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Electromagnetic Theory

Paper - C-13T

6th Sem

Electrodynamics classical theory

Electromagnetic field (\vec{E} & \vec{B}). Source of this fields are charges & currents.

For classical electrodynamics charge distribution are continuous
 charge density $\rho = \rho(\vec{r}, t)$ and current density $\vec{j} = \vec{j}(\vec{r}, t)$

Maxwell eqs:

① $\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho / \epsilon_0$

③ $\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$

② $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$

④ $\nabla \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0$

Q: why these are called eqs of motions?
observation-1

The electromagnetic field is a dynamical system given by the values of E_x, E_y, E_z & B_x, B_y, B_z at every point in space at any instant of time.

From these the spatial derivatives of the field can be calculated. Maxwell's eqs gives us the rate of change with time. In this sense it is the eqs of motion.

obs-2

The Maxwell's eqs contain the continuity eqs for charge distribution conservation. (Hints take divergence of the eqs)

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{B}) = \mu_0 \nabla \cdot \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = 0$$

obs-3

the eqs ① and ② are inhomogeneous differential eqs
 eqs ③ and ④ are homogeneous differential eqs.

obs-4

Maxwell's eqs are a set of first order simultaneous coupled differential eqs. (\vec{E} increases with B as again, B with E)

obs-5

How many dependent variables are there?

$\Rightarrow 6$

How many eqs are there?

$\Rightarrow 6$

From eq ③ $\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$
 From eq ④ $\nabla \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0$

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla \times \vec{E} + \nabla \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial (\nabla \cdot \vec{B})}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \text{const in time}$$

eq ③ is the initialisation of eqs

Similarly, from eq. ① $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} - \rho/\epsilon_0 = 0$
 and from eq. ② $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$
 or $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$
 or $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{j} + \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E})}{\partial t} = 0$
 or $-\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E})}{\partial t} = 0$
 or $\frac{\partial (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} - \rho/\epsilon_0)}{\partial t} = 0$

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} - \rho/\epsilon_0 = \text{Const in time.}$

The eq. ① is the initialisation of eq. ②

So, there are sim eq. of motion.

Thus it is shown that for 6 variables we have 6 eq.

Electric field in material.

Bound charge density, $\rho_b = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}$

$\vec{P} \Rightarrow$ Polarisation

Now, $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_f + \rho_b}{\epsilon_0}$

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\epsilon_0 \vec{E}) = \rho_f - \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{P}$

or $\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}) = \rho_f$

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_f$

① first Maxwell's eq. for material medium

$\therefore \vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}$ = electric displacement vector (Electric field in material)
 for linear isotropic medium, $\vec{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \vec{E}$

$\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi_e) \vec{E}$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon = \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi_e) \\ \kappa = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} = 1 + \chi_e = \text{dielectric const in} \end{array} \right.$

$\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}$

Magnetic field in material.

Magnetisation current density, $\vec{j}_b = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{M}$

$\vec{M} \Rightarrow$ Magnetisation

and Polarisation current density, $\vec{j}_p = \frac{\partial \vec{P}}{\partial t}$

Now, From the eq. ② we get
 $\frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \vec{j}_f + \vec{j}_b + \vec{j}_p + \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \vec{j}_f + \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{M} + \frac{\partial \vec{P}}{\partial t} + \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$

$\vec{\nabla} \times \left(\frac{\vec{B}}{\mu_0} - \vec{M} \right) = \vec{j}_f + \frac{\partial (\epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P})}{\partial t}$

$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \vec{j}_f + \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t}$ \Rightarrow and Maxwell eq. in medium

Note: The homogeneous set of eqns is unchanged.

$$\vec{H} = \vec{B}/\mu_0 - \vec{M}$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu_0(\vec{H} + \vec{M})$$

$$\vec{M} = \chi_m \vec{H}$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu_0(1 + \chi_m)\vec{H}$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$$

$$\mu = \mu_0(1 + \chi_m)$$

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon_0 \vec{E} + \vec{P}$$

$$\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu_0} - \vec{M}$$

Constitutive relations

For linear isotropic medium.

$$\mu_r = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = 1 + \chi_m = \text{relative Permeability in the medium.}$$

Maxwell's eqns. inside a medium

① $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_f$

② $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H} = \vec{j}_f + \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t}$

③ $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$

④ $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t} = 0$

Helmholtz Theorem

A vector field is completely specified by the values of its divergence and curl every where in space and if the sources producing the field vanishes sufficiently rapidly at infinity.

Suppose we are told that the divergence of a vector function $\vec{F}(\vec{r})$ is a specified scalar function $D(\vec{r})$

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = D(\vec{r})$ ①

and curl of $F(\vec{r})$ is a specified vector function $C(\vec{r})$:

$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = C(\vec{r})$ ②

For consistency, C must be divergenceless, $\vec{\nabla} \cdot C = 0$ because the divergence of a curl is always zero.

If $D(\vec{r})$ and $C(\vec{r})$ go to zero, sufficiently rapidly at infinity, the answer is yes, as I will claim that

$\vec{F}(\vec{r}) = -\vec{\nabla}U + \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{W}$ ③

where $U(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{D(\vec{r}')}{r} d\tau'$ ④

and $W(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{C(\vec{r}')}{r} d\tau'$ the integrals are over all the space and as always $r = |\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|$. ⑤

$$\therefore \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = -\nabla^2 U = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int D \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) d\tau' = \int D(r') \delta^3(\vec{r}-\vec{r}') d\tau' = D(r)$$

Again

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{W}) = -\nabla^2 \vec{W} + \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{W}) \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{W} &= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) d\tau' = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}' \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) d\tau' \quad \left[\because \vec{\nabla} = -\vec{\nabla}' \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi} \left[\int \frac{1}{r} \vec{\nabla}' \cdot \vec{c} d\tau' - \oint \frac{1}{r} \vec{c} \cdot d\vec{s} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Now, from the eqn (3) ~~we~~ \vec{c} is divergenceless and the surface integral vanishes as long as c goes to zero sufficiently rapidly at infinity. $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{W} = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} &= -\nabla^2 \vec{W} = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int c \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) d\tau' \\ &= \int c(r') \delta^3(\vec{r}-\vec{r}') d\tau' = c(r) \end{aligned}$$

~~So~~ So, the divergence $D(r)$ and the curl $\vec{c}(r)$ of a vector function $F(r)$ are specified, and if both go to zero faster than $1/r^2$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ and if $F(r)$ goes to zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$, then F is given uniquely by —

$$F(r) = -\vec{\nabla} U + \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{W}$$

Corollary of Helmholtz theorem:

Any (differentiable) vector function $F(r)$ that goes to zero faster than $1/r$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ can be expressed as the gradient of a scalar ~~part~~ plus the curl of a vector function.

$$\vec{F}(r) = \vec{\nabla} \left(-\frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{\vec{\nabla}' \cdot \vec{F}(r')}{r} d\tau' \right) + \vec{\nabla} \times \left(\frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{\vec{\nabla}' \times \vec{F}(r')}{r} d\tau' \right)$$



Maxwell's eqs. free space ($\rho=0, j=0$)

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} &= 0 & \textcircled{2} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 \\ \textcircled{3} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} &= \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} & \textcircled{4} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} &= -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \end{aligned}$$

taking curl on the both side of eqs. (2)

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \vec{\nabla} \times \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

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

$$\text{or, } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t^2}} \Rightarrow \text{Wave eq. in } \vec{B}$$

where, $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$ = velocity of em. wave in free space.

● Electromagnetic wave can propagate in vacuum.

Maxwell displacement current responsible for the existence of the electromagnetic wave.

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} &= \rho / \epsilon_0 & \textcircled{3} \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 \\ \textcircled{2} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} &= \mu_0 \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} & \textcircled{4} \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

From eqs. (3) $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$ — (5)

From eqs. (4) $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = 0$

$$\text{or, } \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}) = 0$$

$$\therefore \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} = -\vec{\nabla} \phi \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

Putting the value of \vec{E} and \vec{B} in the eqs. (2) we get —

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = \mu_0 \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (-\vec{\nabla} \phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t})$$

$$\vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) - \nabla^2 \vec{A} = \mu_0 \vec{j} - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{A}}{\partial t^2} - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \vec{\nabla} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}$$

$$\text{or, } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{A}}{\partial t^2} = -\mu_0 \vec{j} + \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}) \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

Putting \vec{E} and \vec{B} in terms of Potential \vec{A} and ϕ in the eq. (1) we get —

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot (-\vec{\nabla} \phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}) = \rho / \epsilon_0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) = -\rho / \epsilon_0 \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

We have now reduced the set of four Maxwell eqs. of two eqs. But they are still coupled equations.

Gauge Transformations and Gauge Symmetry:

Let us use a transformation from \vec{A} to \vec{A}' such that,
 [where λ is a well behaved scalar fⁿ of space & time]
 $\vec{A}' = \vec{A} + \nabla\lambda$

$$\vec{B}' = \nabla \times \vec{A}' = \nabla \times (\vec{A} + \nabla\lambda) = \nabla \times \vec{A}$$

$\therefore \vec{B}$ remain unchanged under this transformation

$$\text{Again, } \vec{E}' = -\nabla\phi' - \frac{\partial \vec{A}'}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{E}' = -\nabla\phi - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{A} + \nabla\lambda)$$

$$\vec{E}' = -\nabla(\phi - \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t}) - \frac{\partial \vec{A}'}{\partial t}$$

$$\therefore \phi = \phi' + \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{E}' = -\nabla\phi' - \frac{\partial \vec{A}'}{\partial t}$$

Now, \vec{E} is also remain unchanged under gauge transformation

$$\therefore \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \vec{A}' = \vec{A} + \nabla\lambda \\ \phi' = \phi - \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t} \end{array} \right\} \text{ this is the gauge transformation.}$$

The invariance of the fields under such gauge transformation is called gauge invariance.

Gauge Symmetry:- Since, both \vec{E} and \vec{B} remain same under these transformation, it is a symmetry transformation for the Maxwell equation. This symmetry is called gauge symmetry.

Gauge choice:-

The freedom implied by gauge transformation means

that we can choose a set of potentials (A, ϕ) such that

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}' + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi'}{\partial t} = 0 \quad \text{from eq. (7)} \quad \text{where } c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

Now, under gauge choice the eq. (8) and (9) becomes

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \nabla^2 \phi - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} = -\rho/\epsilon_0 \\ \nabla^2 \vec{A}' - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{A}'}{\partial t^2} = -\mu_0 \vec{j} \end{array} \right. \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

This will uncouple the pair of equations and leave the inhomogeneous wave equations; one for ϕ and one for \vec{A} .

To see that Potentials can always be found to satisfy the Lorentz Condition, suppose that the Potentials \vec{A}, ϕ that satisfy eq. (7) and (8) do not satisfy the eq. (9). Then let us make a gauge transformation to Potentials \vec{A}', ϕ' and demand that \vec{A}', ϕ' satisfy the Lorentz Condition:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A}' + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi'}{\partial t} = 0 = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \vec{\Lambda} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{\Lambda} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial t} = - \left(\nabla \cdot \vec{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)$$

now, Preserves the Lorentz Condition, provided \vec{A} and ϕ satisfy it initially.

Even for Potentials that satisfy the Lorentz Condition there is arbitrariness. Evidently the restricted gauge transformation.

$$\vec{A} \rightarrow \vec{A}' = \vec{A} + \vec{\Lambda}$$

$$\phi \rightarrow \phi' = \phi - \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial t}$$

where $\nabla \cdot \vec{\Lambda} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Lambda}{\partial t^2} = 0$
 All the Potentials in this restricted class are said to belong to the Lorentz Gauge.

~~the Lorentz gauge is commonly used because -~~
 It leads to the inhomogeneous wave equations which treat ϕ and \vec{A} on equivalent footings.
 It is a concept independent of the coordinate system chosen and so fits naturally into the considerations of special relativity.

Coulomb Gauge - Another useful gauge for the Potentials is the Coulomb gauge or transverse gauge.

this is the gauge in which $\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0$

Now from the eq. (8) we get $\nabla^2 \phi = -\rho/\epsilon_0$

and so ϕ is $\phi(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(\vec{r}', t') dV'}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$

Plasma Physics

Plasma σ_0 - A plasma is an ionized gas consisting of charged particles (eg., electrons and ions).

At very high temperature (50,000K) collisions between gas particles causes the ionization of the gas.

⊗ 'Plasma is often mentioned as the fourth state of matter' — Explain.

⇒ A highly ionized gas in which the number of free electrons are approximately equal to the number of positive ions, sometimes described as fourth state of matter, plasma occur in interstellar space, in the atmospheres of star (including sun), in discharge tubes and in experimental thermo-nuclear reactors.

Because the particles in a plasma are charged, its behaviour differs in some respects from that of gas. Plasmas can be created in the laboratory by heating, a low pressure gas until the mean kinetic energy of the gas particles is comparable to the ionization potential of the gas particle

atom or molecule.

⊗ $\nu_c \ll \nu \Rightarrow$ plasma oscillation
where, $\nu_c \Rightarrow$ collision frequency

$\nu_c > \nu \Rightarrow$ magnetohydrodynamics

The plasma column will move as a whole, the effective charge density will be zero.

But, since there are a large no. of carriers the conductivity will be very high ($\sigma \rightarrow \infty$).

Propagation of electromagnetic waves in a dilute plasma.

⇒ Electric current is carried by electrons and ionized atoms. Because the electrons are much less massive than the ions, the current is dominated by the electron motion.

$$(a_e = F/m_e \gg F/m_{ion} = a_{ion})$$

Use the classical electron model for the current.

The free electrons in a plasma obey the equation of motion —

$$m \frac{d^2 \vec{r}}{dt^2} = -\gamma \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} - e E_0 e^{-i\omega t}$$

\uparrow damping factor. \searrow electric force

The steady-state solution is —

$$\vec{r}(t) = \frac{e}{m\omega^2 + i\omega\gamma} E_0 e^{-i\omega t}$$

↪ the electron position oscillates at the driving frequency.

and the velocity is

$$\vec{v}(t) = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \frac{-i\omega e}{m\omega^2 + i\omega\gamma} E_0 e^{-i\omega t}$$

Current density

Let $n_e =$ electron density (# electron/m³)

Then $\vec{J} = -e \vec{v} n_e$ unit: $\frac{C \cdot m}{s \cdot m^3} = A/m^2$

So, $\vec{J} = \delta \vec{E}$ (like ohm's law)

where, $\delta(E) = \frac{i n_e e^2}{m \omega^2 + i \omega \gamma}$ i.e. the conductivity is complex.

Case of a Dilute Plasma

It's not simply that n_e is small, because δ is proportional to n_e .

what we mean is that collisions are rare then γ is small, i.e. $i \omega \gamma \ll m \omega^2$.

So, we'll take $\delta(\omega) = \frac{i e^2 n_e}{m \omega}$

There is no energy loss ← ~~red~~ purely imaginary δ

Now, $\frac{dP}{dV} = \vec{J} \cdot \vec{E} \Rightarrow$ Power transfer from the electromagnetic field to the electrons.

$$\vec{E} = \text{Re } \vec{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)}$$

$$= \vec{E}_0 \cos(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)$$

$$\vec{J} = \text{Re}(\delta \vec{E}) = -\frac{e^2 n_e}{m \omega} \vec{E}_0 \sin(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)$$

\therefore The electric field and current oscillates 90° degree out of phase;

Now, $\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J} = - \frac{e^2 n_e}{m \omega} E_0^2 \underbrace{\cos(kx - \omega t) \sin(kx - \omega t)}_{\text{average value is 0}}$

The Energy Sloshes back and forth between the field and the current, but there is no energy loss.

Plasma frequency & Dispersion relation

the Dispersion Relation

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

$$\vec{B} = \frac{k}{\omega} E_0 \hat{z} e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

$$\underbrace{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}} = \frac{k E_0}{\omega} i k \hat{x} \times \hat{z} e^{i(kx - \omega t)} = \frac{-i k^2}{\omega} E_0 \hat{y} e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

$$\therefore \rightarrow m_0 b \vec{E} + m_0 b \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = (m_0 b - m_0 b i \omega) E_0 \hat{x} e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

$$\therefore \frac{-i k^2}{\omega} = -\frac{i \omega}{c^2} + m_0 \frac{i e^2 n_e}{m \omega}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{k^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - \frac{\omega_p^2}{c^2}} \text{ where } \omega_p^2 = \frac{e^2 n_e}{m \epsilon_0}$$

Dispersion relation, i.e. the relation between k and ω

and Plasma frequency, $\omega_p = \sqrt{\frac{e^2 n_e}{m \epsilon_0}}$

Propagation of Electro-magnetic Waves

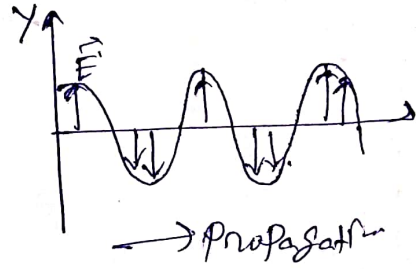
I High frequency range -

High frequency, $\vec{E} = E_0 \hat{j} e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$ (real part)
 If $\omega > \omega_p$ then k is real and the wave propagates with const amplitude.

$$\vec{E} = E_0 \hat{j} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

Dispersion, phase velocity is

$$v_{\text{phase}} = \frac{\omega}{k}$$



$$v_{\text{phase}} = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\omega c}{\sqrt{\omega^2 - \omega_p^2}} \quad \text{depends on frequency}$$

II Low frequency -

$$k = \frac{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 - \omega^2}}{c}$$

If $\omega < \omega_p$ the k is purely imaginary;
 $k = i\kappa$ where κ is real \Rightarrow attenuation
 no propagation.

$$\vec{E} = E_0 \hat{j} e^{i(i\kappa x - \omega t)} = E_0 \hat{j} e^{-\kappa x} e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\text{real part} = E_0 \hat{j} e^{-\kappa x} \cos \omega t$$



In electrostatics an electric field does not penetrate into a conductor (e.g. a plasma); the electrons move to screen the electric field.

Exercise: For low frequency ($\omega < \omega_p$) Calculate the attenuation length.

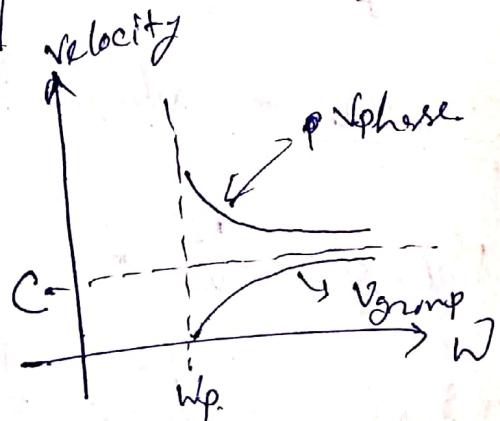
$$v_{\text{phase}} = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\omega^2 - \omega_p^2}} > c$$

$$k^2 = \frac{\omega^2 - \omega_p^2}{c^2}$$

$$v_{\text{group}} = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{\sqrt{\omega^2 - \omega_p^2}}{\omega} c < c \quad \leftarrow \text{i.e. } \frac{c^2}{v_{\text{phase}}}$$

$$d\omega^2 = 2k dk = \frac{d\omega^2}{c^2} = \frac{2\omega d\omega}{c^2} \Rightarrow \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{c^2}{\omega}$$

$$v_{\text{phase}} \times v_{\text{group}} = c^2$$



i.e. Propagation of finite electromagnetic waves, i.e. waves with finite longitudinal extent (as opposed to ideal plane waves) (pulses or wave packets).

⊕ Skin depth in plasma

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

From dispersion relation, we obtain, $k = \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{\omega^2 - \omega_p^2}$

• If $\omega > \omega_p$ (like vacuum)

k is real, $\vec{E} = \vec{E}_0 e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$, wave propagates without decay.

• If $\omega < \omega_p$ (like conductor)

$k = i \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{\omega_p^2 - \omega^2} = i|k|$ is imaginary.

$\vec{E} = \vec{E}_0 e^{i\omega t} e^{-|k|x}$ → wave decays in x direction and will be reflected.

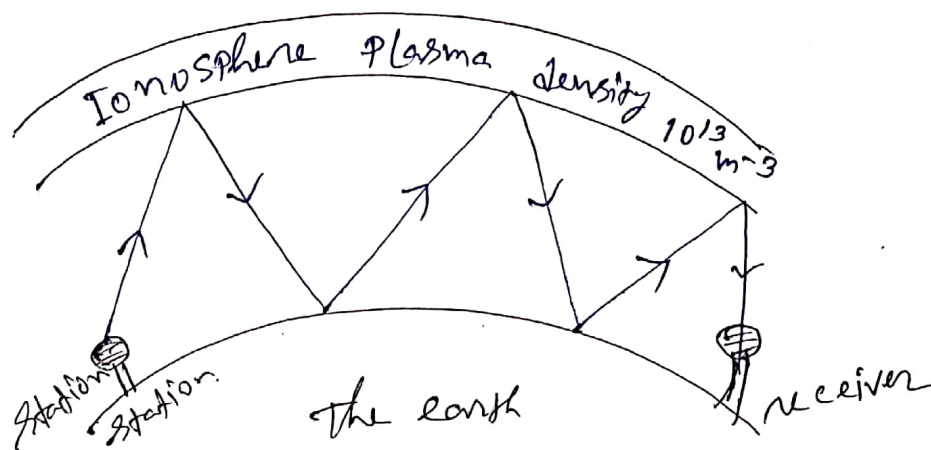
If $\omega \ll \omega_p$, $k \approx i \frac{\omega_p}{c} = i/\delta$, $[\delta = \frac{c}{\omega_p}] \Rightarrow$ Skin depth in plasma

① Application to Propagation through ionosphere.

In Ionospheric Plasma (height 50 km to 100 km) has a typical density of $n_e = 10^{13} / \text{m}^3$

$$f_p = \frac{\omega_p}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{e^2 n_e}{m \epsilon_0}} \approx 28 \text{ MHz.}$$

Short wave radio (fr 10 MHz) relies on the multiple reflection between the ionospheric plasma layer and the earth to reach a distant receiver.



Earth is "Conductor" ($\sigma \sim 10^{-2} \text{ S/m}$) as long as the impedance $|Z| = \left| \sqrt{\frac{-i\omega\mu_0}{\sigma}} \right| \ll Z_{\text{air}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}}$

which requires $\omega \ll \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$

$$\text{or, } f \ll \frac{\sigma}{2\pi\epsilon_0} = \frac{10^{-2}}{2\pi \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12}} = 180 \text{ MHz}$$

For $f = 10 \text{ MHz}$, the earth is good Conductor.