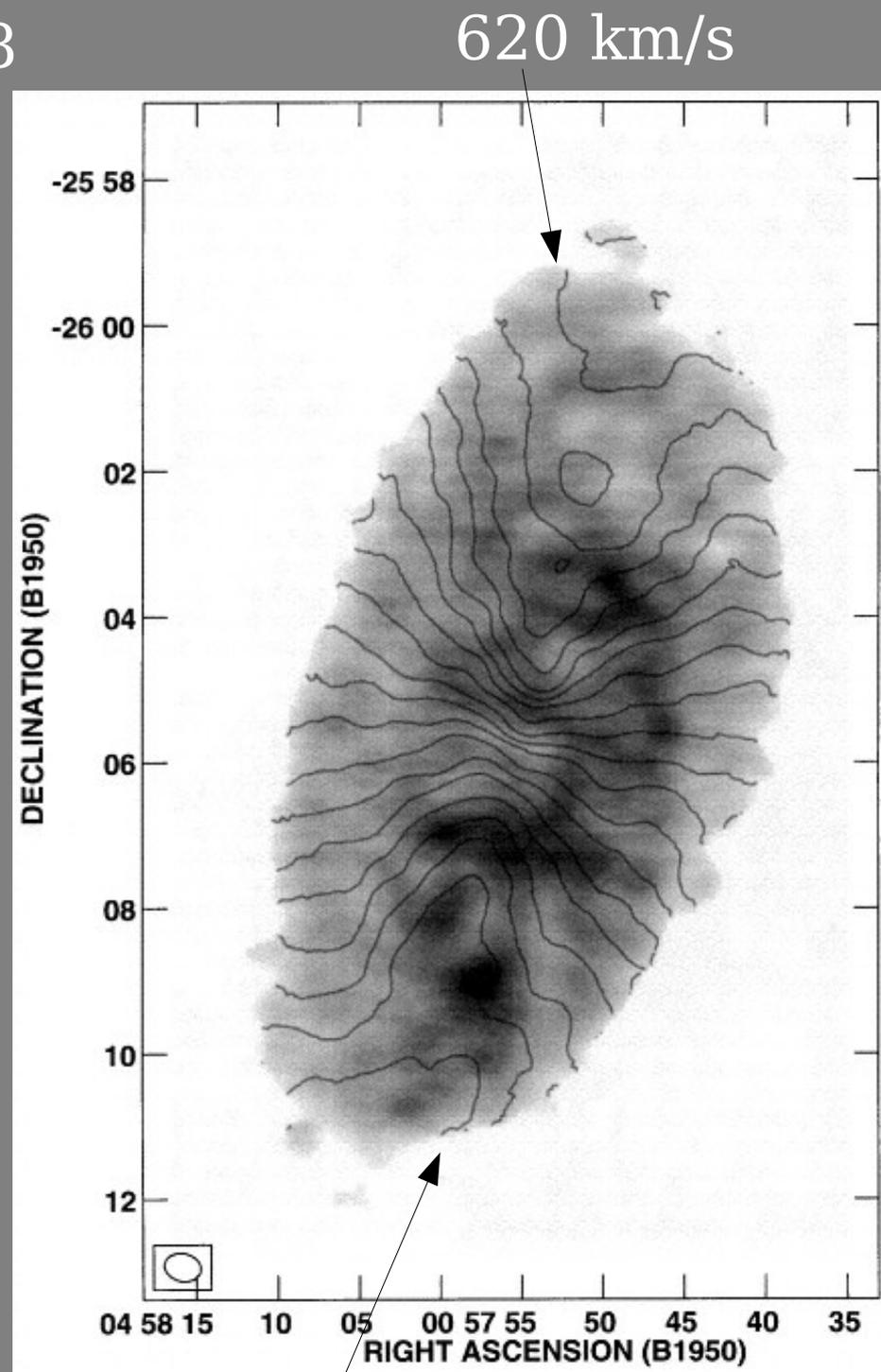
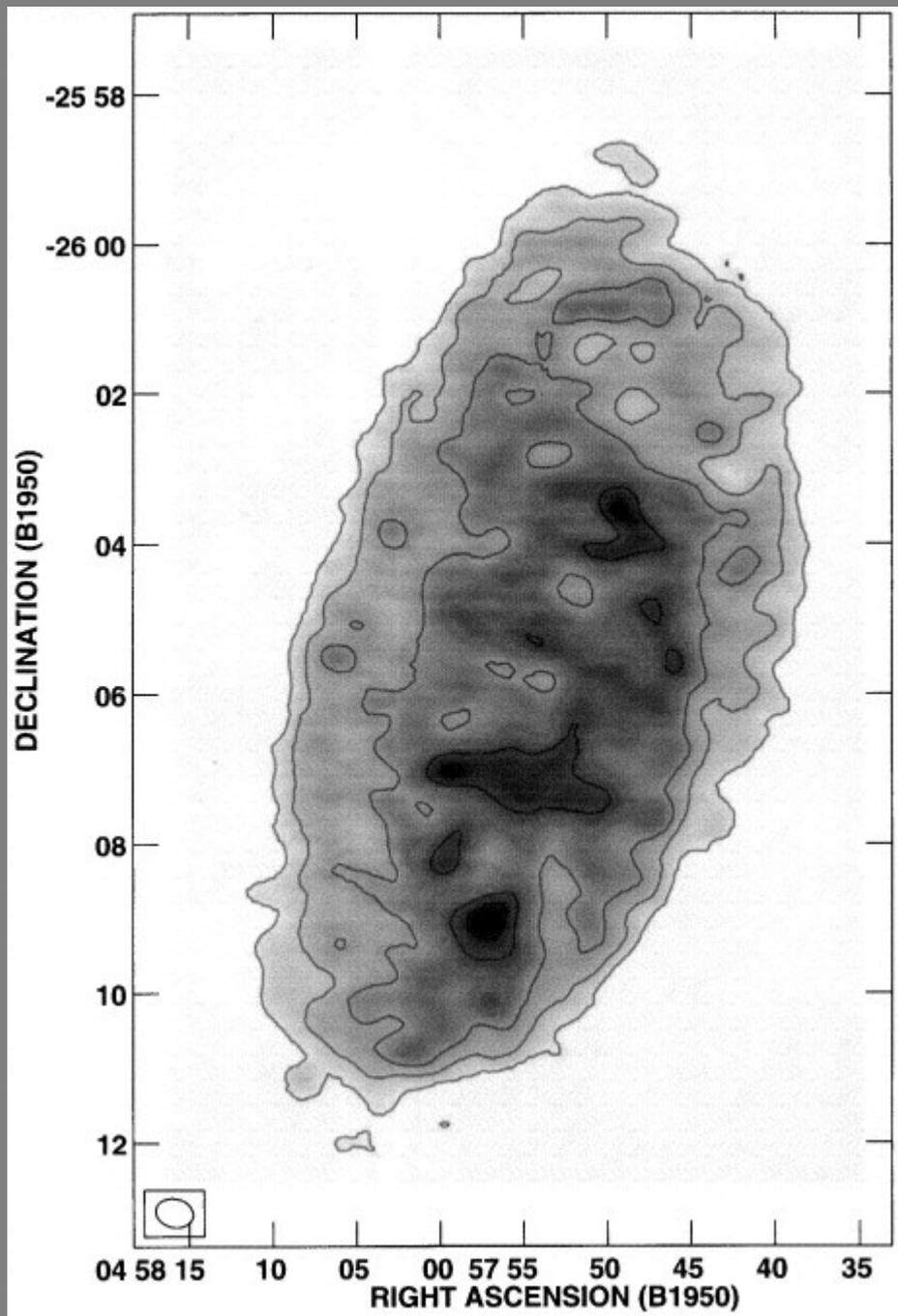


# Gas in Spirals

- Spirals have large HI disks
  - This gas is optically thin
    - This means that we see all the gas and can measure the amount directly from the line intensity
  - HI gas is much more extended than the optical light,  $r > 2.5 R_{25}$
  - Gives a unique tracer for the velocity in spiral galaxies

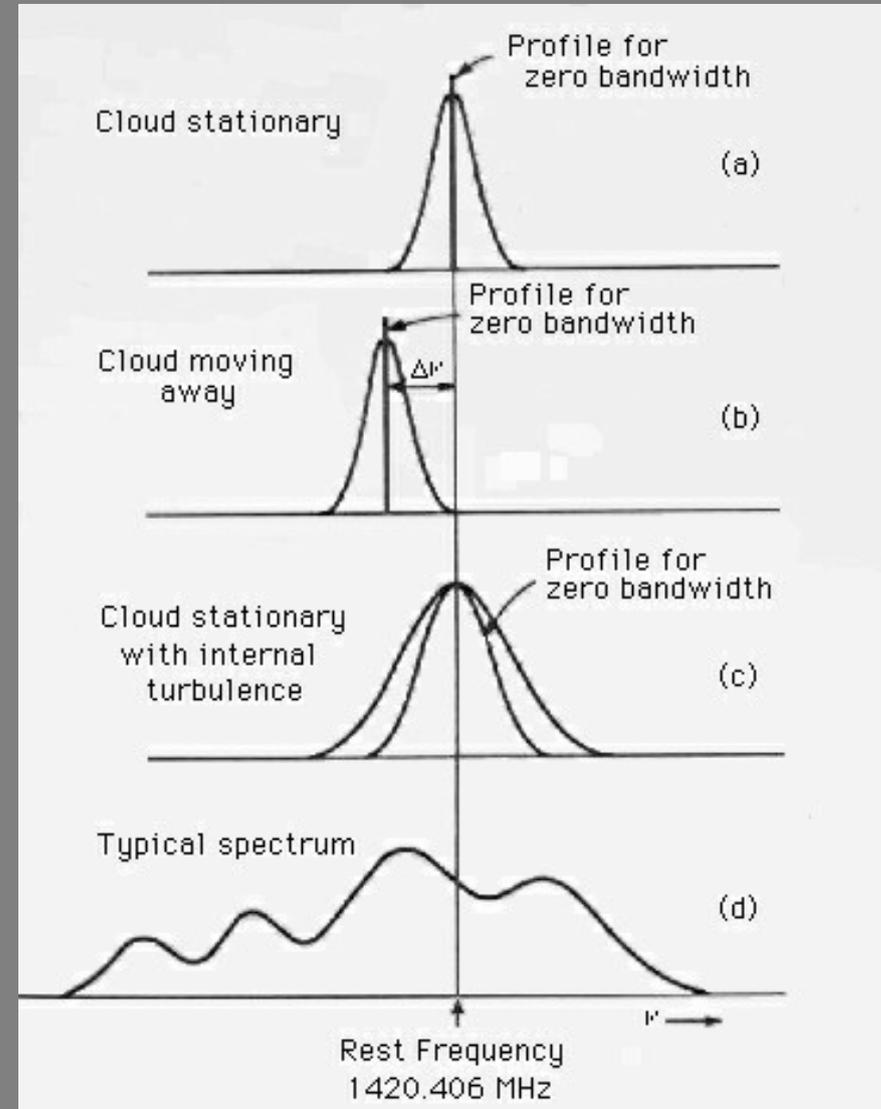
# NGC 1744 Pisano et al. 1998

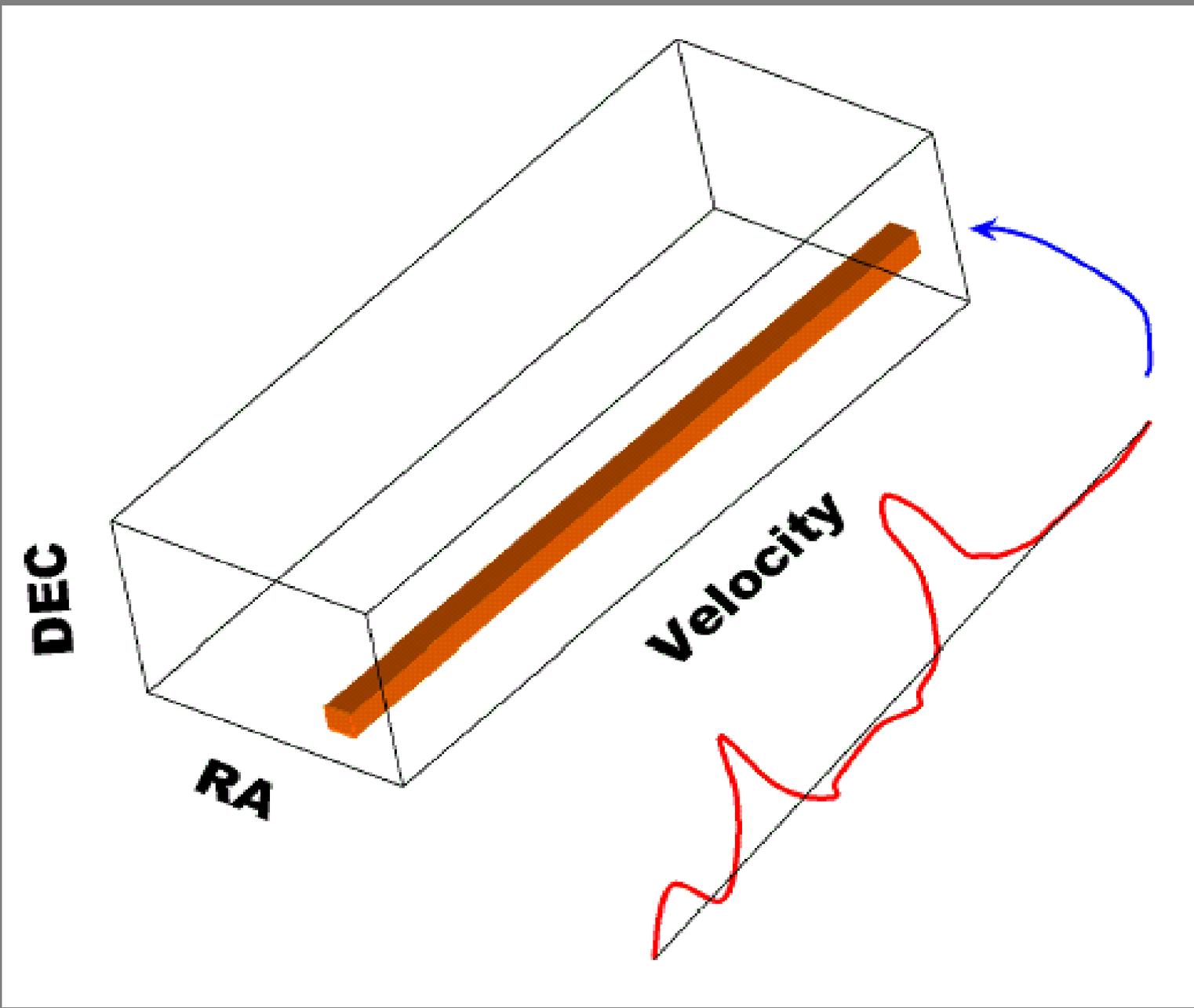


830 km/s

# Radio spectral observations

- Radio telescopes can also act like a spectrometer by isolating a single spectral line, e.g. HI line emission
- By measuring the line shift we can determine the radial velocity of a patch of gas
- By measuring the width of the line we can determine the internal velocities (turbulent velocity)



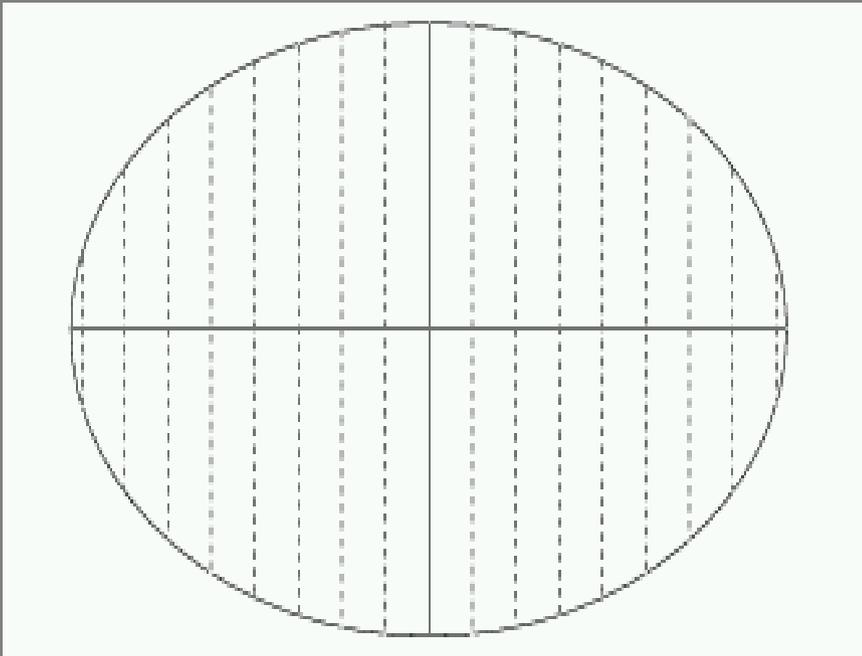


# HI Kinematics

- Interferometric observations yield a 3-D map of the of HI gas
  - distribution (x,y)
  - Kinematics (velocity)
- This can be described by the moments
  - 0<sup>th</sup> moment = total intensity (integrate over velocity)
  - 1<sup>st</sup> moment = velocity field (mean velocity as a function of position)
  - 2<sup>nd</sup> moment = velocity dispersion

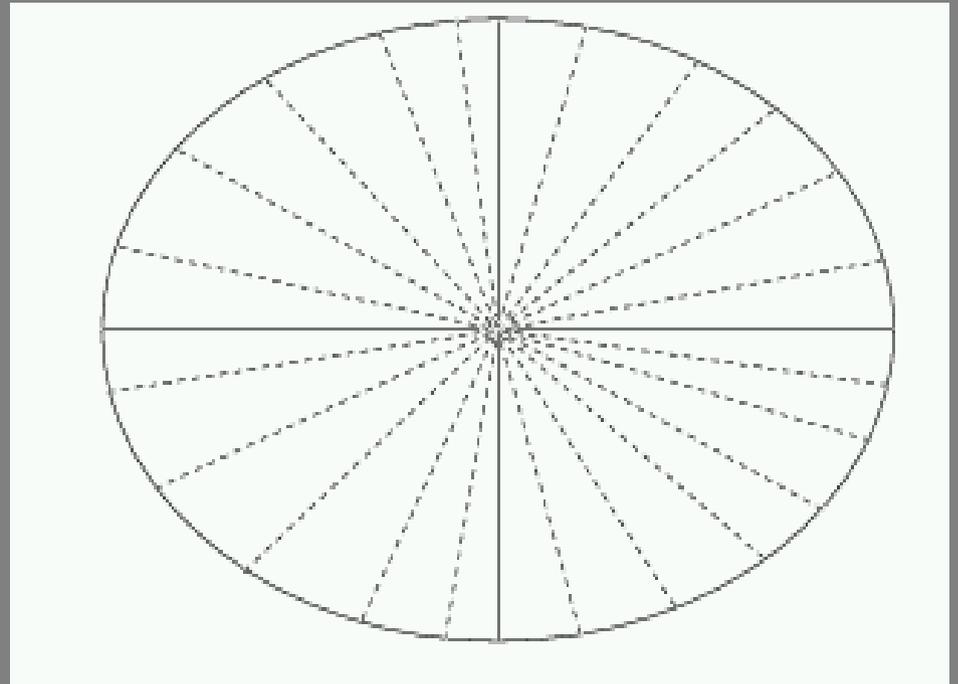
# How do we turn this into a rotation curve?

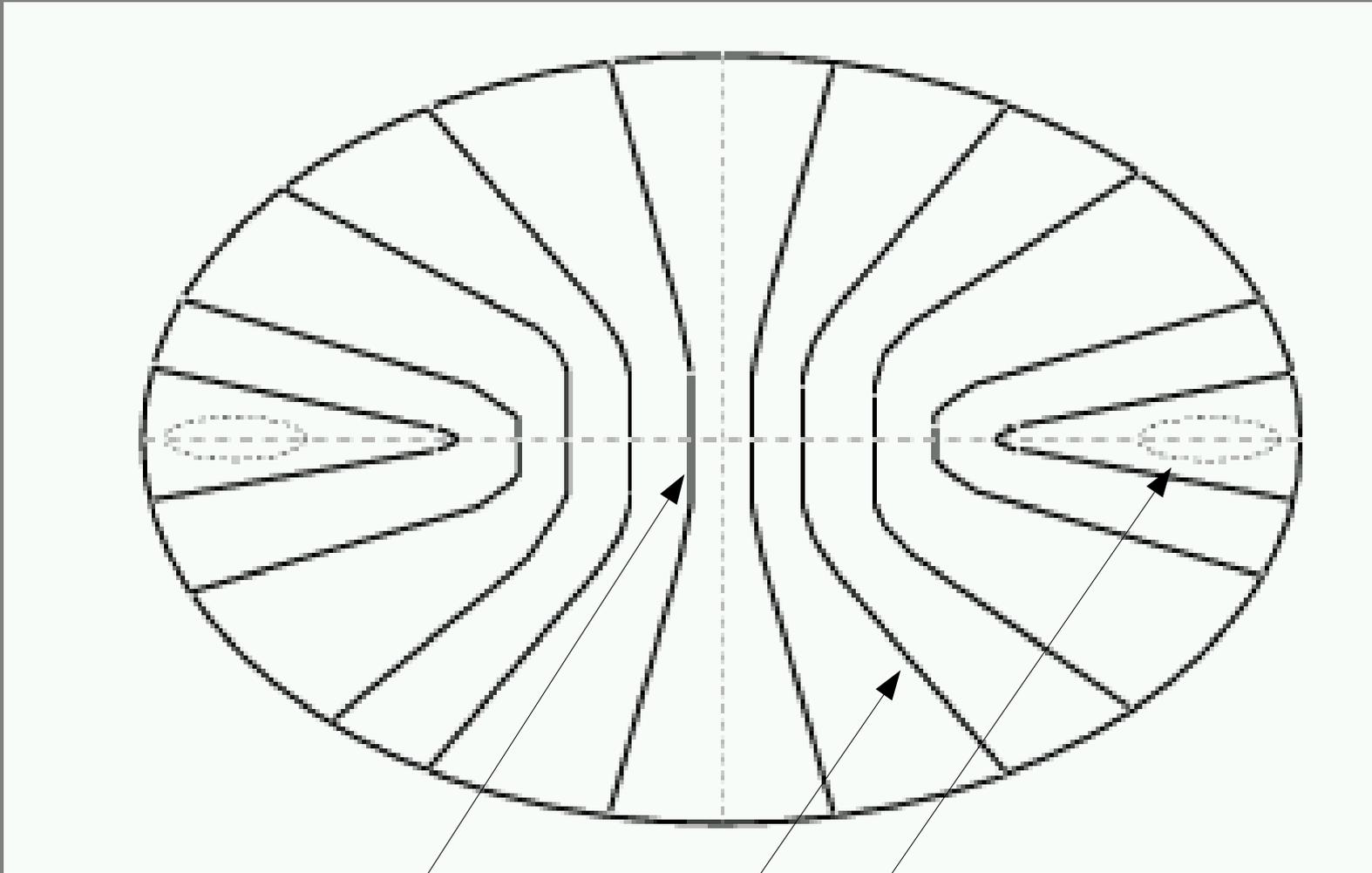
- We only have the radial velocity!
- We need
  - Systemic velocity (Hubble flow)
  - Inclination (if a galaxy is face on we see no doppler shifted velocities)
  - Angle of the major axis of the galaxy,  $\phi$
  - $V_r = V_{\text{sys}} + V(r)\sin(i)\sin(\phi)$



Solid Body rotation  $v(r) \sim dr$

Flat rotation curve  $v(r) \sim d$

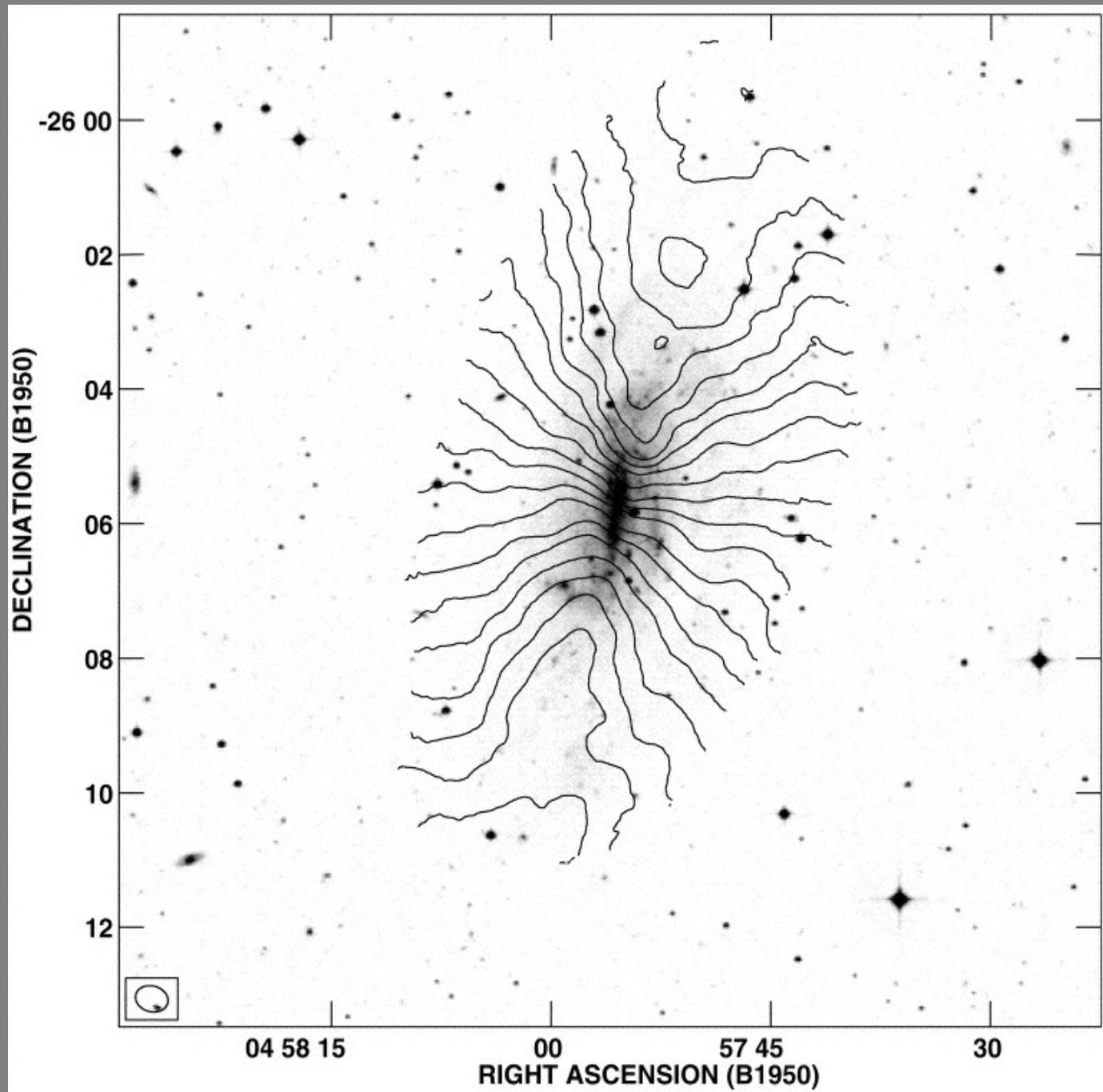




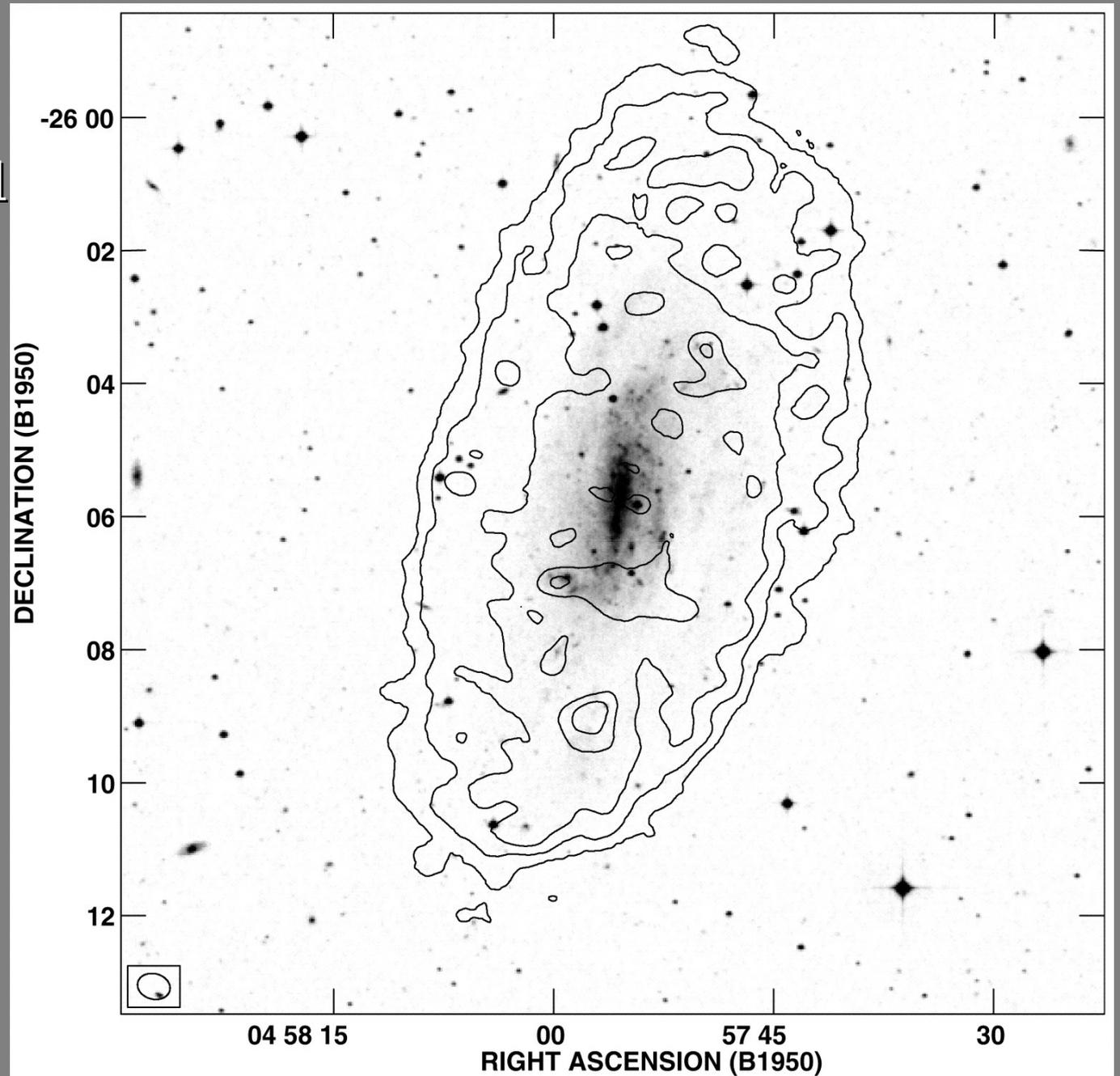
Solid Body rotation

Flat Rotation curve

Falling Rotation curve

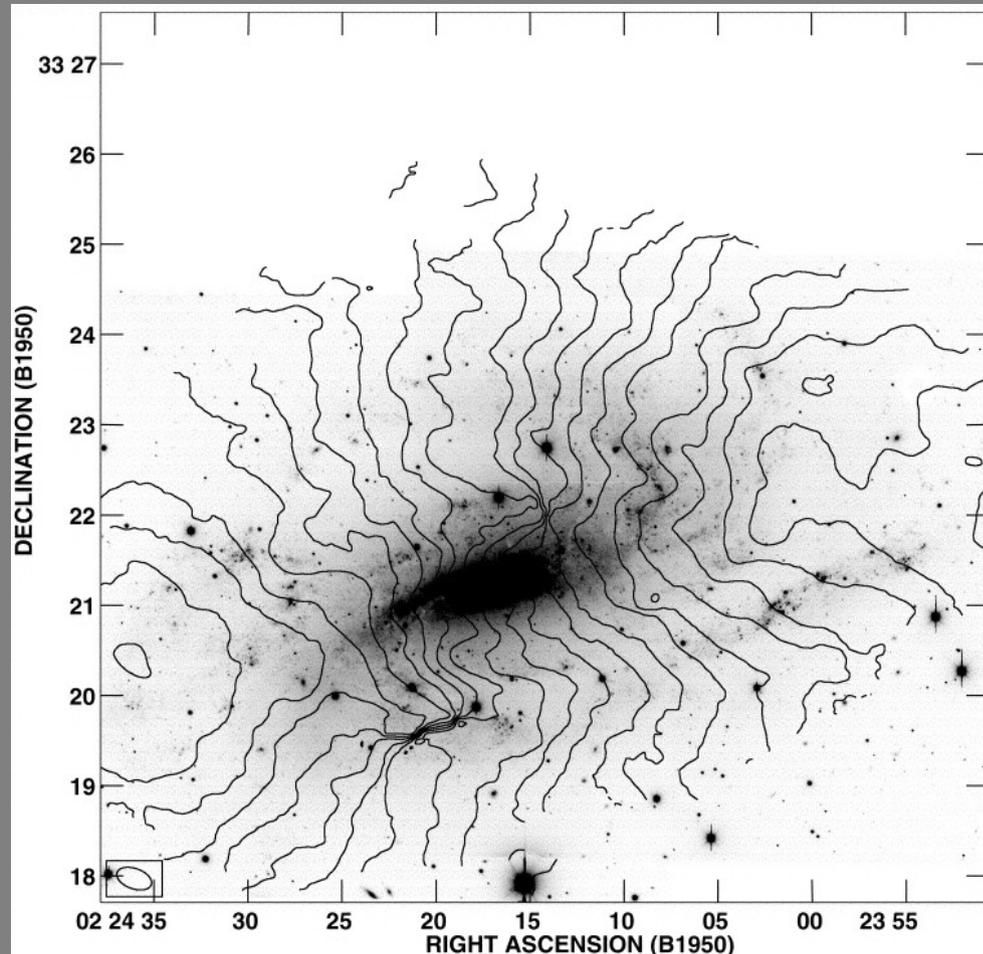


NGC 1744 in HI  
(the contours)  
and in the B band  
image.

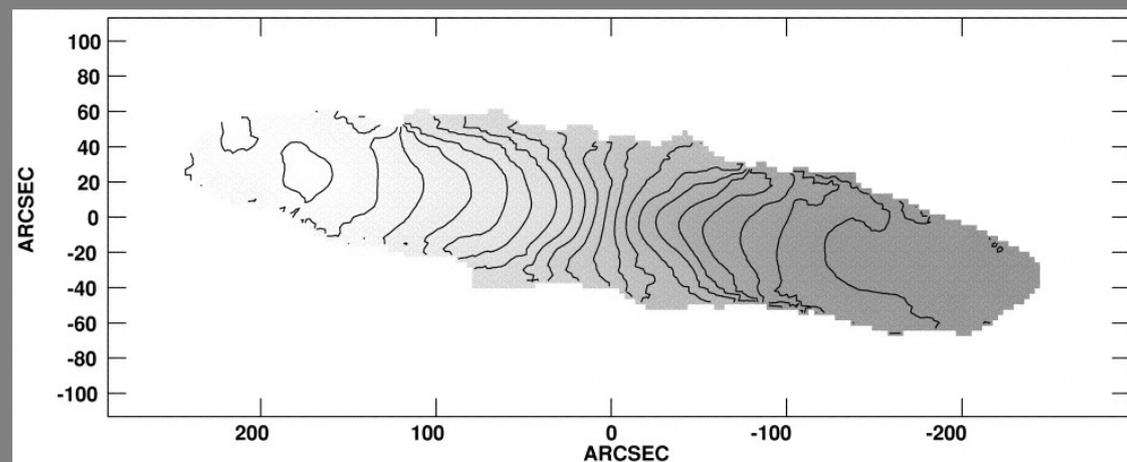
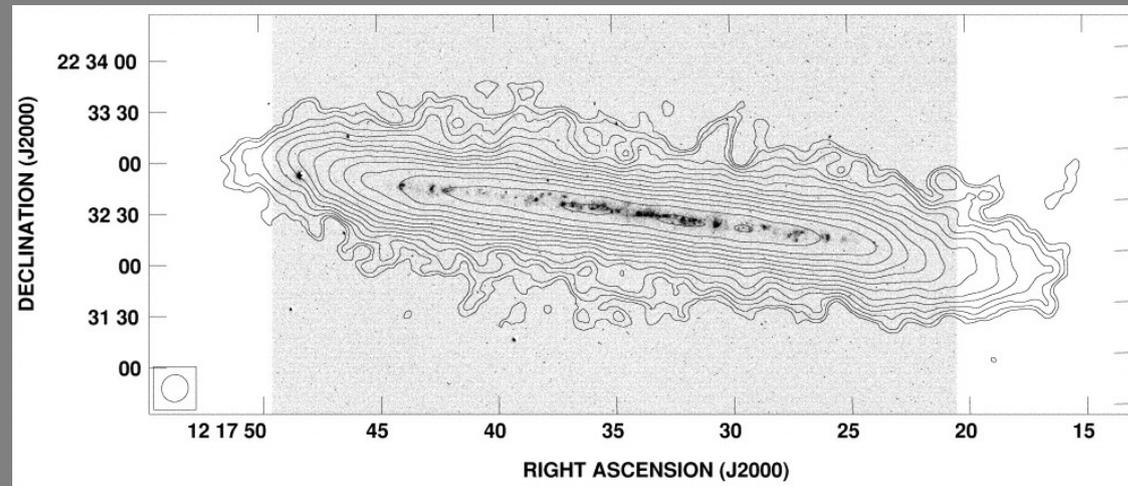


# Spider Diagram - NGC 925

Note that this is a much more messy system.

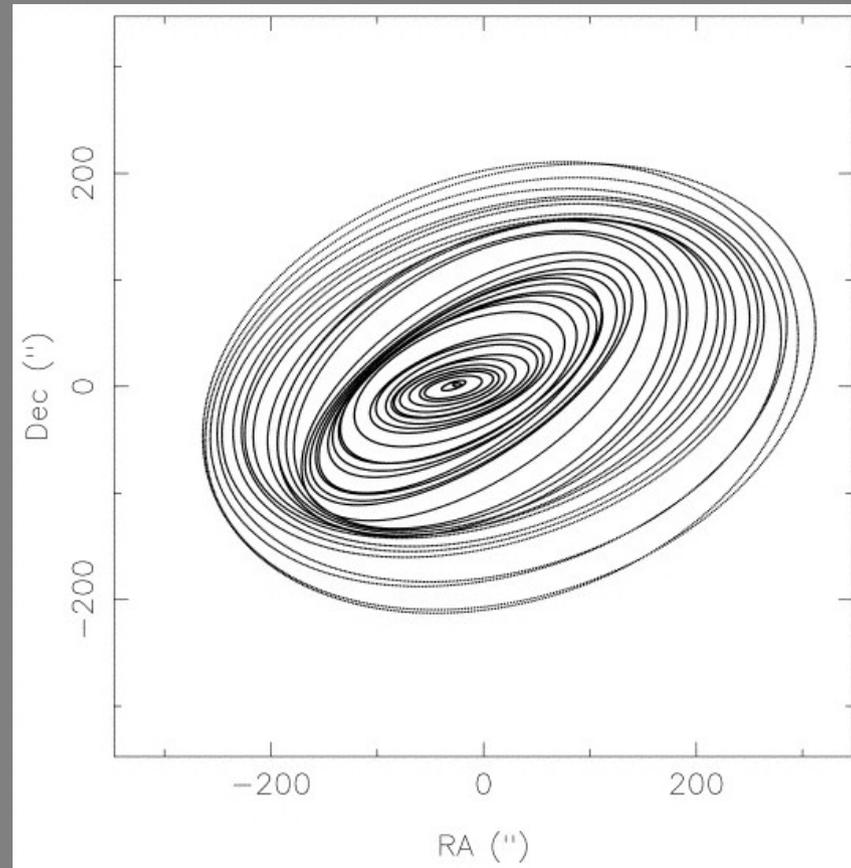


# Spider Diagram - Edge-on Galaxy

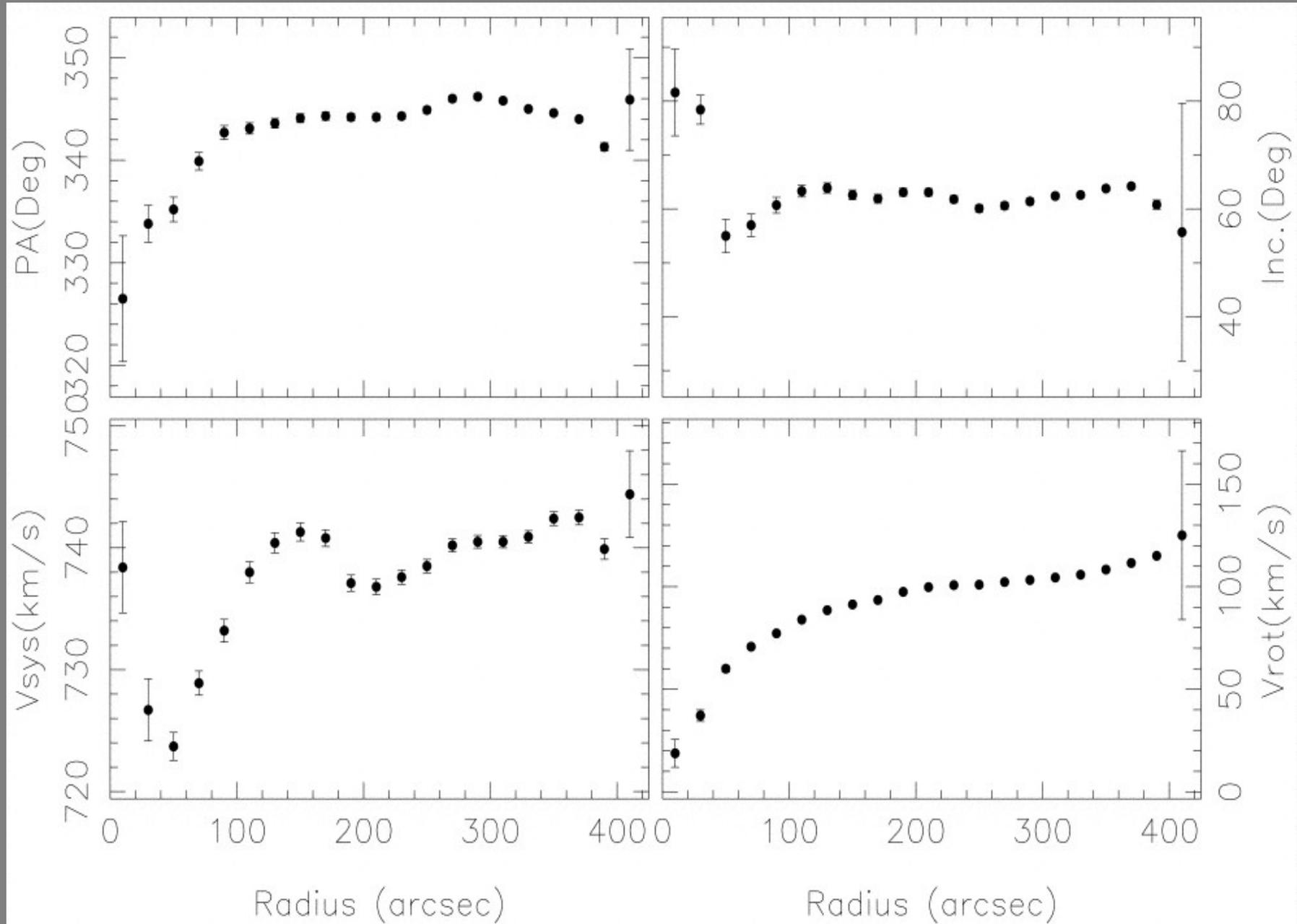


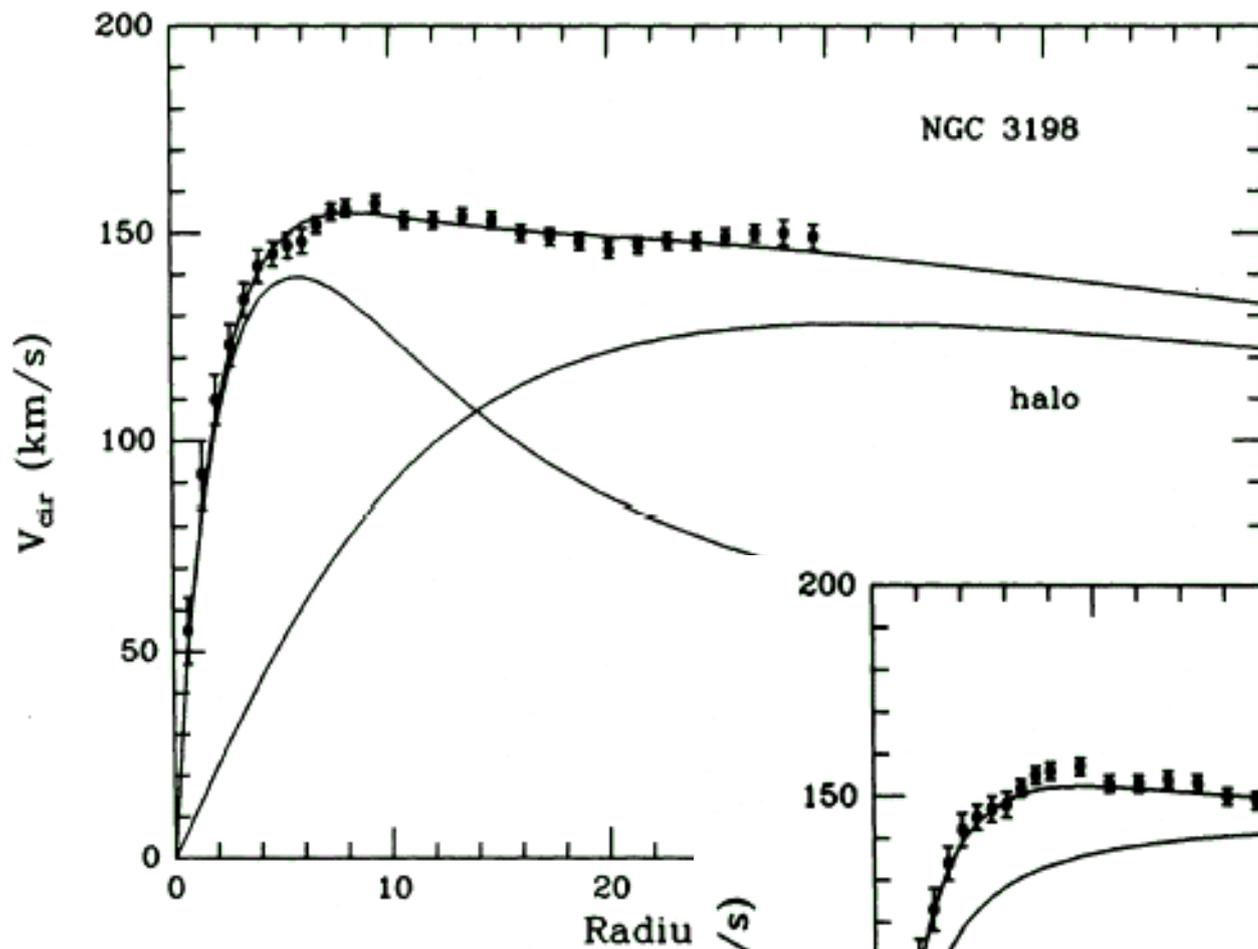
# Deriving a Rotation Curve

- Tilted ring models allow you to fit the circular velocity, inclination, position angle as a function of radius.



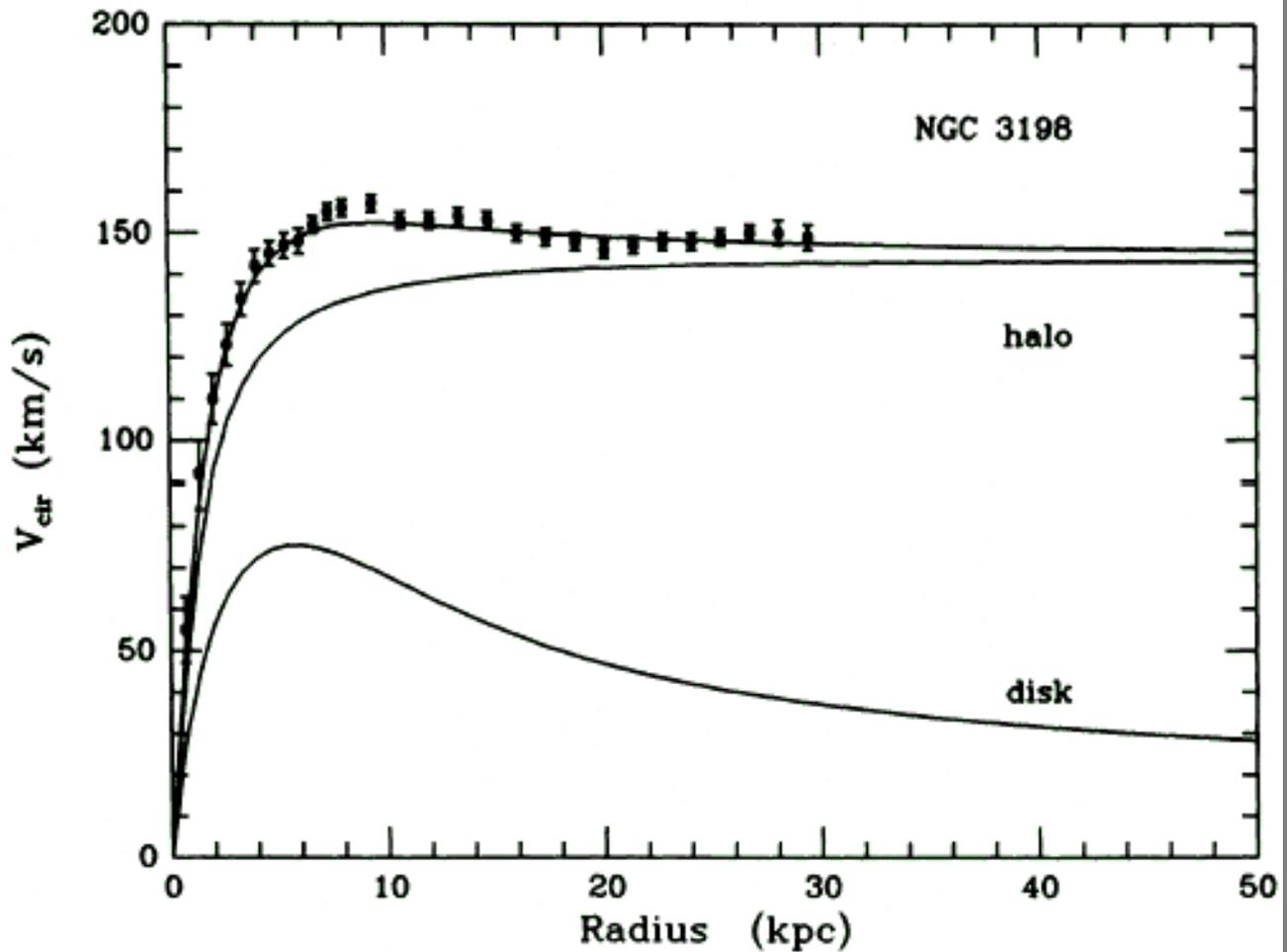
# Data fitted with a tilted ring model - NGC 1744, Pisano et al. 1998





Maximum disk model

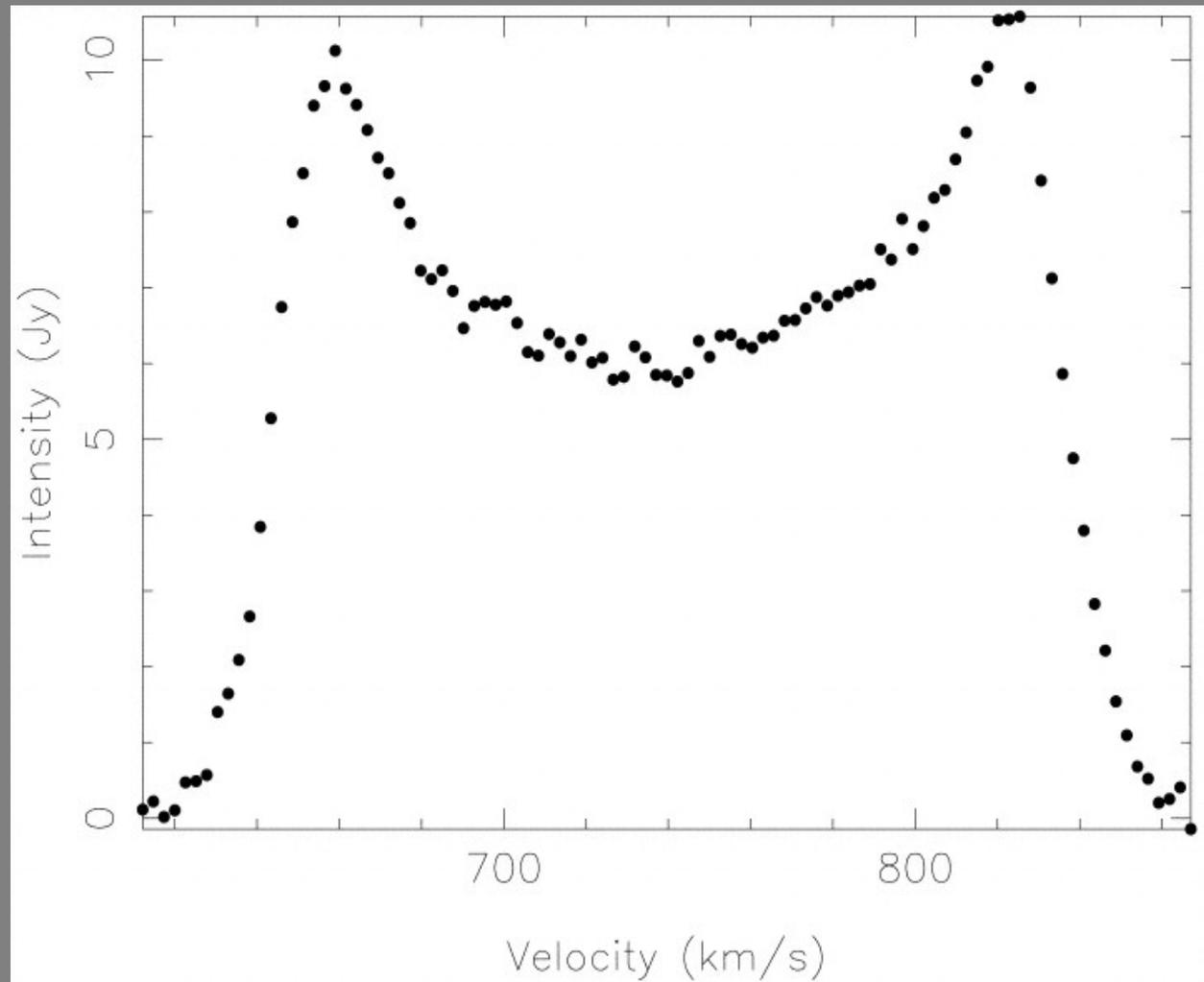
Minimum disk model



Van Albana et al.  
(1985)

Another way to measure the mass is to look at the integrated velocity profile. The width of this profile gives the velocity range and you can derive a mass from that.

For circular motion  
 $M(<r) = v^2 r / G$

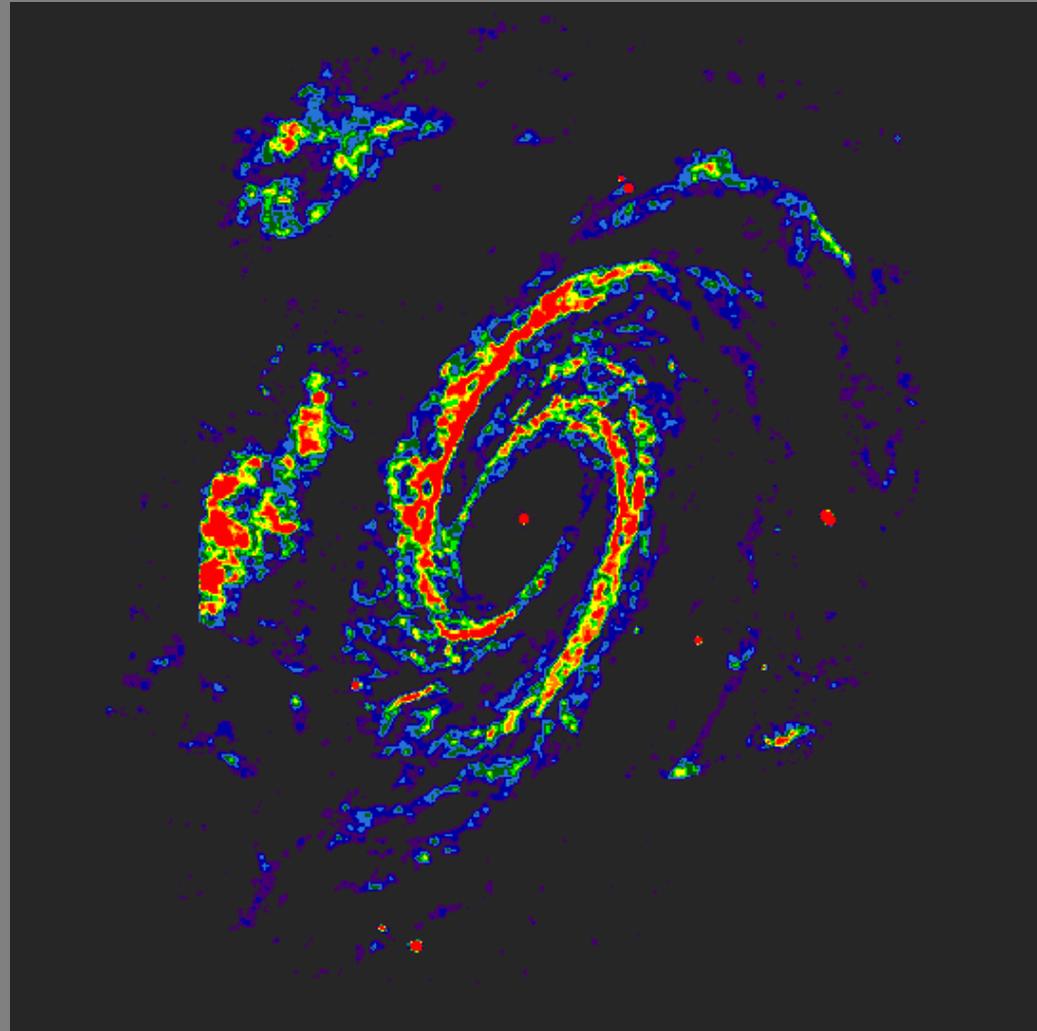


M81 optical



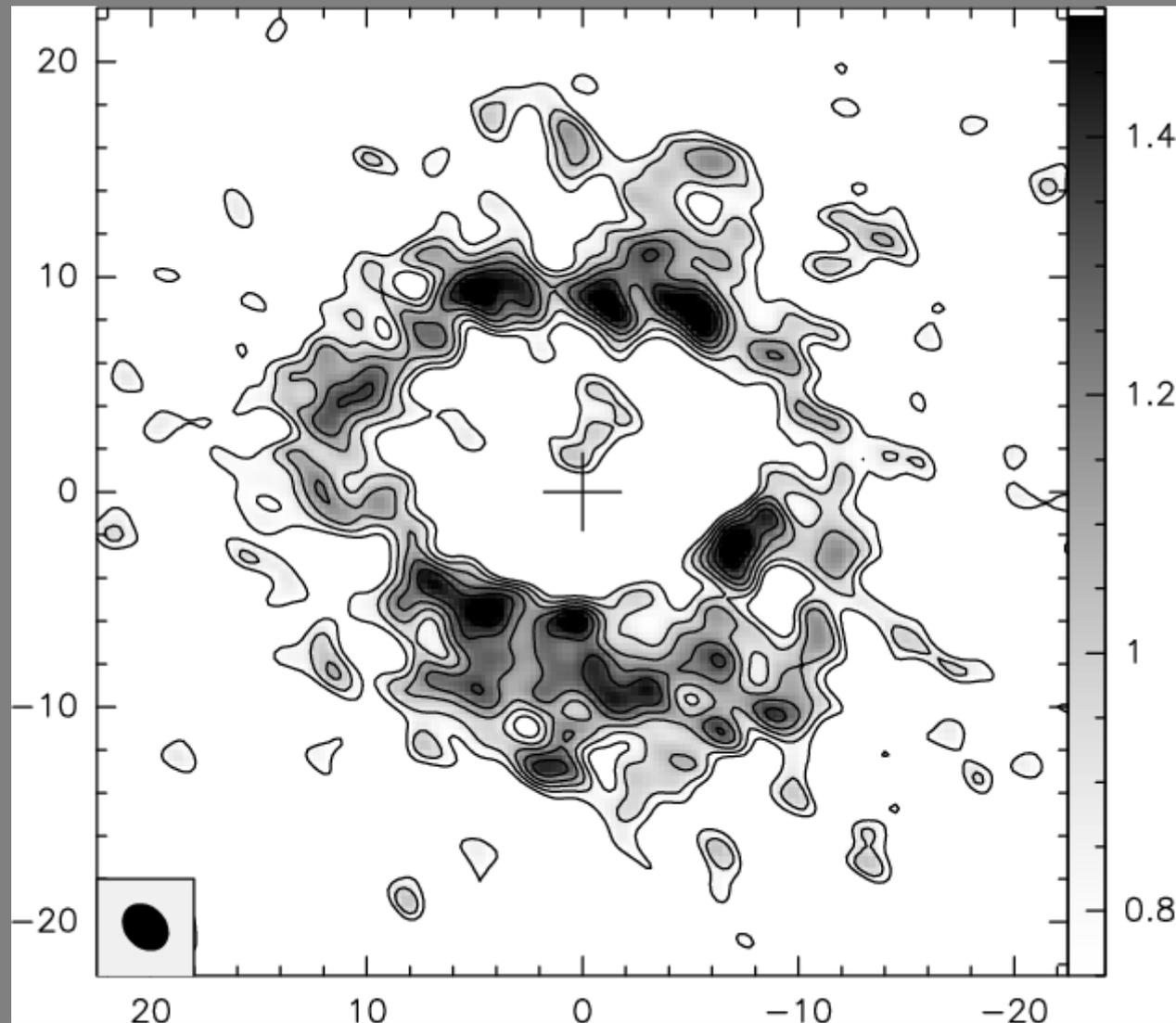
Bright in the center, faint in the outer parts where most of the mass is

HI gas

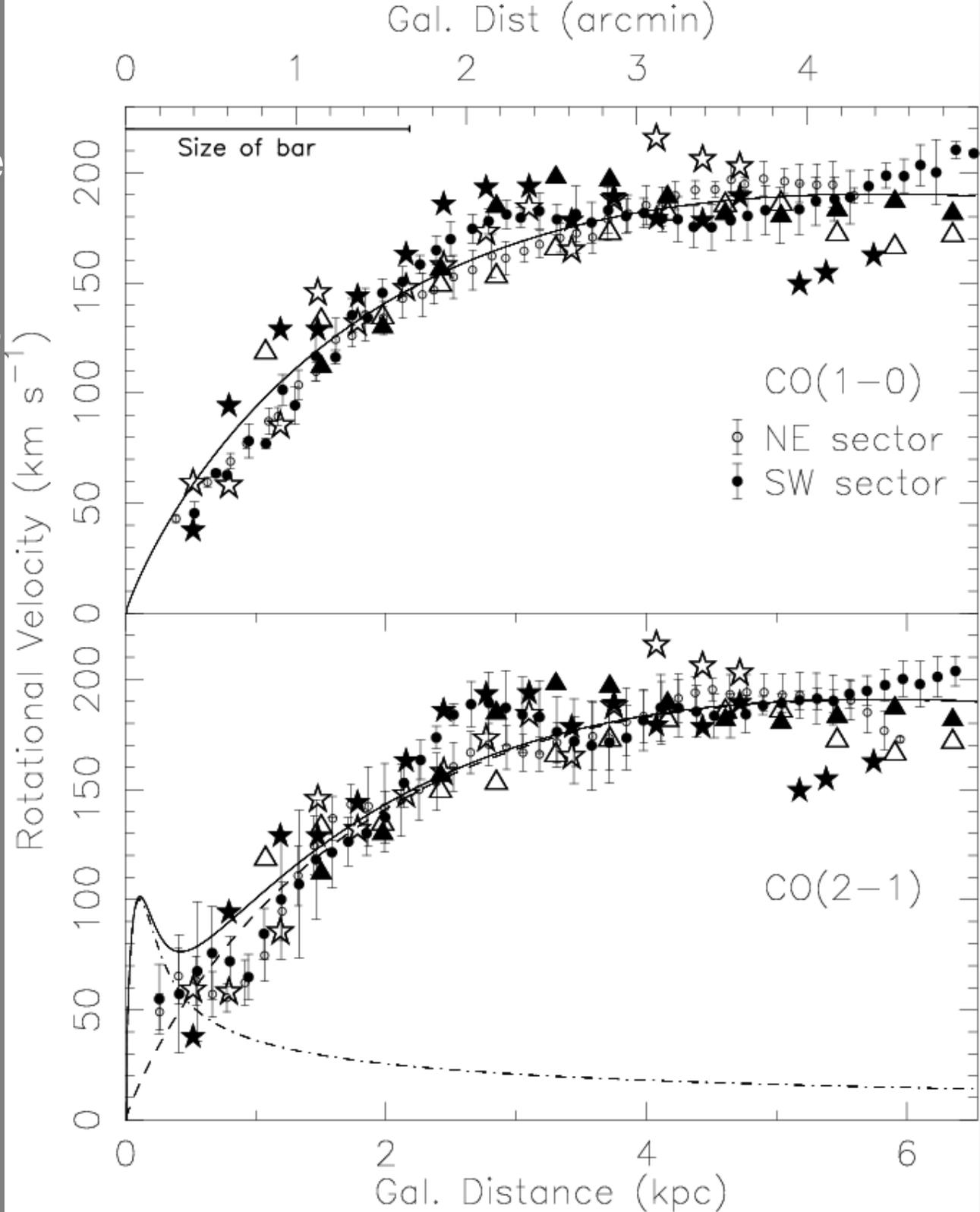


Dim in the center, brighter in the outer parts where most of the mass is

# Using CO to derive a rotation curve

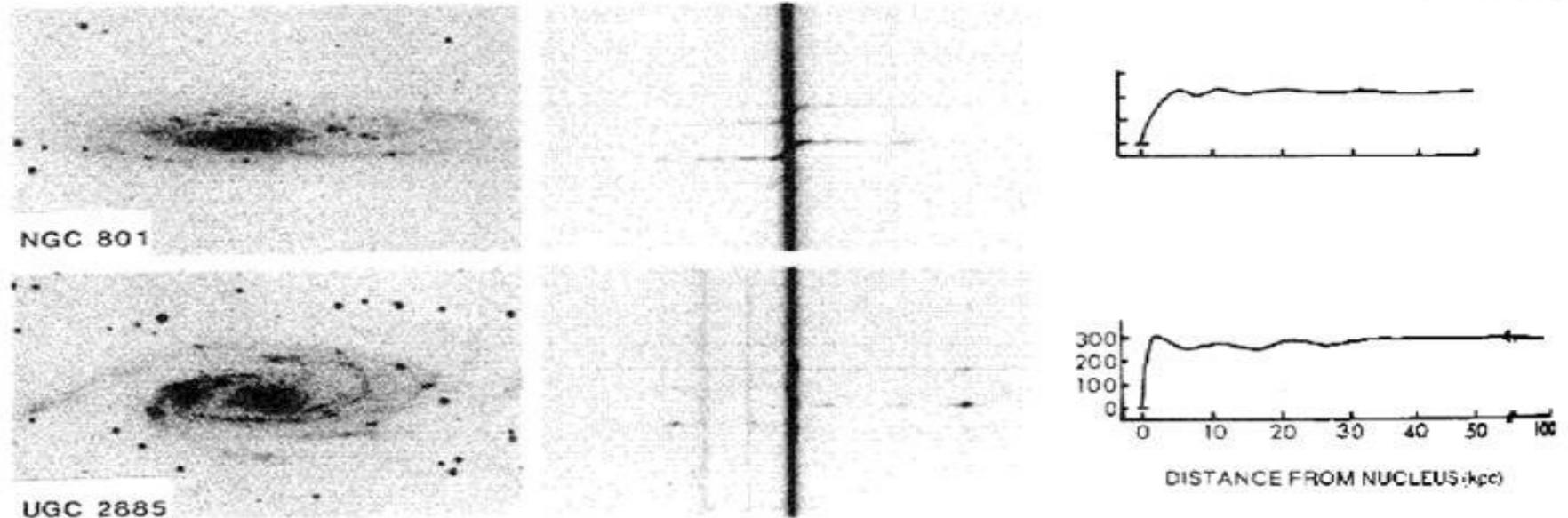


CO gas is much more common in the inner parts of spiral galaxies and can also be used to derive a rotation curve  
Lundgen et al. 2004



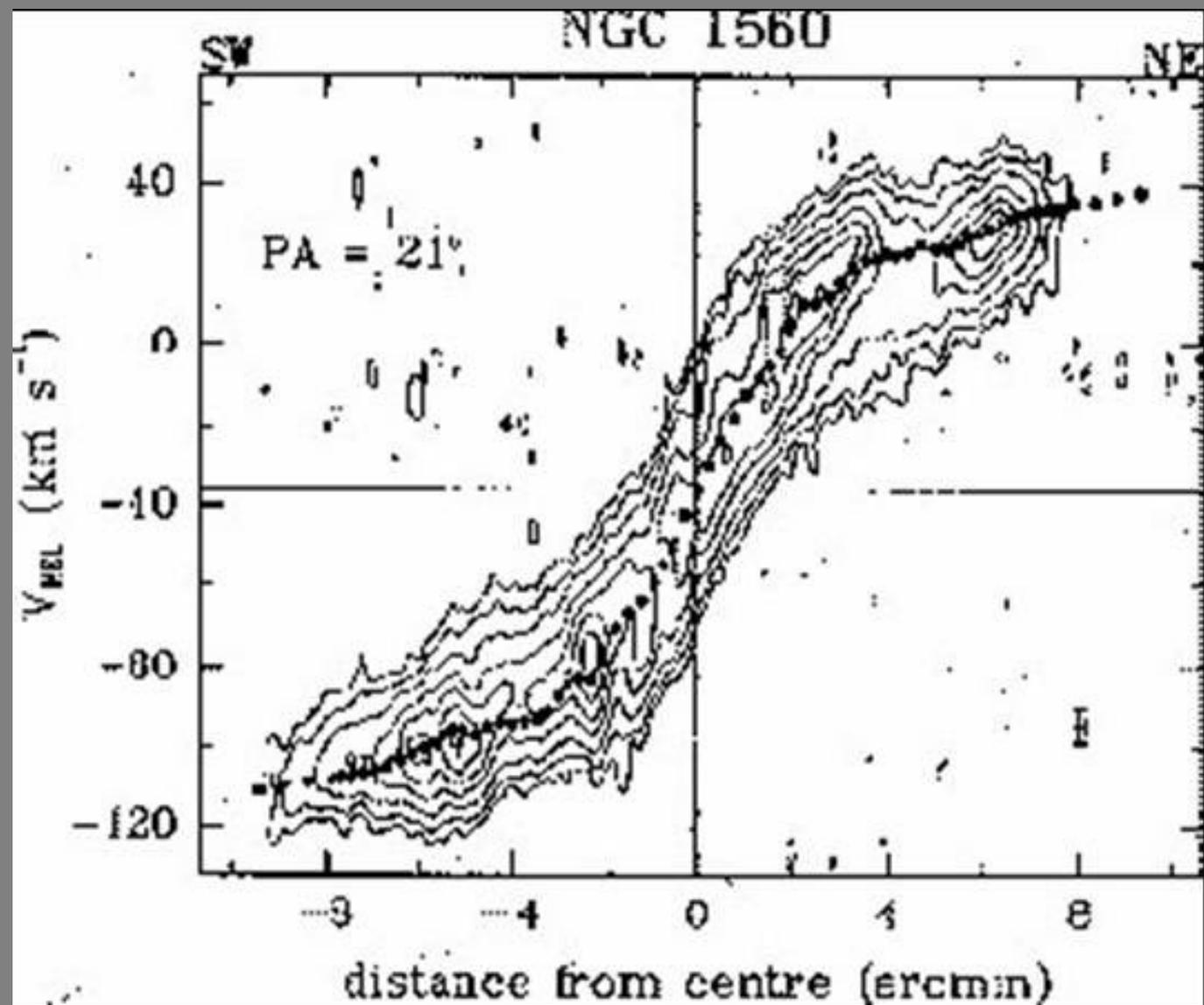
# H $\alpha$ rotation curves

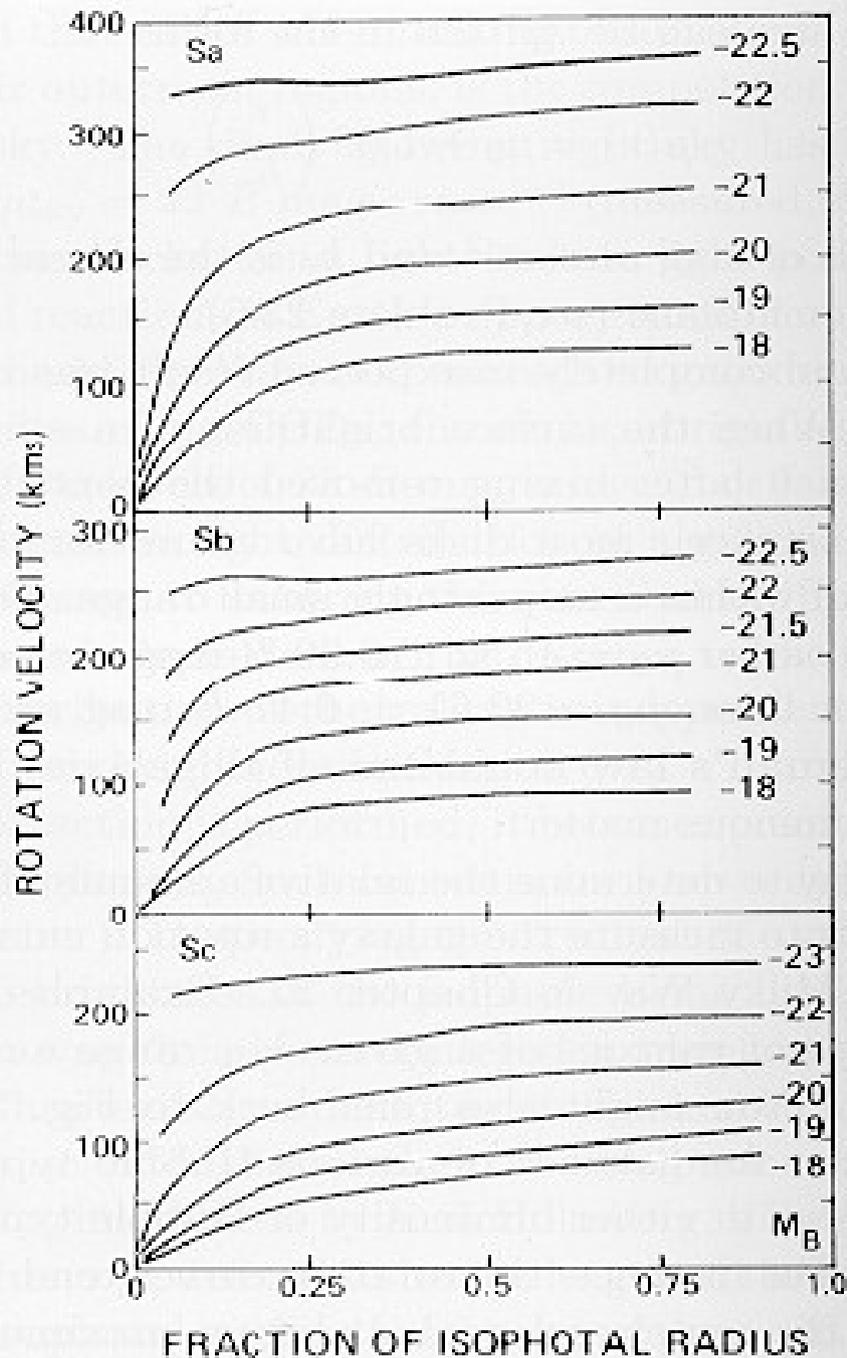
Using long slit spectroscopy we can derive a velocity “slice” across the galaxy.



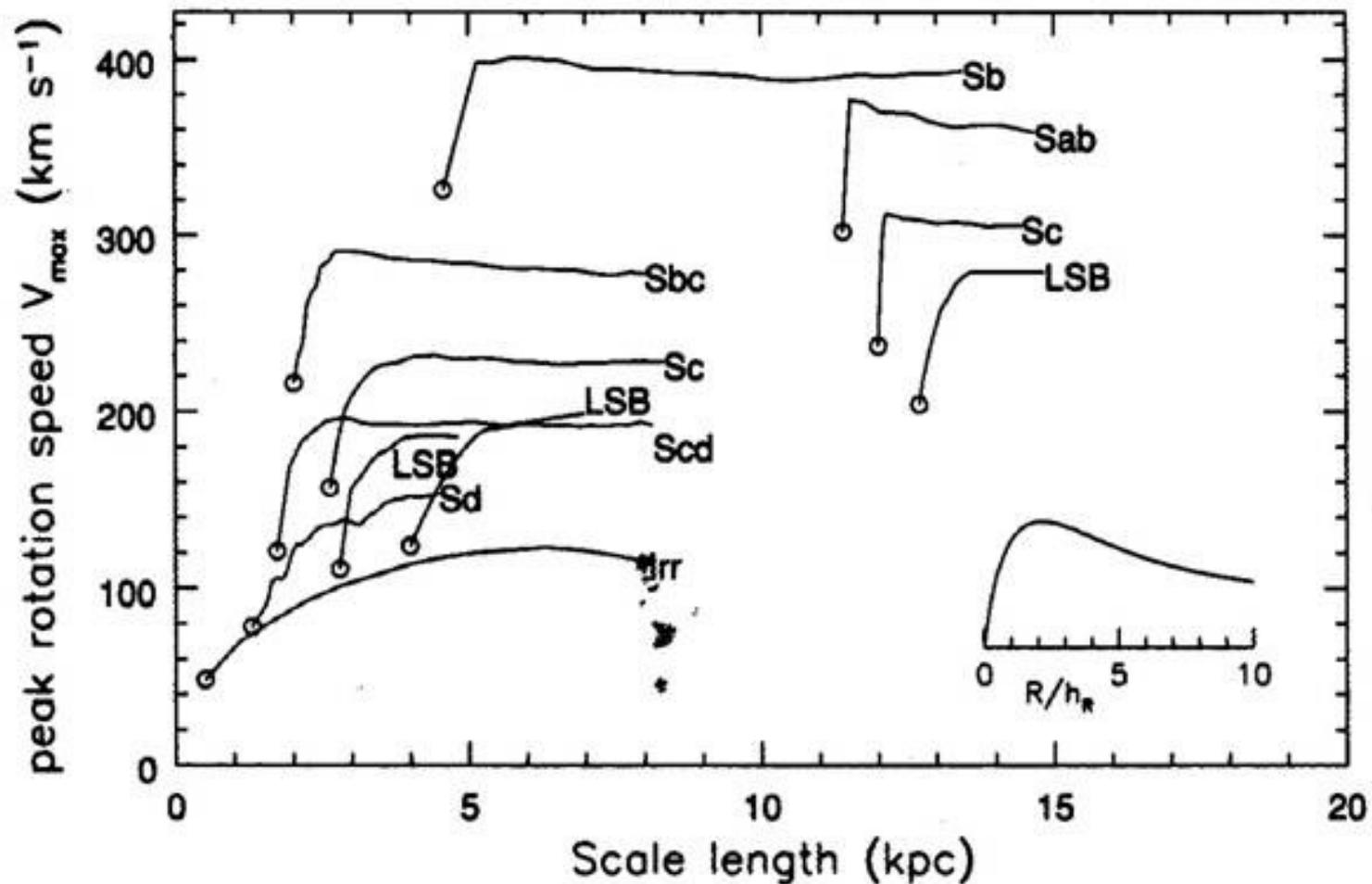
**Figure 10-1.** Photographs, spectra, and rotation curves for five Sc galaxies, arranged in order of increasing luminosity from top to bottom. The top three images are television pictures, in which the spectrograph slit appears as a dark line crossing the center of the galaxy. The vertical line in each spectrum is continuum emission from the nucleus. The distance scales are based on a Hubble constant  $h = 0.5$ . Reproduced from Rubin (1983), by permission of *Science*.

see: Binney, Tremaine (1994) *Galactic Dynamics* p.600





- $H\alpha$  rotation curves for galaxies of various Hubble types
- Galaxies with higher luminosity generally have higher rotation velocities
- Later types generally show a slower rise of the rotation curve
- Typical spirals have peak  $v_{\text{rot}}$  150-300 km/s

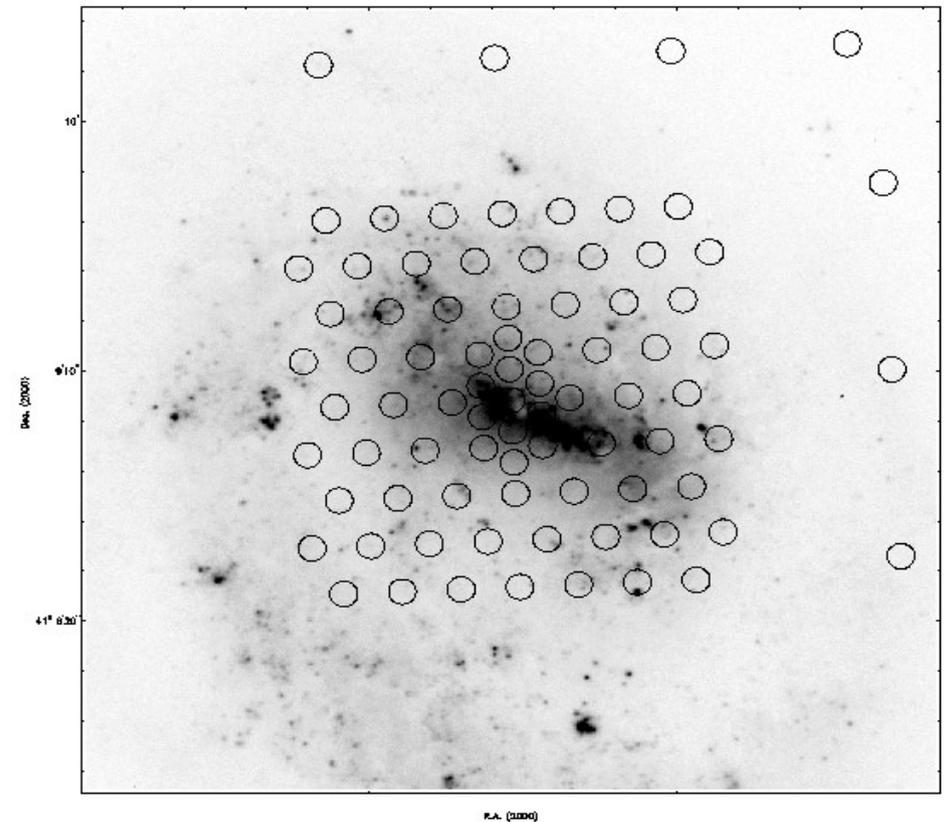


**Figure 5.21** Rotation curves for disk galaxies of various types. Open circles show scale length  $h_R$  of the stellar disk, and peak rotation speed  $V_{\max}$  for each galaxy. Curves are plotted in units of  $R/h_R$ , to the same horizontal scale as the inset, showing  $V(R)$  for the exponential disk (Equation 5.1). LSB denotes a low-surface-brightness galaxy. The measured rotation does not fall as it should if the stellar disk contained most of the mass – A. Broeils, E. de Blok.

# Stellar Kinematics

restricted to high  
surface brightness  
systems

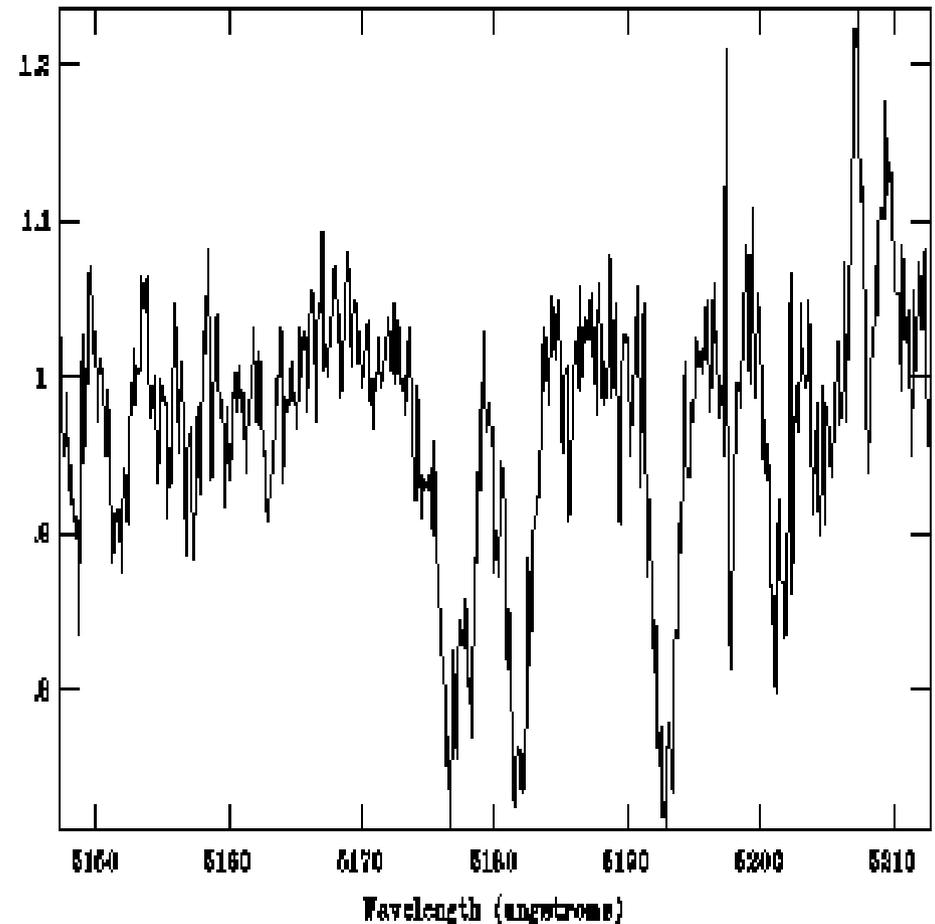
cross-correlation  
between observed  
spectrum and  
template spectrum  
broadened with a  
known gaussian



# NGC 4618

- Mg I and Fe lines yield stellar velocities and velocity dispersion
- Method
  - Choose a template K0.5III star in this case
  - Broaden template with a Gaussian and fit to the spectra
  - $\sigma$  is between 18 and 31 km/s

NDAC/IRAF 78.11.0REPORT prsccott@wingsa.astro.wisc.edu Wed 16:30:53 14-M  
[normalObjectshift.ma.fits["38"]]: "Sparsapak Object Fiber" 8700. ap:88



# NGC 4618 Results

- Stellar velocities and HI velocities are offset by  $\sim 15\text{km/s}$
- If we assume a stellar density profile (based on the amount of light)
  - We find the stellar density of  $\sim 79M_{\odot} \text{pc}^{-2}$
- So stars make up about 40% of the total (dynamical) mass of the disk

# Rotation Curves

- In the absence of dark matter, we expect:
  - $mv^2 / r = GM_r m/r^2$  for a “particle” of mass  $m$  at radius  $r$ , where  $M_r$  is the mass within a radius  $r$
  - $M_r = v^2 r / G$
  - If all mass was contained within a radius  $R$ , then  $M = \text{constant}$  for  $r > R$ ,  $v^2 \propto r^{-1/2}$  (Keplerian!)
  - Instead, rotational velocity is constant, so that means  $M_r \propto r$  at distances larger than stellar disks, the light shows an exponential drop off and thus the stellar mass is also dropping rapidly

# Rotation Curves cont.

- For rotational velocity to remain constant with radius we need
  - $M_r \propto r$
  - There must be extra “dark” mass around spiral galaxies, extending far beyond the optical disk.
  - So how do you measure the total mass of a spiral? Where can you stop?

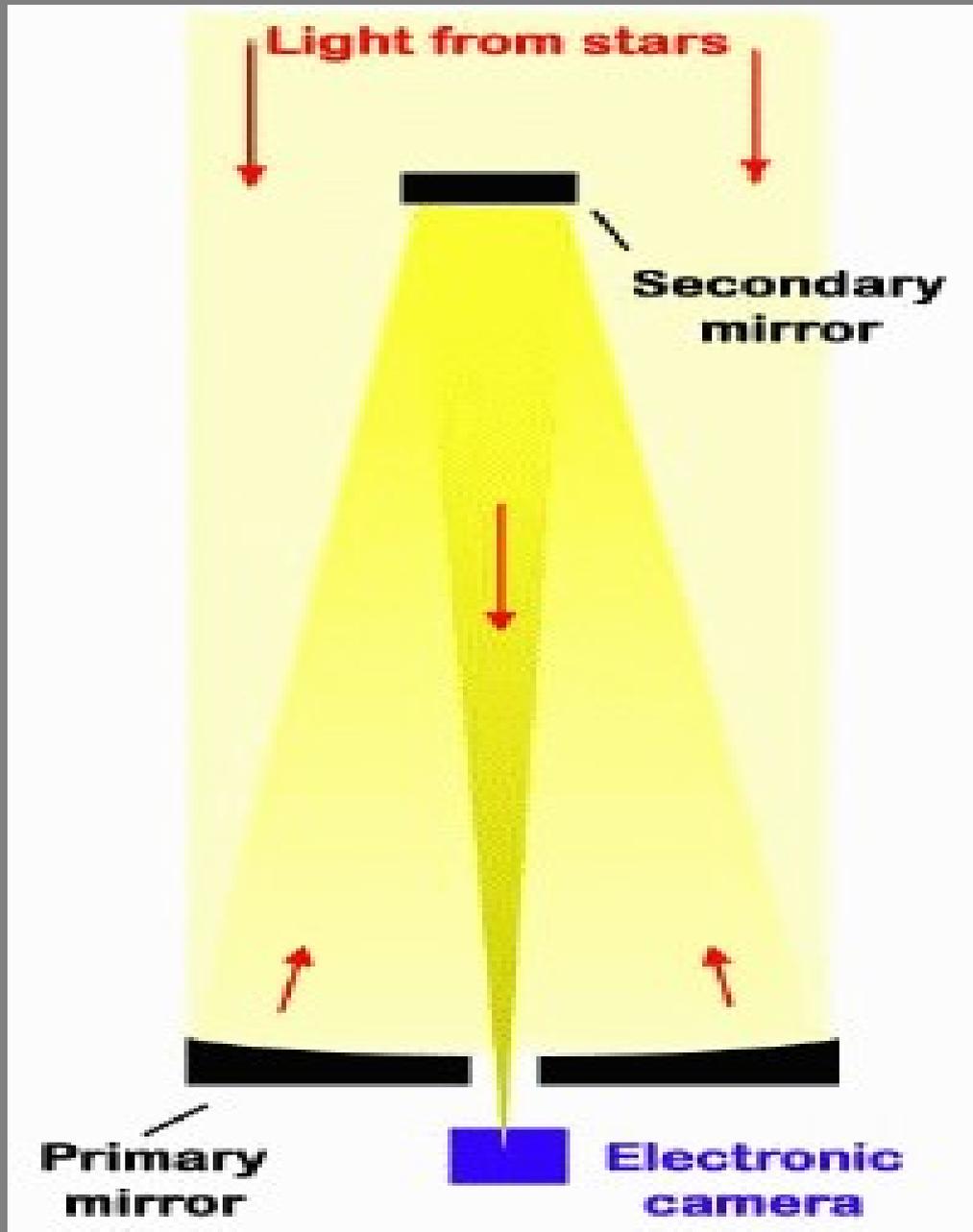
# What do we now know about the density profile of dark matter?

- What does this mean for the density profile of the dark halo?
- If the DM halo is spherical then
  - $dM = 4\pi r^2 \rho(r) dr$
  - We know that  $v^2 = GM(r)/r$  eqn 3.46
  - Take the derivative wrt  $r$  and we get  $dM/dr = V^2/2G$ , so  $V^2/2G = 4\pi r^2 \rho(r)$
  - Thus,  $\rho(r) = V^2 / 8\pi Gr^2$

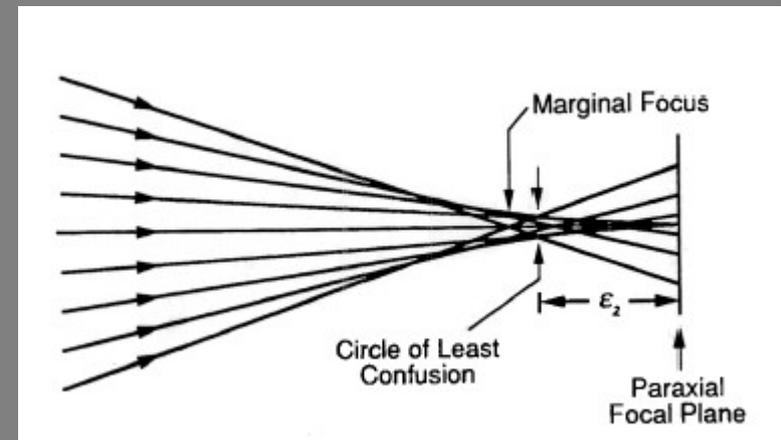
# Aside: Imaging

Question: How does astronomical imaging work?

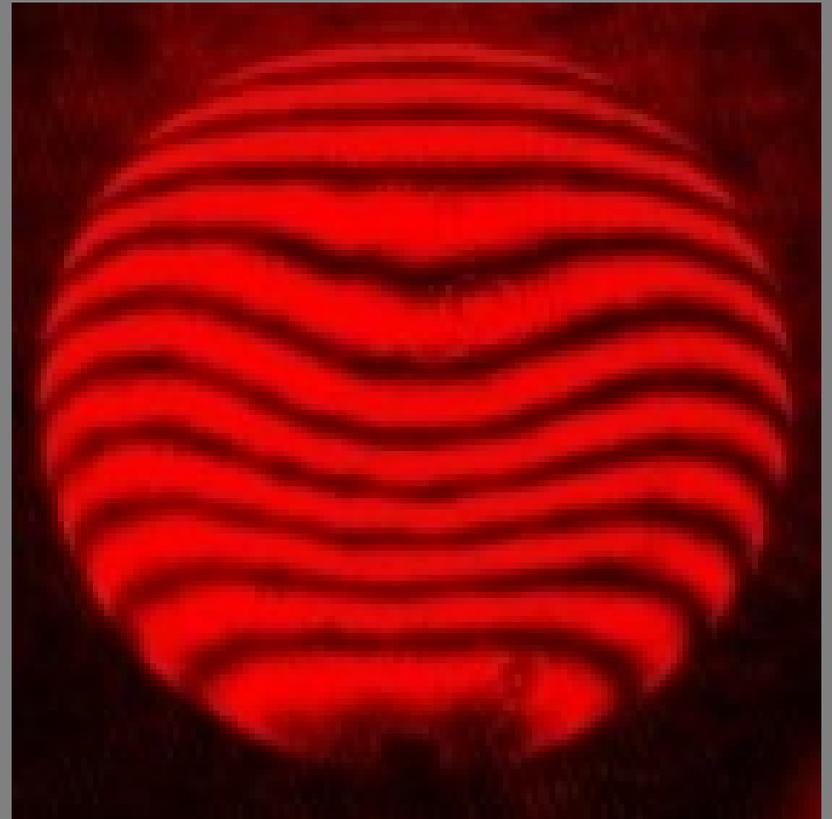
Lets first look at optical images and then we'll examine how radio images are made



To focus light and form an image you need a well designed optical system. The margin of error for forming the reflective surfaces is only about 1/10 the wavelength of the light you want to focus.

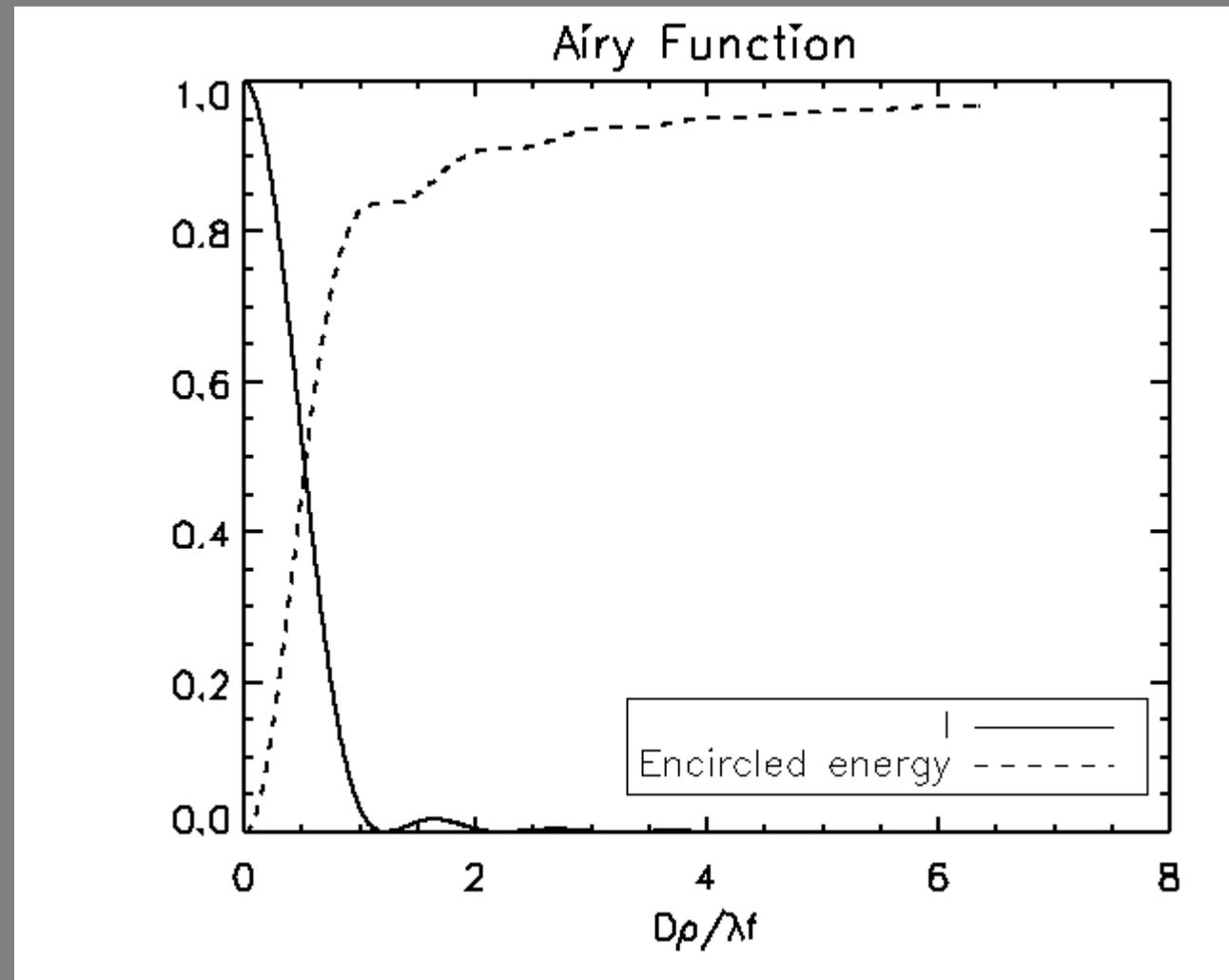


So in designing these systems you need a method to determine the shape of the mirror very accurately. This means measuring distances with an accuracy of about 55nm! One of the methods used is with interferometry. Below shows the interference fringes from a mirror that still needs work. The curvature of the fringes shows that spherical aberation is present.



Airy function  
(1<sup>st</sup> order Bessel  
function)

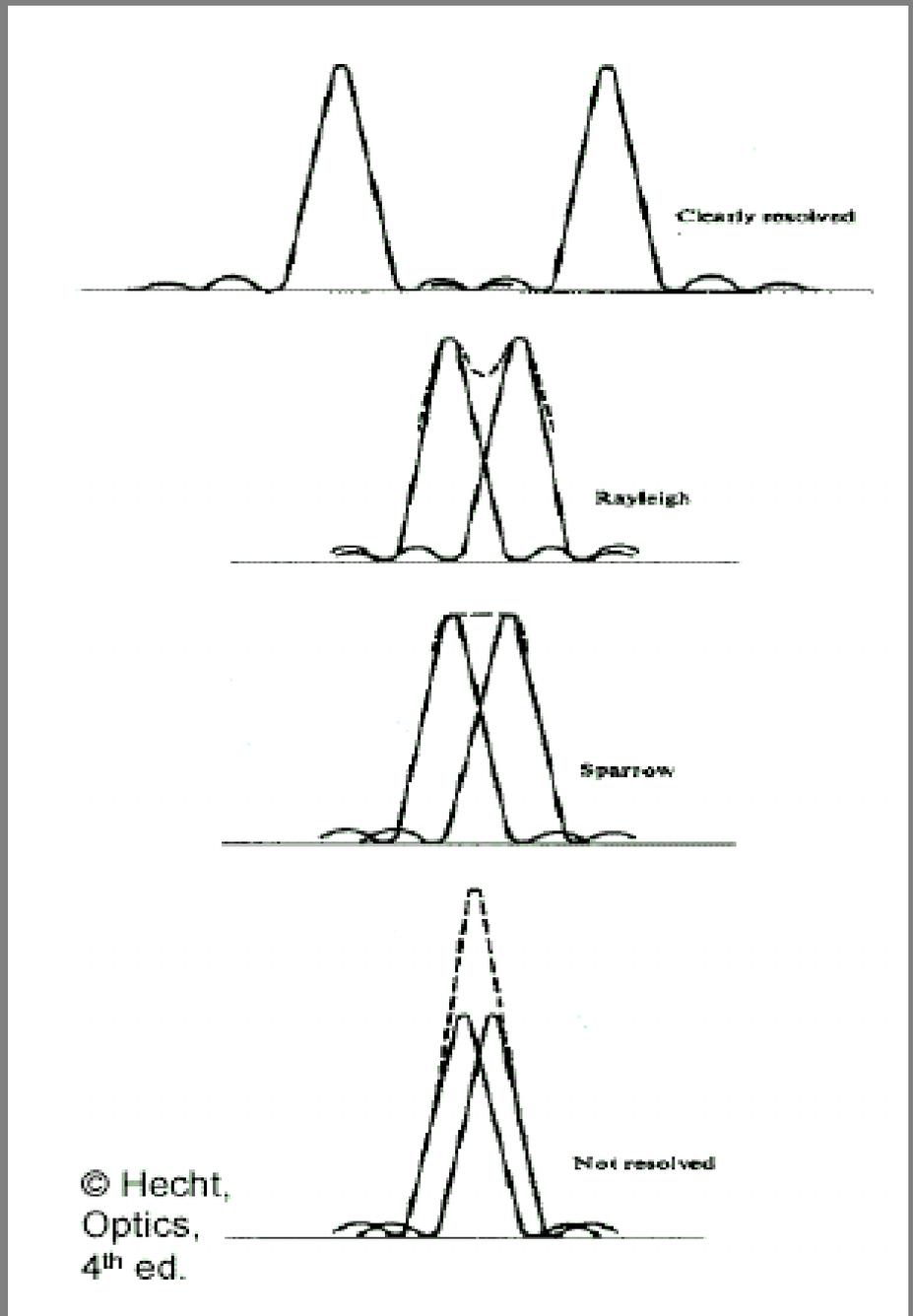
$$I(\rho) = I_0 \left[ \frac{J_1(\pi D\rho/\lambda R)}{\pi D\rho/\lambda R} \right]^2$$



According to the Rayleigh criteria the resolution of a lens or mirror of diameter  $D$  is given by

$$\theta_{\text{Rayleigh}} = 1.22\lambda/D$$

where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the radiation. It follows from Fraunhofer diffraction around a circular aperture, and the value 1.22 is given by  $x/\pi$ , where  $x \approx 3.832$  is the first zero of the Bessel function mathematical expression for the Airy Disk.



Lets look at some of the consequences of this. Suppose we have a telescope with a 10" mirror and we are observing in blue light (500nm) what is our resolution?

$$\lambda = 500\text{nm} = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$$

$$D = 10'' = 25.4\text{cm} = 0.254\text{m}$$

$$\theta_R = 1.22 * 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m} / 0.254\text{m}$$

$$\theta_R = 2.64 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad} = 0.6 \text{ arcsec}$$

Now lets look at what size mirror we need at 21cm to get the same resolution?

$$\lambda = 21 \text{ cm} = 0.21 \text{ m}$$

$$\theta_R = 2.64 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad}$$

$$D = ?$$

$$D = 1.22 \lambda / \theta_R$$

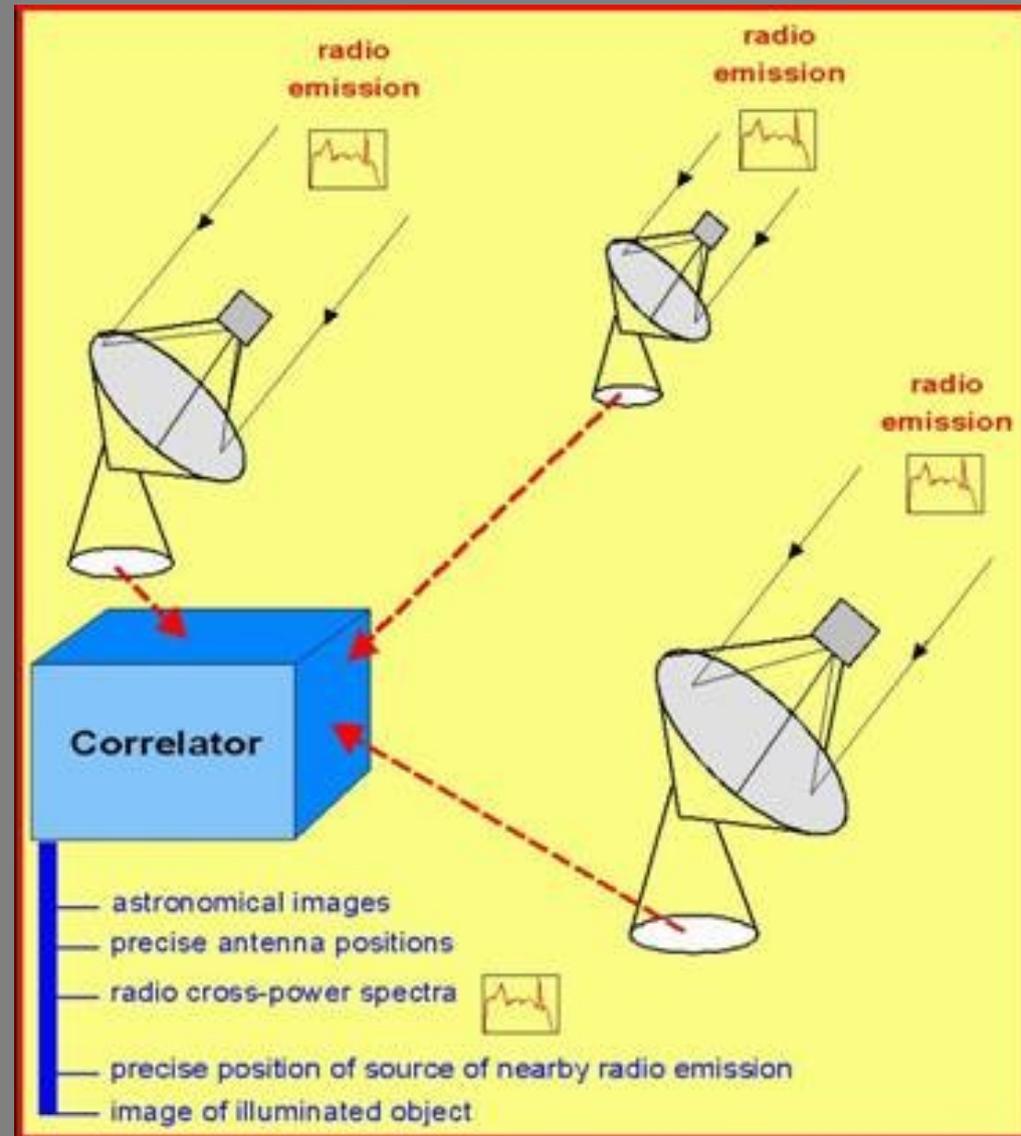
$$\mathbf{D} = 1.22 * 0.21 \text{ m} / 2.64 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad}$$

$$D = 9.7 \times 10^4 \text{ m}$$

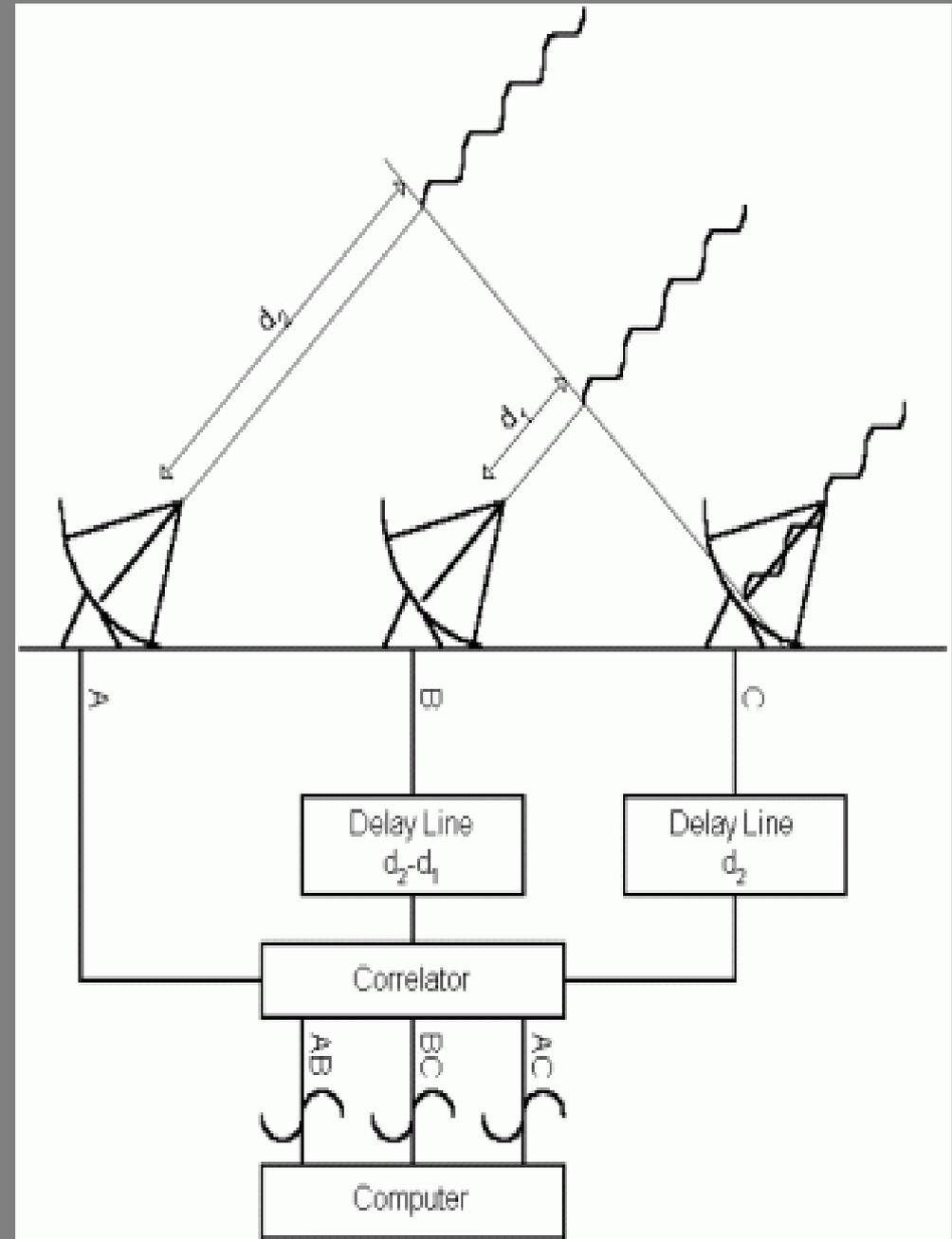
$$D = 97 \text{ km}$$

# Radio Astronomy

- Use many small antennas
- Each antenna can be thought of as a part of a large dish



- We can add a “extra” length in the electronics to simulate a physical offset of the radio telescopes
- This delay serves the same purpose as a curved mirror and the radio waves “focus” like the optical light.

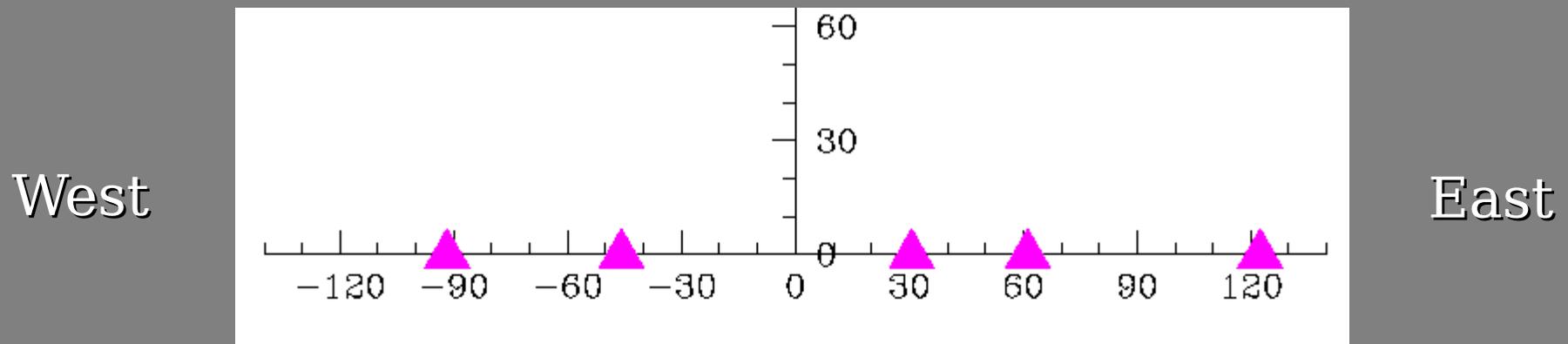


- Fully steerable array of 14 antennas 10 fixed and two pair on rails
- Can observe multiple frequencies at the same time



# Aperture Synthesis

As an example lets look at an East - West array

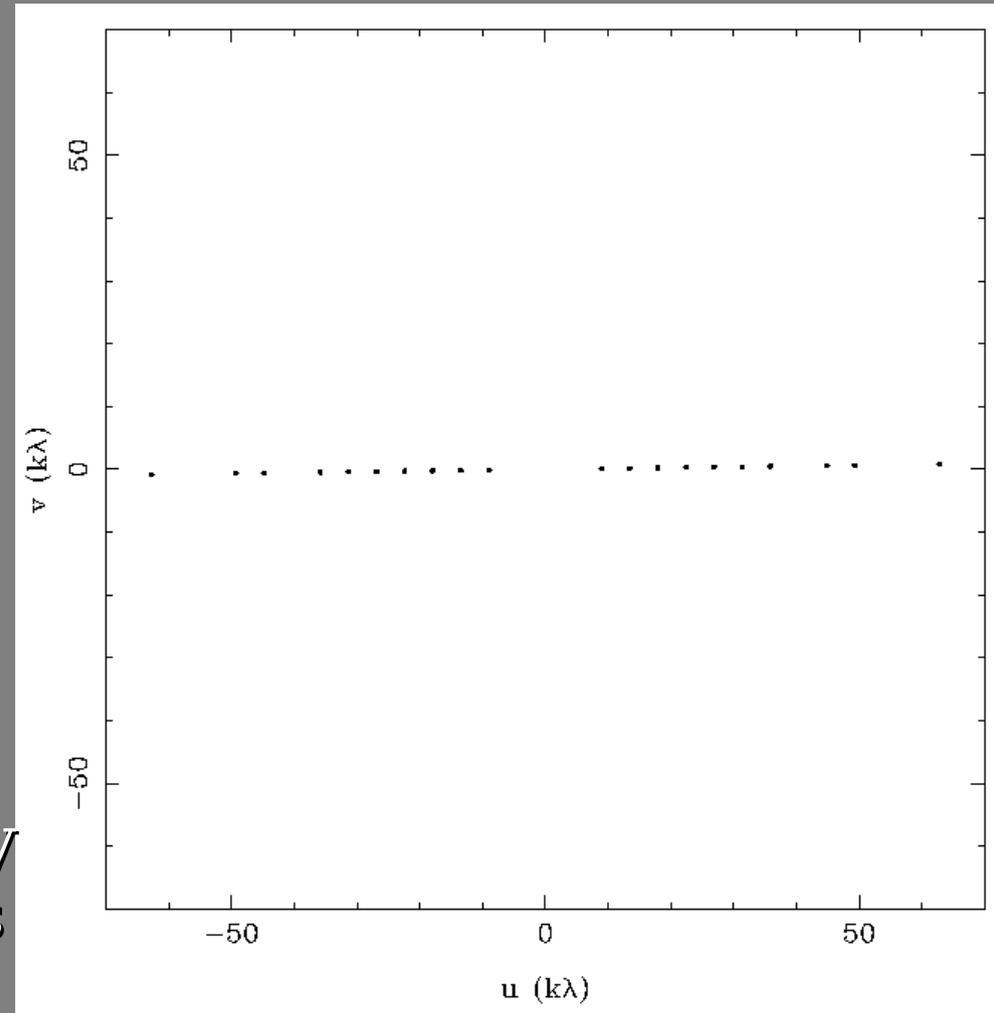


If we look in the U-V plane (this is just a coordinate system defined by the antennas) then at one time we get information for these points.

For our 5 antennas we have 20 distances between pairs of antennas.

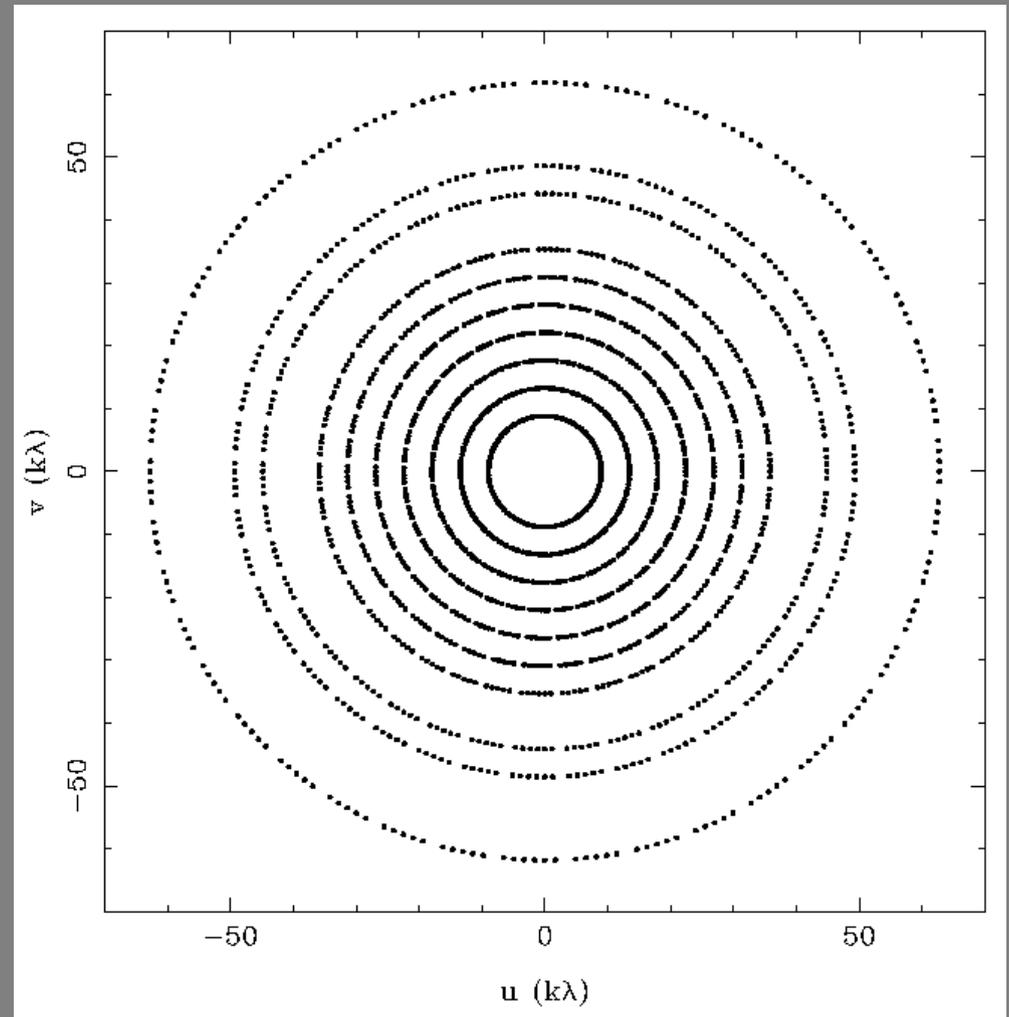
Since we can mathematically “swap” any pair on antennas we can also fill in the -U,-V plane at the same time.

What happens over time?



Over time (12 hrs) we make a complete rotation and fill part of the U-V plane.

After 12 hrs we can move the antennas around and observe for another 12 hrs to fill more of the plane



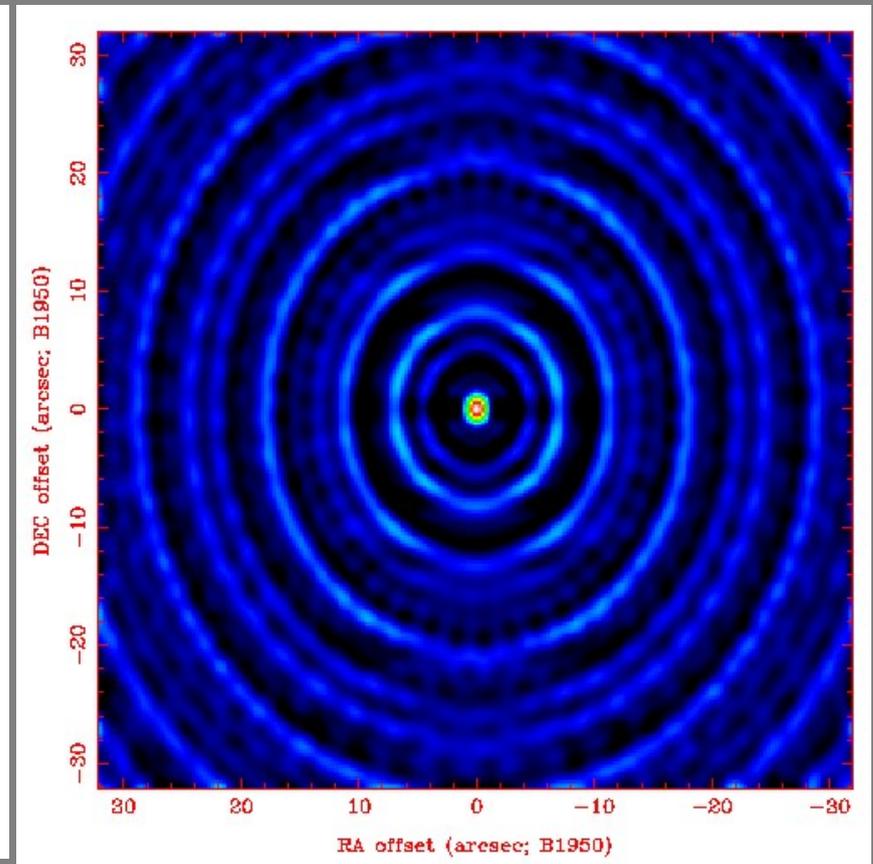
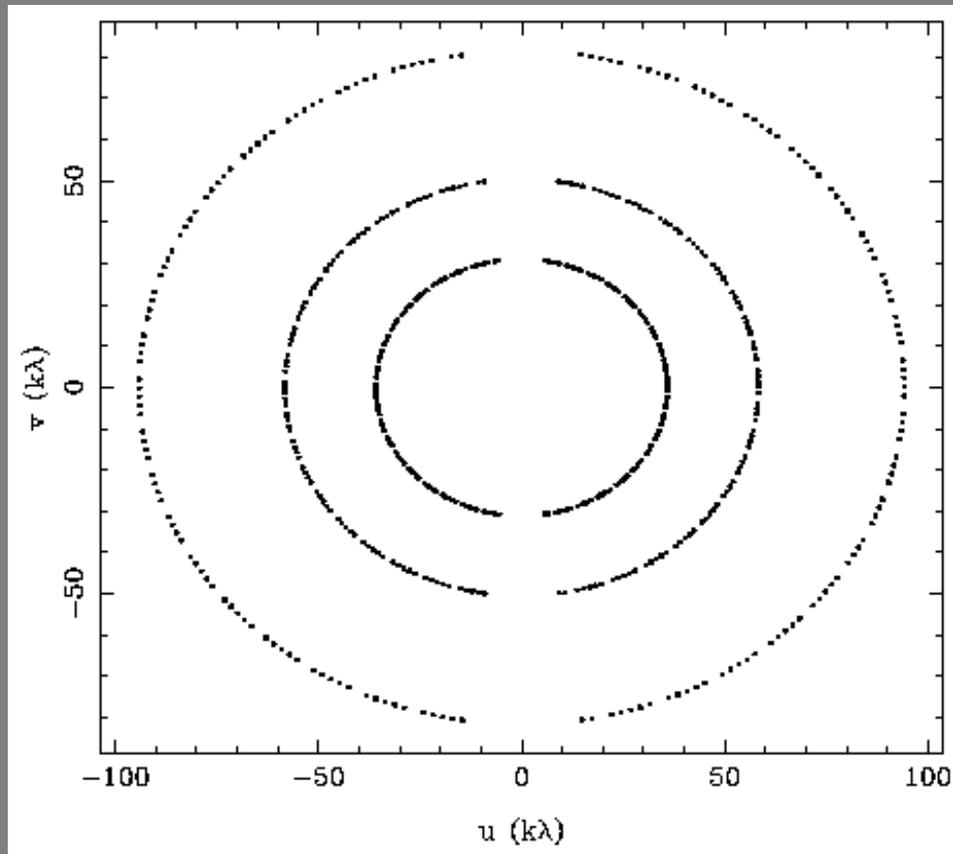
# Very Large Array (VLA)



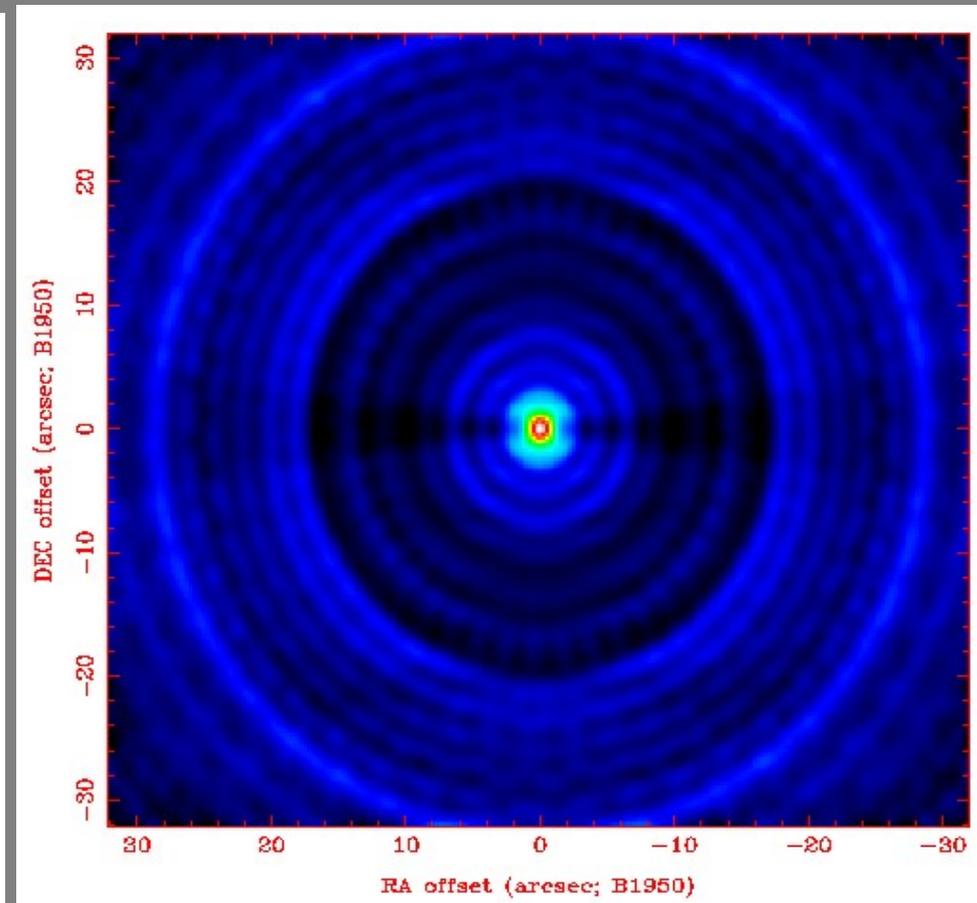
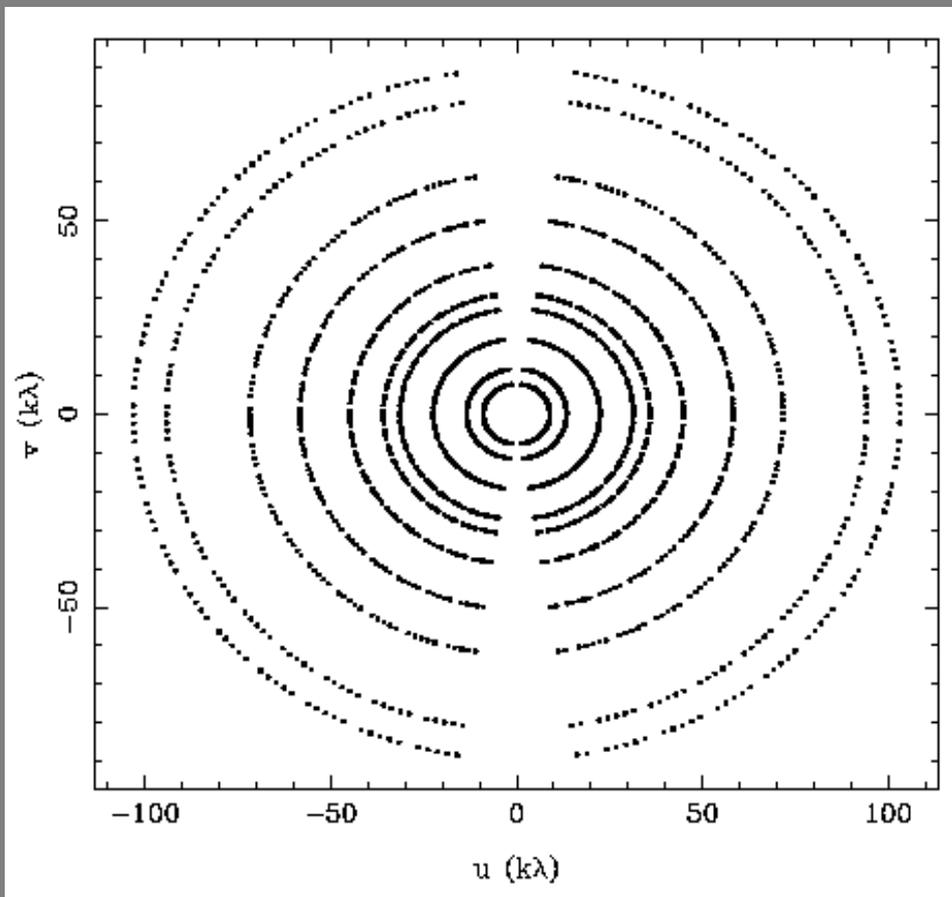
Note that the array is flat not curved like a mirror!

If there are gaps in the UV plane then the reconstructed image has artifacts

FT



Adding antennas can dramatically reduce the artifacts, adding 1 antenna adds  $N-1$  new baselines!



- VLA observation of a point source
- Note the artifacts due to the finite number of antennas

