# MIT 8.02 Spring 2002 Assignment #9 Solutions

## Problem 9.1

Wavelength of radio waves. (Giancoli 32-37.)

Channel 2:

$$\lambda_2 = \frac{c}{f_2} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8}{54.0 \times 10^6} = 5.56 \,\mathrm{m}$$
.

Channel 69:

$$\lambda_{69} = \frac{c}{f_{69}} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8}{806 \times 10^6} = 0.372 \,\mathrm{m}$$
.

## Problem 9.2

Traveling electromagnetic waves.

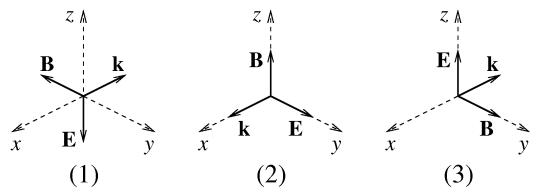
The given electric field is in all three cases of the form

$$\mathbf{E}(x,t) = \mathbf{E}_0 \sin(kx \pm \omega t + \alpha) \quad ,$$

with  $\mathbf{E_0}$  perpendicular to the direction of propagation (the x-direction) and  $\alpha = 0$  or  $\pi/2$  (recall that  $\sin(\theta + \pi/2) = \cos\theta$ ). For such a wave, the propagation direction is  $+\hat{x}$  if the argument is  $(kx - \omega t + \alpha)$  and  $-\hat{x}$  if the argument is  $(kx + \omega t + \alpha)$ . k is the wavenumber,  $\lambda = 2\pi/k$  is the wavelength,  $f = \omega/2\pi$  is the frequency in Hertz,  $v = \omega/k$  is the speed, and n = c/v is the index of refraction. From the given expressions and these definitions, we can read off the answers to (a)-(e):

	prop. direct.	$\lambda$ (m)	$k  ({\rm m}^{-1})$	f (Hz)	v  (m/s)	n
case (1)	$-\hat{x}$	4.00	1.57	$7.50 \times 10^7$	$3.00 \times 10^{8}$	1.0
case (2)	$+\hat{x}$	2.00	3.14	$1.50 \times 10^{8}$	$3.00 \times 10^{8}$	1.0
case (3)	$-\hat{x}$	1.00	6.28	$2.13 \times 10^{8}$	$2.13 \times 10^{8}$	1.4

(f) In order to construct the corresponding equations for  $\mathbf{B}$ , we must remember two features of a traveling EM plane wave: (i)  $\mathbf{B}$  is in phase with  $\mathbf{E}$ , and (ii)  $\mathbf{B}$  is perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{E}$  and the propagation direction such that  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  points in the direction of propagation. If the vector  $\mathbf{k}$  indicates the direction of propagation, then our three cases must have the following orientations:



As for magnitudes: B = E/v = nE/c. The full expressions for the magnetic fields of our three cases are thus (with B in Tesla)

case (1): 
$$B_y = (-8.33 \times 10^{-8}) \sin(1.57x + 4.71 \times 10^8 t)$$
,  $B_x = B_z = 0$  case (2):  $B_z = (1.67 \times 10^{-7}) \cos(3.14x - 9.42 \times 10^8 t)$ ,  $B_x = B_y = 0$  case (3):  $B_y = (1.87 \times 10^{-7}) \cos(6.28x + 1.34 \times 10^9 t)$ ,  $B_x = B_z = 0$ 

(g) The instantaneous Poynting vector for case (3) is (Giancoli Equation (32-18), p. 801):

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}) = -\frac{1}{\mu_0} E_z B_y \hat{x}$$

$$= -\frac{(40)(1.87 \times 10^{-7})}{(4\pi \times 10^{-7})} \cos^2(6.28x + 1.34 \times 10^9 t) \hat{x}$$

$$= (-6.0) \cos^2(6.28x + 1.34 \times 10^9 t) \hat{x} .$$

The time average of  $\cos^2(A+Bt)$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$  for any A and B, so the time-averaged Poynting vector for all positions (including the two specified) is

$$\overline{\mathbf{S}} = (-3.0)\hat{x}$$
 (units: Joules per square meter per second).

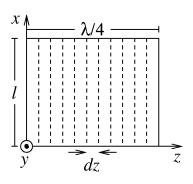
Thus we find that this traveling electromagnetic wave transmits energy in the  $-\hat{x}$  direction through space.

## Problem 9.3

EM waves – Maxwell's equations and the "speed of light".

We want to apply Faraday's law to the given plane surface (area  $A_1$ ) and the rectangular loop that bounds it. For definiteness, we'll take the normal to the surface to be in the  $+\hat{y}$  direction. To calculate  $\Phi_B$ , we divide the surface up into many strips of thickness dz as shown in the diagram. Each strip will make a differential contribution to the flux of

$$d\Phi_B = B_y dA = B_0 \cos(kz - \omega t) l dz .$$



The total flux will then be given by

$$\Phi_B = \int d\Phi_B = B_0 l \int_0^{\lambda/4} \cos(kz - \omega t) dz = \frac{B_0 l}{k} [\sin(k\lambda/4 - \omega t) - \sin(-\omega t)] .$$

Since  $k\lambda/4 = k(2\pi/k)/4 = \pi/2$ , this becomes

$$\Phi_B = \frac{B_0 l}{k} [\cos(\omega t) + \sin(\omega t)] \implies -\frac{d\Phi_b}{dt} = \frac{B_0 l \omega}{k} [\sin(\omega t) - \cos(\omega t)] .$$

Now to calculate  $\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$ . Our choice of  $+\hat{y}$  (as opposed to  $-\hat{y}$ ) for the normal to our surface dictates that our line integral be taken counterclockwise when viewed as in the diagram. Since  $\mathbf{E}$  is purely in the  $\hat{x}$  direction,  $\mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$  along the top and bottom edges of the integration curve. This leaves us with

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_0^l E_x(z = \lambda/4, t) \, dx + \int_l^0 E_x(z = 0, t) \, dx$$

$$= E_0 \sin(\omega t) \int_0^l dx + E_0 \cos(\omega t) \int_l^0 dx$$

$$= E_0 l[\sin(\omega t) - \cos(\omega t)] .$$

Faraday's law asserts that  $\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -d\Phi_B/dt$ . For the case under consideration, this gives

$$E_0 l[\sin(\omega t) - \cos(\omega t)] = \frac{B_0 l \omega}{k} [\sin(\omega t) - \cos(\omega t)] .$$

This will be satisfied for all time only if  $E_0 = B_0 \omega/k$ . Given that  $c = \omega/k$  is the wave speed, we have the result  $B_0 = E_0/c$  as a consequence of Faraday's law. Combining this with  $B_0 = \epsilon_0 \mu_0 c E_0$  as obtained in lecture from Ampère's law, we conclude that  $c = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}$  is the speed of light in vacuum.

#### Problem 9.4

A standing electromagnetic wave.

(a) Any standing wave of the form  $\cos(kz)\cos(\omega t)$  has a wavelength of  $2\pi/k$  and a frequency in Hertz of  $\omega/2\pi$ . For our wave,  $k=2\sqrt{3}\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  and  $\omega=7.0\times10^{10}\,\mathrm{rad/s}$ , so

$$\lambda = 1.814 \,\mathrm{cm}$$
 ,  $f = 1.114 \times 10^{10} \,\mathrm{Hz}$  .

(b) The index of refraction of the medium is

$$n = \frac{c}{v} = \frac{c}{\omega/k} = \frac{(3.00 \times 10^{10} \,\mathrm{cm/s})}{(7.0 \times 10^{10} \,\mathrm{s}^{-1})/(2\sqrt{3} \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1})} = 1.48$$

(c) To find B, we picture our E-field as the linear superposition of two traveling waves, one traveling in the  $+\hat{z}$  direction and one in the  $-\hat{z}$  direction. Using the trigonometric identity

$$2\cos\alpha\cos\beta = \cos(\alpha + \beta) + \cos(\alpha - \beta) ,$$

we can rewrite our E-field as

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{2} E_0 \hat{x} \left[ \cos(2\sqrt{3}z - 7.0 \times 10^{10}t) + \cos(2\sqrt{3}z + 7.0 \times 10^{10}t) \right] .$$

Now, using the rule discussed in problem 9.2(f), the B-field associated with the traveling wave propagating in the  $+\hat{z}$  direction must point in the  $+\hat{y}$  direction (assuming  $E_0$  is positive) so that  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  points in the  $+\hat{z}$  direction. Similarly, for the wave propagating in the  $-\hat{z}$ direction, B must point in the  $-\hat{y}$  direction. Thus our total B-field must be

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{2} B_0 \hat{y} \left[ \cos(2\sqrt{3}z - 7.0 \times 10^{10}t) - \cos(2\sqrt{3}z + 7.0 \times 10^{10}t) \right] .$$

Using the identity

$$2\sin\alpha\sin\beta = \cos(\alpha - \beta) - \cos(\alpha + \beta) ,$$

we can write this as

$$\mathbf{B} = B_0 \hat{y} \sin(2\sqrt{3}z) \sin(7.0 \times 10^{10}t) .$$

We see that in a standing wave, **B** is 90° out of phase relative to **E** both in space and in time. The value of  $B_0$  is related to  $E_0$  by

$$B_0 = \frac{k}{\omega} E_0 = \frac{E_0}{v} = \frac{nE_0}{c} .$$

(d) The instantaneous Poynting vector  $\mathbf{S} = (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B})/\mu_0$  for this wave at any point in space will have a time dependence of the form  $\mathbf{S} \propto \sin(\omega t) \cos(\omega t)$ . The average of  $\sin(\omega t) \cos(\omega t)$ over one full period in time is zero, so  $\overline{S} \equiv 0$  at all points. This result tells us that standing electromagnetic waves do not transmit energy through space. Compare this with the result of 9.2(g), where we found that a traveling electromagnetic wave does transmit energy.

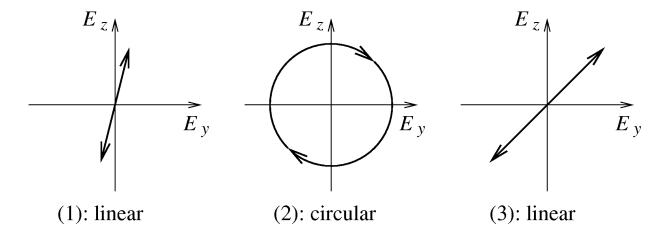
## Problem 9.5

Polarization of electromagnetic radiation.

(a) If we let x=0, our electric fields vary with time as

(1):  $E_y = -E_0 \sin(\omega t)$   $E_z = -4E_0 \sin(\omega t)$ (2):  $E_y = -E_0 \cos(\omega t)$   $E_z = E_0 \sin(\omega t)$ (3):  $E_y = 2E_0 \sin(\omega t)$   $E_z = 2E_0 \sin(\omega t)$ 

We can now plot a trace of E as a function of time at x=0 and see the polarization easily (note: plots axes not to scale from one to the next):



(b) The amplitude of B is given by the electric field amplitude divided by c, since we are in a vacuum. We obtain the direction by requiring that  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  be in the direction of propagation. (It is helpful to note that, for **E** and **B** purely in the y-z direction,  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B} = \hat{x}(E_y B_z - E_z B_y)$ .) Using these prescriptions, we find

(1):  $B_y = (-4E_0/c)\sin(kx - \omega t)$   $B_z = (E_0/c)\sin(kx - \omega t)$ (2):  $B_y = (E_0/c)\sin(kx + \omega t)$   $B_z = (E_0/c)\cos(kx + \omega t)$ (3):  $B_y = (2E_0/c)\sin(kx - \omega t)$   $B_z = (2E_0/c)\cos(kx - \omega t + \pi/2)$ 

 $(B_x = 0 \text{ for all cases.})$ 

#### Problem 9.6

Radiation pressure due to the sun. (Giancoli 32-29.)

Let  $P = 3.8 \times 10^{26} \,\mathrm{W}$  be the Sun's total power output. Assuming negligible absorption in the intervening space, the amount of energy per unit time crossing a spherical surface of radius r centered on the Sun will also be P. The time-averaged Poynting flux (energy per unit area per unit time) at a distance r from the center of the Sun will therefore be

$$\overline{S}(r) = \frac{P}{4\pi r^2} .$$

Assuming full absorption, the dust particles will feel a radiation pressure of  $p_{\rm rad} = \overline{S}/c$  (see Giancoli section 32-8, pp. 802-803). If the particles have a radius a, they will feel an outward (i.e. away from the Sun) force given by

$$F_{\rm rad} = \pi a^2 p_{\rm rad} = \pi a^2 \overline{S}/c = \frac{a^2 P}{4r^2 c} .$$

The particles also feel a gravitational force directed towards the Sun. If  $\rho$  is the mass density of the dust and M is the Sun's mass, the magnitude of this force is

$$F_G = \frac{G(\frac{4}{3}\pi a^3 \rho)M}{r^2} .$$

The magnitude of the radiation pressure force grows as  $a^2$ , while the magnitude of the gravitational force grows as  $a^3$ . So for very small particles, the outward radiation force should dominate, while for larger particles, the inward gravitational force will dominate. The scale is set by the particle size  $a_0$  for which the two forces exactly balance one another:

$$\frac{a_0^2 P}{4r^2 c} = \frac{G(\frac{4}{3}\pi a_0^3 \rho)M}{r^2} \implies a_0 = \frac{3P}{16\pi G \rho M c} .$$

Plugging in the (many!) numbers, we get

$$a_0 = \frac{3(3.8 \times 10^{26})}{16\pi (6.67 \times 10^{-11})(2.0 \times 10^3)(1.99 \times 10^{30})(3.00 \times 10^8)} = 2.85 \times 10^{-7} \,\mathrm{m} .$$

Dust particles with a radius smaller than this would have been ejected by radiation pressure.

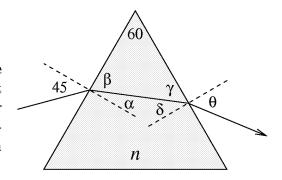
## Problem 9.7

Snell's law in action  $\Rightarrow$  dispersion! (Giancoli 33-46.)

From Giancoli Figure 33-26 (p. 825), we can obtain approximate values for the index of refraction of silicate flint glass for the two wavelengths of interest:

$$\lambda_1 = 450 \,\mathrm{nm}: \ n_1 \simeq 1.64 \ \lambda_2 = 650 \,\mathrm{nm}: \ n_2 \simeq 1.62 \;.$$

Now, consider either of the two rays. Define the angles  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\delta$  as shown in the diagram at right. Let n be either  $n_1$  or  $n_2$  and  $\theta$  be either  $\theta_1$  or  $\theta_2$ . We'll take the refractive index of the surrounding medium to be 1. Snell's law (Giancoli Equation (33-5), p. 823) tells us that



$$\sin(45^\circ) = 1/\sqrt{2} = n \sin \alpha$$
 and  $n \sin \delta = \sin \theta$ .

Also,  $\alpha = 90^{\circ} - \beta$  and  $\delta = 90^{\circ} - \gamma$ , so  $\sin \alpha = \cos \beta$  and  $\sin \delta = \cos \gamma$ . Thus

$$1/\sqrt{2} = n\cos\beta$$
 and  $n\cos\gamma = \sin\theta$ .

Finally, we have  $\beta + \gamma + 60^{\circ} = 180^{\circ} \Rightarrow \gamma = 120^{\circ} - \beta$ . Solving for  $\theta$  now gives

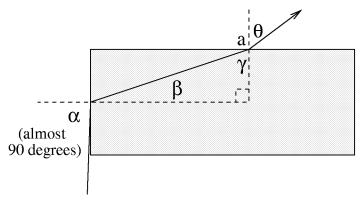
$$\theta = \arcsin(n\cos\gamma) = \arcsin[n\cos(120^{\circ} - \beta)]$$
$$= \arcsin\left\{n\cos\left[120^{\circ} - \arccos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}n}\right)\right]\right\}.$$

For our two refractive indices of interest, this gives

$$\theta_1 = 68.1^{\circ}$$
,  $\theta_2 = 65.3^{\circ}$ .

## Problem 9.8

Snell's law in action  $\Rightarrow$  fiber optics! (Giancoli 33-53.)



The greatest test of our optic fiber's ability to guarantee total internal reflection will occur when the beam entrance angle  $\alpha \to 90^{\circ}$ . So, let's consider that case in particular. Snell's law gives

$$\sin \alpha = \sin 90^{\circ} = 1 = n \sin \beta = n \cos \gamma .$$

Now suppose that total internal reflection does *not* necessarily occur at point "a". The angle  $\theta$  that the emerging beam makes with the normal to the fiber's surface will be given by Snell's law:

$$\sin \theta = n \sin \gamma = n \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \gamma} .$$

Using  $n\cos\gamma=1$  from above, this becomes

$$\sin \theta = n\sqrt{1 - 1/n^2} = \sqrt{n^2 - 1}$$
.

So  $\sin \theta$  increases as n gets bigger.  $\sin \theta = 1$  (corresponding to  $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ ) is the critical value for the onset of total internal reflection at point "a". The condition on n for total internal reflection of all beams entering the fiber is therefore

$$\sqrt{n^2-1} > 1 \implies n > \sqrt{2} \simeq 1.42$$

where we have rounded up just to be safe.