

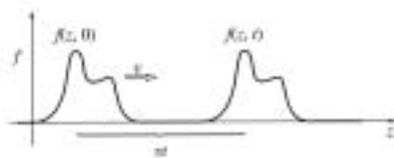
Chapter 9: Electromagnetic Waves

9.1 Waves in One Dimension 9.1.1 The Wave Equation

What is a "wave"?

A start: A wave is disturbance of a continuous medium that propagates with a fixed shape at constant velocity.

- In the presence of absorption, the wave will diminish in size as it move;
- If the medium is dispersive different frequencies travel at different speeds;
- Standing waves do not propagate;
- Light wave can propagate in vacuum;...



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The Wave Equation

How to represent such a "wave" mathematically?

Hint: The wave at different times, once at $t=0$, and again at some later time t --- each point on the wave form simply shifts to the right by an amount vt , where v is the velocity.

initial shape $f(z, 0) = g(z)$

subsequent form $f(z, t) = ?$

$$f(z, t) = f(z - vt, 0) = g(z - vt) \quad (\text{capture (mathematically) the essence of wave motion.})$$

The function $f(z, t)$ depends on them only in the very special combination $z-vt$;

When that is true, the function $f(z, t)$ represents a wave of fixed shape traveling in the z direction at speed v .

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The Wave Equation (II)

Examples:
$$\begin{cases} f_1(z, t) = Ae^{-b(z-vt)^2} \\ f_2(z, t) = A \sin[b(z - vt)] \\ f_3(z, t) = \frac{A}{b(z - vt)^2 + 1} \end{cases}$$

How about these functions?

$$f_4(z, t) = Ae^{-b(z^2+vt)}$$

$$f_5(z, t) = A \sin(bz) \cos(bvt)$$

$$= \frac{A}{2} [\sin(b(z + vt)) + \sin(b(z - vt))] \leftarrow \text{a standing wave}$$

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The Wave Equation of a String

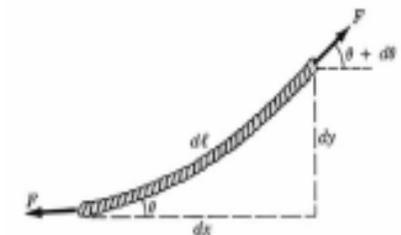
From Newton's second law we have

$$F[\sin(\theta + \Delta\theta) - \sin(\theta)] = (\mu\Delta x) \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

Small angle approximation:

$$\sin\theta \approx \tan\theta = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = (\mu/F) \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$



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The Wave Equation

Derive the wave equation that a disturbance propagates without changing its shape.

$$f(z, t) = g(z - vt); \quad \text{Let } u \equiv z - vt$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \frac{df}{du} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -v \frac{dg}{du} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = -v \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{dg}{du} \right) = v^2 \frac{d^2 g}{du^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{df}{du} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \frac{dg}{du} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{dg}{du} \right) = \frac{d^2 g}{du^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2 g}{du^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} - \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = 0 \quad \text{qed}$$

+v or -v

$$f(z, t) = \underline{g(z - vt)} + \underline{h(z + vt)} \quad \text{the wave equation is linear.}$$

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9.1.2 Sinusoidal Waves

(i) Terminology

$$f(z, t) = A \cos[k(z - vt) + \delta]$$

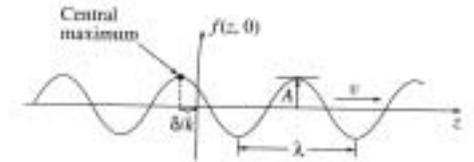
amplitude
wave number
phase constant

$$f(z, t) = A \cos[k(z - vt) + \delta] = A \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta)$$

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}, \quad \lambda: \text{wave length}$$

$$\omega = kv = 2\pi \frac{v}{\lambda} = 2\pi f$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \omega: \text{angular frequency} \\ f: \text{frequency} \end{array} \right.$$



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Sinusoidal Waves

(ii) Complex notation

$$\text{Euler's formula } e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$$

$$f(z, t) = A \cos[k(z - vt) + \delta] = \text{Re}[Ae^{i(kz - \omega t + \delta)}]$$

$$= \text{Re}[A^{i\delta} e^{i(kz - \omega t)}] = \text{Re}[\tilde{A} e^{i(kz - \omega t)}]$$

$$\tilde{f} \equiv \tilde{A} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \quad \text{complex wave function}$$

$$\tilde{A} \equiv A e^{i\delta} \quad \text{complex amplitude}$$

$$f(z, t) = \text{Re}[\tilde{f}(z, t)]$$

The advantage of the complex notation is that exponentials are *much easier to manipulate* than sines and cosines.

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Example 9.1

The advantage of the complex notation.

Suppose we want to combine two sinusoidal waves:

$$f_3 = f_1 + f_2 = \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_1] + \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_2] = \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_1 + \tilde{f}_2] = \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_3]$$

Simply add the corresponding complex wave functions, and take the real part.

In particular, when they have the same frequency and wave number

$$\tilde{f}_3 = \tilde{A}_1 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} + \tilde{A}_2 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} = \tilde{A}_3 e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$

$$\text{where } \tilde{A}_3 = A_3 e^{i\delta_3} = A_1 e^{i\delta_1} + A_2 e^{i\delta_2}$$

Try doing this without using the complex notation.

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Sinusoidal Waves (III)

(iii) Linear combinations of sinusoidal waves

$$\tilde{f}(z, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{A}(k) e^{i(kz - \omega t)} dk, \quad \text{where } \omega = \omega(k)$$

$\tilde{A}(k)$ can be obtained in terms of the initial conditions $f(z, 0)$ and $\dot{f}(z, 0)$ from the theory of Fourier transforms.

Any wave can be written as a linear combination of sinusoidal waves.

So from now on we shall confine our attention to sinusoidal waves.

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9.1.3 Boundary Conditions: Reflection and Transmission

Incident wave: $\tilde{f}_I(z, t) = \tilde{A}_I e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)}$

Reflected wave: $\tilde{f}_R(z, t) = \tilde{A}_R e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)}$

Transmitted wave: $\tilde{f}_T(z, t) = \tilde{A}_T e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)}$

* All parts of the system are oscillating at the same frequency ω .

The wave velocities are different in two regimes, which means the wave lengths and wave numbers are also different. $\frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{k_2}{k_1} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}$

The waves in the two regions:

$$\tilde{f}(z, t) = \begin{cases} \tilde{A}_I e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} + \tilde{A}_R e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} & \text{for } z < 0 \\ \tilde{A}_T e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} & \text{for } z > 0 \end{cases}$$

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Boundary Conditions

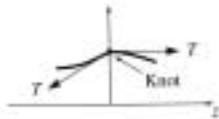
Mathematically, $f(z, t)$ is continuous at $z=0$.

$$f(0^-, t) = f(0^+, t)$$

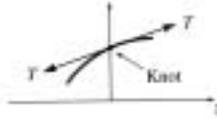
The derivative of $f(z, t)$ must also be continuous at $z=0$.

$$\left. \frac{df}{dz} \right|_{0^-} = \left. \frac{df}{dz} \right|_{0^+}$$

Why?



(a) Discontinuous slope; force on knot



(a) Continuous slope; no force on knot

The complex wave function obeys the same rules: Why?

$$\tilde{f}(0^-, t) = \tilde{f}(0^+, t); \quad \left. \frac{d\tilde{f}}{dz} \right|_{0^-} = \left. \frac{d\tilde{f}}{dz} \right|_{0^+}$$

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Boundary Conditions Determine the Complex Amplitudes

$$\tilde{f}(0^-, t) = \tilde{f}(0^+, t) \Rightarrow \tilde{A}_I + \tilde{A}_R = \tilde{A}_T$$

$$\left. \frac{d\tilde{f}}{dz} \right|_{0^-} = \left. \frac{d\tilde{f}}{dz} \right|_{0^+} \Rightarrow k_1(\tilde{A}_I - \tilde{A}_R) = k_2 \tilde{A}_T$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \tilde{A}_I + \tilde{A}_R &= \tilde{A}_T \\ k_1(\tilde{A}_I - \tilde{A}_R) &= k_2 \tilde{A}_T \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \tilde{A}_R = \left(\frac{k_1 - k_2}{k_1 + k_2} \right) \tilde{A}_I = \left(\frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_2 + v_1} \right) \tilde{A}_I \\ \tilde{A}_T = \left(\frac{2k_1}{k_1 + k_2} \right) \tilde{A}_I = \left(\frac{2v_2}{v_2 + v_1} \right) \tilde{A}_I \end{cases}$$

When $v_2 > v_1$, all three waves have the same phase angle.

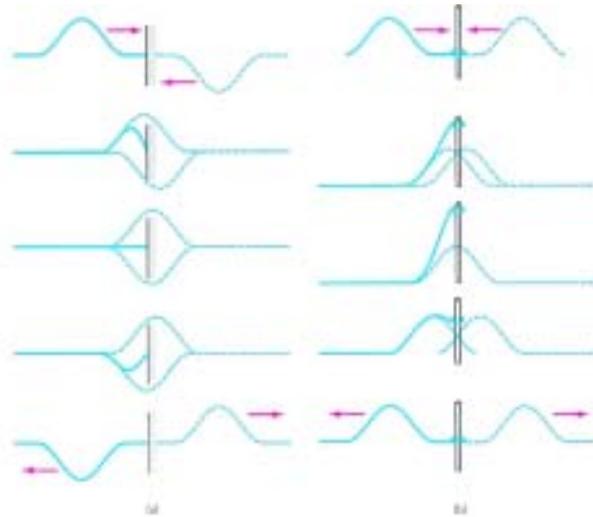
When $v_2 < v_1$ the reflected wave is out of phase by 180° .

Consider two extreme cases, open end and fixed end.

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The Open End and Fixed End

Superposition of the actual pulse and an imaginary pulse.



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9.1.4 Polarization

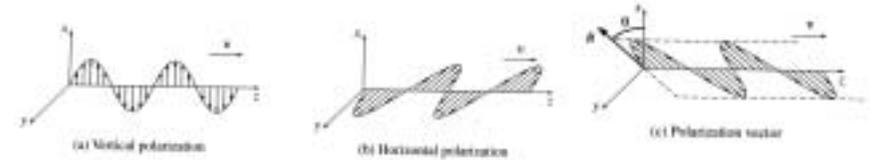
Transverse waves: the displacement of the wave is perpendicular to the direction of propagation, e.g. EM waves.

Longitudinal waves: the displacement of the wave is along the direction of propagation, e.g. sound waves.

Transverse waves occur in two independent states of polarization:

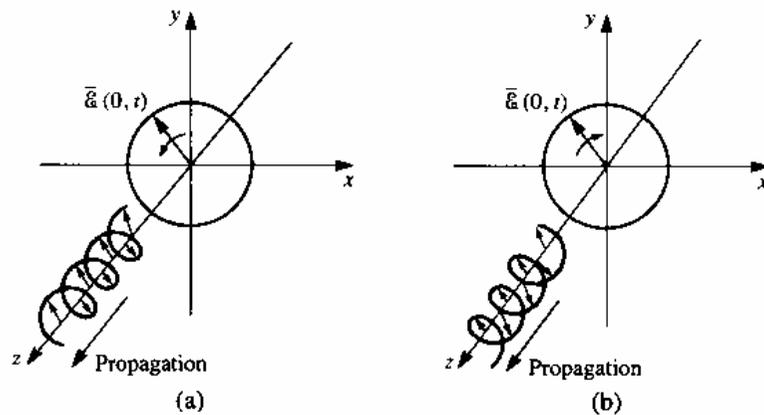
$$\tilde{\mathbf{f}}_v(z, t) = \tilde{A}e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}} \quad \tilde{\mathbf{f}}_h(z, t) = \tilde{A}e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

General form: $\tilde{\mathbf{f}}(z, t) = \tilde{A}e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{n}}$, where $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \cos \theta \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{y}}$



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Right and Left Hand Circular Polarizations



Electric field polarization for (a) RHCP and (b) LHCP plane waves.

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9.2 Electromagnetic Waves in Vacuum

9.2.1 The Wave Equation for \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{B}

In regions of space where there is no charge or current, Maxwell's equations read

$$(i) \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0 \quad (iii) \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$(ii) \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad (iv) \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) = -\frac{\partial (\nabla \times \mathbf{B})}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial (\nabla \times \mathbf{E})}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{B}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\text{since } \begin{cases} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0 \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} \\ \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{B}}{\partial t^2} \end{cases}$$

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The Wave Equation for **E** and **B**

In vacuum, each Cartesian component of **E** and **B** satisfies the three-dimensional wave equation

$$\begin{cases} \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} \\ \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{B}}{\partial t^2} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \nabla^2 f = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}$$

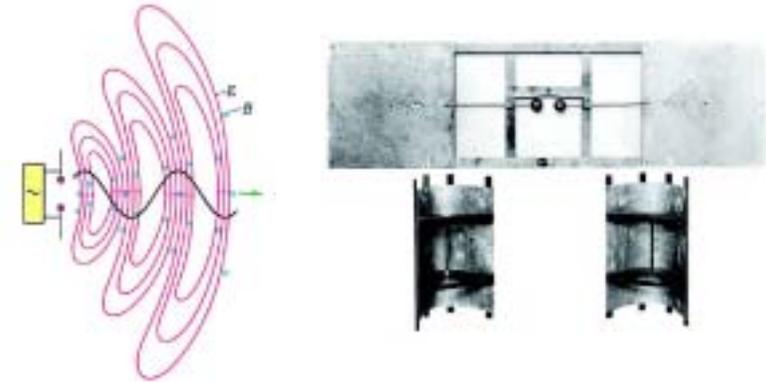
Maxwell's equations imply that empty space supports the propagation of electromagnetic waves, traveling at a speed

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s} \leftarrow \text{the speed of light}$$

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Hertz's Experiment

When Maxwell's work was published in 1867 it did not receive immediate acceptance. It is Hertz who conclusively demonstrated the existence of electromagnetic wave.



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9.2.2 Monochromatic Plane Waves

Since different frequencies in the visible range correspond to different colors, such waves are called monochromatic.

This definition can be applied to the whole spectrum. A wave of single frequency is called a monochromatic wave.

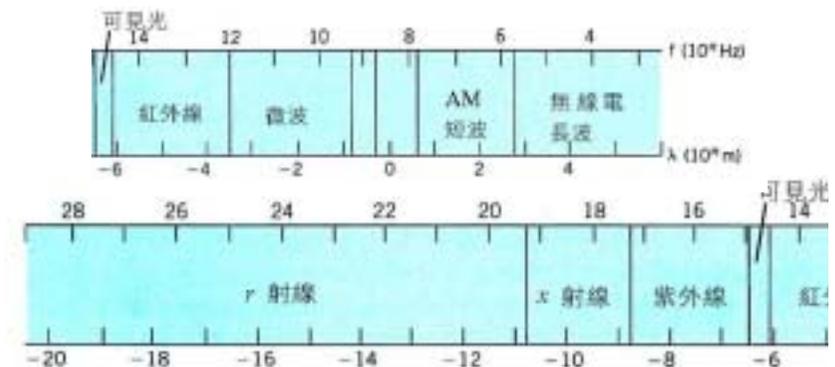
The Visible Range

Frequency (Hz)	Color	Wavelength (m)
1.0×10^{15}	near ultraviolet	3.0×10^{-7}
7.5×10^{14}	shortest visible blue	4.0×10^{-7}
6.5×10^{14}	blue	4.6×10^{-7}
5.6×10^{14}	green	5.4×10^{-7}
5.1×10^{14}	yellow	5.9×10^{-7}
4.9×10^{14}	orange	6.1×10^{-7}
3.9×10^{14}	longest visible red	7.6×10^{-7}
3.0×10^{14}	near infrared	1.0×10^{-6}

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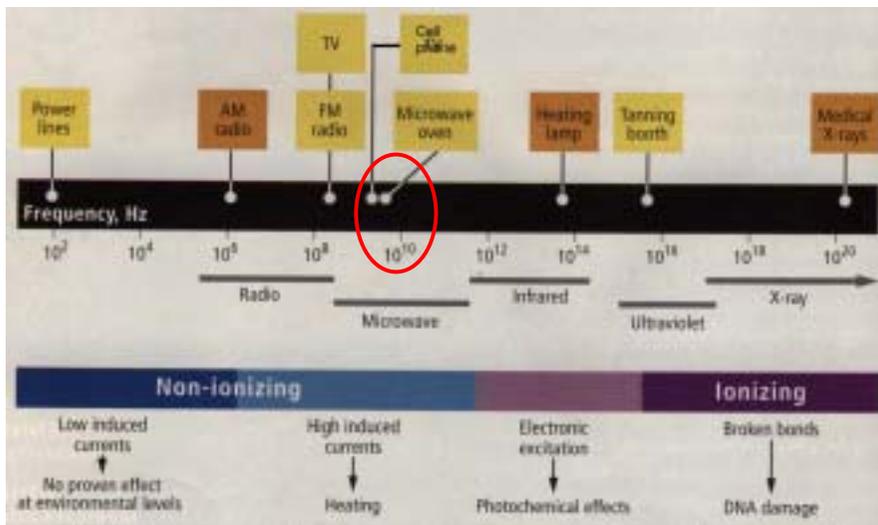
The Electromagnetic Spectrum

Electromagnetic waves span an immense range of frequencies, from very long wavelength to extremely high energy with frequency 10^{23} Hz. There is no theoretical limit to the high end.



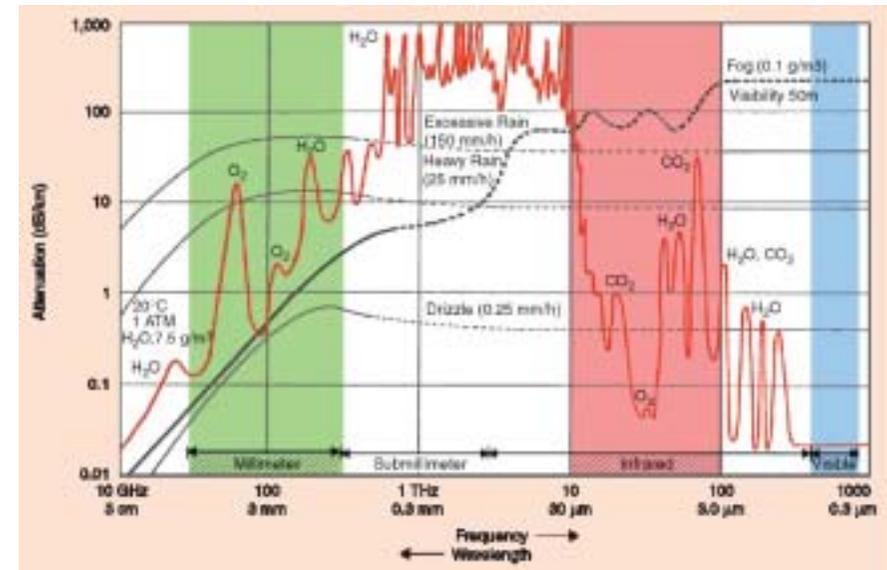
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Mainly Heating Effect in Micro/mm-Wave Spectrum



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Windows for Research and Application Opportunities

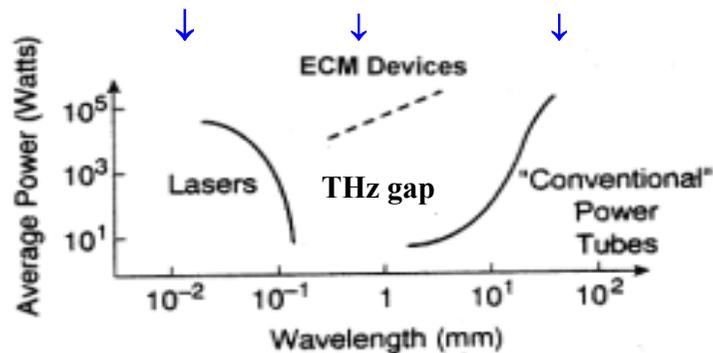


Spectrum to Be Exploited

--- Significance of the Electron Cyclotron Maser

one photon per excitation, multiple-photon per electron, multiple photon per electron,

large interaction space, large interaction space, interaction space ~ wavelength



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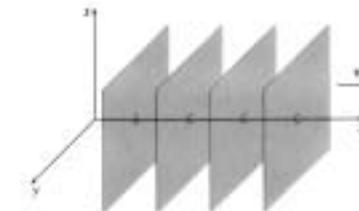
Monochromatic Plane Waves

Consider a monochromatic wave of frequency ω and the wave is traveling in the z direction and has no x or y dependence, called plane waves.

Plane waves: the fields are uniform over every plane perpendicular to the direction of propagation.

Are these waves common? Yes, very common.

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{B}}(z, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \end{cases} \text{ where } \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0 \text{ and } \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0 \text{ are the complex amplitudes.}$$



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Transverse Electromagnetic Waves

Q: What is the relation between **E** and **B**?

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0 \quad \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial z} = (\tilde{E}_0)_z i k e^{i(kz - \omega t)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow (\tilde{E}_0)_z = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = (\tilde{B}_0)_z i k e^{i(kz - \omega t)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow (\tilde{B}_0)_z = 0$$

That is, electromagnetic waves are transverse: the electric and magnetic fields are perpendicular to the direction of propagation. Moreover, Faraday's law $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$

$$\hat{x}: \frac{\partial(E_0)_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial(E_0)_y}{\partial z} = -\frac{\partial(B_0)_x}{\partial t} \quad \Rightarrow k(\tilde{E}_0)_y = -\omega(\tilde{B}_0)_x$$

$$\hat{y}: \frac{\partial(E_0)_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial(E_0)_z}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial(B_0)_y}{\partial t} \quad \Rightarrow k(\tilde{E}_0)_x = \omega(\tilde{B}_0)_y$$

$$\hat{z}: \frac{\partial(E_0)_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial(E_0)_x}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial(B_0)_z}{\partial t} \quad \Rightarrow 0 = 0$$

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Transverse Electromagnetic Waves (II)

Ampere's law with Maxwell's correction: $\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$

$$\hat{x}: \frac{\partial(B_0)_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial(B_0)_y}{\partial z} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial(E_0)_x}{\partial t} \quad \Rightarrow k(\tilde{B}_0)_y = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \omega(\tilde{E}_0)_x$$

$$\hat{y}: \frac{\partial(B_0)_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial(B_0)_z}{\partial x} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial(E_0)_y}{\partial t} \quad \Rightarrow k(\tilde{B}_0)_x = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \omega(\tilde{E}_0)_y$$

$$\hat{z}: \frac{\partial(B_0)_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial(B_0)_x}{\partial y} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial(E_0)_z}{\partial t} \quad \Rightarrow 0 = 0$$

In free space, the speed of light is $c = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$

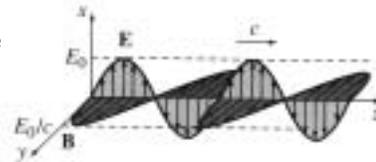
More compactly, $\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0 = \frac{k}{\omega} (\hat{z} \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0) = \frac{1}{c} (\hat{z} \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0) \Rightarrow \mathbf{E} \perp \mathbf{B}$

amplitude relation: $B_0 = \frac{1}{c} E_0$

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Example 9.2

Prove: If **E** points in the *x* direction, then **B** points in the *y* direction.



Sol: $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{E}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{x}$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0 = \frac{k}{\omega} (\hat{z} \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0) = \frac{1}{c} \tilde{E}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} (\hat{z} \times \hat{x}) = \frac{1}{c} \tilde{E}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{y}$$

Take the real part:

$$\mathbf{E}(z, t) = E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta) \hat{x}$$

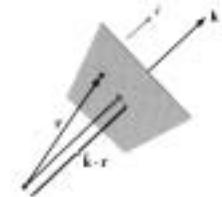
$$\mathbf{B}(z, t) = \frac{1}{c} E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta) \hat{y}$$

Q: Why not use sin function?

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Plane Waves Traveling in an Arbitrary Direction

There is nothing special about the *z* direction---we can generalize to monochromatic plane waves traveling in an arbitrary direction.



The **propagation** (or **wave**) **vector**, **k**: pointing in the direction of propagation.

Generalization of *kz*: using the scalar product **k**·**r**.

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \tilde{E}_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} \hat{n} \quad \leftarrow \text{the polarization vector}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{c} \tilde{E}_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} (\hat{k} \times \hat{n}) = \frac{1}{c} \hat{k} \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}$$

Q: Can you write down the real electric and magnetic fields?

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9.2.3 Energy and Momentum in Electromagnetic Waves

The energy per unit volume stored in the electromagnetic field is

$$u = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2)$$

Monochromatic plane wave: $B^2 = \frac{1}{c^2} E^2 = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 E^2$

$$u = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu_0} B^2) = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_0 E^2 + \epsilon_0 E^2) = \epsilon_0 E^2$$

Their contributions are equal.

$$u = \epsilon_0 E^2 = \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta)$$

As the wave travels, it carries this energy along with it.

Q: How about the momentum? See next slide.

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Energy Transport and the Poynting Vector

Consider two planes, each of area A , a distance dx apart, and normal to the direction of propagation of the wave. The total energy in the volume between the planes is $dU = uAdx$.

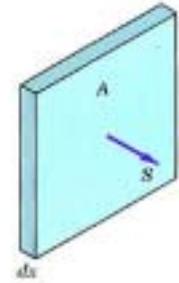
The rate at which this energy through a unit area normal to the direction of propagation is

$$S = \frac{1}{A} \frac{dU}{dt} = \frac{1}{A} uA \frac{dx}{dt} = uc$$

$$S = uc = \frac{EB}{\mu_0}$$

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}}{\mu_0} \quad (\text{the vector form})$$

$$\mathbf{g} = \frac{1}{c^2} \mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{c^2} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta) \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \frac{1}{c} u \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$



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Average Effect

In the case of light, the period is so brief, that any macroscopy measurement will encompass many cycles.

All we want is the average value.

$$\langle u \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_0^2$$

$$\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \langle uc \rangle = \frac{1}{2} c \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$\langle \mathbf{g} \rangle = \frac{1}{c^2} \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \frac{1}{2c} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

The average power per unit area transported by an electromagnetic wave is called the **intensity**:

$$I \equiv \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} c \epsilon_0 E_0^2$$

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Example

A radio station transmits a 10-kW signal at a frequency of 100 MHz. For simplicity, assume that it radiates as a point source. At a distance of 1 km from the antenna, find: (a) the amplitude of the electric and magnetic field strengths, and (b) the energy incident normally on a square plate of side 10 cm in 5 min.

Solution:

$$(a) S_{av} = \frac{\text{Average power}}{4\pi r^2} = \frac{E_0^2}{2\mu_0 c}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{10000}{4\pi 1000^2} \times 2 \times 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \times 3 \times 10^8 = E_0^2$$

$$\begin{cases} E_0 = 0.775 \text{ V/m} \\ B_0 = 2.58 \times 10^{-9} \text{ T} \end{cases}$$

$$(b) \Delta U = S_{av} A \Delta t = 2.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ J}$$

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Momentum and Radiation Pressure

An electromagnetic wave transports linear momentum.

The linear momentum carried by an electromagnetic wave is related to the energy it transports according to

$$p = \frac{U}{c}$$

If a surface is perfectly reflecting, the momentum change of the wave is double, consequently, the momentum imparted to the surface is also doubled.

The force exerted by an electromagnetic wave on a surface may be related to the Poynting vector

$$\frac{F}{A} = \frac{\Delta p}{A\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta U}{Ac\Delta t} = \frac{SA}{Ac} = \frac{S}{c} = u$$

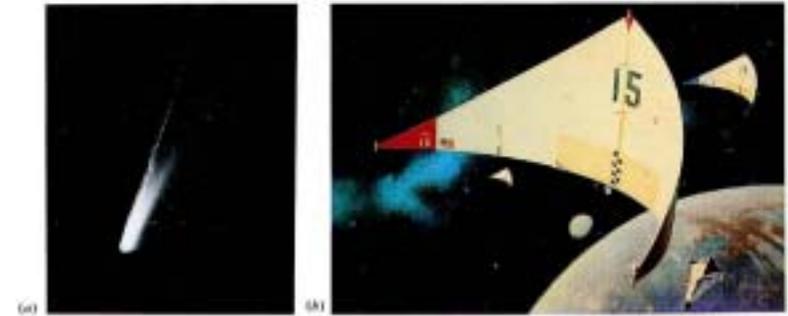
33

Momentum and Radiation Pressure (II)

The radiation pressure at normal incidence is

$$\frac{F}{A} = \frac{S}{c} = u$$

Examples: (a) the tail of a comet, (b) A "solar sail"



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Homework of Chap.9 (I)

Prob. 2, 6, 8, 10, 12

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9.3 Electromagnetic Waves in Matter

9.3.1 Propagation in Linear Media

In regions where there is no free charge and free current, Maxwell's equations become

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} &= 0 & \nabla \times \mathbf{E} &= -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} &= 0 & \nabla \times \mathbf{H} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} \end{aligned}$$

If the medium is *linear*, $\mathbf{D} = \epsilon \mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{H} = \frac{1}{\mu} \mathbf{B}$

If the medium is *linear and homogeneous* (ϵ and μ do not vary from point to point),

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} &= 0 & \nabla \times \mathbf{E} &= -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} &= 0 & \nabla \times \mathbf{B} &= \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \end{aligned}$$

The Index of Refraction

Electromagnetic waves propagate through a linear homogeneous medium at a speed

$$\begin{cases} \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} \\ \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{B}}{\partial t^2} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \nabla^2 f = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}$$

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu\epsilon}} = \frac{c}{n}$$

$$n \equiv \sqrt{\frac{\mu\epsilon}{\mu_0\epsilon_0}}$$

The index of refraction of the material

For most material, μ is very close to μ_0 , so $n \cong \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}} = \sqrt{\epsilon_r}$

Since ϵ_r is almost always greater than 1, light travels more slowly through matter.

Q: What happens when ϵ_r is less than 1 or negative? Very interesting.

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Energy Density, Poynting Vector, and Intensity in Linear Media

All of our previous results carry over, with the simple transcription

$$\begin{array}{l} \epsilon_0 \rightarrow \epsilon \\ \mu_0 \rightarrow \mu \\ c \rightarrow v \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} u = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon E^2 + \frac{1}{\mu} B^2) \\ \mathbf{S} = \frac{\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}}{\mu} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{g} = \frac{1}{v} u \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\ I \equiv \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} v \epsilon E_0^2 \end{array}$$

Q: What happens when a wave passes from one transparent medium into another? Boundary conditions.

$$\begin{array}{l} D_1^\perp - D_2^\perp = \sigma_f \\ B_1^\perp - B_2^\perp = 0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{E}_1^\parallel - \mathbf{E}_2^\parallel = 0 \\ \mathbf{H}_1^\parallel - \mathbf{H}_2^\parallel = (\mathbf{K}_f \times \hat{\mathbf{n}}) \end{array}$$

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9.3.2 Reflection and Transmission at Normal Incidence

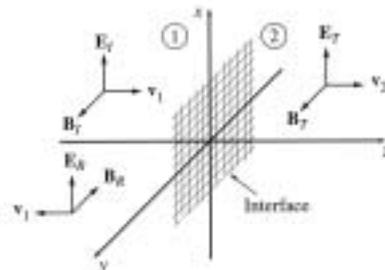
A plane wave of frequency ω , traveling in the z direction and polarized in the x direction, approaches the interface from the left.

Incident wave:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_I(z, t) &= \tilde{E}_{0I} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_I(z, t) &= \frac{1}{v_1} \tilde{E}_{0I} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}} \end{aligned}$$

Reflected wave:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_R(z, t) &= \tilde{E}_{0R} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_R(z, t) &= -\frac{1}{v_1} \tilde{E}_{0R} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}} \end{aligned}$$



Transmitted wave:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_T(z, t) &= \tilde{E}_{0T} e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_T(z, t) &= \frac{1}{v_2} \tilde{E}_{0T} e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}} \end{aligned}$$

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The Boundary Conditions

Normal incident: no components perpendicular to the surface.

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{E}_{0I} + \tilde{E}_{0R} &= \tilde{E}_{0T} \\ \frac{1}{\mu_1 v_1} (\tilde{E}_{0I} - \tilde{E}_{0R}) &= \frac{1}{\mu_2 v_2} \tilde{E}_{0T} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\tilde{E}_{0I} - \tilde{E}_{0R}) = \beta \tilde{E}_{0T}, \quad \text{where } \beta = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2}$$

In terms of the incident amplitude:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{E}_{0R} &= \left(\frac{1-\beta}{1+\beta} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I} & \text{if } \mu \approx \mu_0 \Rightarrow & \tilde{E}_{0R} = \left(\frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_1 + v_2} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I} \\ \tilde{E}_{0T} &= \left(\frac{2}{1+\beta} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I} & & \tilde{E}_{0T} = \left(\frac{2v_2}{v_1 + v_2} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I} \end{aligned}$$

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Determine the Complex Amplitudes of a String

Incident wave: $\tilde{f}_I(z, t) = \tilde{A}_I e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)}$

Reflected wave: $\tilde{f}_R(z, t) = \tilde{A}_R e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)}$

Transmitted wave: $\tilde{f}_T(z, t) = \tilde{A}_T e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)}$

Boundary conditions: $\tilde{f}(0^-, t) = \tilde{f}(0^+, t) \quad \left. \frac{d\tilde{f}}{dz} \right|_{0^-} = \left. \frac{d\tilde{f}}{dz} \right|_{0^+}$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \tilde{A}_I + \tilde{A}_R &= \tilde{A}_T \\ k_1(\tilde{A}_I - \tilde{A}_R) &= k_2 \tilde{A}_T \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{aligned} \tilde{A}_R &= \left(\frac{k_1 - k_2}{k_1 + k_2} \right) \tilde{A}_I = \left(\frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_2 + v_1} \right) \tilde{A}_I \\ \tilde{A}_T &= \left(\frac{2k_1}{k_1 + k_2} \right) \tilde{A}_I = \left(\frac{2v_2}{v_2 + v_1} \right) \tilde{A}_I \end{aligned} \right.$$

When $v_2 > v_1$, all three waves have the same phase angle.

When $v_2 < v_1$, the reflected wave is out of phase by 180° . ⁴¹

Reflection and Transmission Coefficients

The reflected wave is in phase if $v_2 > v_1$
and is out of phase if $v_2 < v_1$

$$\tilde{E}_{0R} = \left(\frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_1 + v_2} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I} = \left(\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I}$$

$$\tilde{E}_{0T} = \left(\frac{2v_2}{v_1 + v_2} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I} = \left(\frac{2n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I}$$

The intensity (average power per unit area) is: $I \equiv \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} v \varepsilon E_0^2$

$$\text{Reflection coefficient } R \equiv \frac{I_R}{I_I} = \left(\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2$$

$$\text{Transmission coefficient } T \equiv \frac{I_T}{I_I} = \frac{\varepsilon_2 v_2}{\varepsilon_1 v_1} \left(\frac{2n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2 = \frac{4n_1 n_2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2}$$

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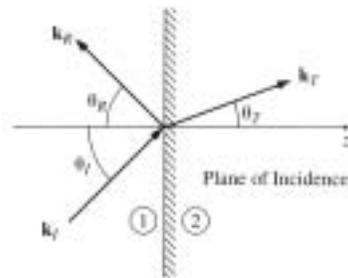
9.3.2 Reflection and Transmission at Oblique Incidence

Suppose that a monochromatic plane wave of frequency ω , traveling in the \mathbf{k}_I direction

Incident wave:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_I(\mathbf{r}, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0I} e^{i(\mathbf{k}_I \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_I(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{v_1} (\hat{\mathbf{k}}_I \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_I)$$



Reflected wave:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_R(\mathbf{r}, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0R} e^{i(\mathbf{k}_R \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_R(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{v_1} (\hat{\mathbf{k}}_R \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_R)$$

Transmitted wave:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_T(\mathbf{r}, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0T} e^{i(\mathbf{k}_T \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_T(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{v_2} (\hat{\mathbf{k}}_T \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_T)$$

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Boundary Conditions

All three waves have the same frequency ω .

$$\omega = k_I v_1 = k_R v_1 = k_T v_2 \quad \text{or} \quad k_I = k_R = \frac{v_2}{v_1} k_T = \frac{n_1}{n_2} k_T$$

Using the boundary conditions

$$\varepsilon_1 E_1^\perp - \varepsilon_2 E_2^\perp = 0 \quad \mathbf{E}_1^\parallel - \mathbf{E}_2^\parallel = 0$$

$$B_1^\perp - B_2^\perp = 0 \quad \frac{1}{\mu_1} \mathbf{B}_1^\parallel - \frac{1}{\mu_2} \mathbf{B}_2^\parallel = 0$$

A generic structure for the four boundary conditions.

$$(\) e^{i(\mathbf{k}_I \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} + (\) e^{i(\mathbf{k}_R \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} = (\) e^{i(\mathbf{k}_T \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$

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Laws of Reflection and Refraction

$$\mathbf{k}_I \cdot \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{k}_R \cdot \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{k}_T \cdot \mathbf{r} \text{ at } z=0$$

$$k_I \sin \theta_I = k_R \sin \theta_R = k_T \sin \theta_T$$

θ_I , θ_R , and θ_T are angles of incidence, reflection, and refraction, respectively.

The law of reflection: $\theta_I = \theta_R$

The law of refraction: (Snell's law)

$$\frac{\sin \theta_T}{\sin \theta_I} = \frac{k_I}{k_T} = \frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{n_1}{n_2}$$

Common properties of waves: These equations are obtained from their generic form.

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Boundary Conditions (ii)

$$(\) e^{i(\mathbf{k}_I \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} + (\) e^{i(\mathbf{k}_R \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} = (\) e^{i(\mathbf{k}_T \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$

We have taken care of the exponential factors—they cancel. The boundary conditions become:

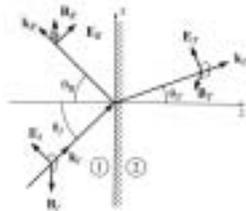
(i) $\epsilon_1 (\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0I} + \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0R})_z = \epsilon_2 (\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0T})_z$	Normal D
(ii) $(\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{0I} + \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{0R})_z = (\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{0T})_z$	Normal B
(iii) $(\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0I} + \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0R})_{x,y} = (\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{0T})_{x,y}$	Tangential E
(iv) $\frac{1}{\mu_1} (\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{0I} + \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{0R})_{x,y} = \frac{1}{\mu_2} (\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{0T})_{x,y}$	Tangential H

where $\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{v} (\hat{\mathbf{k}} \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0)$

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Parallel to the Plane of Incidence

Q: If the polarization of the incident wave is parallel to the plane of incidence, are the reflected and transmitted waves also polarized in this plane? **Yes.**



Normal D (i) $\epsilon_1 (-\tilde{E}_{0I} \sin \theta_I + \tilde{E}_{0R} \sin \theta_R) = \epsilon_2 (-\tilde{E}_{0T} \sin \theta_T)$

Tangential E (iii) $(\tilde{E}_{0I} \cos \theta_I + \tilde{E}_{0R} \cos \theta_R) = (\tilde{E}_{0T} \cos \theta_T)$

Normal B (ii) $0=0$

Tangential H (iv) $\frac{1}{\mu_1 v_1} (\tilde{E}_{0I} - \tilde{E}_{0R}) = \frac{1}{\mu_2 v_2} (\tilde{E}_{0T})$

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Parallel to the Plane of Incidence (ii)

(iii) $(\tilde{E}_{0I} + \tilde{E}_{0R}) = \alpha (\tilde{E}_{0T}) \quad \alpha \equiv \frac{\cos \theta_T}{\cos \theta_I}$

(iv) $(\tilde{E}_{0I} - \tilde{E}_{0R}) = \beta (\tilde{E}_{0T}) \quad \beta \equiv \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2}$

$\Rightarrow \tilde{E}_{0R} = \left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{\alpha + \beta} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I} \quad \tilde{E}_{0T} = \left(\frac{2}{\alpha + \beta} \right) \tilde{E}_{0I}$ Fresnel's equations

How about the first boundary condition?

Does this condition contribute anything new?

(i) $(\tilde{E}_{0I} - \tilde{E}_{0R}) = \frac{\epsilon_2 \sin \theta_T}{\epsilon_1 \sin \theta_I} (\tilde{E}_{0T}) \quad \frac{\epsilon_2 \sin \theta_T}{\epsilon_1 \sin \theta_I} = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} ?$

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Brewster's Angle

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{E}_{0R} = \left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{\alpha + \beta}\right) \tilde{E}_{0I} \\ \tilde{E}_{0T} = \left(\frac{2}{\alpha + \beta}\right) \tilde{E}_{0I} \end{cases} \quad \text{where } \alpha \equiv \frac{\cos \theta_T}{\cos \theta_I} \text{ and } \beta \equiv \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2}$$

When $\alpha = \beta$, there is no reflected wave. $\tilde{E}_{0R} = 0$

$$\frac{\cos \theta_T}{\cos \theta_I} = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} \quad \text{when } \theta_I = \theta_B \text{ (called Brewster's angle)}$$

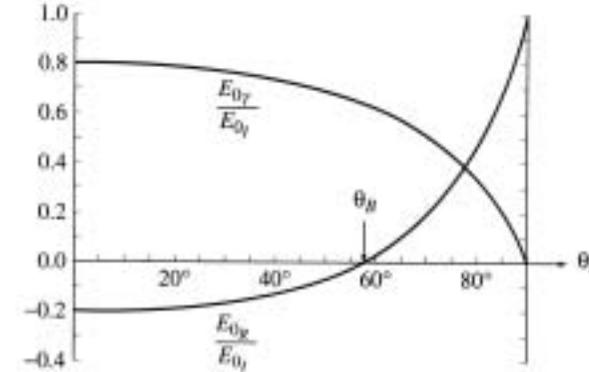
$$\text{From Snell's law } \frac{v_2}{v_1} = \frac{\sin \theta_T}{\sin \theta_B} \Rightarrow \frac{\cos \theta_T}{\cos \theta_B} = \frac{\mu_1 \sin \theta_B}{\mu_2 \sin \theta_T}$$

$$\frac{\mu_1^2 \sin^2 \theta_B}{\mu_2^2 \sin^2 \theta_T} = \beta^2 \text{ and } \sin^2 \theta_T = \left(\frac{v_2}{v_1}\right)^2 \sin^2 \theta_B \Rightarrow \sin^2 \theta_B = \frac{1 - \beta^2}{(n_1/n_2)^2 - \beta^2}$$

Brewster's Angle (II)

If $\mu_1 \cong \mu_2$, $\beta \cong n_2/n_1$ and $\sin^2 \theta_B \cong \beta^2/(1 + \beta^2)$

$$\Rightarrow \tan \theta_B \cong \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$



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Transmission and Reflection

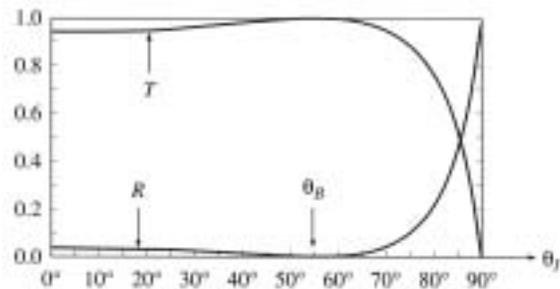
$$I_I \equiv \langle \mathbf{S} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} v_1 \epsilon_1 E_{0I}^2 \cos \theta_I$$

$$I_R = \frac{1}{2} v_1 \epsilon_1 E_{0R}^2 \cos \theta_R = \left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{\alpha + \beta}\right)^2 I_I$$

$$I_T = \frac{1}{2} v_2 \epsilon_2 E_{0T}^2 \cos \theta_T = \alpha \beta \left(\frac{2}{\alpha + \beta}\right)^2 I_I$$

$$R \equiv \frac{I_R}{I_I} = \left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{\alpha + \beta}\right)^2$$

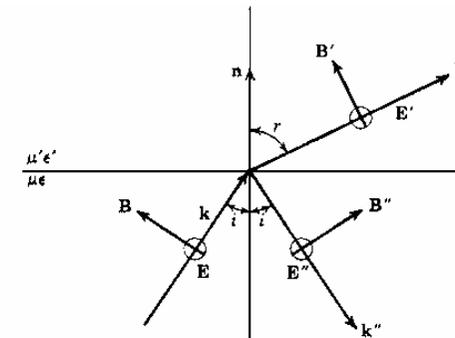
$$T \equiv \frac{I_T}{I_I} = \alpha \beta \left(\frac{2}{\alpha + \beta}\right)^2$$



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Perpendicular to the Plane of Incidence

Q: If the polarization of the incident wave is **perpendicular** to the plane of incidence, are the reflected and transmitted waves also polarized in this plane? **Yes.**



See Problem 9.16

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9.4 Absorption and Dispersion

9.4.1 Electromagnetic Waves in Conductors

When wave propagates through vacuum or insulating materials such as glass or teflon, assuming no free charge and no free current is reasonable.

But in conductive media such as metal or plasma, the free charge and free current are generally not zero.

The free current is proportional to the electric field: Ohm's law

$$\mathbf{J}_f = \sigma \mathbf{E}$$

Maxwell's equation for *linear* media assume the form

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} &= \frac{\rho_f}{\epsilon} & \nabla \times \mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} &= 0 \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} &= 0 & \nabla \times \mathbf{B} - \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} &= \mu \sigma \mathbf{E} \end{aligned}$$

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Electromagnetic Waves in Conductors (II)

The continuity equation for free charge: $\frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}_f$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{J}_f &= \overset{\text{conductivity}}{\sigma} \mathbf{E} \\ \rho_f &= \epsilon \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} \end{aligned} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial t} = -\sigma (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) = -\sigma \frac{\rho_f}{\epsilon} = -\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \rho_f$$

For a homogeneous linear medium: $\rho_f(t) = e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \rho_f(0)$

$$\text{where } \tau = \frac{\epsilon}{\sigma}$$

Classification of conductors:

superconductor $\sigma = \infty, \tau = 0$ What's the difference?

perfect conductor $\sigma = \infty, \tau = 0$ See Prob. 7.42

good conductor $\tau \ll \omega$

$\tau \approx 10^{-19}$ s for copper

poor conductor $\tau \gg \omega$

$\tau_c \sim 10^{-14}$ s collision time 54

Electromagnetic Waves in Conductors (III)

Omitting Transient Effect

Omit the transient behavior.

Assume no charges accumulation: $\rho_f = 0$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0 \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} + \mu \sigma \mathbf{E}$$

$$\longrightarrow \nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}) = \nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) + \frac{\partial (\nabla \times \mathbf{B})}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = -\nabla^2 \mathbf{E}$$

=0

$$\frac{\partial (\nabla \times \mathbf{B})}{\partial t} = \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} + \mu \sigma \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} + \mu \sigma \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}, \quad \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{B}}{\partial t^2} + \mu \sigma \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad (\text{likewise}) \quad 55$$

Electromagnetic Waves in Conductors (IV)

Complex Wave Number

These equations still admit plane-wave solutions,

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} &= \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} + \mu \sigma \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \\ \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} &= \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{B}}{\partial t^2} + \mu \sigma \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \end{aligned} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{cases} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0 e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{B}}(z, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0 e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)} \end{cases}$$

Note this time the "wave number" \tilde{k} is complex:

$$\tilde{k}^2 = \mu \epsilon \omega^2 + i \mu \sigma \omega$$

$$\tilde{k} = k + i\kappa, \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{cases} k \equiv \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon \mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon \omega}\right)^2} + 1 \right] \\ \kappa \equiv \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon \mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon \omega}\right)^2} - 1 \right] \end{cases}$$

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The Real Parts of The Fields

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}(z,t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0 e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz-\omega t)} \xrightarrow{\text{Faraday's law}} \tilde{\mathbf{B}}(z,t) = \frac{\tilde{k}}{\omega} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0 e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz-\omega t)}$$

$$\tilde{k} = k + i\kappa = Ke^{i\phi}$$

$$K \equiv \sqrt{k^2 + \kappa^2} = \omega \sqrt{\epsilon\mu} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \phi \equiv \tan^{-1}(\kappa/k)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}(z,t) = \frac{\tilde{k}}{\omega} \tilde{\mathbf{E}} \Rightarrow B_0 e^{i\delta_B} = \frac{K e^{i\phi}}{\omega} E_0 e^{i\delta_E}$$

$$\delta_B - \delta_E = \phi \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{B_0}{E_0} = \frac{K}{\omega} = \sqrt{\epsilon\mu} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2}$$

$$\mathbf{E}(z,t) = E_0 e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_E) \hat{\mathbf{x}}$$

$$\mathbf{B}(z,t) = \frac{K}{\omega} E_0 e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_E + \phi) \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

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9.4.2 Reflection at a Conducting Surface

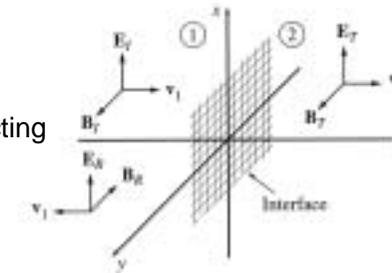
$$\epsilon_1 E_1^\perp - \epsilon_2 E_2^\perp = \sigma_f \quad \mathbf{E}_1^\parallel - \mathbf{E}_2^\parallel = 0$$

$$B_1^\perp - B_2^\perp = 0 \quad \frac{1}{\mu_1} \mathbf{B}_1^\parallel - \frac{1}{\mu_2} \mathbf{B}_2^\parallel = \mathbf{K}_f \times \hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

Where σ_f is the free surface charge, \mathbf{K}_f is the free surface current, and $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is a unit vector perpendicular to the surface, pointing from medium (2) into medium (1).

Normal incident

(1) nonconducting linear medium



(2) conductor

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Reflection at a Conducting Surface (II)

Incident wave:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_I(z,t) = \tilde{E}_{0I} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_I(z,t) = \frac{1}{v_1} \tilde{E}_{0I} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

Reflected wave:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_R(z,t) = \tilde{E}_{0R} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_R(z,t) = -\frac{1}{v_1} \tilde{E}_{0R} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

Transmitted wave:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}(z,t) = \tilde{E}_{0T} e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{B}}(z,t) = \frac{\tilde{k}_2}{\omega} \tilde{E}_{0T} e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

Normal components of the fields

$$\epsilon_1 E_1^\perp - \epsilon_2 E_2^\perp = \sigma_f \Rightarrow \sigma_f = 0 \quad (E_{1,2}^\perp = 0)$$

$$B_1^\perp - B_2^\perp = 0$$

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Reflection at a Conducting Surface (III)

Tangential components of the fields at $z=0$:

$$\mathbf{E}_1^\parallel - \mathbf{E}_2^\parallel = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{E}_{0I} + \tilde{E}_{0R} = \tilde{E}_{0T}$$

$$\frac{1}{\mu_1} \mathbf{B}_1^\parallel - \frac{1}{\mu_2} \mathbf{B}_2^\parallel = \mathbf{K}_f \times \hat{\mathbf{n}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{\mu_1 v_1} (\tilde{E}_{0I} - \tilde{E}_{0R}) - \frac{\tilde{k}_2}{\mu_2 \omega} \tilde{E}_{0T} = K_f$$

with $K_f = 0$, why? $K_f \propto E^\parallel = 0$

$$\tilde{E}_{0I} + \tilde{E}_{0R} = \tilde{E}_{0T} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{E}_{0R} = \left(\frac{1-\beta}{1+\beta}\right) \tilde{E}_{0I}$$

$$(\tilde{E}_{0I} - \tilde{E}_{0R}) = \tilde{\beta} \tilde{E}_{0T}, \quad \text{where } \beta \equiv \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 \omega} \tilde{k}_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{E}_{0T} = \left(\frac{2}{1+\beta}\right) \tilde{E}_{0I}$$

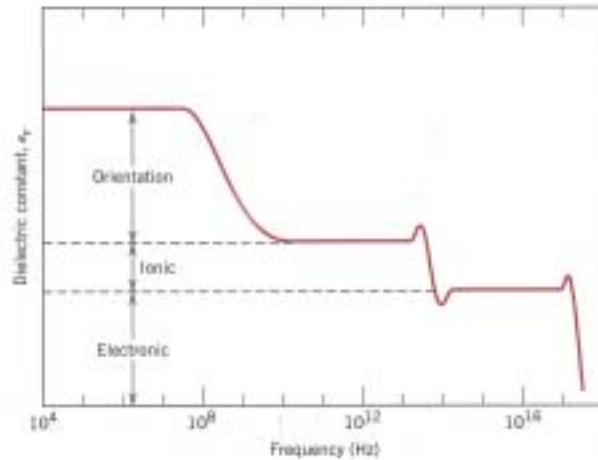
For a perfect conductor ($\sigma = \infty$), $k_2 = \infty \Rightarrow \tilde{E}_{0R} = -\tilde{E}_{0I}$ and $\tilde{E}_{0T} = 0$

That's why excellent conductors make good mirrors.

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9.4.3 The Frequency Dependence of Permittivity

When the speed of a wave depends on its frequency, the supporting medium is called **dispersive**.

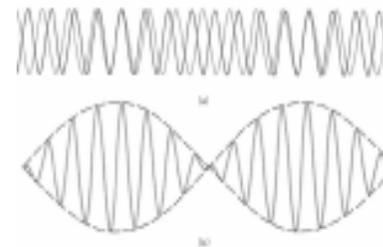


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The Group Velocity and Phase Velocity

When two waves of slightly different frequencies are superposed, the resulting disturbance varies *periodically in amplitude*.

$$\begin{aligned} & A\sin((k_0 + \Delta k)z - (\omega_0 + \Delta\omega)t) + A\sin((k_0 - \Delta k)z - (\omega_0 - \Delta\omega)t) \\ &= A\sin((k_0 z - \omega_0 t) + (\Delta k z - \Delta\omega t)) + A\sin((k_0 z - \omega_0 t) - (\Delta k z - \Delta\omega t)) \\ &= 2A \cos[(\Delta k z - \Delta\omega t)] \sin[(k_0 z - \omega_0 t)] \end{aligned}$$



$$\text{Phase velocity } v_p = \frac{\omega_0}{k_0}$$

$$\text{Group velocity } v_g = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta k} = \frac{d\omega}{dk}$$

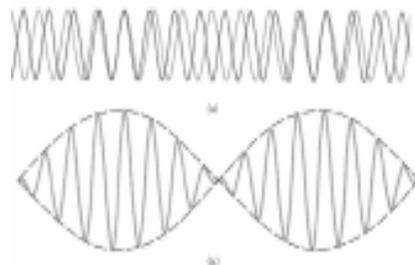
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Interference in Time: Beats

When two waves of slightly different frequencies are superposed, the resulting disturbance varies *periodically in amplitude*.

$$\begin{aligned} y &= y_1 + y_2 = A\sin(2\pi f_1 t) + A\sin(2\pi f_2 t) \\ &= 2A \cos\left[2\pi\left(\frac{f_1 - f_2}{2}\right)t\right] \sin\left[2\pi\left(\frac{f_1 + f_2}{2}\right)t\right] \end{aligned}$$

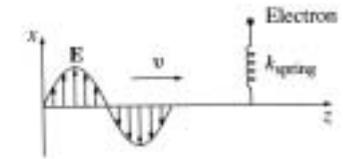
Beat frequency ($|f_1 - f_2|$): frequency of the amplitude envelope



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Simplified Model for the Frequency Dependence of Permittivity in Nonconductors

The electrons in a nonconductor are bound to specific molecules.



The simplified binding force: $F_{\text{binding}} = -k_{\text{spring}} x = -m\omega_0^2 x$

Is this model oversimplified to you?

The damping force on the electron: $F_{\text{damping}} = -m\gamma \frac{dx}{dt}$

The driving force on the electron: $F_{\text{driving}} = qE = qE_0 \cos(\omega t)$

$$\text{Newton's law: } m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = F_{\text{tot}} = F_{\text{binding}} + F_{\text{damping}} + F_{\text{driving}}$$

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Permittivity in Nonconductors

The equation of motion

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} + m\gamma \frac{dx}{dt} + m\omega_0^2 x = qE_0 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$\text{Re} \left\{ m \frac{d^2 \tilde{x}}{dt^2} + m\gamma \frac{d\tilde{x}}{dt} + m\omega_0^2 \tilde{x} = qE_0 e^{-i\omega t} \right\}$$

Let the system oscillates at the driving frequency ω

$$\tilde{x} = \tilde{x}_0 e^{-i\omega t}, \text{ where } \tilde{x}_0 = \frac{q/m}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2 - i\gamma\omega} E_0$$

The dipole moment is the real part of $\tilde{p} = q\tilde{x}(t)$

$$\tilde{p} = \frac{q^2}{m} \frac{1}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2 - i\gamma\omega} E_0 e^{-i\omega t}$$

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Permittivity in Nonconductors (II)

N molecules per unit volume; each molecule contains f_j electrons with frequency ω_j and damping γ_j .

The polarization \mathbf{P} is given by the real part of:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = \frac{Nq^2}{m} \left(\sum_j \frac{f_j}{\omega_j^2 - \omega^2 - i\gamma_j\omega} \right) \tilde{\mathbf{E}} = \epsilon_0 \tilde{\chi}_e \tilde{\mathbf{E}}$$

$$\tilde{\chi}_e = \frac{Nq^2}{\epsilon_0 m} \left(\sum_j \frac{f_j}{\omega_j^2 - \omega^2 - i\gamma_j\omega} \right) \leftarrow \text{the complex susceptibility}$$

the complex permittivity $\epsilon = \epsilon_0(1 + \tilde{\chi}_e)$

the complex dielectric constant

$$\epsilon_r = (1 + \tilde{\chi}_e) = 1 + \frac{Nq^2}{\epsilon_0 m} \left(\sum_j \frac{f_j}{\omega_j^2 - \omega^2 - i\gamma_j\omega} \right)$$

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Waves in a Dispersive medium

The wave equation for a given frequency reads

$$\nabla^2 \tilde{\mathbf{E}} = \mu \tilde{\epsilon} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\mathbf{E}}}{\partial t^2} \quad \tilde{\epsilon} = \epsilon_0(1 + \tilde{\chi}_e) = \epsilon_0 + \frac{Nq^2}{m} \left(\sum_j \frac{f_j}{\omega_j^2 - \omega^2 - i\gamma_j\omega} \right)$$

$$\tilde{k} \equiv \sqrt{\tilde{\epsilon} \mu_0} \omega = k + ik \quad \tilde{\mathbf{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0 e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$

$$I \equiv \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = I_0 e^{-2\kappa z}, \quad \alpha \equiv 2\kappa \text{ (absorption coefficient)}$$

For gases, the second term of $\tilde{\epsilon}$ is small

$$\tilde{k} \equiv \frac{\omega}{c} \sqrt{\tilde{\epsilon}_r} \cong \frac{\omega}{c} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \tilde{\epsilon}_r \right) = \frac{\omega}{c} \left[1 + \frac{Nq^2}{2m\epsilon_0} \left(\sum_j \frac{f_j}{\omega_j^2 - \omega^2 - i\gamma_j\omega} \right) \right]$$

The binomial expansion

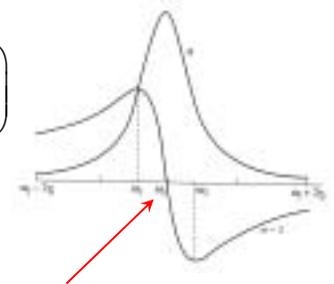
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Anomalous Dispersion

The index of refraction:

$$n = \frac{ck}{\omega} \cong 1 + \frac{Nq^2}{2m\epsilon_0} \left(\sum_j \frac{f_j(\omega_j^2 - \omega^2)}{(\omega_j^2 - \omega^2)^2 + \gamma_j^2 \omega^2} \right)$$

$$\alpha = 2\kappa \cong \frac{Nq^2 \omega^2}{m\epsilon_0 c} \left(\sum_j \frac{f_j \gamma_j^2}{(\omega_j^2 - \omega^2)^2 + \gamma_j^2 \omega^2} \right)$$



In the immediate neighborhood of a resonance, the index of refraction drops sharply. \leftarrow called anomalous dispersion.

Faster Than Light (FTL):

Can we find cases where the waves propagate at a speed faster than light? Superluminal effect.

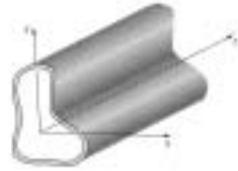
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9.5 Guided Waves

9.4.1 Wave Guides

Can the electromagnetic waves propagate in a hollow metal pipe? Yes, wave guide.

Waveguides generally made of good conductor, so that $\mathbf{E}=0$ and $\mathbf{B}=0$ inside the material.



The boundary conditions at the inner wall are: $\mathbf{E}^{\parallel} = 0$ and $\mathbf{B}^{\perp} = 0 \dots$

The generic form of the monochromatic waves:

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}(x, y, z, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_0(x, y)e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)} = (\tilde{E}_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \tilde{E}_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \tilde{E}_z \hat{\mathbf{z}})e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{B}}(x, y, z, t) = \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0(x, y)e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)} = (\tilde{B}_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \tilde{B}_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \tilde{B}_z \hat{\mathbf{z}})e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)} \end{cases}$$

The confined waves are not (in general) transverse. 69

General Properties of Wave Guides

In the interior of the wave guide, the waves satisfy Maxwell's equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0 \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = 0 & \quad \text{Why } \rho_f = 0 \text{ and } J_f = 0? \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} & \quad \text{where } v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon\mu}} \end{aligned}$$

We obtain

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y} = i\omega B_z, \quad \text{(iv)} \quad \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} = -\frac{i\omega}{c^2} E_z, \\ \text{(ii)} \quad \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial y} - ikE_y = i\omega B_x, \quad \text{(v)} \quad \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y} - ikB_y = -\frac{i\omega}{c^2} E_x, \\ \text{(iii)} \quad ikE_x - \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial x} = i\omega B_y, \quad \text{(vi)} \quad ikB_x - \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x} = -\frac{i\omega}{c^2} E_y. \end{aligned} \right\}$$

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TE, TM, and TEM Waves

Determining the longitudinal components E_z and B_z , we could quickly calculate all the others.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad E_x &= \frac{i}{(\omega/c)^2 - k^2} \left(k \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial x} + \omega \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y} \right), \\ \text{(ii)} \quad E_y &= \frac{i}{(\omega/c)^2 - k^2} \left(k \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial y} - \omega \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x} \right), \\ \text{(iii)} \quad B_x &= \frac{i}{(\omega/c)^2 - k^2} \left(k \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x} - \frac{\omega}{c^2} \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial y} \right), \\ \text{(iv)} \quad B_y &= \frac{i}{(\omega/c)^2 - k^2} \left(k \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y} + \frac{\omega}{c^2} \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial x} \right). \end{aligned} \right\}$$

We obtain

$$\left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\omega^2}{v^2} - k^2 \right] E_z = 0 \quad \text{If } E_z = 0 \Rightarrow \text{TE (transverse electric) waves;} \\ \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\omega^2}{v^2} - k^2 \right] B_z = 0 \quad \text{If } B_z = 0 \Rightarrow \text{TM (transverse magnetic) waves;} \\ \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\omega^2}{v^2} - k^2 \right] B_z = 0 \quad \text{If } E_z = 0 \text{ and } B_z = 0 \Rightarrow \text{TEM waves.} \quad \text{71}$$

No TEM Waves in a Hollow Wave Guide

Proof:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{If } E_z = 0, \text{ Gauss's law says } \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial y} = 0 \\ \text{If } B_z = 0, \text{ Faraday's law says } \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y} = 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 E_y}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

The boundary condition on \mathbf{E} requires that the surface be an equal-potential.

Laplace's equation admits no local maxima or minima.

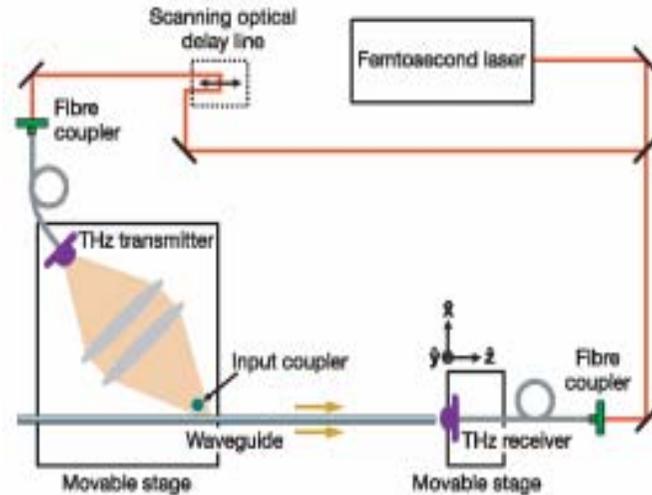
→ the potential is constant throughout. $E_z=0$ — no wave at all.

A hollow wave guide cannot support the TEM wave.

Can a metal wire support the TEM wave? Yes.

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A Diagram of the Optical Setup



K. Wang and D. M. Mittleman, "Metal wires for terahertz wave guiding", Nature, vol.432, No. 18, p.376, 2004.

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9.5.2 TE Waves in a Rectangular Wave Guide

$E_z = 0$, and $B_z(x, y) = X(x)Y(y)$ ← separation of variables

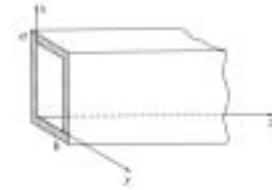
$$\frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{Y} \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial y^2} + (\frac{\omega^2}{v^2} - k^2) = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = -k_x^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{Y} \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial y^2} = -k_y^2$$

$$\text{with } \frac{\omega^2}{v^2} = k^2 = k_x^2 + k_y^2$$

$$X(x) = A \sin k_x x + B \cos k_x x$$

$$Y(y) = C \sin k_y y + D \cos k_y y$$



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TE Waves in a Rectangular Wave Guide (II)

$$E_x \propto \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y} \propto C \cos k_y y - D \sin k_y y$$

$$E_x(@ y = 0) = 0 \Rightarrow C = 0$$

$$E_x(@ y = b) = 0 \Rightarrow \sin k_y b = 0, k_y = \frac{n\pi}{b} (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$E_y \propto \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x} \propto A \cos k_x x - B \sin k_x x$$

$$E_y(@ x = 0) = 0 \Rightarrow A = 0$$

$$E_y(@ x = a) = 0 \Rightarrow \sin k_x a = 0, k_x = \frac{m\pi}{a} (m = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$B_z(x, y) = B_0 \cos(m\pi x / a) \cos(n\pi y / b) \leftarrow \text{the TE}_{mn} \text{ mode}$$

$$k = \sqrt{(\omega/v)^2 - \pi^2 [(m/a)^2 + (n/b)^2]}$$

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TE Waves in a Rectangular Wave Guide (III)

$$B_z(x, y) = B_0 \cos(m\pi x / a) \cos(n\pi y / b)$$

In vacuum, $\epsilon = \epsilon_0$ and $\mu = \mu_0$, $v = c$. ← the cutoff frequency

$$k = \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{\omega^2 - \omega_{mn}^2}, \text{ where } \omega_{mn}^2 = c^2 \pi^2 [(m/a)^2 + (n/b)^2]$$

If $\omega < \omega_{mn}$, the wave number is imaginary.

The lowest cutoff frequency of TE₁₀ mode is: $\omega_{10} = c\pi / a$

The wave velocities are:

$$v_p = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{1 - \omega_{mn}^2 / \omega^2}} > c \quad \text{phase velocity}$$

$$v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = c \sqrt{1 - \omega_{mn}^2 / \omega^2} < c \quad \text{group velocity}$$

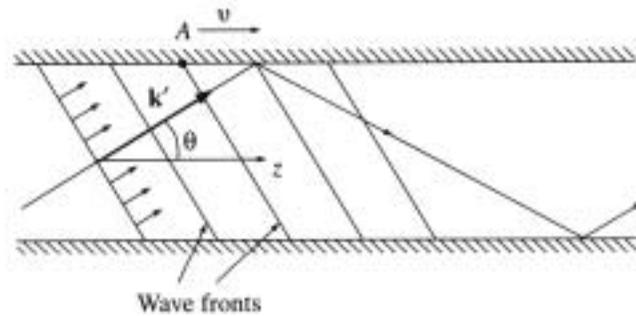
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Why the Phase Velocity Greater Than The Speed of Light

$$v_p = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{1 - \omega_{mn}^2/\omega^2}} > c \quad \text{phase velocity}$$

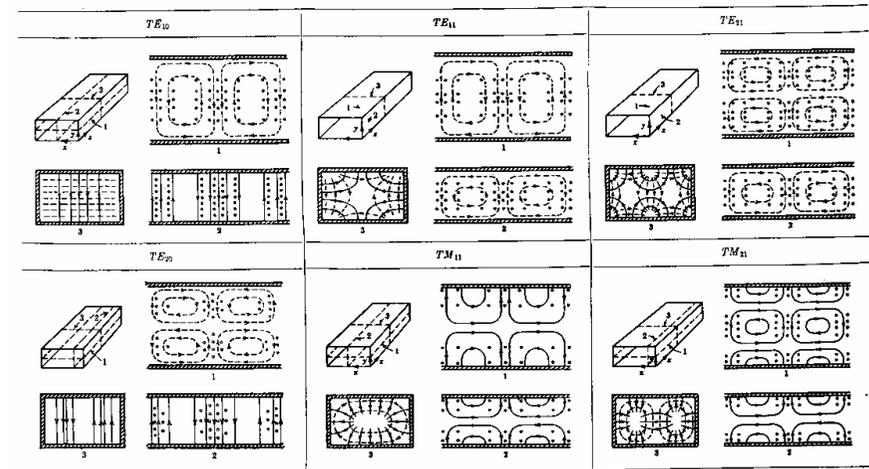
$$v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = c\sqrt{1 - \omega_{mn}^2/\omega^2} < c \quad \text{group velocity}$$

$$v_p v_g = c^2$$



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The Field Profiles: Examples



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9.5.3 The Coaxial Transmission Line

A hollow wave guide cannot support the TEM wave, but a coaxial transmission line can.



$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{(i)} \quad \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y} = i\omega B_z, \quad \text{(iv)} \quad \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} = -\frac{i\omega}{c^2} E_z, \\ \text{(ii)} \quad \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial y} - ikE_y = i\omega B_x, \quad \text{(v)} \quad \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y} - ikB_y = -\frac{i\omega}{c^2} E_x, \\ \text{(iii)} \quad ikE_x - \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial x} = i\omega B_y, \quad \text{(vi)} \quad ikB_x - \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x} = -\frac{i\omega}{c^2} E_y. \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0 \text{ and } \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \text{ and } \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = 0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{E} = -\nabla \phi_E \text{ electrostatic} \\ \mathbf{B} = -\nabla \phi_B \text{ magnetostatic} \end{array} \right.$$

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The Coaxial Transmission Line (II)

The problem is reduced to two dimensions.

Electrostatic: the infinite line charge;

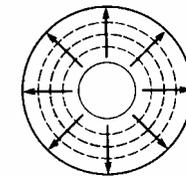
Magnetostatic: an infinite straight current.

$$\mathbf{E}_0(s, \phi) = \frac{A}{s} \hat{s}, \quad \mathbf{B}_0(s, \phi) = \frac{A}{cs} \hat{\phi}$$

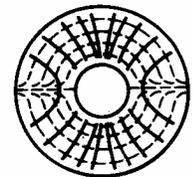
Taking the real part:

$$\mathbf{E}(s, \phi, z, t) = \frac{A \cos(kz - \omega t)}{s} \hat{s}$$

$$\mathbf{B}(s, \phi, z, t) = \frac{A \cos(kz - \omega t)}{cs} \hat{\phi}$$



(a) TEM



(b) TE₁₁

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Homework of Chap.9 (II)

Prob. 16, 18, 19, 29, 30, 35, 38