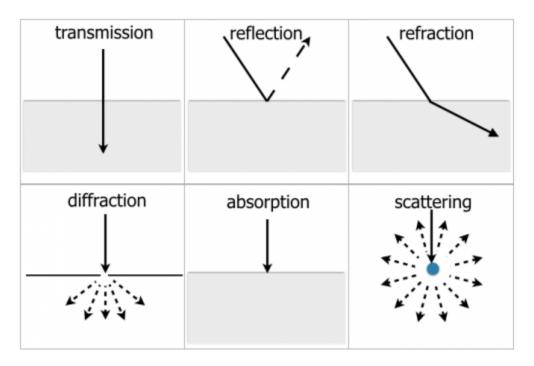
<box orange |Under Construction> VE7HZF is editing this section, please do not edit it until this notice is taken
down. </box>

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## **Wave Interaction**

When an electromagnetic wave (radio, light, etc) hits a surface, it can do one or a mix of six things<sup>1)</sup>:

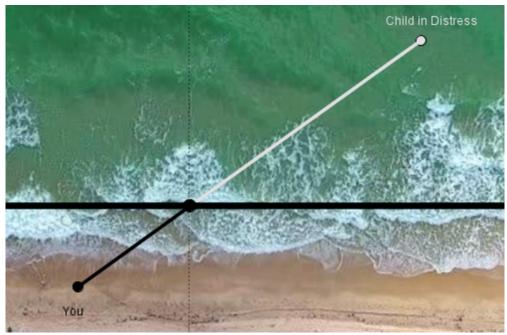


Let's start with refraction and reflection.

# **Principle of Least Time**

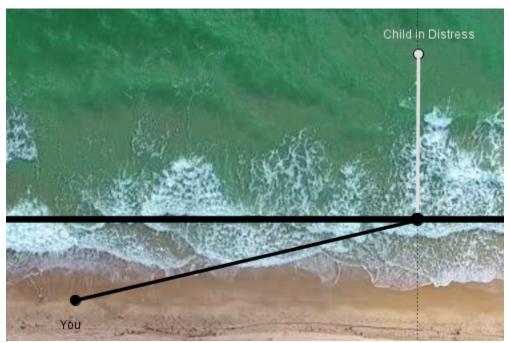
Imagine you're on the beach when you suddenly notice a child in distress in the water. You're a good swimmer but let's say you can run twice as fast as you can swim. What do you do?

Option 1: You make a B-line for the child because the shortest distance between two points is a straight line.



While it's true that this straight line is the *shortest* distance, it's not necessarily the *fastest* path. The problem here is that the water slows you down too much. It's better to cover more ground where you're faster and less where you're slower.

**Option 2**: You run until you're as close to the child as possible before jumping in the water to swim as little as possible.



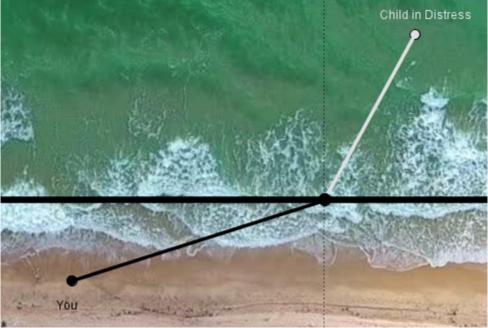
That path might be faster than the previous one, but it's not the fastest. Here's a thought experiment:

- Imagine that you could swim as fast as you can run, then Option 1 would be the fastest path because there would be no difference between running or swimming so the shortest path would also be the quickest.
- Now imagine that you could run only *slightly* faster than you can swim. Does that mean you should go all out and run all that distance to spend as little time in the water as possible? If so, how would running yet faster change the path?

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Option 2 would be the path to take if you could instantly teleport on the beach (but not in the water). In this case, you'd want to teleport as close to the child as possible, then swim the rest of the way. This path is when you can run infinitely fast.

**Option 3**: For regular running speeds, the quickest path is to enter the water somewhere in between.

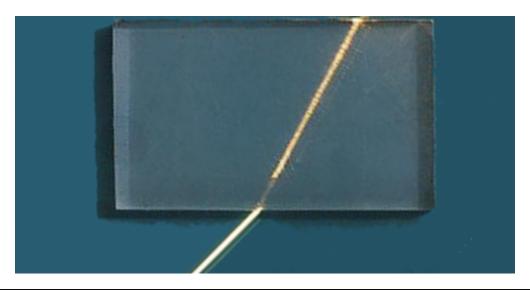


It turns out that, people have a pretty good intuition of where that "somewhere" is. But using Calculus, it's possible to find exactly where to enter the water to get to the child as quickly as possible.

### Refraction

In science classes, we learn that the speed of light is roughly 300,000,000 meters per second.<sup>2)</sup> But that's the speed of light in empty space. In air, glass, or water, light slows down. And since light has different speeds in different media, it means that, even for light, the quickest way to get from point A to point B is **not** necessarily a straight line.

If you shine a beam of light through a piece of glass, it will bend so as to get to the other side as quickly as possible.<sup>3)</sup>

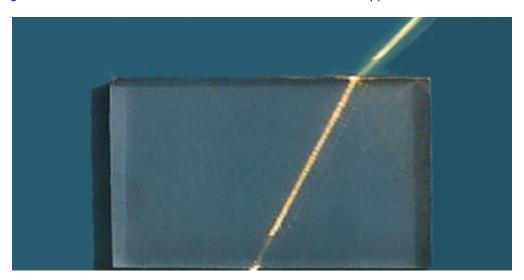


This principle is called format's Principle of Least Time and in first year Calculus, students use this principle to derive formation Snell's Law of Refraction, taught in high school physics, which relates the angles of incidence and refraction to the formation refractive indices.

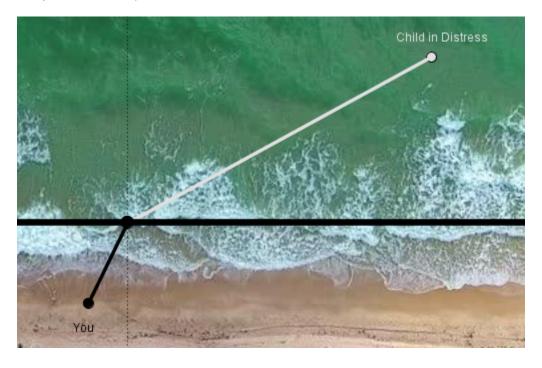
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Qualitatively: If light enters a medium where it travels slower, it'll bend "inward" so as to spend less time in that medium (like the picture above).

But what if light goes into a medium where it can travel faster? Then this happens:



If this last one feels weird to you, imagine this: suppose you're a turtle who can swim twice as fast as you can walk. It makes sense that you'd want to spend more time in the water and less on the beach:



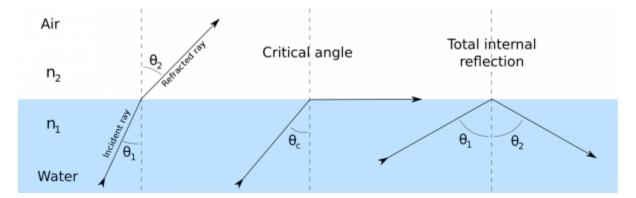
#### To recap:

- When going from a "quick" medium to a "slow" medium, light bends away from the surface to spend less time in the slow medium.
- When going from a "slow" medium to a "quick" medium, light does the opposite and bends towards the surface.

#### **Total Internal Reflection**

This second case (going from a "slow" medium to a "fast" medium) is really interesting because at some point, the light beam bends so much that it "exits" parallel to the surface, and then reflects like a mirror:<sup>4)</sup>

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This behaviour is a bit hard to explain without going into the math, but here's an animation that allows you to explore it:

- You can move four points around to see how the refracted ray changes: " $n_1$ ", " $n_2$ ", "Laser", and "Entry point".
- Note though that this particular animation only works if the laser is below the horizontal line.

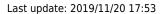
 $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the Refractive Indices of the media. They are defined as the ratio of the speed of light in vacuum to the speed of light in the media  $\left( r_1 \right)$ . For example, if  $r_2 = 1$ , then the speed of light is twice as slow in the medium as it is in vacuum. The bigger  $r_1$  is, the slower the speed.  $r_2 = 1$  means that the speed is the same as the speed of light in a vacuum.

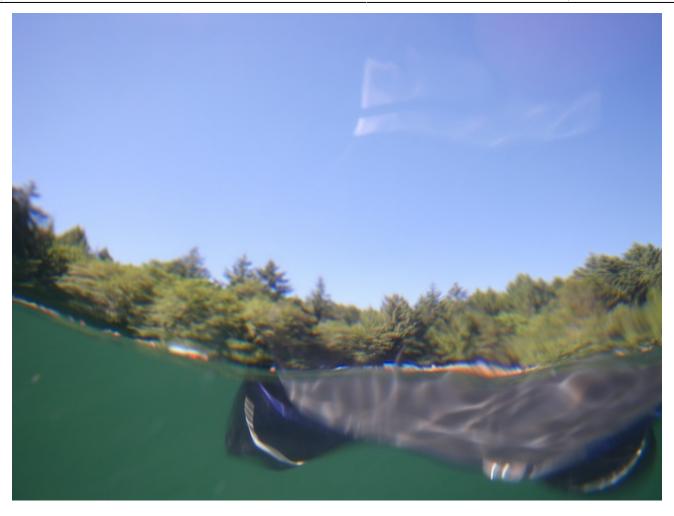
A few things to try:

- Set  $n_1 = 1$  and Set  $n_2 = 2$  and move the Laser and the Entry Point around. These are the paths when you can run twice as fast as you can swim. Notice that if you set  $n_1 = 2$  and  $n_2 = 4$ , or  $n_1 = 2.5$  and  $n_2 = 5$ , it shouldn't matter. What really matters is the relative speeds between the two media.
- Now move the laser in a straight line so that the angle  $\theta_1$  doesn't change. The refracted ray shouldn't change either. So it doesn't matter how far the laser is from the surface. What matters is the angle at which the beam hits the surface.
- Now move the laser back and forth in a semi circle around the Entry Point. Although the laser is the same distance away from the Entry Point, the angle of incidence changes so the refracted ray changes.
- Now set  $n_1 = 1.5$  and Set  $n_2 = 1$  and play with the laser to change its angle of incidence (important). At what angle do you notice that the refracted ray goes parallel to the surface? This is called the critical angle. Passed that angle, the ray can't go through and gets reflected instead.

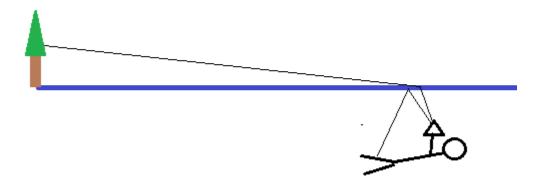
### **Example**

Here's an underwater picture VE7HZF took in a lake with a waterproof camera. The camera is completely submerged under water looking up toward the surface. Above a certain angle, it's possible to see the beach, trees, and the sky. But below a certain angle, we see the reflection of his wetsuit.

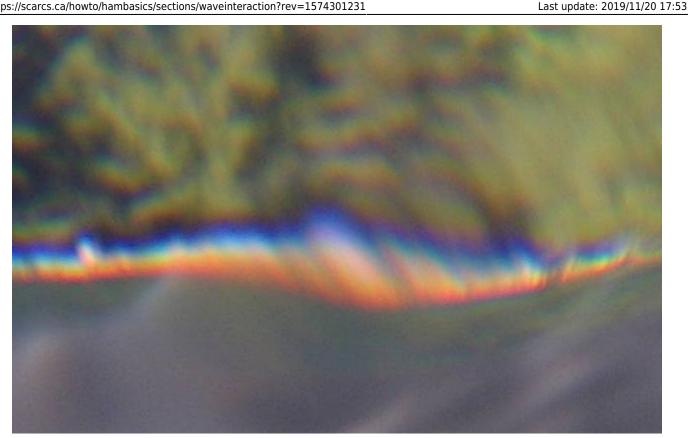




Here's a sketch of the setup:

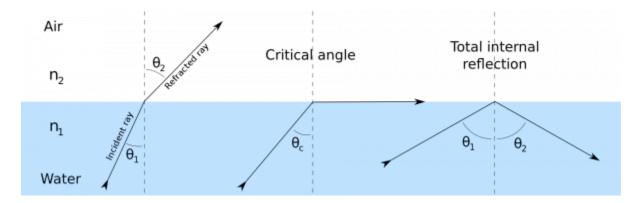


The other cool thing about that picture is that if you zoom in on the beach, you'll see the colours separate (as if through a prism). This indicates that the index of refraction, n, depends on the frequency. This will be important when we relate all of this back to radio waves.



## **Snell's Law (Optional)**

Snell's law gives the relationship between the angle of incidence and refraction depending on the refraction indices:  $\ n 1 \sin(\theta 1) = n 2 \sin(\theta 2)$ 



There are four interesting cases here:

- If \$n 1 < n 2\$ (high speed to low speed), then the left hand side of the equation is in danger of being less than the right hand side. To maintain the equality,  $\theta 1 > \theta 2$ , which means that the path curves away from the surface.
- If  $n_1 > n_2$  (low speed to high speed), then the right hand side of the equation is in danger of being less than the left hand side. To maintain the equality, \$\theta\_1 < \theta\_2\$, which means that the path curves away from the surface.
- If we keep increasing \$n 1\$ compared to \$n 2\$, then \$\theta 2\$ can increase to the point where it's going parallel to the surface ( $\frac{2 = 90\circ}$ ), which means that:  $\frac{n_1}{n_2} \sin(\theta_1) = 1$ . At

this point, we call \$\theta 1\$ the critical angle.

• If we keep increasing \$n\_1\$ even further, then \$\frac{n\_1}{n\_2} \sin(\theta\_1) >1 \$, which means that it's impossible for \$\theta\_2\$ to keep up since \$\sin(\theta\_2) \leq 1\$. This is when Total Internal Reflection occurs, which is what we use to "bounce" radio waves off the ionosphere (more on that next).

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## **Polarization**

#### **How To Make A Radio Wave**

Back on the Intro Page, we introduced to the idea of frequency and saw that

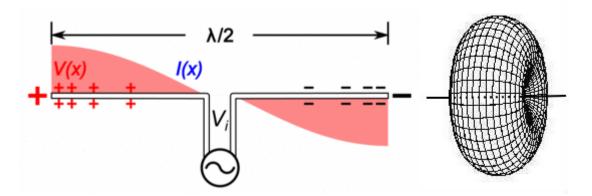
A Hertz (Hz) is a measure of how fast something vibrates [...]

Just seeing "Hz" doesn't tell you anything about what it is that's oscillating in the same way that seeing "°C" doesn't tell you anything about what it is that has temperature. "Hz" is a unit of measure, not a thing itself.

Without going into too much detail (yet), radio waves are created by oscillating electric currents. How many times this current oscillates per second is called the frequency, which is measured in Hz (or kHz, MHz, GHz).

It's now time to add a few more details. Here is a basic recipe for making a radio wave:

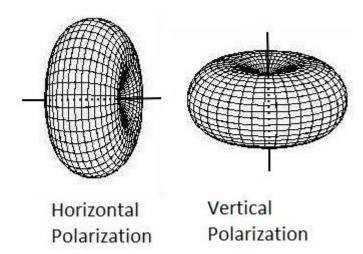
- 1. Get a length of conducting wire and lay it in a straight line.
- 2. Cut it in half right in the middle and bend both ends at right angle.
- 3. Connect the two middle ends to each side of an alternating current generator.



Voila! Assuming that the length of the antenna (the two pieces of wires) match the frequency of the current generator (more of this later), and that the antenna is high enough above the ground, you've created a radio wave. 5) As electrons move up and down the length of the wires, they create varying electric and magnetic fields that couple together according to Maxwell's Equations and propagate outward in a doughnut shape. 6)

### Horizontal vs Vertical Polarization

Here's the critical part though: In the same way that an alternating current through an antenna creates a radio wave, a radio wave hitting an antenna induces an alternating current through it if the radio wave hitting the antenna is in the same "direction" as the antenna.



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This "direction" is called polarization.

#### **Effect on Communication**

In practice, polarization is more important for VHF and UHF communication because signals go directly from the transmitting station to the receiving one. For skywave HF communications, the ionosphere can change the polarization of the signal from moment to moment as the radio wave refracts, reflects, or goes through magnetic fields in the atmosphere. As such polarization of the antennas on HF frequency doesn't matter much.

## **Scattering**

Scattering occurs when an EM wave hits a bunch of "small particles" that in turn re-radiate the wave in all direction. Here are a few examples in the visible light spectrum:

The first picture shows a laser beam shinning at the wall. In the second picture, water is sprayed into the path of the laser beam.



The reason the beam is invisible in the first picture is that all the light from the laser travels toward the wall (an none toward the camera). But in the second picture, the water vapour scatters some of that light in random directions, allowing some of it to reach the camera. There's a subtle point here: light for a regular light bulb also does this to some extent. What I mean is this:

- Look at the light bulb in the room you're in.
- Now look at an object that the light bulb illuminates.
- Now imagine a straight line between the light bulb and that object.

Just as with the laser in the first picture, you don't see any light along that line. If you did, the entire room would be glowing white from all the different light rays that the light bulb emits. In fact, you can see this on a foggy day when it's also sunny. Or on a foggy evening when you're driving with the high beam on.



Now back to radio waves...

# **Troposphere**

On the previous page, we discussed how the lonosphere (the region of our atmosphere between 50km and 400km altitude) can, reflect and refract radio waves, let them pass straight through, or absorbed them completely mostly due to the sun's ionization of the gas in these layers.

Here we discuss how the ntroposphere (the lowest region of our atmosphere below 20km altitude) can also affect radio waves.

## **Next**

- Tropospheric bending on 2m
- Ducting
- Sporatic E
- Auroral propagation
- Scatter
- Meteor Scatter

See Radio\_propagation

Questions:

• B-007-007-002 → B-007-008-011

## **Questions**

- B-007-004-007
- B-007-004-010





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1

Picture from http://www.mrwaynesclass.com/lightOptics/reading/index02.html

It takes light roughly 8 minutes to travel from the Sun to the Earth

3)

Picture modified from Wikipedia: Refractive Index

4)

Picture from Wikipedia: Total Internal Reflection

5)

GIF from Wikipedia Dipole Antenna

6)

Picture modified from Wikipedia Dipole Antenna

7)

The "small particles" can be single atoms, molecules, dust, or pockets of gas with a different index of refraction. They can also be bigger objects like meteors or small planes! The size of the "particle" is always relative to the wavelength of the EM wave. To a 160m radio wave, a meteor is small, but to a laser beam ( $\approx$ 500nm), a dust particle is very big.

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The laser pictures were taken by Patrick, VE7HZF with help from Justine. The picture of the forest is from: https://www.souvenirpixels.com/Photo-blog/i-cZgCHvZ