Gamma-Ray Bursts, Supernovae and Metallicity in the Intergalactic Medium

Shlomo Dado1 *, Arnon Dar1 and A. De Rújula2
1 Physics Department and Space Research Institute Technion - Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 32000, Israel
2 Theory Unit, CERN, 1211 Geneva 23, Switzerland. Physics Department, Boston University, USA

Abstract The mean iron abundance observed in the intergalactic medium (IGM) within galaxy clusters and without galaxy clusters is consistent with the mean amount of iron per unit volume in the Universe which has been produced by standard supernova (SN) explosions with a rate proportional to the cosmic star-formation rate. If most SNe took place inside galaxies, then the IGM could have been enriched with their metals by galactic winds and jets that swept most of the galactic gas with the SNe ejecta into the IGM. A significant fraction of the early SNe, however, could have taken place outside galaxies or within dwarf galaxies, which were later disrupted by tidal interactions, and/or mass loss through fast winds, SN ejecta and jets. Little is known about such intergalactic SNe at high red-shifts. They could have occurred primarily in highly obscured environments, avoiding detection. Supporting evidence for intergalactic SNe is provided by SNe associated with gamma ray bursts (GRBs) without a host galaxy and from the ratio of well localized GRBs with and without a host galaxy. A direct test of whether a significant contribution to the iron abundance in the IGM came from intergalactic SNe would require the measurement of their rate per comoving unit volume as function of red-shift. This may be feasible with IR telescopes, such as the Spitzer Space Telescope.

Key words: supernova — gamma ray bursts — metalicity — intergalactic space

1 INTRODUCTION

Iron abundances in the hot intracluster medium (ICM) in galaxy clusters and in the intergalactic medium (IGM) have been known to be rather enriched: their typical abundance is one third of the solar one (e.g. Edge & Stewart 1991; Arnaud et al. 1992). Recent precise measurements of intracluster abundances with BeppoSAX, Chandra and XMM-Newton have confirmed that the average metallicity throughout most of the volume of galaxy clusters is \(Z \sim 0.3 \ Z_\odot\) (e.g. Balestra et al. 2007 and references therein). It has been argued that such a metallicity is several times larger than that expected from standard supernova (SN) explosions assuming standard initial mass functions (e.g., Renzini et al. 1993; Brighenti & Mathewes 1998; Maoz & Gal-Yam 2004). It was suggested (Scannapieco, Schneider & Ferrara 2003 and references therein) that such a puzzling iron enrichment of the ICM may be due to the production and dispersion of metals from explosions of Population III stars –hypothetical, extremely massive and hot stars with virtually no metal content, believed to have existed in the early universe. These stars have been invoked to account for faint blue galaxies, and the heavy elements in quasar emission spectra, which cannot be primordial. It has also been suggested that Population III stars triggered the period of reionization (Loeb & Barkana 2001 and references therein) as inferred from the measured polarization of the cosmic microwave background radiation (Barkats et al. 2005). So far, Population III stars have not been observed 1.

* E-mail: arnon@physics.technion.ac.il

1 Indirect evidence for the existence of Population III stars has been claimed from gravitational lensing of a high red-shift galaxy (Fosbury et al. 2003).
In this note we present a simple calculation which shows that the mean iron abundance observed in the IGM within galaxy clusters and without galaxy clusters is consistent with the mean amount of iron per unit volume in the Universe which has been produced by standard SN explosions with a rate proportional to the cosmic star-formation rate (see also, e.g., Maoz & Gal-Yam 2004). Such SNe could have produced the iron abundance in the ICM and IGM with no need for Population III stars, provided that their metals were transported and dispersed in the IGM. Indeed, in the local universe, the total mass of gas in spiral and elliptical galaxies is much smaller than the total mass in stars, whereas in galaxy clusters, approximately 1/6 of the baryons reside in stars within galaxies, while 5/6 are in the ICM (e.g., Ettori 2003). The simplest interpretation of these observations is that most of the gas in galaxies was swept into the IGM by winds and jets produced by star formation and stellar evolution in galaxies. These winds could have transported into the IGM the metals that were injected into the ISM of galaxies by galactic SN explosions.

In the local universe, most SN explosions take place inside galaxies. However, a significant fraction of the early SNe could have taken place also outside galaxies or within dwarf galaxies, which were later disrupted by tidal interactions, and/or mass loss through fast winds, SN ejecta and jets. Recent near-infrared (Perez-Gonzalez et al. 2005) and radio searches for SNe have shown that at higher redshifts SNe took place mostly in very dusty environments and that their rate per comoving unit volume increased sharply with red-shift \( z \) (e.g., Mannucci et al. 2007). Such intergalactic SNe could have produced a significant fraction of the metals in the IGM. In this note we discuss possible evidence for an enrichment by field SNe from the ratio of well localized gamma ray bursts (GRBs) with and without host galaxies, as well as from GRBs coincident with SNe but without a host galaxy. A direct proof of our contention that the enrichment of iron in the IGM is partly due to ‘hostless’ field supernovae (SNe not within galaxies) would require searches with IR telescopes –such as the Spitzer Space Telescope– and measurements of their rate per unit volume as function of \( z \).

2 IRON PRODUCTION BY ORDINARY SUPERNOVAE

In the simplest ‘bottom-up’ structure-formation models, stars form first. Subsequently, ‘assisted’ by dark matter, they form galaxies. Finally, galaxies ‘separate from the universal expansion’ and become galaxy clusters\(^2\). The progenitors of SNe are massive stars of short lifetime. Thus, the SN rate should follow the star formation rate. The observed rate, \( \text{SFR}(z) \), is well represented (e.g., Perez-Gonzalez et al. 2005; Schiminovich et al. 2005) by \( \text{SFR}(z) = \text{SFR}(0) (1 + z)^4 \) for \( z \leq 1 \), and \( \text{SFR}(z) \approx \text{SFR}(z = 1) \) for \( 1 \leq z \leq 5 \), see Figure 1.

Galaxy clusters have been formed quite recently. Since star formation took place mainly during the pre-cluster stage, the IGM and ICM are expected to have similar iron abundances, produced during the whole history of star formation. Indeed, observations indicate that most of the cluster metals were produced at \( z > 1 \) (e.g., Mushotzky & Loewenstein 1997; Tozzi et al. 2003). Yet, SN explosions, the main known sources of iron in the universe, take place (Gal-Yam & Maoz 2003) both in the ICM and in the galaxies of the cluster (mainly SNe of type Ia in elliptical galaxies, and in the CD galaxy dominating the centers of the cooling-core clusters and producing the observed central enrichment).

Supernovae of type Ia are believed to be thermonuclear explosions of white dwarfs whose mass exceeds the Chandrasekhar limit due to mass accretion or merger in close binaries. Their Fe mass yield is \( \approx 0.7 M_\odot \) per SN, and their local rate is \( (0.37 \pm 0.11) h^2 \text{SNU} \), where \( h \) is the Hubble constant \( H_0 \) in units of \( 100 \text{ km} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1} \) and \( \text{SNU} \) is the number of SNe per century and per a luminosity of \( 10^{10} L_{B,\odot} \) (Capellaro et al. 1999). The progenitors of white dwarfs of a mass near the Chandrasekhar limit are probably short lived (relatively to the Hubble expansion rate) massive stars with a mass slightly less than \( \sim 8 M_\odot \), whereas the progenitors of core-collapse SNe are believed to be stars more massive than \( \sim 8 M_\odot \). The observed Fe mass yield of core-collapse SNe (supernovae of types Ib/c and II) is in the range \( 0.0016 \) to \( 0.26 M_\odot \) (Hamuy 2003) with a mean value \( \approx (0.05 \pm 0.03) M_\odot \) (Elmhamdi, Chugai & Danziger 2003). Their local rate is \( (0.85 \pm 0.35) h^2 \text{SNU} \). Thus, for \( h = 0.73 \), the rate of iron production per unit volume in the local universe, which follows from the local luminosity density of the universe in the B band (Cross et

\(^2\) In this picture, the ratio of baryonic to dark matter mass in galaxy clusters is the same as that in the whole universe, and the total cluster’s masses are proportional to their light, as observed.
The star formation rate as function of red-shift, compiled by Perez-Gonzalez et al. (2005). The colored points (shown with error bars) are extracted from different sources in the literature, normalized to the same standard cosmology. Red symbols are estimations based on Hα or Hβ measurements. Green symbols stand for [OII]λ3737 estimations. UV-based data points are plotted in blue. Cyan estimations are based on mid-infrared data. The yellow point is based on X-ray data. The shaded area delimits the zone between two extreme SFR density estimations for each redshift. The horizontal bars show the range of redshifts used in each bin The curves show two typical models: one with a decay from $z = 1$, and another with a constant SFR density at high redshift. The thick (red) line is used in our calculations.

For a SN rate proportional to the star formation rate, Equation (1) yields an iron number density:

$$n_{Fe} \approx \frac{(0.28 \pm 0.10) \times 10^{-4} M_{\odot}}{56 m_p \text{Mpc}^3 \text{yr}^{-1}} \int SFR(z) \frac{dt}{SFR(0) dz}.$$  

In a standard flat universe

$$\frac{dt}{dz} = \frac{1}{H_0 (1+z) \sqrt{(1+z)^3 \Omega_M + \Omega_\Lambda}},$$

where $H_0 = (73 \pm 2) \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, and $\Omega_M = 0.24 \pm 0.02$ and $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.76 \pm 0.02$ are, respectively, the matter density and the density of dark energy in critical units, $\rho_c = 3 H_0^2 / 8 \pi G \approx (1.00 \pm 0.05) \times 10^{-29} \text{g cm}^{-3}$, as inferred from the measurements of the anisotropy of the microwave background radiation (Spergel et al. 2006) with the Wilkinson Microwave Anisotropy Probe. With these parameters, Equation (2) yields a mean density of iron nuclei in the present universe, $n_{Fe} \approx (2.8 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-12} \text{cm}^{-3}$, where the error is dominated by the uncertainty in the rate of SNIa. The current mean cosmic baryon density in critical units as inferred from the sky distribution of the cosmic microwave background radiation (Spergel et al. 2006) is $\Omega_b = 0.042 \pm 0.002$, resulting in a mean cosmic baryon density of $n_b = (2.52 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-7} \text{cm}^{-3}$, consistent with its inferred value from Big Bang Nucleosynthesis. The hydrogen mass fraction produced by Big Bang nucleosynthesis is, $\approx 76\% \pm 1\%$ (e.g., Peimbert et al. 2007), and has not changed much by stellar evolution. Approximately 1/6 of the baryons in galaxy clusters reside within galaxies, while 5/6 are in the ICM (e.g., Ettori 2003). Hence, the mean ratio of iron nuclei to hydrogen nuclei in the IGM is:

$$[\text{Fe/H}]_{\text{IGM}} \approx (1.22 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-5}.$$  

The relative abundance of iron to hydrogen in the Sun (Grevesse & Sauval 1998) is $[\text{Fe/H}]_{\odot} \approx (3.16 \pm 0.16) \times 10^{-5}$, and the expected mean iron abundance in the IGM from SNe, given by Equation (4), satisfies $[\text{Fe/H}]_{\text{IGM}} \approx (0.38 \pm 0.14) \times [\text{Fe/H}]_{\odot}$, in agreement with observations.
3 IGM METALLICITY FROM GALACTIC INJECTION

In the local universe, the total mass of the gas in spiral and elliptical galaxies is much smaller than the total mass in stars. Approximately 1/6 of the baryons in galaxy clusters reside in stars within galaxies, while 5/6 are in the ICM (e.g., Ettori 2003). The simplest interpretation of this observation is that most of the gas in galaxies was swept into the IGM by strong winds and jets produced in star formation and stellar evolution. Consequently, these winds and jets, have transported into the IGM the metals that were injected into the ISM by SN explosions.

4 IGM METALLICITY FROM HOSTLESS SNE

There is mounting evidence that most, perhaps all long duration GRBs are associated with core-collapse supernova explosions (for a review see, e.g., A. Dar 2004). Evidence for such an association was already visible in the first discovered optical afterglow of a GRB, i.e. that of GRB 970228, but became convincing only after the measurement of its red-shift (Dar 1999; Reichart 1999; Galama et al. 2000). The first clear evidence for a GRB-SN association came from the discovery of SN1998bw in the error circle of GRB980425 by Galama et al. (1998). It was not widely accepted and was argued to be either a chance coincidence or an association between a rare type of GRB and a rare type of SN. But shortly after, evidence for a SN contribution to the late optical afterglow of an ordinary GRB (980326) was discovered by Bloom et al. (1999). The late bump in its optical afterglow, if it was produced by a bright SN akin to SN1998bw, indicated that the red-shift of the GRB/SN was less than 1. However, deep searches with HST for a host galaxy failed to detect it down to $V = 29.25 \pm 0.25$ (Fruchter et al. 2001) – within one pixel of the estimated position, there was $\sim 4.5 \sigma$ evidence of a small source of this magnitude. A galaxy at $z \sim 1$ with this observed magnitude is 7 magnitudes below $L^*$, the knee of the galaxy luminosity function at that red-shift. GRB 980326 was the first GRB to provide evidence for production of GRBs by SNe perhaps without a host galaxy (field SNe).

A nearly 1:1 correspondence between long-duration GRBs and core-collapse SNe is compatible with the observations (e.g., A. Dar 2004). But the afterglows of two recent long GRBs, 060614 and 060505 (see, however, Ofek et al. 2007), which were located in the outskirts of nearby galaxies, did not show any evidence for an associated SN (Gal-Yam et. al. 2006; Fynbo et al. 2006). Although it is conceivable that these GRBs belong to a new class of GRBs (Gal-Yam et al. 2006), e.g., GRBs associated with ‘failed’ SNe, as conjectured long ago by Woosley (1993), it was pointed out by Schaefer and Xiao (2006) (see also Dado et al. 2006) that GRB 060614 looks like an ordinary GRB at a much higher red-shift, $z \sim 1.9$, as suggested by various red-shift indicators of ordinary GRBs. The proximity of the sky position of these two GRBs to nearby galaxies could have been a chance coincidence and not a physical association. An underlying SN at red-shift $z \sim 1.9$ is too dim to be detected in the afterglow of an ordinary GRB at a red-shift $z \sim 1.9$. Discussing GRB 060614, Gal-Yam et al. (2006) responded that deep searches with the HST failed to detect a host galaxy at $z \sim 1.9$. However, if this GRB was an ordinary one, produced by a field SN at that red-shift, there would be no galaxy to be observed by the HST at its sky position.

The current ratio between the number of baryons in galaxies and in the ICM of galaxy clusters, inferred from X-ray and optical observations, is $\sim 5:1$, e.g., Ettori (2003). The metallicity of the ICM of galaxy clusters is $\sim 3$ times less than in their galaxies, If all this metallicity was produced by SNe outside galaxies, we would expect the ratio of SNe which took place in the IGM to those which took place in galaxies to be roughly 2:1. Such a ratio is not ruled out by the observed ratio of GRBs with and without a detected host galaxy: out of the 97 SWIFT GRBs which were well localized todate by their optical and/or radio afterglows, nearly 2/3 have no detected host galaxy although in many cases searches were not deep enough to rule out a host galaxy to a strong limit.

5 CONCLUSIONS

The simple calculation presented in this note demonstrates that no early iron enrichment of the intracluster gas by Population III stars is required by the observed ICM metallicity. To reach this conclusion, we have made the very reasonable assumption that the rates of thermonuclear and core-collapse SNe, in the gas which ended in the ICM of clusters, were proportional to the cosmic star-formation rate. Our results agree with the observed metallicities in the ISM in galaxies, in the ICM and in the IGM. The metals in the IGM within and without galaxy clusters could have been transported there with most of the matter in the ISM by
Galactic winds and jets during stellar evolution or directly produced there by intergalactic SNe. Combined with the observed levels of the associations between (mainly long-duration) GRBs and SNe (nearly 1:1), as well as between GRBs and host galaxies, our results imply that up to 2/3 of the long-duration GRBs could have been produced by such field SNe. This is consistent with the current data on long-duration GRBs, but deeper searches for host galaxies of well-localized long GRBs would further test it. A few observed cases of GRBs or X-ray flashes associated with SNe, but with no detected host galaxy, support our conclusion. A conclusive test of a considerable iron enrichment of the intergalactic medium by field SNe would require measurements of their rate per unit volume and red-shift with IR telescopes, such as the Spitzer Space Telescope. Such searches may settle the questions of the cosmic distribution of SNe and of the need to assume the existence of a first generation of Population III stars.

Acknowledgements We thank S. Covino and A. Gal-Yam for useful comments. This research was supported in part by the Asher Space Research Fund at the Technion.

References
Arnaud M. et al., 1992, A&A, 254, 49
Balestra I. et al., 2007, astro-ph/0703261
Barkats D. et al., 2005, ApJ, 619, L127
Bloom J. S. et al., 1999, Nature, 401, 453
Brighenti F., Mathews W. G., 1998, ApJ, 514, 542
Capellaro E., Evans. R., Turatto M., 1999, A&A, 351, 459
Dado S., Dar A., De Rújula A., 2006, astro-ph/0611161
Dar A., 1999, GCN No 346
Dar A., 2004, astro-ph/0405386
Cross N. et al., 2001, MNRAS, 324, 825
Edge A. C., Stewart G. C., 1991, MNRAS, 252, 414
Elmhamdi A., Chugai N. N., Danziger I. J., 2003, A&A, 359, 876
Ettori S., 2003, MNRAS, 344, L13
Fosbury R. A. E. et al., 2003, ApJ, 596, 797
Fruchter A. et al., 2001, GCN No. 1029
Fynbo J. P. et al., 2004, ApJ, 609, 692
Fynbo J. P. et al., 2006, Nature, 444, 1047
Galama T. J. et al., 1998, Nature, 395, 670
Galama T. J. et al., 2000, ApJ, 536, 185
Gal-Yam A. et al., 2003, AJ, 125, 1087
Gal-Yam A. et al., 2006, Nature, 444, 1053
Grevesse N., & Sauval A. J., 1998, Space Sci. Rev., 85, 161
Hamuy M., 2003, ApJ, 582, 905
Kawai N. et al., 2003, GCN No. 2412
Loeb A., Barkana R., 2001, ARAA, 39, 19
Mannucci F. et al., 2005, A&A, 433, 807
Mannucci F., Della Valle M., Panagia N., 2007, astro-ph/0702355
Maoz D., Gal-Yam A., 2004, MNRAS, 347, 951
Mushotzky R. F., Loewenstein M., 1997, ApJ, 481, L63
Ofek E. O. et al., 2007, astro-ph/0703192
Perez-Gonzalez P. G. et al., 2005, ApJ, 630, 82
Peimbert M., Luridiana V., Peimbert A., 2007, astro-ph/0701580
Scannapieco E., Schneider R., Ferrara A., 2003, ApJ, 589, 35
Reichart D. E., 1999, ApJ, 521, L111
Renzini A. et al., 1993, ApJ, 488, 35
Schaefer B. E., Xiao L., 2006, astro-ph/0608441
Schiminovich D. et al., 2005, ApJ, 619, L47
Spergel D. N. et al., 2006, ApJS, in press (astro-ph/0603449)
Tozzi P. et al., 2003, ApJ, 593, 2003
Woosley S. E., 1993, ApJ, 405, 73