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Galaxy Zoo: dust in spiral galaxies

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ABSTRACT

We investigate the effect of dust on spiral galaxies by measuring the inclination dependence of optical colours for 24 276 well-resolved Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) galaxies visually classified via the Galaxy Zoo project. We find clear trends of reddening with inclination which imply a total extinction from face-on to edge-on of 0.7, 0.6, 0.5 and 0.4 mag for the ugri passbands (estimating 0.3 mag of extinction in z band). We split the sample into ‘bulgy’ (early-type) and ‘discy’ (late-type) spirals using the SDSS fracdeV (or fDeV) parameter and show that the average face-on colour of ‘bulgy’ spirals is redder than the average edge-on colour of ‘discy’ spirals. This shows that the observed optical colour of a spiral galaxy is determined almost equally by the spiral type (via the bulge–disc ratio and stellar populations), and reddening due to dust. We find that both luminosity and spiral type affect the total amount of extinction, with discy spirals at \( M_r \sim -21.5 \) mag having the most reddening – more than twice as much as both the lowest luminosity and most massive, bulge-dominated spirals. An increase in dust content is well known for more luminous galaxies, but the decrease of the trend for the most luminous has not been observed before and may be related to their lower levels of recent star formation. We compare our results with the latest dust attenuation models of Tuffs et al. We find that the model reproduces the observed trends reasonably well but overpredicts the amount of u-band attenuation in edge-on galaxies. This could be an inadequacy in the Milky Way extinction law (when applied to external galaxies), but more likely indicates the need for a wider range of dust–star geometries. We end by discussing the effects of dust on large galaxy surveys and emphasize that these effects will become important as we push to higher precision measurements of galaxy properties and their clustering.

Key words: surveys – dust, extinction – galaxies: fundamental parameters – galaxies: photometry – galaxies: spiral.

1 INTRODUCTION

The clear view we enjoy of the extragalactic sky towards the Galactic poles led to an early assumption that most discs of spiral galaxies are largely transparent. Early work supported this idea (e.g. Holmberg 1958), and it was not challenged until Disney, Davies...
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& Phillips (1989) pointed out that the far-infrared (FIR) emission observed by the IRAS satellite could not be explained without absorption and re-emission of optical light by significant amounts of dust. Since then several authors have used the inclination dependence of dust extinction to judge the role of dust on the observed properties of spiral galaxies (e.g. Cunow 1992; Giovanelli et al. 1994; Tully et al. 1998; Masters, Giovanelli & Haynes 2003), and it remains unclear even today if most spiral galaxies are predominantly optically thin (low opacity) or optically thick (high opacity). Studies of overlapping galaxies have shown that the relative geometry of the stars and dust plays an important role, which can vary significantly from galaxy to galaxy. They also show that in a given galaxy there may be both optically thick and thin regions which may or may not correlate with patterns in the stellar density (e.g. Holwerda et al. 2009).

In recent years, several authors have revisited this problem using the sheer size and quality of large galaxy surveys like the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS; York et al. 2000). For example, Alam & Ryden (2002) first pointed out that the red population of SDSS galaxies (selected via a u – r colour cut) is contaminated by dust-reddened edge-on spirals, while Shao et al. (2007) studied the dependence of the luminosity function of 61 506 SDSS spiral galaxies (selected using $f_{\text{dev}} \leq 0.5$) on inclination, finding that dust extinction caused about 0.5 mag of dimming in z band and 1.2 mag in u band, consistent with what would be expected for optically thick discs. Underborn & Ryden (2008) used a more stringent cut of $f_{\text{dev}} \leq 0.1$ (arguing that $f_{\text{dev}} < 0.5$ will result in many early-type interlopers) to select 36 162 late-type spirals. They study trends of $u – r$ colour and r-band magnitude in a volume-limited subset and find $\sim 1.3$ mag of dimming from face-on to edge-on in $r$ band.

These inclination effects on the global properties of galaxies have been discussed in most detail by Driver et al. (2007) using data from the Millennium Galaxy Catalogue (MGC; Liske et al. 2003) with bulge–disc decompositions (Allen et al. 2006) as well as Maller et al. (2009) using SDSS data. Both of these studies highlight that most measured galactic distributions and relationships, especially from the SDSS, are biased by dust effects which can be up to 2–3 mag in shorter wavelength bands for the most inclined galaxies. Even the original target selection for the SDSS main galaxies (Strauss et al. 2002), made in r band could be affected by these issues and this likely leads to subtil incompletenesses in the studies of the large-scale clustering of galaxies (since elliptical galaxies and spiral galaxies have different clustering properties).

We have revisited this issue using a new sample of spiral galaxies selected from the Galaxy Zoo (GZ) project.1 All previous SDSS studies of the inclination effects have used some measured proxy (colour, model fits, concentration, Sersic index) to select their spiral or disc galaxies. As discussed above, there is much debate over the best parameter values to use in selecting such galaxies as well as significant scatter between these different proxies (see Appendix A). In contrast, GZ provides robust visual classifications for over $10^5$ objects thanks to the participation of more than 160 000 volunteers (Lintott et al. 2008), and in recent GZ papers we have demonstrated the complexity of relating galaxy colours (and other morphological parameters) to these visual classifications, e.g. Bamford et al. (2009), Skibba et al. (2009), Masters et al. (2010) and Schawinski et al. (2009) who discuss the interesting subpopulations of ‘red spirals’ and ‘blue ellipticals’ respectively, found in the GZ data.

In this paper, we study the trends for $\lambda – z$ (i.e. optical colours relative to the z band) reddening as a function of axial ratio for a sample of well-resolved GZ spiral galaxies. While the total extinction in z band is not expected to be zero (for example Masters et al. 2003; Driver et al. 2008 both show non-zero K-band extinction), we avoid combining SDSS and Two Micron All-Sky Survey [2MASS; or UKIRT Infrared Deep Sky Survey (UKIDSS); Lawrence et al. 2007] data due to worries about systematic differences in the photometric apertures between the SDSS and these near-Infrared (NIR) surveys, as a function of inclination. In the future, such studies would be improved by including the NIR data and thus giving a ‘zero extinction’ measurement.

In Section 2, we describe the data from GZ and SDSS, including galaxy photometry, and axial ratios, and discussed biases introduced by our sample selection. In Section 3, we show the observed change in colour as a function of axial ratio, and then in Section 4, compare these trends to the dust attenuation model from Tuffs et al. (2004, hereafter T04). We discuss the implications of the work and conclude in Section 5.

2 DATA AND SAMPLE SELECTION

2.1 Galaxy Zoo classifications

The GZ project uses an internet tool to allow volunteers from the general public to visually classify galaxies observed by SDSS (see Lintott et al. 2008 for details of the sample selection and initial results). In particular, GZ participants were asked to say if a galaxy was elliptical, spiral, ‘don’t know’ or a merger. The spiral classification was then divided into either clockwise or anticlockwise classes (based on the apparent direction of the spiral arms), or ‘edge-on/don’t know’. In total, each SDSS galaxy received an average of 38 separate classifications, with most of the galaxies having at least 20 independent classifications. Based on these classifications, each object is then assigned a likelihood of being either a spiral or an elliptical (or merger or ‘don’t know’). Results using these GZ classifications have been presented in a series of recent papers (Land et al. 2008; Bamford et al. 2009; Cardamone et al. 2009; Darg et al. 2009a,b; Schawinski et al. 2009; Skibba et al. 2009; Slosar et al. 2009; Masters et al. 2010).

The GZ project was initiated by the need for reliable visual morphologies of SDSS galaxies – a sample an order of magnitude larger than any which had previous visual classifications. Discussions of why automated methods for classification were deemed insufficient for many scientific purposes can be found in the introductions of both Lintott et al. (2008) and Bamford et al. (2009). We show, in Appendix A, that visual classification is important to avoid the high levels of incompleteness and contamination present in morphological samples selected using simple structural measurements. We define a sample of spiral galaxies using the GZ classification probabilities, $p_{\text{gal}} > 0.8$. We include a redshift cut of 0.01 < $z$ < 0.09 to reduce the redshift classification bias discussed in appendix A of Bamford et al. (2009), and we have also applied the corrections outlined in Bamford et al. (2009). These cuts provide a sample of 79 935 visually classified spiral galaxies, which to $M_r = -20.5$ is a volume-limited sample for face-on spirals.
2.2 SDSS photometry

Our photometric quantities are taken from the SDSS Data Release 6 (DR6; Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2008). We use Petrosian magnitudes for the total flux, and model magnitudes for colours. These are corrected for Galactic extinction using the Diffuse Infrared Background Experiment (DIRBE) dust maps (Schlegel, Finkbeiner & Davis 1998) and have a small k-correction applied using kcorrect4.1.4 (Blanton et al. 2003; Blanton & Roweis 2007). Throughout this paper we use a standard cosmology ($\Omega_M = 0.3$, $\Omega_b = 0.7$) with $H_0 = 70$ km s$^{-1}$ Mpc$^{-1}$.

As a measure of the size of galaxies, we use the radius enclosing 90 per cent of the Petrosian flux (in r band), $r_{90}$. We also use the concentration index, $c = r_{90}/r_0$ (the ratio between the radius enclosing 90 and 50 per cent of the Petrosian flux). We remind the reader that a Petrosian radius is defined to be the radius where the local surface brightness (i.e. the mean surface brightness in a small annulus) is equal to a constant fraction of the mean surface brightness within that radius (Strauss et al. 2002). In the absence of dust, or in a completely opaque disc, the Petrosian radius is independent of inclination (see Strauss et al. 2002). Dust will cause the light profile of a galaxy to become shallower (as described in Giovanelli et al. 1994) causing the Petrosian radius, and $r_{90}$, to move outwards. For example Möllenhoff, Popescu & Tuffs (2006) show that in B-band sizes can increase by 10–40 per cent from face-on to edge-on in the presence of dust.

We also use the SDSS structural parameter fracdev (or $f_{\text{dev}}$). In SDSS, all galaxy light curves are fit with both a de Vaucouleurs and an exponential profile. Model magnitudes are constructed from an optimal combination of these two fits (the linear combination which best fits the data), and $f_{\text{dev}}$ describes the fraction of the light which is fit by the de Vaucouleurs profile.

2.3 Inclinations

We use the observed axial ratio ($a/b$, from SDSS) as a proxy for inclination. The exact correspondence between $a/b$ and inclination will vary from galaxy to galaxy. It will depend on the intrinsic axial ratio, $q$, of the galaxy (i.e. that which would be measured for $i = 90^\circ$) and on any variation from $a/b = 1$ which would be observed if the galaxy were face-on. A reasonable axial ratio for spirals varies from $q = 0.1$ to 0.2 (Unterborn & Ryden 2008 measure $q \approx 0.22$), while the ellipticity of the face-on disc is usually assumed to be small (it has been measured at $e \approx 0.08$, or $b/a = 0.92$ by Unterborn & Ryden 2008) so is neglected. Inclination can therefore be estimated using

$$\cos^2 i = \frac{(b/a)^2 - q^2}{1 - q^2}.$$  

We use the g-band isophotal $a/b$ reported by SDSS which are fit to the 25th mag arcsecond$^{-2}$ isophote ($r_{25}$). We pick this axial ratio rather than that calculated from the flux weighted moments of the galaxy as it is likely to be a better estimate of the maximum ellipticity and therefore of the true inclination of the galaxy (since the moments $a/b$ is flux weighted it is likely to reflect the shape in the brightest parts of the galaxy). We pick g band as a compromise between getting the best signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) (which would lead us to pick the default r band) and the fact that bluer bands better trace the shape of the discs of spirals at these redshifts.

Obviously, both the bulge and disc components of a spiral affect its observed axial ratio. The best way to measure the inclination is through the axial ratio of the disc in a bulge-disc decomposition.

but in the absence of that data a value of $q$ in equation (1) which increases with $B/T$ provides the best possible estimate.

As discussed on the SDSS algorithms page, the isophotal axial ratio is not corrected for seeing. We see the impact of this in that the axial ratios of the smallest GZ spirals are on average rounder than the larger spirals. Fig. 1 shows $r_{90}$ against log$(a/b)$ measured in g band. Horizontal lines are plotted at $r_{90} = 4$ arcsec (the apparent minimum of this value for GZ spirals at $0.01 \leq z \leq 0.09$) and $r_{90} = 10$ arcsec, where the effects of seeing appear to disappear almost completely. The curved line shows a simple model in which the minimum possible semiminor axis is $b = 1.3$ arcsec (an estimate of the 25th percentile best seeing in SDSS – the median is about 1.43 arcsec).

Figure 1. The g-band axial ratio versus the radius enclosing 90 per cent of the r-band light for GZ spirals ($p_{\text{equal}} > 0.8$, 0.01 $\leq z \leq 0.09$). This shows the effects of seeing which rounds the isophotes of small galaxies. Horizontal lines are plotted at $r_{90} = 4$ arcsec (the apparent minimum of this value for GZ spirals at $0.01 \leq z \leq 0.09$) and $r_{90} = 10$ arcsec, where the effects of seeing appear to disappear almost completely. The curved line shows a simple model in which the minimum possible semiminor axis is $b = 1.3$ arcsec (an estimate of the 25th percentile best seeing in SDSS – the median is about 1.43 arcsec).

2.4 Spiral type or bulge-disc ratio

As has been known since Hubble (1926) not all spiral galaxies are the same. Both their physical properties and appearance vary significantly from the ‘early-type’ spirals (Sas with large bulges) to the ‘late-type’ spirals (Sc/Sds with little/no bulge). For a review of this topic see Roberts & Haynes (1994). Since the star formation histories of different types of spirals differ (with later types having more recent star formation), so do their intrinsic colours. The expected
intrinsic axial ratio (how thick they appear when viewed edge-on) is also affected by the presence of a bulge, such that earlier type spirals with large bulges are wider (have smaller $a/b$) when viewed completely edge-on than their late-type spirals counterparts.

Therefore, to fully understand the reddening of spirals with their observed axial ratio we need a way to split galaxies of differing bulge-disc ratios and intrinsic axial ratios. This has been done using bulge-disc decompositions to study the $B$-band attenuation of 10,095 galaxies in the MGC (Driver et al. 2007), however, SDSS does not provide a bulge-disc decomposition as a standard parameter. We, therefore, attempt to use other structural parameters from SDSS to broadly divide the sample into those spirals with pure discs (i.e. late-type spirals) and those with large bulges (i.e. early-type spirals).

### 2.4.1 Finding bulges with light profile information

In order to split the sample by ‘bulginess’ we use structural parameters provided by SDSS, namely concentration, $c$, and $f_{\text{DeV}}$. A classic elliptical galaxy is expected to have values of $c \sim 5.5$, and $f_{\text{DeV}} = 1$ while a pure exponential disc will have $c \sim 2.3$ and $f_{\text{DeV}} = 0$ (Strateva et al. 2001). Based on a sample of $\sim 300$ visually classified galaxies, Strateva et al. (2001) recommend that $c = 2.6$ be used to divide the population. Furthermore, they argued that a galaxy with $f_{\text{DeV}} > 0.5$ is likely to be an elliptical, S0 or Sa galaxy, while those with $f_{\text{DeV}} < 0.5$ are late-type spirals (Sb or Sc) or irregular. (We explore these cuts with GZ classifications in Appendix A.)

In Fig. 2 we plot both concentration and $f_{\text{DeV}}$ as a function of axial ratio and ($u - z$) colour for our sample of ‘well-resolved’ GZ spirals. It is clear that concentration is not a clean method for splitting our spirals as there is a strong trend such that more inclined spirals are more likely to have high concentrations. The best linear fit to this trend is $c = 2.169(3) + 0.632(9) \log(a/b)$.

Even the most inclined spirals do not reach the $c = 5.5$ expected for a classic elliptical galaxy, however, they do reach the lowest concentrations of the observed elliptical range which as discussed in Strateva et al. (2001) has a large scatter. The mean value of the concentration of GZ spirals reaches $c = 2.6$ at $\log(a/b) \sim 0.7$ or $i \sim 80^\circ$ for late-type spirals (assumes $q = 0.1$), so 50 per cent of these edge-on spirals will fall into the ‘early-type’ subset if such a divider is used (also see Appendix A).

On the other hand $f_{\text{DeV}}$ appears to be a good candidate to split the spirals into those with large bulges, and those with no bulge. Ironically, Strateva et al. (2001) warn about the use of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ to split galaxies by type in large, bright galaxies as the model is dominated by light from the central regions, but herein, this is exactly the signal we are looking for, i.e. spirals with large central bulges. We see in Fig. 2 that ‘blue’ spirals are found to be only those with small $f_{\text{DeV}}$, while ‘red’ spirals span the full range of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ which we interpret as a mix of intrinsically red face-on spirals with large bulges and dust reddened edge-on spirals with no/small bulge. Supporting this interpretation is the fact that there are no galaxies with both large values of $\log(a/b)$ (i.e. very thin discs viewed edge-on) and large values of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ (i.e. large bulges).

As further evidence that the $f_{\text{DeV}}$ parameter is able to divide the visually classified GZ spirals by Hubble type (or bulge size), we show in Fig. 3 the colours of face-on ($\log(a/b) < 0.05$) GZ spirals

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**Figure 2.** Concentration and $f_{\text{DeV}}$ for our sample of well-resolved GZ spirals as a function of observed axial ratio and ($u - z$) colour. We plot the best fit to the relation between concentration and axial ratio, and also a fit to our estimate of the relation between the intrinsic axial ratio (i.e. the maximum value of $a/b$ possible) with $f_{\text{DeV}}$. 

\[^{4}\text{We are using a condensed notation for quoting errors on fitted parameters where 2.169(3) is equivalent to 2.169 \pm 0.003. This is used throughout the paper.}\]
The colour of face-on GZ spirals \( \log(a/b) < 0.05 \) plotted against \( f_{\text{DeV}} \). The solid line in each panel is a linear fit to the data, and the dots show the medians in 17 bins of 100 galaxies each. As expected for early-type spirals (with large bulges), the objects with the largest values of \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) always have redder (mean) face-on colours than those with small values of \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) (i.e. spirals with smaller bulges). At first glance this might seem to contradict the findings of Drory & Fisher (2007) who show in a sample of 39 objects that disc galaxies with classical bulges are globally red (irrespective of the bulge size), while only in galaxies with pseudo-bulges is there a trend of global colour with \( B/T \) (at low values of \( B/T \) – since pseudo-bulges are not found at high \( B/T \)). This contradiction cannot be clearly tested without identifying the classical and pseudo-bulges in our sample face-on spirals, however, looking at Fig. 3 in more detail we argue that it may still show the expected trend. There is a larger spread of colours of our face-on spirals with small values of \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) than is seen in those with large values of \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) – consistent with the idea of a mix of redder galaxies with classical bulges and bluer galaxies with pseudo-bulges at low \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) and only redder galaxies with classical bulges at high values of \( f_{\text{DeV}} \).

We note that our data shows that using a strict cut on \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) (as done by Shao et al. 2007; Unterborn & Ryden 2008) will miss a large fraction of the spiral population. It also shows that an early-type sample selected using a minimum value of \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) will have significant contamination from visually classified spirals with large values of \( f_{\text{DeV}} \). We discuss this further in Appendix A.

In Fig. 4, we show the match between our well-resolved GZ spirals and the MGC (Liske et al. 2003), finding an overlap of 109 galaxies (the MGC is much deeper than SDSS but over a smaller area). We use this match to find a linear relation between the \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) parameter from SDSS and the bulge fraction as measured by the MGC. This relation is shown in Fig. 4 and is given by \( f_{\text{DeV}} = 0.11(3) + 1.7(2) (B/T)_{\text{MGC}} \).

Finally, Fig. 5 shows example images of face-on GZ spirals of similar angular size, ordered by \( f_{\text{DeV}} \).

2.4.2 Intrinsic axial ratios

In order to obtain the inclination of a galaxy from its observed axial ratio, an estimate of its intrinsic axial ratio (i.e. the axial ratio which would be observed if it were completely edge-on) is needed. This is observed to vary along the Hubble sequence, with earlier type spirals with large bulges appearing thicker when viewed edge on than later type spirals. Haynes & Giovanelli (1984) tabulated the measured values of \( q \) for different Hubble types (based on work...
from an unpublished preprint by B. M. Lewis), while Simien & de Vaucouleurs (1986) give the expected bulge–total luminosity ratios for different Hubble types. We provide in Table 1 a compilation of these two results in which we also include the approximate value of $f_{\text{Dev}}$ we find for these values of $B/D$.

Here, we use $f_{\text{Dev}}$ to predict the intrinsic axial ratio of spiral galaxies. We plot in the bottom left-hand panel of Fig. 2 an estimate of the maximum axial ratio as a function of $f_{\text{Dev}}$ for which we use $\log(a/b)_{\text{max}} \equiv \log(a/b) + 2\sigma_{\log(a/b)}$. We will use a fit to $q = (b/a)_{\text{max}}$ from these values as an estimate of the trend of the intrinsic axial ratio of a galaxy with $f_{\text{Dev}}$, which we find to be $q = 0.12 + 0.10 f_{\text{Dev}}$, consistent with the range of values of $q$ observed in edge-on galaxies in Table 1.

### Table 1. Bulge–disc ratio and intrinsic axial ratio as a function of Hubble type. Also included is an estimate of the mean value of $f_{\text{Dev}}$ for each type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>$T$</th>
<th>$B/T$</th>
<th>$B/D$</th>
<th>$q$</th>
<th>$f_{\text{Dev}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S0−</td>
<td>−3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S0</td>
<td>−2</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S0+</td>
<td>−1</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S0/a</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sab</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sb</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sbc</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sd</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.5 Sample bias

Studies of the trends of observed quantities with inclination are hampered by sample bias. Most observed quantities depend in some way on inclination, therefore, cuts on observed quantities produce samples biased by inclination. The intercorrelations between properties of galaxies (for example size–magnitude and colour–magnitude relations) also add complications. An unbiased sample for the study of inclination trends is probably not possible, but an appreciation of the effect of any bias in the sample on the results will aid in the interpretation.

While the majority of face-on S0s will not make it into the GZ spiral cut, even expert classifiers are more likely to classify S0s as spirals if they are observed edge-on. Therefore we expect the edge-on GZ spirals may have a larger proportion of S0 galaxies than the face-on. A comparison of expert classifications from Fukugita et al. (2007) and GZ classifications (Lintott et al. 2008; Bamford et al. 2009) shows that S0s contribute less than 3 per cent to the GZ spirals, however, if Fukugita et al. (2007) also tend to classify edge-on S0s as spirals this comparison is not useful. The possible ‘contamination’ of S0s into the edge-on GZ spirals should be remembered when interpreting our results – since S0s are usually brighter and redder than spiral galaxies this could cause attenuation to be underestimated while reddening measures could be overestimated.

The sample selected here, based on the SDSS main galaxy sample has an implicit magnitude limit in the $r$ band of $m_r = 17.77$. Our redshift limit of $0.01 < z < 0.09$ therefore makes this a volume limited sample for face-on spirals to $M_r = −20.5$, while dimmer spirals are only observed in the near parts of the sample. Because of the dimming effects of dust, any magnitude-limited sample will miss intrinsically brighter objects at large inclinations.

We also apply a size cut to our sample. (As discussed above, because of the effects of seeing, we cut at an observed Petrosian 90 per cent flux semimajor axis (in $r$ band) of $r_90 = 10$ arcsec.) The presence of dust in a galaxy disc shallows the light profile and moves $r_90$ outwards as a galaxy becomes more inclined. This size cut then allows intrinsically smaller objects into the sample at larger inclinations. There is an observed correlation between size and magnitude (most small galaxies are also dimmer), however, there is also scatter in that relation, so the net effect here is to have a sample of inclined galaxies which is intrinsically brighter and smaller (i.e. more compact) than the comparison face-on galaxies.

We show in Fig. 6 the observed size–magnitude relation for our sample of well-resolved GZ spirals. As is well known, brighter galaxies are physically larger. As expected, the most inclined galaxies in

![Figure 6. Observed physical size versus absolute $r$-band magnitude (corrected for Galactic dust and k-corrections, but not internal extinction) for our sample of well-resolved GZ spirals. The most face-on quartile are highlighted in blue, while the most edge-on quartile are highlighted in red.](Image)
our sample have observed sizes which are larger than the more face-on at a given observed \((k\)-corrected and Galactic extinction corrected) magnitude. We expect that intrinsically these two populations should follow the same relation, so this illustrates the effect of inclination on our sample selection – it dims the observed magnitudes and increases the radii outwards at the same time. To make these two relations align, the magnitudes of the edge-on spirals must be shifted by \(\sim 0.5–1.0\) mag (ignoring any change in size), quite consistent with the results on total \(r\)-band extinction found here (see Section 3) and other studies (e.g. Unterborn & Ryden 2008). Fig. 7 shows the result of the two cuts (SDSS main galaxy sample magnitude limit, and our applied radius limit) on the absolute magnitude and linear sizes of the sample as a function of redshift. Only the most face-on and edge-on quartiles of the sample are shown to illustrate the differences. At all redshifts the observed magnitudes of the inclined galaxies are dimmer than those of the face-on galaxies (which shows the combined effect of the magnitude cut excluding brighter edge-on galaxies and our size cut which allows in inclined galaxies at observed dimmer magnitudes if they have increased observed radii). The intrinsic magnitudes of the inclined galaxies must be brighter than their observed magnitudes, so the distribution of intrinsic magnitudes across the inclination range of our sample may be more similar.

Converting observed axial ratios to inclinations depends on assumptions about the intrinsic axial ratio of the galaxy (as discussed in Section 2.4.2 above). In order to provide empirical corrections, and compare observed data to models, we avoid making this conversion (which adds an additional source of error), although we provide a prescription for estimating the intrinsic axial ratio from \(f_{\text{DeV}}\) in Section 2.4.2 which we will apply here. The \(\cos i\) distribution of the sample is a good sanity check of the level of sample bias. This distribution should be flat (i.e. random orientations) if the sample is completely unbiased. We show this distribution in Fig. 8. There are an excess of objects at \(i \sim 78^\circ\), and a deficit at \(i < 25^\circ\) and \(i > 84^\circ\). However we estimate a typical error of \(\pm 0.1\) in the estimate of \(\cos i\) (coming from an error of \(\pm 0.1\) in the measurement of \(b/a\) and \(\pm 0.05\) in the estimate of \(q\)) and argue the distribution is reasonably flat within this error. For a very conservative interpretation of the results shown below the region \(25^\circ < i < 70^\circ\) can be considered completely unbiased [roughly \(0.04 < \log(a/b) < 0.45\)].

That this sample ends up being relatively unbiased (as shown by Fig. 8) can be explained if either the biases introduced by the two selection effects (SDSS magnitude limit and our size cut) cancel out precisely, or if one of the selections dominates and this selection is relatively unbiased. The first explanation, while possible, seems unlikely. In fact, Figs 6 and 7 seem to show that the size selection is the dominant selection effect (i.e. most objects not making the SDSS magnitude cut would have not made the size cut anyway). This is most easily argued from Fig. 6, since a shift in \(r\)-band magnitude of \(\sim 0.5–1.0\) aligns the size–magnitude relations for edge-on and face-on spirals with no need for size shifts, and this is in agreement with amount of total attenuation estimated in \(r\) band by us and other authors (see Section 3, and e.g. Unterborn & Ryden 2008). This then suggests that inclination has little effect on the observed sizes of spiral galaxies – at least at the radius traced by \(r_{90}\). This is possible, if the galaxies are mostly opaque within this radius in the optical bands. Masters et al. (2003) using 2MASS data, asked if spiral galaxies are transparent in NIR bands at 2–3 scalelengths, and conclude this is unlikely in the \(J\) and \(H\) bands (but consistent with the data at \(K\) band). The radius, \(r_{90}\) (enclosing 90 per cent of the Petrosian flux) is at \(\sim 4\) scalelengths for a pure exponential (Fig. 1 Strauss et al. 2002), but it still does not seem inconsistent that spirals would still be relatively opaque in the shorter optical bands at this radius. It seems therefore that the size cut we apply results in a relatively unbiased sample.

### 3 EFFECT OF VIEWING ANGLE ON THE COLOURS OF SPIRAL GALAXIES

We observe disc galaxies at a variety of inclinations ranging from completely face-on [with axial ratios \(\sim 1\), so \(\log(a/b) = 0\)] to completely edge on [with large axial ratios e.g. \(a/b = 10\) corresponding to \(\log(a/b) = 1.0\)]. The universe is assumed to be isotropic and homogeneous, so we expect that the intrinsic properties of galaxies should not vary with viewing angle. Any such variation in an unbiased sample can therefore be largely interpreted as the effect of an increased path length through the disc of the galaxy (with complications due to the different distributions of stars and dust in a galaxy, which may be averaged out in a large sample). The increased path length in the presence of dust will result in reddening, and dimming, of the emerging light.
In this section, we plot the variation of colour with axial ratio (as a proxy for inclination) in our sample of GZ spirals. We use a simple linear parametrization with $\log(a/b)$ to quantify the effect of inclination on the observed magnitudes and colours of the galaxies. This is the parametrization that has been historically used in studies of inclination dependent effects, presumably arising from the fact that for a totally opaque, pure exponential disc the total magnitude will change by $2.5 \log(a/b)$. We write,

$$X_{\text{true}} = X_{\text{obs}} - \gamma_X \log(a/b),$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $X$ describes the band in question ($X = ugriz$ for SDSS bands), and $\gamma_X$ for an individual galaxy might reasonably be expected to depend on things like the galaxy mass and/or luminosity, its intrinsic colour, its metallicity, its Hubble type etc.

In Fig. 9, we show the effect of inclination on the colour of our spiral galaxies. As expected we find a strong trend such that more elongated (or inclined) galaxies are reddened. We fit our linear parametrization, as discussed above, in the range of $\log(a/b) < 0.7$ and find

$$u - z = 2.267(7) + 0.55(2) \log(a/b),$$
$$g - z = 0.969(4) + 0.39(1) \log(a/b),$$
$$r - z = 0.418(3) + 0.25(1) \log(a/b),$$
$$i - z = 0.180(2) + 0.12(1) \log(a/b).$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

The trends of other colours can be found using linear combinations of these relationships. Note that the errors here are statistical – the systematic error due to the possible sample biases discussed in Section 2.5 is likely larger.

The scale of the $y$-axis in the different panels of Fig. 9 has been set by the overall dispersion in the colours of our galaxies, and varies from 3 mag in $u - z$ to only 0.7 mag in $i - z$. The trend of the reddening due to dust, while clearly present in all the observed colours shown here, is on average smaller than the overall dispersion seen in this sample of visually selected spirals (which is a mixture of all Hubble types). It appears that some galaxy colours can be massively affected by dust, while others could be affected very little at all. This plot illustrates however that the stellar populations (mostly through the size of bulge or old stellar component) are just as important in explaining the colours of these well-resolved spiral galaxies as the amount of dust in their discs. Dust should be considered just one of many factors explaining the colours of spirals – however its systematic reddening of spiral colours with inclination means it must be dealt with if inclined systems are to be included in studies of galaxy evolution.

At $\log(a/b) > 0.7$, the colour trends above are suppressed by a downturn in the mean colours for the most elongated spirals. We interpret this effect as being due to the fact that only the latest, and bluest, of the spiral types (i.e. Scs and Sds with no bulge component) can have such elongated shapes. As discussed below, an early–type spiral will reach $i = 90^\circ$ at $\log(a/b) \sim 0.7$ so cannot have any large value of $a/b$. This illustrates the difficulties of using axial ratio as a proxy for inclination in a sample which includes a wide range of spiral galaxy types. The average colours of the most inclined galaxies may also be impacted by our $r_{50}$ selection which allows in intrinsically smaller galaxies at high inclinations, which on average will also be less luminous and possibly bluer (through the colour–luminosity relation). It could also be observed if the discs become totally opaque at these high inclinations and the light is therefore dominated by bluer emission from the near side disc.

**Figure 9.** Shown here are the trends of $u - z$, $g - z$, $r - z$ and $i - z$ colours as a function of axial ratio for our sample of well-resolved GZ spirals. Grey-scale contours are linear in the density of all galaxies. The median in bins of 400 galaxies is overlaid, as are the 25th and 75th percentiles. The best-fitting linear relation [to $\log(a/b) < 0.7$] is shown as the straight line; for $\log(a/b) > 0.7$ we just show a constant extension of this fit. Note that the $y$-axis range, set by the overall dispersion in colour differs dramatically between ($a/b$) where is 3 mag, to ($i - z$) where is only 0.7 mag.
Figure 10. The trend of $g-z$ colour for GZ spirals separated using the $f_{DeV}$ parameter as indicated in the panels. As in Fig. 9, the grey-scale contours represent the locus of galaxies, while overlaid are the median and interquartile range of data binned in $\log(a/b)$ [bin sizes are (1) $f_{DeV} < 0.1$; 163, (2) $f_{DeV} < 0.5$; 352, (3) $f_{DeV} > 0.5$; 134, (4) $f_{DeV} > 0.9$; 50 – designed to make $\sim$50 bins for each subset].

Our observed trends of $\lambda - z$ with $\log(a/b)$ can provide a lower limit to the average value of $\gamma_X$ for spiral galaxies (under the assumption that the internal extinction in $z$ band is negligible). The SDSS $z$ band should have similar (or slightly more) internal extinction than the $J$ band, which was measured as $\gamma_J \sim 0.5$ for a sample of visually classified spirals detected in 2MASS by Masters et al. (2003), thus suggesting $\gamma_z > 0.5$. Using this argument, we use the above SDSS colour trends to show that, on average (neglecting dependences on galaxy mass, luminosity, colour, metallicity and type), $\gamma_u > 1.0, \gamma_g > 0.9, \gamma_r > 0.8, \gamma_i > 0.6$ which we suggest should be used to $\log(a/b) \sim 0.7$ after which the extinction appears to be on average constant with axial ratio. This means that a lower limit on the total extinction of spiral galaxies from face-on to edge-on, is 0.7, 0.6, 0.5 and 0.4 mag in $ugri$ bands, respectively (based on an assumption of at least $\sim$0.3 mag of extinction in $z$ band from face-on to edge-on).

We advise against using uncorrected axial ratios as a proxy for inclination in galaxies smaller than $r_90 = 10$ arcsec due to the effects of seeing which will make the most inclined galaxies appear rounder than they should be (as shown in Fig. 1). This effect will compress the trend of reddening with inclination making it appear larger than it really is. However we recognize that a correction to the mean colours to the face-on value may still be of use in statistical studies of galaxy evolution so provide below trends which are for ‘small GZ spirals’ (meaning those with $r_90 < 10$ arcsec only, or 55,653 galaxies in total):

$$u-z = 1.980(4) + 1.221(13) \log(a/b),$$
$$g-z = 0.863(3) + 0.692(7) \log(a/b),$$
$$r-z = 0.380(2) + 0.388(4) \log(a/b),$$
$$i-z = 0.188(1) + 0.165(2) \log(a/b).$$

(4)

3.1 Dependence on bulge–disc ratio or spiral type

In Fig. 9, there is evidence for a possible bimodality in the trend of the colours with axial ratio. As we will see below, when discussing the photometric model of T04, the bulge–disc ratio (or spiral type) affects the model attenuation curves. We also know that the average colours of spiral galaxies become bluer as they progress along the Hubble sequence (from early to late spirals) as their bulges become smaller. So an explanation for the apparent split in the colour–$\log(a/b)$ trend may be the bulge–disc ratio of the spirals (or perhaps bulge type – see Drory & Fisher 2007).

As discussed in Section 2.4 above, we can use $f_{DeV}$ to separate GZ spirals into subsamples based on the size of their bulge (or give a crude spiral type classifications). Obviously it would be better to use full bulge–disc decompositions to study these effects which would be a natural extension of this work. In Fig. 10, we show the trends of $g-z$ colour with axial ratio in four bins of $f_{DeV}$ (see Figs B1–B3 in Appendix B for other colour trends). In Table 2, we present the best-fitting parameters to these relations. While for the full sample, we only fit the range $\log(a/b) < 0.7$, for these subsamples (split by $f_{DeV}$) we fit the full range of $\log(a/b)$ as the flattening in the median colours seen in Fig. 9 is less pronounced here – perhaps because of the split into rough spiral types.

Maller et al. (2009) argue for much lower extinction in $J$ band [$\max(\gamma_J) = 0.17$], but do quote $\max(\gamma_J) = 0.53$, so assuming $\gamma_J > 0.5$ is not inconsistent with that work.
Table 2. Best-fitting linear trends to \((\lambda - z) = C_\mathrm{r} + \gamma \log(a/b). \Delta_0\) is the total reddening from face-on to edge-on.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>(N_{\text{gal}})</th>
<th>((u - z))</th>
<th>((g - z))</th>
<th>((r - z))</th>
<th>((i - z))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(C_\mathrm{s})</td>
<td>(C_\mathrm{r})</td>
<td>(C_\mathrm{γ})</td>
<td>(\Delta_0)</td>
<td>(\gamma)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All big spirals</td>
<td>24 276</td>
<td>2.267(7)</td>
<td>0.55(2)</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.969(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Very bulgy'</td>
<td>2 519</td>
<td>2.81(1)</td>
<td>0.62(4)</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>1.257(7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Bulgy'</td>
<td>6 680</td>
<td>2.68(1)</td>
<td>0.74(3)</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>1.198(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Discy'</td>
<td>17 596</td>
<td>2.030(8)</td>
<td>0.67(2)</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.842(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Pure disc'</td>
<td>8 168</td>
<td>1.91(1)</td>
<td>0.57(2)</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.766(7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 10 shows that as we move from late-type spirals (with small bulges) to early-type spirals (with large bulges) the average face-on colours \((C_r, \gamma, \Delta_0)\) in Table 2) reddens significantly. In fact the average face-on colours of the ‘very bulgy’ subset are redder than the average edge-on colours of the ‘pure disc’ subset [by 0.3, 0.1, 0.01 and 0.002 mag in \((u - z), (g - z), (r - z)\) and \((i - z)\), respectively] – although the spread of the colours of even face-on ‘discy’ spirals is large enough to almost encompass the spread of face-on ‘bulgy’ spiral colours. As discussed above, dust reddening appears again to be about equal in predicting the colours of galaxies as the bulge size and the stellar mix of the galaxy (however the difference is its systematic trend with viewing angle).

We observe that the slope of the reddening with axial ratio is steepest for the ‘bulgy’ subsample. If we assume that a ‘bulgy’ spiral (i.e. one with \(f_{\text{Dv}} < 0.5\)) has an intrinsic axial ratio of \(q \sim 0.1\), while a ‘bulgy’ spiral has \(q \sim 0.2\) (see Table 1 for a justification of these choices), then the total reddening from face-on to edge-on (noted as \(\Delta_0\) in Table 2) is given by \(\gamma\) for the ‘discy’ (late-type) spirals and by \(0.7\gamma\) for the ‘bulgy’ (early-type) spirals. Using this assumption, we argue that the total reddening from face-on to edge-on is always larger in the ‘discy’ spirals than in the ‘bulgy’ ones which then indicates a larger role for dust reddening on the average colours of the ‘discy’ spirals than in the ‘bulgy’ spirals.

We test this data against the photometric models of T04 in Section 4.

3.2 Dependence on galaxy luminosity

Luminosity dependence of the amount of dust attenuation in spiral galaxies was studied in NIR bands in Giovanelli et al. (1995) and Masters et al. (2003) and in the optical/NIR in Tully et al. (1998).

Maller et al. (2009) have also studied the impact of luminosity and face-on colour on reddening trends of late types in SDSS bands. In the previous section we showed differences in the trends of reddening with inclination for GZ spirals with different bulge sizes (as measured with \(f_{\text{Dv}}\) from SDSS). It has been shown many times that different types of spirals have different luminosity functions (e.g. work using 1500 SDSS galaxies with visual classification; Nakamura et al. 2003). So, some, or all of this trend could be due to the different luminosity ranges of spirals with different bulge sizes.

In Fig. 11 we show the observed (i.e. not corrected for internal extinction) colour–magnitude (CM) diagram of all GZ spirals \((P_{\text{gual}} > 0.8, 0.01 < z < 0.09)\) in four quartile bins of axial ratio. Each plot has ~20 000 galaxies on it. The galaxies are colour coded by \(f_{\text{Dv}}\) using red: \(f_{\text{Dv}} > 0.9\); yellow: \(0.5 < f_{\text{Dv}} < 0.9\); green: \(0.1 < f_{\text{Dv}} < 0.5\) and blue: \(f_{\text{Dv}} < 0.1\). The solid line indicates the blue edge of the red sequence of GZ early types at \(z = 0\). The ‘face-on’ GZ spirals are mostly to the blue side of this line, but in the most edge-on quartile many galaxies are reddened across it. We note that most spirals whose intrinsic colours place them in the so-called ‘green valley’ are bulge dominated, but there is significant contamination to this part of the CM diagram by dust reddened inclined spirals.

The dashed line in each panel of Fig. 11 is a fit to the blue cloud in the face-on GZ spirals \([\log(a/b) < 0.14] – with the vertical dashed line indicating the 99.5th percentile magnitude (i.e. only 5 per cent of spirals have \(r\)-band magnitudes brighter than that line). The dotted lines in the three panels showing more inclined spirals are the same quantities for those inclined galaxies and illustrate the change in the shape of the CM diagram of spirals as they become more inclined. In the most inclined quartile the 95th percentile \(r\)-band magnitude is 0.5 mag fainter than in the face-on spirals, quite consistent with the estimate of the trend of \(r\)-band magnitude with axial ratio we derived in Section 3.1.

We derive the face-on \(r\)-band absolute magnitudes of the well-resolved GZ spirals using a correction of \(M_r = 0.8 \log(a/b) – \log(a/b) = 0.7, \text{ and } \Delta M_r = 0.56\) after (as suggested in Section 3) then fit linear relations to the colour versus axial ratio in subset of the GZ spirals separated by both bulge size (as measured by \(f_{\text{Dv}}\)) and absolute magnitude. We plot the slopes of these relations for the \((r - z)\) colour versus \(r\)-band magnitude in Fig. 12. Interestingly the slope of the trend of reddening with axial ratio shows hints of a peak in all spiral type subsets at around \(M_r \sim -21.5\) where it is roughly twice as large as at the lowest luminosities. At both dimmer and brighter magnitudes the reddening trend seems to decrease (note that in the subset of the most bulge-dominated spirals there are very few galaxies with \(M_r > -21\)). We comment that while we have selected the galaxies in these magnitude bins after an estimated dust correction has been applied, the implicit magnitude limit of the original selection may be causing some bias here (i.e. causing edge-on galaxies which would make it into the sample if seen face-on to be dimmed below the selection limit) and would act in a way to cause an underestimate of the slope of reddening (since brighter galaxies will on average be redder). However the blue cloud shows only a mild trend of colour with luminosity, so we argue that this effect is unlikely to account for all of the trend with luminosity we observe here. However the bias may be larger at the faint end of the sample, so the downturn in reddening at low-luminosity spirals should be interpreted carefully.

At a given absolute magnitude the slope of the reddening is significantly shallower (0.1–0.2 mag dex\(^{-1}\)) in the ‘very bulgy’ subset \(f_{\text{Dv}} > 0.9\) than in more disc-dominated spirals. This means that a single correction to magnitudes and colours for dust will be an overestimate of the effect in both very dim and very bright (especially bulge dominated) spirals and an underestimate especially for disc-dominated spirals with \(M_r \sim -21.5\). Interpreting these slopes in terms of dust content is not trivial as illustrated in Section 4. The slope of the predicted trend of \((r - z)\) colour from the models of T04 is degenerate with bulge-disc ratio and face-on central opacity. However in pure disc galaxies which our \(f_{\text{Dv}} < 0.1\) sample should approximate (shown in blue in Fig. 12) an increase in the slope.
Neither colour nor magnitude is corrected for internal extinction. The galaxies are colour coded by $f_{\text{DeV}}$ using red: $f_{\text{DeV}} > 0.9$; yellow: $0.5 < f_{\text{DeV}} > 0.9$; green: $0.1 < f_{\text{DeV}} > 0.5$ and blue: $f_{\text{DeV}} < 0.1$. The solid line indicates the blue edge of the red sequence of GZ ellipticals. The dashed line in each panel is a fit to the blue cloud in the most face-on quarter of GZ spirals ($\log(a/b) < 0.14$) – with the vertical dashed line indicating the 99.5th percentile magnitude (i.e. only 5 per cent of GZ spirals in this axial ratio bin have $r$-band magnitudes brighter than that). The dotted lines in the three panels showing more inclined spirals are the same quantities for those galaxies and illustrate the change in the shape of the CM diagram of spirals as they become more inclined.

However it has been observed that lower luminosity galaxies have more active recent star formation than high-mass galaxies even amongst spirals (e.g. Young 1999). Dust is destroyed over time (Draine & Salpeter 1979), so these hints in the downturn in the slope of reddening in the most luminous galaxies may be related to their lower levels of recent star formation.

Clearly the total reddening of a spiral galaxy with inclination is a complex mixture of it’s dust content (via its star formation history), physical size and dust geometry, all of which may depend on other global quantities such as luminosity, or morphological type. In order to understand dust attenuation we therefore argue a two-pronged approach is needed. Individual modelling of galaxies using multiwavelength data [from ultraviolet (UV) to FIR] is needed to shed light on the details of the dependence of dust on galaxy properties; while the kind of statistical approach used in this paper is needed to look at global trends in large samples of galaxies, and to provide empirical corrections of use to remove, at least to first order, the bias introduced into galaxy surveys from the inclination-dependent attenuation and reddening of spiral galaxies.

### 3.3 Galaxy Zoo red spirals

In Bamford et al. (2009), we discuss the existence of a large population of ‘red spirals’ detected in the GZ sample, i.e. galaxies with colours consistent with elliptical galaxies ($(u - r)$ colour greater than the dividing line in fig. 7(c) of Baldry et al. 2006) but with clear evidence of a disc and/or spiral arms. We revisit these ‘red spirals’ here mainly to note that the dividing line between ‘red’ and ‘blue’ changes as a function of the derived stellar mass of the galaxy, the
measurement of which can depend on spiral galaxy inclination. The presence of dust both increases the mass–light ratio (redder colours imply higher MIL) and decreases the luminosity (due to extinction) so a trade off exists as discussed by other authors (e.g. Driver et al. 2008; Maller et al. 2009). In Skibba et al. (2009), we presented the clustering of the red spirals [now selected from the $M_r$ versus $(g - r)$] colour–magnitude and examined the expected contamination of this sample by reddened edge–on spirals.

We emphasize that we still find a population of interesting ‘red spirals’. For example, we see face-on GZ spirals that are still redder than the normal colour dividing line between spirals and ellipticals (e.g. Fig. 11), and even the reddest edge-on spirals must be unusually passive unless they have significant amounts of dust. Furthermore, Bamford et al. (2009) demonstrated that the face-on red spirals have similar environmental dependencies as all red spirals (including the dust-reddened spirals). Masters et al. (2010) study in more details these intrinsically red spirals.

4 PHOTOMETRIC MODELS FOR DUST ATTENUATION IN SPIRAL GALAXIES

We next compare models for dust attenuation with our observed relations. There has been significant progress in modelling the attenuation of the total light from spiral galaxies as a function of inclination, and models continue to grow in complexity. Both Ferrara et al. (1999) and T04 provide models which allow the attenuation to be calculated for a spiral galaxy at any viewing angle and with a given bulge-to-disc ratio. For a history of dust modelling in spiral galaxies see the introduction of either T04 or Pierini et al. (2004). A more recent discussion of the T04 model can be found in Popescu & Tuffs (2009).

Here we compare our data to the T04 model. In this model, a galaxy can be constructed with any bulge–disc ratio. The attenuation of each of three components (a bulge, disc and thin disc) is provided as a functional fit with inclination at central optical depths in $B$ band of $\tau_B = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0$ or $8.0$. The different components are then combined in the appropriate fractions to give the total attenuation. The output of the T04 model is published in various UV bands, as well as $BVIJK$.

We linearly interpolate these results to the central wavelengths of the SDSS $ugriz$ bands (as recommended by Tuffs, private communication).

When attenuation curves are considered (i.e. attenuation as a function of inclination) the relative geometry of the dust and stars are just as important as the wavelength dependence of the extinction (which is ‘Milky Way like’ in T04). Details of the exact distributions and relative sizes of the diffuse stellar light and dust can be found in T04. For our application it is important to know that the relative geometry is fixed based on optical/NIR imaging of a small sample of edge-on galaxies (Xilouris et al. 1999), and that also the relative face-on $B$-band optical depth of the thick and thin discs is fixed at a ratio of 0.387 as measured for the edge-on galaxy NGC 891 (Popescu et al. 2000).

The free parameters are then the total face-on $B$-band opacity ($\tau = \tau_{\text{disc}} + \tau_{\text{thindisc}}$), how ‘clumpy’ the clumpy dust component is (expressed by the clumpiness factor $F$, for which a suggested value of $F = 0.22$ is given in T04 based on observations of NGC 891) and the inclination of the galaxy. The observed attenuation also depends on the observed bulge–disc ratio of the galaxy.

One final ingredient which will be important in comparing the T04 model to our data is the dependence of intrinsic axial ratio on the intrinsic bulge–disc ratio. Only in the case of an infinitely thin disc is the inclination related to the axial ratio by $\cos(i) = b/a$. In normal discs with an intrinsic axial ratio, $q$, the inclination is given by equation (1), and we expect that $q$ will increase monotonically with increasing bulge-disc ratio.

4.1 Direct comparison

In Fig. 13 we plot lines showing the dependence of the total reddening from edge-on to face-on with wavelength for the free parameters in the T04 model. The top panel is an illustration of the impact of changing the central $B$-band face-on opacity (in the case of a pure disc model (solid line) and a galaxy with a large bulge–disc ratio ($B/D = 6$, dot–dash line). In the middle panel the impact of changing the bulge–disc ratio from a pure disc galaxy through to large bulge–disc ratios for a model with $\tau_B^0 = 2$ is shown. In the bottom panel we show the impact on $(u - 2)$ reddening of the full range of possible values for the clumpiness factor $F$. This factor only affects the $u$ band in the SDSS filter.

Also plotted in Fig. 13 are fits to the observed total attenuations from Section 3. While the model can easily predict the attenuation in the optical colours, it is clear that the edge-on attenuation curve significantly overpredicts the observed edge-on $u$-band attenuation for reasonable values of the central $B$-band opacity. The $u$ band is the only SDSS band in which the thin disc contributes to the attenuation, which causes the attenuation to increase significantly only at inclinations where the thin disc is close to being viewed edge on. The exact wavelength transition between where the thin and thick discs are important is not well known. The T04 model can be modified to make the $u$ band be dominated by the thick disc (by multiplying the $B$-band output of the model by 1.267) and this provides a better fit to the GZ spirals (Tuffs & Popescu, private communication).

Figure 13. The average reddening $\lambda - z$ from face-on ($i = 0^\circ$) to edge-on ($i = 90^\circ$) from the models of T04. Top panel: the results for a pure disc model ($B/D = 0$, solid line) and a large bulge–disc ratio ($B/D = 6$; dot–dot-dash line) for central $B$-band face-on opacities of 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1, 2, 4 and 8 (from lower to upper). Middle panel: the results for varying the bulge-disc ratio from pure disc ($B/D = 0$) to large bulge-disc ratios (up to $B/D = 6$) when $\tau_B = 2$. Lower panel: the result of changing the clumpiness factor, $F$ with $\tau_B = 2$ and $B/T = 0.3$ (Sb-like spirals). Overlaid with symbols are the results of our fits to the ‘very bulgy’, ‘bulgy’, ‘discy’ and ‘pure disc’ subsets of the GZ spirals (circles, squares, triangles and stars, respectively; see Table 2).

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The (r – z) reddening as a function of observed axial ratio from the models of T04. Top panel: the results for a pure disc model (B/D = 0) for central B-band face-on opacities of 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1, 2, 4 and 8 (from lower to upper). Lower panel: the results for τ_B = 2 and B/T values of 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75 and 1.0.

We show Fig. 14 as an example of the effect of varying model parameters on the curves of optical reddening with axial ratio. We show this for a range of central B-band opacities (top panel) and for a range of bulge/disc ratios at τ_B = 2 (lower panel). It is interesting to note that while increasing the central opacity (or the total amount of dust) increases the total amount of attenuation significantly, the slope of the curve of attenuation with axial ratio does not change much. Unfortunately this is the main observable we are sensitive to (not knowing a priori the expected intrinsic colours of spiral galaxies), which (if the models are correct) will limit the information on τ_B which can be obtained from studying the inclination dependent optical attenuation of spiral galaxies (at least via colours). The effect of an increasing bulge/disc ratio increases the slope of the curve since at larger B/D more inclined galaxies have smaller axial ratios. Also striking is the downturn in attenuation at large inclinations when bulges are present (as discussed in T04).

The amount of face-on reddening from the T04 models is only a fraction of a magnitude even for τ_B = 8, showing that (even when the large trends of observed colour with axial ratio), dust reddening of face-on galaxies cannot be significant. The range in face-on colours predicted by T04 from central opacities varying from τ_B = 0 to 8 is also much smaller than the observed range of face-on colours of galaxies (e.g. Fig. 3). This illustrates that (if this model is correct) the colour of a face-on spiral galaxy is set by the intrinsic colour of its stellar population and not by the reddening effects of dust. This therefore shows (again if the T04 model is correct) that the face-on red spirals observed in GZ (Masters et al. 2010) must have intrinsically red colours from old stellar populations.

4.2 Monte Carlo realizations

To produce a fair comparison of our data with the models, we want to fully sample the intrinsic scatter in the properties of our GZ spirals. Therefore, we produce Monte Carlo realizations of the model attenuation curves in the SDSS bands based on reasonable assumptions about the galaxies. We use the correlations found in Section 2.4 between f_{D decks}, bulge-disc ratio, intrinsic axial ratio and face-on colour to construct Monte Carlo estimates of the distribution of observed colours from the T04 models.

The Monte Carlo ingredients are

1. τ_B – assumed to be Gaussian with a mean tailored to fit the data and standard deviation of 1;
2. F – has no effect on attenuation curves, so set to F = 0.22;
3. B/T – modelled using the observed distribution of f_{D decks} and the relation between f_{D decks} and B/T we find in Section 2.4 (adding in a scatter of 0.1 in B/T);
4. log(a/b) – from equation (1), assuming random inclinations and intrinsic axial ratios which depend on f_{D decks} as found in Section 2.4;
5. face-on colours – input as a function of f_{D decks} based on observed colours of face-on GZ spirals (Fig. 3).

We try various input values for τ_B. For low values of τ_B we do not reproduce the shape of the scatter in Fig. 2, which shows hints of a bimodal pattern, and has a long trail to the blue side. The scatter in the Monte Carlo is dominated by our input assumption of a Gaussian distribution of face-on colours, so this shows a more complicated distribution of face-on colours is needed. The interquartile ranges matches well at low inclinations (which is expected as this is an input based on the data) but at large inclinations – where the effect of the model start to dominate – the interquartile range it found to be too large in the u-band colour and too small in the optical colours. This suggests that our Monte Carlo using the T04 model predicts a larger range of UV reddening and a smaller range of optical reddening than is observed.

Fig. 15 shows our model Monte Carlo realizations for the reddening as a function of inclination with an input central face-on B-band opacity of τ_B = 4 ± 1. We pick this value of τ_B in part based on the τ_B = 3.8 ± 0.7 found by Driver et al. (2007) using the same T04 models and looking at the inclination dependence of the B-band luminosity function, but it does also appear to describe the observed trends well. We note here that comparisons of our data with this model are therefore implicitly also comparisons between the trends we present and those presented in Driver et al. (2008) which are based on the T04 model with this value of τ_B. We overplot (in orange) the binned real data and linear fit to that data. In purple, we show the same quantities but for the Monte Carlo realizations.

We split the sample by f_{D decks} as done in Section 3.1 (see Figs 10 and B1–B3 for the data). Here we just explore the two extreme subsets, the ‘pure discs’ (f_{D decks} < 0.1) and the ‘very bulgy’ (f_{D decks} > 0.9) spirals (see Figs C1 and C2). This split removes worries about the conversion between inclination and observed axial ratio, as all galaxies in these two extremes of bulge size should have similar observed axial ratios at a given inclination.

In summary we find that the model reproduces the observed trends surprisingly well, considering the number of fixed geometrical parameters (e.g. the relative size of the stellar and dust discs, bulge shape etc.) and agrees with the value of τ_B = 3.8 ± 0.7 (central optical depth) found by Driver et al. (2007) for the same models. However, the models overpredict the amount of u-band attenuation in edge-on galaxies while underpredicting in gri bands for any reasonable choice of central opacity and bulge-disc ratio.
Figure 15. Monte Carlo realization of the reddening in SDSS colours of 24,376 spiral galaxies based on the T04 model with \( \tau_B = 4 \pm 1 \). This figure should be compared to Fig. 9 which shows the same thing for the real data. We overplot in orange the median and interquartile range of the binned real data as well as a linear fit to the real data. In purple is shown the same thing for the Monte Carlo generated galaxies.

(but see previous comments about modifying the published model to better match our \( u \)-band data). This could point to an inadequacy of the Milky Way extinction law when applied to external galaxies, but more likely indicates that a wider range of model geometries needs to be allowed for. The relative geometry of the dust and stars is as important as total dust content when considering the integrated colours of galaxies, and may differ quite substantially among spirals. For example, Holwerda et al. (2009) study the dust distribution in a backlit galaxy observed with Advanced Camera for Surveys (ACS), and find it has a very extended dust distribution, clearly illustrating the limitations of using a fixed geometry for all galaxies. Witt, Thronson & Capuano (1992) show how very dusty galaxies can be quite blue if the stars extend well past the dust so that there is a blue contribution from the outer disc. The same effect might be observed if the dust is very patchy. The observed light will become progressively dominated by emission from stars in the clear regions as the wavelength shortens. This could easily explain the failure of the T04 model in the SDSS \( u \) band. The increased scatter in the reddening might also be related to the patchy distribution of dust in spiral arms and the expected variation of the relative orientation of spiral arms with the major axis of the inclined spiral.

5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We present here a careful study of 24,276 ‘well-resolved’ (significantly larger than the average SDSS seeing) spiral galaxies selected from the visual classifications of the GZ project. This sample avoids the effect of seeing on the axial ratios of these galaxies, thus allowing us to use them as a reliable proxy for inclination (see Fig. 1). We then study the properties of these spirals as a function of inclination to infer the effects of galactic dust on these properties. We also compare the data with the latest models for dust attenuation. Our major results and conclusions are the following.

(i) We find the SDSS parameter \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) (fraction of the light profile best fit by a de Vaucouleurs model) is a good candidate for estimating the bulge size (and thus spiral type) for our galaxies, and appears to be better than other morphological proxies commonly used in the literature (e.g. concentration has a significant dependence on axial ratio with more inclined spiral galaxies being more concentrated). By matching to a sample of MGC galaxies (with known \( B/T \) ratios) we find that \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) correlates with the bulge size with a linear relationship of \( f_{\text{DeV}} = 0.11(3) + 1.7(2)B/T \). As a confirmation of this result, we see that the face-on colours of GZ spirals show a clear trend with \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) such that galaxies with larger \( f_{\text{DeV}} \) are redder as expected for spirals with larger bulges (see Fig. 2).

(ii) We observe a clear correlation between the colours of our spirals and the inclination of the disc, i.e. those with larger axial ratios (more inclined) are on average redder than those which are viewed face-on (with small axial ratios). We have fit these relations and provide them in Section 3.1. We then use these fits to estimate the total average extinction of spiral galaxies from face-on to edge-on, which is 0.7, 0.6, 0.5, 0.4 mag in \( ugriz \) bands, respectively (assuming 0.3 mag of extinction in \( z \) band).

(iii) Using \( f_{\text{DeV}} \), we have split the spiral sample into ‘bulgy’ and ‘discy’ spirals (or early- and late-type spirals). We see that the average face-on colours of the ‘bulgy’ spirals are redder than the average edge-on colours of the ‘discy’ subsample [by as much at 0.3 mag in \( u-z \)]. Likewise, the scatter in colours seen in Figs 3 and 6 is slightly greater than the trends with inclination or increased reddening. Therefore we show that the colours of a spiral galaxy are set about equally by the bulge-to-disc ratio, or spiral type (via the stellar populations in the disc and bulge) and reddening as a function...
of inclination, due to dust. However we comment that dust effects are systematic with inclination and therefore need to be accounted for to make unbiased samples.

(iv) We explore the luminosity dependence of the reddening and show that the slope of the trend peaks in all types of spirals (as split by $f_{\text{PAV}}$) at around $M_\star \sim -21.5$. An increase in the slope with luminosity has been observed before (Giovanelli et al. 1995; Tully et al. 1998; Masters et al. 2003). An increase in dust content is expected for more luminous galaxies which have had more star formation over cosmic time and which also are physically larger and so their path lengths increase. A decrease of the trend for the most luminous has not been observed before, and is mostly likely caused by the lower levels of recent star formation which are observed in the most massive spirals (since dust is destroyed over time).

(v) We compare our data with state-of-the-art dust attenuation models from T04. We construct a Monte Carlo realization of the GZ spiral samples using reasonable estimates for the input range of inclinations (assumed to be random), bulge–disc ratios, intrinsic axial ratios and face-on colours (taken from the observed distribution of $f_{\text{PAV}}$). We find that the model reproduces the observed trends surprisingly well, considering the number of fixed geometrical parameters (e.g. the relative size of the stellar and dust discs, bulge shape etc.) and agrees with the value of $\tau_B = 3.8 \pm 0.7$ (central optical depth) found by Driver et al. (2007, 2008) for the same models. However, the models overpredict the amount of $u$-band attenuation in edge-on galaxies while underpredicting in $gri$ bands for any reasonable choice of central opacity and bulge–disc ratio. They also are not able to predict an increase in the range of the observed colours of galaxies with inclination. This could point to an inadequacy of the Milky Way extinction law when applied to external galaxies, but more likely indicates that a wider range of model geometries needs to be allowed for. In fact modifying the T04 model to make the $u$-band emission come from the thick disc instead of the thin disc does appear to fit our data better (Tuffs & Popescu, private communication).

We end by emphasizing the effect of inclination (and dust) on present and future large galaxy surveys. As shown, the presence of dust in a galaxy both redens and dimms the emitted light, and this effect clearly increases for inclined spirals. This impacts any measurements based on the magnitudes and colours of galaxies, like stellar mass estimates, but more crucially can cause systematic incompletenesses in galaxy survey. In the era of high precision clustering measurements from galaxies (e.g. Percival et al. 2009), such effects could become important to ensure a fair sample of galaxies is obtained, e.g. both volume- and mass-limited samples will miss faint (low mass) inclined spirals which fall below the selection criteria because of dust extinction. This could induce small bias in the measurements of scale-dependent biasing of galaxies as the mass of spirals is correlated with environment (and preferentially in the field compared to ellipticals).

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APPENDIX A: CONCENTRATION AND LIGHT PROFILE SHAPE VERSUS GALAXY ZOO MORPHOLOGIES

Without access to GZ, or other visual classifications for the huge number of galaxies in SDSS it has become common practice to use concentration or other structural parameters (for example $f_{\text{DeV}}$ which describes the fraction of the light profile best fit by a de Vaucouleurs profile as opposed to an exponential profile) as a way to separate early- and late-type galaxies. In this appendix we show the relation between these two structural parameters and visual classifications from GZ as a guide to ease comparisons between samples split using concentration or $f_{\text{DeV}}$ and GZ morphologies.

The first large comparison of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ and concentration versus morphology in SDSS galaxies can be found in Strateva et al. (2001). There a sample of 287 visual classified galaxies and 500 spectrally classified galaxies were considered. Shimasaku et al. (2001) performed a similar study using a sample of 456 bright galaxies. Both of these papers prefer the use of concentration ($c = r_{90}/r_{50}$) as a morphological separator over $f_{\text{DeV}}$. Strateva et al. (2001) recommend $c \sim 2.6$ as a separator, while Shimasaku et al. (2001) prefer $c \sim 3$. Both papers warn over the use of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ which in the brightest galaxies is dominated by the inner light profile shape. This means that large nearby spirals with bulges can have much larger values of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ than if the fit were averaged over the whole galaxy. Nevertheless $f_{\text{DeV}}$ has become a common parameter used as a proxy for morphology (e.g. Unterborn & Ryden 2008; Maller et al. 2009) perhaps because of the recognition that inclined spirals are more concentrated than those viewed face-on (Maller et al. 2009, and see Section 2.4).

Fig. A1 shows the fraction of the ‘clean’ GZ sample (i.e. those galaxies with very reliable spiral or elliptical classifications; $p_{\text{srum}} > 0.8$ or $p_{\text{all}} > 0.8$) which are spirals (blue line) or ellipticals (red lines) as a function of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ or concentration. We see that while it is true that most ellipticals have $f_{\text{DeV}} \sim 1$, many GZ spirals also have quite large values of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ (as is also evident in Figs 2 and 4 in Section 2.4). The lower panel shows the same fractions versus concentration and shows that the sample is dominated by spirals for $c < 2.7–2.8$ and ellipticals at larger concentrations, but that there are still significant numbers of galaxies with very reliable spiral classifications from GZ (recall these all have $p_{\text{srum}} > 0.8$) with relatively large concentrations.

Fig. A2 shows the cumulative fractions of samples of early types or spirals selected by limits on $f_{\text{DeV}}$ or concentration. Again red and
blue lines show the fractions for the early types and spirals, respectively. For example for an $f_{\text{DCV}}$ separator of 0.5 (as recommended by Strateva et al. 2001) this figure shows that roughly 90 per cent of the early types are found, and 65 per cent of the spirals. The dotted lines show the percent early type or spiral contamination in the samples. For this same example 45 per cent of the ‘early types’ found by $f_{\text{DCV}} > 0.5$ are GZ spirals, while 5 per cent of the ‘spirals’ found by $f_{\text{DCV}} < 0.5$ are GZ early types. In the terminology of

![Figure B1](https://academic.oup.com/mnras/article-abstract/404/2/792/967575)

**Figure B1.** The trend of $u-z$ colour for GZ spirals separated into rough spiral types using the $f_{\text{DCV}}$ parameter as indicated in the panels. As in Fig. 9, the grey-scale contours indicate the locus of galaxies, while overlayed are the median and interquartile range of data binned in $\log(a/b)$.

![Figure B2](https://academic.oup.com/mnras/article-abstract/404/2/792/967575)

**Figure B2.** The trend of $r-z$ colour for GZ spirals separated into rough spiral types using the $f_{\text{DCV}}$ parameter as indicated in the panels. As in Fig. 9, the grey-scale contours indicate the locus of galaxies, while overlayed are the median and interquartile range of data binned in $\log(a/b)$. 

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Strateva et al. (2001) this shows the completeness and 100 per cent minus the reliability of the samples, and at given values of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ or concentration can be compared directly with the values in their tables 2 and 3.

We find that $f_{\text{DeV}}$ is never a very reliable indicator of early types. The highest reliability which can be found is for $f_{\text{DeV}} \geq 1$ in which roughly 70 per cent of the GZ early types are found, and the contamination by spiral types is 25 per cent. Furthermore, GZ

**Figure B3.** The trend of $i - z$ colour for GZ spirals separated into rough spiral types using the $f_{\text{DeV}}$ parameter as indicated in the panels. As in Fig. 9, the grey-scale contours indicate the locus of galaxies, while overlayed are the median and interquartile range of data binned in log($a/b$).

**Figure C1.** As Fig. 15, but only for galaxies with $f_{\text{DeV}} < 0.1$ – or ‘pure disc’ spirals. Model parameters and Monte Carlo inputs are identical to that used for the full sample of GZ spirals.
spiral galaxies with large values of $f_{\text{DeV}}$ are not always bright nearby galaxies as found by Strateva et al. (2001). We find GZ spirals with large $f_{\text{DeV}}$ at the faintest magnitudes and largest redshifts in the GZ ‘clean’ sample ($r \sim 17.7$ or $g \sim 19$, and $z \sim 0.25$). On the other hand $f_{\text{DeV}}$ can be used fairly safely to identify spiral galaxies. Any cut on $f_{\text{DeV}} < 0.6$ or so results in a sample which is 95 per cent GZ spirals and depending on the exact cut will have up to 70 per cent of the spirals. The most stringent cuts will miss large fractions of the spiral population, and (based on Fig. 4) will preferentially select later and later type spirals (i.e. with smaller bulges). For example Unterborn & Ryden (2008) use $f_{\text{DeV}} < 0.1$ to select only the very latest type spirals, but we argue that even $f_{\text{DeV}} < 0.5$ will miss the earliest spirals with the largest bulges.

Selecting early types by concentration is also shown to be tricky. The $c > 2.6$ suggested by Strateva et al. (2001) finds roughly 90 per cent of the GZ early types, but also results in a high contamination by GZ spirals (roughly 45 per cent). Many of these very concentrated spirals are likely to be edge-on and reddened, so an additional colour cut is unlikely to remove all of them without also a limit on the axial ratio (as also suggested by Maller et al. 2009). Using $c < 3$ as suggested by Shimamasu et al. (2001) finds 55 per cent of the early types, but results in a sample which is 25 per cent spiral. We find again that using concentration cuts to find spirals is more reliable, $c < 3$ finds 95 per cent of the GZ spirals with 20 per cent contamination by early types, while $c < 2.6$ finds 75 per cent of the spirals with a 10 per cent contamination.

With the large samples of galaxies now available (and planned in the future) there will always be a place for dividing galaxies in late/early subsets using structural parameters. In this appendix we hope to have given greater insight into the levels of completeness and reliability which can be expected when using $f_{\text{DeV}}$ and concentration ($r_{\text{90}}/r_{\text{50}}$) from SDSS to do this. With GZ2 data we will be able to further study this – looking at the types of spirals which end up contaminating the early-type subsets.

APPENDIX B: TRENDS OF SDSS COLOURS:
EXTRA FIGURES

We show here the trends of the $u-z$, $r-z$ and $i-z$ colours with axial ratio where the GZ spirals have been split into rough spiral types using the SDSS parameter $f_{\text{DeV}}$(Figs B1–B3). This is described in Section 3.1.1 of the text; the $g-z$ colour trends are shown in Fig. 10.

APPENDIX C: MONTE CARLO FITS:
EXTRA FIGURES

We show here in Figs C1 and C2 the results for Monte Carlo realizations of the data split into subsamples by $f_{\text{DeV}}$. Details are described in Section 4.1, and the results for the whole GZ spiral sample are shown in Fig. 15.

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