

- Active galaxies: quasars, radio galaxies and their relatives.
- Why the observations imply that they have supermassive black holes in their centers: accretion at the Eddington rate.
- Quasars and radio galaxies are the same thing viewed from a different angle.

□ Accretion disks in AGNs.

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Hubble-ACS image of quasar MC2 1635+119, showing that it lies at the center of an elliptical galaxy with peculiar shell-like collections of bright

stars (Gabriela Canalizo, UCR).

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Distinctive features that can indicate the presence of a black hole (review from last two lectures) Observe **two or more** of these features to find a black hole:

Gravitational deflection of light, by an amount requiring black hole masses and sizes.

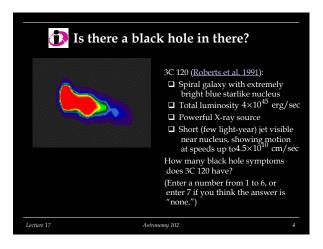
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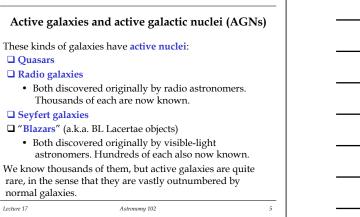
- **Δ** X-ray and/or γ-ray emission from ionized gas falling into the black hole.
- Orbital motion of nearby stars or gas clouds that can be used to infer the mass of (perhaps invisible) companions: a mass too large to be a white dwarf or a neutron star might correspond to a black hole.
- □ Motion close to the speed of light, or apparently greater than the speed of light ("superluminal motion").
- □ Extremely large luminosity that cannot be explained easily by normal stellar energy generation.

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Direct observation of a large, massive **accretion disk**.







## Active galaxies and active galactic nuclei (AGNs) (continued)

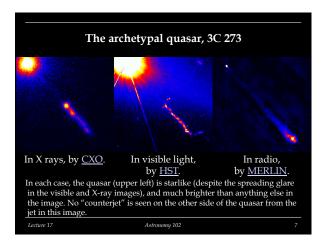
Different classes of active galaxies have a lot in common, despite their different appearances. The two most obvious common features:

- □ All have some sort of "star-like" object at their very centers, that dominate the galaxies' luminosities.
- □ They are all quite a bit more luminous than normal galaxies (by factors of 10-1000) and are therefore all thought to involve central, supermassive black holes.
- We have discussed quasars briefly before. The distinguishing characteristics of a quasar:

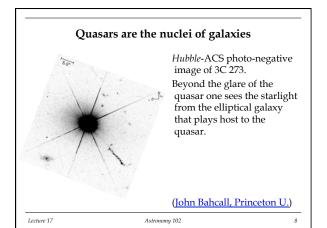
Starlike galaxy nucleus with extremely large luminosity.One-sided jet.

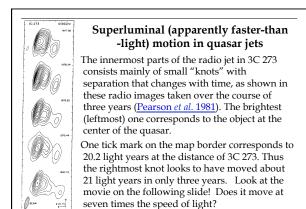
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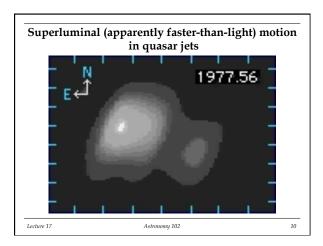




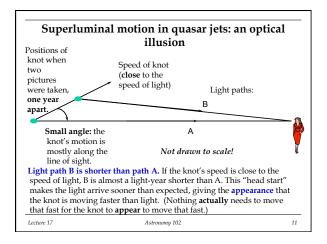
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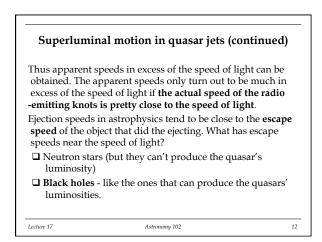
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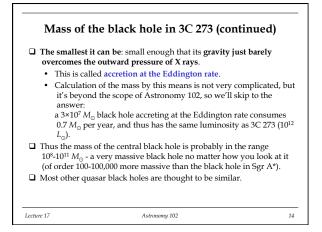
### Mass of the black hole in 3C 273

Quasars are too far away for us to see the details of the rotation of their accretion disks, or the motions of very nearby stars, so there have been no measurements of masses for quasar black holes, only rough estimates like the following.

□ **The biggest it can be**: "variability" circumference is 0.26 light years; if this is the same as the horizon circumference, the mass is  $(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3})^{2}$ 

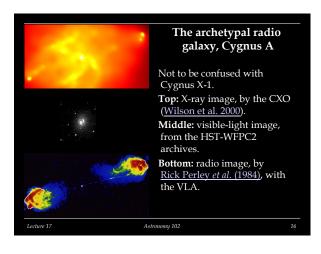
$$M = \frac{Cc^2}{4\pi G} = \frac{0.26 \text{ ly} \times (3 \times 10^{10} \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{sec}})}{4\pi \times 6.67 \times 10^{-8} \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{sec}^2 \text{gm}}} \times \frac{9.46 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ ly}}$$
$$= 2.6 \times 10^{44} \text{ gm} = 1.3 \times 10^{11} M_{\odot}$$
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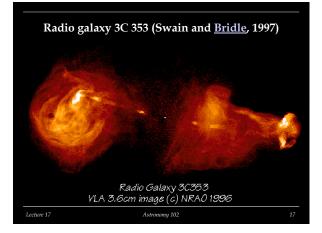


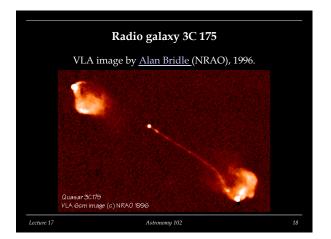


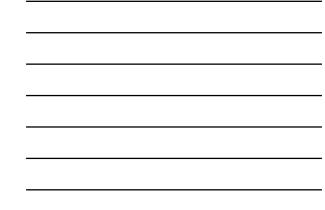
### Radio galaxies

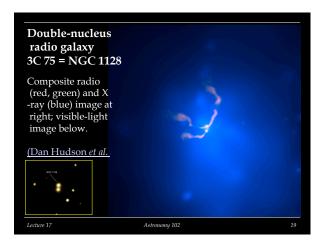
- Discovered by radio astronomers in the 1950s: large, double-peaked, bright radio sources.
- □ Identified with visible galaxies: a galaxy, *always* an elliptical one, is *always* seen to lie in between the two bright radio spots.
  - Radio galaxies are always elliptical. Seyfert galaxies are always spirals.
- □ Jets: beginning in the 1970s, detailed radio images revealed that all radio galaxies have jets, originating in the center of the galaxy, and reaching out to the brighter radio spots. In contrast to quasars, most radio galaxies have two jets easily detectable, always oppositely -directed. One jet is usually brighter than the other by a large factor.
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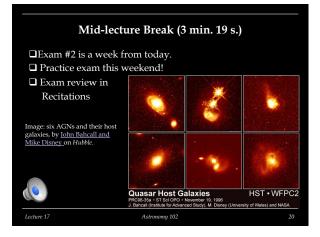












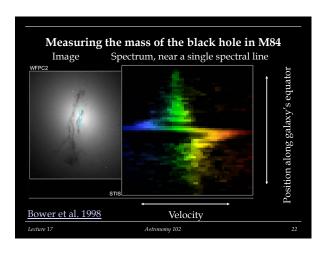
### Radio galaxy black-hole masses

With the Hubble Space Telescope, it has become possible to measure the masses of some radio-galaxy central black holes directly, by observing the Doppler shifts of gas clouds nearby.

- □ M84, classic radio galaxy: Doppler shifts corresponding to rotational speeds of 400 km/sec, only 26 light years from the center of the galaxy.
- $\square$  This indicates a central mass of  $\,3{\times}10^8\,M_{\odot}$  again, a supermassive black hole.
- This is thought to be typical of the masses of radio-galaxy black holes. Note that it's about what is obtained for quasar black holes.

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# Blazars (BL Lacertae objects) Bright and starlike. Only recently has very faint luminosity been detected around them to indicate that they are the nuclei of galaxies. Smooth spectrum: hard to measure Doppler shift. Thus it was not realized at first that these objects were far enough away to be galaxy nuclei. Most are strong point-like radio sources. (Stars aren't; this was the first real indication that blazars are distant galaxies.) Violently variable brightness: large luminosity produced

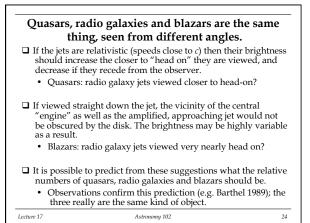
in a very small volume. (Sounds like a quasar so far.)

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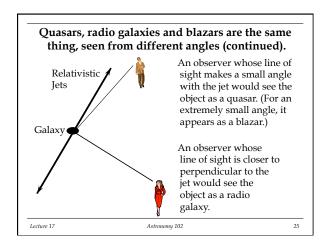
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No jets seen.

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### Matter falling into AGN black holes: large accretion disks

The disk-shaped collection of matter surrounding the black hole in an AGN arises rather naturally from the influence of the black hole on stars and other material in the galactic center.

Stars in a galaxy perpetually interact with each others' gravity as well as the gravity of the galaxy at large.

□ These interactions - long-range collisions - usually result in transfers of energy and momentum between stars. Two stars, originally in similar orbits and undergoing such a collision, will usually find themselves pushed to different orbits, one going to a smaller-circumference orbit, and one going to a larger orbit.

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# Matter falling into AGN black holes: large accretion disks (continued)

Thus some stars are pushed to the very center of the galaxy after a number of these encounters. What happens if there is a black hole there?

- □ The star begins to fall in, but the **spin** of its orbital motion, and the **tidal forces** that tend to rip the star apart, keep this from happening all at once.
- □ Stellar material spreads out into a rotating, flat distribution around the black hole: the beginnings of an accretion disk.

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