

## Lecture 12 - Critical Angle of incidence

For certain  $\theta$ 's of incidence, it is possible for  $\Gamma_{\perp}^b$  to become 1, even though not at grazing incidence we observe this behavior when  $\epsilon_1 > \epsilon_2$  ( $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ ) in the results of lecture 9.

Odd behavior since:  $\checkmark |\Gamma_{\perp}^b| = 1$  and  $\angle \Gamma_{\perp}^b \neq 0, 180^\circ$   
 $\checkmark |T_{\perp}^b|$  ranges from 2 to 0  
 as  $\theta_i \rightarrow 90^\circ$  (grazing)

So, the wave is totally reflected, but  $|T_{\perp}^b| \neq 0$  which seems to imply that fields are not zero in region 2.  
 Strange!

We'll investigate this phenomenon in much detail.

In lecture 9, showed  $\theta_t$  vs.  $\theta_i$  for  $\epsilon_1 = 4, \epsilon_2 = 1$  ( $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 1$ ).

At approx.  $30^\circ$ ,  $\theta_t$  becomes  $90^\circ$ ; for larger  $\theta_i$ ,  $\theta_t$  becomes imaginary!! What does that mean? See soon.

Compute  $\theta_i$  when  $\theta_t = 90^\circ$ . From Snell's law of refraction

$$\theta_t = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{\beta_1}{\beta_2} \sin \theta_i \right) \quad (1)$$

For  $\theta_t = \frac{\pi}{2} \Rightarrow \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \frac{\sqrt{\mu_1 \epsilon_1}}{\sqrt{\mu_2 \epsilon_2}} \sin \theta_c \leftarrow$  called critical angle of incidence

$$\text{or} \quad \theta_c = \sin^{-1} \left( \sqrt{\frac{\mu_2 \epsilon_2}{\mu_1 \epsilon_1}} \right) \quad (5-35b), (2)$$

The argument of the  $\sin^{-1}$  fct. cannot exceed 1 (for real  $\theta_c$ ) then this requires for the existence of a critical  $\theta$  that

$$\mu_2 \epsilon_2 \leq \mu_1 \epsilon_1 \quad (5-35c), (3)$$

Now, if  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$  then in order for a critical  $\theta$  to exist  $\epsilon_2 < \epsilon_1$ . In other words, a critical  $\theta$  of incidence requires that EM wave traveling from more "dense" EM medium to a less dense one.

Can easily show that

$$|\Gamma_{\perp}^b|_{\theta_i = \theta_c} = 1 \quad ; \quad |T_{\perp}^b|_{\theta_i = \theta_c} = 2 \quad (3)(4)$$

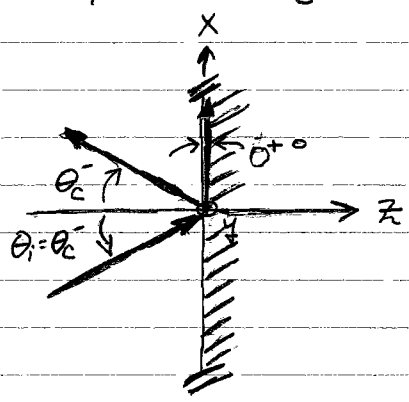
For the example results @ the end of this lecture,  $\frac{\epsilon_1}{\epsilon_2} = 4$  &  $\frac{\mu_1}{\mu_2} = 1$ .

From (2),

$$\underline{\theta_c} = \sin^{-1}\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}\right) = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \underline{30^\circ}$$

From the plot,  $|\Gamma_{\perp}^b| = 1$  @  $\theta_i = 30^\circ$  as predicted. Also,  $|T_{\perp}^b| = 2$  &  $\cancel{T_{\perp}^b} = 0$ .

This is a very interesting behavior. We also see that  $|\Gamma^b| = 1$  for  $\theta_i > \theta_c$ . What is happening here? To understand this, take a look at the plot of  $\theta_t$ . It increases rapidly from  $0$  @  $\theta_i = 0$  to  $90^\circ$  @  $\theta_i = 30^\circ = \theta_c$ . At the critical  $\angle$  of incidence:



$$\text{From (1), } \theta_t \Big|_{\theta_i = \theta_c} = \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{\mu_1 \epsilon_1}}{\sqrt{\mu_2 \epsilon_2}} \sin \theta_i \right]_{\theta_i = \theta_c} = \sin^{-1} \left[ \sqrt{4} \sin 30^\circ \right] = \sin^{-1} [1] \rightarrow \theta_t$$

So,  $\theta_t = 90^\circ$  as we know. Now, what happens when  $\theta_i > \theta_c$ ? The argument of  $\sin$  is  $> 1$ , so there is no longer a real angle of transmission. Instead,  $\theta_t$  becomes a complex angle.

What does that mean? No geometrical interpretation. Rather, it is much more meaningful to work directly w/ the wavevector  $\vec{\beta}^\pm$ . As we saw earlier

$$\beta_x^\pm = \beta_x^i \quad (4)$$

$$\beta_z^{\pm} = \beta_2 \cos \theta_t = \pm \sqrt{\beta_2^2 - \beta_x^{i2}} \quad (5)$$

At the critical angle of incidence,  $\theta_t = 90^\circ \Rightarrow \beta_z^{\pm} = 0$  (6)

We deduce from (5) that @  $\theta_i = \theta_c$ ,  $(\beta_x^i)^2 = \beta_2^2$  (7)

For  $\theta_i < \theta_c$ , then  $\theta_t$  is real so that  $(\beta_x^i)^2 < \beta_2^2$  while for  $\theta_i > \theta_c$ , then  $(\beta_x^i)^2 > \beta_2^2$  so that  $\theta_t$  is complex. In other words:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \theta_i < \theta_c &: (\beta_x^i)^2 < \beta_2^2 \text{ s.t. } \beta_z^{\pm} \text{ real} \\ \theta_i = \theta_c &: (\beta_x^i)^2 = \beta_2^2 \text{ s.t. } \beta_z^{\pm} = 0 \\ \theta_i > \theta_c &: (\beta_x^i)^2 > \beta_2^2 \text{ s.t. } \beta_z^{\pm} \text{ imag.} \end{aligned} \right\} (8)$$

In this latter case,  $\vec{E}_{\perp}^{\pm} = \hat{y} T_{\perp}^b E_0 e^{-j\vec{\beta}^{\pm} \cdot \vec{r}}$  (9)

or

$$\vec{E}_{\perp}^{\pm} = \hat{y} T_{\perp}^b E_0 e^{-j(\beta_x^{\pm} x + \beta_z^{\pm} z)} = \hat{y} T_{\perp}^b E_0 e^{-j\beta_x^i x} e^{-j\beta_z^{\pm} z} \quad (10)$$

Therefore, with  $\theta_i > \theta_c$ ,  $\beta_z^{\pm} = -j\alpha_z^{\pm} = -j\sqrt{(\beta_x^i)^2 - \beta_2^2}$  then from (5) (11)

so that (10) becomes  $\vec{E}_{\perp}^{\pm} = \hat{y} T_{\perp}^b E_0 e^{-j\beta_x^i x} e^{-\alpha_z^{\pm} z} \frac{v}{m} \leftarrow$  Non (12)

The wave continues to propagate along the interface w/ phase velocity  $v_{px} = \frac{\omega}{\beta_x^i}$  (13)

From (8) & (13), we can deduce that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \theta_i < \theta_c &: v_{px} > v_2 \\ \theta_i = \theta_c &: v_{px} = v_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_2 \epsilon_2}} \\ \theta_i > \theta_c &: v_{px} < v_2 \end{aligned} \right\} (14)$$

In this latter case, called a surface wave

because field not uniform in plane to direction of prop (+x) in region 2 - (PW) in region 1.

The PW propagates in x but not in z because it is purely attenuated in z because non-uniform wave  $\theta_i > \theta_c$ . Fig 5-6.

Surface waves appear in many EM applications such as dielectric waveguides, patch antennas & microstrip circuits, certain antennas (e.g. freqs.) located near the Earth, etc.

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A wave that propagates along an interface but decays away from it, as (12), is often called a surface wave.

Depending on  $\beta_x^i$ , this attenuation can happen very quickly so that the field is tightly bound to the interface.

$\propto e^{-\beta_z z}$

Combining all of these terms, we could have a tightly bound slow surface wave, depending on  $\beta_x^i$ .

Referring back to the beginning of this section, we were puzzled by results that showed for certain  $\theta_i$ 's of incidence of a UPW incident on a less-dense half space  $|R_{\perp}^b| = 1$  &  $|T_{\perp}^b| \neq 0$ . Seemed to violate our concept of conservation of power.

Let's check this. Your text shows that @  $\theta_i = \theta_c$ :

$$\bar{S}_{AV}^{\pm} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \bar{E}_{\perp}^{\pm} \times \bar{H}_{\perp}^{\pm*} \right\} \Big|_{\theta_i = \theta_c} = \hat{x} \frac{2|E_0|^2}{\eta_2} \quad [\text{W/m}^2] \quad (5-40), (15)$$

Notice there is time-avg. power flow in x direction, but none in the z direction (normal to interface)! interesting.

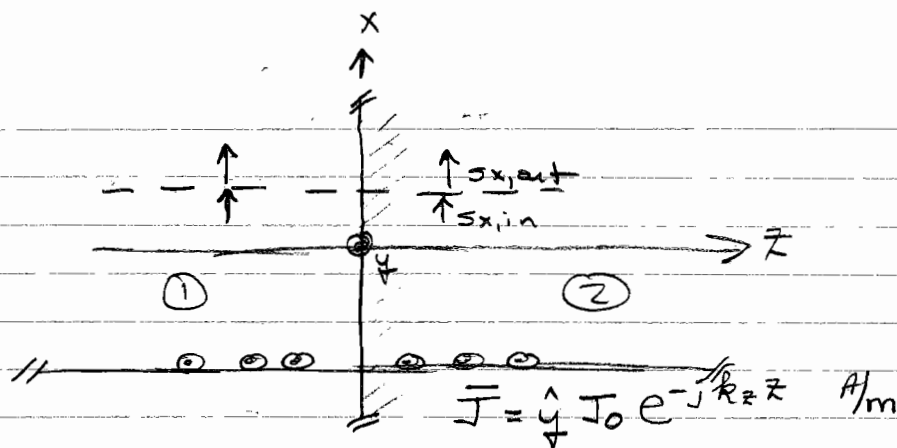
Your text also shows that

$$\bar{S}_{AV}^i = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \bar{E}_{\perp}^i \times \bar{H}_{\perp}^{i*} \right\} \Big|_{\theta_i = \theta_c} = (\hat{x} \sin \theta_c + \hat{z} \cos \theta_c) \frac{|E_0|^2}{2\eta_1} \quad (5-41a), (16)$$

$$\bar{S}_{AV}^r = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \bar{E}_{\perp}^r \times \bar{H}_{\perp}^{r*} \right\} \Big|_{\theta_i = \theta_c} = (\hat{x} \sin \theta_c - \hat{z} \sin \theta_c) \frac{|E_0|^2}{2\eta_1} \quad (5-41b), (17)$$

We see here that  $\bar{S}_{z,AV}^i = -\bar{S}_{z,AV}^r$  meaning all time-avg. power incident in z direction is reflected back. Consistent w/ (5-40).

Do we expect that  $\bar{S}_{x,AV}^{\pm} = \bar{S}_{x,AV}^i (= \bar{S}_{x,AV}^o)$ ? To answer this question, perhaps we can consider this geometry: (18)



Answer is: not necessarily. We do know that for any plane  $\perp$  to  $x$ ,  $S_{x,in} = S_{x,out}$ .

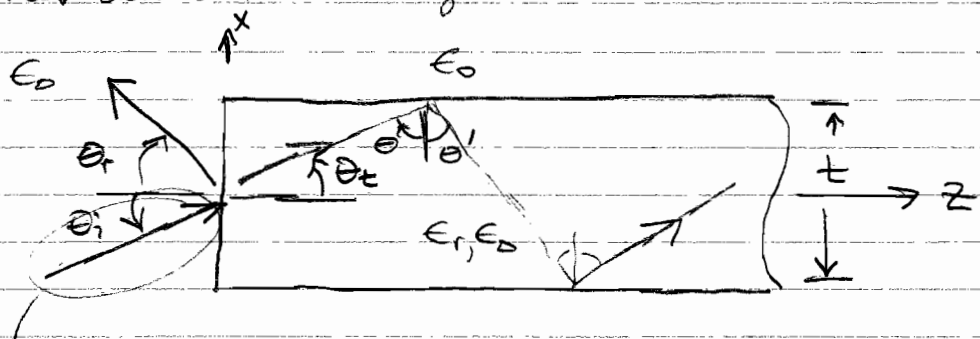
Even though fields in region 2 are not zero for  $\theta_i \geq \theta_c$ , there is no time avg. power flow in  $z$  (normal to interface). There is, however, time-avg. power flow in  $x$  (parallel to interface).

### Critical Angle: Parallel-Pol

Besides particular field expressions, the results we've derived here concerning the critical  $\angle$  of incidence, power flow  $= 0$  normal to interface in region 2 for  $\theta_i \geq \theta_c$ , non-uniform plane waves, surface waves, slow waves, etc. are exactly the same for a  $\parallel$ -pol UPW obliquely incident on a half space.

This makes sense because Snell's laws are identical for these UPW polarizations. We derived  $\theta_c$  & other phenomenon from these laws.

Example N12.1 (Text example 5-6). Classic problem.  
 A light ray is incident on a dielectric slab as shown.  
 Determine range of  $\epsilon_r$  so that light is contained in slab  
 and propagates down this waveguide.



A "ray" is a tightly bunched UFW of a field that is contained in a "tube".  
 Tube diameter  $\ll t$

In order to contain ray,  $\theta' \geq \theta_c = \sin^{-1} \left( \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_0}{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0}} \right)$  (19)

which means  $\theta_t \leq \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta' = \frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}} \right)$   
 or  $\sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta_t \right) \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}}$  or  $\cos \theta_t \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}}$  (20)

By phase match @ the interface  $x=0$ ,  $(-\frac{t}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{t}{2})$

$$\beta_0 \sin \theta_i = \beta_0 \sqrt{\epsilon_r} \sin \theta_t$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin \theta_t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}} \sin \theta_i$$
 (21)

By definition  $\cos^2 \theta_t = 1 - \sin^2 \theta_t$   
 or  $\cos^2 \theta_t = \pm \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_t}$  (22)

Square (20) : sub (22):

$$\cos^2 \theta_t \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon_r} \text{ or } 1 - \sin^2 \theta_t \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon_r}$$

and sub (21):

$$\epsilon_r - \epsilon_r \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon_r} \sin^2 \theta_i \right) \geq 1$$

$$\therefore \epsilon_r \geq 1 + \sin^2 \theta_i$$

To accommodate all  $\theta_i$ , then minimum  $\epsilon_r$  is

$$\epsilon_r \geq 1 + \max_{\theta_i} [\sin^2 \theta_i] = 2 \text{ when } \theta_i = 90^\circ.$$

When  $\theta_i = 0$ , all wave will prop. in  $z$  & be contained in dielectric med. As  $\theta_i$  increases,  $\epsilon_r$  increases. More reflection @ front face, however.

[ DEMO w/ laser pointer & glass of water. ]