Molecular gas in the host galaxy of a quasar at redshift $z = 6.42$

Fabian Walter*, Frank Bertoldi†, Chris Carilli*, Pierre Cox‡, K. Y. Lo*, Roberto Neri§, Xiaohui Fan||, Alain Omont¶, Michael A. Strauss# & Karl M. Menten†

* *National Radio Astronomy Observatory, PO Box 0, Socorro, New Mexico 87801, USA*
† *Max-Planck-Institut für Radioastronomie, Auf dem Hügel 69, 53121 Bonn, Germany*
‡ *Institut d'Astrophsique Spatiale, Universite de Paris-Sud, 91405 Orsay, France*
§ *IRAM, 300 Rue de la Piscine, 38406 St-Martin-d'Heres, France*
|| *Steward Observatory, University of Arizona, 933 N. Cherry Ave., Tucson, Arizona 85721, USA*
¶ *Institut d'Astrophysique de Paris, CNRS & Université Paris 6, 75014 Paris, France*
# *Princeton University Observatory, Princeton, New Jersey 08544, USA*

Observations of molecular hydrogen in quasar host galaxies at high redshifts provide fundamental constraints on galaxy evolution, because it is out of this molecular gas that stars form. Molecular hydrogen is traced by emission from the carbon monoxide molecule, CO; cold H_2 itself is generally not observable. Carbon monoxide has been detected in about ten quasar host galaxies with redshifts $z > 2$; the record-holder is at $z = 4.69$ (refs 1–3). Here we report CO emission from the quasar SDSS J114816.64 + 525150.3 (refs 5, 6) at $z = 6.42$. At that redshift, the Universe was only 1/16 of its present age, and the era of cosmic reionization was just ending. The presence of about $2 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$ of H_2 in an object at this time demonstrates that molecular gas enriched with heavy elements can be generated rapidly in the youngest galaxies.

The source, which we refer to as J1148 + 5251 in this Letter, is a luminous quasar which is thought to be powered by mass accretion onto a supermassive black hole of mass $(1–5) \times 10^9 M_\odot$ where the subscript $\odot$ refers to the Sun[7]. Optical spectra of J1148 + 5251 show a clear Gunn–Peterson trough[5,6] (that is, Lyα absorption by the neutral intergalactic medium, IGM), indicating that this quasar is situated at the end of the epoch of reionization[8]. Thermal emission from warm dust was detected at millimetre wavelengths, implying a far-infrared (FIR) luminosity of $1.3 \times 10^{13} L_\odot$ (ref. 9), corresponding to about 10% of the bolometric luminosity of the system (we assume $H_0 = 71\,\mathrm{km\,s^{-1}\,Mpc^{-1}}$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.73$ and $\Omega_m = 0.27$ throughout). We searched for molecular gas in J1148 + 5251 using the National Radio Astronomy Observatory's (NRAO) Very Large Array (VLA) and the IRAM Plateau de Bure interferometer (PdBI) in February–April 2003. The VLA observations have higher spatial resolution, whereas the PdBI has better spectral resolution. We observed the CO(3-2), (6-5) and (7-6) lines which are shifted to 46.6, 93.2 and 108.7 GHz, respectively, at $z = 6.42$. For J1148 + 5251 the possible redshift range based on broad optical emission lines is $z = 6.35$ (ref. 5) to 6.43 (ref. 7). We searched this entire range for CO(3-2) emission using the VLA at a resolution of 50 MHz (320 km s^{-1}, $\Delta z = 0.008$) per channel. CO(3-2) emission is clearly detected at high signal-to-noise ratio in the channel centred at 46.6149 GHz (see Figs 1 and 2), corresponding to a redshift of $z = 6.418 \pm 0.004$. The PdBI covered a redshift range from $z = 6.40–6.44$ and the CO emission is also detected at high significance (Fig. 2)[10]. Here we concentrate on the VLA results; a more detailed analysis of the entire data set will be presented elsewhere[10].

The velocity-integrated CO(3-2) flux is $S_{\mathrm{CO(3-2)}}\Delta v = 0.18 \pm 0.04\,\mathrm{Jy\,km\,s^{-1}}$. On the Kelvin scale (1 Jy = 250 K for a 1.5″ beam) the source has a peak line flux of 0.14 K and a line integral of $44 \pm 10\,\mathrm{K\,km\,s^{-1}}$. The CO luminosity L' (in K km s^{-1} pc^2) is given by[11]:

$$L' = 3.25 \times 10^7 \times S_{\mathrm{CO}}\Delta v \times \nu_{\mathrm{obs}}^{-2} \times D_L^2 \times (1+z)^{-3}$$

where D_L is the luminosity distance in Mpc and ν_{obs} is given in GHz. For J1148 + 5251 we obtain: $L'_{\mathrm{CO(3\text{-}2)}} = 2.7 \times 10^{10}\,\mathrm{K\,km\,s^{-1}\,pc^2}$. The total molecular gas mass, $M(\mathrm{H_2})$, can be derived from the relation $M(\mathrm{H_2}) = \alpha \times L'_{\mathrm{CO(1-0)}}$. In Galactic molecular clouds the conversion factor[12] is $\alpha \approx 2.0$ (in units of $M_\odot\,(\mathrm{K\,km\,s^{-1}\,pc^2})^{-1}$), but here we use the value $\alpha \approx 0.8$ (in units of $M_\odot\,(\mathrm{K\,km\,s^{-1}\,pc^2})^{-1}$), appropriate for ultraluminous infrared galaxies[13] ($L_{\mathrm{FIR}} \geq 10^{12} L_\odot$) and nuclear starburst galaxies[14]. Assuming a constant brightness temperature from CO(3-2) to CO(1-0)[10], this leads to $M(H_2) = 2.2 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$ for J1148 + 5251.

If the FIR luminosity of J1148 + 5251 is powered by star formation, the implied star formation rate is $3{,}000\,M_\odot$ per year (ref. 9). Comparing this to the molecular gas mass implies a short gas depletion timescale of the order of 10^7 years. However, given the high luminosity of the quasar it is possible that some fraction of the dust is heated by the quasar, in which case the star formation rate quoted above becomes an upper limit (resulting in a longer gas depletion timescale). The FIR continuum-to-CO line ratio for J1148 + 5251 is large, 440 (in $L_\odot\,(\mathrm{K\,km\,s^{-1}\,pc^2})^{-1}$), which is an order of magnitude larger than for normal star-forming galaxies[15] (5–50), but is comparable to that seen in ULIRGs and other high redshift quasars[9]. Some authors have suggested that high continuum-to-line ratios indicate high star-formation efficiencies[15]. Alternatively, dust heating by the active galactic nuclei (AGN) could lead to large continuum-to-line ratios.

A dynamical mass for the system can be derived from the CO observations, assuming that the CO is rotationally supported. The upper limit to the CO source diameter derived from gaussian fitting is 1.5″ (1″ = 5.46 kpc). A lower limit to the source diameter can be derived from the measured brightness temperature (T_{obs}) by assuming an intrinsic brightness temperature T_b: $\Omega_S/\Omega_B = (T_{\mathrm{obs}}/T_b)(1+z)$, where Ω_S and Ω_B are the source and beam solid angles. The most extreme case is a single optically thick emission region, in which case T_b equals $T_{\mathrm{ex}} - T_{\mathrm{CMB}}$, the excitation brightness temperature minus the continuum temperature of the cosmic microwave background at $z = 6.4$ (~20 K). This gives a minimum source diameter of $0.2''(T_b)^{-1/2}$ where T_b is in units of 50 K. Assuming a rotational velocity of $v_{\mathrm{rot}} = 130 \sin^{-1}(i)$ in units of km s^{-1} (Fig. 2), where i is the inclination angle with respect to the sky plane, yields a range for the dynamical mass of $M_{\mathrm{dyn}} = (2–16) \times 10^9 \times \sin^{-2}(i) M_\odot$. This is comparable to the molecular gas mass in J1148 + 5251, implying that either molecular gas dominates the dynamics of the system, or that the plane of rotation is close to the sky plane. The optical spectrum of the quasar shows no significant reddening[5], despite the large dust mass of the host galaxy[9]. This suggests that the disk of molecular gas (and dust) is oriented close to the sky plane such that the line of the sight to the nucleus is relatively unobscured. We note that the mass of the central back hole[4] probably constitutes a significant fraction (~1–10%) of the total dynamical mass in the inner few kilopersecs of J1148 + 5251, in contrast to what is generally found for nearby galaxies[16,17].

The CO redshift of $z = 6.419$ (Fig. 2) corresponds to the systemic redshift of the host galaxy of J1148 + 5251, since it traces the extended molecular gas distribution in the quasar and is not associated with emission supposedly emerging from energetic processes, such as lines of shocked outflow gas or gas related to AGN accretion. The latter has been found to be shifted significantly in frequency with respect to the systemic redshift[18]. Indeed, studies of high ionization ultraviolet lines (in particular SiIV)[5] in J1148 + 5251 yield a redshift of $z = 6.37$ corresponding to a velocity offset of ~2,000 km s^{-1}. The CO redshift is however in good agreement with the redshift derived from the low ionization MgII line[7].

Measuring an accurate redshift is particularly important to determine the state of the IGM around the quasar (the ‘proximity effect’). In the optical speectrum[5,7] there is essentially zero emission present in the wavelength range corresponding to Lyα at $z = 5.7$–6.33 (due to the Gunn–Peterson effect); emission for $z > 6.33$ can be attributed to the ionized medium around the quasar. Using the source redshift of 6.419 results in a Strömgren sphere around J1148 + 5251 with a comoving radius of $R_S = 4.8$ Mpc. An estimate for the age for this sphere (and hence for the quasar itself) can be derived from R_S using[19,6]

$$\dot{N}_{ph} \times t_q = 0.34 \times [R_S \times (1 + z_q)/7.419]^3,$$

where $\dot{N}_{ph}$ is in units of $10^{58}\,s^{-1}$, t_q in units of 10^7 yr, R_S in units of 4.8 Mpc, and assuming $\dot{N}_{ph} = (0.2–1.3) \times 10^{58}\,s^{-1}$ (refs 6, 20, 21). This calculation results in an age of order 10^7 yr for the quasar activity in J1148 + 5251. Interestingly, this timescale is comparable to the formation timescale for the central black hole, which has an *e*-folding timescale for accretion of order 4×10^7 yr (assuming a radiative efficiency of 0.1 and that the black hole is accreting at the Eddington limit)[7], suggesting that the AGN ionizes a significant volume around the quasar.

The fact that we detect CO emission implies that the process of enrichment of the ISM in J1148 + 5251 with heavy elements is relatively advanced, that is, that significant star formation has occurred in the quasar host galaxy prior to $z = 6.4$. This conclusion is supported by the fact that both strong metal emission lines[5], and thermal emission from warm dust[9], were detected from J1148 + 5251. A recent optical study of a $z = 6.28$ quasar even suggests supersolar metallicities in these early objects[22]. Assuming a Galactic abundance for J1148 + 5251 we derive an order-of-magnitude estimate for the total mass in CO of M(CO) $\approx 3 \times 10^7\,M_\odot$ (ref. 10). This amount of C and O could be produced relatively quickly by $\sim 10^7$ hundred solar-mass population III stars[23] with lifetimes $< 10^7$ yr. Likewise, if enrichment was achieved by conventional supernovae[24] and assuming a star-formation rate of order $3{,}000\,M_\odot\,yr^{-1}$ (ref. 9), we estimate a time for enrichment of order 10^7 yr. We consider this time a lower limit for enrichment of the ISM since redistribution and cooling of the gas will occur on timescales of order 10^8 yr. This implies that the ISM enrichment process in J1148 + 5251 presumably started at redshifts $z > 8$. This is in

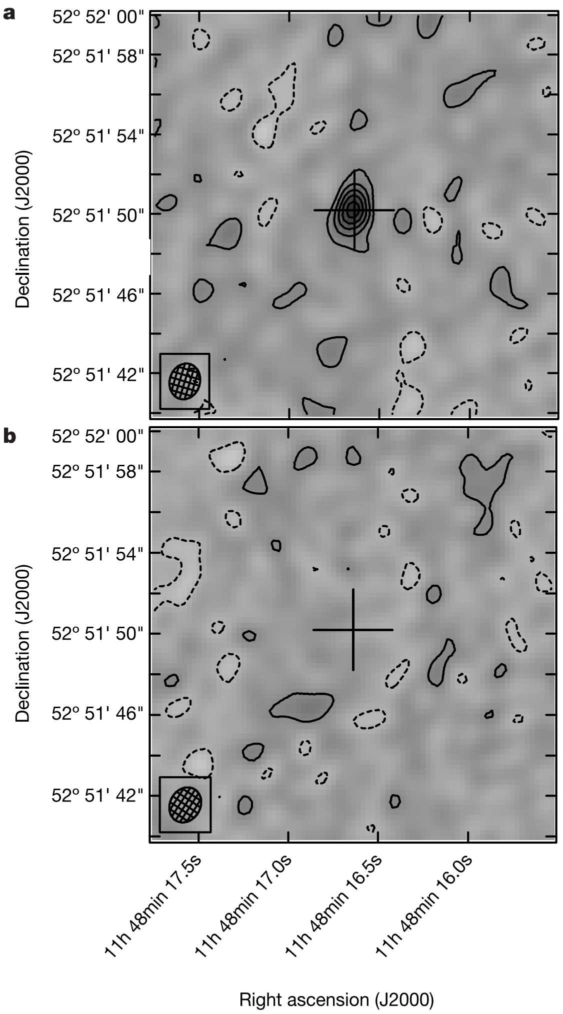

Figure 1 CO detection in J1148+5251. **a**, VLA CO(3-2) emission detected at 46.6149 GHz ($z = 6.418$, bandwith: 50 MHz, $\Delta z = 0.008$). **b**, Co-added VLA emission in the neighbouring line-free channels. The (1σ) noise in both images is 0.057 mJy beam^{-1} and contours are plotted at −0.1, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 mJy per beam. The peak flux in **a** is 0.570 mJy per beam; that is, J1148+5251 is detected at 10σ. On the basis of the line-free channels we derive a 2σ upper limit to the continuum emission at 46.6 GHz (restframe wavelength = 870 μm) of 0.11 mJy. The cross indicates the optical position of J1148+5251. The optical and radio positions are coincident within the uncertainties ($\sim 0.1'' = 0.6$ kpc). The observations were taken with the VLA in the most compact configuration (D array, maximum baseline: ~1 km, leading to a resolution of $1.8'' \times 1.5''$; the beam is plotted in the lower left of each panel). Only two 50-MHz channels can be observed at once with the VLA, so the source has been observed repeatedly with different frequency settings; observations were made using two polarizations and 2 IFs of 50 MHz each, scanning in frequency from 47.065 GHz to 46.515 GHz, corresponding to a CO(3-2) redshift rage of 6.347 to 6.434. The observing time for the channels shown are ~20 h, respectively. Observations were obtained in fast switching mode, and the phase stability was excellent at all times. We used the nearby quasar 11534+49311 (flux density = 1.6 Jy at 46.6 GHz) for phase and amplitude calibration. The absolute flux calibration was derived by observing 3C286. No evidence for strong gravitational lensing is seen in optical images[5], rendering strong magnification unlikely. However, the presence of an intervening galaxy at $z = 4.9$ has been suggested, based on optical spectroscopy[6], and counts of radio and optical sources in the vicinity of J1148+5251 argue for a foreground cluster, such that weak magnification (about a factor of two) is possible[5,9].

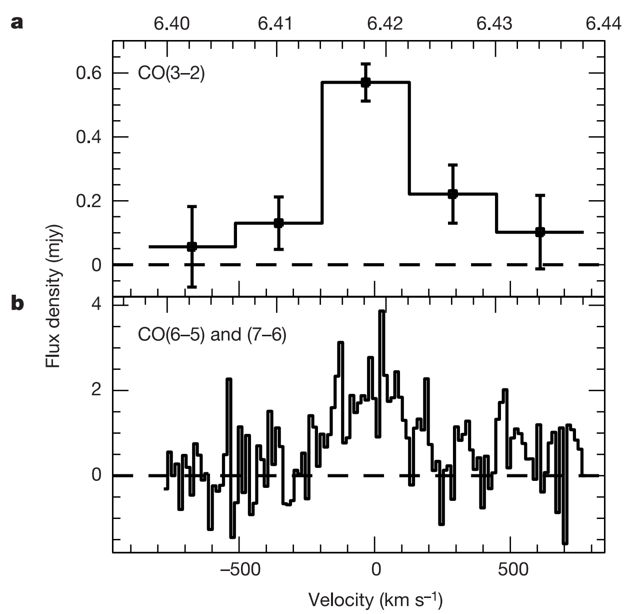

Figure 2 The CO spectrum of J1148+5251. **a**, The spectrum of the CO(3-2) line of J1148+5251 at 320 km s^{-1} resolution as observed with the VLA. The plotted errors are ±1σ. **b**, The averaged CO(6-5) and CO(7-6) observations from the PdBI[10] (channel width = 5 MHz = 13.8 km s^{-1}, noise per channel = 0.8 mJy, beam size $\approx 5''$) to demonstrate the consistency of the results obtained by the two instruments. A gaussian fit to the PdBI data gives a velocity width of 250 km s^{-1} and a redshift of $z = 6.419$ (corresponding to ‘0’ velocity)[10].

agreement with the recent results from the Wilkinson Microwave Anisotropy Probe (WMAP) which indicate that the first onset of star formation most probably occurred at redshifts $z \approx 15$–20 ($\sim$250 Myr after the Big Bang)[25–27].

The presence of Lyα emitting galaxies and luminous quasars at the end of cosmic reionization ($z > 6.0$), at a time when the IGM was at least 1% neutral, was clearly demonstrated[5,28]. This epoch of reionization represents a key benchmark in cosmic structure formation, indicating the formation of the first luminous structures. Detecting a large reservoir of molecular gas in this epoch demonstrates the existence of the requisite fuel for active star formation in primeval galaxies. The existence of such reservoirs of molecular gas at early times implies that studies of the youngest galaxies will be possible at millimetre and centimetre wavelengths, unhindered by obscuration by the neutral IGM. □

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to F.W. (fwalter@nrao.edu).

Rotational actuators based on carbon nanotubes

A. M. Fennimore*, T. D. Yuzvinsky*, Wei-Qiang Han*, M. S. Fuhrer*†, J. Cumings*† & A. Zettl*

* *Department of Physics, University of California at Berkeley, and Materials Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, California 94720, USA*

Nanostructures are of great interest not only for their basic scientific richness, but also because they have the potential to revolutionize critical technologies. The miniaturization of electronic devices over the past century has profoundly affected human communication, computation, manufacturing and transportation systems. True molecular-scale electronic devices are now emerging that set the stage for future integrated nanoelectronics[1]. Recently, there have been dramatic parallel advances in the miniaturization of mechanical and electromechanical devices[2]. Commercial microelectromechanical systems now reach the submillimetre to micrometre size scale, and there is intense interest in the creation of next-generation synthetic nanometre-scale electromechanical systems[3,4]. We report on the construction and successful operation of a fully synthetic nanoscale electromechanical actuator incorporating a rotatable metal plate, with a multi-walled carbon nanotube serving as the key motion-enabling element.

The overall size scale of our actuator is of the order of $\sim$300 nm and its components are integrated on a silicon chip. Low-level externally applied voltages precisely control the operation speed and position of the rotor plate. Repeated oscillations of the rotor plate between positions 180° apart, as well as rotations of 360°, have been demonstrated with no signs of wear or fatigue. Unlike existing chemically driven bio-actuators and bio-motors, our fully synthetic nanometre-scale electromechanical system (NEMS) actuator is designed to operate over a wide range of frequency, temperature, and environmental conditions, including high vacuum and harsh chemical environments.

Although devices have been made by scaling down existing microelectromechanical systems (MEMS), the workhorse methods and materials of MEMS technology are not universally well suited to the nanoscale. Ultra-small silicon-based systems fail to achieve desired high-Q mechanical resonances owing to dominant surface effects and thermoelastic damping, and limitations in strength and flexibility compromise silicon-based high-performance actuators[5,6]. On the other hand, the unusual mechanical and electronic properties of carbon[7] and boron-nitride[8] nanotubes (including favourable elastic modulus and tensile strength, high thermal and electrical conductivity, and low inter-shell friction of the atomically smooth surfaces[9,10]) suggest that nanotubes may serve as important NEMS-enabling materials.

Figure 1a shows the conceptual design of the electromechanical rotational actuator. The rotational element (R), a solid rectangular metal plate serving as a rotor plate, is attached transversely to a suspended support shaft. The support shaft ends are embedded in electrically conducting anchors (A1, A2) that rest on the oxidized surface of a silicon chip. The rotor plate assembly is surrounded by three fixed stator electrodes: two 'in-plane' stators (S1, S2) are horizontally opposed and rest on the silicon oxide surface, and the third 'gate' stator (S3) is buried beneath the surface. Four independent (d.c. and/or appropriately phased a.c.) voltage signals, one to the rotor plate and three to the stators, can be applied to

† Present addresses: Department of Physics, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742-4111, USA (M.S.F.); Department of Physics, Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305-4045, USA (J.C.).

