

# PHY401

## Electromagnetic Theory I

Waves in One Dimension

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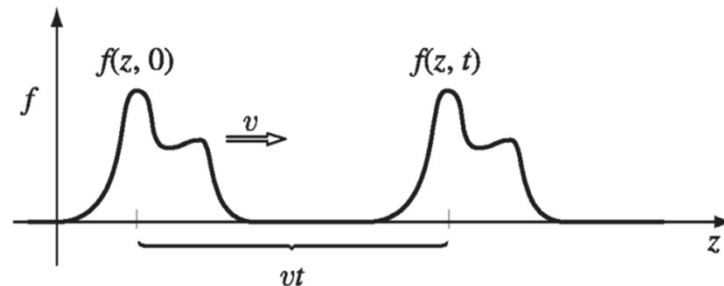
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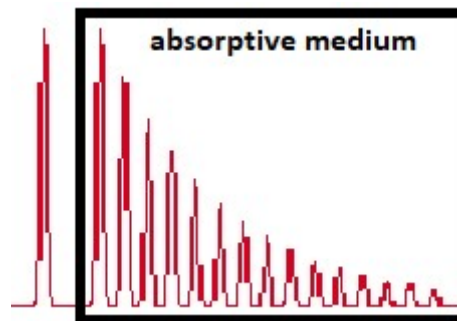
# 9.1 Waves in One Dimension

## 9.1.1 The Wave Equation

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



In the presence of absorption, the wave will diminish in size as it moves.



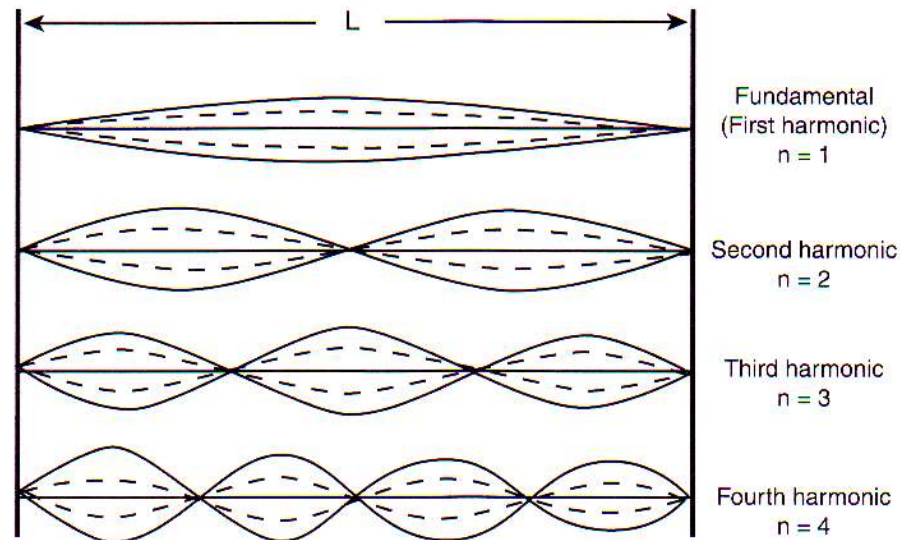
$$A = A_0 e^{-\alpha z}$$

Lets start from the simplest case to write the **wave equation**. Obviously there can be absorption, dispersion effects and the shape of the wave is affected.

If the medium is dispersive different frequencies travel at different speeds.

**Red** light travel faster than **blue** light

Standing waves (combination of two waves moving in opposite directions, each having the same amplitude and frequency) do not propagate.



Light wave can propagate in vacuum.

# How to represent a “wave” mathematically?

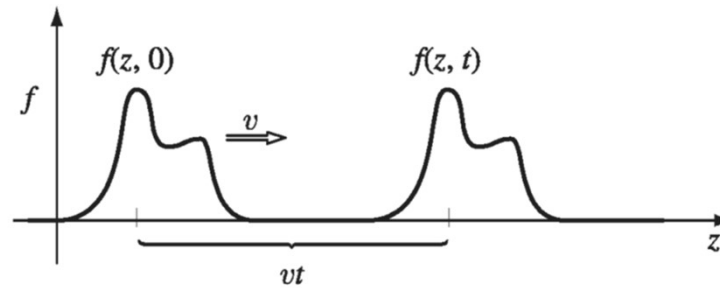
Once at  $t=0$ , and again at some later time  $t$  each point on the wave form simply shifts to the right by an amount  $vt$ , where  $v$  is the velocity

Initial shape:  $f(z, 0) = g(z)$

Subsequent form:  $f(z, t) = ?$

A displacement at point  $z$  at time  $t$  is the same as the displacement a distance  $Vt$  to the left back at time  $t=0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f(z, t) &= f(z - vt, 0) \\ &= g(z - vt) \end{aligned}$$



The function  $f(z,t)$  depends on them only in the very special combination  $z-vt$  (or  $z+vt$ )

Examples

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f_1(z,t) = Ae^{-b(z-vt)^2} \\ f_2(z,t) = A \sin[b(z-vt)] \\ f_3(z,t) = \frac{A}{b(z-vt)^2 + 1} \end{array} \right.$$

Not a wave:

$$f_4(z, t) = Ae^{-b(z^2 + vt)}$$

Not a wave:

$$f(z, t) = A \sin(bz) \cos(bvt)^3$$

A standing wave:

$$\begin{aligned} f_5(z, t) &= A \sin(bz) \cos(bvt) \\ &= \frac{A}{2} [\sin(b(z + vt)) + \sin(b(z - vt))] \end{aligned}$$

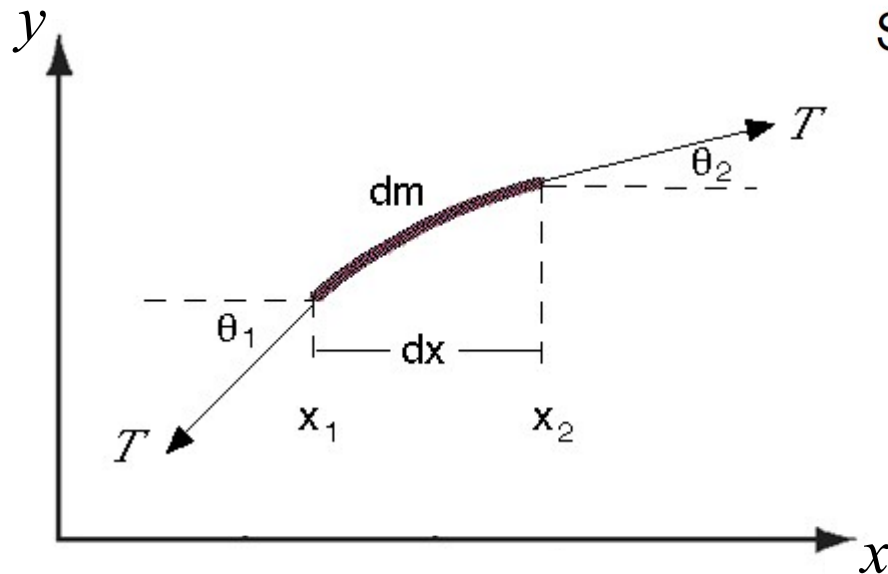
# The Wave Equation of a String

<b>Differential Form:</b>	Force = change of momentum with change of time	$F = \frac{d(mv)}{dt}$
<b>With mass constant:</b>	Force = mass X <u>acceleration</u>	$F = m a$

Let's apply Newton's second law in the vertical  $y$ -direction.

$\mu$ : mass per unit length

$$F_y = T \sin(\theta_2) - T \sin \theta_1 = (\mu dx) \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$



Small angle approximation:  $\sin \theta \approx \tan \theta = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$

$\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2 < 15^\circ$

$$T \left( \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_2} - \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_1} \right) = (\mu dx) \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\frac{T \left( \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_2} - \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_1} \right)}{dx} = \mu \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$



$$\frac{T \left( \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x_2} - \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x_1} \right)}{dx} = \mu \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad T \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \mu \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\mu}{T} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

Acceleration is proportional to tension  $T$ , inversely proportional to  $\mu$ .

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} = \frac{T}{\mu} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2}$$

Speed of a wave in a stretched string:

$$g = \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}}$$

Classical wave equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{g^2} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

*Note that  $y$  is a function dependent on  $x$ .*

The most general solution to the wave equation is the sum of a wave to the right and a wave to the left:

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

$\xrightarrow{\quad} z \qquad -z \xleftarrow{\quad}$

## Sinusoidal Waves

wave speed

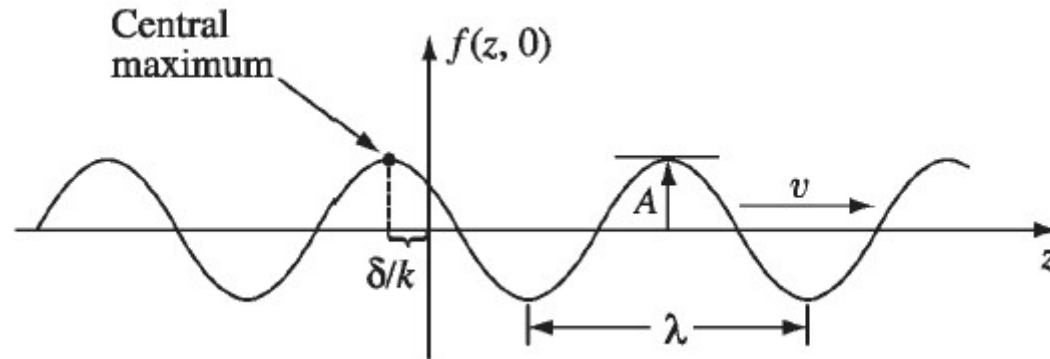
$$f(z, t) = A \cos[k(z - vt) + \delta]$$

amplitude      wave number      phase constant

A diagram showing the equation  $f(z, t) = A \cos[k(z - vt) + \delta]$  with four red arrows pointing to its components. One arrow points from the label 'amplitude' to the letter 'A'. Another arrow points from 'wave number' to the letter 'k'. A third arrow points from 'phase constant' to the Greek letter 'delta'. A fourth arrow points from 'wave speed' to the letter 'v' in the term '-vt'.

**Amplitude:** Maximum displacement from equilibrium

**Phase:** The argument of the cosine



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

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}, \lambda: \text{wave length}$$

$$\omega = kv = 2\pi \frac{v}{\lambda} = 2\pi f$$

$\omega$ : angular frequency

$f$ : frequency

**Angular frequency** (in radians) is larger than regular **frequency** (in Hz) by a factor of  $2\pi$

## (ii) Complex notation

Euler's formula  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$

$$\operatorname{Re}[Ae^{i(kz - \omega t + \delta)}] = A \cos[k(z - vt) + \delta]$$

↓  
Wave equation (sinusoidal)

$$\operatorname{Re}[A^{i\delta} e^{i(kz - \omega t)}] = \operatorname{Re}[\underline{\tilde{A}e^{i(kz - \omega t)}}]$$

□  
 $A = Ae^{i\delta}$

↑  
complex wave function

$$f(z, t) = \operatorname{Re}[\tilde{f}(z, t)]$$

The advantage of the complex notation is that exponentials are much easier to manipulate than sines and cosines.

# Example 9.1

Suppose you combine two sinusoidal waves, you simply add the corresponding complex wave functions and then take the real part.

$$f_3 = f_1 + f_2 = \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_1] + \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_2] = \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_1 + \tilde{f}_2] = \text{Re}[\tilde{f}_3]$$

In particular, if they have the same frequency and wave number, it is very easy.

$$\tilde{f}_3 = \tilde{A}_1 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} + \tilde{A}_2 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} = \tilde{A}_3 e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$

$$\text{where } A_3 e^{i\delta_3} = A_1 e^{i\delta_1} + A_2 e^{i\delta_2}$$

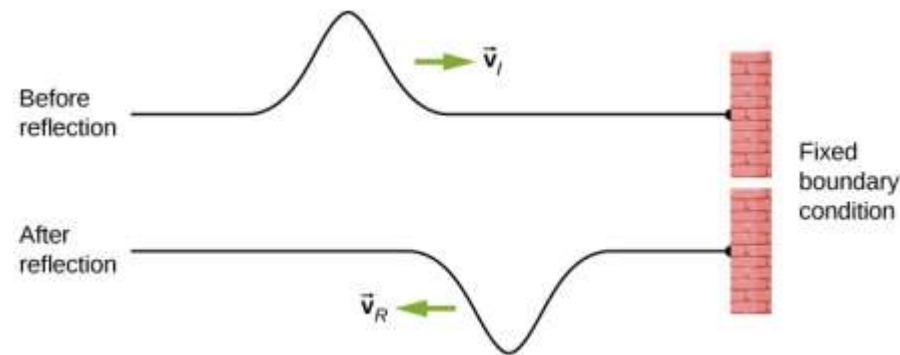
Try Prob. 9.3.

Try solving Prob. 9.3 without complex notation to see the difference.

# Boundary Conditions: Reflection and Transmission

When a wave propagates through a medium, it reflects when it encounters the boundary of the medium. Waves will react differently if the boundary of the medium is fixed in place or free to move.

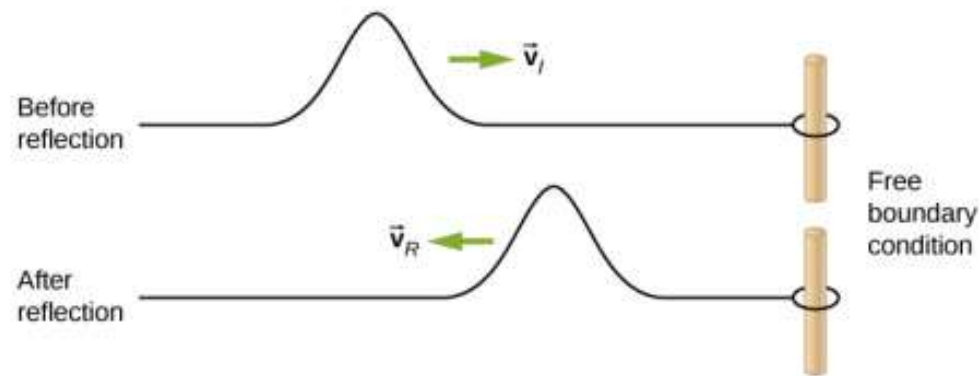
A **fixed boundary condition** exists when the medium at a boundary is fixed in place so it cannot move.



<https://cnx.org/contents/5I39byUz@3.2:atV-gRHg@10/3-4-Interference-of-Waves>

The reflected wave is reflected  $180^\circ$  out of phase with the incident wave.

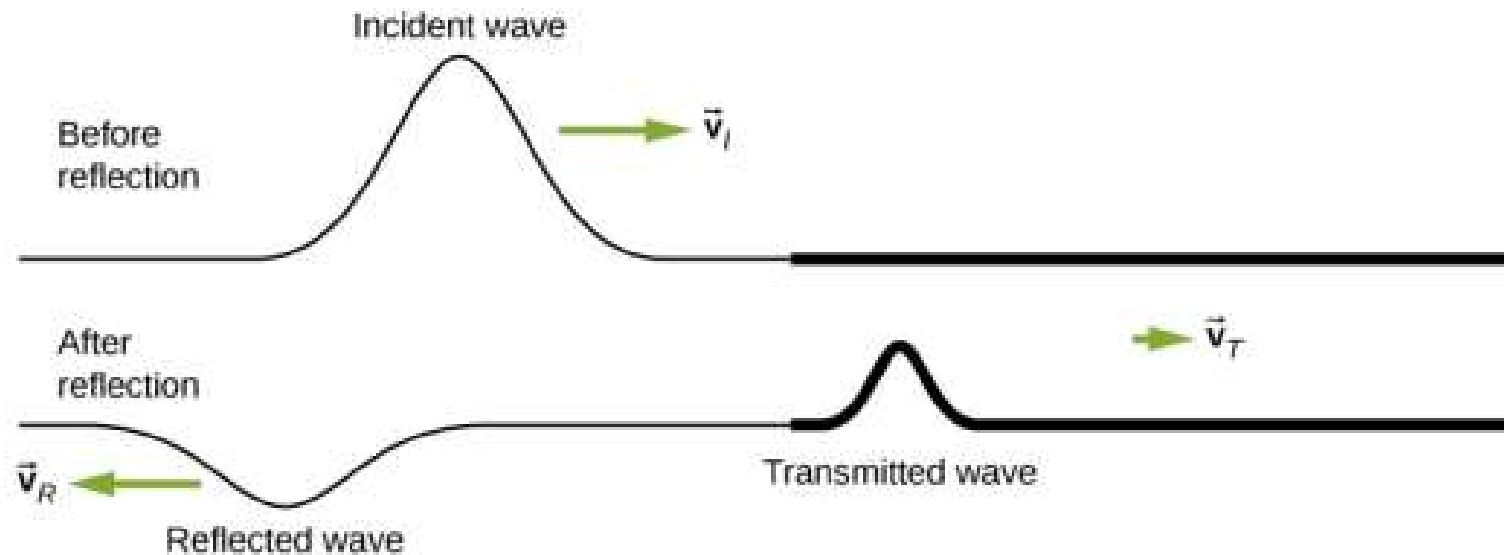
A **free boundary condition** exists when the medium at the boundary is free to move.



<https://cnx.org/contents/5I39byUz@3.2:atV-gRHg@10/3-4-Interference-of-Waves>

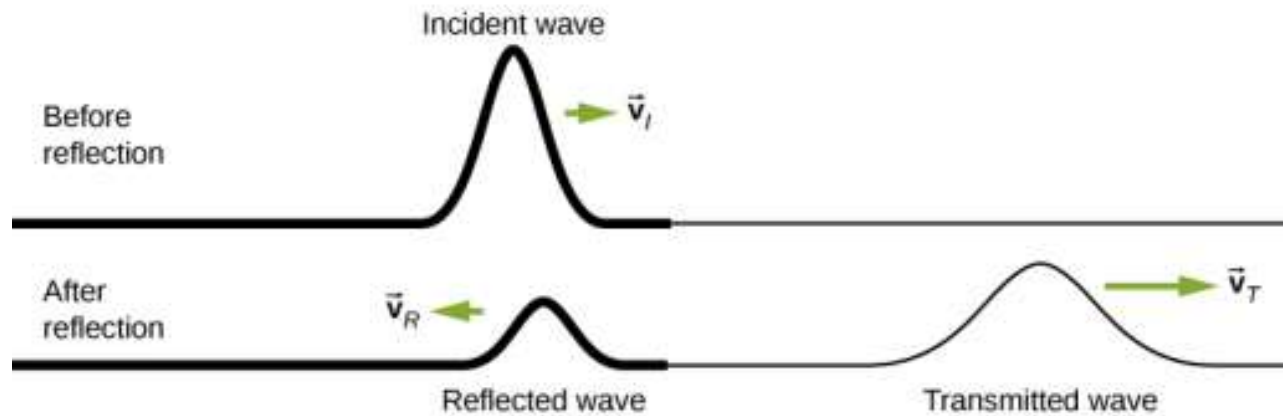
The reflected wave is in phase with respect to the incident wave.

In some situations, the boundary of the medium is neither fixed nor free.



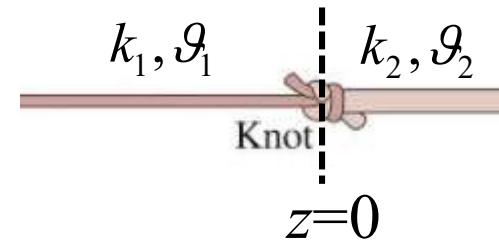
A low-linear mass density string is attached to a string of a higher linear mass density.





A high linear mass density string is attached to a string of a lower linear mass density.

Suppose that there is a knot between two strings at  $z=0$  and the oscillations are at the same frequency. How are the reflected and transmitted waves in terms of the incident wave?



The incident wave,

$$\tilde{f}_I(z, t) = \tilde{A}_I e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)}, \quad (z < 0)$$

The reflected wave,

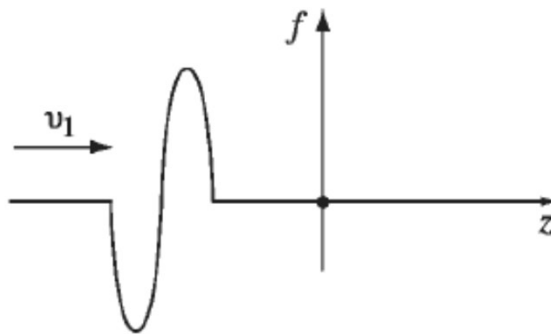
$$\tilde{f}_R(z, t) = \tilde{A}_R e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)}, \quad (z < 0)$$

The transmitted wave,

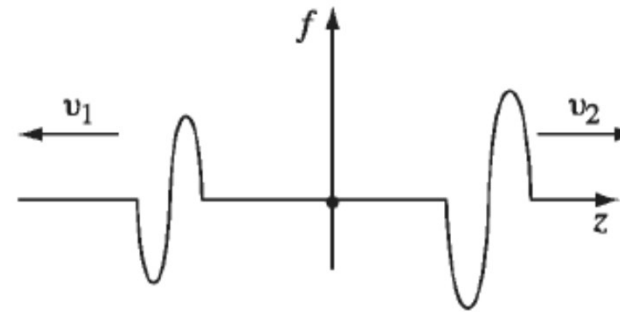
$$\tilde{f}_T(z, t) = \tilde{A}_T e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)}, \quad (z > 0)$$

1st boundary condition: At the join  $z=0$ , the displacement just slightly to the left ( $z=0^-$ ) must be equal the displacement to the right ( $z=0^+$ ).  
Mathematically  $f(z,t)$  is continuous at  $z=0$ .

$$f(0^-, t) = f(0^+, t)$$



(a) Incident pulse



(b) Reflected and transmitted pulses

2nd boundary condition: If the knot itself is of negligible mass, then the derivative of  $f$  must also be continuous:

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right|_{0^-} = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right|_{0^+}$$

Since the imaginary part of the wave function differs from the real part by replacing cosine with sine, the complex wave function obeys the same rules:

$$\tilde{f}(0^-, t) = \tilde{f}(0^+, t), \quad \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{f}}{\partial z} \right|_{0^-} = \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{f}}{\partial z} \right|_{0^+}$$

Remember that the wavelengths, wave numbers and wave velocities have the relationship:

$$\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} = \frac{k_2}{k_1} = \frac{v_1}{v_2}$$

$$\tilde{f}(z, t) = \begin{cases} \tilde{A}_I e^{i(k_1 z - \omega t)} + \tilde{A}_R e^{i(-k_1 z - \omega t)}, & \text{for } z < 0, \\ \tilde{A}_T e^{i(k_2 z - \omega t)}, & \text{for } z > 0. \end{cases}$$

$$\tilde{f}(0^-, t) = \tilde{f}(0^+, t), \quad \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{f}}{\partial z} \right|_{0^-} = \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{f}}{\partial z} \right|_{0^+}$$

$$\tilde{A}_I + \tilde{A}_R = \tilde{A}_T \quad k_1 (\tilde{A}_I - \tilde{A}_R) = k_2 \tilde{A}_T$$

$$\tilde{A}_R = \left( \frac{k_1 - k_2}{k_1 + k_2} \right) \tilde{A}_I = \left( \frac{v_2 - v_1}{v_2 + v_1} \right) \tilde{A}_I$$

$$\tilde{A}_T = \left( \frac{2k_1}{k_1 + k_2} \right) \tilde{A}_I = \left( \frac{2v_2}{v_2 + v_1} \right) \tilde{A}_I$$

The real amplitudes and phases then are related by,

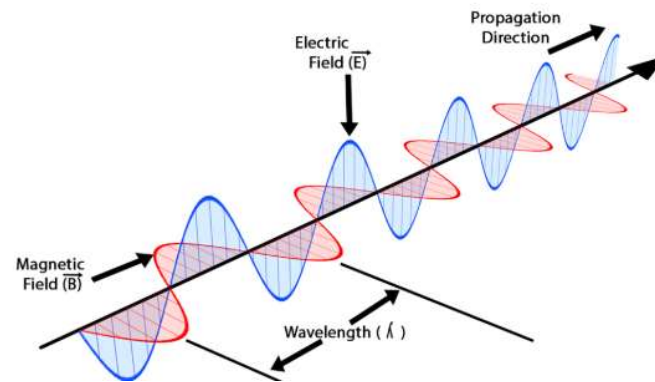
$$A_R e^{i\delta_R} = \left( \frac{\mathcal{G}_2 - \mathcal{G}_1}{\mathcal{G}_2 + \mathcal{G}_1} \right) A_I e^{i\delta_I} \quad A_T e^{i\delta_T} = \left( \frac{2\mathcal{G}_2}{\mathcal{G}_2 + \mathcal{G}_1} \right) A_I e^{i\delta_I}$$

- (i) If the second string is lighter than the first ( $\mu_2 < \mu_1$ ), all three waves have the same phase angle ( $\delta_R = \delta_T = \delta_I$ ).
- (ii) If the second string is heavier than the first ( $\mu_2 > \mu_1$ ), the reflected wave is out of phase by  $180^\circ$ .
- (iii) If the second string is infinitely massive,  $A_R = A_I$  and  $A_T = 0$ .

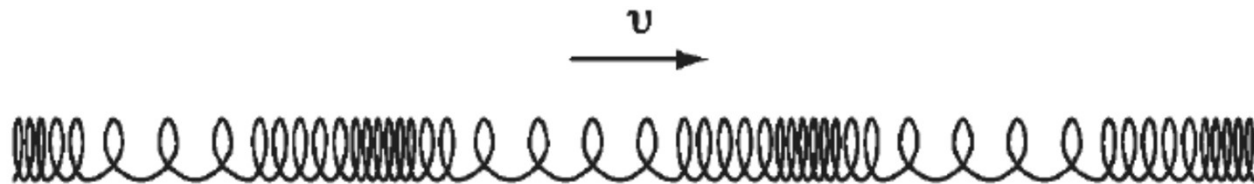
*Write the real  $A_R$  and real  $A_T$  for the situations (i) and (ii).*

## 9.1.4 Polarization

Transverse waves: Displacement from equilibrium is perpendicular to direction of propagation. For example, electromagnetic waves



Longitudinal waves: Displacement from equilibrium is along the direction of propagation. For example, sound waves



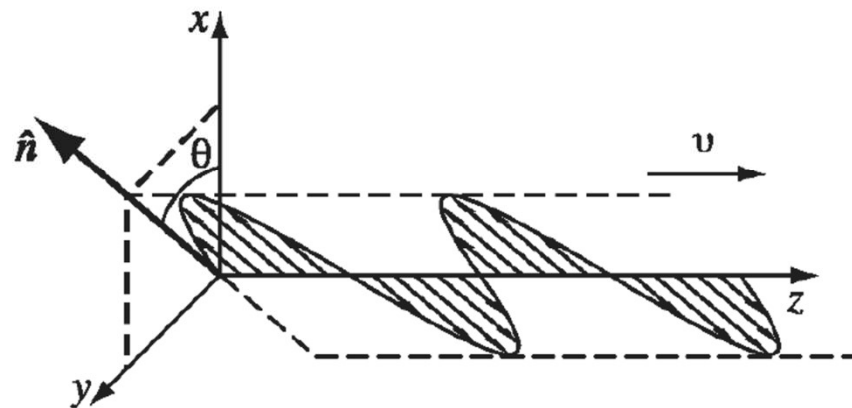
Transverse waves occur in two independent states of polarization: Vertical polarization (left-and-right) and horizontal polarization (up-and-down):

$$\tilde{\mathbf{f}}_v(z, t) = \tilde{A}e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}} \qquad \tilde{\mathbf{f}}_h(z, t) = \tilde{A}e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

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

where  $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \cos \theta \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{y}}$

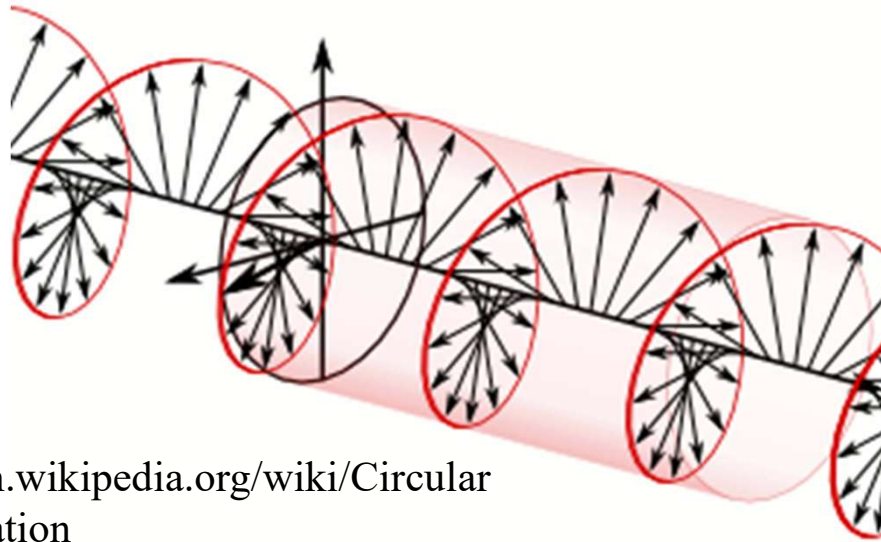
$$\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}} = 0$$



$$\tilde{\mathbf{f}}(z, t) = (\tilde{A} \cos \theta) e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + (\tilde{A} \sin \theta) e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \hat{\mathbf{y}}.$$



# Circular Polarization



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Circular\\_polarization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Circular_polarization)

- A circularly **polarized** wave can be in one of two possible states, **right circular polarization** in which the electric field vector rotates in a **right-hand** sense with respect to the direction of propagation, and **left circular polarization** in which the vector rotates in a left-hand sense.
- $\delta_x - \delta_y = 90^\circ$  for circular polarized light

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