

**BASIC EMISSION MECHANISMS IN PULSAR AND BLACK-HOLE MAGNETOSPHERES**

- §1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings
- §2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges
- §3 Synchrotron Radiation
- §4 Synchro-curvature Radiation
- §5 Electron-positron Pair Production

March 4, 2013 National Center for Theoretical Sciences, NTHU  
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**§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings**

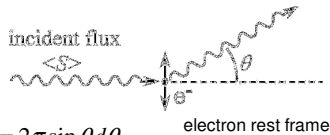
From Rybicki & Lightman (1979),  
"Radiative Processes in Astrophysics"

**§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings**

Emission processes can be interpreted as the Compton scatterings of real or virtual photons. Thus, let us begin by considering its classical limit, **Thomson scatterings**,

A free  $e^-$  oscillates in the  $E$  field to radiate (by dipole formula)

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \langle S \rangle \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \quad d\Omega = 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta$$



For unpolarized radiation field, the differential cross becomes

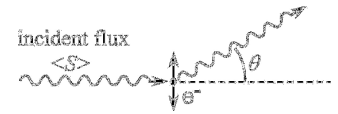
$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{r_0^2}{2} (1 + \cos^2 \theta), \text{ where } r_0 \equiv \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2}$$

**§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings**

The total cross section becomes the **Thomson cross section**,

$$\sigma_T = \int \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} d\Omega = 2\pi r_0^2 \int_{-1}^1 (1 - \mu^2) d\mu = \frac{8\pi}{3} r_0^2$$

Note that the scattering can also occur if the incident photon is a virtual photon (§ 3).



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**§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings**

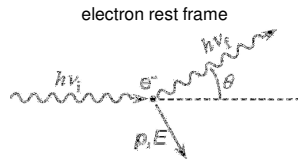
If incident photon energy becomes comparable or greater than  $m_e c^2$ , **quantum effects** appear in two ways:

- recoil of  $e^-$ ,
- reduction of cross section.

Consider the scattering of a photon off an electron in the **electron rest frame**.

Energy and momentum conservation gives

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



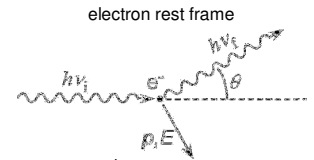
**§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings**

QED gives the differential cross section for unpolarized radiation, the **Klein-Nishina formula**,

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

where

$$\sigma_T \equiv \frac{8\pi}{3} r_0^2 = 6.652462 \times 10^{-25} \text{ cm}^2$$



**§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings**

Integrating  $d\sigma/d\Omega$  over the solid angle, we obtain the total cross section

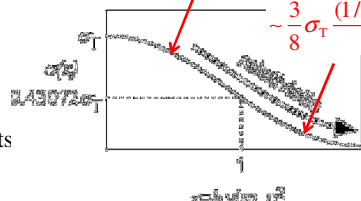
$$\sigma = \sigma_T \frac{3}{4} \left\{ \frac{1+x}{x^3} \left[ \frac{2x(1+x)}{1+2x} - \ln(1+2x) \right] + \frac{\ln(1+2x)}{2x} - \frac{1+3x}{(1+2x)^2} \right\}$$

where  $x \equiv h\nu / m_e c^2$ .

$$\sim \sigma_T \left( 1 - 2x + \frac{26}{5} x^2 \right)$$

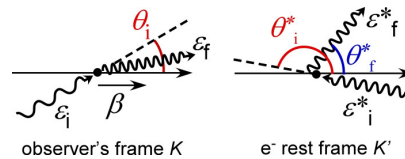
$$\sim \frac{3}{8} \sigma_T \frac{(1/2) + \ln 2x}{x}$$

Cross section reduces due to quantum effects



**§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings**

So far, we have considered in the  $e^-$  rest frame. However, we must convert quantities into the **observer's frame**, in which  $e^-$  is moving relativistically (w/ Lorentz factor  $\gamma$ ).

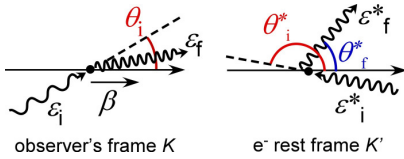


The Doppler shift formula gives

$$\varepsilon_i^* = \varepsilon_i \gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i)$$

$$\varepsilon_f = \varepsilon_f^* \gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta_f^*)$$

§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings



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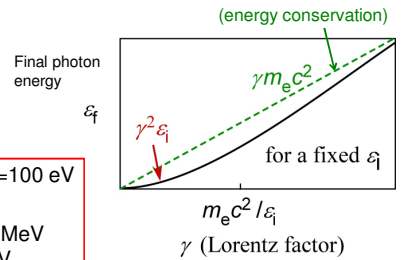
$$\epsilon_i^* = \epsilon_i \gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i)$$

$$\epsilon_f = \epsilon_f^* \gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta_f^*)$$

If elastic ( $\epsilon_f^* \approx \epsilon_i^*$ ) in the  $e^-$ -rest frame, we obtain

$$\epsilon_i : \epsilon_i^* : \epsilon_f \approx 1 : \gamma : \gamma^2$$

§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings



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§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings

For isotropic distribution of photons, an  $e^-$  emits the inverse-Compton radiation at a rate [ergs  $s^{-1}$ ],

$$P_{IC} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_{ph} ,$$

where  $U_{ph}$  denotes the energy density of the photons.

$cU_{ph}$  : incident photon flux [erg  $s^{-1} cm^{-2}$ ]

$\sigma_T c U_{ph}$ : collision rate [erg  $s^{-1}$ ]

$\gamma^2$  : energy amplification factor by a single IC.

§1 Inverse-Compton Scatterings

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$$P_{IC} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_{ph} ,$$

where  $U_{ph}$  denotes the energy density of the photons.

The factor 4/3 comes from the angle average of

$$\langle (1 - \beta \cos \theta)^2 \rangle = 1 + \frac{\beta^2}{3} = \frac{4}{3} ,$$

which comes from the Lorentz transformation,

$$\epsilon_i^* = \epsilon_i \gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta_i) .$$

**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

From Rybicki & Lightman (1979),  
"Radiative Processes in Astrophysics"

**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

Consider a charge  $q$  moving along a world line,  $\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{r}_0(t')$ . It produces an electro-magnetic field at point  $(\mathbf{r}, t)$ , if it is causality connected to  $\mathbf{r}'$ .

**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

Maxwell eq.  $\nabla^2 \phi - (1/c^2) \partial^2 \phi / \partial t^2 = -4\pi \rho$  gives the **Lienard-Wiechart** scalar potential,

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \int_{-\infty}^t dt' \iiint d^3 r' 4\pi \rho(\mathbf{r}', t') \frac{\delta(t - t' - |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|/c)}{4\pi |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|}$$

$$= \left[ \frac{q}{\kappa R} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}}$$

where [ ] denotes time  $t'$  is evaluated at **retarded time**,  $t_{\text{ret}}$ ,

$$t - t_{\text{ret}} - \frac{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0(t_{\text{ret}})|}{c} = 0$$

$\mathbf{R}(t') = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0(t')$ ,  $R(t') = |\mathbf{R}(t')|$ ,  
 $\kappa(t') = 1 - \mathbf{n}(t') \cdot \mathbf{u}(t')/c$   $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{R}/R$ ,  $\rho(\mathbf{r}', t') = q \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}_0(t'))$

**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

The vector potential,  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ , is given in the same way,

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \left[ \frac{q}{\kappa R} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}}, \quad \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \left[ \frac{q \mathbf{u}}{c \kappa R} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}}$$

Thus, a moving charge produces an EM field,

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = q \left[ \frac{(\mathbf{n} - \boldsymbol{\beta})(1 - \beta^2)}{\kappa^3 R^2} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}} + \frac{q}{c} \left[ \frac{\mathbf{n}}{\kappa^3 R} \times \{(\mathbf{n} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \times \dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}}$$

$$= \mathbf{E}_{\text{vel}} + \mathbf{E}_{\text{acc}}$$

$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}, t) = [\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t)]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}}$

**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

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$$= \mathbf{E}_{\text{vel}} + \mathbf{E}_{\text{acc}}$$

Noting  $E_{\text{vel}} \propto 1/R^2$ ,  $E_{\text{rad}} \propto 1/R$

$$\frac{E_{\text{rad}}}{E_{\text{vel}}} \sim \frac{R \dot{u}}{c^2} \sim \frac{R u \dot{v}}{c^2} \sim \frac{u}{c} \frac{R}{\lambda} \quad (\dot{u} \sim u \dot{v})$$

we find that the  $E_{\text{vel}}$  dominates in the near zone,  $R < \lambda$ , while the  $E_{\text{acc}}$  dominates in the far zone,  $R \gg \lambda$ .

The velocity field does not carry energy to large distances, while the radiation field does. ( $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B} / 4\pi$ )

**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = q \left[ \frac{(\mathbf{n} - \boldsymbol{\beta})(1 - \beta^2)}{\kappa^3 R^2} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}} + \frac{q}{c} \left[ \frac{\mathbf{n}}{\kappa^3 R} \times \{(\mathbf{n} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \times \dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}}$$

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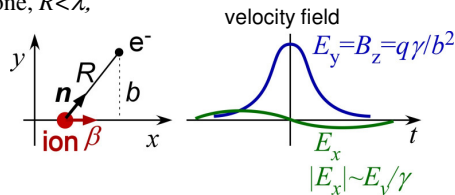
Using the velocity field, we can now understand the radiation from moving charges in an external EM field, in terms of the IC scatterings of virtual quanta.

**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = q \left[ \frac{(\mathbf{n} - \boldsymbol{\beta})(1 - \beta^2)}{\kappa^3 R^2} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}} + \frac{q}{c} \left[ \frac{\mathbf{n}}{\kappa^3 R} \times \{(\mathbf{n} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \times \dot{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\} \right]_{t'=t_{\text{ret}}}$$

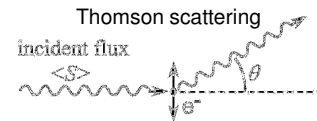
$$= \mathbf{E}_{\text{vel}} + \mathbf{E}_{\text{acc}}$$

Consider  $e^-$ -ion Bremsstrahlung (free-free emission). In the  $e^-$  rest frame, relativistic ion produces a pulse of  $\mathbf{E}_{\text{vel}}$  in the near zone,  $R < \lambda$ ,

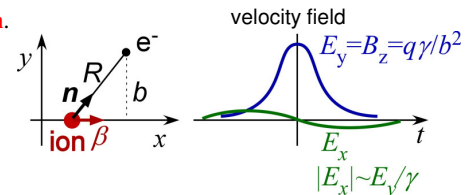


**§2 Radiation from Relativistic Charges**

Because of this pulsed  $E_{\text{vel}}$ ,  $e^-$  oscillates to radiate by the dipole formula. That is, a virtual photon, which does not carry energy to infinity, is up-scattered to become a real photon.

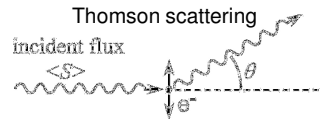


= Relativistic bremsstrahlung



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= Relativistic bremsstrahlung

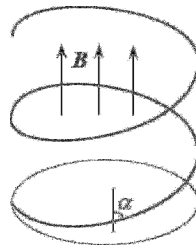
The same idea can be applied when a charge is moving in an external magnetic field.  
→ Synchrotron radiation

**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

From Rybicki & Lightman (1979),  
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**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

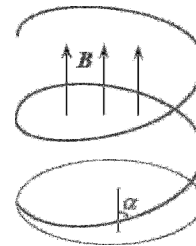
Consider a charge  $q$  moving in an external magnetic field,  $B$ .



**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

In  $e^-$ -rest frame, time-varying  $E_{\text{vel}}$  arises.

Then,  $e^-$  oscillates to emit synchrotron photons.



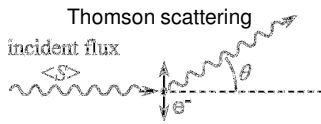
**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

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Virtual photons have energy,  $\sim \hbar \omega_{\text{cyclotron}} \sin \alpha = \hbar \frac{qB}{m_e c} \sin \alpha$

Up-scattered photon has energy  $\sim \gamma^2 \hbar \omega_{\text{cyclotron}} \sin \alpha$



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By **Lorentz transformation**, we obtain  $\mathbf{E}_{\text{vel}} = -\gamma B \sin \alpha \cdot \mathbf{e}_r$  in  $e^-$  rest frame.

**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

Lorentz transformation

In observer's frame,

$$\mathbf{E} = 0, \mathbf{B} = B \mathbf{e}_z$$

In  $e^-$ -rest frame,

$$E'_y = 0$$

$$E'_x = \gamma \left( E_x - \frac{v_{\perp}}{c} B \right) = -\gamma B \sin \alpha$$

$$E'_z = 0$$

**Acceleration:**

$$m \mathbf{a}' = q(-\gamma B \sin \alpha) \Rightarrow |\mathbf{a}'| = \frac{q \gamma B \sin \alpha}{m}$$



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In  $e^-$  rest frame, we obtain  $\mathbf{E}_{\text{vel}} = -\gamma B \sin \alpha \cdot \mathbf{e}_r$

Acceleration:  $ma' = q(-\gamma B \sin \alpha) \Rightarrow |a'| = \frac{q\gamma B \sin \alpha}{m}$

Larmor's formula:

$$\text{Synchrotron power } P' = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} |a'|^2 = \frac{2}{3} r_0^2 c B^2 \gamma^2 \sin^2 \alpha$$

### §3 Synchrotron Radiation

$e^-$  rest frame: Sync. power  $P' = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} a^2 = \frac{2}{3} r_0^2 c B^2 \gamma^2 \sin^2 \alpha$

Total radiation power is Lorentz invariant for any emission with front-back symmetry.

Consider instantaneous rest frame  $K'$  ( $e^-$  motion is NR).

Larmor's formula,  $\left(\frac{dW}{dt d\Omega}\right)' = \frac{q^2 a'^2}{4\pi c^3} \sin^2 \Theta'$  gives

$$\frac{dp'_z}{dt'} = \frac{1}{c} \int \left(\frac{dW}{dt d\Omega}\right)' \cos \Theta' d\Omega' = \frac{q^2 a'^2}{2c^3} \int_{-1}^1 (1-\mu^2) \mu d\mu = 0,$$

$$\frac{dp'_x}{dt'} = \frac{1}{c} \int \left(\frac{dW}{dt d\Omega}\right)' \sin \Theta' \cos \varphi' d\Omega' = 0, \quad \frac{dp'_y}{dt'} = 0.$$

### §3 Synchrotron Radiation

$e^-$  rest frame: Sync. power  $P' = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} a^2 = \frac{2}{3} r_0^2 c B^2 \gamma^2 \sin^2 \alpha$

Total radiation power is Lorentz invariant for any emission with front-back symmetry.

That is, in  $K'$ , radiation momentum vanishes,  $\frac{d\mathbf{p}'}{dt'} = 0$ .

In observer's frame  $K$ , we obtain  $dW = \gamma dW'$ .

Also, we obtain  $dt = \gamma dt'$ , because  $dt'$  is the proper time.

Therefore, the total power becomes

$$P = \frac{dW}{dt}, \quad P' = \frac{dW'}{dt'}, \quad \text{that is, } P = P'$$

### §3 Synchrotron Radiation

In  $e^-$ -rest frame, time-varying  $\mathbf{E}_{\text{vel}}$  arises.

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Acceleration:  $ma' = q(-\gamma B \sin \alpha) \Rightarrow |a'| = \frac{q\gamma B \sin \alpha}{m}$

In observer's frame,

$$\text{Synchrotron power } P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{q^2}{c^3} a^2 = \frac{2}{3} r_0^2 c B^2 \gamma^2 \sin^2 \alpha$$



**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

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Next, let us consider the synchrotron photon energy.

**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

For photon energy, a detailed argument shows an additional factor,  $3/2$ , arises. Thus, the **synchrotron characteristic energy** becomes,

$$\hbar\omega_c = \frac{3}{2} \gamma^2 \hbar\omega_{\text{cyclotron}} \sin \alpha = \frac{3}{2} \gamma^2 \hbar \frac{qB}{m_e c} \sin \alpha = \frac{3}{2} \hbar \gamma^2 \frac{c}{r_g},$$

where the gyro radius is defined by  $r_g \equiv \frac{\gamma m_e c^2}{qB \sin \alpha}$

Since  $\hbar\omega_{\text{cyclotron}} = 11.576765 \left( \frac{B}{10^{12} \text{G}} \right)$  keV, synchrotron

photons have the typical energy,

$$\hbar\omega_c = 17.365148 \left( \frac{B}{10^{12} \text{G}} \right) \gamma^2 \sin \alpha \text{ keV}$$

**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

The synchrotron radiation power can be estimated by

$$P_{\text{synch}} = N_{\text{virtual}} \sigma_T c \gamma^2 \hbar\omega_{\text{cyclotron}} \approx \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_B,$$

where  $U_B = B^2 / 8\pi \approx N_{\text{virtual}} \hbar\omega_{\text{cyclotron}}$ .

For an isotropic distribution of  $\alpha$ , a detailed argument shows

$$P_{\text{synch}} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_B.$$

Reminding  $P_{\text{IC}} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_{\text{ph}}$ , we find  $\frac{P_{\text{synch}}}{P_{\text{IC}}} = \frac{U_B}{U_{\text{ph}}}$ .

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$$P_{\text{synch}} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_B$$

Same ICS factor appears for virtual & real photons.

Reminding  $P_{\text{IC}} = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \gamma^2 U_{\text{ph}}$ , we find  $\frac{P_{\text{synch}}}{P_{\text{IC}}} = \frac{U_B}{U_{\text{ph}}}$ .

Coefficients weakly depend on anisotropy of  $\alpha$  or photon field.

**§3 Synchrotron Radiation**

The trans-field motion is quantized with discrete energy values, called **Landau levels**,

$$E = \hbar\omega_{\text{cyclotron}} \left( n + \frac{-m + |m|}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right),$$

$$n + \frac{-m + |m|}{2} = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$n$ : radial quantum number

$m$ : magnetic quantum number

The **ground state** has the “zero-point” energy,  $\frac{\hbar\omega_{\text{cyclotron}}}{2}$ .

After falling onto the ground state, an  $e^-$  no longer emits synchrotron photons.

**§4 Synchro-curvature Radiation**

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The longitudinal motion (along  $\mathbf{B}$ ) is not quantized, allowing continuous  $P_{\parallel}$ .

After the particle falls onto the ground Landau state, only the longitudinal motion contributes to an emission.

If the macroscopic particle motion follows a **curved trajectory with curvature radius  $R_c$** , it emits the **pure curvature radiation** with characteristic energy,

$$\hbar\omega_{\text{curv}} = \frac{3}{2} \hbar\gamma^3 \frac{c}{R_c} \quad \text{cf.} \quad \hbar\omega_c = \frac{3}{2} \hbar\gamma^3 \frac{c}{r_g} \quad (\text{synchrotron case})$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{characteristic energy: } \hbar\omega_{\text{curv}} &= \frac{3}{2} \hbar\gamma^3 \frac{c}{R_c} & \text{cf. synchrotron case } \hbar\omega_c &= \frac{3}{2} \hbar\gamma^3 \frac{c}{r_g} \\ \text{radiation power: } P_{\text{curv}} &= \frac{3e^2}{2c^3} \gamma^4 \left( \frac{c^2}{R_c} \right)^2 & P_{\text{synch}} &= \frac{3e^2}{2c^3} \gamma^4 \left( \frac{c^2}{r_g} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

**§4 Synchro-curvature Radiation**

If the particle has not fallen onto the ground Landau state, but moves along a **curved trajectory with curvature radius  $R_c$** , it emits the **synchro-curvature radiation**.

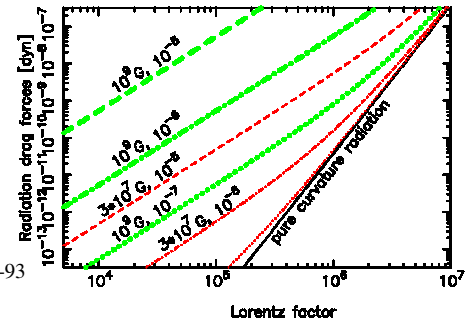
(Cheng & Zhang 1996, ApJ 463, 271-283)

In  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ , it reduces to the pure curvature process.  
 In  $R_c \rightarrow \infty$ , it reduces to the pure synchrotron process.

General expression of SC radiation is complicated. Thus, we consider typical  $e^-$  motion in a pulsar magnetosphere and show how it deviates from the pure curvature process when both  $B$  and  $\alpha$  are large.

**§4 Synchro-curvature Radiation**

If  $B > 10^7 G$  and  $\alpha > 10^{-6}$ , synchro-curvature process deviates from the pure curvature process



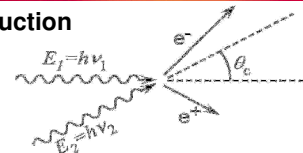
KH 2006, ApJ 652, 1475-93

**§5 Electron-positron Pair Production**

**§5 Electron-positron Pair Production**

**Photon-photon pair production**

If two photons collide with angle  $\theta_c$ ,  $e^-e^+$  pair may be produced. The total cross section of  $\gamma\gamma \rightarrow ee$  becomes



$$\sigma_p(u) = \frac{3}{16} \sigma_T (1-u^2) \left[ (3-u^4) \ln \frac{1+u}{1-u} - 2u(1-u^2) \right],$$

where  $u(E_1, E_2, \theta_c) \equiv \sqrt{1 - \frac{2}{1 - \cos \theta_c} \frac{(m_e c^2)^2}{E_1 E_2}}$

Note that  $\gamma\gamma \rightarrow ee$  takes place only when the **threshold** is satisfied,

$$E_1 E_2 > \frac{1 - \cos \theta_c}{2} (m_e c^2)^2$$

### §5 Electron-positron Pair Production

#### Magnetic pair production

When a photon propagates in a  $B$  field, it may be absorbed to materialize as a pair.

The photon mean-free path to  $\gamma B \rightarrow e\bar{e}$  becomes

(Erber 1966, Rev. mod. Phys. 38, 626)

$$\lambda_B = 600 \frac{c}{\frac{eB}{m_e c} \sin \theta_c} \exp \left[ \frac{8}{3} \frac{B_{cr}}{B \sin \theta_c} \frac{m_e c^2}{E_1} \right] \text{ cm ,}$$

$$\text{where } B_{cr} \equiv \frac{m_e^2 c^3}{e\hbar} = 4.413 \times 10^{13} \text{ G}$$

