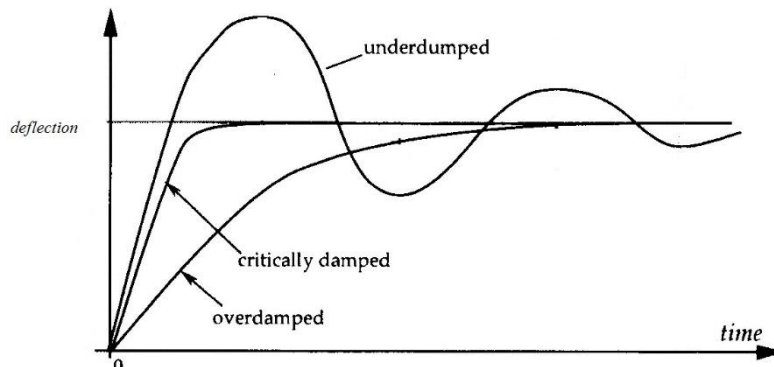
$$Q_h = (c_1 + c_2 t) e^{-\beta t}$$

The general solution to the inhomogenous equation ($Q = Q_h + Q_p$) is given as

$$Q = (c_1 + c_2 t) e^{-\beta t} + \varepsilon C$$

Where c_1 & c_2 are arbitrary constants.

The charge approaches the value εC as time increases faster than an overdamped oscillation does.



Example

A $2\mu F$ capacitor, a $4mH$ inductor and a variable resistor are connected to a DC source.

- Calculate the natural frequency of the circuit
- What should be the value of the resistance if the oscillation is to be critically damped.
- Find the range of resistance that will result in a damped harmonic oscillation.
- If the resistance is half of the resistance that leads to critical damping, calculate the frequency of the resulting damped harmonic oscillation

Solution

Given: $C = 2 \times 10^{-6} F$ $L = 4 \times 10^{-3} H$

$$a) \quad \omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(4 \times 10^{-3})(2 \times 10^{-6})}} \approx 11180 \text{ rad / s}$$

$$f_0 = \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{11180}{2\pi} \approx 1779 \text{ Hz}$$

$$b) \quad \text{Critically damped} \Rightarrow \beta^2 = \omega_0^2 \quad \text{but } \omega_0^2 = \frac{1}{LC} \quad \& \quad \beta = \frac{R}{2L}$$

$$\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{LC}$$

$$\frac{R}{2L} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$$

$$R = 2L\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} = 2(4 \times 10^{-3})(11180) \approx 89.44 \text{ } \Omega$$

$$c) \quad \text{Damped oscillation} \Rightarrow \beta^2 - \omega_0^2 < 0 \rightarrow \beta < \omega_0$$

$$\frac{R}{2L} < \omega_0$$

$$R < 2L\omega_0 = 2(4 \times 10^{-3})(11180) \approx 89.44 \text{ } \Omega$$

$$d) \quad R = \frac{1}{2}(89.44) \approx 44.72 \text{ } \Omega \quad \& \quad \omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \beta^2}$$

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \beta^2}$$

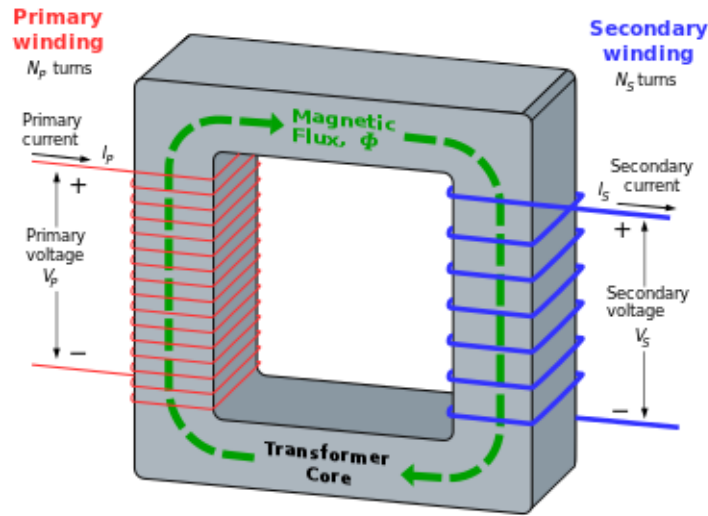
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC} - \left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{(4 \times 10^{-3})(2 \times 10^{-6})} - \left(\frac{44.72}{2(4 \times 10^{-3})}\right)^2}$$

$$\approx 1541 \text{ Hz}$$

Transformer

The transformer is a device used to increase or decrease the amplitude of *ac* voltages. It consists two coils wound on a magnetic material such as iron as shown



One of the coils called the primary coil is connected to an ac source. (An ac voltage is time varying voltage the varies with time typically like a sine or cosine)

The second coil which gives the output is called the secondary coil.

The current in the primary coil produces magnetic field in the magnetic material uniformly. Thus this field crosses both coils. Since the current is changing with time (and hence the magnetic field), according to Faraday's law, there will be induced $\mathcal{E}mf$ s in both coils given by

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = -N_1 \frac{d\phi_1}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\phi_2}{dt}$$

Where N_1 & N_2 are number of turns in the primary and secondary coils respectively; and

\mathcal{E}_1 & \mathcal{E}_2 are induced voltages in coil 1 & coil 2 respectively.

From Kirchhoff's rule \mathcal{E}_1 is equal to the input voltage 1 ϕ_1 & ϕ_2 are fluxes crossing coil 1 & coil 2 respectively.

But since both coils are crossed by the same magnetic field & the cross-sectional area of the magnetic material is the same magnetic material is the same for both, ϕ_1 & ϕ_2 are equal ($\phi_1 = \phi_2 = BA$). Hence

the $\mathcal{E}mf$'s may be written as

$$\frac{\mathcal{E}_1}{N_1} = -\frac{d\phi_1}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\mathcal{E}_2}{N_2} = -\frac{d\phi_2}{dt}$$

Which implies $\frac{\mathcal{E}_1}{N_1} = \frac{\mathcal{E}_2}{N_2}$ which is customarily written as

$$\boxed{\frac{\mathcal{E}_1}{\mathcal{E}_2} = \frac{N_1}{N_2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} \varepsilon_1$$

This implies that the output voltage can be adjusted to a desired voltage by the coil of a suitable $\frac{N_2}{N_1}$ ratio.

A transformer whose effect is to increase voltage with $N_2 > N_1$ is called a setup transformer; and a transformer whose effect is to decrease voltage with $N_2 < N_1$ is called a stepdown transformer.

Example

The primary coil and the secondary coil of a transformer have 50 and 125 number of turns respectively. The primary coil is connected to an ac voltage of amplitude 10V.

- Calculate the amplitude of the voltage obtained from the secondary coil.
- Is this a setup or step down transformer?

Solution

Given: $N_1 = 50$, $N_2 = 125$, $\varepsilon_1 = 10$

$$a) \quad \varepsilon_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} \varepsilon_1 = \frac{125}{50} (10) = \underline{25 \text{ V}}$$

- Since its effect is to increase the amplitude of the voltage, it is a setup transformer.

	<i>RLC</i> Circuit	Damped Harmonic Oscillator
Variable s	Q	x
Variable ds/dt	$\pm I$	v
Coefficient of s	$1/C$	k
Coefficient of ds/dt	R	b
Coefficient of d^2s/dt^2	L	m
Energy	$LI^2/2$	$mv^2/2$
	$Q^2/2C$	$kx^2/2$