ULTRALUMINOUS X-RAY SOURCES IN ARP 147

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ULTRALUMINOUS X-RAY SOURCES IN ARP 147

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ABSTRACT

The Chandra X-Ray Observatory was used to image the collisional ring galaxy Arp 147 for 42 ks. We detect nine X-ray sources with luminosities in the range of \(1.4-7 \times 10^{39} \text{ erg s}^{-1}\) (assuming that the sources emit isotropically) in or near the blue knots of star formation associated with the ring. A source with an X-ray luminosity of \(1.4 \times 10^{40} \text{ erg s}^{-1}\) is detected in the nuclear region of the intruder galaxy. X-ray sources associated with a foreground star and a background quasar are used to improve the registration of the X-ray image with respect to Hubble Space Telescope (HST) high-resolution optical images. The intruder galaxy, which apparently contained little gas before the collision, shows no X-ray sources other than the one in the nuclear bulge which may be a poorly fed supermassive black hole. These observations confirm the conventional wisdom that collisions of gas-rich galaxies trigger large rates of star formation which, in turn, generate substantial numbers of X-ray sources, some of which have luminosities above the Eddington limit for accreting stellar-mass black holes (i.e., ultraluminous X-ray sources, “ULXs”). We also utilize archival Spitzer and Galex data to help constrain the current star formation rate in Arp 147 to \(\sim 7 M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}\). All of these results, coupled with binary evolution models for ULXs, allow us to tentatively conclude that the most intense star formation may have ended some 15 Myr in the past.

Key words: binaries: general – galaxies: individual (Arp 147) – galaxies: interactions – galaxies: nuclei – galaxies: starburst – galaxies: structure – stars: formation – stars: luminosity function, mass function – stars: neutron

1. INTRODUCTION

If one or both of a pair of colliding galaxies has a high gas content, the collision may trigger a spectacular burst of star formation like those seen in the Antennae (Whitmore & Schweizer 1995) and the Cartwheel (e.g., Higdon 1995; Amram et al. 1998). In the latter case, a smaller intruder galaxy passed through the disk of the progenitor spiral galaxy about \((1.5-2) \times 10^8 \text{ yr}\) ago. This triggered a wave of star formation which has propagated radially outward at an effective speed of \(\geq 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}\) and is apparent as a brilliant, expanding ring. The dynamics of this so-called collisional ring galaxy and other colliding galaxies, including examples that are remarkably similar in appearance to the Cartwheel, have been explored and understood at least in part through numerical simulations (see, e.g., Lynds & Toomre 1976; Toomre 1978; Gerber et al. 1992; Mihos & Hernquist 1994; Appleton & Struck 1996; Mapelli et al. 2008).

Many of the newly formed stars in a collision-induced ring or other star formation region will naturally constitute binary systems. Some fraction of the more massive stars in these binaries evolve rapidly to form conventional high-mass X-ray binaries (with neutron-star or stellar-mass black-hole accretors and \(L_x \lesssim 10^{39} \text{ erg s}^{-1}\)) that can be detected with Chandra out to distances of \(\sim 50 \text{ Mpc}\) (see, e.g., Fabbiano 2006). If the examples of the Antennae (Zezas & Fabbiano 2002) and the Cartwheel (Gao et al. 2003; Wolter et al. 2006) are representative, galaxy collisions also produce substantial numbers of ultraluminous X-ray sources (“ULXs”) which are characterized by \(L_x \gtrsim 10^{39} \text{ erg s}^{-1}\). The nature of the ULXs is unclear at present; they are likely to be binaries with black-hole accretors, but the accretors could be either of stellar mass and accreting at rates above the Eddington limit or of masses 1–2 orders of magnitude higher and be so-called intermediate-mass black holes (“IMBHs,” see, e.g., Colbert & Mushotzky 1999).

At the higher end of the ULX luminosity function, i.e., at \(L_x \gtrsim 10^{40} \text{ erg s}^{-1}\), and especially as the inferred luminosities approach \(\sim 10^{41} \text{ erg s}^{-1}\) (e.g., ESO 243-49; Farrell et al. 2009; Godet et al. 2009), it becomes increasingly difficult to see how the requisite emission, even if somewhat beamed, could be produced around a stellar-mass black hole (see, e.g., Madhusudhan et al. 2008). By contrast, the X-ray luminosities of accreting IMBHs could easily exceed \(10^{41} \text{ erg s}^{-1}\) without violating the Eddington limit, but this explanation of ULXs is confronted by other serious problems. Portegies Zwart et al. (2004a), among others, have proposed that runaway star collisions in newly formed massive star clusters lead to the formation of supermassive stars (e.g., \(\gtrsim 500 M_{\odot}\)) which, in turn, evolve to form IMBHs. The IMBHs must then capture massive stars into orbits where mass transfer will proceed at levels sufficient to produce the requisite X-ray emission. However, the evolution of supermassive stars is highly uncertain. For example, Yungelson et al. (2008) showed that such massive stars resulting from runaway collisions would likely ultimately be reduced to \(\lesssim 150 M_{\odot}\) due to wind mass loss. Moreover, the efficiency for producing the requisite numbers of IMBHs in the Cartwheel has been argued to be implausibly high (King 2004). IMBHs from Population III remnants are unlikely to show the requisite spatial coincidence with star formation regions exhibited by ULXs (cf. Krolik 2004). A better understanding of ULXs could shed much light on these issues and on the formation and evolution of very massive stars.

Since it appears that substantial numbers of ULXs are commonly found in collisional ring galaxies, it would seem like these would be good targets for Chandra observations. The “Atlas and Catalog of Collisional Ring Galaxies” (Madore et al. 2009) contains information on \(~104\) collisional ring galaxies. While this atlas focuses on southern hemisphere objects, it also includes information on northern hemisphere collisional ring galaxies that are described in the literature including the Arp...
peculiar galaxy catalogs (Arp 1966; Arp & Madore 1987). We find that only 4 of the ∼104 collisional ring galaxies have been observed by Chandra. One of these is the Cartwheel galaxy. The others are Arp 284, Arp 318, and AM 0644−741, but Arp 318 was observed at an off-axis angle of > 40° so the existing data would not be useful in resolving individual point sources. Results from the observation of Arp 284 have been published by Smith et al. (2005) who report the detection of ∼7 ULXs, with two having \( L_x \sim 10^{39} \text{ erg s}^{-1} \).

In 2009 July, we obtained Chandra observations of the well-known collisional ring galaxy Arp 147. An image of Arp 147 taken earlier with the WFPC2 on Hubble Space Telescope (HST) is shown in Figure 1(a). The object consists of the ring-like remnant of what was originally a gas-rich galaxy that likely underwent, according to Gerber et al. (1992), an off-center collision with an approximately equal-mass (\( \sim 10^{11} M_\odot \)) elliptical galaxy that passed “perpendicular through the disk about two radial scale lengths from the center.” However, simulations of similar systems suggest that the mass of the intruder could be 2–3 times more massive than the ring (A. Toomre 2010, private communication). Hereafter, we refer to the ring-like structure exhibiting a high star formation rate (SFR; see, e.g., the blue knots in Figure 1(a)) as the “ring,” and to the reddish neighbor galaxy, which also appears to have a tidally induced ring structure, as the “intruder.”

The maximum angular extents of the ring and the intruder galaxies are \( \sim 180 \times 190 \) arcsec, and their recession velocities are 9415 and 9656 km s\(^{-1}\) respectively. For a Hubble constant of \( H_0 = 72 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \) (e.g., Friedman 2003), the distance to Arp 147 is \( \sim 133 \) Mpc, and the corresponding physical size of the two objects is \( \sim 12 \) kpc. Finally, we note that the reddish-pink region seen in the HST image on the south–southeast side of the ring is thought to be the nucleus of the original spiral galaxy which the intruder has tidally stretched into an apparently ring-like structure (e.g., Gerber et al. 1992).

In Section 2.1 of this work we describe the Chandra X-ray observations and the analysis of the data. The supplemental images from the HST, Spitzer, and Galex observatories are described in Sections 2.2–2.4. In Section 3, we present the results of the X-ray observations including a table that lists source locations, fluxes, luminosities, median photon energies, and power-law spectral indices. The “SFR” in the ring portion of Arp 147 is inferred from, and contrasted among, the Spitzer and Galex fluxes as well the number of luminous X-ray sources.

2. OBSERVATIONS

2.1. Chandra Observations

Arp 147 was observed with Chandra with the Advanced CCD Imaging Spectrometer (ACIS) at the focal plane. The data were taken in the timed-exposure mode with an integration time of 3.24 s per frame, and the telescope aim point was on the backside-illuminated S3 chip. A 24.5 ks exposure (ObsID 11280) was made on 2009 September 13 and an 18.0 ks exposure (ObsID 11887) was made on 2009 September 15 for a total exposure of 42.5 ks.

The data from the two observations were merged and were reprocessed without the pixel randomization that is included during standard processing. Reprocessing the data in this way slightly improves the point-spread function. An X-ray image was then formed from the events in the energy band 0.5–6.0 keV. The image was smoothed for aesthetic purposes via a convolution with a two-dimensional Gaussian function (with \( \sigma = 1.1 \)). The resultant X-ray image can be seen in panel (d) of Figure 1.

Source detection was performed both with the wavdetect tool provided with the CIAO software\(^4\) and by visual inspection of a Gaussian-smoothed image. Our wavdetect analysis was performed on images approximately 63” on a side (128 × 128 pixels) in the 0.3–8 keV and 0.5–6 keV bandpasses. We used a \( \sqrt{2} \) progression for the spatial scales parameter (1, 1.414, 2, 2.828, 4, and 5.657 pixels), and set the detection threshold to \( 6 \times 10^{-5} \), which is approximately the inverse number of pixels in the image; this setting is recommended in the wavdetect help pages to produce only one false positive.

In total, nine statistically significant candidate sources around the ring were found, in addition to a nuclear source in the intruder galaxy, a background quasar, and a foreground star in the vicinity of Arp 147. Light curves and spectra, as well as spectral response files (ancillary response files and redistribution matrix files) and background spectra, were extracted for each candidate source with the ACIS Extract package (AE; Broos et al. 2010). Background spectra were extracted from source-free annular regions around each source and were required to have at least 150 counts in the 0.5–8 keV band. The light curves were examined for variability, but nothing significant was found. Source positions were refined in AE by using the mean photon position as the best estimate of the source’s true location. The uncertainty in each source’s net counts was calculated using the method of Kraft et al. (1991). Source positions and net counts are listed in Table 1.

The source and background spectra were analyzed with Sherpa 4.2 (Freeman et al. 2001). AE was used to combine each source’s spectrum and response files from both ObsIDs. In all of the analyses, the unbinned spectra in the 0.5–8 keV range were fit using the CSTAT statistic, a slight modification of the Cash (1979) statistic, and using the Nelder–Mead optimization algorithm (Nelder & Mead 1965). First, the background spectrum for each source was fit with an absorbed power-law model. Then, the source spectrum was fit with an absorbed power-law model plus a background component based on the background spectrum fit. In all cases, the source spectrum had so few counts that the column density was frozen at the Galactic value in the direction of Arp 147\(^5\) of 6.2 × 10\(^{20}\) cm\(^{-2}\). The unabsorbed fluxes and luminosities are reported in Table 1. The confidence intervals on the fluxes were found by sampling the distribution of power-law parameters 10\(^4\) times and calculating the unabsorbed flux from each set of sampled parameters (the samples of the power-law index were restricted to the range 0–6). The median and standard deviation of the resultant flux distribution are given as the source’s flux and uncertainty in Table 1. The power-law index is also reported as a measure of each source’s spectral shape. Finally, we also list in Table 1 the median photon energy which, while somewhat instrument-dependent, yields a more statistically significant intercomparison of spectral hardness among the sources.

2.2. Hubble Space Telescope Observations

HST data obtained from an observation (ID 11902) of Arp 147 made on 2008 October 29 were retrieved from the STScI

\(^{4}\) http://asc.harvard.edu/ciao/

\(^{5}\) We note that the use of the Galactic NH value is likely an underestimate since there may be substantial extinction intrinsic to Arp 147; therefore, the cited values of \( L_x \) may be biased downward a small amount due to this systematic effect.
Figure 1. Montage of images taken of the collisional ring galaxy Arp 147. Panel (a): HST image taken with WFPC2 (at 4556 Å, 5997 Å, and 8012 Å). Note the intense blue ring associated with star formation as well as the reddish intruder galaxy to the southeast (also exhibiting a ring structure). The blue ring is ~17″ in diameter, which corresponds to ~11 kpc at the distance of 133 Mpc. Panel (b): the corresponding Spitzer image of Arp 147 in the 3.6 μm band. Panel (c): Galex 1516 Å image from archival data. Panel (d): 42 ks Chandra image (this work). Aside from eight discrete luminous X-ray sources associated with the ring of star formation, there are four other point sources. From left to right, these correspond to a foreground star, a distant galaxy, the nucleus of the intruder galaxy, and a blue knot that happens to be offset from the main ring.

MAST⁶ data archive. High-level science products were provided by the Hubble Heritage Team as part of the Merging and Interacting Galaxies project.⁷ The WFPC2 instrument was used for the observation, and exposures were made with the F450W (4556 Å), F606W (5997 Å), and F814W (8012 Å) filters for 8800, 6600, and 6600 s, respectively. The drizzled images had intensity values in counts s⁻¹. We used a large extraction region completely enclosing the Arp 147 ring to determine net count rates of 271, 1095, and 575 counts s⁻¹ in the F450W, F606W, and F814W filters, respectively. Similarly, the intruder galaxy had net count rates of 204, 1230, and 917 counts s⁻¹. These count rates were converted to flux densities (erg cm⁻² s⁻¹ Å⁻¹) using the PHOTFLAM conversion factor found in the header of each FITS image, which was 9.02 × 10⁻¹⁸ for the F450W image, 1.90 × 10⁻¹⁸ for the F606W image, and 2.51 × 10⁻¹⁸ for the F814W image.

2.3. Spitzer Observations

A Spitzer Space Telescope observation (ID 20369) of Arp 147 was performed on 2005 August 8 with the IRAC instrument. We retrieved from the Spitzer archive the 3.6, 4.5, 5.8, and 8.0 μm post-Basic Calibrated Data mosaic images using the Spitzer Leopard software.⁸ The total exposure time for each wavelength band was 643 s (24 exposures, each of 26.8 s). We also retrieved the 24.0 μm image acquired with the MIPS

⁶ http://archive.stsci.edu/
⁷ http://archive.stsci.edu/prepds/merggal/
⁸ http://ssc.spitzer.caltech.edu/warmmission/propkit/spot/
### 2.4. Galex Observations

We used GalexView 1.4\(^9\) to retrieve data from the Galex archive. Tile 181 of the All-Sky Imaging Survey (AIS 181) contains image data on Arp 147 in the near-UV (1771–2831 Å) and far-UV (1344–1786 Å) bands. These bands have effective bandwidths of 732 Å (NUV) and 268 Å (FUV) and effective wavelengths of 2267 Å and 1516 Å. The observation occurred on 2007 October 20 and had an exposure of 216 s in each band. We used the count maps in both bands and defined a 30′′ radius circular region to extract the counts from both the Arp 147 ring and the intruder galaxy, which are not completely separated by the Galex angular resolution. We used a source-free annulus with inner radius 45′′ and outer radius 120′′ for our background estimate.

In the NUV image, the net counts from the 30′′ inner region are 2603 ± 58, which we attribute to both the ring and the intruder. Using two smaller, non-overlapping elliptical regions (of ~ 17′′ × 21′′ and 6′′ × 13′′ in size), we extracted 2247 ± 50 net counts from the ring and 193 ± 16 net counts from the intruder, respectively. This left 163 net counts unaccounted for. We divided those up proportionally, for a final result of 2397 ± 60 net counts for the ring and 206 ± 20 net counts for the intruder. To estimate the count rate, we took the average value of the NUV relative response high-resolution (“rrhr”) map in the vicinity of Arp 147, which was 150 s. The rrhr map combines the relative sensitivity of the detector with the exposure time. Using the conversion factor from count rate to flux density in Table 1.1 of the Galex Observer’s Guide of 2.05 × 10^{-16} (erg cm^{-2} s^{-1} Å^{-1})/(counts s^{-1}), we calculate a flux density of (3.3 ± 0.08) × 10^{-15} erg cm^{-2} s^{-1} Å^{-1} for the ring and (2.9 ± 0.21) × 10^{-16} erg cm^{-2} s^{-1} Å^{-1} for the intruder.

For the FUV image, we follow the same procedure. The net counts from the 30′′ inner region are 795 ± 31, which we attribute to both the ring and the intruder. Using two smaller, non-overlapping elliptical regions, we extracted 722 ± 28 net counts from the ring and 36.5 ± 7.0 net counts from the intruder. This left 37 net counts unaccounted for. We divided those up proportionally, for a final result of 757 ± 29 net counts for the ring and 38 ± 9 net counts for the intruder. To estimate the count rate, we took the average value of the FUV “rrfr” map in the vicinity of Arp 147, which was 181.4 s. Using the conversion factor from count rate to flux density in Table 1.1 of the Galex Observer’s Guide of 1.40 × 10^{-15} (erg cm^{-2} s^{-1} Å^{-1})/(counts s^{-1}), we calculate a flux density of (5.8 ± 0.2) × 10^{-15} erg cm^{-2} s^{-1} Å^{-1} for the ring and (3 ± 0.7) × 10^{-16} erg cm^{-2} s^{-1} Å^{-1} for the intruder.

The spectral luminosities from both the ring and the intruder galaxy in the NUV and the FUV are shown in Figure 3.

The FUV image, which has been smoothed via convolution with a two-dimensional Gaussian function (with σ = 0.7′) for aesthetic purposes, can be seen in panel (c) of Figure 1.

### 3. RESULTS FROM THE X-RAY OBSERVATIONS

In the Chandra image shown in Figure 1(d), we find eight discrete sources at locations around the blue ring plus a source just outside the ring that falls close to or in a blue knot that must be associated with the ring. A bright source is found within ~1/2′′ of the nucleus of the intruder galaxy and two other sources are present at the locations of a bright foreground star and a faint background object. The latter two sources were

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\(^{9}\) http://galex.stsci.edu/galexview

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### Table 1. Arp 147 X-ray Source Properties\(^a\)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>R.A. (J2000)</th>
<th>Decl. (J2000)</th>
<th>Error (′′)</th>
<th>Net Counts (0.5–8 keV)</th>
<th>Power-law Photon Index</th>
<th>Median Energy (keV)</th>
<th>F_&lt;sub&gt;x&lt;/sub&gt; (0.5–8 keV)</th>
<th>L_&lt;sub&gt;x&lt;/sub&gt; (0.5–8 keV)</th>
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<td>Ring 1</td>
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<td>0.10</td>
<td>14.7±2.1</td>
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<td>1.34 ± 0.23</td>
<td>2.9±0.3</td>
<td>6.2±1.9</td>
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<td>Ring 2</td>
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<td>+01:19:02.4</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>6.7±3.0</td>
<td>2.2±0.9</td>
<td>1.04 ± 0.36</td>
<td>1.3±0.6</td>
<td>2.7±1.3</td>
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<td>Ring 3</td>
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<td>+01:19:02.0</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>2.7±2.1</td>
<td>1.5±0.8</td>
<td>1.82 ± 0.60</td>
<td>0.68±0.4</td>
<td>1.4±1.8</td>
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<td>0.20</td>
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<td>2.5±1.1</td>
<td>1.25 ± 0.50</td>
<td>0.76±0.4</td>
<td>1.6±1.9</td>
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<td>Ring 5</td>
<td>03:11:18.80</td>
<td>+01:18:57.7</td>
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<td>7.4±3.2</td>
<td>0.6±0.8</td>
<td>1.01 ± 0.36</td>
<td>2.1±1.0</td>
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<td>Ring 6</td>
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<td>+01:18:54.4</td>
<td>0.18</td>
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<td>2.4±1.0</td>
<td>1.35 ± 0.48</td>
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<td>Ring 7</td>
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<td>+01:18:51.5</td>
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<td>10.6±3.7</td>
<td>0.9±0.8</td>
<td>1.70 ± 0.29</td>
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<td>6.9±4.2</td>
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<td>2.9±0.8</td>
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<td>0.05</td>
<td>68.7±9.6</td>
<td>1.4±0.2</td>
<td>1.48 ± 0.09</td>
<td>17±2.5</td>
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<td>Star</td>
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<td>+01:18:41.7</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>12.6±4.0</td>
<td>2.1±0.6</td>
<td>1.22 ± 0.25</td>
<td>2.5±0.8</td>
<td>NA</td>
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</table>

Notes.

\(^{a}\) All confidence intervals are 1σ.

\(^{b}\) Δθ is the relative uncertainty in the source location.

\(^{c}\) Units for the unabsorbed X-ray luminosity, L_x, are 10^{39} erg s^{-1}.

\(^{d}\) Units for the unabsorbed X-ray luminosity, L_x, are 10^{39} erg s^{-1}.
used to align the X-ray and optical images to an accuracy of \(\sim 1/2''.\) The properties of the X-ray sources are summarized in Table 1 (see Section 2.1 for details). The locations of the X-ray sources are shown superposed on the \(HST\) image in Figure 2.

The faint background source is a 22nd magnitude object identified in the SDSS archive as a galaxy (SDSS J031120.03+011858.4), but which is very likely a quasar based on its X-ray luminosity.

The foreground star (SDSS J031120.42+011841.4) has \(g = 18.3, u - g = 2.55\) and \(g - r = 1.53,\) and is likely a nearby M star (see, e.g., Smolčić et al. 2004).

We have carried out an autocorrelation analysis of the \(HST\) image of the ring and find that the characteristic size of the blue knots is \(\sim 0.6'',\) i.e., a few hundred parsecs in physical size. This is also approximately the accuracy of our alignment of the X-ray image to the \(HST\) image. While it is quite obvious that there are a substantial number of ULX-level X-ray sources associated with the ring of star formation, the \(\sim 1''\) resolution of the \(Chandra\) image, the finite sizes of the blue knots in the \(HST\) image, their abundance, and the finite precision of the X-ray to optical image alignment prevent us from clearly identifying specific blue knots with particular X-ray sources. Therefore, we cannot positively determine whether the X-ray sources lie in or outside of individual knots.

Another issue is whether, in fact, each apparent source represents the emission from a single object or a blend of fainter sources. To address this, we have carried out a Monte Carlo simulation using a generic X-ray source luminosity function taken from Grimm et al. (2003; \(dN/dL_x \propto L_x^{-1.7}\)). We choose the X-ray source locations according to a uniform probability distribution within an annular region that approximately represents the ring of star formation. Each simulation is designed to produce an image containing the total X-ray flux that is actually observed. The simulated images are then smoothed with the \(Chandra\) point-spread function, and examined for detectable sources that may be, in fact, composite. Typically no more than one in eight of our detected sources within the ring can be expected to be comprised of multiple discrete sources. We have not, however, studied cases where the locations of X-ray sources are highly correlated.

### 4. The Star Formation Rate

There are a number of empirical relations between spectral fluxes in different bands and star formation rates. Given the excellent wavelength coverage of Arp 147, we attempt to utilize those relations to infer the SFR in the ring and to compare the results from different wavelengths.

A spectral energy distribution, integrated over the entire ring, is shown in Figure 3. Here we have defined \(L_\lambda \equiv 4\pi d^2 F_\lambda,\) where \(F_\lambda\) is the spectral flux and \(d\) is the distance to the source. The quantity \(\lambda L_\lambda\) has the dimensions of luminosity (and is equal to \(\nu L_\nu\)). The two UV points are from the \(Galex\) satellite, the three visible-region spectral points are from \(HST,\) and the remaining five IR points are from \(Spitzer.\)

Infrared spectral intensities at 24 \(\mu m\) and 8 \(\mu m\) can each be used to estimate the SFR (see, e.g., Wu et al. 2005). Equation (1) of Wu et al. (2005) can be written as

\[
SFR(24 \ \mu m) \simeq \frac{\lambda L_\lambda}{6.7 \times 10^8 L_\odot} M_\odot \text{yr}^{-1}. \tag{1}
\]

The 24 \(\mu m\) flux from the entire Arp 147 ring (see Figure 3) yields an SFR of \(\sim 6 M_\odot \text{yr}^{-1}.\) Equation (2) of Wu et al. (2005) relates the flux in the 8 \(\mu m\) band to the SFR:

\[
SFR(8 \ \mu m) \simeq \frac{\lambda L_\lambda}{1.4 \times 10^9 L_\odot} M_\odot \text{yr}^{-1}. \tag{2}
\]

Thus, the 8 \(\mu m\) flux from the entire Arp 147 ring (see Figure 3) yields an SFR of \(\sim 4 M_\odot \text{yr}^{-1}.\)

The SFR can be estimated from the UV flux by using Equation (12) of Rosa-Gonzalez et al. (2002):

\[
SFR(2000 \ \AA) \simeq 6.4 \times 10^{-28} \frac{\lambda L_\lambda}{\nu (\text{Hz})} M_\odot \text{yr}^{-1}. \tag{3}
\]
The approximate SFR from the GALEX measurement of the near-UV for the Arp 147 ring is $\sim 6 \, M_\odot \, \text{yr}^{-1}$, in very reasonable agreement with the values obtained from the Spitzer measurements.

Finally, we can use the relationship between the number of luminous X-ray sources (i.e., with $L_x \gtrsim 2 \times 10^{38} \, \text{erg s}^{-1}$) and SFR given by Grimm et al. (2003), in particular, their Equation (20), to estimate the SFR:

$$\text{SFR} \simeq 0.34 N (L > 2 \times 10^{38} \, \text{erg s}^{-1}).$$

(4)

The approximate SFR as inferred from the number of luminous Chandra X-ray sources in Arp 147 (with $L_x \gtrsim 1.4 \times 10^{39} \, \text{erg s}^{-1}$) is $\sim 12 \, M_\odot \, \text{yr}^{-1}$. This takes into account the fact that the current observations were only sensitive to sources a factor of about 7 more luminous than the Grimm et al. (2003) threshold luminosity, and an assumed differential luminosity function $\propto L^{-1.7}$ (as discussed in Section 3). We can also utilize the analogous expression given by Mapelli et al. (2010):

$$\text{SFR} \simeq 0.83 \pm 0.11 N (L > 10^{39} \, \text{erg s}^{-1}).$$

(5)

to infer an SFR of $\sim 9 \, M_\odot \, \text{yr}^{-1}$, again taking into account the actual lower limit of our luminosity sensitivity.

In any case, all the indicators point to a vigorous SFR within the ring of Arp 147 consistent with $\sim 7 \, M_\odot \, \text{yr}^{-1}$. By comparison, the SFR of the Milky Way, which is presumably substantially more massive than the ring ($\sim 8 \times 10^{11} \, M_\odot$; Battaglia et al. 2006; Gaustad et al. 2010), is $\sim 4 \pm 1 \, M_\odot \, \text{yr}^{-1}$ (see, e.g., McKee & Williams 1997; Diehl et al. 2007, and references therein). Nonetheless, it is worth noting that the Milky Way, on the basis of SFR alone, might be expected to host at least several ULXs, but it has at most one (possibly in the form of GRS 1915+105.) To the extent that this is statistically significant, it would imply that something more massive than just the SFR is involved (e.g., the rate of formation of massive stars, or the metallicity of the galaxy—see Section 5) in determining the number of ULXs present in a particular galaxy.

5. DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Arp 147 is a visually impressive pair of galaxies that show the effects of a recent collision. The collision drew the less massive, more gas-rich galaxy into a shape that appears ring-like, at least in projection, and triggered large rates of star formation. A dusty region on the south–southeast side of the ring is likely to have evolved from the nuclear region of the original gas-rich galaxy. The intruder galaxy is much redder in color and has a distinct ring structure surrounding a bright nuclear bulge. It seems reasonable to assume that this ring was also induced by the collision. Both the color of the intruder galaxy and the absence of indicators of star formation in its ring suggest that this galaxy was gas poor at the time of the collision.

There are significant uncertainties regarding the geometry and time scales of the collision even though there have been attempts, such as those of Gerber et al. (1992) and Mapelli et al. (2008), to model the event through numerical simulations. Nonetheless, the observed radial velocities and projected separation of the two galaxies suggest the scales of the important parameters. In particular, the recession velocities of the two galaxies differ by $\sim 250 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$, a difference that may be taken to be loosely representative of the relative velocity projected perpendicular to the line of sight. Since the nucleus of the intruder is separated (in projection) by $\sim 10 \, \text{kpc}$ from the original nucleus of the ring, a relative speed of $\sim 250 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$ would then imply that closest approach occurred $\sim 40 \, \text{Myr}$ ago.

For a Gaussian speed distribution, it is straightforward to show that, given a radial speed, $v_r$, the probability distribution for the tangential (i.e., sky plane) component, $v_t$ is

$$p(v_t) \propto v_t \sqrt{v_t^2 + v_r^2} \exp \left[ - (v_t^2 + v_r^2) / 2 \sigma^2 \right].$$

(6)

where $v_t \simeq 250 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$ and we adopt a value of $\sigma \simeq 235 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$ (see, e.g., Peebles 1980) since Arp 147 appears not to be part of any significant galaxy group. The most probable (relative) tangential velocity of Arp 147 based on the above probability distribution is $\sim 300 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$, and the 80% confidence upper and lower limits on $v_t$ are $\sim 475 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$ and $\sim 200 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$, respectively.

At the former transverse speed, the time since closest approach was at least 20 Myr ago, but the latter transverse speed would imply a time as long as 50 Myr. Since the collision is presumed to be off-center, the shocks in the ISM of the ring may have taken up to $\sim 10 \, \text{Myr}$ to fully develop and lead to copious star formation (M. Krumholz 2010, private communication). Thus, the major epoch of star formation in the ring of Arp 147 likely occurred some 10–40 Myr ago.

We have utilized available multiwavelength images of Arp 147 in the NIR, optical, and UV, as well as new X-ray observations to better understand the star formation and collision history of this interacting pair of galaxies.

The blue ring is luminous in the NIR, optical, UV, and X-ray bands, although its appearance changes in important ways from band to band. A spatially integrated spectrum of the ring is shown in Figure 3. The $L_x$ luminosity spectrum is roughly flat over the entire $0.16-24 \, \mu m$ wavelength range (i.e., constant to within a factor of $\sim 2$). The NIRM emission is likely a manifestation of star formation via heating of embedded dust by stellar UV (see Section 4). The brightest NIRM emission from the ring comes from near the original nucleus whose reddish color in the HST image indicates an abundance of interstellar dust. The ring is lit up in the UV nearly everywhere—except in the vicinity of the original nuclear site where it may be extinguished by dust. It is quite blue in the optical—this is consistent with the detection in the UV. Finally, the luminous X-ray sources are distributed mostly around the northern and eastern parts of the ring which also contain most of the bright blue knots of star formation.

The intruder galaxy is quite bright in the optical and NIR up to $\sim 5.8 \, \mu m$, but then fades at the longer wavelengths (see Figure 3). The Galex image of the intruder shows little detectable UV radiation. The integrated spectrum of the intruder is summarized in Figure 3. If we utilize the expressions given in Section 4 that relate the spectral luminosities at 0.2, 8, and 24 $\mu m$ to the SFR, we find that the intruder has an SFR that is about an order of magnitude lower than that of the ring. We interpret the bright NIRM emission of the intruder as being due to dust and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons that are heated by ordinary starlight (see, e.g., Draine & Li 2007) as well as being due to direct starlight. There is also a luminous X-ray source which we associate with the nucleus of the intruder galaxy. Its luminosity of $1.4 \times 10^{40} \, \text{erg s}^{-1}$ is in the ULX range, but there is
being maximum and red being minimum, in the ratio of \( \sim \)
in the ring galaxy are in the range \( (1 \times 10^4 \text{ to } 10^4) \text{ erg s}^{-1} \). The shape.

By contrast, we argue below that the formation has occurred over a long interval (i.e., hundreds of Myr) along or just behind the leading edge of the wave and is still ongoing at present. By contrast, we argue below that the absence of extremely luminous X-ray sources in Arp 147 may indicate that the peak of star formation therein occurred some tens of Myr in the past and has declined sharply as of \( \sim 15 \text{ Myr} \). Another possible difference may be the metallicities of the two galaxies. The Cartwheel has \( Z \simeq 0.14 Z_{\odot} \) and this may well enhance the formation rate of massive, but not IMBH, black holes (see, e.g., Mapelli et al. 2009, 2010). We are unaware of any metallicity determinations for Arp 147.

ULXs are likely to evolve significantly on time scales of millions to tens of millions of years. This is demonstrated in Figure 4, which shows a sample of the results of the population synthesis study of candidate ULXs carried out by Madhusudhan et al. (2008; see also Portegies Zwart et al. 2004b for a related earlier study). The candidate ULXs were (1) conventional high-mass X-ray binaries consisting of a massive donor star initially of mass 10–34 \( M_{\odot} \) and an accreting stellar-mass, i.e., \( 6–24 M_{\odot} \) black hole, and (2) donor stars initially of mass 5–50 \( M_{\odot} \) feeding a 1000 \( M_{\odot} \) black hole (IMBH). All systems were assumed to be born during the same starburst event. “Potential” X-ray luminosity is plotted against evolution time (time since the starburst). The potential luminosity is defined to be \( L_{\text{pot}} = \eta M_\dot{\nu} c^2 \), where \( M_\dot{\nu} \) is the mass transfer rate and \( \eta \) is the efficiency of the conversion of rest mass to energy of the accreted material. During the evolution calculations, any mass that is transferred in excess of the Eddington limit is ejected from the system. The potential luminosity is shown here to illustrate how high the luminosity might reach in the absence of the Eddington limit. In panel (a) (panel (b)), the line marked “Eddington Limit” is for a 10 \( M_{\odot} \) (1000 \( M_{\odot} \)) black hole accreting H-rich material. The color shading is related to the number of systems at a given evolution time having a given luminosity—blue being maximum and red being minimum, in the ratio of \( \sim 200:1 \). Very few X-ray sources with \( L_x \gtrsim 10^{39} \text{ erg s}^{-1} \) remain after \( \sim 15 \text{ Myr} \) (45 Myr).

\[ \frac{L_x}{L_{\text{Edd}}} = \frac{\eta M_\dot{\nu} c^2}{M_{\odot} \times 10^{39} \text{ erg s}^{-1}} \]

\[ \eta = \frac{L_{\text{Edd}}}{L_\dot{\nu} c^2} \]

\[ \dot{\nu} = \frac{M_{\odot} \times 10^{39} \text{ erg s}^{-1}}{L_{\text{Edd}}} \]

\[ L_{\text{Edd}} = \frac{\eta M_\dot{\nu} c^2}{\eta} \]

\[ \text{where } \eta \text{ is the efficiency of the conversion of rest mass to energy of the accreted material.} \]

\[ \text{The color shading is related to the number of systems at a given age} \]

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\[ \text{Few ULXs remain after } \sim 30 \text{ Myr. The simulations of accreting stellar mass} \]

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\[ \text{The simulations of IMBH ULXs show X-ray luminosities that reach or exceed } 10^{30} \text{ erg s}^{-1} \text{ for only about } 15 \text{ Myr. Few ULXs remain after } \sim 30 \text{ Myr. The simulations of accreting stellar mass} \]

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\[ \text{differential models indicate that the peak of star formation therein occurred some} \]

\[ \text{tens of Myr in the past and has declined sharply as of } \sim 15 \text{ Myr} \text{.} \]
black holes yield similar conclusions assuming that either the Eddington limit is not effective, or that the emission can be rather anisotropic, i.e., beamed.

When compared with the maximum luminosities of the X-ray sources in the ring of Arp 147, the simulation results suggest that the SFR in the ring has not been high enough during the past $\sim 15$ Myr to produce ULXs with $L_x > 10^{40}$ erg s$^{-1}$. This is consistent with the inferred time since the collision. This also suggests that the geometry is not like that of the Cartwheel. Rather than a disk with a propagating ring of star formation, Arp 147 is likely a small, tidally elongated and twisted galaxy that does not have such a radially propagating ring of star formation. Measurements of radial velocities at a number of positions around the ring would help to understand the true geometry.

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