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Chapter 1

Introduction

In this thesis ...

Chapter 2

Electromagnetism and Laser Profiles

2.1 Classical Electrodynamics

The main principles and laws that govern the phenomena behind lasers, plasma and their interaction are those of classical electrodynamics. As such, like many others tackling this area of research, I find that adding an overview of electrodynamics is simply mandatory. My aim when it comes to differentiating this introductory review from the millions of others out there, if at all possible, is to offer thorough calculations and explanations on some aspects where I personally felt like I wanted to see things from a clearer perspective.

2.1.1 Maxwell's Equations

The Maxwell equations are (Jackson 1999):

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho \quad (2.1a)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad (2.1b)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad (2.1c)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}. \quad (2.1d)$$

In the absence of magnetic and polarizable media, $\mathbf{D} = \varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{H}$ and the equations become:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0} \quad (2.2a)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad (2.2b)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad (2.2c)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}, \quad (2.2d)$$

While most readers probably have already had at least a basic introduction to the phenomena from which these equations arise and are well acquainted to how to make use of these equations, I would direct those who haven't towards the book by Fleisch 2008

By extracting the current density from equation (2.2d), computing its divergence and then replacing the electric field term using equation (2.2a) one obtains the continuity equation, which relates only the field sources to one another:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) + \frac{\partial \rho(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = 0. \quad (2.3)$$

These equations are also complemented by the Lorentz force, which describes how the fields act on the sources. The expression of the Lorentz force in the continuous case is:

$$\mathbf{F} = \int_V d\mathbf{r}' \left[\rho(\mathbf{r}', t) \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}', t) + \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}', t) \times \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}', t) \right].$$

2.1.2 The Scalar and Vector Potentials

Since the electric (\mathbf{E}) and magnetic (\mathbf{B}) fields are vectors, they can be described together by a total of six quantities. The sources on the other hand can be described using only four quantities: the electric charge density ρ and the three components of the electric current density \mathbf{j} . This points to the fact that there is a more convenient way to describe the fields. In finding this alternative, we shall employ the following basic results from algebra:

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = 0 \quad (2.4a)$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) = 0 \quad (2.4b)$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla f) = 0, \quad (2.4c)$$

which are valid for any vector function \mathbf{v} and for any scalar function f .

From equations (2.2b) and (2.4a) one can define the vector potential \mathbf{A} such that

$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (2.5)$$

By substituting (2.5) in (2.2c) one obtains

$$\nabla \times \left(\mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) = 0 \quad (2.6)$$

which together with equation (2.4c) defines the scalar potential ϕ

$$\nabla \phi(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t}. \quad (2.7)$$

Using this in equation (2.2a)

$$\nabla^2 \phi + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}. \quad (2.8)$$

Similarly, using equation (2.7) in equation (2.2d) and making use of the following vector identity

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}, \quad (2.9)$$

another equation of the potentials is obtained

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{A} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{A}}{\partial t^2} = -\mu_0 \mathbf{j} + \nabla \left(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right). \quad (2.10)$$

Considering that at every step in the derivation of equations (2.8) and (2.10) we only imposed the Maxwell equations and basic algebraic identities, it follows that equations (2.8)

and (2.10) and equation (2.2) are completely equivalent. We now have reduced the six quantities describing the fields to only four: the scalar potential ϕ and the three components of the vector potential \mathbf{A} . This description of the fields through the potentials is quite useful since it is easily integrated in the formalism of special relativity. One can define the electromagnetic potential 4-vector such that the scalar field is the time-like component and the vector field is the space-like component.

In general, when studying the dynamics of particles in an electromagnetic field, once the potentials are computed using equations (2.8) and (2.10) the fields are obtained from equations (2.5) and (2.7) and can be used further in the expression of the Lorentz force.

2.1.3 Gauge Transformation

By a direct application of equation (2.4) one can show that a simultaneous transformation by an arbitrary well-behaved (continuous with continuous derivatives) scalar function $f = f(\mathbf{r}, t)$ of the potentials:

$$\phi \rightarrow \phi + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \quad (2.11a)$$

$$\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A} - \nabla f, \quad (2.11b)$$

leaves the electric and magnetic field unchanged. This is actually a quite natural equivalent of the intuitive fact that any potential is defined up to a constant. In the particular case of the electromagnetic potential, equation (2.11) define a gauge transformation. There are two widely used gauges.

Lorenz gauge

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (2.12)$$

This gauge cancels the gradient in equation (2.10). If one works in the usual Minkowski metric (Weinberg 1972)

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.13)$$

the d'Alembert operator is then defined as

$$\square = \partial^\mu \partial_\mu = \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu \partial_\mu = \nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2},$$

where $\mu, \nu = \overline{0, 3}$ with 0 being the temporal index and 1, 2, 3 being the spatial indices (note: in this thesis I use Einstein's summation convention whenever there is an index repeated once up and down, *i.e.* it appears as both variant and covariant in a product). By replacing this definition in equations (2.8) and (2.10), it is easy to see that both \mathbf{A} and ϕ obey a free wave equation:

$$\square \mathbf{A} = -\mu_0 \mathbf{j} \quad (2.14a)$$

$$\square \phi = -\frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0}. \quad (2.14b)$$

Coulomb Gauge (sometimes found as transversal/velocity gauge)

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0 \quad (2.15)$$

Under this gauge, the potential equations (2.8) and (2.10) take the form:

$$\square \mathbf{A} = -\mu_0 \mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{c^2} \nabla \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \quad (2.16a)$$

$$\nabla^2 \phi = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}. \quad (2.16b)$$

2.1.4 The Poynting Theorem

The Poynting theorem is the form of the conservation of energy in the case of electromagnetic fields interacting with charges and currents. Since it is such an important and general result, this presentation of it will start from the more general form of the Maxwell equations equation (2.1).

In the derivation of this theorem, one usually starts from the local form of the Lorentz force (Griffiths 1999):

$$\mathbf{F} = \delta q \mathbf{E} + \delta q \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}$$

The work done by the electric field part of the force on the volume element with charge δq and velocity $\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{l}}{dt}$ is

$$dW_e = q d\mathbf{l} \cdot \mathbf{E}$$

and the corresponding rate of work done is

$$\frac{dW_e}{dt} = q \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{E}$$

while for the magnetic part we have (as expected)

$$dW_m = d\mathbf{l} \cdot \mathbf{F}_b = q d\mathbf{l} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$$

$$\frac{dW_b}{dt} = q \mathbf{v} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}) = 0.$$

Adding these contributions and generalizing for the case of a distribution of charges and currents one obtains

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{j} \quad (2.17)$$

By extracting \mathbf{j} from equation (2.1d) and replacing in the above equation we have

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = \int_V d\mathbf{r} \left[\mathbf{E} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}) - \mathbf{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} \right]$$

Employing here the vector identity here

$$\nabla(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{u}) - \mathbf{u} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \quad (2.18)$$

gives

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = \int_V d\mathbf{r} \left[\mathbf{H} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) - \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) - \mathbf{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} \right].$$

Replacing the curl of \mathbf{E} using Faraday's law (2.1c) we finally obtain

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = - \int_V d\mathbf{r} \left[\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) + \mathbf{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{H} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \right].$$

If we restrict the discussion now only to linear media (*i.e.* $\mathbf{D} = \varepsilon \mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{B} = \mu \mathbf{H}$) a new important quantity can be defined

$$w_{em} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \quad (2.19)$$

which leads to a new way to write the expression of the rate of work done by the electromagnetic field

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = - \int_V d\mathbf{r} \left[\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) + \frac{\partial w_{em}}{\partial t} \right], \quad (2.20)$$

where the Poynting vector is

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}. \quad (2.21)$$

In order to complete the derivation of Poynting's theorem, we must see how it is to be interpreted. As such, a short parenthesis concerning w_{em} is in order.

Electrostatic field energy density

For a system of N stationary point-like charged particles of charges q_i placed at \mathbf{r}_i , $i = \overline{1, N}$ in a medium with permittivity ε , the total potential energy of the system, when neglecting the infinite self-interaction terms, is (Jackson 1999)

$$W_e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1, i \neq j}^N \frac{q_i q_j}{4\pi\varepsilon |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|}$$

or, factoring out the scalar potential $\phi(\mathbf{r}_i)$ generated by all the other particles at the position of particle i ,

$$W_e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N q_i \phi(\mathbf{r}_i)$$

This is easily generalized in integral form

$$W_e = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \phi(\mathbf{r}),$$

where we use the delta-Dirac function for pointlike particles if needed.

Using the fact that the electrostatic potential is defined by $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla\phi$ and replacing this in equation (2.1a) one obtains the Poisson equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi = -\frac{\rho}{\varepsilon}. \quad (2.22)$$

With this, the integral above becomes

$$W_e = \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \phi \nabla^2 \phi = -\frac{\varepsilon}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \phi \nabla \phi + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} |\nabla \phi|^2,$$

where integration by parts has been used.

In order to reach the desired result, we still have to perform one more integration by parts

$$\int_V d\mathbf{r} \phi \nabla \phi = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \nabla \phi^2 = \int_{S_V} d\mathbf{a} \phi^2,$$

where in the last step we used Gauss' theorem. Now, if we integrate over the entire space and keep in mind that the electrostatic potential should be zero at infinity, the above integral becomes null. Using again the relation between the gradient of the potential and the electric field we get

$$W_e = \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{E}^2 \quad (2.23)$$

or, equivalently,

$$W_e = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{D}. \quad (2.24)$$

This leads to the definition of the energy density of the electrostatic field

$$w_e = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{D}. \quad (2.25)$$

Magnetostatic field energy density

This time around we start with a current loop in the case of magnetostatics ($\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0$). No matter the current distribution in space, since the current density is rotational, we can always divide it in individual infinitesimal current loops. A change in the magnetic flux through such a loop is given by the integral form of Faraday's law (2.1c)

$$e = \oint_{\gamma} d\mathbf{l} \cdot \mathbf{E} = -\frac{d\phi_B}{dt}, \quad (2.26)$$

where γ is the closed curve describing the loop and ϕ_B is the magnetic flux through the loop.

Since the autoinduced magnetic flux is $\phi_B = LI$, where L is the inductance of the loop and I the intensity of the electric current flowing in it, the electromotive force caused by autoinduction is

$$e = -L \frac{dI}{dt}.$$

Thus the rate of work against the increase of the current is

$$\frac{dW_B}{dt} = -Ie = LI \frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{LI^2}{2} \right).$$

With this result we obtain the energy necessary to get a current of intensity I starting through a loop:

$$W_B = \frac{LI^2}{2}.$$

We will now eliminate L the same way we introduced it

$$\phi_B = LI = \int_{S_\gamma} d\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \int_{S_\gamma} d\mathbf{a} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) = \oint_\gamma d\mathbf{l} \cdot \mathbf{A},$$

where the vector potential was introduced and Stokes' theorem was applied.

$$W_B = \frac{1}{2}I \oint_\gamma d\mathbf{l} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{A}.$$

Here we naturally introduced the electric current density in our calculations. It can be replaced though using equation (2.1d) (we work in the confinements of magnetostatics, so there is no time dependent electric field)

$$W_B = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}).$$

We employ here the identity (2.18) to reach

$$W_B = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{H} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) - \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{H}) = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{B} - \frac{1}{2} \int_{S_V} d\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{H}).$$

The same trick as in the previous subsection is applicable here. By extending the integration volume over the entire space and using the fact that the vector potential should be zero at infinity, the second integral vanishes.

$$W_B = \frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} \mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{B} \quad (2.27)$$

The energy density of the magnetostatic field is defined to be

$$w_B = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{B}. \quad (2.28)$$

Interpretation of the Poynting theorem

We can see now that (2.19) is simply the sum of equation (2.25) and equation (2.28). Summing up all the previous considerations, w_{em} holds the meaning of the energy density of the electromagnetic field itself, that is, the energy density present in space due to the presence of the electric and magnetic fields.

The Poynting theorem (2.20) can be rewritten using Gauss' theorem in its integral form

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = - \int_{S_V} d\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{S} - \frac{d}{dt} \int_V d\mathbf{r} w_{em} \quad (2.29)$$

or in its differential form by eliminating the integrals

$$\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{j} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{S} - \frac{\partial w_{em}}{\partial t}. \quad (2.30)$$

The Poynting vector has units of $\frac{J}{m^2s}$ and describes the flux of energy through a surface. From this, we can conclude that the physical meaning behind equations (2.29) and (2.30) is that the rate of change in time of the energy inside a volume added with the flow of energy in and out of that volume is equal to minus the work done by the fields on the sources inside the volume.

2.1.5 Momentum of a System of Fields and Field Sources

By taking the vector product of \mathbf{D} with equation (2.1c) and of \mathbf{B} with equation (2.1d) and then adding them up the following equality can be obtained:

$$\mathbf{D} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) + \mathbf{B} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}) = -\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} - \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\mathbf{D} \times \mathbf{B}). \quad (2.31)$$

We will restrict this discussion to the case where there is no polarizable or magnetic media:

$$\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) + \frac{1}{\mu_0} \mathbf{B} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) = -\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} - \varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}). \quad (2.32)$$

Considering that the speed of light in vacuum is $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_0 \mu_0}}$, equation (2.32) becomes

$$\varepsilon_0 (\mathbf{E} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) + c^2 \mathbf{B} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B})) = -\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} - \varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}). \quad (2.33)$$

In order to proceed, some vector algebra must be discussed. In particular, we would like to evaluate the following expression:

$$\mathbf{v}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) - \mathbf{v} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v})$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{e}^i \varepsilon_{ijk} v^j (\nabla \times \mathbf{v})_k = \mathbf{e}^i \varepsilon_{ijk} v^j \varepsilon^{lmk} \partial_l v_m = \\ &= \mathbf{e}^i (\delta_i^l \delta_j^m - \delta_i^m \delta_j^l) v^j \partial_l v_m = \mathbf{e}^i [v^j \partial_i v_j - v^j \partial_j v_i] \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\mathbf{v}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{e}^i v_i \partial_j v^j,$$

where ε_{ijk} is the Levi-Civita tensor, δ_i^j is the Kronecker-delta symbol and \mathbf{e}^i , $i = \overline{1, 3}$ are the Cartesian versors. Subtracting these two expressions leads to

$$\mathbf{v}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) - \mathbf{v} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{e}^i [v_i \partial_j v^j - v^j \partial_i v_j + v^j \partial_j v_i] = \mathbf{e}^i [\partial_j (v_i v^j) - v^j \partial_i v_j].$$

Since

$$\partial_i (v^j v_j) = 2v^j \partial_i v_j,$$

we have

$$\mathbf{v}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) - \mathbf{v} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{e}^i \left[\partial_j (v_i v^j) - \frac{1}{2} \partial_i (v_j v^j) \right],$$

The second term can be stylized by introducing a Kronecker-delta and writing $v_j v^j$ as \mathbf{v}^2 , which leads to the desired final result

$$\mathbf{v}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) - \mathbf{v} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{e}^i \partial_j \left[v_i v^j - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}^2 \delta_i^j \right] = \mathbf{e}_i \partial_j \left[v^i v^j - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}^2 \delta^{ij} \right]. \quad (2.34)$$

The last step is possible due to the fact that we only work with space-like components and we chose the convenient metric (2.13).

By defining the Maxwell stress tensor as

$$T^{ij} = \varepsilon_0 \left[E^i E^j + c^2 B^i B^j - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{E}^2 + c^2 \mathbf{B}^2) \delta^{ij} \right] \quad (2.35)$$

and using it along with equation (2.34) in equation (2.33) one gets

$$\mathbf{e}_i \partial_j T^{ij} = \varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) + \frac{1}{\mu_0} \mathbf{B} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} + \varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B})$$

Using Maxwell's equations (2.2a) and (2.2b) together with the definition of the Poynting vector (2.21) the above expression is simplified to the law of momentum conservation

$$\mathbf{e}_i \partial_j T^{ij} = \rho \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}}{\partial t} \quad (2.36)$$

or

$$\mathbf{e}_i \partial_j T^{ij} = \rho \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{g}}{\partial t}, \quad (2.37)$$

where the volumic density of the fields' electromagnetic momentum \mathbf{g} is defined to be

$$\mathbf{g} = \frac{1}{c^2} \mathbf{S} = \mathbf{D} \times \mathbf{B}. \quad (2.38)$$

By observing that when integrating over a volume, the $\rho \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B}$ is simply the Lorentz force and that $\mathbf{e}_i \partial_j T^{ij} = \nabla \cdot \hat{T}$ we reach an integral form of the momentum conservation

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\mathbf{P}_{\text{em}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{mech}}) = \int_{\mathcal{V}} d\mathbf{r} \nabla \cdot \hat{T} = \int_{\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{V}}} d\mathbf{a} \cdot \hat{T}, \quad (2.39)$$

where \mathbf{P}_{em} and \mathbf{P}_{mech} are the electromagnetic and mechanical momenta, respectively. If we integrate over the entire space and use the fact that the stress tensor vanishes at infinity, we obtain

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\mathbf{P}_{\text{em}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{mech}}) = 0. \quad (2.40)$$

2.2 Electromagnetic Waves

The short review of classical electrodynamics had as an ultimate goal to introduce the definitions, equations and formalism required in order to study electromagnetic waves. In this section I will start from the definition and properties of an electromagnetic wave and I will follow up with how one can describe laser pulses. The second part will contain a short introduction to the laser profiles used in research.

2.2.1 Maxwell's Equations in Vacuum

The concept of electromagnetic waves arises naturally from the Maxwell equations equation (2.1) if we consider them in the absence of any sources

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = 0 \quad (2.41a)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad (2.41b)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad (2.41c)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} . \quad (2.41d)$$

The last equation (2.41d) can be rewritten using $\mathbf{H} = \frac{1}{\mu} \mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{D} = \varepsilon \mathbf{E}$ as

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \varepsilon \mu \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \quad (2.42)$$

By taking the curl of equation (2.41c) one gets

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) = 0 ,$$

which, using the vector identity

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{v} \quad (2.43)$$

and equation (2.41a), becomes

$$\left[\nabla^2 - \varepsilon \mu \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right] \mathbf{E} = 0 . \quad (2.44)$$

Through an analogous procedure, one obtains that the magnetic field \mathbf{B} satisfies the same equation. Using the D'Alembertian defined in section 2.1.3 we can conclude that both the electric and magnetic fields satisfy the Helmholtz equation

$$\square \mathbf{E} = 0 \quad (2.45a)$$

$$\square \mathbf{B} = 0 , \quad (2.45b)$$

with $v^2 = \frac{1}{\varepsilon \mu}$ giving the speed of the wave (also called phase velocity) and $c^2 = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_0 \mu_0}$ the speed of electromagnetic waves in vacuum.

The reader most probably has encountered waves in various contexts before, but I will add a reminder of the relevant parameters describing solutions of the Helmholtz equation just for the sake of completeness:

- if \mathbf{n} is the unit vector along the direction of propagation, the wave vector is defined as $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{n}k$, where $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$ is the wave number and λ is the wavelength;
- if T is the period in time of the wave, the frequency is defined as $\nu = \frac{1}{T}$ and, equivalently, the angular frequency is defined as $\omega = 2\pi\nu$;
- $v = \lambda\nu = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon\mu}}$ is the phase velocity and $v_g = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k}$ is the group velocity.

There is one more property we can derive before discussing the particular solutions of equation (2.45), namely the transverse character of electromagnetic waves in vacuum.

A very general form for a solution of equation (2.45) can be written as

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_0 f(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) ,$$

where \mathbf{E}_0 is a constant vector. Using it in equation (2.41c) leads to the following development

$$0 = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{E}_0 f(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)] = \mathbf{E}_0 \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{E}_0 f'(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)$$

which concludes that

$$\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0. \quad (2.46)$$

Similarly, equation (2.41c) leads to

$$-\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = \nabla \times [\mathbf{E}_0 f(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)] = \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{E}_0 f'(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t),$$

where in the last step this identity was used

$$\nabla \times (a\mathbf{v}) = a(\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) + (\nabla a) \times \mathbf{v}. \quad (2.47)$$

This suggests that

$$\mathbf{B} \propto \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{E}. \quad (2.48)$$

Looking at equations (2.46) and (2.48) it is easy to conclude that the electromagnetic waves are transverse and that at any moment, the magnetic and electric fields are perpendicular to one another.

Note: Electromagnetic waves can only be transversal in “free space” or homogeneous media (Heaviside 1971). Longitudinal modes can also be achieved in special conditions, like inside confined spaces and in plasmas (Jackson 1999; Griffiths 1999). However, there has been work done on the production of longitudinal waves in vacuum (Wang *et al.* 2008) as a consequence of theoretical work showing the possibility of having a small longitudinal component in electromagnetic waves in vacuum (Cicchitelli, Hora, and Postle 1990).

2.2.2 Plane Waves

The simplest solution to the Helmholtz equation (2.45) is the plane wave

$$\sin(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \delta) \quad (2.49)$$

In the research literature it is common to employ a complex formulation (Vrejoiu 1987). Thus, the complex fields are defined as

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = E_0 \mathbf{s} e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} \quad (2.50a)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = B_0 \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{s} e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}, \quad (2.50b)$$

where E_0 and B_0 are the real amplitudes and \mathbf{s} is a complex vector of norm one

$$\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{s}_r + i\mathbf{s}_i, \quad |\mathbf{s}|^2 = \mathbf{s}^* \cdot \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{s}_r^2 + \mathbf{s}_i^2 = 1$$

With this setup, the real fields are to be obtained as

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \text{Re}\{\tilde{\mathbf{E}}(\mathbf{r}, t)\} = E_0 [\mathbf{s}_r \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) - \mathbf{s}_i \sin(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)] \quad (2.51a)$$

$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \text{Re}\{\tilde{\mathbf{B}}(\mathbf{r}, t)\} = B_0 \mathbf{n} \times [\mathbf{s}_r \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) - \mathbf{s}_i \sin(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)]. \quad (2.51b)$$

In what follows we are interested in analyzing the plane wave solution from the perspective of energy in the formalism developed in sections 2.1.4 and 2.1.5.

From the discussion in the previous subsection it is easy to deduce the relation between the magnetic and electric fields of a wave (it is the same for both the real and complex fields)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}} = \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{n} \times \tilde{\mathbf{E}}. \quad (2.52)$$

With this, the energy density (2.19) of the fields is

$$w_{em} = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E}^2 + \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \mathbf{B}^2 = \varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E}^2, \quad (2.53)$$

which can be computed using equation (2.51a) to be

$$w_{em} = \varepsilon_0 E_0^2 [\mathbf{s}_r^2 \cos^2(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) + \mathbf{s}_i^2 \sin^2(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) - \mathbf{s}_r \cdot \mathbf{s}_i \sin(2\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - 2\omega t)] . \quad (2.54)$$

This quantity could vary quite wildly in time depending on the wave's frequency, so we would rather compute a quantity that can be easured experimentally, which is of course the time average of the energy density

$$\langle w_{em} \rangle = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T dt w_{em} = \frac{\varepsilon_0 E_0^2}{T} \int_0^T dt [\mathbf{s}_r^2 \cos^2(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) + \mathbf{s}_i^2 \sin^2(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) - \mathbf{s}_r \cdot \mathbf{s}_i \sin(2\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - 2\omega t)] . \quad (2.55)$$

Since we know that the average of sine over one period is zero and the averages of both sine and cosine squared over one period are one half, we get

$$\langle w_{em} \rangle = \frac{\varepsilon_0 E_0^2}{2} . \quad (2.56)$$

But looking at definition (2.50a) we see that

$$\langle w_{em} \rangle = \frac{\varepsilon_0}{2} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}^* \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{E}} . \quad (2.57)$$

In a very similar way we have for the Poynting vector the following developement

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{\mu_0 c} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{E}^2 \quad (2.58)$$

$$\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon_0}{\mu_0}} \langle \mathbf{E}^2 \rangle \mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon_0}{\mu_0}} E_0^2 \mathbf{n} = c \langle w_{em} \rangle \mathbf{n} \quad (2.59)$$

$$\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \tilde{\mathbf{E}} \times \tilde{\mathbf{B}}^* . \quad (2.60)$$

And, obviously, the electromagnetic momentum (2.38) is

$$\langle g \rangle = \left\langle \frac{1}{c^2} \mathbf{S} \right\rangle = \frac{\langle w_{em} \rangle}{c^2} \mathbf{n} . \quad (2.61)$$

Polarization of Plane Waves

For any arbitrary complex field we can find a decomposition of the real field in orthogonal components. In order to do that, we make the following notations concerning the complex vector of (2.50a)

$$\mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{s} = \alpha^2 e^{2i\theta} \text{ with } \alpha, \theta \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (2.62)$$

We can define $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{s} e^{-i\theta}$ such that $\mathbf{u}_r \cdot \mathbf{u}_i = 0$. In this way the orthogonal coordinates system can be chosen as

$$\mathbf{e}_x = \frac{\mathbf{u}_r}{|\mathbf{u}_r|}, \quad \mathbf{e}_y = \pm \frac{\mathbf{u}_i}{|\mathbf{u}_i|}, \quad \mathbf{e}_z = \mathbf{n}, \quad (2.63)$$

with the sign of \mathbf{e}_y being conveniently chosen in order to have a right-handed system (*i.e.* $\mathbf{e}_x \times \mathbf{e}_y = \mathbf{e}_z$).

The real field (2.51a) is in this basis

$$\mathbf{E} = E_0 [u_r \mathbf{e}_x \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \theta) \mp u_i \mathbf{e}_y \sin(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \theta)] . \quad (2.64)$$

For time-independent \mathbf{e}_x , \mathbf{e}_y and \mathbf{e}_z , the following cases are to be distinguished:

- u_r, u_i arbitrary and non-zero: elliptically polarized wave;
- $u_r = u_i \neq 0$: circularly polarized wave;
- either $u_r = 0$ or $u_i = 0$: linearly polarized wave.

2.2.3 Paraxial Approximation

This and the next section discuss the ways in which we can describe beams of electromagnetic waves (like, say, laser beams) and follows ideas from Goldsmith 1998.

The paraxial approximation aims to simplify the Helmholtz equation

$$\left[\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right] \psi = 0. \quad (2.65)$$

We can treat this equation by the method of separation of variables $\psi = \zeta(\mathbf{r})T(t)$ in order for it to become

$$\frac{1}{\zeta} \nabla^2 \zeta = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{T''}{T} = -k^2, \quad (2.66)$$

where k is simply the wave number. It is clear that the solution of the time equation is a combination of sine and cosine functions, so the real problem consists in solving the spatial equation

$$\nabla^2 \zeta + k^2 \zeta = 0. \quad (2.67)$$

In the particular case of electromagnetic waves, this equation must hold for the complex vector $\bar{\mathbf{E}}$, so it must hold for each of its components. The Helmholtz equation for the electric field can be reduced by considering a solution of the form

$$\zeta(\mathbf{r}) = u(\mathbf{r}) e^{-ikz}, \quad (2.68)$$

where the z-axis was chosen as the propagation direction for the wave.

Inserting (2.68) in equation (2.67) we get

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \nabla^2 \zeta + k^2 \zeta = (\partial_x^2 u + \partial_y^2 u) e^{-ikz} + \partial_z^2 (u e^{-ikz}) + k^2 u e^{-ikz} = \\
&= (\partial_x^2 u + \partial_y^2 u) e^{-ikz} + (\partial_z^2 u) e^{-ikz} - 2ik(\partial_z u) e^{-ikz} - k^2 u e^{-ikz} + k^2 u e^{-ikz} = \\
&= e^{-ikz} \nabla^2 u - 2ik e^{-ikz} \partial_z u.
\end{aligned}$$

Multiplying with e^{ikz} leads to

$$\nabla^2 u - 2ik \partial_z u = 0. \quad (2.69)$$

The first paraxial approximation argument says that, due to diffraction, the variation of the amplitude u along the direction of propagation is very small compared to distances of the order of the wave's wavelength. This can be summarized by the mathematical condition

$$\lambda \frac{\Delta(\partial_z u)}{\Delta z} \ll \partial_z u, \quad (2.70)$$

which indicates that the double partial derivative with respect to z (the propagation axis) is negligible compared to the $2ik \partial_z u$ term. The second argument says that in the laplacian, the double partial derivative with respect to the z -axis can be neglected, such that one obtains

$$\partial_x^2 u + \partial_y^2 u - 2ik \partial_z u = 0. \quad (2.71)$$

which is the paraxial wave equation.

2.2.4 Gaussian Beams

One can find solutions to equation (2.71) working in various coordinate systems, but the most convenient and useful for our purpose (and in practical applications in general) is to work in cylindrical coordinated. In this case, the equation becomes

$$\partial_r^2 u + \frac{1}{r} \partial_r u + \frac{1}{r} \partial_\phi^2 u - 2ik \partial_z u = 0. \quad (2.72)$$

To simplify our calculations even more, we can remove the ϕ dependence of u , which is to imply axial symmetry for the wave. This gives

$$\partial_r^2 u + \frac{1}{r} \partial_r u - 2ik \partial_z u = 0. \quad (2.73)$$

The radial part of the equation suggests that we should have a dependence of a complex exponential of r^2 . An educated guess would be a Gaussian distribution-like function of the form

$$u(r, z) = G(z) e^{-i \frac{kr^2}{2q(z)}}, \quad (2.74)$$

where the complex functions $G(z)$ and $q(z)$ are to be determined. Let us do just that by inserting (2.74) in equation (2.73):

$$\partial_r u = -\frac{ikr}{q(z)} G(z) e^{-i \frac{kr^2}{2q(z)}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_r^2 u &= -\frac{ik}{q(z)}G(z) \left[1 - \frac{ikr^2}{q(z)}\right] e^{-i\frac{kr^2}{2q(z)}} \\ \partial_z u &= \left[G'(z) + \frac{ikr^2}{2q^2(z)}G(z)q'(z)\right] e^{-i\frac{kr^2}{2q(z)}}.\end{aligned}$$

Replacing these results and ridding ourselves of the exponential leads to

$$-2ik \left(\frac{G}{q} + G'\right) + \frac{k^2 r^2 G}{q^2}(q' - 1) = 0, \quad (2.75)$$

which gives the following differential equations for G and q :

$$\frac{dq}{dz} = 1 \quad (2.76a)$$

$$\frac{dG}{dz} = -\frac{G}{q}. \quad (2.76b)$$

The solution of equation (2.76a) is trivial

$$q(z) = q(z_0) + z - z_0,$$

which can be simplified by choosing our origin at z_0

$$q(z) = q(0) + z. \quad (2.77)$$

The quantity q (which is actually complex) is often called *Gaussian beam parameter*. Since it appears in (2.74) as $\frac{1}{q}$, it is convenient to express it in the form

$$\frac{1}{q} = \left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_r - i \left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_i. \quad (2.78)$$

If we now substitute this in the guessed solution (2.74) we obtain

$$u(r, z) = G(z) e^{-\frac{ikr^2}{2} \left[\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_r - i \left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_i\right]} = G(z) e^{-\frac{kr^2}{2} \left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_i} e^{-\frac{ikr^2}{2} \left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_r}. \quad (2.79)$$

The real part of $\frac{1}{q}$ has physical significance. In order to see this, imagine that at a point z on the propagation direction we draw a plane perpendicular to the z -axis. If R would be the radius of curvature of the wavefront at point z (with respect to the position of the source), we can define $\phi(r) = k\delta x$ to be the difference in phase between the wavefront and the plane as a function of r . Since we work in the paraxial approximation, we can consider that $r \ll R$, such that, using as reference figure 2.1, we have

$$\alpha \approx \frac{r}{R} \quad (2.80a)$$

$$\delta x = -R(1 - \cos(\alpha)) \approx R \frac{\alpha^2}{2} \quad (2.80b)$$

$$\phi(r) \approx -\frac{kr^2}{2} \frac{1}{R}. \quad (2.80c)$$

We can conclude now that

$$\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_r = \frac{1}{R}. \quad (2.81)$$

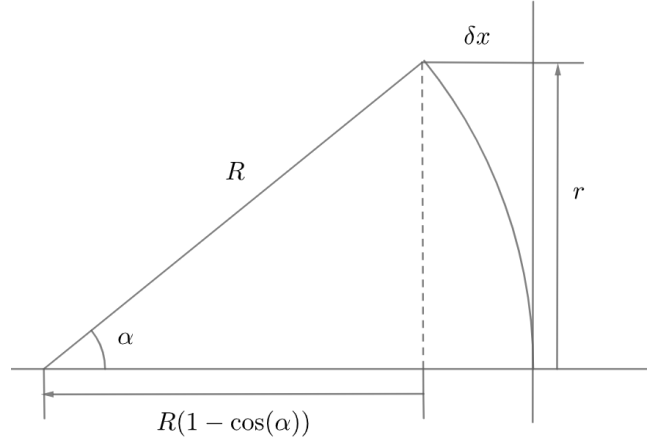


Figure 2.1: A drawing showing how to compute $\phi(r)$

The imaginary part of $\frac{1}{q}$ appears in the real exponential. This exponential should thus give the Gaussian distribution form of the wave, that is it should look like

$$e^{-\left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^2}, \quad (2.82)$$

where r_0 is proportional to the standard deviation. In this case we can write

$$\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)_i = \frac{2}{kw^2(z)} = \frac{\lambda}{\pi w^2(z)}. \quad (2.83)$$

This defines the *beam radius* $w(z)$ as the value of r at which the field falls to $\frac{1}{e}$ of its value on the z -axis. Putting these results together, we reach a final formula for $\frac{1}{q}$

$$\frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{R(z)} - i \frac{\lambda}{\pi w^2(z)}. \quad (2.84)$$

It is conventional to take $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} R(z) \rightarrow \infty$, such that $\frac{1}{q(0)} = -i \frac{\lambda}{\pi w_0^2}$, and $w_0 = w(0)$ is usually interpreted as the *beam waist radius*. If we look back at the solution (2.77), we can rewrite q in this formalism as

$$q = z + i \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}. \quad (2.85)$$

Playing around with equations (2.84) and (2.85) we have the following development

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{q} &= \frac{1}{R} - i \frac{\lambda}{\pi w^2} = \frac{1}{z + i \frac{\pi w_0}{\lambda}} = \frac{z - i \frac{\pi w_0}{\lambda}}{z^2 + \left(\frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}\right)^2} \\ \frac{1}{R} &= \frac{z}{z^2 + \left(\frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}\right)^2} \Rightarrow R = z + \frac{1}{z} \left(\frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}\right)^2 \\ \frac{1}{w^2} &= \frac{\frac{\pi^2 w_0^2}{\lambda^2}}{z^2 + \left(\frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}\right)^2} \Rightarrow w = w_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\lambda z}{\pi w_0^2}\right)}. \end{aligned}$$

For the sake of clarity, I write again the expressions obtained for the radius of curvature and the beam radius

$$R = z + \frac{1}{z} \left(\frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda} \right)^2 \quad (2.86)$$

$$w = w_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\lambda z}{\pi w_0^2} \right)}. \quad (2.87)$$

Turning back now to equation (2.76b), using (2.85), we can rewrite it as

$$\frac{dG}{G} = - \frac{d \left(z + i \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda} \right)}{z + i \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}},$$

which, after integration, becomes

$$\ln \frac{G(z)}{G(0)} = \ln \frac{z + i \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}}{i \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}}$$

or

$$\frac{G(z)}{G(0)} = \frac{1}{1 - i \frac{\lambda z}{\pi w_0^2}} = \frac{1 + i \frac{\lambda z}{\pi w_0^2}}{1 + \left(\frac{\lambda z}{\pi w_0^2} \right)^2}. \quad (2.88)$$

For convenience, this is usually expressed in terms of a phasor defined as

$$\tan(\phi_0) = \frac{\lambda z}{\pi w_0^2}. \quad (2.89)$$

Now the solution for G is stylized to be

$$\frac{G(z)}{G(0)} = \frac{w_0}{w} e^{i\phi_0}. \quad (2.90)$$

Putting together equations (2.74), (2.84) and (2.90) we finally find u

$$u(r, z) = G(0) \frac{w_0}{w} \exp \left(-\frac{r^2}{w^2} - i \frac{\pi r^2}{\lambda R} + i\phi_0 \right) \quad (2.91)$$

and, consequently, the solution to the paraxial wave equation with axial symmetry

$$\zeta(r, z) = G(0) \frac{w_0}{w} \exp \left(-\frac{r^2}{w^2} - ikz - i \frac{\pi r^2}{\lambda R} + i\phi_0 \right). \quad (2.92)$$

2.2.5 Gaussian Beam Packets

In the research literature, it is a custom to use a parameter called *confocal distance* or *Reyleigh range*

$$z_0 = \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}. \quad (2.93)$$

Including it, all the relevant auxiliary functions become

$$R(z) = z + \frac{z_0^2}{z} \quad (2.94a)$$

$$w(z) = w_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_0}\right)^2} \quad (2.94b)$$

$$\phi_0(z) = \arctan\left(\frac{z}{z_0}\right). \quad (2.94c)$$

The Electric Field

The x and y components of the electric field are now expressed using equation (2.92) as

$$E_x(r, z) = \alpha_x E_0 \frac{w_0}{w} \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{w^2} - ikz - i\frac{kr^2}{2R} + i\phi_0\right) \quad (2.95a)$$

$$E_y(r, z) = \alpha_y E_0 \frac{w_0}{w} \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{w^2} - ikz - i\frac{kr^2}{2R} + i\phi_0\right), \quad (2.95b)$$

where we choose $\alpha_x = 1$, $\alpha_y = 0$ for linear polarization, and $\alpha_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, $\alpha_y = \pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}$ for right and left-handed circular polarization, respectively. In order to obtain the z component, we have to impose the condition $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0$ and to use the approximation $\partial_z E_z \approx -ikE_z$ (which holds if the pulse is long enough or quasi-rectangular). The immediate result is

$$E_z(r, z) = -\frac{i}{k} (\partial_x E_x(r, z) + \partial_y E_y(r, z)) \quad (2.96)$$

or, explicitly

$$E_z(r, z) = \frac{2\left(i - \frac{z}{z_0}\right)}{kw^2(z)} [xE_x(r, z) + yE_y(r, z)]. \quad (2.97)$$

The Magnetic Field

To be added

The Temporal Profile

One observation must be made now. These expressions only describe the spatial part of the field. In order to give the exact field we must add the time-dependent part of the solution $e^{i\omega t}$. However, this is not all there is to it. Since we are interested in describing laser beams, we must take into consideration the fact that the pulse has a finite duration. One does this by adding a Gaussian envelope over time. The time-dependent part will now be

$$g(z, t) = \exp\left(i\omega t - \left(\frac{t - \frac{z - z_F}{c}}{\tau_0}\right)^2\right), \quad (2.98)$$

where τ_0 is the duration of the pulse and z_F is the original position of the intensity peak. In what follows, I aim to provide a short proof of the fact that even with this envelope, the final fields are still solutions of the axially symmetric paraxial Helmholtz equation.

to be continued

The Final Fields

The final relations are straightforward

$$\mathbf{E}(r, z, t) = \mathbf{E}(r, z)g(t, z) \quad (2.99a)$$

$$\mathbf{B}(r, z, t) = \mathbf{B}(r, z)g(t, z) . \quad (2.99b)$$

2.3 Electron Dynamics in Electromagnetic Fields

2.4 The Ponderomotive Force

2.5 Simulations for the Visualization of the Ponderomotive Force

Chapter 3

Results

In this chapter we present the main results ...

Chapter 4

Conclusions

In conclusion . . .

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