



Gamma-ray production mechanisms

Giada Peron — CTAO School (La Palma) — 17th May 2026



Gamma-ray production mechanisms

Lectures based on:

G.B. Rybicki & A. P. Lightman "Radiative Processes in Astrophysics" 2004

F. Aharonian "Very High Energy Cosmic Gamma Radiation" 2004

G. Ghisellini "Radiative processes in high-energy astrophysics" 2012

M. Longair "High Energy Astrophysics" 1992

S.R. Kelner Phys. Rev. D 74-3 2006

F. Stecker "Cosmic gamma rays" NASA Special Publication 1977

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What produces gamma rays?

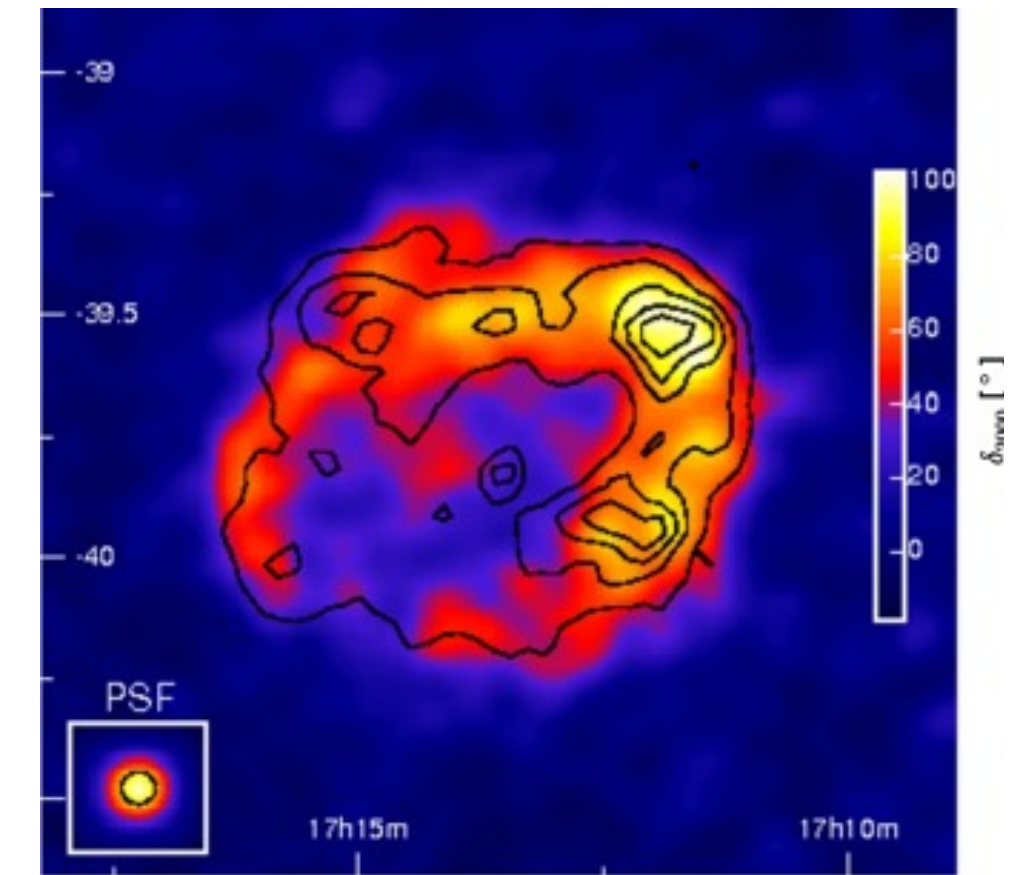
A large satellite dish antenna with a blue mesh surface, mounted on a metal structure in a field. The dish is tilted upwards and to the right. The background shows a clear sky and some distant structures.

What produces gamma rays?



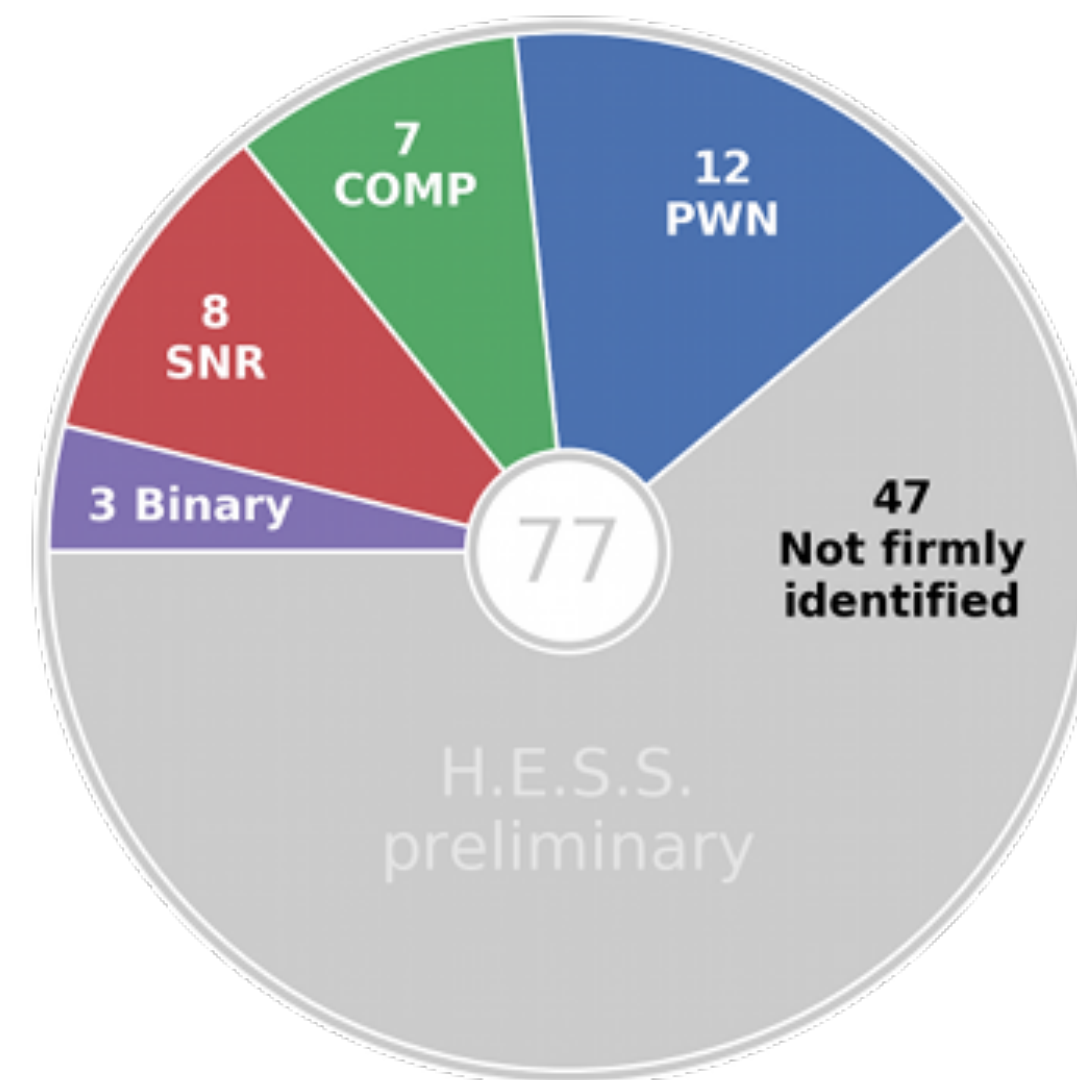
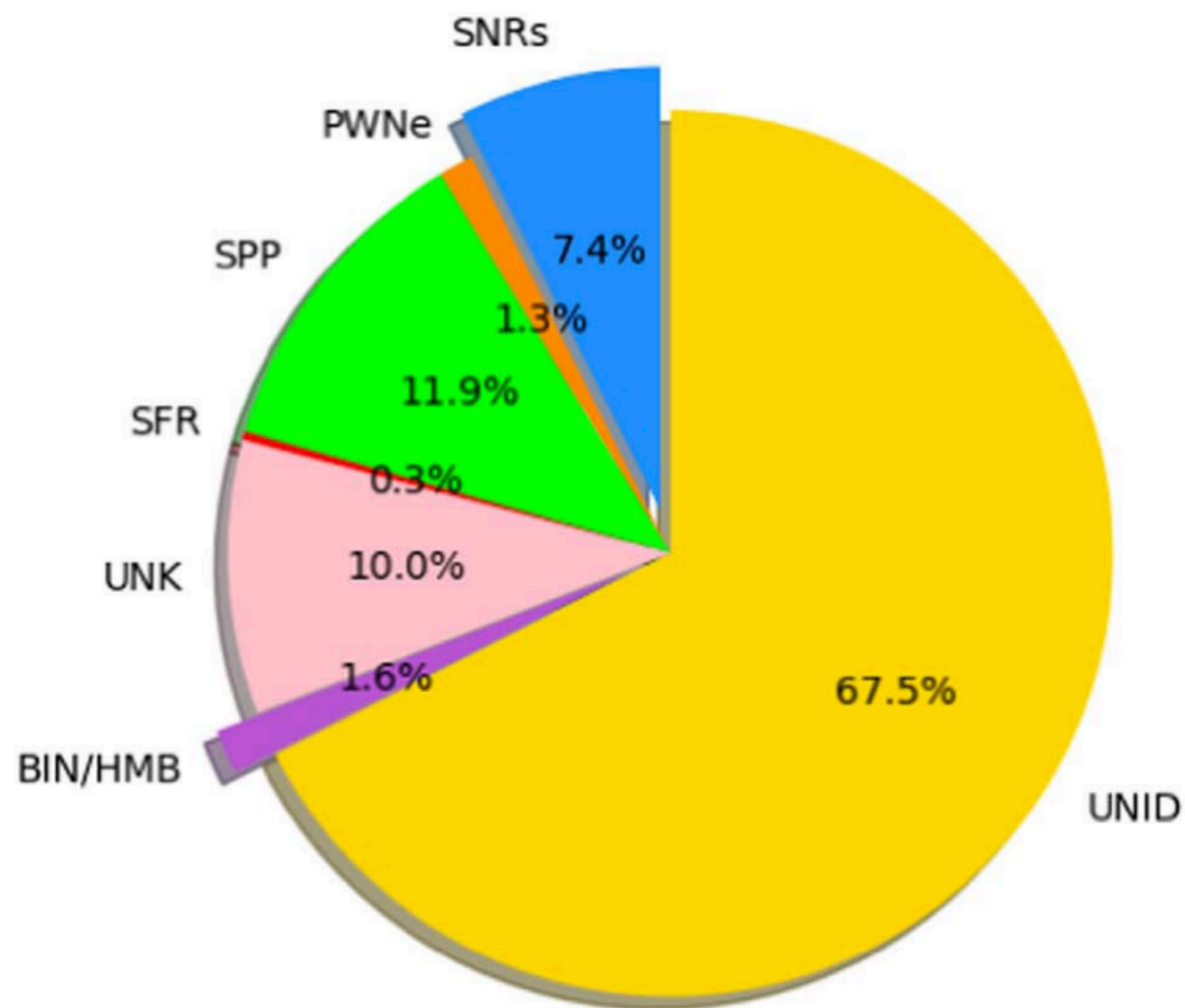
What produces gamma rays?

Catalogs of gamma-ray sources include SNRs, PSRs, PWNe, SCs, XRB, AGNs...



...BUT: Gamma-ray sources are NOT producing gamma rays!

They are *accelerating* particles and we measure by-products of the interactions of these with matter and electro-magnetic fields.



Fermi-LAT (4FGL)

H.E.S.S. (HGPS)

What produces gamma rays?

Gamma-ray sources are NOT producing gamma rays!

***Particles* are producing gamma-ray emission**

Hadronic particles: mainly protons (but also other nuclei) interacting with matter and photons.

Leptonic particles: mainly electrons and positrons interacting with matter, photons, magnetic fields.

Dark matter particles ?? possible annihilation or decay will produce gamma ray emission

What we will see today

- **Hadronic interactions:**

- The threshold for production of mesons
- The pion bump and other features to recognize hadronic emission
- Applications

- **Leptonic interactions**

- Radiation of a charged particle (bremsstrahlung and synchrotron)
- Inverse Compton scattering
- Electron cooling
- Applications

What we will not see but still is important

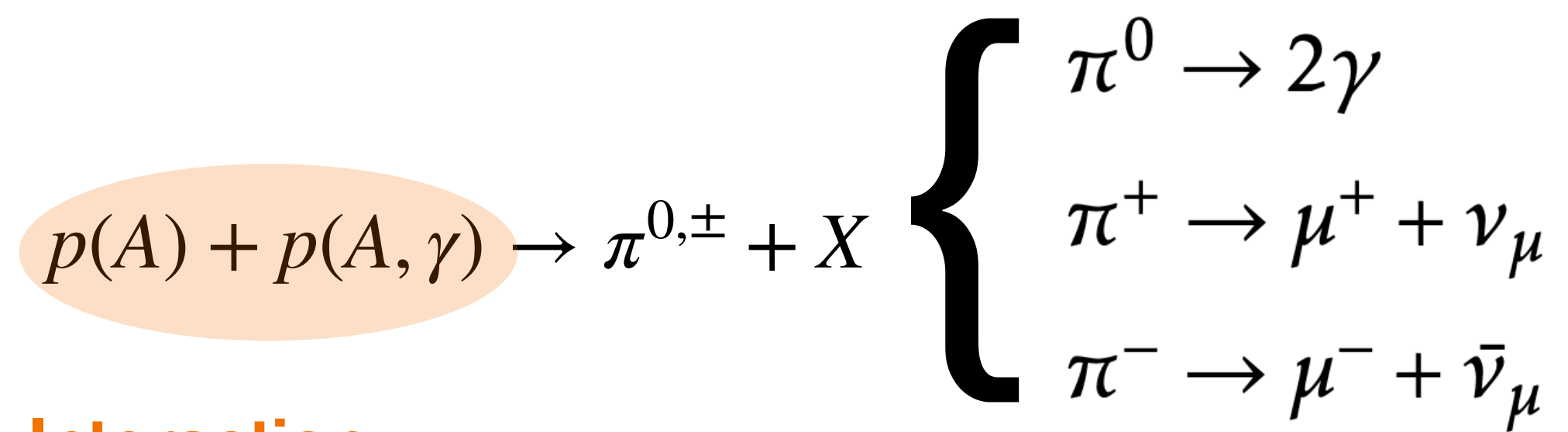
- **Absorption mechanisms**
 - **Self absorption:** at low frequencies affects radio and thermal bremsstrahlung influencing the shape of the spectrum;
 - **Gamma-gamma** absorption: at high energies gamma-ray photons interact with radiation fields producing pairs. Set the horizon for VHE observations.
- **Gamma-ray lines:** nuclear de-excitation lines of elements (mostly relevant at MeV energies) — decay/annihilation lines of dark matter may appear at higher energies e.g. Siegert 2026 <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11214-026-01281-y>.

Hadronic interactions

A large satellite dish antenna is the central focus, mounted on a complex metal lattice structure. The dish is covered in a blue, hexagonal pattern, likely representing a protective cover or a specific material. The antenna is positioned in a field of tall, dry grass under a clear, bright sky. In the background, there are some industrial or utility buildings and a power line tower. The overall scene is brightly lit, suggesting a sunny day.

Hadronic interactions

Energetic nuclei
impact on ambient
nuclei or photons :
pp /pγ

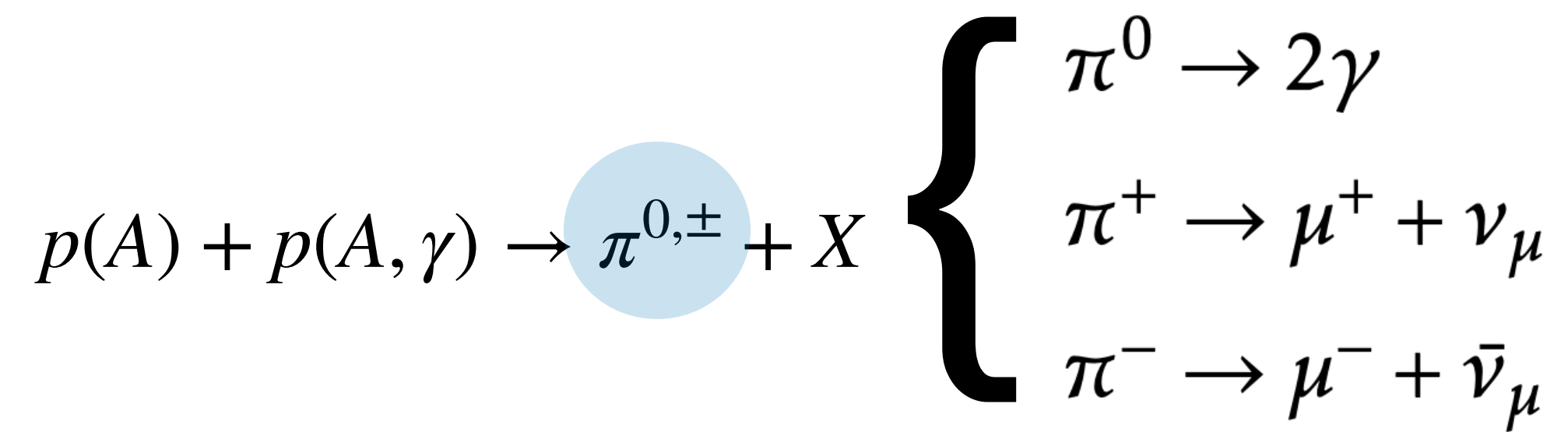


Interaction
increased when
high target (gas/
radiation) density

Hadronic interactions

Energetic nuclei
impact on ambient
nuclei or photons :
 $pp / p\gamma$

The interaction
produces unstable
mesons (mostly pions
but also also η, ω)



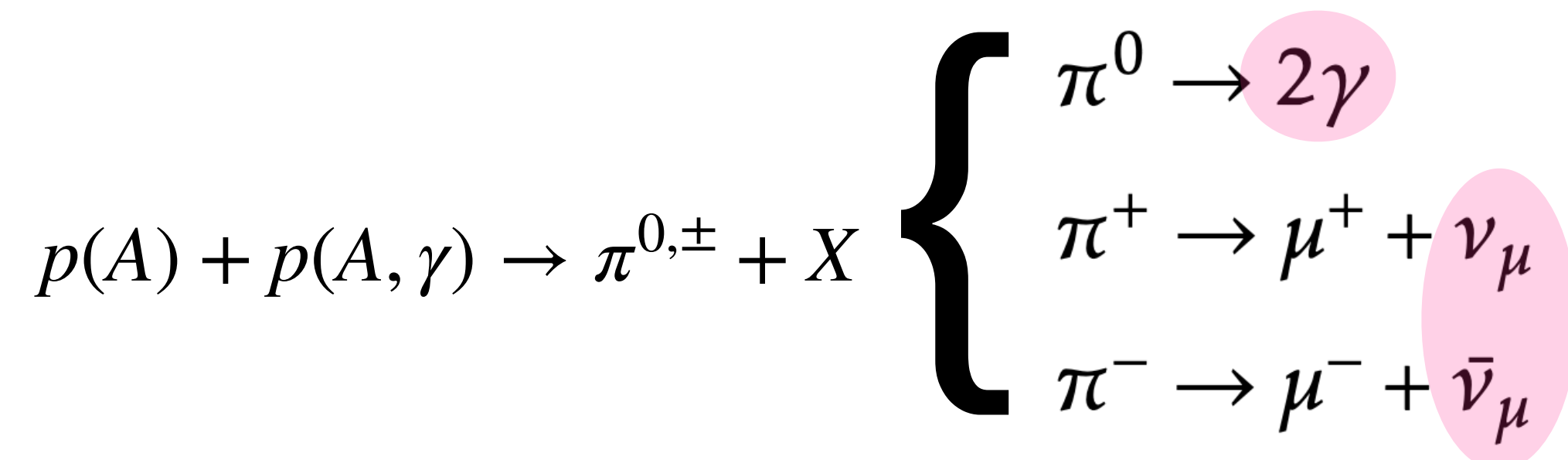
The process
requires a minimum
energy: threshold
for producing pions

Hadronic interactions

Energetic nuclei
impact on ambient
nuclei or photons :
 $pp / p\gamma$

The interaction
produces unstable
mesons (mostly pions
but also also η, ω)

The pions quickly
decay into gamma
rays and neutrinos



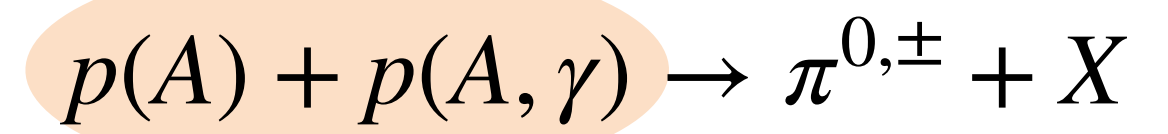
Decay time of pions:

$$\tau(\pi^0) = 8.4 \times 10^{-17} \text{ s}$$
$$\tau(\pi^\pm) = 2.6 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}$$

**Gamma rays and
neutrinos come from
the interaction region**

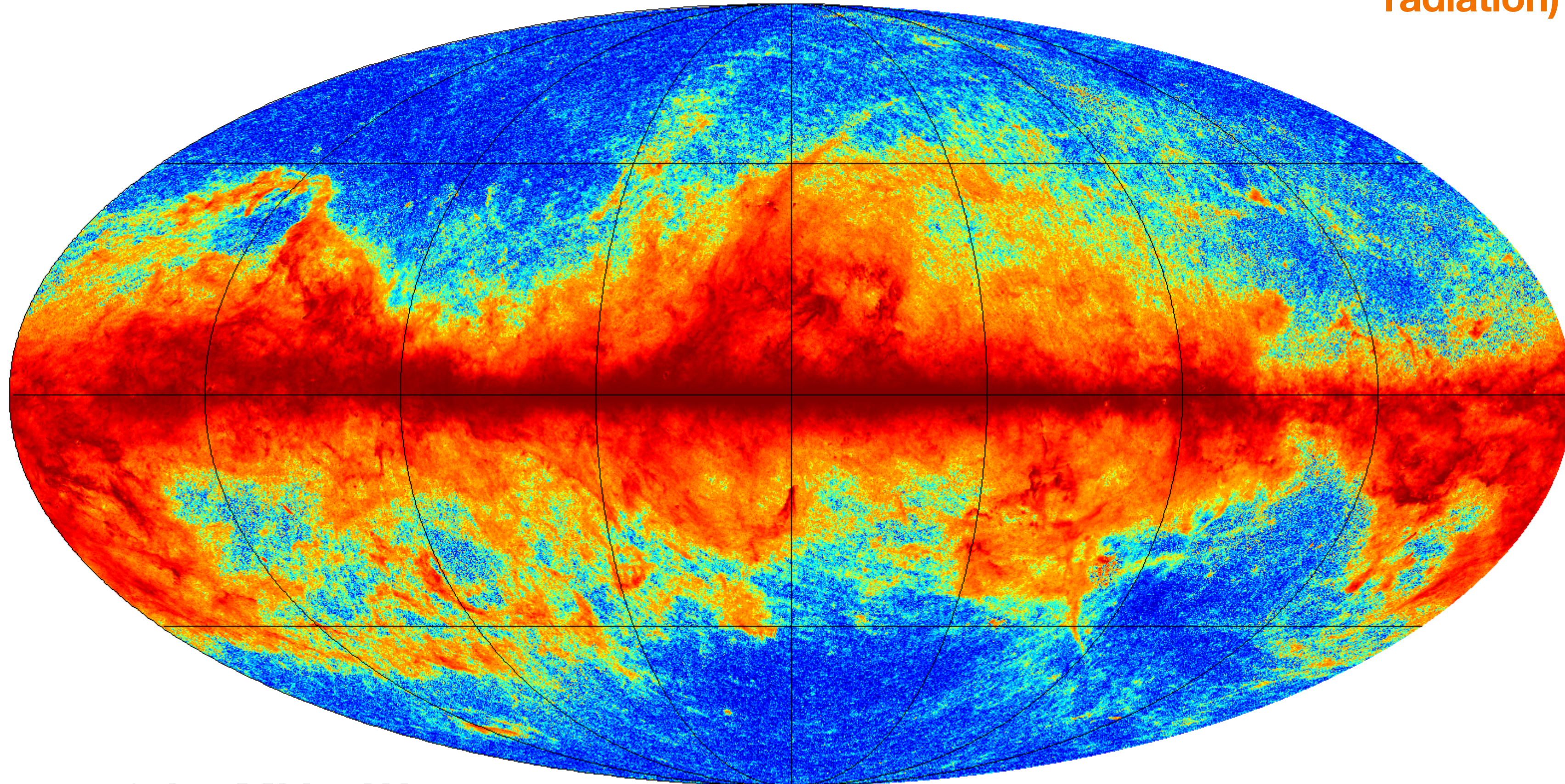
Hadronic interactions

Where are they important?

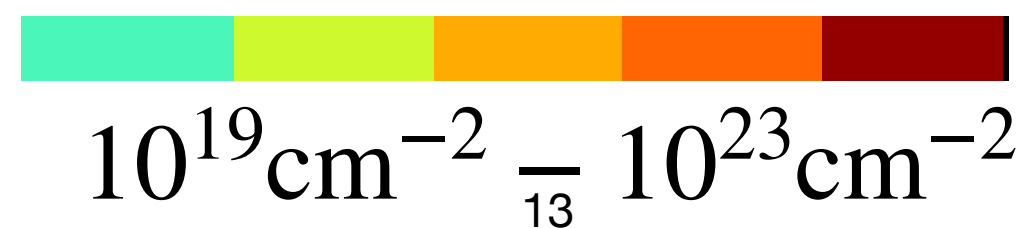


Interaction increased when high target (gas/radiation) density

2048 NESTED GALACTIC

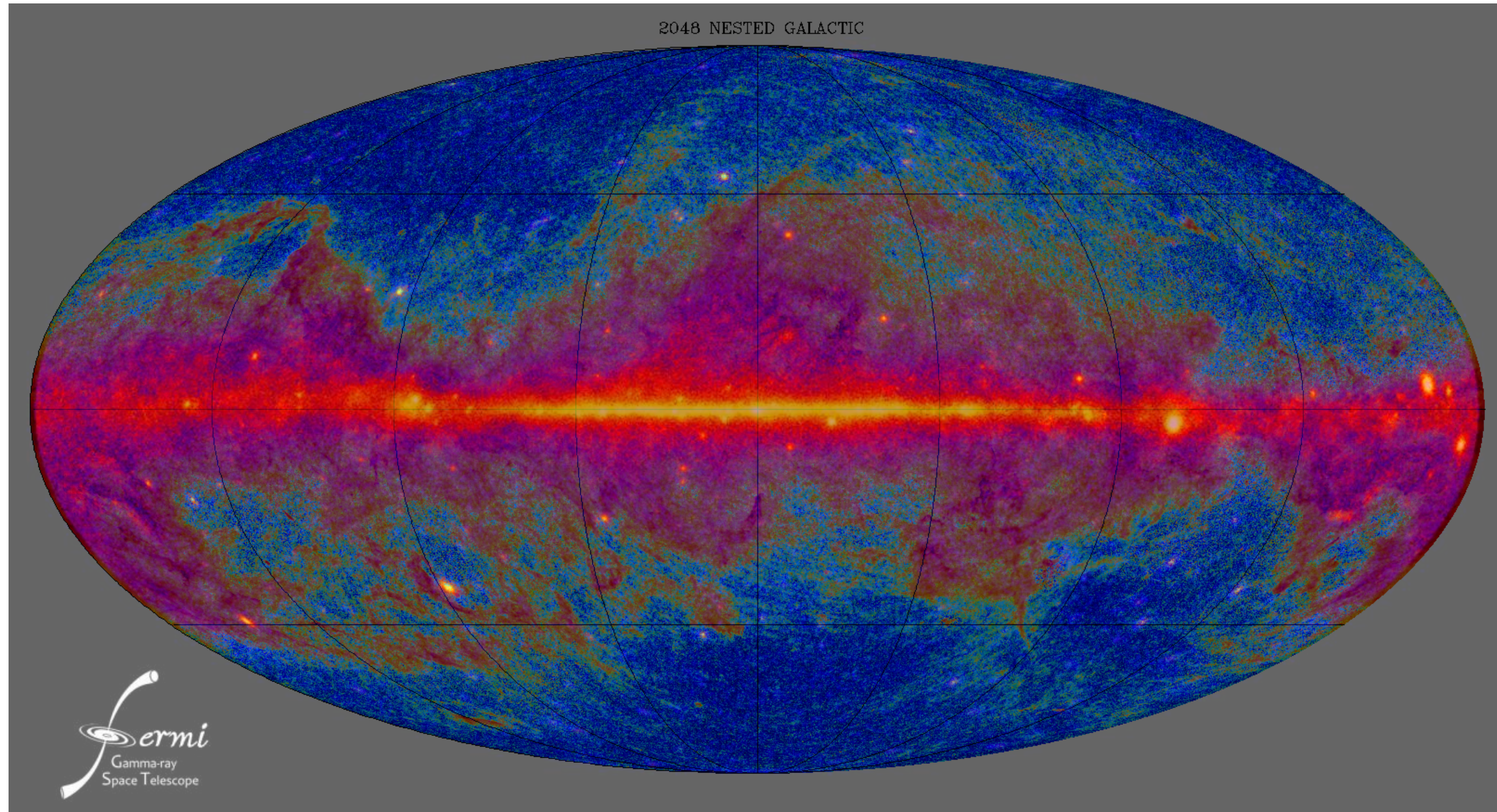


Planck dust map of the Milky Way:
traces gas column density



Hadronic interactions

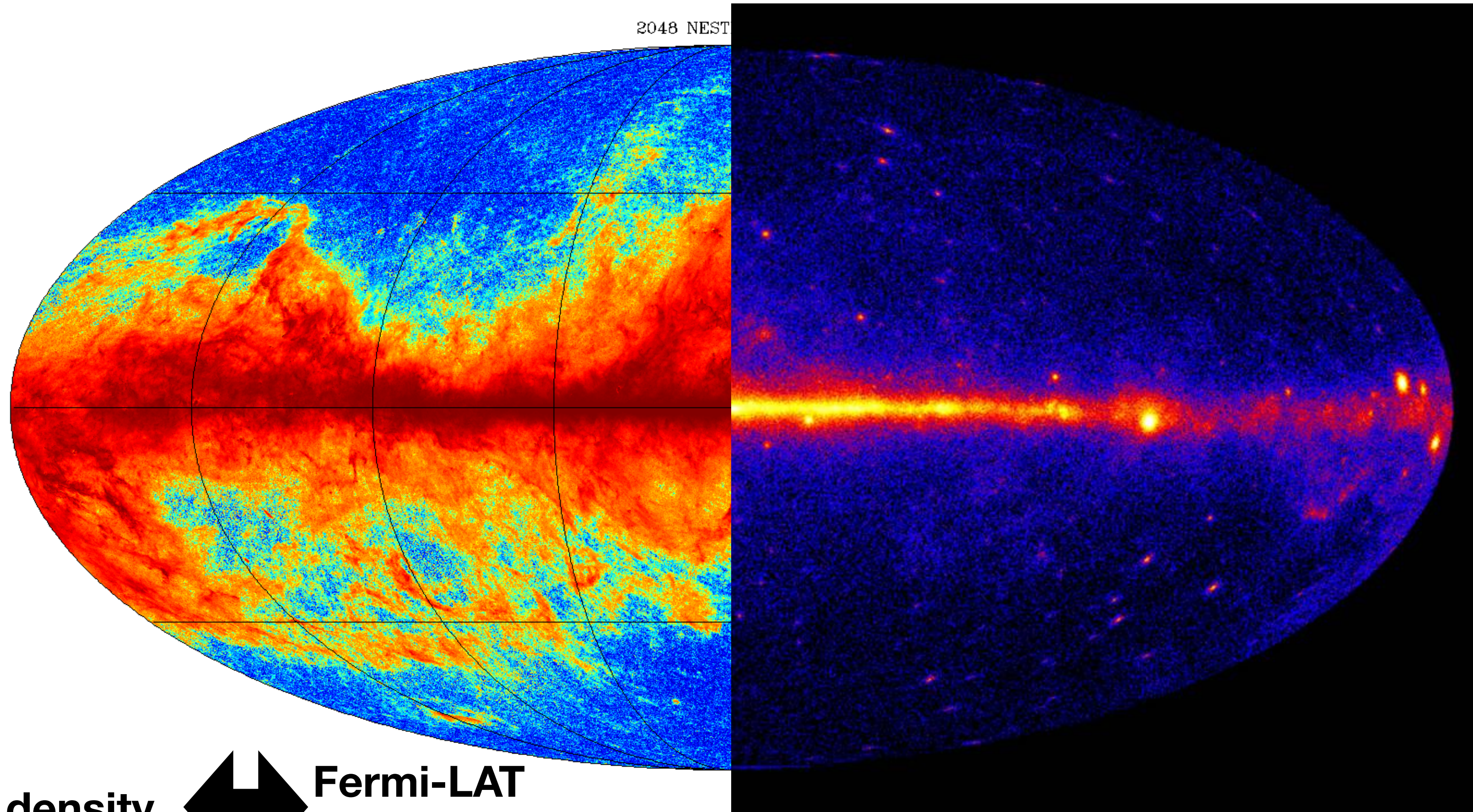
Where are they important?

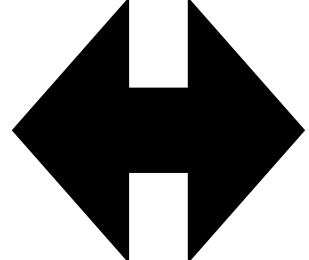


Fermi-LAT > 1 GeV emission

Hadronic interactions

Where are they important?

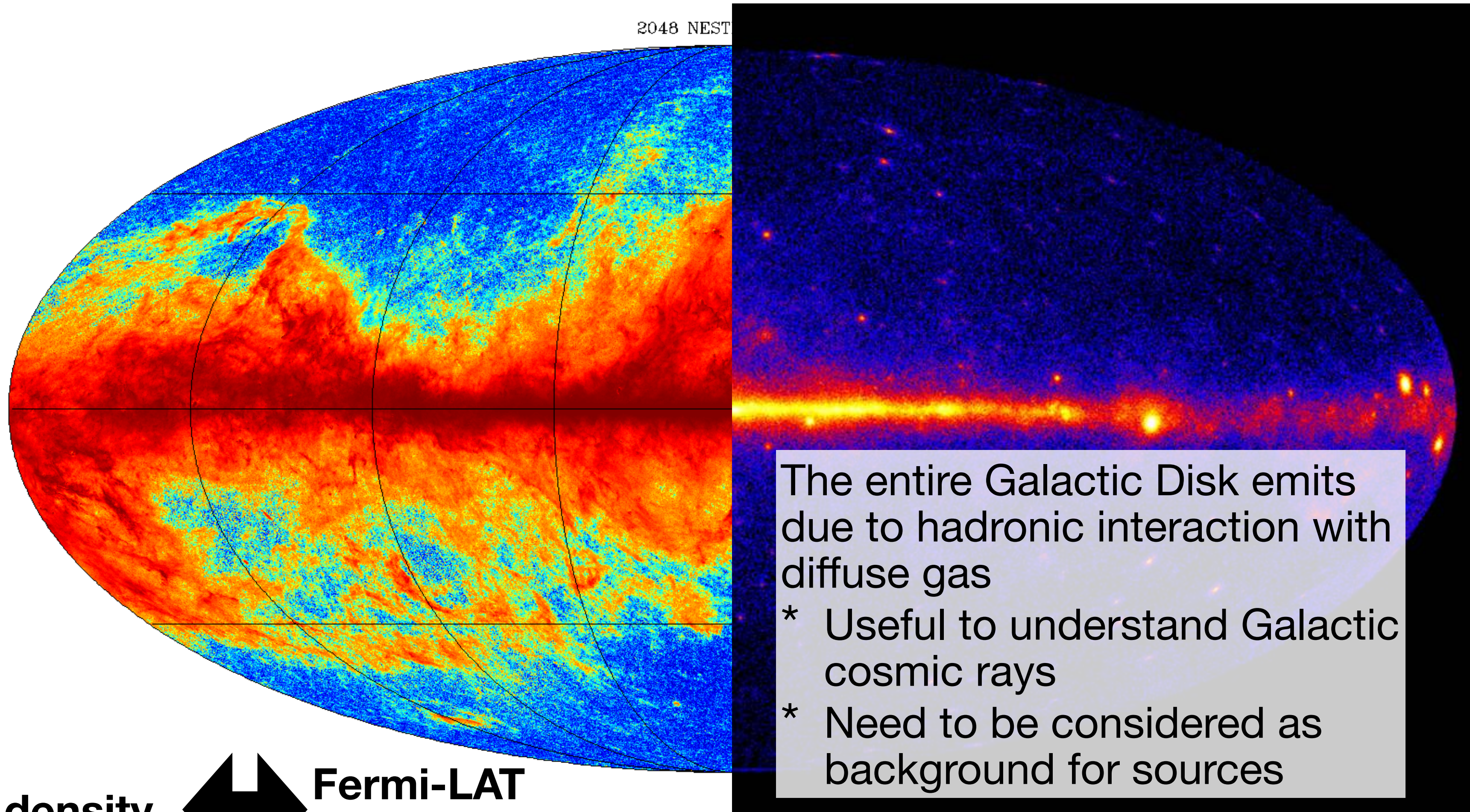


Gas column density  Fermi-LAT
> 1 GeV emission

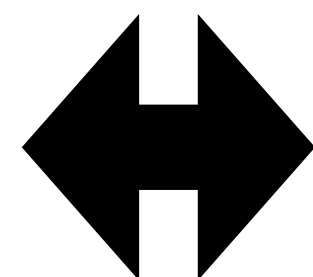
Hadronic interactions

Where are they important?

2048 NEST



Gas column density



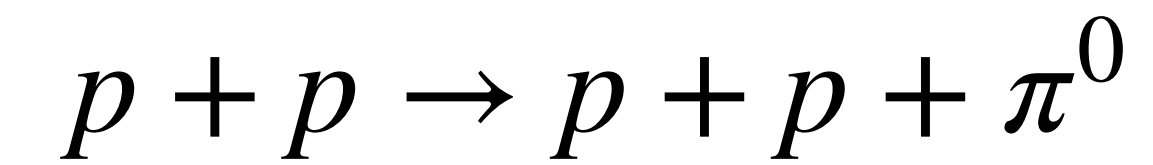
Fermi-LAT
> 1 GeV emission

The entire Galactic Disk emits due to hadronic interaction with diffuse gas

- * Useful to understand Galactic cosmic rays
- * Need to be considered as background for sources

Pion decay (pp)

Threshold of the mechanism

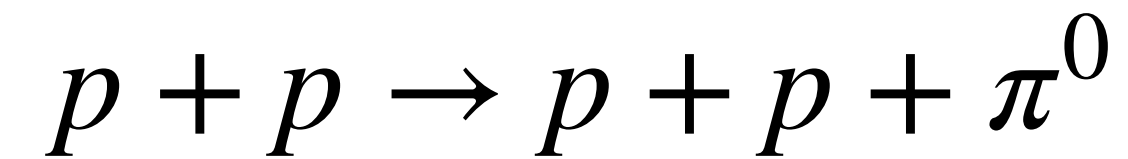


$$s_{th} = \left(\sum M_i c^2 \right)^2 = (2m_p c^2 + m_{\pi^0} c^2)^2$$

2 protons 1 pion

Pion decay (pp)

Threshold of the mechanism



$$s_{th} = \left(\sum M_i c^2 \right)^2 = (2m_p c^2 + m_{\pi^0} c^2)^2$$

2 protons 1 pion

\sqrt{s} total energy in the center of mass

s is invariant per reference system

In the lab. frame:

$$p_1^\mu = (E_p, 0, 0, pc) \quad \text{One proton is moving along z}$$

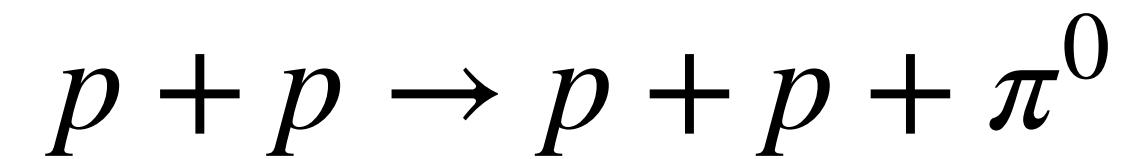
$$p_2^\mu = (m_p c^2, 0, 0, 0) \quad \text{One proton is at rest}$$

$$(p_1 + p_2)^2 = (E_p + m_p)^2 - p^2$$

Metric (1, -1, -1, -1)

Pion decay (pp)

Threshold of the mechanism



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$$(p_1 + p_2)^2 = (E_p + m_p c^2)^2 - (pc)^2$$

Metric (1, -1, -1, -1)

$$E_p^2 - (pc)^2 = (m_p c^2)^2$$

$$s = (p_1 + p_2)^2 \rightarrow s_{lab} = (2m_p^2 c^4 + 2m_p c^2 E_p)$$

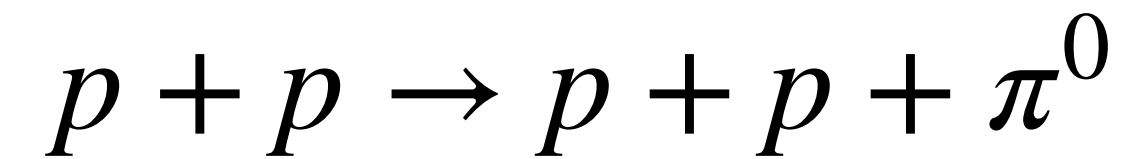
$$\rightarrow s_{lab} = s_{th} \rightarrow (2m_p c^2 + m_{\pi^0} c^2)^2 = (2m_p^2 c^4 + 2m_p c^2 E_p)$$

$$E_p^K = E_p - m_p c^2$$

$$E_p^{K,th} = 2m_{\pi^0} c^2 + \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2 c^2}{2m_p} = \boxed{280 \text{ MeV}}$$

Pion decay (pp)

Threshold of the mechanism



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Metric (1, -1, -1, -1)

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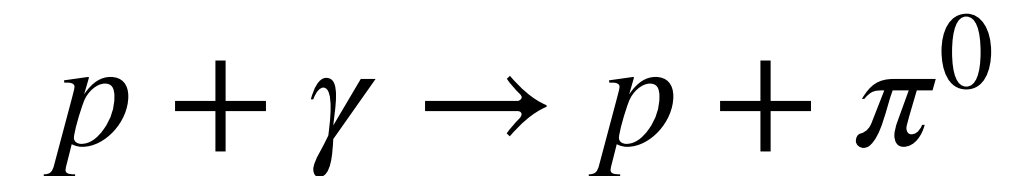
$$E_p^K = E_p - m_p c^2$$

$$E_p^{K,th} = 2m_{\pi^0} c^2 + \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2 c^2}{2m_p} = \boxed{280 \text{ MeV}}$$

Exercise: how much does the threshold change for the production of π^+ ?

Pion decay (p- γ)

Threshold of the mechanism



$$s_{th} = \left(\sum M_i c^2 \right)^2 = (m_p c^2 + m_{\pi^0} c^2)^2$$

1 proton 1 pion

In the lab. frame:

$$p_p^\mu = (E_p, 0, 0, p_p c)$$

The proton is moving along z

$$p_\gamma^\mu = (\epsilon_\gamma, 0, 0, p_\gamma c) \quad p_\gamma = \frac{\epsilon_\gamma}{c}$$

θ is the angle between proton and photon

$$s_{lab} = (p_p + p_\gamma)^2 = (m_p c)^2 + 2p_p \epsilon (1 - \cos \theta)$$

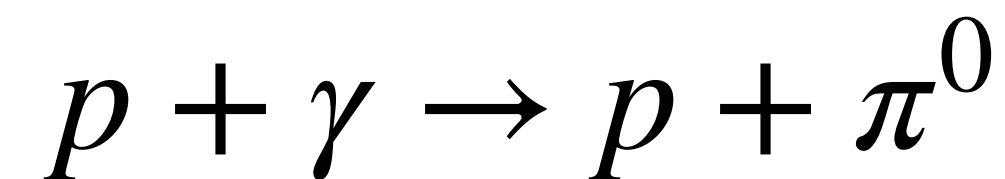
$$p_p \approx \frac{E_p}{c}; E_p \gg m_p c^2$$

$$s_{lab} = (m_p c^2)^2 + 2E_p \epsilon (1 - \cos \theta)$$

$$s_{th} = (m_p c^2 + m_{\pi^0} c^2)^2$$

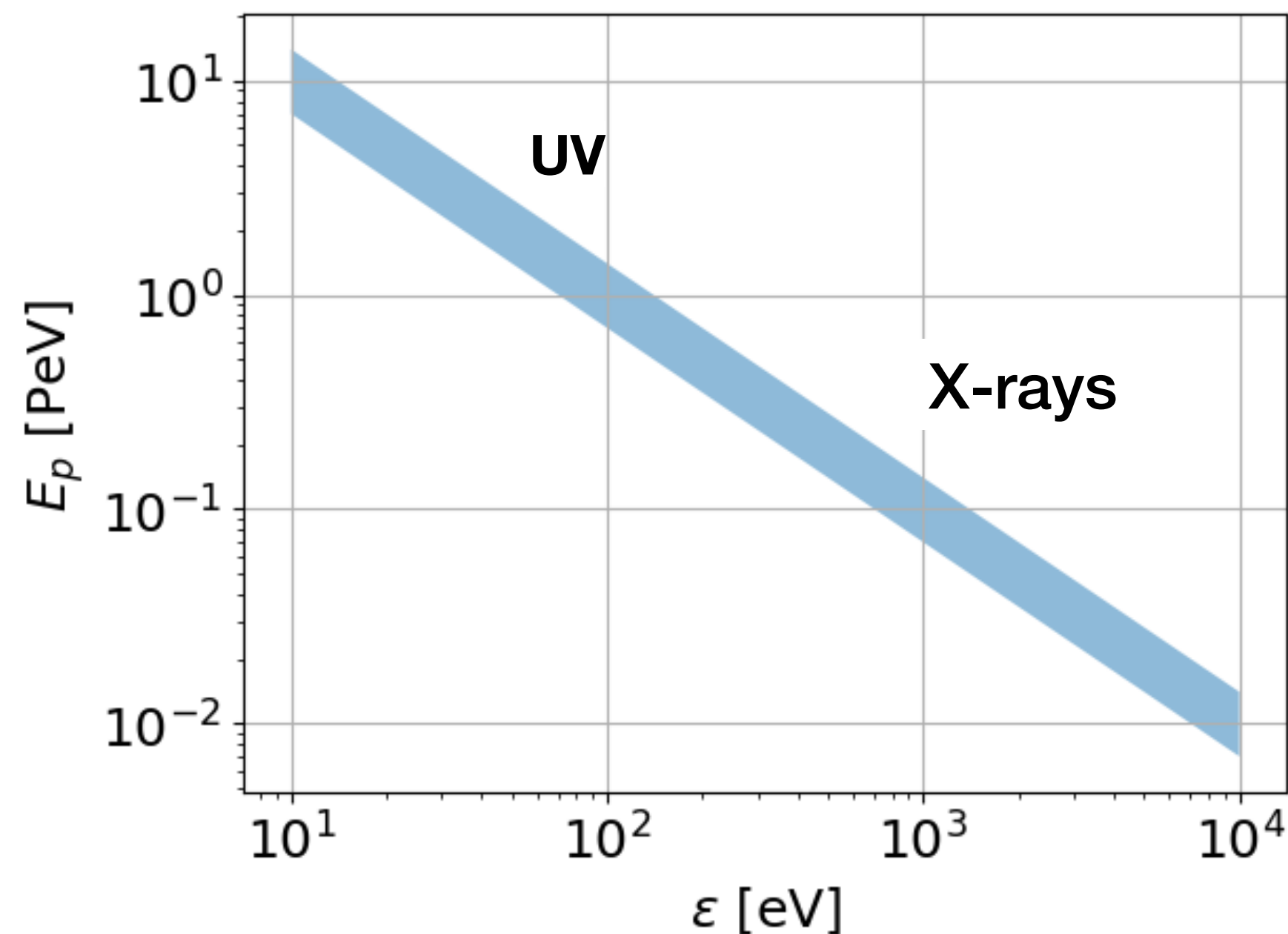
Pion decay (p- γ)

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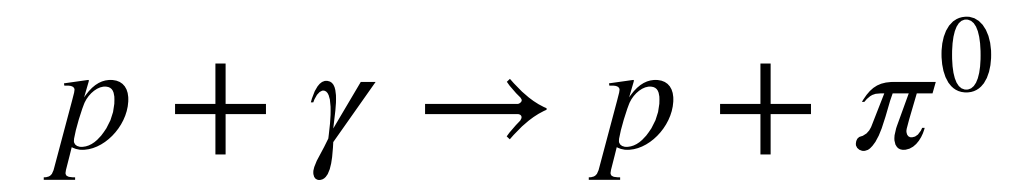
$$s_{lab} = (m_p c^2)^2 + 2E_p \epsilon (1 - \cos \theta)$$

$$s_{th} = (m_p c^2 + m_{\pi^0} c^2)^2$$

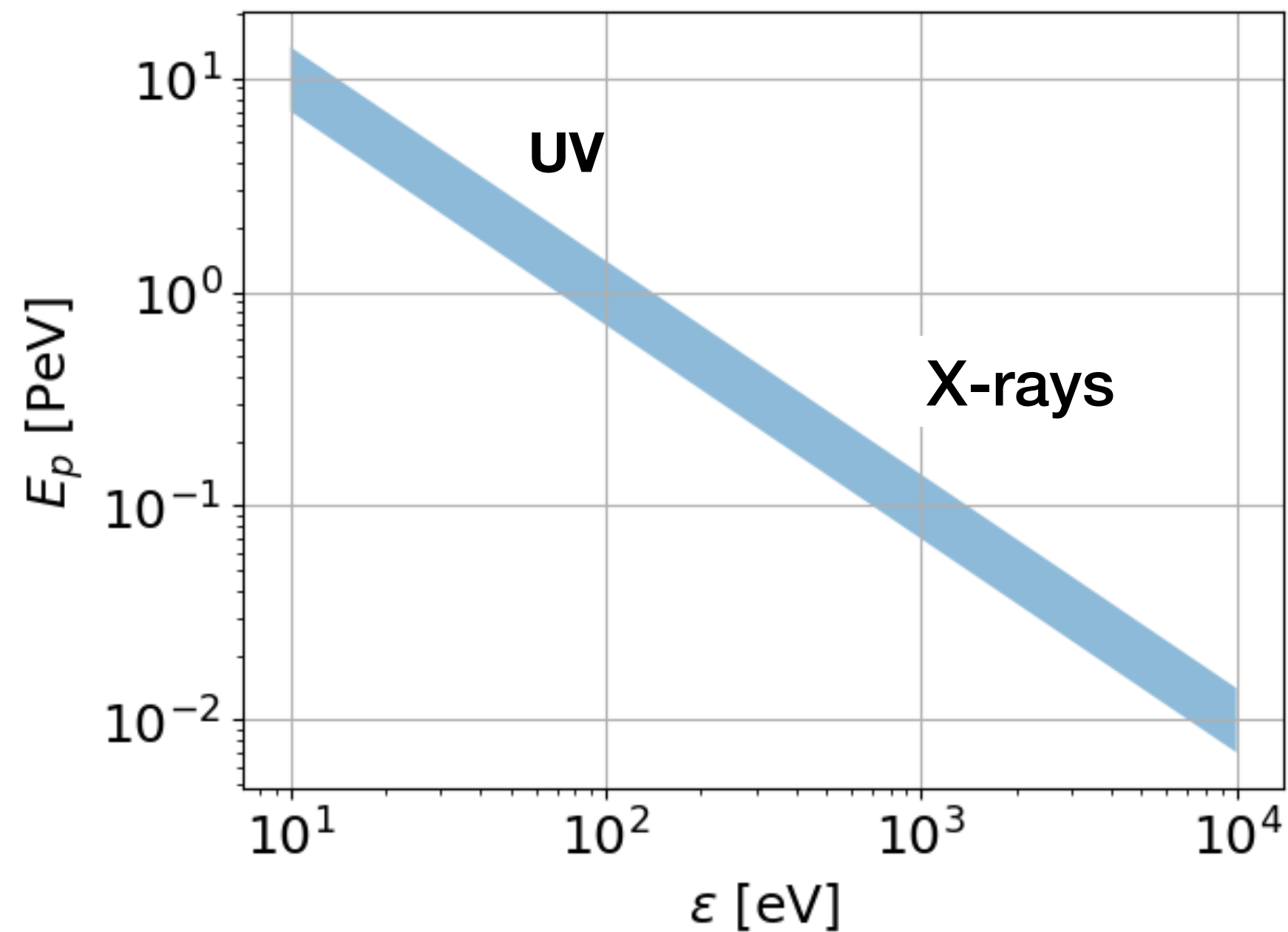
$$\rightarrow E_p^{th} = \frac{2m_p m_{\pi^0} + m_{\pi^0}^2}{2\epsilon(1 - \cos \theta)} = \frac{140 \text{ PeV}}{(1 - \cos \theta) \frac{\epsilon}{1 \text{ eV}}}$$

Pion decay (p- γ)

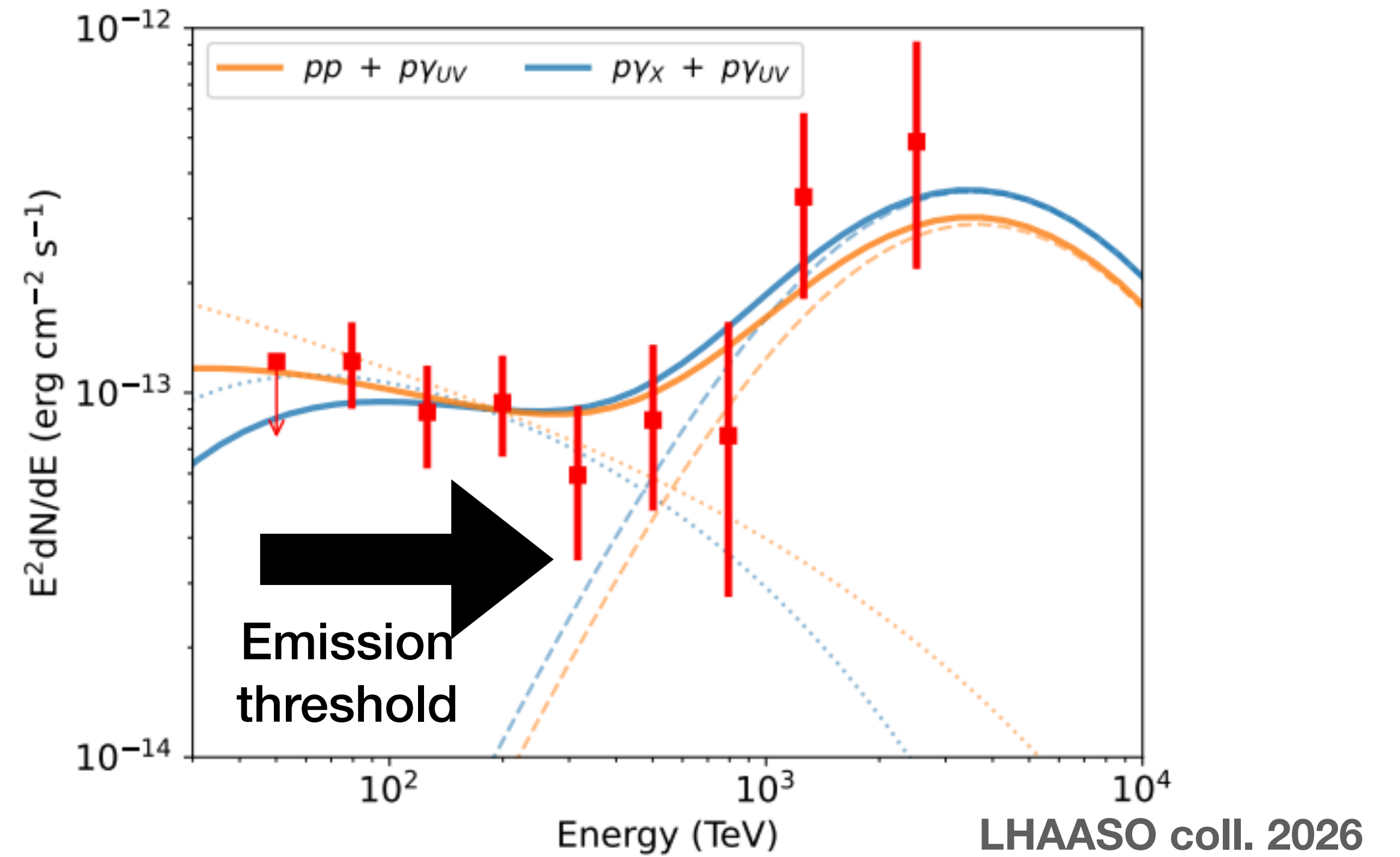
Threshold of the mechanism



Emission appears at Very/Ultra high energies



Cygnus-X3 micro-quasar: have large X-ray and UV field



$$E_p^{th} = \frac{2m_p m_{\pi^0} + m_{\pi^0}^2}{2\epsilon(1 - \cos \theta)} = \frac{\boxed{140 \text{ PeV}}}{(1 - \cos \theta) \frac{\epsilon}{1 \text{ eV}}}$$

From protons to pions

We understood the threshold for producing pions, but how much energy is transferred to the pions?

How is the resulting spectrum of pions?

From protons to pions

In the δ approximation

..we assume that a fixed fraction of energy k_π is transferred from protons to pions in the collision

Pion emissivity

$$q_\pi(E_\pi) = cn_H \int \delta(E_\pi - k_\pi E_{kin}) \sigma_{pp}(E_p) N_p(E_p) dE_p$$

↑
inelastic cross section
Energy distribution of protons

Fraction of transferred energy from proton to pion ~17%
 $\left[E_p = m_p c^2 + \frac{E_\pi}{k} \right]$

$$= \frac{cn_H}{k_\pi} \sigma_{pp} \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_\pi}{k_\pi} \right) N_p \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_\pi}{k_\pi} \right)$$

From protons to pions

In the δ approximation

$$q_\pi(E_\pi) = cn_H \int \delta(E_\pi - k_\pi E_{kin}) \sigma_{pp}(E_p) N_p(E_p) dE_p$$

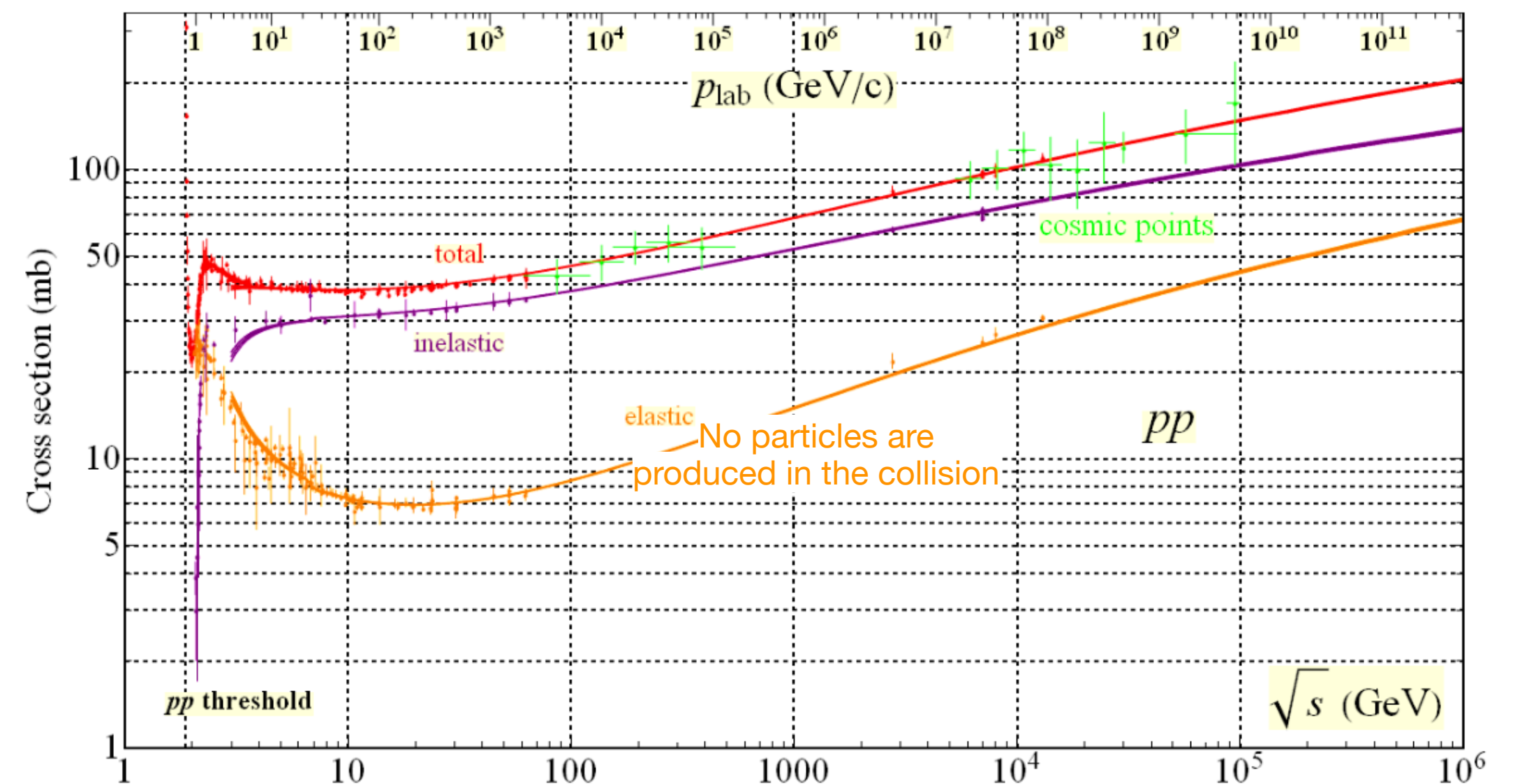
↑
↑
↑

Fraction of transferred energy from proton to pion ~17% inelastic cross section Energy distribution of protons

$$= \frac{cn_H}{k_\pi} \sigma_{pp} \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_\pi}{k_\pi} \right) N_p \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_\pi}{k_\pi} \right)$$

Total cross section

Laboratory measurement



Kelner & Aharonian approximation (>2 GeV) :

$$\sigma_{pp}(E_p) \approx 30 \left[0.95 + 0.06 \ln \left(\frac{E_{kin}}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right) \right]$$

**Slight dependence on energy:
Spectral shape of pions will follow the
shape of protons**

From protons to pions

In the δ approximation

$$q_\pi(E_\pi) = cn_H \int \delta(E_\pi - k_\pi E_{kin}) \sigma_{pp}(E_p) N_p(E_p) dE_p$$

$\delta(E_\pi - k_\pi E_{kin})$: Fraction of transferred energy from proton to pion $\sim 17\%$
 $\sigma_{pp}(E_p)$: inelastic cross section
 $N_p(E_p)$: Energy distribution of protons

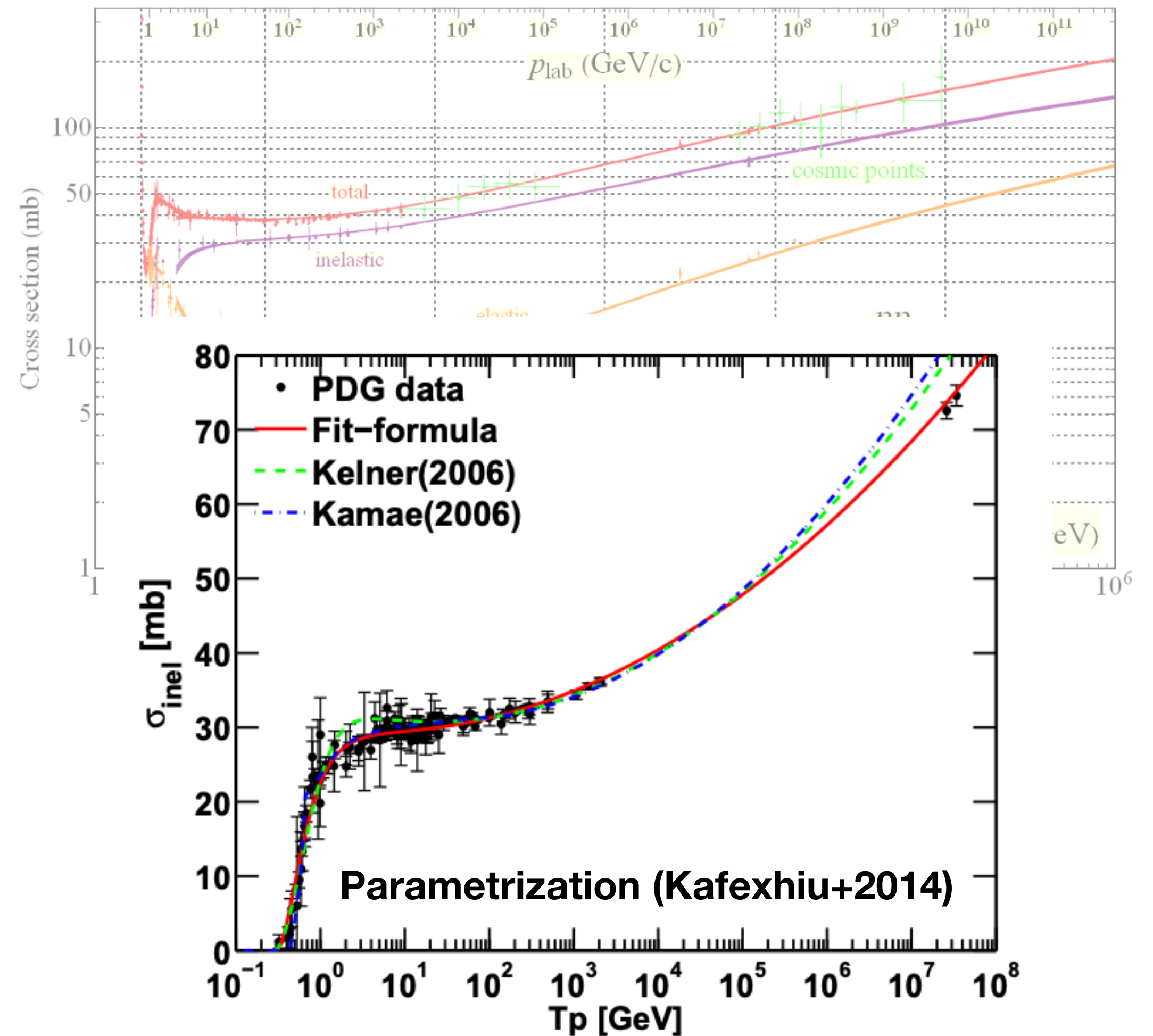
$$= \frac{cn_H}{k_\pi} \sigma_{pp} \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_\pi}{k_\pi} \right) N_p \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_\pi}{k_\pi} \right)$$

Kelner & Aharonian approximation (>2 GeV) :

$$\sigma_{pp}(E_p) \approx 30 \left[0.95 + 0.06 \ln \left(\frac{E_{kin}}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right) \right] \text{mb}$$

Total cross section

Laboratory measurement



From protons to pions

Total inelastic cross section and cooling time

$$\sigma_{pp}(E_p) \approx 30 \left[0.95 + 0.06 \ln \left(\frac{E_{kin}}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right) \right] \text{mb}$$

Gives the probability of interaction hence the mean free path, hence the time between each collision

$$t_{pp} = (n\sigma_{pp}c)^{-1} \simeq 5.4 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{n}{\text{cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-1} \text{yr}$$

~ residence time in the MW of CRs of 10-20 Myr derived from unstable isotopes

Proton may travel quite some times before interacting and emitting!

From protons to pions

In the δ approximation

$$q_{\pi}(E_{\pi}) = cn_H \int \delta(E_{\pi} - k_{\pi} E_{kin}) \sigma_{pp}(E_p) N_p(E_p) dE_p$$

\uparrow
 Fraction of transferred energy from proton to pion $\sim 17\%$

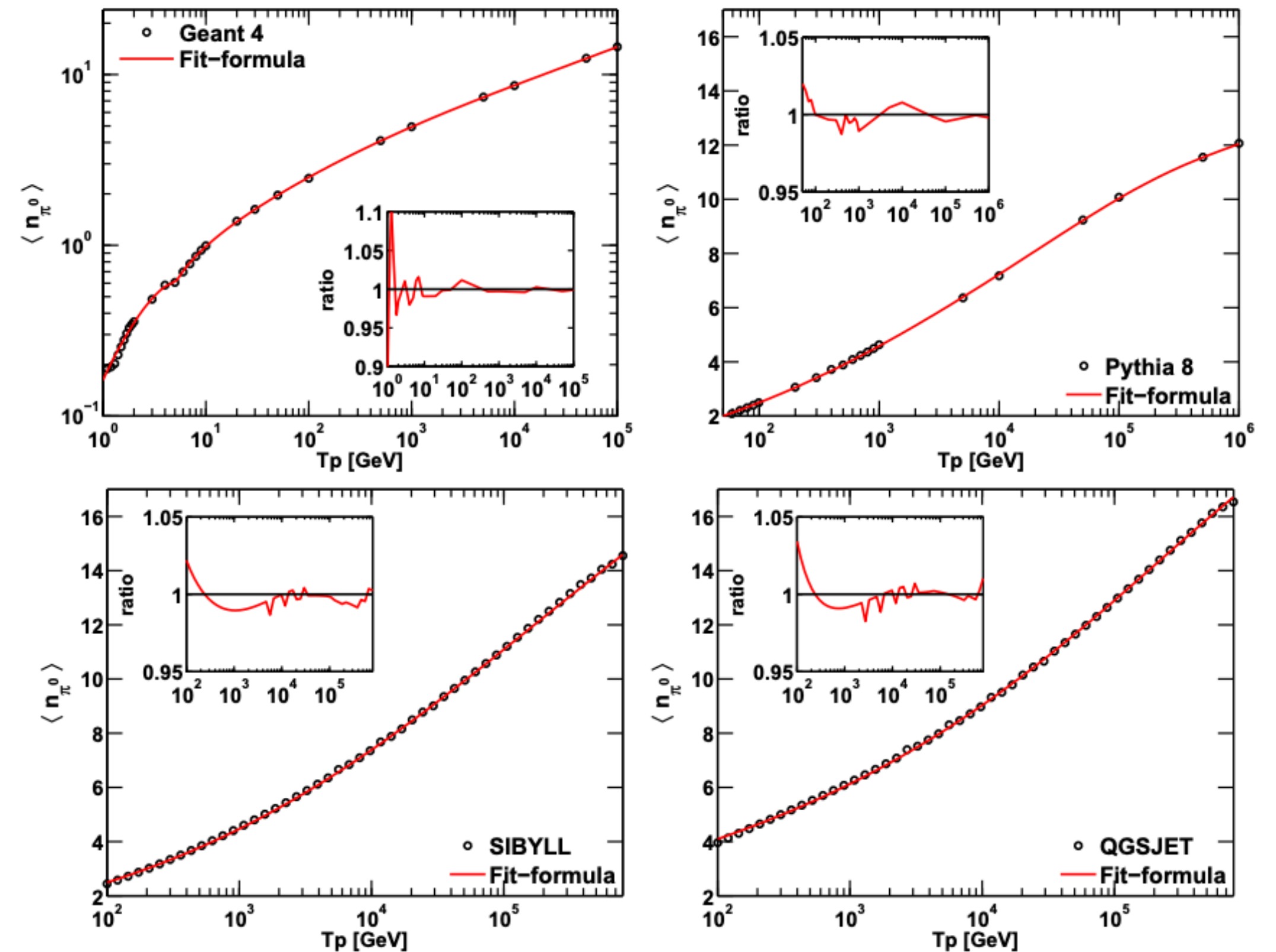
\uparrow
 inelastic cross section

\uparrow
 Energy distribution of protons

$$= \frac{cn_H}{k_{\pi}} \sigma_{pp} \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_{\pi}}{k_{\pi}} \right) N_p \left(m_p c^2 + \frac{E_{\pi}}{k_{\pi}} \right)$$

1st complication: Multiplicity

How many pions are produced per interaction (multiplicity) depends on the energy in the center of mass: the more energy the higher number of pions are produced



From protons to pions

Beyond the δ approach

$$q_\pi(E_\pi) = cn_H \int \delta(E_\pi - k_\pi E_{kin}) \sigma_{pp}(E_p) N_p(E_p) dE_p$$

$$q_\pi(E_\pi) = cn_H \int F_\pi(x, E_p) \sigma_{pp}(E_p) N_p(E_p) dE_p$$

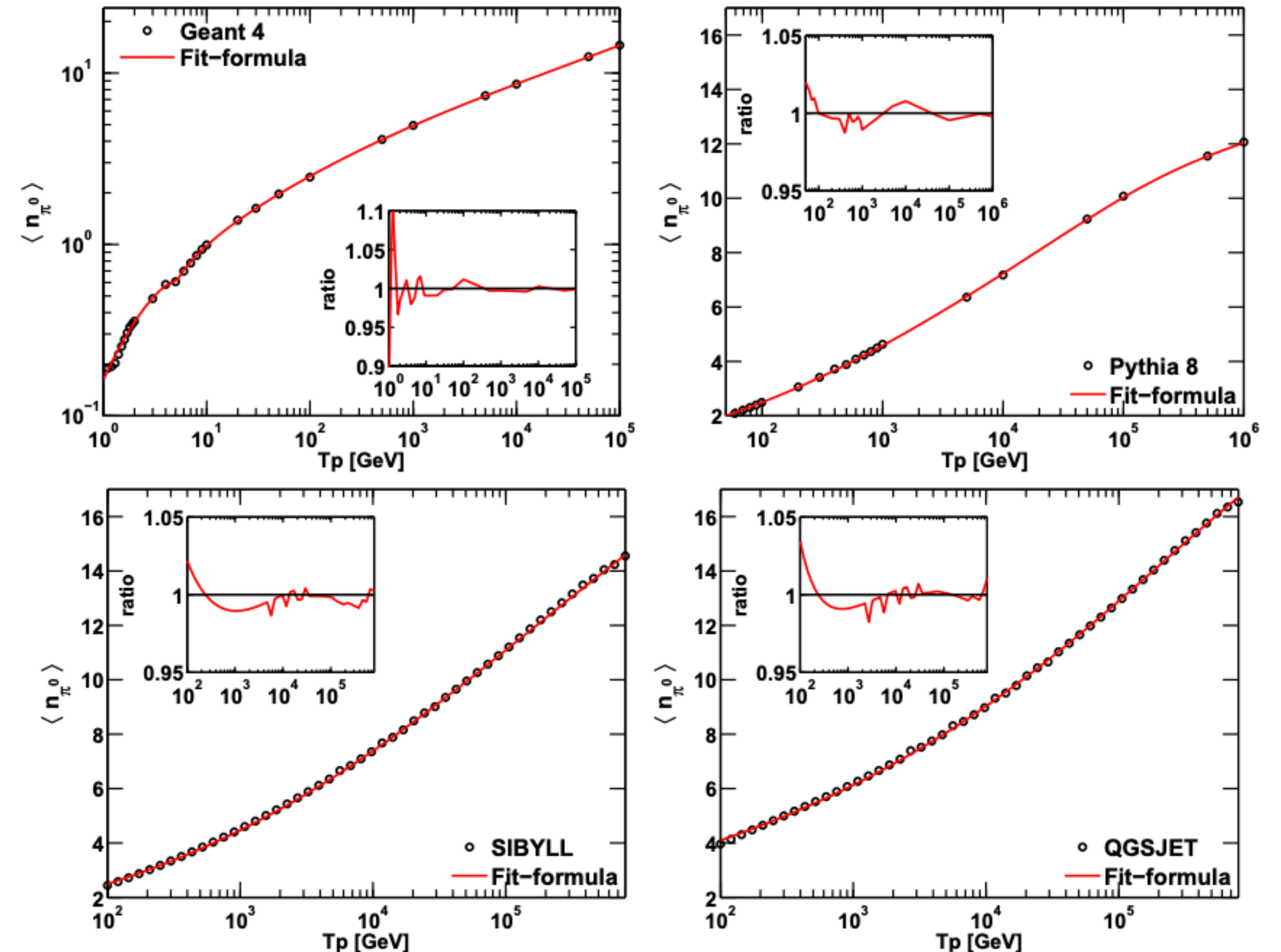
2nd complication: the transferred energy is not constant

$$dN_\pi = F_\pi dx$$

$$x = \frac{E_\pi}{E_p}$$

1st complication: Multiplicity

How many pions are produced per interaction (multiplicity) depends on the energy in the center of mass: the more energy the higher number of pions are produced



From protons to pions

Beyond the δ approach

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2nd complication: the transferred energy is not constant

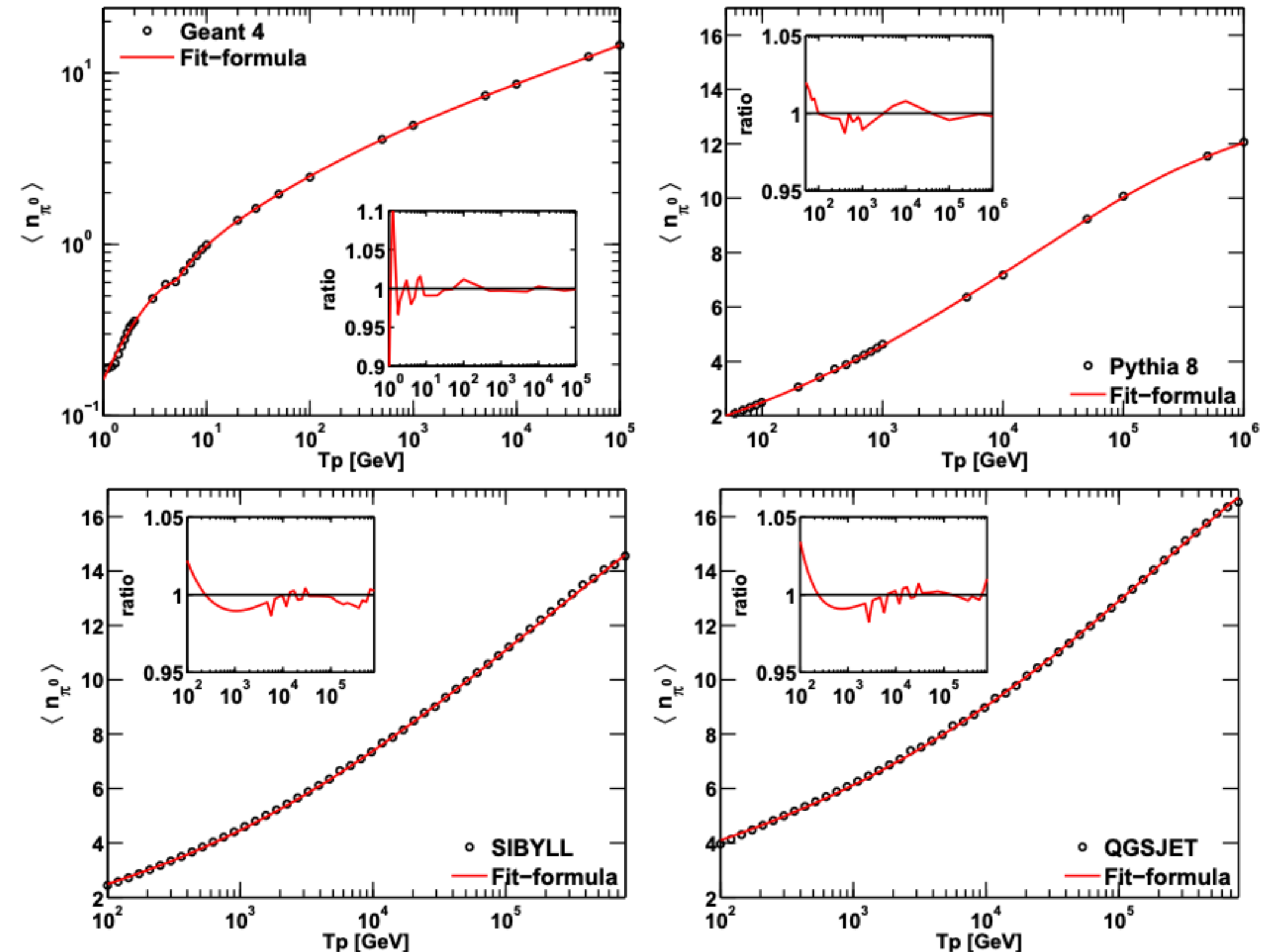
$$dN_\pi = F_\pi dx$$

$$x = \frac{E_\pi}{E_p}$$

To compute the final pion spectrum one needs a numerical approach

1st complication: Multiplicity

How many pions are produced per interaction (multiplicity) depends on the energy in the center of mass: the more energy the higher number of pions are produced



From protons to pions

Beyond the δ approach

$$q_\pi(E_\pi) = cn_H \int F_\pi(x, E_p) \sigma_{pp}(E_p) N_p(E_p) dE_p$$

$$dN_\pi = F_\pi dx$$

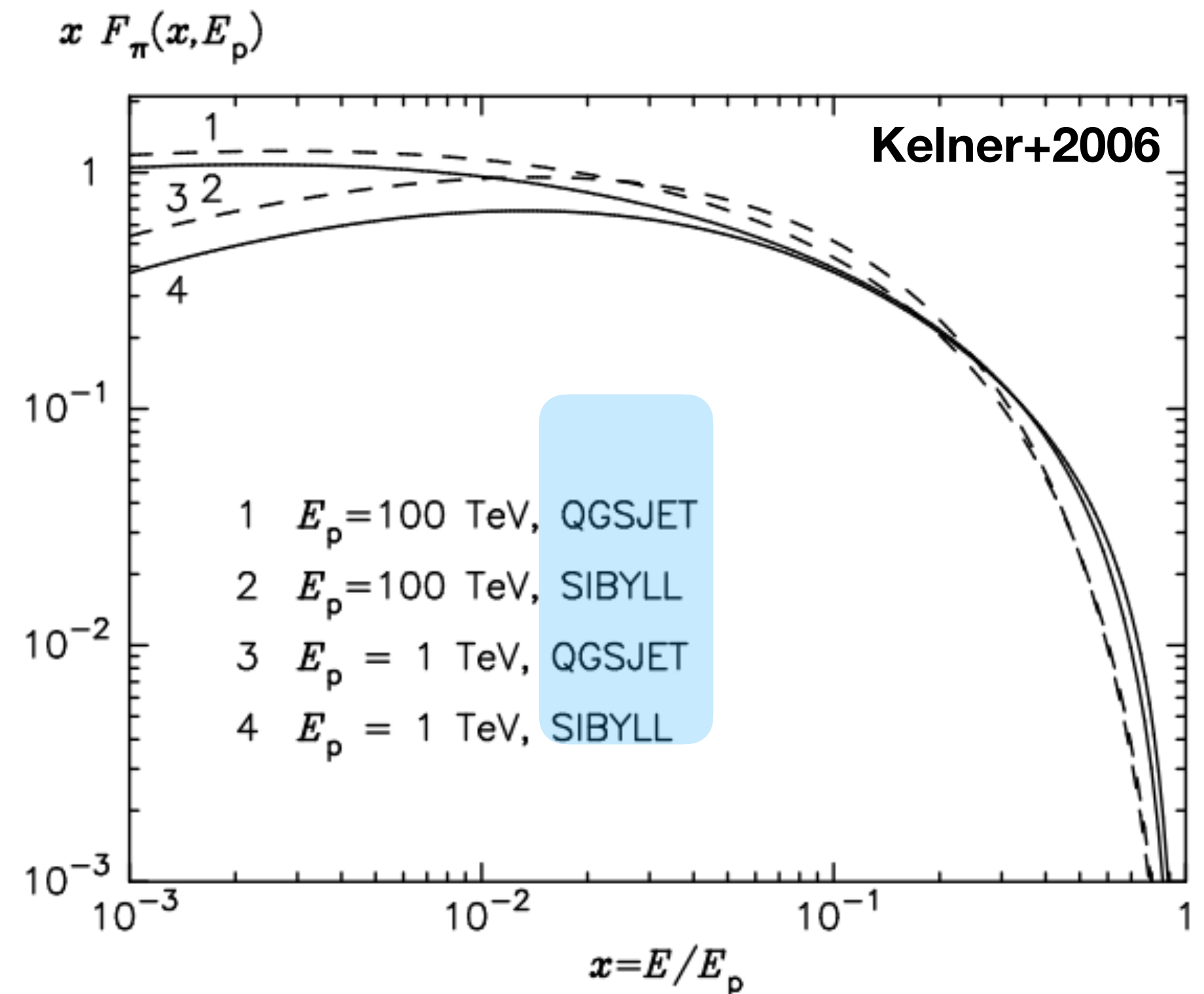
$$x = \frac{E_\pi}{E_p}$$

Fit to the generated data (Kelner+2006)

$$F_\pi(x, E_p) = 4\alpha B_\pi x^{\alpha-1} \left(\frac{1-x^\alpha}{(1+rx^\alpha)^3} \right)^4 \times \left(\frac{1}{1-x^\alpha} + \frac{3r}{1+rx^\alpha} \right) \left(1 - \frac{m_\pi}{x E_p} \right)^{1/2}$$

Energy spectra of pions

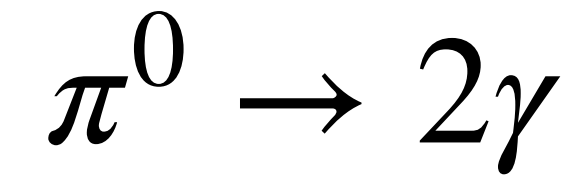
Taking into account multiplicity and energy transfer, as derived with numerical approaches like (QGSJET, SIBYLL..)



From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum

In the rest frame of pion photons
are emitted isotropically



This is a consequence of the fact
that pions have spin $J=0$

Now we have to compute how
much energy is transferred from
the pion to the photons in the
decay. We follow F. Stecker
derivation.

From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump

In the rest frame of pion photons
are emitted isotropically $\pi^0 \rightarrow 2\gamma$

Energy of the photon in the
Pion rest frame: $E^*_\gamma = \frac{m_{\pi^0}c^2}{2}$

Lab. frame: $E_\gamma = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta^*) \rightarrow -1 < \cos \theta^* < 1$

There is a maximum and a minimum

θ^* is the angle of emission of
photons in the pion rest frame

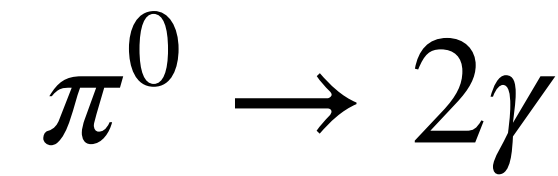
$$\beta = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\Gamma^2}}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{E_\pi}{m_{\pi^0}c^2} = \frac{\eta E_p}{m_{\pi^0}c^2}$$

From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump

In the rest frame of pion photons
are emitted isotropically



Energy of the photon in the
Pion rest frame: $E^*_\gamma = \frac{m_{\pi^0}c^2}{2}$

Lab. frame: $E_\gamma = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta^*) \rightarrow -1 < \cos \theta^* < 1$

$$\begin{cases} E_{\gamma,min} < E_\gamma < E_{\gamma,max} \\ E_{\gamma,min} = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 - \beta) = E_\gamma(E_\pi) \\ E_{\gamma,max} = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 + \beta) = E_\gamma(E_\pi) \end{cases}$$

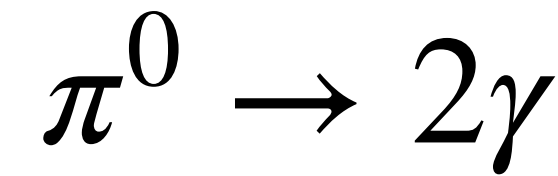
$$\beta = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\Gamma^2}}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{E_\pi}{m_{\pi^0}c^2} = \frac{\eta E_p}{m_{\pi^0}c^2}$$

From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump

In the rest frame of pion photons are emitted isotropically



Energy of the photon in the Pion rest frame: $E^*_\gamma = \frac{m_{\pi^0}c^2}{2}$

Lab. frame: $E_\gamma = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta^*) \rightarrow -1 < \cos \theta^* < 1$

Photon distribution for each pion of energy E_π

$$f(E_\gamma) = \frac{dN_\gamma^j}{dE_\gamma} = \frac{1}{E_{max} - E_{min}} = \frac{1}{\Gamma m_{\pi^0} \beta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}}$$

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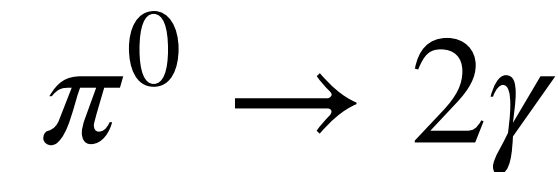
$$\Gamma = \frac{E_\pi}{m_{\pi^0}c^2} = \frac{\eta E_p}{m_{\pi^0}c^2}$$

Because of isotropy: each photon is emitted with the same probability between E_{min} and E_{max}

From pions to photons

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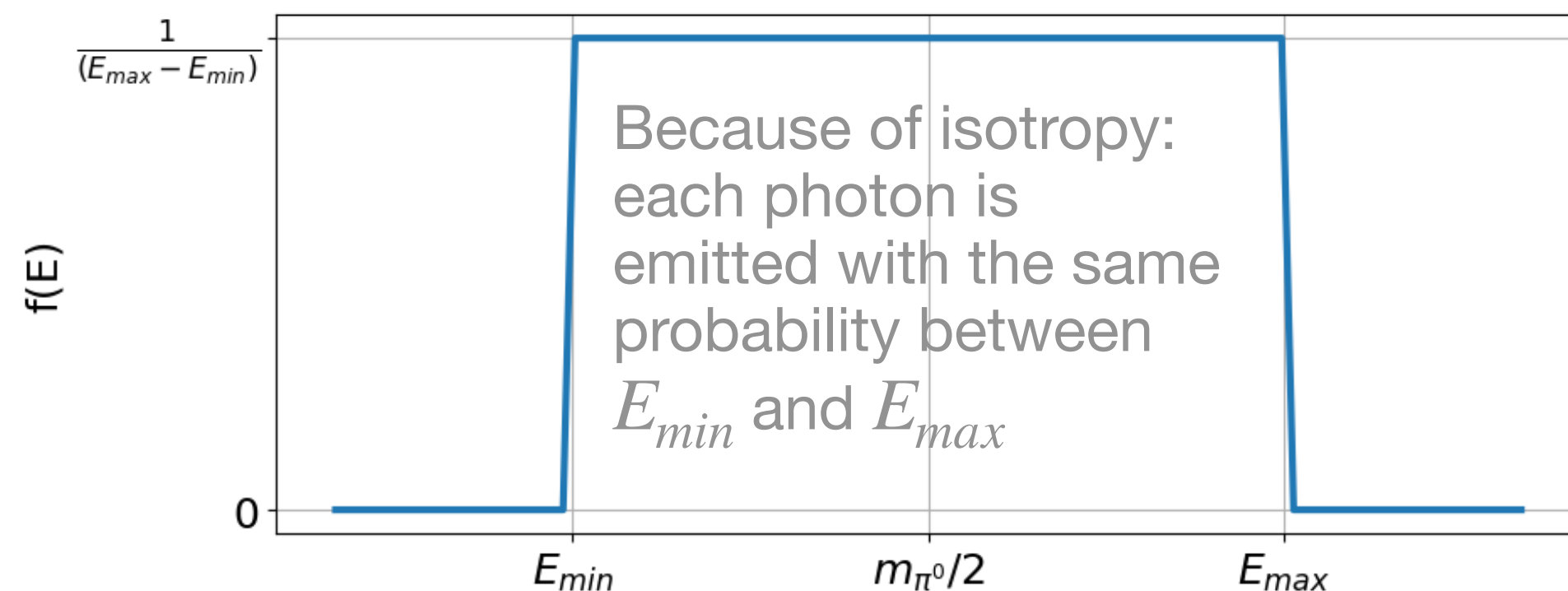
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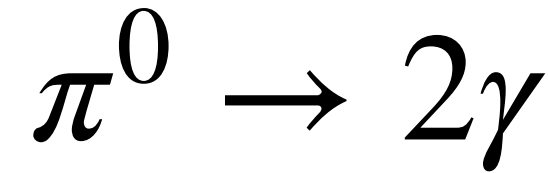
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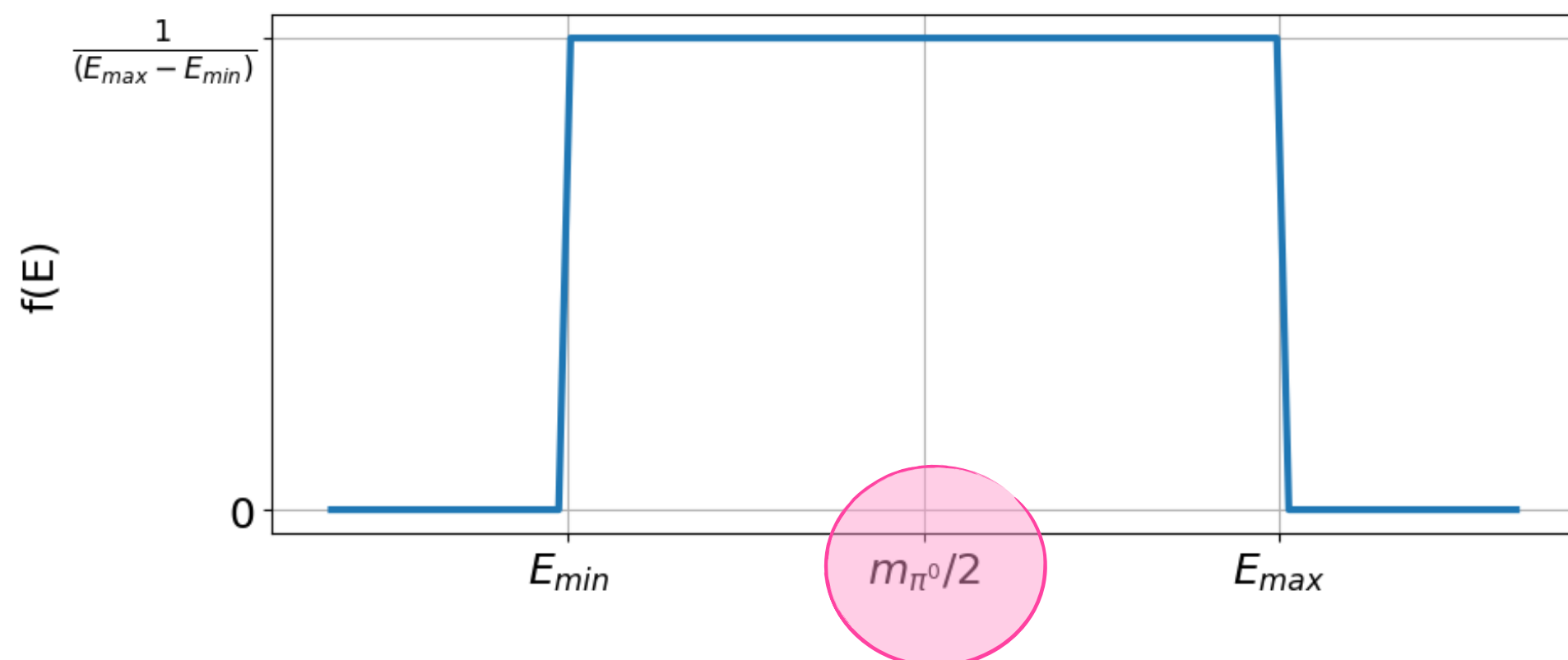
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Logarithmic average between E_{min} and E_{max}

$$\log(E_{mean}) = (\log(E_{min}) + \log(E_{max}))/2$$

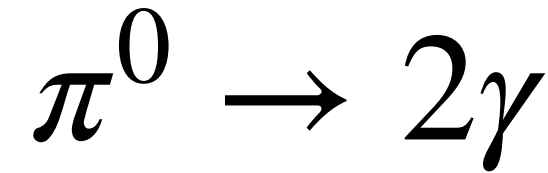
$$E_{mean}^{log} = (E_{min} E_{max})^{1/2} = \frac{m_{\pi^0}}{2} \text{ Does not depend on } E_\pi$$



From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump

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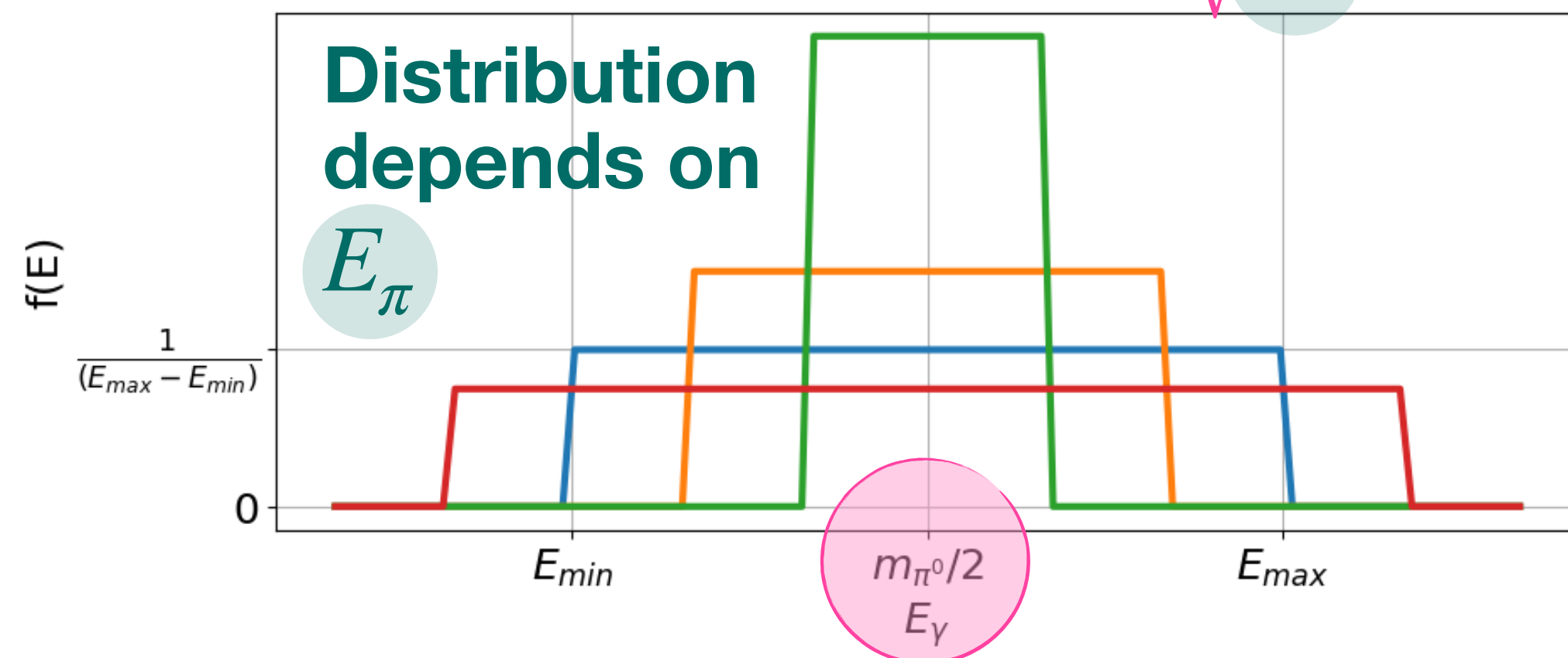
$$f(E_\gamma) = \frac{dN_\gamma^j}{dE_\gamma} = \frac{1}{E_{max} - E_{min}} = \frac{1}{\Gamma m_{\pi^0} \beta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}}$$

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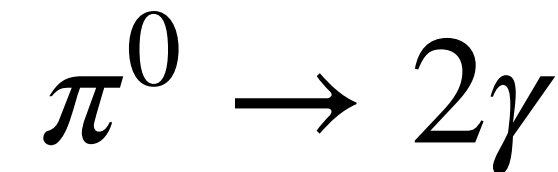
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From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump

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$$\beta = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\Gamma^2}}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{E_\pi}{m_{\pi^0}c^2} = \frac{\eta E_p}{m_{\pi^0}c^2}$$

Photon distribution for a power-law distribution of pions:

$$\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = \int_{E_\pi^{min}(E_\gamma)} dE_\pi \frac{dN_\pi}{dE_\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}} = \int_{E_\pi^{min}(E_\gamma)} dE_\pi E_\pi^{-s} \frac{1}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}}$$

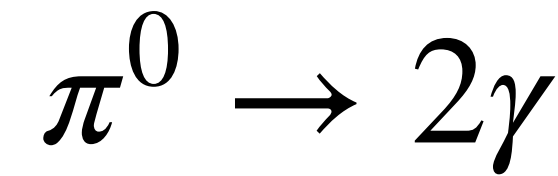
If $s > 0$ Dominated by lower boundary

$$\approx (E_\pi^{min}(E_\gamma))^{-s}$$

From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump

In the rest frame of pion photons are emitted isotropically



Pion rest frame: $E^*_\gamma = \frac{m_{\pi^0}c^2}{2}$

Lab. frame: $E_\gamma = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta^*) \rightarrow -1 < \cos \theta^* < 1$

Photon distribution for each pion of energy E_π

$$f(E_\gamma) = \frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = \frac{1}{E_{Emax} - E_{min}}$$

$$\begin{cases} E_{\gamma,min} < E_\gamma < E_{\gamma,max} \\ E_{\gamma,min} = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 - \beta) = E_\gamma(E_\pi) \quad (A) \\ E_{\gamma,max} = \Gamma E^*_\gamma (1 + \beta) = E_\gamma(E_\pi) \quad (B) \end{cases}$$

Photon distribution for a power-law distribution of pions (~ power-law distribution of protons):

$$\approx (E_\pi^{min}(E_\gamma))^{-s}$$

Dominated by lower boundary

$$(B) \rightarrow E_\pi^{min} = E_\gamma + \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2}{4E_\gamma}$$

The minimum energetic pion to obtain the same photon energy

$$\beta = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\Gamma^2}}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{E_\pi}{m_{\pi^0}c^2} = \frac{\eta E_p}{m_{\pi^0}c^2}$$

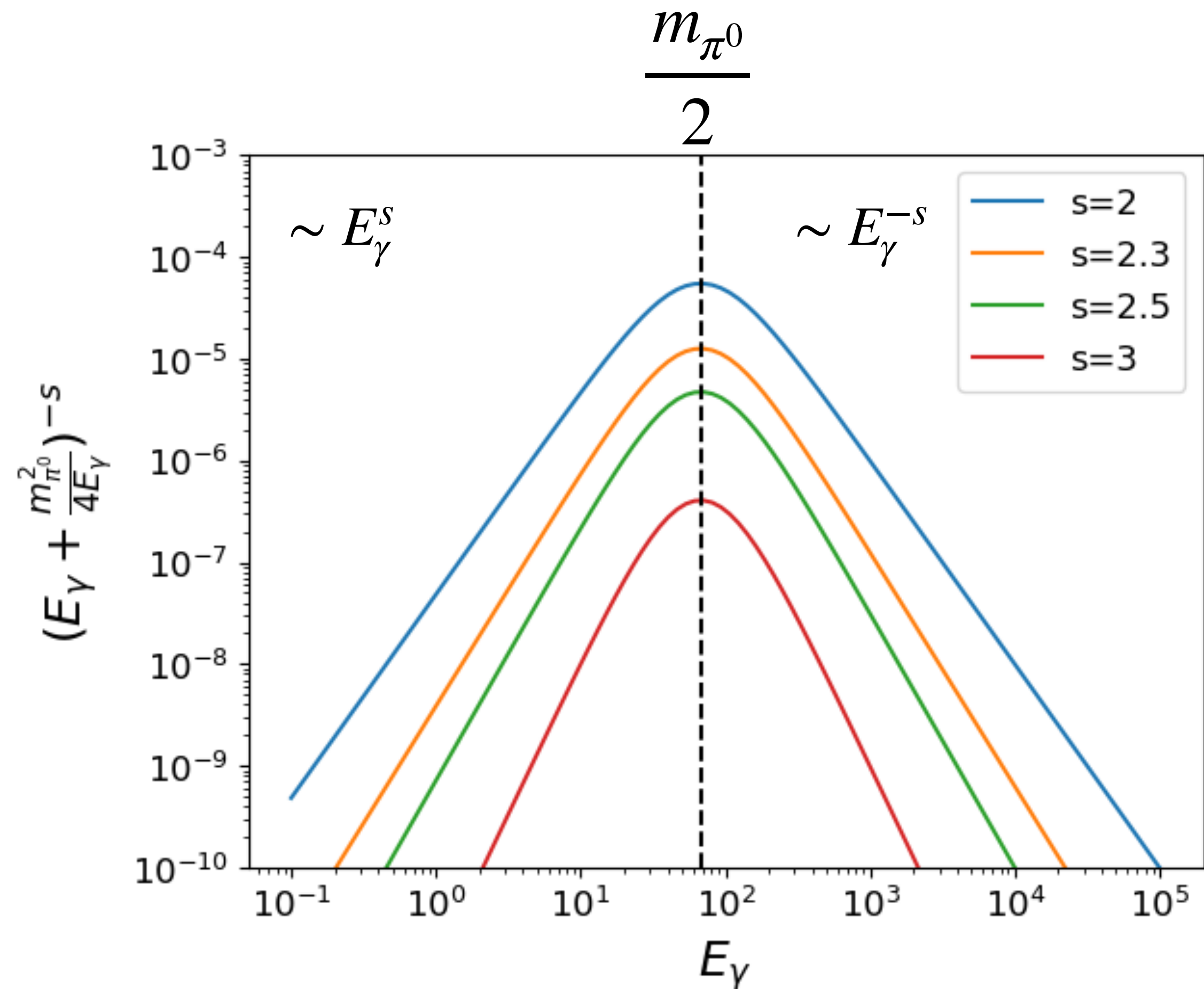
From pions to photons

The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump

$$\frac{dN_\pi}{dE_\pi} \propto (E_\pi)^{-s} \approx (E_\pi^{min})^{-s}$$

$$E_\pi^{min} = E_\gamma + \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2}{4E_\gamma}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} E_\pi^{min} \sim \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2}{4E_\gamma} \quad \text{for } E_\gamma \ll \frac{m_{\pi^0}}{2} \quad \sim E_\gamma^s \\ E_\pi^{min} \sim E_\gamma \quad \text{for } E_\gamma \gg \frac{m_{\pi^0}}{2} \quad \sim E_\gamma^{-s} \end{array} \right.$$



From pions to photons

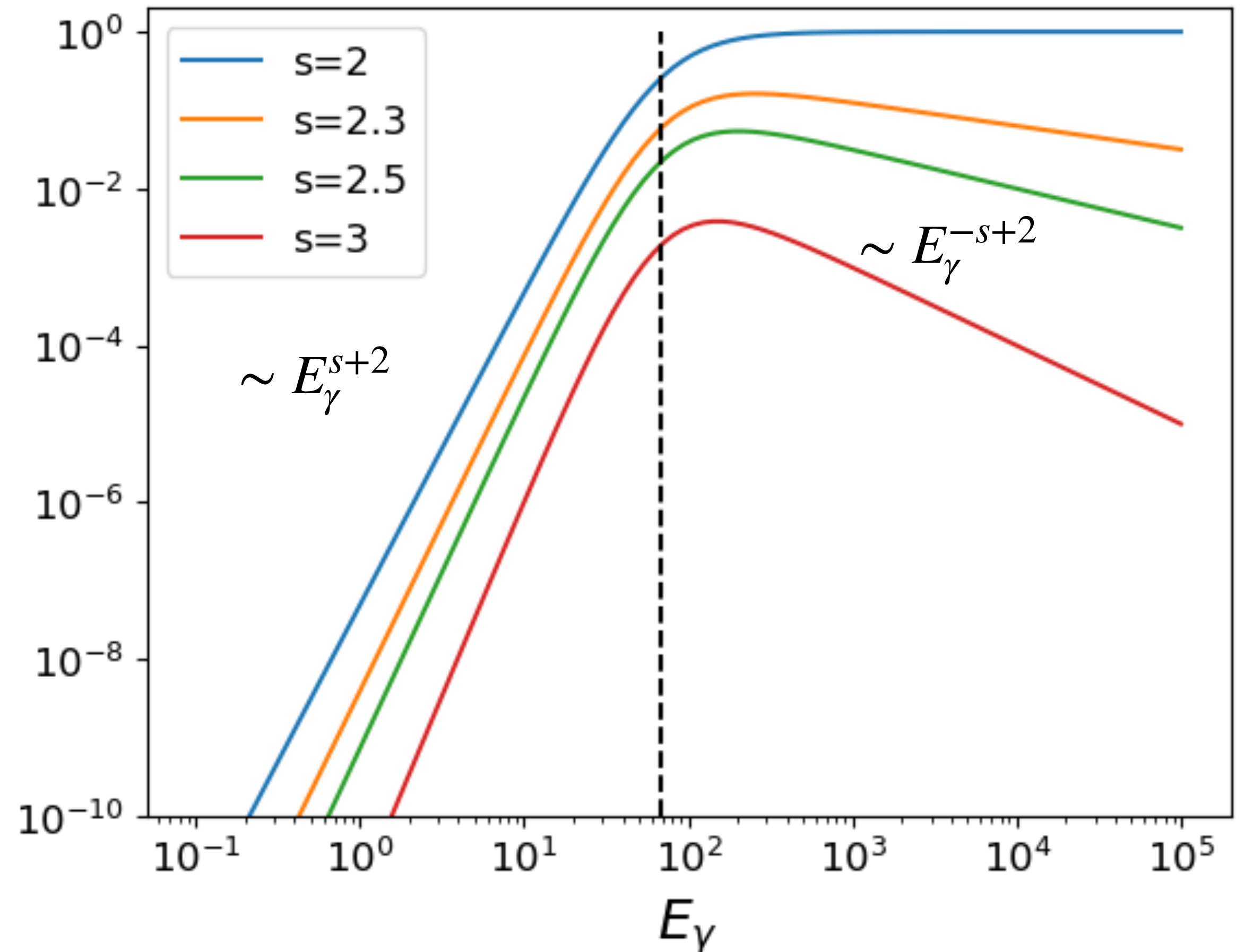
The shape of photon spectrum: the pion bump $\frac{m_{\pi^0}}{2}$
 In the E^2 representation

$$\frac{dN_{\pi}}{dE_{\pi}} \propto (E_{\pi})^{-s} \approx (E_{\pi}^{min})^{-s}$$

$$E_{\pi}^{min} = E_{\gamma} + \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2}{4E_{\gamma}}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} E_{\pi}^{min} \sim \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2}{4E_{\gamma}} \quad \text{for } E_{\gamma} \ll \frac{m_{\pi^0}}{2} \quad \sim E_{\gamma}^s \\ E_{\pi}^{min} \sim E_{\gamma} \quad \text{for } E_{\gamma} \gg \frac{m_{\pi^0}}{2} \quad \sim E_{\gamma}^{-s} \end{array} \right.$$

$$E_{\gamma}^2 (E_{\gamma} + \frac{m_{\pi^0}^2}{4E_{\gamma}})^{-s}$$

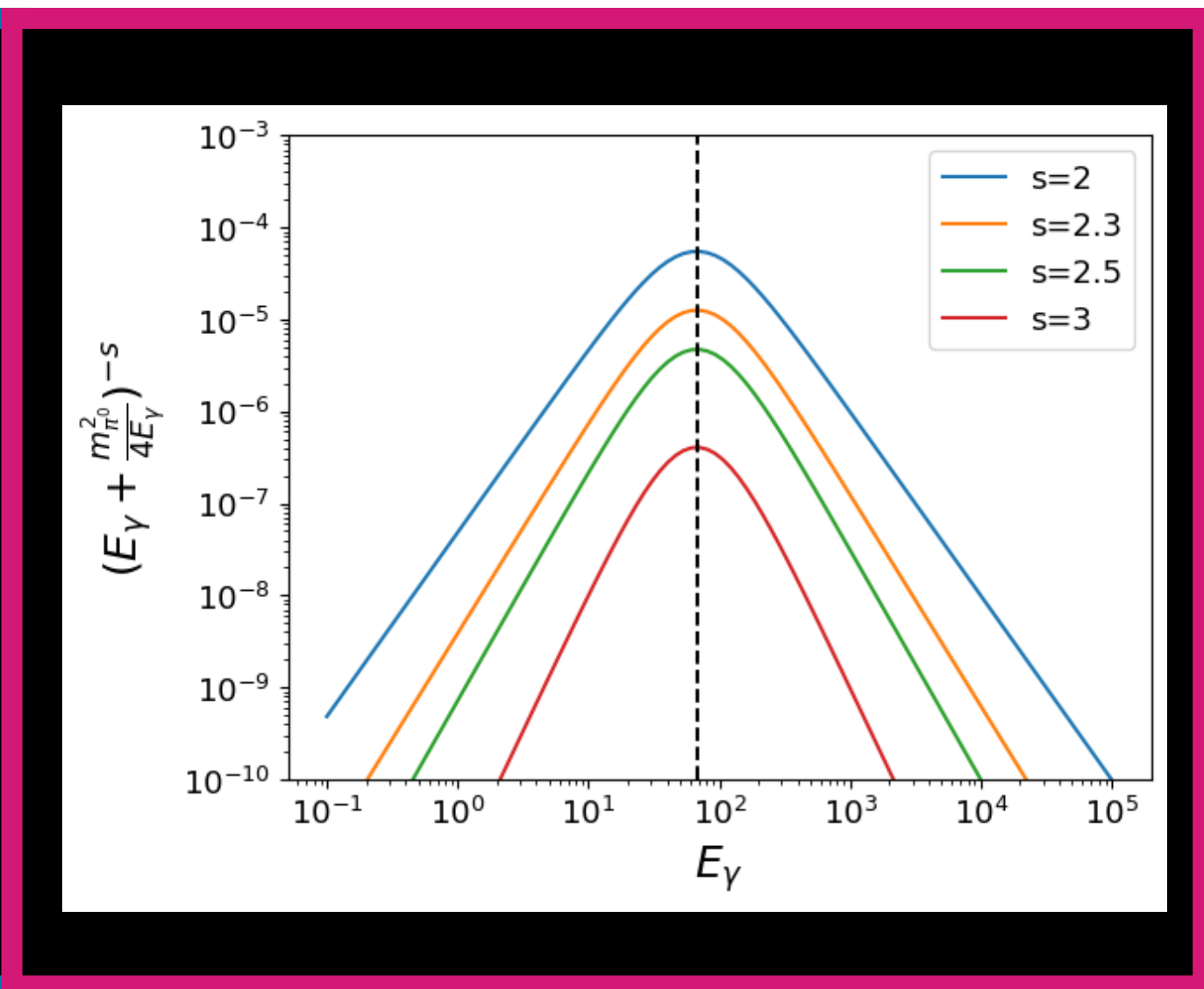
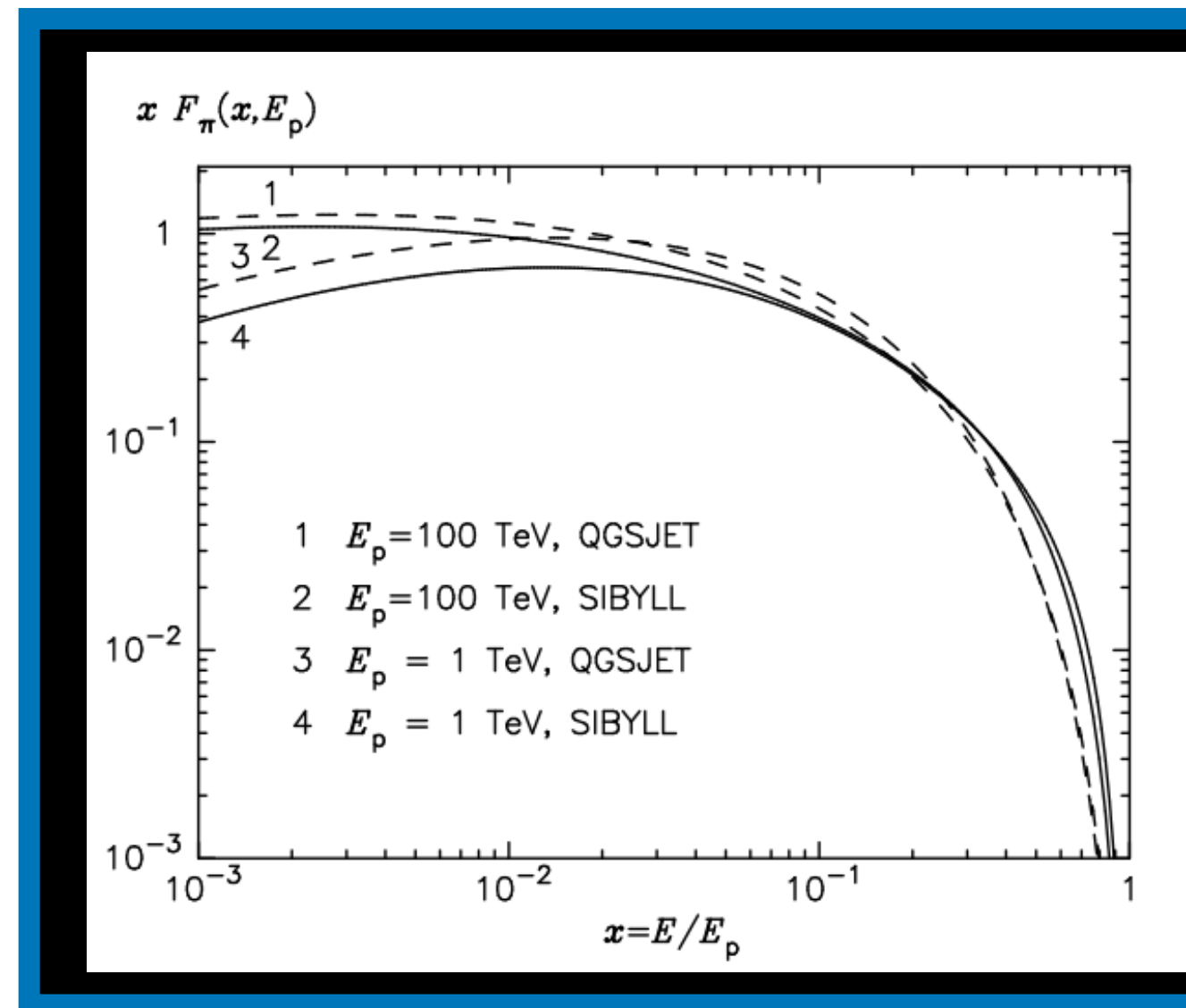
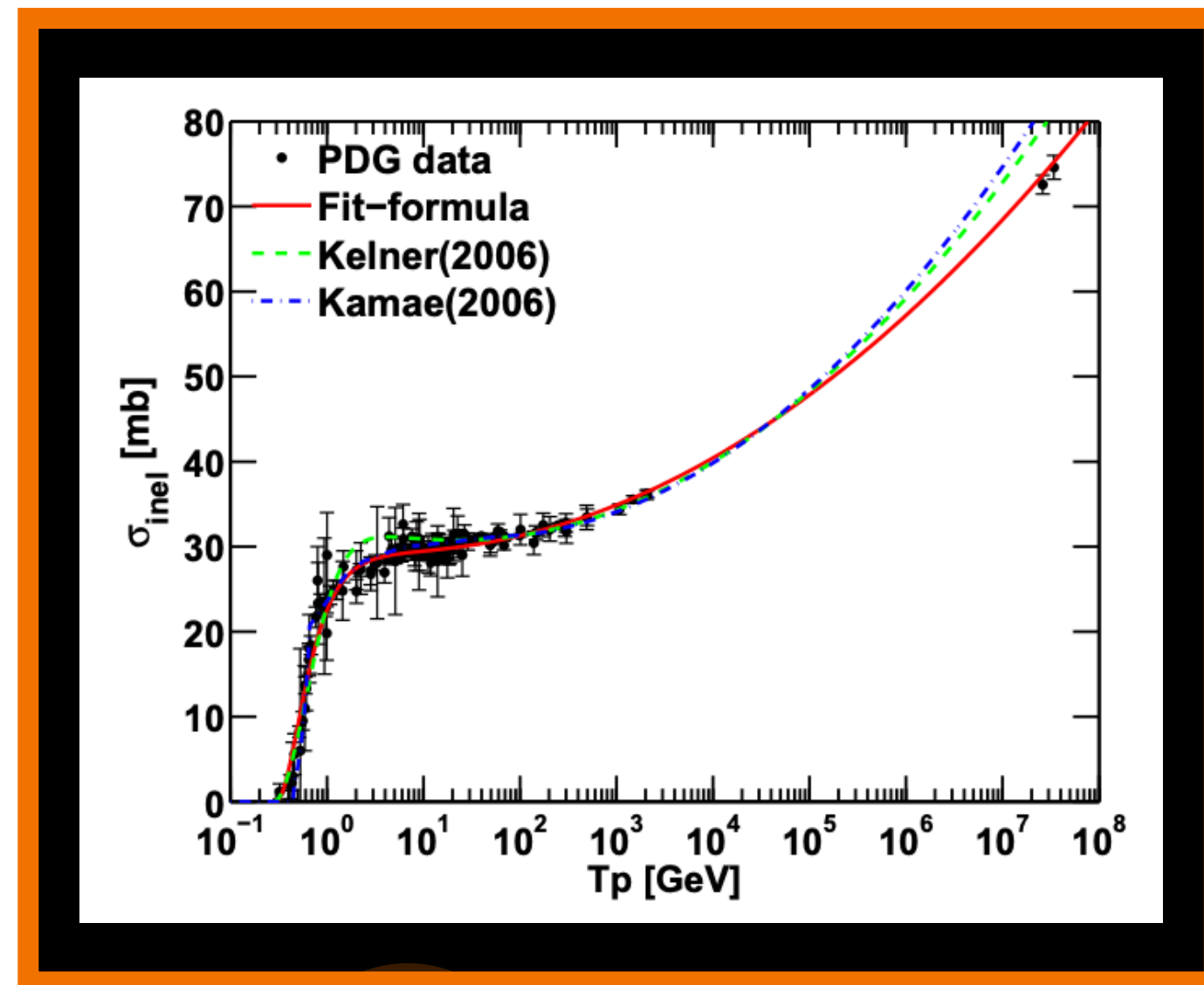


Putting everything together

Energetic nuclei impact on ambient nuclei pp

The interaction produces unstable mesons (e.g. pions)

The pions quickly decay into gamma rays



$$\frac{dN_p}{dE_p}$$

$$\frac{d\sigma_\pi}{dE_\pi} \propto \sigma^{inel} F_\pi(x, E_p)$$

$$\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma}$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dE_\gamma} = 2 \int \frac{d\sigma_\pi}{dE_\pi} \frac{dE_\pi}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}} = 2 \int \sigma_{pp}^{inel} F_\pi(x, E_p) \frac{dE_\pi}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}}$$

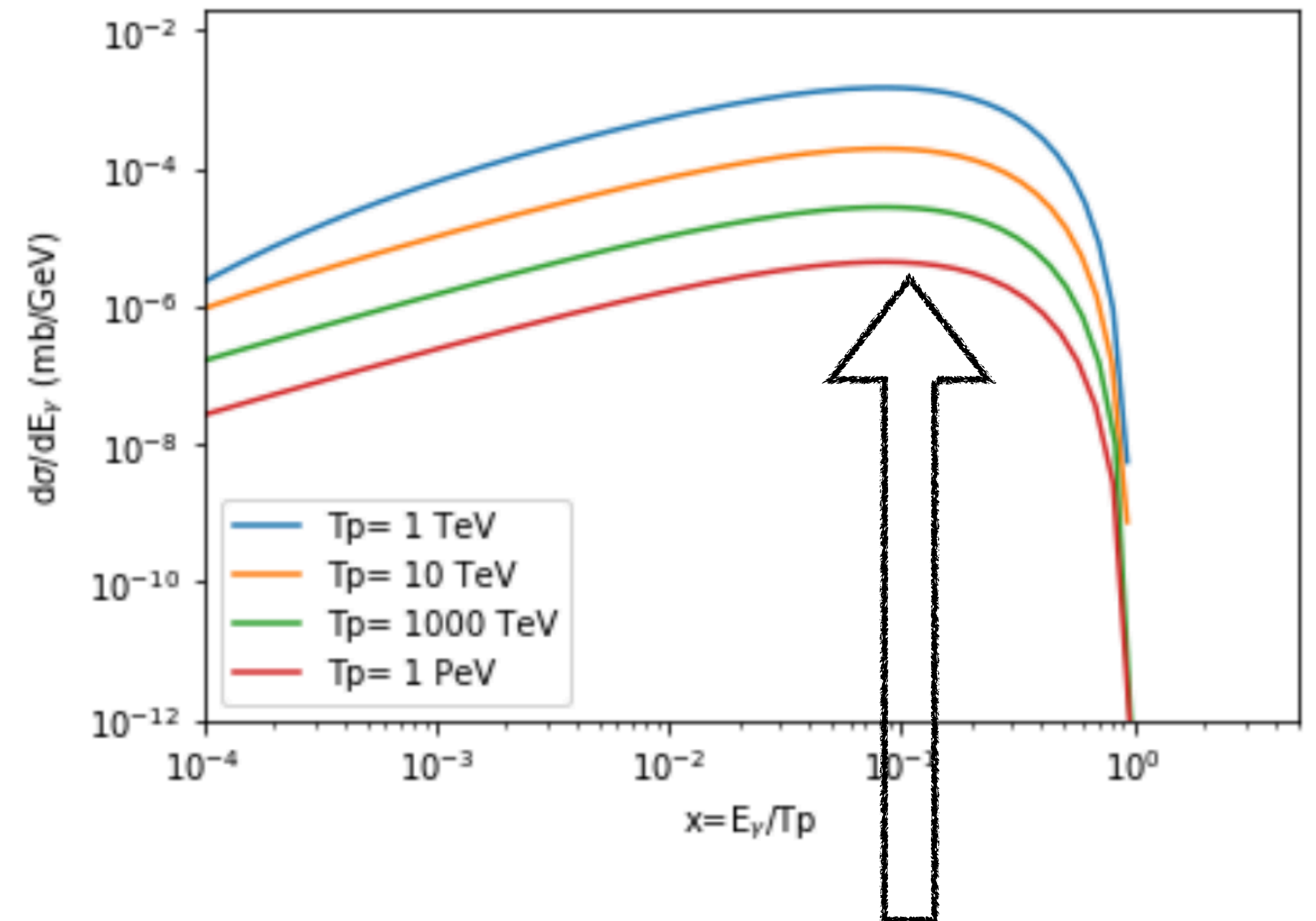
Putting everything together

Connecting protons and gamma

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dE_\gamma} = 2 \int \frac{d\sigma_\pi}{dE_\pi} \frac{dE_\pi}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}} = 2 \int \sigma_{pp}^{inel} F_\pi(x, E_p) \frac{dE_\pi}{\sqrt{E_\pi^2 - m_{\pi^0}^2}}$$

$$\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = \dots = cn_H \int dE_p \frac{d\sigma_{pp \rightarrow 2\gamma}}{dE_\gamma} \frac{dN_p}{dE_p}$$

Contains all info about pion production and multiplicity
Derived with numerical methods



Photon get ~10% of proton energy

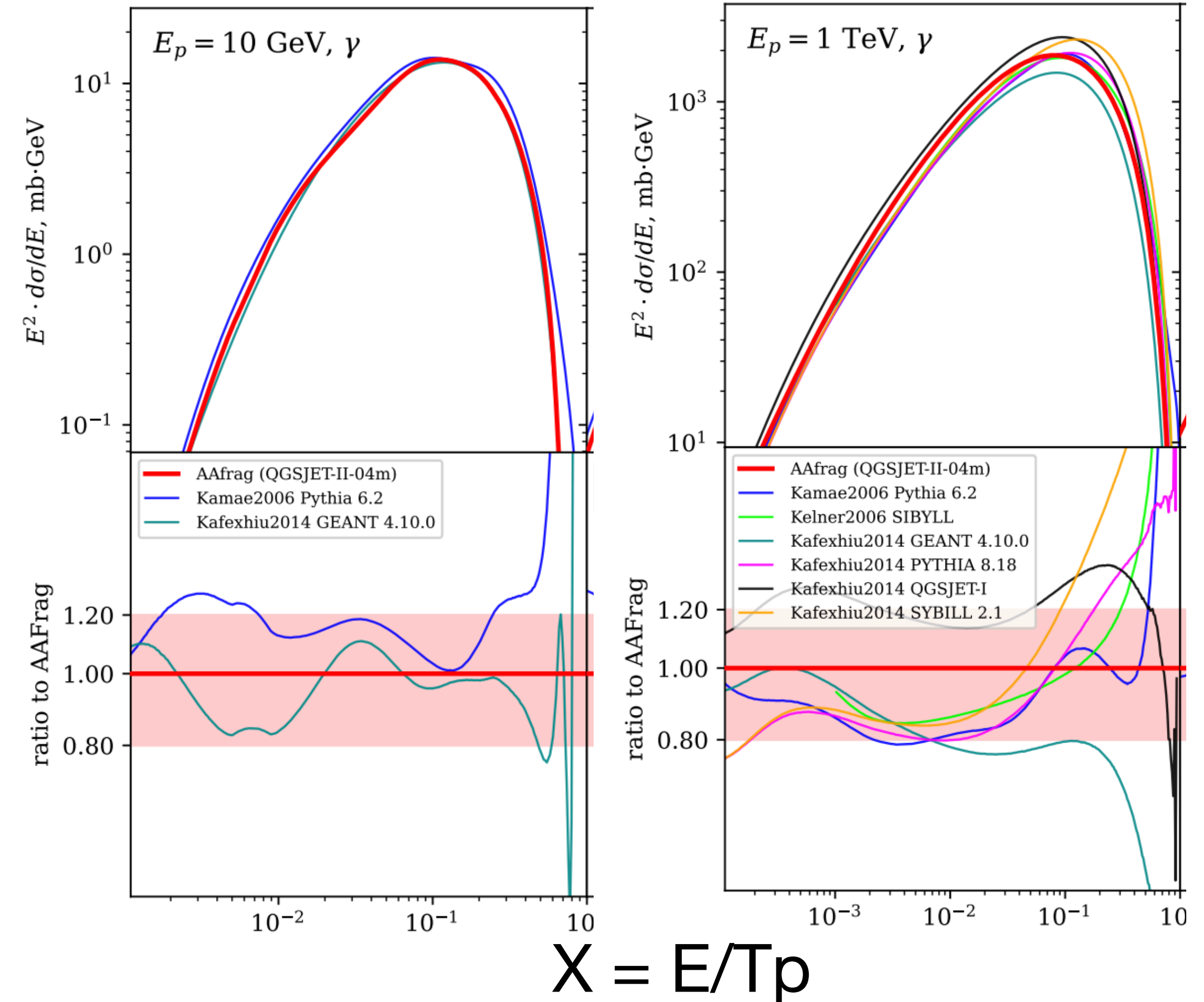
Putting everything together

Connecting protons and gamma

Systematic difference due to different parametrization

$$\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = \dots = cn_H \int dE_p \frac{d\sigma_{pp \rightarrow 2\gamma}}{dE_\gamma} \frac{dN_p}{dE_p}$$

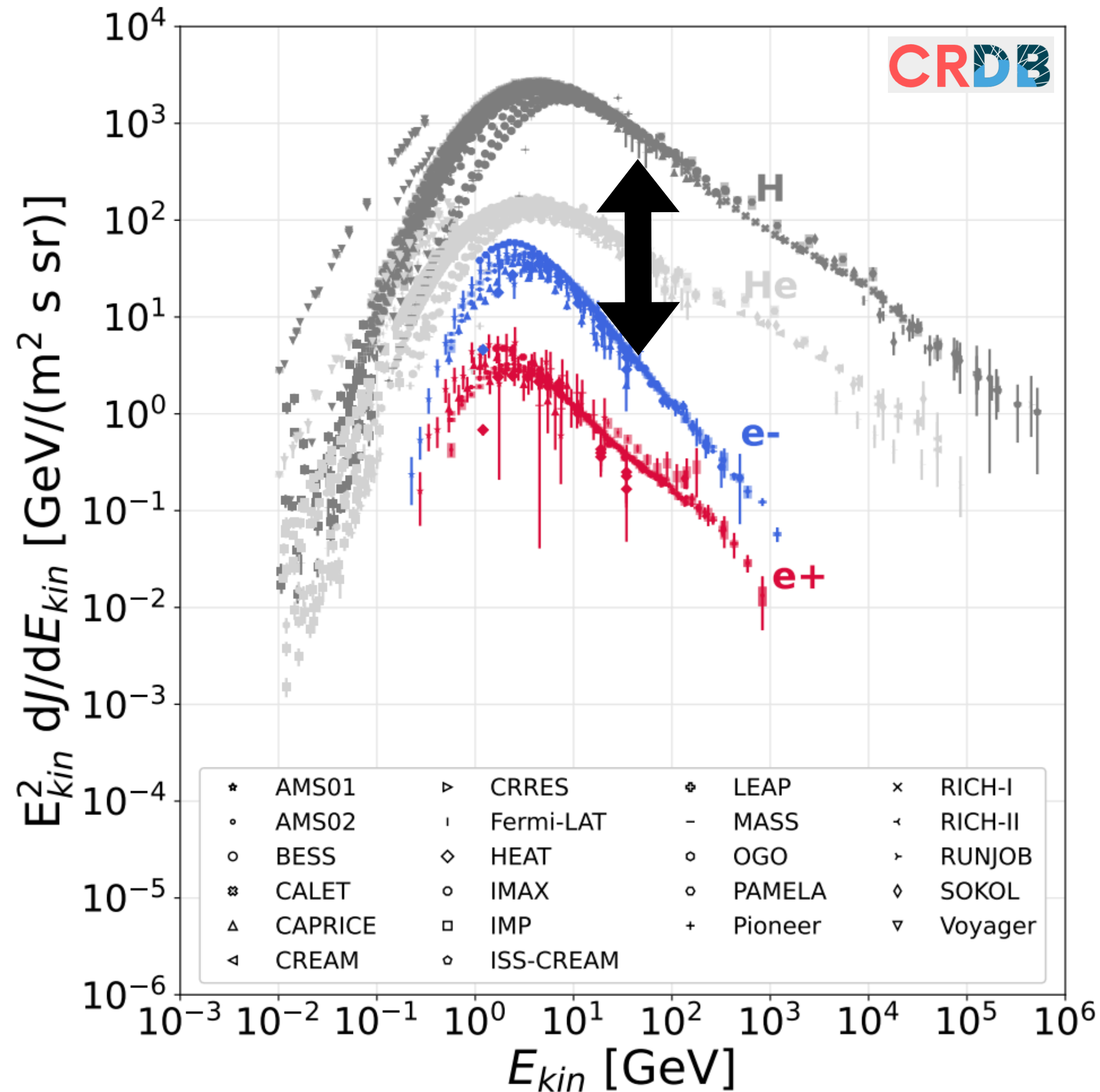
Contains all info about pion production and multiplicity
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Hadronic interactions

And the origin of Cosmic Rays

Hadrons ~ 99%
Leptons ~ 1%

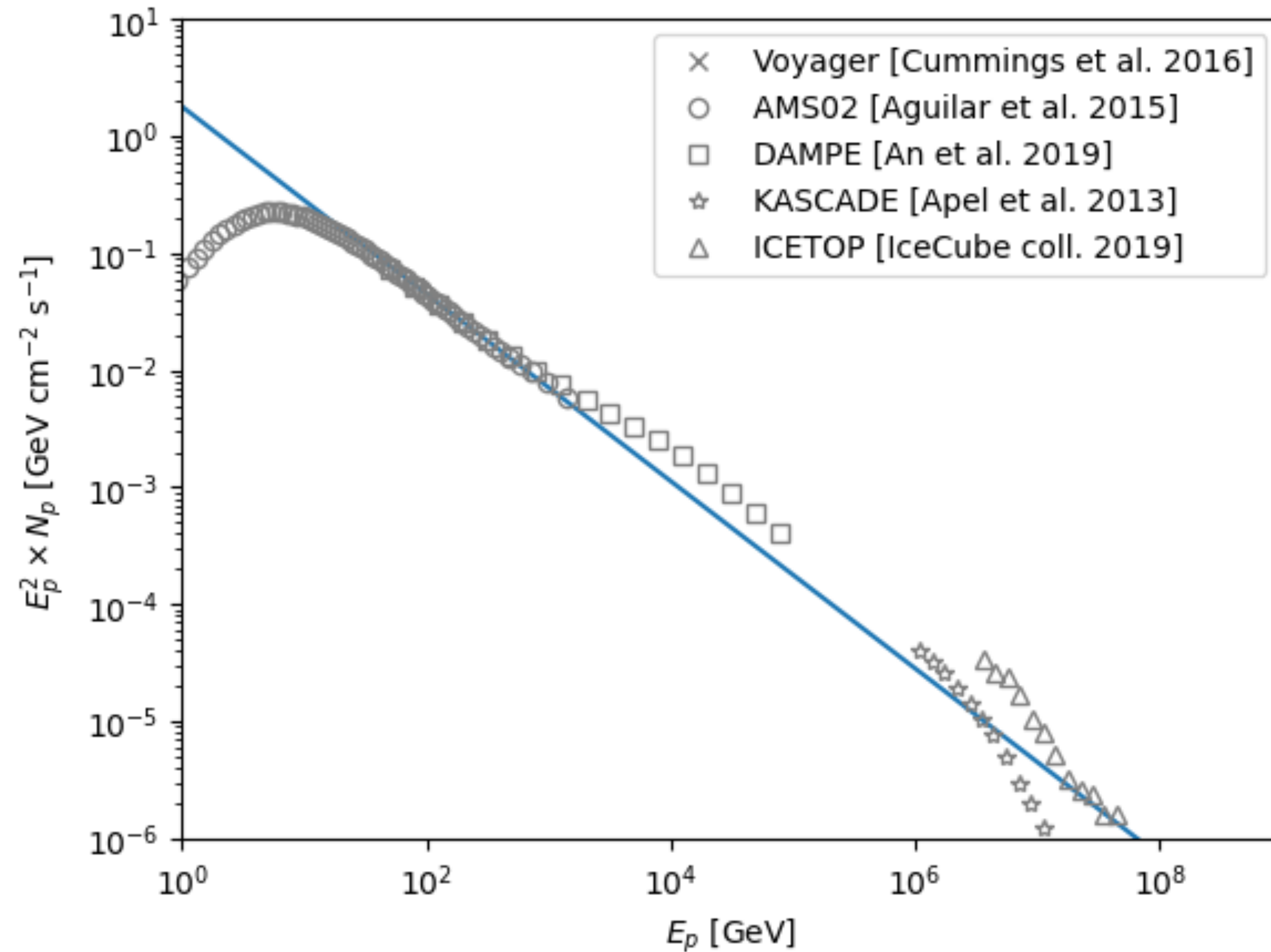


Protons dominate the CR composition: *understanding CRs is tightly linked to hadronic interactions*

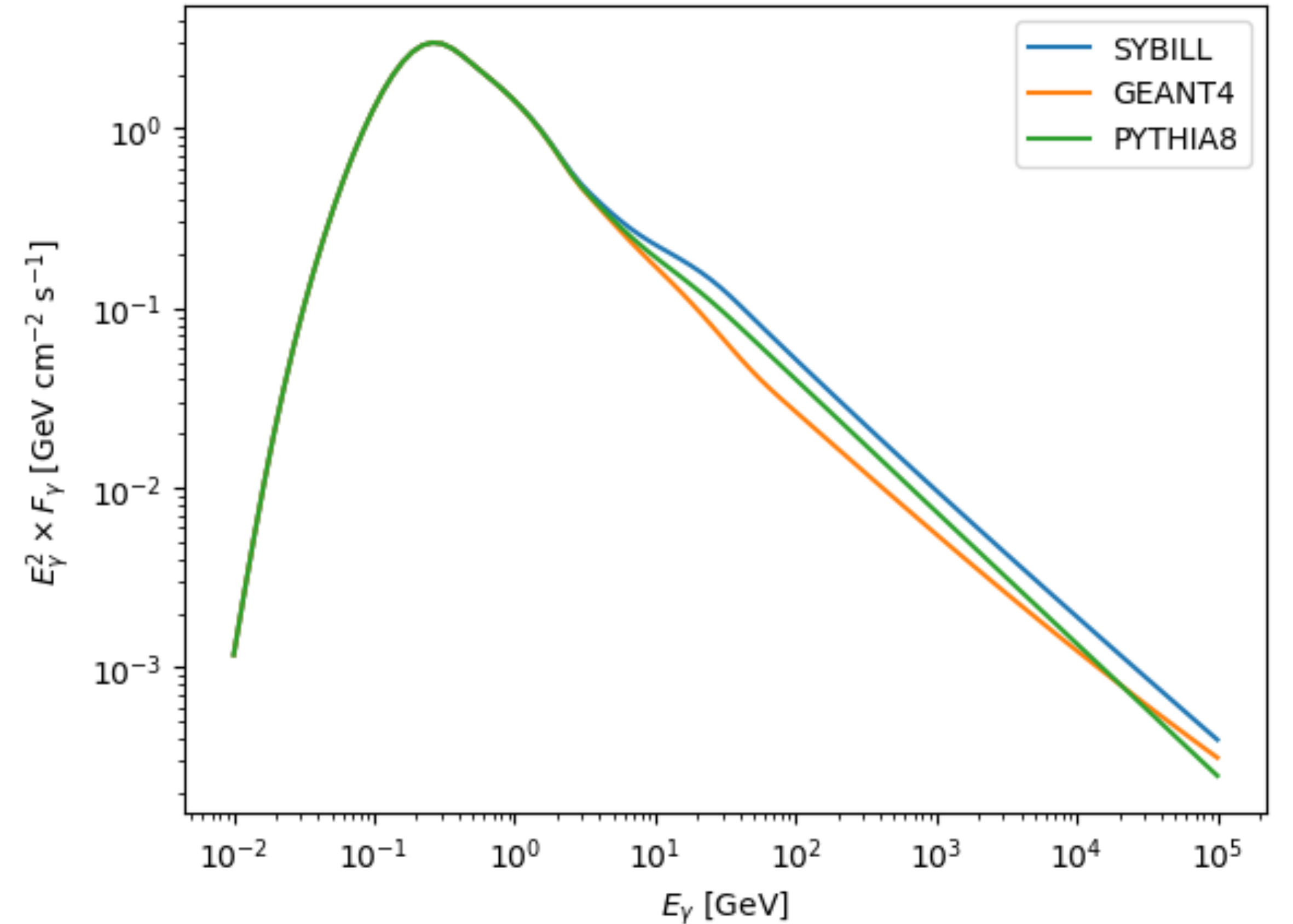
An example

The emissivity of the cosmic-ray sea

Protons

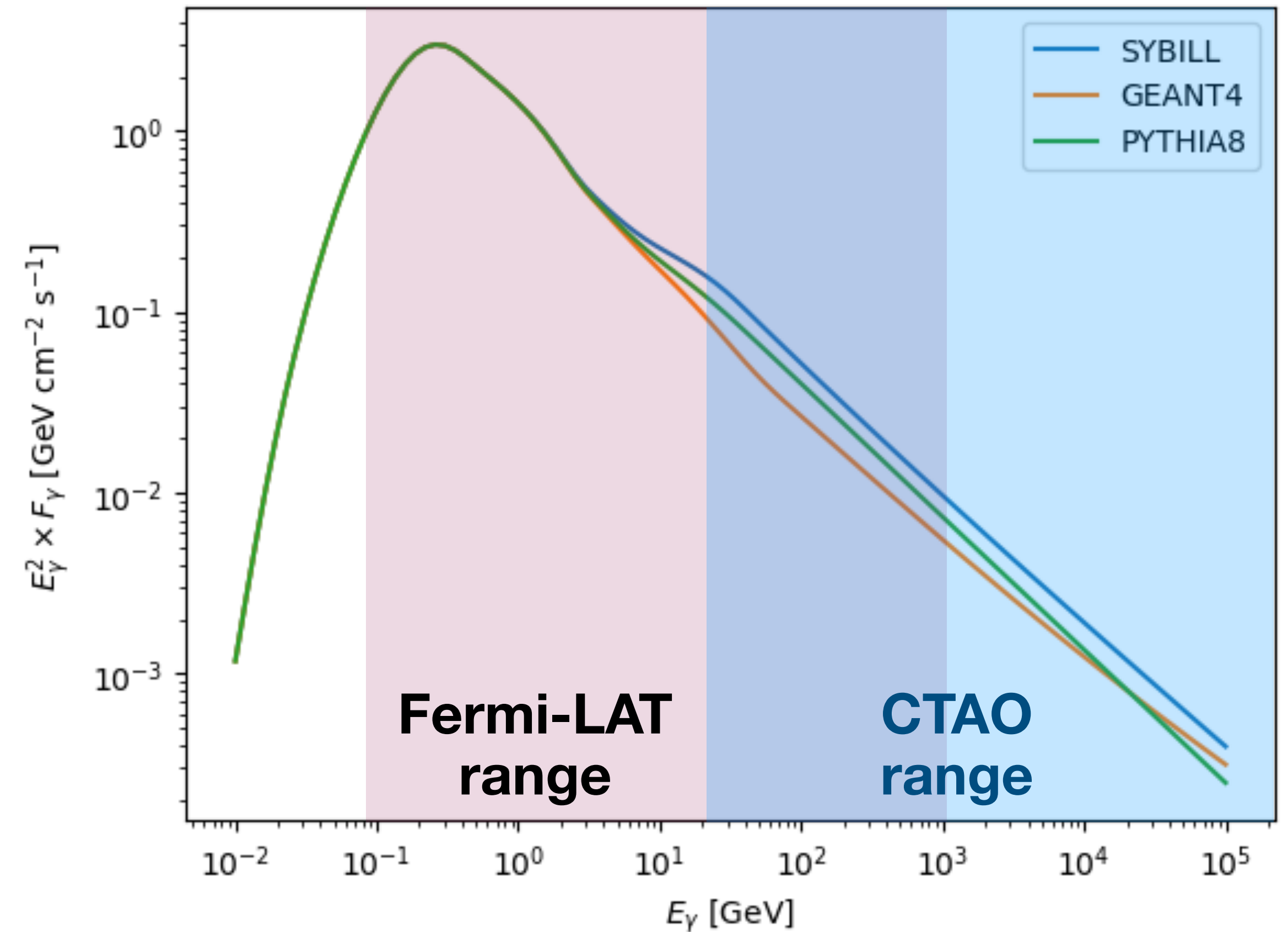
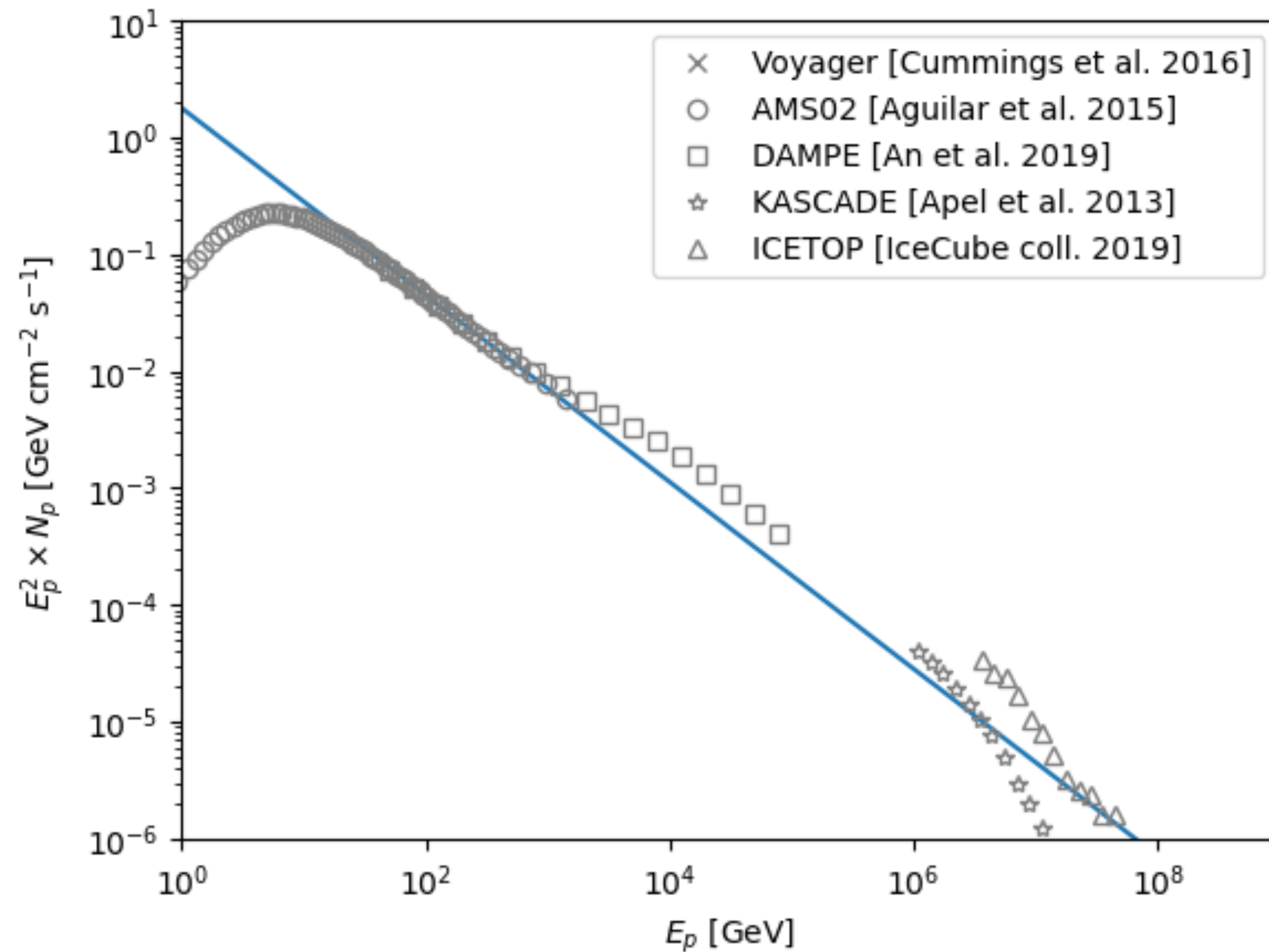


Gamma rays



An example

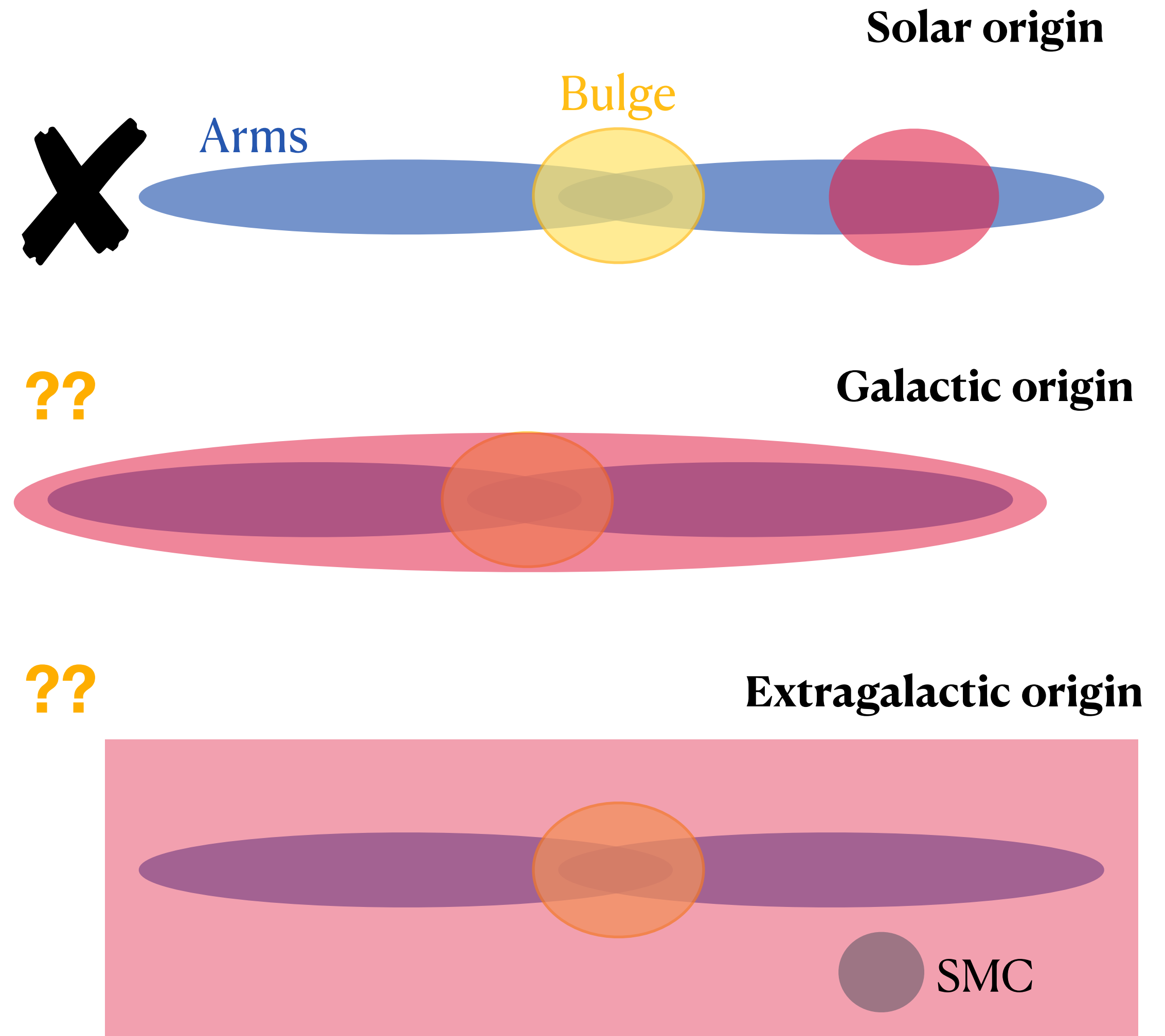
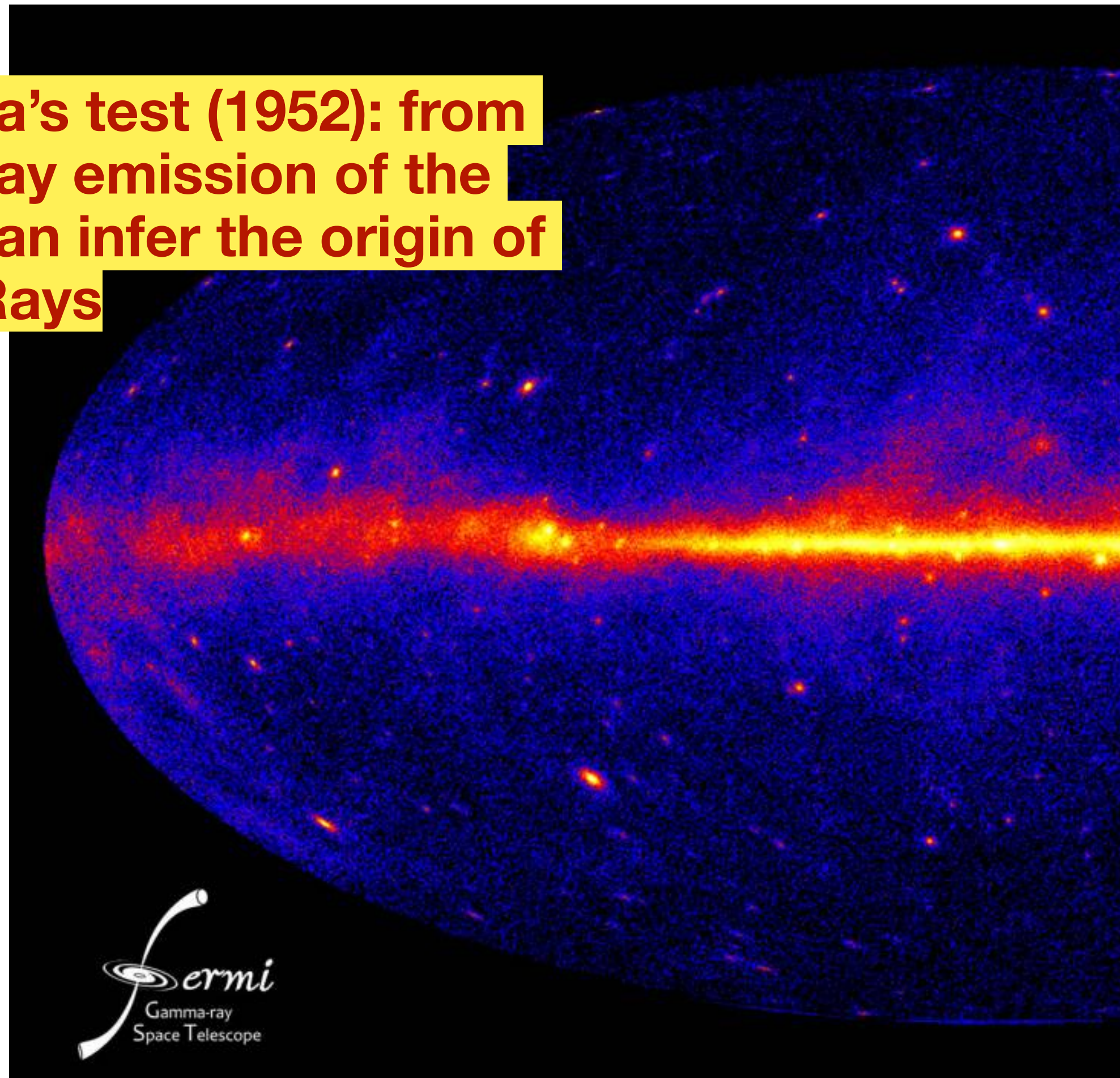
The emissivity of the cosmic-ray sea



Hadronic interactions

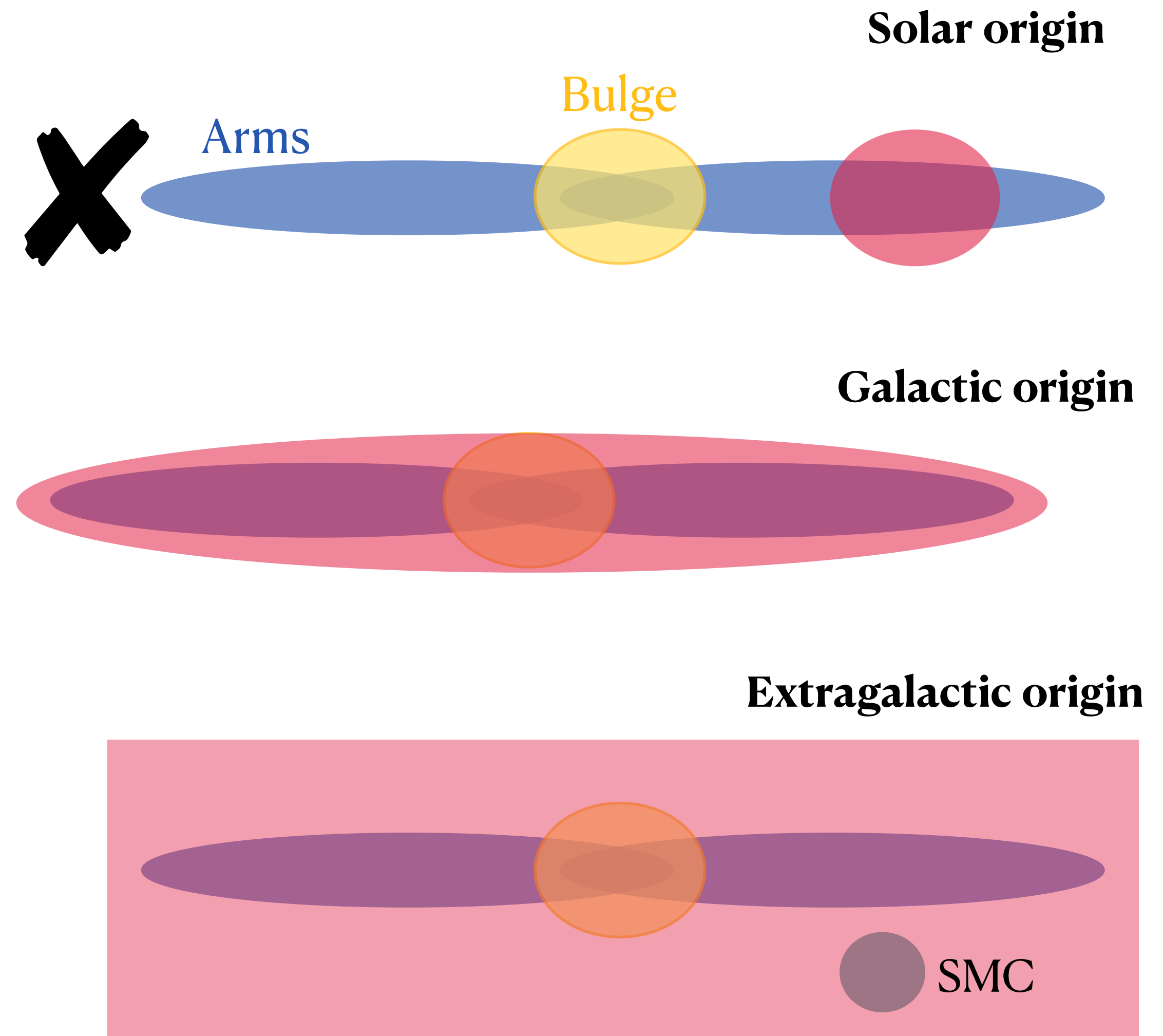
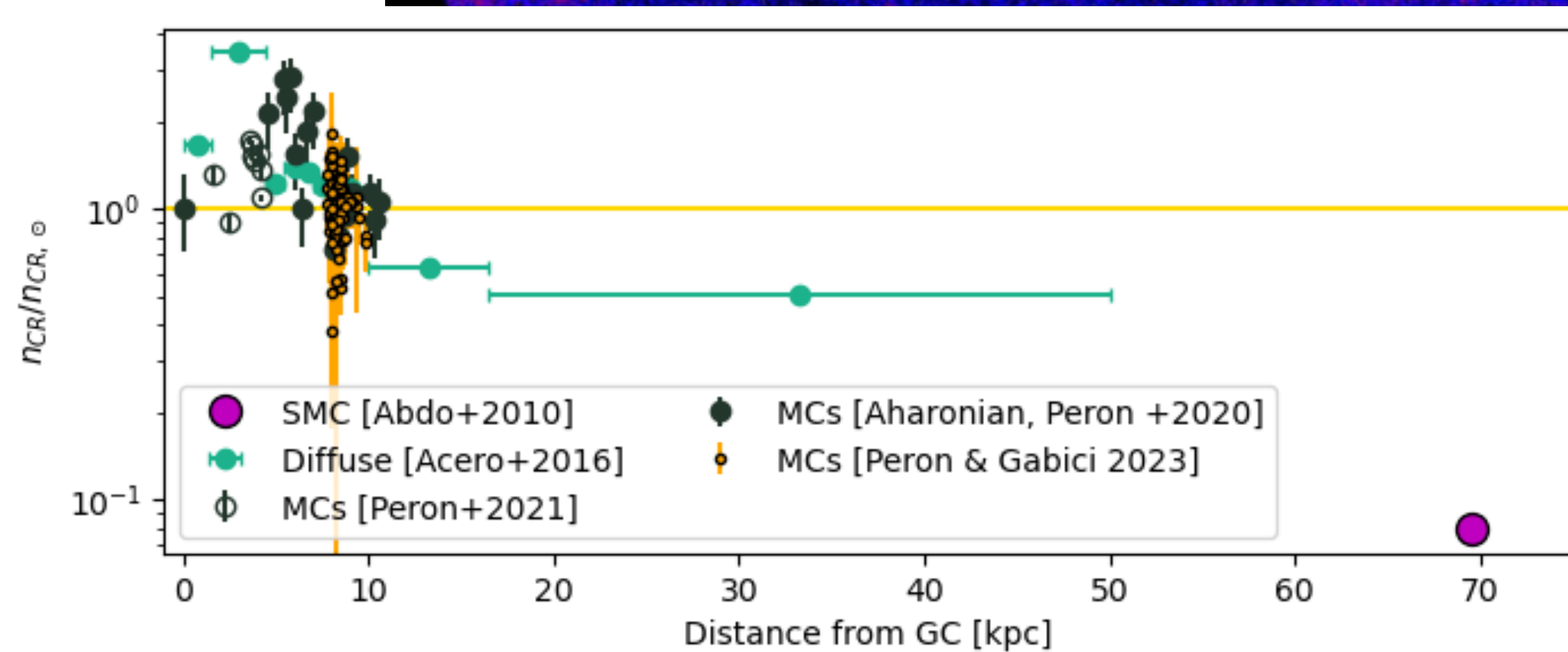
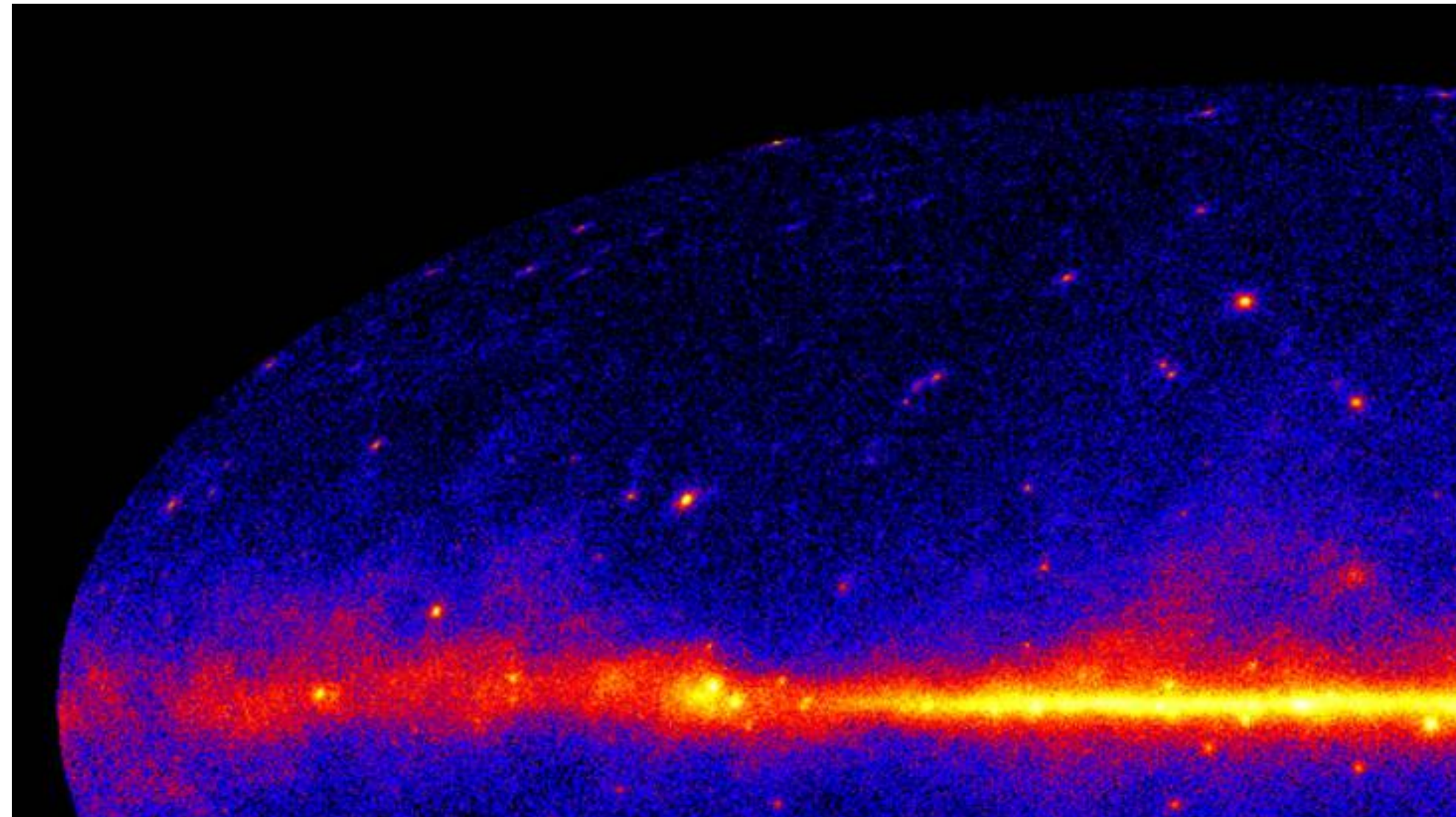
And the origin of Cosmic Rays

Hayakawa's test (1952): from gamma-ray emission of the ISM we can infer the origin of Cosmic Rays



Hadronic interactions

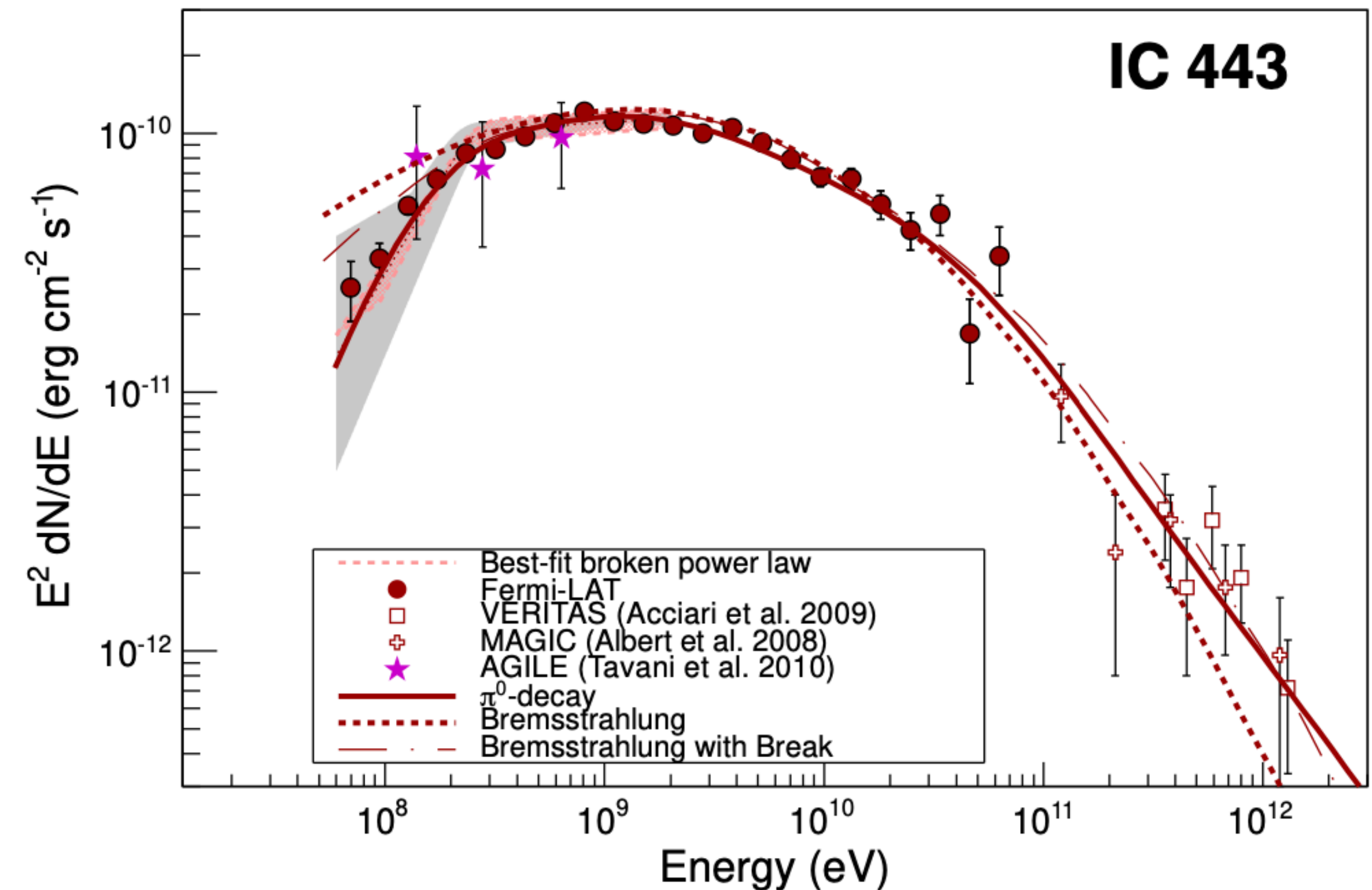
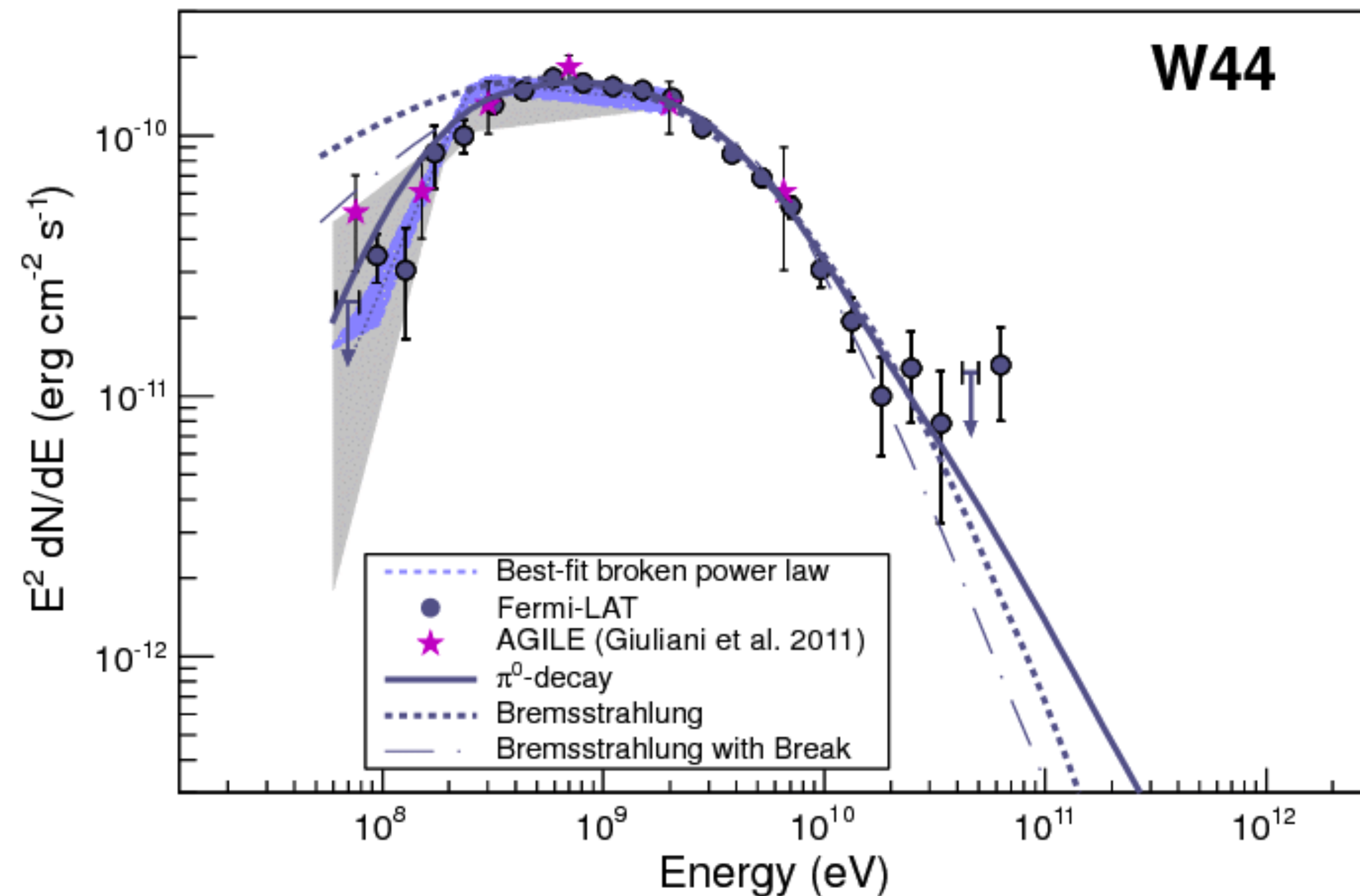
Hayakawa's test: from gamma-ray emission of the ISM we can infer the origin of Cosmic Rays (1952)



The pion bump in SNRs

Sources of cosmic rays in the Galaxy

Pion bump detected in SNRs supports the fact that SNRs are accelerating protons of CRs

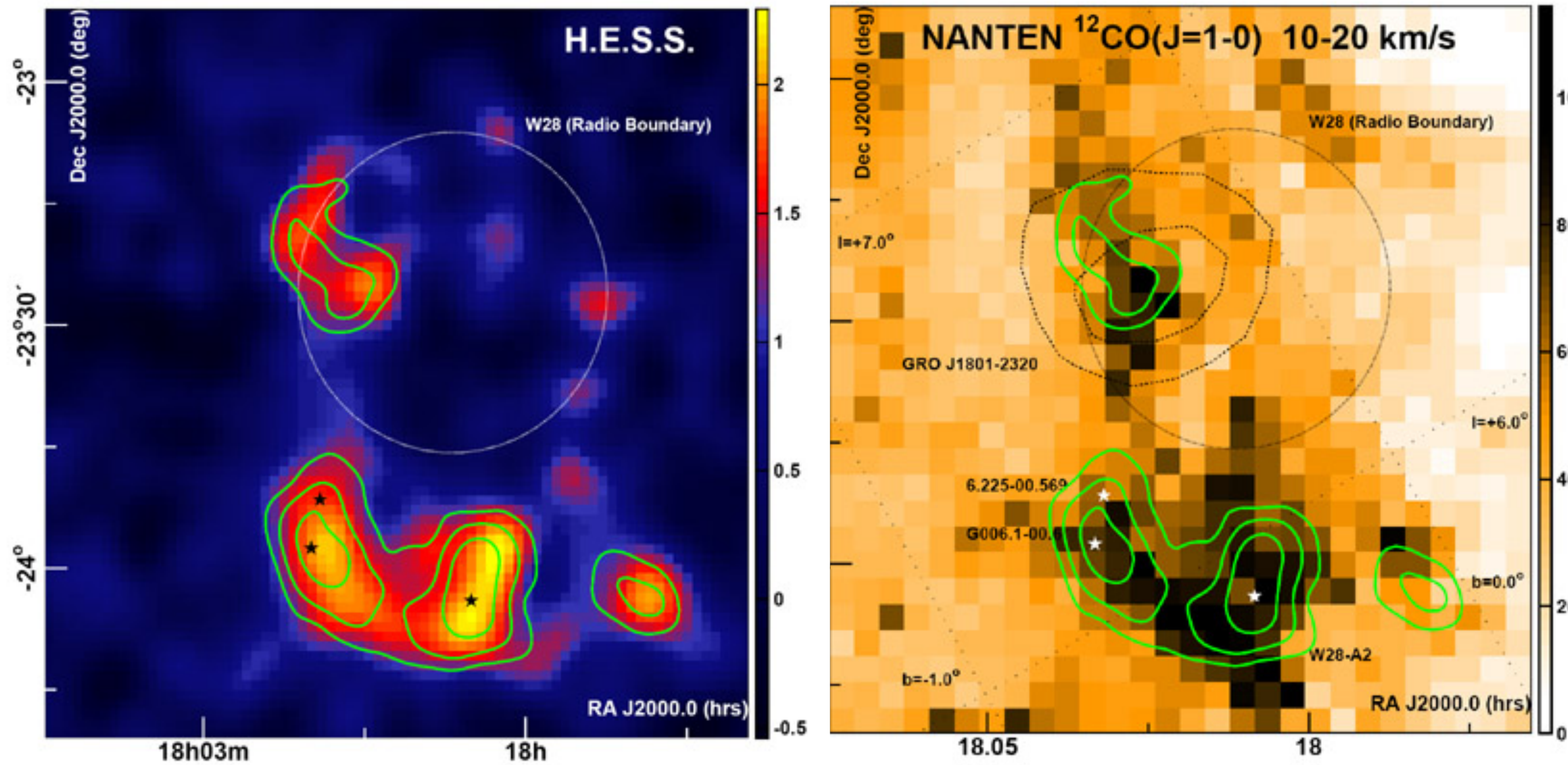


..not always visible, and need low energy observations: we need to search for other features (correlation with gas structure or **multi-wavelength data to constrain the leptonic counterpart** → **we will actively do it in the mini-project!**)

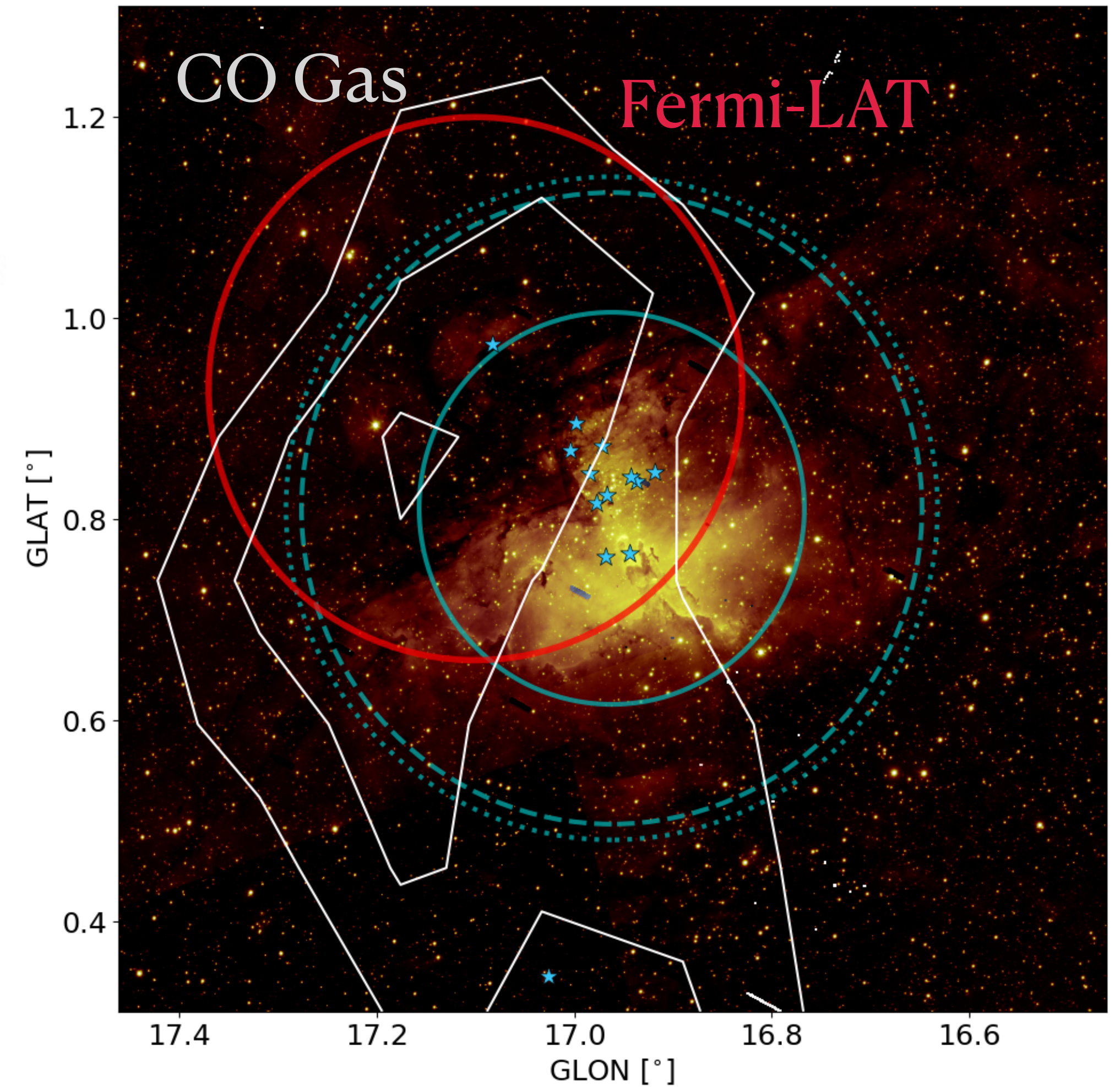
Hadronic emission

Gamma vs. gas

Middle age SNR W28

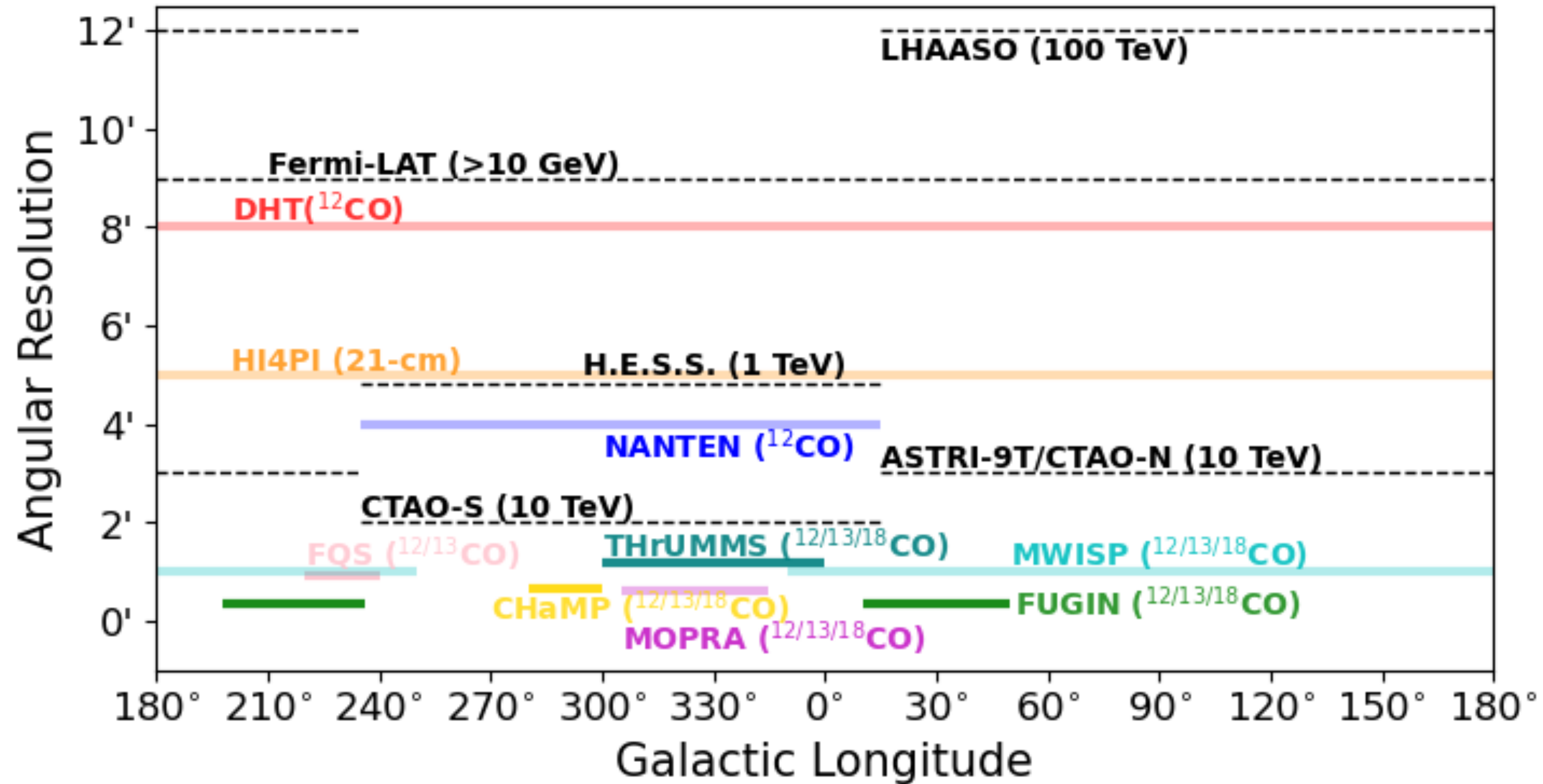


Young star cluster NGC661



Hadronic emission

Gamma vs. Gas



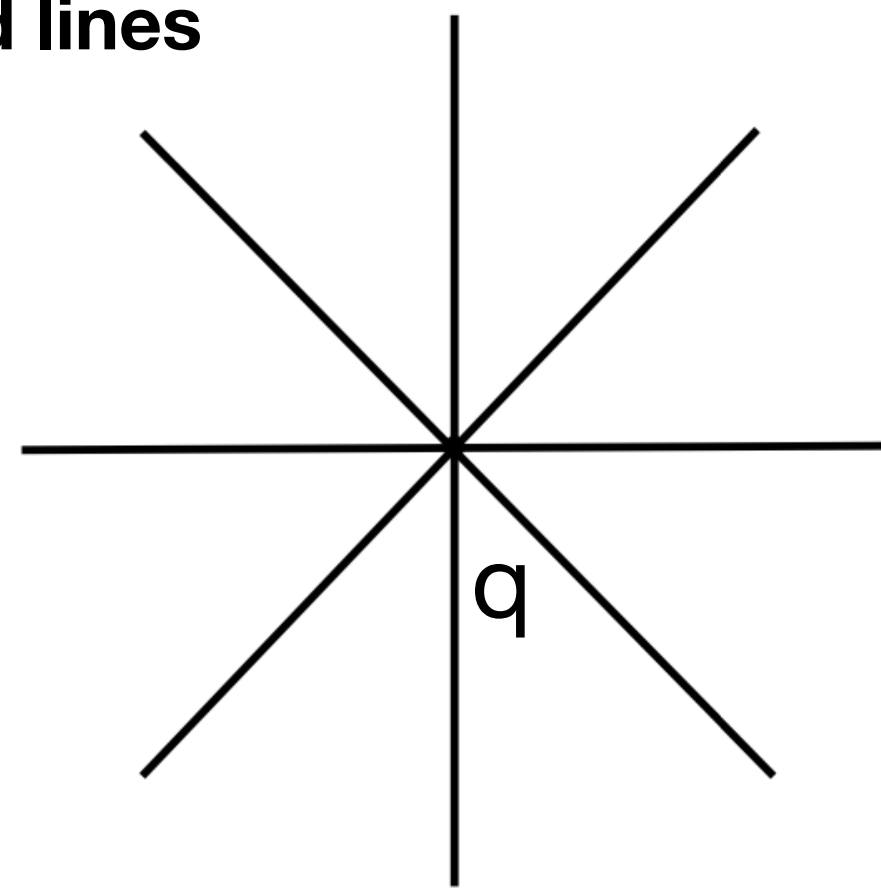
Leptonic Interactions

A large satellite dish antenna is the central focus, mounted on a complex metal lattice structure. The dish is covered in a blue, textured material, possibly a protective layer or a specific type of antenna material. The structure is situated in a field of dry, yellowish grass under a clear, light blue sky. The text 'Leptonic Interactions' is overlaid in a bold, blue, sans-serif font across the middle of the image.

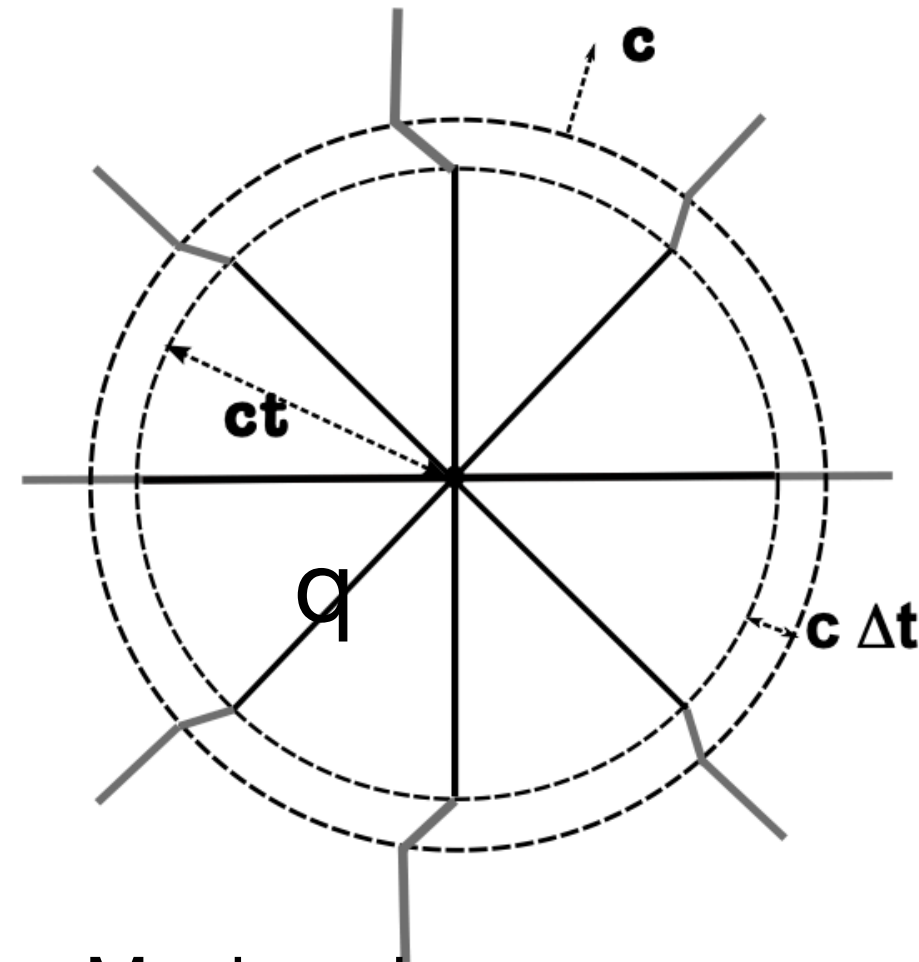
Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula: Heuristic, non-relativistic derivation

E-field lines



Still charge

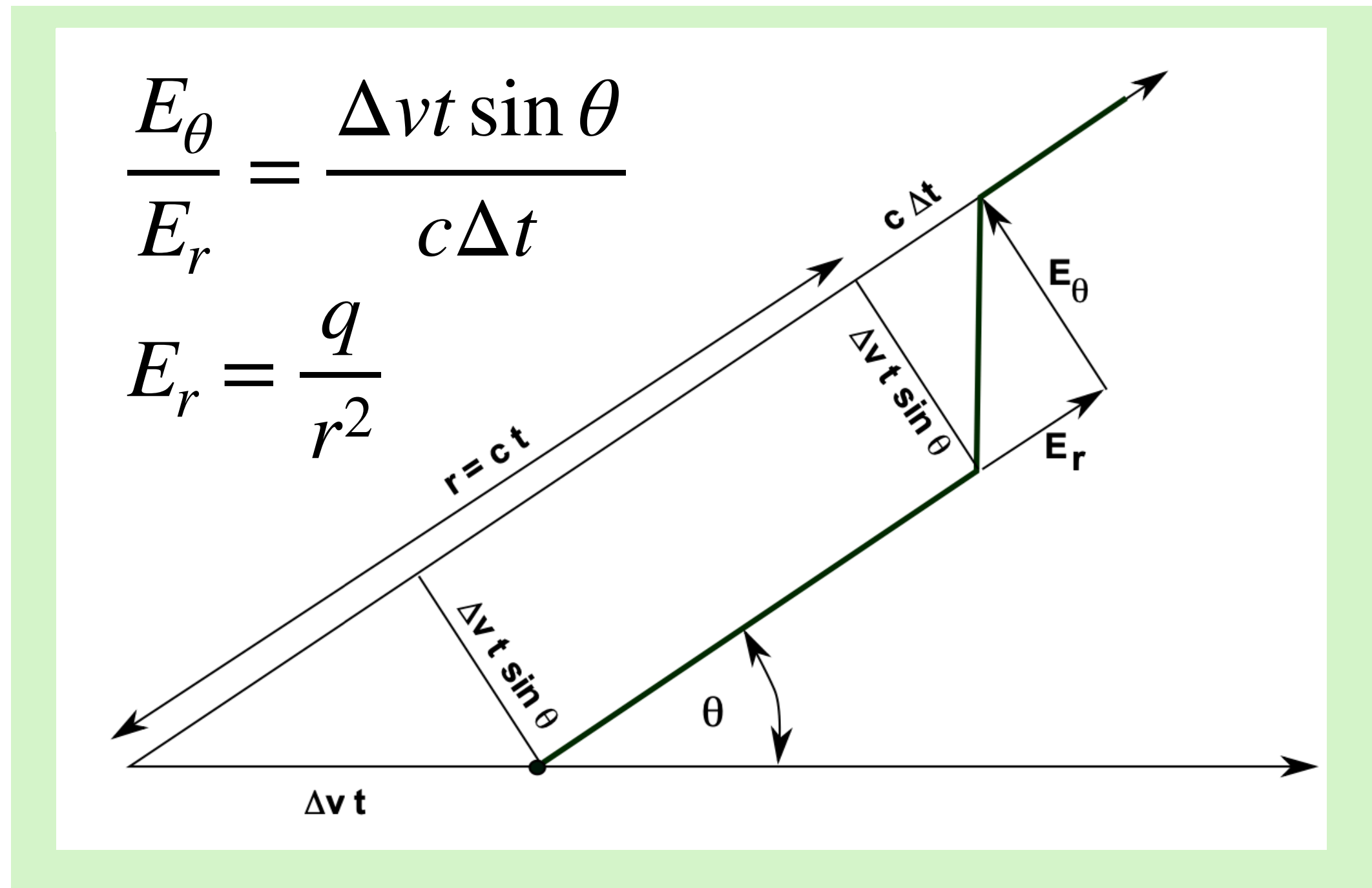
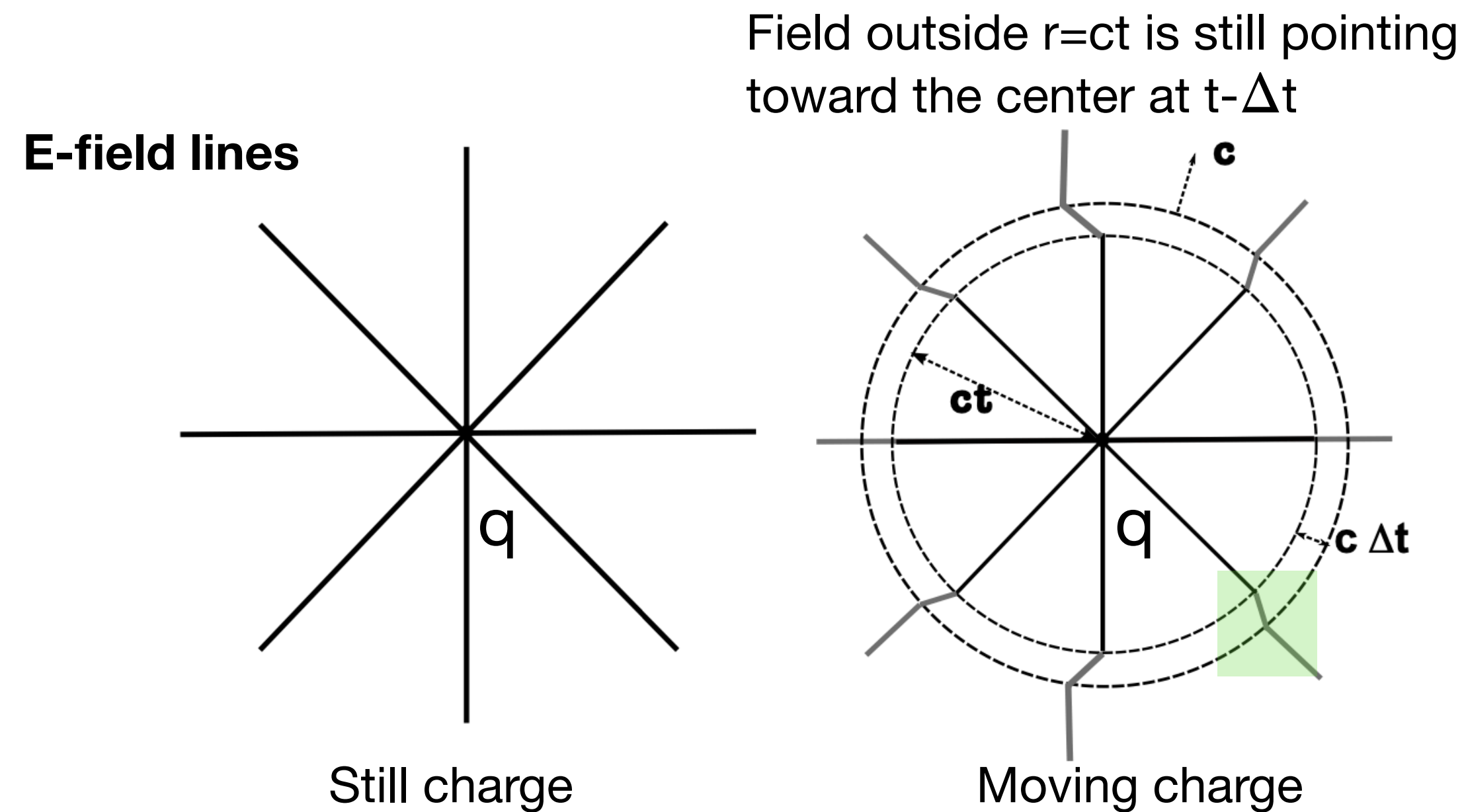


Moving charge

Field outside $r=ct$ is still pointing toward the center at $t-\Delta t$

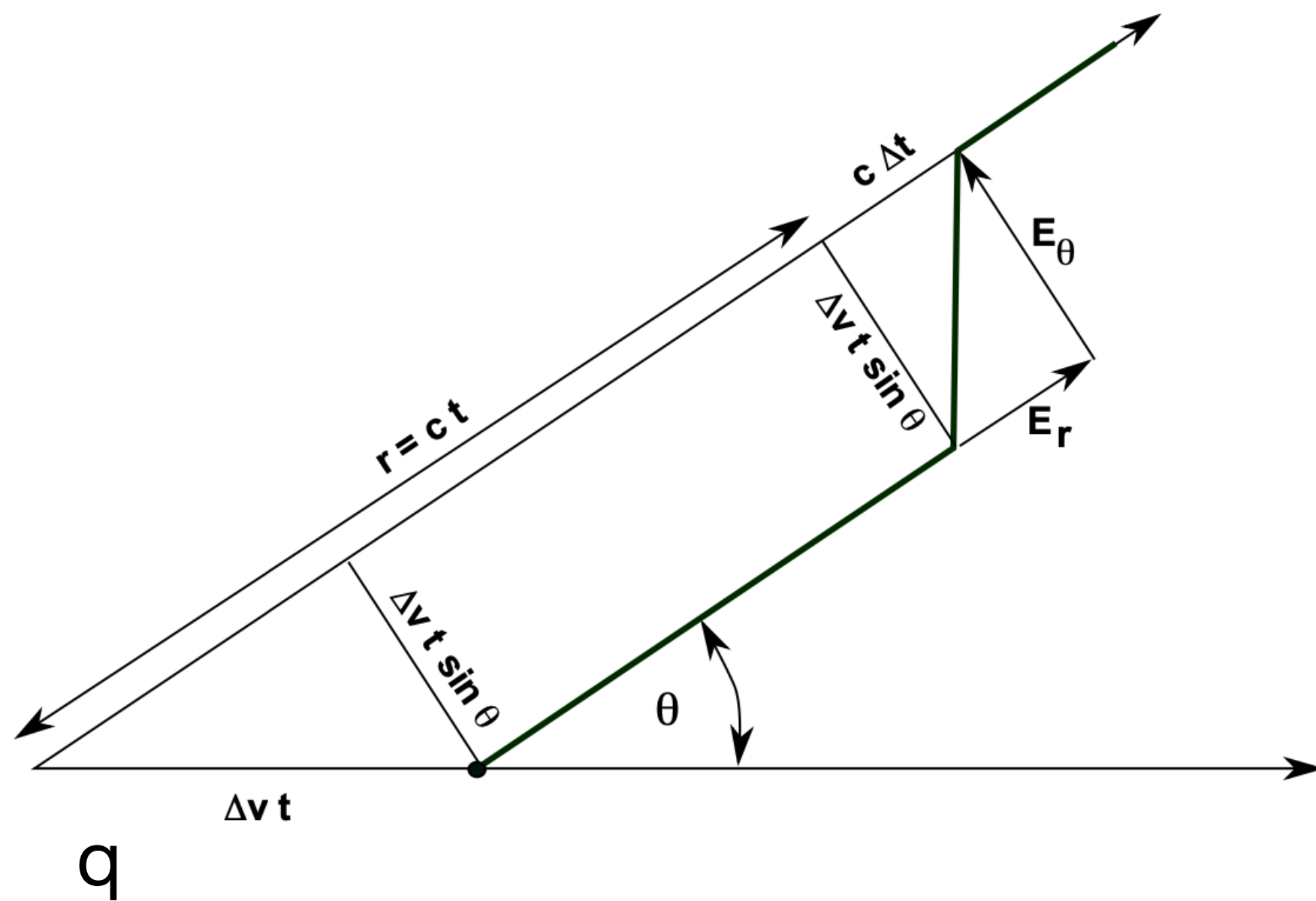
Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula: Heuristic, non-relativistic derivation



Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula: Heuristic, non-relativistic derivation



$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{E_\theta}{E_r} &= \frac{\Delta vt \sin \theta}{c \Delta t} \\ E_r &= \frac{q}{r^2} \text{ Gauss law [cgs]} \end{aligned} \right\} E_\theta = \frac{cq \Delta vt \sin \theta}{cr^2 c \Delta t} = \frac{q \overset{\text{Acceleration}}{\Delta v} \sin \theta}{r \Delta t c^2}$$

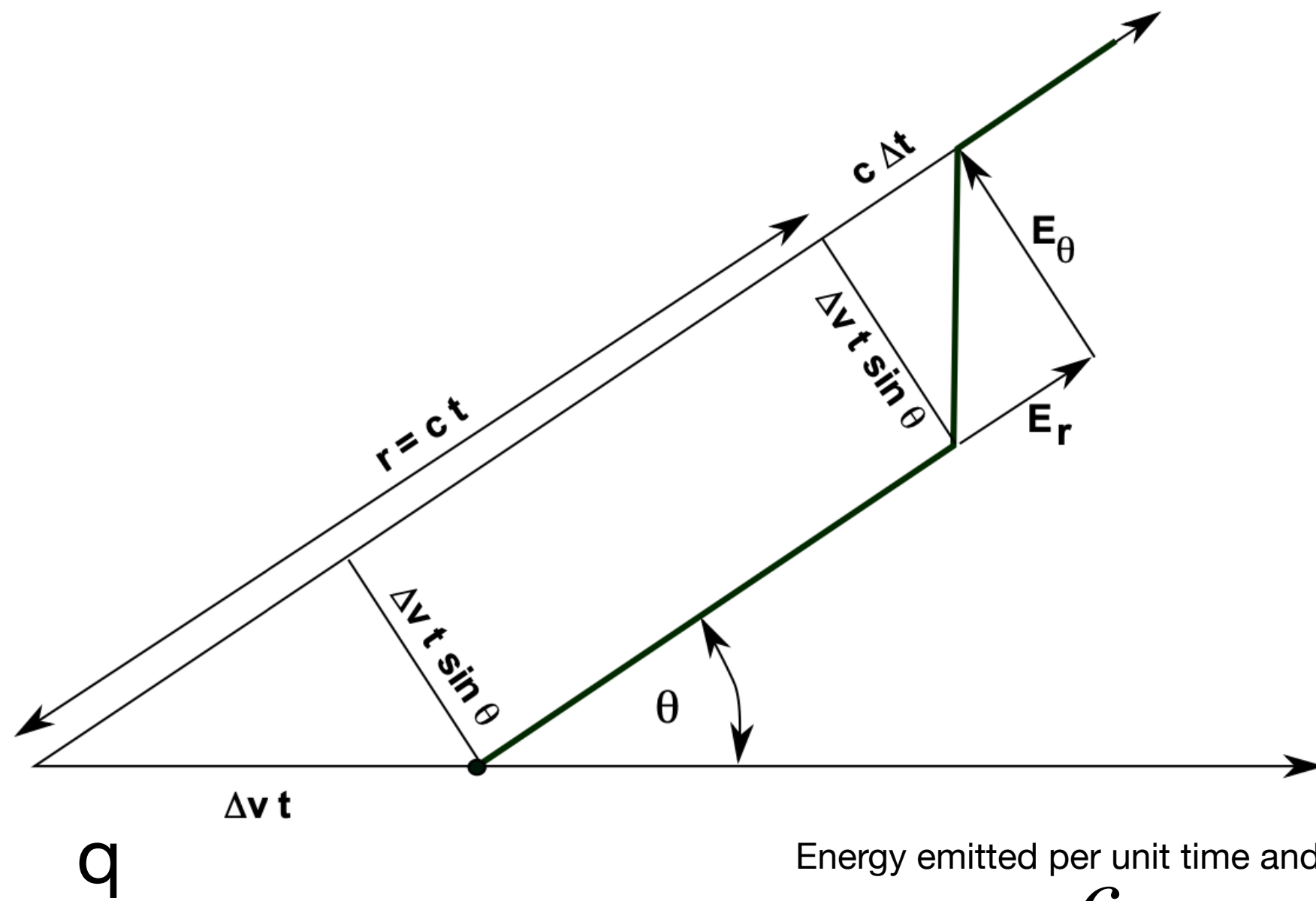
$$E_\theta = \frac{q}{rc^2} |\ddot{\vec{v}}| \sin \theta$$

$$E_\theta \propto \frac{1}{r}$$

There is a non-vanishing *tangential* component of the E field that allows the flow of energy → let's see the Poynting flux

Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula: Heuristic, non-relativistic derivation



$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{E_\theta}{E_r} &= \frac{\Delta v t \sin \theta}{c \Delta t} \\ E_r &= \frac{q}{r^2} \text{ Gauss law [cgs]} \end{aligned} \right\} E_\theta = \frac{c q \Delta v t \sin \theta}{c r^2 c \Delta t} = \frac{q \overset{\text{Acceleration}}{\Delta v} \sin \theta}{r \Delta t c^2}$$

$$E_\theta = \frac{q}{r c^2} |\ddot{\mathbf{v}}| \sin \theta$$

Let's compute the power :

$$\vec{n} = \frac{\vec{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|}$$

$$\vec{S} = \frac{c}{4\pi} (\vec{E}_\theta \times \vec{B}) = \frac{c}{4\pi} (E_\theta^2 \vec{n}) = \frac{dE}{dt dA} = \frac{dE}{dt r^2 d\Omega} = \frac{dE}{r^2 dt \sin \theta d\theta d\Phi}$$

Emitted power

$$P = -\frac{dE}{dt} = \int_0^{2\pi} d\Phi \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta |\vec{S}| r^2 = \frac{q^2}{4\pi c^3} |\ddot{\mathbf{v}}|^2 \int_0^{2\pi} d\Phi \int_0^\pi \sin^3 \theta d\theta = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |\ddot{\mathbf{v}}|^2$$

Independent of r !

Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula: why do we consider it for leptons only?

Emitted power depends on acceleration; subject to the same field, an electron will have a much larger acceleration

$$\left. \begin{aligned} P &= \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |\ddot{\vec{v}}|^2 \\ \dot{v} &= \frac{F}{m} \end{aligned} \right\} P \propto \frac{1}{m^2} \left. \begin{aligned} \frac{m_e}{m_p} &\sim \frac{1}{1836} \end{aligned} \right\} \frac{P_e}{P_p} \gtrsim 10^6$$

Radiation from a moving charge

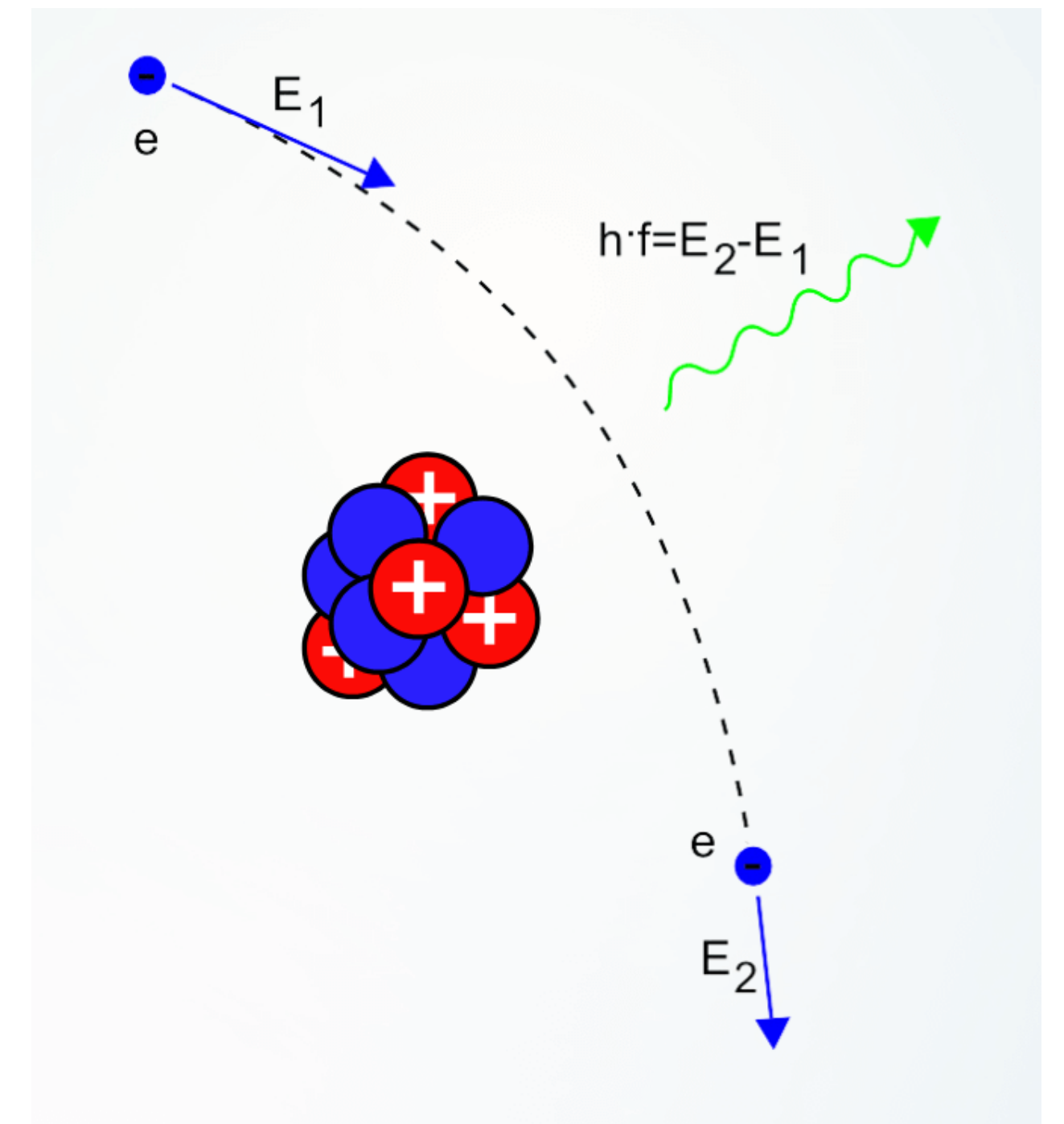
Larmor formula: when is it important?

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |\ddot{\vec{v}}|^2$$

Whenever we have an electron changing its velocity.

This can be due to:

- External Coulomb field (due e.g. nuclei) \implies **bremsstrahlung** (= braking radiation)
- External magnetic field \implies **synchrotron** (magnetic braking / magneto-bremsstrahlung)



Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula – relativistic generalization

To use the Larmor formula, we need to generalize it to the relativistic case

Consider two reference systems K' : Moving frame with velocity $v \parallel \vec{u}_x$
 K : rest frame Lorentz transformations

Lorentz transformations among reference systems:

$$\begin{aligned}x &= \Gamma(x' + vt') \\ ct &= \Gamma(ct' + \frac{v}{c}x') \\ y &= y' \\ z &= z'\end{aligned}$$

Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula – relativistic generalization

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Consider two reference systems K' : Moving frame with velocity $v \parallel \vec{u}_x$
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Lorentz transformations among reference systems:

$$x = \Gamma(x' + vt')$$
$$ct = \Gamma(ct' + \frac{v}{c}x')$$

We differentiate

$$dx = \Gamma(dx' + vdt')$$

$$dt = \Gamma dt' \left(1 + \frac{v}{c^2} \frac{dx'}{dt'} \right) = \left(1 + \frac{v}{c^2} u'_x \right)$$

$$y = y'$$

$$z = z'$$

Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula – relativistic generalization

K' : Moving frame with velocity $v \parallel \vec{u}_x$

K : rest frame

Lorentz transformations

$$x = \Gamma(x' + vt')$$

$$ct = \Gamma(ct' + \frac{v}{c}x')$$

$$dt = \Gamma dt' \left(1 + \frac{v}{c^2} \frac{dx'}{dt'} \right)$$

Velocities

$$u_x = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\Gamma(dx' + vdt')}{\Gamma(dt' + \frac{v}{c^2}dx')} = \frac{u'_x + v}{1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_x}$$

$$u_y = \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy'}{\Gamma(dt' + \frac{v}{c^2}dx')} = \frac{u'_y}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_x)}$$

$$u_z = \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{dz'}{\Gamma(dt' + \frac{v}{c^2}dx')} = \frac{u'_z}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_x)}$$

$$u_{\parallel} = \frac{u'_{\parallel} + v}{1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel}}$$

$$u_{\perp} = \frac{u'_{\perp}}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel})}$$

Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula – relativistic generalization

Compute the differential

$$u_{\parallel} = \frac{u'_{\parallel} + v}{1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel}} \quad \rightarrow \quad du_{\parallel} = \frac{du'_{\parallel}(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel}) - (u'_{\parallel} + v)(\frac{v}{c^2}du'_{\parallel})}{(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel})^2}$$

$$dt = \Gamma dt' \left(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel} \right)$$

Accelerations

$$a_{\parallel} = \frac{du_{\parallel}}{dt} = \frac{du'_{\parallel}(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel}) - (u'_{\parallel} + v)(\frac{v}{c^2}du'_{\parallel})}{(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel})^2} \frac{1}{\Gamma dt' \left(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel} \right)} = \frac{\frac{a'_{\parallel}}{dt'} \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} \right)}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel})^2} \rightarrow a'_{\parallel} = \Gamma^3 a_{\parallel}$$

Similarly one can derive: $a'_{\perp} = \Gamma^2 a_{\perp}$

Radiation from a moving charge

Larmor formula – relativistic generalization

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |\ddot{\vec{v}}|^2 \quad \longrightarrow \quad P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} (\Gamma^2 a_{\perp} + \Gamma^3 a_{\parallel})^2 = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} \Gamma^4 (a_{\perp}^2 + \Gamma^2 a_{\parallel}^2)$$
$$a'_{\parallel} = \Gamma^3 a_{\parallel} \quad a_{\parallel} \cdot a_{\perp} = 0$$
$$a'_{\perp} = \Gamma^2 a_{\perp}$$

K' : Moving frame with velocity $v \parallel \vec{u}_x$

K : lab frame

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} \Gamma^4 (a_{\perp}^2 + \Gamma^2 a_{\parallel}^2)$$

Synchrotron: electric charges gyrating due to a magnetic field change their trajectory and therefore radiate \rightarrow we have to compute the acceleration linked to this motion

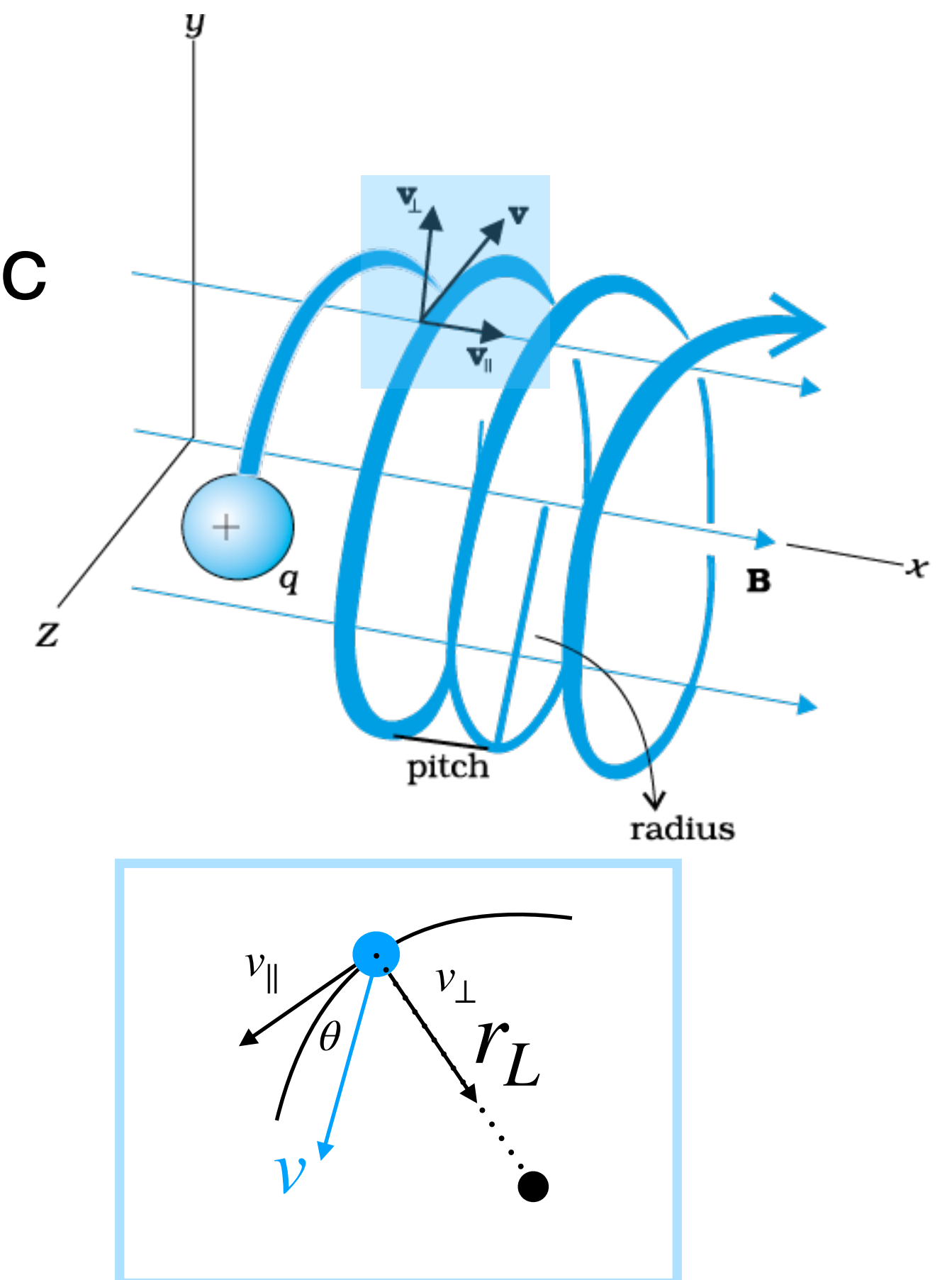
v_{\parallel} is the component parallel to the magnetic field

θ is the angle between B and v

Particles in a B field gyrate with Larmor frequency $\Omega_L = \frac{qB}{\Gamma mc}$

Which is associated to the Larmor radius

$$r_L = \frac{v_{\perp}}{\Omega_L}$$



Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

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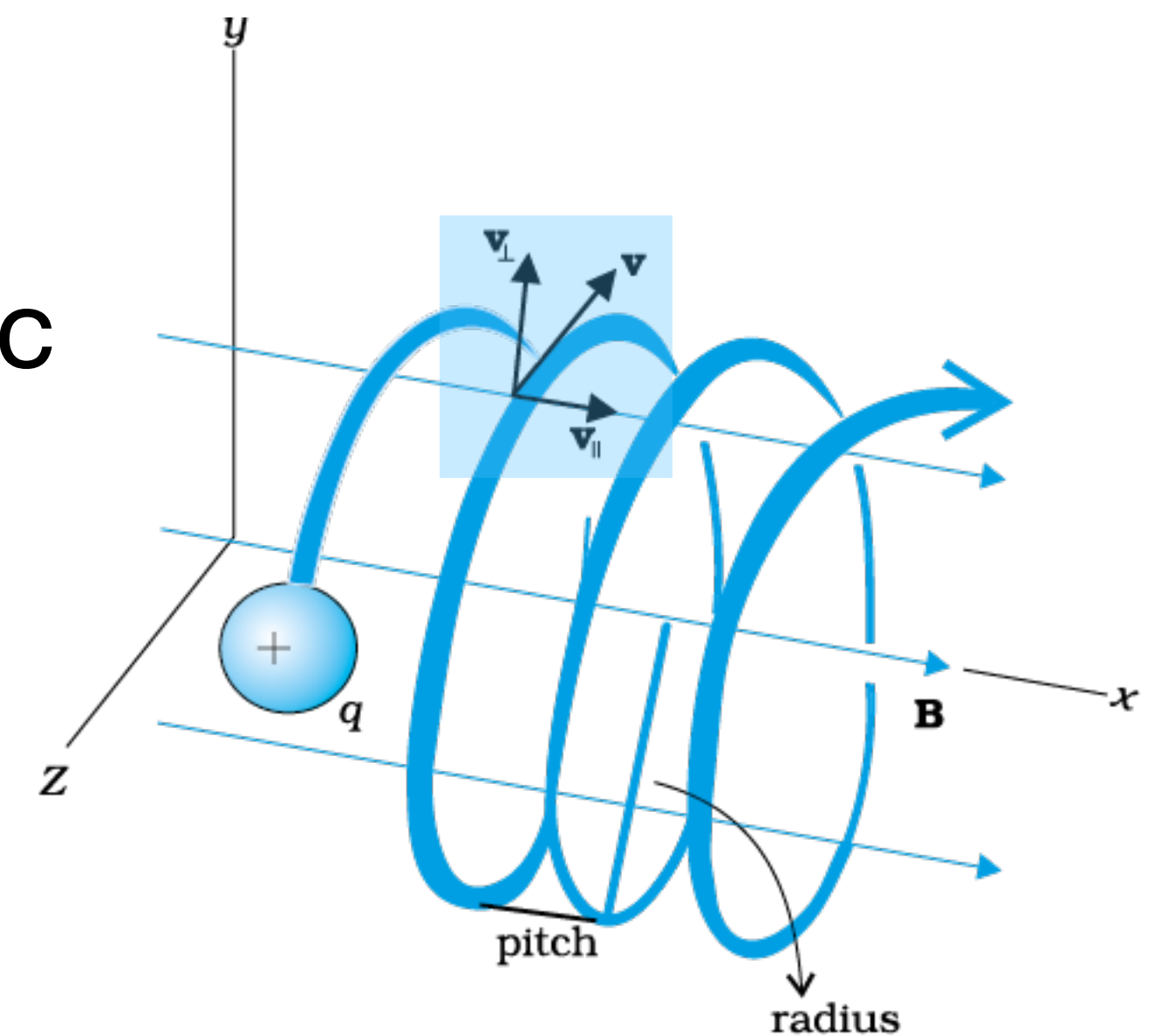
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Which is associated to the Larmor radius

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Acceleration turns out:

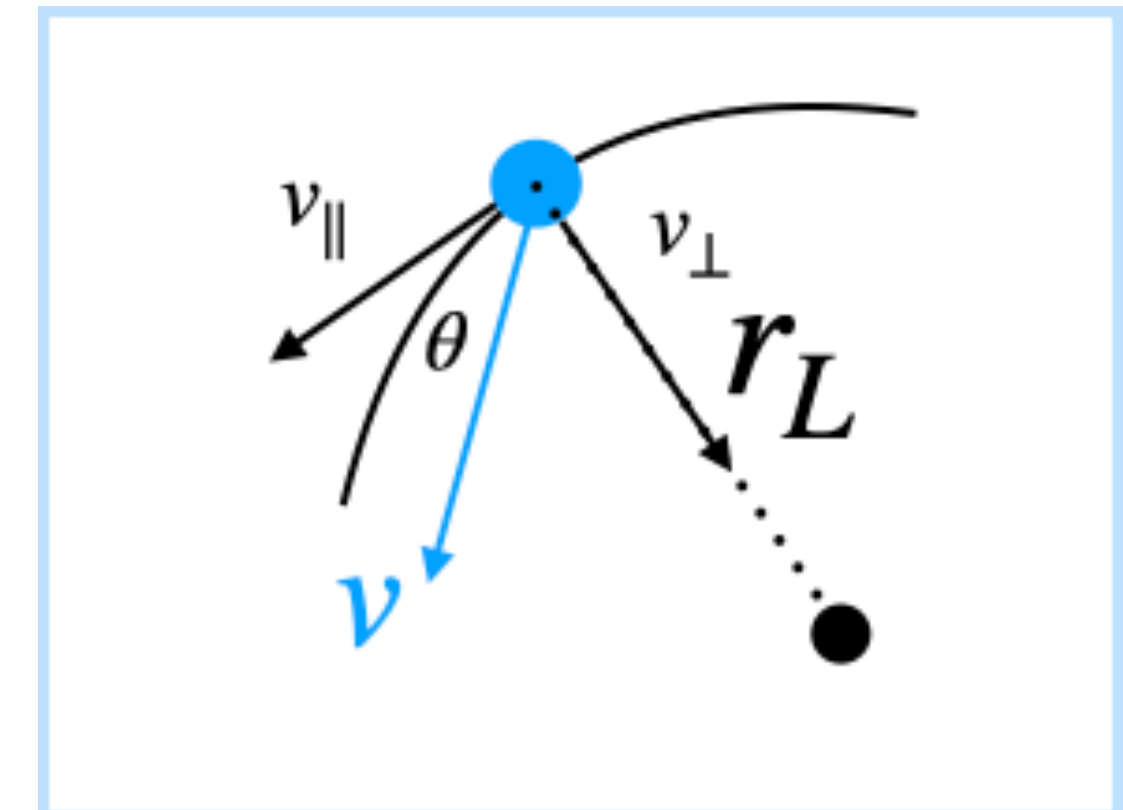
$$a_{\perp} = \frac{v_{\perp}^2}{r_L} = \Omega_L v_{\perp}$$
$$a_{\parallel} = 0$$

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} \Gamma^4 (a_{\perp}^2 + \Gamma^2 a_{\parallel}^2) \quad (A)$$

Synchrotron: electric charges gyrating due to a magnetic field change their trajectory and therefore radiate as a consequence of acceleration in the perpendicular direction



$$\Omega_L = \frac{qB}{\Gamma mc}$$

$$r_L = \frac{v_{\perp}}{\Omega_L} = \frac{m\Gamma v c}{qB} \quad (A) \longrightarrow P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2 \Gamma^4 v_{\perp}^2 e^2 B^2}{c^3 \Gamma^2 m^2 c^2} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\beta^2 e^4 B^2}{m^2 c^3} \Gamma^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$a_{\perp} = \frac{v_{\perp}^2}{r_L} = \Omega_L v_{\perp}$$

$$a_{\parallel} = 0$$

$$v_{\perp} = v \sin \theta$$

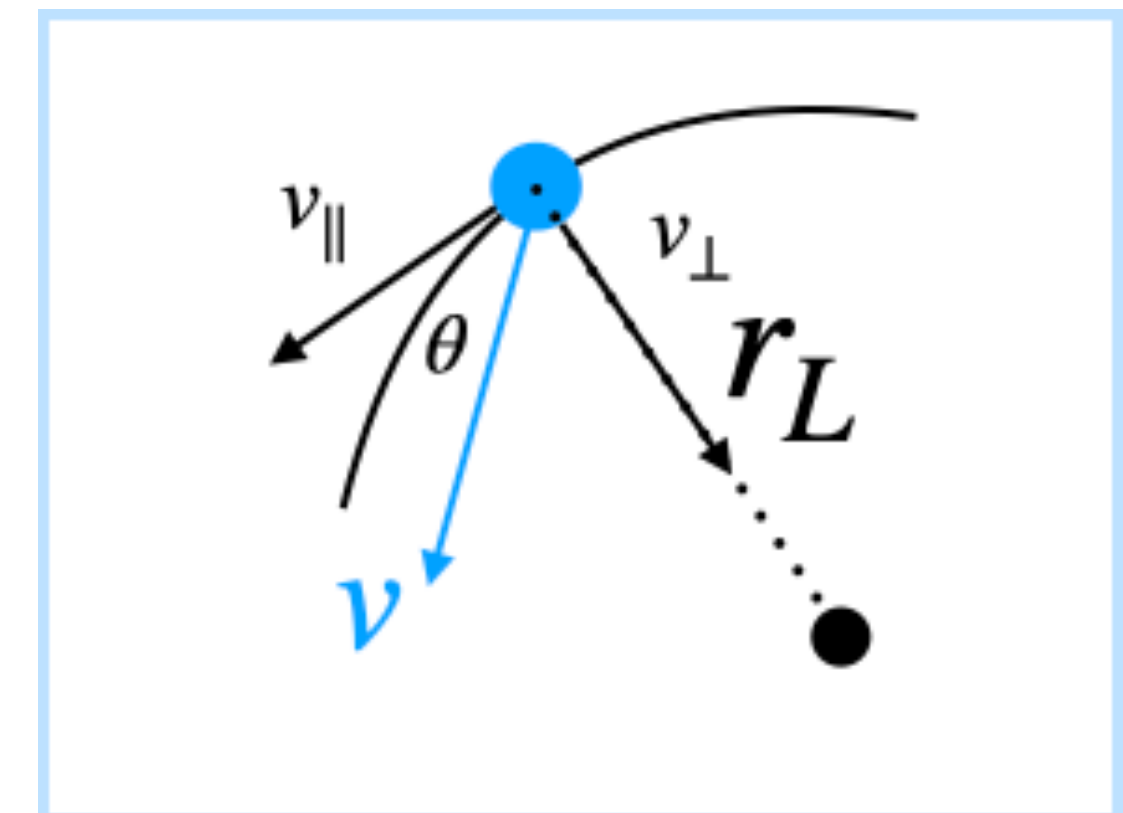
$$\frac{v}{c} = \beta$$

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} \Gamma^4 (a_{\perp}^2 + \Gamma^2 a_{\parallel}^2) \quad (A)$$

Synchrotron: electric charges gyrating due to a magnetic field change their trajectory and therefore radiate as a consequence of acceleration in the perpendicular direction



$$\Omega_L = \frac{qB}{\Gamma mc}$$

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$$(A) \rightarrow P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2 \Gamma^4 v_{\perp}^2 e^2 B^2}{c^3 \Gamma^2 m^2 c^2} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\beta^2 e^4 B^2}{m^2 c^3} \Gamma^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$v_{\perp} = v \sin \theta$$

$$\frac{v}{c} = \beta$$

Depends on the relative direction of velocity and B

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

$$P_{sync} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\beta^2 e^4 B^2}{m^2 c^3} \Gamma^2 \sin^2 \theta$$
$$\langle \sin^2 \theta \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^\pi \sin^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{2}{3}$$

Average over the angles

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

$$P_{sync} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\beta^2 e^4 B^2}{m^2 c^3} \Gamma^2 \sin^2 \theta$$
$$\langle \sin^2 \theta \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^\pi \sin^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\langle P_{sync} \rangle = \frac{4}{9} \frac{\beta^2 e^4 B^2}{m^2 c^3} \Gamma^2 = \frac{4}{3} c \frac{8\pi}{3} \left(\frac{e^2}{m_e c^2} \right)^2 \left(\frac{m_e}{m} \right)^2 \frac{B^2}{8\pi}$$

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

$$P_{sync} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\beta^2 e^4 B^2}{m^2 c^3} \Gamma^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

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Thomson
cross-section

Magnetic
energy
density

Proton
synchrotron is
negligible
compared to
electron
synchrotron

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

$$P_{sync} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\beta^2 e^4 B^2}{m^2 c^3} \Gamma^2 \sin^2 \theta$$
$$\langle \sin^2 \theta \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi d\theta \int_0^\pi \sin^2 \theta \sin \theta = \frac{2}{3}$$

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Thomson cross-section **Magnetic energy density**

$$\langle P_{sync} \rangle \propto \Gamma^2 u_B \propto \Gamma^2 B^2$$

Synchrotron emission

Synchrotron cooling

$$\langle P_{sync} \rangle = \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T \left(\frac{m_e}{m} \right)^2 \Gamma^2 u_B$$

$$t_{cool}(\Gamma) = \frac{E}{|dE/dt|}$$

Synchrotron emission

Synchrotron cooling

$$\langle P_{sync} \rangle = \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T \left(\frac{m_e}{m} \right)^2 \Gamma^2 u_B$$

$$t_{cool}(\Gamma) = \frac{E}{|dE/dt|} = \frac{\Gamma m_e c^2}{\langle P_{sync} \rangle} \propto \Gamma^{-1} = 7.8 \times 10^8 \frac{1}{B^2 \Gamma} \text{ s}$$

Synchrotron emission

Relativistic Beaming

K' : Moving frame with velocity $v \parallel \vec{u}_{\parallel}$ (emitter)

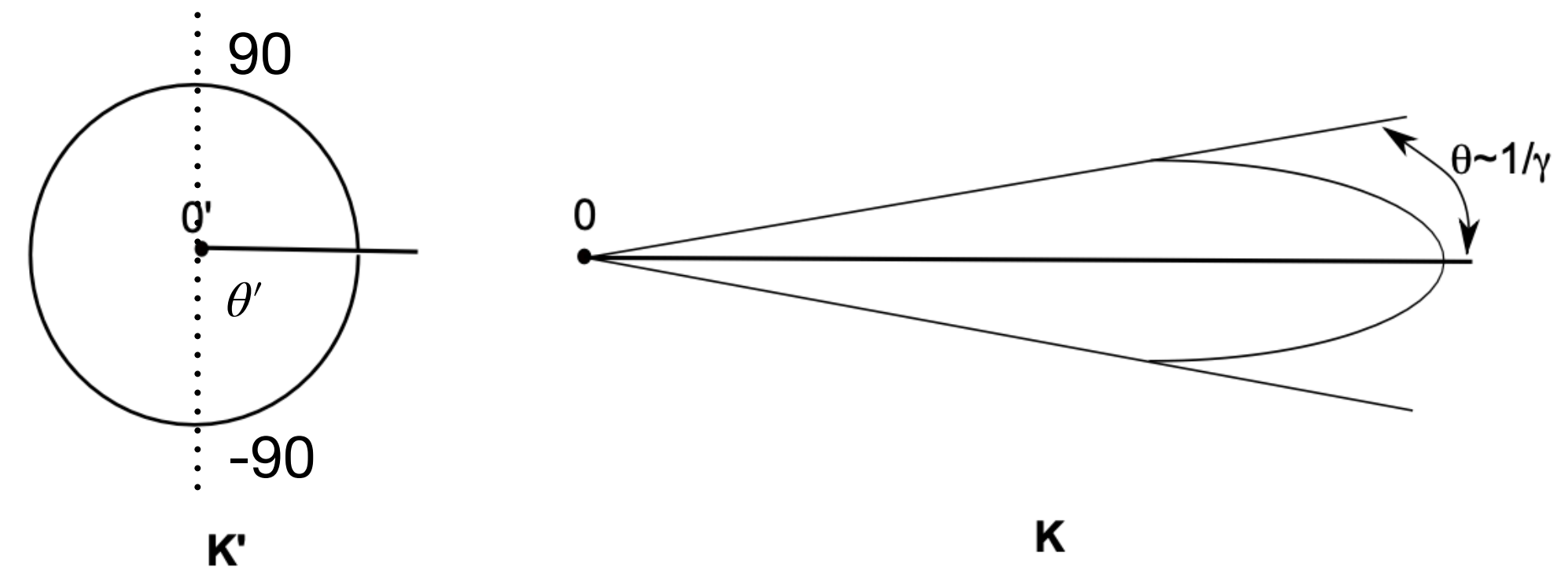
K : rest frame (observer)

$$\tan \theta = \frac{u_{\perp}}{u_{\parallel}} = \frac{u'_{\perp}}{\Gamma(u'_{\parallel} + v)} = \frac{u' \sin \theta'}{\Gamma(u' \cos \theta' + v)}$$

For light: $u' = c$

$$= \frac{\sin \theta'}{\Gamma(\cos \theta' + \frac{v}{c})} \quad |\theta'| < 90^{\circ}$$

$$u_{\parallel} = \frac{u'_{\parallel} + v}{1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel}} \quad u_{\perp} = \frac{u'_{\perp}}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{v}{c^2}u'_{\parallel})}$$



For relativistic particles

$$|\tan \theta| < \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{v}{c})} \rightarrow |\theta| \lesssim \frac{1}{\Gamma}$$

In the observer frame the emission is beamed due to relativistic effects: the cone is large $2/\Gamma$

Synchrotron emission

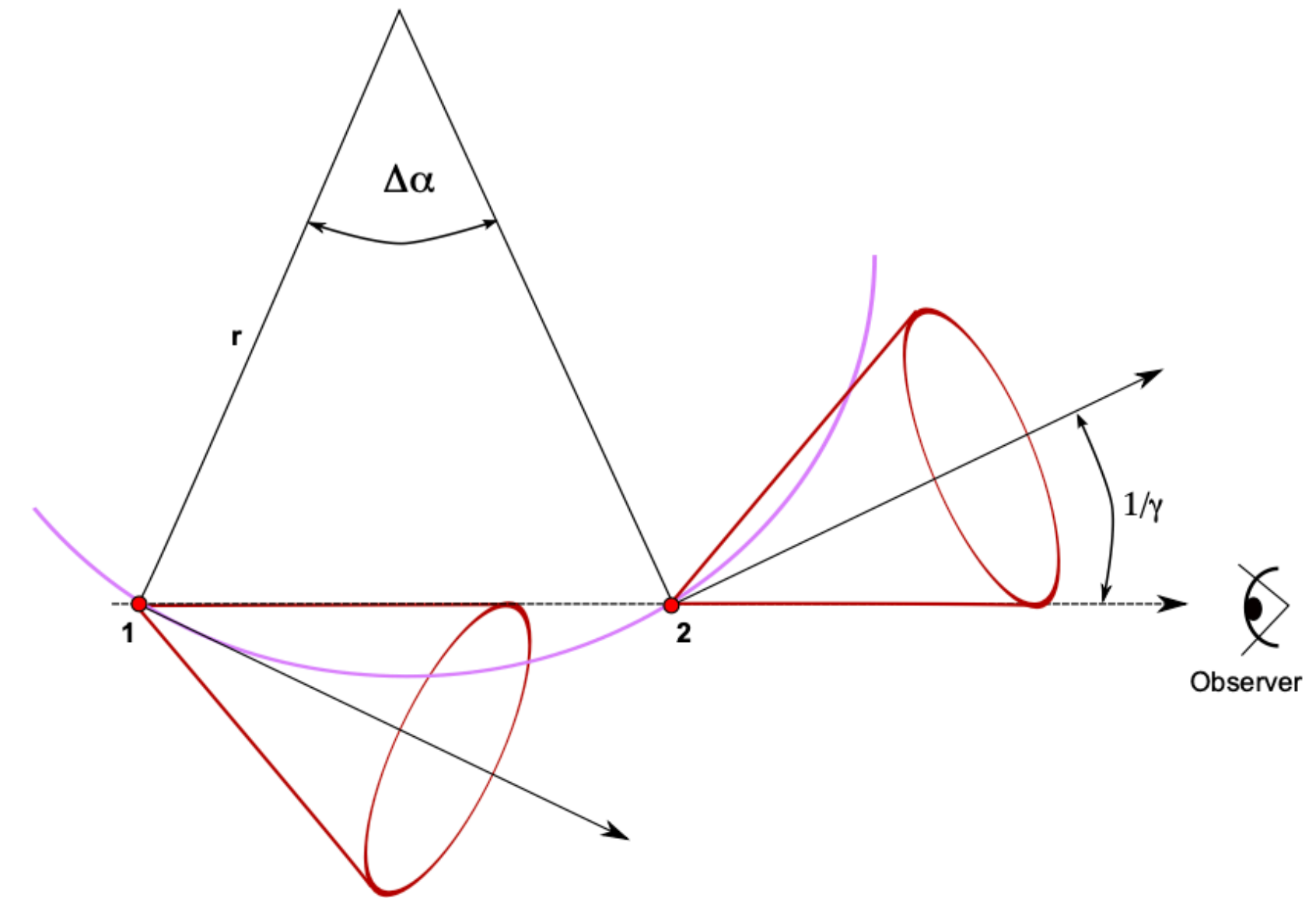
Characteristic frequency

Emission is beamed due to relativistic effects

Observer only sees radiation once per orbit when particle velocity is within $2/\Gamma$ of line of sight.

Δt_{obs} := duration for which beam stays within line of sight

- ▶ Observer sees narrow pulse of duration Δt_{obs}
- ▶ Most of the radiation power **must appear at a characteristic frequency** $\omega_{ch} = 2\pi\nu_{ch} = \frac{1}{\Delta t_{obs}}$



Synchrotron emission

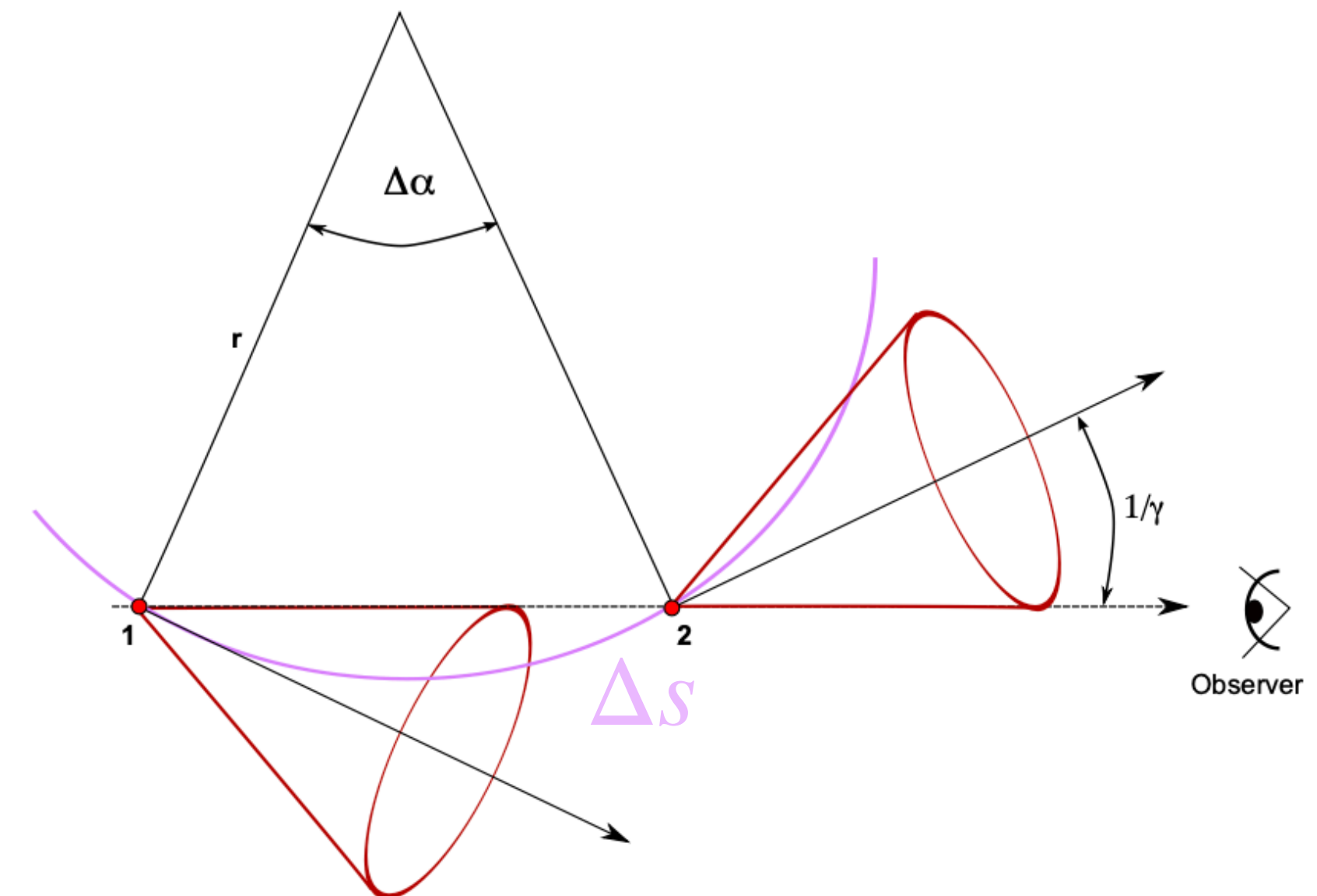
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Space in which the radiation is visible

$$\Delta s = r_L \Delta \alpha = r_L \frac{2}{\Gamma}$$

$$\Gamma m \frac{v^2}{r_L} = \frac{q}{c} B v \sin \theta \rightarrow v = \frac{q B \Gamma \Delta s}{2 \Gamma m c}$$

$$\Delta t_{obs} = \frac{\Delta s}{v} - \frac{\Delta s}{c} = \frac{2mc}{qB} - \frac{2mv}{qB} = \frac{2mc}{qB} \left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right) \frac{1 + \frac{v}{c}}{1 + \frac{v}{c}} \approx \frac{2mc}{\Gamma^2 qB}$$

Time during which the radiation is visible

Signal propagation time

Synchrotron emission

Characteristic frequency

Emission is beamed due to relativistic effects

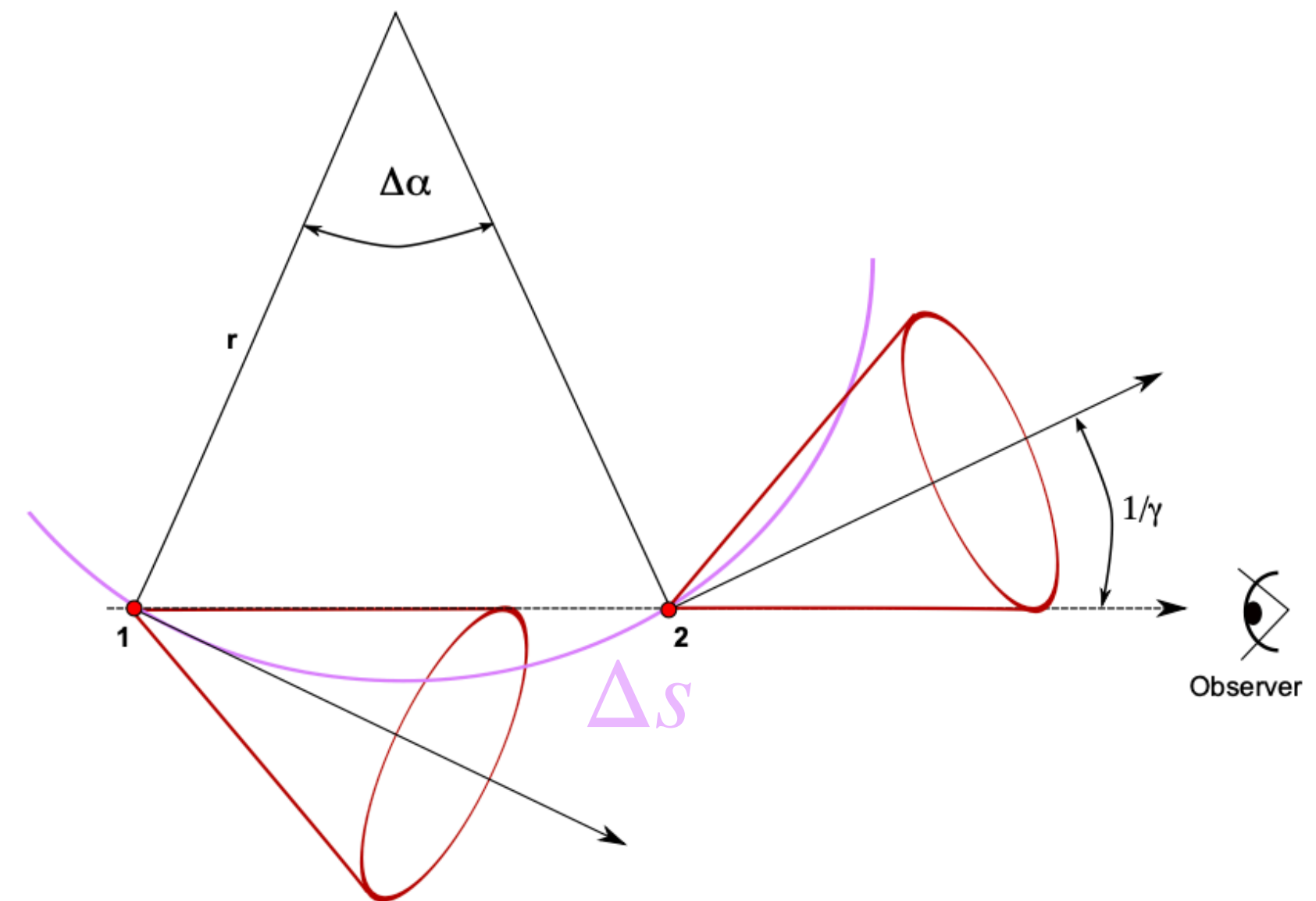
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- ▶ Observer sees narrow pulse of duration Δt_{obs}
- ▶ Most of the radiation power **must appear at a characteristic frequency** $\omega_{ch} = 2\pi\nu_{ch} = \frac{1}{\Delta t_{obs}}$

$$\Delta t_{obs} \simeq \frac{2mc}{\Gamma^2 qB} \rightarrow \omega_{ch} \simeq \frac{1}{\Delta t_{obs}} = \Gamma^2 \frac{qB \sin \theta}{mc}$$

This is the characteristic frequency at which an electron of energy Γ emits



Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

We have the emitted power in unit time but we need to turn it into something we can measure: emitted power per unit frequency, namely **the spectrum**, P_ν

We need to find a function such that:

$$\int_0^\infty P_\nu(\Gamma) d\nu = P_{sync} \quad [\text{Larmor}]$$

$$P_\nu(\Gamma) = P_{sync} \tilde{F}\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right)$$

We can factorize the dependence on ν

$$\frac{1}{\nu_c} \int_0^\infty \tilde{F}\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right) = 1$$

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

We have the emitted power in unit time but we need to turn it into something we can measure: emitted power per unit frequency, namely **the spectrum**, $P(\nu)$

$$\int_0^{\infty} P_{\nu}(\Gamma) d\nu = P_{sync}$$

$$P_{\nu}(\Gamma) = P_{sync} \tilde{F}\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right)$$

$$\frac{1}{\nu_c} \int_0^{\infty} \tilde{F}\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right) d\nu = 1$$

Electric field $\epsilon(t) \propto g(\omega_c t)$

$$\hat{\epsilon}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \epsilon(t) e^{i\omega t} dt$$

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

Now we consider the equation of the radiated electric field $\epsilon(t) \propto g(\omega_c t)$ (from the full-non approximated Larmor formula, derived from Lienard-Wiechert potentials and its inverse Fourier transformation)

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

We have the emitted power in unit time but we need to turn it into something we can measure: emitted power per unit frequency, namely **the spectrum, $P(\nu)$**

$$\int_0^{\infty} P_{\nu}(\Gamma) d\nu = P_{sync}$$

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

Parseval theorem: $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \epsilon^2(t) dt = 2\pi \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\omega$

Poynting theorem: $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{S} = -\frac{\partial u_E}{\partial t}$

Poynting vector Energy density

We consider now how the energy density is linked to the Poynting vector

$$\frac{c\epsilon^2}{4\pi\Delta x} \simeq \frac{E}{\Delta V\Delta t} \rightarrow \frac{dE}{dA} = \frac{c}{4\pi} \int dt \epsilon^2(t)$$

$$\frac{dE}{dA} = \frac{c}{4\pi} \int dt \epsilon^2(t) = c \int_0^{\infty} |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

$$\frac{dE}{dA dt d\omega} = \frac{c}{T} \frac{dE}{dA d\omega} = \frac{c}{T} |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2$$

Synchrotron emission

From the Larmor formula to radiation

We have the emitted power in unit time but we need to turn it into something we can measure: emitted power per unit frequency, namely **the spectrum, $P(\nu)$**

$$\int_0^\infty P_\nu(\Gamma) d\nu = P_{sync}$$

$$P_\nu(\Gamma) = P_{sync} \tilde{F}\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right)$$

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Poynting vector Energy density

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$$\frac{dE}{dA} = \frac{c}{4\pi} \int dt \epsilon^2(t) = c \int_0^\infty |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

$$\frac{dE}{dA dt d\omega} = \frac{c}{T} \frac{dE}{dA d\omega} = \frac{c}{T} |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2$$

Need modified-Bessel function...

$$P_\nu = 2\pi P_\omega(\Gamma) = 2\pi \frac{c}{T} \int \frac{dE}{dA dt d\omega} r^2 d\Omega = 2\pi \frac{c}{T} \int r^2 |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\Omega = 2\pi \frac{c\Omega_L}{2\pi} \int r^2 |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\Omega = \frac{qB}{\Gamma m} \int r^2 |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\Omega$$

Synchrotron emission

Ghisellini 2012

Single particle spectrum

One electron emits this power:

$$P_\nu(\Gamma) = \frac{qB}{\Gamma m} \int r^2 |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\Omega = \frac{\sqrt{3} e^3 B \sin \theta}{mc^2} F\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right)$$

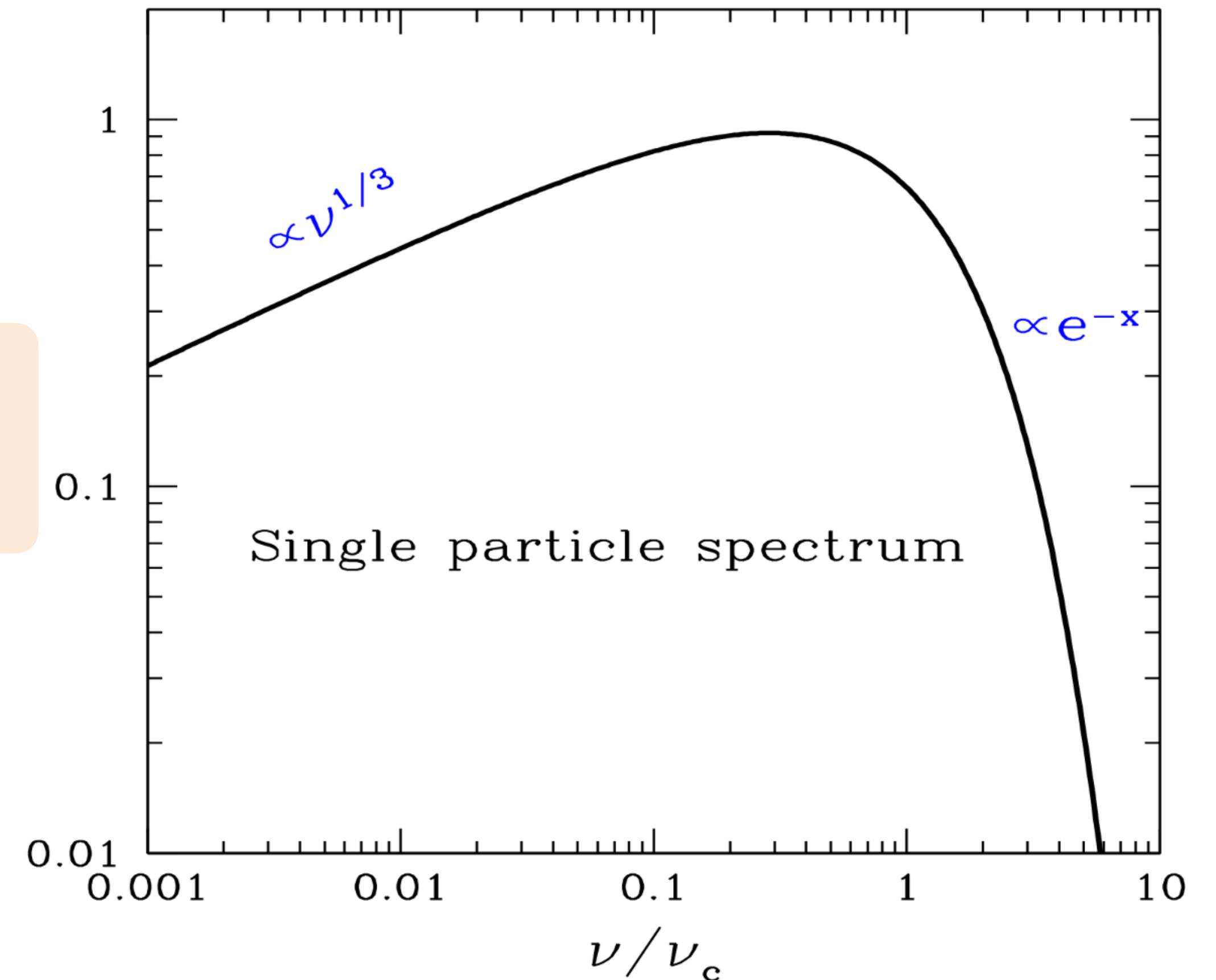
..modified-Bessel function:

$$F\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right) \equiv \frac{\nu}{\nu_c} \int_{\nu/\nu_c}^{\infty} K_{5/3}(y) dy \simeq 1.8 \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right)^{0.3} e^{-\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}}$$

$F(\nu/\nu_c)$

$$\nu_c = \frac{3}{4\pi} \Gamma^2 \frac{qB \sin \theta}{mc} = \frac{3}{2} \nu_{ch}$$

$$\nu_{ch} = 2\pi\omega_{ch} = 2\pi\Gamma^2 \frac{qB \sin \theta}{mc}$$



Synchrotron emission

Single particle spectrum

Ghisellini 2012

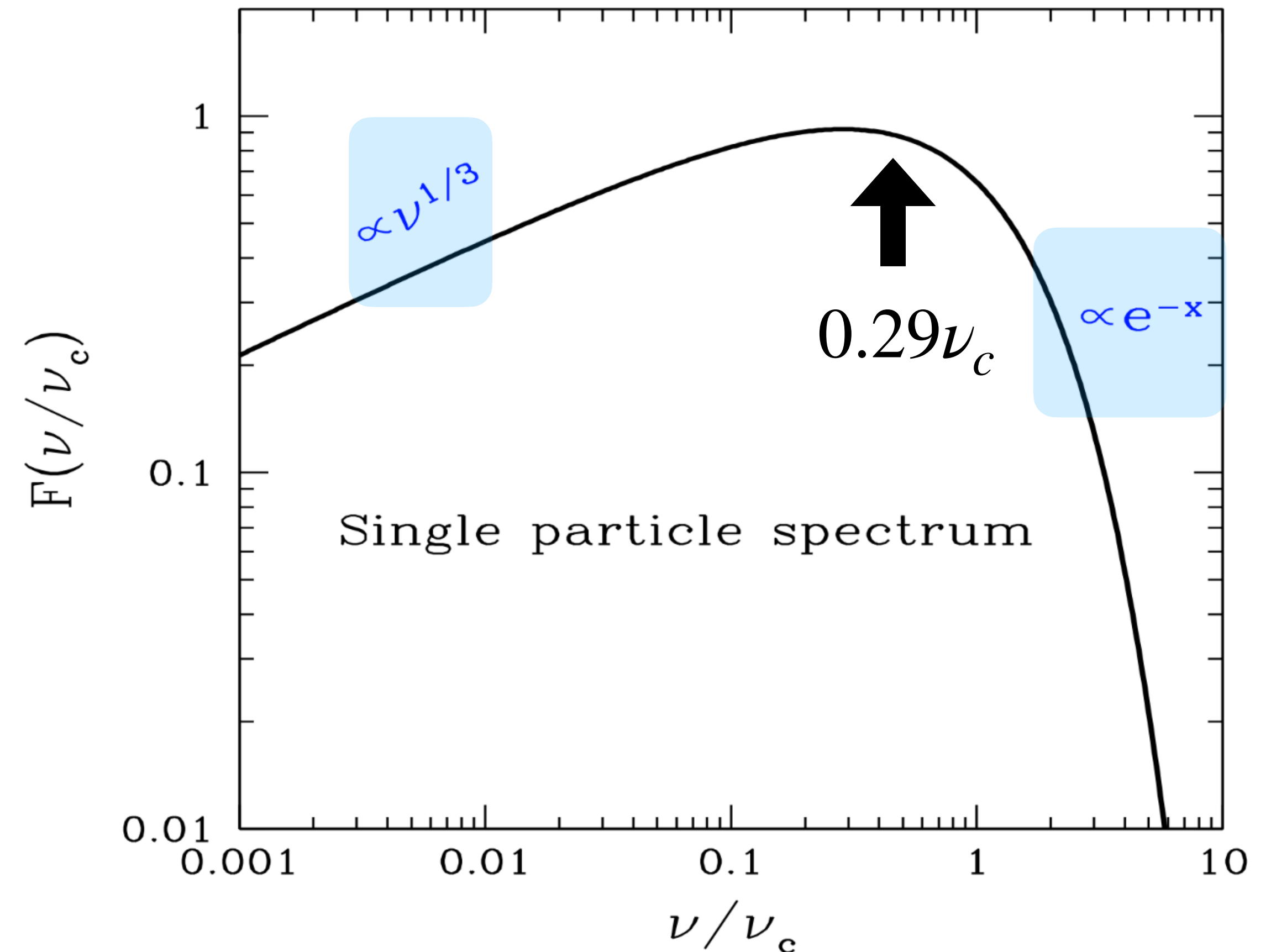
$$P_\nu(\Gamma) = \frac{qB}{\Gamma m} \int r^2 |\hat{\epsilon}(\omega)|^2 d\Omega = \frac{\sqrt{3} e^3 B \sin \theta}{mc^2} F\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right)$$

$$F\left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right) \equiv \frac{\nu}{\nu_c} \int_{\nu/\nu_c}^{\infty} K_{5/3}(y) dy \simeq 1.8 \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}\right)^{0.3} e^{-\frac{\nu}{\nu_c}}$$

$$\nu_c = \frac{3}{4\pi} \Gamma^2 \frac{qB \sin \theta}{mc} = \frac{3}{2} \nu_{ch} \equiv \Gamma^2 \nu_L$$

$$\nu_{ch} = 2\pi\omega_{ch} = 2\pi\Gamma^2 \frac{qB \sin \theta}{mc}$$

$$\omega_L = \frac{qB \sin \theta}{\Gamma mc}$$



The spectrum has always this shape, and scales and shift with ν_c depending on Γ

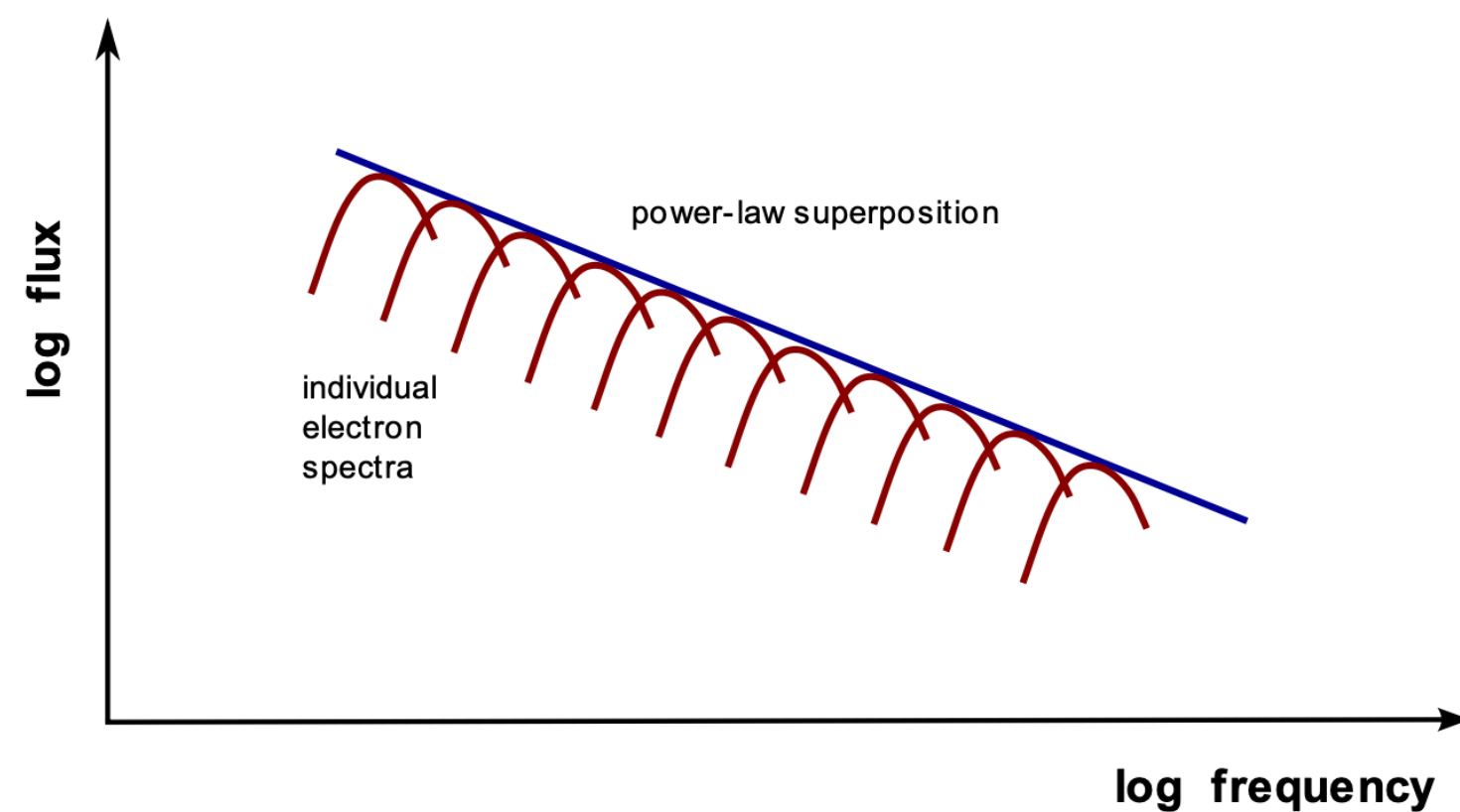
Synchrotron emission

Many electrons

Power law distribution $N_e(\Gamma)d\Gamma = N_{e,0}\Gamma^{-p}d\Gamma$

We have to Integrate over the emitted spectrum of each electron

The single particle spectrum has always the same shape, and scales and shift with ν_c



Synchrotron emission

Many electrons

$$\langle P_{sync} \rangle = \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T \left(\frac{m_e}{m} \right)^2 \Gamma^2 u_B$$

Power law distribution

$$N_e(\Gamma) d\Gamma = N_{e,0} \Gamma^{-p} d\Gamma$$

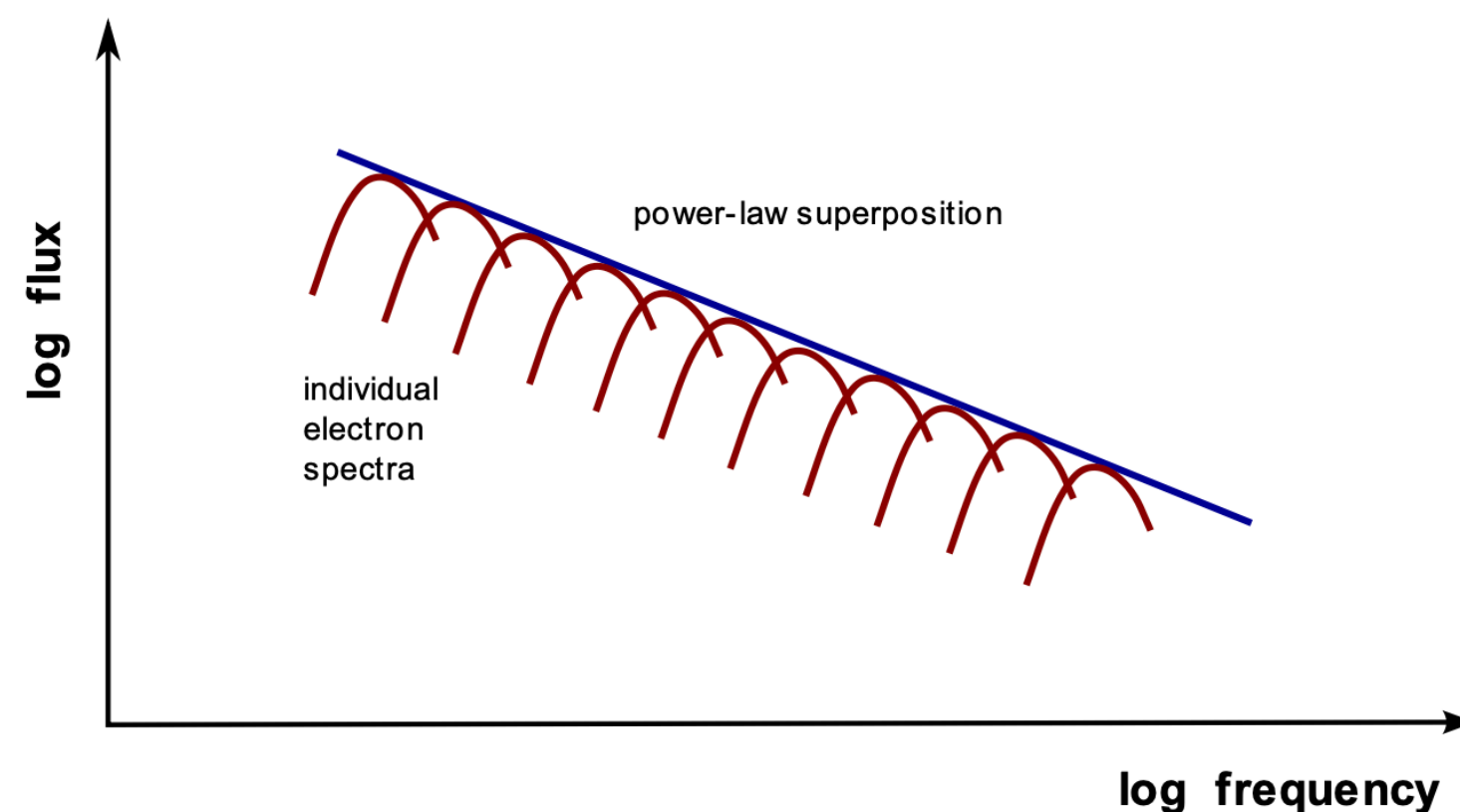
Integrate over the emitted spectrum of each electron:

$$j_\nu = \int_{\Gamma_{min}}^{\Gamma_{max}} \langle P_\nu(\Gamma) \rangle N_e(\Gamma) d\Gamma \approx \int_{\Gamma_{min}}^{\Gamma_{max}} N_e(\Gamma) \langle P_{syn} \rangle \delta(\nu - \Gamma^2 \nu_L) d\Gamma$$

δ - approximation

$$\nu_{ch} = \Gamma^2 \nu_L$$

The single particle spectrum has always the same shape, and scales and shift with ν_c



Now we change from Γ to ν' using $\nu' = \Gamma^2 \nu_L$ hence

$$d\Gamma = \frac{d\nu'}{(2\Gamma\nu_L)}$$

$$\approx \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T u_B N_{e,0} \int_{\Gamma_{min}}^{\Gamma_{max}} \frac{\Gamma^2}{\Gamma^p} \delta(\nu - \Gamma^2 \nu_L) d\Gamma$$

$$= \frac{4}{6\nu_L} c \sigma_T u_B N_{e,0} \int_{\Gamma_{min}^2 \nu_L}^{\Gamma_{max}^2 \nu_L} \left(\frac{\nu_L}{\nu'} \right)^{\frac{(p-1)}{2}} \delta(\nu - \nu') d\nu'$$

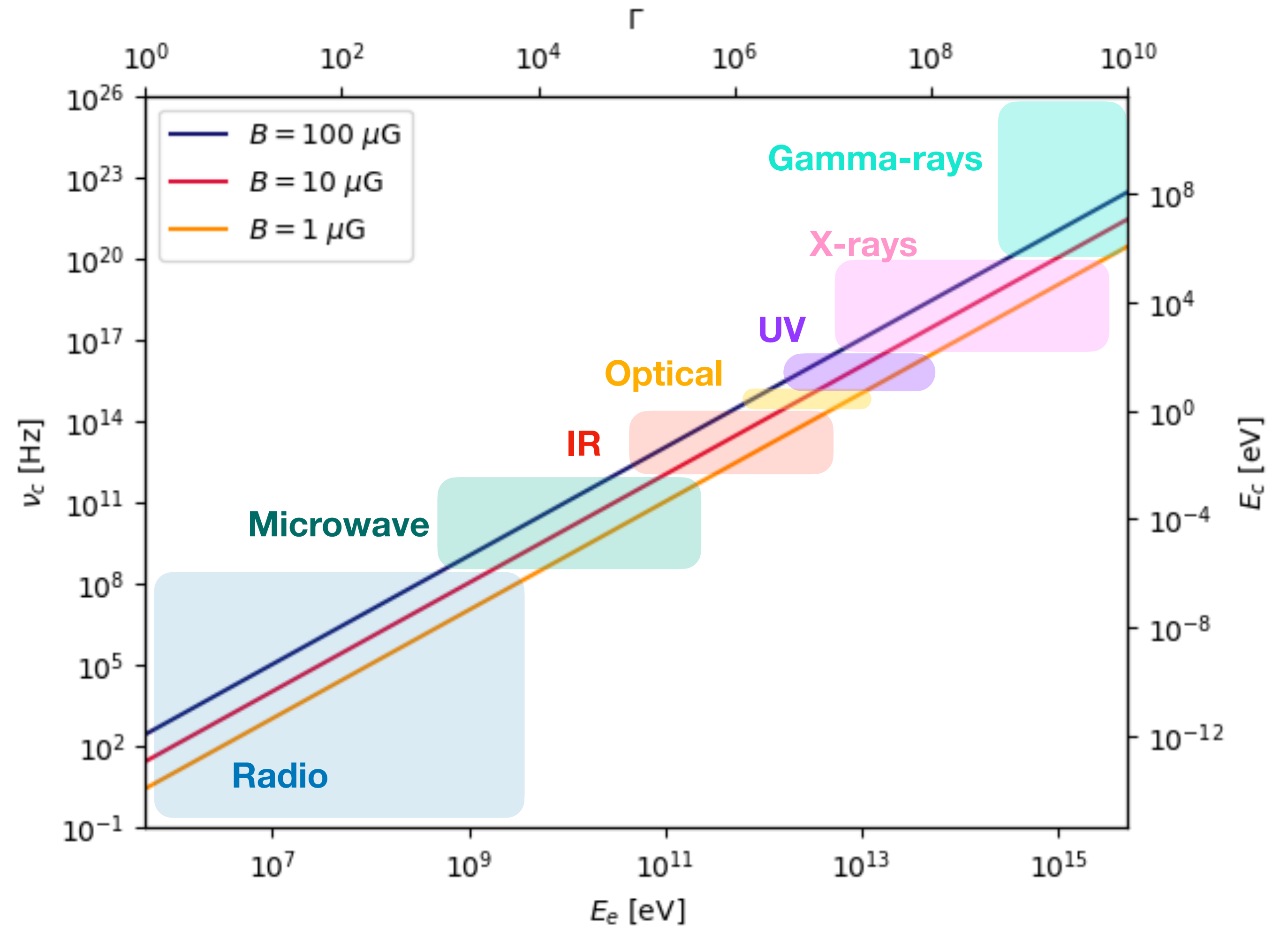
$$= \frac{2}{3\nu_L} c \sigma_T u_B N_{e,0} \left(\frac{\nu_L}{\nu'} \right)^{\frac{(p-1)}{2}} \propto \nu^{\frac{-(p-1)}{2}}$$

Synchrotron emission

Where is it important?

$$\nu_c = \frac{3}{4\pi} \Gamma^2 \frac{qB \sin \theta}{mc} = \frac{3}{2} \nu_{ch} \equiv \Gamma^2 \nu_L$$

$$\nu_c \simeq 280 \Gamma^2 \left(\frac{B}{10^{-4} \text{ G}} \right) \text{ Hz}$$

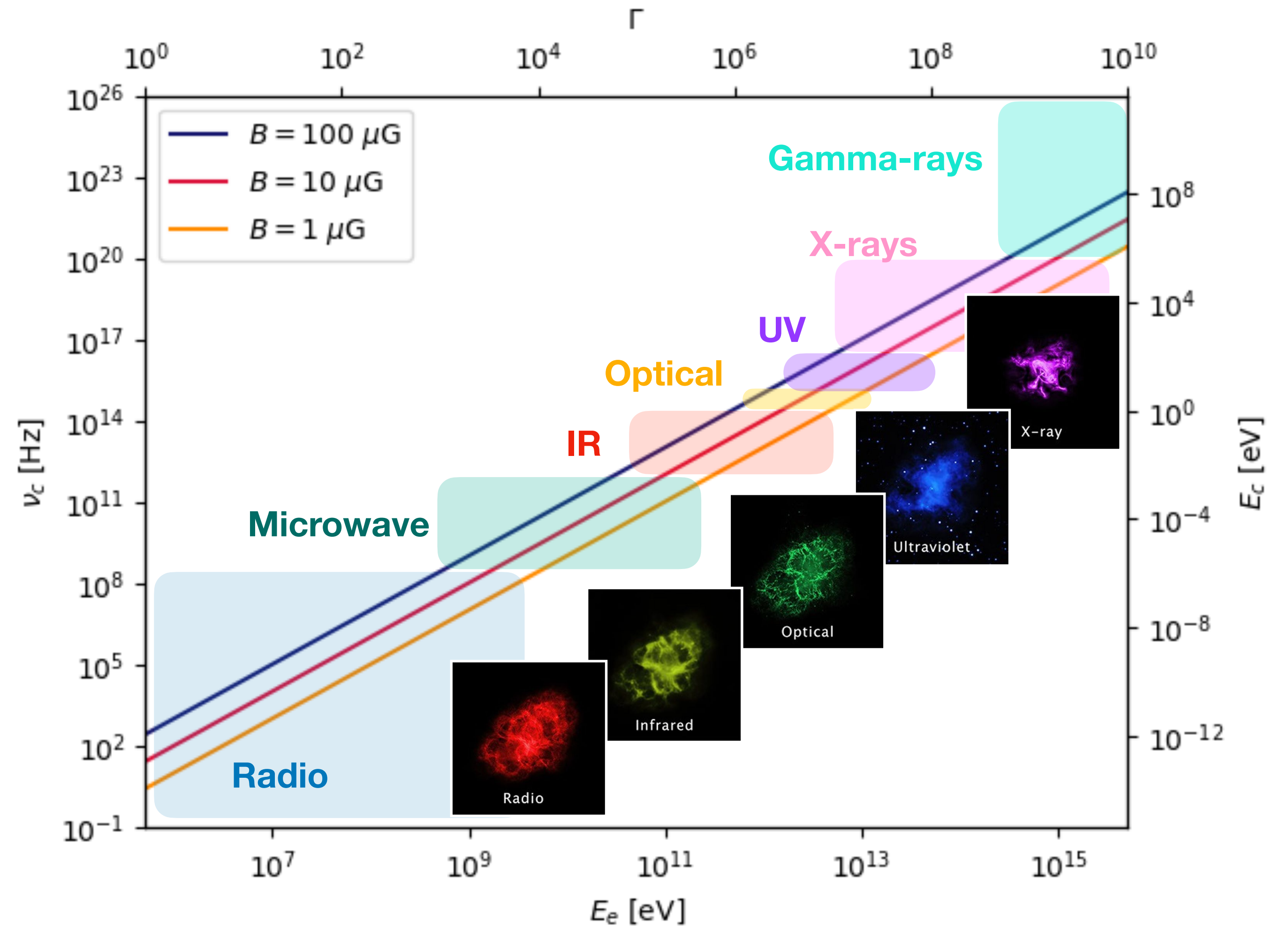
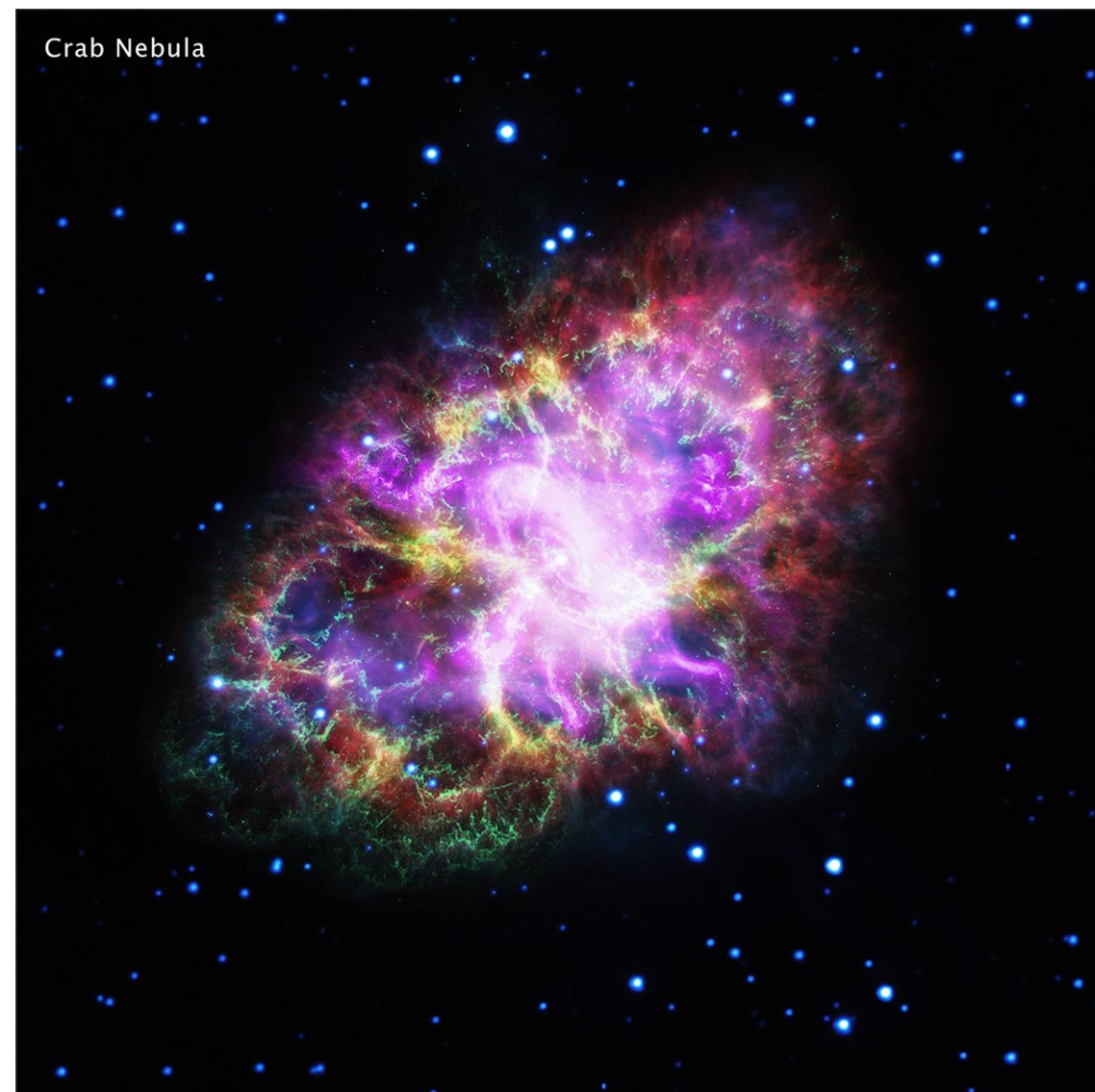


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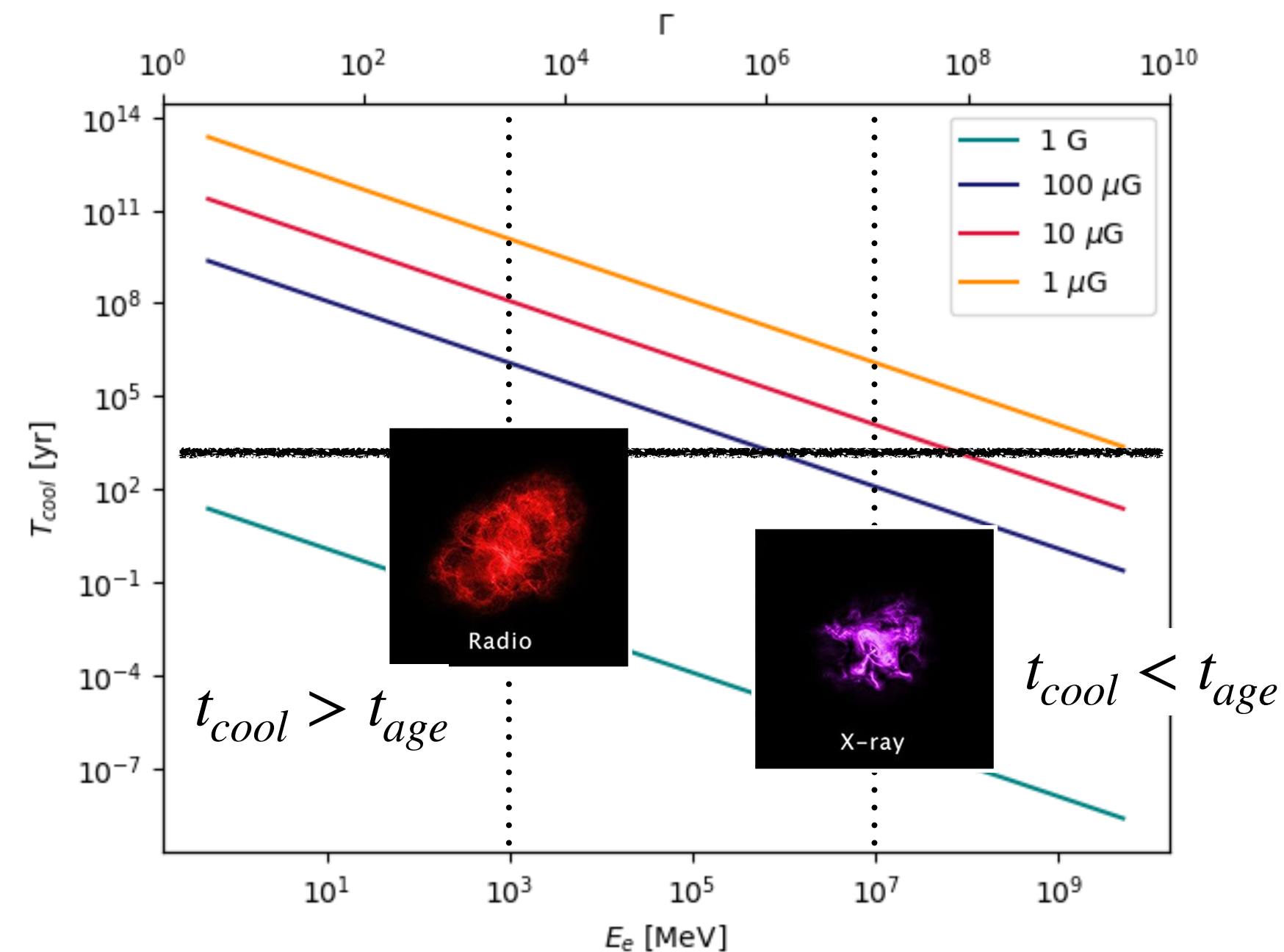
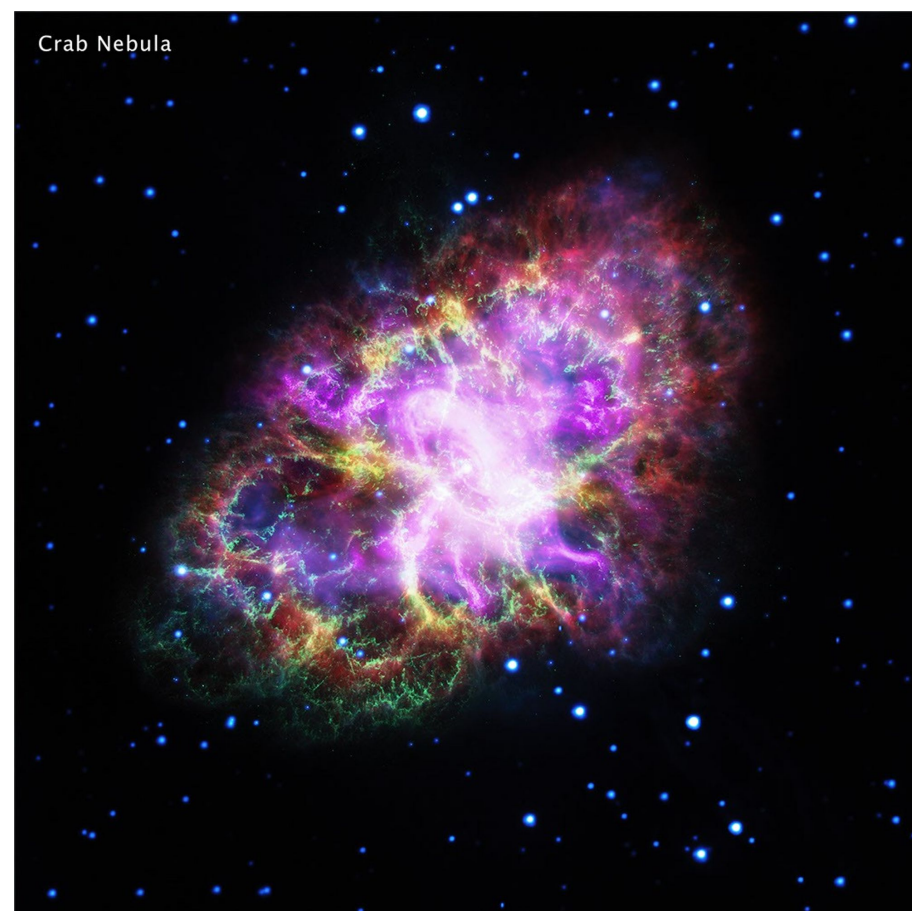


Synchrotron emission

Synchrotron cooling

$$\langle P_{sync} \rangle = \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T \left(\frac{m_e}{m} \right)^2 \Gamma^2 u_B$$

$$t_{cool}(\Gamma) = \frac{E}{|dE/dt|} = \frac{\Gamma m_e c^2}{\langle P_{sync} \rangle} \propto \Gamma^{-1} = 7.8 \times 10^8 \frac{1}{B^2 \Gamma} \text{ s}$$



The more energetic the electron the faster it cools;

Cooling is faster in a larger magnetic field;

Important mechanism to bend high energy electrons, shaping the emission at high energy!

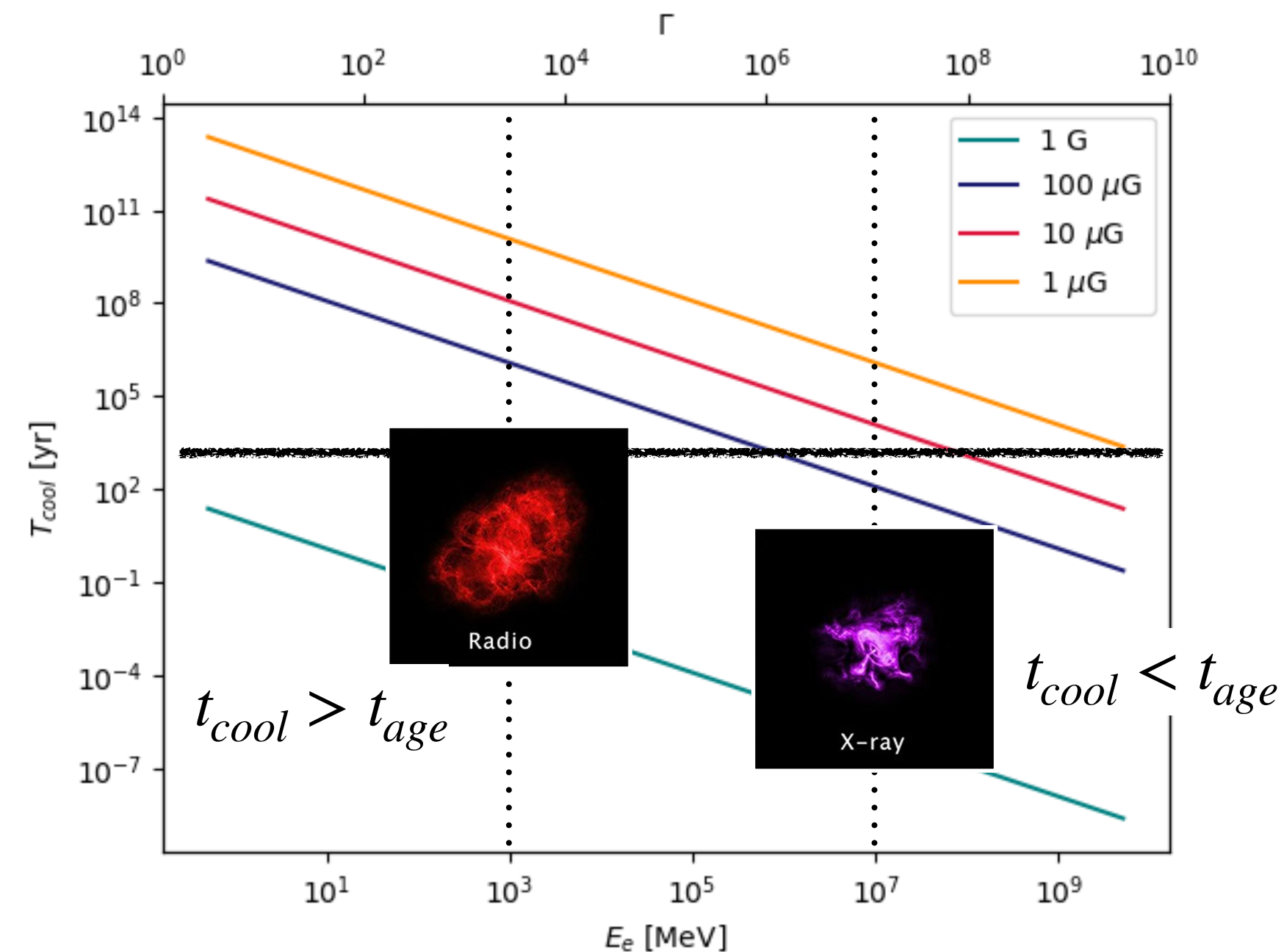
Synchrotron cooling determine the maximum acceleration power and the morphology of the emission

Synchrotron emission

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Synchrotron cooling determine the maximum acceleration power and the morphology* of the emission

*True for advection otherwise must be convolved with energy-dependent diffusion: e.g. $D_{Bohm} \propto \Gamma$ therefore electrons cool as fast as they travel!

Synchrotron emission

Synchrotron cooling

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$$-\frac{dE_e}{dt} = \eta(E_e) \propto \Gamma^2 = k E_e^2$$

Evolution of electrons

$$\frac{\partial N_e(E_e, t)}{\partial t} = \dots = \frac{\partial}{\partial E} \left[\overset{\text{Energy losses}}{k E_e^2 N_e(E_e, t)} \right] + \overset{\text{Injection}}{Q(E_e, t)} \rightarrow k E_e^2 N_e(E_e) = \int Q(E_e) dE_e$$

Missing algebra

$$\rightarrow N_e(E_e) \propto E_e^{-p+1} E_e^{-2}$$

$$E_e^{-p} \rightarrow E_e^{-p-1}$$

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Bremsstrahlung

When the braking is given by nuclei

Heuristic approach following Ghisellini (2012)

An electron passing near a nucleus feels its Coulomb field when it is close to it.

We can define an impact parameter b (minimum radius for interaction) : intuitively related to the number of protons: $N_p \sim b^3 n_p$ where n_p the density of protons

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Then the characteristic time for interaction is $\tau = \frac{b}{v} \implies \omega = \frac{v}{b}$

The acceleration is given by the Coulomb field

$$a \approx \frac{e^2}{m_e b^2} \implies P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |\dot{v}|^2 \propto \frac{e^6}{m_e c^3 b^4}$$

The emitted energy in a single collision is then

$$dW = P dt \sim \frac{P}{\omega} = \frac{e^6}{m_e c^3 b^3 v}$$

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Easy part: one electron deviated by one proton

Complicated part: considering all electrons and all nuclei (complete derivation in Rybicki & Lightman (1979) and Blumental & Gould (1970))

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Gaunt factor: encloses all electron ions interaction

Thermal \implies Thermal distribution of electrons with temperature T $j(\nu) = 5.4 \times 10^{-39} Z^2 n_e n_i T^{-1/2} e^{-\frac{h\nu}{kT}} \bar{g}$

Relativistic \implies Power law distribution of electrons

Bremsstrahlung

When the braking is given by nuclei

Relativistic [Haug+1975]

For each electron

$$\frac{dn_\gamma}{dt} = v[(n_p + 4n_{He})\sigma_{e-p}(E_e, E_\gamma) + n_e\sigma_{e-e}(E_e, E_\gamma)]$$

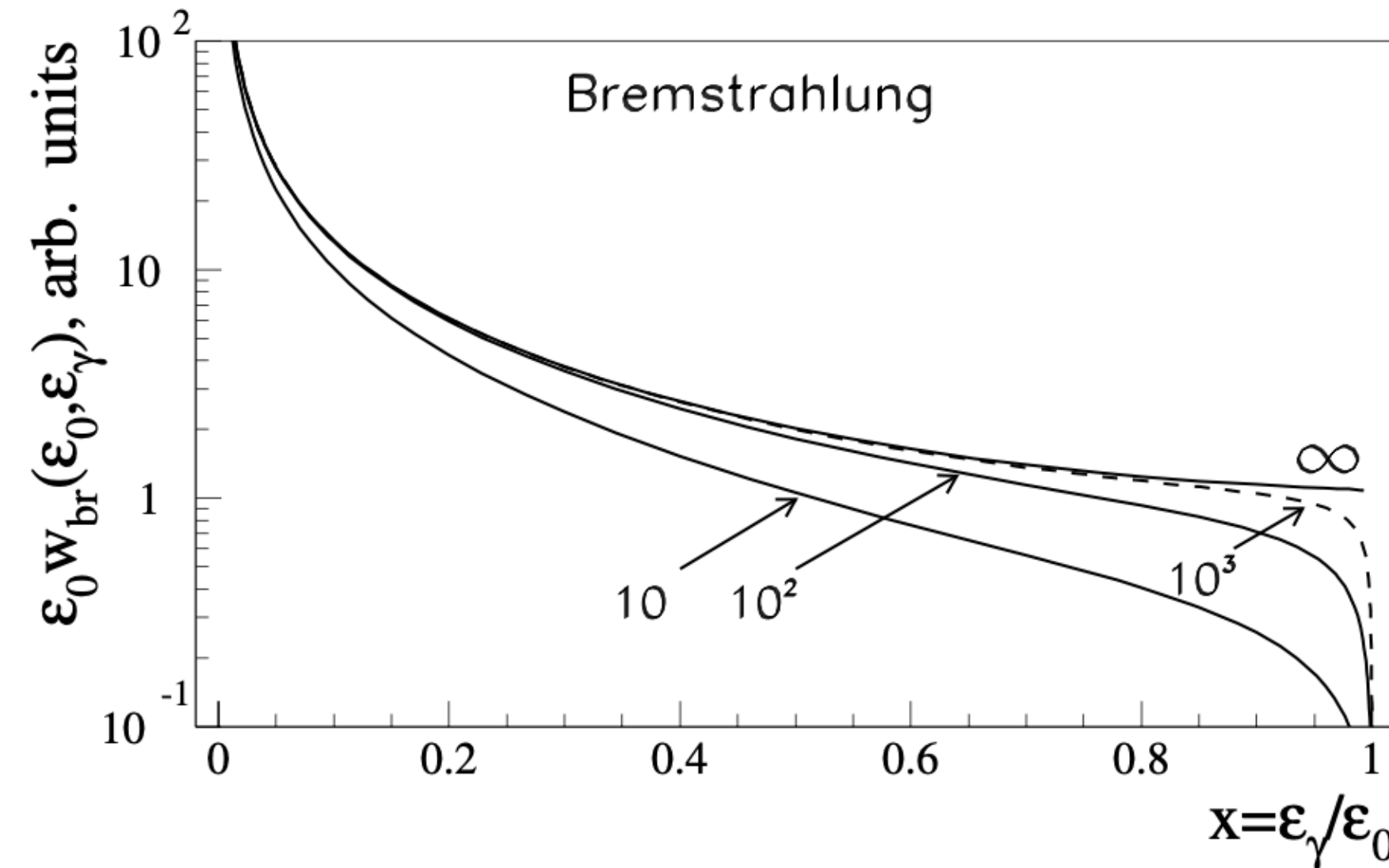
Bethe-Heitler

Thermal

$$j(\nu) = 5.4 \times 10^{-39} Z^2 n_e n_i T^{-1/2} e^{-\frac{h\nu}{kT}} \bar{g}$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dE_\gamma} = \frac{4\alpha r_e^2}{E_\gamma} \left[\left(1 + \frac{(E_e - E_\gamma)^2}{E^2} - \frac{2(E_e - E_\gamma)}{3E} \right) \ln\left(\frac{183}{Z^{1/3}}\right) = \frac{1}{9} \frac{E_e - E_\gamma}{E_e} \right]$$

Differential cross section



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sqrt{\varrho^2-4}}{\pi} \int A d\Omega_{p_i} = & \sqrt{\varrho^2-4} \left\{ \frac{w^2+\varrho^2}{4x_1x_2} \left(\frac{x_1-x_2}{x} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{x_1} - \frac{1}{x_2} \right)^2 - \frac{\varrho^2}{2x^2} + \frac{2\varrho^2}{(w^2-4)x_1x_2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{w^2-4} \right) \right. \\ & + \frac{4\varrho^2}{w^2(w^2-4)x_1^4} \left[3 \frac{(w^2-2)^2}{w^2-4} x_1x_2 - 2x^2 \left\{ 1 + \frac{6}{w^2(w^2-4)} \right\} \right] - \frac{4\varrho^2x}{(w^2-4)x_1^3} \\ & + \frac{\varrho^2}{x_1^2} \left[\frac{4}{w^2} - \frac{3}{2} - \frac{8}{w^2(w^2-4)^2} + \frac{(w^2-2)x}{w^2(w^2-4)} \right] - \frac{\varrho^2}{(w^2-4)x_1} + \frac{1}{R_1} \left[\frac{w^2-4x_2}{\varrho^2} - \frac{w^2(w^2-4)}{4x_1x_2} - \frac{4}{x_1} \right. \\ & + \left. \frac{1}{x_1^2} \left(w^2 - \frac{w^2-2}{2} \varrho^2 \right) \right] + \frac{L}{\sqrt{R_1}} \left\{ 4 + \frac{1}{x_2} \left(10 - \frac{w^2}{2} \right) - \frac{2}{x_1} (2w^2 - x_2 + 4) + \frac{3w^2(w^2-4)}{4x_1x_2} \right. \\ & + \left. \frac{4}{x_1R_2} \left(x_2 - 3x_1 + 4 + 2 \frac{\varrho^2-3}{x_1} \right) + \frac{w^2-4-4x_1x_2/\varrho^2}{x_1R_1} \left[\frac{w^2R_2}{4x_2} - (\varrho^2-2) - 2x_1 \right] \right\} \\ & + \varrho L_1 \left\{ \frac{\varrho^2+2}{x^2} + \frac{8}{x_1^2} \right\} + \frac{L_2}{W_2} \left\{ 2 \frac{w^2-2}{x_2} - \frac{\varrho^2-2-x_2}{x_1} + \frac{\varrho^2-2}{2x} (\varrho^2+x_1) + \frac{w^2-4}{R_2} \right. \\ & - \left. 2 + \frac{\varrho^2-2}{8x_1} (w^2+\varrho^2-4)^2 + \frac{1}{R_2x_1} \left[(\varrho^2-2) \left\{ \left(\frac{w^2+\varrho^2}{2} - 2 \right) x_2 - (w^2-2) \right\} - 2x_2^2 - 4x_2 \right] \right. \\ & + \left. \frac{1}{R_2x} \left[\frac{\varrho^2-2}{2} \{ 3(\varrho^2-4) - w^2(\varrho^2-5) \} + 2x_1^2 - 6x_1 + (w^2-2)x_2 \right] \right\} \\ & + \frac{2\varrho L_3}{w\sqrt{w^2-4}x_1} \left\{ 4 + \frac{8(w^2-2)}{(w^2-4)^2} - \frac{3(w^2-2)}{2x_2} + \frac{1}{x_1} [x_2^2 - 2w^2 - (w^2-1)x_2 + \frac{1}{2}(w^2-2)^2] \right. \\ & + \frac{\varrho^2}{2x} (\varrho^2-2) - \frac{x_2}{2x} (w^2-2) - \frac{w^2+\varrho^2-4}{4x_1x_2} (w^2-2)^2 + \frac{x}{4x_1x_2} [(w^2-2)^2 \\ & + (\varrho^2-2)(\varrho^2-4) - 8 \frac{\varrho^2-2}{w^2-4}] + \frac{4x^2}{w^2(w^2-4)x_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} [2(\varrho^2-2)x_2 + (w^2-4)x - 4(w^2-2) \\ & + \frac{8-\varrho^2}{2x_1} (w^2-2)] + \frac{1}{xR_2} \left[\frac{\varrho^2-2}{2} \{ 3(\varrho^2-4) - w^2(\varrho^2-5) \} - x_1(w^2-2x_1+4) \right] \\ & + \frac{2}{(w^2-4)^2x_1} \left[w^2(w^2-2)(\varrho^2-4) - 2(\varrho^2-2) + 4 \frac{\varrho^2}{w^2} \right] + \frac{4(w^2-2)x}{(w^2-4)x_1^2} \left[\frac{12x}{w^2(w^2-4)} - \frac{\varrho^2-2}{2} \right. \\ & \cdot \left. \left[1 - \frac{x}{w^2x_1} \right] \right] - \frac{L_4}{W_4} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\varrho^2-2}{8x_1x_2} \left[(w^2-2)^2 + (\varrho^2-2)^2 - 6(w^2+\varrho^2-4) + \frac{16x}{w^2-4} \right] \right. \\ & + \left. \frac{2}{x_1x_2} (1-x_1-x_1^2) + \frac{1}{w^2-4} \left(\varrho^2-4 - \frac{8}{w^2-4} \right) \right\} + \{x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2\}. \end{aligned} \quad (A1)$$

Bremsstrahlung

In practice: when it is important

Electrons passing through a plasma lose energy due to bremsstrahlung and emit photons. After a certain length $X_0 = ct_0 \propto (n\sigma_0)^{-1}$ the energy of the electron is reduced by a factor e , therefore after a certain time:

$$-\frac{dE_e}{dt} = \left(\frac{cm_p n}{X_0} \right) E_e$$

$$t_{br} = \frac{E_e}{\frac{dE_e}{dt}} \simeq 4 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{n}{\text{cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-1} \text{yr}$$

Independent of E_e !

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If parent electrons follow a PL distribution:

$$N_e(E_e) \propto \left(\frac{dE_e}{dt} \right)^{-1} \int_{E_e} Q(E_e) dE_e \\ \propto E^{-1} \quad \propto E^{-p+1}$$

- ▶ Bremsstrahlung do not change power law electron spectrum
- ▶ The spectrum of bremsstrahlung follows the spectrum of parent electrons!

Bremsstrahlung

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Compare with:

$$t_{pp} = (n\sigma_{pp}c)^{-1} \simeq 5.4 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{n}{\text{cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-1} \text{yr}$$

Bremsstrahlung important only when Electrons \gg Protons

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Bremsstrahlung important only when Electrons \gg Protons

But: pp interactions have a threshold, below the threshold bremsstrahlung dominates (Unfortunately it is in the MeV domain!)

(Inverse) Compton scattering

We know that radiation is emitted if electric charge are accelerated. An incoming electromagnetic wave (a photon) makes the electron oscillate in response to the electric force. The electron then in turn emits a photon of energy $h\nu_f \lesssim h\nu_i$ (due to recoil)

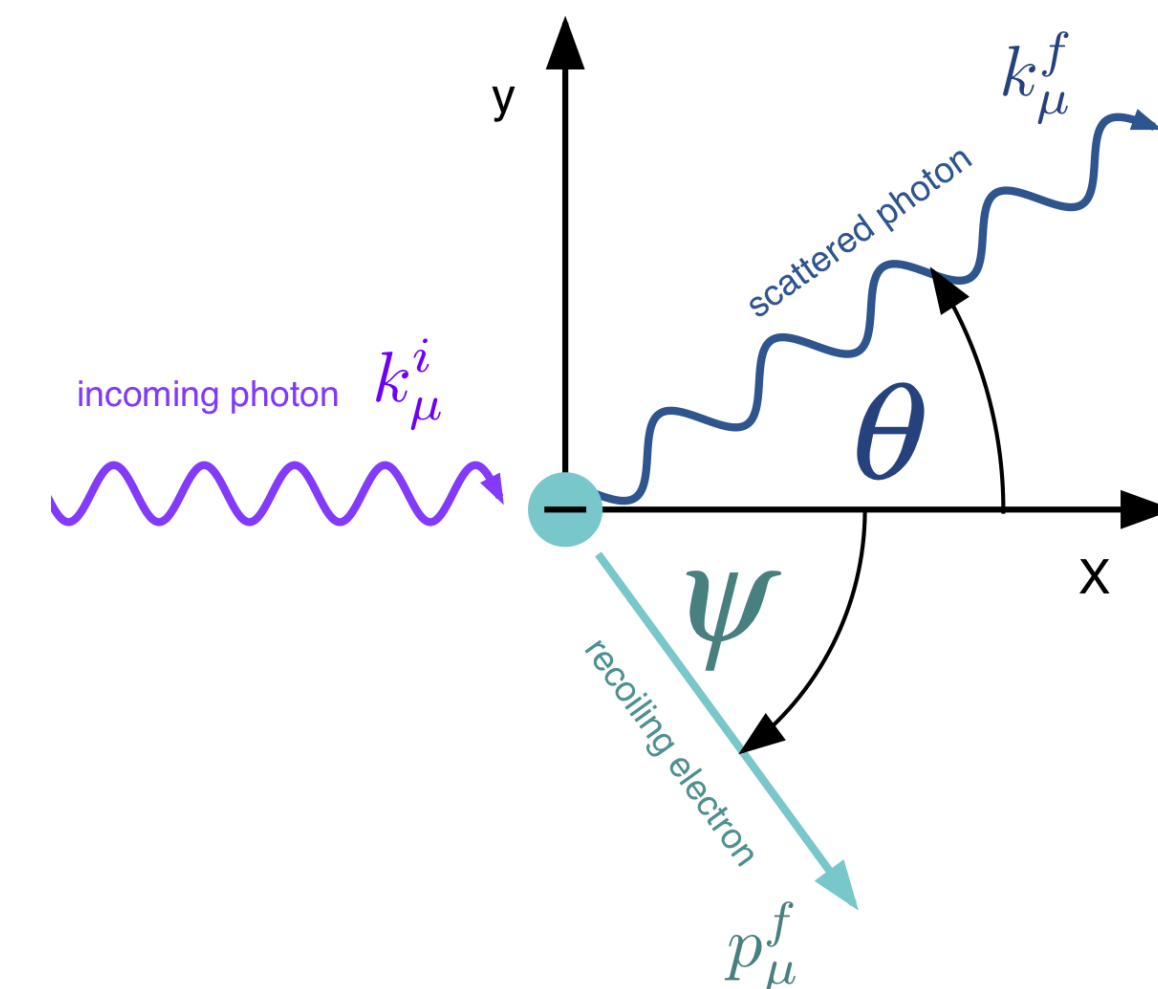
If $h\nu \ll m_e c^2$: **Thomson scattering** (classic treatment)

If $h\nu \gtrsim m_e c^2$: **Compton scattering** (quantistic treatment)

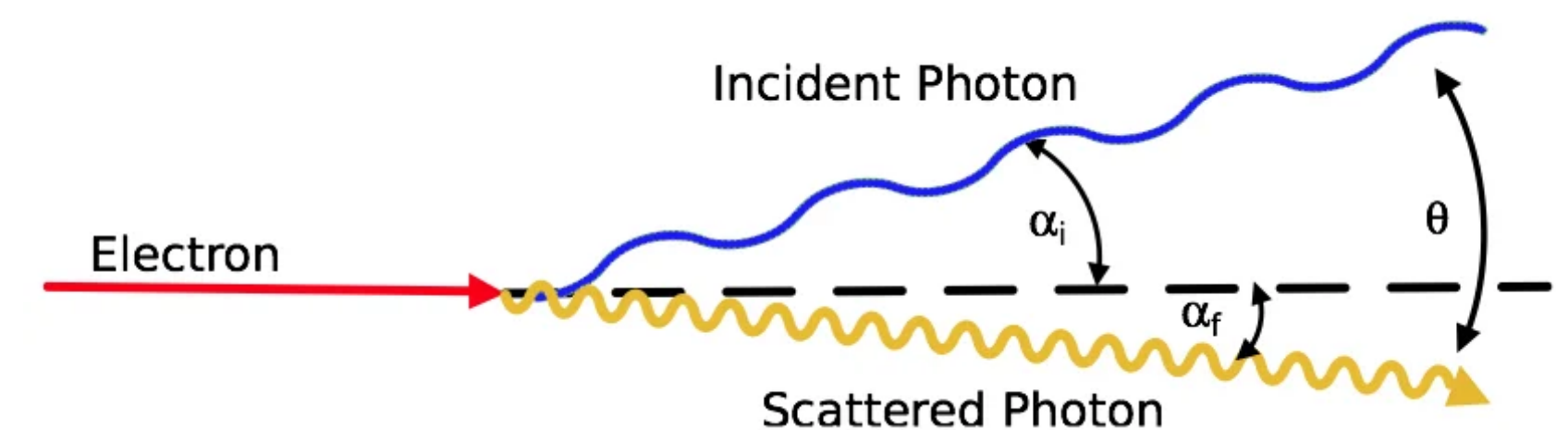
Considering the collision in the quantistic treatment, we can imagine also the inverse effect: a low energy photon, impacting on a relativistic electrons and *getting energy from it*: **Inverse Compton scattering**.

Among the main emission mechanism to produce high energy photons.

Direct Compton



Inverse Compton



Compton scattering

Energy exchange

4-momenta

Before

After

$$\tilde{P}_i = \frac{h\nu_i}{c}(1, \vec{n}_i), \quad \tilde{P}_f = \frac{h\nu_f}{c}(1, \vec{n}_f)$$

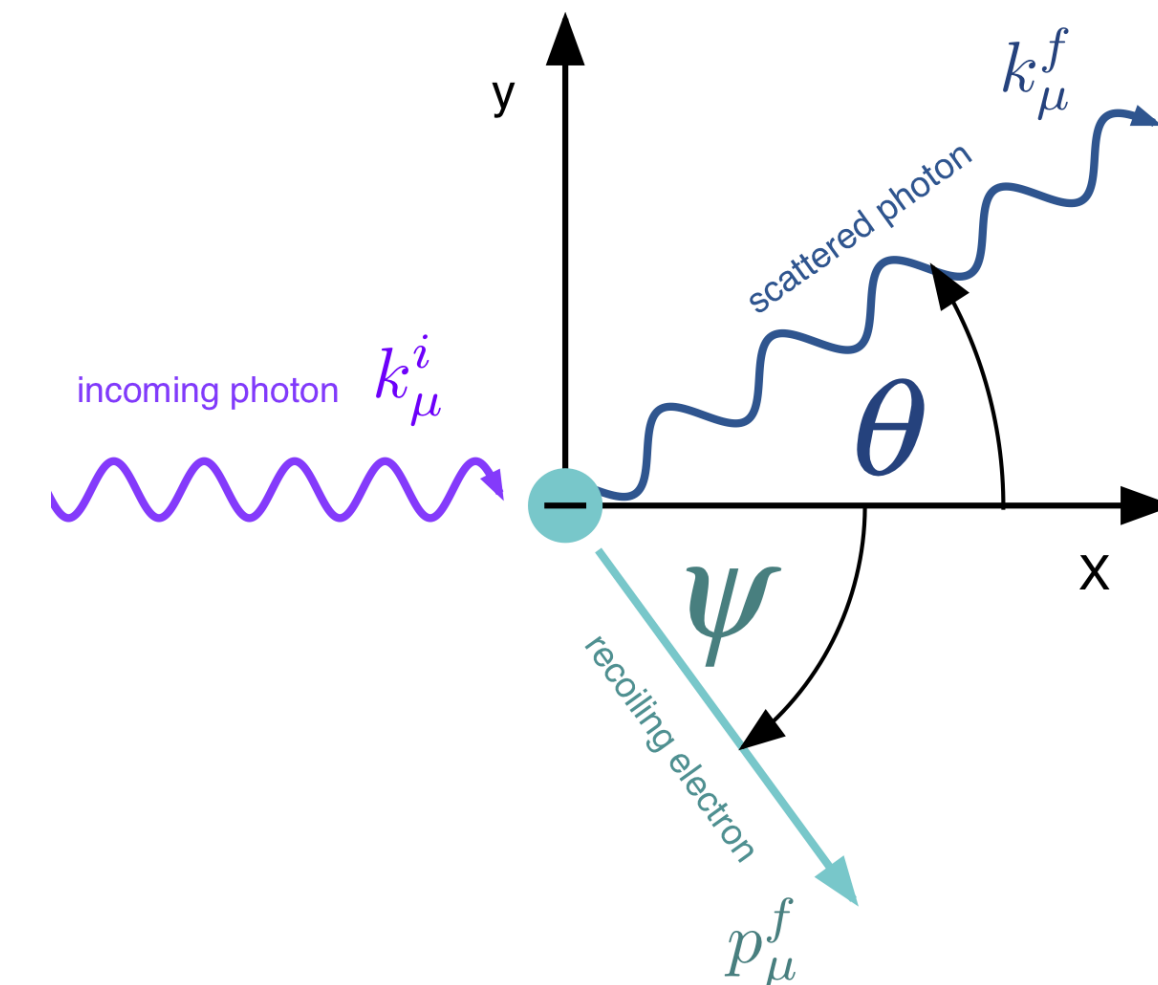
Photon

$$\tilde{Q}_i = m_e(c, 0), \quad \tilde{Q}_f = \Gamma_f m_e(c, \vec{v}_f)$$

Electron

$$\tilde{P}_i + \tilde{Q}_i = \tilde{P}_f + \tilde{Q}_f$$

We compute the change of energy in the case of direct Compton scattering: this will help us evaluating the energy exchange in the Inverse Compton (via relativistic transformations)



Compton scattering

Energy exchange

4-momenta

Before

After

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$$\tilde{Q}_i = m_e(c, 0), \quad \tilde{Q}_f = \Gamma_f m_e(c, \vec{v}_f) \quad \text{Electron}$$

$$\tilde{P}_i + \tilde{Q}_i = \tilde{P}_f + \tilde{Q}_f$$

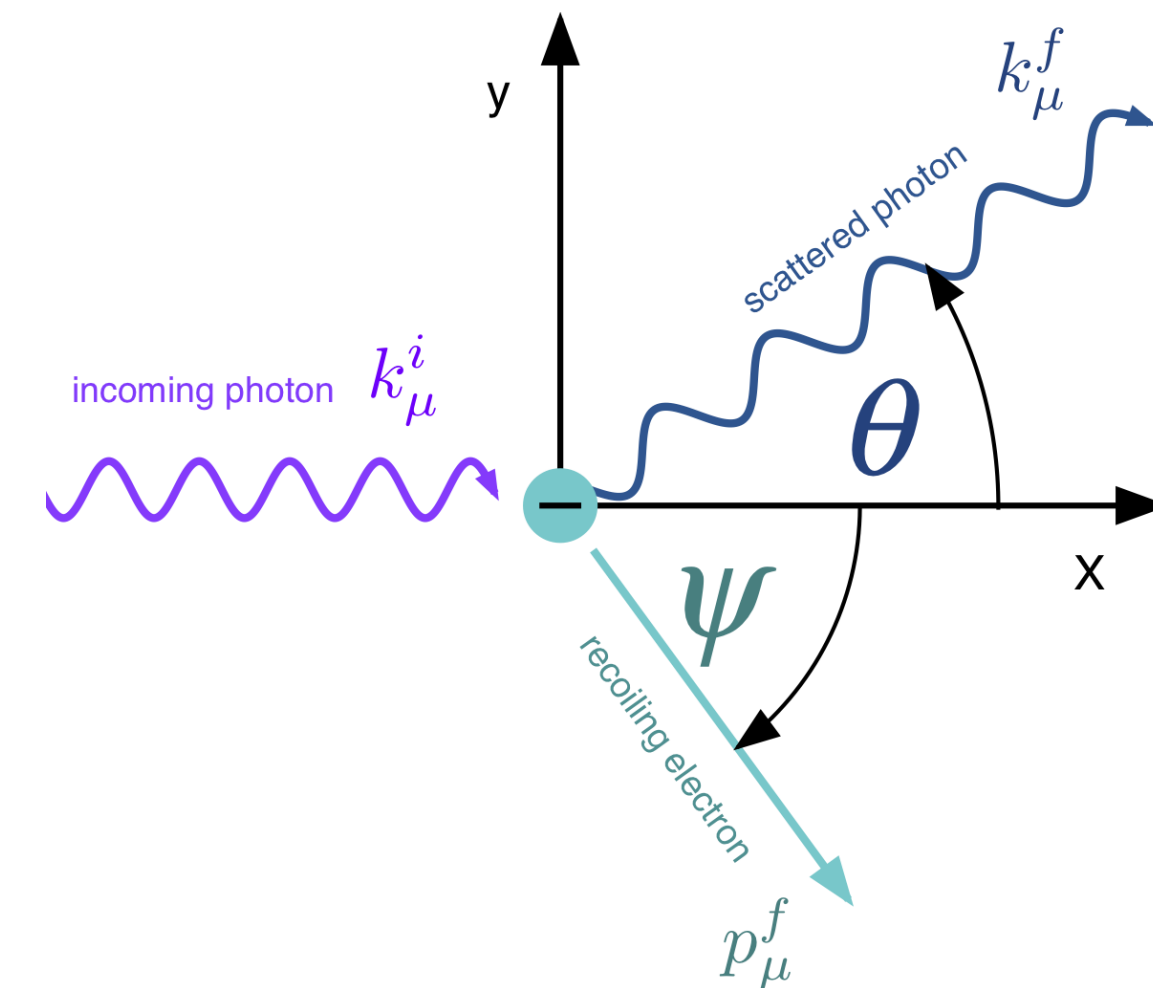
$$\rightarrow \tilde{Q}_f^2 = (\tilde{P}_i + \tilde{Q}_i - \tilde{P}_f)^2$$

$$\tilde{Q}_f^2 = \tilde{P}_i^2 + \tilde{Q}_i^2 + \tilde{P}_f^2 + 2\tilde{P}_i\tilde{Q}_i - 2\tilde{P}_i\tilde{P}_f - 2\tilde{Q}_i\tilde{P}_f$$

$$\tilde{P}_i\tilde{P}_f = \tilde{Q}_i(\tilde{P}_i - \tilde{P}_f)$$

$$h\nu_i h\nu_f (1 - \vec{n}_i \cdot \vec{n}_f) = m_e (h\nu_i - h\nu_f) c^2$$

$$h\nu_i \nu_f (1 - \cos \theta) = m_e c^2 (\nu_i - \nu_f)$$



$$\tilde{P}^2 = 0$$

$$\tilde{Q}^2 = \Gamma^2 m_e^2 c^2 - \Gamma^2 m_e^2 v^2 = m_e^2 c^2$$

$$\nu_f = \frac{\nu_i}{1 + \frac{h\nu_i}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \theta)}$$

Compton scattering

Energy exchange

$$\nu_f = \frac{\nu_i}{1 + \frac{h\nu_i}{m_e c^2}(1 - \cos \theta)}$$

$$\lambda_f - \lambda_i = \frac{h}{m_e c}(1 - \cos \theta) = \lambda_c(1 - \cos \theta) \geq 0$$

↑
Compton wavelength
 $\sim 2.426 \times 10^{-10}$ cm

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i}{1 + \epsilon_i(1 - \cos \theta)}$$

If $h\nu_i \ll m_e c^2$ we can do
a Taylor expansion

$$\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{\epsilon_i} = \frac{\nu_f - \nu_i}{\nu_i} \simeq \frac{1}{\nu_i} \left[\nu_i \left(1 - \frac{h\nu_i}{m_e c^2} [1 - \cos \theta] \right) - \nu_i \right] = -\frac{h\nu_i}{m_e c^2} (1 - \langle \cos \theta \rangle) = -\frac{h\nu_i}{m_e c^2}$$

If $h\nu_i \ll m_e c^2$:
Thomson limit

$$\epsilon_i \sim \epsilon_f$$

The scattering can be
considered elastic

If $h\nu_i > m_e c^2$: need **Klein-Nishina** treatment
as the scattering is inelastic

Compton scattering

Energy exchange

$$\nu_f = \frac{\nu_i}{1 + \frac{h\nu_i}{m_e c^2}(1 - \cos \theta)}$$

$$\lambda_f - \lambda_i = \frac{h}{m_e c}(1 - \cos \theta) = \lambda_c(1 - \cos \theta) \geq 0$$

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If $h\nu_i \ll m_e c^2$:
Thomson limit

$$\epsilon_i \sim \epsilon_f$$

The scattering can be
considered elastic

**The photon loses a
small amount of
energy**

If $h\nu_i > m_e c^2$: need **Klein-Nishina** treatment
as the scattering is inelastic

Inverse Compton scattering

Energy exchange

In the Inverse Compton the electron moves with velocity v and the energy can be transferred from the electron to the photon.

Trick: we can use the expression derived for the direct Compton scattering in the electron rest frame K' and transform using Lorentz transformations

Direct Compton

$$K : \epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i}{1 + \frac{\epsilon_i}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \alpha)}$$
$$K' : \epsilon'_f = \frac{\epsilon'_i}{1 + \frac{\epsilon'_i}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \alpha')}$$

Inverse Compton scattering

Energy exchange

In the Inverse Compton the electron moves with velocity v and the energy can be transferred from the electron to the photon.

Trick: we can use the expression derived for the direct Compton scattering in the electron rest frame K' and transform using Lorentz transformations.

Direct Compton

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$$K' : \epsilon'_f = \frac{\epsilon'_i}{1 + \frac{\epsilon'_i}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \alpha')^*}$$

* α is the scattering angle, hence the angle between the initial and final photon direction : $\cos \alpha' = \vec{n}'_f \cdot \vec{n}'_i$

In spherical coordinates: $(\vec{n}'_i) : (\sin \theta'_i \cos \phi'_i, \sin \theta'_i \sin \phi'_i, \cos \theta'_i)$
 $(\vec{n}'_f) : (\sin \theta'_f \cos \phi'_f, \sin \theta'_f \sin \phi'_f, \cos \theta'_f)$

$$\cos \alpha' = \cos \theta'_i \cos \theta'_f + \sin \theta'_i \sin \theta'_f \cos(\phi'_i - \phi'_f)$$

Relativistic aberration $\cos \theta = \frac{\cos \theta' + \beta}{1 + \beta \cos \theta'}$

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Direct Compton

$$K : \epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i}{1 + \frac{\epsilon_i}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \alpha)}$$

$$K' : \epsilon'_f = \frac{\epsilon'_i}{1 + \frac{\epsilon'_i}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \alpha')}$$

Lorentz transformations between K' and K

$$\epsilon'_i = \epsilon_i \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i)$$

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon'_f}{\Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_f)} = \epsilon'_f \Gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)$$

$$\epsilon'_f = \frac{\epsilon'_i}{1 + \epsilon'_i (1 - \cos \alpha')} \quad \epsilon'_i = \epsilon_i \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i)$$

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)}{1 + \frac{\epsilon_i}{m_e c^2} \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 - \cos \alpha')}$$

Inverse Compton scattering

Energy exchange

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)}{1 + \epsilon_i \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 - \cos \alpha')}$$

In Thomson regime $\epsilon'_f \simeq \epsilon'_i \iff 1 - \cos \alpha' = 0$:

$$\epsilon'_i \ll m_e c^2 \iff \epsilon_i \ll \frac{m_e c^2}{\Gamma}$$

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)}{1 + \cancel{\epsilon_i \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 - \cos \alpha')}} \propto \Gamma^2 \epsilon_i$$

Head on scattering $\theta_i = \pi$:

$$\epsilon_f = \epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 + \beta) (1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)$$

Maximize energy if $\theta'_f = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_f^{max} &= \epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 + \beta) (1 + \beta) \sim 4 \Gamma^2 \epsilon_i \\ &= \epsilon_i \frac{1}{1 - \beta^2} (1 + \beta)^2 = \epsilon_i \frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta} \end{aligned}$$

Inverse Compton scattering

Energy exchange

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 + \beta \cos \theta_f')}{1 + \frac{\epsilon_i}{m_e c^2} \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 - \cos \alpha')}$$

In the Klein-Nishina limit:

$$\epsilon_i' \gg m_e c^2 \implies \epsilon_i \gg \frac{m_e c^2}{\Gamma}$$

$$\approx \frac{\cancel{\epsilon_i} \Gamma^2 (1 - \cancel{\beta \cos \theta_i}) (1 + \beta \cos \theta_f')}{\frac{\cancel{\epsilon_i}}{m_e c^2} \Gamma (1 - \cancel{\beta \cos \theta_i}) (1 - \cos \alpha')} \propto \Gamma m_e c^2$$

Inverse Compton scattering

Energy exchange

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)}{1 + \frac{\epsilon_i}{m_e c^2} \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) (1 - \cos \alpha')}$$

In the Klein-Nishina limit:

$$\approx \frac{\cancel{\epsilon_i} \Gamma^2 (1 - \cancel{\beta \cos \theta_i}) (1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)}{\frac{\cancel{\epsilon_i}}{m_e c^2} \Gamma (1 - \cancel{\beta \cos \theta_i}) (1 - \cos \alpha')} \propto \Gamma m_e c^2$$

Summary:

Condition for Thomson limit:

$$\epsilon'_i \ll m_e c^2 \implies \epsilon_i \ll \frac{m_e c^2}{\Gamma}$$

$$\epsilon_f \propto \Gamma^2 \epsilon_i$$

In Thomson photons are boosted by Γ^2

Klein-Nishina limit if:

$$\epsilon'_i \gg m_e c^2 \implies \epsilon_i \gg \frac{m_e c^2}{\Gamma}$$

$$\epsilon_f \propto \Gamma m_e c^2$$

In KN photons are emitted at energies similar to the electron

The photon always gain energy; in the KN limit a large fraction of energy of electron is transferred

Inverse Compton scattering

Thomson and Klein-Nishina limits: where do they apply

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon'_f}{\Gamma(1 - \beta \cos \theta_f)} = \epsilon'_f \Gamma(1 + \beta \cos \theta'_f)$$

Condition for Thomson regime:

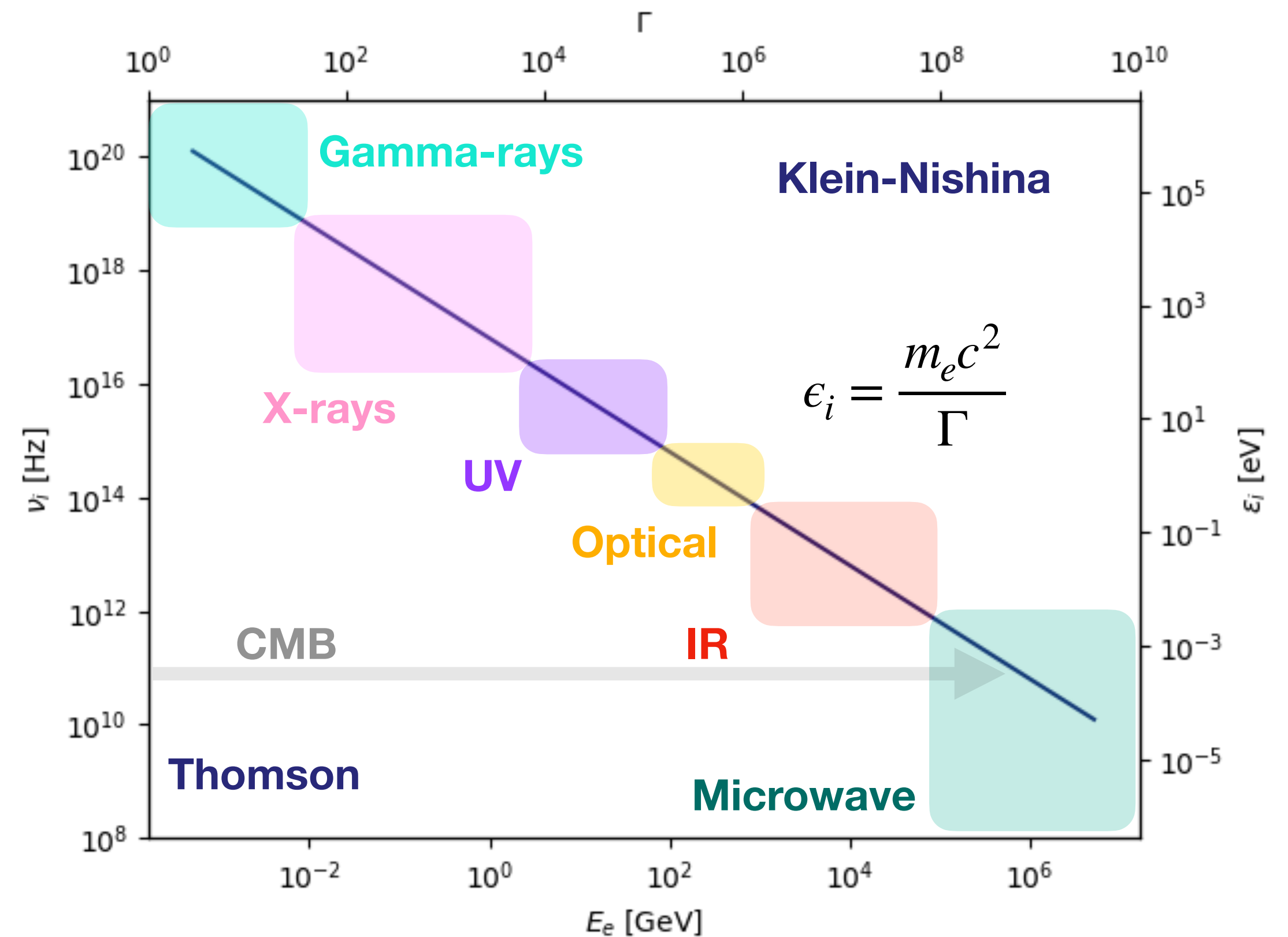
$$\epsilon'_i \ll m_e c^2 \implies \epsilon_i \ll \frac{m_e c^2}{\Gamma} \quad \epsilon_f \propto \Gamma^2 \epsilon_i$$

Evaluated in the system where the electron is at rest

In the lab. system

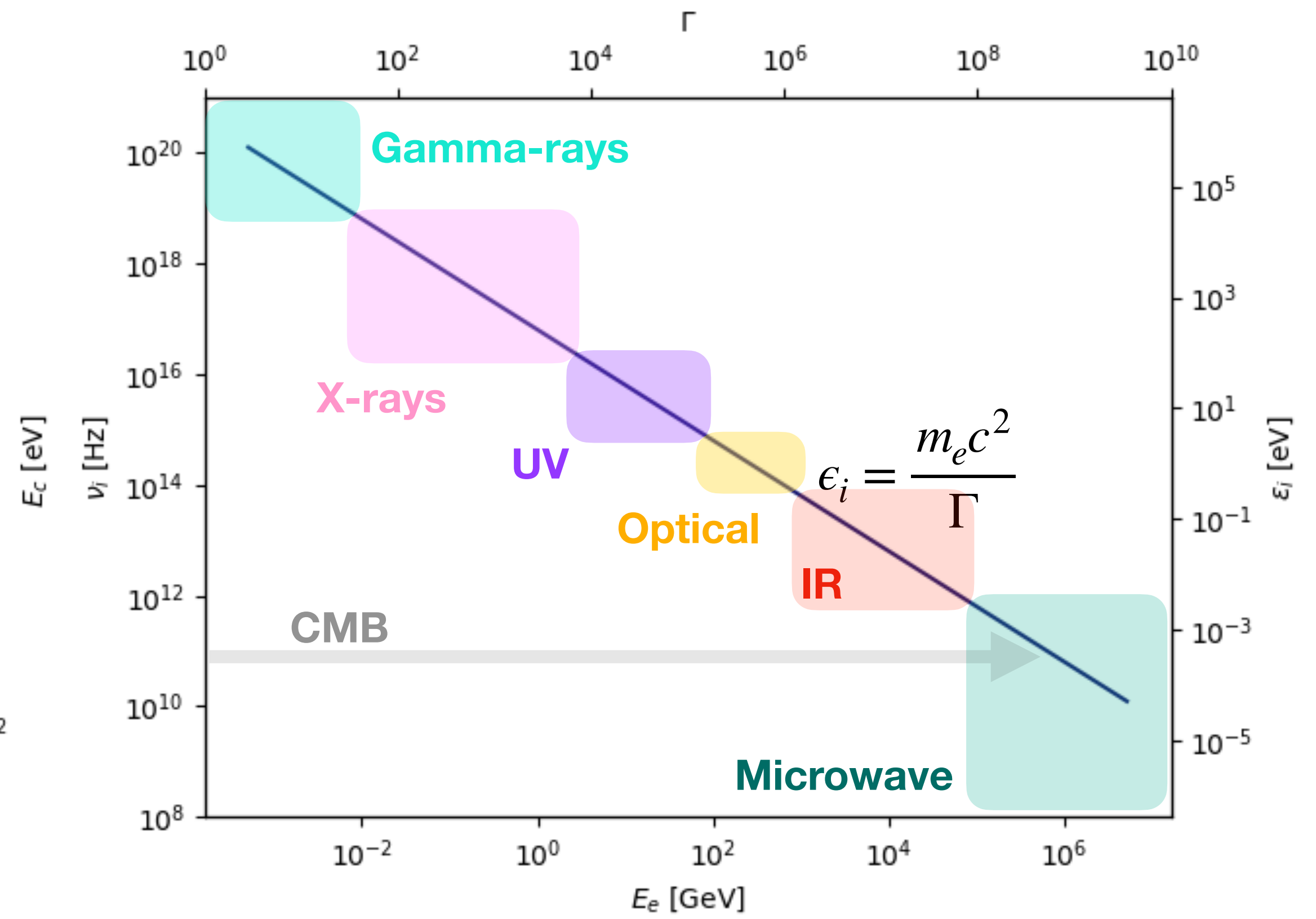
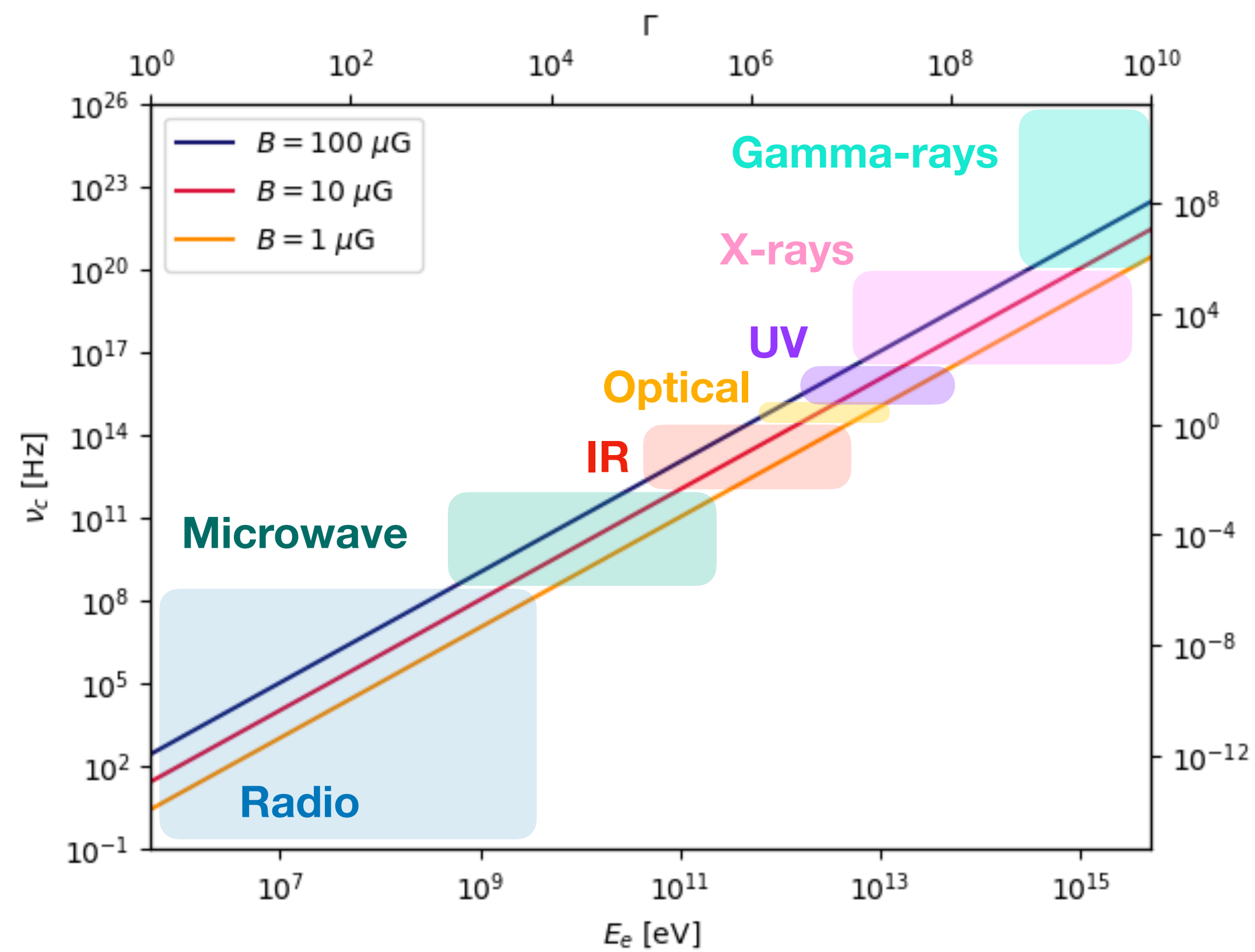
Klein-Nishina limit if:

$$\epsilon'_i \gg m_e c^2 \implies \epsilon_i \gg \frac{m_e c^2}{\Gamma} \quad \epsilon_f \propto \Gamma m_e c^2$$



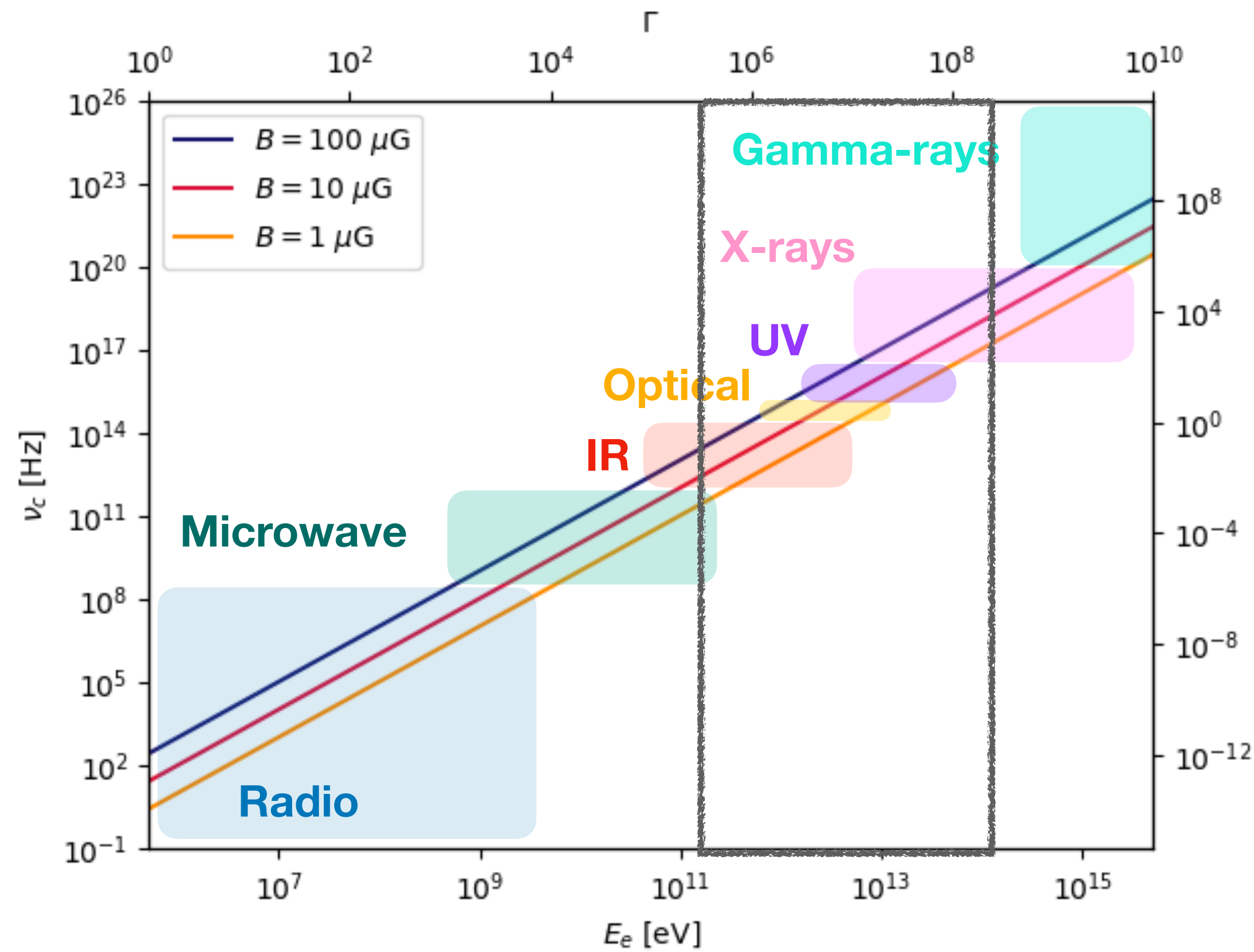
Inverse Compton scattering

Where do high energy electron emits?

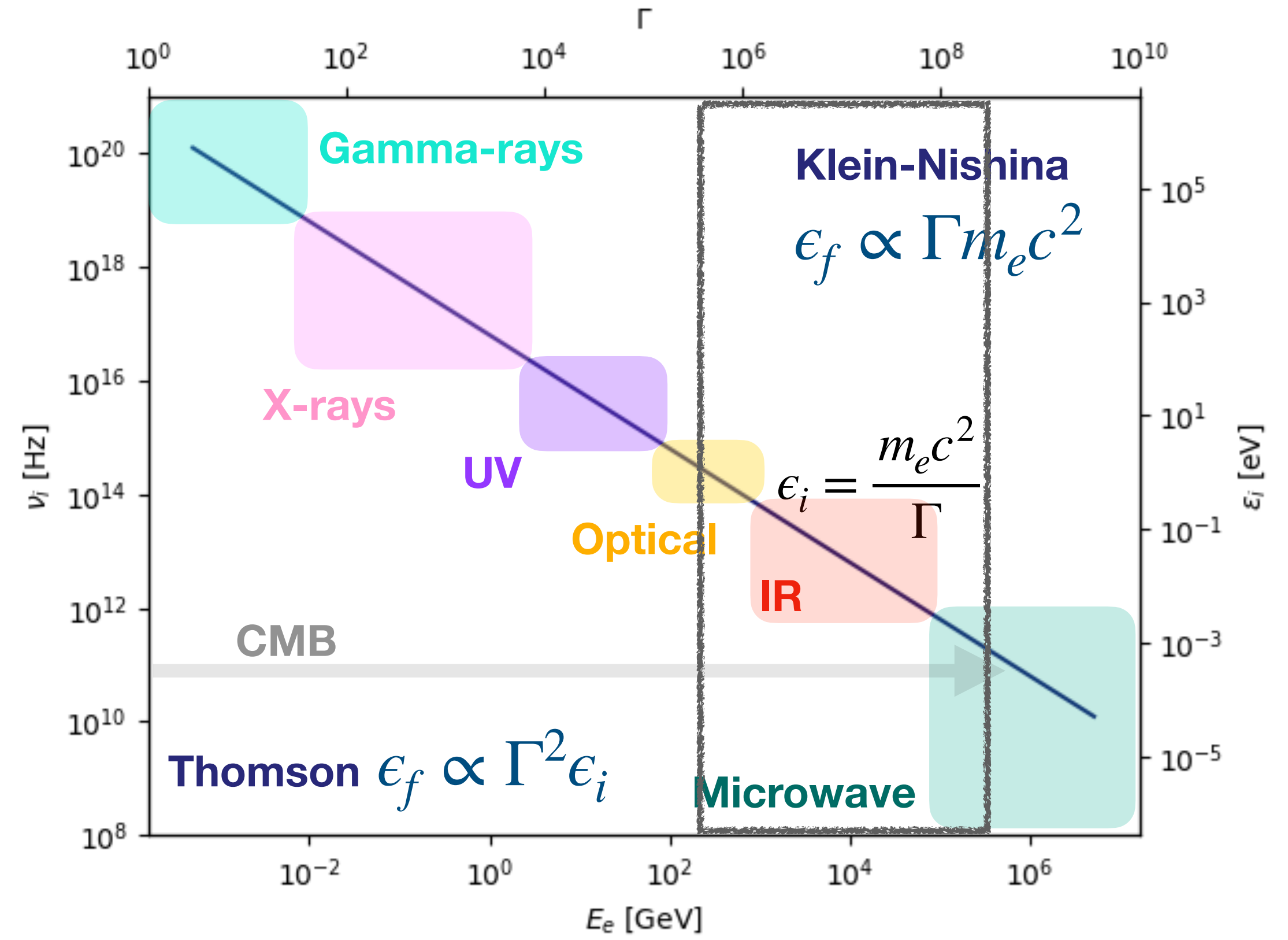


Inverse Compton scattering

Where do high energy electron emits?



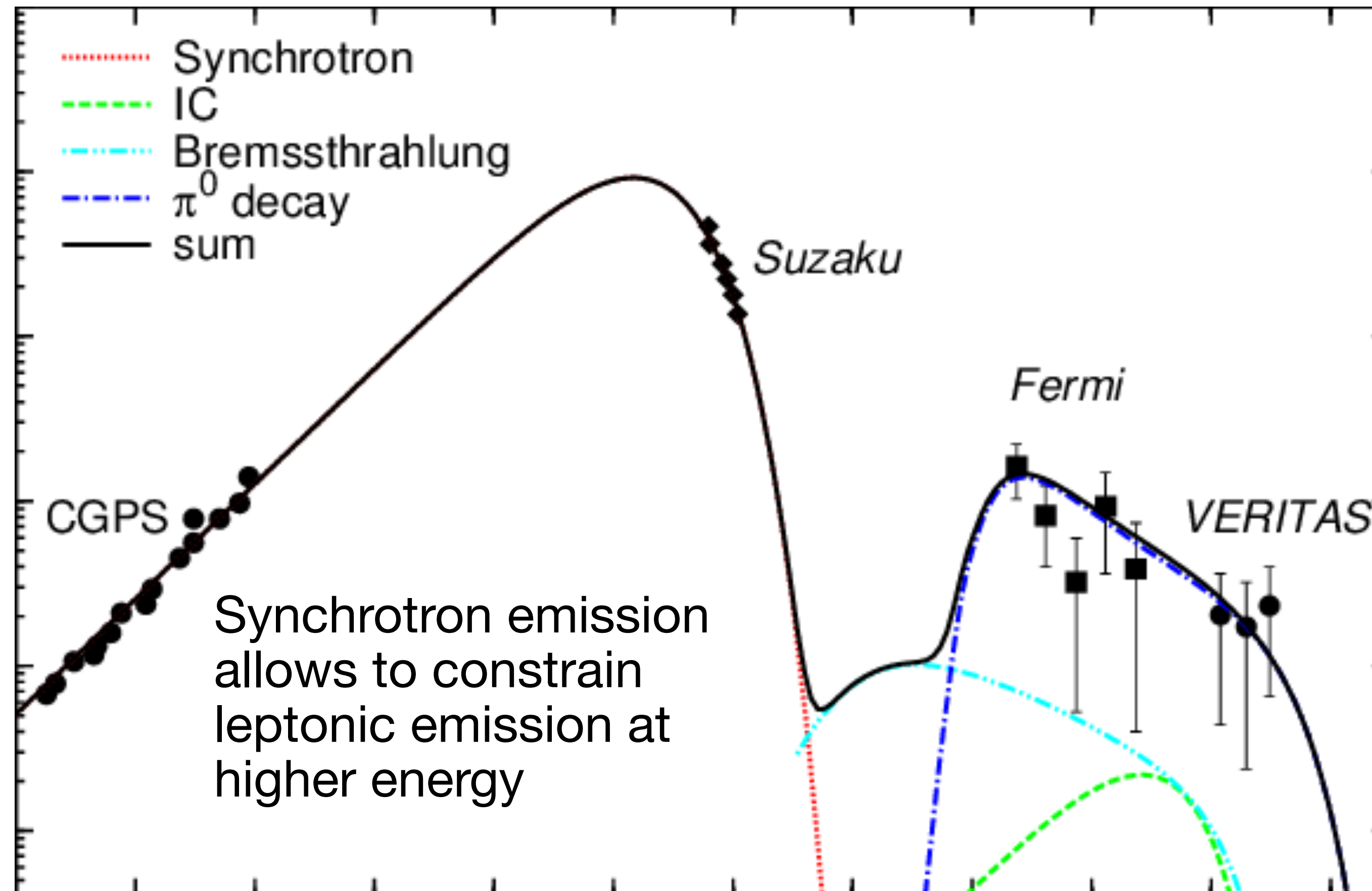
100 GeV - 100 TeV
 Characteristic Synchrotron emission is in the Optical-UV, and soft X



100 GeV - 100 TeV
 Klein-Nishina is triggered by IR photons. $\epsilon_f \sim E_e$
 CMB triggers KN for $E_e > 100$ TeV CTAO probed energies

Inverse Compton vs. Synchrotron

The example of young SNR Tycho (Morlino & Caprioli 2012)



Inverse Compton scattering

Emitted power

Larmor formula $P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |\ddot{\vec{v}}|^2$

$$|\dot{\vec{v}}|^2 \sim \left(\frac{eE}{m} \right)^2$$

$$S = cU_{rad} = \frac{c}{4\pi} E^2$$

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2}{c^3} \frac{e^2}{m^2} 4\pi U_{rad} = \sigma_T c U_{rad} \quad \text{This is in the Thomson limit}$$

Trick: we evaluate the emitted power in the Thomson limit where the electron is at rest

Emitted power via Larmor

Evaluated in the system where the electron is at rest

$$-\frac{dE'}{dt'} = \sigma_T c U'_{rad} = \sigma_T c \int N'_{ph}(\epsilon') \epsilon'_f(\epsilon', \alpha') d\epsilon'$$

Use Lorentz invariant: $\frac{N_{ph}(\epsilon) d\epsilon}{\epsilon} = \frac{N'_{ph}(\epsilon') d\epsilon'}{\epsilon'}$ and $\epsilon' = \epsilon \Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta)$

$$U'_{rad} = \int \epsilon' N'_{ph}(\epsilon') d\epsilon' = \int \epsilon'^2 \frac{N_{ph}(\epsilon) d\epsilon}{\epsilon} = \int \epsilon^2 \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \theta)^2 \frac{N_{ph}(\epsilon) d\epsilon}{\epsilon} = \int \epsilon^2 \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \theta)^2 \frac{N_{ph}(\epsilon) d\epsilon}{\epsilon} = \dots = \Gamma^2 \left(1 + \frac{\beta^2}{3} \right) U_{rad}$$

Averaging over the cosine

Inverse Compton scattering

Emitted power

Larmor formula $P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |\ddot{\vec{v}}|^2$

$$|\dot{\vec{v}}|^2 \sim \left(\frac{eE}{m} \right)^2$$
$$S = cU_{rad} = \frac{c}{4\pi} E^2$$
$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2}{c^3} \frac{e^2}{m^2} 4\pi U_{rad} = \sigma_T c U_{rad}$$

$$-\frac{dE'}{dt'} = \sigma_T c U'_{rad} = \sigma_T c \int N'_{ph}(\epsilon') \epsilon'_f(\epsilon', \alpha') d\epsilon'$$
$$= \sigma_T c \Gamma^2 \left(1 + \frac{\beta^2}{3} \right) U_{rad} \quad \text{This is the emitted power...}$$

... electrons also *absorb* energy from the photons.

Inverse Compton scattering

Energy losses

$$-\frac{dE'}{dt'} = \sigma_T c \Gamma^2 \left(1 + \frac{\beta^2}{3}\right) U_{rad}$$

This is the *emitted* power...

... electrons also *absorb* energy from the photons.

$$P_{IC} = -\frac{dE_e}{dt} = \sigma_T c (U'_{rad} - U_{rad}) = \sigma_T c \left(\Gamma^2 + \frac{\Gamma^2 \beta^2}{3} - 1 \right) U_{rad} = \frac{4}{3} \Gamma^2 \beta^2 \sigma_T c U_{rad}$$

Incoming power

$\Gamma^2 - 1 = \Gamma^2 \beta^2$

Independent of spectra of incident photons, only radiation density matters

Similar to $\langle P_{sync} \rangle = \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T \left(\frac{m_e}{m} \right)^2 \Gamma^2 u_B$

Inverse Compton scattering

Energy losses - generalization

General correction including the energy exchange in the scattering (Blumenthal and Gould 1970)

$$P_{IC} = \frac{4}{3} \Gamma^2 \beta^2 \sigma_T c U_{rad} \left[1 - \frac{63}{10} \frac{\Gamma}{m_e c^2} + \frac{\langle \epsilon_i^2 \rangle}{\langle \epsilon_i \rangle} \dots \right] \quad \text{Spectral shape matters here}$$

- ▶ If electrons are distributed as a power-law $N_e(\Gamma) = C\gamma^{-p}$

$$P_{IC} = \frac{4}{3} \Gamma^2 \beta^2 \sigma_T c U_{rad} \frac{C}{3-p} (\Gamma_{max}^{3-p} - \Gamma_{min}^{3-p}) \quad P_{IC}^{KN} \propto \sigma_T \Gamma^2 U_{rad} F(\Gamma)$$

- ▶ If electrons have thermal distribution $\langle \beta^2 \rangle = \frac{3k_B T}{m_e c^2}$

$$P_{IC} = \left(\frac{4k_B T}{m_e c^2} \right) \sigma_T c N_e U_{rad}$$

Inverse Compton scattering

Cooling time

$$P_{IC} = \frac{4}{3}\Gamma^2\beta^2\sigma_T c U_{rad} \quad \text{— Thomson limit}$$

$$t_{loss} = \frac{E_e}{|dE_e/dt|} = \frac{\Gamma m_e c^2}{P_{IC}} \simeq 3 \times 10^7 \frac{1}{\Gamma U_{rad}} \text{ s}$$

$$P_{IC} = \frac{4}{3}\Gamma^2\beta^2\sigma_T c U_{rad} \frac{C}{3-p} (\Gamma_{max}^{3-p} - \Gamma_{min}^{3-p}) \propto \Gamma^2 U_{rad} F(\Gamma) \quad \text{— Approximation for PL}$$

$$t_{loss} = \frac{E_e}{|dE_e/dt|} = \frac{\Gamma m_e c^2}{P_{IC}} \simeq 3 \times 10^7 \frac{1}{\Gamma U_{rad} F(\Gamma)} \text{ s}$$

The loss time increase as a function of Γ

Inverse Compton scattering vs Synchrotron

Electrons cooling time

Synchrotron:

$$t_{cool}(\Gamma) = 7.8 \times 10^8 \frac{1}{B^2 \Gamma} \text{ s}$$

Compare with:

Inverse Compton:

$$t_{loss} \simeq 3 \times 10^7 \frac{1}{\Gamma U_{rad} F(\Gamma)} \text{ s} \quad F(\Gamma) \text{ e.g. from Khangulyan+2014}$$

$$\frac{t_{IC}}{t_{sync}} \propto \frac{U_B}{U_{rad}}$$

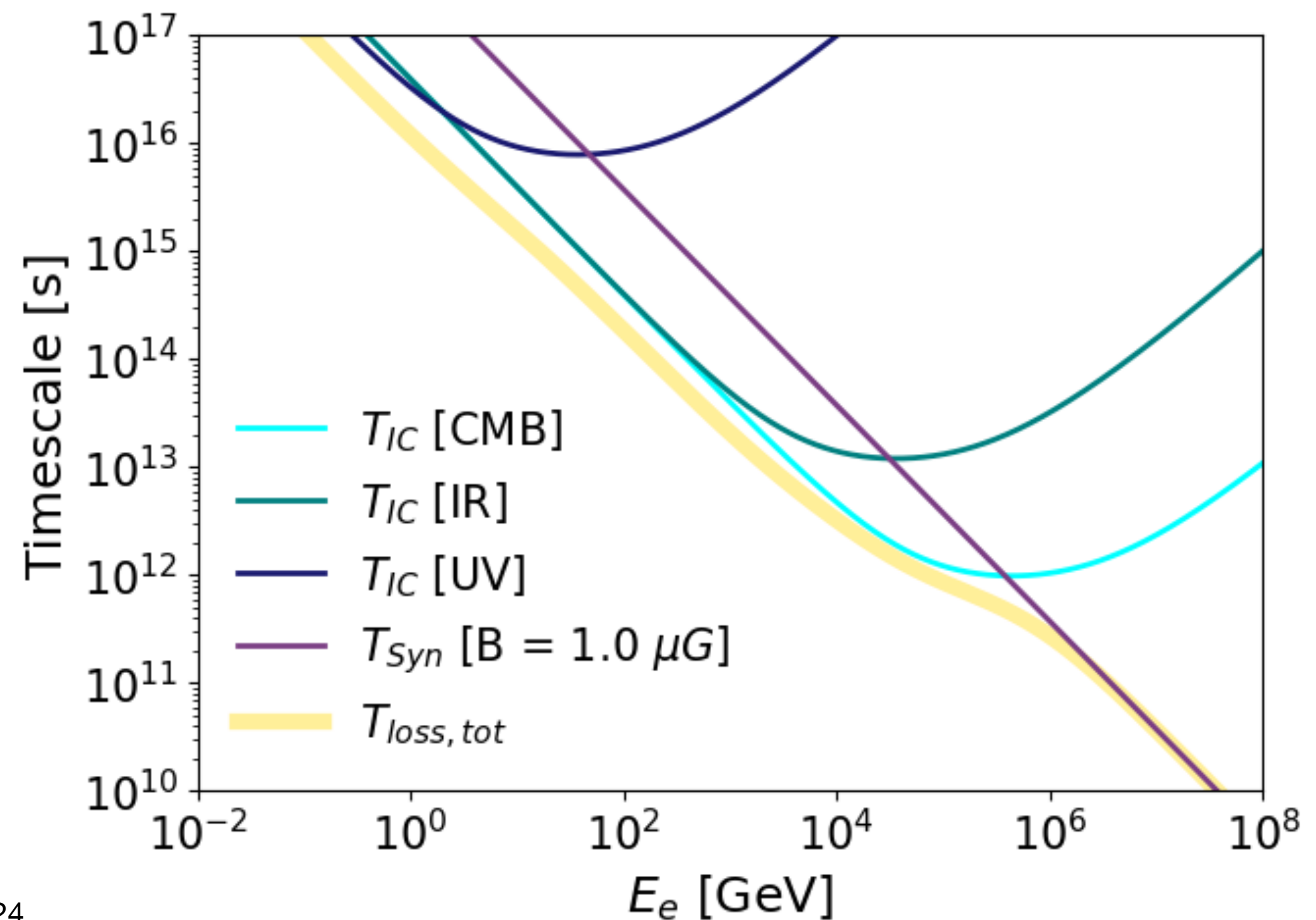
Average fields in the ISM

CMB: $U_{rad} = 0.25 \text{ eV cm}^{-3}$; $T = 2.7 \text{ K}$

IR: $U_{rad} = 0.25 \text{ eV cm}^{-3}$; $T = 30 \text{ K}$

UV: $U_{rad} = 0.37 \text{ eV cm}^{-3}$; $T = 3 \times 10^4 \text{ K}$

$B = 1 \mu\text{G}$



Inverse Compton scattering

Emission spectrum

In each scattering the photon is up-scattered from an energy ϵ_i to an energy ϵ_f

The **energy gain depends on** the relative angle of collision θ_i and on the scattering angle α'

The probability of ending up in α' is given by the cross section $\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}$

$$\dot{N}_f(\epsilon_f, \Omega_f) = \frac{dN_{ph}}{d\Omega_f dt d\epsilon_f} = c \int d\epsilon_i \int d\Omega_{ph,i} \int d\Gamma \int d\Omega_e (1 - \beta \cos \alpha) \frac{N_{e,0}}{4\pi} \Gamma^{-p} \times$$

$$\times \frac{N_{ph,0} \delta(\epsilon_i - \epsilon_0)}{4\pi} \sigma_T \delta(\epsilon_f - \epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \alpha)) \delta(\Omega_{ph,f} - \Omega_e)$$

$$\epsilon_f = \frac{\epsilon'_f}{\Gamma(1 - \beta \cos \theta_f)} = \Gamma \epsilon'_f \quad *$$

$$\cos \theta_f \sim \beta$$

$$1 - \beta^2 = \Gamma^{-2}$$

Thomson condition:

$$* \Gamma \epsilon'_f = \Gamma \epsilon'_i = \Gamma^2 \epsilon_i (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i)$$

in lab.frame scattered photon follows electron propagation direction, i.e., $\theta_i \rightarrow \alpha$

* $\cos \alpha \sim \cos \theta_i$

Assumption: final direction of photon = initial direction of electron

Inverse Compton scattering

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Consider all possible angles

Distribution of electrons

$$\times \frac{N_{ph,0} \delta(\epsilon_i - \epsilon_0)}{4\pi} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \delta(\epsilon_f - \epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \alpha)) \delta(\Omega_{ph,f} - \Omega_e)$$

Monochromatic photon field:

Energy exchange

* $\cos \alpha \sim \cos \theta_i$

Assumption: final direction of photon = initial direction of electron

Compton scattering

Cross section

Klein-Nishina treatment of inelastic scattering

Klein-Nishina cross section (QED)

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{3}{16\pi} \sigma_T \left(\frac{\epsilon_f}{\epsilon_i} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\epsilon_i}{\epsilon_f} + \frac{\epsilon_f}{\epsilon_i} - \sin^2 \theta \right)$$

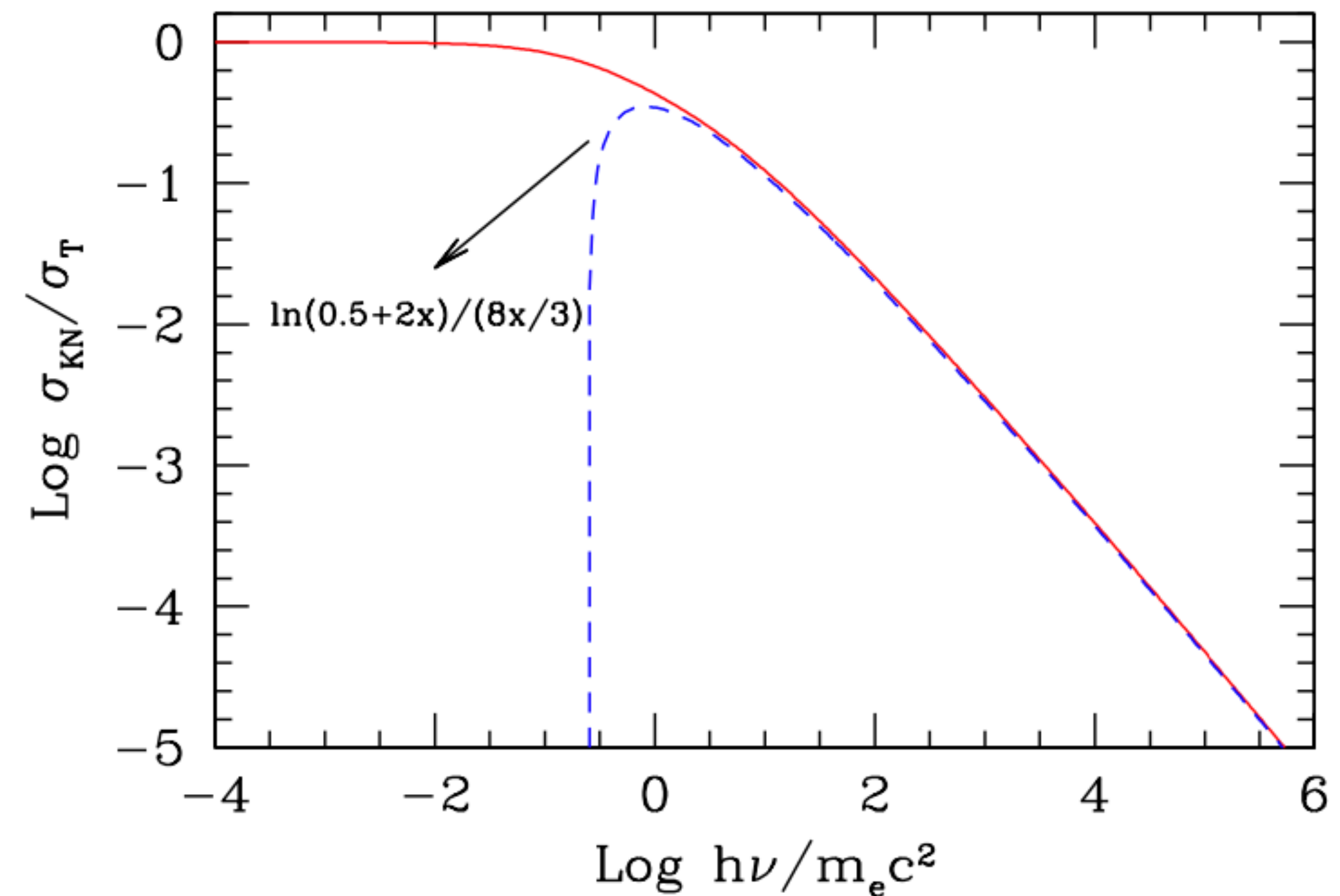
► Forward scattering is favored at higher energies

Integrating...

$$x = \frac{h\nu}{m_e c^2}$$

$$\sigma = 2\pi \int_0^\pi \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{3}{4} \sigma_T \left[\frac{1+x}{x^3} \left(\frac{2x(1+x)}{1+2x} - \ln(1+2x) \right) + \frac{1}{2x} \ln(1+2x) - \frac{1+3x}{(1+2x)^2} \right]$$

► At high energies the cross section is reduced compared to classical Thomson cross section



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma(x) \simeq \sigma_T (1 - 2x + \dots) \quad x = \frac{h\nu}{m_e c^2} \ll 1 \\ \sigma(x) \simeq \frac{3}{8} \sigma_T \frac{1}{x} \left(\ln 2x + \frac{1}{2} \right) \quad x = \frac{h\nu}{m_e c^2} \gg 1 \end{array} \right.$$

Inverse Compton scattering

Emission spectrum: relativistic electrons over mono-energetic photons

$$\dot{N}_f(\epsilon_f, \Omega_f) = \frac{dN_{ph}}{d\Omega_f dt d\epsilon_f} = c \int d\epsilon_i \int d\Omega_{ph,i} \int d\Gamma \int d\Omega_e (1 - \beta \cos \alpha) \frac{N_{e,0}}{4\pi} \Gamma^{-p} \times$$

$$\times \frac{N_{ph,0} \delta(\epsilon_i - \epsilon_0)}{4\pi} \sigma_T \delta(\epsilon_f - \epsilon_i \Gamma^2 (1 - \beta \cos \alpha)) \delta(\Omega_{ph,f} - \Omega_e)$$

$$\beta = 1$$

$$x = \epsilon_0 \Gamma^2 (1 - \cos \alpha)$$

$$\frac{dx}{d\Gamma} = \frac{2x}{\Gamma}$$

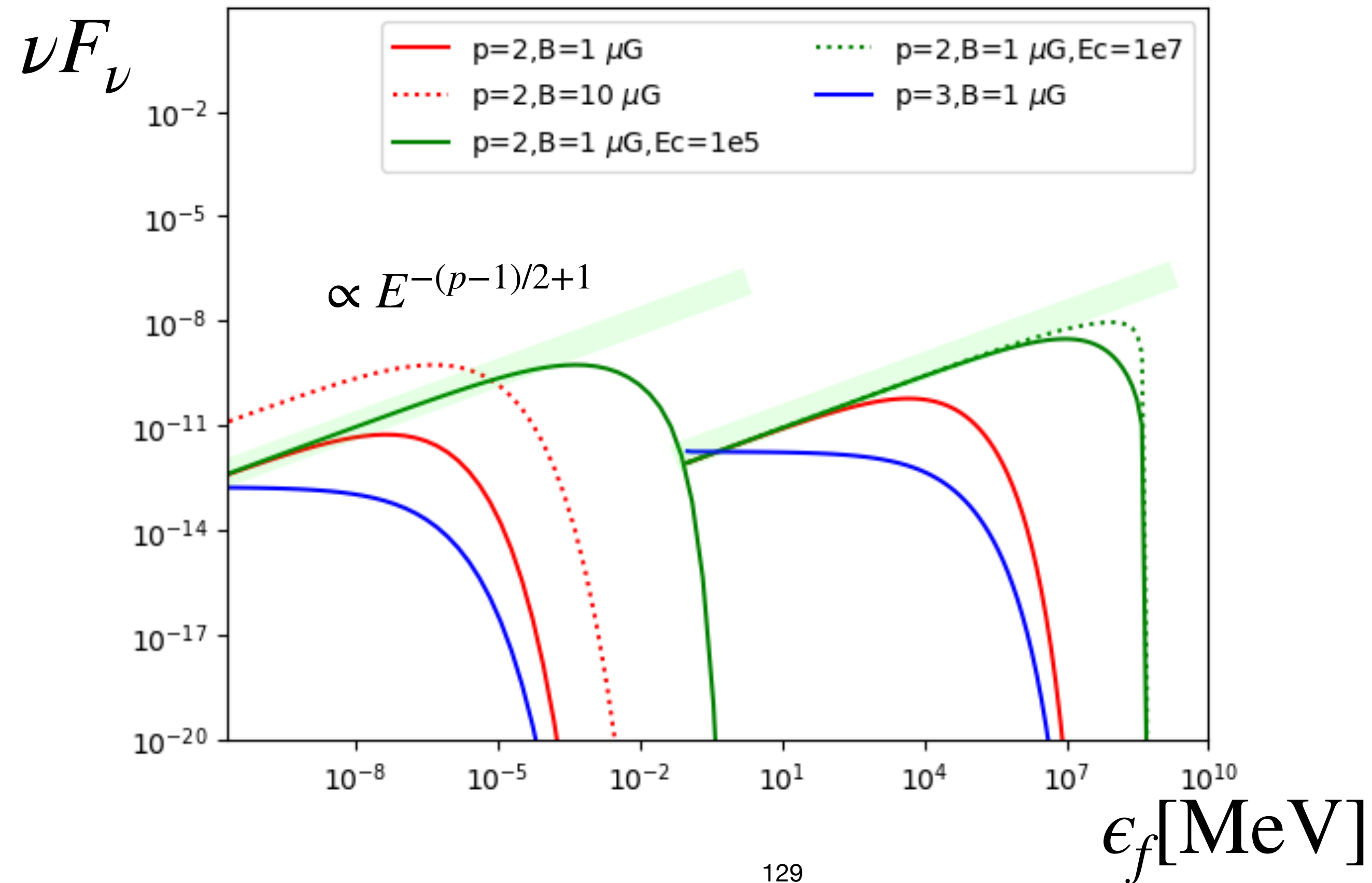
$$\propto \int \Gamma^{-p} \delta(\epsilon_f - \epsilon_0 \Gamma^2 (1 - \cos \alpha)) d\Gamma$$

$$\propto \int \Gamma^{-p+1} \delta(\epsilon_f - x) \frac{dx}{2x} \propto \frac{1}{2} \int x^{\frac{-p+1}{2} - 1} \delta(\epsilon_f - x) dx \propto \epsilon_f^{\frac{-(p+1)}{2}}$$

$$\dot{N}_f \propto \epsilon_f^{\frac{-(p+1)}{2}} \implies \epsilon_f \dot{N}_f \sim F_{IC} \propto \epsilon_f^{\frac{-(p+1)}{2} + 1} = \epsilon_f^{\frac{-(p-1)}{2}} \quad [F_{\nu, sync} \propto \nu^{\frac{-(p-1)}{2}}]$$

Inverse Compton vs. Synchrotron

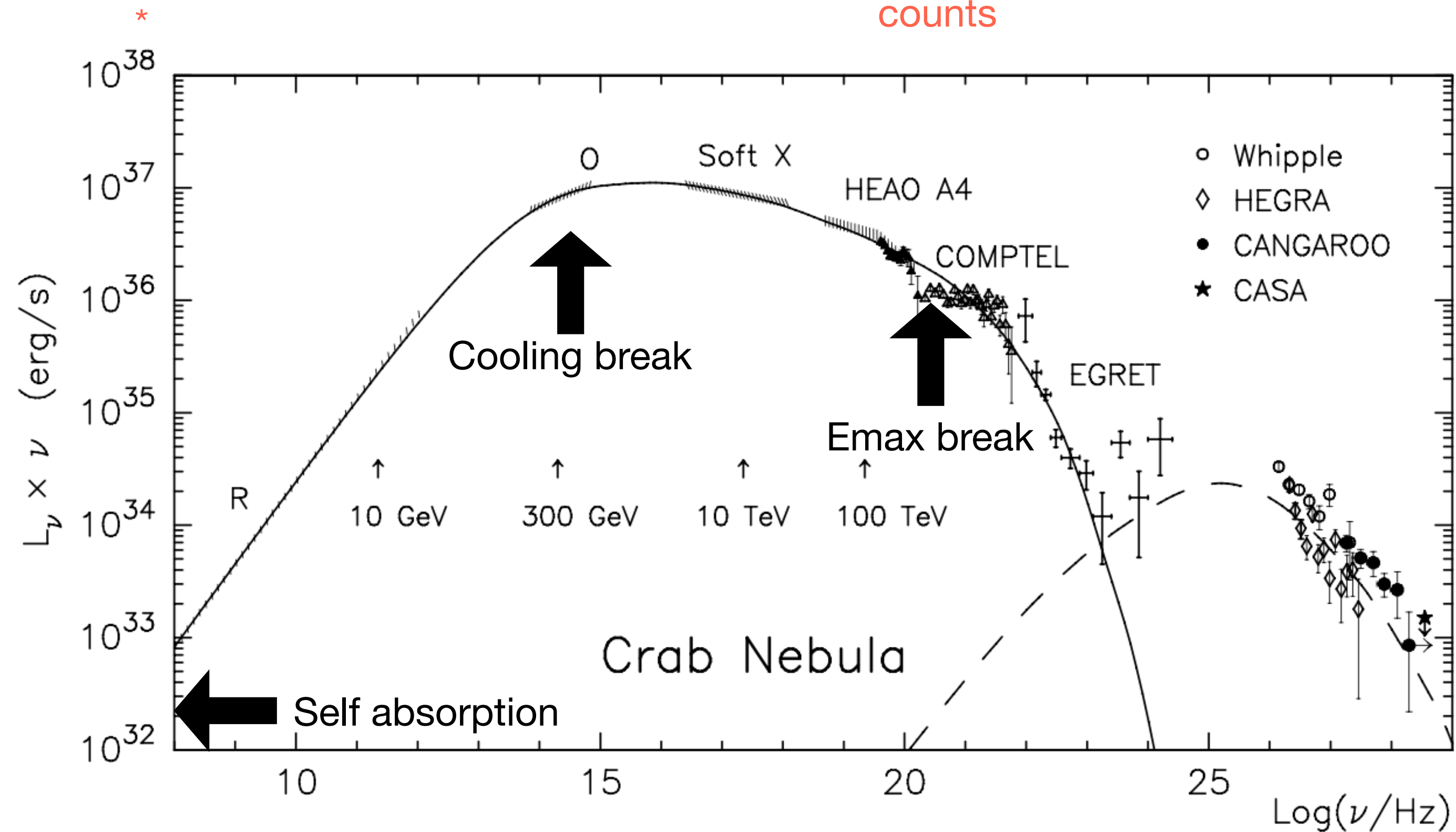
$$F_{IC} \propto \epsilon_f^{-(p-1)/2} \quad // \quad F_{sync} \propto \nu^{-(p-1)/2}$$



Inverse Compton vs. Synchrotron

$$F_{IC} \propto \epsilon_f^{-(p-1)/2} \quad // \quad F_{sync} \propto \nu^{-(p-1)/2}$$

* In the energy range.. not affected by self absorption, cooling, Klein Nishina, where monochromatic photon fields counts



Inverse Compton + Synchrotron

A special photon field: Synchrotron Self Compton (SSC)

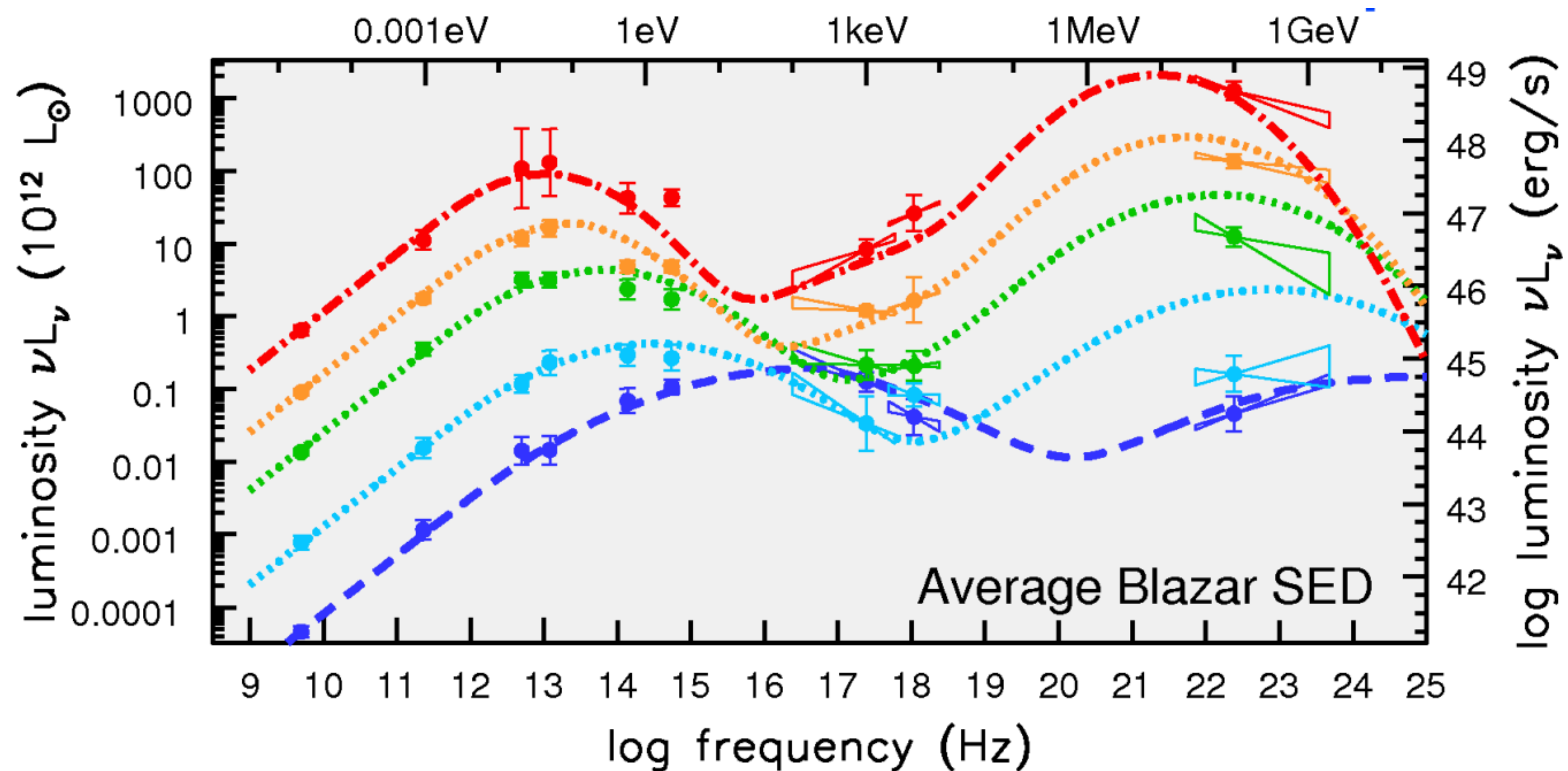
Synchrotron emission produces a power-law spectrum $\propto \nu^{-\alpha}$. If radiation interacts with the relativistic electrons we have Synchrotron self Compton effect. Electrons see the photons with ν'

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{IC} &\propto \nu \int d\nu' \frac{\nu'^{-\alpha}}{\nu'} \int d\Gamma \Gamma^{-p} \delta\left(\nu - \frac{4}{3}\Gamma^2\nu'\right) \\
 &\quad \text{Synchrotron photon field} \quad \text{All electrons} \\
 &\quad \alpha = \frac{(p+1)}{2} \quad \text{Average frequency after IC scattering} \\
 &\propto \nu \iint d\nu' d\Gamma \nu'^{-\alpha-1} \Gamma^{-2\alpha-1} \delta\left(\nu - \frac{4}{3}\Gamma^2\nu'\right) \\
 &\quad x = \frac{4}{3}\Gamma^2\nu' \\
 &\propto \nu \iint dx d\Gamma \nu'^{-\alpha-1} \Gamma^{-2\alpha-1} \delta(\nu - x) \propto \nu \int dx x^{-\alpha-1} \delta(x - \nu) \propto \nu^{-\alpha}
 \end{aligned}$$

SSC have the same slope as synchrotron

Inverse Compton + Synchrotron

A special photon field: Synchrotron Self Compton (SSC)



Take home messages

- Hadronic and Leptonic emission characterize the high-energy spectra
- **Hadronic processes** have a characteristic energy **threshold** and their spectrum reflects the spectrum of particles; hadrons do **not** suffer **significant energy losses** at high energies.
- **Leptonic processes** are present throughout the **entire electromagnetic spectrum**. Leptonic interactions shape the spectrum of parent electrons. **Losses are energy dependent**.
 - **Synchrotron** emission is important **from radio to X-rays**, tells us information on the parent electron spectrum, but we need to account for self-absorption and spectral distortion due to cooling;
 - **Inverse Compton** in the Thomson limit mimics the shape of the Synchrotron emission; in the Klein Nishina limit the spectrum falls off quickly, the process is less efficient but more catastrophic. **KN** is important for **TeV electrons** in the presence of enhanced **IR radiation**;
 - **Bremsstrahlung** can emerge only in very **dense environments where $N_e > N_p$** , or below threshold for pion production and is in general subdominant at TeV energies.

Practical summary

	Energy of the photons	Gamma-ray slope	Tloss
pp-interaction	10 % parent particles	$\sim p$	$5.4 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{n}{\text{cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-1} \text{yr}$
Bremsstrahlung	$\sim 50\%$ parent particles	$\sim p$	$4 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{n}{\text{cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-1} \text{yr}$
Synchrotron	$\nu_c \simeq 280 \Gamma^2 \left(\frac{B}{10^{-4} \text{ G}} \right) \text{Hz}$	$-(p-1)/2 (+1)$ (SED)	$7.8 \times 10^8 \frac{1}{B^2 \Gamma} \text{ s}$
Inverse Compton	$\epsilon_f \propto \Gamma^2 \epsilon_i$ $\epsilon_f \propto \Gamma m_e c^2$	$-(p-1)/2 (+1)$ (SED) [Before KN]	$3 \times 10^7 \frac{1}{\Gamma U_{rad} F(\Gamma)} \text{ s}$