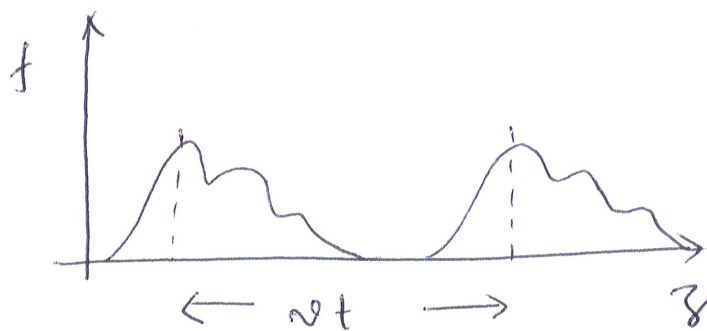


Electromagnetic Waves:

First we discuss briefly about the wave equation. Background on this will help us for the formulations of electromagnetic (EM) waves, precisely the electric and magnetic field waves.

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



$f(z, t)$ represents the wave which has a propagation direction z and velocity v . This travelling wave can be mathematically represented as:

$$f(z, t) = f(z - vt, 0) = g(z - vt)$$

The form of the wave remains same and it has a ~~dependence~~ dependence on z and t , and its simple form is $(z - vt)$. Some simple forms of travelling waves are:

$$f(z, t) = A e^{-b(z - vt)^2}$$

$$f(z, t) = A \sin [b(z - vt)]$$

(A and b
are constants)

Formally the wave equation is:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}$$

(v represents the velocity of the wave)

A general solution of this wave equation can be of the form:

$$f(z, t) = g(z - vt) + h(z + vt)$$

a wave moving
in +-z direction

moving in -ve
z-direction.

Some properties of sinusoidal waves:

simple form of a sinusoidal wave:

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

A : amplitude of the wave.

δ : phase constant. Any addition of integer multiple of 2π to δ will keep $f(z, t)$ unaltered.

$\delta = 0$: the central maximum passes the origin at $t = 0$. In general, $(\frac{\delta}{k})$ is the distance by which the central maximum (and the entire wave) is "delayed".

k : the wave number. Related to the wavelength λ by $\Rightarrow$ $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$.

Time period T : $T = \frac{2\pi}{kv}$

A more convenient unit is to use the angular frequency ω which is related to the frequency ν as:

$$\boxed{\omega = 2\pi\nu = kv}$$

$$\nu = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{kv}{2\pi}$$

$$\boxed{v = \frac{v}{\lambda}}$$

Now in terms of ω the sinusoidal wave can be written as:

$$\boxed{f(z, t) = A \cos(kz - \omega t + \phi)}$$

A wave travelling to the left can be written

as:

$$\boxed{f(z, t) = A \cos(kz + \omega t - \phi)}$$

Complex representation: A sinusoidal wave can

be written as:
$$\boxed{f(z, t) = \text{Re} \left[A e^{i(kz - \omega t + \phi)} \right]}$$

so, we write a complex wave as:

$$\boxed{\tilde{f}(z, t) = \tilde{A} e^{i(kz - \omega t)}}$$

where, $\tilde{A} \equiv A e^{i\phi}$ and $f(z, t) = \text{Re} [\tilde{f}(z, t)]$.

Reflection and transmission of waves:

The incident wave:

$$f_I(z, t) = A_I e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \quad z < 0,$$

coming from the left and gives a reflected wave:

$$f_R(z, t) = A_R e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \quad z < 0,$$

which also travels back to the left and a transmitted wave:

$$f_T(z, t) = A_T e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} \quad z > 0$$

which moves in the 2nd medium and to the right.

Assuming that the wave is travelling over a string (this is not really necessary to assume), then the net disturbance of the string can be written as:

$$f(z, t) = \begin{cases} A_I e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} + A_R e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} & z < 0 \\ A_T e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} & z > 0 \end{cases}$$

with the boundary condition that at $z=0$:

$$\boxed{f_{\text{Re}}(0^-, t) = f_{\text{Re}}(0^+, t)} \rightarrow \text{continuity condition.}$$

Also the derivative of $f(z, t)$ must be continuous:

$$\boxed{\left. \frac{\partial f_{\text{Re}}}{\partial z} \right|_{z=0^-} = \left. \frac{\partial f_{\text{Re}}}{\partial z} \right|_{z=0^+}}$$

Otherwise there will be a net force at $z=0$ and an infinite acceleration.

The boundary conditions apply to the real part of the wave f_{Re} , for which we use:

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

Polarization of a wave: The polarization vector of a wave defines the plane of vibration. The waves travel down a string is a transverse wave. Sound waves are longitudinal, EM waves are transverse.

Representation: If a wave is polarized along x-direction and moves along z-direction,

$$f(z, t) = A e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{x}$$

Similarly, polarized along y-direction and moving along z:

$$f(z, t) = A e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{y}$$

For any arbitrary direction in the xy-plane:

$$f(z, t) = A e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{n}$$

For a transverse wave $\hat{n}$ is perpendicular to direction of propagation:

$$\hat{n} \cdot \hat{z} = 0$$

Electromagnetic Waves in Vacuum:

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

$$\textcircled{i} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iii} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\textcircled{ii} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iv} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

→ These are a set of first-order PDE's in $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$. Now, applying curl to $\textcircled{iii}$ and $\textcircled{iv}$ they can be decoupled at $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$.

From $\textcircled{iii}$:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = -\vec{\nabla} \times \left(\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \right)$$

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

$$\Rightarrow -\nabla^2 \vec{E} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}}$$

Similarly from (iv):

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

$$\Rightarrow -\nabla^2 \vec{B} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2}}$$

Now, we have separate equation for $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$, but they are of 2nd order now.

Thus, in vacuum $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$ satisfies the three-dimensional wave equation:

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}$$

So, this implies that the EM waves propagate in empty space with a speed,

$$\boxed{v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s.}}$$

↪ which is equal to c , the velocity of light.

From Maxwell's theory, c can be calculated by only

two numbers ϵ_0, μ_0 — 49 —

Plane waves (monochromatic):

When we consider a wave with its (one) angular frequency ω , then it is called monochromatic wave. As different frequencies of a wave gives rise to different colors.

The wave is travelling in z -direction, there is no x or y -dependence, so it is called a plane wave.

The fields are of the form:

$$\boxed{\vec{E}(z,t) = \vec{E}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)}, \vec{B}(z,t) = \vec{B}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)}}$$

$\vec{E}_0$ and $\vec{B}_0$ can be the complex amplitudes.

The wave equations can be formulated from Maxwell's equations. Maxwell's equations

impose extra constraints on $\vec{E}_0$ and $\vec{B}_0$. As,

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$ and $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$, they imply:

$$\boxed{(E_0)_z = (B_0)_z = 0} \rightarrow \text{this tells that EM waves are transverse.}$$

This tells that the electric and magnetic fields are perpendicular ~~the~~ to the direction of propagation.

$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$ implies a relationship between the electric and magnetic amplitudes:

$$-k(E_0)_y = \omega(B_0)_x, \quad k(E_0)_x = \omega(B_0)_y.$$

or, in vector form:

$$\vec{B}_0 = \frac{k}{\omega} (\hat{z} \times \vec{E}_0)$$

↪ $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$ are mutually perpendicular and they are in-phase.

Their amplitudes are related (without the vector sign):

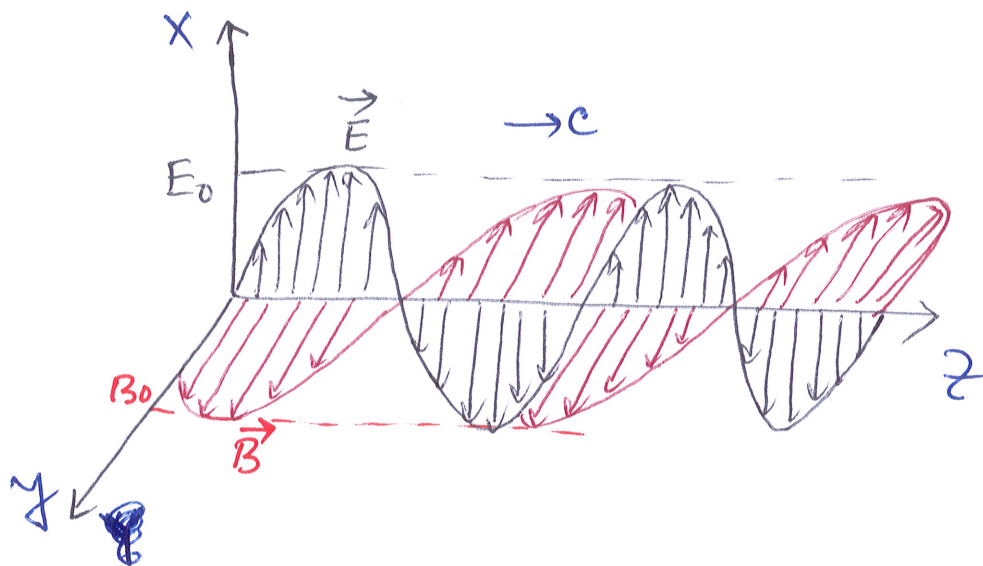
$$B_0 = \frac{k}{\omega} E_0 = \frac{1}{c} E_0$$

As a simple example, if we consider that $\vec{E}$ points in x-direction and $\vec{B}$ points in y-direction, then the EM wave propagate in z-direction.

This situation can be represented as:

$$\vec{E}(z, t) = E_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{x}$$

$$\vec{B}(z, t) = B_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{y}$$



Now, if we consider this monochromatic wave propagating in some arbitrary direction $\vec{r}$, then it can be represented using the wave vector $\vec{k}$ as:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = E_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} \hat{n}$$

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{E_0}{c} e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)} (\hat{k} \times \hat{n})$$

$$= \frac{1}{c} (\hat{k} \times \vec{E})$$

And,

$$\hat{n} \cdot \hat{k} = 0$$

represents
a vector
perpendicular
to $\hat{k}$ and $\hat{n}$.

If we want to write the real parts of $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$ vectors, they will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) &= E_0 \cos(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + \delta) \hat{n} \\ \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) &= \frac{E_0}{c} \cos(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + \delta) (\hat{n} \times \hat{k})\end{aligned}$$

Energy related to EM wave:

According to last week's notes, the energy per unit volume stored in electromagnetic field is:

Energy density. $\leftarrow u = \frac{1}{2} \left(\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{B^2}{\mu_0} \right)$

In case of a monochromatic plane wave:

$$B^2 = \frac{1}{c^2} E^2 = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 E^2$$

$\hookrightarrow$ this implies that the electric and magnetic field contributions are equal.

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

As the wave travels, it carries energy with it. The energy flux density (energy per unit area per unit time) transported by the EM fields is given by the

Poynting vector: $\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$

For monochromatic plane wave propagation,

$$\vec{S} = c \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \cos^2(kz - \omega t + \delta) \hat{z}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{S} = \underbrace{c u}_{\downarrow} \hat{z}}$$

$c \hat{z}$ = velocity of the wave.

energy density $\times$ velocity.

We may not be interested in the oscillating $\cos^2$ term in u and S . The average value of $\cos^2$ over a complete period is $\frac{1}{2}$. It

gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle u \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \\ \langle \vec{S} \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} c \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \hat{z} \end{aligned}$$

average energy transfer over a complete period of the wave.

Electromagnetic Waves in matter:

Inside materials, but for the regions where there is no free charge or free current, the Maxwell's equations become:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textcircled{i} & \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iii} & \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \\ \textcircled{ii} & \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iv} & \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = +\frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t} \end{array}$$

If the medium is linear, we showed that:

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}, \quad \vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu} \vec{B}$$

and homogeneous (μ, ϵ are constant at every point), then we can write the above 4 equations as:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textcircled{i} & \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iii} & \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \\ \textcircled{ii} & \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iv} & \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \end{array}$$

so, it differs from the equation in vacuum, ϵ_0, μ_0 is replaced by ϵ & μ .

Thus the electromagnetic waves propagate through the linear homogeneous medium at a speed:

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

where, $n = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon\mu}{\epsilon_0\mu_0}}$, is called the refractive index of the medium.

For most materials $\mu \approx \mu_0$, so,

$$n \approx \sqrt{\epsilon_r} \quad \epsilon_r = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}, \text{ is known as the } \underline{\text{dielectric constant}} \text{ of the material.}$$

As $\epsilon_r > 1$, thus EM waves travels ~~slow~~ slowly through matter.

The energy density will be:

$$u = \frac{1}{2} \left(\epsilon E^2 + \frac{B^2}{\mu} \right) \quad \text{replacing } \mu_0, \epsilon_0 \text{ by } \mu \text{ \& } \epsilon.$$

And the Poynting vector:

$$\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\mu} (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$$

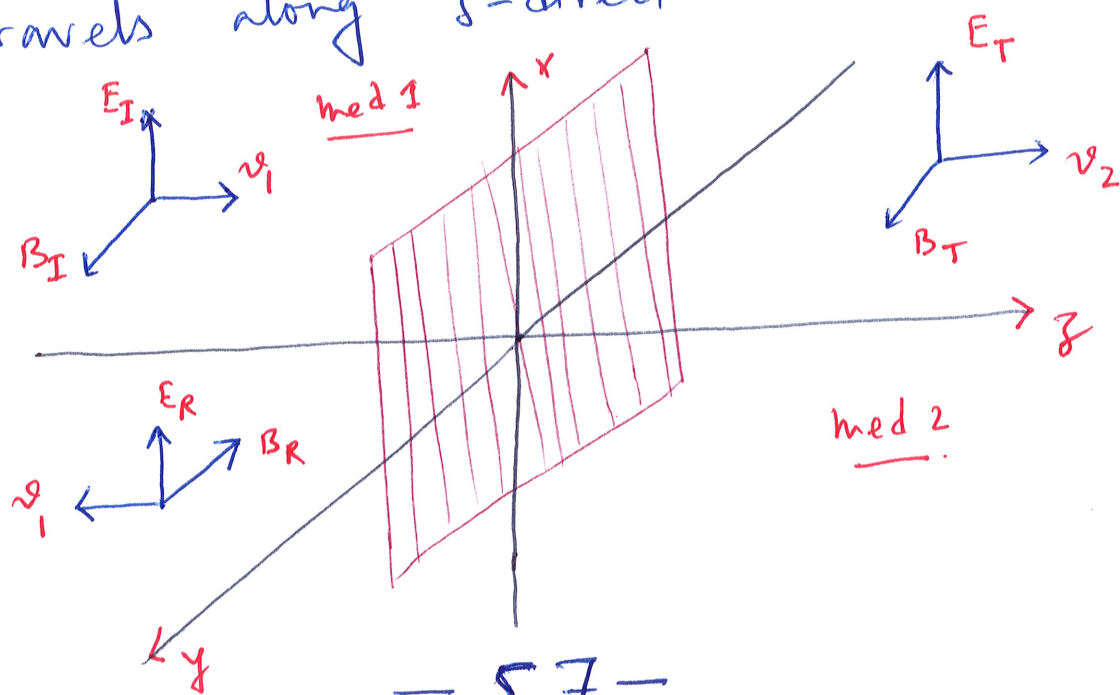
Now, what happens when an EM wave passes from one transparent medium into another? There we expect a reflected and a transmitted wave. And we also need to use the boundary conditions which we saw in the last lecture:

$$\begin{array}{l} \epsilon_1 E_1^\perp = \epsilon_2 E_2^\perp, \quad E_1^\parallel = E_2^\parallel, \\ B_1^\perp = B_2^\perp, \quad \frac{1}{\mu_1} B_1^\parallel = \frac{1}{\mu_2} B_2^\parallel \end{array}$$

the parallel & perpendicular components of $\vec{E}$ & $\vec{B}$ fields at the interface.

Reflection and transmission for normal incidence:

In this case the xy plane forms the interface between two media, the wave travels along z -direction.



then the forms of the incident wave:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E}_I(z, t) &= E_{0I} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{x} \\ \vec{B}_I(z, t) &= \frac{1}{v_1} B_{0I} e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{y}\end{aligned} \quad \left(\text{in medium } \underline{1} \right)$$

then the forms of the reflected waves:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E}_R(z, t) &= E_{0R} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{x} \\ \vec{B}_R(z, t) &= \frac{1}{v_1} B_{0R} e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)} \hat{y}\end{aligned} \quad \left(\text{also in medium } \underline{1} \right).$$

And, the forms of the transmitted waves:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E}_T(z, t) &= E_{0T} e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{x} \\ \vec{B}_T(z, t) &= \frac{1}{v_2} B_{0T} e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)} \hat{y}\end{aligned} \quad \left(\text{in medium } \underline{2} \right)$$

At the interface ($z=0$), the combined fields on the left ($\vec{E}_I + \vec{E}_R$) and ($\vec{B}_I + \vec{B}_R$) must match to the fields at right ($\vec{E}_T + \vec{B}_T$), which follows from the boundary condition.

For the normal incidence, there is no component perpendicular to the surface. So, taking the amplitudes of the fields we write:

$$E_{0I} + E_{0R} = E_{0T} \quad (\text{using } E_1'' = E_2'')$$

and,

$$\frac{1}{\mu_1} \left(\frac{1}{v_1} E_{0I} - \frac{1}{v_1} E_{0R} \right) = \frac{1}{\mu_2} \left(\frac{1}{v_2} E_{0T} \right)$$

(using $\frac{1}{\mu_1} B_1'' = \frac{1}{\mu_2} B_2''$).

$$E_{0I} - E_{0R} = \beta E_{0T} ; \quad \beta = \frac{\mu_1 v_1}{\mu_2 v_2} = \frac{\mu_1 n_2}{\mu_2 n_1}$$

So, using the 1st and the 3rd equations, we get:

$$E_{0R} = \left(\frac{1-\beta}{1+\beta} \right) E_{0I}, \quad E_{0T} = \frac{2}{1+\beta} E_{0I}$$

the amplitudes of the reflected and transmitted electric fields in terms of the incident field and medium refractive index.

If the medium ~~ref~~ μ is close to the values of vacuum, μ_0 ,

$$E_{OR} = \left(\frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_2 + v_1} \right) E_{OI} , E_{OT} = \left(\frac{2v_2}{v_2 + v_1} \right) E_{OI}$$

Now, for the real parts of the waves are related by:

$$E_{OR}^{Re} = \left| \frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_2 + v_1} \right| E_{OI}^{Re} , E_{OT}^{Re} = \left(\frac{2v_2}{v_2 + v_1} \right) E_{OI}^{Re}$$

→ the reflected wave is in phase with the incident wave if $v_2 > v_1$ and out of phase if $v_1 > v_2$.

In terms of the medium refractive index:

$$E_{OR}^{Re} = \left| \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right| E_{OI}^{Re} , E_{OT}^{Re} = \left(\frac{2n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \right) E_{OI}^{Re}$$

From the above relations we can calculate what fraction of the incident energy is reflected and what fraction is transmitted?

The average power per unit area (intensity)

is :

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon v E_0^2$$

If $\mu_1 = \mu_2$, then the ratio of the reflected intensity to the incident wave intensity is:

reflection coefficient $\leftarrow$

$$R = \frac{I_R}{I_I} = \left(\frac{E_{0R}}{E_{0I}} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2$$

and for the transmitted wave:

transmission coefficient $\leftarrow$

$$T = \frac{I_T}{I_I} = \frac{\epsilon_2 v_2}{\epsilon_1 v_1} \left(\frac{E_{0T}}{E_{0I}} \right)^2 = \frac{4n_1 n_2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2}$$

And, we can show that: $R + T = 1$

oblique incidence: The most general case is the oblique incidence of the EM wave on any interface with angle θ_I . $\theta_I = 0$ corresponds to the normal incidence.

We are not going in the ~~detail~~ details of this calculation here.

Electromagnetic waves in conductors:

In case of conductors we don't independently control the flow of charge. So $\vec{J}_f \neq 0$.

According to Ohm's law the free current density $\vec{J}_f$ is proportional to $\vec{E}$: $\boxed{\vec{J}_f = \sigma \vec{E}}$

And then the Maxwell's equations take the form:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textcircled{i} & \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_f}{\epsilon}, \quad \textcircled{iii} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \\ \textcircled{ii} & \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iv} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu \sigma \vec{E} + \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}. \end{array}$$

From the equation of continuity:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}_f = - \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial t}.$$

So, this gives: $\frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial t} = - \sigma (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E})$

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial t} = - \frac{\sigma \rho_f}{\epsilon}}.$$

Which has a solution: $\rho_f(t) = \rho_f(0) e^{-\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} t}$

Thus any charge ~~density~~ density $\rho_f(0)$ dissipates in a characteristic time $\boxed{\tau \equiv \frac{\epsilon}{\sigma}}$.

The time constant τ measures how good a conductor is. For $\sigma \rightarrow \infty$, $\tau \rightarrow 0$, for a good conductor this time scale is much lesser than the other relevant time scales of the problem.

Thus when the accumulated charges disappear, Maxwell's equations take the form:

$$\textcircled{i} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iii} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}.$$

$$\textcircled{ii} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad \textcircled{iv} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} + \underbrace{\mu\sigma \vec{E}}_{\downarrow}$$

this ~~is~~ is the extra term which was not for a non-conducting medium.

From the above equations we get:

$$\underbrace{\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} + \mu\sigma \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}}_{\text{wave eqns for } \vec{E} \text{ and } \vec{B} \text{ field.}}$$

$$\underbrace{\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2} + \mu\sigma \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}}_{\text{B field.}}$$

The equations have plane wave solution:

$$\vec{E}(z, t) = \vec{E}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)},$$

$$\vec{B}(z, t) = \vec{B}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)},$$

But, the wave number k is a complex quantity:

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

taking the square-root, we write,

$$k = \alpha + i\beta$$

where,

$$\alpha = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon \mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon \omega}\right)^2} + 1 \right]^{1/2},$$

$$\beta = \omega \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon \mu}{2}} \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon \omega}\right)^2} - 1 \right]^{1/2}.$$

The imaginary parts of wave vector k is an attenuation of the wave; (decrease of its amplitude with z , while propagating).

$$\vec{E}(z, t) = \vec{E}_0 e^{-\beta z} e^{i(\alpha z - \omega t)}$$
$$\vec{B}(z, t) = \vec{B}_0 e^{-\beta z} e^{i(\alpha z - \omega t)}$$

→ with real and imaginary parts separately.

The distance it takes to decrease the amplitude by a factor $\frac{1}{e}$, is called the skin depth:
 $d = \frac{1}{\beta}$. (measure of how far the wave propagates/penetrates in the conductor).

The real part of k determines the wavelength, propagation ~~and~~ speed and the refractive index:

$$\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{\alpha}, \quad v = \frac{\omega}{\alpha}, \quad n = \frac{c\alpha}{\omega}$$

Like Before $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$ fields are transverse, assuming $\vec{E}$ is polarized along x -direction:

$$\vec{E}(z, t) = E_0 e^{-\beta z} e^{i(\alpha z - \omega t)} \hat{x}$$

and their propagation direction

Then, the magnetic field:

$$\vec{B}(z, t) = \frac{k B_0}{\omega} e^{-\beta z} e^{i(\alpha z - \omega t)} \hat{y}$$

direction is $\hat{z}$.

Wave-vector k can be represented as a complex quantity as: $k = K e^{i\phi}$,

$$\text{where, } K = |k| = \sqrt{\alpha^2 + \beta^2} = \omega \sqrt{\mu \epsilon} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon}\right)^2}$$

magnitude of k . — 65 —

and,

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} \right).$$

so, the representation of electric and magnetic fields can be :

$$E_0 = E_0 e^{i\delta_E} \quad B_0 = B_0 e^{i\delta_B}$$

so, the electric and magnetic fields are no longer in phase : $\phi = \delta_B - \delta_E$.

(the $\vec{B}$ field lags behind the $\vec{E}$ field).

And their real amplitudes are

related by :

$$\frac{B_0}{E_0} = \frac{K}{\omega} = \sqrt{\epsilon\mu} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\omega\epsilon} \right)^2}$$

so, the forms of ~~the~~ $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$ field in a conducting medium : (their real parts)

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

$$\vec{B}(z,t) = B_0 e^{-\beta z} \cos(kz - \omega t + \delta_B) \hat{y}$$

