

Goals of Lecture

- The physical origin of the continuum in many high energy sources
 - what can we learn about the physics of the sources
 - Material to be stressed is usually in 'boxes', **colored** or in **bold**.

Today's Lecture- How are Photons Generated/Absorbed

- Physical processes (Longair, Part II **Melia ch 5**, RB ch 3)

- **Black body radiation**- system is in equilibrium and all electromagnetic radiation falling on it is absorbed. At a particular temperature a black body emits the maximum amount of energy possible for that temperature.
- **Bremsstrahlung** (Longair 6.2-6.6, Melia 5.3) –'breaking radiation' acceleration of the electron in the electrostatic field of the nucleus
- **Synchrotron radiation**
High energy (relativistic) particles 'spiraling' in a magnetic field (accelerated electrons) Melia 5.6

Compton scattering

Electrons scattering of photons/ scattering off electrons and $\nu\nu$ (**Longair 9.2-9.5, Melia 5.7**)

Line Emission and absorption

Atomic transitions in atoms- x-rays mostly from K, L shell transitions (not in Longair)

Photoelectric Absorption (**Longair 9.1**)

Photons are absorbed by atomic transitions

There is a good 'on-line' text book
Elements of Astrophysics; N. Kaiser –

<https://julianoliver.com/share/free-science-books/elements.pdf>

- continuum- this lecture
 - blackbody
 - synchrotron & bremsstrahlung
 - Compton scattering
- lines- *next lecture*
 - fluorescence
 - thermal
 - photoionization

See for a nice web resource on continuum processes
https://asd.gsfc.nasa.gov/Volker.Beckmann/school/download/Longair_Radiation1.pdf

Today's Lecture- How are Photons Generated/Absorbed

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 - **Black body radiation**- system is in equilibrium and all electromagnetic radiation falling on it is absorbed. At a particular temperature a black body emits the maximum amount of energy possible for that temperature.
 - **Synchrotron radiation** High energy (relativistic) particles 'spiraling' in a magnetic field (accelerated electrons)

Compton scattering

Electrons scattering of photons/photons scattering off electrons

Bremmstrahlung- electrons whose path is changed by interaction with nuclei- the electron moves at a high velocity past the stationary nucleus .

UC Berkeley, Astro 201, Radiative Processes in Astrophysics

- Physics oriented

E. Chiang –

see <https://casper.ssl.berkeley.edu/astrobaki/index.php/>

Radiative_Processes_in_Astrophysics

What Do We Want to Learn From Continuum Spectra?

- Physical process responsible for photon emission
- Total power in system
- Breakdown of energy budget (how much in particles, fields, thermal energy, kinetic energy)
- Particle distributions (e.g. temperatures, power law slopes etc)
- Magnetic field

How does the system produce the energy needed for the radiation that is measured

Physical Processes Over View – More Equations Later

Melia ch 5 and Rosswog and Bruggen ch 3 Longair ch 6

In “thermal” processes the electrons are in a Maxwell-Boltzman distribution- the system has a ‘temperature’

In non-thermal the electron distribution is often a power law-no temperature

The two main 'thermal' processes are

- thermal bremsstrahlung
- black body radiation

Non-thermal processes

- synchrotron radiation
- 'Compton' scattering

Bremsstrahlung radiation: “braking” radiation, occurs in ionized gases (plasmas) when thermal electrons are accelerated by passing near another electron or an ion.

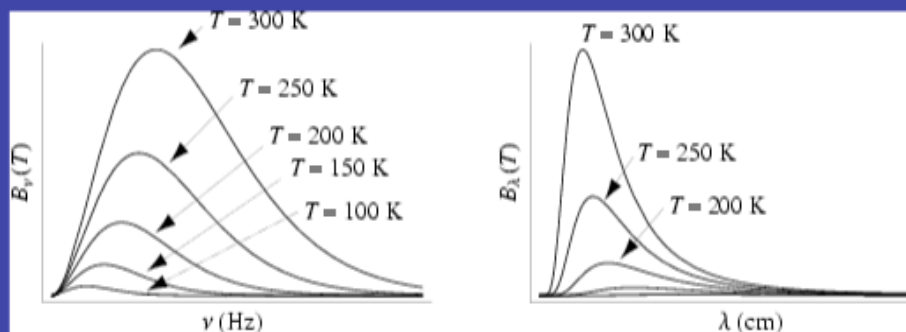
Black body emission and Bremsstrahlung are sometimes called **thermal emission** (because the statistical motion of the charged particles depends on temperature). Synchrotron emission is an example of **non-thermal emission** since the statistical motion of the charged particle depends on the magnetic field strength.

Black Body

An accelerated charge can produce EM radiation over a continuous range of frequencies (energies).

Black Body: An ensemble of charges which absorbs all radiation incident. The absorbed energy raises the temperature of the body, which radiates some of this energy. The radiation has a characteristic brightness distribution ($B_\nu(T)$), called the **Planck curve**:

$$B_\nu(T) = \frac{2h}{c^2} \frac{\nu^3}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} \text{ ergs s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1} \text{ steradian} \quad L \sim A\sigma T^4$$



Black Body- RB Ch 3.5

$$I(\nu, T) d\nu = (2h\nu^3/c^2) (1/(e^{h\nu/kT} - 1))$$

ergs/s/cm²/Hz/sr

Assumptions- photons and electrons are in equilibrium
System is 'perfect' emitter

$I(\nu, T) d\nu$ is the amount of energy per surface area, per unit time, per solid angle emitted in the frequency range between ν and $\delta\nu$ by a black body at temperature T

Astrophysical example- some isolated neutron stars

h is Planck's constant, c is the speed of light, k is Boltzmann's constant

The wavelength of maximum intensity λ_m is

σ is Stefan-Boltzmann's constant **$5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \text{K}^{-4}$**

b/T (b is Wien's constant) = **$2.9 \times 10^7 (1/T) \text{ \AA}$**

A is the collecting area

The energy of maximum intensity

$$\sigma = 2\pi^5 k^4 / 15 c^2 h^3$$

$$E_m = 0.245 T_e \text{ keV}$$

Total energy radiated = $L = A\sigma T^4$;

A = area

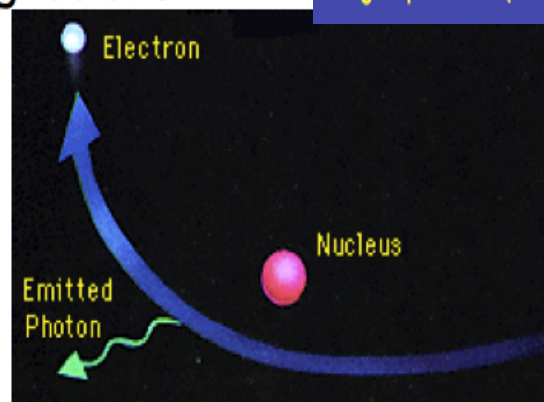
Physical Processes Overview – More Equations Later

Melia ch 5 and Rosswog and Bruggen ch 3 Longair ch 6

BREMSSTRAHLUNG

- "Braking radiation"

Electromagnetic radiation is produced by the acceleration of charged particles (mostly electrons)



Examples: clusters of galaxies, supernova remnants, stellar coronae



Continuum Sources

Synchrotron radiation: a moving electron in the presence of a magnetic field B feels an acceleration a given by

$$a = \frac{e v}{m c} \times B$$

which causes the electron to spiral around the B field. The acceleration of the electron produces synchrotron radiation

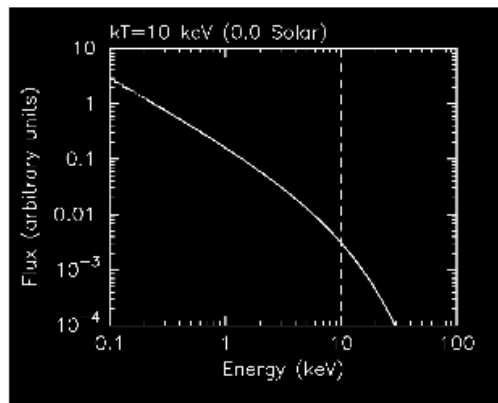
Bremsstrahlung

- Bremsstrahlung is caused by a "collision" between a free electron and an ion. The emissivity ϵ_{ff} (photons $m^{-3} s^{-1} J^{-1}$) can be written as:
- $\epsilon_{ff} = [C n_e n_i Z^2 T^{1/2} g_{ff} \exp(-E/kT)]/E$,
- The factor g_{ff} is the so-called Gaunt factor and is a dimensionless quantity of order unity. Z is the charge of the ion,
- The Bremsstrahlung spectrum is flat for $E \ll kT$ (power law slope ~ -1 when include gaunt factor ~ -0.4) and for $E > kT$ it drops exponentially.
- In order to measure the temperature of a hot plasma, one needs to measure near $E \approx kT$.

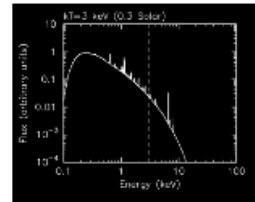
Longair Ch 6- (except 6.5.2,6.6) ; you will NOT be responsible for the derivations

BREMSSTRAHLUNG SPECTRUM

$$I(E) = AG(E,T)Z^2 n_e n_i (kT)^{-1/2} e^{-E/kT}$$



A = normalization, G = Gaunt factor,
Z = charge of positive ions
 n_e and n_i electron and ion densities
for $E \ll kT$ the spectrum is approximately a power law
for $h\nu \gg kT$ there is an exponential cutoff



[In reality accompanied by recombination line emission]

Luminosity $L = 2.4 \times 10^{-28} T^{1/2} n_e^{1/2} V$ (W) T = temperature, V = volume

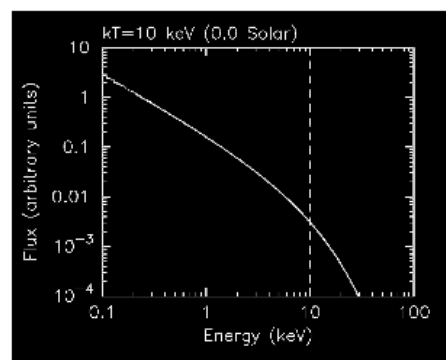
- Electron moves at a high velocity past a stationary proton (nucleus) where Coulomb interaction accelerate it Longair 6.3 for a detailed derivation for 1 interaction

Bremmstrahlung

- RB pg 97 (sec 3.8.1) Melia ch 5.3 point out that a proper derivation requires QED (quantum electrodynamics)- *accelerated charged particles emit radiation*
- Summary
 - Produced by charged particle collisions in ionized plasmas
 - Spectrum is flat at low energies (roughly a power law of $I(E) \sim E^{-0.4}$) with a *characteristic exponential turnoff at high energies related to the temperature of the electrons*
 - Total emission/unit volume $\sim n_e n_{ion} T^{1/2}$ (Longair 6.46)

BREMSSTRAHLUNG

$$I(E) = AG(E,T)Z^2 n_e n_i (kT)^{-1/2} e^{-E/kT}$$



G(E,T) is the Gaunt factor

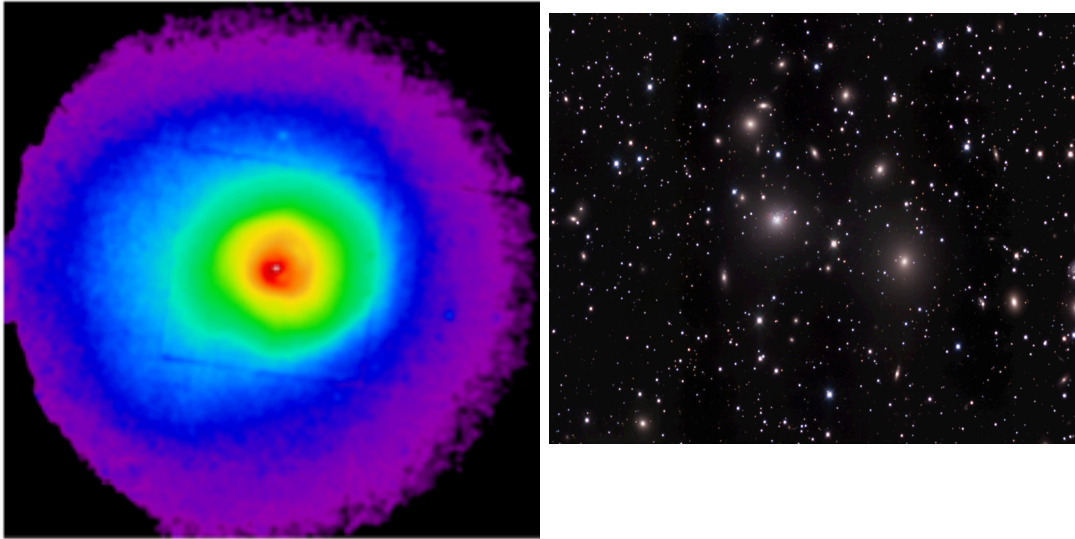
see Longair eqs 6.44-6.49

Inverse process 'free-free' absorption can be important in the radio

Bremsstrahlung Observed

Coma cluster in X-ray and optical light

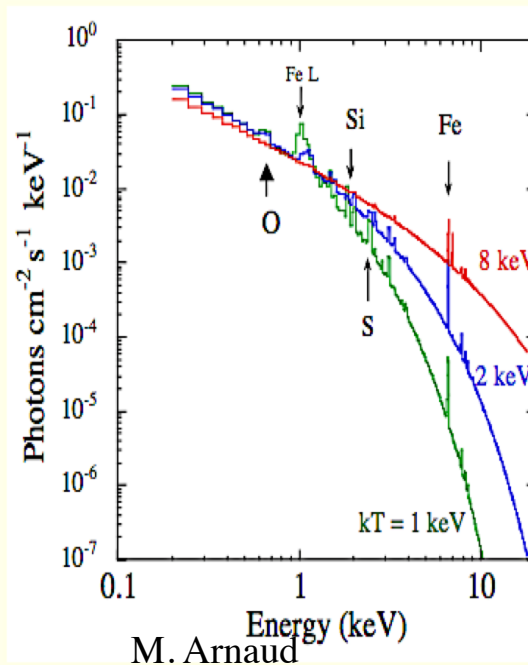
x-ray emission is due to thermal bremsstrahlung +line emission

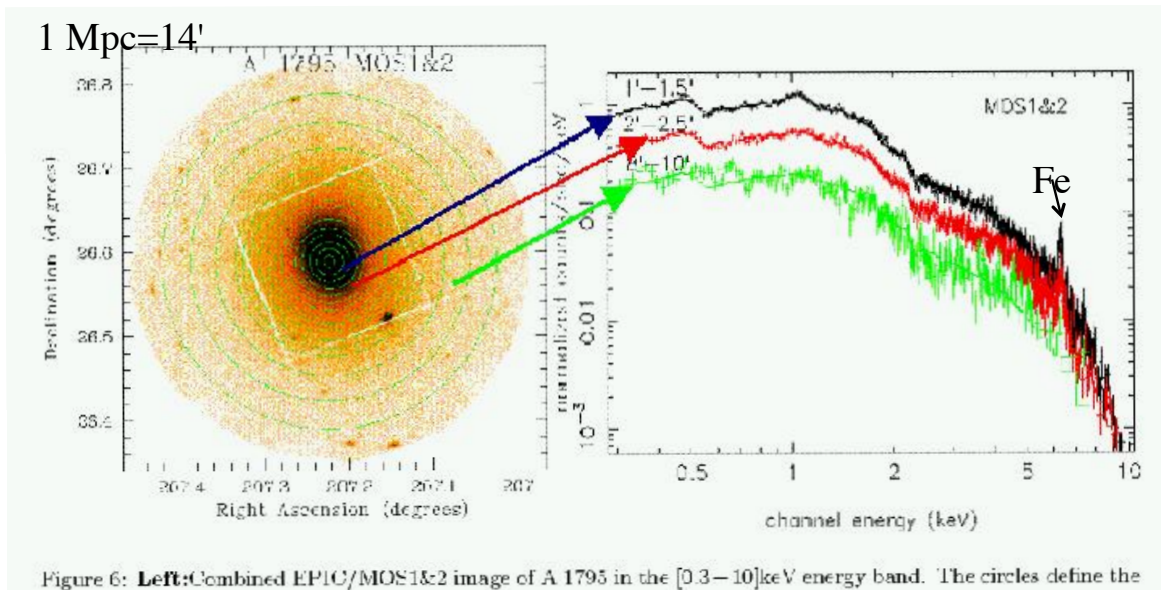


X-ray Spectrum of a Hot Plasma

- Continuum is due to thermal bremsstrahlung (see figure)
- Emission lines are due to recombination of H and He-like ions (more later)
- Curvature of spectrum gives temperature- amplitude gives emission measure ($n_e^2 V$)- integrating this over the image gives the gas mass and total energy in the gas.
- Detailed fit to shape confirms physical mechanism of radiation

$$dN(E)/dE \sim n_e^2 V [g(E,T) T^{-1/2} \exp(-E/kT) + \text{lines}]$$

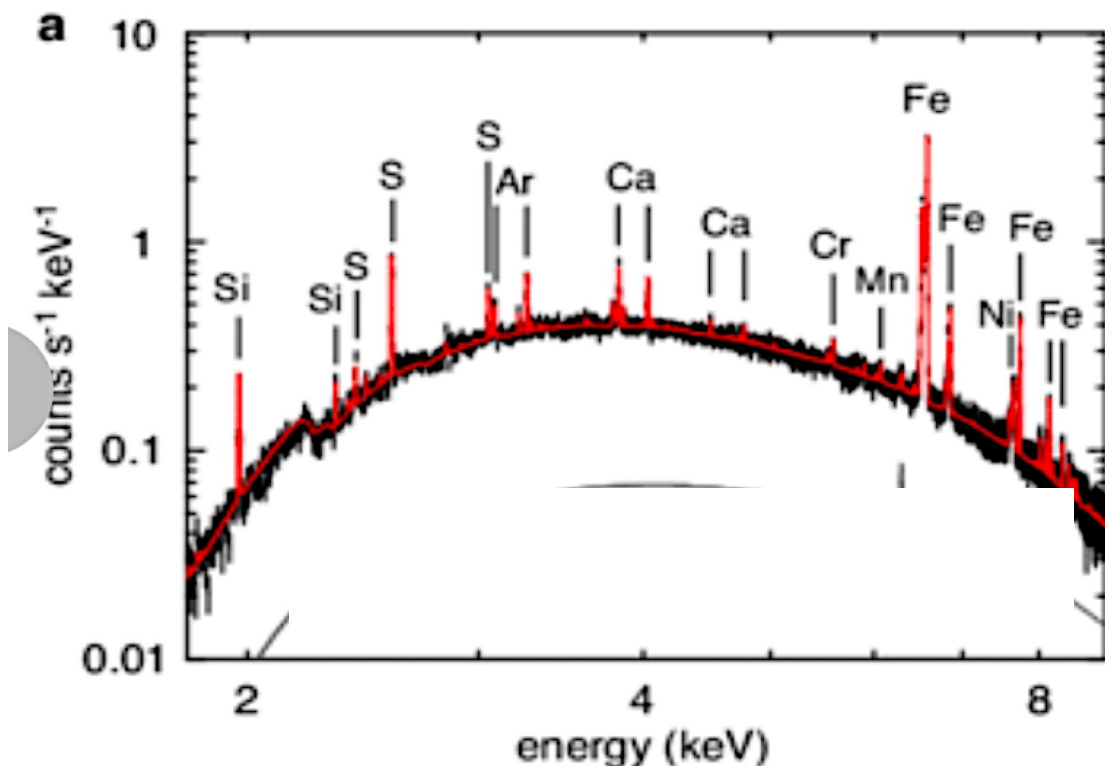




X-ray spectra of a Cluster

continuum due to bremsstrahlung - spectrum + geometry measure
particle density and total mass of gas

Hitomi Spectrum of Perseus Cluster



SYNCHROTRON RADIATION

Nice summary at <http://www.cv.nrao.edu/course/ast534>

- Electrons spiralling in magnetic field



Spectrum for power-law electron distribution:

$$I(\nu) = A(KB^{1+\alpha})\nu^{-\alpha} \quad \text{Longair Ch 8}$$

A = constant, K = total energy of electrons,
 B = magnetic field, α = spectral index **of electrons**

Rather complex derivation Ginzburg, V. L., Syrovatskii, S. I., ARAA, 1965

Longair Ch 8 , 5.4-5.6 in Melia

Synchrotron Radiation (Melia Ch 5.4 RB sec 3.8)

- For a single electron the characteristic frequency $\omega_{\text{sync}} = [3/2]\gamma^3 B/m_e c$; B =magnetic field, m_e mass of electron
- $dE/dt = P \sim \gamma^2 U \sim \gamma^2 \beta^2 B^2/m_*^2$; γ is the Lorentz factor $1/\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}$; m_* is the mass of the radiating particles (*electrons radiate much more efficiently than protons*); for particles of interest $\beta^2 \sim 1$

$$\nu_c = (eB/2\pi m_e)\gamma^2$$

- to a good approximation, all the radiation of an electron of energy E is radiated at the critical frequency ν_c
 - get broad band emission due to wide range of energy of particles in a power law distribution function

Synchrotron Radiation (Melia Ch 5.4 RB sec 3.8)

Electrons with energy E moving at pitch angle θ , in a magnetic field of strength B emit most of their energy near the critical frequency ν_c ,

$$\nu_c \approx 0.016 (B \sin \theta / \mu\text{G}) (E / \text{Gev})^2 \text{ Ghz}$$

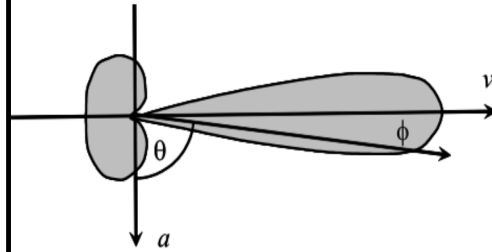
and the lifetime

$$\tau = E / DE/dt \sim 1.06 \times 10^9 (B \sin \theta / \mu\text{G})^{-3/2} (\nu_c / \text{Ghz})^{-1/2}$$

https://ned.ipac.caltech.edu/level5/Condon/condon4_1.html

The radiation is beamed in the forward direction

An 1 keV x-ray has a frequency of 2.4×10^{18} Hz and so either the B field is very strong and/or the particle energy is high to emit x-rays



Synchrotron Radiation (Melia Ch 5.4 RB sec 3.8)

To get x-ray photons (x-rays) $\nu \sim 10^{18}$ Hz need very high energies of electrons or very strong magnetic field

$t_{\text{cool}} \sim m_e c^2 / 4/3 u_B c \sigma_T \gamma \sim 16 B^{-2} \gamma^{-1} \text{ yrs}$; time for particles to lose 1/2 their energy (B is in gauss)

So x-ray emitting particles have short lifetimes

The most energetic particles have the shortest lifetimes

Field strengths vary enormously from 10^{-6} G in radio galaxies to 10^{13} G in pulsars

Synchrotron radiation is *intrinsically polarized* which allows measurements of the direction of the magnetic field- very important in radio astronomy

Synchrotron

- For a power law input spectrum of particles \rightarrow a power law photon spectrum out to some maximum frequency

- If particle spectrum is

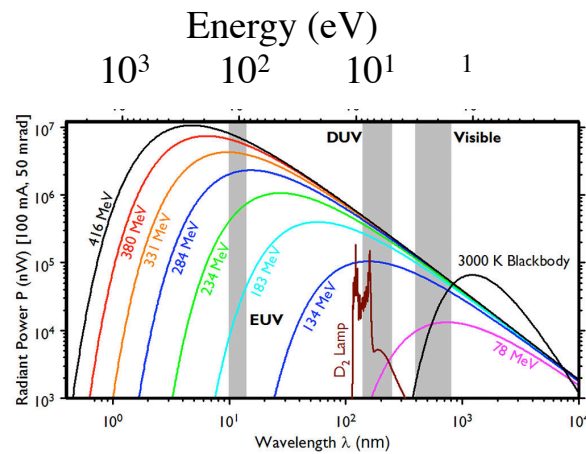
$$dN/dE \sim N_0 E^{-p}$$

- photon spectrum is

$$I_\nu \sim C_0 \nu^{-(p-1)/2}$$

- Higher energy particles radiate at higher energies

$$\nu \sim \gamma^2 q B / mc$$



NIST website

Where $C_0 \sim N_0 U_B \sigma_T$

depends on the energy density of the B field $U_B \sim B^2$

The Thompson cross section σ_T and the number of particles N_0

Synchrotron Radiation

- synchrotron radiation, the emission of very relativistic and ultrarelativistic electrons gyrating in a magnetic field, is an important process in much of high energy astrophysics.

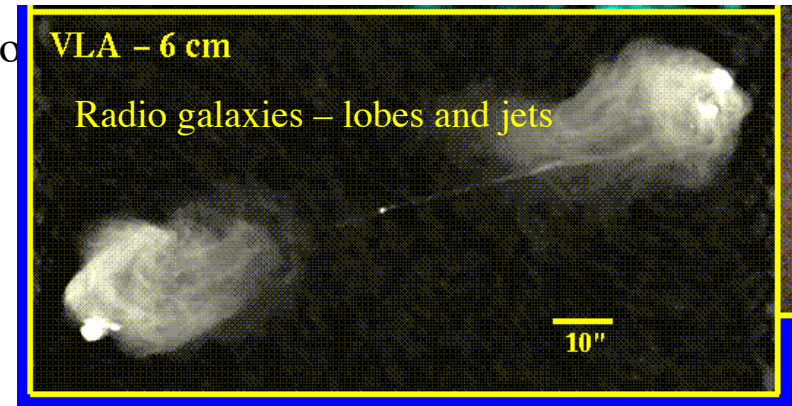
- It is responsible for

- the radio emission from the Galaxy,
- extragalactic radio sources
- optical and X-ray emission observed in the Crab Nebula and other 'plerions' and 'rims' of most SNR
- Blazar radio thru x-ray emission

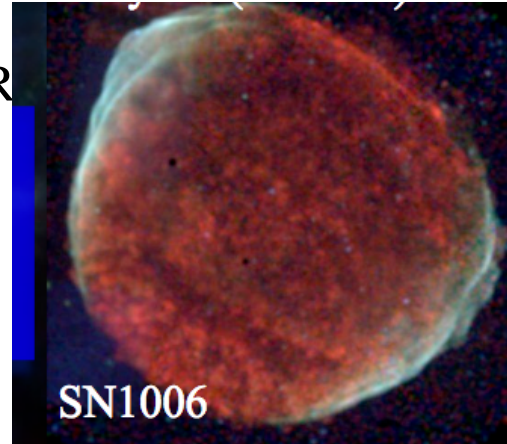
- see https://asd.gsfc.nasa.gov/Volker.Beckmann/school/download/Longair_Radiation2.pdf

Synchrotron Emission

- Galactic radio emission (radiation from the halo and the disk),
- radio emission from the shell of supernova remnants
- X-ray synchrotron from PWN in SNRs
- Low Energy (radio-UV) Blazar continuum



'rims' of SNR



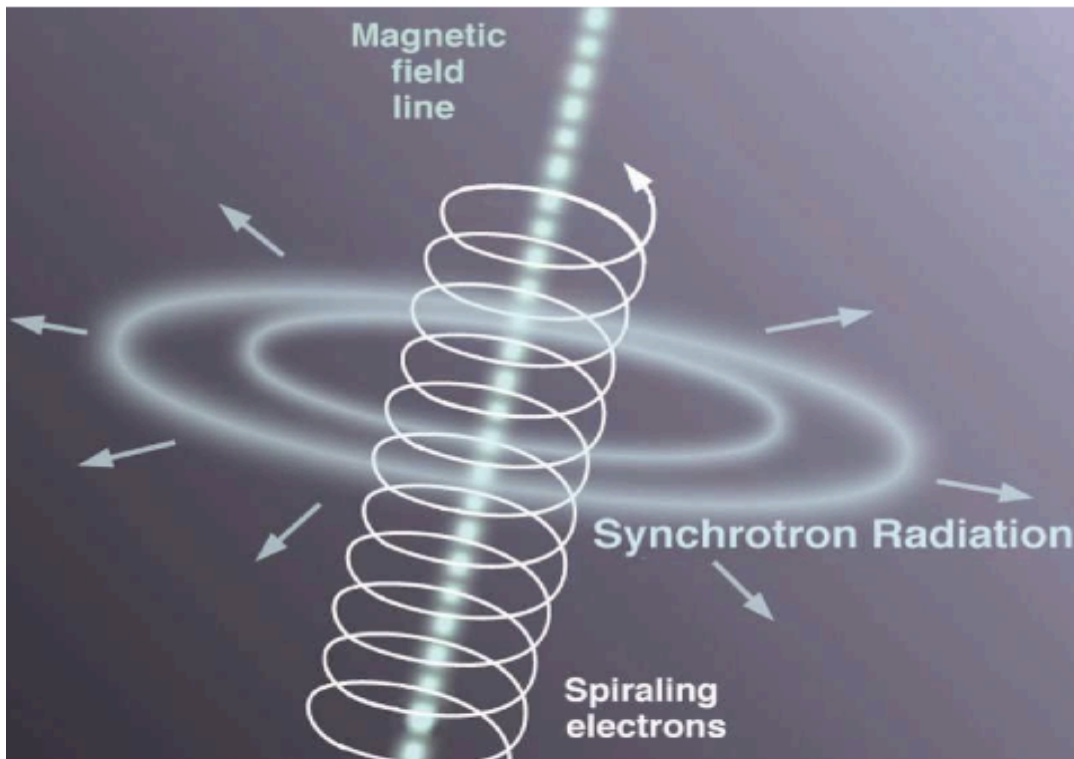
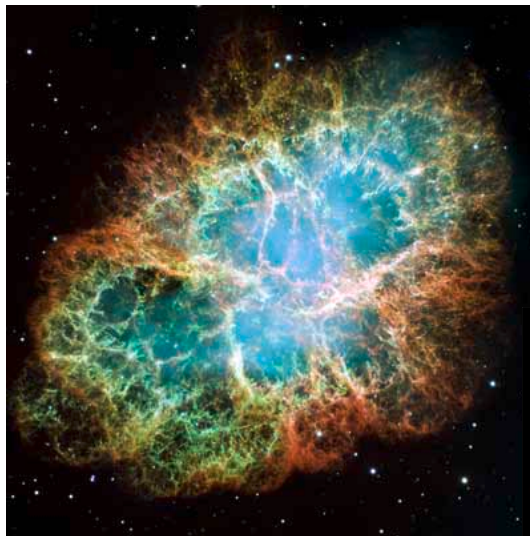


Fig. 1.— Artist's conception of synchrotron radiation. Cool figure from <http://www.gemini.edu/gallery/science/m87/Synchrotron-Radiation-med.jpg>

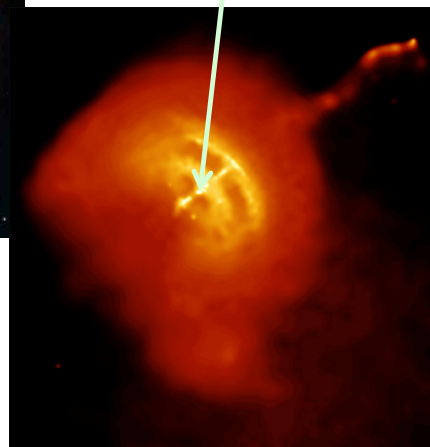
Synchrotron radiation- (some) SNR nebulae

Crab
Nebula-
optical IR
and X-ray
image

Supernova
in 1054 AD



Pulsar-rotating,
non-accreting
Neutron star

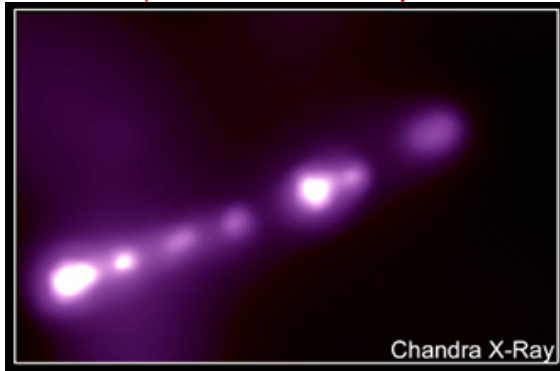


X-ray image of Vela
pulsar

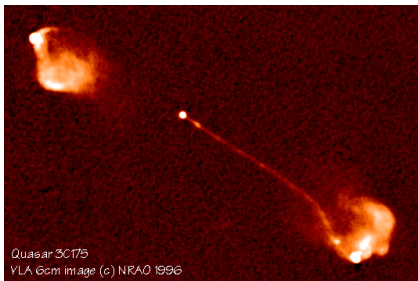
Synchrotron Radiation Examples

Image of M87 Synchrotron

X-ray Radiation in jet

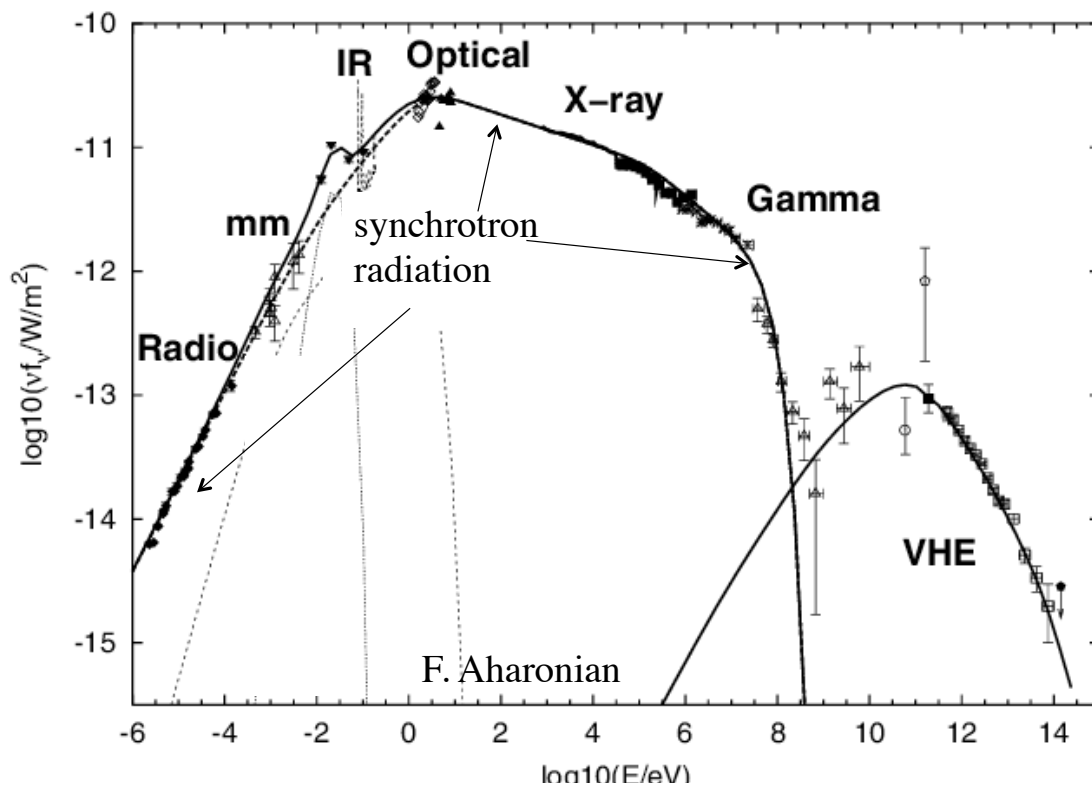


$\sim 1.5 \text{ kpc} = 5 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}$ long

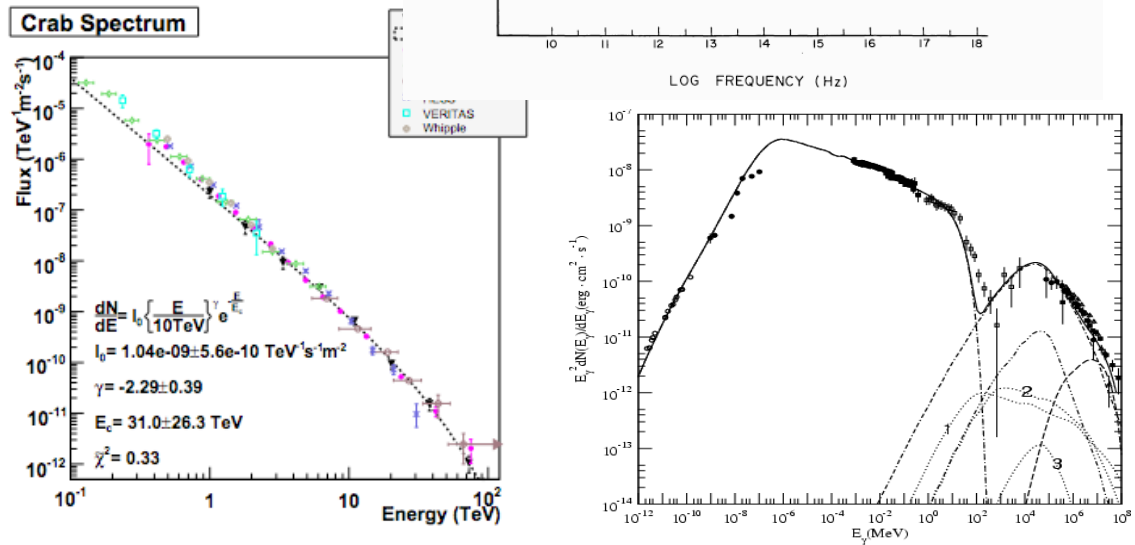


Radio image of a quasar

Broad Band Spectrum of Crab Nebula – 13 orders of magnitude in energy

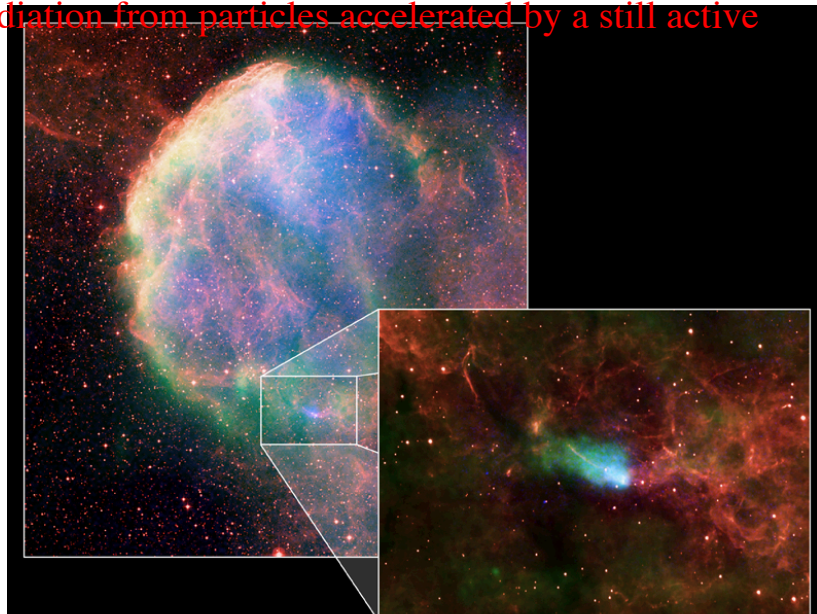


- Crab nebulae: often used example of a 'pure' synchrotron emitter



Combining Bremsstrahlung and Synchrotron Radiation

- In some supernova remnants one sees both processes at work
 - Bremsstrahlung from electrons that are shock heated by the SN blast wave
 - Synchrotron radiation from particles accelerated by a still active pulsar



Thompson/Compton Scattering

Longair Ch 9.2-9.6 (9.1 in next lecture, 9.4.3 not covered) RB Ch 3.8

Compton Wavelength

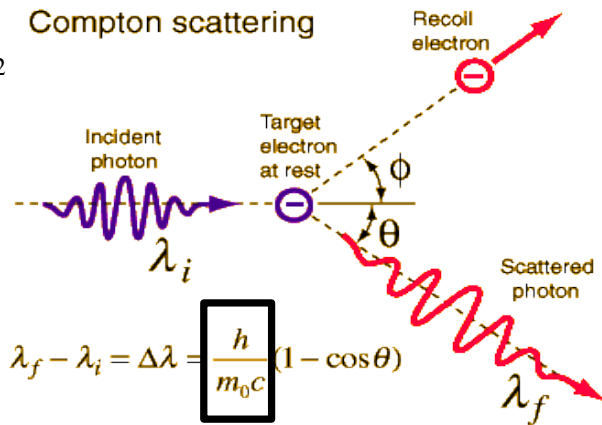
$$=h/m_e c = 0.00243 \text{ nm for an electron}$$

- Thomson scattering: elastic scattering of low-energy photons from low-energy electrons, with cross-section

$$\sigma_T = (8\pi/3)(e^2/m_e c^2) = 6.65 \times 10^{-25} \text{ cm}^2$$

- Compton scattering: low-energy photon inelastically scatters off non-relativistic electron, **photon loses energy**

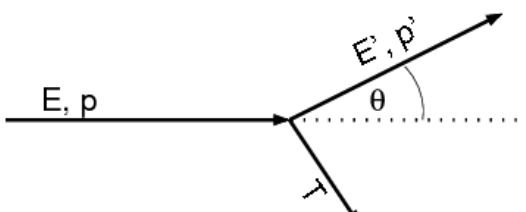
- Inverse Compton scattering: low-energy photon inelastically scatters off relativistic electron, **photon gains energy in observer rest frame**



Whether the photon gives energy to the electron or vice versa

<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/quantum/compton.html>

Compton Scattering



Thomson scattering: initial and final wavelength are identical.

But: in reality: light consists of photons

⇒ Scattering: photon changes direction

⇒ Momentum change

⇒ **Energy change!**

This is a quantum picture

⇒ **Compton scattering.**

Dynamics of scattering gives energy/wavelength change:

$$E' = \frac{E}{1 + \frac{E}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \theta)} \sim E \left(1 - \frac{E}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \theta) \right) \quad (7.14)$$

and

$$\lambda' - \lambda = \frac{h}{m_e c} (1 - \cos \theta) \quad (7.15)$$

where $h/m_e c = 2.426 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}$ (**Compton wavelength**).

Averaging over θ , for $E \ll m_e c^2$:

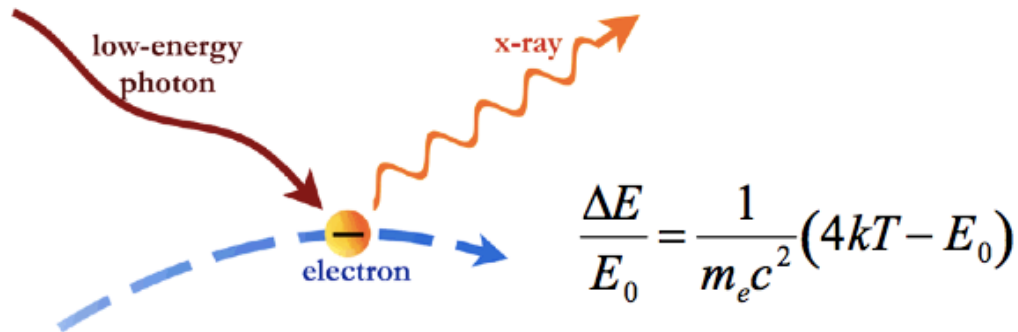
$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} \approx -\frac{E}{m_e c^2} \quad (7.16)$$

- <http://pulsar.sternwarte.uni-erlangen.de/wilms/teach/radproc/radproc0177.html>

INVERSE COMPTON EMISSION

https://asd.gsfc.nasa.gov/Volker.Beckmann/school/download/Longair_Radiation3.pdf

- Photon $E_0 = h\nu$ boosted in energy by hot e^- at kT to e.g. X-rays



Examples in X-ray astronomy: active galactic nuclei (AGN), X-ray binaries

- $-(dE/dt) = \sigma_T c U_{\text{rad}}$,
- for relativistic particles
- $-(dE/dt) = 4/3 \sigma_T c U_{\text{rad}} (\gamma^2 - 1)$.
- The life time of the electron is
- $\tau = E / |dE/dt| = E / (4/3 \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_{\text{rad}})$
 $\sim 2.3 \times 10^{12} \gamma (U_{\text{rad}} / 2.6 \times 10^{-1} \text{eV cm}^{-3})^{-1} \text{ years}$
 - where U_{rad} is the energy density of radiation in the rest frame of the electron
 - the maximum energy which the photon can acquire corresponds to a head-on collision in which the photon is sent back along its original path.
 - The general result that the frequency of the scattered photons is $E \approx \gamma^2 E_0$

Compton Scattering

- Consider the scattering of radio, infrared and optical photons scattered by electrons with $\gamma=1000$. (V. Beckmann)

Waveband	Frequency (Hz) ν_0	Scattered Frequency (Hz) and Waveband
Radio	10^9	$10^{15} = \text{UV}$
Far-infrared	3×10^{12}	$3 \times 10^{18} = \text{X-rays}$
Optical	4×10^{14}	$4 \times 10^{21} \equiv 1.6\text{MeV} = \gamma\text{-rays}$

- The spectrum of the inverse Compton scattering of photons of energy E by a power-law distribution of electron energies $dN \propto E^{-p} dE$ gives a intensity spectrum of the scattered radiation of the form $I(E) \propto E^{-(p-1)/2}$

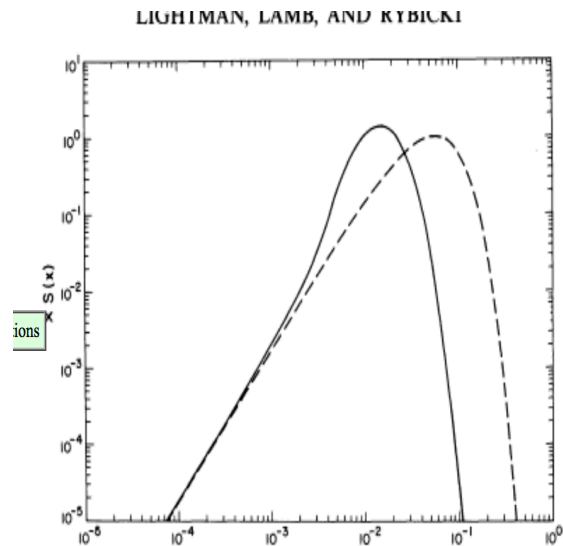
Inverse Compton Scattering

- In many x-ray sources the x-ray photons are due to the 'upscattering' of low energy photons by 'energetic' electrons and what we observe is due to many photons being scattered
- Inverse Compton scattering involves the scattering of low energy photons to high energies by energetic electrons so that the photons gain and the electrons lose energy.
 - The process is called inverse because the electrons lose energy rather than the photons, the opposite of the standard Compton effect.

Comptonization

- The output spectrum depends on the distribution function of both the electrons and photons
- If the electrons are 'cooler' than the photons the spectrum is 'down scattered' if the electrons are hotter it is 'up' scattered.**
 - If $E_{\text{photon}} < 4kT_e$ photons gain energy gas cools
 - If $E_{\text{photon}} > 4kT_e$ electrons gain energy gas heats
- Up scattering tends to produce a power law distribution
- Down scattering a 'black body-like' distribution

Input spectrum is a BB----



Energy (arb units)

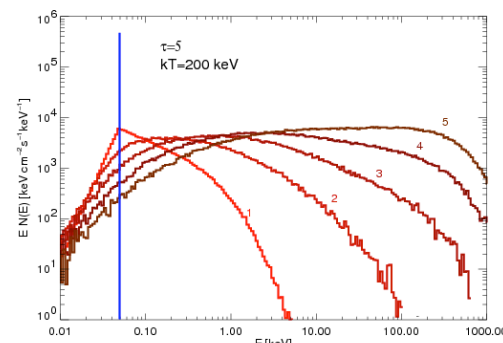
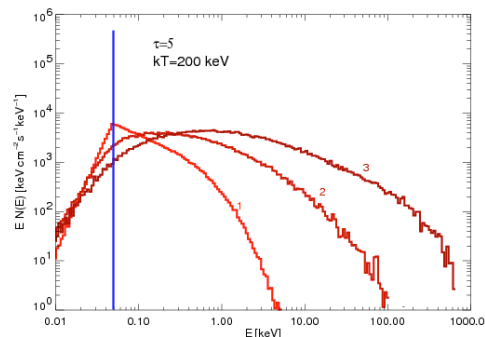
Sphere $\tau=10$ - cold electrons ApJ
248,738 1981

Inverse Compton scattering

- Each scattering tends to produce a broad distribution of photons and the sum tends to a power law shape
- X-ray spectra of galactic and extragalactic black holes** can be well explained by Comptonized spectra with $kT_e \sim 150$ keV, $y \sim 1$
($y = 4kT_e/m_e c^2 (\max(\tau, \tau^2))$)

When averaging over angles the free parameters of Compton scattering are the probability of interacting (parameterized by τ - the optical depth) and the electron temperature (T_e)

- <http://pulsar.sternwarte.uni-erlangen.de/wilms/teach/radproc/radproc0201.html>



Relative Power in Compton and Synchrotron Radiation

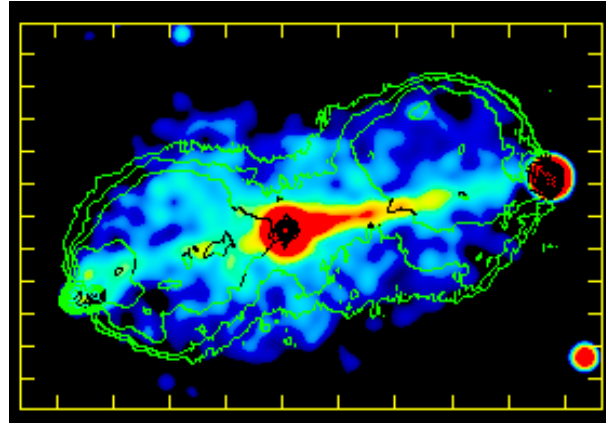
$dE/dT = P_{IC} = 4/3 \sigma_T c^2 U_{rad} \beta^2 \gamma^2$
 net inverse-Compton power
 gained by the radiation field
 and lost by the electron.
 $(\beta^2 = (v^2/c^2))$

Synchrotron power
 $P_{synch} = 4/3 \sigma_T c^2 U_B \beta^2 \gamma^2$

Where $U_B = B^2/8\pi$ is the energy
 density of the magnetic field
 And U_{rad} is the energy density of
 the photon field

$\beta = v/c$; $\gamma = (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2}$

Ratio of Synchrotron to Compton
 U_B/U_{rad} 'Radio' galaxy Pictor A



Radio image (synchrotron) green contours
 IC image (x-rays, color) Hardcastle and Birkinshaw
 2004

INVERSE COMPTON EMISSION

- Results depend on source
 geometry- *board*

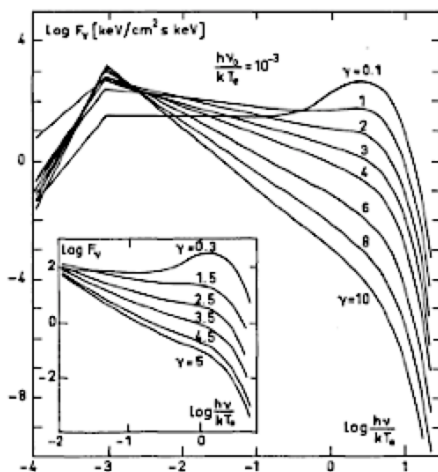


Fig. 5. The spectrum resulting from comptonization of low-frequency
 photons ($h\nu_0 = 10^{-3} kT_e$) in a high temperature plasma clouds with
 different parameters γ (14)

Sunyaev & Titarchuk 1980

• Power law

$$F(E) = AE^{-\Gamma} e^{-E/E_c}$$

$$I(E) = BE^{-\alpha} e^{-E/E_c}$$

A, B normalizations

F, Γ **photon** flux photon index

I, α **energy** flux, index ($\alpha = \Gamma - 1$)

$E_c = kT = \text{cutoff energy}$