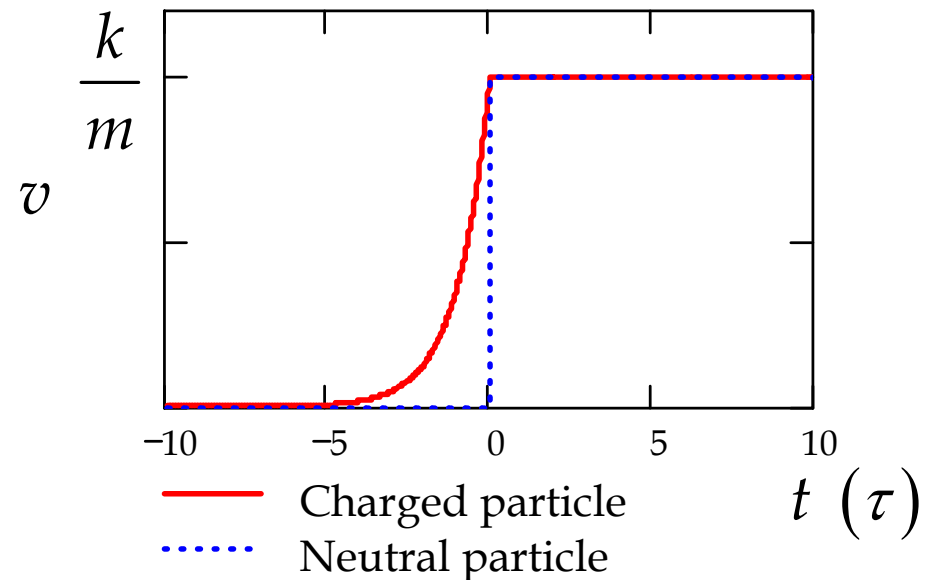

Today in Physics 218: radiation reaction II

- ❑ The nature of the radiation-reaction force; a fundamental inconsistency of electrodynamics.
- ❑ Other problems with the Abraham-Lorentz formula: runaway solutions and acausal “preaccelerations.”



Preacceleration. Almost as bad as a runaway.

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from?

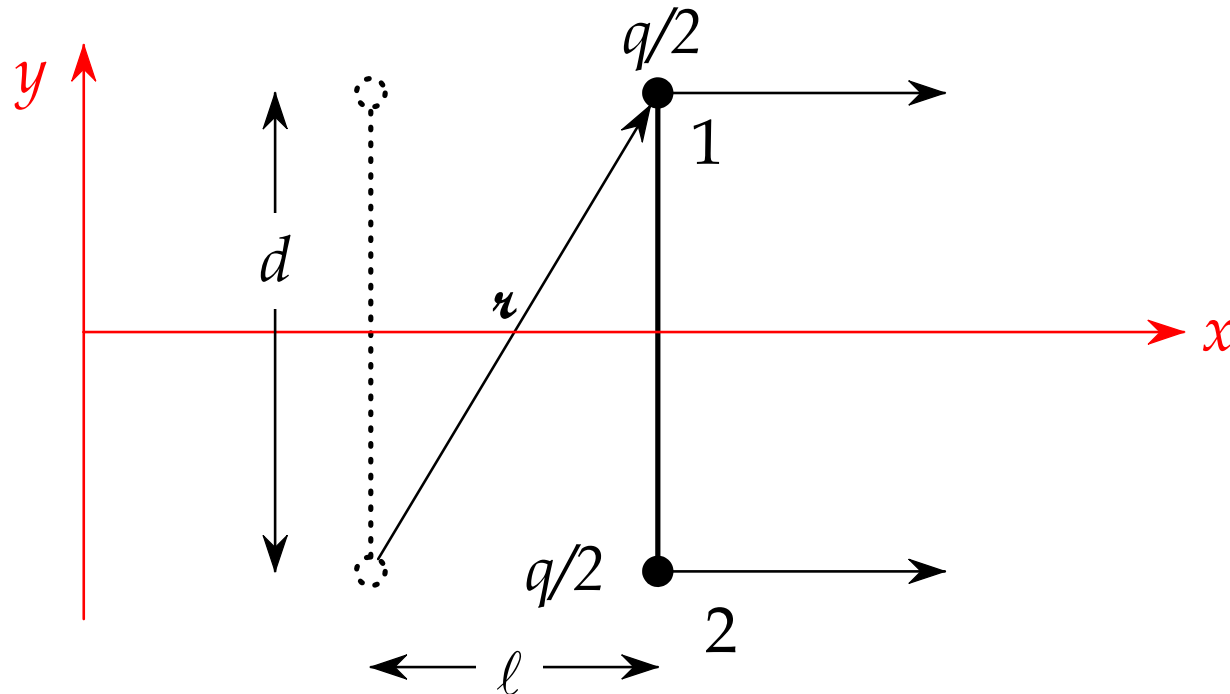
The short answer: it's the force on a charge from the fields of which it is the source.

- The problem: this is supposed to be zero, if Newton's third law is valid!

The simplest way to see this non-cancellation of internal and self-forces is to consider (as Griffiths does) the transverse-moving dumbbell. In this example the essential physics appears correctly, and the self-force obtained replicates the previous answer. We will sketch this derivation in the following.

- The appearance of the previous, plausible answer is accidental, as Griffiths mentions.

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)



Consider two charges $q/2$, separated by distance d and moving as shown, but instantaneously at rest ($v = 0, a \neq 0$) at retarded time t_r . Find the total force: the sum of the forces of each on the other, in the limit $d \rightarrow 0$.

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)

For this we use the field we obtained from the Liénard-Wiechert potentials:

$$E = E_{GC} + E_{\text{rad}} = \frac{q\boldsymbol{\kappa}}{2(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \boldsymbol{u})^3} \left[(c^2 - v^2)\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{\kappa} \times (\boldsymbol{u} \times \boldsymbol{a}) \right]$$
$$= \frac{q\boldsymbol{\kappa}}{2(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \boldsymbol{u})^3} \left[\boldsymbol{u}(c^2 + \boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \boldsymbol{a}) - \boldsymbol{a}(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \boldsymbol{u}) \right] ,$$

where $\boldsymbol{u} = c\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} - \boldsymbol{v} = c\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} \quad , \quad \boldsymbol{\kappa} = \ell\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} + d\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} \quad ; \text{ so}$

$$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \boldsymbol{u} = c\kappa, \boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \boldsymbol{a} = \ell a, \text{ and } \kappa = \sqrt{\ell^2 + d^2} .$$

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} E(\text{at 1 from 2}) &= \frac{q\mathfrak{r}}{2(c\mathfrak{r})^3} \left[c\hat{\mathfrak{r}}(c^2 + \ell a) - a(c\mathfrak{r}) \right] \\ &= \frac{q}{2c^2(\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} \left[\mathfrak{r}(c^2 + \ell a) - \mathfrak{r}^2 a \right] . \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E_x(\text{at 1 from 2}) &= \frac{q}{2c^2(\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} \left[\ell(c^2 + \ell a) - (\ell^2 + d^2)a \right] \\ &= \frac{q(\ell c^2 - ad^2)}{2c^2(\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} = E_x(\text{at 2 from 1}) , \end{aligned}$$

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)

Furthermore,

$$E_y (\text{at 1 from 2}) = \frac{qd(c^2 + \ell a)}{2c^2(\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} = -E_y (\text{at 2 from 1}) \quad .$$

So the y components of the forces between 1 and 2 cancel, but the x components add.

We also have still to include the forces of the two charges on themselves. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} &= c\hat{\mathbf{r}} - \mathbf{v} = c\hat{\mathbf{x}} \quad , \quad \mathbf{r} = \ell\hat{\mathbf{x}} \quad ; \text{ so} \\ \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{u} &= \ell c, \quad \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{a} = \ell a, \quad \text{and } r = \ell \quad , \end{aligned}$$

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)

so

$$E(\text{on 1 from 1}) = \frac{q}{2(\ell c)^3} \left[c\ell(c^2 + \ell a) - \ell a(\ell c) \right] \hat{x} = \frac{q}{2\ell^2} \hat{x}$$
$$= E(\text{on 2 from 2}) \quad ,$$

and

$$F_{\text{self}} = \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 1 from 2}) \hat{x} + \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 2 from 1}) \hat{x}$$
$$+ \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 1 from 1}) \hat{x} + \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 2 from 2}) \hat{x}$$
$$= \frac{q^2 (\ell c^2 - ad^2)}{2c^2 (\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} \hat{x} + \frac{q^2}{2\ell^2} \hat{x} \quad .$$

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)

Now we must expand this result in powers of d , so that we can let $d \rightarrow 0$, and be left with just the zeroth order term and lower, and a point charge q . This is not easy, and involves a series reversion; it's also not very illuminating, so we'll skip:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{self}} &= q^2 \left[-\frac{a(t)}{4c^2 d} + \frac{2\dot{a}(t)}{3c^3} + O(d) + \dots \right] \hat{\mathbf{x}} \\ &= \left[-\Delta m \mathbf{a}(t) + \mathbf{F}_{\text{rad}} + \hat{\mathbf{x}} O(d) + \dots \right] . \end{aligned}$$

□ The first term can just be moved to the other side of the equation: it is the extra inertia from the potential energy of the two charges. It's as if the total mass were

$$m = 2m_0 + \Delta m = 2m_0 + \frac{(q^2/4d)}{c^2} .$$

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)

- This mass correction seems to make sense, but that's a lucky consequence of the geometry:
 - For a dumbbell oriented along x , it arrives with an extra factor of $1/2$; for a sphere, the term has an extra factor of $4/3$.
 - It turns out that if you express everything carefully in a Lorentz-transformation-invariant fashion, and take the nonrelativistic limit, all the factors turn back to 1 (see Jackson, second edition, section 17.5).
- The second term is the same as the Abraham-Lorentz radiation-reaction force, here identified as an imbalance of internal forces in a charge distribution.

Where does the radiation-reaction force come from? (continued)

- Taking the limit $d \rightarrow 0$ kills off all the terms of order d and higher, and turns the dumbbell into a point charge. But it also makes the Δm term blow up!
- This problem remains even in quantum electrodynamics. In that field it is rendered harmless by the ruse of **mass renormalization**.
 - In classical electrodynamics, the way out is to suppose that the mass is all electrostatic potential energy, and to impose a small but finite size, $r_0 = q^2 / mc^2$, called the charge's **classical radius**. For instance, the classical radius of the electron is $r_0 = e^2 / mc^2 = 2.82 \times 10^{-13}$ cm. The $O(d)$ terms are still negligible if d is reduced to the limit of the classical charge size.

Runaways and preacceleration

The Abraham-Lorentz formula leads directly to several puzzling results, some of which don't get resolved if (for example) one re-derives a fully relativistic or quantum-mechanical equivalent. The worst is your choice of two related problems: exponential "runaway" solutions, or violation of cause and effect.

□ Consider

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{external}} + \mathbf{F}_{\text{rad}} = \mathbf{F}_{\text{external}} + \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} \dot{\mathbf{a}} = m\mathbf{a}$$

With no external force, the solution is

$$\int_{a_0}^a \frac{da'}{a'} = \frac{3c^3}{2q^2} \int_0^t dt' \quad \Rightarrow \quad a(t) = a_0 \exp\left(\frac{3c^3 t}{2q^2}\right) .$$

Runaways and preacceleration (continued)

- So either $a_0 = 0$, or the acceleration increases exponentially with time. This is called a **runaway solution**.
- Runaways can easily be avoided, but this causes other problems. Consider, for example, the situation in problem 11.28 in the book:
A charged particle is subjected to an impulse:

$$F_{\text{ext}} = \frac{k}{m} \delta(t).$$

Solve the equation of motion and show that you can eliminate the runaway solution, but only at the expense of having an acausal solution.

Runaways and preacceleration (continued)

□ **Solution:** first, integrate the equation of motion over a small region around the origin:

$$a = \tau \dot{a} + \frac{k}{m} \delta(t) \quad \tau \equiv \frac{2q^2}{3c^3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} a(t) dt &= v(\varepsilon) - v(-\varepsilon) = \tau \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \frac{da}{dt} dt + \frac{k}{m} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \delta(t) dt \\ &= \tau [a(\varepsilon) - a(-\varepsilon)] + \frac{k}{m} . \end{aligned}$$

If the velocity is continuous (as it must be), then

$$\tau [a(\varepsilon) - a(-\varepsilon)] + \frac{k}{m} = 0 .$$

Runaways and preacceleration (continued)

When $t < 0$, $a = \tau \dot{a} \Rightarrow a(t) = a_0 e^{t/\tau}$.

When $t > 0$, $a = \tau \dot{a} \Rightarrow a(t) = b_0 e^{t/\tau}$.

But, as we just showed above,

$$a(\varepsilon) - a(-\varepsilon) = -\frac{k}{\tau m}$$

$$b_0 - a_0 = \quad ,$$

so the general solution is

$$a(t) = \begin{cases} a_0 e^{t/\tau} & (t < 0), \\ \left(a_0 - \frac{k}{\tau m} \right) e^{t/\tau} & (t > 0). \end{cases}$$

To eliminate the runaway we need $a_0 = k/\tau m$.

Runaways and preacceleration (continued)

But then,

$$a(t) = \begin{cases} a_0 e^{t/\tau} & (t < 0), \\ 0 & (t > 0). \end{cases}$$

The velocity in this case is

$$v(t < 0) = \int_{-\infty}^t a(t) dt = \frac{k}{\tau m} \int_{-\infty}^t e^{t/\tau} dt = \frac{k}{m} e^{t/\tau} \quad ;$$

$$v(t > 0) = v(0) + \int_{-\infty}^t a(t) dt = v(0) = \frac{k}{m} \quad .$$

Thus the name **preacceleration**; the velocity starts increasing before the force is applied.

Runaways and preacceleration (continued)

- Compare this to an uncharged particle, for which there's no radiation reaction force in the equations of motion:

$$a(t) = \frac{k}{m} \delta(t)$$

$$v(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & (t < 0), \\ \frac{k}{m} & (t > 0). \end{cases}$$

