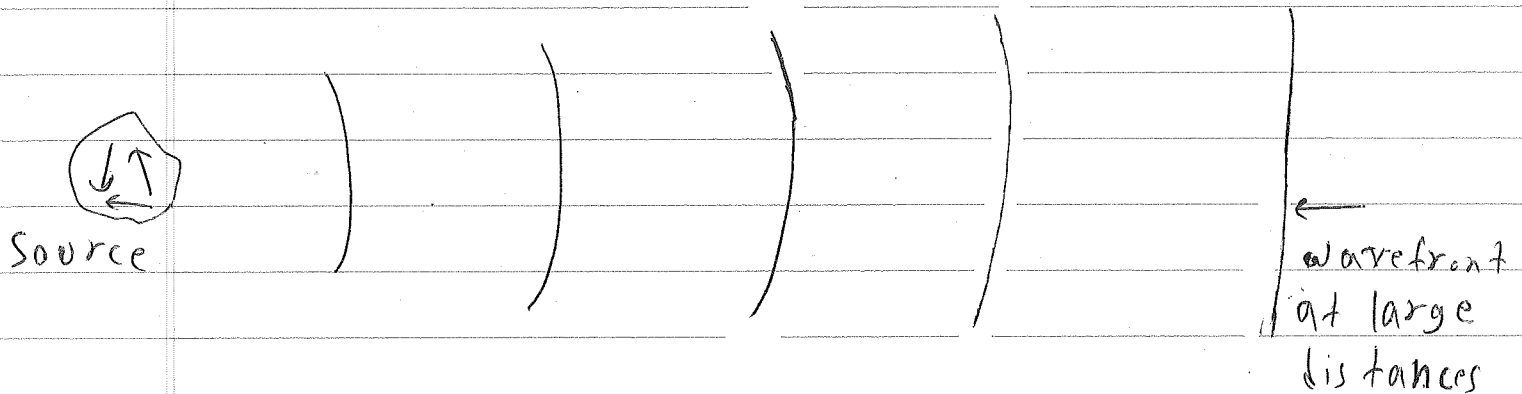


## Electromagnetic Plane Waves

For very far away sources of radiation, the wavefronts (i.e., surfaces of constant phase and amplitude) are approximately planes:



Moreover, a general wave can be constructed from superposition of plane waves as a Fourier integral. It is therefore important to discuss the plane wave solutions to Maxwell equations in source-free space.

The  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$  fields in homogeneous linear media, which contain no free charges or currents, obey the following equations:

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}\right) \vec{E} = 0, \quad \left(\nabla^2 - \mu\epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}\right) \vec{B} = 0.$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0, \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0.$$

Considering harmonic time dependence, and using complex notation, we

can write solutions to the wave equations as:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{x}, t) = \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)} \quad , \quad \vec{B}(\vec{x}, t) = \vec{B}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)}$$

Where:

$$k^2 \equiv \vec{k} \cdot \vec{k} = n^2 \epsilon \omega^2$$

For  $n \in \mathbb{R}$  real and positive, we can define  $\sqrt{\epsilon} = \frac{n}{c}$  with  $\frac{c}{n}$  the speed of propagation in the medium ( $n > 1$ ).

We note that:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{k} \cdot \vec{E}_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E} \perp \vec{k}}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{k} \cdot \vec{B}_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{B} \perp \vec{k}}$$

Also:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \vec{k} \times \vec{E} = \omega \vec{B} \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E} \perp \vec{B}, \quad |\vec{E}| = \frac{c}{n} |\vec{B}|}$$

This implies that the electromagnetic plane wave is a transverse wave for which  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$  are also perpendicular to each other.

An important point to note<sup>is</sup> that real  $\omega \in$  (hence real  $n$ ) does not imply that  $\vec{k}$  is necessarily real. To see this, we can write:

$$\vec{k} = \frac{\omega}{c} n \hat{s} \quad (\hat{s}: \text{a unit vector})$$

$$\vec{k} \cdot \vec{k} = \frac{\omega^2 n^2}{c^2} \Rightarrow (\hat{s}_R + i\hat{s}_I) \cdot (\hat{s}_R + i\hat{s}_I) = 1 \Rightarrow \underbrace{\hat{s}_R \cdot \hat{s}_R}_{=1} - \underbrace{\hat{s}_I \cdot \hat{s}_I}_{=0} = 1, \quad \hat{s}_R \cdot \hat{s}_I = 0$$

This can be satisfied if, for example, we have:

$$\hat{s}_R = \cosh u \hat{x}, \quad \hat{s}_I = \sinh u \hat{y}$$

Then:

$$e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} = e^{\frac{i\omega}{c} n \cosh u x} e^{-\frac{\omega}{c} n \sinh u y}$$

This represents an inhomogeneous plane wave that propagates in the  $x$  direction and (for  $u > 0$ ) decays in the  $y$  direction. This behavior occurs, for example, in total internal reflection.

Polarization

Parameters of a plane wave are its frequency  $\omega$ , direction of

propagation  $\hat{k}$ , and its polarization specified by  $\vec{E}_0$  (note that  $\vec{B}_0 = \frac{\vec{k} \times \vec{E}_0}{\omega}$ ). Let us choose  $\vec{k}$  to be real and in the z direction.

Then:

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

Where  $\vec{E}_0, \vec{k}$  so implies that:

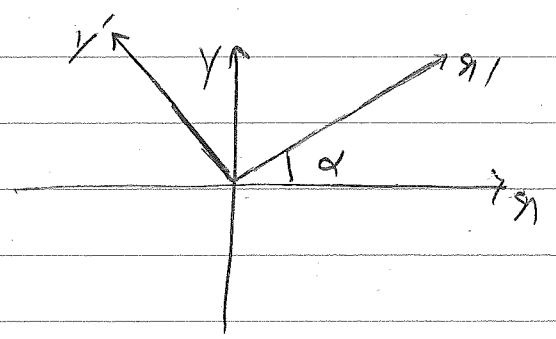
$$\vec{E}_0 = (E_x \hat{x} + E_y \hat{y})$$

In general, the following cases are possible:

(1)  $\frac{E_x}{E_y}$  is real. This happens if  $E_x$  and  $E_y$  have the same phase or are exactly out of phase. The wave in this case is linearly polarized.

A rotation of the x and y axes by angle  $\alpha$  results in:

$$\hat{x}' = \hat{x} \cos \alpha + \hat{y} \sin \alpha, \quad \hat{y}' = -\hat{x} \sin \alpha + \hat{y} \cos \alpha$$



By choosing  $\alpha$  appropriately,  $\vec{E}$  can be situated entirely along the  $x'$  or  $y'$  axis.

(2)  $\frac{E_x}{E_y} = \pm i$ . In this case,  $E_x$  and  $E_y$  have the same magnitude

but their phases differ by  $\pm \frac{\pi}{2}$ . The wave is then circularly polarized:

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

The tip of the electric field (at a fixed  $z$ ) moves with angular frequency  $\omega$  on a circle of radius  $E_0$  in a counterclockwise (for the  $+$  sign) or clockwise (for the  $-$  sign) manner. One can define circular polarization basis vectors as follows:

$$\hat{e}_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{x} \pm i\hat{y})$$

Where:

$$\hat{e}_{+} \cdot \hat{e}_{+}^* = \hat{e}_{-} \cdot \hat{e}_{-}^* = 1 \quad , \quad \hat{e}_{+} \cdot \hat{e}_{-}^* = 0$$

A rotation in the  $xy$  plane by angle  $\alpha$  results in:

$$\hat{e}'_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{x}' \pm i\hat{y}') = \cos\alpha \hat{e}_{\pm} \mp i\sin\alpha \hat{e}_{\pm} = e^{\mp i\alpha} \hat{e}_{\pm}$$

The new basis vectors are just simply rotated by a phase  $\mp \alpha$ .

(3)  $\frac{E_x}{E_y} = rir$  ( $r \neq 1$  and real). This represents a wave that has elliptical polarization. The tip of the electric field in this case

rotates on an ellipse whose axes coincide with the  $x$  and  $y$  axes, and the ratio of the major to minor axes is  $r$  (if  $r > 1$ ) or  $\frac{1}{r}$  (if  $r < 1$ ).

(4)  $\frac{E_x}{E_y} \neq ir$ , real. This is the most general case, which can be parametrized as follows:

$$\vec{E} = E_0 \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{x} + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{y} \right) e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$

Here,  $\phi$  is the phase difference between the  $x$  and  $y$  components of  $\vec{E}$  and  $\tan \frac{\theta}{2}$  is the ratio of their magnitudes. This describes elliptical polarization with the ellipse tilted relative to the  $x$  and  $y$  axes.

We can write different polarizations in the circular polarization basis (which is often more convenient):

$$\vec{E} = E_0 (a \hat{e}_+ + a^* \hat{e}_-) e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \quad (\text{Linear polarization})$$

$$\vec{E} = E_0 \hat{e}_\pm e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \quad (\text{Circular polarization})$$

$$\vec{E} = E_0 (a \hat{e}'_+ + b \hat{e}'_-) e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$

$\left( \frac{a}{b} \text{ real} \right)$

(Elliptical polarization)

The polarization ellipse (in the last case) has major<sup>^</sup> and minor axes that are coincident with the  $x'$  and  $y'$  axes.

Looking at the most general case, (4) in above, it is easy to see that circular and linear polarizations are special cases of the general case:

$$\vec{E} = E_0 \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{x} + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{y} \right) e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$

$\phi = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$ : elliptical polarization with the major and minor axes coinciding with the  $x$  and  $y$  axes

$\phi = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \theta = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$ : circular polarization

$\phi = 0$ : linear polarization