Emission Mechanisms





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_{ν} 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,

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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)

The rapid depletion of high-energy electrons steepens the radio spectrum

Higher energy particles lose energy faster than the lower energy particles! Therefore, you can use the synchrotron spectrum to 'age' your emission

Broadband Radio Astronomy ToolS (BRATS) software package \rightarrow

Ŕ \circ 52 -2310 / Jy 10⁻²⁵10⁻²⁵10⁻²⁴10 27 -³⁰10⁻²⁹10⁻²⁸10 $-32_{10}^{-31}_{10}$ *Holder* 10¹³ 1010 1011 10¹² 10^{8} 10⁹ 10 Frequency / Hz

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Harwood et al., 2013

model ages between 0 (red) and 10 (purple) Myrs

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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10

0.1

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)

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. (5.112)





Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.3) Application to Cyg A

Main part of this chapter section applies what we've learned to famous radio galaxy, Cyg A \rightarrow

1) The radio power exceeds the power produced by all the stars in our galaxy!

$$\frac{L}{L_{\odot}} \approx \frac{1.33 \times 10^{45} \text{ erg s}^{-1}}{3.83 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg s}^{-1}} \approx 3.5 \times 10^{11}.$$

Fig. 5.12 (ERA)





Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.3) Application to Cyg A

Main part of this chapter section applies what we've learned to famous radio galaxy, Cyg A \rightarrow

1) The radio power exceeds the power produced by all the stars in our galaxy!

2) Large energies $E_{min} \sim 10^{60}$ ergs!

 $E_{\min} \approx 2 \text{ (lobes)} \cdot c_{13} [(1+\eta) L]^{4/7} R^{9/7}$ $\approx 2 \cdot 2.0 \times 10^4 \left(\frac{1.33 \times 10^{45} \text{ erg s}^{-1}}{2}\right)^{4/7} (9 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm})^{9/7} (1+\eta)^{4/7},$ $E_{\min} \approx 4 \times 10^4 \cdot 4.1 \times 10^{25} \cdot 3.26 \times 10^{29} \cdot (1 \text{ to } 80) \text{ ergs} (5.120)$ $\approx 5.4 \times 10^{59} \cdot (1 \text{ to } 80) \text{ ergs} \sim 5 \times 10^{60} \text{ ergs}. (5.121)$ Fig. 5.12 (ERA)





Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.3) Application to Cyg A

Large energies $E_{min} \sim 10^{60}$ ergs!

 $E_{\min} \approx 2 (\text{lobes}) \cdot c_{13} [(1+\eta) L]^{4/7} R^{9/7}$ $\approx 2 \cdot 2.0 \times 10^4 \left(\frac{1.33 \times 10^{45} \text{ erg s}^{-1}}{2}\right)^{4/7} (9 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm})^{9/7} (1+\eta)^{4/7},$ $E_{\min} \approx 4 \times 10^4 \cdot 4.1 \times 10^{25} \cdot 3.26 \times 10^{29} \cdot (1 \text{ to } 80) \text{ ergs} (5.120)$ $\approx 5.4 \times 10^{59} \cdot (1 \text{ to } 80) \text{ ergs} \sim 5 \times 10^{60} \text{ ergs}. (5.121)$



The radio source (red) in the galaxy cluster MS0735.6+7421 has displaced the X-ray emitting gas (blue)

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Fig. 8.15 (ERA)

Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

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1) The radio power exceeds the power produced by all the stars in our galaxy!

2) Large energies $E_{min} \sim 10^{60}$ ergs!

3) The energy source is a supermassive black hole with $M >> 3 \times 10^6 M_{sun}$

$$M \ge \frac{E_{\min}}{c^2} \approx \frac{5 \times 10^{60} \text{ ergs}}{(3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1})^2} \approx 6 \times 10^{39} \text{ g},$$
$$M \ge 6 \times 10^{39} \text{ g} \left(\frac{M_{\odot}}{1.99 \times 10^{33} \text{ g}}\right) \approx 3 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}.$$

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Fig. 5.12 (ERA)



Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.3) Application to Cyg A

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1) The radio power exceeds the power produced by all the stars in our galaxy!

2) Large energies $E_{min} \sim 10^{60}$ ergs!

3) The energy source is a supermassive black hole with $M >> 3 \times 10^6 M_{sun}$

4) The age of the radio source can be estimated,

$$\tau \ge \tau_{\rm s} \equiv \frac{E_{\rm e}}{L} \ge \frac{E_{\rm min}/(1+\eta)}{L},$$

$$\tau \ge \frac{5.4 \times 10^{59} \text{ erg } (1+\eta)^{4/7}}{1.33 \times 10^{45} \text{ erg } \text{ s}^{-1} (1+\eta)} \approx 4 \times 10^{14} \text{ s} \cdot \eta^{-3/7} \sim 10^{14} \text{ s} \sim 3 \times 10^{6} \text{ yr}$$

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Fig. 5.12 (ERA)













Synchrotron Sources (5.4)

(5.4.3) Application to Cyg A



As we've seen, in M87 the jet \rightarrow extends to optical frequencies!

In the case of Vir A, the source in M87, the slope is straight even out to higher frequencies indicates very short timescales!

Something outside the radio core (e.g., shocks in the jet) must replenish the supply of relativistic electrons





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*:

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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)







Electron oscillates sinusoidally: dipole emission uniformly in all azimuthal angles



3 types of scattering that are all related:

- 1) Thomson scattering
- 2) Compton scattering

3) Inverse Compton scattering

Much higher energy... either the electrons are moving relativistic or E&M photons moving at high energy





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- 1) Thomson scattering
- 2) Compton scattering

3) Inverse Compton scattering

Much higher energy... either the electrons are moving relativistic or E&M photons moving at high energy

Compton scattering: When the momentum of the incident photons becomes significant, we have to treat the scattering process as a relativistic particle-particle collision. This was originally experimentally demonstrated by Compton's measurement that the wavelength of X-rays increases when they are scattered against electrons Outgoing photon energy E2 α θ Incident photon energy E1 **Inverse Compton scattering:** Opposite process when you have low energy photons boosted to higher energies from ultra Outgoing electron energy γmc^2 relativistic electrons



Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

Thomson scattering of this highly anisotropic radiation systematically reduces the electron kinetic energy and converts it into **Inverse-Compton** (IC) radiation by upscattering radio photons to become optical or X-ray photons



For a relativistic electron at rest in the "primed" frame moving with velocity v along the x-axis, the angle of incidence θ' of incoming photons will be much less than the corresponding **angle** θ **in the rest frame of the observer**

Beam width
$$ightarrow \Delta heta = 2/\gamma$$



Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

Thomson scattering of this highly anisotropic radiation systematically reduces the electron kinetic energy and converts it into **inverse-Compton** (IC) radiation by upscattering radio photons to become optical or X-ray photons

The scattered power can be rewritten as,

$$P = \sigma_{\rm T} c U_{\rm rad}, \qquad (5.132)$$

Where $U_{\text{rad}} = |S|^{\prime}/c$ is the energy density of the incident radiation

We still need to apply Lorentz transforms to understand what the observers sees now that we are in the relativistic limit For a relativistic electron at rest in the "primed" frame moving with velocity v along the x-axis, the angle of incidence θ' of incoming photons will be much less than the corresponding **angle** θ **in the rest frame of the observer**

Beam width
$$\rightarrow \Delta \theta = 2/\gamma$$









Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

The time between being hit by the two photons in the electron's frame is $\Delta t'=t'_2-t'_1$ so,

$$\Delta t = \Delta t' \left[\gamma \left(1 + \beta \cos \theta \right) \right]. \quad (5.140)$$

And in the electron's frame the frequency is,

$$\nu' = \nu \left[\gamma \left(1 + \beta \cos \theta \right) \right]. \tag{5.142}$$

And the energy density is boosted by this $[\gamma(1+\beta\cos\theta)]$ factor twice: $U'_{red} = n'_{\nu}h\nu'$

$$= n_{\gamma}' h \nu' = n_{\gamma} \left[\gamma \left(1 + \beta \cos \theta \right) \right] h \nu \left[\gamma \left(1 + \beta \cos \theta \right) \right]$$

$$= U_{\rm rad} [\gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta)]^2. \qquad (5.144)$$



Two successive photons striking an electron moving to the right. The photons approach at angle θ from the x-axis, as seen in the unprimed observer's frame.



Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

Then, the transformation between U_{rad} and U'_{rad} depends on the angle θ between the direction of the photons and the direction of the electron motion...

Lots of math and algebra later gives us ' P_{IC} ' which is the **net Inverse–Compton power gained by the radiation field and lost by the electron**:

$$P_{\rm IC} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_{\rm T} c \beta^2 \gamma^2 U_{\rm rad} \qquad (5.152)$$



Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

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$$P_{\rm IC} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_{\rm T} c \beta^2 \gamma^2 U_{\rm rad} \qquad (5.152)$$

Remember synchrotron – constants the same!

$$\langle P \rangle = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_{\rm T} \beta^2 \gamma^2 c U_B.$$
 (5.42)

So, the ratio of IC to synchrotron radiation losses is:

$$\frac{P_{\rm IC}}{P_{\rm syn}} = \frac{U_{\rm rad}}{U_B}.$$
 (5.154)

And the IC loss is proportional to the radiation energy density and the synchrotron loss is proportional to the magnetic energy density



Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

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$$\frac{P_{\rm IC}}{P_{\rm syn}} = \frac{U_{\rm rad}}{U_B}.$$
 (5.154)

And the IC loss is proportional to the radiation energy density and the synchrotron loss is proportional to the magnetic energy density

Their effects on the radio spectra are indistinguishable!



Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)



The inverse-Compton spectrum of electrons with energy y irradiated by photons of frequency v_0 .

The maximum frequency of the upscattered radiation in the observer's frame,

$$\frac{\nu}{\nu_0} \approx 4\gamma^2. \quad (5.157)$$

and the **average frequency** $\langle v \rangle$ of upscattered photons is,

$$\frac{\langle \nu \rangle}{\nu_0} = \frac{4}{3}\gamma^2.$$
 (5.160)

 \rightarrow e.g., for isotropic radio photons at v_0 =1 GHz, IC scattered by electrons having γ =10⁴, will be upscattered to an average frequency of 1.3 x 10¹⁷ Hz (X-ray frequencies!!)





The inverse-Compton spectrum of electrons with energy γ irradiated by photons of frequency v_0 .



Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

Example spectrum of galaxy Mk 421 \rightarrow





Fig. 5.17 (ERA)

Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

Inverse-Compton Scattering (5.5)

NOTE: Inverse-Compton losses very strongly cool the relativistic electrons if the source brightness temperature exceeds $T_{\rm b} \sim 10^{12}$ K in the rest frame of the source

Aka there is a feedback loop and runaway feedback process that prevents brightness temperatures from reaching larger values than 10¹² K





Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

Bright radio-source **components** (discrete regions of enhanced brightness) are often **seen to move with apparent transverse velocities exceeding the speed of light**.

This illusion of **superluminal velocities** can occur if the components are moving obliquely toward the observer with relativistic speeds \rightarrow





Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

Bright radio-source **components** (discrete regions of enhanced brightness) are often **seen to move with apparent transverse velocities exceeding the speed of light**.

This illusion of **superluminal velocities** can occur if the components are moving obliquely toward the observer with relativistic speeds \rightarrow







Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

"Radio quasars aren't' isotropic candles spread throughout the universe, they are beamed flashlights"

AKA the brightest aren't always the most luminous, they are just pointing in our direction!

Angle that maximizes β is,

$$\cos\theta_{\rm m} = \beta \qquad (5.170)$$

And the maximum apparent β is across the plane of the sky:

$$\max \left[\beta_{\perp} \text{ (apparent)}\right] = \frac{\beta (1 - \beta^2)^{1/2}}{1 - \beta^2} = \beta \gamma. \quad (5.172)$$

The beam also has a **Transverse Doppler Shift** affect (due to time dilation) and **Doppler Boosting** causing increase in flux of beam coming towards us and decrease for one away from us!



→ e.g., quasar 3C 279 (from previous slide) the β is greater or equal to 0.96 and thus θ_m is max at 16 degrees

See animation: http://www.cv.nrao.edu/~abridle/3c31fr ee/3c31anim_const_sen_flame.htm



Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6) Fig. 20 (ERA)

Radio Galaxy 3C31

NGC 383





Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

3C 348

Fig. 8.14 (ERA)



Fig. 5.12 (ERA)







Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6) Fig. 20 (ERA)

Radio Galaxy 3C31

NGC 383

FRI:

the center

Jets/lobes that appear to fade away at large distances from





Fig. 5.22 (ERA)

Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

(5.4.3) Unified Models

Models for active galactic nuclei (AGN) attribute some or all of the differences between observationally different objects to the inclinations of their jets relative to the line of sight





Fig. 5.22 (ERA)

Observer sees radio loud guaser

Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

(5.4.3) Unified Models



Observer sees blazar



Fig. 5.22 (ERA)

Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

(5.4.3) Unified Models



Observer sees blazar



Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

(5.4.3) Radio Emission from Normal Galaxies

The radio emission from a "**normal galaxy"** is not powered by an AGN. The continuum radio emission from normal galaxies is dominated by a combination of:

1. free–free emission from HII regions ionized by massive (M>15M $_{\odot}$) main-sequence stars

2. synchrotron radiation from cosmic-ray electrons, most of which were accelerated in the supernova remnants (SNRs) of massive (M >8 M_{\odot}) stars.





Fig. 8.13 (ERA) Radio continuum emission from M82. Image credit: Josh Marvil (NM Tech/NRAO), Bill Saxton (NRAO/AUI/NSF), Hubble (NASA/ESA/STScI).



Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

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2. synchrotron radiation from cosmic-ray electrons, most of which were accelerated in the supernova remnants (SNRs) of massive (M >8 M_{\odot}) stars.

The current radio continuum emission from normal galaxies is an extinction-free **tracer of recent star formation**, unconfused by emission from older stars





Fig. 8.13 (ERA) Radio continuum emission from M82. Image credit: Josh Marvil (NM Tech/NRAO), Bill Saxton (NRAO/AUI/NSF), Hubble (NASA/ESA/STScI).



















Relativistic Bulk Motion (5.6)

(5.4.3) Extragalactic Radio-Source Populations and Cosmological Evolution...

Sources detected by **blind surveys** covering representative areas of sky give us an unbiased statistical sample of the radio-source population.

The Very Large Array Sky Survey – **VLASS Survey!**

- Sky visible to the VLA: decl. > -40 degrees
- Frequency: 3 Ghz (2-4 GHz) "S-band"
- High angular resolution ~2.5" (VLA B/BnAconfiguration)

https://public.nrao.edu/vlass/vlass-progress/



Epoch 3.2 BnA • October 11, 2024 - October 28, 2024

THE END! Now, we have 3 complete, in-depth views over 80 percent of the sky. Data from all three phases will be combined to make even more detailed images.



VLASS Radio-Jet Menagerie!

