



Plane waves, Fourier transforms, Generalised functions and Greens functions

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Outline

- Plane waves
 - Phase velocity and eigenmodes
 - Relation to Fourier series and Fourier transforms
- Fourier transforms of generalised functions
 - Plemej formula
- Laplace transforms and complex frequencies
 - Theorem of residues
 - Causal functions
 - Relations between Laplace and Fourier transforms
- Greens functions
 - Poisson equation
 - d' Alemberts equation
 - Wave equations in temporal gauge

Plane waves

- Plane waves have the form

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{E}_0 \exp(i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} - i\omega t)$$

- With wave number k and frequency ω .
- Why the name plane waves?

- For $|\mathbf{k}| = \omega$, plane waves are solutions to d'Alembert's equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} = \nabla^2 \mathbf{E}$$

- Plane waves are also solutions to Maxwell's equation in vacuum

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} = \nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E})$$

if and only if $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0$.

- i.e. Maxwell's equations in vacuum only allow *transverse waves*!

Phase velocity

- The velocity of a waves front is called the *phase velocity*.
- At $t = 0$ and $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ the phase of the plane wave is: $i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} - i\omega t = 0$
- Where is the corresponding wave front at $t = dt$?
- Assume, $\mathbf{k} = k_x \mathbf{e}_x$, then the wave propagates along the x-axis
- Denote x at the new wave front by dx , then

$$ik_x dx - i\omega dt = 0$$

$$dx = \frac{\omega}{k_x} dt$$

- Thus the phase velocity of a plane wave is thus

$$|\mathbf{v}_{ph}| = \frac{|\omega|}{|\mathbf{k}|} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{v}_{ph} = \frac{\omega}{|\mathbf{k}|} \frac{\mathbf{k}}{|\mathbf{k}|}$$

What is the phase velocity of EM waves in vacuum?

Eigenmodes

- When you put a wave in a “box” it has to satisfy certain boundary conditions.
- *Example*: guitar strings

- The motion is constraint to oscillate only at certain *eigenmodes*, each having an *eigenfrequency*, ω_j , and $k_j = \omega_j/v_{ph}$:

$$E(x, t) \sim \sum_j E_j \cos(k_j x)$$



- How are eigenmodes related to plane waves?

Plane waves and Fourier transforms

- The sum over plane waves that solves a wave equation in a “box” is in fact a *Fourier series*
 - And the amplitudes are the *Fourier coefficients*
- In the infinite domain there are no boundary conditions to restrict the possible frequencies
 - All real frequencies are possible!
 - Sum over all real frequencies means an inverse Fourier transform!
- Fourier transform calculates an “*amplitude density*” in ω -space

$$\tilde{f}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{i\omega t} dt$$

- Inverse Fourier transform is a *sum over all frequencies*

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{f}(\omega) e^{-i\omega t} d\omega$$

Basic theory of Fourier transformed...

- The Fourier integral theorem:
 - $f(t)$ is sectionally continuous over $-\infty < t < \infty$
 - $f(t)$ is defined as
$$f(t) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2} [f(t + \delta) + f(t - \delta)]$$
 - $f(t)$ is *amplitude integrable*, that is,
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)| dt < \infty$$

Then the following identity holds:

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) e^{\pm iy(z-t)} dz dy$$

- Do these function have a Fourier transform?

$$f(t) = 1$$

$$f(t) = \cos(t)$$

$$f(t) = \exp(-t)$$



$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & , t < 0 \\ \exp(-t) & , t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & , t \text{ is rational number} \\ \exp(-t) & , t \text{ is irrational number} \end{cases}$$

What functions have a Fourier transform?

- We are interested in Fourier transform to represent plane waves
 - But plane waves don't have a Fourier transform!!
- **Solution:** Use approximations of $\cos(t)$ that converge asymptotically to $\cos(t)$ – details comes later on...
 - *NOTE:* The asymptotic limits of functions like $\cos(t)$ will be used to define generalised functions, e.g. Dirac δ -function.

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Dirac δ -function

- Dirac's generalised function can be defined as:

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \neq 0 \\ \infty, & x = 0 \end{cases} \quad \& \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

Alternative definitions, as limits of well behaving functions, will be identified later!

- Important example:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f(t)) dt = \sum_{i: f(t_i)=0} \frac{1}{f'(t_i)}$$

Proof: Whenever $|f(t)| > 0$ the contribution is zero. For each $t = t_i$ where $f(t_i) = 0$, perform the integral over a small region $t_i - \varepsilon < t < t_i + \varepsilon$ (where ε is small such $f(t) \approx (t - t_i) f'(t_i)$). Next, use variable substitution to perform the integration in $x = f(t)$, then $dt = dx / f'(t_i)$:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f(t)) dt = \sum_{i: f(t_i)=0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f'(t_i)} \delta(x) dx = \sum_{i: f(t_i)=0} \frac{1}{f'(t_i)}$$

Truncations and Generalised functions

- To approximate the Fourier transform of $f(t) = 1$, use *truncation*.

Truncation of a function $f(t)$:

$$f_T(t) = \begin{cases} f(t), & |t| < T \\ 0 & , |t| > T \end{cases}, \text{ such that } f(t) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} f_T(t)$$

- Then for $f(t) = 1$

$$\mathbf{F}\{f_T(t)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_T(t)e^{-i\omega t} dt = \int_{-T}^T 1e^{-i\omega t} dt = \frac{\sin(\omega t/2)}{\omega/2}$$

- When $T \rightarrow \infty$ then this function is zero everywhere except at $\omega = 0$ and its integral is 2π , i.e.

$$\mathbf{F}\{1\} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin(\omega T/2)}{\omega/2} = 2\pi\delta(\omega)$$

- Note: $\mathbf{F}\{1\}$ exists *only* as an asymptotic of an ordinary function, i.e. a *generalised function*.

More generalised function

- An alternative to truncation is *exponential decay*

$$f_\eta(t) = f(t)e^{-\eta|t|}, \text{ such that } f(t) = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} f_\eta(t)$$

- Three important examples:

– $f(t)=1$:

$$\mathbf{F}\{f_\eta(t)\} = \frac{2\pi\eta}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{F}\{1\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\pi\eta}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} = 2\pi\delta(\omega)$$

– Sign function, $\text{sgn}(t)$: $\mathbf{F}\{\text{sgn}(t)\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{F}\{e^{-\eta|t|} \text{sgn}(t)\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{2i\omega}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} = 2i \wp \left[\frac{1}{\omega} \right]$

– The generalised function is the *Cauchy principal value function*:

$$\wp \frac{1}{\omega} := \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\omega}{\omega^2 + \eta^2} = \begin{cases} 1/\omega, & \text{for } \omega \neq 0 \\ 0 & , \text{ for } \omega = 0 \end{cases}$$

– Heaviside function $f(t)=H(t)$: $\mathbf{F}\{H(t)\} = \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{i}{\omega + i\eta}$

This generalised function is often written as: $\frac{1}{\omega + i0} := \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\omega + i\eta}$

Plemelj formula

- Relation between $H(t)$ and $\text{sgn}(t)$:

$$2H(t) = 1 + \text{sgn}(t)$$

with the Fourier transform:

$$\frac{1}{\omega + i0} = \wp \frac{1}{\omega} - i\pi\delta(\omega)$$

This is known as the *Plemelj formula*

- Note: How we treat $\omega = 0$ matters! ...but why?
- We will use the Plemelj formula when describing resonant wave damping (see later lectures)

Driven oscillator with dissipation

- Example of the Plemelj formula: a driven oscillator with eigenfrequency Ω :

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(t)}{\partial t^2} + \Omega^2 f(t) = E(t)$$

with dissipation coefficient ν :
$$\frac{\partial^2 f(t)}{\partial t^2} + 2\nu \frac{\partial f(t)}{\partial t} + \Omega^2 f(t) = E(t)$$

- Fourier transform: $(-\omega^2 - i2\nu\omega + \Omega^2) f(\omega) = E(\omega)$

- Solution:
$$f(\omega) = \frac{E(\omega)}{-\omega^2 - i2\nu\omega + \Omega^2} = \frac{E(\omega)}{2\hat{\Omega}} \left[\frac{1}{\omega - \hat{\Omega} + i\nu} - \frac{1}{\omega + \hat{\Omega} + i\nu} \right]$$

where $\hat{\Omega} = \sqrt{\Omega^2 - \nu^2}$

- Take limit when damping ν goes to zero:

$$f(\omega) = \frac{E(\omega)}{2\Omega} \left[\frac{1}{\omega - \Omega + i0} - \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega + i0} \right]$$

use Plemelj formula

*Later we'll look at
the inverse transform*

$$f(\omega) = \frac{E(\omega)}{2\Omega} \left[\wp \left(\frac{1}{\omega - \Omega} \right) - \wp \left(\frac{1}{\omega + \Omega} \right) - i\pi\delta(\omega - \Omega) + i\pi\delta(\omega + \Omega) \right]$$

Physics interpretation of Plemelj formula

- For oscillating systems:
eigenfrequency Ω will appear as *resonant denominator*

$$f(\omega) \sim \frac{1}{\omega \pm \Omega} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad f(t) \sim e^{\pm i\Omega t}$$



Including infinitely small dissipation and applying Plemelj formula

$$\frac{1}{\omega - \Omega + i0} = \wp \frac{1}{\omega - \Omega} - i\pi\delta(\omega - \Omega)$$

- Later lectures on the dielectric response of plasma:
When the dissipation goes to zero for a kinetic plasma there is still a wave damping called *Landau damping*, a “collisionless” damping, which comes from the δ -function

$$\text{"damping"} \sim i\pi\delta(\omega - \Omega)$$

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Laplace transforms and complex frequencies (Chapter 8)

- Fourier transform is restricted to handling real frequencies,
 - Not optimal for damped or growing modes
 - For complex frequencies (damped/growing modes) we need the Laplace transforms!
- To understand better the relation between Fourier and Laplace transforms we will first study the **residual theorem** and see it applied to the Fourier transform of **causal functions**.

The Theorem of Residues

- Expand $f(z)$ around singularity, $z=z_i$:

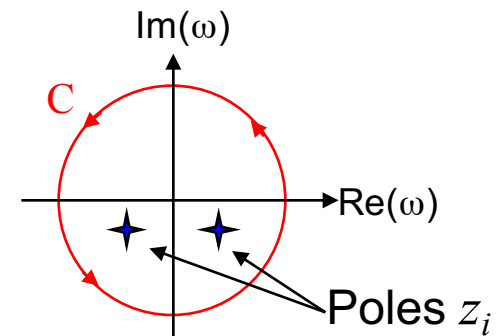
$$f(z) \approx \frac{R_i}{(z - z_i)} + c_0 + c_1(z - z_i) + \dots$$

- the point $z=z_i$ is called a *pole*
 - the numerator R_i is the *residue*
- The integral along closed contour in the complex plane can be solved using *the theorem of residues*

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_i R_i$$

$$R_i = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_i} (z - z_i) f(z)$$

- where the sum is over all poles z_i inside the contour



Example: Theorem of Residues

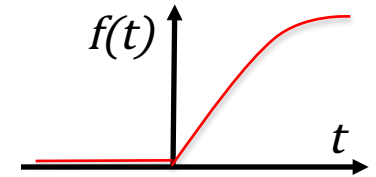
- **Example:** $f(z)=1/z$ and C encircling a poles at $z=0$

$$\int_C f(z)dz = \int_C \frac{1}{z} dz = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{re^{i\theta}} ire^{i\theta} d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} id\theta = 2\pi i$$

where $z = re^{i\theta}$ $dz = ire^{i\theta} d\theta$

Causal functions

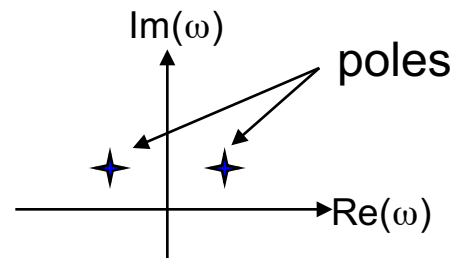
- **Causal functions:** functions f_c that “start” at $t=0$, such that $f_c(t)=0$ for $t<0$.



- **Example:** causal damped oscillation $f_c(t) = e^{-\gamma t} \cos(\Omega t)$, for $t>0$

$$\mathbf{F}\{f_c(t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-i\omega t} e^{-\gamma t} \cos(\Omega t) dt = \frac{i}{2} \left[\frac{1}{\omega - \Omega - i\gamma/2} + \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega - i\gamma/2} \right]$$

- The two denominators are poles in the complex ω plane
- Both poles are in the upper half of the complex plane $\text{Im}(\omega)<0$



- Causal functions are suitable for Laplace transformations
 - to better understand the relation between Laplace and Fourier transforms; study the *inverse* Fourier transform of the causal damped oscillator

Causal functions and contour integration

- Use *residual theory* for the inverse Fourier transform

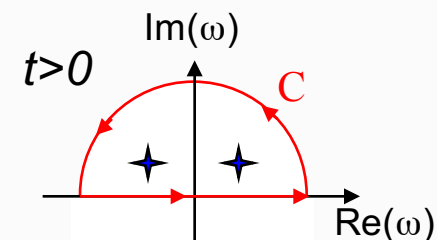
$$\mathbf{F}^{-1}\{f_c(t)\} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int d\omega e^{i\omega t} \left\{ \frac{i}{2} \left[\frac{1}{\omega - \Omega - i\gamma/2} + \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega - i\gamma/2} \right] \right\}$$

For $t > 0$:

- For $\text{Im}(\omega) \rightarrow \infty$, then $e^{i\omega t} \rightarrow 0$ and $\lim_{|\omega| \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{f}_c(\omega) \sim 1/\omega \rightarrow 0$
- Thus, close contour with half circle $\text{Im}(\omega) > 0$
- Inverse Fourier transform is sum of *residues* from poles

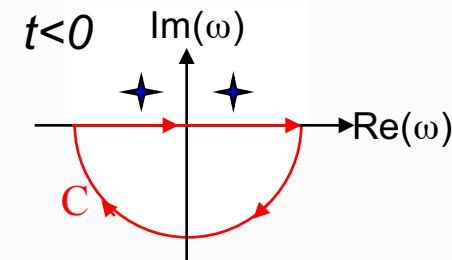
$$f_c(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C e^{i\omega t} \frac{i}{2} \left[\frac{1}{\omega - \Omega + i\gamma/2} + \frac{1}{\omega + \Omega + i\gamma/2} \right] d\omega$$

$$= -\sum_i iR_i = -i \frac{i}{2} \left[e^{(i\Omega - \gamma/2)t} + e^{(-i\Omega - \gamma/2)t} \right]$$



For $t < 0$:

- $e^{i\omega t} \rightarrow 0$, for $\text{Im}(\omega) \rightarrow -\infty$;
close contour with half circle $\text{Im}(\omega) < 0$
- No poles inside contour: $f(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$



Laplace transform

- Laplace transform of function $f(t)$ is

$$F(s) = L\{f(t)\} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

- Like a Fourier transform for a causal function, but $i\omega \rightarrow s$.

- Region of convergence:

- Note: For $\text{Re}(s) < 0$ the integral may not converge since the factor e^{-st} diverges

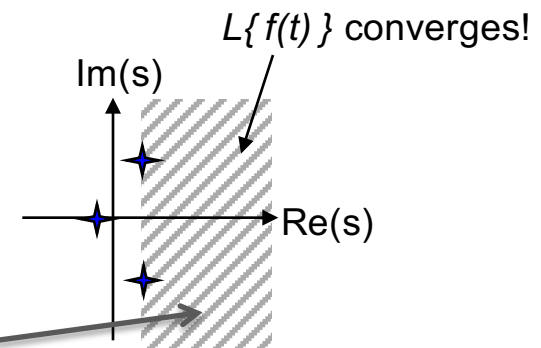
- Consider function $f(t) = e^{\nu t} \Rightarrow F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{(\nu-s)t} dt$

- $F(s)$ is integrable only if $\text{Re}(s) > \text{Re}(\nu)$

Thus, the Laplace transform is only valid for
 $\text{Re}(s) > \text{Re}(\nu)$

Note: $f(t) = e^{\nu t}$ means pole at $s = \nu$, i.e.

poles must be to the right of the **region of convergence**



- **Conclusion:** Laplace transform allows studies of unstable modes; $e^{\gamma t}$!

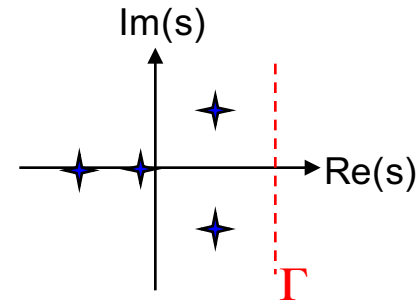
Laplace transform

- Laplace transform

$$F(s) = L\{f(t)\} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

- For causal function the inverse transform is:

$$f(t) = L^{-1}\{F(s)\} = \int_{\Gamma-i\infty}^{\Gamma+i\infty} e^{st} F(s) ds$$



- Here the parameter Γ should be in the **region of convergence**, i.e. chosen such that all poles lie to the **right** of the integral contour $\text{Re}(s)=\Gamma$.

- **Causality:** since all poles lie right of integral contour, $L^{-1}\{f(s)\}(t)=0$, for $t<0$.

- Proof: see inverse Fourier transform for the causal damped harmonic oscillator

(Hint: close contour with semicircle $\text{Re}(s)>0$)

- Thus, **only for causal function** is there an inverse $f(t) = L^{-1}\{L\{f(t)\}\}$

- Again, Laplace transform allows studies of unstable modes; $e^{\gamma t}$!

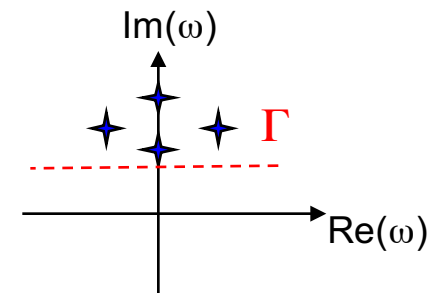
Compare Fourier and Laplace transforms

- Formulas for Laplace and Fourier transform very similar
 - Laplace transform for *complex* growth rate s / Fourier for *real* frequencies ω
 - For causal function, Laplace transform is more powerful
 - For causal function, Fourier transforms and Laplace transforms are similar!
- Let $s=i\omega$; provides alternative formulation of the Laplace transform for causal $f(t)$

$$\hat{F}(\omega) = L\{f(t)\} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{+\infty} e^{-i\omega t} f(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-i\omega t} f(t) dt$$

- Here ω is a *complex frequency*
- The inverse transform for causal functions is

$$f(t) = L^{-1}\{\hat{F}(\omega)\} = \int_{-i\Gamma-\infty}^{-i\Gamma+\infty} e^{i\omega t} \hat{F}(\omega) dt$$



- for decaying modes all poles are above the real axis and $\Gamma=0$.
- **Thus, the Laplace and Fourier transforms are the same for amplitude integrable causal function, but only the Laplace transform is defined for exponentially growing functions.**

Summary so far...

- This course is all about waves!
 - The prototypical wave is the *plane wave*: $\exp(i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} - i\omega t)$
- Sums of waves can be represented using Fourier transforms, but...
 - many important functions have no Fourier transform!
 - They can still be transformed as limits of normal functions
 - The transform yields *generalised functions*, e.g. the Dirac function
- The *Plemelj formula*, important for wave damping:

$$\frac{1}{\omega + i0} = \wp \frac{1}{\omega} - i\pi\delta(\omega)$$

- Generalised functions allow us to transform plane waves!
- Exponentially growing functions (complex frequencies)
 - Consider only causal functions
 - Use Laplace transform

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Greens functions (Chapter 5)

- **Greens functions:** technique to solve *inhomogeneous* equations
- Linear differential equation for f with source S :

$$L(z)f(z) = S(z)$$

- where the differential operator L is of the form:

$$L = A_n \frac{d^n}{dz^n} + A_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} + \dots A_0$$

- Define Greens function G to solve:

$$L(z)G(z, z') = \delta(z - z')$$

- the response from a point source – e.g. the fields from a particle!

- **Ansatz:** given the Greens function, then there is a solution:

$$f(z) = \int G(z, z')S(z')dz'$$

- **Proof:**

$$L(z)f(z) = \int L(z)G(z, z')S(z')dz' = \int \delta(z - z')S(z')dz' = S(z)$$

How to calculate Greens functions?

- For differential equations without explicit dependence on z , then

$$L(z) = L(z - z')$$

- we may rewrite G as:

$$G(z, z') \rightarrow G(z - z')$$

- Fourier transform from $z-z'$ to k :

$$L(z - z')G(z - z') = \delta(z - z')$$



$$L(ik)G(k) = 1$$



$$G(k) = \frac{1}{L(ik)}$$

- Inverse Fourier transform

$$G(z - z') = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(k) e^{-ik(z-z')} dk = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{L(ik)} e^{-ik(z-z')} dk$$

Example:

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \Omega^2 \right) G(t - t') = \delta(t - t')$$



$$(-\omega^2 + \Omega^2)G(\omega) = 2\pi$$



$$G(\omega) = -\frac{2\pi}{\omega^2 - \Omega^2}$$

Solve integral!

Greens function for the Poisson's Eq. for static fields

- Poisson's equation

$$-\epsilon_0 \nabla^2 \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \rho(\mathbf{x})$$

- Green's function $-\epsilon_0 \nabla^2 G(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$

$$-\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{k}^2| G(\mathbf{k}) = 1$$

$$G(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3 \epsilon_0} \int \frac{\exp[i\mathbf{k} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')] }{|\mathbf{k}^2|} d^3 \mathbf{k}$$

$$G(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}$$

- Thus, we obtain the familiar solution; a sum over all sources

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int d^3 \mathbf{x}' \frac{\rho(\mathbf{x}')}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}$$

Greens Function for d'Alembert's Eq. (time dependent field)

- D'Alembert's Eq. has a Green function $G(t, \mathbf{x})$

$$\left(\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right) G(t - t', \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \mu_0 \delta(t - t') \delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$$

- Fourier transform $(t - t', \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \rightarrow (\omega, \mathbf{k})$ gives...

$$\left(\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - |\mathbf{k}|^2 \right) G(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = \mu_0$$

$$G(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = \frac{-\mu_0}{\omega^2/c^2 - |\mathbf{k}|^2}$$

$$G(t - t', \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} \delta(t - t' - |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|/c)$$

- Information is propagating radially away from the source at the speed of light

Greens Function for the Temporal Gauge

- Temporal gauge gives different form of wave equation

$$\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) + \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\mu_0 \mathbf{J}(\omega, \mathbf{k})$$

$$\left[\left(\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - |\mathbf{k}|^2 \right) \delta_{ij} + k_i k_j \right] A_j(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\mu_0 J_i(\omega, \mathbf{k})$$

- Different response in *longitudinal* : $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\frac{\mu_0 c^2}{\omega^2} \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{J}(\omega, \mathbf{k})$

- and *transverse* directions: $\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{A}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\frac{\mu_0}{\omega^2/c^2 - |\mathbf{k}|^2} \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{J}(\omega, \mathbf{k})$

- To separate the longitudinal and transverse parts the Greens function become a 2-tensor G_{ij}

$$\left[\left(\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - |\mathbf{k}|^2 \right) \delta_{ij} + k_i k_j \right] G_{jl}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\mu_0 \delta_{il}$$

- Solution has poles $\omega = \pm |\mathbf{k}| c$:

$$G_{ij}(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -\frac{-\mu_0}{\omega^2/c^2 - |\mathbf{k}|^2} \left(\delta_{ij} + \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} k_i k_j \right)$$