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ABSTRACT

Approximately 3–17 per cent of active galactic nuclei (AGNs) without detected rest-frame UV/optical broad emission lines (type-2 AGN) do not show absorption in X-rays. The physical origin behind the apparently discordant optical/X-ray properties is not fully understood. Our study aims at providing insight into this issue by conducting a detailed analysis of the nuclear dust extinction and X-ray absorption properties of two AGNs with low X-ray absorption and with high optical extinction, for which a rich set of high-quality spectroscopic data is available from XMM–Newton archive data in X-rays and XSHOOTER proprietary data at UV-to-NIR wavelengths. In order to unveil the apparent mismatch, we have determined the AV/NH and both the supermassive black hole and the host galaxy masses. We find that the mismatch is caused in one case by an abnormally high dust-to-gas ratio that makes the UV/optical emission to appear more obscured than in the X-rays. For the other object, we find that the dust-to-gas ratio is similar to the Galactic one but the AGN is hosted by a very massive galaxy so that the broad emission lines and the nuclear continuum are swamped by the star light and difficult to detect.

Key words: galaxies: active – galaxies: nuclei – galaxies: Seyfert – X-rays: galaxies.

1 INTRODUCTION

The standard unified model of active galactic nuclei (AGNs; Antonucci 1993, Urry & Padovani 1995) explains the observed differences between optical type-1 and type-2 AGNs through orientation effects. If our line-of-sight to the central engine intercepts the nuclear absorber invoked by unified models, the UV/optical continuum emission, the rest-frame UV/optical broad emission lines (line widths ≥1500 km s⁻¹ in full width at half-maximum, FWHM) and the X-ray emission, originated at sub-parsec scales, should be absorbed. In this case, the AGN is classified as type-2. On the contrary, if we have a direct view of the central engine, UV/optical broad emission lines should be detected, while the X-ray emission should have low absorption (NH < 4 × 10²¹ cm⁻², the equivalent to AV = 2 mag using a Galactic dust-to-gas ratio, Caccianiga et al. 2008). In this case, the AGN is classified as type-1.

The classification of AGNs using either the optical range or X-rays should agree according to this model. Nevertheless, approximately 10–23 per cent of AGNs optically classified as type-1 present an X-ray absorbed spectrum (normally with NH < 10²² cm⁻²), while 3–17 per cent of type-2 AGNs are X-ray unabsorbed (e.g. Panessa & Bassani 2002; Caccianiga et al. 2004; Mainieri et al. 2005; Mateos et al. 2005b,a, 2010; Caccianiga et al. 2008; Corral et al. 2011; Page et al. 2011; Scott, Stewart & Mateos 2012; Merloni et al. 2014). The mismatch between optical extinction and X-ray absorption described above is observed in both optical/infrared-selected and X-ray selected samples at all redshifts. The origin of such apparent discrepancies remains unclear, as well as the validity of the unified model for such AGNs. To unveil the nature of such discrepancies, we need detailed studies on these discordant AGNs.

For X-ray unabsorbed type-2 AGNs, one possibility to explain this discrepancy can be the presence of a Compton-thick absorber (intrinsic NH equal or larger than the inverse of the Thomson cross-section: NH > σ⁻¹ = 1.5 × 10³⁴ cm⁻²). In this case, the direct X-ray emission below 10 keV should be completely suppressed and we would only detect scattered nuclear radiation (Braito et al. 2003, 2011; Akylas & Georgantopoulos 2009; Malizia et al. 2012). Since the scattered emission is only 1–3 per cent of the intrinsic AGN emission (Gilli, Salvati & Hasinger 2001;...
Comastri 2004; Georgantopoulos et al. 2011b), the sources would be identified as low-luminosity, unabsorbed type-2 AGNs. Another possibility is that the broad UV/optical lines are diluted by the host galaxy emission (Severgnini et al. 2003; Georgantopoulos & Georgakakis 2005; Caccianiga et al. 2007, 2008). An alternative explanation could be a high dust-to-gas ratio: normally, AGNs show dust-to-gas ratios below the Galactic standard or comparable ratios (Maiolino et al. 2001; Vasudevan et al. 2009; Parisi 2011; Marchese et al. 2012; Hao et al. 2013; Burtscher et al. 2016), if this ratio is substantially higher, significant suppression of the broad-line emission could take place without strong effects in the X-ray bands. Dust-to-gas ratios well above the Galactic value have been found in some AGNs, although such cases are rare (Caccianiga et al. 2004; Tripp et al. 2010; Huang et al. 2012; Malizia et al. 2012; Masetti et al. 2012; Mehdipour, Branduardi-Raymont & Page 2012). In the sample of Maiolino et al. (2001), a sample of AGNs whose X-ray spectrum shows cold absorption and whose optical and/or IR spectrum show at least two broad lines, this is found in 9 per cent of the sources, and in the HBS28 sample (Caccianiga et al. 2004) this is only found in 3 per cent. In other objects, optical observations show an intrinsically high Balmer decrement for the hydrogen broad emission lines, while the X-ray spectra show low absorption (Barcons, Carrera & Ceballos 2003). A dusty-ionized absorber like the one in NGC 7679 (Della Ceca et al. 2001) can produce more relative absorption in the X-rays than in the optical emission. One last possible explanation is a variability scenario since optical and X-ray observations are normally obtained at different epochs. However, we note that, even with simultaneous observations, there are some objects whose optical and X-ray classification do not match (Bianchi et al. 2008, 2012; Corral et al. 2015).

The objective of this study is to get insight into the physics behind the apparent mismatch between UV/optical and X-ray classification of two low-z AGNs selected from the Bright Ultra-hard XMM–Newton Survey (BUXS, Mateos et al. 2012): 2XMMJ000441.2+000711 (hereafter J00, \(z = 0.0246\), Jones et al. 2009). While both sources appear unabsorbed in X-rays, J00 has been optically classified as type-1.9 using the SDSS-DR7 spectrum (Abazajian et al. 2001) and J02 as a type-2 AGN (6dF spectrum, Jones et al. 2009). While both sources appear unabsorbed in X-rays, J00 has been optically classified as type-1.9 using the SDSS-DR7 spectrum (Abazajian et al. 2009) and J02 is a Sb edge-on galaxy (de Vaucouleurs et al. 1991) optically classified as a type-2 AGN (6dF spectrum, Jones et al. 2009).

For these sources, we obtained UV-to-NIR XSHOOTER spectra (PI: S. Mateos) and by comparing the properties derived in X-rays and in the UV/optical, we have tested three possible scenarios to explain the discordance: (a) the presence of a Compton-thick AGN; (b) these sources are a normal AGN but in a very massive host galaxy, or weak AGNs in a normal host galaxy and their broad UV/optical emission lines are diluted by the host galaxy emission; (c) intrinsic non-standard nuclear properties, such as a high dust-to-gas ratio or an intrinsically weak broad-line region (BLR).

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we explain how our objects are selected. In Section 3, we describe the XMM–Newton data and in Section 4 we describe the XSHOOTER observations. In Section 5, we derive the AGN emission by subtracting the host galaxy emission, as well as the AGN intrinsic reddening, its emission lines and the host galaxy properties. We finally discuss all the possible contributions that can cause a mismatch between the X-ray and UV/optical properties of our objects in Section 6. Throughout this paper errors are 1σ. We assume a Λ cold dark matter cosmology with \(\Omega_M = 0.3\), \(\Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.7\) and \(H_0 = 70\,\text{km}\,\text{s}^{-1}\,\text{Mpc}^{-1}\).

### 2 THE SAMPLE

The two AGNs analysed in this work were selected from the wide-angle (44.43 deg\(^2\)) BUXS (Mateos et al. 2012). This is a flux-limited sample of 255 AGNs detected in the 4.5–10 keV band with the XMM–Newton observatory. The objects have relatively bright X-ray fluxes \(f_{\text{4.5–10keV}} > 6 \times 10^{-14}\,\text{erg}\,\text{s}^{-1}\,\text{cm}^{-2}\). At the time of writing, the optical spectroscopic identification completeness is >98 per cent. There are 111 AGNs in BUXS with optical spectroscopic classifications 1.8, 1.9 or 2. Of these, nine objects showing low X-ray absorption (\(N_H < 4 \times 10^{21}\,\text{cm}^{-2}\); Caccianiga et al. 2008) that are visible from Paranal were included in a proposal for follow-up with XSHOOTER. Only two objects with the lowest declination were successfully observed with XSHOOTER. We discuss here in detail the properties of these two objects.

For both sources, we have proprietary high-resolution UV-to-NIR XSHOOTER spectra, as well as good quality XMM–Newton X-ray spectra (Jansen et al. 2001) in the observed energy range from 0.25 to 10 keV (Table 1 and Fig. 1).

### 3 X-RAY PROPERTIES

Source and background spectra were extracted at energies from 0.25 to 10 keV using circular regions. We used the XMM–Newton Science Analysis System (SAS) task eregionanalyse to obtain the circles that maximized the signal-to-noise ratio. For J00, we used radii of 34 and 32 arcsec for the MOS (Struder et al. 2001) and pn (Turner et al. 2001) cameras, respectively. For J02, we used a radius of 29 arcsec for MOS and 25 arcsec for pn. The background spectra were extracted using circular regions of 50 arcsec radius located in source free regions in the same CCD chip as our objects. The response matrices and effective area curves were obtained using the SAS tasks rmfgen and arfgen, respectively. We combined MOS1 and MOS2 source and background spectra and the corresponding response matrices. The spectra were grouped with a minimum of 15 counts per bin and are shown in Fig. 1.

The X-ray spectroscopic analysis was conducted with the xspec package (v12.9.1; Arnaud 1996). We fitted the spectra with a combination of different models to determine the shape of the direct and scattered broad-band continuum components (modelled with power laws), soft excess (modelled with a blackbody) and rest-frame line-of-sight X-ray absorption. The models take into account the Galactic absorption using column densities taken from Dickey & Lockman (1990). We fitted both the pn and MOS spectra at the same time with the parameters of the model tied, except for the continuum normalization to take into account cross-calibration problems between MOS and pn cameras (Mateos et al. 2009).

To accept the detection of a model component, we used the F test with a significance threshold of 95 per cent. The X-ray luminosities have been computed in the rest-frame 2–10 keV energy band. They are corrected for X-ray Galactic absorption and the X-ray intrinsic absorption of the sources. For J00: it is X-ray unabsorbed. The 1σ upper limit on the column density is \(6.7 \times 10^{20}\,\text{cm}^{-2}\). The best-fitting model is a combination of a blackbody with temperature \(kT = 0.16_{-0.02}^{+0.02}\,\text{keV}\) and an unabsorbed power law with photon index \(\Gamma = 1.66 \pm 0.09\). The X-ray spectra (MOS and pn) are shown in Fig. 1 (left). For J02, we used a radius of 29 arcsec for MOS and 25 arcsec for pn. The background spectra were extracted using circular regions of 50 arcsec radius located in source free regions in the same CCD chip as our objects. The response matrices and effective area curves were obtained using the SAS tasks rmfgen and arfgen, respectively. We combined MOS1 and MOS2 source and background spectra and the corresponding response matrices. The spectra were grouped with a minimum of 15 counts per bin and are shown in Fig. 1.

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Table 1. X-ray information about the selected objects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>Obs. ID</th>
<th>T. exp</th>
<th>Cts</th>
<th>Flux</th>
<th>log(L)</th>
<th>N_H</th>
<th>N_H,G</th>
<th>Γ</th>
<th>kT</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>χ²/dof</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J00</td>
<td>0.1075</td>
<td>0305751001</td>
<td>26 574</td>
<td>1172</td>
<td>2.04 ± 0.22</td>
<td>42.76 ± 0.05</td>
<td>&lt;0.67</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>1.66 ± 0.09</td>
<td>0.16 ± 0.01</td>
<td>bb+po</td>
<td>169.2/139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J02</td>
<td>0.0246</td>
<td>0151490101</td>
<td>55 203</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>1.31 ± 0.09</td>
<td>41.25 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.7 ± 0.14</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.09</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>apo</td>
<td>135.1/100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. (1) J00 = 2XMMJ000441.2+000711, J02 = 2XMMJ025218.5−011746. X-ray source identifier as listed in the Second XMM–Newton Serendipitous Source Catalogue (2XMM–DR3; Watson et al. 2009; http://xmmssc-www.star.le.ac.uk/Catalogue/xcat_public_2XMMi-DR3.html). (2) Redshift. (3) XMM–Newton Observation ID. In brackets we show the date of the observation. (4) Observation exposure time in seconds after removal of high background flares in MOS1+MOS2 and in pn in brackets. (5) Net counts of the MOS spectra between 0.25 and 10 keV and pn spectra between 0.25 and 10 keV, the latter in brackets. (6) 2–10 keV flux in units of 10⁻¹³ erg cm⁻² s⁻¹. (7) Logarithm of luminosity in the 2–10 keV range corrected for extinction. (8) Best-fitting X-ray column density in units of 10²¹ cm⁻². (9) Galactic column density from the Dickey and Lockman H I map (Dickey & Lockman 1990) in units of 10²¹ cm⁻². (10) Power-law photon index. (11) Temperature of the blackbody. (12) Best-fitting model, where bb+po stands for blackbody emission plus a power law, and apo stands for an absorbed power law. All reported errors are at the 1σ level.

Figure 1. Left: MOS (black triangles) and pn (red dots) spectra of J00 and the best-fitting model (blackbody + power law) in solid lines. Each component of the X-ray model is plotted with dotted lines. Right: MOS (black) and pn (red) X-ray spectra of J02 and the best-fitting model (absorbed power law) in solid lines. We also represent the ratio between the data and the best-fitting model.

is a phenomenological model often used in the literature (Corral et al. 2015) to fit the soft X-ray excess. Nevertheless this is not physically correct for J00, as it is well known that the temperature of the blackbody for a supermassive black hole (SMBH) such as the one for J00 (see Section 5.3) is too low to explain the soft X-ray excess. We also tried a more physically motivated model, albeit more complex, replacing the blackbody model with a hot diffuse gas model (mekal model in XSPEC; Mewe, Gronenschild & van den Oord 1985; Mewe, Lemen & van den Oord 1986; Kaastra 1992; Liedahl, Osterheld & Goldstein 1995). This gives us an upper limit on the column density of 2.4 × 10²⁰ cm⁻² (with Γ = 1.83 ± 0.07, χ²/dof = 173.7/139). The results, in terms of the X-ray classification as absorbed/unabsorbed, do not change using one model or the other. Therefore, we use in this paper the results with the blackbody since we obtain a more conservative value of N_H. The equivalent width of the Fe line at 6.4 keV in the rest frame is formally equivalent width (EW) = 0.30 ± 0.05 keV, but adding this line is not statistically significant (Δχ² = 3 for Δdof = 1, a 1.73σ detection). Looking at the spectrum of J00 (Fig. 1), we can see a bump at the hard energies, but we believe that is not real, since it is only present in one of the EPIC cameras. This feature is probably associated with residuals in the background subtraction. Nevertheless, since the shape of the continuum is very well determined by the values at lower energies, this is not affecting our best-fitting estimates.

J02: the best-fitting model is an absorbed power law with photon index Γ = 2.08 ± 0.09 and intrinsic N_H = 1.7 ± 0.2 × 10²¹ cm⁻². The EW of the Fe line is formally EW = 1.12 ± 0.49 keV, that is strong, but the detection is not significant (Δχ² = 6 for Δdof = 1, a 2.45σ detection).

4 UV-TO-NIR OBSERVATIONS

We have obtained UV-to-NIR high-resolution spectra for both objects at the Very Large Telescope (VLT) with the VLT/XSHOOTER instrument (Vernet et al. 2011). The instrument divides the light in three paths that lead to three arms: one for the UV light, the second for the visible light and the last one for the Near-infrared (UVB, VIS and NIR, respectively). Each arm disperses the light with an echelle grating. The observations were taken with a 1.0arcsec × 1.0arcsec slit for the UVB arm and 0.9arcsec × 1.1arcsec slits for the VIS and NIR arms, respectively. Table 2 shows some technical details of the configuration set-up of the observations.

The spectra were taken in nodding mode. In Table 3, we show some information about the spectra acquisition. We present in Fig. 2 the acquisition images of both objects and indicate the slit projected in the sky, the extraction region of the spectra and the parallactic angle. The observation dates were 2010-09-07 for J00 and 2010-09-04 for J02.
The observations were reduced using the public XSHOOTER pipeline version 2.3.0 with Gasgano, following the instructions described in the XSHOOTER pipeline manual. We used a binning in the wavelength direction of 0.02 nm pixel$^{-1}$ for the UVB and VIS arms and 0.06 nm pixel$^{-1}$ for the NIR arm, and in the slit direction 0.16 arcsec pixel$^{-1}$ for the UVB and VIS arms and 0.21 arcsec pixel$^{-1}$ for the NIR arm, as specified in the XSHOOTER user manual. We used the standard procedures in the pipeline. IRAF Laplacian Cosmic Ray Identification task for spectroscopy (lacospec, van Dokkum 2001) was applied to the raw images for cosmic ray rejection and then each arm was reduced individually. We used the standard star GD71 (RA = 05:52:27.61, Dec. = +15:53:13.8) to calibrate the flux of our spectra. There are three different recipes to do the flux calibration: the offset mode, the staring mode and the nodding mode. We used the recipe for the staring mode, as it provides a better background subtraction. We used the software IRAF to extract the 1D spectra being careful to follow the trace. This was carried out with the routine apall. This is because the spectra have a trace whose centre was not constant in the cross-dispersion direction due to an imperfect order rectification of the pipeline.

We joined the spectrum from each XSHOOTER arm following the information about the dichroic crossover region in the XSHOOTER user manual. To join the UVB and VIS arms, the crossover region is at 5595 Å, while between the VIS and NIR it is at 10 140 Å. The transition regions are 5560–5638 and 10 095–10 350 Å, respectively. A 0.9–1.1 scaling factor between arms is sometimes needed to match in flux the complete spectrum (López et al. 2016; Nisini et al. 2016). We used the continuum in these regions around the crossover points to compute the flux scaling factors for each arm using the VIS one as reference. We scaled the UVB arm spectra using a factor of 0.9 while for the NIR arm a 1.0 flux scaling factor was acceptable. Errors were propagated through this process.

The aperture used to extract the spectra was defined to maximize the signal to noise of the AGN emission. This was carried out using the software IMFIT on the acquisition images of the VLT observations. Both images were taken using the $i$-band filter. In both targets, a bright nuclear source was detected (see contours in Fig. 2). To compute the fraction of the AGN light that enters through the slit, for J00 we decomposed the emission in a Gaussian function for the AGN, and a S´ersic profile for the host galaxy. J02 is an edge-on galaxy so we used a Gaussian profile for the AGN and two S´ersic profiles for the host galaxy, to fit the bulge and the disc. The parameters of the S´ersic and Gaussian models (intensity, $\sigma$, effective radius, S´ersic index) are computed with errors of $\sim$20 per cent or less, indicating reliable fits of the photometric images. In Fig. 2, the contours show that we have enough quality to fit the shape of the different components of our objects. We can trust the reliability of the acquisitions images to measure the slit losses using the width of the Gaussian profiles which are $\sim$2.5 and $\sim$3.5 pixels for J00 and J02, respectively.

We estimated that about 75 per cent and 56 per cent of the AGN emission are included in the slit for J00 and J02, respectively.

The reduction of the science spectra is concluded by correcting for Galactic extinction, putting the wavelength and flux in rest frame and converting the air wavelengths into vacuum wavelengths. Information to perform these corrections was obtained from the public data available in NASA/IPAC Extragalactic Database.

### Table 2. XSHOOTER observing configuration set-up.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arm</th>
<th>Slit</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>Inst. Br.</th>
<th>$T_{\text{exp}}$</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UVB</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>4350</td>
<td>0.86 ± 0.20</td>
<td>1420</td>
<td>3000–5500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIS</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>7450</td>
<td>1.14 ± 0.25</td>
<td>1420</td>
<td>5500–10 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIR</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>5300</td>
<td>0.88 ± 0.08</td>
<td>2 × 480</td>
<td>10 000–25 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. (1) Instrument arm. (2) Slit width in arcsec. (3) Spectral resolution $R = (\lambda/\delta \lambda)$ according to the XSHOOTER webpage. (4) Instrumental broadening in Å, measured using arc lines. (5) Exposure time in s. (6) Wavelength coverage of each arm in Å.

### Table 3. XSHOOTER spectra acquisition information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Nodding</th>
<th>Airmass</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J00</td>
<td>2010-09-07</td>
<td>+2.5 arcsec − 2.0 arcsec</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J02</td>
<td>2010-09-04</td>
<td>+2.5 arcsec − 1.5 arcsec</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. (1) Object. (2) Observation date (YYYY-MM-DD). (3) Nodding separation in arcsec. (4) Airmass.

XSHOOTER is equipped with an atmospheric dispersion correction (ADC) that allows the acquisition of the spectrum using any angle at any position in the sky. During our observations, the ADC was functional. For J02, we positioned the slit at an inclination angle close to the minor axis of the host galaxy to allow sky subtraction. Thanks to the ADC we could choose an inclination angle closer to the minor axis of the host galaxy. The observations were taken close to the minor axis of the host galaxy so we used a Gaussian profile for the AGN and two S´ersic profiles for the host galaxy, fitting the bulge and the disc. The parameters of the S´ersic and Gaussian models (intensity, $\sigma$, effective radius, S´ersic index) are computed with errors of $\sim$20 per cent or less, indicating reliable fits of the photometric images. In Fig. 2, the contours show that we have enough quality to fit the shape of the different components of our objects. We can trust the reliability of the acquisitions images to measure the slit losses using the width of the Gaussian profiles which are $\sim$2.5 and $\sim$3.5 pixels for J00 and J02, respectively.

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### 5 Analysis

In this section, we describe the steps carried out to isolate the AGN emission in the XSHOOTER spectra and to determine the properties of the AGN and their host galaxies.

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2 http://www.mpe.mpg.de/~erwin/code/imfit/
5.1 AGN and host galaxy continuum decomposition

To decompose the extracted spectra into AGNs and host galaxy emission at UV-to-NIR wavelengths, we used the software STARLIGHT (Cid Fernandes et al. 2005; Mateus et al. 2006). The best-fitting model was obtained by minimizing the \( \chi^2 \) statistic. We modelled the spectra with a composite model including a host galaxy spectrum plus an absorbed (by nuclear and host galaxy extinction) AGN spectrum. To reduce noise and to follow the recommendations of the STARLIGHT manual, we rebinned the spectrum to 2 Å bins. spectral energy distributions (SED) decomposition is an approach commonly used to compute the relative contributions from the AGNs and their hosts. Nevertheless, both the good spectral resolution and wide wavelength coverage of the X-SHOOTER spectra allow us to calculate the AGNs and stellar components without resorting to a full SED decomposition.

We need to assume a spectral shape for the rest-frame UV to near-IR AGN continuum. There is substantial scatter in the continuum shapes of individual AGN which also depend on the SMBH mass and can vary with time (Koratkar & Blaes 1999; Schmidt et al. 2012; Baron et al. 2016). Since our aim is to reproduce the intrinsic AGN continuum by finding the model that best fits each source, we have adopted the broken power law models \( (F_{\lambda} \propto \lambda^{\alpha}) \) from Polletta et al. (2007). In these models, the spectral index ranges from \( \alpha = -1.9 \) to -1.4 for \( \lambda < 10000 \) Å and \( \alpha = -0.8 \) to -0.6 redwards, and the break is located at 10 000 Å. This break is likely associated with the change in the AGN continuum slope between the IR bump and the big blue bump (Koratkar & Blaes 1999). We used this information to create a set of broken power laws with the previously mentioned index range to reproduce the intrinsic AGN continuum emission of our objects. The steps in the power-law index to create the grid of broken power-law models are \( \Delta \alpha = 0.125 \) for the blue region and \( \Delta \alpha = 0.05 \) for the red.

The next parameter needed in our fit is the obscuration of the nuclear region of the AGN. We used the extinction model of the Small Magellanic Cloud (SMC; Gordon et al. 2003) as it is the one that fits the AGN spectra better (Hopkins et al. 2004). We tried different extinction models but the SMC is the one that minimized \( \chi^2 \). In particular, we checked the Large Magellanic Cloud Super-Shell and Average models from Gordon et al. (2003), the Calzetti et al. (2000) law, the Milky Way model form Allen (1973) and the model from Cardelli, Clayton & Mathis (1989). In addition, using the SMC model we obtained the most conservative \( A_V \) values. We constrained the nuclear extinction to be between \( A_V = 10 \) and 0 mag.

The host galaxy contribution is modelled using the single stellar population (SSP) templates from the Bruzual & Charlot (2003) library. We used 45 models with metallicities \( Z = 0.05, 0.02 \) and 0.004 in units of the solar value and ages ranging from 1 Myr to 13 Gyr. We obtained SSP in the 0.8–13 Gyr range for our objects.

In order to fit the AGN and host galaxy continuum emission only, we masked out the spectral ranges where the AGN emission lines and the telluric absorption lines are expected (see grey and yellow bands in Fig. 3). We excluded the regions between 6850–6950, 7165–7210 and 7550–7725 Å, where some residuals of telluric features in the Bruzual and Charlot library are present.

The final spectral range used in the fit is between 3700 and 16000 Å (rest frame).

Fig. 3 shows the results of the spectral decomposition. We see that in both objects, the total emission is dominated by the host galaxy. The preferred models are \( \alpha_{\text{blue}} = -1.90 \) and \( \alpha_{\text{red}} = -0.6 \) for J00 and \( \alpha_{\text{blue}} = -1.78 \) and \( \alpha_{\text{red}} = -0.6 \) for J02.

We computed the errors in the extinction by varying the power-law index and then fitting again and calculating the \( \chi^2 \) statistics. The errors obtained are very small. We added an additional 15 per cent error contribution to account for the overall uncertainty of the SMC model used (Gordon et al. 2003). This contribution to the error is the one that dominates.

We believe that the results from the AGN and host galaxy decomposition reported in this section are robust. The XSHOOTER spectra have a sufficiently large wavelength range to constrain in a robust way the host galaxy contribution, which is the major contribution at optical wavelengths. It is clear that in the spectra there are several stellar features that help constraining the emission from the hosts (see Fig. 3). If more relative contribution of the nuclei is present in the spectra, this would in fact flatten the stellar features to a more featureless contribution. The STARLIGHT software fits this stellar features and the results in this paper are the best-fitting ones.

5.2 Narrow-line and broad-line Balmer decrements

After removing the host galaxy component and after having taken into account the slit losses, we estimated the Balmer decrement by using the broad and narrow components of the \( H\alpha \) and \( H\beta \) emission lines.

We fitted the nuclear spectra from rest-frame 6270 to 6800 Å for \( H\alpha \). For the \( H\beta \) region we fitted from rest-frame 4600 to 5050 Å for J00 and from 4800 to 5050 Å for J02. We used a wider wavelength range in the first object to ensure fitting the whole broad \( H\beta \) emission line. To model the AGN narrow emission lines we used Gaussian functions, assuming that they share the same width in velocity space. Hydrogen broad emission lines are fitted with Gaussian profiles as well. We included also a parameter for the broad line that is a shift of the centre of the Gaussian with respect to the vacuum values. This is because some AGNs show broad lines with an offset, sometimes of a thousand of km s\(^{-1}\) due to strong winds (Sulentic, Marziani & Dultzin-Hacyan 2000; Steinhardt et al. 2012; Gaskell & Goosman 2013). For J00, the shift is \( \sim 30 \) Å (\( \sim 1350 \) km s\(^{-1}\) in velocity) while for J02 is \( \sim 3 \) Å (\( \sim 150 \) km s\(^{-1}\)), not unusual with respect to the observed shifts (Sulentic et al. 2000). We used a power law to fit the continuum around the lines. The line parameters were obtained with the CIAO’s SHERPA fitting tool (Freeman, Doe & Siemiginowska 2001).

Since the broad \( H\beta \) component was not detected in any of the spectra, only an upper limit could be computed for the Balmer decrement from the BLR. Line parameters and Balmer decrements are reported in Table 4. The narrow-line Balmer decrement will be compared in Section 6.3 with the absorption in the X-rays and the extinction of the UV-to-NIR continuum.

In Fig. 4, we show our results while best-fitting values are indicated in Table 4.

5.3 SMBH masses

From the XSHOOTER nuclear spectra, we derived an estimate of the SMBH masses for our targets. There are many different ways to compute SMBH masses (Trippe 2015). We used the luminosity and FWHM of the \( H\alpha \) broad emission line and the expression from

\[ M_{\text{SMBH}} = 1.5 \times 10^{5} L_{\text{bol}} \left( \frac{L_{\text{bol}}}{10^{44} \text{erg s}^{-1}} \right)^{1/4} \]

where \( L_{\text{bol}} \) is the bolometric luminosity in erg s\(^{-1}\) and \( M_{\text{SMBH}} \) is the SMBH mass in solar masses (Gebhardt et al. 2000). The results are presented in Table 5.

\[ M_{\text{SMBH}} = \frac{L_{\text{bol}}}{1.5 \times 10^{5} \left( \frac{L_{\text{bol}}}{10^{44} \text{erg s}^{-1}} \right)^{1/4}} \]
Figure 3. Decomposition of the UV-to-NIR spectra of J00 (top) and J02 (bottom) into host galaxy and AGN components. The upper panels represent the results of the fits while the bottom panels show the residuals. The grey and yellow bands indicate the telluric absorption features and the spectral regions with AGN emission lines, respectively, which are ignored in the fits.
Table 4. AGN fitting results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>J00</th>
<th>J02</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>log(M_{SMBH}/M_{☉})</td>
<td>7.96 ± 0.23</td>
<td>6.74 ± 0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FWHM_{Hα,B}</td>
<td>7830 ± 1221</td>
<td>2499 ± 175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FWHM_{Hα,N}</td>
<td>246 ± 19</td>
<td>376 ± 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{Hα,B}</td>
<td>22.0 ± 2.0</td>
<td>6.15 ± 0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{Hα,N}</td>
<td>2.63 ± 0.13</td>
<td>0.52 ± 0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FWHM</td>
<td>≤ 16.2</td>
<td>≤ 1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{bol}/L_{bol}</td>
<td>0.89 ± 0.19</td>
<td>0.17 ± 0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{bol}</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>3.34 ± 0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{bol}/L_{bol}</td>
<td>≥ 3.13</td>
<td>≥ 11.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{bol}</td>
<td>1192 ± 118</td>
<td>243 ± 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{bol}</td>
<td>1.19 ± 0.97 × 10^6</td>
<td>0.071 ± 0.052 × 10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{bol}/L_{bol}</td>
<td>0.0010 ± 0.0004</td>
<td>0.0034 ± 0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. SMBH masses [in log(M_{SMBH}/M_{☉}) units] and properties of the different broad and narrow emission lines used in our analysis. The FWHM is in km s^{-1}. All luminosities are in units of 10^{40} erg s^{-1}. The Balmer decrement, as indicated in the text, is calculated using the reddened AGN spectrum. All luminosities are extinction corrected, except those with the superindex ‘t’.

Greene & Ho (2005),

\[
\log \left( \frac{M_{SMBH}}{M_{☉}} \right) = (0.45 ± 0.05) \log \left( \frac{L_{Hα}}{10^{42} \text{ erg s}^{-1}} \right) \\
+ (2.06 ± 0.06) \log \left( \frac{\text{FWHM}_{Hα}}{10^{3} \text{kms}^{-1}} \right) + 6.40^{+0.09}_{-0.07},
\]

(1)

where M_{SMBH}/M_{☉} is the mass of the SMBH in solar units. L_{Hα} is the intrinsic luminosity of the Hα emission line in erg s^{-1}, this is, corrected for both the nuclear and the host galaxy extinction, computed from the spectral fits. Finally FWHM_{Hα} is the FWHM of the broad Hα emission line in km s^{-1}. We also have corrected the FWHM of the lines by the instrumental spectral dispersion by subtracting the instrumental broadening in quadrature.

We show the SMBH masses computed using equation (1), as well as the relevant luminosities, in Table 4. In addition, we show the bolometric and Eddington luminosities for our sources, as well as the Eddington ratio (L_{bol}/L_{Edd}). The bolometric luminosities are calculated using the expression L_{bol} = 9 × \lambda L_{5100} (Kaspi et al. 2000), being L_{5100} the monochromatic luminosity of the unreddened nuclear emission at rest-frame 5100 Å. The Eddington ratio is within the expected values for nearby AGNs with similar bolometric luminosities and SMBH masses (Panessa et al. 2006).

5.4 Host galaxy masses

It is well known that the SMBH mass and the spheroidal mass of the host galaxies follow a linear relation (Merritt & Ferrarese 2001; Park et al. 2012). In this study, we calculate both the dynamical mass and the stellar mass from the spheroidal component of the host galaxy.

5.4.1 Stellar masses

STARLIGHT provides stellar masses for its best-fitting models. We have corrected those for slit losses using the spheroidal components obtained by IMFIT (see Section 4): the fractions of the spheroid light that went through the slit are 9.0 and 6.2 per cent for J00 and J02, respectively.

The stellar mass derived using STARLIGHT is computed using mass-to-light relations, converting each SSP contribution to stellar mass. STARLIGHT does not compute errors in the best-fitting values. In Bell & de Jong (2001), the stellar mass-to-light ratio and the uncertainties associated with this ratio are discussed. These uncertainties are all of the order of 0.1–0.2 dex. We use the largest value as the error for our values to be conservative. Our results are shown in Table 5.

5.4.2 Dynamical masses

As a sanity check, we also computed the dynamical mass of the spheroidal component of the host galaxies. We used the relation between the line-of-sight velocity dispersion (\σ_e) and the dynamical mass.

The observed width of the Na I doublet at rest-frame \lambda 5896, 5890 (Na I D) is a stellar absorption feature that can be used to calculate \σ_e (Spiniello et al. 2012). The Na I D feature is a convolution of the resolution of the instrument, the intrinsic width of the stellar population and \σ_e. To compute \σ_e, we used the instrumental resolution from Table 2. For the stellar population, we used the SSP template from the Bruzual and Charlot 2003 library (Bruzual & Charlot 2003) that based on the results of STARLIGHT, is the most dominant SSP for each host galaxy: the SSP of 0.9 Gyr and Z = 0.05 for J00, and 11 Gyr and Z = 0.02 for J02. The standard dispersion of the Gaussian function gives the desired \σ_e.

In Fig. 5, we show the Na I D and the results of the fits. We plot in this figure the template used in each object with the spectral resolution at the region of the doublet. The spectral resolution is computed using the FWHM of the closest arc line of the XSHOOTER observation. To calculate the dynamical mass of our AGN hosts, we used the virial relations from Cappellari et al. (2006) and Taylor et al. (2010).

\[M_{\text{dyn}} = k(n) \times \frac{r_e \sigma_e^2}{G},\]

(2)

where \σ_e is the effective radius of the spheroidal mass of the host galaxy, \σ_e is the line-of-sight velocity dispersion, the factor k(n) that depends on the S´ersic index and G is the universal gravitational constant. Using the software IMFIT we obtained \σ_e and the S´ersic index by fitting the acquisition images from the VLT. To compute \σ_e in the spheroidal mass we propagate errors.

We summarize in Table 5 the properties of our AGN hosts. We clearly see that our dynamical mass estimates are compatible with the stellar masses calculated before. The studied galaxies are massive but not atypical (Vitale et al. 2013).

6 DISCUSSION

In the following subsections, we discuss one by one the possible causes of the apparent discordant properties of our AGNs in the UV/optical range and in X-rays.

6.1 Compton-thick or Compton-thin obscuration

Based on the observed X-ray properties, we can rule out that our objects are Compton-thick. First of all the broad-band continuum shape is too steep to be produced mainly by reflected emission as demonstrated in Section 3. Compton-thick sources usually have \Gamma \sim 1.0 (Brightman et al. 1999; Winter et al. 2008; Georgantopoulos et al. 2011a; Del Moro et al. 2016).
Figure 4. Top: decomposition of the AGN emission into continuum plus narrow and broad emission lines for J00 (top) and J02 (bottom). Left-hand panels: H β+[O III] region. Right-hand panels: Hα region. In grey, we plot the error of each spectrum. We also indicate the observed narrow emission lines.

Figure 5. Spectrum (in black) of the Na I Doublet of J00 (left) and J02 (right) and its fit (in red). In grey we show the error of each spectrum. In blue we plot the template used to measure $\sigma_v$ in the region of Na I D. The template has a spectral resolution of 1.28 Å.
Compton-thick AGNs are expected and known to display large EW Fe K emission lines at 6.4 keV (<1 keV; Gandhi et al. 2014), due to the highly suppressed underlying continuum. No Fe line is detected by the fits with high significance in any of our sources. The Compton-thin nature of the sources is supported by the high $L_{2–10 keV}/L_{[O III]}$ ratio, where $L_{[O III]}$ is the unreddened luminosity of the [O III] emission line at rest frame $\lambda$5007 Å. This is because if we only detect in X-rays the soft scattered component (which is only a small fraction of the intrinsic AGN power), the X-ray luminosity can be largely underestimated. Therefore, we can use $L_{[O III]}$ as a proxy of the bolometric luminosity and compare it to the $L_{2–10 keV}$. Compton-thick sources have $L_{2–10 keV}/L_{[O III]} < 0.1$–1.0 (Bassani et al. 1999; Akylas & Georgantopoulos 2009). This ratio is 69 for J02 and 22 for J00. This effectively excludes the Compton-thick character of both of our sources. Alternatively, we could use the mid-IR to $L_\alpha$ ratio to identify Compton-thick obscuration (Gandhi et al. 2009; Asmus et al. 2011; Mateos et al. 2015; Stern 2015). If we use the three shortest $\lambda$-bands of the Wide-Field Infrared Survey Explorer (3.4, 4.6, 6, 12 μm; Wright et al. 2010), we find that our sources have mid-IR colours that fall outside of the region occupied by AGNs (Mateos et al. 2012), because their catalogued fluxes have significant contamination from the AGN hosts.

### 6.2 Host–SMBH relations

We estimated the SMBH-to-host galaxy mass ratio for our two sources (see Table 6) and compared them with the value reported by Merritt & Ferrarese (2001), $(\log (M_{\text{SMBH}}/M_{\text{bulge}})) = -2.9$ with an rms of 0.5 dex. This has been derived by using the samples of bulges and elliptical galaxies of Ferrarese et al. (2001) and Gebhardt et al. (2000). For J00, we obtain $(\log (M_{\text{SMBH}}/M_{\text{bulge}})) = -2.77$, which is consistent with the Merritt and Ferrarese relation. This means that the galaxy is as massive as expected by its SMBH. J02 has $(\log (M_{\text{SMBH}}/M_{\text{bulge}})) = -4.15$, that is more than two times the rms below the standard relation. For J02 host galaxy dilution could explain, at least in part, the lack of broad emission line detection in the 6dF spectrum. This is because we expect more impact of the star-light dilution on the AGN emission compared to AGNs with less massive host galaxies. There are many examples in the literature of apparently normal galaxies (e.g. X-ray bright optically normal galaxies) in which, after the host galaxy contamination is removed, AGN emission is revealed (Severgnini et al. 2003; Georgantopoulos & Georgakakis 2005; Caccianiga et al. 2007). In the next sections, we will investigate if this is the only factor that contributes to the observed optical/X-ray discrepancy.

### 6.3 Dust-to-gas ratio of the obscuring medium and Balmer decrement

Typically AGNs have dust-to-gas ratios lower than or compatible with the Galactic value (Maiolino et al. 2001; Vasudevan et al. 2009; Parisi 2011; Marchese et al. 2012; Hao et al. 2013; Burtscher et al. 2016). This result does not appear only in X-ray-selected studies, but also on optical- and IR-selected AGNs (Wilkes et al. 2002; Young, Elvis & Risaliti 2008). We have compared $A_V$ (see Table 7) and $N_H$ (see Table 1) for our sources. For J00 $A_V/N_H \geq 2.61 \times 10^{-21}$ mag cm$^{-2}$, while for J02 $A_V/N_H = 1.30^{+1.8}_{-1.1} \times 10^{-21}$ mag cm$^{-2}$. The Galactic relation is $A_V/N_H = 5.3 \times 10^{-22}$ mag cm$^{-2}$. J00 shows an $A_V/N_H$ more than five times the Galactic value. For J02, the value is consistent with the Galactic. As mentioned in Section 5.1, the SMC extinction model is one of the most conservative measurements on the $A_V$ of all models taken into account. The results provided by the other extinction models do not change the results in terms of the dust-to-gas ratio.

A dust-to-gas ratio higher than the Galactic value explains the observed properties of J00. It is a scenario offered in Panessa & Bassani (2002) to explain the different optical and X-ray classification of unabsorbed Seyfert 2. In this case, a strong contribution of dust has less effect in the X-ray emission than the optical one. There are a few examples in the literature of higher dust-to-gas than the Galactic value (Tripe et al. 2010; Huang et al. 2012; Mehdipour et al. 2012), but this scenario is not very common as it is about 3–9 per cent of the sources (Maiolino et al. 2001; Caccianiga et al. 2004; Malizia et al. 2012).

### 6.4 Intrinsically weak BLR emission

To investigate whether our AGNs have a BLR with non-standard properties (e.g. underluminous), we have determined the luminosity ratio $L_{[O III]}/L_{BLR}$ from the broad and narrow components of the H$\alpha$ emission line (see Table 4). Then, we compare our values with the relation between $L_{[O III]}/L_{BLR}$ and $L_{BLR}$ found for AGNs of similar $z$ and luminosities to ours from Stern & Laor (2012). Our objects have $L_{[O III]}/L_{BLR}$ ratios within the observed 0.4 dex scatter hence, none of our sources appears to have intrinsically weak BLR.

---

**Table 5.** Host galaxy properties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object</th>
<th>$\sigma_e$ (km s$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$r_e$ (kpc)</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$k(n)$</th>
<th>$\log(M_{\text{dyn}}/M_\odot)$</th>
<th>$\log(M_{\text{stellar}}/M_\odot)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J00</td>
<td>145 ± 109</td>
<td>4.21 ± 0.39</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>7.92</td>
<td>11.07 ± 0.23</td>
<td>10.73 ± 0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J02</td>
<td>260 ± 87</td>
<td>0.84 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>7.92</td>
<td>10.85 ± 0.11</td>
<td>10.89 ± 0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Line-of-sight velocity dispersion ($\sigma_e$) of the two AGNs. The value $r_e$ is the effective radius. The factor $k(n)$ in equation (2) depends on $n$ that is the Sérsic index. The spheroidal masses in logarithmic units of $M_\odot$.

**Table 6.** Gas-to-dust and $M_{\text{SMBH}}/M_{\text{bulge}}$ ratios.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object</th>
<th>$A_V/N_H$</th>
<th>$\log(M_{\text{SMBH}}/M_{\text{bulge}})$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J00</td>
<td>$\geq 2.61 \times 10^{-21}$</td>
<td>$-2.77^{+0.36}_{-0.39}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J02</td>
<td>$1.30^{+1.8}_{-1.1} \times 10^{-21}$</td>
<td>$-4.15 \pm 0.39$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference value</td>
<td>$5.3 \times 10^{-22}$</td>
<td>$-2.9 \pm 0.5$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. The units of $A_V/N_H$ are in mag cm$^{-2}$. The reference value for $A_V/N_H$ is the Galactic and for $\log(M_{\text{SMBH}}/M_{\text{bulge}})$ is the mean value from Merritt & Ferrarese (2001).

**Table 7.** AGN optical extinction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object</th>
<th>$A_V,NLR$</th>
<th>$A_V,\text{cont.}$</th>
<th>$A_V,X-ray$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J00</td>
<td>$1.07^{+0.67}_{-0.81}$</td>
<td>$2.04 \pm 0.30$</td>
<td>$0.30^{+0.77}_{-0.81}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J02</td>
<td>$0.30^{+0.77}_{-0.81}$</td>
<td>$2.19 \pm 0.33$</td>
<td>$0.13$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Optical extinction of the NLR and AGN continuum in mag. The NLR extinction is converted through the Balmer decrement (Bassani et al. 1999; Pappa et al. 2001; Carrera, Page & Mittaz 2004) through the expression $E(B – V) = 2.07 \times \log(Hα/Hβ/3)$ and $R_V = 3.1$. The $A_{\text{V,X-ray}}$ is the optical extinction corresponding to the $N_H$ column density using the SMC model of Gordon et al. (2003).
6.5 Variability

AGNs are highly variable sources across the full electromagnetic spectrum at both long and short time-scales (Ulrich, Maraschi & Urry 1997; Mateos et al. 2007; Krumpe et al. 2010; García-González et al. 2015; Hernández-García et al. 2015; LaMassa et al. 2015). This is originated by variability in the accretion rate and by extinction variability in the line-of-sight material (Markowitz, Krumpe & Nikutta 2014; Miniutti et al. 2014). As the X-ray and UV/optical observations have not been taken simultaneously we cannot rule out that this might also contribute to the observed mismatch between the optical and X-ray properties of our AGNs.

As a check, we carried out the UV-to-optical spectral decomposition into AGNs and host galaxy emission with the public SDSS-DR7 spectrum of J00 (taken in 2000-09-05), using the same broken power law for the AGN emission and the same host galaxy emission from Section 5.1. In this test, we compare the intrinsic flux of the AGN, so we have taken into account that the SDSS spectra were taken with a 3 arcsec fibre and hence a higher fraction of AGNs enters through the fibre and the host galaxy contribution is higher than in the XSHOOTER spectra. Analysing the results there is some variation, that is best fitted by an extinction change ($A_V$ $\pm$ 10 mag versus the one obtained by XSHOOTER, that is $A_V$ $\pm$ 0.29 mag) instead of a change in the emission of the AGN. The computed $A_V$ gives a higher dust-to-gas ratio than the Galactic ($A_V/N_H = 8.8 \times 10^{-3}$ mag cm$^{-2}$), as with the XSHOOTER data. The 6dF optical spectrum of J02 is not of sufficient quality for conducting a spectral decomposition analysis.

We conclude that extinction variability could be present in at least one of the sources (the one with the largest $A_V/N_H$ ratio). Even so, a higher than Galactic dust-to-gas ratio is also needed in that source. For this source, we only observe a marginal variation of the intrinsic flux of 1.69. Simultaneous X-ray and optical observations are needed to assess the actual importance of variability.

7 CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we have investigated the origin of the apparent mismatch of the optical and X-ray classifications of two AGNs with high optical extinction but low X-ray absorption. In our two selected objects, there is a clear broad line in H$\alpha$ using the data from VLT/XSHOOTER after a careful removal of the host galaxy contribution.

We discussed several scenarios that could explain the discordance of our observations. We ruled out a Compton-thick nature of our sources, on the basis of the $L_{2-10\text{keV}}/L_{[O\text{III}]}$ ratio. We also discarded that the total or partial absence of broad lines in the spectrum is caused by an intrinsically weak BLR emission.

The origin of the mismatch for each object is found to be different. An intrinsically different $A_V/N_H$ is the best explanation for the properties of the object J00 without the need to invoke variability. This obscuring material has a dust-to-gas ratio really different than the majority of the AGN population. The other object, J02, has a massive host galaxy in comparison with its SMBH, so that the broad emission lines and the nuclear continuum are swamped by the host galaxy star light which makes them very difficult to detect.

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