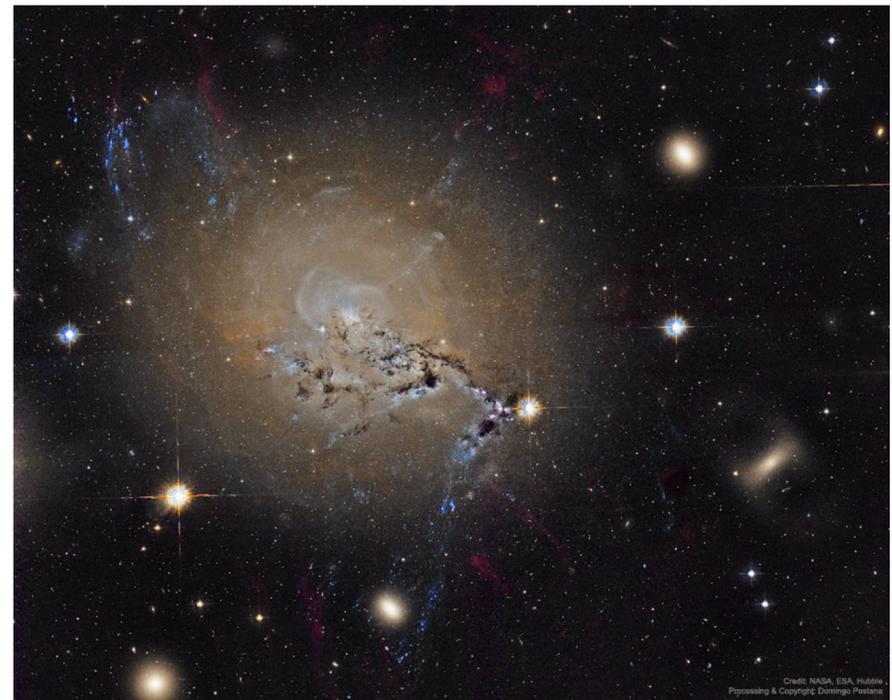


# [20] Active Galaxies 1 (4/17/18)

## Upcoming Items

1. Homework #5 due in one week.
2. Read Ch. 21.4 for next class and do the self-study quizzes

APOD 4/5/17: NGC 1275  
Active Galaxy in Perseus

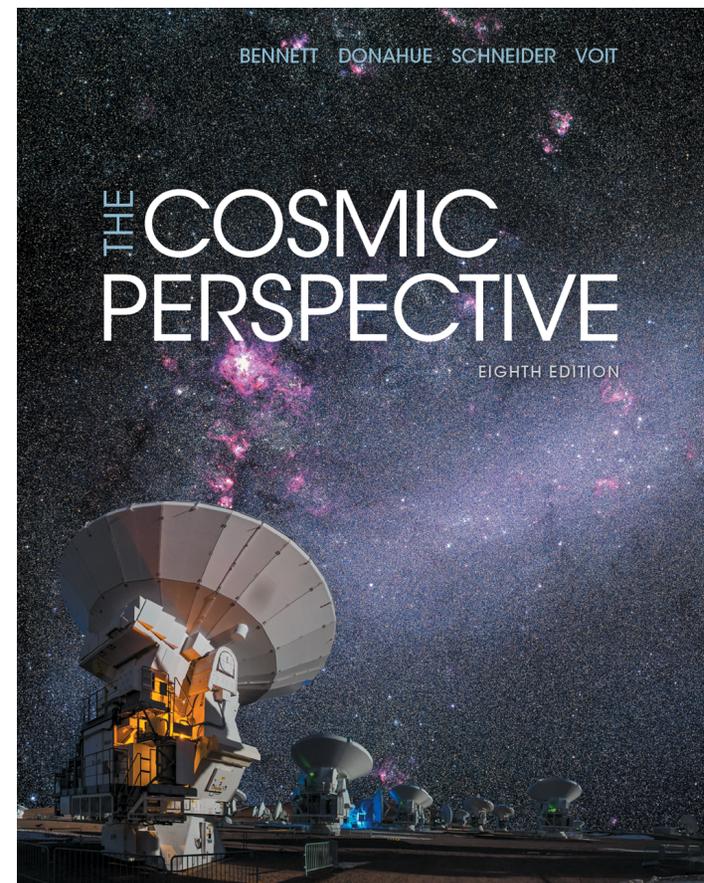


# LEARNING GOALS

Ch. 21.3

*For this class, you should be able to...*

- ... use the minimum timescale of variability of a luminous object to put an upper limit on its physical size;*
- ... put a lower limit on the mass of an accreting object by assuming it is emitting light at the Eddington limit;*
- ... describe the observational evidence and theoretical considerations that imply quasars and active galaxies are powered by supermassive black holes.*

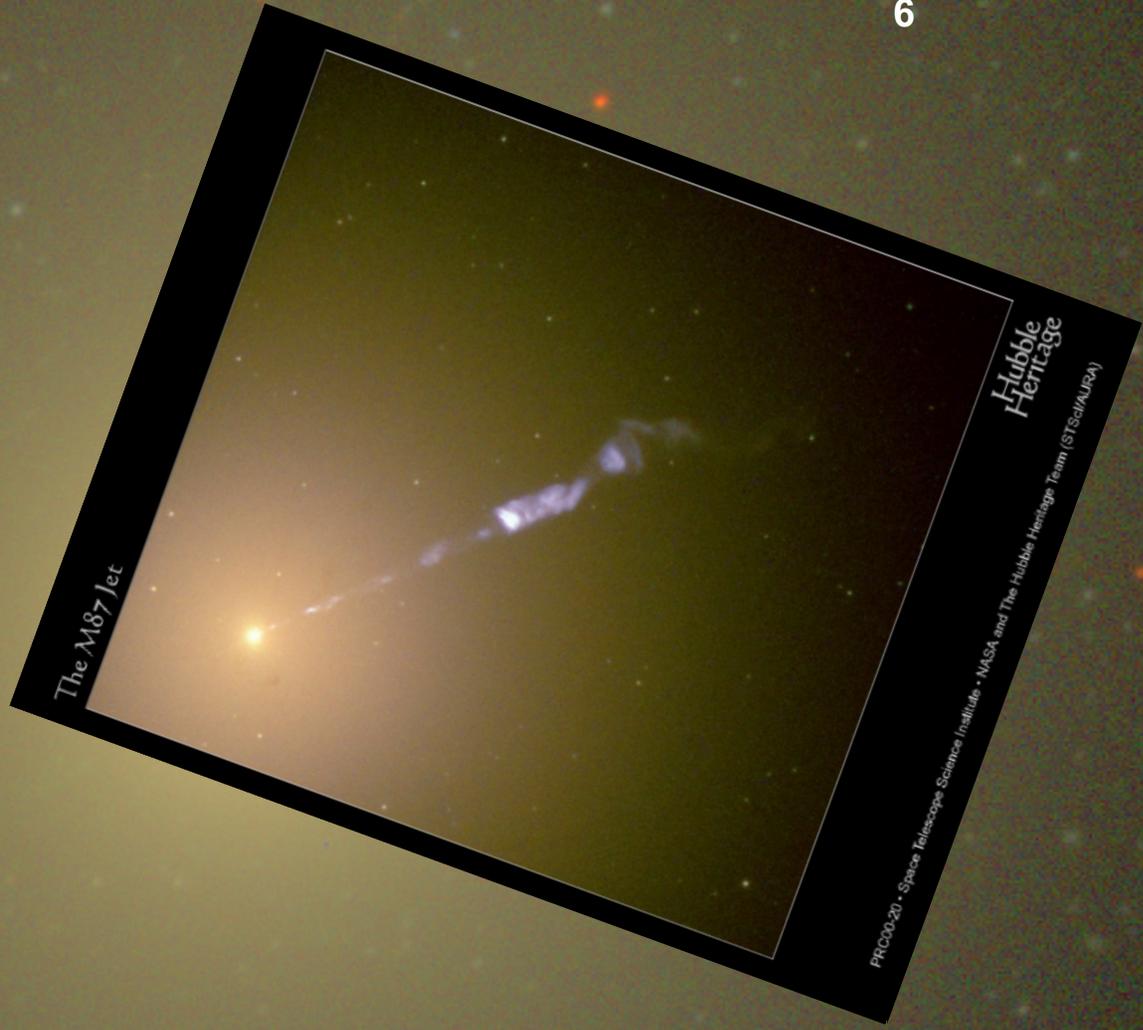


Any astro questions?

# Active Galaxies 1

- Some galaxies have very bright centers: active galactic nuclei ([AGN](#)). [Quasars](#) are the most luminous examples.
- Their luminosities can be [enormous](#) ( $> 10^{12} L_{\odot}$ ).
- Their luminosities can [vary rapidly](#) (and thus they come from a region smaller than our solar system).
- They emit energy over a [wide range of wavelengths](#) (contain matter with a wide temperature range).
- Active galaxies are sometimes associated with [collisions](#).
- Accretion of gas onto a [supermassive black hole](#) is likely the only way to explain all the properties of quasars and active galaxies. Consideration of the [Eddington limit](#) gives a lower bound on the mass.

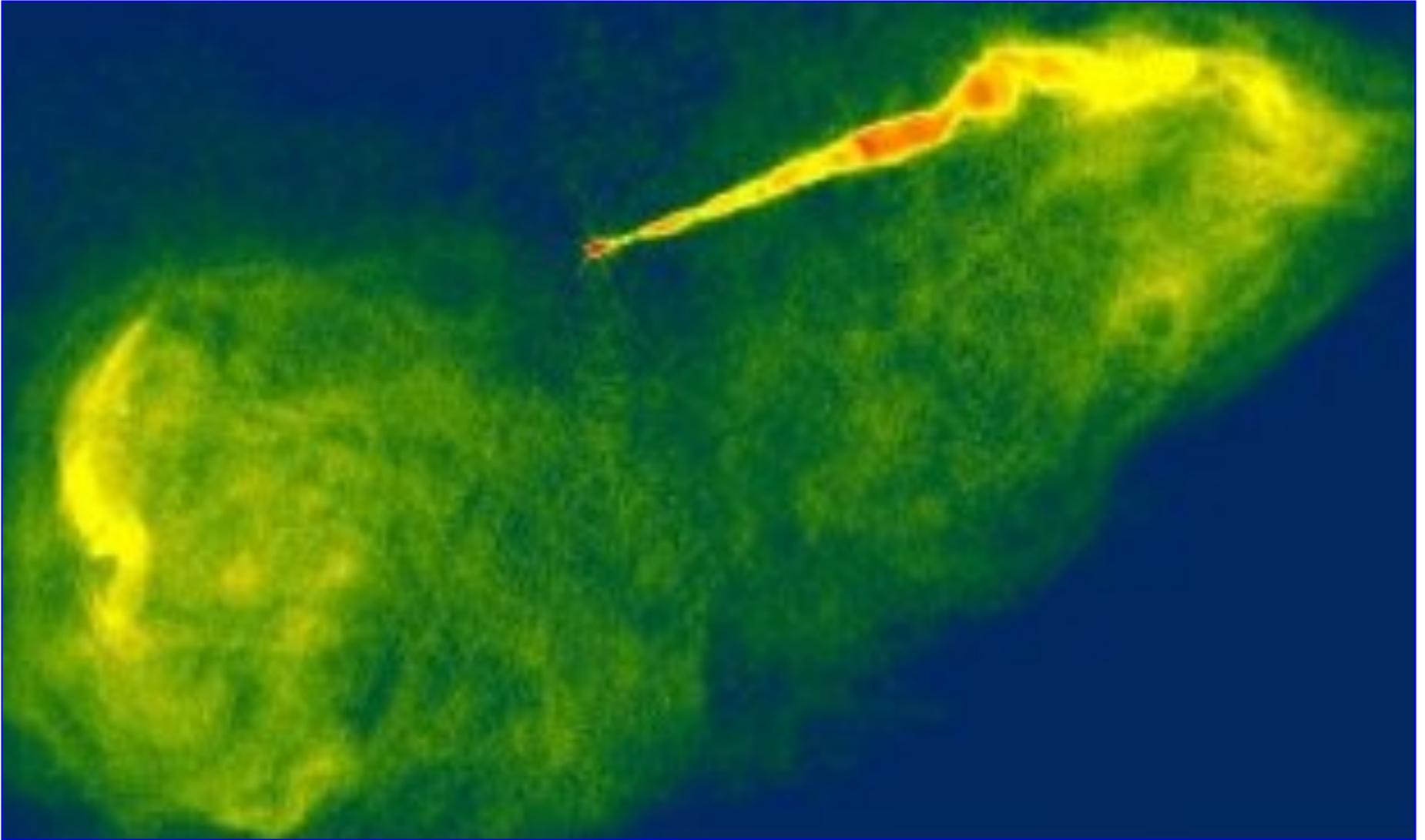




The M87 Jet

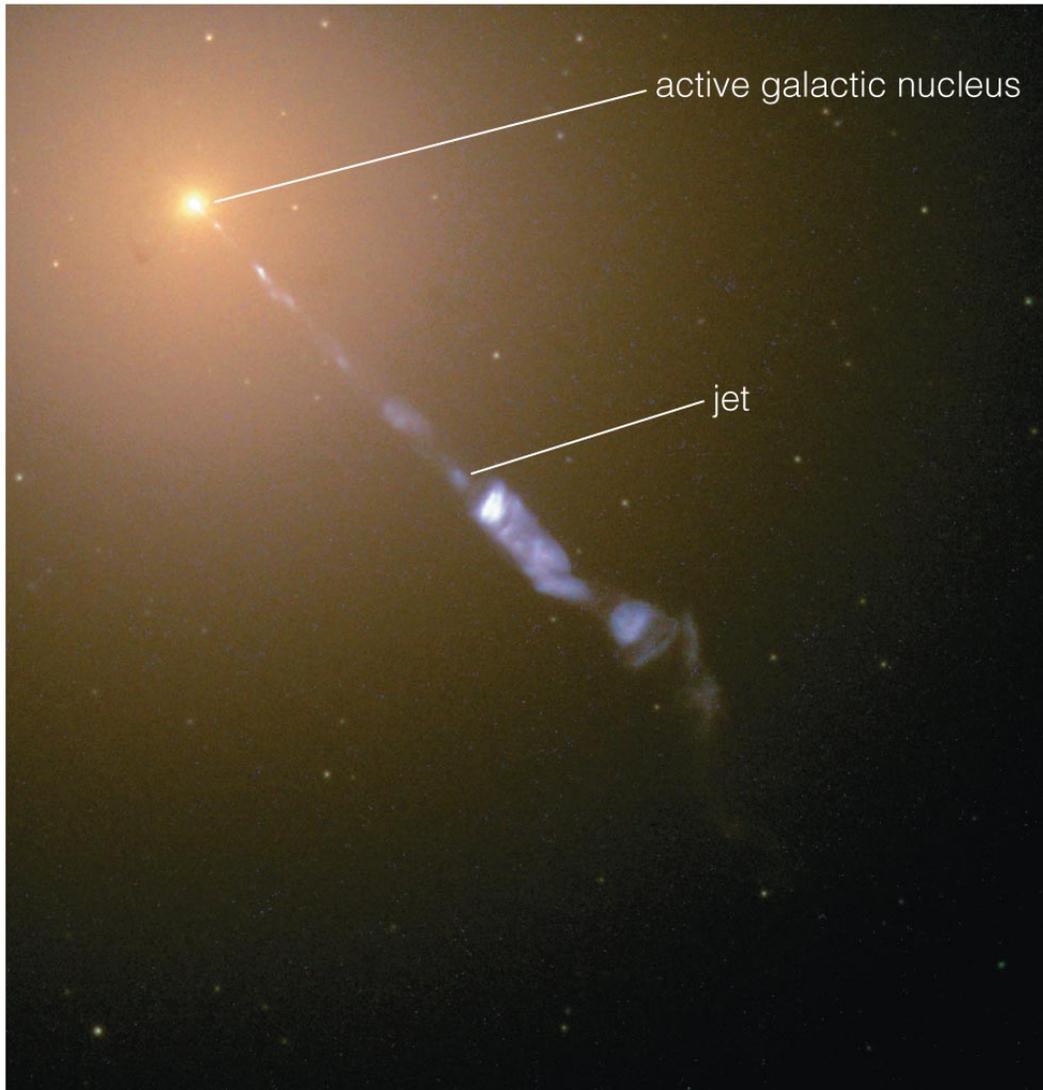
Hubble Heritage

PRC00-20 • Space Telescope Science Institute • NASA and The Hubble Heritage Team (STScI/AURA)



- M87 with the VLA (radio).

## Active nucleus in M87



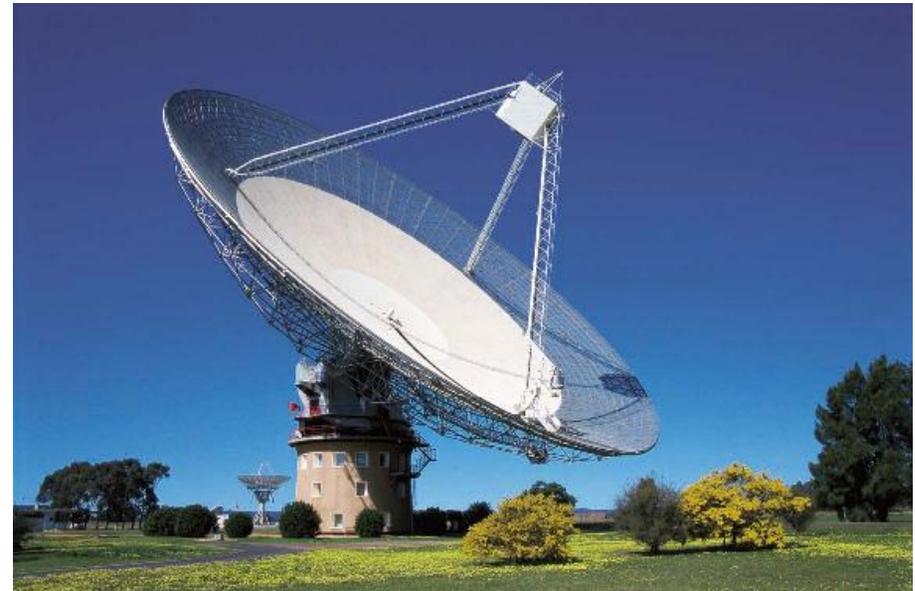
- If the center of a galaxy is unusually bright, we call it an ***active galactic nucleus***.
- ***Quasars*** are the most luminous examples.
- (More about the jet later...)

# The Discovery of Quasars

- In the early 1960s, radio astronomers started to survey the sky.
- Found many mysterious radio sources...
- Some looked like stars (point sources): these came to be called quasi-stellar radio sources (***quasars*** for short).
- Very difficult to identify: radio images were too fuzzy to allow quasars to be localized on sky at first.

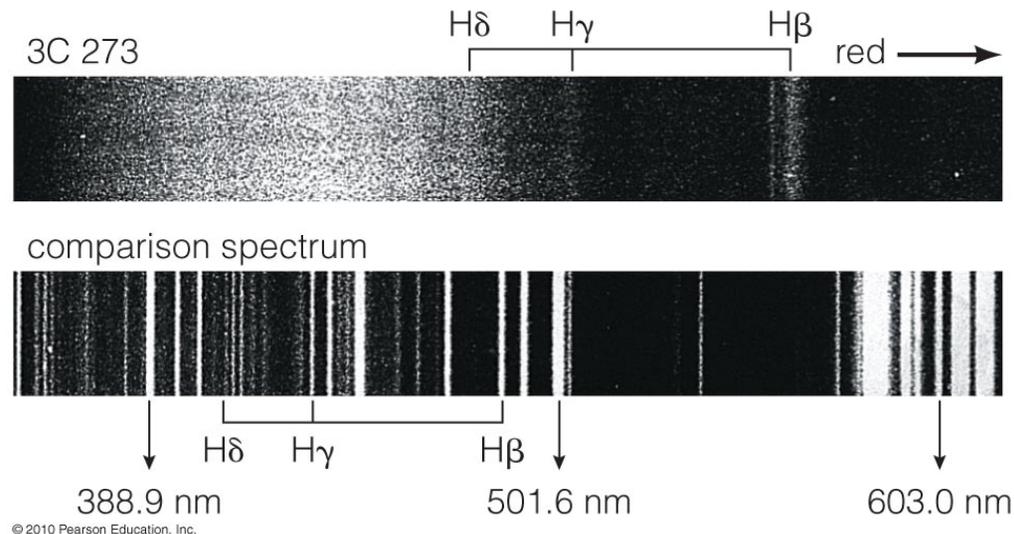
# 3C 273: The 1<sup>st</sup> Discovered Quasar

- Cyril Hazard used lunar occultation to localize the quasar 3C 273.
- Found a 13<sup>th</sup>-magnitude object at that location.
- Maarten Schmidt & Bev Oke took spectra. Found “extreme” redshift—recession speed of  $\sim 50,000$  km/s.
- (Note: 3C 273 can be seen with a good amateur telescope, but is 2.4 billion light-years away! Impress your friends...)



Parkes radio telescope in Australia.

# Quasars are Distant and Luminous



- The highly redshifted spectra of quasars indicate large distances ( $z \sim 0.06\text{--}7.1$ ).
- From brightness and distance we find that luminosities of some quasars are greater than  $10^{12} L_{\odot}$  ( $> 100\times$  MW!).

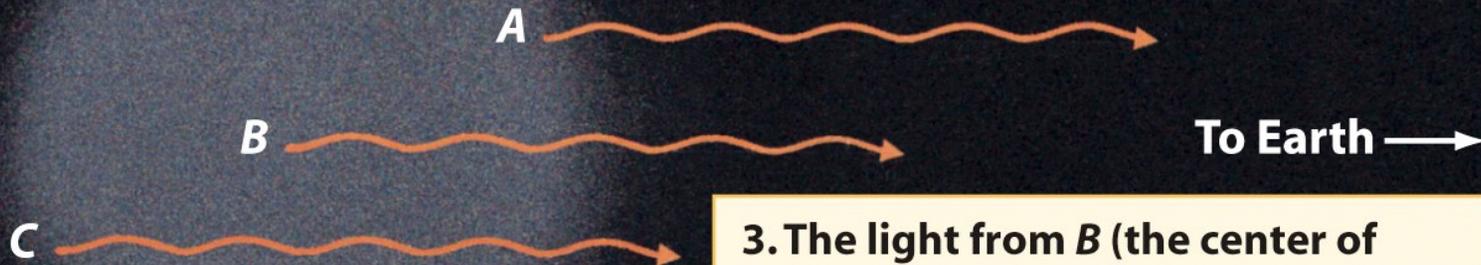
# Quasars are Extremely Compact

- The prototype quasar 3C 273 shows variability on timescales as short as a day.
- So whatever is powering the quasar can be no bigger than about a light-day across: an object cannot vary in brightness faster than light can travel across that object.
- This means that all of the energy from 3C 273 comes from a region *smaller than our solar system*.

1. An object 1 light-year across emits a sudden flash of light.

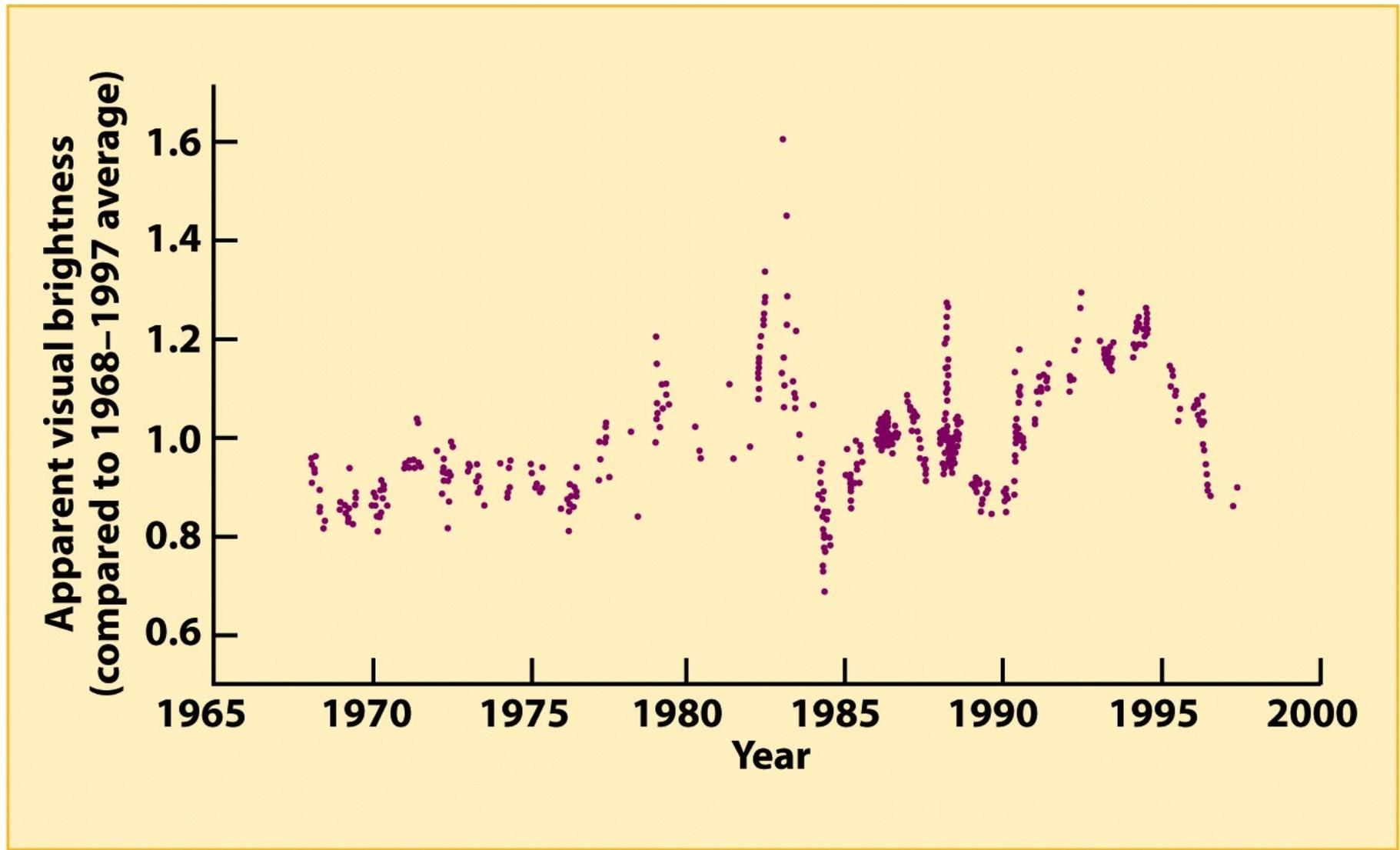


2. The first light that we receive comes from A (the part of the object nearest to Earth).



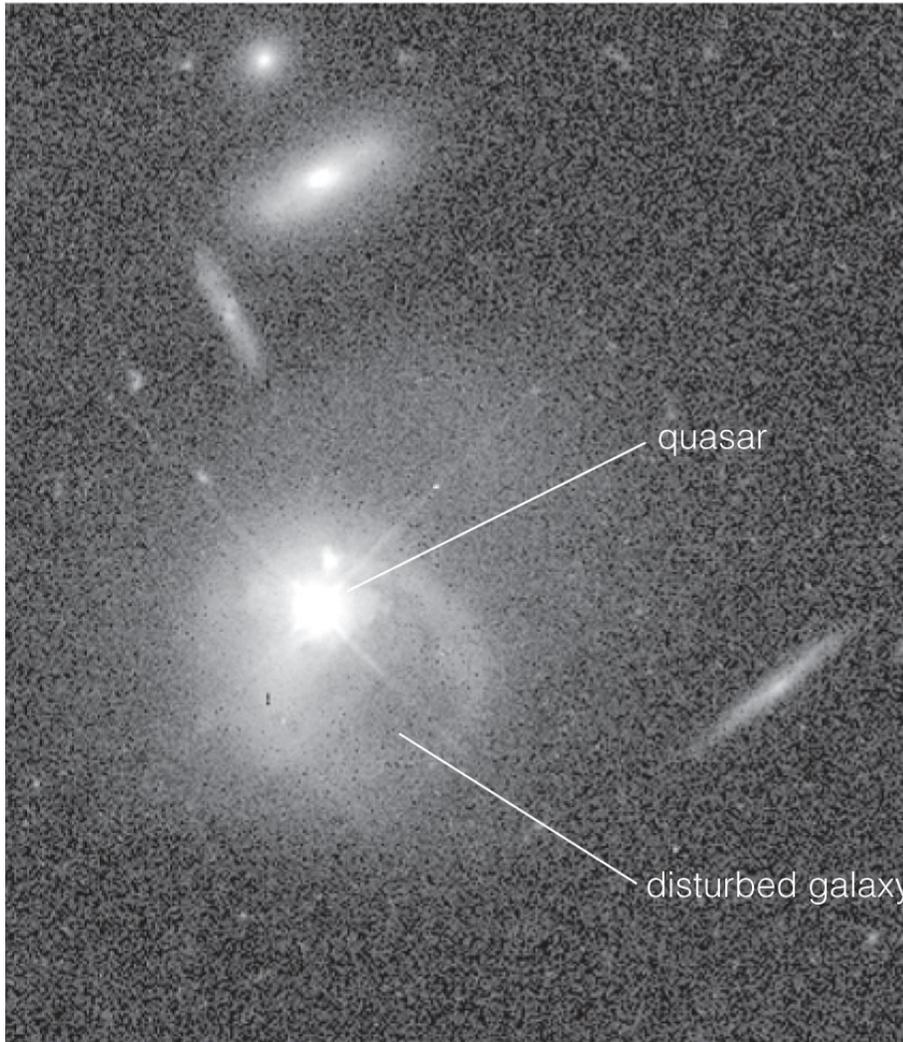
3. The light from B (the center of the object) has to travel an additional  $\frac{1}{2}$  light-year to reach Earth, so we see this light  $\frac{1}{2}$  year later than the light from A.

4. We see the light from C (the far side of the object)  $\frac{1}{2}$  year later than the light from B and 1 year later than the light from A. Hence we see the sudden flash of light spread over a full year.



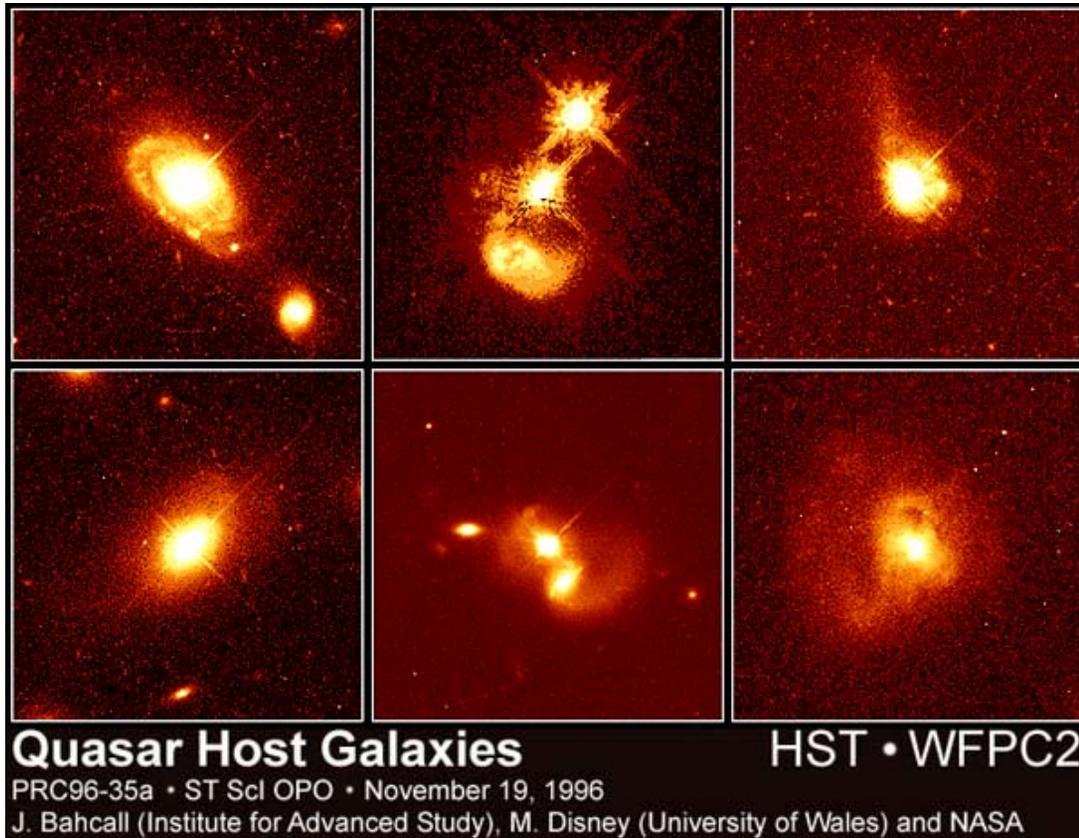
Variations in apparent brightness of 3C 273.

# Quasars Live in Galaxies

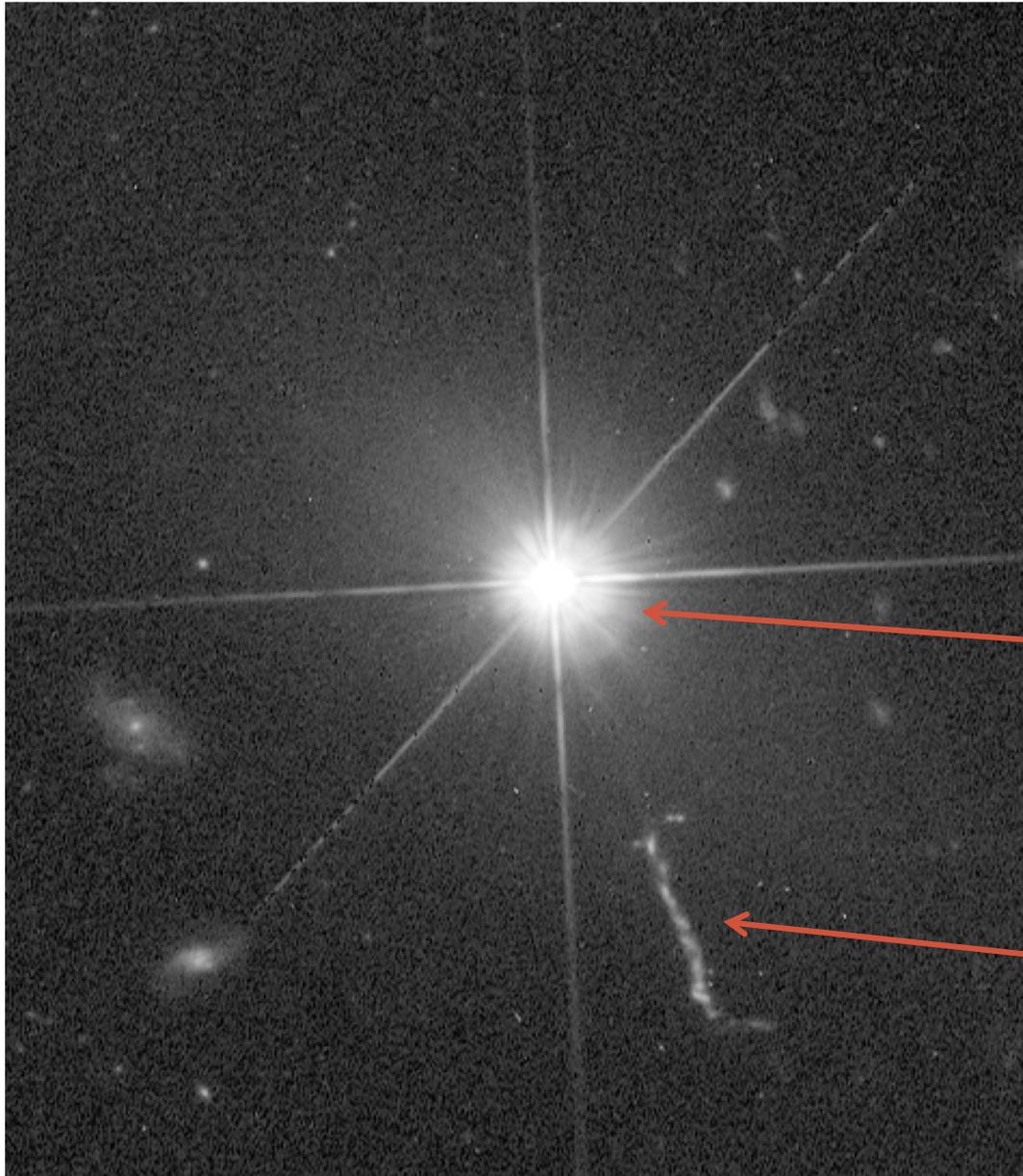


- Quasars are often bright enough to outshine their host galaxies.
- Observations like this one verified that quasars live at the centers of galaxies.
- The redshifts of the quasar and the surrounding galaxy in this image are the same.

# Colliding Galaxies Often Host Quasars



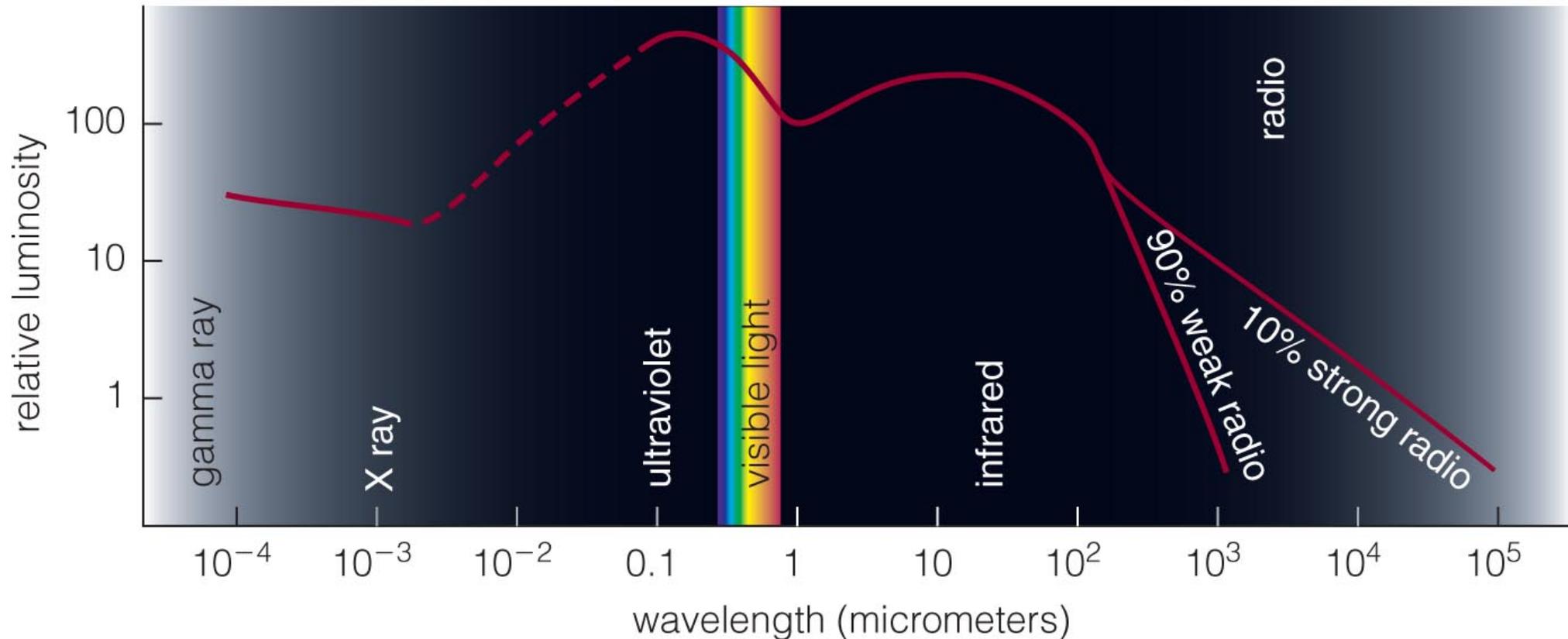
- Galaxies around quasars sometimes appear disturbed by collisions.
- These host galaxies are bright enough that we can see them *and* the quasar.



- 3C 273 appears as a luminous point source plus an extended radio (and optical) jet.

There's a galaxy in there!

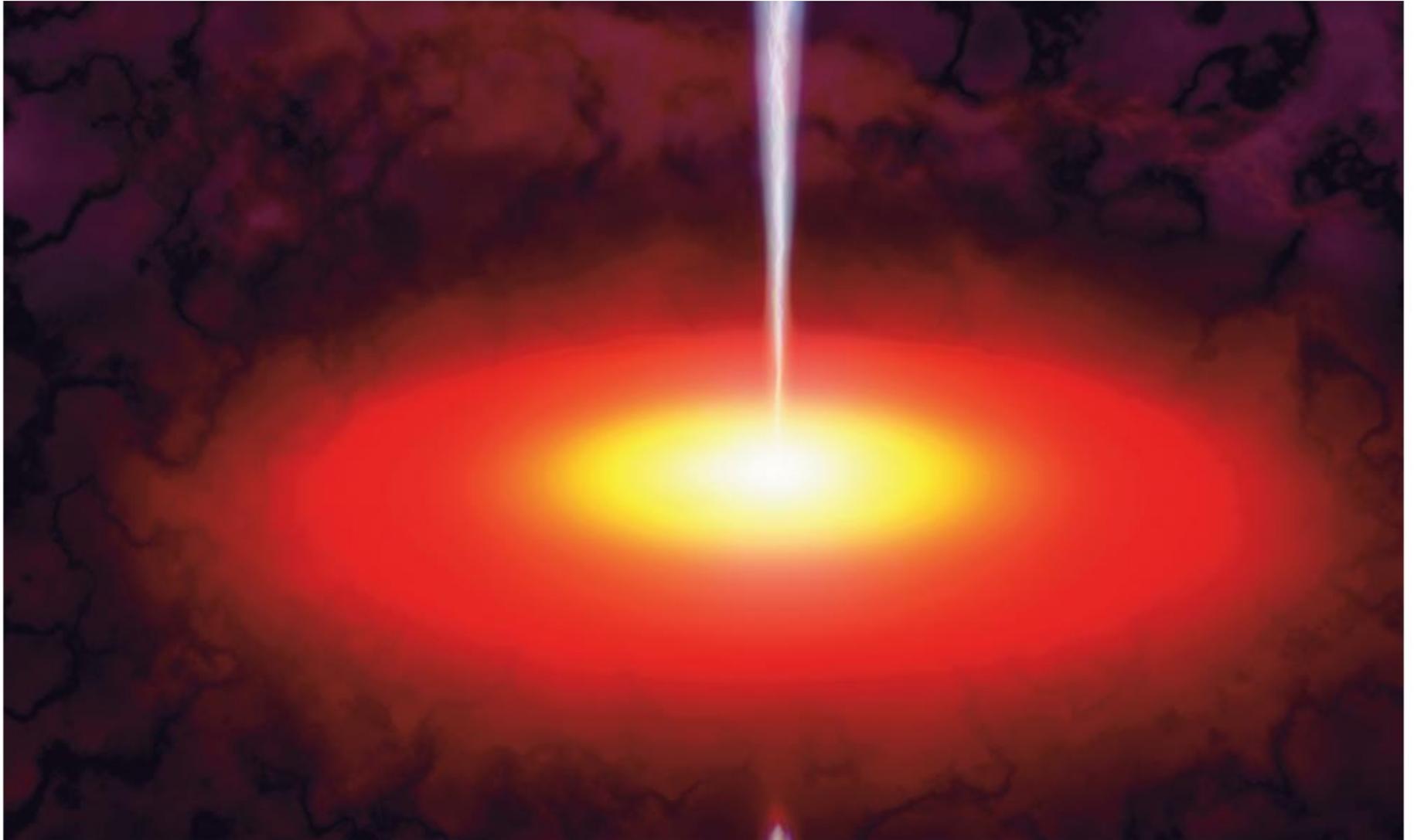
Jet!



- Quasars radiate energy over a wide range of wavelengths, including radio (synchrotron radiation), implying they contain material at many temperatures (and strong magnetic fields).

# Characteristics of Active Galaxies

- Their luminosities can be enormous ( $> 10^{12} L_{\odot}$ ). (That's more than 100 Milky Way galaxies!)
- Their luminosities can rapidly vary (come from a space smaller than solar system).
- They emit energy over a wide range of wavelengths (contain matter with a wide temperature range).
- Some galaxies drive jets of plasma at near light speed (next class).



Accretion of gas onto a supermassive black hole appears to be the only way to explain all the properties of quasars.

# Powering AGN

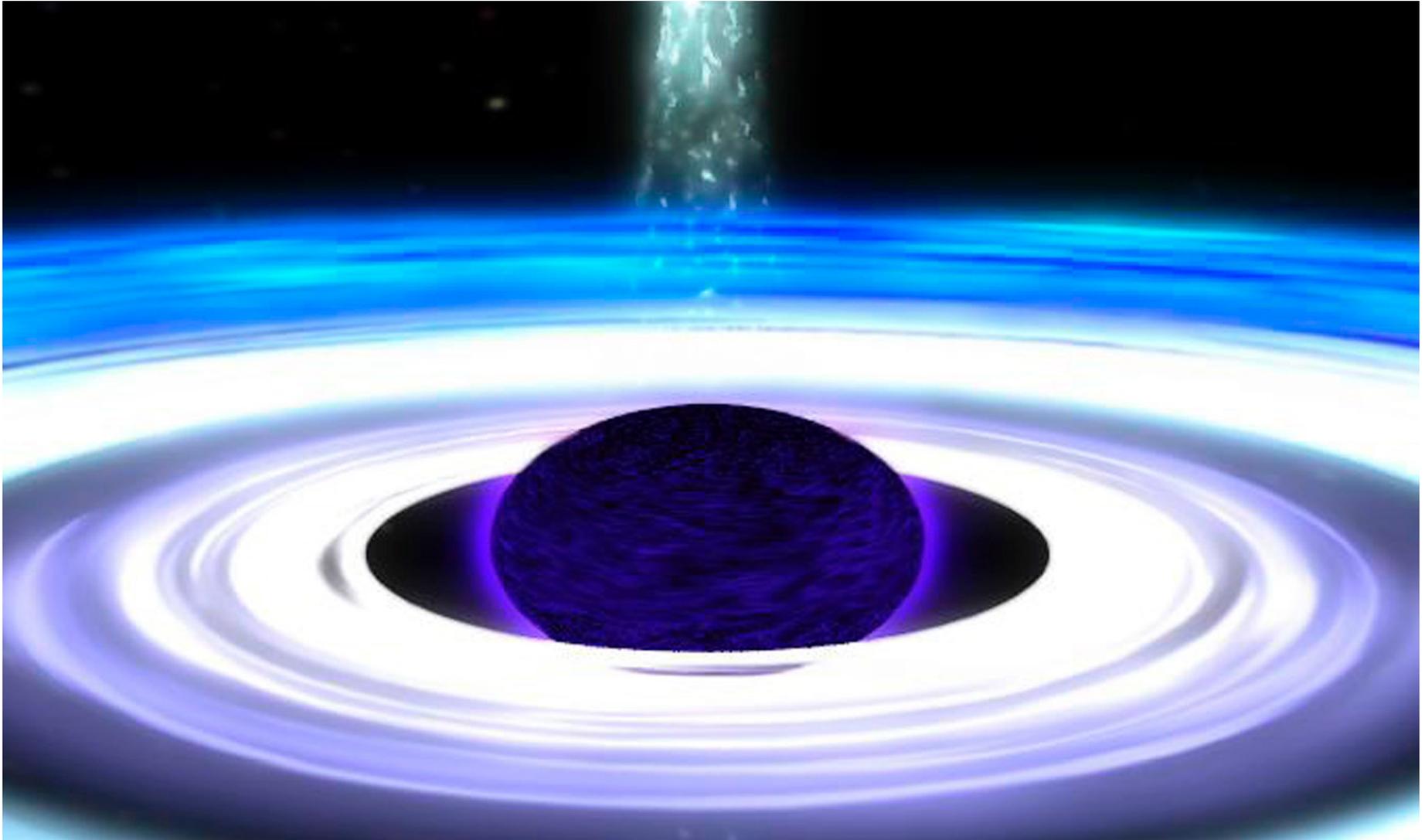
- Define efficiency  $\varepsilon$  by

$$L = \varepsilon \dot{M} c^2 \quad (\dot{M} = \text{mass accretion rate [kg/s]}).$$

- Remember efficiency of different processes:
  - Chemical burning,  $\varepsilon \approx 10^{-9}$ .
  - Nuclear fusion,  $\varepsilon \approx 0.007$ .
  - Accretion onto a black hole,  $\varepsilon \approx 0.1$ .
  - Matter/anti-matter annihilation,  $\varepsilon = 1$ .

# Powering AGN

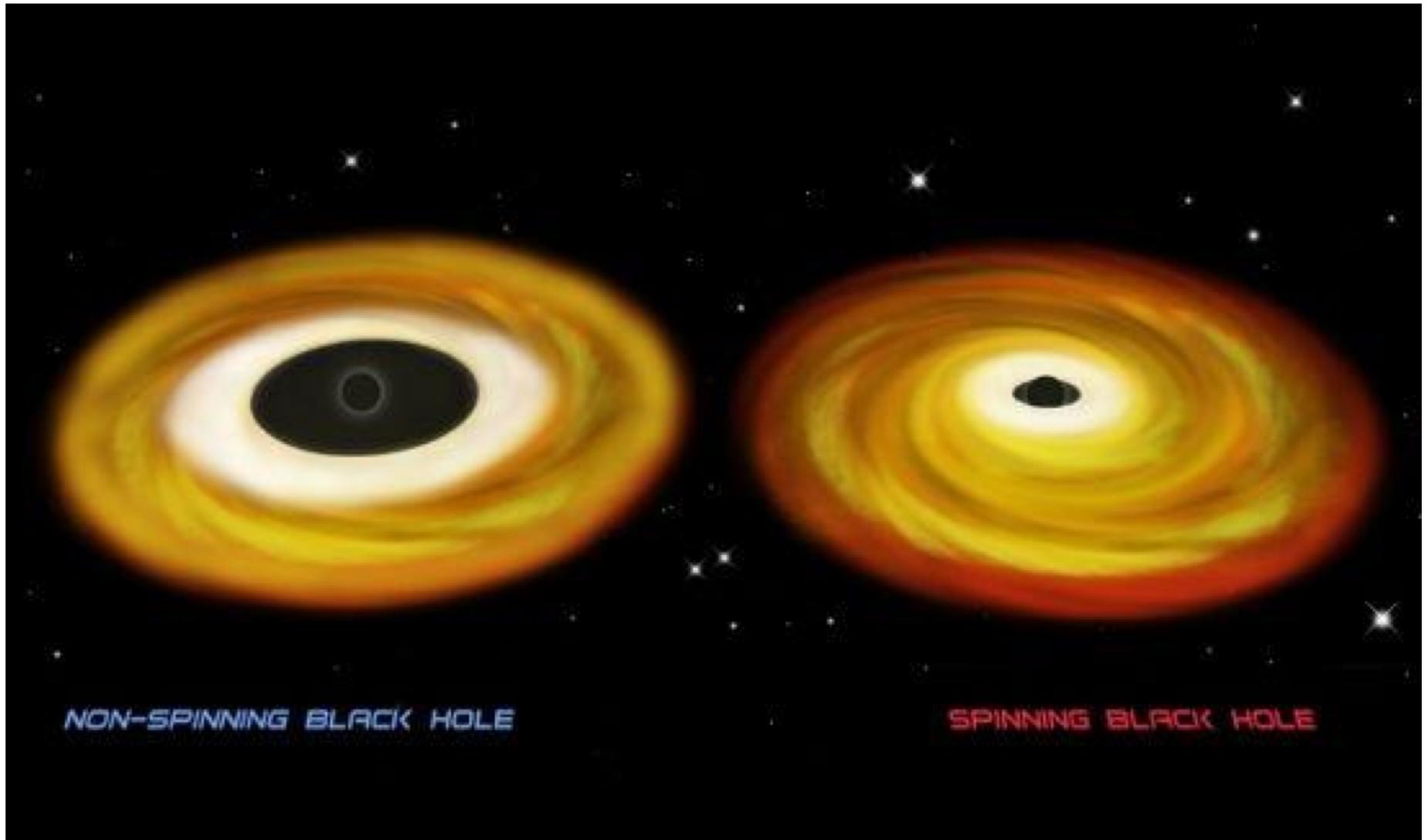
- Suppose the AGN has a power of  $10^{40}$  W (quite luminous) and lasts for *at least* 10 Myr.
- Then, what masses are needed to power the AGN?
  - Chemical burning...  $2 \times 10^{12} M_{\odot}$ .
  - Nuclear burning...  $2 \times 10^9 M_{\odot}$ .
  - Accretion...  $2 \times 10^8 M_{\odot}$ .
  - Matter/anti-matter...  $2 \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$ .
- Masses tend to argue for accretion (there are not large amounts of anti-matter in space!).



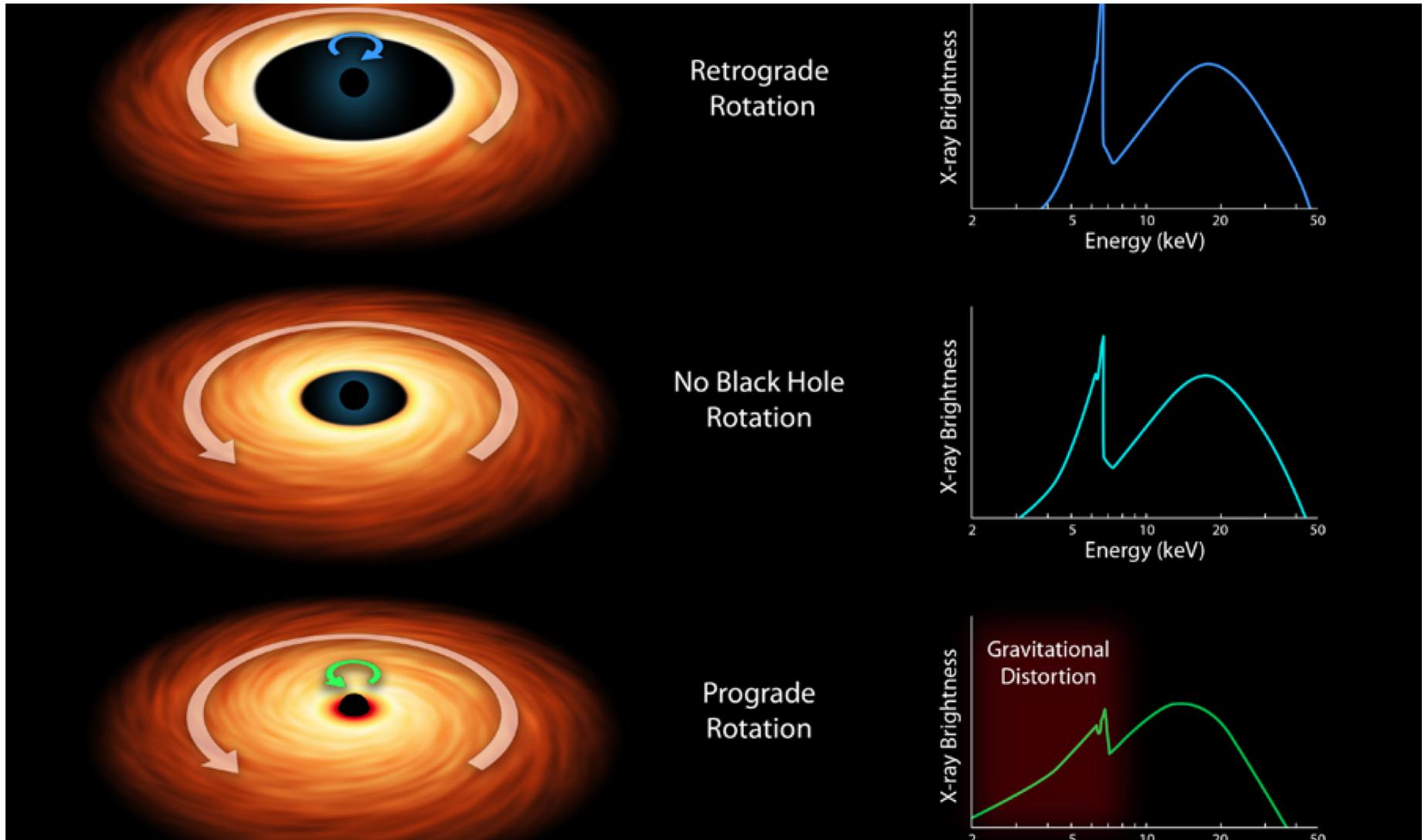
- We now believe that AGN are indeed supermassive black holes growing via disk accretion.

# Energy from a Black Hole

- Gravitational potential energy of matter falling into black hole turns into kinetic energy.
- Friction in an accretion disk turns kinetic energy into thermal energy (heat).
- Heat produces thermal radiation (photons):
  - X rays ionize surrounding gas (which then emits visible light) and heat dust grains (which then emit infrared light).
  - Electrons spiraling around jets emit radio light.
- This process can convert 5% to 40% of  $E = mc^2$  into radiation.



- The spin (angular momentum) of a black hole changes the efficiency of accretion.



- Iron emission lines can be used to measure black hole spin.
- The closer the material can get to the black hole, the more gravitationally redshifted it is.

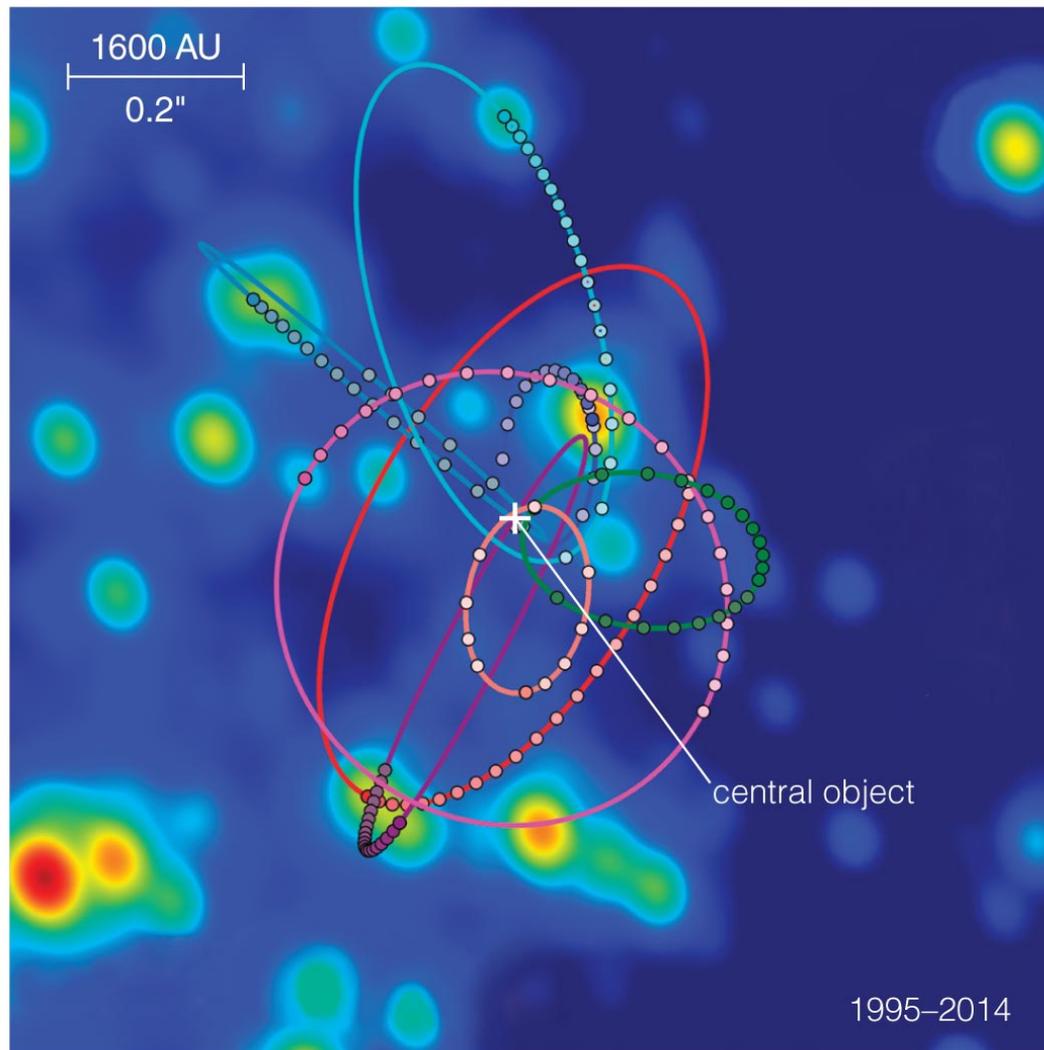
# The Eddington Limit

- There is a natural limit to the luminosity that can be radiated by accretion around a black hole.
- If the luminosity exceeds the *Eddington limit*, radiation pressure stops the accretion rate from getting faster.

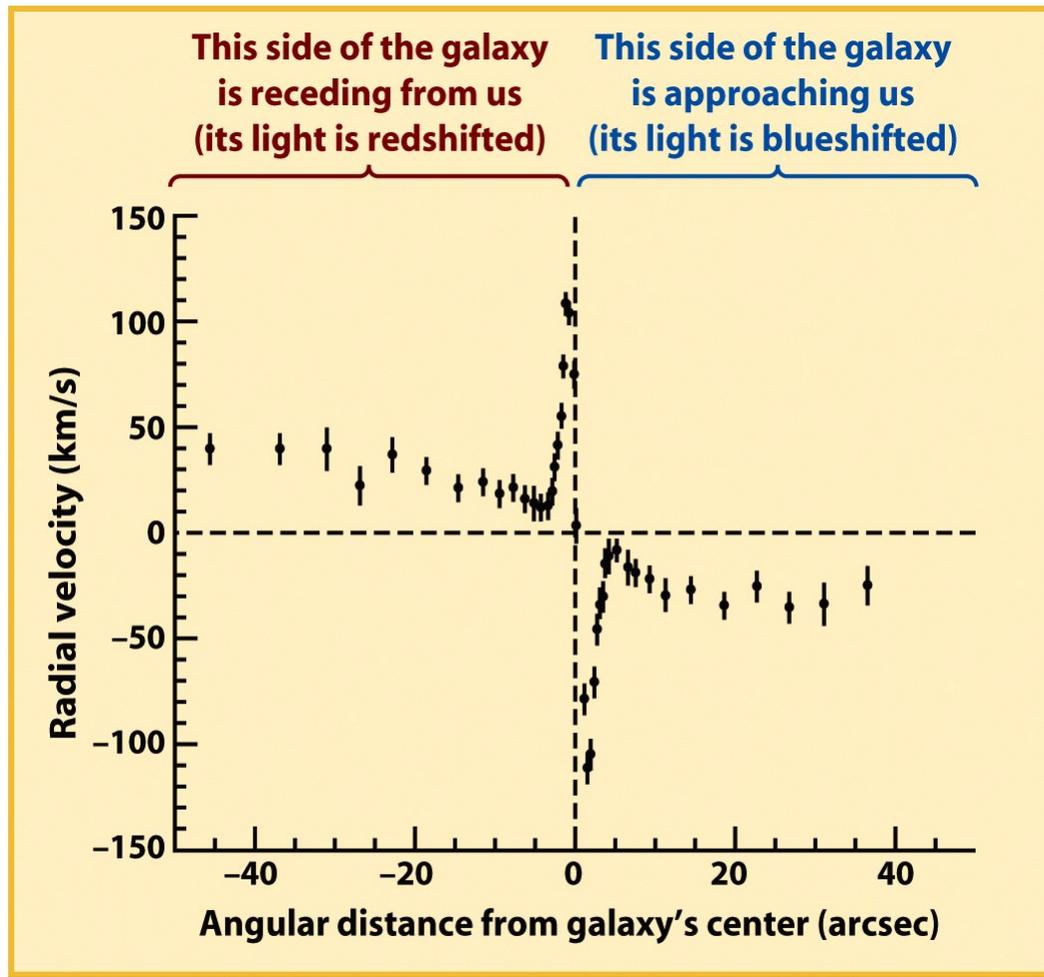
- Numerically,

$$L_{\text{Edd}} = 30,000 \left( \frac{M}{M_{\text{Sun}}} \right) L_{\text{Sun}}.$$

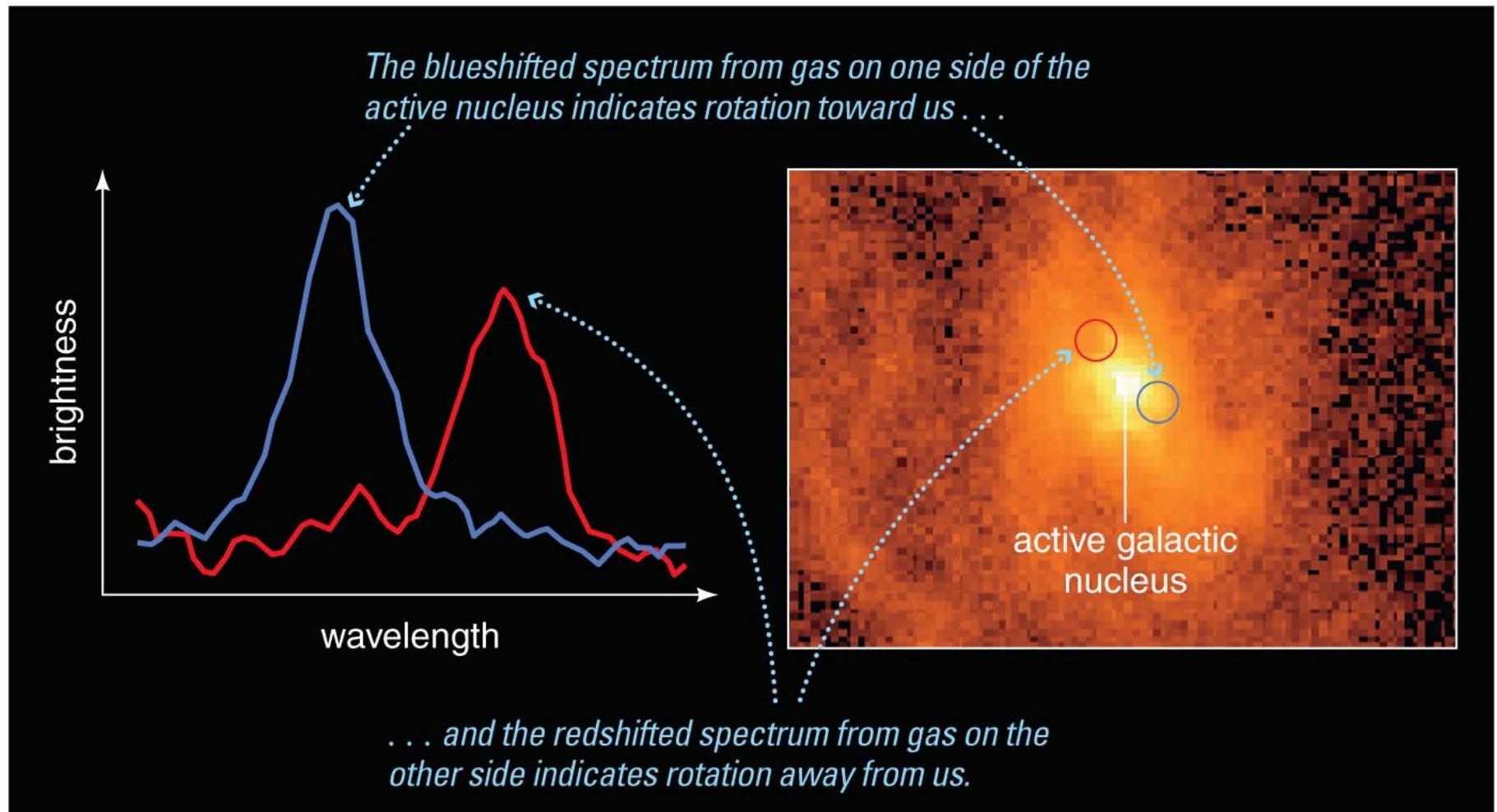
- E.g., 3C 273 has a luminosity of about  $3 \times 10^{13} L_{\odot}$ . The minimum-mass black hole that could power the quasar is therefore about  $10^9 M_{\odot}$ .



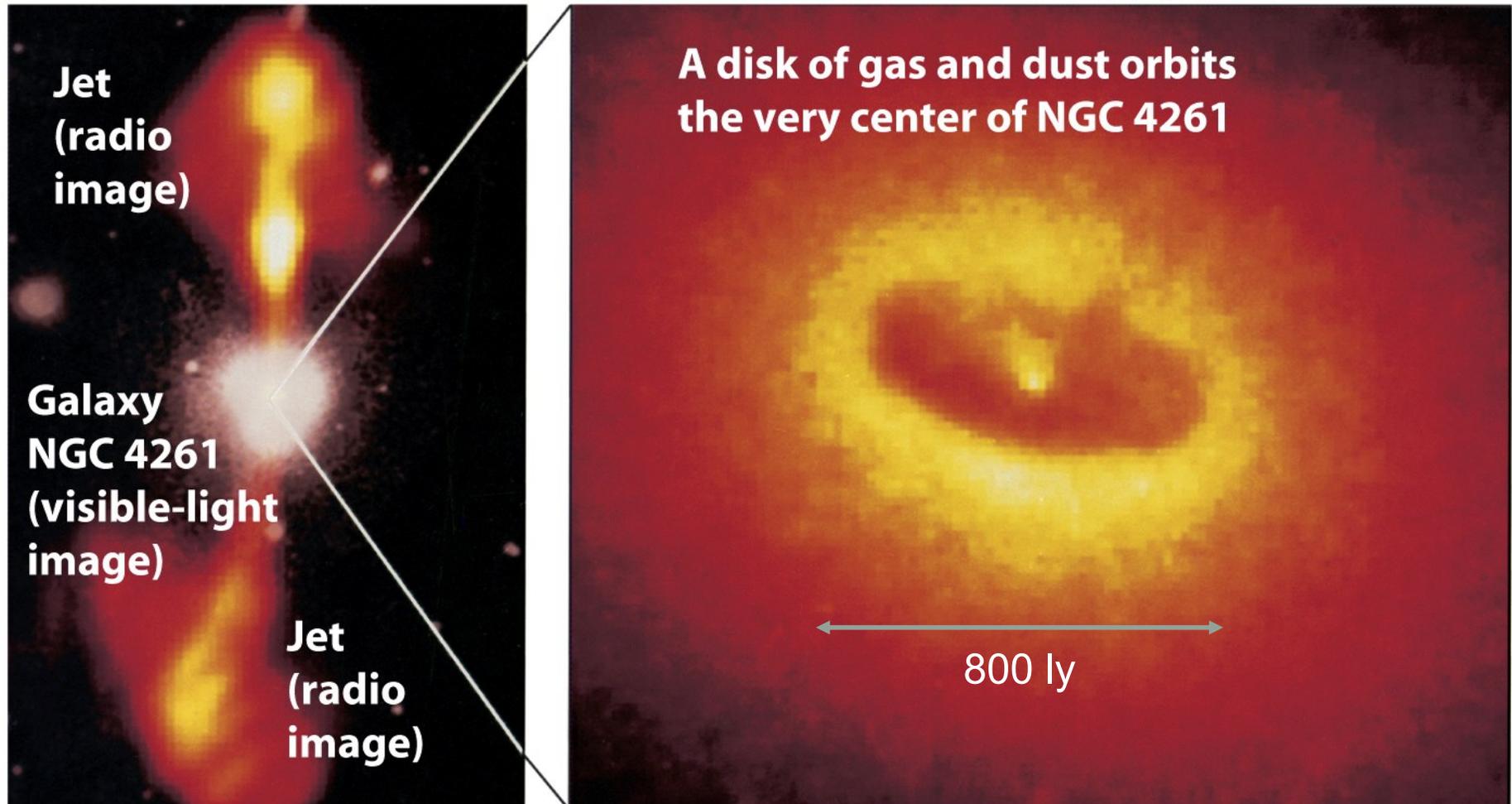
Orbits of stars at the center of the Milky Way indicate a black hole with mass  $\sim 4 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$ .



- Rotation curve of the core of M31, indicating central  $\sim 4 \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$  black hole.



The orbital speed and distance of gas orbiting the center of M87 indicate a black hole with mass of  $\sim 6 \times 10^9 M_{\odot}$ .



**(a)** Galaxy NGC 4261

**(b)** Evidence for a supermassive black hole in NGC 4261