

## 10. Electromagnetic Plane Waves

Let us look now at the full Maxwell's eqs.

in the absence of charges and currents

(in a medium or in vacuum):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{1}{c} \partial_t \vec{B} &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} - \frac{1}{c} \partial_t \vec{D} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{with } \vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E} \text{ and } \vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}.$$

If  $\epsilon$  and  $\mu$  constant:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \left( \frac{\epsilon \mu}{c} \right) \partial_t \vec{E}.$$

Using  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{a} = \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{a}) - \nabla^2 \vec{a}$ :

$$\underbrace{\vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E})}_0 - \nabla^2 \vec{E} + \frac{1}{c} \partial_t \underbrace{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}}_{\frac{\epsilon \mu}{c} \partial_t \vec{E}} = 0 \quad \text{Hence,}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{\epsilon \mu}{c^2} \partial_t^2 \vec{E} - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = 0}$$

a wave equation!

A convenient set of solutions is given by the plane waves  $\vec{E} = \vec{E}_0 \exp [i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - i \omega t]$ ,

where  $\frac{\epsilon \mu}{c^2} \omega^2 - \vec{k}^2 = 0$  or  $\omega = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu}} |\vec{k}|$

Dispersion relation.

The phase velocity of the wave is

(from  $i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - i \omega t = \text{const}$ )

$$v \equiv \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu}} \equiv \frac{c}{n} \quad \text{where}$$

$n = \sqrt{\epsilon \mu}$  is the medium's index of refraction.

$\vec{B}$  obeys the same wave equation, with the same set of solutions,

$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_0 \exp [i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - i \omega t], \quad \omega = \frac{c |\vec{k}|}{n}$$

of course,  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$  are real, so the understanding is that we are supposed to take the real parts of  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$ .

For these plane-wave solutions,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0 &\Rightarrow \vec{k} \cdot \vec{E} = 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 &\Rightarrow \vec{k} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ wave is } \underline{\text{transverse}}$$

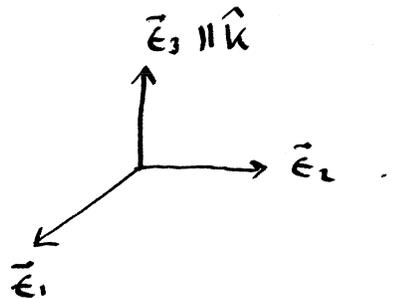
Because  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{1}{c} \partial_t \vec{B} = 0$ ,  $i\vec{k} \times \vec{E} = i \frac{\omega}{c} \vec{B}_0$ , or

$$\vec{B}_0 = n \hat{k} \times \vec{E}_0.$$

### 10.3. Polarization

To study polarization, assume without loss of generality that  $\vec{k} \parallel \hat{z}$ . Define then

$$\vec{e}_1 \equiv \hat{x} \quad ; \quad \vec{e}_2 \equiv \hat{y} \quad ; \quad \vec{e}_3 \equiv \hat{z}$$



Then, any such plane wave can be written as the linear combination

$$\vec{E} = (E_x \hat{e}_1 + E_y \hat{e}_2) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - i\omega t}$$

with complex  $E_x$ ,  $E_y$ . If  $E_x \equiv |E_x| e^{iy_x}$  and

$E_y \equiv |E_y| e^{iy_y}$  have the same phase ( $y_x = y_y$ ),

this describes

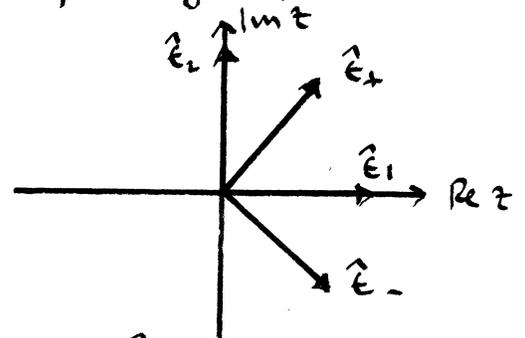
linearly polarized light along the direction

$$|E_x| \hat{e}_1 + |E_y| \hat{e}_2$$

If  $y_x \neq y_y$  light is elliptically polarized.

A convenient basis to discuss elliptically polarized light is provided by

$$\hat{e}_{\pm} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{e}_1 \pm i \hat{e}_2)$$



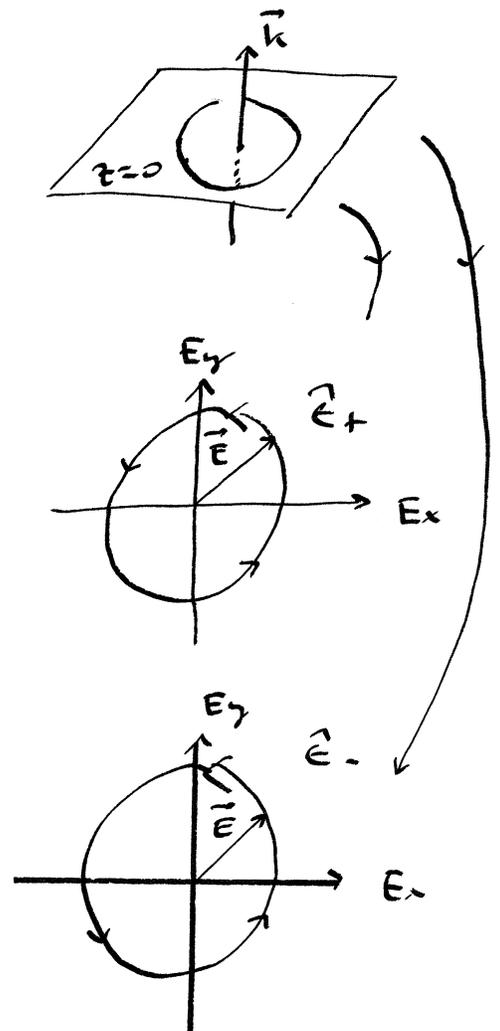
which satisfy  $\hat{e}_{\pm}^* \cdot \hat{e}_{\mp} = 0$ ,  $\hat{e}_{\pm}^* \cdot \hat{e}_{\pm} = 1$ ,  $\hat{e}_{\pm}^* \cdot \hat{e}_3 = 0$

With  $\vec{E} = \hat{e}_{\pm} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - i\omega t}$ , at

$$\begin{cases} E_x = \cos(\omega t) \\ E_y = \pm \sin(\omega t) \end{cases}$$

$\hat{e}_+$  describes right circularly polarized light

$\hat{e}_-$  describes left circularly polarized light



## Exercice 27

Show that if  $\vec{E} = E_+ (\hat{e}_+ + r e^{i\alpha} \hat{e}_-) e^{-i\omega t}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix} = \frac{E_+}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} & -\sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \\ \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} & \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (1+r) \cos(\omega t - \alpha/2) \\ (1-r) \sin(\omega t - \alpha/2) \end{pmatrix}$$

Interpret this result geometrically

In general, light is not fully polarized (or not polarized at all). To describe this situation it is convenient to adopt a "polarization matrix" analogous to the density matrix of QM.

Suppose that a fraction  $p_i$  of the photons have a polarization vector  $\vec{E}_i = \alpha_{ix} \hat{e}_1 + \alpha_{iy} \hat{e}_2$ . Then define the matrix (linear operator)

$$P = \sum_i p_i \vec{E}_i \vec{E}_i^\dagger$$

By definition

i)  $P^\dagger = P$  Hermitian

ii)  $\vec{E}^\dagger P \vec{E} \geq 0 \quad \forall \vec{E}$   $P$  positive definite

$$\text{iii) } \mathbf{P} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{k}} = \bar{\mathbf{k}}^+ \mathbf{P} = 0, \quad \mathbf{P} \text{ transverse.}$$

The polarization matrix can be described in terms of the four Stokes parameters

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I = \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1^+ \mathbf{P} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2^+ \mathbf{P} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2 \\ Q = \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1^+ \mathbf{P} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 - \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2^+ \mathbf{P} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2 \\ u = 2 \operatorname{Re} [\hat{\mathbf{e}}_2^+ \mathbf{P} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1] \\ V = 2 \operatorname{Im} [\hat{\mathbf{e}}_2^+ \mathbf{P} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1] \end{array} \right.$$

We shall later see that the <sup>averaged</sup> flow of electromagnetic energy for a plane wave with polarization vector  $\bar{\mathbf{E}}_0$  is

$$\langle \bar{\mathbf{S}} \rangle = \frac{c \hat{\mathbf{k}}}{8\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\mu}} |\bar{\mathbf{E}}_0|^2.$$

Thus,  $I$  represents the intensity of radiation.

### Exercise 28

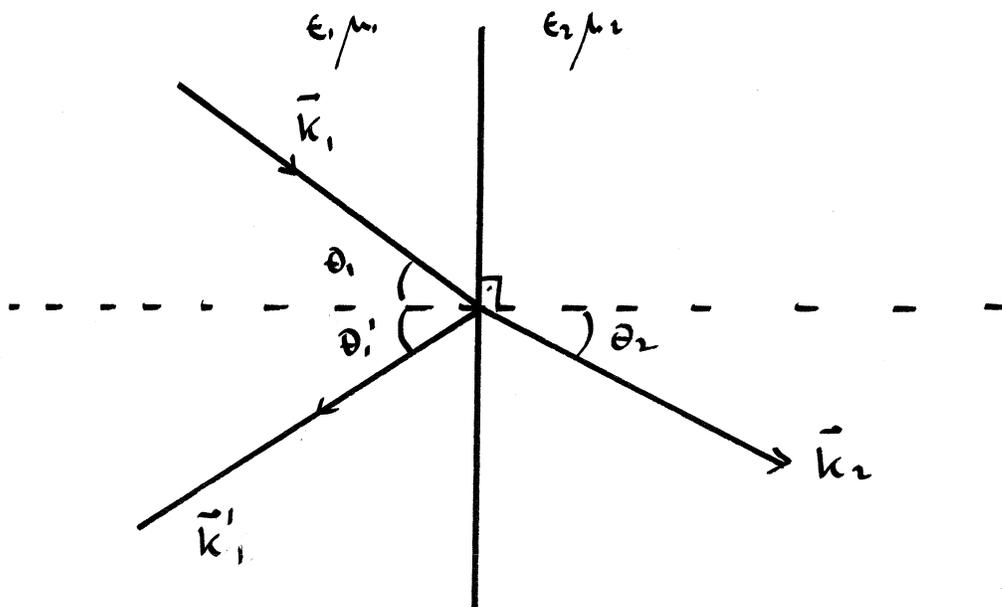
Calculate  $\{I, Q, u, V\}$  for light

- i) Polarized  $\parallel$  x direction
- ii) Polarized  $\perp$  direction
- iii)  $45^\circ$  degrees wrt. x axis
- iv) left polarized
- v) right polarized.

## 10.4. Reflection and Refraction at a planar interface

Consider a wave approaching a planar interface between two dielectric media.

We expect a reflected and a refracted wave:



As before, from the Maxwell's eqs. we find that the normal components of  $\vec{D}$  and  $\vec{E}$ , and the tangential components of  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{H}$  have to be continuous (careful with  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{H}$ !):

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \hat{n} \cdot (\epsilon_1 \vec{E}_i e^{i\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r}} + \epsilon_1 \vec{E}_i' e^{i\vec{k}_i' \cdot \vec{r}}) &= \hat{n} \cdot \epsilon_2 \vec{E}_r e^{i\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r}} \\ \hat{n} \cdot (\vec{B}_i e^{i\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r}} + \vec{B}_i' e^{i\vec{k}_i' \cdot \vec{r}}) &= \hat{n} \cdot \vec{B}_r e^{i\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r}} \\ \hat{n} \times (\vec{E}_i e^{i\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r}} + \vec{E}_i' e^{i\vec{k}_i' \cdot \vec{r}}) &= \hat{n} \times \vec{E}_r e^{i\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r}} \\ \hat{n} \times \left( \frac{\vec{B}_i}{\mu_1} e^{i\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{r}} + \frac{\vec{B}_i'}{\mu_1} e^{i\vec{k}_i' \cdot \vec{r}} \right) &= \hat{n} \times \frac{\vec{B}_r}{\mu_2} e^{i\vec{k}_r \cdot \vec{r}} \end{aligned} \right.$$

These equations demand that

$$\vec{k}_1 \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}'_1 \cdot \vec{r} = \vec{k}_2 \cdot \vec{r} \quad \text{at the interface.}$$

Therefore, the projections of  $\vec{k}_1$ ,  $\vec{k}'_1$  and  $\vec{k}_2$  onto the interface are all equal:

$$\vec{k}_1'' = \vec{k}'_1'' = \vec{k}_2''$$

$\Rightarrow \vec{k}_1$ ,  $\vec{k}'_1$  and  $\vec{k}_2$  all lie on a plane  $\&$

$$k_1 \sin \theta_1 = k'_1 \sin \theta'_1 = k_2 \sin \theta_2$$

using  $k = \frac{n}{c} \omega$  it follows that

$$\underline{n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2} \quad \text{Snell's law.}$$

The electric and magnetic fields are then determined by the conditions

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

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.

The amounts of reflected and transmitted radiation can be described in terms of the reflection and transmission coefficients

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

which satisfy  $R+T = 1$  (conservation of energy)

### Exercise 29

calculate  $T$  for light polarized

i)  $\perp$  to plane of incidence

ii)  $\parallel$  " " " "

This implies in particular that unpolarized incident light typically yields (partially) polarized reflected and transmitted light.

For example for a wave polarized  $\parallel$  to the incident plane  $R=0$  at the Brewster angle

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

Thus, unpolarized light incident at an angle  $\theta_B$  produces fully polarized reflected light, with polarization  $\perp$  to plane of incidence.