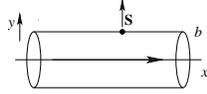


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Cherenkov Radiation

First, let's find the energy loss of a heavy fast charged particle differently.

Consider a cylinder of radius b around the track of the projectile. What is flux of energy out of cylinder? The Poynting vector is the flux of escaping energy $\vec{S} = c\vec{E} \times \vec{B}/4\pi$.



We calculated $\vec{E}(0, b, 0)$ earlier, and found $E_z = 0$, so the outward energy flux $S_2 = -cE_1 B_3/4\pi$. Integrating the energy flux leaving the cylinder gives the rate of energy loss by the projectile:

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} = \frac{c}{4\pi} 2\pi b \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx E_1(x, b, 0, t) B_3(x, b, 0, t).$$

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Integrating over x is like integrating over t , so

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} &= (1/v) \frac{\partial E}{\partial t} = \frac{c}{4\pi} 2\pi b \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt E_1(0, b, 0, t) B_3(0, b, 0, t) \\ &= cb \text{Re} \int_0^{\infty} d\omega B_3^*(\omega) E_1(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

where the fields are evaluated at $(0, b, 0)$. From last time we have

$$E_1(\omega) = -i \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{ze\omega}{v^2} \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon(\omega)} - \beta^2 \right) K_0(\lambda b).$$

We also saw the source for \vec{A} is \vec{J} , so it has only an x component, and

$$\begin{aligned} B_3(\vec{k}, \omega) &= -ik_2 A_1 = -i\epsilon(\omega) k_2 (v/c) \Phi(\vec{k}, \omega) \\ &= \epsilon(\omega) (v/c) E_2(\vec{k}, \omega), \end{aligned}$$

so using the result for E_2 from last time,

$$B_3(\vec{x} = (0, b, 0), \omega) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{ze\lambda}{c} K_1(\lambda b).$$

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Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right) &= bc \text{Re} \int_0^{\infty} d\omega E_1(\omega) B_3^*(\omega) \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{z^2 e^2}{v^2} \text{Re} \int_0^{\infty} d\omega (i\omega\lambda^* b) K_1(\lambda^* b) K_0(\lambda b) \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon(\omega)} - \beta^2 \right). \end{aligned}$$

This result is due to Fermi.

Cherenkov Radiation

We can use the same calculation to find the flux of energy macroscopically far from the projectile, at a distance a with $\lambda a \gg 1$. We can use the asymptotic forms

$$K_\nu(z) = \sqrt{\pi/2z} e^{-z} \text{ of the modified Bessel functions, and } \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} = \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{z^2 e^2}{v^2} \text{Re} \int_0^{\infty} d\omega \frac{i\omega\lambda^* a}{\sqrt{\lambda\lambda^*}} \frac{\pi}{2a} \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon(\omega)} - \beta^2 \right) e^{-2\text{Re}\lambda a}.$$

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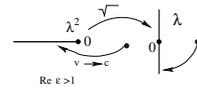
Power Radiated

Cherenkov Radiation

Recall

$$\lambda^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{v^2} (1 - \beta^2 \epsilon(\omega)).$$

While ϵ is generally mostly real, it does have a positive imaginary part. For low velocity, or for high ω where $\epsilon \rightarrow 1$, λ^2 is basically positive and we are meant to take λ positive, except for a small negative imaginary part. So the energy drops exponentially with distance a . But speed up until $\beta^2 \text{Re} \epsilon(\omega) > 1$, then λ becomes imaginary in the lower half plane. $\sqrt{\lambda^*}/\lambda \rightarrow i$, and for $|\lambda a| \gg 1$,



$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right) = \frac{z^2 e^2}{c^2} \text{Re} \int_{\beta^2 \epsilon(\omega) > 1} d\omega \omega \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 \epsilon(\omega)} \right).$$

Energy not falling off, must be in radiation zone, wave moving in $\vec{E} \times \vec{B}$ direction.

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The Cherenkov shock wave

We calculated $\vec{A} \parallel \vec{v}$, so $\vec{B} \perp \vec{v}$, in z direction at $(0, b, 0)$. So direction of wave $\perp \vec{E}$, or $\tan \theta_C = -E_1/E_2$. We found

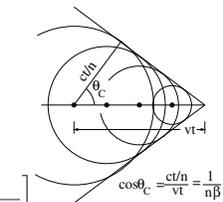
$$E_1 = i \frac{ze\omega}{c^2} \left[1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 \epsilon(\omega)} \right] \frac{e^{-\lambda b}}{\sqrt{\lambda b}}$$

$$\text{and } E_2 = \frac{ze}{v\epsilon(\omega)} \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{b}} e^{-\lambda b} \text{ so}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tan \theta_C &= -\frac{E_1}{E_2} \\ &= -i \frac{v\omega\epsilon(\omega)}{c^2 \lambda} \left[1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 \epsilon(\omega)} \right] \\ &= \sqrt{\beta^2 \epsilon(\omega) - 1}, \end{aligned}$$

where I used $\lambda = -i|\lambda|$ in the Cherenkov region. Then

$$\cos \theta_C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \tan^2 \theta_C}} = \frac{1}{\beta \sqrt{\epsilon(\omega)}} = \frac{1}{\beta n(\omega)}.$$



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We needed elaborate calculation to find intensity, but every freshman can find θ_C . Consider wavefront from successive circles of emitted light, spreading with speed $c/n = c/\sqrt{\epsilon}$ in the medium. We see right away that $\cos \theta_C = c/nv = 1/\beta n(\omega)$.

Note the polarization is 100% polarized, as \vec{B} is out of the plane.

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Energy loss from scattering of electrons
 Beam direction changed by scattering off heavy particles (nuclei)
 Rutherford scattering, dominated by small angles, so

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \approx \left(\frac{2zZe^2}{pv} \right)^2 \frac{1}{\theta^4}$$

with charge of nucleus Ze , p and v of projectile, and θ its scattering angle (in the lab).
 Limits of applicability at small and large angles.

Small angles — note $\sigma = 2\pi \int_0^{\theta_{\max}} \frac{\sin \theta d\theta}{\theta^4} \rightarrow \infty$, not right.
 We calculated charge of nucleus, ignored screening by electrons in atom — need cutoff for large b .

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Fix for small angles

Phenomenological fix for small angles. Take

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{2zZe^2}{pv} \right)^2 \frac{1}{(\theta^2 + \theta_{\min}^2)^2}$$

θ_{\min} not really minimum scattering angle — still have cross section at $\theta = 0$. Several choices, all given by total cross section is roughly πa^2 , where a is the radius of electron cloud.

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= 2\pi \left(\frac{2zZe^2}{pv} \right)^2 \int_0^\pi \frac{\sin \theta}{(\theta^2 + \theta_{\min}^2)^2} d\theta \\ &\approx 2\pi \left(\frac{2zZe^2}{pv} \right)^2 \int_0^\infty \frac{\theta d\theta}{(\theta^2 + \theta_{\min}^2)^2} \\ &= \pi \left(\frac{2zZe^2}{pv} \right)^2 \int_0^\infty \frac{du}{(u + \theta_{\min}^2)^2} = \left(\frac{2zZe^2}{pv} \right)^2 \frac{\pi}{\theta_{\min}^2} \end{aligned}$$

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RMS Scattering Angle

Large angles are not bigger than π . Also, if projectile penetrates nucleus, scattering softens. So set $d\sigma/d\Omega = 0$ for $\theta > \theta_{\max}$.

Projectile suffers many small angle scatterings. Mean change in direction is zero, but average square is

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \theta^2 \rangle &= \frac{\int \theta^2 \sin \theta (d\sigma/d\Omega) d\theta}{\int \sin \theta (d\sigma/d\Omega) d\theta} \approx \frac{\int_0^{\theta_{\max}} \theta^3 d\theta / (\theta^2 + \theta_{\min}^2)^2}{\int_0^{\theta_{\max}} \theta d\theta / (\theta^2 + \theta_{\min}^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{\int_0^{\theta_{\max}^2} du u / (u + \theta_{\min}^2)^2}{\int_0^{\theta_{\max}^2} du / (u + \theta_{\min}^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{\ln(u + \theta_{\min}^2) \Big|_0^{\theta_{\max}^2} + \theta_{\min}^2 / (\theta_{\max}^2 + \theta_{\min}^2) - 1}{1/\theta_{\min}^2 - 1/(\theta_{\max}^2 + \theta_{\min}^2)} \\ &\approx 2\theta_{\min}^2 \ln \frac{\theta_{\max}}{\theta_{\min}} \end{aligned}$$

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The number of scatterings in traversing a thickness t is $N\sigma t$, and the mean square of the independent scatterings is the sum of the individual mean squares, so if Θ is the total change in angle (in thickness t),

$$\langle \Theta^2 \rangle = N\sigma t \langle \theta^2 \rangle = 2\pi N \left(\frac{2zZe^2}{pv} \right)^2 \ln \left(\frac{\theta_{\max}}{\theta_{\min}} \right) t$$

This fuzziness in the direction of the track will limit the accuracy with which one can determine the initial direction of a charged particle emerging from a collision in a detector, or determine the momentum of a charged particle from its track bending in a magnetic field.

We will skip the rest of Chapter 13.

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Radiation by Moving Charges

A charge undergoing a specified motion gives EM radiation. Assuming no incoming field, electromagnetic fields given by the retarded Green's function with the point particle source. Lect. 17

$$D_r(z^\mu) = \frac{\Theta(z^0)}{4\pi R} \delta(z^0 - R), \quad (1)$$

where $R = |\vec{z}|$, and the source of a point particle is

$$J^\mu(x^\nu) = qc \int d\tau \delta^4(x^\nu - r^\nu(\tau)) U^\mu(\tau), \quad (2)$$

$r^\mu(\tau)$ is world-line (position of charges particle at its proper time τ), $U^\mu(\tau)$ is its 4-velocity.

Note $\Theta(z^0)\delta(z^\mu z_\mu) = \Theta(z^0)\delta(z_0^2 - R^2) = \Theta(z^0)\delta[(z_0 - R)(z_0 + R)] = \frac{1}{2R}\delta(z_0 - R)$, so

$$D_r(z^\mu) = \frac{\Theta(z^0)}{2\pi} \delta(z_\mu z^\mu), \quad (3)$$

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The radiation field is thus

$$\begin{aligned} A^\mu(x^\nu) &= \frac{4\pi}{c} \int d^4x' D_r(x - x') J^\mu(x') \\ &= 2q \int d^4x' d\tau \Theta(x^0 - x'^0) \delta((x - x')^2) \delta^4(x^\nu - r^\nu(\tau)) U^\mu(\tau) \\ &= 2q \int d\tau \Theta(x^0 - r^0(\tau)) \delta((x - r(\tau))^2) U^\mu(\tau). \end{aligned}$$

Use δ function to do $\int d\tau$, using

$$\delta(f(\tau)) = \sum_{\tau_j} \frac{1}{|df/d\tau|_{\tau_j}} \delta(\tau - \tau_j),$$

(where τ_j are the set of points for which $f(\tau)$ vanishes). Here that means $r^\mu(\tau)$ lies on the light-cone of x^μ , and the Θ restricts us to the *backward* light cone. So have only one point, in the past, when the particle crossed the light cone.

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As $d(x - r(\tau))^2/d\tau = -2(x^\rho - r^\rho(\tau))U_\rho(\tau)$, we find

$$A^\mu(x^\nu) = q \frac{U^\mu(\tau)}{(x^\rho - r^\rho(\tau))U_\rho} \Big|_{\tau_0},$$

where τ_0 is the point of crossing the light cone. This is the Liénard-Wiechert potential.

$F^{\mu\nu}$

To get \vec{E} and \vec{B} , or $F^{\mu\nu}$, differentiate:

$$\partial^\alpha A^\beta = 2q \int d\tau \left[(\partial^\alpha \Theta(x^0 - r^0(\tau))) \delta((x - r(\tau))^2) U^\mu(\tau) + \Theta(x^0 - r^0(\tau)) \partial^\alpha \delta((x - r(\tau))^2) U^\mu(\tau) \right].$$

In the first term, $\partial^\alpha \Theta(x^0 - r^0(\tau)) = \delta_0^\alpha \delta(x^0 - r^0(\tau))$, contributes only if x^μ and $r^\mu(\tau)$ are at the same time, but the δ function requires $r^\mu(\tau)$ is on the light-cone of x^μ , so it is zero unless x^μ is on the path of the particle, which we will ignore. What remains contains $\partial^\alpha \delta(f(x^\mu, \tau))$, where $f = (x^\mu - r^\mu(\tau))^2$.

As the delta function only depends on f , the chain rule says

$$\begin{aligned} \partial^\alpha \delta(f(x^\mu, \tau)) &= \left(\frac{d}{df} \delta(f) \right) \partial^\alpha f \\ &= 2(x^\alpha - r^\alpha(\tau)) \left(\frac{df}{d\tau} \right)^{-1} \frac{d}{d\tau} \delta(f) \\ &= -\frac{(x - r(\tau))^\alpha}{(x - r(\tau))_\rho U^\rho} \frac{d}{d\tau} \delta(f). \end{aligned}$$

Then, plugging in and integrating by parts,

$$\begin{aligned} \partial^\alpha A^\beta &= -2q \int d\tau \Theta(x^0 - r^0(\tau)) U^\mu(\tau) \frac{(x - r(\tau))^\alpha}{(x - r(\tau))_\rho U^\rho} \\ &\quad \frac{d}{d\tau} \delta((x^\mu - r^\mu(\tau))^2) \\ &= 2q \int d\tau \theta(x^0 - r^0(\tau)) \delta((x^\mu - r^\mu(\tau))^2) \\ &\quad \frac{d}{d\tau} \left(\frac{U^\mu(\tau)(x - r(\tau))^\alpha}{(x - r(\tau))_\rho U^\rho} \right), \end{aligned}$$

We have again ignored the $d\Theta/d\tau$ term and we have discarded surface terms. The $\int d\tau \delta(x^\mu - r^\mu(\tau))$ gives a $U_\beta(x^\beta - r^\beta)$ in the denominator, so

$$F^{\alpha\beta} = \frac{q}{U_\rho(x^\rho - r^\rho(\tau))} \frac{d}{d\tau} \left[\frac{(x - r(\tau))^\alpha U^\beta(\tau) - (x - r(\tau))^\beta U^\alpha(\tau)}{U_\mu(x^\mu - r^\mu(\tau))} \right] \Big|_{\tau_0} \quad (5)$$

Discussing this expression

The τ derivative either acts on a U^α , giving an acceleration, or on an r^α . The expression in [] is unsuppressed far from the path, so overall F could fall like $1/r$, but when the derivative acts on an r^α , it either kills a power in the numerator or adds one in the denominator, so these terms fall off more rapidly.

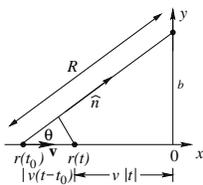
Uniformly Moving Charge

Suppose \vec{v} is constant, so is U^α , and the derivative acts on one $x^\sigma - r^\sigma(\tau)$ giving $-U^\sigma$. The terms from differentiating the numerator cancel, so we get

$$F^{\alpha\beta} = qc^2 \frac{(x - r(\tau))^\alpha U^\beta(\tau) - (x - r(\tau))^\beta U^\alpha(\tau)}{(U_\rho(x^\rho - r^\rho(\tau)))^3}.$$

Take \vec{v} along x axis, with $r_x = vt$, and let's observe from $(0, b, 0)$, so $U^\alpha = (\gamma c, \gamma v, 0, 0)$, $r^\alpha(\tau) = U^\alpha \tau$, $x^\mu = (ct, 0, b, 0)$. The particle left the light-cone at time t_0 for which $(x^\mu - r^\mu(t_0))^2 = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} x^\mu - r^\mu(t_0) &= (c(t - t_0), -vt_0, b, 0), \quad \text{so} \\ c^2(t - t_0)^2 - v^2 t_0^2 - b^2 &= 0. \\ t_0 &= \gamma^2(t - \sqrt{t^2 \beta^2 + b^2/c^2 \gamma^2}). \end{aligned}$$



Its Electric Field

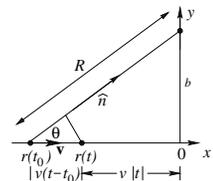
The diagram shows where the particle was at t_0 , when it exited our lightcone, and where it is now at time t (which is < 0). In F 's denominator,

$$\begin{aligned} U_\alpha(x^\alpha - r^\alpha(t_0)) &= \gamma(c^2(t - t_0) + v^2 t_0) \\ &= c^2 \gamma(t - \gamma^{-2} t_0) \\ &= c^2 \gamma \sqrt{t^2 \beta^2 + b^2/c^2 \gamma^2} = c \sqrt{b^2 + v^2 \gamma^2 t^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Let us evaluate the y component of the electric field:

$$E_2 = F_{02} = qc^2 \frac{(x - r)_2 U_0}{(U_\alpha(x - r)^\alpha)^3} = \frac{qb\gamma}{(b^2 + v^2 \gamma^2 t^2)^{3/2}}.$$

For nonrelativistic speeds, $b^2 + v^2 \gamma^2 t^2 \rightarrow R^2$, so $E_2 \rightarrow q \frac{b}{R^3} = q \left(\frac{\vec{x} - \vec{r}}{|\vec{x} - \vec{r}|^3} \right)_y$ as Coulomb told us. But relativistically, the field is squeezed in the direction of the motion.



Power Radiated

We just considered a non-accelerating charge, and we could have found these results by Lorentz transforming the Coulomb field of a particle at rest.

Now consider an accelerating particle and the power it radiates. The Poynting vector gives the flux

$$\vec{S} = \frac{c}{4\pi} \vec{E} \times \vec{B} \rightarrow \frac{c}{4\pi} \vec{E}^2 \hat{n}.$$

General power distribution requires evaluating from (5), but instantaneous power is invariant as energy and time transform the same way, so let's calculate it in the particle's instantaneous rest frame. $\frac{dU^\alpha}{d\tau} = (0, \dot{\vec{v}})$,

$$r^\mu = (ct - R, \vec{0}), \quad x^\mu - r^\mu = (R, \vec{R}) = R(1, \hat{n}), \quad U_\alpha(x-r)^\alpha = Rc.$$

In calculating $E_i = F_{0i}$ from (5), the derivative of the numerator

$$\frac{d}{d\tau} [(x-r(\tau))^0 U^i(\tau) - (x-r(\tau))^i U^0(\tau)] \Big|_{\tau_0} = R(-\dot{\vec{v}}) - \vec{r} \cdot 0$$

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while the derivative of the denominator is $\vec{R} \cdot \dot{\vec{v}}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E} &= \sum_i F_{0i} \hat{e}_i = \frac{q}{Rc} \left[\frac{R(-\dot{\vec{v}})}{cR} - \frac{-c\vec{R}(-\dot{\vec{v}}) \cdot \vec{R}}{c^2 R^2} \right] \\ &= -\frac{q}{c^2 R} \left[\dot{\vec{v}} + \hat{n} \hat{n} \cdot \dot{\vec{v}} \right] \\ &= \frac{q}{c^2 R} \hat{n} \times (\hat{n} \times \dot{\vec{v}}). \end{aligned}$$

Then the power per steradian is

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{q^2}{4\pi c^3} |\hat{n} \times \dot{\vec{v}}|^2 = \frac{q^2}{4\pi c^3} |\dot{\vec{v}}|^2 \sin^2(\psi),$$

where ψ is the angle between the acceleration and the vector \hat{n} pointing to the observer. The integral gives

$$P = \frac{2q^2}{3c^3} |\dot{\vec{v}}|^2.$$

This is the power radiated in the momentary rest frame.

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Power in any frame

Jackson argues that we can get the relativistic equation by noting that the power needs to be an invariant expression built from U^α (or p^α) and the first derivative $dp^\alpha/d\tau$.

The formula in the rest frame can be expressed as

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{m^2 c^3} \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} \cdot \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = -\frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{m^2 c^3} \frac{dp^\alpha}{d\tau} \frac{dp_\alpha}{d\tau} \quad \text{in the rest frame,}$$

but the last expression is invariant. In any other frame, it gives

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{m^2 c^3} \left[\left(\frac{d\vec{p}}{d\tau} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{dE}{d\tau} \right)^2 \right].$$

As $E = mc^2 \gamma$, $\vec{p} = mc\gamma\vec{\beta}$, and $d/d\tau = \gamma d/dt$, noting from $\gamma^{-2} = 1 - \beta^2$ that $-2\gamma^{-3} d\gamma = -2\beta d\beta$, so $d\gamma = \gamma^3 \beta d\beta$, the term in brackets is

$$m^2 c^2 \gamma^2 \left[(\gamma^3 \beta \dot{\beta} \vec{\beta} + \gamma \dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - (\gamma^3 \beta \dot{\beta})^2 \right]$$

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Then

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{2q^2}{3c} \gamma^2 \left[(\gamma^3 \beta \dot{\beta} \vec{\beta} + \gamma \dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - (\gamma^3 \beta \dot{\beta})^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{2q^2}{3c} \gamma^2 \left[\gamma^6 \beta^4 (\dot{\beta})^2 + 2\gamma^4 \beta \dot{\beta} \vec{\beta} \cdot \dot{\vec{\beta}} + \gamma^2 (\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - \gamma^6 \beta^2 \dot{\beta}^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{2q^2}{3c} \left[\gamma^6 \dot{\beta}^2 (\gamma^2 \beta^4 - \gamma^2 \beta^2 + 2\beta^2) + \gamma^4 (\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

because $\vec{\beta} \cdot \dot{\vec{\beta}} = \frac{1}{2} d\beta^2/dt = \frac{1}{2} d\beta^2/dt = \beta \dot{\beta}$. But $\gamma^2(\beta^4 - \beta^2) = -\beta^2$, so

$$P = \frac{2q^2}{3c} \gamma^6 \left(\gamma^{-2} (\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - \beta^2 \dot{\beta}^2 \right).$$

The parentheses may be rewritten

$$(\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - \beta^2 ((\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - \dot{\beta}^2) = (\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - (\vec{\beta} \times \dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 \quad \text{because}$$

$(\vec{\beta} \times \dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 = (\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 (\beta^2) - (\vec{\beta} \cdot \dot{\vec{\beta}})^2$ and the last term is $-\beta^2 \dot{\beta}^2$ as explained above. So all in all,

$$P = \frac{2q^2}{3c} \gamma^6 \left[(\dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 - (\vec{\beta} \times \dot{\vec{\beta}})^2 \right].$$

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A reading assignment

The rest of section 14.2 is certainly important but straightforward, so I will not rewrite it. You should read it.

Physics 504,
Spring 2010
Electricity
and
Magnetism
Shapiro

Cherenkov
Radiation
Energy loss
Cherenkov
Radiation

Hard
Scattering

Radiation by
Moving
Charges

Power
Radiated