

Mathematical Methods

1. Use the Taylor series expansion to find approximations. The ones for \sin , \cos , \tan , and $(1+x)^n$ are especially useful.

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$\tan x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_{2n}(-4)^n(1-4^n)}{(2n)!} x^{2n-1} = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^5}{15} + \frac{17x^7}{315} + \dots$$

$$(1+x)^m = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{m}{n} x^n = 1 + mx + \frac{m(m-1)}{2} x^2 + \frac{m(m-1)(m-2)}{6} x^3 + \dots$$

Note: For small x , higher order terms reduce to zero

2. Use complex exponentials to manipulate complicated trig functions.

$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$$

3. Solve differential equations by substituting in trial solutions. Especially you should recognize the differential equation for a simple harmonic oscillator and be able to come up with solutions to that ODE that satisfy any initial conditions you are given.

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

$$x(t) = A \cos(\omega t) + B \sin(\omega t)$$

Wave equation:

$$v^2 \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

4. Useful integration formulas:

$$\int \frac{1}{(x^2 + a^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dx = \frac{x}{a^2 \sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} + C$$

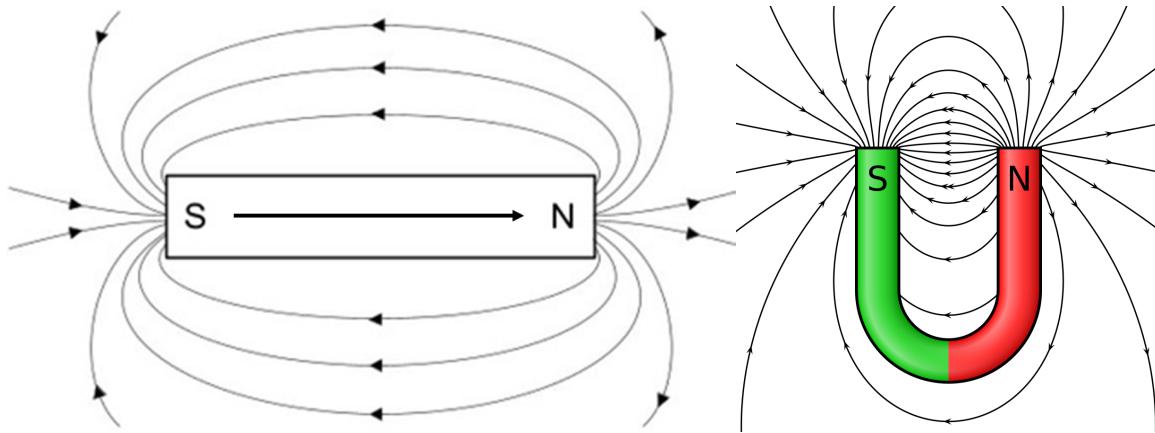
$$\int \frac{x}{(x^2 + a^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} dx = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} + C$$

Chapter 28 - Magnetic Fields

Types of magnets

- **Current loop:** a current carrying loop of wire creates an electromagnet.
- **Permanent Magnet:** the magnetic fields of the electrons within the material do not cancel out, resulting in a net magnetic field.

All magnets are **magnetic dipoles** with a **north** and **south** pole (the magnetic monopole doesn't exist, sadly). Opposite magnetic poles attract each other, and like magnetic poles repel each other. Magnetic field lines are *closed loops* that exit through the north pole and enter through the south pole.



Note: Inside the bar magnet, the magnetic field lines point from south to north, completing the closed loop.

Magnetic field lines and the magnetic field are related by:

- The direction of the magnetic field is tangent to the field lines.
- The spacing of the field lines represents the strength (magnitude) of the magnetic field. Closer lines = stronger field.

Also, analogous to Gauss's law for electric fields, we have **Gauss's law for magnetism**:

$$\int \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} d\vec{A} = 0$$

Since there are no magnetic monopoles, the net magnetic flux through any closed surface is zero (there are no sources or sinks of magnetic field lines).

1. Solve Newton's second law to determine the motion of charged particles acting under the influence of a magnetic field and any other forces (e.g., gravity, electric fields...).

Stationary charges do not interact with the magnetic field. Moving charges with a component of velocity perpendicular to the magnetic field experiences a force:

$$\vec{F}_B = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

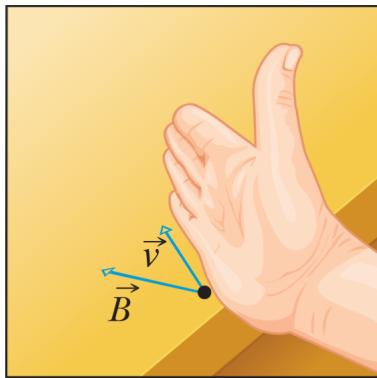
Note: This force is *always* perpendicular to the velocity of the particle, so it does **no work** on the particle and cannot change its speed, only its direction.

Note: The magnetic force is zero when the velocity is along the magnetic field lines (i.e., parallel or antiparallel) or when stationary.

The unit for the magnetic field \vec{B} is the Tesla (T):

$$1 \text{ T} = 1 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{C} \cdot \text{m/s}} = 1 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{A} \cdot \text{m}}$$

Recall: **Right hand rule**



- Point fingers in the direction of the velocity \vec{v} .
- Curl fingers toward the direction of the magnetic field \vec{B} , sweeping through the smaller angle.
- Thumb points in the direction of the force \vec{F}_B for a **positive charge**. For a negative charge, the force is in the opposite direction.

Note: When \vec{B} and \vec{v} are orthogonal, we can just multiply the magnitudes to find the force and use the right hand rule to find the direction.

Note: A magnetic force exists even if there is *relative velocity* between charges and a magnetic field. For example, a moving magnet will exert a magnetic force on stationary charges.

Note to self: Bring dynamics formula sheet for kinematics equations.

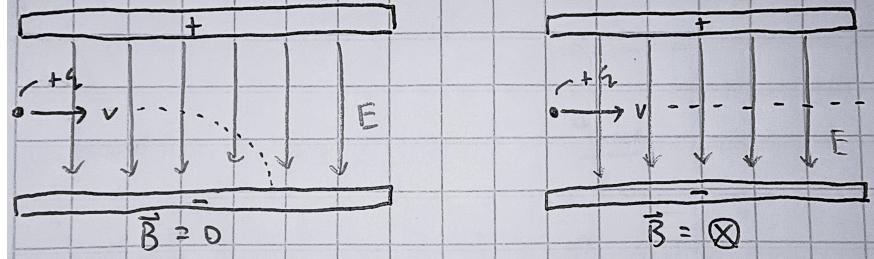
The total electromagnetic force on a charged particle in both electric and magnetic fields is given by the **Lorentz force**:

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{E} + q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

2. Explain the Hall effect and describe its applications.

Here are several interesting applications where both the magnetic field and electric field acts on a moving charge.

Wien Filter (Velocity Selector)



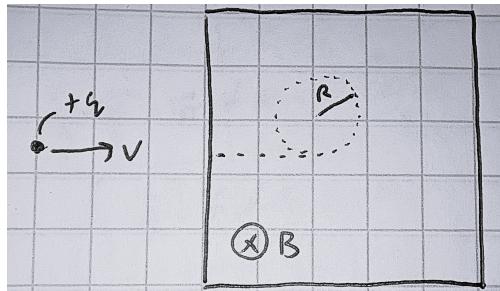
Suppose we have a source charged particles ($+q$) with random velocities. If it passes through a region with *only* an \vec{E} field, it will be pushed onto the negative plate, following a parabolic trajectory. However, if there is a \vec{B} field in addition to the \vec{E} field, then the forces will cancel for particles with a specific velocity:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum \vec{F}_y &= \vec{F}_B - \vec{F}_E = 0 \implies \vec{F}_B = \vec{F}_E \\ q\vec{v} \times \vec{B} &= q\vec{E} \\ v &= \frac{E}{B}\end{aligned}$$

Thus, only particles with velocity $v = E/B$ will pass straight through the filter.

By combining the Wien filter with another region of magnetic fields, we create a mass spectrometer that can separate particles based on their charge-to-mass ratio.

Mass Spectrometer



Since we know both the charge and velocity entering the magnetic field region, we can find the particle's mass by measuring the radius of its circular path:

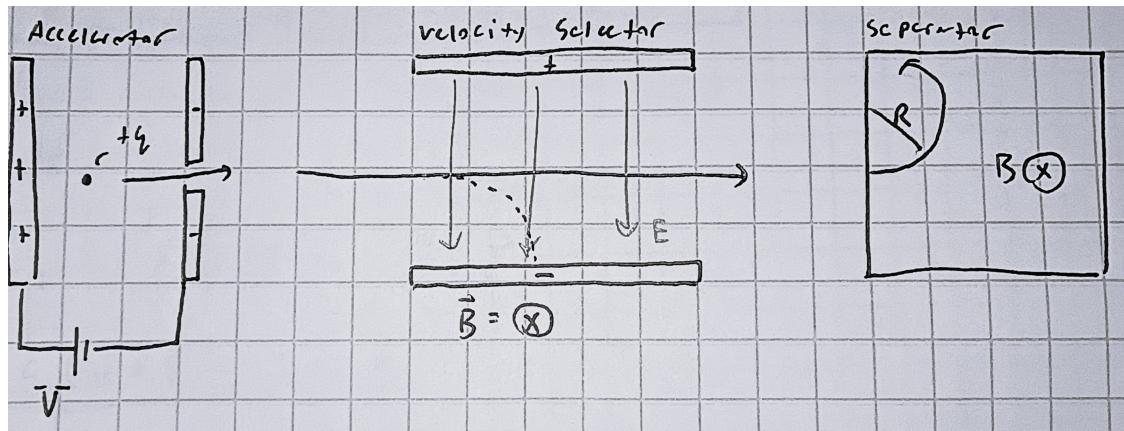
$$\begin{aligned}\sum \vec{F}_n &= \vec{F}_B = \frac{mv^2}{R} \implies qvB = \frac{mv^2}{R} \\ m &= \frac{BRq}{v}\end{aligned}$$

Note: Typically, the charges are accelerated through a potential difference V before entering the velocity selector, so we can find their velocity using energy conservation:

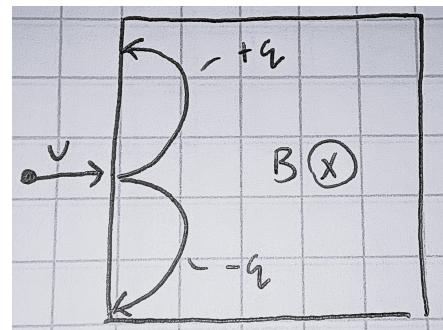
$$W_{nc} = \Delta E = 0 \implies \Delta U = \Delta K$$

$$qV = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \implies v = \sqrt{\frac{2qV}{m}}$$

The full set up looks like this:

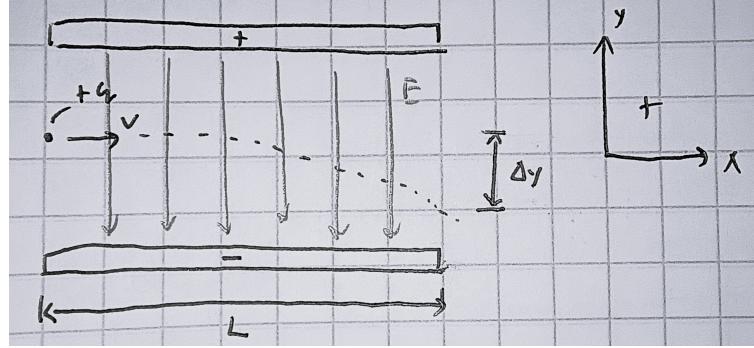


Also note that since the magnetic force is opposite for negative charges, they will curve in the opposite direction in the magnetic field region:



Let's consider a setup similar to a Wien filter, but where the parallel plates are designed to deflect the particle beam rather than selectively filter it.

Cathode Ray Tube



First, without a \vec{B} field, the particles will be deflected by the \vec{E} field:

$$\sum \vec{F} = -qE\hat{j} \implies |a_y| = \frac{|q|E}{m}$$

The time spent in the field is:

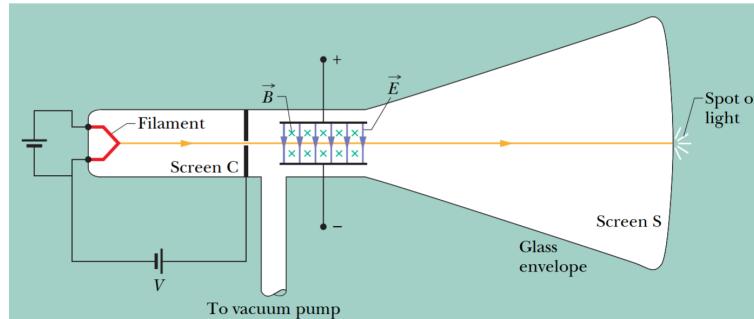
$$\Delta x = vt = L \implies t = \frac{L}{v}$$

The vertical displacement upon exiting the plates is:

$$\Delta y = v_{oy}t + \frac{1}{2}a_y t^2 = 0 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{|q|E}{m} \right) \left(\frac{L}{v} \right)^2$$

$$\boxed{\Delta y = \frac{|q|EL^2}{2mv^2}}$$

Now consider adding a magnetic field like this:



We know from the Wien filter that the forces will cancel when:

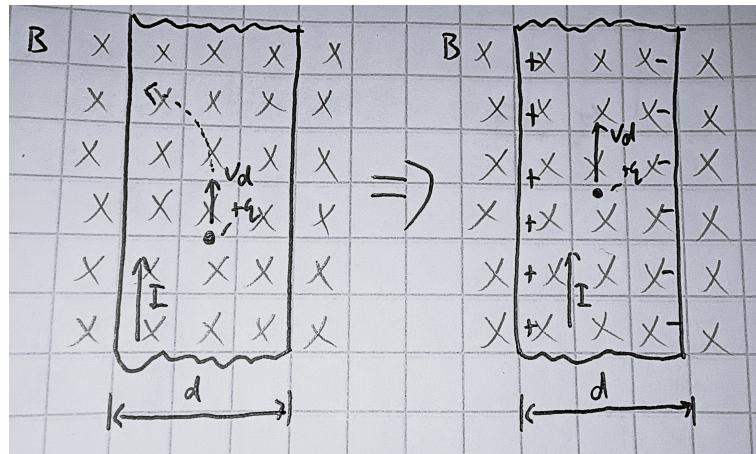
$$v = \frac{E}{B}$$

Thus, plugging this into our previous equation for vertical displacement:

$$\frac{m}{|q|} = \frac{BL^2}{2\Delta y E}$$

Finally, let's talk about the Hall effect!

Hall Effect



Consider a conductor with a current I flowing through it in a region with a \vec{B} field. The moving charges will be pushed to one side of the conductor by the magnetic force, creating a **Hall potential difference** (ΔV) and an electric field (\vec{E}) inside the conductor.

$$\Delta V = Ed$$

Eventually, when the electric force balances the magnetic force, the charges stop accumulating.

$$\sum \vec{F} = \vec{F}_E - \vec{F}_B = 0 \implies qE = qv_d B$$

Thus, by measuring the Hall potential difference, we can find the magnetic field strength:

$$B = \frac{\Delta V}{v_d d}$$

We can also find the number of charge carriers per unit volume (n) in the conductor, letting $q = e$ for electrons and plugging in for v_d from before:

$$I = nev_d A, \quad (\text{A is cross-sectional area of conductor})$$

$$n = \frac{IBd}{eA\Delta V}$$

Note: It is also possible to determine the drift velocity using the Hall effect, by mechanically moving the conductor such that there is no relative velocity between the charges and the magnetic field. Therefore, there will be **zero** Hall potential difference (since there is no magnetic force).

3. Explain the principle of operation of a cyclotron

Circulating Charged Particles

We know that for a particle of charge q moving with \vec{v} in a uniform magnetic field, it will tend towards a circular path due to the magnetic force (no tangential force, only normal force).

$$\sum F_n = |q|vB = \frac{mv^2}{r} \implies r = \frac{mv}{|q|B} \quad (\text{radius})$$

From which we can define the following quantities:

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v} = \frac{2\pi}{v} \frac{mv}{|q|B} = \frac{2\pi m}{|q|B} \quad (\text{period})$$

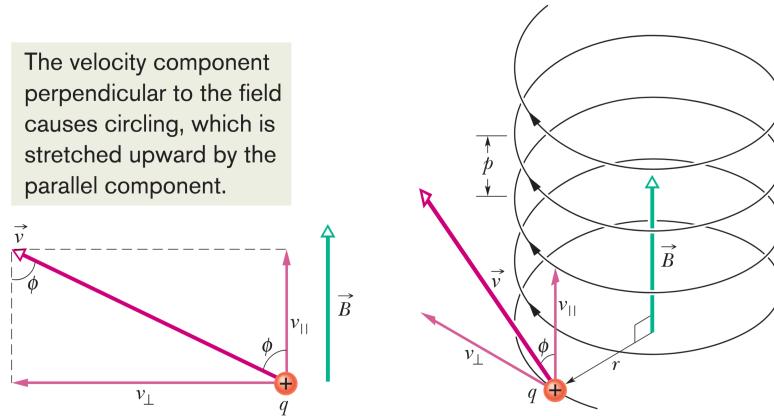
$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{|q|B}{2\pi m} \quad (\text{frequency})$$

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} = 2\pi f = \frac{|q|B}{m} \quad (\text{angular frequency})$$

Note: The quantities T , f , and ω do not depend on the speed of the particle (as long as it isn't moving at relativistic speeds). Fast particles move in large circles and slow ones in small circles, but all particles with the same charge-to-mass ratio $|q|/m$ take the same time T to complete one loop.

Helical Paths

If the velocity of the charged particle has a component parallel to the magnetic field, then the particle will follow a helical path:



Where the angle ϕ is the angle between \vec{v} and \vec{B} .

$$v_{\parallel} = v \cos \phi, \quad v_{\perp} = v \sin \phi$$

The radius of the helical path is determined by v_{\perp} :

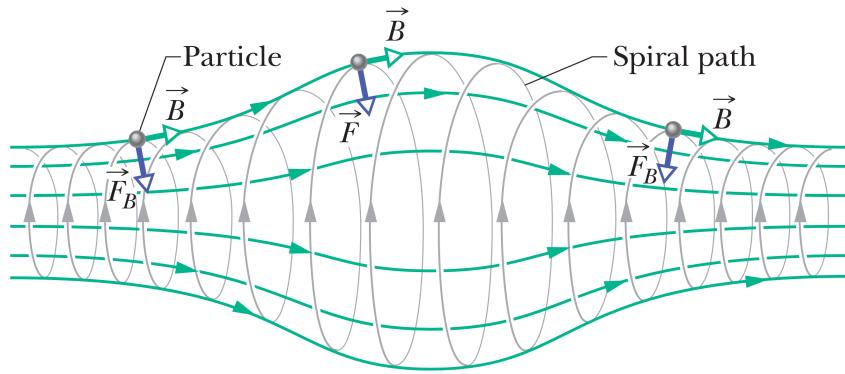
$$r = \frac{mv_{\perp}}{|q|B} = \frac{mv \sin \phi}{|q|B}$$

The pitch of the helix (distance between successive turns) is determined by v_{\parallel} and the period T :

$$p = v_{\parallel}T = v \cos \phi \left(\frac{2\pi m}{|q|B} \right)$$

Magnetic Mirror

A charged particle can be confined to a region of space by a magnetic field that is stronger at the ends than in the middle. As the particle approaches the stronger field (shown by the more closely spaced field lines), a component of the magnetic force pushes it back toward the center of the region, reflecting it back and forth between the two ends.

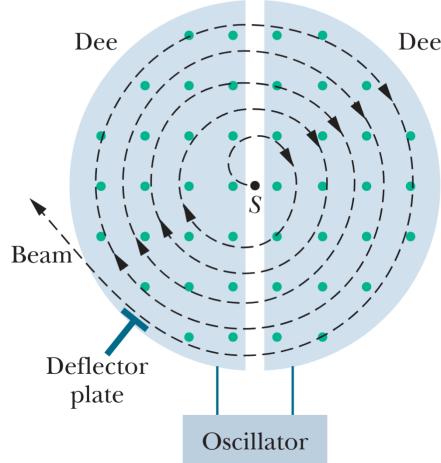


This type of field can be created by two current-carrying coils (magnetic dipoles) at the ends of the region. Notably, the Earth's magnetic field acts as a magnetic mirror for charged particles from the solar wind, trapping them in the Van Allen radiation belts.

Note: The magnetic force only reflects the particle as a result of the curvature of the field lines, which creates a component of the magnetic force along the direction of motion of the particle.

Cyclotron

A cyclotron is a device that uses a combination of a constant magnetic field and an oscillating electric potential difference to accelerate charged particles. The magnetic field forces the particles to move in circular paths while the potential difference between the dees accelerates them each time they cross the gap.



Suppose a proton is injected at source S . It will be accelerated toward the negatively charged dee and enter it. Once inside, there will be no electric field (shielded by the conducting walls of the dee), and it will move in a semicircular path due to the magnetic field. When it exits the dee, the potential difference is reversed to accelerate it again across the gap. Thus, the frequency f at which the proton circulates (independent of speed) *must* match the frequency of the oscillating potential difference f_{osc} :

$$f = f_{osc} \quad (\text{resonance condition})$$

$$\frac{|q|B}{2\pi m} = f_{osc}$$

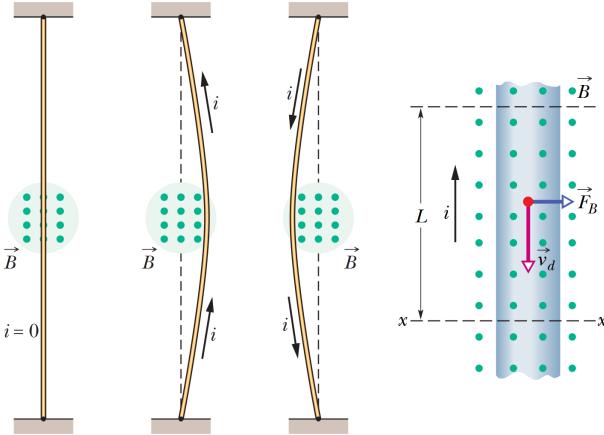
Synchrotron

At relativistic speeds (above 10% of c), the frequency of revolution is now no longer independent of the charged particle's speed. As the speed approaches the speed of light, the frequency of revolution decreases, and is no longer in sync to the fixed f_{osc} . Thus a **synchrotron** is used to vary both the magnetic field and f_{osc} to keep the particle in resonance as it accelerates to higher speeds. The proton also follows a circular path instead of a spiral in a synchrotron.

4. Determine the forces and/or torques on various arrangements of current carrying wires (straight, circular loops, square loops, etc...) located in a given magnetic field.

Magnetic Force on a Current Carrying Wire

We know that moving charges experience a magnetic force in a magnetic field. Thus, a current-carrying wire (which has moving charges) will also experience a magnetic force when placed in a magnetic field.



Note: The motion of electrons is opposite to the direction of conventional current. However, since both the charge and velocity are negative, the magnetic force ends up being in the same direction as if we considered positive charges moving with the current.

We know that the magnetic force on a single charge is:

$$\vec{F}_B = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

Thus, for N charges in a wire segment of length L , the total magnetic force is:

$$\vec{F}_B = Nq\vec{v}_d \times \vec{B}$$

If we rewrite N in terms of the number of charge carriers per unit volume n and the volume of the wire segment AL (where A is the cross-sectional area), we get:

$$\vec{F}_B = (nAL)q\vec{v}_d \times \vec{B}$$

Recall that current is defined as $I = qnv_dA$, so we can rewrite the magnetic force as:

$$\boxed{\vec{F}_B = I\vec{L} \times \vec{B} \quad (\text{force on a straight wire})}$$

Where \vec{L} is a vector in the direction of the conventional current with magnitude L .

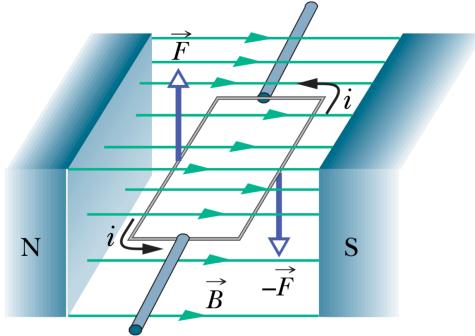
If the wire is not straight or the field is not uniform, we can find the differential force on a small current element Idl and integrate over the length of the wire:

$$\boxed{d\vec{F}_B = Id\vec{L} \times \vec{B}}$$

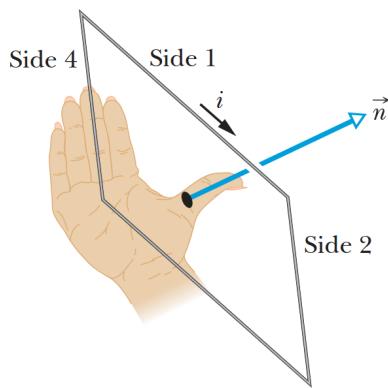
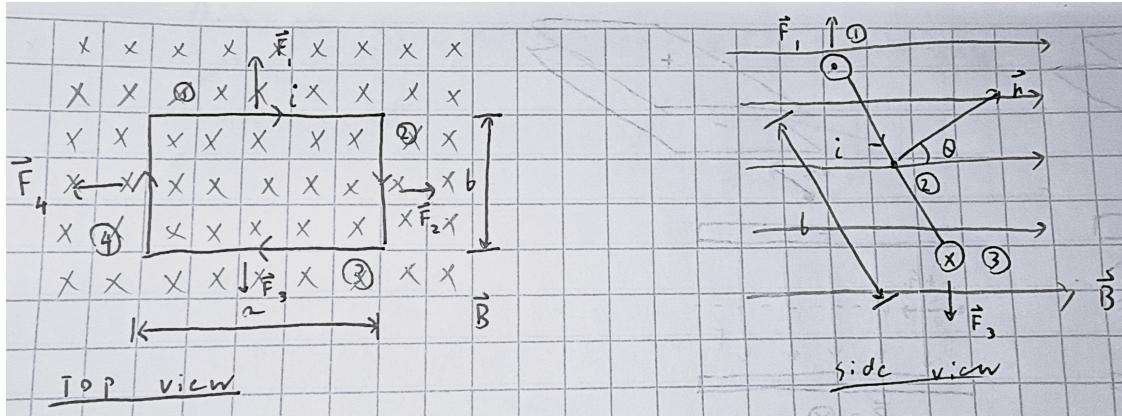
Note: There is no such thing as an isolated current-carrying wire, there must always be a way to introduce current into the wire and take it out at the other end.

Magnetic Torque on a Current Loop

A motor converts current into rotation by using magnetic forces on a current-carrying loop to generate a torque. In this case, the direction of current is reversed every half turn to keep the torque in the same direction using a commutator (not shown).



Let's consider the following rectangular current loop in a uniform magnetic field:



The orientation of the loop is defined using a normal vector \vec{n} that is perpendicular to the plane of the loop and follows the right-hand rule with respect to the current direction.

Curl fingers in the direction of the current and the thumb points in the direction of \vec{n} . The angle θ is defined as the angle between \vec{n} and \vec{B} .

Finding the magnetic force on each side of the loop using $\vec{F}_B = I\vec{L} \times \vec{B} = ILB\sin\theta$ where θ is the angle between \vec{L} and \vec{B} :

$$||\vec{F}_1|| = ||\vec{F}_3|| = iaB$$

$$||\vec{F}_2|| = ||\vec{F}_4|| = ibB\sin(90^\circ - \theta) = ibB\cos\theta$$

By symmetry, the forces act in opposite directions on each side, so the net force on the loop is zero. However, there is a torque about the center of the loop due to \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_3 (since their lines of action do not pass through the center):

$$\tau = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}$$

$$\tau = \left(iaB \frac{b}{2} \sin\theta \right) + \left(iaB \frac{b}{2} \sin\theta \right) = iabB \sin\theta$$

Note that $A = ab$ is the area of the loop, so we can rewrite the torque as:

$$\boxed{\tau = iAB \sin\theta}$$

This relation holds for any shape of current loop, as long as A is the area of the loop and θ is the angle between \vec{n} and \vec{B} .

If we have a *coil* with N loops of wire, we can approximate them as N identical current loops stacked together in the same plane. Thus, the total torque on the coil is:

$$\boxed{\sum \tau = NIAB \sin\theta}$$

Note: The current-carrying coil will tend to rotate such that \vec{n} is aligned with \vec{B} , minimizing the potential energy of the system.

Magnetic Dipole Moment

Similar to a bar magnet, a current-carrying loop tends to align itself with an external magnetic field. Thus, the current loop is said to be a **magnetic dipole** with a **magnetic dipole moment** $\vec{\mu}$ defined as:

$$\boxed{\vec{\mu} = NiA\hat{n}}$$

Where N is the number of loops, i is the current, A is the area of the loop, and \hat{n} is the unit normal vector to the plane of the loop. It has units of ampere-square meter ($A \cdot m^2$).

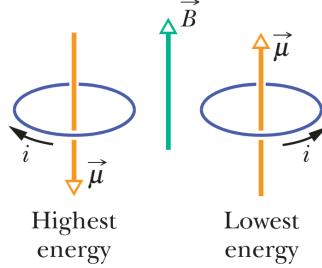
Using $\vec{\mu}$, we can rewrite the torque on the current loop as:

$$\boxed{\vec{\tau} = \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B}}$$

Similar to the electric dipole in an electric field, the potential energy of a magnetic dipole in a magnetic field is given by:

$$\boxed{U = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}}$$

Note: The minimum potential energy ($-\mu B$) occurs when $\vec{\mu}$ is aligned with \vec{B} , and the maximum potential energy (μB) occurs when they are anti-aligned.



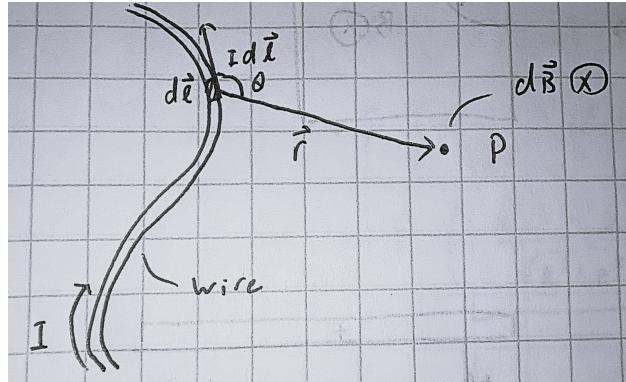
Note: The work done by an external torque to rotate the dipole is $W_{ext} = \Delta U = U_f - U_i$. If the dipole is stationary before and after the rotation.

A bar magnet and a rotating sphere of charge are magnetic dipoles as well, and we can approximate the Earth as a big magnetic dipole. Most subatomic particles (like electrons, protons, and neutrons) also have intrinsic magnetic dipole moments due to their spin and charge. Thus, we can model their interactions with magnetic fields using the same equations as above.

Chapter 29 - Magnetic Fields due to Currents

1. Use the Biot-Savart law to calculate the magnetic field due to a current-carrying wires of arbitrary (but tractable) geometry. e.g., a loop.

Like electric fields, magnetic fields obey superposition. Thus, we can find the magnetic field from a wire by summing up the $d\vec{B}$ at point P produced by small current elements $Id\vec{l}$ along the wire.



We can find $d\vec{B}$ by using the **Biot-Savart Law**:

$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{Id\vec{l} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

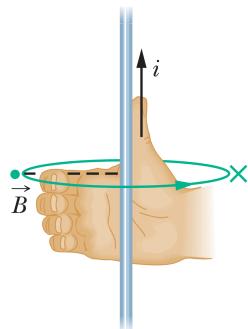
Where

- $Id\vec{l}$ is the current element that produces the differential magnetic field $d\vec{B}$.
- r is the distance from the current element to point P .
- \hat{r} is the unit vector that points from the current element to point P .
- μ_0 is the permeability of free space and has a value of:

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T} \cdot \text{m/A}$$

Note: $Id\vec{l} \times \hat{r} = Idl \sin \theta$ where θ is the angle between $d\vec{l}$ and \vec{r} .

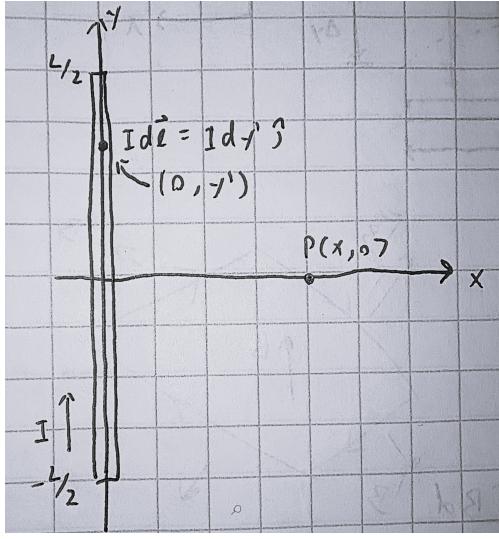
We can also find the direction of the magnetic field using the right-hand rule:



- Grasp the current element and point thumb in the direction of the current.

- Your fingers will then naturally curl around in the direction of the magnetic field lines due to that element.

Magnetic Field Due to a Current in a Straight Wire



Biot-Savart law:

$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{Id\vec{l} \times \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

Vectors:

$$\begin{aligned} d\vec{l} &= dy' \hat{j} \\ \vec{r} &= \langle x, 0 \rangle - \langle 0, y' \rangle = \langle x, -y' \rangle, \quad ||\vec{r}|| = \sqrt{x^2 + y'^2} \\ \hat{r} &= \frac{\langle x, -y' \rangle}{\sqrt{x^2 + y'^2}} \end{aligned}$$

Cross product:

$$\begin{aligned} d\vec{B} &= \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{Idy' \hat{j} \times \langle x, -y' \rangle}{(x^2 + y'^2)^{3/2}} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{-Ix dy' \hat{k}}{(x^2 + y'^2)^{3/2}} \end{aligned}$$

Integrate:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{B} &= -\frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{xdy'}{(x^2 + y'^2)^{3/2}} \hat{k} \\ &= -\frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi} \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 + (L/2)^2}} \hat{k} \end{aligned}$$

Taking the limit as $L \rightarrow \infty$, letting $r = x$:

$$||\vec{B}|| = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \quad (\text{infinite straight wire})$$

Note: For a semi-infinite wire (from $0 \rightarrow \infty$), the magnetic field is half that of an infinite wire at the same distance r from the wire.

$$||\vec{B}|| = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi r} \quad (\text{semi-infinite straight wire})$$

2. Describe Ampere's law and the conditions under which it can be used to solve for a magnetic field from a given current distribution. Use Ampere's law to find the field in those situations with sufficient symmetry to apply it. e.g., a long wire.
3. Find the magnetic force on a current carrying wire due to another current carrying wire.
4. Describe the forces and torques on magnetic dipoles in terms of their magnetic moment.

Chapter 30 & 31.11 - Induction and Inductance

1. Understand the meaning Faraday's law of induction and be able to use it to determine the electromotive force. Explain and apply the equivalence of Faraday's law and the Lorentz force law for motional emfs.
2. Apply Lenz's law to determine the sign of induced currents or electromotive forces.
3. Define inductance and be able to calculate the self or mutual inductance for various (usually simple) current distributions. Know and use the reciprocity relation for mutual inductances.
4. Be able to calculate the energy stored in magnetic fields for a given inductor using either the formula involving inductance or the energy density of the magnetic field.
5. Describe the principle of operation of a generator and a motor.

Chapter 32 - Maxwell's Equations

1. Describe Gauss's law for Magnetism and its applications.
2. Describe the Ampere-Maxwell law, the displacement current, and calculate the magnetic field in a charging or discharging capacitor.

Chapter 33 - Electromagnetic Waves

1. Test whether a given arrangement of propagating electromagnetic fields satisfies Maxwell's Equations.
2. Understand the principles of electromagnetic waves and their basic properties, such as phase speed, relation between \vec{k} , \vec{E} , and \vec{B} .
3. Define the Poynting vector or Poynting flux and be able to use it to calculate the energy carried by electromagnetic fields.
4. Qualitatively describe how electromagnetic waves are generated. For an accelerating charge, identify the directions in which one will see the largest/smallest electric fields and describe the polarization of the electric field vector.

Chapters 27, 30.12, & 31 - Circuits

1. Know and be able to apply the Voltage Loop Rule and the Current Node Rule (conservation of energy and conservation of charge, respectively) to analyze a circuit. A good example is to prove the rules for adding resistors in series or in parallel.
2. Know the relation between current and voltage for the basic circuit elements of resistor, capacitor, and inductor.
3. Write differential equations for RLC circuits (or RL, RC, LC). Understand qualitatively the behavior of resistors, inductors, and capacitors at high and low frequencies. Be able to describe how electromagnetic energy is stored, supplied, and dissipated in such circuits.
4. Solve the differential equations for such circuits, identify characteristic timescales, frequencies, and resonances. If initial conditions are given, be able to find solutions that satisfy those initial conditions.
5. Know or be able to derive the complex impedances for resistors, capacitors, and inductors. Know or derive the rules for combining parallel and series impedances. Use those impedances to describe the relations among currents and voltages in circuits, both in magnitude and phase.

End Final Exam