

LECTURE NOTES 7

ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVES IN CONDUCTORS

Inside a conductor, free charges can move/migrate around in response to EM fields contained therein, as we saw for the case of the longitudinal \vec{E} -field inside a current-carrying wire that had a static potential difference ΔV across its ends. Even in the static case of electric charge residing on the surface of a conductor, we saw that $\vec{E}_{inside}(\vec{r}) = 0$, but recall that this actually means (as we showed last semester) that the NET electric field inside the conductor is zero, i.e. $\vec{E}_{inside}^{NET}(\vec{r}) = 0$.

n.b. here, we assume {for simplicity's sake} that the conductor is linear/homogeneous/isotropic – i.e. no crystalline structure/no anisotropies/no inhomogenities/no non-uniformities/no voids/no defects...

From Ohm's Law, we know that the free current density $\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t)$ is proportional to the (ambient) electric field inside the conductor: $\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \sigma_c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)$ where σ_c = conductivity of the metal conductor ($Siemens/m = Ohm^{-1}/m$) and $\sigma_c = 1/\rho_c$ where ρ_c = resistivity of the metal conductor ($Ohm \cdot m$).

Thus inside such a conductor, we can assume that the linear/homogeneous/isotropic conducting medium has electric permittivity ϵ and magnetic permeability μ . Maxwell's equations inside such a conductor {with $\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \neq 0$ } are thus:

$1) \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) / \epsilon$	$2) \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = 0$	Using Ohm's Law: $\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \sigma_c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)$
$3) \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$	$4) \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \mu \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) + \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \mu \sigma_c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) + \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$	

Electric charge is (always) conserved, thus the continuity equation inside the conductor is:

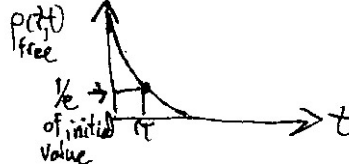
$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = - \frac{\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$	but: $\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \sigma_c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)$	
$\therefore \sigma_c (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)) = - \frac{\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$	but: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) / \epsilon$	
<u>thus:</u> $\frac{\sigma_c \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\epsilon} = - \frac{\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$	<u>or:</u> $\frac{\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon} \right) \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = 0$	1^{st} order linear, homogeneous differential equation

The {physical} general solution of this differential equation for the free charge density is of the form:

$$\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t=0) e^{-\sigma_c t / \epsilon} = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t=0) e^{-t / \tau_{relax}} \quad \text{i.e. a damped exponential!!!}$$

Thus, the continuity equation $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = -\partial \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) / \partial t$ inside a conductor tells us that any free charge density $\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t=0)$ initially present at time $t=0$ is exponentially damped / dissipated in a characteristic time $\tau_{relax} \equiv \epsilon / \sigma_C =$ charge relaxation time {aka time constant}, such that:

$$\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t=0) e^{-\sigma_C t / \epsilon} = \rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t=0) e^{-t / \tau_{relax}}$$



Calculation of the Charge Relaxation Time for Pure Copper:

$$\rho_{Cu} = 1 / \sigma_{Cu} = 1.68 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot m \Rightarrow \sigma_{Cu} = 1 / \rho_{Cu} = 5.95 \times 10^7 \text{ Siemens/m}$$

If we assume $\epsilon_{Cu} \approx 3\epsilon_o = 3 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/m}$ for copper metal, then:

$$\tau_{Cu}^{relax} = \epsilon_{Cu} / \sigma_{Cu} = \rho_{Cu} \epsilon_{Cu} = 4.5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ sec} \quad !!!$$

However, recall that the characteristic/mean collision time of free electrons in pure copper is $\tau_{Cu}^{coll} \approx \lambda_{Cu}^{coll} / v_{thermal}^{Cu}$ where $\lambda_{Cu}^{coll} \approx 3.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}$ = mean free path (between successive collisions) in pure copper, and $v_{thermal}^{Cu} \approx \sqrt{3k_B T / m_e} \approx 12 \times 10^5 \text{ m/sec}$ and thus we obtain $\tau_{coll}^{Cu} \approx 3.2 \times 10^{-13} \text{ sec}$.

Hence we see that the calculated charge relaxation time in pure copper, $\tau_{Cu}^{relax} \approx 4.5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ sec}$ is \ll than the calculated collision time in pure copper, $\tau_{coll}^{Cu} \approx 3.2 \times 10^{-13} \text{ sec}$.

Furthermore, the experimentally measured charge relaxation time in pure copper is $\tau_{Cu}^{relax}(\text{exp't}) \approx 4.0 \times 10^{-14} \text{ sec}$, which is ≈ 5 orders of magnitude larger than the calculated charge relaxation time $\tau_{Cu}^{relax} \approx 4.5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ sec}$. The problem here is that {the macroscopic} Ohm's Law is simply out of its range of validity on such short time scales! Two additional facts here are that both ϵ and σ_C are frequency-dependent quantities { i.e. $\epsilon = \epsilon(\omega)$ and $\sigma_C = \sigma_C(\omega)$ }, which becomes increasingly important at the higher frequencies ($f = 2\pi/\omega \sim 1/\tau_{relax}$) associated with short time-scale, transient-type phenomena!

So in reality, if we are willing to wait even a short time (e.g. $\Delta t \sim 1 \text{ ps} = 10^{-12} \text{ sec}$) then any initial free charge density $\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t=0)$ accumulated inside the conductor at $t=0$ will have dissipated away/damped out, and from that time onwards, $\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t) = 0$ can be safely assumed.

Thus, after many charge relaxation time constants, *e.g.* $20\tau_{relax} \leq \Delta t \approx 1 \text{ ps} = 10^{-12} \text{ sec}$, then Maxwell's equations for a conductor become {with $\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t \geq \Delta t) = 0$ from then onwards}:

1) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = 0$	2) $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = 0$	Maxwell's equations for a <u>charge-equilibrated</u> conductor
3) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$	4) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \mu\sigma_c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) + \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \mu \left(\sigma_c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) + \epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} \right)$	

Now because these equations are different from the previous derivation(s) of monochromatic plane *EM* waves propagating in free space/vacuum and/or in linear/homogeneous/isotropic non-conducting materials {*n.b.* only equation 4) has changed}, we re-derive the wave equations for \vec{E} & \vec{B} from scratch. As before, we apply $\vec{\nabla} \times ()$ to equations 3) and 4):

$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B})$	$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = \mu \left(\sigma_c (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) \right) + \epsilon \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E})$
$= \vec{\nabla} \left(\cancel{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}} \right) - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\mu\sigma_c \vec{E} + \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \right)$	$= \vec{\nabla} \left(\cancel{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}} \right) - \nabla^2 \vec{B} = -\mu\sigma_c \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} - \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2}$
$= \nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} + \mu\sigma_c \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$	$= \nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2} + \mu\sigma_c \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$
<u>Again:</u> $\nabla^2 \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t^2} + \mu\sigma_c \frac{\partial \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$	<u>and:</u> $\nabla^2 \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t^2} + \mu\sigma_c \frac{\partial \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$

Note that these 3-D wave equations for \vec{E} and \vec{B} in a conductor have an additional term that has a single time derivative – which is analogous to a velocity-dependent damping term, *e.g.* for a mechanical harmonic oscillator.

The general solution(s) to the above wave equations are usually in the form of an oscillatory function * a damping term (*i.e.* a decaying exponential) – in the direction of the propagation of the *EM* wave, *e.g.* complex plane-wave type solutions for \vec{E} and \vec{B} associated with the above wave equation(s) are of the general form:

$\tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{E}}_o e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)}$	and:	$\tilde{\vec{B}}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{B}}_o e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)} = \left(\frac{\tilde{k}}{\omega} \right) \hat{k} \times \tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t) = \frac{1}{\omega} \tilde{k} \times \tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t)$
--	------	---

with {frequency-dependent} complex wave number: $\tilde{k}(\omega) = k(\omega) + i\kappa(\omega)$

where $k(\omega) = \Re(\tilde{k}(\omega))$ and $\kappa(\omega) = \Im(\tilde{k}(\omega))$ and corresponding complex wave vector

$\tilde{\vec{k}}(\omega) = \tilde{k}(\omega) \hat{k} = \tilde{k}(\omega) \hat{z}$ (in the $+\hat{z}$ direction here), *i.e.* $\tilde{\vec{k}}(\omega) = (k(\omega) + i\kappa(\omega)) \hat{z}$.

We plug $\tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{E}}_0 e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)}$ and $\tilde{\vec{B}}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{B}}_0 e^{i(\tilde{k}z - \omega t)}$ into their respective wave equations above, and obtain from each wave equation the same/identical characteristic equation – {aka a dispersion relation} between complex $\tilde{k}(\omega)$ and ω {please work this out yourselves!}:

$$\tilde{k}^2(\omega) = \mu\epsilon\omega^2 + i\mu\sigma_c\omega$$

Thus, since $\tilde{k}(\omega) = k(\omega) + i\kappa(\omega)$, then:

$$\tilde{k}^2(\omega) = (k(\omega) + i\kappa(\omega))^2 = k^2(\omega) - \kappa^2(\omega) + 2ik(\omega)\kappa(\omega) = \mu\epsilon\omega^2 + i\mu\sigma_c\omega$$

If we {temporarily} suppress the ω -dependence of complex $\tilde{k}(\omega)$, this relation becomes:

$$\tilde{k}^2 = (k + i\kappa)^2 = k^2 - \kappa^2 + 2ik\kappa = \mu\epsilon\omega^2 + i\mu\sigma_c\omega$$

We can solve this relation to determine $k(\omega) = \Re(\tilde{k}(\omega))$ and $\kappa(\omega) = \Im(\tilde{k}(\omega))$ as follows: First, separate this relation into two relations – i.e. separate out its real and imaginary parts:

$$k^2 - \kappa^2 = \mu\epsilon\omega^2 \quad \text{and:} \quad 2ik\kappa = i\mu\sigma_c\omega \quad \text{or:} \quad 2k\kappa = \mu\sigma_c\omega$$

We thus have two {separate/independent} equations $k^2 - \kappa^2 = \mu\epsilon\omega^2$ and $2k\kappa = \mu\sigma_c\omega$, and we have two unknowns (k and κ). Hence, we can solve these equations simultaneously!

From the latter relation, we see that: $\kappa = \frac{1}{2}\mu\sigma_c\omega/k$. Plug this result into the other relation:

$$k^2 - \kappa^2 = k^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\mu\sigma_c\omega/k\right)^2 = k^2 - \frac{1}{k^2}\left(\frac{1}{2}\mu\sigma_c\omega\right)^2 = \mu\epsilon\omega^2$$

Then multiply by k^2 and rearrange the terms to obtain the following relation:

$$k^4 - (\mu\epsilon\omega^2)k^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\mu\sigma_c\omega\right)^2 = 0$$

This may look like a scary equation to try to solve (i.e. a quartic equation - eeekkk!), but it's actually just a quadratic equation!

Define: $x \equiv k^2$, $a \equiv 1$, $b \equiv -(\mu\epsilon\omega^2)$ and $c \equiv -\left(\frac{1}{2}\mu\sigma_c\omega\right)^2$, then this equation becomes

“the usual” quadratic equation, of the form: $x^2 + bx + c = 0$, with solution(s)/root(s):

$$x = \frac{-b \mp \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \quad \text{or:} \quad k^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[+(\mu\epsilon\omega^2) \mp \sqrt{(\mu\epsilon\omega^2)^2 + 4\left(\frac{1}{2}\mu\sigma_c\omega\right)^2} \right]$$

This can be rewritten as:

$$k^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\mu\epsilon\omega^2) \left[1 \mp \sqrt{1 + \frac{(\cancel{\mu^2}\sigma_c^2\cancel{\omega^2})}{\cancel{\mu^2}\epsilon^2\omega^4}} \right] = \frac{1}{2}(\mu\epsilon\omega^2) \left[1 \mp \sqrt{1 + \frac{(\sigma_c^2)}{(\epsilon^2\omega^2)}} \right] = \frac{1}{2}(\mu\epsilon\omega^2) \left[1 \mp \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} \right]$$

Now we can see that on physical grounds ($k^2 > 0$), we must select the + sign, hence:

$$k^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\mu\epsilon\omega^2) \left[1 + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} \right] \text{ and thus: } k = \sqrt{k^2} = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[1 + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} \right]^{1/2} = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} + 1 \right]^{1/2}$$

Having thus solved for k (or equivalently, k^2), then we can use either of our original two relations to solve for κ , e.g. $k^2 - \kappa^2 = \mu\epsilon\omega^2$, then:

$$\kappa^2 = k^2 - \mu\epsilon\omega^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\mu\epsilon\omega^2) \left[1 + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} \right] - \mu\epsilon\omega^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\mu\epsilon\omega^2) \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} - 1 \right]$$

Thus, we obtain:

$$k(\omega) = \Re(\tilde{k}(\omega)) = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} + 1 \right]^{1/2} \text{ and: } \kappa(\omega) = \Im(\tilde{k}(\omega)) = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} - 1 \right]^{1/2}$$

Note that the imaginary part of \tilde{k} , $\kappa = \Im(\tilde{k})$ results in an exponential attenuation/damping of the monochromatic plane *EM* wave with increasing z :

$$\tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{E}}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \text{ and: } \tilde{\vec{B}}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{B}}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} = \frac{1}{\omega} \tilde{\vec{k}} \times \tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t) = \frac{1}{\omega} \tilde{\vec{k}} \times \tilde{\vec{E}}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$

n.b. these solutions satisfy the above wave equations for any choice of $\tilde{\vec{E}}_o$.

The characteristic distance over which \vec{E} and \vec{B} are attenuated/reduced to $1/e = e^{-1} = 0.3679$ of their initial values (at $z = 0$) is known as the skin depth, $\delta_{sc}(\omega) \equiv 1/\kappa(\omega)$ (SI units: meters).

$$i.e. \quad \delta_{sc}(\omega) = \frac{1}{\kappa(\omega)} = \frac{1}{\omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} - 1 \right]^{1/2}} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \tilde{\vec{E}}(z = \delta_{sc}, t) = \tilde{\vec{E}}_o e^{-1} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \\ \tilde{\vec{B}}(z = \delta_{sc}, t) = \tilde{\vec{B}}_o e^{-1} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \end{cases}$$

The real part of \tilde{k} , i.e. $k(\omega) = \Re(\tilde{k}(\omega))$ determines the spatial wavelength $\lambda(\omega)$, the propagation speed $v(\omega)$ of the monochromatic *EM* plane wave in the conductor, and also the index of refraction:

$$\lambda(\omega) = \frac{2\pi}{k(\omega)} = \frac{2\pi}{\Re(\tilde{k}(\omega))}$$

$$v(\omega) = \frac{\omega}{k(\omega)} = \frac{\omega}{\Re(\tilde{k}(\omega))}$$

$$\text{and: } n(\omega) = \frac{c}{v(\omega)} = \frac{ck(\omega)}{\omega} = \frac{c\Re(\tilde{k}(\omega))}{\omega}$$

The above plane wave solutions satisfy the above wave equations(s) for any choice of \tilde{E}_o . As we have also seen before, it can similarly be shown here that Maxwell's equations 1) and 2) ($\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$ and $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$) rule out the presence of any {longitudinal} z -components for \vec{E} and \vec{B} (for *EM* waves propagating in the $+\hat{z}$ -direction) $\Rightarrow \vec{E}$ and \vec{B} are purely transverse waves (as before), even in a conductor!

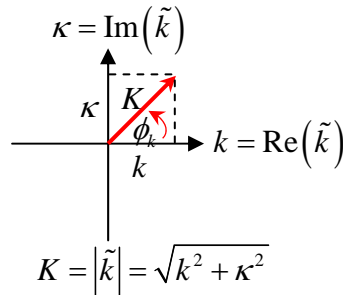
If we consider e.g. a linearly polarized monochromatic plane *EM* wave propagating in the $+\hat{z}$ -direction in a conducting medium, e.g. $\tilde{E}(z, t) = \tilde{E}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{x}$, then:

$$\tilde{B}(z, t) = \frac{1}{\omega} \tilde{k} \times \tilde{E}(z, t) = \left(\frac{\tilde{k}}{\omega} \right) \tilde{E}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{y} = \left(\frac{k + i\kappa}{\omega} \right) \tilde{E}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{E}(z, t) \perp \tilde{B}(z, t) \perp \hat{z} \quad (+\hat{z} = \text{propagation direction})$$

The complex wavenumber $\tilde{k} = k + i\kappa = Ke^{i\phi}$ where: $K \equiv |\tilde{k}| = \sqrt{k^2 + \kappa^2}$ and $\phi_k \equiv \tan^{-1}(\kappa/k)$

In the complex \tilde{k} -plane:



Then we see that: $\tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t) = \tilde{E}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{x}$ has: $\tilde{E}_o = E_o e^{i\delta_E}$ $\rightarrow \tilde{k} = K e^{i\phi_k} \rightarrow$

and that: $\tilde{\vec{B}}(z, t) = \tilde{B}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{y} = \frac{\tilde{k}}{\omega} \tilde{E}_o e^{-\kappa z} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{y}$ has: $\tilde{B}_o = B_o e^{i\delta_B} = \frac{\tilde{k}}{\omega} \tilde{E}_o = \frac{K e^{i\phi_k}}{\omega} E_o e^{i\delta_E}$

Thus, we see that: $B_o e^{i\delta_B} = \frac{K e^{i\phi_k}}{\omega} E_o e^{i\delta_E} = \frac{K}{\omega} E_o e^{i(\delta_E + \phi_k)} = \frac{\sqrt{k^2 + \kappa^2}}{\omega} E_o e^{i(\delta_E + \phi_k)}$

i.e., inside a conductor, \vec{E} and \vec{B} are no longer in phase with each other!!!

Phases of \vec{E} and \vec{B} : $\delta_B = \delta_E + \phi_k$

With phase difference: $\Delta\varphi_{B-E} \equiv \delta_B - \delta_E = \phi_k \Leftarrow$ magnetic field **lags** behind electric field!!!

We also see that: $\frac{B_o}{E_o} = \frac{K}{\omega} = \left[\varepsilon\mu \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\varepsilon\omega} \right)^2} \right]^{1/2} \neq \frac{1}{c}$

The real/physical \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields associated with linearly polarized monochromatic plane EM waves propagating in a conducting medium are exponentially damped:

$\vec{E}(z, t) = \Re e \left(\tilde{\vec{E}}(z, t) \right) = E_o e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_E) \hat{x}$ $\rightarrow \delta_B = \delta_E + \phi_k \rightarrow$

$\vec{B}(z, t) = \Re e \left(\tilde{\vec{B}}(z, t) \right) = B_o e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_B) \hat{y} = B_o e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \{\delta_E + \phi_k\}) \hat{y}$

$\frac{B_o}{E_o} = \frac{K(\omega)}{\omega} = \left[\varepsilon\mu \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\varepsilon\omega} \right)^2} \right]^{1/2}$ where $K(\omega) \equiv |\tilde{k}(\omega)| = \sqrt{k^2(\omega) + \kappa^2(\omega)} = \omega \left[\varepsilon\mu \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\varepsilon\omega} \right)^2} \right]^{1/2}$

$\delta_B = \delta_E + \phi_k$, $\phi_k(\omega) \equiv \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\kappa(\omega)}{k(\omega)} \right)$ and $\tilde{k}(\omega) = (k(\omega) + i\kappa(\omega)) \hat{z}$, $\tilde{k}(\omega) = |\tilde{k}(\omega)| = k(\omega) + i\kappa(\omega)$

Definition of the **skin depth** $\delta_{sc}(\omega)$ in a conductor:

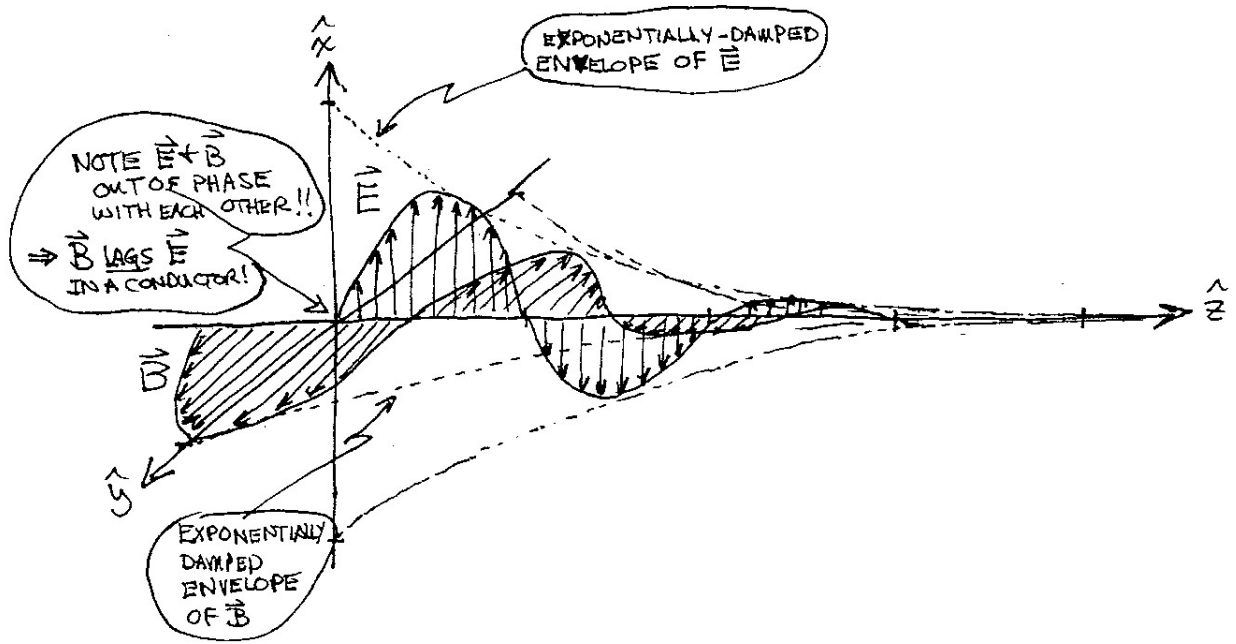
$\delta_{sc}(\omega) \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa(\omega)} = \frac{1}{\omega \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon\mu}{2} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\varepsilon\omega} \right)^2} - 1 \right]^{1/2}}} =$

Distance over which the \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields fall to $1/e = e^{-1} = 0.3679$ of their initial values.

The instantaneous power per unit volume in the conductor {ultimately dissipated as heat!} is:

$p(z, t) = \vec{J}(z, t) \cdot \vec{E}(z, t) = \sigma_c \vec{E}(z, t) \cdot \vec{E}(z, t) = \sigma_c E^2(z, t) = E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E) \text{ (Watts/m}^3\text{)}$

The time-averaged power per unit volume in the conductor is thus: $\langle p(z, t) \rangle_t = \frac{1}{2} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$



Special/Limiting Cases:

a) **Good conductors:** $\sigma_c \gg \epsilon\omega$ Conductivity of good conductor $\sigma_c \rightarrow \infty$ (i.e. $\rho_c = 1/\sigma_c \rightarrow 0$).

Since $\tilde{k} = k + ik$ and $\sigma_c \gg \epsilon\omega$, i.e. $\left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega} \gg 1\right)$ then:

$$k \equiv \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} + 1 \right]^{1/2} \approx \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} \right]^{1/2} \approx \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}} \right]^{1/2} = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\cancel{\epsilon} \mu \sigma_c}{2 \cancel{\epsilon} \omega}} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega \mu \sigma_c}{2}}$$

and:

$$\kappa \equiv \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} - 1 \right]^{1/2} \approx \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} \right]^{1/2} \approx \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}} \right]^{1/2} = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\cancel{\epsilon} \mu \sigma_c}{2 \cancel{\epsilon} \omega}} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega \mu \sigma_c}{2}}$$

\therefore In a good conductor $\sigma_c \gg \epsilon\omega$:

$$k(\omega) \approx \kappa(\omega) \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega \mu \sigma_c}{2}} \quad \text{and skin depth:} \quad \delta_{sc}(\omega) \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa(\omega)} \approx \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega \mu \sigma_c}}.$$

FORMULAS FOR EM WAVE PROPAGATION IN A GOOD CONDUCTOR

$$k(\omega) \approx \kappa(\omega) \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu\sigma_c}{2}}$$

and:

$$\delta_{sc}(\omega) = \text{skin depth} \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa(\omega)} \approx \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega\mu\sigma_c}}$$

Wavenumber, $k(\omega) \equiv \frac{2\pi}{\lambda(\omega)} \Rightarrow \lambda(\omega) = \frac{2\pi}{k(\omega)} \approx \frac{2\pi}{\kappa(\omega)} = 2\pi\delta_{sc}(\omega) = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega\mu\sigma_c}}$

n.b. in a perfect conductor: $\sigma_c = \infty$

$$\Rightarrow k(\omega) \approx \kappa(\omega) = \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu\sigma_c}{2}} = \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda(\omega) = \frac{2\pi}{k(\omega)} = 0$$

$$\delta_{sc}(\omega) = \frac{1}{\kappa(\omega)} \approx \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega\mu\sigma_c}} = 0$$

$$\phi_k(\omega) \equiv (\delta_B - \delta_E) \equiv \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\kappa(\omega)}{k(\omega)}\right) \approx \tan^{-1}(1)$$

But: $\tan^{-1}(1) = 45^\circ = \frac{\pi}{4}$

$$\Rightarrow \phi = \delta_B - \delta_E = 45^\circ = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$\Rightarrow \vec{B}$ lags \vec{E} by $\approx 45^\circ$ in a good conductor.

n.b. In a perfect conductor: $\sigma_c = \infty, \phi \equiv 45^\circ = \frac{\pi}{4}$

In a typical good conductor (e.g. gold/silver/copper/...): $(\sigma_c/\varepsilon\omega) \gg 1$

For optical frequencies/visible light region: $\omega \approx 10^{16}$ radians/sec. A good conductor typically has $\sigma_c \approx 10^7$ Siemens/m and $\varepsilon \approx 3\varepsilon_o$, and at optical frequencies: $(\sigma_c/\varepsilon\omega) \approx 37.7 \gg 1$ is satisfied.

If the conductor is non-magnetic (e.g. copper, aluminum, gold, silver, platinum... etc.)

$\Rightarrow \mu \approx \mu_o = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ Henrys/m.

Then: $k(\omega) \approx \kappa(\omega) \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu\sigma_c}{2}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu_o\sigma_c}{2}} = \left[\frac{10^{16} \times 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \times 10^7}{2} \right]^{1/2} \approx 2.51 \times 10^8 \text{ radians/m}$

And: $\lambda(\omega) = 2\pi/k(\omega) = \text{wavelength in good conductor} \approx 2.51 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m} = 25.1 \text{ nm}$

cf w/ vacuum wavelength: $\lambda_o = \frac{2\pi}{k_o} = \frac{2\pi c}{\omega} = \frac{c}{f} \approx \frac{2\pi \times 3 \times 10^8}{10^{16}} = 1.885 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} = 188.5 \text{ nm}$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda(\omega) \approx 25.1 \text{ nm} \left(\text{good conductor} \right) \ll \lambda_o = 188.5 \text{ nm} \left(\text{vacuum wavelength} \right)$$

Vacuum/conductor λ -ratio: $\left(\frac{\lambda_o}{\lambda(\omega)} \right) = \frac{188.5 \text{ nm}}{25.1 \text{ nm}} \approx 7.52$ at optical frequencies, $\omega \approx 10^{16}$ rad/sec.

Skin depth: $\delta_{sc}(\omega) = \frac{1}{\kappa(\omega)} \approx \frac{\lambda(\omega)}{2\pi} \approx 4.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m} = 4.0 \text{ nm} !!!$

\Rightarrow This explains why metals are opaque at optical frequencies, $\omega \approx 10^{16}$ radians/sec
{and also explains why/how silvered sunglasses work!}

Compare these results for *EM* waves propagating in conductors at optical frequencies to those for *EM* waves propagating in conductors, but with very low frequencies – e.g. the AC line frequency, $f_{AC} = 60 \text{ Hz} \Rightarrow \omega_{AC} = 2\pi f_{AC} = 120\pi \text{ rad/sec}$, where the criterion for a good conductor, $(\sigma_C/\epsilon\omega) \approx 10^{15} \gg 1$ is certainly well-satisfied:

$$\text{At } f = 60\text{Hz: } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} k_{AC} \approx \kappa_{AC} \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu\sigma_C}{2}} = \left[\frac{120\pi \times 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \times 10^7}{2} \right] = 48.7 \text{ radians/m} \\ \lambda_{AC} = \frac{2\pi}{k} = 0.129 \text{ m} = 12.9 \text{ cm} \\ \lambda_{oAC} = 5 \times 10^6 \text{ m}!! \\ \frac{\lambda_{oAC}}{\lambda_{AC}} = \frac{5 \times 10^6 \text{ m}}{0.129 \text{ m}} \approx 3.87 \times 10^7 !! \\ 60 \text{ Hz AC skin depth: } \delta_{sc}^{AC} = \frac{\lambda_{AC}}{2\pi} \approx 2.05 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m} = 2.05 \text{ cm}!! \end{array} \right.$$

\Rightarrow Need at least $3\text{-}4 \times \delta_{sc} \approx \text{several} \rightarrow 10 \text{ cm}$ to screen out unwanted 60 Hz AC signals !!

Instantaneous EM Wave Energy Densities in a Good Conductor:

$$u_{EM} = u_E^{EM} + u_M^{EM} = \left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2 \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2\mu} B^2 \right) = \left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon \vec{E} \cdot \vec{E} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2\mu} \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B} \right)$$

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\epsilon\omega} \right) \gg 1$$

$$\phi_k \equiv (\delta_B - \delta_E) \approx \frac{\pi}{4} = 45^\circ$$

{in a good conductor}

$$\vec{E}(z, t) = E_o e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_E) \hat{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{B}(z, t) = B_o e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_E + \phi) \hat{y}$$

Where: $B_o = \frac{K(\omega)}{\omega} E_o = \left[\epsilon\mu \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\epsilon\omega} \right)^2} \right]^{1/2} E_o \approx \sqrt{\frac{\mu\sigma_C}{\omega}} E_o$ for a good conductor,

And: $k(\omega) \approx \kappa(\omega) \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu\sigma_C}{2}},$

$$v(\omega) = \frac{\omega}{k(\omega)} \approx \frac{\omega}{\sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu\sigma_C}{2}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\omega}{\omega\sigma_C}} = \frac{c}{n(\omega)} \text{ for a good conductor.}$$

Then:

$$u_E^{EM}(z, t) = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2 = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \vec{E} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E) \quad \text{and:}$$

$$u_M^{EM}(z, t) = \frac{1}{2\mu} B^2 = \frac{1}{2\mu} \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{1}{2\mu} B_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E + \phi_k) \approx \frac{\sigma_C}{2\omega} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E + \phi_k)$$

Time-averaging these quantities over one complete cycle: $\langle u(z, t) \rangle \equiv \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^\tau u(z, t) dt$

$$\langle u_E^{EM}(z, t) \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \underbrace{\frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^\tau \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E) d\tau}_{=\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{4} \varepsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$$

$$\langle u_M^{EM}(z, t) \rangle = \frac{\sigma_C}{2\omega} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \underbrace{\frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^\tau \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E + \phi_k) d\tau}_{=\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\omega} \right) E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$$

$$\therefore \langle u_{Tot}^{EM}(z, t) \rangle = \langle u_E^{EM}(z, t) \rangle + \langle u_M^{EM}(z, t) \rangle = \frac{1}{4} \varepsilon \left(1 + \frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right) E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \quad n.b. \text{ Exponentially attenuated in } z !!!$$

But: $\left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right) \gg 1$ for a good conductor, $\Rightarrow \langle u_{Tot}^{EM}(z, t) \rangle \approx \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right) \left[\frac{1}{2} \varepsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \right]$

i.e. the ratio: $\frac{\langle u_M^{EM}(z, t) \rangle}{\langle u_E^{EM}(z, t) \rangle} = \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right) \gg 1$ or $\langle u_M^{EM}(z, t) \rangle \gg \langle u_E^{EM}(z, t) \rangle$ for a good conductor.

\Rightarrow Vast majority of *EM* wave energy is carried by the magnetic field in a good conductor !!!

Poynting's Vector: $\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\mu} \vec{E} \times \vec{B} \Rightarrow \langle \vec{S}(z, t) \rangle = \frac{1}{\mu} \langle \vec{E} \times \vec{B} \rangle = \frac{1}{2\mu} E_o B_o e^{-2\kappa z} \cos \phi_k \hat{z} \quad \leftarrow \phi_k = \frac{\pi}{4}$

EM wave intensity (aka irradiance): $I(z) = \langle |\vec{S}(z, t)| \rangle = \frac{1}{2\mu} E_o B_o e^{-2\kappa z} \cos \phi_k = \frac{1}{2\mu} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \left(\frac{K}{\omega} \cos \phi_k \right)$

But: $\frac{K \cos \phi}{\omega} = \frac{k}{\omega} \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega \mu \sigma_C}{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu \sigma_C}{2\omega}} \therefore I(z) = \langle |\vec{S}(z, t)| \rangle = \frac{1}{2\mu} \left(\frac{k}{\omega} \right) E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_C}{2\mu \omega}} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$

b.) Special/Limiting Case of a Fair Conductor: $\sigma_C \approx \varepsilon \omega \Rightarrow$ Must use exact formulae!

c.) Special/Limiting Case of a Poor Conductor: (i.e. an insulator):

Here: $\sigma_C \ll \varepsilon \omega$, i.e. $\left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right) \ll 1$. Conductivity of poor conductor: $\sigma_C \rightarrow 0$ (i.e. $\rho_C = 1/\sigma_C \rightarrow \infty$).

Complex wavenumber: $\tilde{k} = k + i\kappa$, with $k = \text{Re}(\tilde{k})$ and $\kappa = \text{Im}(\tilde{k})$.

$$k(\omega) \equiv \omega \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon \mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right)^2} + 1 \right]^{1/2} \approx \omega \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon \mu}{2}} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right)^2 + 1 \right]^{1/2} = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon \mu}{2}} \left[2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{\varepsilon \omega} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} \approx \omega \sqrt{\varepsilon \mu}$$

$\therefore k(\omega) \approx \omega \sqrt{\varepsilon \mu}$ for a poor conductor.

Likewise:

$$\kappa(\omega) \equiv \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2} - 1 \right]^{1/2} \approx \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{2}} \left[\cancel{\lambda} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right)^2 - \cancel{\lambda} \right]^{1/2} = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu\sigma_c^2}{4\epsilon^2\omega^2}} \approx \frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}}$$

$$\therefore \kappa(\omega) \approx \frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \text{ for a } \underline{\text{poor}} \text{ conductor.}$$

In a poor conductor $\left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right) \ll 1$, the ratio: $\left(\frac{\kappa(\omega)}{k(\omega)}\right) \approx \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}}}{\omega \sqrt{\epsilon\mu}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega}\right) \ll 1$ i.e. $\kappa(\omega) \ll k(\omega)$.

\Rightarrow Complex wavenumber $\tilde{k} \equiv k + i\kappa$ is primarily real, because $\kappa \ll k$ in a poor conductor.

Phase angle in a poor conductor: $\phi_k \equiv \delta_B - \delta_E = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\kappa(\omega)}{k(\omega)} \right) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega} \right) \right) \approx \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega} \right) \ll 1$

$\Rightarrow \delta_B = \delta_E + \phi_k \approx \delta_E$, i.e. \vec{B} and \vec{E} are nearly in phase with each other in a poor conductor (i.e. losses very small in a poor conductor).

In a typical poor conductor, e.g. pure water:

Water has a huge static electric permittivity (due to permanent electric dipole moment of water molecule): $\epsilon_{H_2O} \approx 81\epsilon_o$ (at zero Hz, i.e. $f = 0$) (at $P = 1 \text{ ATM}$ and $T = 20^\circ \text{C}$), however, at optical frequencies ($\omega \approx 10^{16} \text{ rad/sec}$): $\epsilon_{H_2O}(\omega) \approx 1.777\epsilon_o$, where $\epsilon_o = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ Farads/m}$.

Since water is non-magnetic: $\mu_{H_2O} \approx \mu_o = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ Henrys/m}$

\Rightarrow index of refraction: $n_{H_2O}(\omega) = \sqrt{\epsilon_{H_2O}(\omega) \mu_{H_2O} / \epsilon_o \mu_o} \approx 1.333$ at optical frequencies.

The conductivity of pure water is: $\sigma_C^{H_2O} = 1/\rho_C^{H_2O} \approx 1/2.5 \times 10^5 \Omega\text{-m} = 4.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Siemens/m}$ (at $P = 1 \text{ ATM}$ and $T = 20^\circ \text{C}$). Thus, the criteria for a poor conductor ($\sigma_c/\epsilon\omega \approx 2.54 \times 10^{-11} \ll 1$) is certainly satisfied at optical frequencies.

The wavenumber in pure H_2O at optical frequencies is:

$$k_{H_2O}(\omega) \approx \omega \sqrt{\epsilon\mu} \approx \omega \sqrt{\epsilon\mu_o} = 10^{16} \sqrt{1.777 \times 8.85 \times 4\pi \times 10^{-7}} \approx 4.45 \times 10^7 \text{ radians/m}$$

The wavelength in pure H_2O is: $\lambda_{H_2O} = 2\pi/k_{H_2O} = 1.413 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} = 141.3 \text{ nm}$ at optical frequencies.
 cf w/ the vacuum wavelength: $\lambda_o = c/f = 2\pi c/\omega = 1.885 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} = 188.5 \text{ nm}$

Note that the optical wavelength ratio: $\left(\frac{\lambda_o}{\lambda_{H_2O}} \right) = \frac{188.5 \text{ nm}}{141.3 \text{ nm}} = 1.333 = n_{H_2O}$,

since $\lambda_{H_2O} = \lambda_o / n_{H_2O}$ in a poor conductor!!!

Skin depth: $\delta_{sc}(\omega) \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa(\omega)} \approx \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\mu/\epsilon}}$ for a poor conductor $\left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon \omega} \right) \ll 1$.

For pure H_2O at optical frequencies:

$$\kappa_{H_2O}(\omega) \approx \frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \approx \frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu_o}{\epsilon}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2.5 \times 10^5} \right) \sqrt{\frac{4\pi \times 10^{-7}}{1.777 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12}}} \approx 5.65 \times 10^{-4} \text{ rad/m}$$

$\delta_{sc}^{H_2O}(\omega) \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa_{H_2O}} = 1.7688 \times 10^3 \text{ m} = 1.77 \text{ km}$	<i>n.b.</i> neglects/ignores <u>Rayleigh scattering</u> process – visible light photons <u>elastically</u> scattering off of H_2O molecules. $\lambda_{atten}^{vis} \approx 10 \text{ m}$
--	--

Ratio: $\left(\frac{\kappa_{H_2O}(\omega)}{k_{H_2O}(\omega)} \right) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}}}{\omega \sqrt{\epsilon \mu}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon \omega} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2.5 \times 10^5} \right) \frac{1}{1.777 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \times 10^{16}} = 1.27 \times 10^{-11} \ll 1$

Phase difference: $\phi_k \equiv \delta_B - \delta_E = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\kappa_{H_2O}}{k_{H_2O}} \right) \approx 1.27 \times 10^{-11} \text{ radians } (\ll 1) \text{ i.e. } \delta_B = \delta_E + \phi_k \approx \delta_E$

$\Rightarrow \vec{B}$ and \vec{E} are nearly in phase with each other in pure H_2O at optical frequencies.

For pure H_2O at low frequencies – e.g. 60 Hz AC line frequency ($\omega_{AC} = 2\pi f_{AC} = 120\pi \text{ rad/sec}$):

The electric permittivity at $f = 60 \text{ Hz}$ is $\epsilon_{H_2O}^{AC}(f \approx 60 \text{ Hz}) \approx 80\epsilon_o = 80 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ Farads/m}$
and $\mu_{H_2O}^{AC} \approx \mu_o = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ Henrys/m}$. Conductivity of pure H_2O : $\sigma_c^{H_2O} = 4.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Siemens/m}$

Note that the criteria for a poor conductor: $\left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon_{H_2O}^{AC} \omega_{AC}} \right) \approx \frac{4.0 \times 10^{-6}}{80 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \cdot 120\pi} \approx 15 \ll 1$

is not satisfied at the 60 Hz AC line frequency – i.e. at low enough frequencies, even poor conductors such as pure water are actually quite good conductors !!!

Thus, for the following, we must use the good conductor approximations:

$$k_{AC}^{H_2O}(\omega) \approx \kappa_{AC}^{H_2O}(\omega) \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega_{AC} \mu_{AC}^{H_2O} \sigma_c}{2}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega_{AC} \mu_o \sigma_c}{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{120\pi \cdot 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \cdot 4 \times 10^{-6}}{2}} = 3.08 \times 10^{-5} \text{ rads/m}$$

$\lambda_{AC}^{H_2O}(\omega) \approx \frac{2\pi}{k_{AC}^{H_2O}(\omega)} = 2.04 \times 10^5 \text{ m}$	cf w/ vacuum wavelength: $\lambda_o = c/f_{AC} = \frac{2\pi c}{\omega_{AC}} = 5.00 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$
---	--

Vacuum/good conductor wavelength ratio: $\left(\frac{\lambda_o}{\lambda_{AC}^{H_2O}} \right) = \frac{5.00 \times 10^6 m}{2.04 \times 10^5 m} \approx 24.495$

Skin depth for pure H_2O at 60 Hz AC line frequency: $\delta_{H_2O}^{AC} \equiv 1/\kappa_{H_2O}^{AC} \approx 3.25 \times 10^4 m = 32.5 km$

This may seem like a large distance scale associated with the attenuation of the 60 Hz EM waves propagating in pure water, however compare the skin depth to the wavelength at this frequency: $\delta_{H_2O}^{AC} = 32.5 km$ vs. $\lambda_{AC}^{H_2O} = 1.77 \times 10^6 m$, *i.e.* we see that $\delta_{H_2O}^{AC} \ll \lambda_{H_2O}^{AC}$, as we expect for the case of a good conductor !!!

The ratio $(\kappa_{H_2O}^{AC}/k_{H_2O}^{AC}) \approx 1$ for pure H_2O at 60 Hz AC line frequency, which is what we expect for a good conductor {this ratio should be $\ll 1$ for a poor conductor}.

Thus, the phase difference is: $\phi_k \equiv \delta_B - \delta_E = \tan^{-1}(\kappa_{H_2O}^{AC}/k_{H_2O}^{AC}) \approx \tan^{-1}(1) = \frac{\pi}{4} = 45^\circ$

which again is what we expect for a good conductor, *i.e.* \vec{B} lags \vec{E} by 45° !

Instantaneous EM energy densities in a poor conductor: $\left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega} \right) \ll 1$

$$u_{EM}(z, t) = u_E^{EM}(z, t) + u_M^{EM}(z, t) = \left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2 \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2\mu} B^2 \right) = \left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon \vec{E} \cdot \vec{E} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2\mu} \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B} \right)$$

The physical \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields are:

$$\vec{E}(z, t) = E_o e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_E) \hat{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{B}(z, t) = B_o e^{-\kappa z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_E + \phi_k) \hat{y}$$

where: $B_o = \frac{K}{\omega} E_o = \left[\epsilon\mu \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega} \right)^2} \right]^{1/2} E_o \approx \sqrt{\epsilon\mu} E_o$ for a poor conductor, $\left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon\omega} \right) \ll 1$.

$k \approx \omega \sqrt{\epsilon\mu} = \frac{\omega}{v}$ where: $v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon\mu}} = c/n$ and: $n = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{\epsilon_o\mu_o}}$ for a poor conductor.

and: $\kappa \approx \frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \ll k \approx \omega \sqrt{\epsilon\mu}$, $K \equiv |\tilde{k}| \approx \omega \sqrt{\epsilon\mu}$ for a poor conductor.

Then: $u_E^{EM}(z, t) = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2 = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \vec{E} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E)$ and:

$$u_M^{EM}(z, t) = \frac{1}{2\mu} B^2 = \frac{1}{2\mu} \vec{B} \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{1}{2\mu} B_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta_E + \phi_k)$$

Time-averaging these quantities:

$$\langle u_E^{EM}(z, t) \rangle = \frac{1}{4} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \quad \text{and:} \quad \langle u_M^{EM}(z, t) \rangle = \frac{1}{4\mu} B_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \approx \frac{1}{4\mu} (\epsilon \mu) E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} = \frac{1}{4} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$$

$$\therefore \left\langle u_{Tot}^{EM}(z, t) \right\rangle = \left\langle u_E^{EM}(z, t) \right\rangle + \left\langle u_M^E(z, t) \right\rangle \approx \frac{1}{4} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} + \frac{1}{4} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$$

Thus: $\left\langle u_{Tot}^{EM}(z, t) \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$ for a poor conductor $\left(\frac{\sigma_c}{\epsilon \omega} \right) \ll 1$.

The ratio of {time-averaged} electric/magnetic energy densities for a poor conductor:

$$\frac{\left\langle u_E^{EM}(z, t) \right\rangle}{\left\langle u_M^{EM}(z, t) \right\rangle} \approx \frac{\frac{1}{4} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}}{\frac{1}{4} \epsilon E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}} = 1$$

$$\phi_k \equiv \delta_B - \delta_E = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\kappa_{H_2O}}{k_{H_2O}} \right) \ll 1$$

$$\kappa_{H_2O} \approx \frac{1}{2} \sigma_c \sqrt{\frac{\mu_o}{\epsilon}} \ll k_{H_2O} \approx \omega \sqrt{\epsilon \mu_o}$$

\Rightarrow *EM* wave energy is shared \approx equally by the \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields in a poor conductor!

Instantaneous Poynting's Vector for *EM* waves propagating in a poor conductor:

$$\vec{S}(z, t) = \frac{1}{\mu} \vec{E}(z, t) \times \vec{B}(z, t) \Rightarrow \left\langle \vec{S}(z, t) \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\mu} \left\langle \vec{E}(z, t) \times \vec{B}(z, t) \right\rangle \approx \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu_o}}{2 \mu_o} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \underbrace{\cos \phi_k}_{\approx 1} \hat{z}$$

$$\therefore \left\langle \vec{S}(z, t) \right\rangle \approx \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\mu_o}} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z} \hat{z} \text{ for a } \underline{\textit{poor}} \text{ conductor.}$$

Intensity of *EM* waves propagating in a poor conductor:

$$I(z) = \left\langle \left| \vec{S}(z, t) \right| \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\mu_o}} E_o^2 e^{-2\kappa z}$$

Reflection of EM Waves at Normal Incidence from a Conducting Surface:

In the presence of free surface charges σ_{free} and/or free surface currents, \vec{K}_{free} the boundary conditions obtained from (the integral forms of) Maxwell's equations for reflection and refraction at e.g. a dielectric-conductor interface become:

BC 1): (normal \vec{D} at interface):

$$\epsilon_1 E_1^\perp - \epsilon_2 E_2^\perp = \sigma_{free}$$

\perp = normal to plane of interface
 \parallel = parallel to plane of interface

BC 2): (tangential \vec{E} at interface):

$$E_1^\parallel - E_2^\parallel = 0 \Rightarrow E_1^\parallel = E_2^\parallel$$

BC 3): (normal \vec{B} at interface):

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

BC 4): (tangential \vec{H} at interface):

$$\frac{1}{\mu_1} B_1^\parallel - \frac{1}{\mu_2} B_2^\parallel = \vec{K}_{free} \times \hat{n}_{\rightarrow 21}$$

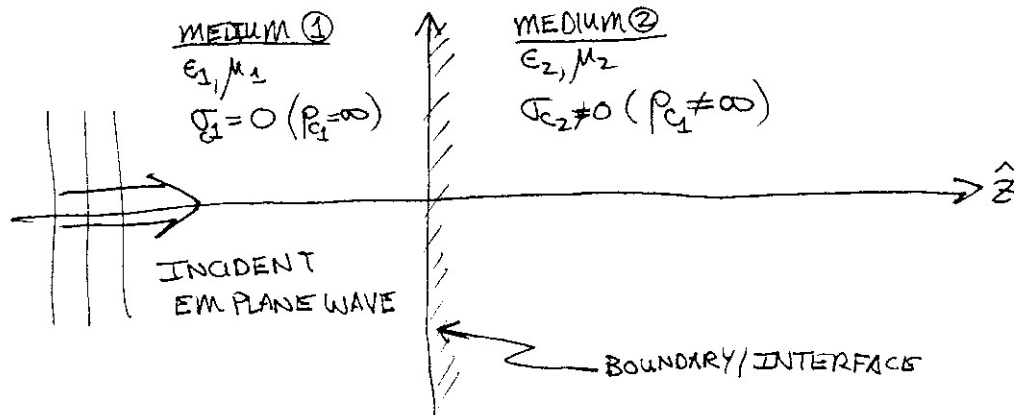
where $\hat{n}_{\rightarrow 21}$ is a unit vector \perp to the interface, pointing from medium (2) into medium (1).

{n.b. do **not** confuse $\hat{n}_{\rightarrow 21}$ with the EM wave polarization vector \hat{n} !!!}

Note: For **Ohmic** conductors (i.e. “normal” conductors obeying Ohm's Law $\vec{J}_{free} = \sigma_c \vec{E}$)

there can be **no free surface** currents, i.e. $\vec{K}_{free} = 0$ because $\vec{K}_{free} \neq 0$ would require an infinite \vec{E} -field at the boundary/interface!

Suppose \exists a boundary/interface (located in the x - y plane at $z = 0$) between a non-conducting linear/homogeneous/isotropic medium (1) and a conductor (2). A monochromatic plane EM wave is incident on the interface, that is linearly polarized in $+\hat{x}$ direction, traveling in the $+\hat{z}$ direction, approaching the interface/boundary from the left, in medium (1) as shown in the figure below:



$$\tilde{\vec{B}} = \frac{1}{v} (\hat{k} \times \tilde{\vec{E}})$$

Incident EM wave {medium (1)}: $\tilde{\vec{E}}_{inc}(z, t) = \tilde{E}_{o_{inc}} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{x}$ and: $\tilde{\vec{B}}_{inc}(z, t) = \frac{1}{v_1} \tilde{E}_{o_{inc}} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{y}$

Reflected EM wave {medium (1)}: $\tilde{\vec{E}}_{refl}(z, t) = \tilde{E}_{o_{refl}} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{x}$ and: $\tilde{\vec{B}}_{refl}(z, t) = -\frac{1}{v_1} \tilde{E}_{o_{refl}} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{y}$

Transmitted EM wave {medium (2)}: $\tilde{\vec{E}}_{trans}(z, t) = \tilde{E}_{o_{trans}} e^{i(\tilde{k}_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{x}$ and: $\tilde{\vec{B}}_{trans}(z, t) = \frac{\tilde{k}_2}{\omega} \tilde{E}_{o_{trans}} e^{i(\tilde{k}_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{y}$

n.b. complex wavenumber in {conducting} medium (2): $\tilde{k}_2 = k_2 + i\kappa_2$

In medium (1) EM fields are: $\tilde{\vec{E}}_{Tot_1}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{E}}_{inc}(z, t) + \tilde{\vec{E}}_{refl}(z, t)$ and: $\tilde{\vec{B}}_{Tot_1}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{B}}_{inc}(z, t) + \tilde{\vec{B}}_{refl}(z, t)$

In medium (2) EM fields are: $\tilde{\vec{E}}_{Tot_2}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{E}}_{trans}(z, t)$ and: $\tilde{\vec{B}}_{Tot_2}(z, t) = \tilde{\vec{B}}_{trans}(z, t)$

Apply BC's at the $z = 0$ interface in the x - y plane:

BC 1): $\epsilon_1 E_1^\perp - \epsilon_2 E_2^\perp = \sigma_{free}$ but: $E_1^\perp = \tilde{E}_{1_z} = 0$ and: $E_2^\perp = \tilde{E}_{2_z} = 0$ \therefore $0 - 0 = \sigma_{free} \Rightarrow \sigma_{free} = 0$

BC 2): $E_1^\parallel = E_2^\parallel$ \therefore $\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}} + \tilde{E}_{o_{refl}} = \tilde{E}_{o_{trans}}$

BC 3): $B_1^\perp = B_2^\perp$ but: $B_1^\perp = B_{1_z} = 0$ and: $B_2^\perp = B_{2_z} = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = 0$

BC 4): $\frac{1}{\mu_1} B_1^\parallel - \frac{1}{\mu_2} B_2^\parallel = \vec{K}_{free} \times \hat{n}_{21}$ but: $\vec{K}_{free} = 0$ \therefore $\frac{1}{\mu_1 v_1} (\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}} - \tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}) - \frac{\tilde{k}_2}{\mu_2 \omega} \tilde{E}_{o_{trans}} = 0$

or: $\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}} - \tilde{E}_{o_{refl}} = \tilde{\beta} \tilde{E}_{o_{trans}}$ with: $\tilde{\beta} \equiv \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1 \tilde{k}_2}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) = \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) \tilde{k}_2$

Thus we obtain: $\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}} = \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right) \tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}$ and: $\tilde{E}_{o_{trans}} = \frac{2}{(1 + \tilde{\beta})} \tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}$

or: $\left(\frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right) = \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right)$ and: $\left(\frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{trans}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right) = \frac{2}{(1 + \tilde{\beta})}$ with: $\tilde{\beta} \equiv \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1 \tilde{k}_2}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) = \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) \tilde{k}_2$

Note that these relations for reflection/transmission of EM waves at normal incidence on a non-conductor/conductor boundary/interface are identical to those obtained for reflection / transmission of EM waves at normal incidence on a boundary/interface between two non-conductors, except for the replacement of β with a now complex $\tilde{\beta}$ for the present situation.

For the case of a perfect conductor, the conductivity $\sigma_c = \infty$ {thus resistivity, $\rho_c = 1/\sigma_c = 0$ }

$$\Rightarrow \text{both } k_2 \approx \kappa_2 \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu_2\sigma_c}{2}} = \infty \text{ and since: } \tilde{k}_2 = k_2 + i\kappa_2 \text{ then: } \tilde{k}_2 = \infty + i\infty = \infty(1+i)$$

$$\text{and since: } \tilde{\beta} \equiv \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1 \tilde{k}_2}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) = \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) \tilde{k}_2 \Rightarrow \underline{\underline{\tilde{\beta} = \infty}}$$

Thus, for a perfect conductor, we see that: $\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}} = -\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}$ and $\tilde{E}_{trans} = 0$ and thus for a perfect conductor the reflection and transmission coefficients are:

$$R \equiv \left(\frac{E_{o_{refl}}}{E_{o_{inc}}} \right)^2 = \left| \frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right) \left(\frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right)^* = 1 \quad \text{and: } T = 1 - R = 0$$

We also see that for a perfect conductor, for normal incidence, the reflected wave undergoes a 180° phase shift with respect to the incident wave at the interface/boundary at $z = 0$ in the x - y plane. A perfect conductor screens out all EM waves from propagating in its interior.

For the case of a good conductor, the conductivity σ_c is finite-large, but not infinite. The reflection coefficient R for monochromatic plane EM waves at normal incidence on a good conductor is not unity, but close to it. {This is why good conductors make good mirrors!}

$$\text{For a } \underline{\text{good}} \text{ conductor: } R \equiv \left(\frac{E_{o_{refl}}}{E_{o_{inc}}} \right)^2 = \left| \frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right) \left(\frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right)^* = \left| \frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right) \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right)^*$$

$$\underline{\text{Where:}} \quad \tilde{\beta} \equiv \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1 \tilde{k}_2}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) = \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) \tilde{k}_2 \quad \text{and: } \tilde{k}_2 = k_2 + i\kappa_2. \quad \text{For a } \underline{\text{good}} \text{ conductor: } k_2 \approx \kappa_2 \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu_2\sigma_c}{2}}$$

$$\underline{\text{Thus:}} \quad \tilde{\beta} = \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) \tilde{k}_2 = \left(\frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 \omega} \right) \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu_2\sigma_c}{2}} (1+i) = \mu_1 v_1 \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_c}{2\mu_2\omega}} (1+i)$$

$$\underline{\text{Define:}} \quad \gamma \equiv \mu_1 v_1 \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_c}{2\mu_2\omega}} \quad \underline{\text{Then:}} \quad \tilde{\beta} = \gamma(1+i)$$

Thus, the reflection coefficient R for monochromatic plane EM waves at normal incidence on a good conductor is:

$$R = \left| \frac{\tilde{E}_{o_{refl}}}{\tilde{E}_{o_{inc}}} \right|^2 = \left| \frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right) \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\beta}}{1 + \tilde{\beta}} \right)^* = \left(\frac{1 - \gamma - i\gamma}{1 + \gamma + i\gamma} \right) \left(\frac{1 - \gamma + i\gamma}{1 + \gamma - i\gamma} \right) = \left[\frac{(1 - \gamma)^2 + \gamma^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2 + \gamma^2} \right]$$

$$\underline{\text{with:}} \quad \gamma \equiv \mu_1 v_1 \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_c}{2\mu_2\omega}}$$

Obviously, only a small fraction of the normally-incident monochromatic plane *EM* wave is transmitted into the good conductor, since $R < 1$ and $T = 1 - R$, *i.e.*:

$$T = 1 - R = 1 - \left[\frac{(1 - \gamma)^2 + \gamma^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2 + \gamma^2} \right] \quad (\ll 1)$$

Note that the transmitted wave is exponentially attenuated in the z -direction; the \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields in the good conductor fall to $1/e$ of their initial $\{z = 0\}$ values (at/on the interface) after the monochromatic plane *EM* wave propagates a distance of one skin depth in z into the conductor:

$$\delta_{sc}(\omega) \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa_2(\omega)} \simeq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega \mu_2 \sigma_c}}$$

Note also that the energy associated with the transmitted monochromatic plane *EM* wave is ultimately dissipated in the conducting medium as heat.

In {bulk} metals, since the transmitted wave is {rapidly} absorbed/attenuated in the metal, we can only study/measure the reflection coefficient R . A full/detailed mathematical description of the physics of reflection from the surface of a metal conductor as a function of angle of incidence *i.e.* $R(\omega, \theta_{inc})$ requires the use of a complex dispersion relation $\tilde{k}(\omega) = \omega/\tilde{v}(\omega) = (\omega/c)\tilde{n}(\omega)$ with complex $\tilde{k}(\omega) = k(\omega) + i\kappa(\omega)$ and complex propagation speed $\tilde{v}(\omega) = v(\omega) + iv(\omega) = c/\tilde{n}(\omega)$ with accompanying complex index of refraction $\tilde{n}(\omega) = n(\omega) + i\eta(\omega)$, and thus is fairly complicated. So-called ellipsometry measurements of the *EM* radiation reflected from the surface of the metal as a function of angle of incidence yields information on the real and imaginary parts of the complex index of refraction of the metal $\tilde{n}(\omega) = n(\omega) + i\eta(\omega)$, and thus the real and imaginary parts of the complex dielectric constant and/or the complex electric susceptibility of the metal, since $\tilde{n}(\omega) = \sqrt{\tilde{\epsilon}(\omega)/\epsilon_o} = \sqrt{1 + \tilde{\chi}_e(\omega)}$ or $\tilde{n}^2(\omega) = \tilde{\epsilon}(\omega)/\epsilon_o = 1 + \tilde{\chi}_e(\omega)$.

If interested in learning more about this, *e.g.* please see/read Optics, M.V. Klein, p. 588-592, Wiley, 1970 {P436 reference book on reserve in the Physics library}. Please see/read also the UIUC P402 Optics/Light Lab Ellipsometry Lab Handout C4 and especially the references at the end. Available at: <http://online.physics.uiuc.edu/courses/phys402/exp/C4/C4.pdf>

We will discuss the dispersive nature of dielectric, non-conducting materials in the next lecture...

Full Maxwell Equations in Matter:

The electromagnetic state of matter at a given observation point \vec{r} at a given time t is described by four macroscopic quantities:

- 1.) The volume density of free charge: $\rho_{free}(\vec{r}, t)$
- 2.) The volume density of electric dipoles: $\vec{P}(\vec{r}, t) \Leftarrow aka \text{ electric polarization}$
- 3.) The volume density of magnetic dipoles: $\vec{M}(\vec{r}, t) \Leftarrow aka \text{ magnetization}$
- 4.) The free electric current/unit area: $\vec{J}_{free}(\vec{r}, t) \Leftarrow aka \{free\} \text{ current density}$

All four of these quantities are macroscopically averaged - *i.e.* the microscopic fluctuations due to atomic/molecular makeup of matter have been smoothed out.

The four above quantities are related to the macroscopic \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields by the four Maxwell equations for matter (see Physics 435 Lect. Notes 24, p. 14):

- 1) Gauss' Law:
$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_{Tot}}{\epsilon_o} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_o} (\rho_{free} + \rho_{bound}), \text{ where: } \rho_{bound} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}$$

Auxiliary relation: $\vec{D} = \epsilon_o \vec{E} + \vec{P}$ & constitutive relation: $\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}$

Electric polarization $\vec{P} = (\epsilon - \epsilon_o) \vec{E} = \epsilon_o \chi_e \vec{E}$, electric susceptibility $\chi_e = \left(\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_o} - 1 \right)$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \epsilon_o \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} = \rho_{free}$$
- 2) No magnetic charges/monopoles: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$

Auxiliary relation: $\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_o} \vec{B} - \vec{M} \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{H} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{M}$ & constitutive relation: $\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$
- 3) Faraday's Law:
$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = -\mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{H}}{\partial t} - \mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{M}}{\partial t}$$

Magnetization: $\vec{M} - \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_o} - 1 \right) \vec{H} = \chi_m \vec{H}$, magnetic susceptibility $\chi_m = \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_o} - 1 \right)$
- 4) Ampere's Law:
$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_o \vec{J}_{Tot} + \mu_o \vec{J}_D \text{ with } \vec{J}_D = \epsilon_o \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

Total current density: $\vec{J}_{Tot} = \vec{J}_{free} + \vec{J}_{bound}^{mag} + \vec{J}_{bound}^P$ $\vec{J}_{bound}^{mag} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{M}$ $\vec{J}_{bound}^P = \frac{\partial \vec{P}}{\partial t}$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_o \vec{J}_{free} + \mu_o \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{M} + \mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{P}}{\partial t} + \mu_o \epsilon_o \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \mu_o \vec{J}_{free} + \mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t}$$

We also have Ohm's Law: $\vec{J} = \sigma_c \vec{E}$ and the 3 continuity eqn(s): $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}_\alpha = -\frac{\partial \rho_\alpha}{\partial t}$
 associated with $\alpha = \text{free, bound and total}$ electric charge conservation.

For many/most (but not all!!!) physics problems, *e.g.* in optics/condensed matter physics, materials of interest are frequently non-magnetic (or negligibly magnetic) and have no (free) charge densities present, *i.e.* $\rho_{\text{free}} = 0$. If $\mu \approx \mu_o$, then $\vec{M} = 0$ and thus $\vec{H} = \vec{B}/\mu_o$ in such non-magnetic materials.

Then Maxwell's equations in matter, for $\rho_{\text{free}} = 0$ and $\vec{M} = 0$ reduce to:

1) Gauss' Law: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = 0$ or: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_o} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} = \rho_{\text{free}} / \epsilon_o$

2) No magnetic charges: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$

3) Faraday's Law: $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$

4) Ampere's Law: $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_o \epsilon_o \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} + \mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{P}}{\partial t} + \mu_o \vec{J}_{\text{free}}$

We also have Ohm's Law $\vec{J}_{\text{free}} = \sigma_c \vec{E}$ and the Continuity eqn. $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}_{\text{free}} = 0$ {here}.

Then applying the curl operator to Faraday's Law:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = -\mu_o \epsilon_o \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} - \mu_o \frac{\partial^2 \vec{P}}{\partial t^2} - \mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{J}_{\text{free}}}{\partial t} = \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_o} \vec{\nabla} \rho_{\text{bound}} - \nabla^2 \vec{E}$$

We thus obtain the inhomogeneous wave equation:

$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\epsilon_o} \nabla \rho_{\text{bound}} + \mu_o \frac{\partial^2 \vec{P}}{\partial t^2} + \mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{J}_{\text{free}}}{\partial t}}_{\text{source terms}} \quad \text{\{and a similar/analogous one for } \vec{B} \}$$

For nonconducting/poorly-conducting media, *i.e.* insulators/dielectrics, the first two terms on the RHS of the above equation are important – *e.g.* they explain many optical effects such as dispersion (wavelength/frequency-dependence of the index of refraction), absorption, double – refraction/bi-refringence, optical activity,

Note that the $\vec{\nabla} \rho_{\text{bound}} = -\vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P})$ term is often zero, *e.g.* if the electric polarization \vec{P} is uniform,

or since: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P} = \frac{\partial P_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial P_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P_z}{\partial z}$ and $\vec{\nabla} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{z}$

e.g. for $\vec{P} \propto \vec{E}$ (*i.e.* \vec{P} proportional to \vec{E}) where: $\vec{E}(z, t) = E_o \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta) \hat{x}$

For good conductors (*e.g.* metals), the conduction term $\mu_o \frac{\partial \vec{J}_{free}}{\partial t} = \mu_o \sigma_c \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$

is the most important, because it explains the opacity of metals (*e.g.* in the visible light region) and also explains the high reflectance of metals.

All source terms on the RHS of the above inhomogeneous wave equation are of importance for semiconductors – however a proper/more complete physics description of *EM* wave propagation in semiconductors also requires the addition of quantum theory for rigorous treatment...