KEPLER OBSERVATIONS OF RAPID OPTICAL VARIABILITY IN ACTIVE GALACTIC NUCLEI

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ABSTRACT

Over three quarters in 2010–2011, Kepler monitored optical emission from four active galactic nuclei (AGNs) with ~30 minute sampling, >90% duty cycle, and ≤0.1% repeatability. These data determined the AGN optical fluctuation power spectral density (PSD) functions over a wide range in temporal frequency. Fits to these PSDs yielded power-law slopes of −2.6 to −3.3, much steeper than typically seen in the X-rays. We find evidence that individual AGNs exhibit intrinsically different PSD slopes. The steep PSD fits are a challenge to recent AGN variability models but seem consistent with first-order magnetorotational instability theoretical calculations of accretion disk fluctuations.

Key words: accretion, accretion disks – black hole physics – galaxies: active – galaxies: Seyfert

Online-only material: color figures

1. INTRODUCTION

The optical continuum from active galactic nuclei (AGNs) is believed to be dominated by emission from an accretion disk surrounding a supermassive black hole and can be adequately modeled as radiation from a simple Shakura–Sunyaev disk (Edelson & Malkan 1986). Because this region is too small to image (except via gravitational lensing; Kochanek 2004), indirect methods must be used to probe its structure and physical conditions. One of the best probes is provided by the strong variability seen throughout the optical/ultraviolet/X-ray bands in most AGNs. However, limitations with many ground-based optical data sets have made it difficult to obtain accurate, densely, and regularly sampled data sets covering the large range of timescales necessary to constrain disk physics and search for characteristic times which may be related to orbital, dynamic, or other expected timescales. In particular, diurnal and weather-related interruptions can severely degrade the ground-based sampling pattern and atmospheric seeing introduces photometric errors that are much larger than the Kepler uncertainties and often are as large as or larger than the intrinsic short timescale optical source variability. However, ground-based data have sampled much longer timescales than are available in the present Kepler data sets.

The natural timescales for a disk—light-crossing ($t_l$), dynamical ($t_{dyn}$), and thermal ($t_{th}$) timescales—are set by the black hole mass and the accretion processes (Frank et al. 2002). The order of magnitude estimates for these timescales are $t_l = 2.6 M_7 R_{100}^{3/2} hr$, $t_{dyn} = 10 M_7 R_{100}^{3/2}$ days, $t_{th} = 0.46 M_7 R_{100}^{3/2} \alpha_0^{-1}$ yr, where $M_7$ is the black hole mass in units of $10^7 M_\odot$, $R_{100}$ is the emission distance in units of 100 times the Schwarzschild radius $2GM/c^2$, and $\alpha_0$ is the Shakura–Sunyaev viscosity parameter (Shakura & Sunyaev 1973) divided by 100. For assumed Eddington ratios of 0.01–0.1 and mass ranges of $10^6$–$10^9 M_\odot$, typical for AGNs, these natural timescales range from hours to years. Previous data have been unable to constrain the optical time variability over this wide range for any individual AGN. The Kepler mission (Borucki et al. 2010) provides a solution to these observational difficulties. Kepler has been observing a ~115 deg$^2$ region of sky, monitoring ~165,000 sources every 29.4 minutes with unprecedented stability (≤0.1% for a 15th magnitude source) and high (>90%) duty cycle over a period of years. During Q6 (Quarter 6; UT 2010 June 24–September 22), Q7 (2010 September 23–December 22), and Q8 (2010 December 22–2011 March 24), the Kepler target list included at least four variable AGNs from our guest observer program. This Letter reports initial results of Q6–Q8 (and in one instance Q4) observations of these Kepler AGNs, focusing on fluctuation power spectral density (PSD) analysis. The source selection, data collection, and reduction are given in Section 2; the time series analysis and results are reported in Section 3; implications are discussed in Section 4; and brief conclusions are given in Section 5.

2. DATA

2.1. Source Selection

Because it lies at low galactic latitudes not systematically covered by major extragalactic/AGN surveys, the Kepler field (~0.3% of the sky) currently contains only a few cataloged AGNs. (Note however that a portion of the Kepler field is covered by the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS)/SEGUE.) Targets must be identified and windows chosen before Kepler data can be downloaded. Thus, we have undertaken extensive efforts to identify AGNs in the Kepler field. This started with a database search to find previously identified AGNs. We then applied the method of Stocke et al. (1983) to the ROSAT All Sky Survey (RASS; Voges et al. 1999) to select AGN candidates based on their X-ray-to-optical flux ratio. We also used the Two Micron All Sky Survey (2MASS) all-sky survey catalog (Strutzskie et al. 2006) to identify AGN candidates based on infrared colors (Malkan 2004) and association with a RASS source.

Table 1 gives details of the “Kepler AGN” whose light curves are presented in this Letter, a sample of four variable AGNs that Kepler has been observing since Q6. Of these four, only Zw 229—15 (z = 0.0275; Falco et al. 1999; Proust 1990) had been identified as an AGN prior to the launch of Kepler. A recent reverberation mapping campaign found it had an Hβ lag of ~4 days and estimated its black hole mass at $10^7 M_\odot$ (Barth

4 http://www.sdss.org/segue/
et al. 2011). The other three AGNs in Table 1 were all discovered as a result of the search described above. (The prefix “KA” is used to designate newly identified Kepler AGNs.) Spectra of these three plus ten other newly discovered Kepler AGNs are given in R. Edelson & M. Malkan (2011, in preparation).

2.2. Kepler SAP Light Curves

The Kepler standard data processing pipeline (Jenkins et al. 2010) operates on original spacecraft data to produce calibrated pixel data (Quintana et al. 2010). The next step, PA, uses simple aperture photometry to extract “SAP_FLUX” count rates from these two-dimensional images (Twicken et al. 2011). The spacecraft does not download full CCD frames but only “postage stamp” images for the targets. Only a fraction of the downloaded pixels are used in the extraction. The next step in the standard pipeline, SAPPDC, conditions the light curves for transit searches, outputting PDC_FLUX light curves. However, no conditioning occurred for sources presented in this Letter (the SAP_FLUX and PDC_FLUX data are identical to within a constant offset), so this and all further steps are not relevant to the current work. We use SAP_FLUX count rates for our AGN light curve analyses. These light curves are presented in Figures 1 and 2.

Kepler, with its ≲0.1% repeatability, >90% duty cycle, and durations of years, explores a level of data quality superior to anything previously obtained. Thus, one must be concerned about other sources of error, especially systematic errors, in this relatively young mission. An independent check of the Kepler data is available for Zw229−15 since 2010, it was observed by both Kepler and the ground-based Lick AGN Monitoring Program (LAMP). These light curves, shown in Figure 1, indicate a very good agreement between Kepler and independent ground-based LAMP data, well within the LAMP ∼1% errors and so, at least in this case, the systematic and other errors in the Zw 229−15 data are generally no larger than the ∼1% LAMP errors.

However, the quoted Kepler errors are much smaller, and there is currently no way to be sure that systematic errors are not affecting the data at the level between ∼0.1% and ∼1%. Indeed, Figure 2 shows that small, short-term (1−2 days), discontinuities are sometimes observed following monthly data downloads or safe-mode events. This is believed to arise from thermally induced focus changes as the solar illumination changes during spacecraft slews.5 Both our group and the Kepler team are working to correct for this in future analyses. While our understanding will undoubtedly improve as the mission progresses at this stage, all that can be done at this time is to remind the reader that this, as well as other (currently unknown), systematic error could still be present in these data.

3. POWER SPECTRAL DENSITY FUNCTIONS

3.1. PSD Measurement

The optical flux variations in AGNs are aperiodic. A standard tool for characterizing such broadband (in temporal frequency) variability is the periodogram, which measures the fluctuation PSD function. AGN PSDs have been best studied in the X-rays, where the PSDs show a broad shape that has been simply characterized as a double power law that breaks from a steep red noise high-frequency slope α_H ∼−2 (S ∝f^α_H, where α is the slope, S is the spectral density, and f is the temporal frequency) to a flatter low-frequency slope α_L ∼−1, at a break frequency f_b that typically corresponds to timescales of order of a week, but scales with the mass of the black hole (e.g., Edelson & Nandra 1999; Uttley et al. 2002; Markowitz et al. 2003).

We used the Kepler SAP data to measure PSDs for all of these Kepler AGNs. Currently, large photometric offsets introduced by quarterly spacecraft rolls prevent data from being combined across quarters, so these PSDs only cover individual quarters. This problem should eventually be solved, so we will produce PSDs covering longer timescales in a future paper.

For each light curve, a first-order function was subtracted off so that the first and last points of the light curve were equal. This “end-matching” reduces artificial flattening due to leakage (Fougere 1985). This correction steepens the slopes by a mean value of 0.7, 0.3, 0.8, and 0.7 for Zw 229−15, KA 1925+50, KA 1858+48, and KA 1904+37, respectively. Fractional normalization was used, so the resulting power density has units of rms^2 Hz^−1.

The resulting PSDs (see Figure 3), fitted with a single power law (S ∝f^α) plus noise model on temporal frequencies of ∼4 × 10^{-7} to ∼4 × 10^{-5} Hz (corresponding to timescales of ∼6 hr to ∼1 month), are very steep with slopes from α = −2.6 to −3.3.

3.2. Error Analysis

These PSDs also allow a check of the true noise level in the light curves. The fractional error (err_dir = (err) / (flux)) is reported in Column 4 of Table 2. Using the formula of Vaughan 5 http://archive.stsci.edu/kepler/release_notes/release_notes5/Data_Release_05_2010060414.pdf.
Figure 1. Kepler Q6 (top) and Q7 (bottom) light curves of the narrow-line Seyfert 1 galaxy Zw 229−15 (in black). Each panel contains over 4200 cadences, gathered one every ∼30 minutes, with a precision of ∼0.1%; a typical error bar can be is seen in the outlier at TJD ∼ 539. There are monthly ∼1 day data download gaps (e.g., TJD ∼ 431 and 524), but the overall duty cycle is >90%. Note that the ∼8% flux discontinuity between Q6 and Q7 as the quarterly spacecraft roll moves the source onto a different chip and a new SAP aperture is used. Note also the excellent agreement with simultaneous ground-based LAMP data (shown in red; Barth et al. 2011), scaled to account for different aperture sizes.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)
Figure 2. (a) Q6–Q8 light curves for four variable Kepler AGNs. A 1% bar is shown for scale. Q8 data were not obtained for KA 1858 + 48 because it fell on the defective Module 3. Kepler observations of KA 1904 + 37 did not begin until Q7. Arbitrary offsets have been applied to match light curves across quarterly transitions (the dotted lines at TJD ∼ 462 and 552). Note the 16 day gap due to a safe-mode event at the beginning of Q8; this makes the offset for that quarter highly uncertain. Note also that light curves occasionally show ∼1% discontinuities immediately following monthly data downloads or safe-mode events (e.g., TJD ∼ 568 and 586 in KA 1925 + 50, and TJD ∼ 432 in Zw 229−15 and KA 1858 + 48) due to thermally induced focus changes. (b) Same as panel (a) but for the Zw 229−15 Q4 data.

et al. (2003), we derived err ind = sqrt(⟨err²⟩/⟨flux⟩²) from the PSD, given in Column 5. This reduces to the same quantity ((err)/⟨flux⟩) in the limit of small fluctuations in the fluxes and errors, as is the case with these data. The errors derived from the PSD analysis are typically ∼25% larger than the quoted light curve errors. This indicates that the quoted errors are slightly underestimated and that no other source of systematics dominates the quoted errors.
The PSD slopes for each quarter (listed in Table 2) show small scatter for individual objects. It is difficult to directly measure reliable errors on derived PSD slopes, but an estimate is provided by the observed dispersion for individual objects. For the two sources with the most data, Zw 229−15 and KA 1925+50, the mean slope and associated standard deviations are (alpha) = −3.11 ± 0.15 and −2.67 ± 0.08. These differ by ∼2.5 standard deviations, suggesting, at very marginal significance, that the intrinsic difference between the derived slopes for these objects is larger than the associated errors. (The quoted uncertainties are standard deviations of the distributions of the PSD slopes for different quarters) Note that without the red noise leak correction, the standard deviations for these two sources would have been 0.58 and 0.22, respectively, so our correction successfully reproduces similar PSD slopes between the various quarters for each source. Since PSD analyses are notoriously susceptible to analytical systematics (see, e.g., Vaughan et al. 2003) and there is the possibility that currently unknown systematic errors could affect these new Kepler data (see Section 2.2), the agreement in slope from quarter to quarter provides a degree of confidence that the observed steep slopes are accurate.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Comparison to Previous Results

4.1.1. Optical Data

Kepler light curves are of much higher quality and sampling rate than previous data. For example: in the data used by Kelly et al. (2009) the highest photometric quality is from the MACHO survey of Geha et al. (2003) which has ∼5% photometric errors and 600 good photometric measurements over 7.5 yr, and thus samples at ∼1 point every 4.5 days compared to the 0.1% Kepler errors and 1 data point roughly every 30 minutes. Previous attempts to derive the PSD over a wide range of timescales have had to combine the data from many objects and several surveys (Hawkins 2002) or have relied on relatively sparsely sampled data, from several different telescopes (Breedt et al. 2010).

Previous results (e.g., Kelly et al. 2009) tend to find best-fitting PSDs with slopes of ∼−1.8 for the collective sample, rather flatter than what we have found. Since the Kepler PSDs cannot continue to very low frequencies with such steep slopes without implying very large variability amplitudes, there must be a break at timescales >1 month, which may make the Kepler PSDs consistent with previous work. It is not surprising that the results of our observations are rather different from what has been published previously—the other observations could not see the effects we are detecting. While there is a formal overlap in sampled timescales between our Kepler and other data, the much larger error bars for the previous PSDs (e.g., Breedt et al. 2010) at characteristic frequencies above ∼a few ×10−5 Hz makes comparison difficult. However, for at least one object, NGC 4051 (Breedt et al. 2010), the observed PSD in the 10−6−10−8 Hz is well determined and is flatter than our Kepler results for all of our objects. One possible explanation for the differences may lie in the different luminosities or Eddington ratios of the objects, since NGC 4051 is significantly less luminous and probably less massive than the objects in our sample.

4.1.2. X-Ray Data

Although the particular Seyfert 1s in our sample do not have measured X-ray PSDs, many other Seyfert 1s have had X-ray PSDs measured over these timescales. These are always much flatter, typically having high frequency slopes of −1 to −2 (Edelson & Nandra 1999; Uttley et al. 2002; Markowitz et al. 2003). Thus, our measurement of steep optical PSDs on short timescales is somewhat surprising because it is so different from that measured in the X-rays, and because Seyfert 1 optical and X-ray light curves appear to track well, at least on longer timescales (Uttley et al. 2003).

4.2. Physical Implications for Accretion Disks

The characteristic timescales of the fluctuations should correspond to different physical mechanisms which may be related to the size of the system, the dynamical timescales, epicyclic frequencies, g-modes, or other characteristic timescales that may influence the source of the variance. Since the source of the accreting material in AGNs is not known, it is unclear if the source of the perturbations is changes in the accretion flow, the turbulence due to physics in the disk itself (from the magnetorotational instability (MRI) mechanism, e.g., Reynolds & Miller 2009b; Noble & Krolik 2009), or perhaps other physics. As shown by McNulty et al. (2006), the characteristic timescale seen in the X-ray PSDs is related to the AGN mass and the accretion rate. However, it is not known if this is also true for the optical PSDs (MacLeod et al. 2010).

Recent ground-based optical observations (e.g., Kelly et al. 2009, MacLeod et al. 2010) are consistent with a damped random walk model. However those light curves are sampled irregularly and more sparsely than these Kepler data (see Figure 2 in Kozlowski et al. 2010). Our PSDs are not consistent with the predicted high-frequency slope of −2. However, since there is very little overlap in frequencies and our sample size is much smaller direct comparison is difficult. Our data are just
capable of reaching the light travel time size of the disks on our sampled AGNs. The effective size of the region emitting radiation at a given frequency is (Baganoff & Malkan 1995)

\[ r_{1/2} = 7.5 \times 10^{23} \epsilon^{-1/3} v^{-4/3} (M/M_\odot)^{-1/3} (L/L_{\text{Edd}})^{1/3} r_G, \]

where \( r_G \) is the Schwarzschild radius, \( \epsilon \) is the accretion efficiency, and \( v \) is the effective observing frequency of the data. Utilizing an effective wavelength of 5000 Å, mass of 1 \( \times 10^7 M_\odot \) (Barth et al. 2011), and Eddington ratio of 0.05 we find an effective light travel time \( (r_{1/2}/c) \) of \( \sim 1 \) day which is close to our white noise limit of 0.25 days. The four sources in this Letter span only one order of magnitude in X-ray luminosity \( (\log L(x) = 42.6 - 43.6) \) and thus, probably, a small range in mass. In principle, it is possible to use magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) calculations to estimate the shape and slope of the PSD expected from fluctuations within accretion disks. Although such modeling is still in its early days, several estimates of the expected PSD slopes are currently available. In these models the underlying physical drivers for variability in the light curve are variations in the accretion rate caused by the chaotic character of MHD turbulence. Noble & Krolik (2009) simulate emission from the corona appropriate to the X-ray emission and thus it is not clear if their simulation is appropriate for our results and Chan et al. (2009) focus on Sgr A* which seems to be accreting in a different mode than the Seyfert 1s in our sample. Reynolds & Miller (2009a) show PSDs of the mass accretion rate whose high frequency slopes \( \sim -2.9 \), very close to those seen in our observations. However, their simulation was only run for a relatively short time \( (\sim 1.2 \times 10^4 GM/c^2) \) which corresponds to 14 days for objects of the mass of Zw 229–15.

All simulations so far suffer from the fundamental problem that to compare them with observations, one has to convert the simulated disk characteristics into a radiation flux spectrum and thus it is not clear that the proxies for emission developed so far are appropriate. This problem is fully recognized by the simulators and thus, in general, they have been loath to directly compare to the data.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Power spectral analysis of four AGNs observed by Kepler during Q6–Q8 show very steep (\( \alpha \sim -2.6 \) to \(-3.1 \)) slopes, considerably steeper than that seen in the X-rays. The PSDs for each source are consistent from quarter to quarter and, at \( >2\sigma \) confidence, are different from each other. Analysis of these high quality light curves indicates that the influence of systematic errors is rather small; additionally, direct comparison of Kepler and LAMP monitoring of Zw 229–15 shows excellent agreement. Comparison with analytic models of AGN variability shows steeper than predicted slopes; however, comparison with MHD simulations seems to show better agreement. Further analysis of other characteristics of the light curve, longer time series, the analysis of more objects, and the comparison to semi-analytic models of time variability will be the subject of future papers. We hope that these new high quality Kepler data will stimulate the calculation of the time series from accretion disks.

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