**Thomson scattering:**

“It is the scattering of electromagnetic radiation by a free non-relativistic charged particle.”

The electric and magnetic components of the incident wave accelerate the particle. As it accelerates, it, in turn, emits radiation and thus, the wave is scattered. Thomson scattering is an important phenomenon in plasma physics and was first explained by the physicist

The main cause of the acceleration of the particle will be due to the electric field component of the incident wave. The particle will move in the direction of the oscillating electric field, resulting in electromagnetic dipole radiation. The moving particle radiates most strongly in a direction perpendicular to its motion and that radiation will be polarized along the direction of its motion. Therefore, depending on where an observer is located, the light scattered from a small volume element may appear to be more or less polarized.”

Daniele Dallacasa – Radiative Processes and MHD

Section -4 : Thomson Scattering, Compton scattering & Inverse Compton
Thompson, Compton & IC scattering on textbooks

- G. Ghisellini: “Radiative Processes in High Energy Astrophysics” § 5
- M. Longair: “High Energy Astrophysics” § 9
- G. B. Rybicky & A.P. Lightman: “Radiative Processes in Astrophysics” § 3.4 § 7
- C. Fanti & R. Fanti: “Lezioni di radioastronomia” § 5
- T. Padmanabhan: “Theoretical Astrophysics” § 6.4 & 6.6 & 6.7
Thomson scattering

Photon-electron interaction -1-

\[ h\nu \ll mc^2 \]

- for a non relativistic particle, the incoming (low-energy) photons can be expressed as a continuous e-m wave and the magnetic field \((H_o = E_o)\) can be “neglected” (i.e. studied as a consequence of the E field behaviour).

- the average incoming Poynting flux is \(\langle |S| \rangle = cE_o^2 / 8\pi\)

- the charge feels a force due to a linearly polarized incoming wave:

- the energy of the scattered radiation is the same as the incoming wave
Thomson scattering (2)

Force from a linearly polarised wave
\[ \vec{F} = e \hat{\epsilon} E_o \sin \omega_o t \]

Dipole moment
\[ \vec{d} = e \vec{r} \quad \rightarrow \quad \dot{\vec{d}} = e \ddot{\vec{r}} = \frac{e^2 E_o}{m} \hat{\epsilon} \sin \omega_o t \]
\[ \vec{d} = -\left( \frac{e^2 E_o}{m \omega_o^2} \right) \hat{\epsilon} \sin \omega_o t = \vec{a}(t) \]

Describes a dipole with amplitude
\[ \vec{d}_o = -\left( \frac{e^2 E_o}{m \omega_o^2} \right) \hat{\epsilon} \]

Taking into account the Larmor's formula, the time averaged emitted P is
\[ \left\langle \frac{dP}{d\Omega} \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{2}{3} \frac{\ddot{d}^2}{c^3} \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{e^4 E_o^2}{8 \pi m^2 c^3} \sin^2 \Theta \right\rangle = \left\langle S \right\rangle \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \]

Where
\[ \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{e^4}{m^2 c^4} \sin^2 \Theta = r_o^2 \sin^2 \Theta \]

Differential cross section for the scattering
Particle acceleration (due to incoming radiation)

\[ a(t) = \frac{e \varepsilon E_0}{m_e} \sin \omega t \]

the emitted power by the scattering particle is:

\[ -\frac{d\varepsilon}{dt} = \frac{2e^2}{3c^3} a^2 = \frac{2e^2}{3c^3} \frac{e^2 E_0^2}{m_e^2} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{e^4 E_0^2}{3m_e^2 c^3} \]

from this equation we define the electron Thomson cross section by integrating over all the angles:

\[ \sigma_T = \frac{\langle d\varepsilon / dt \rangle}{\langle |S| \rangle} = \frac{8\pi}{3} \left( \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} r_0^2 = 6.65 \times 10^{-25} \text{ cm}^{-2} \]

Back to the "geometric problem" the angular distribution of the radiation is given

\[ \langle \frac{d\varepsilon}{d\Omega} \rangle = \frac{\ddot{d}^2}{4 \pi c^3} \sin^2 \Theta \]

and this means that each individual scatter produces polarized radiation

Cross section independent from frequency (breaks down at high frequencies when the classical physics need quantum mechanics)

classical electron radius is

\[ r_0 = \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2} = 2.82 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm} \]
Summary

1. Scattering symmetric wrt the scattering angle (backward=forward)

2. The amount of scattered radiation depends solely on the incident radiation
   \[ -\frac{dW}{dt} = \sigma_T c U_{rad} \]

3. Even if the incident radiation is unpolarized, TS can polarize scattered radiation depending on the scattering angle

4. TS is one of the main processes capable of trapping photons in a given region.
   Optical depth for TS in a medium is
   \[ \tau_T = \int \sigma_T n_e dl \]

Photons are scattered in random directions, i.e. random walk in which each step is the mean free path
   \[ \lambda_T = \frac{1}{\sigma_T n_e} \]
Optical spectrum of a “type II” AGN in total intensity and in polarized light:

“broad line emission” is visible in polarized light (when unpolarized emission is dropped)
Compton scattering or the Compton effect, is the decrease in energy (increase in $\lambda$) of a high energy (X – or $\gamma$ – ray) photon, as it interacts with a free electron. More important for astrophysics, Inverse Compton scattering also exists, where the photon gains energy (decreasing in wavelength) upon interaction with a high energy electron. The amount the wavelength increases by is called the Compton shift. Although nuclear Compton scattering also exists, what is meant by Compton scattering usually is the interaction involving free electrons only.

Compton effect was observed by Arthur Holly Compton in 1923, for which he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1927.

The effect is important because it demonstrates that light cannot be explained purely as a wave phenomenon. Thomson scattering, the classical theory of charged particles scattered by an electromagnetic wave, cannot explain any shift in wavelength. Light must behave as if it consists of particles in order to explain the Compton scattering.
Compton scattering

Photon-electron interaction - 1 -
Compton scattering

energy conservation:

\[ h \nu_i + m_e c^2 = h \nu_f + \sqrt{p_e^2 c^2 + m_e c^4} \]

momentum conservation:

\[ \vec{p}_i = \vec{p}_f + \vec{p}_e \rightarrow p = E/c = h \nu/c \rightarrow \text{photon momentum} \]

\[ \vec{p}_e = \vec{p}_i - \vec{p}_f \rightarrow p_e^2 = (\vec{p}_i - \vec{p}_f) \cdot (\vec{p}_i - \vec{p}_f) = p_i^2 + p_f^2 - 2 p_i p_f \cos \theta \]

\[ p_e^2 = h^2 \nu_i^2 + h^2 \nu_f^2 - 2 h^2 \nu_i \nu_f \cos \theta \]

multiply by \( c^2 \) then take the square of energy conservation:

\[ p_e^2 c^2 + m_e^2 c^4 = h^2 \nu_i^2 + h^2 \nu_f^2 + m_e^2 c^4 + 2 h \nu_i m_e c^2 - 2 h \nu_f m_e c^2 - 2 h^2 \nu_i \nu_f \]

compare the two by highlighting \( p_e^2 c^2 \) we get

\[-2 h^2 \nu_i \nu_f \cos \theta = 2 h \nu_i m_e c^2 - 2 h \nu_f m_e c^2 - 2 h^2 \nu_i \nu_f \]

\[ 2 h^2 \nu_i \nu_f (1 - \cos \theta) = 2 h m_e c^2 (\nu_i - \nu_f) \rightarrow \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{m_e c^2} = \frac{\nu_i - \nu_f}{h \nu_i \nu_f} = \frac{1}{h} \left( \frac{1}{\nu_f} - \frac{1}{\nu_i} \right) \]

\[ \frac{1}{\nu_f} - \frac{1}{\nu_i} = \frac{\lambda_f}{c} - \frac{\lambda_i}{c} = \frac{h}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \theta) \]

\[ \lambda_f - \lambda_i = \frac{h}{m_e c} (1 - \cos \theta) = \lambda_o (1 - \cos \theta) \]

Compton wavelength for electrons

\[ \lambda_o = \frac{h}{m_e c} = 0.02426 \text{ Å} \]
Compton scattering

A Java applet showing the geometry of the scattering can be found at

http://www.student.nada.kth.se/~f93-jhu/phys_sim/compton/Compton.htm  (currently unavailable)
Compton scattering

scattered photon energy

\[ h \nu_e = \frac{h \nu_i}{1 + h \nu_i (1 - \cos \theta) / m_e c^2} \]

\[ \lambda_e - \lambda_i = \frac{h}{m_e c} \cdot (1 - \cos \theta) = \lambda_o (1 - \cos \theta) = 0.02426 \cdot (1 - \cos \theta) \quad [A] \]

Final energy of the scattered photon is a function of:

- initial energy of the photon
- scattering angle

- the photon always loses energy, unless \( \theta = 0 \)
- the scattering is closely elastic when \( \lambda \gg \lambda_c \) (i.e. \( h \nu \ll m_e c^2 \))

When the photons involved in the collision have large energies, the scattering become less efficient and quantum electrodynamics effects reduce the cross section.

The Thomson cross section becomes the Klein-Nishina cross section.
In case $h\nu \sim m_e c^2$, the probability of interaction decreases, also as a function of the scattering angle; additional constraints come from relativistic quantum mechanics.

If we use $x \equiv \frac{h\nu}{m_e c^2}$,

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

known as the Klein–Nishina cross section:

If $x \gg 1 \rightarrow \sigma = \sigma_T \frac{3}{8} \frac{1}{x} \left(\ln 2x + \frac{1}{2}\right)$

It originates from a differential cross section based on the scattering angle

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{1}{2} r_e^2 \left[P(h\nu,\theta) - P^2(h\nu,\theta) \sin^2\theta + P^3(h\nu,\theta)\right]$$

where the probability is defined as

$$P(h\nu,\theta) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{h\nu}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \theta)}$$

and the Klein–Nishina cross section becomes the Thomson cross section at low photon energies.
The **Klein–Nishina** cross section is relevant at high photon energies (Hard X-Rays and beyond).
Inverse Compton scattering

Moving, energetic (relativistic), electrons “cool down” by increasing the energy of seed photons. To make computations simpler, it is possible to consider the centre of momentum frame where the photon energy is much less than $\sim m_e c^2$ and then $\sigma_T$ can be used.

In the electron rest frame we have Thomson scattering
1. Lab system $\xrightarrow{\quad}$ electron rest frame:
   \[ h \nu_e = h \nu_L \gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta) \]
2. Thomson scattering in electron rest frame
   \[ h \nu_e' = h \nu_e \]
3. Electron rest frame $\xrightarrow{\quad}$ Lab system
   \[ h \nu_L' = h \nu_e' \gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta_1') \]

\[ h \nu_L' \approx \gamma^2 h \nu_L \]

i.e. $\xrightarrow{\quad}$ Very efficient energy transfer from electron to photon!
Inverse Compton scattering

The scattering angle is important for the energy of the outgoing electron:
1 — maximum energy gained by the electron if $\theta = \pi$ and $\theta_1' = 0$
   $\Rightarrow$ in the electron rest frame the photon is blue-shifted (face on collision)
2 — minimum energy gained by the electron if $\theta = 0$ and $\theta_1' = \pi$
   $\Rightarrow$ in the electron rest frame the photon is red-shifted (end on collision)

the maximum energy that can be gained is (averaged over all angles):

$$\varepsilon' \approx \frac{4}{3} \gamma^2 \varepsilon$$

or, in terms of frequency

$$\nu' \approx \frac{4}{3} \gamma^2 \nu$$

In case it is possible to measure both the initial and final photon energy/frequency, then $\gamma$ (or $\gamma^2$) can be deduced

$$\gamma \approx \sqrt{\frac{3}{4} \frac{\nu'}{\nu}}$$
Inverse Compton scattering

It is a Lorentz invariant, i.e. the same in the laboratory and electron rest frame

\[ E' = h \nu' = h \nu \gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta) = E \gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta) \]

Let’s consider a region where there is a plasma of relativistic electrons and a radiation field: in the electron framework, the photon energy is

\[
\frac{d \varepsilon}{dt} = \frac{d \varepsilon'}{dt'} = c \sigma_T \frac{\langle E_{rad}^2 \rangle}{8 \pi} = c \sigma_T \gamma^2 \langle (1 + \beta \cos \theta)^2 \rangle \langle E_{rad}^2 \rangle
\]

since the emitted energy is a Lorentz invariant. It is then possible to write

\[
\langle E_{rad}^2 \rangle = U_{ph} \langle (1 + \beta \cos \theta)^2 \rangle = 1 + \frac{1}{3} \beta^2
\]

and, finally, the energy coming out the scattering region is

\[
\frac{d \varepsilon_{out}}{dt} = c \sigma_T U_{ph} \gamma^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{3} \beta^2 \right)
\]
Inverse Compton emission .vs. Synchrotron emission

The energy associated with the photons, prior of the scattering is

\[
\frac{d\varepsilon_{\text{in}}}{dt} = -c \sigma_T U_{\text{ph}}
\]

and then the net effect of the Inverse Compton scattering is

\[
\frac{d\varepsilon_{\text{out}}}{dt} - \frac{d\varepsilon_{\text{in}}}{dt} = \left( \frac{d\varepsilon}{dt} \right)_{\text{ic}} = c \sigma_T U_{\text{ph}} \left[ \gamma^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{3} \beta^2 \right) - 1 \right]
\]

\[
\gamma^2 - 1 = \gamma^2 \beta^2 \quad \text{then} \quad \left( \frac{d\varepsilon}{dt} \right)_{\text{ic}} = \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T \gamma^2 \beta^2 U_{\text{ph}}
\]

and if we recall the synchrotron emission

\[
\left( \frac{d\varepsilon}{dt} \right)_{\text{syn}} = \frac{4}{3} c \sigma_T \gamma^2 \beta^2 U_{H}
\]

we get

\[
\left( \frac{d\varepsilon}{dt} \right)_{\text{syn}} / \left( \frac{d\varepsilon}{dt} \right)_{\text{ic}} = \frac{U_H}{U_{\text{ph}}}
\]
The same relativistic electrons radiate via synchrotron and inverse Compton; their contributions add up:

\[- \left( \frac{d\varepsilon}{dt} \right)_{sy + ic} = C_s \varepsilon^2 \left[ H^2 + 8\pi U_{rad} \right] \]

The increased cooling rate implies that the electron radiative lifetime is consequently reduced.

\[ t_{sy + ic}^* \approx \frac{1}{\varepsilon^*} \frac{1}{H^2 + 8\pi U_{rad}} \approx \frac{3 \cdot 10^8}{(H^2 / 8\pi + U_{rad}) \text{ [eV cm}^{-3}\text{]} \varepsilon^* \text{ [GeV]} } \text{ yr} \]

Therefore.... hard times for relativistic electrons!

following example: radiative lifetime for a relativistic electrons in a radio lobe.

\[ H_{eq}, U_{rad}, \] strong dependence on \( z \)

\[ H_{CMB} \sim 3.28 (1 + z)^2 \mu G \]
The “Local Radiation Field”

Evaluation of $U_{\text{rad}}$: as taken in a number of selected locations

Spatial variation of the total radiation field throughout the Galaxy.

- **Black line**: total radiation field for GC.
- **Magenta line**: total radiation field for $R=0$, $z=5$ kpc.
- **Blue line**: total radiation field for $R=4$, $z=0$ kpc.
- **Red line**: total radiation field for $R=12$, $z=0$ kpc.
- **Green line**: total radiation field for $R=20$, $z=0$ kpc.

This diagram will be discussed a bit further when considering the ISM.
The “Local Radiation Field” (2)

Evaluation of $U_{\text{rad}}$: as taken in a number of selected locations
Let's consider a spherical cloud with radius $R$ filled with magnetized relativistic plasma located at a distance $D$ from the observer. The low-energy synchrotron photons may be up-scattered by the relativistic electrons via IC:

$$L_s = 4\pi D^2 \int S(\nu) \, d\nu \approx 4\pi D^2 S_{\text{max}} \nu_c f(\alpha) \sim U_{\text{rad}} \frac{4\pi R^2 c}{3}$$

the energy density of the radiation field can then be derived

$$U_{\text{rad}} \approx \frac{3L_s}{4\pi R^2 c}$$

finally the comparison between the IC and Synchrotron losses gives:

$$\frac{L_{\text{IC}}}{L_s} = \frac{U_{\text{rad}}}{H^2 / 8\pi} = \frac{6L_s}{R^2 H^2 c} \approx \frac{S_{\text{max}} \nu_c}{\theta^2 H^2 c} f(\alpha)$$
Synchrotron Self-Compton Catastrophe (2)

in an optically thick medium we can use the R-J approximation of the Planck's function

\[ B(\nu, T) \sim \frac{2 k T_B}{\lambda^2} \]

therefore we end up with

\[
\frac{L_{IC}}{L_s} = \left( \frac{T_{B_{\text{max}}}}{10^{12} \text{ K}} \right)^5 \left( \frac{\nu_c}{\text{GHz}} \right) f(\alpha)
\]

For brightness temperatures above \(10^{12} \text{ K}\), the radiation field will undergo to a dramatic amplification; IC would become the most efficient and dominant cooling process (X-Rays) and a source would radiate its energy in a very short time [Compton catastrophe].

Brightness temperature limit in radio source is \(T_B \approx 10^{12} \text{ K}\)

The SSC Catastrophe happens in bright and compact radio sources where relativistic beaming plays a role and enhances the energy density of the radiation field. (e.g. in Blazar sources)
We want to evaluate if there is a substantial change in the spectrum of the seed photons in case of multiple scattering with hot (but non-relativistic) electrons in thermal equilibrium.

Let's consider the process from the point of view of the photons. There are interactions where energy is transferred from photons to electrons (C scattering):

\[ \langle \Delta \frac{h \nu}{h \nu} \rangle_{\text{phot}} \approx - \frac{h \nu}{m_e c^2} \]

There are interactions where energy is transferred from electrons to photons (IC scattering) (positive since we are considering the process from the point of view of the photons):

\[ \langle \Delta \frac{\Delta \varepsilon}{\varepsilon} \rangle_{\text{el}} \approx 4 \left( \frac{\nu}{c} \right)^2 = \frac{4}{3 \, \frac{kT}{m_e}} = \frac{4kT}{m_e c^2} \]

The net energy transfer is:

\[ \langle \Delta \frac{E}{E} \rangle = \frac{(4kT - h \nu)}{m_e c^2} \]
There is not a net energy transfer when \( 4kT = h\nu \)

If \( 4kT \ll h\nu \), photons lose energy and electrons (gas) heats up.

If \( 4kT \gg h\nu \), photons gain energy and electrons (gas) cools down.

Let's consider a gas (plasma) region, \( D \) in diameter, where \( 4kT \gg h\nu \)

\[
\left< \frac{\Delta \varepsilon}{\varepsilon} \right> \approx \frac{4kT}{\frac{m_e c^2}{\sigma_T}}
\]

The opacity to the scattering is

\[
\tau_e = n_e \sigma_T D = \frac{D}{l_{mfp}}
\]

where the mean free path is

\[
l_{mfp} = \frac{1}{n_e \sigma_T}
\]
A site with very hot plasma
Comptonization: -3-

The total number of collisions is: \[ N = \left( \frac{D}{l_{\text{mfp}}} \right)^2 = \tau_e^2 \]

The total energy gain is \[ \left\langle \frac{\Delta h \nu}{h \nu} \right\rangle_{\text{tot}} \approx \frac{4kT}{m_e c^2} N = \frac{4kT}{m_e c^2} N dt \]  

the mean photon energy as a function of time becomes \[ h \nu(t) = h \nu_o e^{\left(\frac{4kT}{m_e c^2}\right) N t} = h \nu_o e^{\left(\frac{4kT}{m_e c^2}\right) N} = h \nu_o e^{4y} \]

where \( y \) is known as "Compton y-parameter"  

\[ y = \frac{kT}{m_e c^2} N = \frac{kT n_e^2 \sigma_T^2 D^2}{m_e c^2} \]
The spectrum of the radiation is substantially modified when $\nu_f = \nu(t) > \nu_o$

$$y \geq 1/4 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \frac{4kT}{m_e c^2}N = \frac{4kT n_e^2 \sigma_T^2 D^2}{m_e c^2} > 1$$

and the final equilibrium is achieved when

$$h \nu_f = 4kT \quad \text{i.e.} \quad y = \frac{1}{4} \ln\left(\frac{4kT}{h \nu_o}\right)$$

namely

$$\tau_e = \left[ \ln\left(\frac{4kT}{h \nu_o}\right) \frac{m_e c^2}{4kT} \right]^{1/2}$$

If this condition is met (thermal equilibrium), the modified photon spectrum must follow the Bose-Einstein distribution

$$u(\nu)d\nu = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{(h \nu/kT)} + \mu - 1} d\nu$$
At equilibrium, the photons will follow a Bose - Einstein distribution:

$$u(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{(h\nu/kT)+\mu} - 1} d\nu$$

where $\mu$ is known as chemical potential (which is $=0$ for Planck's BB spectrum) and measures the rate at which photons are produced.

In case $\frac{h\nu}{kT} + \mu \gg 1$

we have

$$u(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} e^{-h\nu/kT} e^{-\mu}$$

i.e. the Wien's law modified by $e^{-\mu}$
The exact description of the photon scattering (i.e. find the observed spectrum originated by various values of the $y$-parameter) is better obtained in the phase-space through the Kompaneets' equation:

$$\text{if } n = \frac{u(\nu) c^3}{8 \pi h \nu^3} \quad \text{and} \quad x = \frac{h \nu}{kT}$$

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial y} = -\frac{1}{x^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ x^4 \left( n + n^2 + \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \right) \right]$$

Emission spectra come out as power-law with index $3+m$ where

$$m = -\frac{3}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{9}{4} + \frac{1}{y}}$$

Examples: Accretion disks in XRBs ($\mu Q$), AGN, ... $S$-$Z$ effect

Recoil effect

Doppler motion

Induced/stimulated emission
Thermal bremsstrahlung spectrum with comptonization
(accretion disks)
Thermal bremsstrahlung spectrum with comptonization (accretion disks)

X-ray spectral components

- Soft excess: In some models, it is due to comptonization of the Wien tail of the BBB.
- Inverse Compton scattering on O/UV continuum by electrons in hot corona + exponential cut-off.
- Compton reflected component.
- Warm absorber: Ionized material along the line of sight; this material might be an ionized wind with a width of $10^4 - 10^5$ km/s.
- Fe $K\alpha$ line at 6.4 keV.
Comptonization: the spectrum is modified as a function of the opacity to this process.

Sphere with $kT_e = 0.7m_e c^2$ ($\sim 360$ keV), seed photons come from center of sphere.

- $y \ll 1$: pure power-law spectrum.
- $y < 1$: power-law with exp. cut-off.
- $y \gg 1$: “Saturated Comptonization”.
Comptonization: Astrophysical examples

Possible models of comptonization

Accretion disk

Electrons Plasma Corona (kTe ~ 3-5 keV)

NS BB (kTs > 1 keV)

Mixed Comptonization (Active Bulk)

\( \delta > 0 \)

Thermal Comptonization (no Bulk)

\( \delta = 0 \)

disk BB (kTs < 1 keV)
A suggested geometry of GX 340+0. Disk and NS soft photons are upscattered off the hotter plasma of the TL located between the accretion disk and NS surface. Some fraction of these photons is seen directly by the Earth observer. Red and blue photon trajectories correspond to soft and hard (upscattered) photons, respectively. In our model, two Comptonization components are considered: the first one (Comptb1), with "seed" (disk) photon temperature $T_{s1} \approx 1$ keV and the CC electron temperature varies from 3 keV to 21 keV. The second Comptonized component (Comptb2 with $T_{s2} \approx 1.5$ keV) and are related to the NS surface and its inner part of the TL (boundary) layer, respectively. Seifina, Titarchuk & Filippo Frontera, 2013
Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect

- *thermal*: high energy electrons interact with CMB photons via IC scattering

- *kinematic*: bulk motions modify the spectrum, second order effect, also known as Ostriker-Vishniac effect

Where does it take place?

For more information on the SZ effect: Carlstrom + 2002 ARAA, vol 40, p.643-680
Galaxy clusters have hot electrons capable of IC scattering of CMB photons. A CMB photon have a 1% probability of interacting with a high energy ICM electron.

\[ \tau_{SZ} = n_e \sigma_T D \]

\[ n_e \sim 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3} \quad \sigma_T = 6.65 \cdot 10^{-25} \text{ cm}^2 \]

\[ D \sim 5 \text{ Mpc} \approx 4 \cdot 10^6 \cdot 3.08 \cdot 10^{18} \text{ cm} \sim 1.5 \cdot 10^{25} \text{ cm} \]
Figure 1: The measured SZE spectrum of Abell 2163. The data point at 30 GHz is from the Berkeley-Illinois-Maryland-Association (BIMA) array (LaRoque et al. 2002), at 140 GHz it is the weighted average of Diabola and SuZIE measurements (Desert et al. 1998, Holzapfel et al. 1997) (filled square), and at 218 GHz and 270 GHz from SuZIE (Holzapfel et al. 1997) (filled triangles). The best fit thermal and kinetic SZE spectra are shown by the dashed and dotted lines, respectively, with the spectra of the combined effect shown by the solid line. The limits on the Compton y-parameter and the peculiar velocity are $y_0 = 3.56^{+0.41+0.27} \times 10^{-4}$ and $v_p = 410^{+400}_{-300} \text{km s}^{-1}$, respectively, with statistical followed by systematic uncertainties at 68% confidence (Holzapfel et al. 1997, LaRoque et al. 2002).
Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect: the Planck's view

The same galaxy cluster, A2319, as a function of frequency as seen by the Planck satellite. Red color means “hotter” than background (CMB); Blue is for “colder” than CMB.

Figure 4. The measured SZE spectrum of Abell 2163. The data point at 30 GHz is from the Bolometer-William-Maryland-Association (BIMA) array (Lalois et al. 2002), at 140 GHz in the weighted average of Dibatic and SZE measurements (Desert et al. 1998, Holzapfel et al. 1997) (filled squares), and at 215 GHz and 270 GHz from SZE (Holzapfel et al. 1997) (filled triangles). The best fit thermal and kinetic SZE spectra are shown by the dashed and dotted lines, respectively, with the spectra of the combined effect shown by the solid line. The limits on the Compton $\gamma$-parameter and the peculiar velocity are $\gamma_{\gamma} = 3.50_{-1.4}^{+4.27} \times 10^{-4}$ and $v_p = 400_{-200}^{+500}$ km s$^{-1}$, respectively, with statistical followed by systematic uncertainties at 68% confidence (Holzapfel et al. 1997; Lalouque et al. 2002).
The CMB sky-view

Cosmology is seeking for anisotropies in the CMB temperature, signature of inhomogeneities in the “primordial” mass distribution ("local" fluctuations of density).

Local deviations from the CMB BB temperature of $2.72548 \pm 0.00057$ K
Comptonization summary

Effective in rarified plasma (no significant competing cooling mechanism)

Hot electrons! (must transfer energy to low energy photons)

Total number of photons is conserved, i.e. possible BB photon distribution is modified

Equilibrium is achieved in “saturated sources” (i.e. when the energy of the radiation is balanced with that of the electron: $\hbar \nu = 4KT$)