

8.1 For a 60-watt, 120 volt bulb the normal current is $I = \frac{P}{V} = \frac{60}{120} = 0.5$ amp. The resistance of the filament is $R = \frac{120}{0.5} = 240$ ohms. We want to have the same current, 0.5 amp., when the bulb is connected in series with a reactance ωL , across 240 volts:

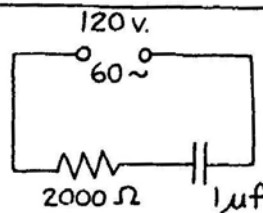
$$0.5 = |I| = \frac{V}{|Z|} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L)^2}} \quad 0.5 = \frac{240}{\sqrt{(240)^2 + (\omega L)^2}}$$

$$(\omega L)^2 = 480^2 - 240^2 \quad \omega L = 240\sqrt{3} = 415 \text{ ohms reactance.}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi \times 60 = 377 \quad L = \frac{415}{377} = 1.10 \text{ henry}$$

8.2 (a) $Z = R - \frac{i}{\omega C} = 2000 - \frac{i}{377 \times 10^{-6}}$
 $= 2000 - 2650i$ ohms

The absolute value of the impedance $|Z|$ is: $|Z| = \sqrt{2000^2 + 2650^2} = 3320$ ohms



(b) The rms current is simply $\frac{V}{|Z|}$ where V is the rms voltage, in this case 120 volts: $I = \frac{120}{3320} = 0.036$ amp.

(c) The power dissipated in the circuit is $I^2 R$:

$$P = I^2 R = (0.036)^2 \times 2000 = 2.59 \text{ watts}$$

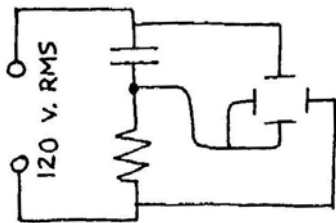
(d) A voltmeter connected across the resistor will read:

$$V_R = IR = 0.036 \times 2000 = 72 \text{ volts (rms)}$$

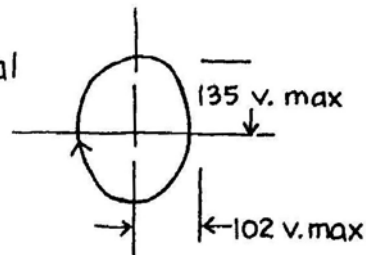
A voltmeter connected across the capacitor will read:

$$V_C = \frac{I}{\omega C} = 0.036 \times 2650 = 95.5 \text{ volts (rms)}$$

If plates are connected as shown and if vertical and horizontal deflection sensitivities



are equal, beam will trace elliptical pattern, in the sense indicated.



8.6 $V(t) = A e^{-\beta_1 t} + B e^{-\beta_2 t}$ was said to be the

general solution in the over-damped case. To verify this, we try the solution $V = A e^{-\beta t}$ for Eq. 2:

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = -A\beta e^{-\beta t} \quad \frac{d^2V}{dt^2} = A\beta^2 e^{-\beta t}$$

Substituting in $\frac{d^2V}{dt^2} + \frac{R}{L} \frac{dV}{dt} + \frac{1}{LC} V = 0$ we have:

$$\cancel{A}\beta^2 \cancel{e^{-\beta t}} - \frac{R}{L} \cancel{A}\beta \cancel{e^{-\beta t}} + \frac{A}{LC} \cancel{e^{-\beta t}} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \beta^2 - \frac{R}{L}\beta + \frac{1}{LC} = 0$$

The roots of this quadratic equation are:

$$\beta = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{R}{L} \pm \sqrt{\frac{R^2}{L^2} - \frac{4}{LC}} \right) = \frac{R}{2L} \left(1 \pm \sqrt{1 - \frac{4L}{R^2C}} \right)$$

The roots are real if $R \geq 2\sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$. Notice that both roots are positive. Call them β_1 and β_2 . With $R = 600 \Omega$,

$L = 10^{-4}$ henrys $C = 10^{-8}$ farads,

$$\frac{4L}{R^2C} = \frac{4 \times 10^{-4}}{36 \times 10^4 \times 10^{-8}} = \frac{1}{9} \quad \frac{R}{2L} = \frac{600}{2 \times 10^{-4}} = 3 \times 10^6$$

$$\beta_1 = 3 \times 10^6 \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{8}{9}} \right) = 3 \times 10^6 \times 1.943 = 5.84 \times 10^6$$

$$\beta_2 = 3 \times 10^6 \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{8}{9}} \right) = 3 \times 10^6 \times 0.057 = 0.171 \times 10^6$$

The initial condition is $\frac{dV}{dt} = 0$ at $t = 0$. Hence

$-\beta_1 A - \beta_2 B = 0$, or $\frac{B}{A} = -\frac{\beta_1}{\beta_2} = 34$. The term $B e^{-\beta_2 t}$ is the slowly decaying term, and after a microsecond or so, it is practically all that is left.

$$8.8 \quad V = A e^{-\alpha t} \cos \omega t \quad I = AC\omega e^{-\alpha t} (\sin \omega t + \frac{\alpha}{\omega} \cos \omega t)$$

$$\text{with } \alpha = \frac{R}{2L} \text{ and } \omega^2 = \frac{1}{LC} - \alpha^2 \quad \text{Energy in circuit}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} CV^2 + \frac{1}{2} LI^2 = \frac{1}{2} CA^2 e^{-2\alpha t} [\cos^2 \omega t + LC\omega^2 (\sin \omega t + \frac{\alpha}{\omega} \cos \omega t)^2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} CA^2 e^{-2\alpha t} [\cos^2 \omega t + LC\omega^2 (\sin^2 \omega t + \frac{2\alpha}{\omega} \sin \omega t \cos \omega t + \frac{\alpha^2}{\omega^2} \cos^2 \omega t)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} CA^2 e^{-2\alpha t} [\cos^2 \omega t + \sin^2 \omega t + LC (-\alpha^2 \sin^2 \omega t + \alpha^2 \cos^2 \omega t + 2\alpha\omega \sin \omega t \cos \omega t)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} CA^2 e^{-2\alpha t} [1 + LC (\alpha^2 \cos 2\omega t + \alpha\omega \sin 2\omega t)]$$

Except for the oscillating part of the factor in brackets, the energy decays exponentially. To dissipate the energy as quickly as possible, we want α to be as large as possible. But the limiting value of α , approaching from the under-damped side, corresponds to $R = 2\sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$ or $\alpha = \frac{R}{2L} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$. In that limit, $\omega = 0$ and the expression above reduces to $CA^2 e^{-2\alpha t} = CA^2 e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$.

Look now at the over-damped case, using the results from Problem 8.6. We found $v = Ae^{-\beta_1 t} + Be^{-\beta_2 t}$ with

$$\beta_1 = \frac{R}{2L} \left(1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{4L}{R^2 C}}\right) \text{ and } \beta_2 = \frac{R}{2L} \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{4L}{R^2 C}}\right)$$

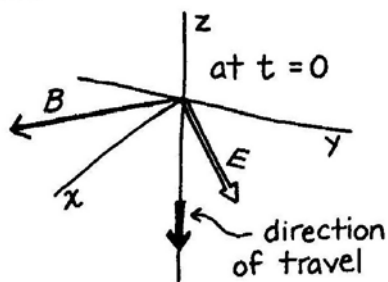
Evidently the root β_2 is necessarily less than $\frac{R}{2L}$, so there will be a term in the energy decaying like $e^{-2\beta_2 t}$ which will decay more slowly than $e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$. Hence the over-damped case exhibits slower decay than the case of critical damping, as does the underdamped case.

9.10

If we neglect the edge fields, an approximation which is not very good unless $s \ll b$, the displacement current will be uniformly distributed in the gap, and the total displacement current in the gap will equal the conduction current I in the wire. The fraction of the current enclosed by a circle through P , centered on the axis, will be $\pi r^2 / \pi b^2$.

$$\text{Hence } 2\pi r B = \frac{4\pi}{c} \frac{r^2}{b^2} I \quad \text{or} \quad B = \frac{2Ir}{cb^2}.$$

9.1



The wave is travelling in the $-\hat{z}$ direction, as shown by the sign in $(z + ct)$. Hence that is the direction of $\underline{E} \times \underline{B}$. \underline{B} is perpendicular to \underline{E} and equal in magnitude:

$$\underline{B} = 2(\hat{x} - \hat{y}) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\right)(z + ct) \text{ gauss.}$$

9.2

The power density in electromagnetic waves is c times the energy density U . The power density given, $10^3 \text{ joule m}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1}$, is equivalent to $10^6 \text{ erg cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1}$. The energy density U is $10^6/3 \times 10^{10} \text{ erg cm}^{-3}$. Half of this is in magnetic field, with density $B_{\text{rms}}^2 / 8\pi$. Hence

$$\frac{B_{\text{rms}}^2}{8\pi} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{10^6}{3 \times 10^{10}}, \quad \text{or} \quad B_{\text{rms}} = \left(\frac{4\pi \times 10^6}{3 \times 10^{10}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.02 \text{ gauss}$$

In SI, the energy density in J m^{-3} is $\frac{B_{\text{rms}}^2}{2\mu_0}$, with B_{rms} in tesla. Hence:

$$B_{\text{rms}}^2 = 2\mu_0 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{10^3}{3 \times 10^8}\right) \quad \text{or} \quad B_{\text{rms}} = \left(\frac{4\pi \times 10^{-7} \times 10^3}{3 \times 10^8}\right)$$

$$= 2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ tesla}$$

9.3 The proton at the origin in Fig. 9.8 will experience the maximum electric field of 5 stat volt/cm at $t=0$. The field falls to half value in the time, 1 nanosecond, it takes the wave to travel 30 cm (1 foot). The time variation of the field E at the origin is:

$E_y = \frac{5}{1 + (10^9 t)^2}$. The momentum acquired by the proton during the passage of the pulse will be

$$p_y = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e E_y dt = e \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{5 dt}{1 + (10^9 t)^2} = e \times 5 \times 10^{-9} \pi$$

$p_y = 7.5 \times 10^{-18}$ gm cm sec⁻¹ The proton's final speed is p_y/m or 4.7×10^6 cm/sec. Its displacement during the few nanoseconds of acceleration is negligible. One microsecond later it will be close to $y = 4.7$ cm.

9.4 Before the pulse has completely passed, the proton has acquired some velocity in the y direction, and will therefore experience a force $e \underline{v} \times \underline{B}$ in the magnetic field of the wave. This force will be in the direction $-\hat{x}$, which is the direction in which the wave is travelling. And it would be in that direction for a negative particle also. The wave tends to knock the particle along. In order of magnitude, if τ is the duration of the pulse of amplitude E :

$$p_y = E e \tau \quad v_y = \frac{e E \tau}{m}$$

$$p_x \approx e \frac{v_y}{c} B \tau = e \frac{v_y}{c} E \tau, \text{ since } B = E.$$

Then $p_x/p_y \approx v_y/c$ The "knock-on" is a second order effect.

$$9.5 \quad \underline{E} = \hat{y} E_0 \sin(kx + \omega t) \quad \underline{B} = -\hat{z} E_0 \sin(kx + \omega t)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = 0; \quad \nabla \times \underline{E} = \hat{z} k E_0 \cos(kx + \omega t); \quad \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t} = \hat{y} E_0 \omega \cos(kx + \omega t)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{B} = 0; \quad \nabla \times \underline{B} = \hat{y} k E_0 \cos(kx + \omega t); \quad \frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} = -\hat{z} \omega E_0 \cos(kx + \omega t)$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} \text{ requires } k = \omega/c$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{B} = \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t} \text{ also requires } k = \omega/c$$

$$\text{For } \omega = 10^{10} \text{ sec}^{-1} \quad \lambda = 2\pi c/\omega = 18.84 \text{ cm}$$

$$\text{Energy density} = \left(\frac{E_0^2}{8\pi} + \frac{E_0^2}{8\pi} \right) \frac{1}{2} = \frac{E_0^2}{8\pi}$$

↑ electric field
↑ magnetic field
← average of $\sin^2(kx + \omega t)$

$$\text{For } E_0 = .05 \text{ statvolt/cm} \quad E_0^2/8\pi = 0.99 \times 10^{-4} \text{ erg cm}^{-3}$$

$$\text{Power density} = (E_0^2/8\pi)c = 3.0 \times 10^6 \text{ erg cm}^2 \text{ sec}^{-1}$$