

We discuss here the Thomson scattering of a point particle by an incoming electromagnetic monochromatic wave. The radiation fields are given by:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c R} \left(\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \right), \quad \mathbf{B} = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c^2 R} \left[\mathbf{n} \wedge \left((\mathbf{n} \wedge \dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \wedge \mathbf{n} \right) \right], \quad (1)$$

where R is the distance between the observer and the particle. The Poynting vector is therefore given by:

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{e^2}{16\pi^2\epsilon_0 c} |\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}})|^2 \frac{\mathbf{n}}{R^2}, \quad (2)$$

so the emitted power per unit solid angle is:

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{e^2}{16\pi^2\epsilon_0 c} |\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}})|^2. \quad (3)$$

The incoming electric field of the incident wave can be written as:

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}-\omega t)} + \text{c.c.} = \boldsymbol{\epsilon} E_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}-\omega t)} + \text{c.c.} = 2(\text{Re}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}) E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x} - \omega t) - 2(\text{Im}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}) E_0 \sin(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x} - \omega t), \quad (4)$$

where E_0 is now a real constant and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ satisfies the conditions:

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^* \cdot \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = 1, \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 0. \quad (5)$$

The equation of motion for the free particle is therefore:

$$m\dot{\mathbf{v}} = e(\boldsymbol{\epsilon} E_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}-\omega t)} + \text{c.c.}), \quad (6)$$

from which one can derive $\dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$. The incoming energy flux can be derived from the Poynting vector, $S_{in} = 2\epsilon_0 c |\mathbf{E}_0|^2 = 2\epsilon_0 c E_0^2$, from which we find the cross section as:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{1}{S_{in}} \frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{e^2}{16\pi^2\epsilon_0 c} \frac{1}{2\epsilon_0 c E_0^2} \left(\frac{e}{mc} \right)^2 |\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \mathbf{E})|^2. \quad (7)$$

The quantity $|\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \mathbf{E})|^2$ must be averaged over time and over the initial polarization of the electromagnetic wave. Averaging over time, we get:

$$|\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \mathbf{E})|^2 = |\mathbf{n} \wedge \left[\mathbf{n} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\epsilon} E_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}-\omega t)} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^* e^{-i(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}-\omega t)}) \right]|^2 = 2(\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \boldsymbol{\epsilon} E_0)) \cdot (\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^* E_0)) = 2E_0^2 |\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \boldsymbol{\epsilon})|^2. \quad (8)$$

We can rewrite the last result using

$$[\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \boldsymbol{\epsilon})]_i = \epsilon_{ijk} n_j \epsilon_{klm} n_l \epsilon_m = (\delta_{il} \delta_{jm} - \delta_{im} \delta_{jl}) n_j n_l \epsilon_m = (n \cdot \boldsymbol{\epsilon}) n_i - \epsilon_i = (\delta_{ij} - n_i n_j) \epsilon_j. \quad (9)$$

Averaging over polarizations, we then find:

$$\langle |\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \boldsymbol{\epsilon})|^2 \rangle = \langle (\delta_{ij} - n_i n_j) \epsilon_j (\delta_{ik} - n_i n_k) \epsilon_k^* \rangle = (\delta_{ij} - n_i n_j) (\delta_{ik} - n_i n_k) \langle \epsilon_j \epsilon_k^* \rangle. \quad (10)$$

Now, ϵ lives in the plane orthogonal to the wave vector of the electromagnetic wave; assuming the wave is propagating in the \mathbf{z} direction, $\mathbf{z} = (0, 0, 1)$, ϵ must be a vector in the (x, y) plane. If the incoming wave is not polarized, then $\langle \epsilon_j \epsilon_k^* \rangle$ must be the most symmetric tensor in the (x, y) plane, so we can write:

$$\langle \epsilon_j \epsilon_k^* \rangle = a(\delta_{jk} - z_j z_k), \quad (11)$$

where a is a constant that can be obtained by noticing that $\delta_{ij} \epsilon_i \epsilon_j^* = 1$. So we have:

$$1 = \delta_{ij} \langle \epsilon_i \epsilon_j^* \rangle = a(3 - 1) = 2a, \quad (12)$$

so that $a = 1/2$. We have finally that the average over polarizations can be written as:

$$\langle \epsilon_j \epsilon_k^* \rangle = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_{jk} - z_j z_k). \quad (13)$$

We can now compute the average over time and polarization of the quantity in Eq. (9):

$$\begin{aligned} \langle |\mathbf{n} \wedge (\mathbf{n} \wedge \epsilon)|^2 \rangle &= (\delta_{ij} - n_i n_j)(\delta_{ik} - n_i n_k) \frac{1}{2}(\delta_{jk} - z_j z_k) = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_{jk} - n_j n_k)(\delta_{jk} - z_j z_k) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(3 - 1 - 1 + (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{z})^2) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos^2 \theta). \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

Putting together the results so far obtained in Eq. (7), we find:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{e^4}{16\pi^2 c^4 (\epsilon_0 m)^2} \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos^2 \theta). \quad (15)$$

The total cross section is easily found from the previous expression:

$$\sigma_{tot} = \int d\Omega \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \left(\frac{e^2}{mc^2} \right)^2 \frac{8\pi}{3}. \quad (16)$$

In the case of the electron, the quantity

$$r_0 = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 mc^2} = 2.82 \cdot 10^{-13} cm \quad (17)$$

is called classical electron radius.