CLUSTERS OF SMALL CLUMPS CAN EXPLAIN THE PECULIAR PROPERTIES OF GIANT CLUMPS IN HIGH-REDSHIFT GALAXIES

M. BEHRENDT\textsuperscript{1,2}, A. BURKERT\textsuperscript{1,2,4}, and M. SCHARTMANN\textsuperscript{3}

\textsuperscript{1} Max Planck Institute for extraterrestrial Physics, PO box 1312, Giessenbachstraße, D-85741 Garching, Germany; mabe@mpe.mpg.de
\textsuperscript{2} University Observatory Munich, Scheinerstraße 1, D-81679 Munich, Germany
\textsuperscript{3} Centre for Astrophysics and Supercomputing, Swinburne University of Technology, Hawthorn, Victoria 3122, Australia

Received 2015 December 8; accepted 2016 February 2; published 2016 February 23

Abstract

Giant clumps are a characteristic feature of observed high-redshift disk galaxies. We propose that these kiloparsec-sized clumps have a complex substructure and are the result of many smaller clumps self-organizing themselves into clump clusters (CCs). This bottom-up scenario is in contrast to the common top-down view that these giant clumps form first and then subfragment. Using a high-resolution hydrodynamical simulation of an isolated, fragmented massive gas disk and mimicking the observations from Genzel et al. at $z \approx 2$, we find remarkable agreement in many details. The CCs appear as single entities of sizes $R_{\text{FWHM}} \approx 0.9$–1.4 kpc and masses $(1.5$–$3) \times 10^9 M_\odot$, representative of high-$z$ observations. They are organized in a ring around the center of the galaxy. The origin of the observed clumps’ high intrinsic velocity dispersion $\sigma_{\text{intrinsic}} \approx 50$–100 km s$^{-1}$ is fully explained by the internal irregular motions of their substructure in our simulation. No additional energy input, e.g., via stellar feedback, is necessary. Furthermore, in agreement with observations, we find a small velocity gradient $V_{\text{grad}} \approx 8$–27 km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$ along the CCs in the beam-smearred velocity residual maps, which corresponds to net prograde and retrograde rotation with respect to the rotation of the galactic disk. The CC scenario could have strong implications for the internal evolution, lifetimes, and the migration timescales of the observed giant clumps, bulge growth, and active galactic nucleus activity, stellar feedback, and the chemical enrichment history of galactic disks.

Key words: galaxies: evolution – galaxies: high-redshift – galaxies: structure – hydrodynamics – instabilities – methods: numerical

1. INTRODUCTION

Typical characteristics of observed high-redshift ($z \approx 1$–3) star-forming galaxies are their large baryonic cold gas fractions (Daddi et al. 2008, 2010; Tacconi et al. 2008, 2010, 2013) and high-velocity dispersion, their irregular morphology, and a few kiloparsec-sized clumps containing baryonic masses of $\gtrsim 10^8$–$10^9 M_\odot$ (Elmegreen et al. 2004, 2005, 2007; Förster Schreiber et al. 2009, 2011a, 2011b; Genzel et al. 2011, 2014). The common understanding is that these higher gas fractions and densities lead to gravitationally unstable disks with a Toomre parameter of $Q < 0.7$ (Toomre 1964; Goldreich & Lynden-Bell 1965; Behrendt et al. 2015) that fragment into a few kiloparsec-sized objects (Bournaud 2016, p. 355 and references therein). This picture is supported by the detection of massive clumps in observations and from cosmological simulations. Linear perturbation theory indeed predicts a dominant growing wavelength of the order of several 100 pc to kiloparsec scales (e.g., Dekel et al. 2009; Genzel et al. 2011). Behrendt et al. (2015), however, recently showed that this wavelength determines the initial sizes of a few axisymmetric rings growing from inside-out instead of a few kiloparsec-sized clumps if initially the densities in the mid-plane are sufficiently resolved (see also Bournaud et al. 2014 and Figure 6 in Bournaud 2016). These rings break up into many clumps after they collapsed onto parsec-scales. The typical clump ensemble in a simulation of a massive disk with $\sim 3 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$ is initially dominated by clumps with average masses of $\sim 2 \times 10^7 M_\odot$, and a typical radius of $R \sim 35$ pc and later on most of the mass resides in a population of clumps with $\sim 2 \times 10^8 M_\odot$ and a radius of $R \sim 60$ pc (M. Behrendt et al. 2016, in preparation). Interestingly, a similar mass range has been found in the studies of Tamburello et al. (2015), where the clumps fragment from spiral features produced at $Q \sim Q_{\text{crit}}$. Later on, the clumps in our simulation quickly form groups on several 100 pc to kiloparsec scales, which we will call clump clusters (CCs).\textsuperscript{5}

In this Letter, we explore the question of whether these CCs could resemble the properties of the giant clumps observed in redshift 2 galaxies. The instrumental resolution, which spatially smears-out the information on kiloparsec scales, plays an important role. Hints regarding substructure are, however, mainly given by local gas-rich disk galaxies, which can be observed with much higher resolution. The DYNAMO survey identified local galaxies with very similar properties as found at $z \sim 2$ (Green et al. 2010; Bassett et al. 2014; Fisher et al. 2014) containing clumps with typical diameters $(d_{\text{clump}}) \approx 0.6$ kpc (Fisher 2015).

We use a higher resolution version of the simulation presented in Behrendt et al. (2015) and compare CC properties with the giant clumps of the five luminous star-forming disk galaxies at $z \sim 2$ from Genzel et al. (2011). This pioneering work for the first time presented detailed line profiles of individual giant clumps. The following list summarizes the observationally motivated questions that can be explained by our CC scenario.

1. Do the giant clumps have substructure? Observationally, only one example of a very bright clump is found where a

\textsuperscript{5} The term “CCs” was previously used in the literature to describe a conglomeration of kiloparsec-sized structures seen at high redshifts. It was abandoned later on and replaced by the notation “clumpy galaxies” (see the explanation in Elmegreen & Elmegreen 2005).
substructure is hinted in the velocity channel maps given the large beam smearing.

2. What is the origin of the high intrinsic velocity dispersion $\sigma_{\text{intrinsic}} \approx 50-100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ of the clumps? Often, this is attributed to stellar feedback, but in the analysis of the observations no significant correlation between local velocity dispersion and star formation surface density could be found.

3. Are the giant clumps rotationally supported? Small velocity gradients are found along the clumps $V_{\text{grad}} \approx 10-30 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{kpc}^{-1}$ in the velocity residual maps, which corresponds to net prograde and retrograde rotation with respect to the rotation of the galaxy. When considering the beam-smearing effects on the kinematics Genzel et al. (2011) concluded that these clumps are either pressure supported by high-velocity dispersion (see also Dekel & Krumholz 2013) or they are still undergoing collapse because of the small velocity gradients.

In Section 2, we describe the simulation code and the disk setup and how we mimic the observations. Section 3 gives an overview of the disk evolution and addresses the single issues listed above. Finally, in Section 4, we summarize the results and derive implications.

2. SIMULATION

2.1. Code and Disk Setup

We run the simulation with the hydrodynamical AMR code RAMSES (Teyssier 2002) in a box of 48 kpc and with a maximum resolution of $\Delta x = 2.9 \text{ pc}$. The hydrodynamical equations describing the evolution of the self-gravitating gas disk with an isothermal equation of state are solved by the HLL Riemann solver and the MinMod slope limiter (Fromang et al. 2006). A static dark matter halo is added as an external potential. To sufficiently resolve the mid-plane gas density distribution, we represent the Jeans length by at least $N_J = 19$ grid cells at every resolution level and the refinement criterion stops at maximum resolution. To avoid artificial fragmentation for higher densities at 2.9 pc resolution, we add a pressure floor in order to assure $N_J = 7$ grid elements per Jeans length, which leads to a lower limit for the clump radius of 10.3 pc (Truelove et al. 1997; Agertz et al. 2009; Bournaud et al. 2010). The same disk model as in Behrendt et al. (2015) is used. We adopt an exponential gas disk with total mass of $M_{\text{disk}} = 2.7 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$, scale length $h = 5.26$ kpc, and outer radius $R_{\text{disk}} = 16$ kpc. The Toomre parameter $Q < 0.7$ within 10.5 kpc and the disk is, therefore, unstable to axisymmetric modes in this radius regime. The dark matter halo has the density profile of Burkert (1995) with $M_{DM} = 1.03 \times 10^{11} M_\odot$ within 16 kpc. The isothermal temperature of $10^4 K$ represents the typical micro-turbulent pressure floor and keeps the initial vertical density distribution stable until the disk fragments.

2.2. Mimicking the Observations

We compare the results with the clump properties of the H$\alpha$ observations of five disk galaxies from Genzel et al. (2011) at $z \sim 2.2-2.4$. The instrumental angular resolutions of $0\arcsec 18 - 0\arcsec 25$ correspond to FWHM $\approx 1.5-2.1$ kpc. We “observe” the simulated galaxy at an inclination of $i = 60^\circ$, which is the most likely value for a random orientation and construct line-of-sight (LOS) maps of the spatial and kinematic components. The resolution of the observational instrument is mimicked by convolving the LOS surface density with a 2D Gaussian of FWHM $= 1.6$ kpc (Section 3.2). The result can be interpreted as a map of the molecular gas surface density since the majority of the gas mass ($\sim 76\%$) resides in clumps with surface densities $\gtrsim 100 M_\odot \text{ pc}^{-2}$. This corresponds to the observed H$\alpha$ maps due to the usually adopted linear “Kennicutt–Schmidt” relation from Tacconi et al. (2013; PHIBBS calibration), see also Genzel et al. (2014). For the kinematic analysis, we take the mass-weighted LOS velocity information of the simulation. Tacconi et al. (2013) found that the ratio of rotational velocity to local velocity dispersion in CO agrees to first order with ratios obtained from H$\alpha$ maps of similar star-forming galaxies. The LOS velocities of the clump regions in Section 3.3 are binned into “channels” of width 34 km s$^{-1}$ and spatially convolved. To obtain the intrinsic clump velocities, the beam-smeared LOS velocity of a rotating featureless exponential disk model is subtracted. We do not convolve with the instrumental spectral resolution of FWHM $= 85$ km s$^{-1}$ since this contribution is already removed in the observational values we compare with.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Overview of the Disk Evolution

The simulation evolves as in Behrendt et al. (2015). The main difference in the new simulation is its higher spatial resolution, which in turn increases the resolution of the CCs, which are the focus of this Letter. In addition, we were able to reduce the pressure floor to a more realistic value. The unstable disk fragments into rings from inside-out in excellent agreement with the local fastest growing wavelength. The rings subsequently break up into hundreds of clumps, identified with a clump finder (Bleuler & Teyssier 2014; Bleuler et al. 2015) and considering gas densities $n_g \gtrsim 100 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The clump statistic will be discussed in great detail in a forthcoming paper (M. Behrendt et al. 2016, in preparation). The clumps initially have typical masses of several $10^3 M_\odot$ and radii around 35 pc. Later on, they evolve by merging with other clumps and reorganize themselves into large CCs. The fragmented disk (at 655 Myr) can be seen in the LOS surface density map in Figure 1(a). In this simulation, we do not include stellar feedback. However, we refer to the study and discussion in Bournaud et al. (2014) who have shown that the clumps below a mass of a few $10^3 M_\odot$ are mainly short-lived and effected by stellar feedback processes while the more massive clumps can survive several hundreds of megayears, which is long enough for CCs to form, as discussed in the next section. In future work, we will include stellar feedback in order to investigate its effect on the evolution.

3.2. CCs Appear as Kiloparsec-sized Clumps

The clumps organize themselves into clusters on several 100 pc to kiloparsec scales. These CCs represent groups of individual clumps with diameters of $\sim 100$ pc. As an example, a zoom-in of Cluster A in the evolved disk (655 Myr) is shown in Figure 1(b). The region has a radius of $\sim 1.25$ kpc in the face-on view. When we convolve the LOS surface density map with a Gaussian filter of FWHM $= 1.6$ kpc, the substructure of the CCs is completely smeared out (Figure 1(c)). They now appear as single entities, arranged into a ring with a radius of
4–7.7 kpc around the center of the galaxy. At \( t = 655 \) Myr, we also find that CCs merge in the center of the galaxy, leading to the formation of a bulge component. The details of bulge formation by CCs will be investigated in a forthcoming paper (M. Behrendt et al. 2016, in preparation). Here, we focus on the prominent CCs, labeled A, B, C, D, and E in the galactic disk region. Since the disk is fragmenting from inside-out, these clusters were built from clumps that formed after 300 Myr. The beam-smeared CC’s surface densities peak at \( \Sigma_{\text{LOS}} = 300–600 \) \( M_\odot \text{pc}^{-2} \) and the more elongated clusters (B and C) have somewhat smaller surface densities in the convolved map compared to the clusters with more concentrated substructure (A, D, and E). Their large radii of \( R_{\text{FWHM}} = 0.95–1.4 \) kpc (Figure 1(d)) are similar to the identified clumps in Genzel et al. (2011). The CC’s total masses are \( 1.6–3 \times 10^9 M_\odot \). The typical clumps in Genzel et al. (2011) have masses of a few times \( 10^9 M_\odot \) and the most extreme clumps masses of \( \sim 10^{10} M_\odot \). The difference to our result can by explained by the approximately three times larger total baryonic mass in their observed galaxies.

### 3.3. Origin of the Intrinsic High Velocity Dispersion

The measured intrinsic velocity dispersion of the five CCs is shown in Figure 1(e). Before we construct the integrated spectrum of the cluster regions, we take the LOS velocity and bin it into “channel” maps of width 34 km s\(^{-1}\), which we spatially convolve with a Gaussian of FWHM = 1.6 kpc. Then, we subtract the beam-smeared rotation of the smoothed galactic disk model to extract the velocity imprint of the clumps. The remaining integrated residual velocities of a cluster region are normalized to the maximum “intensity” (LOS surface density). As shown in Figure 1(e), our CCs have velocity dispersions of \( \sigma_{\text{intrinsic}} \approx 65–105 \) km s\(^{-1}\) in remarkable agreement with the observations. These high values are a result of the internal irregular motions of their substructures. The original
rotation-dominated clumps are stabilized by random motion rather than rotation (see also Dekel & Krumholz 2013). The high-resolution simulations presented in Ceverino et al. (2012) indeed show a rich spectrum of substructures (see also Bournaud 2016), similar to our simulation. They argue that the internal supersonic turbulence dominates the kinematics of the giant clumps and induces the break up into subunits. We instead conclude that small clumps form first and organize themselves into giant clusters, which build the substructure that regulates the cluster dynamics. Following Genzel et al. (2011), we measure velocity gradients along cuts of largest gradients of the CCs of our beam-smeared residual maps (inclination corrected), which we indicate with arrows in Figure 1(c). The gradients range between $V_{\text{grad}} \approx 8-27$ km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$ (Figure 1(e)), which is again in surprisingly good agreement with the observations. The self-rotation of the individual clumps within a CC is completely washed out and only a gradient over the whole cluster region remains, which is due to several reasons. For a better understanding, we show the unsmeared LOS residual velocities in Figure 1(f) where the clusters can be identified as “Rotating Islands” (A, B, D, and E). They appear as large blue- and redshifted areas with small substructures of high velocities representing the individual, spinning clumps. Cluster C shows only a modest imprint of a velocity gradient with $\sim 8$ km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$ since its substructures are “coincidentally” close together. The other clusters rotate either slowly or faster around their centers of mass and are continuously perturbed by encounters with other CCs. We could not find any correlation between the kinematics and their masses or radii. Clusters with a larger $V_{\text{grad}}$ have a tendency to also have an increased $\sigma_{\text{intrinsic}}$ in our snapshot; however, the statistics are too low to argue that it is significant. The observed clumps also show prograde and retrograde velocity gradients with respect to the rotation of the galaxy. A giant clump, which formed due to gravitational instability in a sheared disk should, however, have an angular momentum vector pointing in the same direction as its host galaxy. This coordinated rotation is indeed seen in the clumps that formed initially by gravitational disk instabilities. However, the situation is different for our CCs because they continuously interact or merge with clumps. The clusters A, B, and E rotate retrograde while C and D rotate prograde (indicated by the direction of the arrow from blue- to redshifted velocities in Figure 1(c) and by the symbols in Figure 1(e)).

3.4. Spin of the Kiloparsec-sized Clumps

There are not enough resolved numerical simulations of gas-rich disks in which the kiloparsec-sized clumps are fast rotating and supported by internal centrifugal forces (e.g., Immeli et al. 2004a, 2004b; Dekel et al. 2009; Aumer et al. 2010). This is in contradiction to the observations that indicate dispersion-dominated clumps are stabilized by random motion rather than rotation (see also Dekel & Krumholz 2013). The high-resolution simulations presented in Ceverino et al. (2012) indeed show a rich spectrum of substructures (see also Bournaud 2016), similar to our simulation. They argue that the internal supersonic turbulence dominates the kinematics of the giant clumps and induces the break up into subunits. We instead conclude that small clumps form first and organize themselves into giant clusters, which build the substructure that regulates the cluster dynamics. Following Genzel et al. (2011), we measure velocity gradients along cuts of largest gradients of the CCs of our beam-smeared residual maps (inclination corrected), which we indicate with arrows in Figure 1(c). The gradients range between $V_{\text{grad}} \approx 8-27$ km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$ (Figure 1(e)), which is again in surprisingly good agreement with the observations. The self-rotation of the individual clumps within a CC is completely washed out and only a gradient over the whole cluster region remains, which is due to several reasons. For a better understanding, we show the unsmeared LOS residual velocities in Figure 1(f) where the clusters can be identified as “Rotating Islands” (A, B, D, and E). They appear as large blue- and redshifted areas with small substructures of high velocities representing the individual, spinning clumps. Cluster C shows only a modest imprint of a velocity gradient with $\sim 8$ km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$ since its substructures are “coincidentally” close together. The other clusters rotate either slowly or faster around their centers of mass and are continuously perturbed by encounters with other CCs. We could not find any correlation between the kinematics and their masses or radii. Clusters with a larger $V_{\text{grad}}$ have a tendency to also have an increased $\sigma_{\text{intrinsic}}$ in our snapshot; however, the statistics are too low to argue that it is significant. The observed clumps also show prograde and retrograde velocity gradients with respect to the rotation of the galaxy. A giant clump, which formed due to gravitational instability in a sheared disk should, however, have an angular momentum vector pointing in the same direction as its host galaxy. This coordinated rotation is indeed seen in the clumps that formed initially by gravitational disk instabilities. However, the situation is different for our CCs because they continuously interact or merge with clumps. The clusters A, B, and E rotate retrograde while C and D rotate prograde (indicated by the direction of the arrow from blue- to redshifted velocities in Figure 1(c) and by the symbols in Figure 1(e)).

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We compared a high-resolution simulation of a clumpy massive gas disk with the $z \sim 2$ galaxies of Genzel et al. (2011). The Toomre unstable $Q < Q_{\text{crit}}$ disk naturally evolves into a large number of clumps, initially with an average mass of $2 \times 10^4 M_\odot$ ($R = 35$ pc) and later on most of the mass in mergers is of $\sim 2 \times 10^5 M_\odot$ with a radius of $R \sim 60$ pc (M. Behrendt et al. 2016, in preparation). They subsequently self-organize into several 100 pc to kiloparsec-sized CCs in a ring-like distribution. We analyze the fully fragmented disk at an inclination of $i = 60^\circ$. By mimicking the observations, we find the following results.

1. In the beam-smeared disk (FWHM = 1.6 kpc) the small-scale substructure disappears and only a few giant clumps are visible with $R_{\text{FWHM}} \approx 0.9-1.4$ kpc and masses of $\sim 1.5-3 \times 10^9 M_\odot$. They are organized in a ring with a radius of 4–7.7 kpc around the center of the galaxy. The giant clumps are actually CCs and show a rich substructure on parsec scales. The model galaxy has around three times less baryonic mass than the observed galaxies in Genzel et al. (2011) which is reflected in three times less massive CCs.

2. The high intrinsic velocity dispersion $\sigma_{\text{intrinsic}} \approx 65-105$ km s$^{-1}$ of the CCs is caused by their subclump’s high irregular motions. This is in contrast to previous assumptions that attributed the dispersion to turbulence generated by stellar feedback. We tested the effect of beam smearing on the inferred velocity dispersions and find no significant differences, indicating that these signatures can be used as realistic indicators of the CC kinematics. The observed high dispersion of massive clumps in gas-rich galaxies might, therefore, be indirect evidence for a cluster of weakly bound substructures and a characteristic property of CCs. This is also in agreement with the finding of Genzel et al. (2011) that no significant correlation between their dispersion of $\sigma_{\text{intrinsic}} \approx 53-95$ km s$^{-1}$ and the star formation surface density exists.

3. The CCs show small velocity gradients of $V_{\text{grad}} \approx 8-27$ km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$, which correspond to net prograde or retrograde rotation with respect to the galaxy. The larger values correspond to faster rotating CCs and the smaller either to slowly spinning clusters or the substructure is “coincidentally” close together to appear as a giant clump when beam-smeared.

We demonstrated that CCs can explain many observed properties of giant clumps at high-redshift. If the observed unresolved massive clumps indeed are ensembles of dense subclumps, this has strong implications for any model that infers their evolution. Kiloparsec-sized clumps are expected to merge to the disk center via dynamical friction and tidal torques on a few orbital timescales where they contribute to the formation of a bulge (Noguchi 1999; Immeli et al. 2004a, 2004b; Förster Schreiber et al. 2006; Genzel et al. 2006, 2008, 2011; Elmegreen et al. 2008; Carollo et al. 2007; Bournaud et al. 2009; Dekel et al. 2009; Ceverino et al. 2010; Bournaud 2016). The CC scenario could have a strong effect on the estimated migration timescale of dense gas into centers of gas-rich galaxies, which can have a strong influence on the feeding of central black holes and active galactic nucleus activity. Star formation and stellar feedback processes should also be strongly affected by the substructure (Dekel &
Krumholz 2013 and their chemical enrichment history. Here we focused on the structure of CCs and their observational properties. However, CCs also have an interesting and complex evolution. They, for example, are exchanging their substructure, or even disperse and reform. This will be discussed in detail in a subsequent paper.

We thank the referee for constructive comments that improved the quality of the manuscript. We are grateful to Philipp Lang, Lucio Mayer, Go Ogiya, Michael Opitsch, and Valentina Tamburello for fruitful discussions. We also thank Frédéric Bournaud and Avishai Dekel for valuable comments. The computer simulations were performed on the HPC system HYDRA at the Rechenzentrum Garching (RZG) of the Max Planck Gesellschaft.

REFERENCES

Bleuler, A., Teyssier, R., Carassou, S., & Martizzi, D. 2015, ComAC, 2, 5
Bournaud, F. 2016, Galactic Bulges (Cham: Springer International Publishing)
Fisher, D. B. 2015, IAUCA, 22, 56258
Green, A. W., Glazebrook, K., McGregor, P. J., et al. 2010, Natur, 467, 684