

# AGNAGN seminar

## chapter 11. Heavy Elements and High-energy Effects 11.1-11.3

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August 8

# 11.1 Introduction

So far, we have discussed

- Photoionization of  $H^0$ ,  $He^0$ .
- HII region, galactic nebulae.

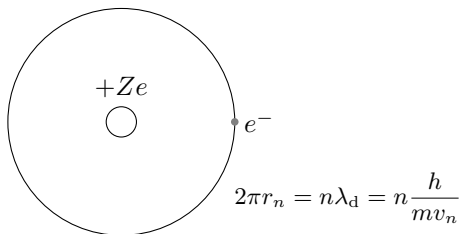
In this chapter, we will describe physical process with **higher energies**

- X rays, gamma rays, cosmic rays
- From AGN, supernova remnants.

And this time, the roles of the **heavy-element** atoms and ions become important.

## 8.2 Relativistic effect

Let's consider the classical Bohr's model of  $\text{Fe}^{+25}$  (only 1 electron).



After simple calculation, we get

$$v_n = \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar} \frac{1}{n} \xrightarrow{n=1} v_1 \simeq 0.19c \quad (1)$$

As you can see, for high ionization stages of heavy elements, the electron orbital velocities can **approach  $c$** .

→ The effect of **special relativity** is not negligible.

## 8.2 Relativistic effect

### Relativistic effect

- $\Delta S = 1$  transitions become more likely.
- $J = 0 \rightarrow J = 0$  transitions occur (usually forbidden with E1).

Strict calculations of these transitions require relativistic quantum mechanics (**Dirac equation**).

$$i\gamma_\mu \partial^\mu \psi(x) - m\psi(x) = 0 \quad (2)$$

According to Dirac equation, 1st order corrected energy is

$$E_{n,j} \simeq -\frac{Z^2 \cdot 13.6\text{eV}}{n^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{(Z\alpha)^2}{n^2} \left( \frac{n}{j + 1/2} - \frac{3}{4} \right) \right] \quad (3)$$

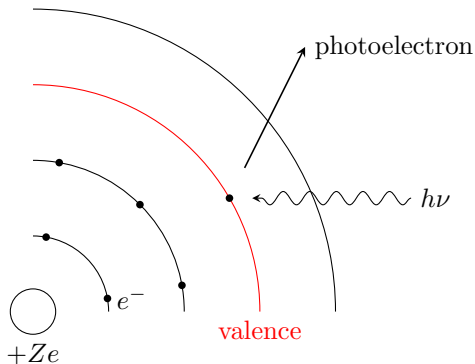
Note that

- Eigen energies depend on  $j$  (degeneracy is resolved).
- Correction term is proportional to  $Z^4 \rightarrow$  effective when heavy  $Z$ .

## 11.2 Photoionization (so far)

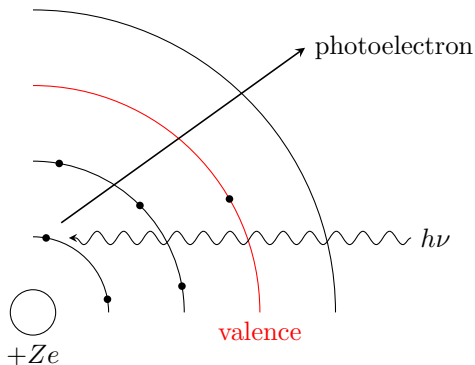
We have considered the photoionization of the outermost electron in previous chapters.

We call "the outermost shell" as **valence** shell.

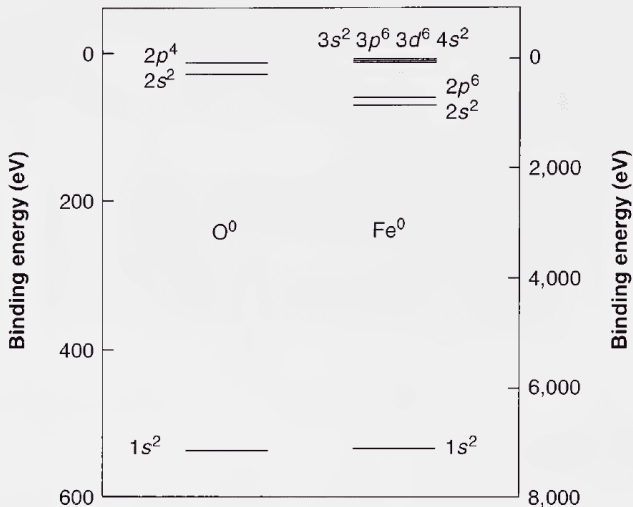


## 11.2 Inner-shell photoionization

This time, we are going to discuss the photoionization of **inner-shell** electrons.



## 11.2 Energy level structures (O, Fe)



## 8.2 Energy level structures (O, Fe)

In 0<sup>th</sup> order, energies and their eigenstates are the same as hydrogen-like atom

$$E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2} 13.6\text{eV}, \quad |\psi\rangle = |n, l, m\rangle \quad (4)$$

Also there exists the freedom of spin states, and 2 electrons (with different spin sign) can have the same quantum number  $(n, l, m)$ .

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |n, l, m\rangle \otimes |\uparrow\rangle, \quad |\psi_2\rangle = |n, l, m\rangle \otimes |\downarrow\rangle \quad (5)$$

where  $|\uparrow\rangle = |1/2; +1/2\rangle$ ,  $|\downarrow\rangle = |1/2; -1/2\rangle$ .

### shell notation

$$L(2p^6) \Leftrightarrow |2, 1, (-1, 0, 1)\rangle \otimes |\uparrow, \downarrow\rangle \quad (6)$$

which designate  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  as **K, L, M (shell)**,  $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  as  $s, p, d$  (subshell) and display the number of electrons as superscript.



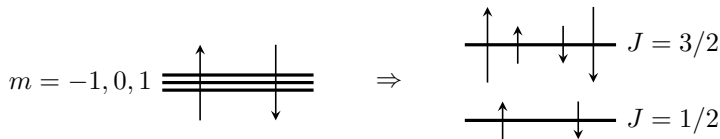
## 11.2 Fine structure

Contribution of subshell structures (e.g. spin-orbit coupling) is not negligible.  
example 1.)

$L(2s^2) \Leftrightarrow |2, 0, 0\rangle \otimes |\uparrow, \downarrow\rangle$ . Coupled angular momentum  $J = \frac{1}{2}$  and resulting states  $|n, l, J, J_z\rangle = |2, 0, 1/2, \pm 1/2\rangle$ . We denote this as  $L_1(2s_{1/2})$

example 2.

$L(2p^6) \Leftrightarrow |2, 1, (-1, 0, 1)\rangle \otimes |\uparrow, \downarrow\rangle$ . Coupled angular momentum  $J = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}$  and resulting states  $|n, l, J, J_z\rangle = |2, 1, 1/2, \pm 1/2\rangle, |2, 1, 3/2, (-\frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2})\rangle$



and we denote these coupled states as  $L_2(2p_{1/2}), L_3(2p_{3/2})$  respectively.

## 11.2 Order of the subshell

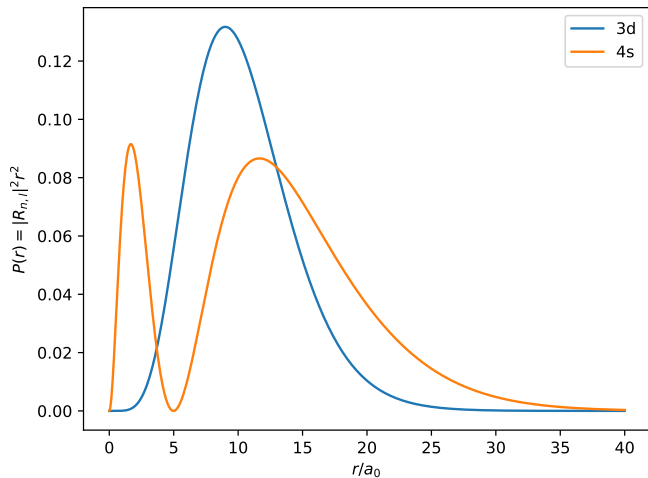
In ideal hydrogen, larger  $n$  leads to larger energy  $E_n$ .

However, in reality, some **reversals** occur because of the electron-electron interaction.

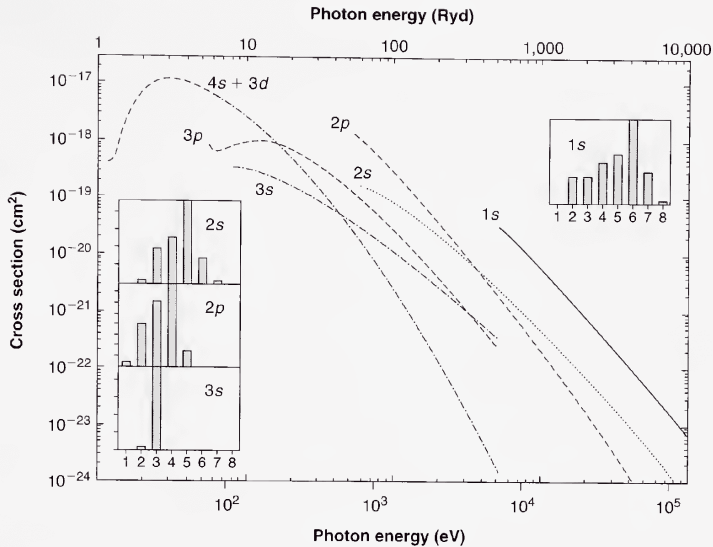
- In the case of an element with  $N$  valence shell (e.g. Fe), the  $M$  shell and the  $4s^2$  electrons of the  $N$  shell have **comparable energies**.
- This is because the  $4s$  electrons are in “**plunging**” orbits
  - hence are subject to a **larger effective nuclear charge**
  - and become more stable (tightly bounded).
- The normal order of filling subshells

$$1s, 2s, 2p, 3s, 3p, 4s, 4p, 5s, 4d \quad (7)$$

## 11.2 “plunging” orbits



## 11.2 Cross sections(Fe)



## 11.2 Quiz !

If an ionizing photon with  $h\nu = 1\text{keV}$  interacts with Fe, which electron (state) is likely to be ionized ? Rearrange the following states,

$$1s, 2s, 2p, 3s, 3p, 3d + 4s$$

You can refer to the cross section in the previous slide.

## 11.2 Quiz !

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You can refer to the cross section in the previous slide.

### Answer

By drawing  $h\nu = 1\text{keV} = 10^3\text{eV}$  line in the Cross section figure, you will get

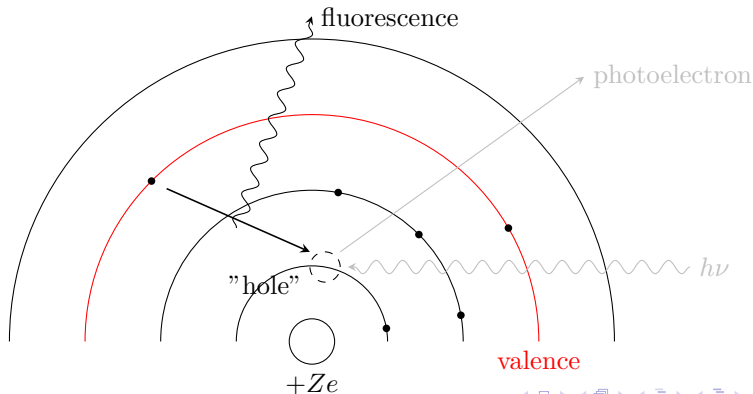
$$2p, 2s, 3p, 3s, 4s + 3d \tag{8}$$

and  $1s$  cannot be ionized.

## 11.2 Inner shell fluorescence emission

According to the cross section, it is inferred that

- a photon is more likely to **remove an inner-shell electron** rather than a valence one.
- Then, an inner-shell vacancy or "hole" appears, which is immediately **filled by outer electrons**.
- Photons are emitted during this process. (This is called **fluorescence**)



## 11.2 Inner shell fluorescence emission

Major fluorescence line ;  $2p \rightarrow 1s$  or  $L \rightarrow K$ , is called **K $\alpha$  line**.

Actually, K $\alpha$  line consists of two line  $L_2 - K$ ,  $L_3 - K$  line according to the fine structure.

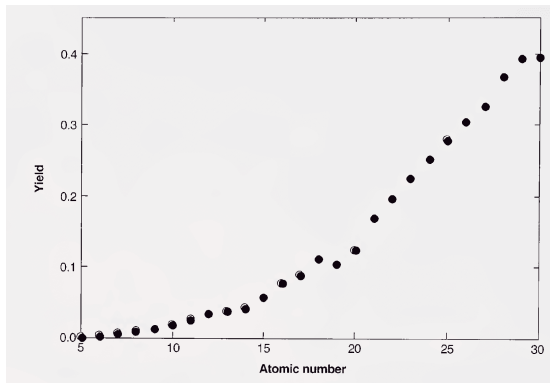


## 11.2 Fluorescence yield

Here we define **fluorescence yield**  $Y$  as

$$Y = \frac{\#(\text{holes which are filled})}{\#(\text{total holes})} \quad (9)$$

Its dependence on  $Z$  is



## 11.2 Fluorescence yield

Rough estimate on the dependency  $Y(Z)$ .

Consider the simplest situation in which  $Y \propto A$  (transition probability).

- Since  $E_n \approx -Z^2 13.6 \text{ eV} / n^2 \propto Z^2$ ,  $h\nu = \Delta E \propto Z^2$
- According to Fermi's golden rule,

$$A = \frac{4}{3} \frac{\omega^3}{c^3} |\langle f | \mathbf{E} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} | i \rangle|^2 \quad (10)$$

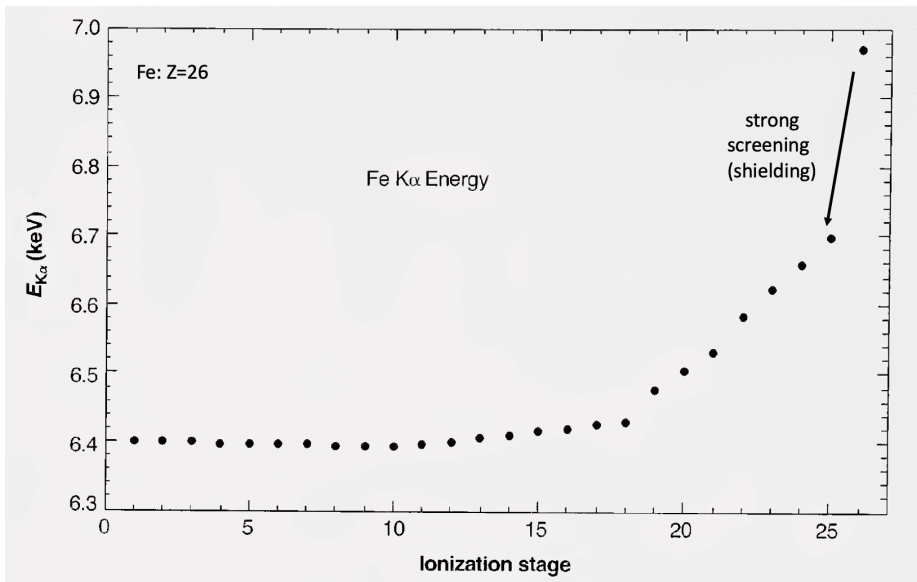
- Also,  $r \propto 1/Z$  according to Bohr's model.
- Then,  $A \propto \omega^3 r^2 \propto Z^6 Z^{-2} = Z^4$

So, decay rate  $A$  and resulting yield  $Y$  **increases dramatically** as atomic number  $Z$  increases.

Fluorescence emissivity

$$4\pi j_l = n_{ion} h\nu_l Y_l \int_{\nu_1}^{\infty} \frac{4\pi J_\nu}{h\nu} \sigma_\nu d\nu \quad (11)$$

## 11.2 Fluorescence dependence on ionization stage



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- Fe XXVI, emitted by the one-electron ion, has a  $K\alpha$  energy of 6.97keV.
- For Fe XXV, with two electrons,  $K\alpha$  energy **drops** to 6.72keV because of the **screening (or shielding) effect** by the other 1s electron.
- In the same way, 2s, 2p electrons screen the nuclear and the effective charge decreases.
- 3s, 3p, 3d electrons have too small overlap integral to effectively screen the nuclear.

### Quiz !

Calculate Fe XXVI  $K\alpha$  energy by using hydrogen-like eigen energy  $E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2} \cdot 13.6\text{eV}$ . Why does this result deviate from 6.97 keV?

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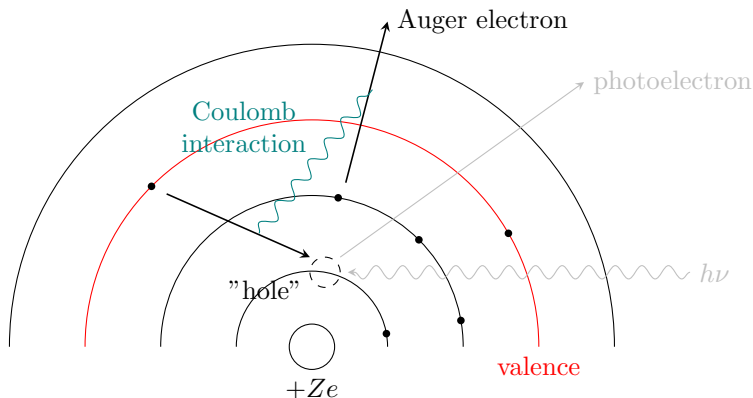
Calculate Fe XXVI  $K\alpha$  energy by using hydrogen-like eigen energy  $E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2} \cdot 13.6\text{eV}$ . Why does this result deviate from 6.97 keV?

### answer

$Z = 26$ ,  $E_{K\alpha} = -Z^2 \left( \frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{1^2} \right) \cdot 13.6\text{eV} = 6.9\text{keV}$ . Deviation comes from special relativity (as it was mentioned earlier).

## 11.2 Auger effect

- Fluorescence : When the "hole" is filled by outer electrons, photons with the energy difference  $\Delta E$  are emitted.
- In stead of the emission, **the ejection of outer electrons** do occur (**Auger effect**). Ejected electrons are called **Auger electrons**.



## 11.2 Auger electron energy

### Quiz !

Now we consider Fe ( $Z = 26$ ) with hydrogen-like eigen energy  $E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2}13.6\text{eV}$ . When one  $1s$  electron is photoionized and  $1s$  "hole" is created, outer electron ( $2p$ ) will fill the "hole" and another outer electron ( $2p$ ) will be ejected.

How much kinetic energy will the Auger electron have when it leaves the potential of nuclear?

How about O ( $Z = 8$ ) ?

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### answer

Energy conservation

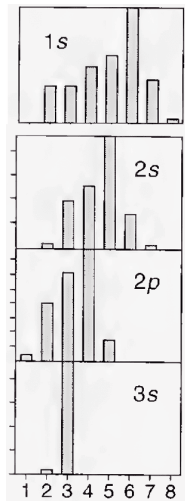
$$Z^2 \left( \frac{1}{1^2} - \frac{1}{2^2} \right) 13.6\text{eV} = \frac{Z^2}{2^2} 13.6\text{eV} + K \quad (12)$$

$$K_{\text{Fe}} = 4.6\text{keV}, K_{\text{O}} = 440\text{eV}$$



## 11.2 Auger electron and ionization stages

How many Auger electrons are ejected at one "hole" ?



## 11.2 Auger electron and ionization stages

According to the probability distributions of the number of Auger electrons,

- K shell vacancies typically result in the ejection of 6 electrons.
- The removal of a  $1s$  electron of  $\text{Fe}^0$  typically produces ions  $\text{Fe}^{+7}$ .

High ionization states are produced by one Auger effect.

The Auger effect is one of the main physical processes responsible for producing highly ionized states in heavy elements

## 11.3 Physical Processes at Still Higher Energies

We have discussed

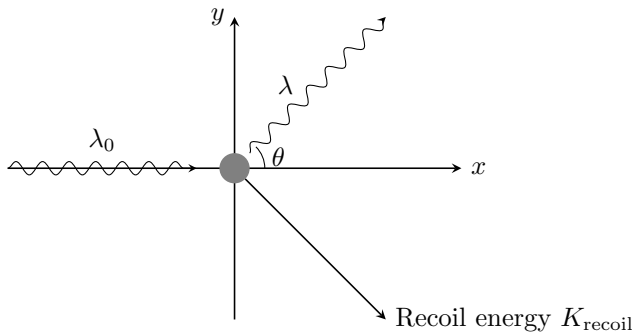
- Inner-shell photoionization
- Fluorescence emission
- Auger effect

These effects play an important role when injected photon has  $10^2 \sim 10^3$  eV.

From now on, we will put focus on still higher energy region.

- Compton effect
- Pair production
- Secondary ionization
- Cosmic ray

## 11.3.1 Compton effect



Compton effect : a process in which photons are scattered by an electron. Its cross section is known as the **Thomson electron-scattering cross section**  $\sigma_T = 0.66 \times 10^{-24} \text{cm}^{-2}$ .

At restframe of an electron, photon with  $\lambda_0$  is scattered by the electron and becomes  $\lambda$ , fly with angle  $\theta$ .

## 11.3.1 Compton effect

### Compton formula

$$\lambda - \lambda_0 = \frac{h}{mc}(1 - \cos \theta) \quad (13)$$

is derived using energy and momentum conservation (special relativity).

But in reality, electrons move according to a thermal velocity distribution. Average energy shift by the Compton effect is

$$\left\langle \frac{\delta(h\nu)}{h\nu} \right\rangle = \frac{4kT}{mc^2}, \quad \text{where} \quad \frac{3}{2}kT = \left\langle \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \right\rangle \quad (14)$$

(you can derive this according to Lorentz transformation.)

## 11.3.1 Compton effect

If  $kT > h\nu$ , the photon can gain energy following the collision, termed **inverse** Compton scattering.

During one scattering process, net average heating (or cooling) is

$$\langle \Delta E_{\text{elec}} \rangle = h\nu \frac{h\nu - 4kT}{mc^2} \quad (15)$$

and this results in the whole net heating under the radiation field  $J_\nu$

$$H_{\text{Comp}} = n_e \int \frac{4\pi J_\nu}{h\nu} \sigma_T \langle \Delta E_{\text{elec}} \rangle d\nu \quad (16)$$

## 11.3.1 Compton recoil

Kinetic energy of the electron increases during Compton scattering (**Compton recoil**).

Recoil energy is

$$K_{\text{recoil}} = h\nu_0 - h\nu = hc \left( \frac{1}{\lambda_0} - \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) \quad (17)$$

$$= \frac{hc}{\lambda_0} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\lambda/\lambda_0} \right) = h\nu_0 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{h\nu_0}{mc^2}(1 - \cos \theta)} \right) \quad (18)$$

Typically,

$$K_{\text{recoil}} \approx h\nu_0 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{h\nu_0}{mc^2}} \right) \quad (19)$$

## 11.3.1 Compton recoil

### Compton recoil ionization

If the recoil energy  $K_{\text{recoil}}$  is greater than the ionization potential  $\chi_0 \approx 13.6 \cdot Z^2 \text{eV}$ ,

$$K_{\text{recoil}} = h\nu_0 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{h\nu_0}{mc^2}} \right) > \chi_0 \quad (20)$$

ionization by Compton recoil will occur.  
And you get following ionization condition.

$$h\nu_0 > \frac{\chi_0 + \sqrt{\chi_0^2 + 4\chi_0 mc^2}}{2} \quad (21)$$

example )

$Z = 1, \chi_0 = 13.6 \text{eV} \ll mc^2 = 511 \text{keV}$ . Then, the condition becomes

$$h\nu_0 > \frac{\chi_0 + \sqrt{\chi_0^2 + 4\chi_0 mc^2}}{2} \approx \sqrt{\chi_0 mc^2} = 2.6 \text{keV} \quad (22)$$



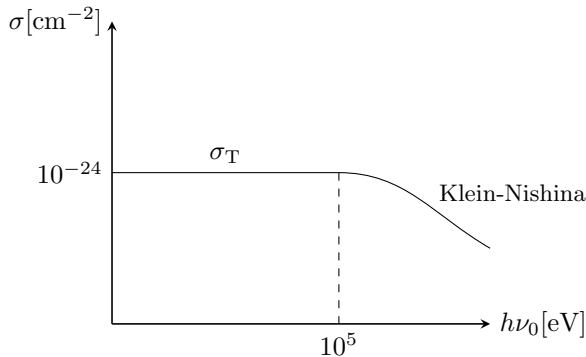
## 11.3.1 Compton cross section

Cross section of Compton effect is roughly the same as Thomson electron-scattering cross section  $\sigma_T = 0.66 \times 10^{-24} \text{cm}^{-2}$ .

But the difference cannot be neglected when the energy is quite high.

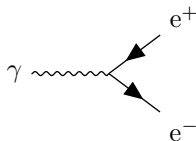
In high energy region, cross section is given by **Klein-Nishina formula**

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}\right)^2 \frac{h^2}{2m^2 c^2} \frac{\lambda_0^2}{\lambda} \left[ \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_0} + \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda} - \sin^2 \theta \right], \quad \sigma = \int \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} d\Omega \quad (23)$$



## 11.3.2 Pair production

When a photon has energy greater than  $2mc^2 \approx 1\text{MeV}$ , energy conservation allows it to decay into  $e^+ - e^-$  pair.



- $e^+ - e^-$  pair are **virtual** (they cannot become a real pair in a vacuum) because of momentum conservation.
- If the pair is near the nuclear, it can transfer momentum to the nuclear and become a real pair.
- The typical cross section of pair production  $\sim 10^{-27}\text{cm}^{-2}$
- Pair eventually annihilates and forms two photons , each having 0.511 MeV (This is called **annihilation line**).

## 11.3.3 Secondary ionization

Energy of

- Auger electrons
- $e^+ - e^-$  pair
- photoelectron by strong radiation

is **far larger than that of thermal electrons ( $kT$ )**.

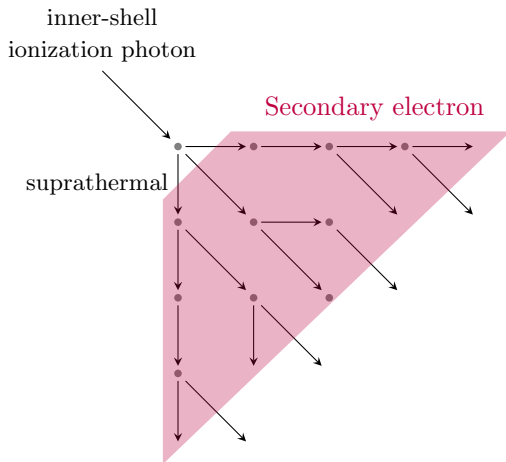
Under **ionized** gas environment

These "suprathermal" electrons are gradually thermalized during collisions with surrounding thermal electrons.

Under **neutral** gas environment

- These "suprathermal" electrons collide with atoms  $\rightarrow$  collisional ionization.
- They can create a **second suprathermal electron** if it collisionally ionizes an atom.

## 11.3.3 Secondary electron shower



Neutral atoms are ionized and secondary suprathermal electrons are produced one after another.

## 11.3.3 Energy transformation

The ionization fraction

$$x := \frac{n(\text{H}^+)}{n(\text{H})} \quad (24)$$

determines the importance of secondary ionization.

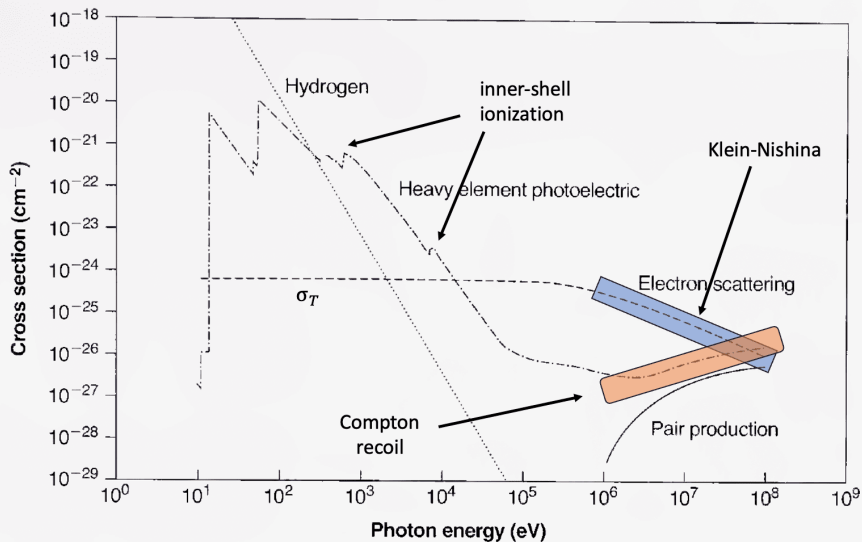
- If  $x > 0.9$ , most kinetic energy goes into **heat**.
- If  $x \ll 0.9$ , much of an energetic primary electron's energy goes into secondary ionization(40%) and excitation(40%), and **less into heat** (14%).

## 11.3.4 Cosmic rays

Cosmic ray : nuclei and electrons with relativistic energies ( $\lesssim 10\text{GeV}$ ).

- Distribution function  $n(E) \propto E^{-2.4}$
- Lower-energy cosmic rays cannot be directly observed from the Earth, but synchrotron radiation indirectly infers the existence of them.
- Cosmic rays ionize neutral atoms rather than heat them.
- The  $\text{H}^0$  ionization rate is approximately  $2 \times 10^{-17}\text{s}^{-1}$
- Typical energy of electrons ionized by cosmic rays is  $35\text{eV}$  (suprathermal).
- That suprathermal electron will then create secondary electrons.

## 11.3.5 Total opacity



## 11.3.5 Total opacity

The sources of opacity vary across different energy ranges.

- Low-energy range ( $< 54\text{eV}$ ): H( $13.6\text{eV}$ ), He( $24.6, 54\text{eV}$ ), grain
- Middle-energy range ( $54\text{eV} < h\nu < \mathcal{O}(\text{keV})$ ): Inner-shell ionization ( $\rightarrow$  Auger effect, fluorescence)
- High-energy range ( $100\text{keV} < h\nu < \mathcal{O}(\text{MeV})$ ): Compton recoil, pair production

### Column density

$$\tau_\nu = a_\nu N(\text{H}) = 1 \quad \rightarrow \quad N(\text{H}) = a_\nu^{-1} \approx 10^{24} \text{cm}^{-2} \quad (25)$$

High-energy processes become very important for relatively large column densities (above  $10^{24} \text{cm}^{-2}$ )