

# Evolution of galaxy dynamics over the last 10 Gyrs with MUSE/VLT

Master Thesis



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# Abstract

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Photometry and spectroscopy in galactic astronomy

### 1.1.1 Photometric data

Photometric and spectroscopic data have been widely used in the past to study questions related to the formation and evolution of galaxies at both low and high redshifts. Photometry is a key component in the study of galaxy light profiles and the location of the different stellar populations.

Assuming the galaxies are resolved enough within the images, photometry gives us information about their morphological properties and can tell us how their content is distributed within them. Observations in different wavelength ranges (bands) give us insight into the differences in distribution between young and old stars (observed respectively in UV and near IR rest-frame bands), which can in turn indicate the presence of HII regions<sup>1</sup> (citation here). Typical wavelengths of observation include the visible spectrum, IR and UV. Ground based near-IR (NIR) photometry can also give information on the distribution of gas and old stars, and space based telescopes observing in the far-IR (FIR) can give us insight into the location of dust. Being able to determine the amount of dust along the line of sight, the so called column density defined as the 3D density integrated along the line of sight, is most important as it is mandatory to derive any robust estimates of absolute magnitude and Star Formation Rate (SFR).

Photometric information of galaxies is generally obtained through model fitting of the measured light profile, though other methods exist involving growth of ellipses (cite here).

The most commonly used model of galaxy shape, excluding more complicated cases such as irregular structures and merging galaxies, is a Sérsic profile which we generally write as (Graham et al., 2005)<sup>2</sup>

$$I(r) = I_e e^{-b_n \left( \left( \frac{r}{R_e} \right)^{1/n} - 1 \right)} \quad (1)$$

where  $r$  is the radial distance to the morphological centre of the galaxy,  $n$  is referred as the Sérsic index of the galaxy,  $R_e$  is the effective radius (also called half-light radius) which encloses 50% of the total luminosity of the galaxy,  $I_e$  is the intensity at the position  $R_e$  and  $b_n$  is a term which ensures that  $R_e$  does enclose half the total luminosity. The formal definition of  $b_n$  can be shown to be such that  $2\gamma(2n, b_n) = \Gamma(2n)$  with  $\gamma$  and  $\Gamma$  respectively the incomplete and complete gamma functions.

This equation can simplify into two famous galaxy profiles:

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<sup>1</sup>Clumpy regions of ionised hydrogen with high values of star formation.

<sup>2</sup>The original definition  $I(r) \propto e^{(r/\alpha)^{1/n}}$  from Sérsic (1963) was modified to Eq. 1 because of the too small (immeasurable) values  $\alpha$  generally takes.

- an exponential disc for  $n = 1$  which represents a disk-like/spiral<sup>3</sup> galaxies
- a de Vaucouleurs profile for  $n = 4$  which describes elliptical (early-type) galaxies

This model with a freely varying Sérsic index is the one used in some morphology fitting software such as SExtractor (Bertin & Arnouts, 1996) or GIMD2D (Simard, 1998), but other forms can also be used from time to time. For instance one can use a combination of a bulge and a disk, with two fixed Sérsic indices instead of one allowed to freely vary, as in GALFIT (Peng et al., 2002).

Morphological parameters derived from the morphology modelling can then be used in various ways. We can classify the galaxies as elliptical or spiral using their Sérsic index or the most dominant feature between the disk and the bulge component if the modelling was a combination of both. We can also derive a value for the inclination of the galaxy on the sky using the ratio between the minor and major axes. Indeed, if we define the inclination of a galaxy as the angle between the normal to its plane and our line of sight, we have the relation

$$\cos i = b/a \quad (2)$$

where  $b$  is the galaxy minor axis and  $a$  its major axis.

If many photometric observations have been carried out on the same sky patch in multiple bands as in the case in the COSMOS field (see Section), different stellar populations and gas components can be observed. This gives us an approximate spectrum from which we can derive, for instance, a more precise photometric redshift than by combining a single instrument with multiple filters (insert citation here) and allows one to perform an SED fitting on this spectrum to derive other useful estimates such as the stellar mass, mean metallicity or star formation rate (citation here).

From both SED fitting and morphological parameters, it is then possible to derive scaling relations between them. For instance, we can derive the Tully-Fisher relation for late-type galaxies which relates the total luminosity of the galaxy with its maximum rotational velocity, or the Faber-Jackson relation for early-type galaxies where we use the velocity dispersion instead of the maximum rotational velocity (citation here).

The main drawback for having multiple band photometry is that it requires long observation times of the same sky area with different telescopes probing different wavelength ranges. Thus, it is not well suited to the study of galaxies' spectral features and therefore their kinematics.

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<sup>3</sup>We will preferentially use the terms disk-like/late-type galaxies, with respect the Hubble sequence (Hubble, 1922), (Hubble, 1926), rather than spiral galaxies since many of the galaxies studied in the present work do show a disk morphology without clear spiral arm patterns.

### 1.1.2 Spectroscopy

On the other hand, astronomers have also been using spectroscopy to study galaxy chemistry, gas abundance and its kinematics. Contrary to photometry, these methods of observation do not yield an image of the galaxy but instead a spectrum of the pointed area. From such spectra, assuming we are able to unambiguously detect a spectral feature such as a ray ( $H\alpha$ ,  $H\beta$ , OII, OIII,  $Ly\alpha$ , etc.) or a line break (generally Lyman or Balmer break), we can infer a much more precise value for the galaxy redshift than in the photometry case as well as the gas velocity and its dispersion.

The lack of imaging implied that these methods only returned overall information on the whole galaxies or in specific regions chosen in advance for their scientific interest (HII region for instance). This was the case until slit spectroscopy was developed. Opposite to what has been previously said, slit spectroscopy give spectroscopic information not in a single pixel, but along a slit. Galaxies studied with this method generally relied on prior morphological information

Such data gives us information about how the gas moves inside the galaxies and allows one to classify the galaxies based on their kinematics (rotationally supported or dispersion dominated, see insert citation here).

In this context, it has become clear that a combination of these techniques would be necessary to better constrain the models of galaxy formation and to study in more details the origin of the observed scaling laws (SFR-mass, mass-size, luminosity-mass relations, etc.). In recent years, this has become possible with the advent of Integral Field Spectroscopy (IFS) astronomy. This technique combines the advantages of both photometry and spectroscopy by measuring the spectrum of each pixel in an image, yielding a 3D cube with two spatial and one spectral dimensions. Such instruments lacked for the most part a good spatial resolution until recently, but have now filled the gap.

## 1.2 MUSE-VLT

MUSE is an Integral Field Unit (IFU) mounted on the VLT in Chile which spans a  $1' \times 1'$  Field of View (FoV). Its wavelength range covers both the visual spectrum and the Near Infra-Red part (NIR), going from 4650 Å to 9300 Å. This instrument was built with the main purpose of performing blind searches of sources in the field. The wavelength range is well suited to detect the OII doublet in the redshift range 0.4, 1.4.



## 2 Sample selection

### 2.1 COSMOS field

Group Number <sup>1</sup>	Ra <sup>2</sup> (°)	Dec <sup>3</sup> (°)	Observation time <sup>4</sup> (hr)	Average seeing <sup>5</sup> (")	Total nb. of galaxies <sup>6</sup>	Number of field galaxies <sup>7</sup>
2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Table 1: Main characteristics of the observed MUSE fields, 1. MUSE group number, 2. Group centre’s right ascension, 3. Group centre’s declination, 4. Duration of observations, 5. Average seeing during observation, 6. Total number of detected galaxies within MUSE FoV, 7. Number of field galaxies found by the FoF algorithm.

The point of the analysis is to perform a joint study of the morphology and the kinematics of field galaxies in the COSMOS field using respectively HST ACS images and MUSE data.

To this end, a set of 9 galaxy groups in the COSMOS field was selected. The choice of the COSMOS field for this analysis was made because of the large number of multi-band photometric data available for the galaxies in this field and the presence of rich (large number of member galaxies) galaxy groups.

Guaranteed Time Observation (GTO) runs centred on those groups were performed from which 12 different MUSE Fields of View (FoV) of  $51y \times yarccsec^2$  were obtained. Each group corresponds to one FoV, except for the group number 32. Since it is larger than the others, three different observations were carried out around it with a slight overlapping (mosaic view) between them. The main characteristics of the observed FoVs, including the position of their centre, the number of observing time hours, the average seeing during the observation, the total number of galaxies and the number of field galaxies detected by the FoF algorithm are listed in Table 1.

These groups were primarily chosen for their position within the COSMOS field. This ensured them to have a large set of corresponding photometric data available from ? (?) catalogue for most of the galaxies. Nevertheless, since blind source detections within the data cubes were performed on these FoVs, we should expect a small fraction of galaxies to be detected in MUSE cubes but not in the HST images.

Generally speaking, galaxies detected by MUSE are also detected in HST images because of the Hubble Space Telescope’s (HST) much better resolution (0.03arcsec/px for HST and  $\sim 0.2$ arcsec/px for MUSE). Nevertheless, the MUSE pipeline allows in some cases the detection of sources in regions where there is no HST counterpart. Two sources can even be separated in areas smaller than the PSF based on their different spectral features, though this happens not often (?, ?).

## 2.2 Prior information on the galaxies

This internship was planned to be similar in many aspects to what has been doing Epinat B. PhD student Valentina Abridg in LAM, Marseille for her PhD. Her work consisted in studying the morphology and the kinematics of the galaxies within the structures observed by MUSE. The galaxies she was working on were therefore found in the same FoVs but belonged to groups and clusters when those I used were labelled as field galaxies around these structures.

To differentiate between group and field galaxies, prior to my arrival, a Friend of Friends algorithm (FoF) was run on the galaxies in each FoV in order to separate them into two categories: group and field galaxies.

Additionally, GalFit had been run on the cluster galaxies by Valentina and we therefore already had morphological information for them. Unlike other software such as SExtractor or GIM2D which fit a one-component model (Sérsic index as a free parameter) onto the images, the morphological model which was used in this case used a combination of a disk component (Sérsic index  $n = 1$ ) and a spherically symmetric bulge component ( $n = 4$ ).

Hence, we already had the following morphological parameters for the cluster galaxies only: ellipticity and PA (from the disk component), bulge and disk total magnitudes and the half-light radii for both components<sup>4</sup>

## 2.3 Selection criteria

### 2.3.1 Morphological information

The total number of galaxies detected by MUSE in the COSMOS field is around 1000. Roughly half of them belong to clusters and the other half are labelled as field galaxies. Among these galaxies, not all of them are useful to our study. Some may be too close to the edge of detection, others be too noisy with a low Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR), or too small to perform any relevant kinematical modelling. It is thus mandatory to apply a selection on our data set of field galaxies, first to save time for the analysis, but also to reduce errors which might increase if we have too poorly resolved data.

The second point is that we would like to perform a joint study of the morphology and the kinematics of these galaxies. The tools and the models for the kinematical modelling were already developed and are the same as those used by Valentina in her work. On the other hand, fitting morphological models with software such as GalFit or SExtractor require additional time. Hopefully for us, morphological modelling was already performed on the galaxies in the COSMOS field, so we could focus on the kinematical part.

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<sup>4</sup>Note this means the value of GalFit half-light radii can be quite different from that given by SExtractor or GIM2D as shall be discussed in later sections.

Morphological information for all galaxies in the COSMOS field can be found in various catalogues<sup>5</sup>. To start with, we decided to use the two most complete catalogues we could find, that of Tasca (maybe citation) and Cassata (maybe citation as well). Both catalogues contain morphological information including the central position of the galaxy, its half-light radius, concentration and asymmetry parameters, ellipticity, PA, and many more for roughly 232000 galaxies.

To associate the already present data from Laigle et al. (2016) within our catalogue with theirs, we cross-matched our data with each catalogue separately and then with both using the right ascension  $\alpha$  and declination  $\delta$  of the centre of the galaxies, allowing for a maximum separation between the MUSE source and the closest source within Cassata's and Tasca's catalogues of 1 arcsec maximum. However, we should note that the centre position of the MUSE galaxies correspond to that of the corresponding source in Laigle et al. (2016) and should therefore be quite close to the value of the cross-matched galaxy since their photometry modelling was performed on the same data.

We performed this cross-matching for both field and cluster galaxies. The reason for cross-matching cluster galaxies when we are only interested in those in the field will be discussed in the following section.

## 2.4 SNR and size selection criteria

Since we are interested in keeping well resolved field galaxies, we need to apply relevant criteria in order to select the right galaxies. The most obvious parameter we can use to make our selection is the size of the galaxy, though we must be certain before using it that the value given in our cross-matched catalogue reflects accurately enough the "true" size of the galaxy. This checking is performed and discussed in the next section.

Following the earlier work done in Bacon et al. (2015) and Bacon et al. (2017), the MUSE Point Spread Function (PSF), that is the pattern we obtain when we observe a point-like source with MUSE, is most well described by a Moffat (1969) profile

$$I_{\text{PSF}}(r) = I_0(1 + (r/\alpha)^2)^{-\beta} \quad (3)$$

where  $r$  is the radial distance to the centre and  $\alpha, \beta$  are two seeing dependant parameters. In our case we are interested in the Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM) since it is directly related to the seeing conditions and it gives us information about the minimum spatial extent within which data will be mixed up. The FWHM can be easily derived from the equation  $I_{\text{PSF}}(\text{FWHM}/2) = I_0/2$ , from which we get the following relation

$$\text{FWHM} = 2\alpha\sqrt{2^{1/\beta} - 1} \quad (4)$$

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<sup>5</sup><https://irsa.ipac.caltech.edu/data/COSMOS/tables/morphology/>

According to the aforementioned articles the value of  $\beta$  should remain roughly constant and we would expect from differential image motion theory (insert this paper here when read 10.1086/342683) that the FWHM would linearly decrease with wavelength. Thus, if we want to derive the FWHM at a given wavelength and in a given field (since the seeing conditions will vary with the date of observation) we need to derive the linear relation between the FWHM and the wavelength in each field.

The measure of  $\alpha$ , and therefore the FWHM, was done by Valentina on at least two stars by FoV. Because they belong to our galaxy, we can consider that they have a null redshift, so that the wavelength of observation and emission are the same.

A Moffat profile was fitted on their OII  $\lambda 3727 \text{ \AA}$  and H $\beta$   $4861 \text{ \AA}$  flux maps, giving us at least two measures of the FWHM. Though a more rigorous modelling of the wavelength variation of the PSF FWHM including both more data points and potentially higher order terms is mandatory for future analysis, we decided to stick to this values in the present work, keeping in mind the large uncertainties which will affect the velocity dispersion maps in the modelling section. A representation of the FWHM variation with wavelength for the 12 observations (9 fields, 3 observed twice) is shown in Fig.??.

## A Appendix

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