



Emitted spectrum

So far we have calculated $E(t)$, but what we really want to know is the emitted spectrum, i.e., the amount of energy radiated between ω and $\omega + d\omega$.

We have just found for the energy emitted into $d\Omega$:

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{dE}{dt d\Omega} = \frac{\dot{d}^2}{4\pi c^3} \sin^2 \theta \quad (4.92)$$

Because of Parseval's theorem (see worksheet 4), the total emitted energy is

$$\frac{dE}{d\Omega} = \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{4\pi c^3} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\dot{d}(t)|^2 dt = \frac{\sin^3 \theta}{8\pi^2 c^3} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\ddot{d}(\omega)|^2 d\omega = \frac{\sin^3 \theta}{4\pi^2 c^3} \int_0^{+\infty} |\ddot{d}(\omega)|^2 d\omega \quad (4.93)$$

but $\ddot{d}(\omega) = \omega^2 d(\omega)$ (see worksheet 5), such that

$$\frac{dE}{d\Omega} = \frac{\sin^3 \theta}{4\pi^2 c^3} \int_0^{+\infty} \omega^4 |d(\omega)|^2 d\omega \quad (4.94)$$

and therefore

$$\frac{dE}{d\omega d\Omega} = \frac{\omega^4 |d(\omega)|^2}{4\pi^2 c^3} \sin^3 \theta \quad (4.95)$$

integrating over $d\Omega$ and remembering $\langle \sin^2 \theta \rangle = 2/3$ gives the total spectral energy density

$$\frac{dE}{d\omega} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\omega^4}{\pi^2 c^3} |d(\omega)|^2 \quad (4.96)$$

Retarded and Liénard-Wiechert Potentials

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Bremsstrahlung



Introduction

Bremsstrahlung: Radiation emitted from particle accelerated by Coulomb field of another charge

Alternative name: free-free radiation

Detailed understanding will require quantum electrodynamics, but we can get a good overview using classical electrodynamics. . . .

Classical and QM derivations:

Oster, 1961, Rev. Mod. Phys. 33(4), 525

Scheuer, 1960, MNRAS 129, 231

QED derivations:

electron-proton bremsstrahlung:

Karzas& Latter, 1961, ApJ Suppl. 6, 167

Blumenthal& Gould, 1970, Rev. Mod. Phys., 42(2), 237

electron-electron bremsstrahlung:

Haug, 1989, A&A 218, 330

electron-positron bremsstrahlung:

Haug, 1987, A&A 178, 292

Introduction

1



Introduction

General plan of attack:

1. use classical E&M (Larmor in the dipole approximation) to obtain overall behavior
2. Take quantum mechanics into account by introducing a Gaunt factor into the classical formulae

Dipole approximation o.k. for electron-nucleus bremsstrahlung.

For electron-electron, proton-proton, etc., dipole moment is proportional to center of mass

$\implies \dot{d} = 0 \implies$ Calculation is (much) more difficult \implies See references.

But usually electron-proton bremsstrahlung is the dominant one.

When looking at electron-nucleus interaction, acceleration on electron is the most significant one

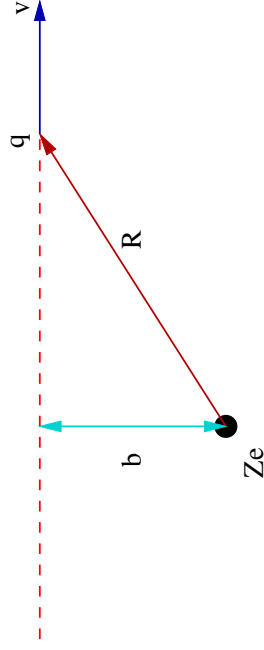
\implies Bremsstrahlung is mainly produced by electrons

Introduction

2



Single Speed Electrons, I



Work in classical analogue of Born approximation, the "small angle approximation": Path of electron not influenced by nucleus \implies Calculate motion along a straight line, $z = vt$. Acceleration is mainly \perp motion, i.e.,

$$|\ddot{\mathbf{x}}| = \frac{Z_i e^2}{m_e (b^2 + v^2 t^2)} \quad (5.1)$$

(b : impact parameter). Therefore, using Eq. (4.5), the E -field and its frequency dependence are

$$E(t) = \frac{Z_i e^3 \sin \theta}{m_e c^2 R (b^2 + v^2 t^2)} \xrightarrow{\text{Fourier transform}} E(\omega) = \left(\frac{Z_i e^3 \sin \theta}{m_e c^2 R} \right) \left(\frac{\pi}{bv} \right) e^{-\omega b/v} \quad (5.2)$$

Classical Treatment

1



Single Speed Electrons, II

The emitted energy per unit area and frequency is

$$\frac{dW}{dA d\omega} = c |E(\omega)|^2 \quad (5.3)$$

The derivation of this equation is similar to Eq. (4.95)

Therefore the emitted energy is

$$\frac{dW(b)}{d\omega} = \int_0^\pi c |E(\omega)|^2 R^2 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{8}{3\pi} \left(\frac{Z_i^2 e^6}{m_e^2 c^3} \right) \frac{1}{(bv)^2} e^{-2\omega b/v} \quad (5.4)$$

Approximating the e -function with a step function,

$$\frac{dW(b)}{d\omega} = \begin{cases} \frac{8}{3\pi} \left(\frac{Z_i^2 e^6}{m_e^2 c^3} \right) \frac{1}{(bv)^2} & \text{for } b \ll v/\omega \\ 0 & \text{for } b \gg v/\omega \end{cases} \quad (5.5)$$

Classical Treatment

2



Single Speed Electrons, III

Assume electron density, n_e , ion density, n_i .

- Flux of electrons with velocity v incident on ion: $n_e v$.
- area element around ion: $2\pi b db$.

\implies emission per unit time, volume and frequency:

$$\frac{dW}{d\nu dV dt} = n_e n_i 2\pi v \int_{b_{\min}}^\infty \frac{dW(b)}{d\nu} b db \quad (5.6)$$

where b_{\min} is some minimum impact parameter.

Most collisions will be small angle collisions

\implies Large contribution only up to a $b = b_{\max}$

\implies can use small angle approximation, Eq. (5.5):

$$\frac{dW}{d\nu dV dt} = \frac{16e^6}{3c^3 m_e^2 v} n_e n_i Z^2 \int_{b_{\min}}^{b_{\max}} \frac{db}{b} = \frac{16e^6}{3c^3 m_e^2 v} n_e n_i Z^2 \ln \left(\frac{b_{\max}}{b_{\min}} \right) \quad (5.7)$$

Classical Treatment

3



Single Speed Electrons, IV

What are values of b_{\min} and b_{\max} ?

Since they occur in a logarithm, precise values are not necessary.

For b_{\max} , ensure that small angle approximation holds, i.e.,

$$b_{\max} = \frac{v}{\omega} \quad (5.8)$$

For b_{\min} , we have to consider two approaches:

1. straight-line approximation should hold, i.e., want small Δv . Define "small" by $\Delta v \sim v$, which holds when

$$b_{\min}^1 = \frac{4Z_i e^2}{\pi m v^2} \quad (5.9)$$

2. particle approximation should hold, i.e., quantum effects better be small

\implies uncertainty principle, $\Delta x \Delta p \gtrsim \hbar$, with $\Delta x \sim b$, $\Delta p \sim m_e v$,

$$b_{\min}^2 = \frac{\hbar}{m v} \quad (5.10)$$

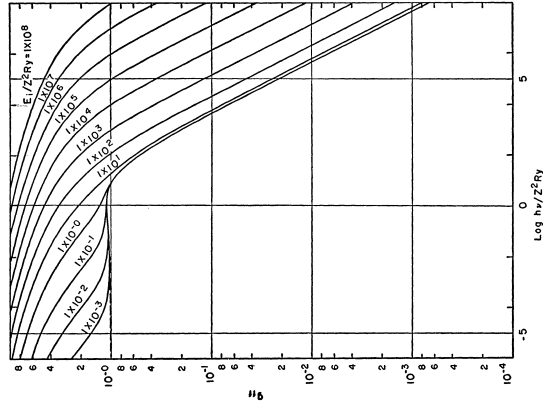
and use larger of both.

Classical Treatment

4



Single Speed Electrons, V



In reality, perform QED computations. Result is

$$\frac{dW}{d\omega dV dt} = \frac{16\pi e^6}{3^{3/2} m_e^2 c^3 v} n_e n_i Z^2 g_{ff}(v, \omega) \quad (5.11)$$

where g_{ff} is the Gaunt factor.

From the above, one can formally write

$$g_{ff}(v, \omega) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\pi} \ln \left(\frac{b_{\max}}{b_{\min}} \right) \quad (5.12)$$

Karzas&Latter, 1961, Fig. 1

Classical Treatment



Thermal Bremsstrahlung

Emission from a plasma of thermal particles: thermal bremsstrahlung.

Assume Maxwell-Boltzmann velocity distribution, i.e., probability for particle being in speed range

$v \dots v + dv$:

$$dP \propto v^2 \exp \left(-\frac{mv^2}{2kT} \right) \quad (5.13)$$

To obtain total Bremsstrahlung emissivity, integrate Eq. (5.11) over electron velocity distribution.

Note that in order to emit photon of energy $h\nu$, we need an electron kinetic energy

$$\frac{1}{2} m_e v^2 \gg h\nu \implies v_{\min} = \sqrt{\frac{2h\nu}{m_e}} \quad (5.14)$$

(photon discreteness effect).

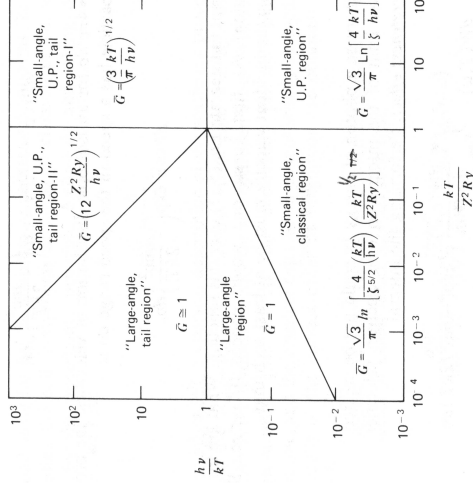
Thus

$$\frac{dW(T, \omega)}{dV dt d\omega} = \frac{1}{\int_0^\infty v^2 \exp(-mv^2/2kT) dv} \int_{v_{\min}}^\infty \frac{dW(v, \omega)}{d\omega dV dt} v^2 \exp(-mv^2/2kT) dv \quad (5.15)$$

Classical Treatment



Thermal Bremsstrahlung



Substitute $d\omega = 2\pi d\nu$ into Eq. (5.15) to obtain

$$\frac{dW}{dV dt d\nu} = \frac{2^5 \pi e^6}{3 m_e c^3} \left(\frac{2\pi}{3 m_e k} \right)^{1/2} \cdot T^{-1/2} Z^2 n_e n_i e^{-h\nu/kT} \cdot \bar{g}_{ff} \quad (5.16)$$

where \bar{g}_{ff} is the velocity averaged Gaunt factor.

In real numbers, the emissivity is

$$j_\nu^{ff} = 6.8 \times 10^{-38} \text{ ergs}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-3} \cdot Z^2 n_e n_i T^{-1/2} e^{-h\nu/kT} \bar{g}_{ff} \quad (5.17)$$

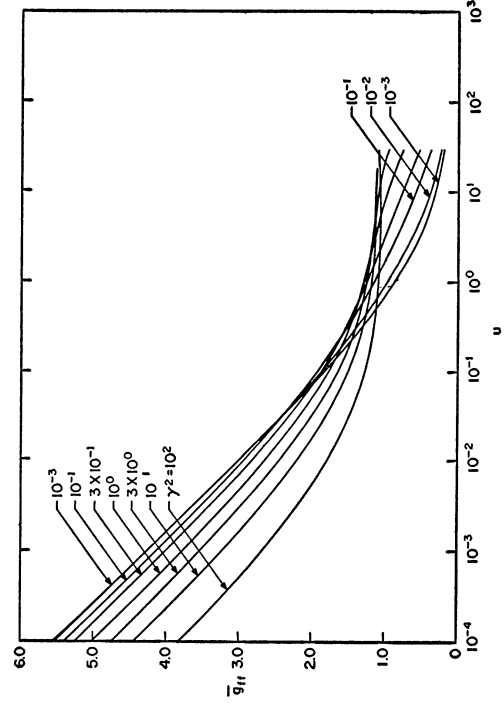
Rybicki&Lightman, Fig. 5.2 (note correction of typo);

1 Ry=13.6 eV, $G = \bar{g}_{ff}$

Classical Treatment



Thermal Bremsstrahlung

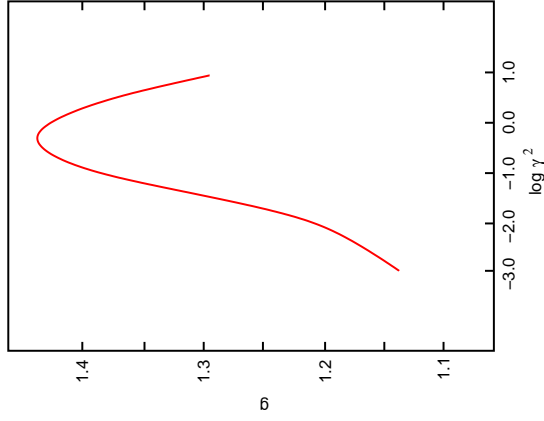


Gaunt factor, \bar{g}_{ff} , from Karzas & Latter, Fig. 5. $u = h\nu/kT$, for various values of $\gamma^2 = Z^2 Ry/kT$, where 1 Ry = 13.6 eV.

Classical Treatment



Thermal Bremsstrahlung



The total power emitted per volume is found by integrating spectrum over frequency:

$$j^{\text{ff}} = \frac{dW}{dt dV} = \left(\frac{2\pi kT}{3m_e}\right)^{1/2} \frac{2^5 \pi e^6}{3hm_e c^3} Z^2 n_e n_i \bar{g}_B(T) \quad (5.18)$$

where $\bar{g}_B(T)$ is the frequency average of g_{ff} . To a precision of $\sim 20\%$, $\bar{g}_B(T) = 1.2$.

\bar{g}_B as a function of $\gamma = Z^2 \text{Ry} / kT$ (after Karzas & Latter, Fig. 6)

Classical Treatment

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Kirchhoff's law

Inverse process to free-free emission: thermal bremsstrahlung absorption, i.e., absorption of energy by free moving electron. Because of a nice trick, this complicated process can be very easily described with what we know so far.

Assume thermal equilibrium. Then, by definition the source function must be a black body:

$$S_\nu = B_\nu = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{\exp(h\nu/kT) - 1} \quad (2.99)$$

But the source function was also

$$S_\nu = \frac{j_\nu}{\alpha_\nu} \quad (2.92)$$

Such that

$$j_\nu = \alpha_\nu B_\nu \quad (5.19)$$

This is Kirchhoff's law.

Kirchhoff's law is a valid relationship for *all* physical conditions, since α_ν, j_ν do not depend on the fact that the derivation was based on thermodynamic equilibrium.

Free-Free Absorption

1



Bremsstrahlung Absorption

For bremsstrahlung, j_ν^{ff} is given by

$$j_\nu^{\text{ff}} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{dW}{dt dV d\nu} \quad (5.20)$$

and we can use Eqs. 5.16 and 5.19 to determine α_ν :

$$\alpha_\nu^{\text{ff}} = \frac{4e^6}{3m_e hc} \left(\frac{2\pi}{3km_e}\right)^{1/2} T^{-1/2} Z^2 n_e n_i \nu^{-3} (1 - e^{-h\nu/kT}) \bar{g}_{\text{ff}} \quad (5.21)$$

Note especially two asymptotical relations:

$$\alpha_\nu \propto \begin{cases} n_i n_e g T^{-1/2} \nu^{-3} & \text{for } h\nu \gg kT \\ n_i n_e g T^{-3/2} \nu^{-2} & \text{for } h\nu \ll kT \end{cases} \quad (5.22)$$

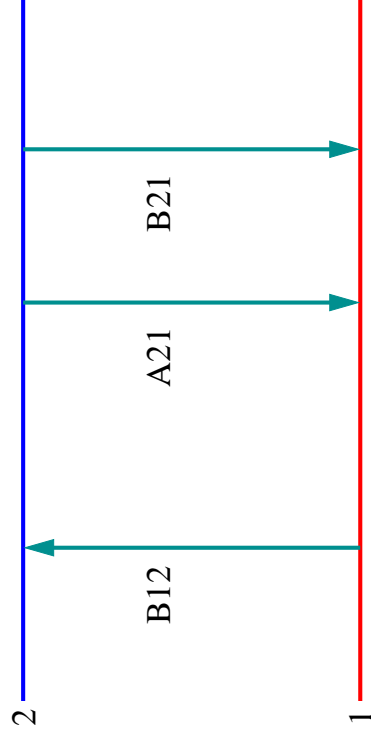
The interpretation of the exponential factor is deeply related to microphysics.

Free-Free Absorption

2



Principle of detailed balance



Describe microphysics with Einstein coefficients:

A_{21} : transition probability per unit time for spontaneous emission.

$B_{12}I_\nu$: transition probability for absorption per unit time.

$B_{21}I_\nu$: transition probability for stimulated emission per unit time.

Free-Free Absorption

3

**Principle of detailed balance**

Assume state populations n_1, n_2 . In thermodynamic equilibrium, spontaneous and induced emissions balance absorptions:

$$n_2 A_{21} + n_2 B_{21} I_\nu = n_1 B_{12} I_\nu \quad (5.23)$$

such that

$$I_\nu = \frac{A_{21}/B_{21}}{(n_1/n_2)(B_{12}/B_{21}) - 1} \quad (5.24)$$

But, in thermodynamic equilibrium, Boltzmann holds:

$$\frac{n_1}{n_2} = \frac{g_1}{g_2} \exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{kT}\right) \quad (5.25)$$

where g_1, g_2 : statistical weights. Therefore

$$I_\nu = \frac{A_{21}/B_{21}}{(g_1/g_2)(B_{12}/B_{21}) \exp(h\nu/kT) - 1} = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{\exp(h\nu/kT) - 1} \quad (5.26)$$

since, in thermodynamical equilibrium, $I_\nu = B_\nu$ by definition.

Therefore we obtain the Einstein relations (1916):

$$g_1 B_{12} = g_2 B_{21} \quad (5.27a)$$

$$A_{21} = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} B_{21} \quad (5.27b)$$

Free-Free Absorption

4

**Principle of detailed balance**

Now write radiation transfer equation using Einstein coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dI_\nu}{ds} &= \frac{h\nu_{21}n_2A_{21}}{4\pi} - n_1B_{12}h\nu_{21}I_\nu + n_2B_{21}h\nu_{21}I_\nu \\ &= \frac{h\nu_{21}n_2A_{21}}{4\pi} - h\nu_{21}(n_1B_{12} - n_2B_{21})I_\nu \end{aligned} \quad (5.28)$$

As shown on worksheet 5, assuming thermodynamic equilibrium one finds

$$j_\nu = \frac{h\nu_{21}n_2A_{21}}{4\pi} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_\nu = h\nu_{21}n_1B_{12} \left(1 - \exp\left(-\frac{h\nu_{21}}{kT}\right)\right) \quad (5.29)$$

⇒ The exponential term showing up in the bremsstrahlung self-absorption formula is due to stimulated emission!

⇒ Absorption with $\exp(h\nu/kT)$ -term (i.e., for $h\nu \gg kT$) is called absorption coefficient corrected for stimulated emission.

⇒ Absorption without $\exp(h\nu/kT)$ -term (i.e., for $h\nu \ll kT$) is called absorption coefficient uncorrected for stimulated emission.

Free-Free Absorption

5

**Self-absorption**

An astronomical source radiating purely bremsstrahlung will show the effects of both, bremsstrahlung emission and absorption, in its spectrum.

Let's look at radio regime. Using Eq. (5.22) for the radio, $\alpha_\nu \propto T^{-3/2}\nu^{-2}$, such that the optical depth

$$\tau = \int \alpha_\nu ds \propto T^{-3/2}\nu^{-2} \int n_e^2 ds \quad (5.30)$$

assuming $T = \text{const.}$ and where n_e is electron density. We assume pure hydrogen $\Rightarrow n_p = n_e$.

A precise fit for frequencies $\lesssim 10$ GHz is

$$\tau_\nu = 8.235 \times 10^{-2} T^{-1.35} \nu^{-2.1} \int n_e^2 ds \quad (5.31)$$

(Mezger & Henderson, 1967)

The integral

$$\text{EM} = \int n_e^2 ds \quad (5.32)$$

is called the emission measure. It is typically expressed in units of $\text{cm}^{-6} \text{pc}$.

Astronomical Application

1

**Self-absorption**

The equation of radiative transfer is

$$\frac{dI_\nu}{ds} = j_\nu - \alpha_\nu I_\nu \quad (5.33)$$

Assume no back illumination.

Separation of variables:

$$\int_0^{L-\nu} \frac{dI_\nu}{j_\nu - \alpha_\nu I_\nu} = \int_0^L ds = L \quad (5.34)$$

where L depth of cloud.

The integral has the value

$$L = \frac{1}{\alpha_\nu} \ln \left(\frac{j_\nu}{j_\nu - \alpha_\nu I_\nu} \right) \quad (5.35)$$

such that

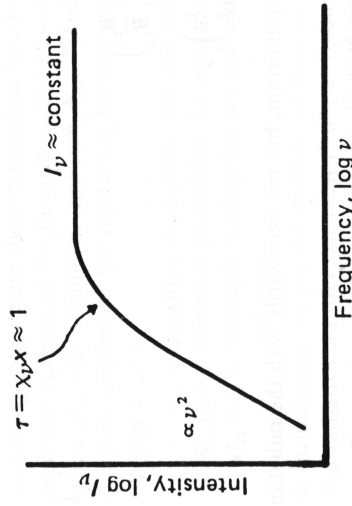
$$I_\nu = \frac{j_\nu}{\alpha_\nu} \left(1 - e^{-\alpha_\nu L}\right) = B_\nu \left(1 - e^{-\tau_\nu}\right) \quad (5.36)$$

Astronomical Application

2



Self-absorption



Longair, Fig. 3.4

Thus, at high frequencies we would expect the spectrum of a bremsstrahlung emitting region to be \sim flat, while for lower frequencies, spectrum $\propto \nu^2$ (Rayleigh Jeans.)

\implies Bremsstrahlung self-absorption.

For $\tau_\nu \lesssim 1$, i.e., $h\nu \gg kT$,

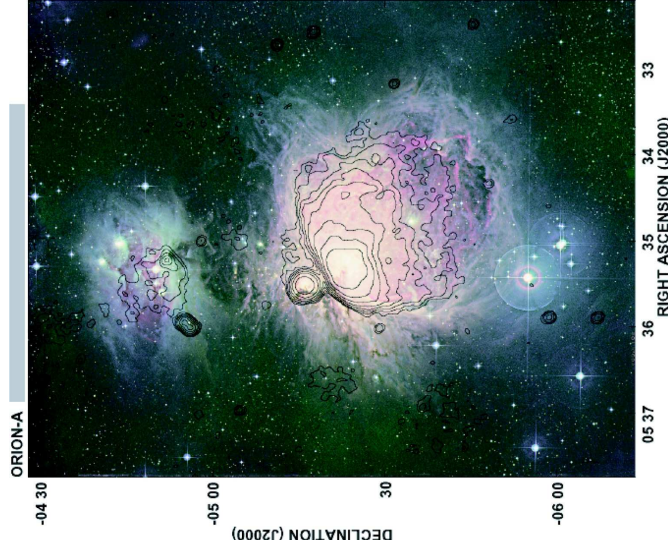
$$I_\nu \propto j_\nu \sim \text{const.} \quad (5.37)$$

For $\tau_\nu \gtrsim 1$, i.e., $h\nu \ll kT$,

$$I_\nu \sim \frac{j_\nu}{\alpha_\nu} \left(\exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{kT}\right) - 1 \right) \quad (5.38)$$

$$\sim \frac{2kT}{c^2} \nu^2 \quad (5.39)$$

Astronomical Application

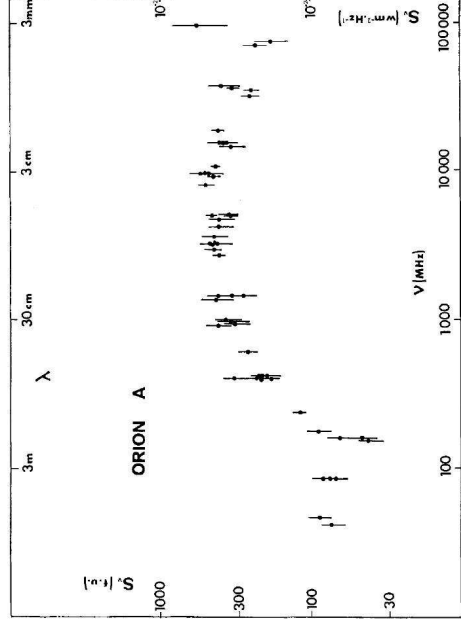


H II regions such as the Orion nebula have also strong emission in the radio band.

Subrahmanyan et al., (2001, Fig. 1)



H II Regions, II



Goudis (1975, A&SS 36, 105)

Orion nebula has turnover at about 1 GHz,
 \implies radio emission is dominated by bremsstrahlung.

Examples



Cooling Flows

In centers of galaxy clusters: observe tenuous gas at high temperatures.

Assume hydrostatic equilibrium:

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho \frac{d\Phi}{dr} \quad \text{and} \quad P = \frac{\rho kT}{\mu m_H} \quad (5.40)$$

Assume gravitational potential of the form

$$\Phi = \frac{9\sigma^2}{4\pi G r_c^2} (1 + r/r_c)^{-3/2} \quad (5.41)$$

(King profile).

Determine temperature $T(r)$ from observed X-ray spectrum.

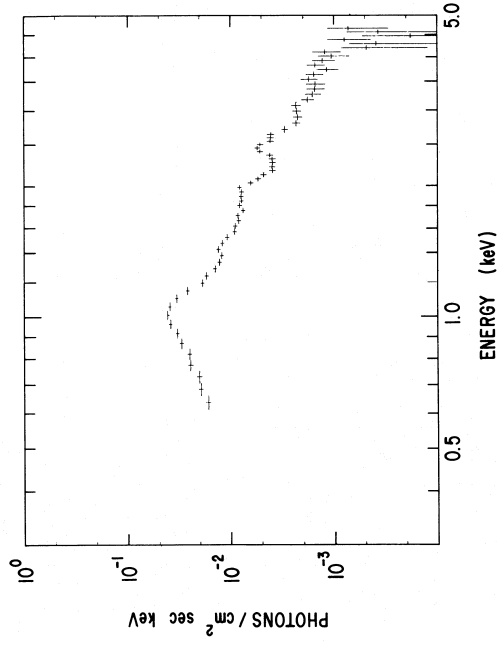
In principle, this information is sufficient to reconstruct density profile of cluster.

Cooling of gas $\propto j^{\text{ff}} \propto \rho^2 \implies$ Material cools \implies slides down gravitational potential \implies cooling flow.

Examples



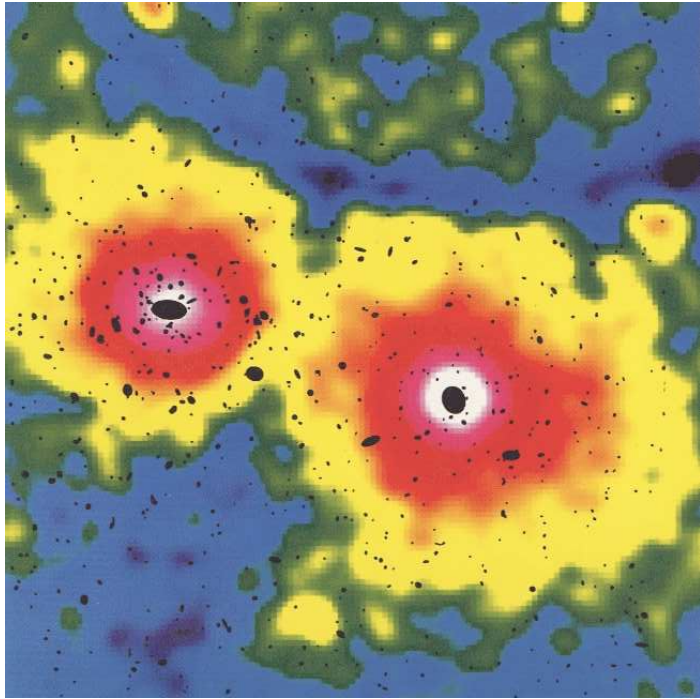
Cooling Flows



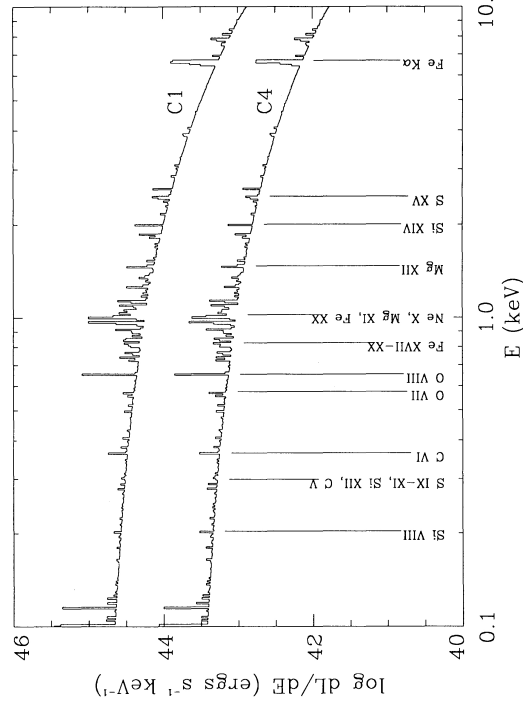
Lea et al., 1982 (Einstein SSS): galaxy clusters show bremsstrahlung continuum and lines.

Examples

Abell 3528 as observed with ROSAT (black: position/shape of optical galaxies).



Cooling Flows



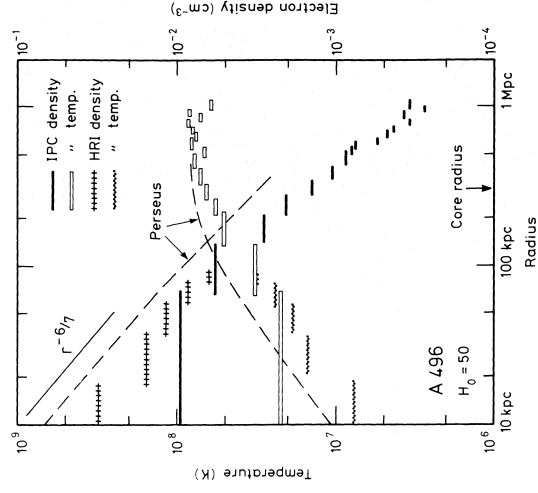
The theoretical X-ray spectra of cooling flows are dominated by bremsstrahlung and emission lines...

Wise & Sarazin, 1993

Examples



Cooling Flows



Temperature and Density inferred from bremsstrahlung fits to two cooling flow clusters: gas gets indeed denser and cooler towards the cluster center.

Note: recent observations with *Chandra* and *XMM-Newton* have revealed a large number of problems with the cooling flow interpretation...

Nulsen et al., 1982

Examples