

## 6 Electromagnetism

### 6.1 Diffraction pattern due to a current strip (7 units)

*Knowledge of material covered in the Part IB course Electromagnetism is useful as background.*

This project investigates the magnetic field generated by an oscillating current. The field is given in terms of an integral whose behaviour is analysed numerically.

#### 1 Theory

Consider an infinite two-dimensional strip of conductive material in the plane  $y = 0$  that covers the area defined by  $-d < x < d$  and  $-\infty < z < \infty$ . A time-dependent current flows in the  $z$ -direction, and it emits electromagnetic (radio) waves with wavelength  $\lambda$ . We assume that  $d = n\lambda/2$  where  $n$  is a positive integer. The time-dependent current is independent of  $x, z$ , and is given by

$$j_z(t) = j_0 e^{i\omega t}.$$

where  $j_0$  is a parameter and  $\omega = 2\pi c/\lambda$ . In the following, all length scales are normalised so that  $\lambda = 1$ , hence for example  $d = n/2$ .

Now consider the component of the magnetic field in the  $x$ -direction. It is independent of  $z$ . For this particular form of  $j_z(t)$ , it can be derived from Maxwell's equations of electromagnetism as  $H_x(x, y, t) = j_z(t)h_x(x, y)$  with

$$h_x(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{2\pi iux} A(u, y) du \quad (1)$$

where

$$A(u, y) = \frac{\sin(n\pi u)}{u} \times \begin{cases} \exp\left(2\pi iy\sqrt{1-u^2}\right), & |u| \leq 1 \\ \exp\left(-2\pi|y|\sqrt{u^2-1}\right), & |u| > 1 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

To avoid ambiguity, it is convenient to specify  $A(0, y) = \lim_{u \rightarrow 0} A(u, y)$ .

It can be shown that for large  $y$ , the complex modulus of the magnetic field asymptotically approaches

$$|h_x| \simeq \left| \frac{\sin n\pi v}{2\pi v} \right| \sqrt{\frac{v(1-v^2)}{x}}, \quad (3)$$

where

$$v = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}.$$

This project investigates numerical approximations to  $h_x(x, y)$ , as defined in (1).

#### 2 Numerical method

The right-hand side of (1) is a Fourier integral. Numerical estimation of this function has some tricky features: for example, if  $x$  is large then the integrand oscillates rapidly in  $u$ . This project uses a specialised method for integrals of this type, called the fast Fourier transform (FFT). It is a very efficient method, in particular it allows simultaneous estimation of  $h_x(x, y)$  at  $N$  distinct values of  $x$ .

To apply the method, note first that  $A$  decays rapidly for large  $u$ , so it is reasonable to introduce a (large) parameter  $U$  and approximate  $h_x(x, y)$  as

$$h_x(x, y) \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-U}^U e^{2\pi iux} A(u, y) du \quad (4)$$

This approximation is accurate for sufficiently large  $U$ .

Now define a periodic function  $A^{\text{per}}$  with period  $2U$  by taking  $A^{\text{per}}(u, y) = A(u, y)$  for  $|u| \leq U$  and  $A^{\text{per}}(u + 2mU, y) = A^{\text{per}}(u, y)$  for any integer  $m$ . The integral in (4) is unchanged on replacing  $A$  by  $A^{\text{per}}$ . The domain of integration can then be replaced by  $[0, 2U]$ , and it is natural to estimate the integral by a (Riemann) sum. Define

$$\hat{h}_x(x, y) = \frac{\Delta u}{2\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i k x \Delta u} A^{\text{per}}(k \Delta u, y) \quad (5)$$

with  $\Delta u = 2U/N$ .

Under certain conditions, this allows  $h_x(x, y)$  to be approximated by  $\hat{h}_x(x, y)$ , but the accuracy of this approximation requires some care. For example  $\hat{h}_x$  exhibits rapid oscillations as a function of  $x$ , which are not present in  $h_x$ . Also, the right hand side of (5) can be recognised as a Fourier series (or discrete Fourier transform, DFT). Hence  $\hat{h}_x(x, y)$  is periodic in  $x$ , specifically  $\hat{h}_x(x, y) = \hat{h}_x(x + 2mX, y)$  with  $X = 1/(2\Delta u)$ . However,  $h_x$  is not periodic.

To understand the relation of  $\hat{h}_x$  to  $h_x$ , define a periodic function  $h_x^{\text{per}}$  by taking  $h_x^{\text{per}}(x, y) = h(x, y)$  for  $|x| \leq X$  and  $h_x^{\text{per}}(x + 2mX, y) = h_x^{\text{per}}(x, y)$  for any integer  $m$ . Define also  $\Delta x = 2X/N$ . Then for integer  $m$  and sufficiently large values of  $N$  and  $U$ , one has

$$\hat{h}_x(m\Delta x, y, t) \approx h_x^{\text{per}}(m\Delta x, y, t). \quad (6)$$

Under these conditions,  $h_x$  can be approximated by  $\hat{h}_x$  as long as  $|x| \leq X$  and  $x = m\Delta x$ . This construction relies on the fact that  $\Delta x \Delta u = 1/N$  so that the exponential factors in (5) are the  $N$ th roots of unity.

The FFT method is an efficient algorithm for computing sums of the form (5), for  $x = m\Delta x$  and  $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N - 1$ . This allows accurate estimation of  $h_x^{\text{per}}(m\Delta x, y, t)$  for  $x \in [0, 2X]$  and hence of  $h_x$ . The method is described in the Appendix. For cases where  $N$  is an integer power of 2, the FFT is much faster than computing the sum (5) individually for each value of  $m$  in turn. For this project, it is not necessary to understand any of the details, you only need to invoke an FFT routine to compute the relevant quantities. You may use a Matlab routine such as `fft` or `ifft`, or an equivalent routine in any other language, or you may write your own (but you should not compute (5) directly).

Finally, note that we have defined the method by taking  $N$  and  $U$  as parameters, from which  $\Delta u, \Delta x, X$  are derived. From a practical point of view it is more natural to take  $N$  and  $X$  as parameters, from which one may derive  $U$  and the other relevant quantities.

### 3 Numerical work

**Programming Task:** Given values of  $n, y, N, X$ , write a program to compute (5) by FFT, for  $x = m\Delta x$  and  $m = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$ . It is sufficient to restrict to  $N = 2^p$  for integer  $p$ . The program should also use (6) to estimate the real and imaginary parts of  $h_x$  for  $x \in [-X, X]$ . Also estimate its complex modulus  $|h_x|$ . It will be necessary to plot these estimates.

**Question 1** Take

$$n = 2, \quad y = 0.2, \quad X = 5, \quad N = 256.$$

Plot your estimates of the real and imaginary parts of  $h_x$ , and its modulus, for  $|x| < X$ . Derive the relationships between  $h_x(x, y)$  and  $h_x(-x, y)$  and  $h_x(x, -y)$ . Verify that your results are consistent with these relationships.

**Question 2** Keeping  $n = 2$  and  $y = 0.2$ , compute estimates of  $h_x(x, y)$  for  $|x| < 5$ , using different values of  $X$  and  $N$  (always with  $X \geq 5$ ). Analyse the behaviour of your estimates, as  $N$  and  $X$  are varied.

Note: In this question and throughout this project, you should provide graphs that illustrate clearly the effect of the parameters on your results. Note that large numbers of graphs are *very unlikely to be effective* in communicating this information.

**Question 3** For  $n = 2$ , produce a single graph that shows  $|h_x|$  as a function of  $x$  for  $y = 0.12, 0.6, 1, 6, 12$ . Fix  $N = 256$  and choose suitable values of  $X$  (dependent on  $y$ ). Justify the values that you have chosen. Are there some values of  $y$  for which larger (or smaller) values of  $N$  would be appropriate?

Compare your numerical results for large  $y$  with the asymptotic formula (3). This comparison must be presented in a way that illustrates clearly any differences between the numerical estimates and the asymptotic formula. It may be useful to consider additional values of  $y$ , as well as those listed above.

**Question 4** Perform a similar analysis to question 3 but now for  $n = 3, 4$ . Justify your choices of  $N, X$ . Combining these results with those of question 3, discuss how the approximation of  $h$  by  $\hat{h}$  depends on both  $n, y$  and  $N, X$ .

**Question 5** Comment on the physical significance of your results. In particular, how do your results demonstrate the phenomenon of diffraction?

## Appendix: The Fast Fourier Transform

Given a vector of complex numbers  $\mu = (\mu_0, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_{N-1})$ , define

$$\lambda_r = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \mu_k e^{-2\pi i kr/N}. \quad (7)$$

The FFT is an efficient (fast) method of evaluating the vector  $\lambda = (\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{N-1})$ , which is the discrete Fourier transform. The same algorithm can also be used to evaluate similar vectors where the factor  $e^{-2\pi i kr/N}$  in the definition of  $\lambda_r$  is replaced by  $e^{2\pi i kr/N}$ , this is sometimes called the inverse FFT.

Note that (7) corresponds to multiplication of the vector  $\mu$  by a particular  $N \times N$  matrix that we denote by  $\Omega^{(N)}$ . Its elements are taken from the set of  $N$ th roots of unity. It follows that  $\lambda$  can be computed using approximately  $N^2$  multiplication operations. (There would be a similar number of addition operations, it is assumed here that the multiplication operations take the greater part of the computational effort.) If  $N = 2^p$  for integer  $p$ , the FFT can compute  $\lambda$  much more quickly, it requires approximately  $(N/2) \log_2 N$  multiplication operations.

To see this, divide  $\mu$  into even and odd subsequences, that is  $\mu^E = (\mu_0, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_{N-2})$  and  $\mu^O = (\mu_1, \mu_3, \dots, \mu_{N-1})$ . Their Fourier transforms are given by matrix multiplication as

$$\lambda^E = \Omega^{(N/2)} \mu^E, \quad \lambda^O = \Omega^{(N/2)} \mu^O. \quad (8)$$

Then it may be shown that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \lambda_r &= \lambda_r^E + e^{2\pi ir/N} \lambda_r^O \\ \lambda_{r+N/2} &= \lambda_r^E - e^{2\pi ir/N} \lambda_r^O \end{aligned} \right\} \quad r = 0, 1, \dots, \frac{N}{2} - 1 \quad (9)$$

Hence if  $\lambda^E$  and  $\lambda^O$  are known, it requires  $(N/2)$  multiplications to evaluate  $\lambda$ .

Moreover, since  $\lambda^E$  is itself the Fourier transform of a particular sequence  $\mu^E$ , it can be estimated efficiently by further splitting  $\mu^E$  into even and odd subsequences. For  $N = 2^p$ , this decomposition is repeated  $p$  times, leading to an FFT in  $p$  stages.

In stage 1, each element  $\mu_k$  of  $\mu$  is treated as a sequence  $\mu^{(k,1)}$  of length 1. Their Fourier transforms are simply  $\lambda_0^{(k,1)} = \mu_0^{(k,1)}$ . These sequences are labelled as even/odd, and are combined in pairs using a rule similar to (9), which generates  $N/2$  sequences each of length 2. These are denoted as  $\lambda^{(k,2)}$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, (N/2) - 1$ . In stage 2, these new sequences are again labelled as even/odd and combined in pairs using the generalised (9), to obtain  $N/4$  sequences of length 4, denoted by  $\lambda^{(k,4)}$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, (N/4) - 1$ . The procedure repeats until stage  $p$  ends with a single sequence  $\lambda^{(0,2^p)}$  of length  $2^p$ .

The detailed rules that explain how the sequences are combined can be found in the original paper [1] or in standard textbooks such as [2]. These are chosen such that  $\lambda^{(0,2^p)} = \lambda$ , the vector of interest.

For efficiency, the key point is that each step requires  $N/2$  multiplication operations and there are  $p = \log_2 N$  stages. Hence the algorithm only requires  $(N/2) \log_2 N$  multiplication operations, as advertised above.

## References

- [1] JW Cooley, and JW Tukey, *An algorithm for the machine calculation of complex Fourier series*, Math. Comput. 19: 297-301 (1965)
- [2] TH Cormen, CE Leiserson, RL Rivest, and C Stein, Chapter 30 of *Introduction to Algorithms*, MIT press, 3rd edition (2009)