

Numerical calculation of a radiation spectrum emitted by a charge and storing it in the form of the Stokes parameters

1 Theory of radiation

For references see [1, §66], and also [2, §14.5]. We use the units of $c = 1$.

- Maxwell equation $\partial_\nu F^{\mu\nu} = -4\pi j^\mu$ upon using the Lorentz gauge $\partial_\nu A^\nu = 0$ takes the form

$$\partial_\nu \partial^\nu A^\mu = 4\pi j^\mu. \quad (1)$$

- Retarded Green's function:

$$D_R(z) = -\frac{1}{4\pi|\mathbf{z}|}\delta(z^0 - |\mathbf{z}|), \quad \partial^2 D_R(x - y) = -\delta^{(4)}(x - y). \quad (2)$$

- \Rightarrow Retarded vector potential is

$$\mathbf{A}(t, \mathbf{r}) = \int d^3r' \frac{\mathbf{j}(t - R, \mathbf{r}')}{R}, \quad \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}', \quad R = |\mathbf{R}|. \quad (3)$$

- For a *distant* radiation at the point \mathbf{R}_0 we have $R = |\mathbf{R}_0 - \mathbf{r}| \approx R_0 - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}$ and

$$\mathbf{A}(t, \mathbf{R}_0) \approx \frac{1}{R_0} \int d^3r \mathbf{j}(t - R_0 + \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}), \quad \mathbf{n} \equiv \frac{\mathbf{R}_0}{R_0}. \quad (4)$$

$\Rightarrow \mathbf{H} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \approx \dot{\mathbf{A}} \times \mathbf{n}$ and in a plane wave $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{n}$, so

$$\mathbf{E} \approx \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \dot{\mathbf{A}}), \quad \dot{\mathbf{A}} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t}. \quad (5)$$

- For a Fourier transform $\mathbf{A}(t, \mathbf{R}_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int d\omega e^{-i\omega t} \mathbf{A}_\omega(\mathbf{R}_0)$ we have

$$\mathbf{A}_\omega(\mathbf{R}_0) = \frac{e^{i\omega R_0}}{R_0} \int d^3r \mathbf{j}_\omega(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}}, \quad \mathbf{k} \equiv \omega \mathbf{n}, \quad (6)$$

where $\mathbf{j}_\omega(\mathbf{r}) = \int dt e^{i\omega t} \mathbf{j}(t, \mathbf{r})$, and for a point particle $\mathbf{j}(t, \mathbf{r}) = e\mathbf{v}(t)\delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0(t))$, where $\mathbf{r}_0(t)$ is the particle's trajectory and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ — its velocity, we get

$$\mathbf{j}_\omega(\mathbf{r}) = e \int dt \mathbf{v}(t) e^{i\omega t} \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0(t)), \quad (7)$$

so that

$$\mathbf{A}_\omega(\mathbf{R}_0) = e \frac{e^{i\omega R_0}}{R_0} \int dt \mathbf{v}(t) e^{i\omega[t - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}_0(t)]}. \quad (8)$$

- Apparently, $[\dot{\mathbf{A}}]_\omega \equiv \dot{\mathbf{A}}_\omega = -i\omega \mathbf{A}_\omega$, so

$$\mathbf{E}_\omega(\mathbf{R}_0) = -i\omega \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{A}_\omega(\mathbf{R}_0)) = -i\omega e^{\frac{i\omega R_0}{R_0}} \int dt \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{v}(t)) e^{i\omega[t - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}_0(t)]}. \quad (9)$$

- Poynting's vector for a plane wave is

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} = \frac{1}{4\pi} E^2 \mathbf{n}. \quad (10)$$

It's the energy per unit area per unit time, so the intensity (energy per unit time) per unit solid angle is

$$dI = \frac{E^2}{4\pi} R_0^2 d\Omega, \quad (11)$$

\Rightarrow radiated energy for a whole time per unit solid angle is

$$d\mathcal{E} = R_0^2 d\Omega \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt \frac{E^2}{4\pi} = R_0^2 d\Omega \cdot 2 \int_0^\infty \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \frac{|\mathbf{E}_\omega|^2}{4\pi}, \quad (12)$$

where the Parseval's theorem is used. Hence, the radiation spectrum is

$$d\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{n}\omega} = \frac{|\mathbf{E}_\omega|^2}{2\pi} R_0^2 d\Omega \frac{d\omega}{2\pi}. \quad (13)$$

- So finally, for the radiation spectrum of a charge we have

$$\frac{d\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{n}\omega}}{d\Omega d\omega} = \frac{e^2 \omega^2}{4\pi^2} \left| \int dt \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{v}(t)) e^{i\omega[t - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}_0(t)]} \right|^2, \quad (14)$$

where the phase factor $-ie^{i\omega R_0}$ was omitted under the sign of the absolute value.

- If we recall (6) that $\mathbf{k} \equiv \omega \mathbf{n}$, such that $d\Omega \omega^2 d\omega = d^3k$, we can write (14) also in the form

$$\frac{d\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{n}\omega}}{d^3k} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi^2} \left| \int dt \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{v}(t)) e^{i\omega[t - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}_0(t)]} \right|^2. \quad (15)$$

2 Stokes parameters

- For a monochromatic plane wave of a general polarization

$$\mathbf{E}(t, \mathbf{r}) = (\mathbf{e}_1 E_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 E_2) e^{-i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})}, \quad (16)$$

where $\mathbf{e}_1 \perp \mathbf{e}_2$ and $\mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{k}/\omega$, and E_1 and E_2 are complex in the general case.

- Intensity $I \sim |\mathbf{E}|^2 = |E_1|^2 + |E_2|^2$, but we can't restore the information about polarization, phase, etc. from I . However, we can do that from the so called Stokes parameters [2, §7.2]:

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= |E_1|^2 + |E_2|^2 \sim I, \\ S_1 &= |E_1|^2 - |E_2|^2, \\ S_2 &= 2 \operatorname{Re}[E_1^* E_2], \\ S_3 &= 2 \operatorname{Im}[E_1^* E_2] = -2 \operatorname{Im}[E_1 E_2^*]. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

- Due to the form of S_i , they do not depend on the phase factor $-ie^{i\omega R_0}$ from \mathbf{E}_ω , so we can omit it here too.
- The plane wave is transverse and this is true for a distant radiation, as you can see from (5), as $\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \dot{\mathbf{A}}) \perp \mathbf{n}$. Therefore, you can always consider it as a 2D vector (E_1, E_2) in a plane transverse to \mathbf{n} .
- If we denote

$$\mathbf{J} \equiv \frac{e\omega}{2\pi} \int dt \mathbf{v}(t) e^{i\omega[t - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)]}, \quad (18)$$

which is proportional to \mathbf{E}_ω , see (9), then $\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{J}) \perp \mathbf{n}$ and we can describe it as a 2D vector $\mathbf{J}_\perp \equiv (J_1, J_2)$ in a plane transverse to \mathbf{n} . We can treat $|J_1|^2 + |J_2|^2$, which is exactly the RHS of (14), as the first Stokes parameter S_0 , because it has the meaning of intensity of an ω -harmonics. Therefore, we can use the following Stokes parameters instead of (17):

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{S}_0 &= |J_1|^2 + |J_2|^2 = \frac{d\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{n}\omega}}{d\Omega d\omega}, \\ \tilde{S}_1 &= |J_1|^2 - |J_2|^2, \\ \tilde{S}_2 &= 2 \operatorname{Re}[J_1^* J_2], \\ \tilde{S}_3 &= 2 \operatorname{Im}[J_1^* J_2] = -2 \operatorname{Im}[J_1 J_2^*]. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

- Now we connect J_1 and J_2 , and ultimately the Stokes parameters (19), with the components of \mathbf{J} and the viewing angles θ, φ .
- $\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{J}) = \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{J}) - \mathbf{J} = -(\mathbf{J} - J_\parallel \mathbf{n}) = -\mathbf{J}_\perp$, where $J_\parallel \equiv \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{J}$, hence

$$\mathbf{J}_\perp = -\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{J}). \quad (20)$$

- We choose $(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2)$ such that $\mathbf{e}_2 \perp \mathbf{e}_z$ (in other words, \mathbf{e}_2 is in the xy -plane), where z is some preferential direction.
- $\mathbf{n} = (\sin \theta \cos \varphi, \sin \theta \sin \varphi, \cos \theta)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \mathbf{e}_2 &= \frac{\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{e}_z}{\sin \theta} = \frac{1}{\sin \theta} (\sin \theta \sin \varphi, -\sin \theta \cos \varphi, 0) = (\sin \varphi, -\cos \varphi, 0), \\ \Rightarrow \mathbf{e}_1 &= \mathbf{e}_2 \times \mathbf{n} = (-\cos \theta \cos \varphi, -\cos \theta \sin \varphi, \sin \theta). \end{aligned}$$

It's easy to explicitly check that indeed $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{e}_1 \cdot \mathbf{e}_2 = 0$ and $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbf{e}_2$.

- $\Rightarrow J_1 = \mathbf{J}_\perp \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 = (\mathbf{J} - J_\parallel \mathbf{n}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathbf{e}_1$ and similarly $J_2 = \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathbf{e}_2$.
- So finally

$$\begin{aligned} J_1 &= \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 = -(J_x \cos \varphi + J_y \sin \varphi) \cos \theta + J_z \sin \theta, \\ J_2 &= \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathbf{e}_2 = J_x \sin \varphi - J_y \cos \varphi. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

3 Numerical calculation of \mathbf{J}

- Each component of (18) has the form

$$\mathcal{J} = \omega \int_a^b dt f(t) e^{i\omega\xi(t)}, \quad \xi(t) \equiv t - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}(t). \quad (22)$$

In \mathbf{J} the limits $(a, b) = (-\infty, +\infty)$, but for numerical calculation we divide the whole interval into small steps, and so here \mathcal{J} is an integral for such a step. However, if the integrand highly oscillates, the usual formula

$$\mathcal{J} \approx \omega f(\bar{t}) e^{i\omega\xi(\bar{t})} \Delta t, \quad \Delta t \equiv b - a, \quad \bar{t} \equiv \frac{a+b}{2} \quad (23)$$

is very inaccurate, unless Δt is small enough such that integrand does not vary rapidly on (a, b) . But it may be impractical to have such a small step of integration for high frequencies of oscillation because usually $f(t)$ and $\xi(t)$ demand a much less step for calculating them with good enough precision (i.e. for solving numerically the equation of motion). So we may use linear approximation for $f(t)$ and $\xi(t)$ on the interval (a, b) and calculate the integral analytically. Moreover, without further assumptions the linear approximation looks the most reasonable because usually we know only the initial and final values f_a and f_b for each step of integration.

- Expanding $f(t)$ and $\xi(t)$ to the linear term, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{J} &= \omega \int_0^{\Delta t} dt f(a+t) e^{i\omega\xi(a+t)} \approx e^{i\omega\xi(a)} \omega \int_0^{\Delta t} dt (f(a) + f'(a)t) e^{i\omega\xi'(a)t} = \\ &= e^{i\omega\bar{\xi}} \frac{1}{\xi'(a)} \left\{ 2\bar{f} \sin \frac{\tilde{\omega}\Delta t}{2} + i f'(a) \Delta t \left[\frac{\sin \frac{\tilde{\omega}\Delta t}{2}}{\frac{\tilde{\omega}\Delta t}{2}} - \cos \frac{\tilde{\omega}\Delta t}{2} \right] \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

where $\tilde{\omega} \equiv \omega\xi'(a) = \omega(1 - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v}(a))$ is the frequency of oscillation of the approximated integrand, $\bar{f} \equiv f(a) + f'(a)\Delta t/2$ is the mean value of linearly approximated $f(t)$ on the integration interval, and $\bar{\xi}$ has the same meaning as \bar{f} .

- For derivatives and mean values of $f(t)$ and $\xi(t)$ we can use the formulae

$$f'(a) = \frac{f_b - f_a}{b - a} \equiv \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t}, \quad \bar{f} = f_a + \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t} \frac{\Delta t}{2} = \frac{f_a + f_b}{2}. \quad (25)$$

- Using (25) we have $\tilde{\omega}\Delta t = \omega\Delta\xi$, and we can write (24) in the form

$$\mathcal{J} \approx e^{i\omega\bar{\xi}} \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta\xi} \left\{ 2\bar{f} \sin \frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2} + i \Delta f \left[\frac{\sin \frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2}}{\frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2}} - \cos \frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2} \right] \right\}. \quad (26)$$

- Note that if $\tilde{\omega}(b-a) = \omega\Delta\xi \ll 1$, i.e. if (a, b) is much less than one period of oscillation of the integrand, then (26) becomes the usual formula for integrating “smooth” functions:

$$\mathcal{J} \approx \omega \bar{f} e^{i\omega\bar{\xi}} \Delta t, \quad (27)$$

where instead of $f(\bar{t})$ and $\xi(\bar{t})$, as in (23), we have \bar{f} and $\bar{\xi}$.

- For high frequencies $\omega\Delta\xi \gg 1$ (26) works well because it's in nature an asymptotic expansion with respect to $1/\omega\Delta\xi \ll 1$ (terms $\sim 1/(\omega\Delta\xi)^2$ and higher do not appear because of the linear approximation of $f(t)$ and $\xi(t)$).
- Finally, we can write that for each step of integration of \mathbf{J} we have

$$e^{i\omega\bar{\xi}} \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta\xi} \left\{ 2\bar{\mathbf{v}} \sin \frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2} + i\Delta\mathbf{v} \left[\frac{\sin \frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2}}{\frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2}} - \cos \frac{\omega\Delta\xi}{2} \right] \right\}, \quad (28)$$

where $\bar{\mathbf{v}} \equiv (\mathbf{v}_a + \mathbf{v}_b)/2$, $\Delta\mathbf{v} \equiv \mathbf{v}_b - \mathbf{v}_a$.

4 Units of measure

- If we have some characteristic frequency (say, a laser frequency) ω_L or characteristic time t_L (a laser period), we can express time and frequency in terms of t_L and ω_L :

$$t = t_L \cdot \frac{t}{t_L} \equiv t_L \tilde{t}, \quad \omega = \omega_L \cdot \frac{\omega}{\omega_L} \equiv \omega_L \tilde{\omega}, \quad (29)$$

where \tilde{t} and $\tilde{\omega}$ are dimensionless time and frequency.

- In order to avoid the introduction of 2π factors from $t_L = 2\pi/\omega_L$ we may use ordinary frequency ν_L instead of the angular one, such that $t_L\nu_L = 1$. Or we may use $\tau_L = 1/\omega_L = t_L/2\pi$, which is probably preferable in order to express $\tilde{\omega}$ in units of ω_L , and not ν_L .
- So $t = \tau_L \cdot t/\tau_L \equiv \tau_L \tilde{t} = (t_L/2\pi) \cdot \tilde{t} = \tilde{t}/\omega_L$, therefore

$$\tilde{t} = \omega_L t, \quad \tilde{\omega} = \frac{\omega}{\omega_L}. \quad (30)$$

- Due to $c = 1$, length is measured in the same units as time, so for example $x = \tilde{x}/\omega_L$, or

$$\tilde{x} = \omega_L x. \quad (31)$$

- So $\omega\xi = \omega(t - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}) = \tilde{\omega}(\tilde{t} - \mathbf{n} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{r}}) = \tilde{\omega}\tilde{\xi}$ doesn't change, and so does the following:

$$\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta\xi} = \frac{\Delta\tilde{t}}{\Delta\tilde{\xi}}, \quad \omega\Delta\xi = \tilde{\omega}\Delta\tilde{\xi}, \quad \omega\bar{\xi} = \tilde{\omega}\bar{\tilde{\xi}}. \quad (32)$$

Hence we do not need to change (28) at all in order to perform integration with respect to dimensionless variables and parameters \tilde{t} , $\tilde{\omega}$, etc.

- We may measure charges in the units of the elementary charge e (i.e. the absolute value of the electron charge $-e$). And if we plan to have charges q of different values, then we can write $q = e\tilde{q}$, where \tilde{q} may be $\pm 1, \pm 2$, etc.
- From applying (30) to (14) we see that radiated energy $d\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{n}\omega}$ is measured in units of $e^2\omega_L$.

- Similarly, the unit of \mathbf{E} for radiation is $e\omega_L^2$, and the unit of \mathbf{E}_ω is $e\omega_L$ (due to $E \sim E_\omega\omega$).
- A charge dynamics includes the mass of a charge m , so we may measure it in the units of the electron mass m_e : $m = m_e\tilde{m}$. The momentum $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{u} = m_e\tilde{m}\mathbf{u}$, and we can write the equation for the spatial part of 4-velocity \mathbf{u} in the form

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{d\tilde{t}} = \frac{e}{m_e\omega_L} \cdot \frac{\tilde{q}}{\tilde{m}} (\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{H}). \quad (33)$$

Hence $m_e\omega_L/e$ is a unit of measurement for the external field, which drives the charge dynamics (that's why there is m_e here, as opposed to the radiation field). This implies the usual definition of dimensionless amplitude of the wave field $a_0 \equiv eE/m_e\omega_L$. So

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{d\tilde{t}} = \frac{\tilde{q}}{\tilde{m}} (\tilde{\mathbf{E}} + \mathbf{v} \times \tilde{\mathbf{H}}), \quad \tilde{\mathbf{E}} = \frac{e\mathbf{E}}{m_e\omega_L}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{H}} = \frac{e\mathbf{H}}{m_e\omega_L}. \quad (34)$$

If we introduce the dimensionless momentum $\tilde{\mathbf{p}} = \tilde{m}\mathbf{u}$ which accounts for the value of the charge mass, we can write (34) in the form

$$\frac{d\tilde{\mathbf{p}}}{d\tilde{t}} = \tilde{q}(\tilde{\mathbf{E}} + \mathbf{v} \times \tilde{\mathbf{H}}). \quad (35)$$

5 Test analytical solutions of the equation of motion

Charge in a uniform constant magnetic field

- In the case of a uniform constant magnetic field (35) takes the form

$$\frac{d\tilde{\mathbf{p}}}{d\tilde{t}} = \tilde{q}\mathbf{v} \times \tilde{\mathbf{H}}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{H}} = (0, 0, \tilde{H}). \quad (36)$$

- As \mathbf{H} is constant, we don't have a characteristic frequency of a field. But we know that in such a field a charge moves in a helix with a frequency of transverse circular rotations $\omega_L = eH/m_e\gamma$, where γ is the Lorentz factor of the charge. So we may choose it as a characteristic frequency. Hence

$$\tilde{H} = \frac{eH}{m_e\omega_L} = \gamma, \quad (37)$$

that is, in such units the amplitude of a dimensionless magnetic field \tilde{H} is the gamma-factor γ . On the other hand, $eH/m_e\omega_L = a_0$, therefore we put $a_0 = \gamma$ and we can't specify a_0 independently.

- Now, the solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{x} &= -\frac{v_{0\perp}\tilde{m}}{\tilde{q}} \cos \tilde{q}\tilde{t}, & v_x &= v_{0\perp} \sin \frac{\tilde{q}\tilde{t}}{\tilde{m}}, & \tilde{p}_x &= \tilde{p}_{0\perp} \sin \frac{\tilde{q}\tilde{t}}{\tilde{m}}, \\ \tilde{y} &= \frac{v_{0\perp}\tilde{m}}{\tilde{q}} \sin \tilde{q}\tilde{t}, & v_y &= v_{0\perp} \cos \frac{\tilde{q}\tilde{t}}{\tilde{m}}, & \tilde{p}_y &= \tilde{p}_{0\perp} \cos \frac{\tilde{q}\tilde{t}}{\tilde{m}}, \\ \tilde{z} &= \tilde{z}_0 + v_{z0}\tilde{t}, & v_z &= v_{z0}, & \tilde{p}_z &= \tilde{m}\gamma v_{z0}, \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

where $v_{0\perp}$ is the (constant) velocity of transverse rotations and $\tilde{p}_{0\perp} = \tilde{m}\gamma v_{0\perp}$.

Charge in a uniform oscillating electric field

$$\begin{aligned} E_z(t) &= E_0 \cos \omega_L t \Rightarrow \tilde{E}_z = a_0 \cos \tilde{t}, \quad a_0 = \frac{eE_0}{m_e \omega_L}, \\ \tilde{p}_x &= \tilde{p}_y = 0, \quad \frac{d\tilde{p}_z}{d\tilde{t}} = \tilde{q}a_0 \cos \tilde{t} \Rightarrow \tilde{p}_z = \tilde{q}a_0 \sin \tilde{t}, \\ \gamma &= \sqrt{1 + \frac{\tilde{q}^2 a_0^2}{\tilde{m}^2} \sin^2 \tilde{t}} \Rightarrow v_z = \frac{\tilde{p}_z}{\tilde{m}\gamma} = \frac{\tilde{q}a_0 \sin \tilde{t}}{\sqrt{\tilde{m}^2 + \tilde{q}^2 a_0^2 \sin^2 \tilde{t}}}, \\ d\tilde{z} &= -\frac{\tilde{q}a_0 d \cos \tilde{t}}{\sqrt{\tilde{m}^2 + \tilde{q}^2 a_0^2 - \tilde{q}^2 a_0^2 \cos^2 \tilde{t}}} \Rightarrow \tilde{z} = -\arcsin \left(\frac{\tilde{q}a_0}{\sqrt{\tilde{m}^2 + \tilde{q}^2 a_0^2}} \cos \tilde{t} \right). \end{aligned}$$

References

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- [2] J. D. Jackson. *Classical Electrodynamics*. John Wiley & Sons, New York, 3rd edition, 1999.