WHY CAN WE DETECT QUASAR BR1202−0725 IN CO ?

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Received __________________; accepted PASJ
ABSTRACT

We present CO luminosity evolution of both elliptical and spiral galaxies based on a galactic wind model and a bulge-disk model, respectively. We have found that the CO luminosity peaks around the epoch of galactic wind caused by collective supernovae $\sim 0.85$ Gyr after the birth of the elliptical with $M = 2 \cdot 10^{12} M_\odot$ while $\sim 0.36$ Gyr after the birth of the bulge with $M = 2 \cdot 10^{11} M_\odot$. After these epochs, the CO luminosity decreases abruptly because the majority of molecular gas was expelled from the galaxy system as the wind. Taking account of typical masses of elliptical galaxies and bulges of spiral galaxies, we suggest that CO emission can be hardly detected from galaxies with redshift $z \sim 1 - 4$ unless some amplification either by galaxy mergers and/or by gravitational lensing is working. Therefore, our study explains reasonably why CO emission was detected from the high-redshift quasar BR 1202−0725 at $z = 4.7$ while not detected from the powerful radio galaxies with $1 < z < 4$.

Subject headings: cosmology: observations - galaxies: evolution - galaxies: formation - galaxies - nuclei of - Radio lines: CO - Radio sources: AGNs
1. INTRODUCTION

The formation and evolution of galaxies is one of the fundamental problems in astrophysics. The recent deep imaging of very faint galaxies made with Hubble Space Telescope (Williams et al. 1996) and the detection of CO emission from a high-z quasar BR 1202−0725 at \( z = 4.69 \) (Ohta et al. 1996; Omont et al. 1996) have encouraged us to study the problem mentioned above. Since the galaxies should form from gaseous system, it is important to investigate the major epoch of star formation in the gas system and to study how stars have been made during the course of galaxy evolution. When we study evolution of galaxies, we usually use stellar lights as the tracer of evolution (cf. Tinsley 1980; Arimoto & Yoshii 1986, 1987; Bruzual & Charlot 1993). However, much data of interstellar medium (ISM) of galaxies from X-ray emitting hot gas through warm HI gas to cold molecular gas and dust have been accumulated for these decades (cf. Wiklind & Henkel 1989; Lees et al. 1991; Fabbiano, Kim, & Trinchier 1992; Kim, Fabbiano, & Trinchier 1992; Wang, Kenney, & Ishizuki 1992). Therefore, the time is ripe to begin the study of evolution of ISM of galaxies from the epoch of galaxy formation to the present day for both elliptical and disk galaxies.

In this Paper, appreciating the recent detection of CO emission from the high-z quasar BR 1202−0725 (Ohta et al. 1996; Omont et al. 1996), we discuss the evolution of molecular gas content in galaxies. Since active galactic nuclei (AGN) are associated with their host galaxies, the CO luminosity of AGN depends on the gaseous content of their host galaxies. Therefore, any observations of molecular-line emission from high-z objects are very useful in studying evolution of molecular gas content in galaxies\(^1\). In spite of the successful CO

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\(^1\)Besides the CO detection from BR 1202−0725, there are two more successful detections of CO from high-z objects; 1) the hyperluminous infrared galaxy IRAS F10214+4725 at \( z = 2.286 \) (Brown & Vanden Bout 1991; Solomon, Downes, & Radford 1992; Tsuboi & Nakai
detection from BR 1202–0725, Evans et al. (1996) reported the negative CO detection from 11 high-\(z\) (1 < \(z\) < 4) powerful radio galaxies (PRGs) and gave the upper limits of order \(M_{\text{H}_2} \sim 10^{11} M_\odot\) (hereafter \(H_0 = 50 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}\) and \(q_0 = 0.5\)), being comparable to or larger than that of BR 1202–0725 (Ohta et al. 1996; Omont et al. 1996).

Here a question arises as why CO emission was detected from the high-\(z\) quasar at \(z = 4.69\) while not detected from the high-\(z\) (1 < \(z\) < 4) PRGs. There may be two alternative answers: 1) The host galaxies are different between quasars and PRGs in terms of molecular gas contents. Or, 2) although the host galaxies are basically similar between quasars and PRGs, their evolutionary stages are different and thus the molecular gas contents are systematically different between the two classes. Provided that the current unified model for quasars and radio galaxies (Barthel 1989) is also applicable to high-\(z\) populations, it is unlikely that their host galaxies are significantly different. Since it is usually considered that luminous AGNs like quasars and PRGs are associated with either massive ellipticals or bulges of disk galaxies as well as merger nuclei, the evolution of ISM would be rapidly proceeded during the era of spheroidal component formation. Therefore, we investigate the latter possibility (i.e., evolutionary effect) and discuss some implications on the evolution of ISM in galaxies.

1992; Radford et al. 1996), and 2) the Cloverleaf quasar H1413+135 at \(z = 2.556\) (Barvanis et al. 1994). Since, however, these two sources are gravitationally amplified ones (Elston, Thompson, & Hill 1994; Soifer et al. 1995; Trentham 1995; Graham & Liu 1995; Broadhurst & Lehár 1995; Serjeant et al. 1995; Close et al. 1995), we do not use these data in this study because there may be uncertainty in the amplification factor.
2. MODELS

Assuming that the luminous AGNs are harbored in giant elliptical galaxies and/or in bulges of spiral galaxies, we investigate the evolution of CO luminosity based on a galactic wind model for elliptical galaxies proposed by Arimoto & Yoshii (1987) and a bulge-disk model for spiral galaxies by Arimoto & Jablonka (1991). The so-called infall model of galaxy chemical evolution is adopted for both spheroidals and disks and time variations of gas mass and gas metallicity, in particular log(O/H), are calculated numerically by integrating usual differential equations for chemical evolution without introducing the instantaneous recycling approximation for stellar lifetime. Model parameters, such as star formation rate (SFR) \( k \), a slope of initial mass function (IMF) \( x \), and gas accretion rate (ACR) \( a \), are taken from Arimoto & Yoshii (1987) and Arimoto & Jablonka (1991). The lower and upper stellar mass limits are set to be \( m_{\ell} = 0.1 \, M_{\odot} \) and \( m_{u} = 60 \, M_{\odot} \), respectively.

According to Jablonka, Martin, & Arimoto (1996), who found that the \( M_{g2} - \log \sigma \) relation of bulges are exactly identical to that of elliptical galaxies, we consider that bulges are small ellipticals of equivalent luminosity and that both spheroidal systems share the similar history of star formation. Thus, for ellipticals and bulges, we assume that the remaining gas is expelled completely after the onset of galactic wind, which takes place once the thermal energy released from supernovae exceeds the binding energy of the gas. The wind times, \( t_{gw} = 0.85 \, \text{Gyr} \) for giant ellipticals (\( M_{\text{init}} = 2 \cdot 10^{12} \, M_{\odot} \)) and \( t_{gw} = 0.36 \, \text{Gyr} \) for bulges (\( M_{\text{init}} = 2 \cdot 10^{11} \, M_{\odot} \)), are taken from Arimoto & Yoshii (1987).

For spiral galaxies, assuming that the bulge and disk evolve independently, we construct a model by combining the bulge and disk models with \( M_{\text{init}} = 2 \cdot 10^{11} \, M_{\odot} \) and \( 10^{11} \, M_{\odot} \), respectively. This model gives \( M_v = -20.97 \, \text{mag} \) for the bulge and \( M_v = -20.87 \, \text{mag} \) for the disk at the age of 15 Gyr old (Arimoto & Jablonka 1991). The bulge-to-disk light ratio in V-band is \( L_b/L_d \simeq 1 \), nearly twice of typical values for early type spirals (Simien & de
The $L_{\text{CO}}$ of a model galaxy can be calculated from molecular hydrogen mass by using the empirical CO–to–$\text{H}_2$ conversion factor ($X^*$). Arimoto, Sofue & Tsujimoto (1995) showed that $X^*$ strongly depends on the gas metallicity and derived the following relationship valid for nearby spirals and irregular galaxies:

$$\log X^* = -1.0(12 + \log \text{O/H}) + 9.30, \quad (1)$$

where $X^* \times 10^{20} \text{ H}_2/ \text{ K km s}^{-1} = N_{\text{H}_2}/I_{\text{CO}}$ and O/H is the oxygen abundance of HII regions. We introduce a fractional mass of hydrogen molecule to that of atomic hydrogen, $f_{\text{mol}} \equiv M_{\text{H}_2}/M_{\text{HI}}$, and write the CO luminosity in K km s$^{-1}$ pc$^2$ as follows:

$$1.6 \cdot X^* \cdot L_{\text{CO}} = M_{\text{H}_2} = M_{\text{HI}} \cdot f_{\text{mol}} \quad (2)$$

where $M_{\text{HI}}$ and $M_{\text{H}_2}$ are in $M_\odot$.

Chemical evolution model gives $M_{\text{HI}}$ and O/H as a function of time and the CO luminosity evolution can be traced with a help of Eq.(2) provided that $f_{\text{mol}}$ is known a priori. We assume time invariant $f_{\text{mol}}$ throughout the course of galaxy evolution. In

The CO luminosity $L_{\text{CO}}$ refers to that of CO($J=1-0$). Note that the $L_{\text{CO}}$ of high-$z$ galaxies are measured by using much higher transitions such as $J=3-2$, 4-3, and so on. However, it is known that that local CO-rich galactic nuclei and starburst nuclei have $L_{\text{CO}}(J=3-2)/L_{\text{CO}}(J=1-0) \simeq 1$ (Devereux et al. 1994; Israel & van der Werf 1996). Therefore high-$z$ analogs may have the similar properties. In fact, two high-$z$ objects IRAS F10214+4724 and H1413+117 have $L_{\text{CO}}(J=4-3)/L_{\text{CO}}(J=3-2) \simeq 1$ and $L_{\text{CO}}(J=6-5)/L_{\text{CO}}(J=3-2) \simeq 0.6 - 1$ (see Table 1 of Israel & van der Werf). Thus, the uncertainty due to use of higher transition data may be 50 percent at most, when we compare model $L_{\text{CO}}(J=1-0)$ and the observed $L_{\text{CO}}$ at higher transitions.
principle, $f_{\text{mol}}$ itself should evolve as well, since the hydrogen molecule is newly produced on the surface of dust ejected from evolving stars and/or formed in expanding shells of supernovae remnants while at the same time a part of molecules are dissociated by UV photons emitted from young hot stars. The mass of dust and the number of UV photons should also evolve as a result of galactic chemical evolution (Honma, Sofue, & Arimoto 1995). Detailed evolution of $f_{\text{mol}}$ will be shown in our subsequent paper (Ikuta et al. 1997), instead in this paper we assume $f_{\text{mol}} = 0.2$. Recent studies of nearby ellipticals suggest $f_{\text{mol}} \simeq 0.05 - 0.5$ (Wiklind & Rydbeck 1986; Sage & Wrobel 1989; Lees et al. 1991; Eckart, Cameron, & Genzel 1991). The contribution of helium to the gas mass is entirely ignored for simplicity, but our conclusions change little even if the evolution of helium gas is precisely taken into account.

The formation epoch of galaxies is assumed to be $z_f = 10$. Although the choice of $z_f$ is rather arbitrary, $z_f \geq 5$ has some supports from recent studies on the metallicity of broad emission-line regions of high-$z$ quasars (Hamann & Ferland 1992, 1993; Kawara et al. 1996; Taniguchi et al. 1997).

3. RESULTS

3.1. CO in ellipticals

Figure 1 shows the result for elliptical galaxies. The thick solid line represents the galactic wind model, and the dotted line a model with continuous star formation (the wind is suppressed even after the wind criterion is satisfied). The dashed line shows a case for a wind model, but the gas ejected from evolving giants after the wind is bound and accumulated in the galaxy to form neutral gas (bound-wind model; Arimoto 1989). The CO luminosity, $L_{\text{CO}}$, of elliptical galaxies increases prominently soon after their birth, and
attains the maximum at an epoch of about 0.85 Gyr since the birth, or at $z \simeq 4$. Then, it suddenly decreases when the galactic wind has expelled the ISM from the galaxy.

The extremely luminous phase in CO observed for the high $z$ quasar BR 1202−0725 (Ohta et al. 1996; Omont et al. 1996) can be well explained, if it is in the star forming phase of the whole elliptical system. Moreover, the non-detection of the smaller redshift galaxies as observed by Evans et al. (1996) and van Ojik et al. (1997) is also naturally understood by the present model: It is because of the fact that elliptical galaxies at $z < 4$ contains little ISM.

In the figure, we also superpose CO observational data for lower redshift elliptical galaxies (Wiklind & Rydbeck 1986; Sage & Wrobel 1989; Wiklind & Henkel 1989; Eckart et al. 1991; Lees et al. 1991; Sage & Galletta 1993; Sofue & Wakamatsu 1993; Wiklind, Combes, & Henkel 1995). The theoretical curve for the bound-wind model is clearly inconsistent with the observations for galaxies at $z < 0.1$. This suggests that the gas has been expelled continuously after the galactic wind ($z \simeq 4$) and has not been bound to the system. This, in turn, is consistent with the idea that the intracluster hot gas with high metallicty, as observed in X-rays, may have been supplied by the winds from early type galaxies (Ishimaru & Arimoto 1997). Although it is not clarified how the gas has been expelled out of the galaxies, without being bound to the system, recent studies suggest that it is probably due to the energy supply from either the type Ia supernovae (Renzini et al. 1994) or the intermittent AGN activities (Ciotti & Ostriker 1997).

### 3.2. CO in spirals

Figure 2 shows the result for a spiral galaxy, where the initial masses of bulge and disk are taken to be $2 \cdot 10^{11} M_\odot$ and $10^{11} M_\odot$, respectively. The CO luminosity of the bulge evolves
in almost the same fashion as an elliptical galaxy as above: $L_{\text{CO}}$ increases rapidly after the birth, attains the maximum within 0.36 Gyr, and, then, suddenly decreases because of the strong wind from the star-forming bulge. The CO luminosity of the thus-calculated forming bulge seems insufficient to be detected as the observed luminosity of BR 1202−0725, unless the bulge is much heavier than $2 \cdot 10^{11} M_{\odot}$. Moreover, we emphasize that the duration of this bright phase in $L_{\text{CO}}$ is shorter than that obtained for ellipticals by a factor of two, and therefore, the probability to detect such CO-bright phase for a bulge would be much smaller than that for elliptical galaxies.

On the other hand, formation of the gaseous disk due to gas infall and star formation then proceeds mildly, and, therefore, the metal pollution of ISM in the disk is slower, which results in a slower increase of the CO luminosity. As a consequence, the CO luminosity increases gradually and monotonically until today. Also, the less-luminous phase due to the disk, following the wind phase of the bulge, is in agreement with the upper-limit observations of Evans et al. (1996) and van Ojik et al. (1997).

We also plot CO observations for more other nearby spiral galaxies, as plotted by filled circles (Braine et al. 1993). The evolution of the CO luminosity of these galaxies can be traced back by adjusting the present-day luminosity of the calculated track. The most luminous nearby spirals in CO is NGC 4565 ($L_{\text{CO}} \simeq 6 \cdot 10^{9} \text{ K km s}^{-1} \text{ pc}^{2}$). It is interesting to mention that, if the model is normalized to this galaxy, the peak CO luminosity corresponding to the forming bulge phase can be still sufficient to explain the luminosity of BR 1202−0725.
4. DISCUSSION

The present study has shown that the current radio telescope facilities are capable of detecting CO emission from high-redshift galaxies which experience their initial starbursts if the following two conditions are satisfied; 1) the masses of systems should exceed \( \sim 2 \times 10^{12} M_\odot \), and 2) their evolutionary phases should be prior to the galactic wind. Therefore, the detectability of CO emission from high-\( z \) galaxies is severely limited by the above two conditions. Our study suggests that CO emission can be hardly detected from galaxies with redshift \( z \sim 1 - 4 \) without an amplification either by galaxy mergers and/or by gravitational lensing. This prescription is consistent with the observations; CO emission was detected from the high-redshift quasar BR 1202−0725 at \( z = 4.7 \) (Ohta et al. 1996; Omont et al. 1996) while not detected from the radio galaxies with \( 1 < z < 4 \) (Evans et al. 1996 and van Ojik et al. 1997) and quasars with redshift \( z \sim 2 \) (Takahara et al. 1984). Further, the two convincing detections of CO emission from the high-\( z \) objects at \( z \sim 2 \), IRAS F10214+4724 (cf. Radford et al. 1996) and the Cloverleaf quasar H1413+135 (Barvanis et al. 1994), are actually gravitationally amplified sources.

The striking non-detection of high-\( z \) galaxies in CO at \( 1 < z < 4 \) implies that most elliptical galaxies and bulges of spiral galaxies were formed before \( z \sim 4 \), or high-\( z \) galaxies with \( 1 < z < 4 \) observed in the optical and infrared studies may be galaxies after the epoch of galactic wind. This implication is consistent with the formation epoch \( (z > 4) \) of high-\( z \) quasars studied by chemical properties of the broad emission-line regions (Hamann & Ferland 1992, 1993; Hill, Thompson, & Elston 1993; Elston et al. 1994; Kawara et al. 1996; Taniguchi et al. 1997). Therefore it is strongly suggested that most host galaxies of high-\( z \) AGN were formed before \( z \sim 4 \).

According to our model, it would be worth noting that quasar nuclei are hidden by the dusty clouds unless the galactic wind could expel them from the host galaxies. We also
mention that any quasar nuclei are not necessarily to associate with gas-rich circumnuclear environment though this implication is in contradiction to what suggested for low-\(z\) AGN (Yamada 1994). Therefore, it seems very lucky that the CO emission was detected from BR 1202−0725 at \(z = 4.69\).

Finally, we revisit the important question: What is BR 1202−0725? As shown in section 3, the unambiguous CO detection from BR 1202−0725 is interpreted as an initial starburst galaxy which is forming either an elliptical or a bulge with mass larger than \(\sim 2 \times 10^{12}M_\odot\). The elongated (Ohta et al. 1996) or the double-peaked (Omont et al. 1996) CO distribution may be understood as possible evidence for galactic wind in terms of our scenario. If it is an elliptical galaxy, its formation epoch is estimated to be \(z_f \sim 5−10\). However, if it were a bulge former, the mass of bulge should be comparable with that of typical ellipticals. Since such massive bulges are rarer by two orders of magnitude than elliptical with similar masses (e.g., Woltier 1990), the host of BR 1202−0725 may be an elliptical from a statistical ground.

We gratefully acknowledge T. Kodama and O. Nakamura for kindly providing us chemical evolution program packages. Our special thanks to K. Ohta, T. Yamada, and R. McMahon for fruitful discussions. We also thank T. Hasegawa and M. Honma for useful comments. This work was financially supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for the Scientific Research by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports and Science (Nos. 07044054 and 09640311).
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Figure Captions

Fig. 1.— CO luminosity evolution for elliptical galaxies. The solid line represents the galactic wind model; $M_G = 2 \cdot 10^{12} M_\odot$, $k = 10 \text{ Gyr}^{-1}$, $x = 1.10$, $a = 10 \text{ Gyr}^{-1}$, $t_{gw} = 0.85 \text{ Gyr}$, and $z_f = 10$. The dotted line gives a model with continuous star formation and the dashed line shows a case for bound-wind model. A filled square and a filled pentagon shows the observed $L_{CO}$ of the high-$z$ quasar BR 1202-0725 (Ohta et al. 1996) and the weak radio galaxy 53W002 (Scoville et al. 1997), respectively. Open triangles and open squares indicate the upper limits of negative detection from high-$z$ radio galaxies by Evans et al. (1996) and van Ojik et al. (1997). Filled circles show the $L_{CO}$ of nearby ellipticals (Wiklind & Rydbeck 1986; Sage & Wrobel 1989; Wiklind & Henkel 1989; Eckart et al. 1991; Lees et al. 1991; Sage & Galletta 1993; Sofue & Wakamatsu 1993; Wiklind, Combes & Henkel 1995) and open circles give the upper limits for non-detected elliptical galaxies (Sofue & Wakamatsu 1993; Wiklind, Combes, & Henkel 1995).

Fig. 2.— CO luminosity evolution for spiral galaxies. The solid line represents the bulge-disk model; $M_G = 2 \cdot 10^{11} M_\odot$, $k = 0.32 \text{ Gyr}^{-1}$, $x = 1.45$, $a = 0.17 \text{ Gyr}^{-1}$, and $z_f = 10$ for the disc and $M_G = 10^{11} M_\odot$, $k = 10 \text{ Gyr}^{-1}$, $x = 1.10$, $a = 10 \text{ Gyr}^{-1}$, $t_{gw} = 0.36 \text{ Gyr}$, and $z_f = 5$ for the bulge. A filled square, a filled pentagon, open triangles, and open squares are the same as in Fig.1. Small filled circles give the $L_{CO}$ of nearby spiral galaxies taken from Braine et al. (1993).
