



HHO125 Faraday's Law

We first show the equivalence between differential and integral forms of the Maxwell equation:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$\leftrightarrow$

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

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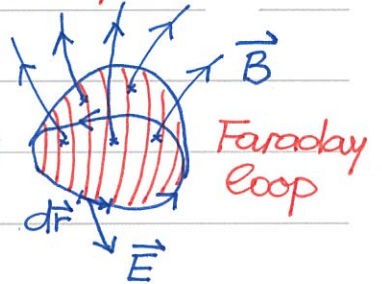
The circulation is calculated

Faraday's Law

around a Faraday loop and the flux is

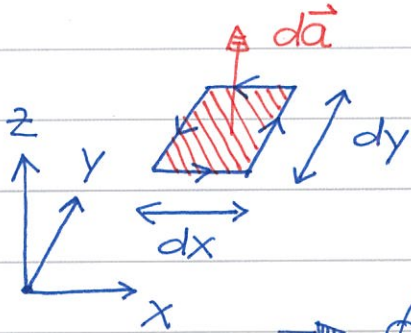
$$\Phi_B \equiv \int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{a}$$

the surface enclosed by the Faraday loop



By now, you should be quite familiar with

the trick of the "tiny square". The circulation of the $\vec{E}$ field contains 4 parts:



$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = [-E_x(y+dy) + E_x(y)] dx + [E_y(x+dx) - E_y(x)] dy$$

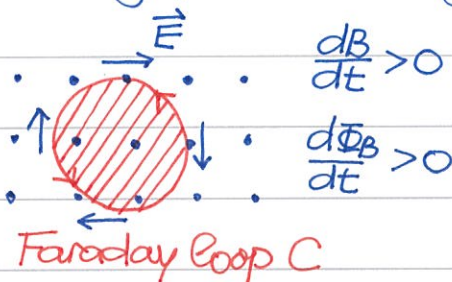
$$\rightarrow \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = \left[\frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y} \right] dx dy = (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) \cdot d\vec{a}$$

Make use of the Maxwell equation (differential form),

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{a} = - \frac{d}{dt} (\vec{B} \cdot d\vec{a}) \rightarrow \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = - \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

The integral form implies that the $\vec{E}$ field is not conservative when the $\vec{B}$ field changes with time!

⊗ Electric field generated by Faraday's Law. Consider an increasing $\vec{B}$ field along the z-axis. Apply Faraday's Law,



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

$$- E \cdot 2\pi r = - \pi r^2 \frac{dB}{dt}$$





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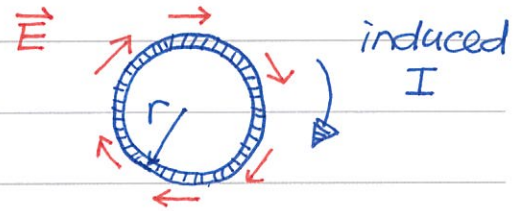
The $\vec{E}$ field generated by the changing $\vec{B}$ field is

$$E = \frac{\pi r^2}{2\pi r} \frac{dB}{dt} \rightarrow E(r) = \frac{1}{2} r \frac{dB}{dt}$$

Suppose we place a circular wire of resistance R inside the changing $\vec{B}$ field. What's the induced current I in the circular wire?

According to Ohm's law (HH0119)

$$\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E} \quad \text{where } R = \left(\frac{L}{\sigma}\right) \frac{L}{A}$$



Put in the above geometric relation to compute the current,

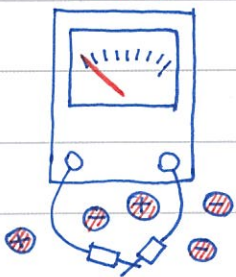
$$I = JA = \sigma E \cdot A = \frac{1}{R} (E \cdot L) = \frac{1}{R} (E \cdot 2\pi r)$$

It is convenient to introduce the electromotive force (EMF)

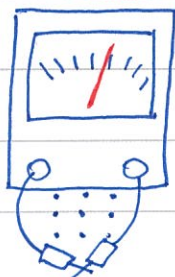
$$\mathcal{E} = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \rightarrow \mathcal{E} = E \cdot 2\pi r \rightarrow I = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R}$$

It seems that the circular wire with EMF $\mathcal{E}$ is very similar to a normal circuit. But, there are important differences!

ZERO



NONZERO



electrostatics

$$\frac{dB}{dt} \neq 0$$

In electrostatics, a short-circuited voltmeter always gives ZERO,

because $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$ 😊

However, if the magnetic flux changes through the closed circuit, the voltmeter shows NONZERO reading!

The key difference is the value of EMF. In the presence of changing $\vec{B}$ field, the EMF is not zero.

$$\mathcal{E} = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \neq 0$$

$$\Delta V = - \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

WRONG $\vec{V}$

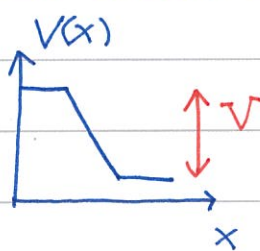
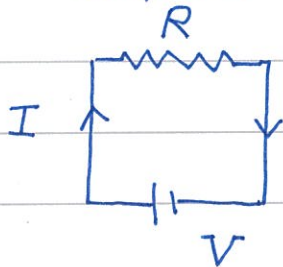
potential is ill-defined....





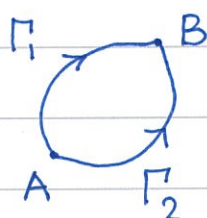
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Compare $V = IR$ circuit and $\mathcal{E} = IR$ Faraday loop.

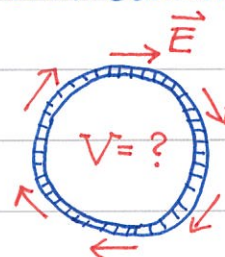


For the ordinary circuit, the electric potential along the circuit is well defined.

On the other hand, for a Faraday loop, the circulation of the $\vec{E}$ field is NOT zero. Thus, the potential is ill-defined.



$$\int_{\Gamma_1} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r} \neq \int_{\Gamma_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

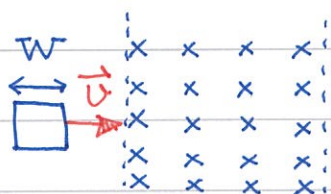


potential NOT defined...

Because we know the energy can be expressed in terms of the field, it is not the end of the day without the electric potential — the $\vec{E}$ field is still there to

① Lenz law and magnetic brake. Lenz provided a useful rule to determine the direction of the induced current: the current is always against the flux change to

Let us consider a square loop moving across a region of constant $\vec{B}$ field. Assume the resistance of the loop is R .

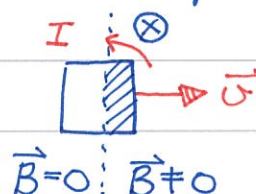


$\vec{B}=0$: $\vec{B} \neq 0$: $\vec{B}=0$

① entering stage :

$$\mathcal{E} = - \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = +B \frac{dA}{dt}$$

$$\mathcal{E} = B w v$$



$\mathcal{E} > 0$, counterclockwise induced current.

The induced current is

$$I = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{R} = \frac{w}{R} v B$$

$$P = I^2 R = \frac{w^2}{R} v^2 B^2$$





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To maintain the constant velocity, an external force $\vec{F}_{ex}$ is necessary to balance the magnetic force $\vec{F}_M$.

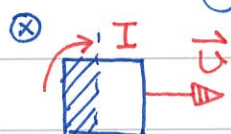


$$F_M = IWB = \frac{W^2}{R} B^2 v \quad \leftarrow \text{pulling back.}$$

$\vec{B}=0 : \vec{B} \neq 0$ Because $\vec{F}_M + \vec{F}_{ex} = 0$, the external force provides a positive power into the square loop.

$$P_{ex} = F_{ex} \cdot v = \frac{W^2}{R} v^2 B^2 \quad \text{the same as the Ohmic dissipation in the loop } \ddot{v}$$

② exiting stage : By Lenz law, a clockwise I is induced.



$$\mathcal{E} = - \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = B \frac{dA}{dt} = -BWv < 0$$

$\vec{B} \neq 0 : \vec{B} = 0$

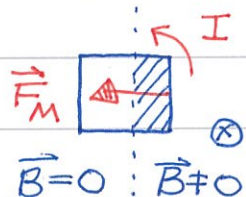
The induced current is the same except the direction is opposite. One can check the input power is again equal to output power $P = I^2 R$. The interesting point is the magnetic force $\vec{F}_M$ is opposite to the velocity $\vec{v}$.

$$\rightarrow \boxed{\vec{F}_M \cdot \vec{v} < 0}$$

Because it tends to reduce the speed, the phenomenon is referred as "magnetic brake". Furthermore, $F_M = (W^2 B^2 / R) v \propto v$. It is particularly useful for objects moving at high speed $\ddot{v}$

① Transformation of energies. Consider the same moving square at the entering stage but the external force is removed. The velocity $\vec{v} = \vec{v}(t)$ now changes with time. Write down the

EOM for the system,



$$m \frac{dv}{dt} = F_M = - \left(\frac{W^2 B^2}{R} \right) v$$

$\leftarrow$ like frictional force $\ddot{v}$

Introduce braking time $\tau_b = \frac{mR}{W^2 B^2}$



$$\boxed{\frac{dv}{dt} = - \frac{1}{\tau_b} v}$$

YES!





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The velocity $v(t)$ can be solved from the EOM,

$$v(t) = v_0 e^{-t/\tau_b}$$

The velocity decreases exponentially!

magnetic braking

One can compute the kinetic energy and its decreasing rate,

$$K = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{1}{2} m v_0^2 e^{-2t/\tau_b} \rightarrow \frac{dK}{dt} = - \frac{m v_0^2}{\tau_b} e^{-2t/\tau_b}$$

Recall the definition of braking time $\tau_b = mR / \omega^2 B^2$,

$$\rightarrow \frac{dK}{dt} = - \frac{\omega^2 B^2 v_0^2}{R} e^{-2t/\tau_b}$$

But, where does the energy go?

Compute the thermal energy rate from Ohmic dissipation,

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = I^2 R = \frac{\mathcal{E}^2}{R} = \frac{\omega^2 B^2}{R} v_0^2 e^{-2t/\tau_b} \rightarrow \frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{dK}{dt} = 0$$

It is quite remarkable that Faraday's law transforms the mechanical energy into thermal energy through Ohmic dissipation of the induced current $I(t)$.

mechanical energy (K) + thermal energy (Q) = const

The energy is conserved, not only for Newtonian mechanics but also for the electromagnetic fields governed by the Maxwell equations!



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