Emission Mechanisms





Magnetobremsstrahlung (5.1)

Remember: the lightest particles are accelerated more so electrons account for virtually all of the radiation observed

Types:

- Gyro radiation: electrons with velocities much less than the speed of light $v \ll c$
- Cyclotron radiation: mildly relativistic electrons w/ kinetic energy comparable to the rest mass m_ec²
- Synchrotron radiation: ultra relativistic electrons with kinetic energy \gg rest mass $m_e c^2$





Magnetobremsstrahlung (5.1)

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- Synchrotron radiation: ultra relativistic electrons with kinetic energy \gg rest mass $m_e c^2$
 - Accounts for **most of the radio emission from** 'Active Galactic Nuclei' or **AGNs** that are thought to be powered by supermassive black holes in galaxies and quasars
 - Dominates radio continuum emission of star forming galaxies at v < 30 GHz
 - Magnetosphere of Jupiter is also a synchrotron source
 - Synchrotron radiation also presents as...
 - \circ optical emission from Crab Nebula
 - \circ optical jet of M87
 - \circ optical \rightarrow X-ray emission of quasars



Magnetobremsstrahlung (5.1)

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Magnetobremsstrahlung (5.1)

Gyro radiation: electrons with velocities much less than the speed of light $v \ll c$ (5.1.1)

Larmor's formula only valid here!

We can write the Force in a magnetic field,

$$\vec{F} = \frac{q (\vec{v \times B})}{c}.$$
 (5.1)



That is perpendicular to the particle velocity (\vec{v}) so $\vec{F} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$, $mv^2/2$ is constant, v_{\parallel} is constant, and $|v_{\perp}|$ is constant. The angular velocity ω needs to be **balanced** with the the centripetal and magnetic forces:

$$m |\dot{v}| = m\omega^2 r = \frac{q}{c} |\vec{v \times B}| = \frac{q}{c} \omega r B; \qquad (5.2)$$

Therefore, the **orbital frequency is independent of the particle speed** so long as $v \ll c$:

 $\omega_{\rm G} \equiv$







Soo not applicable to radio frequencies !

Magnetobremsstrahlung (5.1)

(5.1.1) Gyro radiation: electrons with velocities much less than the speed of light $v \ll c$





← The frequency of this absorption line directly measures the magnetic field strength near the Her X-1 neutron star!

$$B = \frac{2\pi\nu_{\rm G} m_{\rm e} c}{e}$$

$$\approx \frac{2\pi \cdot 8.2 \times 10^{18} \text{ Hz} \cdot 9.1 \times 10^{-28} \text{ g} \cdot 3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1}}{4.8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ statcoul}}$$

$$\approx 2.9 \times 10^{12} \text{ gauss.}$$



Synchrotron Power (5.2)

Cosmic ray electrons in the interstellar magnetic field emit **synchrotron radiation** that accounts for most of the continuum emission from our Galaxy at < 30 GHz.

> Need to apply the Lorentz transform of special relatively to use Larmor's formula! (see Appendix C)



Electrons and positrons produced by a cosmic ray which has interacted in the wall of the cloud chamber



Synchrotron Power (5.2)

Lorentz transforms (Appendix C for derivation) relates the coordinates (x, y, z, t) in the unprimed inertial frame and the coordinate (x', y', x', t') in the primed frame moving with velocity v in the x-direction. They are:

$$x = \gamma (x' + vt'), \quad y = y', \quad z = z', \quad t = \gamma (t' + \beta x'/c),$$
 (5.12)

$$x' = \gamma (x - vt), \quad y' = y, \quad z' = z, \quad t' = \gamma (t - \beta x/c),$$
 (5.13)

Where,

$$\beta \equiv v/c$$
 $\gamma \equiv (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2}$ (5.14 & 5.15)

And γ is the **Lorentz factor!** Note the differential form is:

$$\Delta x = \gamma \left(\Delta x' + v \Delta t' \right), \quad \Delta y = \Delta y', \quad \Delta z = \Delta z', \quad \Delta t = \gamma \left(\Delta t' + \beta \Delta x'/c \right), \quad (5.16)$$

$$\Delta x' = \gamma \left(\Delta x - v \Delta t \right), \quad \Delta y' = \Delta y, \quad \Delta z' = \Delta z, \quad \Delta t' = \gamma \left(\Delta t - \beta \Delta x/c \right). \tag{5.17}$$

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This factor will be important to introduce into power spectrum, observed frequencies, emission coefficient, etc.,!



 \boldsymbol{Z}

Synchrotron Power (5.2)

(5.2.2) Relativistic Masses

Cosmic-ray electrons have $E >> E_0 = m_e c^2 >> 0.51$ MeV and are ultrarelativistic:

$$E_0 = m_{\rm e}c^2 = 9.1 \times 10^{-28} \text{ g} \cdot (3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1})^2 = 8.2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ erg}$$
(5.19)
$$= \frac{8.2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ erg}}{1.60 \times 10^{-12} \text{ erg} (\text{eV})^{-1}} = 5.1 \times 10^5 \text{ eV} = 0.51 \text{ MeV}.$$
(5.20)

Remember: orbital frequency from Gyro radiation,

$$\omega_{\rm G} \equiv \frac{qB}{mc}$$
. (5.3) \rightarrow becomes $\omega_B = \frac{eB}{(\gamma m_{\rm e})c} = \frac{\omega_{\rm G}}{\gamma}$. (5.21)

Which is *not promising for the production of observable synchrotron radiation*: the high observed masses $m = \gamma m_e$ of relativistic electrons reduce their orbital frequencies and accelerations to extremely low values! The orbital frequency and orbital size is very large ... electrons go around slow and in 'loopy' orbits

$$\omega_B \equiv \frac{\omega_B}{2\pi}$$
(5.22)

 $\approx 28 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Hz}$

 ≈ 1 cycle per hour.

$$r \approx \frac{c}{\omega_B}$$
(5.23)
$$\approx \frac{3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1}}{2\pi \cdot 28 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Hz}}$$

$$\approx 1.7 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm} \approx 1 \text{ AU}.$$



Synchrotron Power (5.2)

(5.2.2) Relativistic Masses

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Which is **not promising for the production of observable synchrotron radiation**: the high observed masses $m = \gamma m_e$ of relativistic electrons reduce their orbital frequencies and accelerations to extremely low values! We will see two effects that explain the strong observable synchrotron emission at radio frequencies:

- 1) Total radiated power in the observer's frame is proportional to γ^2 (a large number)
- 2) Relativistic beaming turns the low frequency sinusoidal radiation in electron frame into series of extremely sharp pulses containing power at much higher frequency in the observer's frame



Synchrotron Power (5.2)

(5.2.3) Synchrotron Power Radiated by a single electron

See text for derivation with Larmor's formula using Lorentz transforms to get to the power radiated by a single electron moving with constant **pitch angle** α between the electron velocity, \vec{v} , and the magnetic field, \vec{B} : $P = \frac{2e^2}{3c^3}\gamma^2 \frac{e^2B^2}{m_e^2c^2}v^2 \sin^2\alpha.$

Where the radiated power *P*' was transformed to the electron frame, *P*

$$P = P' = \frac{2e^2 a_{\perp}^2 \gamma^4}{3c^3} \qquad (a_{\parallel} = 0).$$
 (5.29)

And the magnetic acceleration is balanced in a circular orbit,

$$a_{\perp} \equiv \frac{dv_{\perp}}{dt} = \omega_B v_{\perp} = \frac{eBv_{\perp}}{\gamma m_e c} = \frac{eBv \sin \alpha}{\gamma m_e c}, \qquad (5.30 \& 5.31)$$

Larmor's Formula:
$$P = \frac{2q^2\dot{v}^2}{3c^3}$$
 (4.1)

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(5.32)

Synchrotron Power (5.2)

(5.2.3) Synchrotron Power Radiated by a single electron

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$$P = \frac{2e^2}{3c^3}\gamma^2 \frac{e^2 B^2}{m_e^2 c^2} v^2 \sin^2 \alpha.$$
 (5.32)

Often written in terms of the Thomson cross section of an electron:

$$\sigma_{\rm T} \equiv \frac{8\pi}{3} \left(\frac{e^2}{m_{\rm e}c^2}\right)^2 \approx 6.65 \times 10^{-25} \,\,{\rm cm}^2 \qquad (5.33 \,\&\, 5.34)$$



Synchrotron Power (5.2)

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And the magnetic energy density:

$$U_B = \frac{B^2}{8\pi}.$$
 (5.35)



Synchrotron Power (5.2)

(5.2.3) Synchrotron Power Radiated by a single electron

See text for derivation with Larmor's formula using Lorentz transforms to get to the power radiated by a single electron moving with constant **pitch angle** α between the electron velocity, \vec{v} , and the magnetic field, \vec{B} : $P = \frac{2e^2}{3c^3}\gamma^2 \frac{e^2 B^2}{m_0^2 c^2} v^2 \sin^2 \alpha.$

Often written in terms of the **Thomson cross section** of an electron:

$$\sigma_{\rm T} \equiv \frac{8\pi}{3} \left(\frac{e^2}{m_{\rm e}c^2}\right)^2 \approx 6.65 \times 10^{-25} \ {\rm cm}^2 \qquad (5.33 \& 5.34)$$

Synchrotron power radiated by a single electron depends only on physical constants, the square of the electron kinetic energy (via y), the magnetic energy density, U_B , and pitch angle, α

And the magnetic energy density:

$$U_B = \frac{B^2}{8\pi}.$$
 (5.35)

$$\Rightarrow P = 2\sigma_{\rm T}\beta^2\gamma^2 c \ U_B \sin^2 \alpha.$$
 (5.37)

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(5.32)

Synchrotron Power (5.2)

(5.2.3) Synchrotron Power Radiated by a single electron

The **average synchrotron power <P>** per electron in an ensemble of electrons having the same Lorentz factor and isotopically distributed **pitch angles** α





Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

cyclotron radiation



As the electron goes around its orbit, we see the following effect \rightarrow

"Flash" from electron going around its orbit is going almost as fast as the speed of light so we get two main effects:

Pulse is amplified
 Pulse is shortened



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

Here we talk about **relativistic aberration/beaming** to show that synchrotron radiation appears at frequencies much higher than $\omega_B = \omega_G/\gamma$



Fig. 5.3 (ERA) – Relativistic aberration transforms the dipole power pattern of Larmor radiation in the electron rest frame (dotted curve) into a narrow searchlight beam in the observer's frame. The solid curve is the transformed pattern for $\gamma = 5$. The observed angle between the nulls of the forward beam falls to $\Delta \theta = 2 \arcsin(1/\gamma) \approx 2/\gamma$ in the limit $\gamma \gg 1$.

Photon beaming follows directly from relativistic velocity addition equations (see text, won't go over here!)

e.g., 10 GeV electron where $\gamma \sim 2 \times 10^4$ so $2/\gamma \sim 10^{-4}$ rad or beaming angle of $\sim 20^{22}$!



Relativistic Beaming





Example: M87 Jet Credit: NASA and the Hubble Heritage Team (STScI/AURA)

David Butler







Relativistic Beaming: M87 Jet



Credit: X-ray: NASA/CXC/MIT/H.Marshall et al. Radio: F. Zhou, F.Owen (NRAO), J.Biretta (STScI) Optical: NASA/STScI/UMBC/E.Perlman et al.



Example: M87 Jet Credit: NASA and the Hubble Heritage Team (STScI/AURA)



M87 Jets compared to EHT image

For scale \rightarrow





M87 Jets compared to EHT image

For scale \rightarrow



chandra.harvard.edu



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

Duration of a pulse:

$$\Delta t_{\rm p} = t \,(\text{end of observed pulse}) - t \,(\text{start of observed pulse}) \qquad (5.54)$$
$$= \frac{\Delta x}{v} + \frac{(x - \Delta x)}{c} - \frac{x}{c}. \qquad (5.55)$$

the observed pulse duration:

$$\Delta t_{\rm p} = \frac{\Delta x}{v} - \frac{\Delta x}{c} = \frac{\Delta x}{v} \left(1 - \frac{v}{c} \right) \quad \ll \quad \frac{\Delta x}{v} = \Delta t \tag{5.56}$$

In the limit $v \rightarrow c$:

$$\left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right)\frac{1 + v/c}{1 + v/c} = \frac{1 - v^2/c^2}{1 + v/c} \approx \frac{\gamma^{-2}}{2} = \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}$$
(5.57)

The observed pulse duration is shortened by a factor (1-v/c). Plugging into 5.56: $\Delta t \quad \Delta x \quad 1 \quad \Delta \theta \quad 1$

$$\Delta t_{\rm p} = \frac{\Delta t}{2\gamma^2} = \frac{\Delta x}{\nu} \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\omega_B} \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}.$$
 (5.58)



The observed pulse duration Δt_{ρ} is much less than the time Δt the electron needs to move a distance Δx because in the observer's frame the electron nearly keeps up with its own radiation!



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

In terms of angular frequency and pitch angle α ,

$$\Delta t_{\rm p} = \frac{1}{\gamma^2 \omega_{\rm G} \sin \alpha}, \qquad (5.60)$$

The power received as a function of time is very **spiky**, which means that the FT of this is nearly a continuous series of spikes in the frequency domain

Adjacent spikes are separated in frequency by only:

$$\Delta \nu = \frac{\nu_{\rm G}}{\gamma} < 10^{-3}$$
 Hz. (5.64)

Fig. 5.5 (ERA)

$$(\Delta t_{\rm p}/2) < 10^{-10} \text{ s} \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{-\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{$$

e.g., If $\gamma \approx 10^4$ and B ~ 10μ G, the half width of each pulse is $\Delta t_p/2 < 10^{-10}$ s and the spacing between pulses is $\gamma/v_G > 10^2$ s



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

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The power received as a function of time is very **spiky**, which means that the FT of this is nearly a continuous series of spikes in the frequency domain Fig. 5.5 (ERA) $(\Delta t_{p}/2) < 10^{-10} \text{ s} \rightarrow \int_{C}^{C} \int_{C}^{$

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Adjacent spikes are separated in frequency by only:

$$\Delta \nu = \frac{\nu_{\rm G}}{\gamma} < 10^{-3}$$
 Hz. (5.64)

Remember what the Fourier transform of a time series of pulses is?



The Fourier transforms:

III
$$\left(\frac{t\nu_{\rm G}}{\gamma}\right)$$
 (5.62) III $\left(\frac{\nu\gamma}{\nu_{\rm G}}\right)$, (5.63)

Although this is not formally a continuous spectrum, the **frequency shifts caused by even tiny fluctuations** in electron energy, magnetic field strength, or pitch angle **cause frequency shifts much larger than** Δv , so, the spectrum of synchrotron radiation is **effectively continuous**.



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

So, what does the spectrum actually look like? The synchrotron spectrum of a single electron is fairly flat at low frequencies and tapers off at frequencies above,

$$\nu_{\rm max} \approx \frac{1}{2\Delta t_{\rm p}} \approx \pi \gamma^2 \nu_{\rm G} \sin \alpha \propto \gamma^2 B_{\perp}.$$
 (5.65)

The continuous distribution looks more like a power-law that should be plotted in log space \rightarrow

And the formal solution to the power spectrum is,

$$P(\nu) = \frac{\sqrt{3}e^{3}B\sin\alpha}{m_{e}c^{2}} \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_{c}}\right) \int_{\nu/\nu_{c}}^{\infty} K_{5/3}(\eta) \, d\eta, \qquad (5.66)$$

$$u = \frac{3}{2} v^{2} \nu_{0} \sin\alpha \, d\eta, \qquad (5.67)$$

Where,

$$\nu_{\rm c} = \frac{3}{2} \gamma^2 \nu_{\rm G} \sin \alpha. \quad (5.67)$$

Four different ways to plot the synchrotron spectrum of a single electron: Fig. 5.6 (ERA)





Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

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Four different ways to plot the synchrotron spectrum of a single electron: Fig. 5.6 (ERA)





Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

Where,

(5.3.1) Synchrotron Spectrum of a Single Electron

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$$\nu_{\rm c} = \frac{3}{2} \gamma^2 \nu_{\rm G} \sin \alpha. = \left(\frac{3}{2} \sin \alpha\right) \left(\frac{E}{mc^2}\right)^2 \frac{eB}{2\pi m_{\rm e}c} \propto E^2 B_{\perp}.$$

Four different ways to plot the synchrotron Fig. 5.6 (ERA) spectrum of a single electron:

BSFR



Observatory

Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.2) Synchrotron Spectra of Optically Thin Radio Sources

Most astrophysical sources of synchrotron radiation behave as power laws and have spectral indices near $\alpha \sim 0.75$ ($\delta \sim 2.5$) that reflects electron energy distributions

As we did for free-free, now we can write the **emission coefficient** j_v for an ensemble of electrons where ' δ ' is now used for our power law that describes the **number of electrons per unit volume**,

$$n(E) dE \propto E^{-\delta} dE,$$
 (5.70)

$$j_{\nu}d\nu = -\frac{dE}{dt}n\left(E\right)dE,\quad(5.73)$$

Lots of substituting later (see text) we have,

$$j_{\nu} \propto B^{(\delta+1)/2} \nu^{(1-\delta)/2}$$
. (5.79)



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.2) Synchrotron Spectra of Optically Thin Radio Sources

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$$j_{\nu} d\nu = -\frac{dE}{dt} n(E) dE, \qquad (5.73)$$

 $j_{\nu} \propto B^{(\delta+1)/2} \nu^{(1-\delta)/2}$

Lots of substituting later (see text) we have,

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(5.78)

The spectral index α=–dlnS/dlnv depend s only on δ:

$$\alpha = \frac{\delta - 1}{2}.$$
 (5.79)

Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.2) Synchrotron Spectra of Optically Thin Radio Sources

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GREEN BAN

(5.78)





Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

Spectrum of radio galaxies that are \rightarrow strong synchrotron emitters

Power-law evident here, with some mild differences which is determined by relativistic electron distribution



Slide Credit: Jim Braatz



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.3) Synchrotron Self-Absorption

Here we discuss line brightness and fluxes...

Even if the ensemble of electrons has a nonthermal energy distribution, we still define an **'effective temperature'** of relativistic electrons:

$$T_{\rm e} \equiv \frac{E}{3k} = \frac{\gamma m_{\rm e} c^2}{3k}, \quad (5.83)$$

Removing γ and solving numerically we have,

$$\frac{\left(\frac{T_{\rm e}}{\rm K}\right) \approx 1.18 \times 10^{6} \left(\frac{\nu}{\rm Hz}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{B}{\rm gauss}\right)^{-1/2}}{\rm Pelativistic electrons e}$$
(5.85)

→ Relativistic electrons emitting synchrotron radiation at v = 0.1 GHz =10⁸ Hz in a B=100µgauss = 10^{-4} gauss magnetic field is T_e ~ 10^{12} K











Synchrotron Radiation

Free-Free Radiation



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.3) Synchrotron Self-Absorption

Spectrum of radio galaxies that are \rightarrow strong synchrotron emitters

Turn over or 'drop-off' at low frequency that shows the **Synchrotron Self-Absorption**



Slide Credit: Jim Braatz



Synchrotron Spectra (5.3)

(5.3.3) Synchrotron Self-Absorption

Representative spectra of radio galaxies → and quasars show diversity in nonuniform magnetic fields and electron energy distributions in geometrically complex structures











Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.1) Minimum Energy and Equipartition

Idea here to find the minimum total energy in relativistic particles and magnetic fields required to produced a synchrotron source of a certain radio luminosity

The text goes over derivations to solve for **electron energy density** by integrating over the number density of electrons n(E)dE in the energy range E to E + dE times electrons with energy, E.

We get:

 $U_{\rm e} \propto B^{-3/2}$,

(5.98) and a total energy density (all cosmic rays) of $U_{
m E}=(1+\eta)\,U_{
m e}$

Where we consider the "invisible" cosmic ray protons and heavier ions because they still contribute to the total cosmic-ray particle energy, where η is the ion/electron energy ratio

Combining the magnetic energy density, $U_B \propto B^2$. (5.99)

The total energy is:

$$U = (1 + \eta) U_{\rm e} + U_B.$$
 (5.100)





 $U = U_{\mathbf{B}} + U_{\mathbf{E}}$

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 $U_{\rm B} \propto B^2$

10



 $\boxed{\frac{\text{particle energy density}}{\text{magnetic field energy density}} = \frac{(1+\eta) U_e}{U_B} = \frac{4}{3}.} \quad (5.107)$

Nearly unity!

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Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.1) Minimum Energy and Equipartition

Main goal then is to extract out the minimum-energy magnetic field strength for a source of radio luminosity *L* and radius *R*,

$$B_{\min} = [4.5 (1 + \eta) c_{12}L]^{2/7} R^{-6/7}$$
 gauss (5.109)

And the corresponding total energy,

$$E_{\min} (\text{total}) = c_{13} [(1 + \eta) L]^{4/7} R^{9/7} \text{ ergs.}$$
 (5.110)

Which have been simplified numerically (see text and references Wilson et al., and Pacholczyk).

Fig. 5.10 (ERA)





Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.1) Minimum Energy and Equipartition

Another key term to know is the **synchrotron lifetime,** defined as the ratio of the total electron energy E_e to the energy loss rate in terms of luminosity *L*:

$$\tau_{\rm s} \equiv \frac{E_{\rm e}}{L}.$$
 (5.111)

If other loss mechanisms (e.g., inverse-Compton scattering) are significant, the **actual source lifetime will be shortened** And can be written in terms of c_{12} and B-field:

$$\tau_{\rm s} \approx c_{12} B_{\perp}^{-3/2}$$
. (5.112)

Fig. 5.10 (ERA)





Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.1) Minimum Energy and Equipartition

Another key term to know is the **synchrotron lifetime**, defined as the ratio of the total electron energy E_e to the energy loss rate in terms of luminosity *L*:

$$\tau_{\rm s} \equiv \frac{E_{\rm e}}{L}.$$
 (5.111)

If other loss mechanisms (e.g., inverse-Compton scattering) are significant, the **actual source lifetime will be shortened** \rightarrow And can be written in terms of c₁₂ and B-field:

$$\tau_{\rm s} \approx c_{12} B_{\perp}^{-3/2}$$
. (5.112)



