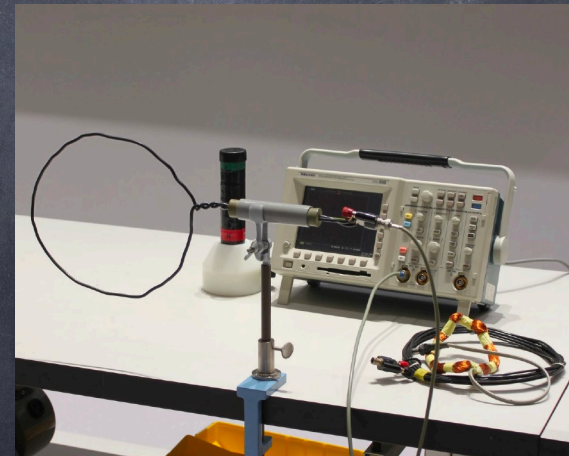


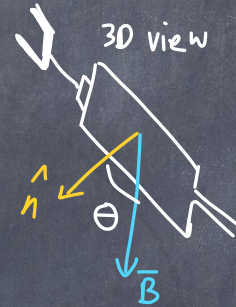
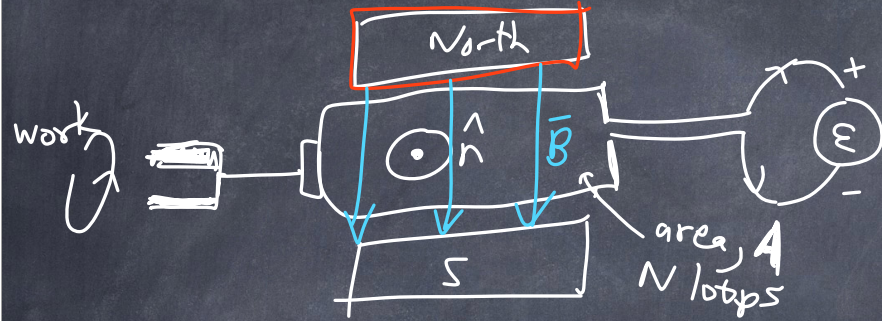
# PHY 117 HS2024

Week 11, Lecture 1  
Nov. 26th, 2024  
Prof. Ben Kilminster





Most electrical energy used today produced by AC (alternating current) electric generators. <sup>mechanical work</sup> → electrical energy

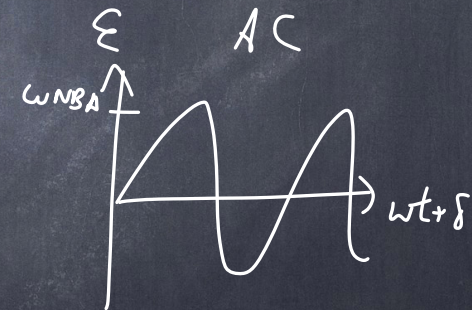


when  $\vec{B} \perp \hat{n}$ ,  $\theta = 90^\circ$   
 $\cos \theta = 0$   
 (no flux)

magnetic flux through loop:  $\Phi_m = NBA \cos \theta$

$$\theta = \omega t + \delta$$

$\uparrow$  angular velocity       $\leftarrow$  starting phase

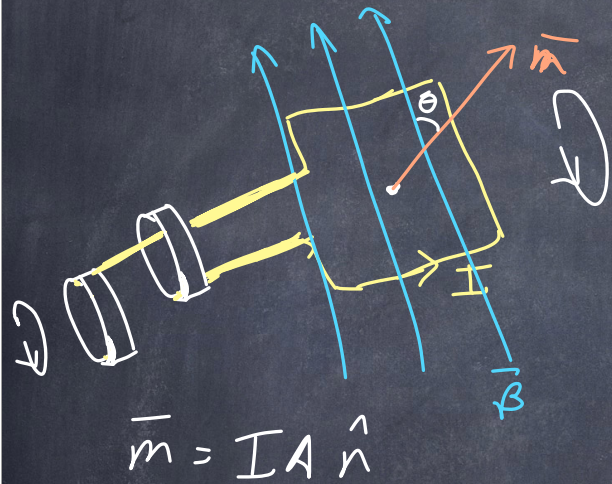


$$\Phi_m = NBA \cos(\omega t + \delta)$$

$$\mathcal{E} = -\frac{d\Phi_m}{dt} = -NBA \frac{d}{dt} \cos(\omega t + \delta) = + \underbrace{NBA\omega}_{\text{Amplitude, max Voltage}} \sin(\omega t + \delta)$$



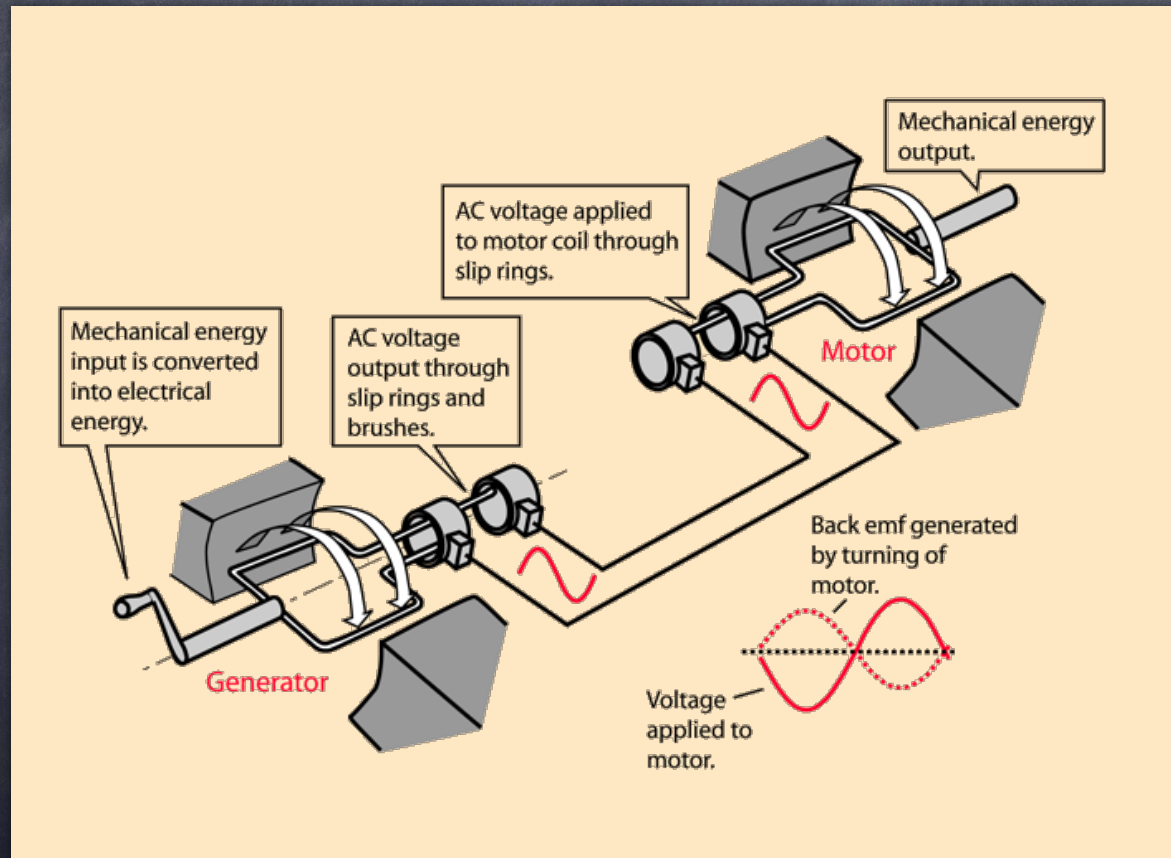
A motor is a generator run in reverse; electrical energy  $\rightarrow$  mechanical work  
 An AC current in the loop creates an alternating magnetic moment,  $\vec{m}$ .



Torque  $\vec{\tau} = \vec{m} \times \vec{B}$

By putting an alternating current through the loop, torque on the  $\vec{m}$  from the B-field makes the loop spin.

# Alternating current generator and motor run in series.

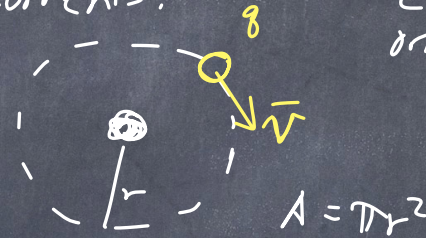




# Magnetization - atomic level

Atoms have magnetic moments.

consider charged particle orbiting with mass  $m_q$ , charge  $q$ .



Angular momentum

$$L = m_q v r$$

↑            ↑  
mass        velocity

I am using a funny "m" for magnetic moment.

The magnetic moment is in general,  $m = IA = I\pi r^2$

The current  $I = \frac{q}{T}$  charge per time to go in a circle.

$$N = \frac{2\pi r}{T} \Rightarrow T = \frac{2\pi r}{N}$$

so we get  $I = \frac{qN}{2\pi r}$  and then  $m = \frac{qNr}{2}$

now substitute in  $L = m_q v r \Rightarrow m = \frac{qL}{2m_q}$  magnetic moment of spinning charged particle



For a positive charge,  $\bar{m} = \frac{q\bar{L}}{2m_0}$   
 $\bar{m} + \bar{L}$  are in the same direction.

For a negative charge,  $\bar{m} = -\frac{q\bar{L}}{2m_0}$   
 $\bar{m} + \bar{L}$  opposite direction

Classical relations  
 (assumes electron is continuously moving in orbit around atom)

Holds also for quantum theory, but...

in quantum theory, orbital angular momentum is quantized. Typically, we talk about

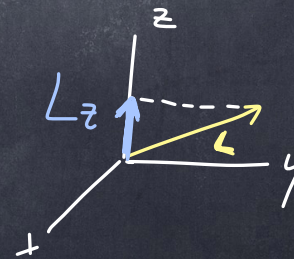
$L_z$  (z-component of the angular momentum),

Why?  
 Because often we have a B-field that is by convention in z-direction

What is  $L_z$ ?

Assume  $\bar{L}$  is our angular momentum.

$L_z$  is the projection onto the z-axis.





$L_z$  is quantized,  $L_z = nh$  where  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$   
 $h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s}$

we sometimes use  $\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi} = 1.05 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s}$

The magnetic moment is then  $m_z = \frac{-g}{2m_g} L_z$  for a negative charge

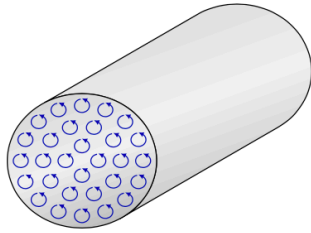
or  $m_z = -m_B \frac{L_z}{\hbar}$  where  $m_B = \text{Bohr magneton} = \frac{eh}{2m_e}$  for an electron  
 $= 9.27 \times 10^{-24} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{T}}$

The magnetic moment of any atom is roughly  $\sim |m_B|$  but depends on # of electrons and pairings

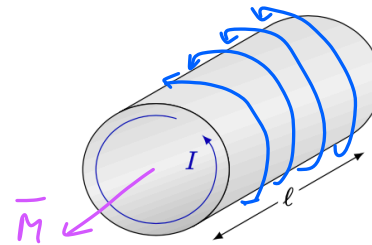
In a material, if magnetic moments align,

11.3. MAGNETIZATION

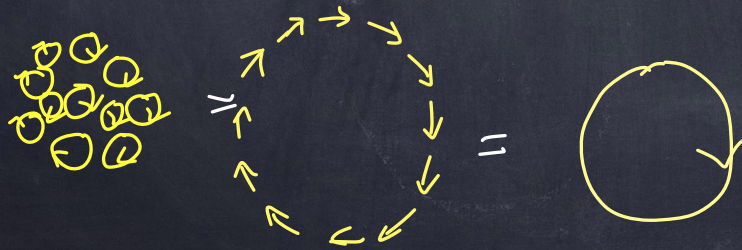
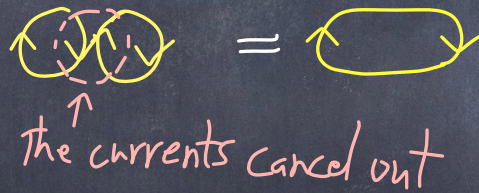
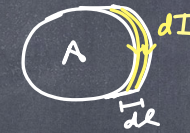
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(a) Each atom has its own small current loops, and their own magnetic moment.



(b) One can think of the microscopic currents adding up to one big one.



the magnetization  $\bar{M}$  is

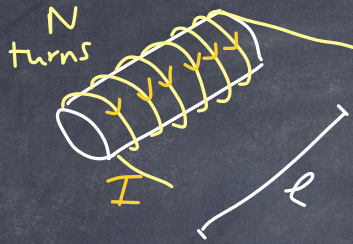
$$\bar{M} = \frac{\text{sum of magnetic moments}}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{(\text{sum of currents})(\text{area})}{(\text{area}) \text{ length}}$$

$$\bar{M} = \frac{\text{current}}{\text{length}}$$

$$\left( \text{or } \bar{M} = \frac{dm}{dv} = \frac{dI}{dl} \right)$$



Magnetic moment of hollow solenoid:



$$M = \frac{NI}{l}$$

$\vec{M}$  = magnetic moment  
= magnetization

previously, we calculated  $B = \mu_0 \frac{NI}{l}$   
for a solenoid,

so we see how magnetic field relates to magnetization,  $\vec{M}$  in this case:

$$\vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{M}$$

In general,  
The magnetization depends on the material and an external B-field.

$$\vec{M} = \chi_m \left( \frac{\vec{B}_{\text{ext}}}{\mu_0} \right) \quad \textcircled{1}$$



$\chi_m$ : magnetic susceptibility

$$\chi_m = \frac{M}{M_0} - 1$$

<u>material</u>	<u><math>\chi_m</math></u>
Al	$2.3 \times 10^{-5}$
Gold	$-3.6 \times 10^{-5}$
BismutL	$-1.66 \times 10^{-5}$
nickel	600
iron pure	200,000
Copper	$-9.6 \times 10^{-6}$
water	$-9 \times 10^{-6}$
graphite	$(1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ } 1 \times 10^{-3})$ (depends on orientation)

3 types of magnetic materials

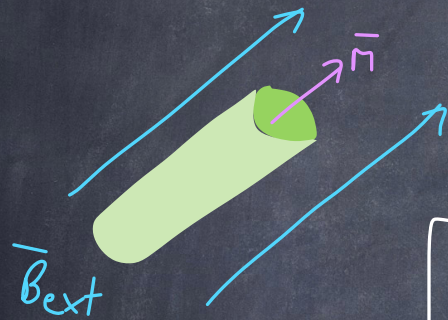
paramagnetic materials  
have small positive  $\chi_m$

diamagnetic materials  
have small negative  $\chi_m$

ferromagnetic materials  
have large positive  $\chi_m$



If we have an external magnetic field,  $\vec{B}_{\text{ext}}$ , in our material, the total magnetic field is a combination of the magnetization  $\vec{M}$  +  $\vec{B}_{\text{ext}}$



$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_{\text{ext}} + \mu_0 \vec{M}$$

substitute in  $\vec{M} = \chi_m \left( \frac{\vec{B}_{\text{ext}}}{\mu_0} \right)$

$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_{\text{ext}} (1 + \chi_m) \quad \textcircled{2}$$

inside the material where field is uniform.



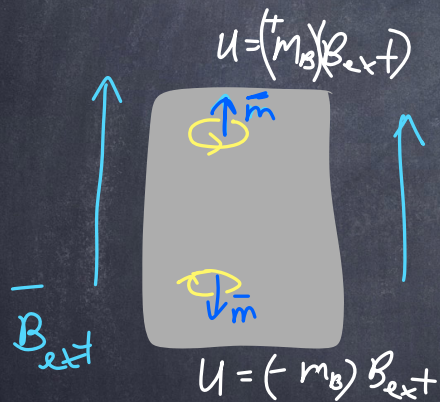
Paramagnetism - Materials with a small, positive

$\chi_m$ .  $\bar{m}$  are randomly aligned, but  $\bar{m}$  tend to align in an external  $\vec{B}$ -Field. But thermal motion counteracts this tendency.

Assume  $B = 1T$

Assume  $m = m_B$

The two effects compete.



Magnetic potential energy =  $U = -\bar{m} \cdot \vec{B}$   
 $\Delta U = \text{Energy to flip } \bar{m} = 2m_B B = 2(9.27 \times 10^{-24} \frac{J}{T})(1T)$   
 $\Delta U = 2 \times 10^{-23} J$

Thermal energy at room temperature:

energy of atoms due to thermal energy =  $kT = \left(1.38 \times 10^{-23} \frac{J}{K}\right)(300K) = 4 \times 10^{-21} J$   
 ↑  
 Boltzmann's constant



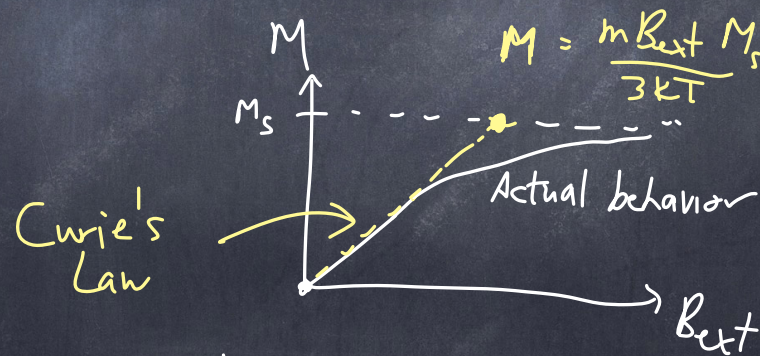
We see that typically (300K) the thermal energy is much more than the magnetic potential energy. The magnetization of a material is much stronger at lower temperatures.

$$M = \frac{m B_{\text{ext}}}{3kT} M_s$$

Curie's Law

$\uparrow 3kT$  (to do with 3 dimensions)

$M_s$  is the saturation value (the maximum value of magnetization when all the magnetic moment are aligned.)



Curie's Law is a good approximation



Ferromagnetism - materials with large, positive values of  $\chi_m$ .  
(iron, cobalt, nickel)

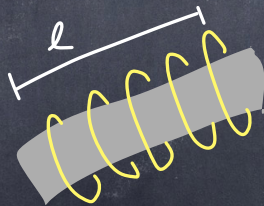


Atoms exert strong force on neighbors, causing alignment in groups called domains.

By increasing  $\vec{B}_{ext}$ , we can get domains to align.  
Barkhausen effect - flipping of domains (sound!)

Put iron into a solenoid.

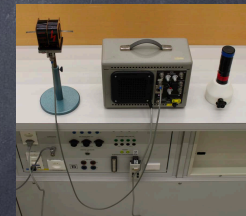
$$n = \frac{N \text{ loops}}{l}$$



Follow:  $B_{ext} = \mu_0 n I$

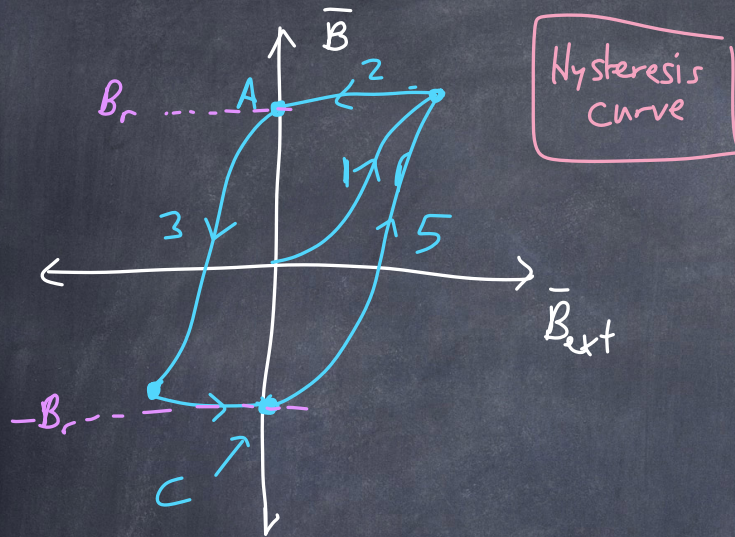
From ①  $\vec{M} = \chi_m \frac{\vec{B}_{ext}}{\mu_0}$

total  $\vec{B}$ -field  $\vec{B} = \vec{B}_{ext} + \mu_0 \vec{M} = \mu_0 n I (1 + \chi_m) = \mu n I$





Start with a piece of unmagnetized iron, we can increase the  $\vec{B}_{ext}$  and measure  $\vec{B}$  (total  $\vec{B}$ -field)



$B_r$ : remnant magnetic field  
 $\vec{B}_r = \vec{B}_{ext} + \mu_0 \vec{M} = \mu_0 \vec{M}$

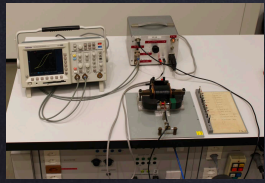
- 1) we increase  $\vec{B}_{ext}$  and  $\vec{B}$  increases.
- 2) we decrease  $\vec{B}_{ext}$  to zero, there is still a  $\vec{B}$  in the material. Since we have aligned domains.
- 3) we switch the direction of  $\vec{B}_{ext}$ ,  $\vec{B}$  becomes negative.

- 4) Increase  $\vec{B}_{ext}$  to zero,  $\vec{B}$  stays negative.
- 5) we increase  $\vec{B}_{ext}$ ,  $\vec{B}$  becomes positive.

This is known as a hysteresis curve.

The magnetization of a material depends on its history of  $\vec{B}_{ext}$ .

Points A + C are when ferromagnet becomes permanent.





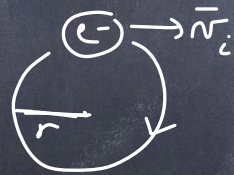
Diamagnetism - Materials with a small, negative value of  $\chi_m$ . These materials have  $\vec{m}$  that do not align in  $\vec{B}_{ext}$ .

Discovered in 1846, when Faraday found that bismuth is repelled (slightly) by either side of a magnet.

Why? Atomic version of Lenz's Law: In a magnetic field, the electrons speed up or slow down, creating an opposing magnetic field.

from earlier:

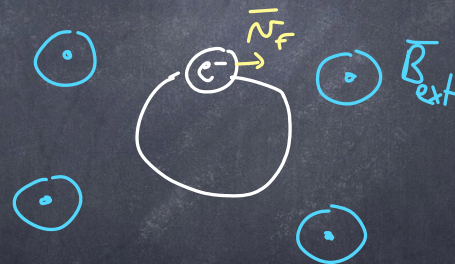
Before:



$$\vec{m} = \frac{e N_i r}{2} \odot$$

left-hand rule

After:



$$\vec{m} = \frac{e N_f r}{2} \odot$$

smaller

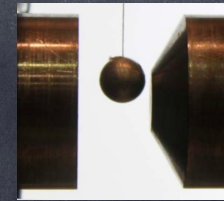
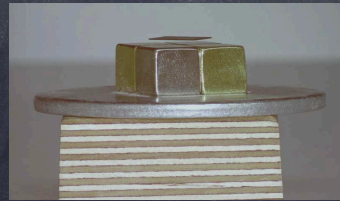
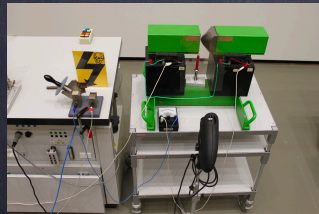
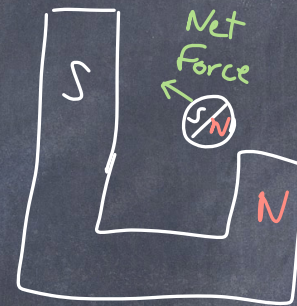
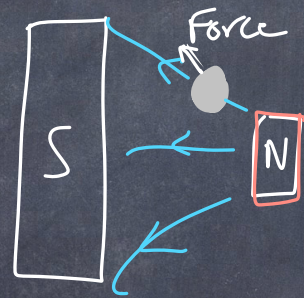
change in magnetic moment

$$\Delta \vec{m} = \frac{e \Delta N r}{2} \oplus$$



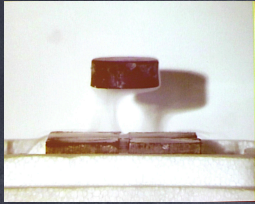
A diamagnet will have an induced magnetization opposing the direction of an external  $B$ -field.

For example, in a static  $\vec{B}$ -field, <sup>that is</sup> diverging, the  $\vec{B}$ -field is stronger on one side.





A superconductor is a perfect diamagnet.  
 It creates a magnetic field that cancels out  $\vec{B}_{ext}$



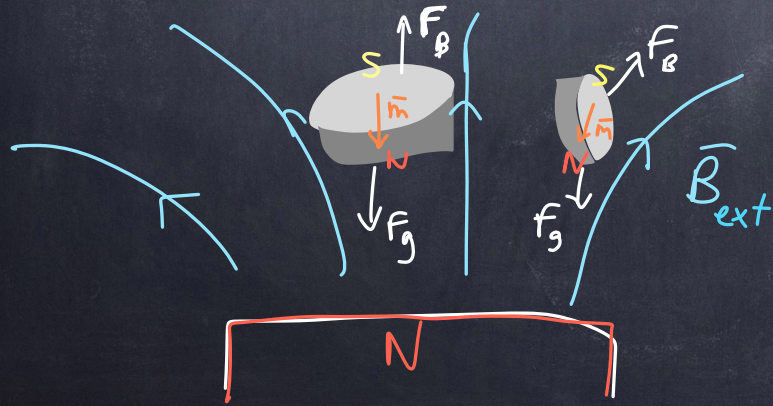
The magnet falls when temperature increases.

from ② 
$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_{ext} (1 + \chi_m) = \vec{0}$$

$\uparrow$   
 $\chi_m = -1$   
 superconductor

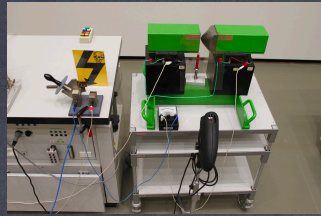
Alex Müller: UZH

1986 Nobel Prize  
 for a high-temperature  
 superconductor 35 K

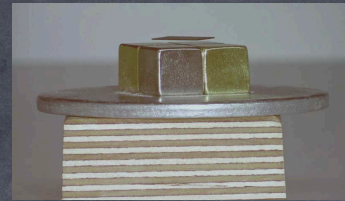


$\vec{B}_{ext}$  is decreasing as we get higher.  
 At some height,  $\vec{F}_B$  is equal & opposite to  $F_g$

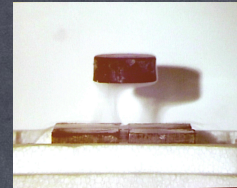




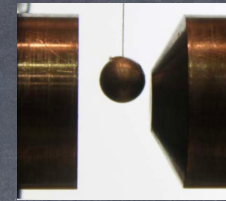
ED28



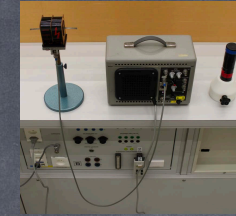
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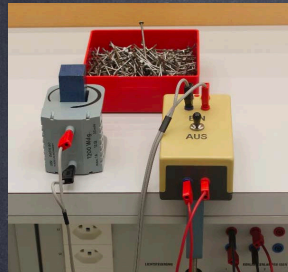
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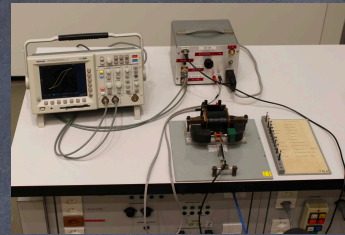
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ED34



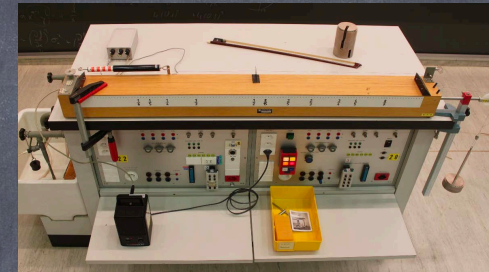
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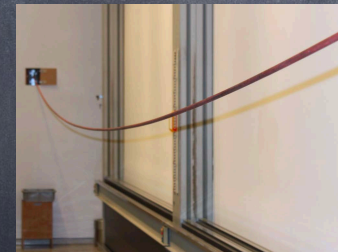
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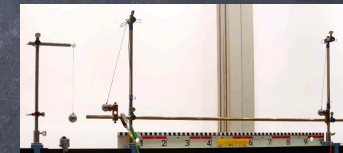
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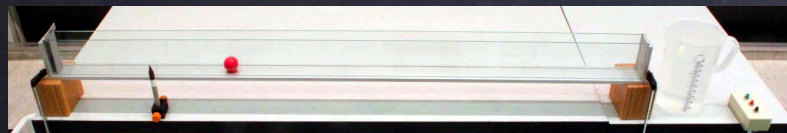
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W31



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