### Nataly Ospina (Istituto Nazionale di Fisica Nucleare)



"GALAXIES PARTICUES, RAYS, WAVES.... I'VE NEVER ACTUALLY SEEN ANYTHING I'M REALLY INTERESTED IN."

- Non-Thermal radiation: hadronic processes (recap) vs. leptonic processes
- Electron distributions & normalizations
- Leptonic processes:
  - Synchrotron emission
  - Inverse Compton scattering
  - Non-thermal bremsstrahlung

- Non-Thermal radiation: hadronic processes (recap) vs. leptonic processes
- Electron distributions & normalizations
- Leptonic processes:
  - Synchrotron emission
  - Inverse Compton scattering
  - Non-thermal bremsstrahlung

#### Non-thermal radiation:

- Radiation produced out of thermal equilibrium
- Not described by Planck spectrum
- Typically: power-law energy distributions of particles
- Depends on acceleration processes.
- Common in **high-energy astrophysics**

Produced when particles are accelerated (it is not determined simply by temperature). It arises from physical processes such as shocks, turbulence, and strong electromagnetic fields

Hadronic processes are interactions of hadrons (strongly interacting particles such as protons and neutrons) that produce secondary particles, gamma rays, and neutrinos

# **Hadronic processes:**

- Proton-proton collisions
- Pion production & decay
- Gamma-ray and neutrino emission

Leptonic processes are interactions of leptons (electrons and positrons) that produce radiation through electromagnetic mechanisms such as synchrotron emission or inverse Compton scattering

# **Leptonic processes:**

- Synchrotron emission
- Inverse Compton scattering
- Non-thermal bremsstrahlung

**Leptonic processes\*** = interactions of relativistic electrons and positrons with matter

<sup>\*</sup>Distinct from *leptonic processes* (driven by protons/neutrons)

**Leptonic processes\*** = interactions of relativistic electrons and positrons with matter

 $\rightarrow$  leptonic interactions are a natural source of broadband radiation (from radio to  $\gamma$ -rays)



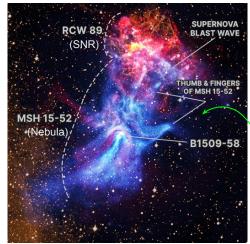
PSR B1509-58, Chandra X-ray Observatory. Credit: NASA/CXC/SAO/P.Slane, et al.

# **Leptonic processes\*** = interactions of relativistic electrons and positrons with matter

 $\rightarrow$  leptonic interactions are a natural source of broadband radiation (from radio to  $\gamma$ -rays)

#### Importance:

- Relativistic electrons are common in astrophysical sources
- Electrons radiate very efficiently (short cooling times)
- Produce synchrotron emission → explains radio to X-rays
- Produce inverse Compton γ-rays → often seen in PWNe, AGN jets, SNR shocks, GRN afterglows
- Generate bremsstrahlung γ-rays in dense environments
- Reveal conditions in sources: magnetic fields, ambient radiation, gas density
- Provide diagnostics complementary to hadronic channels (spectral slopes, polarization, cooling breaks)



Credit: X-ray: NASA/CXC/Univ. of Hong Kong/S. Zhang et al.; Radio: ATNF/CSIRO/ATCA; H-alpha: UK STFC/Royal Observatory Edinburgh; Image Processing: NASA/CXC/SAO/N. Wolk

Cloud of HE charged particles accelerated by the intense electromagnetic field of the pulsar

- Non-Thermal radiation: hadronic processes (recap) vs. leptonic processes
- Electron distributions & normalizations
- Leptonic processes:
  - Synchrotron emission
  - Inverse Compton scattering
  - Non-thermal bremsstrahlung

- Non-Thermal radiation: hadronic processes (recap) vs. leptonic processes
- Electron distributions & normalizations
- Leptonic processes:
  - Synchrotron emission
  - Inverse Compton scattering
  - Non-thermal bremsstrahlung

In *non-thermal* radiation we need to describe how particles are distributed in energy because that distribution controls the emitted radiation

From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E)$ 

In *non-thermal* radiation we need to describe how particles are distributed in energy because that distribution controls the emitted radiation

From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E)$ 

Spectrum is determined by the underlying energy distribution of the particles

=> particle (electron) energy distribution

$$N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma$$
 Number of electrons per unit volume in  $[\gamma,\gamma+d\gamma]$ 

In *non-thermal* radiation we need to describe how particles are distributed in energy because that distribution controls the emitted radiation

From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E)$ 

Spectrum is determined by the underlying energy distribution of the particles





Why **electron** energy distribution? «

 $\rightarrow$  Number of electrons per unit volume in  $[\gamma, \gamma + d\gamma]$ 

In *non-thermal* radiation we need to describe how particles are distributed in energy because that distribution controls the emitted radiation

From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E)$ 

Spectrum is determined by the underlying energy distribution of the particles



 $N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma$ 

Why **electron** energy distribution?

 $\rightarrow$  Number of electrons per unit volume in  $[\gamma, \gamma + d\gamma]$ 

- Formally: particle/lepton distribution (electrons + positrons)
- In astrophysical environments,  $e^-$  dominate in number
- Radiative processes (synchrotron, IC, bremsstrahlung) depends on square of the charge  $(q^2)$  is the same for  $e^-$  and  $e^+$  with the same  $\gamma$  and emit *identical radiation*
- Differences only appear in specific channels (e.g. pair annihilation  $e^+e^-$ )

In *non-thermal* radiation we need to describe how particles are distributed in energy because that distribution controls the emitted radiation

From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E)$ 

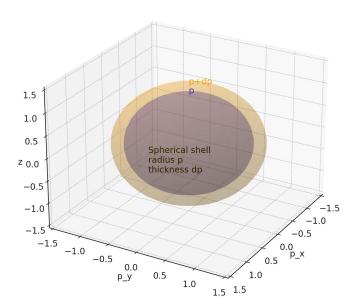
Spectrum is determined by the underlying energy distribution of the particles => particle (electron) energy distribution

$$N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma$$
 Number of electrons per unit volume in  $[\gamma,\gamma+d\gamma]$ 

Non-thermal distributions are power laws, controlled by acceleration physics

Typical power-law distribution:  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$   $\gamma_{\min} \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_{\max}$ 

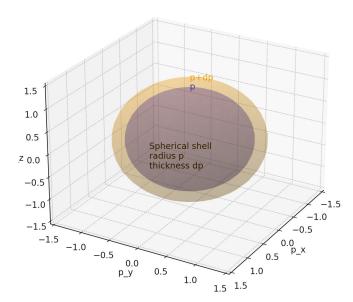
From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E) \longrightarrow (N_e(\gamma))$ 



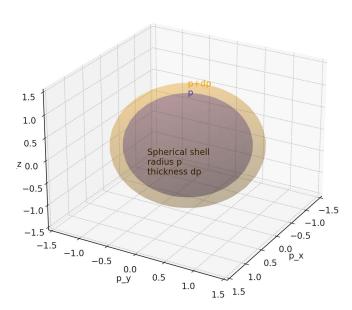
Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E) \longrightarrow N_e(\gamma)$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

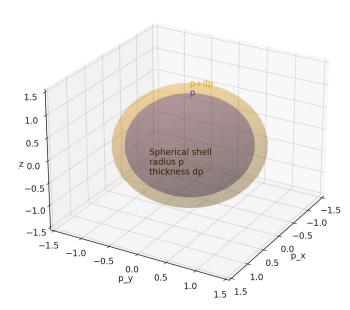


Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$



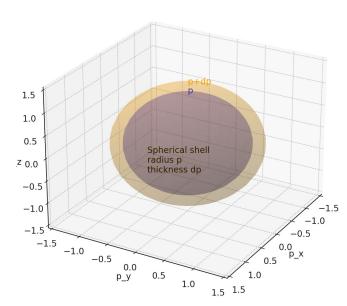
Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

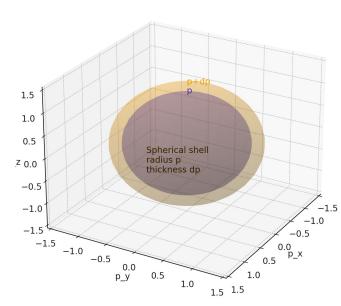
Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

-Measures how relativistic a particle is



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

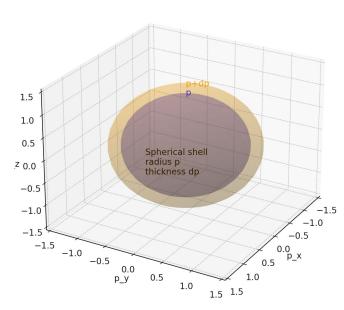
Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

-Measures how relativistic a particle is

$$\gamma = rac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

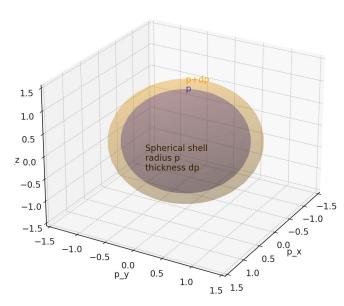
$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

$$\gamma = rac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$

If  $\,v\ll c$ :  $\,\gammapprox 1$ : The particle is almost non-relativistic

If v 
ightarrow c:  $\gamma \gg 1$ : The particle is ultra-relativistic



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

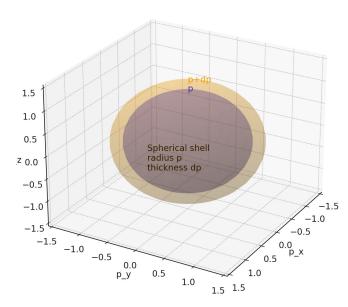
Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

$$\gamma = rac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$

If  $\,v\ll c\!:\gamma\approx 1\!:\,\,$  The particle is almost non-relativistic

If v 
ightarrow c:  $\gamma \gg 1$ : The particle is ultra-relativistic

Almost all leptonic radiation comes from  $e^{-}$  with  $y \gg 1$ 



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

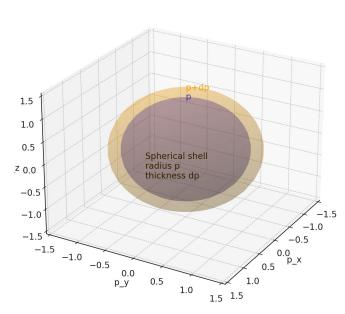
$$\gamma = rac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$

If  $\,v\ll c\!:\gamma\approx 1\!:\,\,$  The particle is almost non-relativistic

If v 
ightarrow c:  $\gamma \gg 1$ : The particle is ultra-relativistic

In **astrophysics**,  $\gamma$  is the natural variable to connect relativistic particles with the radiation they produce

From Momentum distribution to Energy Distribution:  $f(p) \longrightarrow N(E)$ 



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

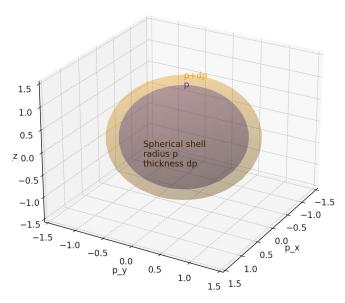
Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

$$\gamma = rac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$

Hadronic processes expressed in terms of E (not  $\gamma$ )  $\rightarrow$  why?



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2 \, dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

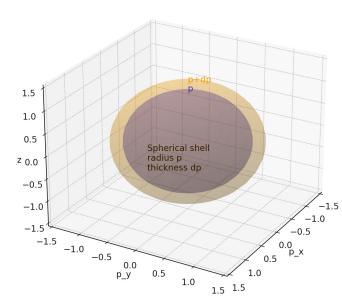
Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

- Protons are much heavier than  $e^- =>$  not always ultra-relativistic
- In astrophysical collisions (GeV–TeV), protons are relativistic but not as ultra-relativistic as  $e^- \rightarrow$  It is more natural to work with their kinetic or total energy
- Nuclear physics cross sections are tabulated as functions of proton lab energy  $E_{\sigma'}$ , not  $\gamma$
- **Proton synchrotron radiation** is negligible compared to  $e^- \to What$  matters is energy available to produce pions, best described by  $E_\rho$  or  $T_\rho$

=> hadronic interactions are conventionally expressed in terms of proton energy



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma$ :

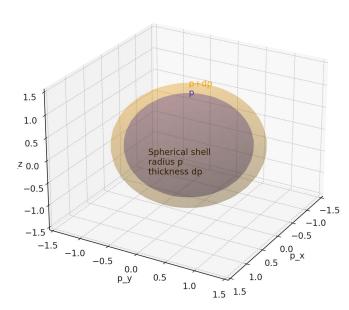
$$\gamma = rac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$

If  $v \ll c$ :  $\gamma \approx 1$ : The particle is almost non-relativistic

If v 
ightarrow c:  $\gamma \gg 1$ : The particle is ultra-relativistic

In terms of energy:

$$E=\gamma m_e c^2$$
  $\longrightarrow$   $\gamma$  measures the total energy in units of the rest energy  $m_e c^2$ 



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

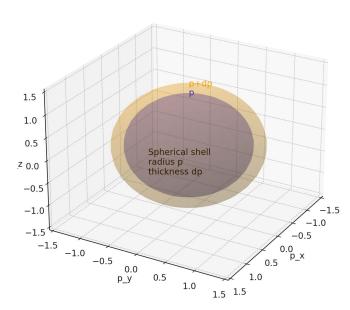
Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma =>$  energy and momentum for a relativistic electron:

$$E=\gamma m_e c^2, \quad p=\gamma m_e v$$



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

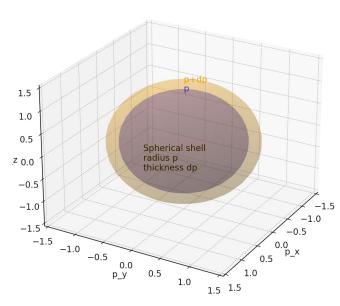
$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma =>$  energy and momentum for a relativistic electron:

$$E=\gamma m_e c^2, \quad p=\gamma m_e v$$

Relativistic energy–momentum relation:

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (m_ec^2)^2$$



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2\,dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

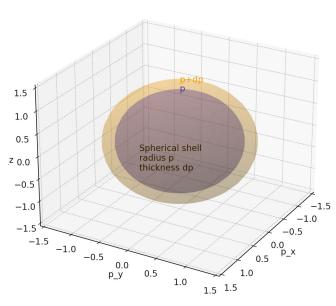
Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma =>$  energy and momentum for a relativistic electron:

$$\_\_E = \gamma m_e c^2, \quad p = \gamma m_e v$$

Relativistic energy–momentum relation:

$$E^2=(pc)^2+(m_ec^2)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
  $(\gamma m_e c^2)^2 = (pc)^2 + (m_e c^2)^2 \Rightarrow pc = m_e c^2 \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}$ 



Shell volume:  $dV_p = 4\pi p^2 \, dp$ 

Isotropic momentum distribution f(p)

Number of particles per unit volume in [p, p + dp]:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Change variable to *Lorentz factor*  $\gamma =>$  energy and momentum for a relativistic electron:

$$\_\_E = \gamma m_e c^2, \quad p = \gamma m_e v$$

Relativistic energy–momentum relation:

$$E^2=(pc)^2+(m_ec^2)^2$$

Differentiate to get the Jacobian  $dp/d\gamma$ :

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

Differentiate to get the Jacobian  $dp/d\gamma$ :

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}} \, igg|$$

Ultra-relativistic simplifications:

• If  $\gamma \gg 1$ , then  $\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \simeq \gamma$ , so:

Differentiate to get the Jacobian  $dp/d\gamma$ :

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

Ultra-relativistic simplifications:

• If  $\gamma \gg 1$ , then  $\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \simeq \gamma$ , so:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma$$

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c$$

Differentiate to get the Jacobian  $dp/d\gamma$ :

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

Ultra-relativistic simplifications:

• If  $\gamma\gg 1$ , then  $\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}\simeq \gamma$ , so:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma$$

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c$$

In the ultra-relativistic limit ( $E \gg m_e c^2$ ,  $v \approx c$ ):

$$E=\gamma m_e c^2, \quad p=\gamma m_e v$$

Differentiate to get the Jacobian  $dp/d\gamma$ :

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

Ultra-relativistic simplifications:

• If  $\gamma \gg 1$ , then  $\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \simeq \gamma$ , so:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma$$

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c$$

In the ultra-relativistic limit ( $E \gg m_e c^2$ ,  $v \approx c$ ):

$$E=\gamma m_e c^2, \quad p=\gamma m_e v \quad \longrightarrow \quad E\simeq pc$$

$$E \simeq pc$$

$$\gamma = rac{E}{m_e c}$$

Differentiate to get the Jacobian  $dp/d\gamma$ :

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

Ultra-relativistic simplifications:

• If  $\gamma\gg 1$ , then  $\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}\simeq \gamma$ , so:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma$$

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c$$

In the ultra-relativistic limit ( $E \gg m_o c^2$ ,  $v \approx c$ ):

$$E=\gamma m_e c^2, \quad p=\gamma m_e v \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad E\simeq pc \qquad \qquad \gamma=rac{E}{m_e c^2}$$

If we want the number density of particles/electrons between  $[\gamma, \gamma + d\gamma]$ , we define:

$$N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma\equiv dn$$

Differentiate to get the Jacobian  $dp/d\gamma$ :

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

Ultra-relativistic simplifications:

• If  $\gamma\gg 1$ , then  $\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}\simeq \gamma$ , so:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma \, \Big|$$

$$rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c$$

In the ultra-relativistic limit ( $E \gg m_{o}c^{2}$ ,  $v \approx c$ ):

$$E=\gamma m_e c^2, \quad p=\gamma m_e v \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad E\simeq pc \qquad \qquad \gamma=rac{E}{m_e c^2}$$

If we want the number density of particles/electrons between  $[\gamma, \gamma + d\gamma]$ , we define:

$$N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma\equiv dn$$

Using:

$$dn=f(p)\,dV_p=4\pi p^2 f(p)\,dp$$

Therefore:

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi p^2 f(p)\,rac{dp}{d\gamma}$$

Therefore:

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi p^2 f(p)\,rac{dp}{d\gamma}$$

Using:

$$p(\gamma) = m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

Therefore:

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi p^2 f(p)\,rac{dp}{d\gamma}$$

Using:

$$p(\gamma) = m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

We obtain (general equation):

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi \, \left[ m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} 
ight]^2 \, f\!ig( m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} ig) \, \left[ m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}} 
ight]$$

Therefore:

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi p^2 f(p)\,rac{dp}{d\gamma}$$

Using:

$$p(\gamma) = m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

We obtain (general equation):

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi \, \left[ m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} 
ight]^2 \, f\!ig( m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} ig) \, \left[ m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}} 
ight]$$

Ultra-relativistic simplification:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c \,$$

Therefore:

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi p^2 f(p)\,rac{dp}{d\gamma}$$

Using:

$$p(\gamma) = m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

We obtain (general equation):

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi \, \left[ m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} 
ight]^2 \, f\!ig( m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} ig) \, \left[ m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}} 
ight]$$

Ultra-relativistic simplification:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad iggl[ N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi (m_e c)^3 \, \gamma^2 f(\gamma m_e c) iggr]$$

Therefore:

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi p^2 f(p)\,rac{dp}{d\gamma}$$

Using:

$$p(\gamma) = m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} = m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}}$$

We obtain (general equation):

$$N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi \, \left[ m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} 
ight]^2 \, f\!ig( m_e c \, \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} ig) \, \left[ m_e c \, rac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}} 
ight]$$

Ultra-relativistic simplification:

$$p(\gamma) \simeq m_e c \, \gamma \qquad \qquad rac{dp}{d\gamma} \simeq m_e c \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad egin{aligned} N_e(\gamma) = 4\pi (m_e c)^3 \, \gamma^2 f(\gamma m_e c) \end{aligned}$$

BUT: this is a general relation: no spectral shape yet! ——— Power law distribution

Shock acceleration (Diffusive Shock Acceleration), DSA\* results in:

$$f(p) \propto p^{-s}$$

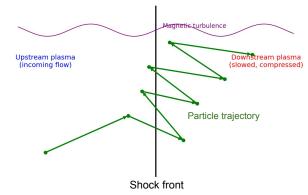
Shock acceleration (Diffusive Shock Acceleration), DSA\* results in:

$$f(p) \propto p^{-s}$$
 spectral index in momentum and, it is determined by the shock compression ratio

with s~4 for strong shocks

\*DSA is the standard mechanism for accelerating charged particles at astrophysical shocks:

- Particles scatter on magnetic turbulence and cross the shock multiple times
- Each crossing gives a systematic energy gain
- Produces power-law energy distributions



Particles gain energy by repeatedly crossing the shock → Diffusive Shock Acceleration (DSA) → power-law spectrum

$$N(E)\,dE\,\propto\,f(p)\,4\pi p^2 dp\,\propto\,E^{-p}\,dE$$
 where:  $p=s-2$  for s=4:  $N(E)\propto E^{-p},\quad p\simeq 2$ 

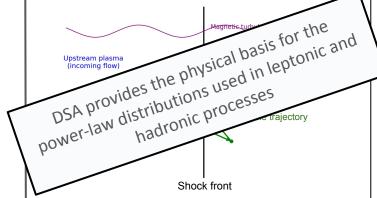
Shock acceleration (Diffusive Shock Acceleration), DSA\* results in:

$$f(p) \propto p^{-s}$$
 spectral index in momentum and, it is determined by the shock compression ratio

with s~4 for strong shocks

\*DSA is the standard mechanism for accelerating charged particles at astrophysical shocks:

- Particles scatter on magnetic turbulence and cross the shock multiple times
- Each crossing gives a systematic energy gain
- Produces power-law energy distributions



Particles gain energy by repeatedly crossing the shock → Diffusive Shock Acceleration (DSA) → power-law spectrum

$$N(E)\,dE\,\propto\,f(p)\,4\pi p^2 dp\,\propto\,E^{-p}\,dE$$
 where:  $p=s-2$  for s=4:  $N(E)\propto E^{-p},\quad p\simeq 2$ 

Shock acceleration (Diffusive Shock Acceleration), DSA\* results in:

$$f(p) \propto p^{-s}$$
 spectral index in momentum and, it is determined by the shock compression ratio

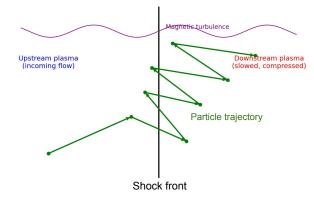
with s~4 for strong shocks

In the ultra-relativistic regime:  $p \approx \gamma m_e c$ 

$$N_e(\gamma) \propto \gamma^2 \ (\gamma m_e c)^{-s} \propto \gamma^{2-s}$$
  $p=s-2$  spectral index in energy/Lorentz factor

\***DSA** is the standard mechanism for accelerating charged particles at astrophysical shocks:

- Particles scatter on magnetic turbulence and cross the shock multiple times
- Each crossing gives a systematic energy gain
- Produces power-law energy distributions



Particles gain energy by repeatedly crossing the shock → Diffusive Shock Acceleration (DSA) → power-law spectrum

$$N(E)\,dE\,\propto\,f(p)\,4\pi p^2 dp\,\propto\,E^{-p}\,dE$$
 where:  $p=s-2$  for s=4:  $N(E)\propto E^{-p},\quad p\simeq 2$ 

Shock acceleration (Diffusive Shock Acceleration), DSA\* results in:

$$f(p) \propto p^{-s}$$
 spectral index in momentum and, it is determined by the shock compression ratio

with s~4 for strong shocks

In the ultra-relativistic regime:  $p \approx \gamma m_e c$ 

$$N_e(\gamma) \propto \gamma^2 \ (\gamma m_e c)^{-s} \propto \gamma^{2-s}$$
  $p=s-2$ 

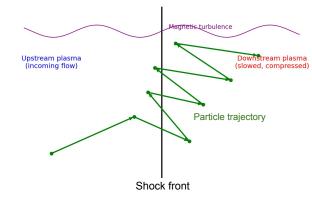
Power-law electrons distribution:

$$N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$$

$$\gamma_{\min} \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_{\max}$$

\*DSA is the standard mechanism for accelerating charged particles at astrophysical shocks:

- Particles scatter on magnetic turbulence and cross the shock multiple times
- Each crossing gives a systematic energy gain
- Produces power-law energy distributions



Particles gain energy by repeatedly crossing the shock → Diffusive Shock Acceleration (DSA) → power-law spectrum

$$N(E)\,dE\,\propto\,f(p)\,4\pi p^2 dp\,\propto\,E^{-p}\,dE\,$$
 where:  $p=s-2$  for s=4:  $N(E)\propto E^{-p},\quad p\simeq 2$ 

Shock acceleration (Diffusive Shock Acceleration), DSA\* results in:

$$f(p) \propto p^{-s}$$
 spectral index in momentum and, it is determined by the shock compression ratio

with s~4 for strong shocks

In the ultra-relativistic regime:  $p \approx \gamma m_{o}c$ 

$$N_e(\gamma) \propto \gamma^2 \, (\gamma m_e c)^{-s} \propto \gamma^{2-s}$$
  $p=s-2$  spectral index in energy/Lorentz factor

Power-law electrons distribution:

$$N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$$
  $\gamma_{
m min} \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_{
m max}$ 

Shock acceleration predicts  $p \simeq 2$ ; in real sources, spectra are steeper  $p \sim 2.2 - 3$ 

ightarrow due to energy losses and particle escape and propagation

Shock acceleration (Diffusive Shock Acceleration), DSA\* results in:

$$f(p) \propto p^{-s}$$
 spectral index in momentum and, it is determined by the shock compression ratio

with s~4 for strong shocks

In the ultra-relativistic regime:  $p \approx \gamma m_{o}c$ 

$$N_e(\gamma) \propto \gamma^2 \, (\gamma m_e c)^{-s} \propto \gamma^{2-s}$$
  $p=s-2$  spectral index in energy/Lorentz facto

Power-law electrons distribution:

$$N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$$
  $\gamma_{
m min} \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_{
m max}$ 

- Energy distribution depends on slope:
  - for p > 2 low-energy particles dominate
  - For p < 2 high-energy particles dominate

When we have a power-law spectrum:

- The shape of the spectrum (its slope) is determined by the *spectral index in energy/Lorentz* factor p
- $K_{\rho}$  fixes the overall scale, and is determined by the total number (or energy) of particles

 $\rightarrow$  The normalization constant  $K_{\rho}$  must be determined!

There are two common ways:

- Normalize to the total number density of particles n
- Normalize to the *total energy density U*

There are two common ways:

- Normalize to the *total number density* of particles *n*
- Normalize to the *total energy density U*

$$n_e = \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

$$n_e = \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

Substituting  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$ 

$$n_e = \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

Substituting  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$ 

$$n_e \; = K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{-p} \, d \gamma \; .$$

$$n_e = \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

Substituting  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$ 

$$n_e \; = K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{-p} \, d \gamma \; .$$

Evaluating the integral for (  $p \neq 1$ ):

$$n_e = rac{K_e}{1-p} \left( \gamma_{
m max}^{1-p} - \gamma_{
m min}^{1-p} 
ight).$$

$$n_e = \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

Substituting  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$ 

$$n_e \; = K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{-p} \, d \gamma \; .$$

Evaluating the integral for (  $p \neq 1$ ):

$$n_e = rac{K_e}{1-p} \left( \gamma_{
m max}^{1-p} - \gamma_{
m min}^{1-p} 
ight)$$

This allows us to solve for  $K_e$ :  $K_e = n_e \, \frac{1-p}{\gamma_{\rm max}^{1-p} - \gamma_{\rm min}^{1-p}}$ 

$$n_e \; = K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{-p} \, d\gamma \; .$$

If  $p \leq 1$ : the integral diverges at the high-energy end ( $\gamma \to \infty$ ), unless we impose a finite  $\gamma_{max}$ 

If  $p \geq 1$ : the low-energy end dominates, requiring a finite  $\gamma_{\min}$ 

There are two common ways:

- Normalize to the total number density of particles n
- Normalize to the *total energy density U*

There are two common ways:

- Normalize to the total number density of particles n
- Normalize to the total energy density U

If instead of knowing the number of particles, what we know is how much *energy* is available to accelerate them  $\rightarrow$  *total energy density*:

$$U_e \; \equiv \; \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \, E(\gamma) \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

If instead of knowing the number of particles, what we know is how much *energy* is available to accelerate them  $\rightarrow$  *total energy density*:

$$U_e \; \equiv \; \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \, E(\gamma) \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

Substituting the energy of a particle characterized by the Lorentz factor  $\gamma$ :  $E(\gamma)=\gamma m_e c^2$ 

we obtain:

$$U_e \equiv \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} (\gamma m_e c^2) \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

If instead of knowing the number of particles, what we know is how much *energy* is available to accelerate them  $\rightarrow$  *total energy density*:

$$U_e \; \equiv \; \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \, E(\gamma) \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma \; .$$

Substituting the energy of a particle characterized by the Lorentz factor  $\gamma$ :  $E(\gamma)=\gamma m_e c^2$ 

we obtain:

$$U_e \equiv \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} (\gamma m_e c^2) \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow U_e = m_e c^2 \int_{\gamma_{max}}^{\gamma_{max}} \gamma \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

If instead of knowing the number of particles, what we know is how much *energy* is available to accelerate them  $\rightarrow$  *total energy density:* 

$$U_e \; \equiv \; \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \, E(\gamma) \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

Substituting the energy of a particle characterized by the Lorentz factor  $\gamma$ :  $E(\gamma)=\gamma m_e c^2$ 

we obtain:

$$U_e \equiv \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} (\gamma m_e c^2) \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad U_e \; = \; m_e c^2 \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma \, N_e(\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

And the power law  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$ :

$$U_e = m_e c^2 K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{1-p} \, d\gamma$$

ullet Evaluating the integral for p 
eq 2:

$$U_e = m_e c^2 \, K_e \, rac{\gamma_{
m max}^{2-p} - \gamma_{
m min}^{2-p}}{2-p}$$

• Evaluating the integral for  $p \neq 2$ :

$$U_e = m_e c^2 \, K_e \, rac{\gamma_{
m max}^{2-p} - \gamma_{
m min}^{2-p}}{2-p}$$

• Evaluating the integral for p=2:

$$U_e = m_e c^2 \, K_e \, \ln\!\left(rac{\gamma_{
m max}}{\gamma_{
m min}}
ight)$$

• Evaluating the integral for  $p \neq 2$ :

$$U_e=m_ec^2\,K_e\,rac{\gamma_{
m max}^{2-p}-\gamma_{
m min}^{2-p}}{2-p}$$

we can solve for  $K_{\alpha}$ :

$$K_e \ = \ U_e \, rac{2-p}{m_e c^2 \left(\gamma_{
m max}^{2-p} - \gamma_{
m min}^{2-p}
ight)}$$

• Evaluating the integral for p = 2:

$$U_e = m_e c^2 \, K_e \, \ln\!\left(rac{\gamma_{
m max}}{\gamma_{
m min}}
ight) \, .$$

• Evaluating the integral for  $p \neq 2$ :

$$U_e = m_e c^2 \, K_e \, rac{\gamma_{
m max}^{2-p} - \gamma_{
m min}^{2-p}}{2-p}$$

we can solve for  $K_{\alpha}$ :

$$K_e \ = \ U_e \, rac{2-p}{m_e c^2 \left(\gamma_{
m max}^{2-p} - \gamma_{
m min}^{2-p}
ight)}$$

• Evaluating the integral for p=2:

$$U_e = m_e c^2 \, K_e \, \ln\!\left(rac{\gamma_{
m max}}{\gamma_{
m min}}
ight)$$

we can solve for  $K_a$ :

$$K_e \; = \; rac{U_e}{m_e c^2 \; ext{ln}(\gamma_{ ext{max}}/\gamma_{ ext{min}})}$$

$$U_e = m_e c^2 K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{1-p} \, d\gamma$$

if *p* < 2:

- The integrand  $\gamma^{l-p}$  gives more weight to high-energy electrons
- $\bullet$   $\,\,$  The total energy is dominated by particles close to  $\gamma_{max}$
- We must set a finite  $\gamma_{max}$ , physically determined by the balance between acceleration and energy losses

Non-Thermal Radiation Normalization

$$U_e = m_e c^2 K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{1-p} \, d\gamma$$

#### if *p* < 2:

- The integrand  $\gamma^{I-p}$  gives more weight to high-energy electrons
- The total energy is dominated by particles close to  $\gamma_{max}$
- We must set a finite  $\gamma_{max'}$  physically determined by the balance between acceleration and energy losses

## if p>2

- The integrand  $\gamma^{I-p}$  is dominated by low-energy electrons
- The total energy is concentrated near  $\gamma_{min}$
- We must impose a finite  $\gamma_{min'}$  linked to the injection physics (where thermal electrons transition into the non-thermal power-law population)

Non-Thermal Radiation Normalization

$$U_e = m_e c^2 K_e \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} \gamma^{1-p} \, d\gamma$$

### if *p* < 2:

- The integrand  $\gamma^{l-p}$  gives more weight to high-energy electrons
- The total energy is dominated by particles close to  $\gamma_{max}$
- We must set a finite  $\gamma_{max'}$  physically determined by the balance between acceleration and energy losses

# if p>2

- The integrand  $\gamma^{I-p}$  is dominated by low-energy electrons
- The total energy is concentrated near  $\gamma_{min}$
- We must impose a finite  $\gamma_{min}$ , linked to the injection physics (where thermal electrons transition into the non-thermal power-law population)

if 
$$p = 2$$
:

• the contribution comes equally from both  $\gamma_{min}$  and  $\gamma_{max}$ , giving a logarithmic dependence  $\ln(\gamma_{max}/\gamma_{min})$ 

We study electron distributions  $N_e(\mathbf{y})$ , but in astrophysics we observe **radiation**: **photon spectra** 

We study electron distributions  $N_e(\mathbf{y})$ , but in astrophysics we observe **radiation**: **photon spectra** 



emission process

We study electron distributions  $N_{e}(\gamma)$ , but in astrophysics we observe **radiation**: **photon spectra** 



emission process

$$N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$$

Electron spectrum:  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$  ,  $\gamma_{
m min} \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_{
m max}$ 

We study electron distributions  $N_e(\gamma)$ , but in astrophysics we observe **radiation**: **photon spectra** 



## emission process

Electron spectrum:  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$  ,  $\gamma_{
m min} \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_{
m max}$ 

ullet Emissivity  $j_
u$ : Defined as the energy radiated per unit time, per unit volume, per unit frequency, and per unit solid angle:

$$j_{
u} \; = \; rac{dE}{dV \, dt \, d
u \, d\Omega}$$

We study electron distributions  $N_{e}(\gamma)$ , but in astrophysics we observe **radiation**: **photon spectra** 



## emission process

Electron spectrum:  $N_e(\gamma) = K_e \, \gamma^{-p}$  ,  $\gamma_{
m min} \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_{
m max}$ 

ullet Emissivity  $j_
u$ : Defined as the energy radiated per unit time, per unit volume, per unit frequency, and per unit solid angle:

$$j_{
u} \; = \; rac{dE}{dV \, dt \, d
u \, d\Omega}$$

• A relativistic electron with Lorentz factor y radiates a power spectrum at frequency v:

$$P_{
u}(
u,\gamma)$$

• The electron population is described by the differential number density  $N_e(\gamma)$  in  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma+d\gamma$ :

$$N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma$$

• The electron population is described by the differential number density  $N_e(\gamma)$  in  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma+d\gamma$ :

$$N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma$$

• Summing (integrating) over all electron Lorentz factors gives the total emissivity:

$$j_
u \ = \ \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, P_
u(
u, \gamma) \, d\gamma$$

• The electron population is described by the differential number density  $N_{\rho}(\gamma)$  in  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma + d\gamma$ :

$$N_e(\gamma)\,d\gamma$$

• Summing (integrating) over all electron Lorentz factors gives the total emissivity:

$$j_
u \ = \ \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, P_
u(
u, \gamma) \, d\gamma$$

If electrons radiated at a single frequency, the photon spectrum would directly follow  $N_e(\gamma)$ . Each electron radiates over a broad frequency range (synchrotron, IC, bremsstrahlung\*), so the observed spectrum is a convolution of the electron distribution and the single-particle emission physics

$$j_
u \ = \ \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, P_
u(
u, \gamma) \, d\gamma \, .$$

It tells us that the observed photon spectrum is the result of combining the electron distribution  $N_e(\mathbf{v})$  with the single-particle emission spectrum  $P_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{v})$ 

$$j_
u \ = \ \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, P_
u(
u, \gamma) \, d\gamma$$

Non-thermal leptonic sources often produce photon spectra that follow power laws, directly reflecting the **underlying electron distribution** 

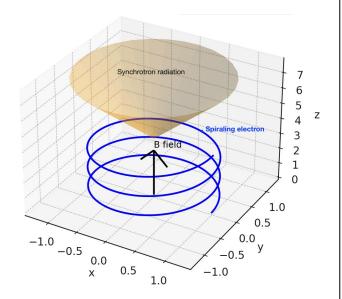
#### Non-Thermal Radiation

- Non-Thermal radiation: hadronic processes (recap) vs. leptonic processes
- Electron distributions & normalizations
- Leptonic processes:
  - Synchrotron emission
  - Inverse Compton scattering
  - Non-thermal bremsstrahlung

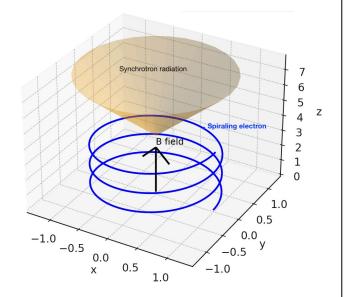
#### Non-Thermal Radiation

- Non-Thermal radiation: hadronic processes (recap) vs. leptonic processes
- Electron distributions & normalizations
- Leptonic processes:
  - Synchrotron emission
  - Inverse Compton scattering
  - Non-thermal bremsstrahlung

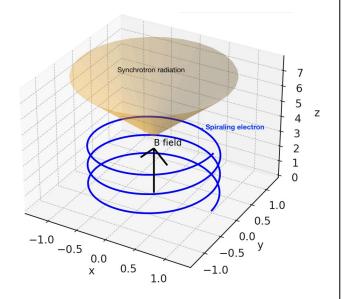
 Produced by relativistic *electrons* (or *positrons*) spiraling around magnetic field lines



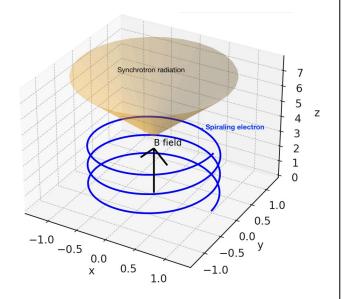
- Produced by relativistic *electrons* (or *positrons*) spiraling around magnetic field lines
- Motion is spiral-shaped: velocity component parallel to B, circular motion perpendicular to B



- Produced by relativistic *electrons* (or *positrons*) spiraling around magnetic field lines
- Motion is spiral-shaped: velocity component parallel to B, circular motion perpendicular to B
- Radiation is strongly beamed in the instantaneous direction of motion (narrow cone, opening angle ~1/γ)

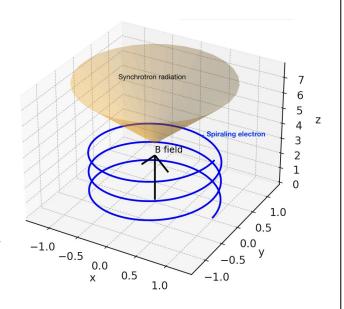


- Produced by relativistic *electrons* (or *positrons*) spiraling around magnetic field lines
- Motion is spiral-shaped: velocity component parallel to B, circular motion perpendicular to B
- Radiation is strongly beamed in the instantaneous direction of motion (narrow cone, opening angle ~1/γ)
- Broad-band emission: from radio up to X-rays or even  $\gamma$ -rays  $\Rightarrow$  Depending on the electron energy ( $\gamma$ ) and the magnetic field strength (B)



- Produced by relativistic *electrons* (or *positrons*) spiraling around magnetic field lines
- Motion is spiral-shaped: velocity component parallel to B, circular motion perpendicular to B
- Radiation is strongly beamed in the instantaneous direction of motion (narrow cone, opening angle ~1/γ)
- Broad-band emission: from radio up to X-rays or even  $\gamma$ -rays  $\Rightarrow$  Depending on the electron energy ( $\gamma$ ) and the magnetic field strength (B)





What is the spectral shape of the radiation from a single electron?

What is the spectral shape of the radiation from a single electron?

- A single relativistic electron emits over a **broad range of frequencies**
- The characteristic frequency depends on:
  - Electron Lorentz factor y
  - Magnetic field strength *B*
- Strong efficiency: electrons radiate much faster than protons

What is the spectral shape of the radiation from a single electron?

- A single relativistic electron emits over a **broad range of frequencies**
- The characteristic frequency depends on:
  - Electron Lorentz factor y
  - Magnetic field strength *B*
- Strong efficiency: electrons radiate much faster than protons

Let's derive the expression for the *synchrotron characteristic frequency*  $v_c$ :

What is the spectral shape of the radiation from a single electron?

- A single relativistic electron emits over a **broad range of frequencies**
- The characteristic frequency depends on:
  - Electron Lorentz factor y
  - Magnetic field strength B
- Strong efficiency: electrons radiate much faster than protons

Why define a *synchrotron characteristic frequency* ( $v_c$ )?

What is the spectral shape of the radiation from a single electron?

- A single relativistic electron emits over a **broad range of frequencies**
- The characteristic frequency depends on:
  - Electron Lorentz factor y
  - Magnetic field strength *B*
- Strong efficiency: electrons radiate much faster than protons

## Why define a *synchrotron characteristic frequency* $(v_c)$ ?

- The exact synchrotron spectrum of one electron is mathematically complex (involves Bessel functions)
- ullet However, most of the emitted power is concentrated around a typical frequency,  $v_c$
- In astrophysics, we first define  $v_c$ : it provides the characteristic scale of emission before dealing with the full spectrum

What is the spectral shape of the radiation from a single electron?

- A single relativistic electron emits over a **broad range of frequencies**
- The characteristic frequency depends on:
  - Electron Lorentz factor y
  - Magnetic field strength B

For a relativistic electron with Lorentz factor  $\gamma$  spiraling in a magnetic field B, most of the synchrotron power is emitted around the characteristic frequency  $v_c$ 

Let's derive the expression for the synchrotron characteristic frequency  $v_c$ :

#### Non-Thermal Radiation

In the classical (cyclotron) regime, an electron spiraling in a magnetic field  ${\it B}$  emits radiation at the frequency  $v_{\it B}$ 

### Classical (Cyclotron):

- Non-relativistic electrons ( $v \ll c$ )
- Narrow emission line
- Radiation at a single frequency (the gyrofrequency):

$$u_B = rac{eB}{2\pi m_{e^+}}$$

#### Non-Thermal Radiation

In the classical (cyclotron) regime, an electron spiraling in a magnetic field B emits radiation at the frequency  $\nu_{\scriptscriptstyle R}$ 

#### Classical (Cyclotron):

- Non-relativistic electrons ( $v \ll c$ )
- Narrow emission line
- Radiation at a single frequency (the gyrofrequency):

$$u_B = rac{eB}{2\pi m_e c}$$

### Relativistic (Synchrotron):

- Ultra-relativistic electrons  $(y\gg 1)$
- Emission spread over a broad frequency range
- Most power peaks around the *characteristic frequency*:

$$u_c = rac{3}{2}\,\gamma^2\,
u_B\,\sinlpha \ = \ rac{3}{4\pi}\,\gamma^2\,rac{eB}{m_ec}\,\sinlpha \ lacksquare a$$
: pitch angle (between velocity and  $B$ )

In the classical (cyclotron) regime, an electron spiraling in a magnetic field  ${\it B}$  emits radiation at the frequency  $v_{\it B}$ 

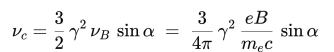
#### Classical (Cyclotron):

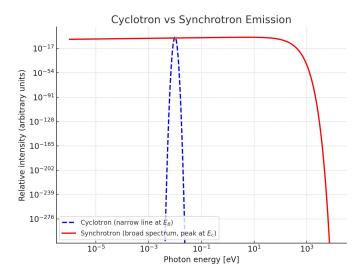
- Non-relativistic electrons ( $v \ll c$ )
- Narrow emission line
- Radiation at a single frequency (the gyrofrequency):

$$u_B = rac{eB}{2\pi m_e c}$$

### Relativistic (Synchrotron):

- Ultra-relativistic electrons (y≫1)
- Emission spread over a broad frequency range
- Most power peaks around the *characteristic frequency*:





Once the characteristic frequency  $v_c$  is defined, the next step is to compute the single-electron spectrum  $P_v(v, \mathbf{y})$ 

Once the characteristic frequency  $v_c$  is defined, the next step is to compute the single-electron spectrum  $P_v(v, y)$ 

Synchrotron spectrum  $P_{yy}(v,y)$  comes from classical electrodynamics:

- Start with Liénard–Wiechert fields → radiation from an accelerated relativistic charge
- Motion in magnetic field → curved trajectory, strong beaming
- Fourier transform of the radiated pulse
- Angle-average over pitch angles

Once the characteristic frequency  $v_c$  is defined, the next step is to compute the single-electron spectrum  $P_v(v, y)$ 

Synchrotron spectrum  $P_{yy}(v,y)$  comes from classical electrodynamics:

- Start with Liénard–Wiechert fields → radiation from an accelerated relativistic charge
- Motion in magnetic field → curved trajectory, strong beaming
- Fourier transform of the radiated pulse
- Angle-average over pitch angles

$$P_{
u}(
u,\gamma)=rac{\sqrt{3}\,e^3B}{m_ec^2}\,\mathcal{F}igg(rac{
u}{
u_c}igg)\,, \quad \mathcal{F}(x)=x\int_x^\infty K_{5/3}(y)\,dy$$
 Universal function Modified Bessel function of the second kind of order 5/3

$$P_
u(
u,\gamma) = rac{\sqrt{3}\,e^3 B}{m_e c^2}\, \mathcal{F}igg(rac{
u}{
u_c}igg)\,, \quad \mathcal{F}(x) = x \int_x^\infty K_{5/3}(y)\,dy\,.$$

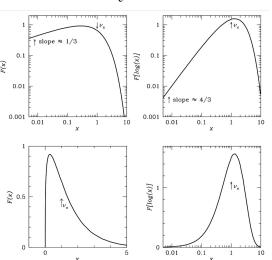
• Broad emission: not a line but a continuum, with the maximum power near  $v = 0.29v_c$ 

$$P_
u(
u,\gamma) = rac{\sqrt{3}\,e^3 B}{m_e c^2}\, \mathcal{F}igg(rac{
u}{
u_c}igg)\,, \quad \mathcal{F}(x) = x \int_x^\infty K_{5/3}(y)\,dy\,.$$

- Broad emission: not a line but a continuum, with the maximum power near  $v = 0.29v_c$
- Low-frequency slope :  $P_v \stackrel{\bigcirc \frown}{\sim} v^{l/3}$  for  $v \ll v_c$

$$P_
u(
u,\gamma) = rac{\sqrt{3}\,e^3 B}{m_e c^2}\, \mathcal{F}igg(rac{
u}{
u_c}igg)\,, \quad \mathcal{F}(x) = x \int_x^\infty K_{5/3}(y)\,dy\,.$$

- Broad emission: not a line but a continuum, with the maximum power near  $v \approx 0.29v_c$
- Low-frequency slope :  $P_v \stackrel{\bigcirc \frown}{\sim} v^{1/3}$  for  $v \ll v_c$
- High-frequency cut-off:  $P_v \propto exp(-v/v_c)$  for  $v \gg v_c$



$$P_
u(
u,\gamma) = rac{\sqrt{3}\,e^3B}{m_ec^2}\,\mathcal{F}igg(rac{
u}{
u_c}igg)\,,\quad \mathcal{F}(x) = x\int_x^\infty K_{5/3}(y)\,dy\,.$$

- Broad emission: not a line but a continuum, with the maximum power near  $v \approx 0.29v_c$
- Low-frequency slope :  $P_v \stackrel{\frown}{\sim} v^{l/3}$  for  $v \ll v_c$
- High-frequency cut-off:  $P_v \propto exp(-v/v_c)$  for  $v \gg v_c$

A single electron produces a spectrum – rising as  $v^{1/3}$  at low frequencies, peaking around  $0.3v_c$ , and falling exponentially at high frequencies

## From single electron to an electron distribution

We have the spectrum of one electron:

$$P_{
u}(
u,\gamma)$$

## Non-Thermal Radiation

## From single electron to an electron distribution

We have the spectrum of one electron:

$$P_{
u}(
u,\gamma)$$

The distribution of electrons is given by:

$$N_e(\gamma) d\gamma$$
 = number of electrons with Lorentz factor in  $[\gamma, \gamma + d\gamma]$ 

### From single electron to an electron distribution

We have the spectrum of one electron:

$$P_{
u}(
u,\gamma)$$

The distribution of electrons is given by:

$$N_e(\gamma) d\gamma$$
 = number of electrons with Lorentz factor in [ $\gamma$ , $\gamma$ +d $\gamma$ ]

**Total synchrotron emissivity** is obtained by integrating over all electrons:

$$j_
u = \int_{\gamma_{
m min}}^{\gamma_{
m max}} N_e(\gamma) \, P_
u(
u,\gamma) \, d\gamma$$

## Non-Thermal Radiation

For large ranges in  $\gamma$ , the integral yields:

$$j_
u \, \propto \, 
u^{-lpha}, \quad lpha = rac{p-1}{2}.$$

- → A power-law electron spectrum produces a power-law synchrotron spectrum
- ightarrow Photon **spectral index** lpha is directly linked to **electron index** p

For large ranges in  $\gamma$ , the integral yields:

$$j_
u \, \propto \, 
u^{-lpha}, \quad lpha = rac{p-1}{2}.$$

- → A power-law electron spectrum produces a power-law synchrotron spectrum
- $\rightarrow$  Photon **spectral index**  $\alpha$  is directly linked to **electron index** p
- With telescopes, we measure the **photon spectral index**  $\alpha$  (the slope of the spectrum in radio/X/ $\gamma$ )
- From acceleration theory (e.g. DSA), we predict the *electron index p*

Supernova remnants:  $p^2 \rightarrow \text{radio spectra with } \alpha^0.5$ 

Radio galaxies/jets: p~2.5–3  $\rightarrow$  steeper spectra with  $\alpha$ ~0.8–1

Relativistic electrons lose energy continuously as they radiate synchrotron emission

Relativistic electrons lose energy continuously as they radiate synchrotron emission

**Energy loss rate** (single electron):

$$\left(rac{dE}{dt}
ight)_{
m syn} \propto -\gamma^2 B^2$$

 $\rightarrow$  losses increase with both Lorentz factor  $\gamma$  and magnetic field strength B

Relativistic electrons lose energy continuously as they radiate synchrotron emission

#### **Energy loss rate** (single electron):

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right)_{\mathrm{syn}} \propto -\gamma^2 B^2$$

 $\rightarrow$  losses increase with both Lorentz factor  $\gamma$  and magnetic field strength B

#### **Cooling timescale:**

$$t_{
m syn} = rac{E}{|dE/dt|} \propto rac{1}{\gamma B^2}$$

→ higher-energy electrons cool much faster

Relativistic electrons lose energy continuously as they radiate synchrotron emission

**Energy loss rate** (single electron):

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right)_{\rm syn} \propto -\gamma^2 B^2$$

 $\rightarrow$  losses increase with both Lorentz factor  $\gamma$  and magnetic field strength B

#### **Cooling timescale:**

$$t_{
m syn} = rac{E}{|dE/dt|} \propto rac{1}{\gamma B^2}$$

→ higher-energy electrons cool much faster

⇒ Cooling modifies the electron spectrum over time, producing *cooling breaks* in the observed synchrotron spectrum (a change in slope between low and high frequencies)

