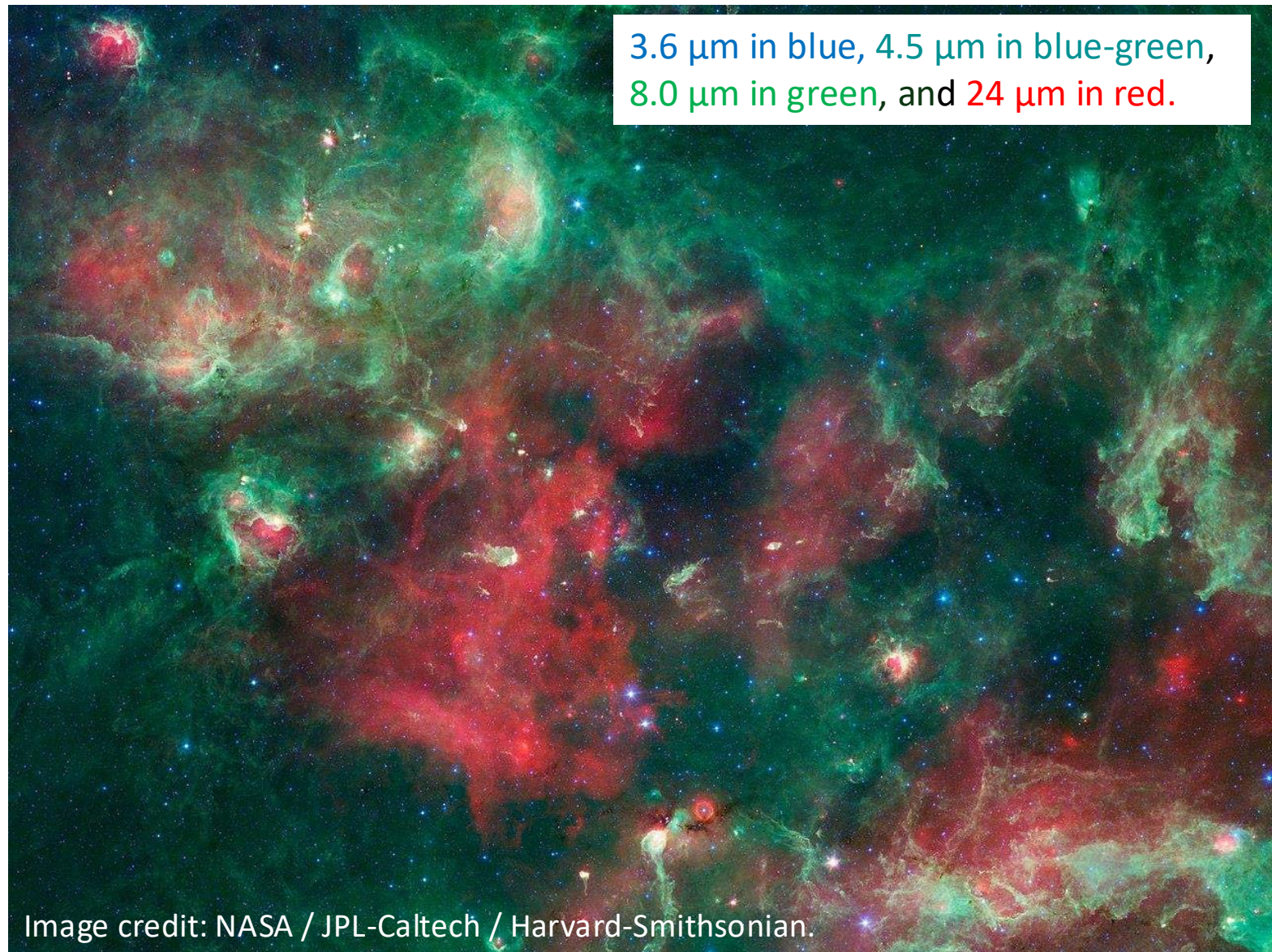


# Ionized Gas

HII Regions  
Recombination Lines  
Free-Free Emission

3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  in blue, 4.5  $\mu\text{m}$  in blue-green,  
8.0  $\mu\text{m}$  in green, and 24  $\mu\text{m}$  in red.



Cygnus X Star Forming  
region as imaged by the  
Spitzer Space Telescope →

Image credit: NASA / JPL-Caltech / Harvard-Smithsonian.

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# Emission Mechanisms

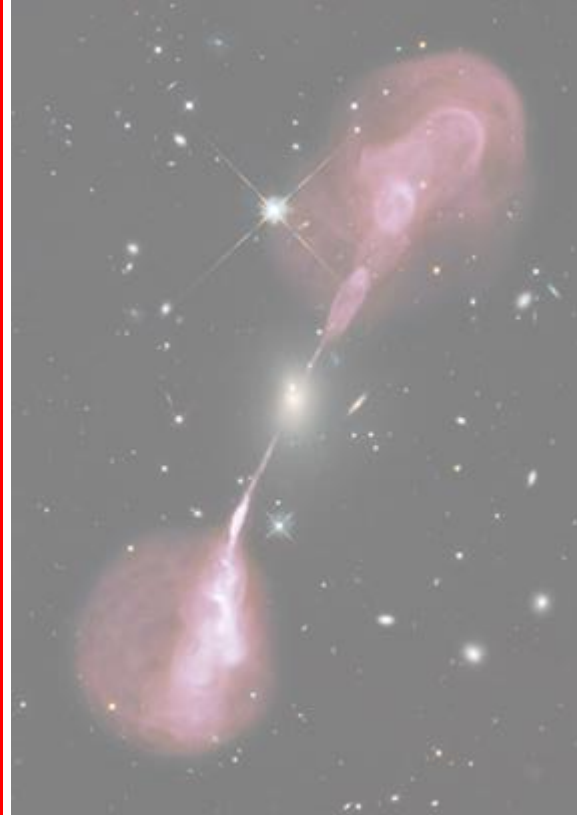
Spectral Lines (ERA Chap. 7)



Free-Free (ERA Chap. 4)



Synchrotron (ERA Chap. 5)



Pulsars (ERA Chap. 6)



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Fig. 2.24 (ERA)

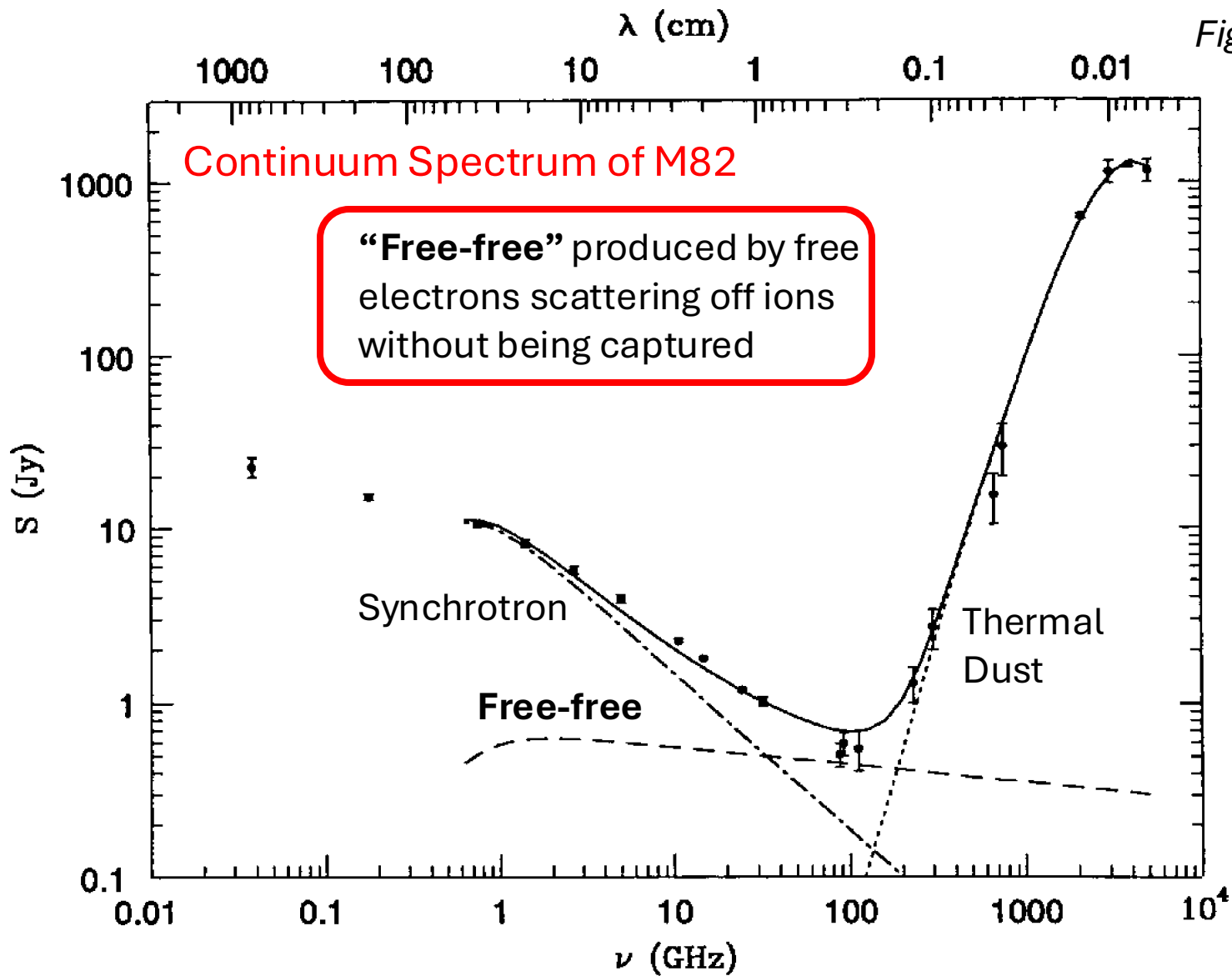
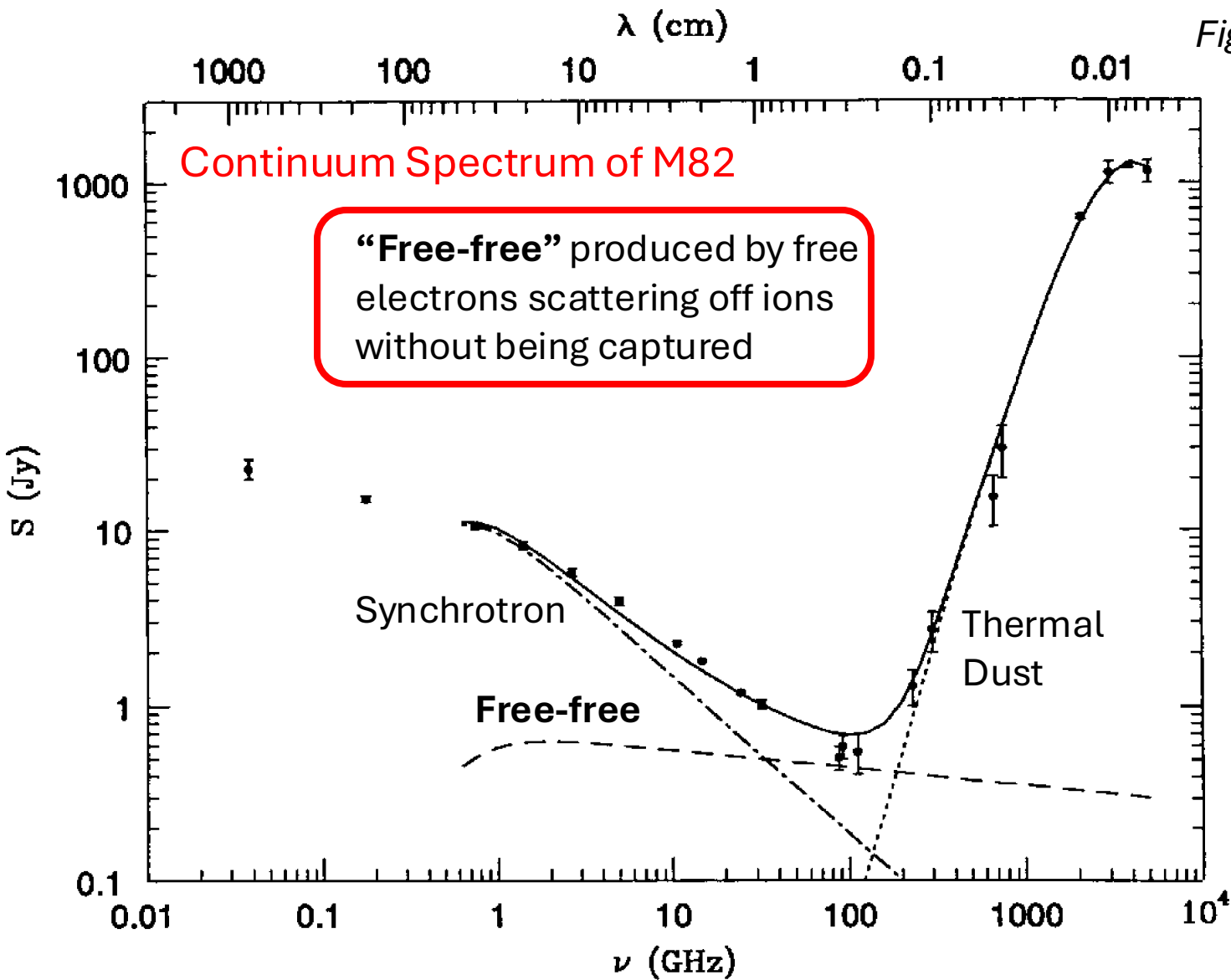
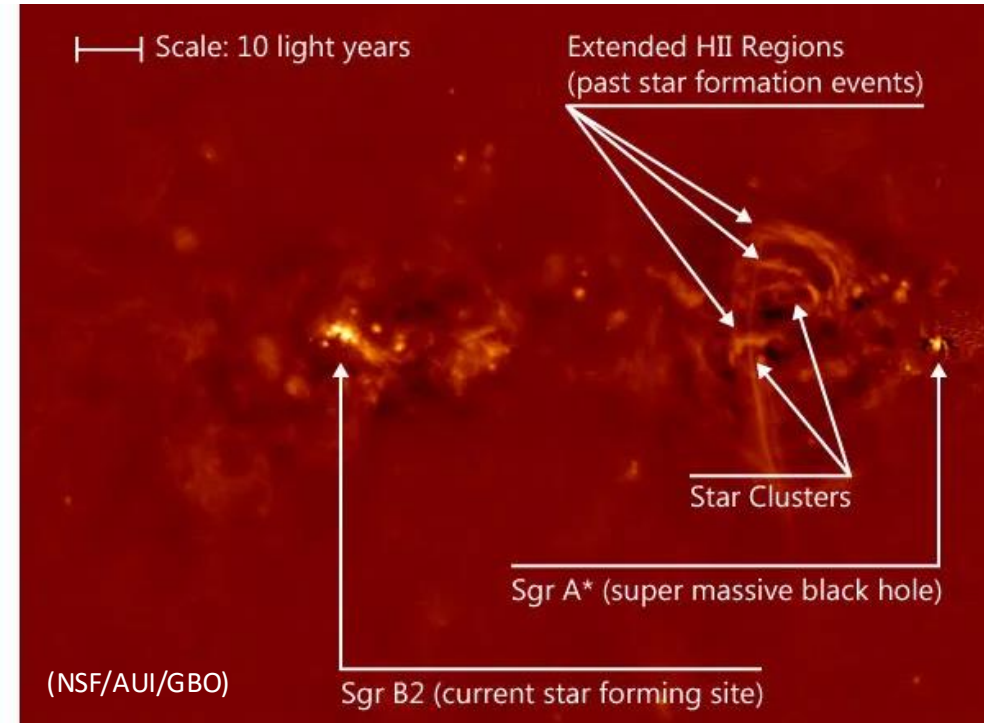


Fig. 2.24 (ERA)



Results from the **Green Bank Observatory** Continuum Instrument, MUSTANG-2, that observes the sky at wavelengths of 3mm (90 GHz)

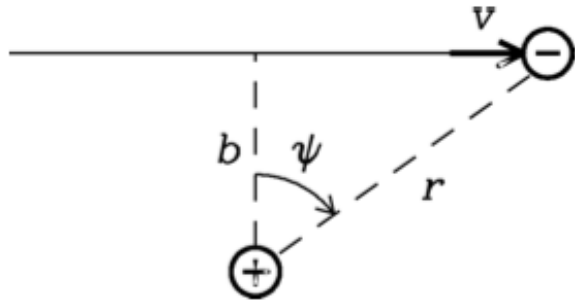


Ginsburg et al., 2020

# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.1)

## *Thermal and Nonthermal Emission*

**Free-free:** the emission from a charge (e.g., electron) in the Coulomb field of another charge (ion, electron) when it experiences a small deviation in its path



The distance of closest approach,  $b$ , is called the impact parameter and the interval  $\tau = b/v$  is the collision time.

Remember Larmor radiation power is:

$$P = \frac{2q^2\dot{v}^2}{3c^3} \quad (4.1)$$

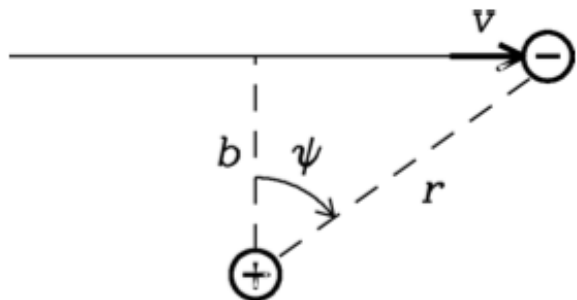
More generally, ‘**bremsstrahlung**’ radiation: **electromagnetic radiation** with power  $P$  produced by accelerating (or decelerating) an electric charge  $q$

NOTE: the magnetic counterpart **magnetobremsstrahlung** or “**magnetic braking radiation**” (e.g., synchrotron radiation) is covered in Chapter 5!

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Typically, ‘**thermal**’ and electrons follow Maxwellian distribution

NOTE: the magnetic counterpart **magnetobremsstrahlung** or “**magnetic braking radiation**” (e.g., synchrotron radiation) is covered in Chapter 5!

Typically, ‘**nonthermal**’ relativistic electrons w/ power-law energy distribution

# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

*Free-Free in HII Regions – we need to simplify the problem*

## Main Takeaway

***Only electron-ion collisions are important, and only the electrons radiate significantly***

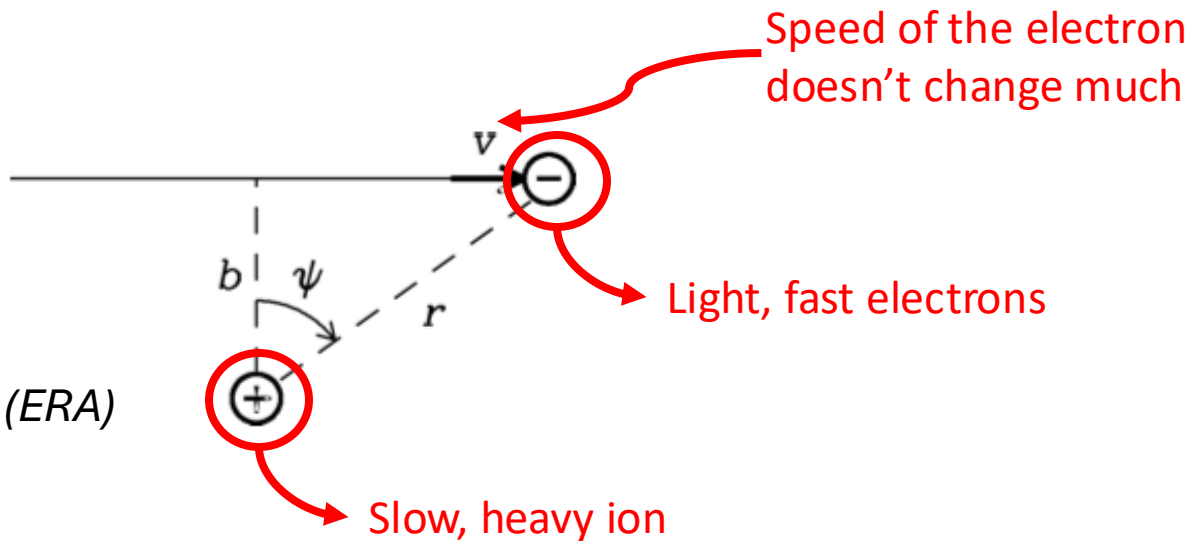
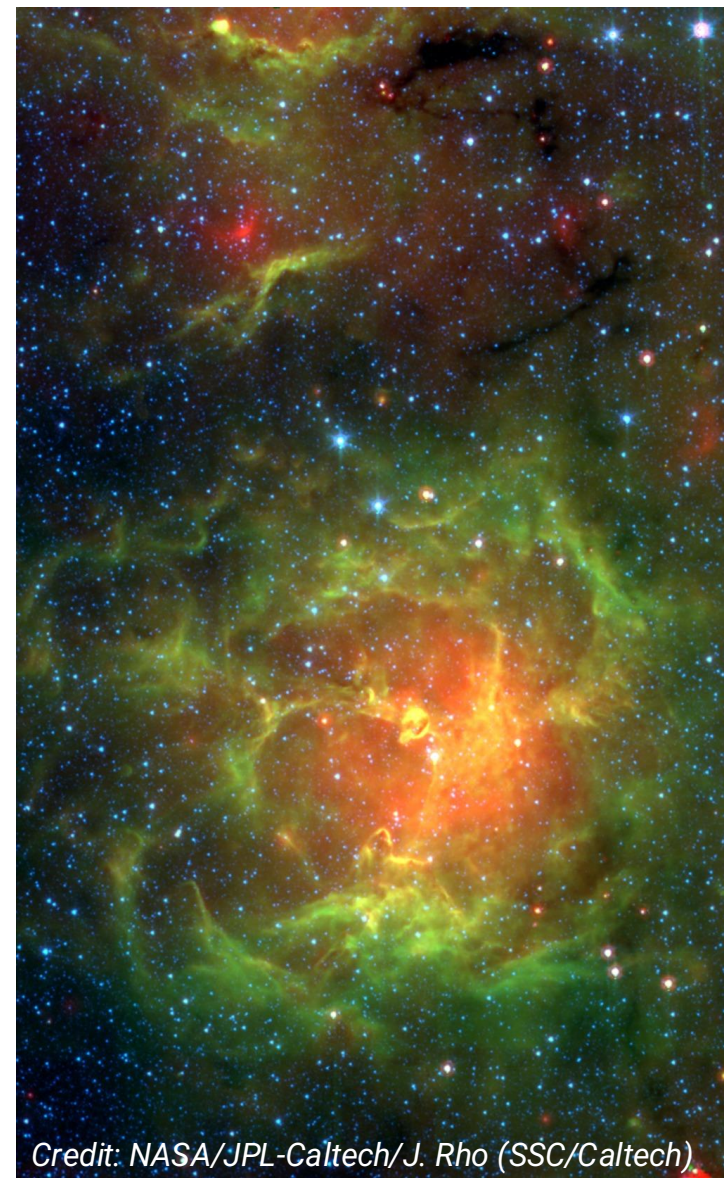


Fig. 4.2 (ERA)



The glowing **Trifid Nebula HII region** is revealed with near- and mid-infrared views from NASA's Spitzer Space Telescope.

Credit: NASA/JPL-Caltech/J. Rho (SSC/Caltech)

## Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

*Free-Free in HII Regions – we need to simplify the problem*

Simplifying the electron-ion scattering problem by estimating the mean **electron energy** in a plasma of temperature  $T$  and solving for a HII region with  $T \sim 10^4$  K gas,

$$\langle E_e \rangle = \frac{3kT}{2}. \quad (4.12)$$

$$\langle E_e \rangle \approx \frac{3 \cdot 1.38 \times 10^{-16} \text{ erg K}^{-1} \cdot 10^4 \text{ K}}{2} \approx 2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ erg} \approx 1 \text{ eV}. \quad (4.13)$$

Compared to the **energy of a radio photon only**,

$$E = h\nu \approx 6.63 \times 10^{-27} \text{ erg s} \cdot 10^{10} \text{ Hz} \approx 6.63 \times 10^{-17} \text{ erg} \approx 4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}. \quad (4.14)$$

Lost energy is so small compared to the initial energy of the electron

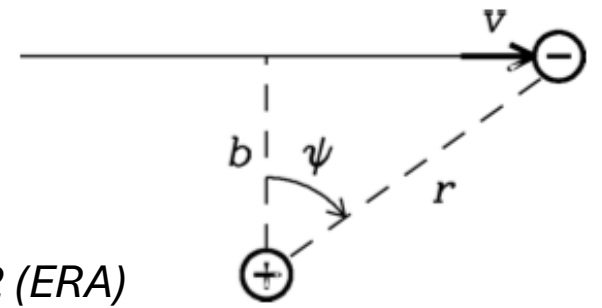


Fig. 4.2 (ERA)

### Main Takeaway

***OK to approximate the path of the electron as a straight line/linear interaction***



## Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

*Free-Free in HII Regions – we need to simplify the problem*

**While the velocity is being approximated as constant, doesn't mean it is not feeling the acceleration, which is the important part to understand this radiation!**

During the interaction the electron will be accelerated electrostatically both parallel and perpendicular to its nearly straight path,

$$F_{\parallel} = m_e \dot{v}_{\parallel} = \frac{-Ze^2}{r^2} \sin \psi = \frac{-Ze^2 \sin \psi \cos^2 \psi}{b^2}, \quad (4.15)$$

$$F_{\perp} = m_e \dot{v}_{\perp} = \frac{Ze^2}{r^2} \cos \psi = \frac{Ze^2 \cos^3 \psi}{b^2}, \quad (4.15)$$

Written in terms of impact parameter 'b' where remember  $\tau = b/v$  is the collision time.

**Let's look at this graphically...**

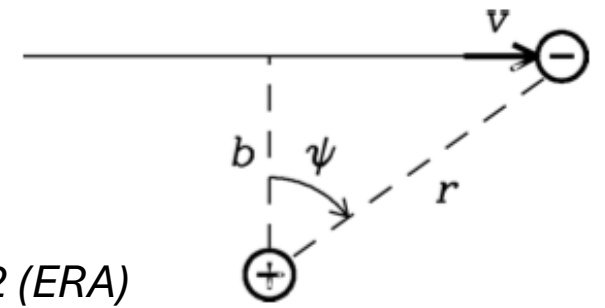
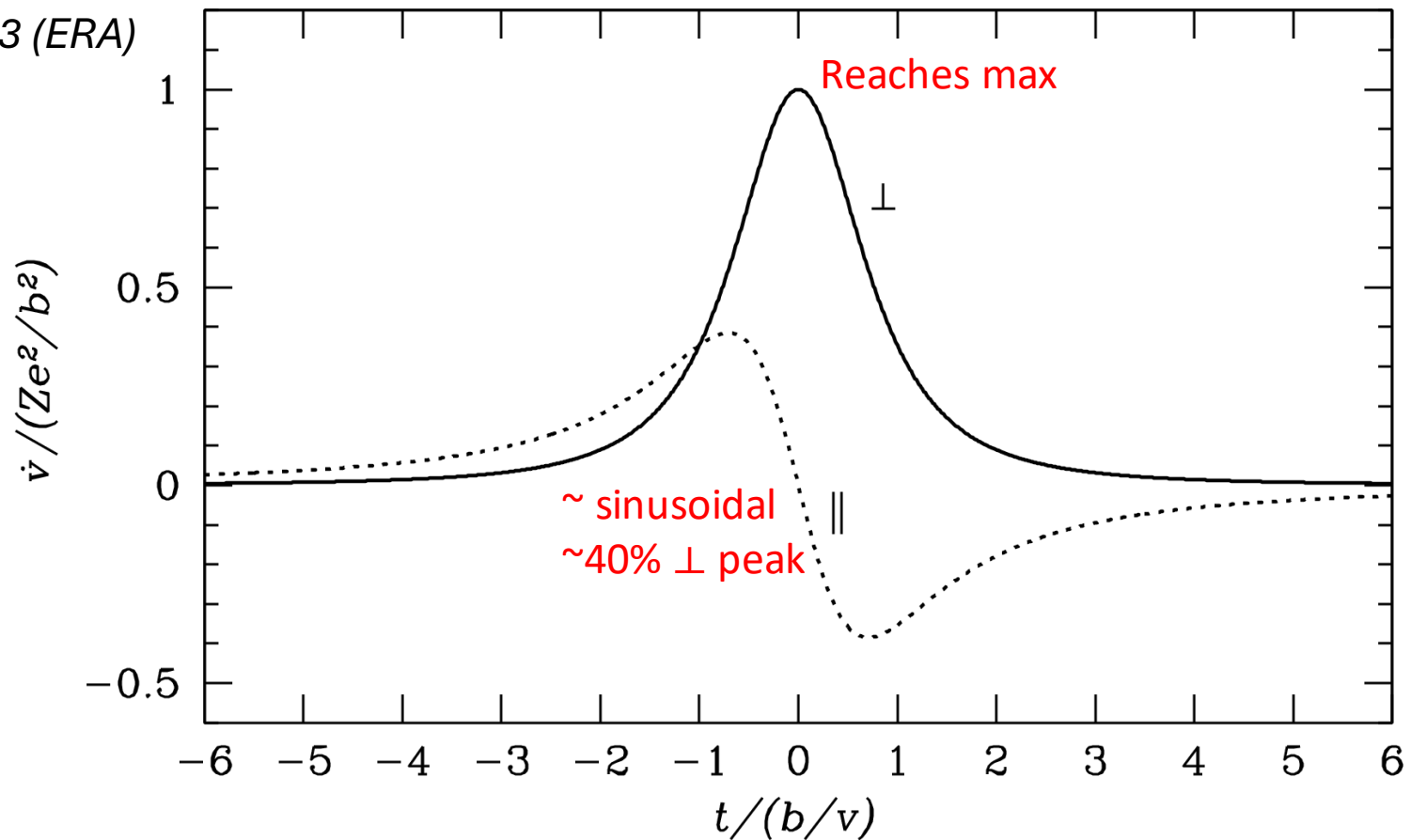


Fig. 4.2 (ERA)

# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

Free-Free in HII Regions – we need to simplify the problem

Fig. 4.3 (ERA)



Parallel,  $\parallel$



Perpendicular,  $\perp$

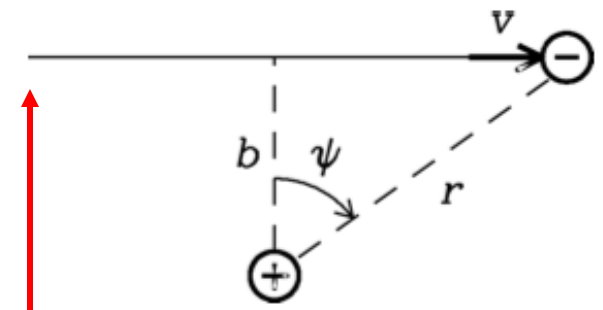
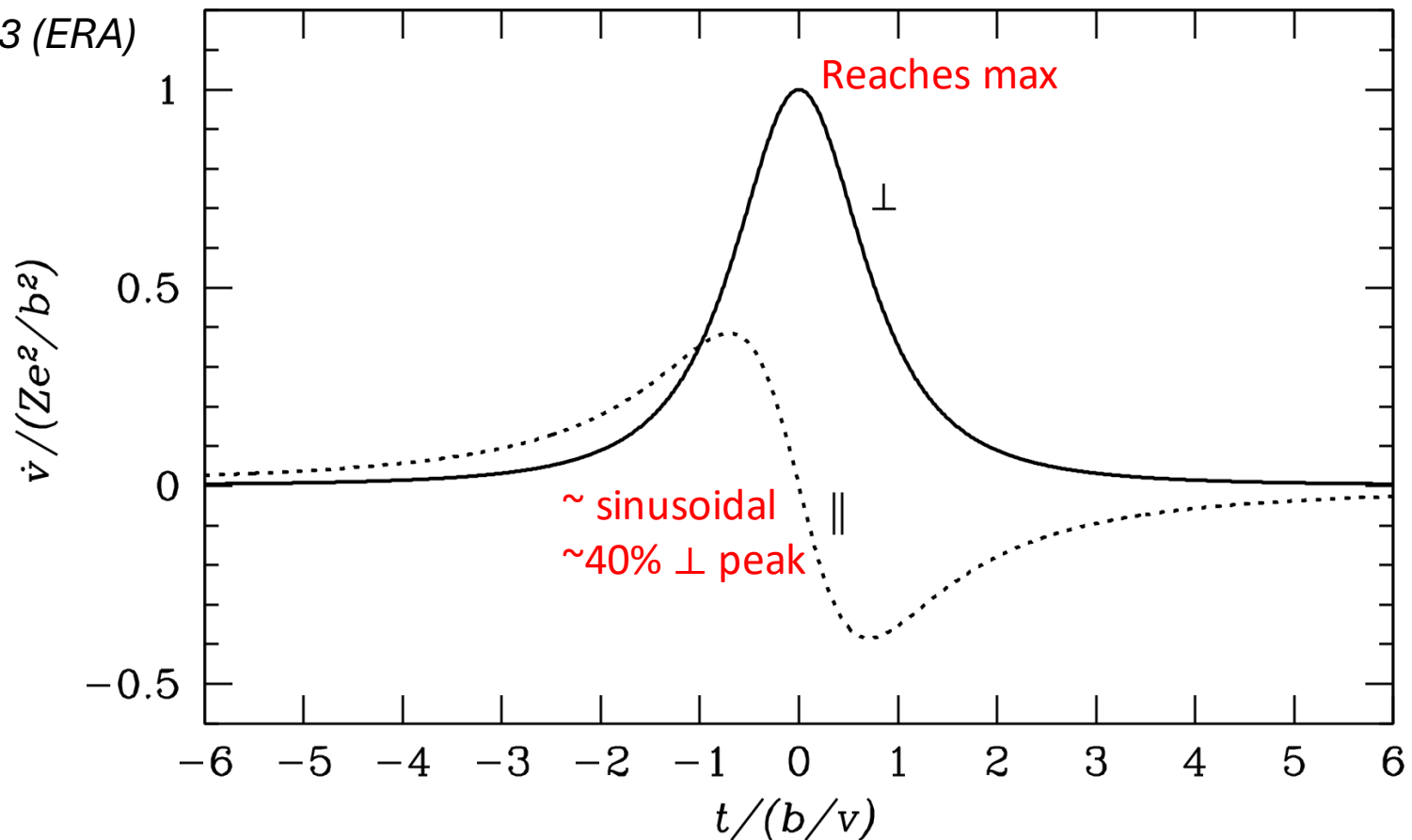


Fig. 4.2 (ERA)

# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

Free-Free in HII Regions – we need to simplify the problem

Fig. 4.3 (ERA)



Parallel,  $\parallel$



Perpendicular,  $\perp$

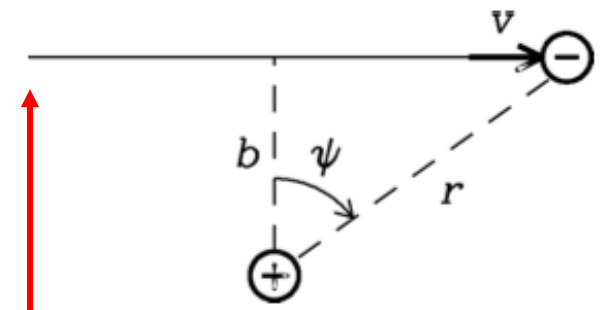


Fig. 4.2 (ERA)

**Main Takeaway**

*Periodic parallel acceleration gives signal very weak at radio frequencies.*

**We only need to worry about the perpendicular motion in the radio!**

## Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

*Free-Free in HII Regions – we need to simplify the problem*

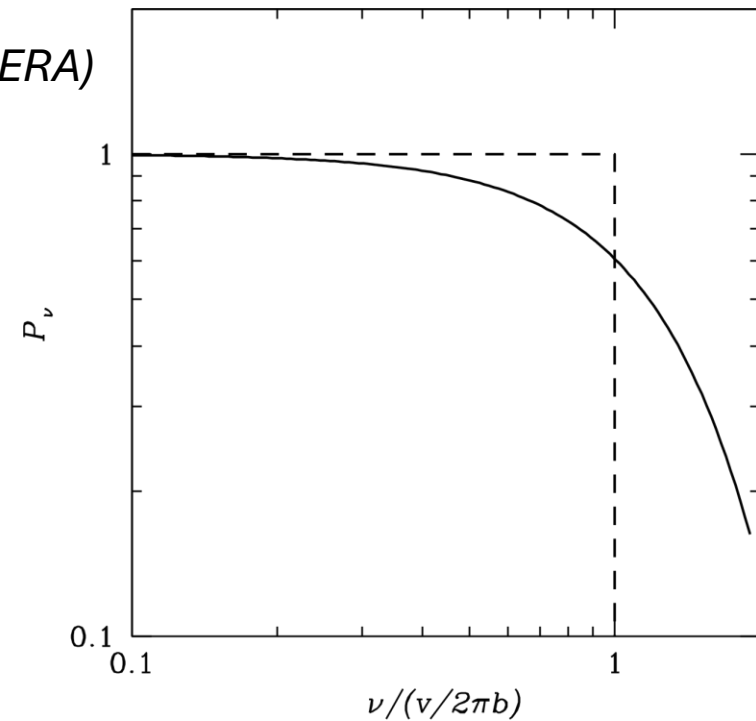
So, we take the form of the **perpendicular component** and **plug into Larmor's formula** and **integrate over all frequencies and final velocities to get our power spectrum** (see textbook for derivation details!):

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2 \dot{v}_\perp^2}{c^3} = \frac{2e^2}{3c^3} \frac{Z^2 e^4}{m_e^2} \left( \frac{\cos^3 \psi}{b^2} \right)^2. \quad (4.17)$$

$$W = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P dt. \quad (4.18) \quad W = \frac{\pi Z^2 e^6}{4c^3 m_e^2} \left( \frac{1}{b^3 v} \right). \quad (4.24)$$

From converting  $dt$  to  $d\psi$  and solving for  **$W$ , which is the pulse energy radiated by a single electron-ion interaction** characterized by impact parameter  $b$  and velocity  $v$ .

Fig. 4.4 (ERA)



# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

*Free-Free in HII Regions – we need to simplify the problem*

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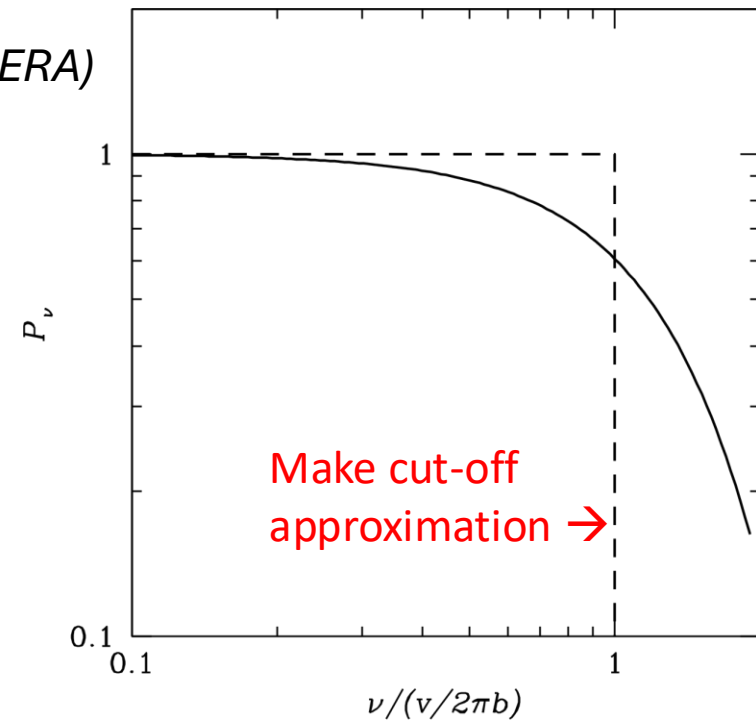
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From converting dt to dψ and solving for **W**, which is the **pulse energy radiated by a single electron-ion interaction** characterized by impact parameter *b* and velocity *v*.

**In the flat approximation the average energy per unit frequency becomes,**

$$W_\nu \approx \frac{W}{\nu_{\max}} = \left( \frac{\pi Z^2 e^6}{4c^3 m_e^2 b^3 v} \right) \left( \frac{2\pi b}{v} \right), \quad (4.25)$$

Fig. 4.4 (ERA)



## Main Takeaway

This energy is emitted in a single pulse of duration  $\tau \approx b/v$ , so the pulse **power spectrum** is nearly **flat over all frequencies**  $\nu < \nu_{\max} \approx (2\pi\tau)^{-1} \approx \nu / (2\pi b)$  and **falls rapidly at higher frequencies** that fall outside the radio:  **$\nu < \nu_{\max} \sim 10^{14}$  Hz**

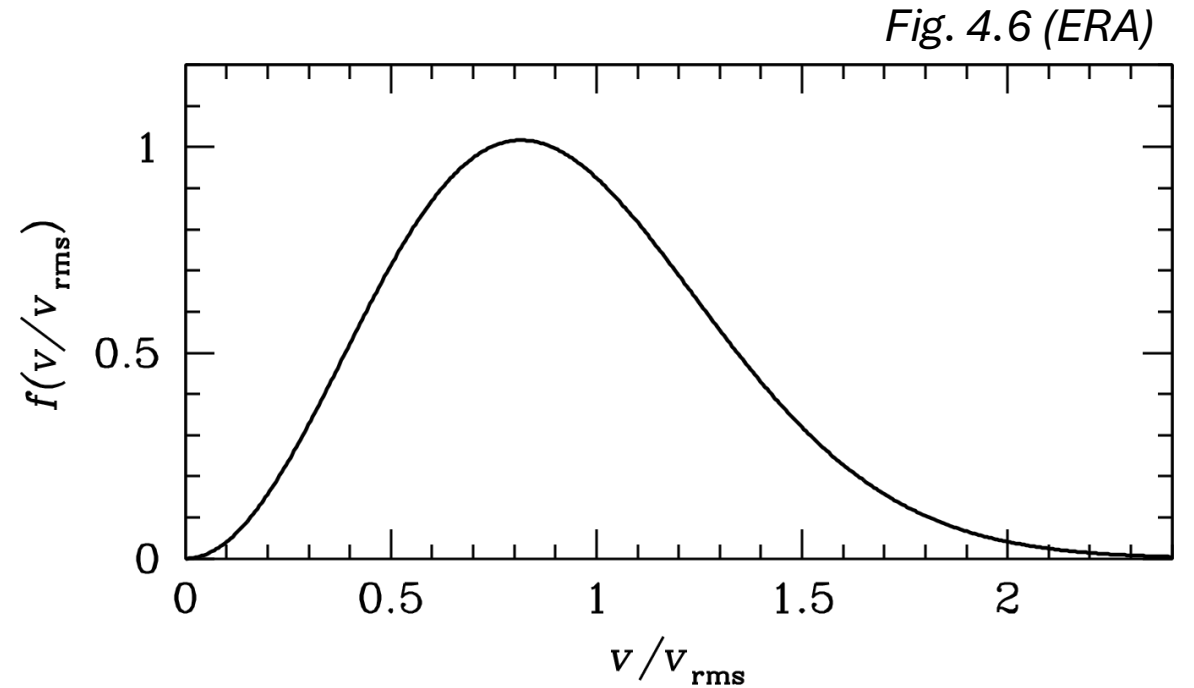
# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

## *Radio Radiation from an HII Region (LTE approximation)*

The strength and spectrum of radio emission from an HII region depends on the distributions of electron velocities  $v$  and collision impact parameters  $b$ , that follow a **Maxwellian speed distribution that depends on mass ( $m_e$ ) and temperature (T)**.

$$f(v) = \frac{4v^2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left( \frac{m_e}{2kT} \right)^{3/2} \exp\left(-\frac{m_e v^2}{2kT}\right). \quad (4.34)$$

*(see appendix B.8 for derivation)*



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See book for details on derivation(!), but once we **integrate over all impact parameters and velocities** we can write in our **free-free emission coefficient** as,

$$j_\nu = \frac{\pi^2 Z^2 e^6 n_e n_i}{4c^3 m_e^2} \left( \frac{2m_e}{\pi kT} \right)^{1/2} \ln \left( \frac{b_{\max}}{b_{\min}} \right). \quad (4.39)$$

Where  $b_{\min}$  and  $b_{\max}$  are the minimum and maximum impact parameters (NOTE: small uncertainties in these values have very little effect on the calculated emission coefficient in an HII region).

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Where  $b_{\min}$  and  $b_{\max}$  are the minimum and maximum impact parameters (NOTE: small uncertainties in these values have very little effect on the calculated emission coefficient in an HII region).

We know in **LTE we can use Kirchhoff's law** to find the **absorption coefficient** and the blackbody brightness,

$$\kappa = \frac{j_\nu}{B_\nu(T)} \approx \frac{j_\nu c^2}{2kT\nu^2} \quad (4.51)$$

Which, in the **Rayleigh-Jeans limit** becomes,

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{\nu^2 T^{3/2}} \left[ \frac{Z^2 e^6}{c} n_e n_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(m_e k)^3}} \right] \frac{\pi^2}{4} \ln \left( \frac{b_{\max}}{b_{\min}} \right). \quad (4.52)$$

**Main Takeaway**

$$\kappa \propto \nu^{-2.1}$$

# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

## Radio Radiation from an HII Region (LTE approximation)

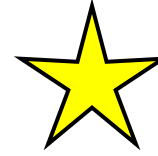
As we've done before, we can integrate our absorption coefficient along the line of sight to get an **optical depth**!

$$\tau = - \int_{\text{los}} \kappa ds \propto \int \frac{n_e n_i}{\nu^{2.1} T^{3/2}} ds \approx \int \frac{n_e^2}{\nu^{2.1} T^{3/2}} ds. \quad (4.53)$$

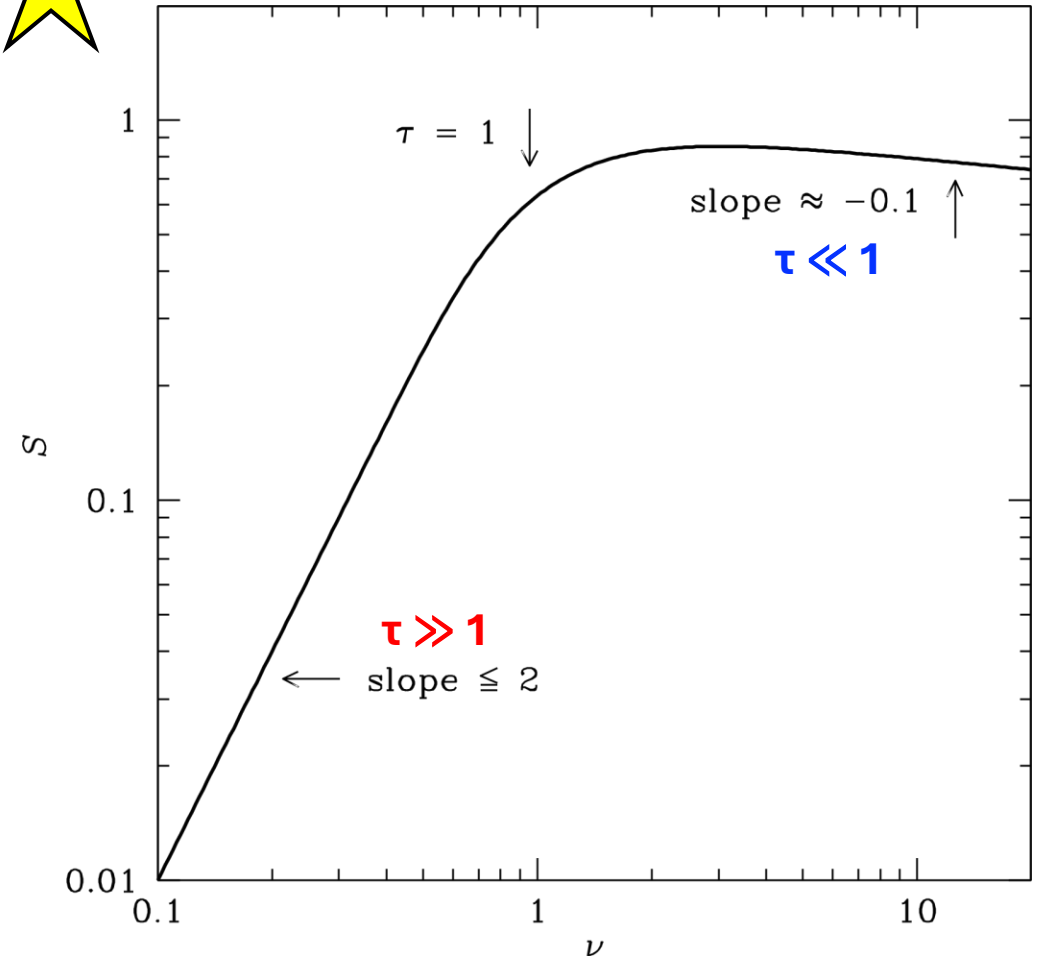
At frequencies low enough that  $\tau \gg 1$ , the HII region becomes opaque, its spectrum approaches that of a blackbody with brightness temperature approaching the electron temperature ( $T_b \approx T \sim 10^4$  K), and its flux density obeys the Rayleigh–Jeans approximation  $S \propto \nu^2$ . At very high frequencies,  $\tau \ll 1$ , the HII region is nearly transparent, and

$$S \propto \frac{2kT\nu^2}{c^2} \tau(\nu) \propto \nu^{-0.1}. \quad (4.54)$$

Fig. 4.8 (ERA)



The overall radio spectrum of a uniform HII region



# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

## Radio Radiation from an HII Region (LTE approximation)

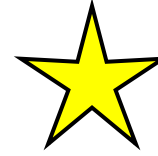
The spectral slope on a log-log plot is often called the **spectral index**

$$\alpha \equiv \pm \frac{d \log S}{d \log \nu}. \quad (4.55)$$

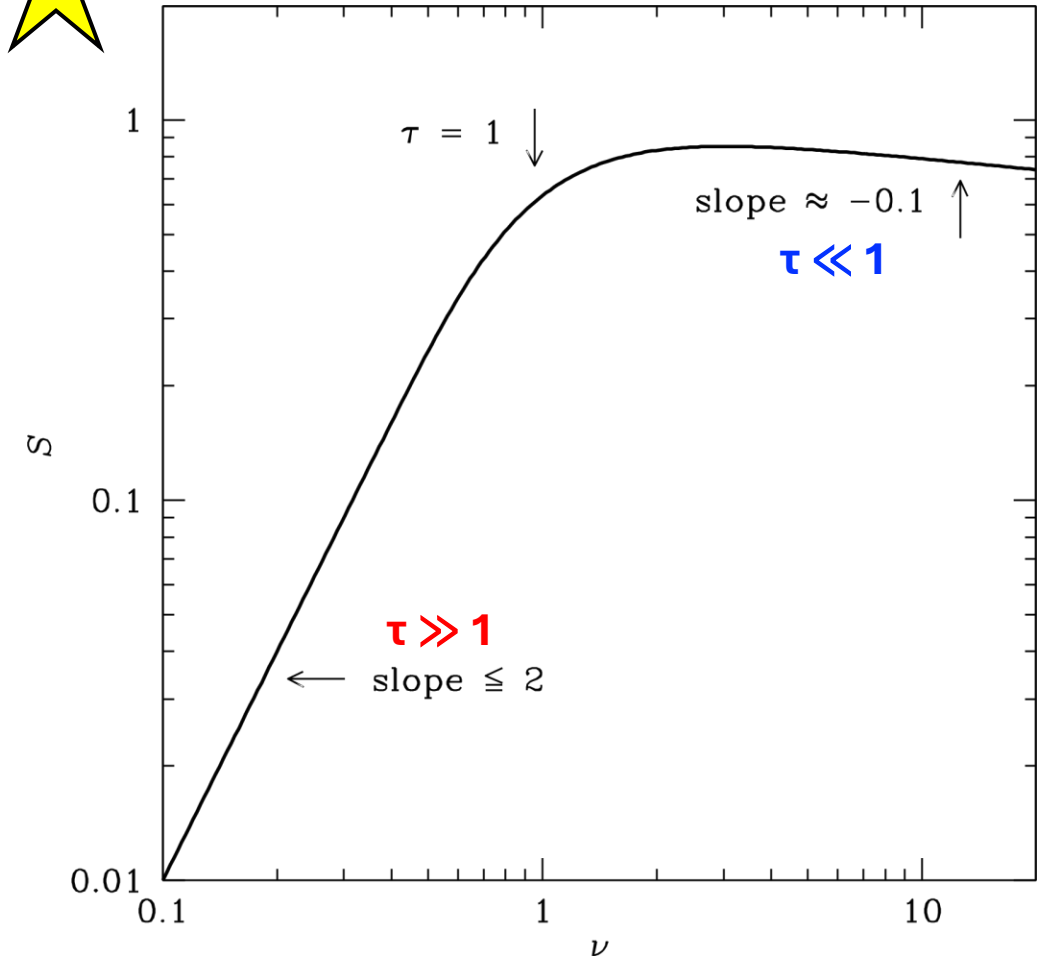
**BEWARE!** both sign conventions are found in the literature

With the + sign convention, **the low-frequency spectral index of a uniform HII region would be  $\alpha = +2$  and for an inhomogeneous HII region will be  $\alpha \approx -0.1$**

Fig. 4.8 (ERA)



The overall radio spectrum of a uniform HII region



# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

## Radio Radiation from an HII Region (LTE approximation)

Remember from recombination lines that we define an **emission measure**,

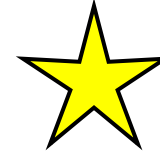
$$\frac{\text{EM}}{\text{pc cm}^{-6}} \equiv \int_{\text{los}} \left( \frac{n_e}{\text{cm}^{-3}} \right)^2 d \left( \frac{s}{\text{pc}} \right). \quad (4.57)$$

That is related to our optical depth:

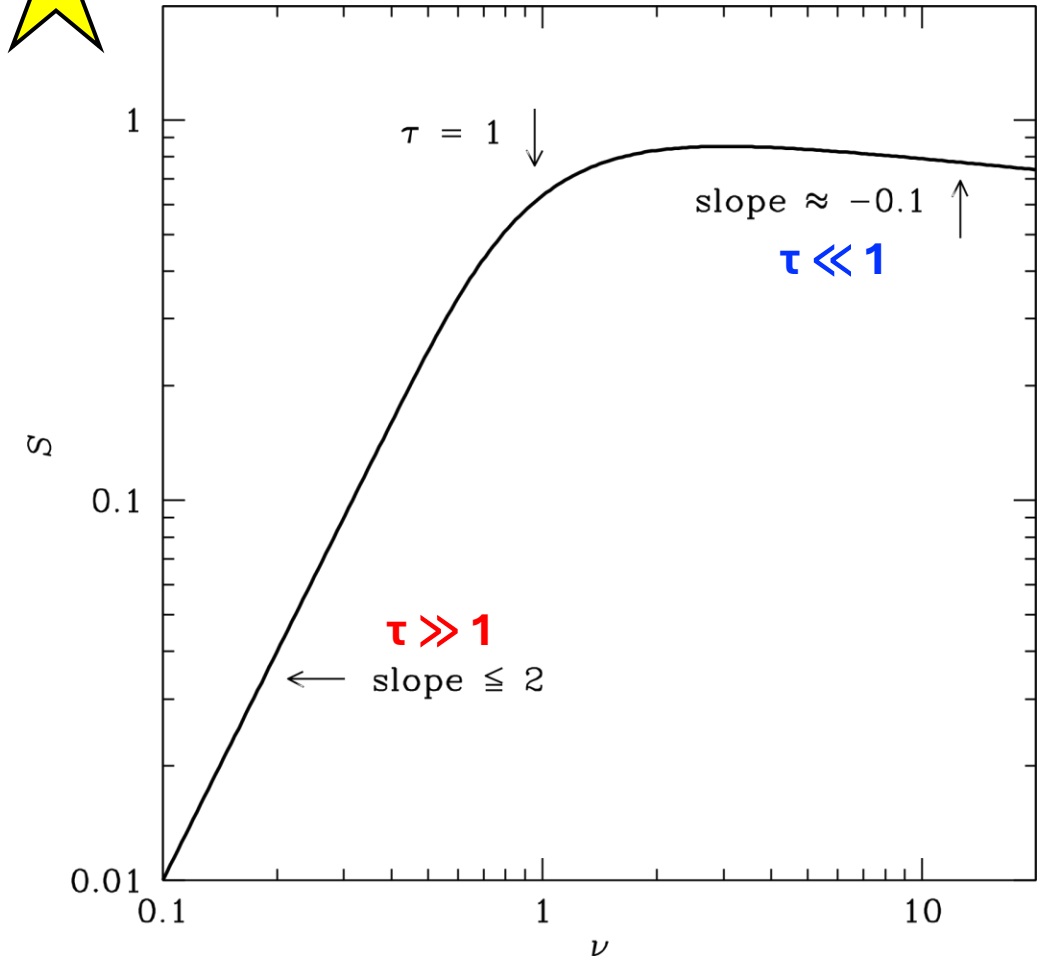
$$\tau \approx 3.28 \times 10^{-7} \left( \frac{T}{10^4 \text{ K}} \right)^{-1.35} \left( \frac{\nu}{\text{GHz}} \right)^{-2.1} \left( \frac{\text{EM}}{\text{pc cm}^{-6}} \right). \quad (4.60)$$

**Woohooo! We can get estimates for electron temperature, electron density, emission measure, and production rate of ionizing photons**

Fig. 4.8 (ERA)



The overall radio spectrum of a uniform HII region



# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

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The electron temperature,  $T$ , from the brightness temperature:

$$T_b = T(1 - e^{-\tau}) \quad (4.61)$$

Production rate of ionizing photons:

$$\left( \frac{Q_H}{\text{s}^{-1}} \right) \approx 6.3 \times 10^{52} \left( \frac{T}{10^4 \text{ K}} \right)^{-0.45} \left( \frac{\nu}{\text{GHz}} \right)^{0.1} \left( \frac{L_\nu}{10^{20} \text{ W Hz}^{-1}} \right).$$

**\*See book for some examples** (4.62)

# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

## Radio Radiation from an HII Region (LTE approximation)

Important practical application for starburst galaxies, luminous infrared galaxies (LIRGs), etc.,

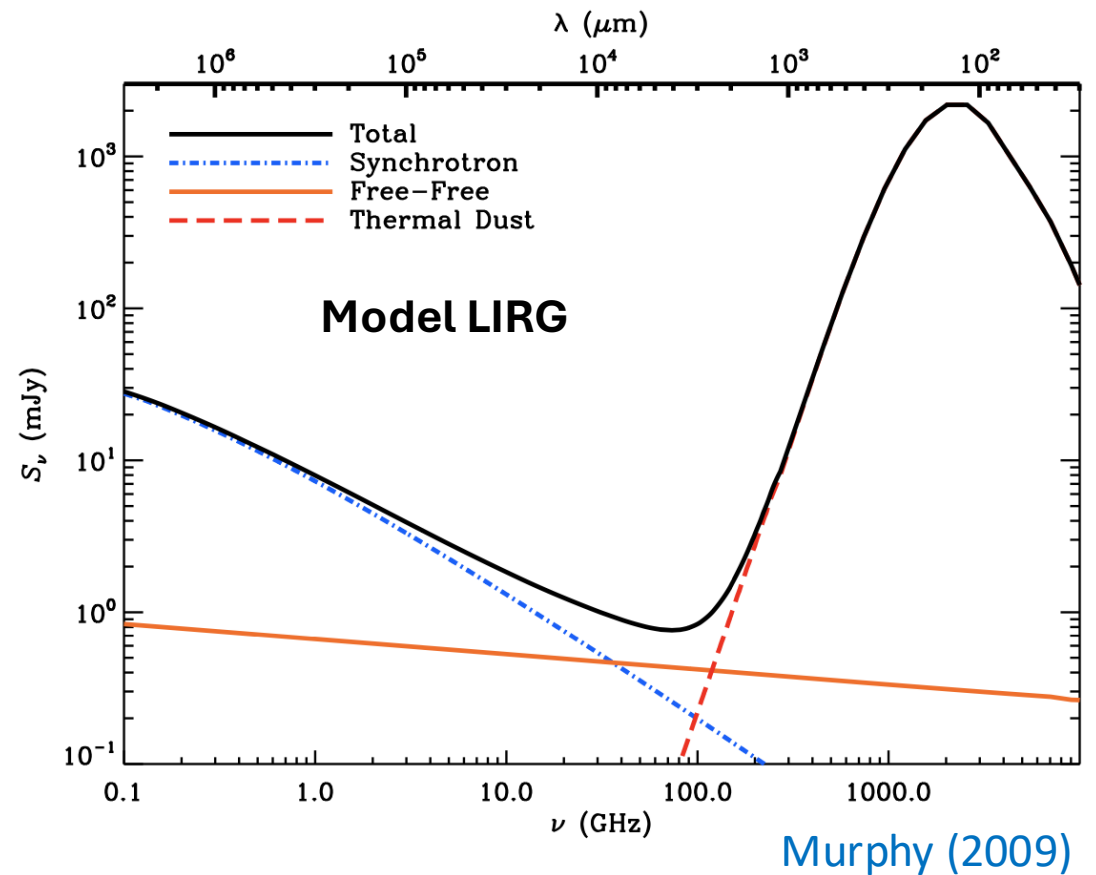
If the free-free and synchrotron emission are roughly cospatial, its radio brightness temperature at frequencies  $\nu < 100$  GHz is,

★ 
$$T_b \sim T [1 - \exp(-\tau)] \left[ 1 + 10 \left( \frac{\nu}{\text{GHz}} \right)^{0.1+\alpha} \right], \quad (4.63)$$

where  $T \approx 10^4$  K and  $\alpha = -0.8$  is the spectral index of the synchrotron radiation.

Free-free absorption of the synchrotron radiation limits the maximum brightness temperature to  $T_b \leq 10^5$  K at frequencies  $\nu \geq 1$  GHz.

This limit can be used to identify the energy source powering a compact radio source at the center of a galaxy: **if its brightness temperature is significantly higher than  $10^5$  K, it is powered by an AGN, not a compact starburst.**



# Free-free Radiation (ERA 4.3)

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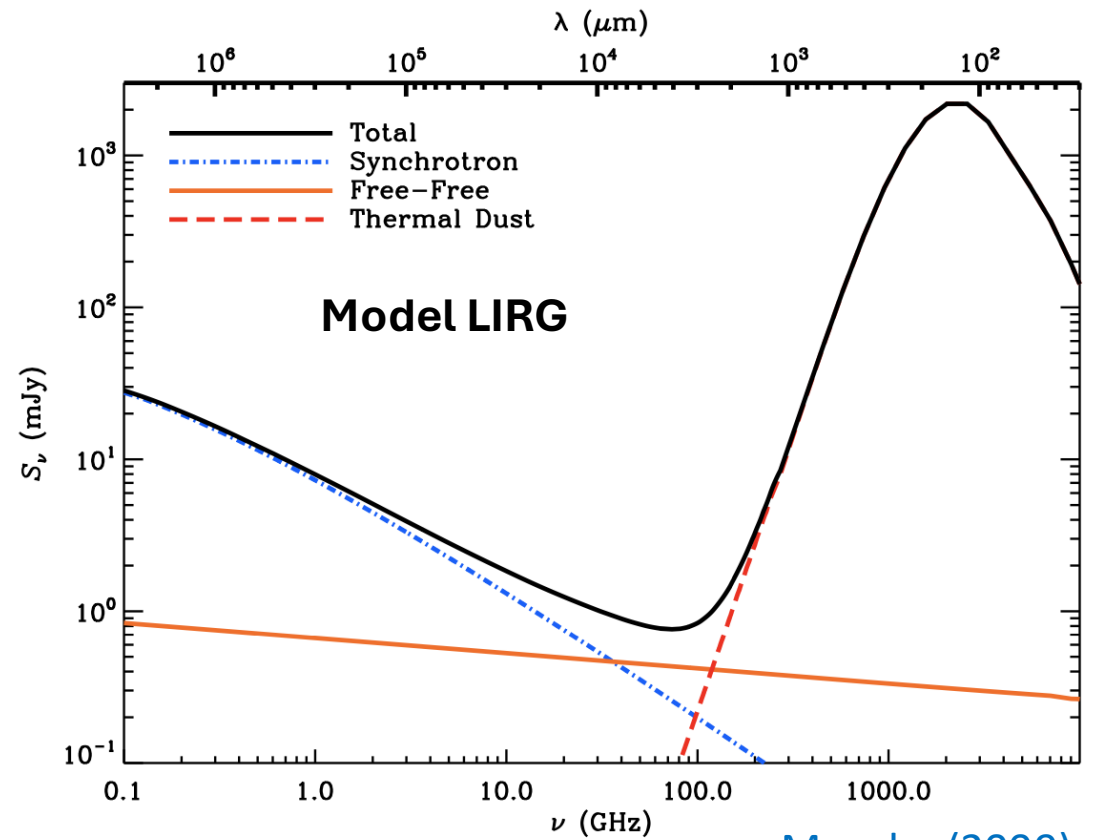
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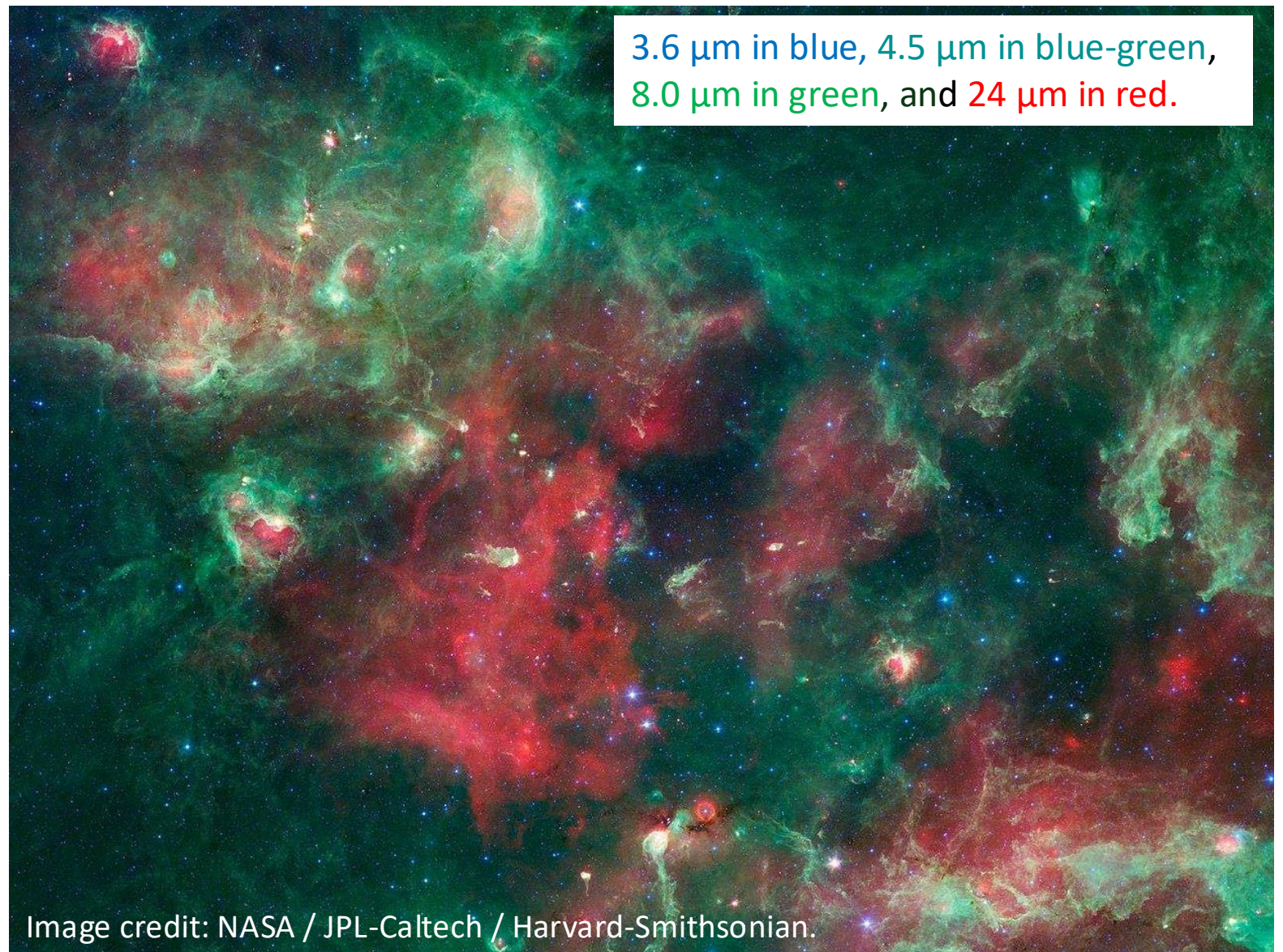
Murphy (2009)

### Main Takeaway

Disentangling the “thermal” component from the “non-thermal” one is difficult below 30 GHz!

# Free-free Observations

Remember the Cygnus X region?



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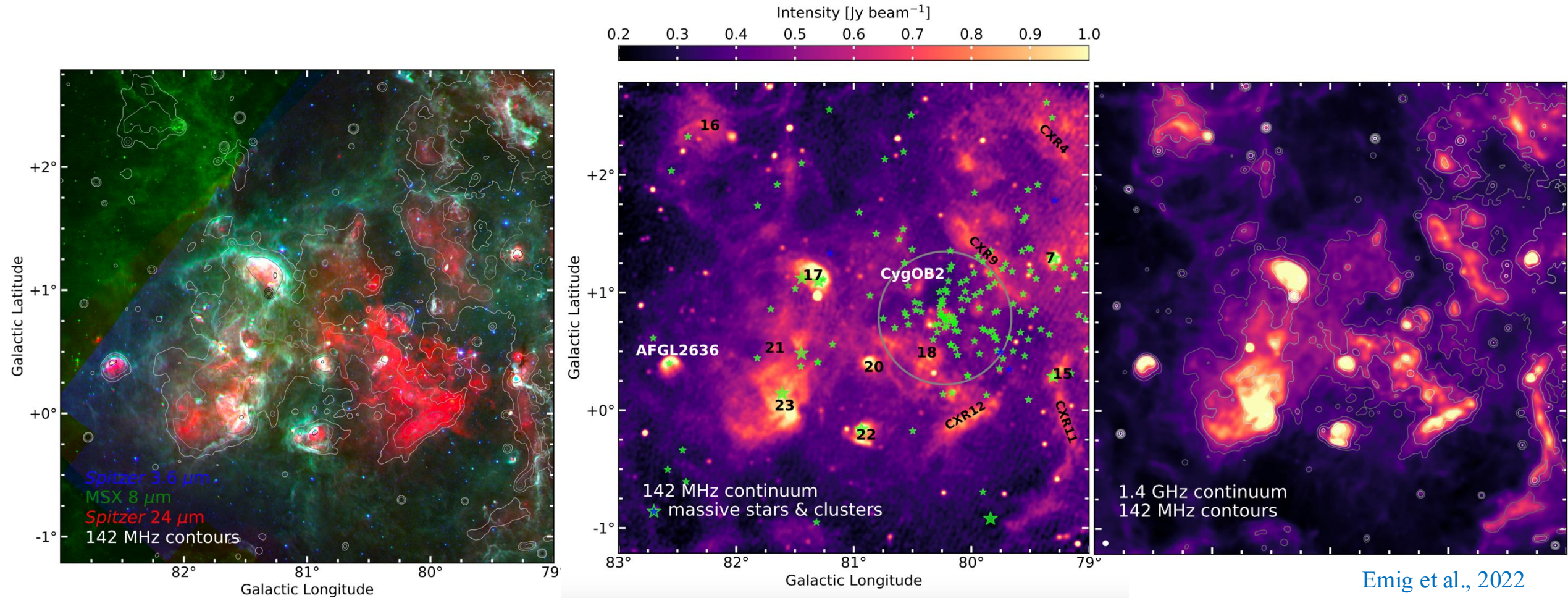
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# Free-free Observations

The Galactic radio emission in the region analyzed is almost **entirely thermal (free-free) at 148 MHz**, with emission measures (EM) of  $10^3 < \text{EM} [\text{pc cm}^{-6}] < 10^6$



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# Free-free Observations

Created a short-spacing map at 142 MHz and with 72' resolution that is interpolated from multi-frequency fits across 52 MHz, 408 MHz, 820 MHz, and 1420 MHz!

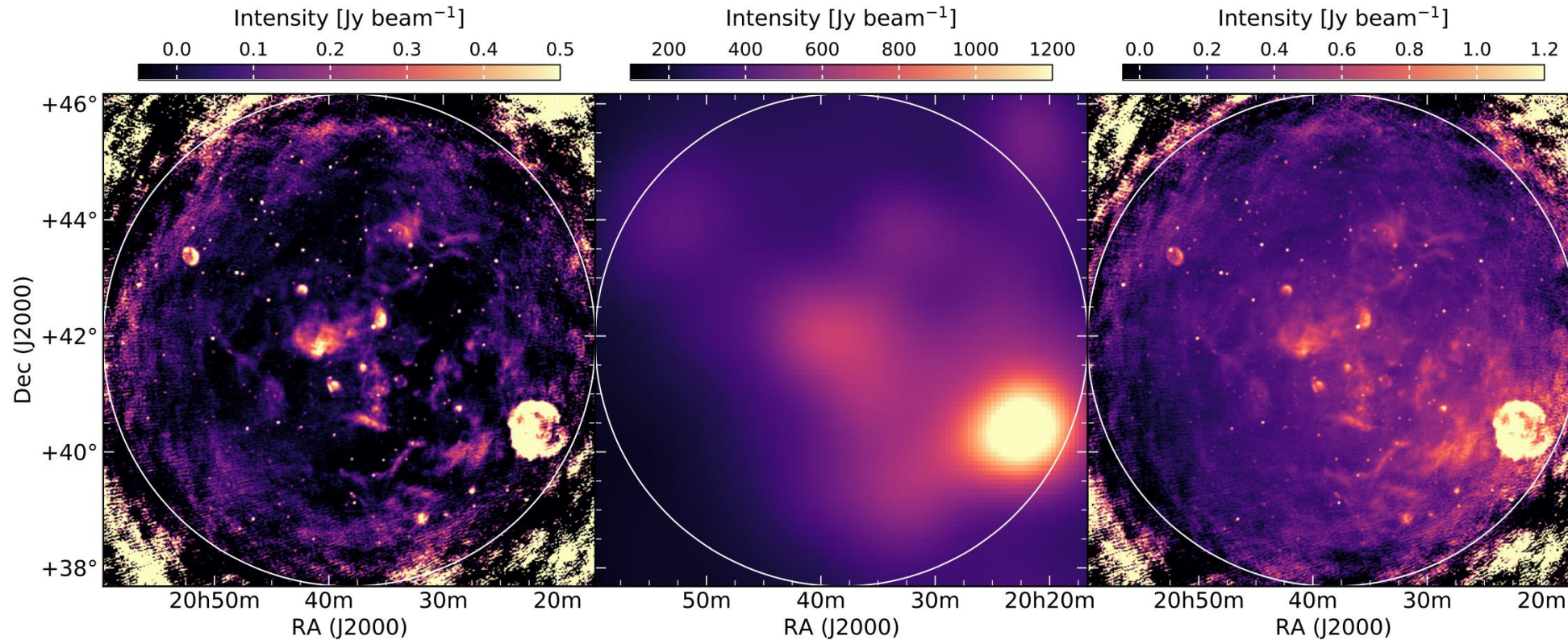


Figure 2.2: Imaging LOFAR 142 MHz observations of the Cygnus X region. The white circle shows the 20% power of the primary beam. We draw attention to the different intensity scales among the images. For reference, Cygnus A is located about  $7.4^\circ$  due west from the center of the pointing. *Left:* Deconvolved LOFAR image without short-spacing information. While these data are sensitive to emission on angular scales as large as  $96'$ , negative (un-physical) emission is present induced by large scale emission in the Galactic plane. *Center:* The frequency-interpolated short-spacing map at 142 MHz (see Section 2.2.1) and  $72'$  resolution. *Right:* LOFAR data imaged with the short-spacing map as an initial model (see Section 2.2.1).

Emig et al., 2022

# Free-free Observations

Did this correction for short spacing to interpolate at 142 MHz by using this correction for free-free and synchrotron emission!

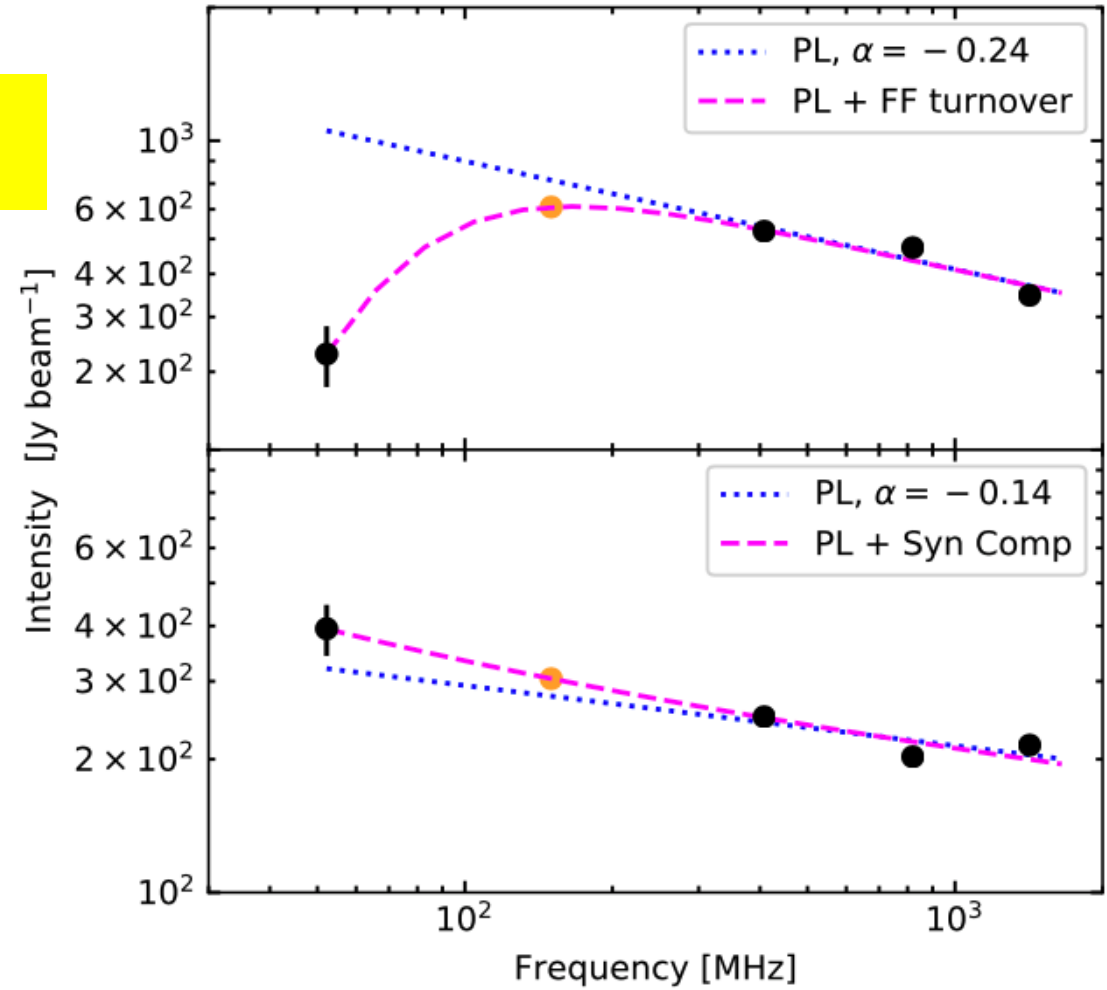
“Pixel by pixel, we fit a power-law to the “high-frequency” data points at 408, 820 and 1420 MHz, as previous studies have found this region largely consists of thermal, free-free emission down to 408 MHz (Landecker 1984; Xu et al. 2013). Then, to the 52 MHz data point, we fit for either a free-free turnover or a synchrotron component.” →

Just free-free:

$$S(\nu) = \frac{S_{0,\text{ff}}}{\tau_0} \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu_0} \right)^2 \left( 1 - \exp \left[ -\tau_0 \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu_0} \right)^{\alpha-2} \right] \right)$$

w/ synchrotron correction:

$$S(\nu) = S_{0,\text{ff}} \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu_0} \right)^\alpha + S_{0,\text{s}} \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu_0} \right)^{-0.7}$$

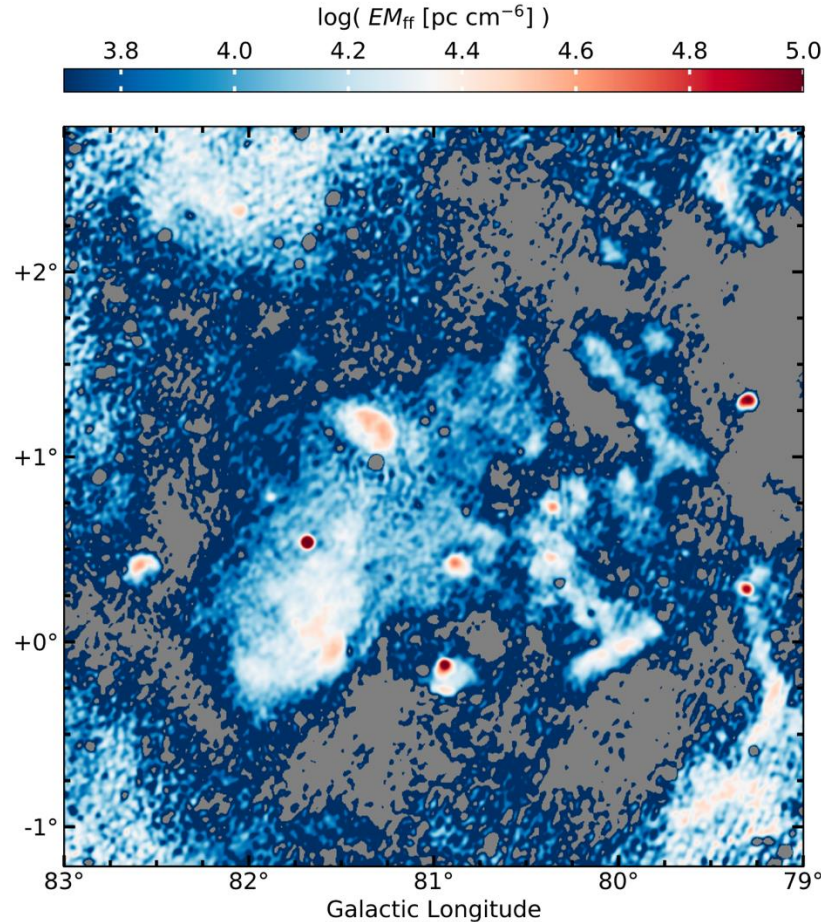
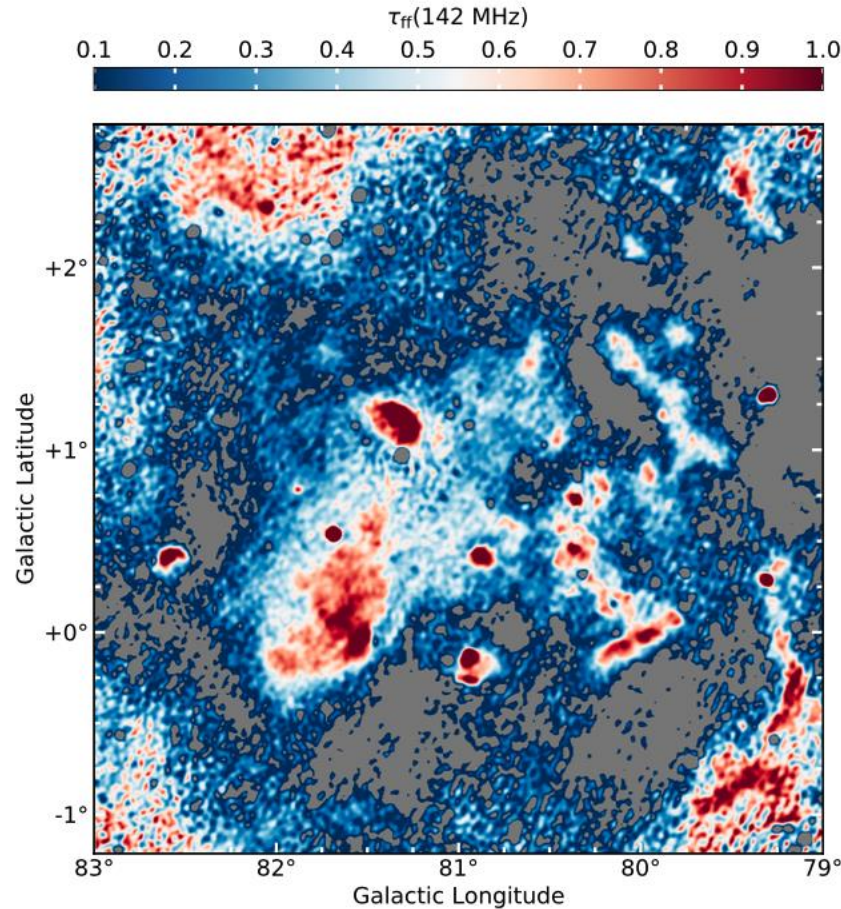


Emig et al., 2022

# Free-free Observations

optical depth,  $\tau_{\text{ff}}$ , is given by (Condon 1992; Emig et al. 2020b),

$$\tau_{\text{ff}}(\nu) = 3.37 \times 10^{-4} \left( \frac{EM_{\text{ff}}}{10^3 \text{ cm}^{-6} \text{ pc}} \right) \left( \frac{T_e}{10^4 \text{ K}} \right)^{-1.323} \left( \frac{\nu}{1 \text{ GHz}} \right)^{-2.118}$$



Same equation 4.60 in ERA! 

From estimated optical depth in SED fit, and assuming  $T_e \sim 7,500 \text{ K}$  (estimated from previous recombination line measurements!) they map the EM!

Emig et al., 2022

# Emission Mechanisms

Spectral Lines (ERA Chap. 7)



Free-Free (ERA Chap. 4)



Synchrotron (ERA Chap. 5)



Pulsars (ERA Chap. 6)



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# Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

*Magnetobremssstrahlung (5.1)*

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  $m_e c^2$
- **Synchrotron radiation:** ultra relativistic electrons with kinetic energy  $\gg$  rest mass  $m_e c^2$

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

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- 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  $\nu < 30$  GHz**
- Magnetosphere of Jupiter is also a synchrotron source
- Synchrotron radiation also presents as...
  - optical emission from Crab Nebula
  - optical jet of M87
  - optical  $\rightarrow$  X-ray emission of quasars

# Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

## *Magnetobremstrahlung (5.1)*

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

 **Larmor's formula** only valid here!

We can write the Force in a magnetic field,

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

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.



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

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

$$\boxed{\omega_G \equiv \frac{qB}{mc}} \quad (5.3)$$

→ in MHz  
(~28 Hz)

$$\boxed{\left(\frac{\nu_G}{\text{MHz}}\right) = 2.8 \left(\frac{B}{\text{gauss}}\right)} \quad (5.7)$$

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### Main Takeaway:

**Gyro radiation from nonrelativistic electrons are observable only in a very strong magnetic fields such that  $B \sim 10^{12}$  G!**

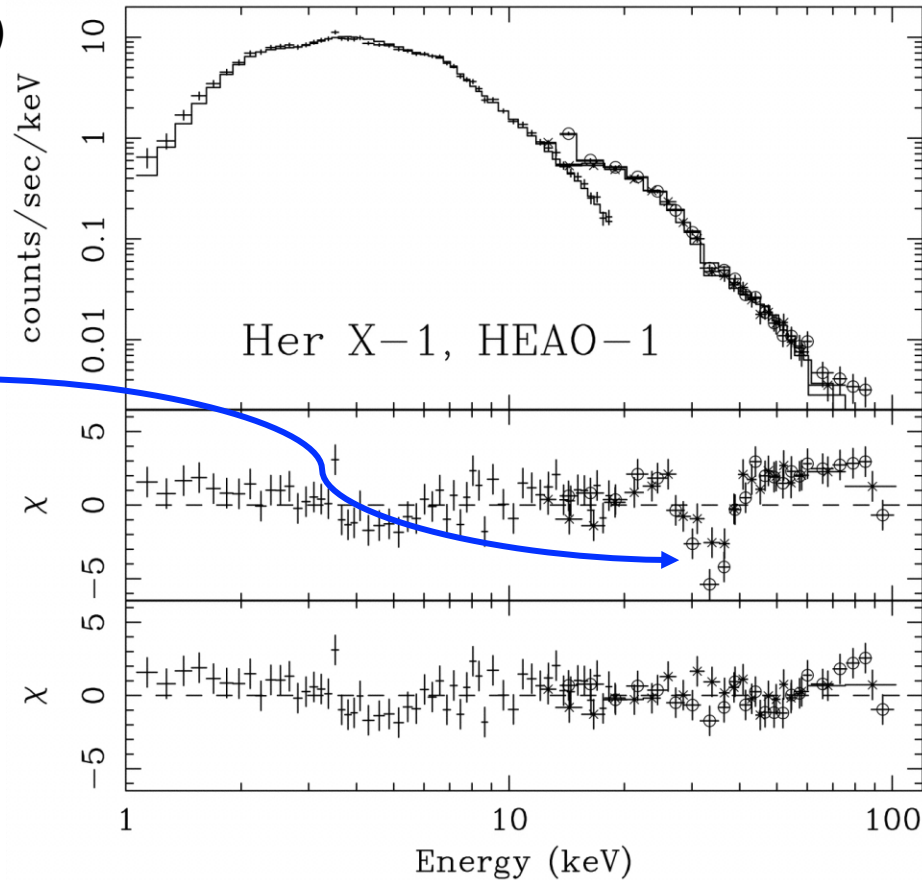
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## Magnetobremstrahlung (5.1)

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Fig. 5.1 (ERA)

Gyro-resonance  
absorption line  
near 34 keV



### Main Takeaway:

**Gyro radiation from nonrelativistic electrons are observable only in a very strong magnetic fields such that  $B \sim 10^{12}$  G!**

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 B &= \frac{2\pi\nu_G m_e c}{e} \\
 &\approx \frac{2\pi \cdot 8.2 \times 10^{18} \text{ Hz} \cdot 9.1 \times 10^{-28} \text{ g} \cdot 3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1}}{4.8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ statcoul}} \\
 &\approx 2.9 \times 10^{12} \text{ gauss.}
 \end{aligned}$$

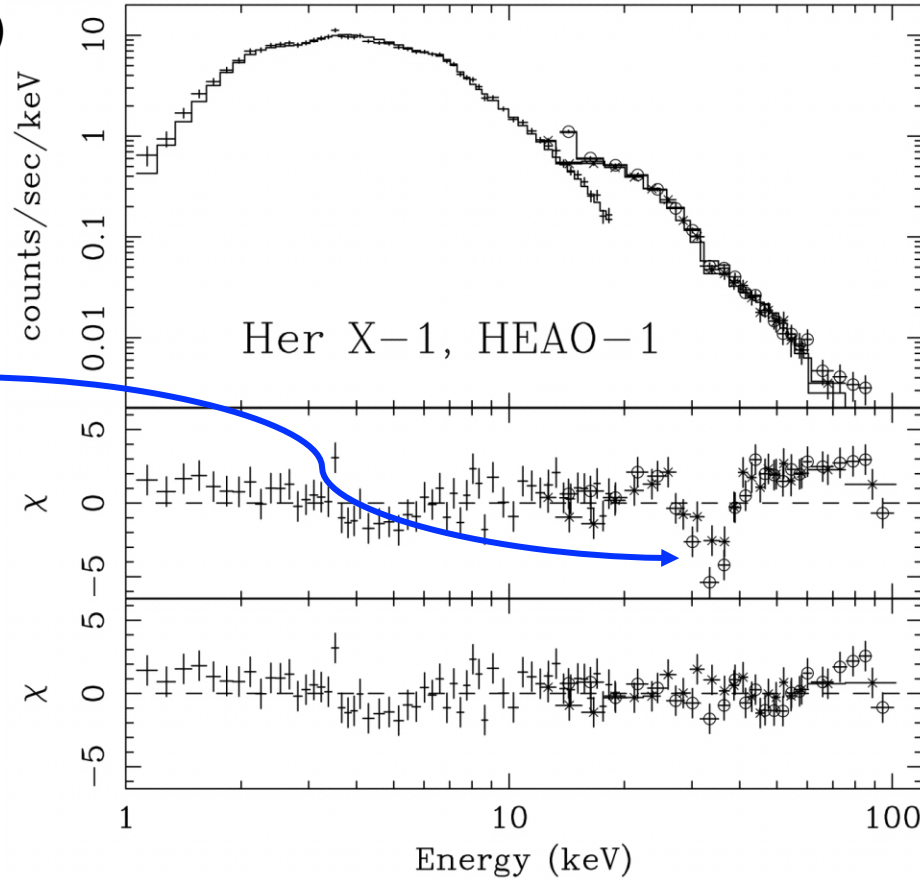
# Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

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**So not applicable to radio frequencies !**

Fig. 5.1 (ERA)



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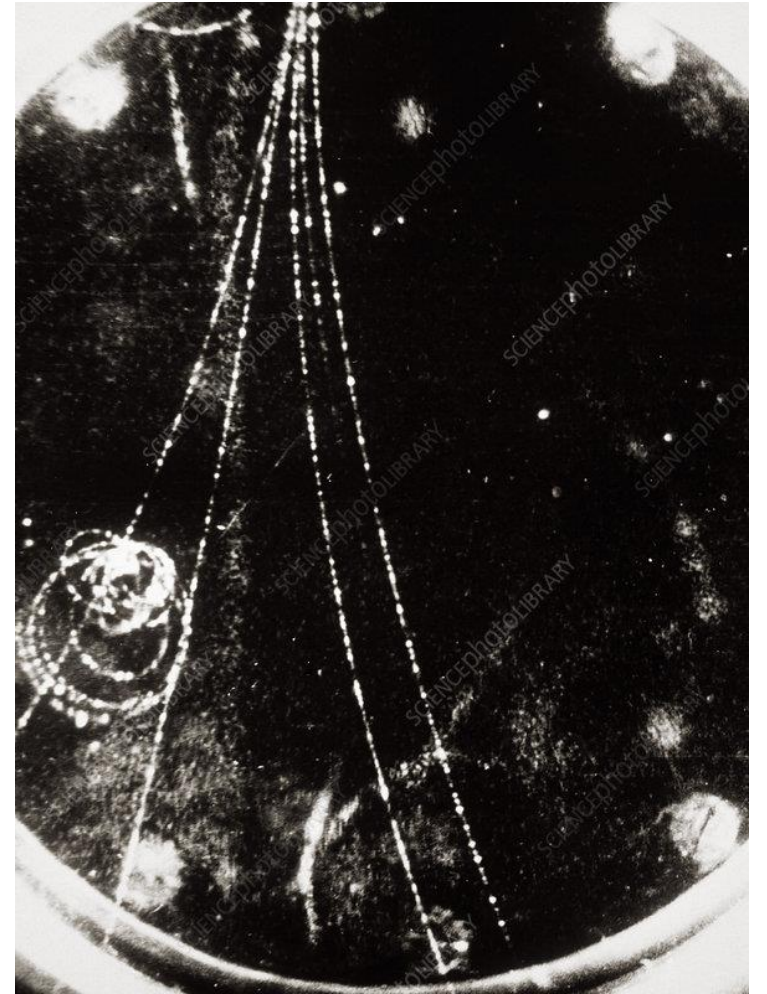
$$\approx 2.9 \times 10^{12} \text{ gauss.}$$

# Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

*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 relativity** 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*

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# Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

## 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  $(x', y', z', t')$  in the primed frame moving with velocity  $v$  in the  $x$ -direction.

They are:

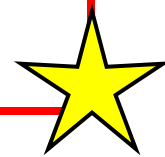
$$x = \gamma(x' + vt'), \quad y = y', \quad z = z', \quad t = \gamma(t' + \beta x'/c), \quad (5.12)$$

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

Where,

$$\beta \equiv v/c$$

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



And  $\gamma$  is the **Lorentz factor**! Note the differential form is:

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

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

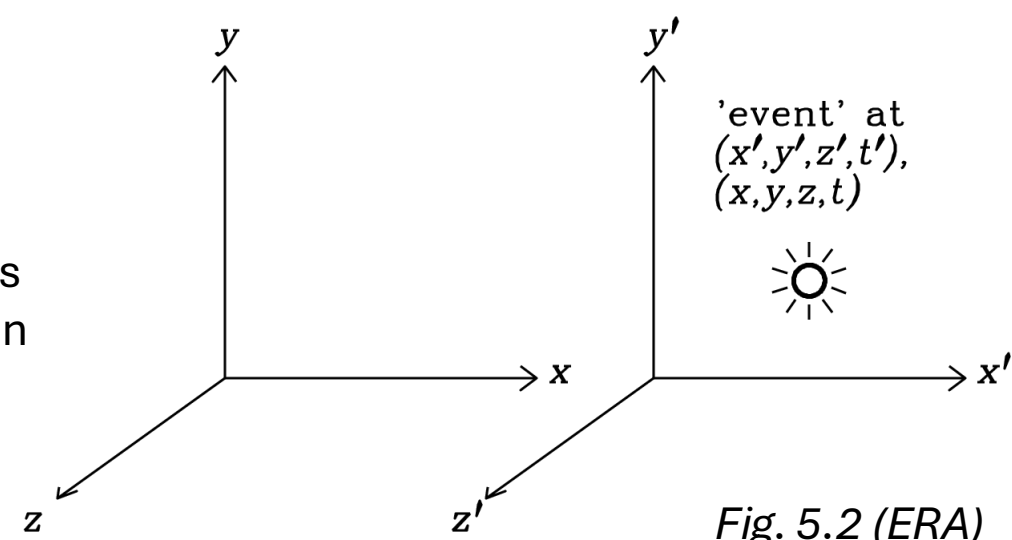


Fig. 5.2 (ERA)

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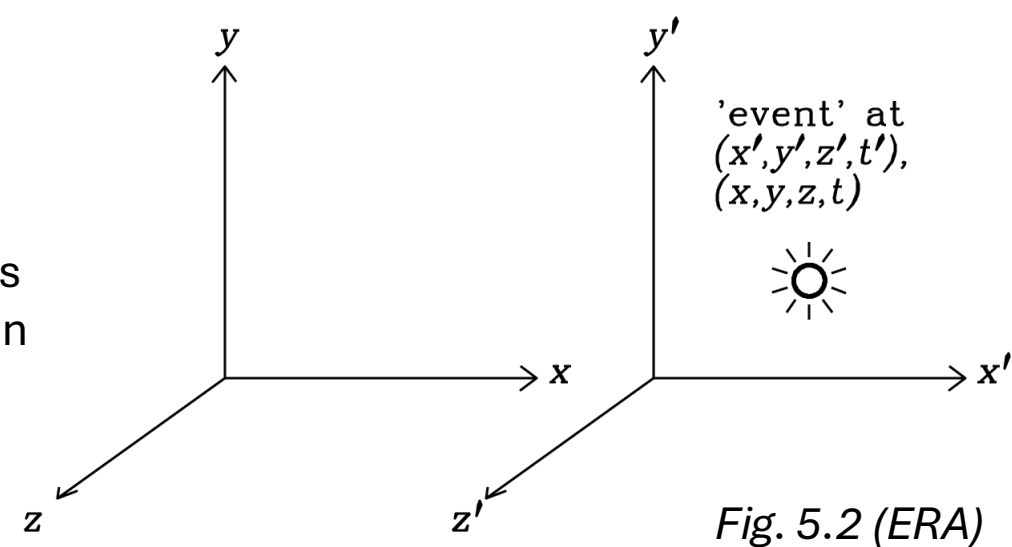
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This factor will be important to introduce into power spectrum, observed frequencies, emission coefficient, etc.,!

# Synchrotron Radiation (ERA Chapter 5)

## *Synchrotron Power (5.2)*

### *(5.2.2) Relativistic Masses*

**Cosmic-ray electrons** have  $E \gg E_0 = m_e c^2 \gg 0.51 \text{ MeV}$  and are ultrarelativistic:

$$E_0 = m_e c^2 = 9.1 \times 10^{-28} \text{ g} \cdot (3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1})^2 = 8.2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ erg} \quad (5.19)$$

$$= \frac{8.2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ erg}}{1.60 \times 10^{-12} \text{ erg (eV)}^{-1}} = 5.1 \times 10^5 \text{ eV} = 0.51 \text{ MeV}. \quad (5.20)$$



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**Remember:** orbital frequency from Gyro radiation,

$$\boxed{\omega_G \equiv \frac{qB}{mc}} \quad (5.3) \quad \rightarrow \text{ becomes } \omega_B = \frac{eB}{(\gamma m_e) c} = \frac{\omega_G}{\gamma}. \quad (5.21)$$

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!

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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  $\gamma^2$  (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