## X-ray generation in Cosmic Sources

Dipankar Bhattacharya IUCAA, Pune, India

#### **Production of X-ray radiation**

Requires highly energetic particles

In the cosmic setting, X-rays are produced by three main processes:

- From very hot gas (Temperature > 1 million K), thermal bremsstrahlung emission, atomic transitions
- 2. From relativistic electrons streaming through magnetic fields, synchrotron emission
- 3. Compton Scattering of low-energy radiation field by energetic electrons

#### **Classical radiation theory**

Electromagnetic fields of moving charges

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r},t) = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ \frac{(\hat{n}-\vec{\beta})(1-\beta^2)}{\kappa^3 R^2} \right] + \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \left[ \frac{\hat{n}}{\kappa^3 R} \times \left\{ (\hat{n}-\vec{\beta}) \times \dot{\vec{\beta}} \right\} \right]$$

 $\vec{H}(\vec{r},t) = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_0}{\mu_0}} \left[ \hat{n} \times \vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \right]$ 

where

$$\kappa = 1 - \frac{1}{c}\hat{n}(t') \cdot \vec{u}(t')$$
$$\vec{R} = \vec{r} - \vec{r}_0(t')$$
$$\hat{n} = \vec{R}/R$$
$$c(t - t') = R(t')$$

#### An accelerated electric charge emits e.m. radiation

Uniformly moving charge:

Coulomb Field : ~  $1/r^2$  from the *current* location of the charge

#### Accelerated charge:



Figure 3.2 Graphical demonstration of the 1/R acceleration field. Charged particle moving at uniform velocity in positive x direction is stopped at x = 0 and t = 0. from Rybicki & Lightman 1979

Emitted Power = 
$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right) = \int |\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}| r^2 d\Omega = \frac{q^2 |\mathbf{a}|^2}{6\pi \varepsilon_0 c^3}$$
  
(Larmor Formula)

Field line density at the ring: ~  $1/(2\pi r \cdot ct_{acc})$ 

Propagating transverse electric field (radiation):  $E_{\theta} = \frac{q |\mathbf{a}| \sin \theta}{4\pi \varepsilon_0 c^2 r}$ 

Associated transverse magnetic field:  $|\mathbf{H}| = E_{\theta}/(\mu_0/\varepsilon_0)^{1/2}$ 

> a = proper acceleration in the instantaneous rest frame of the charged particle

Moving Observer: dE/dt = dE'/dt' (Lorentz invariant)

proper acceleration  

$$a_0^2 = \gamma^4 (|a_\perp|^2 + \gamma^2 |a_\parallel|^2) \qquad \qquad \gamma = \text{Lorentz factor}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}E}{\mathrm{d}t}\right)_{S} = \frac{q^{2}\gamma^{4}}{6\pi\varepsilon_{0}c^{3}}(|a_{\perp}|^{2} + \gamma^{2}|a_{\parallel}|^{2})$$

#### **Radiation Pattern**



#### Motion introduces aberration and relativistic beaming

#### Polarization

$$\vec{E} \propto \hat{n} \times [(\hat{n} - \vec{\beta}) \times \dot{\vec{\beta}}]$$

At a single particle level, over short times, radiation is always polarized.

For slowly moving particle (or  $\vec{\beta}$  nearly || to  $\hat{n}$  ) polarization is || to the projected instantaneous acceleration.

Net observed polarization involves average over the particle's trajectory, and over the distribution of emitting particles.

Spectrum:

#### Fourier Transform of the time-varying electric field

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(\omega) \exp(-i\omega t) \,\mathrm{d}\omega , \qquad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(\omega)|^2 \mathrm{d}\omega = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(t)|^2 \,\mathrm{d}t$$
$$\dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(\omega) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(t) \exp(i\omega t) \,\mathrm{d}t . \qquad = 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} |\dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(\omega)|^2 \,\mathrm{d}\omega$$

$$\int_0^\infty I(\omega)d\omega = \int_0^\infty \frac{q^2}{6\pi\varepsilon_0 c^3} 2|\dot{v}(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

$$I(\omega) = \frac{q^2}{3\pi\varepsilon_0 c^3} |\dot{v}(\omega)|^2$$
Specific Intensity  $I_{\nu}$ 

$$I_{\nu}/\nu^3 : \text{Lorentz}$$
Invariant

#### Spectra

Radiation received from a source is the sum of emission from a large population of particles.

Energy distribution of the particles shape the spectra

Thermal distribution Maxwell-Boltzmann

#### Non-thermal distribution

Non-Maxwellian, e.g. power-law



Radiation is modified during propagation through matter

Radiative transfer

$$\frac{dI_{\nu}}{ds} = -\alpha_{\nu}I_{\nu} + j_{\nu}$$

$$\alpha_{\nu} = \text{absorption coefficient}$$

$$S_{\nu} \equiv j_{\nu}/\alpha_{\nu} ; \quad d\tau_{\nu} = \alpha_{\nu}ds$$

$$\frac{dI_{\nu}}{d\tau_{\nu}} = -I_{\nu} + S_{\nu}$$

$$I_{\nu} = I_{\nu}^{0}e^{-\tau_{\nu}} + S_{\nu}(1 - e^{-\tau_{\nu}})$$

 $\begin{vmatrix} j_{\nu} = \text{emission} \\ \text{coefficient} \end{vmatrix} \quad \epsilon_{\nu} = \int j_{\nu} d\Omega$ 

 $S_{
u}$  for a thermal source is the Planck function  $B_{
u}$ 

$$B_{\nu} = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{\exp(h\nu/kT) - 1}$$

#### Quantum Mechanical View

All e.m. radiation arises from transition between levels with difference in electric or magnetic moment



- Levels could be discrete or in continuum
- Between each pair of levels emission and absorption
- Transitions dipole / higher multipole

Transition probability  $\propto |\langle f | \exp(i\vec{k}.\vec{r}) \vec{l}.\Sigma \vec{\nabla}_j | i \rangle|^2$ [dipole approximation  $\exp(i\vec{k}.\vec{r}) = 1$ ]

All emission processes have their inverse (absorption, stimulated emission)

$$g_2 B_{21} = g_1 B_{12}$$
 ;  $A_{21} = 2hv^3 B_{21}/c^2$ 



$$j_{\nu} = \frac{h\nu}{4\pi} n_2 A_{21}$$

$$\alpha_{\nu} = \frac{h\nu}{4\pi} (n_1 B_{12} - n_2 B_{21})$$

 $\alpha_{\nu} < 0$  if  $\frac{n_2}{n_1} > \frac{g_2}{g_1}$  : population inversion and maser emission

Blackbody constitutes the maximum emission by a thermal source at a given temperature

 $I_{\nu} = B_{\nu}(T) + e^{-\tau_{\nu}}(I_{\nu}^{0} - B_{\nu}(T))$ 

In Rayleigh-Jeans' regime  $B_{\nu}(T) = 2\nu^2 kT/c^2$ 

Let background temperature  $T_{bg} = c^2 I_{\nu}^0 / 2\nu^2 k$ 

And "Brightness Temperature"  $T_b = c^2 I_v / 2v^2 k$ 

Then  $T_b = T + e^{-\tau_v}(T_{bg} - T)$ : lies between  $T_{bg}$  and T

 $T < T_{bg}$ : "absorption";  $T > T_{bg}$ : "emission"

Spectral lines:  $\tau_{\nu}$  high over a narrow frequency range

#### Blackbody function



log frequency

At large optical depth a thermal source will emit blackbody intensity. Emission will be received from a photosphere

Optical depth is frequency-dependent. A source could be optically thick at some frequencies, optically thin at others.

#### **Radiation from accreting Compact Objects**

#### Sources of Radiation

• Accretion disk, corona, winds, jets, surrounding material

Main radiation components

- Optically thick emission from disk: Blackbody, multi-temperature
- Spectral lines from disk photosphere: e.g. Relativistic Fe line
- Optically thin emission from corona, outflow, jets: Bremsstrahlung, Synchrotron, Compton
- Reflection from the disk: Compton, Fluorescence

Each has a distinct spectral signature

Matter accreting onto a compact star can have a high fraction  $\eta = GM/(Rc^2)$  of its rest energy extracted.  $\eta \sim 10\%$  for NS/BH, 0.03% for WD. (compare: ~0.7% for H burn)

# If converted directly to thermal energy then expect (e.g. shock) $kT \sim \eta m_{\rm p}c^2 \sim 100 \,{\rm MeV}\left(\frac{\eta}{0.1}\right)$

In practice energy release is more gradual, at lower temperatures

Maximum Radiative Luminosity (Eddington Limit)

$$L_{\rm Edd} = \frac{4\pi G \mu m_{\rm p} c}{\sigma_{\rm T}} M = 1.26 \times 10^{38} \text{ erg/s} \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}}\right) \mu$$

(inward gravitational force balanced by outward radiative force)

Hence Eddington accretion rate

$$\dot{M}_{\rm Edd} = \frac{L_{\rm Edd}}{\eta c^2} = 1.4 \times 10^{18} \text{ g/s} \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}}\right) \left(\frac{0.1}{\eta}\right) \mu$$

 $\dot{M} > \dot{M}_{\rm Edd}$  may lead to heavy mass loss / common envelope evolution

#### **Accretion Disk**

Disk forms due to angular momentum + viscosity



Keplerian thin accretion disk:

 $\Omega = \sqrt{GM/R^3} \qquad v_{\phi} = \sqrt{GM/R}$  $2\pi R\Sigma(R)v_r(R) = \dot{M}$  accretion rate  $\tau(R) = R(2\pi R)\nu\Sigma(Rd\Omega/dR)$  viscous torque  $\dot{M}\frac{d(R^{2}\Omega)}{dR} = -\frac{d}{dR}\left[\nu\Sigma 2\pi R^{3}\frac{d\Omega}{dR}\right]$ integrating,  $\nu\Sigma = \frac{M}{3\pi} \left[ 1 - \left(\frac{R_*}{R}\right)^{1/2} \right]$ viscous dissipation rate per unit area:  $D(R) = \nu \Sigma \left( R \frac{d\Omega}{dR} \right)^2 = \frac{3GM\dot{M}}{4\pi R^3} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{R_*}{R} \right)^{1/2} \right]$ balancing this with local blackbody emission:  $T(R) = \left\{ \frac{3GM\dot{M}}{8\pi R^3 \sigma} \left[ 1 - \left(\frac{R_*}{R}\right)^{1/2} \right] \right\}^{1/2}$  $T_* = \left(\frac{3GM\dot{M}}{8\pi R^3\sigma}\right)^{1/4} = 1.12 \text{ keV}(M/M_{\odot})^{1/4} R_6^{-3/4} \dot{M}_{17}^{1/4}$ 

#### Keplerian motion near a Black Hole





Bardeen, Press & Teukolsky 1972

#### Thermal emission from Accretion Disk

Standard Keplerian Disk can extend down to ISCO:  $9(M_{BH}/M_{\odot})$  km for non-rotating Black Hole, even closer for rotating BH.

Temperature of the disk is a function of radius. For standard optically thick, geometrically thin, keplerian accretion disk



#### Thermal emission from Accretion Disk

Standard Keplerian Disk can extend down to ISCO:  $9(M_{BH}/M_{\odot})$  km for non-rotating Black Hole, even closer for rotating BH.

Temperature of the disk is a function of radius. For standard optically thick, geometrically thin, keplerian accretion disk



## Continuum Emission Processes

#### Bremsstrahlung (free-free emission)



#### Spectrum

Electric field received by the observer is time dependent

Fourier transform of the electric field yields the spectrum

$$I(\omega) = \frac{Z^2 e^6}{24\pi^4 \varepsilon_0^3 c^3 m_e^2 v^2} \frac{\omega^2}{\gamma^2 v^2} \left[ \frac{1}{\gamma^2} K_0^2 \left( \frac{\omega b}{\gamma v} \right) + K_1^2 \left( \frac{\omega b}{\gamma v} \right) \right]$$



Net observed spectrum is the sum of spectra from all emitting particles

 $I(\omega') = \int_{b'_{\min}}^{b'_{\max}} 2\pi b' \gamma N v K \, \mathrm{d}b'$ 

All encounters of a single electron with velocity v

$$= \frac{Z^2 e^6 \gamma N}{12\pi^3 \varepsilon_0^3 c^3 m_e^2} \frac{1}{v} \ln\left(\frac{b'_{\text{max}}}{b'_{\text{min}}}\right)$$

Integrate this over the velocity distribution

#### Thermal Bremsstrahlung



#### Relativistic electron in a magnetic field



#### Curvature Radiation

Relativistic Charged Particles moving **along** curved field lines

- Shares most properties of Synchrotron Radiation (replace Larmor radius by the radius of curvature of field lines)
- Polarization || to the projected field lines (Synchrotron: polarization perp. to projected B)

Important in pulsar magnetospheres, magnetars

#### Non-thermal Emission

Acceleration processes generating relativistic particles often produce a non-thermal, power-law distribution of particle energies:  $N(\gamma) \propto \gamma^{-p}$ 

This produces a power-law synchrotron radiation spectrum:



log frequency

#### Spectral regimes in Synchrotron Emission



Jitter radiation can steepen the low-frequency cutoff:

- Low energy particles have longer duration of E-field pulse per orbit
- More affected by pitch angle scattering before pulse completion

(Medvedev 2000)



#### Scattering processes

Non-resonant / resonant

#### Inverse Compton Scattering



Related processes: Compton Scattering Thomson Scattering

#### **Compton Scattering**



#### Inverse Compton Process

Synchrotron power: 
$$\frac{4}{3}\sigma_T c\beta^2 \gamma^2 U_B$$
  
Compton power:  $\frac{4}{3}\sigma_T c\beta^2 \gamma^2 U_{ph}$   
per electron

Scattered photon energy

$$\nu_{\rm i}:\nu':\nu_{\rm f}=1:\gamma:\gamma^2$$

Like Synchrotron, here too  $v_{\rm sc} \propto \gamma^2$  and  $P_{\rm sc} \propto \gamma^2$ 

So **non-thermal** IC by electron energy distribution  $N(\gamma) \propto \gamma^{-p}$ leads to a optically thin radiation spectrum  $I_{\nu} \propto \nu^{-(p-1)/2}$ 

Synchrotron photons produced in an emission volume may be compton upscattered by the same electrons: Synchrotron Self Compton



#### **Thermal Comptonization**

- Thermal distribution of electron energies
- Repeated scatterings
- Energy transfer both ways: electron  $\rightleftharpoons$  photon

In general, numerical radiative transfer required to describe spectra adequately

The Compton y parameter : a measure of importance of comptonization  $\mathcal{Y} = (av. no. of scatterings) \times (mean fractional energy change per scattering)$ 

Electron scattering optical depth  $\tau_{es} \sim \sigma_T R$  $\Rightarrow \text{Av. number of scatterings} = \text{Max}(\tau_{es}.\tau_{es}^2)$   $\begin{pmatrix} \Delta \epsilon \\ \epsilon \end{pmatrix} = \text{Max}(\alpha, \alpha^2)$ per  $[\alpha = 4kT/m_ec^2]$ scattering

For  $\alpha \gg 1$  and soft photon input  $(\epsilon_i \ll m_e c^2 / \alpha)$ , emergent intensity  $I(\epsilon) \propto e^{-k}$  if  $\tau_{es}$  is small. Here  $k = -\ln(\tau_{es}) / \ln(\alpha^2)$ 

For  $\alpha \ll 1$  (non-relativistic electrons), photons random walk in energy space. Can be described by a Boltzmann Equation  $\Rightarrow$  *Kompaneets Equation* Result can be diverse, but some limiting cases have interesting properties

#### Non-relativistic thermal Comptonization: Unsaturated



#### Non-relativistic thermal Comptonization: Saturated



#### Compton Reflection (backscatter) from the accretion disk

• Ineffective below 10 keV due to photoelectric absorption



• Drops above ~50 keV due to photon energy loss and KN cutoff

Results in a broad reflection hump in hard X-rays

#### Compton Reflection (backscatter) from the accretion disk



Results in a broad reflection hump in hard X-rays

## Line emission

### X-ray Spectral lines

Characteristic X-ray lines are generated by inner shell transitions

Can be used to identify elements



## X-ray Spectral lines

Gas at high temperature may be highly ionised Abundance of different ionisation states determined by statistical equilibrium

- Photoionisation
- Collisional ionisation
   (*impact, charge exchange*)
- Autoionisation

- Radiative recombination
- Charge exchange
- Dielectronic recombination

Detailed balance  $\Rightarrow$  Saha ionisation equilibrium

In general no detailed balance. Statistical equilibrium: net upward = net downward Rate equations to be solved to determine population

In rapidly evolving systems (e.g. young SNRs) ionisation equilibrium may not be reached  $\Rightarrow$  *NEI* 

#### **Thermal Equilibrium Ionisation**



Böhringer 1998

#### **Computation of radiation from tenuous hot plasma**



**Transition rates from AtomDB** 



ned.ipac.caltech.edu



arbitrary units

ned.ipac.caltech.edu

## Electron in a magnetic field

$$\frac{p_{\perp n}}{m_{\rm e}c} = \sqrt{2n(B/B_{\rm crit})} ; n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
$$B_{\rm crit} = \frac{m_{\rm e}^2 c^3}{e\hbar} \sim 4.4 \times 10^{13} \,\text{G}$$



$$E_n = \sqrt{m_{\rm e}^2 c^4 + c^2 (p_{\parallel}^2 + p_{\perp n}^2)}$$

For  $p_{\parallel} = 0$  and  $B << B_{crit}$  $E_n - m_e c^2 = n\hbar\omega_{ce}$  $\hbar\omega_{ce} \sim 12 B_{12} \text{ keV}$  Cyclotron Resonance:

$$\frac{\hbar \omega_n^{\text{res}}}{m_e c^2} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + 2n(B/B_{\text{crit}})\sin^2 \theta} - 1}{\sin^2 \theta}$$
  
for  $p_{\parallel} = 0$ 

Resonant processes

Absorption, Emission Magneto-Compton scattering

## **Resonant cross sections**



Harding & Daugherty 1991



#### Nuclear / particle processes Change in binding energy → photon emission

- Radioactivity (e.g. Al<sup>26</sup> I.8 MeV)
- Decay of heavy mesons (e.g.  $\Pi^0 \rightarrow 2\gamma$ ) generated in nuclear scattering (  $p + p \rightarrow \Pi^0$ )
- Fusion
- Pair Annihilation
- Dark matter decay

