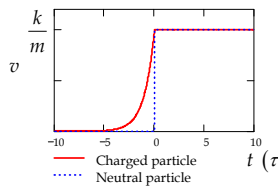


Today in Physics 218: radiation reaction II

- 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.

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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.

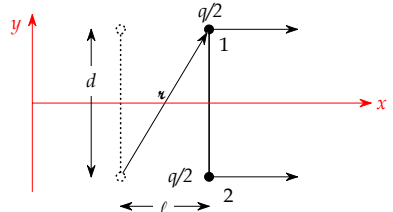
- The problem: this is supposed to be zero, if Newton's third law is valid!

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.

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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 $d \rightarrow 0$.

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

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

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

$$= \frac{q\boldsymbol{\kappa}}{2(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{u})^3} \left[\mathbf{u}(c^2 + \boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{a}) - \mathbf{a}(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{u}) \right],$$

where $\mathbf{u} = c\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{v} = c\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \ell\hat{\mathbf{x}} - d\hat{\mathbf{y}}$; so
 $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{u} = c\boldsymbol{\kappa}$, $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{a} = \ell a$, and $\boldsymbol{\kappa} = \sqrt{\ell^2 + d^2}$.

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

Thus,

$$E(\text{at 1 from 2}) = \frac{q\boldsymbol{\kappa}}{2(c\boldsymbol{\kappa})^3} \left[c\hat{\mathbf{x}}(c^2 + \ell a) - \mathbf{a}(c\boldsymbol{\kappa}) \right]$$

$$= \frac{q}{2c^2(\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} \left[\boldsymbol{\kappa}(c^2 + \ell a) - \boldsymbol{\kappa}^2 \mathbf{a} \right].$$

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

$$= \frac{q(\ell c^2 - ad^2)}{2c^2(\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} = E_x(\text{at 2 from 1}) ,$$

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

Furthermore,

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

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

$$\mathbf{u} = c\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{v} = c\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \ell\hat{\mathbf{x}} ; \text{ so}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \ell c, \boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{a} = \ell a, \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\kappa} = \ell ,$$

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

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

and

$$F_{\text{self}} = \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 1 from 2}) \hat{x} + \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 2 from 1}) \hat{x}$$

$$+ \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 1 from 1}) \hat{x} + \frac{q}{2} E_x(\text{at 2 from 2}) \hat{x}$$

$$= \frac{q^2(\ell c^2 - ad^2)}{2c^2(\ell^2 + d^2)^{3/2}} \hat{x} + \frac{q^2}{2\ell^2} \hat{x} .$$

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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:

$$F_{\text{self}} = q^2 \left[-\frac{a(t)}{4c^2 d} + \frac{2\dot{a}(t)}{3c^3} + O(d) + \dots \right] \hat{x}$$

$$= [-\Delta m a(t) + F_{\text{rad}} + \hat{x} O(d) + \dots] .$$

□ 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

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

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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.

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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.

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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

$$F_{\text{external}} + F_{\text{rad}} = F_{\text{external}} + \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} \dot{a} = ma$$

With no external force, the solution is

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

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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.

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Runaways and preacceleration (continued)

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

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

$$\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} a(t) dt = v(\epsilon) - v(-\epsilon) = \tau \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \frac{da}{dt} dt + \frac{k}{m} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \delta(t) dt$$

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

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

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

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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,

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

$$b_0 - a_0 = \quad ,$$

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 $a_0 = k/\tau m$.

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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

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

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

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

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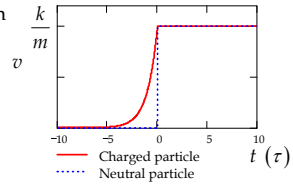
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Runaways and preacceleration (continued)

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

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

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



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