



Accretion History of the Universe

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Talk Outline

Introduction to X-ray Astronomy

Outlook of X-ray Emission processes

Instrumentation and the X-ray missions

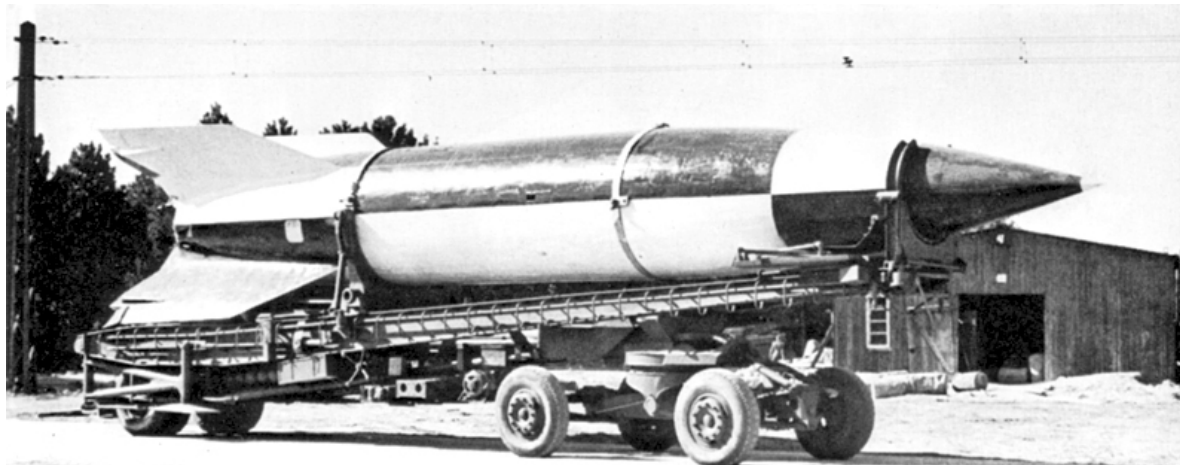
X-ray Surveys: Data & Tools

History of X-ray Astronomy

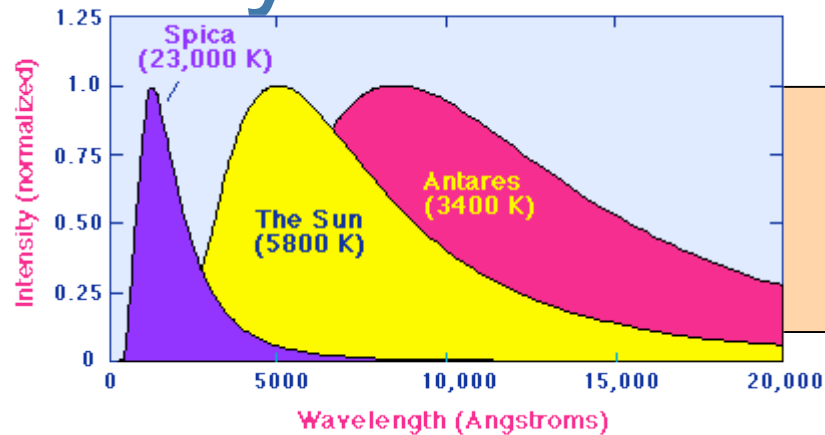
The Earth's atmosphere blocks all X-rays , photoelectric absorption

**Thus, Space Astronomy was only born after the war with the V-2 rockets
The first X-ray experiments were observations of the solar corona.**

**The sun emits X-rays through
a) Solar corona b) flares**



Why observe in X-rays ?



WIEN'S LAW

Wavelength inversely prop. Temperature

$$\lambda_{\max} = 3 \times 10^7 / T$$

- Energetic phenomena, temperatures of million degrees (very large gravitational potentials: BH, clusters of galaxies)

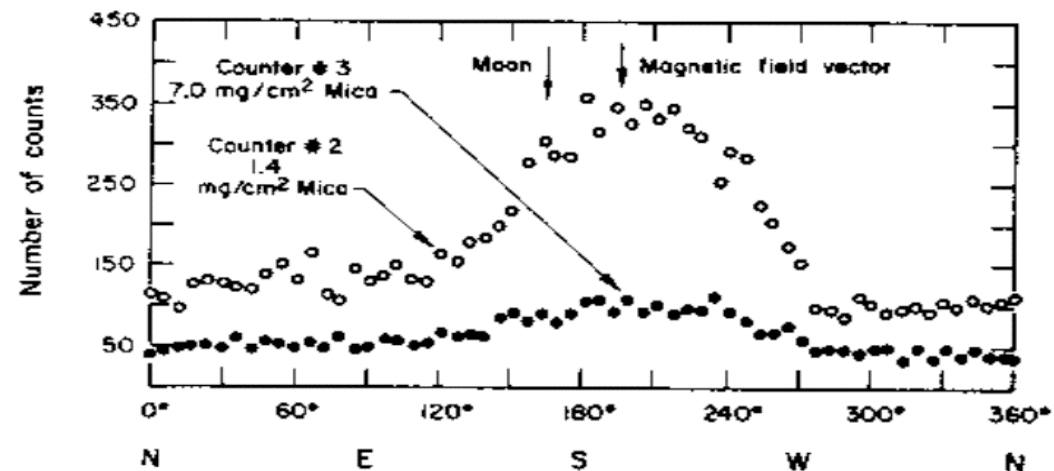
The birth of X-ray Astronomy

X-ray Astronomy starts in 1962 when a rocket detects:

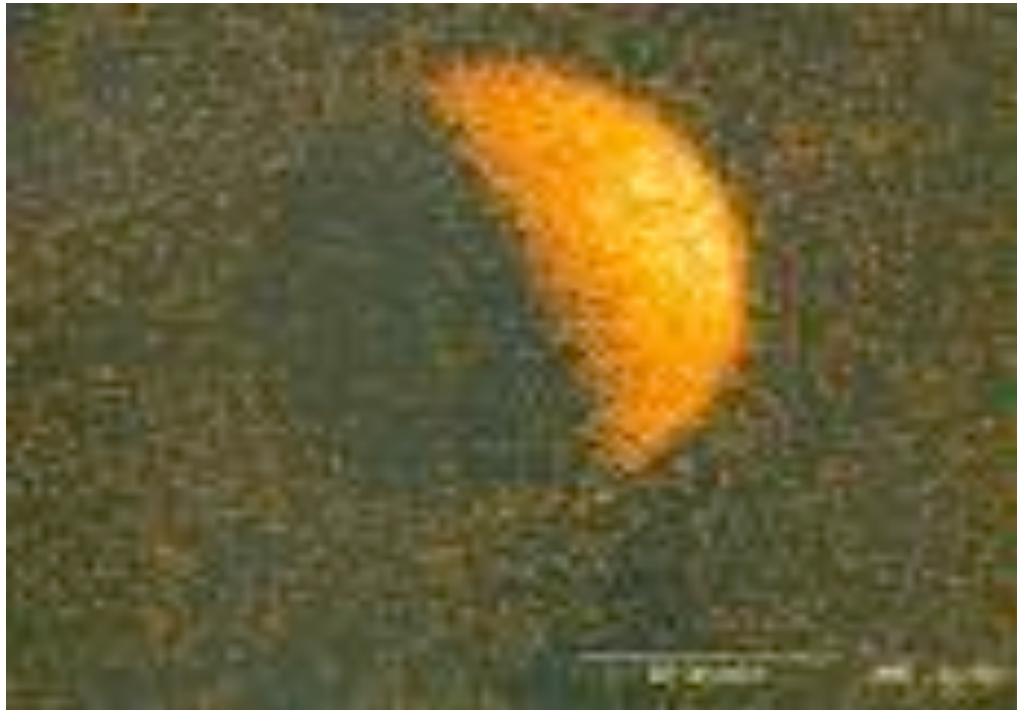
- 1) the first X-ray source Sco-X1
- 2) an intense glow over the whole sky (the X-ray background)

Giacconi et al. 1962 Nobel prize

BUT does not observe the moon



The Moon by ROSAT





1960

Aerobee

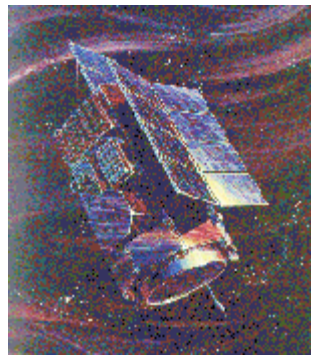
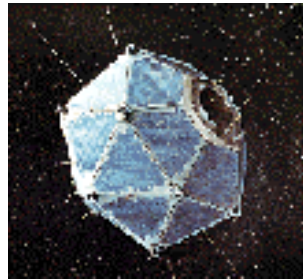


1970

Vela

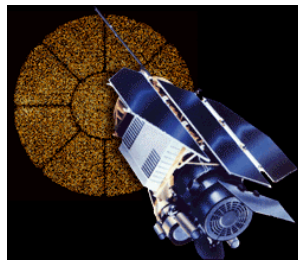
Uhuru

HEAO-1



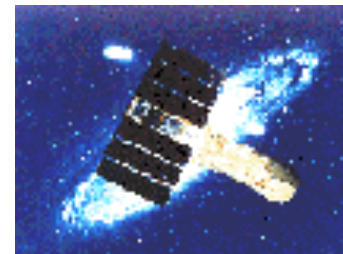
1979

Einstein



1990

ROSAT



1993

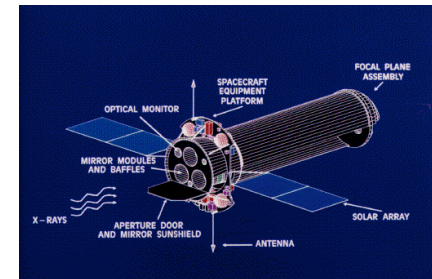
ASCA



1999

Chandra

XMM



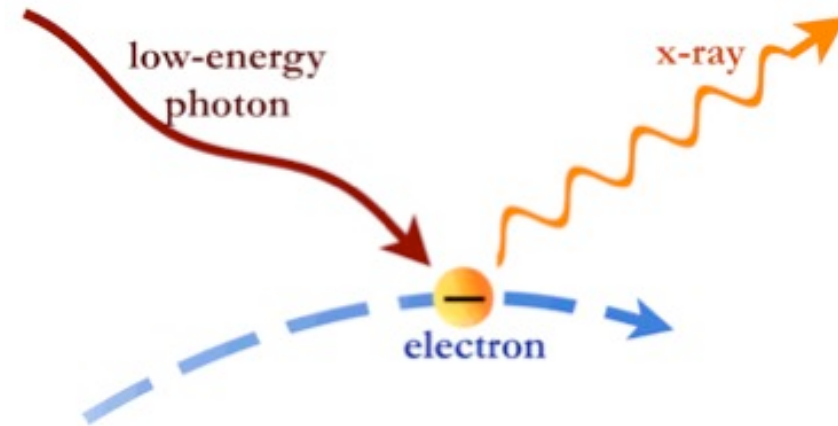


X-ray Emission mechanisms

- **Free-Free emission** (Stars, clusters of galaxies, hot gas in galaxies)
- **Synchrotron Radiation** (Supernova remnants, Jets in AGN)
- **Black-body** (accretion disks in X-ray binaries)
- **Inverse-Compton scattering** (AGN)

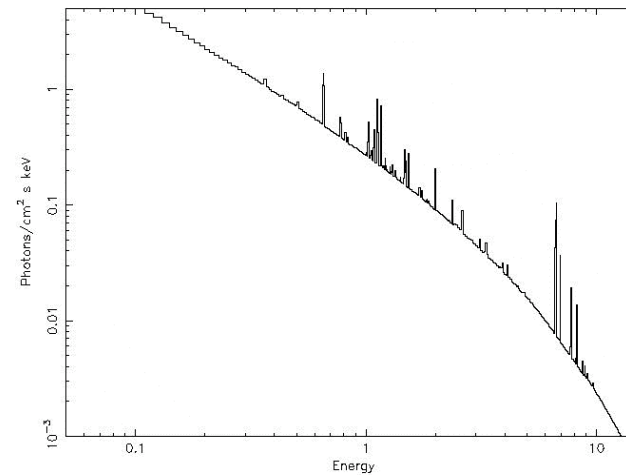
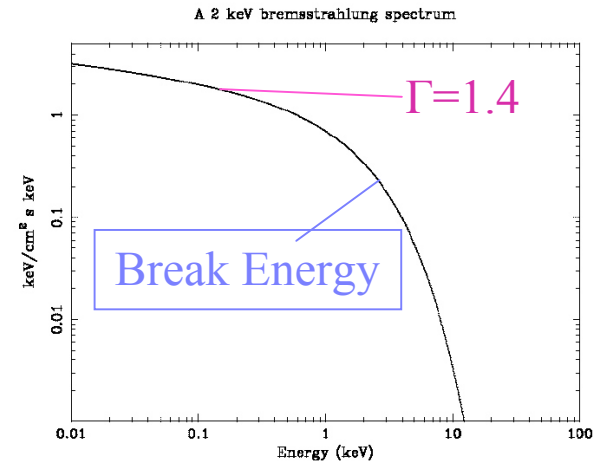
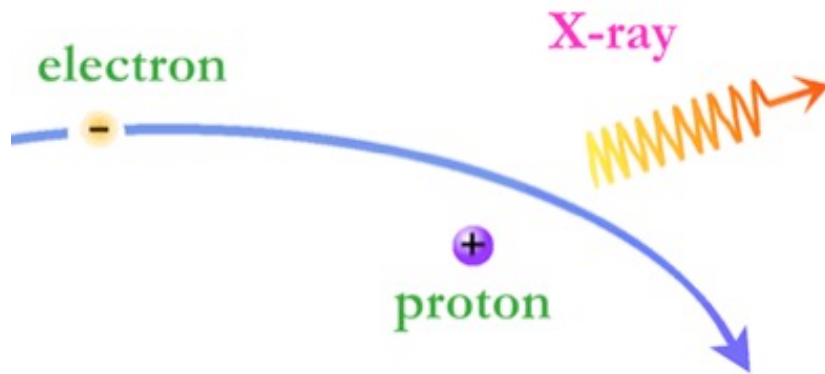
Compton-scattering

- upscatter UV photons to X-rays
- $kT \gg h\nu$
- Energy gained
- $\delta E/E \sim 4kT / mc^2$
- Temperature of the 'corona' about 40 keV. The physical conditions (temperature, Optical depth) in this corona must be VERY similar as the output X-ray spectrum has always a slope 1.9

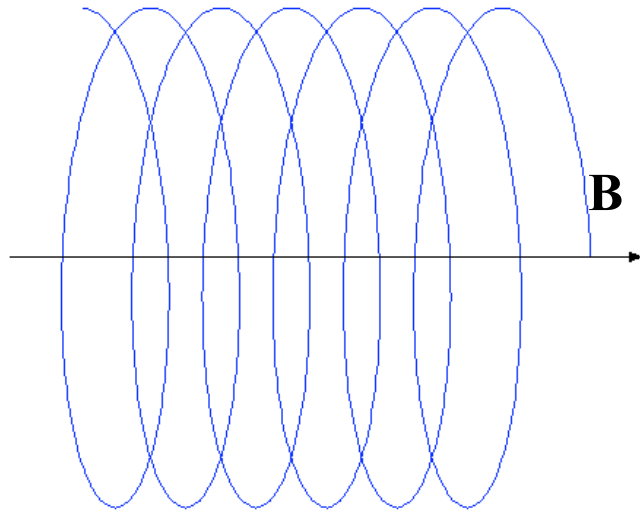


Free-Free

- Flux $\propto n^2 T^{1/2} \exp(-E/kT)$



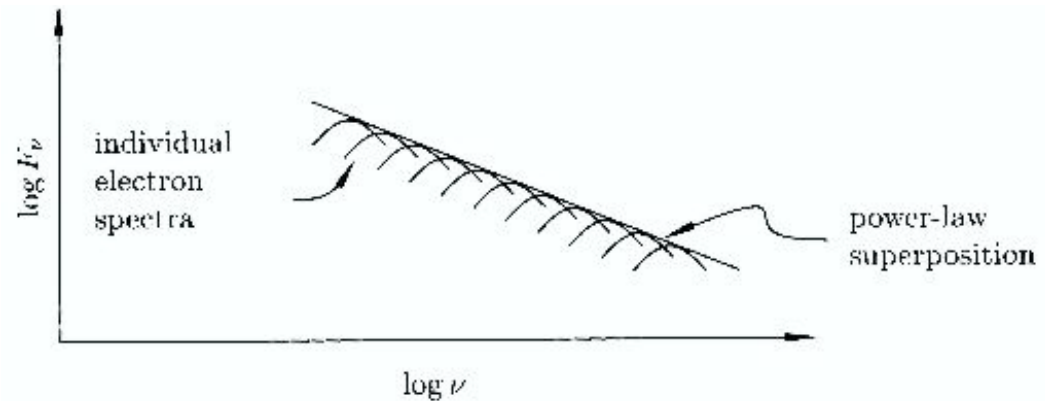
Synchrotron



$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right) = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \left(\frac{E}{m_e c^2}\right)^2 \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0}$$

$$N(E) \propto E^{-\alpha}$$

$$\beta = (\alpha - 1) / 2$$






Black-body Radiation

$$B_{\nu} = 2h\nu^3 c^{-2} \left(\exp(h\nu / kT) - 1 \right)^{-1}$$

- Optically thick emission i.e. large optical depth



Question: what is the most likely emission process in AGN ?

- Photon index 1.9 or energy index 0.9

Compton scattering

Synchrotron

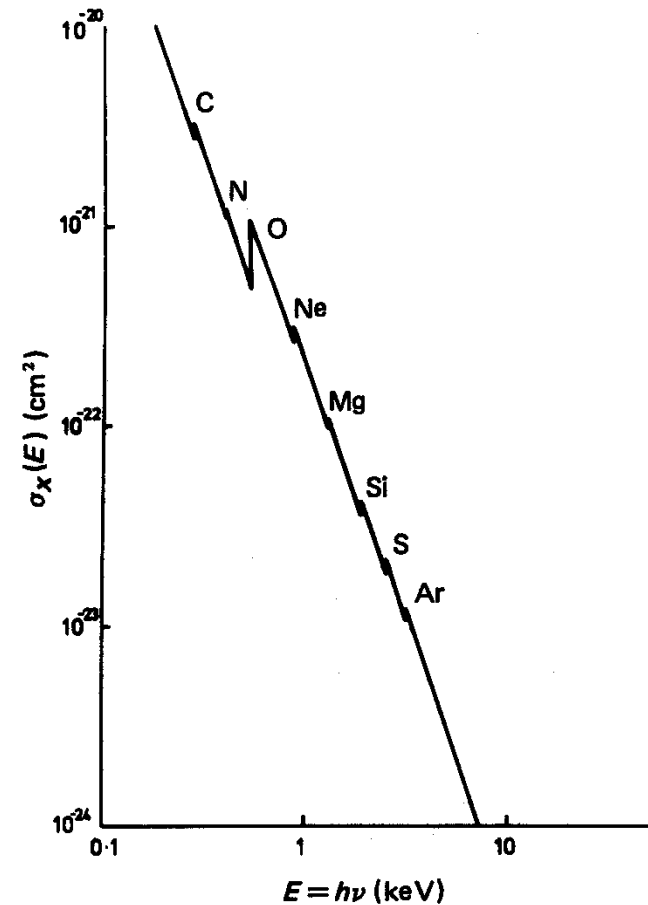
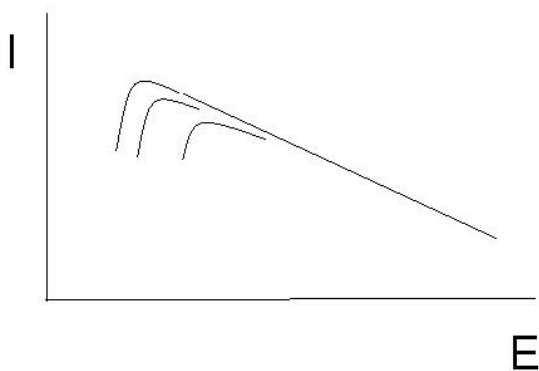
Free-Free

Black-body

Absorption processes: photoelectric absorption

$$I = I_0 e^{-\sigma N_H}$$

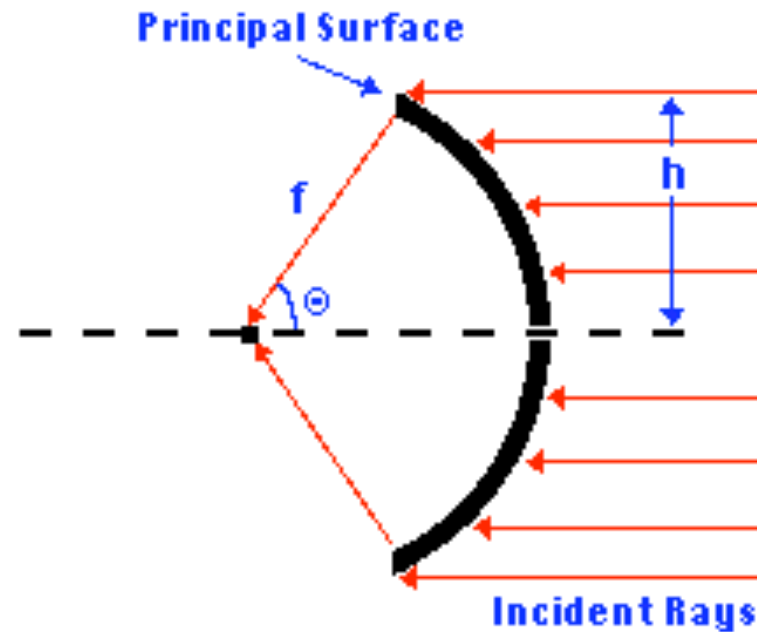
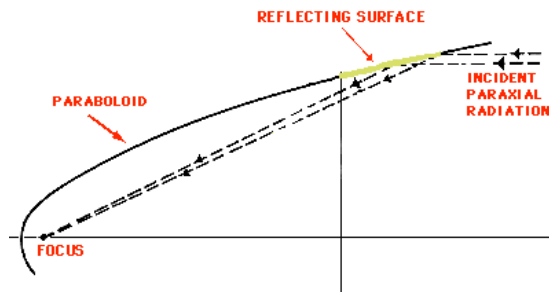
$$\tau = \int_0^x \sigma_x(E) N_H dx$$



Is any of the absorption in X-ray due to hydrogen ?

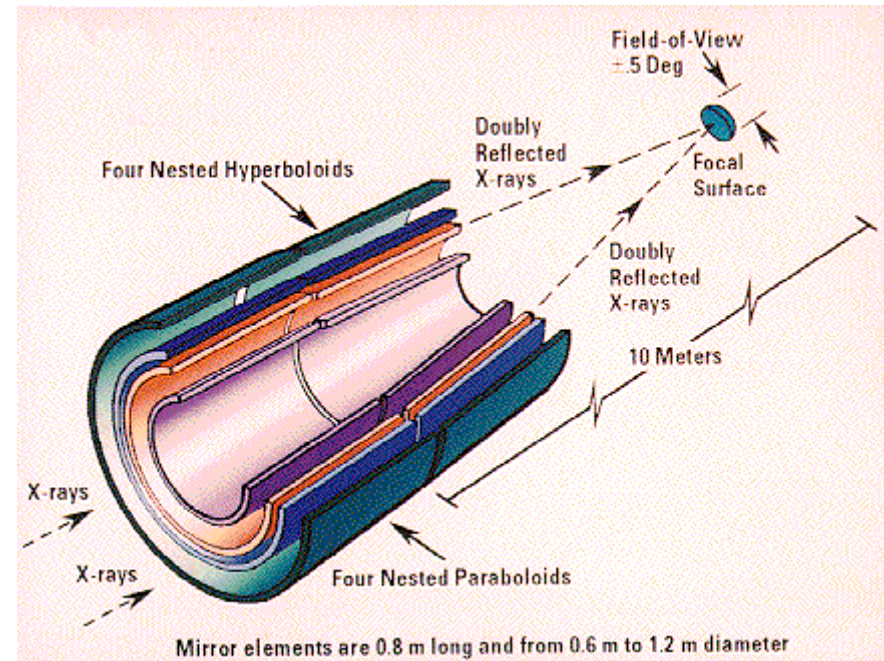
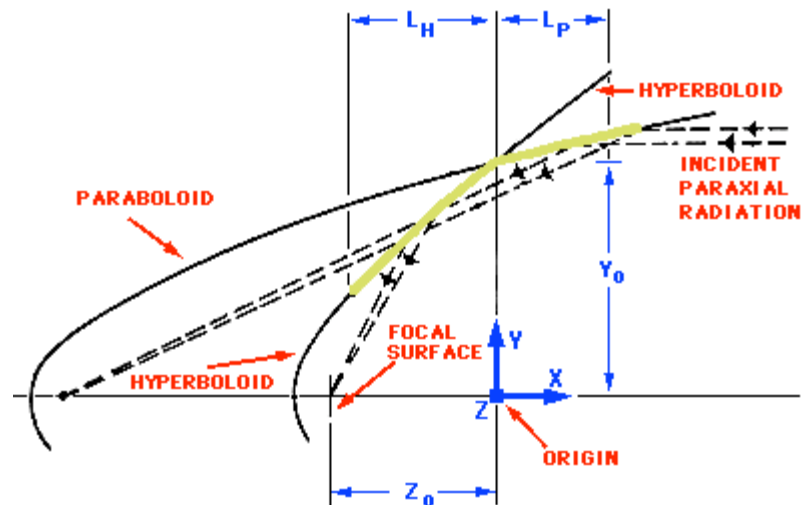
X-ray telescopes

- Abbe sine condition
- $h/\sin(\Theta)=f$



Wolter X-ray Telescopes

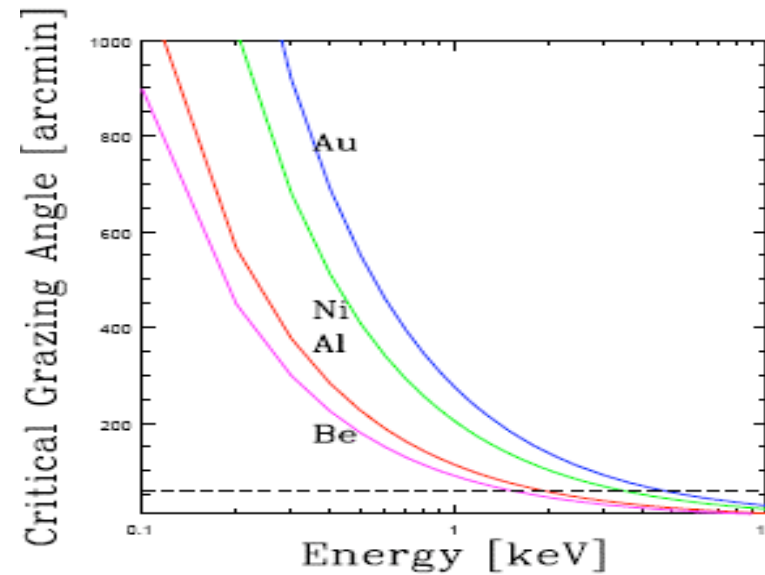
- where the X-rays are scattered on two tubes.



Grazing angle

Max grazing angle:

$$\theta_c \propto E^{-1} \sqrt{Z}$$



Angular Resolution

- Rayleigh criterion:

$$R = \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

At 6000 Angstrom we get ~0.1 arcsec resolution with a 1-m telescope

At 6 Angstrom we would have ~0.0001 arcsec with XMM but we don't

- MICROROUGHNESS
- Mirror Shape



X-ray detectors

1. Gas filled proportional counters
(poor energy resolution, spatial resolution)

[PAST]

2. CCD
(good $\Delta E/E \sim 6\%$ spectral resolution)
(better resolution with the use of gratings)

[PRESENT]

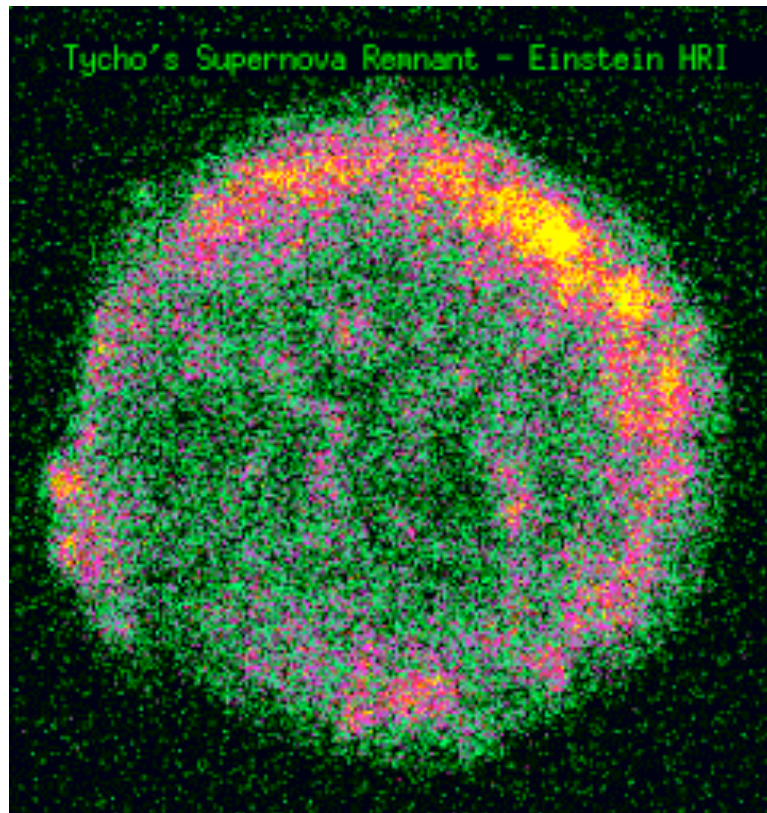
NOT ONLY IMAGING BUT SPECTROSCOPY AS WELL

3. Microcalorimeters (Excellent spectral resolution $\Delta E/E \sim 0.5\%$)

SPECTROSCOPY ONLY

[FUTURE]

First X-ray image (Einstein)



microchannel plates

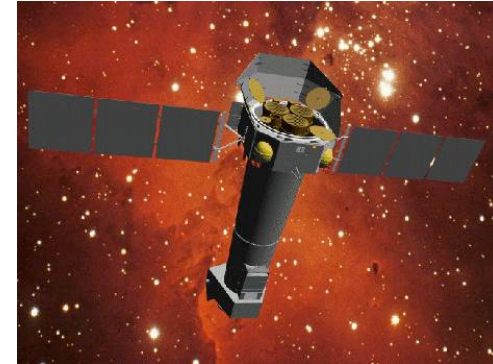
Problems:

1. PSF degrades off-axis
2. Vignetting
3. Particle Background

Chandra vs. XMM

■ XMM (ESA)

- a. 5000 cm² @ 1keV largest telescope
- b. moderate spatial resolution 6arcsec FWHM
- c. CCDs
- d. Grating (high resolution) spectra at low energies



■ Chandra (NASA)

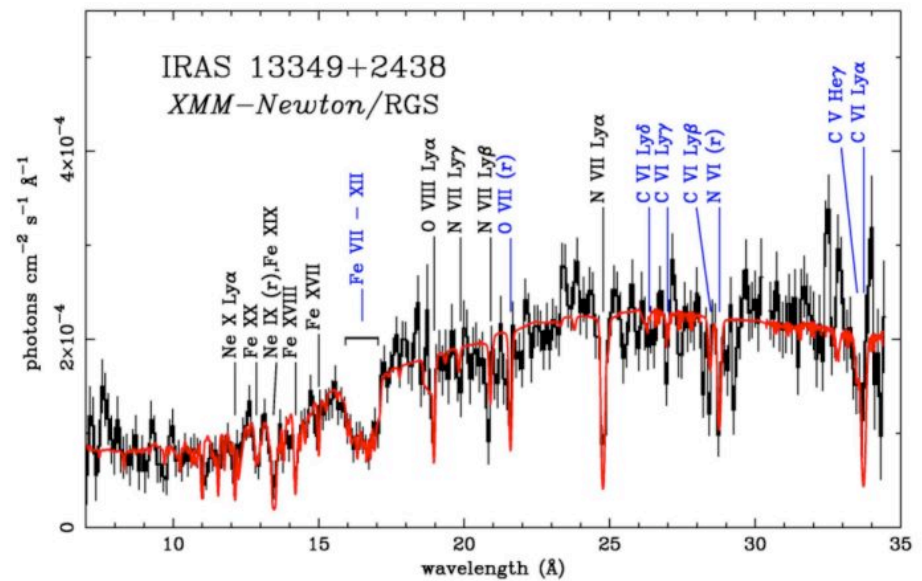
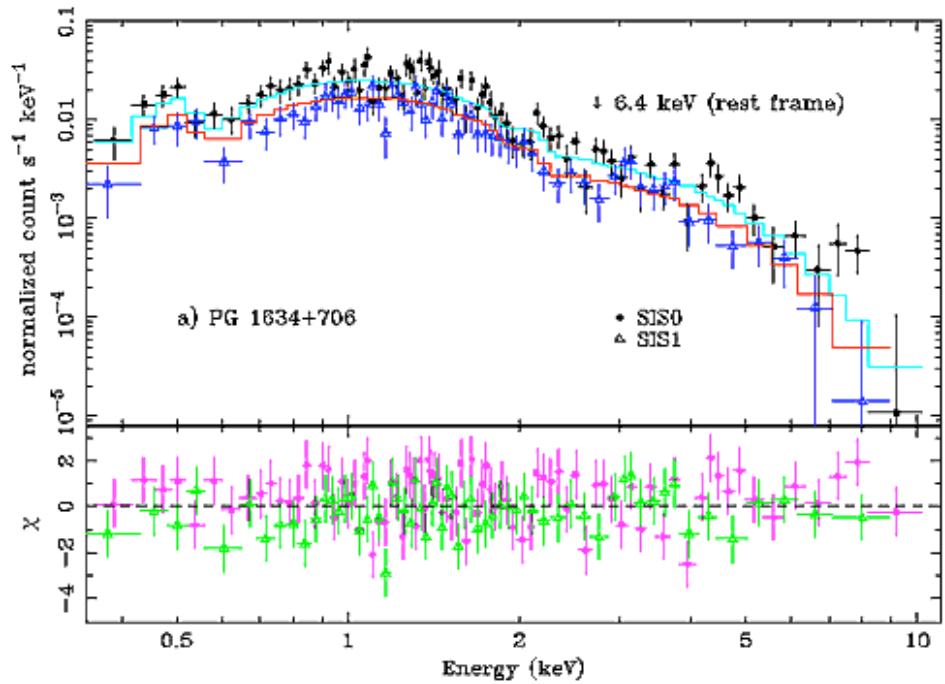
- a. Highest spatial resolution ever achieved 1 arcsec (optical astro
- b. 1000 cm²
- c. CCDs
- d. Grating (high resolution spectra) at both high and low energies



Grating vs CCD spectra



XMM-NEWTON SCIENCE RESULTS



6 December 2000

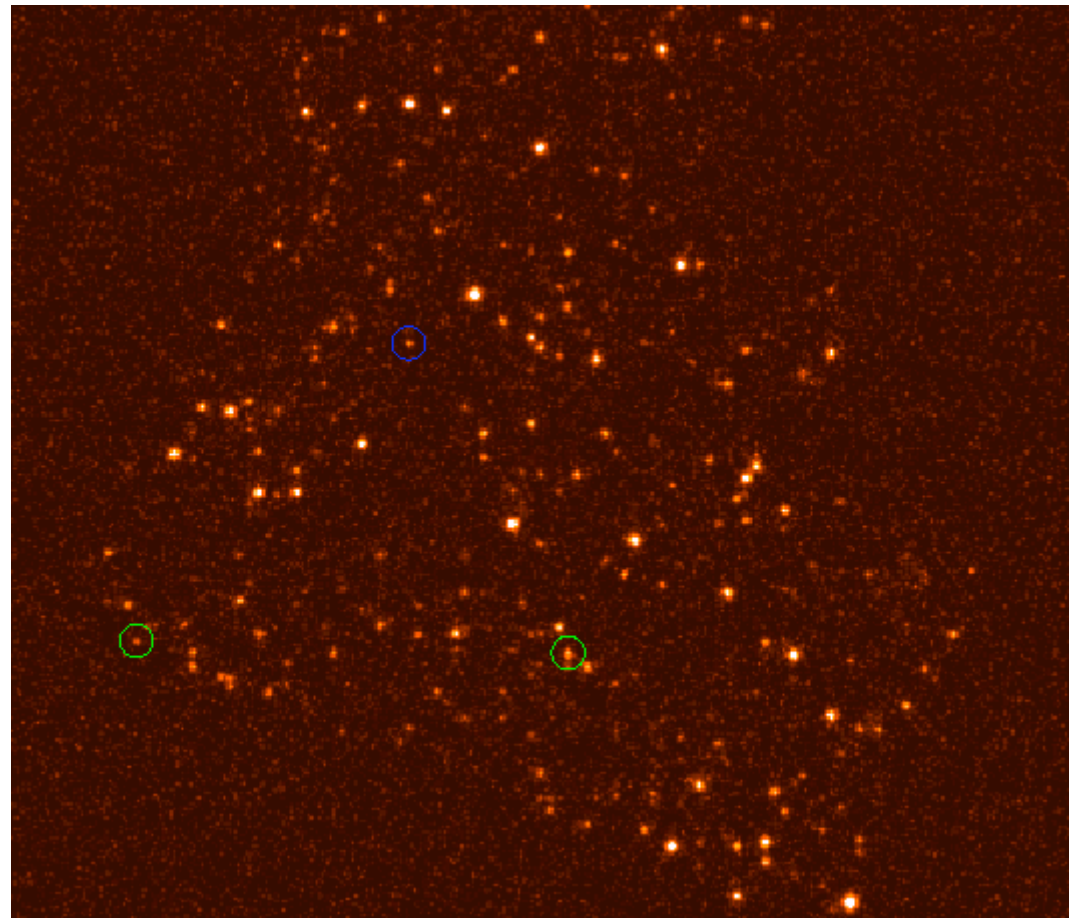
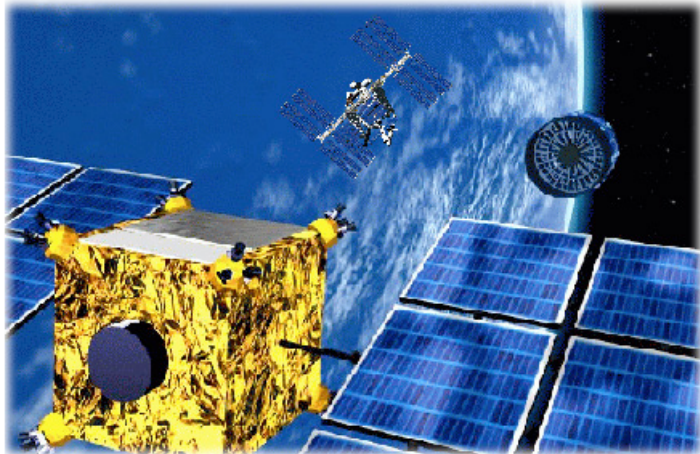
Fig. 4

The future: The x-ray cosmology mission XEUS

Largest collecting power in X-ray ever
5 m² at 1 keV
(Chandra has 0.1 m²)

Microcalorimeter

Imaging at hard x-rays >10 keV





X-ray sources in the Galaxy(ies)

- X-ray binaries 10^{38} - 10^{41} erg s⁻¹
- Supernova remnants 10^{35} erg s⁻¹
- Cataclysmic variables 10^{32}
- Stars 10^{26}

The contents of the extragalactic X-ray sky

1. AGN

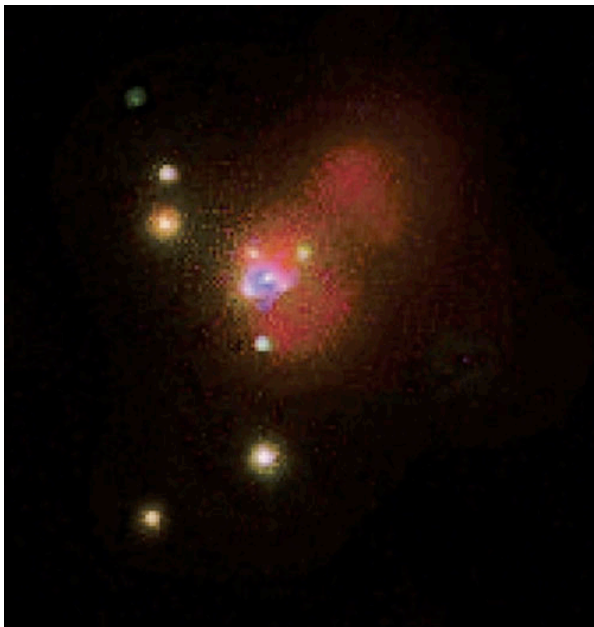
accretion disks around black holes

2. Clusters of galaxies

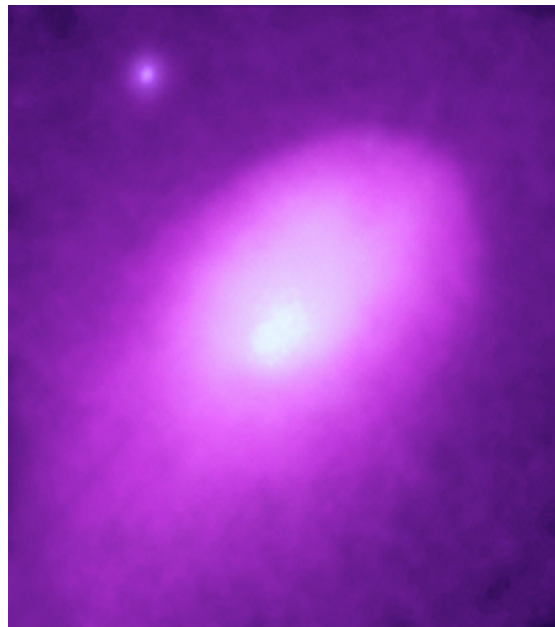
gas $< 10^8$ K heated by the gravitational potential

3. Galaxies

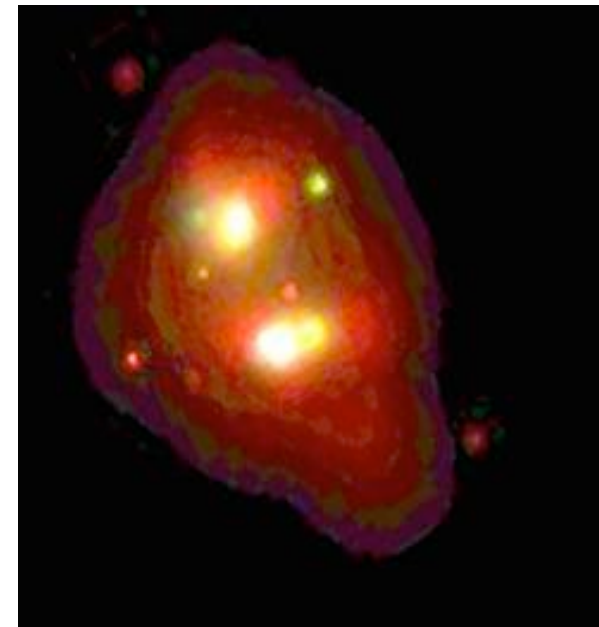
X-ray binaries, SNR, hot gas



AGN (Circinus)



Cluster (A2142)

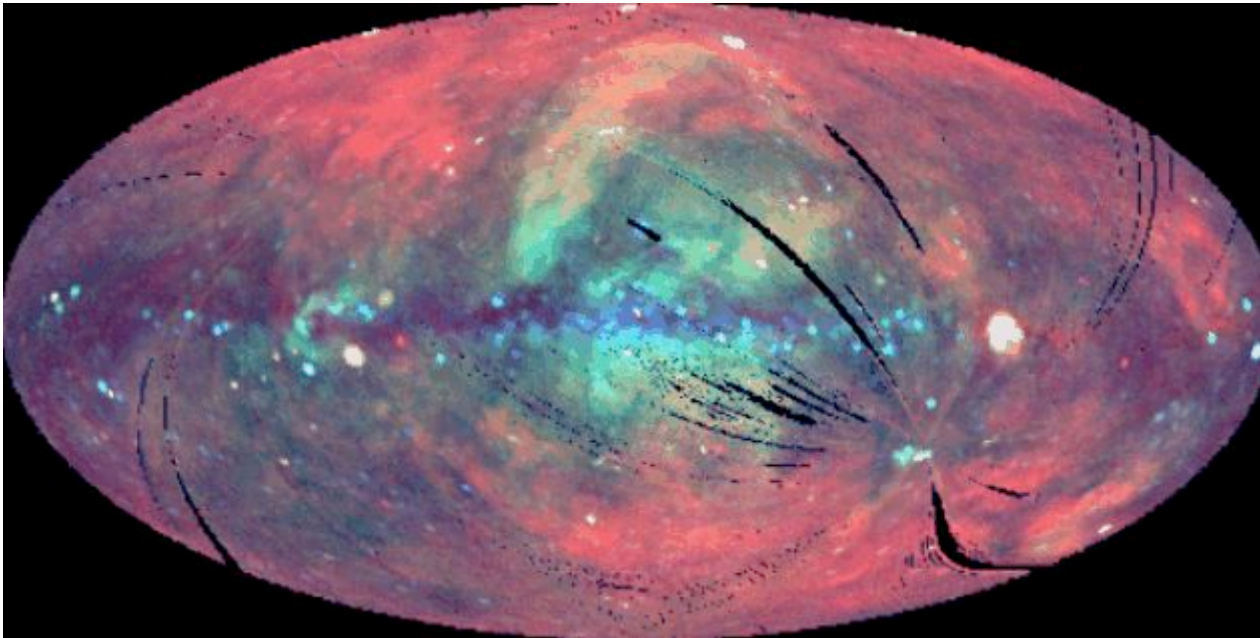


Galaxy (NGC3690)



X-ray Surveys

X-ray background

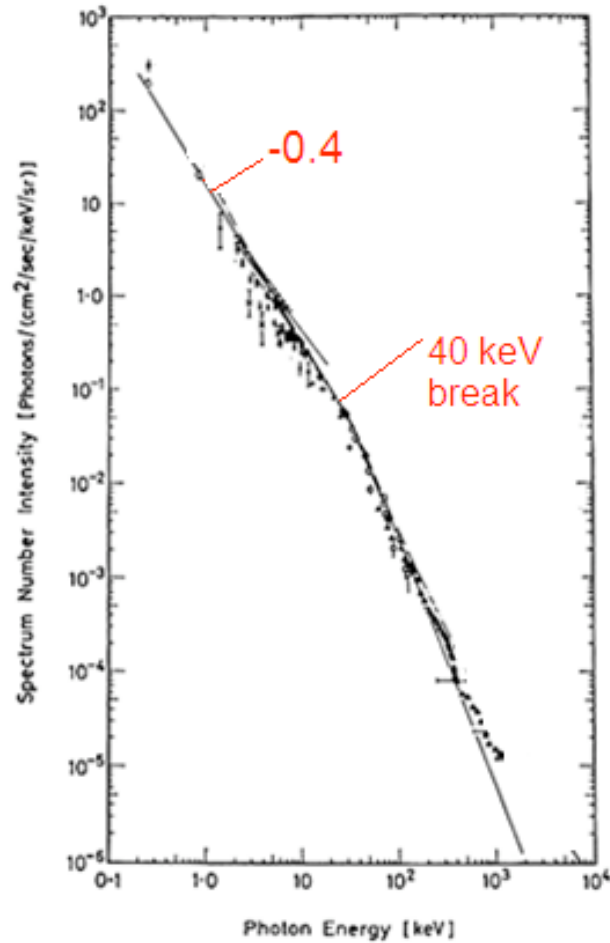


HEAO-1 performed an all-sky survey but had no resolution (3x3 degrees)

Observed a uniform glow but is this: a) DIFFUSE or
b) co-addition of point sources ?

Spectrum XRB

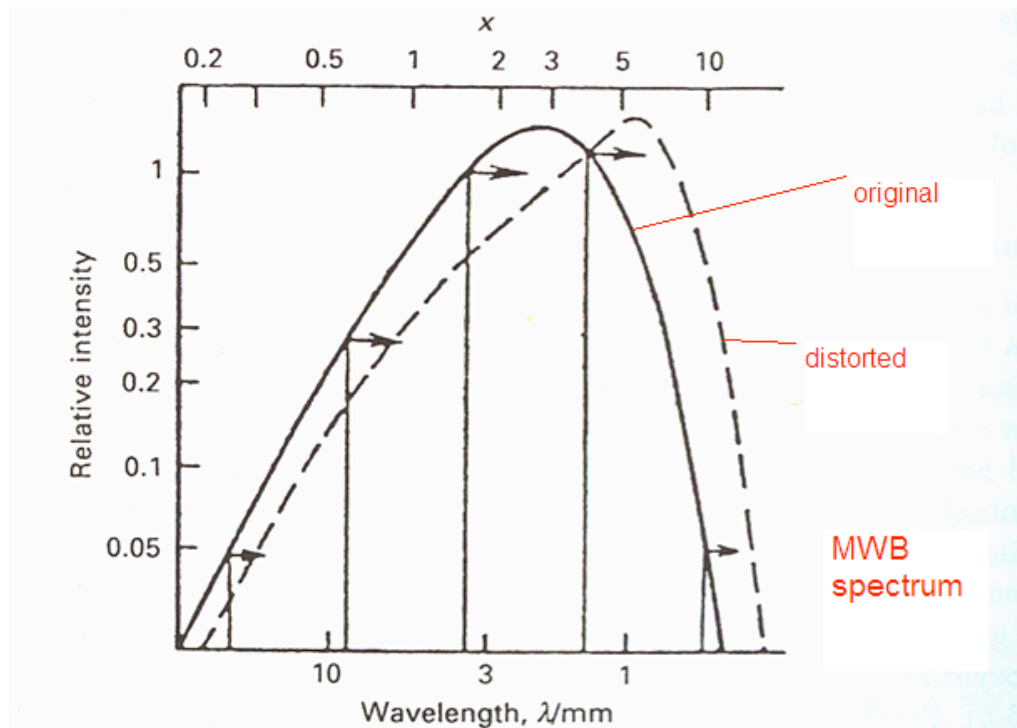
DIFFUSE COMPONENT SPECTRUM



The spectrum of the X-ray background was that of free-free emission with a temperature of 40 keV

$$I(E) \propto E^{-0.4} e^{-E/kT}$$

Microwave Background constraints



If there were a population of Hot electrons these would scatter the MWB photons

Comptonization parameter

$$y = 4kT_e\tau^2/m_e c^2$$

The Chandra Deep field

The deepest exposure (2 Msec ~ 24 days)



1Msec Exposure
Chandra deep south
Blue=hard
Red=soft
White=intermediate

90% X-ray background resolved

Sky density 10000 deg⁻²

Practically all AGN

Accretion History of Universe

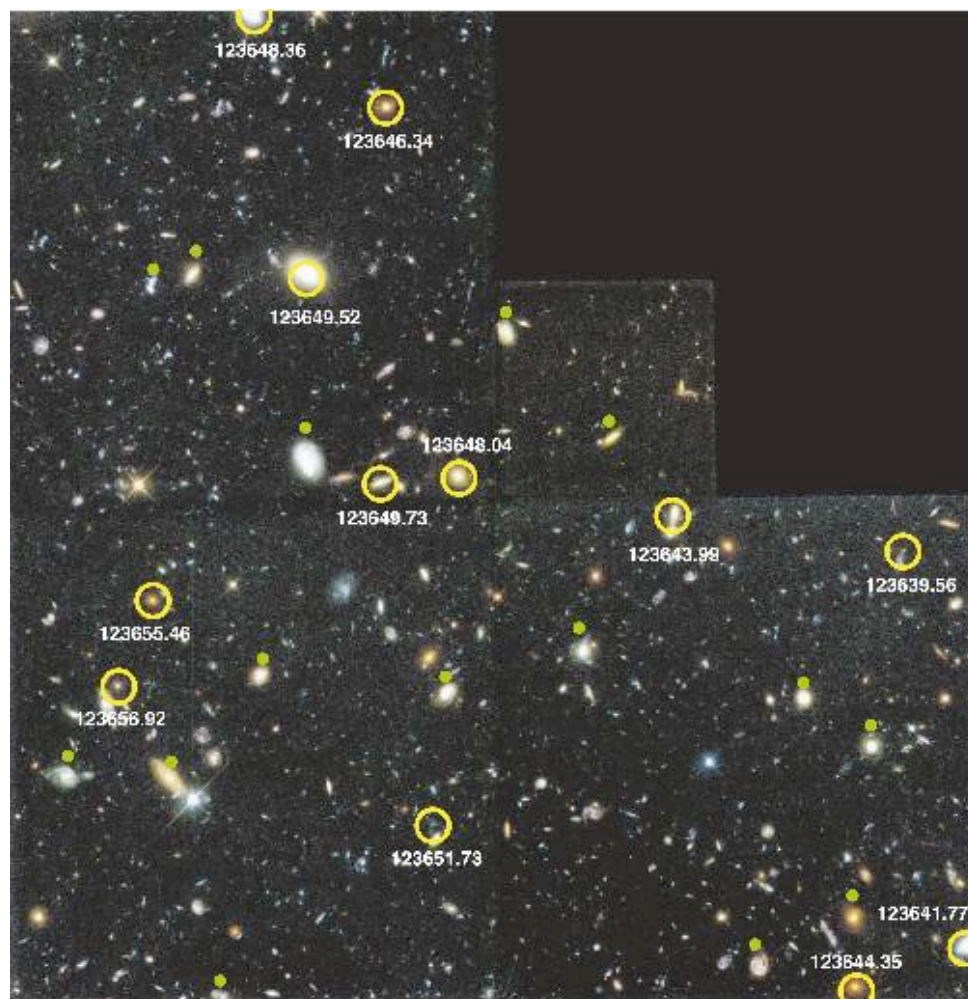


X-rays very efficient in finding AGN !!

- X-ray Surface density 10.000 deg⁻²

In contrast the optical QSO surveys reach surface densities of few hundred per square degree (eg COMBO-17 survey Wolf et al.)

Difference between X-ray and optical surveys

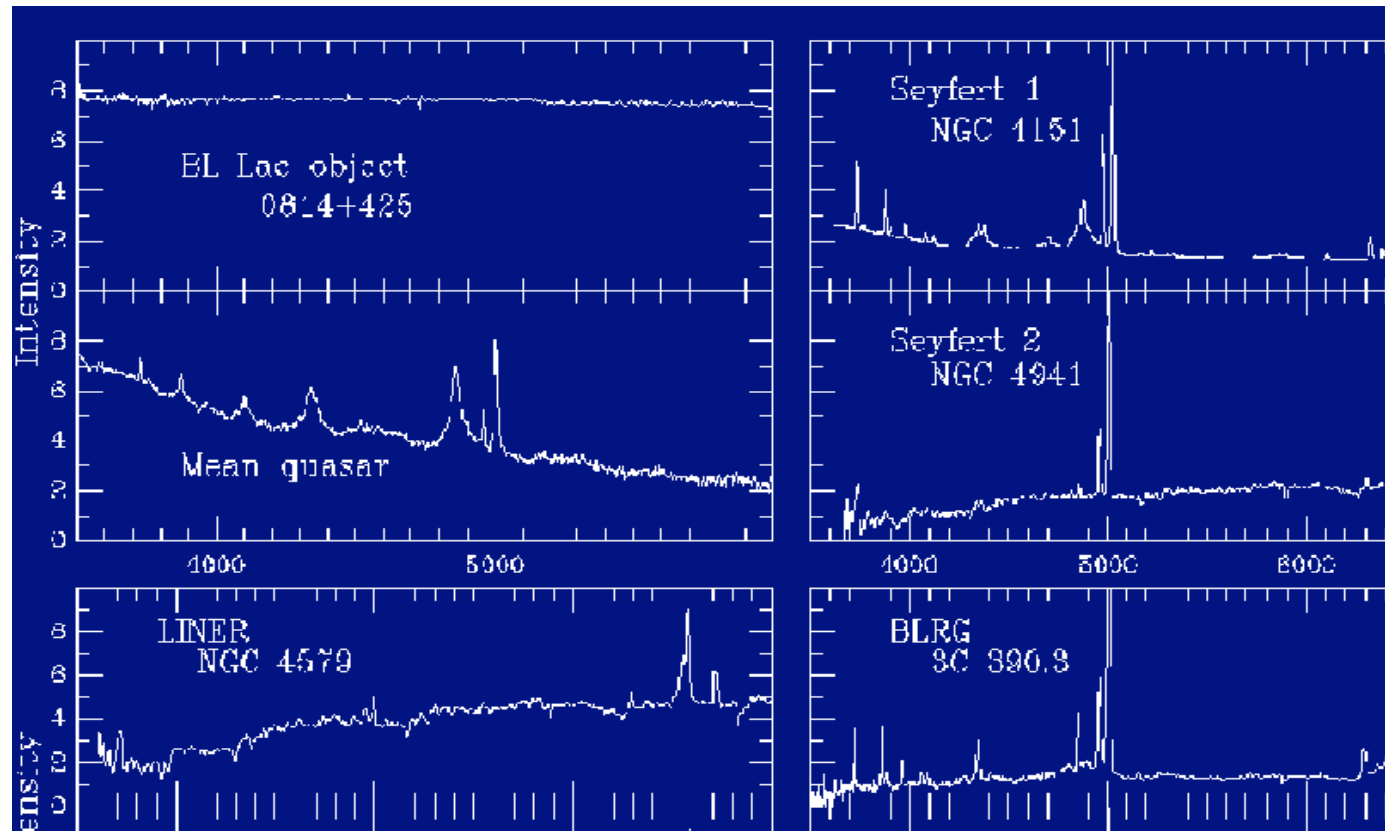


The HDF (optical)
~3000 galaxies

overimposed (yellow circles)
are the 12 X-ray sources
detected by Chandra
(mostly AGN)

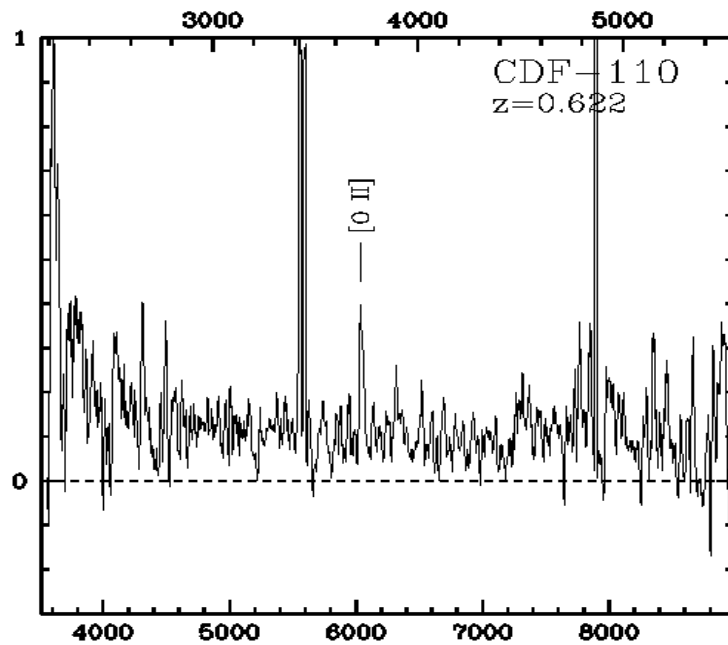
X-rays mainly probe accretion
processes instead of starlight
in contrast to the optical

Optical spectra: classification and distance

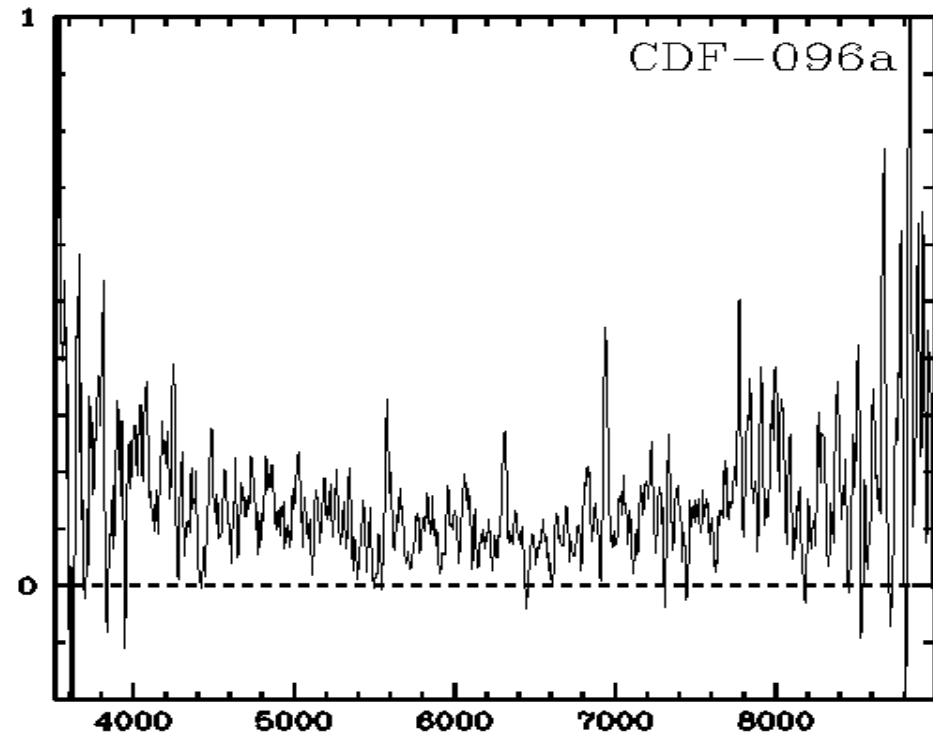


Type-1 AGN(eg Seyfert-1): Broad and narrow lines OPTICAL
Type-2 (eg Seyfert-2): Only narrow lines OPTICAL

Real spectra of faint sources

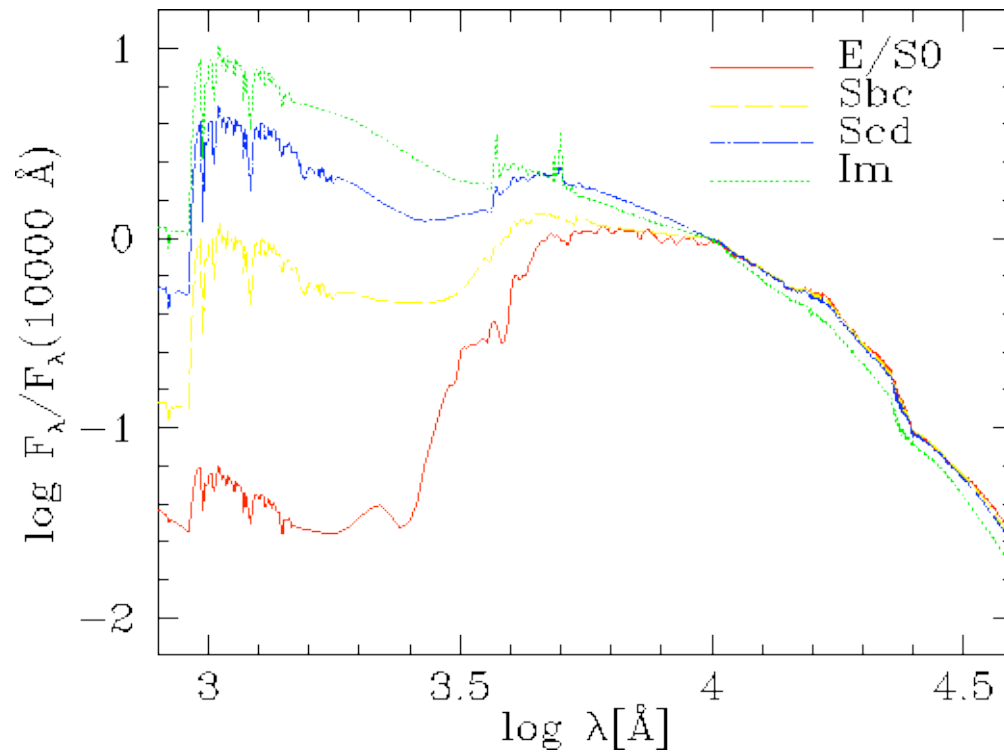


R=23.2



R=24.5

Photometric redshifts



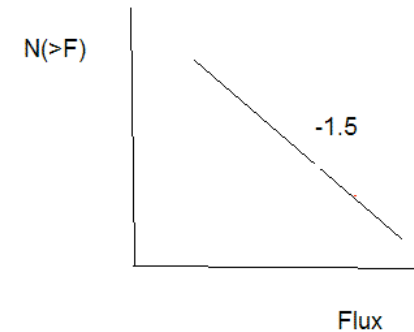
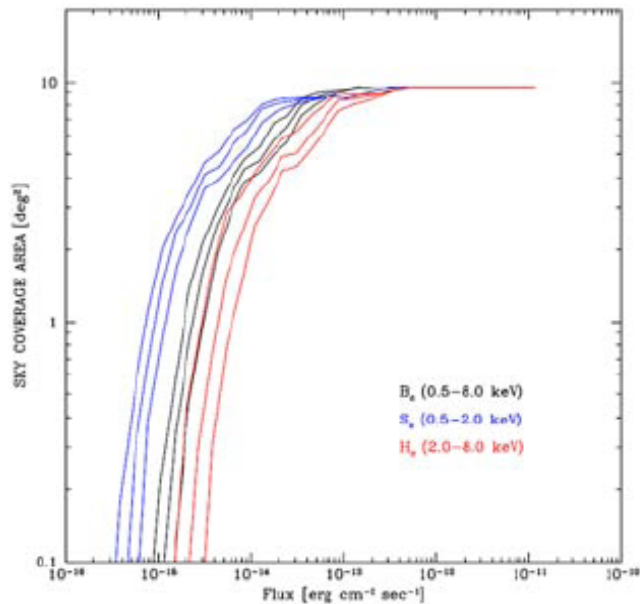
$$\chi^2(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{filters}}} \left[\frac{F_{\text{obs},i} - b \times F_{\text{temp},i}(z)}{\sigma_i} \right]^2,$$

LogN-logS derivation

$$N(>f) = \sum_{i=1} 1/\delta\Omega_i$$

The sensitivity is not uniform in the field-of-view because of the degradation of the PSF and the vignetting.

Area Curve (Area – Flux)





LogN-logS theory

The number of sources N in a solid angle $\delta\Omega$ is

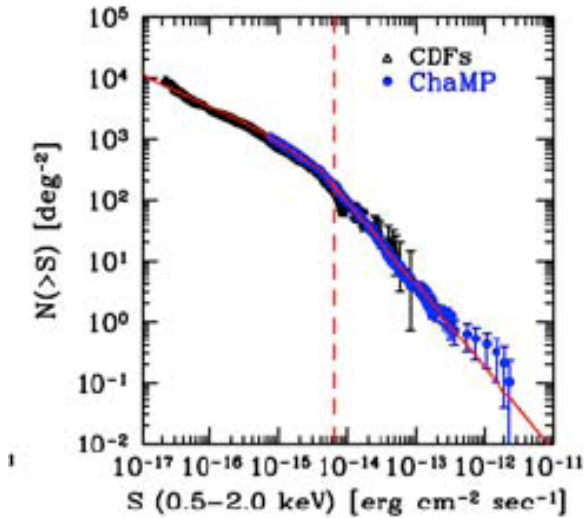
$$N = \rho \delta V = \rho r^3/3 \delta\Omega$$

where the distance can be found from the inverse square law :

$$f = L / 4\pi r^2$$

$$N = \rho \delta\Omega/3 (L/4\pi f)^{3/2} \propto f^{-3/2}$$

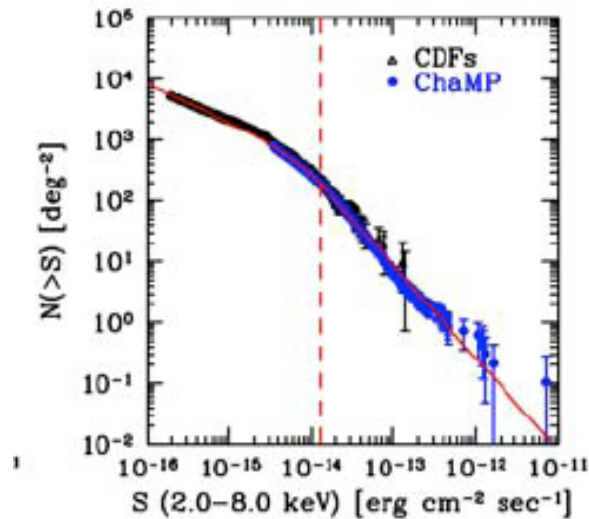
LogN-logS observations



At Bright fluxes slope -1.5

At Faint fluxes -1.0

The flat slope implies that we run out of sources
i.e. Limited volume, flattening of the LF



The normalization of the
2-8 keV logN-logS is a
Factor of two higher

This constrains the source's spectrum



Relation between Luminosity function and Number counts

$$N(>f) = \int \int \Phi(L) dL dv/dz dz$$

$\Phi(L)$ is the luminosity function i.e. the number density of Sources at luminosity L

The lower limit on luminosity at a redshift z depends on the Flux limit of the survey f_{lim}

The AGN unification model

Supermassive black hole (10^6 - $10^{10} M_{\odot}$)

$$M = 10^8 M_{\odot} \Rightarrow R_G \sim 3 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm.}$$

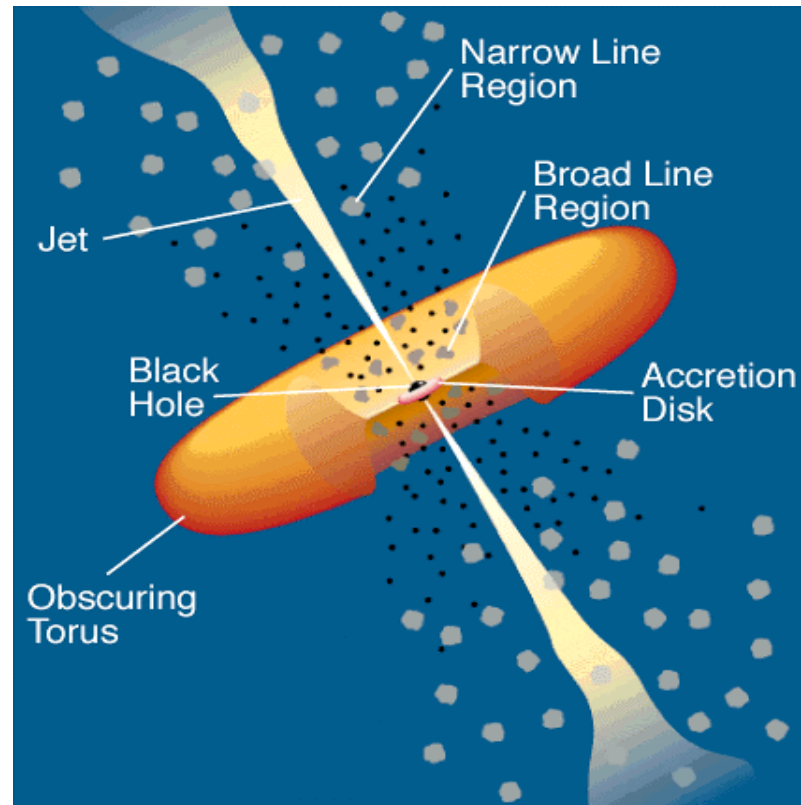
Accretion disk; thermal UV/X & lines from highly ionized atoms (3-100 R_G).

High velocity ($>10^3$ km/s) broad-line clouds ($R \sim 10^{3-4} R_G$).

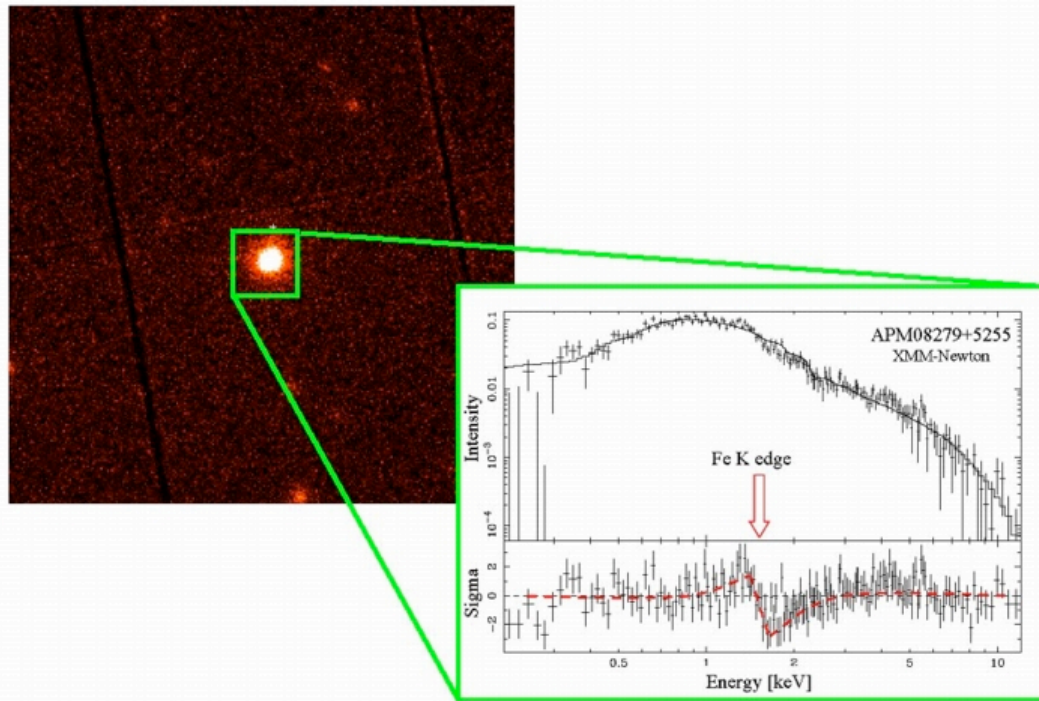
Dusty torus, which orbits in/near plane of accretion disk ($R \sim 10^{4-5} R_G$).

Lower velocity (few hundred km/s) narrow-line clouds ($R \sim 10^{5-7} R_G$).

Relativistic jet ($\Gamma \sim 5$ -30), which may be collimated on $\sim 50 R_G$ scales.

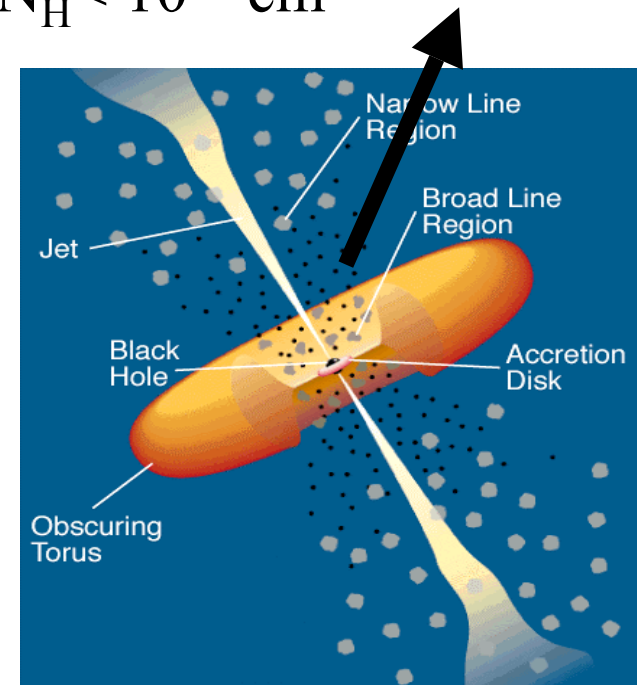


AGN spectra (unabsorbed)

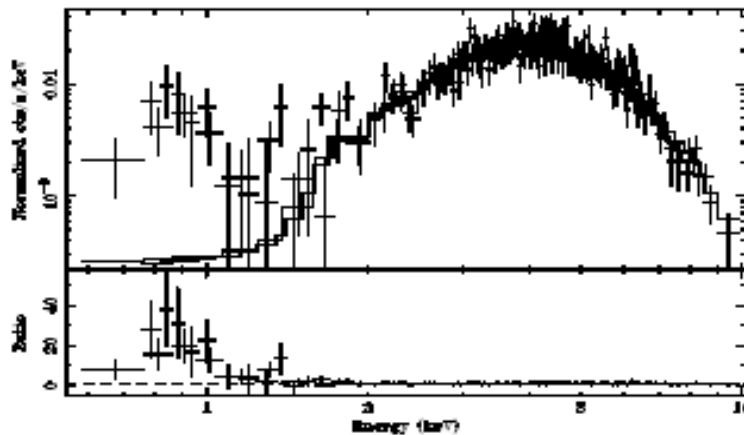


Broad Lines in the optical

$$N_{\text{H}} < 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$



X-ray spectra (type-2)

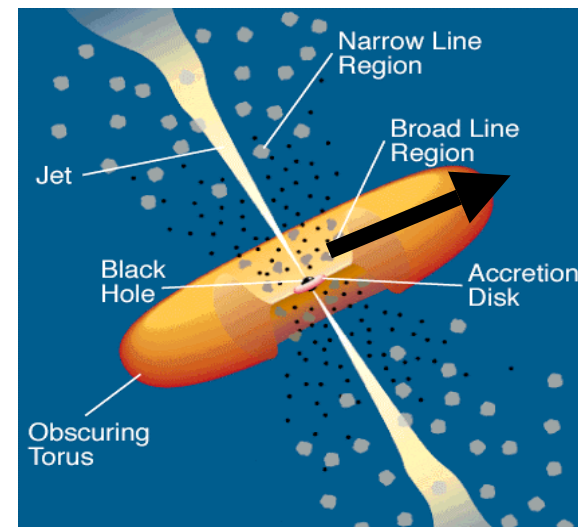


1. Power-law
+ photoelectric absorption
 $I(E) = e^{-\sigma N} E^{-\Gamma}$

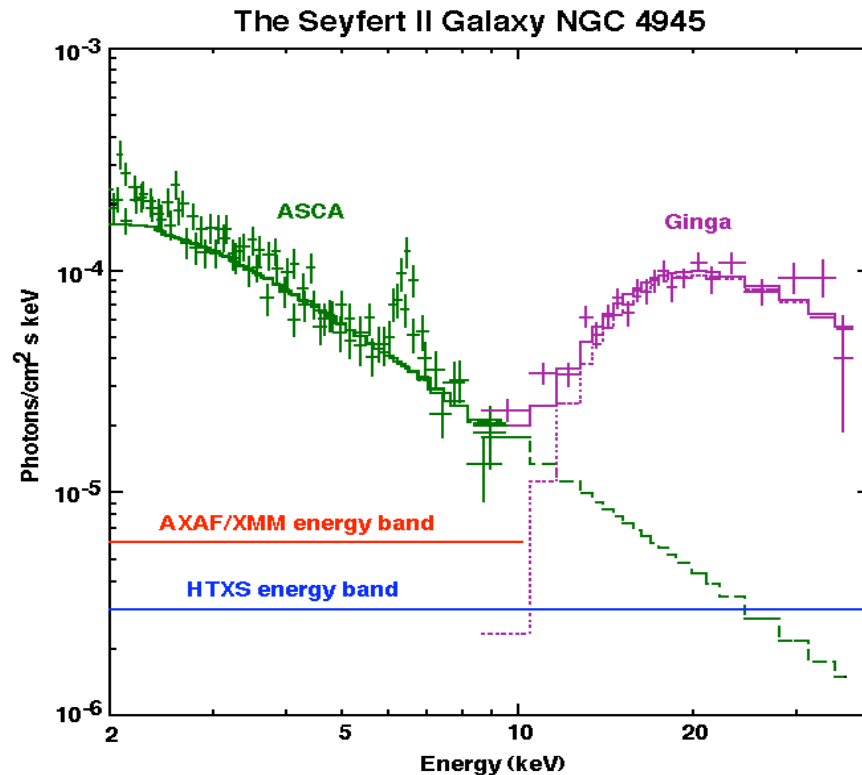
NGC7172, $N_H > 10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-2}$

2. FeK α Line at 6.4 keV

Narrow Lines in the optical



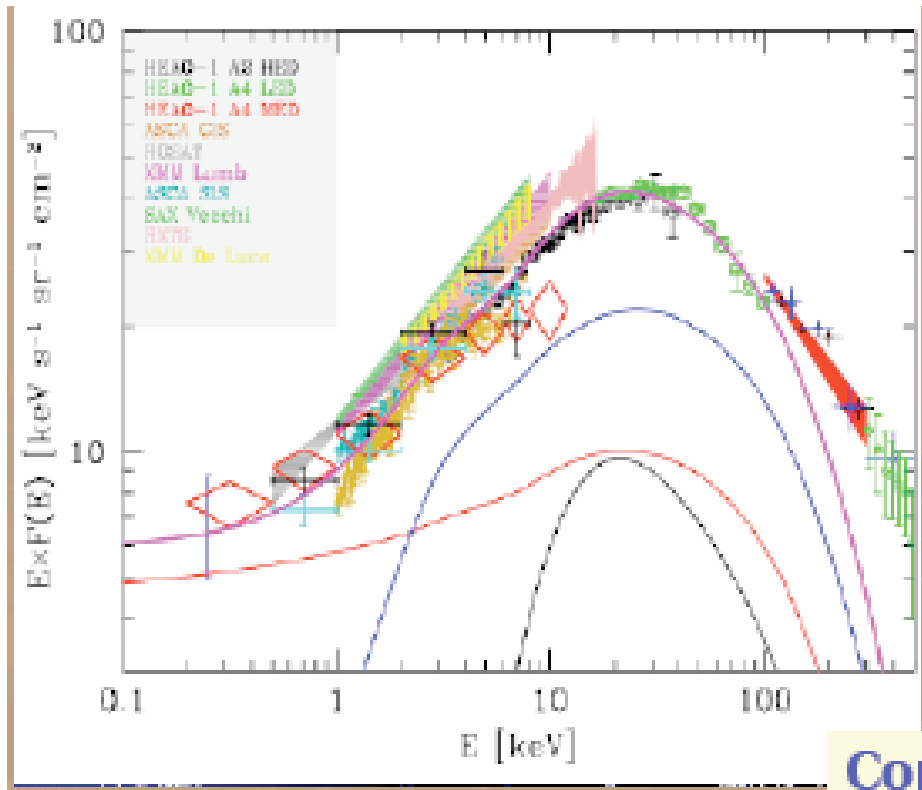
AGN spectra : Compton thick (extreme case of absorption)



1. $N_H > 10^{24} \text{ cm}^{-2}$
Compton scattering dominates
2. FeK α Line at 6.4 keV
very strong, Equivalent Width $> 1 \text{ keV}$

Two out of the three nearest
AGN are Compton-thick : NGC1068,
Circinus

Are we missing AGN in X-ray ?



Clue 1: The spectrum of the X-ray background.

Are we missing AGN in X-ray ?

Clue 2: the mass of the Black holes in the Universe

X-ray energy density at redshift z $\int L_X \Phi(L_X, z) d\text{Log}L_X$. $\text{erg s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-3}$


$L_X = \epsilon mc^2$ where $\epsilon=0.1$, m =accreted mass

Mass deposited in Black hole

$$M_{\bullet} = L_{bol}(1 - \epsilon)/\epsilon c^2$$

$$\dot{\rho}_{\bullet}(z) = \frac{1 - \epsilon}{\epsilon c^2} \int K L_X \Phi(L_X, z) d\text{Log}L_X$$

Integrating over redshift we obtain $3.2 \times 10^5 M_{\bullet} \text{Mpc}^{-3}$

- 
- We can compare with the BH density in the local Universe (Marconi et al. 2004)

- HOW do we estimate BH density ?

- $M_{\text{BH}} = k \sigma^5$ (Magorrian relation)

- We find that the BH from X-rays are lower by about a factor of two

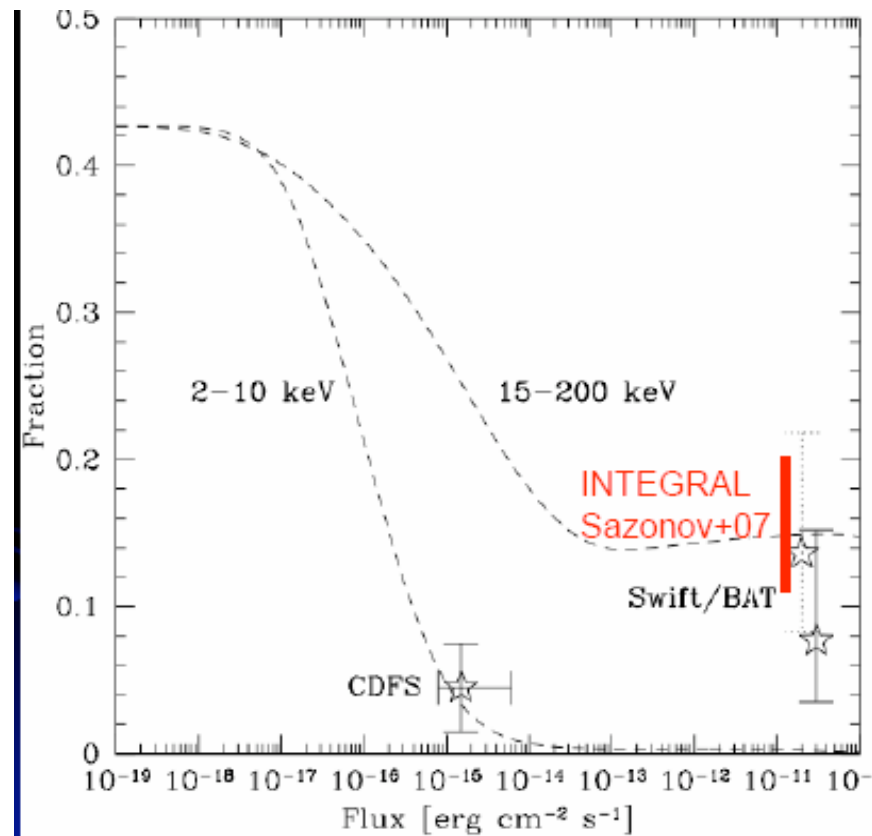
How will we find these ?

- Imaging at very hard energies >10 keV

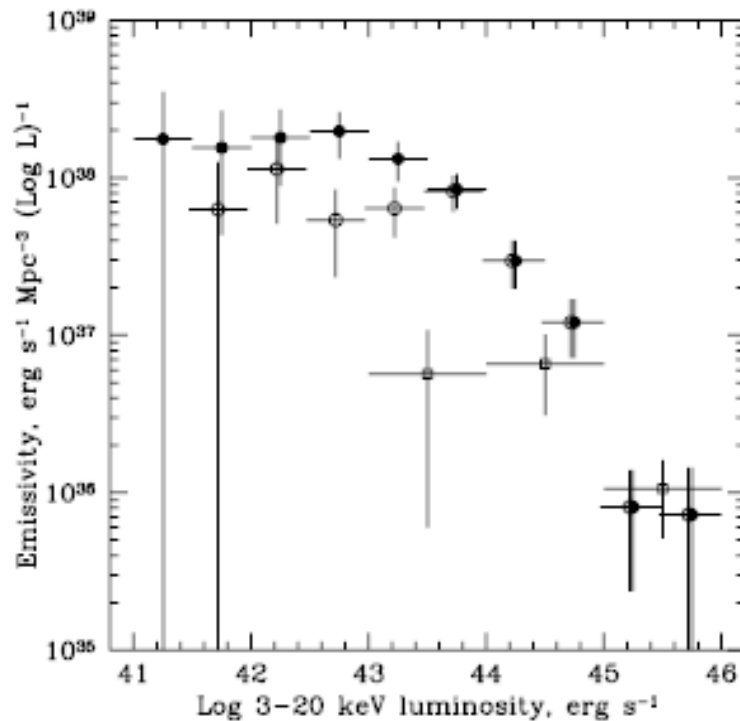
Simbol-X

Nustar

Next

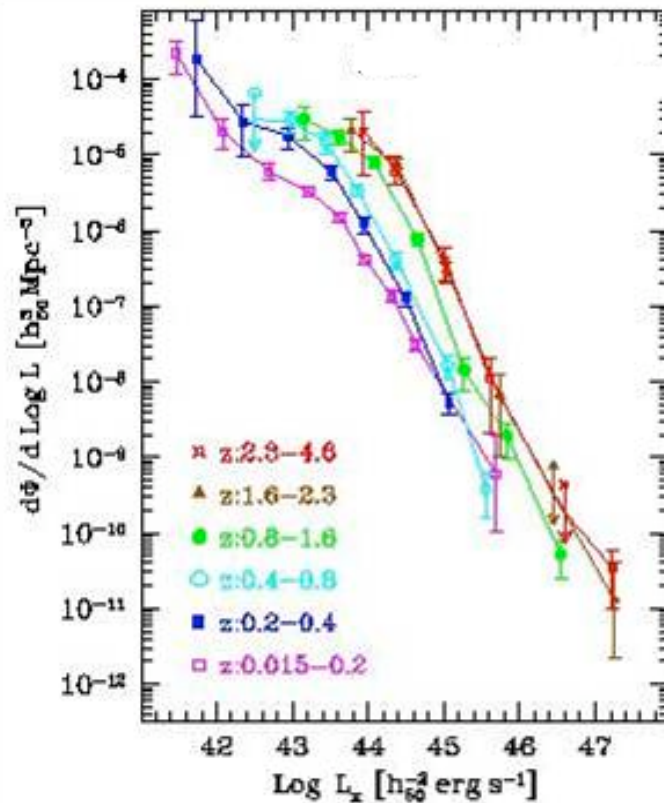


The luminosity function $\Phi(L)$



The luminosity function of local AGN
RXTE 3-20 keV
Sazonov & Revnivtsev 2006

AGN Evolution



$$\frac{d\Phi(L_X, z=0)}{d\text{Log}L_X} = A[(L_X/L_*)^{\gamma_1} + (L_X/L_*)^{\gamma_2}]^{-1}.$$

$$L_X(z) \propto L_X(z=0) (1+z)^3$$

Pure Luminosity evolution

QSOs were brighter in the past

Φ evolves along the x-axis

This is similar to the evolution of optical QSOs.

The evolution is strikingly similar to the evolution of star-forming galaxies

Luminosity function

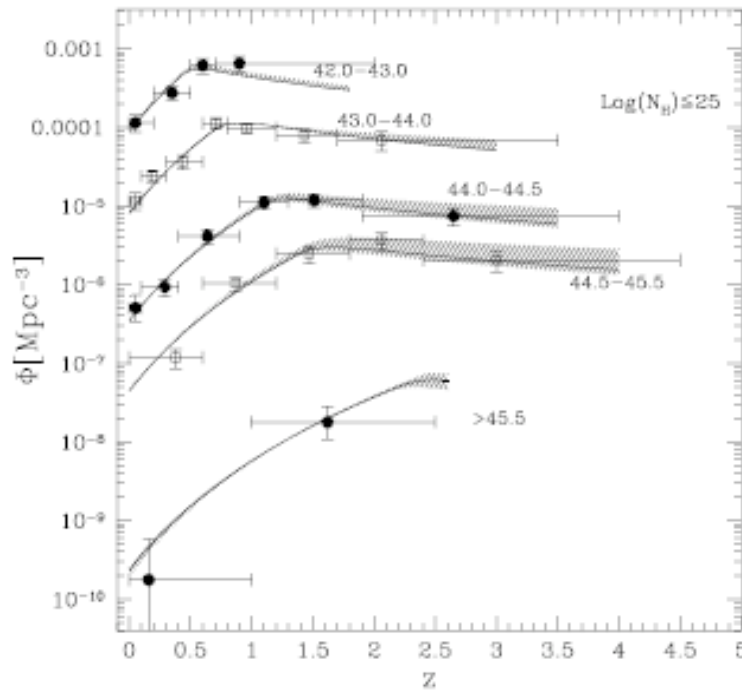
Therefore the picture is rather more complicated when we go at faint luminosities:
Luminosity Dependent Density Evolution
(Miyaji et al. 2001 , La Franca et al. 2005)

i.e. evolution along the y-axis (density) depending on luminosity



Density evolution for low
Luminosity objects up to $z=0.7$

Cosmic down-sizing

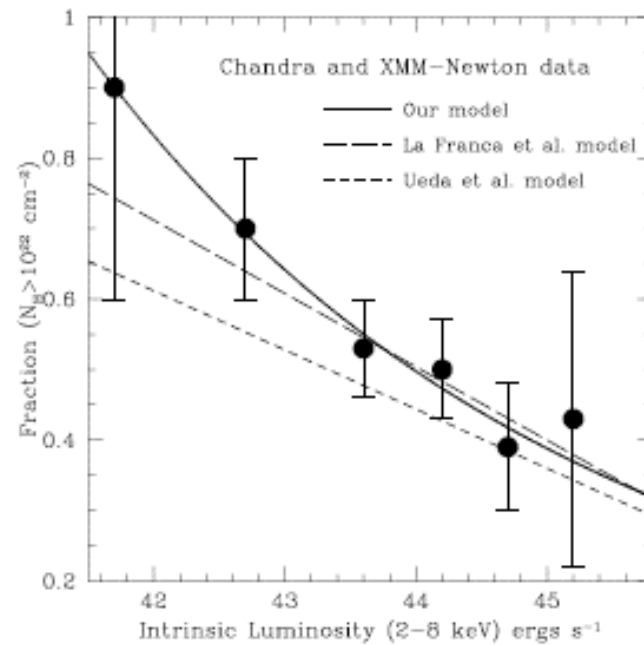


Anti-hierarchical model:

Less-luminous (less massive)
AGN form later (peak $z=0.7$)

high luminosity
(more massive sources)
peak at $z=1.5-2$

Absorption depends on Lx





Luminosity Function Derivation: $1/V_{\max}$

- $\Phi(L_i) = n \sum 1/V_{\max}$

Where V is the maximum volume where we can detect our source at the flux limit of the survey.

Essentially we give weight to the less luminous sources which cannot be detected at large redshifts.

For nearby sources where inverse square law applies:

$$f_{\text{limit}} = L_i / 4\pi r^2 \quad \text{we find } r_{\max} \text{ and thus } V_{\max}$$



The Cosmological “inverse square law”

The inverse square law is valid but instead the distance is:

$$d_L = \frac{c}{H_0 q_0^2} \left(q_0 z + (q_0 - 1) \left(\sqrt{1 + 2q_0 z} - 1 \right) \right) \quad \Lambda=0$$

Ω = matter density = $2q_0$, z =redshift, H_0 =Hubble constant

For $\Lambda > 0$ things are even more complicated:

$$d_L = (1+z) (c/H_0) \int dz / E(z) \quad \text{where}$$

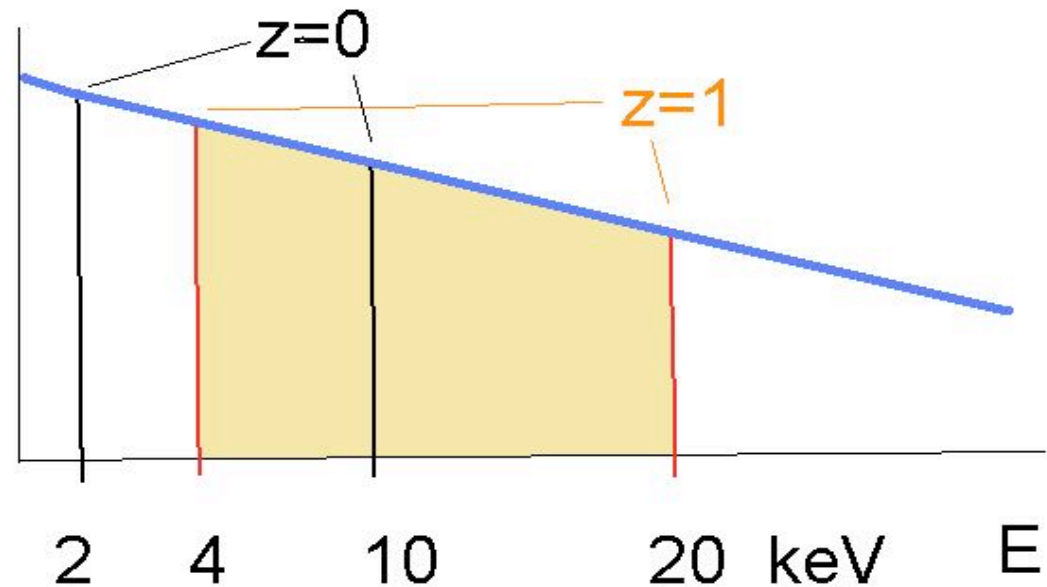
$$E(z) \equiv \sqrt{\Omega_M (1+z)^3 + \Omega_k (1+z)^2 + \Omega_\Lambda}$$

The k-correction

- The k-correction is introduced because at different redshifts we observe a different part of the spectrum.
- However, we need to refer to a 'standard' Common luminosity for all sources eg the luminosity in the 2-10 keV band.

Assuming that the spectrum is a single power law $I(E) \propto E^{-\alpha}$

$$K(z) = (1-\alpha) \log(1+z)$$





The cosmological distance modulus

$$\log L_x = 50.05 + \log F + 2 \log d_L + (1-\alpha) \log(1+z)$$

L_x in erg s^{-1} , Flux in $\text{erg cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, d_L in Mpc

As an example in the deepest X-ray image in the CDFN at $z=5$ we can detect a luminosity of $L_x = 43.6 \text{ erg s}^{-1}$



Survey Basics: flux limit

- The flux limit depends on the exposure time, the background and the **angular resolution of the detector**.
- In a given detection cell the signal-to-noise ratio:

$$\text{SNR} = S / \sqrt{B} \quad \text{where } S \text{ and } B \text{ are the source and background photons.}$$

We can increase the SNR i.e. the flux limit by increasing the exposure time

But both the background and source photons increase: then **flux goes with** \sqrt{t}

One way is to reduce the background that comes mainly from the particles. Another way is to make better the spatial resolution (essentially we make less the background).



Background Isotropy

One measure of anisotropy is the number of counts in cells

This IS NOT \sqrt{N} as one may knaively expect

The intensity observed:

$$I = \int dN(f) f df d\Omega \quad (1)$$

While the variance is:

$$\delta I^2 = \int dN(f) f^2 df d\Omega \quad (2)$$

Combining (1) and (2) : $\delta I/I \propto 1/\sqrt{\delta\Omega}$

i.e. the smaller the angle the larger the anisotropy

Anisotropy II

The full distribution carries more information:





Anisotropy III

Sources are not distributed randomly

They are clustered following the function $\xi(r) = (r/r_0)^{-1.8}$

which translates in two dimensions:

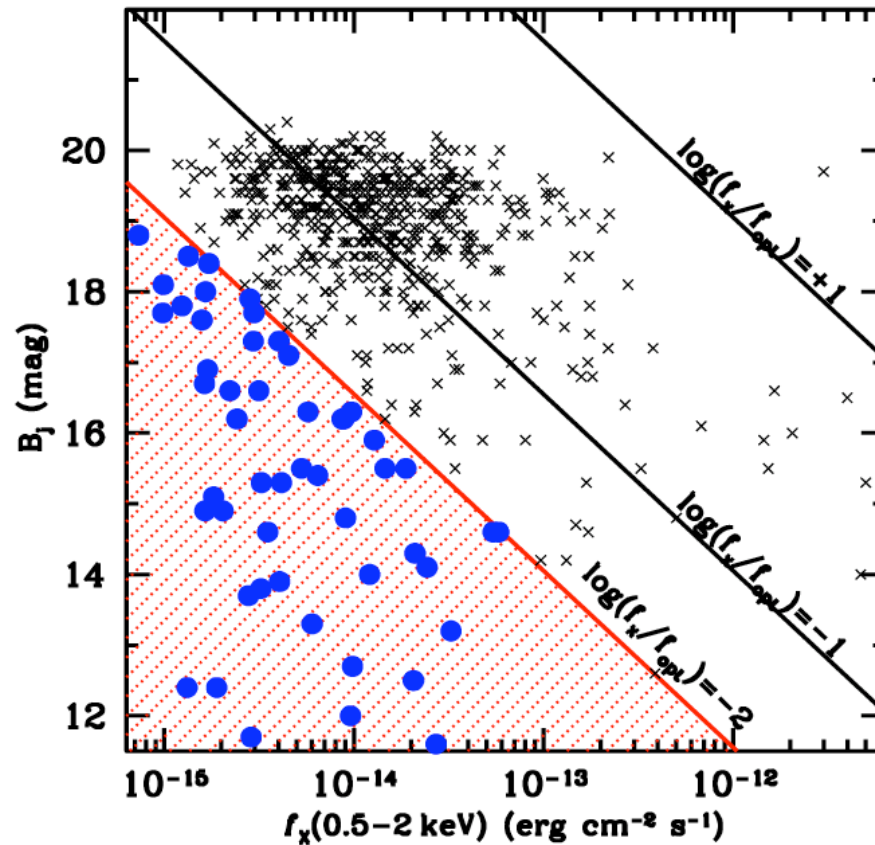
$$w(\theta) = (\theta/\theta_0)^{-0.8}$$

The variance then becomes:

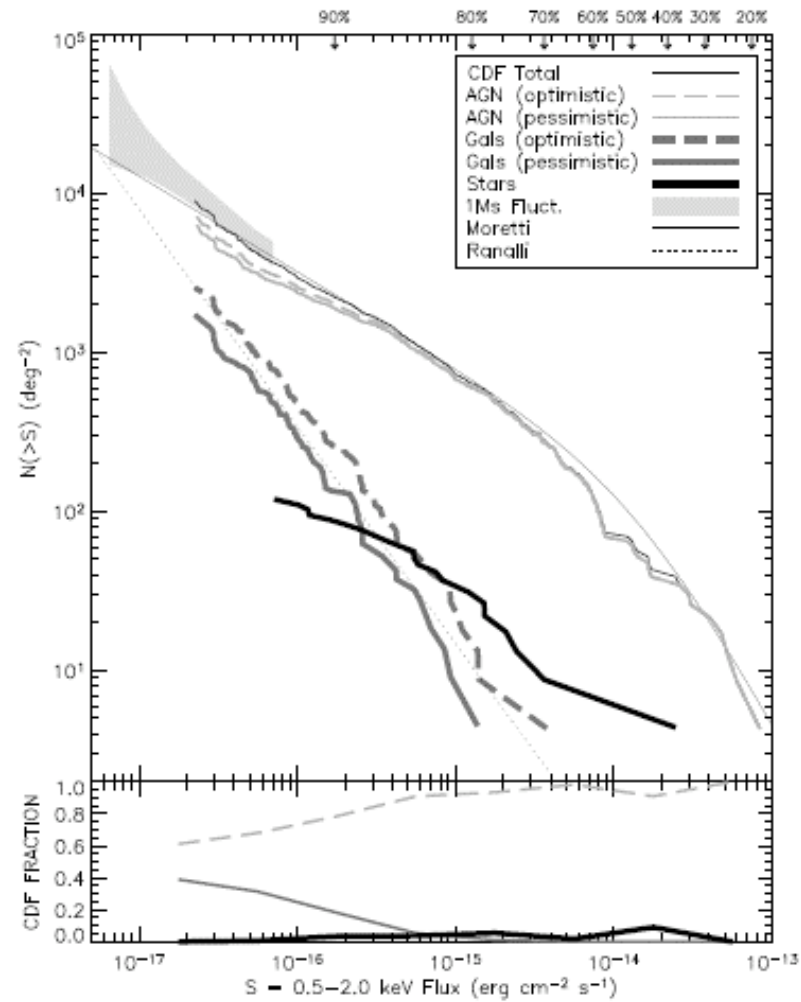
$$I^2 = \Omega + \int w(\theta) \delta\Omega_1 \delta\Omega_2 \quad (\text{Peebles 1980, Peebles 1993})$$

where $I = \int dN(f) f df d\Omega$

Contamination: galaxies



Normal galaxies logN-logS





THE END