

Problem set 5

```
In [1]: import astropy.units as u
import astropy.constants as c
import astropy.coordinates import SkyCoord
from astropy.time import Time
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import pandas as pd
import glob
%matplotlib inline

In [2]: plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = (10, 10)
plt.rcParams['axes', labelsz=14)
plt.rcParams['axes', labelweight='bold')
plt.rcParams['axes', titlesz=16)
plt.rcParams['axes', titleweight='bold')
plt.rcParams['font', family='sans-serif')
```

Problem 1

The Tully-Fisher relation can be expressed as:

$$M = -4.43 - 6.15 \log \Delta V$$

where ΔV is the velocity width of the rotational velocity profile of each galaxy in km/s, and M is the absolute magnitude of the galaxy. The figure below shows the velocity profiles of two spiral galaxies, NGC1241 and NGC5248.

(a) (3 pts) Assume that galaxies NGC 1241 and NGC 5248 have apparent magnitudes of $m = 14$ and $m = 12$, respectively. Calculate the distances to these two galaxies.

NGC 1241

$$m = 14$$

$$\Delta V = 4200 - 3850 = 350 \text{ [km/s]}$$

The distance modulus can be expressed as:

$$m - M = 5 \log_{10}(d) - 5$$

$$M = -5 \log_{10}(d) + 5 + m$$

$$-5 \log_{10}(d) + 5 + m = -4.43 - 6.15 \log \Delta V$$

$$\log_{10}(d) = \frac{-1}{5} (-4.43 - 6.15 \log \Delta V - 5 - m)$$

$$d = 10^{\frac{-1}{5} (-4.43 - 6.15 \log \Delta V - 5 - m)}$$

```
In [14]: v = 350
m = 14
d1241 = 10**((-1/5)* (-4.43 - 6.15*np.log10(v) - 5 - m))
print(f'The distance is {d1241:.2e} [km].')
```

The distance is 6.53e+07 [km].

NGC 5248

$$m = 12$$

$$\Delta V = 1250 - 1050 = 200 \text{ [km/s]}$$

```
In [15]: v = 200
m = 12
d5248 = 10**((-1/5)* (-4.43 - 6.15*np.log10(v) - 5 - m))
print(f'The distance is {d5248:.2e} [km].')
```

The distance is 1.31e+07 [km].

b) From these and their recession velocities, calculate the value of the Hubble constant. For simplicity, also assume that the galaxies are seen edge-on (inclination angle $i = 90^\circ$), so that the central velocity corresponds to the maximum rotational velocity.

$$v_r = H_0 d$$

$$H_0 = \frac{v_r}{d}$$

NGC 1241

$$v_r \approx 4050$$

```
In [16]: H1241 = 4050/d1241
print(f'The value of the hubble constant for NGC 1241 is {H1241:.2e} [1/s]')
```

The value of the hubble constant for NGC 1241 is 6.20e-05 [1/s]

NGC 5248

$$v_r \approx 1150$$

```
In [17]: H5248 = 4050/d5248
print(f'The value of the hubble constant for NGC 5248 is {H5248:.2e} [1/s]')
```

The value of the hubble constant for NGC 5248 is 3.10e-04 [1/s]

Problem 2

The Fundamental Plane relationship says that the velocity dispersion, σ , of an elliptical galaxy is related to its size r_e and surface brightness I_e by:

$$r_e \alpha \sigma^{1.4} I_e^{-0.85}$$

a) Derive the Fundamental Plane relationship using arguments similar to those used to derive the Tully-Fisher relationship and the Faber-Jackson relationship in class. You should get an answer that is close, but not exactly the same as the equation above (i.e. the exponents on σ and I_e will be slightly off).

In class, we started with:

$$F_g = F_c$$

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{GmM}{r^2}$$

$$M = \frac{v^2 R_{tot}}{G}$$

And then we added two assumptions:

1. ratio is some constant $\frac{M}{r} = C_{ml}$
2. Surface brightness is constant $\frac{L}{R^2} = C_{sb}$

We will follow about this same logic, with a few changes.

We can consider Luminosity as the integration of the surface brightness:

$$L = 2\pi \int_0^r I(r) r dr$$

We will also re-consider our kinetic energy term so that we can include the velocity dispersion term.

Typically, centripetal force is given by:

$$F_c = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

We can simply change this v for the velocity dispersion if we remember that we are working in three dimensions. We just need to multiply the term by 3.

$$F_c = \frac{3m\sigma^2}{r}$$

With these differences, we can follow about the same logic as in class.

$$F_g = F_c$$

$$\frac{3m\sigma^2}{r} = \frac{GmM}{r^2}$$

$$M = \frac{3\sigma^2 R_{tot}}{G}$$

Just quickly solving the luminosity integral, we get:

$$L = \pi I(r) R^2$$

$$\frac{M}{L} = C_{ml} = \frac{3\sigma^2 R_{tot}}{GL} = \frac{3\sigma^2 R_{tot}}{G\pi I(r) R^2} = \frac{3\sigma^2}{G\pi I(r) R}$$

$$R = \frac{L}{M} \frac{3\sigma^2}{G\pi I(r)}$$

$$\frac{L}{R^2} = C_{sb}$$

$$R^2 = \frac{L}{C_{sb}}$$

$$\frac{L}{C_{sb}} = \frac{L^2}{M^2} \left[\frac{3\sigma^2}{G\pi I(r)} \right]^2$$

$$\frac{1}{C_{sb}} = \frac{L}{M^2} 9\sigma^4 \frac{1}{G^2 \pi^2 I(r)^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{C_{sb}} = \frac{\pi I(r) R^2}{\left[\frac{3\sigma^2 R_{tot}}{G} \right]^2} 9\sigma^4 \frac{1}{G^2 \pi^2 I(r)^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{C_{sb}} = \frac{9\sigma^4 \pi I(r) R^2}{G^2 \pi^2 I(r)^2} \frac{G^2}{9\sigma^4 R}$$

$$\frac{1}{C_{sb}} = \frac{9\sigma^4 R}{I(r) \pi}$$

Dropping the constants:

$$I(r) \approx \sigma^4 R$$

b) The reason your answer for part (a) differs from the actual relationship is because the Mass-to-Light ratio for elliptical galaxies is not constant. Instead it varies with the mass of the galaxy. Determine how the M/L ratio must depend on mass to obtain the observed Fundamental Plane relationship. In other words, assuming $M/L \propto M^x$, solve for x .

$$\frac{M}{L} \approx M^x$$

$$\frac{M}{L} = M^x = \frac{3\sigma^2 R_{tot}}{GL} = \frac{3\sigma^2 R_{tot}}{G\pi I(r) R^2} = \frac{3\sigma^2}{G\pi I(r) R}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{M^x} \frac{3\sigma^2}{G\pi I(r)}$$

$$R^2 = \frac{L}{C_{sb}}$$

$$\frac{L}{C_{sb}} = \left[\frac{1}{M^x} \frac{3\sigma^2}{G\pi I(r)} \right]^2$$

COME BACK TO THIS

```
In [ ]: 
```

Problem 3

For this problem, you will generate a model galaxy spectrum for two idealized cases. The first is a burst of star formation which has just occurred (e.g., $t=0$, no stars have evolved out of the main sequence), while the second will be that same population, only viewed one billion years later.

a. Assume that a gas cloud with a mass of $10^9 M_\odot$ collapses instantaneously (yes, this is unphysical, but it's an idealized case, so let's go with it), and stars are formed with masses distributed according to a Salpeter initial mass function (power law index ≈ 2.35), with a minimum mass of $0.08 M_\odot$ and a maximum of $100 M_\odot$. Calculate the number of stars of each spectral type, using the following definitions: O=20-100 M_\odot ; B=3-20 M_\odot ; A=1.7-3 M_\odot ; F=1.1-1.7 M_\odot ; G=0.8-1.1 M_\odot ; K=0.6-0.8 M_\odot ; M=0.08-0.6 M_\odot . Write these values down in tabular form and show all work.

GRADER: This problem is fully in the coding notebook that I turned in. No need to grade it here.

$$M_{tot} = 10^9 M_\odot$$

$$\text{index} = -2.35$$

We start with the salpeter equation:

$$\xi(m) \Delta m = \xi_0 \left(\frac{m}{M_\odot} \right)^{-2.35} \left(\frac{\Delta m}{M_\odot} \right)$$

We first need to solve for the normalization constant.

$$M_{tot} = \int_{0.08 M_\odot}^{100 M_\odot} \xi_0 \frac{m^{-2.35}}{m} dm$$

$$M_{tot} = \xi_0 \frac{1}{M_\odot} \left[\frac{m^{-0.35}}{-0.35} \right]_{0.08 M_\odot}^{100 M_\odot}$$

$$M_{tot} = \xi_0 \frac{1}{-0.35} [100 M_\odot^{-0.35} - 0.08 M_\odot^{-0.35}]$$

$$\xi_0 = \frac{M_{tot}}{\frac{1}{-0.35} [100 M_\odot^{-0.35} - 0.08 M_\odot^{-0.35}]}$$

```
In [40]: msun = c.M_sun.value
mtot = 1e9*msun

#Value in kg
xi0 = mtot/( (1/(-0.35))*((100*msun)**(-0.35)) - ((0.08*msun)**(-0.35)) )

print(f'The normalization constant is {xi0:.2e}.')
```

The normalization constant is 1.26e+49.

```
In [42]: def ngal(lower_m, upper_m):
    """
    Takes a range of masses and computes the number of galaxies within the range.

    """

    return xi0*((1/(-0.35))*((upper_m*msun)**(-0.35)) - ((lower_m*msun)**(-0.35)) )
```

O type

```
In [50]: no = ngal(20,100)
print(f'There are {no:.2e} O type stars.')
```

There are 1.35e+38 O type stars.

B type

```
In [51]: nb = ngal(3,20)
print(f'There are {nb:.2e} B type stars.')
```

There are 2.96e+38 B type stars.

A type

```
In [55]: na = ngal(1.7,3)
print(f'There are {na:.2e} A type stars.')
```

There are 1.34e+38 A type stars.

F type

```
In [56]: nf = ngal(1.1,1.7)
print(f'There are {nf:.2e} F type stars.')
```

There are 1.22e+38 F type stars.

G type

```
In [57]: ng = ngal(0.8,1.1)
print(f'There are {ng:.2e} G type stars.')
```

There are 1.02e+38 G type stars.

K type

```
In [58]: nk = ngal(0.6,0.8)
print(f'There are {nk:.2e} K type stars.')
```

There are 1.03e+38 K type stars.

M type

```
In [59]: nm = ngal(0.08,0.6)
print(f'There are {nm:.2e} M type stars.')
```

There are 1.10e+39 M type stars.

```
In [64]: nstars = pd.DataFrame({'Types': ['O', 'B', 'A', 'F', 'G', 'K', 'M'],
                                'Number': [no,nb,na,nf,ng,nk,nm]})
nstars
```

```
Out[64]:   Types      Number
0      O  1.351253e+38
1      B  2.957217e+38
2      A  1.340424e+38
3      F  1.223687e+38
4      G  1.020945e+38
5      K  1.025404e+38
6      M  1.096517e+39
```

Continuing the rest of this in the coding notebook...

```
In [ ]: 
```

Problem 4

Active Galactic Nuclei. Galaxy interactions often result in gas being funneled to the center of a galaxy, which triggers a growth phase of the supermassive black hole. In this problem, you'll calculate the typical timescale over which this phase would be visible as an AGN. Suppose an elliptical galaxy undergoes a merger and the central black hole begins to accrete matter at the Eddington rate. If the total gas mass, M_{gas} , funneled to the black hole is 1% of the overall mass of the galaxy's bulge, M_{bulge} , estimate the maximum lifetime of the resulting growth phase. The measured stellar velocity dispersion of this elliptical galaxy is about 220 km/s. The publication McConnell & Ma 2013, ApJ, 764, 184M gives a comprehensive analysis of the scaling relationships between black holes and their host galaxies. The AGN luminosity is about $10^{13} L_\odot$.

$$M_{\text{gas}} = 0.01 M_{\text{bulge}}$$

velocity dispersion:

$$\sigma = 220 \text{ [km/s]}$$

$$L_{\text{AGN}} = 10^{13} L_\odot$$

Scaling relation from the paper:

$$\log_{10} M_* = \alpha + \beta \log_{10} X$$

where

$$X = \frac{\sigma}{200 \text{ km/s}}$$

According to the paper:

Our full sample of 72 galaxies yields an intercept $\alpha = 8.32 \pm 0.05$ and slope $\beta = 5.64 \pm 0.32$. When upper limits are added, the sample of 164 galaxies yields $\alpha = 8.15 \pm 0.05$ and $\beta = 5.58 \pm 0.30$. The

so we will use

$$\alpha = 8.15$$

$$\beta = 5.64$$

Then, applying this to our values, we get:

$$\log \frac{M_{\text{BH}}}{M_\odot} = 8.15 + 5.64 \log_{10} \frac{200 \text{ km/s}}{200 \text{ km/s}}$$

This second term then disappears and we get:

$$M_{\text{BH}} = 10^{8.15} M_\odot$$

```
In [82]: alpha = 8.15
beta = 5.64
mbh = c.M_sun* 10**(alpha)
print(f'The mass of the black hole is {mbh:.2e}, or {10**(8.15):.2e} solar masses.')
```

The mass of the black hole is 2.81e+38 kg, or 1.41e+08 solar masses.

(b) (3 pts) Using the appropriate scaling relationships given in McConnell & Ma, what is the estimated bulge mass of this Galaxy in units of M_\odot ? Describe the scaling relationship that you chose and why.

$$\log \left[\frac{M_{\text{BH}}}{M_\odot} \right] = \alpha + \beta \log \left[\frac{M_{\text{bulge}}}{10^{11} M_{\text{sun}}} \right]$$

$$\log \left[\frac{M_{\text{bulge}}}{10^{11} M_{\text{sun}}} \right] = \frac{1}{\beta} [\log \left[\frac{M_{\text{BH}}}{M_\odot} \right] - \alpha]$$

$$M_{\text{bulge}} = 10^{11} M_{\text{sun}} 10^{\frac{1}{\beta} [\log \left[\frac{M_{\text{BH}}}{M_\odot} \right] - \alpha]}$$

```
In [88]: mbulge = 1e11*c.M_sun*10**(np.log10((1/beta)*(mbh/c.M_sun)) - alpha)
print(f'The mass of the bulge is {mbulge:.2e} or {1e11*10**(np.log10((1/beta)*(mbh/c.M_sun)) - alpha):.2e}:
```

The mass of the bulge is 3.53e+40 kg or 1.77e+10 solar masses.

(c) (1 pts) What is the total amount of gas mass funneled into the black hole in units of M_\odot ?

```
In [102...]: mgas = 0.01*mbulge/c.M_sun
print(f'The total amount of gas is {mgas:.2e} solar masses.')
```

The total amount of gas is 1.77e+08 solar masses.

(d) (2 pts) The Eddington accretion rate is given by $\dot{m} = 9 \frac{L}{c^2}$ where L is the AGN luminosity, ϵ is the efficiency (typically 0.1 is assumed), and c is the speed of light. What is the Eddington accretion rate (in solar masses per year) for this growing black hole?

$$\dot{m} = \frac{L}{\epsilon c^2}$$

$$\epsilon = 0.1$$

and given

$$L_{\text{AGN}} = 10^{13} L_\odot$$

$$\dot{m} = \frac{10^{13} L_\odot}{0.1 c^2}$$

```
In [98]: mdot = ((1e13*c.L_sun)/(0.1*(c.c**2))).decompose()
print(f'The accretion rate is {mdot:.2e}.')
```

The accretion rate is 4.26e+23 kg / s.

(e) (2 pts) Assuming a constant accretion rate with time, how long will it take for all the available gas to be accreted? Give your answer in Myr.

```
In [118...]: t = ((mgas*u.Msun)/(mdot)).to(u.Myr)
print(f'It will take {t:.2e} for the available gas to be accreted.')
```

It will take 2.62e+01 Myr for the available gas to be accreted.

f) (1 pts) How does this compare with the timescale for a typical merger, which is about 1 Gyr? Could this explain why only ~10% of galaxies are observed to host an AGN at any given time?

```
In [115...]: t_typical = 1e9*u.year

ratio = (t/t_typical).decompose()

print(f'The ratio of this timescale to the timescale of a typical merger is {ratio:.2e}.')
```

The ratio of this timescale to the timescale of a typical merger is 2.62e-02.

Since this gives such a small value, it tells us that the merger timescale is significantly longer than the accretion time here, and does explain why only about 10% of galaxies might host an AGN at any given time.