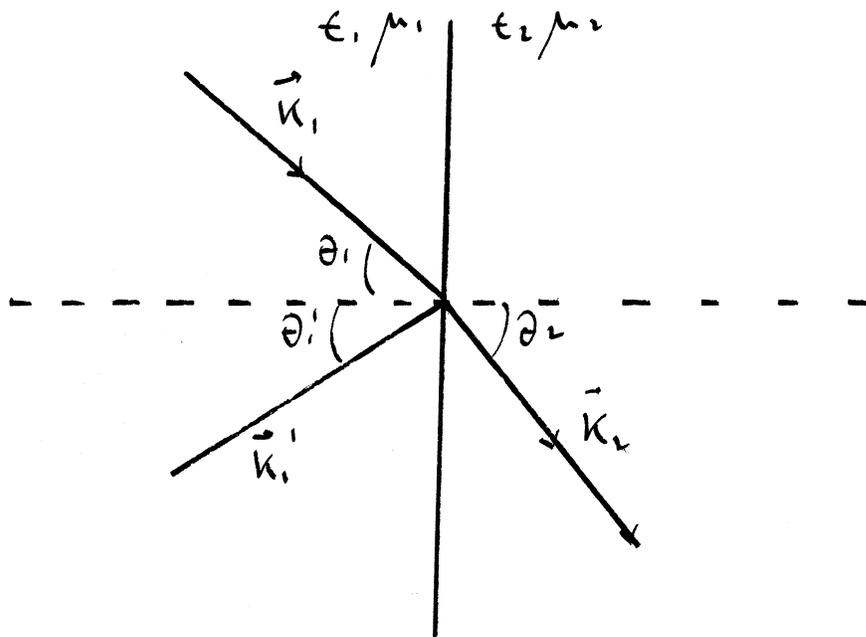


10.4. Reflection & Refraction (continued)

Maxwell's eqs  $\Rightarrow$   $n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$  Snell's law

Note that if  $n_2 < n_1$  the equation

$$\sin \theta_2 = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \sin \theta_1$$

does not have a (real) solution for incident

angles  $\theta > \theta_c = \arcsin \frac{n_2}{n_1}$

This leads to total internal reflection

(applications: optical fibers, diving in a pool, etc.)

See Jackson or Franklin to see what happens to the "transmitted" wave

The electric and magnetic fields of the reflected and refracted components are determined by the junction conditions

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon_1 \hat{n} \cdot (\vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_1') = \epsilon_2 \hat{n} \cdot \vec{E}_2 \\ \sqrt{\epsilon_1 \mu_1} \hat{n} \cdot (\hat{k}_1 \times \vec{E}_1 + \hat{k}_1' \times \vec{E}_1') = \sqrt{\epsilon_2 \mu_2} \hat{n} \cdot (\hat{k}_2 \times \vec{E}_2) \\ \hat{n} \times (\vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_1') = \hat{n} \times \vec{E}_2 \\ \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_1}{\mu_1}} \hat{n} \times (\hat{k}_1 \times \vec{E}_1 + \hat{k}_1' \times \vec{E}_1') = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_2}{\mu_2}} \hat{n} \times (\hat{k}_2 \times \vec{E}_2) \end{array} \right.$$

The amount of reflected and transmitted radiation is described by the reflection and transmission coefficients

$$R \equiv \frac{\hat{n} \cdot \langle \vec{S}_1' \rangle}{\hat{n} \cdot \langle \vec{S}_1 \rangle} \quad ; \quad T \equiv \frac{\hat{n} \cdot \langle \vec{S}_2 \rangle}{\hat{n} \cdot \langle \vec{S}_1 \rangle}$$

where  $\langle \vec{S} \rangle = \frac{c \hat{k}}{8\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\mu}} |\vec{E}|^2$  is averaged electromagnetic energy flow.

$R + T = 1$  follows from Maxwell's eqs.

and expresses conservation of energy.

## Exercise 29

calculate  $T$  for light polarized

- i)  $\perp$  to plane of incidence
- ii)  $\parallel$  " " " "

you'll see that in general  $T_{\parallel} \neq T_{\perp}$ .

Therefore, typically, reflection and refraction produce partially polarized light, even if the incident light is not polarized.

For example: For a wave polarized  $\parallel$  to incident plane,  $R_{\parallel} = 0$  at the Brewster angle

$$\theta_B \approx \arctan \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

$\Rightarrow$  The reflected light is fully polarized, with  $\vec{E} \perp$  to incident plane

Application: Polarized glasses, CMB, ...

## 11. Electromagnetic waves in matter

Thus far we have made simplifying assumptions about the nature of the medium in which waves propagate. We relax in the following some of those assumptions:

### 11.1 Waves in a conducting medium

Consider the propagation of a wave in a conductor. By Ohm's law

$$\vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E}$$

the electric field generates a current, so

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} - \frac{1}{c} \partial_t \vec{D} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{j} \quad \rightarrow \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \mu \sigma \vec{E} + \frac{\mu \epsilon}{c} \partial_t \vec{E}$$

for a plane wave, this becomes

$$i \vec{k} \times \vec{B} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \mu \sigma \vec{E} - \frac{i \mu \epsilon}{c} \omega \vec{E} = -\frac{i \mu \epsilon \omega}{c} \left(1 + i \frac{4\pi \sigma}{\epsilon \omega}\right) \vec{E}$$

Recalling that

$$i \vec{k} \times \vec{E} = i \frac{\omega}{c} \vec{B}$$

we find

$$\frac{c}{\omega} \vec{k} \times (\vec{k} \times \vec{E}) = \frac{c}{\omega} \left( \vec{k} (\vec{k} \cdot \vec{E}) - \vec{E} (\vec{k} \cdot \vec{k}) \right) = -\frac{\mu \epsilon \omega}{c} \left( 1 + i \frac{4\pi\sigma}{\epsilon \omega} \right)$$

|  
bac-cas

or

$$|\vec{k}| = \frac{n\omega}{c} \left( 1 + \frac{i4\pi\sigma}{\epsilon\omega} \right)^{1/2} \in \mathbb{C}$$

↑ wave number in a dielectric.

writing  $|\vec{k}| = \beta + i \frac{\alpha}{2}$ , the electric field

becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E} &= \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)} = \vec{E}_0 \exp \left[ i \hat{k} \left( \beta + i \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \vec{x} - i \omega t \right] = \\ &= \vec{E}_0 \exp \left( -\frac{\alpha}{2} \hat{k} \vec{x} \right) \exp \left[ i \beta \hat{k} \vec{x} - i \omega t \right] \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the wave is exponentially attenuated.

The intensity  $|\vec{E}|^2 \propto e^{-\alpha \hat{k} \vec{x}}$ . Therefore,  $\alpha^{-1}$  is

the attenuation length.

Analogous considerations show that a plane wave

can only penetrate a conductor up to a finite

attenuation length.

### 11.3. Frequency dependence of permittivity

It turns out that our previous assumption that  $\epsilon$  and  $\mu$  do not depend on the frequency of the wave are not always justified.

Consider for instance an  $e^-$  bound to a molecule by a damped harmonic force. Then

$$m \ddot{\vec{x}} = -e \vec{E} - m \gamma \dot{\vec{x}} - m \omega_0^2 \vec{x}$$

$\uparrow$                        $\uparrow$                        $\uparrow$   
electric force          damping force          harmonic (restoring) force.

For static fields, the stationary solution is

$$\vec{x} = \frac{-e \vec{E}}{m \omega_0^2}, \text{ which leads to a}$$

molecular dipole  $\vec{p} = -e \vec{x} = \frac{e^2}{m \omega_0^2} \vec{E}.$

This would lead to a polarization (dipole density)

$$\vec{P} = N \frac{e^2}{m \omega_0^2} \vec{E},$$

when  $N$  is the density of molecules.

We have thus derived that  $\vec{P} = \chi_e \vec{E}$ , as we assumed previously.

If, on the other hand,  $\vec{E} \propto e^{-i\omega t}$ , the ansatz

$\vec{x} \propto e^{-i\omega t}$  leads to

$$-m\omega^2 \vec{x} = -e \vec{E} - m\gamma(-i\omega) \vec{x} - m\omega_0^2 \vec{x}, \text{ or}$$

$$\vec{x} = \frac{-e \vec{E}}{m[\omega_0^2 - \omega^2 - i\omega\gamma]}, \text{ which yields}$$

the dipole moment and Polarization

$$\vec{p} = \frac{e^2}{m} \frac{1}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2 - i\omega\gamma} \vec{E}; \quad \vec{P} = \underbrace{\frac{e^2}{m} \frac{N}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2 - i\omega\gamma}}_{\chi_e} \vec{E}.$$

Therefore  $\epsilon = 1 + 4\pi\chi_e$  is i) frequency-dependent  
ii) complex!

In dielectrics we can typically set  $\mu \approx 1$ , so

that  $n = \sqrt{\epsilon\mu}$  is complex and frequency-dep.  
too!

with  $|\bar{k}| = \frac{n}{c} \omega$ , and  $n = n_R(\omega) + i n_I(\omega)$

$|\bar{k}|$  becomes complex again:

$$|\bar{k}| = \frac{n_R(\omega)}{c} \omega + i \frac{n_I(\omega)}{c} \omega.$$

The imaginary part of  $|\bar{k}|$  leads to attenuation as before  $\Rightarrow$  absorption. Absorption is strongest around resonance,  $\omega = \omega_0$ , where  $\chi_e$  becomes purely imaginary.

The real part of  $|\bar{k}|$  (if frequency dependent) leads to dispersion: different frequency components travel with different phase velocities  $v = \frac{c}{n_R(\omega)}$ .

Thus, the shape of a pulse of radiation deforms with time. This is the familiar phenomenon we saw in QM for a free particle, where

$$\langle x | \psi(t) \rangle \propto e^{-iE(p)t/\hbar} e^{iPx/\hbar}, \quad \text{with } E = \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

A wave packet centered at wave number  $k_0$  then travels at speed (group velocity)

$$v_g = \left. \frac{d\omega}{dk} \right|_{k_0} \neq v_p = \frac{\omega}{k} \quad \text{for}$$

non-linear dispersion relations.

In our context it is more appropriate to regard

$k = |\vec{k}|$  as a function of  $\omega$ . Thus

$$v_g = \frac{1}{\frac{dk}{d\omega}} = \frac{1}{\frac{dnk}{d\omega} \cdot \frac{1}{c} + \frac{nk}{c} \cdot 1} = \frac{c}{nk + \frac{dnk}{d\omega}}$$

Typically  $nk > 1$  and  $\frac{dnk}{d\omega} > 0$ , so  $v_g < c$ ,

though in some materials  $v_g > c$ .

#### 11.4 Causal relation between $\vec{D}$ and $\vec{E}$

With  $\epsilon = \epsilon(\omega)$ , the relation between  $\vec{D}$  and  $\vec{E}$

changes. By definition, in Fourier space we

have

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{D}(\omega) &= \epsilon(\omega) \vec{E}(\omega) \\ &= [1 + \epsilon(\omega) - 1] \vec{E}(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, in real space,

$$\vec{D}(t) = \vec{E}(t) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega (\epsilon(\omega) - 1) \vec{E}(\omega) e^{-i\omega t}.$$

Since  $\vec{E}(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tilde{t} \vec{E}(\tilde{t}) e^{i\omega\tilde{t}}$ , we find

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{D}(t) &= \vec{E}(t) + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega d\tilde{t} [\epsilon(\omega) - 1] \vec{E}(\tilde{t}) e^{i\omega(\tilde{t}-t)} \\ &= \vec{E}(t) + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tilde{t} g(t - \tilde{t}) \vec{E}(\tilde{t}), \end{aligned}$$

where  $g(t - \tilde{t}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega [\epsilon(\omega) - 1] e^{-i\omega(t - \tilde{t})}$  is

the convolution kernel.

Causality demands that  $\vec{D}(t)$  be determined in

terms of  $\vec{E}(\tilde{t})$  for  $\tilde{t} < t$ , but, certainly,

$\vec{D}(t)$  should not depend on  $\vec{E}(\tilde{t})$  with  $\tilde{t} > t$ .

Therefore, causality demands

$$\underline{g(\Delta t) \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad \text{for} \quad \Delta t < 0.}$$