

## 15.4. Electromagnetic Fields of a Moving Charge

In lectures 20 and 21 we studied the radiation emitted by time-varying charge distributions. We proceed to study the radiation emitted by a single charge:

Recall that in Lorenz gauge,  $(\partial_\mu A^\mu = 0)$ , the inhomogeneous Maxwell's eqs. are

$$\square A^\mu = 4\pi j^\mu, \quad \text{where} \quad \square = \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu$$

Recall that for a single charge

$$j^\mu = q \int d\tau \, u^\mu(\tau) \delta^{(4)}[x^\nu - x^\nu(\tau)].$$

To find  $A^\mu$  we are going to look for an appropriate Green's function:

$$\underline{\underline{\square_x D(x, x') = \delta^{(4)}(x^\nu - x'^\nu)}}.$$

Note that, as before,

$$\square \exp(-i k_\mu x^\mu) = \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \exp(i k_\mu x^\mu) = -\eta^{\mu\nu} k_\mu k_\nu \exp(-i k_\mu x^\mu) \\ \equiv -k^2 e^{-i k \cdot x}$$

Therefore, we can immediately write the Green's function as

$$D(x, x') = -\frac{1}{(2\pi)^4} \int d^4 k \frac{e^{-i k \cdot (x-x')}}{k^2} \quad \begin{array}{l} \swarrow k_\mu (x^\mu - x'^\mu) \\ \nwarrow k_\nu k^\nu \end{array}$$

This can be checked by acting left and right with  $\square_x$ .

To evaluate  $D$ , we integrate over  $k_0$  first:

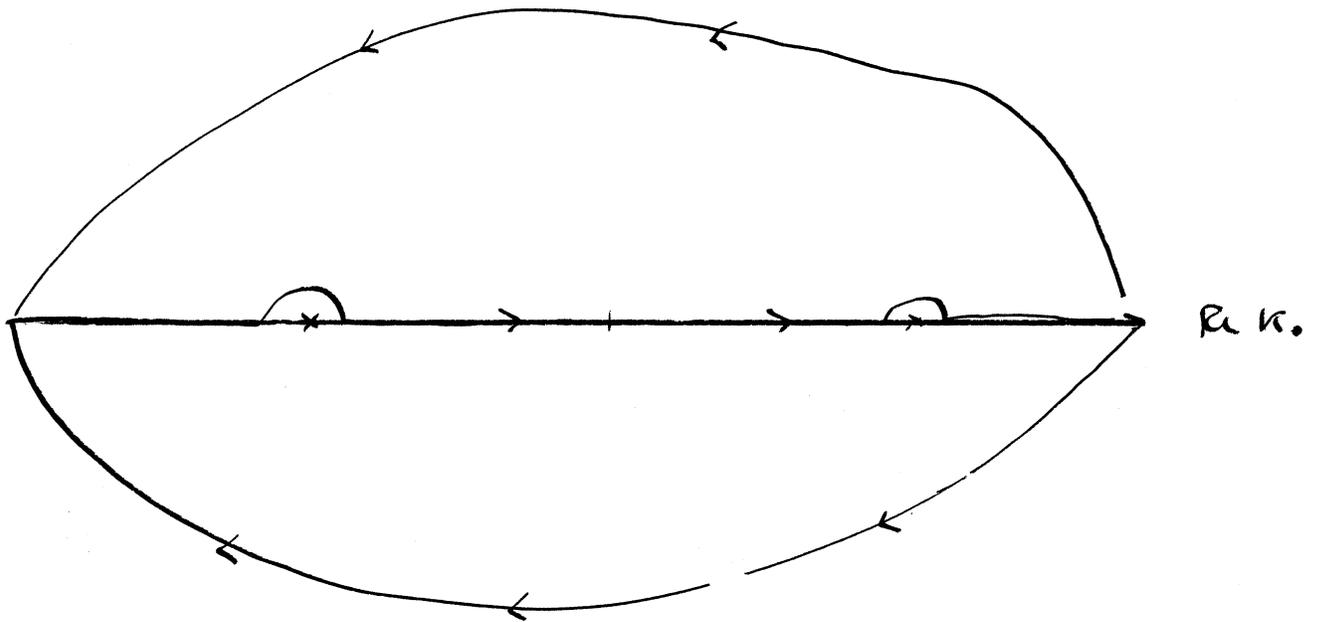
$$D(z) = -\frac{1}{(2\pi)^4} \int d^3 k e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{z}} \int dk_0 \frac{e^{-i k_0 z^0}}{k_0^2 - \vec{k}^2}$$

We encounter poles along integration contour at

$k_0 = \pm |\vec{k}|$ . Prescription to avoid poles determines

the bc. satisfied by the Green's fct.

We want to find the retarded Green's fct:



• For  $z^0 = t^0 - t^1 < 0$  close the contour  
in upper half plane  $\Rightarrow$

$$\int dk_0 \frac{e^{-ik_0 z^0}}{k_0^2 - |\vec{k}|^2} = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{D(z) = 0.}$$

Retarded.

• For  $z^0 = t^0 - t^1 > 0$  close the contour in  
lower half plane.

$$\int dk_0 \frac{e^{-ik_0 z^0}}{(k_0 + i|\vec{k}|)(k_0 - i|\vec{k}|)} = -2\pi i \left[ \frac{e^{i|\vec{k}|z^0}}{2i|\vec{k}|} + \frac{e^{-i|\vec{k}|z^0}}{2i|\vec{k}|} \right] =$$

$$= -\frac{2\pi}{|\vec{k}|} \sin(|\vec{k}|z^0).$$

Consider hence

$$D(z) = \frac{\Theta(z^0)}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3k \frac{e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{z}} \sin(|\vec{k}|z^0)}{|\vec{k}|} =$$

$$= \frac{\Theta(z^0)}{(2\pi)^3} \int dk \cdot k^2 \cdot 2\pi d(\cos\theta) \frac{e^{i|\vec{k}||\vec{z}|\cos\theta} \sin(|\vec{k}|z^0)}{|\vec{k}|} =$$

$$= \frac{\Theta(z^0)}{2\pi^2 |\vec{z}|} \int_0^\infty dk \sin(|\vec{k}|\cdot|\vec{z}|) \sin(|\vec{k}|z^0)$$

Because  $\sin \alpha \sin \beta = \frac{\cos(\alpha-\beta) - \cos(\alpha+\beta)}{2}$  and

$\cos$  is even,

$$= \frac{\Theta(z^0)}{2\pi^2 |\vec{z}|} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk \left[ e^{i|\vec{k}|(|\vec{z}|-z^0)} - e^{i|\vec{k}|(|\vec{z}|+z^0)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow D(x, x') = \frac{\Theta(x^0 - x'^0)}{4\pi |\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|} \delta(x^0 - x'^0 - |\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|)$$


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This is the same retarded Green's function of Lecture 20.

We can write it in a manifestly invariant form

by noting that

$$\delta(z^2) \equiv \delta(z^2 - |\vec{z}|^2) = \delta[(z^0 + |\vec{z}|)(z^0 - |\vec{z}|)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2|\vec{z}|} \left[ \delta(z_0 - |\vec{z}|) + \delta(z_0 + |\vec{z}|) \right], \quad \text{where we}$$

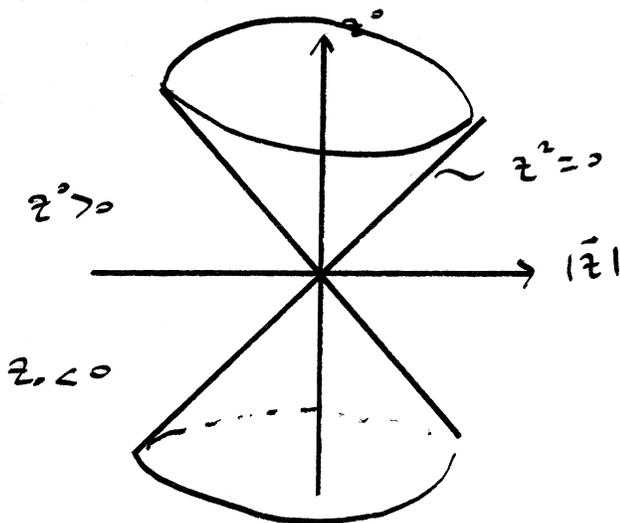
have used the identity

$$\delta(f(x)) = \sum_i \frac{1}{|f'(x_i)|} \delta(x - x_i) \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_i) = 0.$$

Therefore,

$$D_{\text{ret}}(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \Theta(z^0) \delta(z^2)$$

The retarded Green's function has support in the future light cone



We are finally ready to calculate the field of a moving charge:

$$A^\mu(x) = 4\pi \int d^4x' D_{\text{ret}}(x, x') j^\mu(x'), \quad \text{or}$$

$$A^{\mu}(x) = \frac{4\pi}{2\pi} \int d^4x' \theta(x^0 - x'^0) \delta[(x - x')^2] \cdot q \int d\tau u^{\mu}(\tau) \delta(x' - x(\tau))$$

$$= 2q \int d\tau \theta(x^0 - x^0(\tau)) \delta[(x - x(\tau))^2] u^{\mu}(\tau)$$

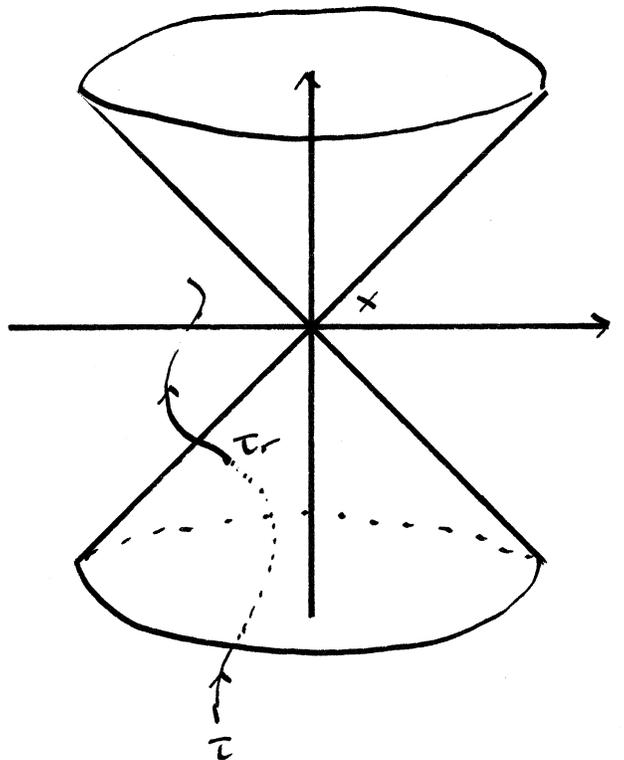
Using again that

$$\delta[(x - x(\tau))^2] = \frac{\delta(\tau - \tau_r)}{|2(x - x(\tau))_{\mu} (-1) \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\tau}|}$$

where  $\tau_r$  is the solution of

$$(x - x(\tau))^2 = 0 \quad \text{with} \quad x^0 > x^0(\tau)$$

$$A^{\mu}(x) = \frac{q u^{\mu}(\tau_r)}{u^{\mu}(x_{\mu} - x_{\mu}(\tau_r))}$$



This is known as the  
Liénard-Wiechert potential.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} u^{\mu}(x_{\mu} - x_{\mu}(\tau_r)) &= u^0(t - t(\tau_r)) - u^i(x_i - x_i(\tau_r)) = \\ &= \gamma(t - t(\tau_r)) - \gamma v^i(x_i - x_i(\tau_r)) \end{aligned}$$

and because  $t - t(r) = |\vec{x} - \vec{x}(t_r)|/c$ ,

$$U^{\mu}(x_{\mu} - x_{\mu}(t)) = \gamma r (1 - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{v}).$$

Therefore, the potentials become

$$\phi(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{q}{(r - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{v})} \Big|_{\text{ret}} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\vec{A} = \frac{q \vec{v}}{(r - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{v})} \Big|_{\text{ret}}, \quad \text{where the label ret}$$

means that the expression is evaluated at the retarded time.

To calculate  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$ , we just use that

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}, \quad \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}. \quad \text{But we have}$$

to be careful because  $\vec{v}$  and  $\vec{r} = \vec{x} - \vec{x}(t_r)$  depend on  $\vec{x}$  through the retarded time.

The final expressions are:

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \vec{E}(t, \vec{x}) &= \frac{q (\hat{r} - \vec{v})}{r^2 \gamma^2 (1 - \hat{r} \cdot \vec{v})^3} \Big|_{ut} + \frac{q \hat{r} \times [(\hat{r} - \vec{v}) \times \dot{\vec{v}}]}{r (1 - \hat{r} \cdot \vec{v})^3} \Big|_{ut} \\ \vec{B}(t, \vec{x}) &= \hat{r} \times \vec{E} \Big|_{ut} \end{aligned} \right.$$

Two types of fields:

- velocity fields: Do not depend on  $\dot{\vec{v}} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$
- acceleration fields: Depend on  $\frac{d\dot{\vec{v}}}{dt}$ .

Note that the velocity fields are proportional to  $\frac{1}{r^2} \rightarrow$  Coulomb's law. For instance, for  $\vec{v} \equiv 0$ ,

$$\vec{E} = \frac{q \hat{r}}{r^2}$$

The acceleration fields are proportional to  $\frac{1}{r}$ , and they are transverse to  $\hat{r}$ . They describe outgoing radiation. Electromagnetic radiation is produced by accelerated charges.

To calculate the radiated power we use again the Poynting vector:

$$\frac{d^2W}{dt d\Omega} = [r^2 \cdot (\hat{r} \cdot \vec{S})], \text{ where } \vec{S} = \frac{1}{4\pi} (\vec{E} \times \vec{B})$$

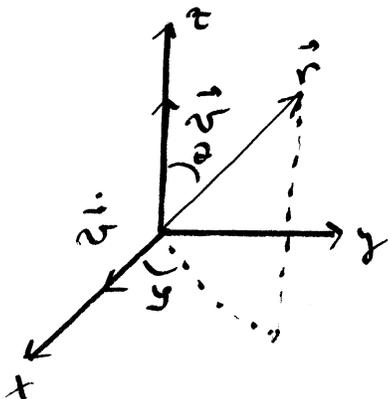
Because  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$  arise from expressions evaluated at the retarded time, the energy emitted is captured by

$$\frac{d^2W}{dt_r d\Omega} = \frac{d^2W}{dt d\Omega} \frac{dt}{dt_r} = \frac{d^2W}{dt d\Omega} (1 - \hat{r} \cdot \vec{v})|_{ret}$$

Therefore, using the acceleration fields:

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{q^2}{4\pi} \frac{|\hat{r} \times [(\hat{r} - \vec{v}) \times \dot{\vec{v}}]|^2}{(1 - \hat{r} \cdot \vec{v})^5}$$

Example: For  $\vec{v} \perp \dot{\vec{v}}$  (e.g. synchrotron radiation)



$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{q^2 |\dot{\vec{v}}|^2}{4\pi (1 - v \cos \theta)^3} \left[ 1 - \frac{\sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \psi}{\gamma^2 (1 - v \cos \theta)^2} \right]$$

Peaks along the forward direction  $\theta = 0$   
because of the  $1 - v \cos \theta$  factor in denominator.



THE END

have a nice  
summer!

