NuSTAR REVEALS RELATIVISTIC REFLECTION BUT NO ULTRA-FAST OUTFLOW IN THE QUASAR PG 1211+143


ABSTRACT

We report on four epochs of observations of the quasar PG 1211+143 using NuSTAR. The net exposure time is 300 ks. Prior work on this source found suggestive evidence of an “ultra-fast outflow” (or, UFO) in the Fe K band, with a velocity of approximately 0.1c. The putative flow would carry away a high mass flux and kinetic power, with broad implications for feedback and black hole-galaxy co-evolution. NuSTAR detects PG 1211+143 out to 30 keV, meaning that the continuum is well-defined both through and above the Fe K band. A characteristic relativistic disk reflection spectrum is clearly revealed, via a broad Fe K emission line and Compton back-scattering curvature. The data offer only weak constraints on the spin of the black hole. A careful search for UFO’s show no significant absorption feature above 90% confidence. The limits are particularly tight when relativistic reflection is included. We discuss the statistics and the implications of these results in terms of connections between accretion onto quasars, Seyferts, and stellar-mass black holes, and feedback into their host environments.

Subject headings: galaxies: active – accretion disks – black hole physics – X-rays: binaries – galaxies: individual (PG 1211+143)

1. INTRODUCTION

The observation of a relation between the masses of supermassive black holes at the centers of galaxies and the stellar velocity dispersion ($M - \sigma$ relation; Ferrarese and Merritt 2000; Gültekin et al. 2009) suggests a direct link between black holes and their host galaxies. Energy and momentum driven out from the central regions push gas and dust away, halting star formation and stopping AGN fueling (Silk and Rees 1998; Di Matteo et al. 2005; Churazov et al. 2005; see Fabian 2012 for a review). The action of AGN feedback could be achieved through the powerful radio jets in the kinetic mode (e.g. McNamara and Nulsen 2007). In the radiative mode, accretion disks drive powerful winds that could contribute significantly to the energy budget of the BH-galaxy system.

Observing the properties of such a wind is of great importance, particularly in X-rays where most of the radiation from the expelled material is produced. Although warm absorber winds are common in the X-ray spectra of AGN (Reynolds 1997; Crenshaw et al. 2003; Blustin et al. 2005), with outflow velocities of $\sim 1000$ km s$^{-1}$ and column densities of $\log(N_h) \sim 20 - 23$ cm$^{-2}$, they are weak, providing only $\sim 0.01\%$ of the AGN bolometric luminosity (Blustin et al. 2005). The more powerful winds seen in several objects with outflow velocities of $\sim 0.1c$ and column densities of $\log(N_h) = 24$ cm$^{-2}$ could carry power that is a few percent of the bolometric luminosity (Pounds et al. 2003; Pounds and Reeves 2009; Reeves et al. 2003; Cappi et al. 2009; Chartas et al. 2009; Tombesi et al. 2010, 2012; Golford et al. 2013). These ultra-fast outflows (UFO) seem to be present in at least 35% of observed AGN in X-rays (Tombesi et al. 2010). However, this number could be an overestimate when alternative modeling and more conservative statistical analyses are considered (Kaspi and Behar 2006; Vaughan and Uttley 2008). Establishing how common these outflows are, their physical and geometrical properties is therefore crucial to understanding their contribution to the energy and momentum budget of black holes and their hosts. In this letter, we present analysis of the NuSTAR (Harrison et al. 2013) observation of the quasar PG 1211+143. NuSTAR band (3 – 79 keV) with the unprecedented sensitivity at hard (> 10 keV) X-rays, fixes the continuum and thus allows a meaningful search for blue-shifted absorption below 10 keV.

PG 1211+143 ($z = 0.0809$) is the archetypical case for the ultra-fast outflows in active galaxies. The first observation with XMM-Newton in 2001 showed evidence for highly blue-shifted absorption lines that are reminiscent of mildly relativistic disk winds ($\sim 0.1c$; Pounds et al. 2003). The same dataset was analyzed by Kaspi and Behar (2006) who find a best fit outflow velocity of 3000 km s$^{-1}$ instead of the high 24,000 km s$^{-1}$. A Chandra LETG observation showed two redshifted (instead of blueshifted!) absorption lines at 4.56 and 5.33 keV in the source frame (Reeves et al. 2005), which, when identified...
as the H-like Kα lines corresponds to inflowing velocities of \((0.2 - 0.4) c\). Later XMM-Newton observations in 2004 and 2007 showed weaker lines but seem to be consistent with the original observations (Pounds and Reeves 2009), or possibly with no absorption lines at all (Tombesi et al. 2010).

2. OBSERVATIONS & DATA REDUCTION

NuSTAR observed PG 1211+143 in four exposures between February and July 2014 (the exact dates are: 18 February 2014, 08 and 09 April 2014 and 07 July 2014). The four observations had net exposures 111, 48, 64 and 74 ks, totaling to nearly 300 ks. The data were reduced using HEASOFT v6.16 with the latest calibration (version 20141020). We used the scripts nupipeline and nuproducts to extract the spectral products. Source and background spectra were extracted from regions on (with a radius of 2 arcmin) and off source respectively and grouped so that there are at least 100 source counts per bin. The spectra were analyzed using XSPEC v12.8.2. Spectral analysis was performed on individual and combined spectra as discussed in section 3. Spectra from the two focal point modules A and B (FPMA and FPMB) and from different epochs were combined using addspec tool in HEASOFT. The response files were combined using addrmf with the proper weighting.

The resulting 3–30 keV light curves from the four exposures are shown in Fig. 1 left. The average 3–10 flux (from a power-law fit) is \(2.7 \times 10^{-12}\) ergs cm\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\) which is about the same as the first XMM-Newton observation of 2001, which had a 3–10 keV flux of \(2.5 \times 10^{-12}\) ergs cm\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\). The source showed some flux variability between observations. No strong spectral changes are seen apart from a normalization change in the main power-law continuum (see section 3).

3. SPECTRAL ANALYSIS

One of the goals of the NuSTAR observation was to search for absorption lines from high velocity outflows. The spectrum from the new datasets is shown in Fig. 1 right. It has a clear iron K emission line and an excess above 10 keV that is most likely due to the Compton reflection hump. To be systematic in the search, we consider several baseline models, including simple fits to the 3–10 keV band so we can directly compare with the baseline model used in Tombesi et al. (2010).

3.1. Searching for Emission and Absorption Features

In the following discussions, we search for absorption (and emission) features by adding a narrow Gaussian line and doing a systematic scan of the residuals for each baseline model. We use a grid of energies between 3.5 and 9.5 keV in 100 eV steps, and normalization values between \(-1 \times 10^{-3}\) and \(1 \times 10^5\) (to account for both emission and absorption). We use a Monte Carlo method to obtain significance estimates. As pointed out in Pro-tassov et al. (2002), a simple F-test done by comparing the improvement in \(\chi^2\) after adding a Gaussian line is not appropriate for obtaining meaningful statistical confidence intervals. The baseline model is not known a priori, and neither is the reference (null) distribution of the F-statistic.

This inapplicability of the F-test is not related to the quality of data, but rather it is fundamental to any case of an added spectral component. Using Monte Carlo methods provides a way of estimating the unknown reference distribution and then using it to assess the significance of deviations from the null model. The following steps are used to obtain a reference distribution that takes into account both the uncertainty in the baseline model parameters. These are similar to those in Porquet et al. (2004) and Tombesi et al. (2010) but additionally take into account the baseline model uncertainties:

A) Start with a baseline model with its best fit \(\chi^2\) and covariance matrix that encodes the uncertainty of best value parameters.
B) Draw \(N\) random sets of parameters using the covariance matrix (\(N = 1000\) in our case). This can be achieved for instance by running a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) parameter search and taking parameters directly from the resulting chains (after they have converged).
C) For each parameter set, fake spectra using the observed response and background files. This produces \(N\) simulated spectra that are drawn from the baseline model

If a broad component is present in the residuals, several neighboring narrow lines will provide a \(\chi^2\) improvements.
For models in 2, 3 and 4, the whole NuSTAR and xillver 5.8 keV persists for the emission feature at 5.8 keV. The same feature at 3–10 keV band with no significant residuals. In the reflionx gives an excellent description to the data in the 3–10 keV band where the emission feature that is persistent with all baseline models account for the Fe Kα emission.

Several baseline models are used to assess their effect on estimating absorption features:

1. powerlaw + zgauss. This consists of a power-law plus a broad Gaussian fitted to the 3–10 keV spectrum similar to those used in Tombesi et al. (2010) and Gofford et al. (2013).
2. powerlaw+reflionx (Ross and Fabian 2005).
3. powerlaw+xillver (García et al. 2014).
4. relxill (Dauser et al. 2013).

For models in 2, 3 and 4, the whole NuSTAR band where the source is significantly detected above background is used. In all models, Galactic absorption is fixed at 2.7 × 10^{20} cm^{-2}. For the relativistic reflection models, we assume a power-law emissivity and we fit for its index (q) along with the black hole spin, photon index, ionization parameter, iron abundance, inclination, high energy cutoff and reflection fraction. The details of the model parameters are shown in Table 1. For each baseline model, we repeat steps A-D. The results are shown in Fig. 2.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E_gauss</th>
<th>powerlaw+zgauss (3–10 keV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\sigma_{gauss}</td>
<td>6.28 ± 0.07 keV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\Delta \chi^2</td>
<td>0.33 ± 0.07 keV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\chi^2</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\Gamma</td>
<td>2.45 ± 0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log(\xi)</td>
<td>1.9 ± 0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\chi^2</td>
<td>0.5 ± 0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\Gamma</td>
<td>2.50 ± 0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log(\xi)</td>
<td>1.3 ± 0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\chi^2</td>
<td>reilxill (3–50 keV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>2.2 ± 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>-0.13 ± 0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incl.</td>
<td>28 ± 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\Gamma</td>
<td>2.51 ± 0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log(\xi)</td>
<td>1.3 ± 0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\chi^2</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\chi^2</td>
<td>E_{cut} (124 keV) (lower limit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\chi^2</td>
<td>2.9_{−0.4}^{+1.6}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.2. Line Search Results

It is clear from Fig. 2 that there is no significant absorption feature that is consistent with all baseline models. The phenomenological description of the first model gives an excellent description to the data in the 3–10 keV band with no significant residuals. In the reflionx fit, an absorption feature at 7.1 keV is apparent along with the emission feature at 5.8 keV. The same feature at 5.8 keV persists for the xillver fit. Both the reflionx and xillver models account for the Fe Kα emission.

For any possible flux dependency by grouping observations, taking into account its uncertainty.

D) Add a narrow Gaussian line and scan in energy and normalization and record the maximum improvement in \Delta \chi^2. This gives N values of \Delta \chi^2 that are used to construct a reference distribution to which observed \Delta \chi^2 values are compared. The significance of an observed \Delta \chi_{obs}^2 is 1 − N(\Delta \chi_{obs}^2)/N, where N(\Delta \chi_{obs}^2) is the number of simulated \Delta \chi^2 values greater than \Delta \chi_{obs}^2.

The analysis summarized in Fig. 2 was done using a line search significance plot for five baseline models. The regions with darkest colors indicate that the null model (baseline without an additional emission or absorption feature) can be rejected with that significance. The color scale corresponds to log(1 – significance) and the corresponding significance values are shown in the color bar. The energy axis corresponds to the source reset frame energy (z = 0.0869).

at 6.4 keV. The residuals at 5.8 keV indicate that additional emission is required red-ward of the line, suggesting line broadening. If broadening is included in the fit (relxill, relxill+xillver), the feature disappears.

The absorption in the reflionx fit at 7.1 keV disappears too when relativistic blurring is included. The last model (relxill+xillver) is included for completeness. It models reflection from the inner (with relativistic broadening) and outer regions. Although, the additional component improves the \chi^2 slightly compared to relxill alone, its requirement is not very significant. The conclusion from Fig. 2 is that absorption features depend on the chosen continuum, and when the continuum is pinned down with NuSTAR coverage at high energies and the inclusion of relativistic reflection, no significant absorption is seen.

The analysis summarized in Fig. 2 was done using a combination of all the spectra (FPMA and FPMB from four observations) to obtain the best signal. We tested for any possible flux dependency by grouping observa-
3.3. Comparison with XMM-Newton

The first XMM-Newton observation in 2001 showed an absorption line at ~7.1 keV in the observer’s frame plus possible additional lines at lower energies [Pounds et al., 2003]. We reanalyzed this XMM-Newton dataset using the same method discussed in section 3.1 and find the line at ~7.5 keV to be significant at the ~99% level with an equivalent width of 104 ± 52 eV. The flux levels of the first XMM-Newton observation and the NuSTAR observation discussed here are comparable; therefore, we also assess whether an absorption line similar to that seen in XMM-Newton would have been detectable in the current NuSTAR data. We fitted the XMM-Newton PN spectrum with a model consisting of a power-law, relativistic reflection and an absorption line. We then used this model to fake NuSTAR data, and followed the procedure of section 3.1 to search for absorption line. The line is detected significantly in this simulated data showing that an absorption line would have been easily (>8σ significance) detected if it was present in the data. Adding a Gaussian line to our best fit model (relxill) with the energy and the width of absorption line seen in the XMM-Newton spectrum provides a fit improvement of Δχ² = 3 for one degree of freedom. The equivalent width of this line is 22 ± 22 eV.

Subsequent to the first observation, XMM-Newton observed PG 1211+143 several times, and when we analyze these observations self-consistently, none of them show any significant absorption features when using a baseline model consisting of a power-law and a relativistic line.

3.4. Relativistic Reflection Parameters

The best fit model to the NuSTAR data, shown in Fig. 3 consists of an absorbed power-law and relativistic reflection, both modeled with relxill. Only data below 10 keV are shown to highlight the differences among models. As was clear from Fig. 2 the data show an excess at ~5 keV when fitted with simple reflection models. The addition of relativistic blurring (relxill) accounts for the excess. The data, however, do not allow very strong constraints on the spin of the black hole. The parameters of the best fit model are shown in Table 1.

If we fit for the inner radius of emission instead of the black hole spin, we obtain the marginal probability contours shown in the bottom panel of Fig. 3. This figure is obtained by running a Monte Carlo Markov Chain [11] on the best fit relxill to obtain posterior probability distributions of the fit parameters and then marginalize over the parameters that are not of interest. The inner radius of emission and emissivity index are degenerate in the fit, but it is clear that although the extra broadening of the Fe Kα line is required, it is not very large. The inner radius of emission ranges from ~4 to 40 gravitational radii (r_g = GM/c²) depending on the disk emissivity. The solution with a steep emissivity and large radii might be unphysical, and although this data do not allow us to

---

We use xspec_emcee available from: https://github.com/jeremysanders/xspec_emcee

---
ence of a steady or variable ultra-fast outflow seen previously in this source. The limits are particularly tight once disk reflection has been modeled.

\textit{NuSTAR} clearly has the sensitivity and spectral resolution required to detect extraordinary outflows, when they are present. Observations of PDS 456, for instance, reveal a likely P-Cygni profile in that quasar, signaling a massive and powerful outflow from that black hole into its host galaxy (Nardini et al. 2014, submitted). \textit{NuSTAR} spectra from observations of NGC 1365 were able to disentangle variable absorption, outflows, and disk reflection in that source, leading to a robust measure of the black hole spin (Risaliti et al. 2013; Walton et al. 2014). At the opposite end of the mass scale, \textit{NuSTAR} observations of the black hole candidate 4U 1630−472 revealed strong absorption that may be a UFO-like outflow, in addition to disk reflection (King et al. 2014). The true extent of these ultra-fast outflows and their persistence is unclear.

The non-detection of ultra-fast outflows in the prototypical object PG 1211+143 in the current observation (and also previous observations subsequent to the first \textit{XMM-Newton} detection) raises several questions on how common these might be in this and other sources. Systematic searches suggest that \( \sim 40\% \) of objects observed with \textit{XMM-Newton} and \textit{Suzaku} show them (Tombesi et al. 2010; Gofford et al. 2013). This number could be much lower if a careful statistical search is performed that takes into account physical baseline models along with their observational uncertainties. This comes in the form of including the best fit uncertainties in simulating spectra during the Monte Carlo tests and also allowing for that uncertainty when fitting for narrow features at arbitrary energies in the spectrum.

The true extent of UFO's could be affected by the significance of any single detection, which we have discussed, and also by their variability. A non-detection could simply be due to the fact they are transient in nature as suggested by the the simulations (Proga and Kallman 2004). The case of PG 1211+143 shows that the UFO is seen in one out of eleven observations (\textit{XMM-Newton}, \textit{Suzaku}, \textit{Chandra} and \textit{NuSTAR}) between 2001 and 2014. With the caveat that we still have small numbers, if one assumes the observations are done randomly as far as the AGN is concerned, it appears that a variability argument would also suggest that the contribution of UFO's is an order of magnitude lower than previously inferred.

\textbf{ACKNOWLEDGMENT}

This work made use of data from the \textit{NuSTAR} mission, a project led by the California Institute of Technology, managed by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, and funded by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

\textbf{REFERENCES}


Tombesi, F., Cappi, M.; Reeves, J. N., and Braito, V.: 2012, \textit{MNRAS} \textbf{422}, L1

