

Based on our experience with plane waves, we can construct vectorial plane wave solutions to the WE for \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{B} :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}(\vec{r}, t) &= \vec{E}_0 \exp i[\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t] \\ \mathbf{B}(\vec{r}, t) &= \vec{B}_0 \exp i[\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t] .\end{aligned}$$

Having seen such WE solutions, we already know that the dispersion relation must be fulfilled:

$$k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} .$$

Now, what about \vec{E}_0 , \vec{B}_0 ? To find out constraints on these, we must *go back into ME*:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \times \mathbf{B} &= +\frac{1}{c^2} \partial_t \mathbf{E} & \frac{1}{c^2} &\equiv \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{E} &= -\partial_t \mathbf{B}\end{aligned}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

... and use the operator equivalencies

$$\nabla \times \rightarrow i\vec{k} \times \quad \nabla \cdot \rightarrow i\vec{k} \cdot \quad \partial_t \rightarrow -i\omega$$

for faster calculation to get ...

... plane-wave relation for vector amplitudes:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{k} \times \vec{B}_0 &= -\frac{1}{c^2} \omega \vec{E}_0 & \text{or} & \quad \vec{E}_0 = -\frac{c^2}{\omega} \vec{k} \times \vec{B}_0 \\ \vec{k} \times \vec{E}_0 &= \omega \vec{B}_0 & \text{or} & \quad \vec{B}_0 = +\frac{1}{\omega} \vec{k} \times \vec{E}_0\end{aligned}$$

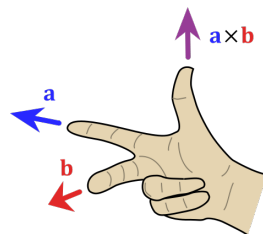
$$\begin{aligned}\vec{k} \cdot \vec{E}_0 &= 0 \\ \vec{k} \cdot \vec{B}_0 &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Q: If the first two equations are satisfied, the second pair is, too. It seems we did not really need the divergence constraints! How come?

A: Because divergence equations are merely constraints on initial conditions.

Note:

- It follows that in a plane wave, $c|\vec{B}_0| = |\vec{E}_0|$.
- Relative spatial orientation of \vec{k} , \vec{E}_0 , \vec{B}_0 (in this order!) is the same as between \hat{i} , \hat{j} , \hat{k}



- These constitute a right-hand oriented system

Transverse wave summary:

Nomenclature:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) &= \hat{e}A \exp[i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + p)] \\ \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) &= \hat{b}A/c \exp[i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + p)]\end{aligned}$$

- \hat{e} unit vector in direction of E-field. Note that later in this course it may be a complex-valued vector.
- \vec{k} propagation vector (sometimes wave-vector). It gives the direction of propagation, and its magnitude specifies the wave's spatial frequency along that direction.
- ω angular (temporal) frequency
- A amplitude (this, too, can be complex-valued!)
- p phase

As always: Real part has the meaning of the real physical field:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = \hat{e}A \cos[\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + p]$$

Q: In the above line, I have silently assumed something. What is it?

Transverse wave summary cont.:

Vector amplitude properties:

- EM plane-waves are transverse:

$$\vec{k} \cdot \hat{e} A \exp[i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + p)] = 0 \quad \vec{k} \cdot \hat{e} = 0$$

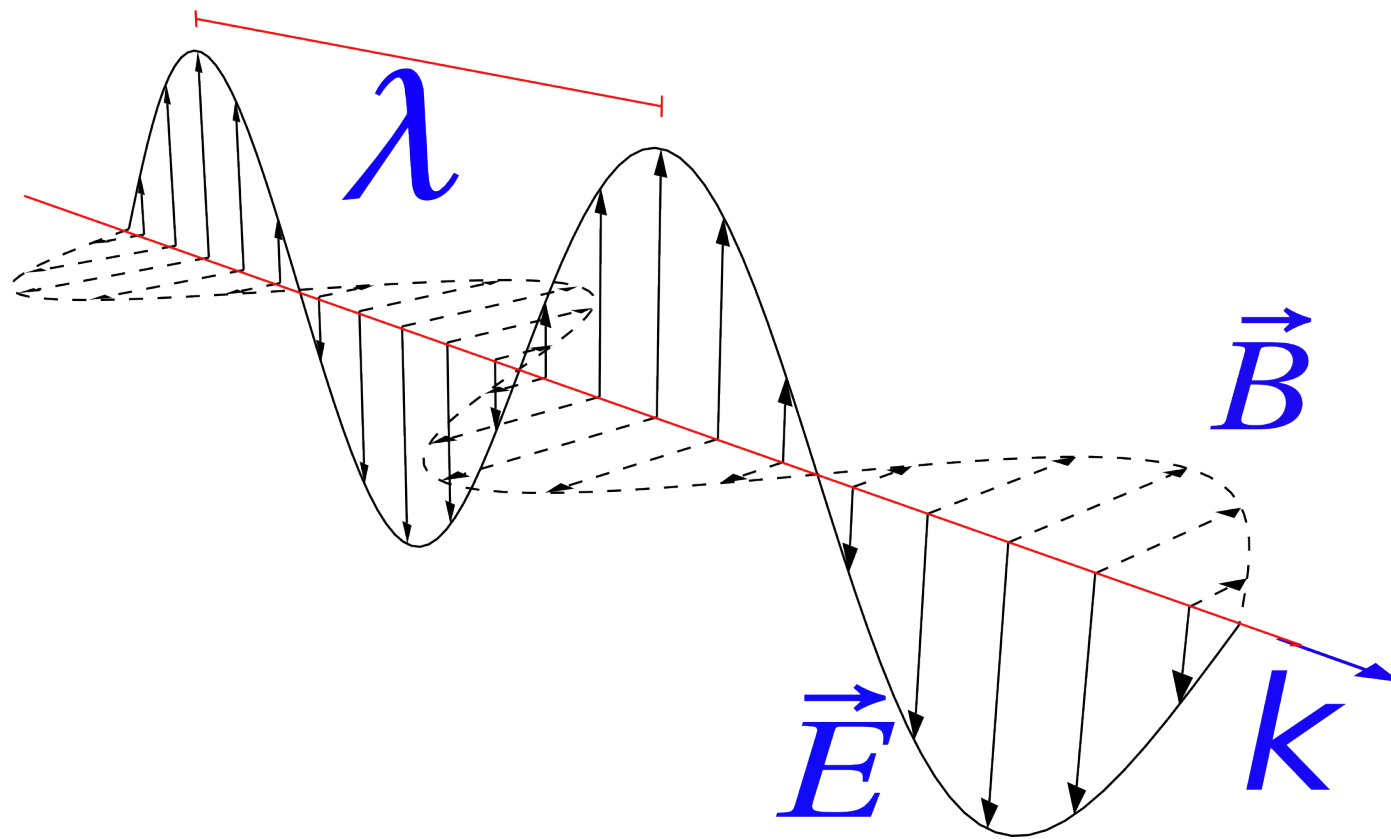
- In other words, the polarization vector \hat{e} is perpendicular to the wavevector \vec{k} . This means that the electric field oscillates in direction perpendicular to the propagation direction.
- The same holds for the direction of oscillation of the magnetic field \vec{B} :

$$\vec{k} \cdot \hat{b} A/c \exp[i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + p)] = 0 \quad \vec{k} \cdot \hat{b} = 0$$

- Fixing the electric field magnitude fixes the magnetic field amplitude. Only one degree of freedom here.
- Electric and magnetic fields are also perpendicular (and $\vec{k}, \hat{e}, \hat{b}$ constitute a right-hand oriented triple):

$$\hat{e} \perp \hat{b} \quad \hat{b} = \frac{\vec{k}}{k} \times \hat{e} \quad \hat{e} = -\frac{\vec{k}}{k} \times \hat{b}$$

- **linear polarization** occurs when \hat{e} is real. At any location \vec{r} , the field then oscillates along a specific line. Other polarizations will be discussed later in the course.



Linearly polarized Electromagnetic Plane-Wave Geometry

Q: If a wave-vector \vec{k} is given, what is the number of linearly independent polarizations vectors \hat{e} ?

Q: A plane wave is characterized by a general wave-vector $\vec{k} = 2\pi/(800nm)\{0, 1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2}\}$ We also know that the electric polarization vector \hat{e} has zero x -component.

A) Find \hat{e}

B) Calculate the magnetic polarization vector \hat{b} .

Q: Plane of polarization is one that is “spanned” by the wave-vector \vec{k} and the electric field polarization vector \hat{e} .

What was the plane of polarization in the previous example?

Q: Show that given \hat{e} and \hat{b} , the wave vector direction can be calculated as:

$$\frac{\vec{k}}{k} = \hat{e} \times \hat{b}$$

Transverse wave summary cont.:

Different ways to express phase argument in the exponential (or sin, cos):

- with wave-vector and angular frequency

$$\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + p$$

- with direction vector $\vec{n} = \vec{k}/k$, and wavelength

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \vec{n} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + p$$

- with temporal frequency f

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \vec{n} \cdot \vec{r} - 2\pi f t + p$$

- with temporal oscillation period T

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \vec{n} \cdot \vec{r} - \frac{2\pi}{T} t + p$$

- with directional cosines

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (\cos \alpha_x x + \cos \alpha_y y + \cos \alpha_z z) - \frac{2\pi}{T} t + p$$

- ... and combinations, of course

Note: All these frequently appear in problem formulations and solutions...

Concrete plane-wave examples:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = \hat{j} E_{0y} \cos[kx - \omega t + p]$$

Electric field is:

- propagating along the x -axis
- linearly polarized along y -axis
- plane-wave, and independent of z and y

Concrete plane-wave examples:

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Electric field is:

- propagating along the x -axis
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- plane-wave, and independent of z and y

Magnetic field is:

- propagating along the x -axis
- linearly polarized along z -axis
- magnitude is E_{0y}/c
- $\hat{b} = +\hat{k}$ (no freedom for its sign!)

Electromagnetic plane waves in dielectric media

All derivations we have done can be repeated for dielectric medium instead of vacuum: The difference will be solely in

$$\epsilon_0 \rightarrow \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$$

As a consequence, all we have established for plane waves holds with this simple replacement:

$$c \rightarrow \frac{c}{n(\omega)}$$

where $n(\omega)$ is the **index of refraction** for the particular angular frequency ω :

$$n(\omega)^2 = \epsilon_r(\omega)$$

Differences between wave propagation in dielectric and in vacuum:

- phase velocity decreases from $c/1$ to $c/n(\omega)$. Note that the refractive index is larger than one in most situations in transparent media. We will discuss this in more detail in the Section devoted to light-matter interactions.
- the in-medium dispersion relation now requires

$$k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2 = k^2 = \frac{\omega^2 n(\omega)^2}{c^2} = \frac{\omega^2 \epsilon_r(\omega)}{c^2} = \frac{\omega^2 (1 + \chi(\omega))}{c^2}$$

- the wavelength in the medium is shorter by the factor given by the refractive index. This is why we sometimes emphasize which wavelength we mean by specifying “vacuum wavelength.”
- consequently, as light passes from one medium to another, its wavelength in general changes, ...

Plane-wave wave-fronts:

Representing a harmonic wave through its **phase**:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = A\hat{e} \exp[i(\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r} - \omega t + p)] = \vec{E}_0 e^{i\phi(\vec{r}, t)}$$

Phase-fronts or **wave-fronts** are lines (surfaces in fact) of equal phase, e.g

$$\phi(\vec{r}, t) = 9.87654321$$

Note: that the above is a “moving” surface, in fact a plane (since we are talking about plane waves) that moves with the phase velocity in the direction of \vec{k} .

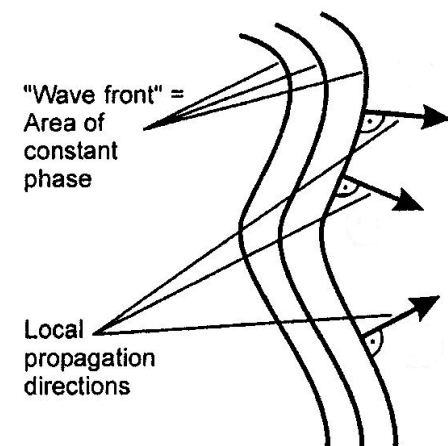
Note: superpositions of plane waves in general results in iso-phase surfaces that are not planes, but may have e.g. spherical shape.

Geometric optical rays: are paths that are everywhere orthogonal to phase fronts. Recalling from our math intro,

$$\vec{n}(\vec{r}, t) \approx \nabla\phi(\vec{r}, t)$$

For our harmonic solution we always have

$$\vec{n}(\vec{r}, t) \approx \vec{k}$$



Energy density stored in the electromagnetic field

For a given “configuration” of the electromagnetic field, the local energy density stored in the field is given by:

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{H}$$

For a non-magnetic, dielectric medium (i.e. $\mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{H}$) characterized by relative permittivity ϵ_r , the energy density reduces to

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{E} + \frac{1}{2 \mu_0} \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{B}$$

We have found that in a plane wave there is a definite relation between the electric and magnetic field magnitudes, namely

$$B^2 = \frac{1}{v^2} E^2 = \frac{n(\omega)^2}{c^2} E^2 = \epsilon_r(\omega) \epsilon_0 \mu_0 E^2$$

Then

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r E^2 + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r E^2 = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r E^2$$

Note:

- The magnetic and electric contribution to the energy density in a plane wave are equal.
- Energy density is proportional to the square of the electric field magnitude. (Recall, that we have eluded to this property to interpret the $1/r$ factor in spherical waves as the one “taking care of energy conservation.”)

Poynting vector and energy flow:

Now that we know the energy density, what is the energy flow?

Consider a volume

$$V = Avdt$$

given by area A perpendicular to the velocity of the wave v

Total energy transported in time dt is VU so the energy flow defined as amount of energy “crossing a surface” per unit area and unit time is then

$$S = \frac{VU}{Adt} = \frac{Adtv\epsilon_0\epsilon_r E^2}{Adt} = \frac{c}{n}\epsilon_0 n^2 E^2 = \epsilon_0 n c \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{E}$$

This is only magnitude of the flow, but it should have a direction (i.e. it should be a vector)!

$$\vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{E} \times \vec{B}$$

Check that **Poynting vector** \vec{S} has the required properties:

- it has the same direction as the wave-vector: $\vec{S} \parallel \vec{k}$
- it has the same magnitude as the expression S above:

$$|\vec{S}| = \frac{1}{\mu_0} EB = \frac{1}{\mu_0 v} E^2 = \frac{n}{\mu_0 c} E^2 = \frac{n\epsilon_0}{\epsilon_0 \mu_0 c} E^2 = \frac{n\epsilon_0 c^2}{c} E^2 = \epsilon_0 n c E^2 = S$$

Time-averaged flow of energy

More explicitly, the magnitude of the Poynting vector is function of location in space and time:

$$S = \epsilon_0 n c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)$$

In a harmonic plane wave, it is

$$S = \epsilon_0 n c \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = \epsilon_0 n c E_0^2 \cos^2[\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t],$$

which value oscillates between zero and a maximal value $\epsilon_0 n c E_0^2$: energy propagates in “chunks.”

$$S = \epsilon_0 n c E_0^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos[2(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)] \right)$$

The second term is **fast**, and a detector will average it to zero. What remains is the time-averaged Poynting vector:

$$\langle S \rangle_T = I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 n c E_0^2 \quad \text{unit : } \frac{W}{m^2}$$

I is called **irradiance** or **intensity**.

Note: We have “derived” Poynting specifically for a plane wave situation, but the formula $\vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{H}$ is valid in general.

Classical vs Quantum: Conceptual differences

Classical:

- particle has a sharp position and velocity
- measured values are “selected” from continuum
- measured values are sharply defined
- measured values do not affect each other
- measurement does not disturb the system

Quantum:

- particle can not have a sharp position and velocity *at the same time*
- measured values are “selected” from continuum or from a discrete sets
- measured values may be “blurred,” each individual measurement is random, *it is the average we measure*
- measurement changes the system’s state
- the same object may behave as a discrete particle *and* as a wave

Photons: Quantum nature of light

Classical theory:

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 n c |\vec{E}_0|^2$$

Quantum theory:

$$I = \frac{1}{\text{area}} \frac{1}{\Delta \text{time}} \sum_{\text{photons}} E_{ph}$$

In other words, energy transported by a beam is not infinitely divisible. There is a minimal quantum, called **photon** that carries the energy

$$E_{ph} = \hbar \omega = h \nu \quad \hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$$

Where:

- **Planck constant** is $\hbar = 1.054571726(47) \times 10^{-34}$ Js
- this energy quantum is proportional to the frequency of light
- its magnitude is really small on the human scale
- most light sources emit zillions of photons



Planck, Max
1858 — 1947

Light pressure

Besides energy quantum, also momentum is divided between photons:

$$\vec{p} = \hbar \vec{k} = \frac{h}{\lambda}$$

Note:

- the direction is that of wave propagation
- \vec{k} plays a similar role as a classical particle velocity ($\vec{p}_{classical} = m\vec{v}$)

Consequence: Light exerts force, or pressure.

Classical picture of light pressure: Pressure equals energy density

$$\mathcal{P} = U = \frac{S(t)}{c}$$

... averaged over optical cycle:

$$\langle \mathcal{P} \rangle_T = \frac{I}{c}$$

Quantum picture of light pressure:

Force \times time = change in momentum = number of absorbed photons \times momentum of each

$$A\mathcal{P}\Delta t = F\Delta t = A\Phi\Delta t\hbar|\vec{k}|$$

where A is area, and Φ is the **photon flux density**, i.e. number of photons (hitting the target) per unit time, per unit of area.

So the connection between classical and quantum is:

$$\mathcal{P} = \Phi \hbar k = \Phi \frac{h}{\lambda} \quad I = \Phi \hbar \omega \quad \mathcal{P} = \hbar k \frac{I}{\hbar \omega} = \frac{I}{c}$$

Note: In the above, we have assumed that all photons were completely absorbed. The situation changes when they would be reflected: The net change of momentum per photon would double and, consequently the pressure or force would also double.
