SMBH mass growth and BH coalescence

Plan of the lecture

- 1. Hierarchical model of galaxy formation.
- 2. Gravitational wave rocket.
- 3. Black holes at large redshifts.
- 4. Coalescence of SMBHs.
- 5. BH coalescence in binaries.

Reviews

arXiv: 1911.05791	The Assembly of the First Massive Black Holes
arXiv: 1307.3542	Astrophysics of Super-massive Black Hole Mergers
arXiv: 1110.6445	A practical guide to the massive black hole cosmic history
arXiv:1112.0320	The Cosmic History of Black Hole Growth from
	Deep Multiwavelength Surveys
arXiv: 1407.3102	Massive binary black holes in galactic nuclei
	and their path to coalescence
arXiv: 2310.16896	Observational signatures of binary SMBH within the final po
arXiv: 1307.4086	Gravitational wave emission from binary SMBHs
arXiv: 2110.10175	The origins of massive black holes
arXiv: 2304.11541	Modeling of SMBHs properties and evolution

Structure growth in the universe



Today the standard model of the structure formation is the *hierarchical* one.

Numerical calculations of the evolution of the large-scale structure and single "blocks" reached a very high level of precision (arxiv:0706.1270).



Kravtsov et al.

Formation of clusters of galaxies



In the process of structure growth numerous coalescence of "building blocks" happen, each of these blocks can contain a BH.

After a coalescence a new-formed BH slowly, due to dynamical friction, moves towards the center of the resulting structure.

Formation of large galaxies is finished as z~2, after this no major mergers happen, only small satellites are captured by big galaxies.

Kauffmann, Colberg, Diaferio, and White

Growth of clusters of galaxies

Minihalos and the first stars



Symbols indicate minihalos.

Open symbols – Cooling is not effective enough.

The critical line corresponds to equality between the cooling time and dynamical evolution time scale of a minihalo (free-fall time).

This line separates dark halos and halos that can produce stars.

In each minihalo a very small number of stars in formed.

Volker Bromm astro-ph/0311292

The first stars and minihalos

In the standard λ CDM model the first massive BHs are formed at z>15 in minihalos with M> 5 10⁵ M_O.

These BHs produce the first miniquasars, which contribute to the reionization at $z\sim10-12$.

Such low mass of minihalos is explained by the role of molecular hydrogene (Tegmark et al. 1997).

$$5 \times 10^5 \,[(1+z)/10]^{-3/2} \,\mathrm{M_{\odot}}$$

The first stars with masses 40-140 solar and >260 solar masses produce BHs. A BH mass (in the case of the first stars) is typically >0.5 of the mass of a star.

The first stars



Calculations have been done in the ΛCDM model.

The picture is plotted for z=17.

The size is 50 kpc.

Stars are formed on the cross-sections of filaments (bright dots).

Yoshida et al. astro-ph/0301645

A scheme for SMBH formation



1211.7082

See a recent brief review in 2110.10175

... and with more details



Origin of SMBHs and IMBHs



IMBHs:

- Globular clusters
- ULXs
- Dwarf galaxies
- Remaining seed BHs

Some are too massive



Some form too early

The most distant quasar 0313–1806: z= 7.642

 $(1.6 \pm 0.4) \times 10^9 M_{\odot}$

 $3.6 \times 10^{13} L_{\odot}$





Wandering BHs



Only masses $>10^6$ solar are considered. Usually 2-8 inside 10 kpc, and up to ~20 inside the virial radius.



Examples from simulations



May be they can be detectable via their accretion luminosity? 2006.08203

1802.06783, see new calculations in 2103.12124 and critics in 2404.15404

Detectability of wandering IMBHs



Roman Space Telescope, CMB-S4 and ngVLA might contribute in identifying ~50% of wandering IMBHs in our Galaxy.

GRB lensing on an IMBH?



The problem of the existence of very massive BHs at high redshifts At redshifts ~7 already there are SMBHs with masses ~10⁹ M₀. These redshifts correspond to the age of the universe <10⁹ yrs.

It is necessary to have seed BHs already at z>15 and to provide their rapid growth (note, that the accretion rate is limited by the Eddington rate).

See a brief review of different scenarios of seed formation in arXiv: 0912.0525.

In the figure: seeds mass function for three scenarios. Direct collapse, runaway stellar mergers, Pop III



Direct collapse of gas discs

Plots are done for different efficiencies and for two values of the redshift: z=18 (dashed and z=15 (solid).

In low-mass halos and in rapidly rotating halos (later on, probably, bulgeless galaxies) there are no SMBHs in this scenario.

In this model it is possible to explain lack of correlation between dark matter halo mass and SMBH mass for galaxies with small bulges (1103.1644). Direct collapse of pre-galactic gas discs. Seeds are already massive at formation: $M>10^5$ Msolar (at z>15)



Formation of supermassive BHs

SMBHs can be formed after galaxy mergers at $z \sim 8-10$. After a merger, a dense nuclear disc can be formed. Later the disc can collapse to form a BH with a mass $\sim 10^8-10^9$ Msun.





Formation via a supermassive star

34000 solar mass star

→ 34000 solar mass BH at z~30

In regions with a large streaming velocity, gas condensation – and hence star formation – is suppressed until a deep gravitational potential is generated by a clump of dark matter with mass 10⁷ solar masses.



1709.09863, see more recent calculations in 1901.07563

Supermassive primordial stars

Internal structures of the models for the indicated accretion rates. On each panel, the upper curve is the stellar radius, the blue and green areas indicate convective zones, and the grey areas indicate radiative transport. The yellow hatched areas correspond to D- and H-burning, and the red hatched areas indicate the GR instability according to the polytropic criterion with n=3.





Monolithic Supermassive Stars



1D stellar evolution code Kepler

A review on physics of supermassive stars and black hole seed formation can be found in 2003.10533.

Stars born with masses between $\sim 60 \text{ kM}_{\odot}$ and $\sim 150 \text{ kM}_{\odot}$ collapse at the end of the main sequence, burning stably for $\sim 1.5 \text{ Myr}$. More massive stars collapse directly due to the general relativistic instability after a thermal timescale of $\sim 3 \text{ kyr} - 4 \text{ kyr}$.



Stellar coalescence in nuclear clusters



In dense nuclear stellar clusters in the young galaxies stars can coalesce and grow by accretion.

Depending on many uncertain parameters (accretion rate, mass function, etc.) this can result in formation of seed BHs with masses 10³-10⁵ solar masses,

Three scenarios are presented: constant accretion rate, Eddington-limited, and Bondi-Hoyle.

BH mass growth



BH mass growth for different radiation efficiency.

$$t_{
m grow} pprox rac{0.45 \ \epsilon}{(1-\epsilon) f_{
m duty}} \ \ln\left(rac{M_{ullet}}{M_{
m seed}}
ight) \ {
m Gyr} pprox 0.81 \ {
m Gyr}.$$

Halo mass functions at different z. These galaxies due to coalescence produce at $z_0=0.8$ a Milky Way-like galaxy (10¹² solar masses, solid curves), or a slightly $\epsilon = 0.1, f_{\text{duty}} = 1, M_{\text{seed}} = 100 \text{ M}_{\odot}, \text{ and } M_{\bullet} = 10^9 \text{ M}_{\odot}$ smaller one at $z_0 = 3.5$ (2 10¹¹, dashed curves).

Madau astro-ph/0701394.

See new calculations for various seed masses in 2106.08330.



$$t_{
m grow} \approx rac{0.45 \ \epsilon}{(1-\epsilon)f_{
m duty}} \ \ln\left(rac{M_{ullet}}{M_{
m seed}}
ight) \ {
m Gyr} pprox 0.81 \ {
m Gyr}.$$

 $\epsilon = 0.1, \ f_{
m duty} = 1, \ M_{
m seed} = 100 \ {
m M}_{\odot}, \ {
m and} \ M_{ullet} = 10^9 \ {
m M}_{\odot}.$

At first the mass is growing rapidly according to the Bondi formula. Then, when the Eddington limit is reached, the growth slows down.

The so-called Salpeter time: the time in which the mass is doubled.

Accretion and coalescence are both important for the mass growth.

Now SMBHs in giant elliptical galaxies increase their masses mostly due to coalescence with satellites.

Mass growth was recently reviewed in <u>arXiv:1304.7762</u> and 1601.05473



SMBH growth

Cosmic Archaeology Tool: semi-analytical model. SE growth is followed in a simplified approach. Still, it is favored in some cases.



A heavy seed for UHZ1



2305.15458, see also 2308.02654

Light seeds cannot grow fast enough?



Starting with 10^5 solar masses it is possible to obtain a massive BH at z=6.

However, still there are many uncertainties.

Evolution of overmassive black holes



The detected SMBHs are likely overmassive with respect to their hosts since early times (z>4), independently of whether they formed as heavy (~10⁵ Msun) or light $(\sim 100 \text{ Msun})$ seed black holes. In the simulations, these objects tend to grow faster than their host galaxies, contradicting models of synchronized growth.

Maximum mass

The most massive BHs are $\sim 10^{10}$ solar masses.

The authors suggest that higher masses require very large accretion rate. Such a rate requires massive dense accretion discs, and under such conditions most of the gas is transformed into stars.

In addition, outflows can take away matter around very massive BHs.



Solid – accretion rate. Dashed – star formation rate.

 $M_{BH} = 10^{10}$

A quasar `puffes out' a galaxy

Quasar activity can result in a powerful outflow of matter. This outflow can expel gas from the galaxy. This results in quenching the galactic star formation.



A quasar at z=6.4. An outflow with the rate 3500 Msun/year. It is enough to influence the whole galaxy.



Ultra-fast outflows visible in gamma

AGN activity launches an ultra-fast outflow. The outflow interacts with the ISM. A shock is formed. Particles can be accelerated on the shock, so gamma-ray emission is produced. Emission is found, and it is shown, that it scales as the bolometric luminosity and kinetic power.





Supereddington SMBH in a dwarf galaxy at the transitional stage

AGN at z~4.

Detected by Chandra and JWST

 M_{bh} ~ few 10⁶ M_{sun}

Powerful outflow. Supereddington accretion.

The starformation is not quenched, yet. But, probably, the outflow will do it soon.


Starformation rate and black hole mass



Galaxies with different BH mass have different star formation histories. Not the absolute BH mass is important, but if it is more or less massive than might be. The authors suggest that more massive BHs form and evolve faster, and then quickly quench star formation in their galaxies.

Mass growth, spin and activity



Some time ago it was noticed, that radio emission from elliptical galaxies is stronger, than from disc galaxies.

It was proposed that this can be related to faster rotation of central BHs in elliptical galaxies.

Recent calculations (see the plot) demonstrated that it can be true. The reason is that the mass growth of BHs in ellipticals happen via more powerful episodes of accretion.

Evolution of SMBHs activity



The plot shows the redshift distribution of AGNs detected by Chandra and XMM-Newton.

The top histogram: all sources from the joint sample of Chandra and XMM.

Red hatched region: sources identified in optics.

Solid curve: results of modeling.

The "cutoff" at high redshifts is not an artifact.

Light echo from a dead quasar

Hanny's Voorwerp. The source was discovered by the Galaxy Zoo Project.

This is a gas cloud in 45-70 thousand l.y. from the galaxy IC 2497

The galaxy is not active now, but probably <70 000 years ago it was and powered the gas cloud.

The alternative explanation (a radiogalaxy with a jet and huge absorption in the nuclei) was proposed in arXiv: 1101.2784



This was the closest QSO!

Another light echo



Evolution of quasars number



Very bright quasars are formed very early, and then their number is decreasing.

For AGNs with low luminosities the evolution is not so pronounced, but anyway it is evident.

For luminosities 10^{42} - 10^{43} erg/s the maximum is at $z\sim0.5$ -0.7, for 10^{45} - 10^{46} erg/s – at $z\sim2$.

z=3 corresponds to 11.55 bl yrs ago.

Combes astro-ph/0505463

Mass and luminosity evolution of AGNs



Results of numerical simulations are shown (Merloni 2004). Lifetime grows with decreasing z.

Quasars and reionization

It is important that quasars have a harder spectrum.

Quasars dominate till z~8. After – starforming galaxies dominate.



Mass function of MBHs at different cosmic times



Small seeds

Large seeds

Galactic cannibalism



Results of calculations for the evolution of galaxies in the center of the cluster C0337-2522.

On the left the present day (observed) configuration is shown.

On the right – results of calculations for two models.

Two variants of calcualtions differ by the way the DM particles are treated. The upper one seems to be more realistic. Dynamical friction is important.

C.Nipoti et al. astro-ph/0306082

Interacting galaxies





(Hibbard, Barnes)

Where does the Andromeda galaxy move?



HST observations

The first proper motion measurements. This allows measuring the 3D velocity.





Our Galaxy and M31 will merge in 5-7 billion years. The first close approach will happen in 3.5-4 billion years.

Later on, the M33 galaxy will join.



Observational signatures of SMBHBs



Double quasar in a merger

For the first time a bright binary QSO is found in a clearly merging pair of galaxies. Both QSOs are radioquiet. They form a physically bounded system at z=0.44. In projection the separation is 21 kpc.



arXiv: 1001.1783. See a review about binary SMBHs in arXiv: 2310.16896

Merging quasars at z>6



2405.02465, see also 2405.02468 about the host galaxies

Triple BH system



z=0.39 The closest pair separation ~140 pc The third at ~7.4 kpc

Triple SMBH in a Seyfert galaxy

SDSS J0849+1114 is the first known triple Type 2 Seyfert nucleus.

Identified due to optical spectroscopy (3.5-meter telescope).

a



1907.10639, see new results in 2012.00769

AGN pairs in SDSS

1286 pairs out of >130 000 3.6% of AGNs. In 30% cas merging features are visible



1104.0950, 1104.0951

Periodic variability in QSOs

5 candidates among ~700 sources



LSST might find many periodically variable AGNs, see e.g. 2110.07465

2008.12329

Nearly naked SMBH



Coalescence

$$\begin{aligned} a_{\mathcal{GW}} &\approx 0.049 \text{ pc } \left(\frac{q/(1+q)^2}{0.25}\right)^{1/4} \left(\frac{T}{1.3 \times 10^{10} \text{yr}}\right)^{1/4} \left(\frac{M}{10^8 M_{\odot}}\right)^{3/4} \begin{array}{c} \text{Time} \\ \text{small} \\ P_{\mathcal{GW}} &\approx 100.5 \text{ yr } \left(\frac{q/(1+q)^2}{0.25}\right)^{3/8} \left(\frac{T}{1.3 \times 10^{10} \text{yr}}\right)^{3/8} \left(\frac{M}{10^8 M_{\odot}}\right)^{5/8} \begin{array}{c} \text{of the} \\ \end{array} \end{aligned}$$

Time before coalescence smaller than the age of the Universe.

Dynamical friction can bring two SMBHs down to ~a few pc distance.

Final-parsec problem (Milosavljevi´c & Merritt 2003) Solutions:

- stars;
- gas;
- massive perturbers.

$$\theta_{\rm orb} = \frac{a}{D_A(z)} \approx 7.8 \mu {\rm as} \left(\frac{P}{5.1 {\rm yr}}\right)^{2/3} \left(\frac{M}{10^9 M_\odot}\right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{D_{\rm A}}{200 {\rm Mpc}}\right)$$

Gravitational wave rocket

In addition to energy and angular moment, gravitational waves also take away the linear momentum. So, the object formed via a coalescence gets a kick. The first estimate of the effect in the case of binaries was obtained in 1983 by Fitchett:

$$V_F \simeq 1480 \, \mathrm{km/s} \, rac{f(q)}{f_{\mathrm{max}}} \left(rac{2GM/c^2}{r_{\mathrm{term}}}
ight)^4$$

 $f(q)=q^2(1-q)/(1+q)^5$, $f_{max}=0.38$

Recently, this topic became very hot due to calculations in the framework of the hierarchical model. Continuosly new results appear to improve the formula above

One of the first articles in the "new wave" was the paper by Favata et al. <u>astro-ph/0402056</u> "How black holes get their kicks?"

Favata et al. (2004)



a/M=0.8, q=0.127 (rotation of the smaller BH is neglected)

The velocity is high enough to escape from a not very massive halo, or to "shake" a central SMBH.



Maximum kick



The velocity is strongly dependent on the relative orientation of BHs spins prior to coalescence.

GW200129 could have a large kick ~1000 km/s, see 2201.01302.

High-energy collisions (unrealistic in the case of usual BHs) can produce kick velocities up to 10% of the velocity of light, (see 2301.00018).

D

Campanelli et al. gr-qc/0702133

Antikick

In all cases we found that the direction of the ringdown kick is approximately opposite to that of the accumulated inspiral plus plunge kick. I.e., ringdown radiation produces a signicant "anti-kick".



Antikick



Recoiling BH



Among 1271 SDSS QSOs at z<0.25 the authors selected 26 recoiling SMBH candidates.

Average velocity ~265 km/s. See also 1409.3976

Wandering BHs in Dwarf Galaxies

The authors observed off-center compact radio sources in dwarf galaxies.



Off-center BHs in dwarf galaxies can be also due to mergers, see 2102.09566

Offcenter optical sources



Galactic mergers and offset SMBHs



TNG300 modeling of 370 clusters



85% (60%) of the BCGs exhibit a SMBH with an offset of 10 pc (100 pc) for more than 6 Gyr since z = 2.

I.e., SMBHs in BCGs spent more than half of their lifetime off-centered.

However, BHs spend <3 Gyr above 1 kpc.



Superkicks?

Large kicks (>2000 km/s) can eject SMBHs even from BCG. As these galaxies have rich merging history, their SMBHs can be at least significantly shifted, due to long returning time.



Stellar density profile evolution in the case of two BHs



Flat profiles can be explained by an existence of the second BH.

Combes astro-ph/0505463

Binary supermassive BHs



Galaxy 0402+379

Total mass: $1.5 \ 10^8 \ M_0$

Distance between two BHs is 7.3 pc.

Rodriguez et al. astro-ph/0604042

Examples of binary SMBHs



3C75

Abell 400



See a review about binary SMBHs in arXiv: 2310.16896 71

Dual AGN observed by NuStar

SWIFT J2028.5+2543 NGC 6921 and MCG+04-48-00 First observations at E>10 keV



Galaxy merger triggers AGN activity. Separation ~25 kpc 4x10⁸ and 7x10⁷ M_{solar}
Just 230 pc between two SMBHs

AGN: UGC 4211 z=0.35 merger BH masses >~10⁸ M_{sun} Multiwavelength observations





Merging of galaxies with BHs



arXiv:0706.1562

See more about the role of recoil after merging in 1001.1743, 1103.0272, 1103.3701

Catalog of 220 Offset and Dual AGNs

0.2< z <2.5 <20 kpc between bulges HST observations The authors looked for pairs among 2585 AGN host galaxies in HST data.



45.0 44.5 log L_{AGN} [log erg s⁻¹] 44.0 43.5 43.0 42.5 42.0 41.5 0 10 12 14 16 18 20 2 6 8 Bulge Separation [kpc] 2.0 1.5 yr⁻¹] 1.0 log SFR [log M_© 0.5 0.0 -0.5-1.0٠ -1.510 16 18 0 2 6 8 12 14 20 Δ Bulge Separation [kpc]

EM signal during coalescence



For M=10⁶ solar mass binary in n=10 cm⁻³ gas Δ L~ 3 10⁴³ erg/s Detectable by LSST from z~1

Stirring, shock heating and accretion of the gas may produce variability and enhancements in the electromagnetic flux.



Electromagnetic signals



1710.02132, see new calculations in 1806.05697

Coalescence of BHs in binary systems

Unfortunately, at the moment we do not know any systems with two compact objects, one of which is a BH.

It is very difficult to identify a system with two BHs. However, models of the stellar evolution show, that such systems are quite natural result of binary evolution.

Also, systems BH+NS can exist.

Calculations show that systems BH+PSR should be relatively abundant (one system per several thousand PSRs).

On one hand, systems with BHs are more rare than NS+NS systems, on the other hand, due to larger masses GW signal is much more powerful. So, coalescence of BHs can be observed from much larger distances.

Last orbits of BHs



It is important to calculate in advance so-called waveforms.

Otherwise, it is very difficult to identify the signal.

Waveforms in the case of BH coalescence should be different from NS+NS coalescence.

See 1010.5260 for a review

Fall-down of matter onto a BH and GW emission

Accretion of a Quadrupolar Dust Shell onto a Schwarzschild Black Hole and Emission of Gravitational Radiation

Left: density evolution Right: waveform Final time: 350M

Authors: Philippos Papadopoulos & Jose A. Font Reference: Physical Review D, 1999, 59, 044014

See also gr-qc/0306082 An Effective Search Method for Gravitational Ringing of Black Holes

In this paper the authors calculated a family of waveforms for effective search for gravitational ringing of BHs.

Frequency ranges and instruments



Blue (massive seed) and yellow (PopIII seed): BH powering a z≈6 quasar. Red: typical elliptical. Green: Milky way-like



NANOGrav 11-year data



2101.02716, see 2101.10081 about PTAs



-0.4

0

30

60

90

Separation Angle Between Pulsars, ξ_{ab} [degrees]

120

-8.75

-8.25

log₁₀(Frequency [Hz])

-8.00

-7.75

-8.50

 $\gamma = 13/3$

150

180

EPTA data: 25 years of observations



Registration of GW



Since 2015 LIGO and VIRGO detect signals from coalescing compact objects.

See https://gracedb.ligo.org/ https://stellarcollapse.org/



BH coalescence in discs around SMBHs



Space-bases interferometer LISA





The project might be in orbit ~2035.



Coalescence rate and background



Calculations made aiming to fit the sensitivity of the original LISA proposal. The authors predicted LISA detection rates spanning two order of magnitude, in the range 3-300 events per year, depending on the detail of the assumed massive black hole seed model 0810.5554. Calculations continue to take into accounts more effects, see 2006.12513

Main conclusions

- The first massive BHs are formed from the first massive stars at redshifts >15 in minihalos with masses about $10^6 M_{\odot}$.
- Halos (and BHs inside them) coalesce with each other in the process of hierarchical merging.
- Mass growth of BHs is due to accretion and coalescence.
- Already at z>6 there are SMBHs with masses $\sim 10^9 M_{\odot}$.
- The GW rocket effect is important, especially early in the merging history, as at that time potentials were not so deep.
- Observations of GW signals are possible with detectors like VIRGO and LIGO (for stellar mass objects), and with LISA (in the case of SMBHs).