Response of the warm absorber cloud to a variable nuclear flux in active galactic nuclei

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ABSTRACT

Recent modeling of the warm absorber in active galactic nuclei has proved the usefulness of constant total (gas plus radiation) pressure models, which are highly stratified in temperature and density. We explore the consistency of those models when the typical variation of the flux from the central source is taken into account. We perform a variability study of the warm absorber response, based on timescales and our photoionization code TITAN. We show that the ionization and recombination timescales are much shorter than the dynamical timescale. Clouds very close to the central black hole will maintain their equilibrium since the characteristic variability timescales of the nuclear source are longer than cloud timescales. For more distant clouds, the density structure has no time to vary, in response to the variations of the temperature or ionization structure, and such clouds will show the departure from the constant pressure equilibrium. We explore the impact of this departure on the observed properties of the transmitted spectrum and soft X-ray variability: (i) non uniform velocities, of the order of sound speed, appear due to pressure gradients, up to typical values of 100 km s\(^{-1}\). These velocities lead to the broadening of lines. This broadening is usually observed and very difficult to explain otherwise. (ii) Energy-dependent fractional variability amplitude in soft X-ray range has a broader hump around \(\sim 1 - 2\) keV, and (iv) the plot of the equivalent hydrogen column density vs. ionization parameter is steeper than for equilibrium clouds. The results have the character of a preliminary study and should be supplemented in the future with full time-dependent radiation transfer and dynamical computations.

Key words. Radiative transfer; Line: identification; Galaxies: Seyfert; X-rays: galaxies; Galaxies: active

1. Introduction

The environment of radio quiet active galactic nuclei (AGN) is still poorly understood. The activity is powered by a black hole but the accretion flow is accompanied by an outflow of the material. The inflow is in a form of an accretion disk which, further out, has a form of a dusty/molecular torus and the radial velocities of the inflow are not measured directly. The outflow takes place in a large range of angles around the symmetry axis but the geometry and the nature of this flow is unclear. The presence of the outflow manifests best as Broad Absorption Lines (BAL) of optical/UV spectra of some quasars, Narrow Absorption Lines (NAL) in other quasars or in Seyfert galaxies, or as X-ray warm absorbers (WA) in Seyfert galaxies. These absorption features allow to determine the outflow velocity of the plasma along the line of sight but any estimates of the spatial distribution of the plasma, or even of a representative distance of the absorber from the nucleus, are difficult.

One of the important questions is whether this outflow is roughly a continuous wind with shallow density gradient or a highly clumpy medium with very dense clouds embedded into low density surrounding plasma. The model of a continuous wind was proposed by Murray & Chiang (1995) and subsequently studied e.g. by Murray & Chiang (1997, 1998), Proga, Stone & Kallman (2000, 2004), Pietrini & Torricelli-Ciamponi (2000). On the other hand, the strong X-ray irradiation of the outflowing material may lead to thermal instability (Krolik et al. 1981) thus resulting in clumpiness of a part of the flow. Therefore, clumpy outflow was advocated by a number of authors (e.g. Smith & Raine 1988; Netzer 1993; Krolik & Kriss 1995; Netzer 1996). A narrow stream of clumpy outflow was advocated for by Elvis (2000), while narrow continuous streamers were favored by Steenbrugge et al. (2005). Recently, an advanced model of the clumpy outflow was developed by Chelouche & Netzer (2005), based on the previous extensive studies of the wind acceleration mechanisms.

The issue can be in principle solved directly on the observational grounds. However, X-ray data even from grating instruments on board of Chandra or XMM-Newton telescopes cannot resolve kinematical components narrower than \(\sim 100\) km s\(^{-1}\).

High resolution UV data show the presence of absorption lines
with the kinematics widths \( \sim \) 100 km s\(^{-1}\) (e.g., NGC 3783, Gabel et al. 2003) or 50 – 60 \( \sim \) 100 km s\(^{-1}\) (e.g., NGC 7469, Scott et al. 2005). These results are consistent with X-ray data but it is still not clear whether we probe the same part of the flow with X-ray and UV data. Spectral analysis of the X-ray data suggests that one zone model does not well represent the observations and at least two photoionization regions are required to explain the presence of lines from the gas in different ionization states (NGC 4051, Collinge et al. 2001; NGC 5548, Kastra et al. 2002; NGC 3783, Kaspi et al. 2002, Netzer et al. 2003 and Krongold et al. 2003; Mkn 304, Piconcelli et al. 2004; H0557-385, Ashton et al. 2006).

On the theoretical side, it is not clear whether strong clumpiness of the medium is possible to achieve and sustain. Time evolution of the warm absorber medium has not been studied in great detail so far. Additionally, AGN are known for their variability in the X-ray band since the EXOSAT data. Variable irradiation changes the conditions within the cloud and might even destroy the cloud. Also small compact cloud might destroy the cloud. Also small compact cloud.

In the present paper we concentrate on a single warm absorber cloud under constant pressure. We consider a cloud of considerably large column density and non-negligible optical depth. Such a cloud is strongly stratified since the density profile is obtained self-consistently from the condition of total pressure equilibrium (see Dumont et al. 2002, Chevallier et al. 2006, Różańska et al. 2006), inducing a few sharp temperature drops due to thermal instabilities. Magnetic and turbulent pressure effects have been neglected in this study. It is well known that magnetic pressure may remove the thermal instabilities (Bottorff, Korista & Shlosman 2000), but our cloud, if large enough, will still remain highly stratified with a shallower temperature and density gradient near the location of the previous thermal instability zone. It is the same with turbulent pressure. Bright irradiated side of the cloud is of low density and highly ionized but the density strongly increases inward (by a few orders of magnitude) and the medium becomes less ionized as we approach the dark side of the cloud. Such a medium has been used to fit the WA of NGC 3783 (Gonçalves et al. 2006). Here we study the response of the cloud to the varying X-ray flux, with the aim to test the possibility of strong clumpiness in the warm absorber. Using the time-independent code, we estimate the evolution of our cloud at the basis of timescales, determined separately in different parts of our highly stratified cloud. The cloud, initially in total (gaseous + radiative) pressure equilibrium, is disturbed; pressure is no longer constant, and various parts of the cloud expand/contract. We estimate the observational consequences of the cloud departure from equilibrium. Finally we show how the behavior of our cloud, whose distance from the central source is unknown, vary with this distance.

In the next section, we recall some generalities about the model and our photoionization code, and we give formulae for timescales which are detailed in the Appendix. Results are presented in Sect. 3. Section 4 is dedicated to the discussion of the physical and observational implications of these models.

2. Model

We study the response of a single warm absorber cloud to a change of the incident X-ray radiation flux, \( F \). Using the stationary radiative transfer code, we determine the kinds of equilibrium solutions:

- total pressure and thermal equilibrium,
- only thermal equilibrium.

The first type of solution is the cloud in total pressure equilibrium. It corresponds to a cloud which is in complete equilibrium with the incident flux. The second type of solution is obtained allowing for a change in the irradiating flux but assuming that the timescale of this change, \( t_x \), is shorter than the timescale needed to restore the pressure equilibrium. In this case we perform the computations of the new thermal and ionization equilibrium but we retain the original density profile. This second solution will describe the cloud out of pressure equilibrium. The applicability of either the first, or the second solution depends on the cloud location and the variability properties of the nucleus.

The radiative transfer used in both cases is the code TITAN (Dumont et al. 2000, 2003). This 1-D code works in plane-parallel symmetry but uses the Accelerated Lambda Iteration (ALI) method to provide fully-consistent multi-angle radiative transfer computations for both continuum and lines (Rybicki & Hummer 1991, and references therein). Using an accurate radiative transfer method is important in such a problem, where radiation pressure variation within the cloud plays an important role, especially in the determination of the location of temperature drops due to thermal instabilities. We consider about 1000 spectral lines, mainly in the X-ray range of the 10 most abundance species in the universe, i.e. H, He, C, N, O, Ne, Mg, Si, S and Fe. Throughout the paper we use cosmic abundances (Allen 1973), which are constant in the cloud.

The complete equilibrium state is characterized by the local density at the irradiated face of the cloud, \( n_r \), the hydrogen column density of the cloud, \( N_H \), and the properties of the incident radiation (a power-law of index 1 from 10 eV to 100 keV, and the ionization parameter \( \xi = L/n_H R^2 \), where \( L \) is the bolometric luminosity of the source, \( R \) the distance of the medium from the source). The density profile is determined consistently from the condition of the total pressure equilibrium. The off-equilibrium state is characterized by a new value of the ionization parameter \( \xi \) but the density profile is taken from the previous equilibrium solution.

We first analyze the timescales for various processes within the cloud in full equilibrium, in order to establish self-consistency of the cloud response.

The light travel time is given by

\[
\tau_{\text{light}} = \frac{H}{c},
\]

where \( H \) is a geometrical size of a whole cloud, or of a zone under consideration. In our case this timescale is relevant since the cloud is optically thin to the continuum. This low (but not negligible) optical depth is caused by significant ionization of the medium even at the dark side of the cloud.
If the irradiation changes, the whole volume of the cloud responds to the decrease/increase in photon flux. Therefore, generally we do not have here well defined ionization fronts, as in the case of an expanding HII region around a star (e.g. Osterbrock 1974). The relevant description is provided, instead, by the ionization and recombination timescales. The ionization $t_{\text{ion}}$ and recombination $t_{\text{rec}}$ timescale for each ion is a local quantity within a cloud. However, we can introduce timescales for specific zones, or a whole cloud, by analyzing which ions dominate in the various zones and which transitions are close to equilibrium (see the Appendix). We obtain the following estimates

$$ t_{\text{ion}} = 6 \times 10^{-3} F_{16}^{-1} \text{s}, $$

and

$$ t_{\text{rec}} = 0.2 n_{12}^{-1} \text{s}, $$

where $F_{16}$ is the incident bolometric flux measured in units of $10^{16}$ erg s$^{-1}$ cm$^{-2}$, and $n_{12}$ is the cloud hydrogen density at the surface in units of $10^{12}$ cm$^{-3}$.

The local thermal timescale is defined as

$$ t_{\text{th}} = \frac{k T}{n_e \Lambda} = 12 T_6 n_{12}^{-1} \Lambda_{23}^{-1} \text{s}, $$

where $k$ is the Boltzmann constant, $\Lambda_{23}$ is the cooling function in units of $10^{-23}$ erg cm$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$, $T_6$ is the temperature in units of $10^6$ K, and the electron density $n_e \sim 1.18 n_H$, where $n_H$ is hydrogen density. Isothermal sound speed velocity is locally calculated as

$$ v_s = \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{m_H}} = 130 T_6^{1/2} \text{[km s}^{-1}], $$

where $m_H$ is the hydrogen atomic mass and the factor 2 accounts for mean molecular weight in an ionized medium. Eq. 5 is relevant when taking into account only the gaseous pressure for a perfect gas. With such a stratified cloud, the dynamical timescale (i.e. time for restoration of pressure equilibrium) of a cloud zone of a geometrical size $\Delta x = z_2 - z_1$ is obtained through integration over $z$

$$ t_{\text{dyn}} = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \frac{dz}{\sqrt{v_s(z)}}. $$

We generalize the results for a single cloud to a whole family of clouds at various distances from the nucleus. The initial configuration (i.e. the variation of all quantities in optical depth scale) practically does not depend on $n_o$ (with values between $10^3$ to $10^7$ cm$^{-3}$; see Rózańska et al. 2006) for a given $\xi$ and $N_H$. Since a change of the local density at the illuminated surface of the cloud is equivalent to a change of distance $R$ from the nucleus we can take our cloud as representative for a whole family of self-similar clouds at various distances. So our model can be applied to several distances $R$, with appropriate dependence of $n_o$ on the radius $R$. We have $F(R) \propto R^{-2}$, $T$ as the function of the hydrogen column remains the same, independently from the distance, and $n$ scales with $n_o$. We request $n_o(R) \propto R^{-2}$, thus $H(R) \propto R^2$. Consequently all timescales defined in this section are proportional to $R^2$.

3. Results

3.1. Initial state of the cloud

For this reference cloud, we choose $\xi = 10^4$ erg cm s$^{-1}$ (red). We also represent the case more typical of WA: $\log \xi = 3$, for which maximal column-density is $2 \times 10^{23}$ cm$^{-2}$ (magenta). This curve is shifted in column-density by a value $10^{23}$ cm$^{-2}$ in order to compare with the $\log \xi = 4$ case. Curves are not distinguishable.

![Fig. 1. The temperature profile of the cloud at the initial state $\xi = 10^4$ erg cm s$^{-1}$ (red). We also represent the case more typical of WA: $\log \xi = 3$, for which maximal column-density is $2 \times 10^{23}$ cm$^{-2}$ (magenta). This curve is shifted in column-density by a value $10^{23}$ cm$^{-2}$ in order to compare with the $\log \xi = 4$ case. Curves are not distinguishable.](image_url)
by a factor of 6 than for a constant density cloud with the same column density and the same density at the cloud surface. The light travel time across the cloud is \(1.7 \times 10^5 \) s. The typical value of \(\xi\) of warm absorbers, estimated from the observational data, is rather \(1000\) or lower, and such values are met in the interior of our reference cloud (i.e. intermediate zone, see Table 1) where the density is roughly ten times the density at the surface of our medium. Figure 1 confirms that models with \(\log \xi = 3\) and 4 behave similarly. For our \(\log \xi = 3\) model, \(N_H \sim 2 \times 10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-2}\), which is now the maximum column density. In order to compare these temperature profiles, we have shifted the solution for \(\log \xi = 3\) by \(10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-2}\) along the column-density axis. Temperature profiles are almost the same, apart that the intermediate zone for the \(\log \xi = 3\) case is 25\% less than for the \(\log \xi = 4\) case.

As ionization or recombination timescales are specific of each ion, we analyzed the ionization structure of a whole cloud (see the Appendix and Table 3). The longest ionization timescale is equal to \(8 \times 10^3\) s (for ion Fe xxvi in the hot zone). Processes representative for the intermediate, outer and end zones are connected with S xvi, O vii and C vii, respectively. The representative recombination timescale for a whole cloud is \(2 \times 10^4\) s (again for Fe xxvi in the hot zone). Representative ions for the recombination timescale in the intermediate, outer and end zones are S xiv, O xvi and C vii, respectively.

The profiles of the timescales calculated locally across the cloud are shown in Fig. 2. We see that photoionization timescale is roughly constant through the slab but the recombination timescale is monotonically decreasing through the cloud since it is inversely proportional to the electron density \(n_e\) according to the scaling formula (see Eq. 3). The actual recombination timescale calculated numerically across the cloud (see the Appendix) depends also on the temperature (not linearly) and decreases even faster. The recombination timescale is more shallow if we consider various ions as representative for different zones (see Table 1).

The overall thermal timescale depends both on the temperature and the density, so it decreases with the distance from the cloud surface even more rapidly than the recombination timescale (see Table 1), and roughly follows the numerically obtained recombination timescale for a single ion. Its maximum value of \(10^7\), at the hot surface, is very high, much longer than ionization or recombination timescales. We have checked that \(\Delta \xi \sim 1\) whatever the depth for our model, including the surface layers. In other zones the thermal timescale is shorter, so most ions reach equilibrium in the timescale appropriate for the intermediate zone \((2 \times 10^5\) s\), and we adopt this value as the longest characteristic thermal timescale of the cloud. However, we must stress that in the case of the hot zone, where highly ionized iron spectral features form, the full thermal equilibrium is hard to achieve. The temperature rises/falls slowly since both the atomic heating/cooling and the Compton heating/cooling are not very efficient. The dynamical timescale of the whole cloud obtained through integration is equal \(2 \times 10^8\) s. Both in the hot and in the intermediate zone these timescales, calculated separately, are long (see Table 3). In Fig. 2 we plot the cumulative timescales for each of the zones separately, starting from the beginning of a zone.

### Table 1. Characteristics of the four zones in this medium, and all timescales considered in this study (see the text). \(t_{\text{light}}\) and \(t_{\text{dyn}} = \Delta \xi / \xi\) are computed zone by zone \((t_{\text{dyn}} = 2 \times 10^8\) s for the whole cloud).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>(\Delta \xi [\text{cm}])</th>
<th>(n_{\text{H}} [\text{cm}^{-2}])</th>
<th>(T_{\text{av.}} [\text{K}])</th>
<th>(c_s [\text{km s}^{-1}])</th>
<th>(t_{\text{light}} [\text{s}])</th>
<th>(t_{\text{ion}} [\text{s}])</th>
<th>(t_{\text{rec}} [\text{s}])</th>
<th>(t_{\text{th}} [\text{s}])</th>
<th>(t_{\text{dyn}} [\text{s}])</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hot</td>
<td>(3.4 \times 10^3)</td>
<td>(5.8 \times 10^{22})</td>
<td>(8.0 \times 10^6)</td>
<td>(370)</td>
<td>(1.2 \times 10^5)</td>
<td>(6.0 \times 10^3)</td>
<td>(2.1 \times 10^3)</td>
<td>(10^7)</td>
<td>(9.3 \times 10^7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>(1.6 \times 10^5)</td>
<td>(2.3 \times 10^{23})</td>
<td>(1.3 \times 10^6)</td>
<td>(150)</td>
<td>(5.4 \times 10^4)</td>
<td>(10^3)</td>
<td>(2.1 \times 10^3)</td>
<td>(10^8)</td>
<td>(1.1 \times 10^8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outer</td>
<td>(8.4 \times 10^7)</td>
<td>(1.4 \times 10^6)</td>
<td>(1.9 \times 10^5)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(2.1 \times 10^6)</td>
<td>(10^5)</td>
<td>(2.1 \times 10^5)</td>
<td>(10^9)</td>
<td>(1.5 \times 10^9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td>(9.9 \times 10^9)</td>
<td>(1.5 \times 10^9)</td>
<td>(4.8 \times 10^7)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(2.1 \times 10^6)</td>
<td>(10^7)</td>
<td>(2.1 \times 10^7)</td>
<td>(10^10)</td>
<td>(3.5 \times 10^{10})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Fig. 2. The dependence of the various local timescales (s) across the cloud (as a function of the column-density): ionization timescale, recombination timescale, thermal equilibrium timescale, hydrostatic equilibrium timescale (cumulative through the slab, classical perfect gas). As ionization or recombination timescales are specific of each ion, we choose to represent Fe xxvi, which represent the longest timescale (only in the hot zone for recombination, leaders are S xiv, O xvi and C vii for the intermediate, outer and end zones, respectively; see Tables 1 and 3).

### 3.2. Cloud states and conditions for the self-consistency of the cloud response description

The X-ray flux of AGN nuclei is strongly variable. Since the timescales corresponding to ionization/recombination equilibrium and to the dynamical equilibrium differ by a few orders of magnitude, a cloud is not always likely to achieve a complete equilibrium. We will now analyze the conditions of complete, or partial equilibrium.

For this purpose, we must compare the cloud internal timescales with the timescales of the intrinsic variability of the X-ray incident flux. AGN do not have any specific timescales but the power spectrum in Seyfert galaxies is well represented by a power law with the two breaks (e.g. Markowitz et al. 2003). Most of the power is between the high and the low-frequency
frequency breaks, which depend on the central black hole mass. We can consider these frequency breaks of the power spectrum in an AGN as a characteristic range of timescales. We adopt \( t_X^{\text{short}} \) and \( t_X^{\text{long}} \) as the shortest and longest timescales of variation, respectively. With a black hole mass of \( 10^7 M_\odot \), the appropriate timescales for regular Seyfert 1 galaxies are \( t_X^{\text{short}} = 6 \times 10^5 \) s, and \( t_X^{\text{long}} = 6 \times 10^7 \) s (Markowitz et al. 2003, Papadakis 2004), and the short timescale is by a factor 20 shorter for Narrow Line Seyfert 1 galaxies. For illustrative purposes, we further adopt \( t_X^{\text{short}} \) = 10^5 s and \( t_X^{\text{long}} \) = 10^7 s.

The full thermal and pressure equilibrium within the cloud is achieved if the light crossing time, the longest of the ionization, recombination or thermal timescales, the dynamical time of the cloud are much shorter than the shortest X-ray variability timescale, i.e. \( \max(t_{\text{light}}, t_{\text{th}}, t_{\text{ion}}, t_{\text{recomb}}, t_{\text{dyn}}) \ll t_X \). On the other hand, the thermal equilibrium solution with an unchanged density profiles requires \( \max(t_{\text{light}}, t_{\text{th}}, t_{\text{ion}}, t_{\text{recomb}}) \ll t_X \ll t_{\text{dyn}} \).

In our reference cloud the second set of conditions is roughly fulfilled. The ionization and recombination timescales are short for all important transitions. The thermal timescale in the intermediate zone is comparable to \( t_X^{\text{short}} \), only the thermal timescale in the hot zone is significantly longer which may effect the hydrogen-like iron absorption feature. The shortest dynamical timescale in the last zone is still longer than \( t_X^{\text{short}} \), so the model is appropriate for short timescale variability. Longer systematic trends, like those in \( t_X^{\text{long}} = 10^7 \) s, should be followed by computing new pressure equilibrium at the back side of the cloud, in the outer and end zones but retaining the old density profile in the hot and intermediate zone. We postpone the computations of such hybrid models for the future.

Summarizing, our new equilibrium is fully self-consistent for an increase in the X-ray flux lasting up to \( t_X = 3 \times 10^7 \) s (i.e. the shortest dynamical timescale, see Table 1) if the density profile is left unchanged. Results obtained for longer timescales can only serve as indicators of the trends.

3.3. Response of the cloud structure to the change of irradiation flux

We therefore compute a set of new cloud equilibrium solutions by increasing the incident flux and preserving the density profile from the pressure equilibrium state described in Sect. 3.1. Figure 5 shows the temperature profiles of the cloud for which the increase of flux is by a factor 3, 10 and 100. Naturally, an increase in the X-ray flux results in a higher surface temperature. The depth of the first, hottest zone does not change but the temperature of the intermediate zone rises. An increase in X-ray flux by a factor 100 removes the intermediate zone completely. The two last colder zones always exist although for the highest irradiation flux the temperature of the back side of the cloud rises up to 10^8 K. However, the rise of the incident flux by a factor of 3 already brings up the temperature of the outer zone almost close to the temperature of the intermediate zone.

3.4. Response of the cloud velocity field to the change of irradiation flux

After the change in the incident flux, the cloud is not in the pressure equilibrium any more. Pressure gradients appear which lead to local acceleration of the gas within the cloud and subsequent expansion. Figure 4 shows the gaseous, radiative and total pressure for the initial state \( \xi = 4 \) constant total pressure case, and under illumination \( \log \xi = 4.5 \) for a fixed density profile.
by the sudden rise of the temperature on the cold side. Since the discontinuity in the total pressure is not very large (a factor of 1.25 in case of the flux rise by a factor 3, see Fig. 4), the expected Mach number, $M$, of an isothermal shock is low ($M^2 = 1.25$), a relatively weak shock forms and propagates with a speed close to the speed of sound $Mc_s \sim 120$ km s$^{-1}$ in this zone, as we only have to consider the highest temperature $T \sim 7 \times 10^8$ K ahead the thermal instability zone (see Fig. 3). Subsonic motions due to the lack of pressure balance will also appear in other parts of the cloud.

Due to the very different values of the velocity in our cloud, we thus expect that lines forming in these transition zones may have a very complex profile: part of the line may be narrow, and part of the line profile may be broad. The presence of the significant velocity gradient means that the assumption of a constant turbulence across the cloud may not be justified but the computations of the radiative transfer with variable velocity field is beyond the scope of the present paper.

3.5. Clouds at various distances from the nucleus

The choice of $n_o = 10^7$ cm$^{-3}$ and $\xi = 10^4$ corresponds to the choice of the distance for a specific choice of the bolometric luminosity $L$ of the nuclear source. The domain of observed luminosities range form $10^{41}$ erg s$^{-1}$ (e.g., NGC 4051) up to $10^{47}$ erg s$^{-1}$ (e.g., quasars). We adopt $L = 10^{45}$ erg s$^{-1}$ cm$^{-2}$ in the further calculations: the cloud is located at the distance of $10^{17}$ cm from the nucleus. All those results scale as $L/R^2$, and any value of $L$ can be chosen.

The results obtained for a single cloud can be generalized to a family of clouds located at various distances from the nucleus adopting scaling laws based on the very weak dependence of the results for the radiative transfer on the adopted value of the number density at the cloud surface, $n_o$ (see Sect. 2).

We have checked the underlying assumption by calculating a set of clouds for $\xi = 10^4$ erg cm s$^{-1}$, $N_H = 3 \times 10^{23}$ cm$^{-2}$ and with values of $n_o$ in the range from $10^5$ to $10^{11}$ cm$^{-3}$. The temperature profiles measured as functions of the optical depth were almost identical. The density profiles as functions of the optical depth had very similar shape and differed just in the normalization. The ratio of the density at the outer edge of the cloud to $n_o$ was almost constant, only slowly decreasing from $1.5 \times 10^3$ to $10^3$ with the increasing density.

Therefore, at the basis of the numerical results for a single cloud we consider now a family of clouds for $\xi = 10^4$ erg cm s$^{-1}$, $N_H = 3 \times 10^{23}$ cm$^{-2}$ and the bolometric luminosity of the nucleus $L = 10^{45}$ erg s$^{-1}$ cm$^{-2}$. This condition of constant $\xi$ in this case implies that the number density at the cloud illuminated surface is $n_o(R)/R_{17}^2 = 10^7$ cm$^{-3}$, where $R_{17}$ is the distance in units of $10^{17}$ cm, and it is a factor of $10^3$ higher at the dark surface. Other quantities defined in Sect. 2 become $H(R)/R_{17}^2 = 5 \times 10^{15}$ cm, $t_{light}(R)/R_{17}^2 = 1.7 \times 10^3$ s, $t_{ion}(R)/R_{17}^2 = 8.0 \times 10^3 - 30$ cm, $t_{rec}(R)/R_{17}^2 = 2 \times 10^5 - 20$ s, $t_{th}(R)/R_{17}^2 = 2 \times 10^5 - 60$ s, and $t_{dyn}(R)/R_{17}^2 = 10^4 - 4 \times 10^3$ s.

Using these expressions and a variabili timescale of the source between $10^5$ s and $10^7$ s, we can estimate the kind of equilibrium reached by our medium as a function of the dis-

![Fig. 5. The dependence of the maximum value within the cloud of various timescales as a function of the distance from the nucleus for a source with luminosity $L = 10^{45}$ erg s$^{-1}$. We represent the bounds of the characteristic range of variability of the source, i.e., the the shortest timescale $t_x^{short}$ and longest timescale $t_x^{long}$, light travel time, ionization timescale, recombination timescale, thermal timescale and dynamical timescale. This value of the thermal timescale excludes the hot zone, where it is up to 50 times longer (see Table 1). Vertical line indicates the current model presented here (equivalent to $R = 10^{17}$ cm).](image)


The innermost clouds should be described using full equilibrium computations. The second group of clouds shows the departure from the dynamical equilibrium, but their ionization equilibrium is preserved. Their ionization state should be roughly correlated with the X-ray flux measured at a given moment, and they can be represented as described in Sect. 3.3. In particular, a shock forms and propagates at velocity $\sim 120$ km s$^{-1}$ whatever the distance $R$, as the variability timescale $t_x$ and the extent of the outer zone are both higher than the time and displacement, respectively, of the matter when the sound speed is reached (see Sect. 5.4). Clouds further up are so extended that separate parts of the cloud responds to different continuum, as their light travel time is comparable to the timescales of the X-ray source variability. Only complete
time-dependent computations of the radiative transfer, with the adopted light-curve, are appropriate to analyze such clouds, and at present we are unable to perform such computations. For the last group of very distant clouds, the cloud size is so extended that the assumption of a single cloud breaks down and we deal with an extended continuous wind.

4. Discussion

In this paper we have considered the complexity of the response of the warm absorber to the variable X-ray incident flux. In order to assess the cloud response we mostly concentrated on comparison of two states of a single warm absorber cloud: an initial irradiated cloud at pressure equilibrium, and a cloud suddenly irradiated by a three times higher flux i.e. that cloud could reach new thermal and ionization equilibrium under enhanced irradiation but the time was too short to reach new pressure equilibrium. The model can be used against the presently available and future observational data.

Below we give a few exemplary applications of our representative cloud results, not yet focused at fitting a specific object. More precise modeling should use a family of solutions.

4.1. Observational applications

4.1.1. Soft X-ray variability

Enhanced irradiation leads to higher ionization of the cloud and lower opacity, particularly in the soft X-ray band. Indeed, observations based on RXTE monitoring show an enhancement of the energy-dependent fractional variability amplitude below 5 keV (Markowitz et al. 2003). Best studied case of a Seyfert 1 galaxy MCG-6-30-15 shows enhanced variability in 0.2–4 keV band approximately equal to 30% (Fabian et al. 2002, Ponti et al. 2004). The variability below 0.2 keV and above 5 keV must be intrinsic, as it reflect the changes in the level (and possibly slope) of the continuum but the excess 0.2–4 keV may be due to the opacity changes in the warm absorber (e.g. Sako et al. 2002). Such an effect on this object has been studied using constant density clouds (Gierlinski & Done 2006).

Using our density-stratified clouds, we have calculated the ratio of the two spectra (models with log $\xi$ = 4 and log $\xi$ = 4.5). Since the change of the flux by a factor 3 is rather extreme as compared to the observed variability in MCG-6-30-15, we only consider the model with log $\xi$ = 4.1 (i.e. increase of ~26% of the incident flux) without adjustment of the pressure and another one with log $\xi$ = 4.1 in constant pressure equilibrium. In Fig. 4 we show the ratios of the two spectra plotted with the resolution usually used from the computation of the fractional variability amplitude. We also show the fractional variability amplitude calculated from one of the data sets obtained for MCG-6-30-15 (XMM observation in 2000, rev. 303; Goosmann et al. 2006). Indeed, there is a strong enhancement of the variability at 1–2 keV. The maximum value of 50% of the fractional variability for the log $\xi$ = 4.1 case is close from the MCG-6-30-15 case. This suggests that the variable ionization of the warm absorber is a promising contributor to the overall variability. If so, such enhanced variability in the soft X-ray band peaking at 1 keV should be seen only in the sources which show the presence of the warm absorber. Our model shows slightly too much absorption for this data set, and a better fit would be reached with a lower column-density, for the same value of $\xi$. It is also interesting to point out that the fractional variability enhancement obtained without the pressure equilibrium extends more into high energies, and seems to fit better the data. This would suggest the warm absorber distance larger than 3 × 10$^{15}$ cm since the medium had no time to reach the dynamical equilibrium (see Sect. 3.5).

4.1.2. Observational determination of the column density

An interesting trend was found of increasing equivalent column density of the absorber with an increase of the ionization parameter for the species (NGC 5548, Steenbrugge et al. 2005; NGC 4051, Ogle et al. 2004; NGC 7469, Scott et al. 2005). It is therefore interesting to see whether such a trend is explained by our constant pressure clouds. Therefore, we selected the ions studied by Scott et al. (2005) and performed a similar analysis, i.e. we used the ion column densities from our simulations (for the initial cloud and the cloud with increase irradiation, out of pressure equilibrium) and inverted them to equivalent hydrogen column using only abundance values. The results are shown in Fig. 7. We see that the trend seen in the data is in a natural way explained by our model. The ratio of almost five
orders of magnitude between the results for Fe, Mg, Si, Si, and are well explained by the model out of dynamical equilibrium. On the other hand, our column densities are lower than those obtained by Scott et al. (2005). Extensive modeling with the use of other cloud parameters will be necessary to see whether the specific values characteristic for NGC 7469 can be accommodated within our model.

4.1.3. Line widths

The predicted line widths depend on the cloud location, for a fixed nuclear source properties. Cloud located closer in reach equilibrium much faster and the velocity gradient is smaller. Clouds located much further away will also show smaller ve-

We illustrate this issue in Table 2. We take the measured kinematical width of absorption lines measured in the X-ray spectrum of NGC 7469 by Scott et al. (2005) and we compare them with our estimates based on the location of the ions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wavelength</th>
<th>absorption line</th>
<th>zone</th>
<th>model measured</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>line</td>
<td></td>
<td>[km/s]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.18...</td>
<td>Si XIV</td>
<td>intermed</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.65...</td>
<td>Si XIV</td>
<td>intermed</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.42...</td>
<td>Mg XII</td>
<td>intermed</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.17...</td>
<td>Mg XII</td>
<td>intermed/outer</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.55...</td>
<td>Ne X</td>
<td>outer</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.13...</td>
<td>Ne X</td>
<td>intermed/outer</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.28...</td>
<td>Fe XV</td>
<td>intermed</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.82...</td>
<td>Fe XIV</td>
<td>intermed</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.45...</td>
<td>Ne X</td>
<td>outer</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.01...</td>
<td>Fe XVII</td>
<td>outer</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Kinematical widths of the X-ray lines estimated from our cloud model in comparison with the line widths measured by Scott et al. (2005). Third column give the dominant location of the ion (lines identified by Scott et al. 2005 all come either from the intermediate or from the outer zone).

4.2. Further improvements in modeling

Our approach to modeling the time-dependent response of the cloud to irradiation was a first step in this direction. It is well known that the problem is complicated, and the best studied classical example is the time-dependent evolution of the expanding H⁺ region around a newly born star (see Osterbrock 1974). Unfortunately, our situation is more complex since we do not deal with a single ionization front, and simple analytical estimates do not apply so easily to our case. However, further improvement of the description of the cloud dynamics is necessary.

Particularly important and difficult problem appears if clouds are at large distances from the center. Blustin et al. (2005) argued that the warm absorber is located in most sources at distance ~ 1 pc. Our cloud at such a distance is far from radiative equilibrium. In this case time-dependent radiation transfer computations seem to be necessary.

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References

where $\sigma^i$ is the ionization cross-section and $\chi^i$ is the ionization energy of a given ion. Eq. (7) is derived analytically assuming a normal flux, neglecting the reflected flux (it is less than 10% the incident flux), and using a classical formula for the cross-section (Osterbrock 1974). The recombination timescale for each ion is estimated from the semi-analytical formulae of Verner & Ferland (1996)

$$\left( t_{\text{rec}}^i \right)^{-1} = n_e (\alpha_r(T) + \alpha_{\text{die}}(T)),$$

where $\alpha_r(T)$ is the radiative recombination coefficient and $\alpha_{\text{die}}(T)$ is the coefficient of the dielectronic recombination. Induced radiative recombination is negligible, hence this timescale does not depend on the flux.

As ionization or recombination timescales are specific of each ion, we analyzed the ionization structure of a whole cloud. An illustration of the method is shown in Table 3, where we give the column densities, ionization and recombination timescales, zone per zone, for Fexv–xxvii, Sxvi–xvii, Sixiv–xv, Ovm–ix and Cvi–viii, which are relevant for our model. Recombination timescales for fully ionized elements are quite long (up to $2 \times 10^8$ s for hydrogen), but hydrogen and helium are almost completely ionized, and since these ions do not undergo frequent transitions, we determine the recombination timescale in each zone by identifying the dominant processes (i.e. both ions in interaction with this process must have roughly the same abundances). Although in Table 3 the longest recombination timescale is $6 \times 10^5$ s for the carbon in the hottest zone, but such transitions are of marginal importance. Therefore, the representative recombination timescale for a whole cloud is $2 \times 10^4$ s (again for Fexvii in the hot zone). Representative ions for the recombination timescale in the intermediate, outer and end zones are Sixiv, Oxi and Cvi, respectively.

Since these ionization and recombination timescales depend respectively on the incident flux and the density ($F = 8 \times 10^9$ erg s$^{-1}$ cm$^{-2}$ and $n_e = 10^7$ cm$^{-3}$ in our reference cloud), we generalize the obtained values to Eqs. (2)–(3).

### 5. Appendix

In order to obtain the ionization timescale $t_{\text{ion}}$ of a whole cloud we calculate these timescales for all ions $i$ separately, as a local quantities within a cloud,

$$\left( t_{\text{ion}}^i \right)^{-1} = 4\pi \int_{\chi^i}^{\chi_{\text{ref}}} \frac{F}{\nu \pi} \sigma^i(\nu) d\nu,$$

(7)
Table 3. Table of the column densities (\(c\), in cm\(^{-2}\)), ionization (i) and recombination (r) timescales (in s) for all 4 zones in the medium for the representative, i.e comparable column density for both ionization states, ions of Fe, S and Si, O, and C in the hot, intermediate, outer, and end zones, respectively.