

Empirical Star Formation Estimates in Galaxy Evolution

by

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Abstract

One of the crucial unsolved puzzles in astronomy has been the question of how galaxies end the process of star formation. A key piece in this puzzle is figuring out how to robustly infer star formation rates and the cosmic star formation histories of galaxies from observed photometric and spectroscopic data. The star formation history of a galaxy is encoded in its spectrum, which can be thought of as a fingerprint of a galaxy. However, spectroscopic information is often unavailable as it is more expensive to obtain. And where available, it can be limited in terms of interpretability by the dependence on the fiber diameter used and the physical properties of the galaxy in question.

The class of techniques known as SED (Spectral Energy Distribution) fitting tackles this problem by inferring the spectrum of a galaxy from photometric and spectroscopic data. Over the last decade, SED-fitting methods have become increasingly more sophisticated both in terms of model predictions as well as accounting for effects of more complex physical mechanisms such as dust absorption/emission. Another significant development, has been the rapidly growing field of IFU (Integral Field Unit) spectroscopy with a view to obtaining spatially resolved spectra with high S/N ratio of galaxies. With the advent of ongoing surveys such as MaNGA (Mapping Nearby Galaxies at Apache Point Observatory), the largest IFU-based survey thus far, we are better poised to answer this question than ever

before.

In this dissertation, I examine these two techniques for estimating star formation histories. First, using data from NASA Sloan Atlas (NSA) catalog along with the Wide-field Infrared Survey (WISE), I compare star formation rates obtained from two different methods: one, a UV-to-IR SED fitting method that accounts for dust and the other, a purely UV photometry-based approach. Using galaxy environments as a third independent parameter, I find a population of dust obscured star formers that masquerade as much lower star formation galaxies when only UV-optical information is available, but which live in the same large scale environments as other star forming galaxies.

In the second part, I examine the robustness of star formation history measurements from one of the largest available and most influential catalogs available, the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) Legacy Survey. This catalog is limited by the fact that it uses small aperture fibers (3 arcsecond diameter) to measure galaxies that can sometimes have much larger angular extent. Spatially resolved spectroscopy from MaNGA measures galaxies more completely, but for a much smaller sample. I use aperture measurements of key spectral indicators of age, stellar mass and star formation history such as the $H\delta_A$ absorption line index and the D_{n4000} break to quantify the effects of the small fiber aperture on the Legacy Survey sample results. From these results I show that biases exist in the measurements of stellar mass from the SDSS Legacy Survey, but that for most galaxies these biases are small.

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FOR SRIKAR.

Acknowledgments

HERE'S WHERE I ACKNOWLEDGE a lot of people.

*... As for me, nothing in the universe can be the same
if somewhere, no one knows where, a sheep we never
saw has or has not eaten a rose.... Look up at the sky.
Ask yourself, "Has the sheep eaten the flower or not?"
And you'll see how everything changes.... And no grown-
up will ever understand how such a thing could be so
important!*

Antoine de Saint-Exupéry (The Little Prince)

0

Introduction

0.1 A BRIEF HISTORY OF GALAXY EVOLUTION

0.1.1 THE DISCOVERY OF GALAXIES

One of the momentous shifts in scientific thinking was the realization that our Sun might be one of many stars in the Universe. From this sprung the idea that perhaps the gravitationally bound system of stars, stellar remnants, gas and dust that the Sun is a part of is one

of many such structures known as galaxies. The bright band of stars and dust that we observe in the night sky, which we now know as our own galaxy, the Milky Way, has been a puzzling topic since ancient times. The Greek philosopher Democritus is known to have speculated that this might be a band of distant stars but the thought was left by the wayside with the advent of Aristotelian physics. The astronomers of medieval Islam, such as Alhazen, al-Biruni and Ibn-Bajjah, centuries later, also hypothesized that the Milky Way was made of many stars such as our own Sun. However, observational proof for this came only in the 17th century when the Italian astronomer, Galileo Galelei pointed his telescope at this band and confirmed that the Milky Way was indeed made up of a huge number of faint stars.

Since the debate on a geocentric versus heliocentric Universe was still ongoing, Galileo's observations weren't given credence until more than century later, during which time, the development of Keplerian orbital mechanics and Newtonian Theory of Gravitation had resulted in a successful explanation of the Solar System and its dynamics. The idea that the galaxy might be a rotating configuration of a huge number of stars held together by gravitational forces that contained smaller gravitationally bound configurations such as our Solar System was first theorized by the English astronomer, Thomas Wright, in 1750. On the heels of his observation that the faint (then so-called) "nebulae" observed might be distant galaxies that came out of "external creations", philosopher Immanuel Kant hypothesized the existence of many such "island Universes" and speculated that these could potentially form and evolve independently from our own, thus laying the underpinnings of the study of galaxy formation and evolution.

0.1.2 EARLY STUDIES OF GALAXIES

William Herschel, in the 1780s, surveyed the stars in the Milky Way in multiple directions and discovered that the density of stars was greater on one side than the other. One of the earliest catalogues of galaxy-like objects was developed by Charles Messier, also towards the end of the 18th century, following which William Herschel assembled a catalog of 5000 nebulae. In the 19th century, with advances in optics and instrumentation, the first telescope to distinguish between elliptical and spiral galaxies was built by Lord Rosse. Additionally, this telescope could resolve point sources within the nebulae, thus confirming that galaxies were indeed “island universes” as Wright and Kant had surmised.

In early 20th century, astronomers were beginning to get interested in the chemical composition of these nebulae and started recording their spectra. With the advent of Einstein’s Special Theory of Relativity, one could calculate the radial velocity of a “nebula” based on how its spectrum is Doppler-shifted. And so it happened that the American astronomer, Vesto Slipher, became the first person to measure galactic redshifts in 1912. While studying the chemical composition of bright spiral nebulae, he noticed that they were all highly Doppler-shifted, with estimated radial velocities that were much higher than the velocities of stars in the Milky Way. He also noticed that there were more “red-shifted” (i.e. moving away from us) nebulae than “blue-shifted” ones, an observation that would later propel Edwin Hubble to propose that the Universe was expanding.

In the 1920s, a series of observations made by Edwin Hubble, Ernst Opik, etc., confirmed that Andromeda was not a part of the Milky Way and was a galaxy in its own right, thus effectively settling the “Great Debate” of the times and confirming that our galaxy was just one of many galaxies in the Universe. Georges Lemaître, a Belgian physicist, predicted, on

theoretical grounds rooted in Einstein's General Theory of Relativity, that the redshifts of galaxies should increase with distance. In 1929, Edwin Hubble looked at the distances and velocities of 46 galaxies and observed the same (Hubble, 1929): that their radial velocities increased with distance from us, thus theorizing what we know today as Hubble's Law (or alternately, the Hubble-Lemaître Law). Edwin Hubble further analyzed the morphologies of these galaxies and came up with the Hubble Sequence, a classification of galaxy morphology (Fig. 1). The Swiss astrophysicist, Fritz Zwicky, in 1933, while studying galaxy clusters, noticed that the orbits of the galaxies were not accounted for by the mass of its luminous components, leading him to believe that there must be some "missing" mass (Zwicky, 1937) that does not interact electromagnetically, thus remaining unseen and termed it *dunkle Materie*, i.e., "dark matter".

Thus with the emergence of new theories of spacetime, an expanding Universe that (as it was termed later) began with a "big bang", the existence of matter that doesn't interact electromagnetically, the study of galaxies in the 1930s set in motion a paradigm shift for astronomy and cosmology. The new questions were: How were the earliest galaxies formed? What would explain the diversity in morphologies seen in galaxies today? Is the Universe set to expand indefinitely? What drives the expansion of the Universe? What is dark matter? If the Universe's origins were homogeneous, how do we explain the heterogeneous nature of the populations of galaxies seen?

0.1.3 GALAXY EVOLUTION AND COSMOLOGY

The explorations in the latter half of the 20th century confirmed a few of the hypotheses discussed above, along with answering a few of those questions. In the 1960s and 1970s,

Vera Rubin, Kent Ford, and Ken Freeman analyzed rotation curves of spiral galaxies and provided strong evidence for the existence of dark matter (Freeman, 1970). Rubin inferred that most galaxies contain around six times as much dark matter as visible mass (Rubin et al., 1980), thus placing new constraints on galaxy formation and evolution in the Universe.

The two predominant theories of the origin of the Universe were: the “Big Bang Theory”, originally proposed by Georges Lemaître, and the “Steady State Theory” (essentially an unchanging Universe whose density remains the same in spite of expansion due to continuous creation of matter) proposed by Fred Hoyle. However, with theories of Big Bang Nucleosynthesis (the $\alpha\beta\gamma$ paper; Alpher et al. 1948) that successfully explained how the elements of the of the Universe came to be formed after the Big Bang and radio source counts which were also correctly accounted for by the Big Bang Theory swung cosmologists to favor this over the Steady State Theory. The final nail in the coffin was the successful detection of the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB), predicted by the Big Bang Theory (Penzias & Wilson, 1965). According to the Big Bang Theory, the early Universe cools from a very hot state and remains an ionized plasma for the first few hundred thousand years (until redshift $z \sim 1100$). The emission from this era should be a Planck spectrum of the plasma at about the time that hydrogen recombines, redshifted due to the universe’s expansion since then. This model predicts a spectrum peaking at near microwave wavelengths today, and the CMB is indeed detectable as a very low energy radiation with a blackbody temperature of 3K.

The discovery of dark matter coupled with the confirmation of the Big Bang Theory necessitated a theory of dark matter that would successfully explain the observable Universe.

In the 1980s, competing theories of hot and cold dark matter (Davis et al., 1985) were proposed. Eventually the cold dark matter theories won out as their prediction of the anisotropies in the CMB (Peebles, 1982) were successfully verified by the Cosmic Background Explorer (COBE) probe (Smoot et al., 1992) in combination with other data sets.

Before the turn of the century, the remarkable discovery of the accelerating universe (Riess et al., 1998) resulted in the resurrection of Einstein’s cosmological constant and effectively confirmed Λ CDM as the clear winner among the cold dark matter models. The Big Bang Theory, together with the Λ CDM model, forms much of the basis of modern cosmology and the foundations for theories of galaxy formation and evolution.

0.2 GALAXY FORMATION AND EVOLUTION

0.2.1 STRUCTURE FORMATION IN THE UNIVERSE

The current model of cosmology suggests that there was a single event, the so-called “Big Bang” which resulted in the appearance of expanding space-time containing radiation, followed by an exponential expansion of space known as cosmic inflation (Guth, 1981) which established the initial properties of the Universe as being homogeneous, isotropic and flat. Tiny perturbations in this early Universe are responsible for structure formation. Cosmic inflation also explains the fact that these tiny quantum fluctuations grow into slight ripples of over-density and under-density thus seeding the early stages of structure formation in the Universe.

From a predominantly radiation-dominated Universe, with expansion, the density of radiation drops steeply leading to a the matter-radiation equality at 50,000 years after the Big Bang. Since dark matter only interacts gravitationally, the dark matter ripples from the

fluctuations form compact structures more freely as they are not opposed by other forces such as radiation pressure.

About 380,000 years after the Big Bang, the expansion of the Universe resulted in a lowering of density as well as a cooling down of its temperature to a point where protons and electrons in this plasma soup start combining to form the neutral hydrogen. Electrons decouple from the photons (these decoupled photons are what we detect as the CMB today) and the baryonic matter is now free to collapse under gravity creating local over-densities.

As fluctuations continue to grow, ever larger scales enter the non-linear regime of structure formation where dense concentrations of matter (dark and baryonic alike) get progressively denser. Dark matter begins to collapse into structures known as halos, and baryons fall with the dark matter into these halos. These structures arrange themselves into gravitationally stable configurations, a process known as virialization. The result of this process gives rise to a Universe that resembles a web (the cosmic web) with sheets and filaments of dark matter, creating a skeletal backbone in which star formation and galaxy formation eventually occur.

Within the dark matter halos baryonic matter can, when it becomes dense enough, additionally lose energy by radiation and can sink further into regions of high over-density. The stars and galaxies have their origins in these structures and are the resulting of the cooling of baryons deep in the potential wells of dark matter halos.

While a short summary of how galaxies form would be that the collapse of baryonic matter within dark matter halos results in disk-like structures that then collapse on small scales to form stars, the mechanisms by which this happens is still a topic of debate among astrophysicists. While a top-down scenario, wherein disk galaxies were formed from the collapse

of a single large cloud of gas (Eggen et al., 1962), captures some stages of galaxy formation well, in fact both theory and observations suggest that galaxies grow hierarchically — small galaxies form and merge into larger ones — which complexifies the picture. Meanwhile, the overall efficiency with which baryons form stars depends strongly on the halo mass (e.g. Behroozi et al. 2010), peaking at masses similar to that of the Milky Way. As Somerville & Davé (2015) describe, this dependence probably arises from processes that suppress star formation at lower masses (perhaps due to supernova feedback) and at higher masses (perhaps due to feedback from accreting supermassive black holes).

Since we are limited in our observations by the fact that we cannot observe galaxies in a time-resolved fashion (the time scales are too long), theories regarding galaxy formation rely computational simulations that evolve the initial conditions to the present day. We can compare the galaxies at each epoch to the populations observed at different redshift, assuming large scale homogeneity. As Somerville & Davé (2015) describe, these simulations incorporate the physics of Λ CDM, magnetohydrodynamics, and gravitation. Additionally, these models need to account for a variety of processes on subresolution scales that involve star formation, stellar and AGN feedback, and gas cooling to be able to correctly predict the observed Universe.

Thus, there are still many questions to be answered including and not limited to: how and where the baryons collapse, how galactic disks stabilize, the drivers and mechanisms of galactic feedback and what ultimately causes the relative frequency of different galaxy types in the observable Universe. There are thus many holes in this narrative of galaxy formation and evolution and astronomers are working to bridge this gap in two main ways: from the observational side, this involves accurate measurements of galaxy properties across cosmic

Hubble Sequence

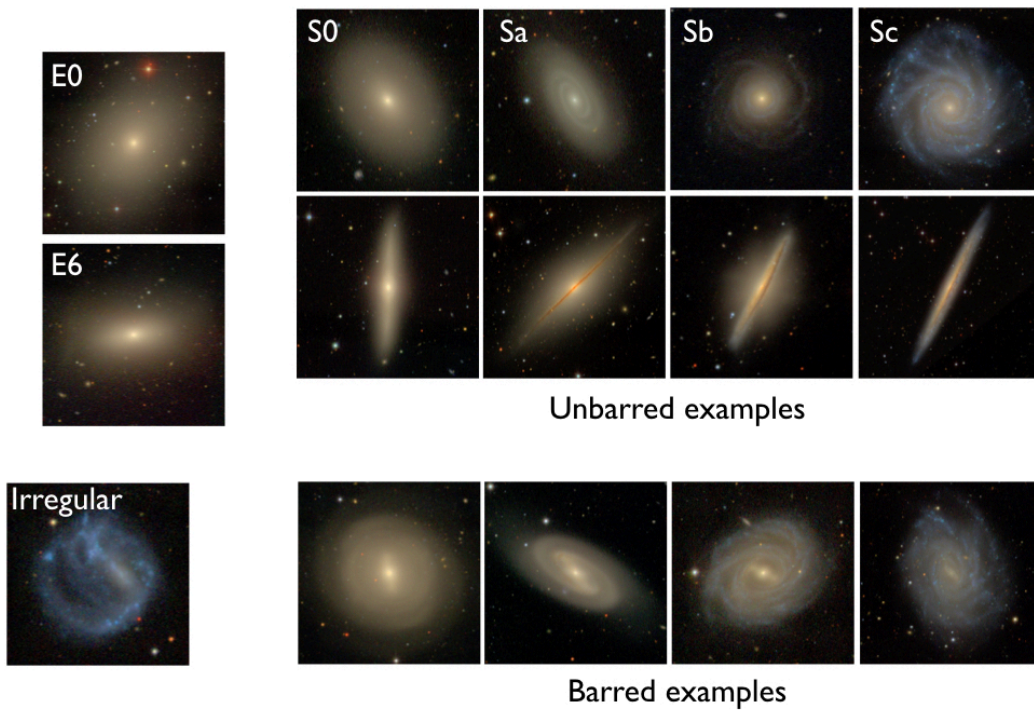


Figure 1: The Hubble Sequence: A classification scheme for galaxy morphologies (Photo credit: ?)

time and from the (theoretical) side of computational astrophysics, this involves fine-tuning the sub-grid models of galaxy formation and evolution simulations so as to be able to reproduce the estimated from the properties. These both take from and in turn inform the parameters in the Λ CDM model of the Universe that cosmologists are engaged in refining.

0.2.2 GALAXY PROPERTIES IN THE OBSERVABLE UNIVERSE

The commonly used classification scheme for galaxies based on their most obvious attribute, the morphologies of their luminous components, was invented by Edwin Hubble in 1926. The classification scheme is based on the relative sizes and of the bulges and disks in galaxies and broadly encompasses four types of morphologies: elliptical, lenticular, spiral and irregular (Fig. 1). Galaxy morphologies are strongly correlated with their other physical properties such as luminosity, age, chemical composition, star formation histories and kinematics (Roberts & Haynes 1994). The bulges usually contain older, redder stars and the disks are characterized by mixed stellar populations along with gas and dust. The disks may also contain spiral arms which usually contain pockets of star formation activity. Elliptical galaxies have almost no disk. Lenticulars are smooth like ellipticals but contain a puffy, thick disk that when observed obliquely has a distinct oval-like appearance (lentic-shaped!). Spirals can have a bulge but are characterized by their thin disk, often with spiral arms. Irregulars are akin to spirals but as their name suggests, appear less organized in their light distribution. Early ideas about galaxy evolution suggested that galaxies formed as ellipticals or lenticulars (referred to as ‘early-type’ galaxies) and later evolved into spirals or irregulars (referred to as ‘late-type’ galaxies) and while there are strong correlations between galactic structure and their star formation rates, it is now known that this is in general untrue.

The total amount of light we observe emanating from a galaxy is the second obvious trait that lends itself to comparison. This can be quantified as “luminosity,” the amount of energy emitted by a star per unit time, often measured in units of the solar luminosity L_{\odot} , and usually measured in a particular wavelength bandpass. Optical or near-infrared luminosity can serve as a reasonable (but not exact) proxy for stellar mass; ultraviolet luminosity can serve as a reasonable (but not exact) proxy for current star formation activity. Observations reveal that fainter galaxies are more frequent per unit volume than galaxies as bright as our own. Very bright big ellipticals are much rarer than both. The distribution of galaxy luminosities, per volume and per unit luminosity, is known as the “luminosity function” (Blanton et al. (2005); Efstathiou et al. (1988)), which provides key constraints on galaxy formation and evolution.

The total luminosity of a galaxy in the ultraviolet through near infrared is generally dominated by stars, and the stellar population is changing with time as stars evolve off the main sequence and reach their fates, for example as black holes, neutron stars, or white dwarfs. A more stable and sometimes more interesting quantity is the total mass in stars, the stellar mass. Because the luminosities of stars varies as $L \propto M^{-\alpha}$, where $\alpha \sim 3-5$, and the more massive stars die rapidly, the total ratio of luminosity to stellar mass varies over time. Furthermore, because the massive stars are very hot, the overall color of the stellar population starts out blue and becomes increasingly red. This pattern leads to a relationship between the galaxy spectrum and the stellar mass to light ratio, that can be exploited to estimate the stellar mass of a galaxy.

The most basic measure of the spectral energy distribution of galaxies are its colors. Colors in astronomy are defined on the basis of the ratios of observed fluxes in various band-

passes. For instance, $g - r$ is $2.5 \log_{10}$ of the ratio of the r -band to g -band flux, where g and r are optical bandpasses used in the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS); larger $g - r$ indicates a redder galaxy. Galaxy populations have a bimodal distribution and can be divided into the so-called “red sequence” and “blue cloud” (Blanton et al. (2003); Strateva et al. (2001)). The blue cloud is dominated by star-forming blue spirals with young stellar populations; the red sequence has a mixture of varied populations, including some older or dust-reddened spirals, lenticular galaxies, and ellipticals. The intermediate colored population, the so-called “green valley”, must contain (but does not only contain) the population of galaxies that are in the process of ending their star formation and transitioning from blue to red. However, a complication to this simple interpretation of the observations is the presence of dust, which has the tendency to make galaxies appear redder. We investigate the star formation of galaxies in the context of optical colors and dust, further in Chapter 1.

The last significant observable property we introduce here is the galaxy environment, which is a measure for each galaxy of how many other galaxies are nearby it relative to the mean galaxy density. Galaxies exhibit substantial clustering relative to a Poisson distribution, leading to a large dynamic range in local density. For example, a galaxy like the Milky Way most commonly has not similarly massive neighbors within 1 Mpc, but massive clusters of galaxies have 100s of Milky Way-sized galaxies within a Mpc. This clustering of galaxies reveals information about cosmological parameters, like the initial amplitude of fluctuations and the mean dark matter density.

The environment of galaxies also appears to be correlated with their formation history, as manifested by their morphology (Dressler, 1980), luminosity (Norberg et al., 2002), star formation rates (Lewis et al., 2002), and numerous other properties. For instance, simplis-

tically, blue galaxies preferentially exist in isolated environments (or voids) and large red ellipticals preferentially exist in clusters. Galaxy environments can be measured in a variety of ways, such as counts in a projected aperture or distance to nearest neighbor (Cooper et al., 2005). The density field length scales at which galaxy environment matters significantly enough to affect its star formation has been investigated; it appears that the local environment (within 1–2 Mpc) is most important, with the larger scale environment being of much less importance at a fixed local environment (Blanton et al. (2006); Kauffmann et al. (2004); Park et al. (2007)).

0.2.3 QUESTIONS IN GALAXY EVOLUTION

The lifecycle of a galaxy can be thought of in terms of the timeline of the events between the formation of the first stars in the galaxy began to when there is little to no star formation activity in the galaxy, i.e. the galaxy is quenched. Many processes determine the history of star formation and how it may end. Star formation begins with the inflow of gas, its formation into galactic disk structures, its radiatively cooling, the formation of molecular clouds, and the formation of stars. The stars form in some initial mass distribution whose form in the Milky Way is constrained observationally, but whose variation among galaxies is largely unknown. The massive stars in the stellar mass distribution tend to disassociate and ionize the surrounding gas, dispersing the cloud that is forming stars. This feedback can even heat or remove surrounding gas clouds in the disk. Other feedback processes, such as accreting supermassive black holes at the centers of galaxies, can also remove gas and suppress star formation. For most massive galaxies, including the Milky Way, current star formation rates are rapid enough to consume the remaining gas in 2–3 billion years; this fact is

widely interpreted to indicate that to remain star forming, galaxies require a steady inflow of gas from the external environment.

Models of galaxy formation built from numerical hydrodynamic simulations ([Crain et al. \(2015\)](#); [Davé et al. \(2016\)](#); [Sijacki et al. \(2015\)](#)) are powerful enough now to predict this evolutionary process in a cosmological context. However, they can typically resolve scale of only 100 pc or so, which is far larger than a forming star or even an individual massive molecular cloud. The detailed star formation and feedback processes are therefore the product of subgrid physics ([Agertz et al., 2007](#)) that are calibrated on the observations themselves. There are a number of free parameters in the subgrid models, characterizing the rate of star formation as a function of local conditions, the effects of supernova ([Creasey et al., 2013](#)) and stellar feedback ([Hopkins et al., 2012](#)), the activity of supermassive black holes, and other effects. The calibration of the parameters used for these simulations, and the use of the simulations as a test of the overall picture for cosmological galaxy formation, therefore requires that the observations they are calibrated on and compared to are correct.

The stellar mass and star formation rates of galaxies represent a coupled pair of galaxy properties that are critical in this process. The stellar mass function (analogous to the luminosity function) has a shape very different than the halo mass function, with a shallow slope at the faint end and a steep cutoff at the bright end. This shape implies that star formation is suppressed at the highest masses, and also at low masses. The simulations generally explain these features using supermassive black hole feedback at high mass and supernova feedback at low mass. The degree and type of feedback required is determined by the observed stellar mass function.

The star formation patterns are also informative. For star-forming galaxies, the star for-

mation rates scale approximately as $\mathcal{M}_*^{2/3}$ (Noeske et al., 2007). Fully quenched galaxies are found at the highest masses and/or in the densest regions. What determines the star formation rates, and what processes quench some galaxies, are important questions the simulations are designed to help answer. The simulation parameters can be tuned to produce these patterns, but the meaningfulness of those tuning parameters, and the legitimacy of additional predictions the simulations may make, depends on the reliability of the observations they are tuned to.

0.3 OBSERVATIONAL INDICATORS OF STAR FORMATION AND STELLAR MASS

In this section we will review how astronomers observationally infer star formation rates and stellar masses in galaxies.

0.3.1 INTEGRATED STAR FORMATION RATES FOR GALAXIES

Since we know that star formation ultimately is the result of the collapse within Giant Molecular Clouds (GMC) of cold gas, it follows that the star formation rate in a galaxy must relate to the availability of cold molecular gas. It was first proposed by Schmidt in 1959 (Schmidt, 1959) that star formation in a galaxy scales with the the surface density of gas in the galaxy. As reviewed by Kennicutt (1998), the mean surface density of galaxy star formation rate is approximately related to the mean surface density of the cold gas in the galaxy (neutral plus molecular gas) by a power law known as the Kennicutt-Schmidt Law:

$$E_{\text{SF}} = A E_{\text{g}}^N$$

The determination of N relies on a host of empirical studies based on gas content and star

formation from a host of disk and starburst galaxies and is found to be $\sim 1.3 - 1.5$. The neutral gas content is detected through emission from the 21 cm hyperfine transition of hydrogen, assuming a cosmic mean helium fraction. Molecular gas is dominated by H_2 , which unfortunately does not have strong emission lines at typical molecular cloud temperatures. The molecular gas mass is typically inferred from trace molecules like CO and HCN.

To be able to infer star formation rates from galaxies, one has to investigate their stellar populations. As it is almost impossible to resolve stars in galaxies (barring the closest ones) even with space telescopes, to get the star formation properties of a galaxy, we rely on integrated light measurements in the Ultraviolet (UV) and Infrared (IR) continuum or the so-called nebular recombination lines. A comprehensive review of this subject can be found in [Kennicutt & Evans \(2012\)](#). For instance, because short-lived, massive stars have high temperatures at their surface, the continuum luminosity integrated across the blue or near-UV part of the spectrum is an indicator of recent star formation. The quantitative relationship between recent star formation and the UV light depends for its calibration on evolutionary synthesis models (Section 0.3.2) and an assumption about the stellar initial mass function (IMF), since the bulk of the stellar mass is in low mass stars, but the bulk of the light comes from the massive stars. For example, [Madau et al. \(1998\)](#) and [Kennicutt & Evans \(2012\)](#) report calibrations (assuming a Salpeter IMF; [Salpeter 1955](#)): relative to the UV Luminosity L (in a wavelength range of 1500–2800 Å):

$$\text{SFR} (M_{\odot} \text{yr}^{-1}) = 1.4 \times 10^{-28} L_{\nu} (\text{ergs s}^{-1}) \text{ Hz}^{-1}$$

A significant issue with inferring a UV star formation rate is the presence of dust in galaxies. Dust absorbs a significant fraction of the bluer part of the spectrum, and because

of its low temperature re-emits the absorbed energy in the mid- and far-infrared. Any UV star formation measurement thus needs to account for this dust attenuation. Furthermore, because of these effects, the infrared light ($10\text{--}100\ \mu\text{m}$) is a tracer of the star formation rate as well. we will discuss further these issues further in Chapter 1.

Star formation in galaxies, specifically the production of hot and massive stars, results in the heating and ionization of gas in the Interstellar Medium (ISM), which in turn leads to observable line emission. The most significant of these are the Balmer emission lines due to emission from Hydrogen during the recombination processes that balance the ionization processes in the nebulae surrounding hot stars. These nebulae are known as HII regions, and the presence of HII regions in a galaxy and their characteristic Balmer line emission is thus a probe of a young massive stellar population. The strongest of these recombination lines in the optical is the $n = 3$ to $n = 2$ transition, the $H\alpha$ line at 656.28nm . During the recombination process, electrons enter at typically high n states. following that event, any direct transition from some high n to the $n = 1$ state will lead to a photon which is quickly absorbed under nebular conditions by exciting another nearby atom. This resonant scattering continues under the photon is absorbed on dust, or a rare 2-photon decay occurs from the $2s$ state, or Doppler shifts scatter the photon into the wings of the absorption line. The net effect is that almost every ionizing photon leads to a Balmer photon. The ratio of the resulting Balmer lines to each other can be calculated and is relatively constant, with weak dependence on temperature or electron density. Thus, one of the most widely used estimators of SFR is a linear function of the emission line luminosity of the $H\alpha$ line (Kennicutt

et al. (1994); Madau et al. (1998)):

$$\text{SFR} (\text{M}_{\odot} \text{yr}^{-1}) = 7.9 \times 10^{-42} L(\text{H}\alpha) (\text{ergs s}^{-1})$$

The bluer Balmer emission lines such as $H\beta$ are intrinsically weaker, and often substantially dust-reddened.

Collisionally excited lines such as the [OII] doublet at 3727 Å also correlate with star formation, but are much more sensitive to the metallicity, temperature, and density of the gas.

All the star formation rates discussed above assume some priors on the evolution of the galaxy from the IMF chosen to the timelines of starbursts and effective stellar population synthesis models are required to be able to successfully account for the spectral energy distribution of the galaxy and give accurate insights into the stellar and dust content of the galaxy.

0.3.2 SPECTRAL DIAGNOSTICS AND STELLAR POPULATION SYNTHESIS MODELS

The galaxy spectrum contains an imprint of its Star Formation History (SFH), stellar metallicity and abundance pattern, stellar Initial Mass Function (IMF), total stellar mass and the nature of its gas and dust content. However, to be able to interpret the details in a spectrum accurately, one has to rely on evolutionary synthesis models or what are called Stellar Population Synthesis (SPS) models. Typically these models contain a comprehensive library of stellar spectra of stars across ages, masses and luminosities. The earliest such models (Faber 1972; Spinrad & Taylor 1971) relied on using a linear combination of the diverse individual stellar spectra to reconstruct the integrated light emission from a galaxy. How-

ever, populations of stars do not come in arbitrary mixes — stars are formed together in groups that evolve over time in a regular way. More recent models (Bruzual & Charlot 2003a; Leitherer & Heckman 1995; Schulz et al. 2002) involve setting handful of global parameters, such as the IMF, the SFR, the rate of chemical enrichment, and using the laws of stellar evolution and of stellar atmospheres to predict the emergent integrated spectrum of the population as it evolves in time.

Broadly speaking, SPS models require the following ingredients (Walcher et al., 2011): an IMF, stellar evolutionary tracks (isochrones), stellar spectral libraries, and a SFR and chemical evolution model. The choice of IMF (Chabrier 2003; Kroupa 2001; Salpeter 1955) determines the distribution of stellar masses initially and the spectral libraries convert the stellar evolution outputs such as surface gravity and effective temperature into observable Spectral Energy Distributions (SEDs). The spectral libraries can either be calculated theoretically (Coelho et al. 2005; Martins et al. 2005) or on a purely empirical basis and are oftentimes a combination of both. Some notable modern stellar spectral libraries constructed from observations are ELODIE (Prugniel & Soubiran, 2004), STELIB (Le Borgne et al., 2003), MILES (Sánchez-Blázquez et al., 2006), and most recently MaStar (Yan et al., 2018).

The next step in reconstructing the SED of a galaxy is to account for the effect of the Interstellar Medium (ISM) on the integrated light from the simple stellar population. The ISM primarily consists of gas and dust, and a model to account for the radiative transfer through the ISM is needed. Photoionization codes such as CLOUDY (Ferland et al., 2013) account for the ionization of atomic gas by star light and the resulting emission, most prominently the emission lines. The SED of both the stellar emission and the ISM emission is strongly affected by the dust intermixed in the gas, which redistributes energy via scat-

tering and absorption from the bluer part of the spectrum, re-emitting absorbed light in the infrared. Models of dust (Calzetti et al. 2007; Draine & Li 2007) are thus almost always combined with the SPS models.

The evolutionary synthesis models combined with the dust models can effectively predict a galaxy SED at any instant in its cosmic history as needed, thus enabling them to be able to be compared to photometric or spectroscopic data from galaxies at arbitrary redshifts. The method of fitting observed data using a SPS model to infer the physical properties of a galaxy is known as SED fitting. The input data can either be in the form of photometric broadband fluxes or observed spectra, either the full spectrum or specific measurements of the spectrum known as spectral indices. A recent review on the subject of SED fitting can be found in Conroy (2013).

SED fitting requires searching a large model space of the SPS and dust libraries and evaluating how well-matched to observations are the predicted SEDs for a chosen set of parameters relating to the SFH and dust attenuation. SED fitting codes employ a range of techniques, to perform this minimization; examples of these codes are MAGPHYS (da Cunha et al., 2008), CIGALE (Noll et al., 2009) and Prospector (Leja et al., 2017).

There are a couple of things worth noting about SED fitting. First, all the parameters except for the overall normalization are set by the “shape” of the spectrum, i.e., the observation flux ratios between photometric bandpasses (“colors”) or spectral channels. Thus, parameters like the dust attenuation, metallicity, age of the stellar population, are independent of the bolometric luminosity. It is often convenient to derive parameters like the mass-to-light ratio (\mathcal{M}/L) of the galaxy, the Specific Star Formation Rate (SSFR, the SFR per unit solar mass), dust attenuation, and metallicity. Secondly, the robustness of fitting

an SED to observed spectrometric and photometric data relies a lot on how the systematic uncertainties in the SPS (and dust) models are accounted for. Thus the priors on the SFH and dust libraries can significantly impact the inference of the stellar mass, SFR and mean stellar age.

0.3.3 INFERRING \mathcal{M}_* AND SFR FROM SED FITTING

As noted above, parameters of fundamental interest for galaxies are their stellar masses, or total amount of mass in stars within a galaxy (\mathcal{M}_*), and their star formation rates. Both are estimated on the basis of SPS models. In the case of stellar mass, the SPS models predict SEDs that can be compared to observations. In the case of star formation, the SPS models predict the UV and ionizing spectrum of stellar populations. The UV light can be directly observed, supplemented with IR observations to quantify the UV light reprocessed by dust. The ionizing photons can be measured through emission lines from the ionized nebulae.

Photometry provides useful constraints on stellar mass. A useful concept in the quantification of stellar mass is that the Mass-to-Light ratio in some bandpass (\mathcal{M}/L), from which the stellar mass can be obtained by multiplying the luminosity within the wavelength range under consideration. The simplest measures of \mathcal{M}/L ratios involve using their relationships with color between a single pair of bandpasses (e.g. $g - r$ or $u - g$); generally speaking, the redder the color, the higher the \mathcal{M}/L ratio. [Bell & de Jong \(2001\)](#) used the [Bruzual & Charlot \(2003a\)](#) SPS models to map the relationship between \mathcal{M}/L and color as a function of metallicity and SFH. [Zibetti et al. \(2009\)](#) also later developed tables for the color- \mathcal{M}/L relationship using a library of model galaxy SEDs. A related measure of stellar mass is by using

SED fitting methods on broadband photometry, that fit more than two bandpasses simultaneously. Of the physical parameters inferred via SED fitting, stellar masses tend to be relatively robust (Muzzin et al., 2009; Papovich et al., 2001), especially in comparison to SFR estimates. One reason for this is that the effect of dust-reddening, stellar age, and metallicity cause similar variations in the color- \mathcal{M}/L plane. Examples of photometrically derived masses using SPS models can be found in Blanton & Roweis 2007; Drory et al. 2004.

Spectroscopy can also provide constraints on stellar mass, that in principle could be more detailed. For the SDSS Legacy Survey, which contains $\sim 10^6$ spectra of the centers of galaxies through 3 arcsec diameter fibers, Kauffmann et al. (2003) have performed an influential analysis using a combination of two spectral indicators (Section 2.2). These two indicators are the $H\delta_A$ absorption index (representing the Balmer transition from $n = 2$ to $n = 6$ levels) and the D_{n4000} index (which is representative of the 4000 Å break found in the spectra of galaxies). The use of this pair of indicators helps partially break the age-metallicity degeneracy (Worthey 1994). Kauffmann et al. (2003) use this model to constrain the \mathcal{M}/L ratios of galaxies. They did so by using a suite of observed spectra from SDSS and a suite of SPS models, including ones with randomly distributed bursts of star formation, to fit for the spectra. They obtained 95% confidence limits on stellar masses of 0.2 and 0.3 dex. These results comprise the most commonly used catalog of physical parameters from the SDSS Legacy Survey, the MPA-JHU SFR and \mathcal{M}_* catalog, upon which hundreds of subsequent investigations rely.

Surprisingly, the uncertainties in spectroscopically based stellar masses obtained by fitting observed optical spectra (Chen et al., 2012; Kauffmann et al., 2003) are not quoted to be significantly better precision than the color-based stellar masses, except for galaxies with

unusual SFH's [Gallazzi et al. \(2005\)](#). However, spectroscopically derived masses are more robust to systematic effects such as dust attenuation than photometric masses (i.e. stellar masses obtained by fitting broadband photometry).

An important practical point is that photometric measurements can generally measure the galaxy “as a whole” whereas in practice spectroscopic measurements are usually only of part of a galaxy. For example, in the case of [Kauffmann et al. \(2003\)](#), they determine \mathcal{M}/L for the center of the galaxy and then apply that ratio based on the light of the galaxy as a whole. I investigate the effects of aperture correction in the MPA-JHU catalog using spatially resolved spectra over much broader region than 3 arcsec in Chapter 2.

Like the stellar mass, SFR measurements can be derived from photometric or spectroscopic measurements of the galaxy SED. As described above, there are scaling relations based on single measurements of UV or emission line flux which hold on average, but for individual galaxies are affected by the star formation history and dust models. In general, SED-based SFR's, when a fixed IMF is assumed, are consistent within a factor of two level ([Conroy, 2013](#)).

Later in this thesis, I will be relying on two representative estimates of SFR which rely on the interpretation of SEDs. The first, due to [Salim et al. \(2007a\)](#), used broadband photometry of SDSS galaxies and UV photometry from GALEX, interpreted using SPS models with a range of exponentially declining and bursty SFH's, metallicities and dust attenuation. They prescribed a specific, commonly used recipe for accounting for dust when using UV photometry, which shares much in common with a method usually used at high redshifts, known as the IRX- β method (see [Overzier et al. 2011](#) and references therein). The second, due to [da Cunha et al. \(2008\)](#) and implemented in the software MAGPHYS, uses

UV, optical, and IR photometry to fit a self-consistent model to all of the data. The main difference is that MAGPHYS utilizes the IR data to constrain the dust reprocessing. I investigate in Chapter 1 the differences between these methods, using galaxy environments to assess whether using IR information yields correct additional information about the SFR.

In the SED modeling, the assumed SFH shape (i.e. star formation as a function of time) does matter. For instance, typically in the modeling of early-type galaxies, the SFHs are represented as an exponential decay function whose half-life is a parameter that is constrained by the SED fitting method used. The choice of priors on the SFH libraries can thus create systematic uncertainties in SFR estimation. The priors on dust modeling and the age-metallicity degeneracy inherent in SEDs can cause further challenges and thus, in the absence of high quality data, SFR estimations from SED fitting cannot be relied upon without a sufficient understanding the nature and extent of these biases.

For completeness, we note here that the MPA-JHU catalog contains SFR estimates based on SDSS spectroscopy. The catalog utilizes the method of [Brinchmann et al. \(2004\)](#), which fits to the emission lines a suite of optical emission lines with model parameters including metallicity, dust attenuation, ionization parameter, etc. It then applies an aperture correction based on the u -band flux in the images to account for the limited fiber radius, assuming the $H\alpha$ to u -band flux ratio is constant. This last assumption is questionable. Nevertheless, comparisons of photometric SFRs to the MPA-JHU SFRs show that in general the two SFRs are in good agreement (e.g. [Salim et al. 2007a](#)). or using non-parametric SFH's.

The estimations of SFR and M_* of galaxies rely heavily of the availability and quality of data. Over the last decade, these have improved significantly, thanks to the high quality multi-band photometry as well as spectroscopy, including spatially resolved spectra, that

have been collected by various ground-based and space-based observatories. I review the significant observational surveys related to these observatories along with the major results gleaned from them in the following section.

0.4 STAR FORMATION IN THE LOCAL UNIVERSE

0.4.1 THE AGE OF DIGITAL SURVEY ASTRONOMY

Redshift surveys in astronomy have their origins in the early 20th century when astronomers were interested in investigating Hubble’s Law and the large scale structure of the Universe (Hubble & Humason 1931). The Center for Astrophysics (CfA) redshift survey (1977) was the first large systematic attempt at mapping a substantial contiguous volume of the sky and was later extended to the CfA2 survey which successfully obtained the spectra of over 15,000 galaxies in the 1990s (Huchra et al. 1995). With the advent of fiber-optic and multi-slit spectrographs allowing for simultaneous observations of hundreds of galaxies, larger redshift surveys such as the Las Campanas Redshift Survey (LCRS; Shectman et al. 1996) the Two-degree Field Galaxy Redshift Survey (2dFGRS; Colless et al. 2001), the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS; Blanton et al. 2017; Eisenstein et al. 2011; York et al. 2000), the Galaxy and Mass Assembly (GAMA) Survey, and others, have enabled astronomers to be able to study the physical properties of galaxies in a statistically rigorous manner.

The choice of survey (or sample of a survey) to study depends on the particular question in galaxy evolution that is being investigated. Thus, understanding the redshift limits of the survey (the so-called depth of a survey) or subsample that is being used to construct a volume-limited dataset is a crucial step in this process. In this thesis, we only concern ourselves with the local Universe out to redshifts of $z < 0.15$ as the goal is to understand the

limitations of some of the most commonly used SFR and M_* indicators. The angular coverage of a survey is also of importance, especially if environment measures play a significant role in the analysis. Keeping these in mind, the surveys I have worked with are derived from the SDSS Legacy sample.

SDSS is the largest spectroscopic and imaging survey of galaxies thus far. It has been carried out using a wide field 2.5-m optical telescope at the Apache Point Observatory (Gunn et al., 2006) in New Mexico, United States (Strauss et al., 2002; York et al., 2000). SDSS imaging covers 14,555 square degrees on the sky (a little over 35%). It provides a uniform, well-calibrated map in u , g , r , i and z bands.

The spectroscopic SDSS Legacy Survey operated for eight years and covered 8,000 square degrees on the sky, to a median redshift of $z = 0.1$ for the main galaxy sample and out to $z = 6-7$ for the distant quasars. It used a multi-fiber spectrograph (Smee et al., 2013) to obtain the optical spectra of targeted galaxies. The spectra are taken using 3 arcsec diameter fibers and have a wavelength range of 3800–9200 Å. Some of the major results in galaxy formation and evolution have been possible because of the SDSS spectroscopic survey (see Section 0.4.2).

A major limitation of single-fiber spectroscopic surveys is that only a sub-region of the galaxy defined by the size of the fiber is sampled, which makes it more difficult to infer the galaxy’s internal structure and dynamics or its global spectrum. To redress this problem, a number of integral field spectroscopic instruments have been built; they do not observe as many galaxies as the single-fiber surveys, but they observe them in greater detail. These instruments include Sydney-AAO Multi-object Integral-field spectrograph (SAMi; Bryant et al. 2015), Mapping Nearby Galaxies at APO (MaNGA; Bundy et al. 2014), and the MUSE

spectrograph. SAMI and MaNGA are being used to undertake large homogeneous samples of galaxies in the local Universe. MaNGA is the largest such survey of this nature so far, and aims to observe 10,000 galaxies by 2020 across a wide dynamic range in M_* , environment, and SFR with uniform radial coverage. I use this sample of galaxies to analyze the robustness of the aperture corrections made by [Kauffmann et al. \(2004\)](#) by looking at the galaxies through multiple apertures and comparing the observed M/L ratios obtained thus in Chapter 2.

In my analysis, I use the NASA-Sloan Atlas (NSA), a catalog of images and parameters of local galaxies up to redshifts of $z = 0.055$ that is derived from SDSS imaging, with additional UV broadband photometry from the space-based Galaxy Evolution Explorer (GALEX). The NSA is built from a reanalysis ([Blanton et al., 2011](#)) of the SDSS Legacy photometry, with improved object detection and deblending, making it better tuned for large, bright galaxies than the typical SDSS processing. The MaNGA target list is drawn from the NSA. This makes the NSA an ideal candidate to study the physical properties of galaxies in the Local Universe and I use the NSA to compare two star formation indicators in the context of dust in Chapter 1.

0.4.2 STUDYING STAR FORMATION IN THE LOCAL UNIVERSE

Large observational surveys such as the SDSS have, over the last two decades, enabled us to make accurate measurements of tracers of important physical properties of hundreds of thousands of galaxies across a wide redshift range. These measurements have in turn informed some of the most important results in reconstructing the cosmic star formation history of the Universe and understanding the process of galaxy formation and evolution.

In this section, I will discuss some of the most important trends observed, their significance in galaxy evolution and finally, the need for robust SFR and \mathcal{M}_* measurements, thus motivating the work in this thesis.

Strateva et al. (2001) observed, using SDSS imaging, the bimodality of galaxies, i.e., that there were two distinct populations of galaxies, a blue, star-forming population and a population of red, passive galaxies that have little or no star formation. As Blanton & Moustakas (2009a) review, this bimodality is related to galaxy morphological types; blue galaxies are spiral galaxies and red galaxies are early type spiral, lenticular, or elliptical galaxies.

The relationship between galaxies and their dark matter halo hosts, particularly in the context of galaxy clusters, has been investigated by looking at galaxy clustering measurements. The passive non-star-forming large ellipticals preferentially exist in the center of these haloes (Zheng et al., 2005). Thus, for a sufficiently large local sample of galaxies, the star forming galaxies preferentially exist in lower environments and the passive “quenched” population preferentially exist in clusters. These trends again reflect the long-known segregation of morphological types (Dressler 1980).

Galaxies without star formation must have been galaxies with star formation at some point in their past. The intermediate population of galaxies, the so-called “green valley” (Wyder et al., 2007) or more aptly, the transitioning galaxies (i.e., the galaxies that are in the process of transitioning from star-forming to quenched), is thus a population of wide interest. Observationally, these are harder to identify without understanding the role of dust in obscuring galactic starlight, and thus their physical properties are not entirely apparent.

It has also been found that for star forming galaxies between redshifts of $0 < z < 4$, there is a tight relation between galaxy star formation rates and their stellar masses, known

as the star forming main sequence (SFMS) (Brinchmann et al., 2004; Noeske et al., 2007; Schreiber et al., 2015). This is usually observed as a power law relationship with $\text{SFR} \propto M^\alpha$, with an intrinsic scatter of 0.2-0.3 dex for moderate to relatively low mass galaxies. Recent investigations into the SFMS suggest that the value of α is between 0.6-1.2 (Speagle et al., 2014). Over cosmic time, the SFMS moves to lower star formation rates, which is the primary driver of the change in the cosmic star formation rate density (Madau & Dickinson 2014). At the same time, some galaxies leave the SFMS completely and become quiescent (Hahn et al. 2015; Moustakas et al. 2013a).

The question of how galaxies move off the SFMS to become quiescent or quenched, i.e. how galaxies turn off the process of star formation, is fundamental to the study of galaxy evolution, as we have seen in Section 0.2.3. In broad terms, two different process have been proposed for this: internal processes that quench star formation such as AGN or supernova feedback (Peng et al., 2010) and external processes such as environmental effects which strip the galaxy of its gas content (Geha et al., 2012; Peng et al., 2012). As ? point out, because galaxy scaling relations remain constant with environment even as the relation numbers of different galaxy types change, it is likely that internal processes are primarily driving the evolution of galaxies — otherwise, the formation process of, say, an elliptical galaxy in the field would be different than the formation process of an elliptical in a cluster, even though the two populations of galaxies follow the same relationships.

Galaxy formation theorists seek to address these questions by employing semi-analytical models or hydrodynamic simulations that reproduce the diversity of observations we see (Somerville & Davé 2015). These theories are beginning to make detailed predictions that match observational results, but they rely on subgrid physics that require calibration. For

example, it is now standard for theoretical models to calibrate their unknown subgrid parameters to the stellar mass function and SFMS at $z \sim 0$. Then variation of galaxy properties with environment or redshift becomes a prediction of the model. In addition, theorists often interpret agreement with observations as validation for the characteristics assumed of the subgrid model.

The precision with which the theories can match the stellar mass function and SFMS is increasing, and the predictive and interpretative power of the simulations therefore are increasing. For this reason, it is highly important to test the accuracy of the observational calibrations for the models. If the observational results to which the simulations are calibrated are in error in a systematic, that error propagates into the further predictions and the further interpretation of the simulations.

This thesis explores two areas of importance in testing the robustness of the observations. First, it considers estimates of SFR and the relative importance of accounting for dust extinction and reemission. Specifically, I test in a new empirical way whether infrared-based SFR estimates such as [da Cunha et al. \(2008\)](#) yield more accurate star formation indicators than ultraviolet indicators. Since the ultraviolet indicators are the most accessible ones for high redshift observations, this topic is related to how reliably we can measure evolution of the SFMS.

Second, it considers aperture effects on estimates of stellar mass. specifically I use new integral field spectroscopy observations to test fiber aperture effects in the methods of [Kauffmann et al. \(2003\)](#). These methods have been adopted by hundreds of investigations based on the SDSS Legacy Survey and are highly influential.

o.4.3 THIS THESIS: EMPIRICAL STAR FORMATION ESTIMATES

Brief overview of structure of thesis

1

UV to IR Star Formation Indicators and Environments

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Determining the formation history of galaxies is one of the most important tasks in astronomy. The average star formation rates of galaxies have reduced with cosmic time (as reviewed by [Madau & Dickinson 2014](#)) and star-forming galaxies “transition” to red and quiescent ones over that time (*e.g.* [Ilbert et al., 2013](#); [Moustakas et al., 2013b](#); [Muzzin et al., 2013](#); [Peng et al., 2010](#); [Tomczak et al., 2014](#), among others). Many mechanisms have been proposed to explain the observed patterns of galaxy evolution but there are many unresolved questions regarding them. These mechanisms are known to have a some correlation with the environment, due to the fact that galaxy type depends on environment in the present day ([Blanton & Moustakas, 2009a](#); [Dressler, 1980](#)).

Star formation rate estimates are an important tool in the observational study of this problem ([Kennicutt & Evans, 2012](#)). The light emitted from galaxies can reveal recent star formation through the ultraviolet light of massive stars, recombination line emission in the ionized gas around those stars, in infrared light from dust in the galaxies absorbing the ultraviolet starlight, and from radio synchrotron emission from the ionized gas. Ultraviolet, optical, and infrared images and spectra are available for numerous low redshift galaxies, from the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS; ?), the Wide-field Infrared Survey Explorer (WISE; [Wright et al. 2010](#)), and the Galaxy Evolution Explorer (GALEX; ?).

In this chapter we compare two specific ways to estimate star formation rates from imaging photometry. We concentrate on imaging because it usually provides the most complete census of the galaxy; spectroscopy is often of only part of the galaxy, usually the center. We are interested specifically in comparing ultraviolet-based star formation indicators with

indicators that account for the infrared light. The main difference between these types of indicators is how they account for dust absorption. The former ostensibly are corrected for dust absorption, but we generally expect that the latter should be more reliable and complete. However, detectable infrared light is not always available.

The presence of dust is an important complication in any analysis of galaxy light. Dust absorbs preferentially in the UV/optical region of the galaxy spectrum and both extincts and reddens the photometric data. The extinction in the visual bandpasses in star forming galaxies is highly variable but is commonly of order 50%. This energy is re-emitted in the mid- to far-IR by poly-cyclic aromatic hydrocarbon molecules as well as warm and cold dust grains. Recent studies ([Burgarella et al. 2013](#)) find that in the nearby universe, almost 70% of the FUV luminosity is obscured by dust on an average. Although UV estimates of star formation do attempt to account for dust attenuation ([Salim et al. \(2007b\)](#)), the extensive reliance on UV SFR in the literature (*e.g.* [Karim et al., 2011](#); [Lee et al., 2009](#); [Moustakas et al., 2013b](#); [Peng et al., 2010](#); [Wyder et al., 2007](#), among others) makes it important to understand how well the dust corrections for UV SFR estimates work relative to other methods of estimating SFR.

Here, we examine a sample of galaxies whose UV-IR photometry is available and estimate the star formation rate in two independent ways. First we exploit the fact that we have UV to IR photometry and perform SED fitting using MAGPHYS ([da Cunha et al., 2008](#)), which accounts for dust by using a simple method of energy balance to obtain the specific star formation rates (SSFRs). The other method involves using purely UV photometry to estimate both star formation rate and dust attenuation using the prescription given by Salim et al ([Salim et al., 2007b](#)). We also estimate the environments of our population.

We ask the following questions of this sample. How do these different star formation estimators disagree with each other? How does each estimate correlate with environment? Does one trace environment more closely? Under the assumption that the environment primarily correlates with the SSFR rather than dust obscuration’s effect on the observables, studying this correlation will yield insights into the relative accuracy of the methods.

1.2 CONSTRUCTING A LOCAL SAMPLE SPANNING ULTRAVIOLET TO INFRARED IMAGING

The sample on which we perform our measurements is based on the NASA-Sloan Atlas, a nearby galaxy sample which includes optical and ultraviolet imaging from SDSS and GALEX. We use NSA version v0_1_2, whose redshift range extends up to $z = 0.055$ and includes SDSS (Data Release 9) and GALEX imaging for galaxies. The total number of objects in this NSA catalog is $\sim 150,000$. We define two samples from the NSA, one that we use to define environment (Environment Determining Population or EDP, hereafter) and one for which we determine star formation rates (Star Formation Rate Population or SFRP hereafter). We note that the SFRP is a subsample of the EDP. To get our EDP, we impose a volume-limited cut on this sample by retaining only galaxies with $-24.5 < M_r < -18.5$, which leaves us with 95,638 galaxies.

The star formation rate determinations we use here require both UV data and IR data. About 80% of our galaxies have UV data from GALEX analyzed in the NSA. To obtain infrared imaging for the data we use the Wide-Field Infrared Survey Explorer (WISE) data and match the objects from the NSA with the ALLWISE Source Catalog to get the four-band infrared fluxes for each galaxy. About 99% of galaxies in this sample have WISE data. We intend to study the evolution of these galaxies through the optical-IR color space, and

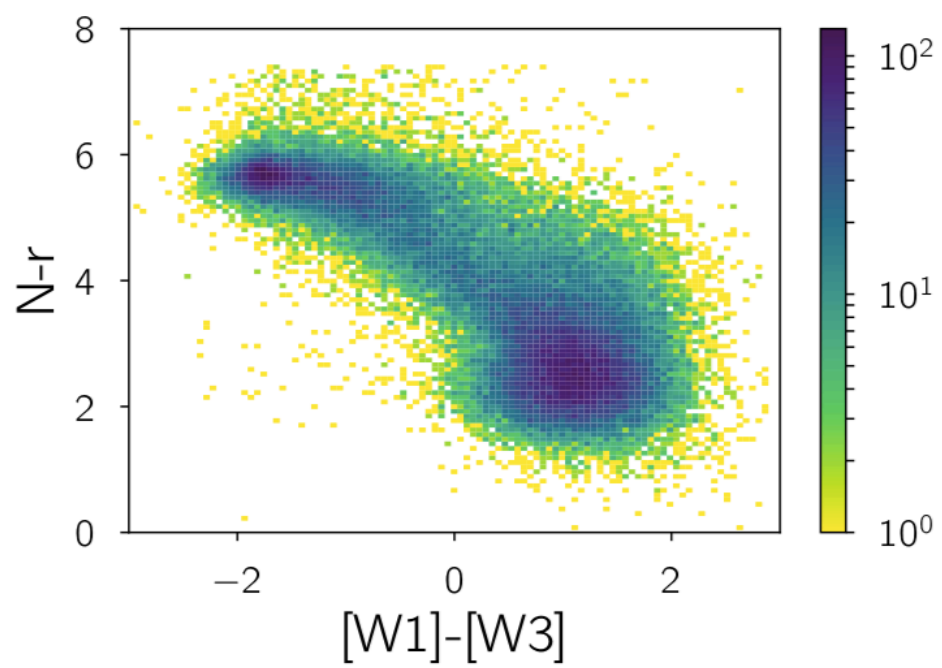


Figure 1.1: The local sample distribution across optical and IR colors

therefore remove all galaxies with missing/faulty photometry in GALEX, SDSS, or WISE. This process includes limiting the color range of objects in the optical ($7.5 > N - r \geq 0$) and infrared ($3.0 > [W_1] - [W_3] \geq -3.0$) colors (top left corner of Fig. 1). In addition, we remove some objects near the edges of the sample, which do not have reliable environment determinations (see Section 1.4.2). Our SFRP ultimately consists of 61,046 objects with absolute magnitudes in the UV (F and N bands), optical (u , g , r , i and z bands) and infrared (W_1 , W_2 , W_3 and W_4 bands).

1.3 ESTIMATING THE SPECIFIC STAR FORMATION RATES

We compare two approaches to calculating specific star formation rates (SSFRs). The first uses UV, optical, and IR data. The second uses only the UV data.

1.3.1 SED FITTING - MAGPHYS

We develop here a method to quickly estimate SSFRs based on UV-optical and infrared colors. We begin by sorting galaxies into bins of the $(N-r) - ([W_1] - [W_3])$ color space (25×25 bins, where the optical and IR bin sizes are 0.29 and 0.24 in magnitudes respectively). Within each bin, we normalize the fluxes of each galaxy relative to a constant flux in the r -band, and then take the mean normalized flux in each band over all galaxies in the bin. This procedure yields a “template” SED for each bin in the color-color space.

We then use Multi-wavelength Analysis of Galaxy Physical Properties (da Cunha et al. (2008)) software to infer the SSFR for each template SED. MAGPHYS is a physical model-based method to interpret the mid- and far-infrared spectral energy distributions of galaxies, self-consistently modeling the emission at ultraviolet, optical, and near-infrared wave-

lengths. For every input galaxy with a set of observed fluxes in different bands, MAGPHYS generates an optical and infrared library at that redshift and then samples all template spectra whose fluxes obey a simple principle of energy balance: that the amount of energy absorbed by dust in the UV/Optical matches the amount of infrared emission that is accounted for purely by dust. Once the templates have been sub-sampled thus, MAGPHYS uses chi-squared fitting to see which combination best reproduces the observed fluxes along with the likelihood for the distributions. The results for the SSFRs thus obtained for each template are shown in the lower left panel of Fig 1.2 along with the number distribution of the galaxies across the chosen bins. Note that bins with < 5 galaxies were omitted as those regions of the color-color space are obviously under-sampled.

The resulting distribution of the MAGPHYS-based SSFRs across the color-color space looks as we would expect it to for the most part. In UV-optical colors, blue galaxies have high SSFRs, and red galaxies have low SSFRs. However, there is also a dependence of SSFR on IR color; most notably, in the UV-optical green valley, the redder galaxies in the IR have higher SSFRs. These galaxies are likely to be dust-extincted in the UV, with the reemission by dust reddening the IR colors. In what follows, we will use the UV-optical and IR colors of individual galaxies, and the dependence of the SSFR on these colors shown in the lower left panel of Fig 1.2, to assign an SSFR to each individual galaxy.

1.3.2 UV STAR FORMATION RATES

We also explore a simple method of determining star formation rates developed by [Salim et al. \(2007b\)](#) that depends only on the UV fluxes of each galaxy. It assigns a star formation rate that is proportional to the UV luminosity (specifically the FUV band if we are looking

at GALEX). Dust attenuation is also accounted for in this method by looking at the ratio of luminosities in the FUV and NUV bands.

According to this prescription (Salim et al., 2007b), the star formation rate is given by:

$$SFR = 1.08 \times 10^{-28} L_{\text{FUV}}^{\circ},$$

where L_{FUV}° is the rest-frame FUV luminosity. This method accounts for dust attenuation of the FUV light as well by estimating an attenuation factor A_{ν} as follows.

If $N - r \geq 4.0$, i.e. for the red sequence galaxies,

$$A_{\nu} = \begin{cases} 3.32(F - N) + 0.22, & \text{if}(F - N) < 0.95 \\ 3.37, & \text{if}(F - N) \geq 0.95. \end{cases}$$

If $N - r < 4.0$, i.e. for the blue sequence galaxies,

$$A_{\nu} = \begin{cases} 2.99(F - N) + 0.27, & \text{if}(F - N) < 0.90 \\ 2.96, & \text{if}(F - N) \geq 0.90. \end{cases}$$

This method uses the UV slope to estimate the dust attenuation. The physical idea is that when the UV light is dominated by massive young stars, these are hot enough that we are observing their Rayleigh-Jeans tail spectra, and this slope is basically constant with age of the population. Thus the observed UV color reveals the dust reddening.

The lower right panel of Fig. 1.2 shows the mean SSFR_{UV} as a function of color. Compared to the lower left panel, the SSFR_{UV} 's have a nearly monotonic relationship with UV-optical color whereas, as discussed above, the $\text{SSFR}_{\text{MAGPHYS}}$'s do not. Assuming the $\text{SSFR}_{\text{MAGPHYS}}$'s

are closer to correct, the UV-optical green valley contains a population of galaxies that are not truly transitioning but instead are reddened by the presence of dust. Furthermore, the nominally dust-corrected UV star formation rates do not successfully identify these galaxies.

MRB: Quantify the fraction of galaxies like this; say within $2.5 < N - r < 4.5$, what fraction have $[W_1] - [W_3] > 1.5$, answering same question in 3 bins of absolute magnitude too.

1.4 ENVIRONMENTS

We identified above a population of galaxies isolated in color space, which appeared to have dust-extincted star formation, such that the SSFR_{UV} estimate was much less than the $\text{SSFR}_{\text{MAGPHYS}}$. In order to confirm whether MAGPHYS is capturing an inherent property in this population of galaxies, we examine an independent physical property, namely the environments of our sample.

1.4.1 MEASURES OF ENVIRONMENT

The environment of a galaxy can be defined in many ways, such as fixed aperture counts, distance to the n^{th} nearest neighbor, Voronoi volumes, etc (Cooper et al., 2005). Here we use counts in a projected fixed aperture of radius 0.5 Mpc as our environment measure. Around every galaxy we construct a projected cylinder with a radius (in the transverse direction) of $r_t = 0.5$ Mpc and a line of sight velocity window of $v_{los} = \pm 1000 \text{ km/s}$. For each galaxy for which we have star formation measurements, we count its number of neighbors (n_{env}) in this cylinder (Fig. 1.2) in the Environment Defining Population.

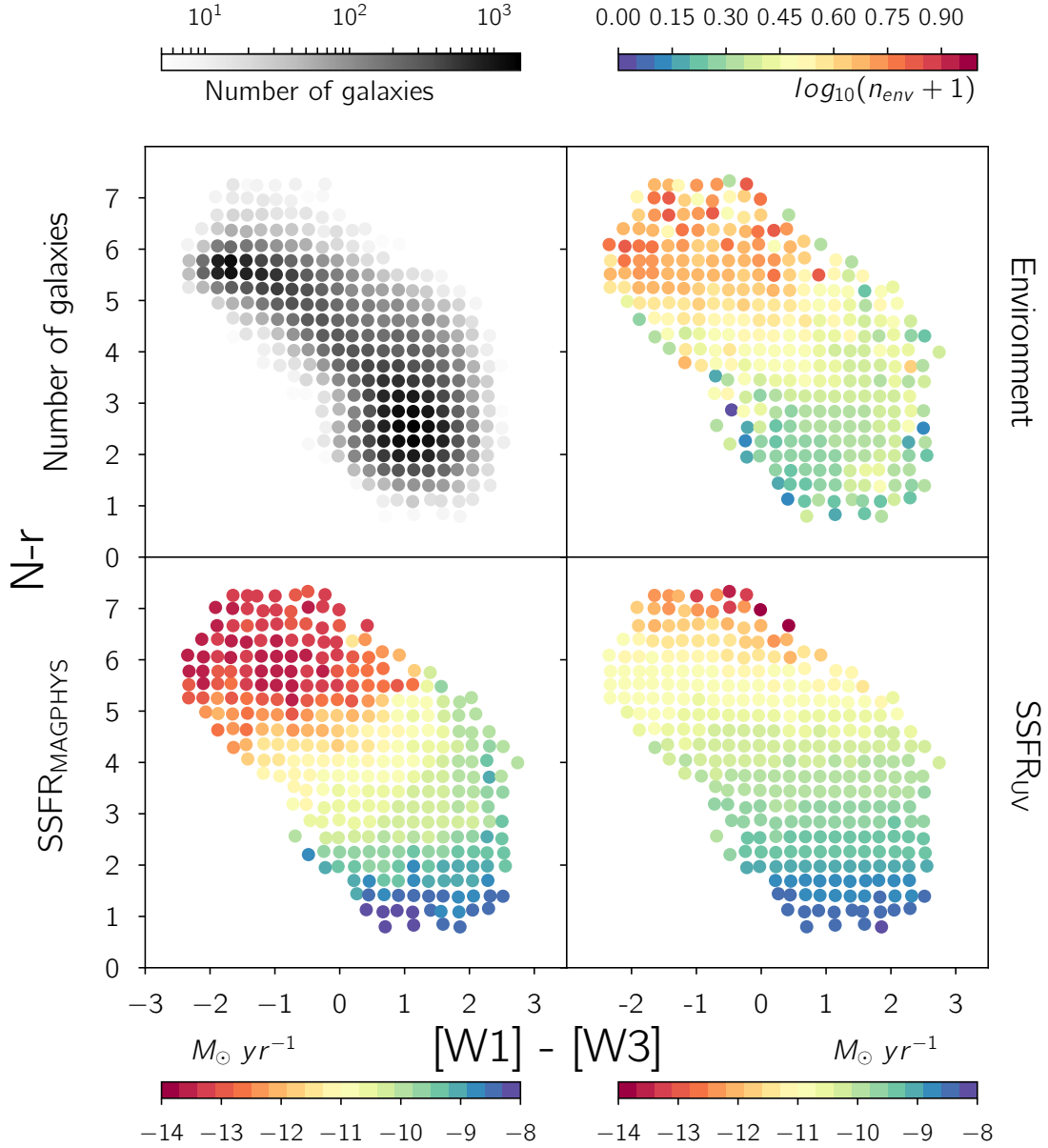


Figure 1.2: The SSFR measurements and environment shown the color-color space. Each point in the plot is shown at the mean colors in each of the bins we use. The grey value or color of the points in each panel show the mean value in each bin for the quantity described by the corresponding color bar. *Top left:* Logarithmic number density in each of the bins; all bins with less than 5 galaxies were discarded in this and the other panels. *Top right:* Environment; in each bin, the average number of nearest neighbors is calculated in a projected cylinder ($r_t = 0.5 \text{ Mpc}$ and $v_{los} = \pm 1000 \text{ km/s}$). *Bottom left:* the Specific Star Formation Rates obtained from MAGPHYS. *Bottom right:* UV Specific Star Formation Rates estimated by using the method described in [Salim et al. \(2007a\)](#).

1.4.2 EDGE EFFECTS

We must also account for the survey edges. For galaxies at the edge, part of the fixed aperture used to estimate the environments might lie outside the survey coverage. It is important to identify these galaxies and either discard them or assign an appropriate weight to n_{env} in order to account for the missing area.

To identify the edges, we use (Swanson et. al.'s) *Mangle*, a suite of free open-source software designed to deal with complex angular masks in an efficient and accurate manner. First, the NYU-VAGC *Mangle*-format mask was used to obtain the angular mask for the NASA Sloan Atlas by using the *polyid* routine from *Mangle*. Then, the *ransack* routine was used to populate the mask with a random sample of $N = 10,000,000$ galaxies. For each galaxy, we compute the angular separation ϑ_i that corresponds to our $0.5\mathcal{Mpc}$ aperture at the redshift of that galaxy. We then count the number of galaxies n_i that lie within this angular separation and compare the value obtained to the expected value:

$$\langle n \rangle_i = \frac{N}{\mathcal{A}_{\text{EDP}}} \times \pi \vartheta_i^2 \times f_{\text{thresh}}$$

\mathcal{A}_{EDP} is the total area of the mask and f_{thresh} is the fractional threshold for the edge effect cut-off. In our case, we chose $f_{\text{thresh}} = 0.8$. Wherever $n_i < \langle n \rangle_i$, we consider the galaxy to be near an edge and discard it from our sample.

1.4.3 ENVIRONMENTS IN COLOR-COLOR SPACE

The mean environment, quantified by $(\langle n_{\text{env}} \rangle + 1)$ in each bin are shown in the upper right panel of Fig. 1.2 as a function of optical and infrared colors. As we expect from many pre-

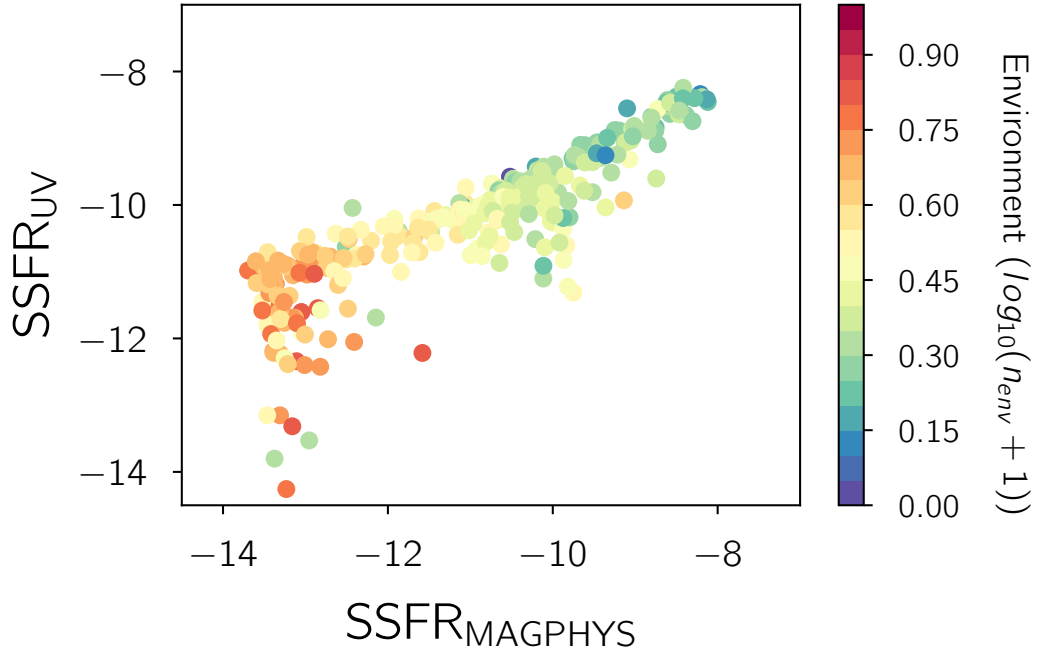


Figure 1.3: The two star formation rate estimates (from Fig.1.2) plotted against each other as a function of the environment; We notice two distinct set of outliers that seem to have lower UV SSFR's but similar environments to the galaxy bins with the same MAGPHYS SSFR's.

vious studies (Blanton & Moustakas 2009b) the star-forming bluer galaxies tend to exist in less dense environments on average and the red-and-dead population tends to exist in more dense environments. In the UV-optical green valley region ($3 < N - r < 5$) there is some indication that the environment declines with $[W_1] - [W_3]$ color at fixed UV-optical color. However, the mean environments in this plot cannot easily be interpreted, because the mean stellar mass in each bin is different, so some of the variation is driven by the dependence of environment on stellar mass.

1.5 THE ENVIRONMENTS OF THE OUTLIERS

Fig. 1.3 shows the relationship between the two SSFR measurements, with points colored according to the mean environment, for each bin in color-color space from Fig. 1.2. There is a set of bins in the range $-10.5 < \text{SSFR}_{\text{MAGPHYS}} < -9.5$ that have lower SSFR_{UV} values than the general trend, and have environments similar to the other galaxy bins in the same MAGPHYS range. Hereafter we shall refer to this population as the “Outliers,” to distinguish them from the general trend line in Fig. 1.3.

We identify these outliers more specifically in Fig. 1.4(a), as being in the lower right square. The galaxy bins with the same $\text{SSFR}_{\text{MAGPHYS}}$ values (above the square) are identified as the “MAGPHYS Box” and the bins with the same SSFR_{UV} values (left of the square) are identified as “UV BOX” in Fig. 1.4(a).

.. change line styles of different boxes in Fig.1.5 so that the result can be inferred on b-and-w print...

1.5.1 GREEN-VALLEY INTERLOPERS

When we return to the color-color space (Fig. 1.4(b)) and show where the bins in each box lie, we see the trends we would expect. The Outliers lie in a similar UV-optical color range as the UV box but have higher IR color. The MAGPHYS Box occupies the bluer side in the optical color range while spanning almost the entire IR color range. The UV Box occupies the redder side in the optical color range while having lower IR color values. The Outlier bins are the same bins we previously identified as the galaxies in the UV-optical “green valley” that are there due to dust reddening.

To verify this, we unwrap the bins and look at the Probability Density Function of the

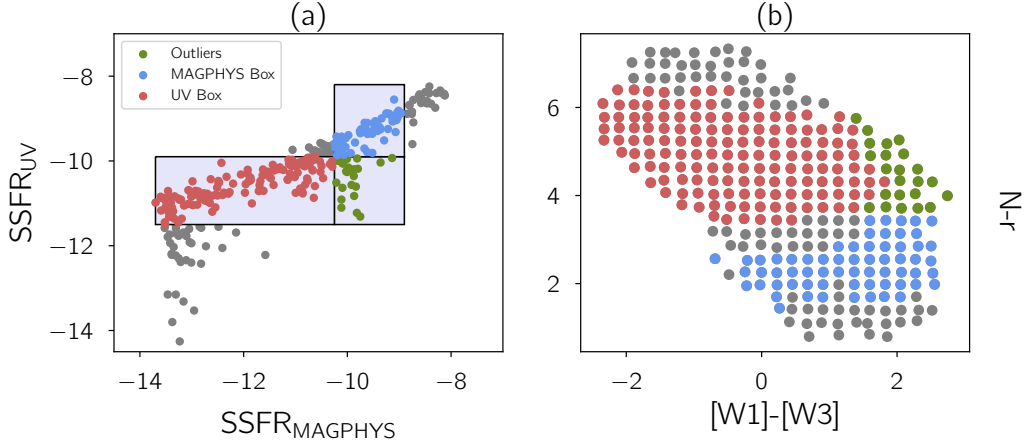


Figure 1.4: The outliers shown as a function of the Star Formation Rates as well as Optical and IR colors

Environments of the galaxies in these three regions in the mass range $9.5 < \mathcal{M}_* < 10.7$ and examine the distribution of environments in these three regions, the result of which is plotted in Fig. 1.5.

1.5.2 JACKKNIFE ERRORS

To calculate uncertainty in the estimated probability density functions of the environments, $P_{i,\text{bin}}$'s : $i = 1, 2, 3$ for each of the populations, we use the standard jackknife technique. Jackknife re-sampling gives us an internal error estimate that tests how representative a measurement/trend is of the data it is estimated with. We divide our entire sample into 20 subsamples with nearly equal co-moving volumes and estimate the same probability density functions (P_i^j 's) for the whole sample while leaving out one subsample each time. We can then estimate our uncertainty for each bin in the PDF's thus:

$$\sigma_{i,\text{bin}} = \sqrt{\frac{N}{N-1} \sum_{j=1}^{j=N} (P_i^j - P_{i,\text{bin}})^2}$$

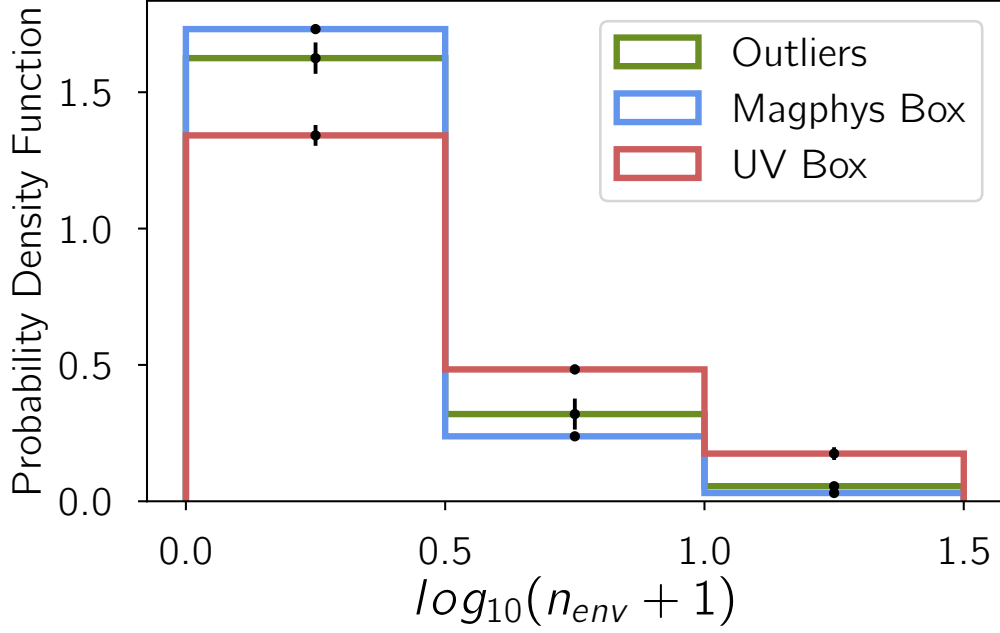


Figure 1.5: Probability density functions of the Environments of the three populations described in Fig. 2

The errors estimated in this manner account for Poisson shot noise and also the sample variance, the extra error associated with the fact that the density field varies across the survey. Although precision studies of large scale structure have found that latter effect is not perfectly accounted for with standard jackknife techniques, they are precise enough for our purposes here. The jackknife errors are shown in Fig. 4 and confirm our hypothesis: that the Outliers are a little different than the MAGPHYS Box but still, very different from the UV Box.

1.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

- From Fig 1, we see that $SSFR_{MAGPHYS}$ identifies a region in the color-color space as

dust-obscured star forming galaxies and correlates better with the environments of the galaxies.

- At the higher star formation end, we find that the dust-obscured star-formers as identified by MAGPHYS have environments comparable to the blue star-forming galaxies, confirming that this is indeed a physical effect we're seeing.
- Comparing the environment distribution of the Outliers relative to the galaxies with (a) the same $\text{SSFR}_{\text{MAGPHYS}}$'s as the Outliers and (b) the same SSFR_{UV} 's as the Outliers (Fig. 1.5), we find that the Outliers indeed have a similar environment distribution to the galaxies that have the same $\text{SSFR}_{\text{MAGPHYS}}$'s, i.e., they seem to favor lower environment densities mimicking the behavior of star-formers.

2

Aperture effects in Stellar Mass Estimates

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we investigate methods of constraining the star formation histories and stellar masses of galaxies where galaxy spectra are available. In particular, we look at the largest galaxy catalog of estimated stellar masses, star formation rates and gas metallicities, the MPA-JHU catalog (Brinchmann et al., 2004; Kauffmann et al., 2003; Tremonti et al., 2004), obtained from spectra from the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) Legacy Survey. The MPA-JHU catalog has, over the last decade and a half, been one of the most influential and widely-used catalogs in the fields of galaxy formation and evolution. Here we test a fundamental assumption of the catalog, which is that spectroscopic measurements of the central region of the galaxy yield sufficient information to constrain star formation histories and stellar masses for the galaxy as a whole.

The importance of galaxy star formation histories have been discussed in Sections 0.2.3 and 0.4.2 and crucial to analyzing them are accurate inferences of star formation rates and stellar masses from observed data. In particular, the stellar mass function, which is used to calibrate the parameters in simulations that seek to reproduce the star formation histories of galaxy populations, relies on accurate observational calibrations of stellar mass. In this spirit, I examine one of the most widely used stellar mass estimation methods that involves two spectral indicators and an aperture correction to account for the limited spatial resolution coverage of SDSS spectra. I investigate the robustness of this method using spatially resolved spectra from the MaNGA (Mapping Nearby Galaxies at Apache Point) survey.

2.1.1 THE SDSS SPECTRA

As introduced in Section 0.4.1, SDSS has been conducting a coordinated imaging and spectroscopic survey since 2000 and is currently in its fourth phase of operation. The first two phases of the survey, SDSS and its extension, SDSS-II, which covered approximately 10000 square degrees of mostly the northern galactic sky ran between 2000-2008 and served as the primary database for the original MPA-JHU catalog. The measurements made by [Brinchmann et al. \(2004\)](#); [Kauffmann et al. \(2003\)](#); [Tremonti et al. \(2004\)](#) were extended to SDSS-III (covering an additional 4000 square degrees) and thus we focus on the eighth data release, DR8, released in January 2011, that contains photometry of over a billion objects and the observed spectra of a little over 900,000 galaxies ([Abazajian et al., 2009](#)) from SDSS-III.

The imaging and spectroscopic data are observed using a 2.5 m telescope at the Apache Point Observatory (APO) in Sunspot, New Mexico. The imaging data is obtained by using a wide-field mosaic CCD camera and the spectroscopic data, using twin multi-object fiber spectrographs ([Smee et al., 2013](#)), all of which are mounted at the Cassegrain focus of the telescope. The imaging survey, which is carried out in drift-scanning mode using a 5×6 array of 2048×2048 pixel detectors, obtains photometry in the u , g , r , i and z bands. This broadband photometric data, after reduction and calibration, serves as the pool of data from which spectroscopic target selection is then done. The spectroscopic fiber plug plates, also known as tiles, are aluminum plates which have holes drilled into them at positions decided upon by the target selection and the optical fibers are plugged into into these holes. They have a circular field-of-view of radius 1.49 degrees and can fit in 640 fibers, allowing for simultaneous observation of 640 spectra (mostly galaxy spectra and some which are reserved for blank sky observations for calibration) in a 3 degree diameter field of view over

the course of a single exposure.

The fiber diameter of the optical fibers was chosen with a view to maximize the signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio for an extended source, keeping in mind the sky conditions at APO. The optimal choice that was decided upon corresponds to a fiber diameter of $180\ \mu\text{m}$ or $3''$. The rest-frame wavelength range of the spectra at the median redshift is from $3500\ \text{\AA}$ to $8500\ \text{\AA}$ with a spectral resolution:

$$R = \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} \approx 2000.$$

The spectra are calibrated using observations of F stars in each 3° degree field.

SDSS imaging data and spectra have played a significant role in many discoveries in astronomy and cosmology over the last decade and a half. Prominent among them are the discovery of baryon acoustic oscillation (BAO) signatures in galaxy clustering in 2005 which engendered a new method to constrain fundamental cosmological parameters, the discovery and subsequent studies of quasars which has given us insight into the growth of black holes, the discovery of the bimodal nature of galaxy properties and the relationship between galaxies and their dark matter haloes and insights into the chemical abundances and star formation history of the Milky Way. Key to some of the important results in galaxy evolution, in particular, has been the use of star formation rates, stellar masses and metallicities obtained from the MPA-JHU Catalog, which was developed specifically using SDSS spectroscopic data. I discuss the catalog and the methods used to estimate these quantities in the following sections.

2.1.2 THE MPA JHU CATALOG

The MPA-JHU catalog is the result of a collaborative effort between a group of researchers at the Max Planck Institute for Astrophysics and the John Hopkins University and was put together on the heels of the first SDSS Data Release (DR₁) of spectroscopic observations. The original dataset they used was 120,808 galaxies drawn from the SDSS DR₁ for which the following properties were estimated: stellar masses and mass-to-light ratios, effective stellar attenuation by dust, indicators of recent major starbursts, current total and specific star-formation rates, gas-phase metallicities, AGN classifications based on the standard emission line ratio diagnostic diagrams and AGN luminosities. The methods of estimation of these properties can be found in [Kauffmann et al. \(2003\)](#) for the stellar masses, [Brinchmann et al. \(2004\)](#) for the star formation rates and [Tremonti et al. \(2004\)](#) for the gas phase metallicities.

The MPA-JHU catalog measurements are ubiquitous in galaxy evolution literature with many important results relying on the inferred SFR's, masses and metallicities from the catalog. A few examples of scientific results from which the significance of the catalog can be evinced would be: understanding the host galaxies of AGN's by Kewley ([Kewley et al., 2006](#)), the star formation-density relation and its reversal in distant universe by Elbaz et al. ([2007](#)), constraining the mass-metallicity relationship for star-forming galaxies ([Kewley & Ellison, 2008](#)), the mass dependence of radio-loud AGN's (?), insights into quenching mechanisms ([Peng et al., 2010](#)) and large scale galactic conformity ([Kauffmann et al., 2013](#)), mapping the stellar mass function ([D'Souza et al., 2015](#); [Li & White, 2009](#)), etc.

The MPA-JHU catalog use SDSS spectra to constrain the stellar masses and star formation histories in the catalog are obtained by looking at two key spectral indicators of star-

bursts and age of a galaxy: the Balmer $H\delta_A$ absorption line index and the D_{n4000} break index. Because they are both measurements defined over a narrow range of wavelengths in the blue, that are similar to each other, and are independent of the absolute flux, they are designed to be insensitive to dust extinction within the galaxy. The indices are discussed in detail in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2. Using the distribution of the observed galaxies in the $H\delta_A - D_{n4000}$ plane and by employing Stellar Population Synthesis (SPS) models by [Bruzual & Charlot \(2003b\)](#) to model the evolution of galaxies in this plane, they are able to derive maximum likelihood estimates of the stellar mass of a galaxy ([Kauffmann et al., 2003](#)), the attenuation of optical light by dust and the fraction of stars in a galaxy formed in recent bursts.

There is a crucial step to the way the stellar masses are inferred in the catalog. What is actually inferred for a given point in the $H\delta_A - D_{n4000}$ phase space is the mass-to-light ratio in the z -band. Now, as we have just seen in Section 2.1.1, due to the nature of fiber spectroscopy, the angular area of coverage of a galaxy observed is limited to $3''$, which could correspond to different actual physical sizes depending on the redshift of the galaxy. Thus, [Kauffmann et al. \(2003\)](#) (and [Brinchmann et al. \(2004\)](#) for SFR's) prescribe a method of aperture correction that relies on the assumption that the mass-to-light (M/L) ratio of the central part of a galaxy is representative of the entire galaxy. Thus the fiber M/L ratios are obtained in the z -band are multiplied by the luminosity of the galaxy in the z -band, that can be obtained from SDSS broadband photometry to recover the total stellar mass of the galaxy. The methodology and the motivations behind it are discussed in further detail in Section 2.2.3.

It follows from the above that the MPA-JHU catalog stellar masses might possibly be

systematically affected at different regions of the $H\delta_A - D_{n4000}$ phase space wherever the central M/L ratios are not representative of the entire galaxy. This can be an issue where there are distinct bulge and disk components, such as for luminous spiral galaxies. The way to be able to quantify exactly how offset the MPA-JHU masses might be depending on the size of the aperture, what one would need is spatially resolved spectra for the galaxy. Integral Field Unit (IFU) based surveys provide us the necessary data to be able to do that. I review briefly the field of integral field spectroscopy and in more detail, the survey I will use to test the robustness of the MPA-JHU methods, MaNGA (Mapping Nearby Galaxies at Apache Point ([Bundy et al., 2014](#))), in the following section.

2.1.3 INTEGRAL FIELD SPECTROSCOPY AND MANGA

Integral Field Spectroscopy in astronomy was engendered by the need to study spectra of extended objects in some form of positional coordinates, where a single spectrum is insufficient to capture the internal dynamics of an object. An integral field spectrograph is thus equipped with an Integral Field Unit (IFU) that enables the observation of multiple regions of the extended object simultaneously to thus obtain spatially resolved spectra. There are many ways of doing this, including and not limited to, image slicers, lenslet arrays, and multi-fiber IFU's. As we have seen in Section 2.1.1, while spectroscopic surveys have created huge breakthroughs in galaxy evolution and cosmology alike, the restricted spatial coverage have resulted in almost every result having to account for that in some way by either making corrections or extrapolations and often having to rely on photometric data (as is the case with the MPA-JHU catalog). Besides, it is hard to make anything more than educated guesses about the complex internal kinematics of an individual galaxy. The ability of IFU's

to effectively provide us with spatial information has thus ushered in a new generation of spectroscopic surveys, the IFU-based surveys.

Some noteworthy IFU-based surveys include SAMI (Sydney-Australian-Astronomical-Observatory Multi-object Integral-Field Spectrograph ([Bryant et al., 2015](#); ?)), MUSE (Multi Unit Spectroscopic Explorer ([Bacon et al., 2015](#))) and CALIFA (Calar Alto Legacy Integral Field Area Survey) ([Sánchez et al., 2012](#)). IFU-based surveys, have, over the last decade contributed immensely to our understanding of the internal lives of galaxies. A recent review on this can be found in ?. For the purposes of this project, which is more of an attempt at quantifying the robustness of the MPA-JHU aperture corrections using spatially resolved spectra, the survey that best suits us would be MaNGA (Mapping Nearby Galaxies at Apache Point ([Bundy et al., 2014](#))). MaNGA is the most ambitious IFU-based survey undertaken so far, with a view to obtain spatially resolved spectra of about 10,000 galaxies by 2020. Besides the statistical significance of the MaNGA galaxy sample (Section 2.3.1), the fact that it is SDSS based and thus in effect subject to the same systematics as the MPA-JHU catalog makes it an ideal candidate to investigate this question with.

MaNGA uses a multiple fiber IFU ([Drory et al., 2015](#)) and similar to the procedure of plugging in the single fiber cables as discussed in Section 2.1.1, the multiple fiber bundles are plugged into the IFU holes drilled into the tiles which are then placed at the focal plane of the 2.5m telescope at Apache Point. The fibers are 0.5” in size and the bundles themselves come in five sizes and contain 19, 37, 61, 91 or 127 fibers depending on the apparent size of the target galaxy. Each fiber in a fiber bundle thus produces a spaxel, which can be thought of as a spectrum for every two-dimensional pixel. The resulting MaNGA galaxy outputs are thus three dimensional “datacubes” with two spatial dimensions and one spectral di-

mension. Each bundle also contains sky fibers to allow for very precise sky subtraction by looking at a region of the sky that is very close to the target. At a given time, MaNGA is able to target 17 galaxies (and 12 standard stars) in the 3 degree FOV with much wider and continuous wavelength coverage than similar IFU-based surveys.

2.2 THE $H\delta_A - D_{n4000}$ PLANE

In this section, I review the two spectral diagnostic tools used by the MPA-JHU catalog to constrain stellar masses and star formation histories in galaxies, the Balmer δ absorption line index and the D_{n4000} break index in the optical spectrum of a galaxy. Following that I describe the method used by [Kauffmann et al. \(2003\)](#) to obtain the mass-to-light ratios of galaxies using these indices and finally the aperture correction method used to transform the fiber masses obtained to the total stellar mass of the galaxy.

2.2.1 THE D_{n4000} BREAK IN GALAXY SPECTRA

Spectral discontinuities in stars are produced by the accumulation of a large number of spectral lines in a narrow region. This produces a sharp opacity edge, often due to the contribution of ionized metals and reveals itself as a break in the spectrum of the star. For hotter stars, the elements are multiply ionized leading to smaller opacity and for cool stars, the opacity is low once again due to reduced ionization because of cooler temperatures. It is thus for the intermediate stars that the spectral discontinuities are most prominent as the temperature is optimal for maximum ionization. Thus the age of the stellar populations can have a significant signature in terms of the spectral discontinuities we would observe in galaxy spectra and the most prominent one in galaxy spectra occurs at 4000 Å ([Bruzual A.,](#)

1981; Bruzual A., 1983a). There are other discontinuities in the UV occurring at 2420, 2640, 2900 Å, but the 4000 Å break lends itself to being a better indicator, not only because it is in a more ideal part of the spectrum, i.e., the optical blue, but also because it is the most statistically significant one observed in galaxy spectra.

The specific metallic absorption lines causing the break include a variety of elements in varying states of ionization, including including the CaII doublet, H and K (3969 Å and 3934 Å) and higher order Balmer lines such as H ϵ , λ , etc (Hamilton, 1985). As the break does tend to be pronounced in intermediately old stellar populations which tend to be metal rich, it does depend on stellar metallicity, exhibiting some of the same age-metallicity degeneracy that afflicts most spectroscopic indicators.

This break was defined in by Bruzual A. (1983b) as the ratio of the average flux density F_ν in two bands that span ~ 200 Å on either side of 4000 Å. Balogh et al. (1999) defined a narrow band definition for the same where the bands that are now 100 Å wide with 3850 Å-3950 Å as the “blue continuum” and 4000 Å-4100 Å as the “red continuum”. The band-pass used in Kauffmann et al. (2003) (??) is the same as the one introduced by Balogh et al. (1999) and their motivation for doing so is that the narrow definition is more insensitive to reddening effects. I reproduce these measurements using the same narrow band definition.

2.2.2 THE BALMER H δ ABSORPTION LINE

As we have seen in Section 0.3.2, the spectral features of galaxies contain a wealth of information about their star formation properties. In particular the Balmer lines in the optical are very useful in understanding the ionized hydrogen content in the stellar populations in the galaxies and can thus provide valuable insight into star formation properties. The

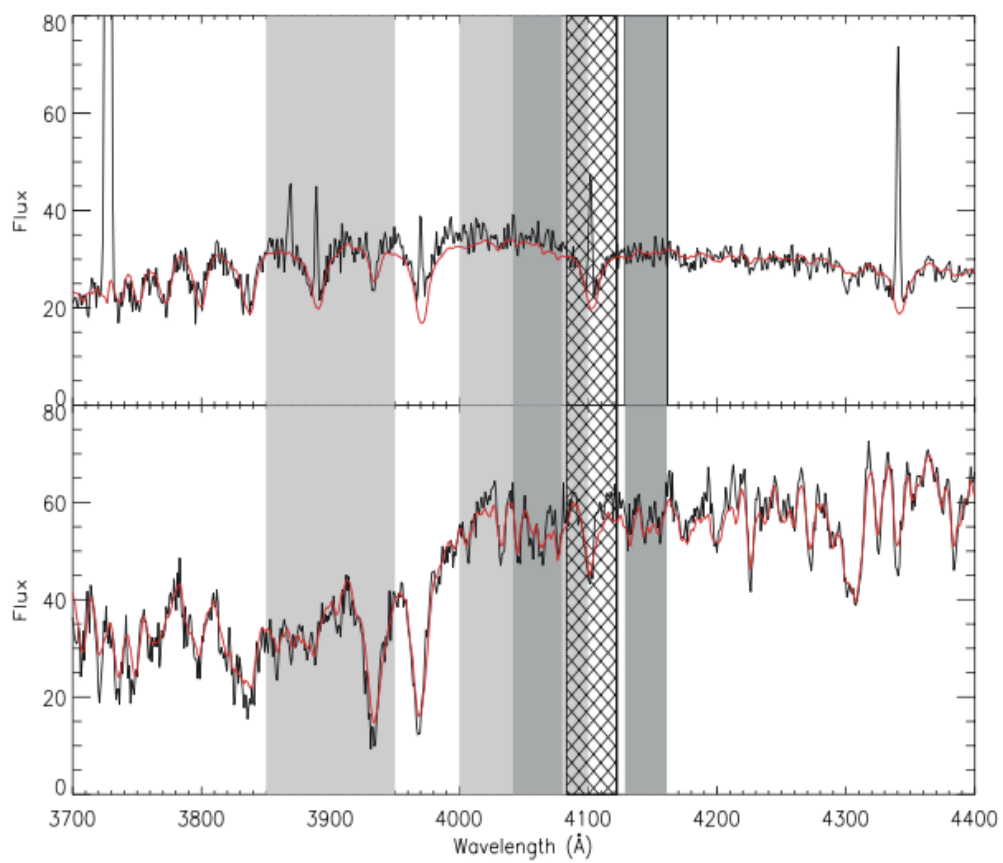


Figure 2.1: PLACEHOLDER FIG; TBD: A figure showing D4000 and Hdelta breaks in spectra for early/late-type galaxies as well as the bimodality in D4000

Balmer emission lines are the result of re-emission of light from hot, young stars by the ISM or HII regions in galaxies as we have seen in Section 0.3.1. The absorption lines such as the $H\beta$, $H\gamma$ and $H\delta$ absorption lines, however, are characteristic of stellar spectra (predominantly occurring in A-type stars) and are thus tracers of the age and metallicity of stellar populations in galaxies. In particular, a strong $H\delta$ absorption feature is indicative of a starburst having happened 0.5-1.5 Gyrs ago (Dressler & Gunn, 1983), assuming that the stellar populations involved are mostly A-type stars.

The evolution of the Balmer absorption line profiles in stellar spectra with age points to a tendency for the width of the lines to increase with the age of the stars until about 0.5 Gyr for stellar populations with solar metallicity. Up until ages of about 1 Gyr, the Balmer lines of individual stars are not dependent on metallicity. However the interpretation of stellar age from the integrated light from stellar populations can still be affected by metallicity considerations as lower metallicity stars evolve more slowly in the HR diagram with the strength of the absorption feature peaking at ages older than 1 Gyr. Thus a lower metallicity stellar population at an older age would exhibit a similar $H\delta$ absorption feature as an intermediate-age stellar population with solar (or higher) metallicity.

The distinguishing factor, however, in the way the age-metallicity degeneracy affects the Balmer lines as opposed to the metallic absorption features is that the latter is tied more to the presence of the red giant branch stars and the former is more a consequence of the dependence of the main sequence turnoff temperature being a function of metallicity. Thus with the appropriate SPS models, both the mean age and metallicity can be simultaneously obtained. Particularly useful in this endeavor are the Lick indices, obtained by using stellar spectra from the Lick Observatory (Worthey, 1994; Worthey & Ottaviani, 1997). The Lick

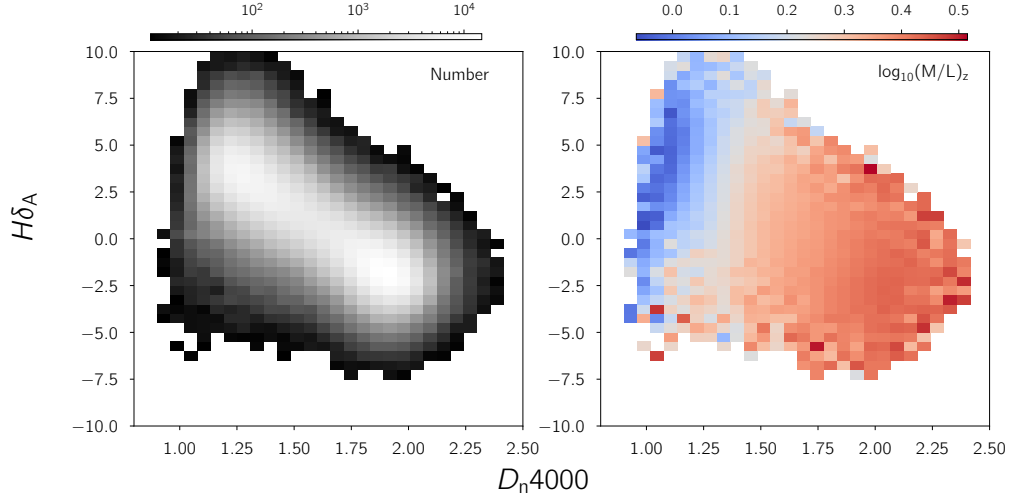


Figure 2.2: The [Kauffmann et al. \(2003\)](#) grid to infer M/L ratios from the $H\delta_A - D_{n4000}$ plane

indices are a system of 25 line indices, that can successfully disentangle the effects of age and metallicity for a given $[\alpha/\text{Fe}]$ abundance ratio.

Measuring an absorption feature involves measuring the flux in a central bandpass relative to two pseudo-continuum bandpasses on either side. A line is drawn between the mid-points of the two flanking pseudo-continuum bandpasses to define the continuum from which an equivalent width is measured by integration. The bandpass definitions we use here, as defined by [Worthey \(1994\)](#) are: an index Bandpass from 4083.50 - 4122.25 Å with the blue and red bandpasses on either side being 4041.60 - 4079.75 Å and 4128.50 - 4161 Å respectively.

2.2.3 CONSTRAINING SFH'S USING $H\delta_A$ AND D_{n4000}

2.2.4 THE MPA-JHU APERTURE CORRECTION/APERTURE BIAS

2.3 DATA

2.3.1 MANGA TARGET SELECTION AND DRP

Primary and Secondary Samples. NSA redshifts/Luminosity cut.

2.3.2 OUR SAMPLE

The most recent MaNGA product launch, MPL-8, which was announced in November 2018, containing products based on galaxy and stellar library observations from March 2014 - July 2018 serves as the source of our sample. It contains 950 plates - 6779 data cubes and 20649 stellar library stars. Out of these, 6468 are galaxies with measured NSA redshifts. These are representative of all the IFU sizes (list them: 19,37... 127) and span a redshift range upto $z = 0.15$.

For each galaxy observation, depending on the IFU bundle size (say N_x, N_y each describing a position 0.5" from the previous spaxel), we have (N_x, N_y) spectra which span 4563 wavelength points.

2.4 METHODS

2.4.1 VARIABLE APERTURE MEASUREMENTS

For any given datacube, we can determine which spaxels fall within an aperture radius of R arc-seconds as follows. As each spaxel spans a width of 0.5" in along the "X" and "Y"

direction, at any point (x, y) in the IFU image, the distance in arc-seconds of the centre of a spaxel from the central spaxel (x_c, y_c) in the IFU would be:

$$d = (r(x, y) - r(x_c, y_c)) = \sqrt{(0.5 * x)^2 + (0.5 * y)^2}$$

Thus, for every spaxel in the IFU, where $d \leq R$, that part of the galaxy would fall within the aperture and hence, we would include that spaxel in the measurement of whichever spectral index. Using this, for instance, we can simulate the SDSS fiber measurement, i.e., what the 1.5" aperture radius used in SDSS would see versus the total galaxy or what we call a "full aperture" measurement.

One can alternately pose this question in terms of redshift. For all galaxies whose redshift z_{obs} is less than the redshift we are interested in, z_{cutoff} , we can ask the question: if we shift the said galaxy to the said cutoff point, where would its location on the $H\delta_A - D_{n4000}$ plane be? How offset is this from the "full aperture" measurements?

Transverse angular distance varies with redshift as follows:

$$D_A(z) = \frac{D_M(z)}{1 + z}$$

, where $D_M(z)$ is the co-moving distance at redshift z .

So when a galaxy at z_{obs} is shifted to z_{cutoff} the new distance d_{new} of spaxel (x, y) from the central spaxel (x_c, y_c) relates to the old distance thus:

$$d_{\text{new}} = \frac{(1 + z_{\text{cutoff}}) \times D_M(z_{\text{obs}}) \times d}{(1 + z_{\text{obs}}) \times D_M(z_{\text{cutoff}})}$$

Using the above, we can now figure out the spaxels that would fall within a 3" diameter aperture (say) at not only the observed redshift but also any redshift where we would like to collectively observe the behavior of the offset with a full aperture measurement in the $H\delta_A$ - D_{n4000} plane.

2.4.2 $H\delta_A$, D_{n4000} MEASUREMENTS WITHIN APERTURES

To get the $H\delta_A$ and D_{n4000} index measurements for any aperture, we first redshift-correct the spectra obtained from all the spaxels within the aperture to rest-frame. As both the equivalent width of the Balmer $H\delta$ line as well as the D_{n4000} break rely on the continuum as well as a ratio of fluxes in the case of the latter, we add up the spectra of the spaxels that fall within any aperture before estimating either. We then follow the procedure described in Section 2.2 to calculate the indices. (In a footnote: the code for this is publicly available at [–provide github link–](#).)

2.5 RESULTS

2.5.1 COMPARISON TO FULL APERTURE MEASUREMENTS

To investigate how the full aperture measurements compare to the 3" measurements, we choose 3 different redshift bins $z = 0.02, 0.06$ and 0.14 and observe how offset the $H\delta_A$ and D_{n4000} measures are. For each redshift, I pick the galaxies whose redshift are below that redshift and “shift” them to the cutoff redshift as described in Section 2.4 and compare the full aperture measurements to the 3" measurements made at that redshift. The results of this are shown in Fig. 2.2, where the full aperture measurements are plotted against the 3" measurements at the respective redshifts with the colorbars indicating the number of

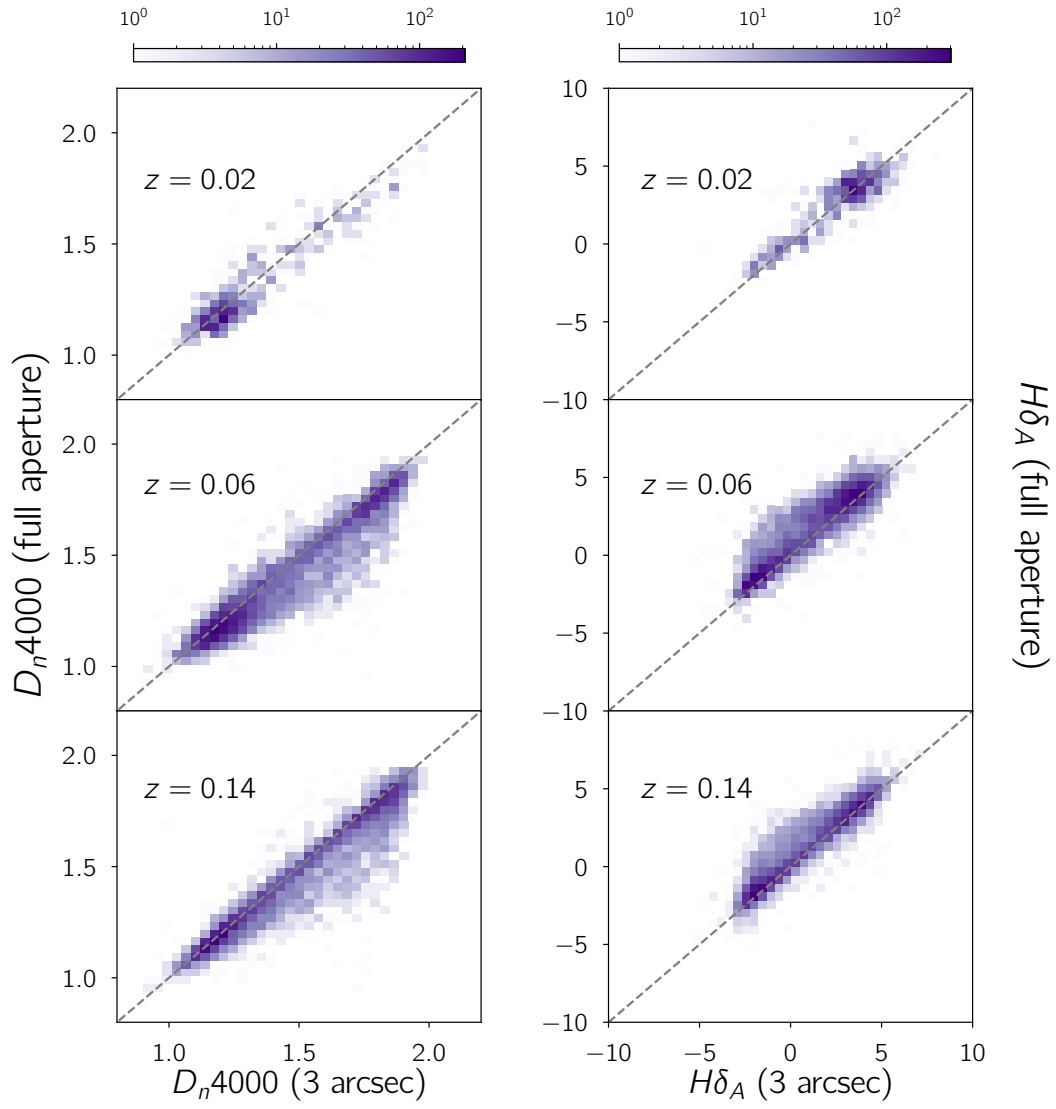


Figure 2.3: The D_{n4000} , $H\delta_A$ indices measured at $z = 0.02, 0.06, 0.14$ with a $3''$ aperture compared to the full aperture measurement

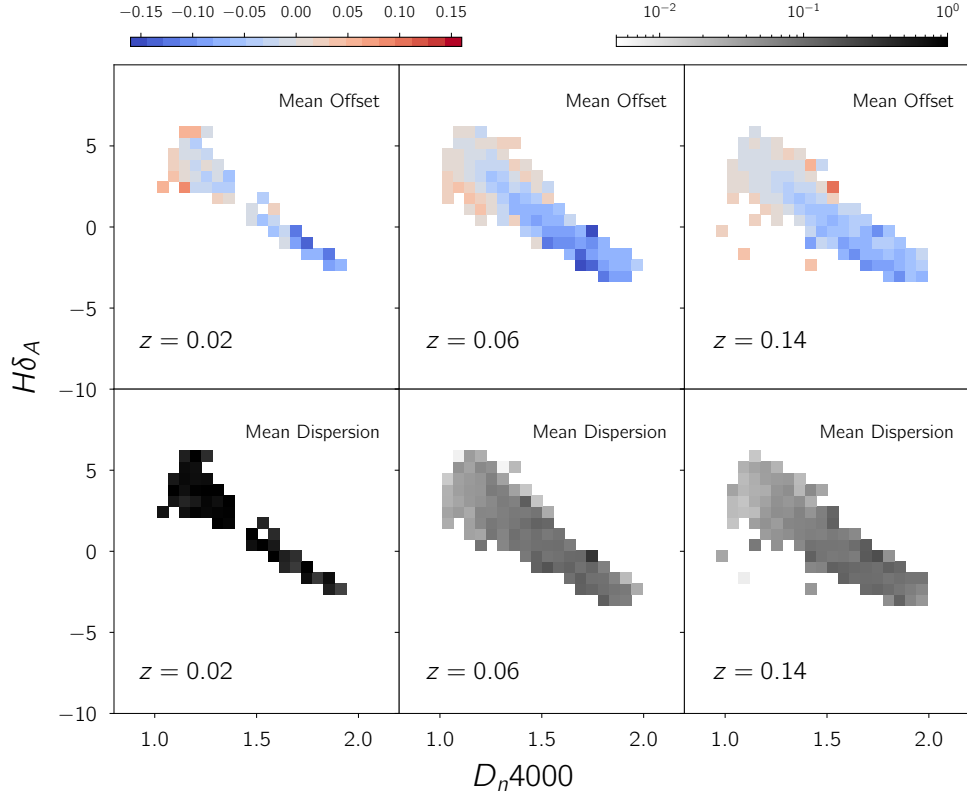


Figure 2.4: The mean offset and dispersion in the D_{n4000} index measured at $z = 0.02, 0.06$ and 0.14 with a $3''$ aperture from the full aperture measurement

galaxies in each bin. We note that the total number of galaxies in each redshift bin is 561 for $z = 0.02$, 5016 for $z = 0.06$ and 6402 for $z = 0.14$.

From Fig. 2.2, we can infer the following. For most of the galaxies the offset is pretty minimal as it as they fall pretty close to the $x = y$ line. We find that the scatter is the most at $z = 0.06$ and tends towards higher D_{n4000} and lower $H\delta_A$ values relative to the full aperture measurements. This can be interpreted as the effect of the apertures beginning to cover the galaxy disks which have lower star formation activity than the bulge for galaxies

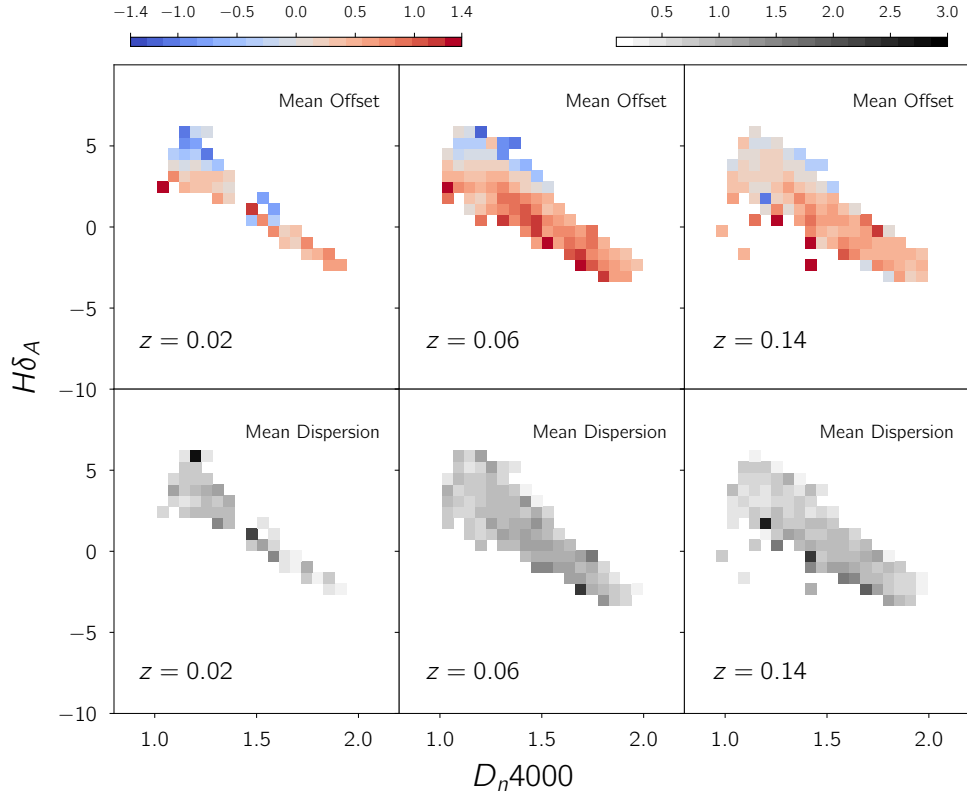


Figure 2.5: The mean offset and dispersion in the $h\delta_A$ index measured at $z = 0.02, 0.06$ and 0.14 with a $3''$ aperture from the full aperture measurement

with strong bulges. The scatter lessens as we approach $z = 0.14$, close to the survey limit, where for most of the galaxies, all of the light gets accounted for by the $3''$ aperture at this point.

MRB Says: At all redshifts, we can see that there is a systematic tendency for galaxies to appear older through the fiber aperture than through the full aperture, and therefore to appear to have a higher M/L than they actually do. This would particularly affect the intermediate age galaxies (i.e. those with D_{n4000} in the green valley).

2.5.2 OFFSETS IN THE $H\delta_A$ - D_{n4000} PLANE

2.6 DISCUSSION

MRB Says: * This mean tendency is *relatively* small. You should calculate from your grids the median offset for cells with $D_{4000} > 1.3$ or something like that, and quote that number. You should then look carefully at the Kauffmann figure to translate this to a change in M/L_z — my guess is that it is around 0.1 dex for $z=0.06$. Do this for $z=0.06$ and $z=0.14$.

* The scatter about this mean is substantial relative to the mean. Again, calculate the median standard deviation over the cells with $D_{4000} > 1.3$ to quantify this. My guess is that it is comparable to the mean itself. This means for individual galaxies the error can be a lot bigger. Again quote for both those redshifts.

* The main conclusion is that stellar masses more accurate than 0.1 dex (or whatever you see in the mean offset) are not possible, and that the scatter in the offset means the precision is degraded as well. This source of error is important to keep in mind but is probably not fatal for samples at $z=0.1$ from MPA/JHU — most results done rely on stellar masses at that precision. Using this sample at lower redshift may be much more iffy.

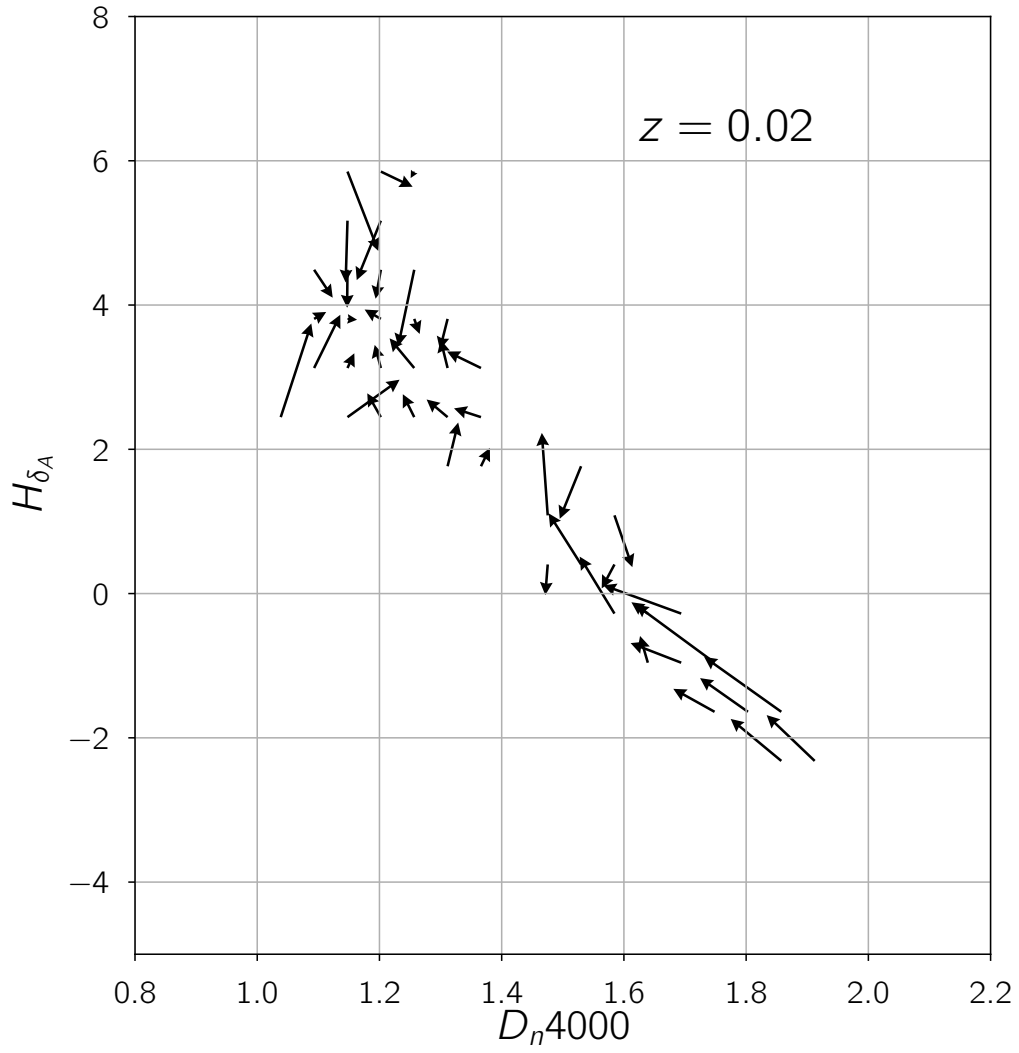


Figure 2.6: The combined mean offset in $D_{n4000}-h\delta_A$ at $z = 0.02$ from the full aperture measurements represented as a vector whose projections on the axes are the actual offsets in either direction

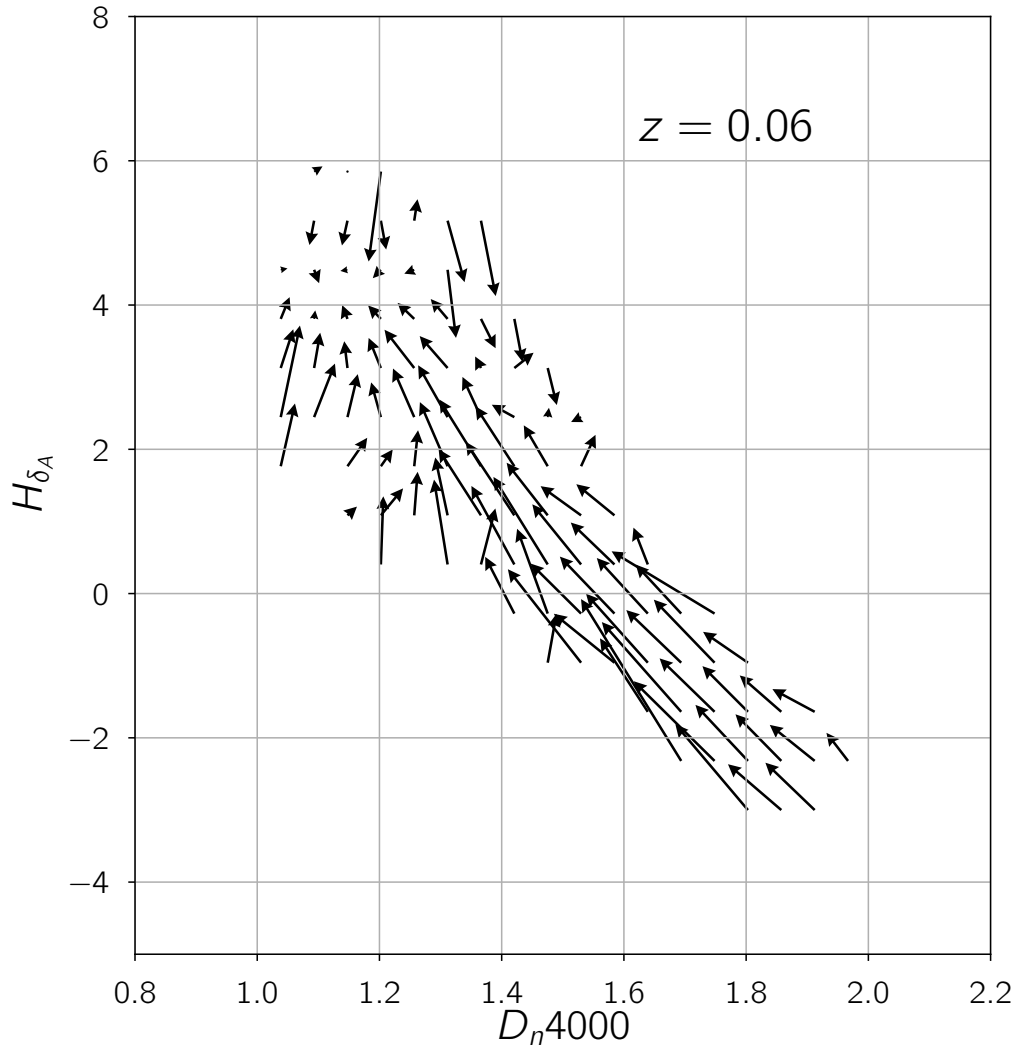


Figure 2.7: The combined mean offset in $D_{n4000}-h\delta_A$ at $z = 0.06$ from the full aperture measurements represented as a vector whose projections on the axes are the actual offsets in either direction

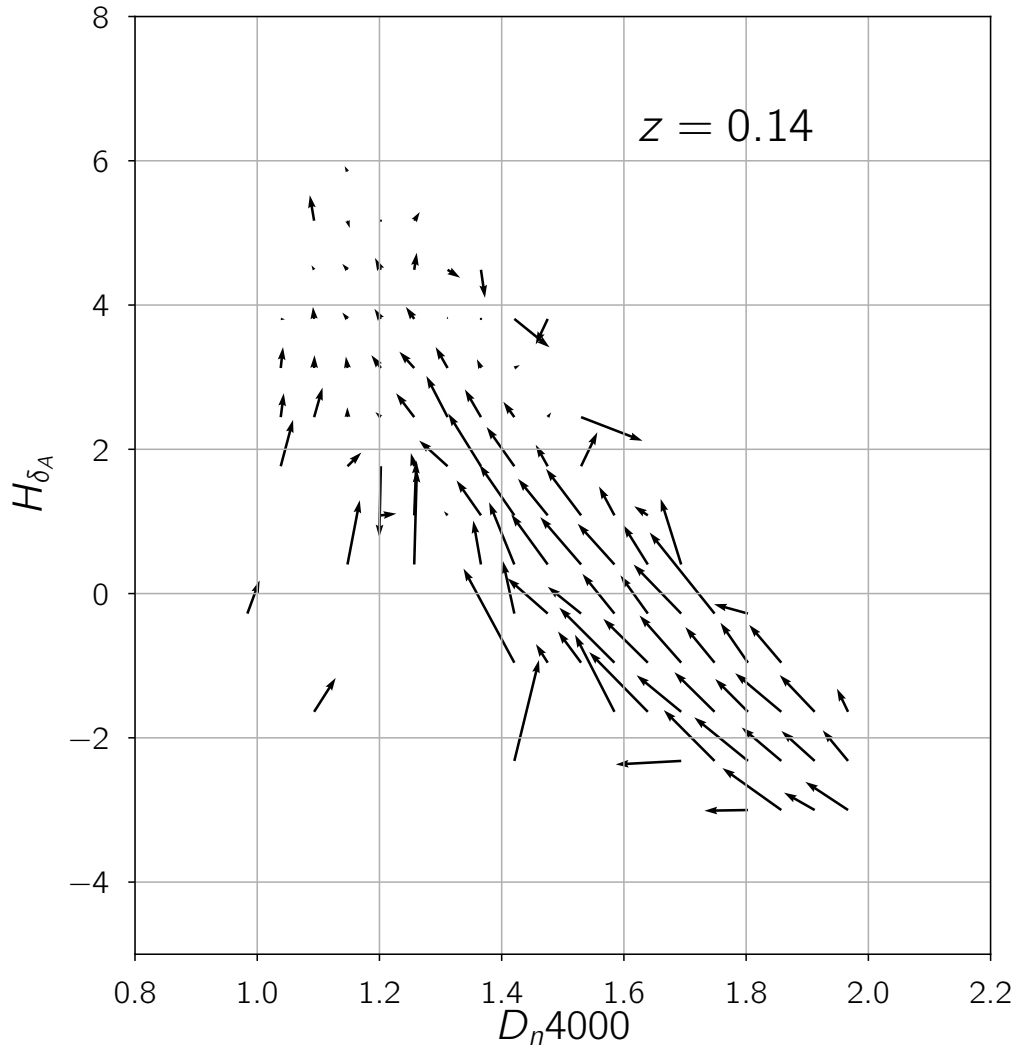


Figure 2.8: The combined mean offset in $D_{n4000}-h\delta_A$ at $z = 0.14$ from the full aperture measurements represented as a vector whose projections on the axes are the actual offsets in either direction

3

Conclusion

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