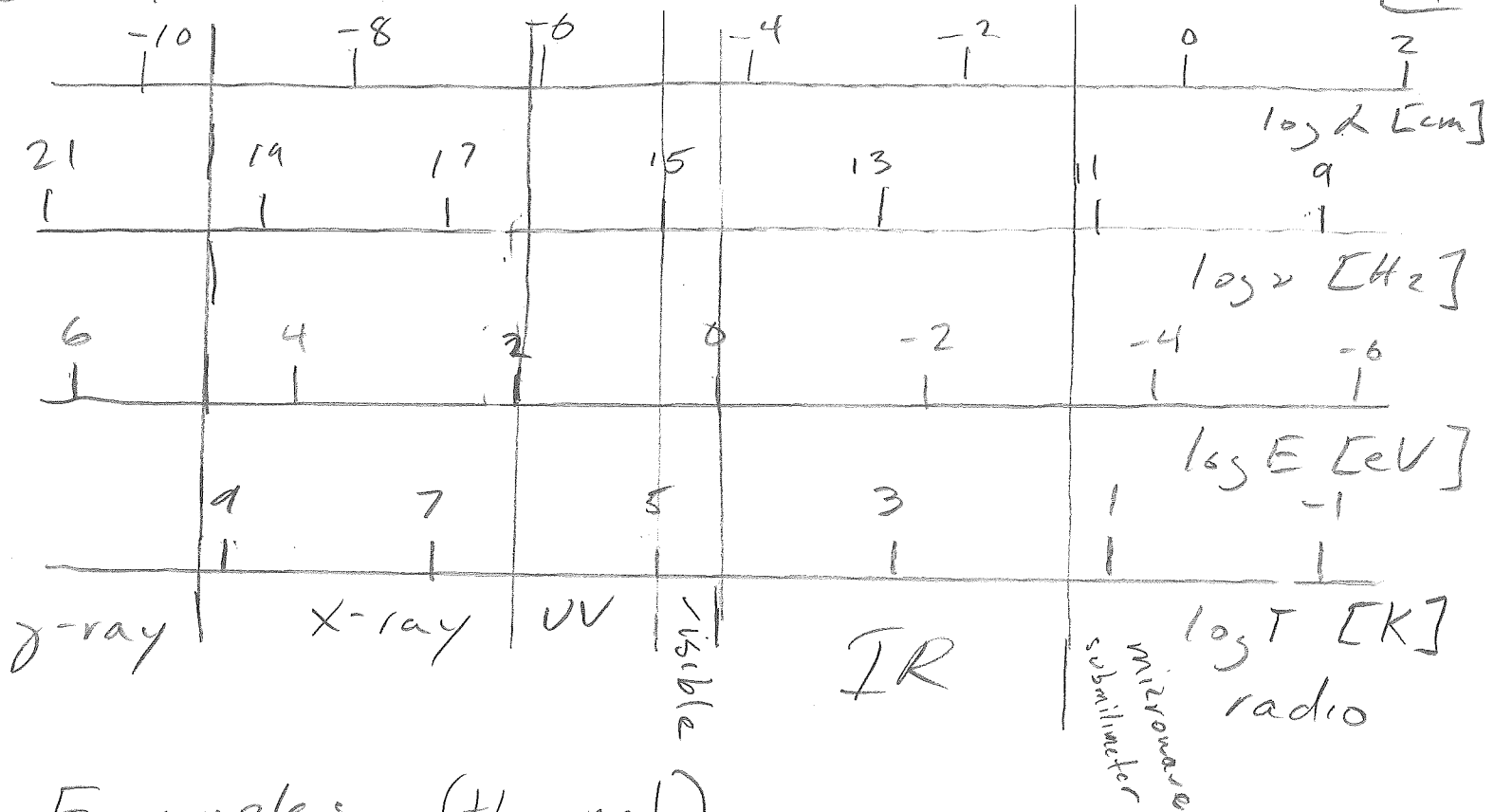


# Lecture 1

Reading Assignment RL 1.1-1.4

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## Examples (thermal)

Stars  $10^3 - 10^5 \text{ K}$  IR - visible, UV

Dust  $10 \text{ K}$  radio / IR

CMB  $3 \text{ K}$

atomic lines (allowed)  $10 - 1000 \text{ eV}$ , UV, X-ray

galaxy cluster  $T = 10^7 \text{ K}$  X-ray

accretion disk  $\approx 10 M_\odot$  BH  $10^7 \text{ K}$

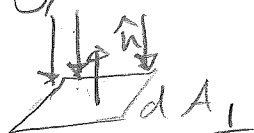
Some emission (actually a lot in astronomy) is non-thermal, meaning it cannot be characterized by a temperature. Such processes depend on electron energies, B-fields, photon backgrounds etc. As we will describe.

## Approximations

(2)

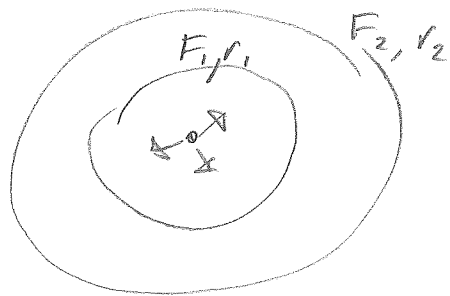
- The radiation field is classical (except thermal radiation)
  - holds when lots of photons in state ( $n \gg \frac{1}{x^3}$ )
  - even though we often detect photons using their [discrete] particle nature, the spectrum/intensity once enough photons are gathered approaches classical expectation.
- Electrons can be treated as classical particles (except for atoms)
  - Valid when  $\lambda_{\text{light}} \gg \lambda_{\text{debroyle}} = \frac{h}{p}$   
so it doesn't matter that particle is wave-like
- Geometric optics [i.e. light travels in straight lines]
  - Subtle will talk about it
  - Used in almost all astro calculations
  - not geometric optics = seeing, scintillation, star-shades, diffraction limit, certain occultation

## Energy flux



flux:

Energy through surface related to  $dE = F dt dA_{\perp}$



Point source

$$F_1 \times 4\pi r_1^2 = F_2 \times 4\pi r_2^2$$

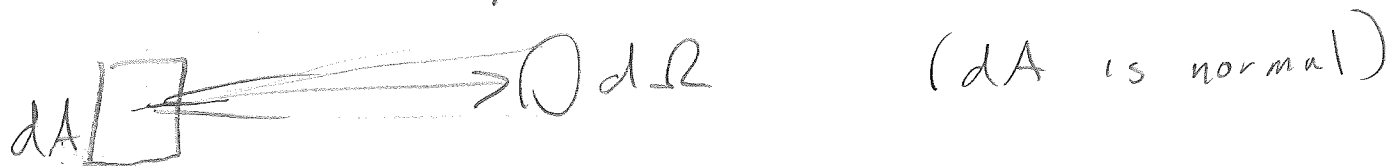
$$\Rightarrow F_1 = F_2 \left( \frac{r_2}{r_1} \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{\text{constant}}{r^2}$$

Dilution!!

## Intensity

Flux is all rays passing through a given area. Let's consider energy along individual rays.



Specific intensity is defined as

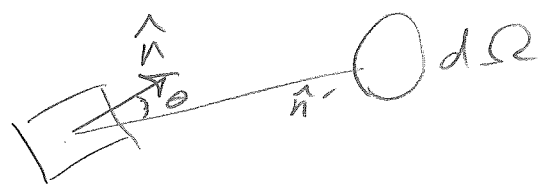
$$dE = I_{\nu} dA dt d\Omega d\nu$$

$$[I_{\nu}] = E L^{-2} T^{-1} \Omega^{-1} \text{ frequency}^{-1}$$

in c.g.s.  $\text{erg s}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2} \text{sr}^{-1} \text{Hz}^{-1}$

## Net flux

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Fractional flux from  $d\Omega$ :

$$dF_z = I_z \cos\theta d\Omega$$

where  $\cos\theta = \hat{n} \cdot \hat{n}'$

(Flux is same through  $\backslash$  as  $|$  for  $\perp$ )

The total flux from all solid angles is

$$F_z = \int d\Omega \frac{dF_z}{d\Omega} = \int d\Omega I_z \cos\theta$$

For isotropic radiation, net flux is zero.

## Momentum flux

$p = \frac{E}{c} \hat{n}'$  for radiation

$p_{\hat{n}} = \frac{E}{c} \cos\theta$  where again  $\cos\theta = \hat{n} \cdot \hat{n}'$

$$\Rightarrow p_z = \frac{1}{c} \int d\Omega I_z \cos^2\theta$$

The extra  $\cos\theta$  is to get component of momentum  $\perp$  to  $dA$

## Constancy of specific intensity along rays [5]

Specific intensity is number of photons going in certain direction. While a bundle of directions spreads out, a single direction does not suffer this dilution. Thus, intensity is conserved along rays (in absence of absorption)

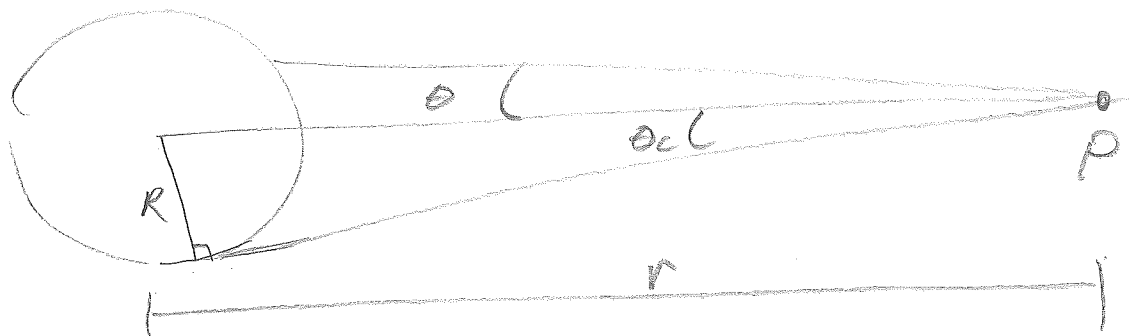
[There is an exception: cosmological redshift causes  $I \propto (1+z)^3$ ]

Intensity is the same as surface brightness.

Many nebulae are very large on the sky. Orion is  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  for example, easily resolved by the eye. Even if we put Orion  $10\times$  closer away, it would be no easier to see its diffuse emission because SB is conserved. [The reason we cannot see it is that our eyes don't gather enough photons to detect such SBs]

# Inverse square law from intensity

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Consider a sphere of uniform surface brightness  $B$  [i.e. all rays leaving sphere have same intensity]

The flux at  $P$  is

$$F = \int d\Omega \cos\theta B$$

$$= B \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_{\cos\theta_c}^1 d\cos\theta \cos\theta$$

$$= B \times 2\pi \times \frac{1}{2} [1 - \cos^2\theta_c]$$

$$= \pi B \sin^2\theta_c$$

$$\theta_c = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{R}{r}\right)$$

$$= \left[ \pi B \left( \frac{R^2}{r^2} \right) \right] \text{ inverse sq. law!!}$$

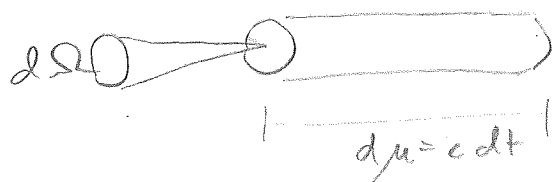
At surface ( $r = R$ )

$$F = \pi B. \text{ We will use this a lot!}$$

## Radiative energy density

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Define  $u_\nu$  as energy density per unit volume per unit frequency



$$dV = dA c dt$$

$$\begin{aligned} dE &= u_\nu(\Omega) dA c dt d\Omega d\nu \\ &= I_\nu dA dt d\nu d\Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow u_\nu(\Omega) = \frac{I_\nu}{c}$$

$$u_\nu = \int d\Omega u_\nu(\Omega) = \frac{1}{c} \int d\Omega I_\nu$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{c} J_\nu \quad J_\nu = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d\Omega I_\nu$$

$$u = \int d\nu u = \frac{4\pi}{c} \int d\nu J_\nu$$

## Radiation pressure (reflected at dA)

$$P = \frac{1}{c} \int d\Omega I \cos^2\theta$$



For isotropic radiation & integrating over  $2\pi$

$$= \frac{1}{c} 4\pi \int_0^1 d(\cos\theta) J \cos^2\theta = \frac{4\pi}{c} J \times \frac{1}{3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} u$$

Radiation pressure of isotropic field is  $\frac{1}{3} u$