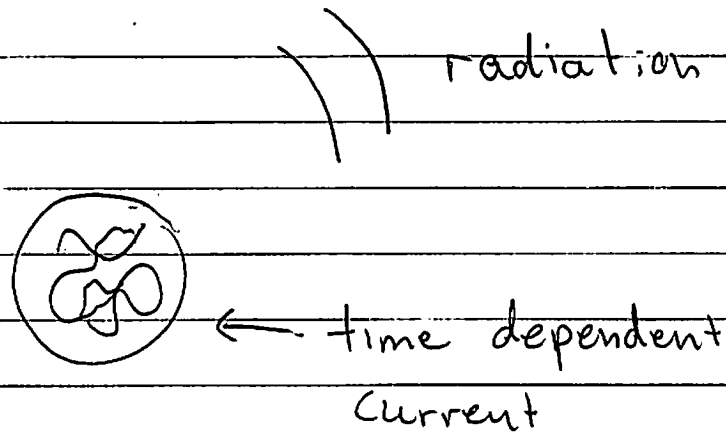


# The Polarization of the radiation.



Setup

$$-\nabla^2 \varphi = \rho$$

$$-\nabla^2 \vec{A} = \vec{J}/c$$

Solve

$$\vec{A}_{\text{rad}} = \frac{1}{4\pi r} \int_{r_0} \vec{J}(T, r_0) / c$$

where

$$T(r) = t - \frac{r}{c} + \frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}_0}{c}$$

small for non-rel systems

For a point-like charge

$$\vec{J} = q v(t) \delta^3(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_*(T(r_0)))$$

We integrate over  $\vec{r}_0$  and find

$$A_{\text{rad}} = \frac{1}{4\pi r} \int q \frac{\vec{v}(T(r_*))}{(1 - n \cdot \beta(T(r_*)))} \leftarrow \text{denominator comes from Jacobian}$$

$$T(\vec{r}_*) \equiv t - \frac{r}{c} + \frac{n \cdot r_*}{c}(T)$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_{\equiv t_e}$

$$\begin{aligned} & \delta^3(r_0 - r_*(T(r_0))) \\ &= \delta^3(r_0 - r_*(T(r_*))) \\ & \quad \left(1 - n \cdot \frac{v(T)}{c}\right) \end{aligned}$$

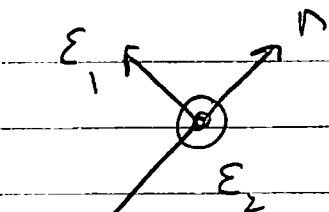
So for non-rel systems:

$$A_{\text{rad}} = \frac{1}{4\pi r} \int q \frac{\vec{v}(t_e)}{c}$$

And

$$\vec{E}_{\text{rad}} = \frac{1}{4\pi r c^2} \int q \vec{n} \times \vec{n} \times \frac{\partial \vec{A}_{\text{rad}}}{\partial t} = \frac{q}{4\pi r c^2} \vec{n} \times \vec{n} \times \vec{a}(t_e)$$

In general, decompose the outgoing radiation into its polarized components



$$\vec{E} = E_1 \vec{\epsilon}_1 + E_2 \vec{\epsilon}_2 \quad \leftarrow E_1 \text{ and } E_2 \text{ can be complex}$$

e.g. for circular radiation,  $\vec{E} = (1, i, 0)$

Then

$$E_1 = \vec{\epsilon}_1^* \cdot \vec{E}$$

$$E_2 = \vec{\epsilon}_2^* \cdot \vec{E}$$

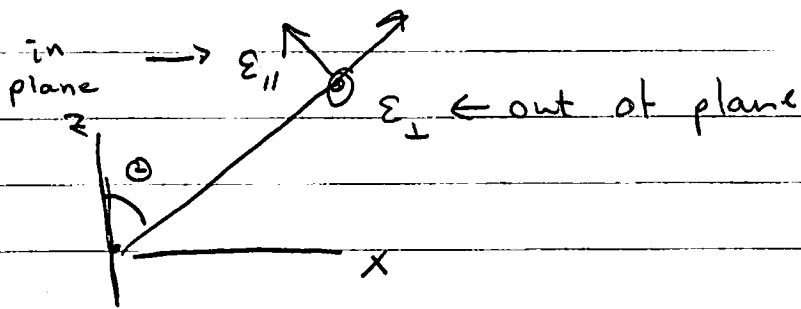
Then the power radiated into light of a definite polarization

$$\frac{dP(E_1)}{d\Omega} = c |r \vec{\epsilon}_1^* \cdot \vec{E}| \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{energy per solid} \\ \text{angle with polarization} \\ E_1 \end{array}$$

$$\frac{dP(E_2)}{d\Omega} = c |r \vec{\epsilon}_2^* \cdot \vec{E}|^2$$

Example and  $\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = c |r \vec{E}|^2 = c |E_1|^2 + c |E_2|^2 = \frac{dP(E_1)}{d\Omega} + \frac{dP(E_2)}{d\Omega}$

- A charged particle oscillating up and down on the z-axis



Now

$$\vec{E} = \frac{f}{4\pi r c^2} \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{n} \times \vec{a}$$

So

$$\vec{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi r c^2} \left[ -\vec{a} + \vec{n} (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{a}) \right]$$

$\vec{E}$  is in the  $x-z$  plane

The general  $\vec{E}$  is polarized in the plane of the acceleration and the observation vector  $\vec{n}$ .

$$\vec{E} = E_{\parallel} \vec{\Sigma}_{\parallel} + E_{\perp} \vec{\Sigma}_{\perp}$$

So

$$\vec{\Sigma}_{\parallel} \cdot \vec{E} = \text{something}$$

$$\vec{\Sigma}_{\perp} \cdot \vec{E} = 0 \quad \leftarrow \quad \vec{\Sigma}_{\perp} \text{ is orthogonal to } \vec{c} \text{ and}$$

Then

$$\frac{dP_{\perp}}{d\Omega} = 0$$

$$\text{while } \vec{\Sigma}_{\perp} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi r c^2} \left[ -\vec{a} \cdot \vec{\Sigma}_{\perp} + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\Sigma}_{\perp} (n \cdot a) \right]$$

$$= \frac{q}{4\pi r c^2} (-a \sin \theta)$$

and

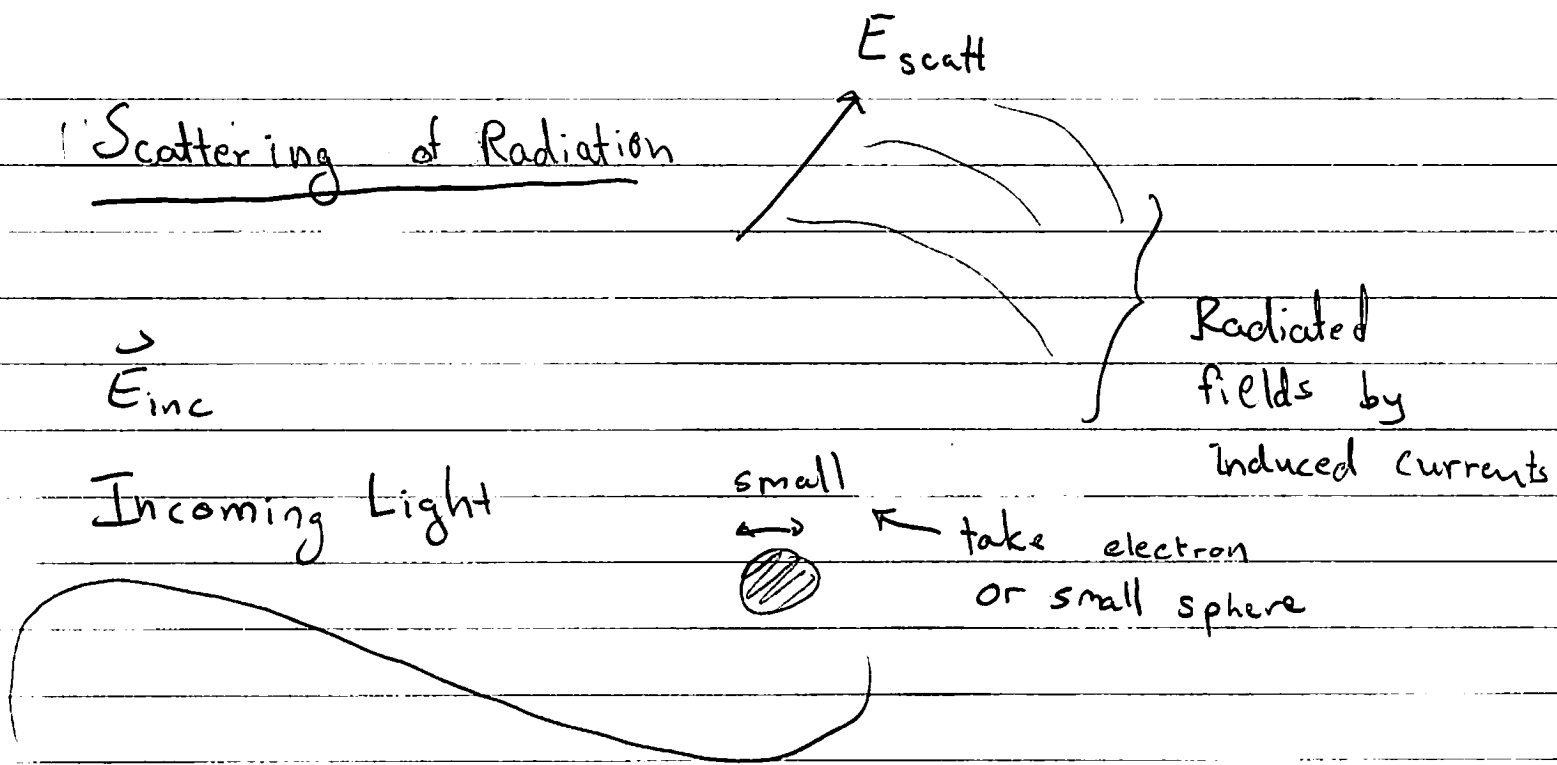
$$\frac{dP_{\parallel}}{d\Omega} = \frac{q}{16\pi^2 c^3} a^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

Now so

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{dP_{\parallel}}{d\Omega} + \frac{dP_{\perp}}{d\Omega}$$

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \left( \frac{q^2 a^2 \sin^2 \theta}{16\pi^2 \epsilon^3} \right) + 0$$

# Scattering of Radiation



- Initially study the scattering of radiation by small objects  $\lambda \gg a$

- Why does light scatter? the light induces currents in the object. The induced currents radiate.

So if you wanted to compute how much light was scattered, you should first compute how the incoming field accelerates the charges, and then compute how the accelerated charges radiate.

- For an extended object the acceleration in one point can create fields at another which influences the other points, leading to a complicated standing wave pattern. Treat small (point-like) objects first.

Suggests two approximations/simplifications  
 $\lambda \gg a$

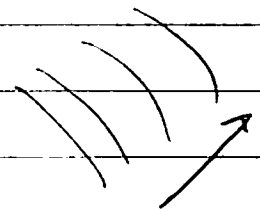
① Small objects <sup>^</sup> the external fields  
dipole can be considered constant, the  
scattering radiation field from one point of object  
can be neglected at another. (

② Weak scattering. The induced fields,  $\vec{E}_{\text{scatt}}$ ,  
are small compared to  $\vec{E}_{\text{inc}}$ .

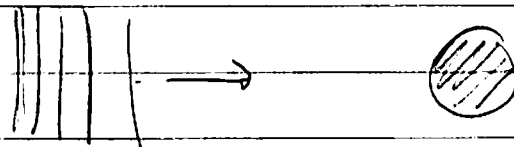
Born

Approximation

# What we want to compute - Cross Sections

$$\vec{E}_{inc} = \vec{\epsilon}_0 E_0 e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r} - i\omega t}$$


$$\vec{E}_{scatt}(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \text{Const} \frac{e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r} - i\omega t}}{r}$$



$$\text{Const} \equiv E_0 \vec{f}(\vec{k})$$

$$\vec{E} = \vec{E}_{inc}(\vec{r}) + \vec{E}_{scatt}(\vec{r})$$

= "Scattering amplitude"

The incoming energy is:

$$\overline{S \cdot \hat{z}} = \frac{1}{2} c |E_{inc}|^2$$

← time averaged energy per area per time

While the outgoing energy is:

$$\frac{dP(\epsilon)}{d\Omega} = \overline{\vec{S} \cdot \vec{n}} = \frac{1}{2} c |r \vec{\epsilon}^* \cdot \vec{E}_{scatt}|^2$$

← time averaged energy per time per solid angle

So then define the cross section:

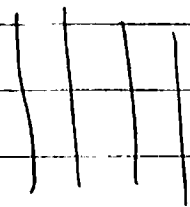
$$\frac{d\sigma(\vec{\epsilon}; \vec{\epsilon}_0)}{d\Omega} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} c |r \vec{\epsilon}^* \cdot \vec{E}_{scatt}|^2}{\frac{1}{2} c |E_{inc}|^2} = |\vec{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{f}(\vec{k})|^2$$

↑ energy scattered per solid angle (with polarization) per incoming flux, with polarization  $\vec{\epsilon}_0$

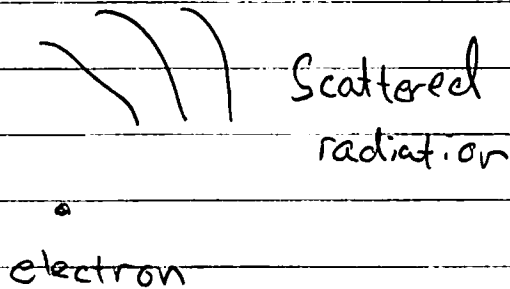


# Thomson - Scattering - Total Cross - Section

Lets compute the total cross-section for light electron scattering.



$E_{inc}$



Scattered radiation

electron

$$\sigma = \frac{\text{time Power Radiated}}{\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 |E_{inc}|^2} = \frac{\overline{P}}{\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 |E_{inc}|^2}$$

time average

$$\overline{P} = \int \sum_{\epsilon_a = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2} \frac{dP(\epsilon_a)}{d\Omega} d\Omega$$

$$= \int \frac{d\overline{P}}{d\Omega} d\Omega = \frac{q^2}{4\pi} \frac{2}{3} \frac{\omega^2 (t_e)}{c^3}$$

So, could have defined all of this with cross sections (since  $|E_{inc}|^2$  const)

$$\sigma = \int \sum_a \frac{d\sigma(\epsilon_a; \epsilon_0)}{d\Omega} d\Omega$$

The force on the electron is determined by  $\vec{E}_{inc}$

$$\vec{a} = \frac{q \vec{E}_{inc}}{m} e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\overline{a^2} = \frac{q^2}{m^2} \frac{1}{2} |E_{inc}|^2$$

Then

$$\sigma = \frac{q^2}{4\pi} \frac{2}{3c^3} \frac{q^2}{m^2} \frac{1}{2} |E_{inc}|^2$$


---


$$\frac{1}{2} c |E_{inc}|^2$$

$$\sigma = \frac{8\pi}{3} \left( \frac{q^2}{4\pi mc^2} \right)^2 \equiv \frac{8\pi}{3} r_e^2$$

This is known as the classical electron radius

$$r_e \equiv \frac{q^2}{4\pi mc^2}$$

$$r_e = \underbrace{\left( \frac{q^2}{4\pi \hbar c} \right)}_{1/137} \underbrace{\left( \frac{\hbar}{mc} \right)}_{\text{Compton wavelength} / (2\pi)} = \alpha \frac{\lambda_c}{2\pi}$$

Compton wavelength

$$\frac{hc}{m_e c^2} = \frac{197 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{nm}}{0.5 \text{ MeV}} = 0.3 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}$$

$$r_e = 2.8 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

$$r_e \approx 2.8 \text{ fm}$$

And the Thomson - Cross Section is

$$\frac{8\pi}{3} r_e^2 = 66 \text{ fm}^2$$

$$= 660 \text{ milli-barn}$$

$$\approx 0.660 \times 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$$

$$\approx 0.660 \text{ barns}$$