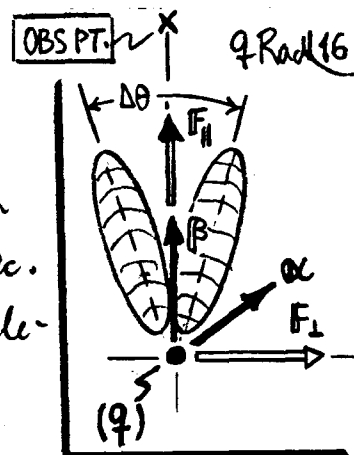


Δ distribution for ultrarelativistic q, at $\beta \rightarrow 1$.

12) A semi-quantitative argument re the radiation emitted by an extremely relativistic q ($\beta \rightarrow 1, \gamma \rightarrow \infty$) is made in Jackson's Sec. 14.4. It is worth repeating here. q is acted upon by an accelerating force \mathbf{F} w/ components F_{\parallel} & F_{\perp} w.r.t. its velocity β .



For accelⁿ α due to \mathbf{F} , know (from above linear/circular comparison, Eq. (49)) that comparative radiation rates go as: $P_{\parallel}(\text{due to } F_{\parallel})/P_{\perp}(\text{due to } F_{\perp}) = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \rightarrow 0, \beta \rightarrow 1$.

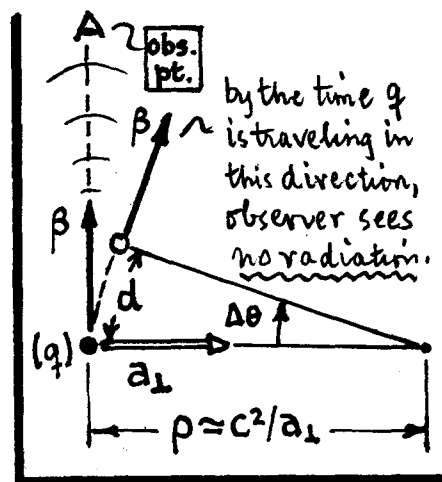
So, for ultrarelativistic q, radiation loss P comes mainly from F_{\perp} & α_{\perp} . As far as loss P is concerned, q moves in a circle whose instantaneous radius is ρ , such that: $a_{\perp} = v^2/\rho$, or: $\rho \approx c^2/a_{\perp}$.

q's radiation is only seen in a forward direction, in cone of $\Delta \theta \sim \frac{1}{\gamma} \rightarrow \text{small}$. (for $\Delta \theta$, see Jkⁿ Fig. (14.4), and Eq. (14.40)). So observer -- situated along q's instantaneous travel direction β , only sees q's radiation for a brief instant, before q turns away under the transverse acceleration α_{\perp} .

During the time when observer sees radⁿ, q travels a distance d along its "orbit" of radius ρ , so...

$$\rightarrow d = \rho \Delta \theta \approx \rho/\gamma \Rightarrow \frac{\text{broadcast time}}{\Delta t} \} \Delta t = \frac{d}{v} \approx \rho/v\gamma. \quad (50)$$

During this "broadcast", the leading edge of the radiation pulse travels distance $z = c\Delta t \approx \rho/\beta\gamma$ toward the observer. The pulse cuts off when q has moved up the z-axis by distance $d \cos \Delta \theta \approx d$. So pulse length & duration are:



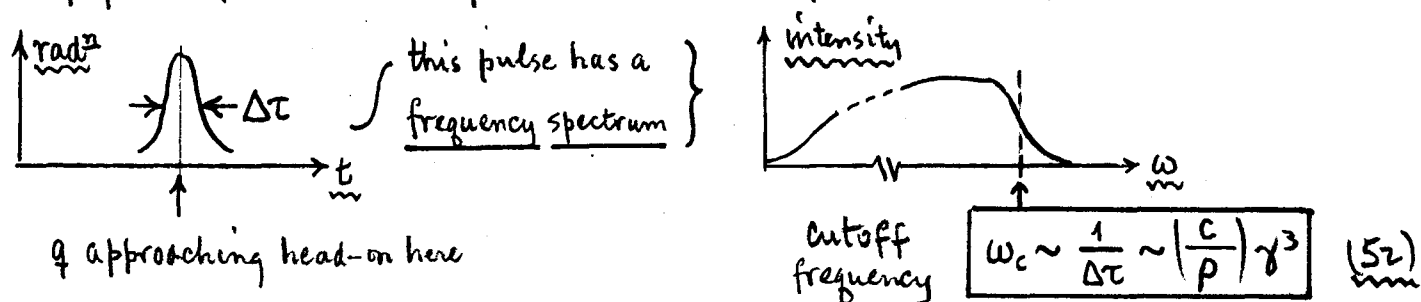
length: $\Delta z \approx z - d \approx \left(\frac{1}{\beta} - 1\right) \frac{\rho}{\gamma} \approx \rho/2\gamma^3$; duration: $\Delta \tau = \frac{\Delta z}{c} \approx \frac{\rho}{2c\gamma^3}. \quad (51)$

* Have used: $\gamma^2 = 1/(1-\beta^2) = 1/((1+\beta)(1-\beta)) \approx 1/2(1-\beta)$, as $\beta \rightarrow 1$. Then: $(1-\beta) \approx 1/2\gamma^2$.

Frequency Spectrum of an ultrarelativistic q .

9 Rad 17

Now have the picture that as q moves by the observer, observer sees a short, sharp pulse of radiation of duration $\Delta\tau \approx p/2c\gamma^3 \rightarrow 0$, so...



This is the Key Result for this analysis... an ultrarelativistic q radiates over a broad band of frequencies, from $\omega=0$ up to a cutoff frequency ω_c [Eq.(52)], which can be arbitrarily large as $\beta \rightarrow 1$ and $\gamma \rightarrow \text{large}$.

If q is actually moving in a synchrotron orbit of radius p , then

$$\left[\omega_c \sim (E/mc^2)^3 \omega_s \right] \begin{cases} E = \text{particle energy,} \\ \omega_s \approx c/p, \text{ orbit freq.} \end{cases} \quad (53)$$

Specs on TANTULUS I (Wisconsin) electron storage synchrotron...

$$\left[\begin{aligned} E &= 0.24 \text{ GeV} \Rightarrow \gamma = E/mc^2 = 470. \\ p &= 0.64 \text{ m} \Rightarrow \omega_s = c/p = 4.69 \times 10^8 \text{ Hz.} \end{aligned} \right. \begin{array}{l} \text{(and CW beam)} \\ \text{current} \sim 200 \text{ mA} \end{array}$$

$$\omega_c \sim \gamma^3 \omega_s \sim 5 \times 10^{16} \text{ Hz} \leftrightarrow \underline{30 \text{ eV photons.}} \quad (54)$$

Such synchrotron radiation is used in surface science experiments.

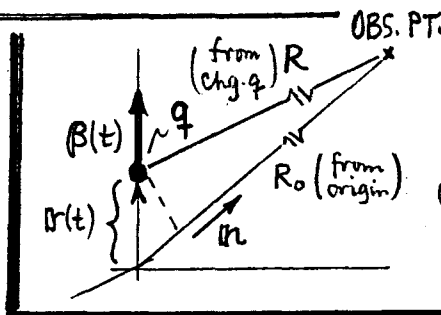
In Secs. 14.5 & 14.6, Jackson proceeds to analyse synchrotron radiation in detail, working out angular distributions, polarization of the radiation, and frequency distributions. As $\gamma \rightarrow \text{large}$, the radiation is mainly confined to lie in the orbit plane, and is polarized in that plane (i.e. the radiation E-field \sim lies in the orbit plane). The high frequency cutoff ($1/e$ peak) actually occurs at : $\omega_c \approx 3\gamma^3(c/p)$, so estimates in Eq.(54) are conservative.

Synchrotron Radiation [Jackson, Sec. (14.6)]

13) As an application of the general radiation formula [Jackson Eq. (14.67)]:

energy per unit solid $\Delta \Omega$ and freq. interval $d\omega$ }
$$\frac{d^2 I}{d\Omega d\omega} = \frac{q^2 \omega^2}{4\pi^2 c} \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \boldsymbol{\beta}(t))] e^{i\omega[t - \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)]} dt \right|^2, \quad (1)$$

(for a fully relativistic point q in arbitrary motion at velocity $\boldsymbol{\beta}(t)$ [geometry at right]), we consider a charge in circular motion

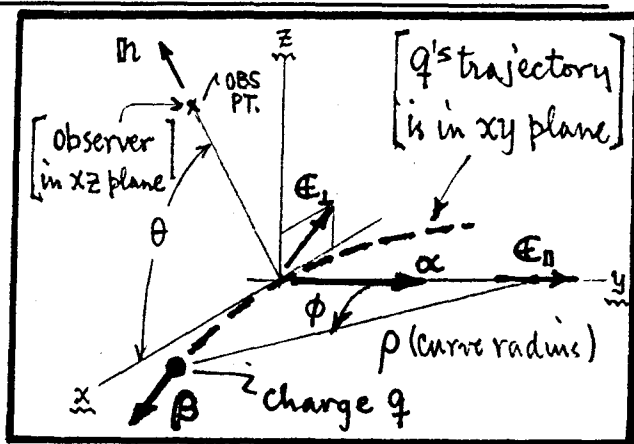


If $R_0 \gg r$, then $\mathbf{n} \sim \text{const}$ in time,
 And// $\underline{R \approx R_0 - \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}}$ *

(at least instantaneously -- i.e. q could be in a stable synchrotron orbit at radius ρ , or -- at a given instant -- its orbit could have radius-of-curvature ρ).

NOTE In the time integral in Eq. (1), the observer's unit vector \mathbf{n} is const in time, for the "radiation zone approxn" we are using. * In the integrand, however, it is still true that q's velocity $\boldsymbol{\beta}(t)$ can change arbitrarily, in both magnitude & direction. Also, in the phase factor, q's position $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is \sim arbitrary (except $r \ll R_0$). Since -- for a radiation event lasting Δt -- q's position change $\Delta r \sim c \Delta t$, both terms in the phase are comparable, and any further approximations would render Eq. (1) useless. All further simplifications in using Eq. (1) come from choosing "simple" trajectories $\mathbf{r} \& \boldsymbol{\beta}$.

1) A "simple" geometry -- for circular motion of q -- is shown at right [Jackson Fig. (14.9)]... q moves in a circular orbit of radius ρ in the xy plane; the observer is in the xz plane, oriented at latitude θ . As $\beta \rightarrow 1$, observer sees only a short flash of radiation



* This is the only approxn made in getting to Eq. (1), i.e. the observation distance R_0 is large compared to the characteristic length r over which q radiates.

as q passes origin. We want to calculate $d^2I/d\omega d\Omega$ for this motion (for $\beta \rightarrow 1$), principally as a fn of the observer's orientation θ [note: $\theta=0 \Rightarrow$ observer is in the orbit plane; $\theta \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ observer is out of plane], and we want to keep track of the polarization of the radiation[¶]... i.e. does the emitted radiation have its \mathbf{E} -vector in or out of the orbit plane?

In the integrand in Eq. (1), have: $\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \boldsymbol{\beta}) = (\mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}) \mathbf{n} - \boldsymbol{\beta}$, which gives vector directions associated with the radiation fields. But $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta}(t)$ changes in time, so it is not suitable for keeping track of polarization. For this reason, the decomposition of $\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \boldsymbol{\beta})$ is done in terms of two other fixed vectors:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{E}_{\parallel} = \text{unit vector along } y\text{-axis (in orbit plane, } \parallel \text{ inst. acceleration } \vec{\alpha}), \\ \mathbf{E}_{\perp} = \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{E}_{\parallel}, \text{ unit vector (} \mathbf{E}_{\perp} \text{ is out of orbit plane, } \parallel z\text{-axis when } \theta \rightarrow 0). \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Straightforward vector conjuring then gives the integrand term...

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \boldsymbol{\beta} [-\mathbf{E}_{\parallel} \sin \phi + \mathbf{E}_{\perp} \cos \phi \sin \theta], \quad (\phi = vt/\rho), \quad (3)$$

where $\phi = vt/\rho$ is the azimuthal \angle traced by q 's orbit near the origin. Note the time dependence of $\boldsymbol{\beta}(t)$ is now neatly sequestered in ϕ . Note also that with fixed \mathbf{E}_{\parallel} (in orbit plane) and \mathbf{E}_{\perp} (out of orbit plane), we can keep track of the polarization of the contributions to $d^2I/d\omega d\Omega$.

15) The other t -dept term in Eq. (1) is the phase. In the chosen geometry...

$$\rightarrow \omega [t - \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)] = \omega [t - \frac{1}{c} \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta], \quad (\phi = vt/\rho) \quad (4)$$

This is the end of the beginning... now we just need to put this phase in Eq. (1), together with $\mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{n} \times \boldsymbol{\beta})$ of Eq. (3), to find the desired radiation intensity. Unfortunately, the resulting integral is not doable (i.e. not tabulated), and so

[¶] The polarization is important for experimental reasons (transition selection rules, etc.)

We need some further approximations to get a compact result. What proves useful is to note -- in $\mathbf{r} \times (\mathbf{r} \times \beta)$ of Eq. (3) and the phase of Eq. (4) -- that (because of the headlight effect as $\beta \rightarrow 1$) no usefully large radiation will be detected for large θ (out of the orbit plane); then $\theta \rightarrow$ small, and the trig fns in Eqs (3) & (4) are: $\sin \theta \approx \theta$, $\cos \theta \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2} \theta^2$. Also, the $\phi = vt/\rho \rightarrow$ small, since the observed radiation pulse is short, and -- keeping terms to $\mathcal{O}(t^3)$ -- $\sin \phi \approx \phi - \frac{1}{6} \phi^3$, $\cos \phi \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2} \phi^2$. Putting this all together, find...

$$\rightarrow \frac{d^2 I}{d\omega d\Omega} \approx \frac{q^2 \omega^2}{4\pi^2 c} | -\epsilon_{\parallel} Z_{\parallel}(\omega) + \epsilon_{\perp} Z_{\perp}(\omega) |^2;$$

$$\text{w/ } Z_{\parallel}(\omega) = \frac{\rho}{c} (\theta^2 + \gamma^{-2}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{\frac{3}{2} i \xi (x + \frac{1}{3} x^3)} dx, \quad \xi = \frac{\omega \rho}{3c} (\theta^2 + \gamma^{-2}). \quad (5)$$

$$Z_{\perp}(\omega) = \frac{\rho}{c} \theta (\theta^2 + \gamma^{-2}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\frac{3}{2} i \xi (x + \frac{1}{3} x^3)} dx.$$

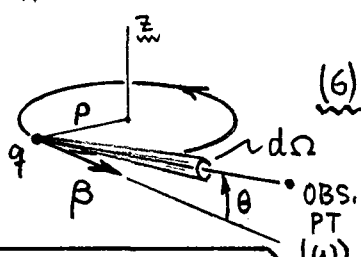
... after some arithmetic [N.B. $\mathcal{O}(t^3)$ terms are retained in the phase only]. The major approxs now are that $\theta \rightarrow$ small and $\beta \rightarrow 1$. But the integrals are now "well-known"... they give modified Bessel fns $K_{\nu}(\xi)$ for $\nu = \frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$. Finally, the detailed frequency distribution for "synchrotron radiation" is (for $\theta \rightarrow 0$ & $\gamma \gg 1$):

ickson 4.83) $\frac{d^2 I}{d\omega d\Omega} \approx \frac{q^2}{3\pi^2 c} \left(\frac{\omega \rho}{c}\right)^2 (\theta^2 + \gamma^{-2})^2 \left[K_{\frac{2}{3}}^2(\xi) + \left(\frac{\theta^2}{\theta^2 + \gamma^{-2}}\right) K_{\frac{1}{3}}^2(\xi) \right],$

w/ $\xi = \frac{\omega \rho}{3c} (\theta^2 + \gamma^{-2}).$

\uparrow pol³n_{||} orbit plane

\uparrow pol³n_⊥ orbit plane



(6)

REMARKS

1. This formula \Rightarrow q 's radiation is polarized mainly in orbit plane (\parallel pol³n intensity is 7x \perp pol³n intensity (over all ω)).
2. Since $K_{\nu}(\xi) \sim \sqrt{\pi/2\xi} e^{-\xi}$ as $\xi \rightarrow$ large, the radiation is negligible at "large" θ 's (for ω fixed) or at "high" ω 's (for θ fixed). The low freq. behavior follows from: $K_{\nu}(\xi) \approx \frac{1}{2} \Gamma(\nu) \left(\frac{2}{\xi}\right)^{\nu}$, $\xi \rightarrow 0$.
3. Overall, q 's radiation is \sim confined to the orbit plane, and broadcasts frequencies from $\omega = 0$ up to a cutoff $\omega \approx \omega_c = 3\gamma^3 c/\rho$. The asymptotic behaviors are (up to numerical factors):

$$\frac{d^2 I}{d\omega d\Omega} \sim \frac{q^2}{c} (\omega \rho/c)^{\frac{2}{3}}, \quad \omega \rightarrow 0; \quad \frac{d^2 I}{d\omega d\Omega} \sim \frac{q^2}{c} \gamma^2 \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_c}\right) e^{-\frac{2\omega}{\omega_c}}, \quad \omega \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$$

4. Freqs $\omega > \omega_c$ @ useful intensity, only up to $\theta_c \approx \frac{1}{\gamma} \sqrt{\frac{\omega_c}{3\omega}}$. Etc.

