MIGRATION TRAPS IN DISKS AROUND SUPERMASSIVE BLACK HOLES

JILLIAN M. BELLOVARY1, MORDECAI-MARK MAC LOW1,2, BARRY MCKERNAN1,3,4,5, AND K. E. SAAVIK FORD1,3,4,5

1 Department of Astrophysics, American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th Street, NY 10024, USA
2 Institut für Theoretische Astrophysik, Zentrum für Astronomie der Universität Heidelberg, D-69120 Heidelberg, Germany
3 Department of Science, Borough of Manhattan Community College, CUNY, NY 10016, USA
4 Physics Program, The Graduate Center, CUNY, NY 10016, USA
5 Kavli Institute for Theoretical Physics, University of California, Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, CA 93106, USA

Received 2015 October 26; accepted 2016 February 13; published 2016 March 2

ABSTRACT

Accretion disks around supermassive black holes (SMBHs) in active galactic nuclei (AGNs) contain stars, stellar mass black holes, and other stellar remnants, which perturb the disk gas gravitationally. The resulting density perturbations exert torques on the embedded masses causing them to migrate through the disk in a manner analogous to planets in protoplanetary disks. We determine the strength and direction of these torques using an empirical analytic description dependent on local disk gradients, applied to two different analytic, steady-state disk models of SMBH accretion disks. We find that there are radii in such disks where the gas torque changes sign, trapping migrating objects. Our analysis shows that major migration traps generally occur where the disk surface density gradient changes sign from positive to negative, around 20–300Rg, where Rg = 2GM/c2 is the Schwarzschild radius. At these traps, massive objects in the AGN disk can accumulate, collide, scatter, and accrete. Intermediate mass black hole formation is likely in these disk locations, which may lead to preferential gap and cavity creation at these radii. Our model thus has significant implications for SMBH growth as well as gravitational wave source populations.

Key words: accretion, accretion disks – black hole physics – galaxies: nuclei

1. INTRODUCTION

At present, the observational evidence for intermediate mass black holes (IMBHs; M ≈ 105–106 M⊙) is much less compelling than that for supermassive black holes (SMBHs; M > 109 M⊙) or stellar mass black holes (M ≲ 40 M⊙). Several IMBH candidates have been identified, including off-nuclear X-ray sources such as HLX-1 (likely ∼103–105 M⊙) (Davis et al. 2011; Servillat et al. 2011; Straub et al. 2014) and optical emission line sources in dwarf galaxies (Reines et al. 2013; Moran et al. 2014; Baldassare et al. 2015). IMBHs are a missing link between stellar-mass black holes and SMBHs, and indeed are good candidates for the seeds of SMBHs (Haiman & Loeb 2001). IMBH candidates are hard to confirm, although they are predicted to be wandering throughout massive galaxy halos (Bellovary et al. 2010; Holley-Bockelmann et al. 2010) or lurking in dwarf galaxies (Wassenhove et al. 2010).

An additional potential habitat for IMBHs is the accretion disks around SMBHs in active galactic nuclei (AGNs). Massive objects (stellar remnants and stars) will exist in these disks (Syer et al. 1991; Artymowicz et al. 1993; Levin 2007; Nayakshin & Sunyaev 2007; McKernan et al. 2012), where they can collide, accrete and grow. If a mechanism exists to efficiently collect compact objects into an orbit where they can collide, this mass buildup could result in the efficient formation of IMBHs in AGN disks.

Migration towards trapping orbits may be such a mechanism. Objects orbiting within differentially rotating disks exchange angular momentum with the gas around them as they orbit, which results in a torque, typically causing the objects to migrate. Under the azimuthally isothermal assumption, masses within disks were shown to migrate only inwards (Goldreich & Tremaine 1979; Ward 1997; Tanaka et al. 2002). However, Paardekooper & Mellema (2006) found that in the more realistic case of an adiabatic midplane, migration can proceed outwards under some circumstances. Paardekooper et al. (2010) used an extensive set of numerical simulations to empirically define the conditions determining the sign and strength of migration. Locations where the torque changes sign from positive to negative have outwardly migrating objects meeting inwardly migrating objects in an equilibrium, zero-torque orbit, forming a migration trap. Such traps have been predicted to exist in protoplanetary disks (Lyra et al. 2010), where they can lead to rapid growth of giant planet cores (Horn et al. 2012). McKernan et al. (2012) pointed out that, by analogy, IMBH might be able to form efficiently and grow at super-Eddington rates in SMBH accretion disks, if they contained migration traps. Eventually, the resulting object may be able to clear a gap in the disk, which would produce a range of observational signatures (McKernan et al. 2014).

Here we show that simple, analytic, steady-state models of AGN disks do indeed predict migration traps, at radii that are independent of the SMBH mass and the mass ratio between the migrator and the central SMBH. We further briefly discuss the importance and observational implications of migration traps in AGN disks.

2. METHODS

In this section we describe the torque model of Paardekooper et al. (2010), and discuss its application to two different steady-state AGN accretion disk models.

2.1. Torque Model

The torque model is based on simulations performed to study the behavior of objects in protoplanetary disks, but the physical processes modeled are no different in optically thick AGN accretion disks. We assume that the mass of the migrating object (i.e., a stellar mass black hole) remains constant, and
neglect accretion or feedback effects on the gas. The torque model includes a linear estimate of the Lindblad (wave) torque plus a simple but nonlinear contribution from adiabatic corotation torques. It is valid for the unsaturated case, where a temperature gradient is maintained by turbulent and viscous diffusion, as opposed to the gradient being erased as angular momentum is transferred between the migrating object and nearby gas. Saturation can be neglected so long as the diffusion timescale is short compared to the libration timescale on which the torque acts (Kley et al. 2009).

We model the torques using the analytical fits of Paardekooper et al. (2010) to a broad range of simulations that included non-isothermal effects and a nonlinear model of adiabatic corotation torques. For the locally isothermal case, the normalized torque is

\[ \Gamma_{\text{iso}}/\Gamma_0 = -0.85 - \alpha - 0.9\beta, \]  

(1)

while for the purely adiabatic case the normalized torque is

\[ \gamma \Gamma_{\text{ad}}/\Gamma_0 = -0.85 - 1.7\beta + 7.9\xi/\gamma. \]  

(2)

The adiabatic index \( \gamma = 5/3 \), and the variables \( \alpha, \beta, \) and \( \xi \) are the negative gradients of the local density, temperature, and entropy, with values

\[ \alpha = -\frac{\partial \ln \Sigma}{\partial \ln r}; \quad \beta = -\frac{\partial \ln T}{\partial \ln r}; \quad \xi = \beta - (\gamma - 1)\alpha. \]  

(3)

The torques are normalized by

\[ \Gamma_0 = (q/h)^2 \Sigma r^4 \Omega^2, \]  

(4)

where \( q \) is the mass ratio of the migrator to the SMBH, \( h \) is the aspect ratio of the disk, and \( \Omega \) is the rotational velocity. Interpolating between the isothermal and adiabatic torque regimes, we obtain

\[ \Gamma = \frac{\Gamma_{\text{ad}} + \Gamma_{\text{iso}}}{(\Theta + 1)^2}. \]  

(5)

where \( \Theta \) is the ratio of the radiative and dynamical timescales \( t_{\text{rad}}/t_{\text{dyn}} \). Lyra et al. (2010) show that \( \Theta \) depends on the local disk properties as

\[ \Theta = \frac{c_s \Sigma \tau_{\text{eff}}}{12\pi \sigma T^3} \]  

(6)

where \( c_s \) is the thermodynamic constant with constant volume, \( \tau_{\text{eff}} \) is the effective optical depth, and \( \sigma \) is the Stefan–Boltzmann constant. The value of \( \tau_{\text{eff}} \) is taken at the midplane (Hubeny 1990; Kley & Crida 2008) as

\[ \tau_{\text{eff}} = \frac{3\tau}{8} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} + \frac{1}{4\tau}. \]  

(7)

where \( \tau \) is the true optical depth, calculated by \( \tau = \kappa \Sigma/2 \), where \( \kappa \) is the opacity.

In summary, each of the torques depends on the properties of the temperature, density, and entropy gradients. For particular values of these gradients, the torques may cancel, resulting in a region with zero torque, i.e., a migration trap. Our goal is to investigate whether stable traps exist, i.e., whether there are regions where the gradient of the torque is negative.

AGN disks are sufficiently ionized for magnetorotational instability to drive turbulence. The resulting density perturbations produce stochastic torques that can drive diffusive, random walk, migration (Nelson 2005). Johnson et al. (2006) quantify when diffusive migration dominates over advective (type I) migration. Simulations of fully ionized regions of stratified protoplanetary disks suggest that for interesting ranges of migrator mass and radius, type I migration prevails (Yang et al. 2009). Such stochastic perturbations were shown by Horn et al. (2012) to be necessary for multiple objects to reach equilibrium orbits and collide. We defer numerical simulations of the AGN case to future work.

2.2. Disk Models

We examine the torques expected in disks described by two steady-state, analytic SMBH accretion disk models derived by (Sirko & Goodman 2003, hereafter SG) and Thompson et al. (2005, hereafter TQM). These models are derived from different basic assumptions, but both contain many characteristics we expect in realistic AGN disks. Neither model includes direct modeling of magnetic fields, nor effects due to general relativity.

SG assume a classical thin Keplerian \( \alpha \)-disk (Shakura & Sunyaev 1973, p. 155) in a steady state with a constant, high, accretion rate (Eddington ratio of 0.5). In order to remain stable and prevent fragmentation (i.e., maintain \( Q \geq 1 \)), SG assume that stars form in the outer disk. Energetic feedback from the newly formed stars increases the velocity dispersion and sound speed of the gas, maintaining \( Q \) close to unity, supporting the disk against global gravitational instability and inhibiting further star formation. This approach is supported by the existence of nuclear star clusters in the vicinity of SMBHs, which may have formed in this way (Nayakshin 2006; Chang...
et al. 2007; Levison 2007). The disk opacity model of SG is based on Iglesias & Rogers (1996) for high temperatures ($T \gtrsim 10^4$ K) and Alexander & Ferguson (1994) for lower temperatures.

The model of TQM, on the other hand, extrapolates a star-forming galaxy disk inward to the SMBH. Angular momentum transport is assumed to take place due to global gravitational instabilities, such as bars and spiral inflows, rather than unresolved turbulent viscosity. TQM use a more up-to-date opacity model based on Semenov et al. (2003). TQM address gravitational fragmentation by considering two regimes: one where the external accretion rate is high enough that the gas fraction of the disk remains constant, allowing rapid inflow to continue; and another where the star formation timescale is shorter than the gas advection time, and thus accretion to the inner regions is more limited, as the gas is consumed in star formation.

Figure 1 shows profiles from both models of the disk temperature $T$, surface density $\Sigma$, aspect ratio $h/r$, and optical depth $\tau$. Although the profiles are qualitatively comparable, there are major differences between the models. For example, the surface density and optical depth in SG are $\sim 2$–$3$ orders of magnitude above those of TQM in the inner disk. The differences in opacity and the assumed dynamics of the inflow are the root cause of these differences. SG assume that a constant turbulent viscosity drives the inflow; while TQM assume the inflow speed is a constant fraction of the local sound speed. In both cases the high Thompson scattering opacity from electrons produced by the ionization of hydrogen causes the inner disk to be optically thick. At intermediate radii, where the electron density drops precipitously, the opacity drops correspondingly, allowing the disk to cool and become thinner. At larger radii, where the temperature is low enough for dust grains to survive, dust opacity becomes important in the disk, so the disk again thickens and cools further. The disk masses (integrated out to 1 pc) are $3.7 \times 10^7 M_\odot$ and $6.5 \times 10^6 M_\odot$ for SG and TQM, respectively.

3. RESULTS

Figure 2 shows the result of calculating the torques from Equation (5) in a disk with the profile given by SG around a $10^6 M_\odot$ SMBH for a migrator of mass $100 M_\odot$. The figure shows the absolute value of the torque versus radius; black lines represent negative torque, and thick red lines represent positive torque. The spikes mark the points where the torque crosses zero. The direction of the torque is also given by arrows for clarity. These highlight the two migration traps in this disk model: one at $\log R = 1.39 R_g$, and the other at $\log R = 2.52 R_g$, corresponding to 24.5 and 331 $R_g$, or 0.0004 and 0.003 pc for a $10^8 M_\odot$ SMBH. The Toomre $Q$ parameters at the trap locations are $\sim 10^3$ and 16, respectively, indicating that these regions are quite stable.

These estimates are for a fiducial value of $M_{\text{SMBH}} = 10^6 M_\odot$ and mass ratio $q = 10^{-4}$. However, we repeated our calculations for a range of each value ($5 \times 10^5 < M_{\text{SMBH}} < 5 \times 10^7 M_\odot$ and $0.1 < q < 10^{-6}$) and found no difference in the radial location of the migration traps in terms of $R_g$. We should expect this result, since the variables that depend on the mass ratio $q$ and $M_{\text{SMBH}}$ are $\Gamma_0$ and $\Theta$, as seen in Equations (4) and (6). These mass adjustments change the magnitude of the torques but not their radial position; i.e., the trap locations are not affected. However, the SG model assumes a particular value of $M_{\text{SMBH}}$. As we do not have access to their full set of models, we are unable to vary the black hole mass self-consistently in our calculations.

Figure 3 shows the results for the same torque calculation using the TQM model. We find one migration trap, at $\log R = 2.39 R_g$ (245 $R_g$, or 0.002 pc for a $10^6 M_\odot$ SMBH). At this radius, $Q = 3.5$. This trap occurs precisely at the point where the disk profiles are vertical, and the derivative is undefined (see Figure 1). To explore the robustness of this result, we made the profile differentiable by shifting the endpoints of each vertical section of the profile to vary the slope. In the extreme case, we adjusted the surface density profile to effectively round off the sharp peak at $\log R = 2.4 R_g$.

Regardless of these changes, the migration trap continues to exist at the point where the surface density slope changes from
positive to negative. Significantly, migration traps also exist in the SG model at the same locations—the points where the slope shifts from positive to negative, indicating that the slope change of the surface density profile is a key factor in determining where migration traps exist in these models (see also Masset et al. 2006).

Note that in Figure 1 there is a small surface density discontinuity at log R ∼ 3.2 R_g; however, it does not yield a migration trap in Figure 3. Again we adjusted the endpoints of the vertical section of the profile to verify the robustness of this result. We found that the magnitude of the vertical change in the profile was insufficient to cause the torque to change sign. Thus, both a slope change and a large change in magnitude of the surface density of an AGN disk appear to be needed in order to create a migration trap.

4. IMPLICATIONS

The occurrence of migration traps in simple models of AGN disks implies that IMBH may form efficiently and quickly due to stellar black hole collisions at such locations, by analogy with giant planet core formation at migration traps in protoplanetary disks (Horn et al. 2012). Ignoring migration traps, McKernan et al. (2012) conservatively predict that a 10 M☉ black hole around a 10⁸ M☉ SMBH can double its mass via collisions and gas accretion in 10 Myr. However, including migration traps can boost the collision rate of disk objects by more than a factor of 100. For a migrator at 10⁴ R_g in a migration trap with enhanced surface density of compact objects of Σ_0 = 350 g cm⁻², assuming a reasonable distribution of eccentricities, the growth rate can reach over dM/ dt ∼ 10⁻⁵ M_☉ yr⁻¹, which would result in a 10 M☉ black hole growing to ∼100 M☉ in 10 Myr. We also point out that the build-up of the IMBH (i.e., the merging of stellar mass black holes) is detectable in the local universe with LIGO. Nearby quasars such as Mrk 231 are good candidates to model and search for such events.

If this predicted growth occurs, there are observable implications, both in electromagnetic and gravitational radiation. For example, if the IMBH to SMBH mass ratio becomes large enough (q ≥ 10⁻⁴) a gap can form in the disk at the migration trap radius, leading to a flux decrement in the optical/UV disk spectral energy distribution (Tanaka et al. 2011; Gültekin & Miller 2012; McKernan et al. 2014).

If the IMBH migrates into the central SMBH, a robust gravitational wave signal could be detected. Such a scenario is more likely for a lower mass (M < 10⁻⁵ M☉) primary or closer-in (200 R_g) migrator. A binary system of mass M_b = M_1 + M_2 will decay via gravitational wave emission on a timescale (Peters 1964)

$$\tau_{GW} \approx \frac{5}{128} \frac{c^5}{G^2 M_b^2 \mu_b} (1 - e_b^2)^{3/2},$$

where the binary reduced mass \( \mu_b = M_1 M_2 / M_b \), the binary semimajor axis is \( a_b \), and its eccentricity \( e_b \) ≈ 0. Rewriting in terms of \( M_1, M_2, a_b, \) and normalized by \( R_{g1} = 2GM_1 / c^2 \), the gravitational radius of the primary, yields

$$\tau_{GW} \approx 0.01 \text{ Myr} \left( \frac{M_1}{10^6 M_☉} \right)^2 \left( \frac{M_2}{10^3 M_☉} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{a_b}{200 R_{g1}} \right)^4. \tag{9}$$

For a fiducial AGN disk lifetime of ∼10 Myr, an IMBH formed at 200 R_g in a disk around a SMBH with \( M < 10^{-5.5} M_☉ \) should merge with the primary within the disk lifetime. If such mergers are common, detectable gravitational wave events will be more frequent than previously supposed (e.g., Babak et al. 2008) and can be observed by the planned LISA mission (see also Holley-Bockelmann et al. 2010), with a complementary electromagnetic counterpart observable via oscillations in the FeKα line (McKernan et al. 2013; McKernan & Ford 2015).

On the other hand, IMBHs that form around more massive SMBHs, or more than twice as far away in the disk will outlast the AGN disk and survive, potentially until the next accretion episode. Such a binary system can affect the galactic bulge, scattering stars and altering the potential well. The IMBH can also itself grow due to gas accretion (Farris et al. 2014), changing the mass ratio of the system and possibly being visible as a mini-quasar with shifting radial velocities. We will return to some of these consequences in future work.

5. SUMMARY

Migration traps are equilibrium orbits in disks where regions of outward migration meet regions of inward migration. We study migration of massive objects in AGN accretion disks to determine whether migration traps exist in such environments. We examine two different steady-state, analytic models of AGN disks, and find that, despite the different assumptions used, migration traps occur in both models. These migration traps occur at locations of significant change in both the magnitude and gradient of the surface density. In the traps, massive objects, such as stellar mass black holes, can accumulate and merge, resulting in the formation of IMBHs. These IMBHs could ultimately clear out a gap in the accretion disk, producing multiple observable signatures (McKernan et al. 2014). The buildup of IMBHs could be a significant gravitational wave source for LIGO, and mergers of these IMBHs with their central SMBHs would increase the number and strain amplitude of expected gravitational wave sources detectable by eLISA.

Our prediction is based on analytical models that neglect evolution and make strong simplifying assumptions about the dynamics. Further studies may need to include effects shown to be important in the protoplanetary context, including torques due to magnetic fields (Guilet et al. 2013), and accretion heating feedback from the migrator (Benítez-Llambay et al. 2015). Accretion disk dynamics are more complex than the assumptions of either SG or TQM, as can be seen from the substantial differences between the models. Ultimately, migration depends on the detailed physical state of the disk, including the temperature, density, opacity, and turbulence. We therefore stress that our results should not be interpreted literally, but rather as a promising possibility worthy of further detailed modeling. We also assume that trapped compact objects will have common orbits with low eccentricity, and merge without any dynamical consequences. Further studies must determine whether collisions of migrators will perturb the disk and affect migration, and whether the scattering of compact objects will result in ejections from the disk and prevent our scenario entirely. A full, three-dimensional, time-evolving model will ultimately be needed in order to make robust predictions of whether AGN disks can efficiently form IMBHs within migration traps.
Thanks to Alex Hubbard, Yuri Levin, Cole Miller, Shane Davis, and the anonymous referee for useful discussions. JMB acknowledges generous support from the Helen Gurley Brown Trust. M-MML acknowledges support from NSF grant AST-1109395 and the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation. BM and KESF acknowledge support from NSF PAARE grant AST-1153335 and NSF grant PHY-1125915.

REFERENCES

Alexander, D. R., & Ferguson, J. W. 1994, ApJ, 437, 879
Artymowicz, P., Lin, D. N. C., & Wampler, E. J. 1993, ApJ, 409, 592
Babak, S., Baker, J. G., Benacquista, M. J., et al. 2008, CQGra, 25, 184026
Baldassare, V. F., Reines, A. E., Gallo, E., & Greene, J. J. 2015, ApJL, 809, L14
Bellobarry, J. M., Governato, F., Quinn, T. R., et al. 2010, ApJL, 721, L148
Benítez-Llambay, P., Masset, F., Koenigsberger, G., & Szulágyi, J. 2015, Natur, 520, 63
Chang, P., Murray-Clay, R., Chiang, E., & Quataert, E. 2007, ApJ, 668, 236
Davis, S. W., Narayan, R., Zhu, Y., et al. 2011, ApJ, 734, 111
Farris, B. D., Duffell, P., MacFadyen, A. I., & Haiman, Z. 2014, ApJ, 783, 134
Goldreich, P., & Tremaine, S. 1979, ApJ, 233, 857
Guilet, J., Baruteau, C., & Papaloizou, J. C. B. 2013, MNRAS, 430, 1764
Gültekin, K., & Miller, J. M. 2012, ApJ, 761, 90
Haiman, Z., & Loeb, A. 2001, ApJ, 552, 459
Holley-Bockelmann, K., Micic, M., Sigurdsson, S., & Rubbo, L. J. 2010, ApJ, 713, 1016
Horii, B., Lyra, W., Low, M.-M. M., & Sándor, Z. 2012, ApJ, 750, 34
Hubeny, I. 1990, ApJ, 351, 632
Iglesias, C. A., & Rogers, F. J. 1996, ApJ, 464, 943
Johnson, E. T., Goodman, J., & Menou, K. 2006, ApJ, 647, 1413
Kley, W., Bitsch, B., & Klahr, H. 2009, A&A, 506, 971
Kley, W., & Crida, A. 2008, A&A, 487, L9
Levin, Y. 2007, MNRAS, 374, 515
Lyra, W., Paardekooper, S.-J., & Low, M.-M. M. 2010, ApJL, 715, L68
Masset, F. S., Morbidelli, A., Crida, A., & Ferreira, J. 2006, ApJ, 642, 478
Mckernan, B., & Ford, K. E. S. 2015, MNRAS Letters, 452, L1
Mckernan, B., Ford, K. E. S., Kocsis, B., & Haiman, Z. 2013, MNRAS, 432, 1468
Mckernan, B., Ford, K. E. S., Kocsis, B., Lyra, W., & Winter, L. M. 2014, MNRAS, 441, 900
Mckernan, B., Ford, K. E. S., Lyra, W., & Perets, H. B. 2012, MNRAS, 425, 460
Moran, E. C., Shahinyan, K., Sugarman, H. R., Vélez, D. O., & Eracleous, M. 2014, AJ, 148, 136
Nayakshin, S. 2006, MNRAS, 372, 143
Nayakshin, S., & Sunyaev, R. 2007, MNRAS, 377, 1647
Nelson, R. P. 2005, A&A, 443, 1067
Paardekooper, S.-J., Baruteau, C., Crida, A., & Kley, W. 2010, MNRAS, 401, 1950
Paardekooper, S.-J., & Mellem, G. 2006, A&A, 459, L17
Peters, P. C. 1964, PhRv, 136, B1224
Reines, A. E., Greene, J. E., & Geha, M. 2013, ApJ, 775, 116
Semenov, D., Henning, T., Helling, C., Ilgner, M., & Sedlmayr, E. 2003, A&A, 410, 611
Servillat, M., Farrell, S. A., Lin, D., et al. 2011, ApJ, 743, 6
Shakura, N. I., & Sunyaev, R. A. 1973, A&A, 24, 337
Sirko, E., & Goodman, J. 2003, MNRAS, 341, 501
Straub, O., Godet, O., Webb, N., Servillat, M., & Barret, D. 2014, A&A, 569, A116
Syer, D., Clarke, C. J., & Rees, M. J. 1991, MNRAS, 250, 505
Tanaka, H., Takeuchi, T., & Ward, W. R. 2002, ApJ, 565, 1257
Tanaka, T., Menou, K., & Haiman, Z. 2011, MNRAS, 420, 705
Thompson, T. A., Quataert, E., & Murray, N. 2005, ApJ, 630, 167
Ward, W. 1997, Icar, 126, 261
Wassenhove, S. V., Volonteri, M., Walker, M. G., & Gair, J. R. 2010, MNRAS, 408, 1139
Yang, C.-C., Mac Low, M.-M., & Menou, K. 2009, ApJ, 707, 1233