Theory of Radiation Chapter 9

We have studied waves and how they propagate...

- in free space
- in dielectrics
- in metals and plasmas
- in waveguides

Now, how are these waves created?

Chapter 9 is about the theory of radiation. This theory is the prerequisite for Chapter 10 — scattering and diffraction. *Fields and radiation of a localized oscillating source*

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 $\rho(\vec{x},t) = \rho(\vec{x}) e^{-i\omega t}$ $\vec{J}(\vec{x},t) = \vec{J}(\vec{x}) e^{-i\omega t}$ with $i\omega \rho = \nabla \cdot \vec{J}$

The real part is the physical quantity. These are the sources. What are the fields? Well, first, we'll calculate the potentials. In the Lorenz gauge, recall

> $\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}$ and $\vec{E} = -\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}$ with $\nabla \cdot A + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} = 0$

enter

Recall the retarded Green's function for the wave equation

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$$\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{\mu 0}{4\pi} \int d^3 x' \int dt' \frac{J(\vec{x}',t')}{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|}$$

$$\delta(t'-t+|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|/c)$$
For a harmonic source, $\vec{J}(\vec{x}') e^{-i\omega t'}$...
$$\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \vec{A}(\vec{x}) e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int d^3 x' \frac{\vec{J}(\vec{x}')}{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|} e^{ik} |\vec{x}-\vec{x}'| \quad (\bigstar)$$
where $k = \omega/c$ (wave number)

 $\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \vec{A}$ $\vec{E} = \frac{iZ_0}{k} \nabla \times \vec{H} \quad outside \ the \ source$ $Z_0 = \sqrt{\mu_0 / \epsilon_0} = \mu_0 \ c = 377 \ ohm$ In principle this solves the problem: Given $\vec{J}(\vec{x}) \ e^{-i\omega t}$, do the integral (*).

The approximate solution for a small source

- Let d = "the source dimension"; a characteristic size.
- Let λ = the wavelength of the radiated waves; $\lambda \equiv 2\pi c/\omega$.

Assume d $\ll \lambda$.

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Think of examples ...

λ	example	limit d ≪
500 nm	yellow light	5000 A
3 GHz	MW oven	10 cm
1MHz	AM radio	300 m

Zones

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Assume $d \ll \lambda$.

name	(alternative)	r range	
Near zone	(static)	$d \ll r \ll \lambda$	
Intermediate	(induction)	$d \ll r \sim \lambda$	
Far zone	(radiation)	$d \ll \lambda \ll r$	

The most interesting case is the radiation fields.

In the far zone, $\vec{E}(\vec{x})$ and $\vec{B}(\vec{x}) \sim O(1/r)$ for large r.

That implies $\vec{S}(\vec{x}) \sim O(1/r^2)$.

This is the "inverse square law of energy flux" which is required by conservation of energy.

The near zone

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The factor $e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{R}}$ in the integral (*): $e^{i\mathbf{k}|\vec{x}-\vec{x'}|}$ where $\mathbf{k} = 2\pi/\lambda$ and $|\vec{x}-\vec{x'}| = \sqrt{r^2 + (r')^2 - 2rr'\cos(\gamma)}$. In the near zone we can approximate $e^{i\mathbf{k}|\vec{x}-\vec{x'}|} \approx 1$. Then

$$A(x,t) \approx \frac{\mu_0}{4 \pi} \int \frac{J(x') d^3 x'}{|x-x'|} e^{-i\omega t}$$

The fields are "quasi-stationary"; oscillating in time, but static in space.

The Far Zone ; $r \gg \lambda$; $kr = 2\pi r/\lambda \gg 2\pi$. Now we use this approximation:

 $|\vec{x} - \vec{x'}| = \sqrt{r^2 + (r')^2 - 2rr'\cos(\gamma)}$ $\approx r - r'\cos(\gamma) + O(r'^2/r)$

We'll neglect the last term $O(d^2/r)$ compared to *d*. Furthermore, we'll approximate

$$\frac{1}{\left|\stackrel{\rightarrow}{x-x'}\right|} \approx \frac{1}{r}$$

So the result is

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{e^{ikr} e^{-i\omega t}}{r} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') e^{-ik \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}'} d^3x'$$

Comments

• $\frac{1}{r} e^{i(\text{kr}-\omega t)}$ is an outgoing spherical wave. Note the "inverse square law".

• The integral depends only on the angles of \hat{n} ;

- observation position = $\vec{x} = r \hat{n}$; - $\hat{n} = \hat{e}_x \sin\theta \cos\phi + \hat{e}_y \sin\theta \sin\phi + \hat{e}_z \cos\theta$; (eventually we'll pick the Cartesian directions)

 $\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{e^{ikr} e^{-iwt}}{r} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') e^{-ik\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}'} d^3x'$ • We don't need the scalar potential in the far zone, because we can use Faraday's

law to calculate \vec{E} .

Electric Dipole Fields and Radiation (Section 9.2)

The potential in the far zone is $\sum_{x \to x} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{e^{ikr} e^{-iwt}}{2} = \frac{\mu_0}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{$

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{e^{ikr} e^{-iwt}}{r} \quad \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') e^{-ik\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}'} d^3x'$$

Now k $\hat{n} \cdot \vec{x'}$ is $O(\frac{2\pi d}{\lambda})$, small in far zone. We can expand $\exp[-ik\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x'}]$ in powers of $k\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x'}$.

The result is the *multipole expansion for radiation.*

The dominant term is the *electric dipole approximation*;

approximate $\exp[-ik\hat{n}\cdot \vec{x'}] \approx 1$.

 $\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') d^3x'$

	Rewrite the result	1	1
	$\int J d^3 x' = - \int$	by Gauss's theorem	
	x'(∇'•J) d ³ x'		
Out[=]=	$= -i\omega \int \vec{x}' \rho(\vec{x}') d^3x'$	by the continuity equation	
	$=-i\omega \vec{p}$	\vec{p} = electric dipole moment	

Here \vec{p} is the electric dipole moment of the charge density $\rho(\vec{x})$.

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{-i\mu_0 \omega}{4\pi} \vec{p} \frac{e^{ikr}}{r}$$
$$\vec{p} = \int \vec{x}' \rho(\vec{x}') d^3x'$$

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Calculate \vec{E} and \vec{B} in the radiation zone, from the electric dipole potential.

The results are (exercise)

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Electric dipole radiation $\vec{H} = \frac{ck^2}{4\pi} (\hat{n} \times \vec{p}) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} e^{-i\omega t}$ $\vec{E} = Z_0 \vec{H} \times \hat{n}$

"showing the typical behavior of radiation fields."

Power radiated per unit solid angle by an oscillating electric dipole

and $\hat{n} \cdot \vec{S} dA = dP$; $dA = r^2 d\Omega$. The *time-averaged* differential power is

 $\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re}[r^2 \,\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{E}} \times \vec{\mathbf{H}}^*]$

Exercise.

Show, from the equations for \vec{H} and \vec{E} in the far zone,

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 $\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{c^2 Z_0}{32 \pi^2} k^4 |(\hat{n} \times \vec{p}) \times \hat{n}|^2$

■ Footnote about *polarization*.

If \vec{p} is real then

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 $\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{c^2 Z_0}{32 \pi^2} k^4 p^2 \sin^2 \theta$

where θ is the angle between \vec{p} and \hat{n} ; dP/d $\Omega \propto \sin^2 \theta$ is called "typical dipole"; (draw a picture)

The total power; (note $\int \sin^2 \theta \, d\Omega = \frac{8\pi}{3}$)

$$P = \frac{c^2 Z_0}{12 \pi} k^4 p^2$$