

Analysis of the Intrinsic Visible  $V$ –Mid-infrared  $L$  Colors of Galaxies at Redshifts  $z < 2$

by

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## ABSTRACT

Ultraviolet and optical light from stars is reddened and attenuated by interstellar dust, where different sightlines across a galaxy suffer varying amounts of extinction. Tamura *et al.* (2009) developed an approximate method to correct for dust extinction, dubbed the “ $\beta_V$  method,” by comparing the observed to an empirical estimate of the intrinsic flux ratio of visible and  $\sim 3.5 \mu\text{m}$  emission. Moving beyond that empirical approach, through extensive modeling, I calibrated the  $\beta_V$ -method for various filters spanning the visible through near-infrared wavelength range, for a wide variety of simple stellar populations (SSP) and composite stellar populations (CSP). Combining Starburst99 and BC03 models, I built spectral energy distributions of SSP and CSP for various realistic star formation histories, while taking metallicity evolution into account. I convolved various  $0.44\text{--}1.65 \mu\text{m}$  filter throughput curves with each model spectral energy distribution (SED) to obtain intrinsic flux ratios,  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ . To validate the modeling, I analyzed spatially resolved maps for the observed  $V$ - and  $g$ -band to  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  flux ratios and the inferred dust-extinction values  $A_V$  for a sample of 257 nearby galaxies. Flux ratio maps are constructed using point-spread function-matched mosaics of Sloan Digital Sky Survey  $g$ - and  $r$ -band images and *Spitzer*/InfraRed Array Camera  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  mosaics, with all of the pixels contaminated by foreground stars or background objects masked out. Dust-extinction maps for each galaxy were created by applying the  $\beta_V$ -method. The typical  $1\sigma$  scatter in  $\beta_V$  around the average, both within a galaxy and in each morphological type bin, is  $\sim 20\%$ . Combined, these result in a  $\sim 0.4$  mag scatter in  $A_V$ .  $\beta_V$  becomes insensitive to small-scale variations in stellar populations once resolution elements subtend an area larger than 10 times that of a typical giant molecular cloud. I find noticeably redder  $V\text{--}3.6 \mu\text{m}$  colors in the center of star-forming galaxies and galaxies with a weak AGN. The derived intrinsic  $V\text{--}3.6 \mu\text{m}$  colors for each Hubble type are generally consistent with the modeling. Finally, I discuss the applicability of the  $\beta_V$  dust-correction method to more distant galaxies, for which large samples of

well-matched *Hubble Space Telescope* rest-frame visible and *James Webb Space Telescope* rest-frame  $\sim 3.5\mu\text{m}$  images will become available in the near future.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

- ACS - Advanced Camera for Surveys
- AGN - Active Galactic Nuclei
- ASCII - American Standard Code for Information Interchange
- B/T - Bulge-to-Total light ratio
- BC03 - Bruzual and Charlot (2003)
- BCD - Blue Compact Dwarf
- BPT - Baldwin *et al.* (1981)
- CALIFA - Calar Alto Legacy Integral Field Area (Sánchez *et al.*, 2012)
- CANDELS - Cosmic Assembly Near-infrared Deep Extragalactic Legacy Survey
- CLASH - Cluster Lensing And Supernova Survey
- COSMOS - The Cosmic Evolution Survey
- CSP - Composite Stellar Population
- DR - Data Release
- ETG - Early-Type Galaxy
- ERS - Early Release Science
- FITS - Flexible Image Transport System
- FOV - Field Of View
- FWHM - Full-Width at Half Maximum
- GALEX* - *GALaxy Evolution eXplorer*
- GD15 - González Delgado *et al.* (2015)
- GOODS - Great Observatories Origins Deep Survey
- HLR - Half-Light Radius
- HST* - *Hubble Space Telescope*

IFU - Integral Field Unit

IGM - Inter-Galactic Medium

IMF - Initial Mass Function

IPAC - Infrared Processing and Analysis Center

IR - InfraRed

IRAC - InfraRed Array Camera

*IRAS - InfraRed Astronomical Satellite*

ISM - InterStellar Medium

*ISO - Infrared Space Observatory*

*JWST - James Webb Space Telescope*

K17 - Kim *et al.* (2017)

K19 - Kim *et al.* (2019)

LERG - Low-Excitation Radio Galaxy

LINER - Low-Ionization Nuclear Emission-line Region

LIRG - Luminous InfraRed Galaxy

LMC - Large Magellanic Cloud

LTG - Late-Type Galaxy

MIR - Mid-InfraRed

MIRI - Mid-InfraRed Instrument

MW - Milky Way

NASA - National Aeronautics and Space Administration

NED - NASA/IPAC Extragalactic Database

NGC - New General Catalogue

NIR - Near-InfraRed

NIRCam - Near-InfraRed Camera

NLAGN - Narrow-Line AGN

NLRG - Narrow emission-Line Radio Galaxy

PA - Position Angle

PAH - Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbon

pCCD - Pixel Color-Color Diagram

PNG - Portable Network Graphics

PSF - Point-Spread Function

RC3 - The third Reference Catalogue of Bright Galaxies (de Vaucouleurs *et al.*, 1991)

RMS - Root Mean Square

RSG - Red SuperGiant

S18 - Steinicke (2018); Revised NGC/IC Catalog

S/N - Signal-to-Noise ratio

SB99 - Starburst99 (Leitherer *et al.*, 1999)

SDSS - Sloan Digital Sky Survey

SED - Spectral Energy Distribution

SEIP - *Spitzer* Enhanced Imaging Product

SHA - *Spitzer* Heritage Archive

SMC - Small Magellanic Cloud

sSFR - specific SFR

SSP - Simple (or Single) Stellar Population

SF - Star Formation

SFH - Star Formation History

SFR - Star Formation Rate

UV - UltraViolet

UVIS - UV/VISible

WFC - Wide Field Camera

WISE - Wide-field Infrared Survey Explorer

$\Lambda$ CDM - Lambda Cold Dark Matter

# Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 What Do We Know About Galaxies?

According to the standard  $\Lambda$  CDM model of cosmology, the universe started from a minuscule dot followed by rapid expansion (Planck Collaboration *et al.*, 2016). When the temperature cooled down to below 4000 K by expanding to the size of  $\sim 1/1400$  of the current universe, free electrons started to be captured by protons (Ryden, 2003). Expansion itself also decreased free electron density. Photons could travel freely without being scattered by free electrons. Being that the outward pressure created by photon-matter interactions was relieved, matters started to collapse inward gravitationally. The energy density of the dark matter was three times larger than the one of the photons, electrons, and protons together (Ryden, 2003). Acoustic oscillations of the photon-baryon fluid by the non-uniform dark matter density were frozen by sudden decoupling of the photons. Baryonic matters fell to troughs of these density fluctuations and formed stars, black holes, and galaxies.

A galaxy is a gravitationally bound system that consists of dark matters, stars, gas, and dust. The galaxy we live in, the Milky Way, houses 200 billions of stars (Gott *et al.*, 2005) in a disk with a thickness and a diameter corresponding to 2,000 (Rix and Bovy, 2013) and 200,000 light years (López-Corredoira, M. *et al.*, 2018), respectively. Ten times more galaxies can be found elsewhere in the universe than the number of stars in the Milky Way galaxies ( $\sim 2$  trillion; Conselice *et al.*, 2016).

Edwin Hubble morphologically classified galaxies based on the structural forms of photographic images (Hubble, 1926). Astronomers still use his scheme (see Figure 1.1). The Milky

# *Edwin Hubble's Classification Scheme*

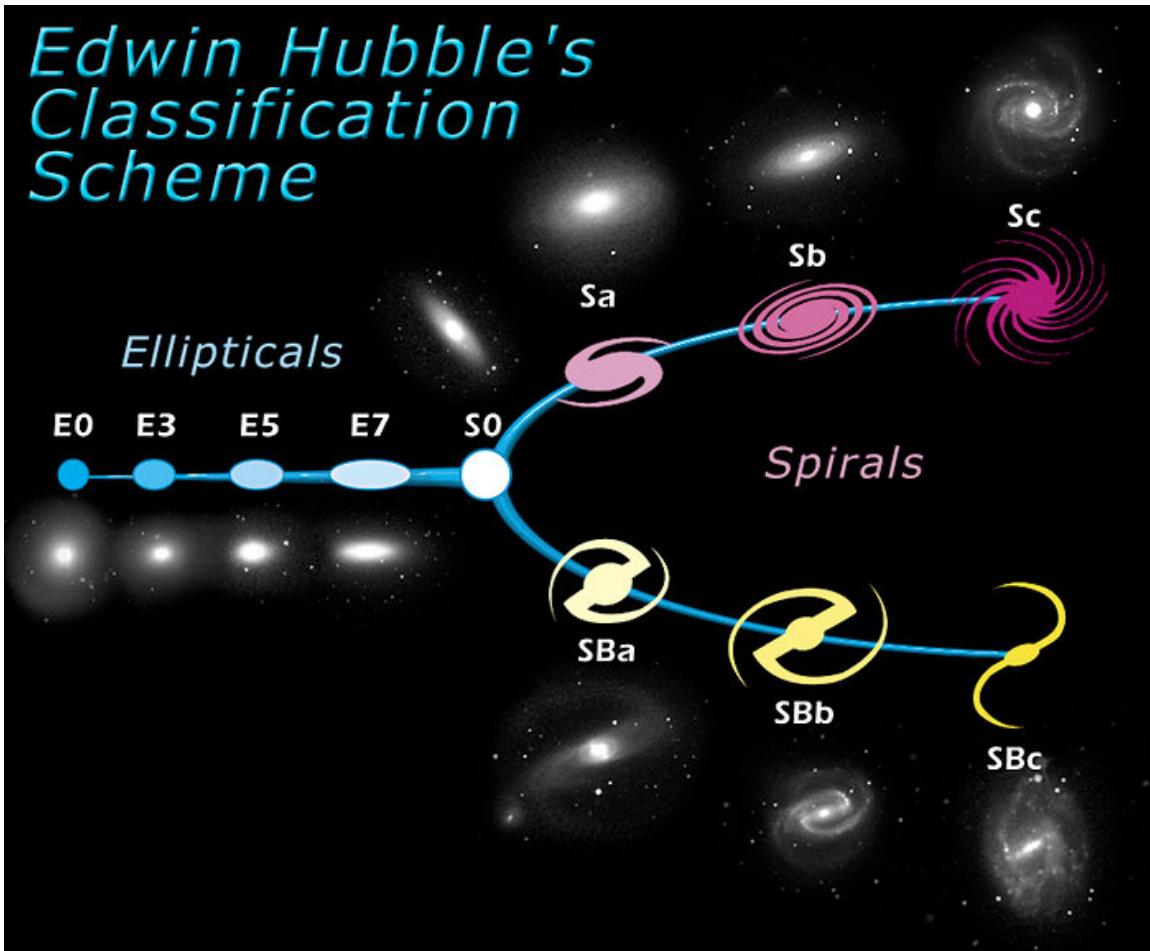


Figure 1.1: Morphological classification of galaxies by Hubble (1926) (Source: Wikipedia)

Way is a barred spiral galaxy “SBbc” type. Hubble (1926) thought elliptical galaxies formed first and evolved into spiral galaxies, so he called ellipticals “early types” and spirals “late types.” Indeed, elliptical galaxies have older and redder stellar populations whereas thin-disky galaxies like Milky Way have younger and bluer stellar populations (Humason *et al.*, 1956). Nonetheless, there is no evidence that ellipticals evolve into spirals; in contrast, there are many pieces of counter evidence showing spirals merging and becoming ellipticals (Toomre, 1977; Kim and Im, 2013). As a matter of convention, astronomers still refer to ellipticals as early-type and spirals as late-type galaxies, and I will also follow this tradition throughout this dissertation.

## 1.2 Extinction by Interstellar Dust Hampers Studies of Galaxies

Dust in the interstellar medium (ISM) of galaxies effectively scatters or absorbs light at shorter wavelengths, such as UV and visible photons, and reradiates the absorbed energy in the far-infrared (see Figure 1.2; e.g., Buat and Xu, 1996; Charlot and Fall, 2000; Dale *et al.*, 2001; Bell *et al.*, 2002; Panuzzo *et al.*, 2003; Boissier *et al.*, 2004; Buat *et al.*, 2005). Accordingly, dust transforms the shape of the galaxy spectral energy distributions (SEDs), making it harder to study the intrinsic properties of astronomical sources (e.g., Trumpler, 1930; Mathis *et al.*, 1977; Viallefond *et al.*, 1982; Caplan and Deharveng, 1985, 1986; Roussel *et al.*, 2005; Driver *et al.*, 2008). Our rest-frame UV–visible view of distant galaxies is therefore modulated by dust extinction. The level of extinction varies across the face of a galaxy (Kreckel *et al.*, 2013) and differs from galaxy to galaxy. As a result, our interpretation of the distribution, evolution, and properties of stellar populations within a galaxy is significantly influenced by the intervening dust (e.g., Elmegreen, 1980; Kennicutt *et al.*, 2009). SED information across a wide frequency range can be used to infer the nature of the emitting source, and simultaneously the effect of the intervening ISM along the line of sight (e.g., Lindblad, 1941; Elmegreen, 1980; Walterbos and Kennicutt, 1988; Waller *et al.*, 1992; Witt *et al.*, 1992; Calzetti *et al.*, 1994; Boselli *et al.*, 2003; Deo *et al.*, 2006).

In order to directly account for the transformation of the SED of a galaxy or region therein by dust, it would be especially helpful to have UV data accompanied by far-infrared data (25–350  $\mu\text{m}$ ) at the same angular resolution (Calzetti *et al.*, 2000; Bell *et al.*, 2002; Boselli *et al.*, 2003; Boissier *et al.*, 2004; Buat *et al.*, 2005), UV to far-infrared multi-wavelength data in combination with SED fitting (Conroy, 2013, and references therein), or a full radiative transfer analysis (Steinacker *et al.*, 2013, and references therein). The Earth’s atmosphere, however, is mostly opaque to the far-infrared (Elsasser, 1938), necessitating the use of space telescopes

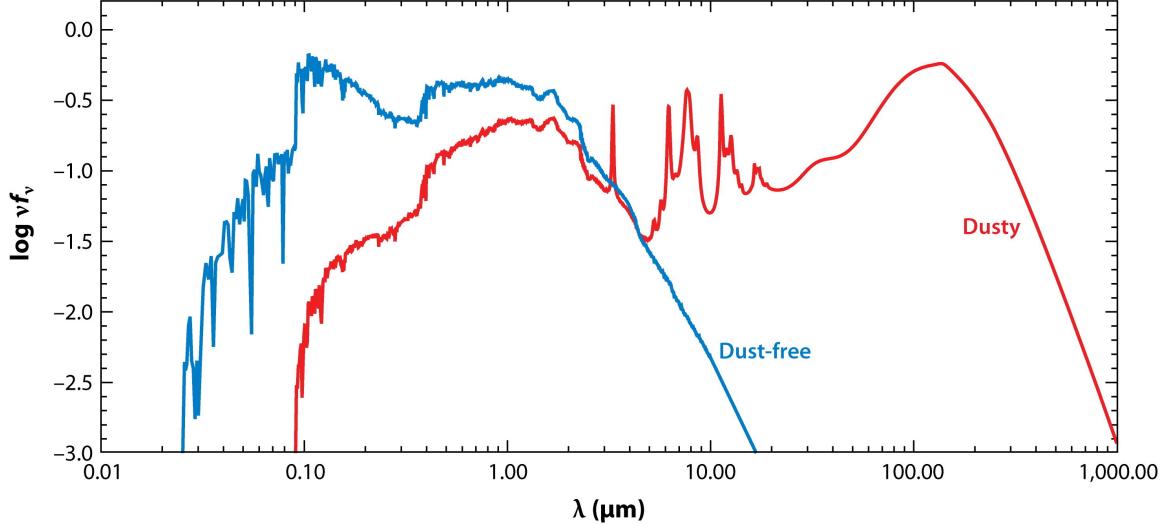


Figure 1.2: The UV–near-infrared range of an intrinsic galaxy SED as emitted by its stars (blue) is scattered and absorbed, and the absorbed energy is reradiated in the far-infrared (red). Image credit: Conroy (2013)

like *IRAS* (Neugebauer *et al.*, 1984), *ISO* (Kessler *et al.*, 1996), *Spitzer* (Werner *et al.*, 2004), and *Herschel* (Pilbratt, 2004; Kreckel *et al.*, 2013). Even then, it is challenging to build and operate far-infrared detector arrays, and for a given telescope aperture, the spatial resolution is  $\sim$ 40–800 times worse than in the optical (Xu and Helou, 1996; Price *et al.*, 2002). For these reasons, shorter wavelength data have been used in various ways to correct for extinction by dust in many studies (e.g., Lindblad, 1941; Rudy, 1984; Calzetti *et al.*, 1994; Petersen and Gammelgaard, 1997; Meurer *et al.*, 1999; Scoville *et al.*, 2001; Bell *et al.*, 2002; Kong *et al.*, 2004; Maíz-Apellániz *et al.*, 2004; Calzetti *et al.*, 2005; Relaño *et al.*, 2006; Kennicutt *et al.*, 2009), each with their own advantages and disadvantages (see, e.g., Tamura *et al.*, 2009). One can correct for the effects of extinction by dust in HII regions within a galaxy, provided that suitable tracers exist, such as hydrogen recombination lines (e.g., Kreckel *et al.*, 2013) or helium recombination lines (Leitherer *et al.*, 2019).

### 1.3 The $\beta_V$ Method, “An Approximate Method to Correct for Extinction”

Tamura *et al.* (2009, 2010) developed a simple, approximate, extinction-correction method, dubbed the “ $\beta_V$  method,” which uses spatially-resolved surface photometry in two broadband filters at optical ( $\lambda > 4000\text{\AA}$ ; e.g.,  $f_V$ ) and mid-infrared (MIR)  $L$ -band ( $\sim 3.5 \mu\text{m}$ ) rest-frame wavelengths, respectively. The  $\beta_V$  method is primarily intended for the study of large numbers of spatially resolved galaxies at low to intermediate redshifts ( $0.1 \lesssim z \lesssim 2$ ), for which multi-wavelength observations are too expensive and approximate dust corrections may still present a marked improvement over ignoring the effects of extinction altogether, or over adopting a single number as a canonical extinction value for a given galaxy. In particular, Tamura *et al.* (2009) applied the  $\beta_V$  method to one nearby late-type spiral galaxy, NGC 959, by using  $V$ -band images obtained from the ground and  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  images from space, and using ancillary far-and near-UV images from *GALEX* in order to better distinguish pixels dominated by younger stellar populations from those dominated by older ones. From an analysis of the histogram of the observed pixel flux ratios, they adopted values of 1.10 for “older” pixels and 1.32 for “younger” pixels for the extinction-free  $V$  to  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  flux ratio,  $\beta_{V,0}$ . By doing so, they were able to map the extinction across NGC 959, and obtain extinction-corrected images in which they discerned a hitherto unrecognized stellar bar. The  $\beta_{V,0}$  values that they used for older pixels were consistent with the  $0.5 \lesssim \beta_{V,0} \lesssim 2$  derived from the theoretical SED models for SSPs of Anders and Fritze-von Alvensleben (2003). The  $\beta_{V,0}$  values for younger pixels, on the other hand, were significantly smaller than those expected from theory ( $4 \lesssim \beta_{V,0} \lesssim 7$ ). The authors argued that the blending of light from underlying and neighboring older stellar populations was the likely origin of this discrepancy. This effect will be resolution-dependent and hence redshift-dependent because the poor spatial resolution will mix the light from a larger area within a galaxy.

Tamura *et al.* (2010) demonstrated that a pixel-to-pixel extinction correction based on the “ $\beta_V$  method” reveals galactic structures (both spatially, and in terms of a shared star formation history). Tamura *et al.* (2010) divided pixels of NGC 0959 into six groups based on the extinction-corrected pixel color ( $B - 3.6\mu\text{m}$ )-color (FUV –  $U$ ) diagrams (pCCDs). Tamura *et al.* (2010) found six groups on pCCDs would not be readily discernible before the extinction correction, and locations of them on the galactic region are spatially coherent in the pixel coordinate map.

#### 1.4 Extended Modeling and Evaluation of The $\beta_V$ Method

Tamura *et al.* (2009) empirically adopted the  $2\sigma$ -clipped mean (1.10) and the mode (1.32) of  $\beta_V$  values in older and younger pixels for their  $\beta_{V,0}$  values, respectively. This was based on assumptions that the dust affects younger pixels more and is usually concentrated in relatively small regions so that the peak  $\beta_V$  value would be the extinction-free flux ratio for the younger pixels.

I extend the “ $\beta_V$  method” to the “ $\beta_\lambda$  method” by modeling the intrinsic  $L$  band to visible–NIR flux ratios using spectral synthesis models of CSP (see § 2), and compare with the observation at redshifts  $z \simeq 0$  by analyzing the spatially-resolved  $V - 3.6\mu\text{m}$  colors and dust extinction in 257 nearby NGC and IC galaxies (see § 3).

The result will be relevant, particularly, for future surveys of intermediate-redshift ( $z \lesssim 2$ ) galaxies that combine images from the *James Webb Space Telescope* (*JWST*; Gardner *et al.*, 2006) and the *Hubble Space Telescope* (*HST*) at rest-frame  $\sim 3.5\mu\text{m}$  and visible–near-IR wavelengths, respectively. As the spatial resolution ( $\propto \lambda/D$ ) of images from *JWST*/NIRCam at  $3.5\mu\text{m}$  will be comparable to that of *HST*/ACS WFC and WFC3 UVIS in  $V$  to within a factor 2.5, combining rest-frame *JWST*  $\sim 3.5\mu\text{m}$  and rest-frame *HST*  $V$ -band observations would

extend the ‘ $\beta_V$  method’ from a redshift of  $z \simeq 0$  to redshifts  $z \lesssim 2$ . With suitably chosen filter pairs and the previously computed intrinsic flux ratios, one could then approximately correct the surface photometry of large samples of galaxies for dust extinction.

## 1.5 Outline of This Dissertation

In Chapter 2, which was originally published in The Astrophysical Journal as Kim *et al.* (2017, hereafter K17), I describe how I analyzed the intrinsic mid-IR  $L$  band to visible-NIR flux ratios  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  in spectral synthesis models of composite stellar populations. The main results are: 1) Taking metallicity evolution into account results in significantly higher  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values at higher redshifts. 2) The  $\beta_V$  method can infer  $A_V$  to a level of fidelity that is comparable to that of more established methods. All code, models, and a set of distinguishable spectral-energy distributions of simple-stellar populations are available online via <http://lambda.la.asu.edu/betav/>.

In Chapter 3, which was originally published in The Astrophysical Journal as Kim *et al.* (2019, hereafter K19), I describe how I analyzed the spatially resolved  $V$ - $3.6\,\mu\text{m}$  colors and dust extinction in 257 nearby NGC and IC galaxies. The main results are: 1) The  $\beta_{V,0}$  values from Chapter 2 were confirmed by matching the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values at a redshift of  $z \simeq 0$  to those derived from the observation. For future reference, I also provide an atlas of 257 galaxies in Appendix C and D.

Last, In Chapter 4, I give a summary of my major findings and a short outline of future work and applications of the  $\beta_V$  method.

I adopt the Planck 2015 (Planck Collaboration *et al.* 2016) cosmology with ( $H_0 = 67.8\,\text{km}\,\text{s}^{-1}\,\text{Mpc}^{-1}$ ;  $\Omega_m = 0.308$ ;  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.692$ ), and I will use AB magnitudes (Oke 1974; Oke & Gunn 1983) throughout.

## Chapter 2

# ANALYSIS OF THE INTRINSIC MID-INFRARED $L$ BAND TO VISIBLE–NEAR-INFRARED FLUX RATIOS IN SPECTRAL SYNTHESIS MODELS OF COMPOSITE STELLAR POPULATIONS

In order to place the “ $\beta_V$  method” on a more secure theoretical footing, I build a library of SEDs by stacking the SEDs of SSPs—spectral snapshots of a coeval stellar population—for stellar populations with large ensembles of stochastic SFHs, various metallicities, and ages, in order to quantify how the intrinsic optical to mid-IR flux ratio,  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ , will vary. The SFHs are designed to reproduce the mean observed SFH as a function of morphological class, assuming open-box metallicity evolution. All the work in this chapter is published in K17.

### 2.1 SED Models

#### 2.1.1 Combining the SSP Model SEDs of Starburst99 and BC03

The first step of my computational analysis is to build a large family of SSP model SEDs. Each SSP represents a single generation of stars of the same age and chemical composition, with stellar masses that were distributed according to an adopted IMF (Salpeter, 1955; Kroupa, 2002; Chabrier, 2003) at birth. There are several stellar population synthesis codes available in the literature (e.g., Fioc and Rocca-Volmerange, 1997; Leitherer *et al.*, 1999; Bruzual and Charlot, 2003; Maraston, 2005; Vazdekis *et al.*, 2010). I select Starburst99 (Leitherer *et al.*, 1999; Vázquez and Leitherer, 2005) for very young ( $\lesssim 30$  Myr) stellar populations, as the stellar evolutionary tracks of the Geneva group (Schaller *et al.*, 1992; Schaerer *et al.*, 1993b,a;

Charbonnel *et al.*, 1993; Meynet *et al.*, 1994) adopted by Starburst99 are optimized for massive young stars, and include, e.g., the Wolf-Rayet phase. Starburst99 also includes the nebular continuum from the gas enshrouding the stellar populations, as is the general case for newborn and young stars. On the other hand, the stellar evolutionary tracks of the Padova group (Girardi *et al.*, 2000; Marigo *et al.*, 2008) are a good match to observations of intermediate- and low-mass stars that dominate older stellar populations (Vázquez and Leitherer, 2005). I therefore adopt the Padova1994 tracks in BC03 (Bruzual and Charlot, 2003) for older ( $\gtrsim$ 100 Myr) stellar populations. Below, I describe how I combine the two sets of SED models into a database that can be used for stellar populations of any age. The age grid of the BC03 code is fixed as 221 logarithmic steps between  $10^5$  and  $10^{10}$  years. In the Starburst99 code, however, the user can specify the age step and scale, so I set 1000 logarithmic time steps between  $10^6$  and  $10^{10}$  years to provide a finer grid than BC03. For both codes, I adopted a Salpeter (1955) stellar IMF, with a power-law slope of  $-2.35$ , and with minimum and maximum stellar masses of  $0.1$  and  $100 M_\odot$ . Each code has a different set of metallicities:  $Z = 0.001, 0.004, 0.008, 0.02$ , and  $0.04$  for Starburst99 and  $Z = 0.0001, 0.0004, 0.004, 0.008, 0.02$ , and  $0.05$  for BC03. I extrapolate the Starburst99 SEDs to match the metallicities of BC03 using the method described in the following. For each code, I log-exponentially extrapolated in  $[Z] = \log_{10}(Z/Z_\odot)$  (where  $Z_\odot = 0.02$ ) from the two SEDs that are closest in metallicity to the desired value. For example, to obtain my  $Z = 0.0004$  SED in Starburst99, I combined SEDs for  $Z = 0.001$  and  $Z = 0.004$  in Starburst99 with relative weights of  $1.40$  and  $-0.40$ , which are derived from  $F_1 = (F_2 - w \cdot F_3)/(1 - w)$ , where  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ , and  $F_3$  denote the logarithm of the wavelength-dependent flux densities of SEDs with metallicities of  $Z_1$ ,  $Z_2$ , and  $Z_3$  (with  $Z_1 < Z_2 < Z_3$ ), and where the weight  $w = (e^{Z_2} - e^{Z_1})/(e^{Z_3} - e^{Z_1})$ . Similarly, when interpolating  $F_2$  into  $F_1$  and  $F_3$ , I use  $F_2 = (1 - w) \cdot F_1 + w \cdot F_3$ . Note that the SEDs  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ , and  $F_3$  and metallicities

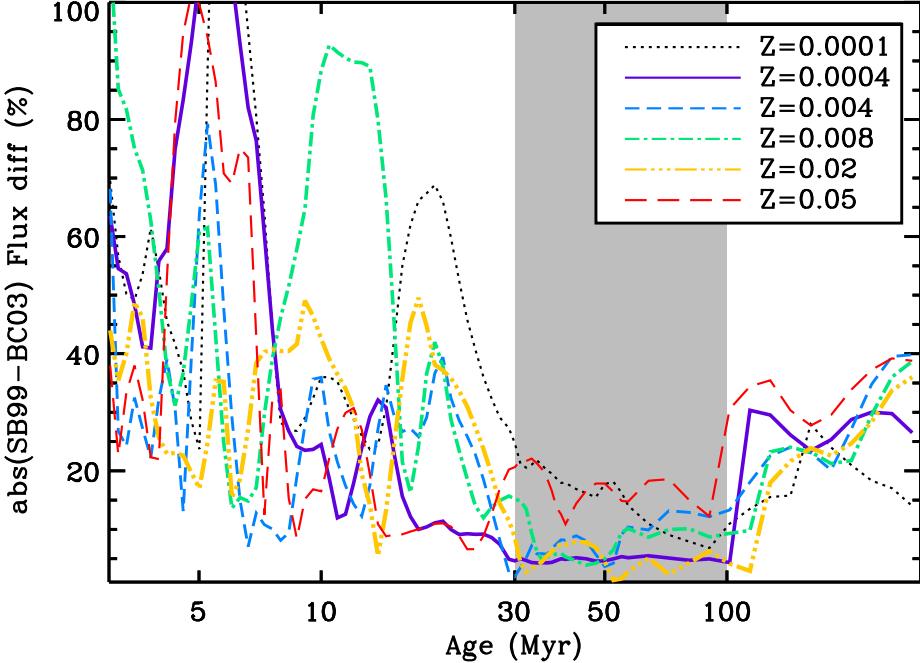


Figure 2.1: Integrated absolute flux difference over the 0.4–3.75  $\mu\text{m}$  wavelength range between Starburst99 and BC03 SEDs (see Equation 2.1) as a function of SSP age for various metallicities. There is no specific age where both codes converge on an identical SED, but the percentage difference reaches a general minimum between  $\sim 30$  and  $\sim 100$  Myr, where they are mostly  $\lesssim 10\%$ .

$Z_1$ ,  $Z_2$ , and  $Z_3$  are in log scale, with the latter all known (e.g., 0.0004, 0.001, and 0.004 giving  $w = 0.285$  in the example).

For intermediate ages ( $30 \lesssim \text{Age} \lesssim 100$  Myr), I interpolate the results of the two codes onto the BC03 Age grid as follows. To minimize discontinuities and sudden changes of SEDs for intermediate ages, I inspected the integrated absolute flux differences between Starburst99 and BC03 SEDs over the 0.4–3.75  $\mu\text{m}$  wavelength range (the relevant range for the  $\beta_V$  method). This quantity is for a given age given by

$$\frac{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} |F_{SB99}(\lambda) - F_{BC03}(\lambda)|}{0.5 \left( \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} F_{SB99}(\lambda) + \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} F_{BC03}(\lambda) \right)}, \quad (2.1)$$

with  $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = (0.4, 3.75) \mu\text{m}$ , and its dependence on age and metallicity is shown in Figure 2.1.

Table 2.1: Transition Age Range Adopted when Combining Starburst99 and BC03 Stellar Population Synthesis Model SEDs for Various Metallicities,  $Z$ .

$Z$	Age Range (Myr)	Min. Diff. (%)	Max. Diff. (%)	Mean Diff. (%)	RMS (%)
0.0001	30–100	7	25	17	5.0
0.0004	30–100	4	5	5	0.3
0.004	30–100	2	13	7	3.0
0.008	30–100	4	15	8	3.3
0.02	30–100	1	9	5	2.1
0.05	30–100	11	22	17	3.2

Note. Minimum, maximum, and mean relative flux differences of the two SEDs in the transition age range, and rms thereof are also tabulated.

Table 2.1 lists the minimum, maximum, mean, and rms differences. At 30 Myr, 100% of the Starburst99 SED and 0% of the BC03 SED is used, and the contributions are linearly reduced (increased) to 0% (100%) at 100 Myr. Interpolating using  $\log(\text{Age})$  instead of Age yields nearly identical results, since the age ranges are relatively narrow.

Figure 2.2 shows examples of the combined SSP SEDs for six metallicities and 16 ages. I use this set of ages and metallicities when we calculate the  $L$  band to visible–near-IR flux ratios of stellar populations with various SFHs described in § 2.2. I also use the same parameter set when I select a manageably small but comprehensive set of SSP SEDs, which I extend with additional extinction-related parameters in Appendix A.

### 2.1.2 SFH, Metallicity Evolution, and Construction of CSP SEDs

Whereas an SSP consists of purely coeval stars, realistic star formation within galaxies is characterized by stochastic and/or temporally extended, possibly spatially propagating, episodes of star formation. The CSP of a larger region within a galaxy therefore effectively records its SFH. If I denote that SFH as the time-dependent star formation rate,  $\psi(t)$ , and the

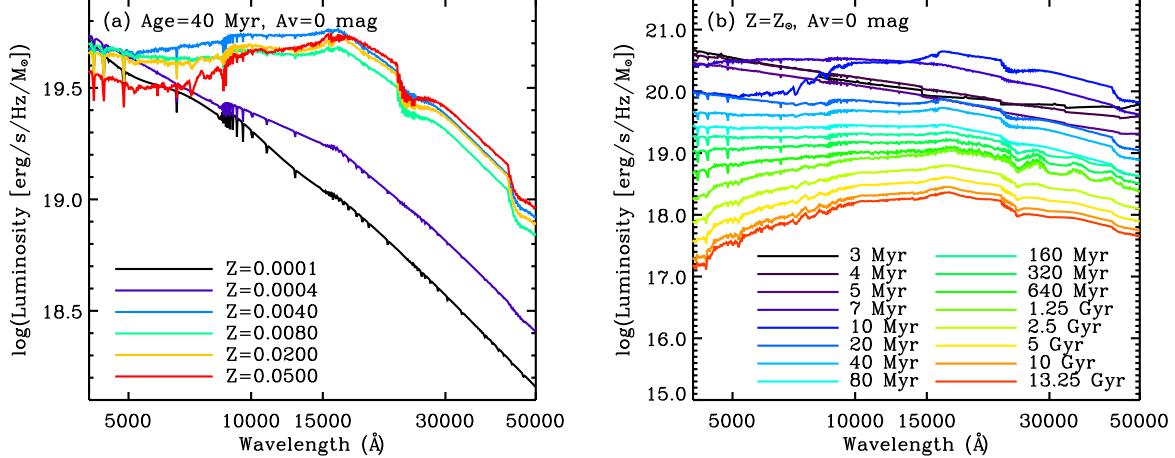


Figure 2.2: Examples of my adopted combined array of SSP SEDs. (a) SEDs for a 40 Myr old stellar population, for six different metallicities and no extinction; (b) SEDs for 16 different ages with fixed solar metallicity ( $Z_{\odot} = 0.02$ ) and zero extinction.

SED of an SSP as a function of its age,  $t$ , and metallicity,  $Z$ , by  $F_{\lambda,SSP}(t, Z)$ , then I can express the SED of a CSP as the superposition of multiple SSPs:

$$F_{\lambda,CSP}(t, Z) = \sum_{t'=t_0}^t F_{\lambda,SSP}(t - t', Z(t')) \psi(t') \delta t', \quad (2.2)$$

where  $F_{\lambda,SSP}$  is derived by interpolating my combined SSP SEDs to generate a set of SEDs with 28 logarithmic steps in metallicity (between  $Z = 0.0001$  and  $Z = 0.05$ ) and 1000 logarithmic steps in Age (between  $t = 1$  Myr and  $t = 13.8$  Gyr),  $Z(t')$  is used to explicitly denote the time-dependence of the metallicity, and  $t_0$  denotes the time of the first episode of star formation. The metallicity at time step  $t'$  results from metal-enriched gas returned to the ISM by stars from previous generations of stellar populations, and from the accretion of gas from other nearby galaxies or from the inter-galactic medium and circum-galactic medium (whether more enriched, or diluted) by the end of time step  $(t - \delta t)$ . Note that this implies that the metallicity of the resulting CSP differs from that of the metallicity of (most of) its constituent SSPs, and that the chemical evolution of the CSP will not be entirely self-consistent with the choice of the SFH. It does account, however, for the open-box, rather than closed-box, nature of a galaxy or galaxy region in an empirical way. I return to the functional form of  $Z(t')$  shortly.

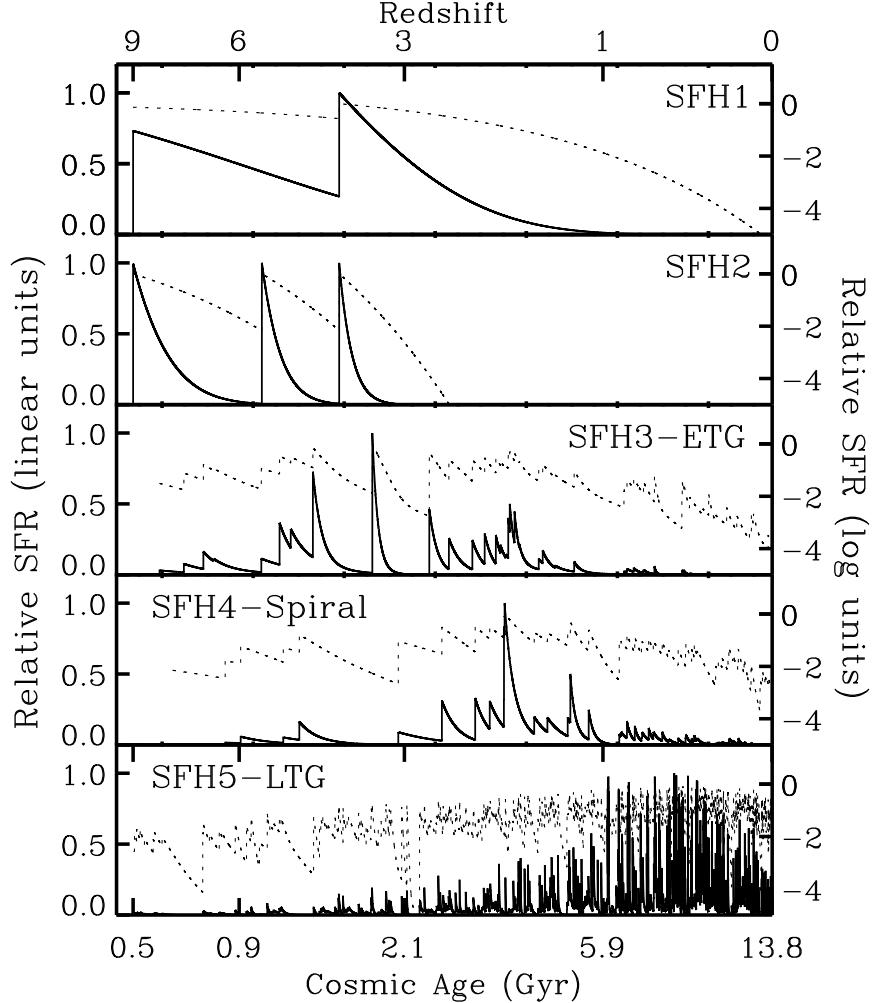


Figure 2.3: Examples of 5 arbitrary scenarios of stochastic SFHs. Relative star formation rates ( $\psi$ , normalized to the peak of the strongest star formation episode) are plotted as a function of cosmic time (bottom axis) and redshift (top axis) in both linear (solid curves; left axis) and logarithmic (dotted; right axis) units. SFH1 and 2 represent the cases of two and three bursts with long (1 Gyr) and shorter (0.5 Gyr)  $e$ -folding times, respectively. SFH3, 4, and 5 represent simulated CSPs of early-type (E, S0), spiral (Sa–Sbc) and late-type (Sc, Sd) galaxies, respectively.

I started by building CSP SEDs for stellar populations with exponentially declining SFRs,  $\psi(t) = \psi_0 e^{-t/\tau}$  for various values of the  $e$ -folding time  $\tau$  (100, 250, 500 Myrs, 1, 2, 5, and 10 Gyr, where the latter two approach the case of a *constant* SFR). Note that for these exponentially declining SFHs, which were merely meant to test the effect of combining SSPs of different ages, I did not yet take metallicity evolution into account. I then produced SEDs for

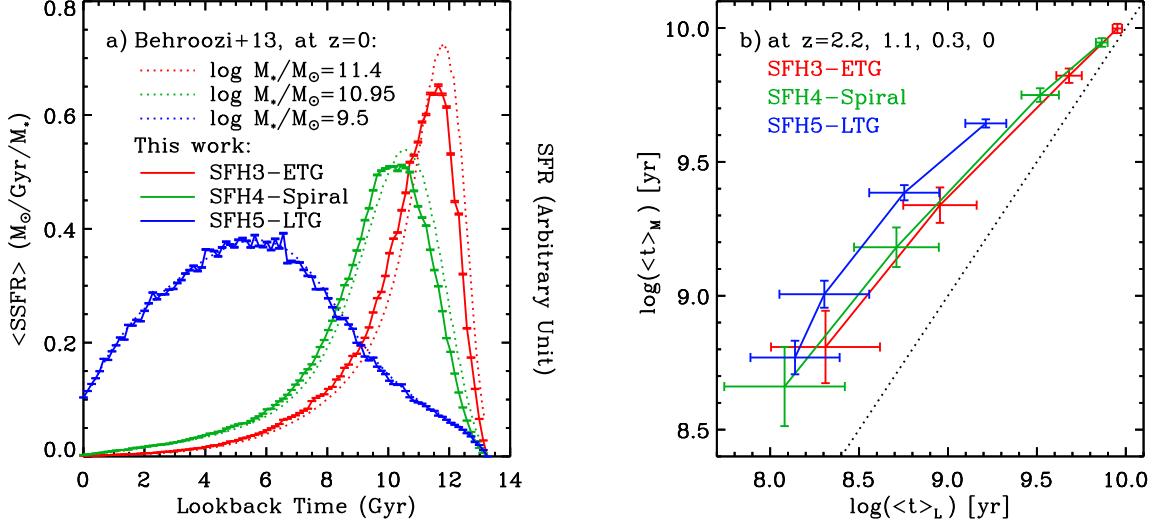


Figure 2.4: (a) Specific SFR versus lookback time for my families of stochastic SFHs. I show the mean and standard deviation of the mean SFR normalized by the total stellar mass built up at  $z=0$  for 1000 random realizations each of SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5 (solid distributions). The dotted curves represent the models of Behroozi et al. (2013) for present-day stellar masses of  $2.5 \times 10^{11}$ ,  $8.9 \times 10^{10}$ , and  $3.1 \times 10^9 M_\odot$ , representative of early-type (E), spiral (Sb), and late-type (Sd) galaxies, respectively. (b) Mean and scatter of the light- and mass-weighted ages of my stochastic SFHs at redshifts of 0 (upper right), 0.3, 1.1, and 2.2 (lower left). The mass-weighted ages are always larger than the light-weighted ones, but the gap between them decreases from redshift  $z=2$  to the present ( $z=0$ ).

more realistic stochastic SFHs, built from multiple, partially overlapping exponentially declining starbursts with onset times  $t_{0,i}$ ,  $e$ -folding time  $\tau_i$ , and peak amplitude  $\psi_{0,i}$  from

$$\psi(t) = \sum_i^n \psi_{0,i} e^{-(t-t_{0,i})/\tau_i}. \quad (2.3)$$

I adopt five different families of stochastic SFHs (five examples of which are shown in Figure 2.3). SFH1 and SFH2 are simple test cases with  $n=2$  long ( $\tau_i=1$  Gyr) and  $n=3$  short ( $\tau_i=100$  Myr) bursts, respectively. For each of SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5, I randomly generated 1000 stochastic composite SFHs by combining multiple exponentially declining starbursts with different constraints in order to simulate galaxies of different (Hubble) types and present-day stellar masses. For SFH3, I restrict  $e$ -folding times  $\tau_i$  to  $50 \text{ Myr} < \tau_i < 1 \text{ Gyr}$ , for SFH4  $100 \text{ Myr} < \tau_i < 500 \text{ Myr}$ , and for SFH5 to  $5 \text{ Myr} < \tau_i < 100 \text{ Myr}$ , representative of likely starbursts in early-type, spiral, and late-type galaxies. The mean  $e$ -folding times are  $\sim 300$  Myr,

Table 2.2: Log-linear Metallicity Evolution Parameters, Fit to the Results of Maiolino *et al.* (2008) Combined with My Stochastic SFHs

$\log M/M_\odot$	SFH3-ETG		SFH4-Spiral		SFH5-LTG	
	$a$	$b$	$a$	$b$	$a$	$b$
9.50	-0.37	0.25	-0.49	0.29	(-0.58)	0.22
10.95	-0.23	0.49	(-0.30)	0.52	-0.36	0.50
11.40	(-0.18)	0.49	-0.24	0.52	-0.30	0.51

Note. I approximate that evolution by  $\log Z(z) = a \cdot z + b$ . The rms of the fit in each of  $a$  and  $b$  is  $< 0.01$ . I adopt the slopes in parentheses: -0.18 for SFH3, -0.30 for SFH4, and -0.58 for SFH5.

$\sim 250$  Myr, and  $\sim 30$  Myr, respectively. I then estimate the number of starburst episodes required for each SFH family by dividing the Hubble time (13.8 Gyr) by these mean  $e$ -folding times, giving 44, 53, and 427 for SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5.

I furthermore adopt the model SFHs of Behroozi *et al.* (2013) to define constraints for my mean starburst amplitudes  $\psi_{0,i}$  as a function of time of onset  $t_{0,i}$ . I chose model SFHs resulting in present-day stellar masses of  $2.5 \times 10^{11}$ ,  $8.9 \times 10^{10}$ , and  $3.1 \times 10^9 M_\odot$  ( $\log(M/M_\odot)$ ) of 11.4, 10.95, and 9.5 for SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5, respectively, to match the distribution of stellar masses for Hubble types E, Sb, and Sd found by GD15 in the CALIFA IFU survey of 300 local galaxies (see their Figure 2). Figure 2.4a compares the mean sSFRs as a function of lookback time for each of my SFH families and for the corresponding Behroozi *et al.* (2013) models. For SFH3, I find that the results shown in Figure 2.4a are sensitive to the choice of lower bound on  $\tau_i$ , such that for longer minimum burst durations I would fail to reproduce the steep rise and relatively fast decline in SF for massive (early-type) galaxies in the Behroozi *et al.* (2013) models. The resulting SF peak is reached at  $z = 3.0$  for SFH3, at  $z = 2.1$  for SFH4, and at  $z = 0.6$  for SFH5.

For all CSPs constructed as described above, the normalization of the SFH is such that  $\sum \psi(t') \delta t' = M$ , the total mass in stars formed up to the present time, which will be higher than the current stellar mass because of mass returned by stellar winds and supernova explosions,

Table 2.3: The Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum and Maximum of  $\beta_{V,0}$  Values Inferred for our SSPs and CSPs with Exponentially Declining SFHs (2nd column in Figure 2.5) for all  $Z$ , and Separately for  $Z=0.004$ ,  $Z=0.008$ , and  $Z=Z_\odot=0.02$ , Respectively

SFH	0.0001 $\leq Z \leq 0.05$			$Z = 0.004$			$Z = 0.008$			$Z = 0.02$		
	$\langle \beta_{V,0} \rangle$	Min	Max	$\langle \beta_{V,0} \rangle$	Min	Max	$\langle \beta_{V,0} \rangle$	Min	Max	$\langle \beta_{V,0} \rangle$	Min	Max
SSP	3.84±3.57	0.10	23.64	3.06±2.10	1.03	8.99	2.41±1.65	0.73	7.79	2.06±1.67	0.37	7.77
$\tau=100$ Myr	2.74±1.37	0.35	6.05	2.67±1.22	1.04	4.71	2.13±0.89	0.73	3.89	1.86±0.92	0.55	4.13
$\tau=250$ Myr	2.80±1.36	0.35	5.88	2.75±1.20	1.04	4.67	2.18±0.87	0.73	3.87	1.90±0.90	0.55	4.11
$\tau=500$ Myr	2.85±1.35	0.35	5.82	2.82±1.17	1.04	4.65	2.22±0.85	0.73	3.86	1.93±0.84	0.56	4.11
$\tau=1$ Gyr	2.92±1.33	0.36	5.78	2.88±1.13	1.04	4.64	2.26±0.82	0.74	3.86	1.97±0.84	0.56	4.10
$\tau=2$ Gyr	2.98±1.29	0.37	5.77	2.95±1.06	1.06	4.64	2.31±0.76	0.77	3.86	2.02±0.79	0.59	4.10
$\tau=5$ Gyr	3.05±1.24	0.48	5.76	3.02±0.98	1.24	4.64	2.37±0.69	0.96	3.86	2.07±0.73	0.76	4.10
$\tau=10$ Gyr	3.08±1.22	0.57	5.75	3.05±0.95	1.38	4.64	2.39±0.66	1.11	3.85	2.09±0.70	0.89	4.10

but by no more than  $\sim 30\%$  (see Vázquez and Leitherer, 2005). The more recent SF in low-mass (late-type) galaxies, i.e., downsizing, results in younger ages, especially light-weighted ages (see Figure 2.4b). Mass-weighted ages are always larger than light-weighted ones, but Figure 2.4b shows that the gap between them decrease from a factor of 3 at  $z=2$  to  $\sim 10\%$  at  $z=0$  for SFH3 and SFH4. For SFH5, the difference remains a factor of  $\sim 5$  until  $z \sim 0.3$  before decreasing to a factor of  $\sim 3$  at  $z \simeq 0$ .

To account for metallicity evolution and arrive at a functional form for  $Z(t')$  in Equation 2.2, I combine my stochastic SFHs with the mass-metallicity relations at  $z \simeq 0$ , 0.3, 1.1, and 2.2 presented by Maiolino *et al.* (2008). At  $z=0$ , I assume stellar masses of  $2.5 \times 10^{11}$ ,  $8.9 \times 10^{10}$ , and  $3.1 \times 10^9 M_\odot$  for early-type, spiral, and late-type galaxies as above. I find that I can approximate the metallicity evolution as  $\log Z(z) = a \cdot z + b$ , and fit slopes  $a$  for each of these present-day stellar masses and SFHs (see Table 2.2). I adopt  $a = -0.18$ ,  $-0.30$ , and  $-0.58$  for the metallicity evolution of SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5, respectively. Note that while I list fitted values in the final column of Table 2.2 for SFH5 for each of my three stellar masses, late-type galaxies with  $M > 10^{10}$  are extremely rare in nature (e.g., Kelvin *et al.*, 2014).

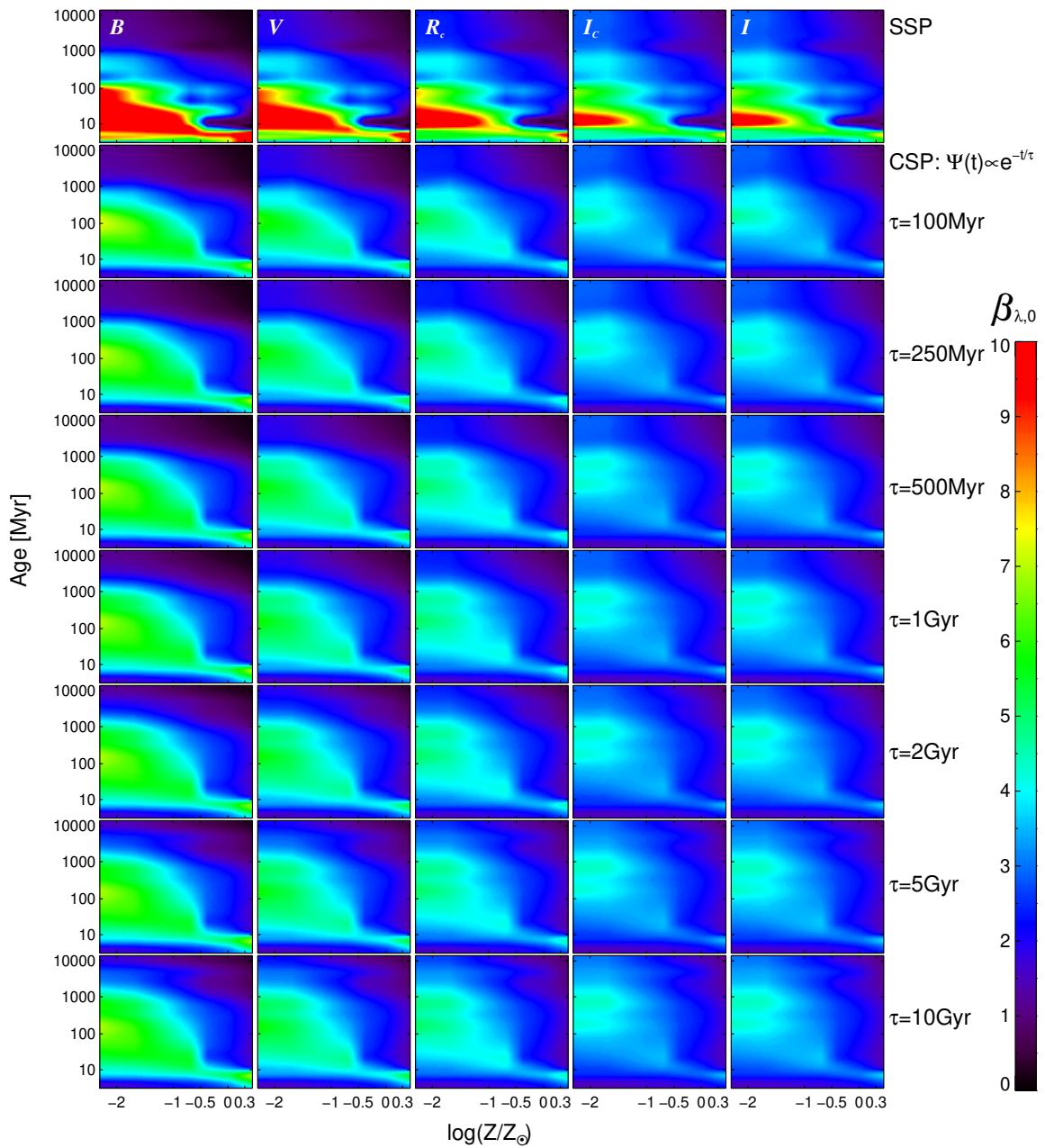


Figure 2.5: Maps of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values referenced to the Johnson  $L$  band as a function of metallicity ( $Z/Z_\odot$ ) and age of the stellar populations for the (left to right) Johnson  $B$ ,  $V$ , Kron-Cousins-Glass  $R_c$ ,  $I_c$ , and Johnson  $I$  filters for (top to bottom) SSPs, and for seven CSPs resulting from exponentially declining SFHs with  $\tau = 100, 250, 500$  Myr, 1, 2, 5, and 10 Gyr.

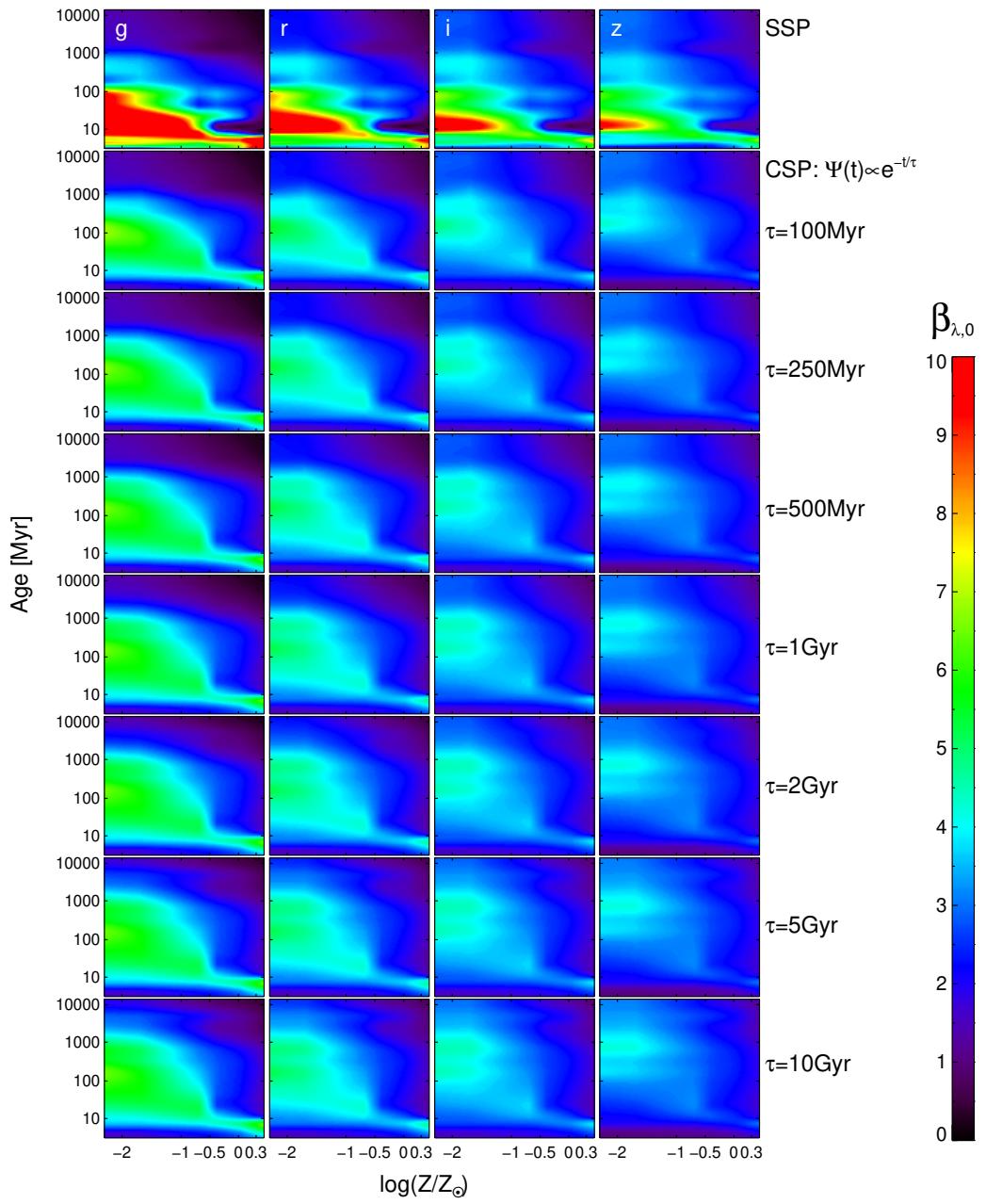


Figure 2.6: Same as Figure 2.5 for the SDSS  $g$ ,  $r$ ,  $i$ , and  $z$  filters.

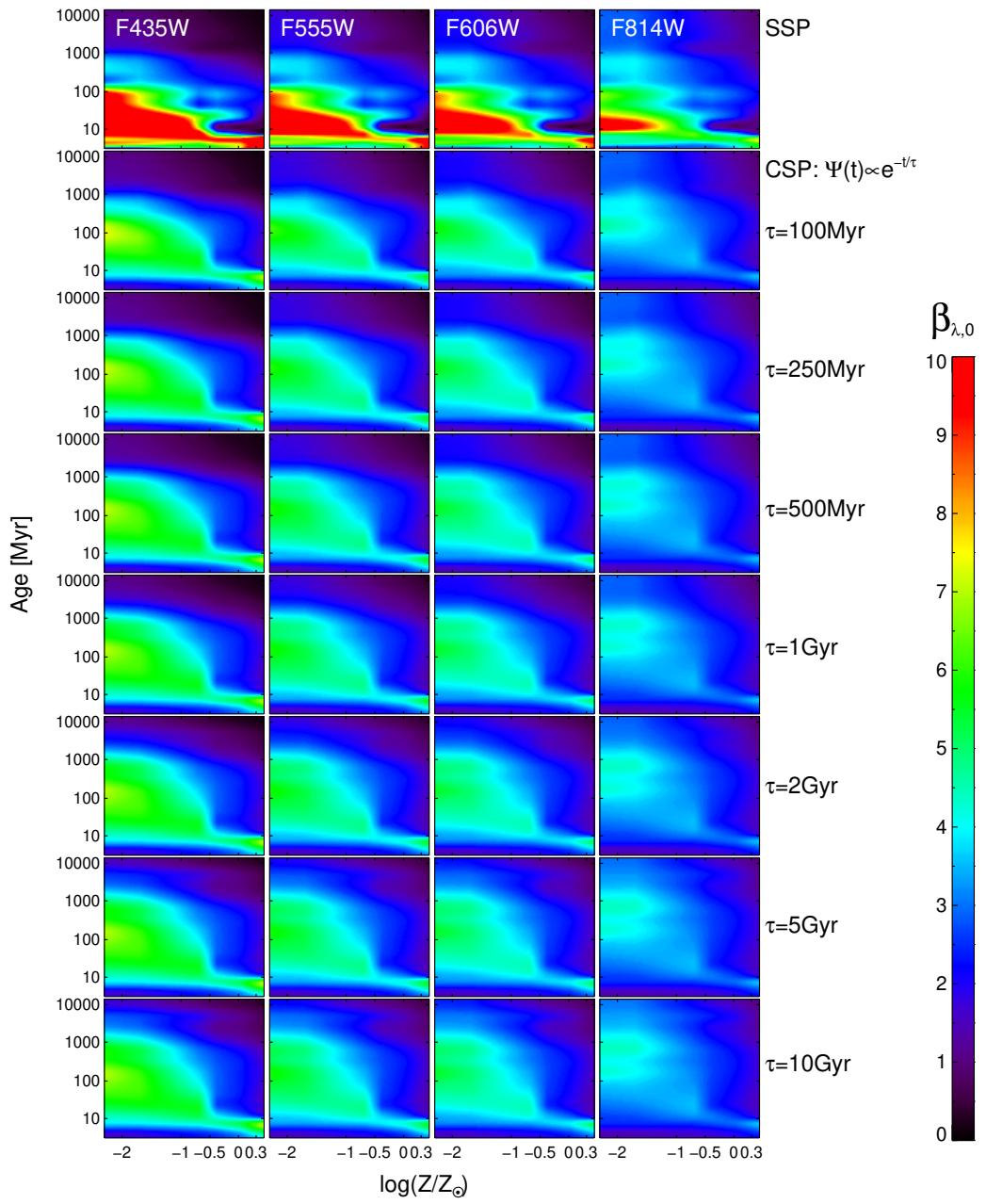


Figure 2.7: Same as Figure 2.5 for the *HST/ACS WFC*  $F435W$ ,  $F555W$ ,  $F606W$ , and  $F814W$  filters.

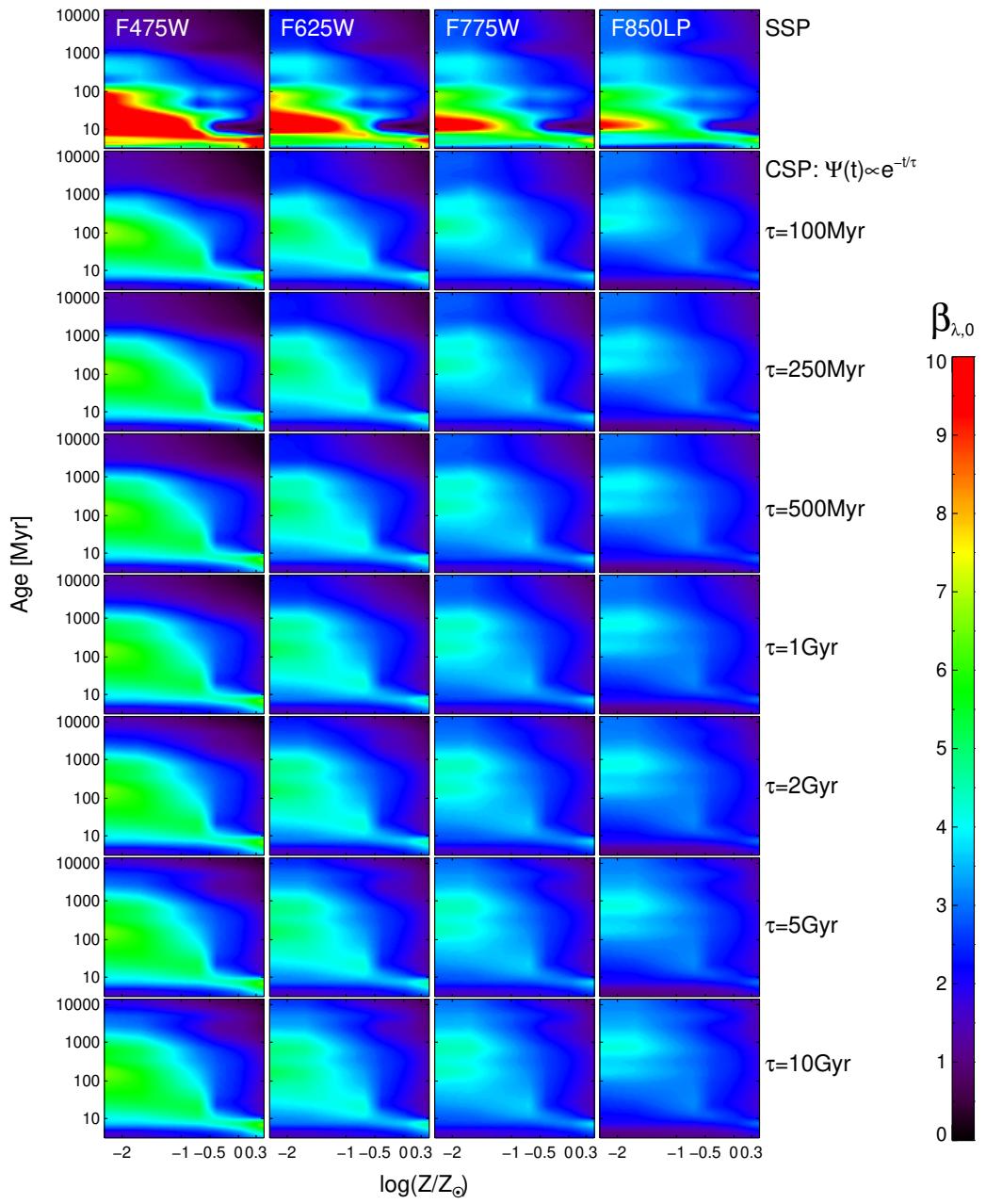


Figure 2.8: Same as Figure 2.5 for the *HST/ACS* WFC  $F475W$ ,  $F625W$ ,  $F775W$ , and  $F850LP$  filters.

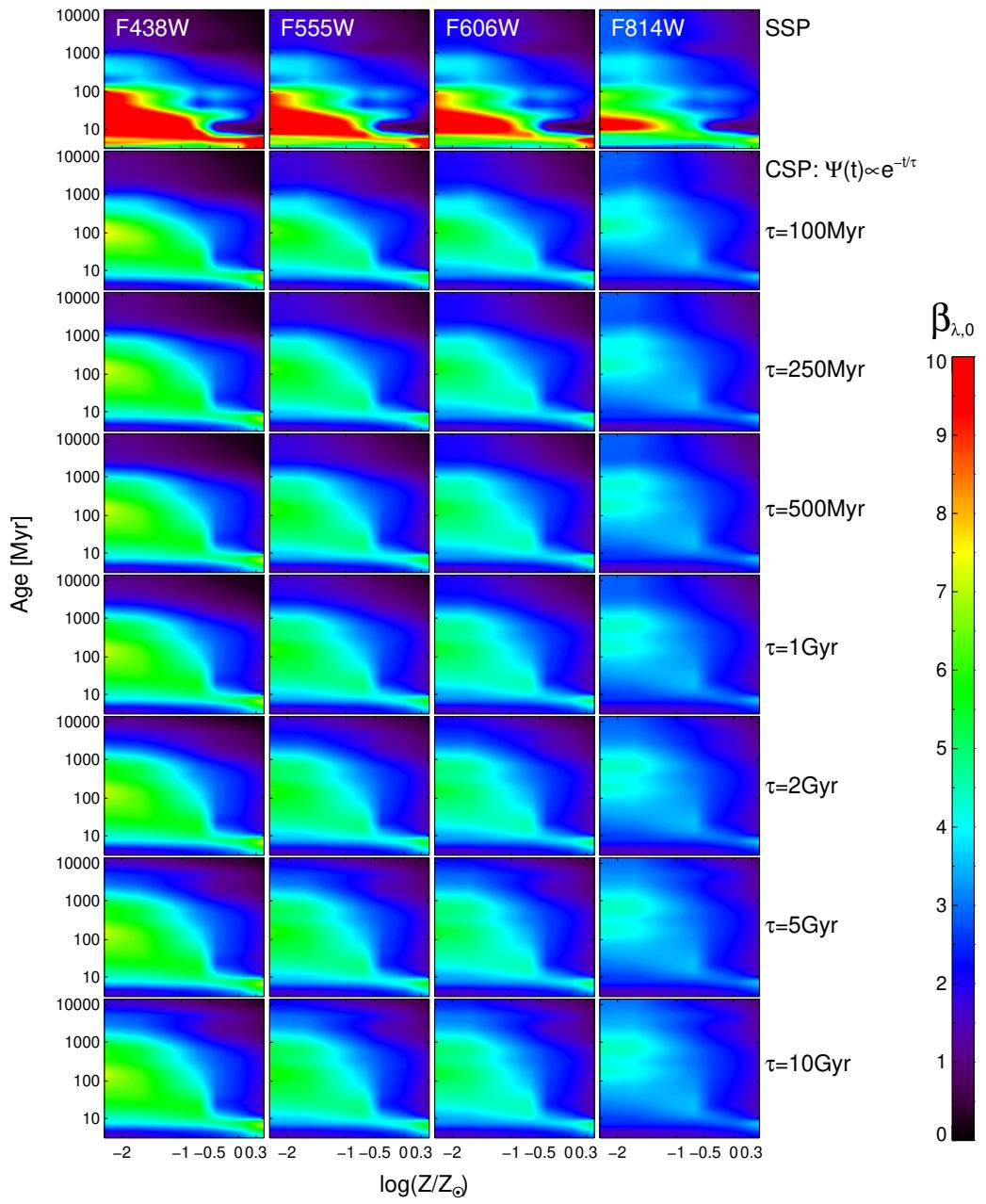


Figure 2.9: Same as Figure 2.5 for the *HST/WFC3* UVIS  $F438W$ ,  $F555W$ ,  $F606W$ , and  $F814W$  filters.

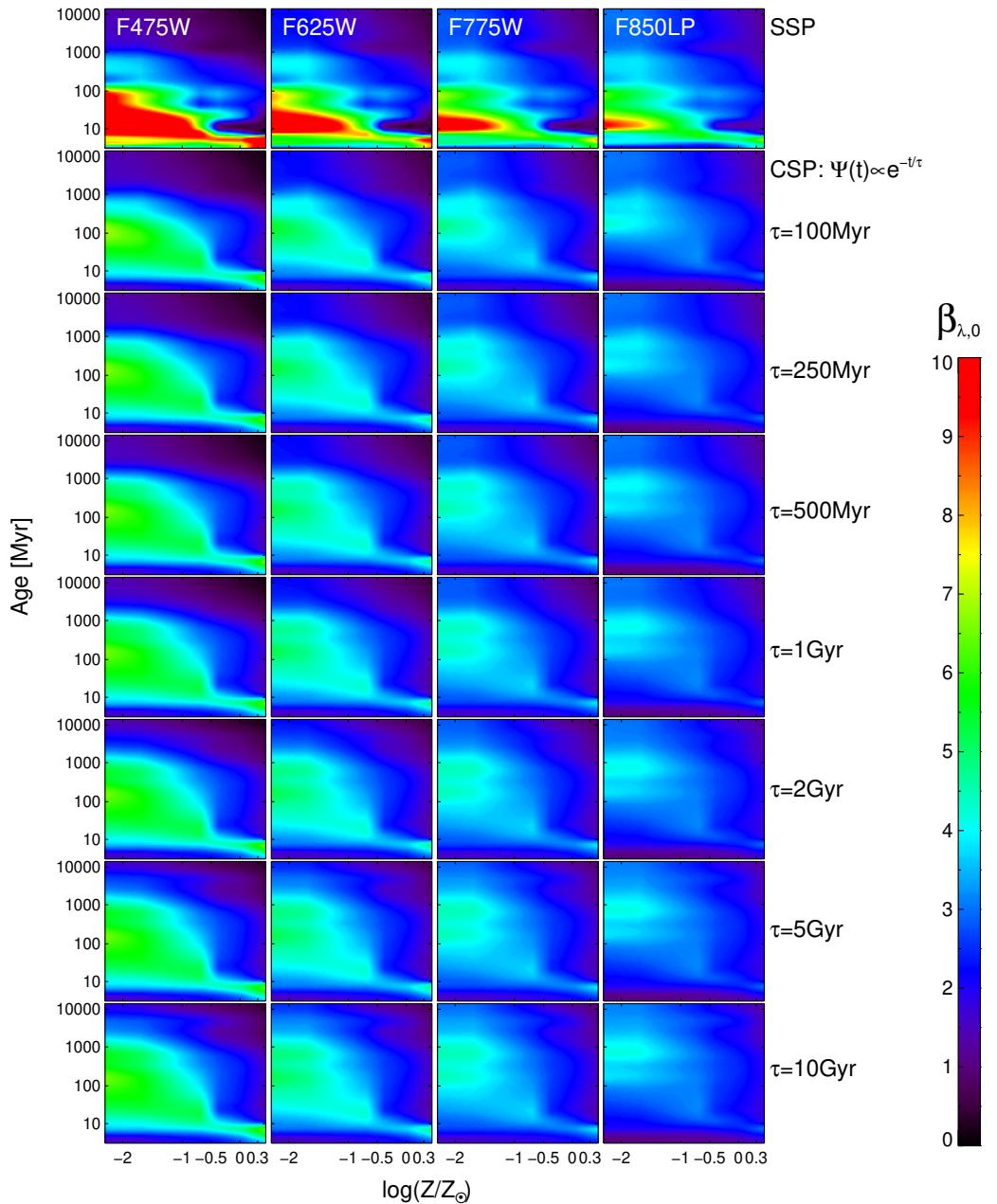


Figure 2.10: Same as Figure 2.5 for the *HST*/WFC3 UVIS  $F475W$ ,  $F625W$ ,  $F775W$ , and  $F850LP$  filters.

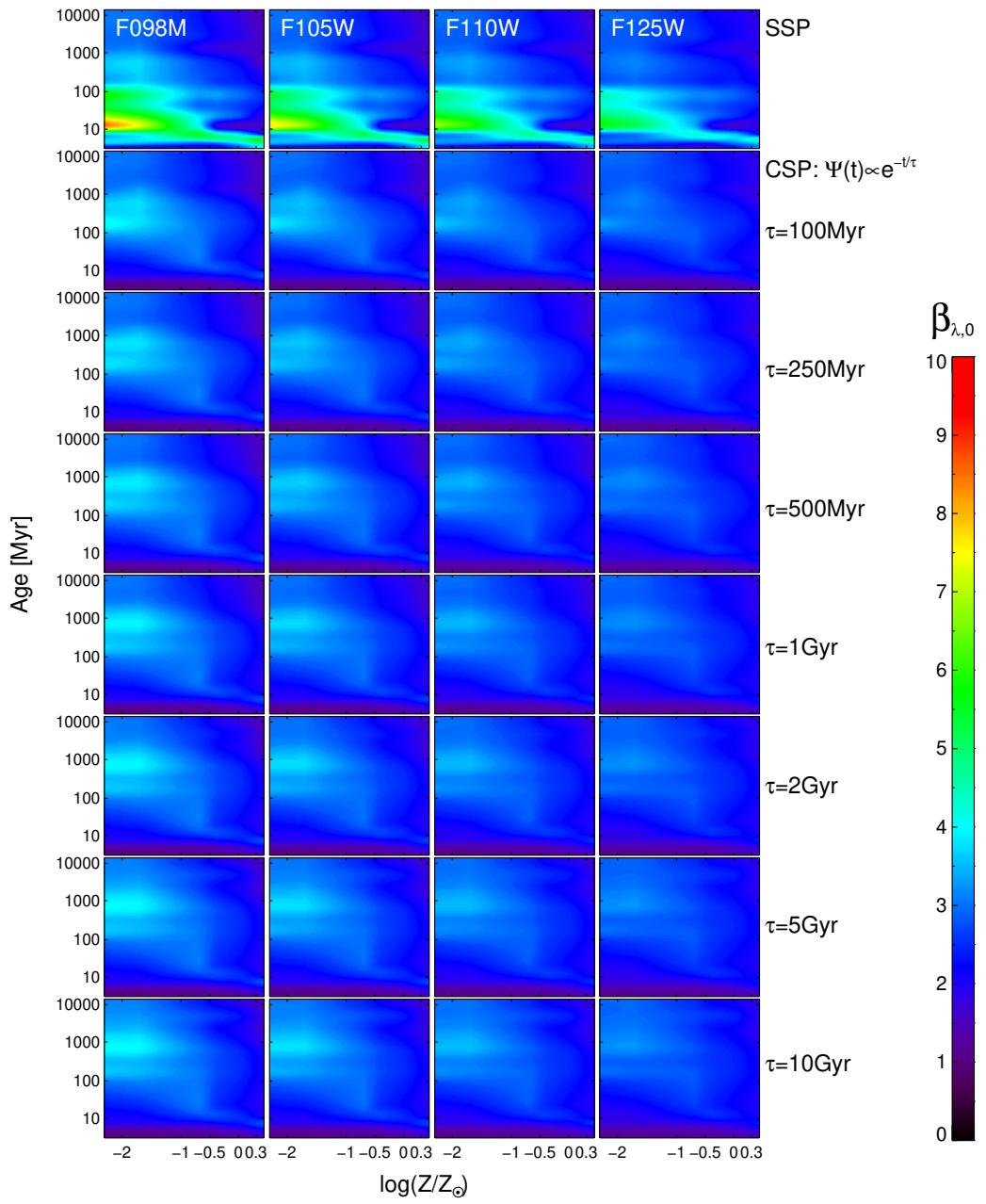


Figure 2.11: Same as Figure 2.5 for the *HST/WFC3 IR*  $F098M$ ,  $F105W$ ,  $F110W$ , and  $F125W$  filters.

## 2.2 Intrinsic $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ Flux Ratios from Model SEDs

Tamura *et al.* (2009) developed the  $\beta_V$  method to estimate the amount of dust extinction in a galaxy using images through just two broadband filters: one visible ( $V$ ) and one in the mid-IR near  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$  ( $L$  band), specifically, the IRAC (Fazio *et al.*, 2004) Channel 1 onboard the *Spitzer* Space Telescope (Werner *et al.*, 2004) centering around  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  in their case. The  $L$  band is where the extinction by dust reaches a minimum, and where there is still little emission from warm dust, PAHs, and silicates (although there is a significant C–H stretching PAH feature near  $3.3 \mu\text{m}$ ; see Figure 1.1; Leger and Puget, 1984; Allamandola *et al.*, 1989). If I have knowledge of the intrinsic SED of a simple or CSP, then I can calculate the intrinsic flux ratio  $\beta_{V,0} = f_{V,0}/f_{L,0}$ . This ratio will be a function of age  $t$ , metallicity  $Z$ , and SFH  $\psi(t)$ . If  $\beta_{V,0}$  values were to fall in a very narrow range for a wide range of such CSP parameters, and if my model SEDs were accurate representations of observed stellar populations, then comparing the observed ( $\beta_V$ ) and the intrinsic ( $\beta_{V,0}$ ) flux ratios would allow us to infer the missing flux in the  $V$  band. I furthermore assume that the extinction in bandpasses centered near  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$  ( $L$ ) is negligible. The extinction in magnitudes is given by  $A_V = (m_V - m_{V,0})$ , which can be rewritten in terms of the observed  $L$  band flux and the intrinsic  $V$ -to- $L$ -band flux ratio  $\beta_{V,0}$  as

$$A_V \simeq m_V - [-2.5 \log (\beta_{V,0} \times f_L) - V_{zp}] , \quad (2.4)$$

where  $f_L \simeq f_{L,0}$ ,  $V_{zp}$  is the zero-point magnitude for the  $V$  filter, and the  $\simeq$ -symbol serves to recall the approximate nature of this method.

Here, I consider a more general extension of the  $\beta_V$  method, the  $\beta_\lambda$  method, where I compute  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  for a large selection of filter pairs in the rest-frame optical ( $\lambda \sim 0.4\text{--}1 \mu\text{m}$ ) and rest-frame mid-IR ( $\lambda \sim 3.4\text{--}3.6 \mu\text{m}$ ). In total, 29 visible–near-IR and 5 mid-IR filter throughput

curves were convolved<sup>1</sup> with the simple and composite SEDs I constructed as described in § 2.1 to obtain the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values for each SED.

I make all models and derived data available on our website<sup>2</sup> as ASCII text tables and as 2D maps of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}(Z,t)$  in both PNG<sup>3</sup> and FITS<sup>4</sup> format.

### 2.2.1 SSP and Exponentially Declining SFHs

Figure 2.5 depicts an example of 2D maps of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  ratios as a function of metallicity and stellar population age (or time since the onset of SF) for the Johnson  $B$ ,  $V$ , Kron-Cousins-Glass  $R_c$ ,  $I_c$ , and Johnson  $I$  filter (Bessell, 1990), when referenced to the Johnson  $L$  band (Bessell and Brett, 1988). From top to bottom, I show the results for SSPs and for seven exponentially declining SFHs with  $\tau = 100, 250,$  and  $500$  Myr, and  $1, 2, 5,$  and  $10$  Gyr. The final row approximates a continuous nearly constant star formation rate. For each panel, I started with a 2D array of SEDs that has six rows and 16 columns, corresponding to the metallicity and age values of Figure 2.2, for which I computed  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values by convolving each of the filter curves with each of the  $6 \times 16$  SEDs. The resulting array of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values was expanded through log–log cubic-spline interpolation into the finer  $100 \times 100$  grids of metallicity and age as shown. SSPs show the highest dispersion and widest range of  $\beta_{V,0}$  values (see Table 2.3). For exponentially

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<sup>1</sup>While I mean the product  $T(\lambda) \cdot F(\lambda)$  of the filter throughput  $T(\lambda)$  and SED  $F(\lambda)$ , rather than the convolution operation  $T(\lambda) * F(\lambda)$ , the term “convolution” has become the accepted terminology and is used throughout.

<sup>2</sup><http://lambda.la.asu.edu/betav/>

<sup>3</sup>Portable Network Graphics (Duce et al. 2004 [ISO/IEC 15948:2004]).

<sup>4</sup>Flexible Image Transport System (Wells *et al.*, 1981; Hanisch *et al.*, 2001).

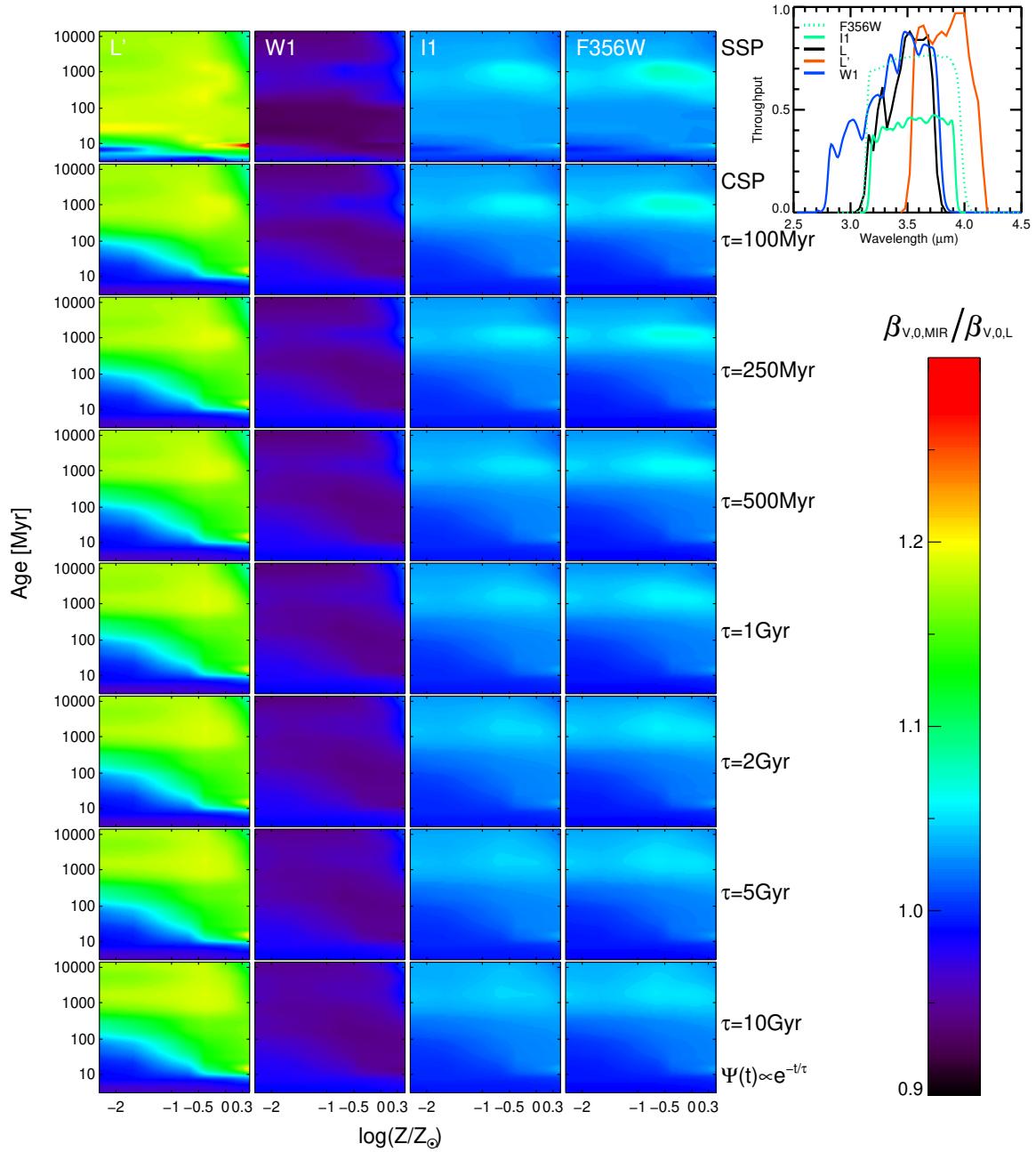


Figure 2.12: Maps of ratios  $r_\beta(MIR, L) = F(L)/F(L')$ ,  $F(L)/F(W1)$ ,  $F(L)/F(I1)$ , and  $F(L)/F(F356W)$  as a function of metallicity ( $Z/Z_\odot$ ) and age  $t$  of the stellar populations and stellar population models as shown in Figure 2.5.  $r_\beta(MIR, L)$  gradually increases as stellar populations age and decreases again for super-solar metallicity. The color bar in this figure spans a much narrower range than the one in Figure 2.5–2.11. For reference, I plot the throughput curves of each *MIR* bandpass in the inset at the upper right.

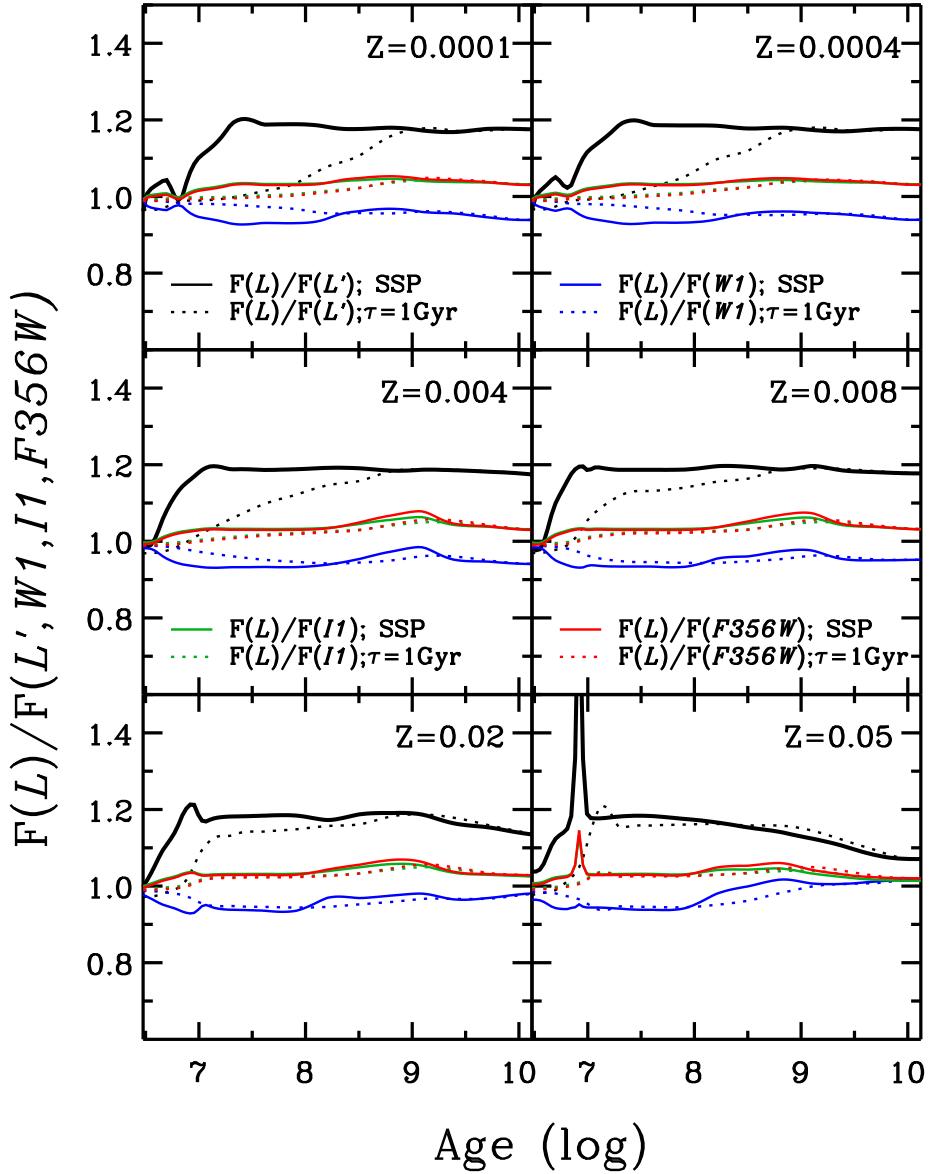


Figure 2.13: Flux ratios between different choices of mid-IR reference filters as a function of the age of the stellar populations for various metallicities. Solid curves are for SSPs and dotted curves are for exponentially declining SFHs with a 1 Gyr  $e$ -folding time. The ratio generally remains stable in the 0.9–1.2 range for ages larger than a few tens of Myr. While the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  value to adopt depends on the choice of mid-IR reference filter, it is *predictable*, so any of the filters considered will be similarly valid for the application of the  $\beta_\lambda$  method.

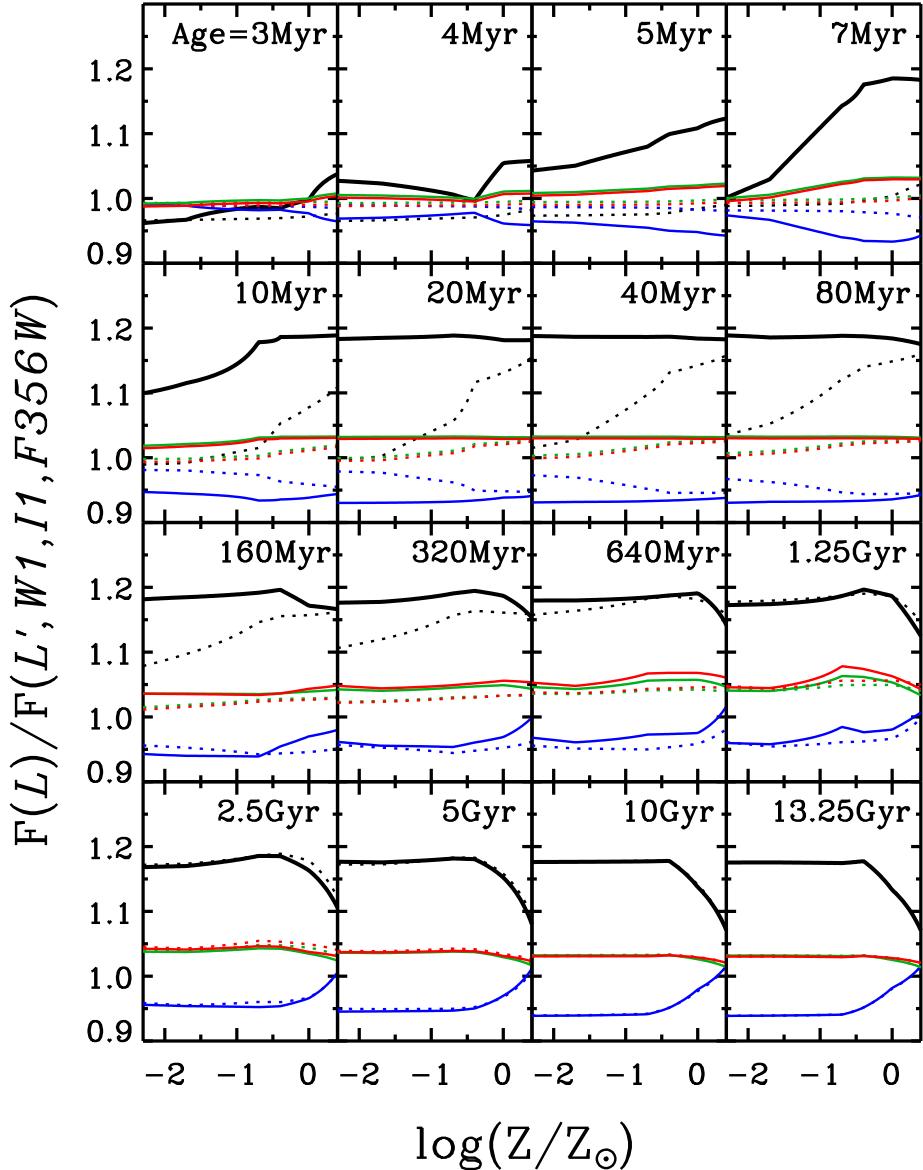


Figure 2.14: Flux ratios between different choices of mid-IR reference filters as a function of the metallicity of the stellar populations for various ages. Line and color schemes are the same as in Figure 2.13. If I exclude the red supergiants feature at ages of  $\sim 5\text{--}10$  Myr and high metallicity, the choice of mid-IR reference filter affects  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  at the  $\lesssim 20\%$  level, and for a given reference filter, much less than that over most of the range in age and metallicity.

Table 2.4: Comparison of the Mean Values and Standard Deviations of  $r_\beta(MIR, L) = \beta_{\lambda,0}^{MIR}/\beta_{\lambda,0}^L = F(L)/F(MIR)$ , before and after  $3\sigma$  Rejection, For my SSPs and CSPs with Exponentially Declining SFHs (First and Fifth Rows in Figure 2.12).

MIR	SSP		$\tau=1$ Gyr	
	Mean	Robust mean	Mean	Robust mean
$L'$	$1.16 \pm 0.05$	$1.18 \pm 0.01$	$1.11 \pm 0.07$	$1.11 \pm 0.08$
$WI$	$0.95 \pm 0.02$	$0.95 \pm 0.02$	$0.96 \pm 0.01$	$0.96 \pm 0.02$
$II$	$1.03 \pm 0.01$	$1.04 \pm 0.01$	$1.02 \pm 0.02$	$1.02 \pm 0.02$
F356W	$1.03 \pm 0.02$	$1.03 \pm 0.02$	$1.02 \pm 0.02$	$1.02 \pm 0.02$

declining SFHs, as  $\tau$  increases, the standard deviations and min–max ranges decrease, while the mean  $\beta_{V,0}$  values themselves slightly increase ( $\lesssim 11\%$ ). The lower metallicity population has higher  $\beta_{V,0}$  values as well ( $\sim 50\%$  for  $Z = 0.0004$  compared to  $Z = 0.02$ ).

Similarly, in Figure 2.5–2.10, I show  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  referenced to the same Johnson  $L$  band for the SDSS  $g$ ,  $r$ ,  $i$ , and  $z$  filters (Gunn *et al.*, 1998), as well as for eight  $HST$ /ACS WFC (Ford *et al.*, 2003; Avila *et al.*, 2015) and eight  $HST$ /WFC3 UVIS (Dressel *et al.*, 2015) filters. The choice of filters was motivated by their common use for  $HST$  deep and medium-deep surveys, such as the GOODS (Dickinson *et al.* 2003, p. 324; Giavalisco *et al.* 2004), the CANDELS (Grogin *et al.*, 2011; Koekemoer *et al.*, 2011), the COSMOS (Scoville *et al.*, 2007), the CLASH (Postman *et al.*, 2012), and the  $HST$ /WFC3 ERS program (Windhorst *et al.*, 2011). In Figure 2.11, moreover, I extend our coverage to the NIR with four WFC3/IR filters.

One might wonder how sensitive the  $\beta_\lambda$  method is to the exact choice of the mid-IR reference filter. I thus considered the ground-based Johnson  $L$  and  $L'$  filters, the space-based  $WISE$   $WI$  bandpass ( $\lambda_{eff} = 3.3526 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $\Delta\lambda = 0.66 \mu\text{m}$ ; Wright *et al.*, 2010; Jarrett *et al.*, 2011), the  $Spitzer$ /IRAC  $II$  bandpass ( $\lambda_{eff} = 3.550 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $\Delta\lambda = 0.75 \mu\text{m}$ ; Fazio *et al.*, 2004), and the  $JWST$ /NIRCam (Horner and Rieke, 2004; Gardner *et al.*, 2006; Rieke, 2011) F356W filter

$(\lambda_{eff}=3.568 \mu m, \Delta\lambda=0.781 \mu m)$ <sup>5</sup>. In Figure 2.12 and Table 2.4, I compare the ratios of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  computed relative to each mid-IR (*MIR*) band and to the *L* band:  $r_\beta(MIR, L) = \beta_{\lambda,0}^{MIR}/\beta_{\lambda,0}^L = F(L)/F(MIR)$ . The ratios get closer to unity and the range in values decreases for the exponentially declining SFHs with  $\tau = 1$  Gyr. The  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values referenced to the *II* and F356W filters are similar to those referenced to the *L* band, whereas  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values referenced to *L'* and *WI* were higher and lower, respectively. The  $r_\beta(L', L)$  values tend to be higher than 1 (i.e.,  $\beta_{\lambda,0}^{L'} > \beta_{\lambda,0}^L$ ), because I am sampling the Rayleigh-Jeans tail of the stellar SED and the central wavelength of the *L'* filter is longer than that of the *L* filter. Conversely, the central wavelength of the *WI* bandpass lies shortward of that of *L*, resulting in  $r_\beta(WI, L)$  smaller than 1. Except for a difference in the overall throughput, the *II* and F356W bandpasses have very similar shapes and similar central wavelengths to the *L* filter, as shown in the inset at the upper right side of Figure 2.12.

In Figure 2.13, I plot  $r_\beta(L', L)$  as a function of age for six different metallicities for SSPs (black solid curves) and for exponentially declining SFHs (black dotted curves). At low metallicities,  $r_\beta(L', L)$  is seen to be remarkably independent of age for ages older than 10 Myr for SSPs. For CSPs with an exponentially declining SFR and an *e*-folding time of 1 Gyr,  $r_\beta(L', L)$  stabilizes around 500–600 Myr. At solar metallicity and above, and particularly for SSPs, sharp features become noticeable around 10 Myr of age in both Figure 2.12 and 2.13. These features correspond to the appearance and demise of red supergiants (RSGs; Walcher *et al.*, 2011). The strength or absence of these RSG features at low metallicity remains uncertain (see, e.g., discussions in Cerviño and Mas-Hesse, 1994; Leitherer *et al.*, 1999; Vázquez and Leitherer, 2005). The flux ratios for different mid-IR filters are similar at early ages ( $\sim 3$  Myr), but diverge until an age of  $\sim 10$  Myr before stabilizing again for ages larger than 1 Gyr in the case of super-solar metallicities. This pattern is more clearly shown in Fig 2.14, which plots  $r_\beta(MIR, L)$  as a func-

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<sup>5</sup><http://www.stsci.edu/jwst/instruments/nircam/instrumentdesign/filters/>

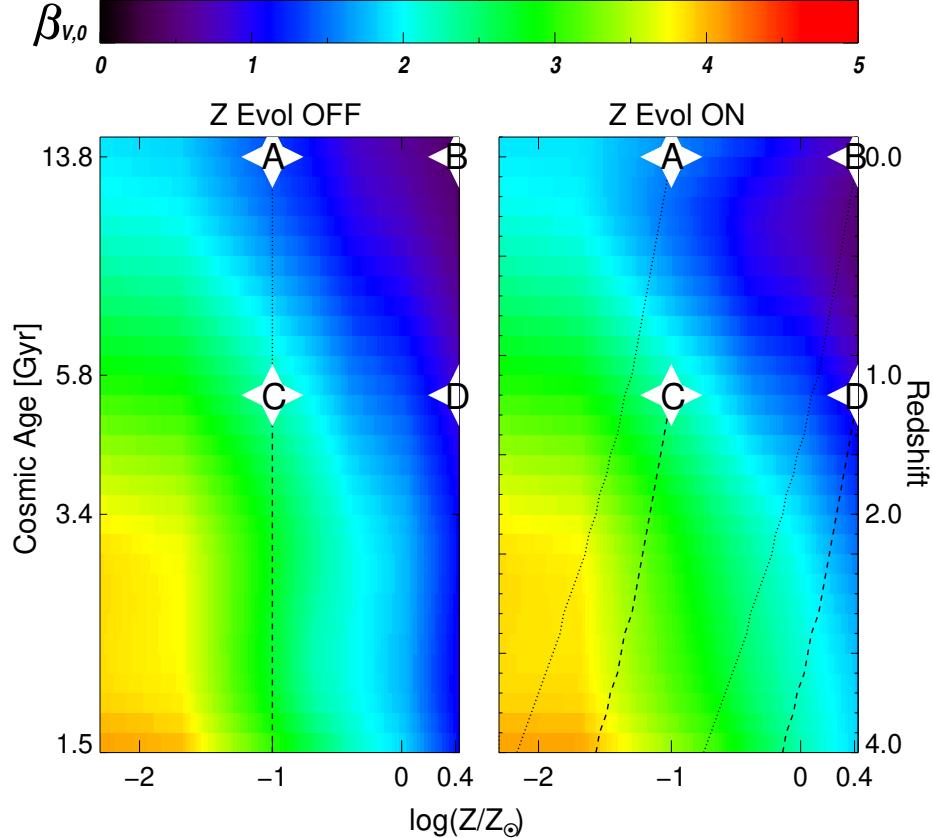


Figure 2.15: Comparison of  $\beta_{V,0}$  values when metallicity evolution *is* (right) and *is not* (left) taken into account for the CSPs characterized by SFH4 (spiral galaxies). For four specific realizations of SFH4, I show the metallicity tracks as a function of cosmic age of the SSP SEDs, which are stacked to generate CSP SEDs at that age. The endpoints  $(z, Z)$  for tracks A, B, C, and D are  $(0.0, 0.002)$ ,  $(0.0, 0.05)$ ,  $(1.0, 0.002)$ , and  $(1.0, 0.05)$ , respectively. When I include metallicity evolution, I find a stronger dependence of  $\beta_{V,0}$  on redshift, with higher  $\beta_{V,0}$  values for the progenitors of present-day galaxies than in the no-evolution case.

tion of metallicity at 16 different ages.  $r_\beta(MIR, L)$  is insensitive to metallicity at most stellar population ages (the curves in Fig 2.14 are nearly flat for most ages  $\gtrsim 10$  Myr and for most sub-solar metallicities). If I exclude the RSG feature at high metallicity, the choice of mid-IR filter affects  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  at the  $\lesssim 20\%$  level overall, while reference filter-dependent variations with respect to the  $L$  band are much smaller than that over most of the range in age and metallicity. One can gauge the impact of a given choice of mid-IR reference filter using Figs. 2.12–2.14.

### 2.2.2 Stochastic Multiburst SFHs

The  $\beta_V$  method was originally developed as an approximate dust extinction correction method for large surveys of spatially resolved galaxies with *unresolved* stellar populations. The light from the unresolved stellar populations will have more complex SFHs than SSP or exponentially declining SFHs (Gerola and Seiden, 1978; Kauffmann *et al.*, 2006; da Silva *et al.*, 2012). Hence, building SEDs for complex SFHs with stochastic starbursts and inspecting the resulting  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values will be essential to determine whether the  $\beta_V$  method (or its extension, the  $\beta_\lambda$  method) is applicable. As mentioned in § 2.1.2, metallicity evolution is taken into account when I build the SED arrays for stochastic SFHs, which moves the metallicity range toward higher values when cosmic age increases and redshift decreases (read more in § 2.2.2.1 and see Figure 2.25). When metallicity evolution is taken into account, initial metallicities for cosmic ages less than 1.5 Gyr ( $z > 4$ ) may be below the lower limit ( $Z = 0.0001$ ) of my SSP model SEDs. There, my CSPs will have an artificial lower limit in metallicity of  $Z = 0.0001$ , so I will not consider redshifts  $z > 4$ . Figure 2.15 shows the difference between  $\beta_{V,0}$  values when metallicity evolution *is* (right) and *is not* (left) applied for the CSPs characterized by SFH4 (spiral galaxies; see Figure 2.3 and Figure 2.4a). I adopt a metallicity evolution of  $-0.30$  per unit  $z$ , appropriate for SFH4 (see Table 2.2). To illustrate the effect of metallicity evolution for four specific realizations of SFH4, I show the metallicity tracks as a function of cosmic age of the SSP SEDs, which are stacked to generate CSP SEDs at that age. The effects of metallicity evolution become evident at  $z \gtrsim 1$  (cosmic age  $\lesssim 5.8$  Gyr). For the progenitors of galaxies at a given redshift, significantly higher values of  $\beta_{V,0}$  must be assumed at longer lookback times than in the no-evolution case, so that there is a stronger dependence of  $\beta_{V,0}$  on redshift.

In Figure 2.16 I present maps of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  as a function of cosmic age and metallicity, and 1D profiles of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values as a function of redshift. The  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values without metallicity evolution

are overplotted in each 1D profile panel for comparison. Each curve in the panels for SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5 represents the median  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values of 1000 randomly generated stochastic SFHs in that family. Comparing the solid to the dotted profiles in Figure 2.16b, I find that the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}(z)$  values are higher when metallicity evolution is taken into account, and progressively more so for higher present-day metallicity values (at low present-day metallicities the difference must necessarily be small). The spread in  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  at a given redshift due to metallicity differences tends to be smaller than in the no-evolution case. While the range in  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values at  $z \simeq 0$  is comparable in both the evolution and no-evolution cases for each of SFH3, SFH4 and SFH5, this range becomes narrower toward higher redshifts for SFH4, and especially for SFH5. For these two SFH families, more of the stars formed relatively recently, with much (or even most) of the metallicity evolution taking place in the redshift range of interest (see my adopted slopes in Table 2.2). The range of  $\beta_{V,0}$  for SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5 changes from 2.4–4.7 to 0.6–2.3 as the redshift decreases from 4 to 0. If I impose a minimal constraint on the redshift range without assuming any particular SFH family, I find allowed ranges for  $\beta_{V,0}$  of 0.6–3.4 when  $0 < z < 1$ , and 0.90–3.85 when  $1 < z < 2$ . When the redshift is known, I find narrower ranges of 0.57–2.30, 0.70–2.93, 0.90–3.35, 1.17–3.58, and 1.52–3.85 for  $\beta_{V,0}$  at  $z=0$ , 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, and 2.0, respectively. In § 2.2.3, I will show that these  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  ranges are further reduced once I can also constrain the range of likely SFHs and metallicities. For my full set of visible–near-IR filters, I refer the reader to Figures 2.17–2.22.

In Figure 2.23 (top panel) I show the dependence of the  $-1\sigma$  to  $+1\sigma$  range of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  and  $\beta_\lambda$  values on the bandpass (wavelength) when the redshift is only minimally constrained to fall in the  $0 < z < 1$  interval. The scatter in  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  was derived from the same 1000 randomly generated SFHs per SFH family as used for Figure 2.16. The visible filters show significant ranges of allowed  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values, especially for SFHs with recent SF such as SFH5. The near-IR

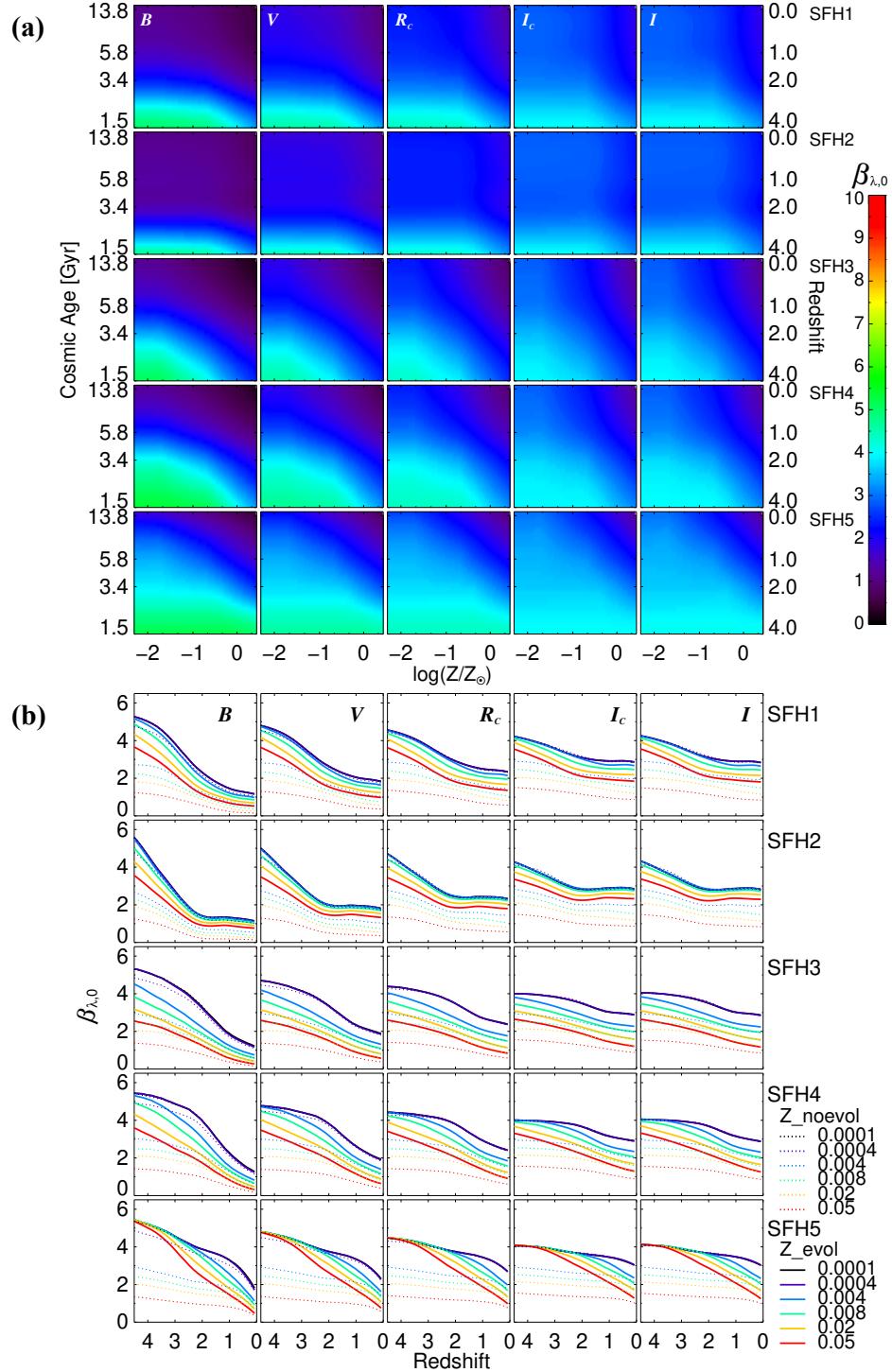


Figure 2.16: (a) Maps of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values referenced to the Johnson  $L$  band as a function of metallicity ( $Z/Z_{\odot}$ ) and cosmic age for the (left to right) Johnson  $B$ ,  $V$ , Kron-Cousins-Glass  $R_c$ ,  $I_c$ , and Johnson  $I$  filters for (top to bottom) stochastic (multiburst) SFHs (see Figure 2.3) with metallicity evolution taken into account. (b)  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  profiles of stellar populations with various present-day ( $z=0$ ) metallicities that have different stochastic SFHs as a function of redshift. For comparison, I overplot the no-evolution case (dotted curves). Each map and each curve in the panels for SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5 represents the median  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values of 1000 randomly generated SFHs in that family.

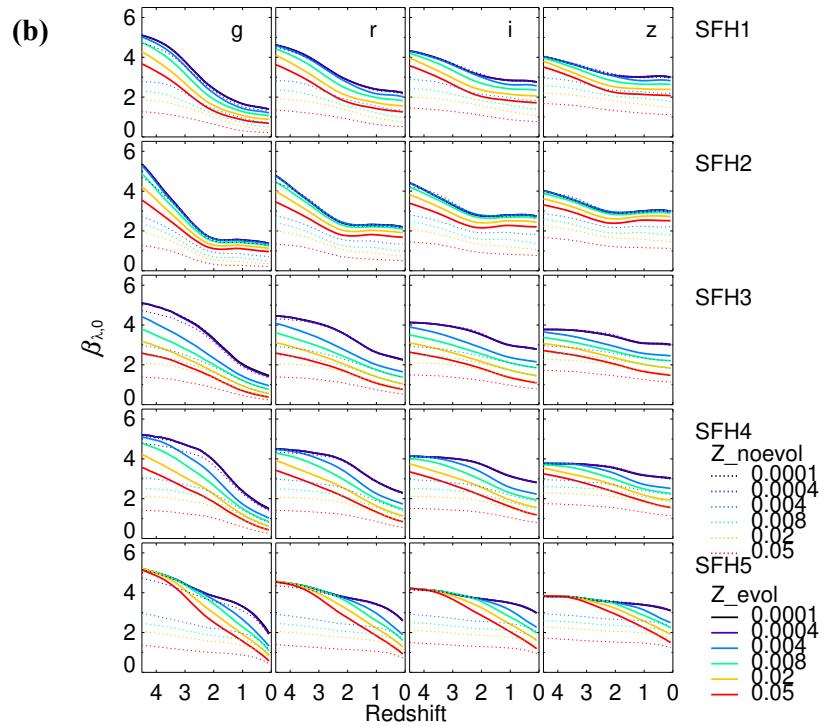
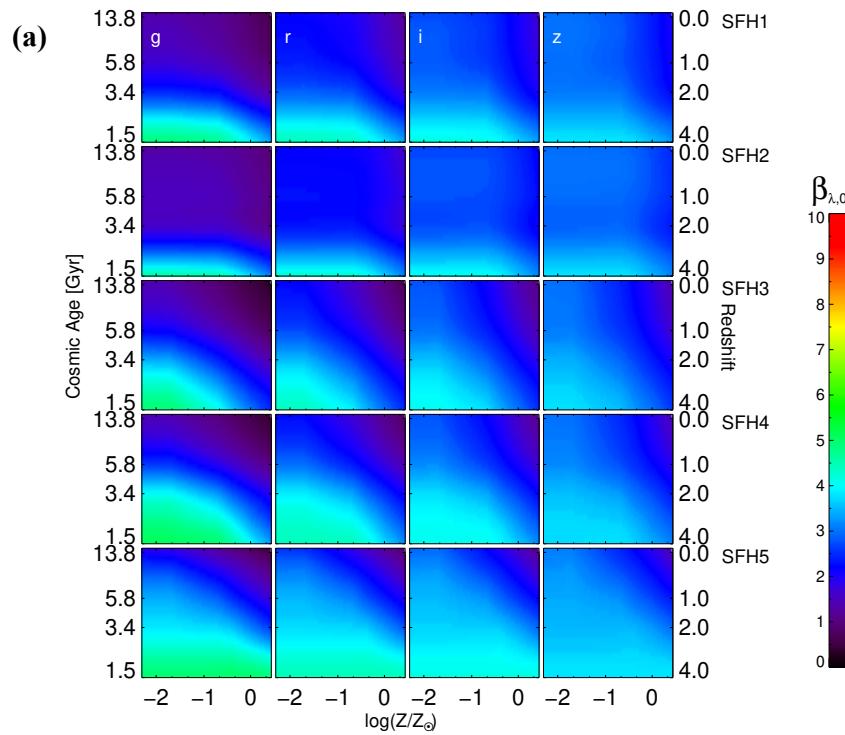


Figure 2.17: Same as Figure 2.16 for the SDSS  $g$ ,  $r$ ,  $i$ , and  $z$  filters.

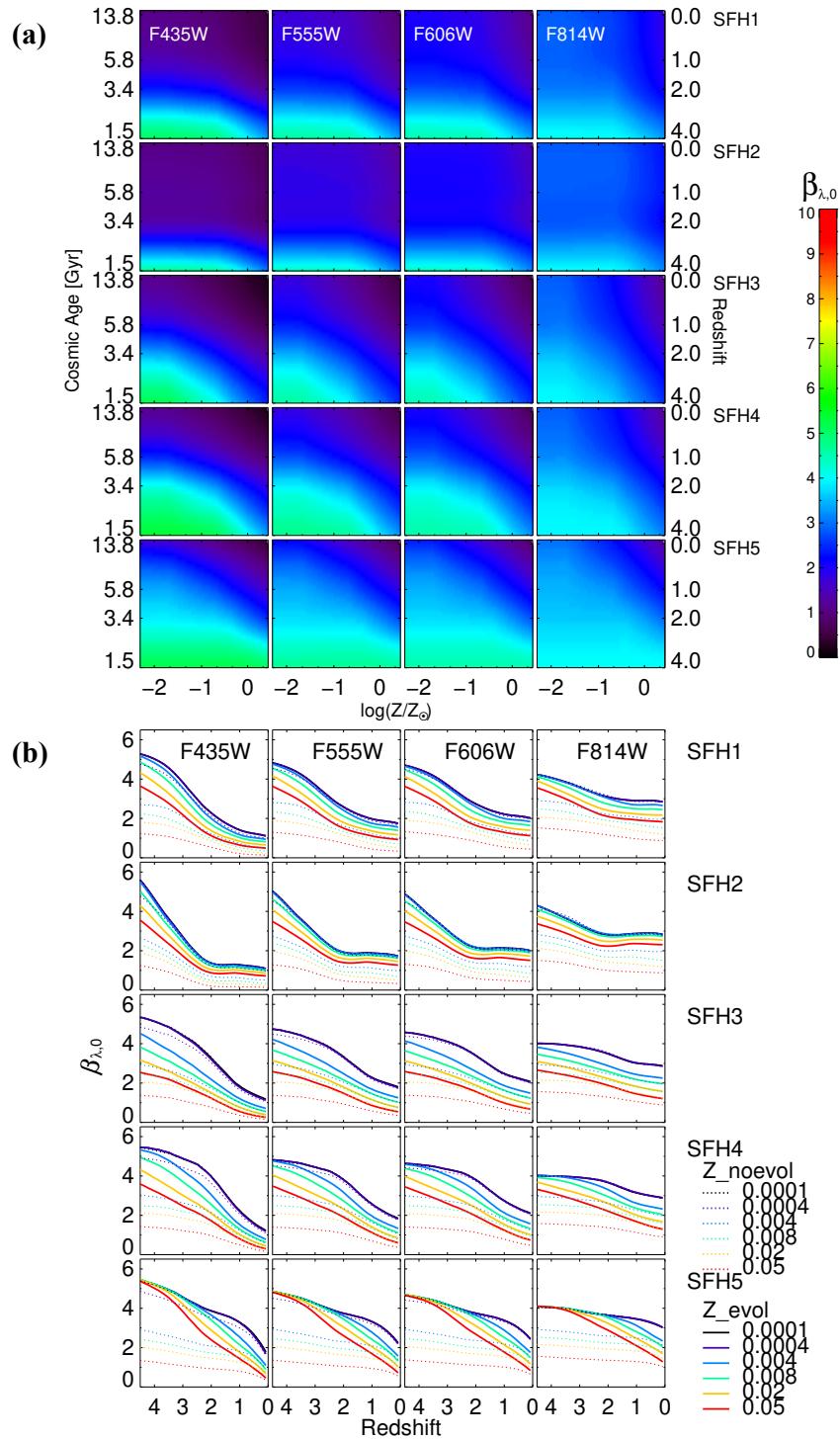


Figure 2.18: Same as Figure 2.16 for the *HST*/ACS WFC  $F435W, F555W, F606W$ , and  $F814W$  filters.

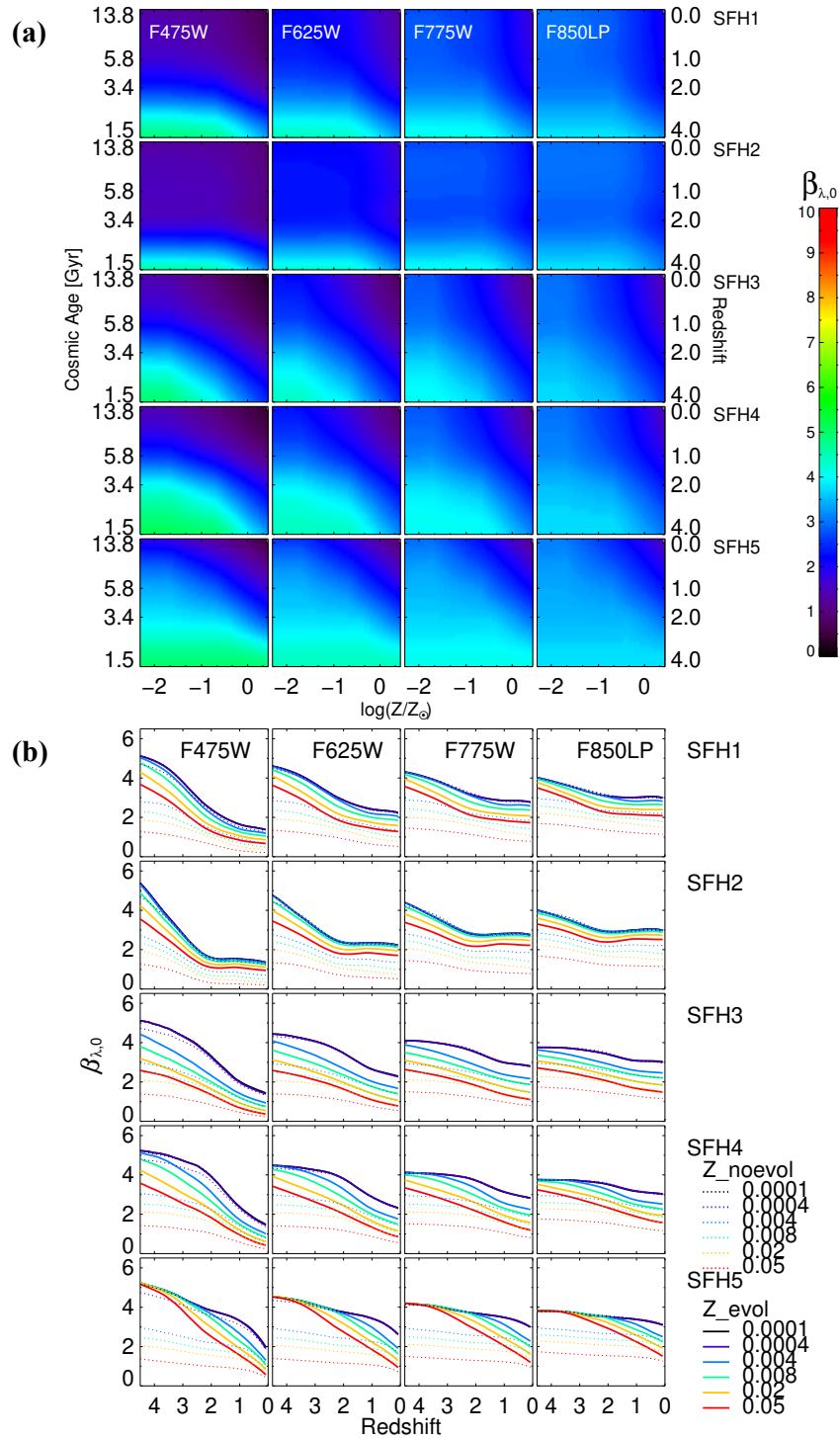


Figure 2.19: Same as Figure 2.16 for the *HST/ACS WFC*  $F475W$ ,  $F625W$ ,  $F775W$ , and  $F850LP$  filters.

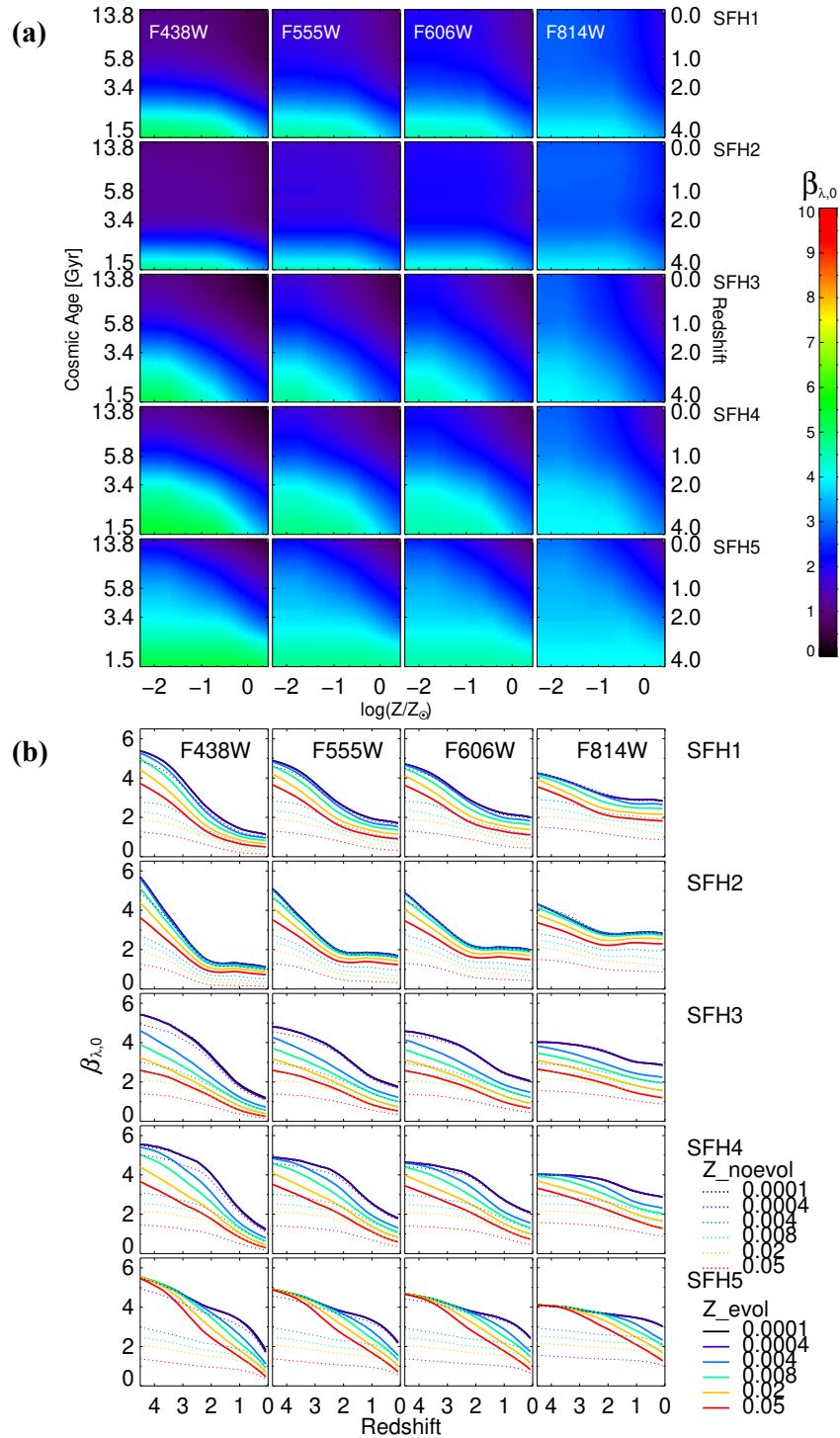


Figure 2.20: Same as Figure 2.16 for the *HST/WFC3 UVIS*  $F438W$ ,  $F555W$ ,  $F606W$ , and  $F814W$  filters.

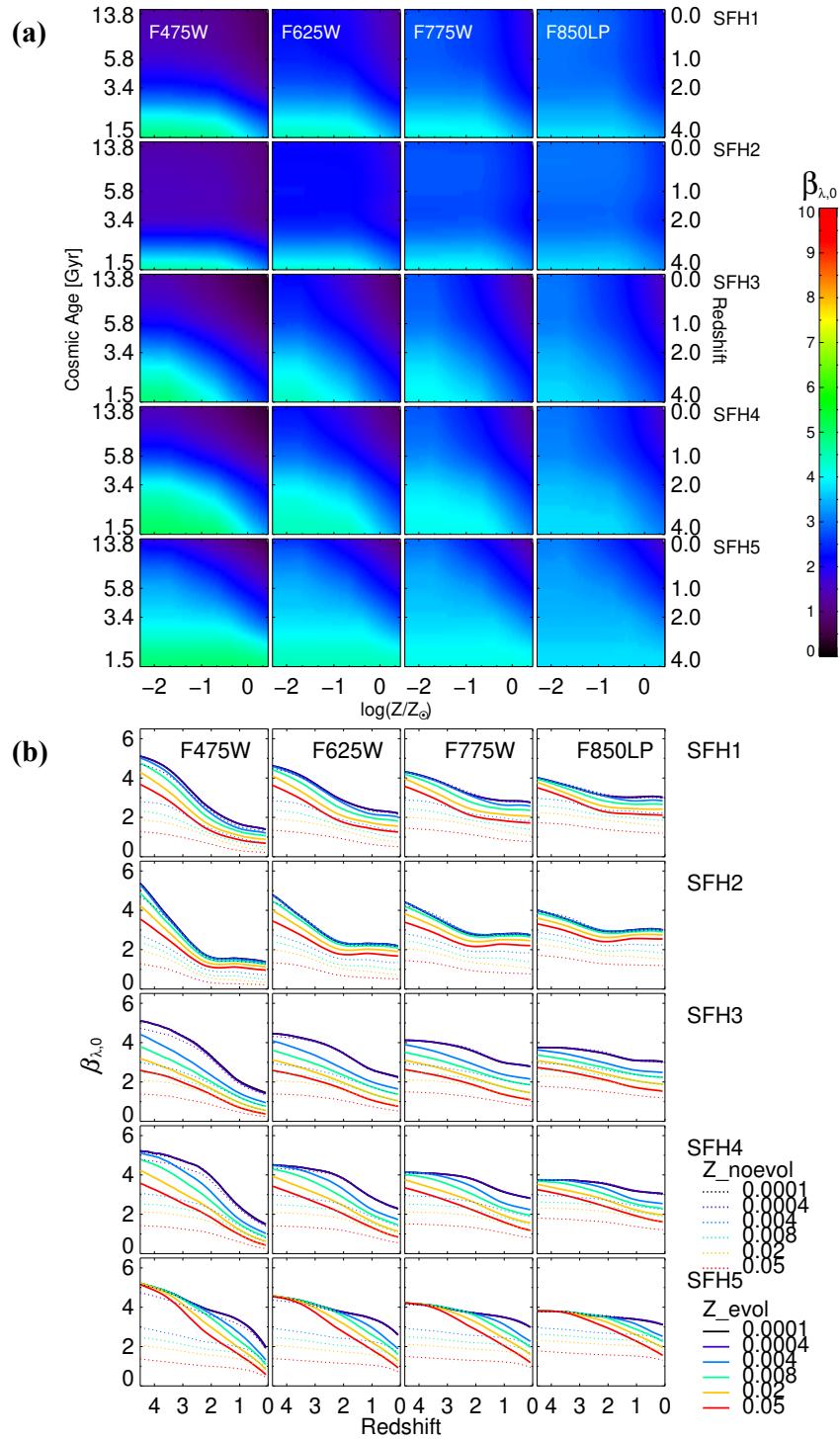


Figure 2.21: Same as Figure 2.16 for the *HST/WFC3 UVIS*  $F475W$ ,  $F625W$ ,  $F775W$ , and  $F850LP$  filters.

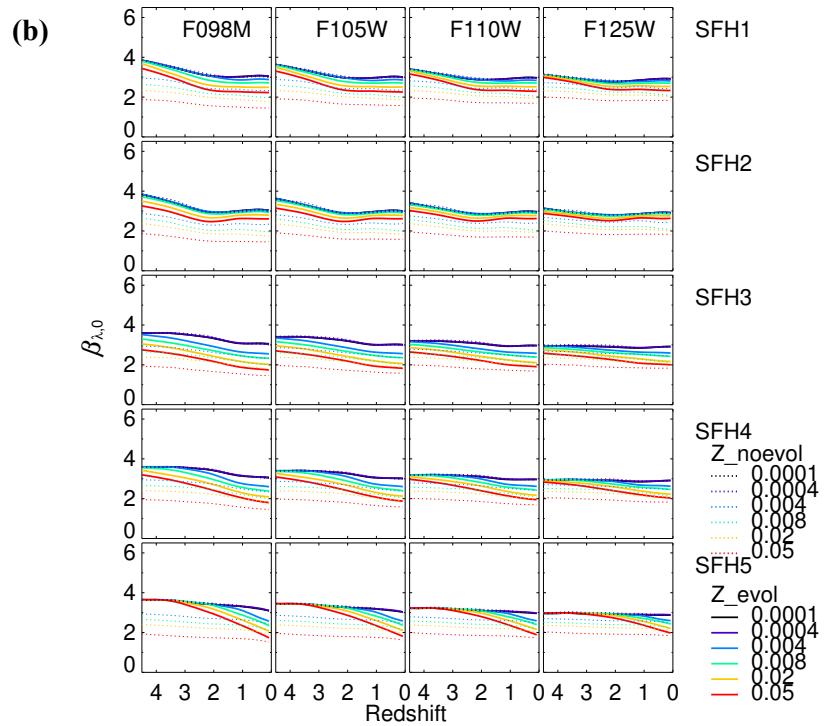
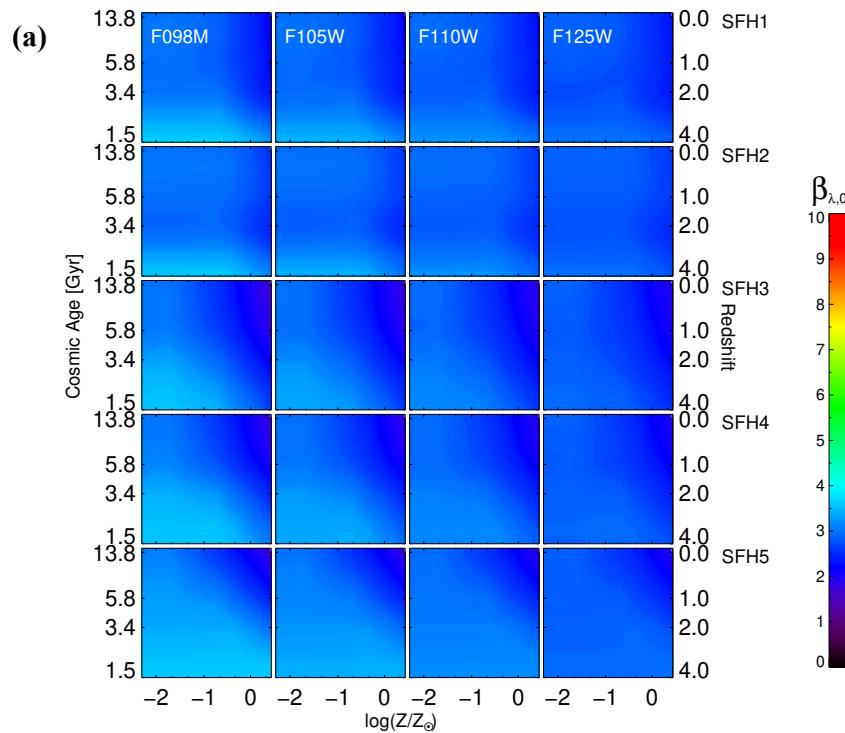


Figure 2.22: Same as Figure 2.16 for the *HST*/WFC3 IR *F098M*, *F105W*, *F110W*, and *F125W* filters.

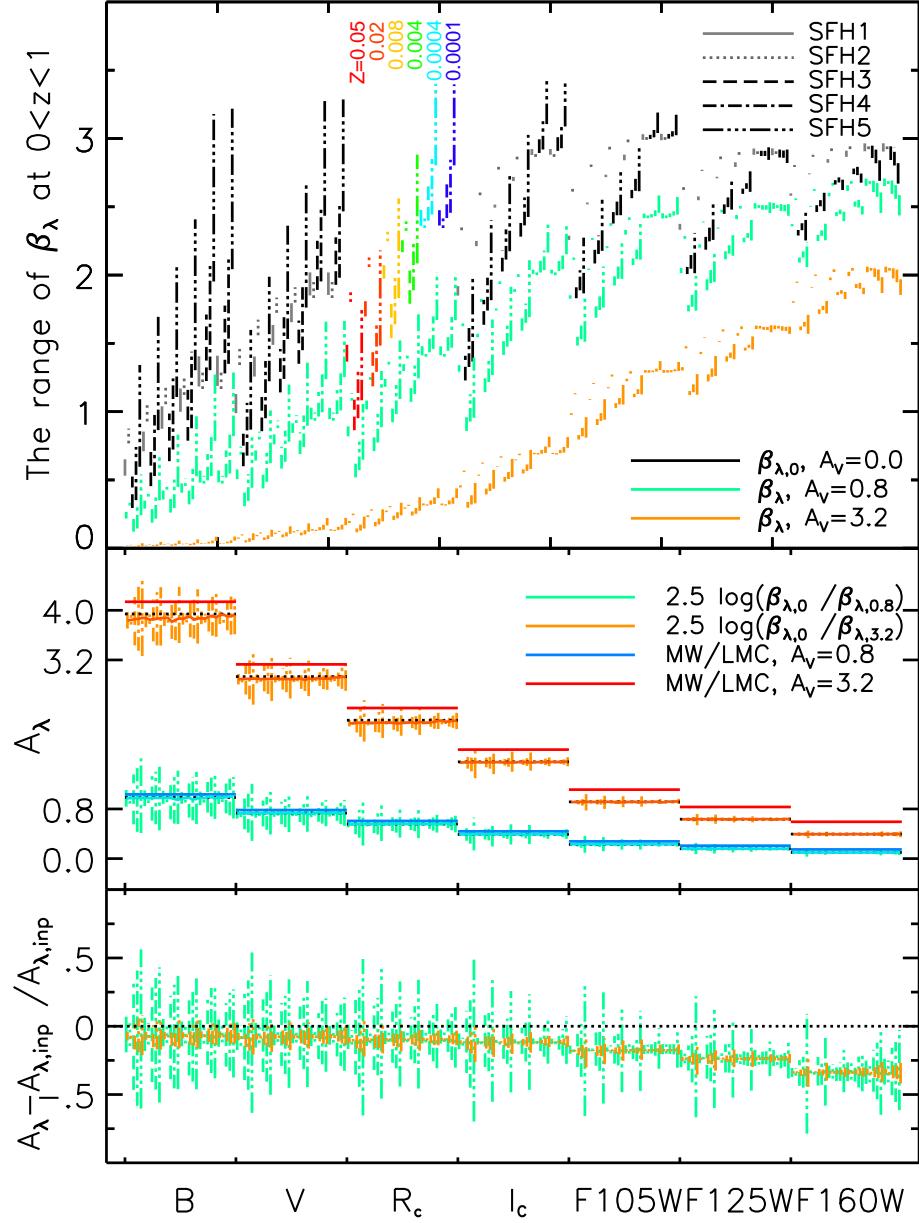


Figure 2.23: (top) The  $\pm 1 \sigma$  ranges of  $\beta_\lambda$  values, referenced to  $L$ , for CSPs at  $0 < z < 1$  for different choices of the optical–NIR filters (bottom axis) for various metallicities, SFHs, and dust extinction values. (middle) Comparison between dust extinction values calculated using the ratio of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  and  $\beta_\lambda$  values (center values are connected), and dust extinction values,  $A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}$ , using the MW/LMC extinction law (red and blue horizontal lines). Dotted black lines indicate  $A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}$  values with  $-0.05$  and  $-0.19$  mag offsets for  $A_V = 0.8$  and  $A_V = 3.2$ , respectively (see text), which arise from neglecting the residual extinction in the  $L$  filter. (bottom) Normalized ranges of recovered  $A_\lambda$  with respect to  $A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}$ . For high extinction values (orange), the  $\beta_\lambda$  method can recover  $A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}$  to better than  $\sim 20\%$  for individual resolved galaxies when the redshift is only minimally constrained and when allowing a wide range in SFHs and metallicity. For large samples of galaxies, the  $\beta_V$  method recovers the *mean* extinction to better than 10%.

filters show much narrower ranges of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ . As these filters are closer to the  $L$  band, this can be understood as sampling the light from similar stellar populations.

In the middle panel of Figure 2.23, I compare the range of extinction values,  $A_\lambda$ , recovered from the  $\beta_\lambda$  method:

$$A_\lambda = 2.5 \log (\beta_{\lambda,0}/\beta_\lambda) , \quad (2.5)$$

to the extinction values  $A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}$  imposed as

$$F_{\lambda,\text{ext}} = F_{\lambda,\text{int}} \cdot 10^{-0.4 \cdot A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}} \quad (2.6)$$

where  $F_{\lambda,\text{int}}$  and  $F_{\lambda,\text{ext}}$  are intrinsic and attenuated fluxes in each bandpass. These input extinction values are indicated by the horizontal red ( $A_V = 3.2$  mag) and blue ( $A_V = 0.8$  mag) lines. There are small systematic offsets of the median recovered  $A_\lambda$  (indicated by the dark orange and cyan horizontal lines) from the  $A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}$  values (red and blue horizontal lines). In  $V$ , these offsets are  $-0.05$  and  $-0.24$  mag for  $A_V = 0.8$  and  $A_V = 3.2$  mag, respectively, of which  $-0.05$  and  $-0.19$  mag results from the assumption of the  $\beta_\lambda$  method that the extinction in the  $L$  band is negligible. The relative error due to this assumption becomes more obvious in the near-IR, where the extinction values are also small. In fact, in the near-IR filters, this can account for the full offset observed. The additional  $\sim 0.05$  mag offset observed for  $A_V = 3.2$  mag originates from the non-normal distribution of  $A_\lambda$  values (I plot the center value of the range, not the mid-point).

In order to determine whether the near-IR filters are a better choice for the  $\beta_\lambda$  technique over the optical filters, I compare their normalized scatter of  $A_\lambda$  values in the bottom panel of Figure 2.23. After normalization, the level of scatter is consistent from the optical through the near-IR filters, but the assumption of negligible extinction in  $L$  leads to a progressively worse underestimation of  $A_\lambda$  in a relative sense. To have a sufficient handle on the extinction over a wide range of extinction values, it is therefore recommended to use the bluest filter available. From this panel we also see that the minimum scatter in the recovered  $A_\lambda$  values

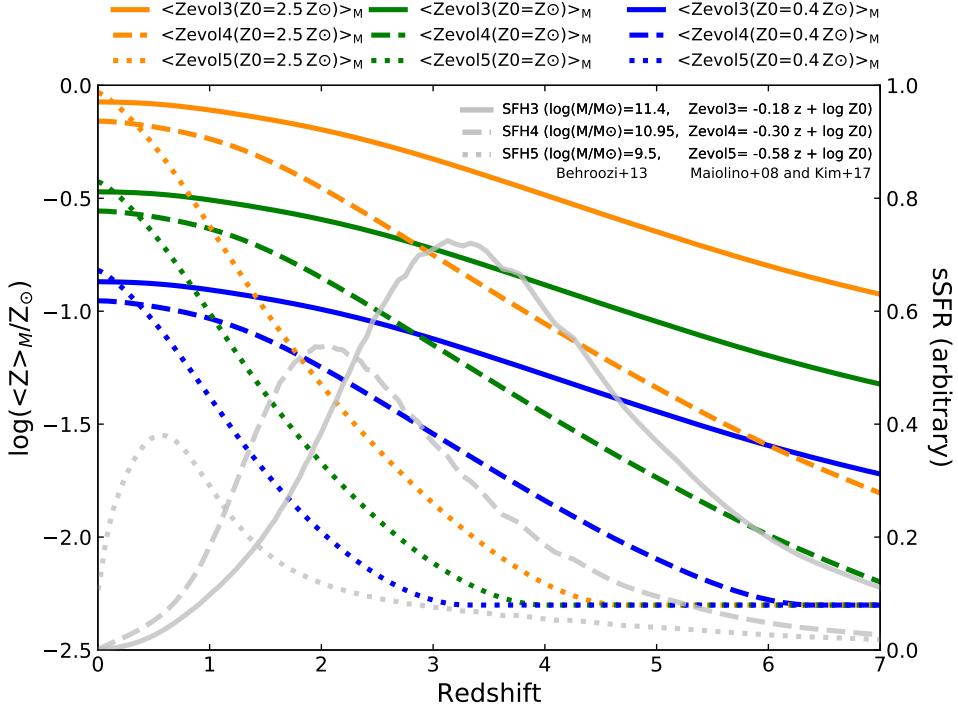


Figure 2.24: Mass-weighted metallicities,  $\langle Z \rangle_M$ , and specific SFRs (sSFRs) as a function of redshift are indicated by the colored and gray lines, respectively. For sSFRs, I adopted SFRs of galaxies with stellar masses of  $10^{11.4}$  (SFH3),  $10^{10.95}$  (SFH4), and  $10^{9.5}$   $M_\odot$  (SFH5) from Behroozi *et al.* (2013). Linear metallicity evolution as a function of redshift was derived from these SFRs and the mass-metallicity relation of Maiolino *et al.* (2008). The  $\langle Z \rangle_M$  at a certain redshift,  $z_c$ , is the sum of the product of metallicity and SFR divided by the sum of the SFRs in the redshift range  $z > z_c$ . The lower metallicity limit at  $\log Z/Z_\odot \cong -2.3$  was set by the lowest metallicity available from SED models of simple stellar populations from BC03 and Starburst99.

consistently occurs for the lowest metallicity values and for SFHs characterized by little recent star formation (e.g., SFH3).

### 2.2.2.1 Mass-weighted Metallicity

Figure 2.24 shows the specific SFRs (sSFRs), and the mass-weighted metallicity,  $\langle Z \rangle_M$ , as a function of redshift. The gray solid, dashed, and dotted lines indicate amplitudes of multiple

exponentially declining star-formation episodes for early-type (SFH3), spiral (SFH4), and late-type (SFH5) galaxies, respectively. The SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5 models are from Behroozi *et al.* (2013) for galaxies with stellar masses of  $10^{11.4}$ ,  $10^{10.95}$ , and  $10^{9.5} M_{\odot}$ , respectively.

The  $\langle Z \rangle_M$  value is the sum of the products of SFR and metallicity divided by the sum of the SFRs up to a certain redshift ( $z > x$ ; see Equation 2.9). The colored solid, dashed, and dotted lines in Figure 2.24 are the  $\langle Z \rangle_m$  values of galaxies with SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5, respectively. I derived slopes for linear cosmic metallicity evolution as a function of redshift using the mass-metallicity relation from Maiolino *et al.* (2008) and three SFHs from Behroozi *et al.* (2013), which are  $-0.18$  (SFH3),  $-0.03$  (SFH4), and  $-0.58$  (SFH5) (see also Figure 20 of Maiolino and Mannucci, 2019). The orange, green, and blue lines represent different metallicity offsets,  $Z(z=0)$ , of  $2.5$ ,  $1.0$ , and  $0.4 Z_{\odot}$ , respectively. The lower limit of the metallicity evolution was selected as  $Z = 0.0001$ , which originated from the available SED models BC03 (Bruzual and Charlot, 2003) and Starburst99 (Leitherer *et al.*, 1999) that I used for young and old stellar populations. For example, the solid orange line represents the evolution of the  $\langle Z \rangle_M$  of a galaxy having SFH3 with a slope of the linear metallicity evolution of  $-0.18$  (Zvol3) with a metallicity offset,  $Z(z=0)$ , of  $2.5 Z_{\odot}$ . Due to massive galaxies having high metallicities and dwarf galaxies having low metallicities on average, Figure 2.24 would not show many galaxies with dotted orange or solid blue lines. Nonetheless, I showed all these results for completeness.

Nine  $\langle Z \rangle_M$  values at  $z = 0$  are shown in Figure 3.12 either above or below each colored line with the same color and line type as the corresponding colored lines in Figure 2.24.

### 2.2.3 $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ for Galaxies of Different Hubble Type at $z \simeq 0$

Nearby galaxies have been characterized by their morphologies and studied separately ever since Hubble (1926) first classified them based on their morphologies (e.g., de Vaucouleurs,

1959; Odewahn, 1995; van den Bergh, 1998; Buta *et al.*, 2007). Morphology can be estimated from single-band imaging data, and is known to closely correlate with both structural properties of galaxies and their SFHs (e.g., Humason *et al.*, 1956; de Jong, 1996; Jansen *et al.*, 2000b,a; Windhorst *et al.*, 2002; Conselice *et al.*, 2004; Taylor *et al.*, 2005; Taylor-Mager *et al.*, 2007; Hoyos *et al.*, 2016). Examining the relationship between  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values and the morphology of galaxies will therefore be useful.

To address this, I first generate multiple arrays of SEDs with different SFH criteria: 1000 SFH3-ETG, 1000 SFH4-Spiral, and 1000 SFH5-LTG (see § 2.1.2). GD15 presented integral field spectroscopy of 300 nearby galaxies of various Hubble types, and derived radial profiles of stellar population properties such as age, metallicity, and  $A_V$ . I adopt the mean of their weighted age and metallicity values for different Hubble types as a function of galactic radii. For spiral galaxies, I adopted the results of their face-on sample rather than edge-on sample, to minimize the effect of overlapping stellar populations and high mid-plane extinction. I then derive  $\beta_{V,0}$  profiles for different Hubble types by comparing age and metallicity values of GD15 and my SEDs.

At each discrete Age step in Table A.1 for cosmic times later than 545 Myr ( $z < 9$ ; see Figure 2.3), I calculated mass-weighted ages,  $\langle t \rangle_M$ , light-weighted ages,  $\langle t \rangle_L$ , and mass-weighted metallicities,  $\langle Z \rangle_M$ , for consistency with GD15 as

$$\langle t \rangle_L = \sum_{t'=t_0}^t \log t' \mathcal{F}(t') \psi(t') \delta t' / \sum_{t'=t_0}^t \mathcal{F}(t') \psi(t') \delta t', \quad (2.7)$$

$$\langle t \rangle_M = \sum_{t'=t_0}^t \log t' \psi(t') \delta t' / \sum_{t'=t_0}^t \psi(t') \delta t', \quad (2.8)$$

$$\langle Z \rangle_M = \sum_{t'=t_0}^t \log Z(t', Z_0) \psi(t') \delta t' / \sum_{t'=t_0}^t \psi(t') \delta t' \quad (2.9)$$

where  $\mathcal{F}$  is the flux at 5635Å, and  $\psi(t)$  denotes the SFR,  $Z_0$  is the metallicity at  $z=0$ , and metallicity is a function of cosmic time and  $Z_0$ , i.e.,  $Z(t', Z_0)$  (see Figure 2.24).

Table 2.5:  $\beta_{V,0}$  Values at HLR  $R_e$  of Galaxies for each Hubble Type, Assuming either SSPs or CSPs with Stochastic SFHs

Hubble Type	SSP		Stochastic SFHs		
	$\langle t \rangle_L$	$\langle t \rangle_M$	$\langle t \rangle_L$	$\langle t \rangle_M$	Family
E0	$0.60^{+0.16}_{-0.14}$	$0.57^{+0.14}_{-0.13}$	$0.64^{+0.04}_{-0.07}$	$0.65^{+0.03}_{-0.07}$	SFH3
S0	$0.63^{+0.14}_{-0.13}$	$0.58^{+0.12}_{-0.11}$	$0.64^{+0.03}_{-0.07}$	$0.64^{+0.03}_{-0.07}$	SFH3
Sa	$0.74^{+0.17}_{-0.17}$	$0.61^{+0.17}_{-0.16}$	$0.74^{+0.14}_{-0.11}$	$0.65^{+0.14}_{-0.03}$	SFH4
Sb	$0.79^{+0.08}_{-0.09}$	$0.65^{+0.11}_{-0.10}$	$0.76^{+0.05}_{-0.03}$	$0.72^{+0.06}_{-0.09}$	SFH4
Sbc	$0.93^{+0.50}_{-0.13}$	$0.78^{+0.17}_{-0.17}$	$1.02^{+0.29}_{-0.27}$	$0.77^{+0.26}_{-0.12}$	SFH4
Sc	$1.65^{+0.49}_{-0.71}$	$0.88^{+0.22}_{-0.18}$	$1.09^{+0.37}_{-0.31}$	$1.06^{+0.30}_{-0.31}$	SFH5
Sd	$2.17^{+0.38}_{-0.62}$	$1.03^{+0.30}_{-0.17}$	$1.43^{+0.44}_{-0.36}$	$1.39^{+0.43}_{-0.34}$	SFH5

Note. The indicated ranges of  $\beta_{V,0}$  for each model are derived from the uncertainties in the  $\langle t \rangle_L$ ,  $\langle t \rangle_M$ , and  $\langle Z \rangle_M$  values. For each type of SFH, I compare mass- and luminosity-weighted  $\beta_{V,0}$  values and ranges.

Figure 2.25a and b show smoothed median radial profiles of  $\beta_{V,0}$  for galaxies modeled by SSP and stochastic SFHs, respectively, for different Hubble types. For stochastic SFHs, I used the SEDs of SFH3-ETG for E and S0, SFH4-Spiral for Sa–Sbc, and SFH5-LTG for Sc and Sd Hubble types, respectively.  $\langle \beta_{V,0} \rangle$  in Figure 2.25b is the average  $\beta_V$  of 1000 randomly generated SFHs for each stochastic SFH family. In both panels, each profile was boxcar smoothed using a radial filter with a width corresponding to one half-light radius. Galaxies of E and S0 type have an almost constant  $\beta_{V,0}$  value with increasing galactic radius for both SSPs and stochastic SFHs. Later types have higher and more fluctuating  $\beta_{V,0}$  values and show a stronger dependence on radius. Table 2.5 lists representative mass- and light-weighted  $\beta_{V,0}$  values at the HLR ( $R_e$ ) for each Hubble type for both SSPs and CSPs resulting from stochastic SFHs. I derive uncertainties in the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values from the  $1\sigma$  ranges presented in GD15 (their Figures 9, 15, and 18) by randomly varying the age and metallicity values in my models within these allowed ranges. The total range of luminosity-weighted  $\beta_{V,0}$  values for nearby galaxies thus derived is 0.57–1.87 (the  $\langle t \rangle_L$  column for stochastic SFHs). For a galaxy of known morphological type, however, the likely range in  $\beta_{V,0}$  is only  $\sim \pm 10\%$  with respect to the mean value

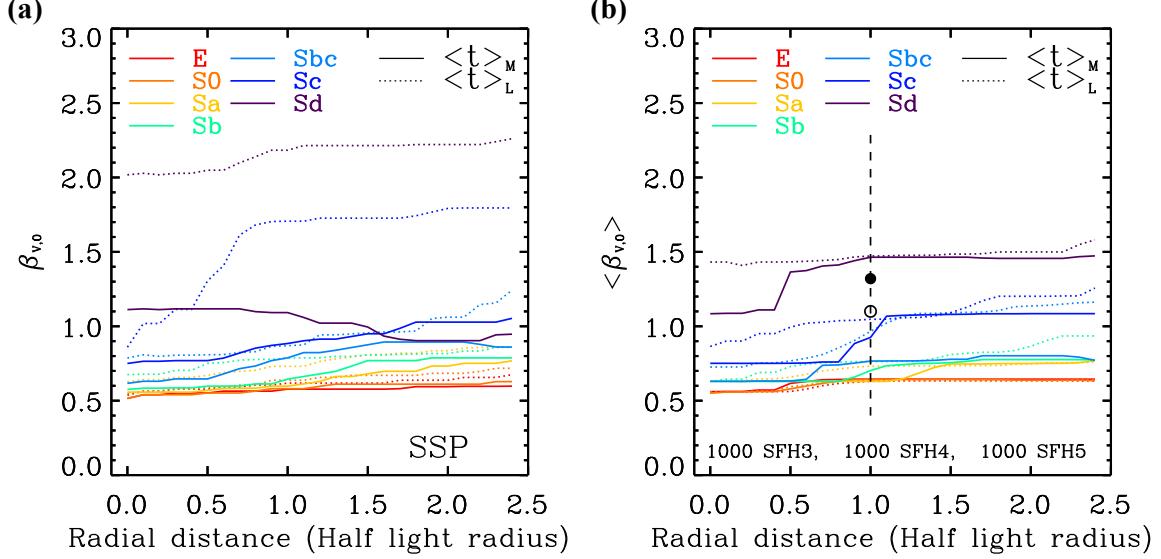


Figure 2.25:  $\beta_{V,0}$  as a function of radius for galaxies of different Hubble type. (a)  $\beta_{V,0}$  profiles derived from an array of SSP SEDs, and (b) mean  $\langle \beta_{V,0} \rangle$  profiles resulting from 3000 arrays of stochastic SFH SEDs that I randomly generated using mass- (solid) and light-weighted (dotted) age and mass-weighted metallicity values from GD15. The solid (open) black circle indicates the value adopted by T09 for younger (older) stellar populations within NGC 959 (Sdm). For both SSP and stochastic SFH SEDs, I plot boxcar-smoothed radial profiles of  $\beta_{V,0}$  and of average  $\beta_{V,0}$  values, respectively (see text). The  $\beta_{V,0}$  values vary little with radius for early-type galaxies for both SSPs and stochastic SFHs. For late-type galaxies, the presence of a bulge or older population would reduce the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values within  $R_e$ .

for E, S0, Sa, and Sb galaxies, although late-type spiral and Magellanic-type galaxies display a wider  $\pm 30\text{--}50\%$  range. Figure 2.25b also shows that the mean  $\beta_{V,0}$  values beyond  $R_e$  in the case of (observed) light-weighted ages are similar, but systematically higher (by up to  $\sim 8\text{--}20\%$  at  $2.5 R_e$ ) than the (intrinsic) mass-weighted ages.

### 2.3 Discussion

I have generalized the  $\beta_V$  method to a  $\beta_\lambda$  method by placing the method on a more robust footing that does not require manual estimation of the intrinsic flux ratios from pixel histograms and that provides evaluation of the associated uncertainties for a large number of optical–near-IR and mid-IR filters. Stars with young ages and low metallicities emit light with SEDs that

have high  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values, and as stars age and as stars become more metal-rich, the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values decrease and stabilize. Tamura *et al.* (2009) also observed this trend in their 2D map of  $\beta_{V,0}$  values (their Figure 2), which was based on SSPs and the model SEDs from Anders and Fritze-von Alvensleben (2003).

### 2.3.1 Application to Discrete Sets of Filters at $0 < z < 1.9$

While using near-IR filters results in a narrower  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  range over the redshift range  $0 < z < 1$  (see Figure 2.23), after normalization, the relative dispersion in the simulated  $A_{\lambda}$  values is comparable in the optical and near-IR filters. One should be cautious about using near-IR bandpasses at low redshift, however, since the offset due to the residual extinction in the mid-IR reference filter becomes more noticeable (see Figure 2.23, bottom panel). Nonetheless, *HST*/WFC3 near-IR filters may be used to sample visible rest-frame wavelengths up to  $z \sim 1.9$ . In that case, one should use the filter nearest the corresponding rest-frame wavelength when applying the  $\beta_{\lambda}$  method. For instance, at  $z \simeq 1.9$ , the *HST*/WFC3 IR F160W filter would sample rest-frame  $V$ , and the *JWST*/MIRI F1000W bandpass would sample rest-frame  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$ , so one can use the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values presented in this paper and on my website<sup>2</sup>.

Although the value of  $\beta_{V,0}$  will depend on the detailed shape of the throughput curves of the filters sampling the rest-frame  $V$  and  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$  light, Figures 2.13 and 2.14 show that such dependence for even quite mismatched filters (e.g.,  $L'$  and *WISE WI*) affects  $\beta_{V,0}$  at the  $\lesssim 20\%$  level. For bandpasses that are better matched to the  $L$  band, such as *Spitzer*/IRAC  $I1$  and *JWST*/NIRCam F356W, the differences tend to be at the  $\lesssim 5\%$  level, except for very young ( $< 10$  Myr) stellar ages and for high metallicities ( $Z > 0.02$ ). A similar caution applies at redshifts where the bandpass sampling rest-frame  $V$  light differs very much from that of

the  $V$  filter at  $z \sim 0$ . Nonetheless, the dependence of the accuracy of the  $\beta_\lambda$  technique on the choice of filters in both the optical–near-IR and mid-IR is weak.

### 2.3.2 Application to Galaxy Samples Using Realistic SFHs

I have extended my models from SSP to more complex SFHs. In real galaxies, the observed  $\beta_\lambda$  flux ratios are also affected by spatial resolution, as light from a broad region within a galaxy would result from a combination of various stellar populations, each resulting from different complex stochastic SFHs. For example, Galliano *et al.* (2011) obtained a  $\sim 50\%$  difference in inferred dust mass when they used integrated SEDs with different spatial resolutions. The sharp features in a map of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values of SSPs in Figure 2.12 at young ( $\lesssim 100$  Myr) ages are smeared out when a galaxy has a more complex SFH, such as an exponentially declining SFH. In addition, I adopt five families of stochastic SFHs that are composed of multiple exponentially declining star formation episodes, and probe variations of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values over cosmic history. For a minimally constrained redshift range,  $0 < z < 1$ , the variation in  $\beta_\lambda$  is dominated by SFH5, representing late-type galaxies. The other SFH families show more modest variations for a given metallicity and choice of optical–near-IR filter (see Figures 2.16–2.23). Metallicity evolution is taken into account and makes a noticeable difference (Figures 2.15 and 2.16b), predicting higher  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values than in the no-evolution case, especially at higher redshifts and for the higher-metallicity stellar populations at those redshifts.

I first consider the applicability of the  $\beta_\lambda$  method for a galaxy sample with a large effectively unconstrained redshift range ( $0 \lesssim z \lesssim 4$ ). The  $\beta_{V,0}$  values could span 0.6–4.7 in that case (see Figure 2.16 and § 2.2.2). For the minimally constrained  $0 < z < 1$  redshift range, the scatter in recovered  $A_\lambda$  is  $\sim 0.2$  mag in  $V$  and decreases with increasing wavelength, but varies little with the amount of input extinction imposed (Figure 2.23, middle panel). The normalized difference

of the recovered and input extinction,  $(A_\lambda - A_{\lambda,\text{inp}})/A_{\lambda,\text{inp}}$ , on the other hand, is  $\sim 23\%$  and  $\sim 16\%$  for  $A_V = 0.8$  and  $A_V = 3.2$  mag, respectively (see bottom panel of Figure 2.23). Note, however, that this reflects what one would expect for individual galaxies (or regions therein). The mean difference of the recovered and input extinction values is close to 0.0, suggesting that the  $\beta_\lambda$  method can accurately recover the mean extinction for a larger sample of galaxies spanning a range of redshifts, SFHs, and metallicities, and also of a population of galaxies of a given type within a narrow redshift range. The highly attenuated case ( $A_V = 3.2$ ) has a smaller scatter, because the extinction dominates the shape of the SED more than any other factors, like stellar age or metallicity. For normal ( $A_V \lesssim 1$ ) galaxies, I recommend using extra information, such as galaxy size and magnitudes, or if available, a photometric redshift estimate (or a spectroscopic redshift), for selecting the corresponding  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  value.

### 2.3.3 Dependence of $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ on Hubble Type and Weighting

Because one can classify the morphology of a galaxy with a single-band image (with the caveat of a slight rest-frame wavelength dependence of the morphology for different Hubble types, as found by Windhorst *et al.* 2002), studying the relationship between galactic morphology and  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values can be useful, since the  $\beta_\lambda$  method is specifically designed as a dust-correction technique when a very limited number of filters are available. I used the SFH3–5 criteria (see § 2.1.2) to generate multiple arrays of SEDs combined with the stellar population parameters from GD15 to obtain the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values for different Hubble types (see Figure 2.25b). For a given galaxy type,  $\beta_{V,0}$  values vary little as a function of galactic radius. Later Hubble types typically have higher  $\beta_{V,0}$  values (see also Table 2.5), as their stellar populations tend to be younger and metallicities lower than earlier types (see Figure 17 in GD15). I also investi-

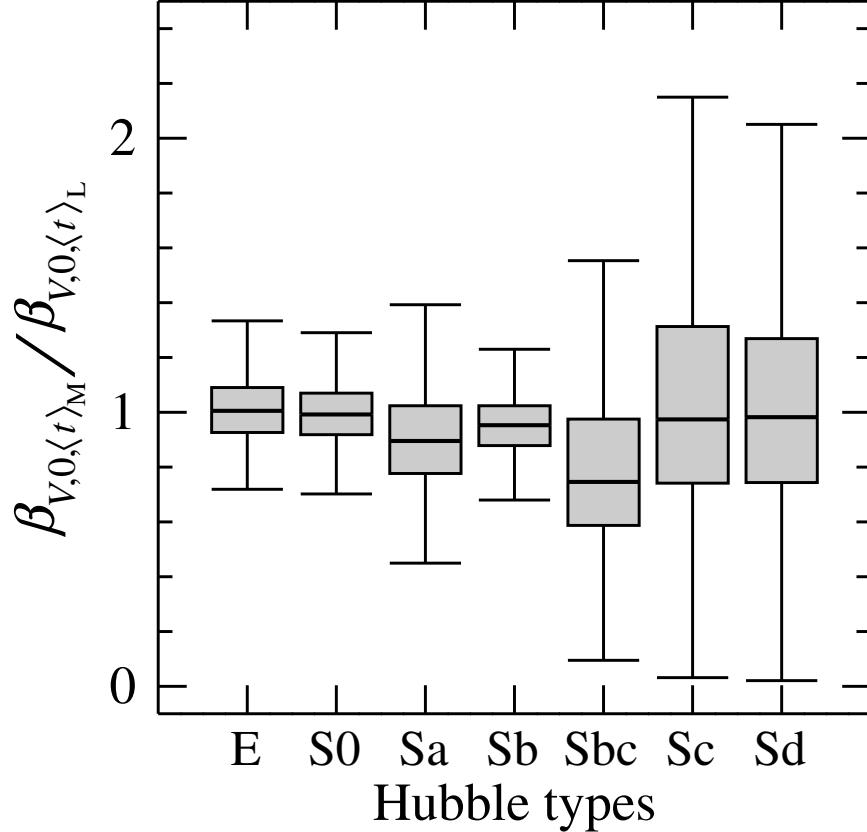


Figure 2.26: Ratio of  $\beta_{V,0}$  values for mass- and light-weighted ages for different Hubble types. For each Hubble type, I randomly generated 1000  $\beta_{V,0}$  values each for both mass- and light-weighted ages, adopting the mean and  $1\sigma$  values at  $R_e$  listed in Table 2.5. The horizontal lines inside the boxes represent the median ratios. The gray boxes indicate the quartile range, while the error bars contain 99.7% of the distribution. The weighting method does not affect the inferred  $\beta_{V,0}$  value for a given Hubble type in a systematic manner.

gate the effect of different weighting methods. The ratios between  $\beta_{V,0}$  values resulting from using mass- and light-weighted ages are shown in Figure 2.26 as a function of Hubble type. I find no strong dependence of the median ratios of  $\beta_{V,0}$  values with different weighting methods on Hubble type. Also indicated in Figure 2.26 are the quartile ranges and the  $\pm 3\sigma$  range of these ratios. Light-weighted  $\beta_{V,0}$  values are unlikely to differ by more than 10% (30%) from mass-weighted ones for early-type (late-type) galaxies.

To test the reliability of the  $\beta_\lambda$  method, in Figure 2.27, I compare the inferred  $\beta_V$  values

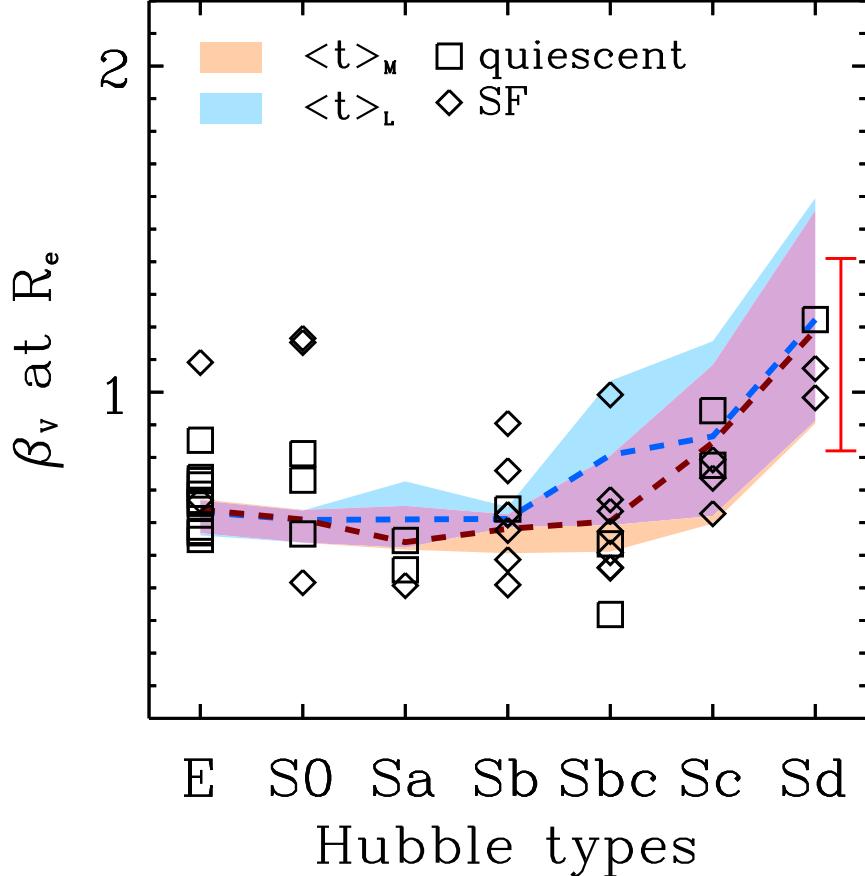


Figure 2.27:  $\beta_V$  values at the HLR,  $R_e$ , as a function of Hubble type (dashed lines) using mass- (dark brown), or light-weighted (blue) ages and  $A_V$  values. The shaded regions are the  $\pm 1 \sigma$  ranges of  $\beta_V$  values. I overplot the  $\beta_V$  values of nearby galaxies from Brown *et al.* (2014). The dashed curves represent median trends. The red error bar indicates the range of  $\beta_V$  values observed by T09 in NGC 959 (Sdm).

with observed  $\beta_V$  values for nearby galaxies. I used  $\langle \beta_{V,0} \rangle$  values from Figure 2.25b at the half-light radius and the allowed  $1 \sigma$  range therein computed by varying ages and metallicities within the  $1 \sigma$  observed ranges of GD15 (see their Figures. 8, 11, and 18), coupled with the mean  $A_V$  values of the corresponding Hubble types at the half-light radii from GD15 ( $\langle A_V \rangle = 0.01, 0.06, 0.22, 0.25, 0.27, 0.26$ , and  $0.18$  for E, S0, Sa, Sb, Sbc, Sc, and Sd galaxies) to derive the predicted ranges for the  $\beta_V$  values one would observe for each of the Hubble types (see also Figure 3.5). The dark brown (blue) dashed line and the orange (blue) shaded region indicate

the median and  $1\sigma$  range of the  $\beta_V$  values when using mass- (light-) weighted ages, and the violet region represents the region of overlap. The  $\beta_V$  values of 23 nearby ( $z \lesssim 0.05$ ) quiescent (limited star formation) and 28 normally star-forming galaxies from Brown *et al.* 2014 are overplotted. Galaxies with “peculiar” morphologies, and galaxies with “SF/AGN,” or “AGN” BPT classes are excluded. Brown *et al.* (2014) combined multiple spectra and broadband data of nearby galaxies, and carefully performed aperture corrections in order to construct a template library. I used their aperture-corrected SDSS  $g$ ,  $r$  band and the *Spitzer*/IRAC Channel 1 ( $II$ ) magnitudes to derive the  $\beta_V$  values. The SDSS  $g$  and  $r$  band magnitudes are converted into  $V$ -band magnitudes using the transformation equation from Jester *et al.* (2005). I take the *Spitzer*  $II$  magnitudes as proxy for  $L$  band magnitudes, since Figure 2.13 and 2.14 show that the resulting  $\beta_{V,0}$  are at most  $\lesssim 10\%$  higher and show little structure. Our model and observation agree well, except in a few cases for star-forming galaxies with Hubble type E and S0, which seem to be outliers (see Section 2.1.4 of Brown *et al.* 2014). Last, I note that the 0.82–1.41 range of  $\beta_V$  values observed by T09 for Sdm galaxy NGC 959 is in good agreement with the trend in values inferred for the galaxy sample of Brown *et al.* (2014), as well as with the range predicted by my models in Figure 2.27, and that their empirical values adopted for the intrinsic  $\beta_{V,0}$  ratios are consistent with those predicted in the present study (e.g., Figure 2.25b and Table 2.5 (Sd)).

#### 2.3.4 Comparison with Other Methods

I next compare the  $\beta_V$  method to other established methods of correcting galaxy SEDs for attenuation by cosmic dust. In Figure 2.28a, I compare the relative differences between recovered and input extinction values (normalized to the input value,  $A_{V,\text{inp}}$ ) for (multiband)

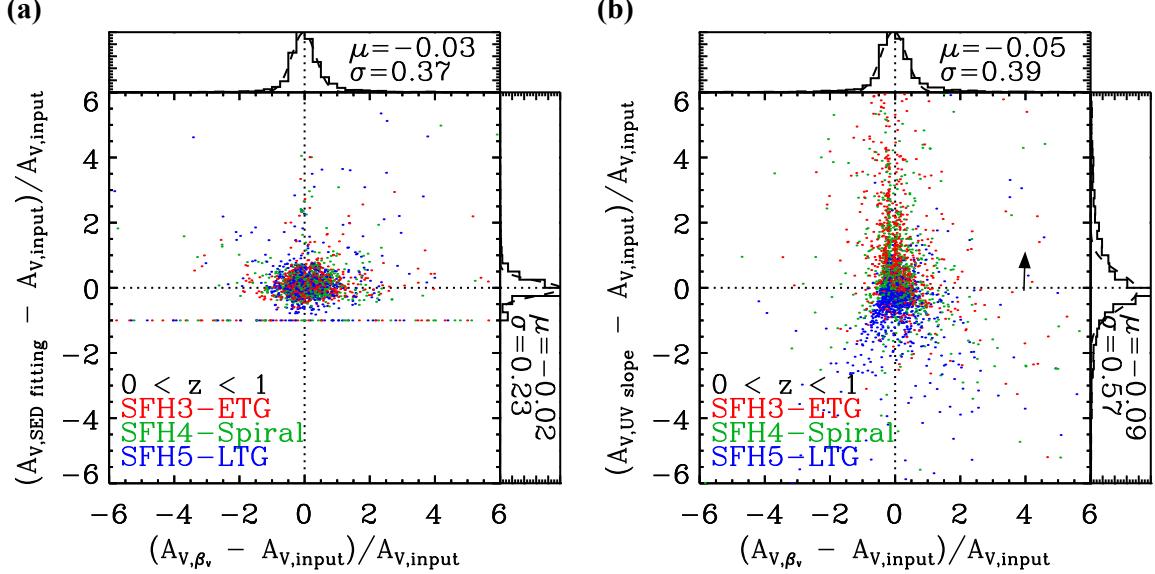


Figure 2.28: Comparison of the  $\beta_V$  method to other dust-correction methods. (a) Comparison of the normalized difference between recovered and input extinction values in  $V$  for both the SED-fitting and  $\beta_V$  methods. The  $\beta_V$  method shows a comparable average offset and scatter around the true value of  $A_V$  to the SED-fitting method, although it requires less information. To derive  $A_V$  for my families of stochastic SFHs, I used the  $0 < z < 1$  average values of  $\beta_{V,0}$  of 1.40, 1.48, and 1.78 for SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5, respectively. (b) As (a) for both the UV-slope and  $\beta_V$  methods. The  $A_V$  values recovered by the UV-slope method are systematically slightly lower than the  $A_{V,\text{inp}}$  values ( $\mu = -0.10$  mag; for a MW/LMC extinction law as in Calzetti *et al.* (1994), and the scatter is larger than for the  $\beta_V$  method ( $\sigma = 0.60$  vs. 0.38 mag). The black arrow shows how the offset would change if I adopted a Calzetti *et al.* (2000) extinction law ( $\mu = +1.10$ ).

SED fitting and the  $\beta_V$  method. When I impose minimal constraints on the allowed redshift range ( $0 < z < 1$ ), the SED-fitting method provides estimates that are closer to the true input value,  $A_{V,\text{inp}}$ , on average ( $\mu = -0.02$  vs.  $-0.03$  mag), and with a smaller scatter ( $\sigma = 0.23$  vs. 0.37 mag). The small fraction of data points for the SED-fitting method at a normalized difference of exactly  $-1$  result where the best fit was for  $A_V = 0$  mag (out of the finite set of discrete extinction values), when any non-zero extinction was imposed. These data points do not significantly broaden the distribution. The  $\beta_V$  method shows a somewhat larger scatter, but not by much, considering that the  $\beta_V$  method requires significantly less information than the SED-fitting method to correct for dust extinction. In order to make this comparison, I construct a

large set of randomly generated SEDs for stochastic SFHs representing early-type, spiral, and late-type galaxies (my SFH families SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5; see § 2.1.2), sampled at random redshifts in the range  $0 < z < 1$ , and with random amounts of extinction ( $0 \leq A_V \leq 2$  mag) applied and characterized by a randomly selected extinction law (MW/MW, SMC, or Calzetti). To apply the  $\beta_V$  method and recover  $A_V$ , I assume that the appropriate SFH family to use would be known *a priori* from the morphological type of an observed galaxy, and only minimally restrict the redshift to the same  $0 < z < 1$  range. The average values of  $\beta_{V,0}$  in this redshift range are 1.40, 1.48, and 1.78 for SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5, respectively. Using Equation 2.5, I then infer (recover) for each model SED an extinction value  $A_V$  from the appropriate mean  $\beta_{V,0}$  value and the observed  $(V - L)$  color (expressed as a flux ratio, i.e.,  $\beta_V$ ). As templates for the SED-fitting method, I used the same set of 724 unique and distinguishable SSP SEDs (see Appendix A), either used as is, or incorporated into CSP SEDs for seven exponentially declining SFHs, or into my suite of stochastic SFHs (§ 2.1.2) with 300 random realizations for each of the SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5 families. The comparison should therefore not be biased by differences in the adopted set of input galaxy SED templates. Using the full rest-frame  $0.4 \leq \lambda \leq 3.75 \mu\text{m}$  portion of each of the SEDs, I perform the SED fit to characterize both stellar population parameters and recover  $A_V$ . This represents a *best-case* scenario, the results of which are shown in Figure 2.28a. If, as would be the case for a more realistic galaxy survey, the SED is sampled through multiple filters, each resulting in a single flux density data point, the comparison is unlikely to be more favorable for the SED-fitting method, although the allowed redshift range may be narrowed for galaxies displaying a strong 4000Å break.

In Figure 2.28(b) I compare the relative differences between recovered and input extinction values for the UV continuum slope method and the  $\beta_V$  method. Calzetti *et al.* (1994) studied the effect of dust extinction on the UV continuum in spectra of local starburst galaxies, and provided a relationship between the UV power-law index  $\beta$  and the optical depth  $\tau$  (their

Equation 4). For a *best-case* scenario, I use their fitting windows, sampling the 1268–2580Å wavelength range while excluding the interval that might be affected by a 2175Å-bump (if present), and adopt a MW/LMC extinction law to match Calzetti *et al.* (1994). The  $\beta_V$  method underestimates the extinction values in this test by  $\sim 5\%$  (compared to 9% for the UV continuum slope method) and shows a smaller scatter than the UV-slope method:  $\sigma = 0.39$  mag for the  $\beta_V$  method versus 0.57 mag for the UV-slope method. Note, however, that if I were to adopt a Calzetti *et al.* (2000) extinction law instead, this would result in recovered extinction values for the UV-slope method that are systematically *higher* than the input values by an amount indicated by the black arrow in Figure 2.28b, whereas the mean difference  $\mu$  would change by only  $+0.04$  for the  $\beta_V$  method. I also note that the UV-slope method shows a stronger dependence of the recovered  $A_\lambda$  on SFH (galaxy type) than does the  $\beta_V$  method.

My tests therefore show that the  $\beta_V$  method can indeed be used to infer  $A_V$  and correct for dust extinction to a level of fidelity that is comparable to that of more established methods, with fewer or more readily obtainable data. In particular, I note that *systematic* offsets in the recovered extinction values are *no worse* than for these two commonly used methods. These properties make the  $\beta_V$  ( $\beta_\lambda$ ) method a prime candidate for application to large imaging surveys with *JWST* of fields already observed with *HST* in the visible–near-IR.

### 2.3.5 $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ for Galaxies Observed with *HST* and *JWST*

For a  $z \simeq 0.3$  galaxy, rest-frame optical images from *HST*/ACS WFC or WFC3 UVIS (F606W, ..., F850LP) and rest-frame  $\sim 3.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  mid-IR images from *JWST*/NIRCam (F410M, F444W, F480M) will have resolutions of  $\sim 0.^{\prime\prime}06$ – $0.^{\prime\prime}09$  and  $\lesssim 0.^{\prime\prime}19$ , resolving regions of  $\lesssim 875\text{ pc}$  in size. At  $z \sim 2$ , *HST*/WFC3 IR F160W and *JWST*/MIRI F1000W sample rest-frame  $V$  and  $3.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ , but the resulting resolution of  $\sim 0.^{\prime\prime}48$  would not allow resolving regions

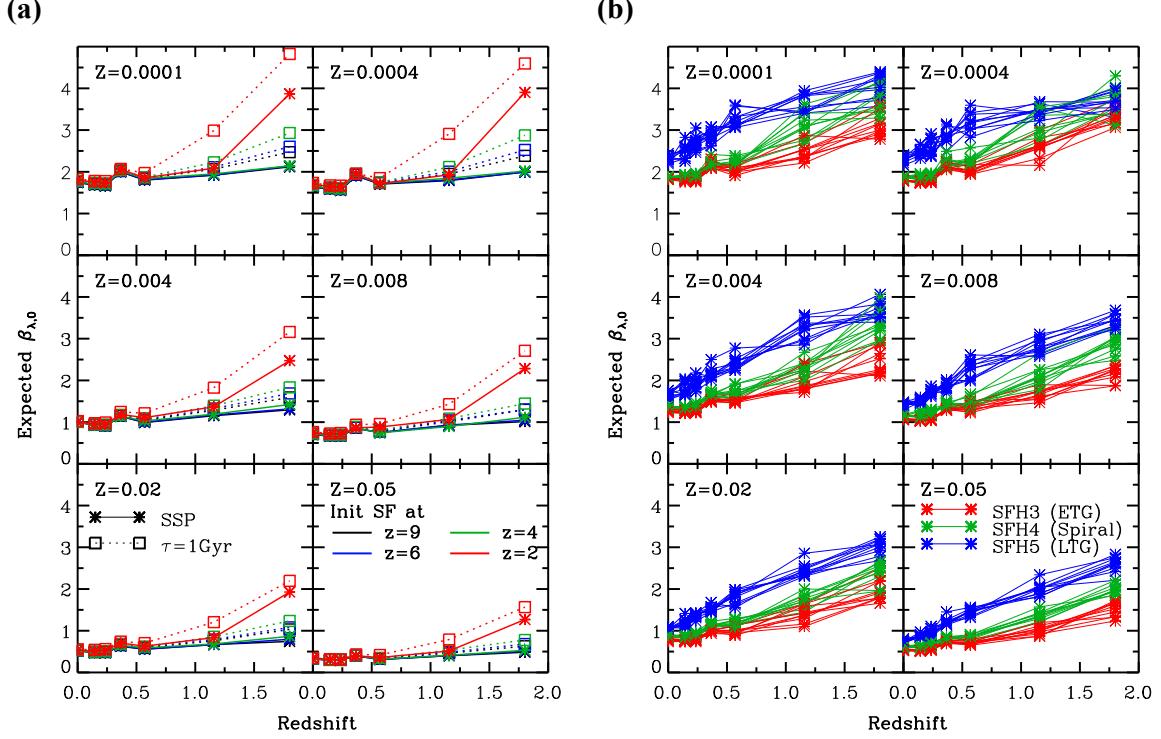


Figure 2.29: Expected intrinsic flux ratios  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  as a function of redshift for six metallicities and various SFHs, for redshifts where well-matched pairs of optical or near-IR *HST* and mid-IR *JWST* filters correspond to rest-frame  $V$  and  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively. (a)  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  for SSPs (solid) and exponentially declining SFHs with an  $e$ -folding time of 1 Gyr. Tracks are color-coded (as indicated in the lower right panel) according to the redshift of onset of the instantaneous (SSP) or extended star formation. At a fixed metallicity value and starburst onsets well before  $z=2$ ,  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  remains nearly constant over the entire  $0 \leq z \leq 2$  redshift range. (b) The same as (a) for 10 examples of each of my three stochastic SFH families. Except for the two very lowest metallicities,  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  increases with redshift in a nearly linear fashion, with little overlap between the tracks for the three SFH families.

smaller than  $\sim 4$  kpc. The combination of these two space telescopes will make studies of galaxies over billions of years possible in unprecedented detail. Specifically for this purpose, I therefore generate model SEDs and calculate  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values for a set of discrete redshifts at which well-matched *HST* and *JWST* filter pairs sample rest-frame  $V$  and  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$  emission. At redshifts  $z=0$ ,  $0.14$ ,  $0.24$ , and  $0.37$ , well-matched *HST* and *JWST*/NIRCam filter pairs are (F555W, F356W), (F606W, F410M), (F625W, F444W), and (F775W, F480M), respectively. At  $z=0.57$ ,  $1.16$ , and  $1.8$ , suitable *HST* and *JWST*/MIRI filter pairs are (F814W, F560W),

(F110W, F770W), and (F160W, F1000W). In Figure 2.29(a) I show the resulting tracks of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  versus redshift for six different metallicities and both SSP and exponentially declining SFHs with an *e*-folding time of 1 Gyr, and do so for four different redshifts of onset of either the instantaneous or extended star formation. For SF onset times well before  $z \sim 2$ , the tracks remain nearly constant over the entire redshift range at a given metallicity, although the mean  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values decrease systematically with increasing metallicity ( $\langle \beta_{\lambda} \rangle_{z < 1.2} \simeq 1.9, 1.8, 1.0, 0.8, 0.5$ , and  $0.4$  for  $Z = 0.0001, 0.0004, 0.004, 0.008, 0.02$ , and  $0.05$ , respectively). I similarly derive  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  for these *HST* and *JWST* filter pairs for our three families of stochastic SFHs. In Figure 2.29(b) I show  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  versus redshift for the same six metallicity values for 10 examples of each SFH family. The  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  tracks for each SFH family increase systematically and almost linearly with increasing redshift. The slopes of those tracks differ for each family, SFH5 (late-type) having the steepest slope and SFH3 (early-type) having the shallowest. Only at the two lowest metallicities do the late-type tracks start to deviate from their linear increase with redshift to overlap the tracks of spiral (at  $z > 1$ ) and even early-type galaxies (for  $z \gtrsim 1.5$ ). For higher metallicities there appears to be little overlap between the tracks for the three SFH families. With some constraints on the stellar metallicity, SFH, and redshift, the  $\beta_{\lambda}$  method can be a powerful tool to correct the spatially resolved images for large samples of galaxies observed with *HST* and *JWST* at moderate redshifts for the effects of extinction by dust.

## 2.4 Summary

I combined SSP SEDs from the Starburst99 and BC03 codes for young and old stellar ages, respectively, and generated arrays of CSP SEDs for a large variety of exponentially declining and stochastic SFHs by stacking SSP SEDs as a function of the adopted time-dependent SFRs. For my large suite of models with stochastic SFHs, I take the average metallicity evolution as

a function of cosmic age into account. I calculated the intrinsic flux ratios  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  between rest-frame visible–near-IR and rest-frame mid-IR  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$  on a grid of six metallicities and 16 ages of stellar populations for 13 different SFH families, for 29 visible–near-IR filters, and 5 mid-IR filters with central wavelengths near  $3.5 \mu\text{m}$ . I find that taking metallicity evolution into account results in significantly higher  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values at higher redshifts and for higher-metallicity stellar populations at those redshifts. I also provide the range of  $\beta_{V,0}$  and  $\beta_V$  for different Hubble types of nearby galaxies, and confirm that my models agree with the observed  $\beta_V$  values. I demonstrated that the  $\beta_V$  method can infer  $A_V$  to a level of fidelity that is comparable to that of more established methods. I conclude that the  $\beta_V$  method and its extension, the  $\beta_\lambda$  method presented here, are valid as a first-order dust-correction method, when using the morphology and size of a galaxy as broad a priori constraints to its SFH and redshift, respectively. The  $\beta_\lambda$  method will be applicable to large samples of galaxies for which resolved imagery is available in one rest-frame visible–near-IR filter and one rest-frame  $\lambda \sim 3.5 \mu\text{m}$  bandpass. I make my CSP synthesis models and all my results available via a dedicated website<sup>2</sup> in the form of FITS and PNG maps, and ASCII data tables of  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values as a function of age and metallicity.

## Chapter 3

### ANALYSIS OF THE SPATIALLY RESOLVED $V - 3.6 \mu\text{m}$ COLORS AND DUST EXTINCTION IN 257 NEARBY NGC AND IC GALAXIES

I then provide an extensive database of  $g$ - and  $V$ -band to  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  flux ratios for local galaxies and their corresponding dust-extinction maps. I analyze the results of the flux-ratios to evaluate the improvement, fidelity, and robustness offered by the approximate extinction corrections, as well as the nature of exceptional cases. I can then highlight coherent stellar structures previously hidden by dust, in addition to cases where the SED is non-thermal in nature, which can result from (weak) AGN. I also investigate the dependence on the physical resolution of a galaxy by comparing subsets of galaxies at different distances. I then compare my results with those obtained through multi-wavelength SED fitting found in the literature. All the work in this chapter is in press (K19).

#### 3.1 Sample Selection and Data

I select my sample galaxies from the Revised New General and Index Catalog<sup>6</sup> (Steinicke 2018; hereafter S18), as it contained data necessary for our analysis of well-studied nearby galaxies. Of the 13,226 objects in the catalog, 9995 objects are classified as galaxies. Out of these 9995 galaxies, 568 had available *Spitzer* Enhanced Imaging Product (SEIP) Super Mosaics FITS images, which were observed with the IRAC Channel 1 on board the *Spitzer*. These observations were taken at a wavelength of  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  and have a FWHM resolution of  $\sim 1.^{\prime\prime}6$ . The galaxies in each mosaic were both well resolved (size  $\gtrsim 100 \times$  PSF, and roughly centered in

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<sup>6</sup><http://www.klima-luft.de/steinicke/ngcic/ngcic.htm>

the IRAC FOV (offset from the IRAC pointing center by  $\lesssim 1.0'$ ). To avoid systematic uncertainties resulting from very large optical depths through a galactic disk, the 568 galaxies were reduced to 410 relatively face-on galaxies with axis ratio ( $b/a$ ) larger than 0.5. Column 10 in Table 3.1 gives for  $b/a$  values for individual galaxies. Finally, the 257 galaxies which also had  $g$ - and  $r$ -band mosaics from the SDSS DR 12 server<sup>7</sup> were selected for the final sample. The SDSS mosaics have average FWHM values of  $\sim 1.2''$ .

Figure 3.1 shows the demographics of the 257 selected galaxies in our sample. The redshift,  $V$ -band magnitude, Hubble type, and star formation and/or nuclear activity type were determined from the NASA/IPAC Extragalactic Database<sup>8</sup> (NED), S18, The third Reference Catalogue of Bright Galaxies (de Vaucouleurs *et al.*, 1991, hereafter RC3), and from NED, respectively.

The Hubble type was determined from the RC3 numeric  $T$  type:  $E = T < -3$ ,  $S0 = -3 \leq T < 0$ ,  $Sa = 0 \leq T < 2$ ,  $Sb = 2 \leq T < 4$ ,  $Sbc = 4 \leq T < 5$ ,  $Sc = 5 \leq T < 7$ ,  $Sd = 7 \leq T < 9$ ,  $Irregular = 9 \leq T < 91$ , and  $Peculiar = 91 \leq T < 100$ . If the “ $T$ -type” from RC3 was missing, the value based on the ‘Type’ from S18 and the ‘Classification’ from NED was assigned. These are indicated with asterisks in Column 16 of Table C.1. Table C.1 also lists the celestial (J2000) coordinates, redshifts, magnitudes ( $B$ ,  $V$ , and  $3.6\mu\text{m}$ ), absolute magnitude ( $3.6\mu\text{m}$ ), major-axis size,  $r$ -band effective radius, Petrosian half-light radius in  $V$  band, position angle of the semi-major axis, Galactic extinction, bulge-to-total light ratio,  $T$ -type,  $T$ -type uncertainty, SF/AGN classification, and Figure number designation. For the SF and AGN classification, the “Classification” from NED was used to categorize the galaxies into six types: “not active,” “Starburst,” “LIRG,” “LINER,” “Seyfert 2,” or “Seyfert 1.” If the NED

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<sup>7</sup><https://dr12.sdss.org/mosaics>

<sup>8</sup><https://ned.ipac.caltech.edu/>

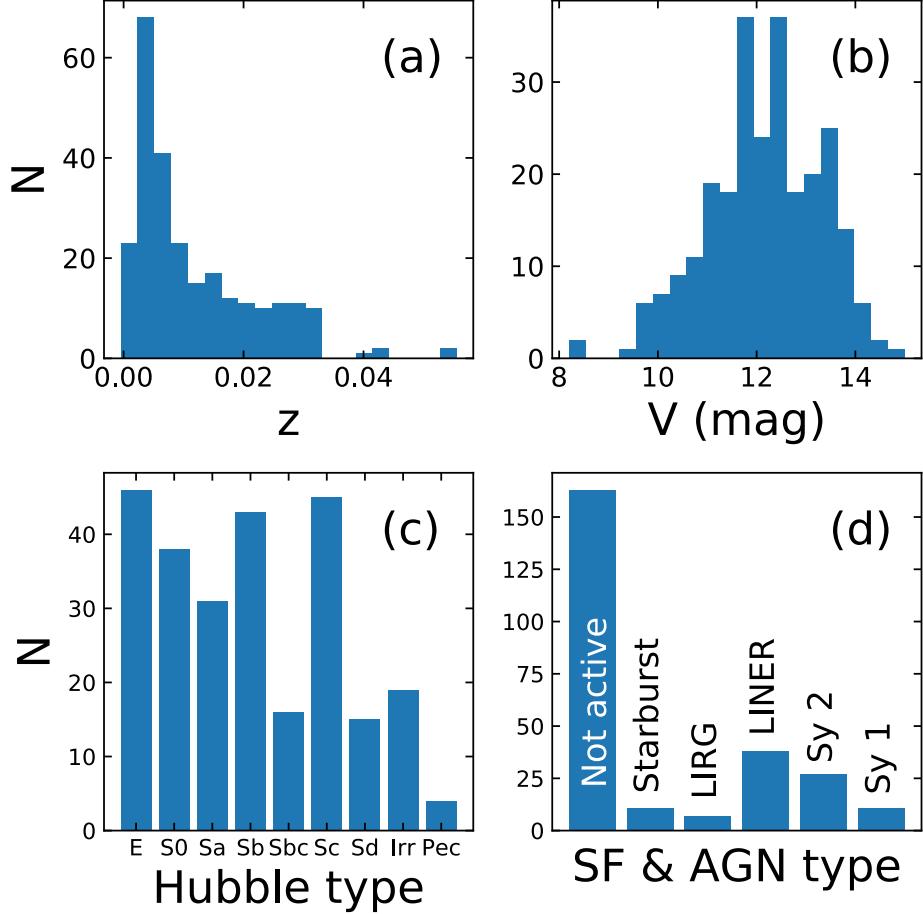


Figure 3.1: Demographics of the selected 257 NGC/IC sample galaxies containing both *Spitzer*/IRAC 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  and SDSS  $g$  and  $r$  mosaics. Distributions detailing the (a) redshifts, (b)  $V$  magnitudes, (c) Hubble type, and (d) SF and AGN types are shown for the sample galaxies. See § 3.1 and Table C.1 for details.

classification indicates more than one type, I categorize the galaxy with a preference toward later or more active types. For example, NED classifies NGC 0315 as “LINER,” “Sy3b,” and also “Sy1.” Therefore, I classify NGC 0315 as “Seyfert 1.” Galaxies without any classification are categorized as “not active.”

For each of the 257 sample galaxies, the IRAC Channel 1 (3.6  $\mu\text{m}$ ) SEIP Cryogenic Release v3.0 Super Mosaics were downloaded from the SHA<sup>9</sup>. The data products called ‘Mean mosaics’

<sup>9</sup><http://sha.ipac.caltech.edu/applications/Spitzer/SHA/>

were used for the photometry, and those called the ‘standard deviation maps’ were used for S/N calculation; following the method detailed in the SEIP Explanatory Supplement<sup>10</sup>. For the  $V$ -band data, mosaic images of 257 NGC/IC galaxies were downloaded in both the  $g$  and  $r$  bands from the SDSS DR12 Science Archive Server.  $30' \times 30'$  SDSS mosaics with a pixel scale of  $0.^{\circ}396/\text{pixel}$  were selected, such that they had sufficiently larger FOV than the SEIP Super Mosaics. All SDSS images covering the area were used, even if they are not from the *primary*<sup>11</sup> SDSS data set anywhere.

## 3.2 Analysis

### 3.2.1 PSF Matching

One needs to match PSFs of the images from various facilities before performing any pixel-to-pixel analysis. A Python script<sup>12</sup> for modeling PSFs in the SDSS and *Spitzer* mosaics was written to perform the PSF matching. First, SExtractor (Bertin and Arnouts, 1996) was run on each mosaic to generate a background image, as well as a catalog of sources. These sources were then used as the input values of the PyRAF DAOPHOT package (Stetson, 1987). Stars having SExtractor parameter values listed below were selected and used to model the image PSF with the PyRAF task PSF:

1.  $\text{FLAGS} = 0$
2.  $\text{CLASS\_STAR} > 0.8$  (0.7 for *Spitzer*)

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<sup>10</sup>[https://irsa.ipac.caltech.edu/data/SPITZER/Enhanced/SEIP/docs/seip\\_explanatory\\_supplement\\_v3.pdf](https://irsa.ipac.caltech.edu/data/SPITZER/Enhanced/SEIP/docs/seip_explanatory_supplement_v3.pdf)

<sup>11</sup><https://www.sdss.org/dr12/help/glossary/#surveyprimary>

<sup>12</sup><https://github.com/DuhoKim/PSFtractor>

3. ELLIPTICITY < 0.1
4.  $\text{mode}(\text{FWHM\_IMAGE}) - \sigma(\text{FWHM\_IMAGE})$   
 $< \text{FWHM\_IMAGE} <$   
 $\text{mode}(\text{FWHM\_IMAGE}) + \sigma(\text{FWHM\_IMAGE}).$

A radius of 30 pixels was used for the PSF model, which was large enough to sample the wings of the PSF and small enough to exclude background objects. The generated PSF model was then fed into the task SUBSTAR, which subtracts background stars neighboring the stars used to create the PSF model. This cleans out the background and models the PSF to a higher degree of accuracy. This procedure was repeated one more time to finalize the modeling of each PSF.

PSF models of the *Spitzer* mosaics were consistent in shape, but with varying PAs. The PSF models were rotated to match the PAs, and then stacked to build a master PSF for the *Spitzer* mosaics. Before matching the PSFs of the SDSS mosaics, the PSFs needed to be rotated back to the original PA. The SDSS PSF model was constructed separately for each mosaic.

PyRAF task PSFMATCH was used to match the PSFs of the SDSS *g* and *r* mosaics to *Spitzer* 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  mosaics. PSFMATCH task convolves the input image with a convolution kernel to match a PSF of the input image to the corresponding PSF of the reference image (Phillips and Davis, 1995):

$$k = \mathcal{F} \left\{ \frac{\mathcal{F}(\text{PSF}_{\text{ref}})}{\mathcal{F}(\text{PSF}_{\text{inp}})} \right\}, \quad (3.1)$$

where  $k$  is the convolution kernel and  $\mathcal{F}$  indicates the Fourier transform.

For each galaxy, the PSFs of the SDSS *g*- and *r*-band mosaics were matched to the Spitzer 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  mosaic. The PyRAF DAOPHOT library was used to build model PSFs. Then, the tasks PSFMATCH and WREGISTER were used to match the SDSS and *Spitzer* PSFs, and then register the image relative to the 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  *Spitzer* mosaic. Nearly identical results were found

regardless of the order that the tasks WREGISTER, PSF, and PSFMATCH were performed in. Color composite images in the R, G, and B channels are made from registered IRAC 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$ , the SDSS  $g$ -, and  $r$ -band mosaics, respectively. See Figure 3.2 for example and see Appendix D for the entire sample.

### 3.2.2 $\beta_V$ Map and Segmentation

After the PSFs were matched and the images were registered, we interpolated the  $V$ -band flux between the  $g$ - and  $r$ -band flux using the transformation formula from Jester *et al.* (2005) for all stars with  $(R-I) < 1.15$  mag:

$$V = g - 0.59 \times (g - r) - 0.01 \text{ [mag].} \quad (3.2)$$

The rms residual of this transformation equation is 0.01 mag (Jester *et al.*, 2005). The  $\beta_V$  FITS images were produced by dividing the *pseudo V* band co-registered FITS images by the 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  FITS images using the PyRAF task IMARITH. Examples of the resulting images are shown in the top middle panels of Figure 3.2. The  $\beta_g$  images are displayed next to the  $\beta_V$  image in each Figure for comparison.

The host galaxy’s regions were selected using the segmentation map generated by SExtractor, which was obtained by setting “CHECKIMAGE\_TYPE” as “SEGMENTATION.” The SExtractor parameters “DETECT\_THRESH,” “BACK\_TYPE,” “BACK\_SIZE,” and “DETECT\_NTHRESH” were carefully controlled to obtain an optimized segmentation map for each galaxy. Foreground stars and background galaxies were selected by visual inspection. Point sources, except the ones in the centers of galaxies, were marked. Extended sources with disparate colors and/or incoherent features were also marked. Their coordinates were recorded manually using the PyRAF DAOEDIT task, so that they could be removed from each segmen-

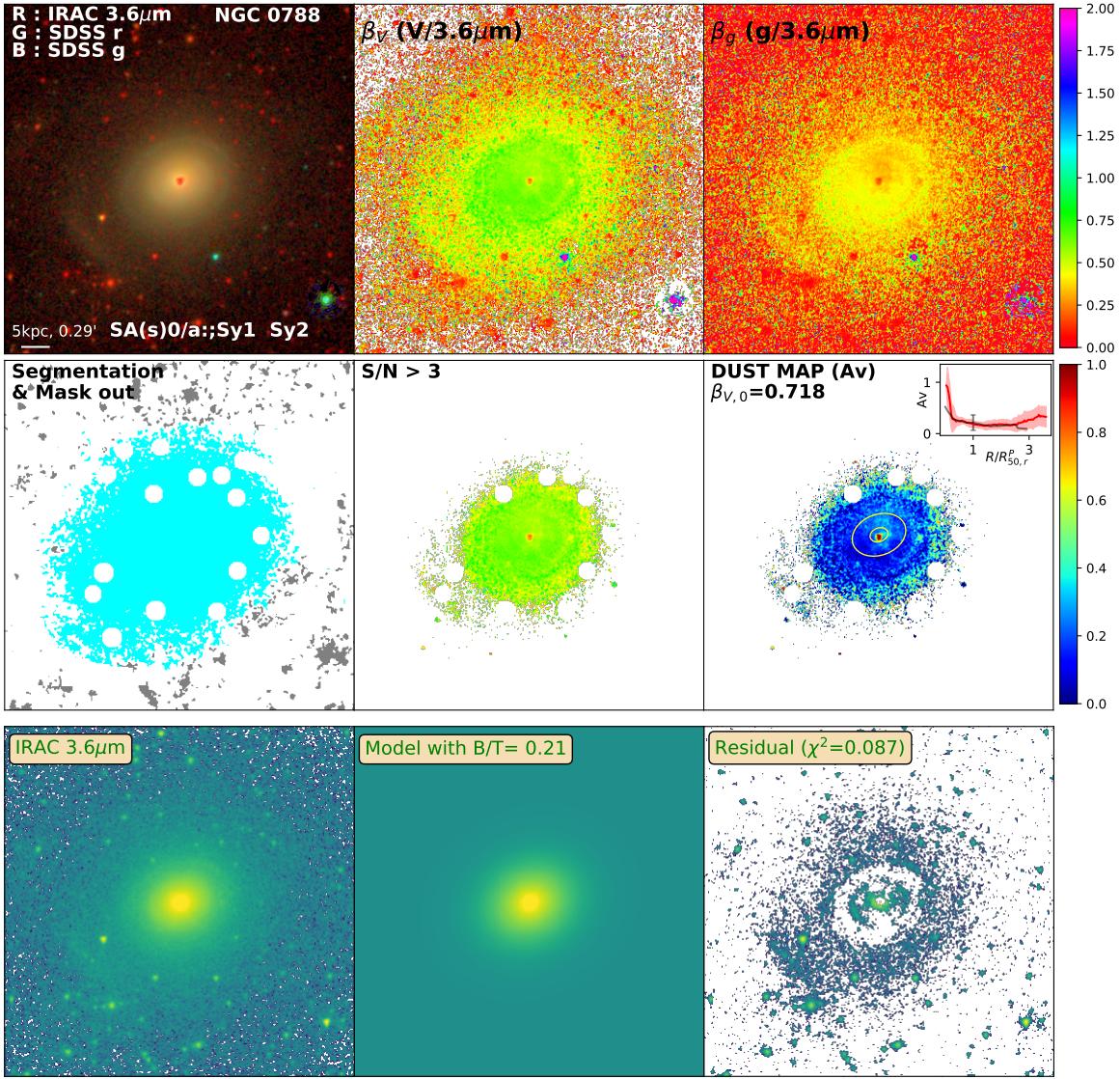


Figure 3.2: NGC 0788 example of (top left) RGB color composite from the IRAC  $3.6\mu\text{m}$ , SDSS  $r$ -, and SDSS  $g$ -band images, with the classification from NED on the bottom (top center)  $\beta_V$ -image. (top right)  $\beta_g$ -image. (middle left) SExtractor segmentation map masking out regions near Galactic stars from the galaxy of interest (cyan). (middle center)  $\beta_V$ -image of all pixels with a S/N greater than three in all mosaics for the region defined by the bottom-left segmentation map. (middle right) Dust  $A_V$ -map calculated by the ratio of the  $\beta_V$  to the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values (see Equation 2.5). The  $A_V$ -profile (red) is plotted in the top right corner as a function of the normalized radius with the GD15  $A_V$ -profile for the corresponding Hubble type (black). (bottom left) *Spitzer*  $3.6\mu\text{m}$  mosaics (bottom center) GALFIT model consists of bulge and disk components with the ratio between the bulge and the sum on top (bottom right) Residual with reduced  $\chi^2$  values on top (257 images for all my sample are available in Appendix D)

tation map. For each object removed from the segmentation map, all pixels within a radius of 10 pixels were set to zero. Finally, each segmentation map was individually analyzed and then edited, if necessary, using segeditor (Ryan, 2018). The resulting segmentation maps are shown in the lower-left panels of Figure 3.2. The cyan region is the galaxy of interest and the gray areas correspond to objects other than the galaxy.

Only the pixels with  $S/N > 3$  in all  $g$ -,  $r$ -band, and  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  FITS images were used for further analysis. Each  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  mosaic comes with an associated standard deviation map, which I used as a noise map. A similar data product is not available for the  $g$ - and  $r$ -band mosaics, so I measured the standard deviation of the background noise fluctuations and used it as the noise value of each mosaic. The final  $\beta_V$  and  $A_V$  maps used for our analysis are shown in the lower middle and right panels of Figure 3.2.

### 3.2.3 $\beta_{V,0}$ Derivation

A  $\beta_V$ -profile of a galaxy was built by taking the median of the  $\beta_V$ -values in elliptical annuli with major axes increasing from 1 pixel to the maximum visible size of a galaxy (“ $a$ ” in Table C.1). This was done with a linear step size of one pixel, while the axis ratio and PA were fixed as “ $b/a$ ” and “PA” in Table C.1. The outer ( $r > 20\%$  of “ $a$ ”) annuli with more than half of pixels masked out were excluded from the  $\beta_V$ -profile.

The  $\beta_V$ -profiles were then converted into  $A_V$ -profiles using:

$$A_V(r) = 2.5 \times \log(\beta_{V,0}/\beta_V(r)) , \quad (3.3)$$

where  $\beta_{V,0}$  is the global intrinsic  $\beta_V$ -value, assuming negligible extinction at  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  (see Equation 2.4).

The  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values for each galaxy or Hubble type were derived by grid-searching for the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -value which had the lowest  $\chi^2$  between  $A_V$ -profiles from Equation 3.3 and the average

$A_V$ -profiles for each Hubble type from GD15 (see Figure 17 in GD15):

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{r=r_0}^{r_n} \frac{(A_V^{\beta_V}(r) - A_V^{\text{GD15}}(r))^2}{\sigma^{\beta_V}(r)^2}, \quad (3.4)$$

where  $r$  is the linearly increasing galactic radius normalized by the Petrosian HLR ( $R_{50}^P$ ; Blanton *et al.*, 2001; Yasuda *et al.*, 2001) (see § 3.2.3.1 for more details),  $A_V^{\beta_V}(r)$  is the individual or average  $A_V$ -profile from Equation 3.3 for a galaxy or Hubble type respectively,  $A_V^{\text{GD15}}(r)$  is the average  $A_V$ -profile for each Hubble type from GD15 for face-on ( $b/a > 0.63$ ) galaxies, and  $\sigma^{\beta_V}(r)$  is the scatter in  $A_V^{\beta_V}(r)$ . I interpolated over  $A_V^{\beta_V}(r)$ , so that the number of radius bins ( $r_n = 15$ ) was the same as in  $A_V^{\text{GD15}}(r)$  within a range of radius of  $r = 0\text{--}3 \times R_{50,V}^P$ . For 69 galaxies, the radial steps were less than the FWHM of the matched PSF (1.<sup>6</sup>"), which indicates that adjacent data points in the  $A_V^{\beta_V}(r)$  profiles are correlated. However, the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values of interest are derived from the statistical average of multiple galaxies per Hubble type. The median  $\beta_V$ -profiles among  $\geq 5$  galaxies are used in Figures 3.7 and 3.8. Medians and  $1\sigma$  ranges in the distribution of the resulting  $\beta_V$ -values are shown in Figure 3.9 and 3.12. I refer to § 3.3.3 for more details. I also verified that changing the value of  $r_n$  from 15 to 30 did not significantly change the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values.

### 3.2.3.1 Petrosian Half-light Radius

The HLR was measured to normalize the radial profiles of the galaxies so that they could be compared with those from the literature.

GD15 collapsed the spectral cubes in the rest-frame window  $5635\pm45$  Å, which is near the central wavelength of the  $V$  filter (5448 Å, see the Table B.1) and then measured the HLR. Their HLR values thus measured are close to the Petrosian HLR ( $R_{50}^P$ ; Blanton *et al.*, 2001; Yasuda *et al.*, 2001) from the SDSS data archive (see Appendix A in González Delgado *et al.*, 2014).

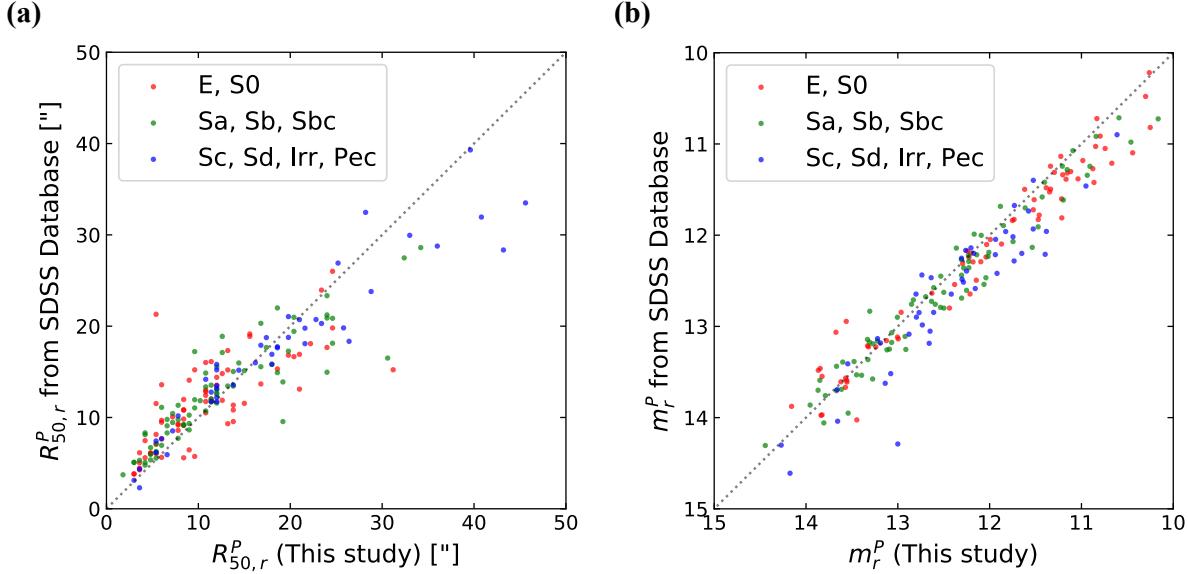


Figure 3.3: Comparison between (a) Petrosian half-light radii ( $petroR50\_r$ ) and (b) Petrosian magnitudes ( $petroMag\_r$ ) in  $r$  band from the catalog ‘Galaxy’ in the SDSS archive and my measurements using downloaded SDSS mosaics. The morphological types of galaxies are color-coded. The almost one-to-one slope of my measurements and the SDSS measurements shows agreement with the archival catalog.

To be consistent, I followed the definition of the SDSS Petrosian HLR,  $R_{50}^P$ . A radial surface profile was first determined using the median values of circular annuli in a radius range from 1 pixel to the semi-major axis of the galaxy.

Next, the Petrosian radius,  $R^P$ , was calculated such that the flux within an annulus between  $0.8R^P$  and  $1.25R^P$  was less than 20% of the total flux within the radius  $R^P$ . The radius containing 50% of the flux within  $R^P$  was defined to be the Petrosian HLR,  $R_{50}^P$ . Figure 3.3 shows the comparison between my measurements and the SDSS data archive values of  $R_{50}^P$  in  $r$  (“ $petroR50\_r$ ”) of 182 coordinate-matched galaxies in my sample. The values from the ‘*Galaxy*’ catalog on SDSS SkyServer DR14<sup>13</sup> were queried using the coordinates of my galaxy sample with a  $0.^{\prime}5$  search radius. Overall, the galaxies match, so the  $R_{50}^P$  in the  $V$  band was used for the normalization of the radius in Figure 3.7.

<sup>13</sup><https://skyserver.sdss.org/dr14/en/tools/crossid/crossid.aspx>

### 3.2.4 $A_V$ Map Using $\beta_{V,0}$

$A_V$ -maps were generated using Equation 2.5 as a function of each pixel instead of as a function of radius (see the lower right panels of Figure 3.2; hereafter “DUST MAP”).

The  $\beta_{V,0}$ -value for each galaxy was selected as the value with the lowest  $\chi^2$  in Equation 3.4. That  $\beta_{V,0}$ -value is printed in the top left corner of each “DUST MAP” panel. The inset in the top right corner of each “DUST MAP” panel shows  $A_V^{\beta_V}(r)$  (red) and  $A_V^{\text{GD15}}(r)$  (black) curves as a function of the normalized radius, where the shading represents the  $1\sigma$  scatter in the  $\beta_V$ -profile. The errorbar at a radius of  $R = R_{50,V}^P$  in the inset represents the uncertainty in the  $A_V$ -value at the HLR for the corresponding Hubble type from GD15.

Yellow ellipses with major axes values of  $R_{50}^P$  and  $3 \times R_{50}^P$ , corresponding to the tick marks on the  $A_V$ -profile plot, are overplotted on each “DUST MAP” image.

## 3.3 Results

### 3.3.1 $\beta_V$ vs. $T$ -type and $z$

The distribution of the  $\beta_V$ -values for my sample galaxies is shown in Figure 3.4 as a function of  $T$ -type. The uncertainty in the  $T$ -type and the  $1\sigma$  error of the  $\beta_V$ -range are represented by the shape of the ellipses. Furthermore, SF/AGN types are represented by the color of each ellipse. For each integer  $T$ -type in my sample, a range of  $T$ -types was selected from  $T - 0.5 < T < T + 0.5$ . To investigate the trend in this plot, the following steps were taken. For each galaxy in every  $T$ -type range, a  $\beta_V$ -value was sampled from a random distribution of  $\beta_V$ -values created using the mean and  $1\sigma$  error for each galaxy. This was repeated 1000 times to determine a more statistically significant average  $\beta_V$ -value for each  $T$ -type. In Fig-

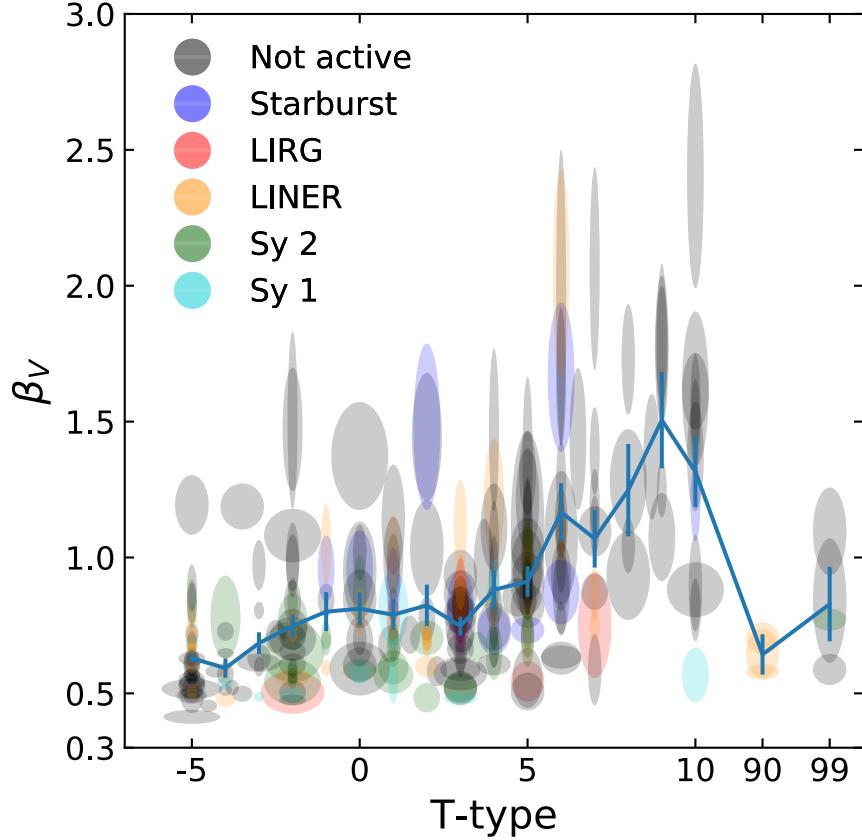


Figure 3.4:  $\beta_V$ -values as a function of  $T$ -type for my sample galaxies. The color of each ellipse represent the SF/AGN type of each galaxy, while the horizontal and vertical size represents the  $T$ -type and the  $1\sigma$   $\beta_V$  uncertainties, respectively. The solid line represents the mean and  $1\sigma$  uncertainty for 1000 randomly generated  $\beta_V$ -values for  $T - 0.5 < T < T + 0.5$ . No relationship is seen between the SF/AGN types and their  $\beta_V$ -values within each type bin.

ure 3.4, this average is shown by the solid blue line, while the corresponding  $1\sigma$  error range is illustrated by the vertical blue lines.

The global  $\beta_V$ -values (solid blue line) in Figure 3.4 are similar to Figure 2.27, which corresponds to the range of  $\beta_V$ -values derived from the SED models that adopted the observational stellar population properties from GD15. From both Figure 3.4 and 2.27, the average  $\beta_V$ -values, as well as the scatter of the values, increases with  $T$ -type. The observed  $1\sigma$  scatter in  $\beta_V$  due to both the pixel-to-pixel variations within a galaxy, and from galaxy to galaxy within

Table 3.1: The Observed  $1\sigma$  Scatter in  $\beta_V$ ,  $\beta_{V,0}$ , and the Calculated  $1\sigma$  Errors in  $A_V$  for Galaxies in each Hubble Type Bin.

	E (46) <sup>a</sup>	S0 (38)	Sa (31)	Sb (43)	Sbc (16)	Sc (45)	Sd (15)	Irr&Pec (23)
Within a galaxy <sup>b</sup>	0.08	0.15	0.20	0.18	0.24	0.30	0.31	0.33
From galaxy to galaxy <sup>c</sup>	0.15	0.19	0.16	0.19	0.17	0.27	0.32	0.45
$1\sigma$ ranges of $\beta_{V,0}^d$	0.15	0.25	0.38	0.38	0.35	0.63	0.45	
$\beta_{V,0}^e$	$0.55^{+0.08}_{-0.07}$	$0.64^{+0.13}_{-0.12}$	$0.72^{+0.11}_{-0.27}$	$0.68^{+0.19}_{-0.19}$	$0.89^{+0.15}_{-0.20}$	$0.96^{+0.37}_{-0.26}$	$1.14^{+0.29}_{-0.16}$	
Expected $\Delta A_V^f$	0.30	0.36	0.36	0.38	0.38	0.45	0.45	0.53

Notes.

<sup>a</sup> The number of galaxies in each Hubble type bin.

<sup>b</sup> The mean of  $1\sigma$  scatter in the pixel-to-pixel  $\beta_V$ -values within each galaxy (half vertical sizes of the ellipses in Figures 3.4 and 3.5) in each Hubble type bin.

<sup>c</sup> The standard deviation of the galaxy-by-galaxy average  $\beta_V$ -values (central vertical values of the ellipses in Figure 3.4) in each Hubble type bin.

<sup>d</sup> The  $1\sigma$  scatter of the inferred  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values for galaxies in each Hubble type bin. See § 3.3.3 and Figure 3.9 for more details.

<sup>e</sup> The median and the  $1\sigma$  ranges of the inferred  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values.

<sup>f</sup> The calculated  $1\sigma$  scatters of  $A_V$ -values using the derivatives of Equation 3.3 [ $\frac{dA(x)}{dx} = 2.5 \times \frac{d\beta_V(x)/dx}{\ln(10)\beta_V(x)}$ , where I adopt (d) for  $d\beta_V(x)/dx$  and the average  $\beta_V$ -values for each Hubble type bin for  $\beta_V(x)$ ].

a Hubble type bin are listed in Table 3.1. Within individual galaxies, the pixel-to-pixel scatter increases toward later Hubble types, from 0.08 for E to 0.18 for Sb and to 0.33 for Irr&Pec. From galaxy to galaxy, the spread within a Hubble type bin also increases from 0.17 for E through Sbc to 0.45 for Irr&Pec. On average, the spread in  $\beta_V$  around the average, both within a galaxy and for each morphological type bin, are  $\sim 20\%$ , which results in a  $\sim 0.4$  mag scatter in  $A_V$ . Slowly evolving old and metal-enriched stellar populations in early-type galaxies tend to be more similar compared with more dynamically evolving young and low-metallicity galaxies of later types, resulting in a wider  $\beta_V$ -range for the latter. However, spiral types with  $\beta_V$ -values less than 0.5 from Brown *et al.* (2014) in Figure 2.27, are not seen in this sample. This difference seems to originate from an intrinsic difference in the type of galaxies from my sample compared with the sample in Brown *et al.* (2014). Almost all of Brown *et al.* (2014)'s galaxies have low resolution 5–38  $\mu\text{m}$  spectra from the *Spitzer* Infrared Spectrograph (Houck *et al.*, 2004). This wavelength range is where the re-radiation from dust clouds dominates.

Furthermore, these differences can also be attributed to the majority of the galaxies in Brown *et al.* (2014) being of the SF/AGN class, while the majority of my sample galaxies are listed as “not active.”

PSFs of registered image data are matched with an FWHM of  $1.^{\circ}6$  of the PSF modeled from the *Spitzer*/IRAC  $3.6\,\mu\text{m}$  mosaics. The  $1.^{\circ}6 \times 1.^{\circ}6$  corresponds to a galaxy surface area of  $34^2$ ,  $340^2$ ,  $670^2$ , and  $990^2\,\text{pc}^2$  at  $z = 0.001$ ,  $0.01$ ,  $0.02$ , and  $0.03$ , respectively. Statistically, as redshift increases, the sample surface area increases by factors of  $\sim 100$  ( $z = 0.01$ ),  $390$  ( $z = 0.02$ ), and  $850$  ( $z = 0.03$ ) times compared with a galaxy at a redshift of  $z = 0.001$ . This reduces the scatter of any measurements taken by  $\sim 10$ ,  $20$ , and  $30$  times compared with the measurement taken at a redshift of  $z = 0.001$  for a completely random sample. This trend is illustrated in Figure 3.5, where the median and the scatter in  $\beta_V$ -values decreases significantly as the redshift increases. For redshifts less than  $z \lesssim 0.02$ , this trend holds. This trend can be interpreted as the  $\beta_V$ -values arising from stellar populations not being well-mixed (i.e., being spatially correlated among adjacent pixels), as well as spatial resolution effects, which cause less variance in  $\beta_V$  at  $z \gtrsim 0.02$ . Murray (2011) shows sizes of giant molecular clouds are less than  $200\,\text{pc}$ . Stochasticity of stellar population seems to subside when the PSF becomes larger than at least ten times the size of the giant molecular clouds.

### 3.3.2 Central $\beta_V$ vs. SF and AGN Activity

In Figure 3.4, SF/AGN galaxies are seen to have randomly distributed global  $\beta_V$ -values. However, they do have characteristically lower  $\beta_V$ -values in their centers. Figure 3.6 shows histograms of the mean  $\beta_V$ -values of the central  $3 \times 3$  pixels for various SF/AGN galaxies—“Not active,” “LINER,” “Starburst,” “Sy 2,” “Sy 1,” and “LIRG”—from top to bottom in order of

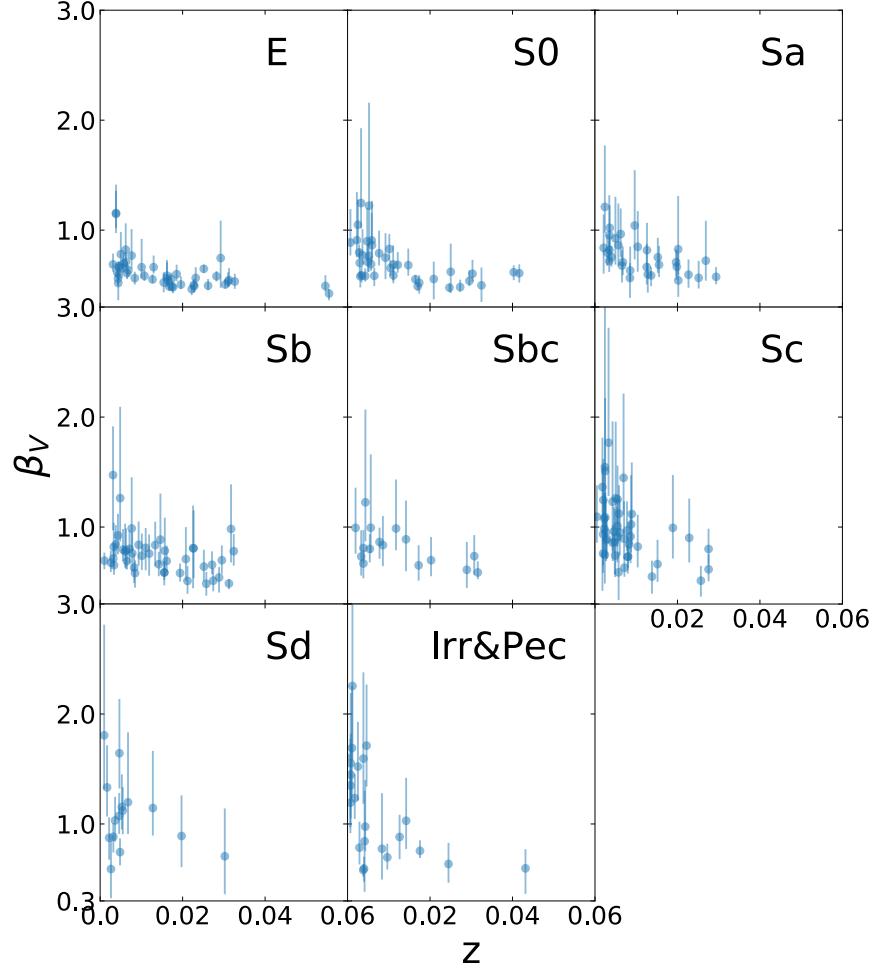


Figure 3.5: Median and  $1\sigma$  range of  $\beta_V$ -values as a function of redshift for each Hubble type in my sample. The scatter in  $\beta_V$ -values for a single galaxy and the width of the distribution for a specific Hubble type decreases as redshift increases, which can be understood as a spatial resolution effect. The trend seems to level out at  $z \gtrsim 0.02$ , which corresponds to the spatial resolution achieved by *HST* and *JWST* at a redshift of  $z \simeq 0.2$ .

decreasing median central  $\beta_V$ -values. Nine galaxies, whose central  $3 \times 3$  pixels are masked out, are excluded. Central star-forming regions are thought to be enshrouded by molecular clouds, while accretion disks surrounding supermassive black holes are thought to be surrounded by a dust torus (Urry and Padovani, 1995). Relatively low  $\beta_V$ -values in the centers of active galaxies support this idea of dusty environments of active SF regions and AGN.

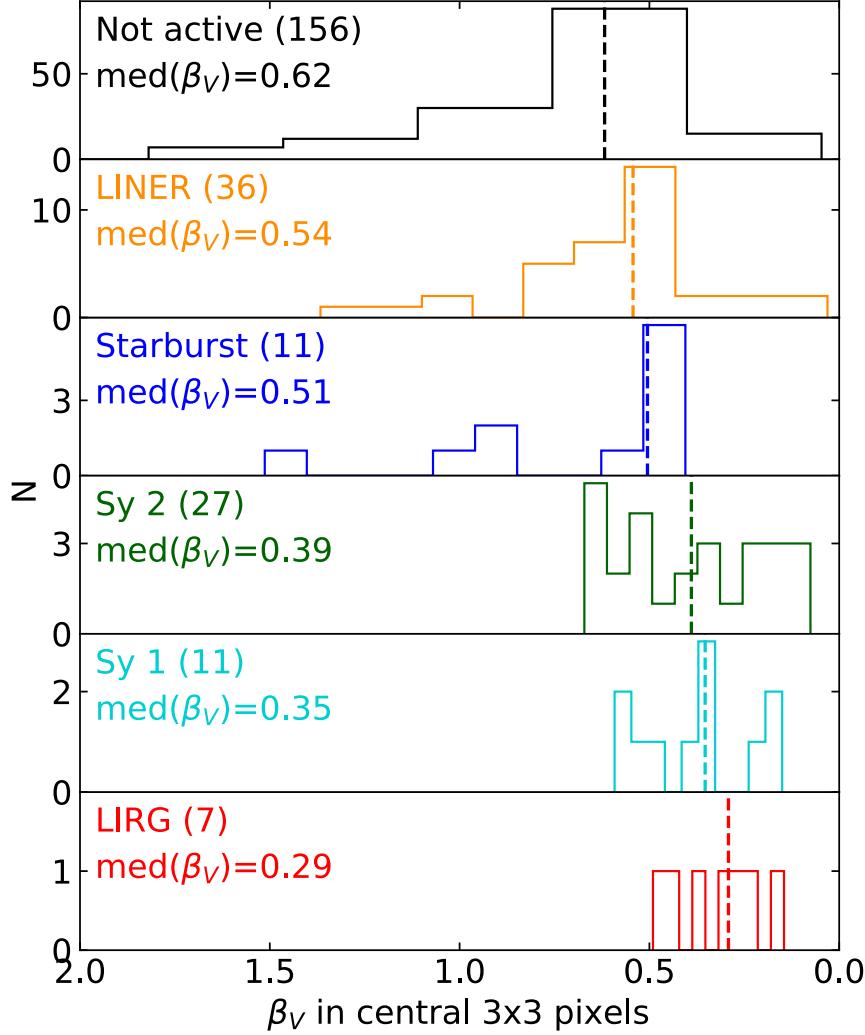


Figure 3.6: Histograms showing the mean  $\beta_V$ -values for the central  $3 \times 3$  pixels of each galaxy. From top to bottom, this is done for 248 NGC/IC galaxies with different SF/AGN types: Not active, LINER, Starburst, Seyfert type 2, Seyfert type 1, and LIRG. Compared with average (Not active) galaxies, galaxies with increasing star-formation and/or nuclear activity have decreasing central  $\beta_V$ -values, which implies an increasing amount of dust.

### 3.3.3 $\beta_{V,0}$ -values and $A_V$ -profiles

Figure 3.7 shows  $A_V$ -profiles for each Hubble type, corresponding to the least square fitting of the median-combined  $\beta_V$ -profile to the average  $A_V$ -profile from GD15. The  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values and numbers of galaxies for each Hubble type are also listed. Spiral (Sa, Sb) galaxies have

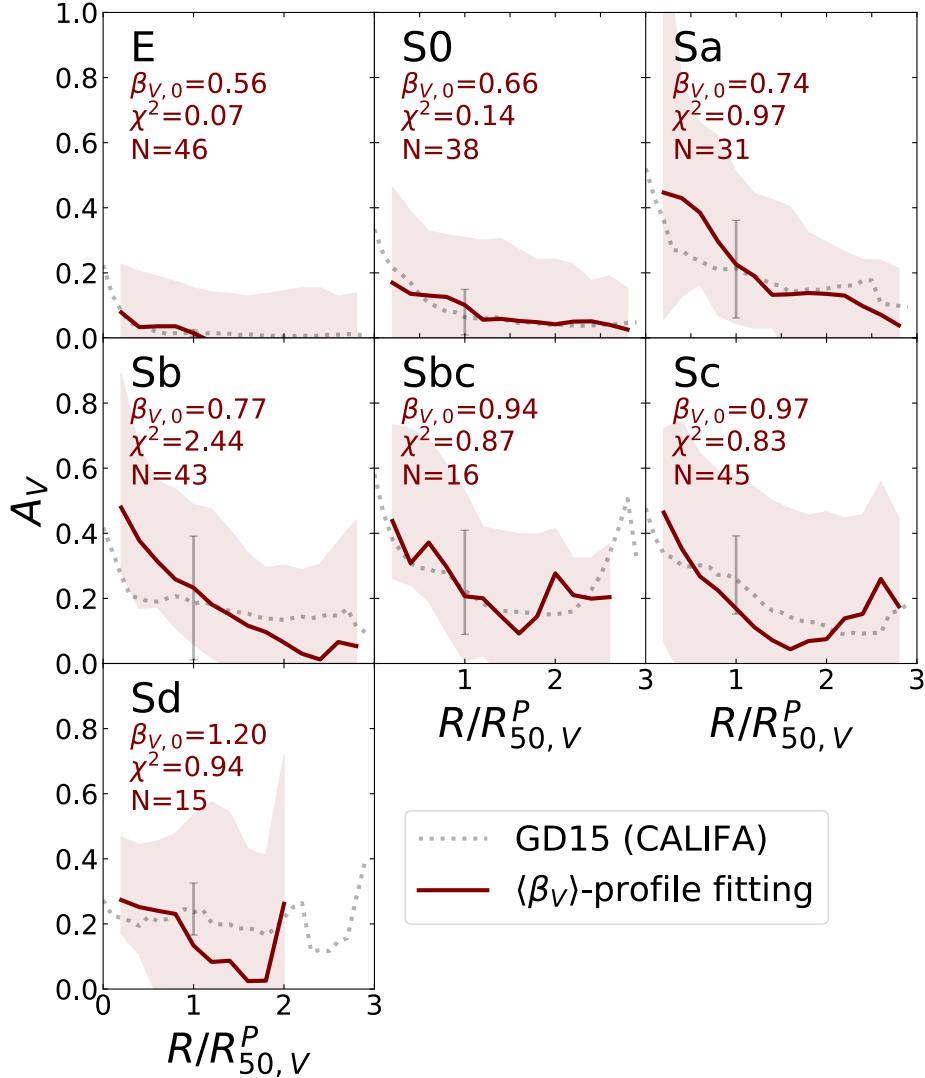


Figure 3.7:  $A_V$ -profiles as a function of galactic radius normalized by the Petrosian HLR for different Hubble types. The gray dotted lines are the averaged  $A_V$ -profiles of face-on ( $b/a > 0.63$ ) galaxies as a function of Hubble type from the CALIFA survey of GD15. The error bars at a radius of  $R = R_{50}^P$  indicate the measurement errors at the HLR for each Hubble type from GD15 (see their Figure 14), while the solid, dark brown lines are  $A_V$ -profiles generated from Equation 3.3 using the median  $\beta_V$ -profile for each Hubble type. The  $\beta_{V,0}$ -value with the smallest  $\chi^2$  in Equation 3.4 is grid-searched, and the results are detailed on each panel along with the number of galaxies for each type. The light brown shaded regions represent the  $1\sigma$  ranges of the  $\beta_V$ -profiles. Sections of the  $A_V$ -profiles where the number of available  $\beta_V$ -profiles less than five are excluded from the  $\chi^2$  fitting. This is the case for the outskirts of the Sd types. Overall, the profiles agree with the CALIFA survey results from GD15. Slight deviations are seen in the slopes of spiral galaxies (Sa, Sb) and in the stochastic fluctuations of galaxies with small sample sizes (Sbc, Sd).

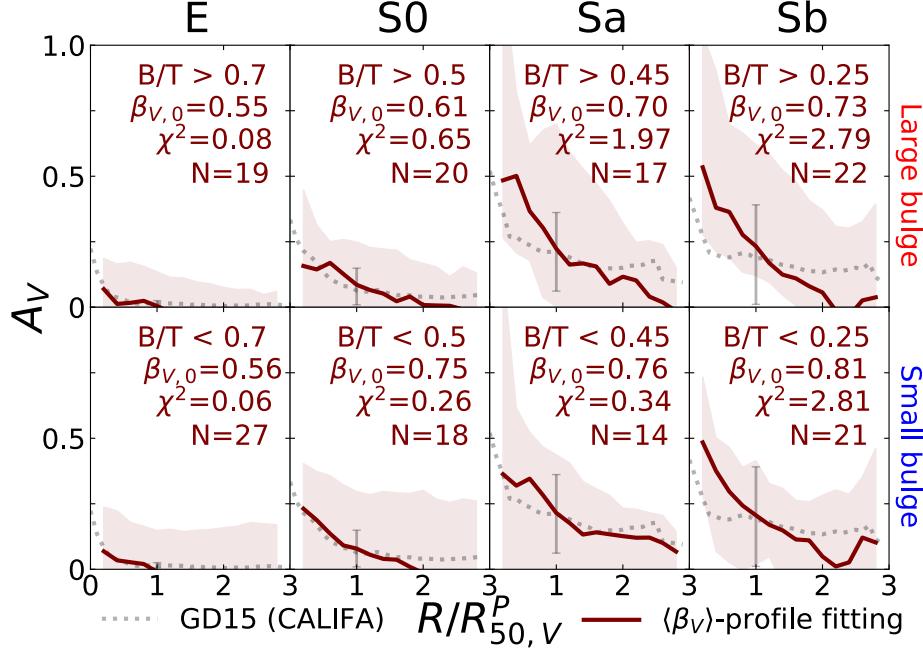


Figure 3.8: Same as Figure 3.7, but with each Hubble type divided into large and small bulge subgroups. The subgroups are defined by bulge-to-total light ratios larger or smaller than 0.7, 0.5, 0.45, and 0.25 for the E, S0, Sa, and Sb types, respectively.  $A_V$ -profiles for Sa type galaxies are in closer agreement for the small-bulge subgroup, which is a direct result of a more uniform stellar population within that subgroup.

steeper  $A_V$ -profiles than what was calculated in GD15. Sbc and Sd types show larger stochastic fluctuations, because they have fewer than half of the number of objects compared with other galaxy type bins. The scatter in the  $\beta_V$ -profiles results in larger uncertainties than what was derived from the measurement error at  $R = R_{50}^P$  from GD15. This is expected, as the  $\beta_V$ -method uses only two broadband images and a single color  $\beta_{V,0}$ , whereas GD15 used three-dimensional spectral images and a library of SED models.

The E–Sb types were subgrouped into “Large bulge” and “Small bulge” categories by their bulge-to-total light ratios ( $B/T$ ) derived using GALFIT (Peng *et al.*, 2002, 2010) (see next section for details). The  $B/T$  threshold values were arbitrarily chosen, so that there were comparable numbers in each of the two subgroups. The  $A_V$ -profile fitting process was then repeated (see Figure 3.8), which significantly reduced the  $\chi^2$  for the small-bulge subgroup of the Sa type.

More uniform stellar populations of galaxies in a subgroup result in more reliable  $A_V$ -profiles using the  $\beta_V$ -method. This is discussed in § 3.4.

Figure 3.9 shows the histograms of the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values derived individually for each galaxy. I obtained the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values for each galaxy by least-square fitting its  $\beta_V$ -profile to the average  $A_V$ -profile of the corresponding Hubble type from GD15. The  $\beta_V$ -profile is converted to the  $A_V$ -profile with a reference  $\beta_{V,0}$ -value (see Equation 3.3). The median and  $1\sigma$  ranges are shown as dotted-dashed and dotted green vertical lines, while the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values derived from the median-combined  $\beta_V$ -profiles are shown as dark brown dashed lines. The median values and associated ranges are listed in Table 3.1. The  $1\sigma$  ranges are comparable to the quadratic sum of the pixel-to-pixel and the galaxy-to-galaxy  $\beta_V$ -variations in Figure 3.4. The median values derived with these complementary methods agree to within  $\pm 1\sigma$ .

### 3.3.3.1 Bulge-to-total Light Ratio

GALFIT (version 3; Peng *et al.*, 2002, 2010) was used to measure the B/T of the sample galaxies (see bottom rows of Appendix D for the fitting result). The segmentation map generated for the  $\beta_V$  analysis was used for the “Bad pixel mask.” The  $3.6\mu\text{m}$  mosaics for each galaxy, the master PSF of the  $3.6\mu\text{m}$  mosaics, and the ‘Bad pixel mask’ were used as inputs for GALFIT. The “Image region” and “Size of the convolution box” were set to the same as the images shown in Figure 3.2), which is twice the semi-major axis (column 7 in Table C.1).

Three components, the disk “expdisk,” the bulge “devauc,” and “sky,” were input to the fitting procedure to decompose the galaxy light into the light from the disk, the bulge, and the background, respectively. When a bright central point source was found and the galaxy is known to have an embedded AGN (column 19 and 20 in Table C.1), I allowed for an additional ‘psf’ component and excluded that in the calculation of the B/T.

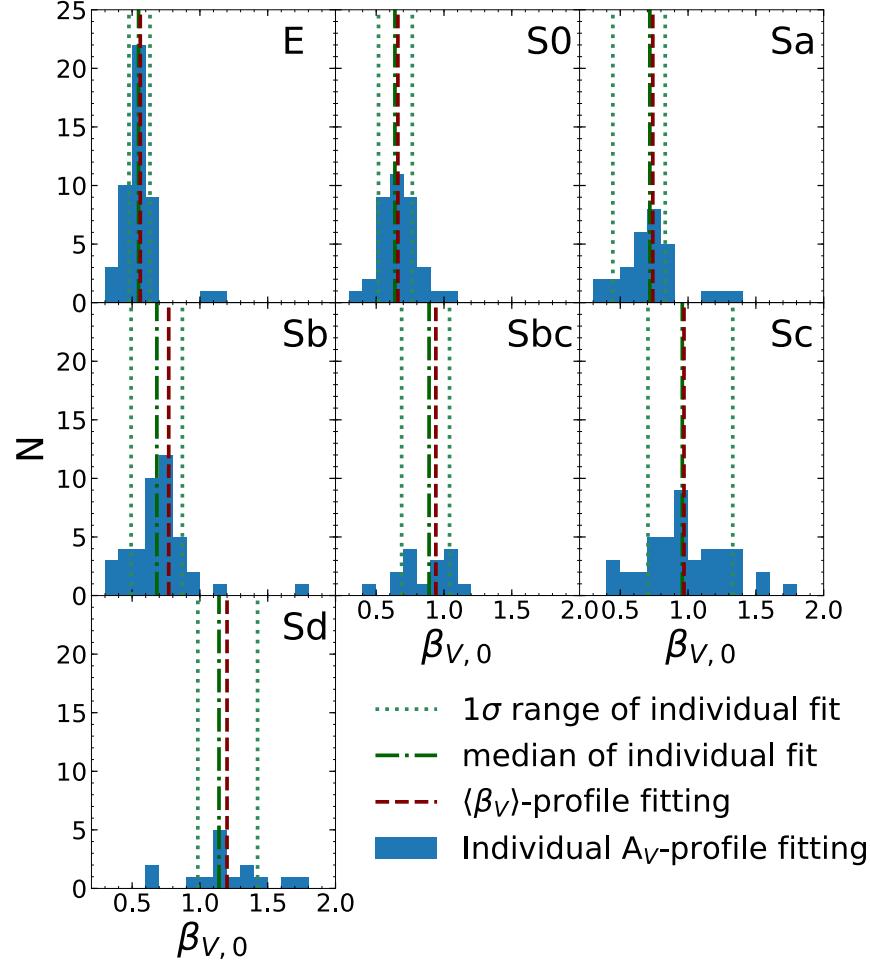


Figure 3.9: Histograms of the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values corresponding to the least square fitting of the  $A_V$ -profiles of each galaxy to the average  $A_V$ -profile of each Hubble type from GD15. The green dotted-dashed and dotted lines represent the median and  $1\sigma$  ranges, respectively. The brown dashed lines show the least square fitting result of median-combined  $\beta_V$ -profiles for each Hubble type (see Figure 3.7).

The following were used as the initial guesses for the GALFIT parameters:

1. “position” = the physical pixel position converted from R.A. and decl.
2. “Integrated magnitude” = the magnitude in  $V$
3. “R\_e” = one fifth of the semi-major axis
4. “ $b/a$ ” = from Table C.1,
5. “PA” = from Table C.1.

These parameters were then set as free, so they could be varied during the fitting process. I chose one fifth of the semi-major axis as the initial guess of the effective radius “ $R_e$ ”.

Upon visual inspection, any parameters that seemed unreasonable were fixed, and GALFIT was rerun. For the case when either the bulge or disk moved toward the outer part of the galaxy, the “position” argument of GALFIT was set as fixed for both components. For the case where the bulge parameter, “ $devauc$ ,” was seen to dominate the GALFIT fitting, a smaller effective radius, “ $R_e$ ,” was forcefully set for the ‘ $devauc$ ’ component to prevent unphysical fitting at large “ $R_e$ .” This was seen to be the case for some late-type galaxies in the sample.

Figure 3.10 shows the “absolute magnitudes” (a) and the B/T (b) as a function of  $T$ -types in the RC3 catalog, excluding irregular and peculiar galaxies ( $T \geq 9$ ). The ‘Integrated magnitude’ output from the GALFIT fitting for each of the ‘ $expdisk$ ’ and ‘ $devauc$ ’ components was converted from magnitudes to flux units. The summed flux values were converted back to the total magnitude of the entire galaxy. The distance modulus, which was determined from the redshift, was added to the total magnitude of the entire galaxy to determine the “absolute magnitude” for each galaxy. The reduced  $\chi^2$  value of each B/T fit is shown in different colors. The bulge component, “ $devauc$ ,” dominates in the ETGs ( $T < 0$ ), while the disk component, “ $expdisk$ ,” gradually increases with  $T$ -type. The B/T was used to subdivide the E–Sb galaxies in Figure 3.8, which show different shapes of  $A_V$ -profiles between this study and IFU-SED-fitting method used in GD15. E, S0, Sa, and Sb galaxies were divided using boundary B/T values of  $\simeq 0.7$ , 0.5, 0.45, and 0.25, respectively. Each group is shown in Figure 3.10 (b) with colored boxes for galaxies with larger (red) and smaller (blue) bulges than the dividing B/T values.

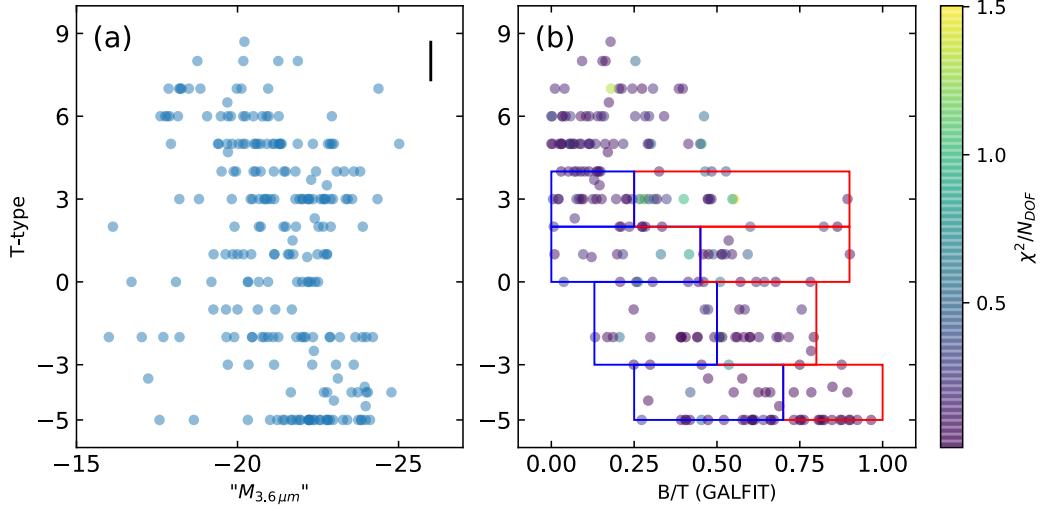


Figure 3.10: (a) RC3  $T$ -type vs. total magnitude + distance modulus; (b) The bulge-to-total light ratios ( $B/T$ ) measured using GALFIT versus RC3  $T$ -type (excluding irregular and peculiar galaxies) of 239 galaxies. The colors of the dots in (b) represent the  $\chi^2$  divided by the number of pixels. The red (blue) boxes contain galaxies whose  $B/T$  values higher (lower) than 0.7, 0.5, 0.45, and 0.25 for E, S0, Sa, and Sb type galaxies, respectively, which consists of the “Large bulge” (red) and “Small bulge” (blue) subgroups for each Hubble types in Figure 3.8.

### 3.3.4 $\beta_V$ vs. Axis Ratio

To avoid potential systematic uncertainties originating from a wide range of optical depths through edge-on galactic disks, I selected only face-on galaxies having axis-ratios ( $b/a$ ) larger than 0.5. Figure 3.11 shows the relationship between  $\beta_V$ -values and their axis-ratio values. No significant correlation between  $\beta_V$  and the axis ratio was seen in our sample to within the  $1\sigma$  errors (blue shaded regions). Sbc, Sd, and Irr&Pec types may show at best a hint of a positive correlation, although this is not significant within the current uncertainties.

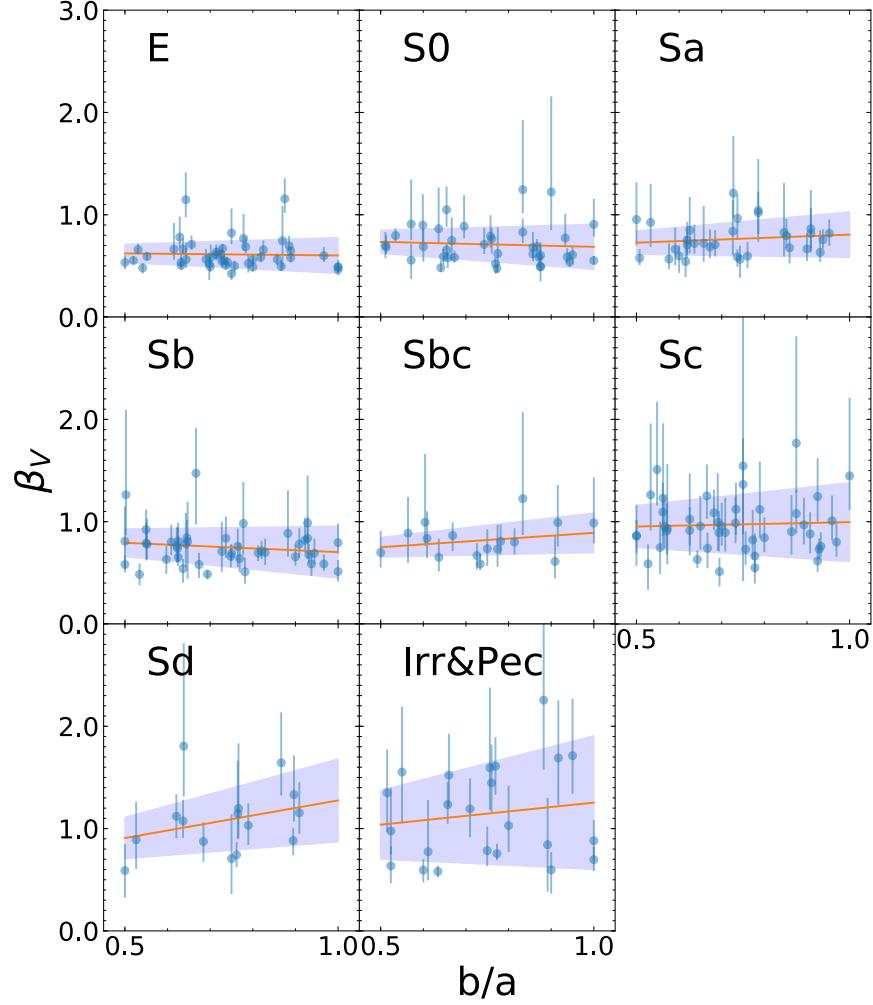


Figure 3.11:  $\beta_V$  versus  $b/a$  of the individual galaxies for each in morphological type bin. Galaxies with  $b/a < 0.5$  are not included in my sample. The best-fit regression is overlaid as orange lines, while the shaded region represents the  $\pm 1\sigma$  range. Only Sbc, Sd, and Irr&Pec galaxies in my sample show hints of a correlation between the  $\beta_V$ -value and the axis ratio for my sample. However, within the uncertainties, this correlation does not seem to be statistically significant.

### 3.3.5 Hidden Coherent Features

Coherent features buried in a single band or even in composite images (such as top left panel of Figure 3.2) stand out in color images, such as in the  $\beta_V$ ,  $\beta_g$ , and/or  $A_V$ -maps. The features

found in these color maps are detailed in Table 3.2, along with notes on their corresponding galaxies.

Star-forming regions and dust lanes are the most common features, which have bluer and redder ( $V - 3.6 \mu\text{m}$ ) colors, respectively.

LIRG-like galaxies are dominated by optically thick dust clouds that are likely to be undergoing cold gas accretion from the cosmic web, harboring an AGN (see Müller-Sánchez *et al.*, 2018; Saito *et al.*, 2018, for e.g., the case of NGC 6240), or experiencing the aftermath of a recent merger (see Pingel *et al.*, 2018, for e.g., the case of NGC 4414).

AGN appear to have at least local dust clouds such as NGC 1275 (Tanada *et al.*, 2018) and NGC 985 (Appleton and Marcum, 1993), except the active, dustless, bulgeless, intermediate-mass black hole in NGC 3319 (see Jiang *et al.*, 2018).

Inner and outer rings in NGC 3011 have been found by Gil de Paz *et al.* (2003). The inner ring could have been produced by a starburst-driven shock interacting with the surrounding medium (Marino *et al.*, 2013).

Dust rings in NGC 2844 and NGC 3032 are also found and included in the Atlas of Resonance Rings As Known In S<sup>4</sup>G (ARRAKIS; Comerón *et al.*, 2014). These rings appear to be formed by a dynamical resonance resulting from non-axisymmetries in galaxy disks (Comerón *et al.*, 2014).

NGC 2685 (Arp 336, also known as “The Helix Galaxy”) is a well-known polar ring galaxy (Sandage, 1961; Eskridge and Pogge, 1997), which has an outer ring perpendicular to the galactic disk. This is seemingly the remains of a merger with a polar-orbiting smaller galaxy.

NGC 3801 could be at an earlier stage of an NGC 2685-like merger (Hota *et al.*, 2012). The merging event  $\sim$ 2–3 Gyr ago is presumably responsible for nuclear-ring in NGC 7742 (Martinsson *et al.*, 2018), while the minor merger  $\sim$ 200 Myr ago (Knierman *et al.*, 2012, 2013) is responsible for the central dust in NGC 2782 and in NGC 4194 (König *et al.*, 2018).

Table 3.2: Coherent Features Revealed in the  $\beta_V$ ,  $\beta_g$ , and/or  $A_V$  Images and Lists of Galaxies Containing the Features

Features (Number of Galaxies)	Galaxies (In the Order of ID)
Star-forming regions (15)	<b>NGC</b> 14, 337, 2500, 2552, 2730, 3020, 3381, 3395, 3622, 3794, 3870, 3906, 5668, 5669, 5691
Dust lanes (43)	<b>IC</b> 676, 1065, 2239, 1551, 2637, <b>NGC</b> 23, 266, 275, 1667, 2512, 2608, 2712, 2731, 2742, 2750, 2776, 2782, 2824, 2893, 2906, 3015, 3049, 3055, 3265, 3349, 3351, 3489, 3655, 3720, 3726, 3799, 3801, 3811, 3921, 4194, 5631, 5633, 5992, 7080, 7177, 7479, 7653, 7798
Star-forming regions and dust lanes (30)	<b>IC</b> 1076, <b>NGC</b> 275, 309, 337, 2403, 2415, 2731, 2742, 2776, 2906, 3020, 3055, 3184, 3192, 3212, 3239, 3310 (pec), 3344, 3370, 3381, 3395 (pec), 3486, 3646, 3659, 3686, 3726, 3794, 3799, 3811, 3870, 4234, 4420, 4449 (Sbrst), 5660, 5691, 5936, 5992, 7714 (pec), 7741, 7753
LIRG-like thick dusty cloud (18)	<b>IC</b> 214, 730, 2520 (with blue halo), <b>NGC</b> 992, 1144 (pec; Sy2), 3593 (Sy2), 3655, 3683, 3822 (Sy2), 3839, 3934, 4207 (elongated), 4414 (LINER), 5541, 5653, 5953, 5990, 6240
Central dust torus (10)	<b>IC</b> 730, 2551, 2637 (Sy1.5), <b>NGC</b> 383 (LERG <sup>1</sup> ), 3015 (NLAGN <sup>2</sup> ), 3349, 3921 (pec), 4014, 4290, 7742 (LINER)
Central dust cloud	<b>IC</b> 486 (Sy1), 676, 691, 3050, 5298 (Sy2), <b>NGC</b> 788 (Sy1,2), 985 (Sy1), 1275 (cD; pec; NLRG <sup>3</sup> ; Sy2; LEG), 2782 (Sy1, Arp 215), 2824 (Sy?), 2831, 3212, 3561, 3720, 3781, 3839 (with blue disk), 3928, 4150, 4162 (AGN), 4194 (pec), 4335, 4369 (intertwined with blue), 4378 (point-like; Sy2), 4412 (LINER), 7177 (LINER), 7674 (Sy2)
Star-forming ring with outer dust ring (1)	<b>NGC</b> 3011
Dust ring (2)	<b>NGC</b> 2844, 3032
Polar dust ring (2)	<b>NGC</b> 2685 (Arp 336) <sup>14</sup> , 3801
Outer blue ring (3)	<b>NGC</b> 3938, 4162, 7217
Dusty disk in E type (1)	<b>NGC</b> 3656 (Arp 155, pec, LINER)
Blue disk in E type (2)	<b>IC</b> 692, <b>NGC</b> 3011
Central blue region (2)	<b>NGC</b> 3773 (H ii), 7077 (H ii)
M82-like outflow (?) (1)	<b>NGC</b> 3622
Green center bluer outskirt region (Negative color gradient) (32)	<b>IC</b> 208, 2239, 3050, <b>NGC</b> 274 (pec), 275 (pec), 309, 428, 2043, 2500, 2604, 2730, 2750, 2776, 2893, 3032, 3049, 3055, 3162, 3319, 3344, 3370, 3489, 3646 (ring), 3659, 3773, 4136, 4234, 4412, 4420, 5584, 5585, 7731
Blue center with green outskirt (3) (Positive color gradient)	<b>NGC</b> 3741 (BCD <sup>4</sup> ), 4068, 6789

Notes: (1) Low-excitation radio galaxy; (2) Narrow-line AGN; (3) Narrow emission-line radio galaxy; (4) Blue compact dwarf; pec: peculiar, Sbrst: Starburst. ID numbers following the **NGC** are included in the New General Catalog and the **IC** are included in the Index Catalog.

Balcells (1997) argues that the dusty disk, two tidal tails, and shells in E-type NGC 3656 is the outcome of a disk-disk major merger. Conversely, the blue disk in the E-type, but low-mass, “blue sequence” galaxy IC 692 is from cold-mode gas accretion (Moffett *et al.*, 2012).

Both NGC 3773 and NGC 7077 have central blue features that are classified as H ii regions, which are probably caused by Wolf–Rayet stars (Miralles-Caballero *et al.*, 2016).

The sandglass-shaped feature in NGC 3622, which resembles the outflow of M82, has never been reported. SDSS DR12 classifies this galaxy as a starburst galaxy, which reinforces the idea of an outflow-like feature. Strong H $\alpha$  and O iii emission lines might be the cause of this particular feature<sup>15</sup>.

In total, 32 galaxies have noticeable negative color gradients, while 3 have positive color gradients. The color gradients of NUV(*GALEx*) / 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  (S<sup>4</sup>G) observations for the disks of 1931 nearby galaxies ( $z < 0.01$ ) also show negative color gradients (see Figure 6 in Bouquin *et al.*, 2018, see also de Jong 1996, Taylor *et al.* 2005, Kim and Im 2013). These color gradients are in agreement with the global scenario of the inside-out formation of disks.

### 3.4 Discussion and Conclusion

Studying PSF-matched images of 257 NGC/IC galaxy mosaics in the SDSS  $g$  and  $r$  filters and *Spitzer* 3.6  $\mu\text{m}$  mosaics, I conclude the following:

1. *Early-type galaxies have lower and narrower ranges of  $\beta_V$  and  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values than later type galaxies* (see Figures 3.4 and 3.9). This trend can be explained by an increased amount of old stellar populations with quenched SF in ETGs.
2. *Spiral galaxies have steeper  $A_V$ -profiles*. The  $A_V$ -profiles for Sa galaxies with small

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<sup>15</sup><http://skyserver.sdss.org/dr12/en/tools/explore/Summary.aspx?id=1237651273508651034>

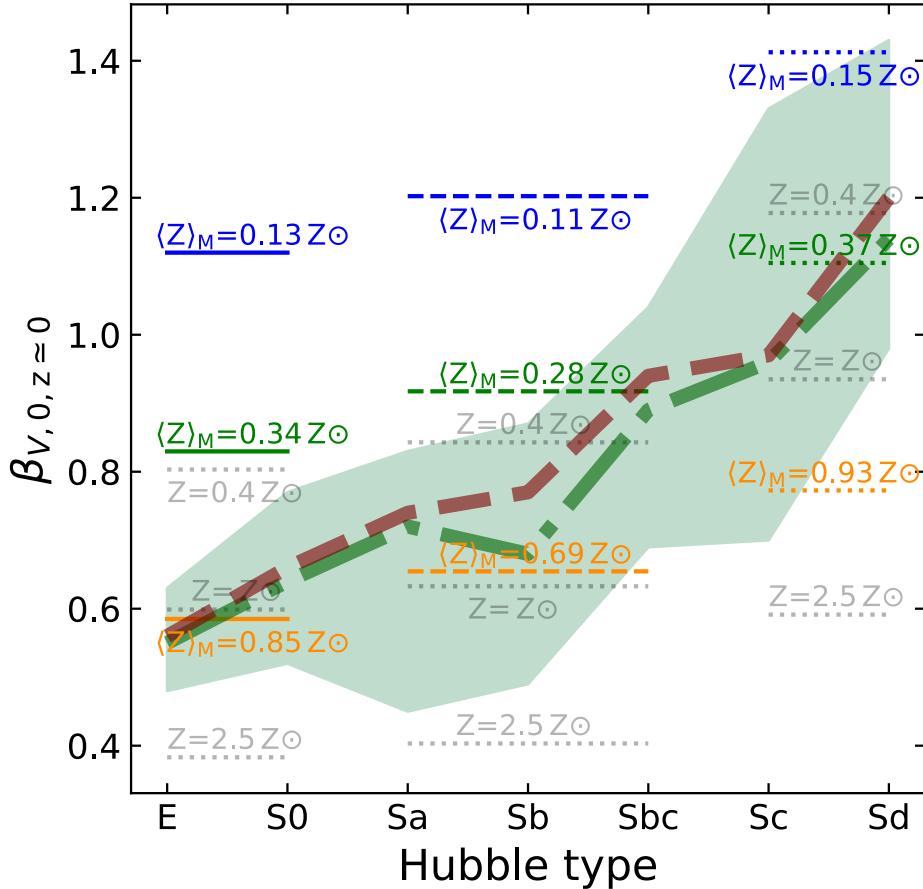


Figure 3.12:  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values at  $z \simeq 0$  for galaxies of Hubble type E–Sd. The green dotted-dashed line and shaded region indicate the median and  $1\sigma$  limits of the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values for galaxies in each Hubble type bin (see Figure 3.9). The thick brown dashed line indicates the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values derived from the median combined  $\langle \beta_V \rangle$ -profiles for each Hubble type. Horizontal lines show the expected model values from Chapter 2 (K17), where the colors and line styles correspond to those from Figure 2.24. Mass-weighted metallicities for models at a redshift of  $z = 0$  are shown above or below each line.  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values with no metallicity evolution are plotted as light gray dotted lines. Mass-weighted metallicity ranges for each Hubble type from GD15 (see their Figure 11) match well to the mass-weighted metallicity range, where  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values are distributed throughout the green shaded region.

bulges agree better with what was published in GD15 than for the ones with large bulges. The steeper  $A_V$ -profile slopes are the result of the red-bulge population in their galaxy centers, which increases the inferred extinction values. Before using the  $\beta_V$ -method for spiral galaxies with large bulges, these larger gradients need to be taken into account.

3. *The K17 model holds for nearby galaxies.* I published the intrinsic flux ratios of various visible–NIR filters ( $\beta_{\lambda,0}$ ) with respect to the  $L$  filter ( $\sim 3.5 \mu\text{m}$ ) as a function of redshift for galaxies having SFHs characteristic of early-types (E and S0), spirals (Sa–Sbc), and late-types (Sbc–Sd) (Kim *et al.*, 2017, Chapter 2 in this dissertation). I approximated metallicity evolution by stacking the SEDs of SSPs as a function of SFH, which is different for each SFH type. Figure 3.12 shows the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values at a redshift of  $z \simeq 0$  from the K17 model, as well as the observed data from this Chapter. The model values are indicated by colored lines for early-types, spirals, and late-types with metallicity offsets:  $Z(z=0) = 2.5, 1.0, \text{ and } 0.4 Z_\odot$  from bottom to top. K17 selected the metallicity offset values arbitrarily, matching the metallicities of the empirical SED model of SSP. Metallicity offsets result in mass-weighted metallicities,  $\langle Z \rangle_m$  at  $z = 0$ , as indicated above or below each line (see Figure 2.24). The gray dotted lines are  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values without any metallicity evolution taken into account. The  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values derived through  $A_V$ -profile matching are plotted on top of the horizontal lines from Chapter 2. The thick green dashed line and the corresponding green shaded region represent the median and  $1\sigma$  ranges of the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values derived from the  $\beta_V$ -profiles of individual galaxies in each Hubble type bin, respectively (see Figure 3.9). The thick brown dashed line shows the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values derived from the average  $\beta_V$ -profile of all galaxies in each Hubble type bin. The  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values fall within a range of observed  $\langle Z \rangle_m$  from GD15 of  $1.3^{+0.7}_{-0.5}, 1.2^{+0.6}_{-0.4}, 0.9^{+0.5}_{-0.4}, 0.8^{+0.4}_{-0.3}, 0.6^{+0.4}_{-0.2}, 0.4^{+0.3}_{-0.2}, \text{ and } 0.3^{+0.3}_{-0.1} Z_\odot$  for the E, S0, Sa, Sb, Sbc, Sc, and Sd types, respectively (see Figure 11 of GD15).

The  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values from Chapter 2 were confirmed by matching the  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values at a redshift of  $z \simeq 0$  to the observations. I derived  $\beta_{V,0}$ -values using empirical models that were developed based upon observations of galaxies including a sample at redshifts  $z \gtrsim 2$ . The model at a redshift of  $z \simeq 0$  is the end-product of an accumulation of SEDs of SSPs as a function of SFH

and metallicity evolution. Any discrepancy at the intermediate redshift would have resulted in the mismatch at redshift  $z \simeq 0$ . Therefore, with *HST* and future *JWST* data, I expect the  $\beta_V$ -method would work for galaxies at a redshift  $z \lesssim 2$  with a careful classification of galaxy morphology and metallicities.

*JWST*/NIRCam's images are Nyquist sampled at  $4\,\mu\text{m}$  with  $0.^{\hspace{-0.1em}\prime\prime}0647$  pixels in the long-wavelength arm (Beichman *et al.*, 2012). PSF FWHM  $\sim 2$  pixels correspond to  $\sim 0.^{\hspace{-0.1em}\prime\prime}13$  which is comparable to the one of *HST* at  $1\,\mu\text{m}$ . The scale corresponds to  $\sim 440$ ,  $600$ , and  $720\,\text{pc}$  at redshifts of  $z = 0.2$ ,  $0.3$ , and  $0.4$ , respectively. At  $z \sim 0.3$ , a square with a side of PSF FWHM size becomes about ten times the size of the giant molecular clouds ( $\sim 200\,\text{pc}$ ). The same galaxies at these redshifts observed with both *HST* and *JWST* would look similar to galaxies observed at a redshift of  $z = 0.02$  by *Spitzer* at IRAC's  $3.6\,\mu\text{m}$  resolution, such as NGC 1016, IC 2239, NGC 2832, NGC 2892, and NGC 2937 from my sample. The large variation not only inside a galaxy but also global pixel-to-pixel values of the  $\beta_V$  due to the stochasticity of individual stellar population, that we have seen in Figure 3.5, would subside at the redshift larger than  $z > 0.3$  in the galaxy survey of the *HST* and *JWST*.

In addition to dust correction via the  $\beta_V$ -map, the  $\beta_V$ -method may also serve as a detection tool for AGN and bluer/redder coherent features. Because AGN are typically surrounded by thick dust tori, central  $\beta_V$ -values lower than the rest of the galaxy could serve as an indication of AGN activity. This method was able to find previously known features, such as resonance rings and H ii regions, and also an outflow-like feature that has not been observed before.

I conclude that the  $\beta_V$ -method can serve as a simple dust-correction method for large galaxy surveys in the redshift range  $0.3 < z < 2$ , where *JWST* observations will sample rest-frame  $\sim 3.5\,\mu\text{m}$ , and *HST* observations sample rest-frame visible wavelengths. This will become particularly useful when no, or only a limited number of, other broadband images are available.

## Chapter 4

### REVIEW AND FUTURE WORK

#### 4.1 Review

My goal of this dissertation was to model the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values as accurate as possible and evaluate the uncertainties of the  $\beta_\lambda$  method.

To model the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values, I stacked SSP SEDs as a function of 1000 SFHs and 6 metallicities for each of three galaxy types. Each SFH consists of randomly-generated multiple exponentially-declining star-forming episodes. Six metallicity tracks evolve with different slopes for each SFH type. The throughput curves of each filter pair then convolved to calculate the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values at a certain redshift.

To evaluate the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values at redshift  $z \simeq 0$ , I derived those by measuring the  $\beta_V$  profiles of  $\sim 250$  nearby galaxies using the SDSS and the *Spitzer* mosaics and using the  $A_V$  profiles from the literature.

I found an agreement between metallicity ranges of the model  $\beta_{V,0}$  values which are close to the derived values and those obtained directly from SED fitting of nearby galaxies. Figure 4.1 shows the mass-weighted metallicities of nearby 300 galaxies from González Delgado *et al.* (2015), and on top of those, the mass-weighted metallicities of stacked SEDs which resulted in the best fit between the  $\beta_{V,0}$  values at a redshift  $z = 0$  of the SEDs and the calculated  $\beta_{V,0}$  values from the observed  $\beta_V$  profiles and the  $A_V$  profiles are also depicted (see also Figure 3.12). Solid dots and vertical error bars are average mass-weighted metallicities at the half-light radii for each Hubble type from González Delgado *et al.* (2015). A red thick rugged line is the

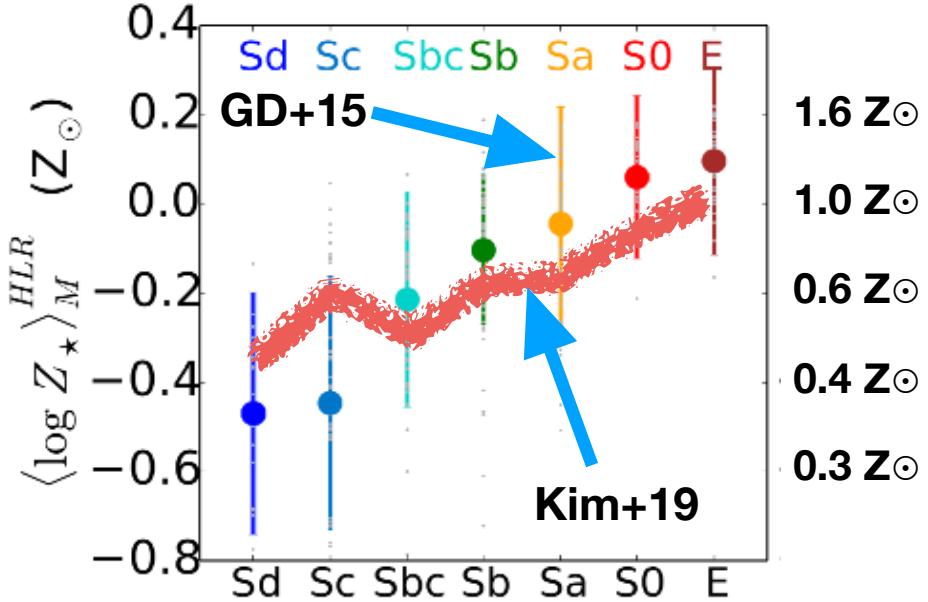


Figure 4.1: Comparison between the mass-weighted metallicities of nearby 300 galaxies from the literature and my model values of  $\beta_{V,0}$  best fit to the observed  $\beta_V$  profiles associated with the  $A_V$  profiles (see Figure 3.12). Solid dots and vertical error bars are average mass-weighted metallicities at the half-light radii for each Hubble type from González Delgado *et al.* (2015). A red thick rugged line is the result of fitting the  $\beta_V$  profiles to the model  $\beta_{V,0}$  values associated with the  $A_V$  profiles from González Delgado *et al.* (2015). Two results agree with each other within the uncertainty. This validates my model of the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values.

result of fitting the  $\beta_V$  profiles to the model  $\beta_{V,0}$  values associated with the  $A_V$  profiles from González Delgado *et al.* (2015). Two results agree with each other within the uncertainty.

I conclude my model of the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values are valid within the uncertainties of  $\sim 30\%$  at a redshift  $z = 0$ . The uncertainties are from  $1\sigma$  scatter in  $\beta_V$  around the average both within a galaxy and each morphological type bin is  $\sim 20\%$ . These result in a  $\sim 0.4$  mag scatter in  $A_V$ .

Figure 4.2 is flow-chart guidance for users of the  $\beta_\lambda$  method. A user needs to derive morphological types, redshifts, and metallicities of galaxies to determine the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values in Figures 2.16–2.22. Galaxy morphologies assist in the selection of an appropriate SFH among SFH3, SFH4, and SFH5. Redshifts could be derived from the fitting of photometric measurements or the galaxy size evolution (e.g., Furlong *et al.*, 2017). Redshifts are crucial to the

choice of a filter pair which is nearest to the rest-frame  $\lambda$  and  $\sim 3.5\mu\text{m}$  for using the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values for correcting for extinction by dust. I recommend using the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values with the metallicity offsets between  $Z(z=0)=0.05$  and  $0.02$  because their  $\beta_{V,0}$  values agreed with the observation at  $z\simeq 0$  in Figure 3.12.

## 4.2 Future Work

In Chapter 3, the  $\beta_V$  method on 257 nearby galaxies resulted in  $\sim 0.4$  mag uncertainties in the  $A_V$  values with prior knowledge of morphological types and redshifts. At a redshift range  $0.3 < z < 2$ , the uncertainties in the  $A_V$  values would be increased from the additional uncertainties in morphological types and redshifts. Future work on how to minimize the uncertainties by choosing right  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values would be beneficial.

In the following sections, I will briefly highlight the prospects of some lines of future investigation into new questions that have arisen.

### 4.2.1 Shallow Gradients in $\beta_{V,0}$ Profiles?

In Chapter 2, I found that the  $\beta_{V,0}$  profile varies  $< 20\%$  across the radius  $0 < R < 2.5 \times$  half-light radius (HLR) of elliptical galaxies in Figure 2.25. Opposite signs between age and metallicity gradients could have leveled off the  $\beta_{V,0}$  profiles (e.g., the ones of elliptical galaxies in Kim and Im, 2013). Similar  $A_V$  profiles in Figure 3.7–3.8 between the IFU-SED-fitting result and the  $\beta_V$  method also suggest flat  $\beta_{V,0}$  profiles, because any gradients in the  $\beta_{V,0}$  profiles would have resulted disagreements. In other words, the similarity in Figure 3.7–3.8 is telling us that the variations of the  $\beta_V$  profiles are most significantly originated from the dust extinction, except Sa and Sb types with big bulges. I propose research focusing on the gradients of the

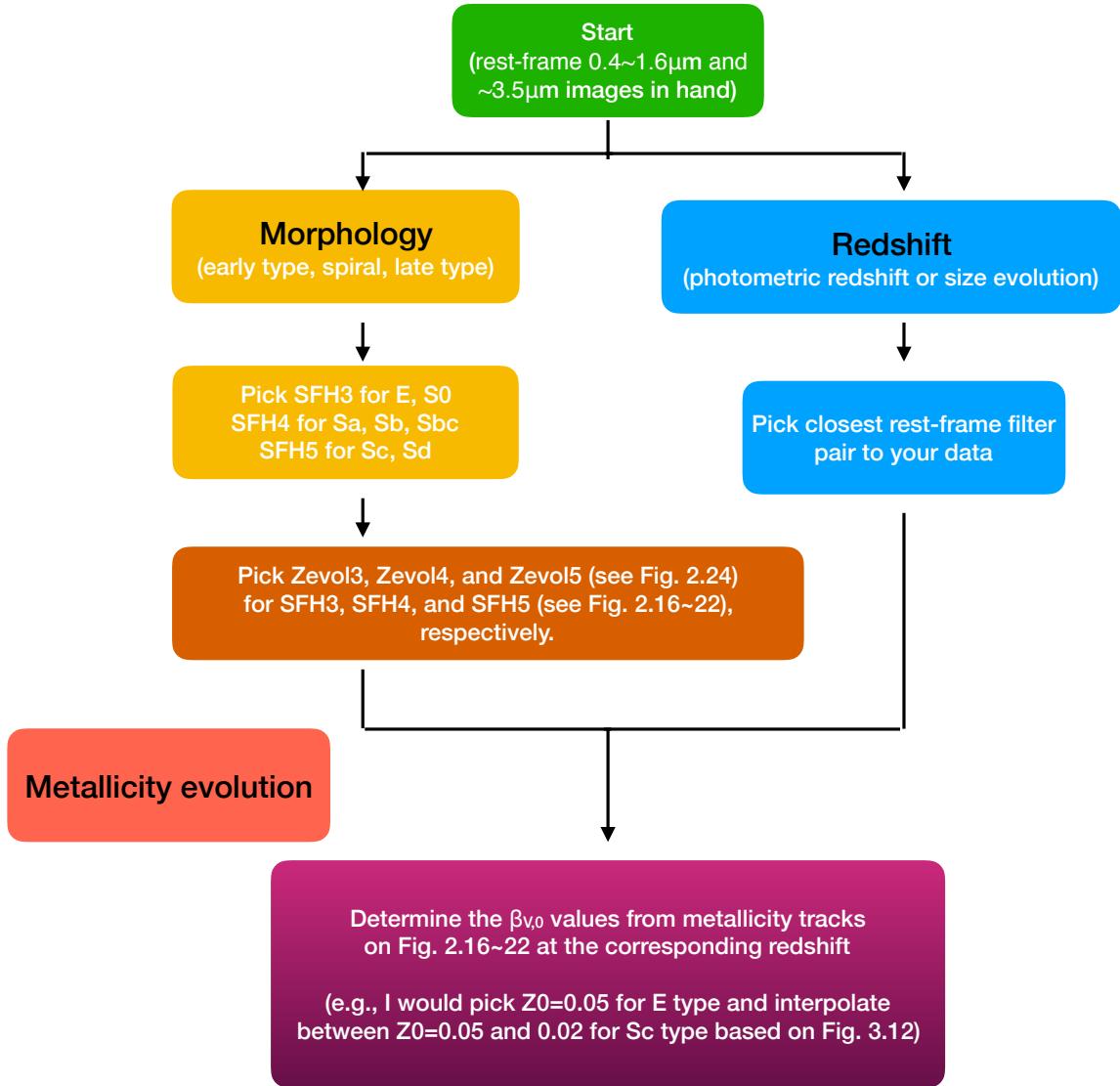


Figure 4.2: Flow-chart guidance for users of the  $\beta_V$  method. A user needs to obtain morphological types, redshifts, and metallicities of galaxies to determine the  $\beta_{\lambda,0}$  values in Figures 2.16–2.22. Morphological types are used to select either SFH3, SFH4, or SFH5. Redshifts are used to select a filter pair that has effective rest-frame wavelengths closest to  $\lambda$  and  $\sim 3.5\mu\text{m}$ . Comparison between mass-weighted metallicities of my model and those of nearby galaxies in Figure 3.12 suggests that the evolutionary tracks with metallicity offsets between  $Z(z=0) = 0.05 \sim 0.02$  are suitable.

intrinsic colors after the correction for the extinction by interstellar dust. Shallow gradients in the  $\beta_{V,0}$  profiles would make the  $\beta_V$  method a more powerful dust-correction method.

#### 4.2.2 Correlation between $A_V$ and GALFIT Residual Map

Laurikainen *et al.* (2010, 2011) used the residual images after subtracting the bulge and disk model functions to identify the structural components: bars, ovals, and lenses. Rothberg and Joseph (2004) used the residual images created by subtracting a galaxy model generated from IRAF tasks ELLIPSE and BMODEL from the actual data image for identifying large-scale fine merger remnants structure.

My residual images after subtracting the bulge and disc models from GALFIT from the  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  images (see Appendix D) seem to coincide with high-extinction regions in the  $A_V$  map. Especially, spiral arms, where stars are formed out of thick dust clouds so distinctive on the  $A_V$  map, are not symmetric so are usually remained on the residual images. More quantitative analyses into the correlation between the residual images and the dust extinction maps could be an insightful study for the asymmetric distribution of the insterstellar dust.

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APPENDIX A  
A SET OF DISTINGUISHABLE SSPS

I construct my combined model SSP SEDs for a manageably small, yet comprehensive set of parameters that span the range of representative SP properties and dust extinction. I consider six metallicity and 16 age values of the SP, four extinction laws, and eight  $V$ -band extinction values  $A_V$  (see Table A.1). I adopted a grid of 16 SP ages between 3 Myr and 13.25 Gyr<sup>16</sup> in steps that roughly double for ages between 10 Myr and 10 Gyr. This allows me to follow the rapid evolution of massive stars, without reserving too many SEDs for the slow evolution of low-mass stars. Because the MW and both the LMC2 Supershell and LMC Average extinction laws are nearly indistinguishable in the 0.4–3.75  $\mu\text{m}$  wavelength range of interest for the present study (see Figure A.1(a)), I averaged both into a single “MW/LMC” extinction law and adopt  $R_V = 3.1$ . I furthermore consider the SMC bar extinction law with  $R_V = 2.74$ , and the law appropriate for starburst galaxies of Calzetti *et al.* (2000), which has less reddening per unit extinction, for which I adopt  $R_V = 4.33$ . I substitute the MW/LMC curve for the SMC extinction law at  $\lambda > 1 \mu\text{m}$ , where no SMC data is available. The Calzetti extinction law is also only defined to 2.2  $\mu\text{m}$ , so I extrapolated to 3.75  $\mu\text{m}$ , imposing a minimum residual attenuation of 5% of that in  $V$ . For each of these three extinction laws, I select seven extinction values between  $A_V = 0.1$  and  $A_V = 6.4$  mag, each double the value of the previous one, plus the trivial case of zero extinction ( $A_V = 0$  mag), generating 22 SSP SEDs for each of the six metallicity values and 16 ages, i.e., a total of 2112 unique SSP SEDs. Figure 2.2 and Fig. A.1 shows example SEDs for different metallicities, ages, extinction laws, and extinction values.

Within typical observational uncertainties, many of these unique SSP SEDs will be indistinguishable from one or more of the others over the wavelength range of interest. I quantified the differences between each pair of SEDs, where I only need to consider differences in SED shape, not in the absolute flux scale (which depends on the total mass of stars formed). I first divide the 0.4–3.75  $\mu\text{m}$  wavelength range into 10 equal linear bins and normalize the integrated flux in each bin to the mean integrated flux in all bins. For each pair of SEDs,  $(i, j)$ , and each wavelength bin,  $k$ , I compare the difference between normalized integrated fluxes as

$$\Delta_k^{ij} = \left| \int_k F_i(\lambda) \sqrt{\int_k F_i(\lambda)} - \int_k F_j(\lambda) \sqrt{\int_k F_j(\lambda)} \right|. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

I reject SED  $j$  as indistinguishable from SED  $i$  when both the maximum difference,  $\max\{\Delta_k^{ij}\}$ , and the mean  $\{\Delta_k^{ij}\}$  are smaller than 5%. Using this criterion, I rejected 1388 of my 2112 SSP SEDs, leaving a set of 724 unique and distinguishable SEDs for further analysis of the  $\beta_V$  method and its comparison with the SED-fitting method, and for fitting observed SEDs of individual regions within galaxies. Figure A.2 shows two examples of pairs of SEDs that were deemed to be *just* distinguishable (>5%) over the 0.4–3.75  $\mu\text{m}$  interval.

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<sup>16</sup>In Planck 2015 cosmology (Planck Collaboration XIII, 2016), the Hubble time  $t_H \simeq 13.8$  Gyr. Hence,  $t = 13.25$  Gyr corresponds to 0.55 Gyr after the Big Bang or  $z_f \simeq 9$ , consistent with the Planck Collaboration (Paper 2016) results of  $\tau = 0.058$  and  $z_{\text{reion}} \simeq 8$ , so this maximum age is a deliberate choice.

Table A.1: Parameter Set of the Combined SSP Model SEDs

Parameter	Values
$Z$	0.0001, 0.0004, 0.004, 0.008, 0.02, 0.05
Age (Myr)	3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 20, 40, 80, 160, 320, 640, 1250, 2500, 5000, 10000, 13250
Extinction law	MW <sup>a</sup> /LMC <sup>b</sup> , SMC <sup>c</sup> , Calzetti <sup>d</sup>
$A_V$ (mag)	0.0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.8, 1.6, 3.2, 6.4

Notes. <sup>a</sup>Fitzpatrick (1999), <sup>b</sup>Misselt *et al.* (1999), <sup>c</sup>Gordon *et al.* (2003), <sup>d</sup>Calzetti *et al.* (2000).

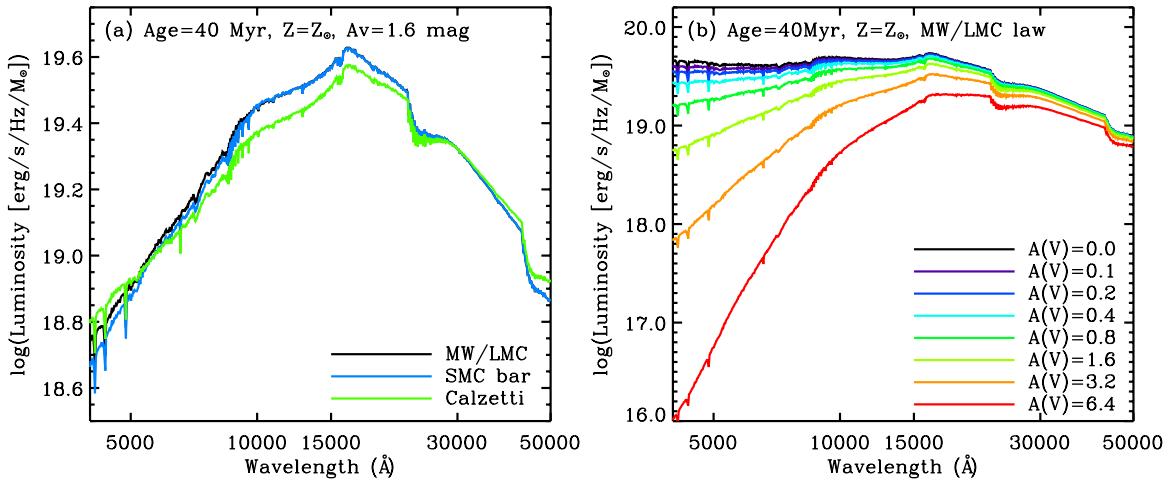


Figure A.1: Examples of my adopted combined array of SSP SEDs. (a) SEDs for a 40 Myr old SSP with  $Z = Z_{\odot}$ , for three different extinction laws and  $A_V = 1.6$  mag. Note that over the wavelength range of interest ( $0.4$ – $3.75 \mu\text{m}$ ), the MW and LMC extinction laws are essentially indistinguishable and were combined; (b) SEDs for a 40 Myr old SSP with  $Z = Z_{\odot}$ , for eight different extinction values and a MW/LMC extinction law.

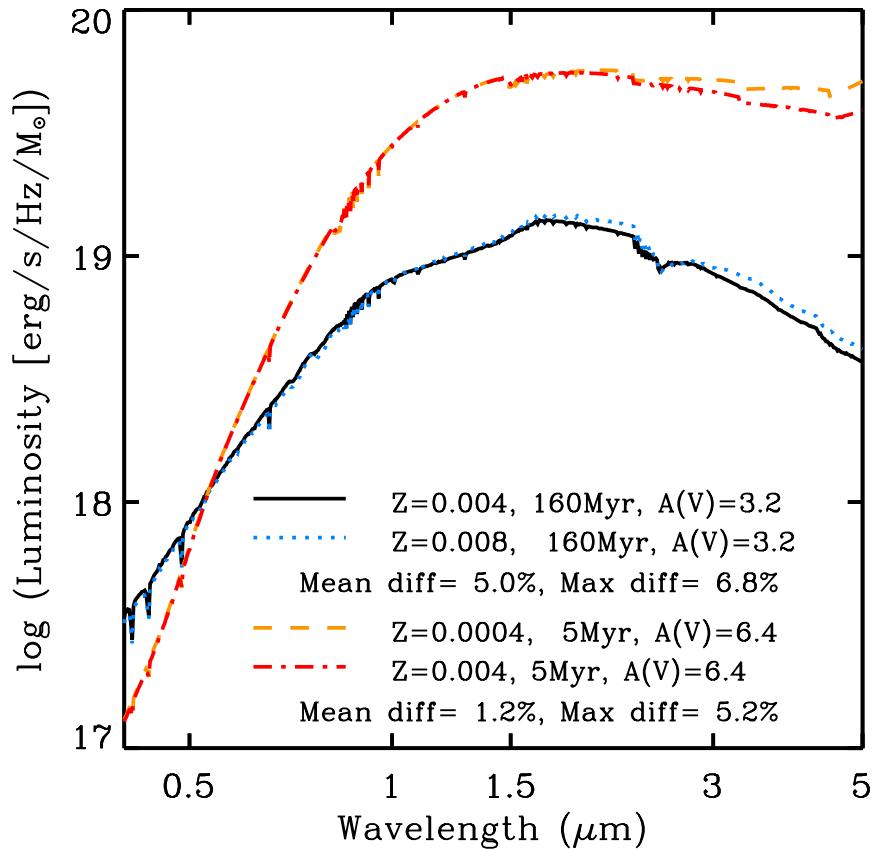


Figure A.2: Examples of two pairs of SSP model SEDs that *just* meet my  $\max\{\Delta_k^{ij}\}$  or  $\text{mean}\{\Delta_k^{ij}\} > 5\%$  criteria for being distinguishable over the  $0.4\text{--}3.75\,\mu\text{m}$  wavelength range, each normalized at  $\lambda = 1\,\mu\text{m}$ . The lower pair (black/blue) is for  $\text{mean}\{\Delta_k^{ij}\} > 5\%$  and therefore also has  $\max\{\Delta_k^{ij}\}$  greater than 5%, and the upper pair (red/orange) is for  $\max\{\Delta_k^{ij}\} > 5\%$ .

## APPENDIX B

### THE MAGNITUDE OFFSETS BETWEEN AB AND VEGA MAGNITUDE SYSTEMS FOR VARIOUS FILTERS

Throughout this dissertation, I use the AB magnitude system (Oke, 1974; Oke and Gunn, 1983). For observers with data calibrated onto the Vega magnitude system, I here provide magnitude offsets between AB and Vega magnitudes, derived using the Kurucz (1993) Vega spectrum as available in STSDAS 3.16 ([www.stsci.edu/institute/software\\_hardware/stsdas/](http://www.stsci.edu/institute/software_hardware/stsdas/)). I also list the central wavelength,  $\lambda_c$ , and bandwidth (FWHM),  $\Delta\lambda$ , of each filter in Table B.1.

Table B.1: Central Wavelengths, Bandwidths, And Magnitude Offsets Between AB And Vega Magnitudes For Each Of The Filters Used In The Present Study

Filter	$\lambda_c^a$ [Å]	$\Delta\lambda^b$ [Å]	$m_{\lambda,AB} - m_{\lambda,Vega}^c$	Filter	$\lambda_c^a$ [Å]	$\Delta\lambda^b$ [Å]	$m_{\lambda,AB} - m_{\lambda,Vega}^c$
<i>B</i>	4361 <sup>d</sup>	890 <sup>d</sup>	-0.098	WFC3 UVIS F475W	4773 <sup>e</sup>	1344 <sup>e</sup>	-0.088
<i>V</i>	5448 <sup>d</sup>	840 <sup>d</sup>	0.022	WFC3 UVIS F555W	5308 <sup>e</sup>	1562 <sup>e</sup>	-0.013
<i>R<sub>c</sub></i>	6400 <sup>f</sup>	1500 <sup>f</sup>	0.213	WFC3 UVIS F606W	5887 <sup>e</sup>	2182 <sup>e</sup>	0.096
<i>I<sub>c</sub></i>	7900 <sup>f</sup>	1500 <sup>f</sup>	0.455	WFC3 UVIS F625W	6242 <sup>e</sup>	1463 <sup>e</sup>	0.163
<i>I</i>	7980 <sup>d</sup>	1540 <sup>d</sup>	0.436	WFC3 UVIS F775W	7647 <sup>e</sup>	1171 <sup>e</sup>	0.396
SDSS <i>g</i>	4774 <sup>g</sup>	1377 <sup>g</sup>	-0.085	WFC3 UVIS F814W	8024 <sup>e</sup>	1536 <sup>e</sup>	0.433
SDSS <i>r</i>	6231 <sup>g</sup>	1371 <sup>g</sup>	0.167	WFC3 UVIS F850LP	9166 <sup>e</sup>	1182 <sup>e</sup>	0.536
SDSS <i>i</i>	7615 <sup>g</sup>	1510 <sup>g</sup>	0.394	WFC3 IR F098M	9864 <sup>e</sup>	1570 <sup>e</sup>	0.576
SDSS <i>z</i>	9132 <sup>g</sup>	940 <sup>g</sup>	0.530	WFC3 IR F105W	10552 <sup>e</sup>	2650 <sup>e</sup>	0.660
ACS WFC F435W	4297 <sup>h</sup>	1038 <sup>h</sup>	-0.094	WFC3 IR F110W	11534 <sup>e</sup>	4430 <sup>e</sup>	0.775
ACS WFC F475W	4760 <sup>h</sup>	1458 <sup>h</sup>	-0.088	WFC3 IR F125W	12486 <sup>e</sup>	2845 <sup>e</sup>	0.916
ACS WFC F555W	5346 <sup>h</sup>	1193 <sup>h</sup>	0.006	WFC3 IR F160W	15369 <sup>e</sup>	2683 <sup>e</sup>	1.267
ACS WFC F606W	5907 <sup>h</sup>	2342 <sup>h</sup>	0.100	<i>J</i>	12546	1620 <sup>i</sup>	0.909
ACS WFC F625W	6318 <sup>h</sup>	1442 <sup>h</sup>	0.178	<i>H</i>	16487	2510 <sup>i</sup>	1.383
ACS WFC F775W	7764 <sup>h</sup>	1528 <sup>h</sup>	0.403	<i>K<sub>S</sub></i>	21634	2620 <sup>i</sup>	1.853
ACS WFC F814W	8333 <sup>h</sup>	2511 <sup>h</sup>	0.438	<i>K</i>	22053	3889	1.886
ACS WFC F850LP	9445 <sup>h</sup>	1229 <sup>h</sup>	0.536	<i>K'</i>	21218	3404	2.800
WFC3 UVIS F438W	4325 <sup>e</sup>	618 <sup>e</sup>	-0.144				
<i>L</i>	34831	5103	2.760	NIRCam F410M	40820 <sup>j</sup>	4380 <sup>j</sup>	3.087
<i>L'</i>	38333	5880	2.954	NIRCam F444W	44080 <sup>j</sup>	10290 <sup>j</sup>	3.224
WISE <i>W1</i>	33836	7934	2.681	NIRCam F480M	48740 <sup>j</sup>	3000 <sup>j</sup>	3.423
Spitzer <i>II</i>	35466	7432	2.797	MIRI F560W	56000 <sup>k</sup>	12000 <sup>k</sup>	3.732
NIRCam F200W	19890 <sup>j</sup>	4570 <sup>j</sup>	1.691	MIRI F770W	77000 <sup>k</sup>	22000 <sup>k</sup>	4.352
NIRCam F356W	35680 <sup>j</sup>	7810 <sup>j</sup>	2.793	MIRI F1000W	100000 <sup>k</sup>	20000 <sup>k</sup>	4.921

Notes.

<sup>a</sup> Central wavelength.

<sup>b</sup> Width of the bandpass (FWHM).

<sup>c</sup> Magnitude offset between AB and Vega magnitude system;  $m_{\lambda,AB} - m_{\lambda,Vega} = -2.5 \log(F_{\lambda,Vega}) - 48.585$  (Hayes and Latham, 1975; Bessell and Brett, 1988; Bessell, 1990; Colina and Bohlin, 1994).

<sup>d</sup> Bessell (2005).

<sup>e</sup> Dressel *et al.* (2015).

<sup>f</sup> Bessell (1979).

<sup>g</sup> Gunn *et al.* (1998).

<sup>h</sup> Avila *et al.* (2015).

<sup>i</sup> Cohen *et al.* (2003).

<sup>j</sup> <http://www.stsci.edu/jwst/instruments/nircam/instrumentdesign/filters/>

<sup>k</sup> <http://ircamera.as.arizona.edu/MIRI>

APPENDIX C  
TABLE FOR 257 NGC AND IC GALAXIES













...continued

ID	R.A.(J2000)		z	B	V	3.6 $\mu$ m	3.6 $\mu$ m	a	b/a	r <sub>eff</sub>	R <sub>50,V</sub> <sup>P</sup>	PA	Gal.	Ext.	B/T	T	eT	Type	SF &	Classification	Figure
	(deg)	(deg)		(mag)	(mag)	(mag)	(Mag)	(')	(")	(")	(deg)	(mag)	AGN						(20)	Set 2 #	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	
NGC 7177 330.171833	17.738056	0.003803	12.0	11.2	10.7	-20.4	3.1	0.65	22.2	11.4	93.0	0.233	0.48	3.0	0.3	SBb	3	SAB(r)b; HII LINER	240		
NGC 7217 331.968292	31.359333	0.003176	11.0	10.1	8.9	-21.8	3.9	0.82	45.3	34.2	83.0	0.413	0.86	2.0	0.3	Sb	3	(R)SA(r)ab;Sy LINER	241		
NGC 7320 339.014083	33.948111	0.002622	16.0	15.0	11.8	-18.5	2.2	0.50	33.6	17.4	45.0	0.329	0.27	7.0	0.4	S0	0	SA(s)d HII	242		
NGC 7385 342.477458	11.608556	0.026175	13.1	12.0	11.4	-24.0	1.5	0.87	37.8	15.0	36.0	0.149	0.90-5.0	0.6	E2	0	cD;E pec;; LERG	243			
NGC 7457 345.249708	30.144944	0.002815	12.1	11.2	10.8	-19.7	4.3	0.53	32.1	21.0	130.0	0.205	0.25-3.0	0.3	E-S0	0	SA(rs)0-?	244			
NGC 7479 346.236042	12.322889	0.007942	11.6	10.9	7.7	-25.0	4.1	0.76	57.3	45.0	25.0	0.161	0.06	5.0	0.3	SBc	4	SB(s)c;LINER Sy2	245		
IC 5298	349.002917	25.556694	0.027422	14.9	14.0	12.9	-22.6	0.7	1.00	*	3.6	108.0	0.265	0.553.0*	*	S?	4	LINER;HII;SbrstSy2	246		
NGC 7653 351.205667	15.275583	0.014227	13.4	12.7	12.2	-21.8	1.590.75	18.0	13.8	132.0	0.093	0.32	3.0	0.8	Sb	0	Sb	247			
NGC 7674 351.986333	8.779028	0.028924	13.9	13.2	11.8	-23.8	1.1	0.91	12.6	10.8	150.0	0.101	0.53	4.0	0.5	SBbc	4	SA(r)bc pec;HII Sy2	248		
NGC 7714 354.058750	2.155167	0.009333	13.0	12.5	12.0	-21.1	1.9	0.74	11.1	12.6	79.0	0.153	0.47	3.0	0.5	SBb/P	3	SB(s)b;pec;HII LINER	249		
IC 5338	354.126792	21.146000	0.054628	15.0	13.7	13.2	-23.8	1.0	0.70	*	11.4	30.0	0.105	0.40-5.0	1.8	E3	0	cD;E?;BrClG	250		
NGC 7731 355.371125	3.740028	0.009627	13.5	12.8	12.7	-20.4	1.4	0.79	15.3	4.2	95.0	0.153	0.52	1.0	0.7	SBa	0	(R)SBa pec:	251		
NGC 7741 355.976542	26.075611	0.002502	11.8	11.3	10.0	-20.2	4.4	0.68	64.2	46.2	170.0	0.137	0.10	6.0	0.3	SBc	0	SB(s)cd HII	252		
NGC 7742 356.065542	10.767083	0.005547	12.4	11.6	11.3	-20.7	1.7	1.00	15.0	9.6	*	0.101	0.14	3.0	0.4	Sb	3	SA(r)b;LINER HII	253		
NGC 7743 356.088083	9.934083	0.005704	12.4	11.5	10.8	-21.2	3.0	0.87	35.1	24.6	80.0	0.173	0.25-1.0	0.3	SB0-a	4	(R)SB(s)0+ Sy2	254			
NGC 7753 356.770125	29.483444	0.017239	12.8	12.0	11.4	-23.1	3.3	0.64	*	24.6	50.0	0.193	0.14	4.0	0.3	SBbc	0	SAB(rs)bc	255		
NGC 7785 358.829292	5.915833	0.012702	12.6	11.6	10.9	-22.9	2.5	0.52	23.4	9.0	143.0	0.165	0.85-5.0	0.4	E5	0	E5-6	256			
NGC 7798 359.856250	20.749861	0.008016	13.0	12.4	11.7	-21.1	1.4	0.93	15.3	12.0	51.0	0.145	0.135.0*	*	Sc	1	SBc Sbrst	257			

My sample of 257 galaxies, sorted by R.A. Unless stated otherwise, all table entries are taken or derived from NASA/IPAC Extragalactic Database (NED)<sup>a</sup>

- (1) Same as S18
- (2) R.A. in degrees and in epoch J2000.0
- (3) Decl. in degrees and in epoch J2000.0
- (4) Redshift from NED
- (5) Total B-band magnitude from Steinicke 2018
- (6) Total V-band magnitude from Steinicke 2018
- (7) Total 3.6 $\mu$ m magnitude measured using GALFIT (AB mag; see Appendix C for more information)
- (8) (7) + Distance Modulus from (4): not taking into account K-correction
- (9) Major axis in arcminutes
- (10) Axis-ratio
- (11) Effective radius in r-band in arcseconds from RC3, but recomputed by RAJ from log(Ae) after accounting for the fact that the listed Ae values were diameters, not radii
- (12) Petrosian Half-light radius measured in V-band in arcseconds
- (13) Position angle from S18 from North through East
- (14) Foreground Galactic extinction
- (15) Bulge-to-total light ratio measured in 3.6 $\mu$ m using GALFIT
- (16) T-type from RC3 or assigned (with '\*') based on (18) and (20)
- (17) T-type error from RC3
- (18) Morphological type from S18
- (19) Assigned SF/AGN classification based on (20) [0=Not active, 1=Starburst, 2=LIRG, 3=LINER, 4=Seyfert 2, 5=Seyfert 1]
- (20) Morphological and activity classification from NED

(21) Figure Set number

<sup>a</sup>The NASA/IPAC Extragalactic Database (NED) is operated by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, under contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

## APPENDIX D

FIGURE 3-2 FOR 257 NGC AND IC GALAXIES

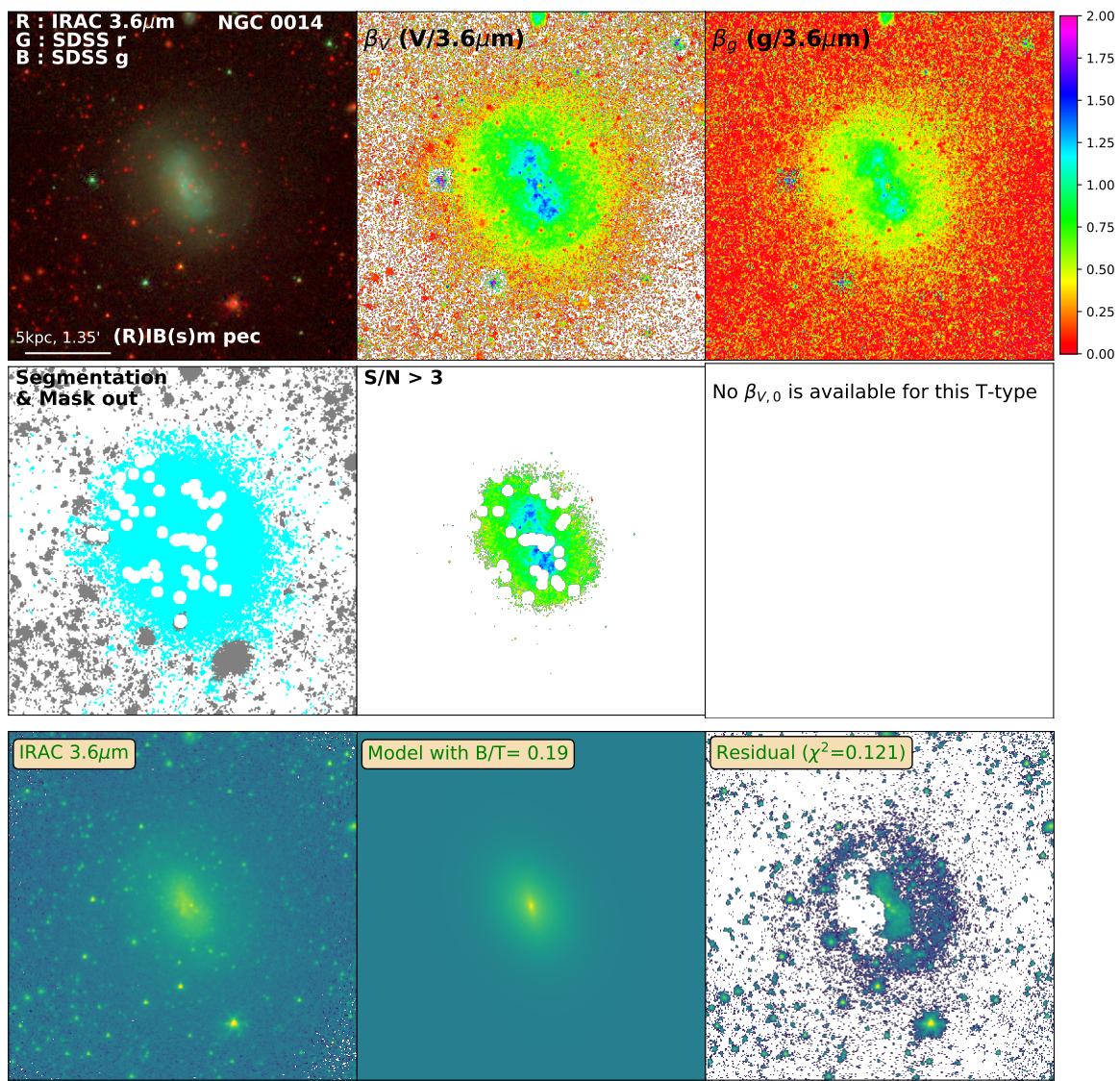


Figure D.1: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0014

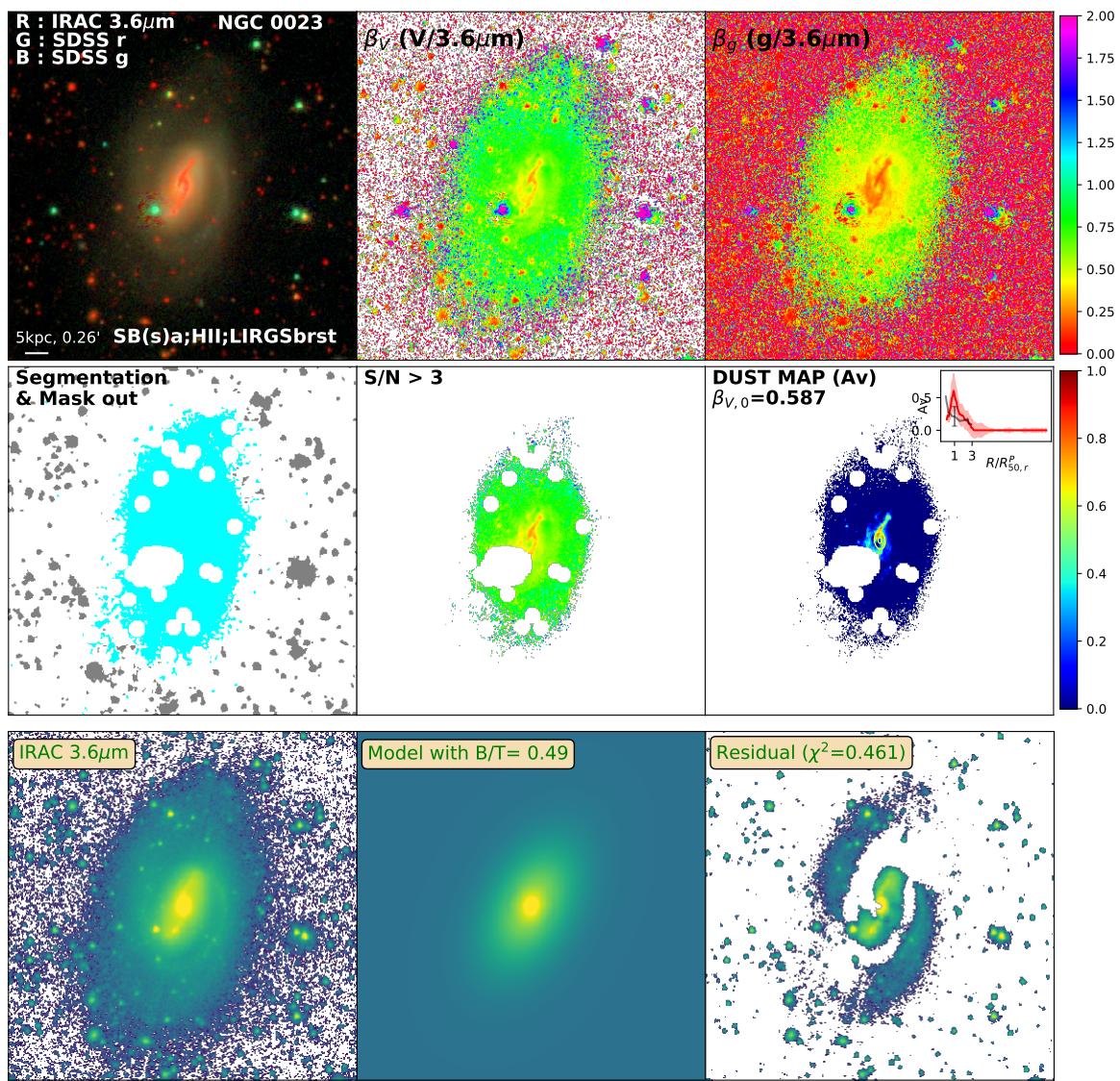


Figure D.2: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0023

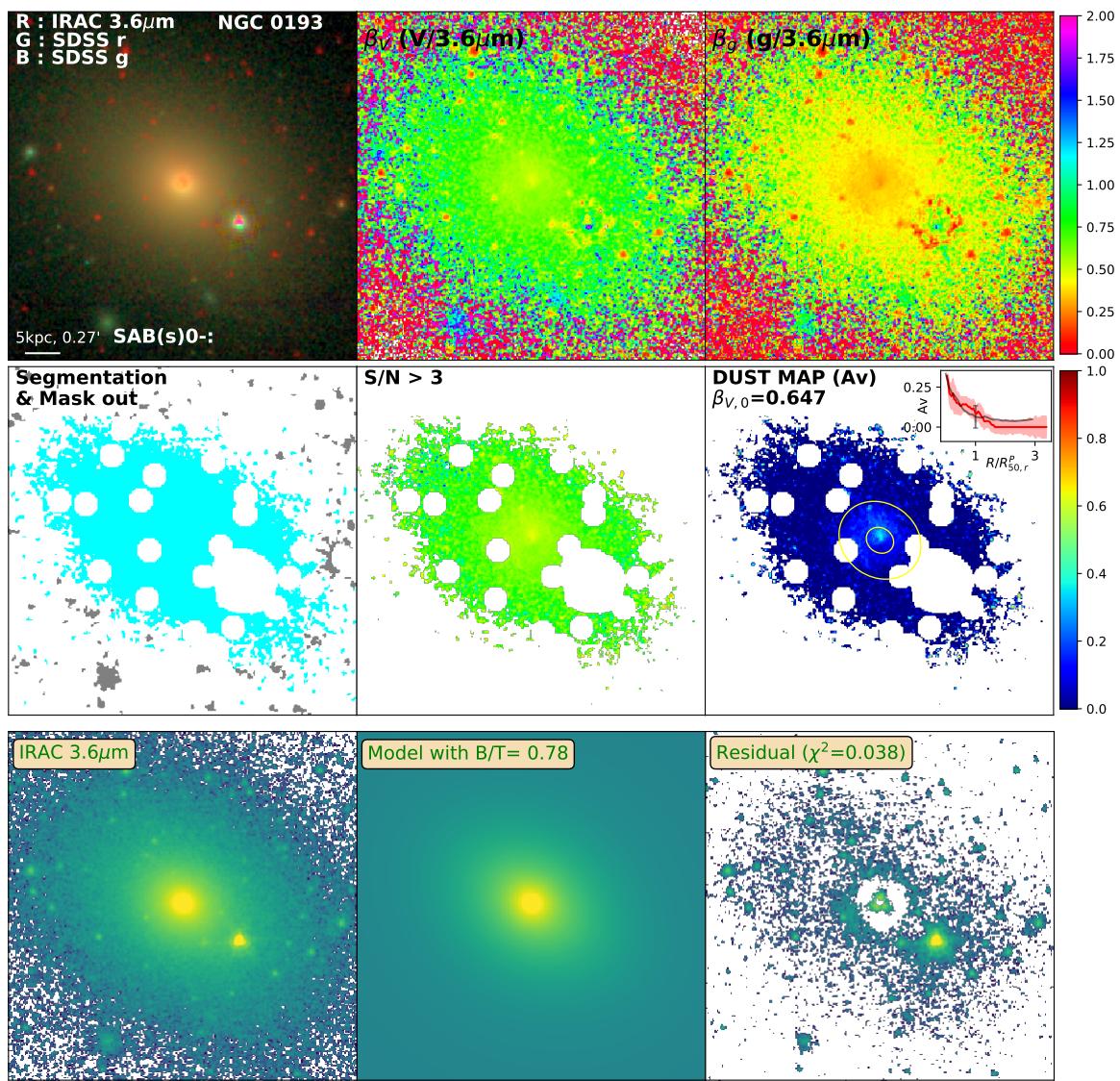


Figure D.3: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0193

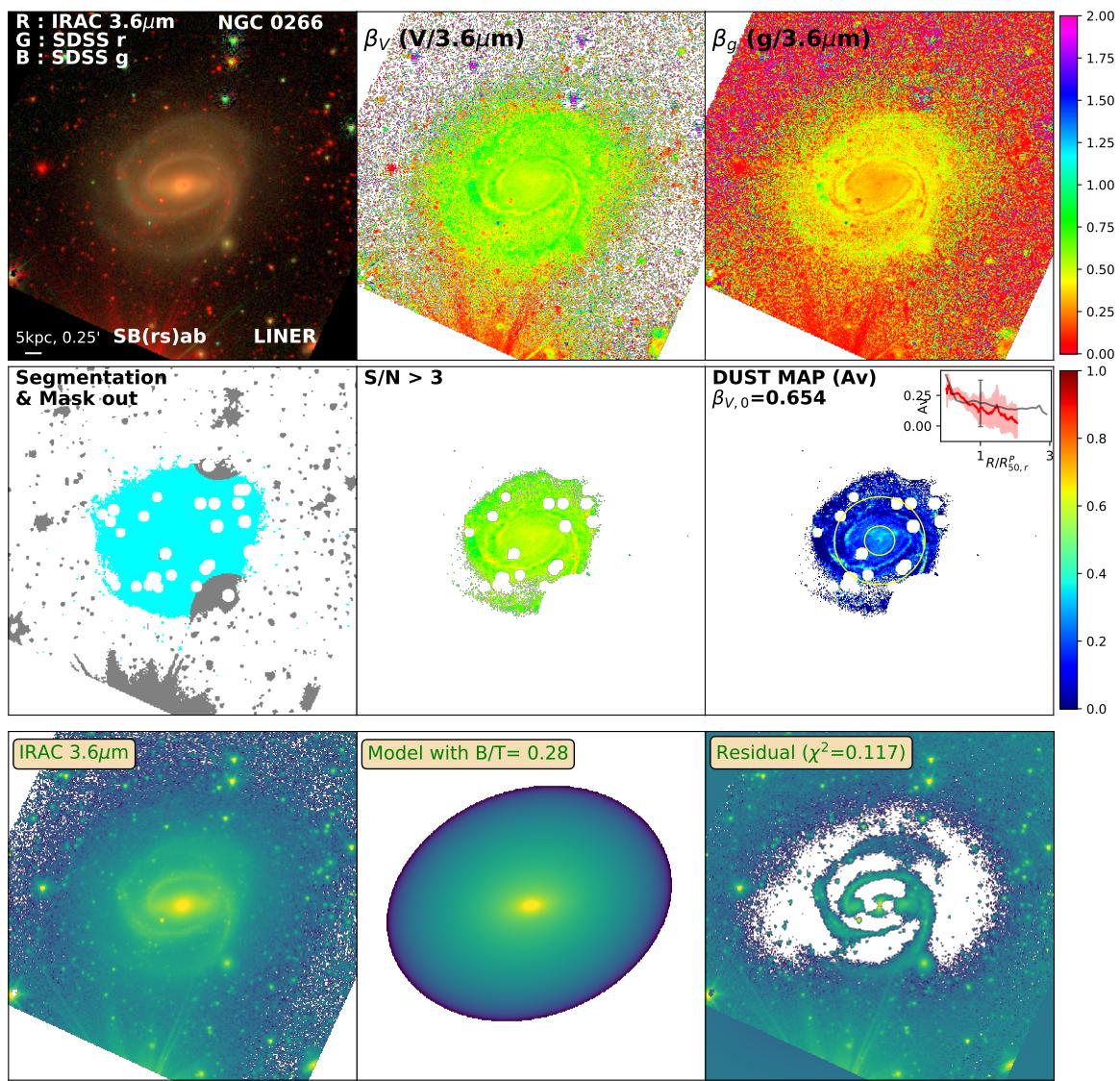


Figure D.4: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0266

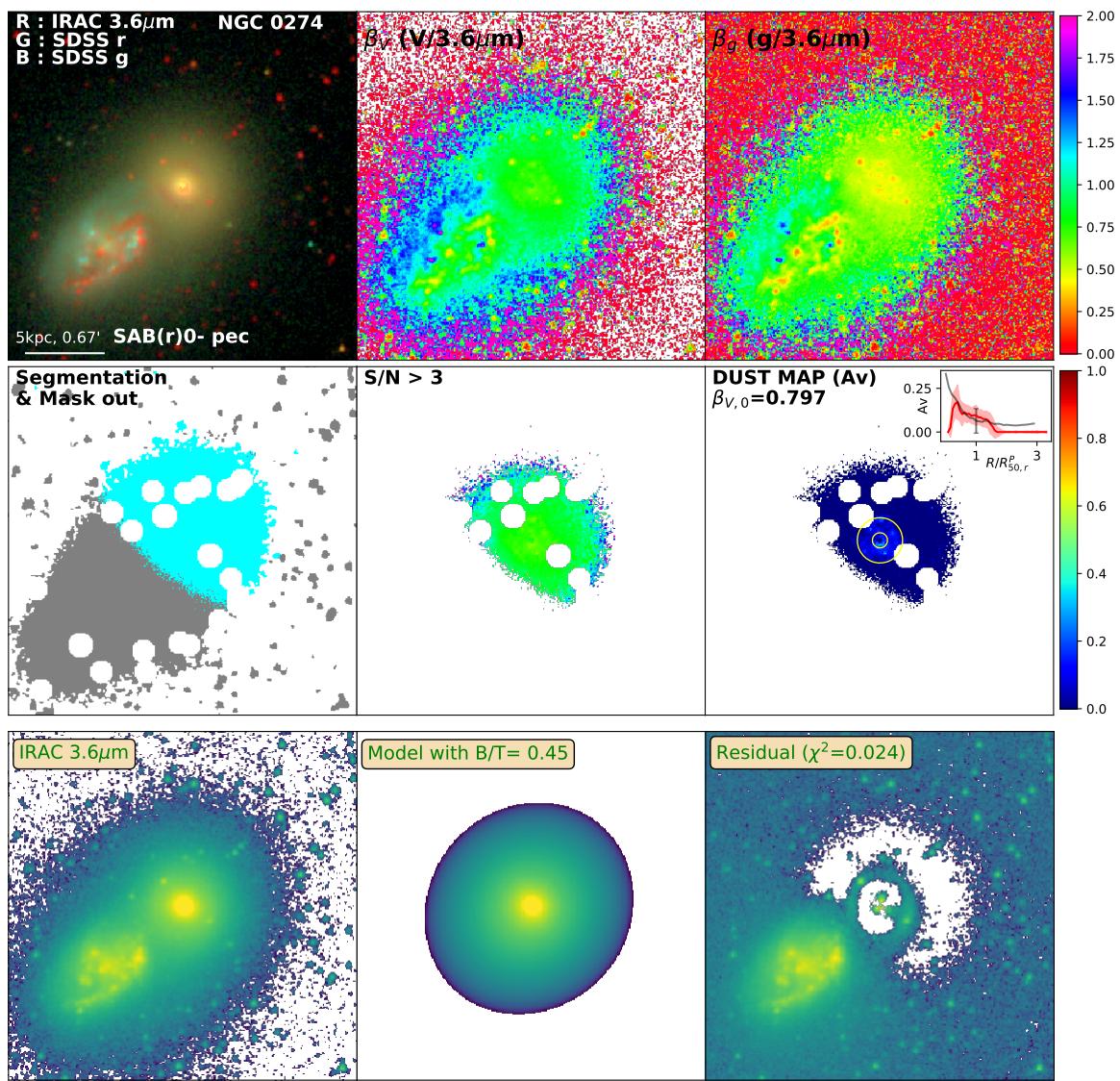


Figure D.5: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0274

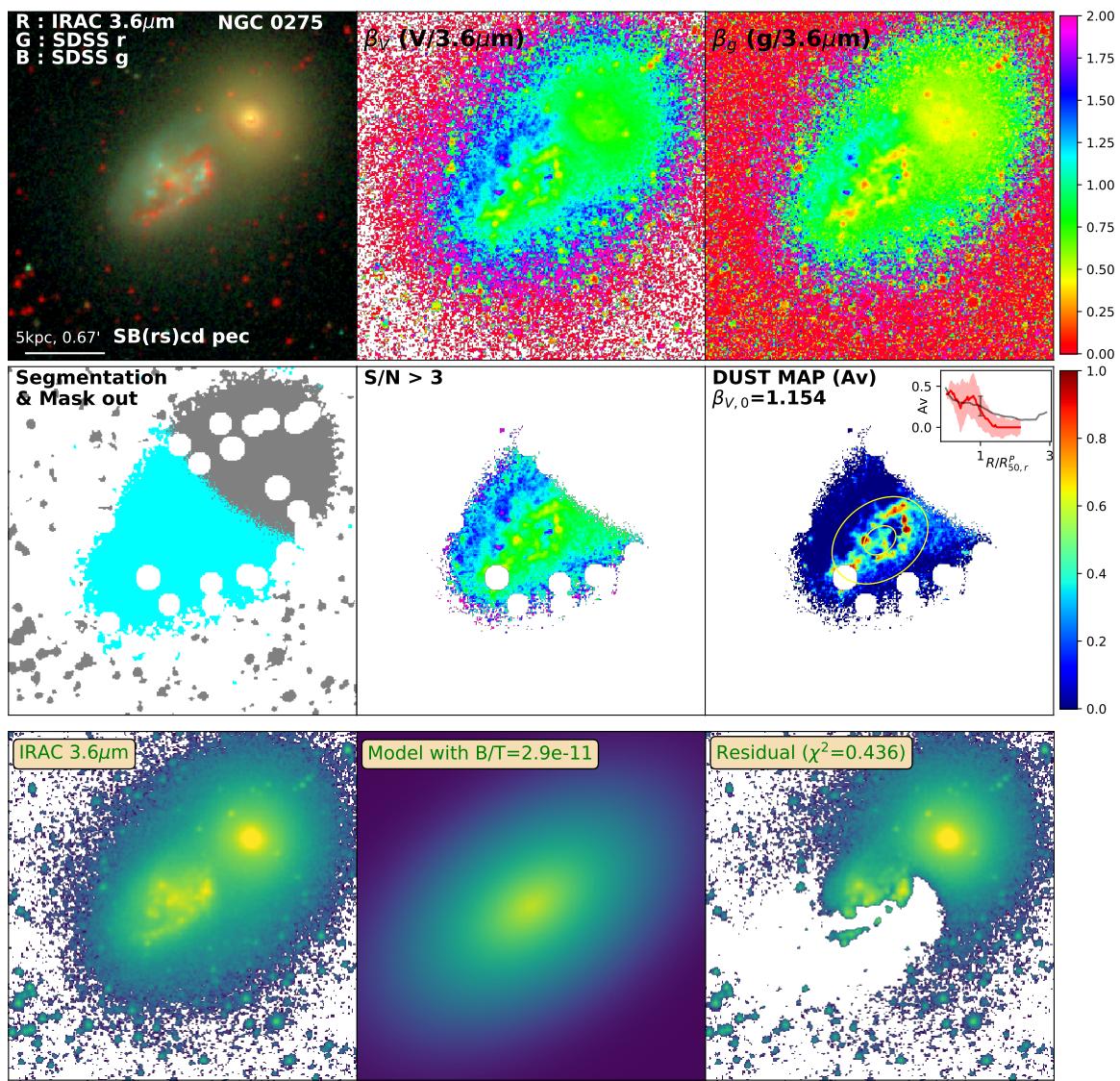


Figure D.6: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0275

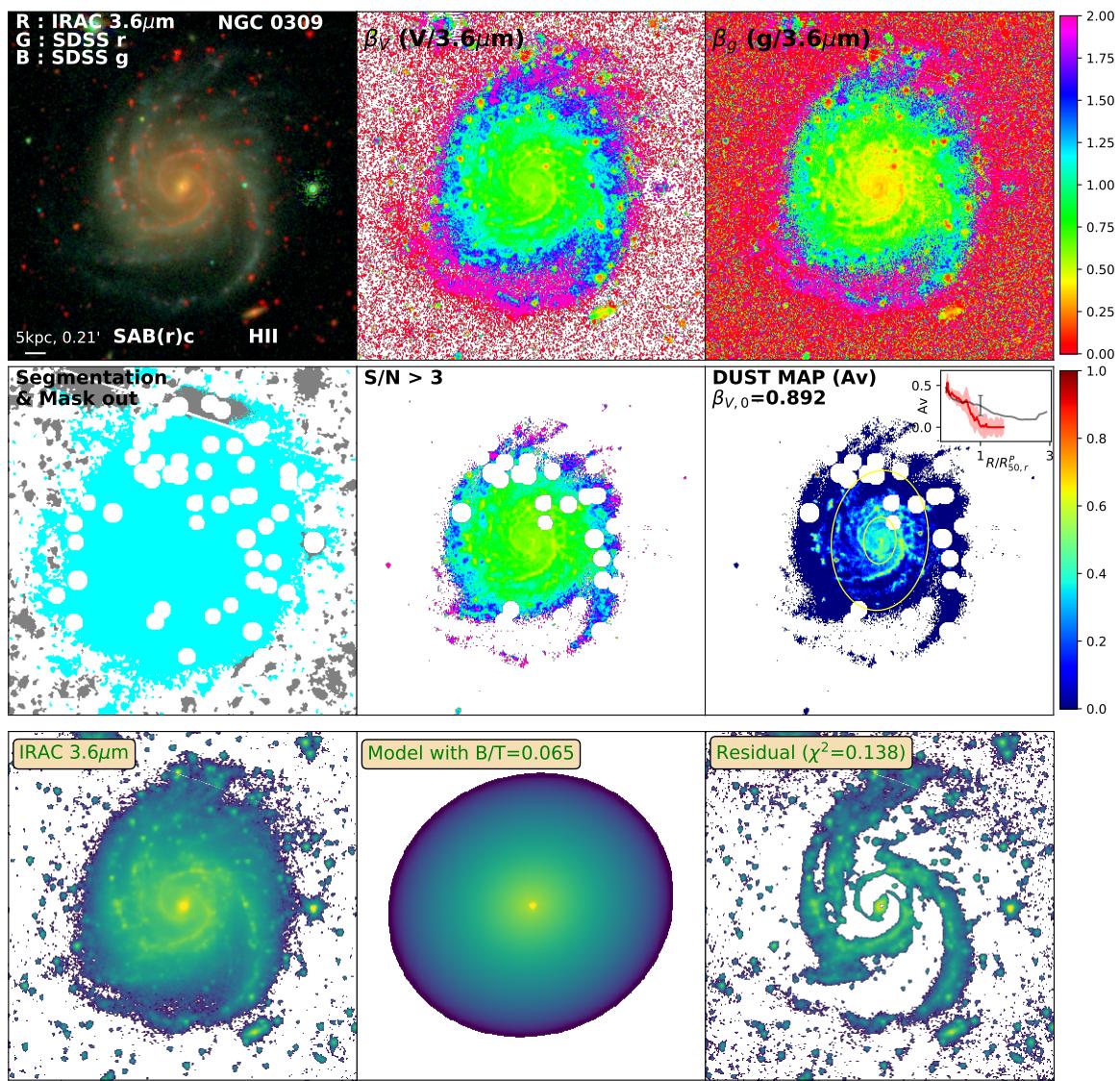


Figure D.7: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0309

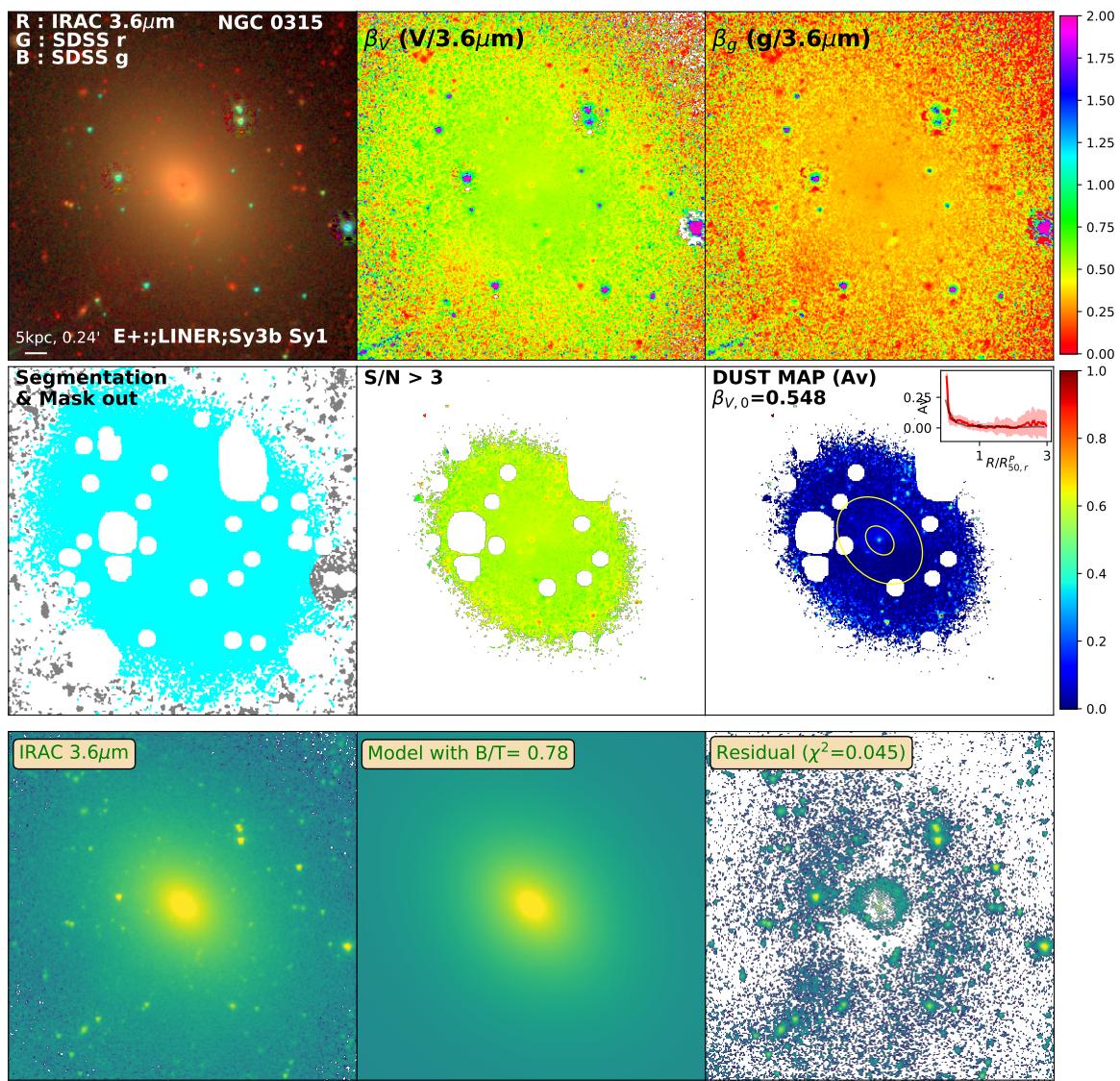


Figure D.8: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0315

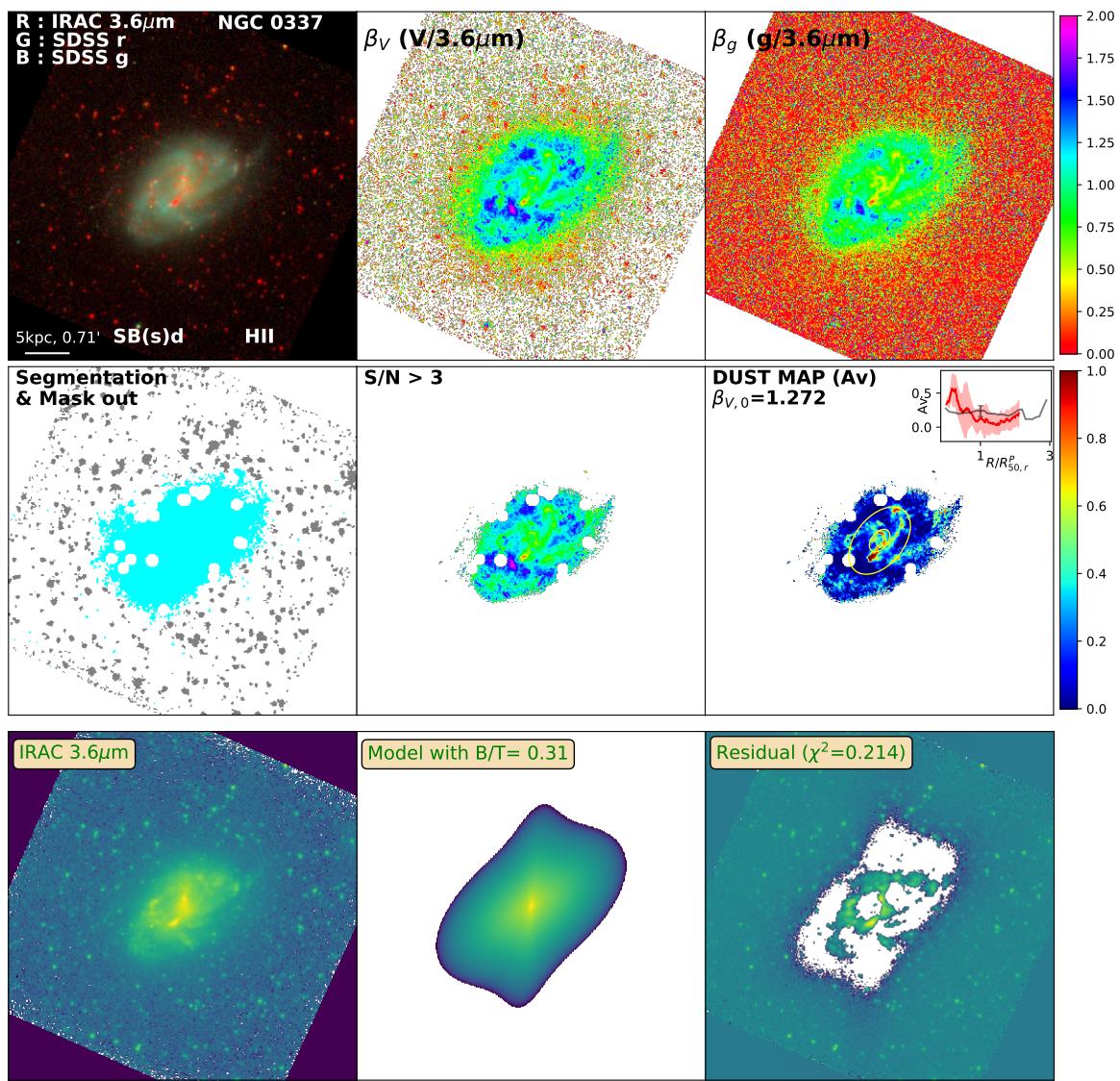


Figure D.9: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0337

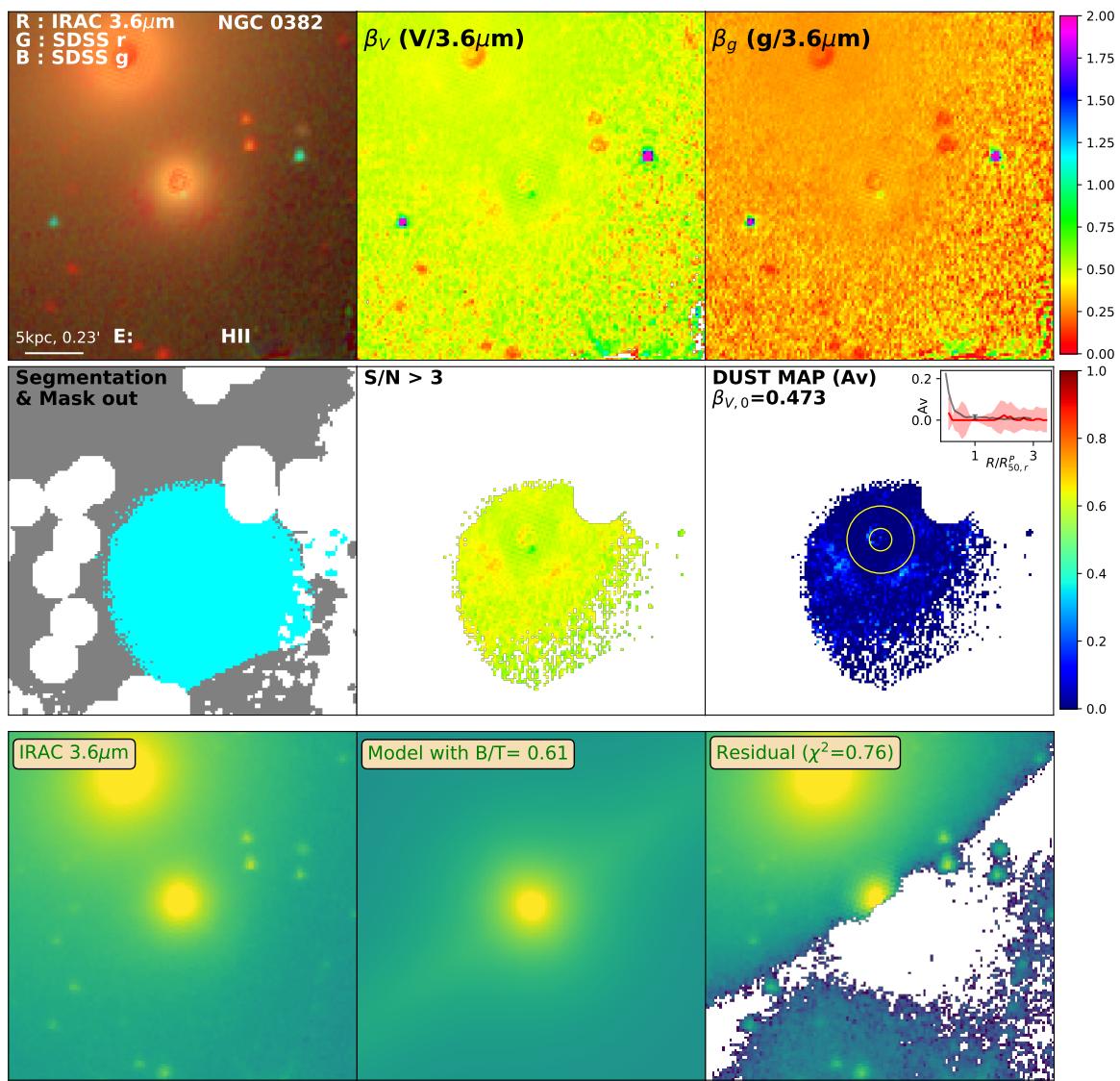


Figure D.10: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0382

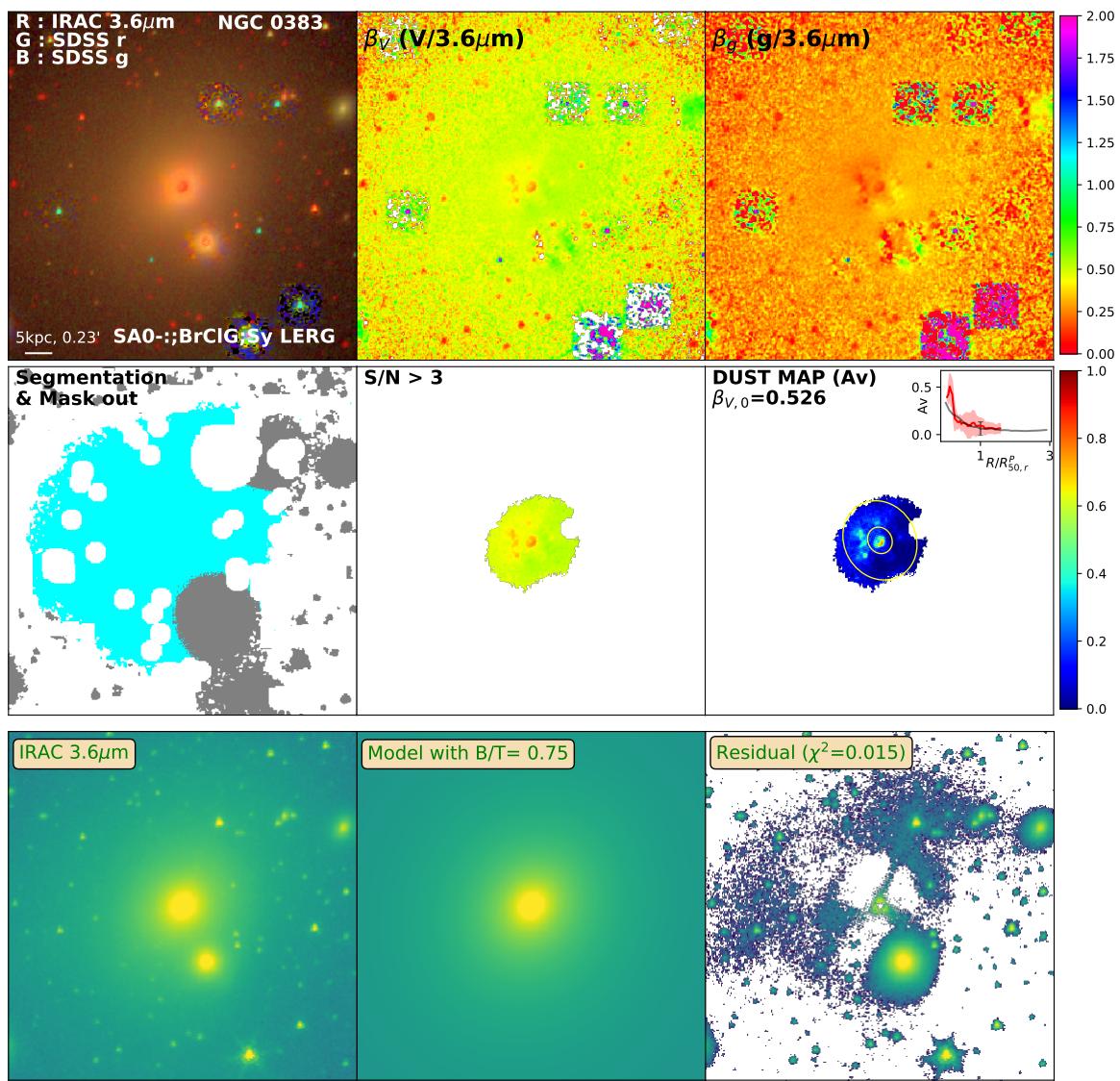


Figure D.11: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0383

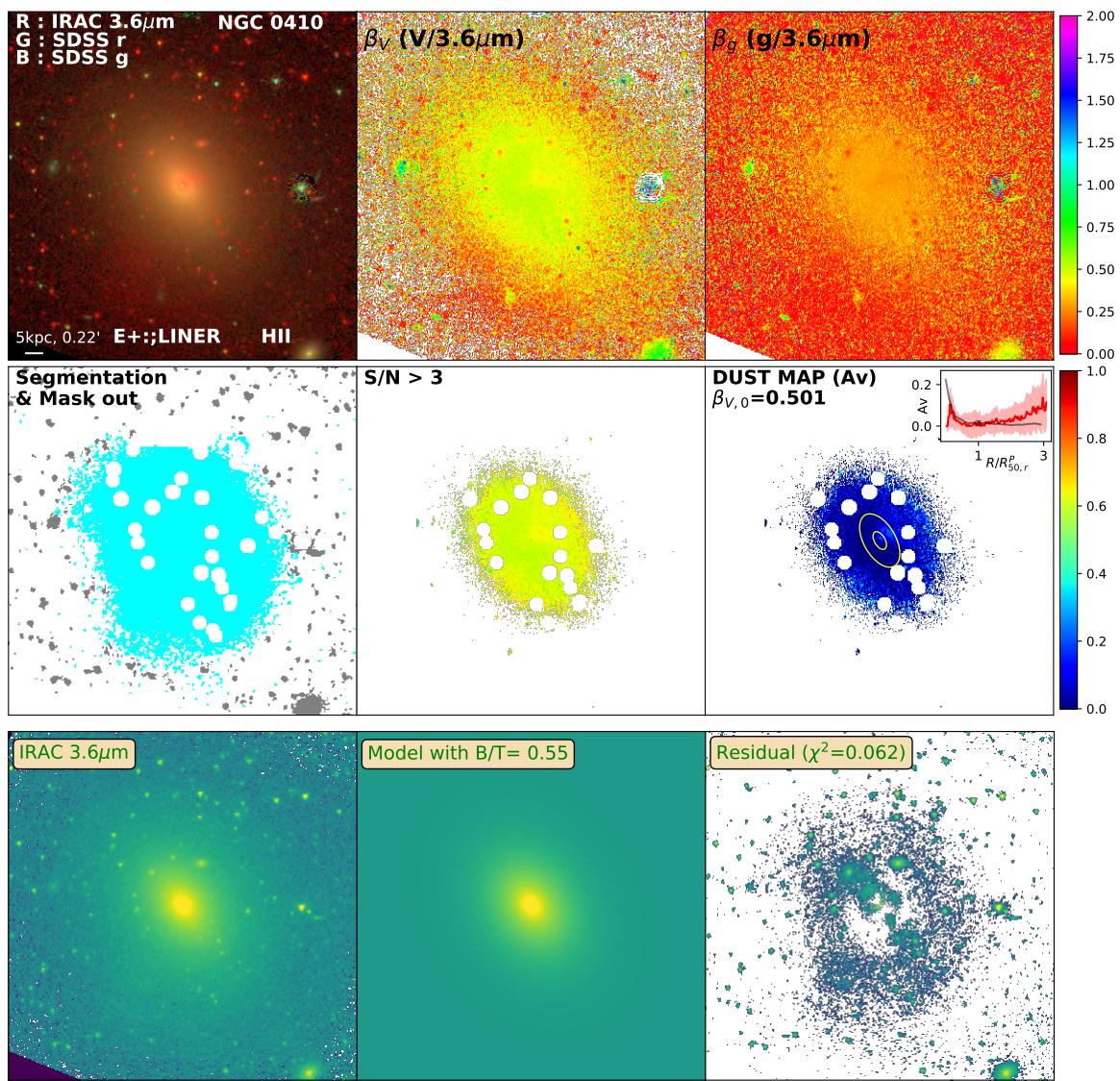


Figure D.12: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0410

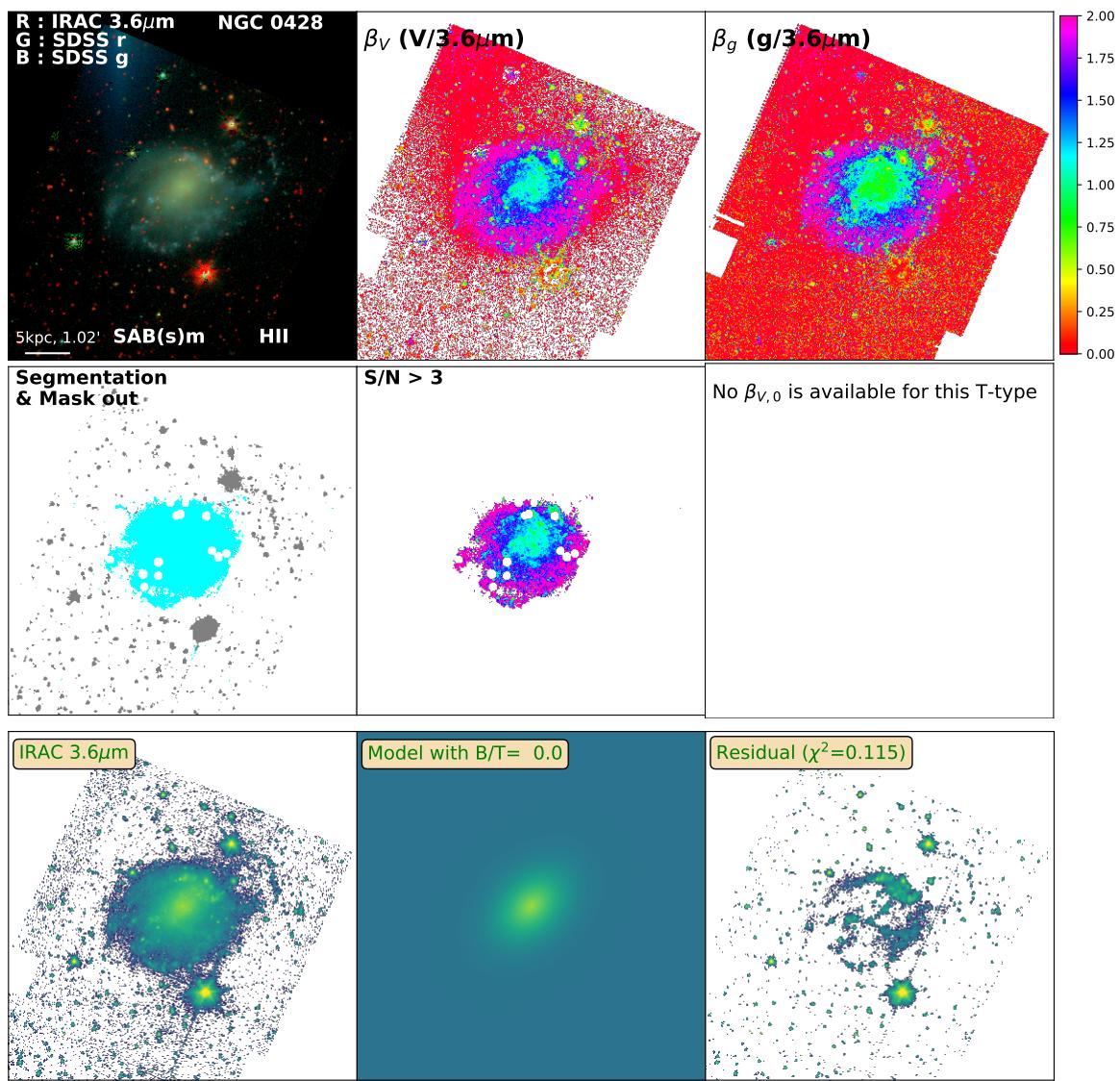


Figure D.13: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0428

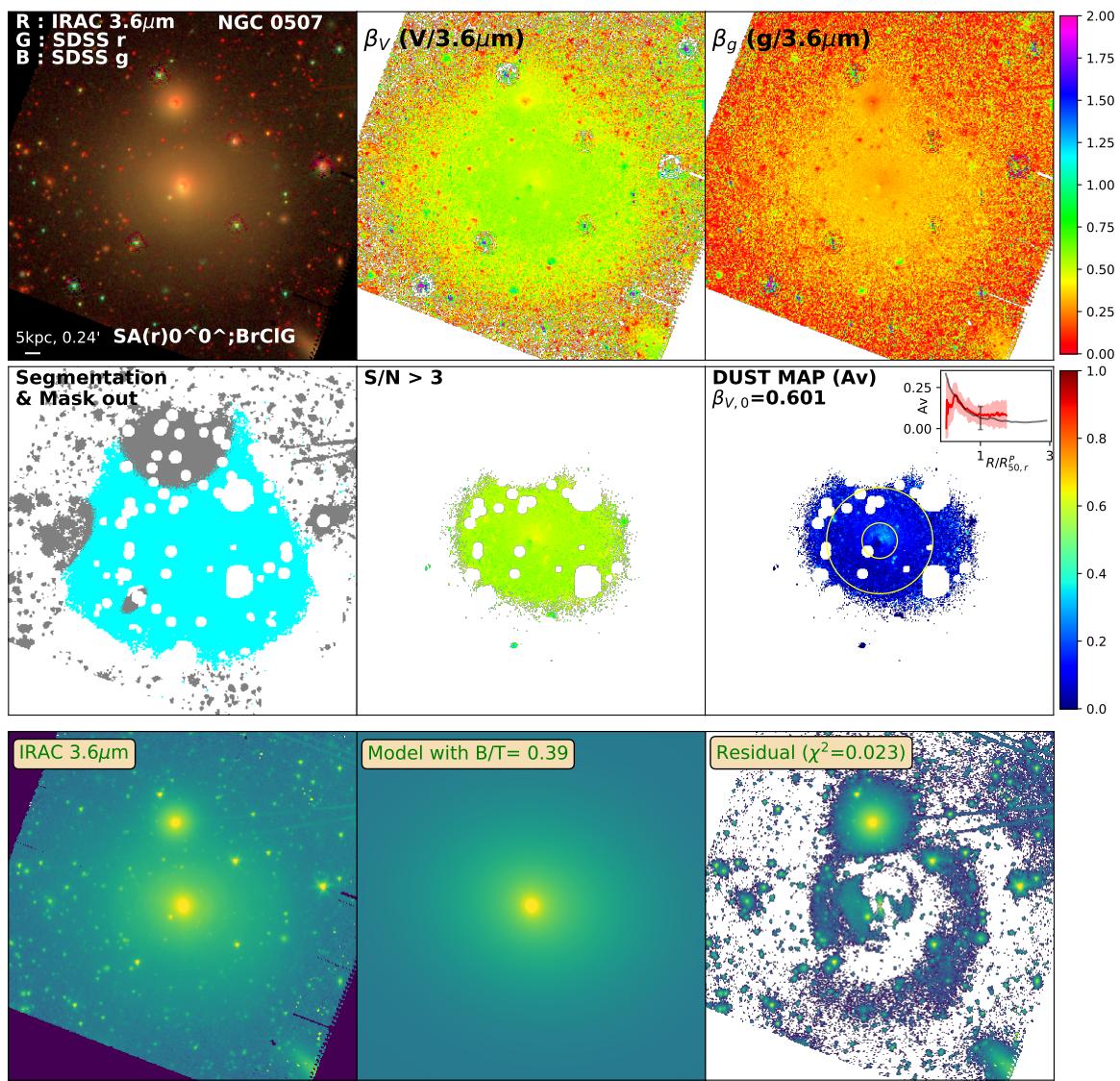


Figure D.14: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0507

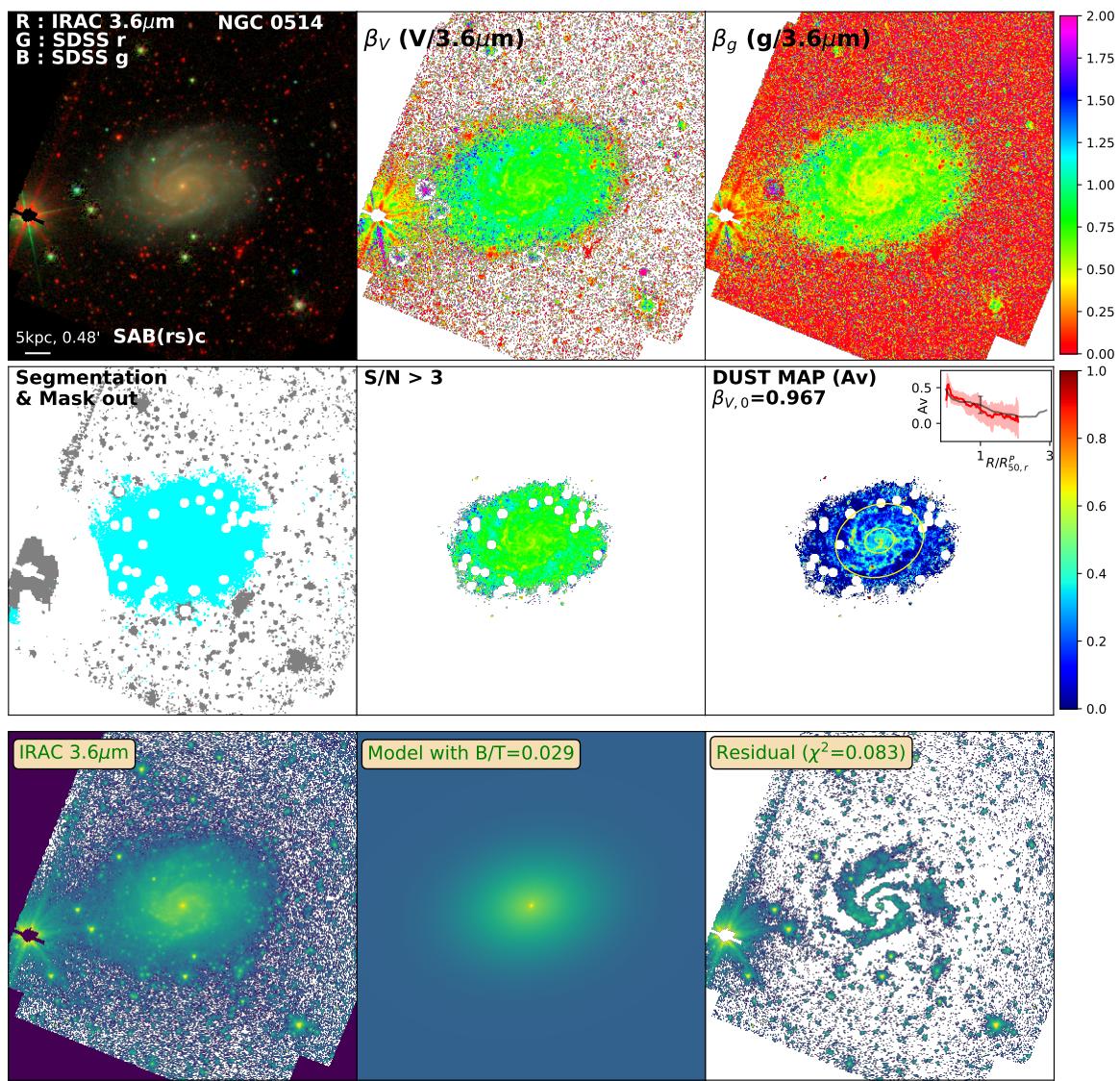


Figure D.15: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0514

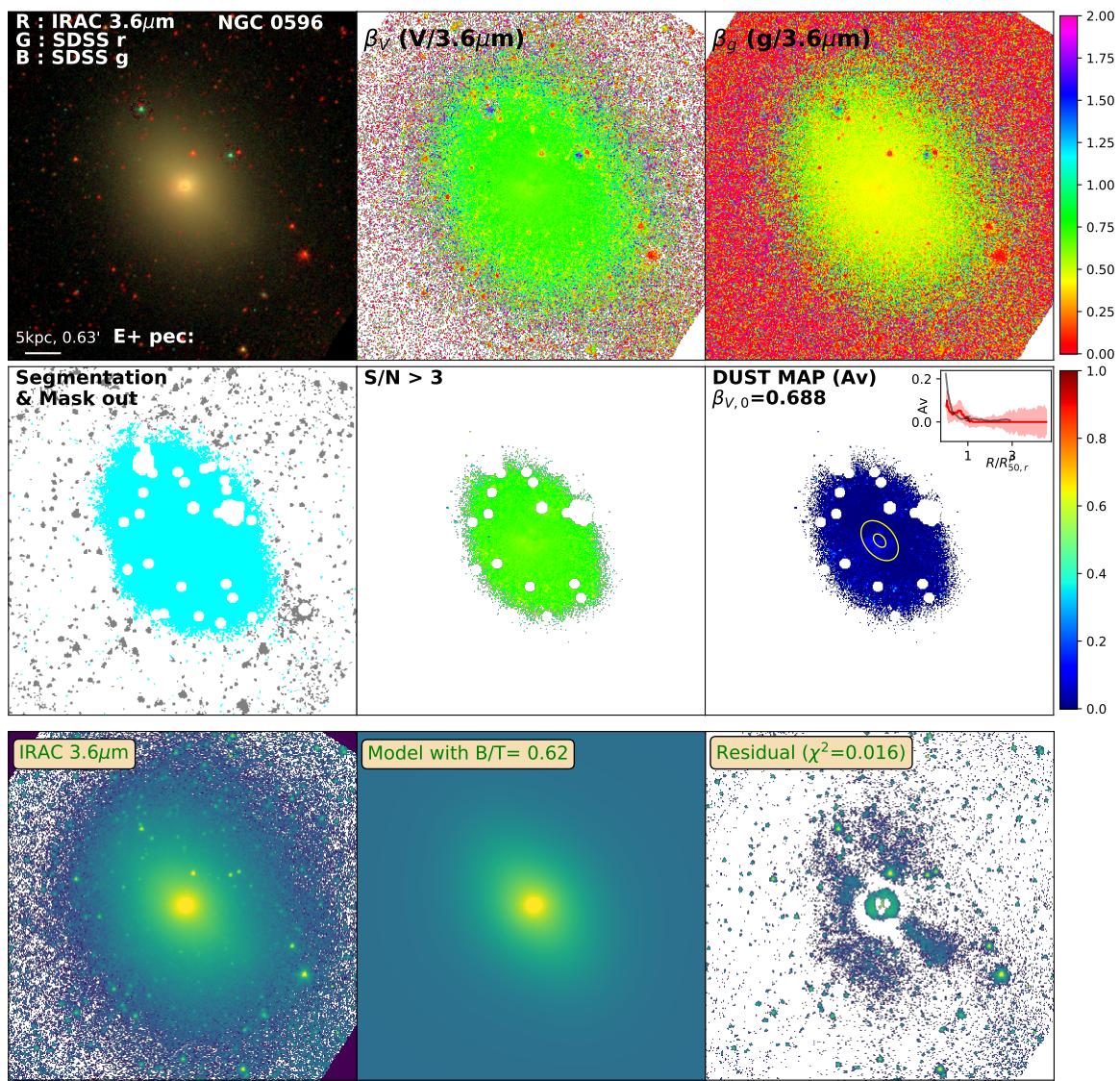


Figure D.16: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0596

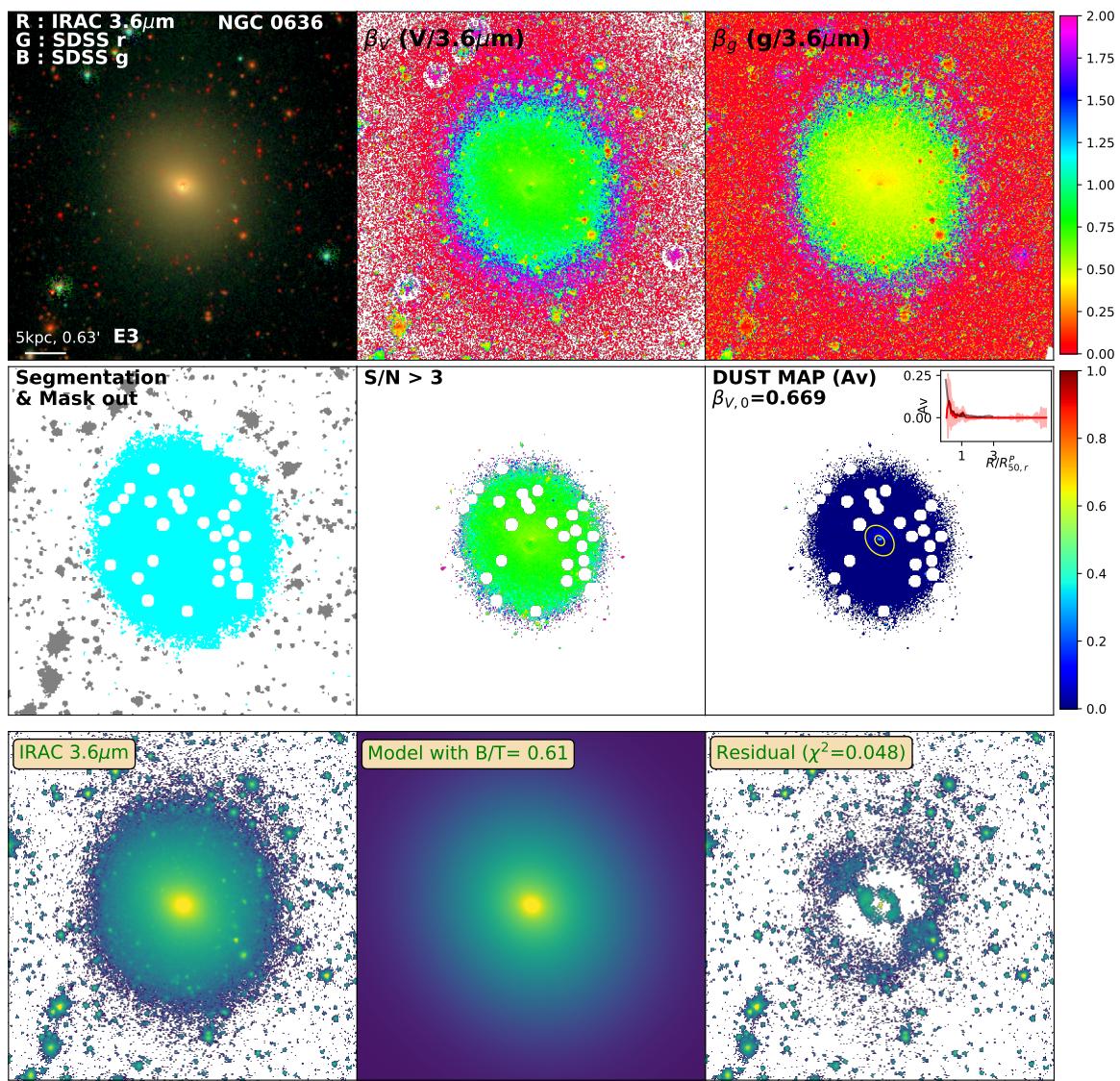


Figure D.17: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0636

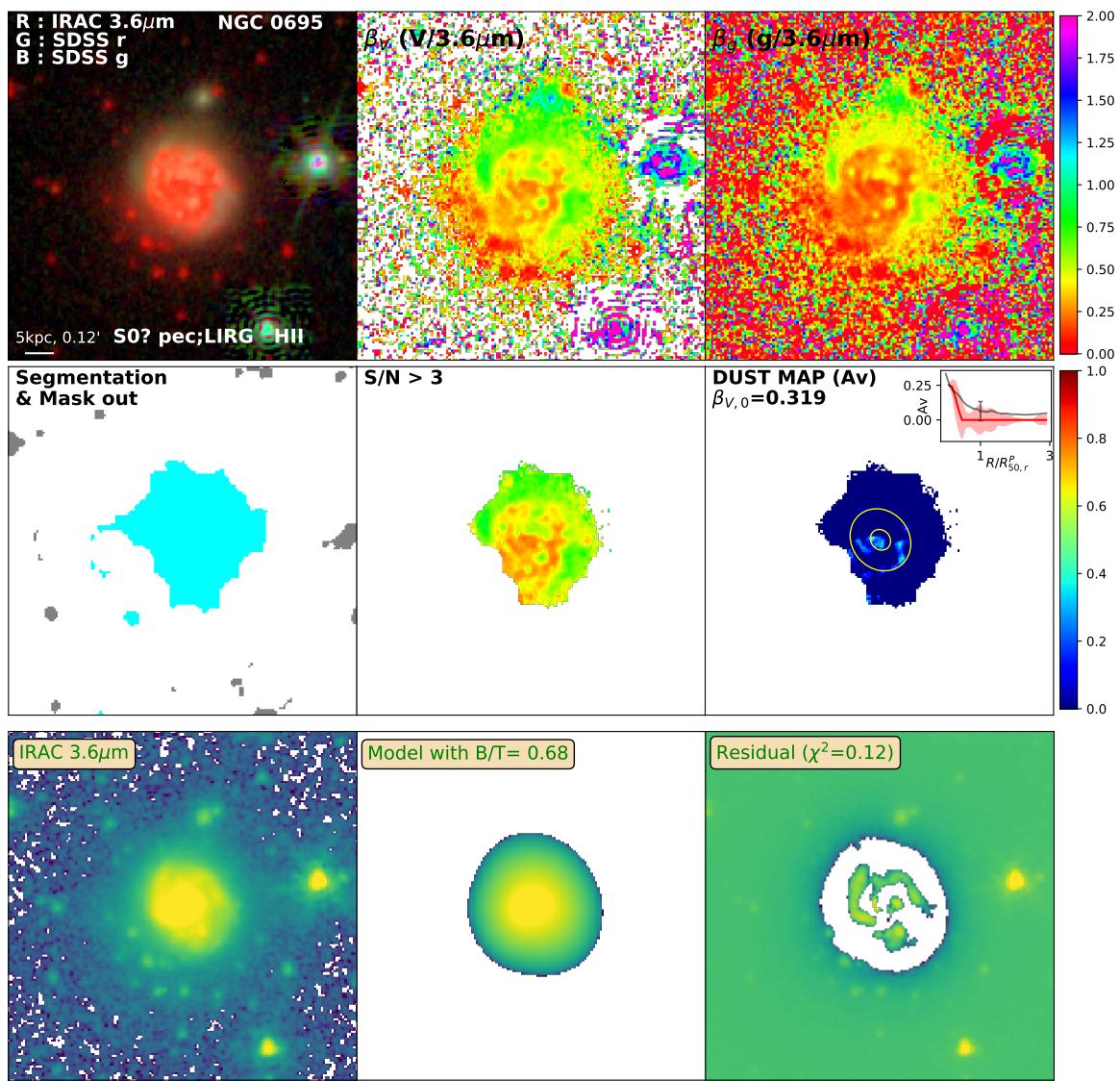


Figure D.18: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0695

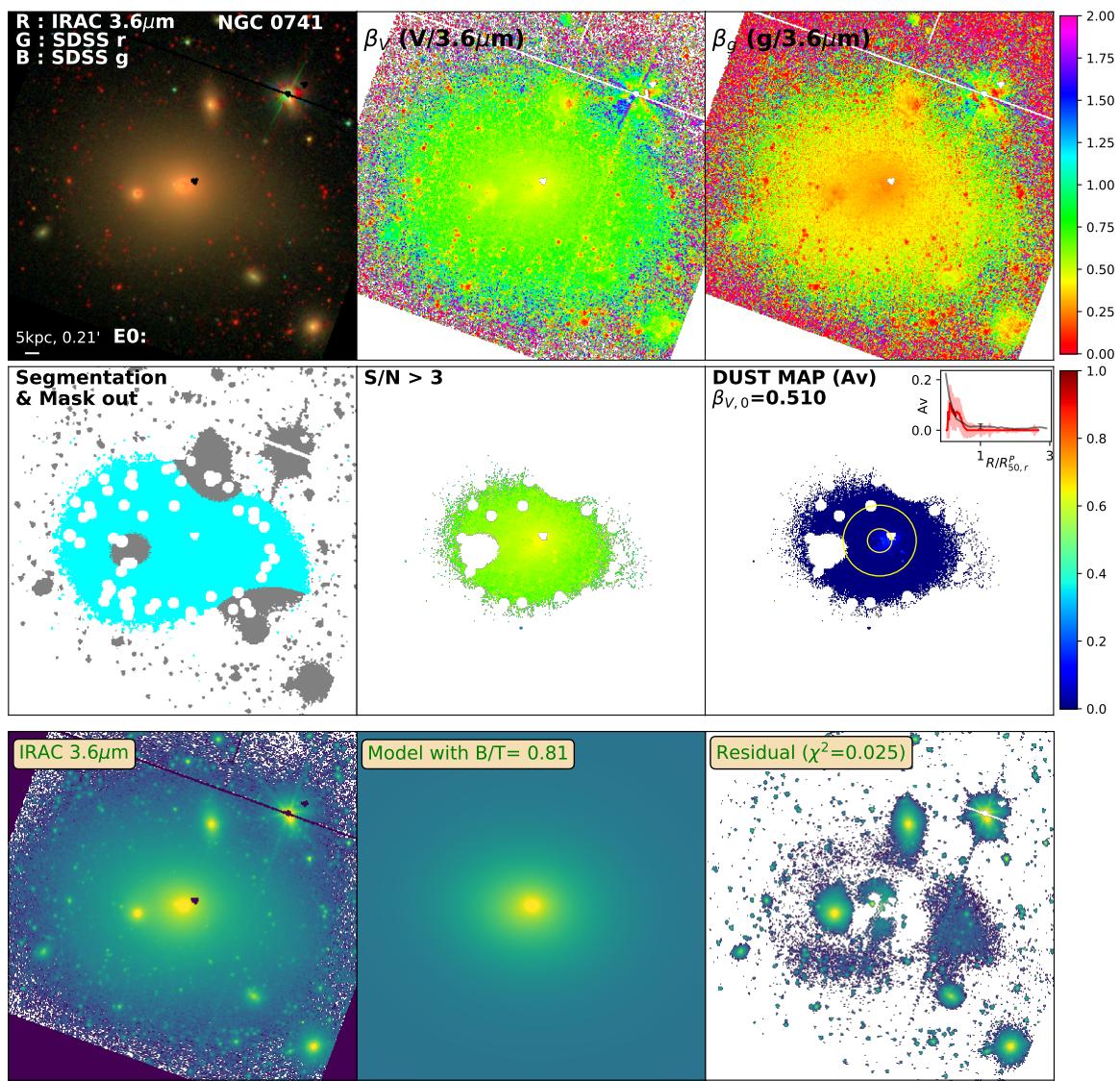


Figure D.19: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0741

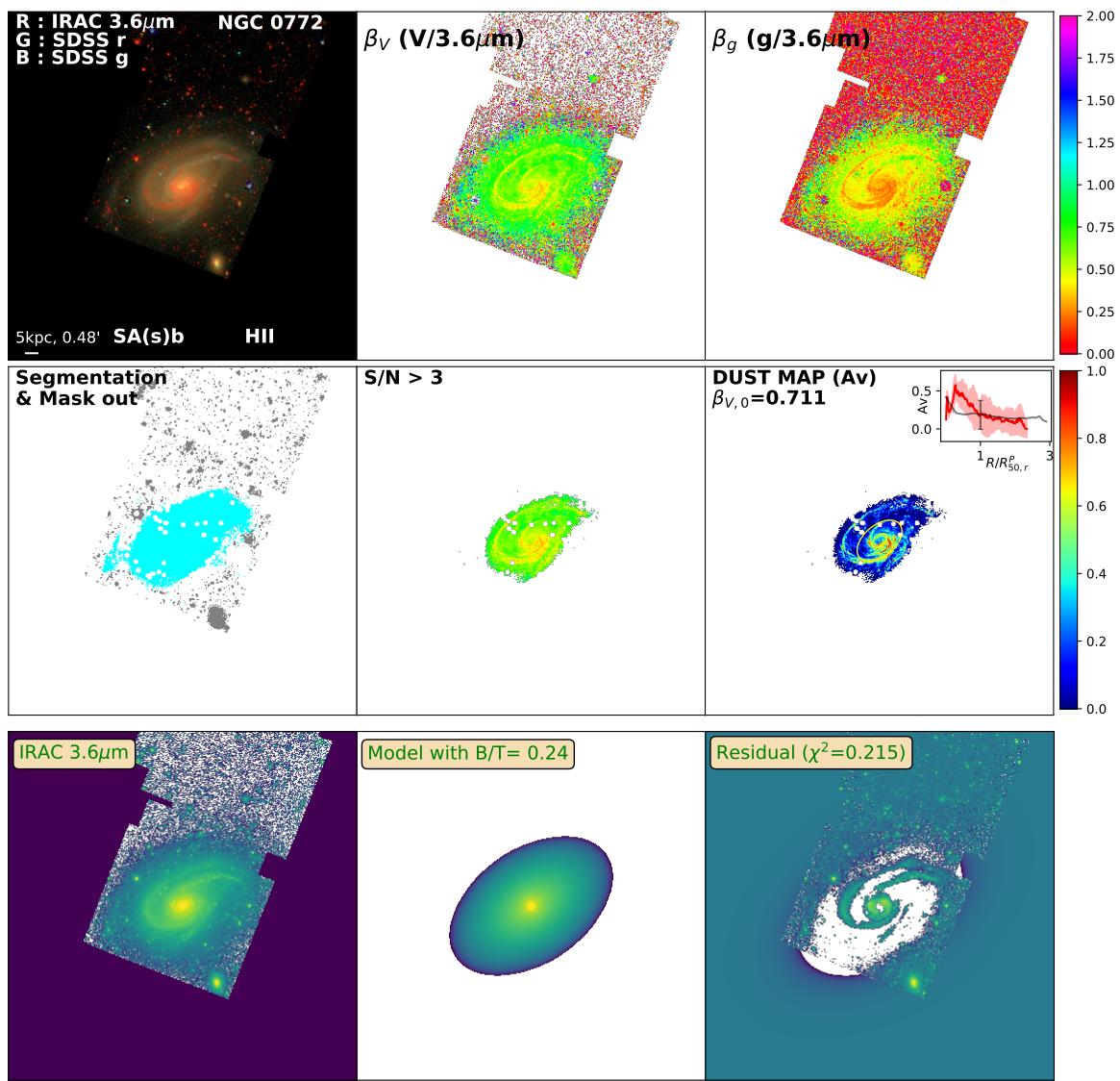


Figure D.20: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0772

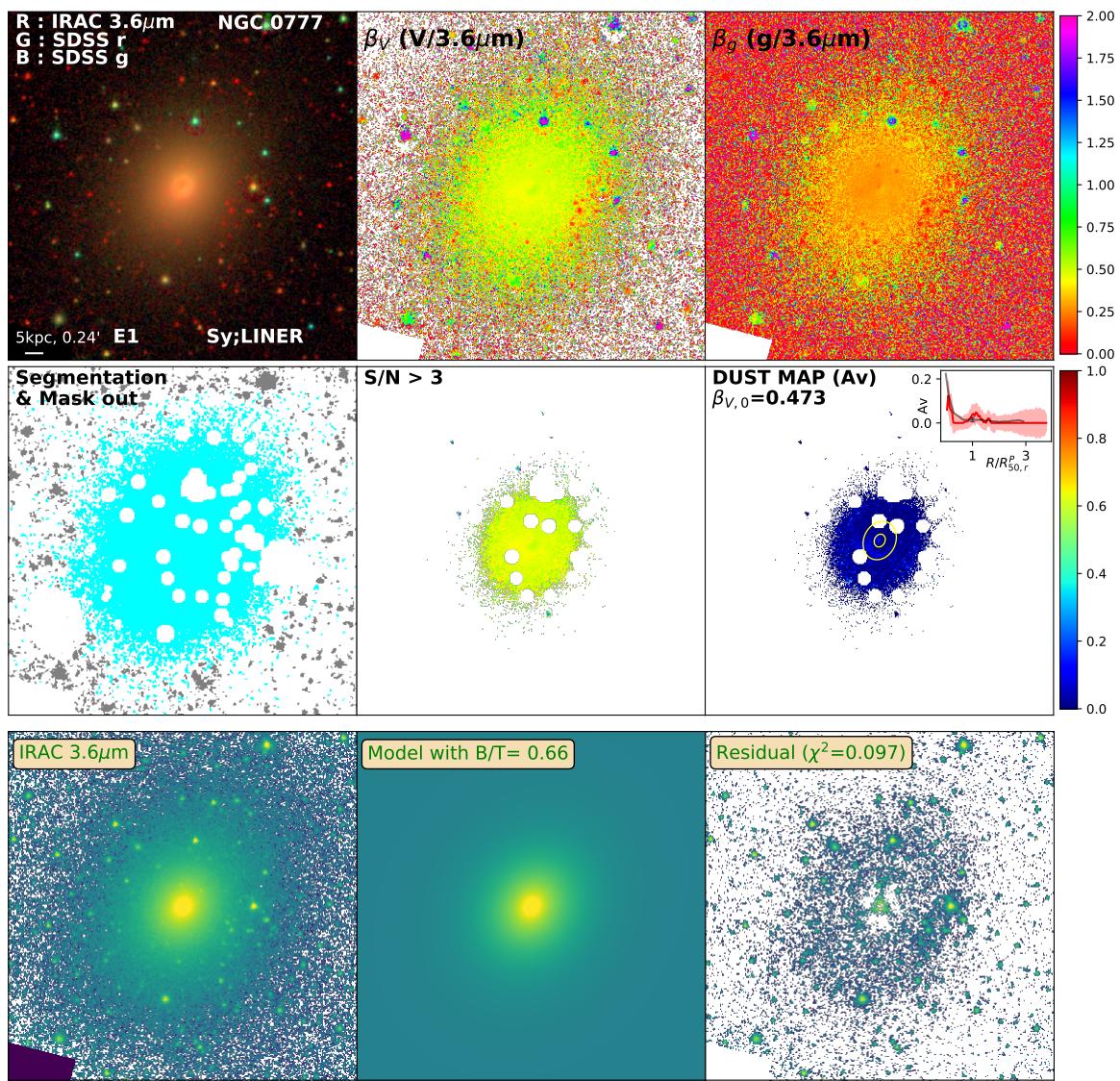


Figure D.21: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0777

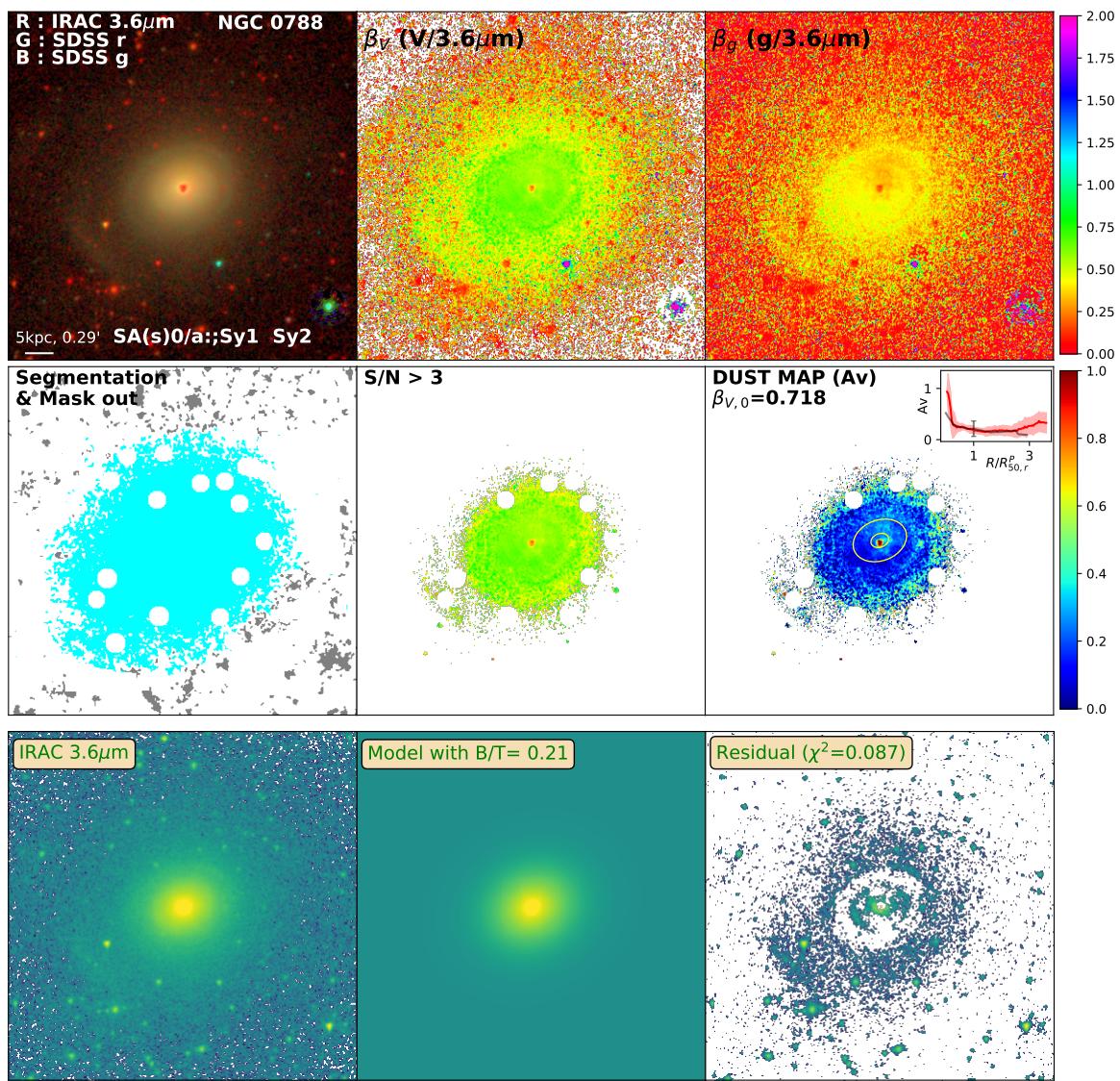


Figure D.22: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0788

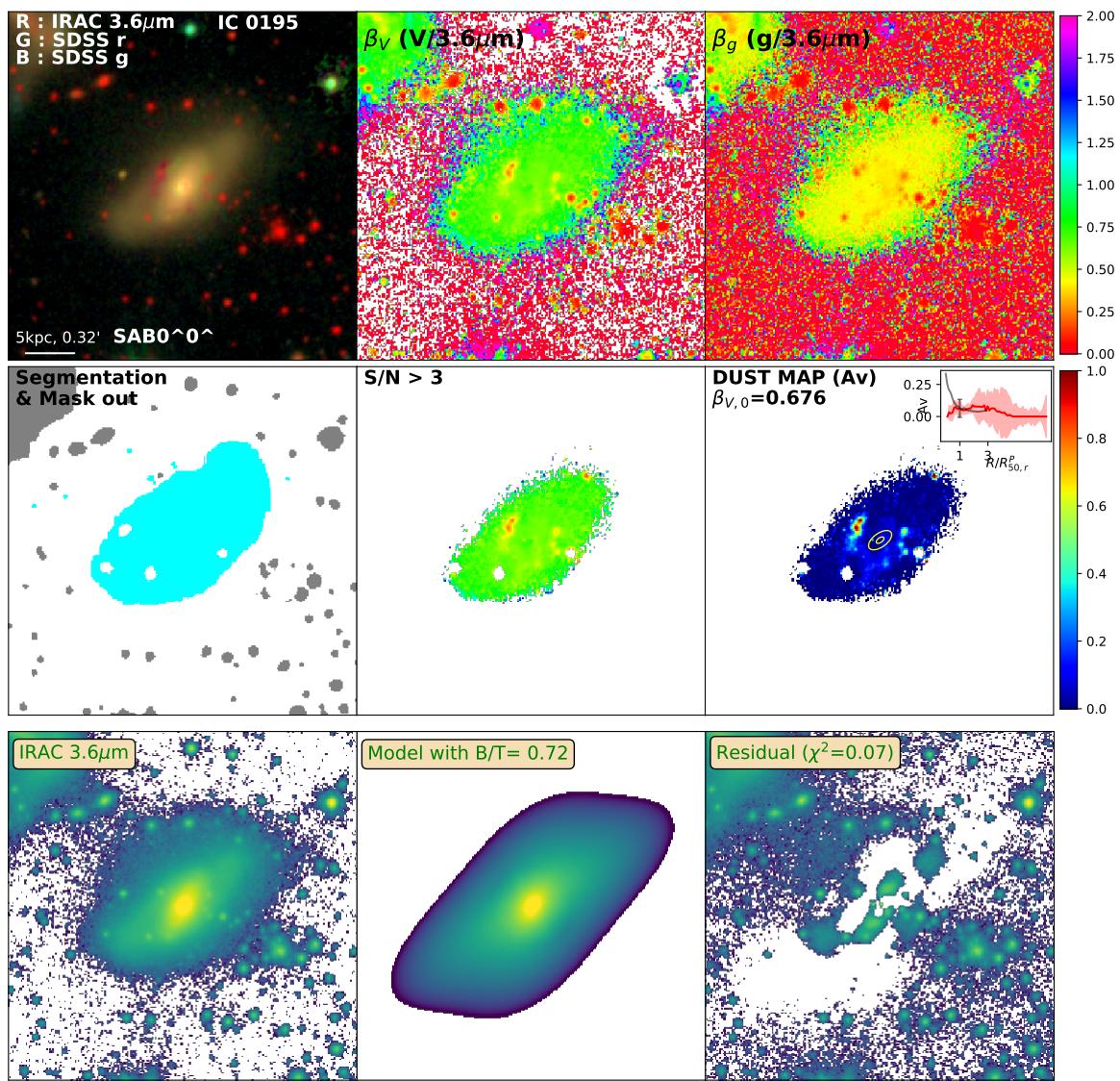


Figure D.23: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0195

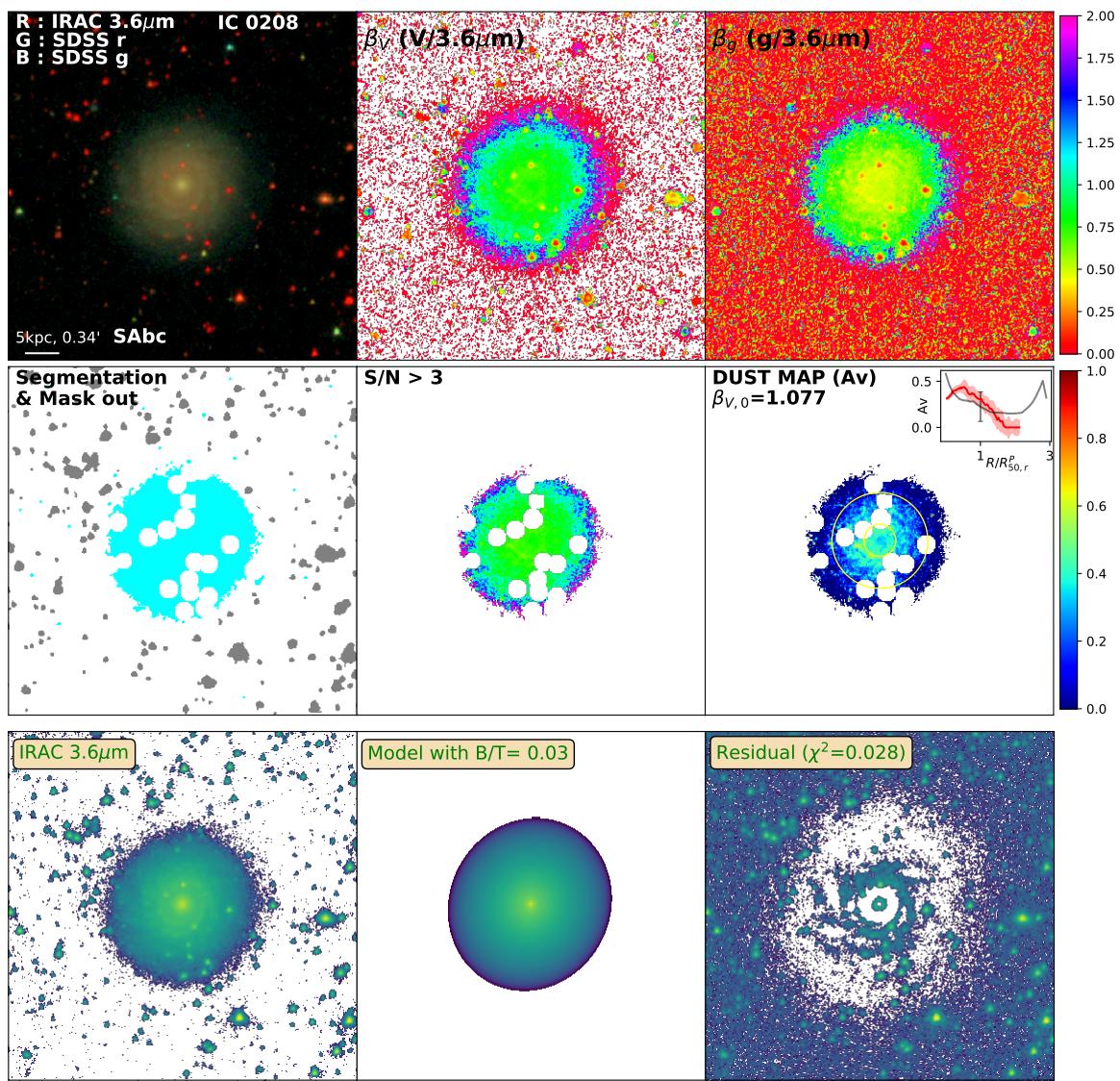


Figure D.24: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0208

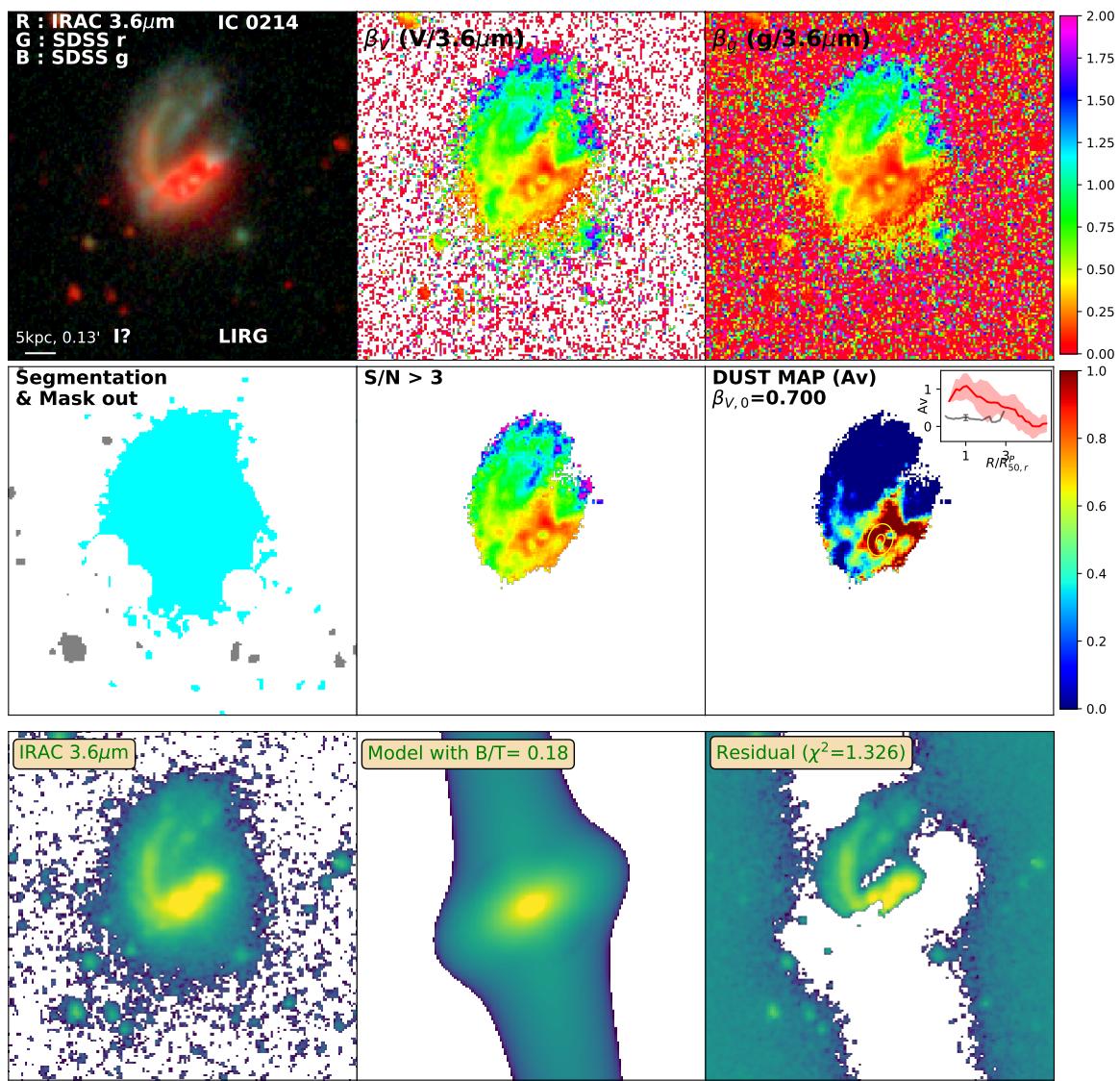


Figure D.25: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0214

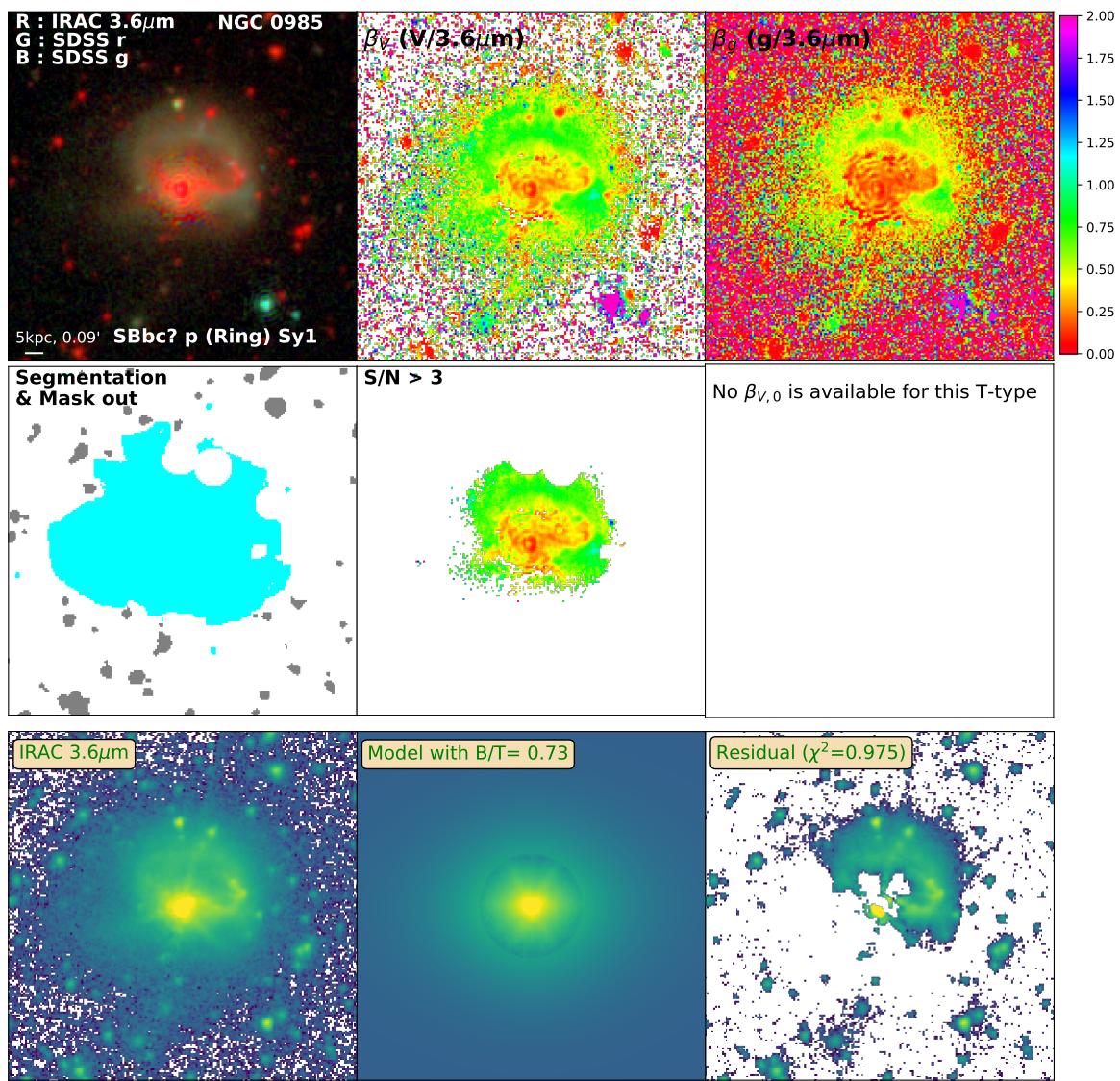


Figure D.26: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0985

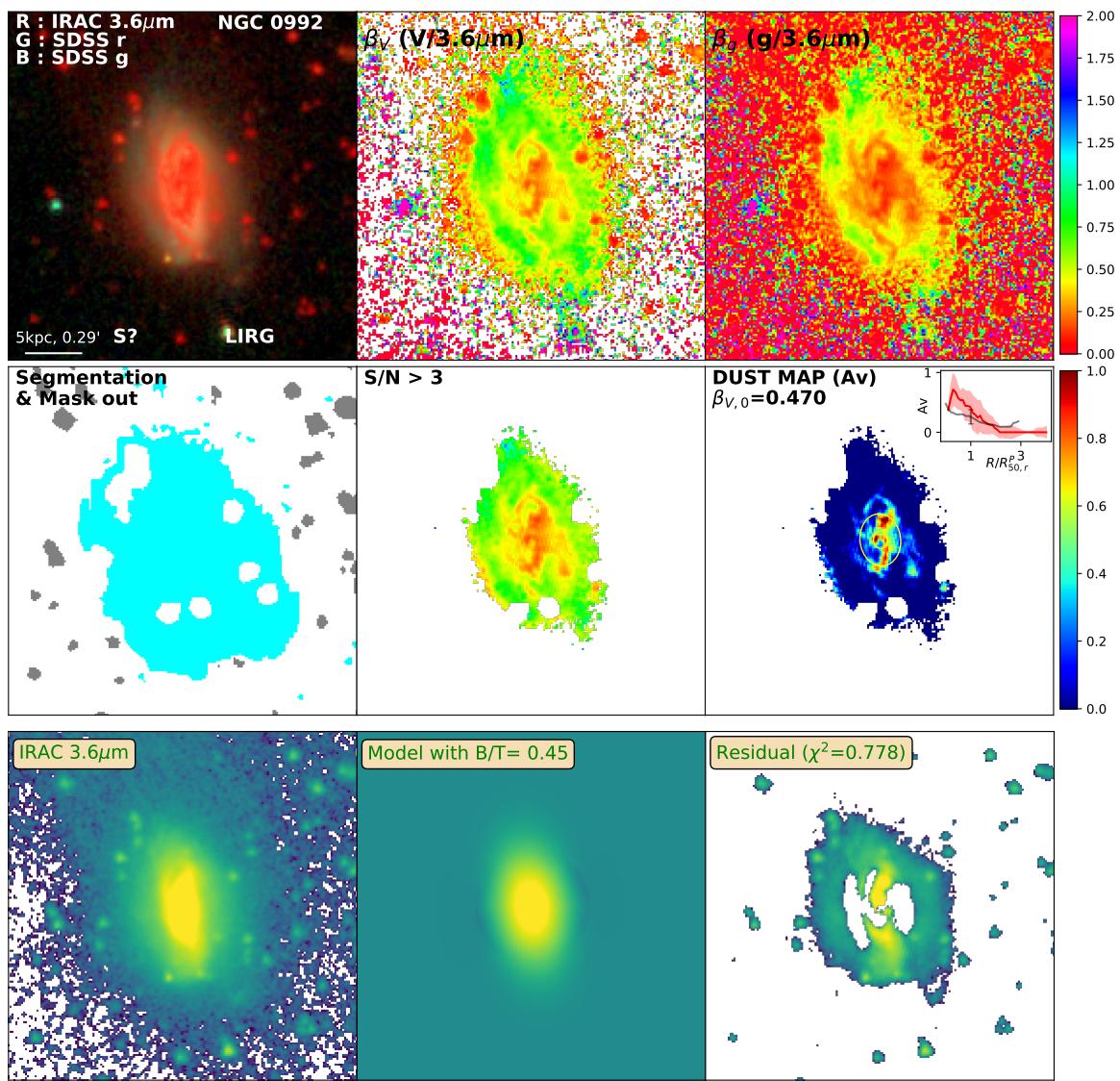


Figure D.27: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC0992

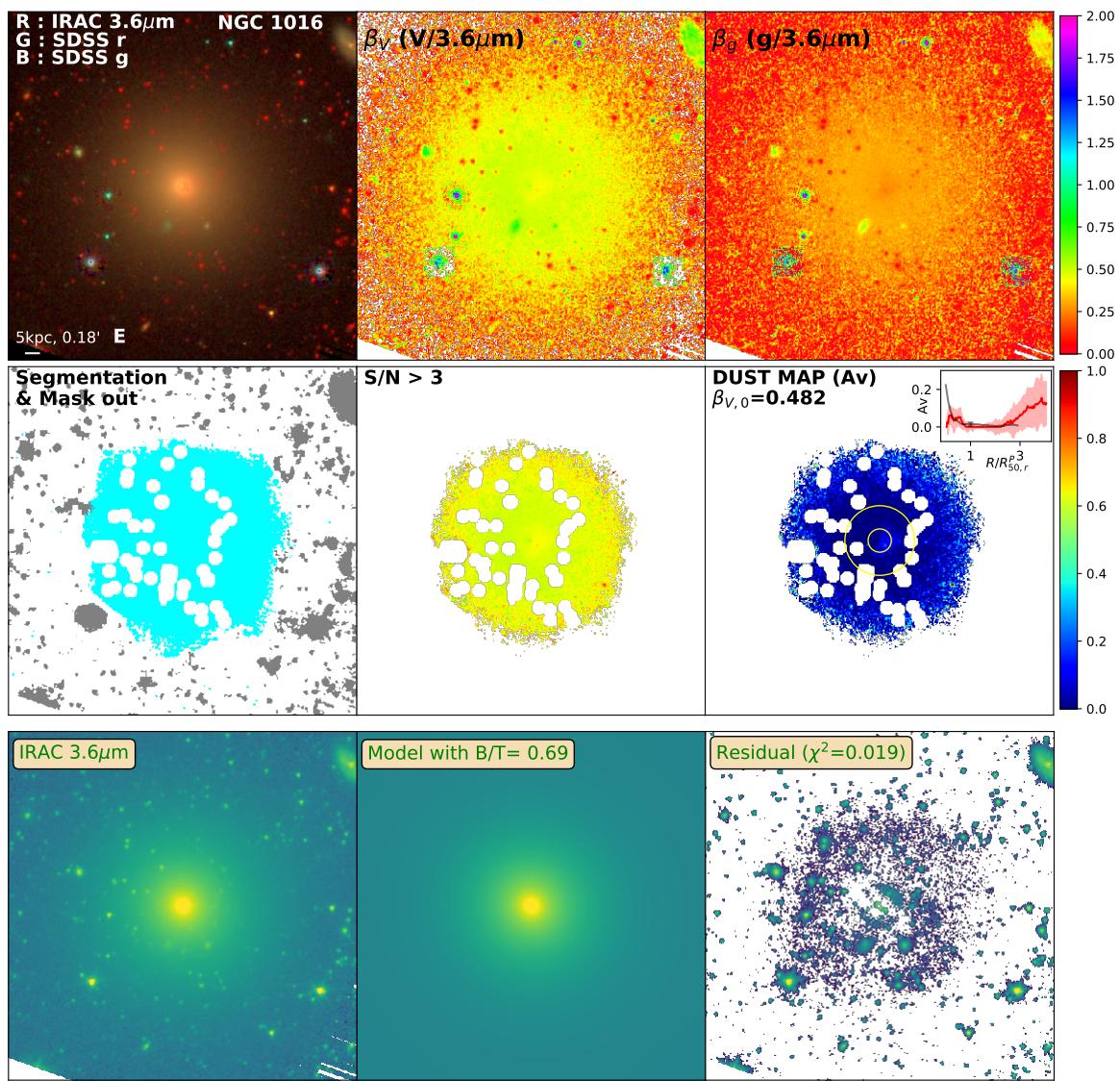


Figure D.28: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC1016

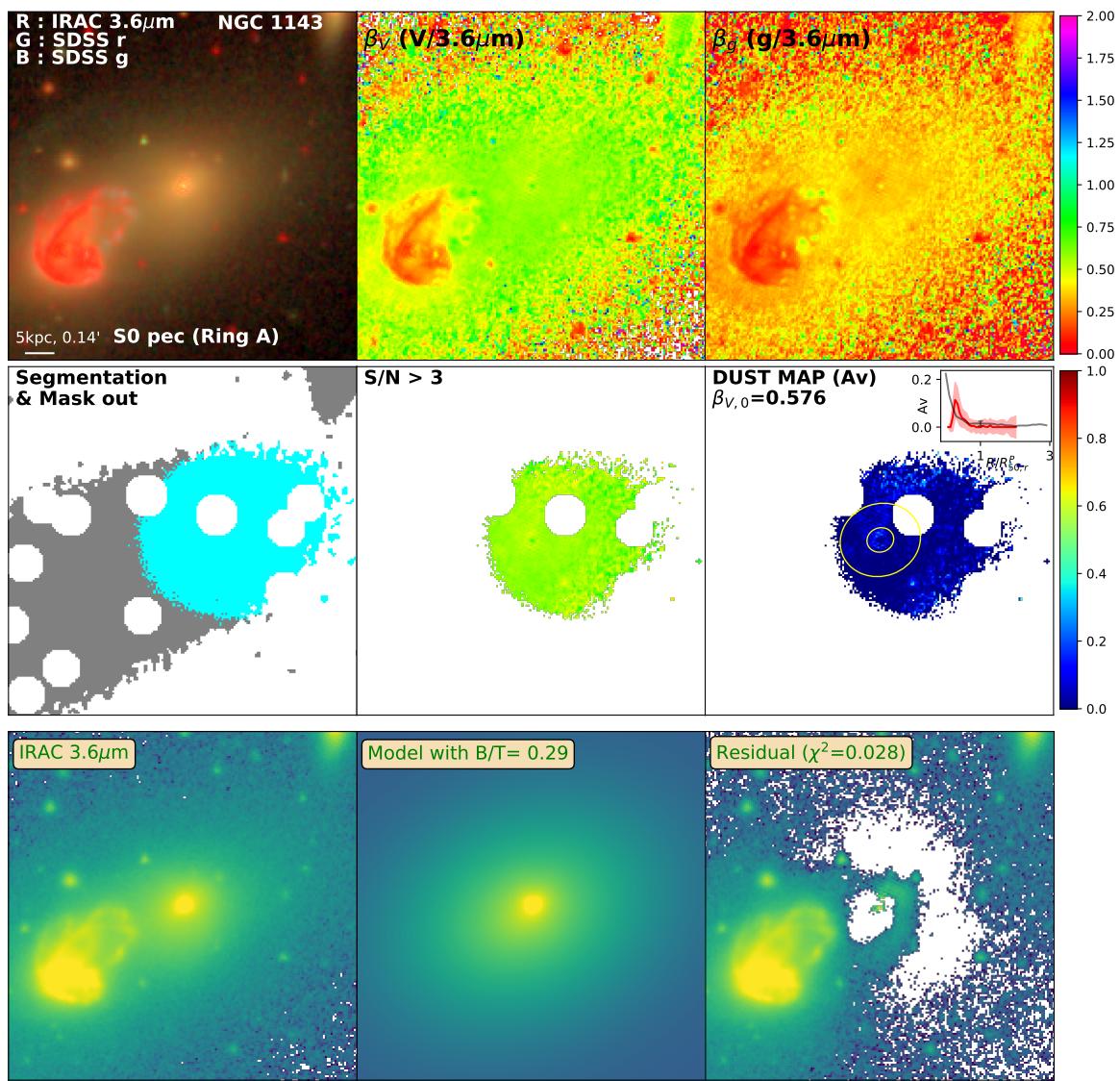


Figure D.29: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC1143

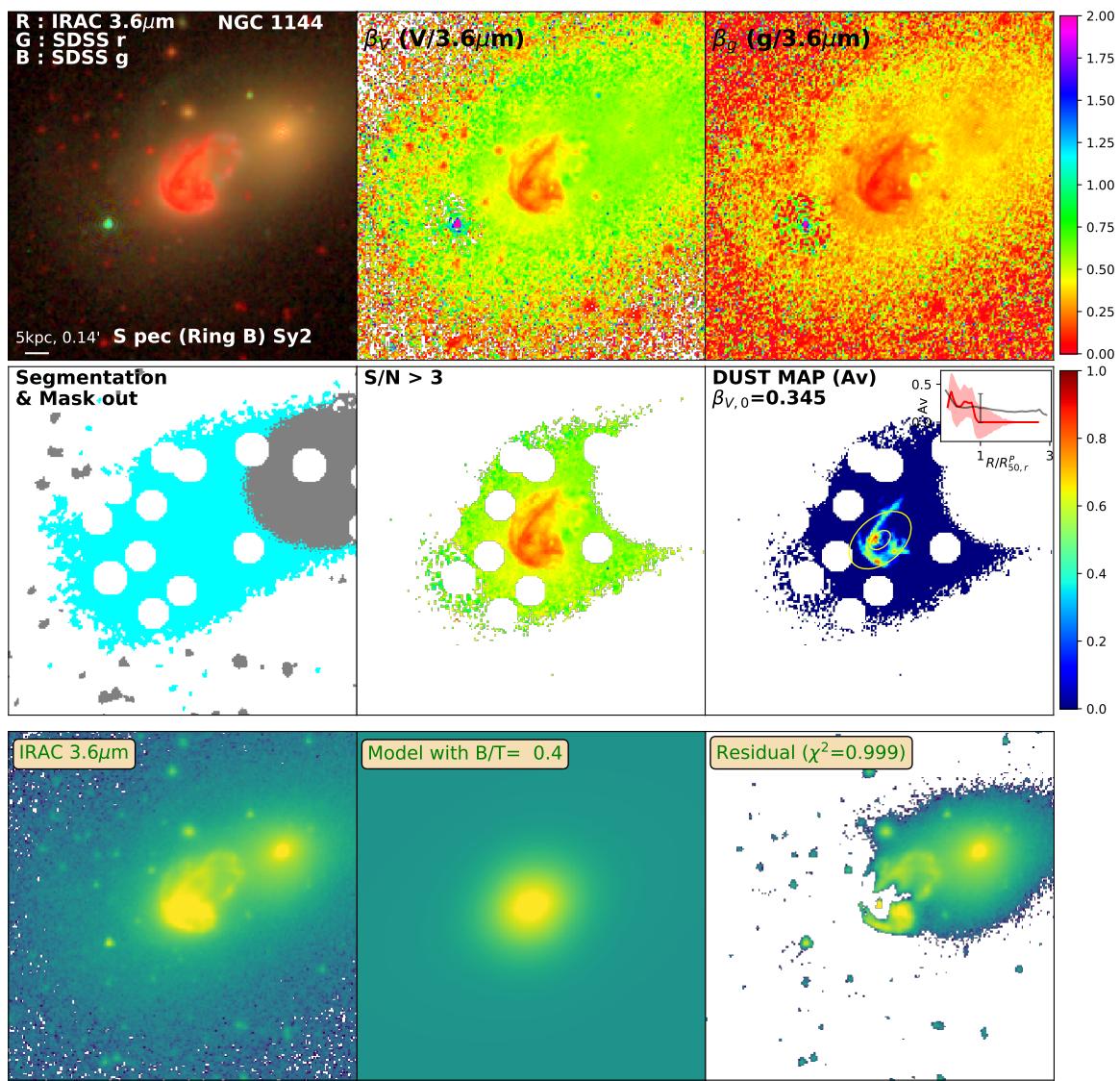


Figure D.30: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC1144

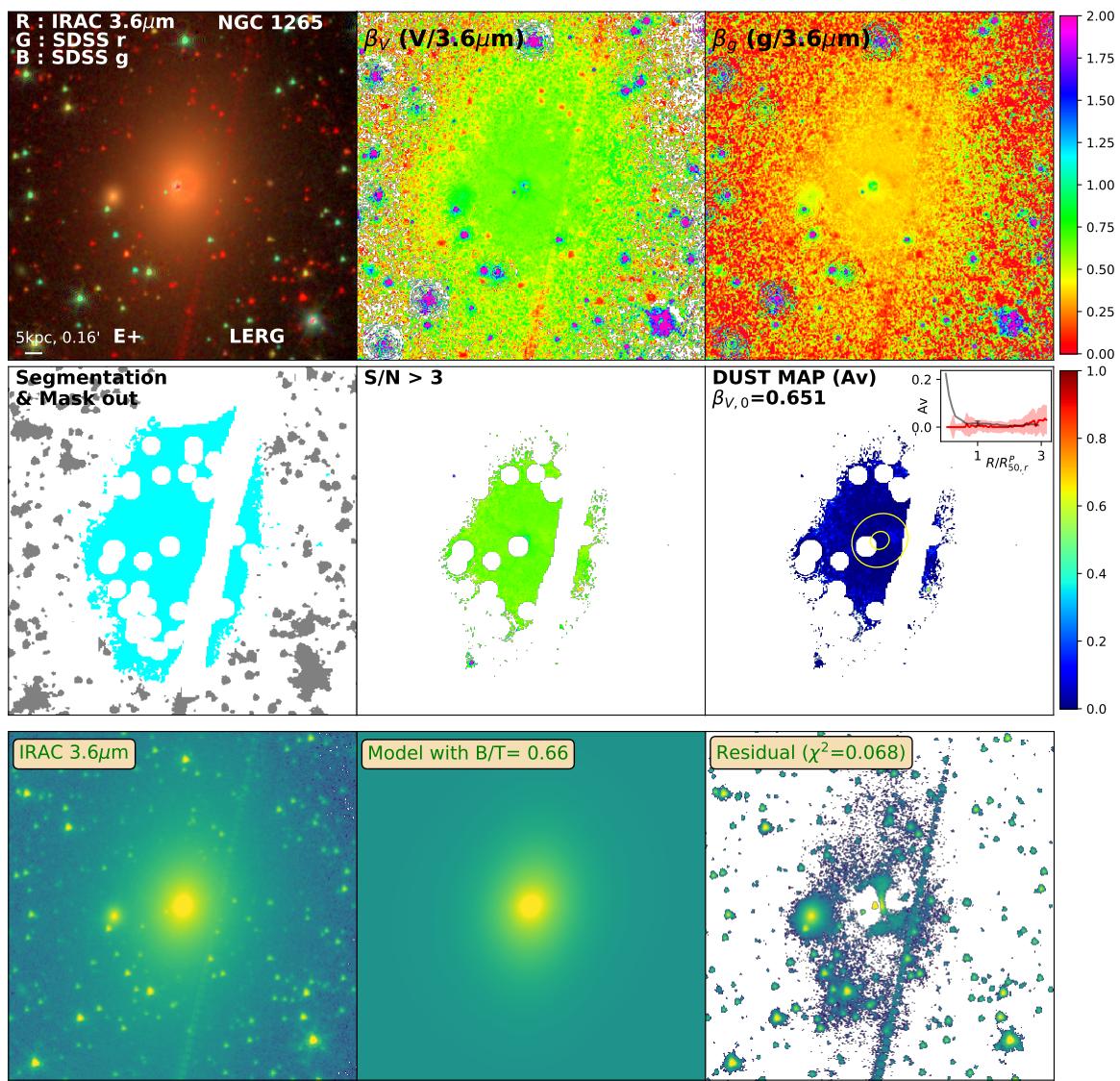


Figure D.31: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC1265

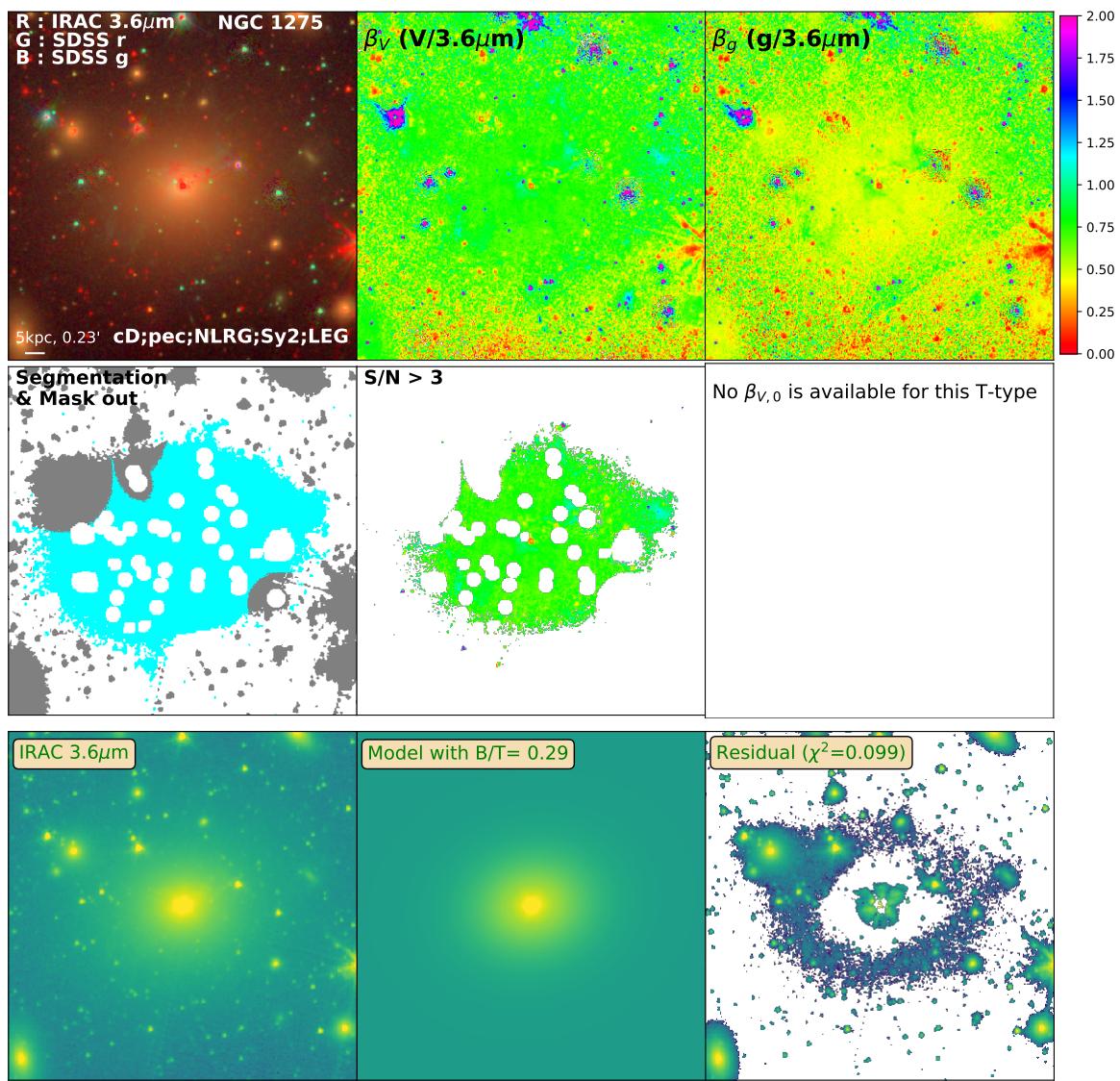


Figure D.32: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC1275

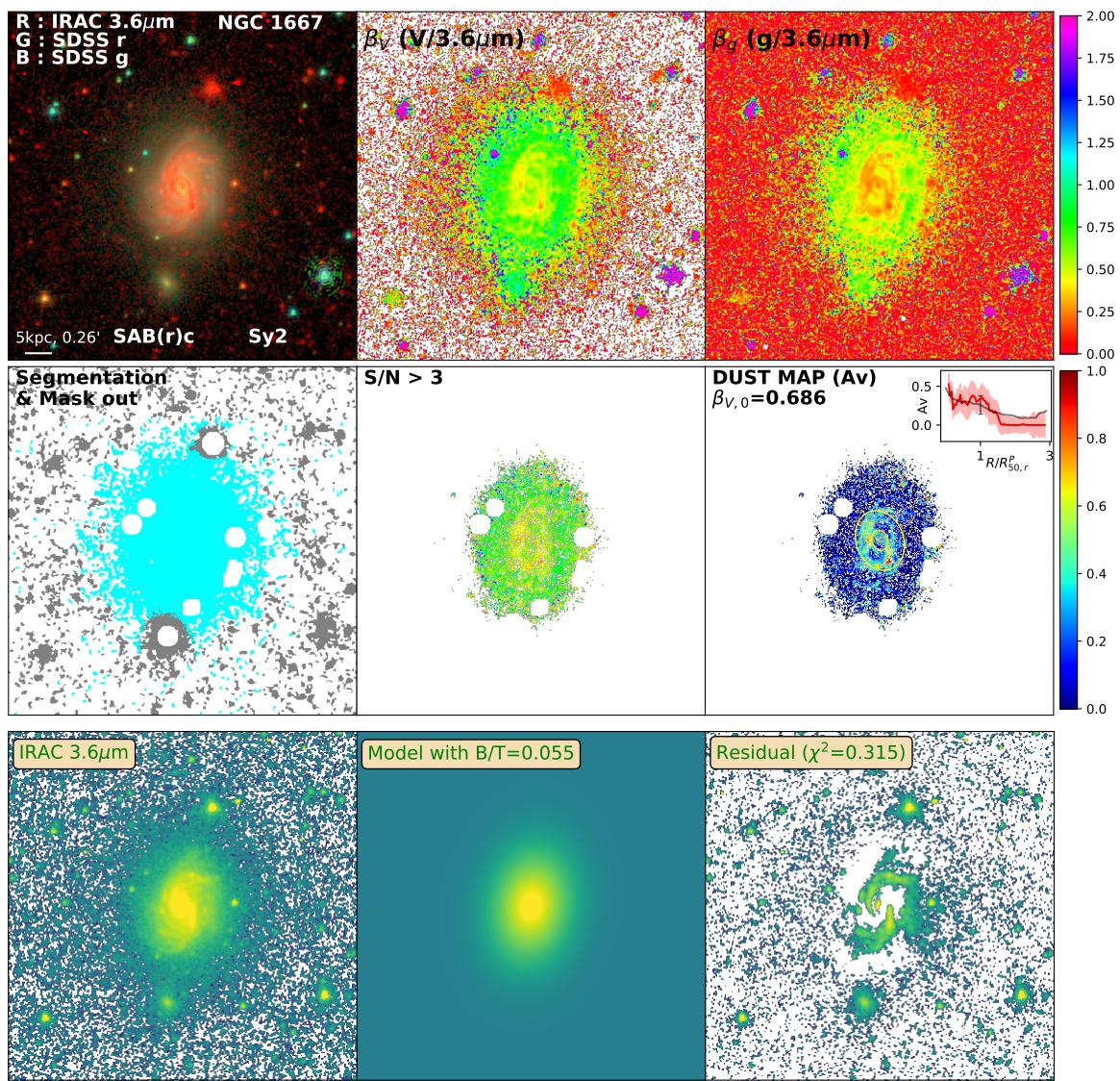


Figure D.33: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC1667

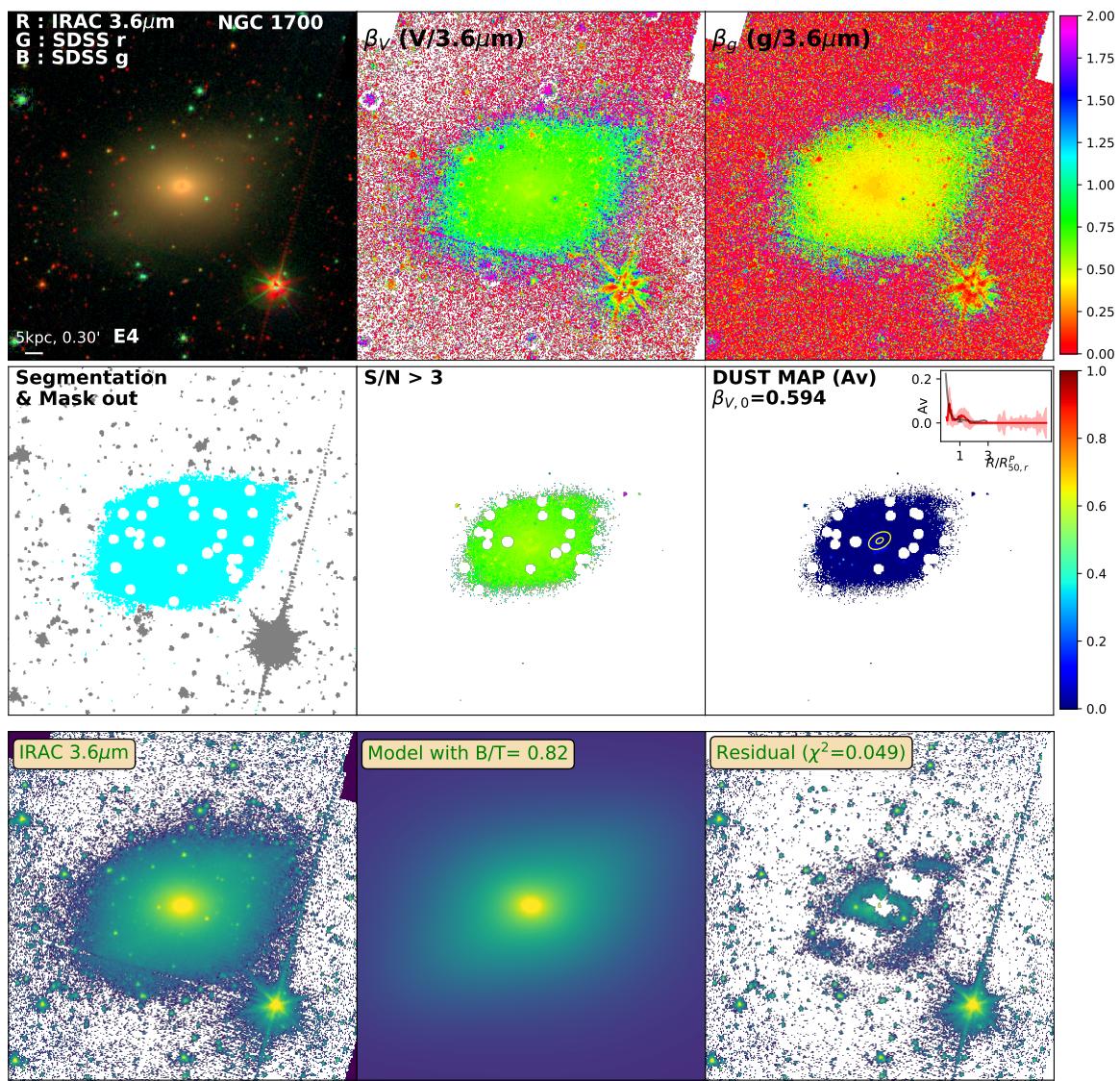


Figure D.34: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC1700

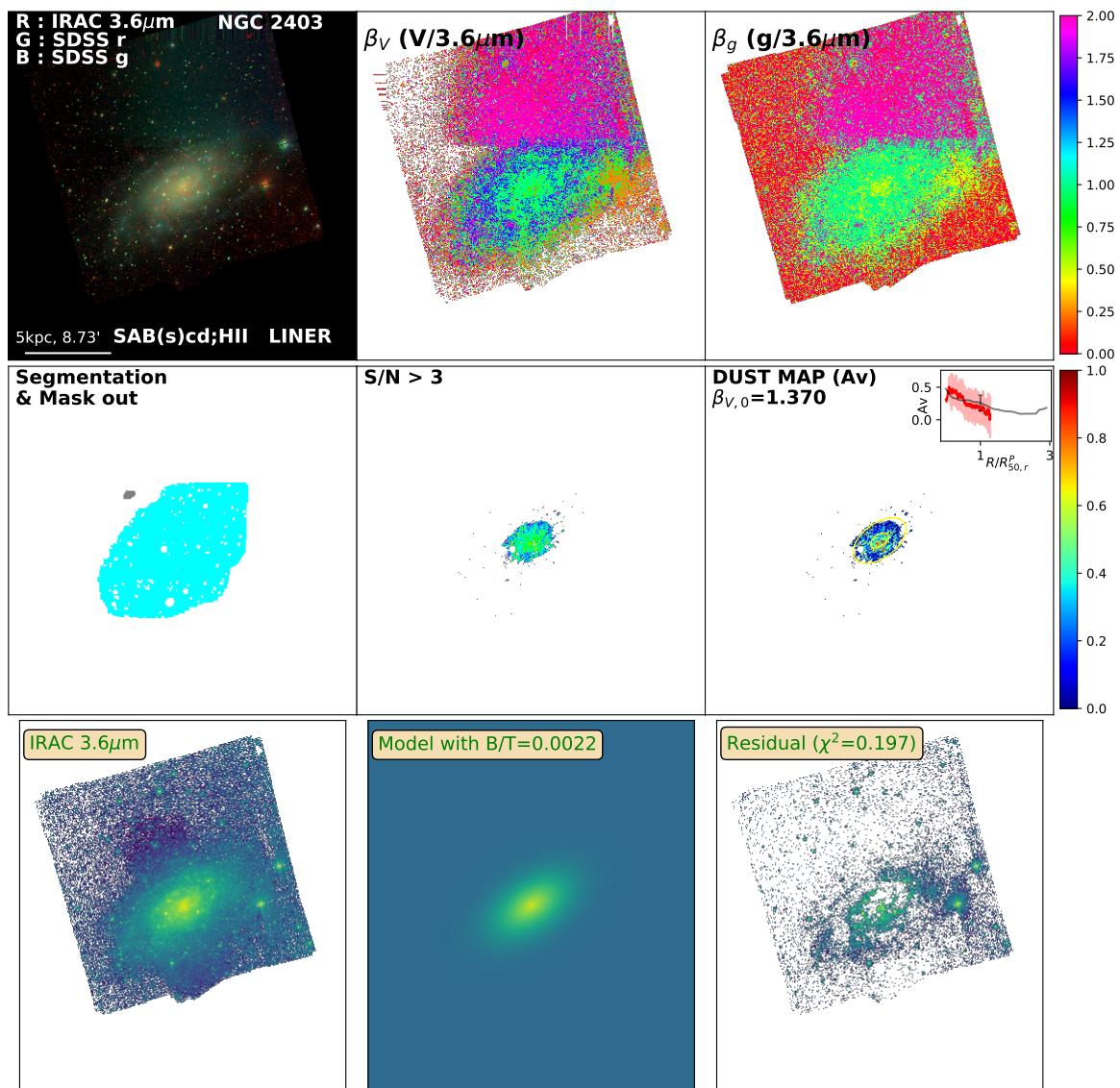


Figure D.35: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2403

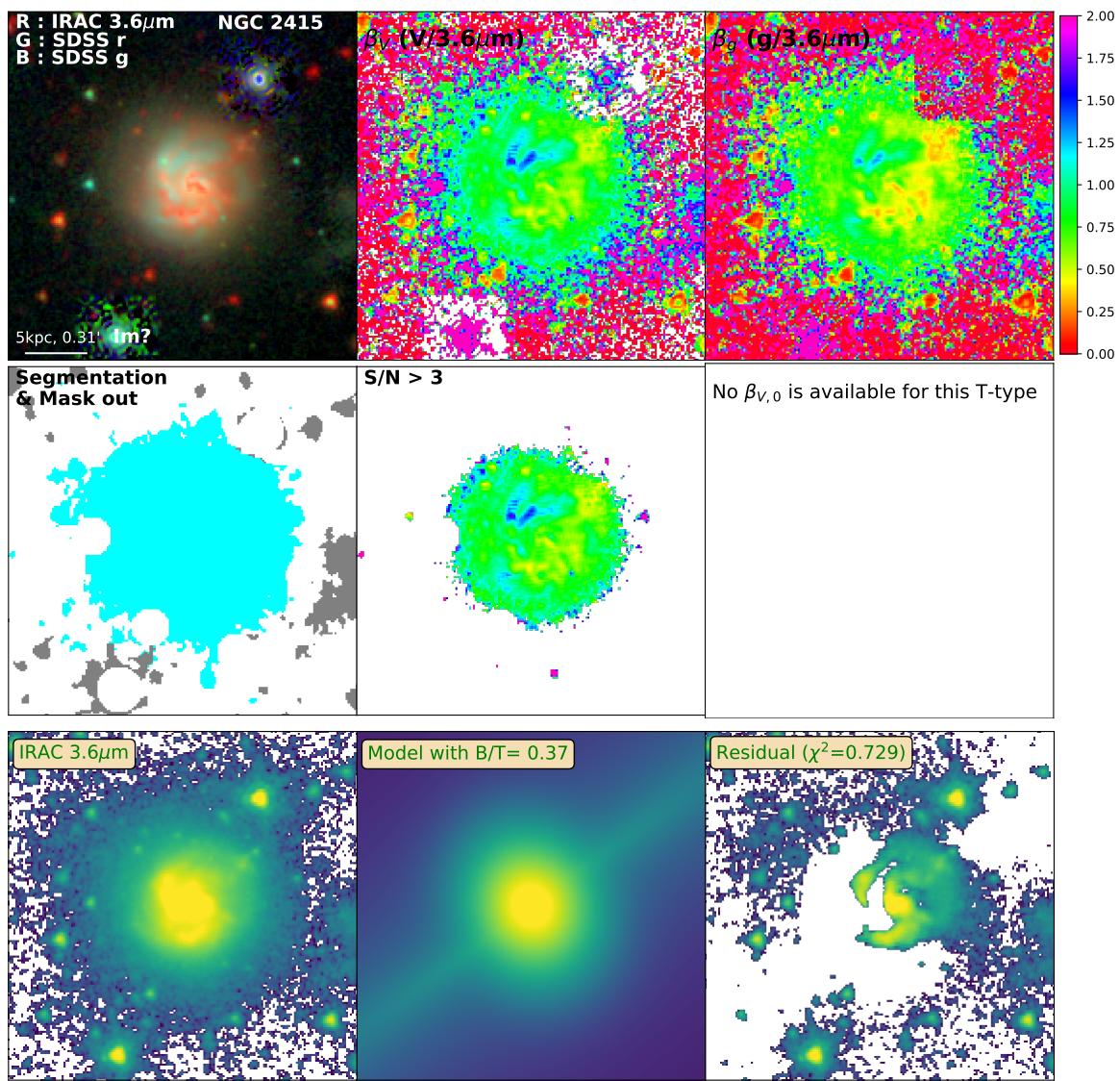


Figure D.36: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2415

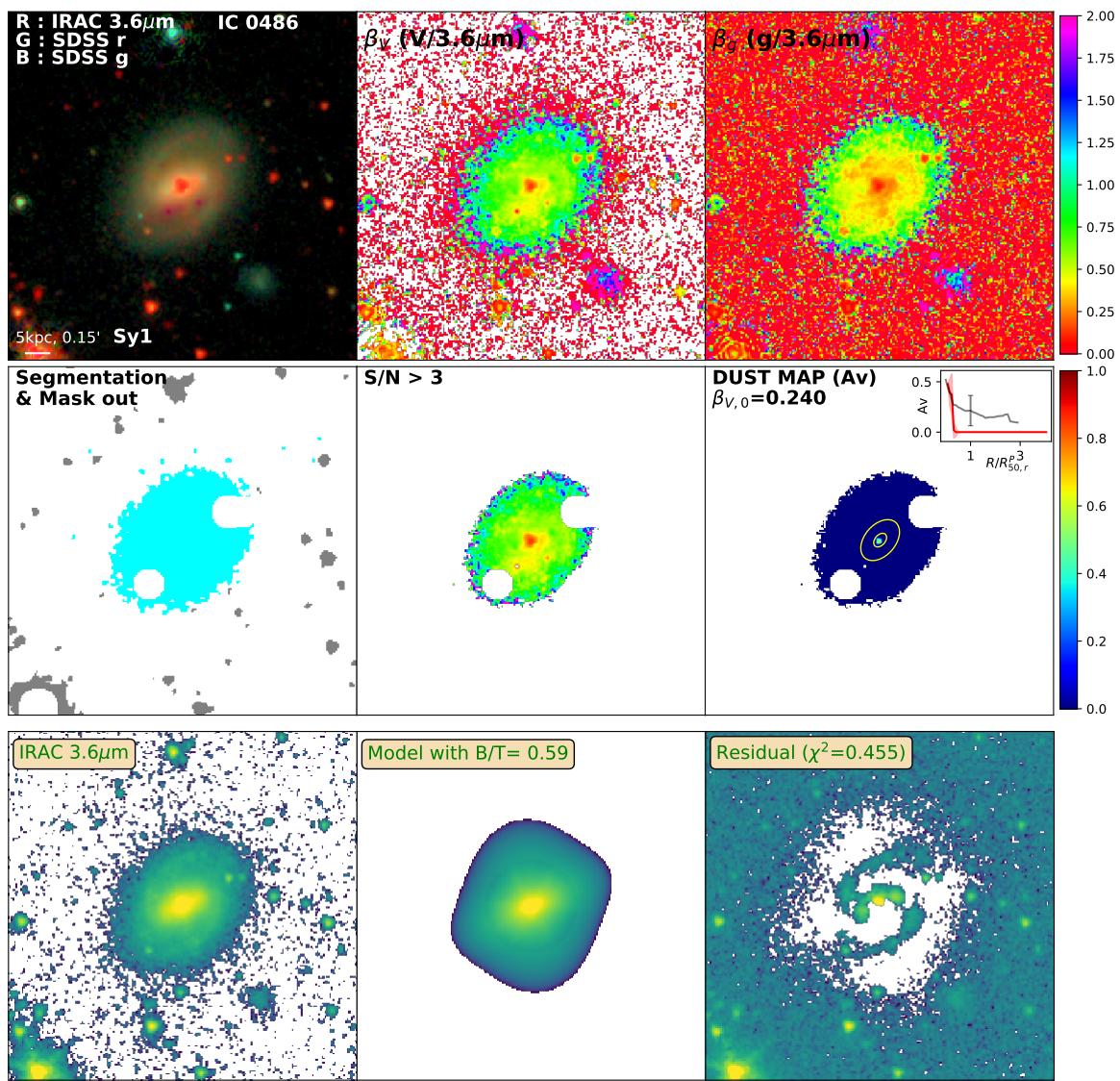


Figure D.37: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0486

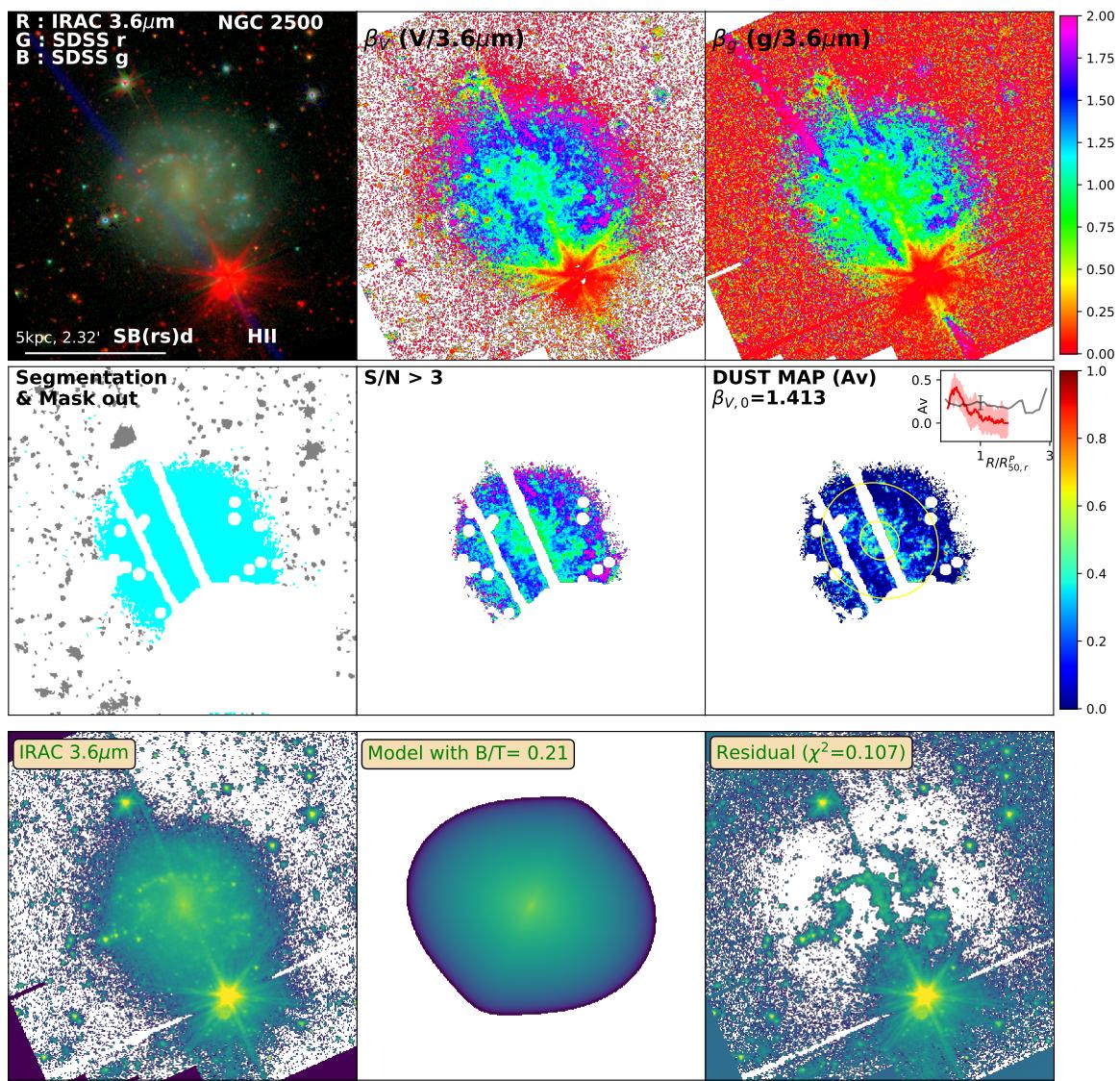


Figure D.38: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2500

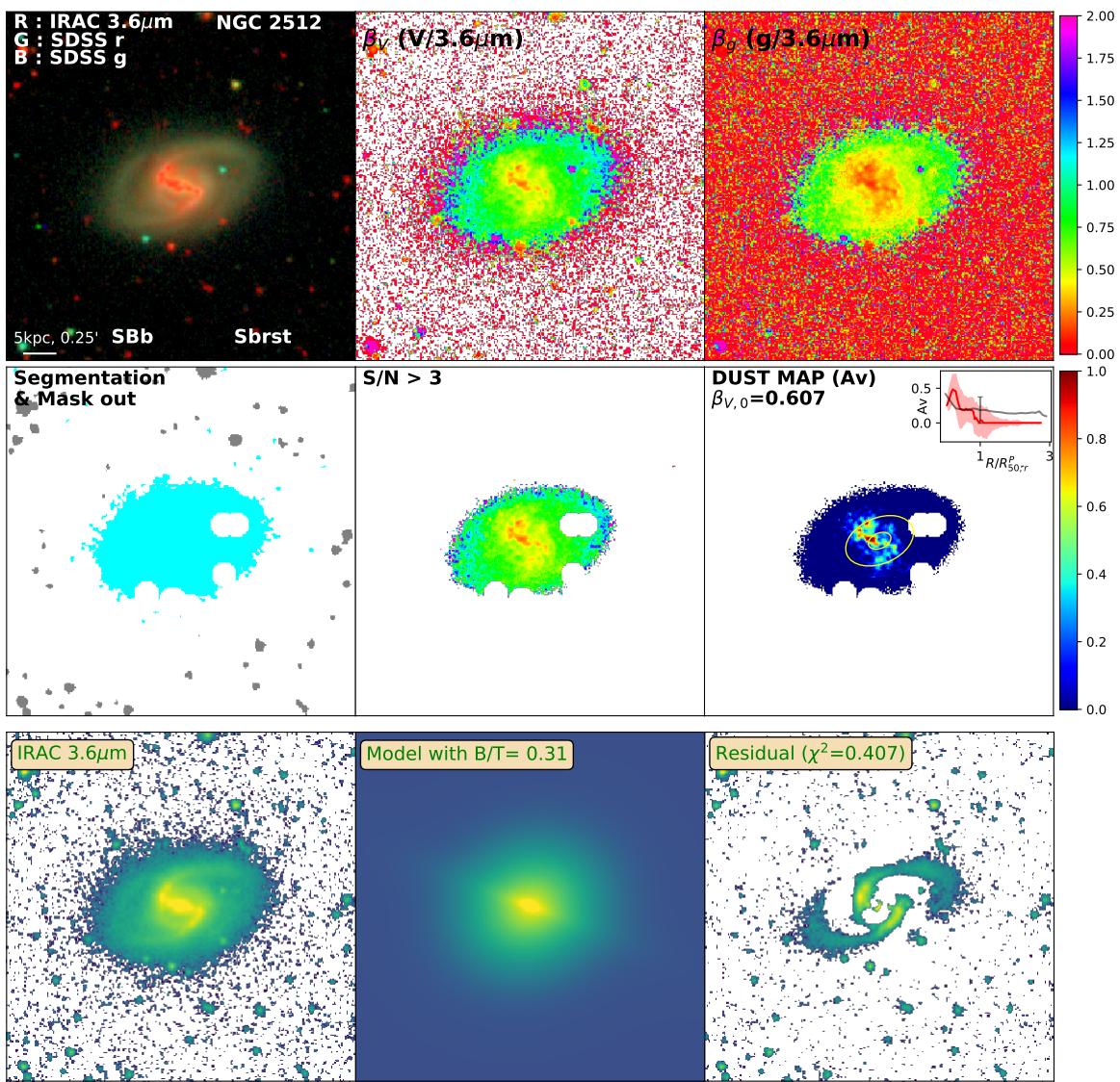


Figure D.39: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2512

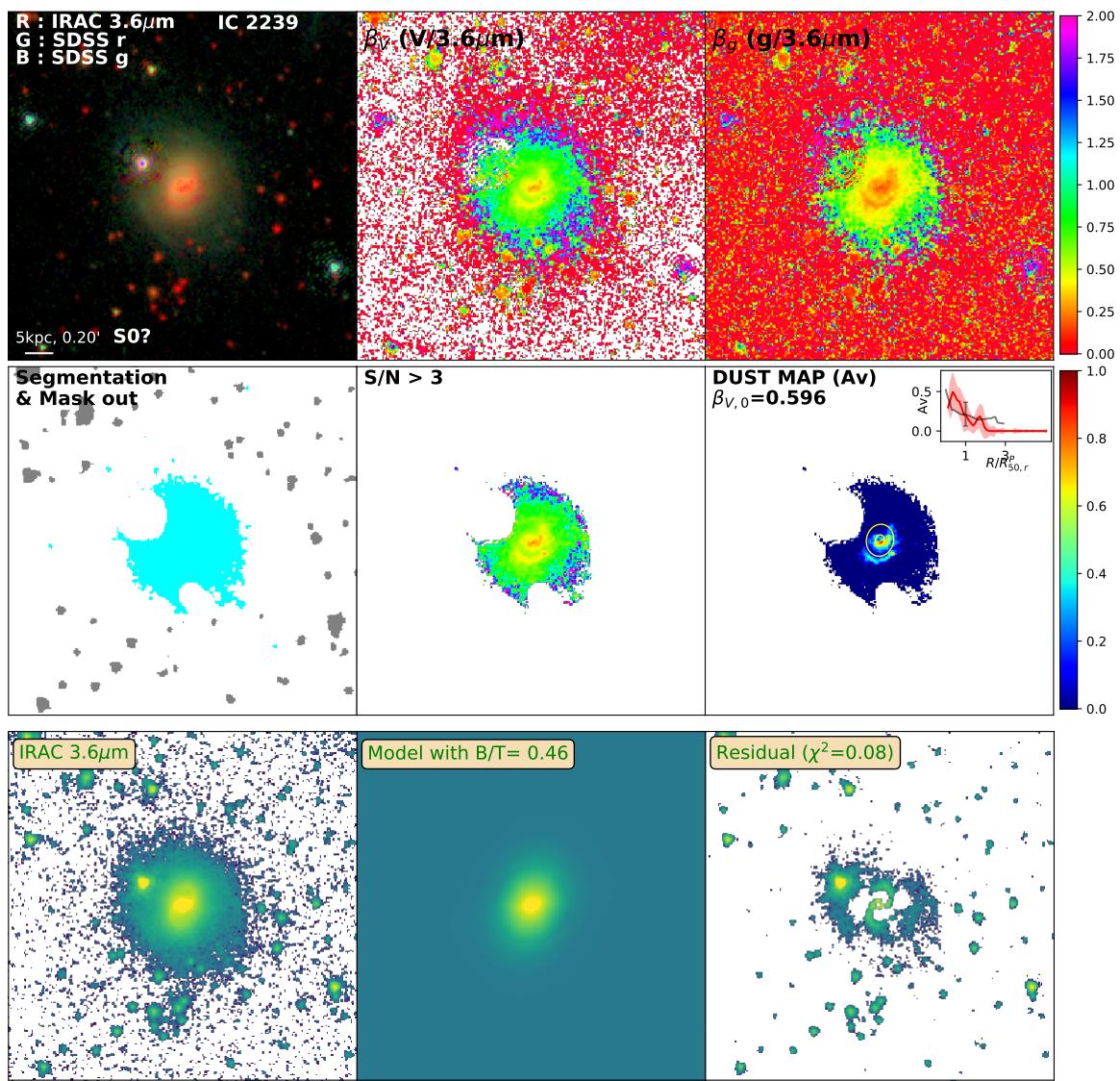


Figure D.40: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC2239

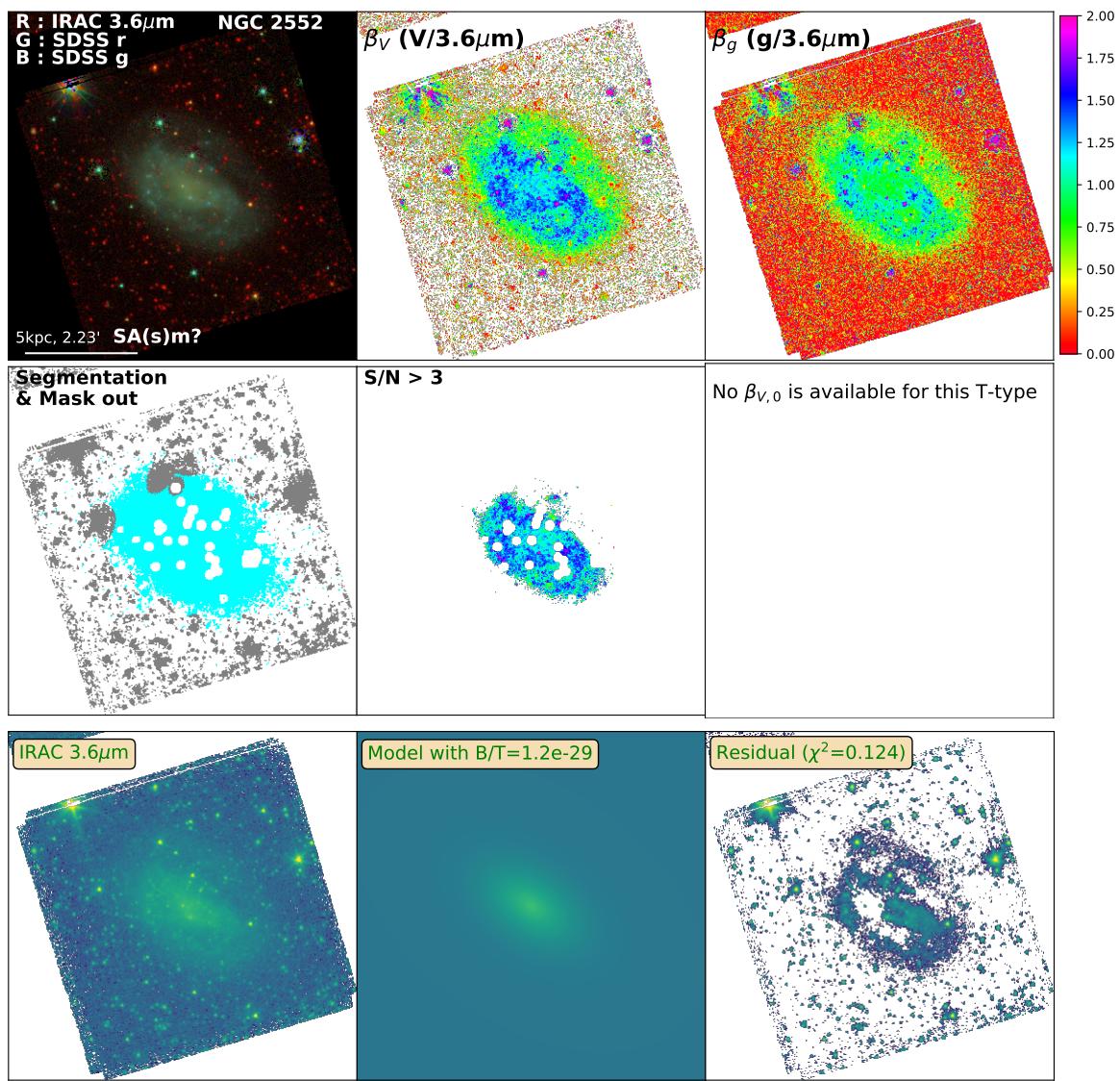


Figure D.41: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2552

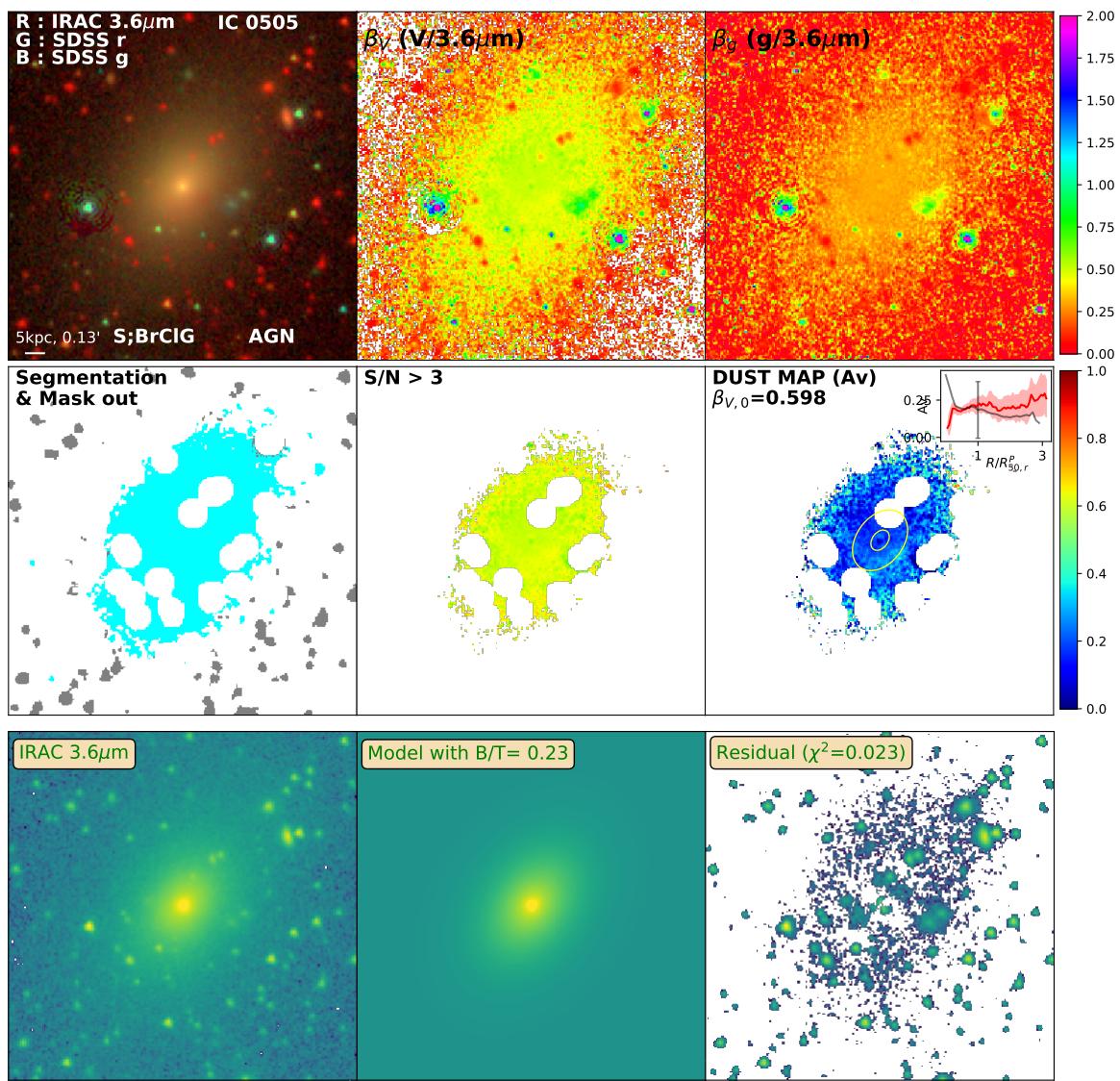


Figure D.42: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0505

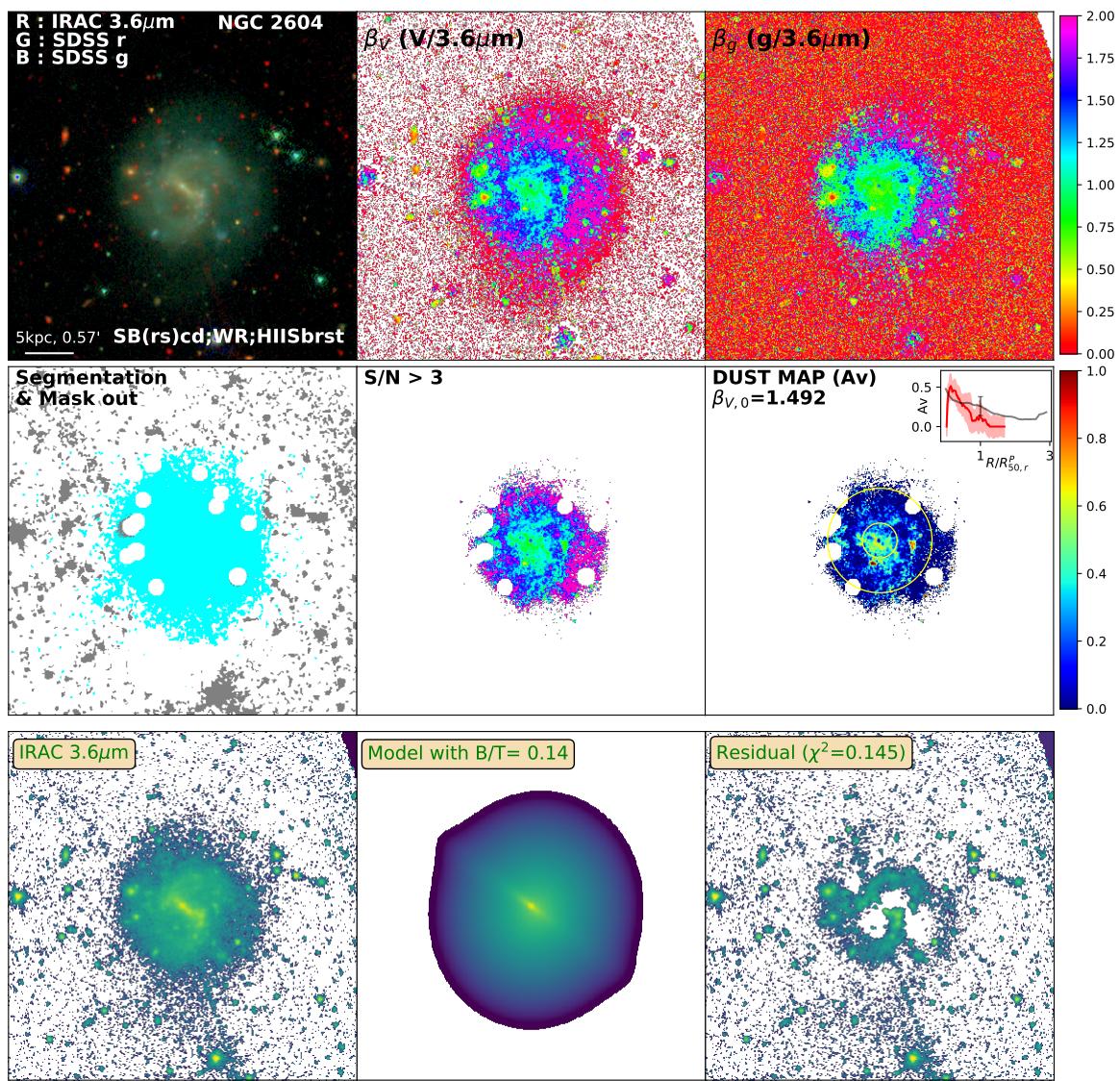


Figure D.43: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2604

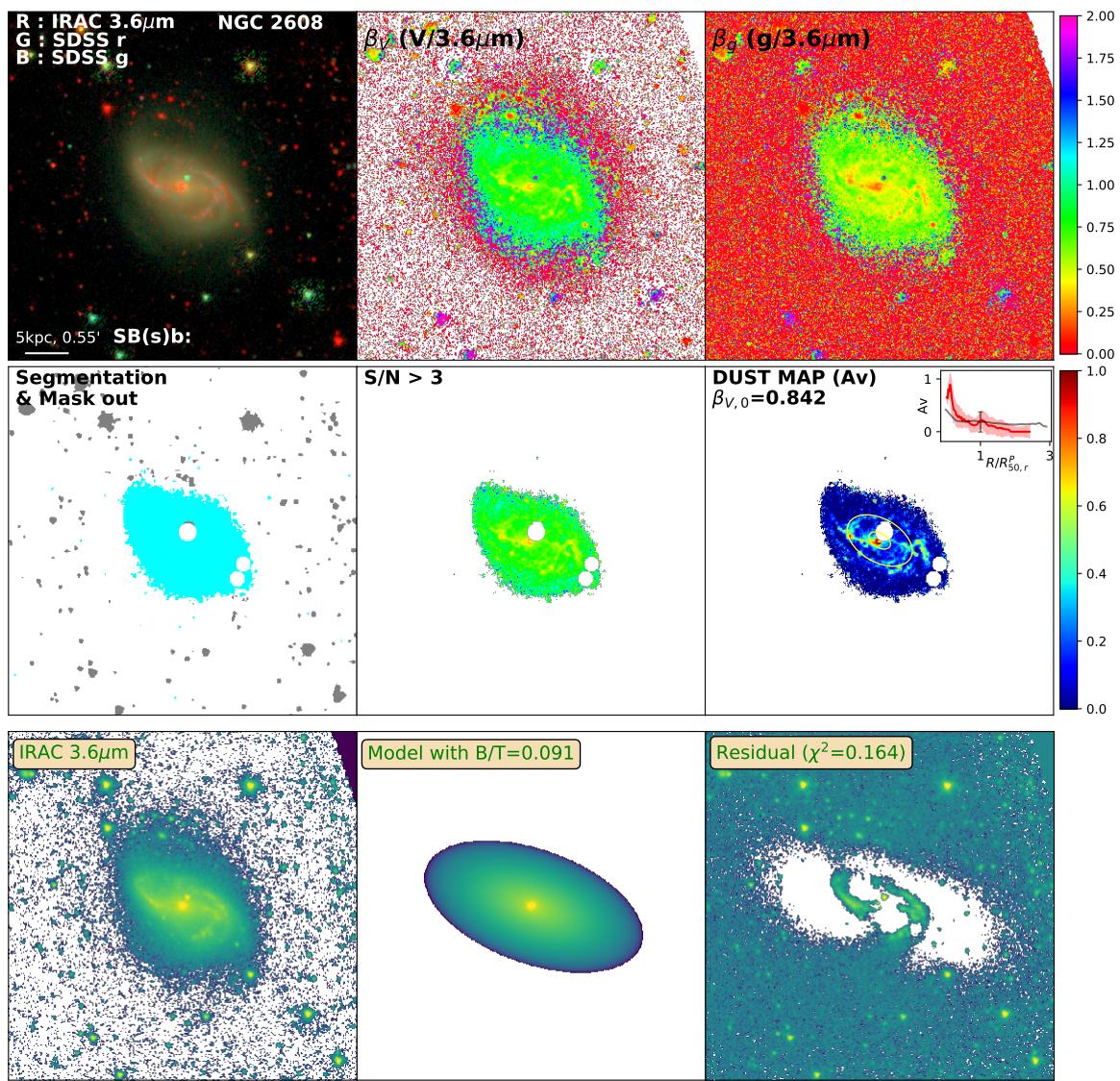


Figure D.44: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2608

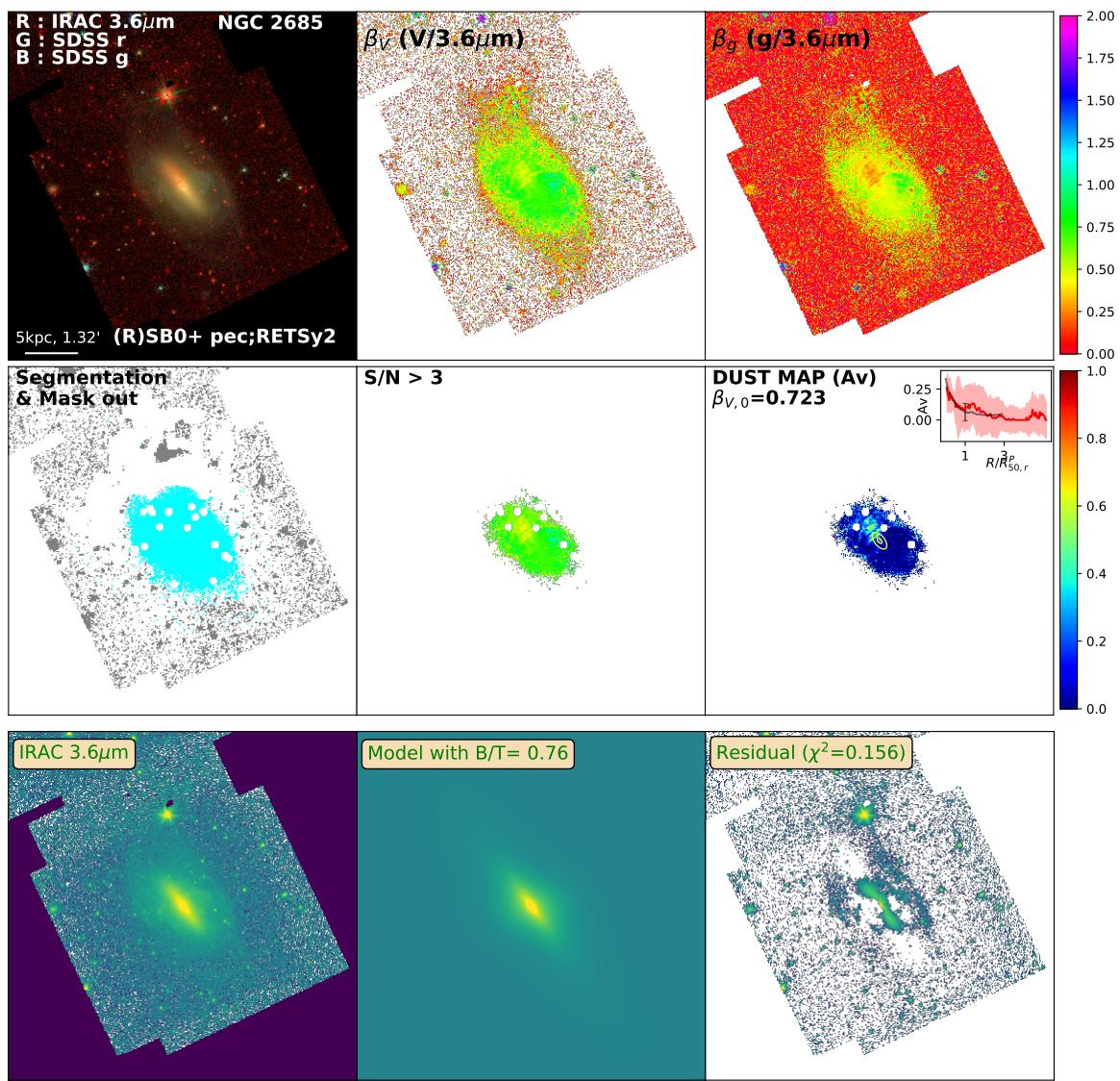


Figure D.45: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2685

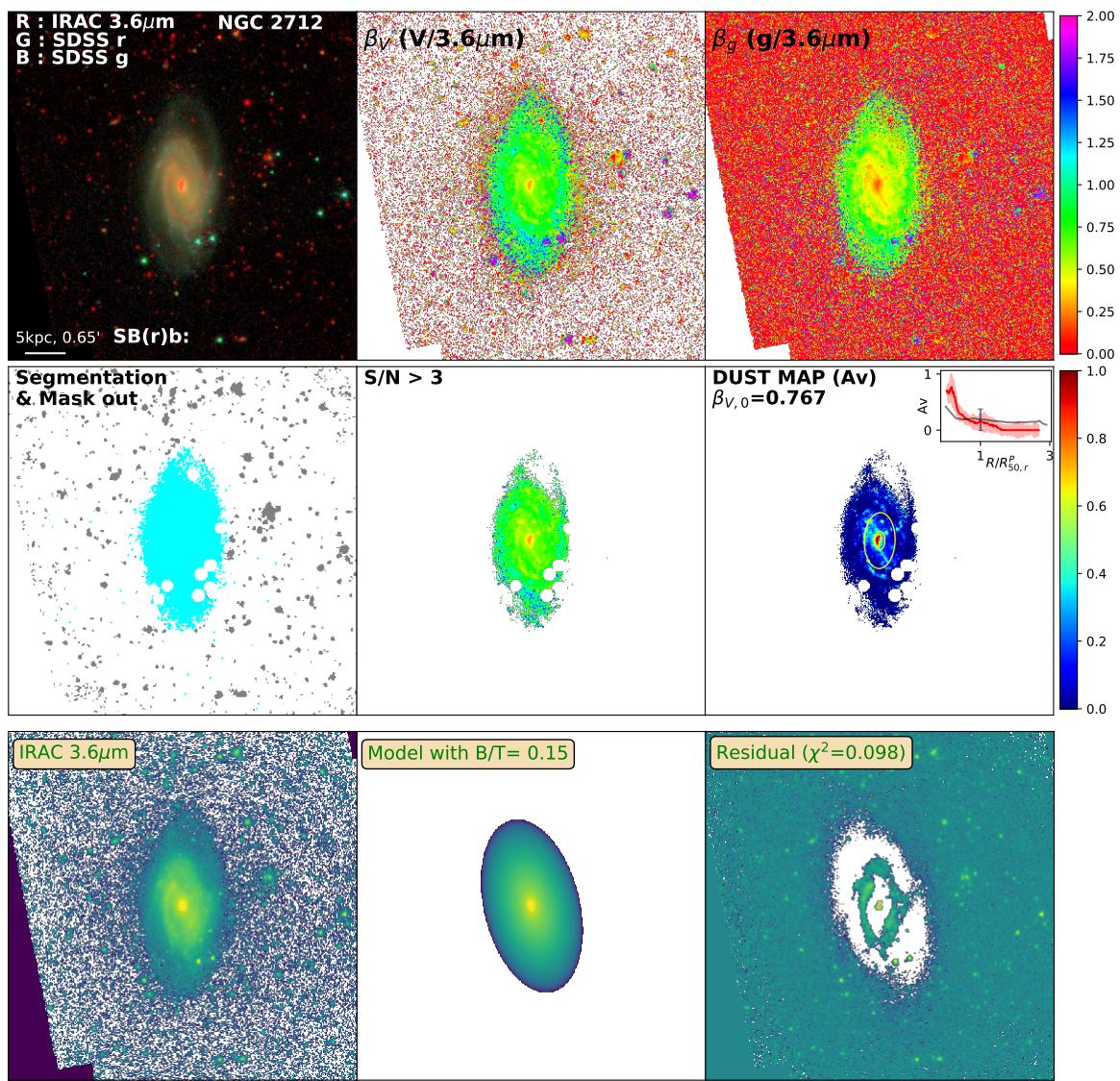


Figure D.46: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2712

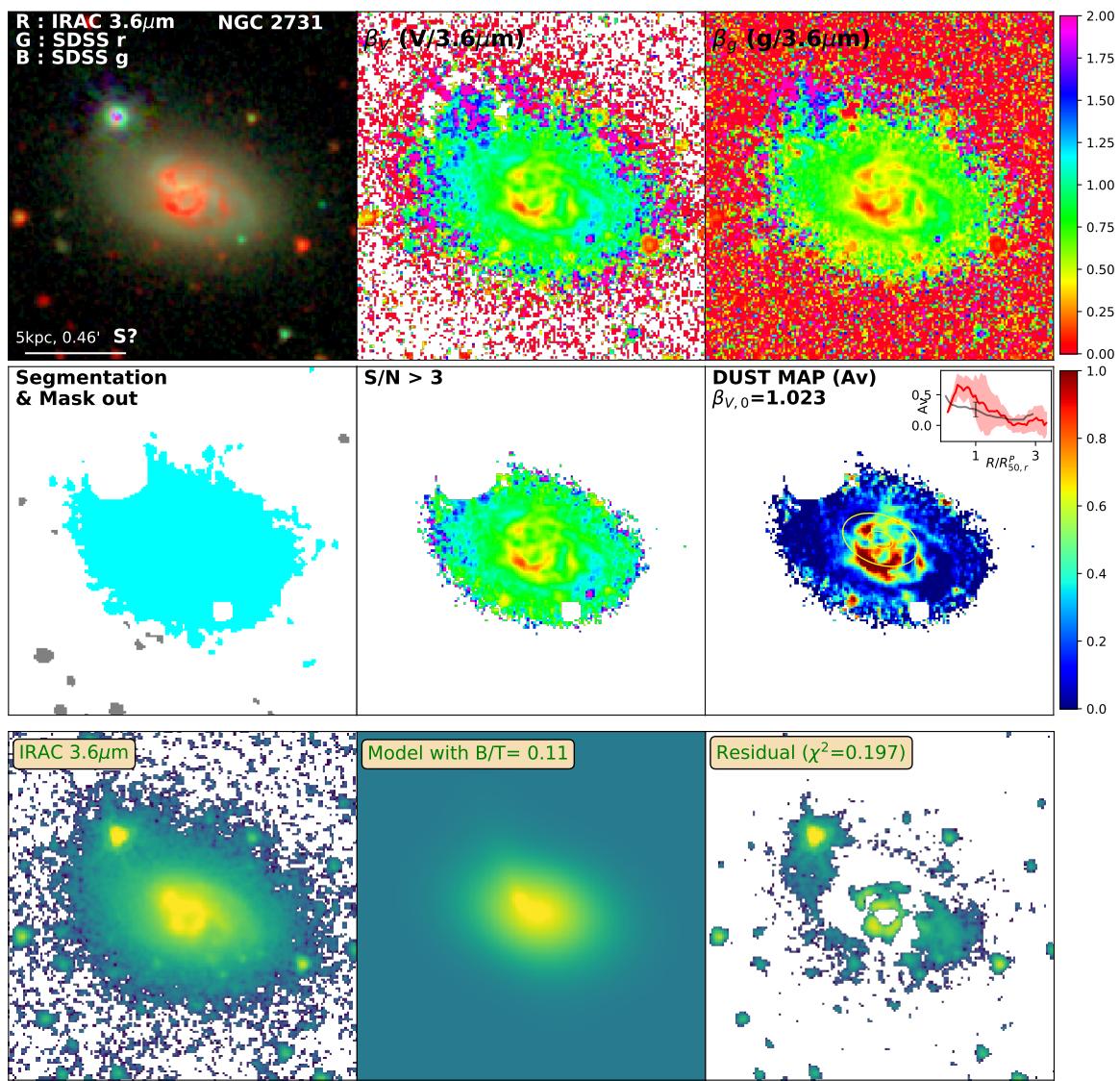


Figure D.47: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2731

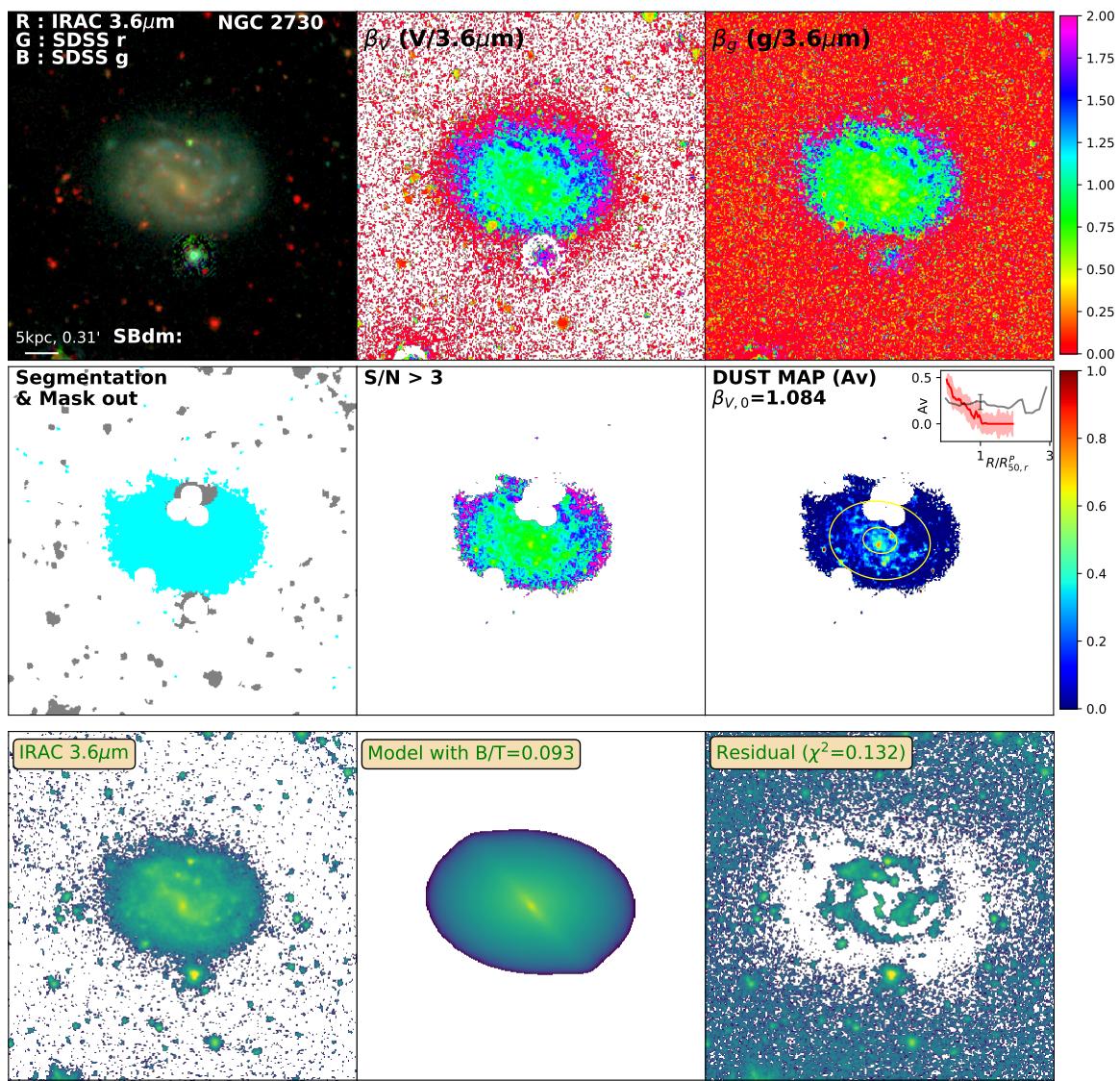


Figure D.48: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2730

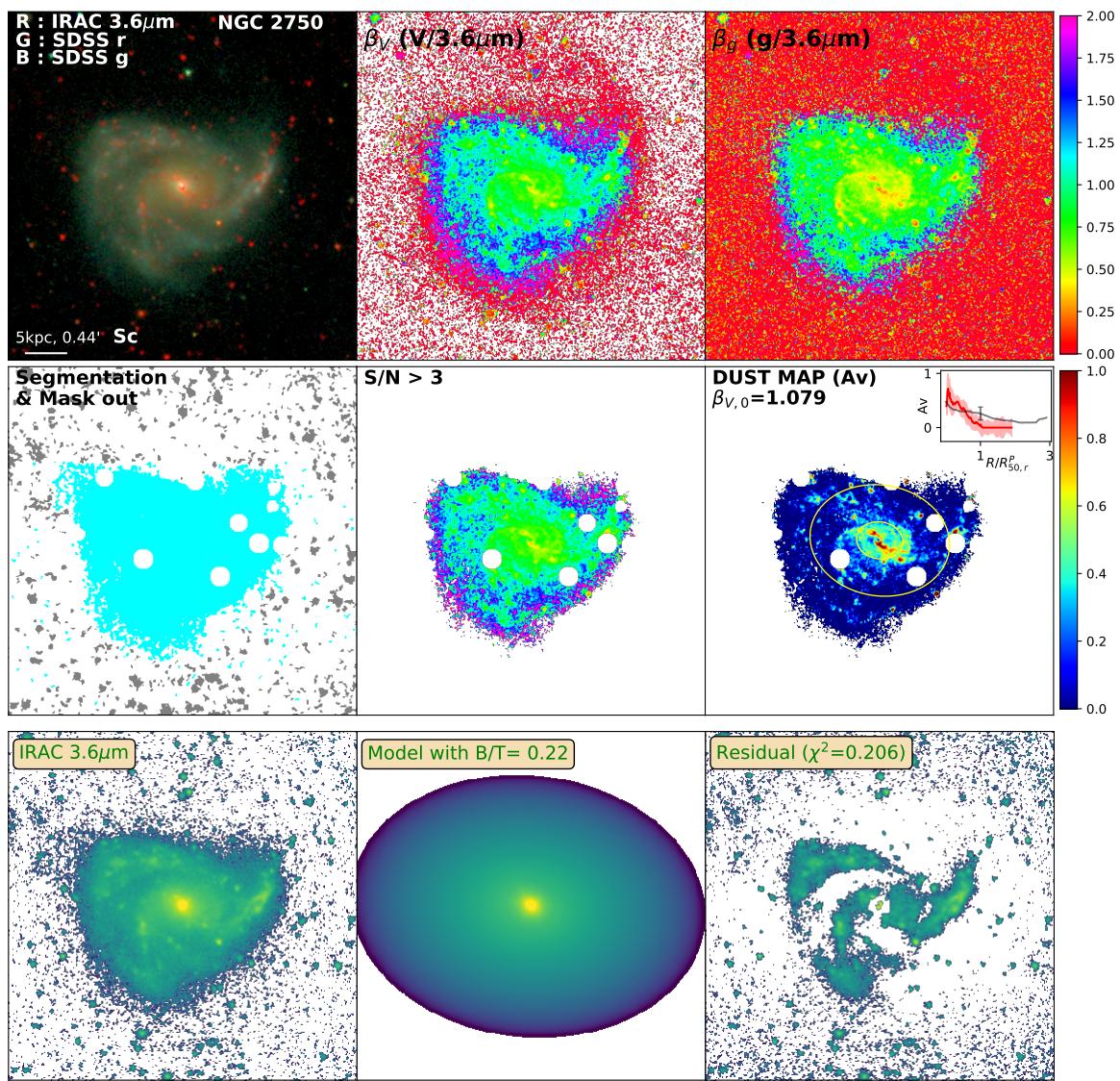


Figure D.49: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2750

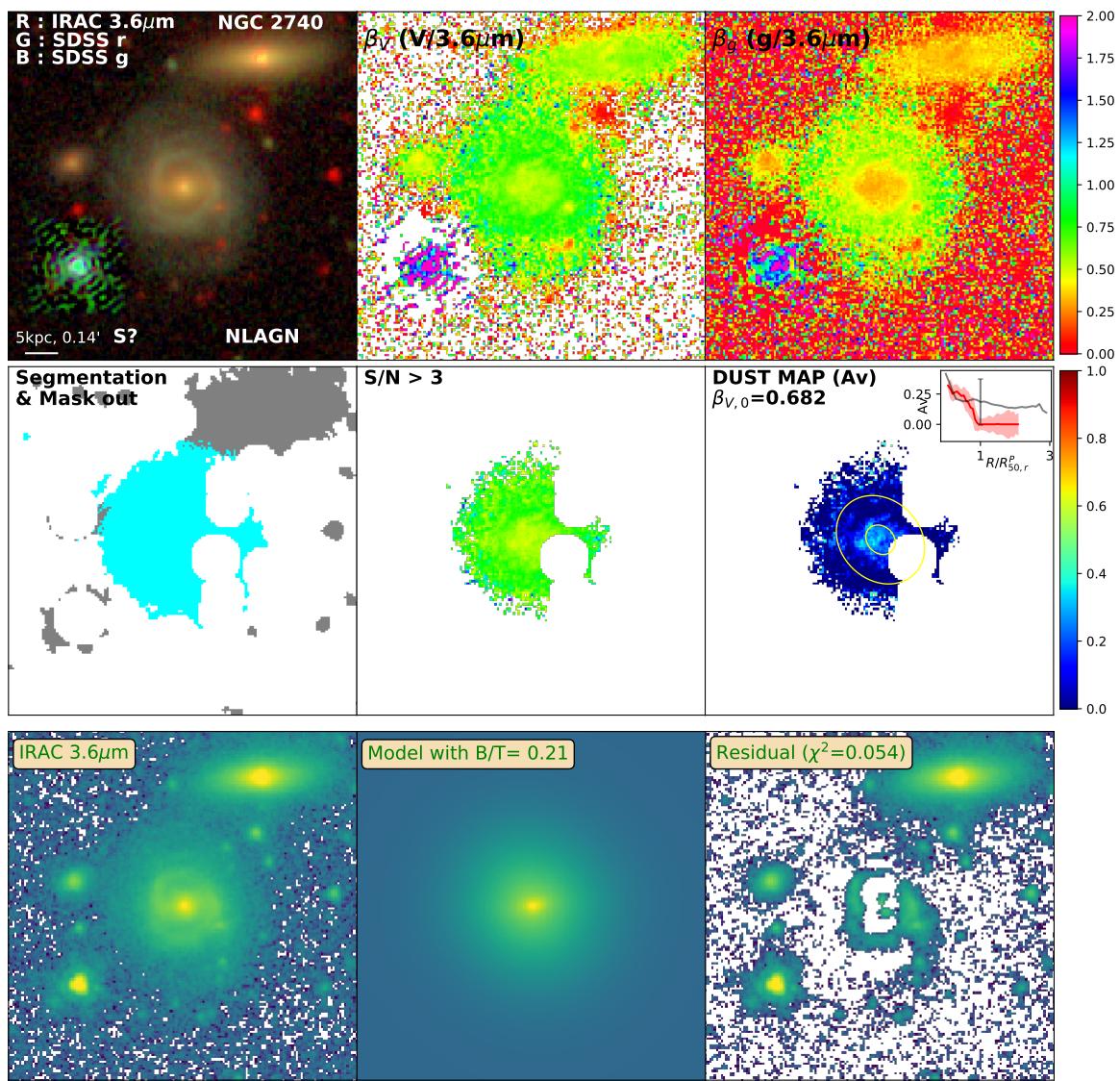


Figure D.50: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2740

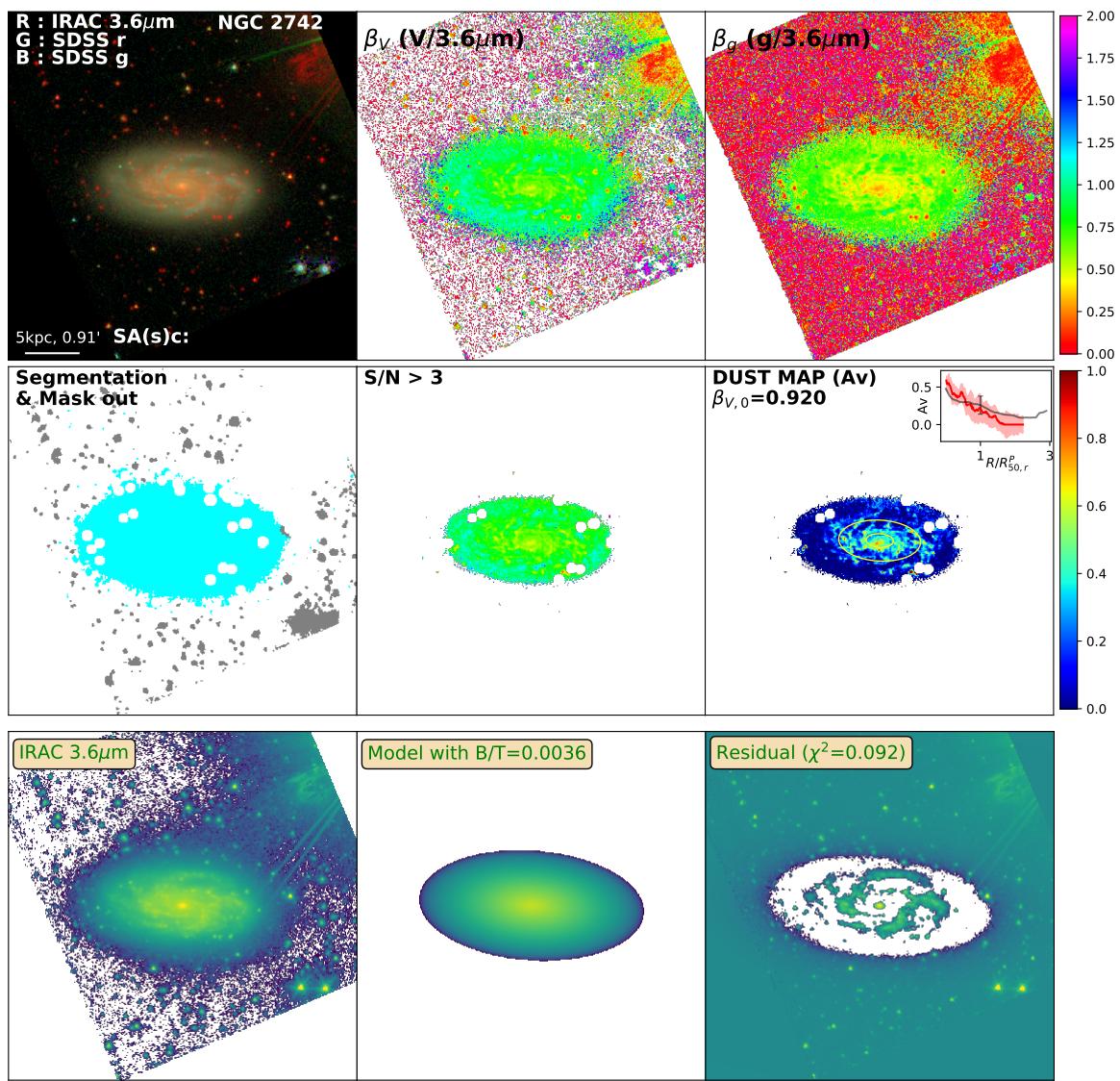


Figure D.51: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2742

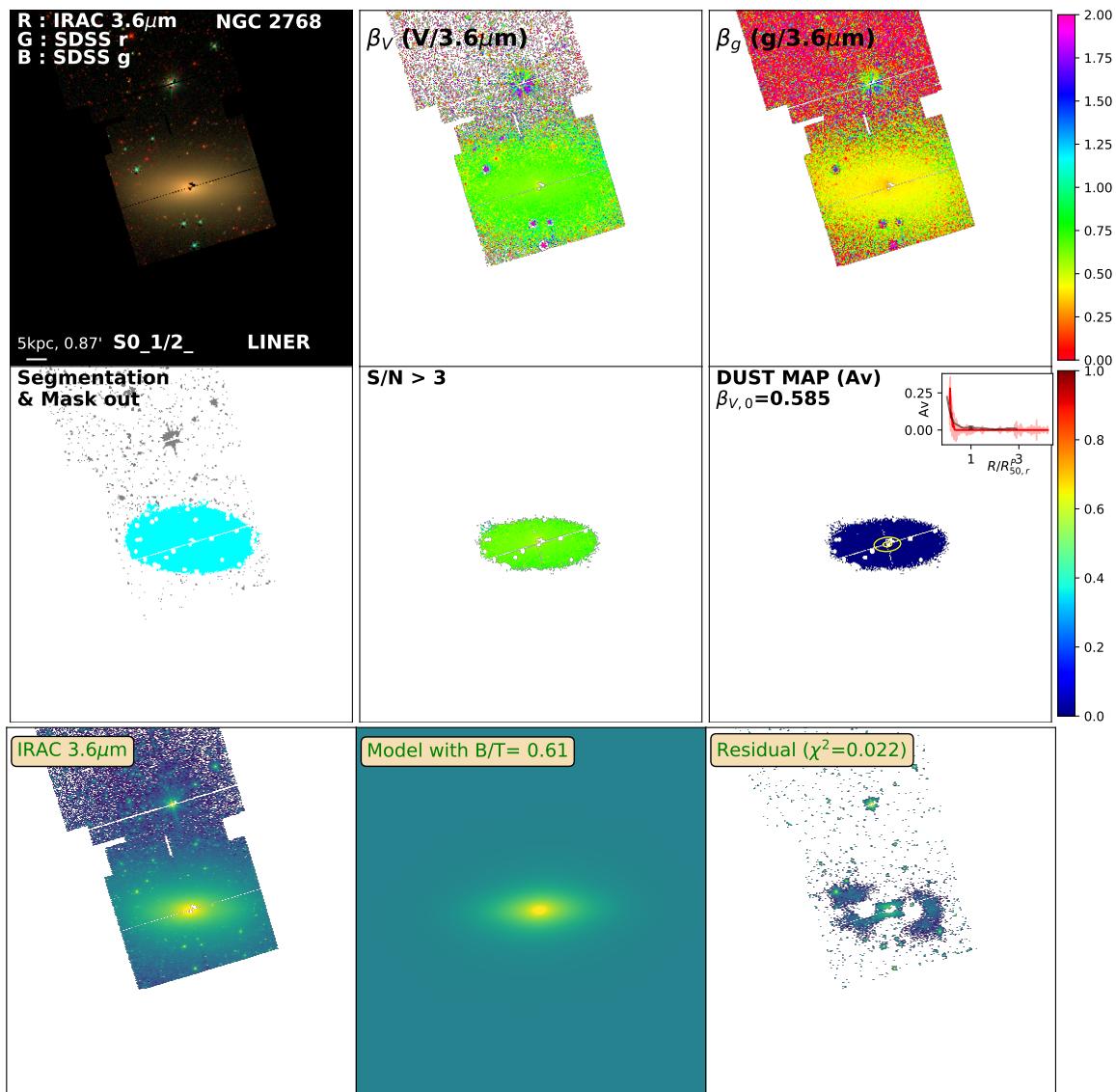


Figure D.52: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2768

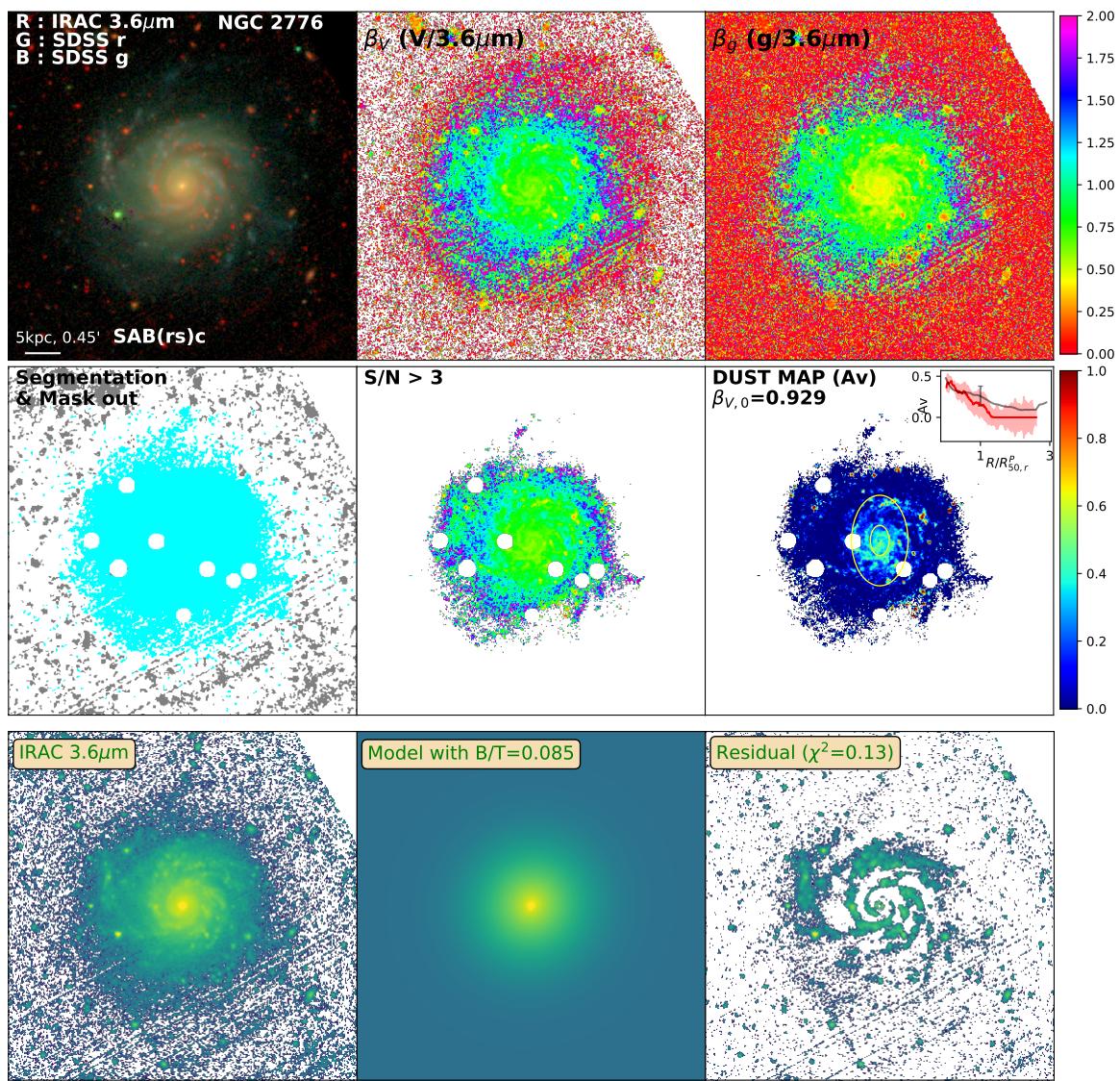


Figure D.53: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2776

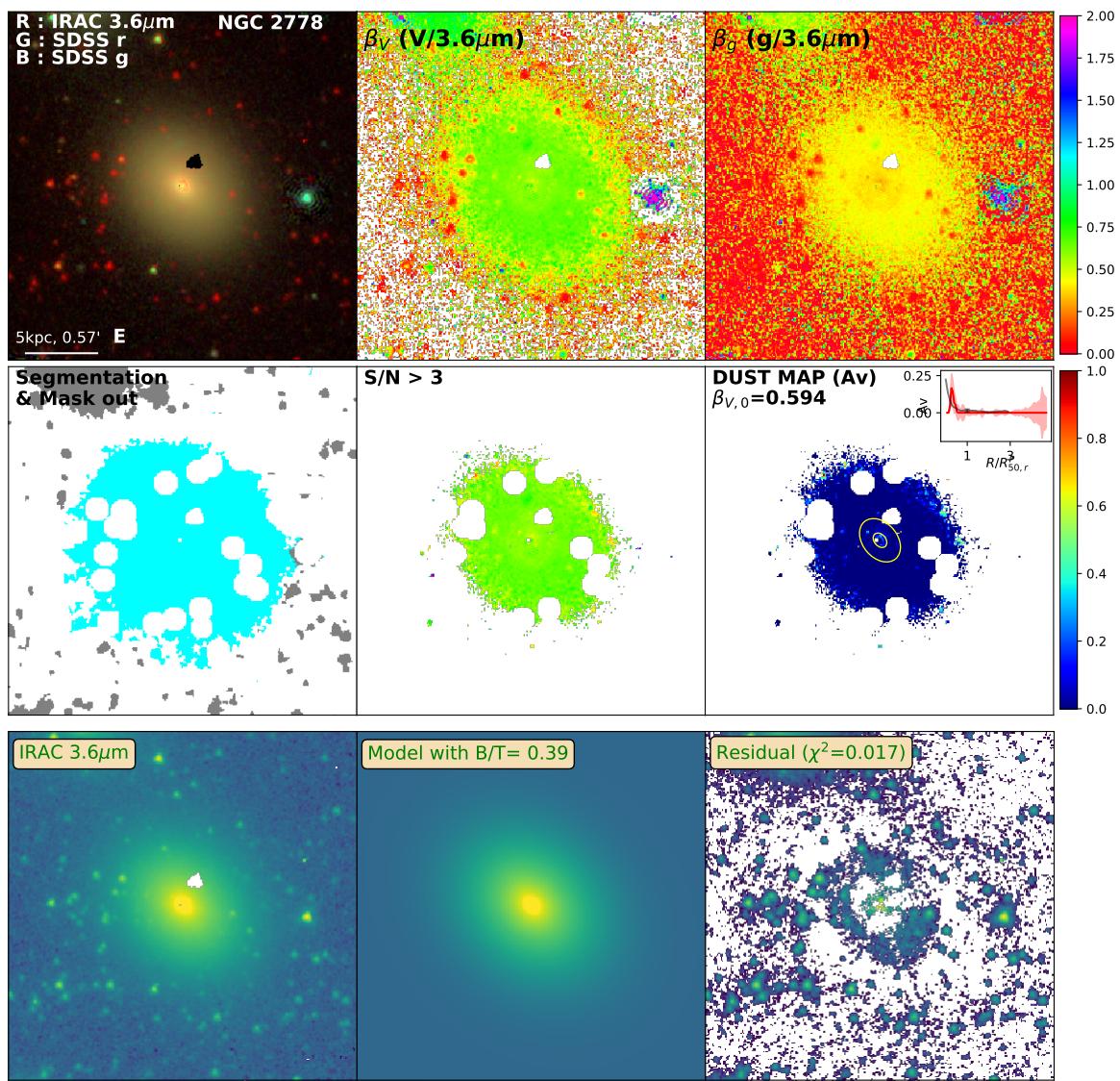


Figure D.54: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2778

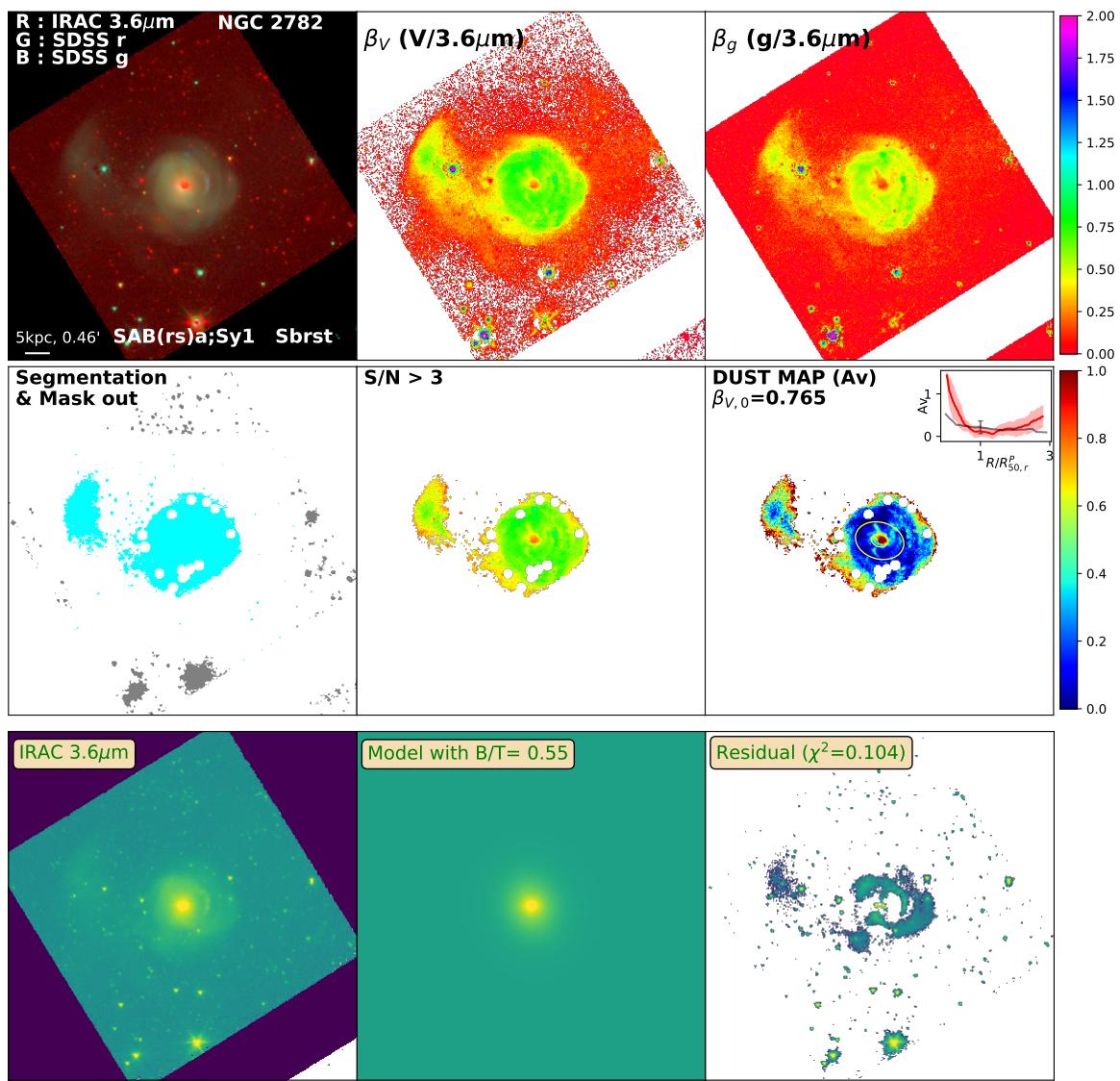


Figure D.55: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2782

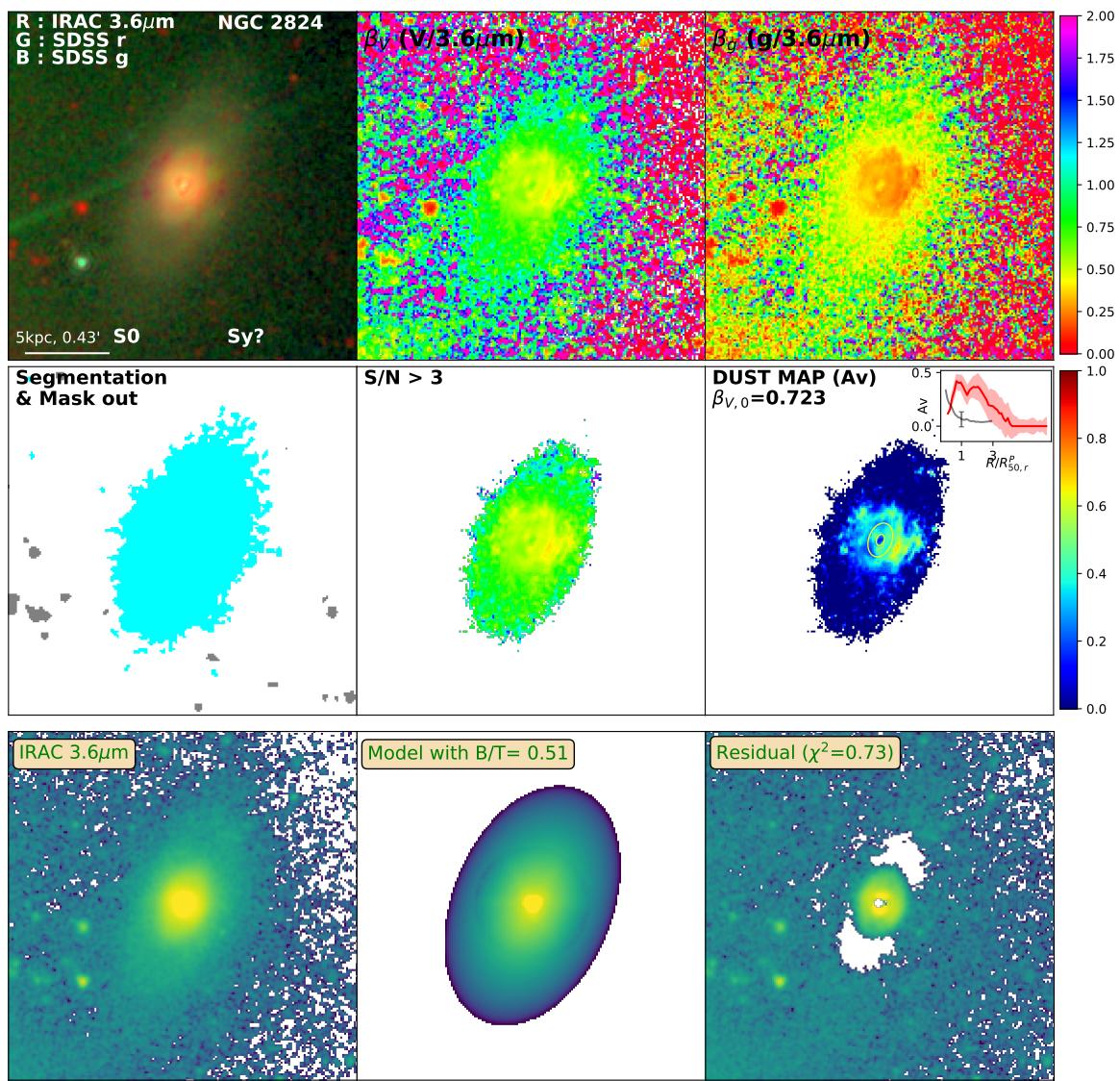


Figure D.56: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2824

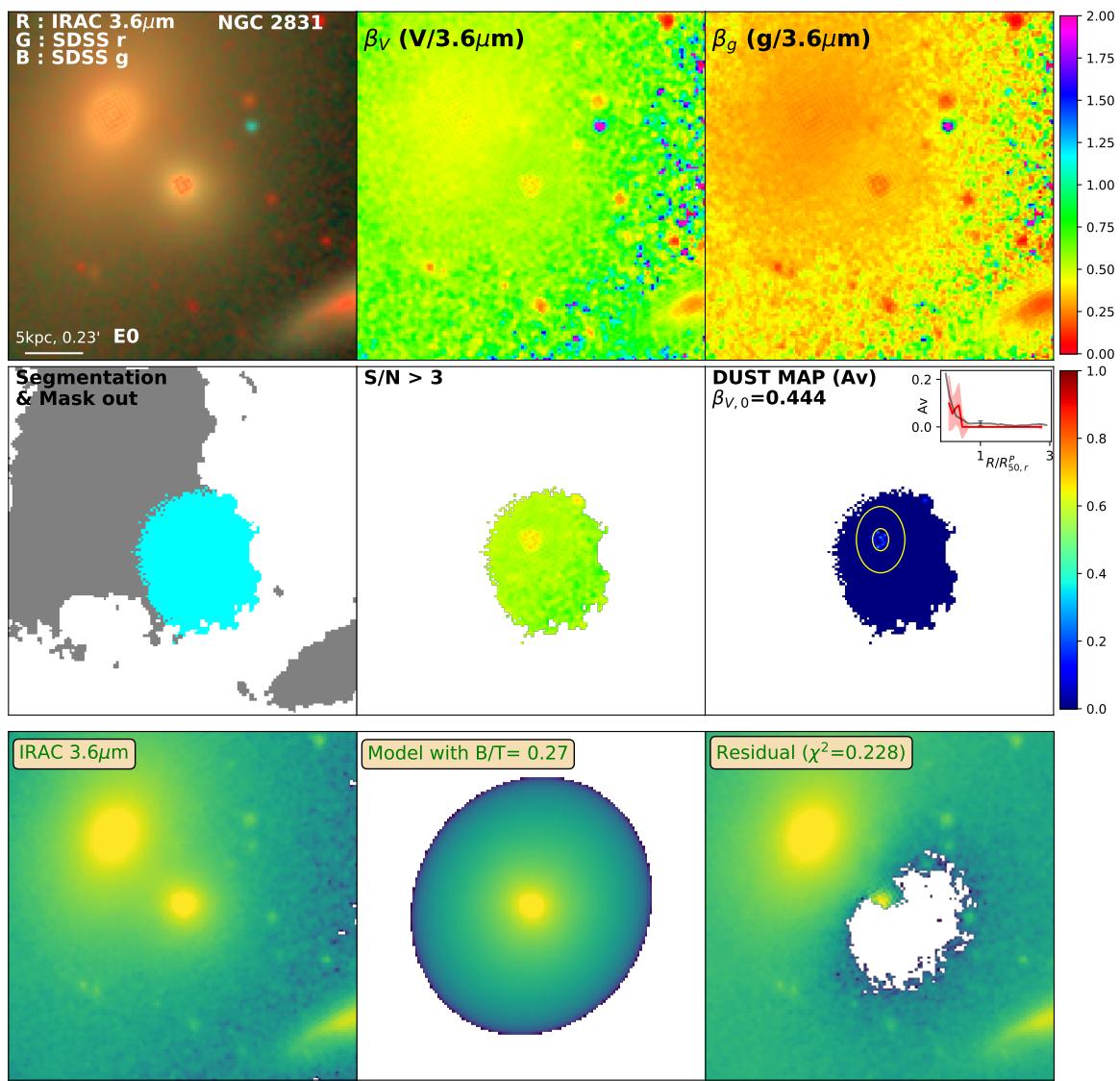


Figure D.57: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2831

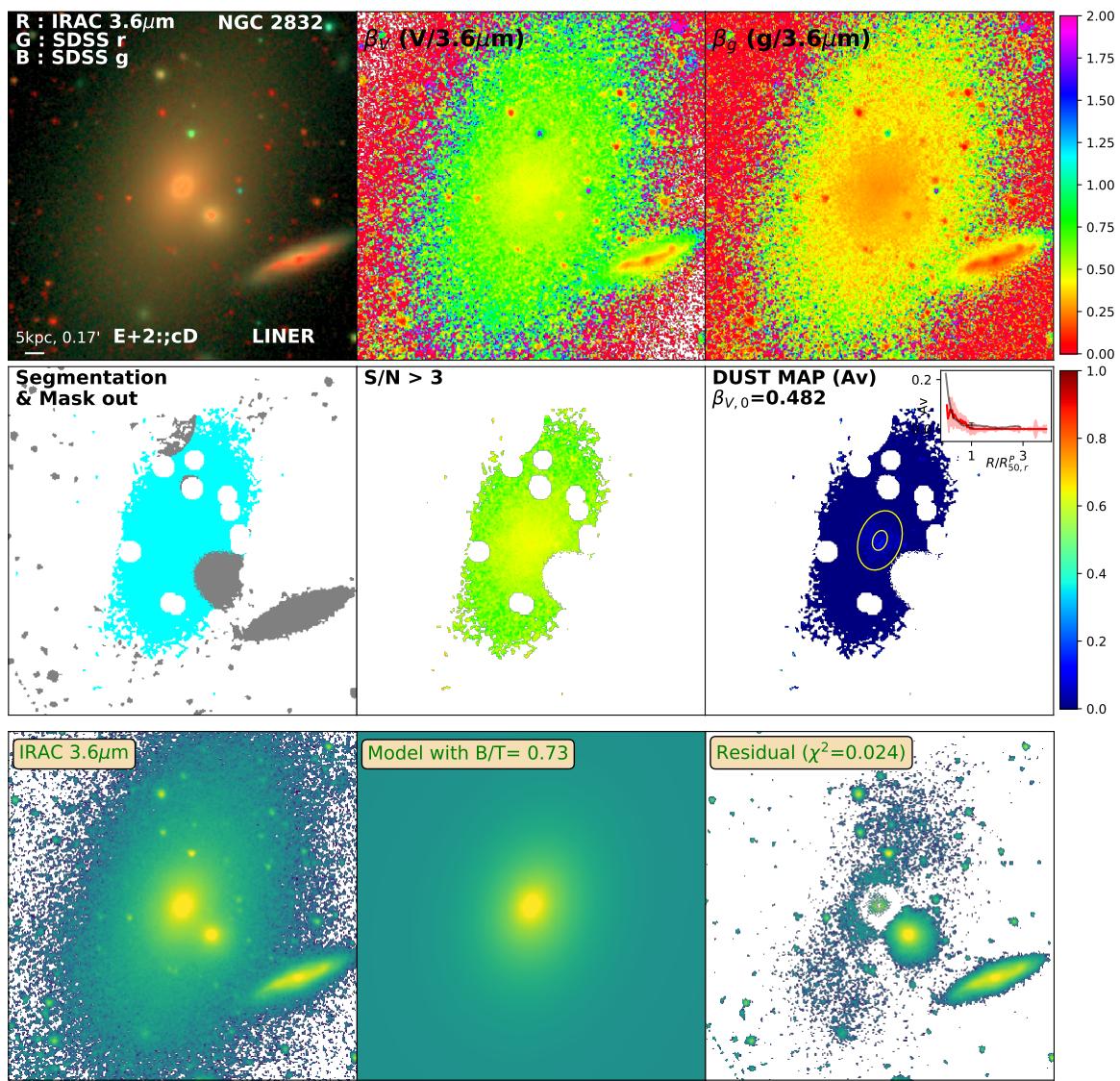


Figure D.58: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2832

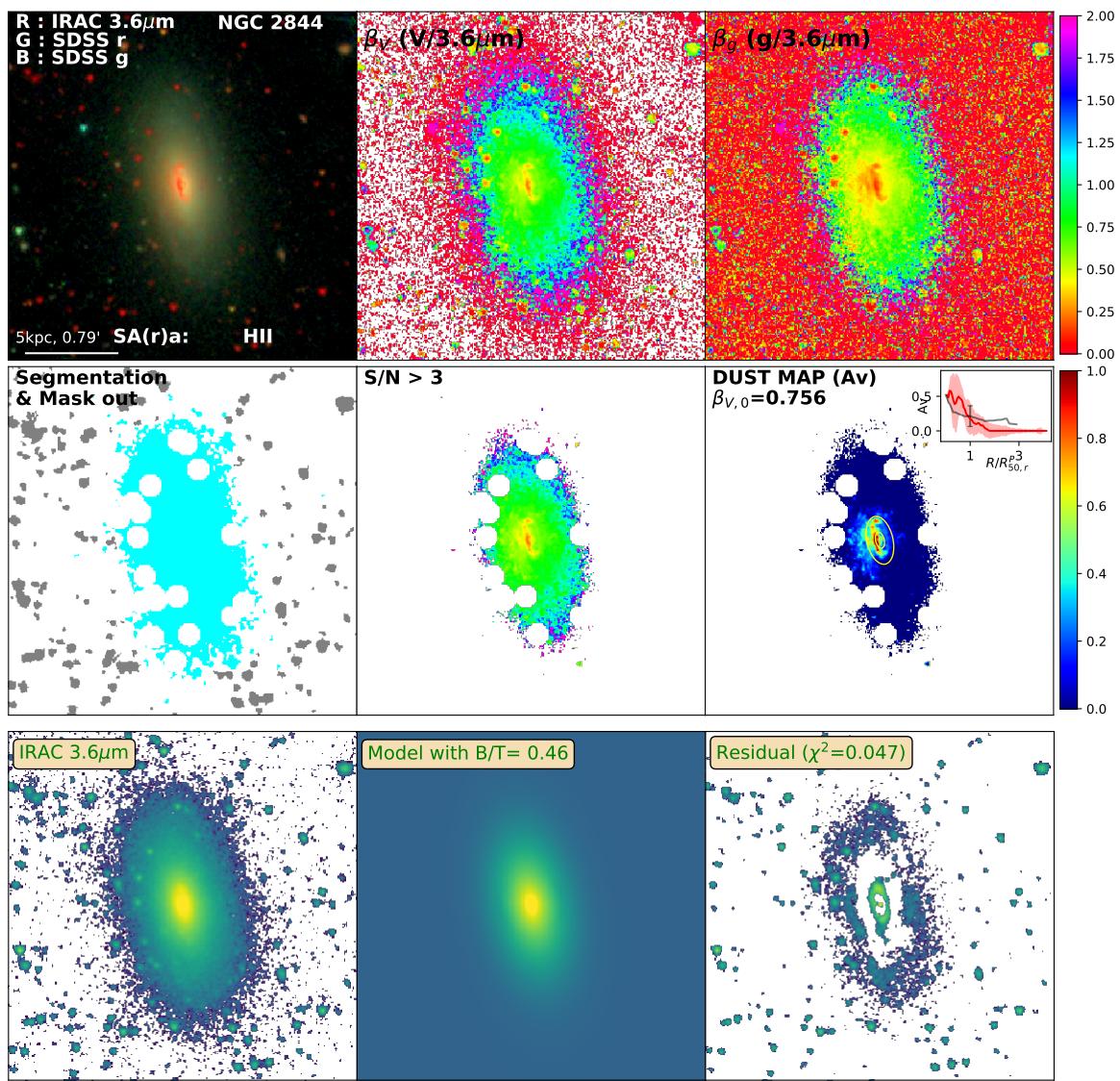


Figure D.59: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2844

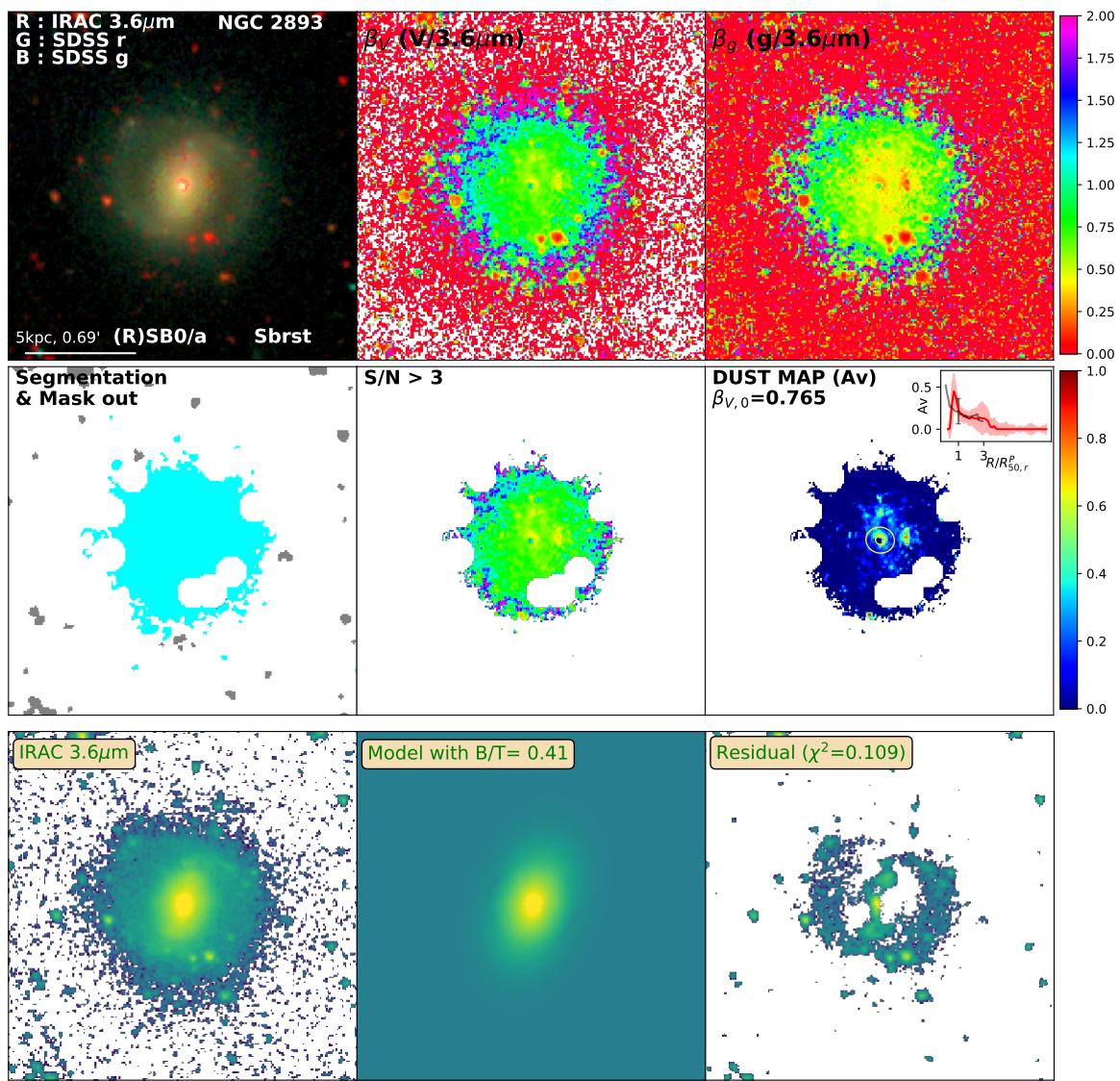


Figure D.60: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2893

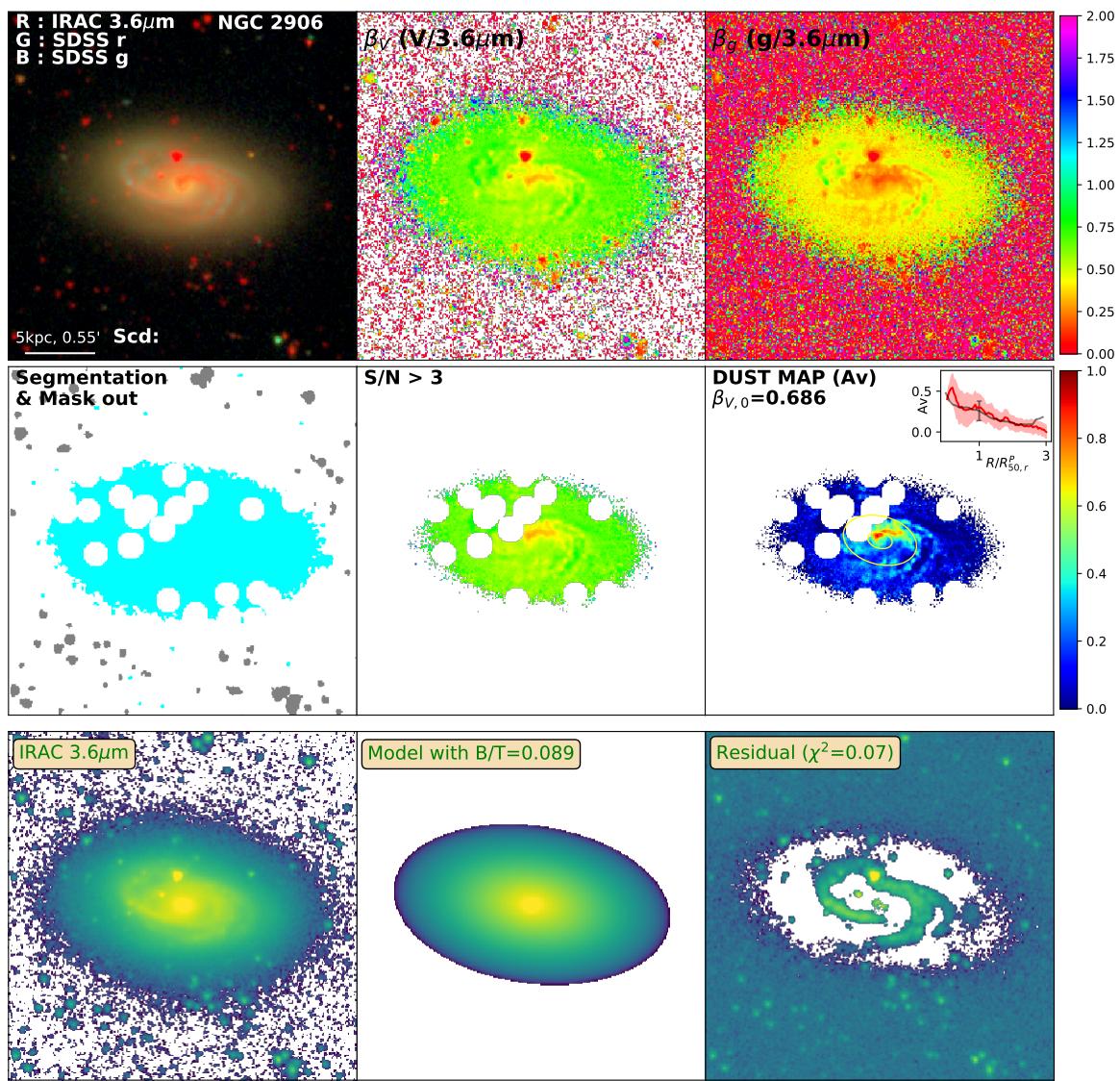


Figure D.61: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2906

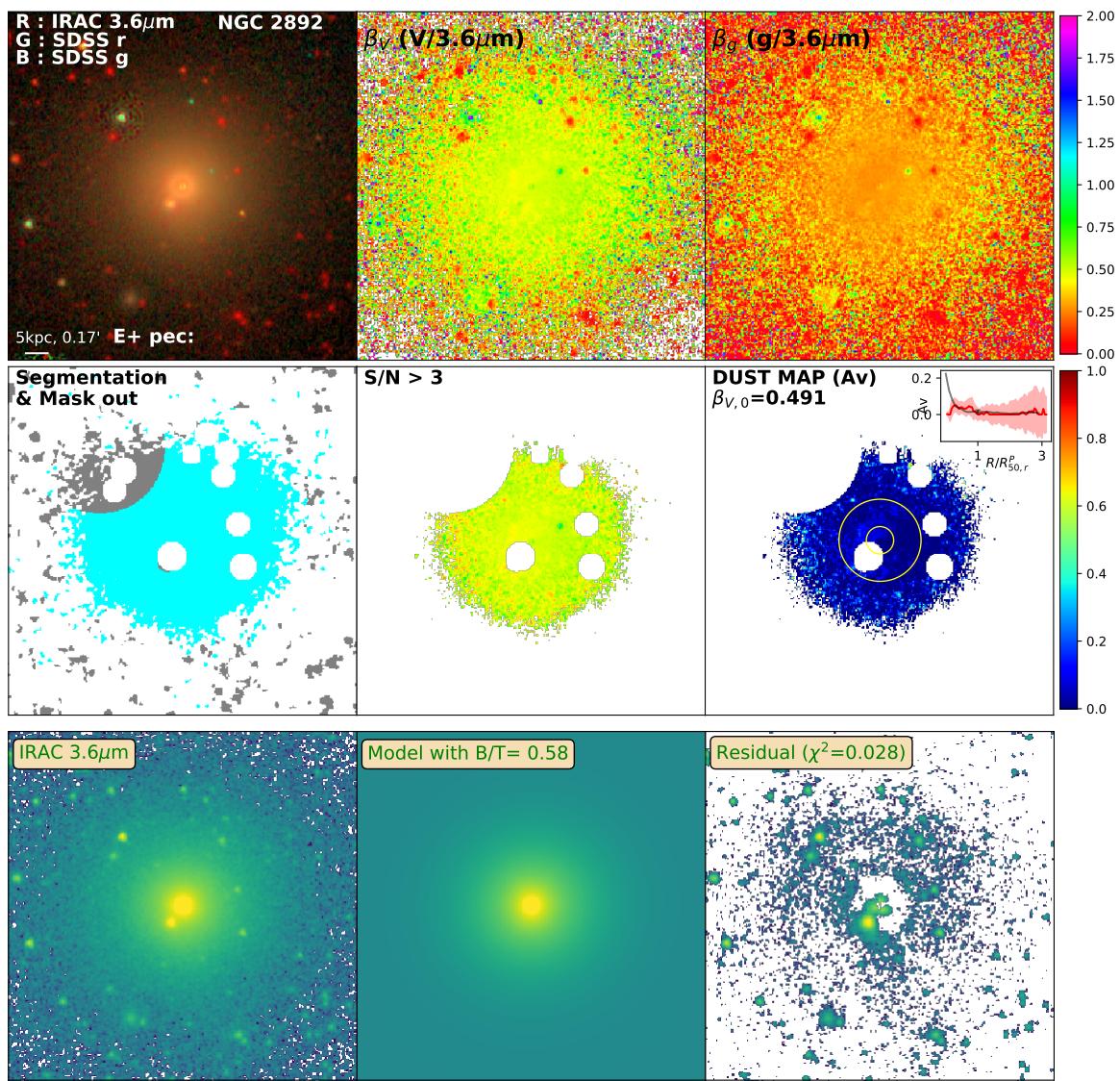


Figure D.62: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2892

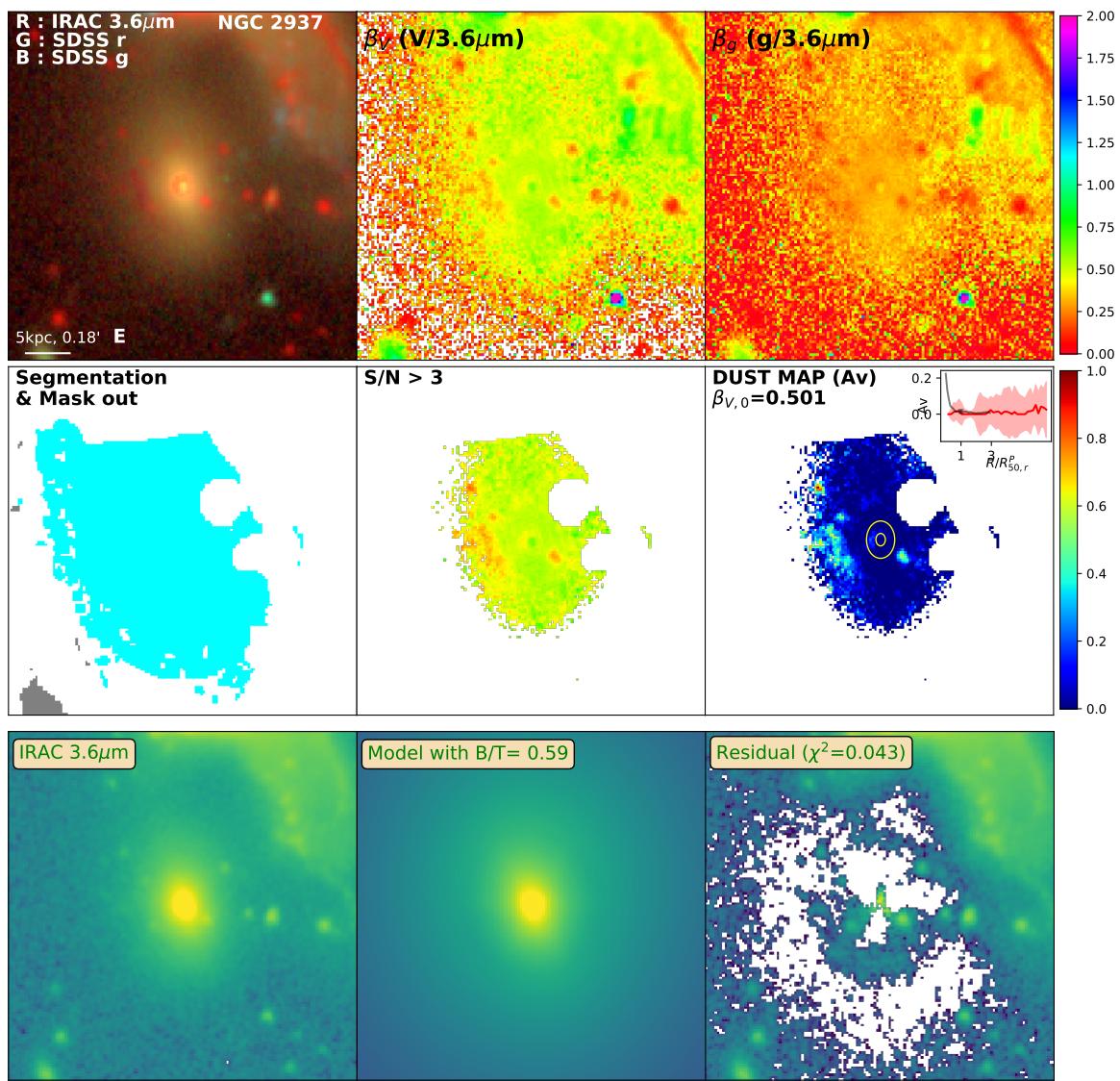


Figure D.63: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC2937

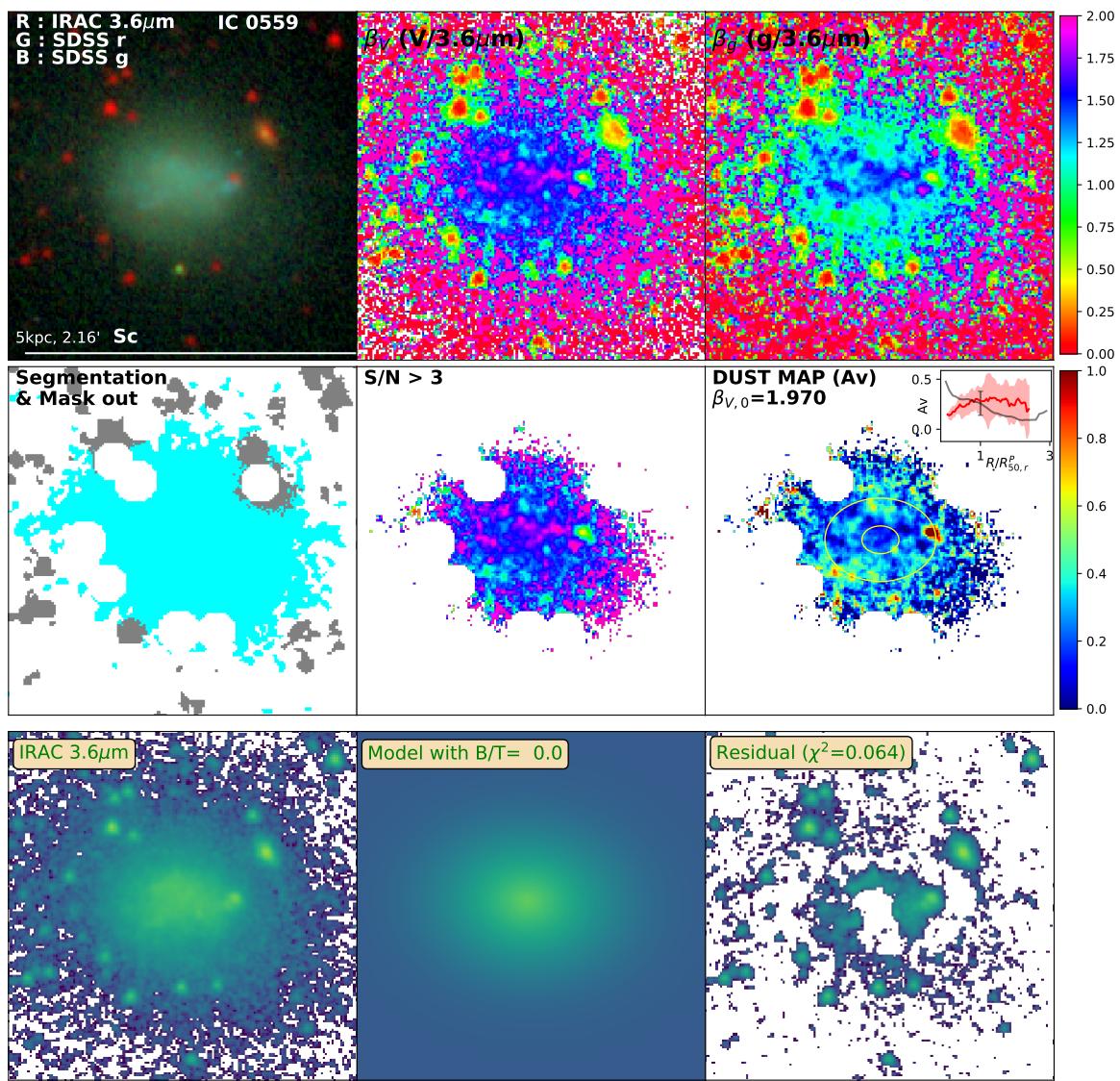


Figure D.64: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0559

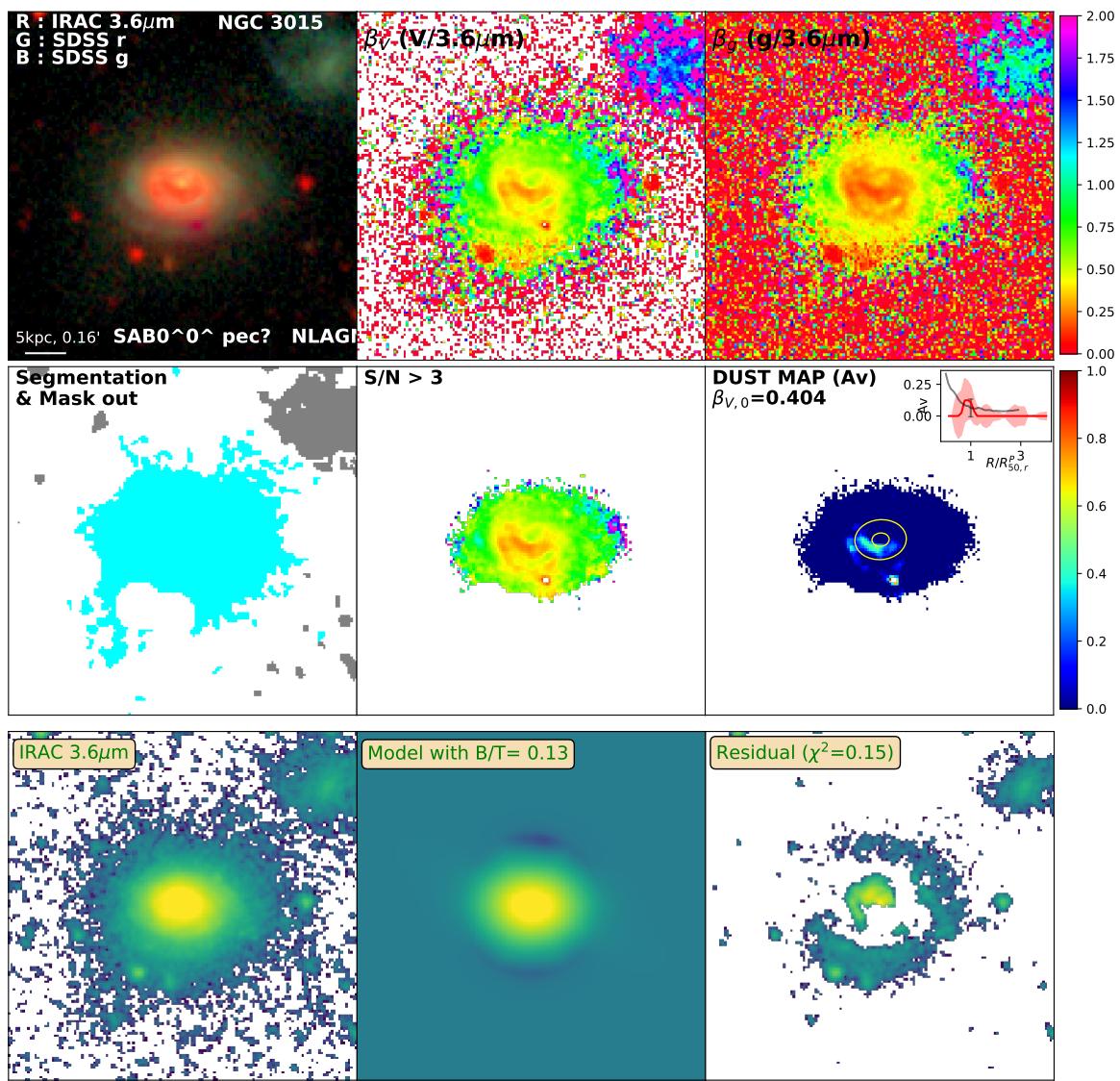


Figure D.65: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3015

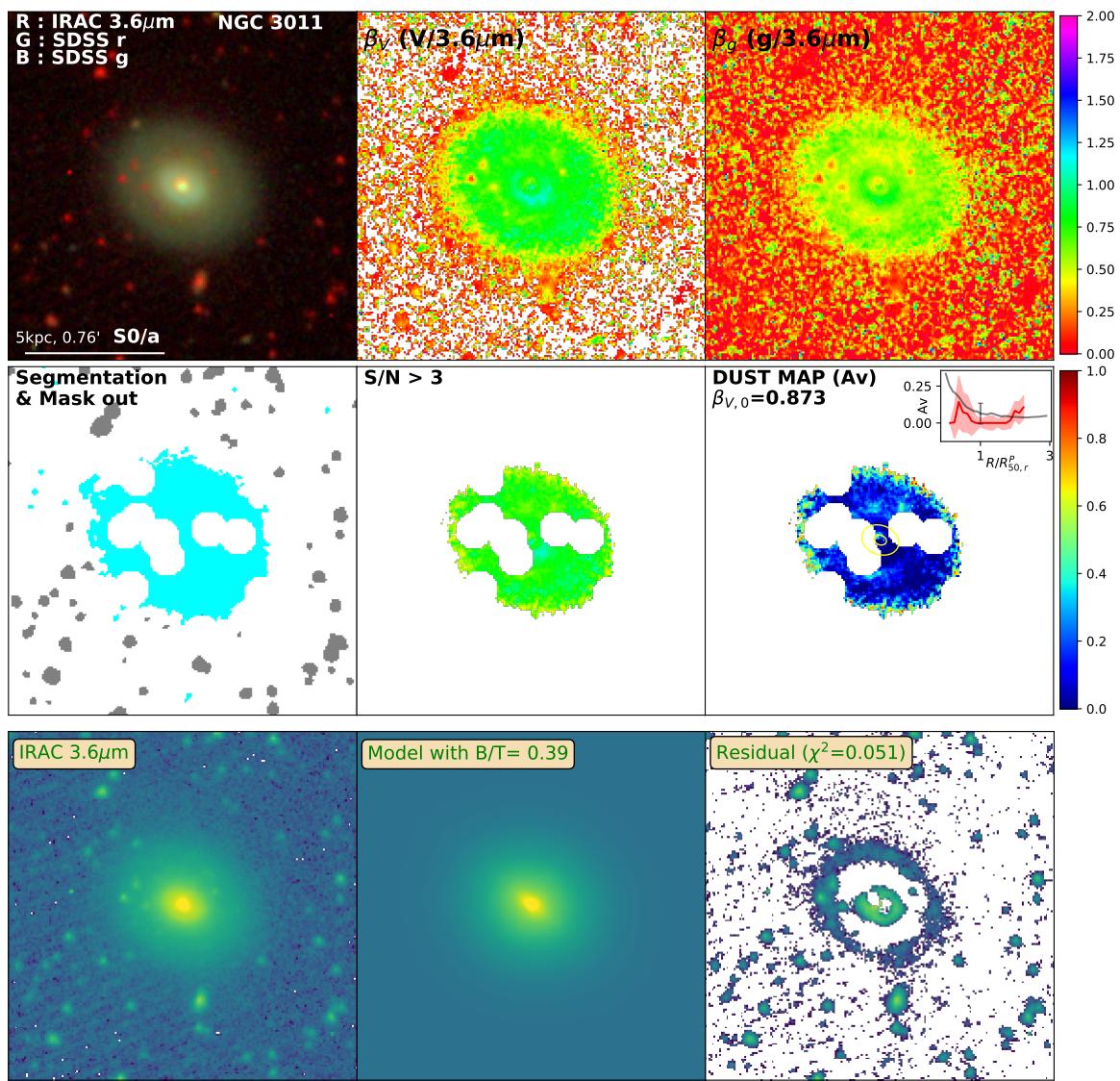


Figure D.66: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3011

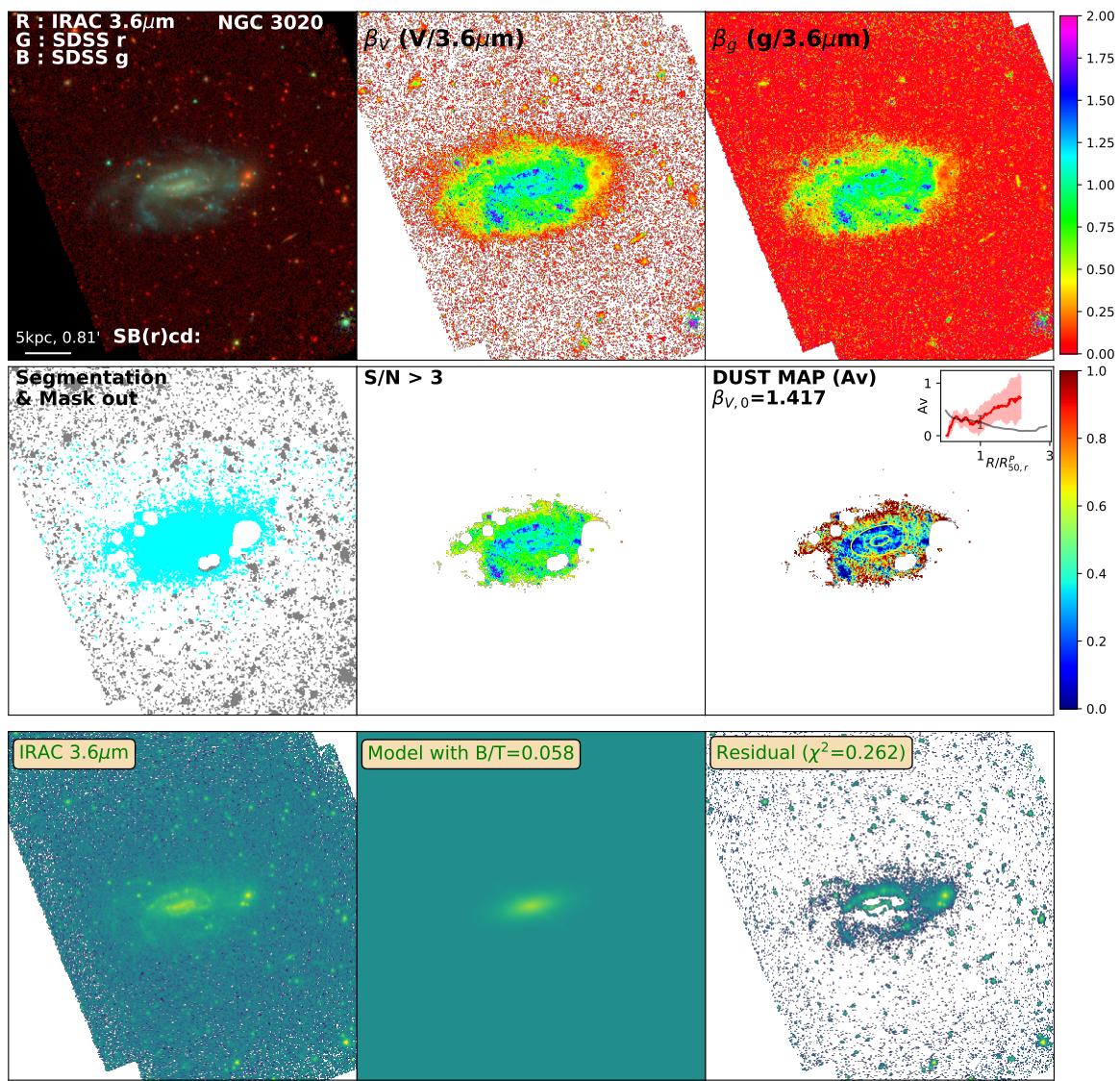


Figure D.67: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3020

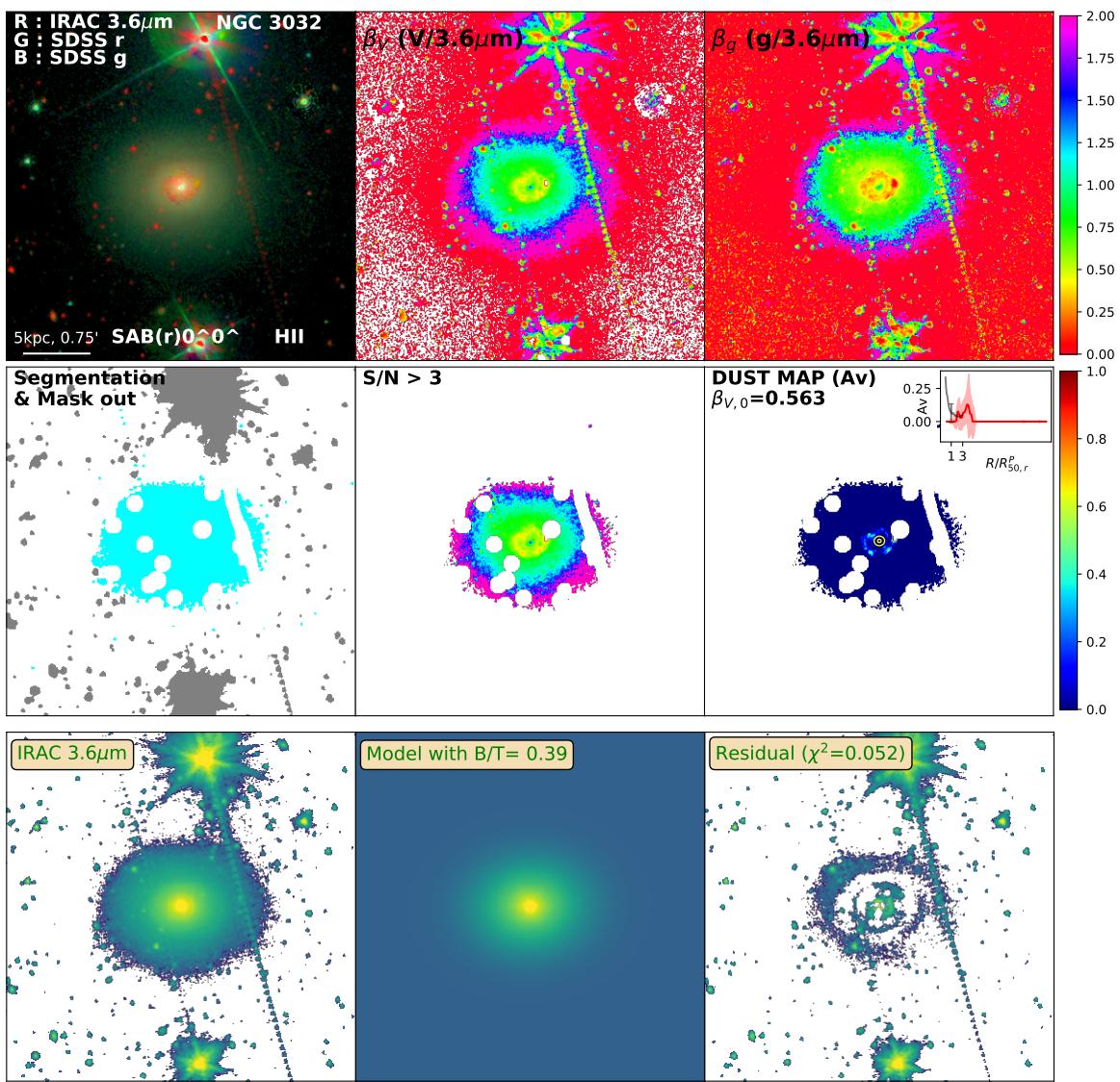


Figure D.68: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3032

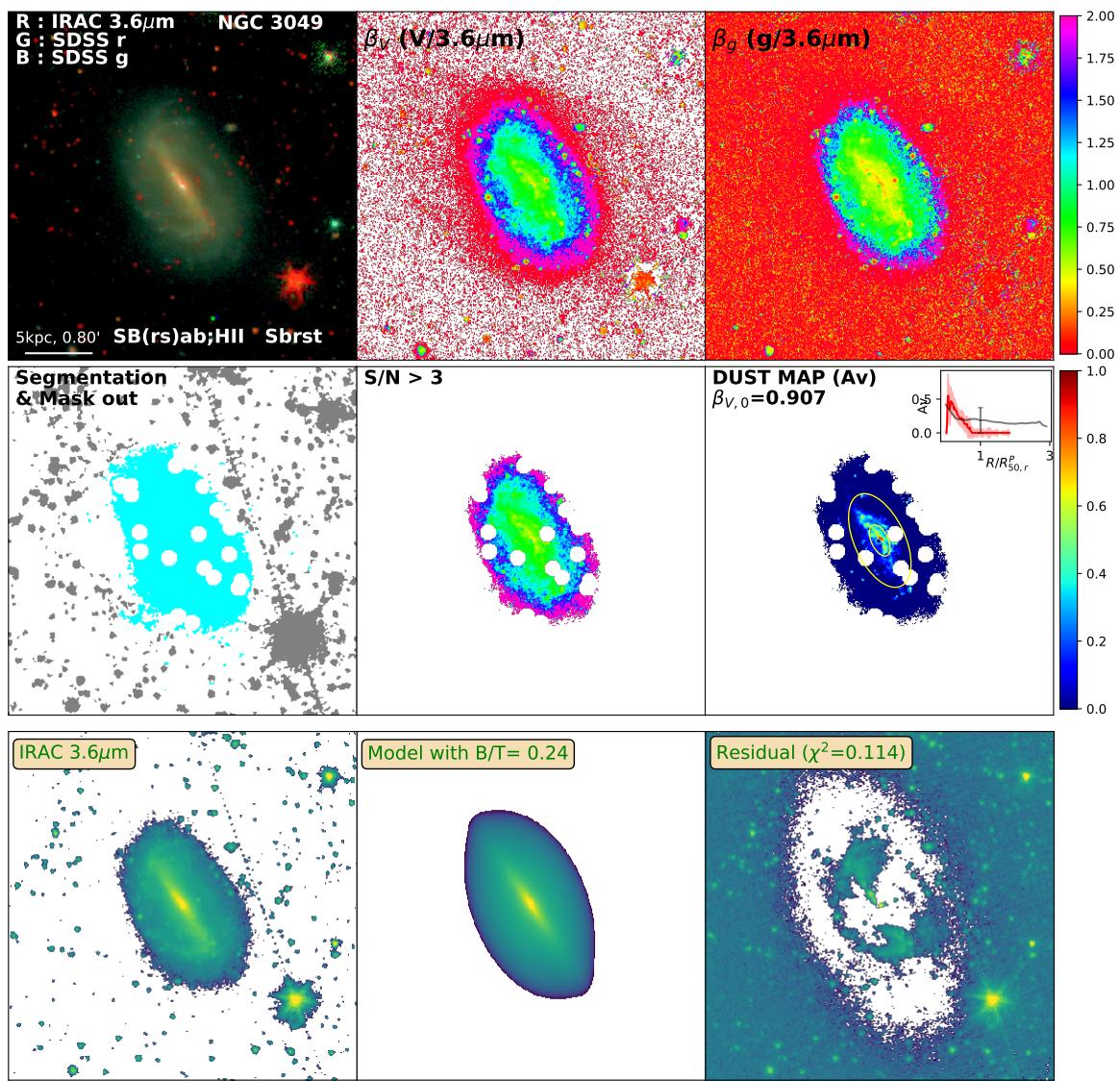


Figure D.69: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3049

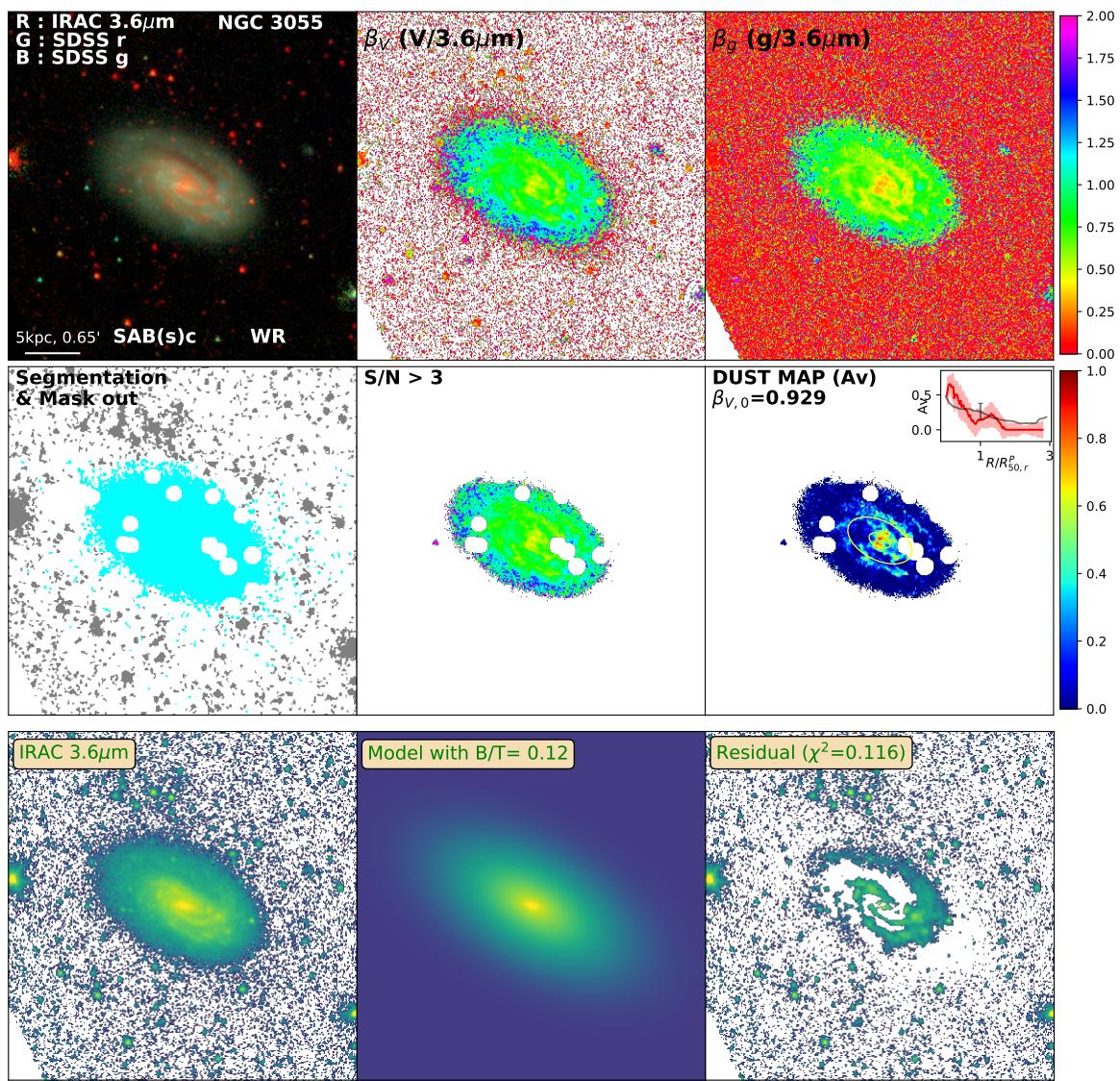


Figure D.70: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3055

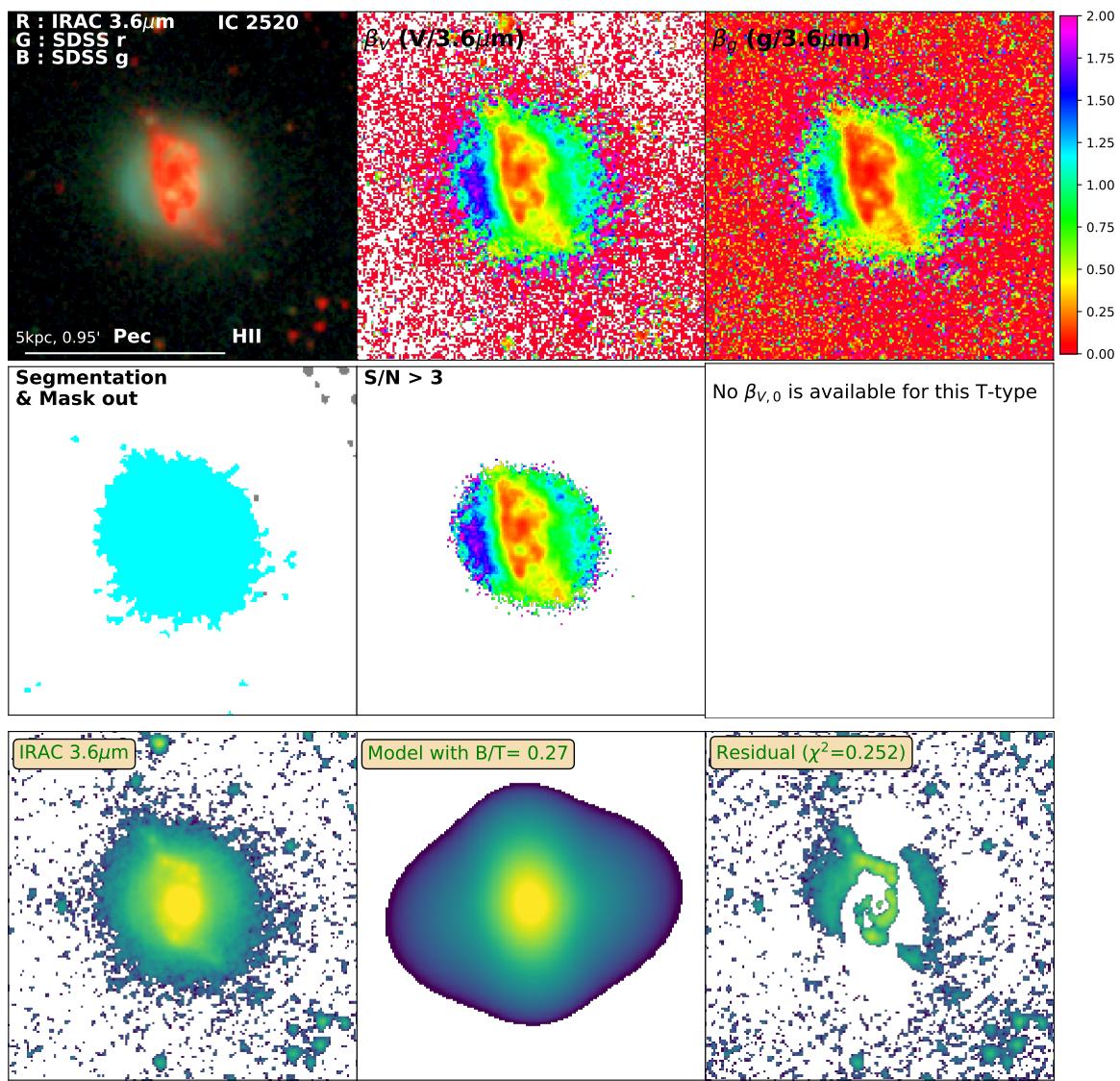


Figure D.71: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC2520

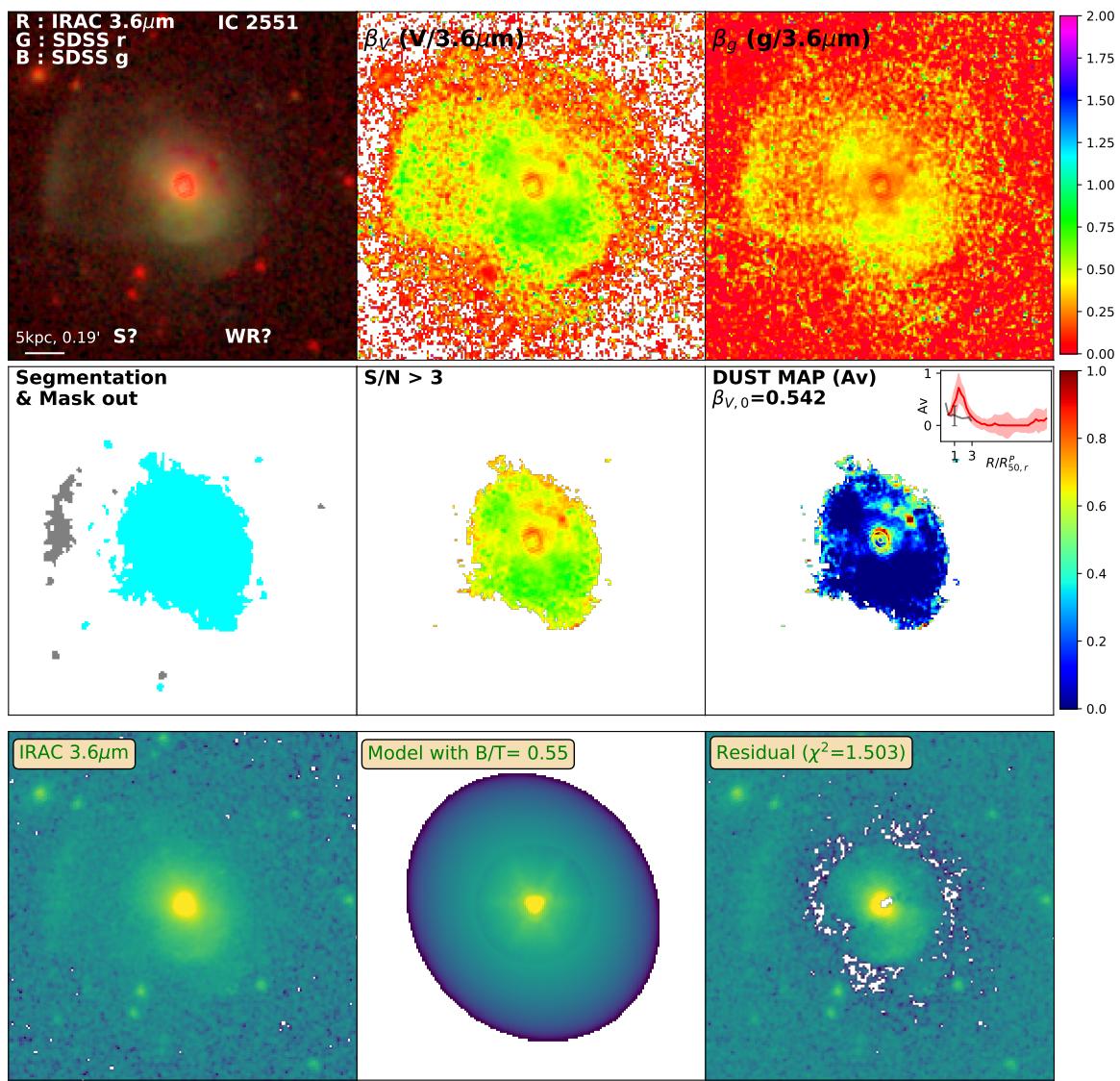


Figure D.72: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC2551

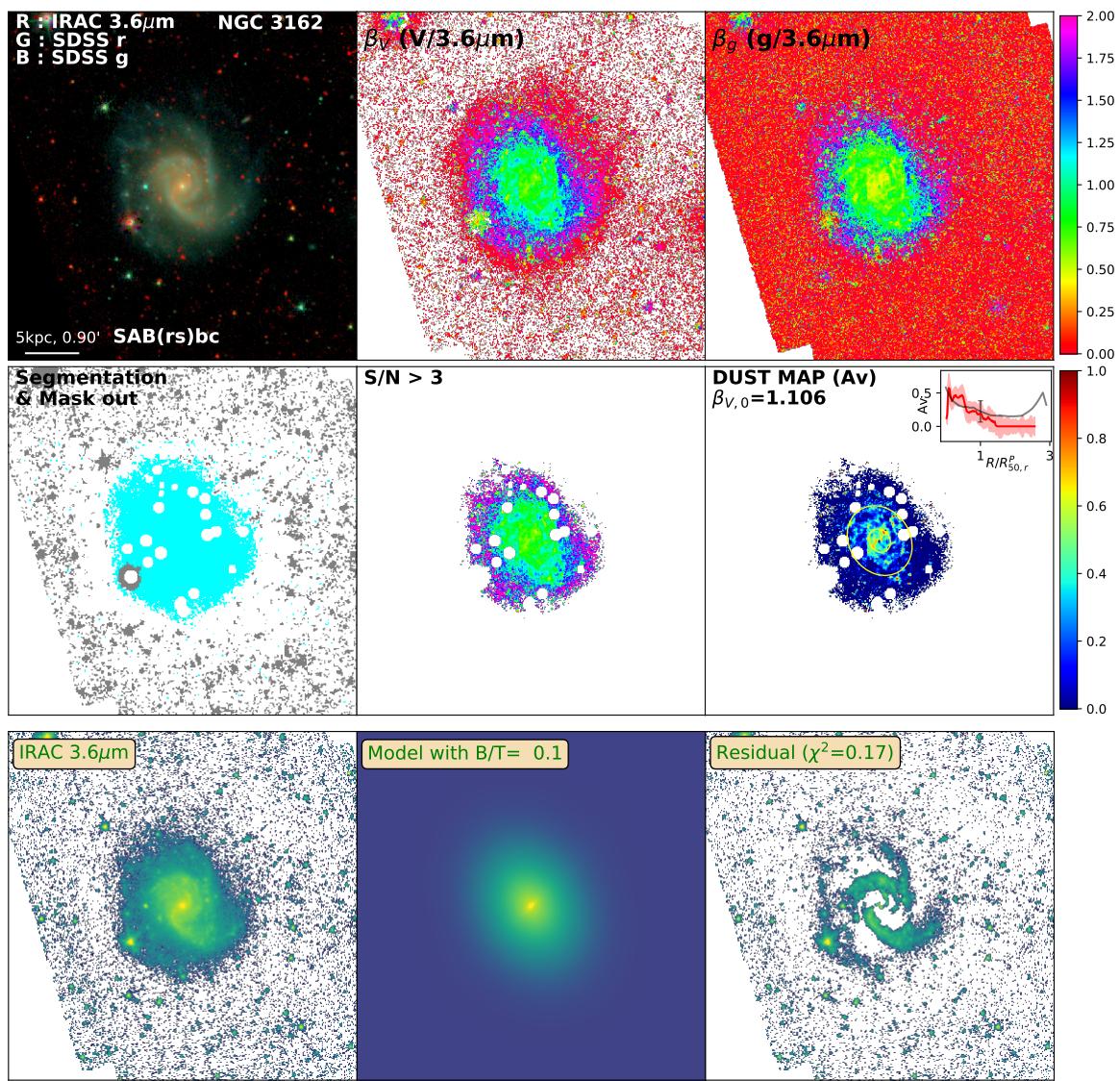


Figure D.73: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3162

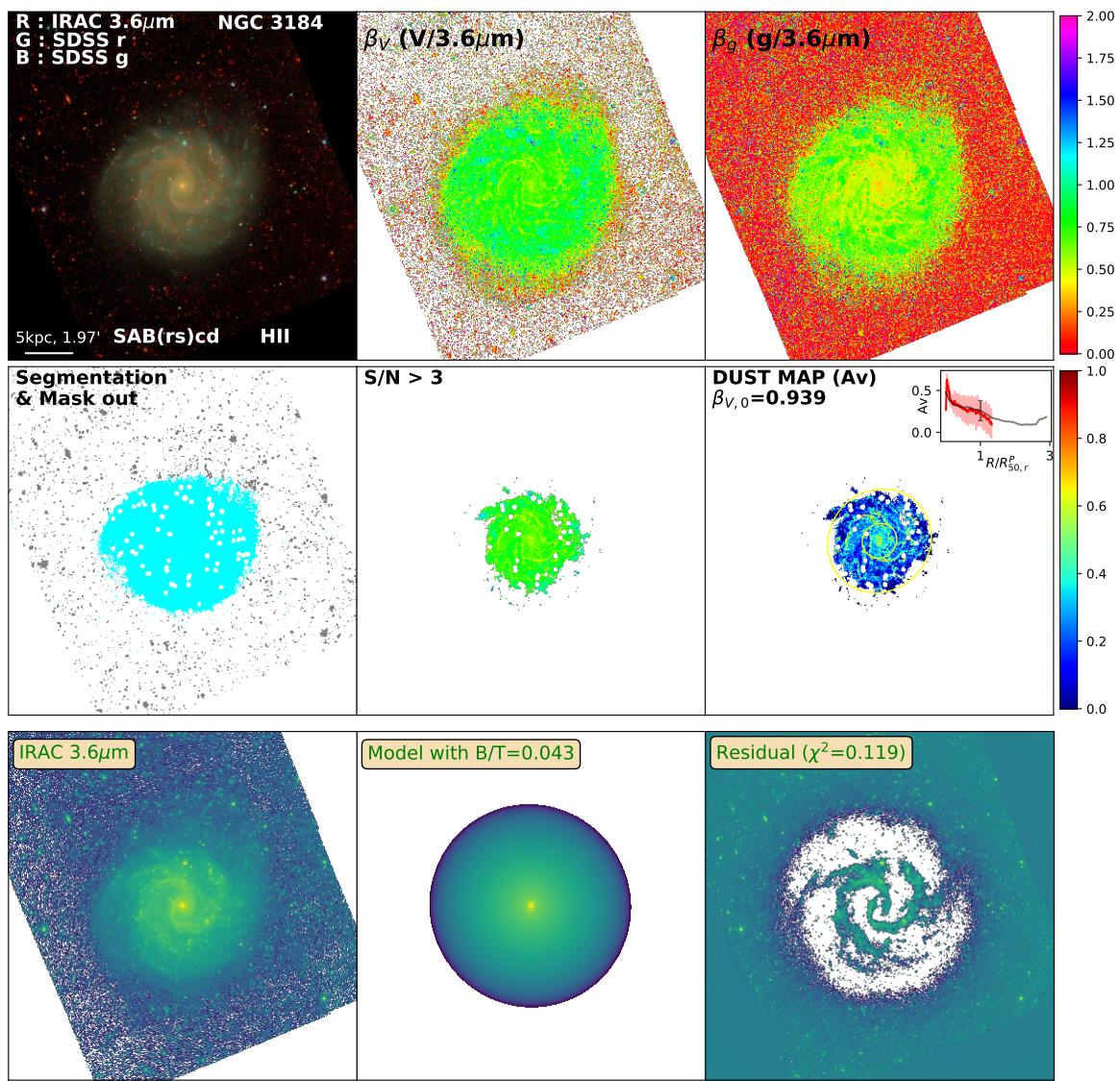


Figure D.74: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3184

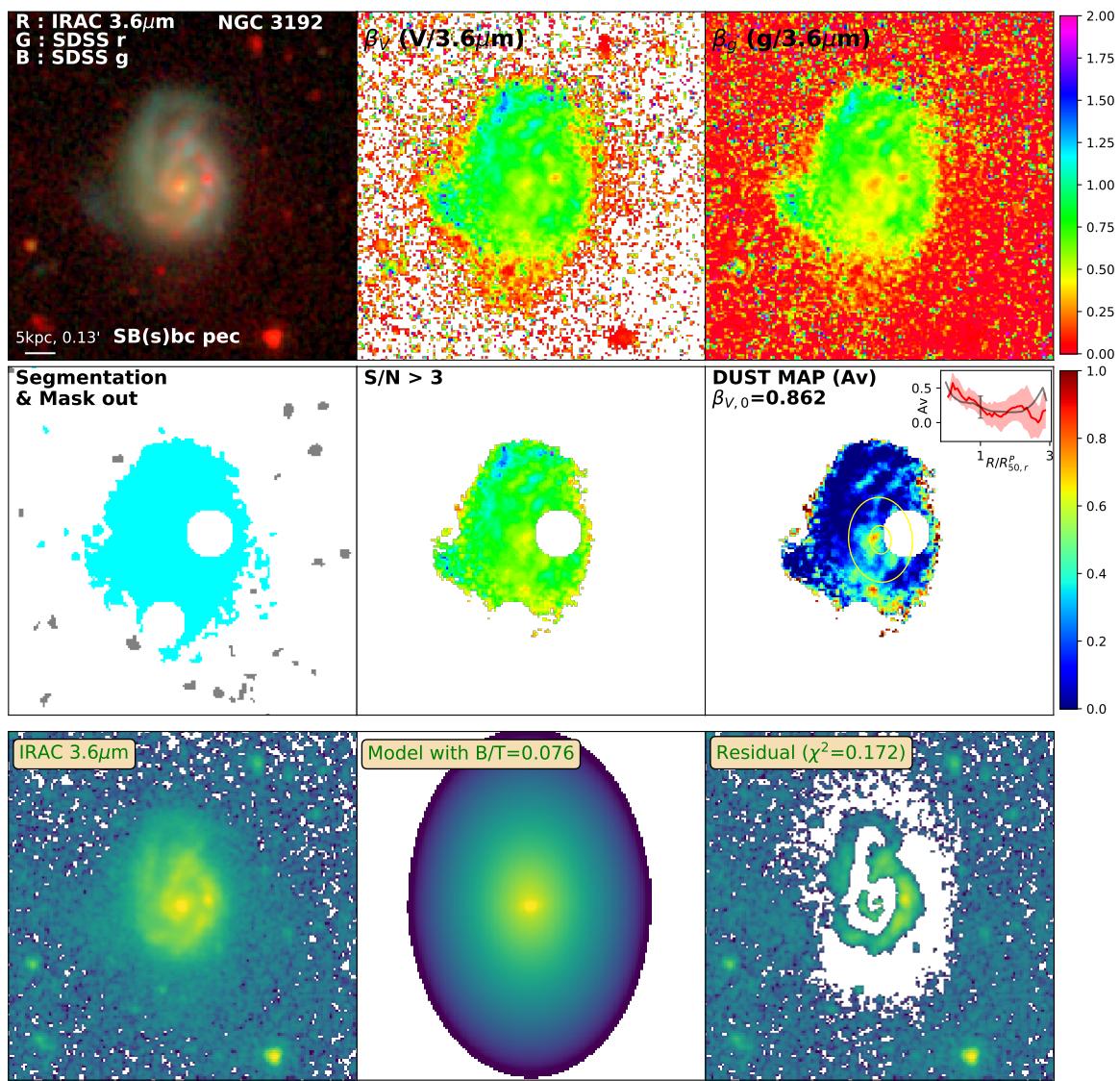


Figure D.75: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3192

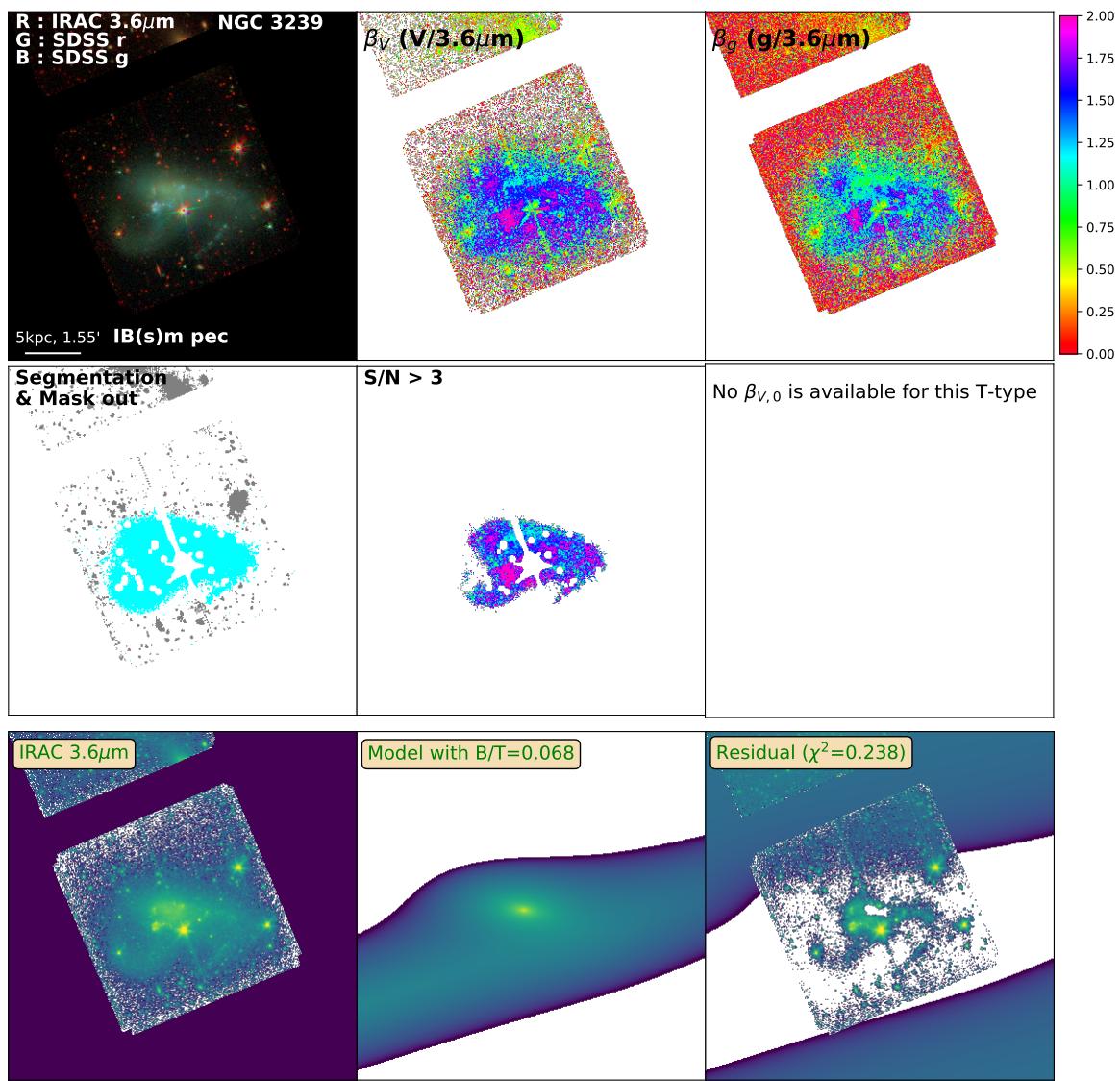


Figure D.76: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3239

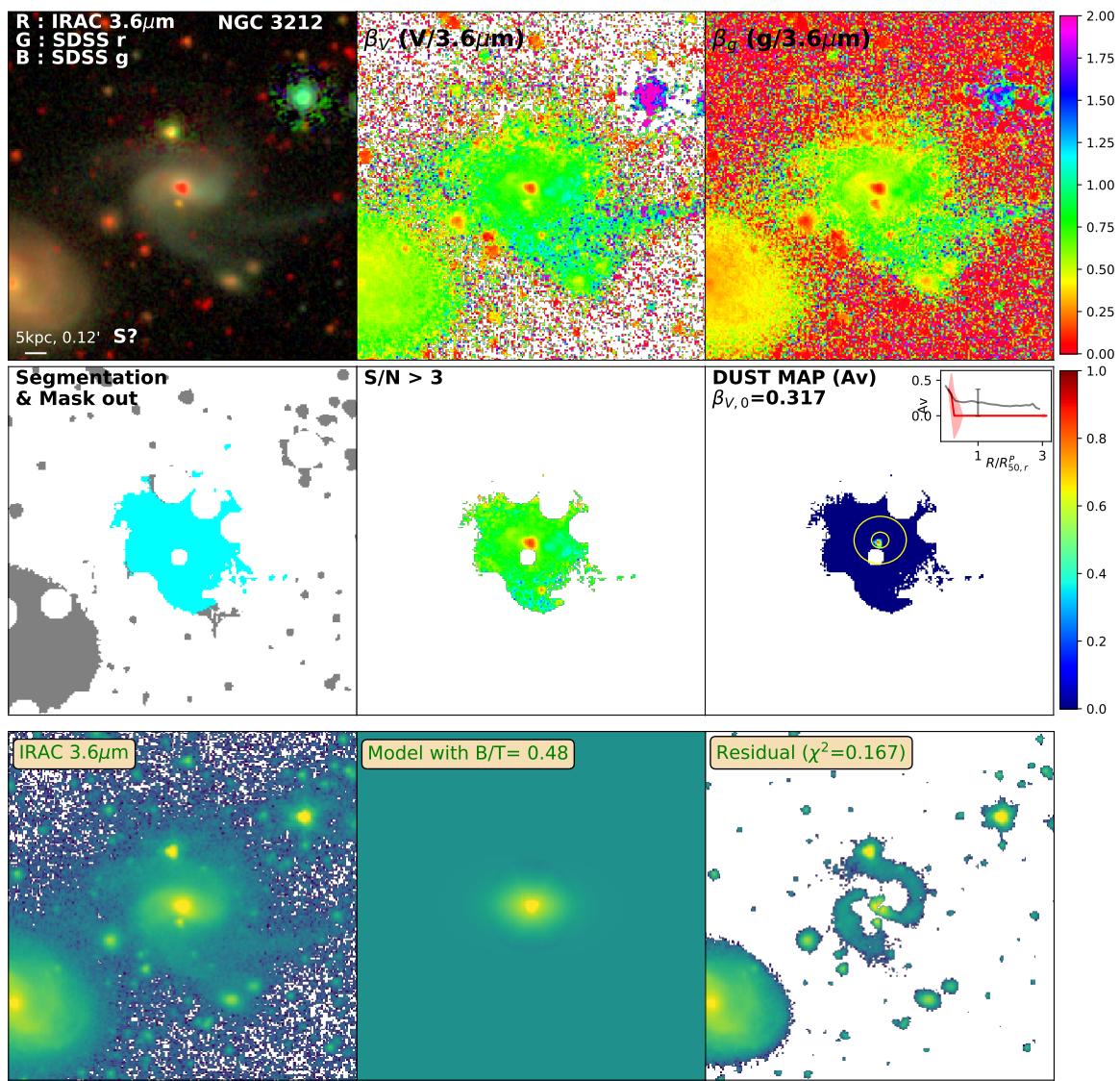


Figure D.77: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3212

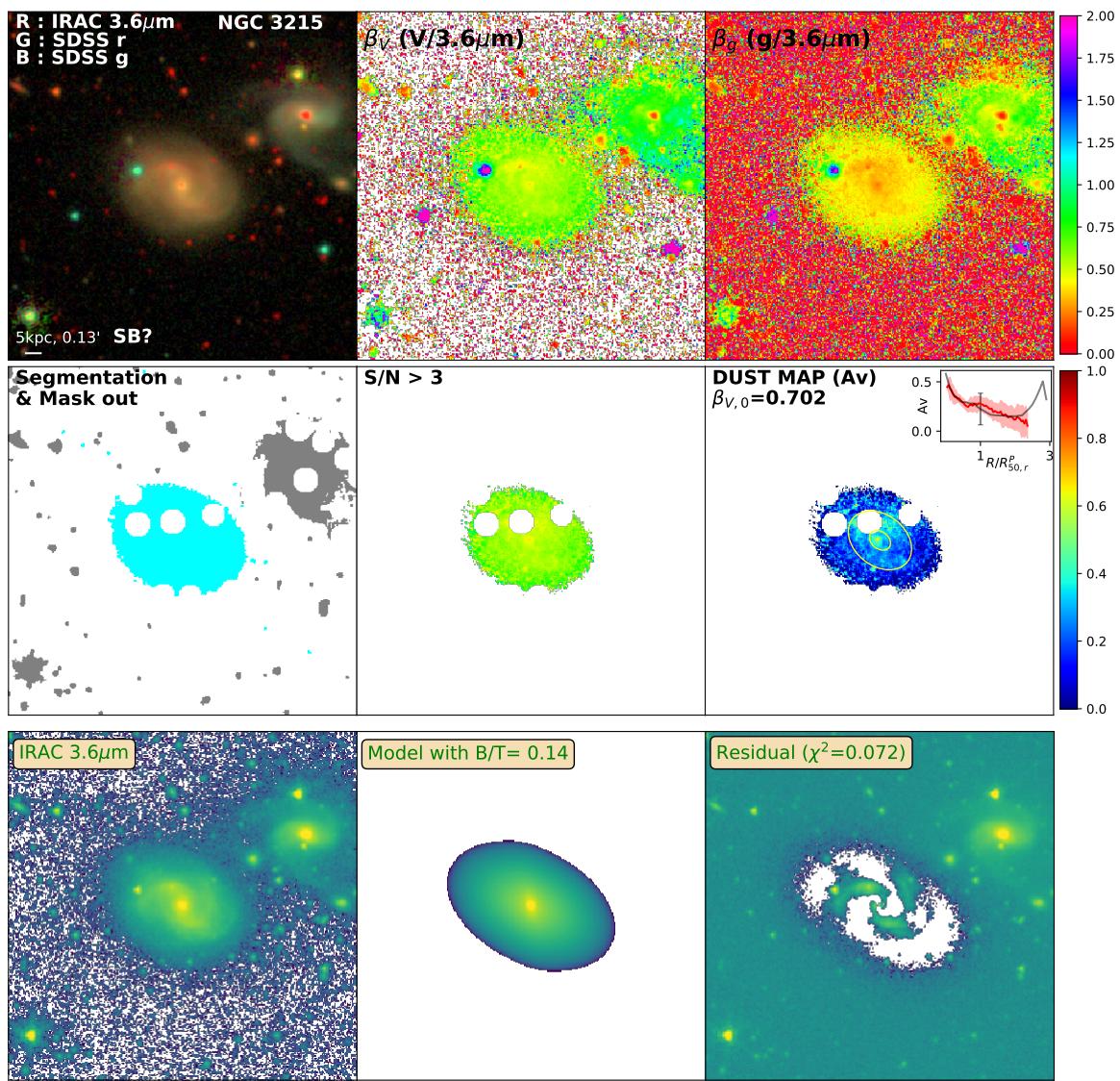


Figure D.78: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3215

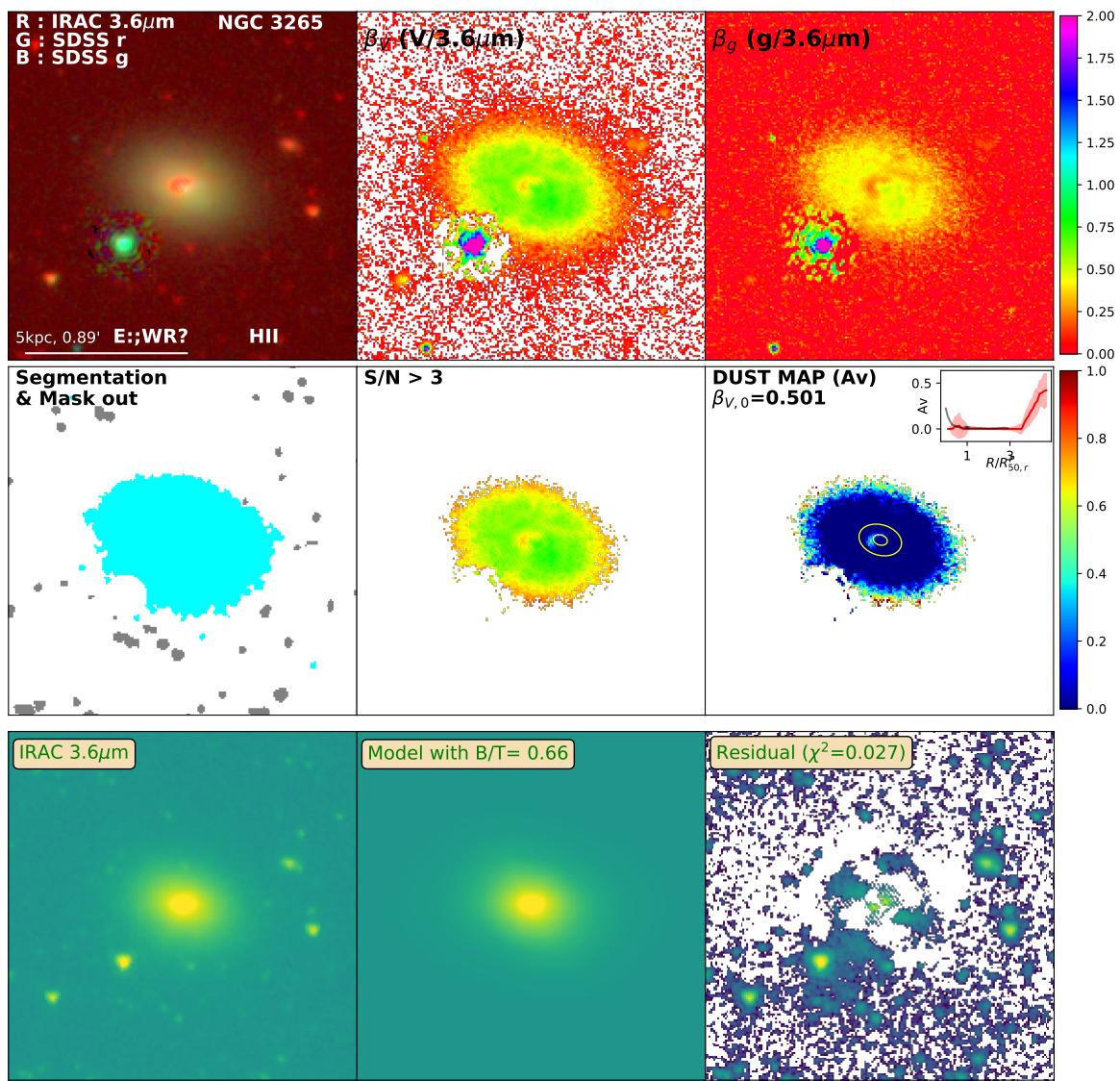


Figure D.79: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3265

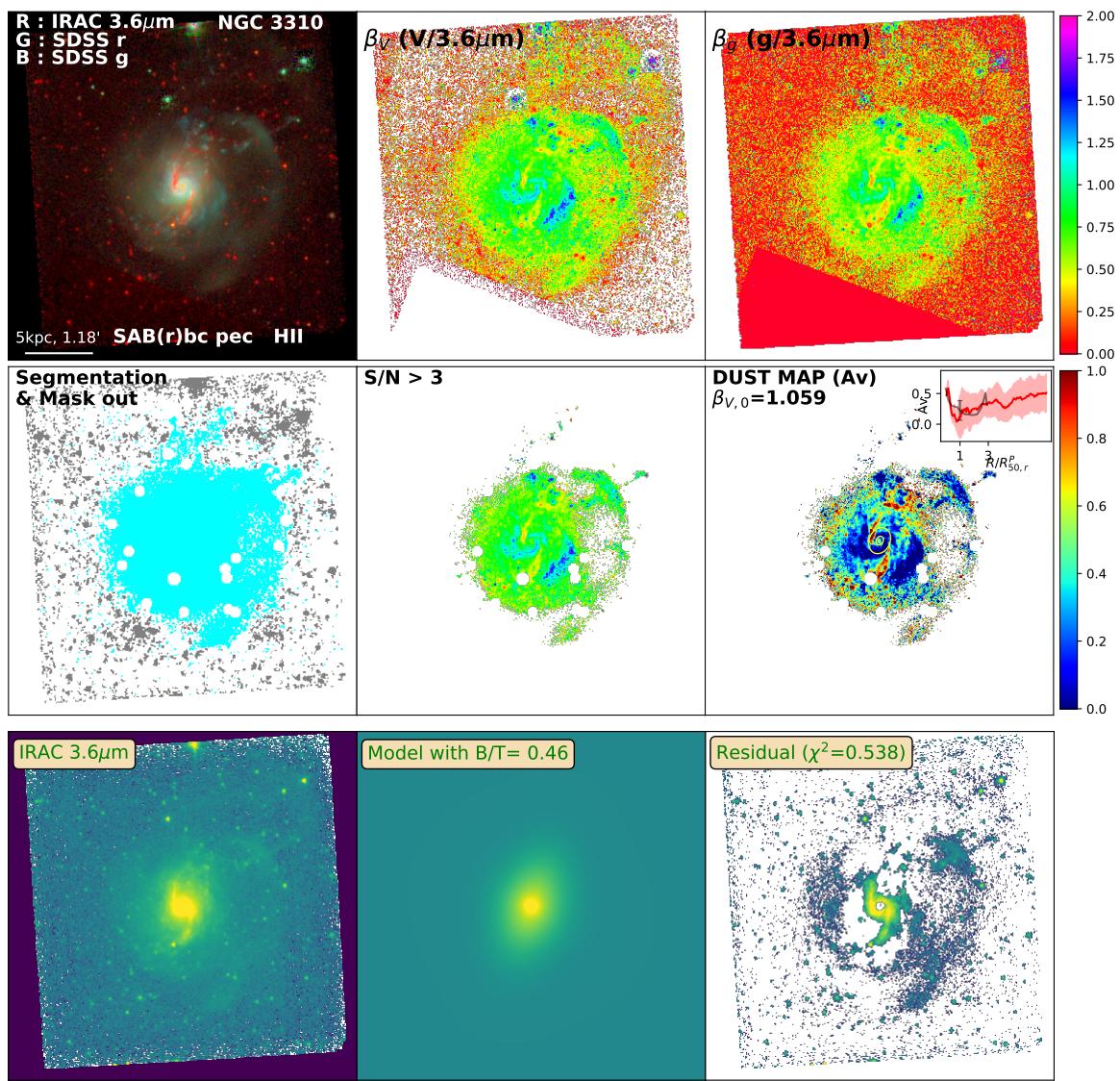


Figure D.80: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3310

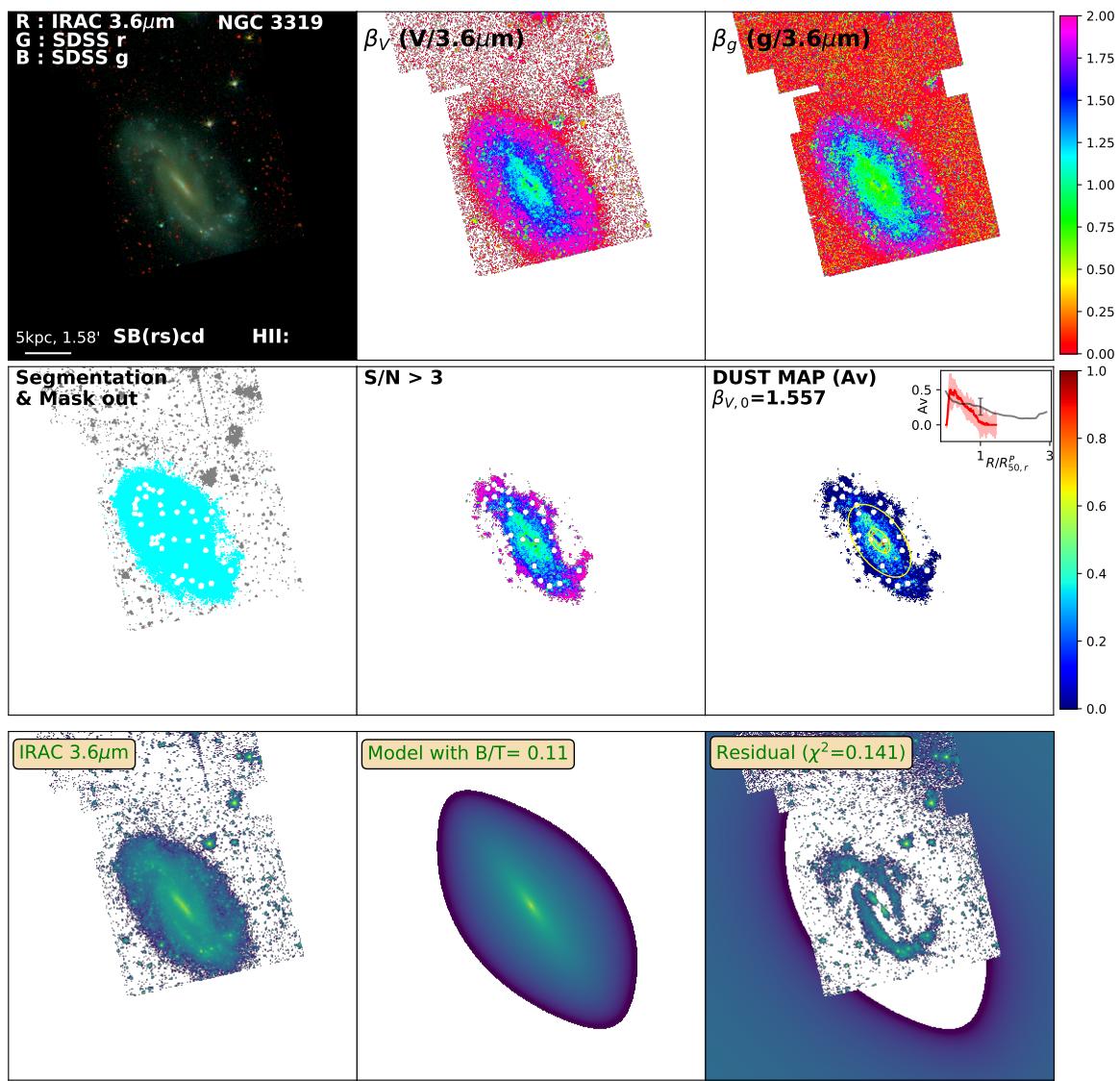


Figure D.81: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3319

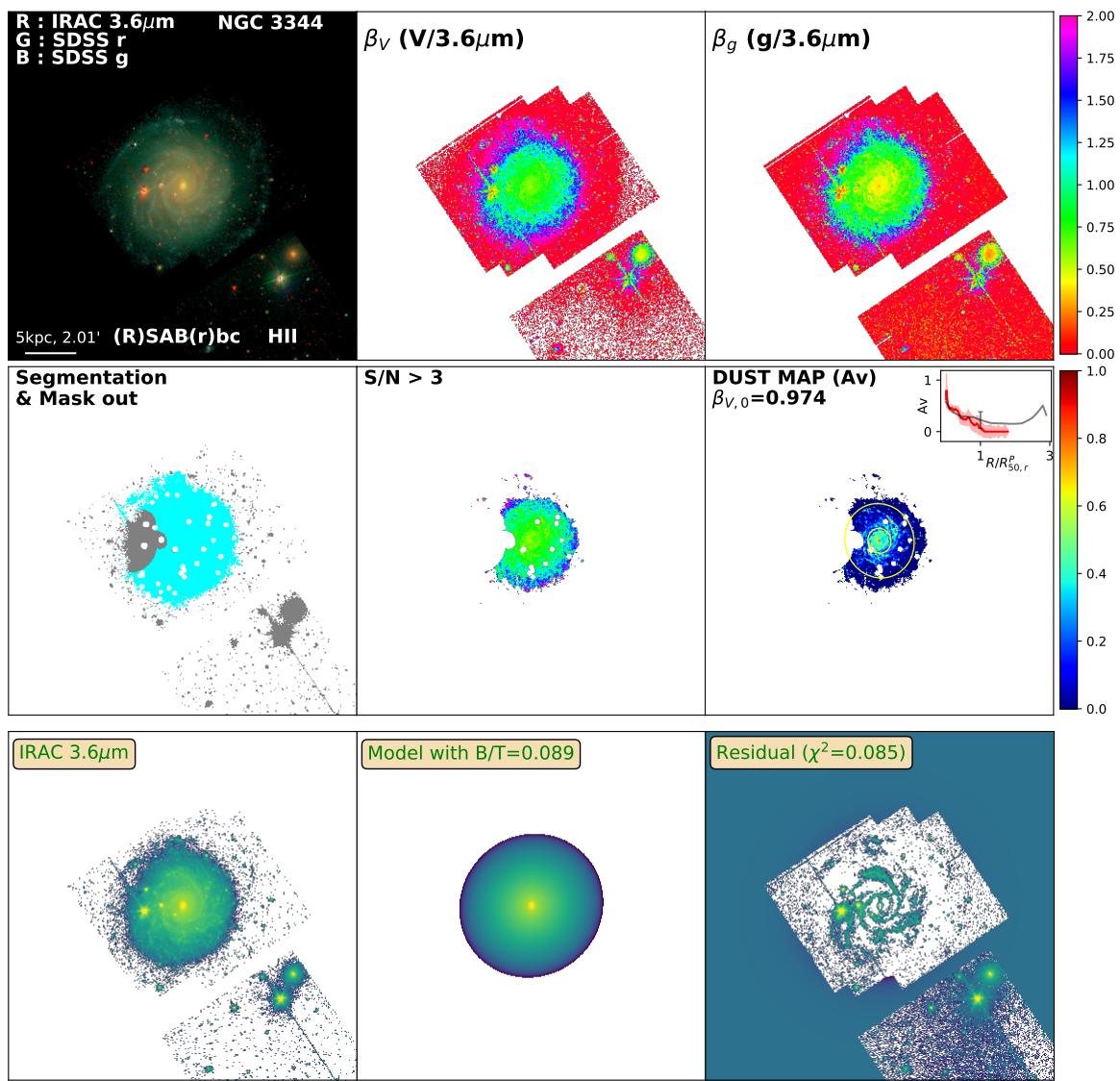


Figure D.82: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3344

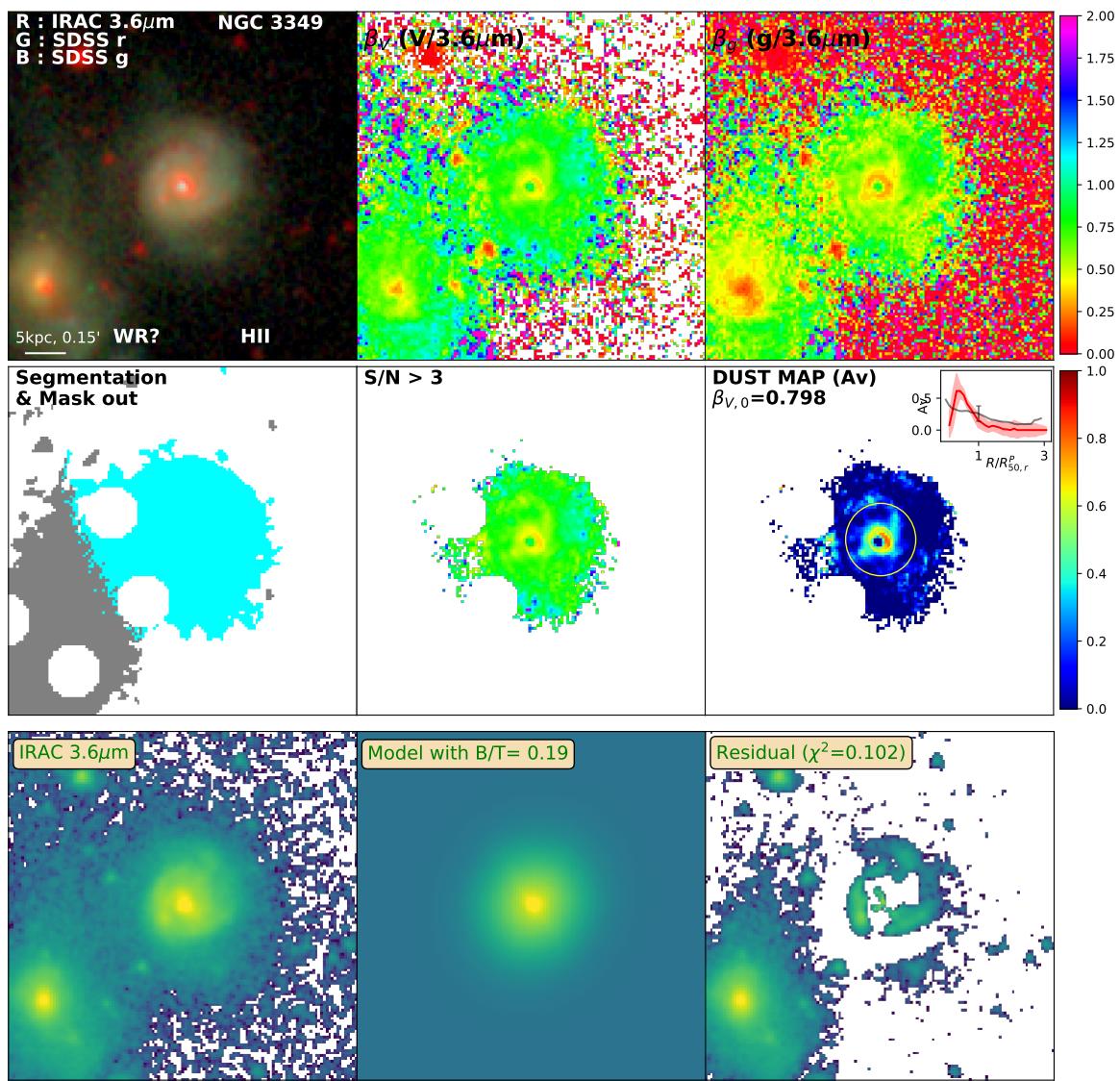


Figure D.83: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3349

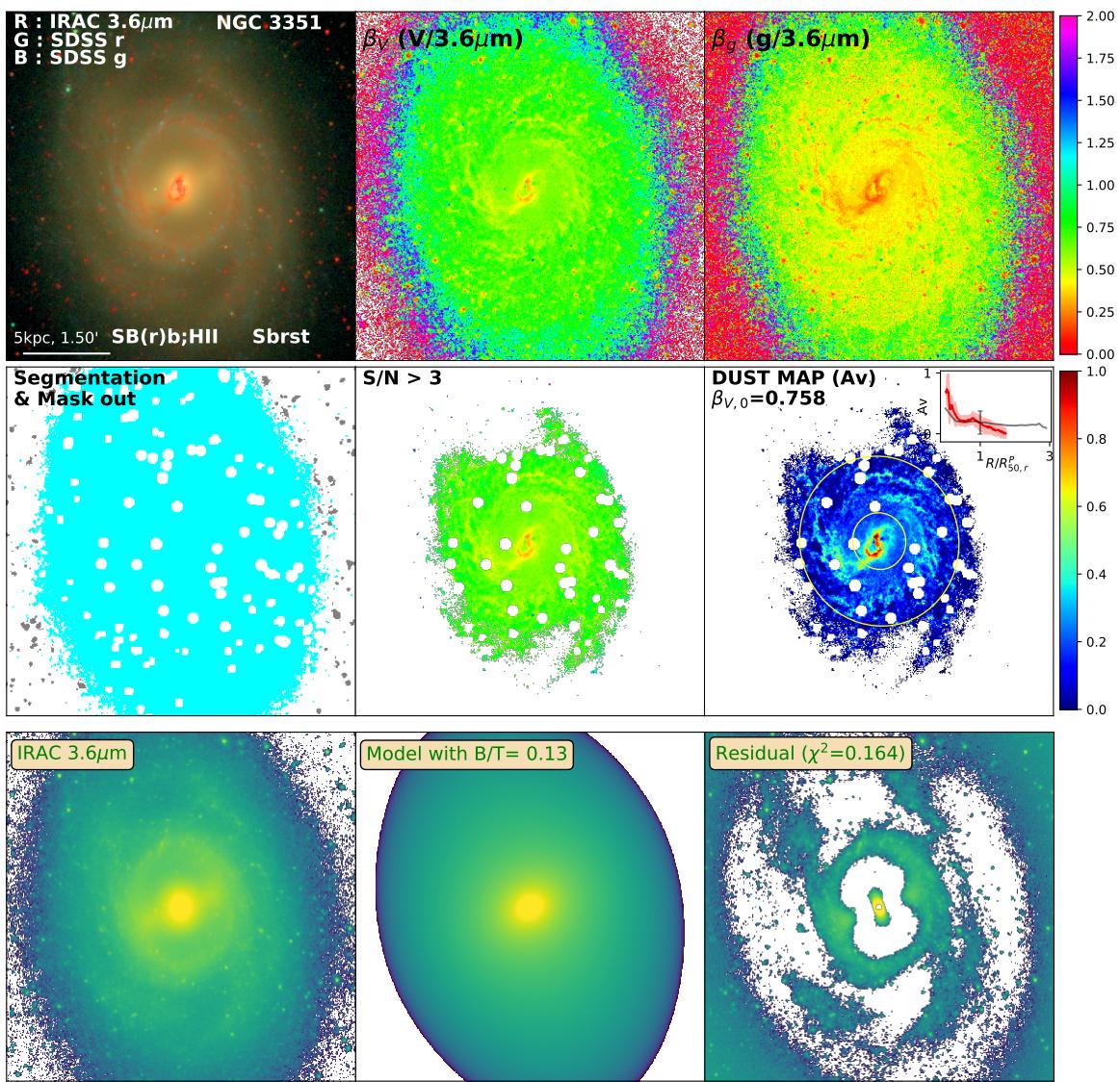


Figure D.84: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3351

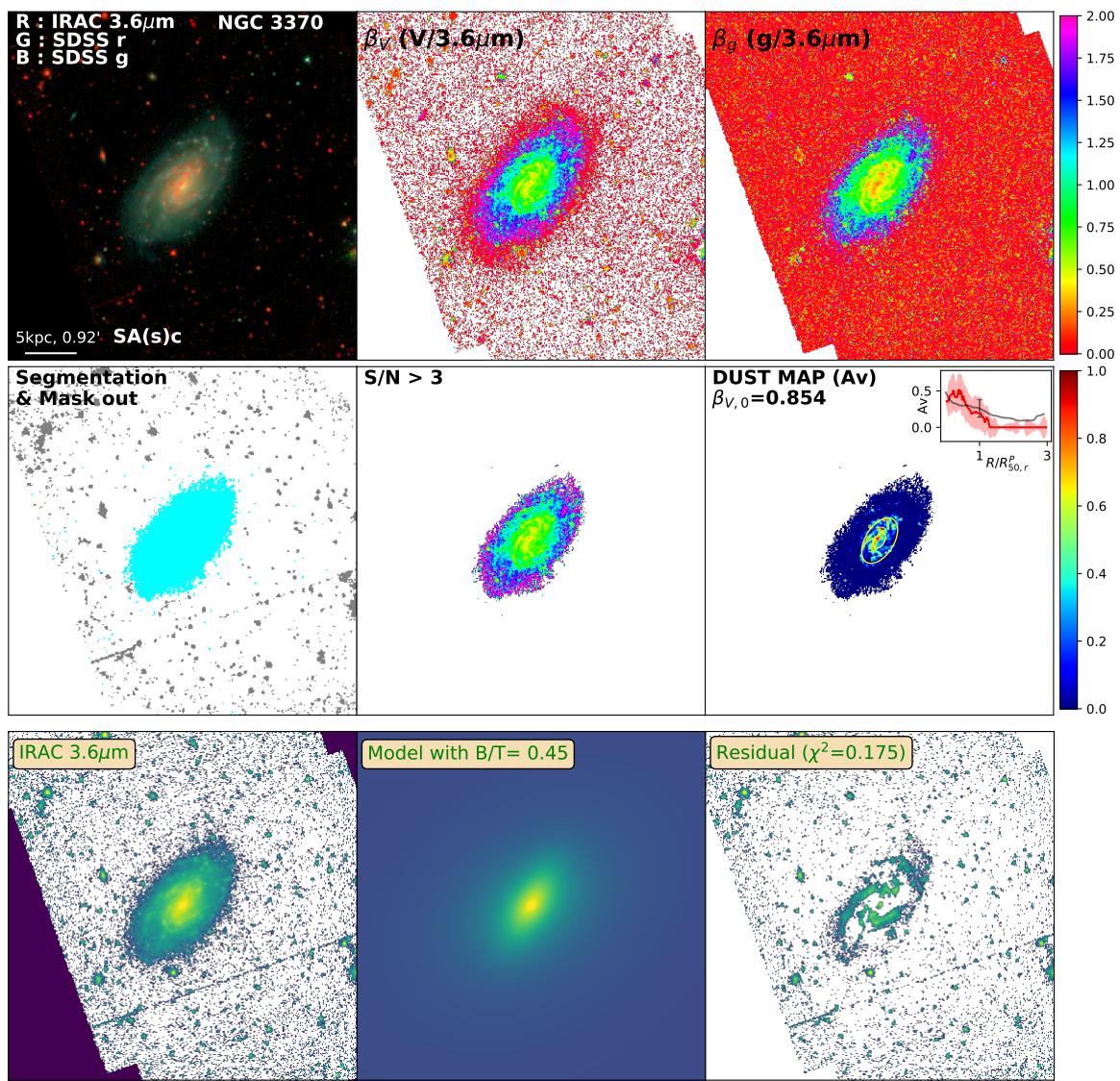


Figure D.85: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3370

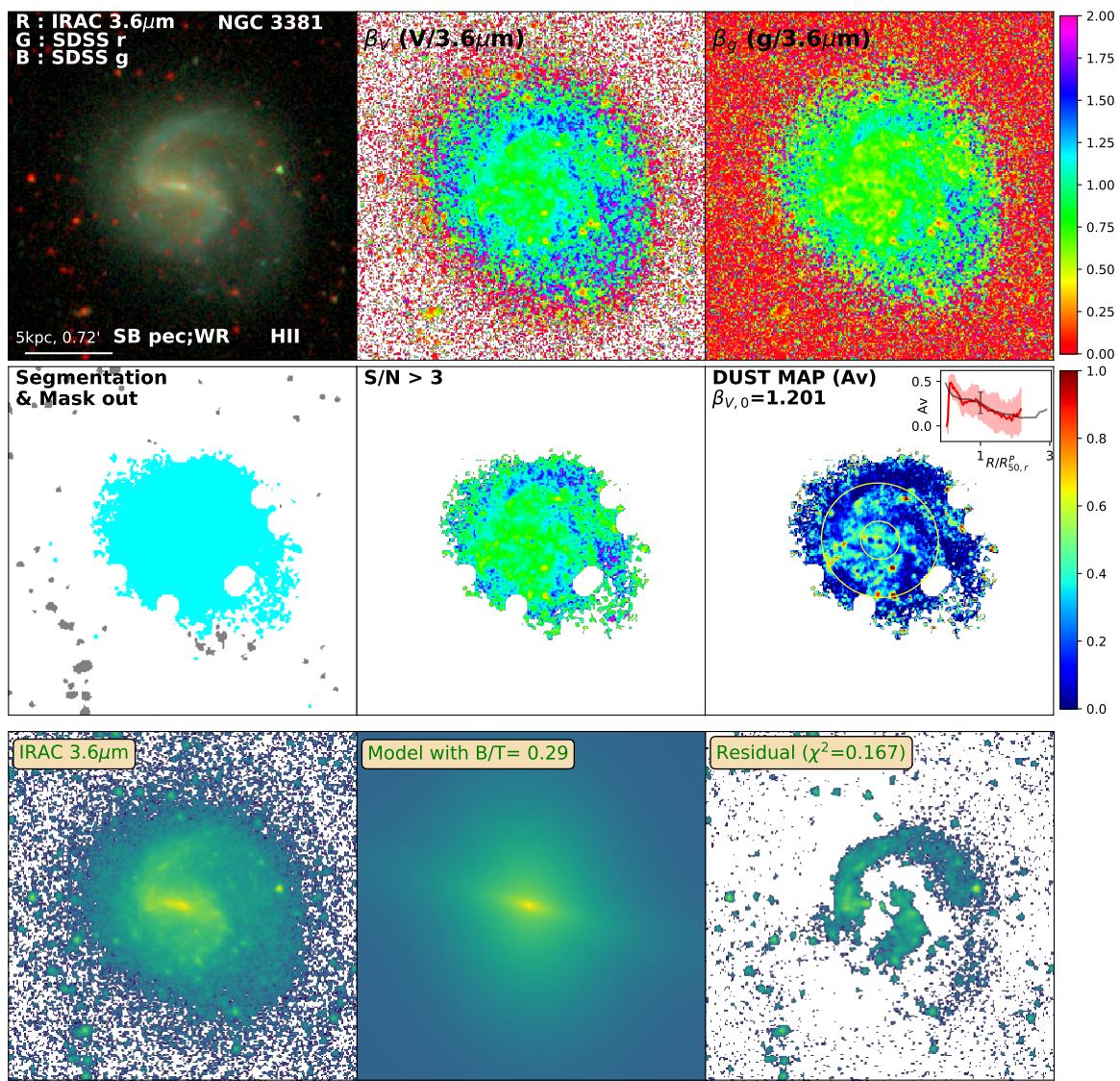


Figure D.86: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3381

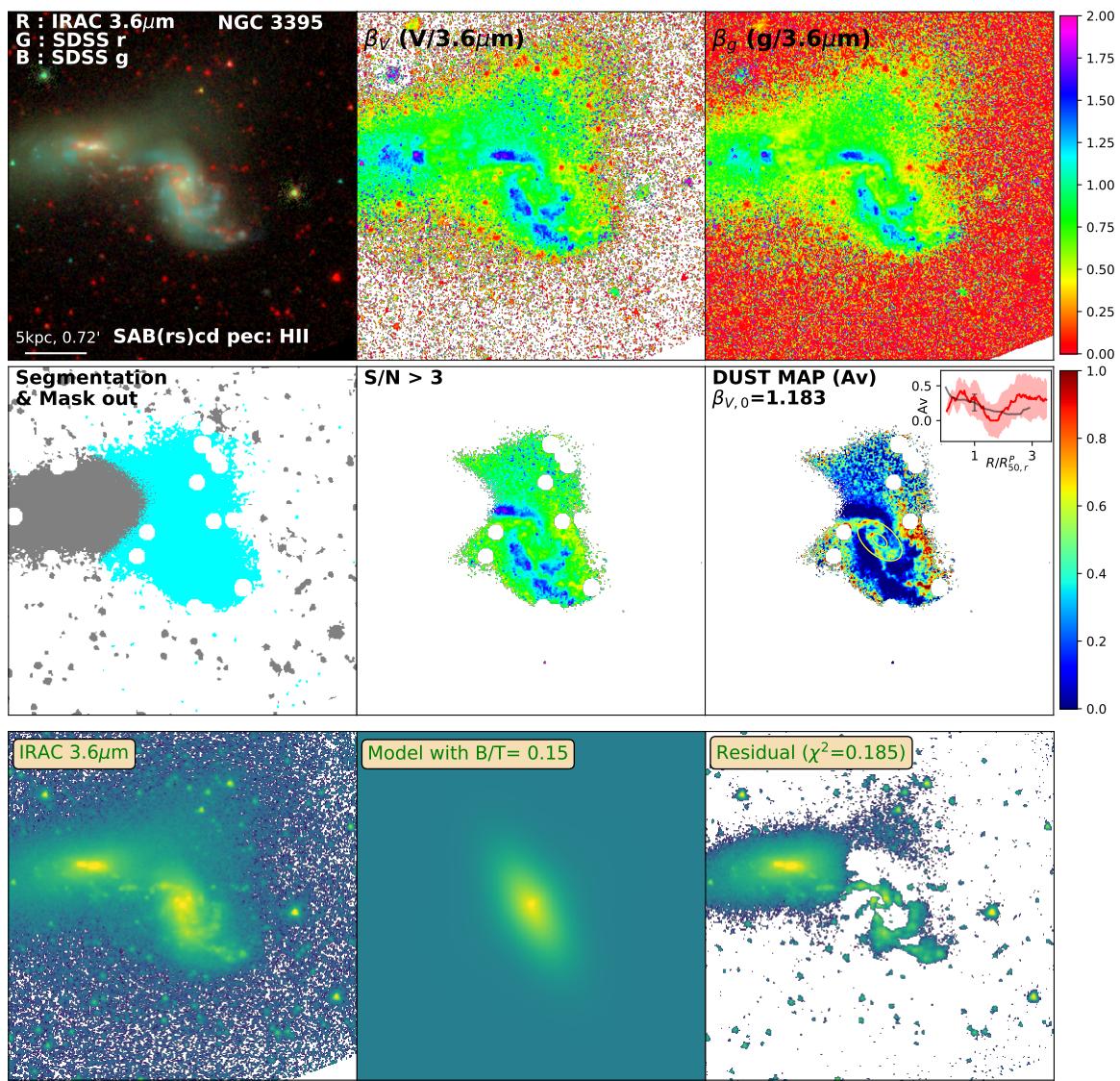


Figure D.87: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3395

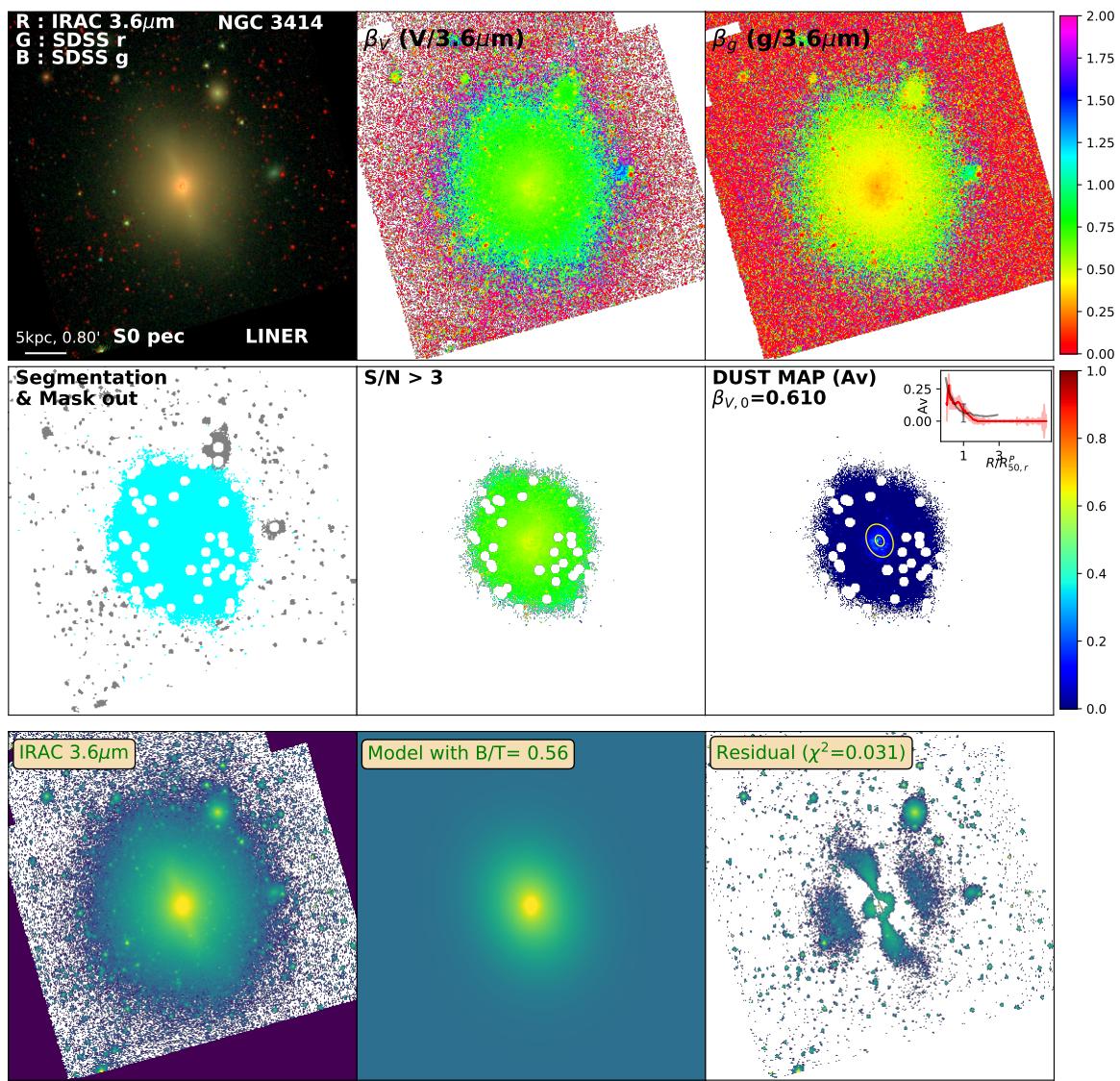


Figure D.88: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3414

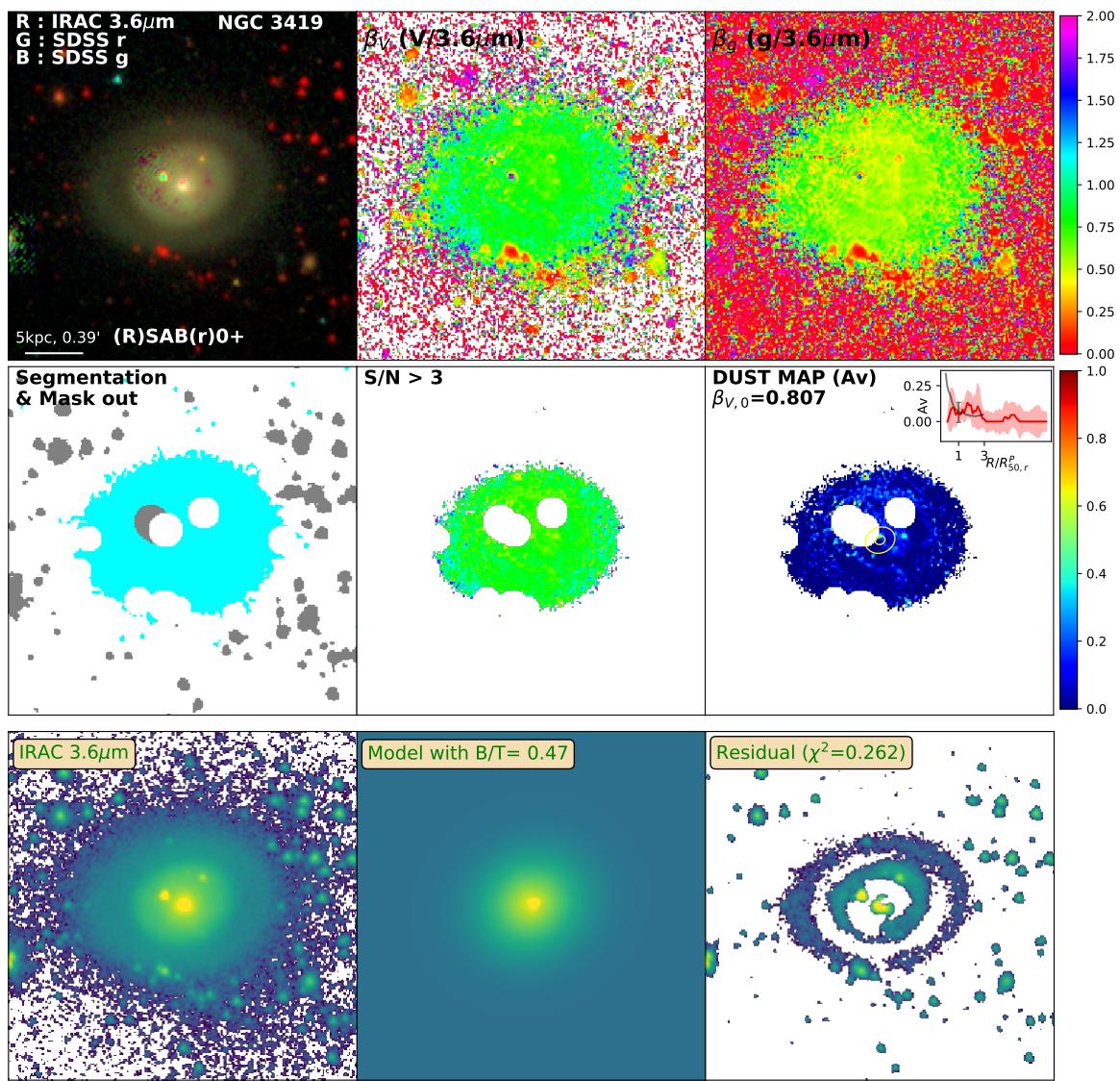


Figure D.89: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3419

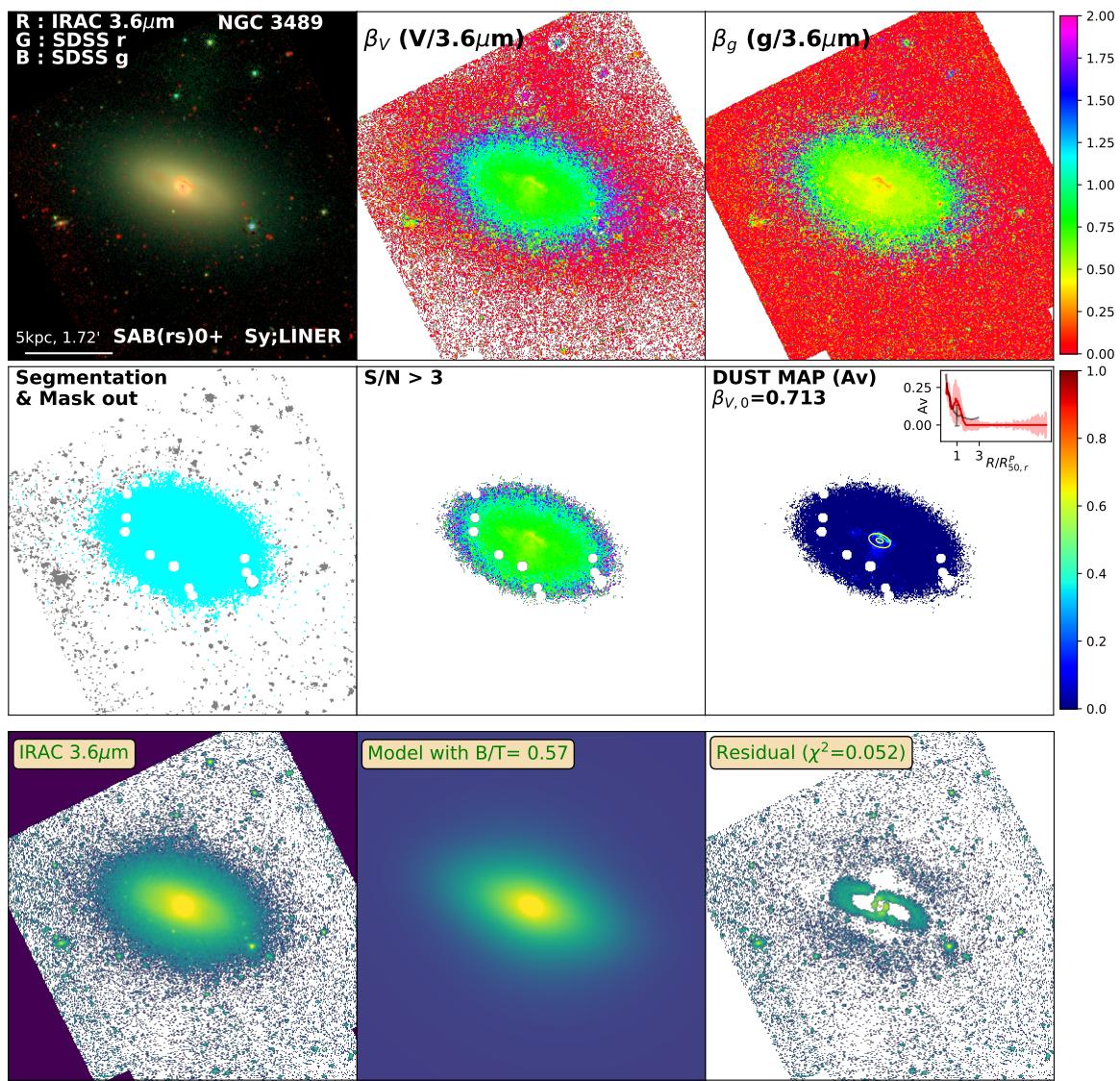


Figure D.90: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3489

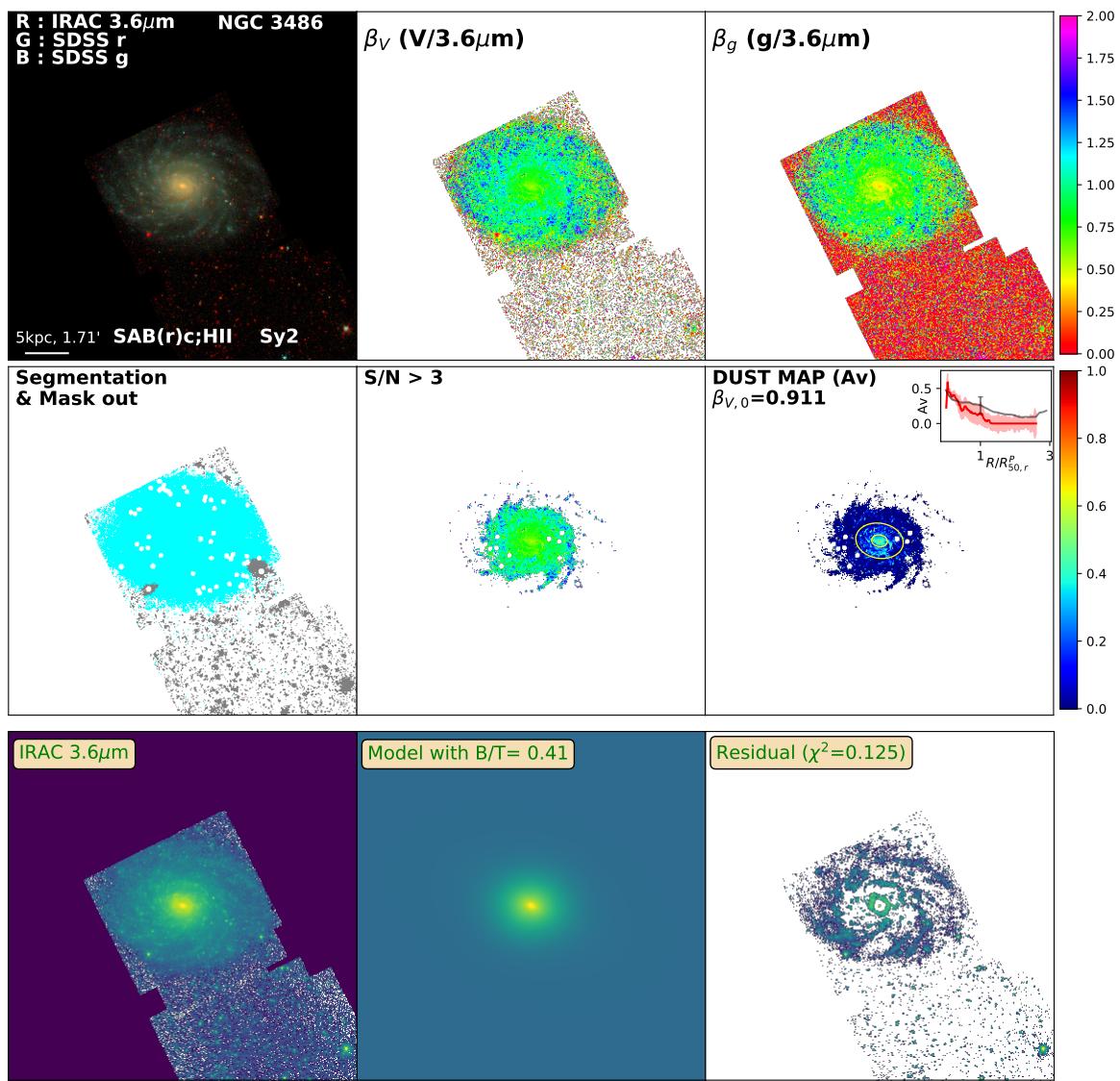


Figure D.91: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3486

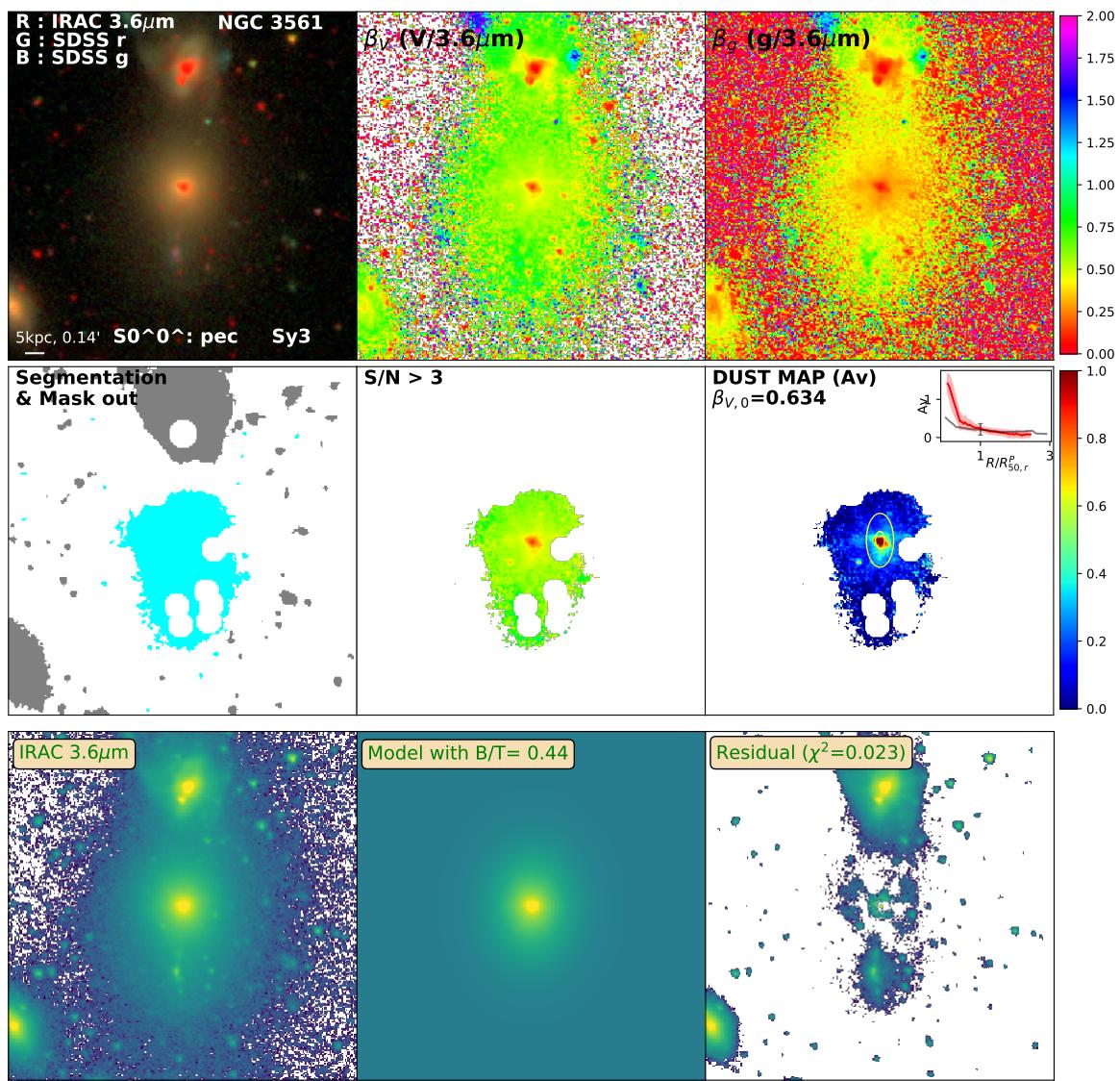


Figure D.92: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3561

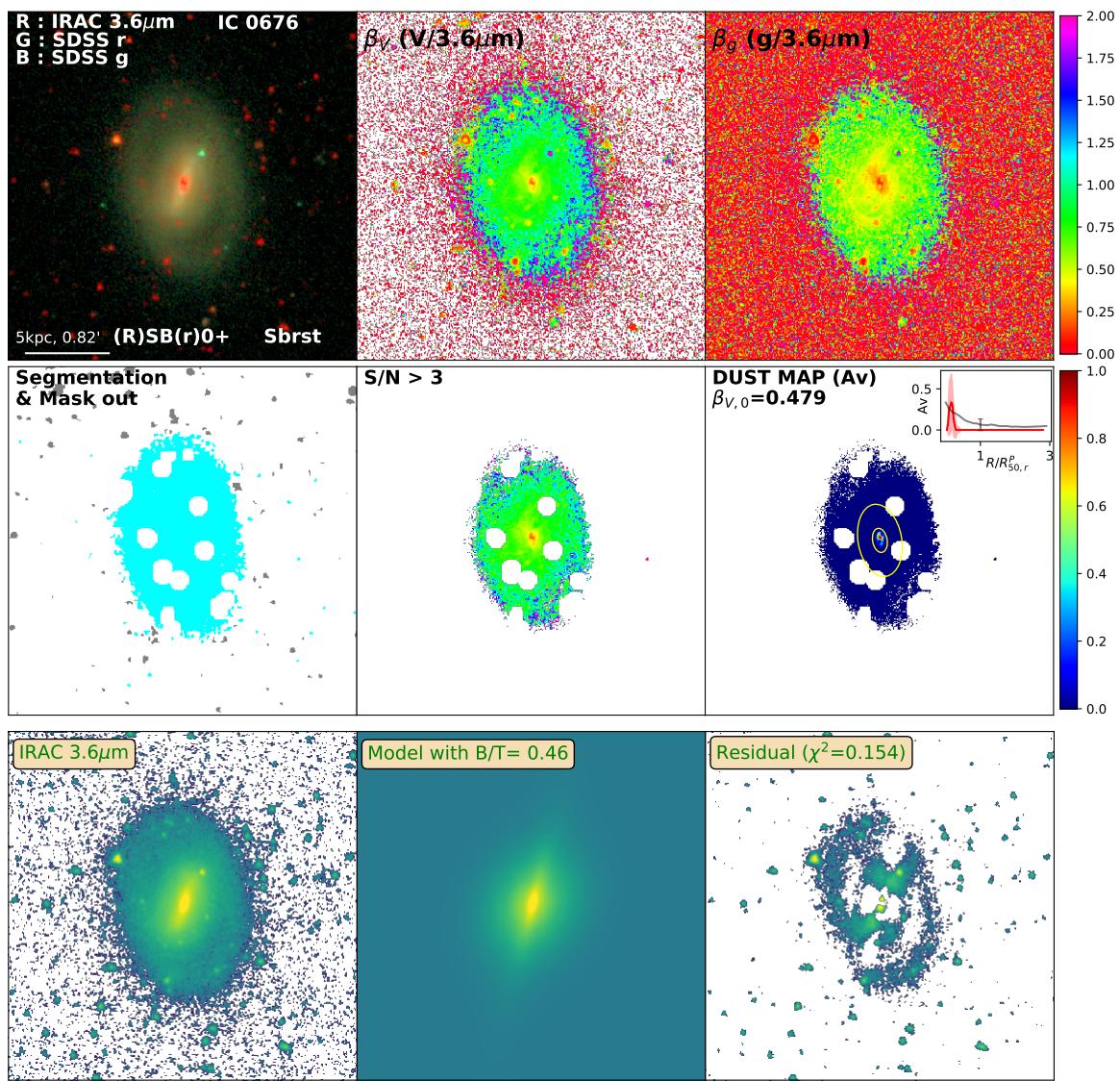


Figure D.93: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0676

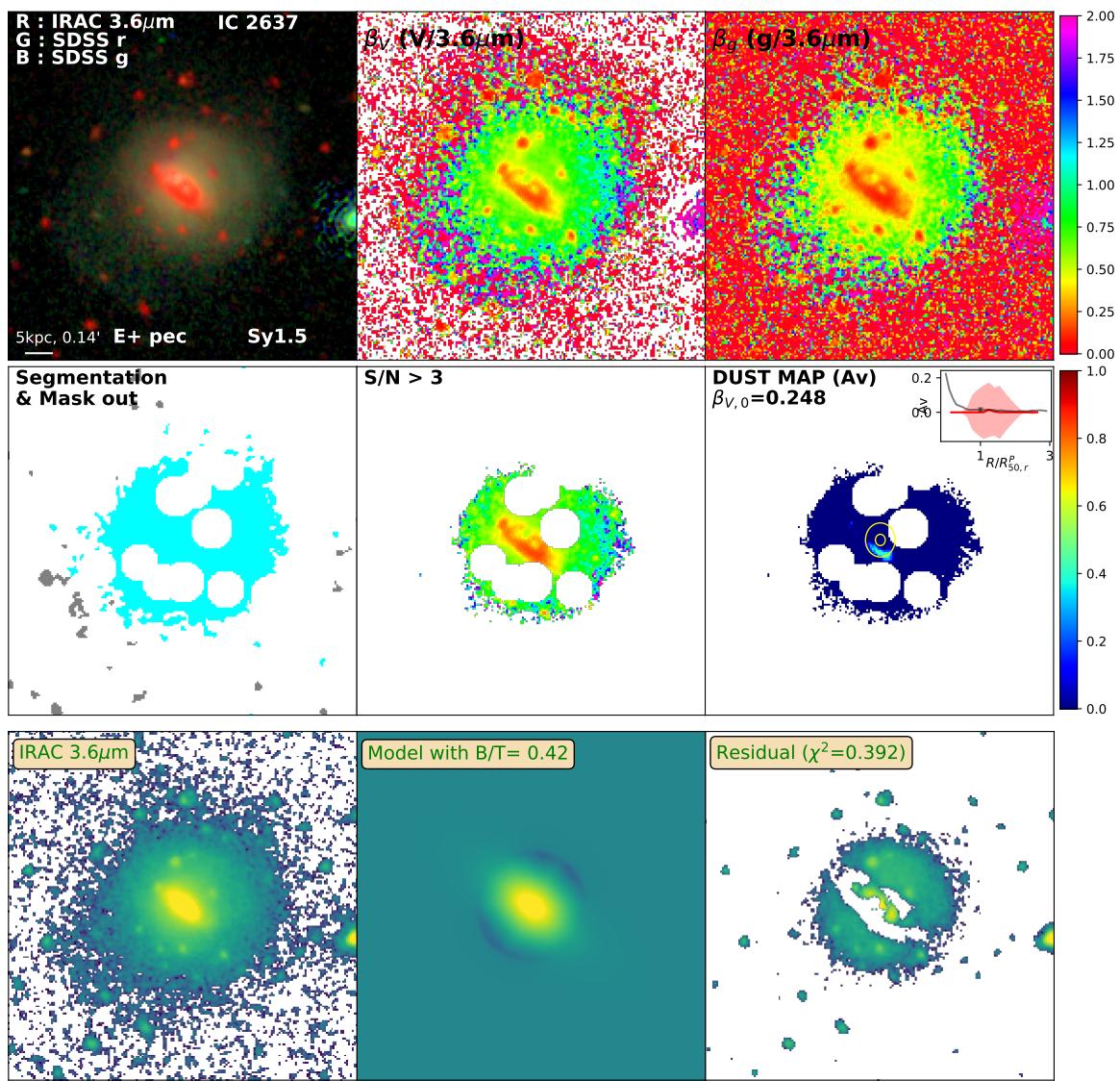


Figure D.94: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC2637

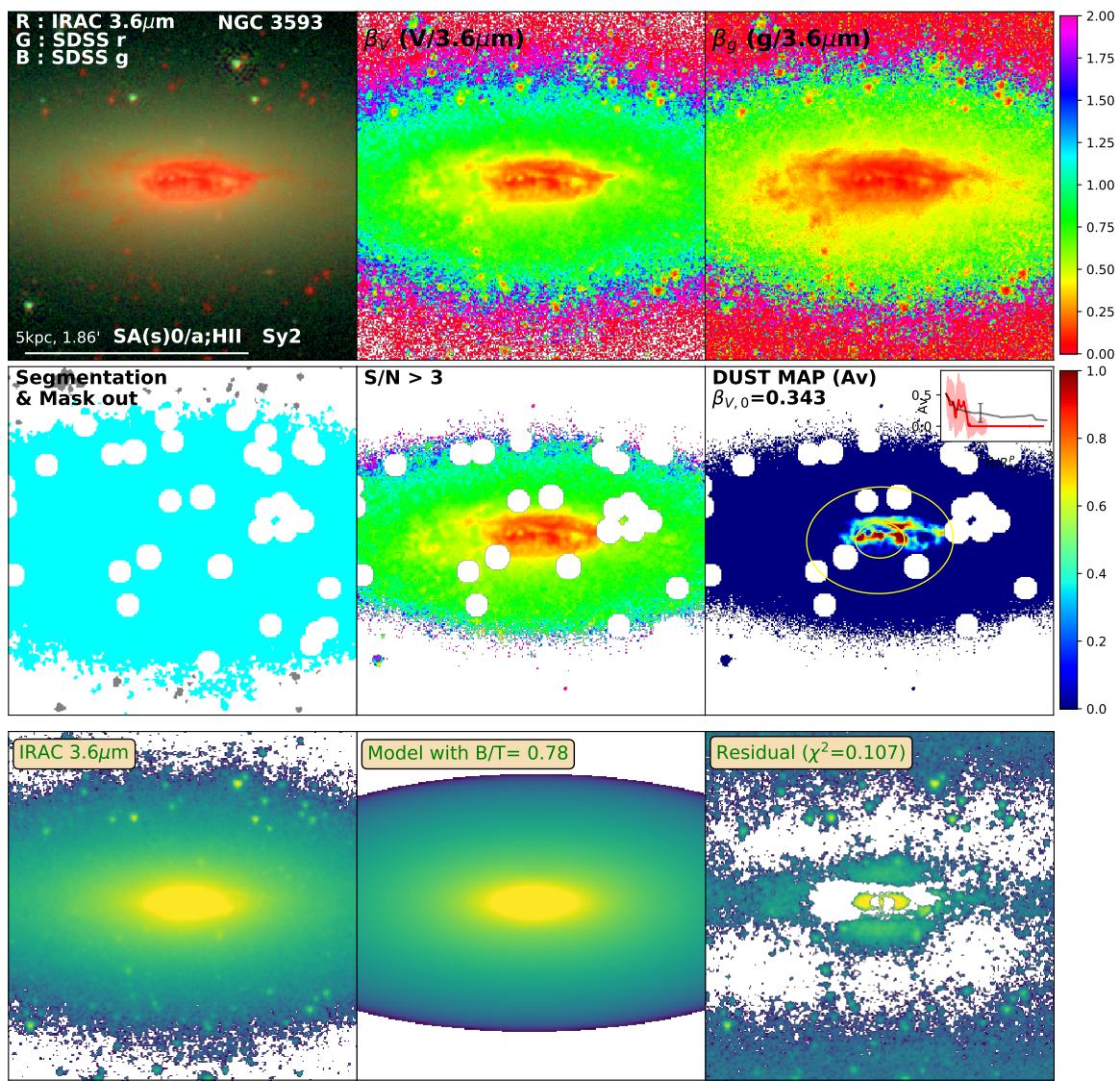


Figure D.95: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3593

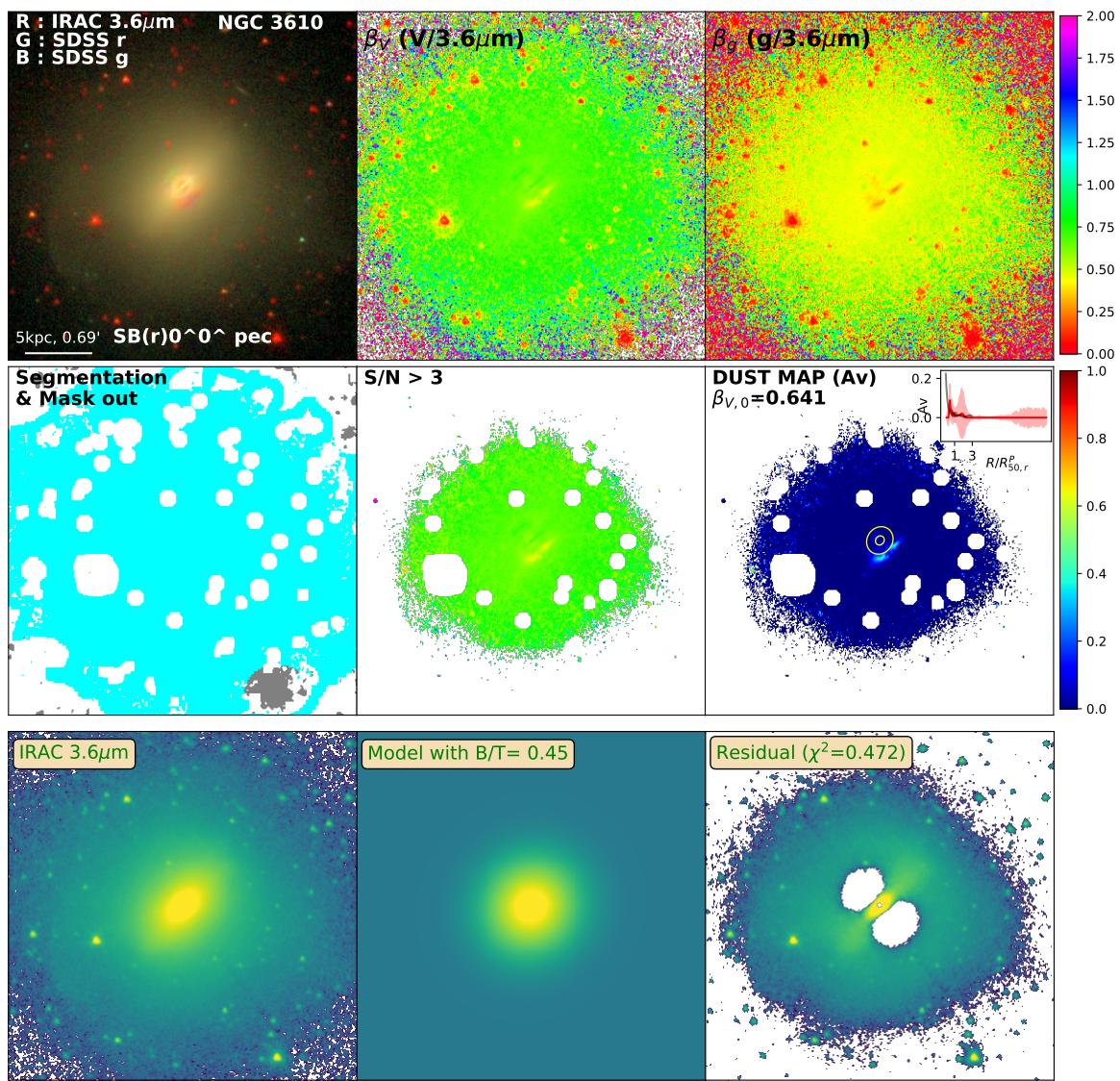


Figure D.96: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3610

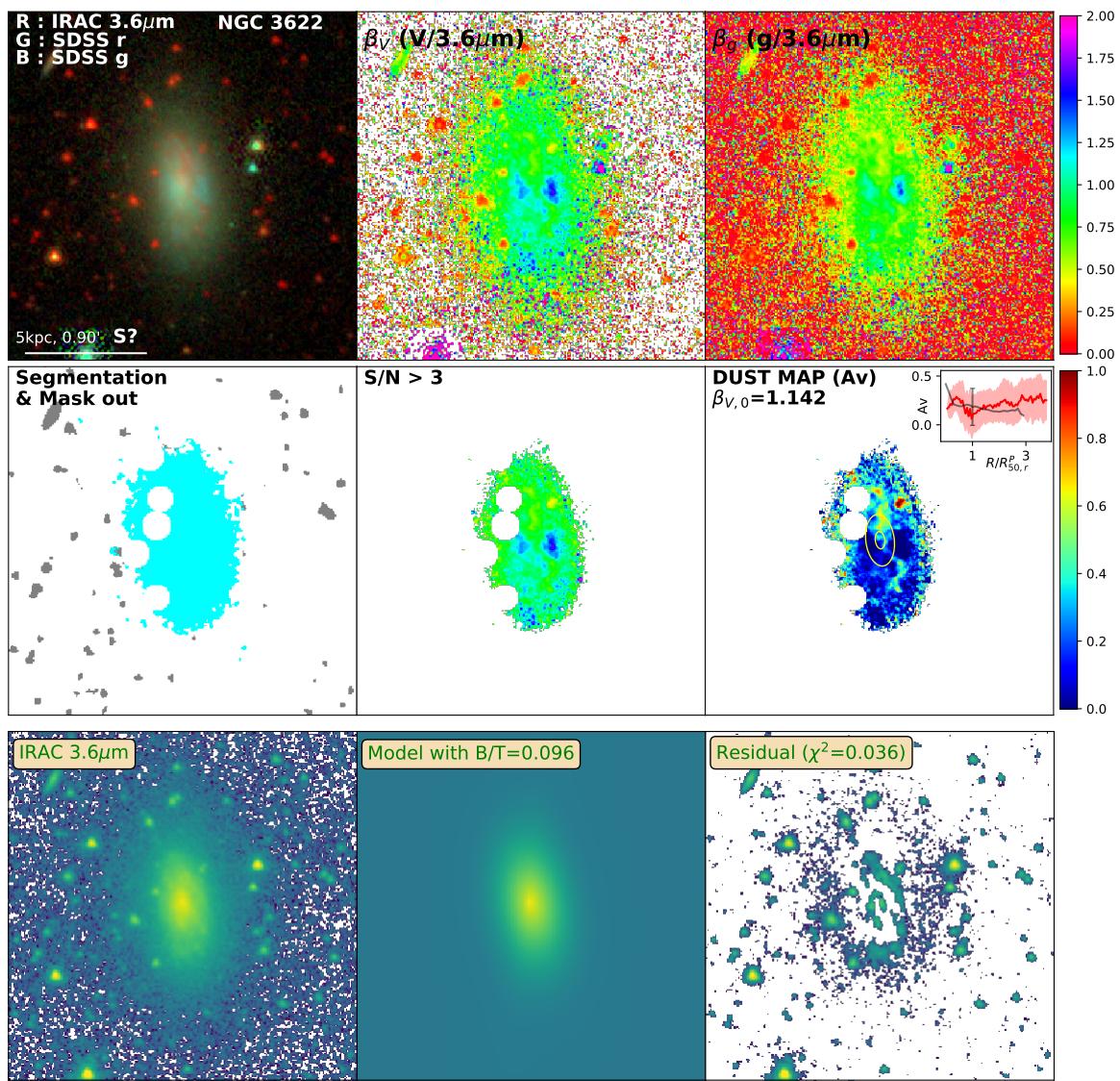


Figure D.97: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3622

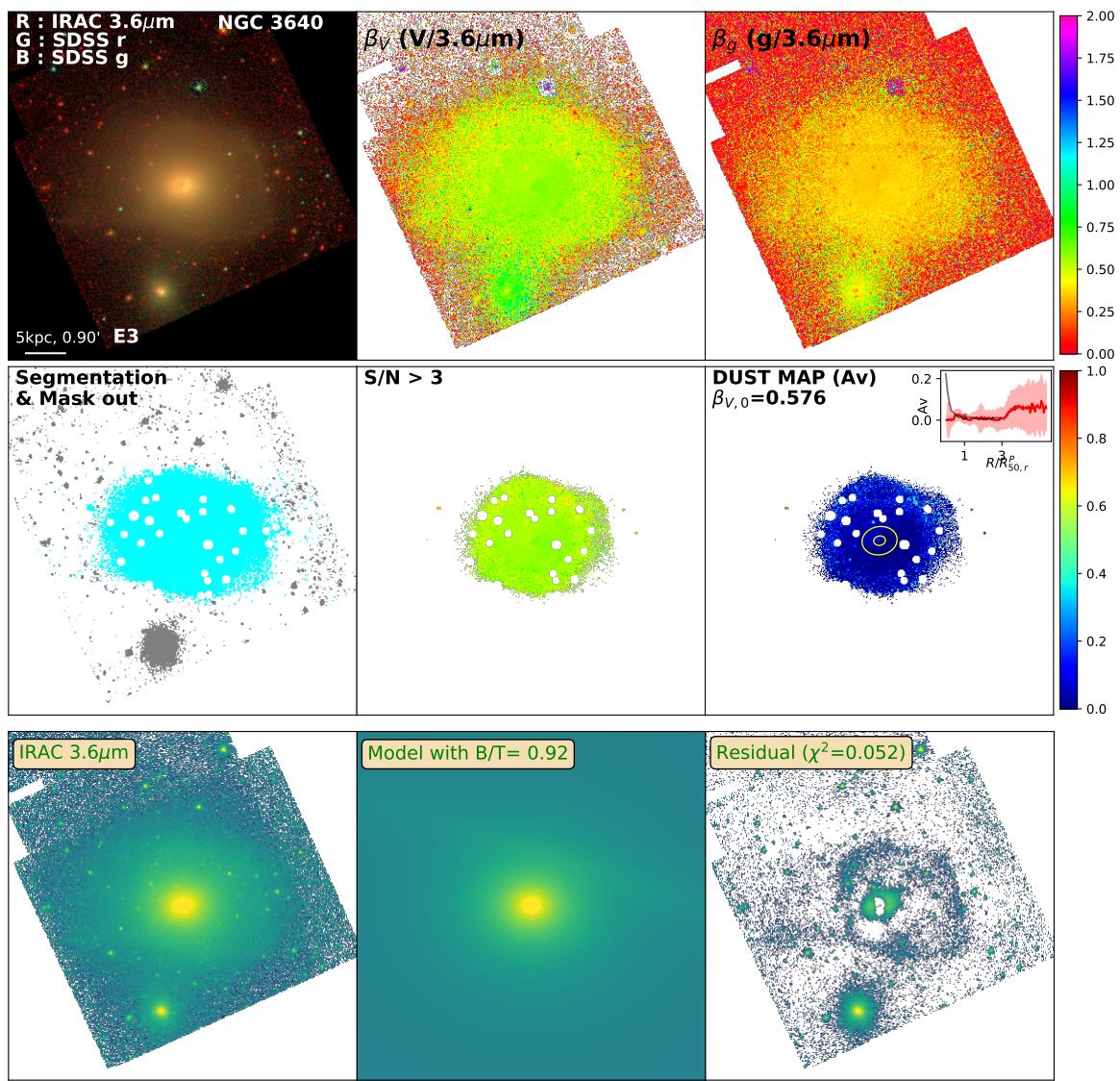


Figure D.98: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3640

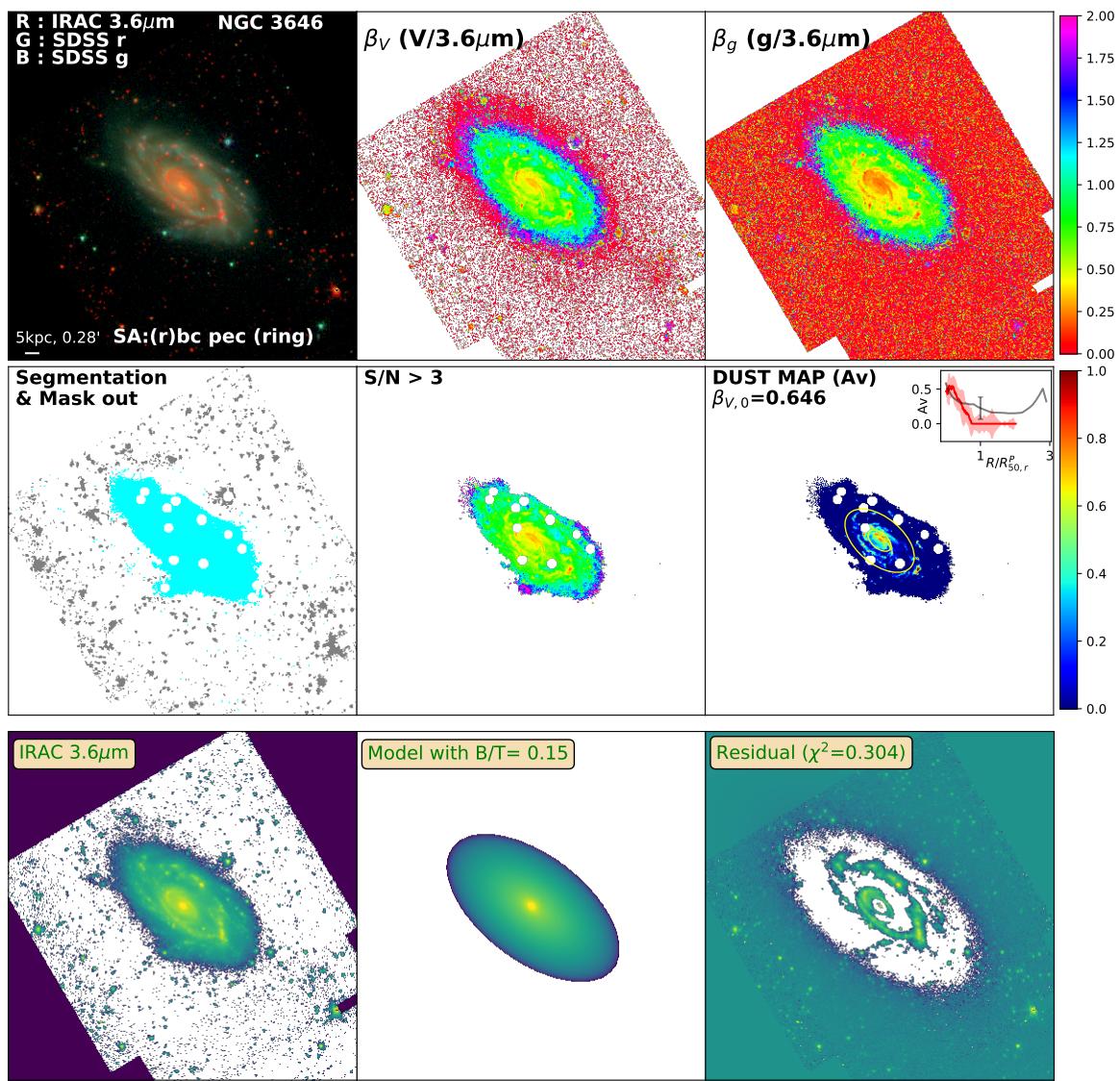


Figure D.99: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3646

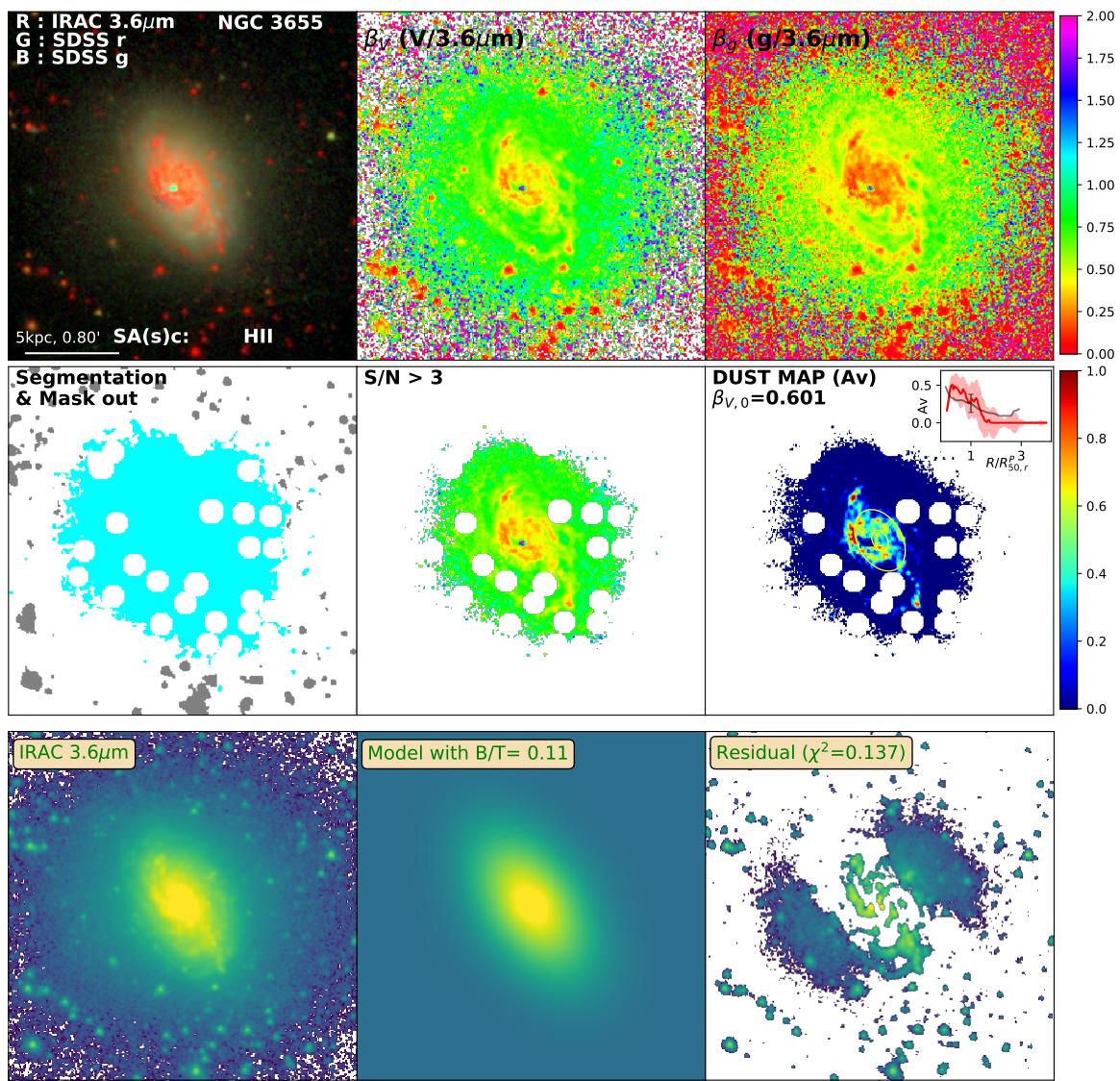


Figure D.100: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3655

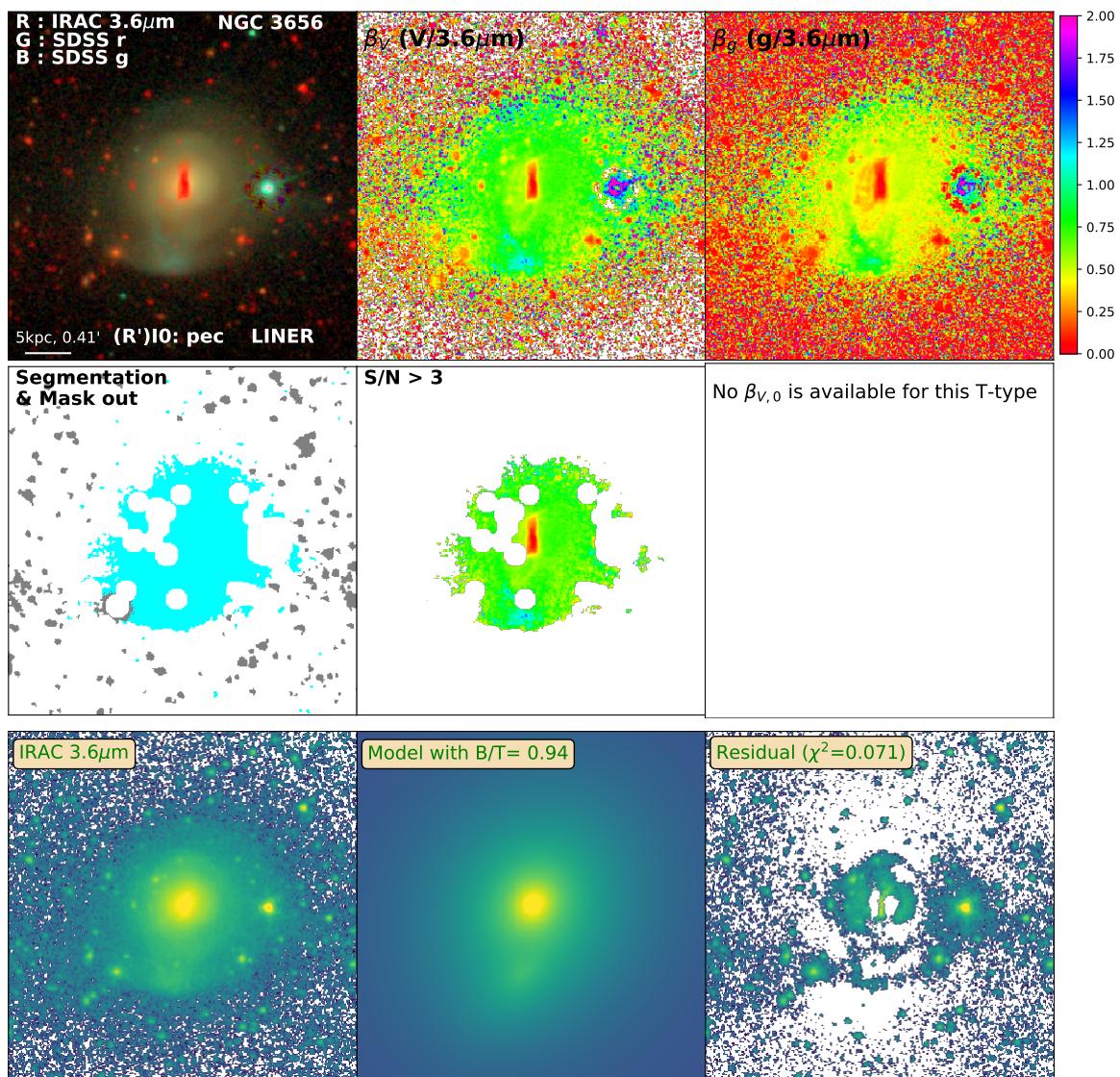


Figure D.101: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3656

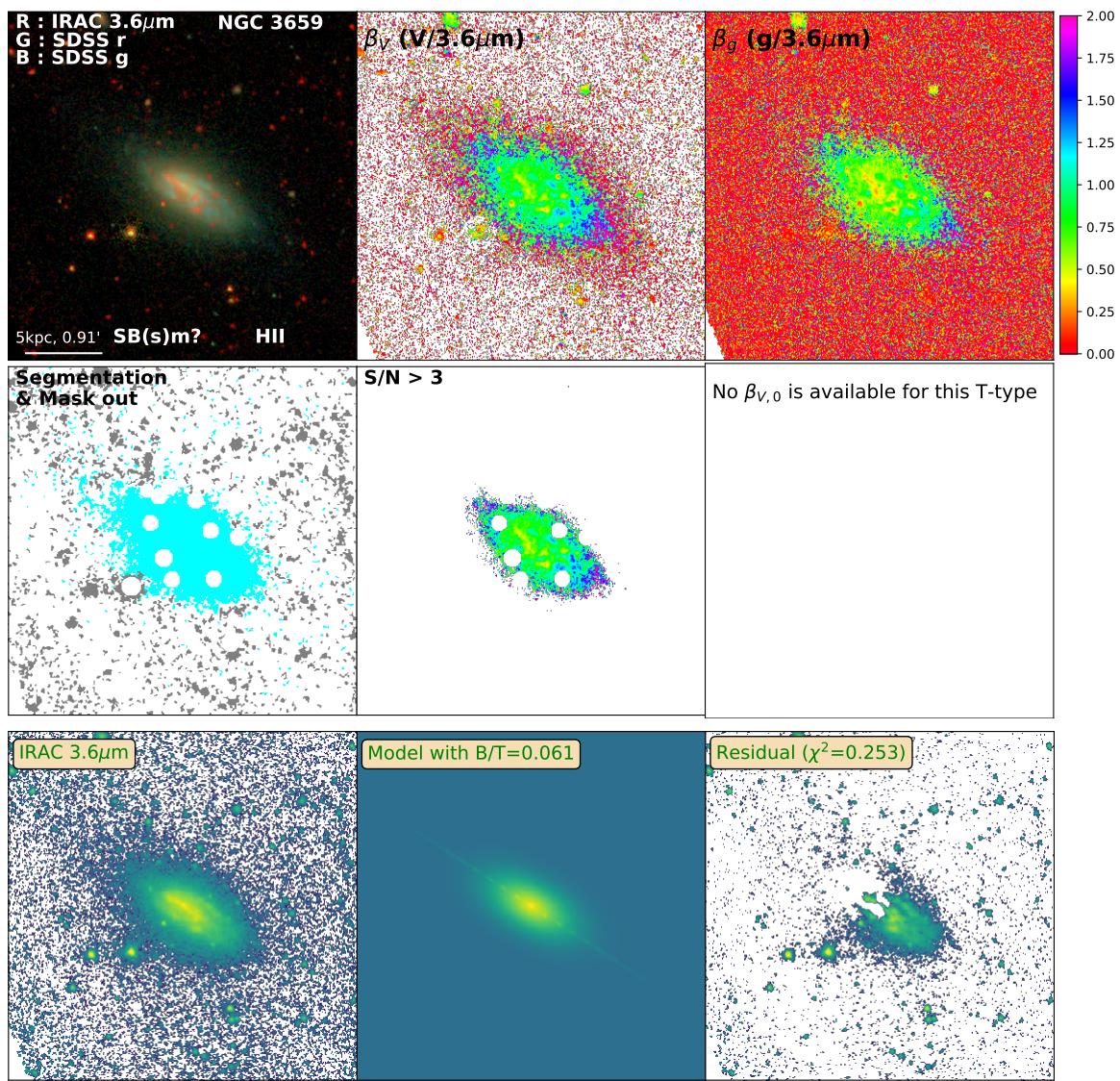


Figure D.102: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3659

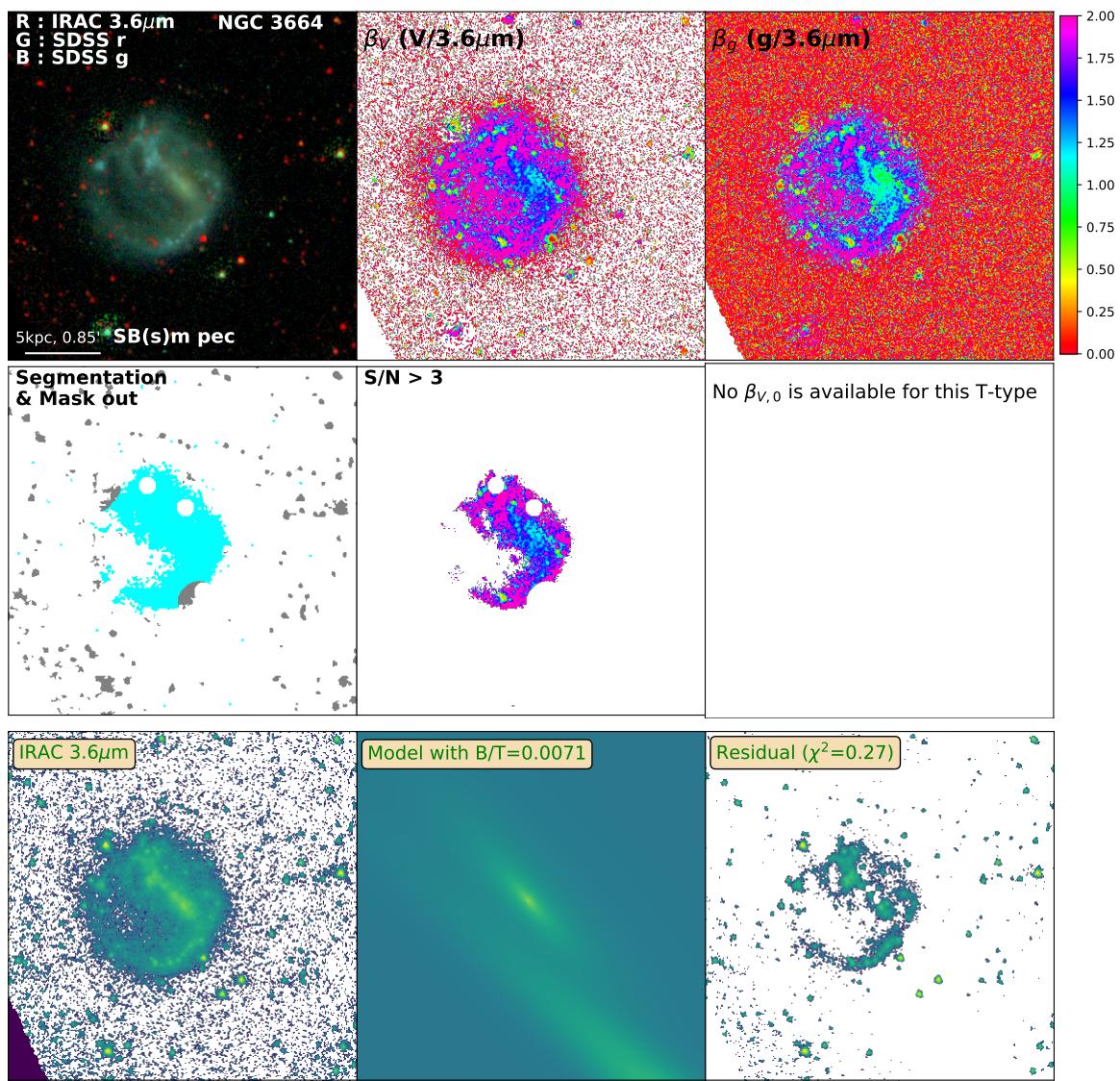


Figure D.103: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3664

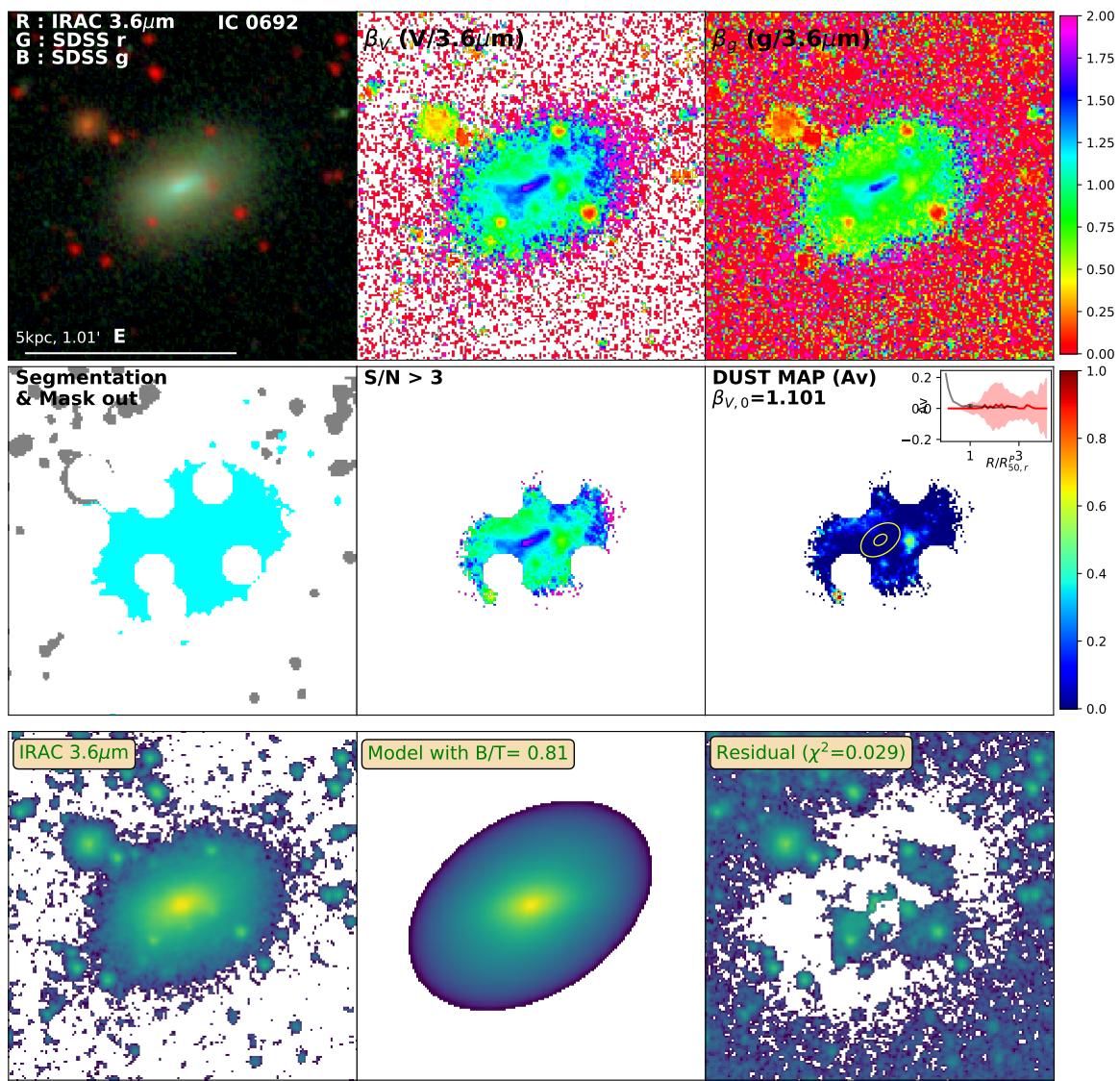


Figure D.104: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0692

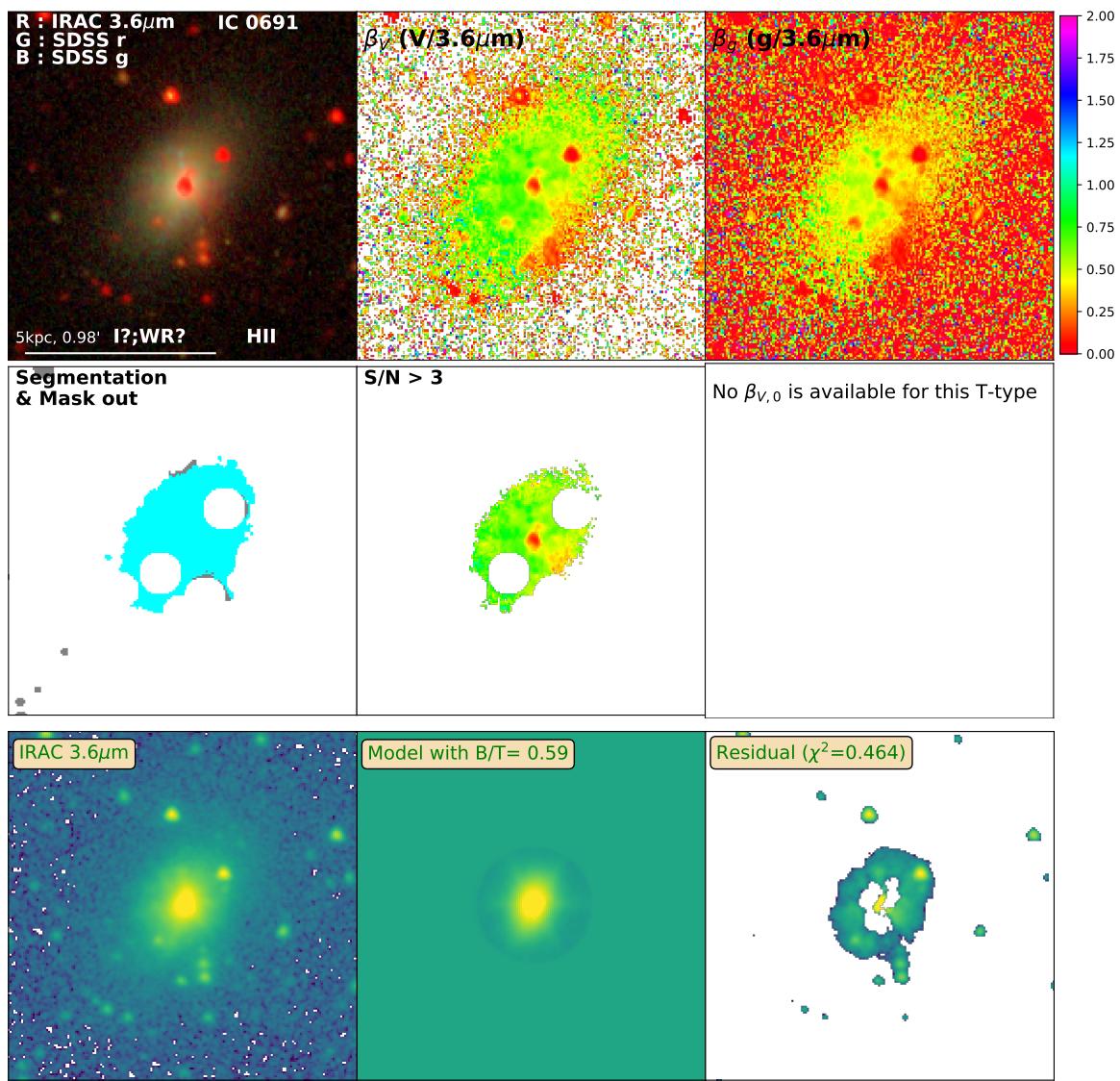


Figure D.105: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0691

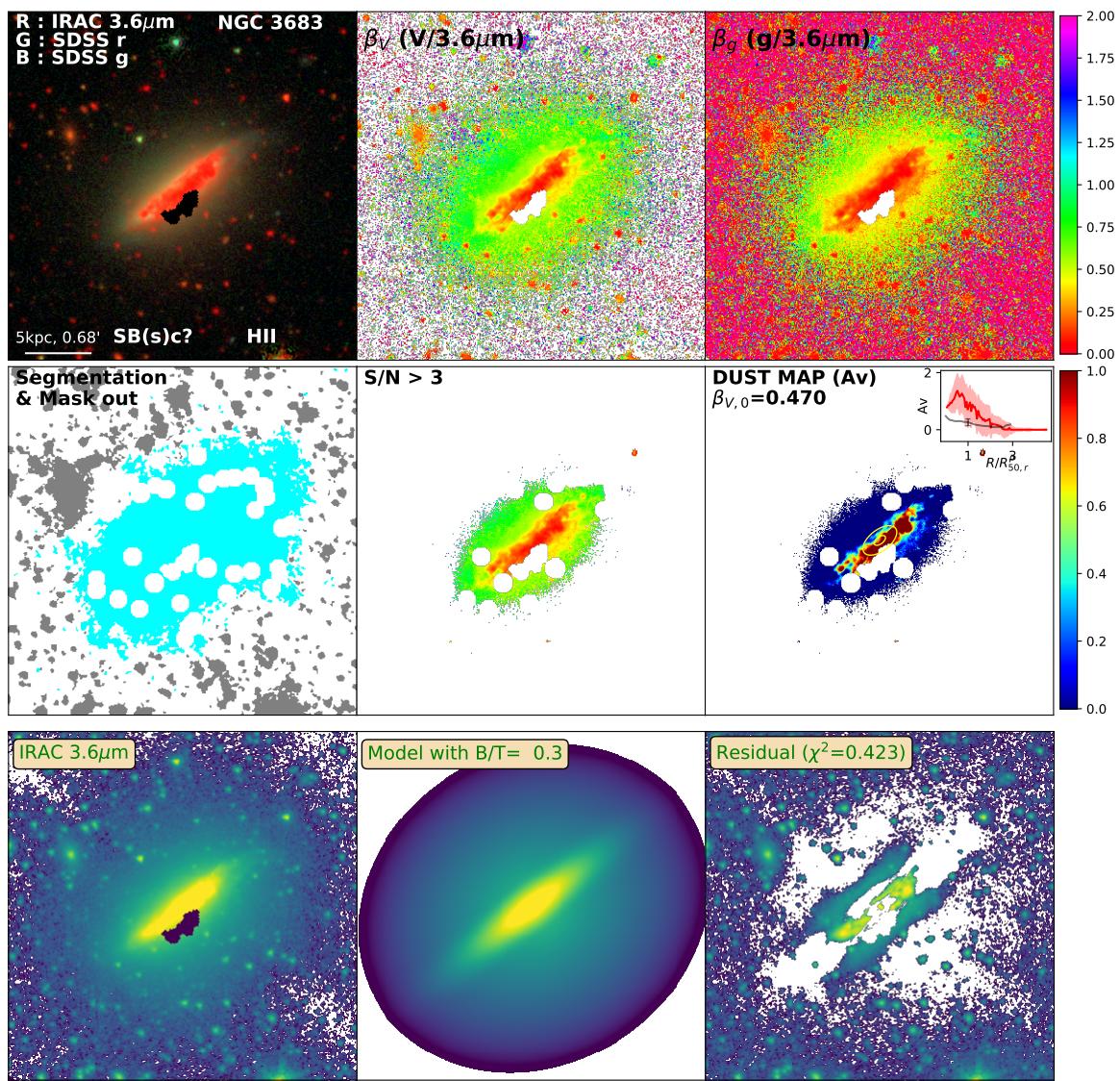


Figure D.106: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3683

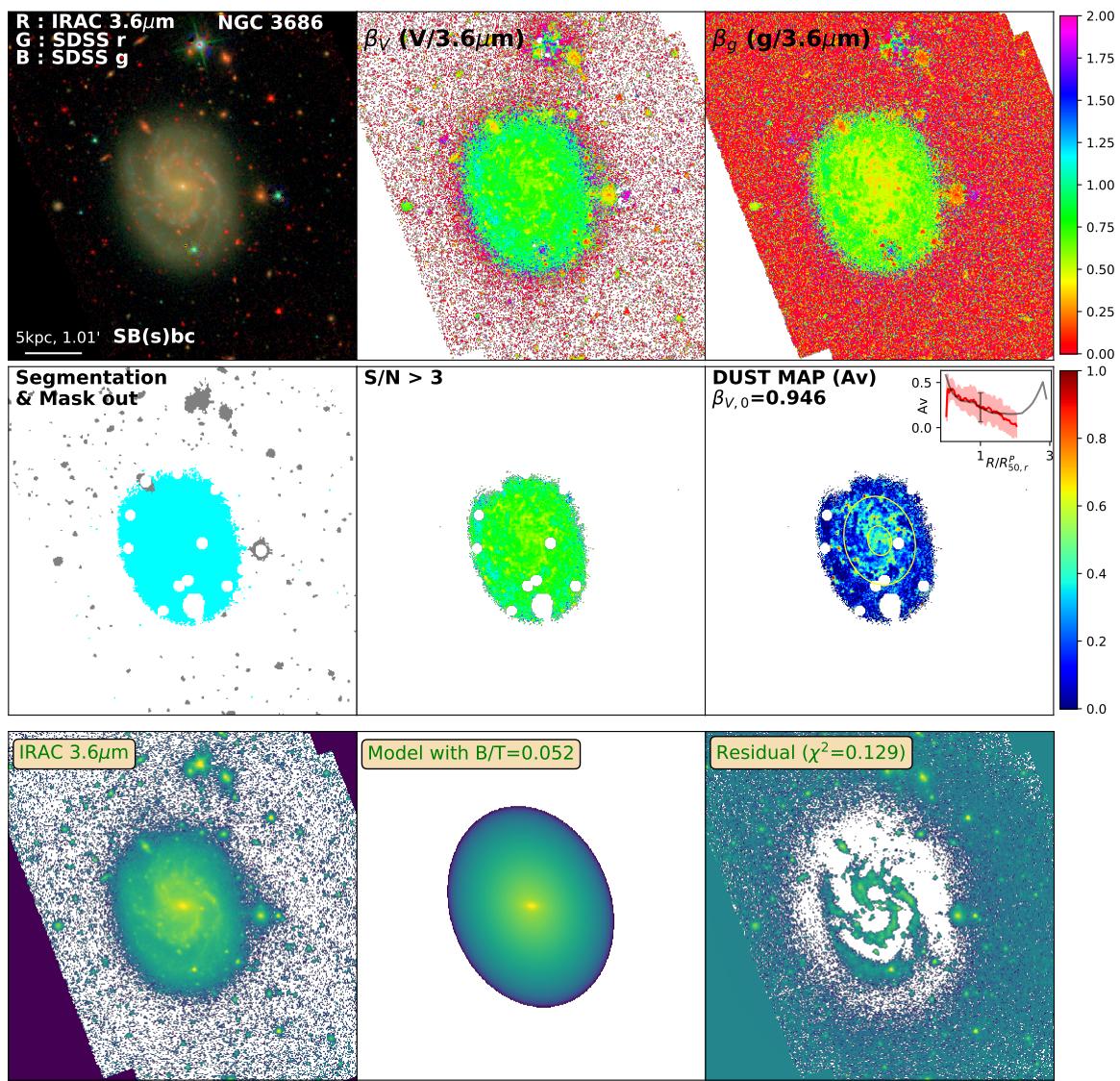


Figure D.107: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3686

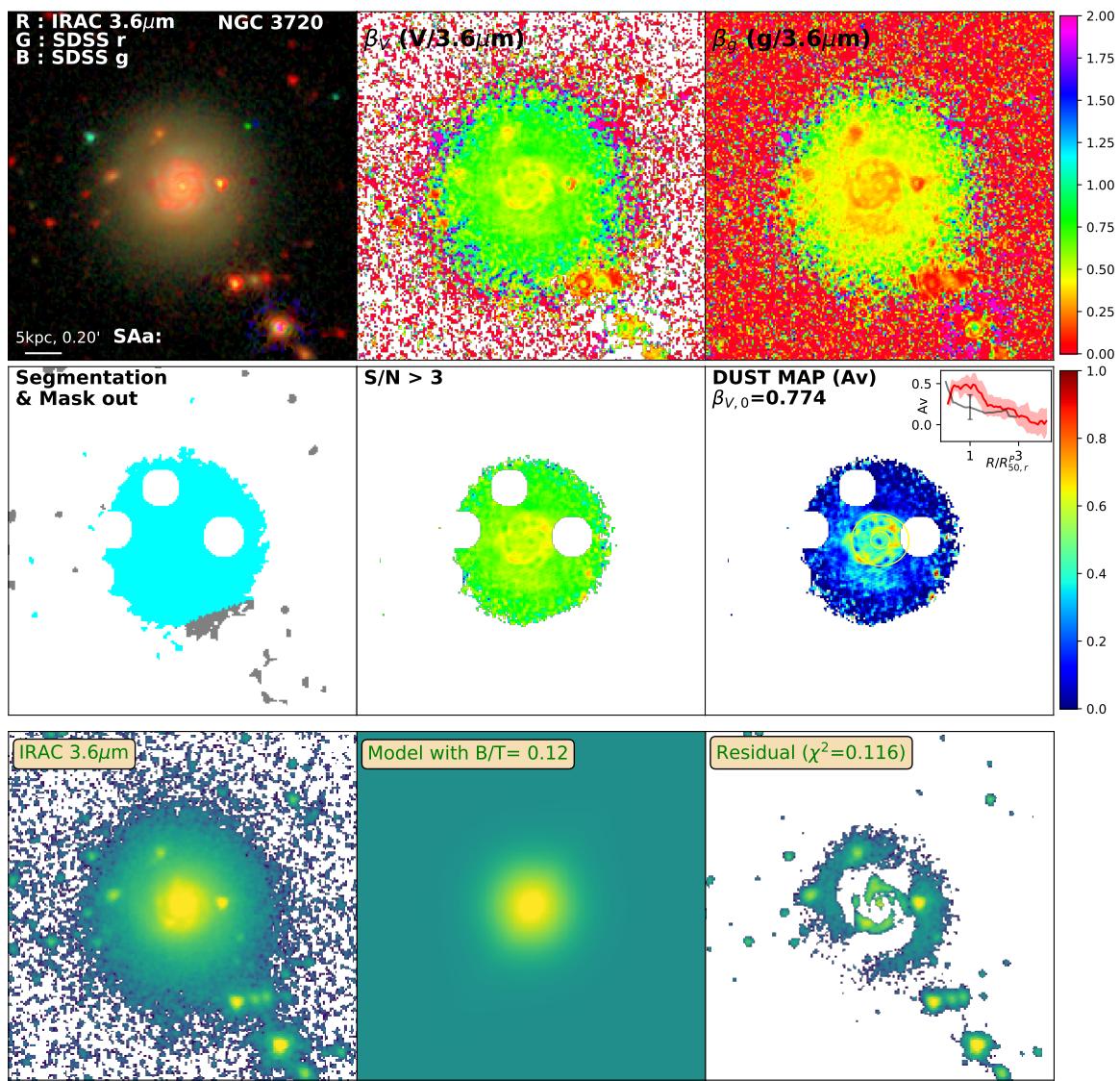


Figure D.108: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3720

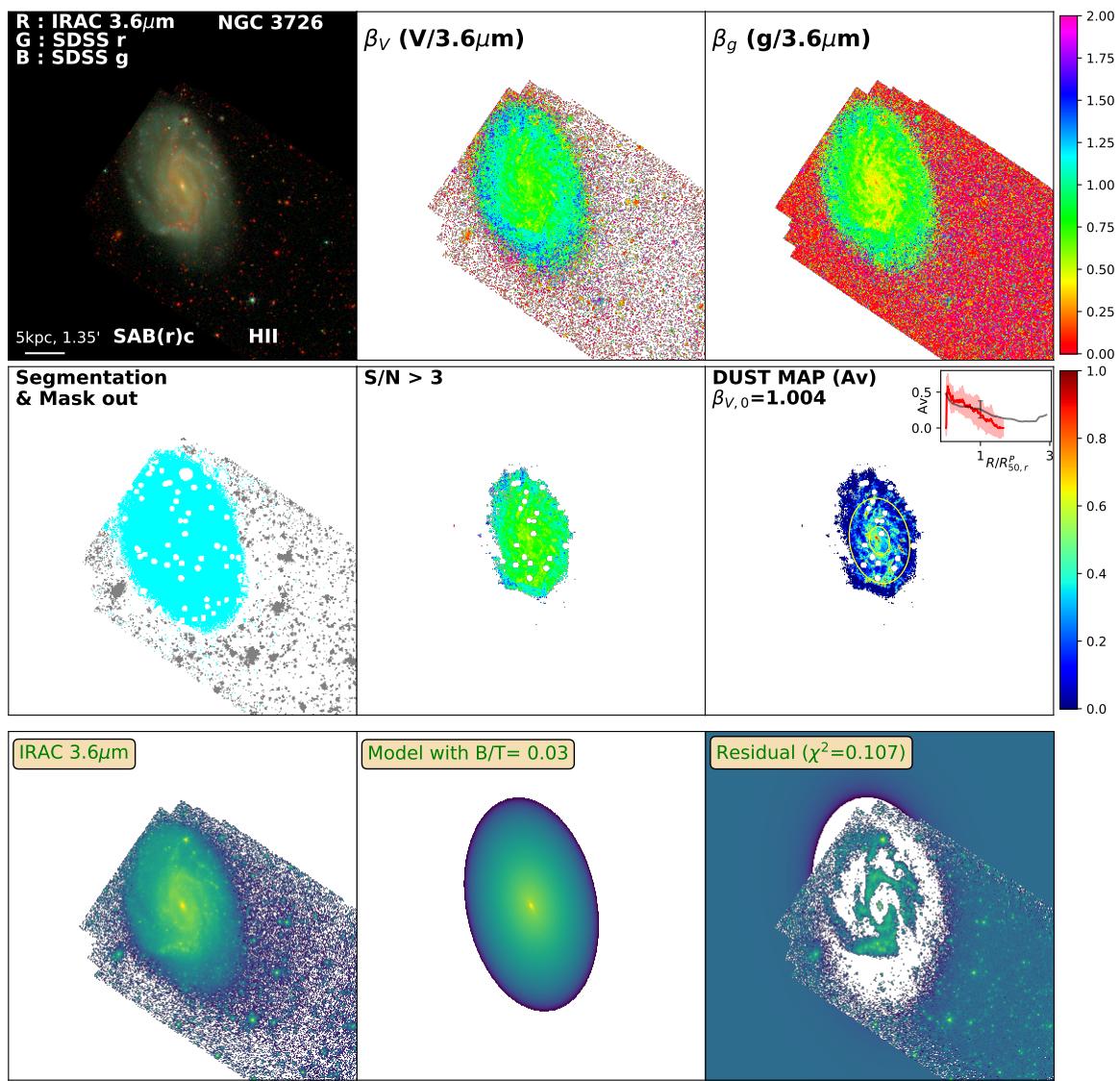


Figure D.109: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3726

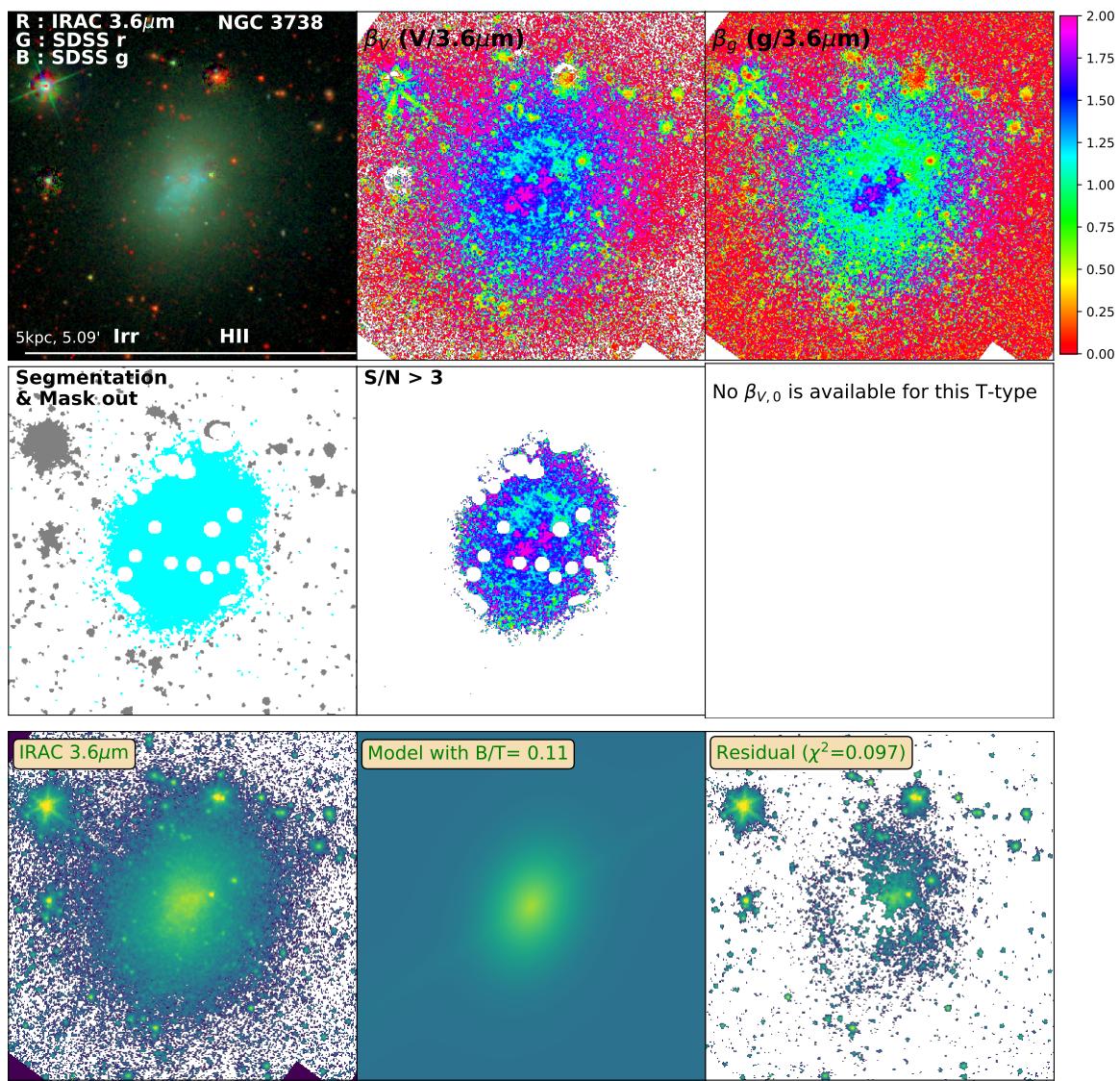


Figure D.110: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3738

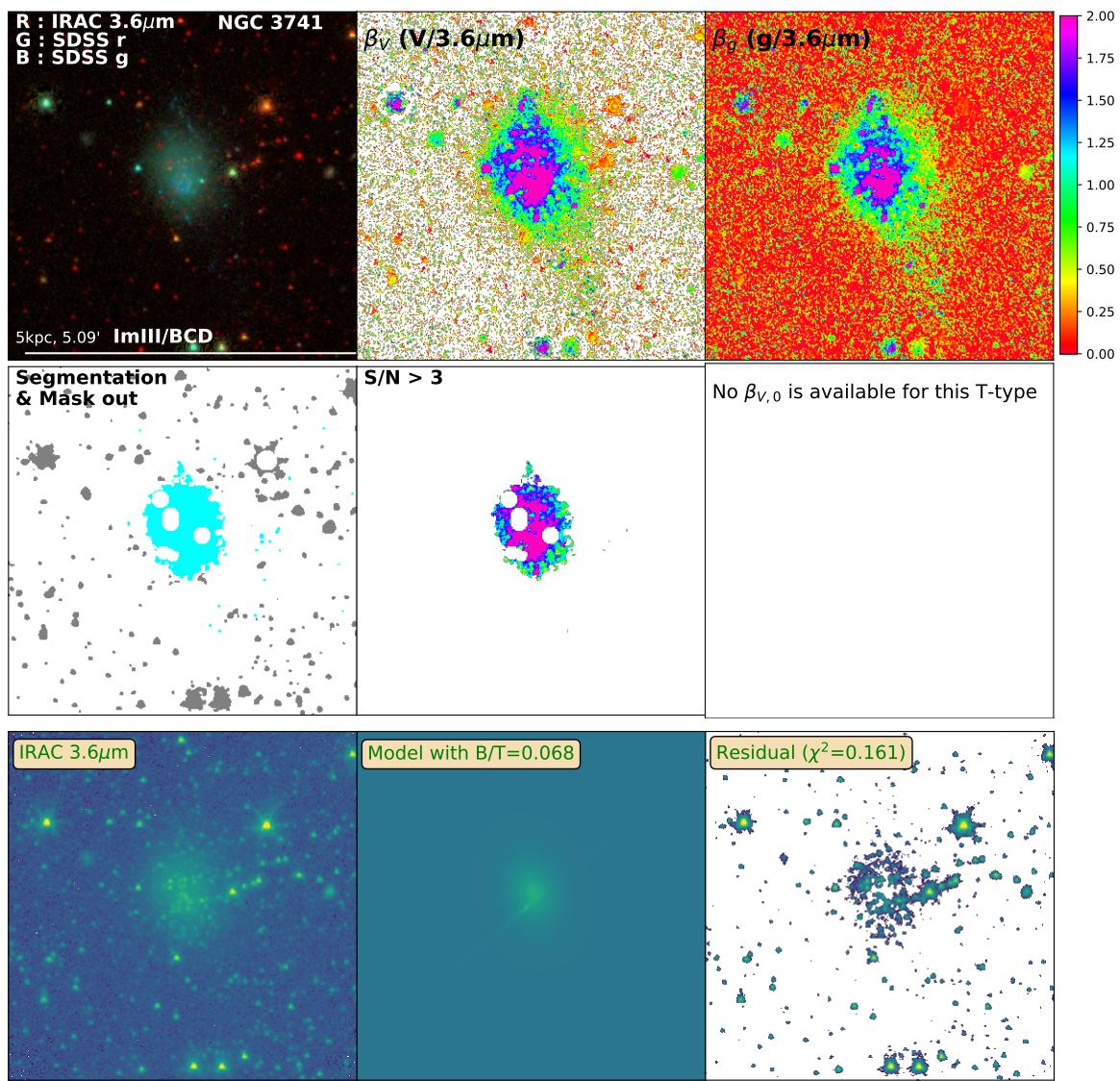


Figure D.111: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3741

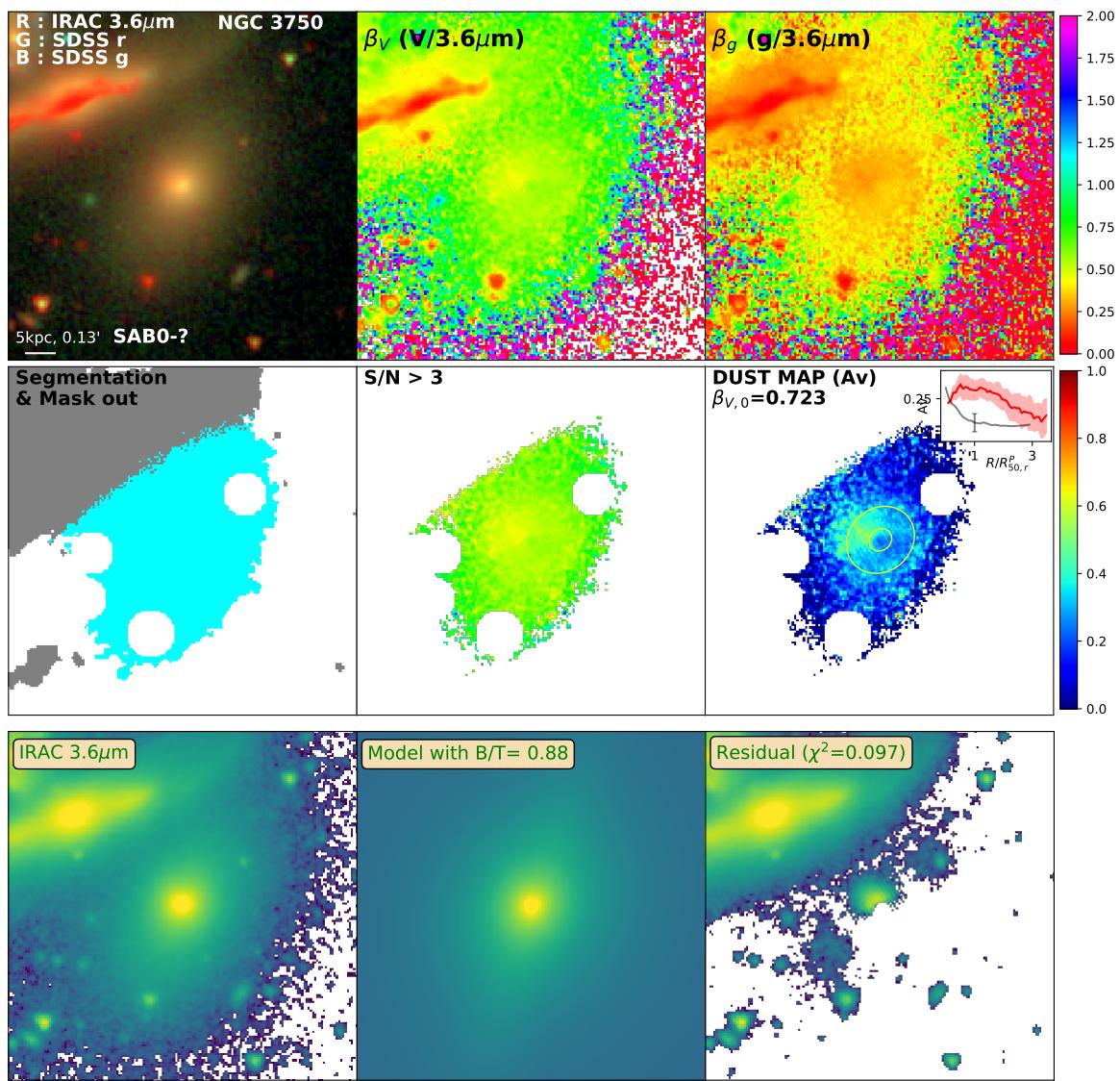


Figure D.112: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3750

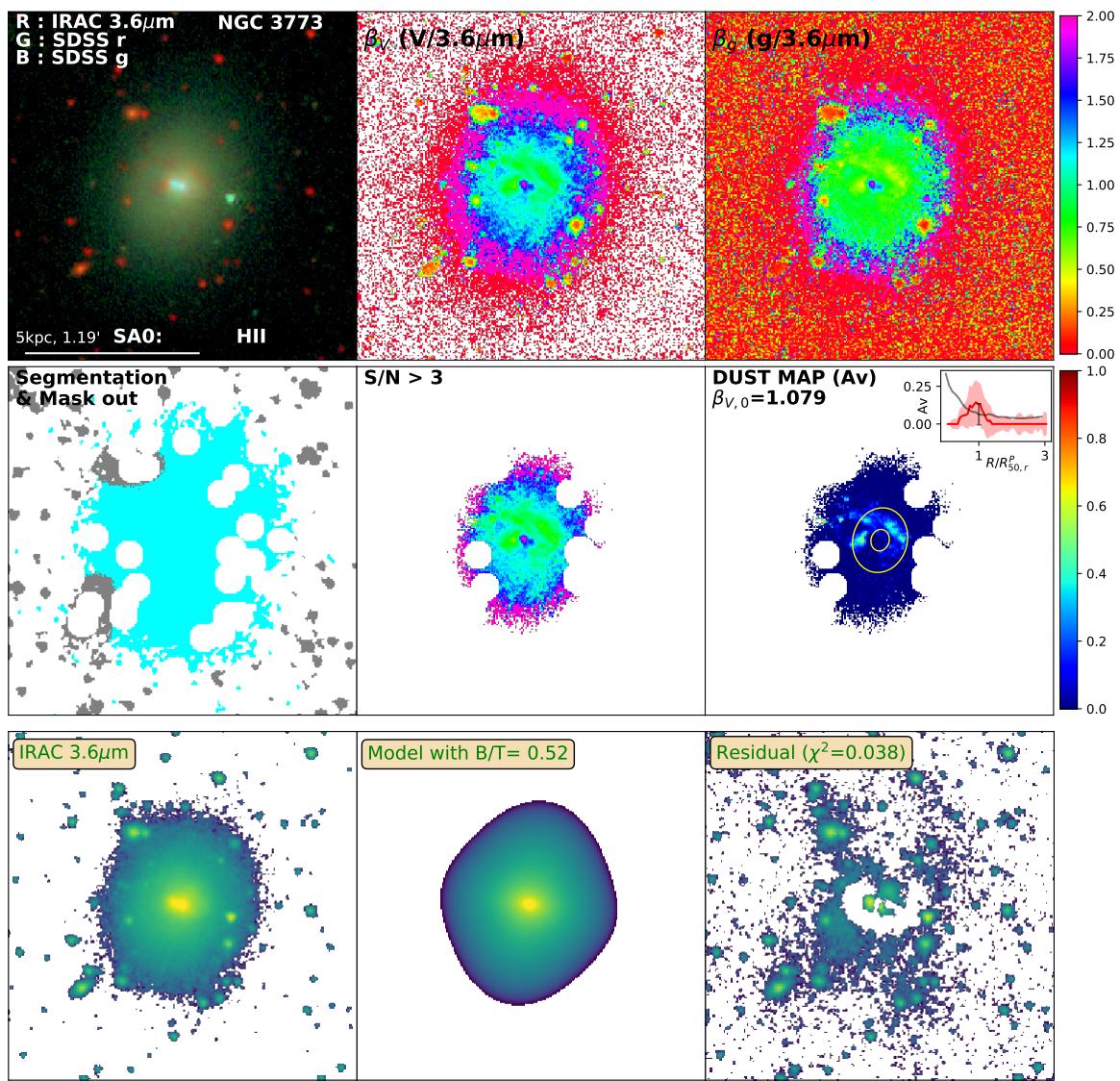


Figure D.113: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3773

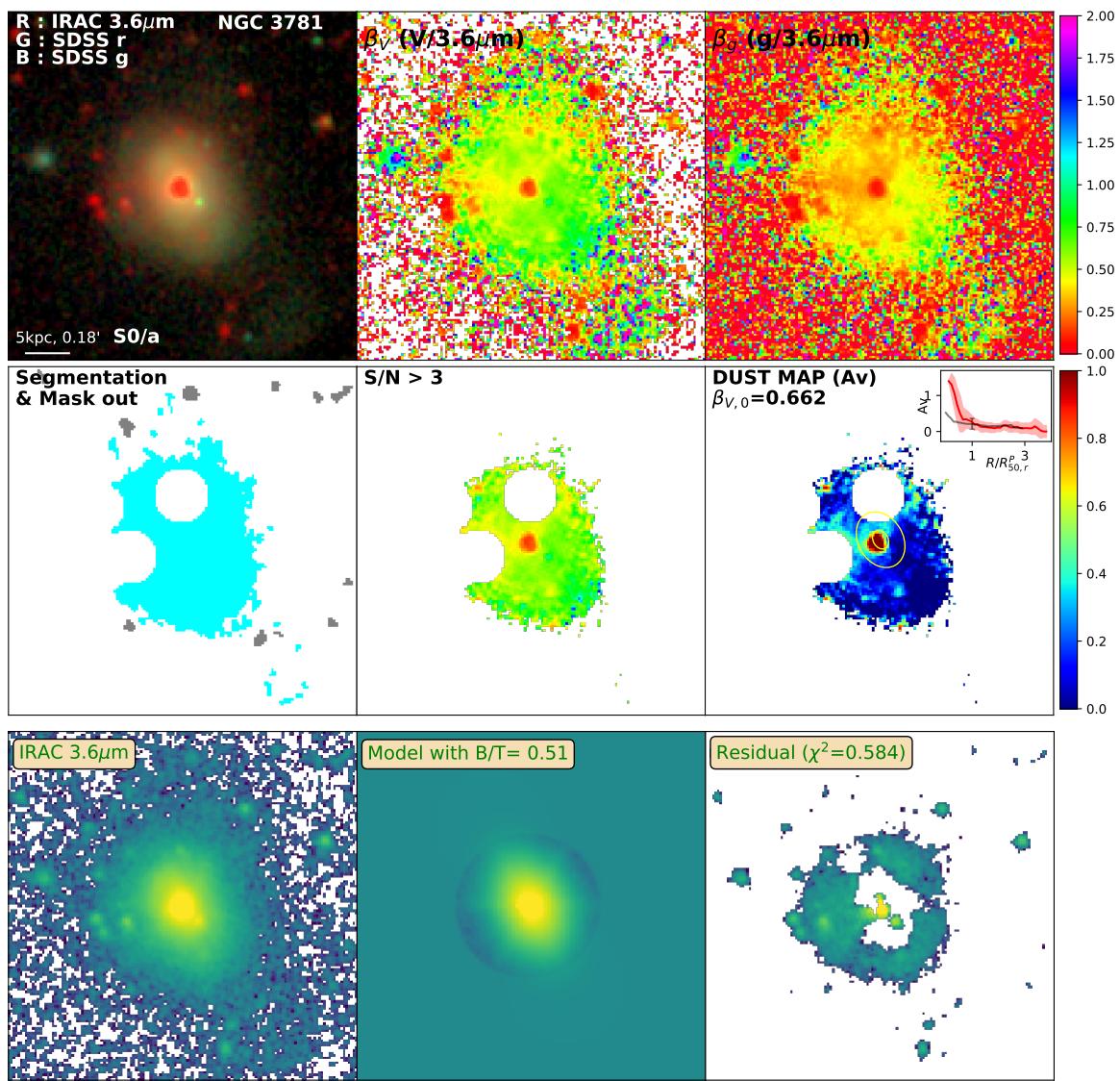


Figure D.114: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3781

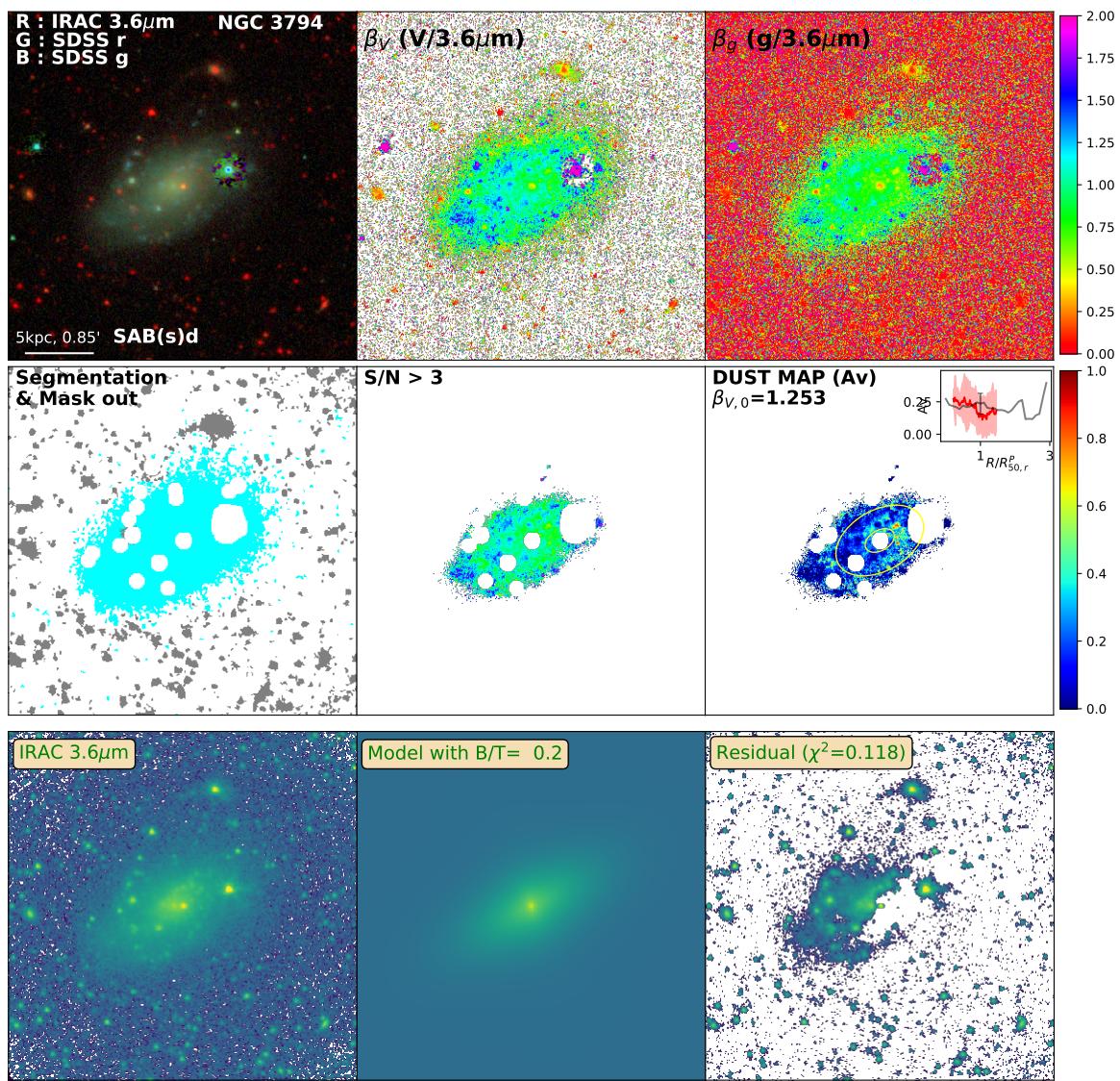


Figure D.115: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3794

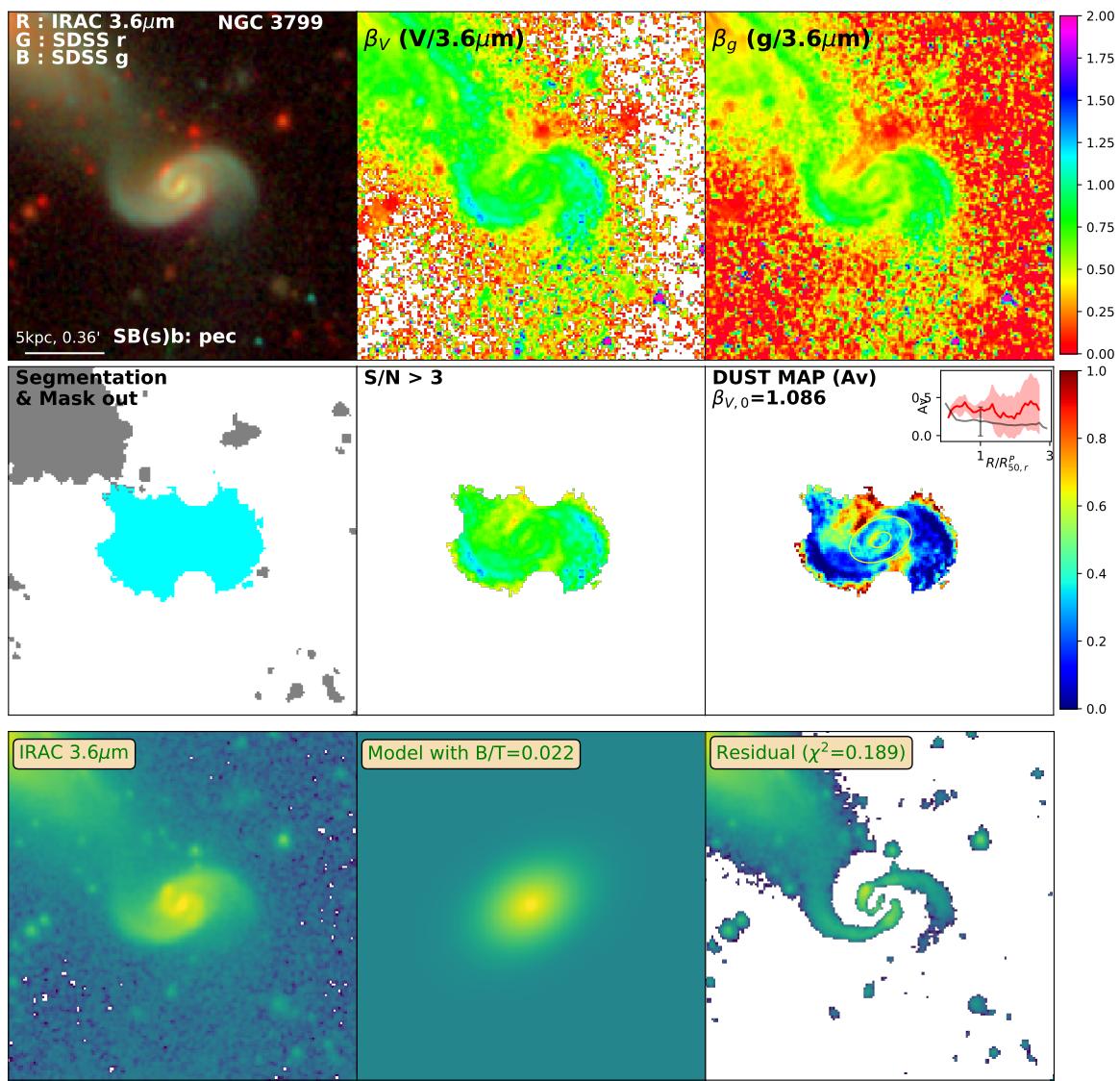


Figure D.116: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3799

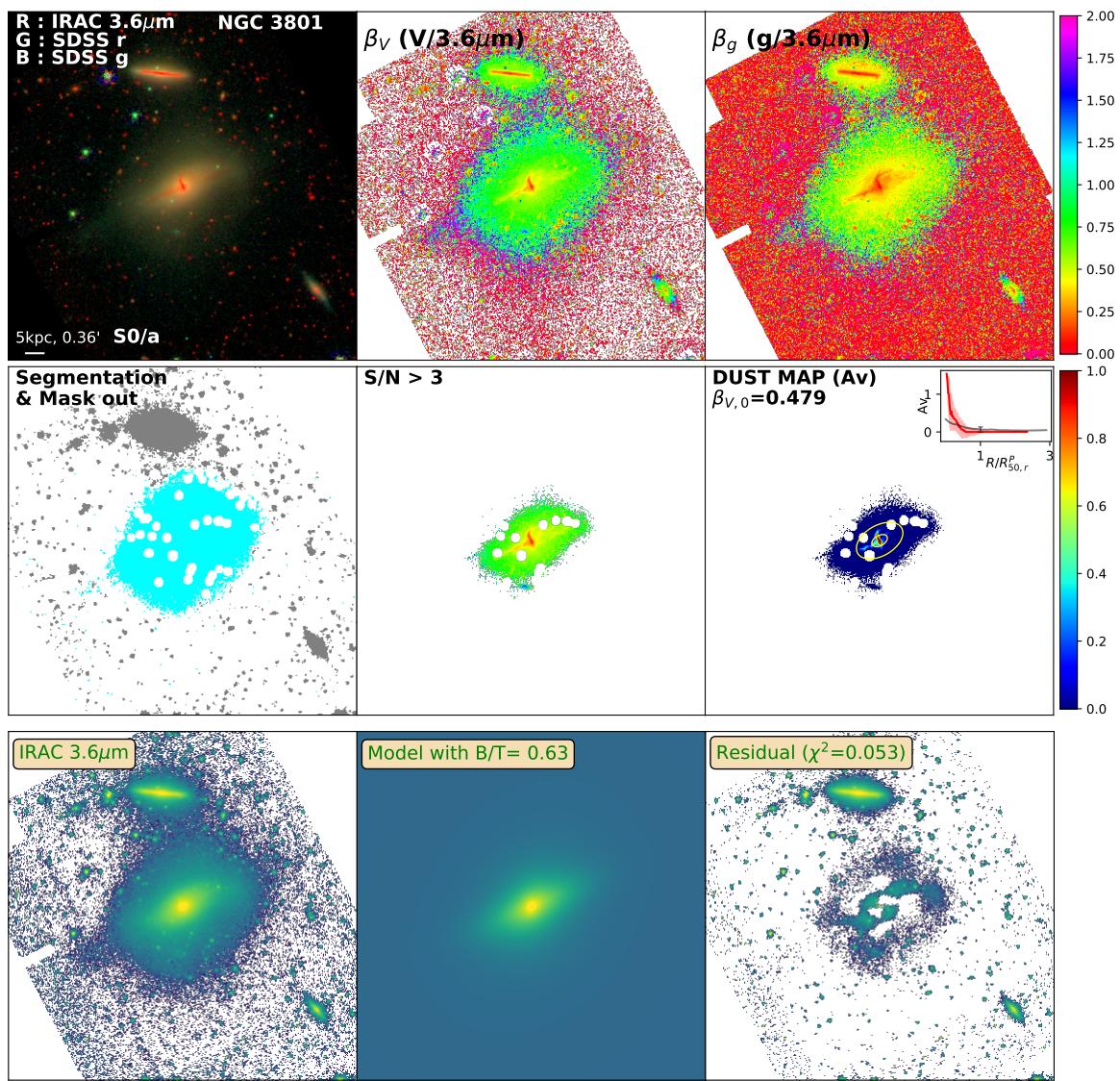


Figure D.117: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3801

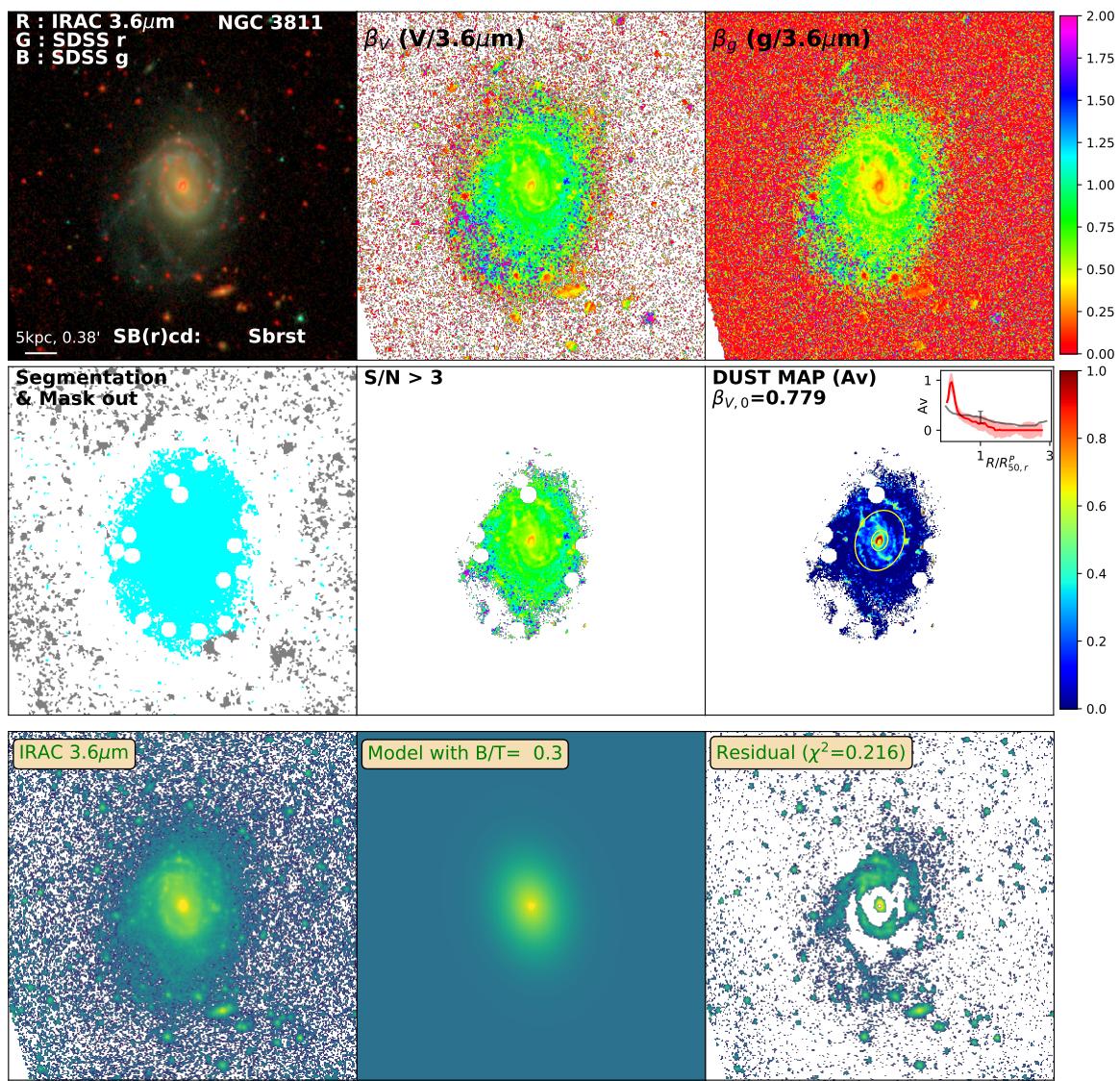


Figure D.118: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3811

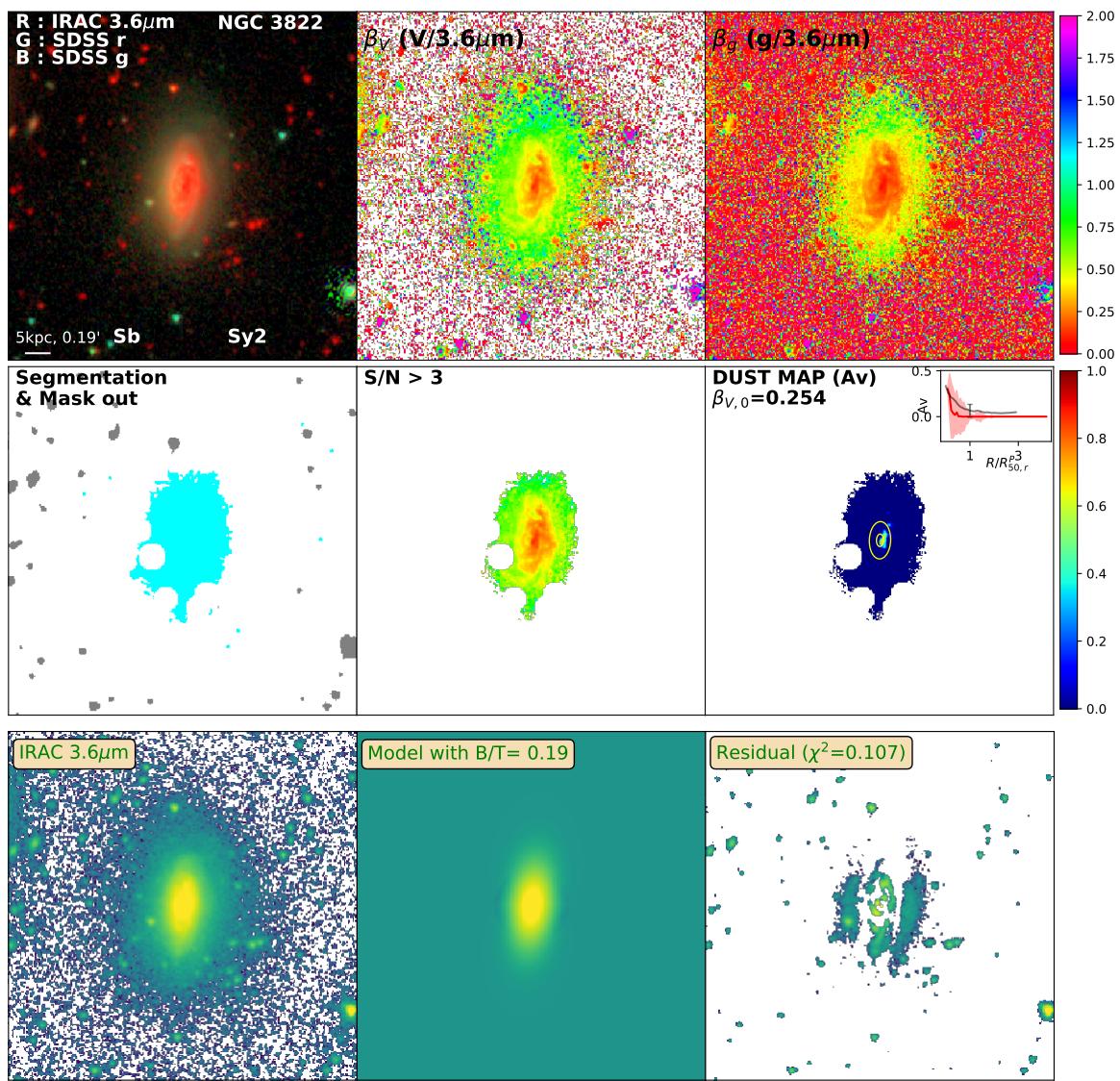


Figure D.119: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3822

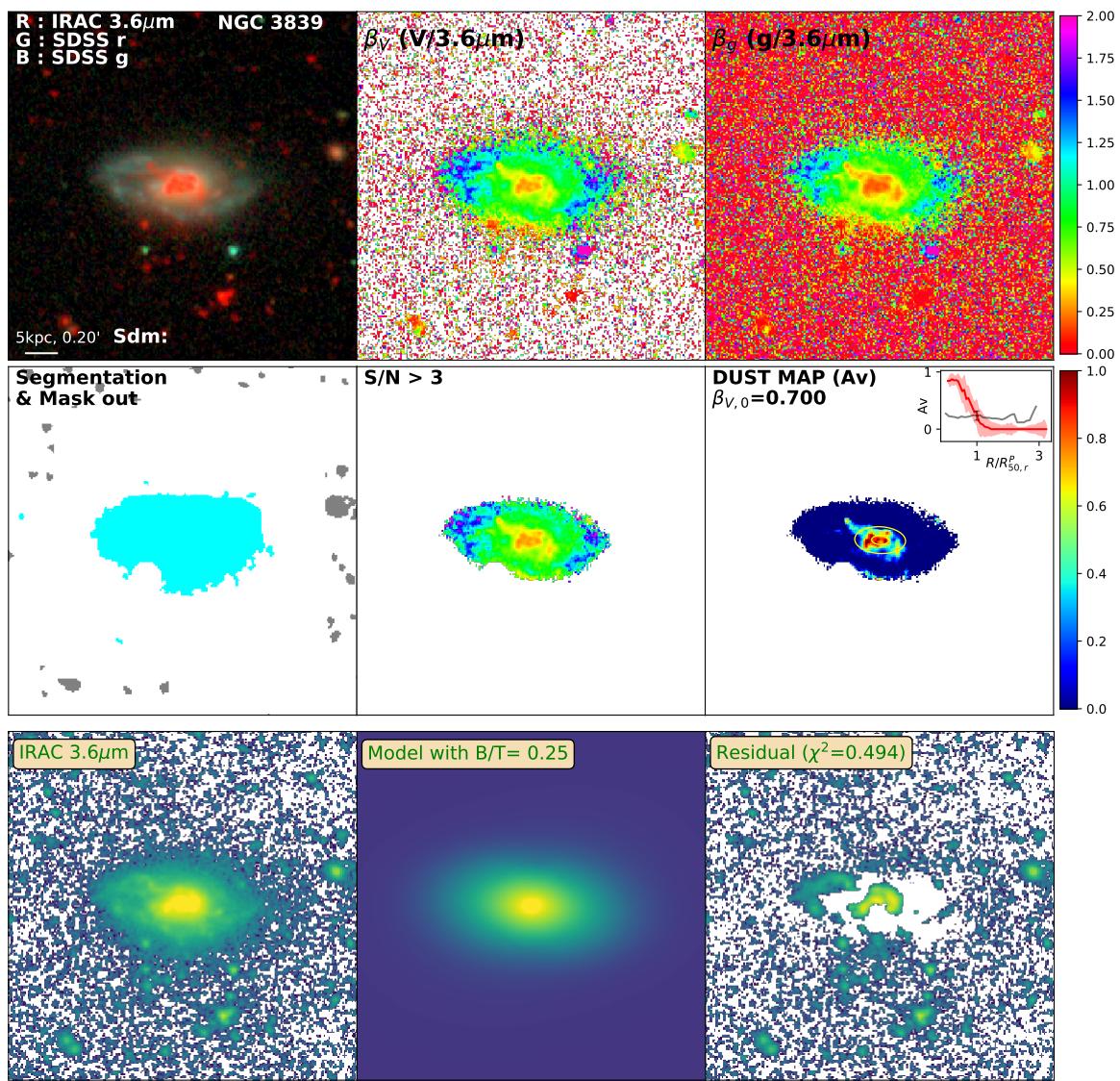


Figure D.120: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3839

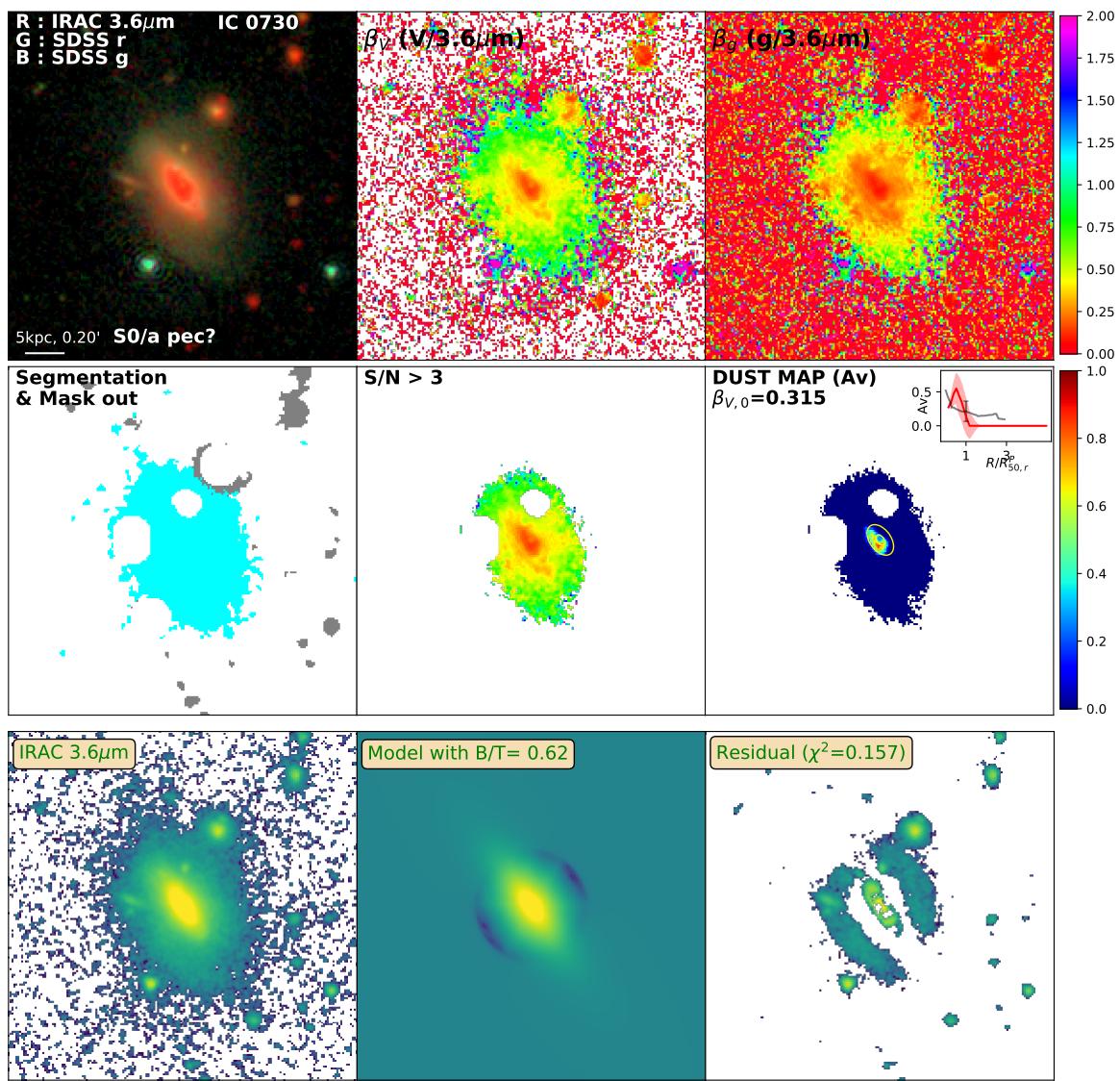


Figure D.121: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0730

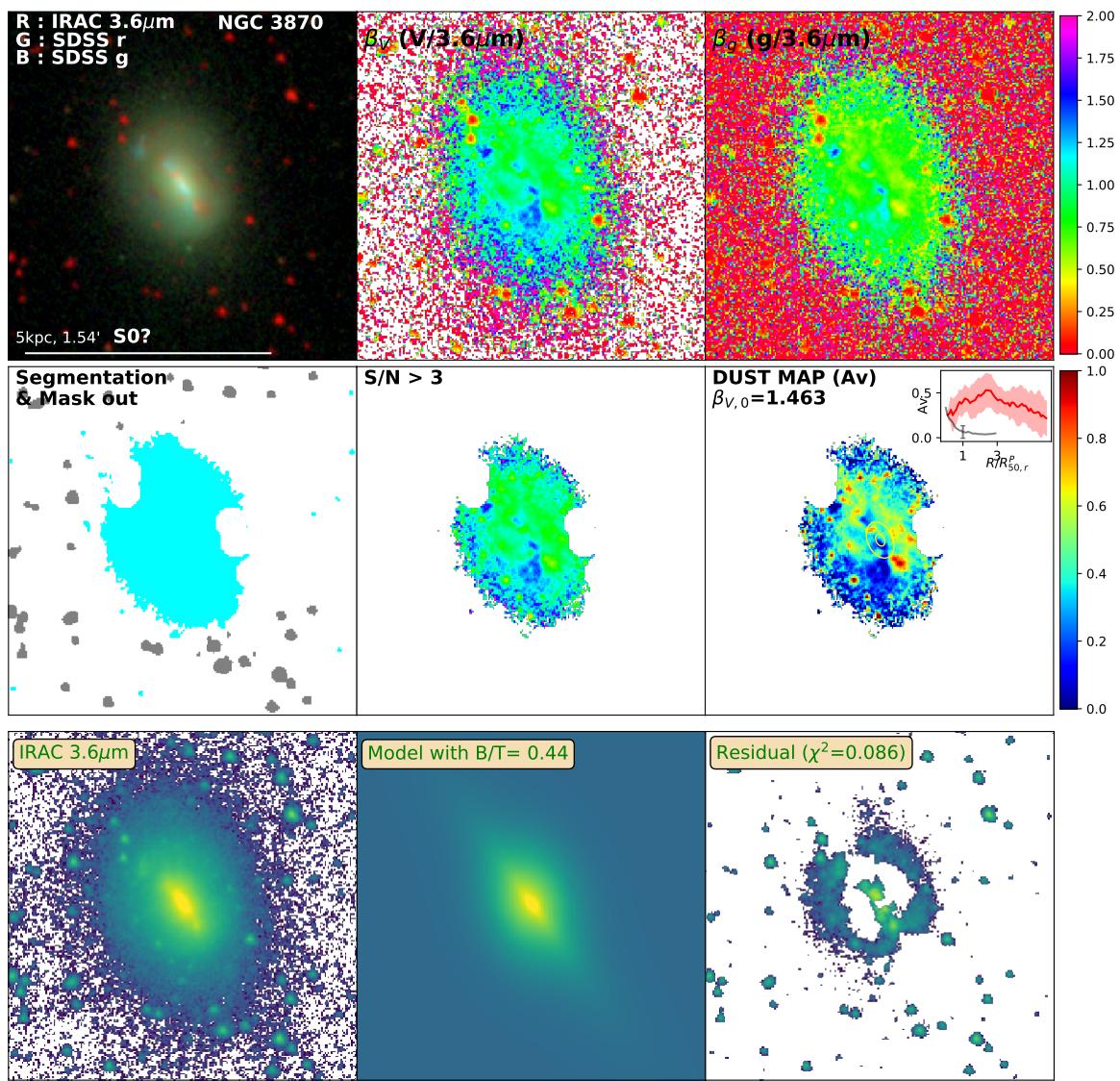


Figure D.122: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3870

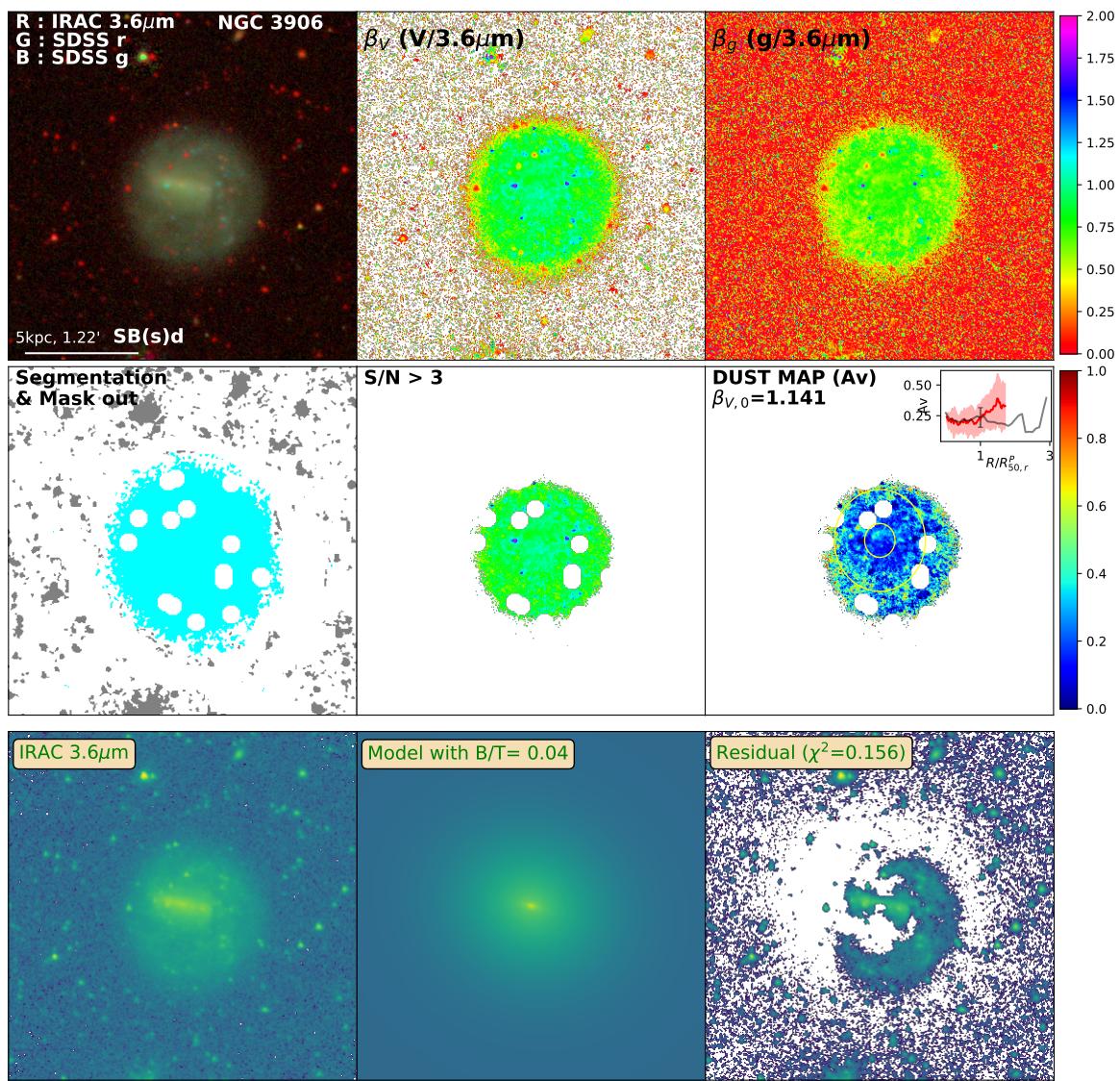


Figure D.123: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3906

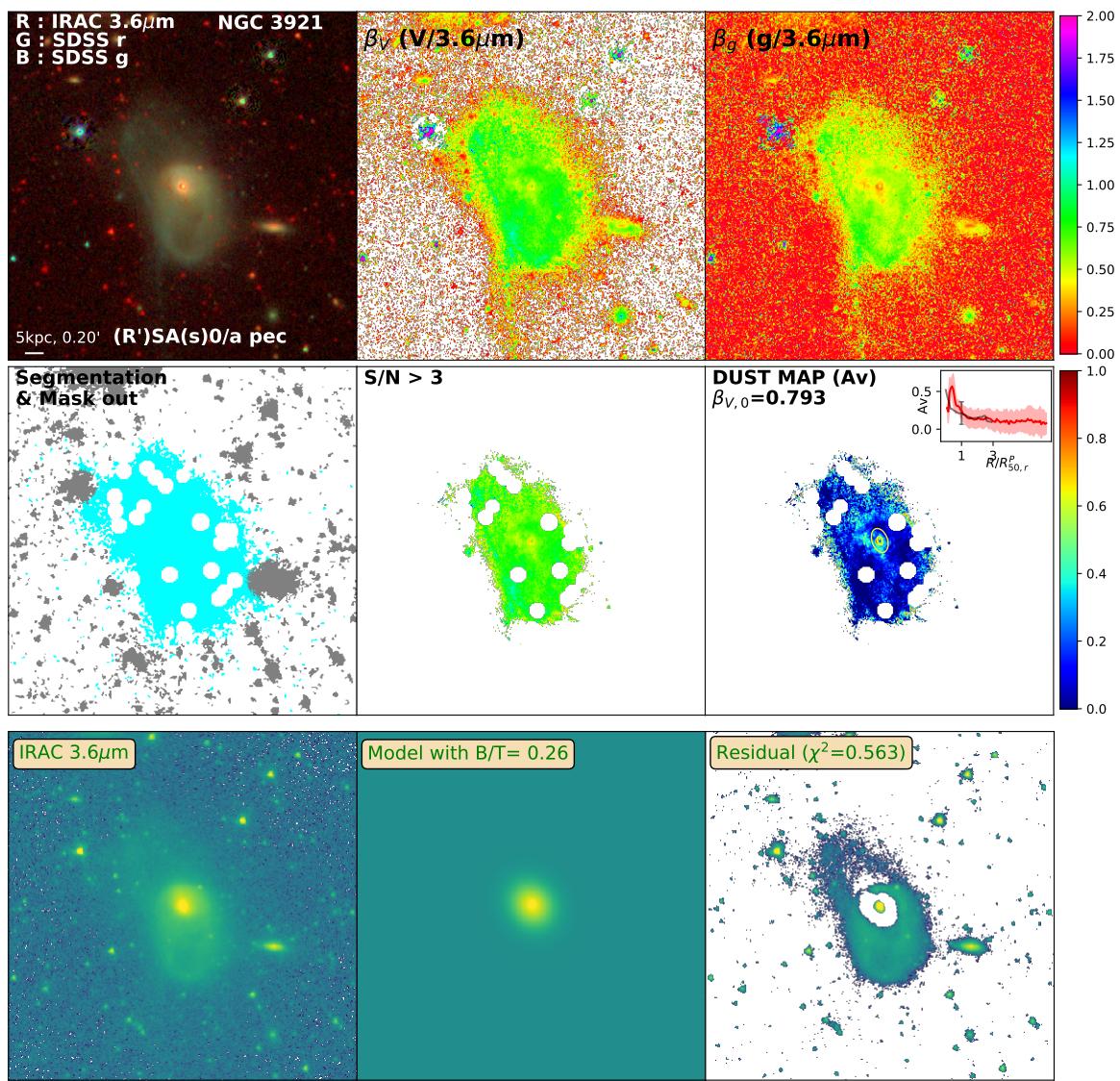


Figure D.124: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3921

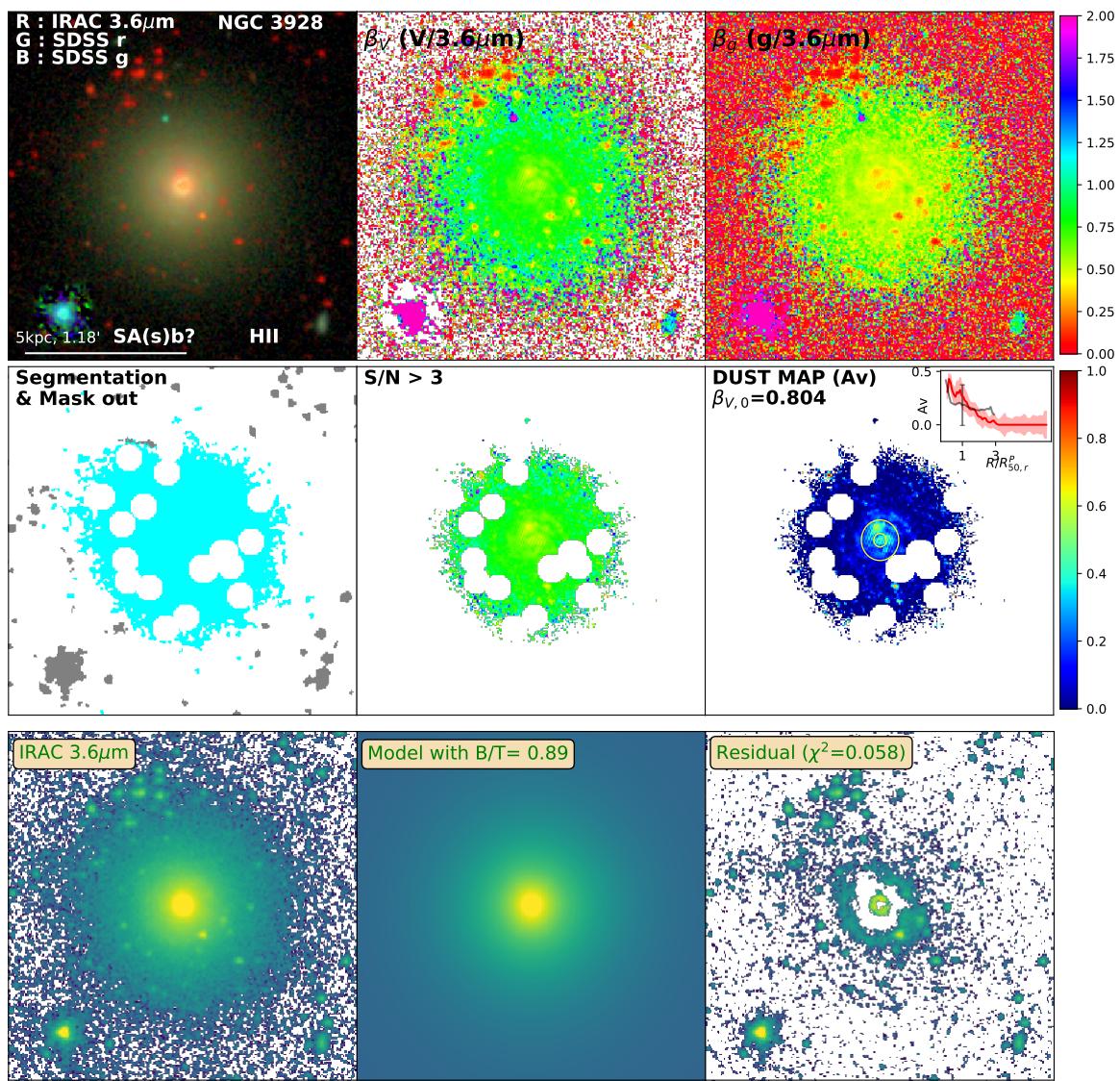


Figure D.125: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3928

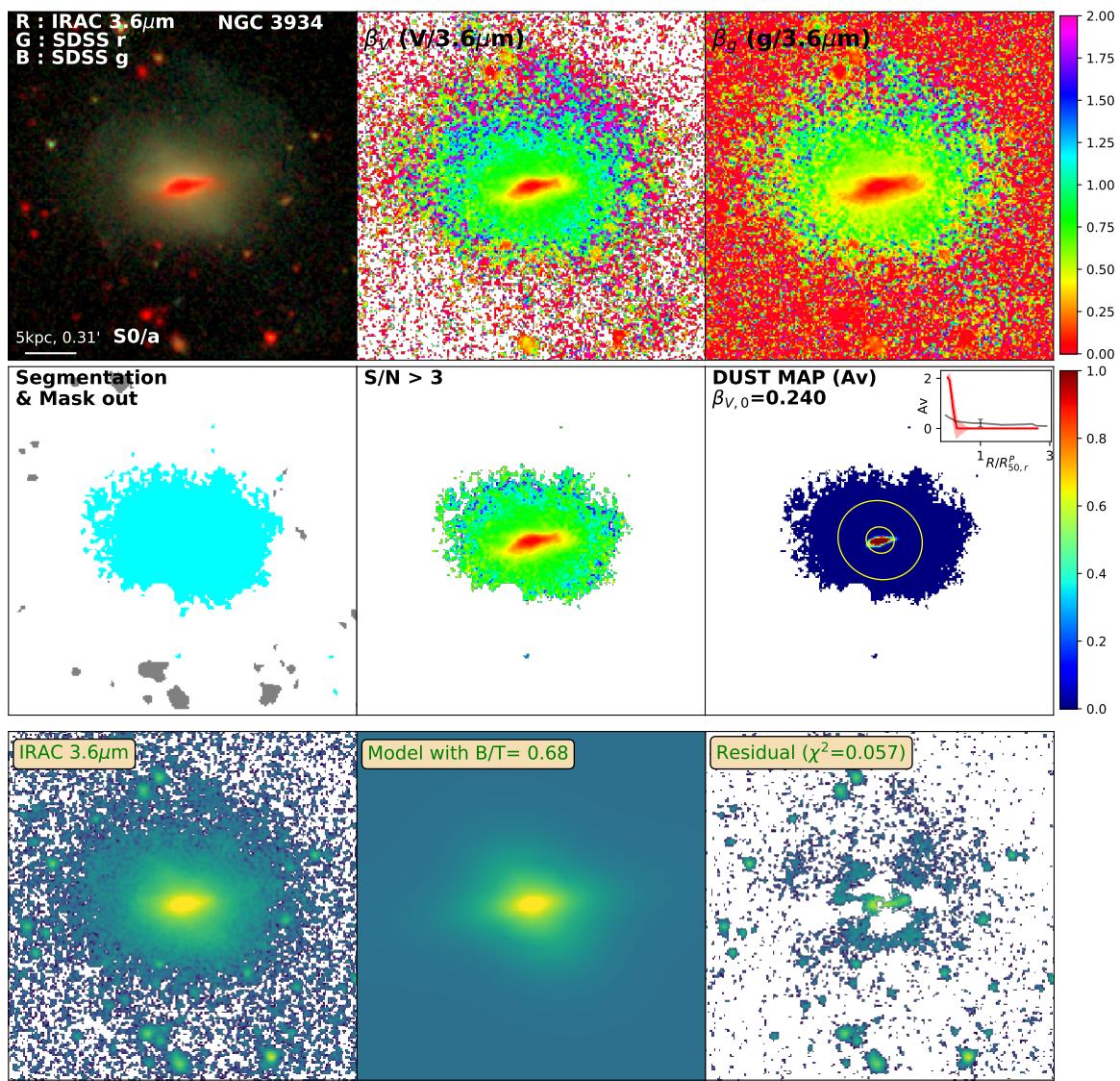


Figure D.126: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3934

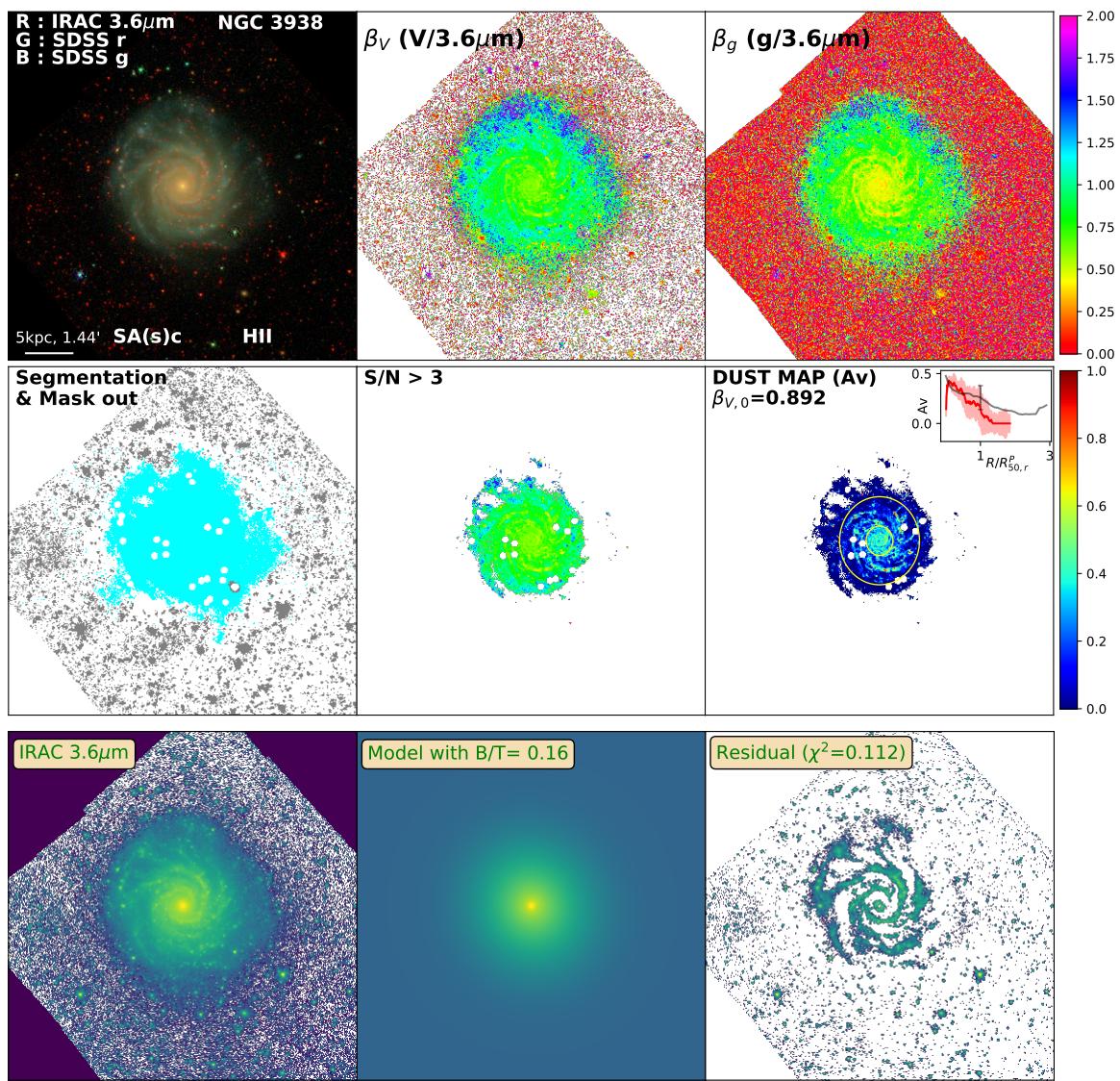


Figure D.127: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3938

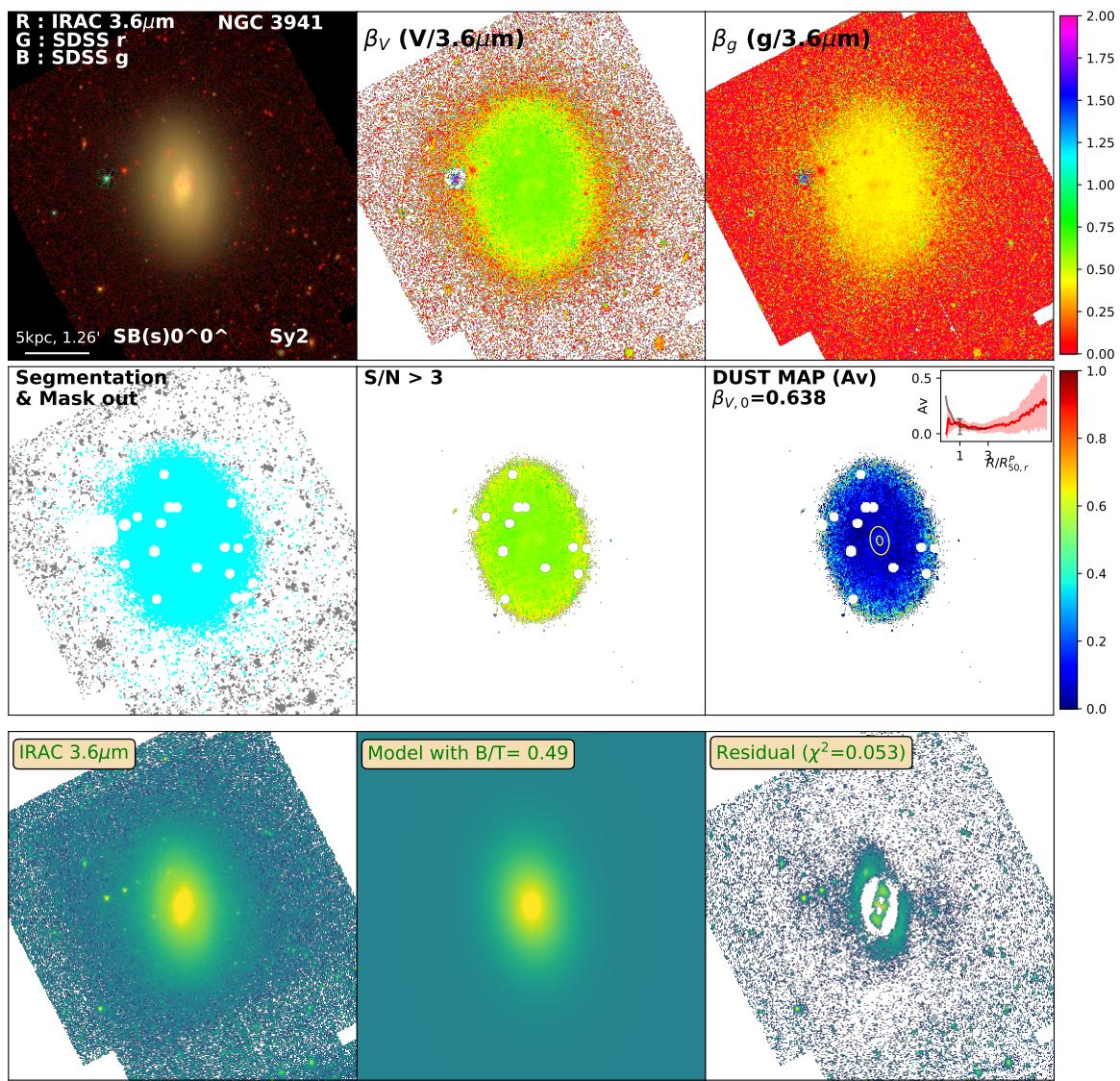


Figure D.128: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3941

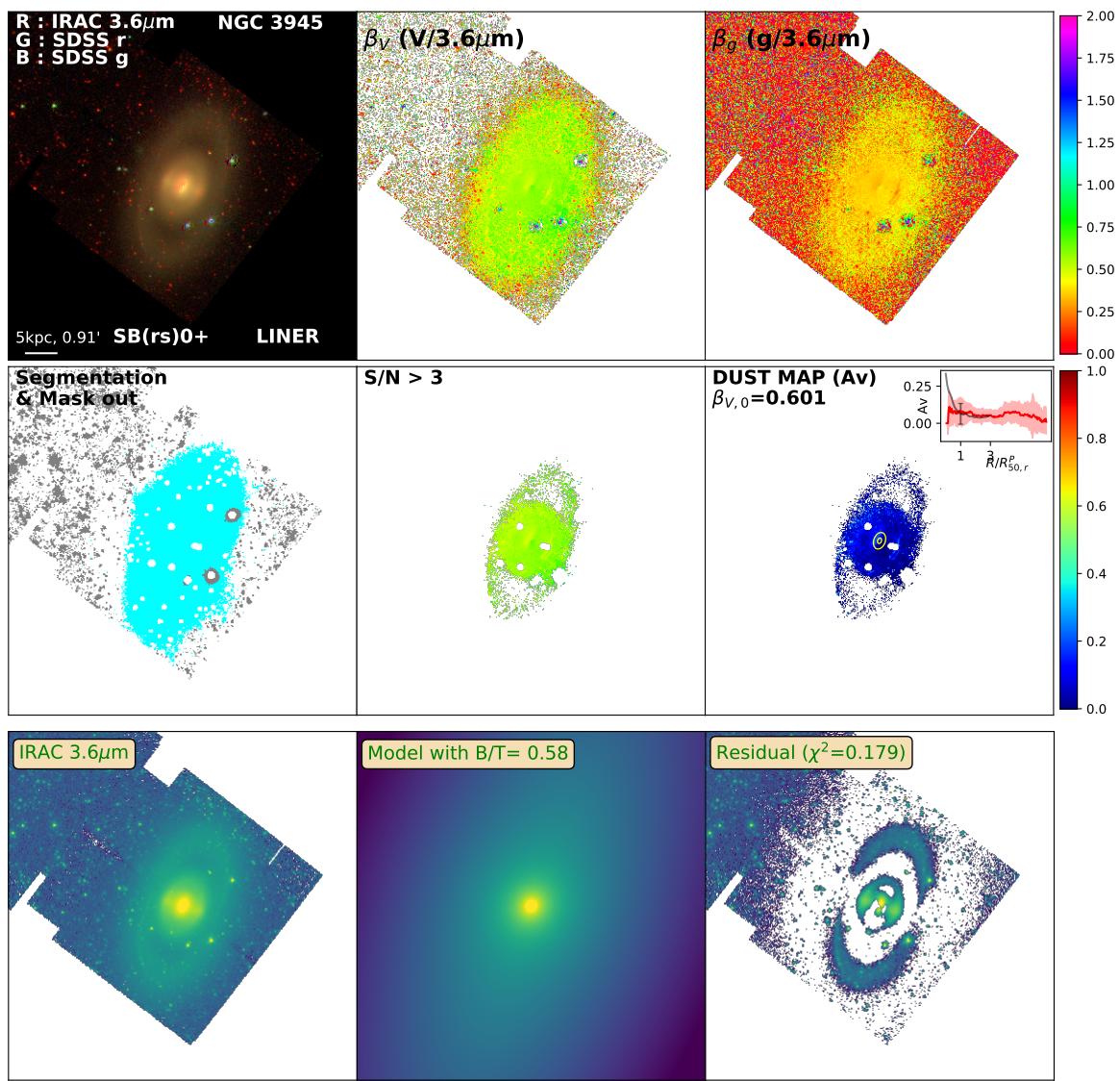


Figure D.129: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC3945

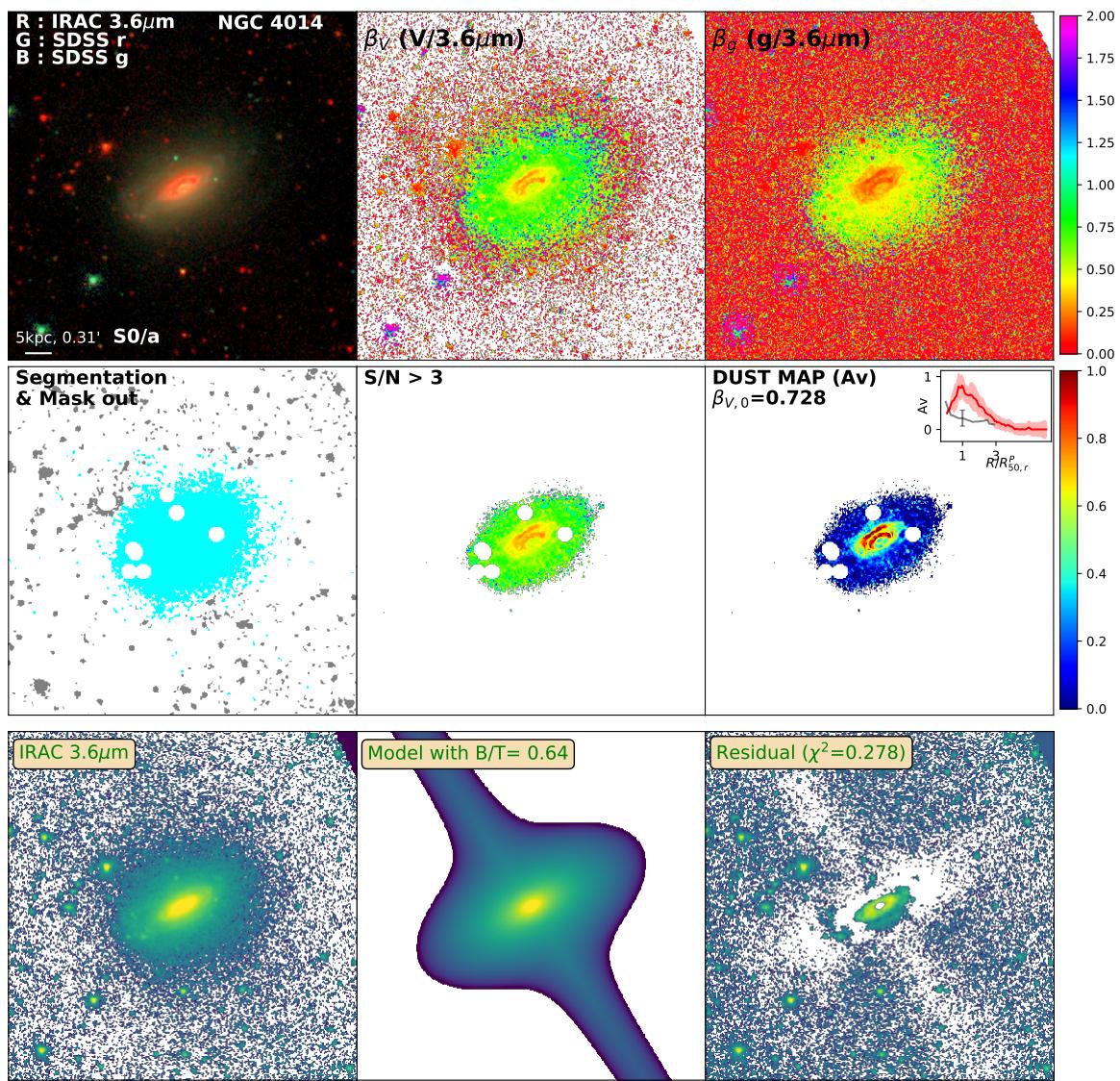


Figure D.130: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4014

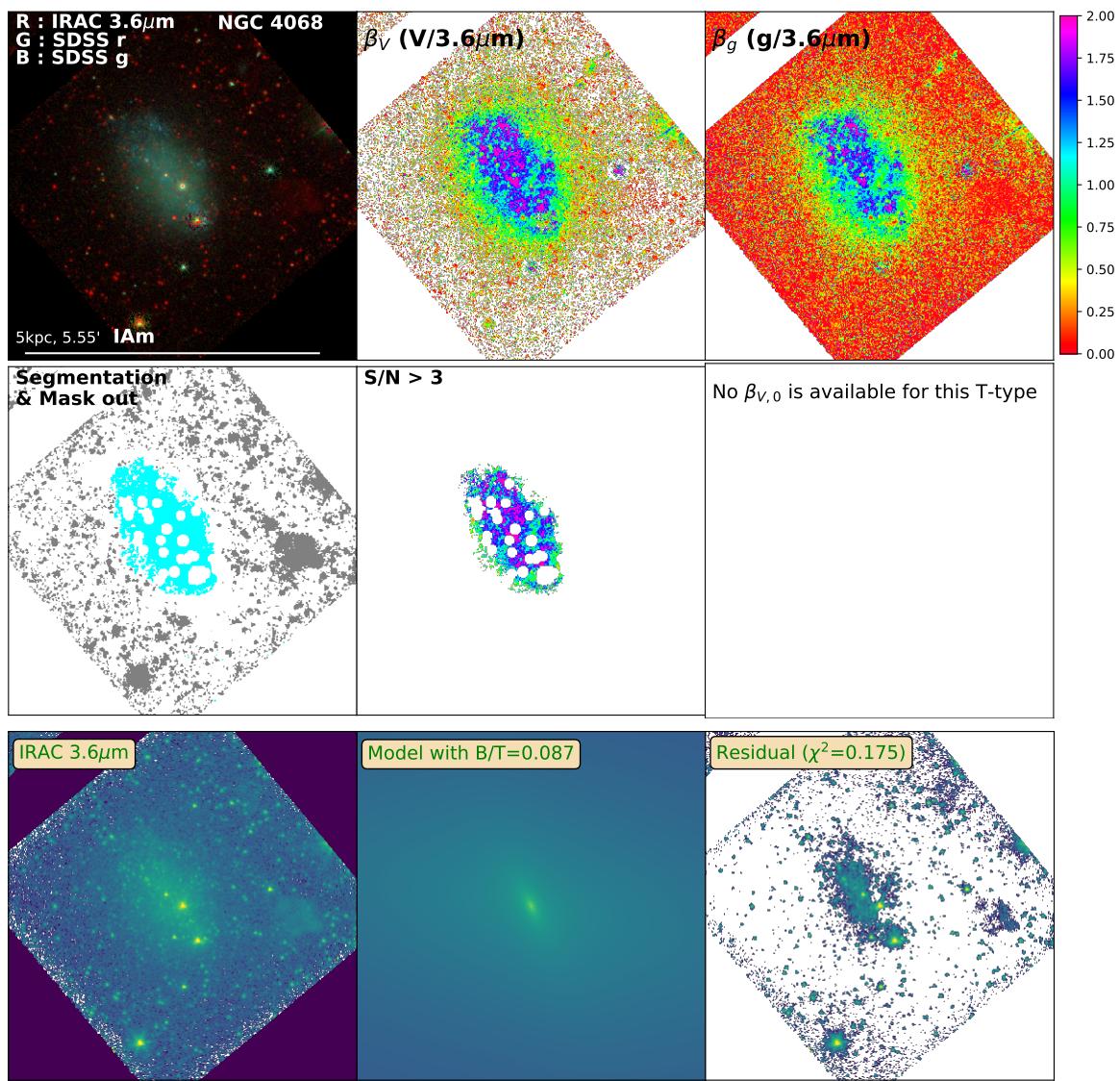


Figure D.131: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4068

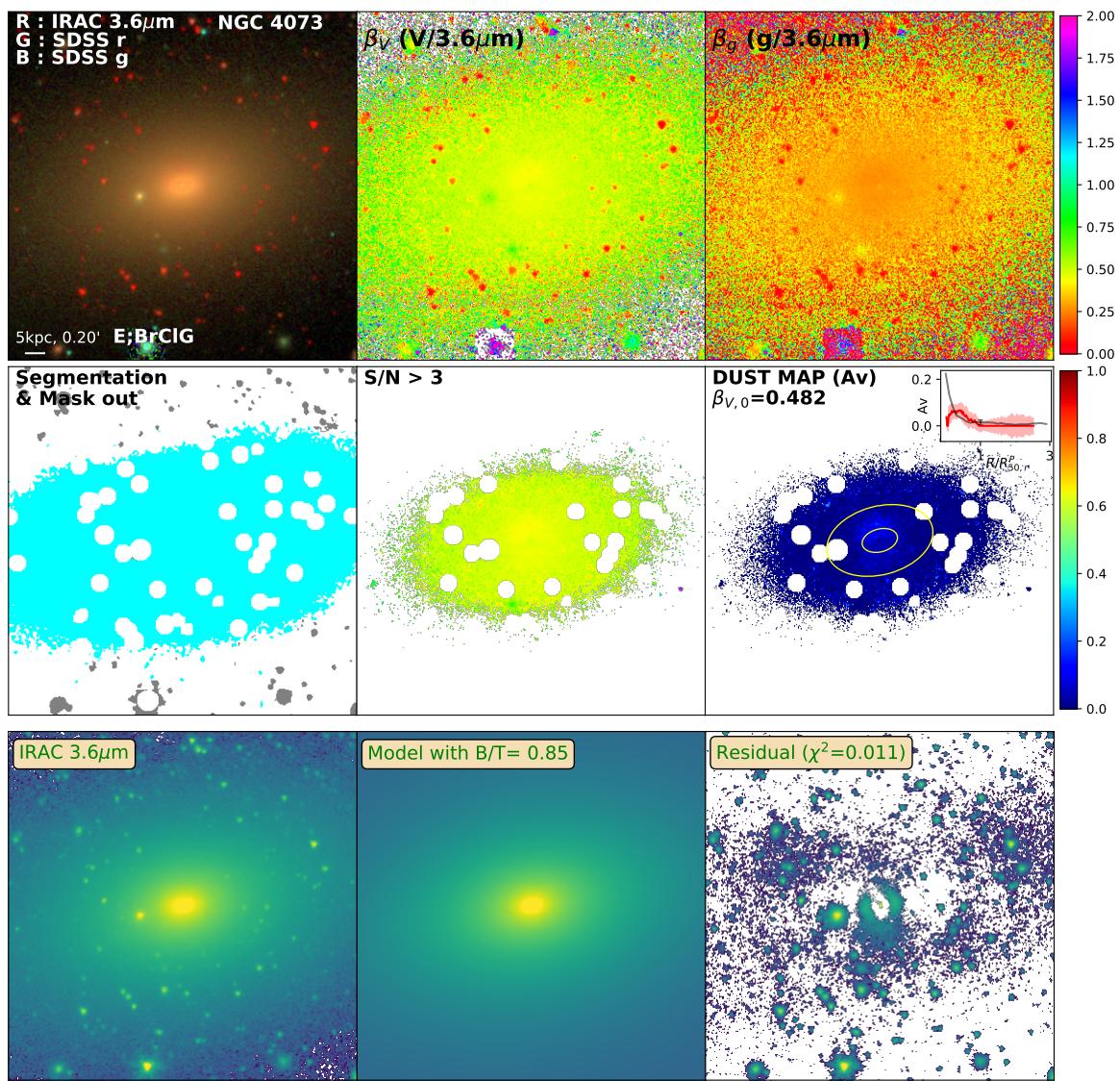


Figure D.132: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4073

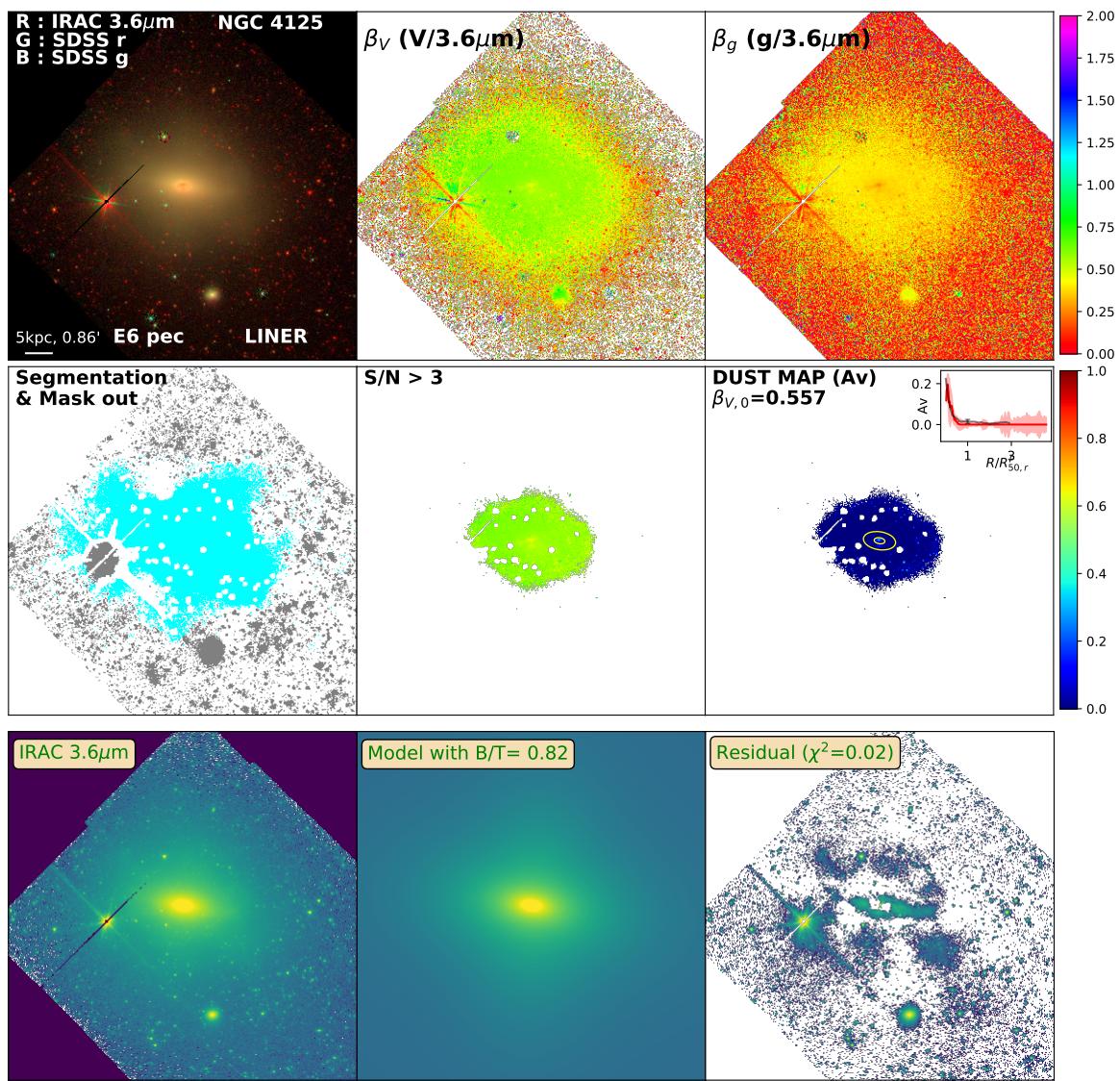


Figure D.133: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4125

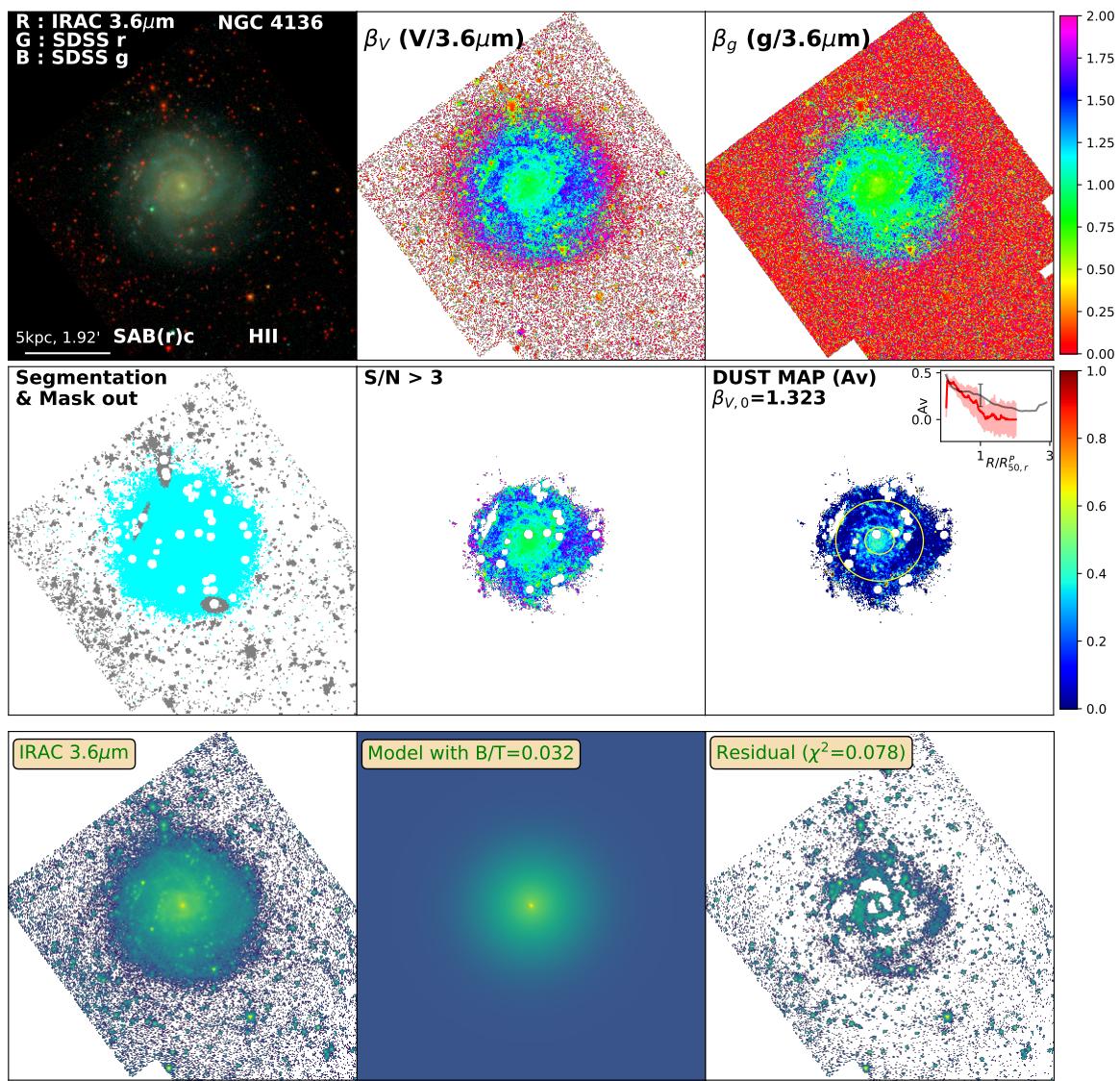


Figure D.134: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4136

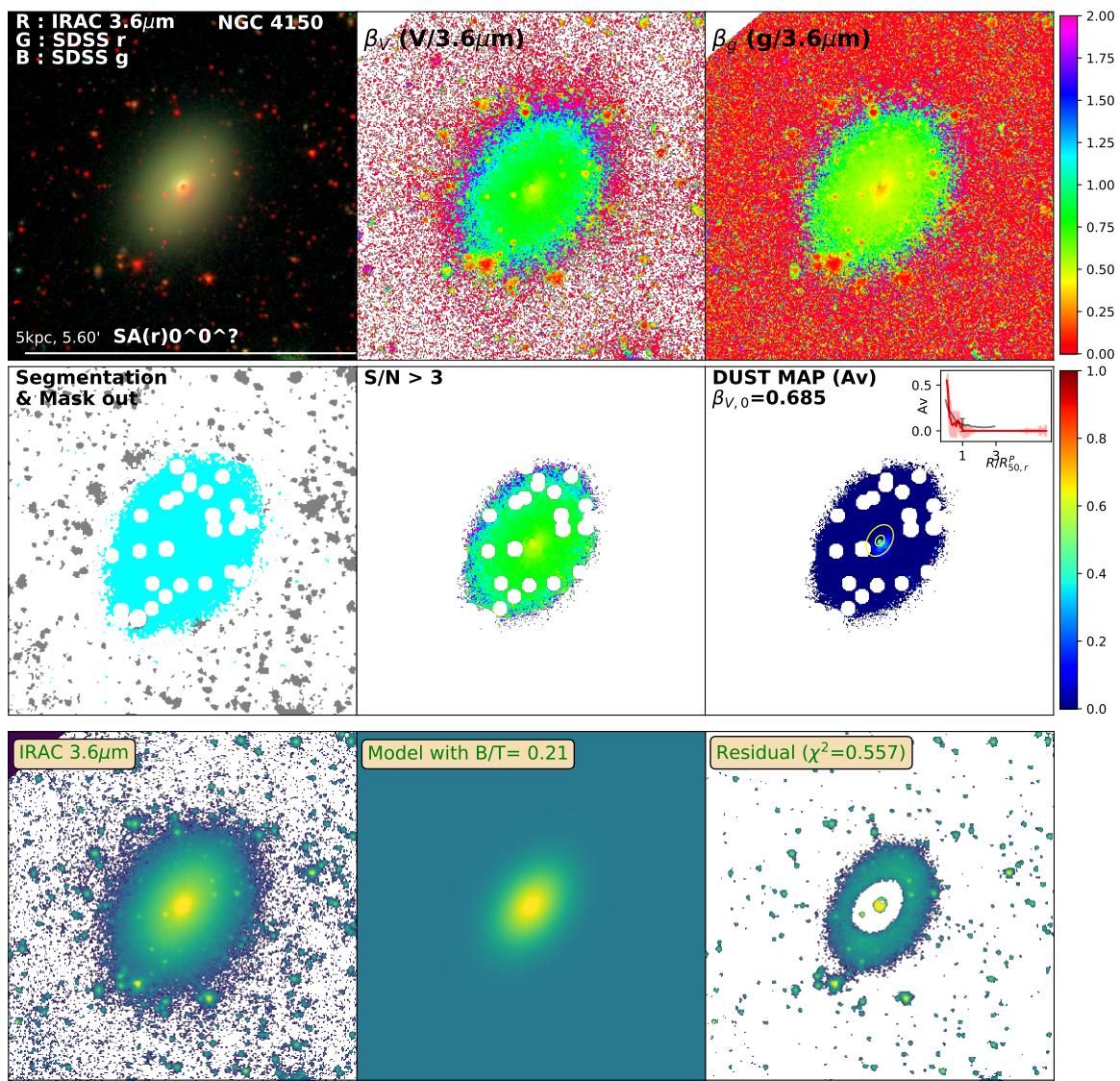


Figure D.135: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4150

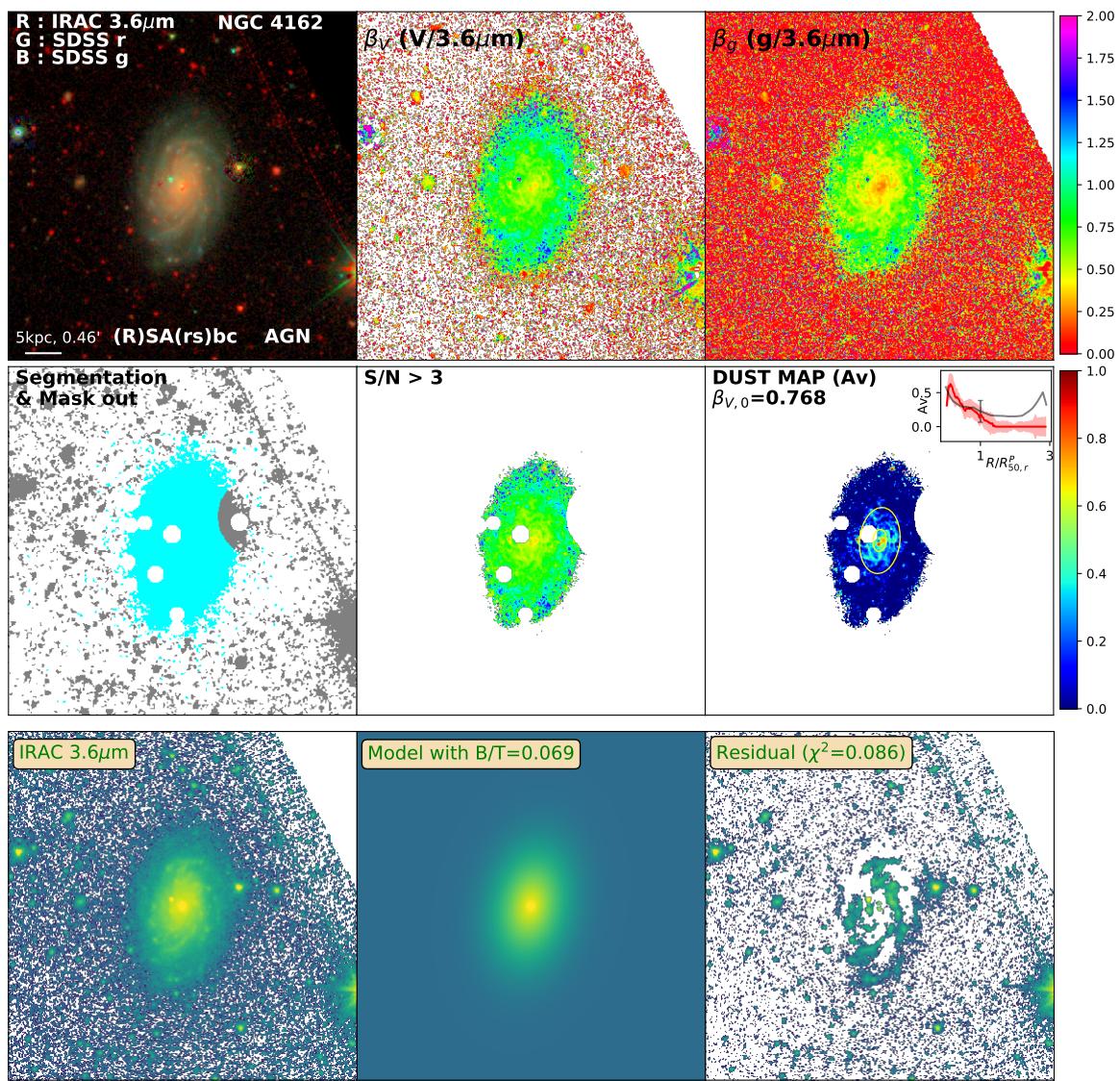


Figure D.136: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4162

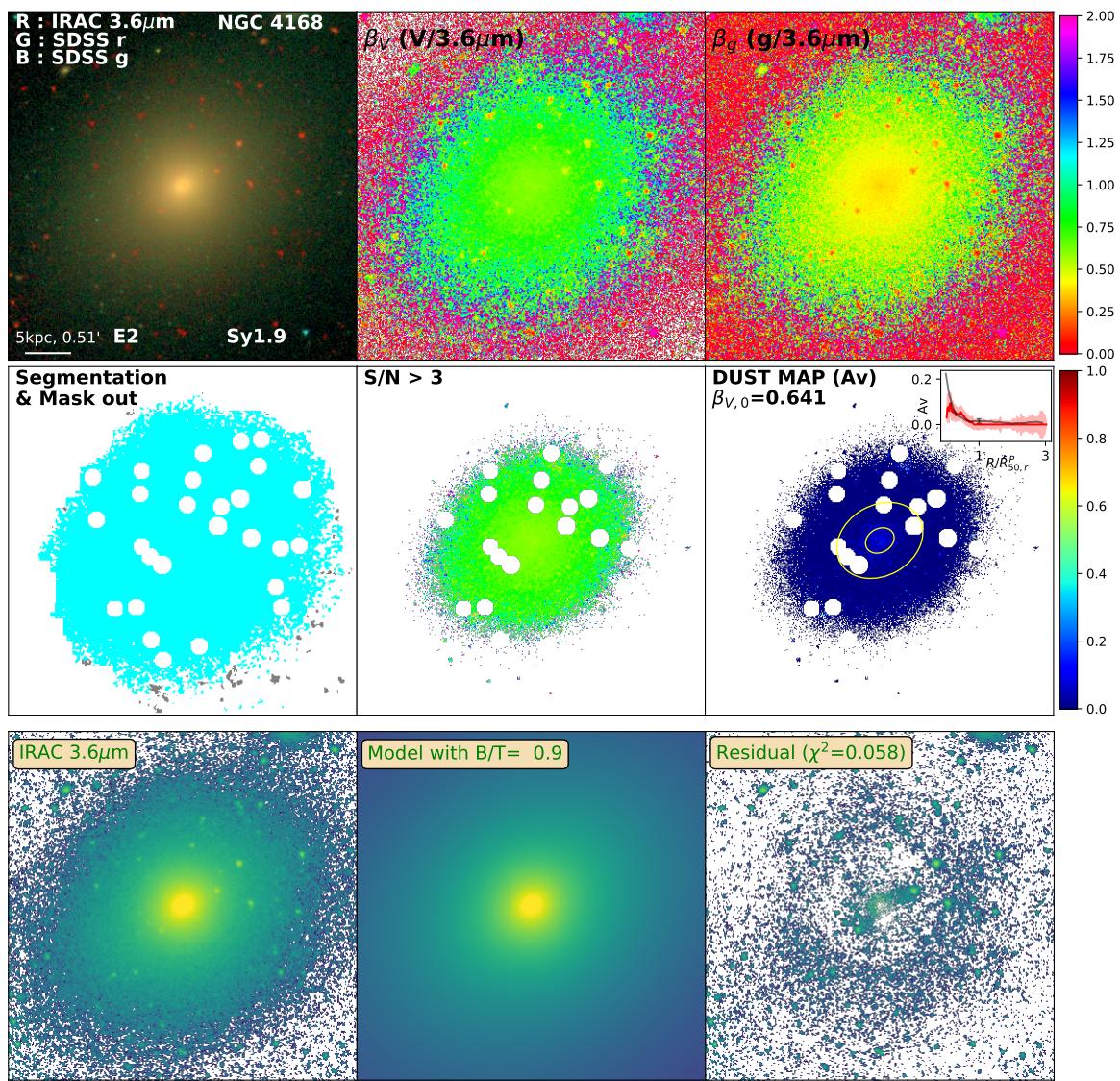


Figure D.137: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4168

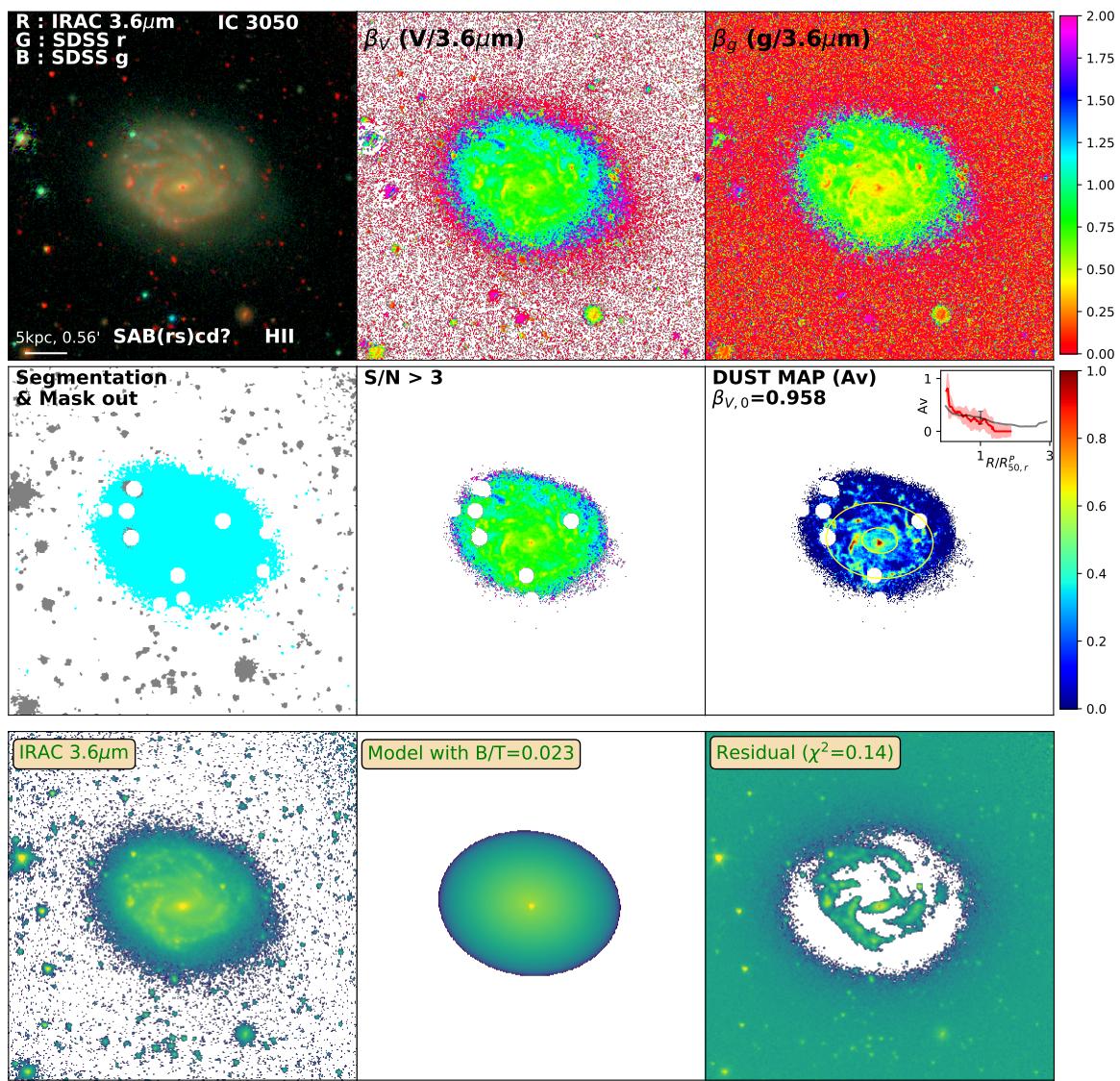


Figure D.138: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC3050

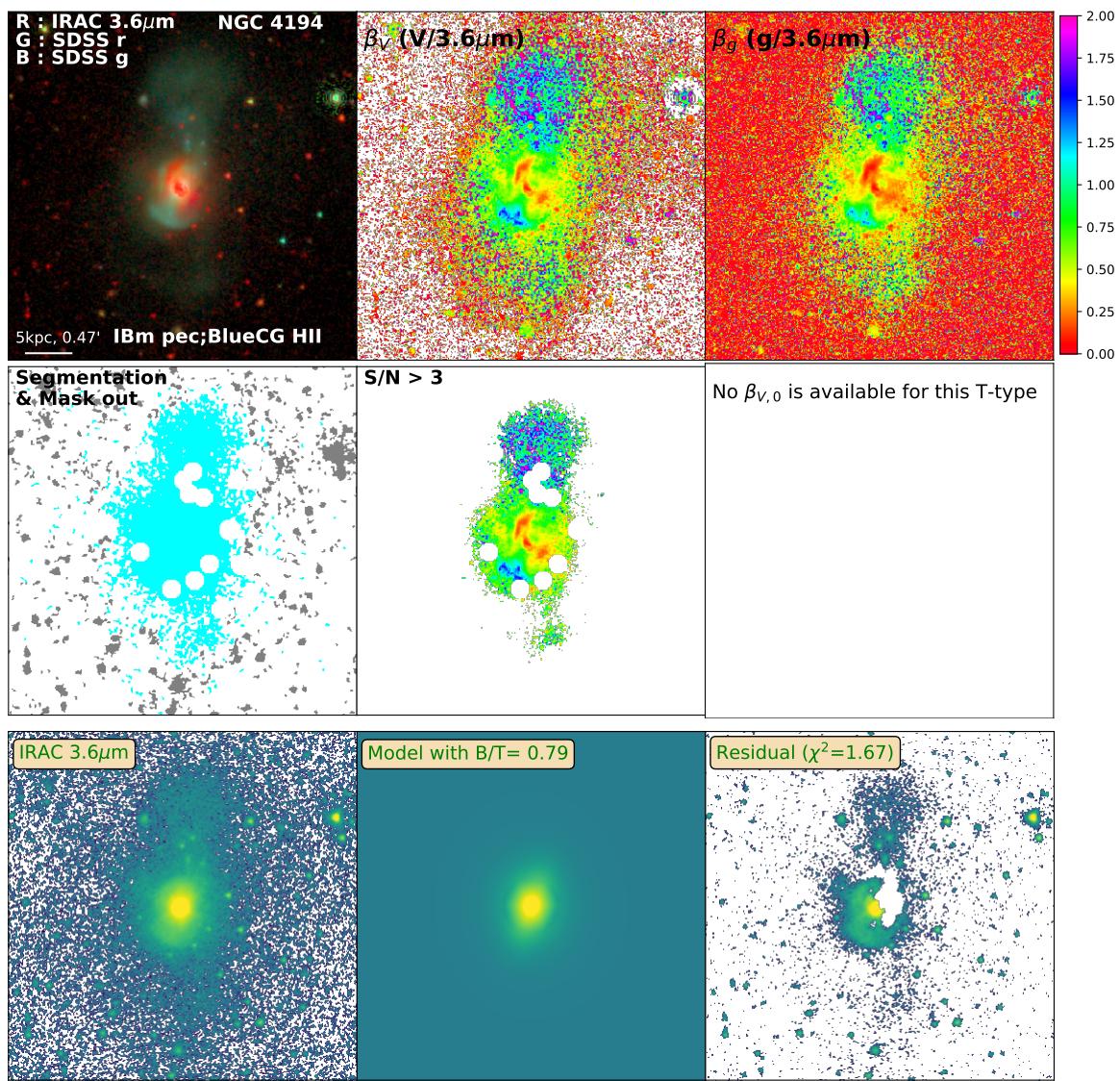


Figure D.139: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4194

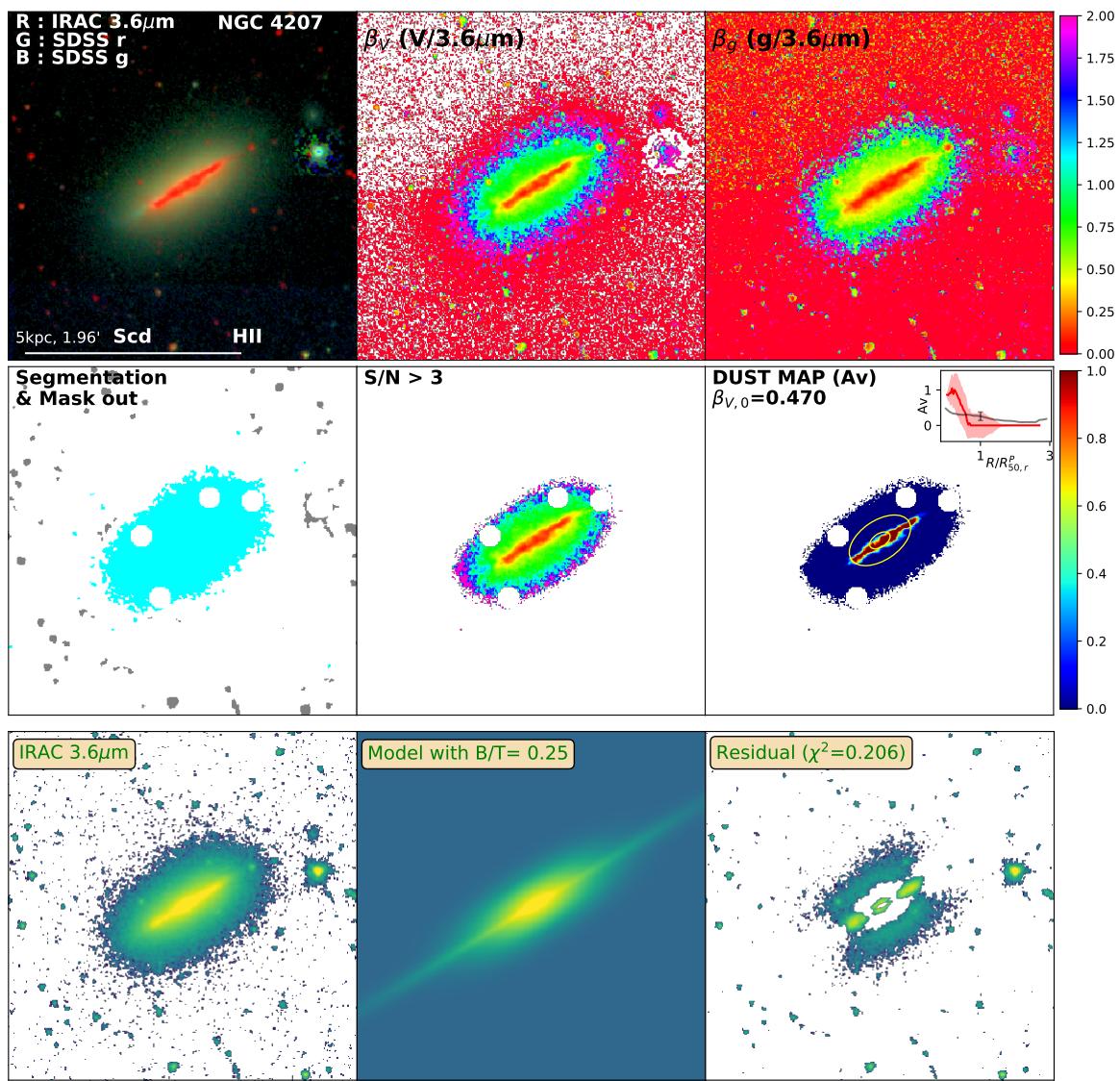


Figure D.140: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4207

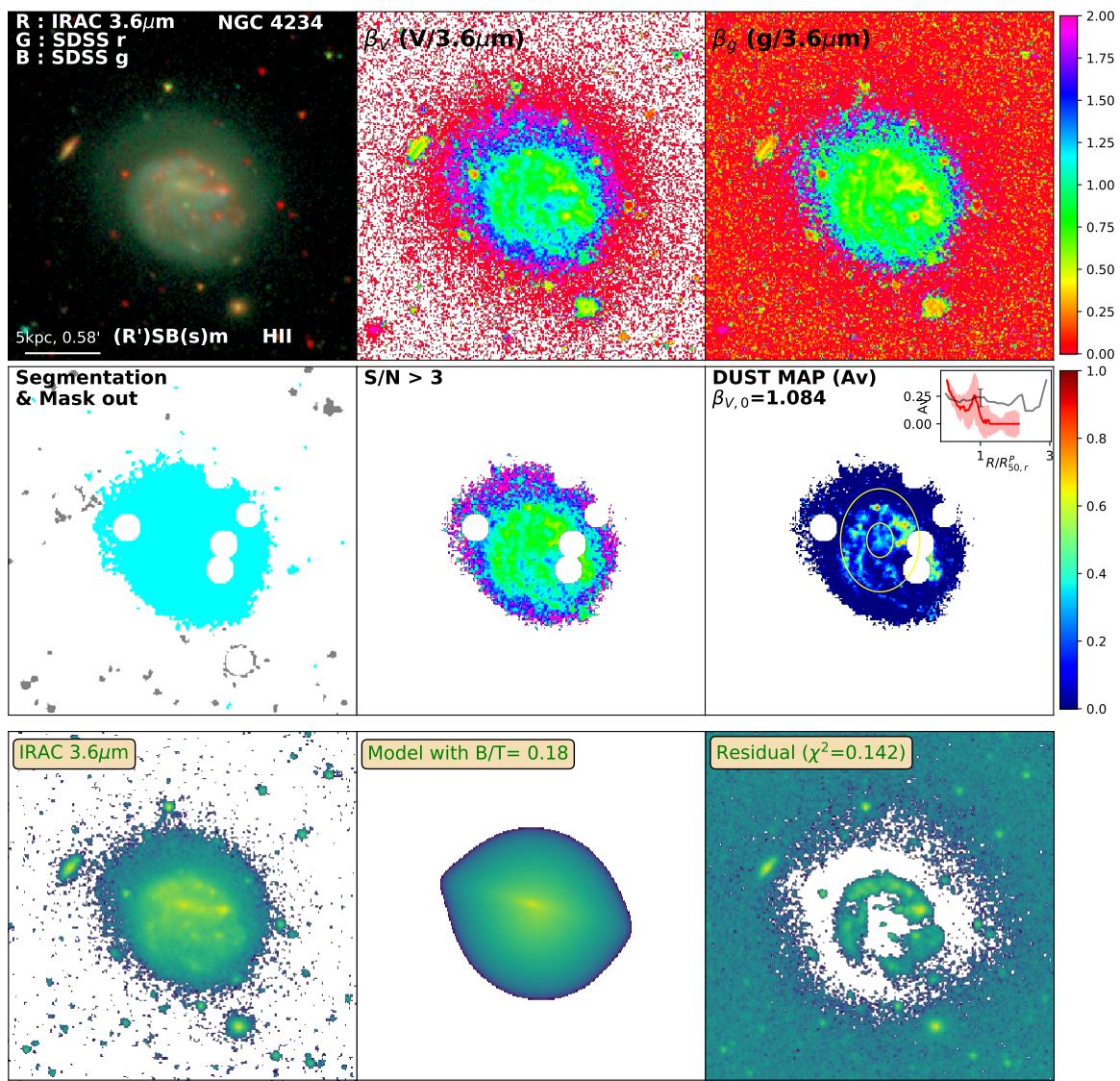


Figure D.141: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4234

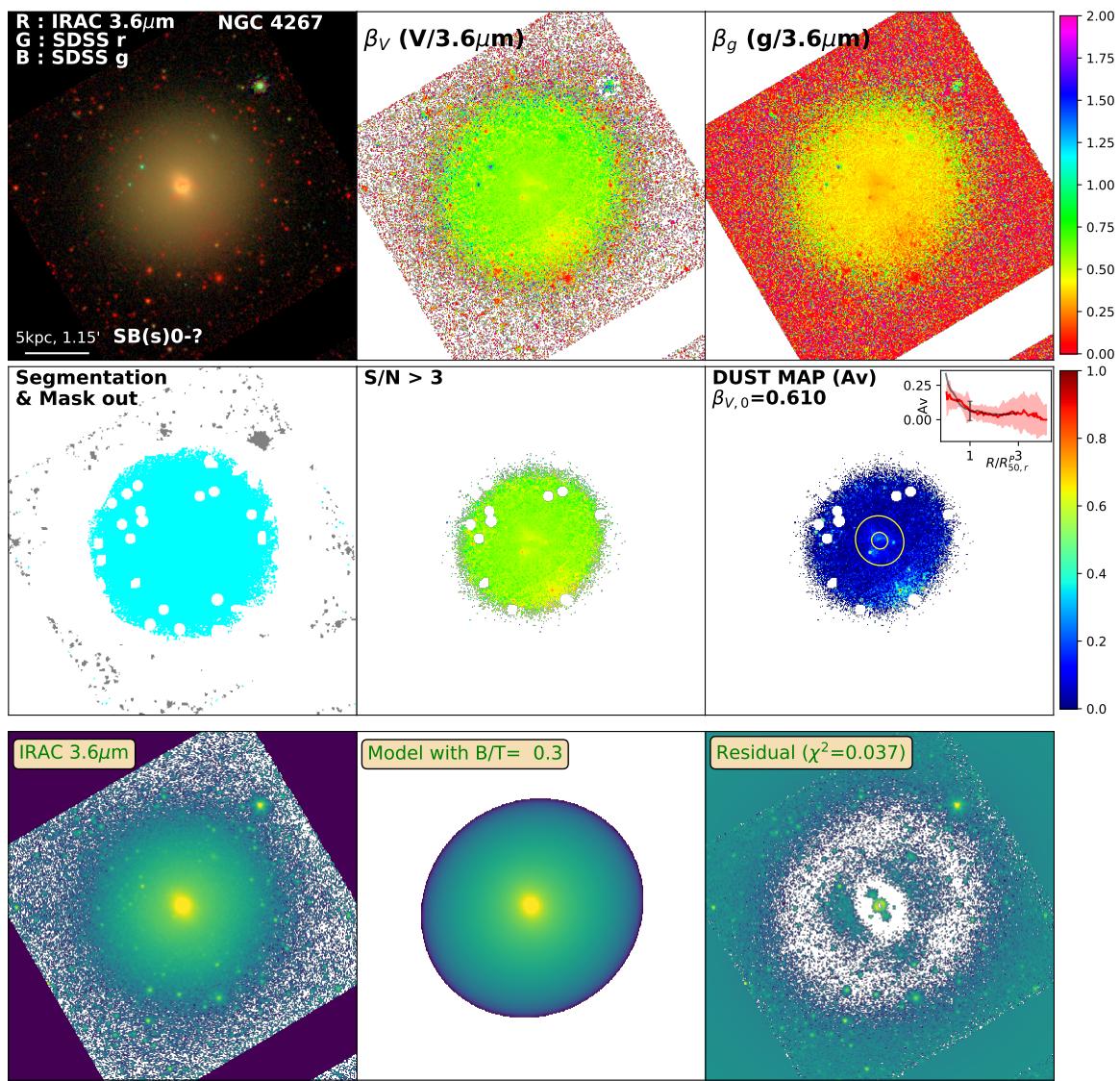


Figure D.142: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4267

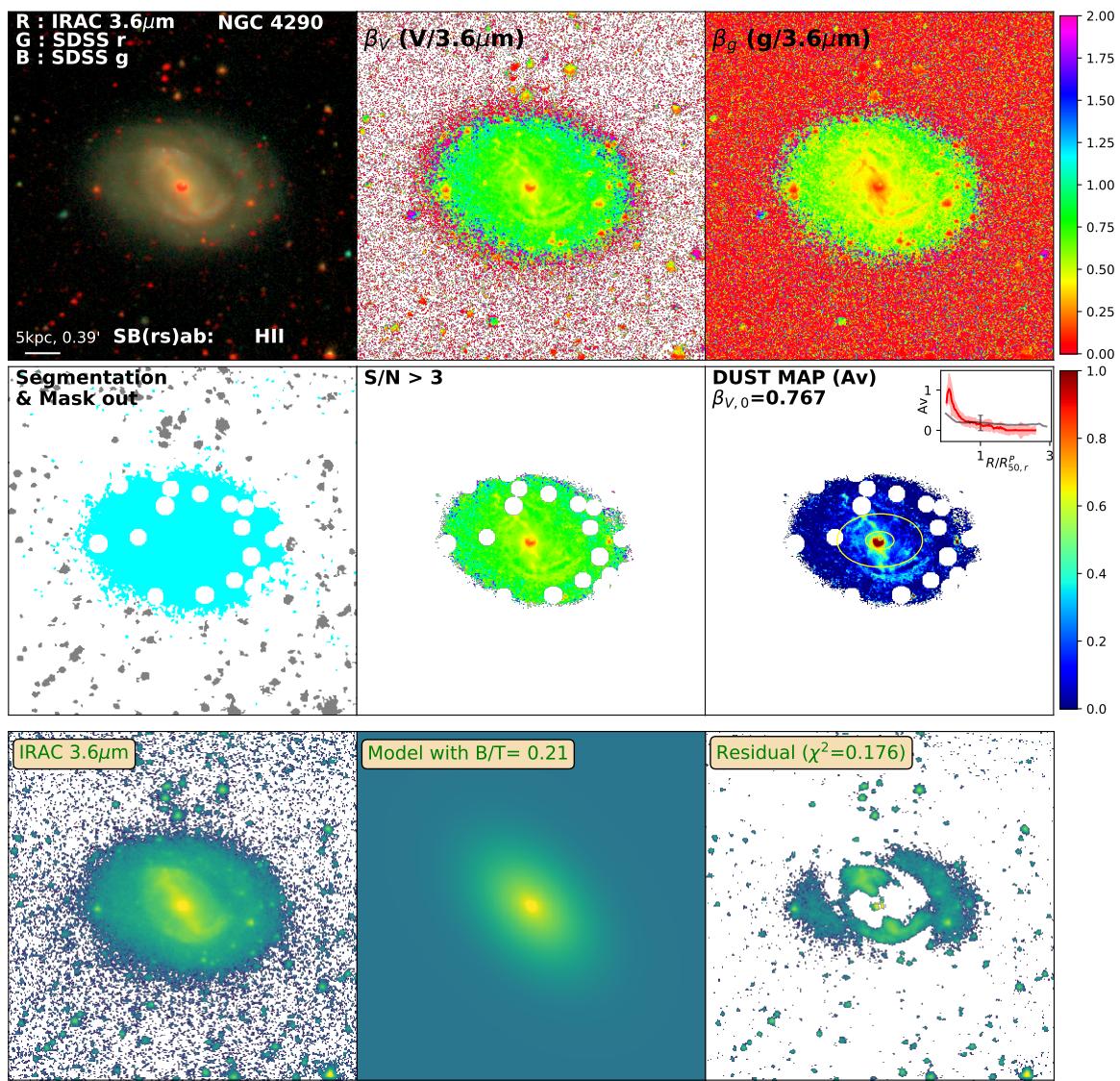


Figure D.143: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4290

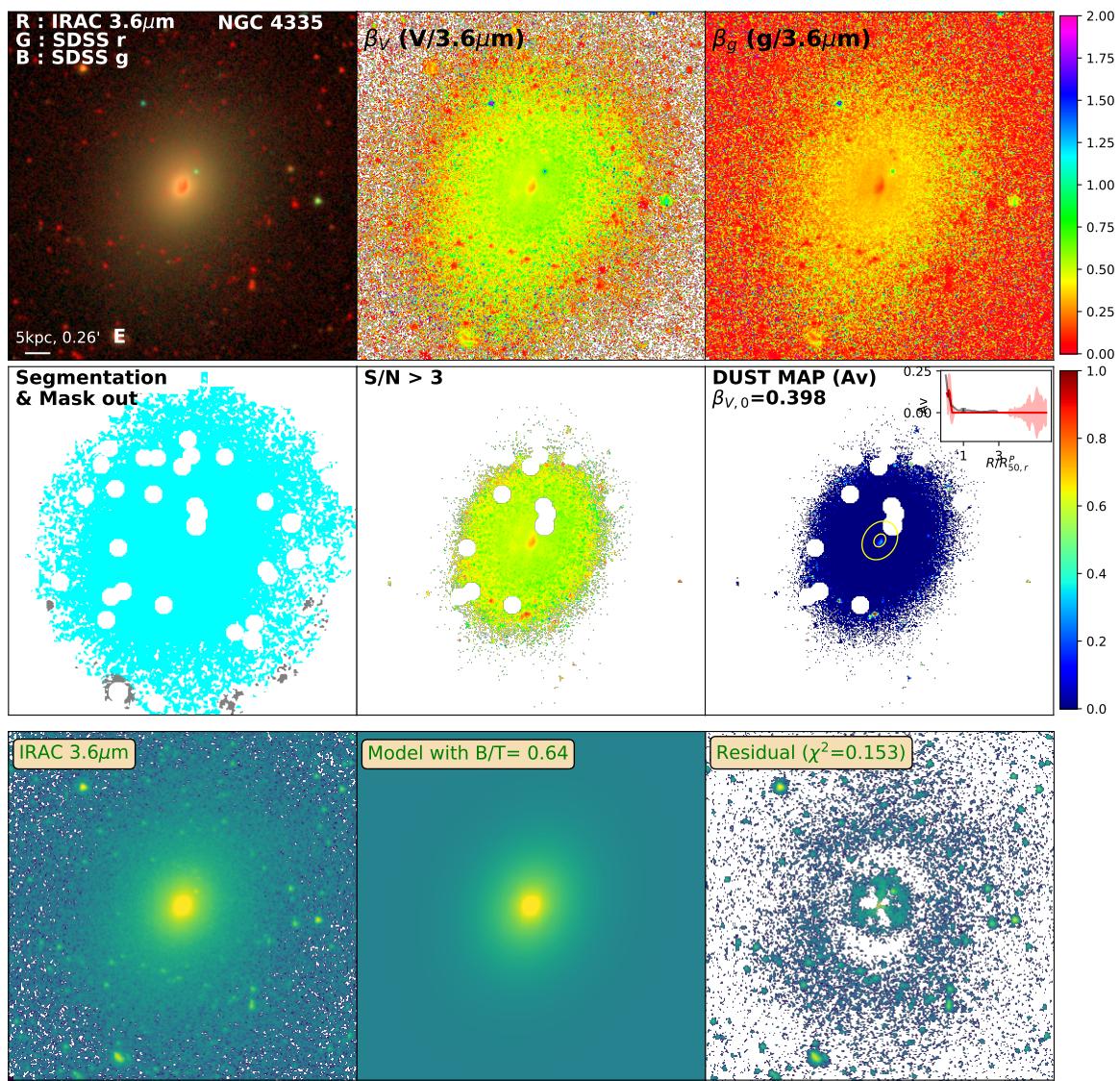


Figure D.144: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4335

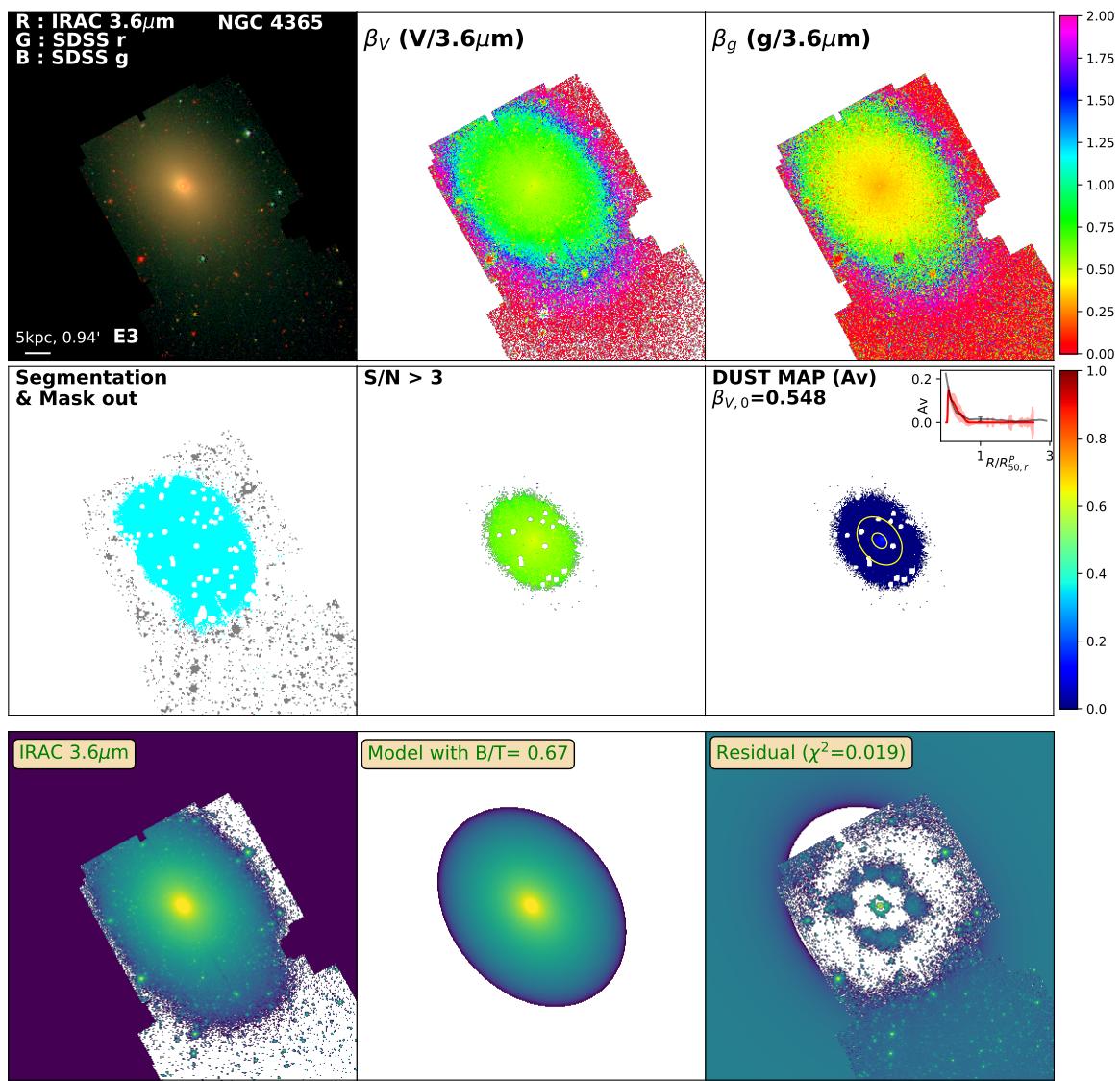


Figure D.145: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4365

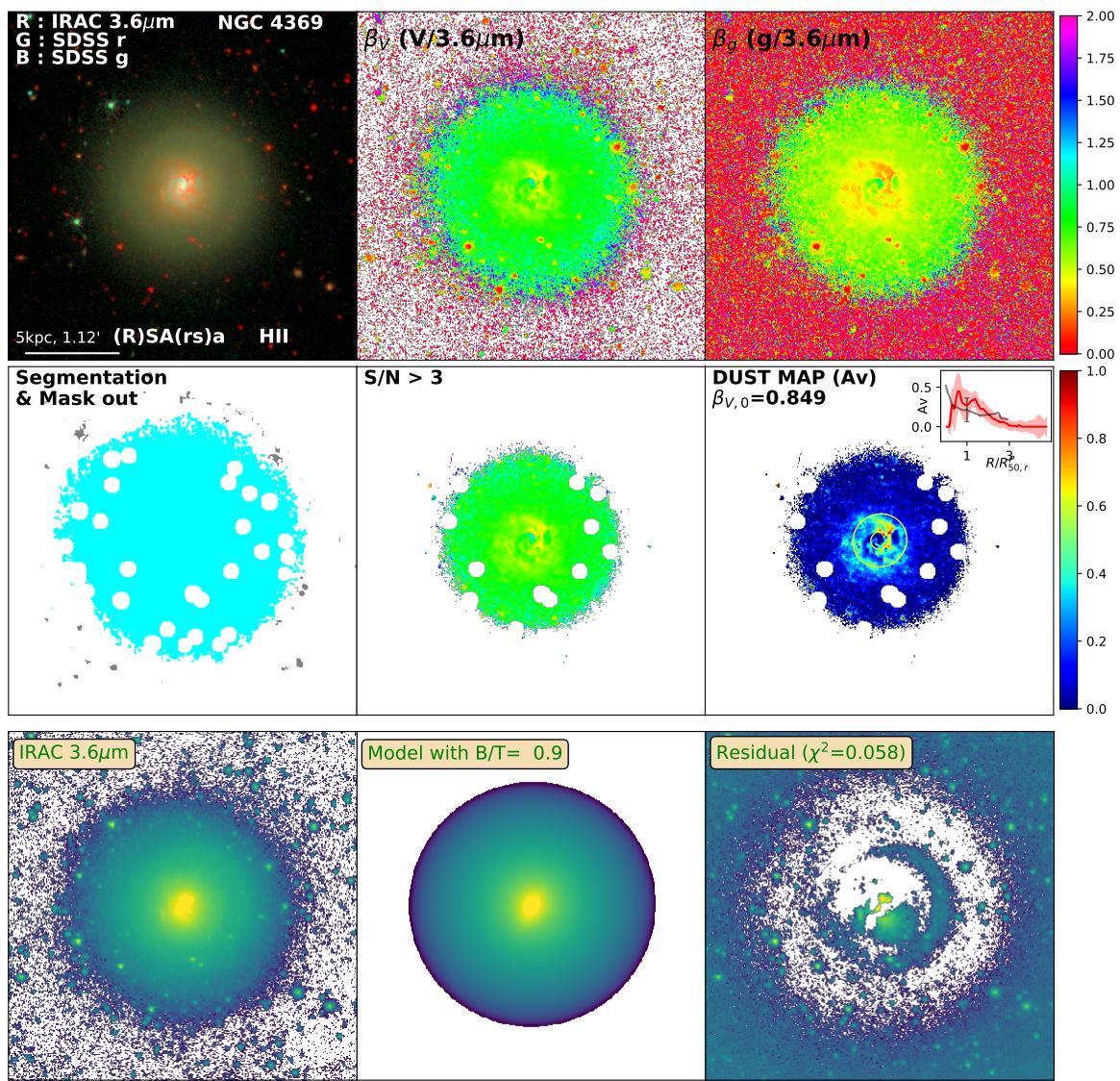


Figure D.146: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4369

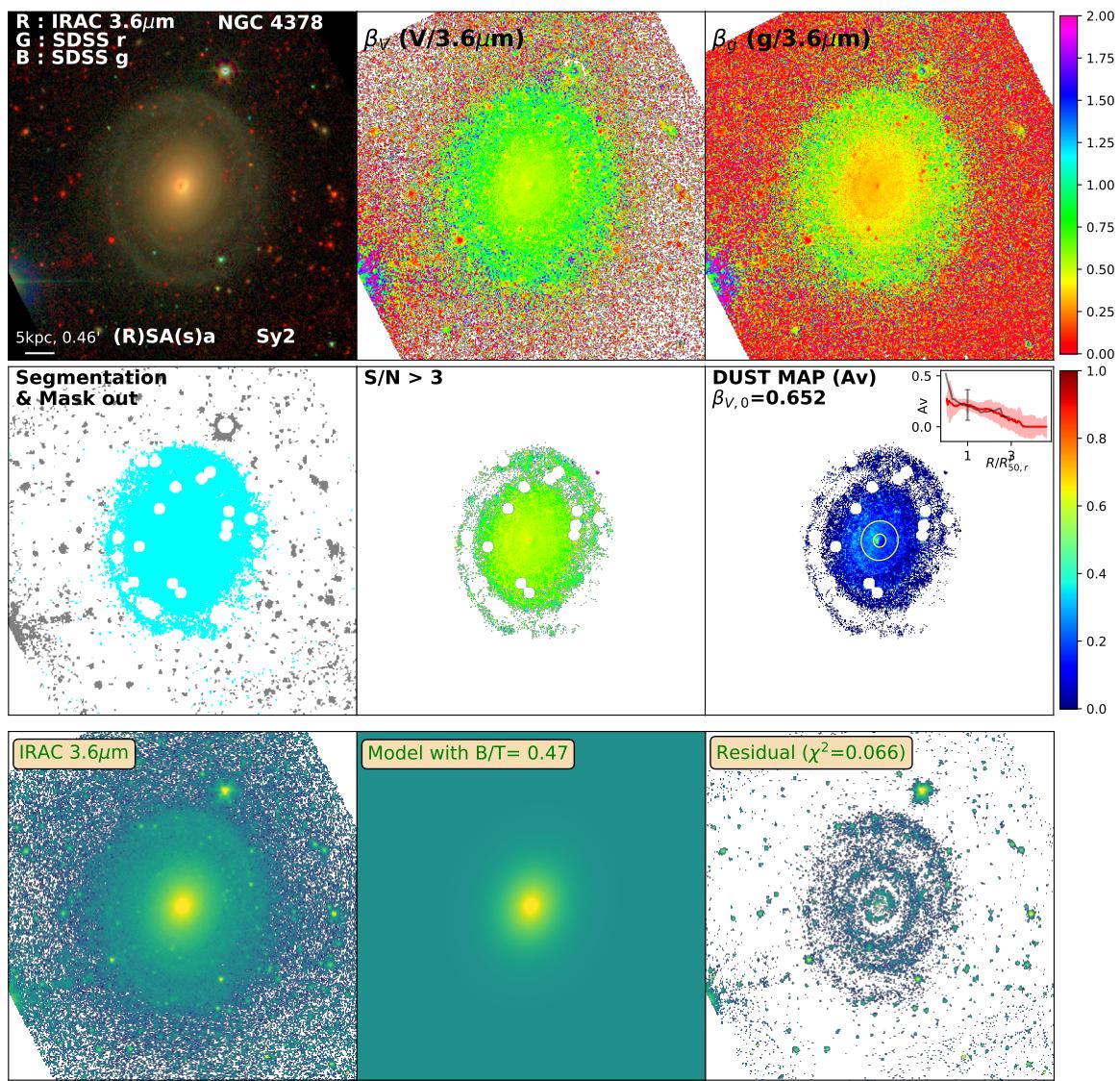


Figure D.147: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4378

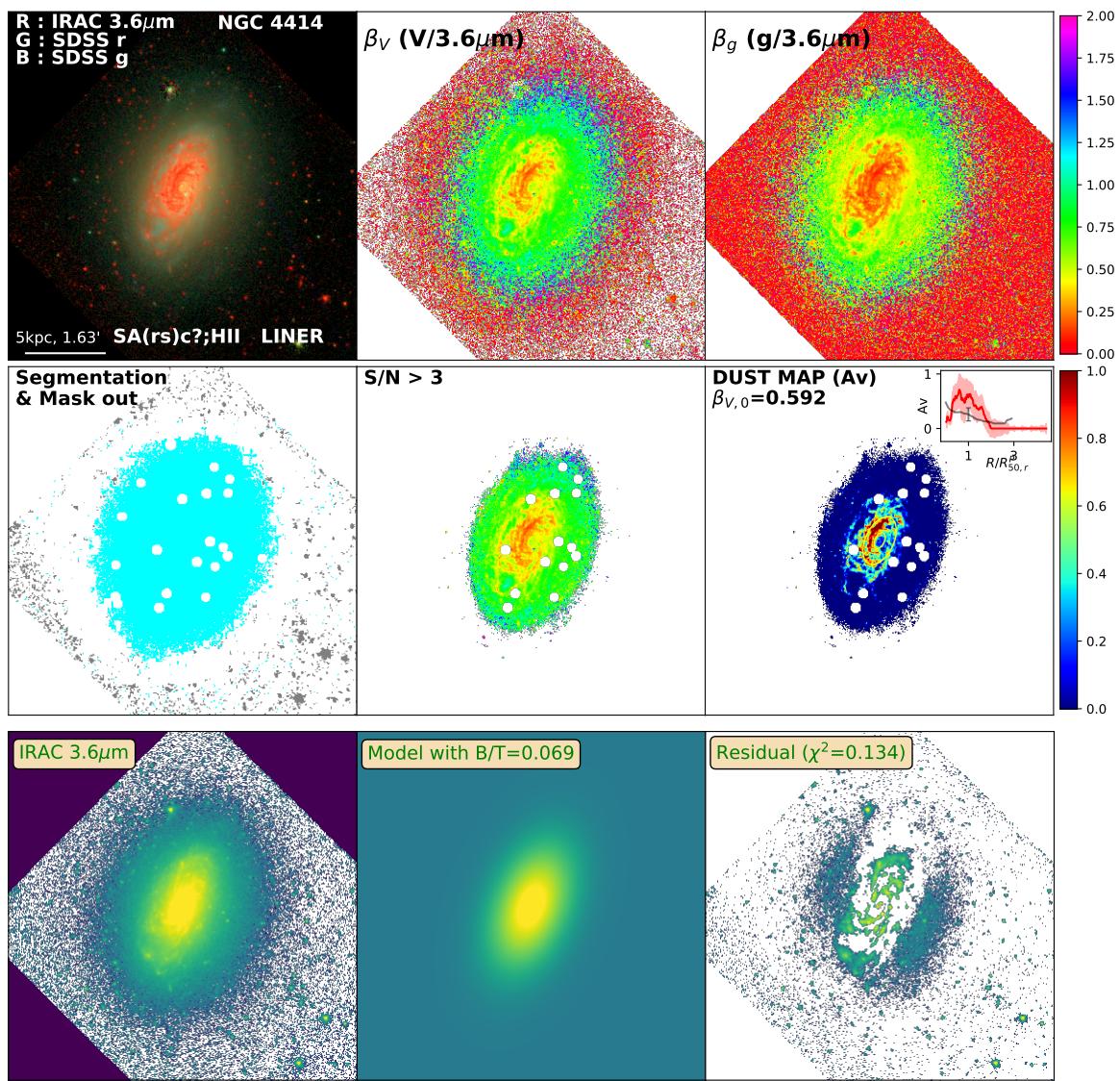


Figure D.148: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4414

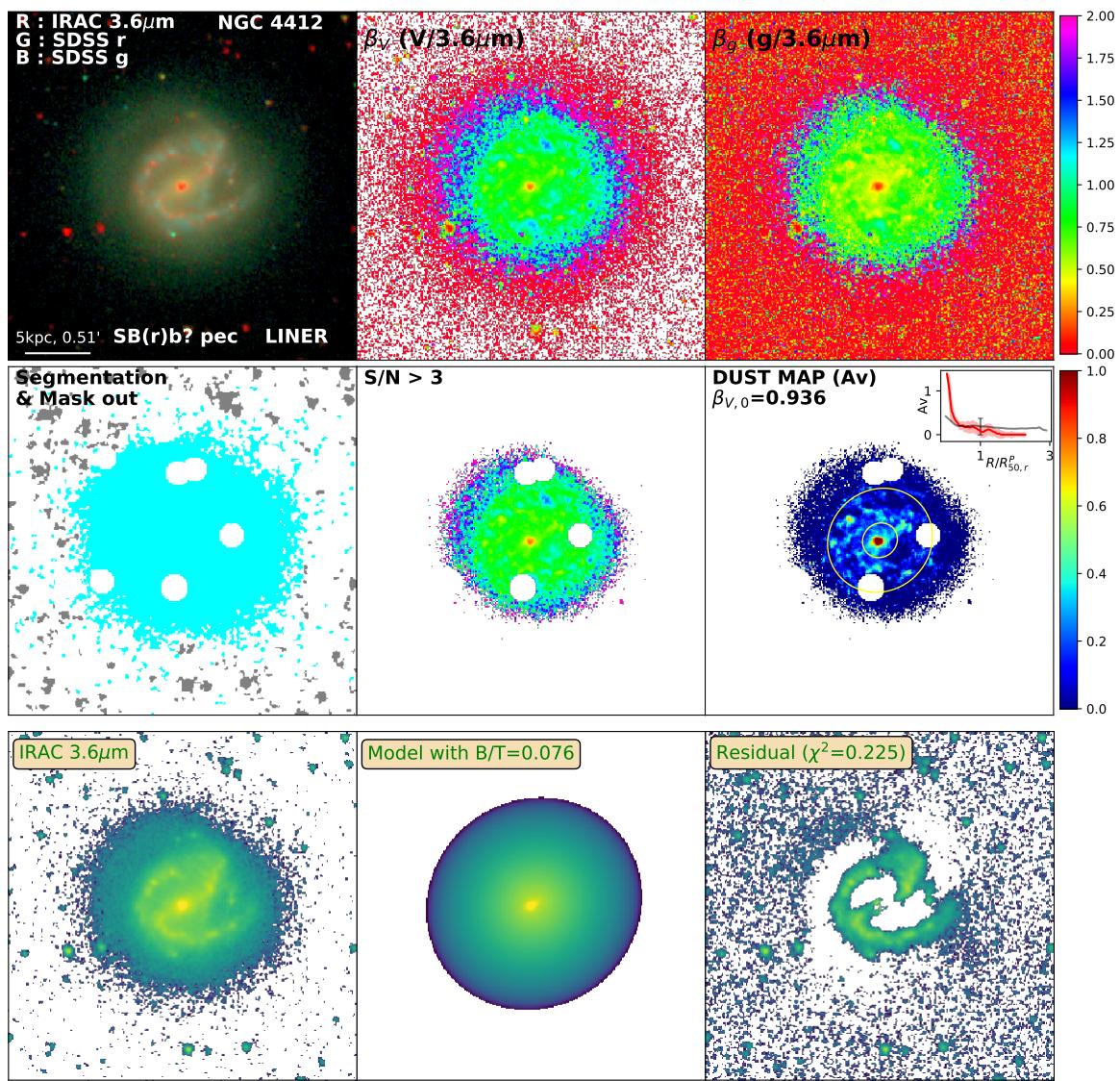


Figure D.149: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4412

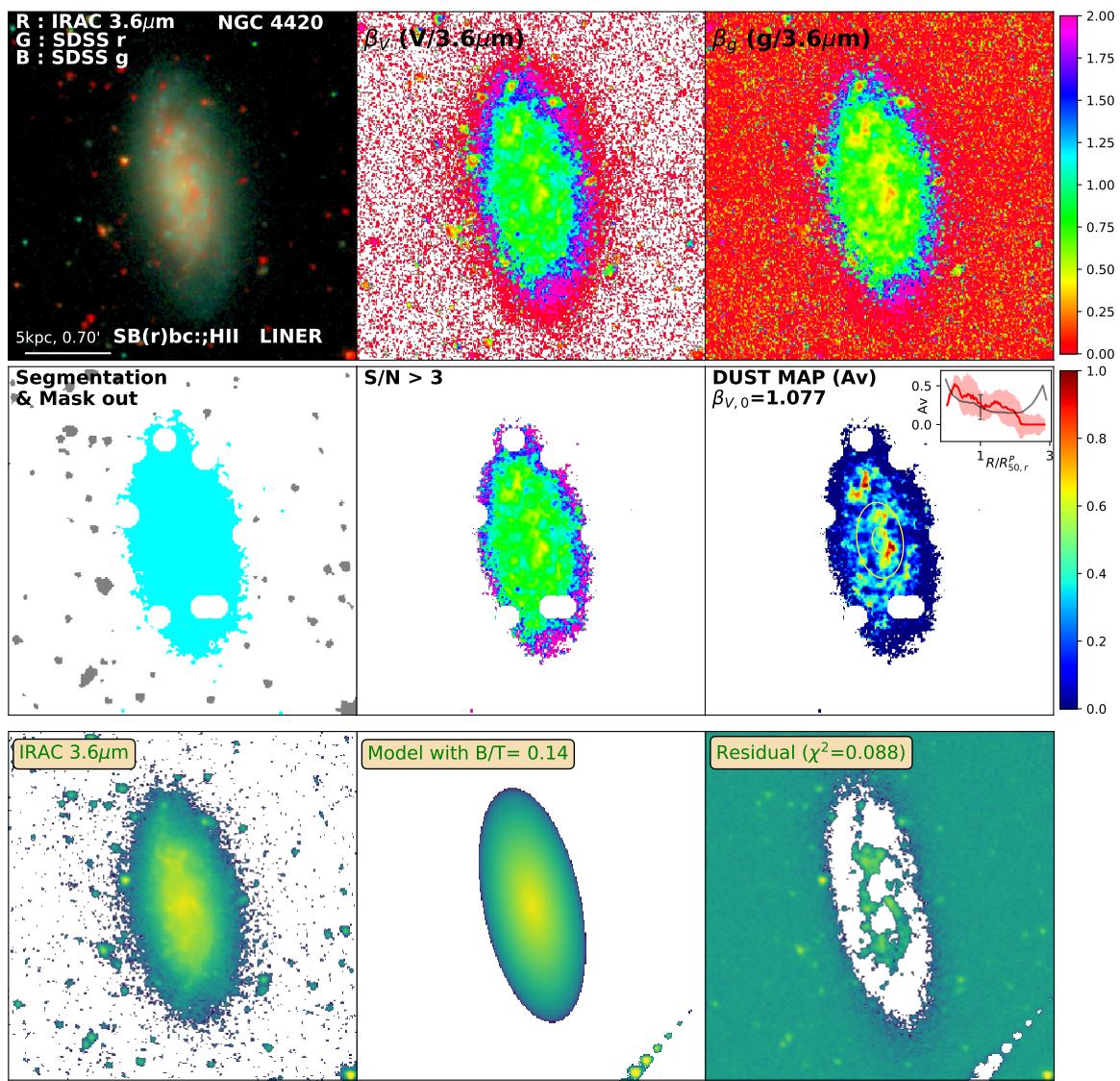


Figure D.150: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4420

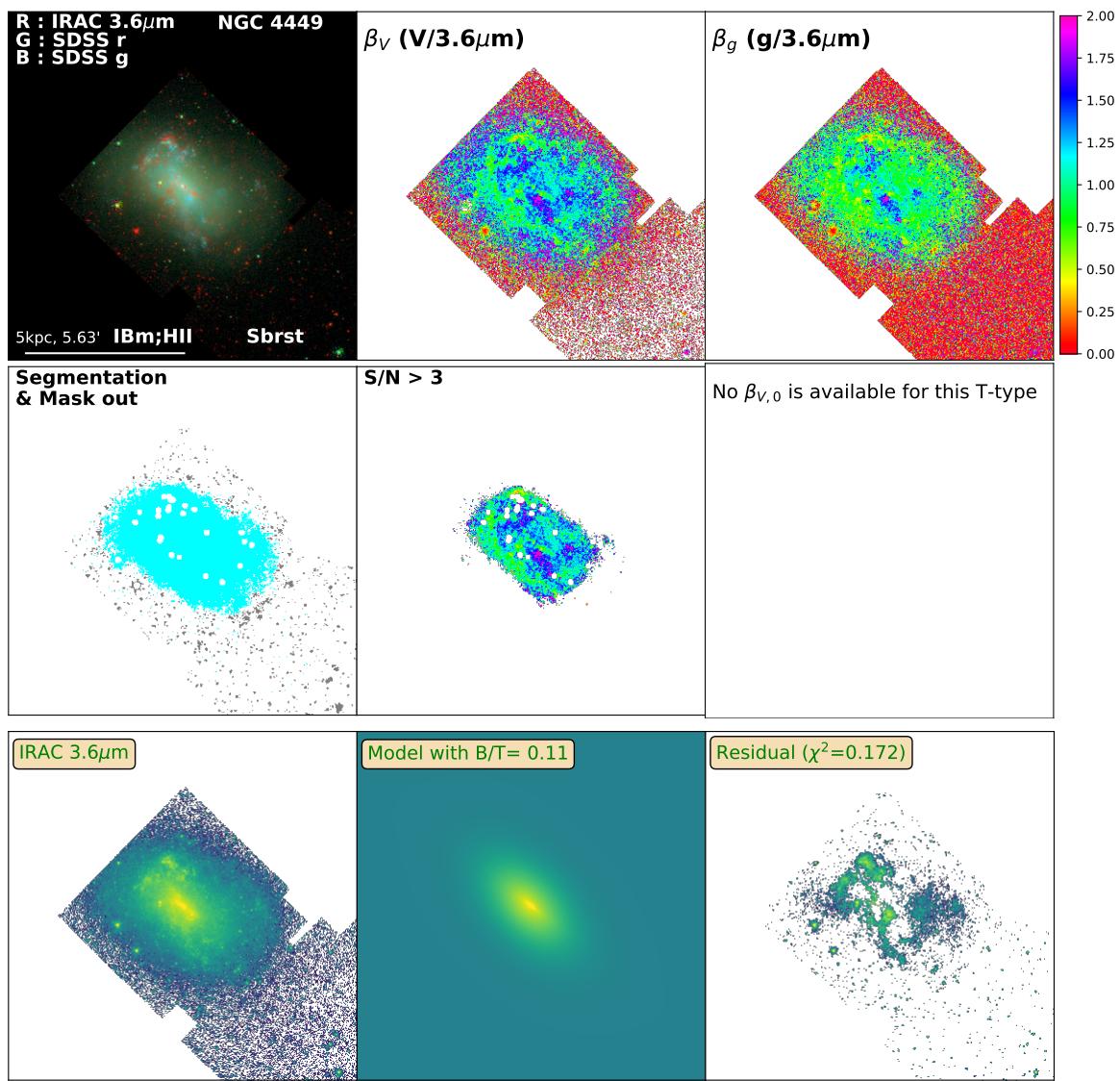


Figure D.151: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4449

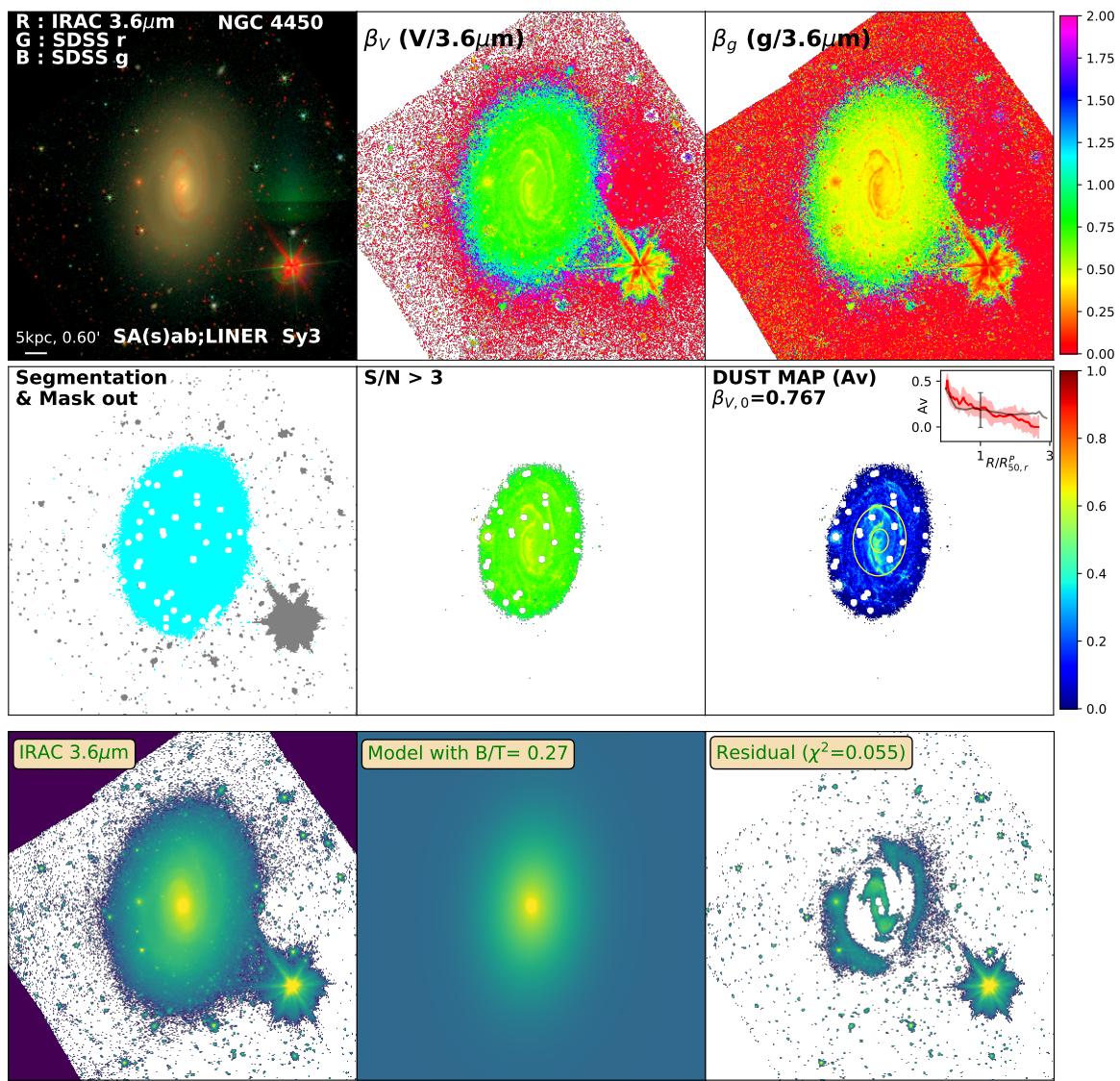


Figure D.152: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4450

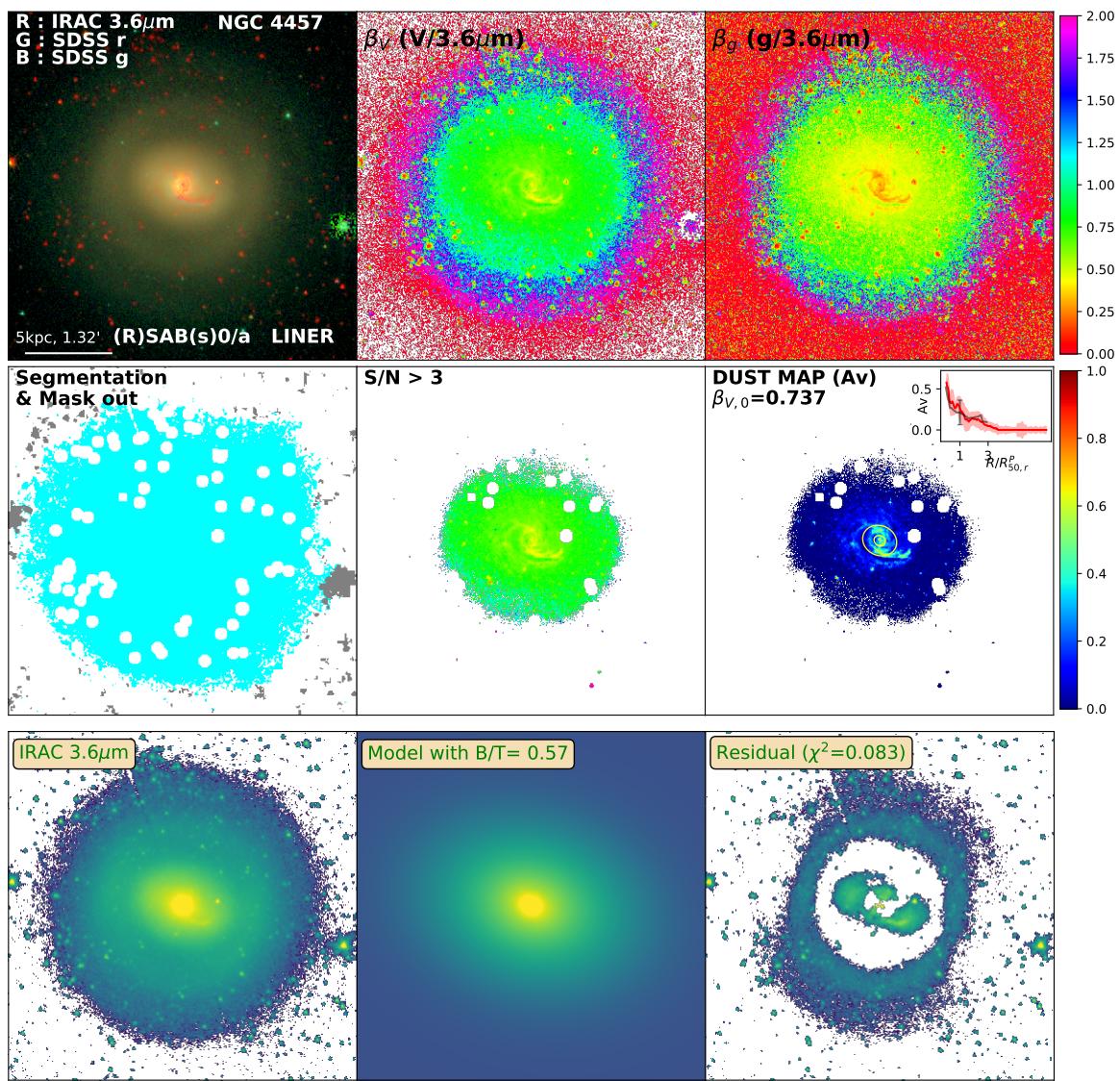


Figure D.153: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4457

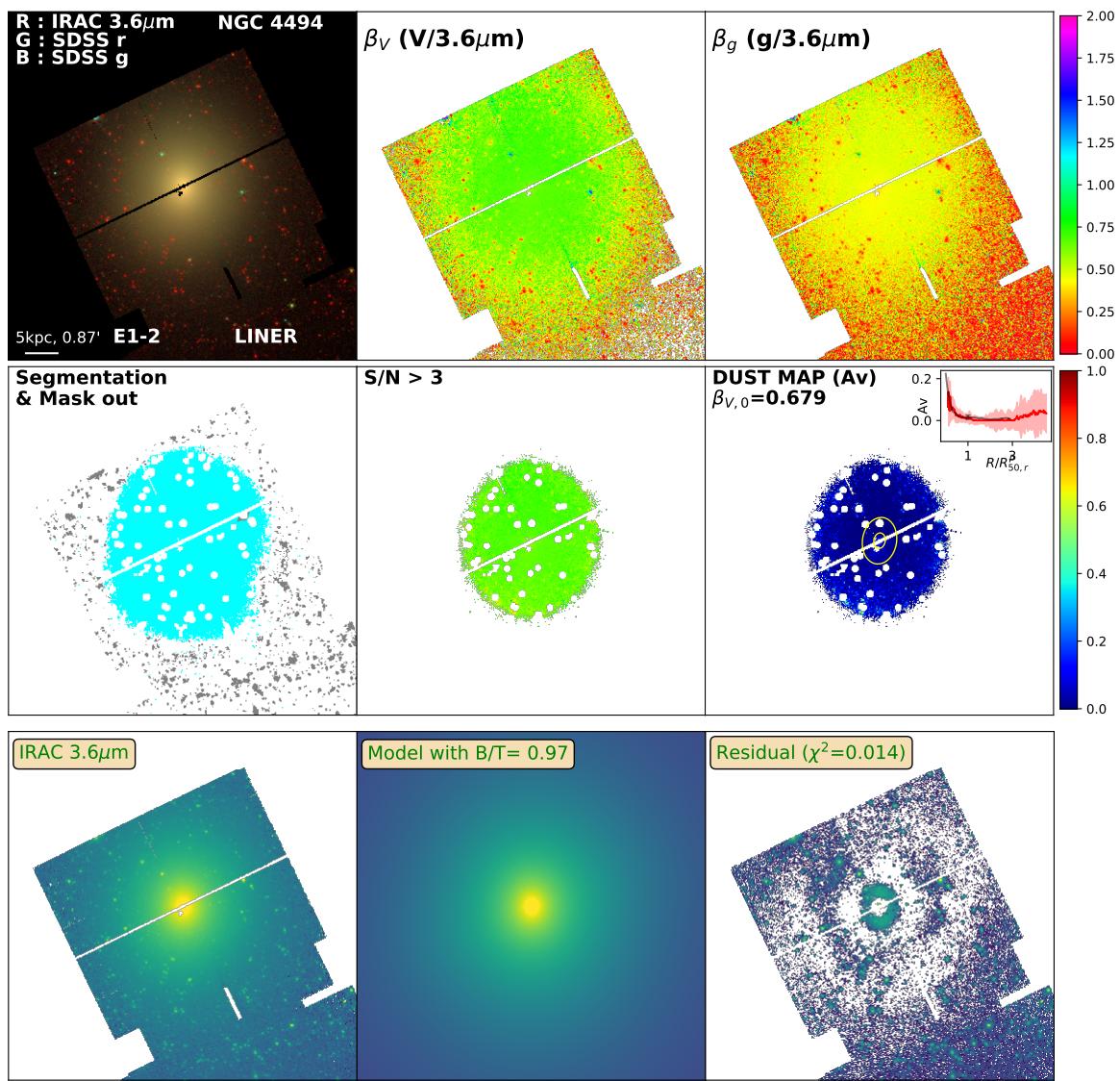


Figure D.154: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4494

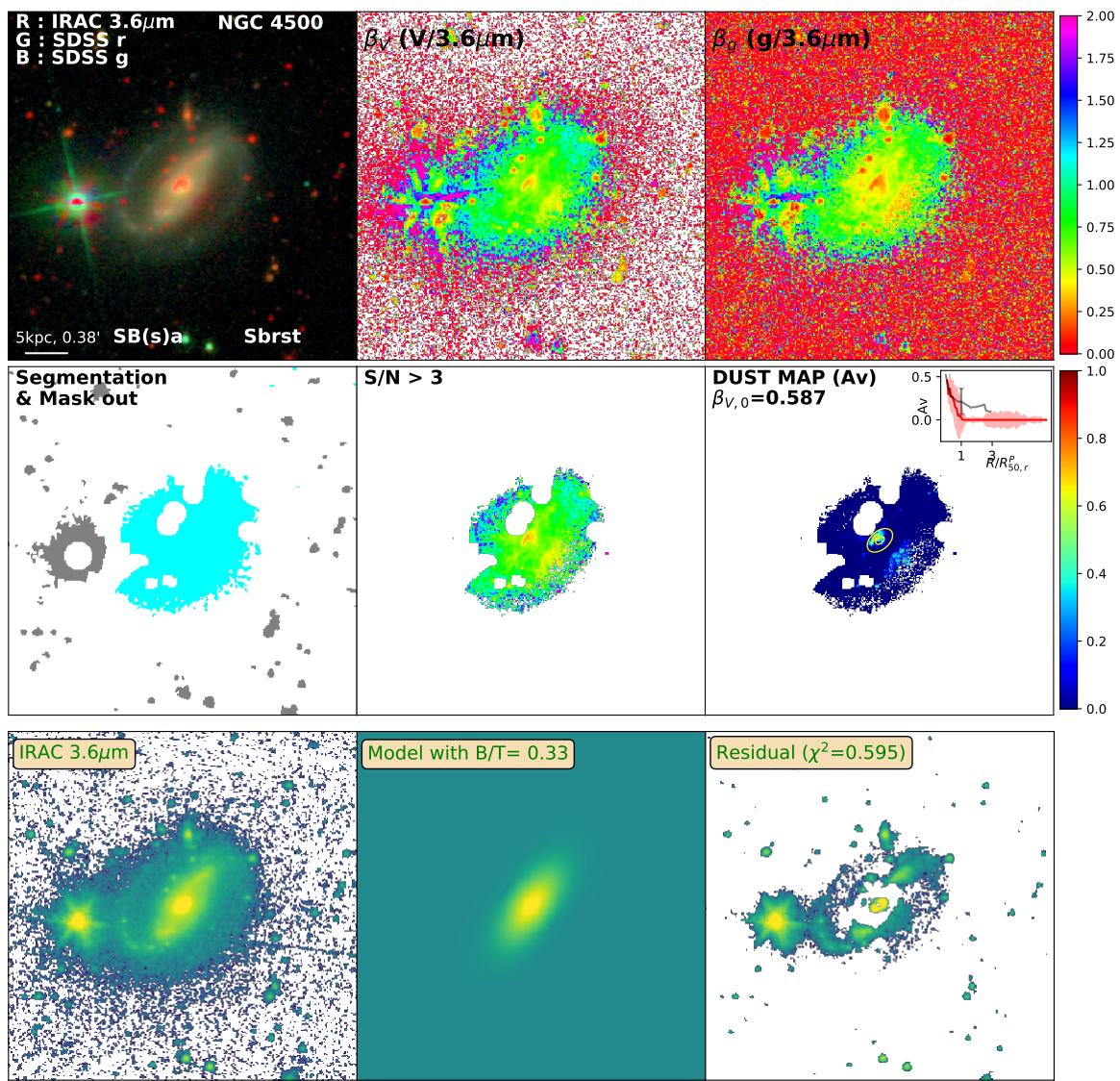


Figure D.155: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4500

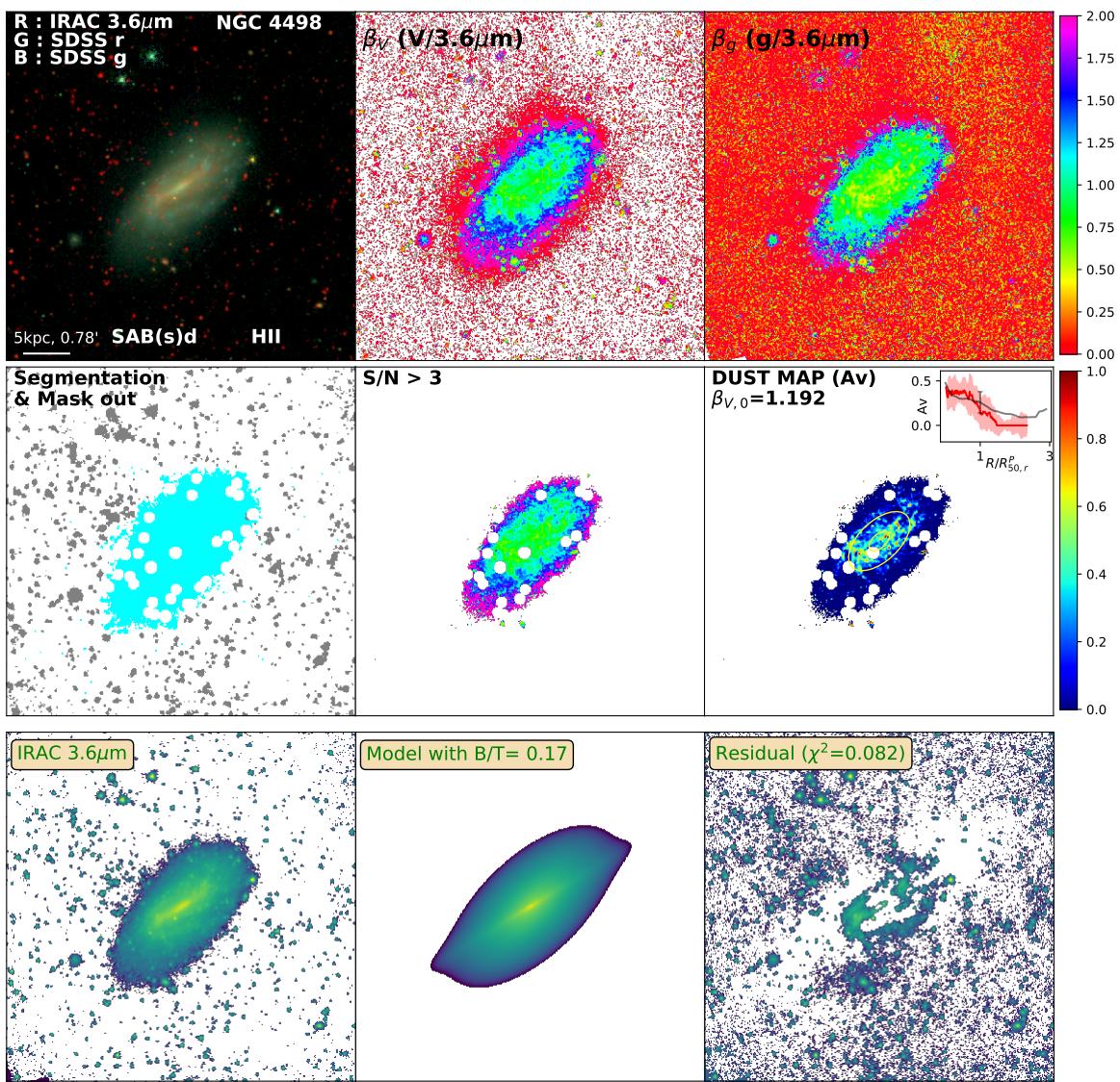


Figure D.156: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4498

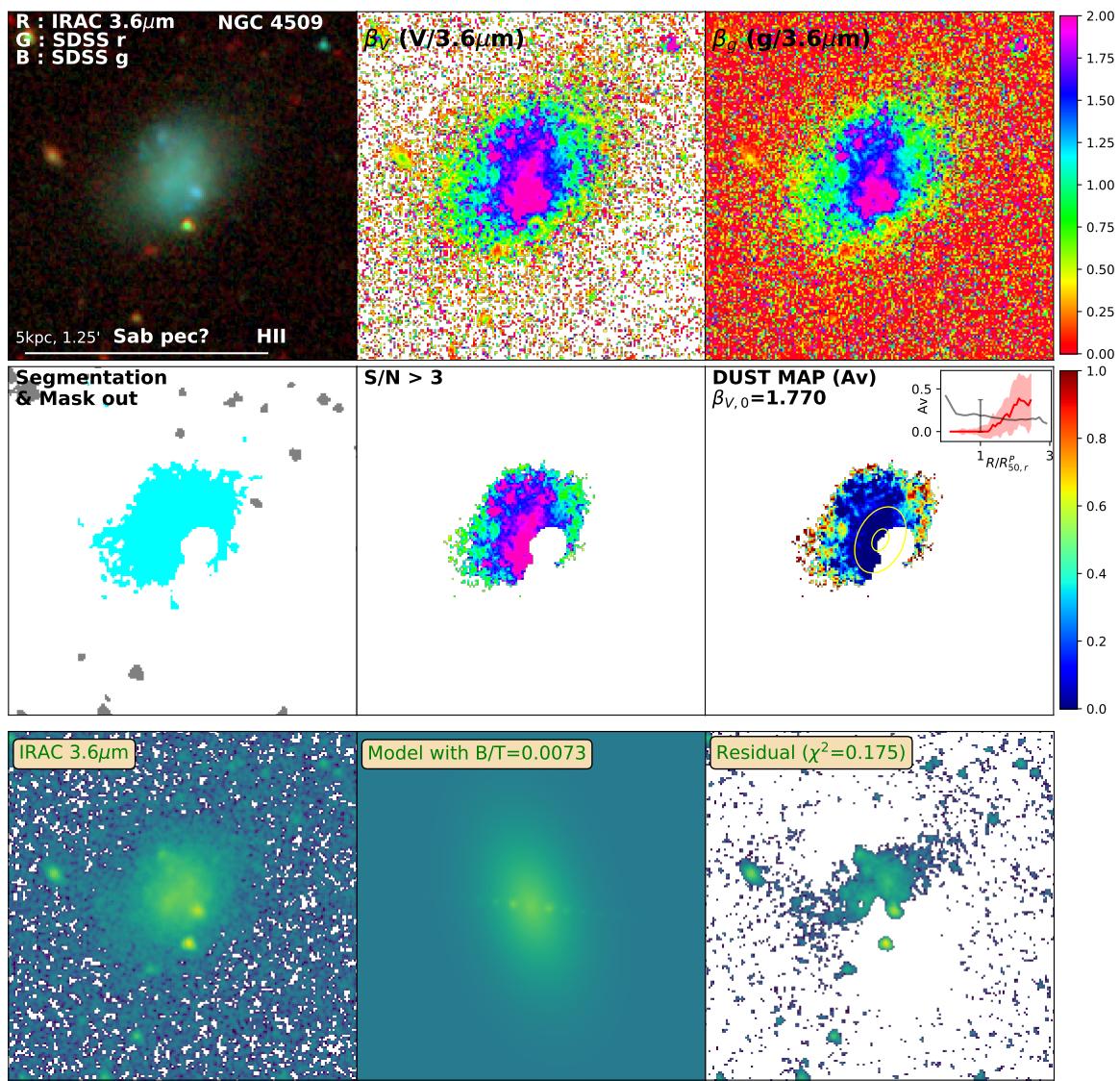


Figure D.157: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4509

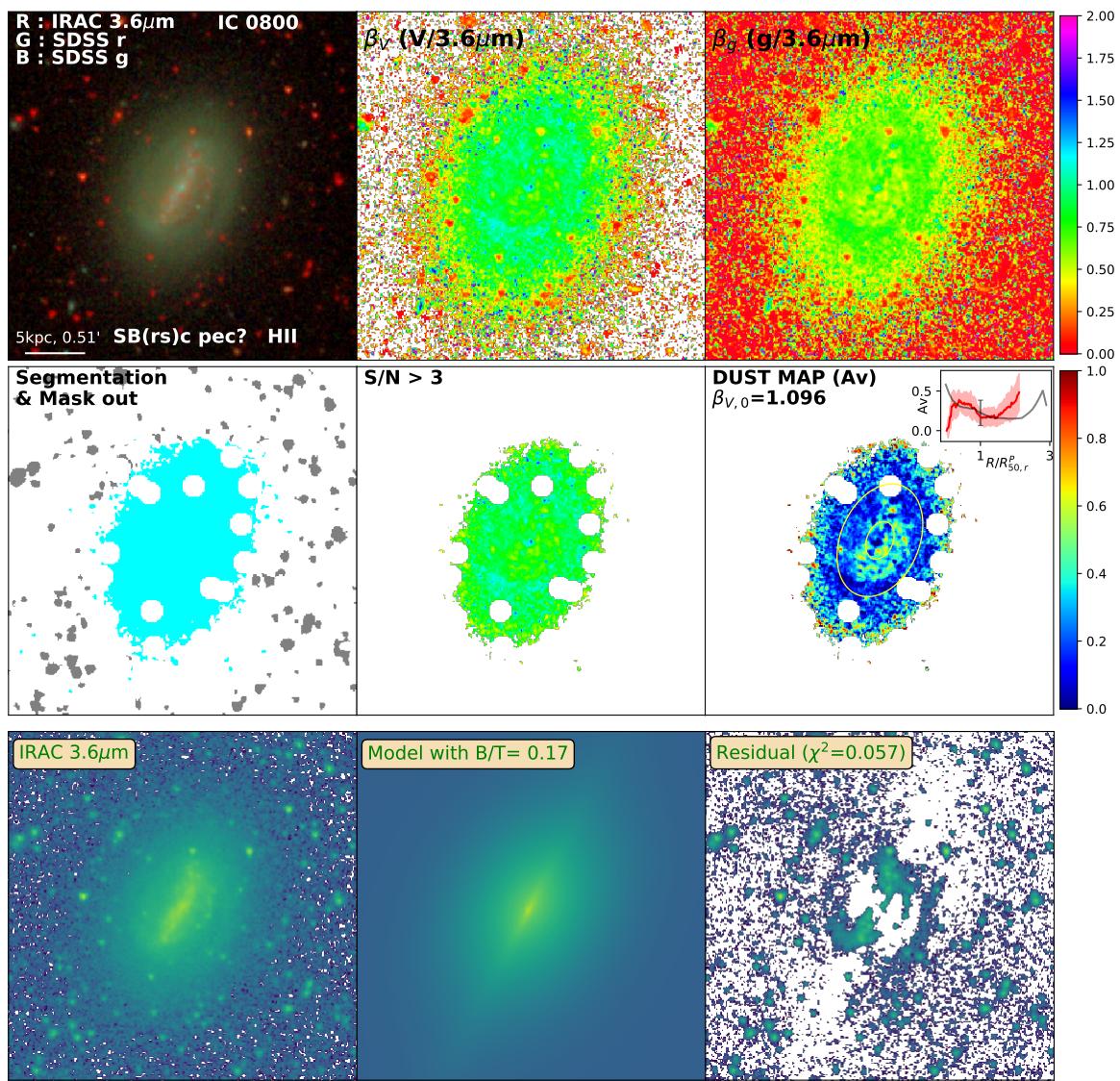


Figure D.158: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC0800

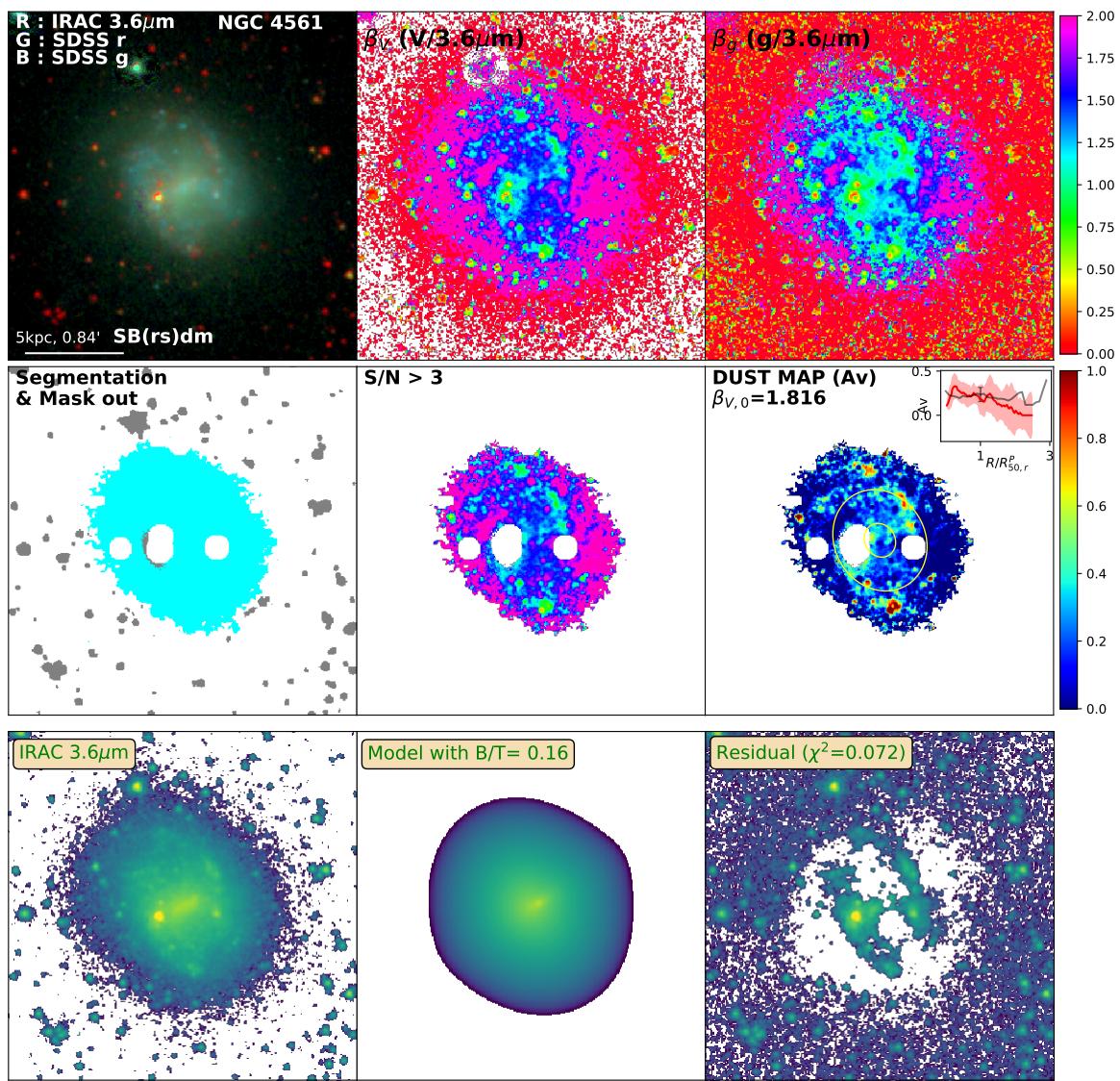


Figure D.159: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4561

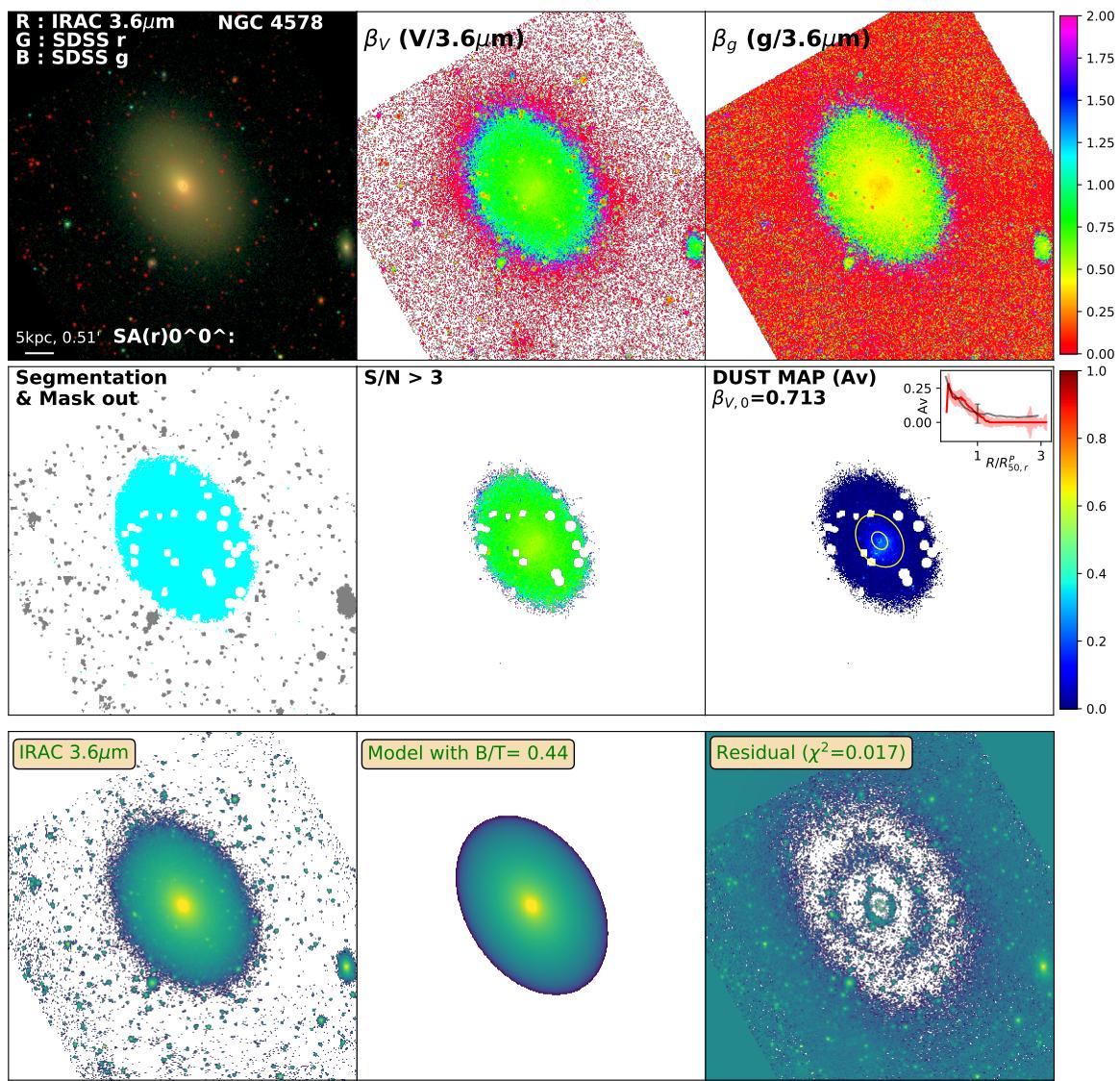


Figure D.160: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4578

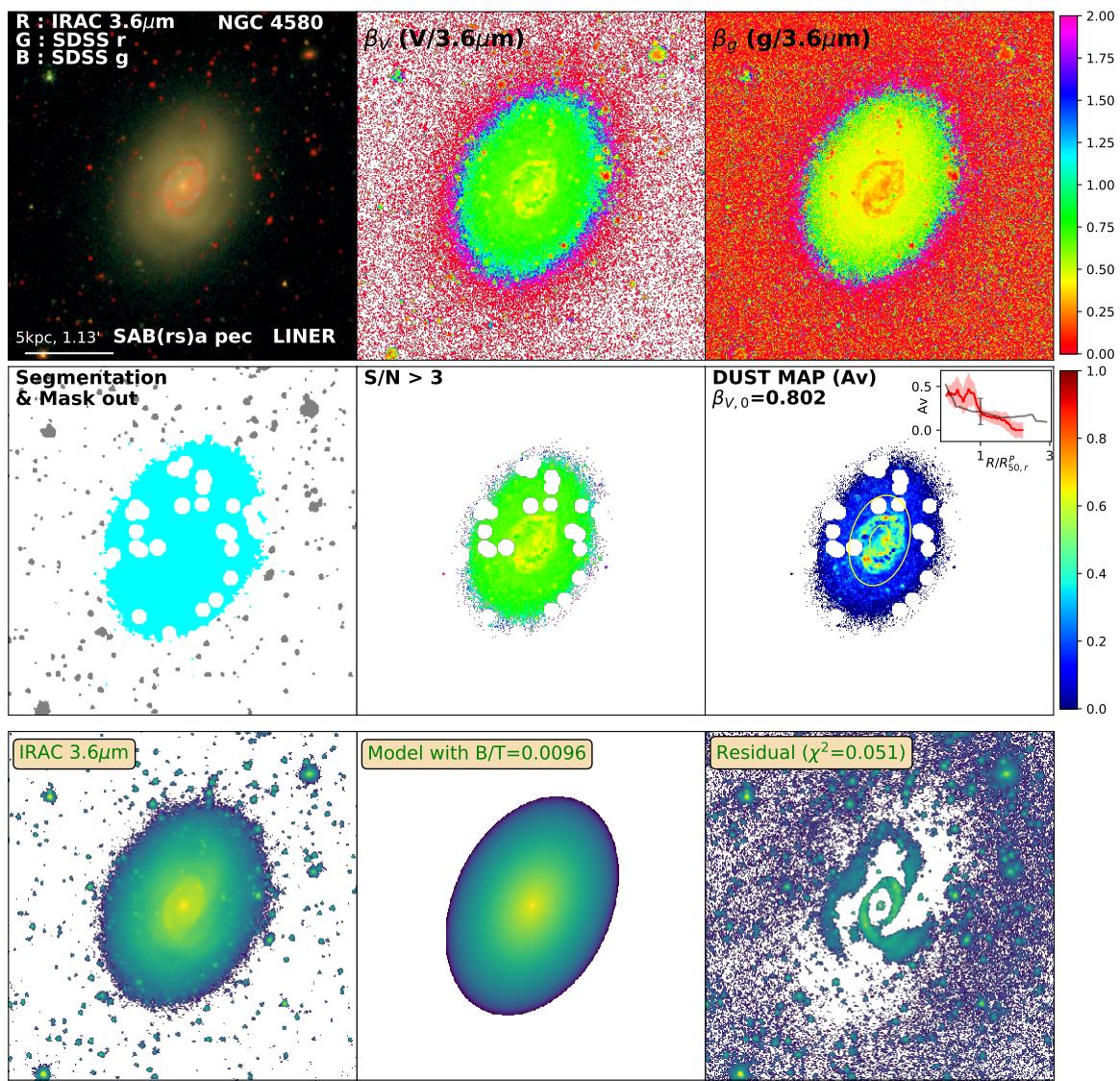


Figure D.161: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4580

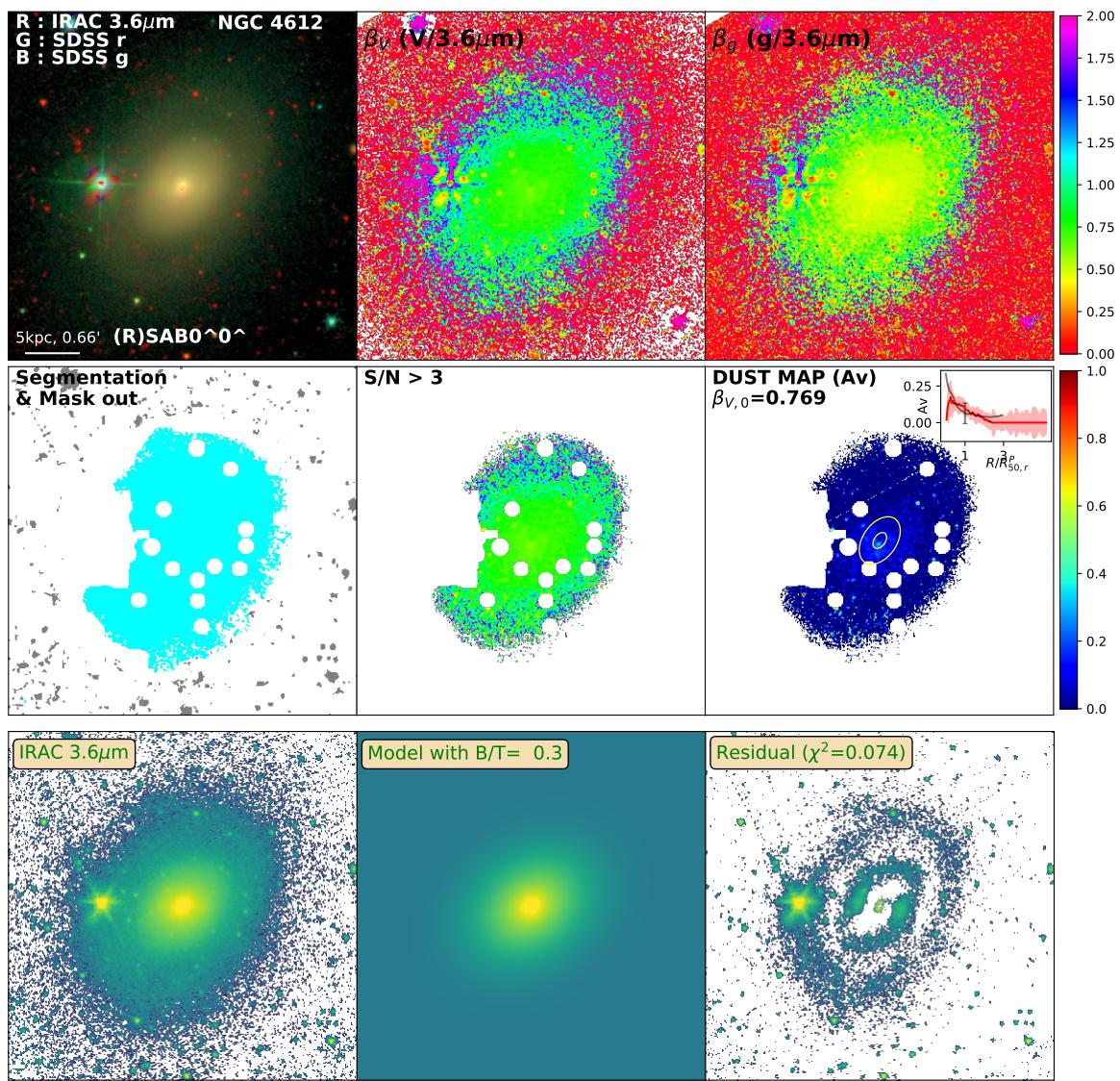


Figure D.162: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4612

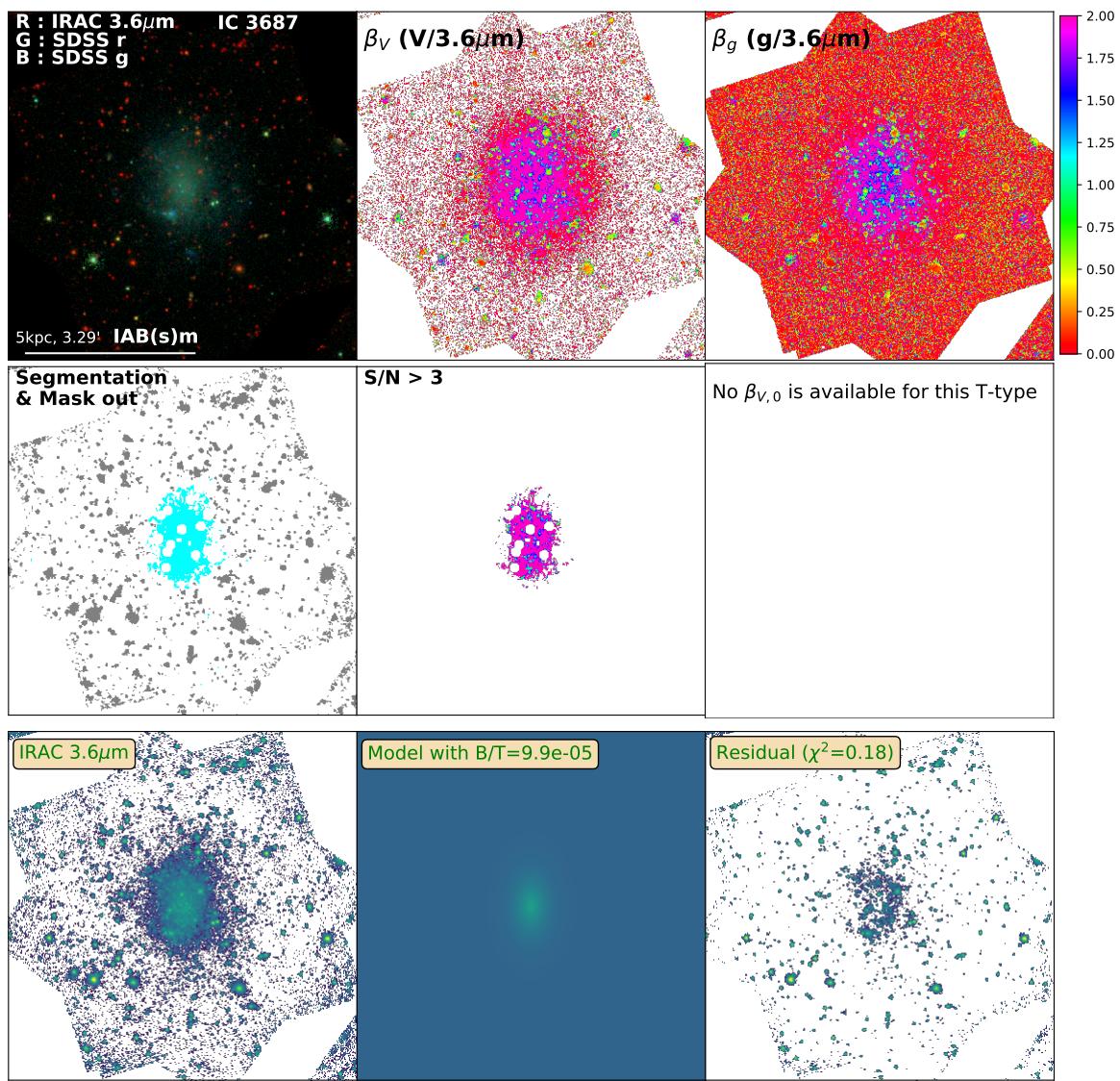


Figure D.163: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC3687

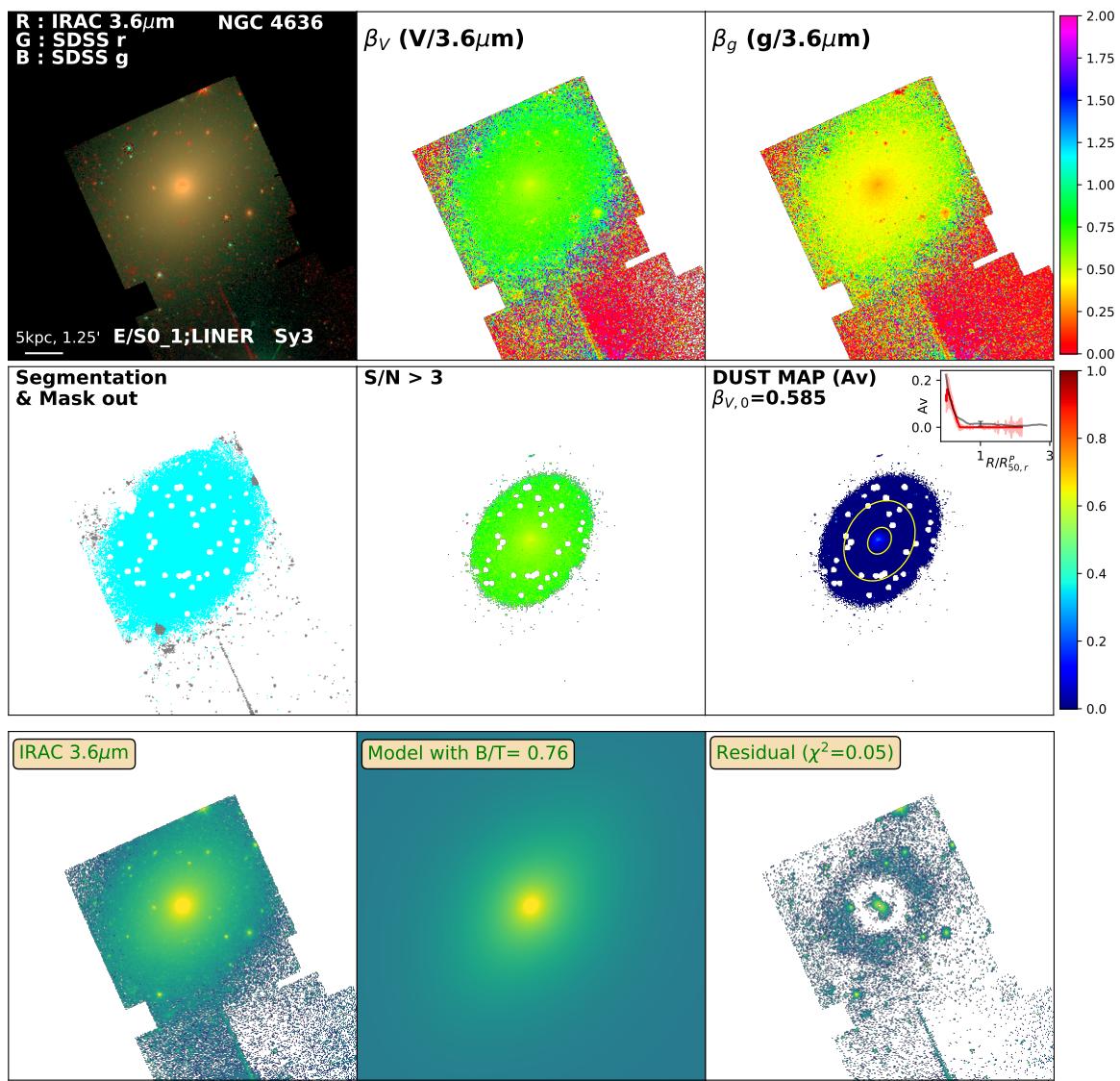


Figure D.164: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4636

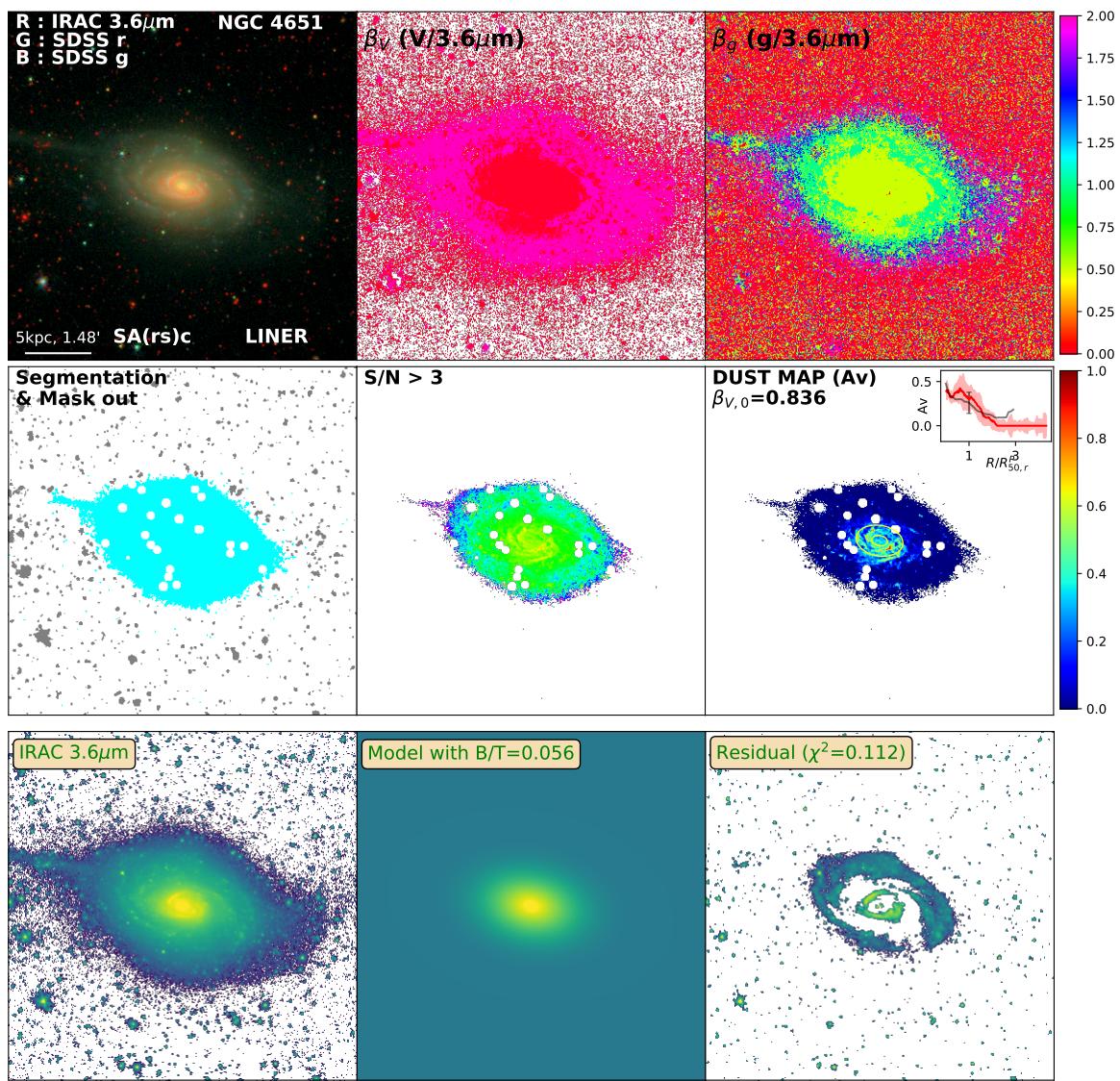


Figure D.165: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4651

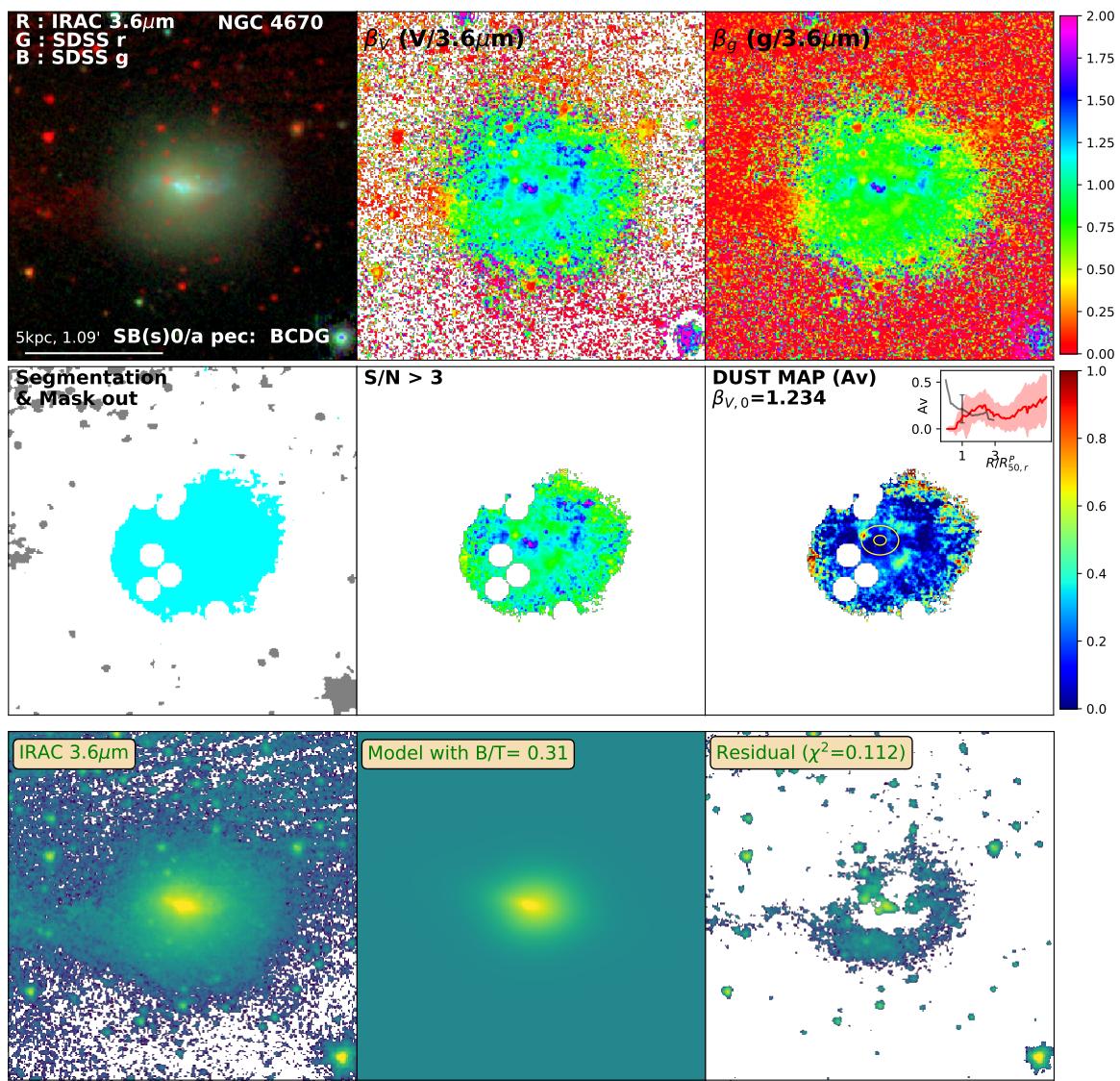


Figure D.166: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4670

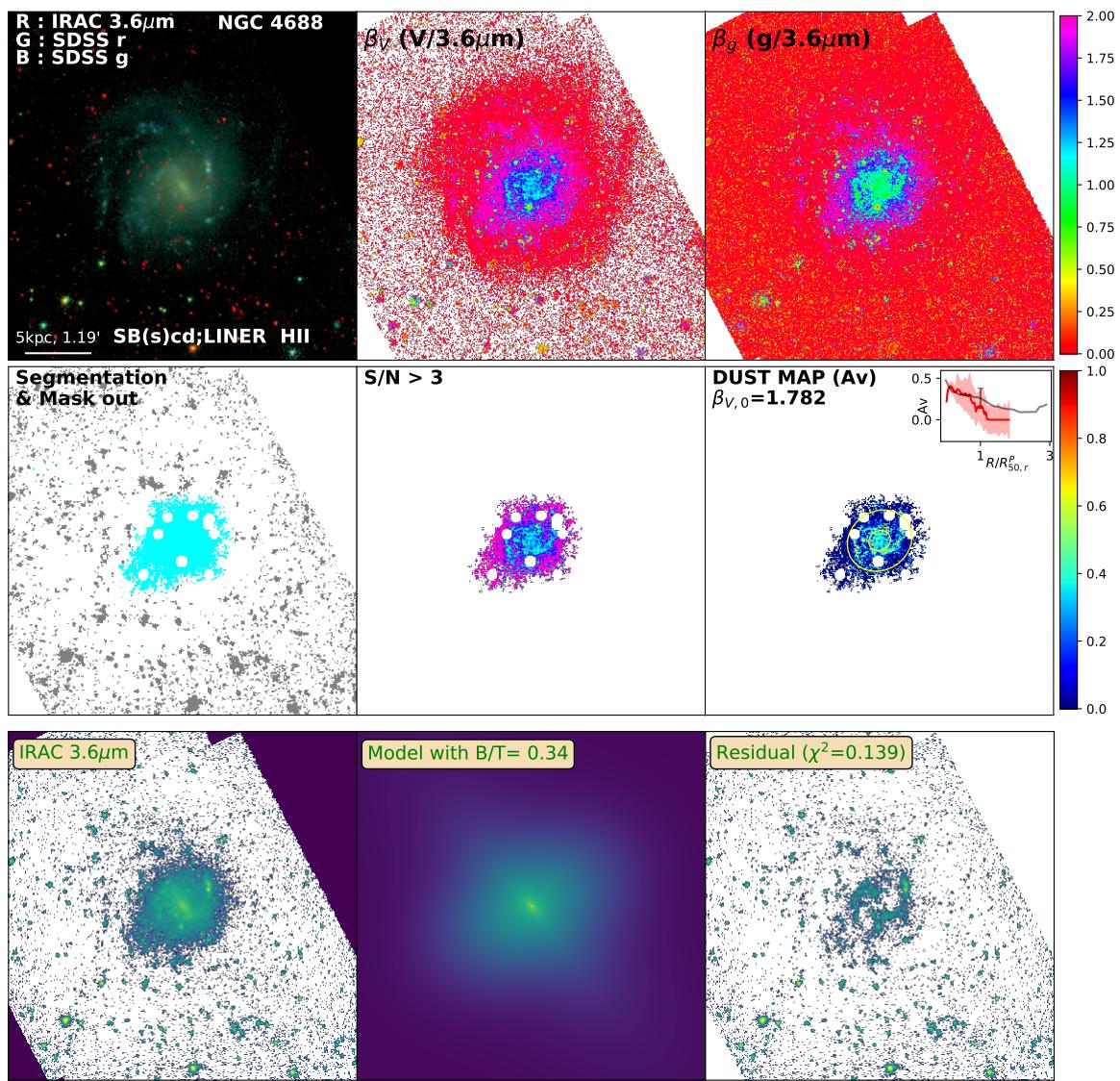


Figure D.167: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4688

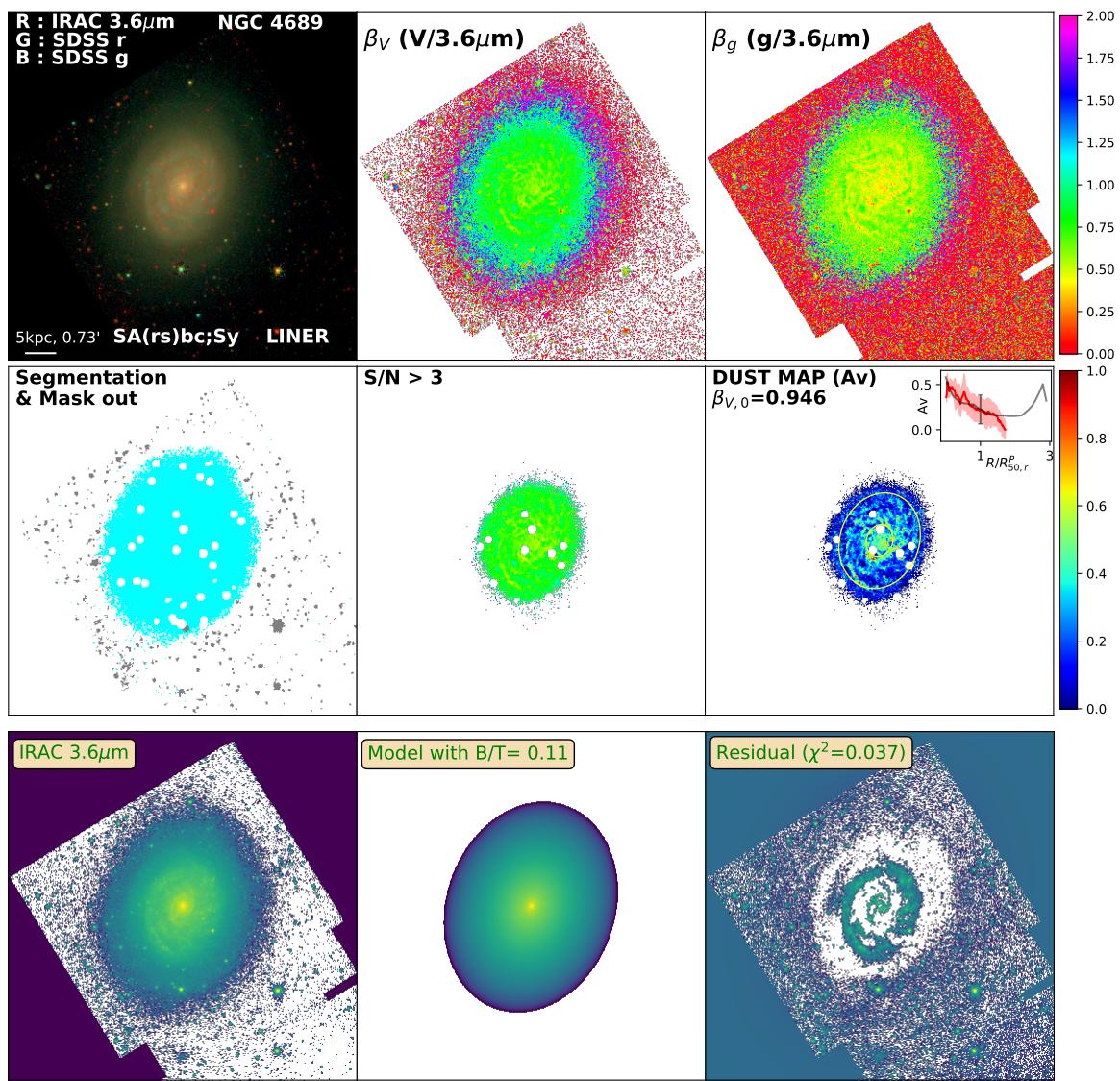


Figure D.168: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4689

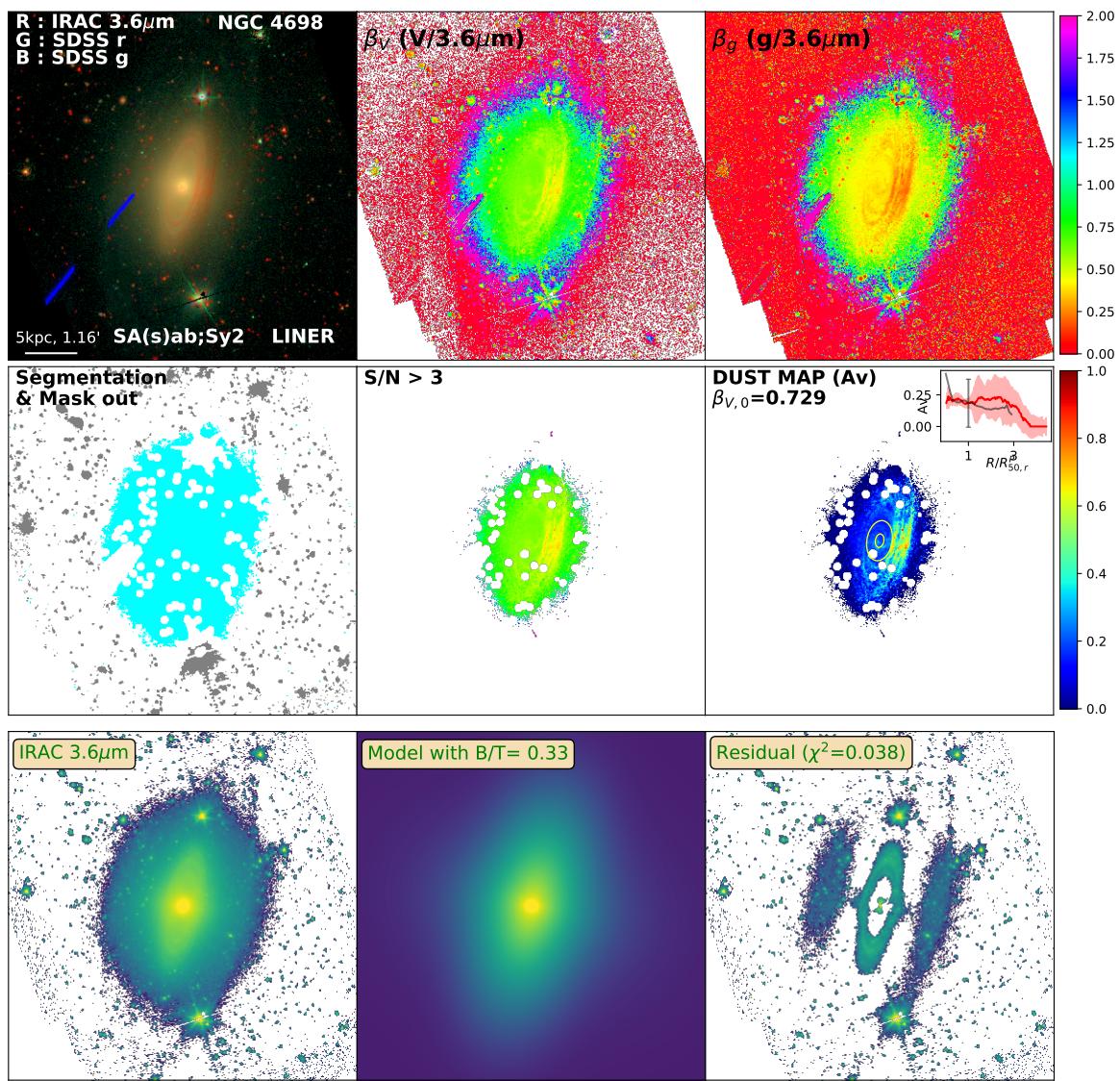


Figure D.169: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4698

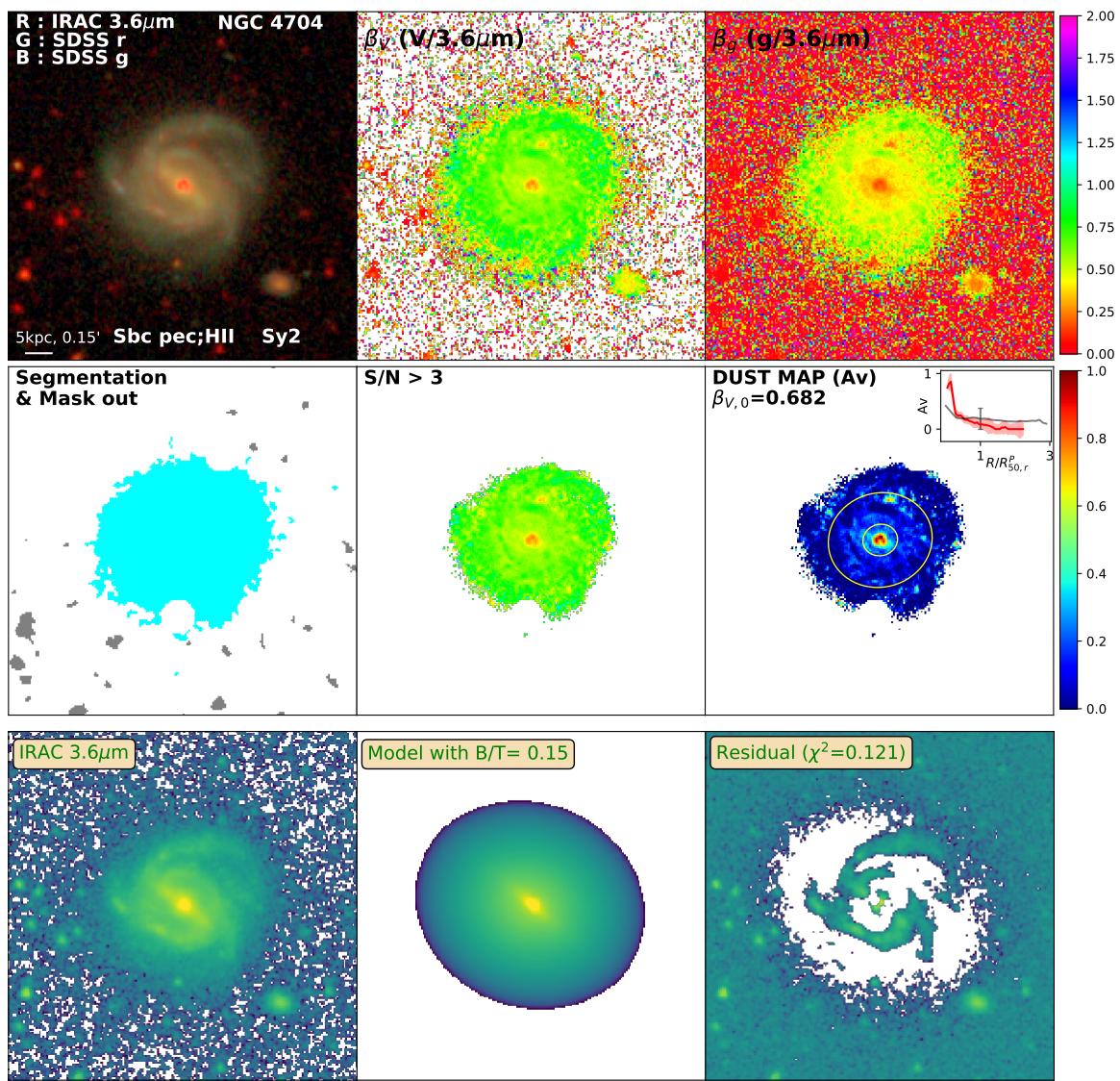


Figure D.170: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4704

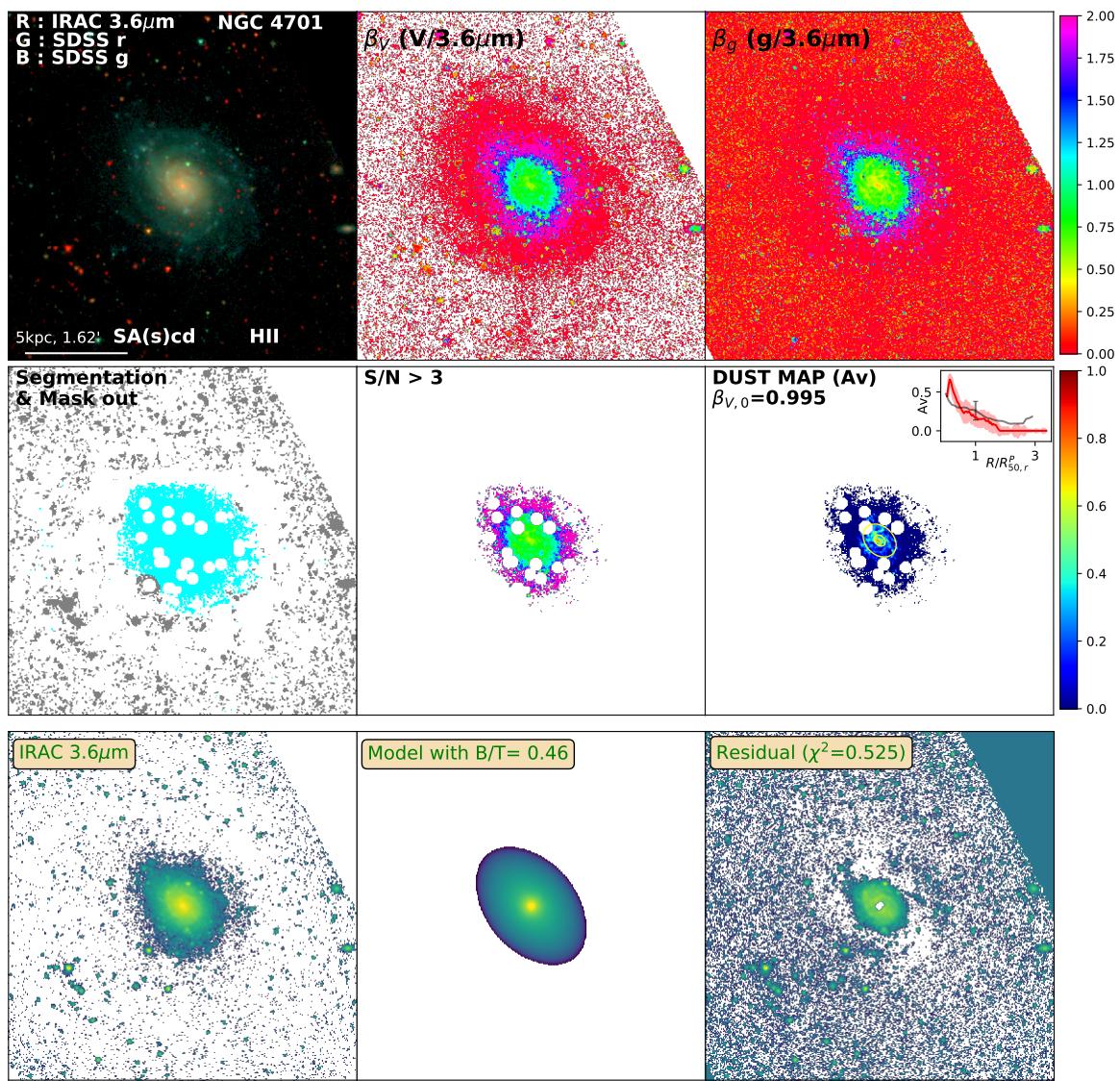


Figure D.171: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4701

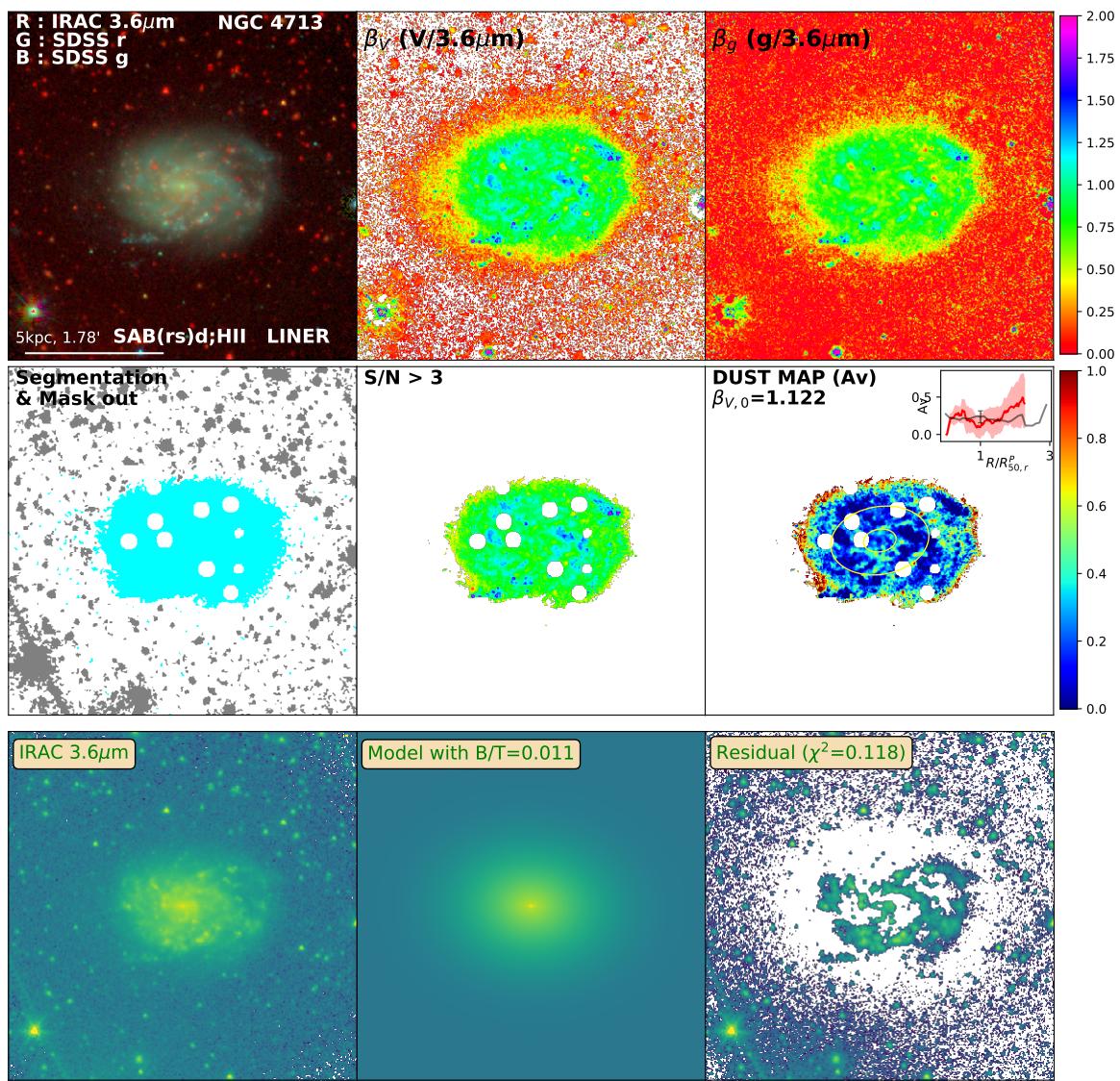


Figure D.172: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4713

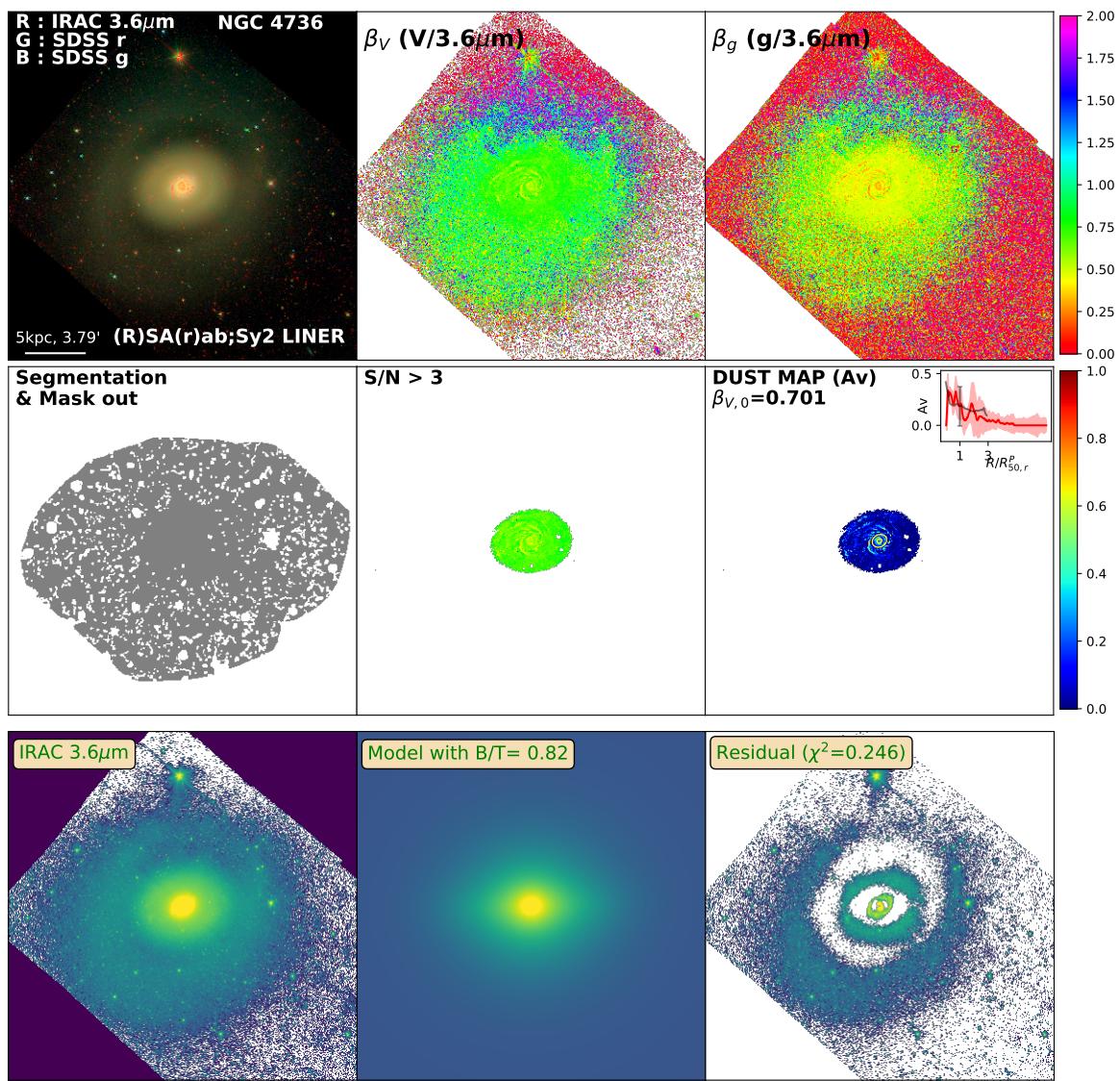


Figure D.173: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4736

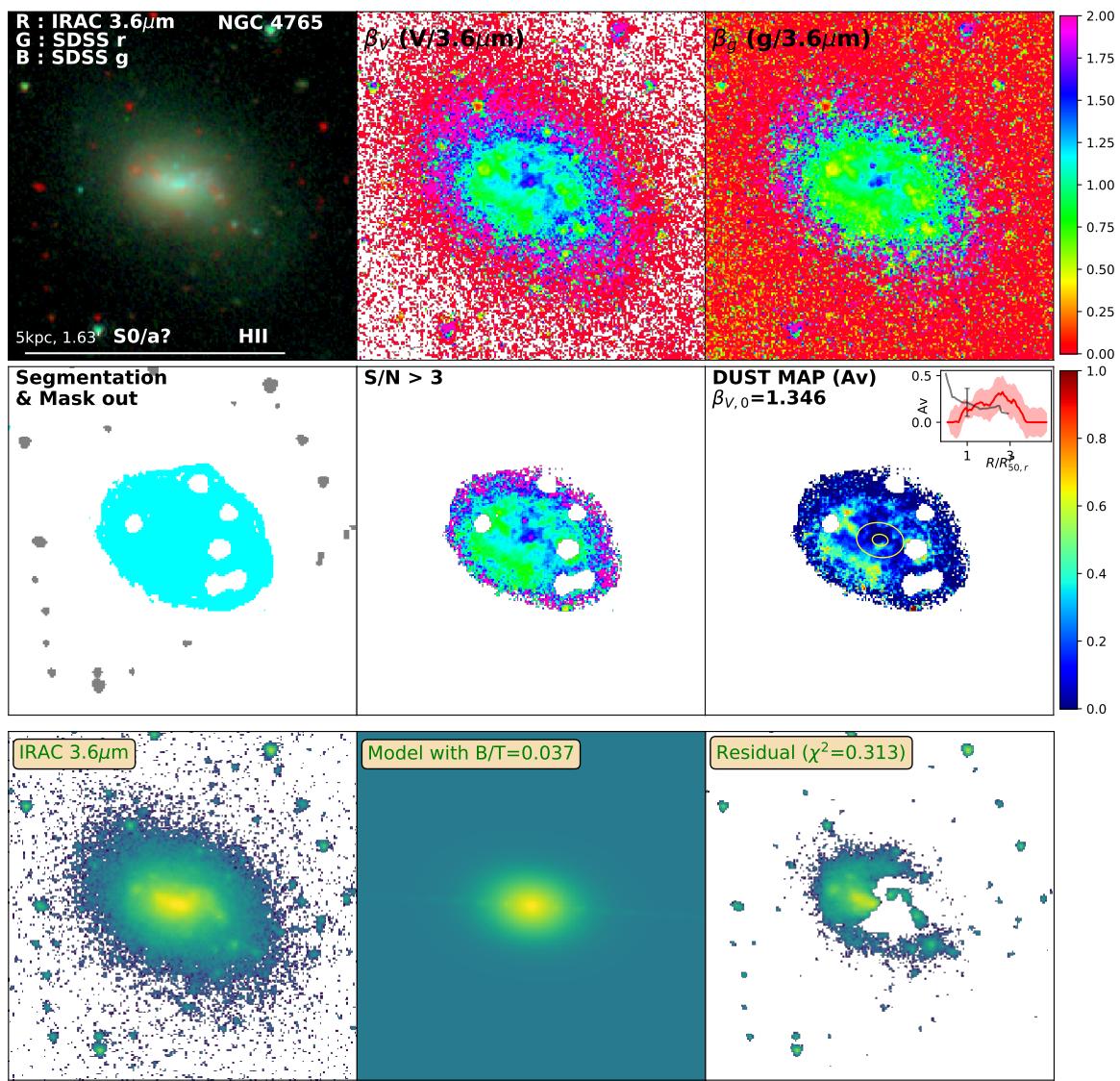


Figure D.174: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4765

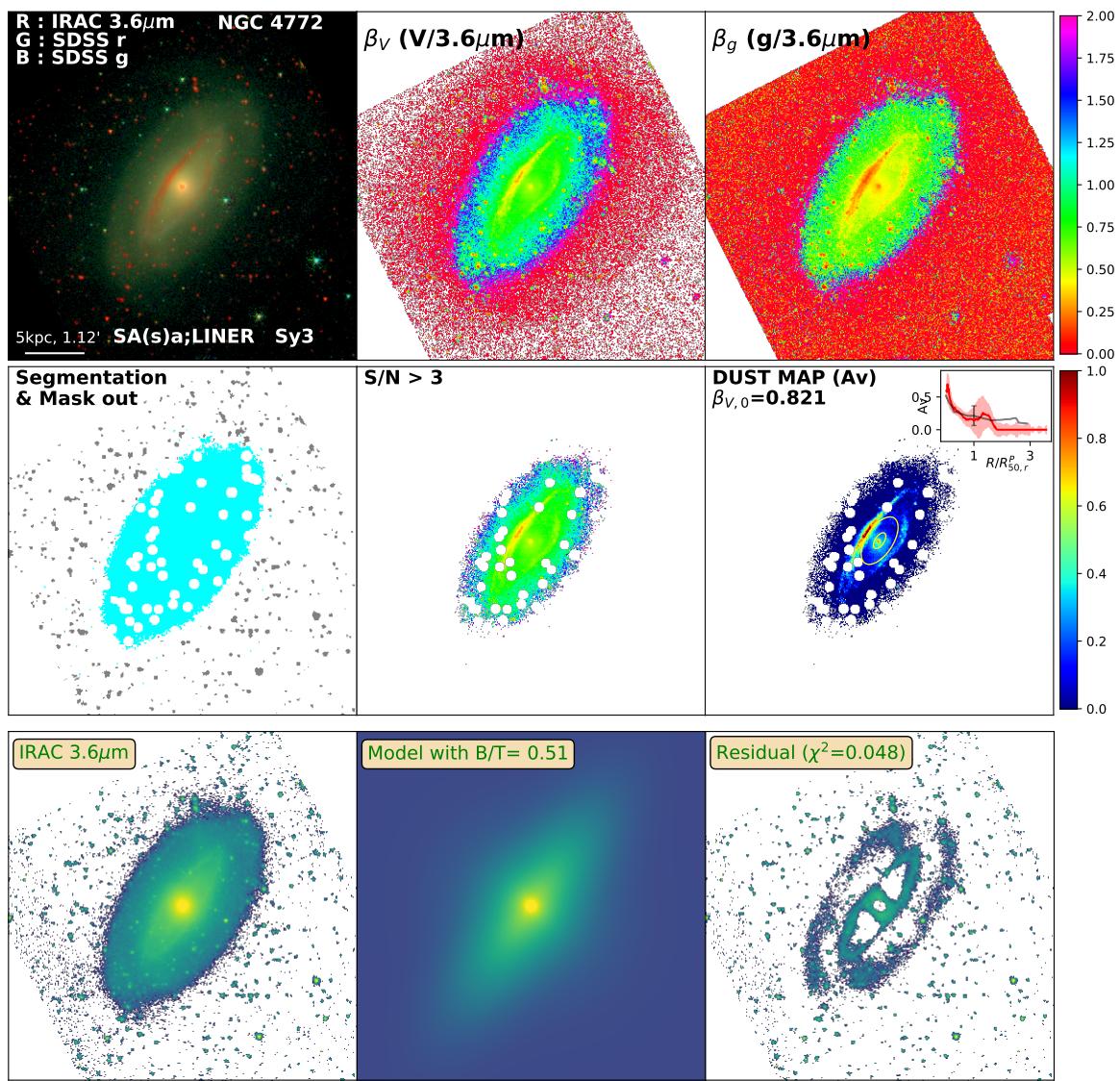


Figure D.175: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4772

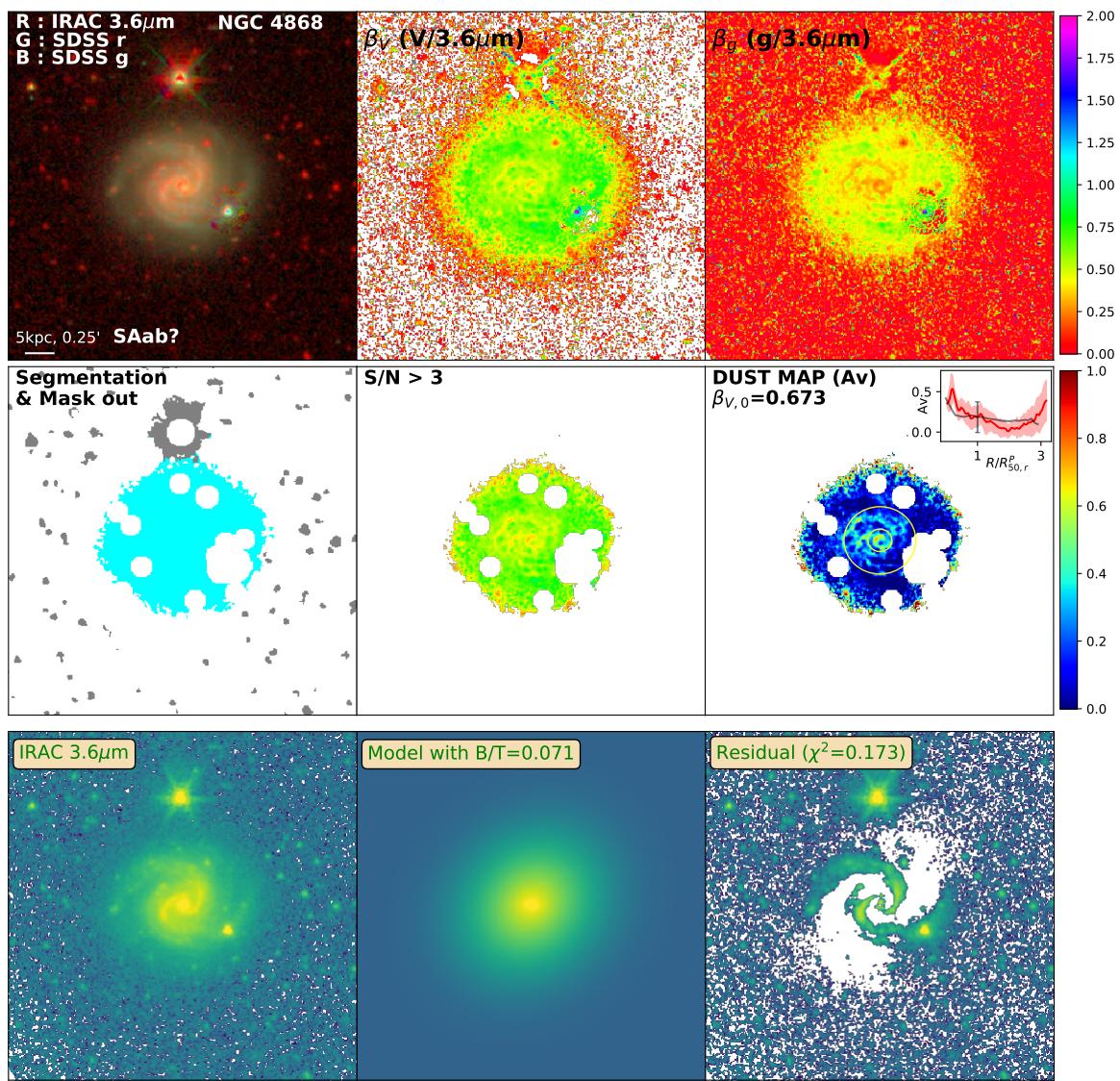


Figure D.176: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4868

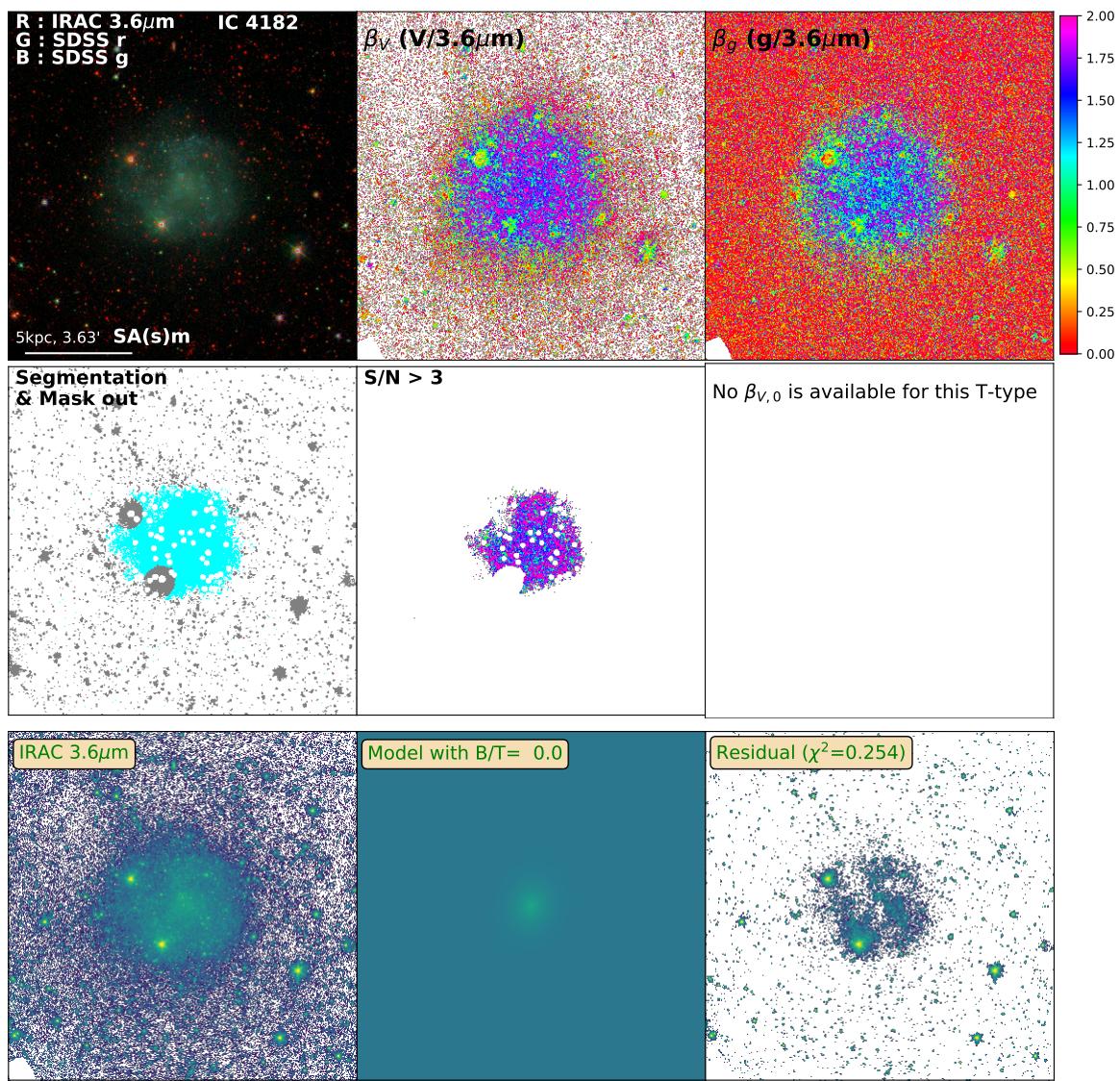


Figure D.177: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC4182

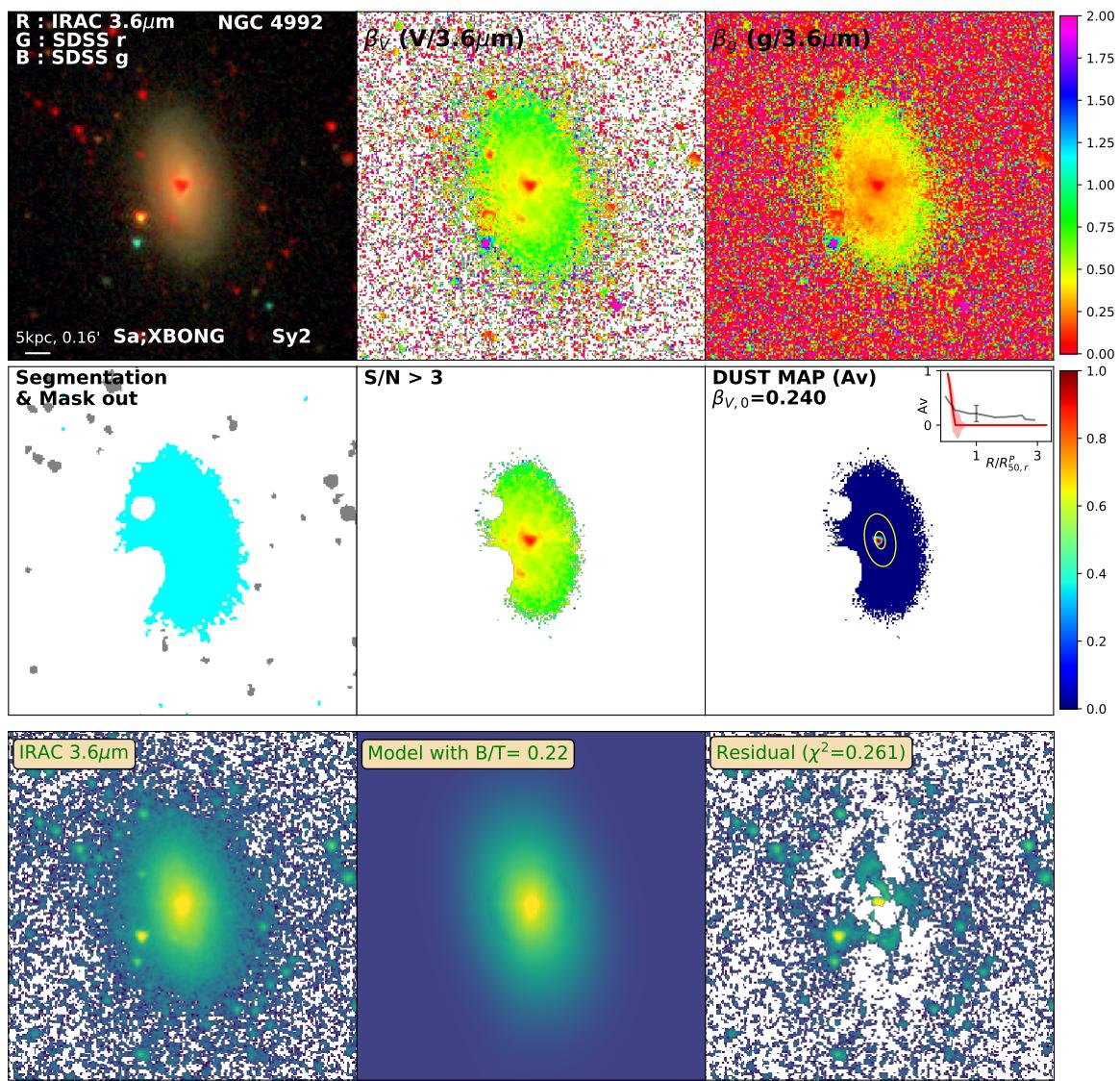


Figure D.178: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC4992

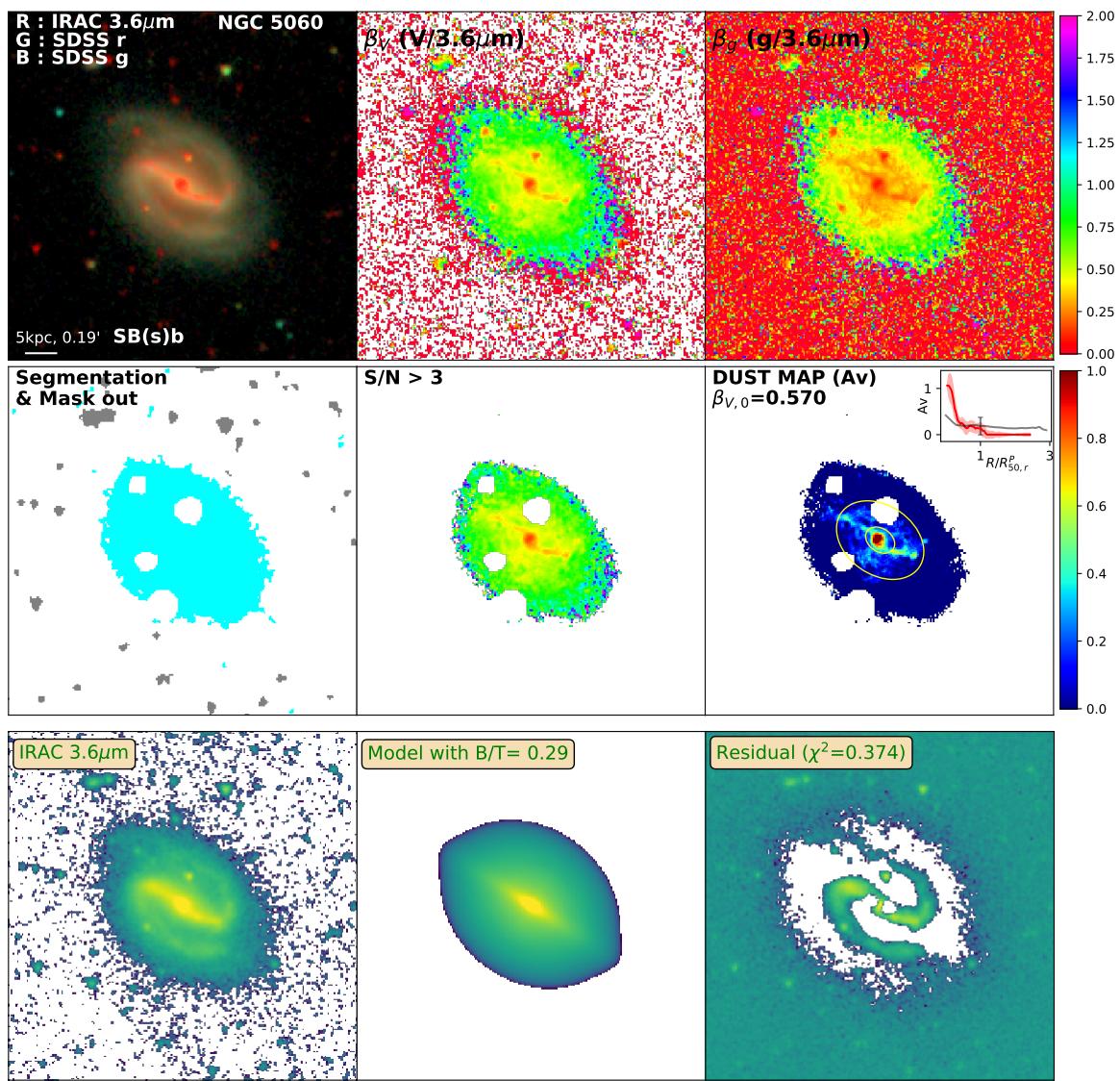


Figure D.179: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5060

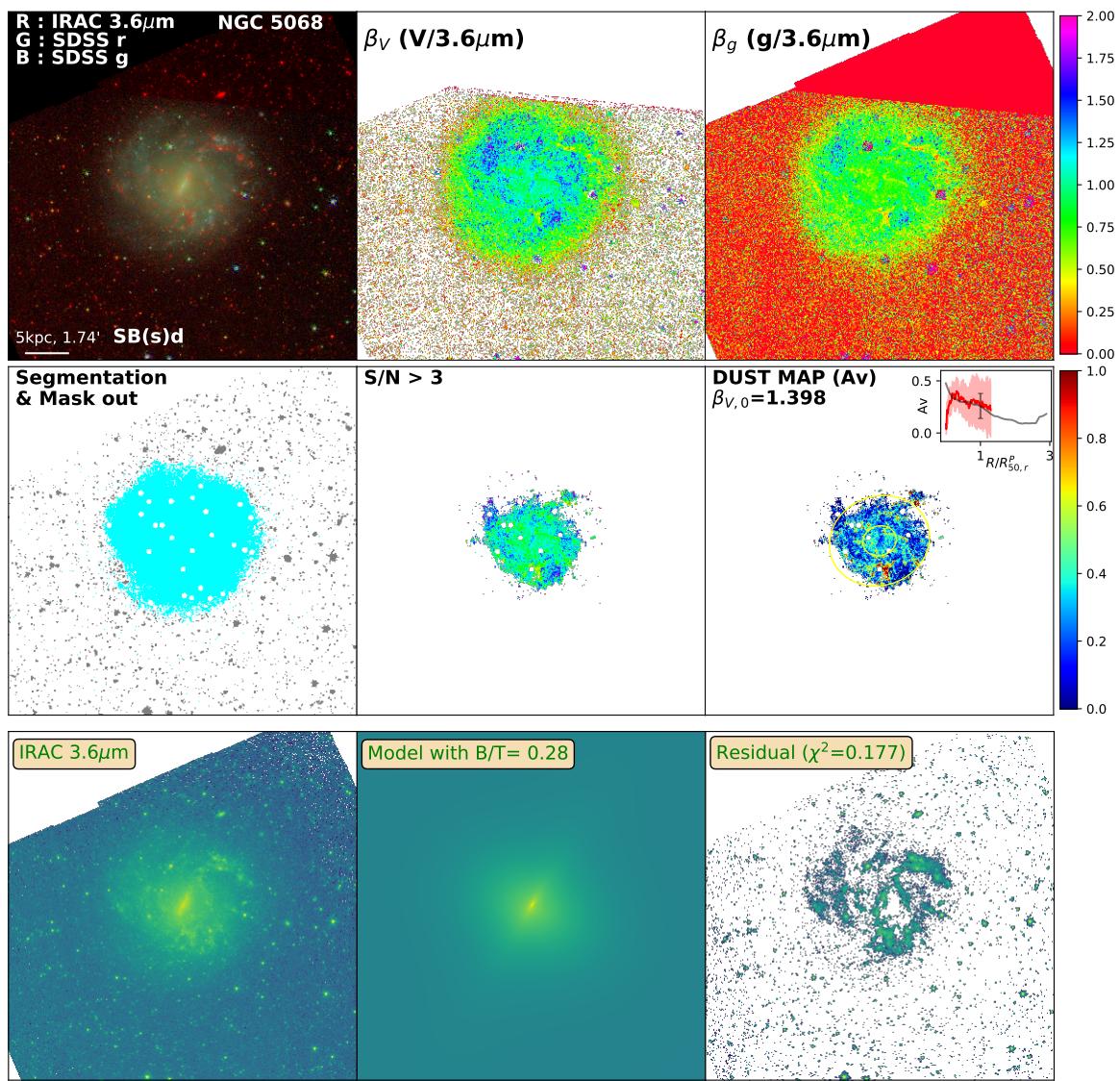


Figure D.180: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5068

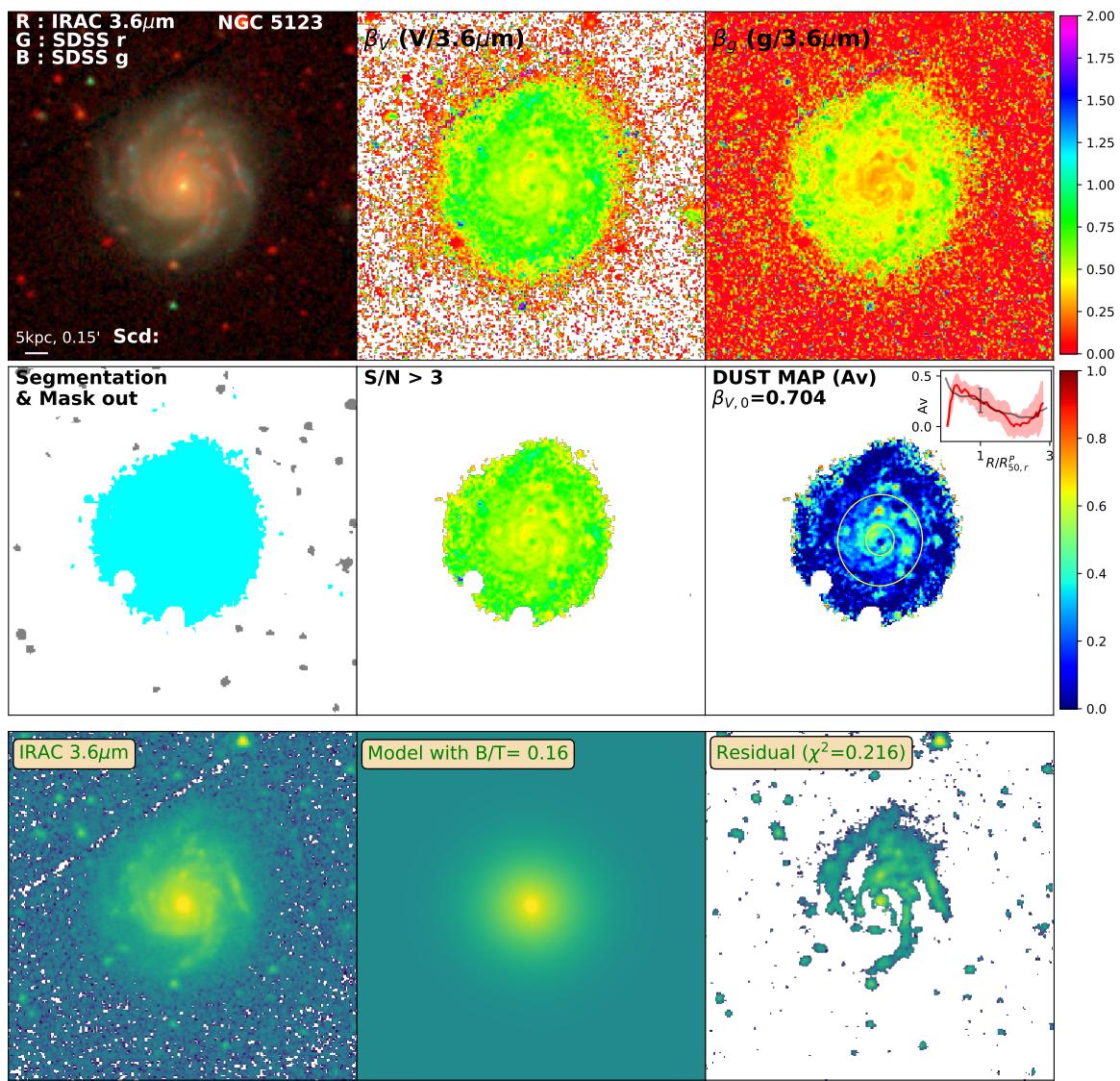


Figure D.181: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5123

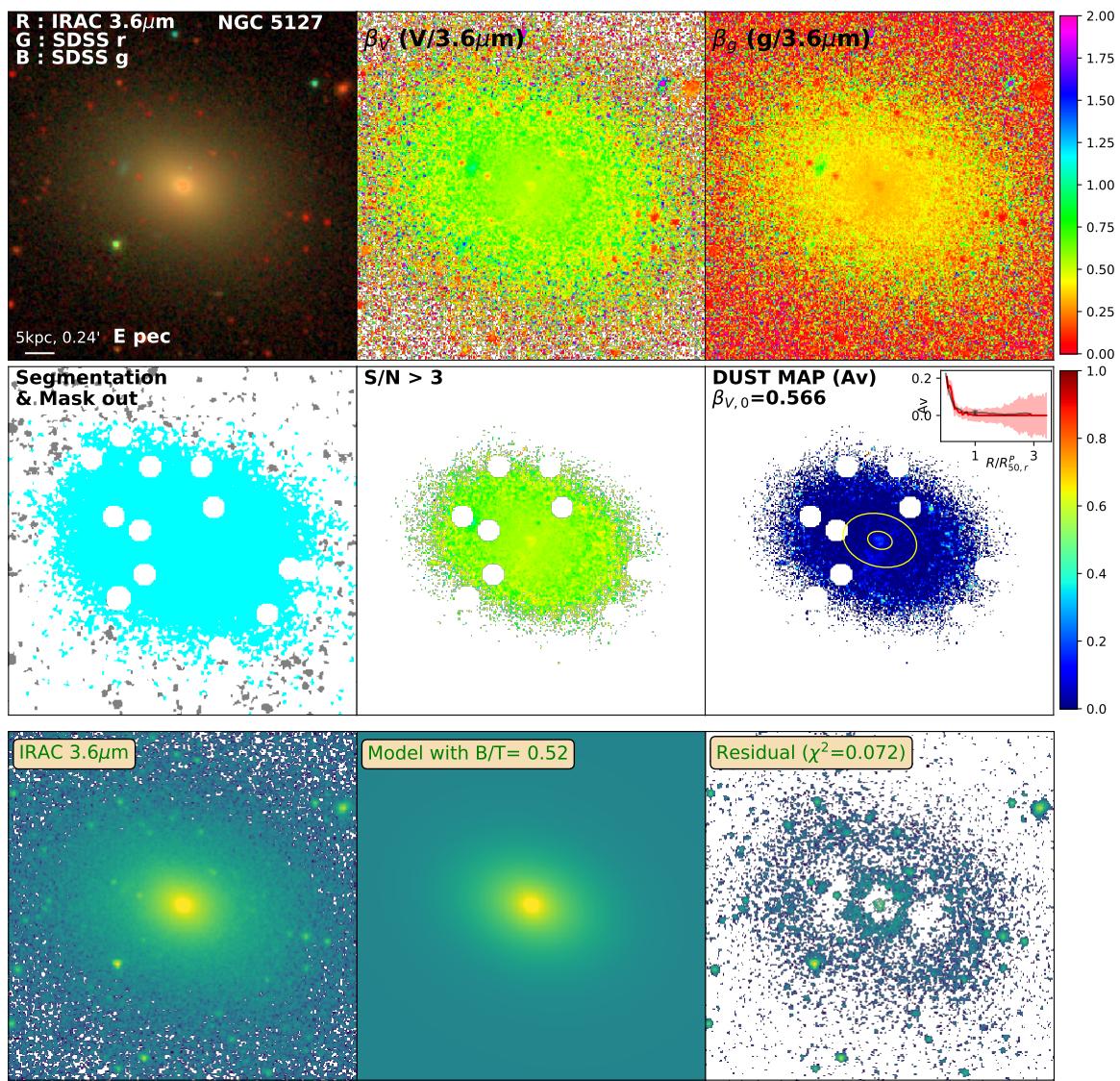


Figure D.182: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5127

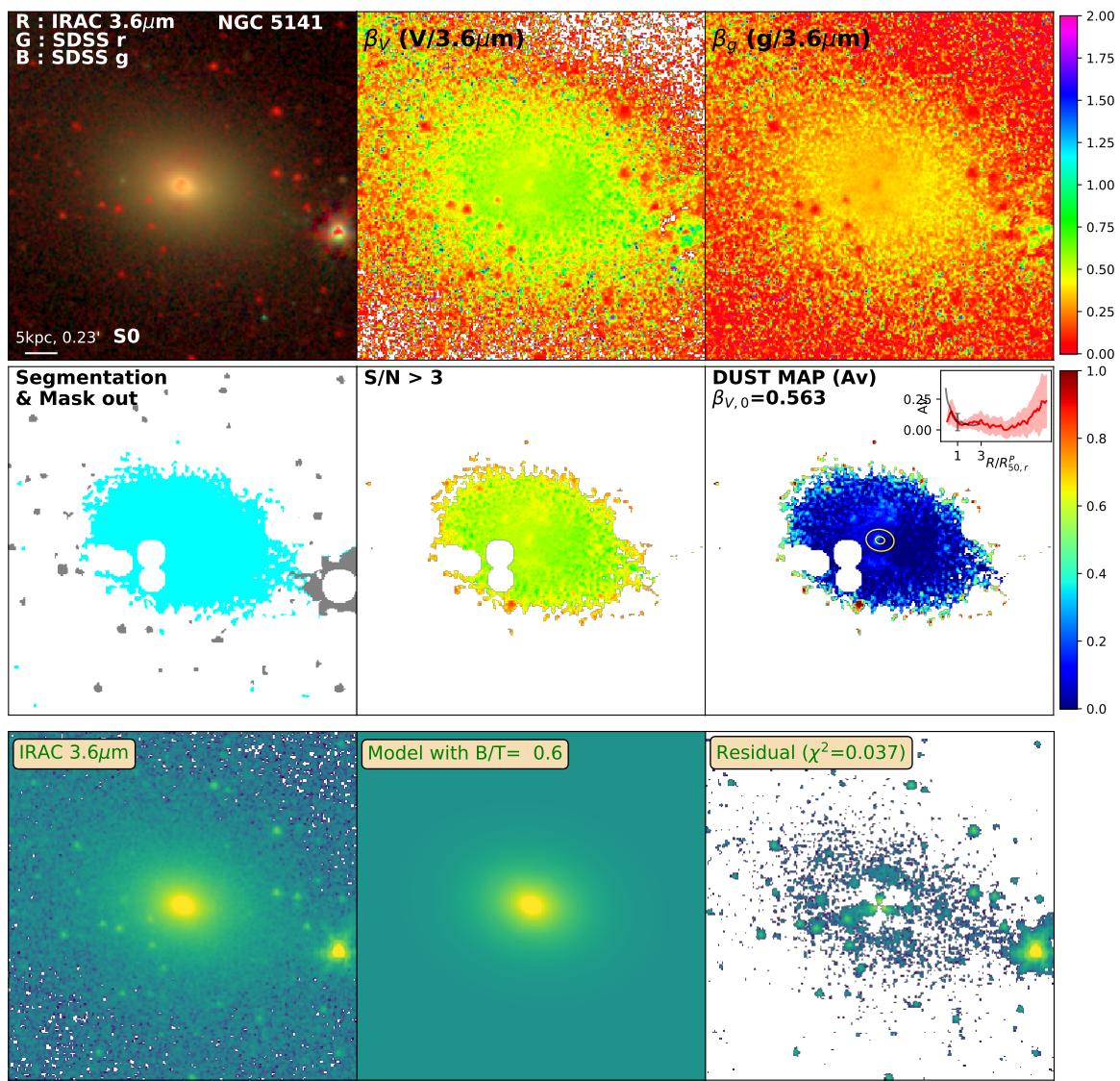


Figure D.183: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5141

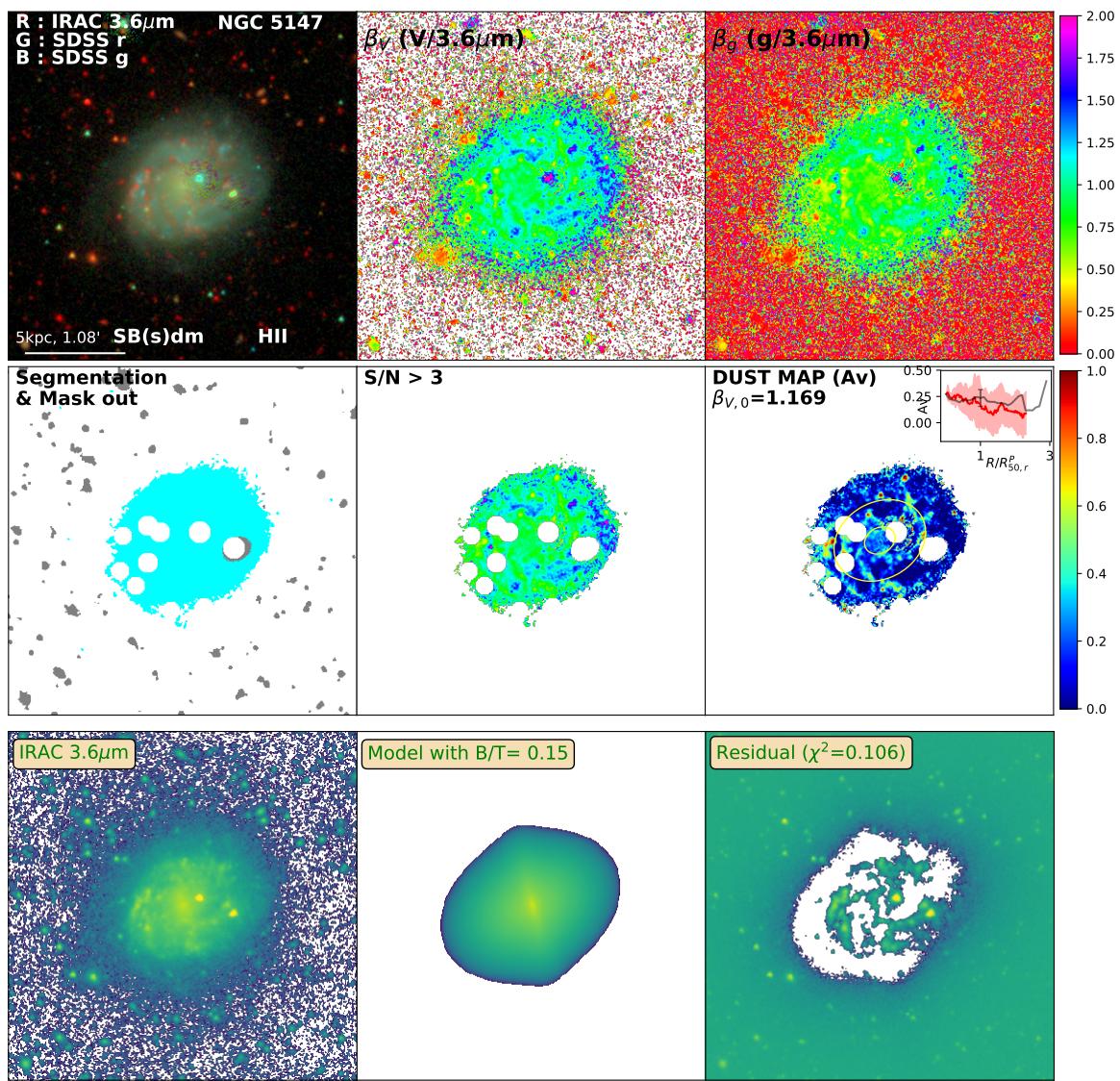


Figure D.184: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5147

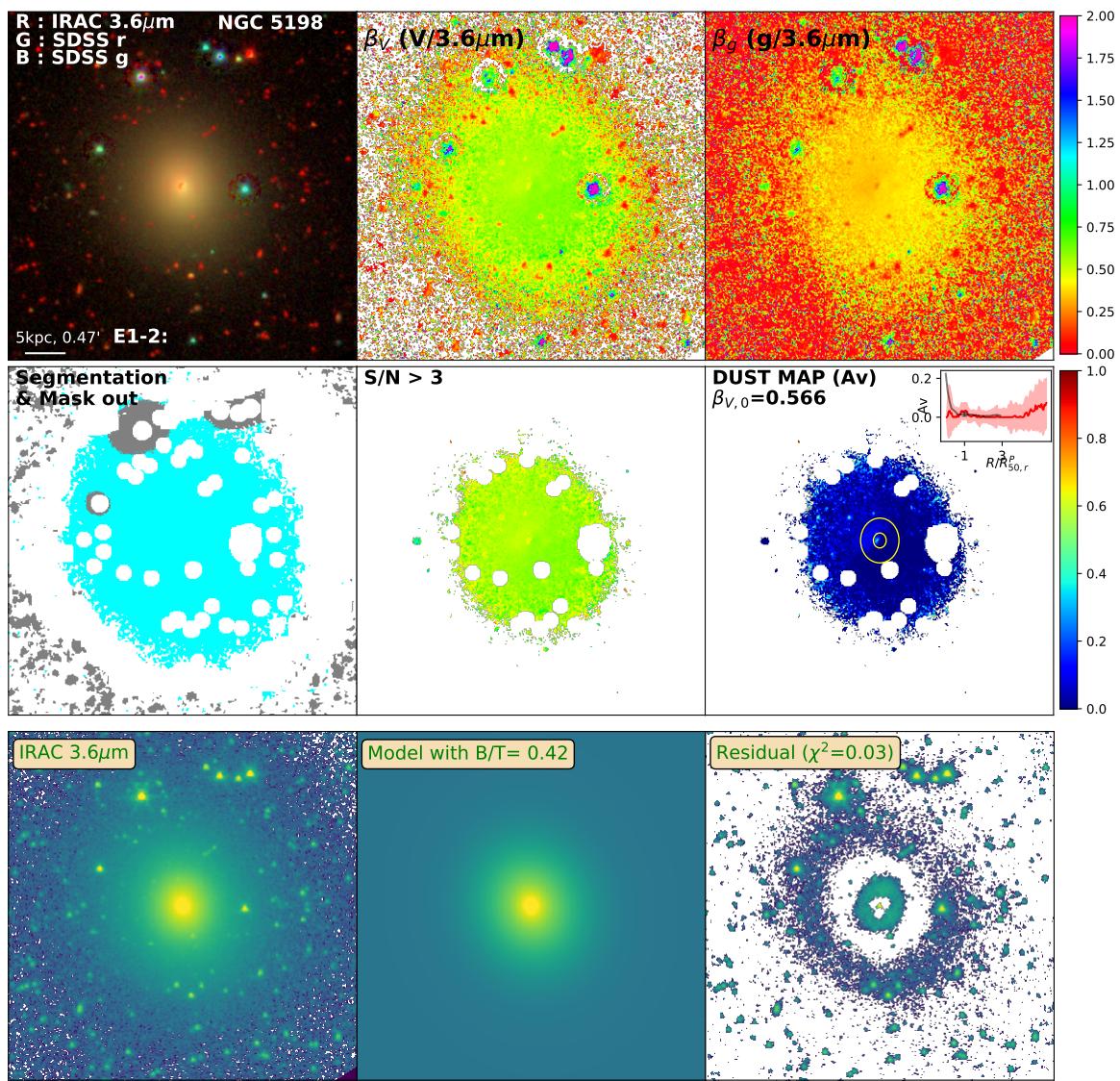


Figure D.185: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5198

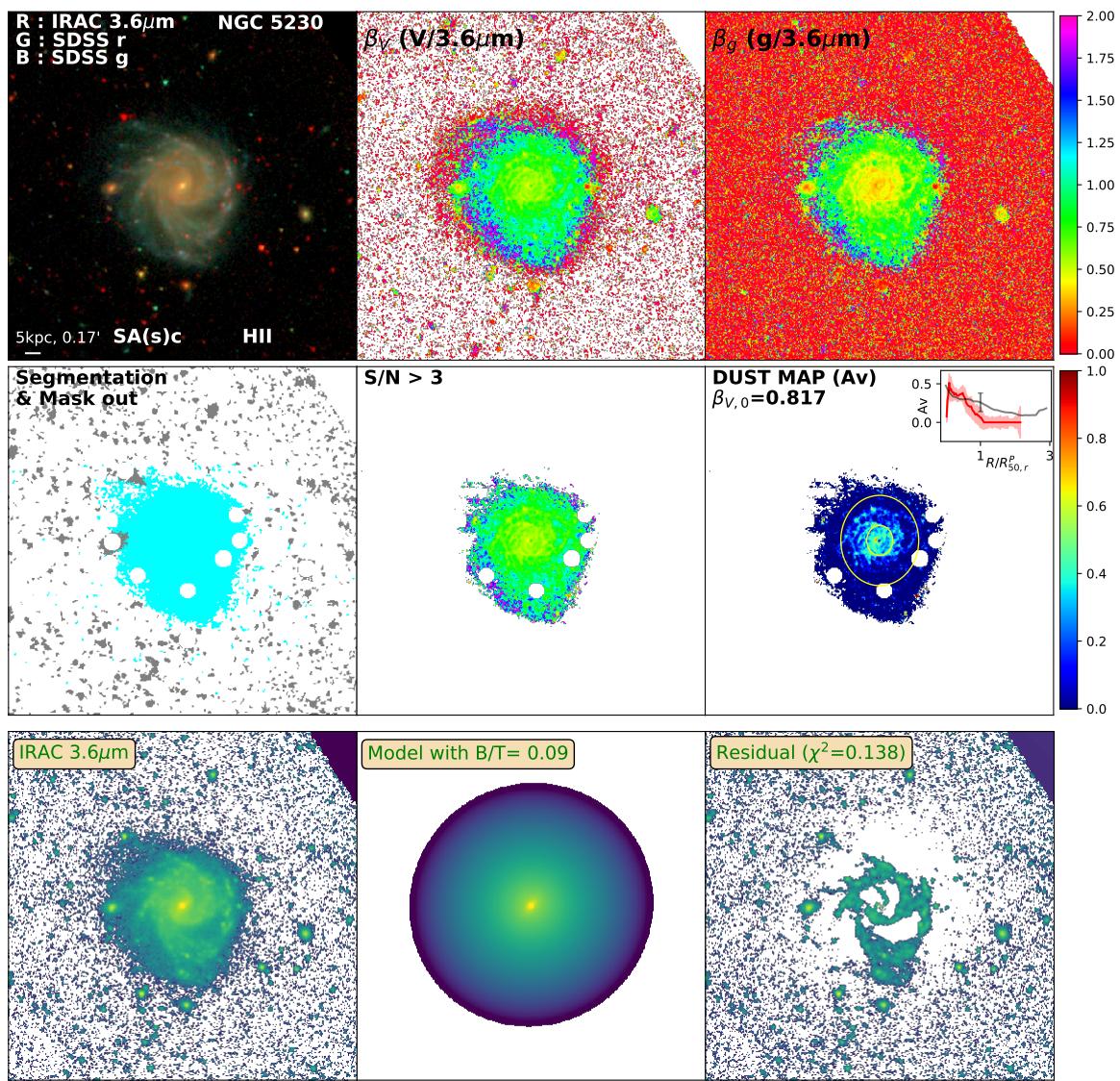


Figure D.186: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5230

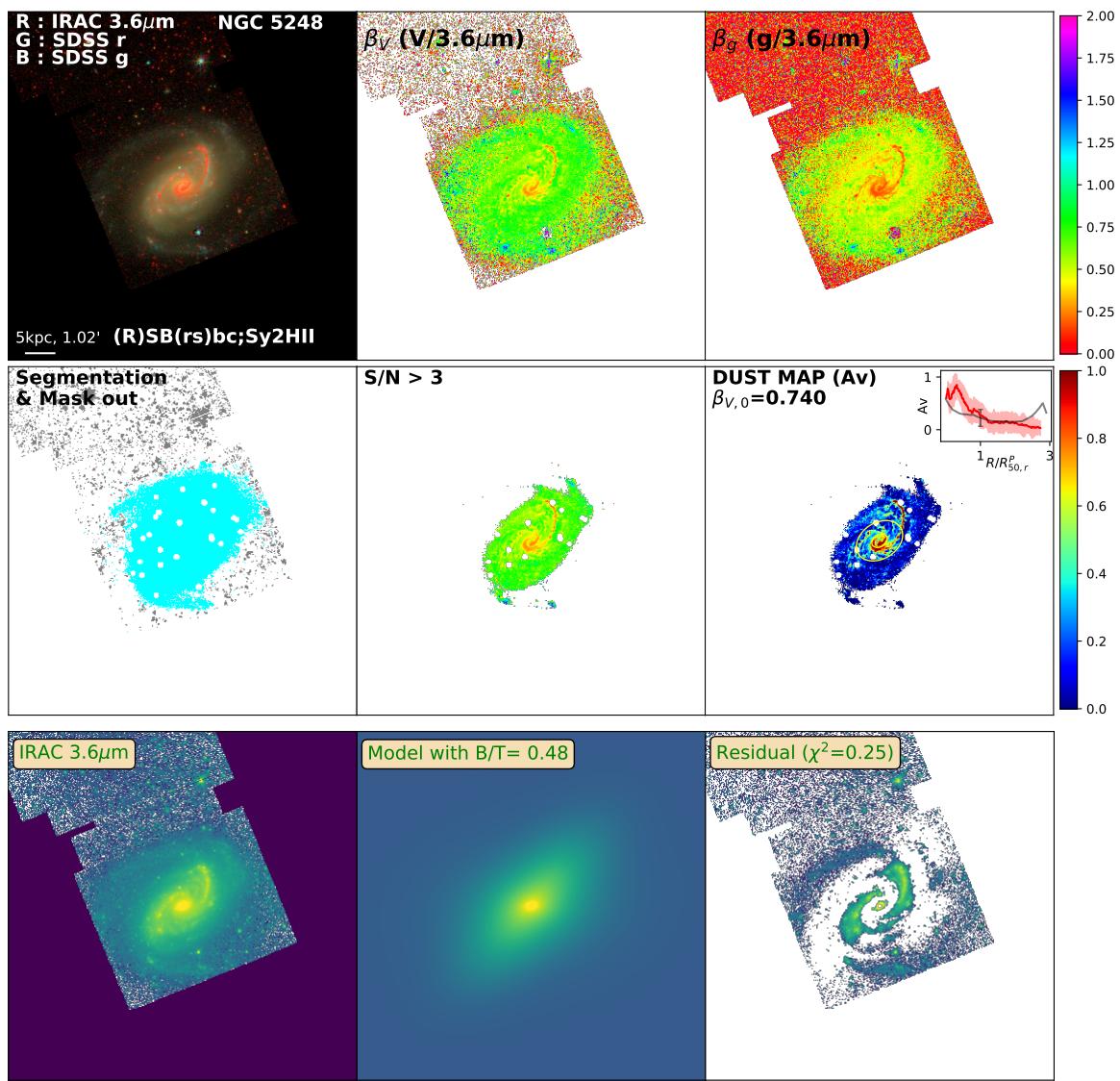


Figure D.187: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5248

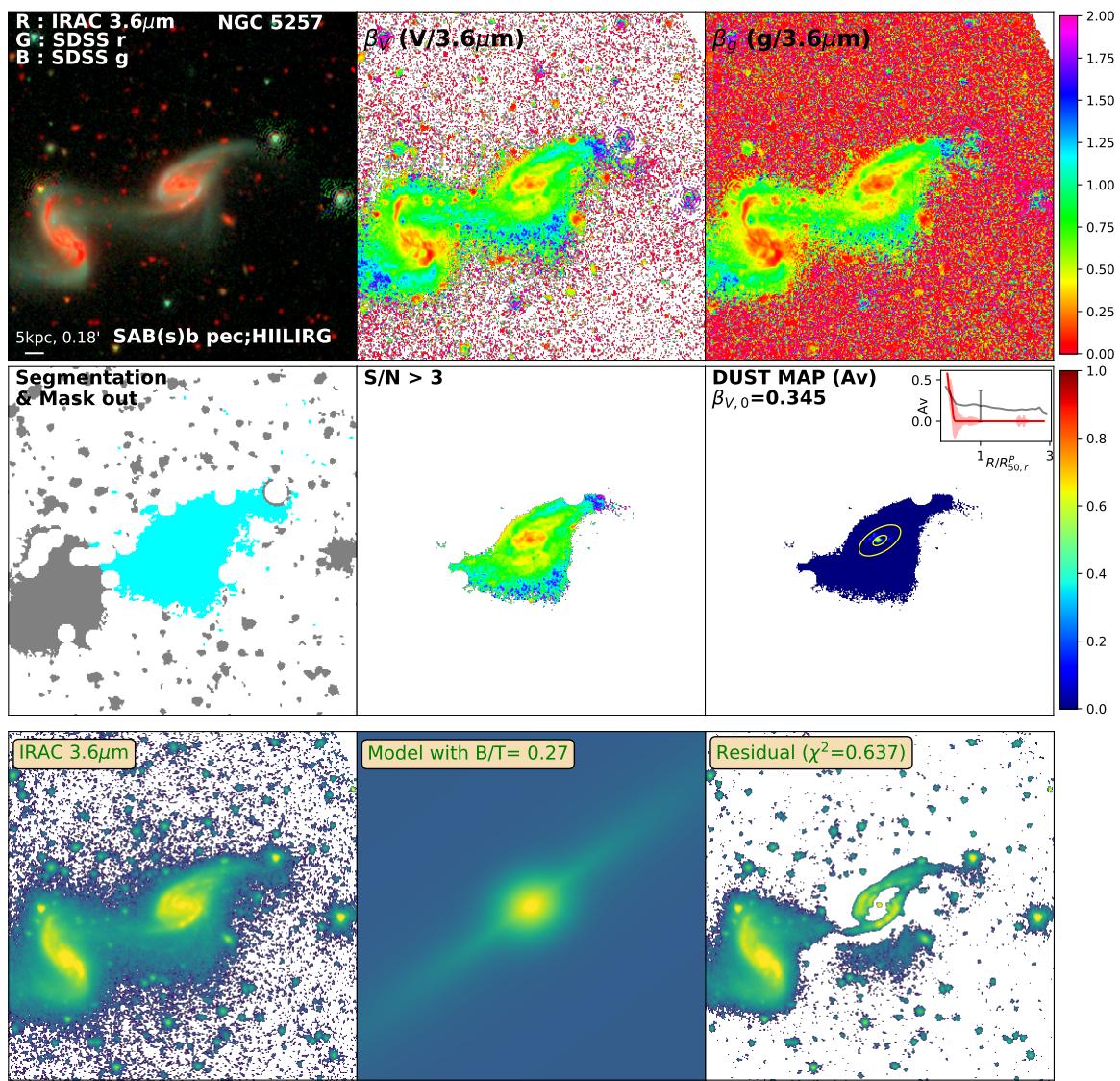


Figure D.188: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5257

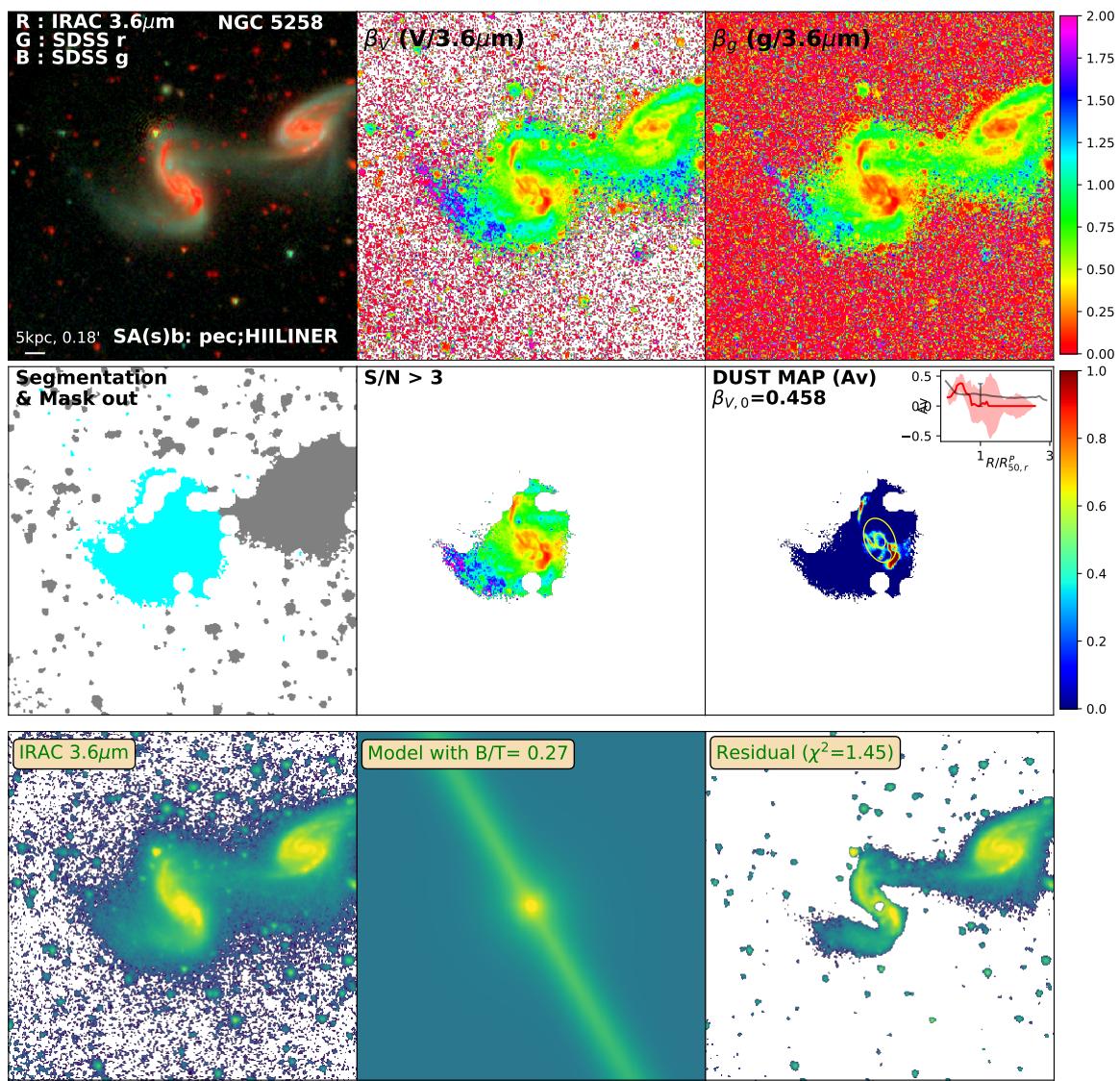


Figure D.189: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5258

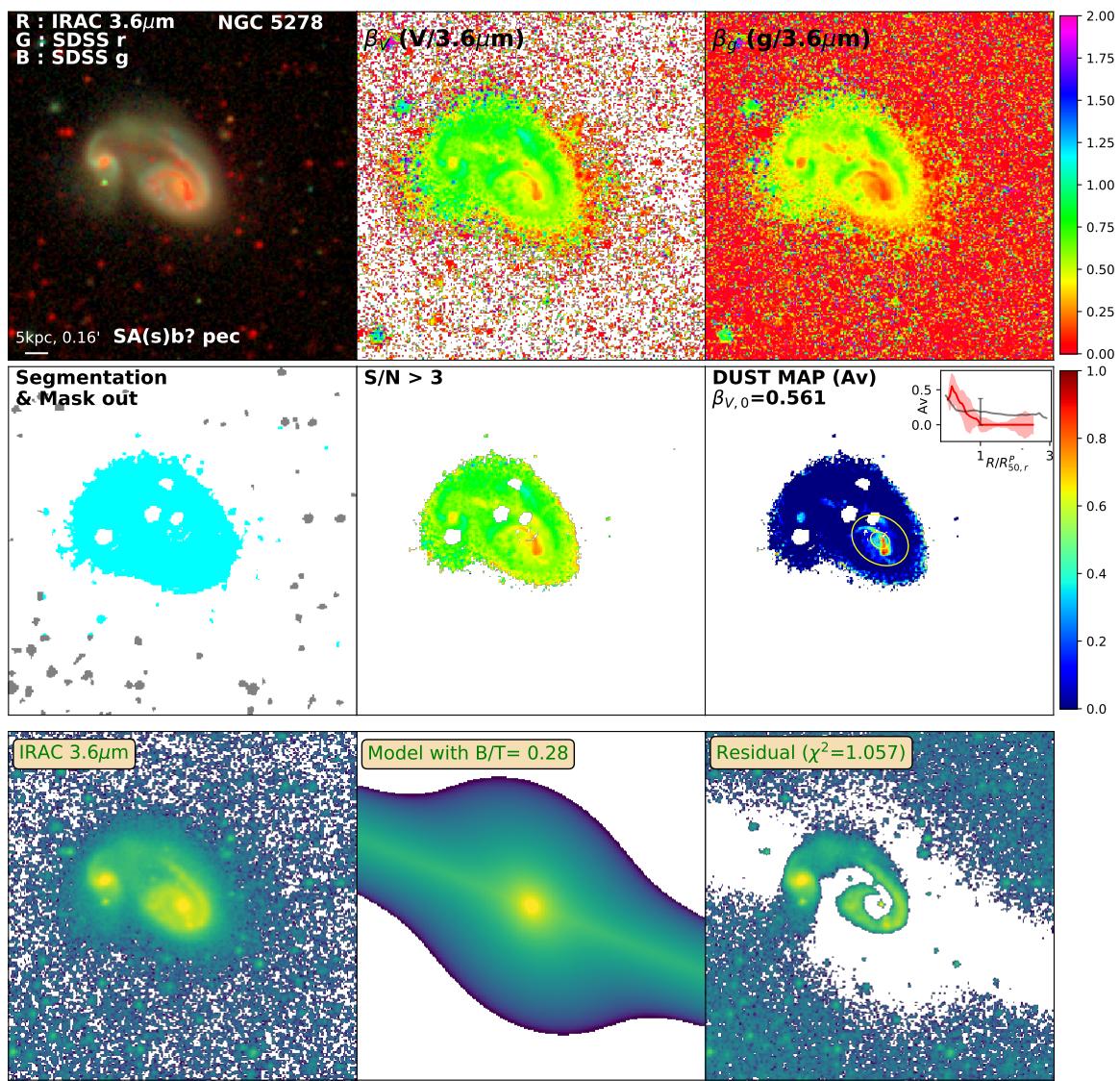


Figure D.190: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5278

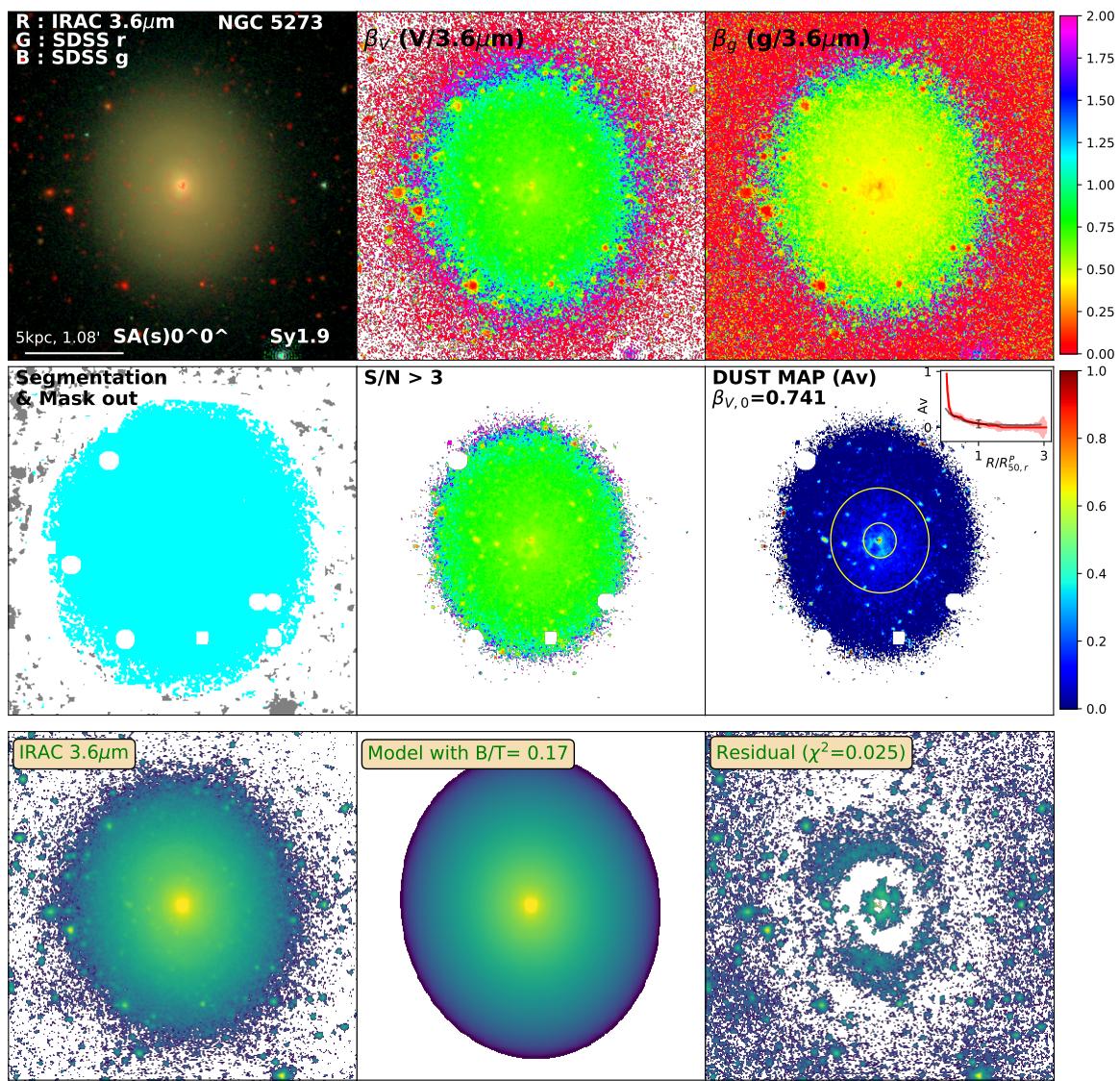


Figure D.191: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5273

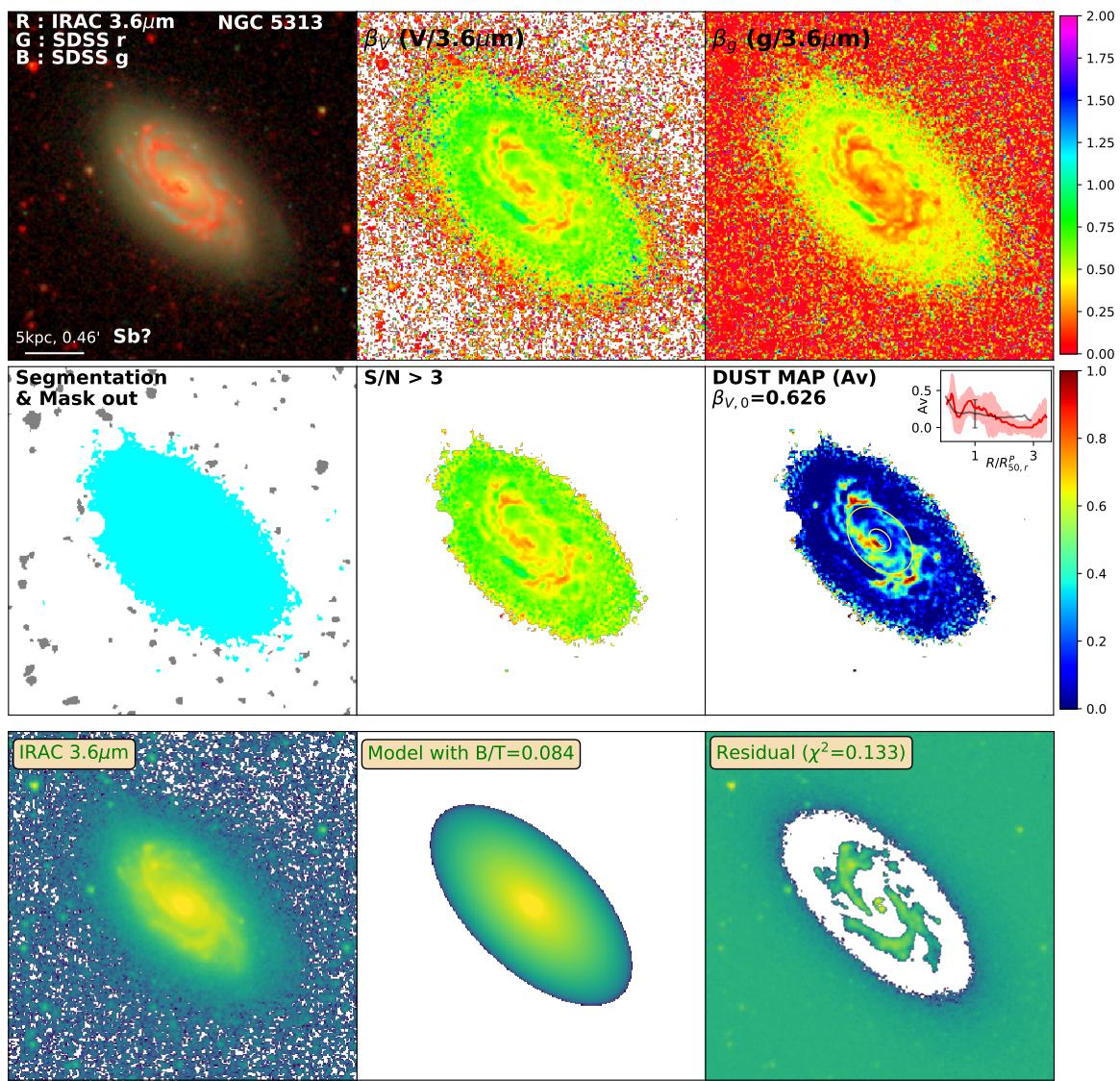


Figure D.192: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5313

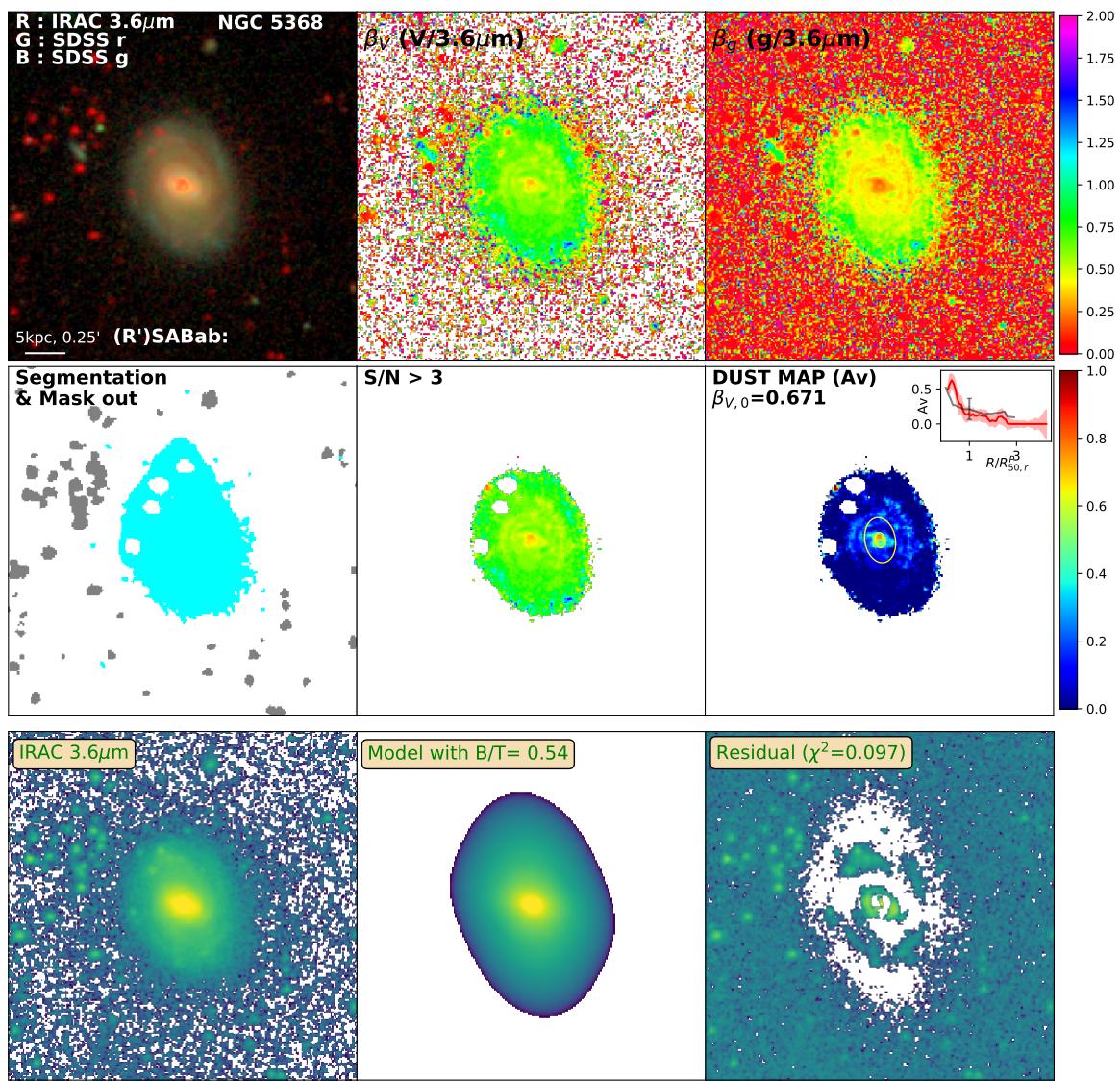


Figure D.193: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5368

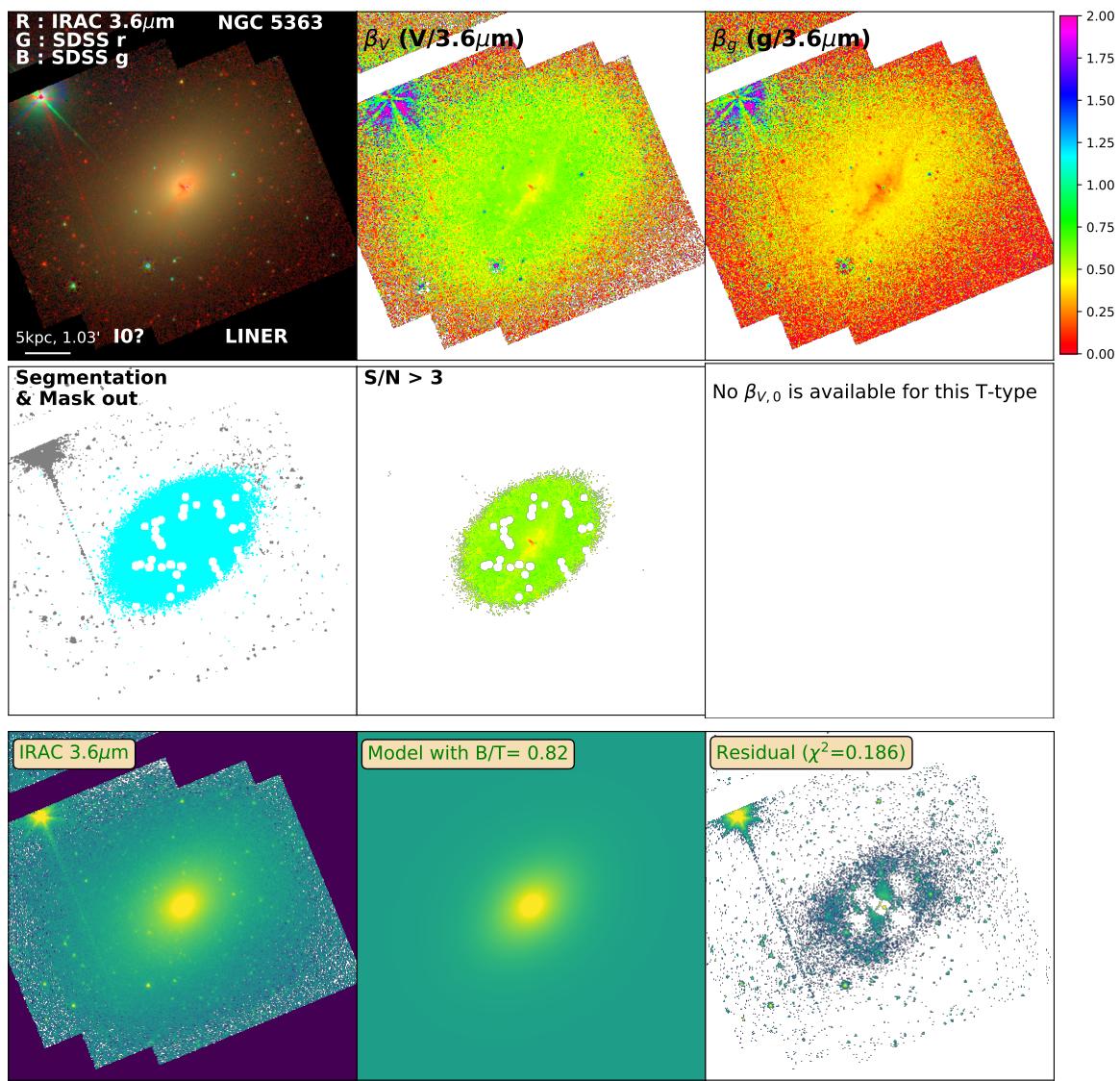


Figure D.194: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5363

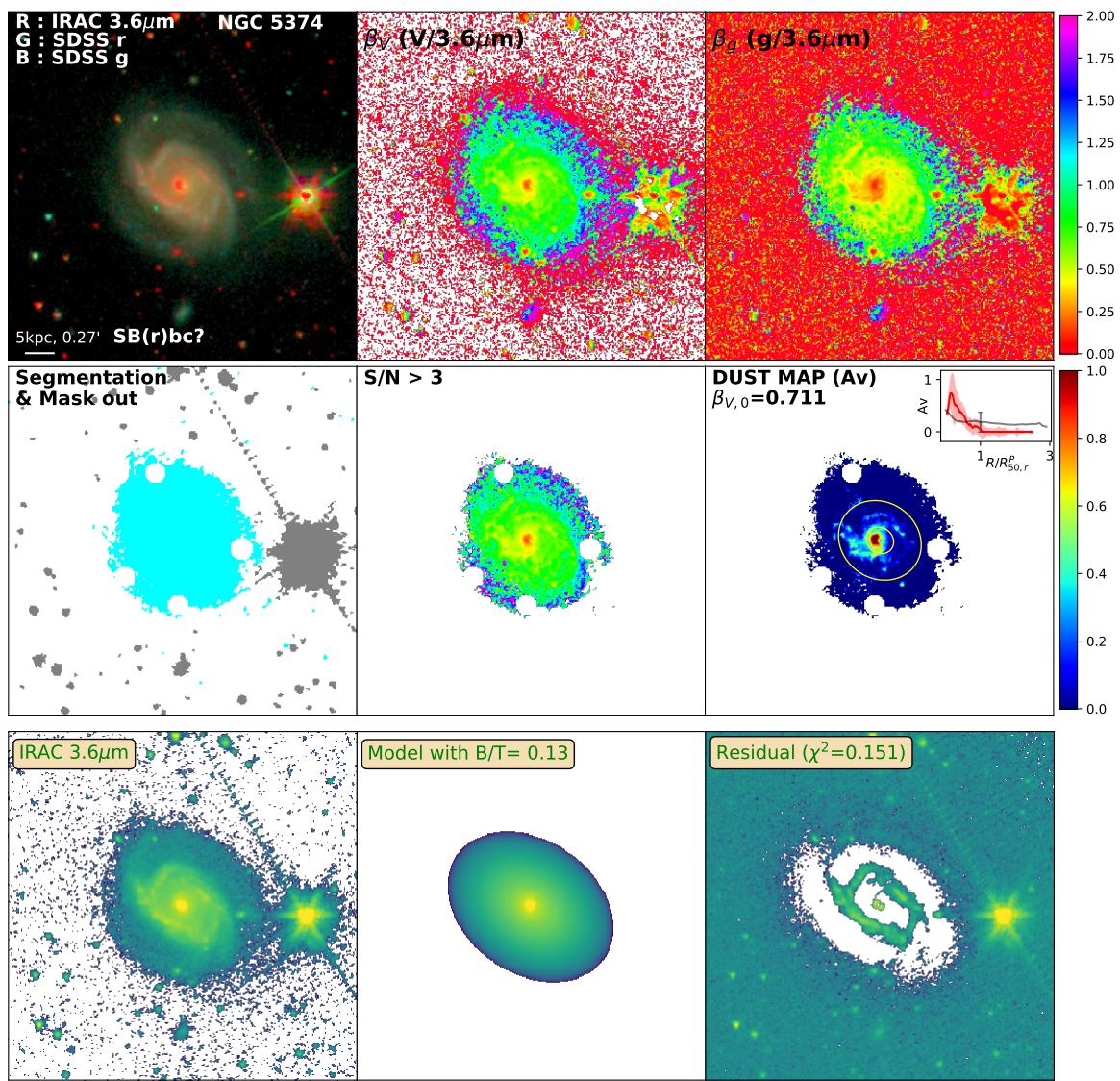


Figure D.195: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5374

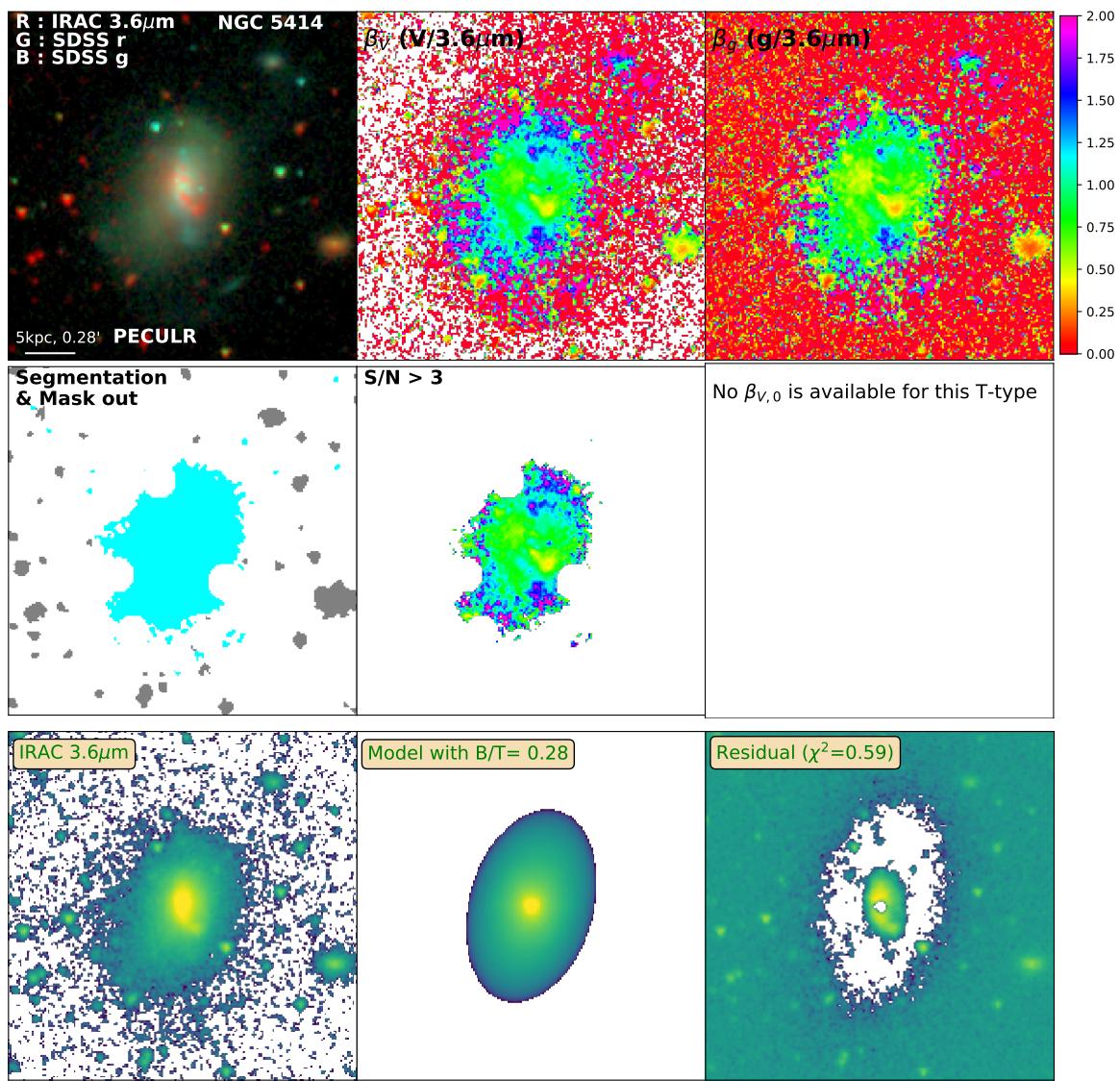


Figure D.196: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5414

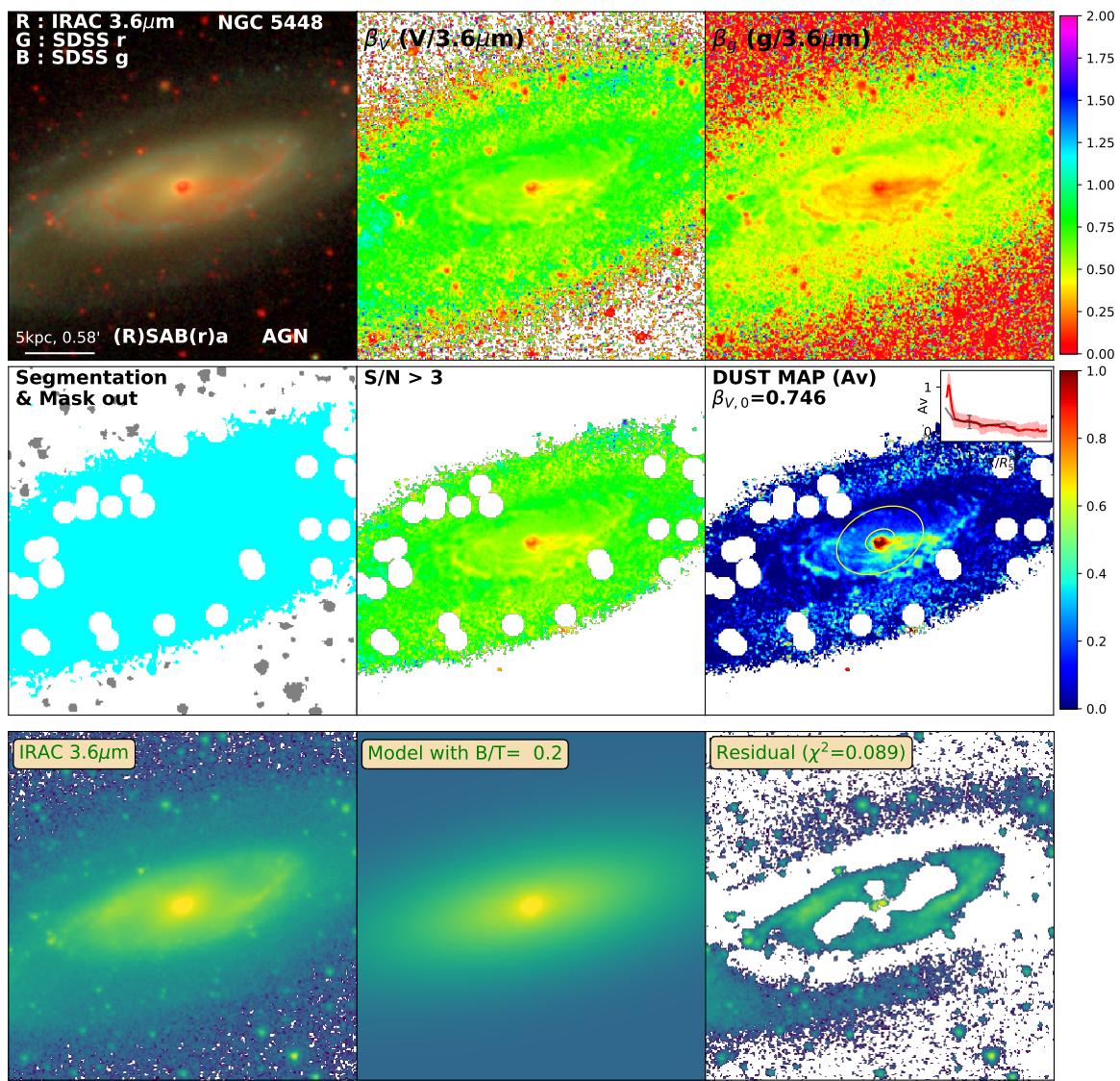


Figure D.197: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5448

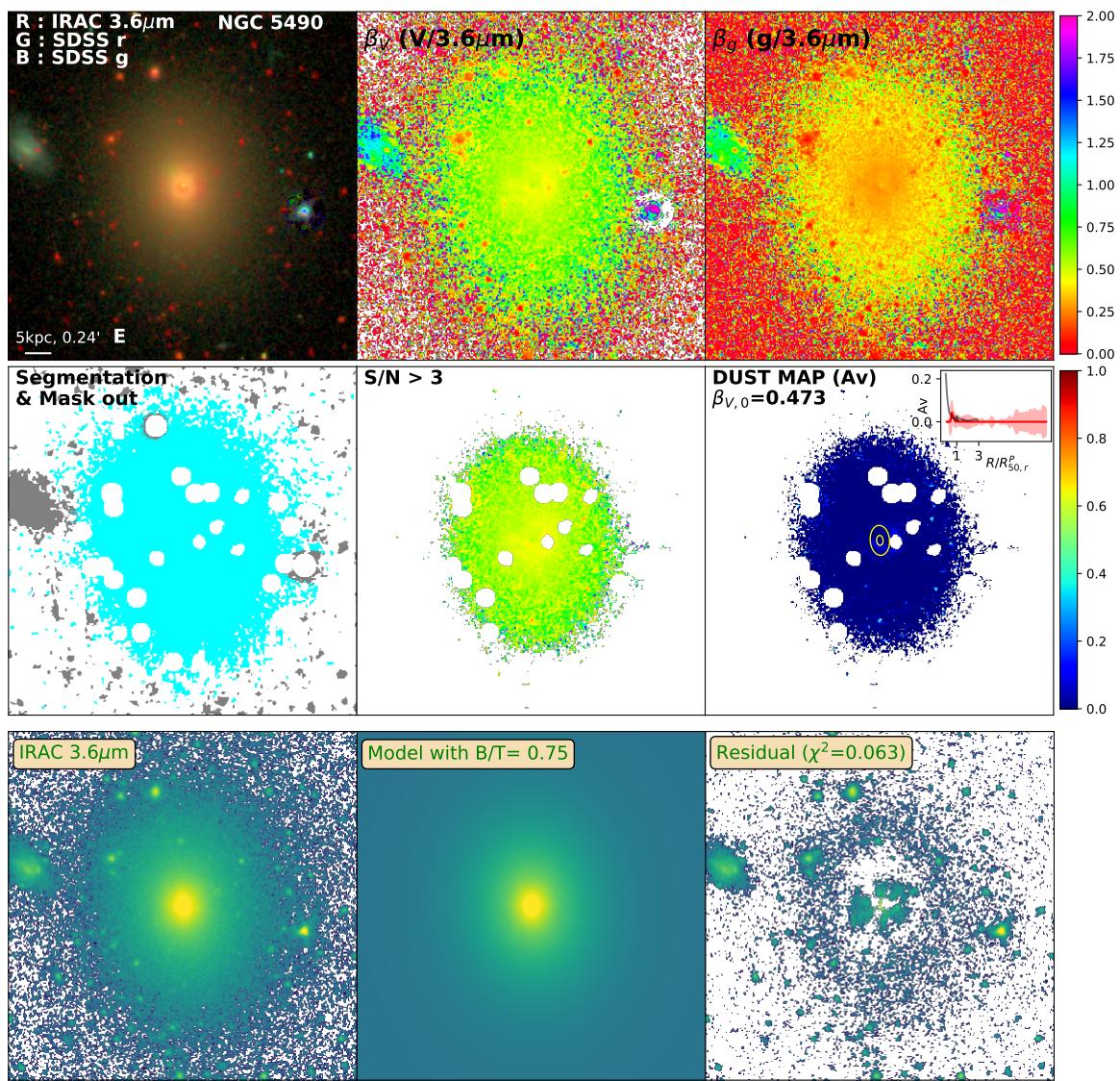


Figure D.198: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5490

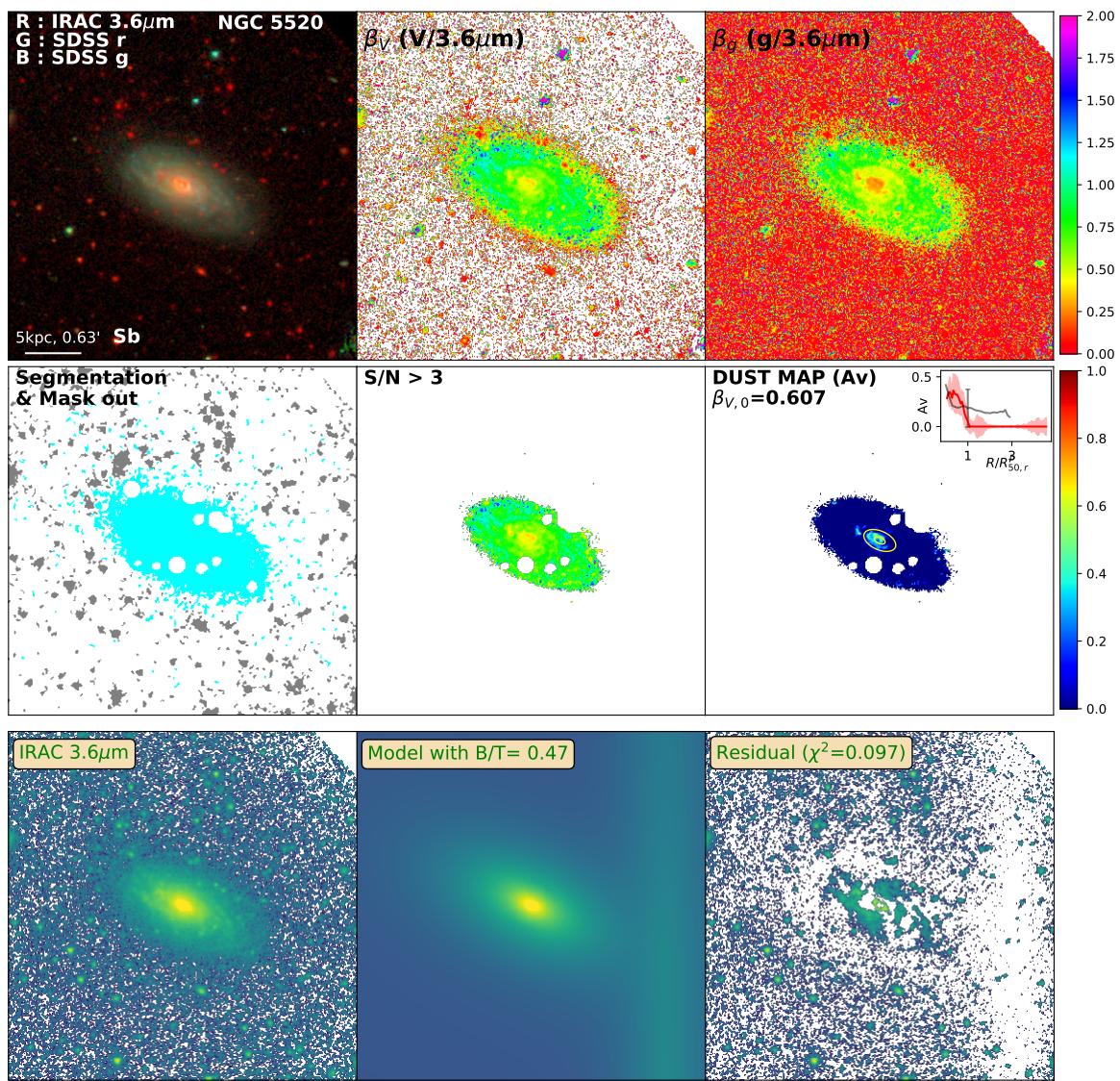


Figure D.199: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5520

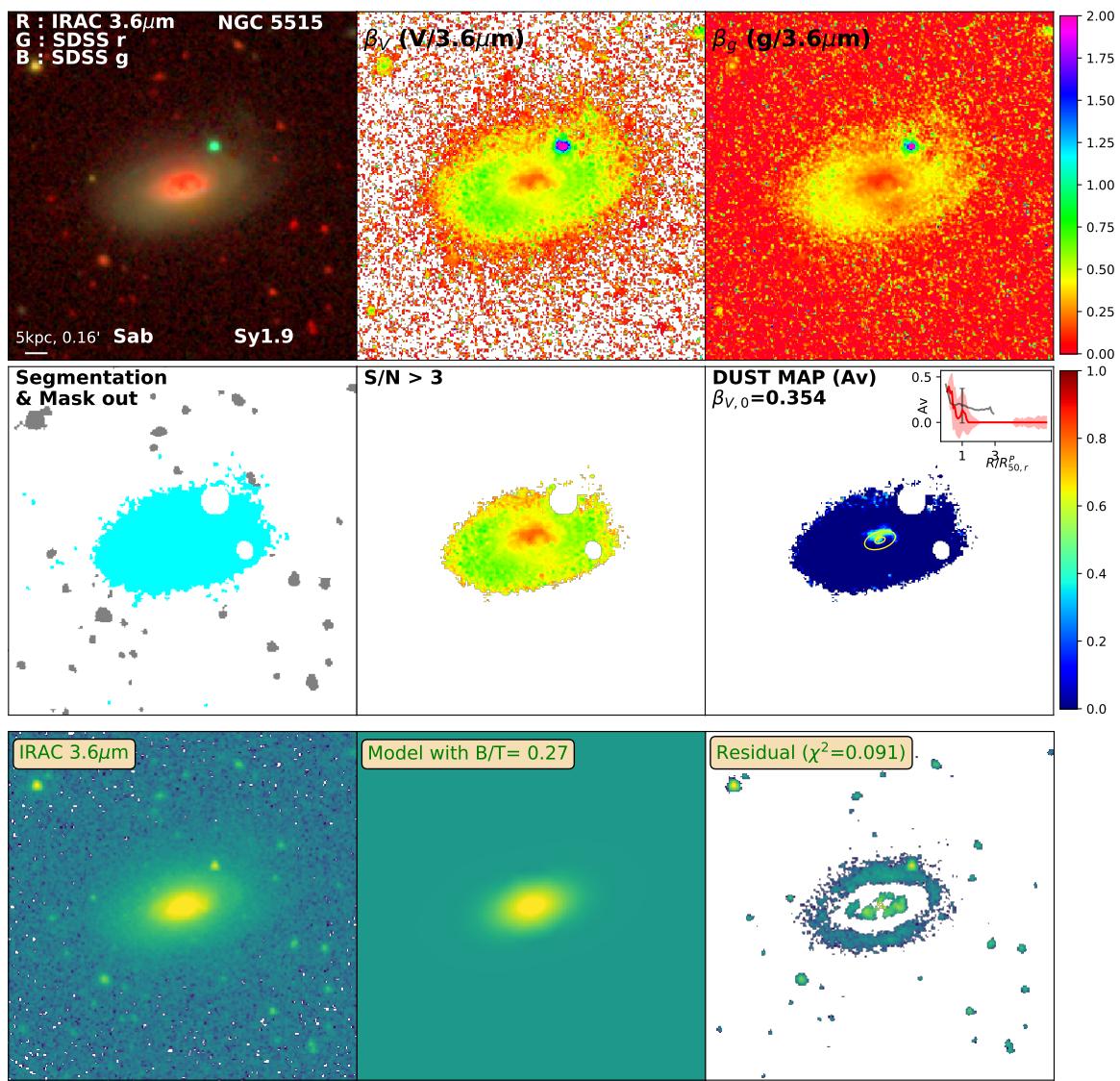


Figure D.200: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5515

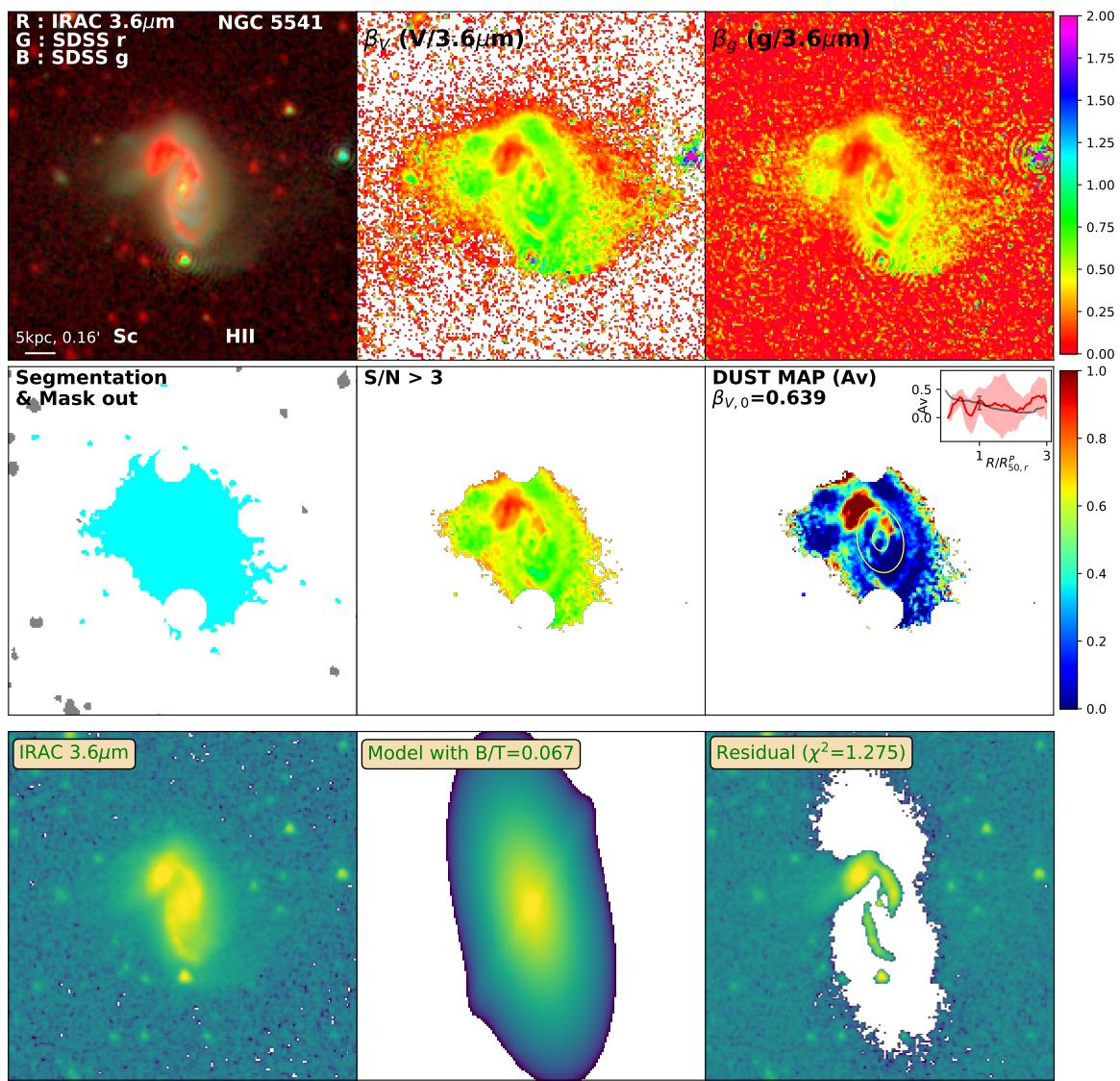


Figure D.201: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5541

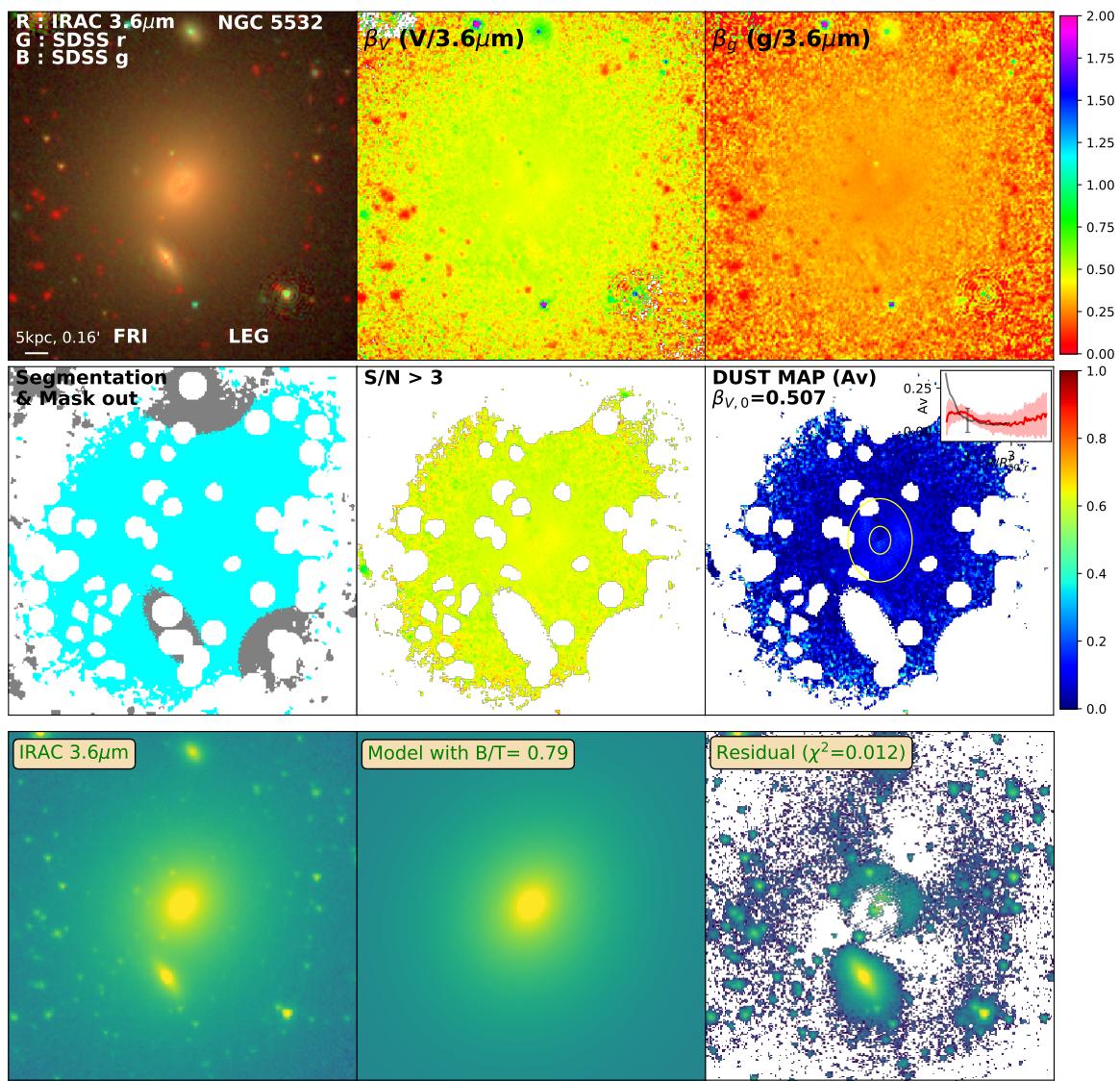


Figure D.202: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5532

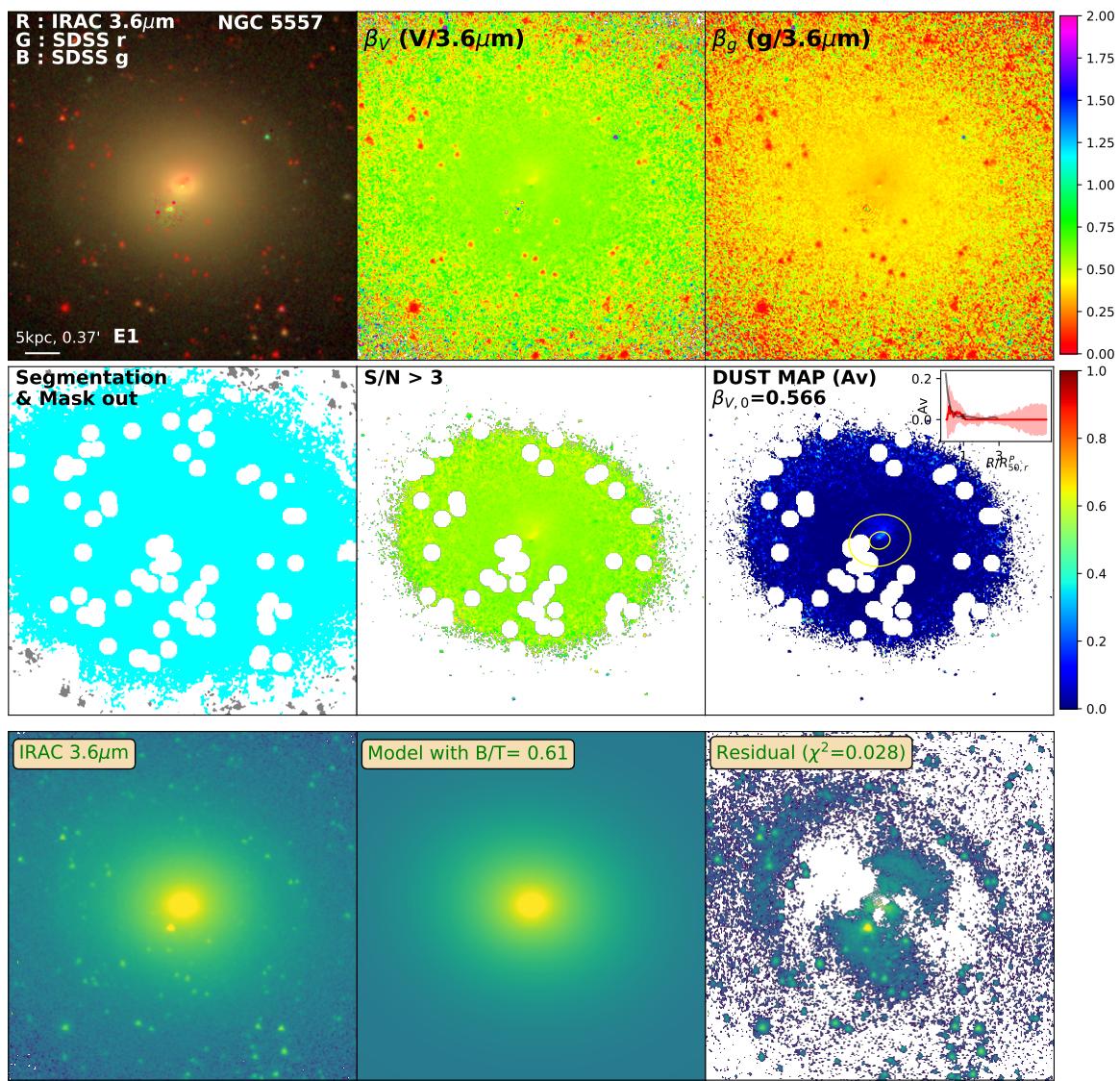


Figure D.203: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5557

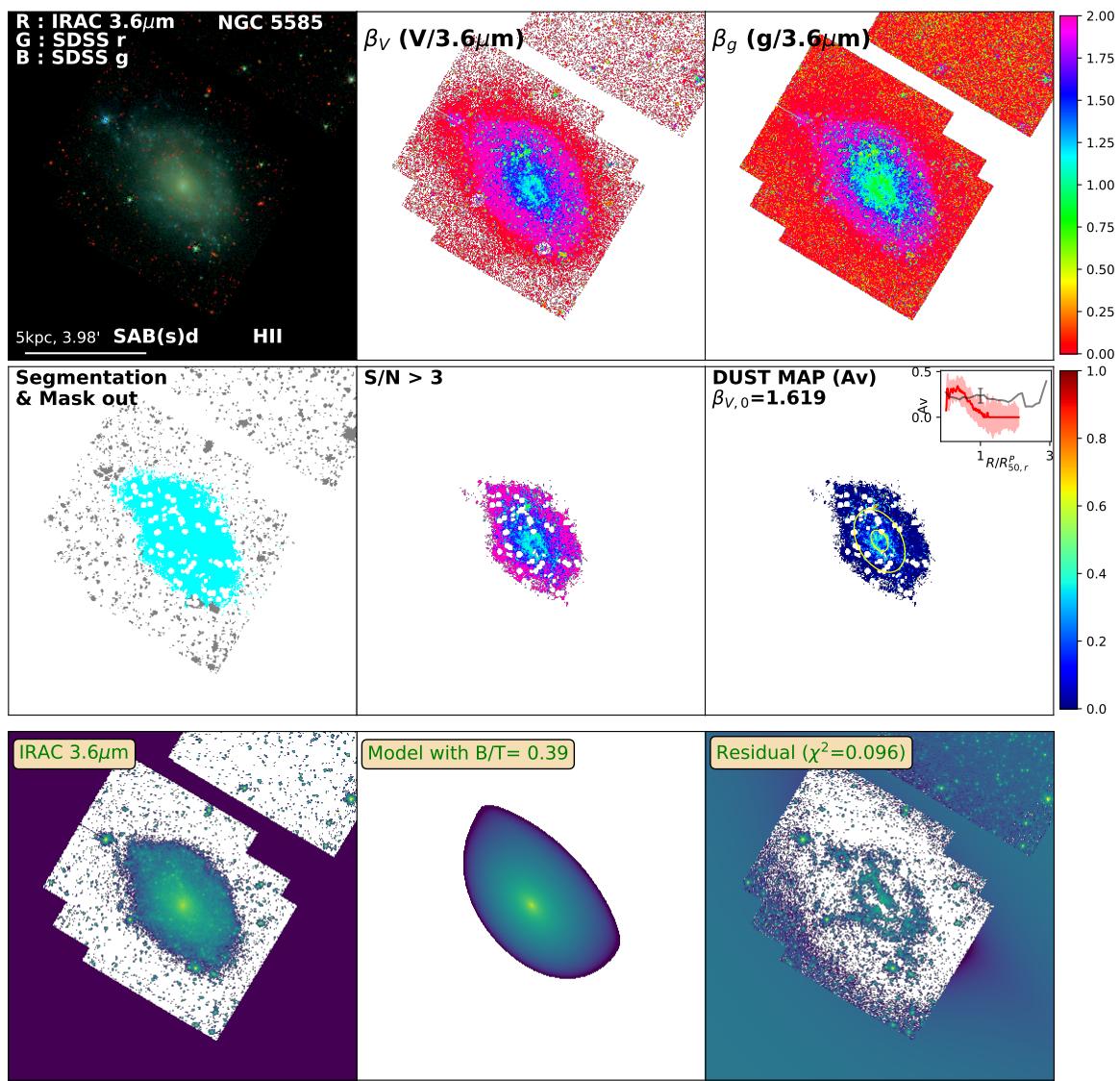


Figure D.204: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5585

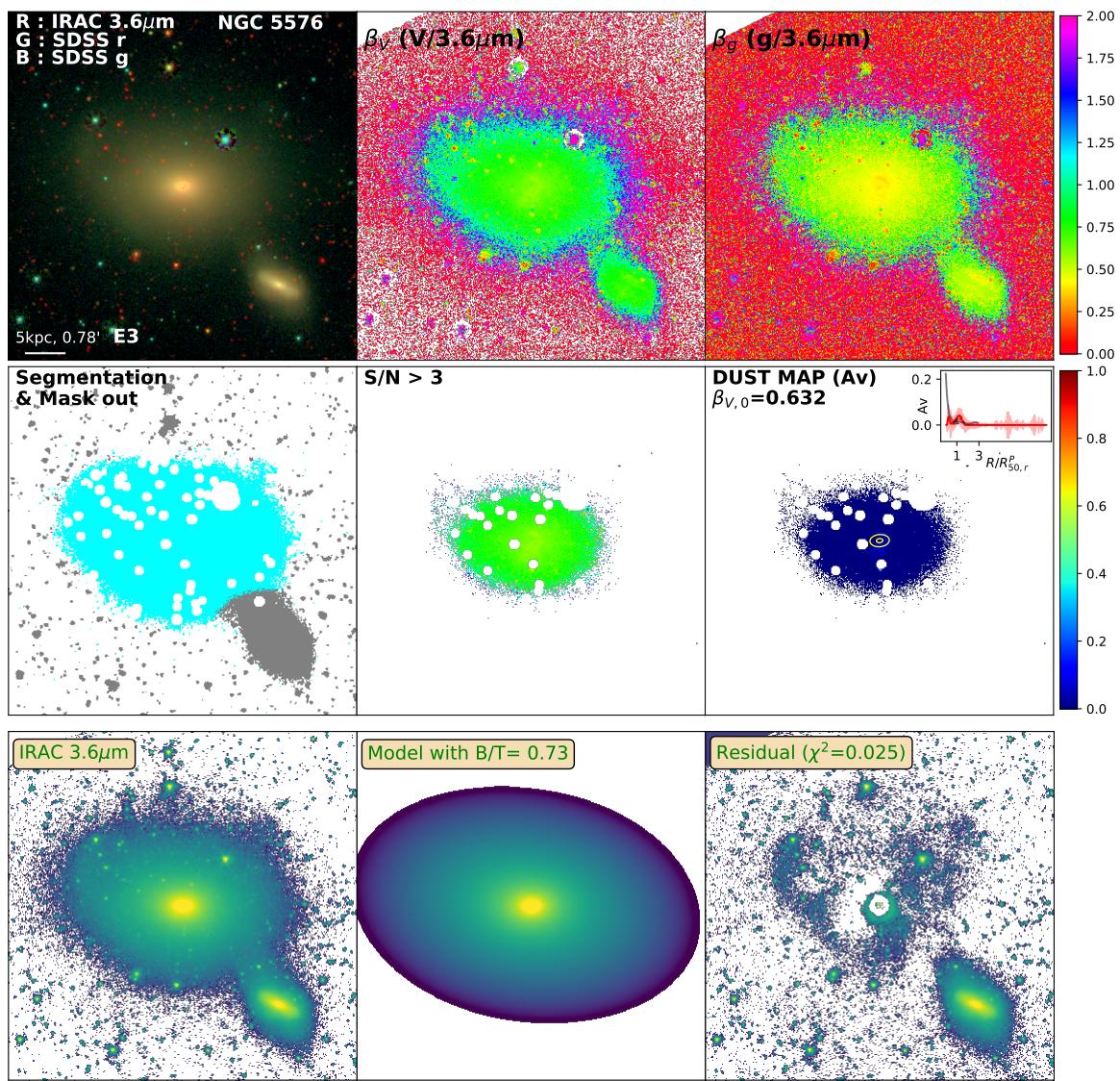


Figure D.205: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5576

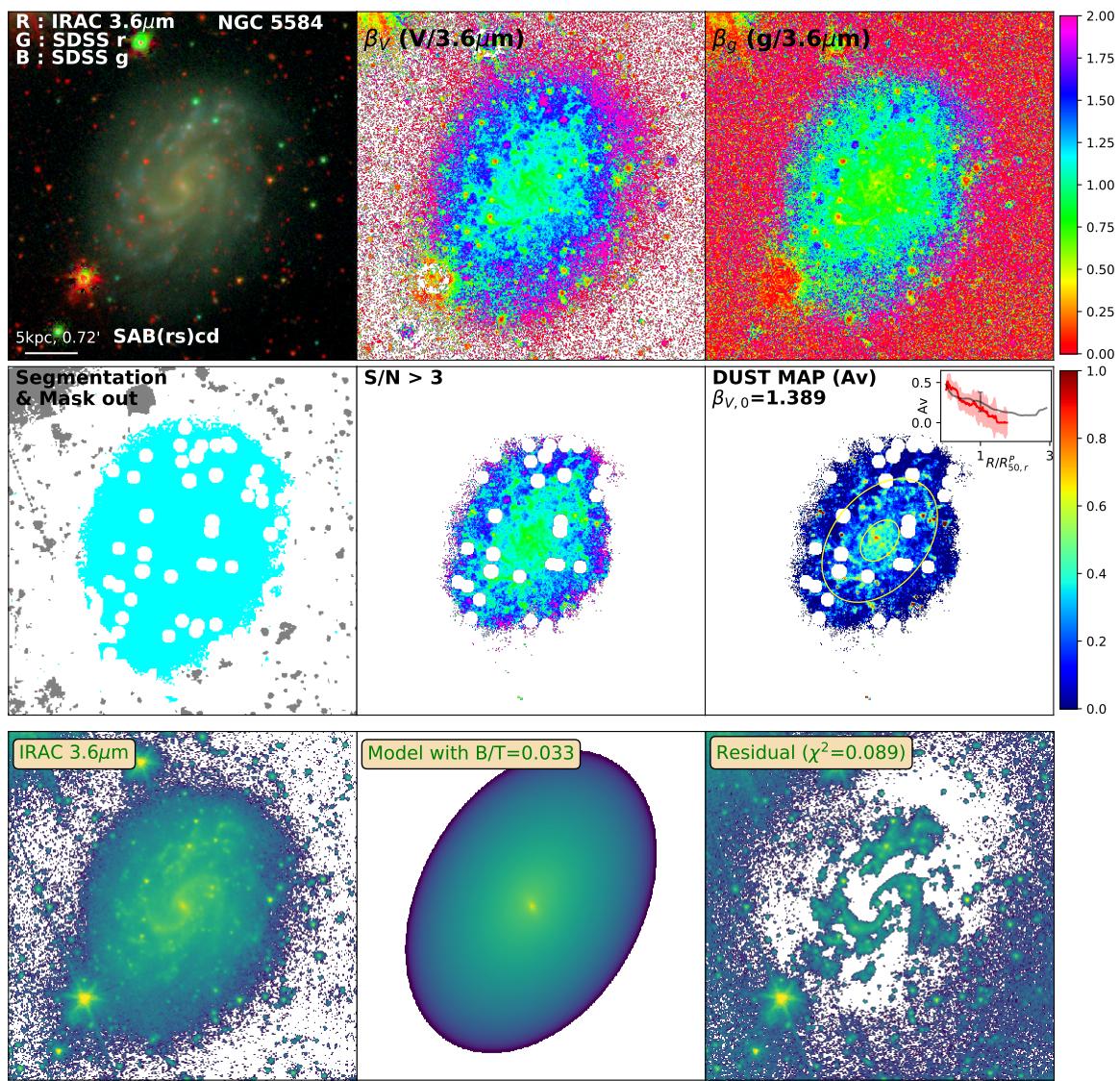


Figure D.206: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5584

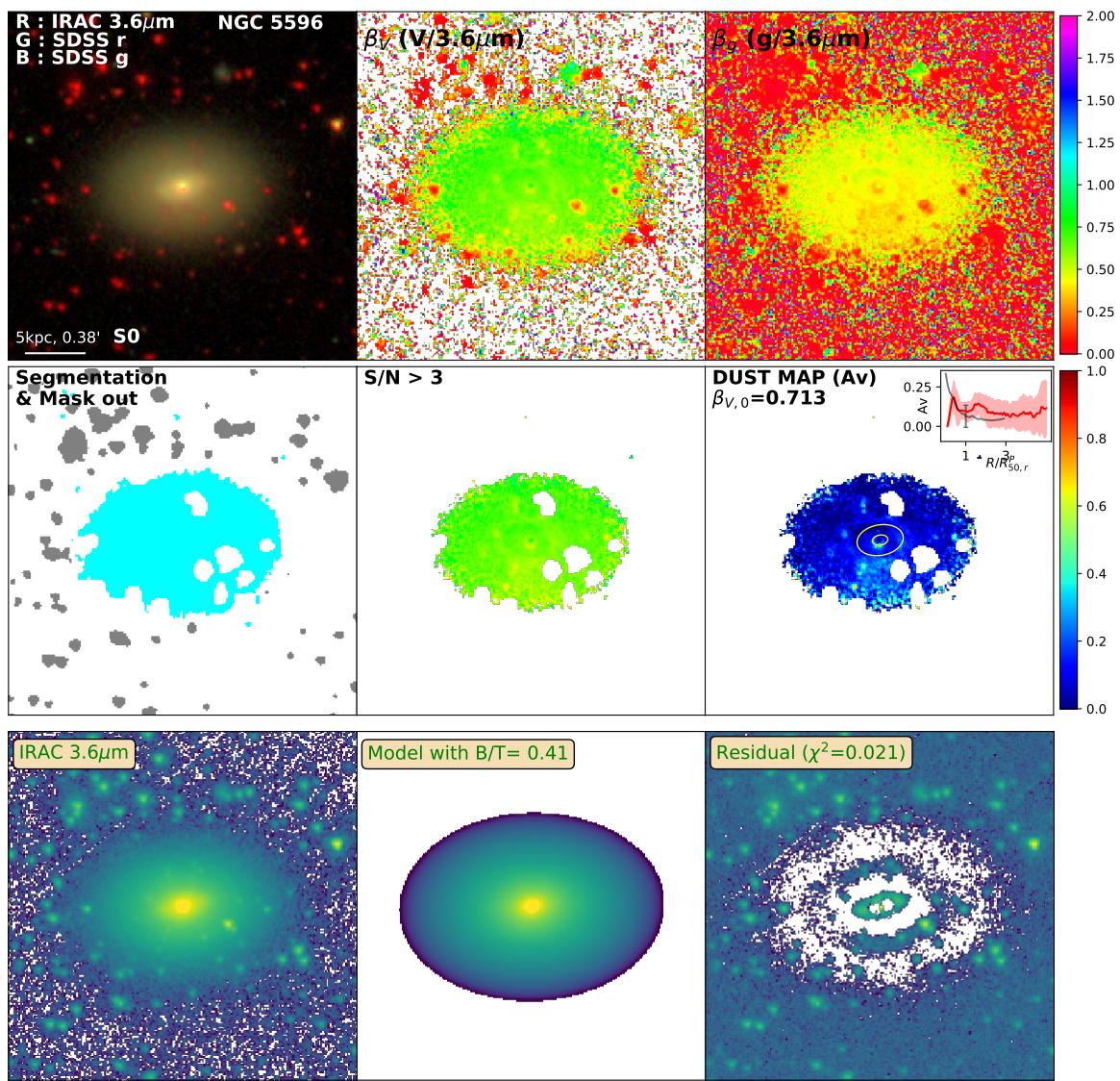


Figure D.207: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5596

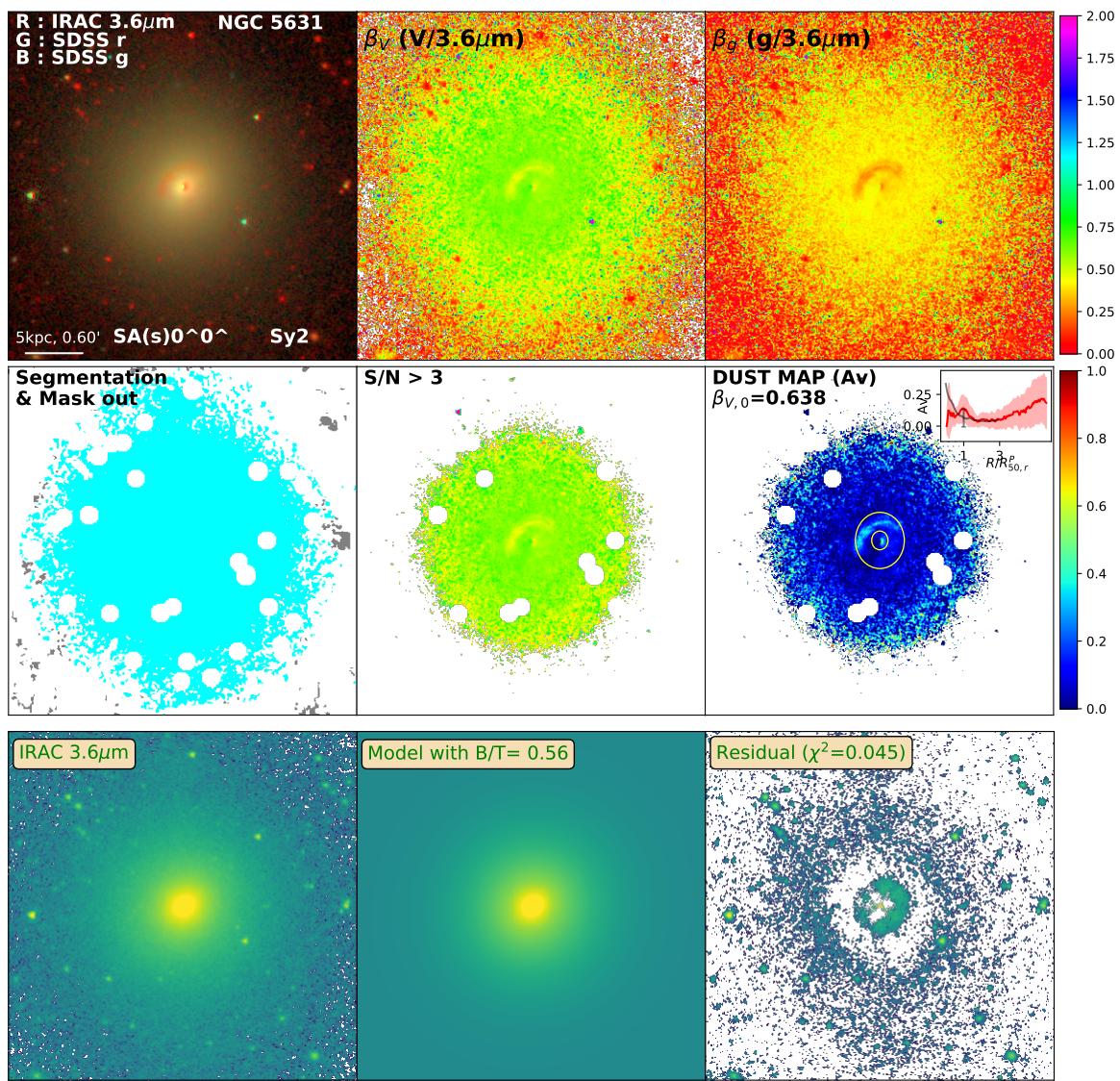


Figure D.208: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5631

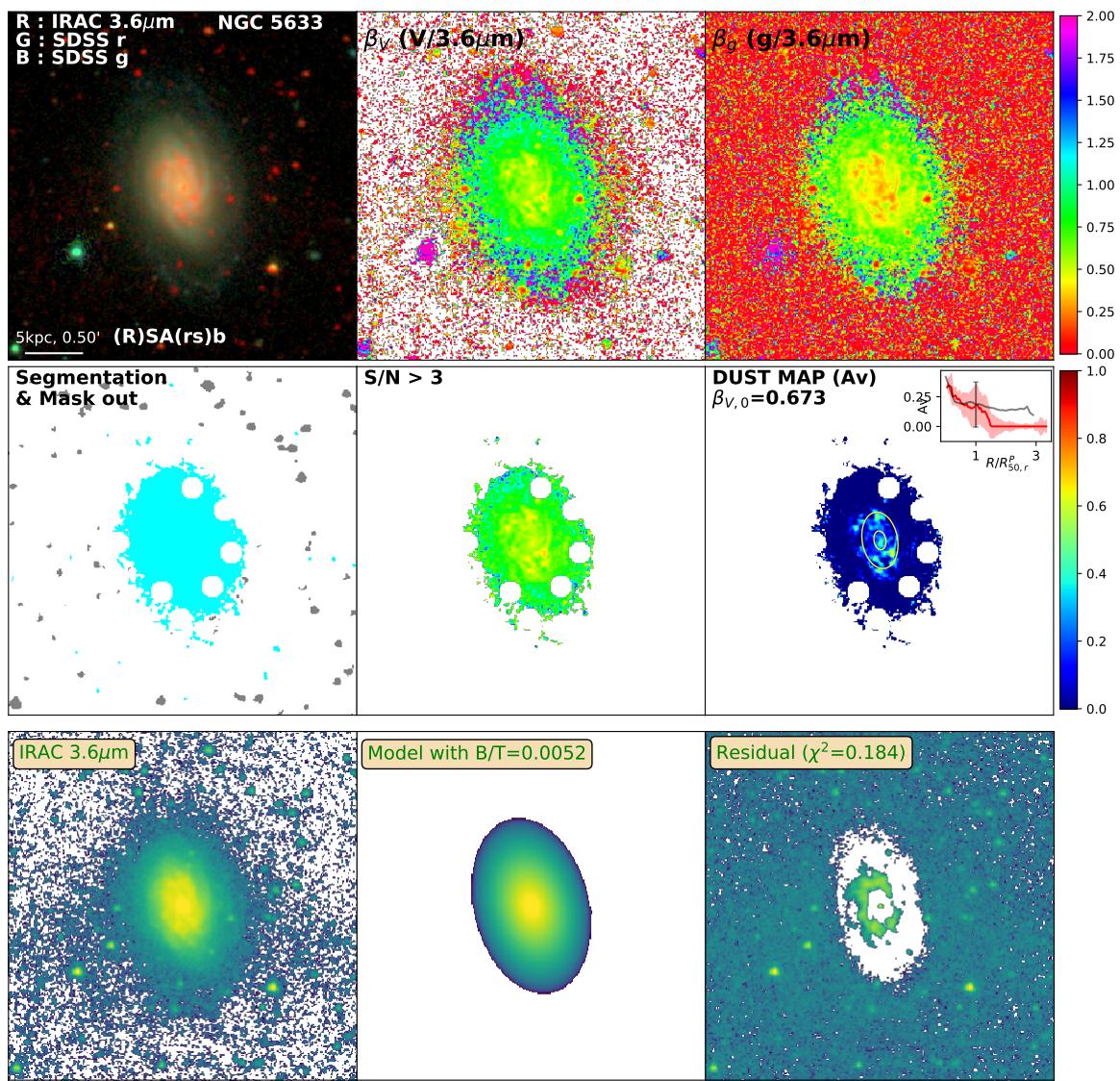


Figure D.209: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5633

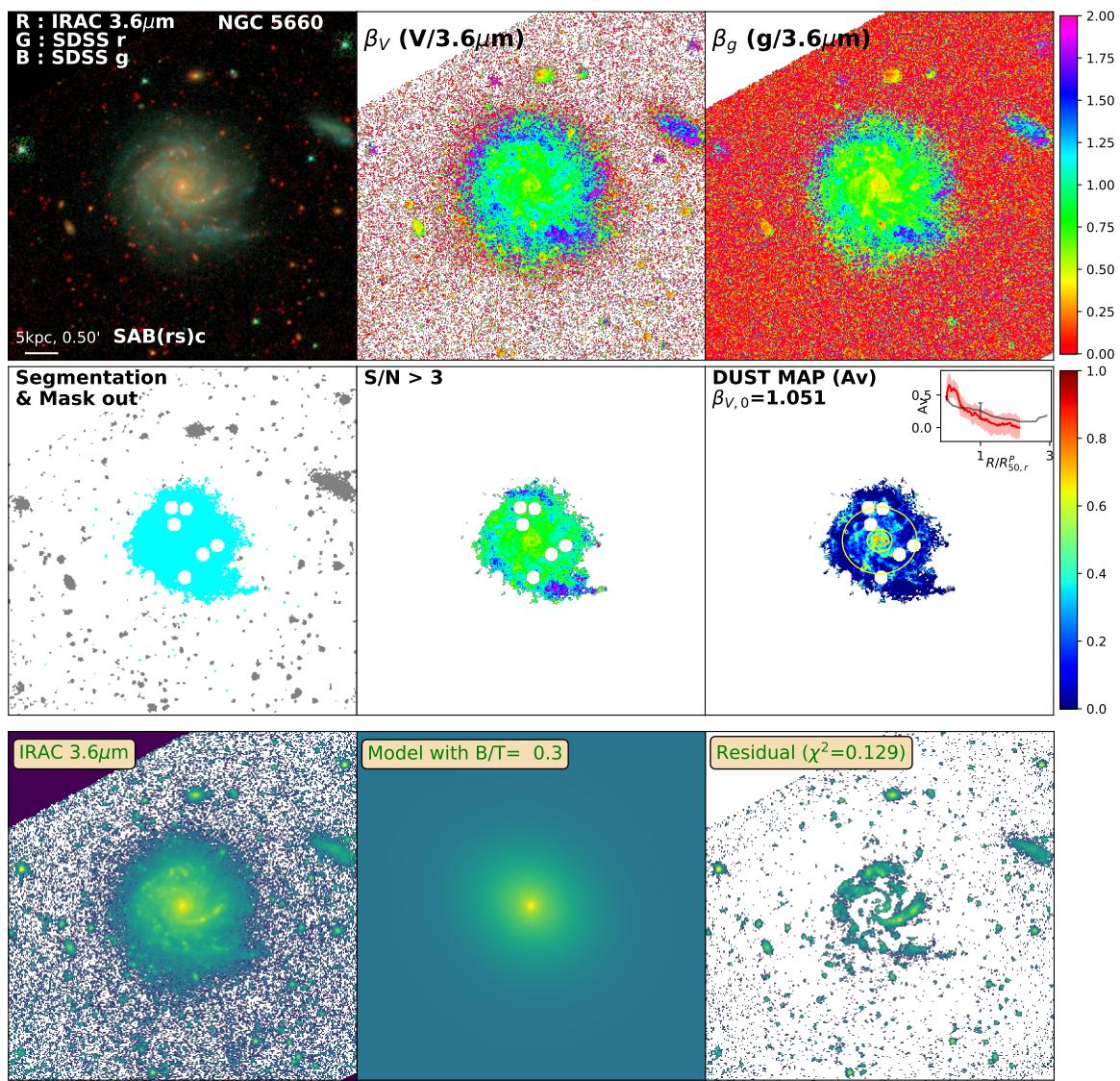


Figure D.210: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5660

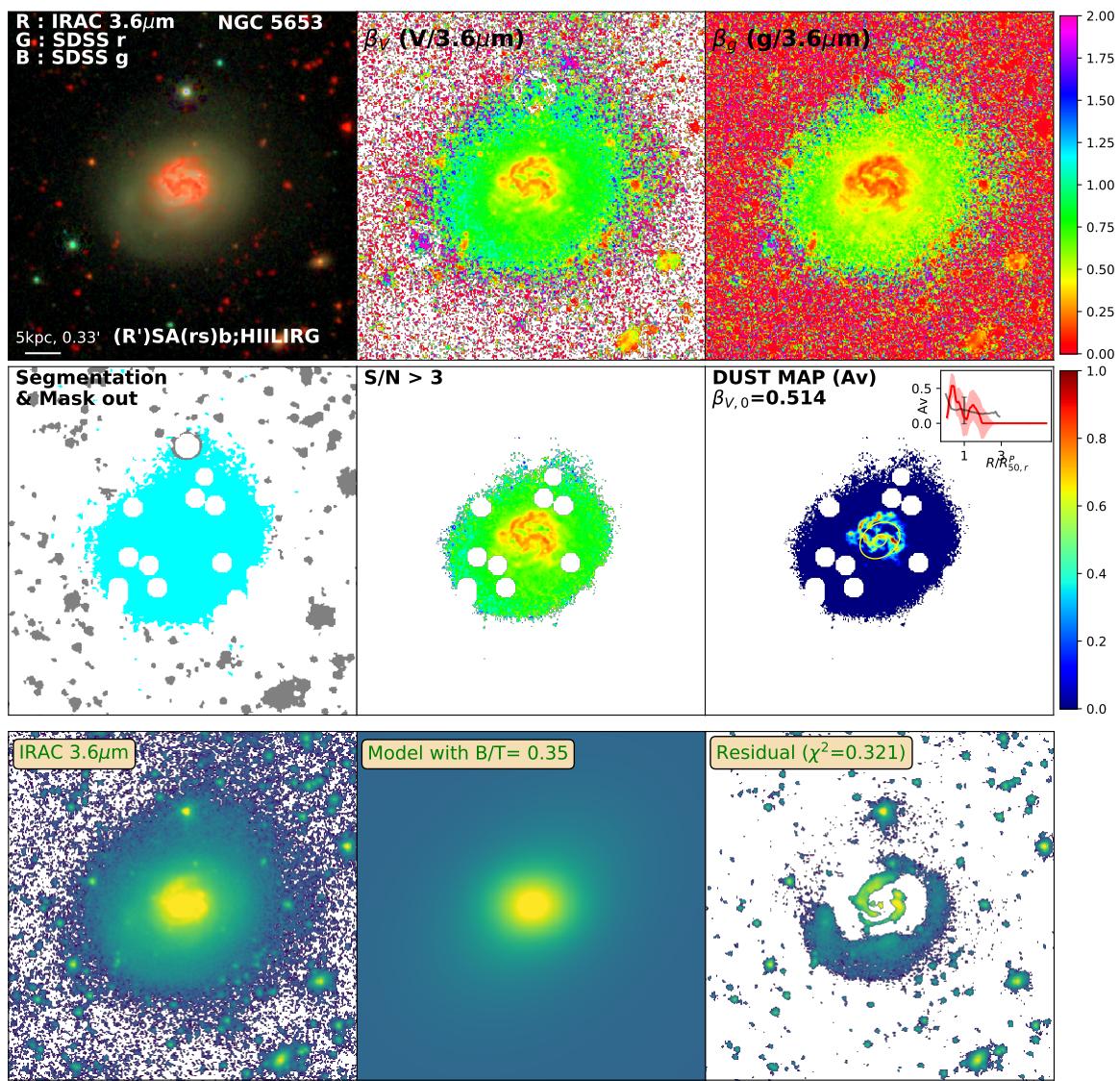


Figure D.211: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5653

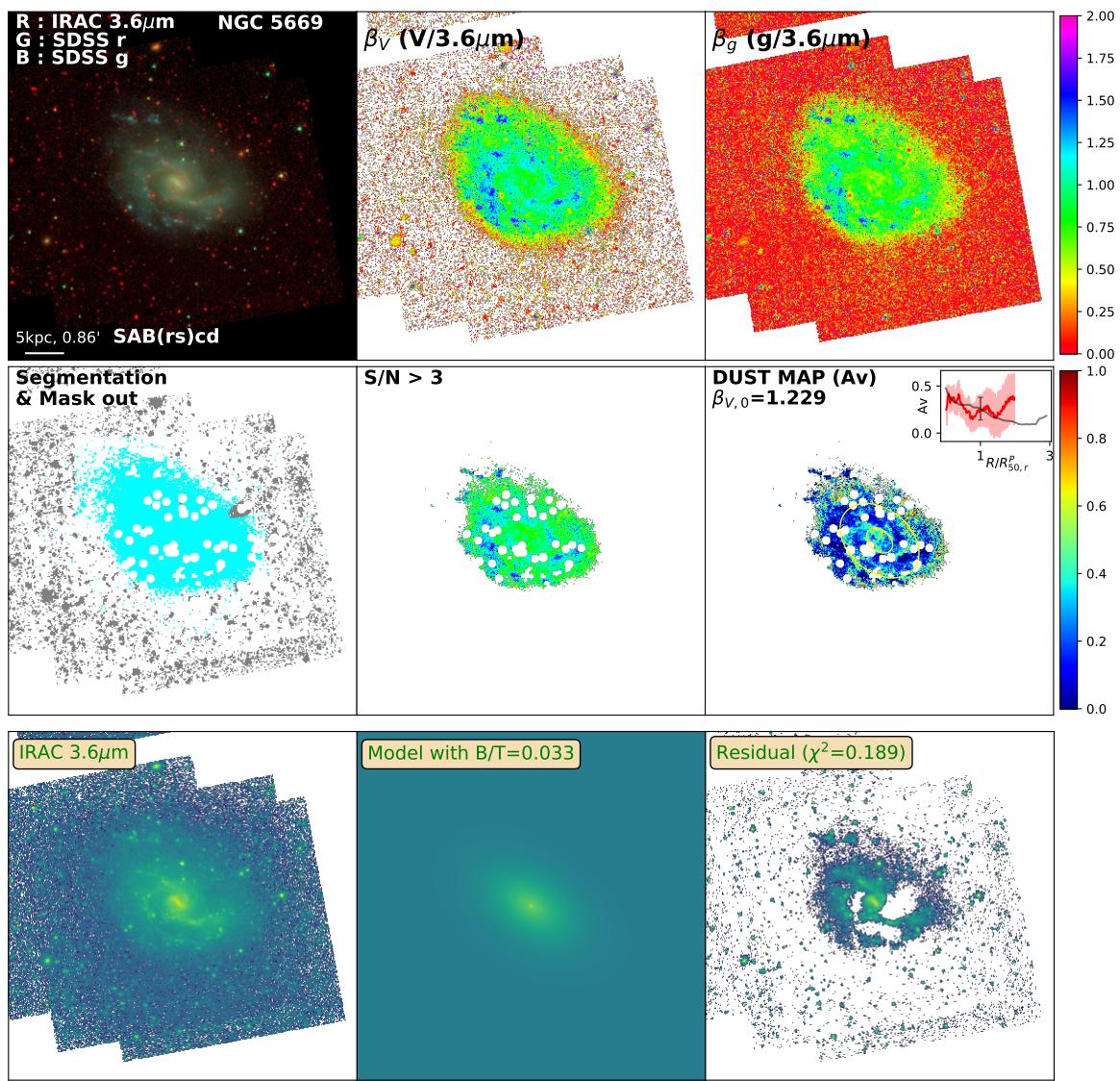


Figure D.212: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5669

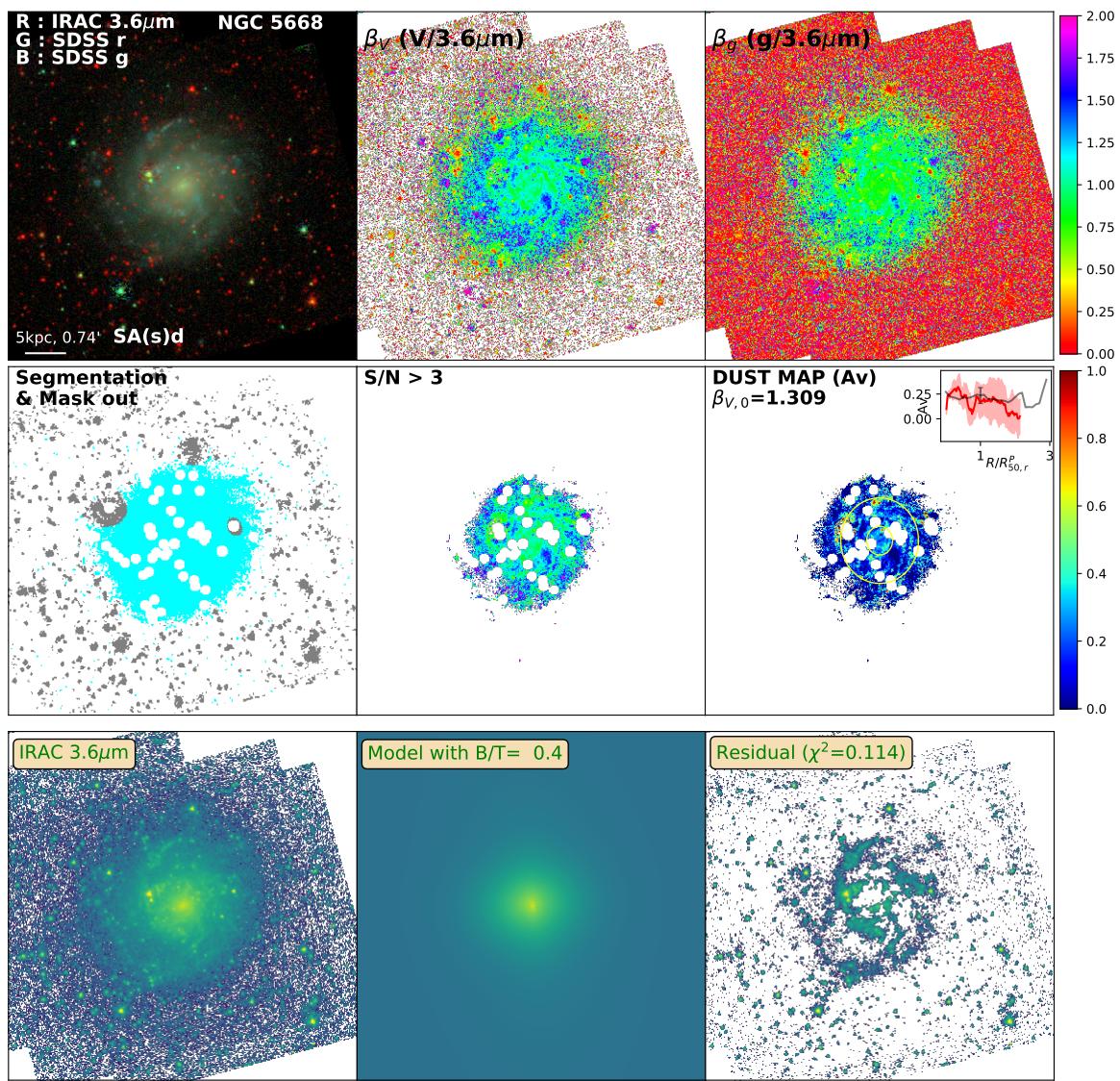


Figure D.213: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5668

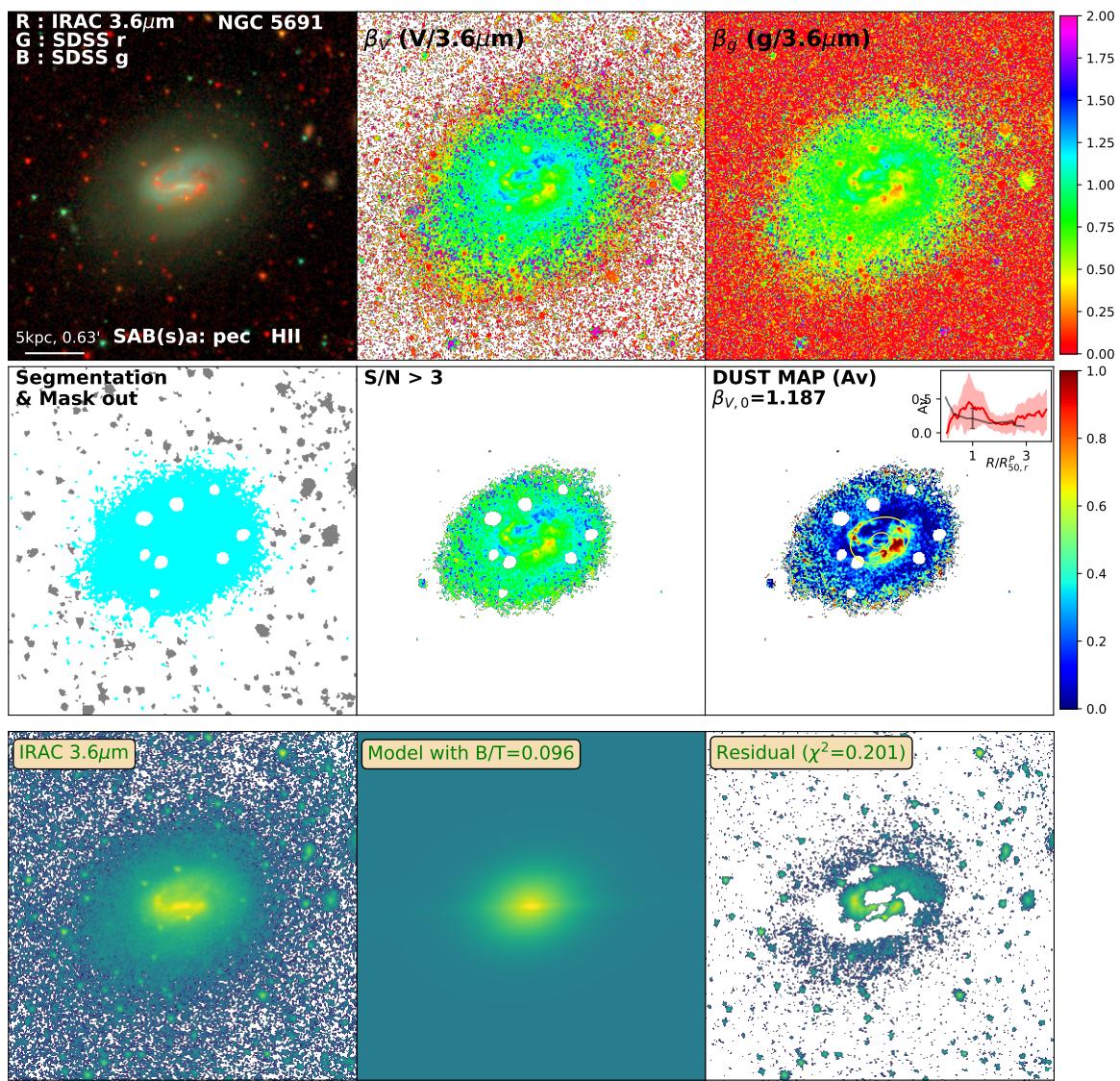


Figure D.214: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5691

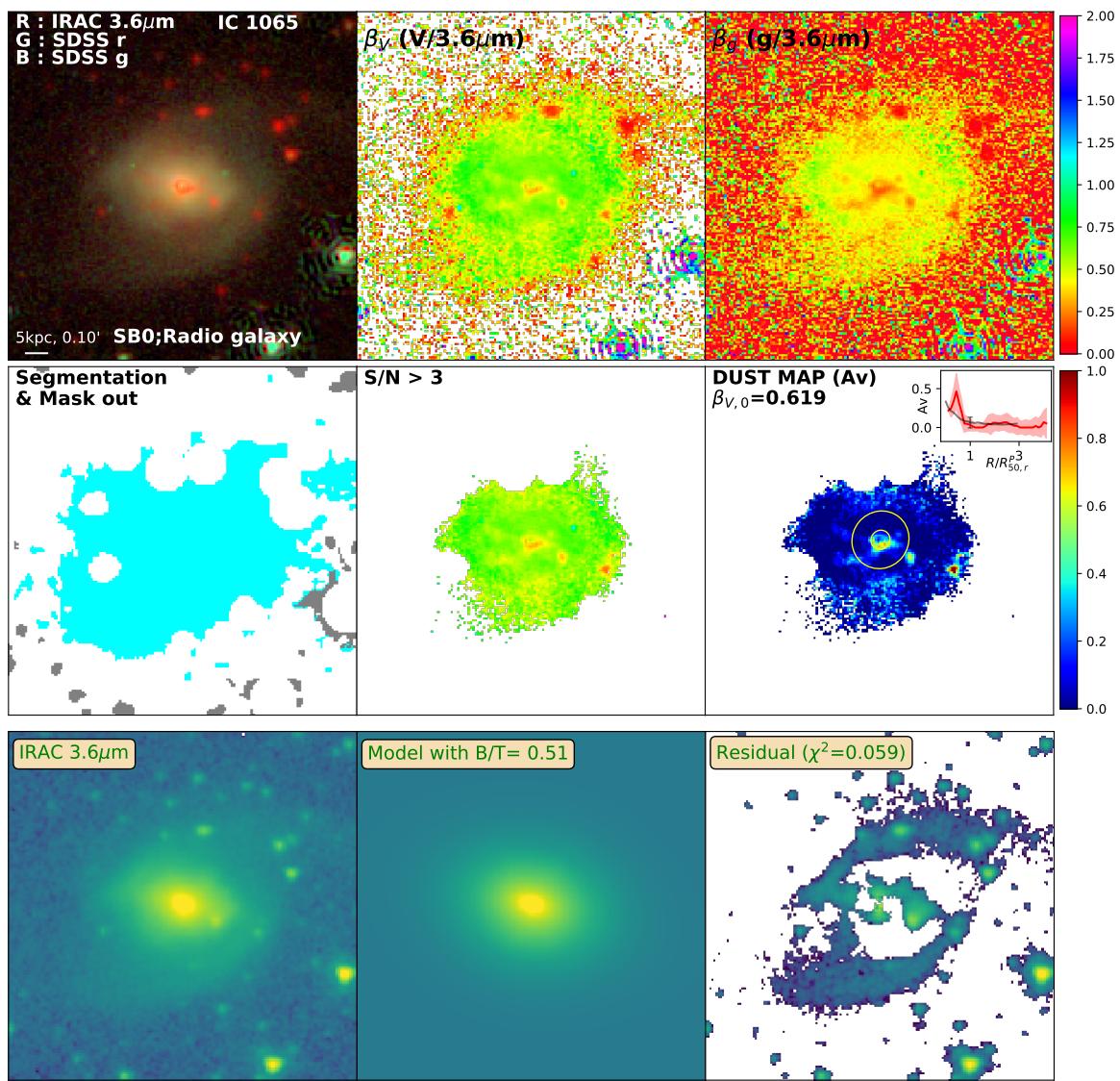


Figure D.215: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC1065

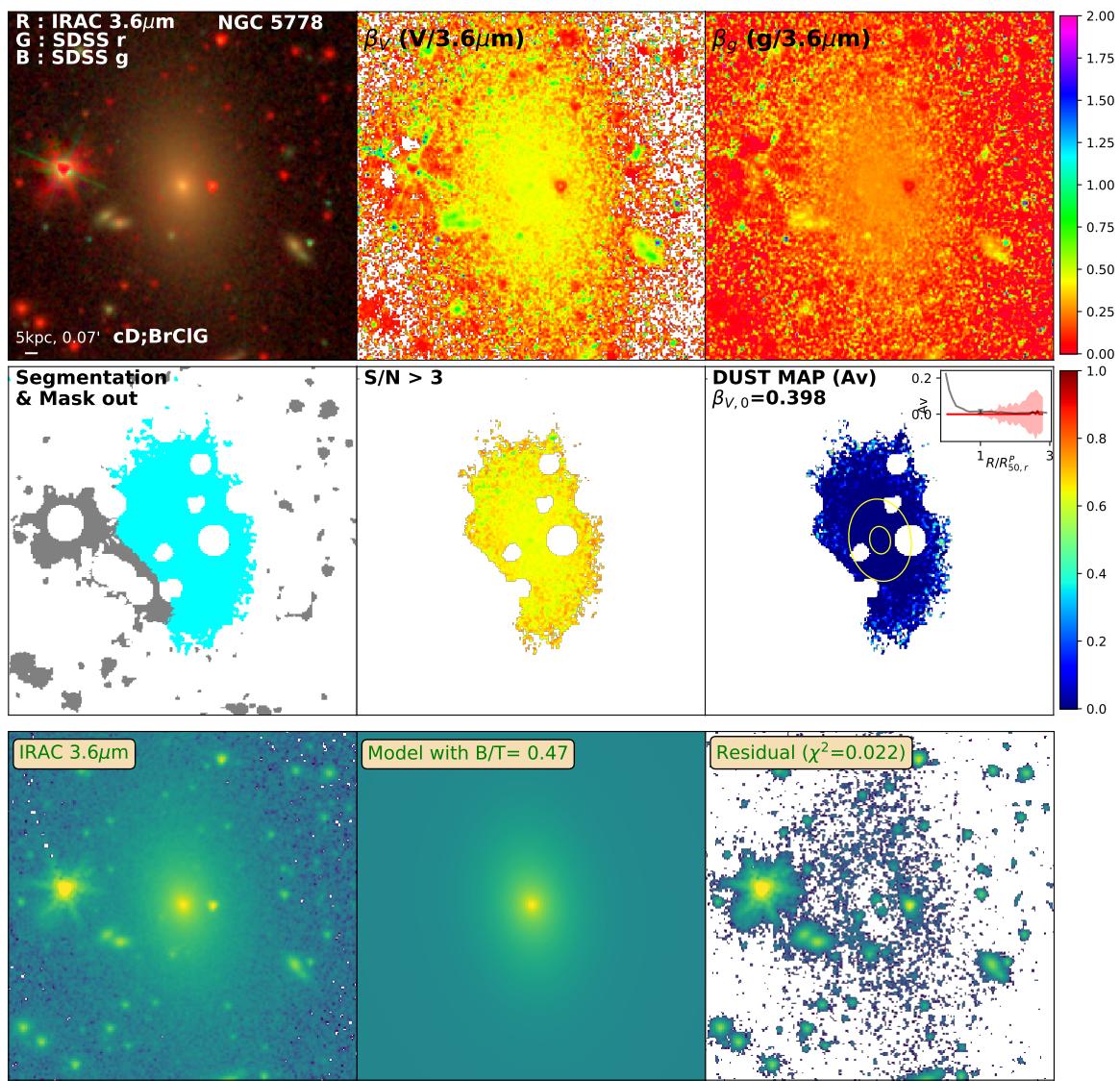


Figure D.216: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5778

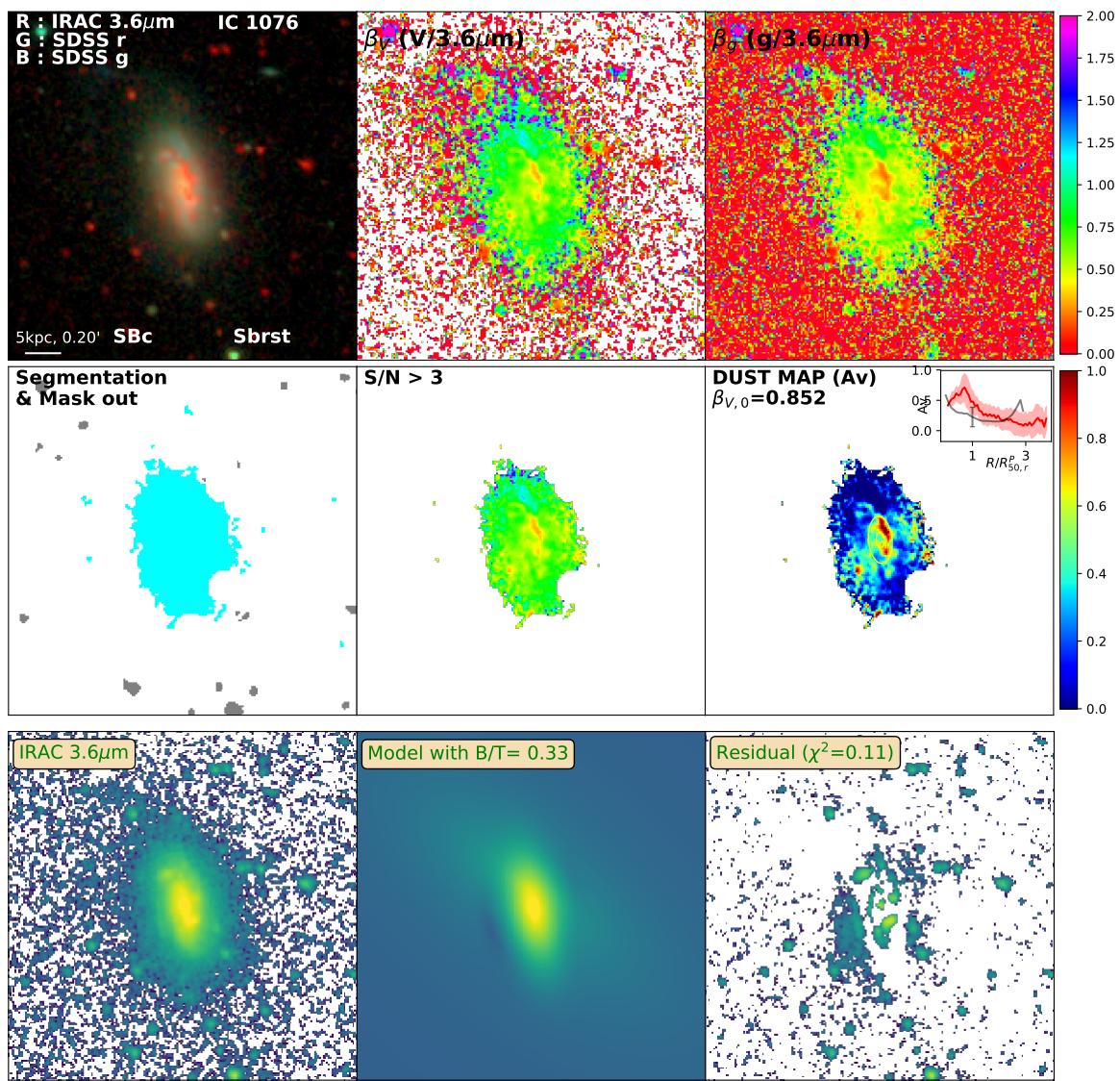


Figure D.217: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC1076

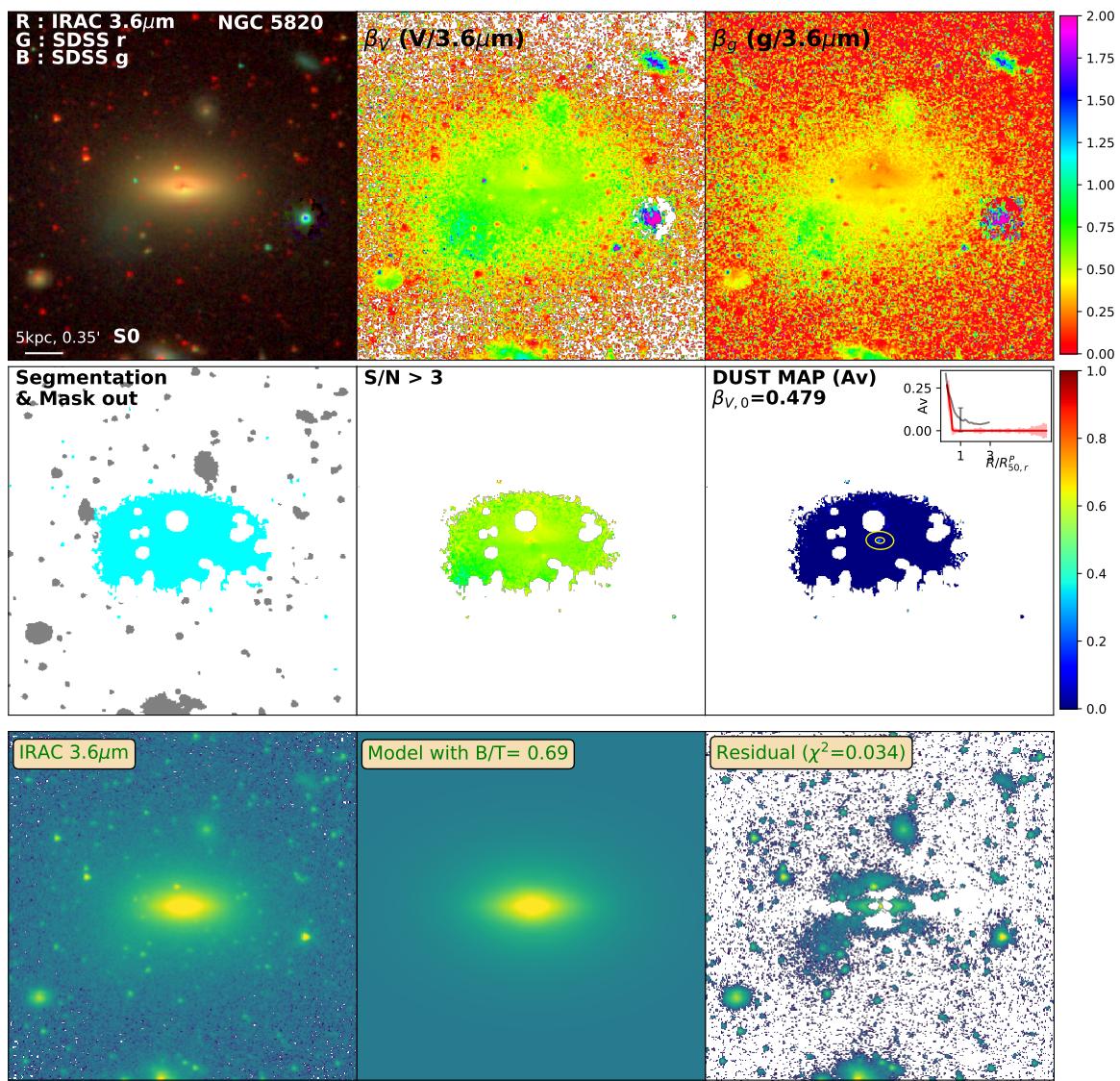


Figure D.218: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5820

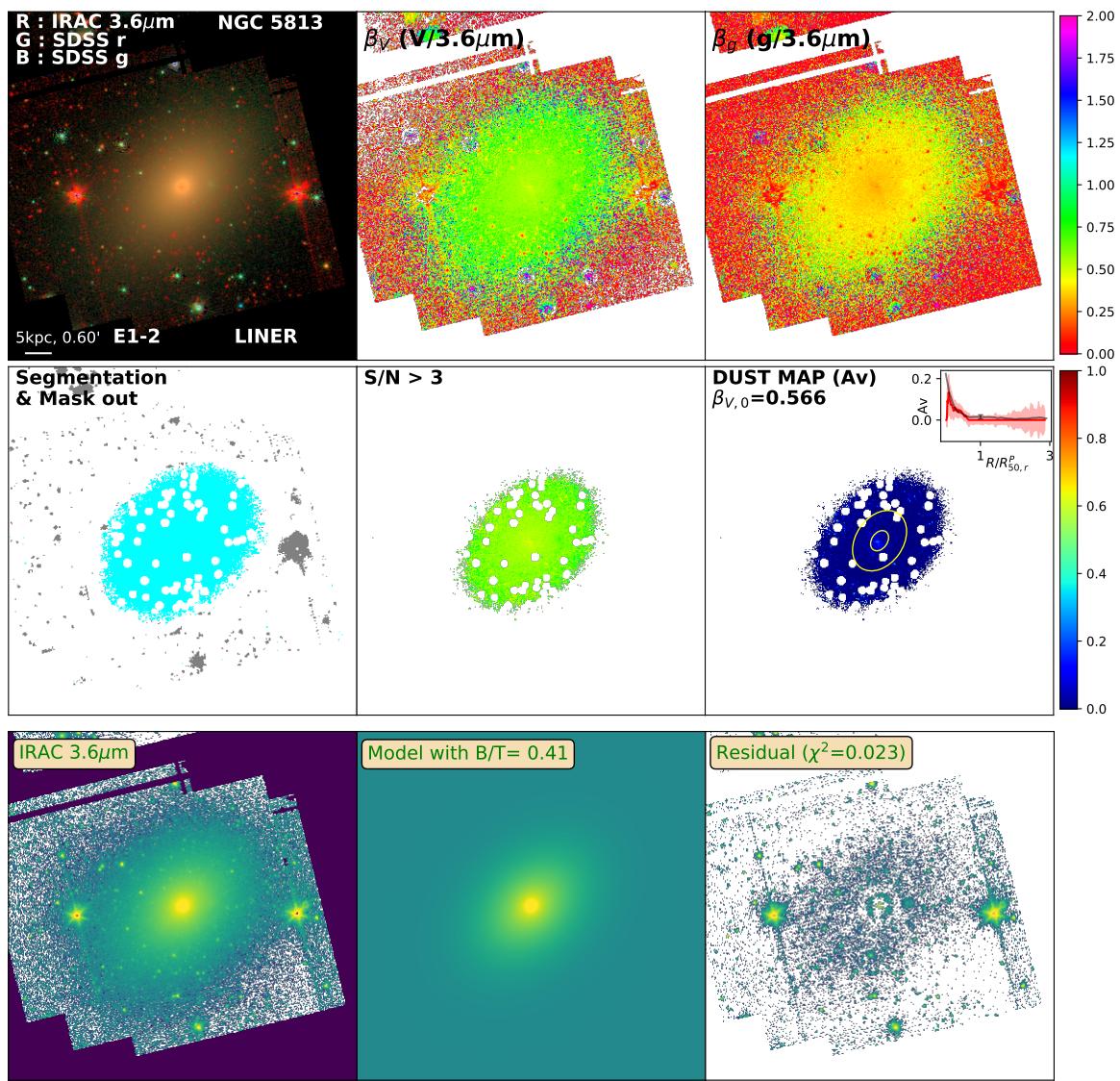


Figure D.219: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5813

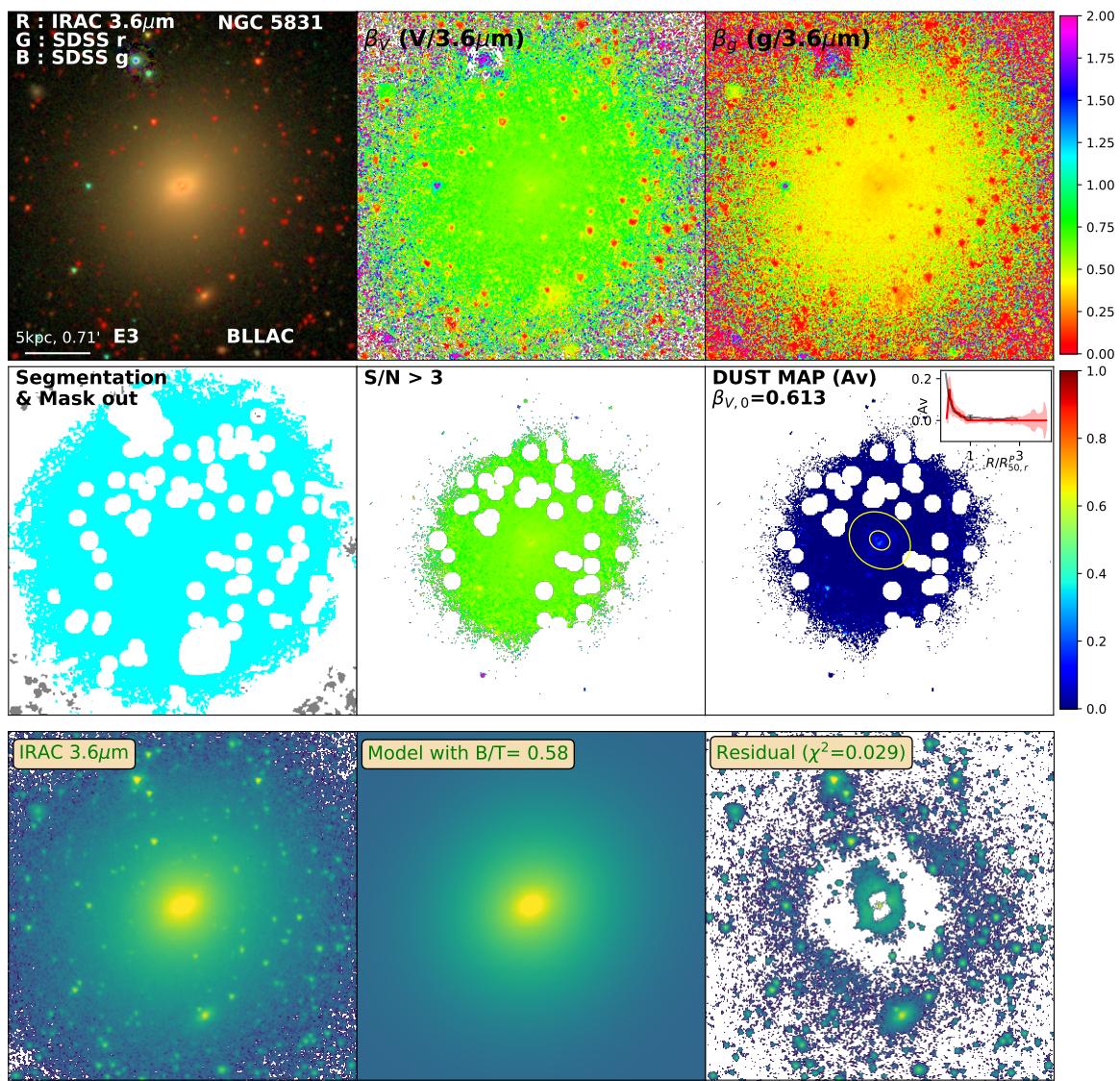


Figure D.220: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5831

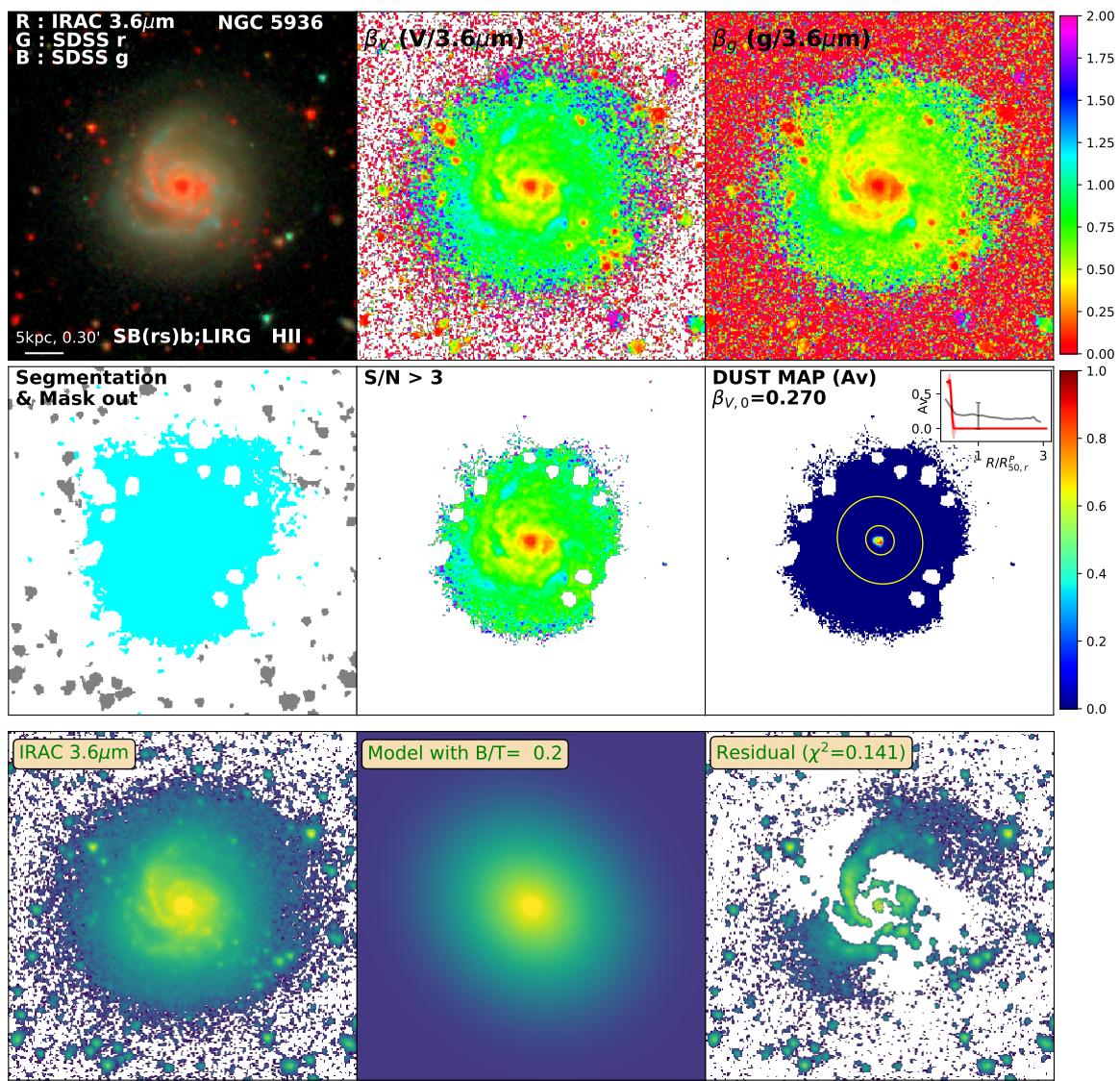


Figure D.221: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5936

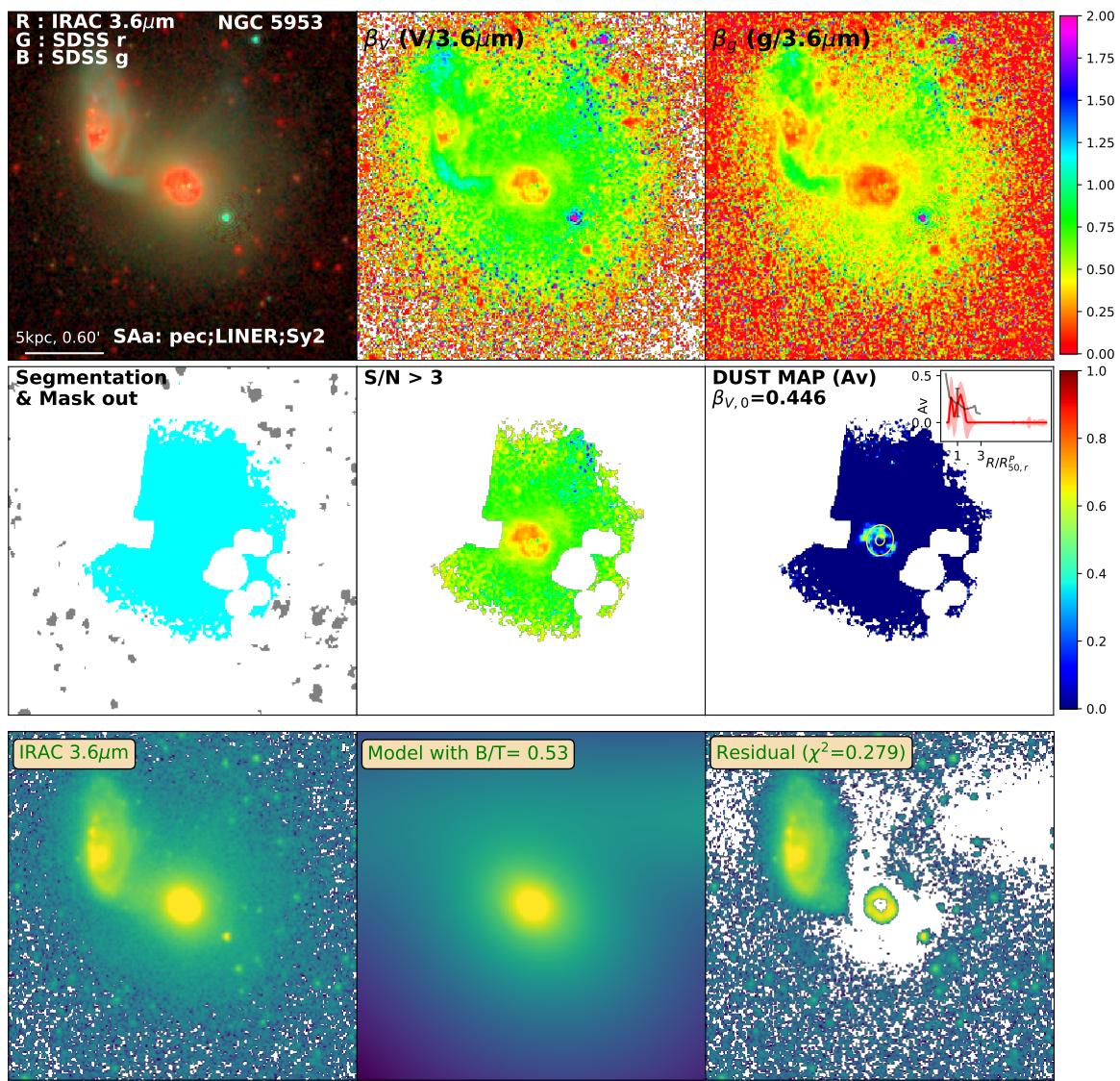


Figure D.222: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5953

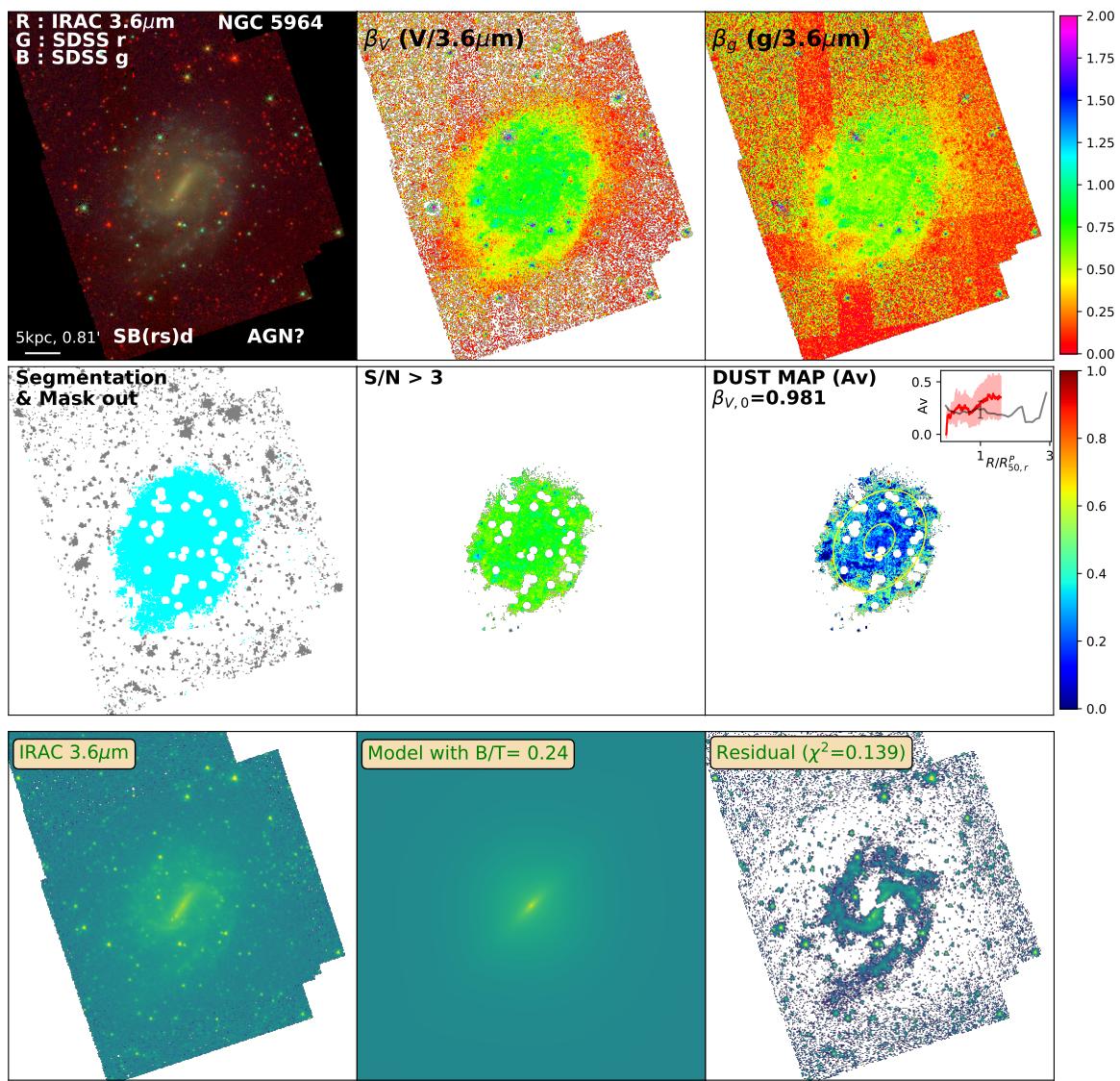


Figure D.223: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5964

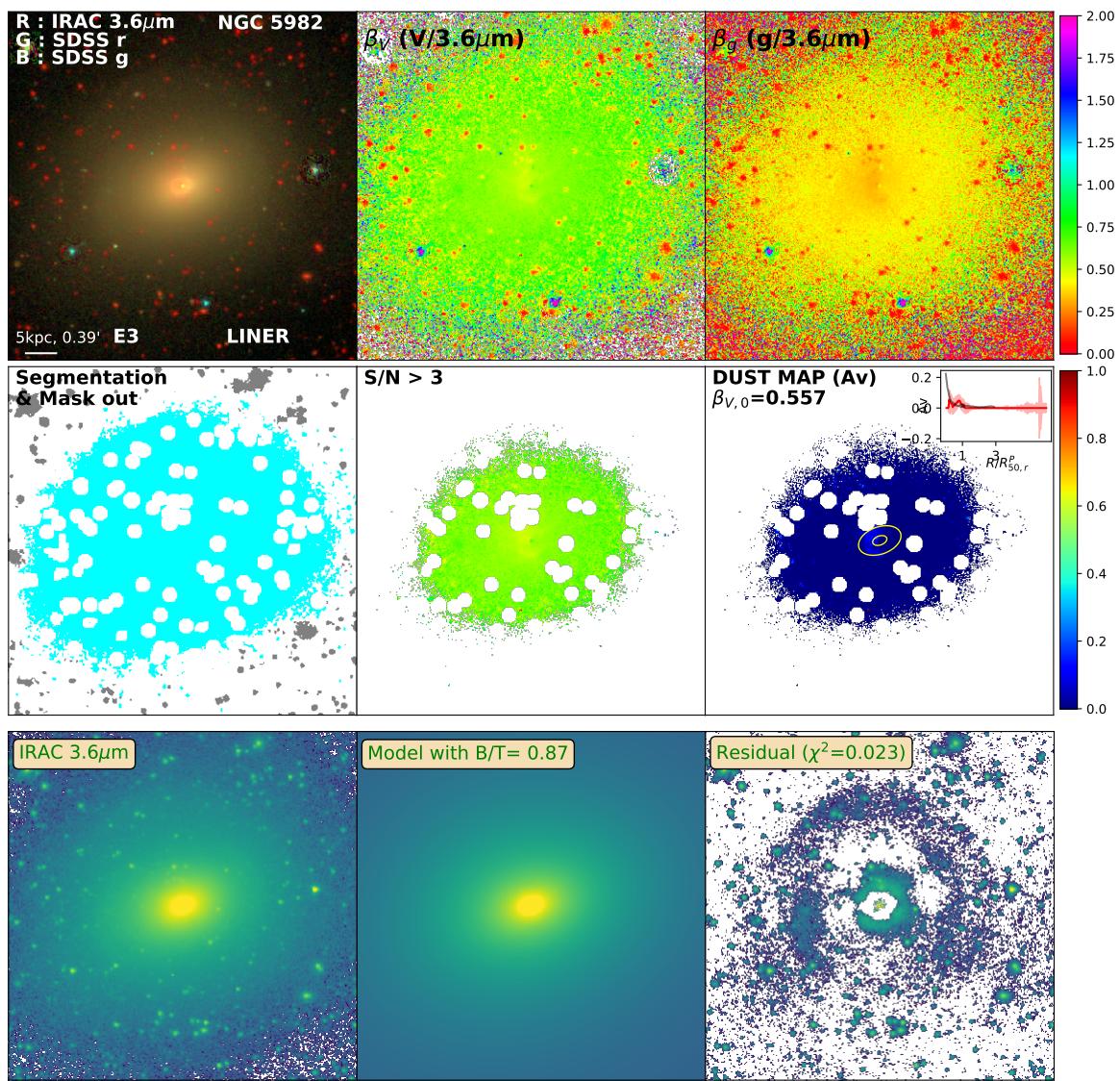


Figure D.224: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5982

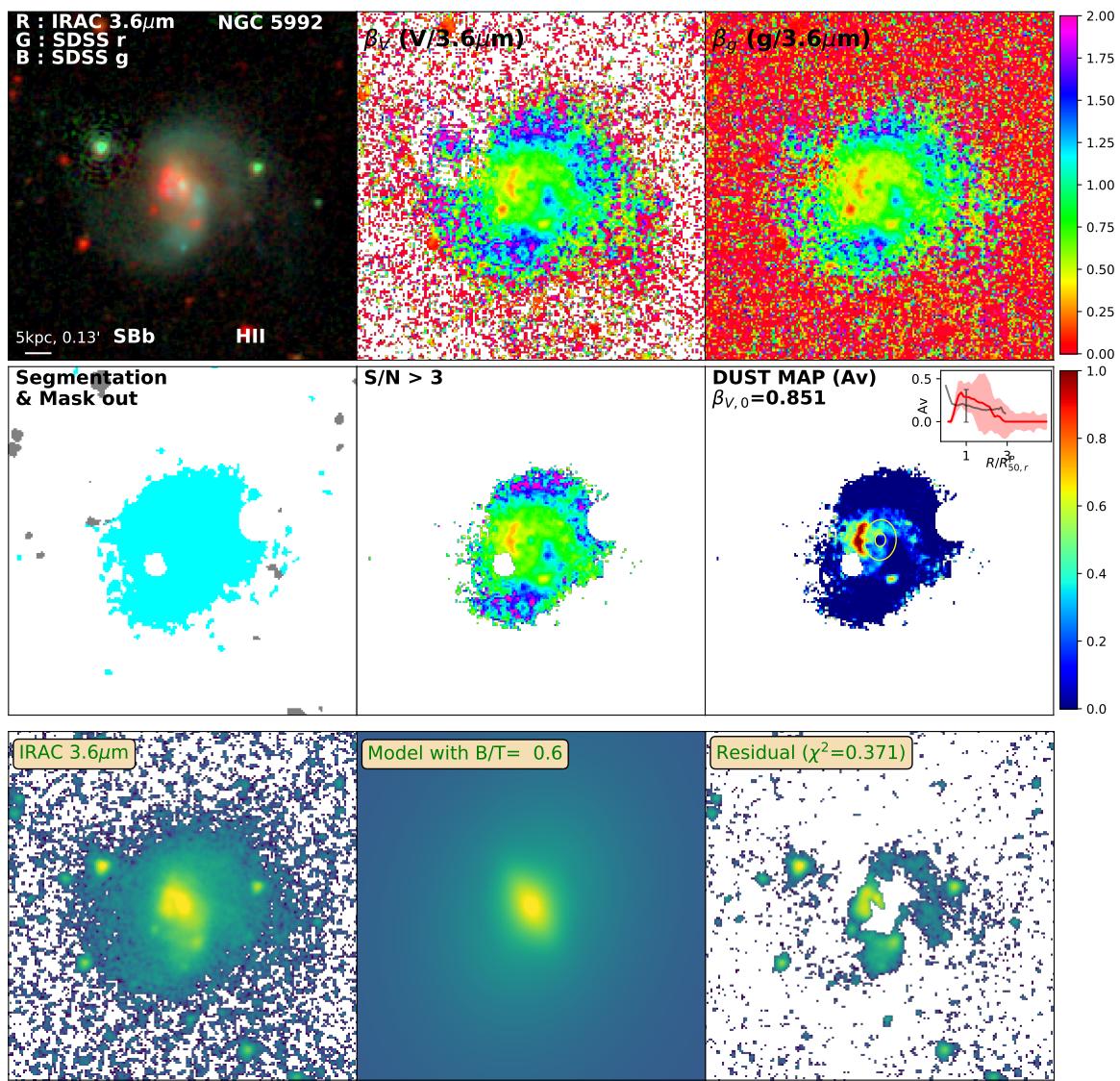


Figure D.225: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5992

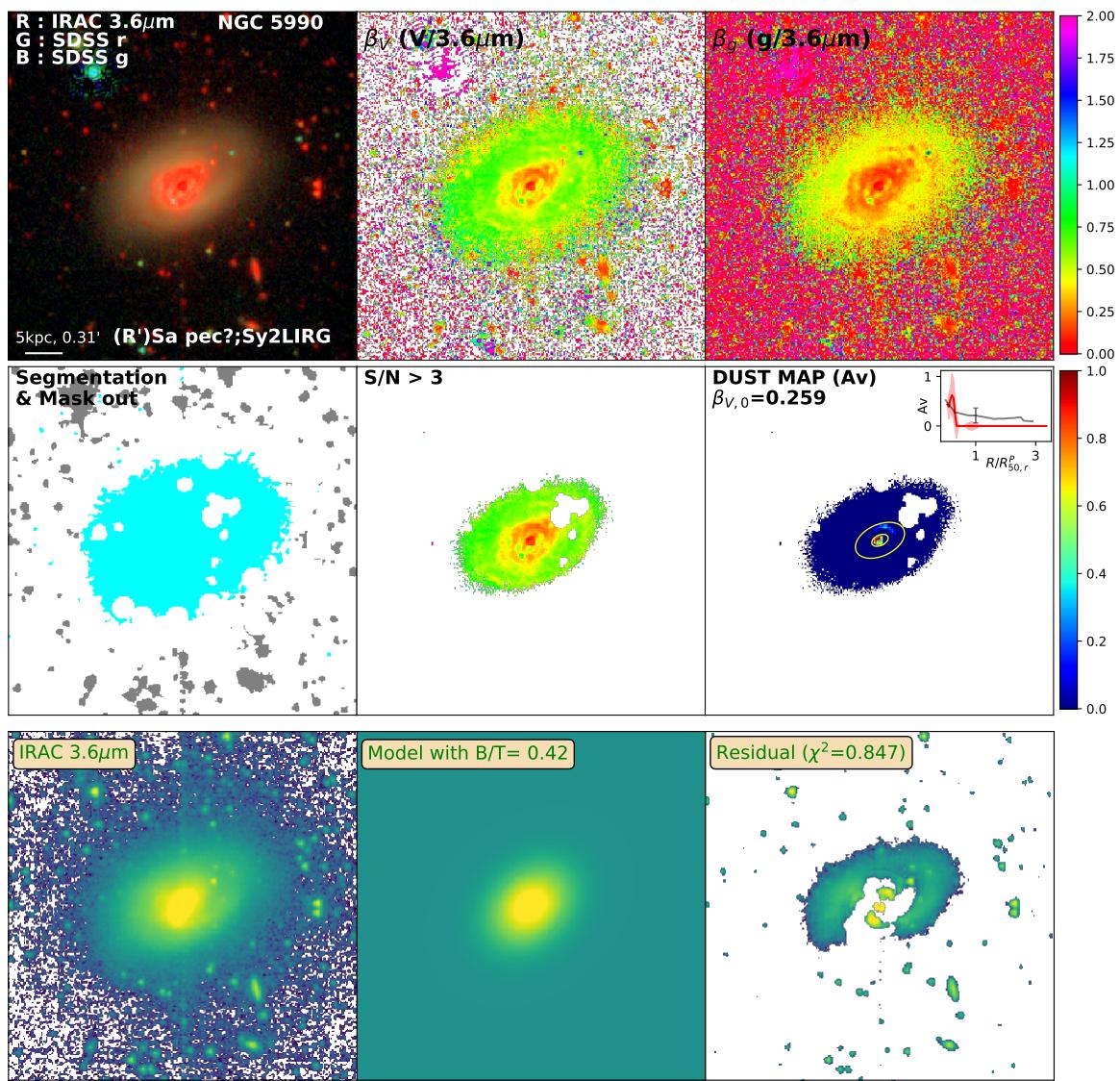


Figure D.226: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC5990

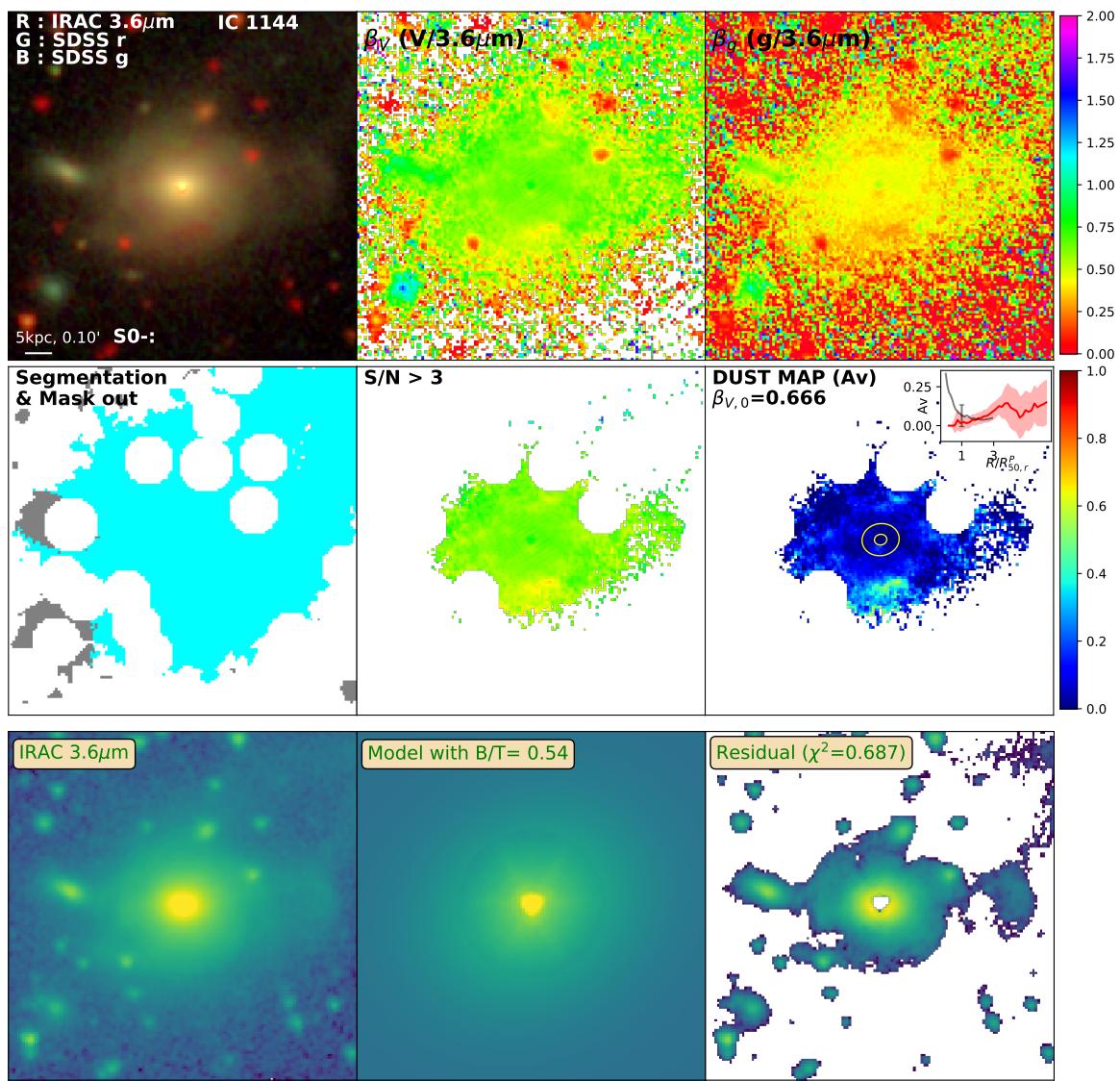


Figure D.227: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC1144

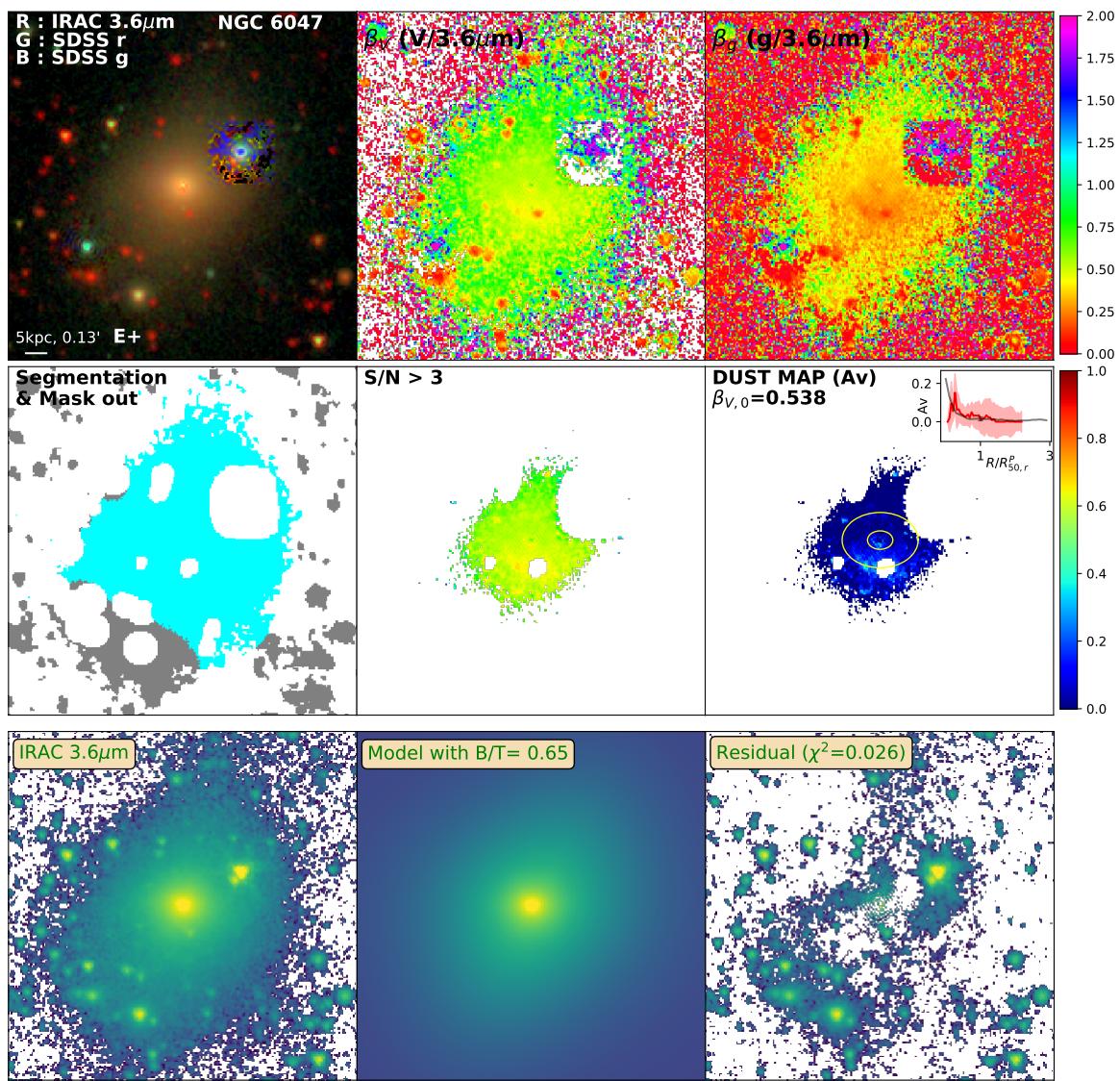


Figure D.228: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6047

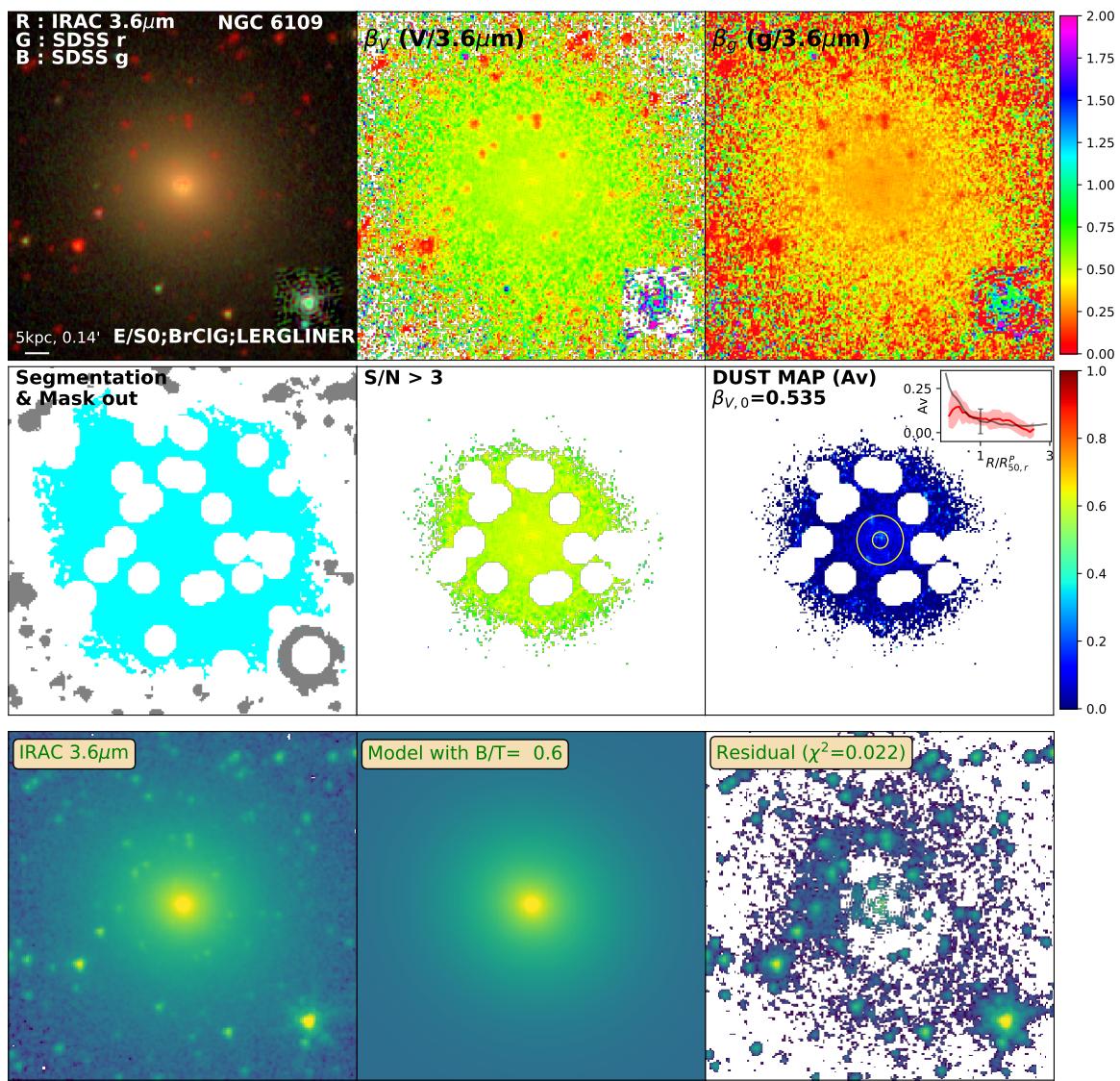


Figure D.229: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6109

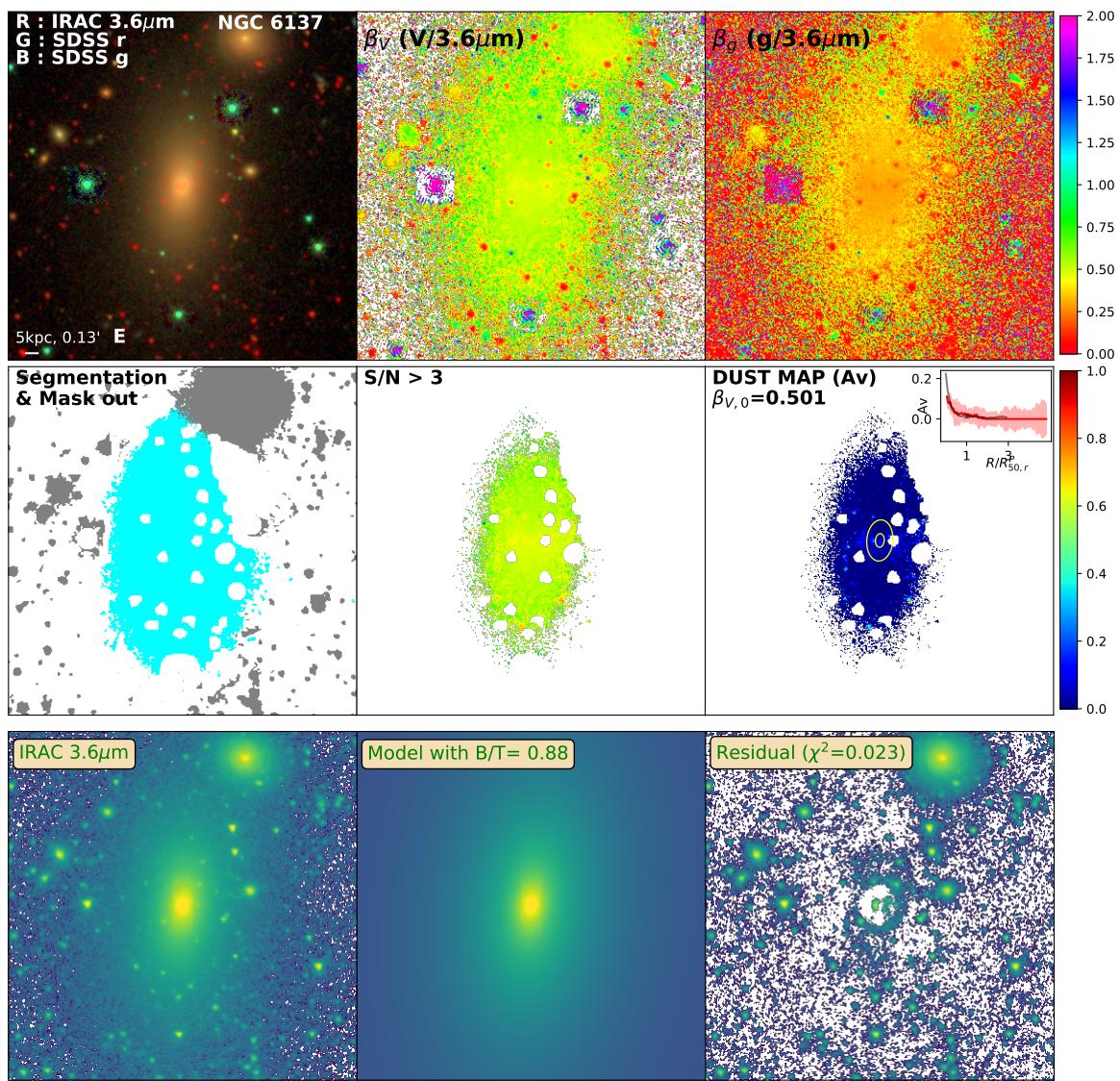


Figure D.230: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6137

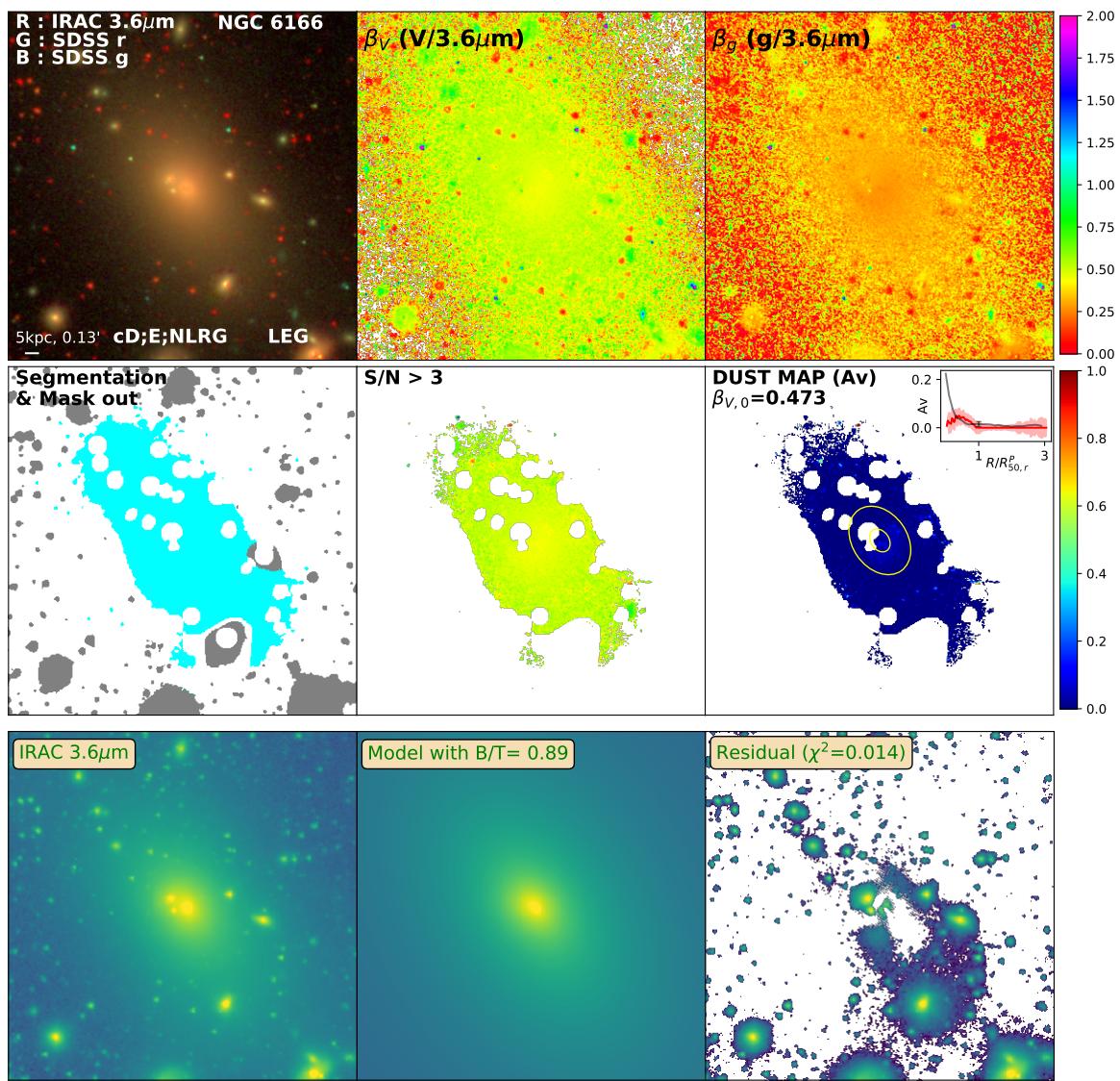


Figure D.231: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6166

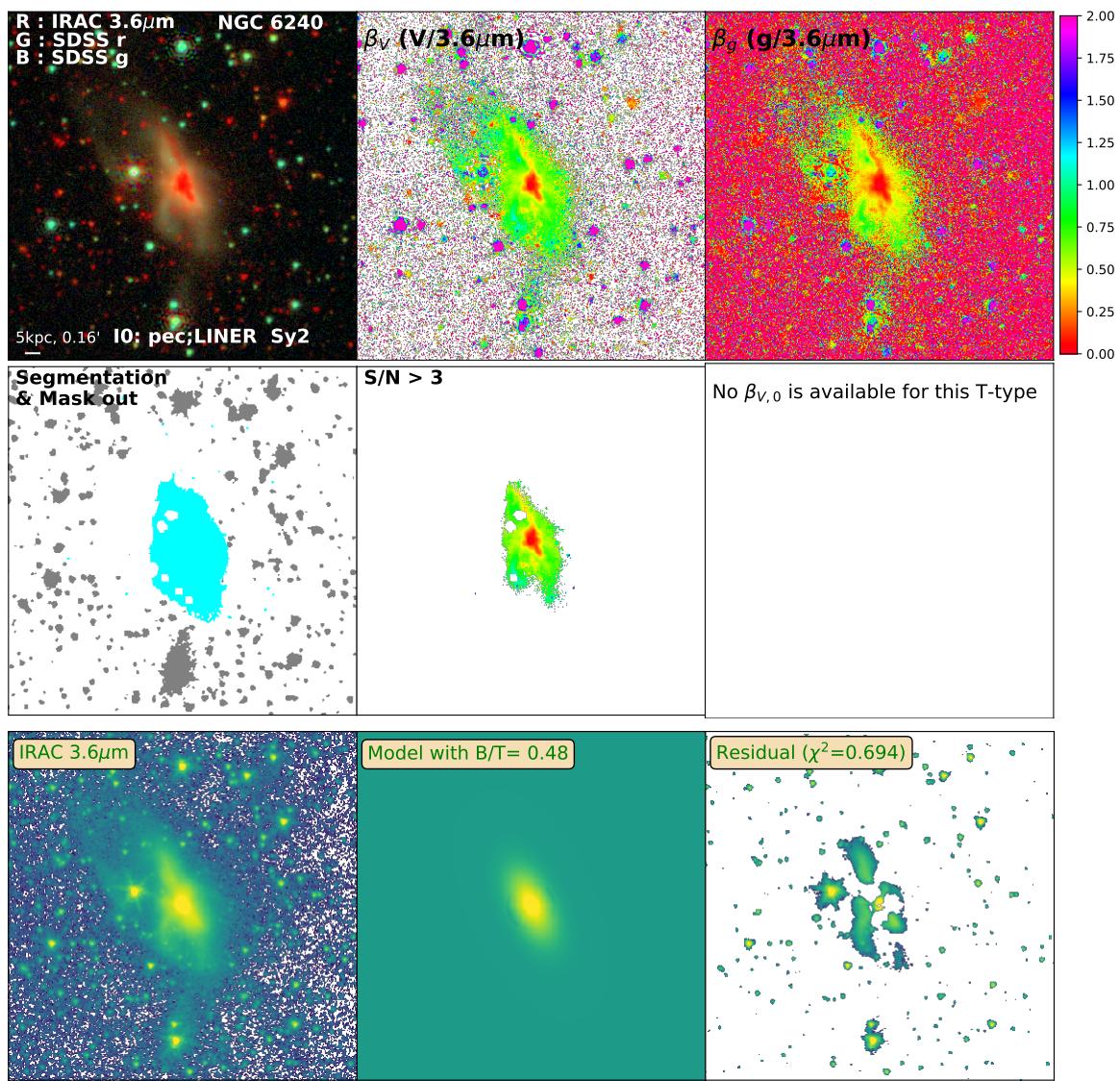


Figure D.232: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6240

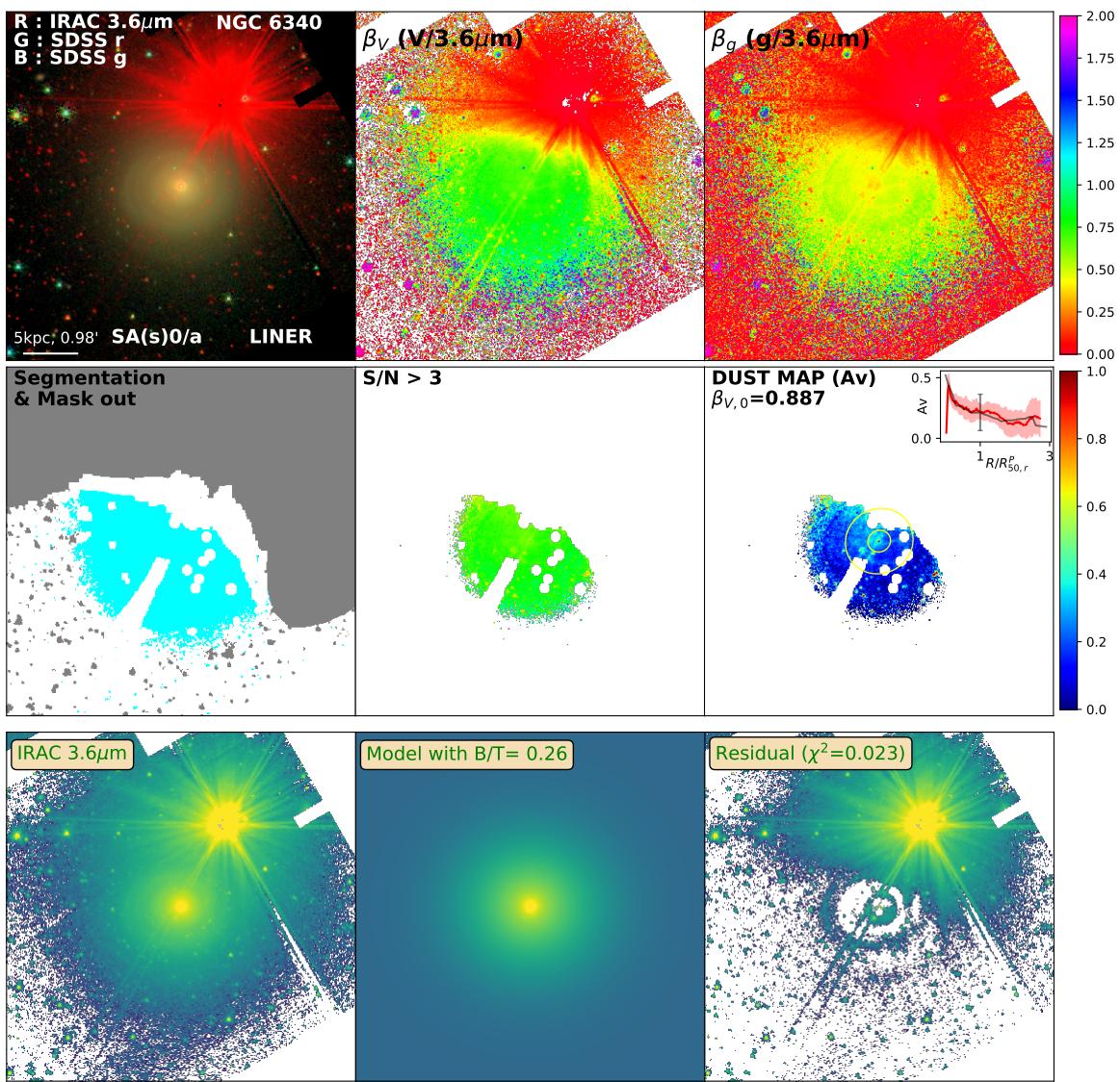


Figure D.233: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6340

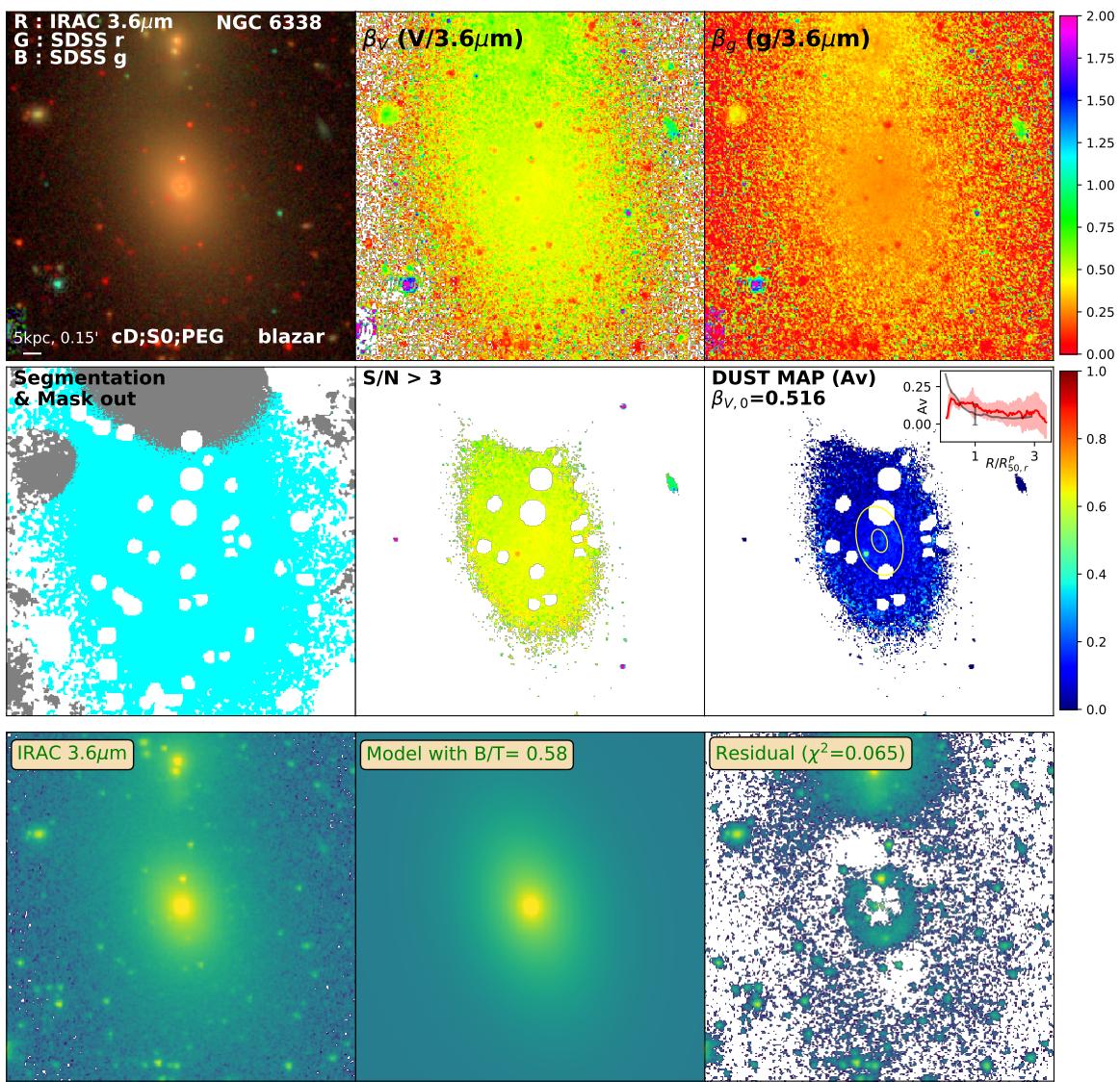


Figure D.234: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6338

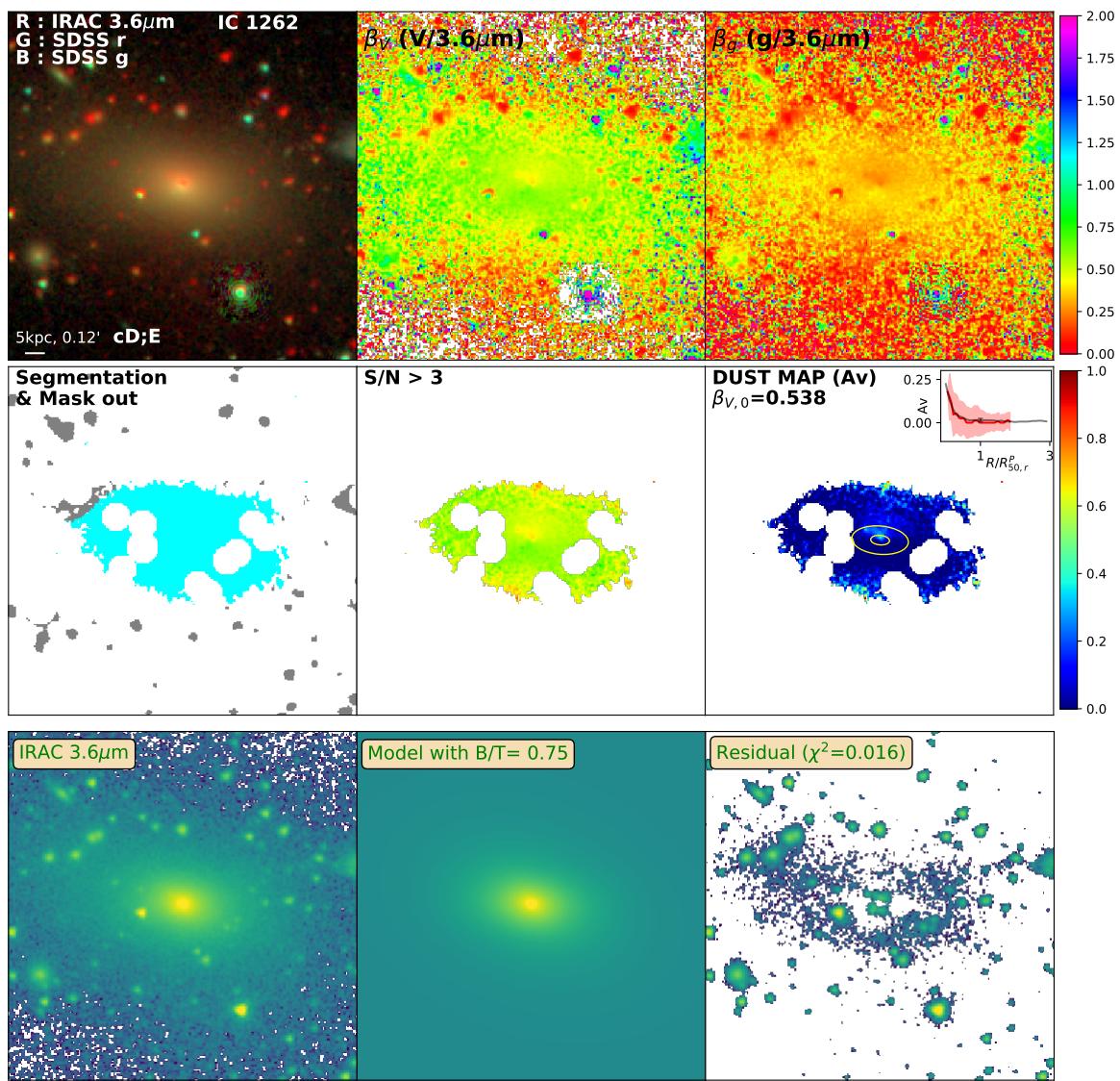


Figure D.235: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC1262

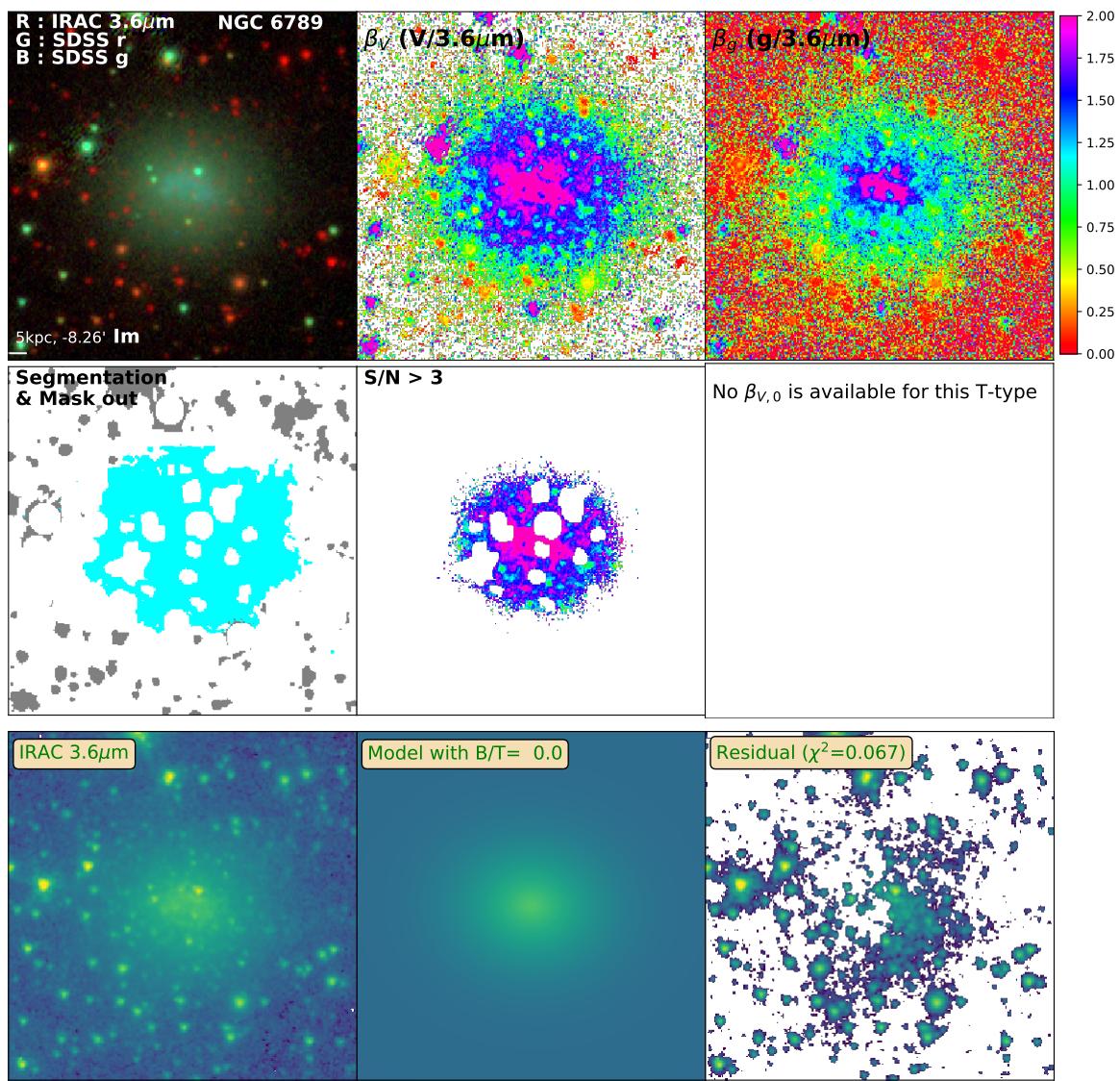


Figure D.236: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC6789

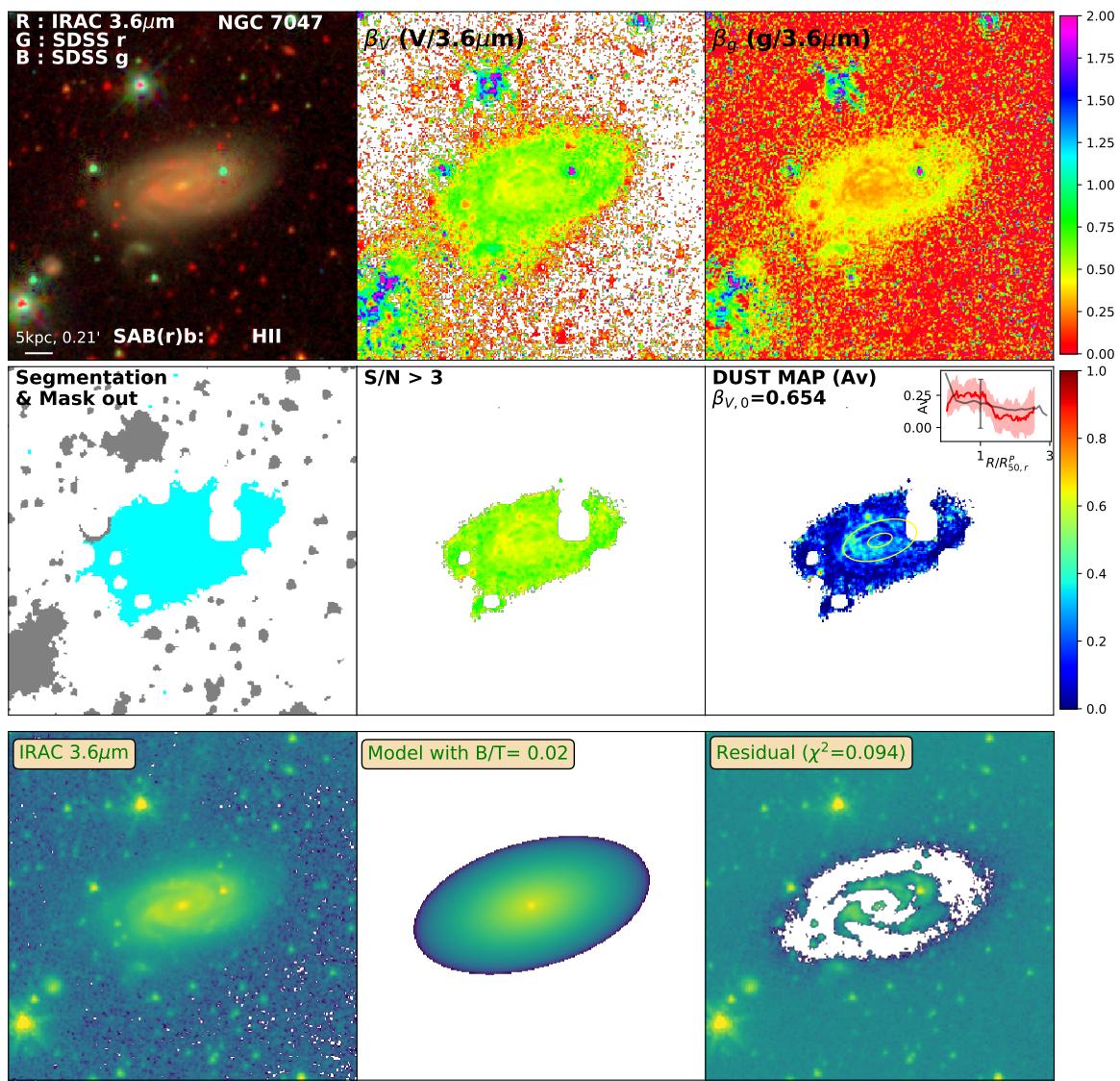


Figure D.237: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7047

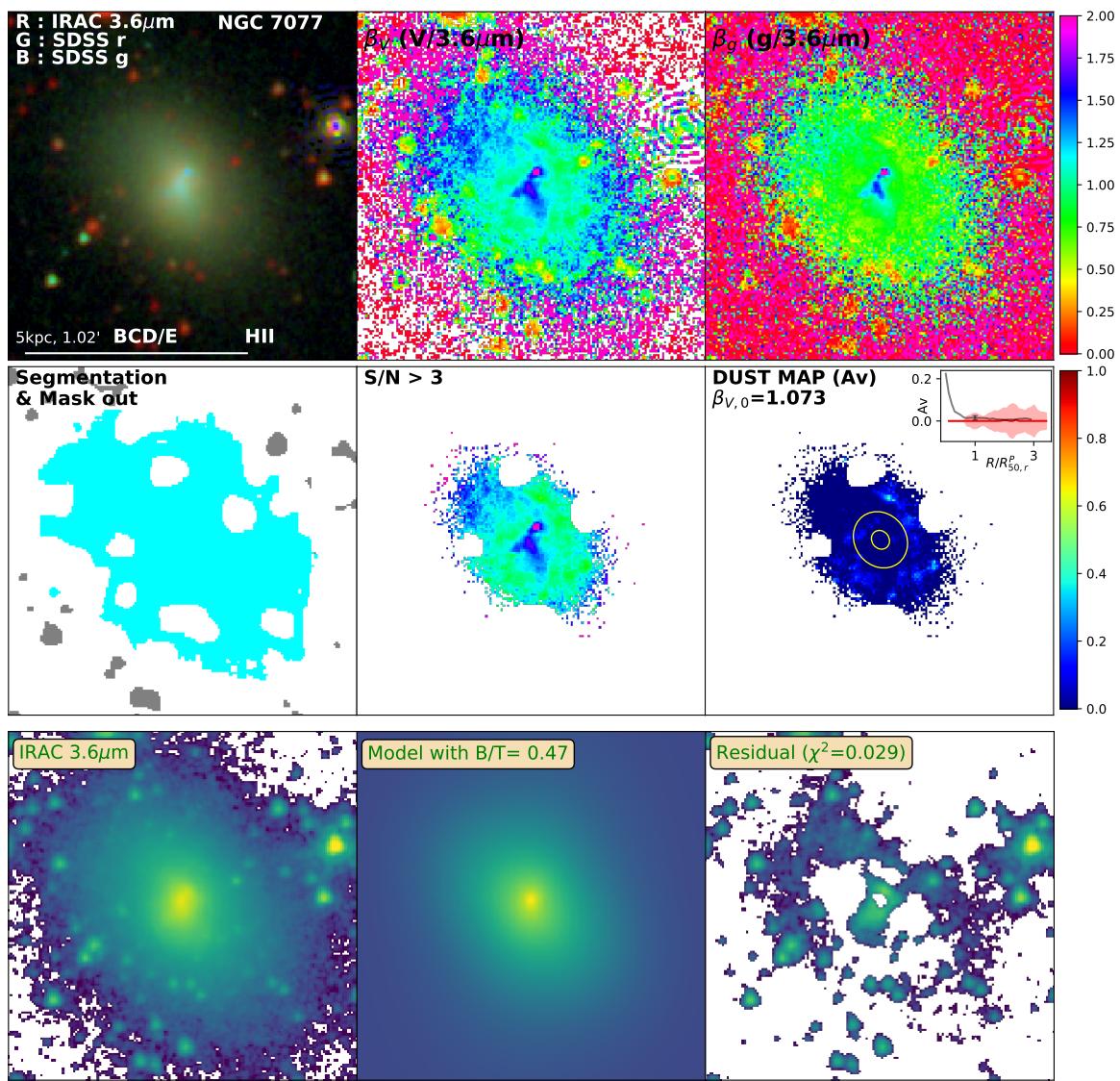


Figure D.238: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7077

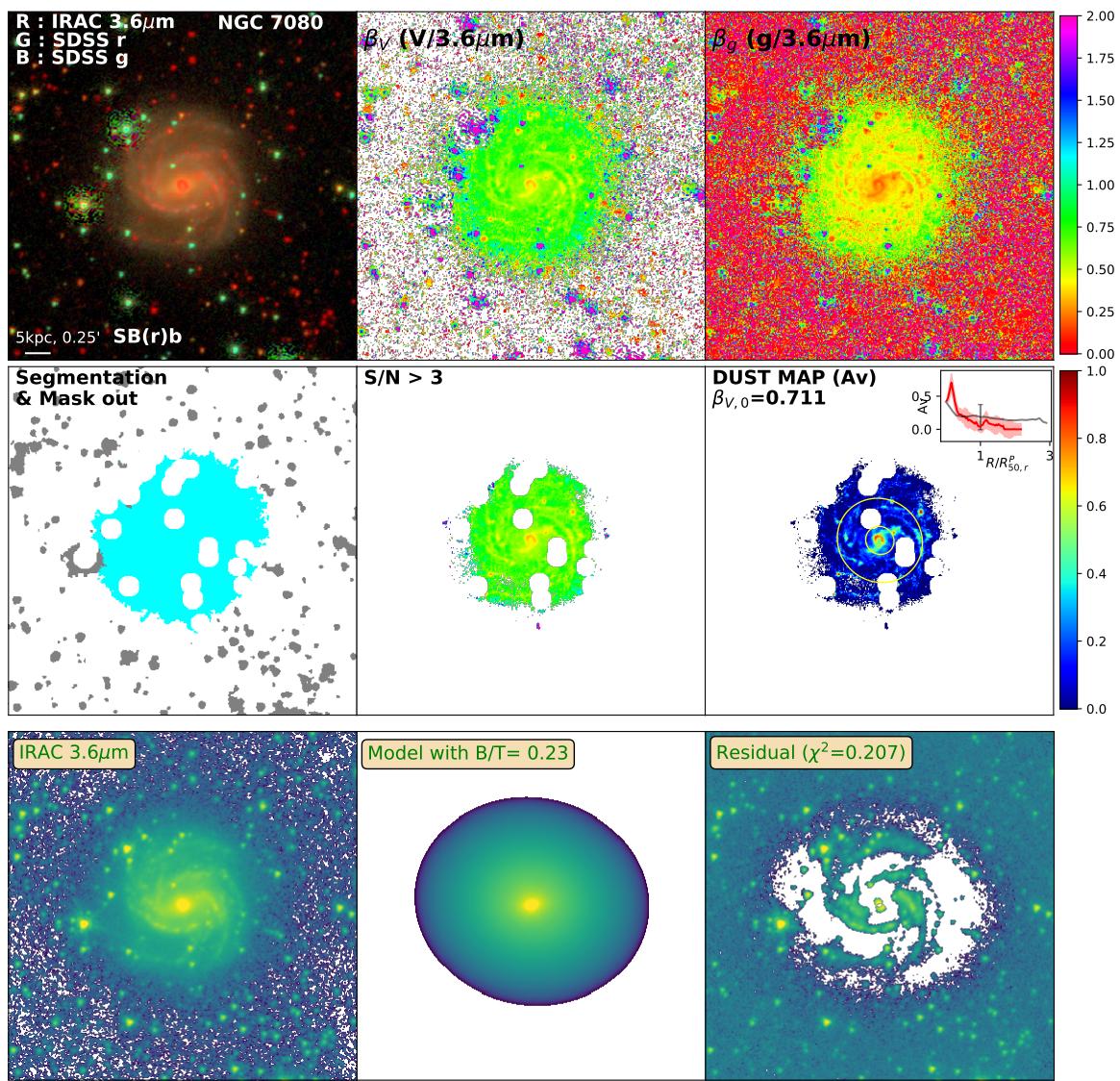


Figure D.239: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7080

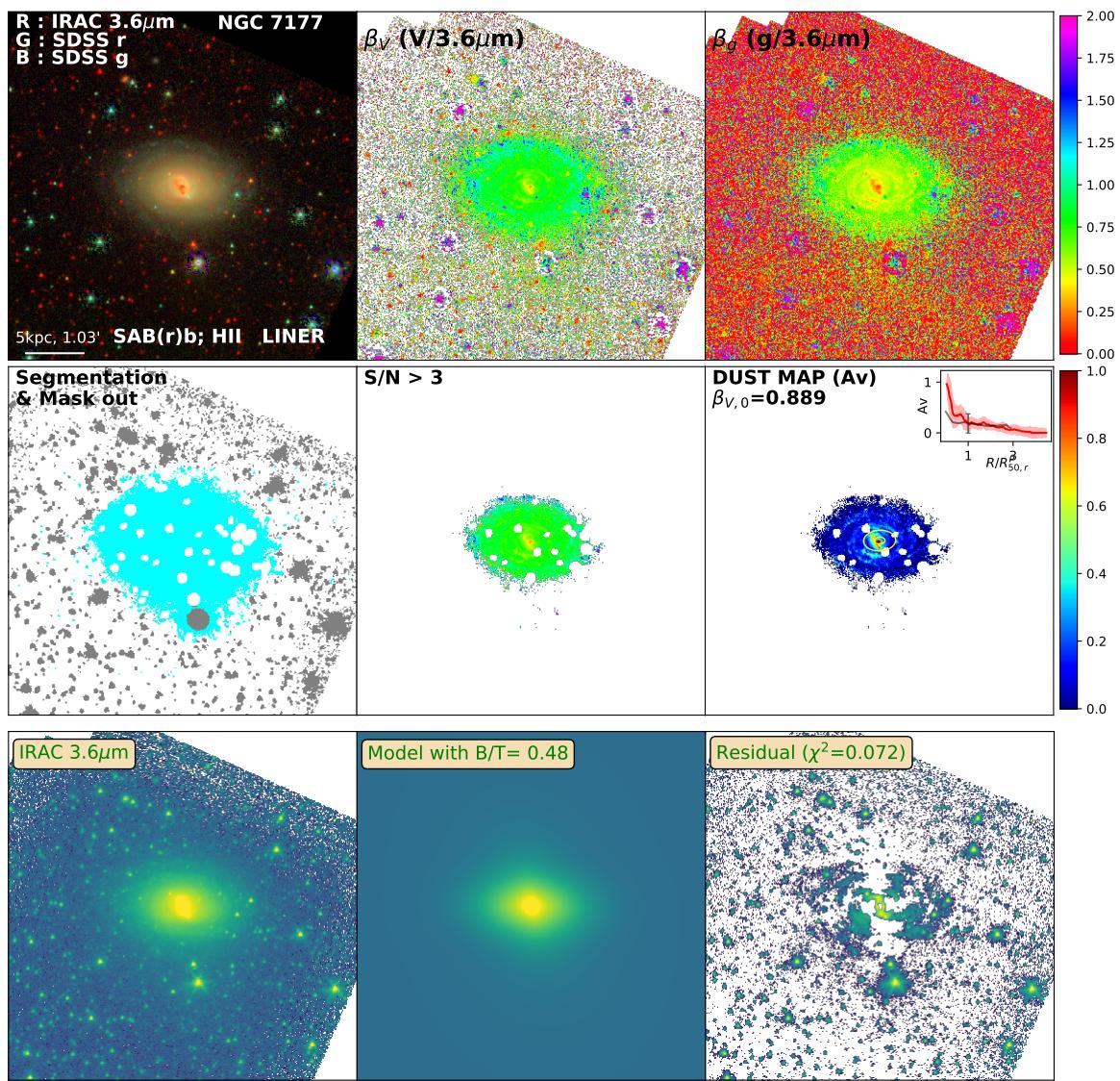


Figure D.240: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7177

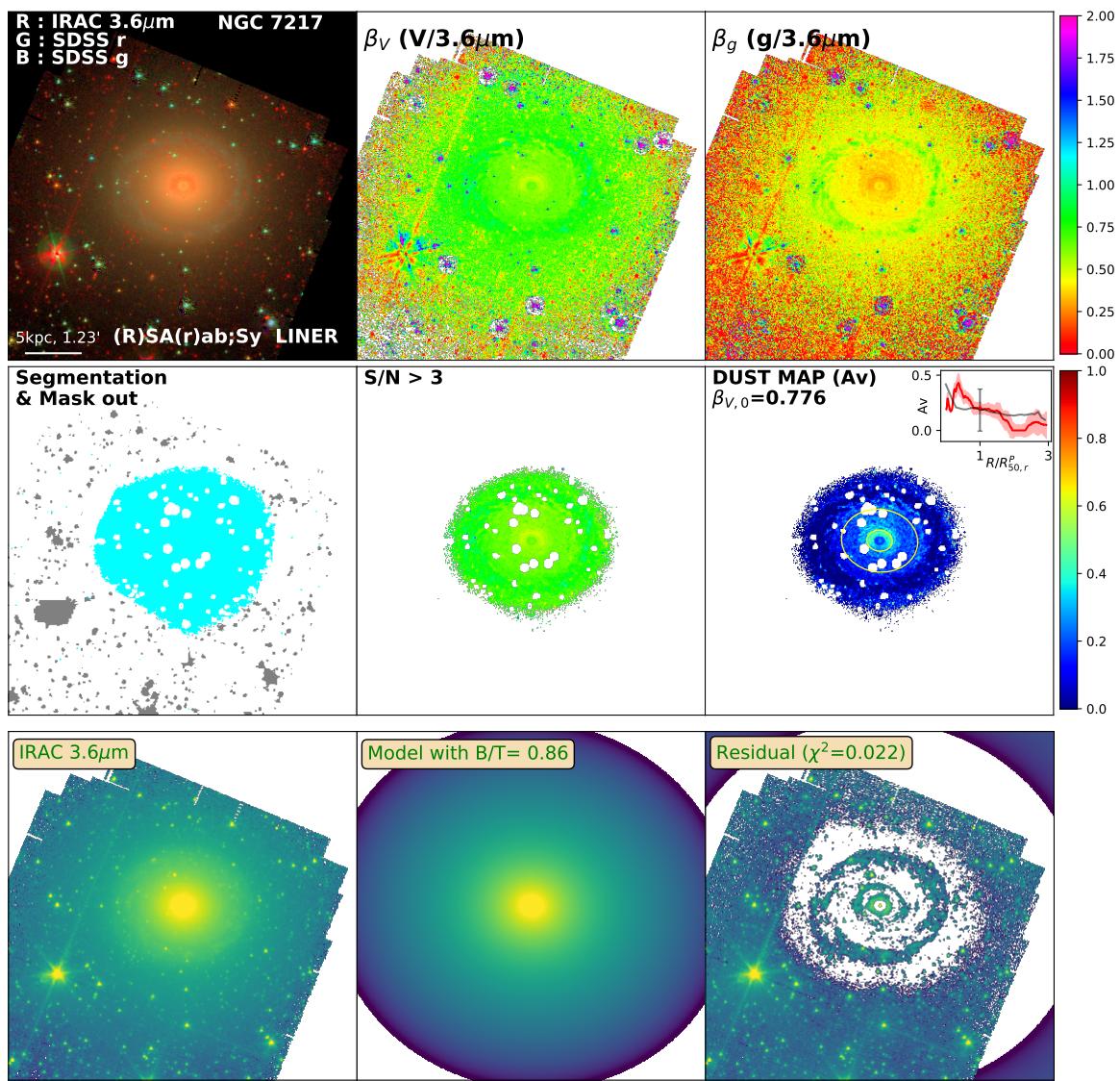


Figure D.241: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7217

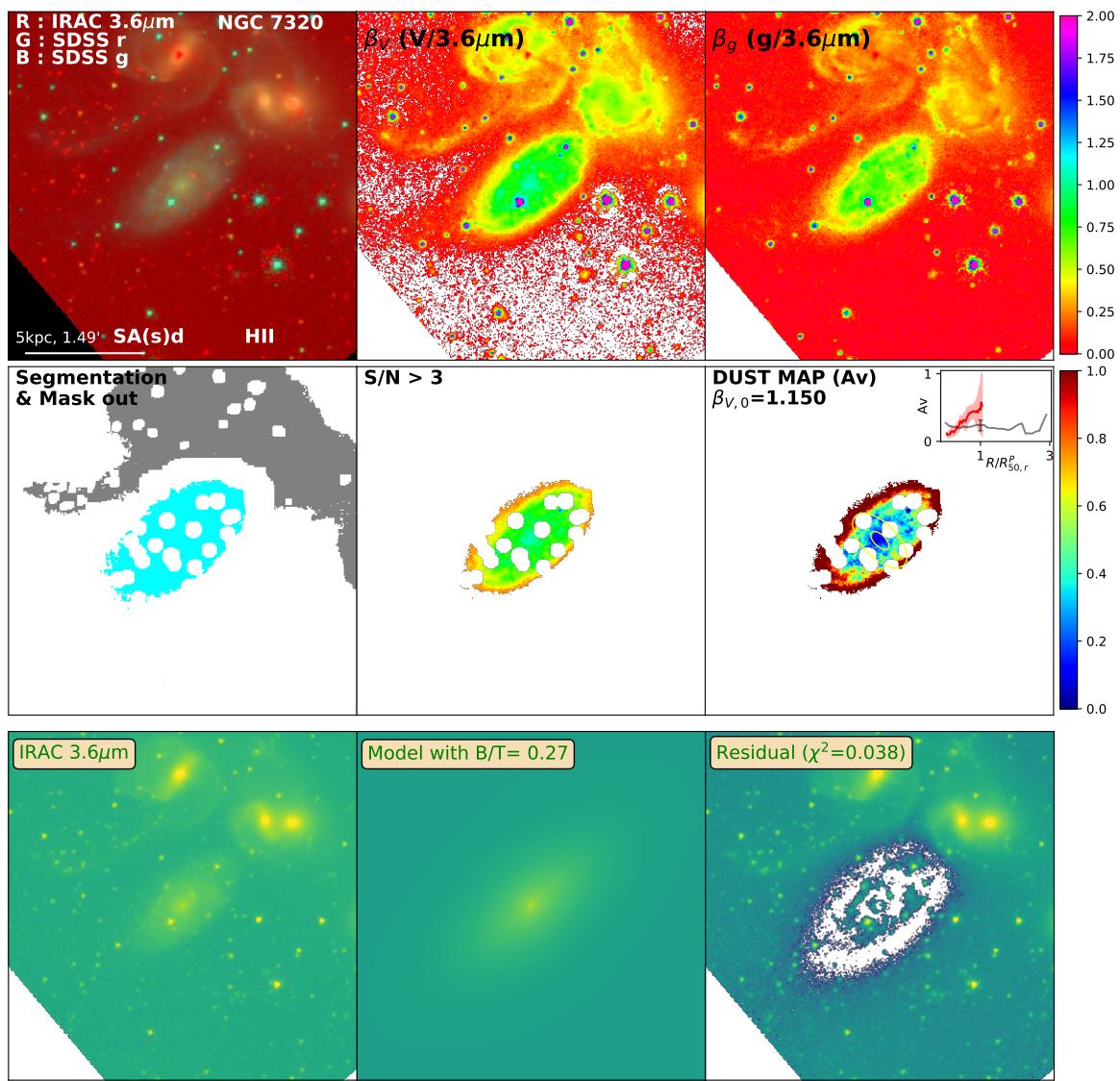


Figure D.242: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7320

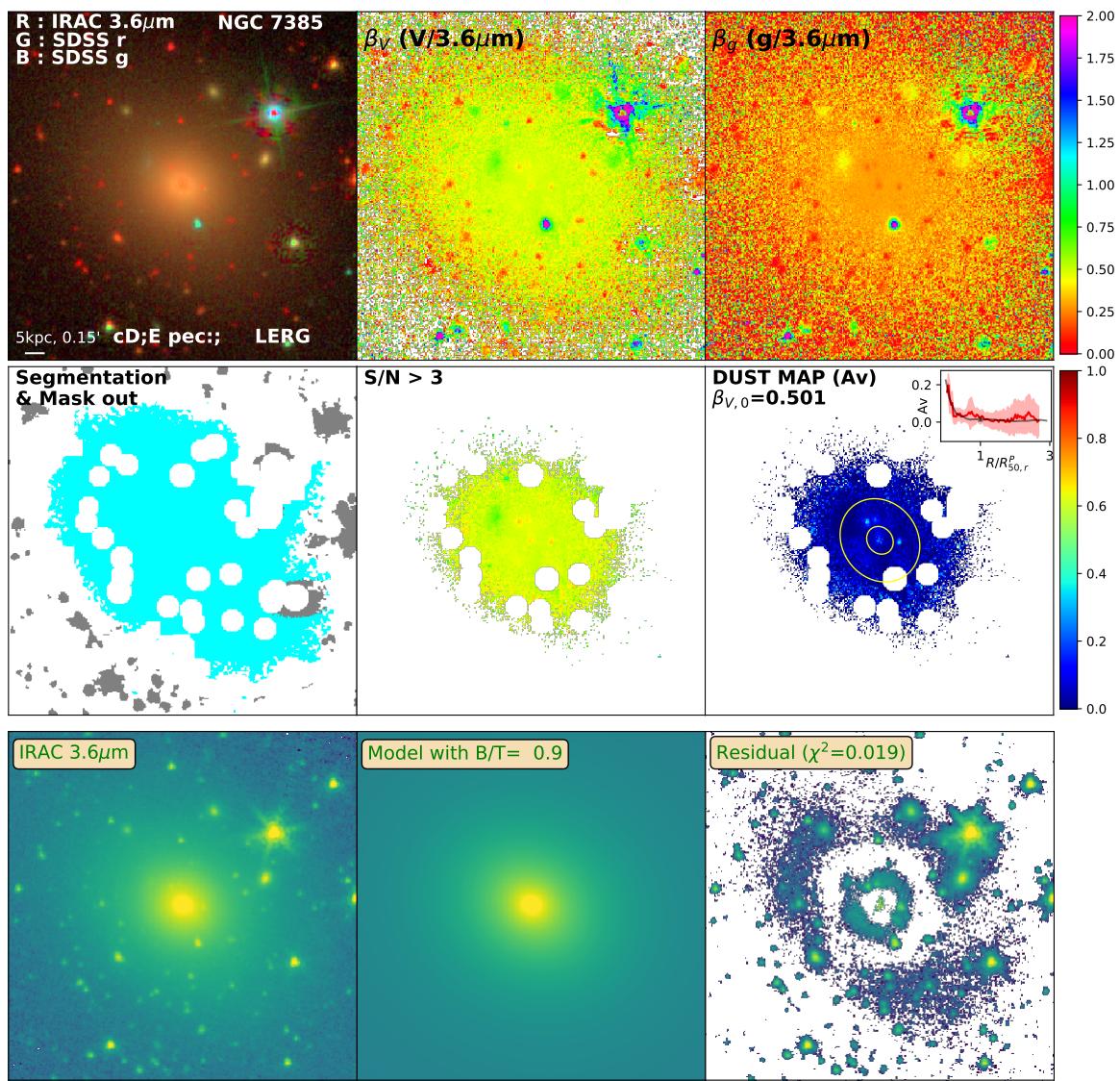


Figure D.243: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7385

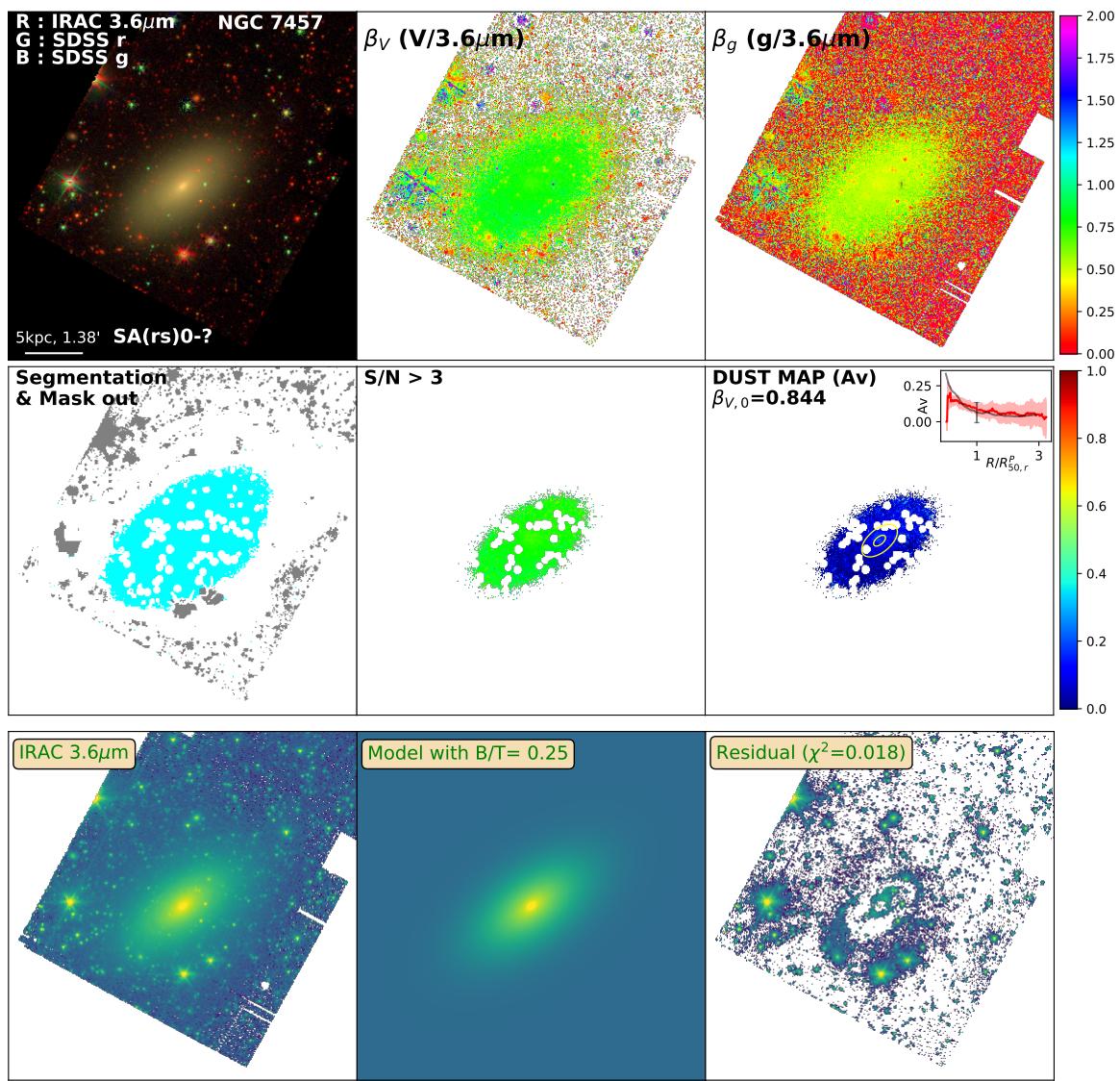


Figure D.244: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7457

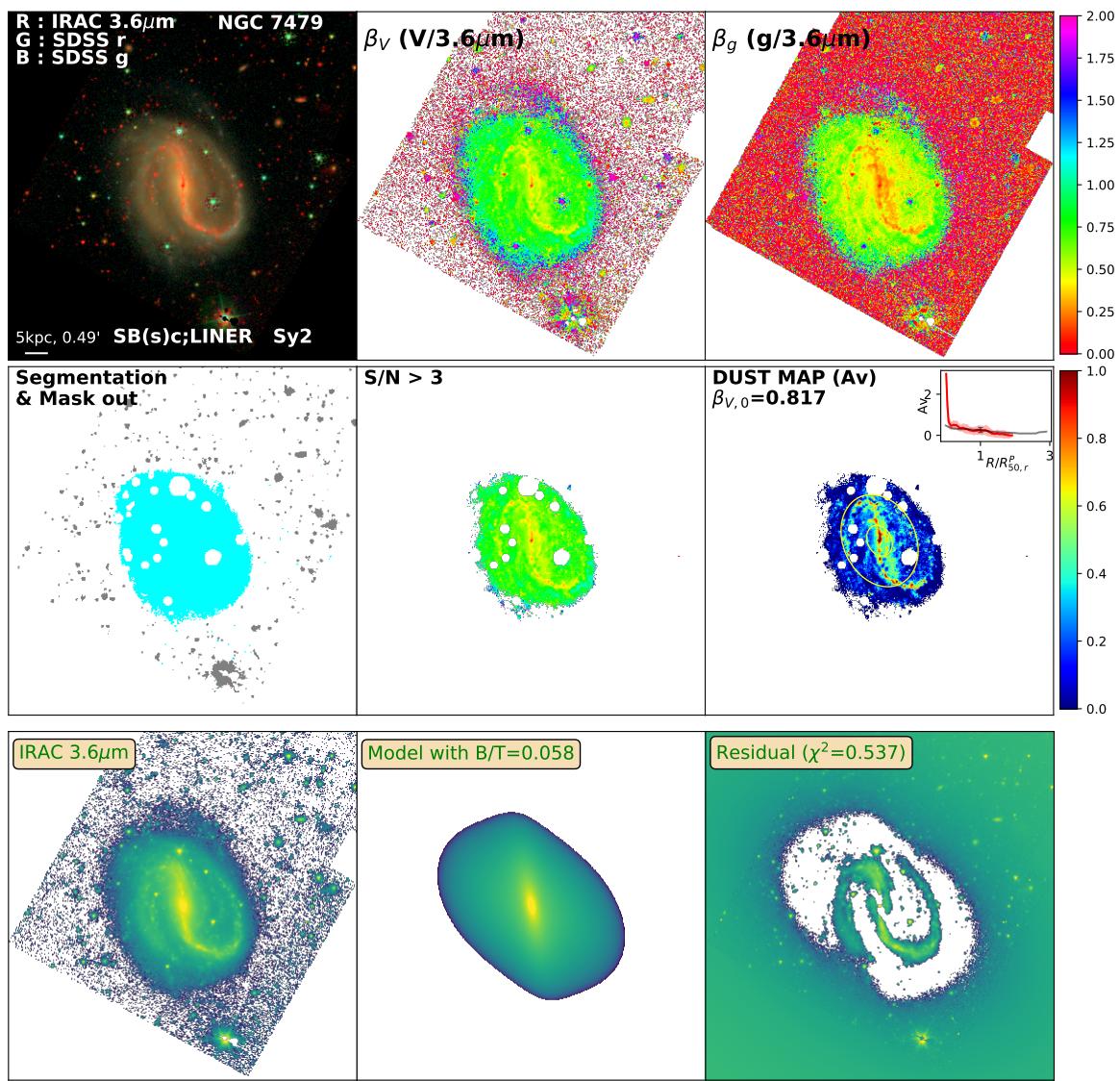


Figure D.245: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7479

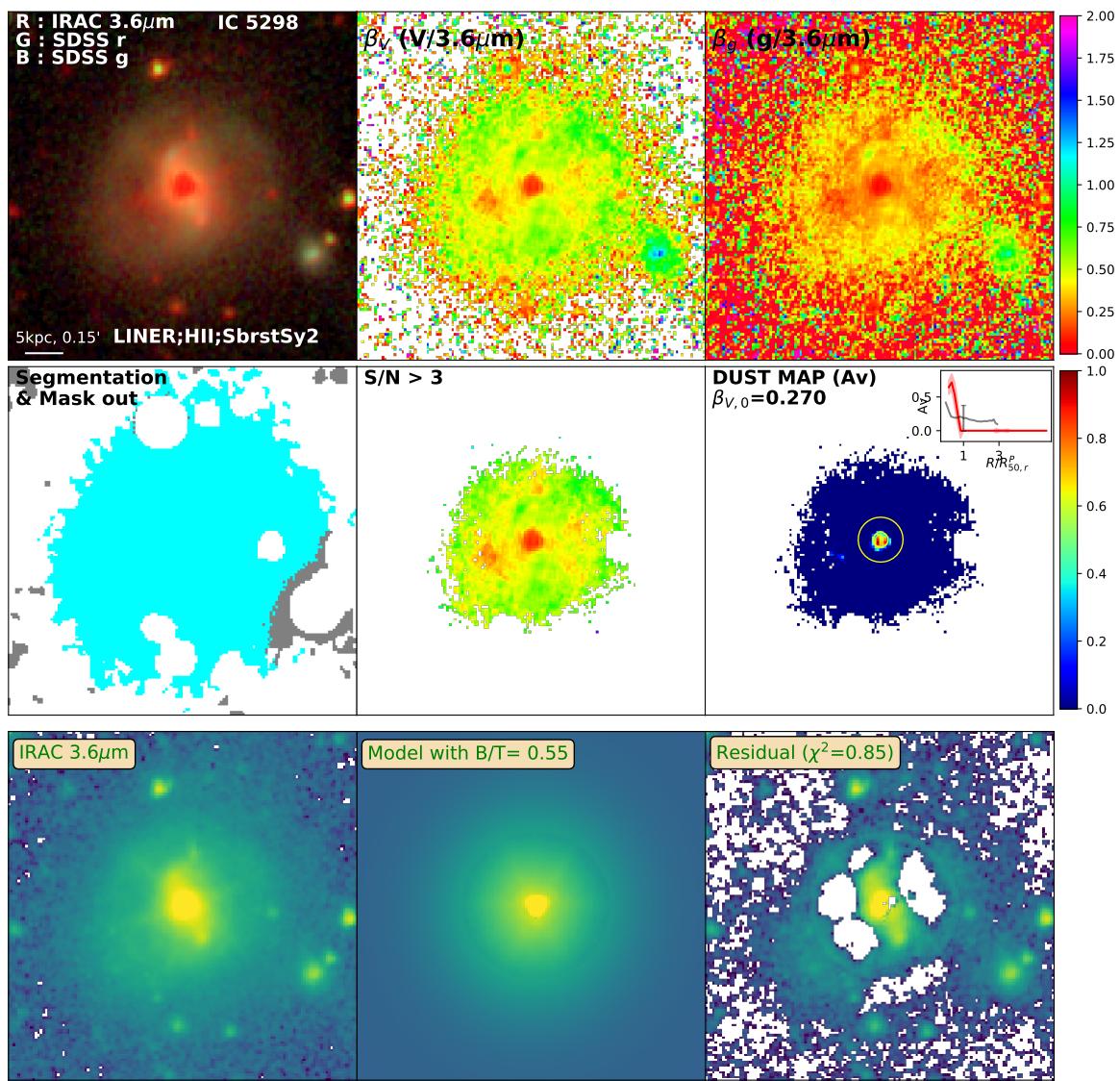


Figure D.246: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC5298

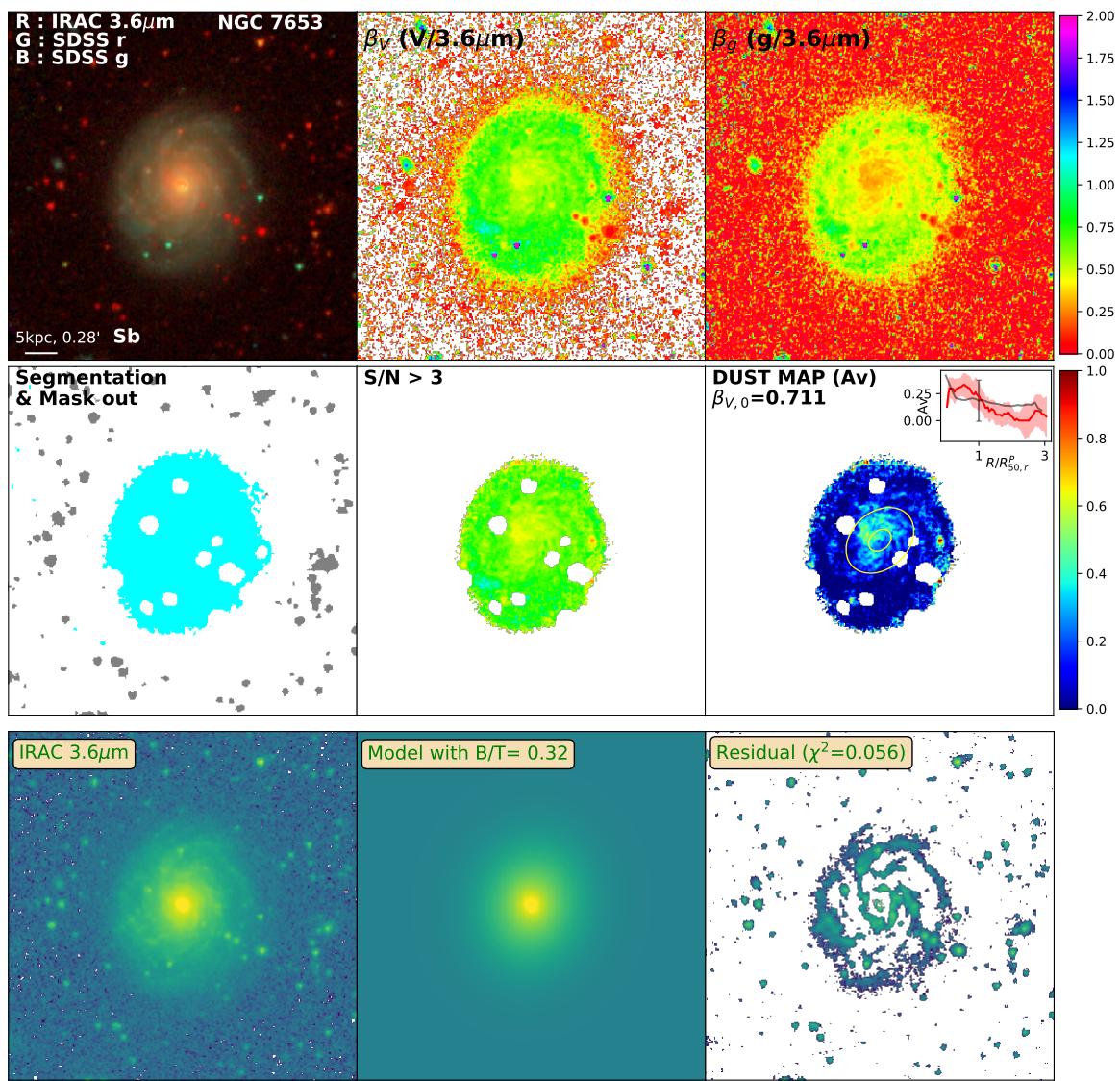


Figure D.247: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7653

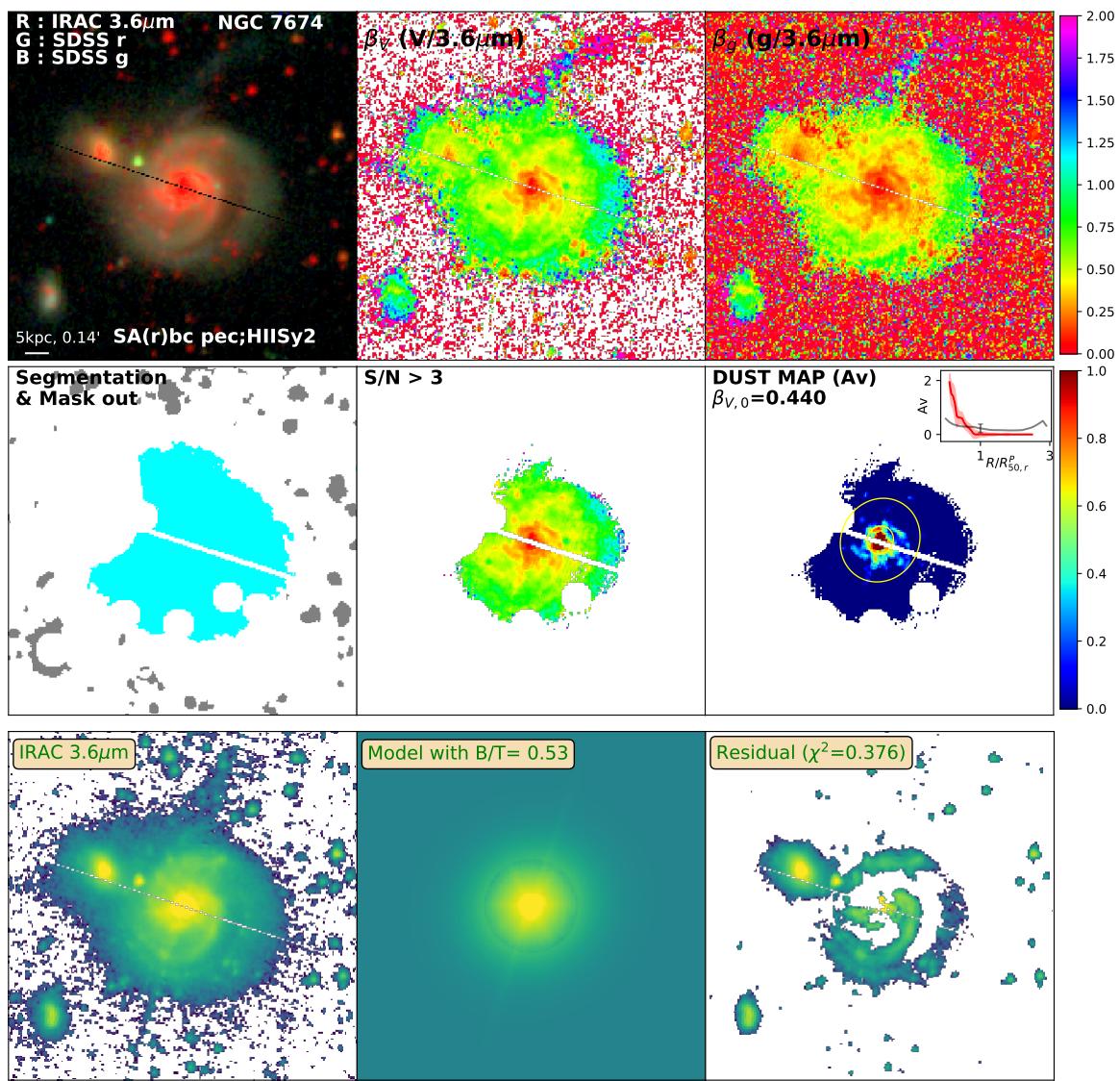


Figure D.248: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7674

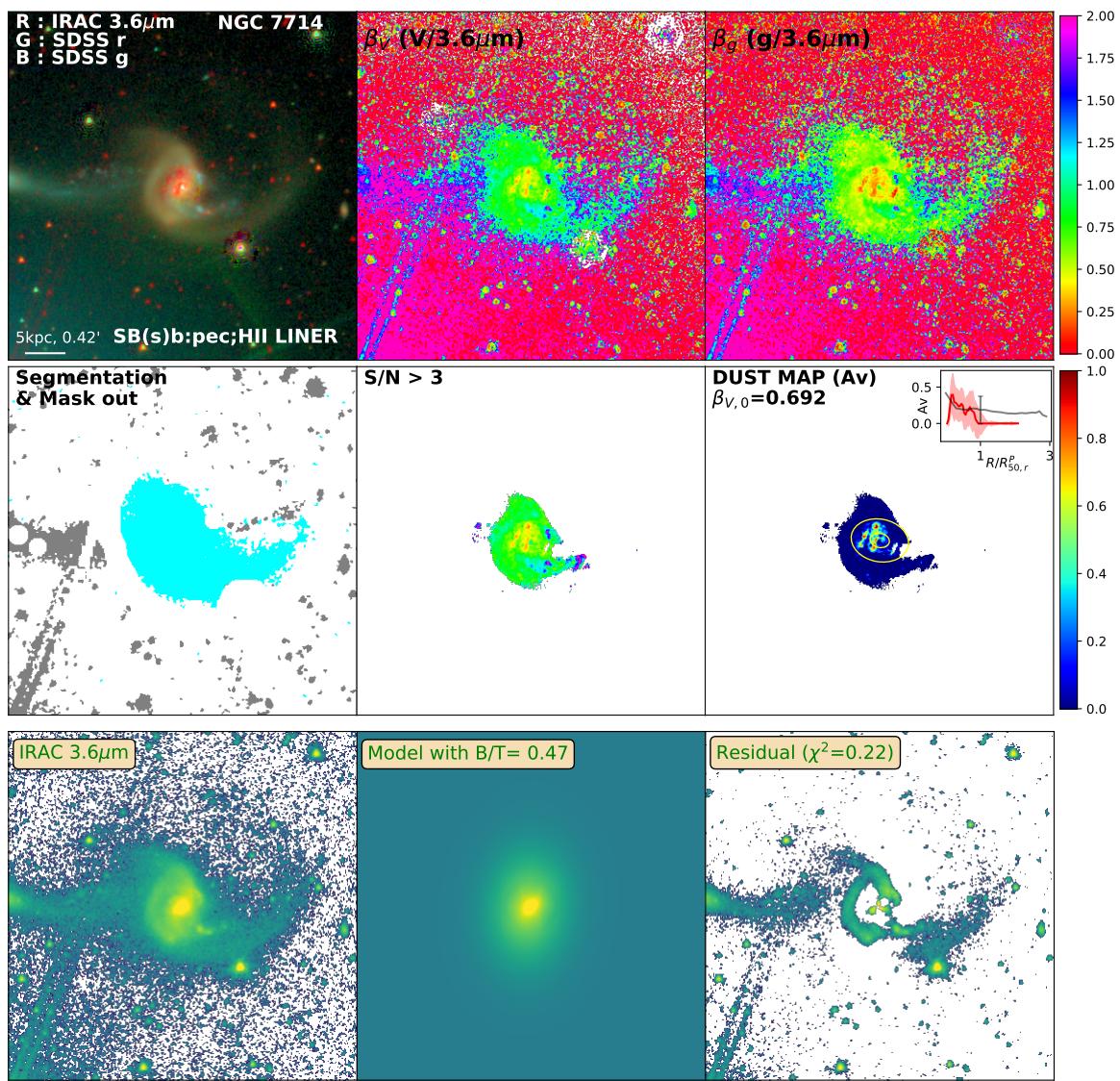


Figure D.249: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7714

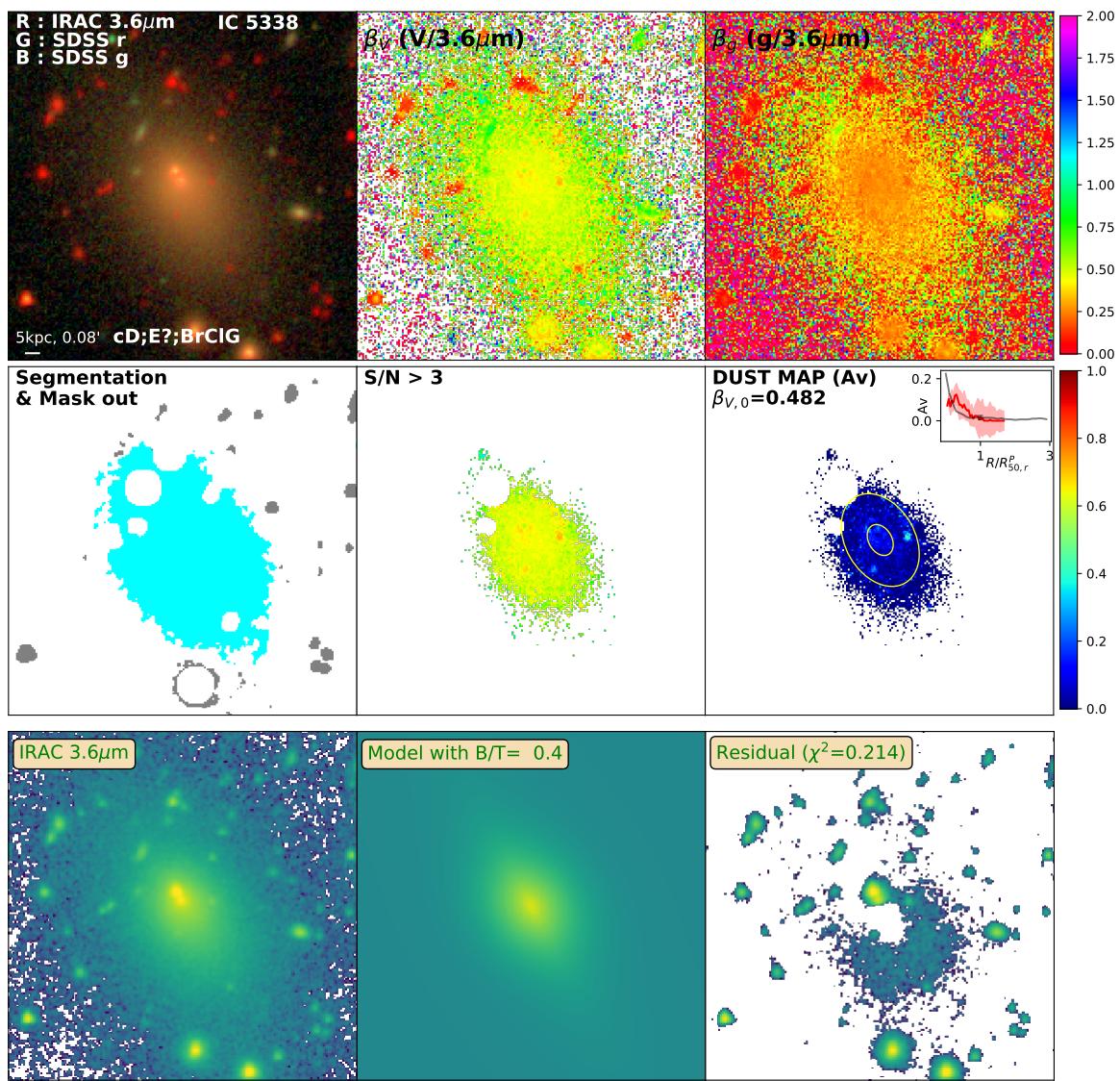


Figure D.250: Same as Figure 3.2 for IC5338

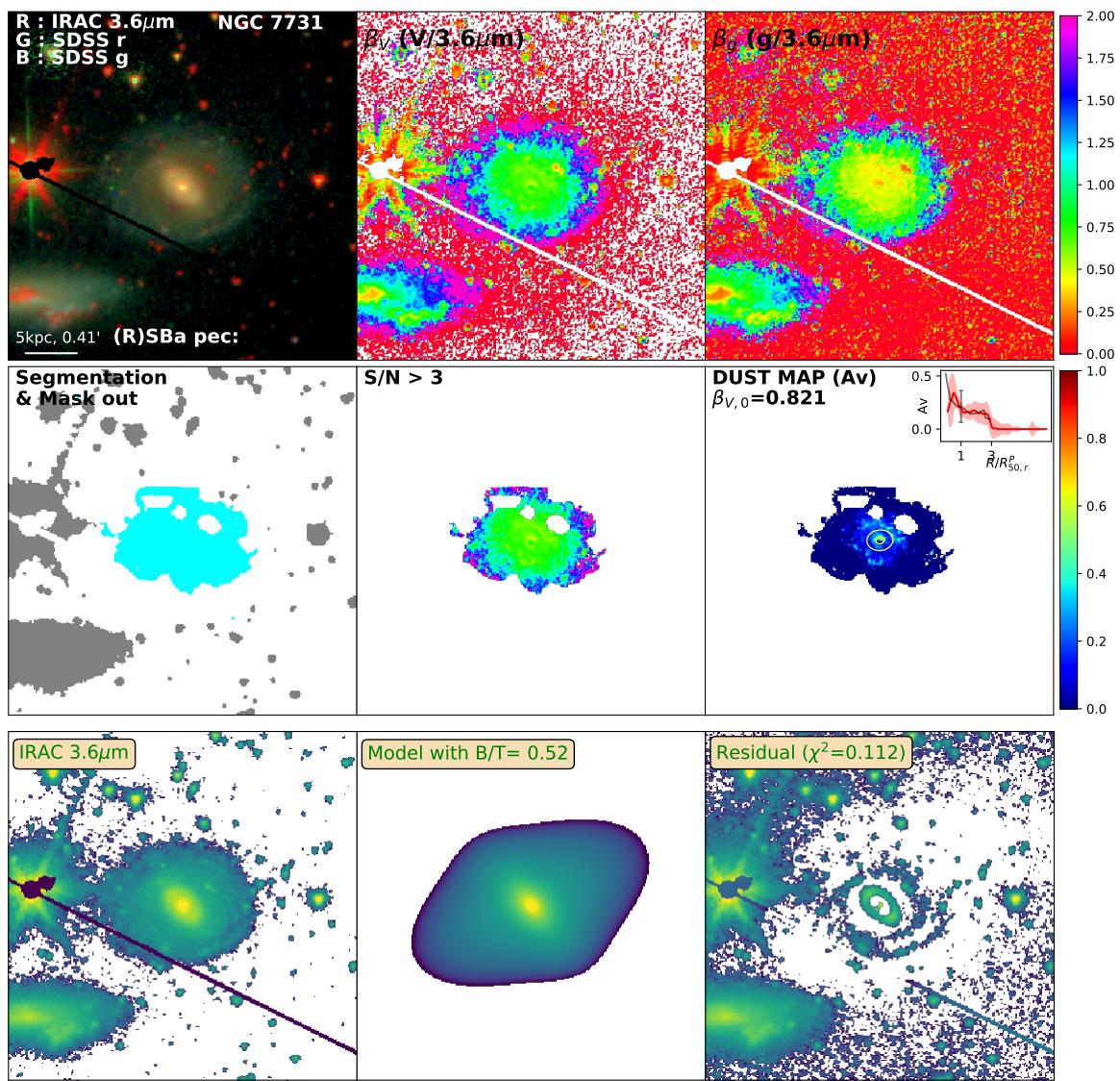


Figure D.251: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7731

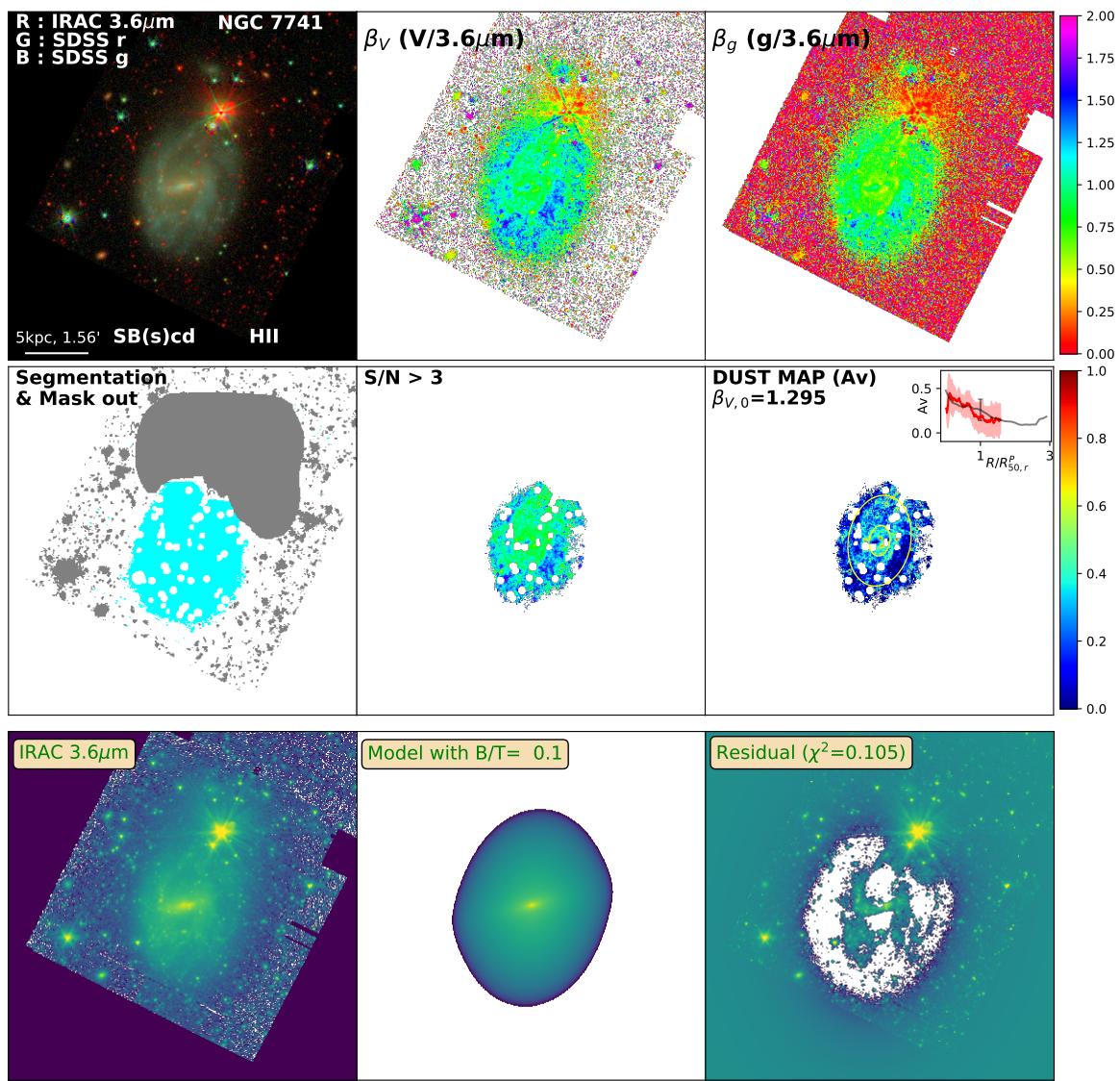


Figure D.252: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7741

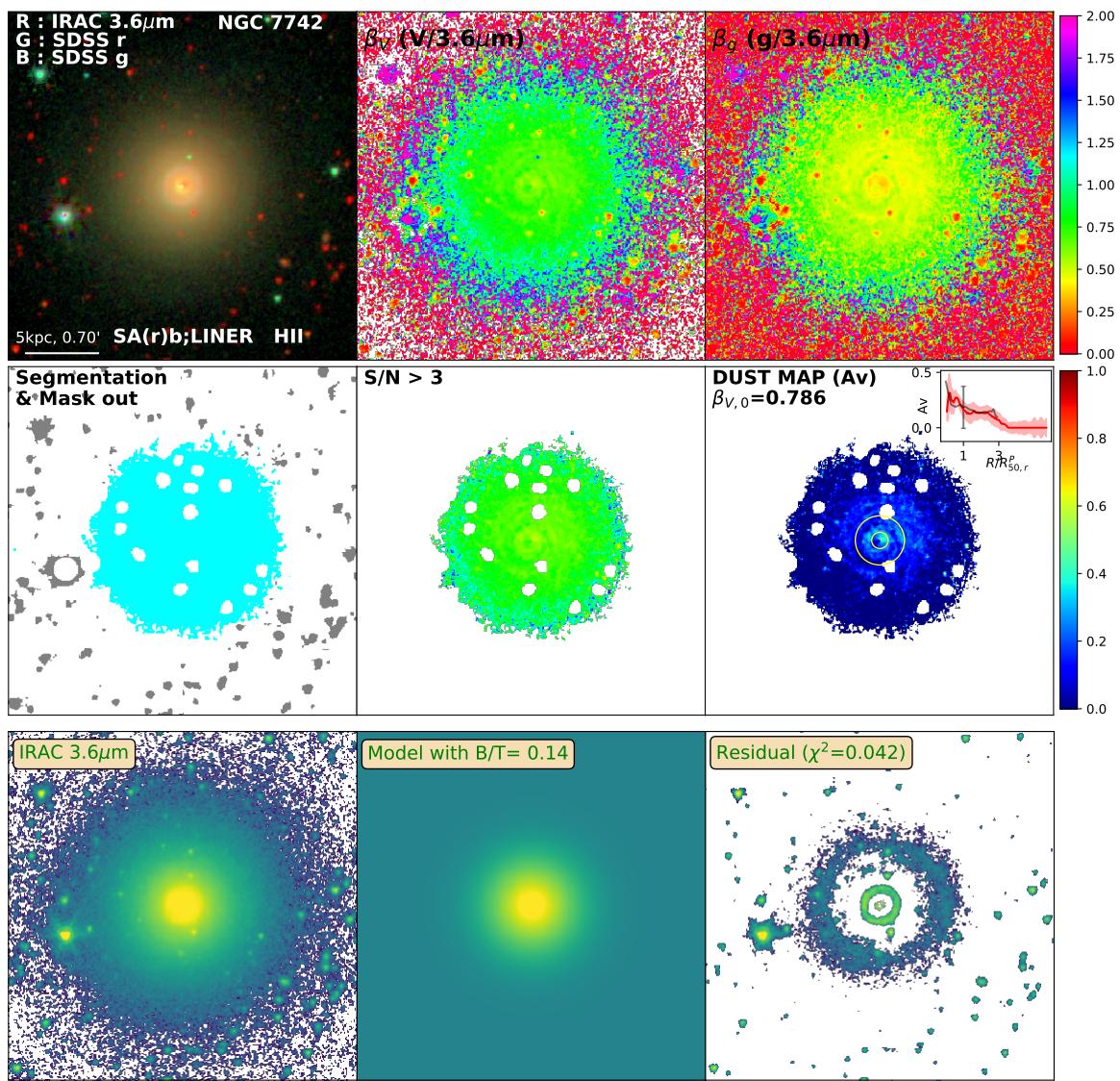


Figure D.253: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7742

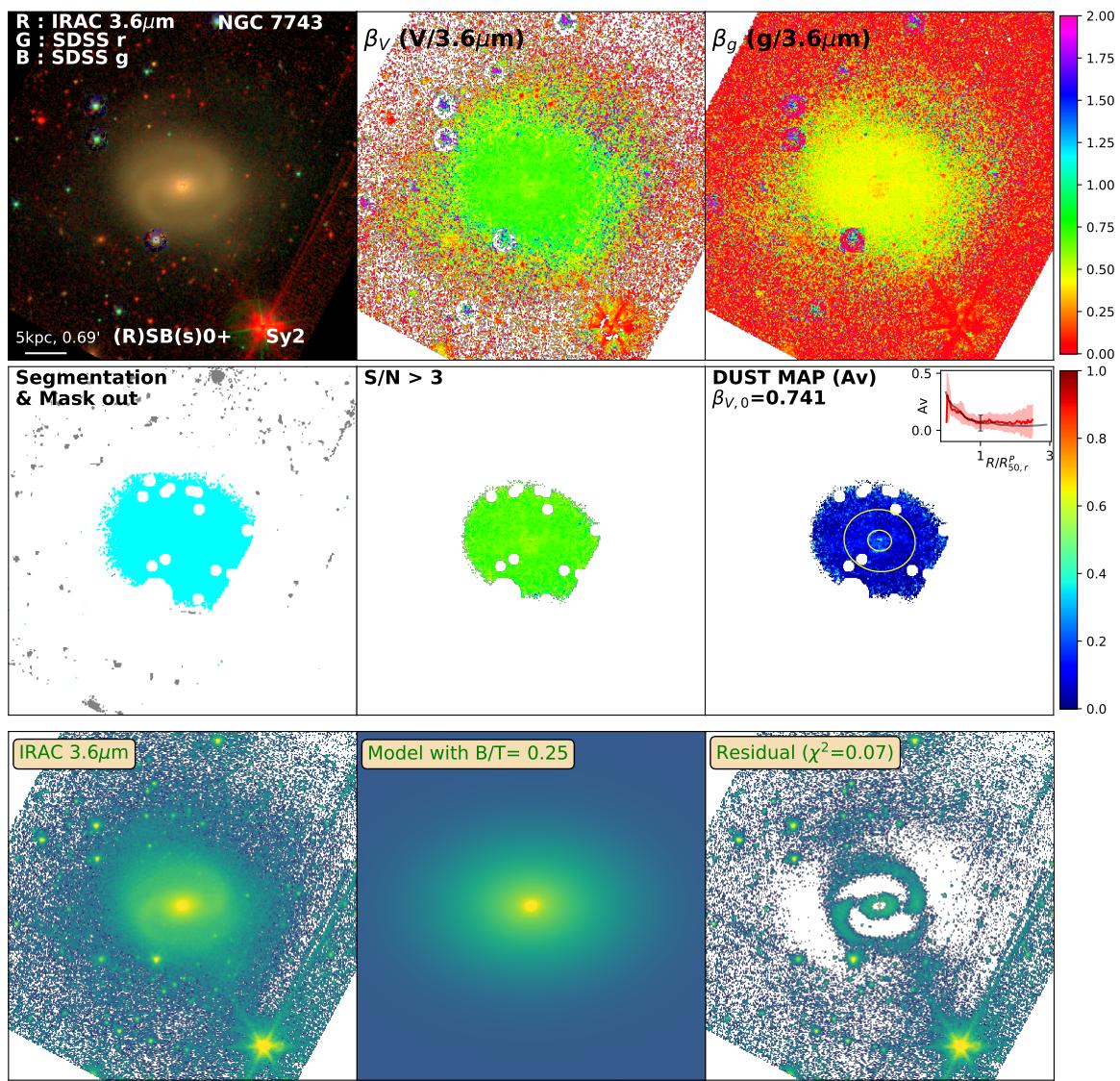


Figure D.254: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7743

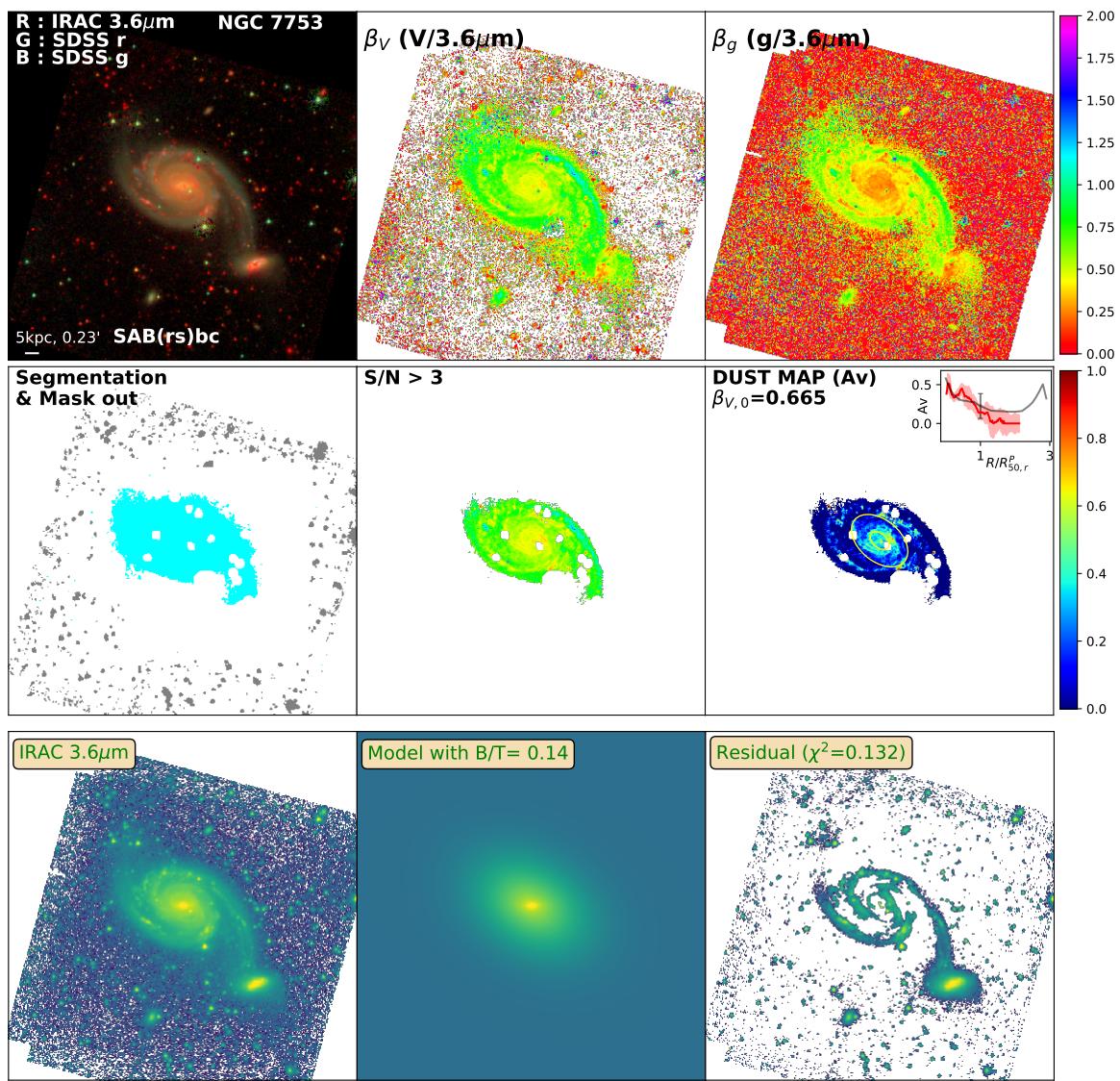


Figure D.255: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7753

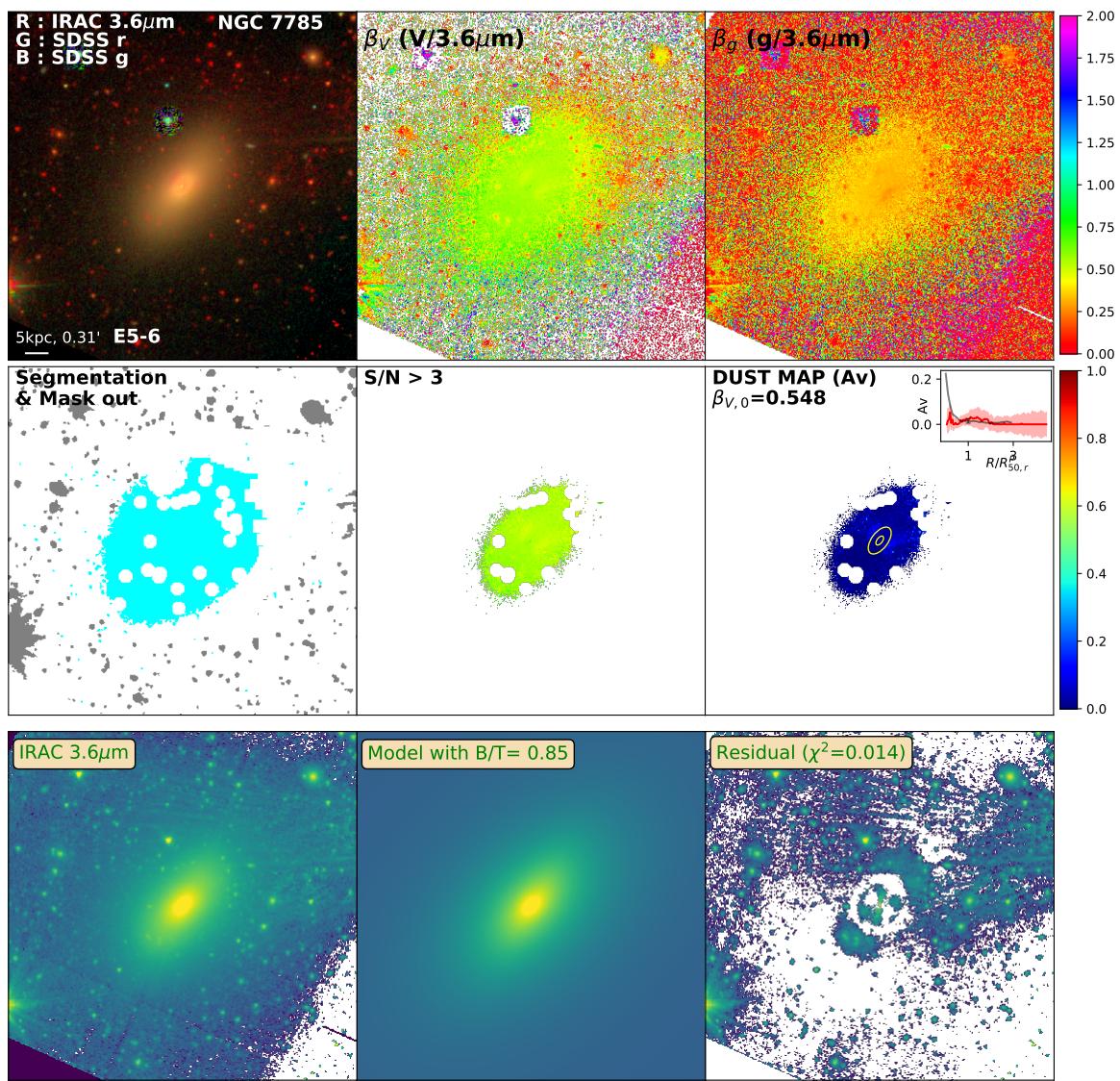


Figure D.256: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7785

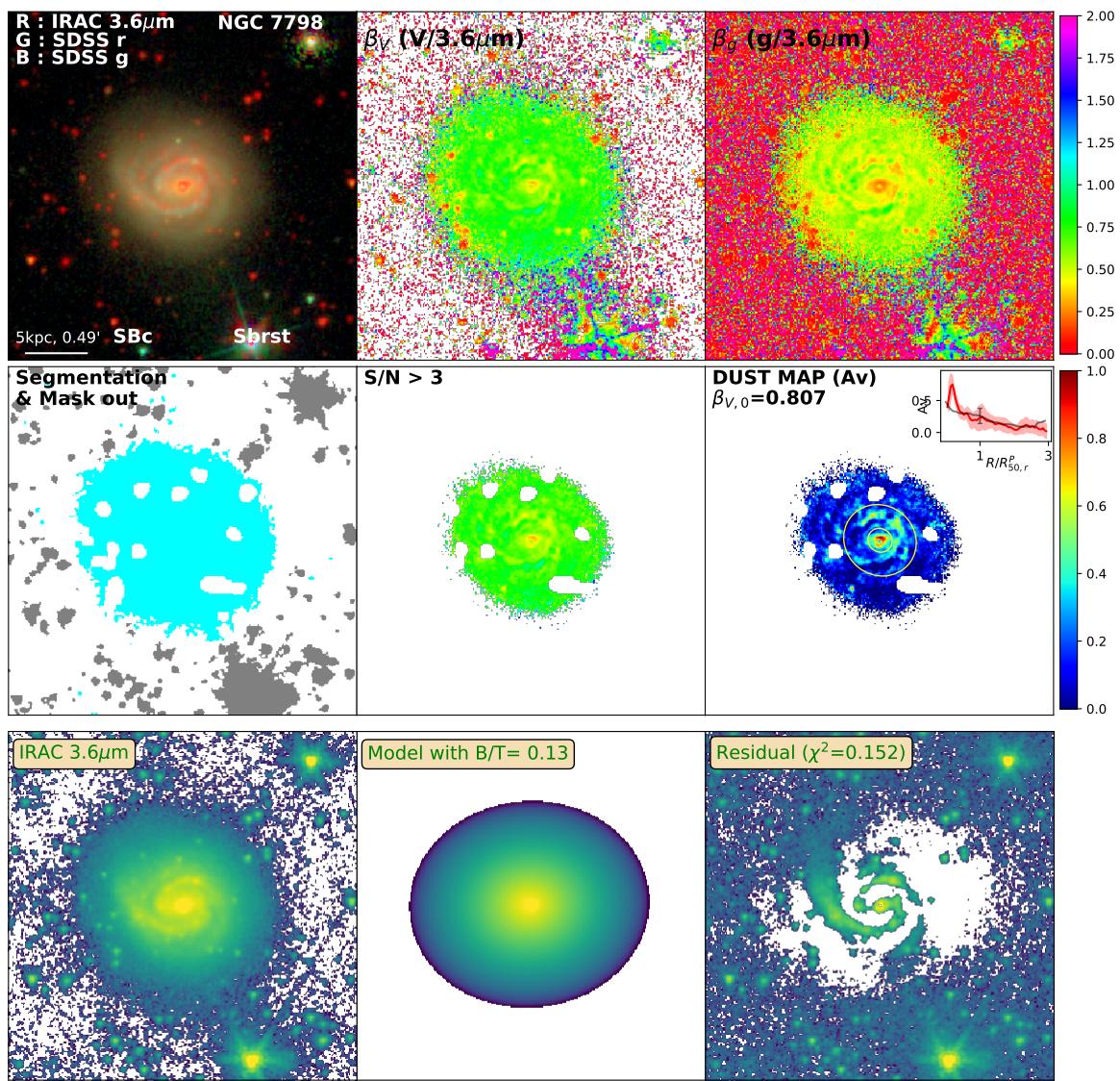


Figure D.257: Same as Figure 3.2 for NGC7798