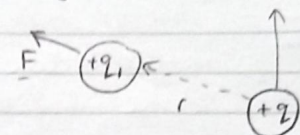


Electromagnetic fields

Lecture 1

Electrostatics - recap from year 1.

$$\underline{E} = \frac{\underline{F}}{q} \quad \underline{F} = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r}$$


for more q_1, q_2 etc add all the effects if you want force due to centre q .

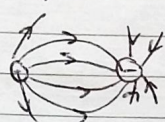
$$\underline{F} = - \sum \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r} \quad \text{principle of summation hence } \Rightarrow \underline{F} = q \underline{E}$$

Field lines

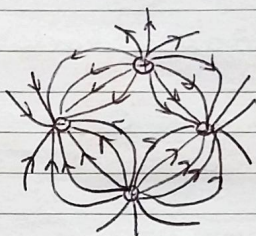
- lines of force
- +ve to -ve
- Can't cross

} Strongest places have closer lines.

Dipole

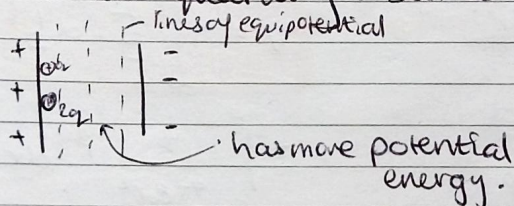


quadrupole.

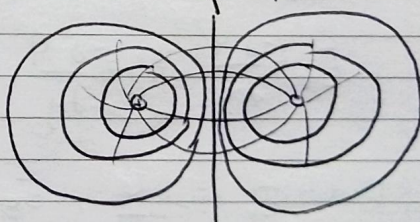


Potential

Scalar quantity. Same as gravity, but with repulsion.



lines of potential are contours of field

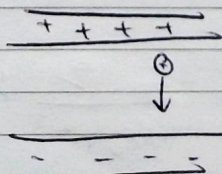


potential ψ :

$$\psi_e = \frac{1}{q} \int_{\infty}^r F dr'$$

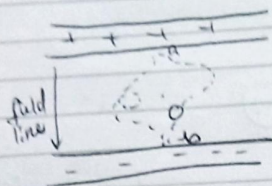
$$\text{and } \underline{E} = - \nabla \psi$$

ψ can be used as potential too.



field does the work
potential decreases

Doing work in an electric field (Electrostatic only)



the work done by the electric force is the same for any path from a to b.

$$W_{a \rightarrow b} = -\Delta U \quad \text{so just use displacement, all the squiggles don't matter.}$$

↑
work done = change in potential

Same for gravity.

$$W_{A \rightarrow B} = \int_A^B \underline{F} \cdot d\underline{l} = -Q \int_A^B \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{l} = U_B - U_A$$

only the integral parallel displacement matters.

Force & electric field are conservative + path independent.
just like being born and dying!

If we integrate a field around a closed loop:

$$\oint \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{l} = 0 \quad \text{electrostatic only.}$$

$\phi = \frac{V}{Q}$ so like a gradient of field.

The zero of a potential is defined as the value at infinity.

we have:

$$\underline{E} = -\nabla \phi$$

Hence:

$$E_x = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}, E_y = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}, E_z = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$

and $E_r = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r}, E_\theta = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \theta}$

↖ polar

$$V = -\int_{\infty}^r \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{l}$$

$$= \int_r^{\infty} \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \cdot \underline{\hat{r}} \cdot d\underline{r}$$

$$V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_r^{\infty} \frac{1}{r^2} dr = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

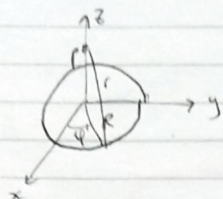
Since $\underline{E} = -\nabla \phi$
using polar potential is independent of θ so $E_\theta = 0$

now $\underline{E} = E_r \underline{\hat{r}} = -\frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right) \underline{\hat{r}} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \underline{\hat{r}}$

back to way we started.

from here

Ring of charge



$$dq = \lambda dl = \lambda R d\phi'$$

$$dV = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dq}{r} \quad \text{and } r = \sqrt{R^2 + z^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda R d\phi'}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2}}$$

So now potential from entire ring:

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\lambda R}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2}} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi'$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2}}$$

$$Q = 2\pi R \lambda$$

If $z \gg R$ $\sqrt{R^2 + z^2} \Rightarrow z$

Looks like potential from point charge.

If we want $E_z = \frac{-Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2}} \right)$

$$E_z = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{z}{(R^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \text{ V m}^{-1}$$

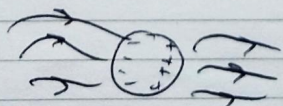
No electric field exists within a conductor.
Free electrons move to cancel out the field.

Lecture 2

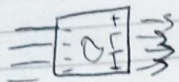
Insulators & Conductors

Conductors - free electrons - Sit evenly around charged surface. no electric field inside - always normal to surface. But there's a field outside.

Surface is an equipotential
In an electric field, electrons move.
polarisation.



If there's a hole



no field in conductor - no field in hole.

Flux

$$\phi_E = \underline{E} \cdot \underline{A} \quad \text{area that's perpendicular (} A \cos \theta \text{)}$$

$$\phi = \int_S \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{S} = \iint_S \underline{E} \cdot \underline{\hat{n}} dy dz$$

Jacobians

cylindrical volume $r dr d\phi dz$ Area $r d\phi dz$ + $r dr d\phi$

curved two ends of cylinder

Spherical $r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$
 $\theta \rightarrow \pi \quad \phi \rightarrow 2\pi$

Area: $r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$

Gauss' Law

Flux through closed surface = sum of charges within the surface.

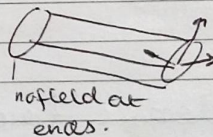
$$\phi = \iint \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{S} = \oint_S \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{S} = \frac{Q_{\text{enclosed}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

eg wire, use cylindrical Gaussian surface: $Q_{\text{inside}} = \lambda L$

$$\phi = \int_{z=0}^L \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} E(r) r d\phi dz \quad \phi = 2\pi r L E(r)$$

$$\text{so } \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\lambda L}{\epsilon_0} = \phi$$

$$E(r) = \frac{Q}{2\pi r L \epsilon_0}$$



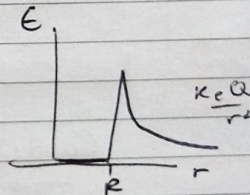
no field at ends.

eg a sphere.

$$\phi = \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} R^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

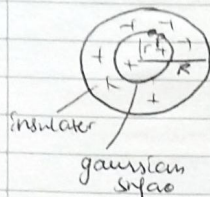
$$\phi = E(r) 4\pi R^2 = Q/\epsilon_0$$

$$E(r) = \frac{Q}{4\pi \epsilon_0 R^2}$$



Insulators

charge is uniformly distributed.



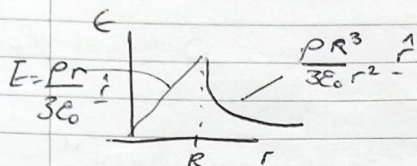
charge density inside sphere = ρ

$$E = \frac{r \rho}{3 \epsilon_0}$$

$$r \leq R$$

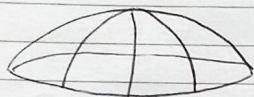
$$Q_{enc} = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \rho$$

for gaussian surface only, not outer insulator.



Lecture 3

Example flux through hemisphere with base



E isn't normal to surface anywhere.

$$\text{Flux} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} R^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

field at a point

$$\underline{E} \cdot \underline{\hat{n}} = a \cos \theta$$

$$\text{so } \phi = \iint a \cos \theta R^2 \sin \theta d\phi d\theta$$

cancel

do part with substitution

$$\phi = a R^2 [\phi]_0^{2\pi} [\frac{1}{2} \sin^2 \theta]_0^{\pi/2}$$

$$\hookrightarrow = 1/2$$

$$= \pi a R^2$$

$$\underline{E} \cdot \underline{\hat{n}} = a \quad \text{completely through}$$

$$\phi = \int_0^R \int_0^{2\pi} a r dr d\theta = a \pi R^2$$

} base

$$\text{total } \phi = 2 \pi a R^2$$

Dielectrics

Recap: Divergence Theorem

$$\oint \underline{F} \cdot d\underline{s} = \iiint \nabla \cdot \underline{F} dV$$

Gauss' Law:

$$\oint \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} = \int \nabla \cdot \underline{E} dV$$

$$\oint \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int \rho dV$$

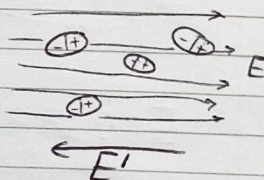
$$Q_{enc} = \int \rho dV.$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

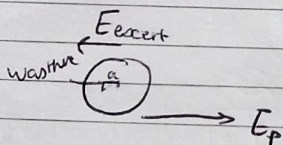
!! must remember !!

Dielectrics have fewer free electrons. React by becoming polarised when applying a field.

Polar dielectrics - molecules rotate to align with field
generates opposing field E'



Permanent dipoles. due to electronegativity in molecules.
Can be done with stretching also. (put e- one way).



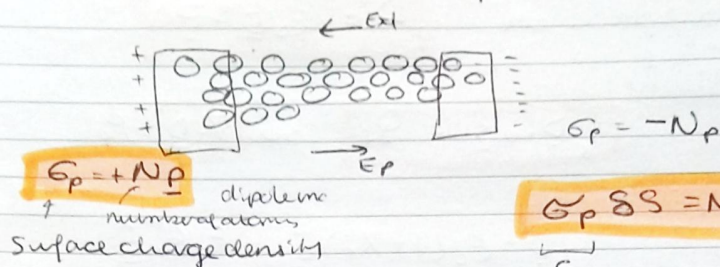
dipole moment $\underline{p} = ze\underline{a}$ in Cm.

a = displacement.

$$\underline{p} = \alpha \underline{E}_{ext}$$

α = polarisability - property of element.

If we move a solid structure polarisation happens at ends.

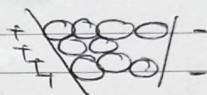


$$\oint_C \underline{\sigma}_p d\vec{s} = Np \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$\underline{P} = Np$$

dipole moment per unit volume / polarisation in Cm^{-2}

one end might have more charge



$$Q = \oint_S \underline{P} \cdot d\vec{s} \cos \theta = \int_S \underline{P} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

using divergence theorem

charge per unit volume

$$\rho_p = -\nabla \cdot \underline{P}$$

Dielectric Susceptibility

χ_e - electric susceptibility

$$\underline{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \underline{E}_{ext}$$

relative permittivity

$$\epsilon_r = (1 + \chi_e)$$

applied field.

$$\underline{P} = (\epsilon_r - 1) \epsilon_0 \underline{E}$$

Gauss' Law for dielectrics

$$\oint \underline{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{Q_f}{\epsilon_0} + \frac{Q_p}{\epsilon_0}$$

← "polarisation"

$$\oint_S (\epsilon_0 \underline{E} + \underline{P}) \cdot d\vec{s} = Q_f$$

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

electric displacement

$$\underline{D} = (\epsilon_0 \underline{E} + \underline{P})$$

(C m⁻²)

So for Gauss' Law:

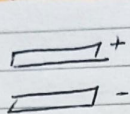
$$\oint_s \underline{D} \cdot d\underline{s} = -Q_f$$

$$\text{so } \nabla \cdot \underline{D} = \rho_f$$

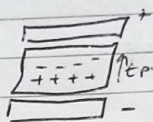
$$\underline{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \underline{E}$$

$$\underline{D} = \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi_e) \underline{E} = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \underline{E}$$

How dielectrics work



now



$$\text{total } \underline{E} = \underline{E}_0 + \underline{E}_r$$

so now E is a little lower, so $\underline{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \underline{E}_0 = (\epsilon_r - 1) \underline{E}_0$

reduce E , reduce V hence from $Q = CV$, C increases.

$$C = \epsilon_r C_0$$

- They stop plates from coming into contact
- Reduce possibility of shorting by sparking (dielectric breakdown)

Lecture 4

Magnetism

Flux, = field through surface $\Phi = \int_s \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s}$ and $\oint_s \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$

closed, Gauss' Law

Current density

$$I = \int_s \underline{J} \cdot d\underline{s}$$

$$\underline{J} = nq\underline{v}$$

$$d\underline{F} = I(d\underline{l} \times \underline{B})$$

unit of magnetic field = force

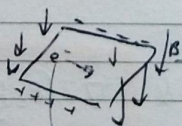
$$\textcircled{1} \underline{F} = q(\underline{v} \times \underline{B})$$

experienced by current element in magnetic field.

$$\textcircled{2} \underline{F} = q\underline{E}$$

So together ① and ②:

$$\underline{F} = q(\underline{E} + \underline{v} \times \underline{B})$$



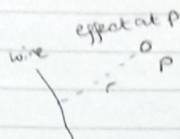
Hall effect

charged feel F_B and also F_E combine:

$$-e\underline{E} =$$

flowing e^- start to move to charge the plate

Biot Savart $d\mathbf{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I d\mathbf{s} \times \mathbf{r}}{4\pi r^3}$



Ampere's law

$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \mu_0 I$

$= \int \nabla \times \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \mu_0 \int \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$

$\Rightarrow \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J}$

lectures

Gauss' law

$\oint_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = 0$

no magnetic monopoles!

differential form (use this mostly) (divergence theorem)

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

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

Flux $\Phi = \int_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$

no net flux for closed surfaces, but open ones can!

Faraday's law

If a surface changes so Φ changes, a current is induced to reverse the change (remember direction).

The EMF for this current:

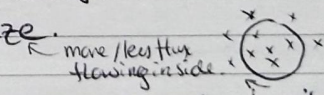
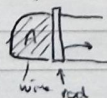
$\mathcal{E} = - \frac{\partial \Phi_B}{\partial t}$

in Volts.

How to change flux:

- Change field strength
- Increase wire/current loop size
- change angle of wire/loop

$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J}$ so if $B \uparrow$, $J \uparrow$ to increase B again



change normal component

if I goes $\leftarrow$ is B field (RHRcp) increases inside circle

$\oint_C \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$

Differential form: Stokes Theorem

$$\int_S \nabla \times \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{s} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_S \underline{B} \cdot d\underline{s}$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{E} = - \frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t}$$

if you're using LHR or RHR with Lorentz force (view with electrons and velocity), then it already accounts for e^- direction. CHECK.

Eddy Current

Current changes in metal pipe to reduce magnetic field of magnet $\rightarrow$ Lenz law. Eddy currents in the pipe.

Brakes make Eddy currents in metal plate.

Metal detectors make eddy currents in treasure.

Also used in induction hob. (That's why you need magnetic Saucepan!!!)

Sun's wind Squashes Mercury's magnetosphere so it makes eddy currents to combat. Only Mercury does this because of ginormous core!

lecture 6

lecture 6

Materials

Electrons have angular momentum / spin. Either spin up or down. So Pauli exclusion principle $\Rightarrow$ pair of up/down electrons. Magnetic fields cancel out here.

Unpaired all up/down spins make a magnetic field.

Diamagnetic - eg Water. Acquires B field under influence of external field. Opposite to external field.

Paramagnetic - Aluminium. permanent dipole moment. Apply a field, atoms line up in the direction of external field.

Ferromagnetic - Iron. Align far stronger than paramagnetic. Made of small patches called domains. can be $1000 \times$ external field.



Why do ferromagnets align so well?

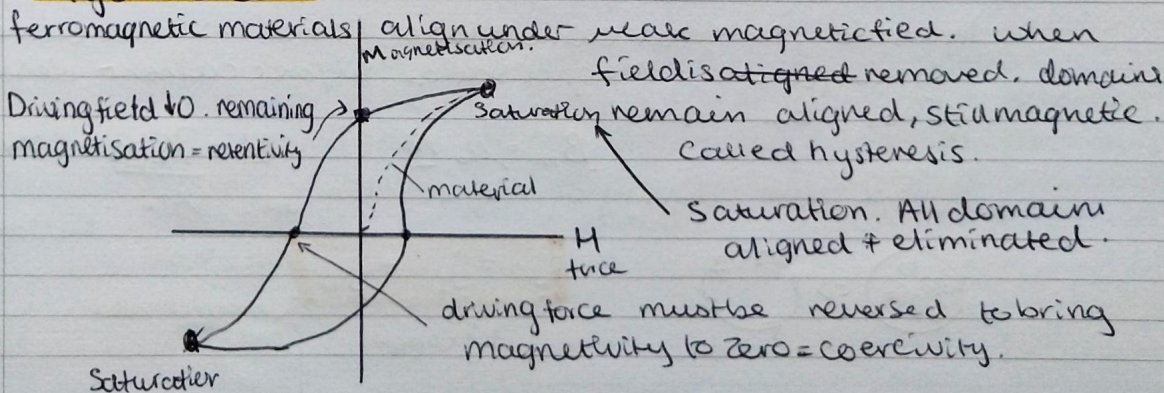
Long range ordering. Patches line up inside, then patches align w/ each other. Boundaries disappear.

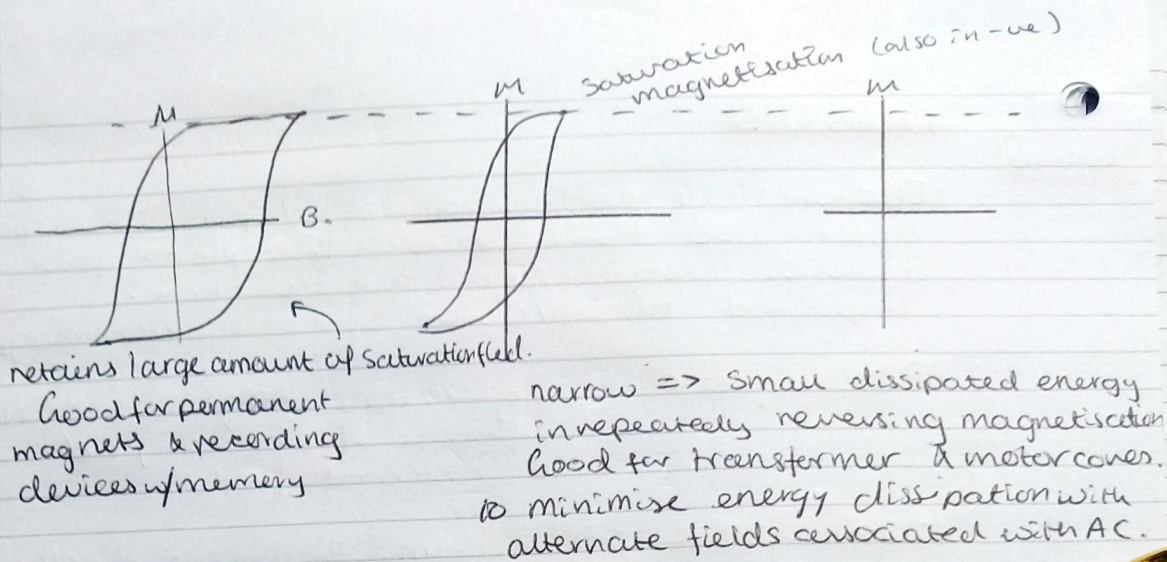
Curie Temperature

Domains of ferromagnetic materials are susceptible to disruption through heating.

So above the Curie temp, ferro $\Rightarrow$ para.

Hysteresis





Magnetisation

large scale magnetisation $\Rightarrow$ sum of small contributions

$$\underline{M} = N \langle \underline{m} \rangle \quad \text{in } \text{Am}^{-1}$$

$$\underline{M} = \frac{\chi_B \underline{B}_0}{\mu_0} \quad \text{NA}^{-2}$$

total magnetic field:

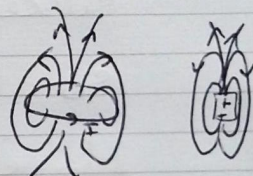
$$\underline{B} = \underbrace{\underline{B}_0}_{\text{external}} + \underbrace{\underline{B}_m}_{\text{induced}}$$

Example: MRI

diamagnetic	$B < B_0$
paramagnetic	$B > B_0$
ferromagnetic	$B \gg B_0$

Currents in Magnetic fields

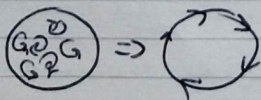
Magnetic dipoles look like little current loops.



In a solid, internal current loops cancel $\Rightarrow$ net current only on surface. Magnetisation surface current density gives B_m inside:

$$\underline{B}_m = \mu_0 \underline{M} \quad \underline{M} = \frac{\chi_B \underline{B}_0}{\mu_0} \quad \nabla \times \underline{M} = \underline{J}_m$$

Surface current density of magnetisation, $\underline{J}_m$. μ_0 Similar to $\nabla \times \underline{B} = \mu_0 \underline{J}$



$$\underline{J} = \underbrace{\underline{J}_f}_{\text{free charges}} + \underbrace{\underline{J}_m}_{\text{magnetisation}}$$

Magnetic Intensity:

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

$$\nabla \times \underline{H} = \underline{J}_f$$

Hence, combine everything:

$$\underline{B} = \frac{\mu_0 \underline{H}}{(1 - \chi_B)} = \mu_r \mu_0 \underline{H}$$

relative permeability

$$\mu_r = (1 - \chi_B)^{-1}$$

As differentials:

$$\nabla \times \underline{H} = \underline{J}_f \quad \oint_c \underline{H} \cdot d\underline{l} = I_f$$

Magnetic Energy Density

Electro static energy density:

$$u_e = \frac{1}{2} \underline{E} \cdot \underline{D}$$

So for magnetism:

$$u_m = \frac{1}{2} \underline{B} \cdot \underline{H}$$

Exam Qs

- 1) External field $\underline{E}$ applied to Mh dielectric of relative permittivity ϵ .
- a) Explain how polarisation field $\underline{P}$ is induced by $\underline{E}$. (How it modifies induced $\underline{E}$).

when external field applied to ^{polar} dielectric, molecules rotate to produce polarisation field in opposite direction to external field. In non-polar dielectric (+ polar), electron cloud is stretched relative to nucleus to produce polarisation electric field in opposite direction. Field inside is reduced.

Lecture 7

Displacement current

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = \oint_S \underline{J} \cdot d\underline{S} \quad \text{and} \quad Q = \int_V \rho \, dV$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho \, dV = \oint_S \underline{J} \cdot d\underline{S}$$

Divergence

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho \, dV = - \int_V \nabla \cdot \underline{J} \, dV$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = - \nabla \cdot \underline{J}$$

Continuity Eq

from previous equations, it shows $\nabla \cdot \underline{J} = 0$, which is wrong!

$$\nabla \times \underline{B} = \mu_0 \underline{J} + \text{displacement current.}$$

$$\mu_0 \nabla \cdot \underline{J} = - \nabla \cdot (\text{displacement current}).$$

Using Gauss' law

$$\mu_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \epsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \underline{E} = \nabla \cdot I_d$$

$$I_d = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\underline{E}}{dt}$$

Hence

$$\nabla \times \underline{B} = \mu_0 \underline{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t}$$

Unit 2: Electromagnetic Waves

lecture 1

Maxwell's Equations.

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}$$

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

$$\nabla \times \underline{E} = -\frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{B} = \mu_0 \underline{J}_f + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t}$$

EM is a strong force!

Conductors

free to move charges

free charge density = ρ_f

free current density $\underline{J}_f = \sigma \underline{E}$

Dielectrics

electric dipoles $p = qd$

polarisation $\underline{P} = \frac{\sum \underline{p}}{\Delta \tau}$

$$\underline{P}_b = -\nabla \cdot \underline{P}$$

bound

$$\underline{J}_p = \frac{\partial \underline{P}}{\partial t}$$

polarisation

Magnetic

magnetic dipoles $\underline{m} = I \underline{A}$

magnetisation $\underline{M} = \frac{\sum \underline{m}}{\Delta \tau}$

$$\rho = 0$$

$$\underline{J}_b = \nabla \times \underline{M}$$

It's not as simple as this eg. you will have current due to all 3 material types. We need to combine them:

$$\underline{P} = \underline{P}_f + \underline{P}_b = \underline{P}_f - \nabla \cdot \underline{P}$$

$$\underline{J} = \underline{J}_f + \underline{J}_p + \underline{J}_b = \underline{J}_f + \frac{\partial \underline{P}}{\partial t} + \nabla \times \underline{M}$$

So we can substitute into Maxwell's equations when needed:

$$\nabla \times \underline{E} = \frac{\rho_f - \nabla \cdot \underline{P}}{\epsilon_0}$$

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

electric

displacement

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

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \underline{D} = \rho_f$$

Now let's use Ampère's law:

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

$$\mu_0 \frac{\partial \underline{P}}{\partial t} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{\mu_0}{\partial t} \frac{\partial (\underline{P} + \epsilon_0 \underline{E})}{\partial t} = \frac{\mu_0}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \underline{D}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times \left(\frac{\underline{B}}{\mu_0} - \underline{M} \right) = \underline{J}_f + \frac{\partial \underline{D}}{\partial t} \quad \propto \quad \underline{H} = \frac{\underline{B}}{\mu_0} - \underline{M}$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{H} = \underline{J}_f + \frac{\partial \underline{D}}{\partial t}$$

HIL Media

to make calculations easier, assume things are HIL media, (Homogeneous, Isotropic, Linear).

linear medium polarisation is proportional to $\underline{B}$ field:

$$\underline{P} = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \underline{E} \quad \text{electric susceptibility, dimensionless.}$$

$$\underline{M} = \chi_m \underline{B} \quad \text{HIL field magnetisation.}$$

30:

$$\underline{D} = \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi_e) \underline{E} = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \underline{E}$$

$$\epsilon_r = 1 + \chi_e$$

rel permittivity.

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

in a vacuum ϵ_r and μ_r are 1.
Easy peasy!

For this unit, we'll assume all materials are HIL, so use the new modified Maxwell's Equations at start of prev page. ($\underline{J}_+ = \sigma \underline{E}$ here).

lecture 2

Derivation of the wave Equation

from maths:

Faraday's $\rightarrow = 0$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \underline{E}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \underline{E}) - \nabla^2 \underline{E}$$

$$-\nabla \times \frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \nabla \times \underline{B}$$

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

Ampere's

$\rightarrow = 0$ monopole.

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \underline{B}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \underline{B}) - \nabla^2 \underline{B}$$

Ampere

$$\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \nabla \times \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\nabla \times \underline{E})$$

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

$$\nabla^2 \underline{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \underline{B}}{\partial t^2}$$

3D wave eq for B field

3D wave eq for E field

lecture 2

Make them into 1 equation:
in 1D:

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial z^2} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial t^2}$$

look like $\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}$

with $v^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}$

It's easier to manipulate these assuming they're loads of sines & cosines:

Plane Sinusoidal waves.

$E_x(z, t) = E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t)$ ϕ

$\phi = \pi$ $\rightarrow$ ω

$\rightarrow$ $\text{freq } \gamma = \frac{\omega}{2\pi}$

amplitude, $v \text{ m}^{-1}$

space variation

time variation

E_x $\rightarrow$ t

period $T = 1/\gamma$
 $= 2\pi/\omega$

$k = \text{wavenumber} = 2\pi/\lambda$

phase speed $v = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{v}{\gamma} = \frac{v}{\gamma} \lambda$

if $\phi = kz - \omega t$, $z = \frac{\omega}{k}t + \frac{\phi}{k}$

Verify this Equation is valid

Sub E_x into the 1D wave equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial z^2} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial t^2}$$

$$E_x = E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial z^2} = -k^2 E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 E_x$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial z^2} = -k^2 E_x$$

$$-k^2 E_x = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \omega^2 E_x$$

$$k^2 = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \omega^2$$

$$\frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} = c \quad \text{wow!}$$

lecture 3

Wave Polarisation

$$\underline{E}(z,t) = E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t) \hat{x}$$

$$\text{Faraday's law} \Rightarrow \nabla \wedge \underline{E} = -\frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} \quad \nabla \times \underline{E} = \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial z} \hat{y} = -k E_0 \sin(kz - \omega t) \hat{y}$$

$$\frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \wedge \underline{E} = k E_0 \sin(kz - \omega t) \hat{y} \Rightarrow \underline{B}(z,t) = \frac{E_0}{c} \cos(kz - \omega t) \hat{y}$$

Energy Density

$$U_E = \frac{\underline{E} \cdot \underline{D}}{2}$$

$$\underline{D} = \epsilon_0 \underline{E}$$

$$U_B = \frac{\underline{B} \cdot \underline{H}}{2}$$

$$\underline{H} = \frac{\underline{B}}{\mu_0}$$

$$U_E = \frac{\epsilon_0 E^2}{2}$$

$$U_B = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0}$$

so these in

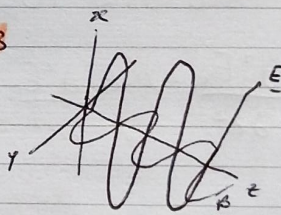
$$U_E = \frac{\epsilon_0 E_0^2}{2} \cos^2(kz - \omega t) \hat{x} \quad U_B = \frac{E_0^2}{2\mu_0 c^2} \cos^2(kz - \omega t) \hat{y}$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_0 E_0^2}{2} \cos^2(kz - \omega t)$$

Hence

$$U_E = U_B$$

$$\text{Total energy} = U_E + U_B$$



$$\text{Monopole law} \quad \nabla \cdot \underline{B} = 0 \quad \nabla \cdot \underline{E} = 0 \quad \text{in vacuum.}$$

$$\frac{\partial E_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial y} + \dots = 0 \quad \dots + \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\text{but since } \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = 0 \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} = 0 \quad \text{for both (look at diagram)}$$

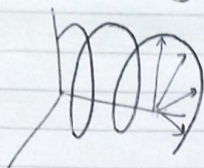
$$\text{that means } \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial z} \text{ \& } \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 0$$

but that means we can't have any part of wave parallel to propagation. EM waves can't be longitudinal.

lets now say the wave has $\underline{E} \times \underline{B}$ with >1 components of x, y, z

$$\underline{E} = E_{0x} \cos(kz - \omega t) \hat{x} + E_{0y} \cos(kz - \omega t) \hat{y} \quad \text{same for } \underline{B}$$

Circularly Polarised waves



$$\underline{E}(z, t) = E_0 \cos(kz - \omega t) \hat{x} - E_0 \sin(kz - \omega t) \hat{y}$$

So now $\hat{x}$ & $\hat{y}$ out of phase by $\pi/2$.

The above is clockwise/right-handed

left handed/anticlockwise - $\hat{x} + \hat{y}$ instead of $-\hat{x} - \hat{y}$

In any Direction:

waves don't just travel in z , they travel everywhere.

$$\underline{E}(\underline{r}, t) = \underline{E}_0 \cos(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - \omega t) \quad |\underline{k}| = k \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow \text{ wave} \\ \text{vector} \end{matrix}$$

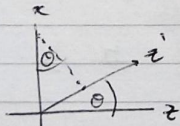
$$\underline{r} = (x, y, z) \quad \underline{E}_0 = (E_{0x}, E_{0y}, E_{0z}) \quad \text{to } k$$

$\hat{k}$ is direction of propagation.

$$|\underline{k}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

lecture 4

if the wave propagated at an angle to z :



$$\underline{E}(z', t) = E_0 \cos(z'k - \omega t)$$

$$z' = z \cos \theta + x \sin \theta$$

Hence:

$$\underline{E}(x, z, t) = E_0 \cos((kz \cos \theta + kx \sin \theta) - \omega t)$$

$$\text{So } \underline{k} = (k_x, 0, k_z) = k(\sin \theta, 0, \cos \theta)$$

$$\underline{E} = E_0 \cos((k_x x + k_z z) - \omega t) = E_0 \cos(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - \omega t)$$

proof of above eqs.

for B field:
 $|\underline{B}_0| = \frac{E_0}{c}$

$$\underline{E}(\underline{r}, t) = E_0 \cos(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - \omega t)$$

$$\underline{B}(\underline{r}, t) = B_0 \cos(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - \omega t)$$

$$|\underline{k}| = 2\pi/\lambda = k$$

Introduce De Moivre's theorem:

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

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

So now when we want to differentiate $\underline{E}$ or $\underline{B}$:

$$f(x) = e^{ax} \quad \frac{df}{dx} = a e^{ax} = a f(x).$$

Hence:

$$\frac{\partial^n}{\partial t^n} \underline{E} = (-i\omega)^n \underline{E}$$

so $a = -i\omega$
 like algebra.

And the operator ∇ is just $i\underline{k}$ $\nabla = i\underline{k}$
 $\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{E}$

$$\nabla \wedge \underline{E} = i\underline{k} \wedge \underline{E}$$

$$\nabla^2 \underline{E} = -k^2 \underline{E}$$

proof in lecture 4 slides.

$$\text{so } \nabla^2 \underline{E} = -k^2 \underline{E} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \omega^2 \underline{E} = \frac{\omega}{c} = c \text{ cool!}$$

Vacuum

$$i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{E} = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{k} \cdot \underline{E} = 0$$

$$i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{B} = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{k} \cdot \underline{B} = 0$$

$$\underline{E} \times \underline{B} \perp \underline{k}$$

$$\underline{k} \wedge \underline{E} = i\omega \underline{B} \Rightarrow \underline{B} = \frac{\underline{k} \wedge \underline{E}}{c}$$

$$i\underline{k} \wedge \underline{B} = -i\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \omega \underline{E} \Rightarrow \underline{E} = -c \underline{k} \wedge \underline{B}$$

wow!
 so $\underline{E}$ & $\underline{B} \perp \underline{k}$
 & equal $|\underline{E}| = |\underline{B}|$
 proof.

Circular Waves in Complex

$$\underline{E}(\underline{r}, t) = E_0 e^{i(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - \omega t)} \hat{x} + E_0 e^{i(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - \omega t \pm \pi/2)} \hat{y}$$

← sin.

EM waves in a HIL medium

for a dielectric, $J_f = 0$ $\rho_f = 0$ non-conducting

only Ampere-Maxwell equation changes.

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

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

$$\nabla \wedge \underline{E} = -\frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \wedge \underline{B} = \mu_r \mu_0 \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t}$$

Hence,

$$\nabla^2 \underline{E} = -k^2 \underline{E} = \mu_r \mu_0 \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \omega^2 \underline{E} = v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_r \mu_0 \epsilon_r \epsilon_0}}$$

$$n = \frac{c}{v} = \sqrt{\mu_r \epsilon_r}$$

$$\underline{B} = \frac{\hat{k} \wedge \underline{E}}{v} \quad \underline{E} = -v \hat{k} \wedge \underline{B}$$

$\underline{E} \perp \underline{B}$ still, $u_E = u_B$ still.

$\swarrow$ c swap to v.

So not much has changed!
For a conducting medium, this changes drastically.

lectures

Energy in inductors & Capacitors

inductor

$$\text{Work} = \int I V dt = \int I L \frac{dI}{dt} dt = \frac{1}{2} L I^2$$

Energy

Energy goes into magnetic field.

Eg in Solenoid $B = \mu_0 \mu_r N I$

$$L = \mu_r \mu_0 N^2 \pi r^2 l$$

for HIL medium $u_B = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_r \mu_0}$

So the $\frac{1}{2} L I^2$ becomes $\frac{\mu_0 \mu_r N^2 \pi r^2 l}{2} I^2$

$$= \frac{\mu_r \mu_0 N^2 \pi r^2 l}{2 \mu_r^2 \mu_0^2 N^2} B^2$$

$\swarrow$ area $\times l$ = volume

$$\text{Energy} = \frac{\pi r^2 l B^2}{2 \mu_0 \mu_r} = \frac{B^2}{2 \mu_0 \mu_r} \text{ Volume} = \mu_0^* u_B \text{ Vol}$$

= exactly what we expect $\checkmark$

Now for Capacitor

$$\text{Energy } W = \int V dQ = \int \frac{dQ}{C} V dQ = \int \frac{Q dV}{C} = \frac{1}{2} CV^2$$

$$U_E = \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E^2}{2}$$

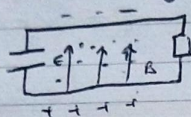
$$\frac{1}{2} CV^2 = \frac{1}{2} C d^2 E^2 = \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 A d^2 E^2}{2d}$$

(W stored in e-field between capacitor plates.)

$$= \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E^2}{2} \text{ Volume}$$

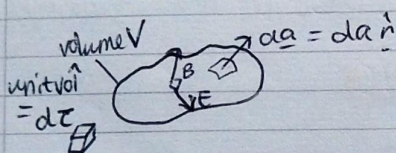
= Exactly what we expect ✓

So EM Energy can be stored in fields in air.



Poynting's Theorem.

Imagine Electromagnetic potato



$$\text{Power} = \underbrace{m}_{\text{mass}} \underbrace{\underline{v}}_{\text{velocity}} \cdot \frac{d\underline{v}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{m \underline{v} \cdot \underline{v}}{2} \right)$$

$$\text{Energy } W = \int_V d\tau \left(\frac{\underline{E} \cdot \underline{D} + \underline{B} \cdot \underline{H}}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} m v^2 \right) = q \underline{v} \cdot (\underline{E} + \underline{v} \wedge \underline{B})$$

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = \int_V d\tau \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\underline{E} \cdot \underline{D} + \underline{B} \cdot \underline{H}}{2} \right) - \oint_S \underline{S} \cdot d\underline{a}$$

$$\text{Power} = q \underline{v} \cdot \underline{E}$$

rate of
change of
Energy

total energy going in/out of system

Energy lost
by accelerating
particles per particle

$$\underline{F} = q(\underline{E} + \underline{v} \wedge \underline{B}) = m \frac{d\underline{v}}{dt}$$

$$\underline{F} \cdot \underline{v} = \text{Power } P = q \underline{v} \cdot \underline{E} \quad \text{so:} \quad P_e = -e \underline{v}_e \cdot \underline{E}$$

$$\text{total energy changing time 'vol'} = R = N_e P_e = -e n_e \underline{v}_e \cdot \underline{E}$$

Hence

$$R = \underline{J}_{\text{free}} \cdot \underline{E}$$

flux of charge = current density

SEE LECTURE 5 SLIDES!!!

$$\oint_S \underline{S} \cdot d\underline{a} = -\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} - \int_V \partial \mathcal{R} = \dots$$

$$\underline{E} = \frac{\underline{D}}{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0}$$

$$\underline{H} = \frac{\underline{B}}{\mu_r \mu_0}$$

$$\oint_S \underline{S} \cdot d\underline{a} = \int_V d\tau (\underline{H} \cdot \nabla \wedge \underline{E} - \underline{E} \cdot \nabla \wedge \underline{H}) \quad \text{ yay !! }$$

using vector identity: $\nabla \cdot (\underline{E} \wedge \underline{G}) = \underline{G} \cdot \nabla \wedge \underline{E} - \underline{E} \cdot \nabla \wedge \underline{G}$

Hence $\oint_S \underline{S} \cdot d\underline{a} = \oint_S (\underline{E} \wedge \underline{H}) \cdot d\underline{a}$

$$\underline{S} = \underline{E} \wedge \underline{H}$$

for MIL medium:

$$\underline{S} = \frac{\underline{E} \wedge \underline{B}}{\mu_r \mu_0}$$

$\underline{S}$ = Poynting's vector
- Points in direction of energy flow. $|\underline{S}|$ mag of flow.

Hence:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\underline{E} \cdot \underline{D}}{2} + \frac{\underline{B} \cdot \underline{H}}{2} \right) + \nabla \cdot \underline{S} + \underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} = 0$$

wow !!!

In steady state:

$$\oint_S \underline{S} \cdot d\underline{a} + \int_V \underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} d\tau = 0$$

so if $\underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} > 0$, then $\nabla \cdot \underline{S} < 0$. Sink
eg Resistor

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{S} + \underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} = 0$$

if $\underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} < 0$, then $\nabla \cdot \underline{S} > 0$. Source
eg Battery

if $\underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} = 0$, then $\nabla \cdot \underline{S} = 0$, flux into $\underline{S}$ = flux out
eg. Vacuum.

↑
no currents, no charge flow.

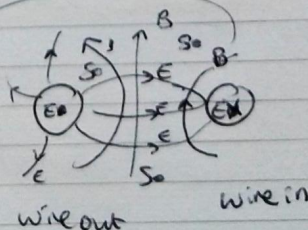
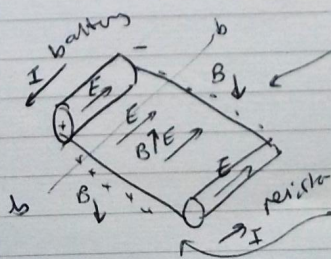
lecture 6

Electromagnetic Energy flow

using above eqn $\oint_S \underline{S} \cdot d\underline{a} + \int_V \underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} d\tau = 0$

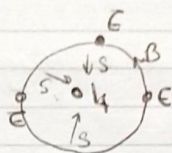
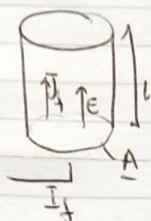
$$\nabla \cdot \underline{S} + \underline{J}_f \cdot \underline{E} = 0$$

this explains loops of B field inc current.



Poynting flux!!!!
 $\underline{S}$ @ our page.
for b-b line

In the resistor.



$$\text{Power } P = \int_V \mathbf{J}_f \cdot \mathbf{E} \, dV$$

$$= \int_V \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{A}$$

$$\text{but } \int_V \mathbf{J}_f \cdot d\mathbf{A} = I_f$$

$$\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{L} = V$$

$$\text{so } P = I_f V \text{ wow!}$$

$\mathbf{S}$ is Poynting flux. stop forgetting!!! $\therefore$

using cylindrical coordinates.

$$B_f = \frac{\mu_0 I_f}{2\pi r}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{S}} = \underline{\mathbf{E}} \wedge \underline{\mathbf{B}} = \frac{\underline{\mathbf{E}} \wedge \underline{\mathbf{B}}}{\mu_0} = -\frac{E B_f}{\mu_0} \hat{r} \quad \text{(-ve since poynting inwards)}$$

$$\text{hence } P = \frac{E I_f}{2\pi r} \times 2\pi r l = P = \underline{E I_f l}$$

$$V = E l$$

$$\text{hence } P = I_f V$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{S}} = \frac{\underline{\mathbf{E}} \wedge \underline{\mathbf{B}}}{\mu_r \mu_0} = \frac{E_0 B_0}{\mu_r \mu_0} \cos^2(kz - \omega t) \hat{x} \wedge \hat{y}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0} E_0^2 \cos^2(kz - \omega t)}{\mu_r \mu_0} \hat{z}$$

Thus

$$\underline{\mathbf{S}} = v \mu_{\text{total}} \hat{z}$$

$$\mu_{\text{total}} = \mu_e + \mu_m \hat{z} = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \omega^2 \cos^2(kz - \omega t)$$

for example. A light bulb.

the average of $\cos^2 \psi = 1/2$

$$\text{so } \langle \mu_{\text{tot}} \rangle = \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E_0^2}{2} \text{ hence } \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = v \langle \mu_{\text{tot}} \rangle \hat{z}$$

$$\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0}{\mu_r \mu_0}} E_0^2 \hat{z}$$

Radiation Pressure

EM waves apply momentum to things.

$$\text{Pressure} = F/A$$

= momentum / Area s⁻¹

Mass density in wave:

$$M = \frac{\langle u_{\text{tot}} \rangle}{c^2} \quad \text{kg m}^{-3}$$

$$E = mc^2$$

$$F = c \frac{\langle u_{\text{tot}} \rangle}{c^2} = Mc \quad \text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$$

d

$$P_{\text{radiation}} = \langle u_{\text{tot}} \rangle$$

So radiation pressure is simple ~

If wave is reflected, it's $2 \times \langle u_{\text{tot}} \rangle$.

If we were talking about particle photons

$$E = \hbar \omega \quad \text{momentum } p = \hbar k \quad N_0 \gamma = n c$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pressure} &= \hbar k n c & c &= \omega / k \\ &= \hbar n \omega = n E \end{aligned}$$

lecture 7

Wave Propagation in an electrical Conductor

$$\underline{S} = V \underline{u_{\text{tot}}} \underline{\hat{z}}$$

Tim thinks we did this, but no.

σ is electrical conductivity. $\underline{J}_+ = \sigma \underline{E}$

$\underline{J}_+ \neq \underline{J}_-$ current in $\underline{\hat{x}}$, parallel to $\underline{E}$ wave amplitude falls over distance.

Maxwell's Equations for H/L Conductor.

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \underline{E} &= \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} & \nabla \cdot \underline{B} &= 0 \\ \nabla \times \underline{E} &= - \frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} & \nabla \times \underline{B} &= \mu_0 \left(\sigma \underline{E} + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\underline{E}}{dt} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Some no vacuum

conducting current

displacement current

So if $\hat{\sigma} \gg \text{conduction current}$, wave is like in a vacuum, but amplitude drops w/ distance. material = "lossy dielectric".

If conduction current $\gg \hat{\sigma}$, wave is strongly altered. Its a "good conductor".

$R = \text{conduction current} \div \text{displacement current Amplitudes}$

$$= \frac{\sigma \{ \text{Amplitude of } \underline{E} \}}{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \omega \{ \text{Amplitude of } \underline{E} \}}$$

$$R = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \omega}$$

Small $\omega \Rightarrow$ large R "good conductor"
large $\omega \Rightarrow$ small R "lossy dielectric".

Let's use Faraday's law

Good conductors.

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \underline{E}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \underline{E}) - \nabla^2 \underline{E}$$

$$\nabla^2 \underline{E} = \mu_r \mu_0 \sigma \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t}$$

Sub this bitch into $\underline{E}(z,t) = \underline{E}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \underline{\hat{x}}$

$$k^2 = i \mu_r \mu_0 \sigma \omega$$

$$k = (1+i) \sqrt{\frac{\mu_r \mu_0 \sigma \omega}{2}} = (1+i) k_c \quad k_c = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0 \mu_r \sigma \omega}{2}}$$

lecture 8

So now:

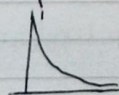
$$\underline{E}(z,t) = \underline{E}_0 e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \underline{\hat{x}} \leftarrow \text{propagating in } x.$$

$$= \underline{E}_0 e^{i k z} e^{-i \omega t} \underline{\hat{x}}$$

$$= \underline{E}_0 e^{i k_c z} e^{-k_c z} e^{-i \omega t} \underline{\hat{x}}$$

$$= \underline{E}_0 e^{-k_c z} e^{i(k_c z - \omega t)} \underline{\hat{x}}$$

Amplitude



goes down to approach zero.

Amplitude falls by factor $e^{-1} \approx 0.37$ in distance

$$\delta = \frac{1}{k_c} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu_r \mu_0 \sigma \omega}}$$

skin depth / attenuation length

for example:

Cu at $1 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$ $v_c \sim 400 \text{ m/s}$
 $10 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz}$ $v_c \sim 40000 \text{ m/s}$

dispersive relationship
 dispersive phase speed.

$$v_c = \frac{\omega}{k_c} = \sqrt{\frac{2\omega}{\mu_r \mu_0 \sigma}}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{k_c} = 2\pi \delta$$

$$e^{i(k_c z - \omega t)} \hat{x}$$

Cu at $1 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$ $\lambda_c \sim 4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$ $\delta = 4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}$
 Cu at $10 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz}$ $\lambda_c \sim 4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$ $\delta = 7 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$

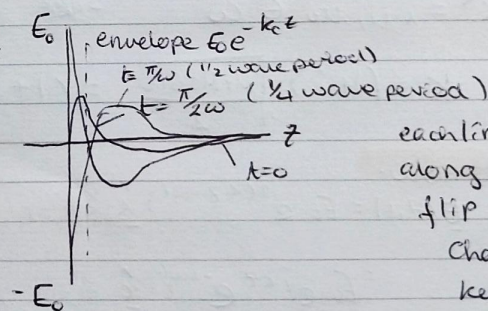
the wave is strongly attenuated by ohmic dissipation. in 1 wavelength, the amplitude falls by factor:

$$e^{-k_c \lambda_c} = e^{-2\pi} \approx \frac{1}{500}$$

δ is distance where amplitude falls to 37%

the real part of $\underline{E} = E_0 e^{-k_c z} \cos(k_c z - \omega t) \hat{x}$

for different times:

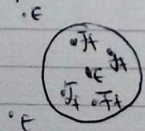


each line will move along E_0 axis, (basically flip) and will slowly change to $t = \pi/2 \omega$ and keeping.

The skin effect.

normally we neglect wire resistance.

for DC:

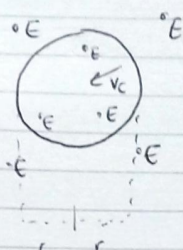


radius r

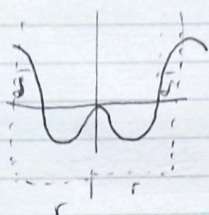
conductivity σ . $E \approx$ uniform. $I_t = \sigma E$

$$I_t = \pi r^2 \sigma E. \quad V = E L (\text{length}) \quad \frac{V}{L} = R_0 = \frac{L}{\pi r^2 \sigma}$$

for AC



E field along wire



E field oscillates at required frequency. Changing E propagates into wire from outside at speed v_c .

$$R = \frac{1}{2\pi r} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_r \mu_0 \omega}{2\sigma}}$$

← looks like δ !

$$R = \frac{1}{2} \frac{r}{\delta} R_0 \leftarrow \text{from DC}$$

for a wire of given r at high frequency this becomes

$$\delta \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}}$$

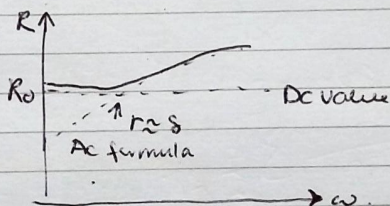
high AC only } so there's no point in a wire with large radius if skin depth is tiny (in most situations)

That's why we use lots of thin wires bundles instead of a big chunky one.

let's graph it!

for low f , $\delta > r$ uniform E and so $R \approx R_0$

for high f , $\delta < r$ $E \sim E_{\text{outside}}$ only with δ of the surface, AC case



feedback

Please keep telling snarky criticisms & funny jokes Tim. His spoken language makes it fairly easy to understand the topic.