

LECTURE 4

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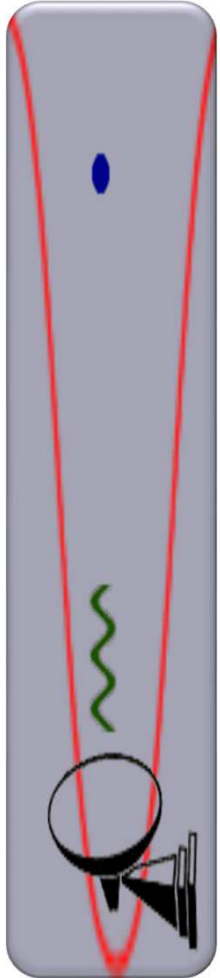
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81310 UTM, Skudai, Johore Bahru, Malaysia

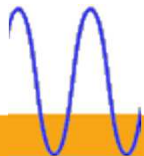
Email: maged@utm.my

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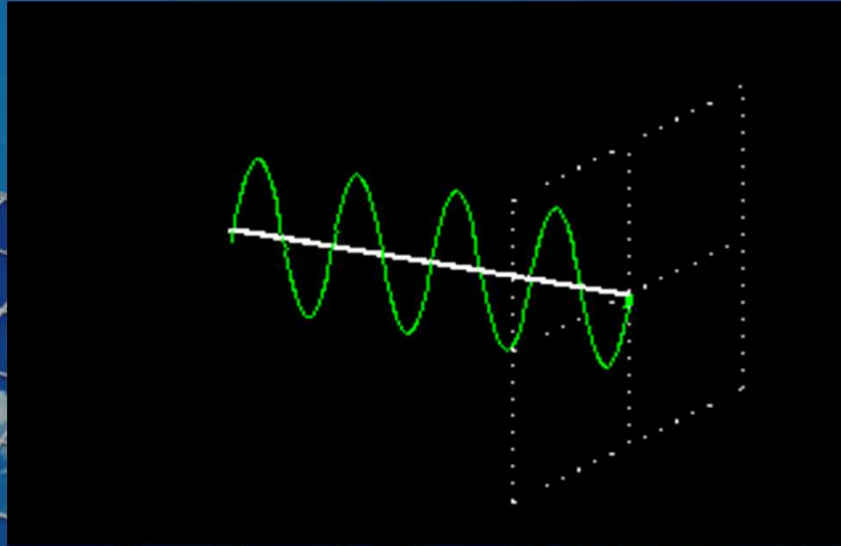
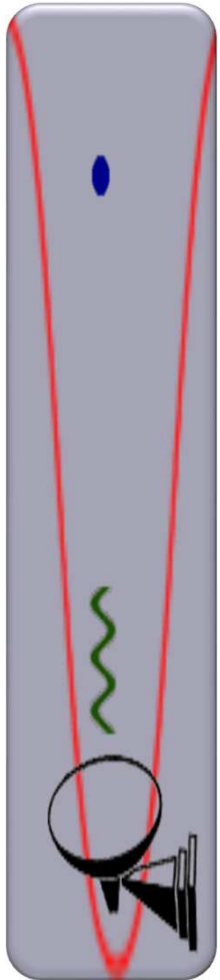
MATHEMATICAL FORMS OF ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVE



- **I. Basic concepts: Electromagnetic waves and types of polarization**
 - Plane-polarized wave: Horizontal
 - Plane-polarized wave: Vertical
 - Superposition of plane-polarized waves: Horizontal + Vertical \rightarrow 45° Plane
 - Superposition of plane-polarized waves: Horizontal + Vertical \rightarrow Right circular
 - Superposition of plane-polarized waves: Horizontal + Vertical \rightarrow Left circular
 - Circularly polarized waves: Right and Left
 - Superposition of circularly polarized waves: Right + Left circular \rightarrow Plane!
- **II. Interaction of light and matter**
 - Plane-polarized wave: Absorption
 - Circularly polarized wave: Absorption
 - Plane-polarized wave: Refraction
 - Circularly polarized wave: Refraction
 - Circular dichroism
 - Circular birefringence
 - Circular dichroism AND birefringence

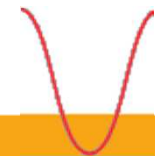
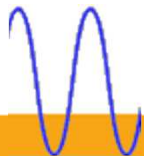


MATHEMATICAL CONCEPT PLANE EM WAVE

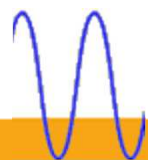
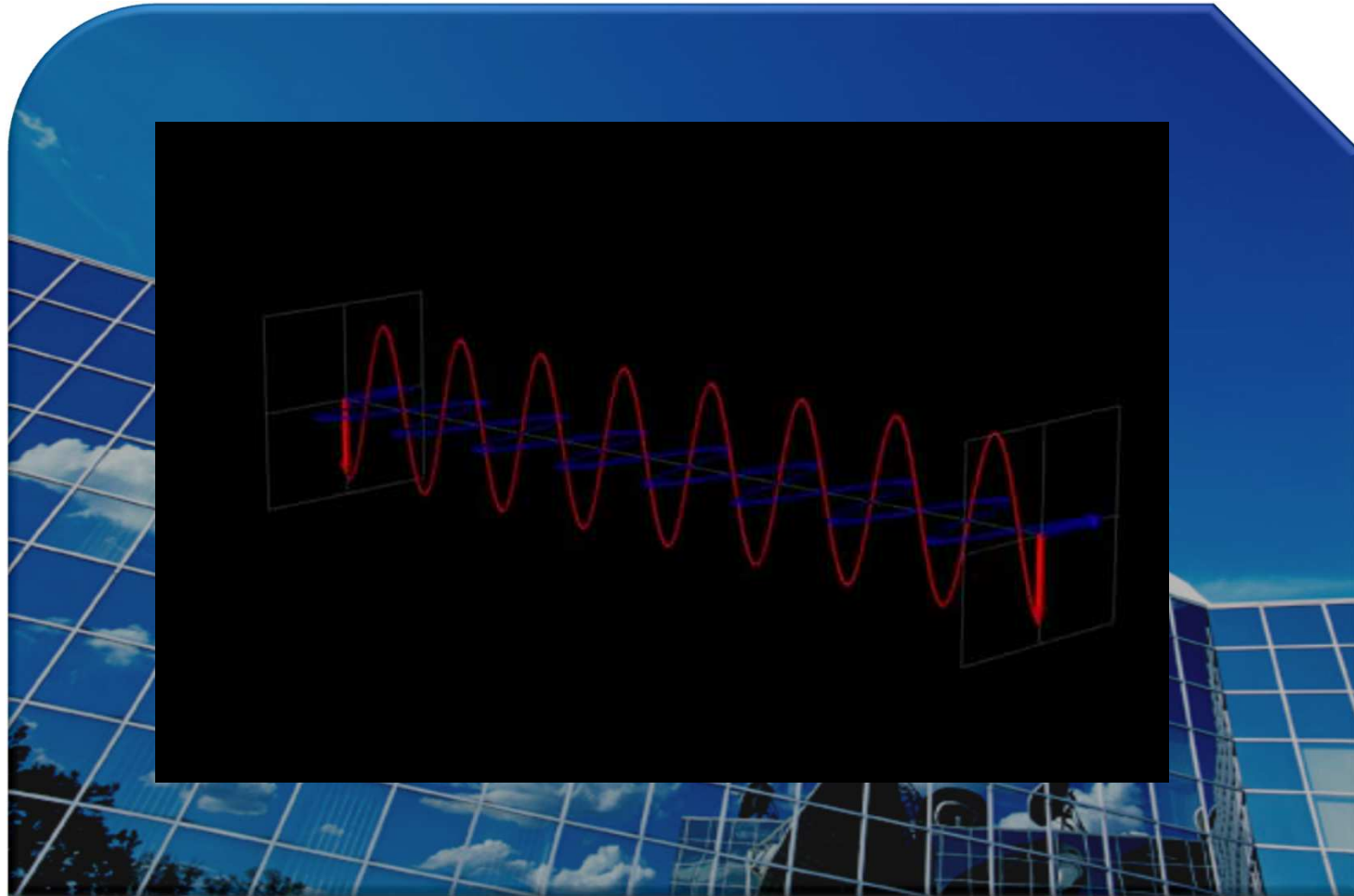
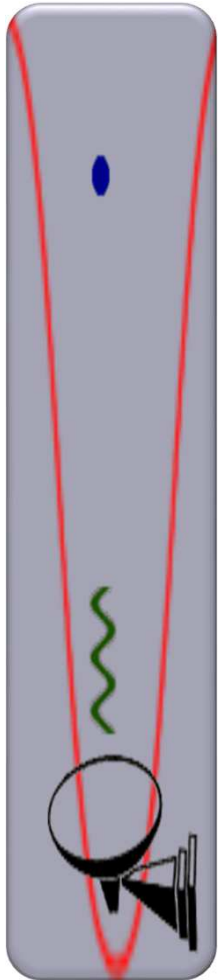


$$E_y = A \sin(x / \lambda - \omega t)$$

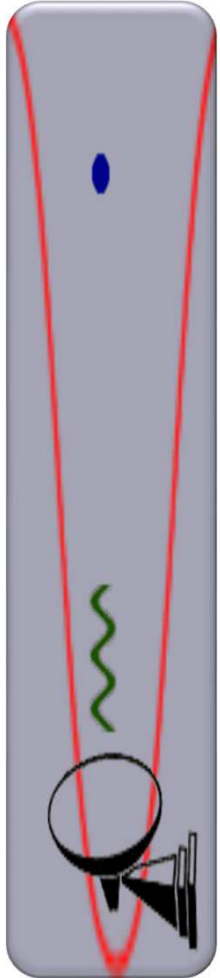
Vertically (y axis) polarized wave having an amplitude A , a wavelength of λ , and an angular velocity (frequency $\times 2\pi$) of ω , propagating along



ANOTHER LOOK



Explanation of Frequency



Everything you see, and can't see, resonate at a specific frequency.

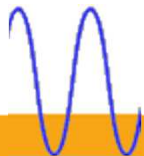
Frequencies are sinusoidal waves.

Speed of Light = Frequency x Wavelength

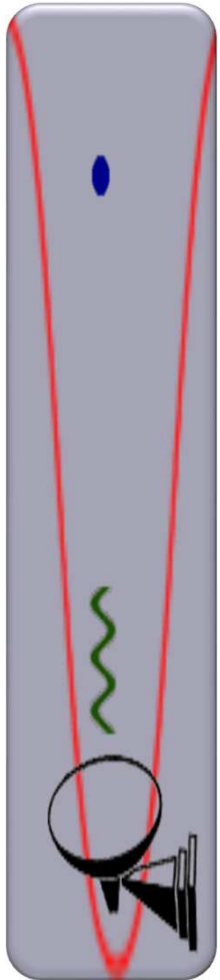
Example: The wavelength of a signal resonating at 3kHz is:

$$\frac{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{3 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}} = 100 \text{ kilometers or } \approx 62 \text{ miles!}$$

Lower frequencies have longer wavelengths. This characteristic allows these frequencies to be used for Morse code and amateur radio.



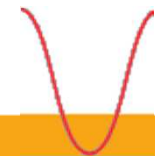
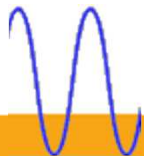
Phase (waves)



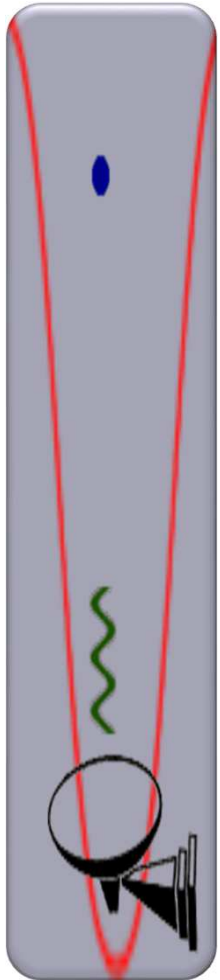
The phase of an **oscillation** or **wave** refers to a sinusoidal function such as the following:

$$x(t) = A \cdot \cos(2\pi ft + \theta)$$

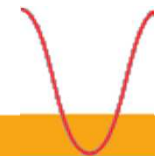
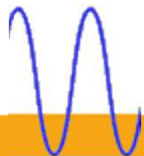
$$y(t) = A \cdot \sin(2\pi ft + \theta) = A \cdot \cos(2\pi ft + \theta - \pi/2)$$



The term phase can refer to several different things:



- It can refer to a specified reference, such as $\cos(2\pi ft)$, in which case we would say the phase of $x(t)$ is θ , and the phase of $y(t)$ is $\theta - \pi/2$.
- It can refer to θ , in which case we would say $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ have the same phase but are relative to different references.
- In the context of communication waveforms, the time-variant angle $2\pi ft + \theta$, or its modulo 2π value, is referred to as **instantaneous phase**, but often just **phase**. *Instantaneous phase* has a formal definition that is applicable to more general functions and unambiguously defines a function's initial phase at $t=0$. Accordingly, it is θ for $x(t)$ and $\theta - \pi/2$ for $y(t)$. (also see **phasor**)



Instantaneous phase

In [signal processing](#), the **instantaneous phase** (or "local phase" or simply "phase") of a complex-valued function $x(t)$ is the real-valued function:

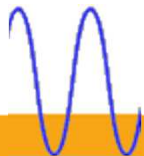
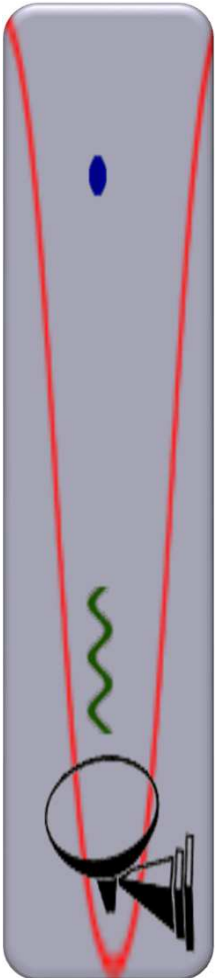
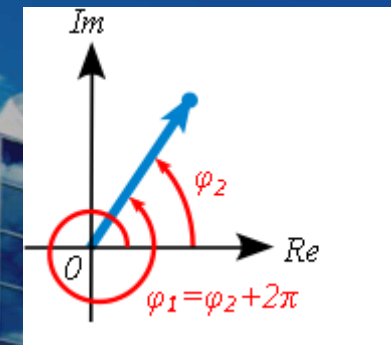
- Geometrically, in relation to an [Argand diagram](#), $\arg z$ is the angle ϕ from the positive real axis to the vector representing z . The numeric value is given by the angle in [radians](#) and is positive if measured anticlockwise.
- Algebraically, an argument of the complex number $z = x + iy$ is any real quantity ϕ such that

$$z = x + iy = r \cos \phi + i r \sin \phi$$

for some positive real r . The quantity r is the [modulus](#) of z , written

$$r = |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}.$$

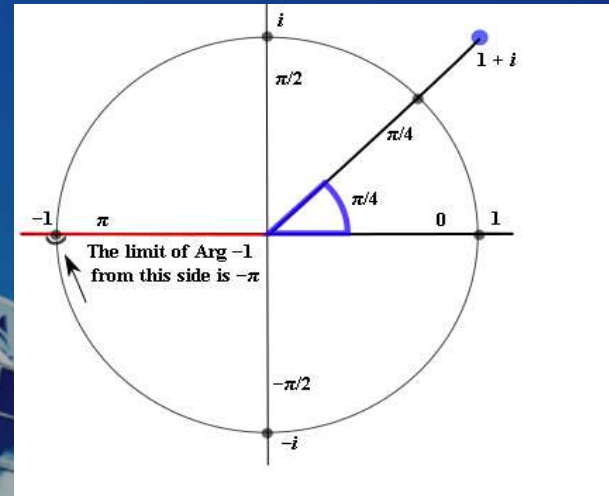
The names [amplitude](#)^[1] or [phase](#)^[2] are sometimes used equivalently.



Principal value

Open-closed interval

$[-\pi, \pi]$



Some authors define the range of the principal value as being in the closed-open interval $[0, 2\pi)$.

The set of all possible values of the argument can be written in terms of Arg as:

$$\arg z = \{\text{Arg} z + 2\pi n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

$$z = |z| e^{i \arg(z)}.$$

This is only really valid if z is non-zero but can be considered as valid also for $z = 0$ if $\arg(0)$ is considered as being an indeterminate form rather than as being undefined.

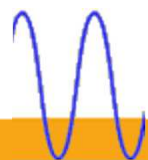
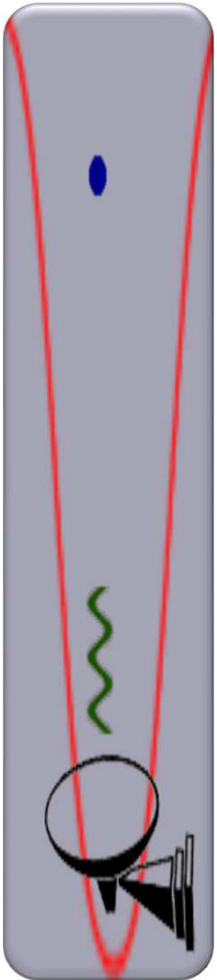
Some further identities follow. If z_1 and z_2 are two non-zero complex numbers then

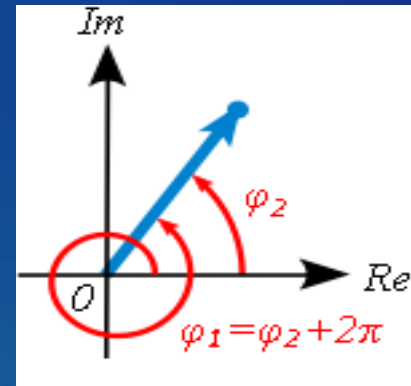
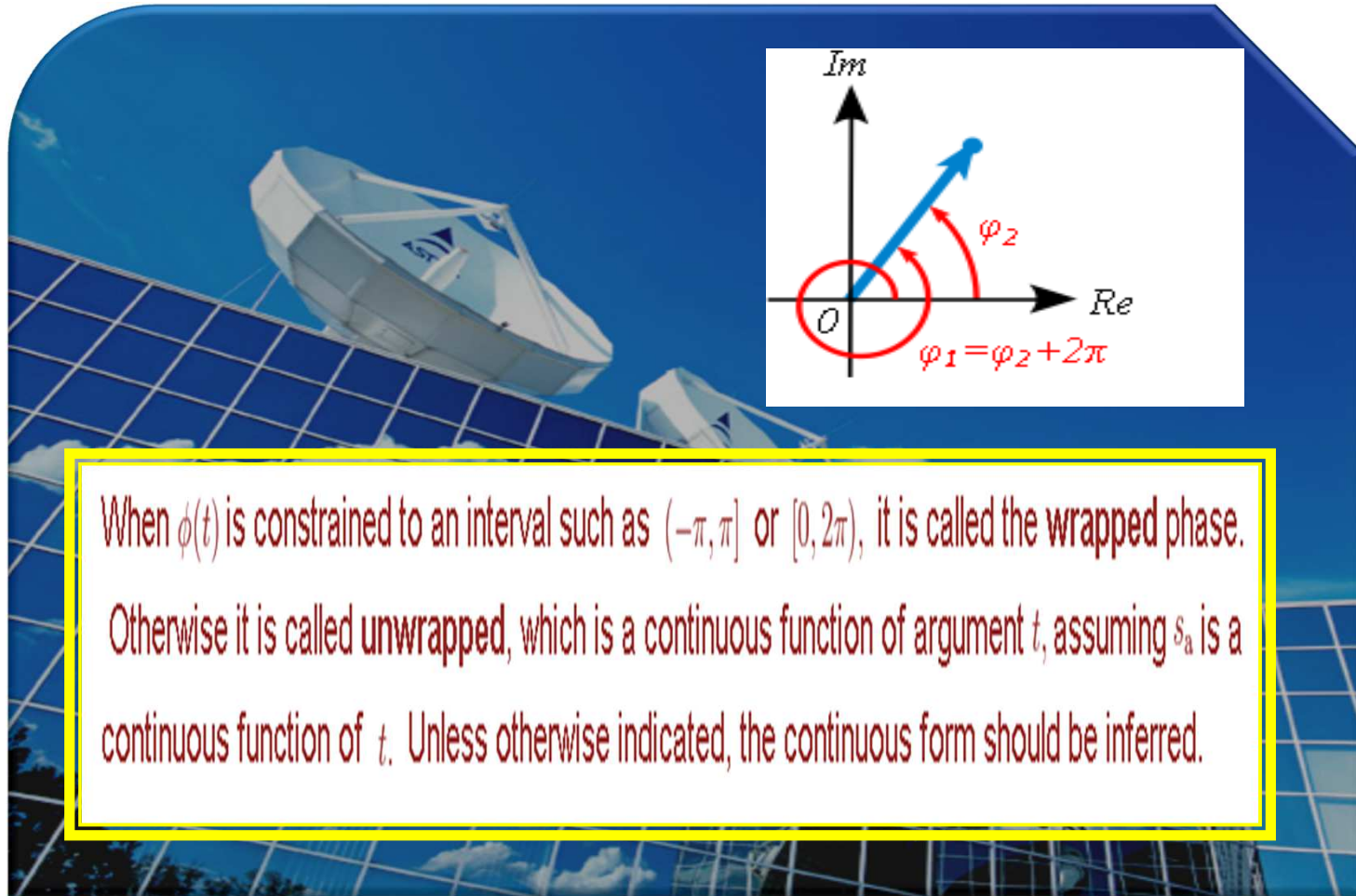
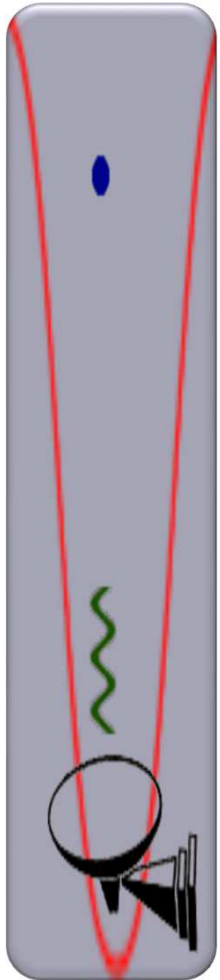
$$\arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2) \pmod{2\pi}, \text{ and}$$

$$\arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2) \pmod{2\pi}.$$

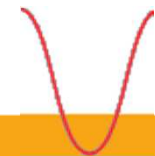
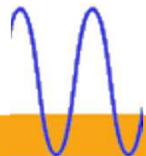
If $z \neq 0$ and n is any integer then

$$\arg(z^n) = n \arg(z) \pmod{2\pi}.$$

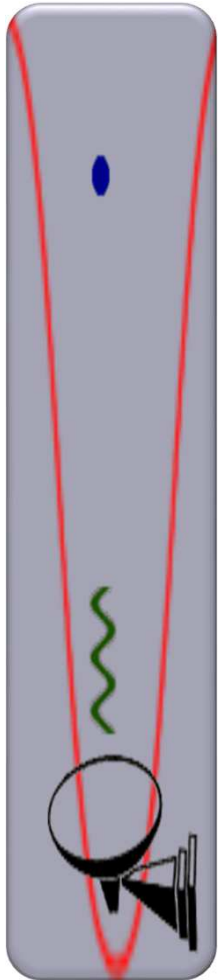




When $\phi(t)$ is constrained to an interval such as $(-\pi, \pi]$ or $[0, 2\pi)$, it is called the **wrapped phase**. Otherwise it is called **unwrapped**, which is a continuous function of argument t , assuming s_a is a continuous function of t . Unless otherwise indicated, the continuous form should be inferred.



Examples



Example 1: $s(t) = A \cdot \cos(\omega t + \theta)$, where A and ω are positive values.

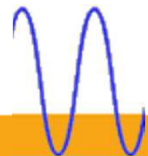
$$s_a(t) = A \cdot e^{i(\omega t + \theta)}$$

$$\phi(t) = \omega t + \theta$$

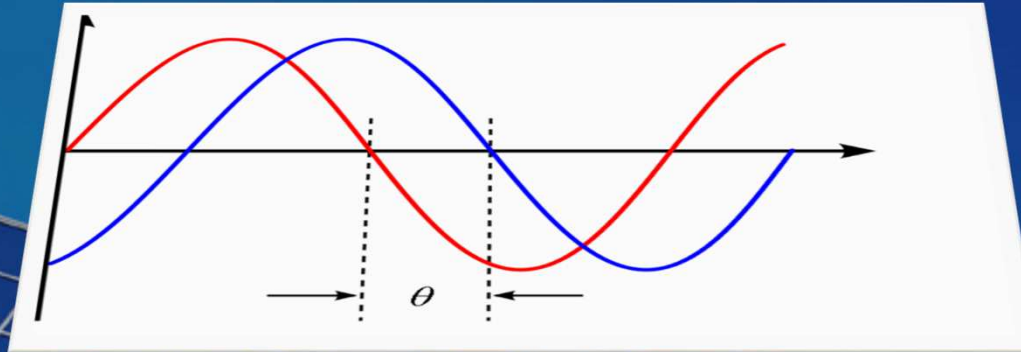
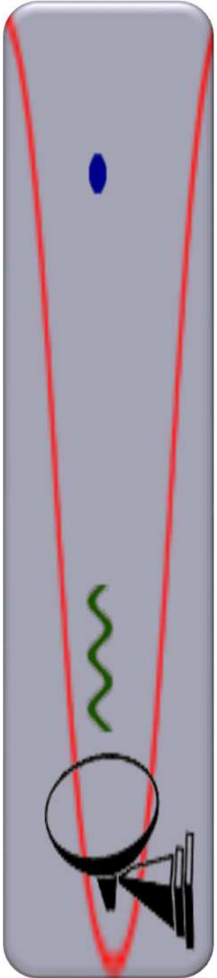
Example 2: $s(t) = A \cdot \sin(\omega t) = A \cdot \cos(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2})$

$$s_a(t) = A \cdot e^{i(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2})}$$

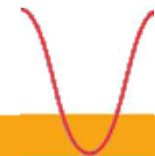
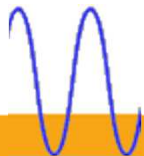
$$\phi(t) = \omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}$$



Phase shift



The horizontal axis represents an angle (phase) that is increasing with time



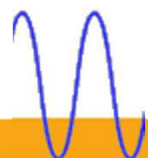
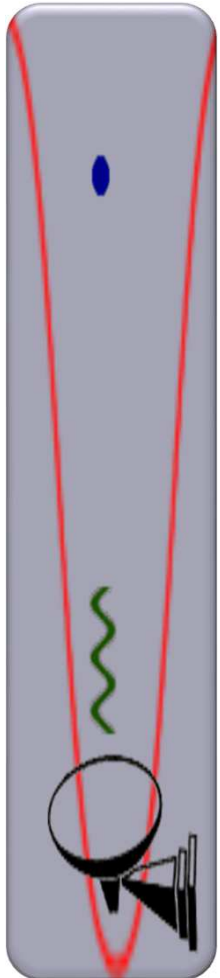
Phase shift

θ is sometimes referred to as a phase-shift, because it represents a "shift" from zero phase. But a change in θ is also referred to as a phase shift.

For infinitely long sinusoids, a change in θ is the same as a shift in time, such as a time-delay. If $x(t)$ is delayed (time-shifted) by $\frac{1}{4}$ of its cycle, it becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} x\left(t - \frac{1}{4}T\right) &= A \cdot \cos\left(2\pi f\left(t - \frac{1}{4}T\right) + \theta\right) \\ &= A \cdot \cos\left(2\pi ft - \frac{\pi}{2} + \theta\right), \end{aligned}$$

whose "phase" is now $\theta - \frac{\pi}{2}$. It has been shifted by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ radians.

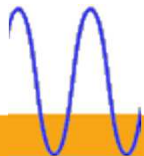


Phase velocity

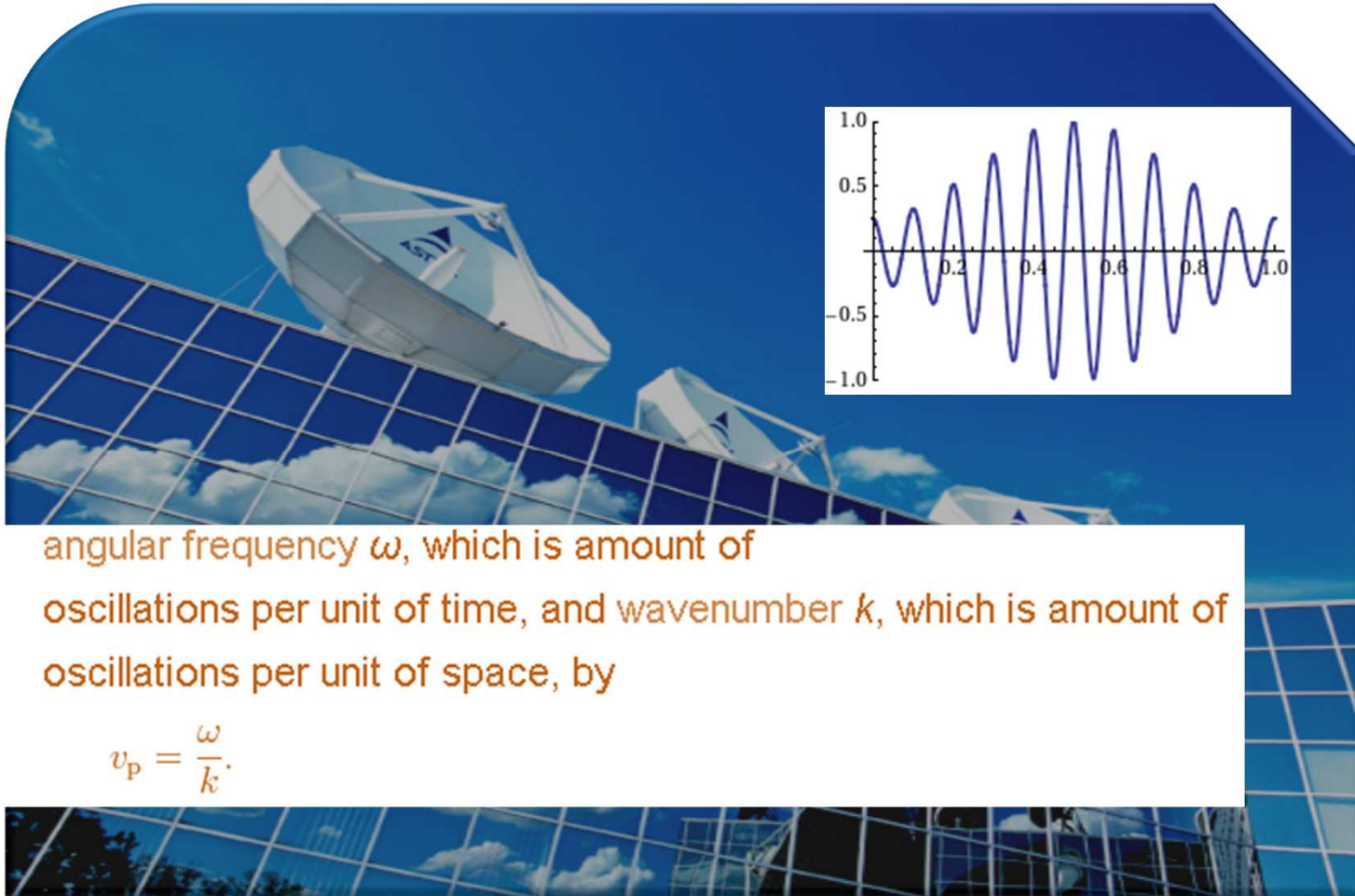
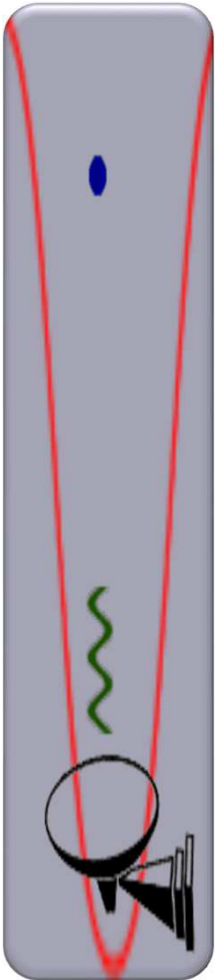


The phase velocity of a wave is the rate at which the phase of the wave propagates in space. This is the speed at which the phase of any one frequency component of the wave travels. For such a component, any given phase of the wave (for example, the crest) will appear to travel at the phase velocity. The phase velocity is given in terms of the wavelength λ (lambda) and period T as

$$v_p = \frac{\lambda}{T}$$

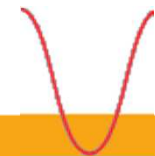
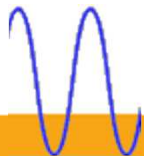


Angular Frequency

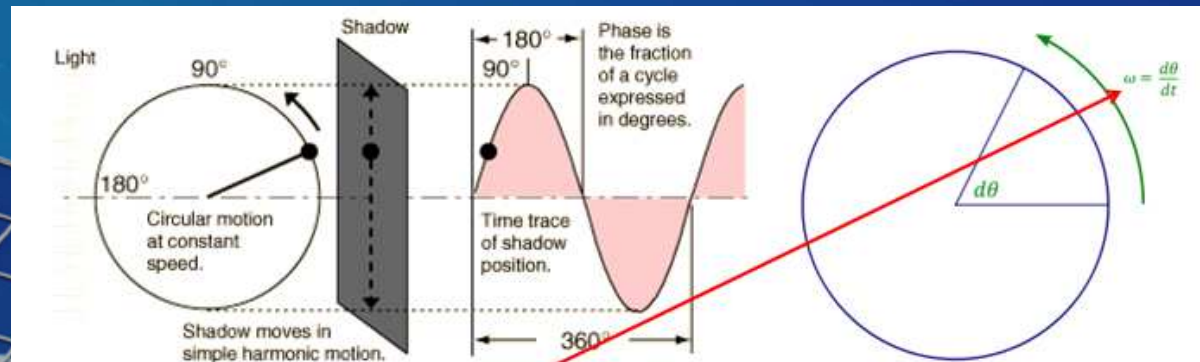
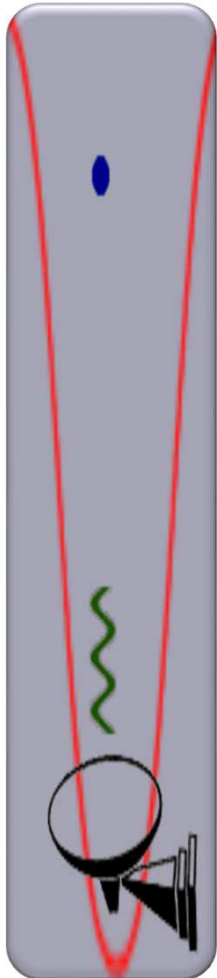


angular frequency ω , which is amount of oscillations per unit of time, and wavenumber k , which is amount of oscillations per unit of space, by

$$v_p = \frac{\omega}{k}$$



Wave phase and angular frequency



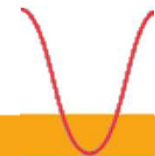
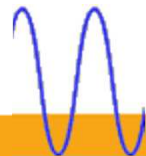
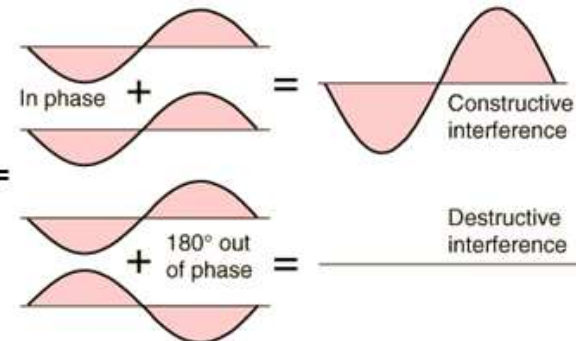
• Angular frequency $\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi/T$

• Frequency with which phase changes

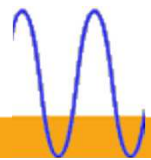
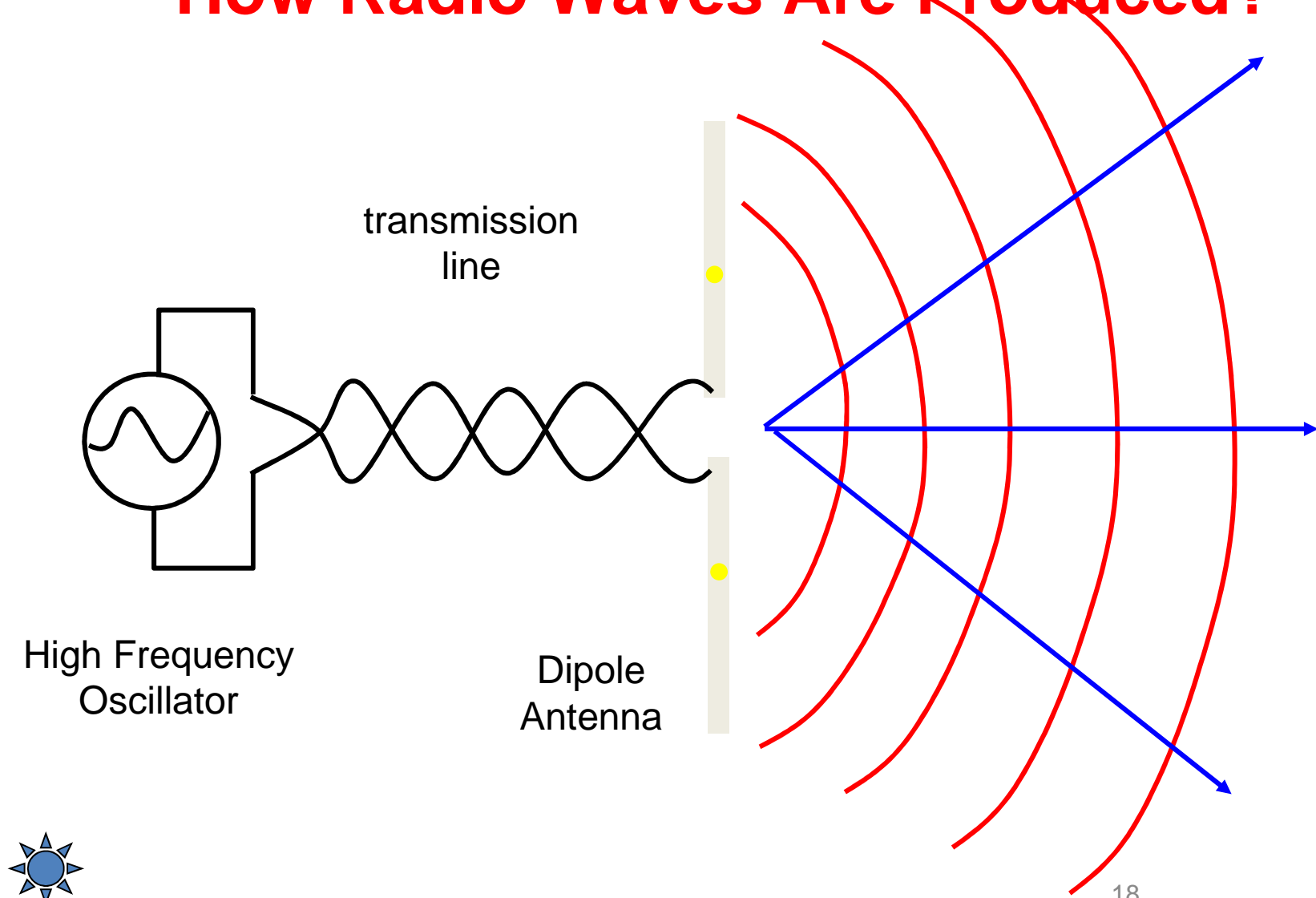
• Angles in radians (rad)

• $360^\circ = 2\pi$ rad, so 1 rad = $360/2\pi = 57.3^\circ$

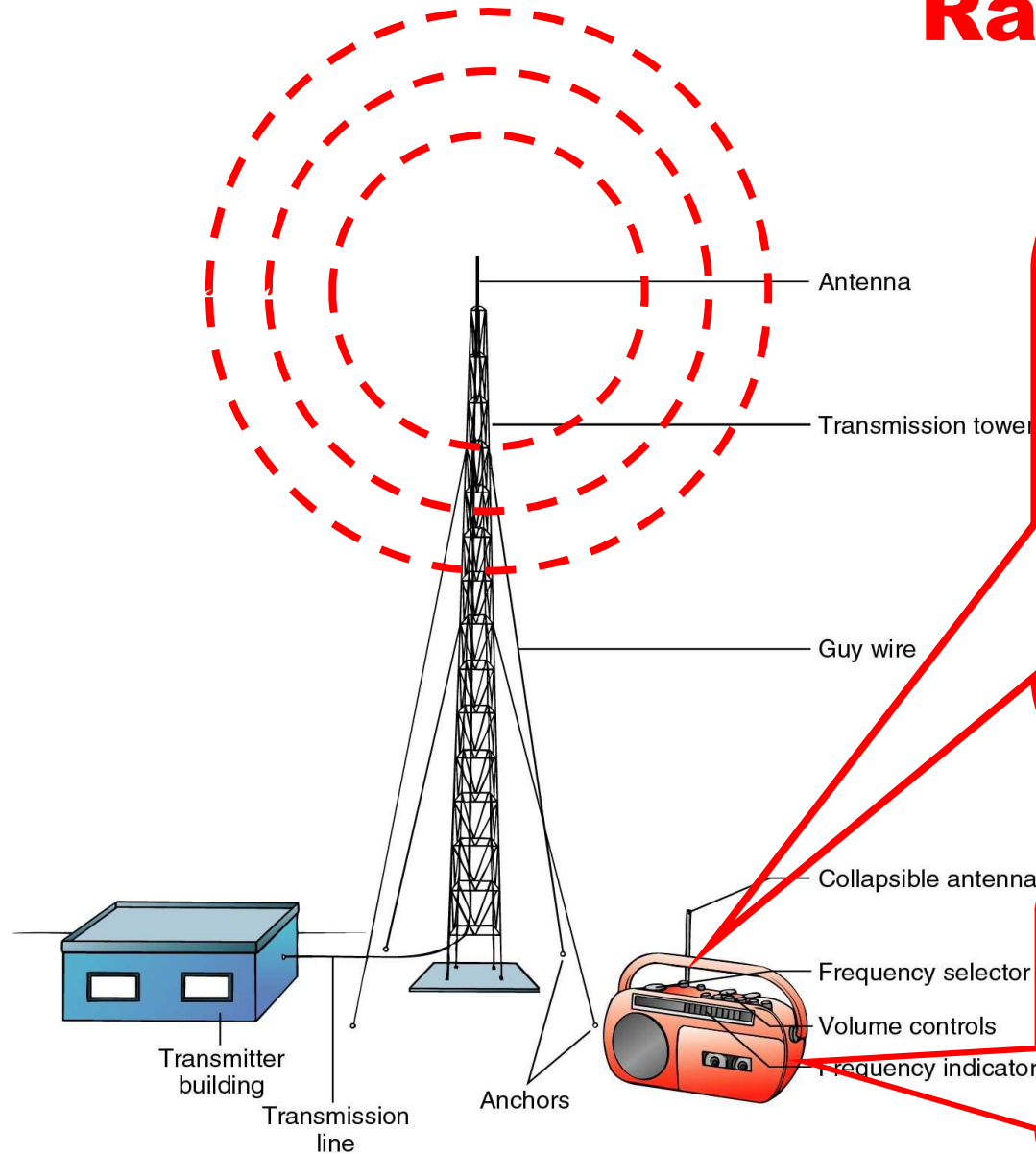
• Rad to deg. ($\times 180/\pi$) and deg. to rad ($\times \pi/180$)



How Radio Waves Are Produced?



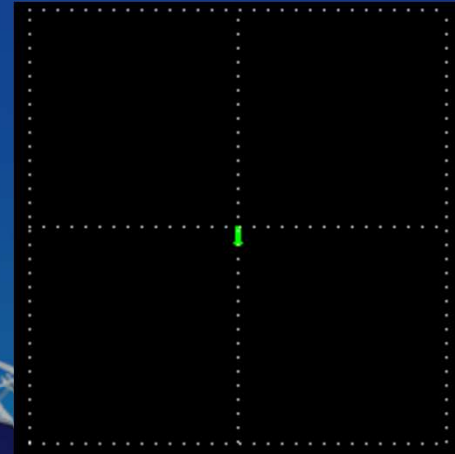
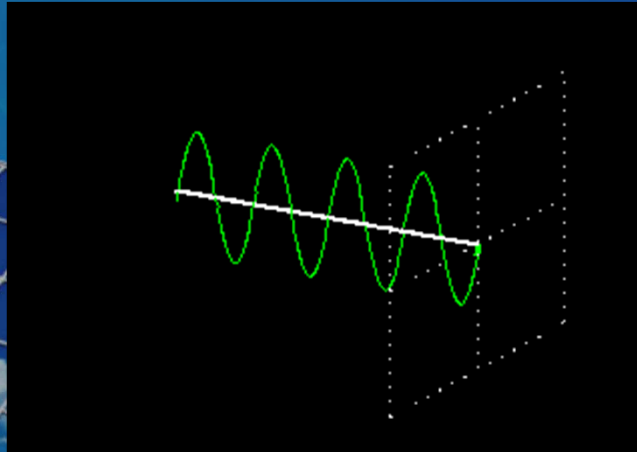
Radio Antenna



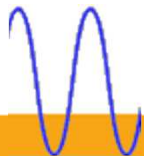
the oscillating electric field of the EM wave causes the electrons in the receiving antenna to oscillate at the same frequency

the amplifier converts the electrical signal to sound waves

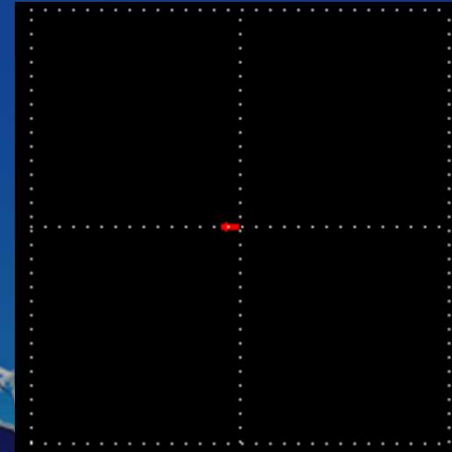
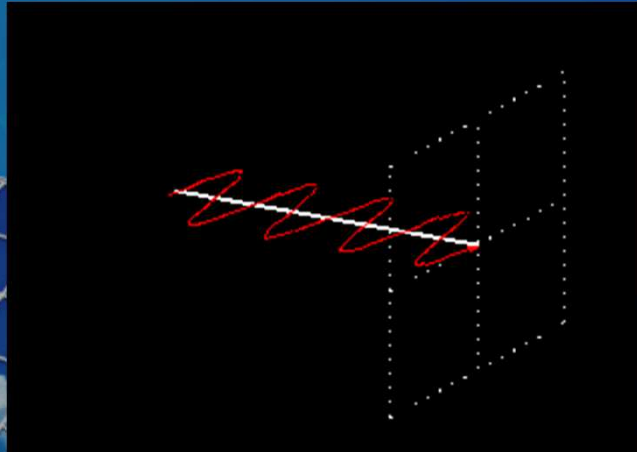
Plane-polarized EM



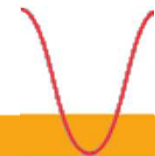
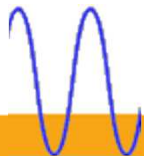
$$E_y = A \sin(x / \lambda - \omega t)$$



Horizontal

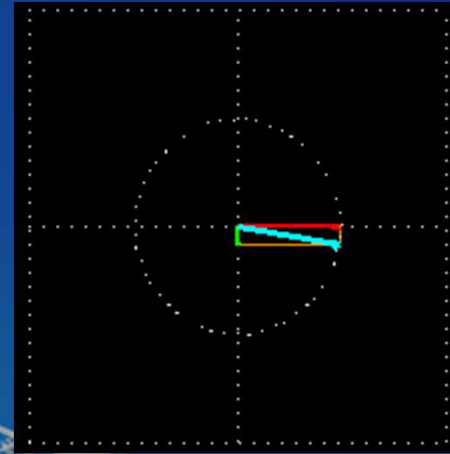
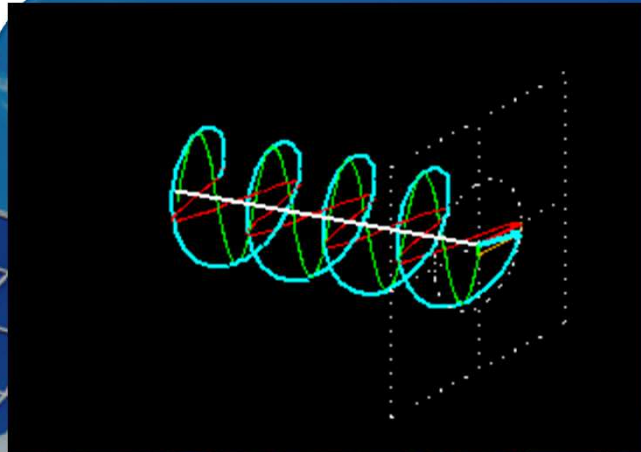


$$E_z = A \sin(x / \lambda - \omega t)$$

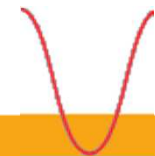
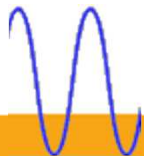


Circularly polarized EM

Right circular

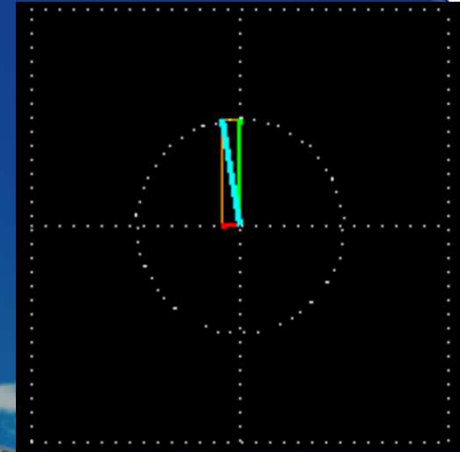
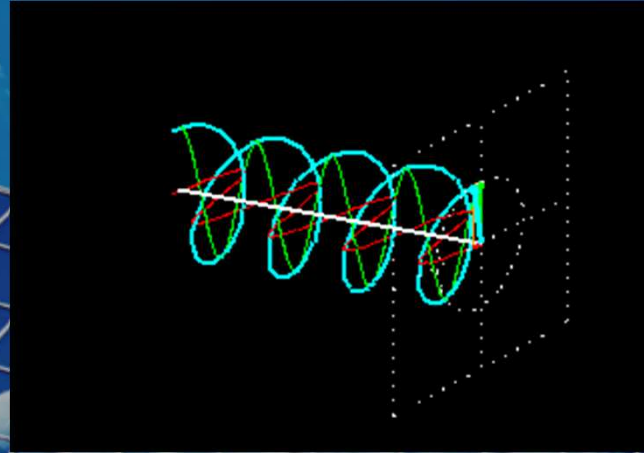


$$E_y = A \sin(x / \lambda - \omega t + 90^\circ)$$
$$E_z = A \sin(x / \lambda - \omega t)$$

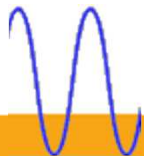


Circularly polarized EM

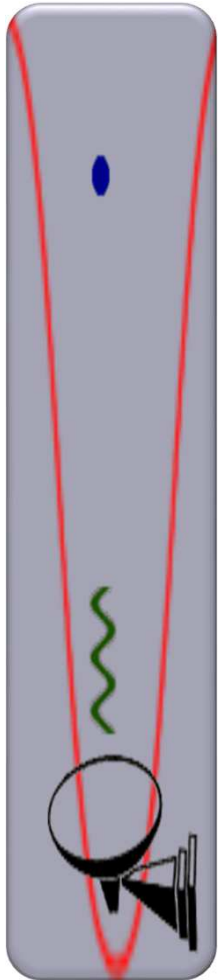
Left circular



$$E_y = A \sin(x / \lambda - \omega t + 90^\circ)$$
$$E_z = A \sin(x / \lambda - \omega t)$$

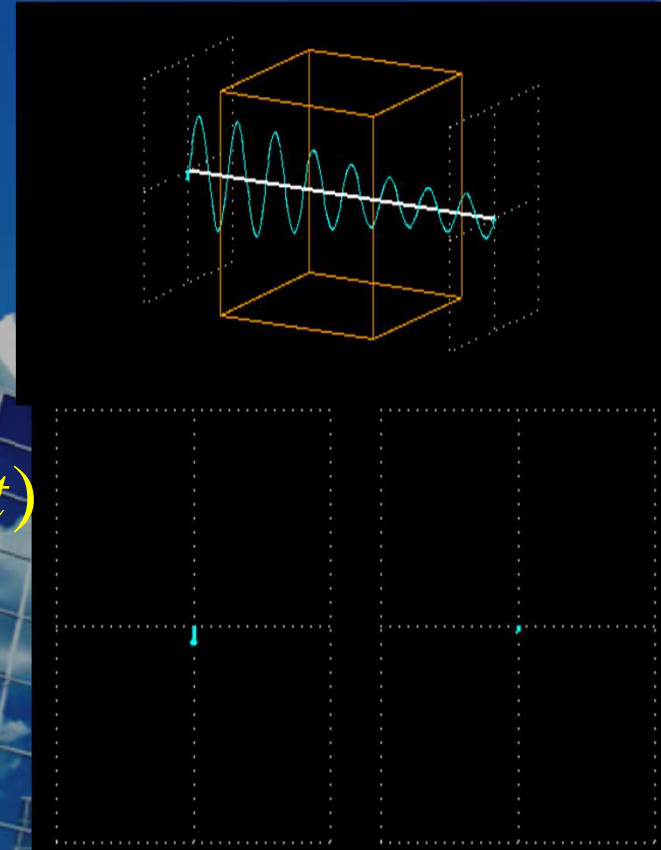


Interaction of EM and matter: Absorption



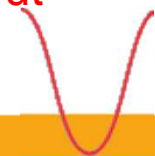
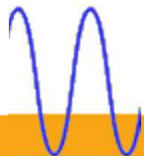
Material with an extinction coefficient ϵ

$$E_y = Ae^{-\epsilon x} \sin(x/\lambda - \omega t)$$

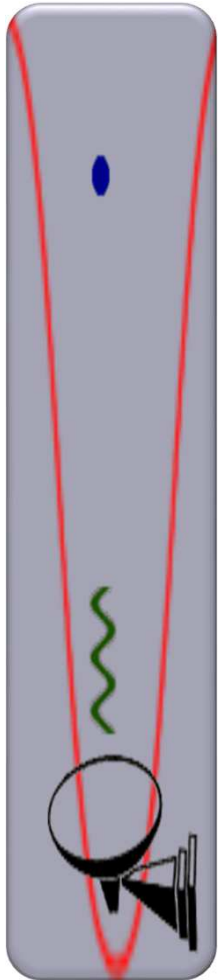


In

Out

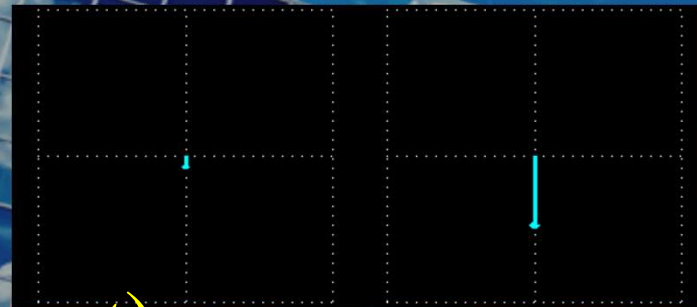
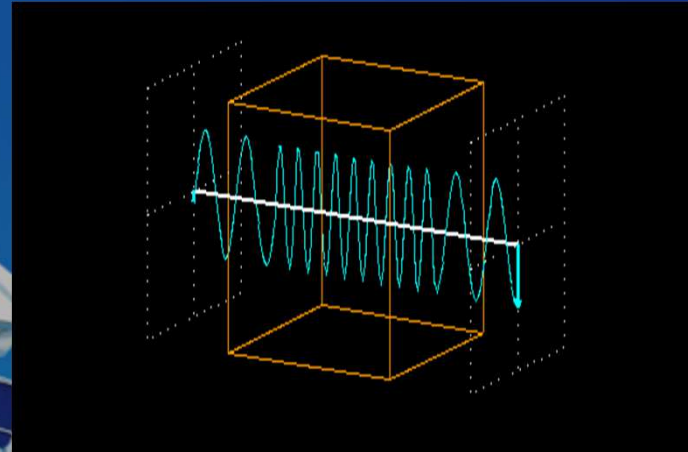


Refraction



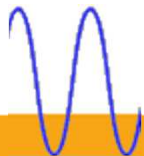
The EM slows down inside the material, therefore its wavelength becomes shorter and its phase gets shifted

$$E_y = A \sin(n x / \lambda - \omega t)$$

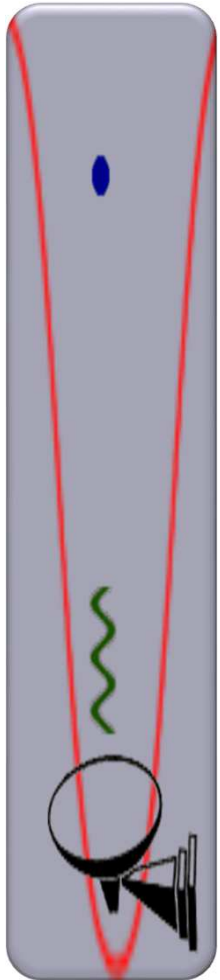


In

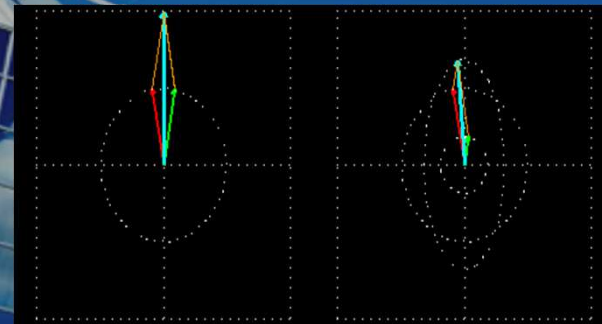
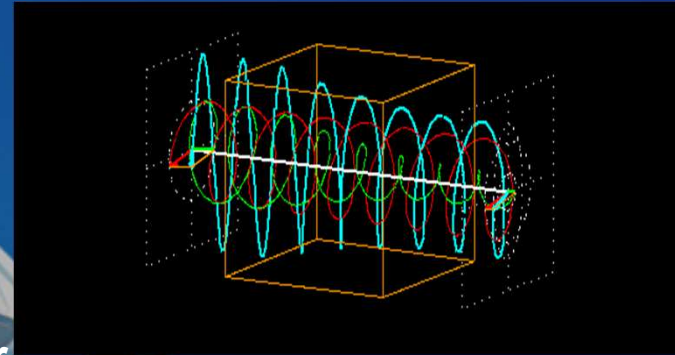
Out



Circular dichroism



Plane-polarized light
becomes elliptically polar



In

Out

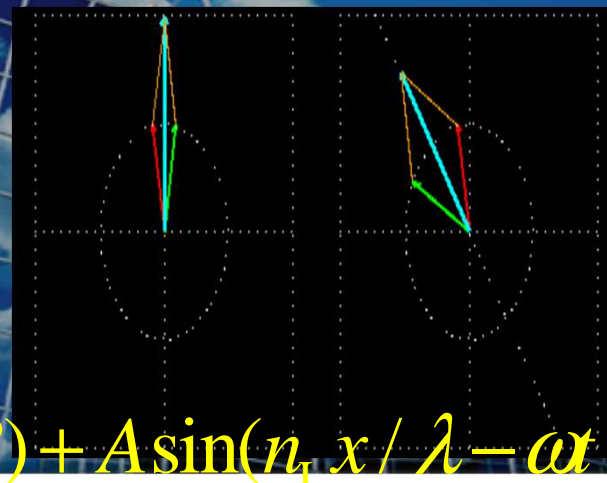
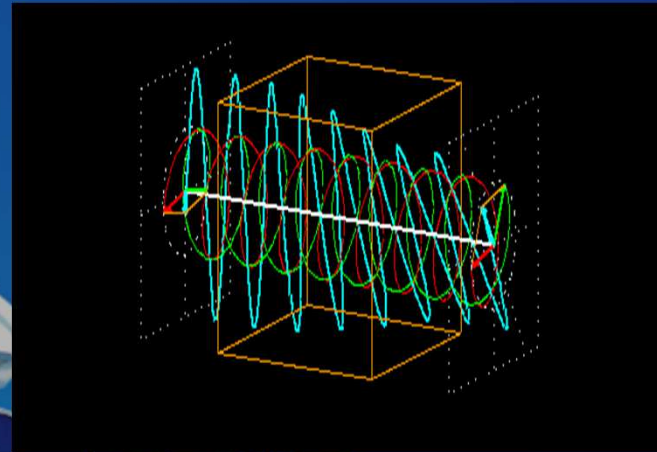
$$E_y = Ae^{-\epsilon_R x} \sin(x/\lambda - \omega t + 90^\circ) + Ae^{-\epsilon_L x} \sin(x/\lambda - \omega t - 90^\circ)$$

$$E_x = Ae^{-\epsilon_R x} \sin(x/\lambda - \omega t) + Ae^{-\epsilon_L x} \sin(x/\lambda - \omega t)$$

Circular bi-refringence

The plane of polarization of plane-polarized EM gets rotated

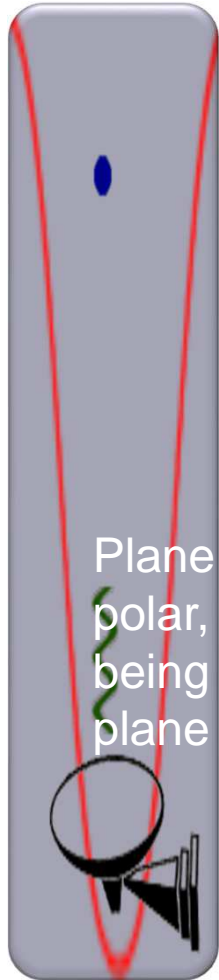
Material having different refraction indices for right and left circularly polarized EM: n_R and n_L



$$E_y = A \sin(n_R x / \lambda - \omega t + 90^\circ) + A \sin(n_L x / \lambda - \omega t - 90^\circ)$$

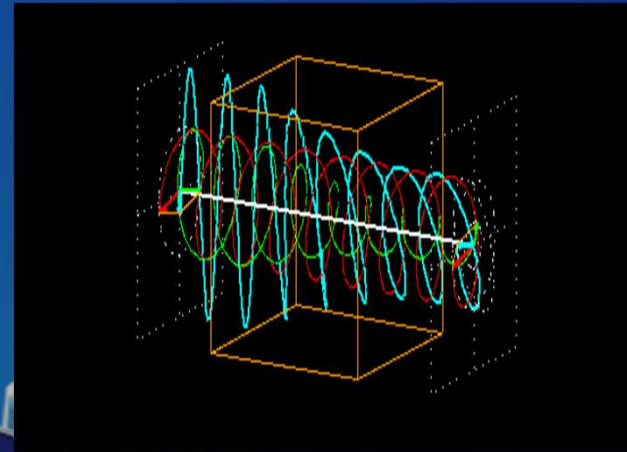
$$E_z = A \sin(n_R x / \lambda - \omega t) + A \sin(n_L x / \lambda - \omega t)$$

Circular dichroism AND bi-refringence

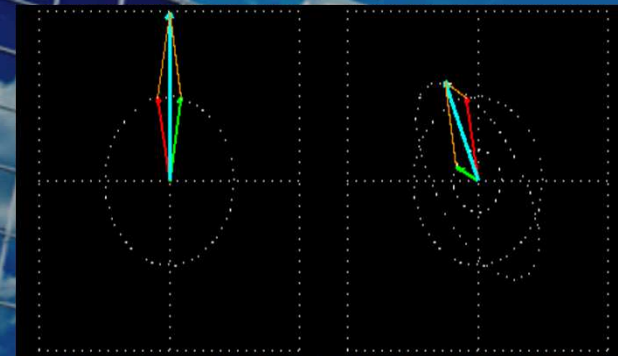


Plane polarized EM gets elliptically polarized with the great axis of the ellipse being rotated relative to the original plane of polarization

Material having different extinction coefficients AND refraction indices for right and left circularly polarized EM: ϵ_R and ϵ_L AND n_R and n_L

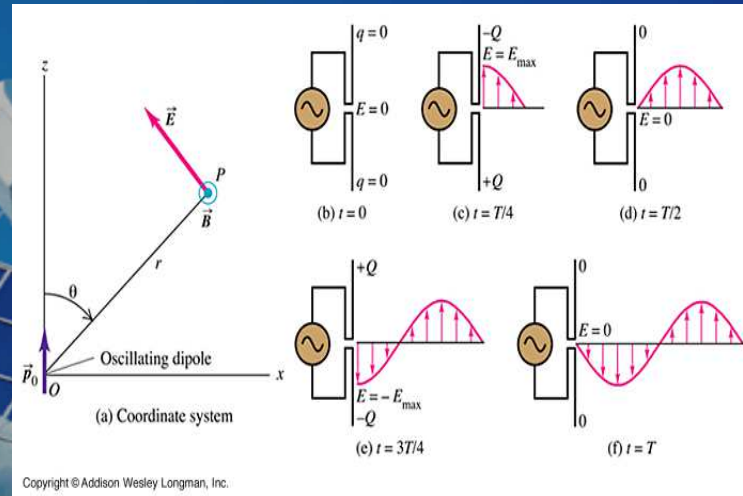
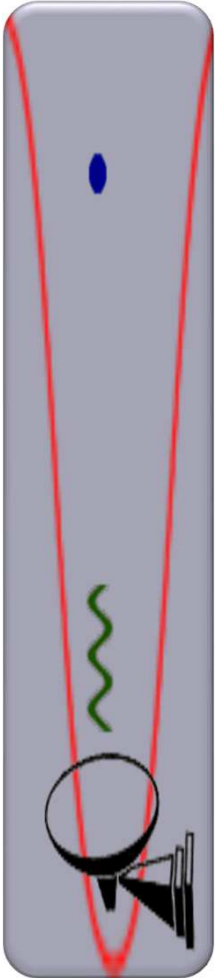


Plane polarized EM gets elliptically polarized with the great axis of the ellipse being rotated relative to the original plane of polarization



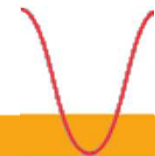
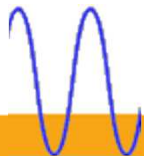
$$E_y = Ae^{-\epsilon_R x} \sin(n_R x / \lambda - \omega t + 90^\circ) + Ae^{-\epsilon_L x} \sin(n_L x / \lambda - \omega t - 90^\circ)$$

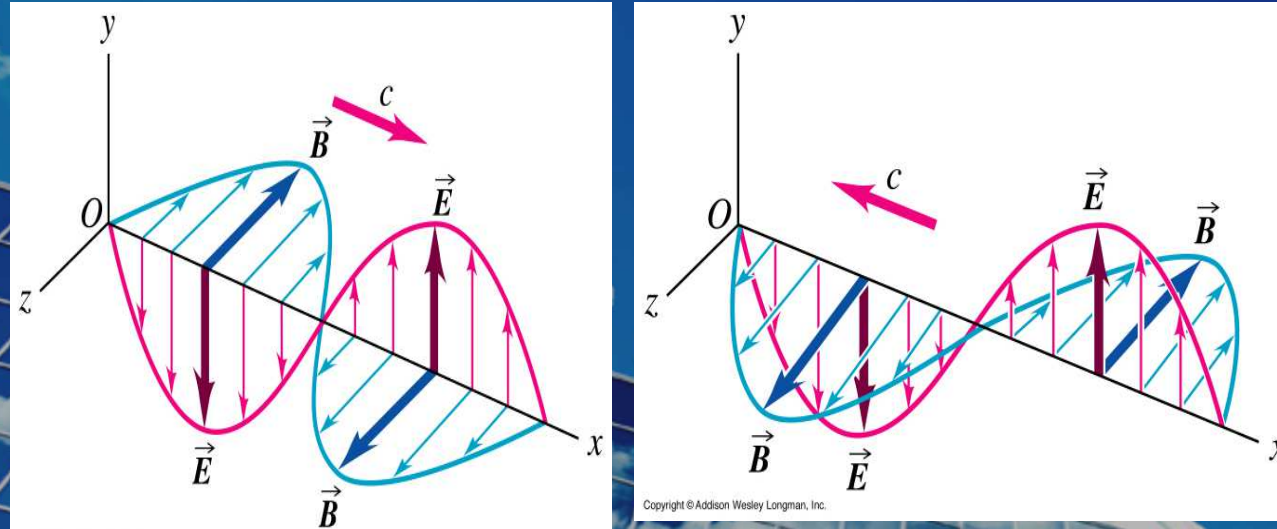
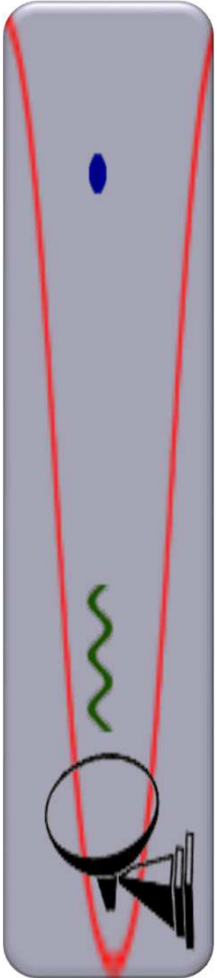
$$E_z = Ae^{-\epsilon_R x} \sin(n_R x / \lambda - \omega t) + Ae^{-\epsilon_L x} \sin(n_L x / \lambda - \omega t)$$



•One cycle in the production of an electro-magnetic wave by an oscillating electric dipole antenna.

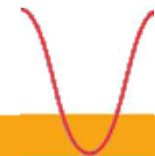
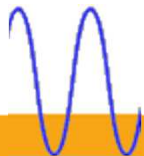
•The red arrows represent the E field. (B not shown.)





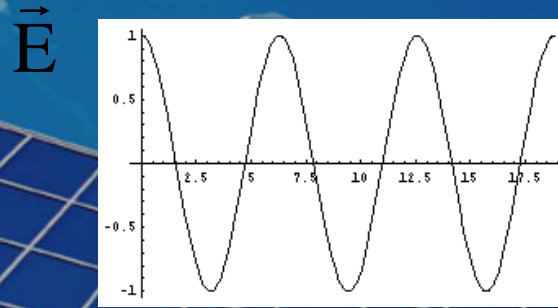
•Representation of the electric and magnetic fields in a propagating wave. One wavelength is shown at time $t = 0$.

•Propagation direction is $E \times B$.

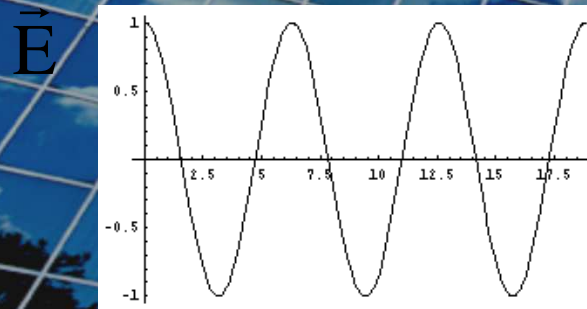


Harmonic Plane Waves

At $t = 0$



At $x = 0$



$\lambda =$ spatial period or wavelength

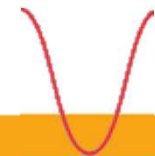
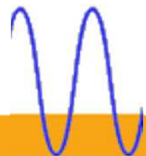


phase velocity

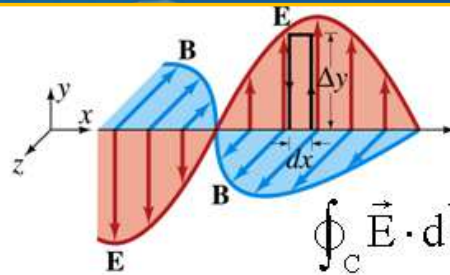
$$v = \frac{\lambda}{T} = f\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{T} \frac{\lambda}{2\pi} = \frac{\omega}{k}$$



$T =$ temporal period



Applying Faraday to radiation



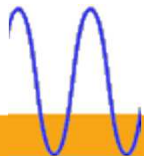
$$\oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

$$\oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = (E + dE)\Delta y - E\Delta y = dE\Delta y$$

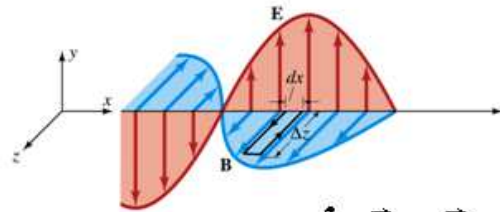
$$\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} = \frac{dB}{dt} dx\Delta y$$

$$dE\Delta y = -\frac{dB}{dt} dx\Delta y$$

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = -\frac{dB}{dt}$$



Applying Ampere to radiation



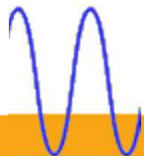
$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\Phi_E}{dt}$$

$$\oint_C \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = B\Delta z - (B + dB)\Delta z = -dB\Delta z$$

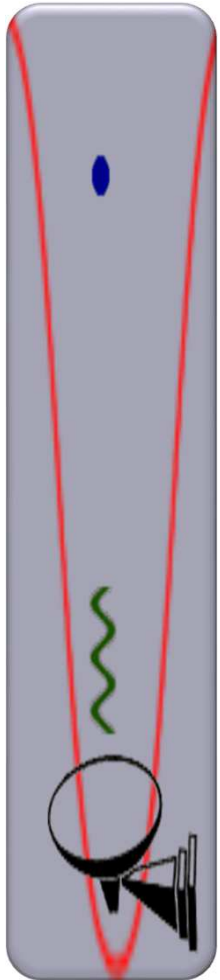
$$\frac{d\Phi_E}{dt} = \frac{dE}{dt} dx \Delta z$$

$$-dB\Delta z = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{dE}{dt} dx \Delta z$$

$$\frac{dB}{dx} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{dE}{dt}$$



Fields are functions of both position (x) and time (t)



Partial derivatives are appropriate

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = -\frac{dB}{dt}$$

$$\frac{dB}{dx} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{dE}{dt}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial B}{\partial t}$$

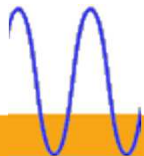
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial B}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial E}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{\partial B}{\partial x} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2}$$

This is a wave equation!



The Trial Solution

The simplest solution to the partial differential equations is a sinusoidal wave:

$$E = E_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

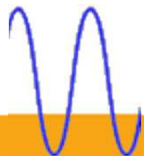
$$B = B_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

The angular wave number is $k = 2\pi/\lambda$

λ is the wavelength

The angular frequency is $\omega = 2\pi f$

f is the wave frequency



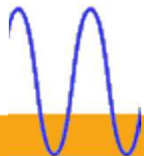
$$E = E_y = E_o \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2} = \mu_o \epsilon_o \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2} = -k^2 E_o \sin(kx - \omega t) \quad \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 E_o \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$-k^2 E_o \sin(kx - \omega t) = -\mu_o \epsilon_o \omega^2 E_o \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\omega^2}{k^2} = \frac{1}{\mu_o \epsilon_o}$$



The speed of light

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

$$v = c = \frac{\omega}{k} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

Another look

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = -\frac{dB}{dt}$$

$$B = B_z = B_0 \sin(kx - \omega t) \quad E = E_y = E_0 \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} E_0 \sin(kx - \omega t) = -\frac{d}{dt} B_0 \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$E_0 k \cos(kx - \omega t) = B_0 \omega \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{E_0}{B_0} = \frac{\omega}{k} = c = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

