EXTENDING THE NEARBY GALAXY HERITAGE WITH WISE: FIRST RESULTS FROM THE WISE ENHANCED RESOLUTION GALAXY ATLAS

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ABSTRACT

The Wide-field Infrared Survey Explorer (WISE) mapped the entire sky at mid-infrared wavelengths 3.4 \( \mu \text{m} \), 4.6 \( \mu \text{m} \), 12 \( \mu \text{m} \), and 22 \( \mu \text{m} \). The mission was primarily designed to extract point sources, leaving resolved and extended sources, for the most part, unexplored. Accordingly, we have begun a dedicated WISE Enhanced Resolution Galaxy Atlas (WHERGA) project to fully characterize large, nearby galaxies and produce a legacy image atlas and source catalog. Here we demonstrate the first results of the WHERGA project for a sample of 17 galaxies, chosen to be of large angular size, diverse morphology, and covering a range in color, stellar mass, and star formation. It includes many well-studied galaxies, such as M 51, M 81, M 87, M 83, M 101, and IC 342. Photometry and surface brightness decomposition is carried out after special super-resolution processing, achieving spatial resolutions similar to that of Spitzer Infrared Array Camera. The enhanced resolution method is summarized in the first paper of this two-part series. In this second work, we present WISE, Spitzer, and Galaxy Evolution Explorer (GALEX) photometric and characterization measurements for the sample galaxies, combining the measurements to study the global properties. We derive star formation rates using the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon sensitive 12 \( \mu \text{m} \) (W3) fluxes, warm-dust sensitive 22 \( \mu \text{m} \) (W4) fluxes, and young massive-star sensitive ultraviolet (UV) fluxes. Stellar masses are estimated using the 3.4 \( \mu \text{m} \) (W1) and 4.6 \( \mu \text{m} \) (W2) measurements that trace the dominant stellar mass content. We highlight and showcase the detailed results of M 83, comparing the WISE/Spitzer results with the Australia Telescope Compact Array H i gas distribution and GALEX UV emission, tracing the evolution from gas to stars. In addition to the enhanced images, WISE’s all-sky coverage provides a tremendous advantage over Spitzer for building a complete nearby galaxy catalog, tracing both stellar mass and star formation histories. We discuss the construction of a complete mid-infrared catalog of galaxies and its complementary role of studying the assembly and evolution of galaxies in the local universe.

Key words: galaxies: fundamental parameters – galaxies: statistics – infrared: galaxies – surveys – techniques: image processing

Online-only material: color figures

1. INTRODUCTION

Galaxies are the basic building blocks of the baryonic universe, self-contained laboratories for studying the complexity and sustainability of converting gas into stars. Comprising the local universe, nearby galaxies represent a fossil record of galaxy evolution, the boundary condition for cosmological models that explain past and current states of the universe. Although galaxies come in all shapes, sizes, mass, and morphological cases, the physics governing their structure and evolution should be elemental: we expect that the gravitational collapse of the interstellar medium (ISM, i.e., gas) to form new stars is held in check by angular momentum and the energetic “feedback” from recently formed hot massive stars, supernova explosions, and active nuclei. However, even the basic processes in this evolution are poorly understood, leaving major questions unanswered, including the following. What is the relationship between the density of the ISM and the amount of stars formed? What governs the mass spectrum of stars formed in a single event? How does the internal mass distribution within a galaxy affect its distribution of ISM and star formation? What role does the dominant mass constituent, i.e., the dark matter, play? Probing galactic structure and star formation history requires understanding the distribution of stars and gas among galaxies of all types and luminosities across a complete range of environments.

The modern study of nearby galaxies is characterized by multi-wavelength sensing that probes the diverse physical processes that drive galaxy evolution. Each window of the...
electromagnetic spectrum, from the radio to the X-ray, provides a complementary set of tools that, in combination, reveal the internal life cycle of galaxies. The infrared (IR) window, for example, has dual capability: sensitive to stellar light from the evolved population of stars and relatively low-temperature processes from the ISM and star formation regions. It is ideally suited for studying the stellar mass distribution and obscured star formation history in galaxies. The Spitzer Infrared Nearby Galaxies Survey (SINGS; Kennicutt et al. 2003) represents the most complete study of nearby galaxies, employing every IR instrument of Spitzer to study in detail the properties of 75 nearby “representative” galaxies. With imaging only, a larger sample is found in the SINGS follow-up project, Local Volume Legacy (LVL). In progress, the Spitzer Survey of Stellar Structure in Galaxies (S4G; Sheth et al. 2010) expands the sample to several thousand galaxies through the two short (near-IR) wavelength bands of Infrared Array Camera (IRAC; 3.6 and 4.5 μm), focusing on the internal stellar structure of galaxies.

Following closely in succession to the AKARI all-sky survey (Murakami et al. 2007), the Wide-field Infrared Survey Explorer (WISE; Wright et al. 2010) is the latest generation infrared space telescope. As with AKARI but unlike Spitzer, it was designed and implemented to map the entire sky. It was thus capable of constructing large, diverse, and complete statistical samples. In common with Spitzer imaging, it has both near- and mid-IR channels, sensitive to both stellar structure (as with S4G) and interstellar processes (as with SINGS). The WISE All Sky Data Release of 2012 March is available through the Infrared Science Archive (IRSA),15 and includes imaging and source catalog. It should be emphasized that the WISE Source Catalog is designed, optimized, and calibrated for point sources. The complexity of detecting and measuring resolved sources was beyond the resources of the WISE Science Data Center (WSDC) processing. As a consequence, the WISE archive and public-release catalogs have either completely missed nearby galaxies or, even worse, their integrated fluxes are systematically underestimated (because they are measured as point sources) and often chopped into smaller pieces. However, the WISE public-release imaging products do capture resolved and complex objects. One of the goals of this current study is to use new image products to characterize and assess the quality of source extraction for resolved galaxies observed by WISE.

This present work demonstrates how WISE imaging can be utilized to study nearby galaxies by focusing on a sample of large, well-studied galaxies. Notably, we apply a technique to enhance the spatial resolution of WISE, known as the Maximum Correlation Method (MCM; Masci & Fowler 2009), extracting information on physical scales comparable to those of Spitzer imaging, thereby enabling detailed study of the internal anatomy of galaxies. The WISE-designed MCM method is summarized in Jarrett et al. (2012, hereafter referred to as Paper I), and its performance is demonstrated using both simulations and real WISE imaging of the spiral galaxy NGC 1566. The interested reader should refer to Paper I for more details on WISE imaging and the MCM. One of the goals of this current study is to use new image products to characterize and assess the quality of source extraction for resolved galaxies observed by WISE. We apply image resolution enhancement and compare the resulting measurements with those extracted using Spitzer imaging.

The modest sample presented in this work represents the pilot study of the more complete WISE Enhanced Resolution Galaxy Atlas (WERGA), consisting of several thousand nearby galaxies. The WERGA will comprise a complete mid-IR source catalog and high-resolution image Atlas of the largest (diameter >1′) angular-sized galaxies in the local universe. The galaxies that have an optical or near-IR angular diameter greater than 2′ will undergo special MCM processing in which super-resolution methods are used to create the highest angular (spatial) resolution WISE images, comparable to the spatial resolution of Spitzer/IRAC and Spitzer/MIPS-24, while the remaining sources will be co-added using a “drizzle” method that significantly improves upon the nominal WISE co-added imaging.16 Source characterization and extraction will be carried out with these enhanced images, comprising a source catalog that will be part of a public release through NASA Extragalactic Database (NED).

We have chosen a sample of nearby galaxies all observed by Spitzer and Galaxy Evolution Explorer (GALEX), to focus on the detailed WISE performance relative to these missions. We introduce the sample in Section 2 and the observations and data in Section 3. In Section 4 we present the results and performance, starting with a case study of early-type galaxies with their fossilized stellar populations, and then for the entire sample that consists of a diverse galaxy “zoo,” comparing and contrasting the photometric results of WISE with those of Spitzer and IRAS (additional details are provided in Appendices A–D). Section 5 presents a detailed source characterization study of star-forming galaxy M 83 (NGC 5236), comparing WISE with Spitzer, GALEX, and radio observations. In Sections 6 and 7 we present the star formation rates (SFRs) and stellar mass estimation, respectively, derived from the global ultraviolet (UV) and IR photometry, demonstrating the capabilities of WISE to study these two important components of galaxy evolution. Finally, in Appendix D, we discuss ongoing work in building the WERGA. The legacy value of these high-resolution images will span decades. WISE is likely to be the most sensitive mid-IR all-sky survey available for many years to come.

All reported magnitudes are in the Vega System (unless otherwise specified). Conversion to the monochromatic AB system entails an additional 2.699, 3.339, 5.174, and 6.620 mag added to the Vega magnitudes for W1, W2, W3, and W4, respectively (Jarrett et al. 2011).

2. THE SAMPLE

The sample selection was driven by the primary science goal of this study: to demonstrate the scientific performance of extended source characterization using WISE imaging. The photometric performance is assessed by comparison with Spitzer measurements, both from the literature and from this study. We therefore require that the sample have previous, high-quality observations from Spitzer/IRAC and MIPS-24 imaging. Moreover, the sample should consist of galaxies of various morphologies, orientations and sizes, including a few large cases (e.g., M 83) to study their internal anatomy.

As such, we have chosen a total of 17 galaxies for this pilot study, presented in Table 1. The bulge-dominated elliptical galaxies in this sample, NGC 584, NGC 777, and NGC 4486 (M 87), can be simply modeled due to their fossilized population, and thus provide a test case of photometric calibration, color, and aperture corrections. The grand design spirals, NGC 628, M 81, M 51, M 83, M 101, NGC 6946, and IC 342,
all possess strong ISM and star formation emission detected in the WISE long-wavelength channels of 12 and 22 μm. Strong nuclear starburst emitting galaxies are included in the form of NGC 1566, NGC 6946, and IC 342. The interacting system, M 51, consisting of a late-type spiral and early-type elliptical galaxy, represents a challenging case for deblending the photometric components. Edge-on disk galaxy, NGC 5907, clearly resembles the transverse bulge and halo components. In addition, the flocculent disk galaxy, NGC 2403, and ringed-spiral galaxy NGC 1398 are included. Finally, the Magellanic barred galaxy, NGC 5194 (M 51a) and NGC 5195 (M 51b) are assigned using these morphologies. 

### Table 1

| Name          | Distance (Mpc) | Type          | $\log M_{\text{HI}}$ ($\log M_\odot$) | Field Size (″) | Reference | Comment           |
|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------------------------------|----------------|-----------|--------------------|
| NGC 584       | 19.0           | E4            | ...                                   | 10             | 1         | IRAC flux calibrator; SINGS galaxy |
| NGC 628 (M 74)| 8.2            | SA(s)c        | 9.91                                  | 23             | 2,3       | SINGS galaxy      |
| NGC 777       | 54.5           | E1 Sy2        | ...                                   | 10             | 4         | IRAC flux calibrator |
| NGC 1398      | 20.5           | SB(r)ab       | 9.46                                  | 12             | 5, 6      | S4G galaxy        |
| NGC 1566      | 9.5            | SAB(s)bc Sy1.5| 9.99                                  | 15             | 4,5,6     | SINGS galaxy      |
| NGC 2403      | 3.6            | SAB(s)cd      | 9.32                                  | 25             | 4,5,6     | SINGS galaxy      |
| NGC 3031 (M 81)| 3.7              | SA(s)ab      | 8.93                                  | 43             | 7,8       | Bode’s Galaxy; SINGS galaxy |
| NGC 4486 (M 87)| 16.7            | E0 pec; Sy    | ...                                   | 30             | 20        | Virgo A           |
| NGC 5194 (M 51a)| 8.4             | SA(s)bc pec   | 10.01                                 | 20             | 5         | SINGS galaxy      |
| NGC 5195 (M 51b)| 8.4             | SB0 pec       | ...                                   | 20             | 5         | SINGS galaxy      |
| NGC 5236 (M 83)| 4.7             | SAB(s)c       | 9.92                                  | 17             | 2,5,9     | Southern Pinwheel Galaxy |
| NGC 5457 (M 101)| 7.2             | SAB(rs)cd     | 10.30                                 | 33             | 9,10,11   | Pinwheel Galaxy   |
| NGC 5907      | 16.5           | SA(s)c        | 10.39                                 | 30             | 4, 5,12,13| Edge-on disk       |
| NGC 6118      | 23.1           | SA(s)cd       | 9.58                                  | 10             | 5         | S4G galaxy        |
| NGC 6822      | 0.5            | IB(s)m        | 8.16                                  | 30             | 5,6,14,15| Barnard’s Galaxy; SINGS galaxy |
| NGC 6946      | 6.1            | SAB(s)cd      | 10.10                                 | 23             | 5, 16,17  | Fireworks Galaxy; SINGS galaxy |
| IC 342        | 3.1            | SAB(s)cd; Sy-2| 9.71                                  | 27             | 5, 18,19  | Nuclear starburst  |

References. (1) Tonry et al. 2001; (2) Herrmann et al. 2008; (3) Briggs 1982; (4) Willick et al. 1997; (5) Tully 1988; (6) Tully et al. 2009; (7) Kilborn et al. 2005; (8) Kanbur et al. 2003; (9) Chynoweth et al. 2009; (10) Huchtmeier & Bohnensiegengel 1981; (11) Paturel et al. 2002; (12) Rosgstad & Shostak 1971; (13) Shang et al. 1998; (14) Sancisi & van Albada 1987; (15) Clementini et al. 2003; (16) Cannon et al. 2006; (17) Poznanski et al. 2009; (18) Boomsma et al. 2008; (19) Cushing et al. 2000; (20) Saha et al. 2002; (20) Larsen et al. 2001).

3. OBSERVATIONS, CALIBRATION, AND SOURCE CHARACTERIZATION METHOD

3.1. WISE Observations

The NASA-funded Medium-Class Explorer mission, WISE, consists of a 40 cm primary-mirror space infrared telescope, whose science instrumentation includes $1024\times1024$ pixel Si:As and HgCdTe arrays, cooled with a two-stage solid hydrogen cryostat. Dichroic beam splitters allow simultaneous images in four mid-IR bands, each covering a 47 μm IR bands. The duty cycle was 11 s, achieved using a scan mirror that stabilizes the line of sight while the spacecraft scans the sky, achieving an angular resolution of ~6″ in the short bandpasses and ~12″ in the longest bandpass. Multiple, overlapping frames are combined to form deeper co-added images. Launched in 2009 December into a Sun-synchronous polar orbit, over a time span of eight months WISE completed its primary mission to survey the entire sky in the 3.4, 4.6, 12, and 22 μm IR bands with 5σ point-source sensitivities of at least 0.08, 0.11, 0.8, and 4 mJy, respectively (Wright et al. 2010) and considerably deeper sensitivities at higher ecliptic latitudes (Jarrett et al. 2011).
Figure 1. WISE montage of nearby galaxies, showing resolution-enhanced images of the sample galaxies (Table 1). The colors correspond to WISE bands: 3.4 μm (blue), 4.6 μm (cyan/green), 12.0 μm (orange), and 22 μm (red).

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)
Detailed in the WISE Explanatory Supplement (Cutri et al. 2011),17 “Atlas” Images are created from single-exposure frames that touch a predefined 1.56 × 1.56 footprint on the sky. For each band, a spatially registered image is produced by interpolating and co-adding multiple 7.7/8.8 s single-exposure images onto the image footprint. To suppress copious cosmic rays and other transient events that populate the single-exposure frames, time-variant pixel outlier rejection is used during the co-addition process. The resulting sky intensity “Atlas” mosaics are 4095 × 4095 pixels with 1.375 pixel−1 scale, providing a 1.56 × 1.56 wide field. In addition to the sky intensity mosaics, 1σ uncertainty maps (tracking the error in intensity values) and depth-of-coverage maps are part of the standard products. The number of frames that are co-added depends on the field location relative to the ecliptic: Those near the equator will have the lowest coverage (typically 12–14 frames), while those near the poles have the highest coverage (≫1000 frames).

For the nominal WISE survey, the co-addition process uses a resampling method based on a matched filter derived from the WISE point-spread function (PSF). It is designed to optimize detection of point sources, the prime objective of the WISE survey. But this interpolation method tends to smear the images, making them less optimal for detection and characterization of resolved sources. Hence, for the WERGA, we have created new mosaics using a resampling kernel that enhances angular resolution, known as Variable-Pixel Linear Reconstruction, or “drizzling,” improving the spatial resolution performance compared with nominal WISE Atlas Images by ∼30%–40%, depending on the depth of coverage. Most importantly, we employ a deconvolution technique known as the MCM (Masri & Fowler 2009), which can improve the resolution by a factor of three to four (see Paper I).

3.2. Spitzer Observations

The bulk of our sample is from the SINGS, LVL, and S4G projects (see Table 1), which have provided enhanced-quality spectroscopy and imaging mosaics. For those galaxies that are not from SINGS or S4G, we have obtained the Spitzer Heritage Archive,19 curated by IRSA.

Here we have used the Spitzer pipeline-produced post-basic-calibrated-data (pbcds) IRAC and MIPS mosaics. Analysis for many of these galaxies have been published, including NGC 777 (IRAC Instrument Handbook), NGC 4486 (Shi et al. 2007), M 83 (Dong et al. 2008), M 101 (Gordon et al. 2008), and IC 342 (Spitzer Infrared Spectrograph (IRS) spectra from Brandl et al. 2006). For IC 342, we used a combination of both the short and long exposures (also known as high-dynamic range, or HDR observations) because the bright nucleus saturated in the long-exposure IRAC-1 and IRAC-2 imaging. The resultant saturation-corrected images have a larger flux uncertainty due to this “grafting” process.

For IRAC, aperture corrections are required to correct the photometry of extended sources (e.g., galaxies) whose absolute calibration is tied to point sources with the use of finite aperture. These corrections not only account for the “extended” emission from the PSF outer wings (that is outside of the finite calibration aperture), but also from the scattering of the diffuse emission across the IRAC focal plane (see Reach et al. 2005; IRAC Instrument Handbook). For large apertures, the corrections are roughly 8%, 5%, 23%, and 25% for IRAC 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively. For MIPS-24, the photometric calibration uses an “infinite” aperture calibration, and hence aperture corrections are generally only needed for small apertures (relative to the size of the object being measured; see the MIPS Instrument Handbook). We do, however, apply a small color correction (∼4%) for the most spectrally “red” galaxies, as recommended and tabulated in the MIPS Instrument Handbook. Further details of the Spitzer photometry and comparison to WISE is presented in Appendix A.

3.3. GALEX Observations and Measurements

GALEX FUV (0.1516 μm) and NUV (0.2267 μm) images were obtained from the GALEX Medium Imaging Survey (MIS; Martin et al. 2005), which were processed using the standard GALEX pipeline (Morrisey et al. 2005, 2007). The MIS reaches a limiting NUV magnitude of 23 (AB mag) through multiple eclipse exposures that are typically 1 ks or greater in duration, while azimuthal averaging reaches surface brightness depths of ∼30–31 mag arcsec−2 (AB mag).

In order to carry out source characterization measurements, foreground stars were identified and removed from the GALEX

17 http://wise2.ipac.caltech.edu/docs/release/allsky/
18 http://data.spitzer.caltech.edu/popular/sings/20070410_enhanced_v1/
19 http://sha.ipac.caltech.edu/applications/Spitzer/SHA/
20 http://spider.ipac.caltech.edu/staff/jarrett/irac/calibration/ext_apercorr.html
images. Aperture photometry was then carried out on the images using an elliptical annulus to determine the median background and a nested set of elliptical apertures to perform a curve of growth analysis. The reported integrated flux is taken from the aperture that corresponds to the RC3 D25 diameter, whose isophote has a typical UV surface brightness of 30 mag arcsec$^{-2}$. Further details are presented in Appendix B.

3.4. Optical Imaging

For the M 83 analysis, we compare with optical Hα and B-band imaging. The Hα (0.657 μm) imaging was extracted from NED and derived from Meurer et al. (2006), who used the CTIO 1.5 m to obtain Hα(+ continuum) and R-band imaging. The continuum-subtracted Hα image has a seeing FWHM of 1′/2. The B band (0.44 μm) was acquired with the IMACS instrument aboard the 6.5 m Baade Telescope of the Carnegie Observatory in Las Campanas on 2011 May 29, and was kindly provided by B. Madore (Carnegie). It has a seeing FWHM of 0.5′, representing the highest angular resolution imaging of M 83 that is presented in this work.

3.5. WISE Calibration and Aperture Corrections

The WISE photometric calibration, described in detail by Jarrett et al. (2011), relies upon stars that are located at both ecliptic poles and are common to the Spitzer, AKARI, and Midcourse Space Experiment (MSX) infrared missions. The stars are well-characterized K-M giants, which have a profile that follows a Rayleigh-Jeans (R-J) distribution, $F_{\nu} \sim \nu^2$, at mid-IR wavelengths. WISE measures the fluxes of stars using optimal profile (PSF) fitting, and the calibration zero-point magnitude is derived from these measurements of the calibration stars. The uncertainty in the zero-point flux-to-magnitude conversion is about 1.5% for all bands. Both the nature of the calibration stars and the method used to measure their flux have important implications toward photometric calibration of extended sources.

There are three different kinds of corrections that are required for aperture photometry measurements using WISE co-added mosaics. The first is an aperture correction that accounts for the WISE absolute photometric calibration method using PSF profile fitting. Similar to the Spitzer aperture correction (Reach et al. 2005), for large aperture measurements of WISE images the resulting integrated fluxes must be reduced by a small amount to be consistent with the standard photometric calibration. The All Sky Release Image Atlas requires the following corrections (mag units): 0.034, 0.041, −0.030, and 0.029 mag for W 1, W 2, W 3, and W 4, respectively, which are to be added to the measured magnitudes. The uncertainty in these aperture corrections is ∼1%.

The second correction is a “color correction” that accounts for the spectral signature of the source convolved with the WISE relative system response (RSR). For sources with a constant mid-IR power-law spectrum ($F_{\nu} \sim \nu^\beta$), the standard zero magnitude flux density, $F_{\nu,0}$, provides the conversion from WISE magnitudes to flux density, namely 309.54, 171.79, 31.64, and 8.63 Jy for W 1, W 2, W 3, and W 4, respectively. If the source has a spectrum that steeply rises in the mid-IR (e.g., dusty star-forming galaxies), a color correction is required, especially for W 3 due to its wide bandpass. For example, star-forming galaxies typically have a spectral shape index that is 1 or 2 (e.g., $F_{\nu} \sim \nu^{-2}$), and thus require a color correction that is roughly −9% in W 3. In this case, the zero magnitude flux density is 306.68, 170.66, 29.05, and 8.28 Jy, for W 1, W 2, W 3, and W 4, respectively. The color correction tables and details are given in Wright et al. (2010) and in the WISE Explanatory Supplement. Section IV.4.h. We apply this color correction to our WISE photometry based on the WISE color and the Hubble type of the galaxy; note that for bands W 1, W 2, and W 4, this corrections is always very small, ∼1%; but as noted in the above example, for W 3 it can be as large as 9%.

The third correction is related to a calibration discrepancy between the WISE photometric standard “blue” stars and “red” galaxies (e.g., active galactic nuclei (AGNs) and star-forming galaxies). For the W 4 measurements, sources with rising spectrum in the mid-IR, $F_{\nu} \sim \nu^{-2}$, appear brighter than sources that are dominated by R-J emission, corresponding to the standard stars used to calibrate WISE photometry. This discrepancy is likely related to an error in the W 4 RSR, as described in Wright et al. (2010) and Jarrett et al. (2011). Based on work summarized in Jarrett et al. (2011), we have adopted a factor of 0.92 correction to the W 4 flux of all of our galaxies, except those dominated by the old stellar population (NGC 584, NGC 777, M 87, and NGC 6822) in which case no flux correction is needed. In general, we recommend that this 8% flux correction be applied to all spiral and disk galaxies: translating to WISE colors: (W 2 − W 3) > 1.3 mag. Conversely, it should not be applied to those that with bulge-dominated populations: (W 2 − W 3) < 1.3 mag. The photometric uncertainty in W 4 measurements due to this RSR correction is likely to be at the 3%−5% level.

3.6. Infrared Source Characterization

Basic measurements including position, size, extent, and integrated flux are carried out for all galaxies in the sample, for both WISE and Spitzer imaging sets. As with the IRAC imaging, the WISE MCM-HiRes imaging allows more detailed measurements, including the surface brightness distribution, total flux, effective or half-light radius and surface brightness, concentration metrics, and bulge-to-disk separation. We have adapted tools and algorithms from the Two Micron All Sky Survey (2MASS) Extended Source Catalog (XSC) pipeline (Jarrett et al. 2000) and the WISE Photometry System (Cutri et al. 2011), developing an interactive system that is used to identify foreground (contaminant) stars and assist in shape/extent characterization, surface brightness, and integrated flux measurements. It also assists in deblending close galaxy pairs (e.g., M 51, presented below).

The interactive steps are as follows: (1) display images (four bands), including an RGB-color image; (2) identify foreground stars for removal (using colors and proximity to spiral arms); (3) demarcate the central location, size and shape of galaxy (used as a first guess to the two-dimensional fitting routines); and (4) demarcate the location for estimation of the local background. The annulus should be well outside the influence of the galaxy. These initial inputs are supplied to the source characterization processor that carries out the measurements.

For each band, the local background is determined from the pixel value distribution within an elliptical annulus centered on the galaxy. Stars are excluded from the distribution through masking. The histogram mode—most common binned histogram value—is a robust metric for the “sky,” and thus is adopted as the local background value. The local background for each band is then removed from the mosaic images. Stars

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21 http://wise2.ipac.caltech.edu/docs/release/allsky/expsup/
are then removed by subtracting them using the WISE PSF appropriate for each band. For sources that do not subtract well (due to strong background gradients), the regions are masked and then recovered using local background and isophotal substitution extracted from the galaxy ellipsoid model. With stars removed, the next step is to determine the size and shape of the galaxy. The best-fit axis ratio and ellipticity are determined using the 3σ isophote. The previous steps are then repeated using the updated galaxy shape, and the process is iterated several times until convergence.

The next set of steps is designed to characterize the surface brightness distribution, beginning with the azimuthal-averaged elliptical–radial surface brightness profile, ultimately bounded by the location of the background annulus. The adopted 1σ elliptical isophotal radius then corresponds to the 1σ (sky rms) isophote for each band. WISE W1 (3.4 μm) is the most sensitive for nearly all types of galaxies and thus has the largest isophotal radius; e.g., it is typically much larger, 3–4 ×, than in the 2MASS K_s band. Depending on the total coverage (and hence, depth), the typical 1σ isophotal surface brightness is 23.0, 21.8, 18.1, and 15.8 mag arcsec^{-2} (Vega), respectively, for W1, W2, W3, and W4 bands. The isophotal fluxes correspond to the integral of the elliptical shape defined by the axis ratio, position angle, and isophotal radius. Additionally, in order to compare across bands to deriving colors, we adopt W1 as the fiducial aperture for bands W1, W2, and W3, integrating these other bands using this W1 aperture. Since the sensitivity of W4 is sufficiently less than that of the other three bands, the W4 isophotal radius is considerably smaller than that of W1 and is therefore the most appropriate aperture to use for reporting W4 integrated fluxes. For all four bands, the axis ratio and position angle shape parameters used in the fiducial aperture photometry are taken from the W1 1σ isophote. The exception, however, to this convention applies to early-type galaxies: since the R-J tail is falling fast in the mid-IR for the old stellar population as traced by the W3 and W4 bands, the W1 fiducial aperture is not appropriate to measurements of elliptical galaxies, and hence we use the W3 and W4 isophotal fluxes.

The azimuthal elliptical–radial surface brightness is then characterized using a double S´ersic function, where one S´ersic fluxes. The azimuthal elliptical–radial surface brightness is then characterized using a double S´ersic function, where one S´ersic


er 1, W2 and IRAC-2; W3, IRAC-4, and IRAS-12; and W4, MIPS-24, and IRAS-25. Appendix B presents the GALEX photometric measurements.

4.1. Photometric Performance: Case Study of Elliptical Galaxies

Early-type “red-sequence” galaxies have conveniently homogeneous properties, resulting in smooth, featureless SEDs that are dominated by the evolved luminous population. Ellipticals and spheroids have low star formation, minimal dust content, and relatively high surface brightness. The bolometric luminosity is dominated by the R-J distribution that spans the near-IR (1–5 μm) window, sampled by the 2MASS J, H, and K_s bands, the IRAC-1 and IRAC-2 bands, and the WISE W1 and W2 bands. For nearby galaxies, the mid-IR light is bright enough to detect the long R-J tail, sampled by the IRAC-3, IRAC-4, MIPS-24, WISE W3, and WISE W4 bands. Because of their simple R-J profiles, ellipticals are relatively easy to model. Single burst population synthesis models do an adequate job of describing the mid-IR properties of spheroidal galaxies, and therefore can be used to validate the absolute calibration of the WISE and Spitzer photometry of resolved sources (see also Petty et al. 2012 for detailed modeling of early-type galaxies using WISE, Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS), and GALEX measurements).

The sample includes three nearby early-type galaxies, shown in Figure 2: NGC 584, NGC 777, and M 87. The first is a SINGS galaxy with enhanced Spitzer observations, including IRS spectra of the nuclear light. The second appears to have nominal properties for galaxies of this type. The third, M 87, is the giant Virgo Cluster elliptical galaxy. It harbors a massive black hole at its center that is powering an AGN, whose signature non-thermal radio lobes and jets (Virgo A) are also visible in the optical and IR. All three have mid-IR light that is dominated by the old stellar population, brightest in the W1 band, and thus appearing as “blue” light in the WISE color images (Figure 2).

For each galaxy we construct the SED from GALEX (see Appendix B), SDSS, 2MASS (Jarrett et al. 2003), and mid-IR measurements from Spitzer (Appendix A) and WISE. A fiducial aperture, based on the 2MASS K_s band standard isophote, is applied to each band of WISE and Spitzer. A small correction is made for the foreground Galactic extinction, estimated from the Schlegel et al. (1998) dust maps and tabulated by NED. Lastly, aperture corrections have been applied to both the WISE and Spitzer measurements. For comparison, we show the expected light distribution of an old galaxy at t = 5 and 13 Gyr, adapted from the GRASIL population synthesis models (Polletta et al. 2006, 2007; Silva et al. 1998). The major difference between the two models is the presence of asymptotic giant branch (AGB) stars in the t = 5 Gyr model, bumping up the mid-IR emission beyond 10 μm, demonstrating that evolutionary age is an important consideration when modeling elliptical galaxies. The model SEDs are fit to the data using the K-band (2.2 μm) measurement. Also for comparison we show the SINGS-IRS spectral measurements of the nuclear light, which are consistent with the broadband photometric measurements.

For all three galaxies, the SEDs show similar behavior for the near-IR bands (1–5 μm): the flux density peaks in the H-band (1.6 μm), thereafter steeply falling toward longer wavelengths. The photometric data matches well with the models, and in

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the case of NGC 584, the Spitzer spectroscopy of the nuclear emission. In the mid-IR, departures from the R-J tail arise from the presence of warm dust, either from the ISM (star-forming galaxies) or from AGB stars. NGC 584 hints at a warm dust excursion beyond 20 μm, traced by both the IRS-LL1 spectroscopy and the MIPS-24/W4 photometry. NGC 777 shows no such excursions and thus appears to be dust free, shining by the light of very old stars. Not surprisingly, Virgo’s M 87 exhibits an IR excess due to the stellar light giving way to non-thermal emission from the jet at 22 and 24 μm bands. Both the forward (approaching) and backside (receding) of the central jet are clearly seen in the long-wavelength imaging (Figure 2), notably bright in the W4 band compared the MIPS-24 band. Since this emission arises from a powerful, non-thermal source, the models are not relevant to the emission beyond 10 μm, and other than variability between the WISE and MIPS-24 observations of M 87, it is unknown why W4 is brighter than MIPS-24.

To summarize, all three early-type galaxies in the sample show near-IR photometric properties that are consistent among the data sets: 2MASS versus WISE versus Spitzer, and among the population synthesis models. Likewise, at longer wavelengths, the galaxies NGC 584 and NGC 777 display photometric results that are consistent between data sets and models. Only M 87 exhibits peculiar properties at the longest wavelengths due to the IR-bright jet that originates from the nucleus and dominates the light beyond 20 μm. We conclude that, for these three galaxies, the WISE photometric measurements are consistent with those of Spitzer, and that the absolute measurements are consistent with the population synthesis models normalized to the 2MASS photometry.

4.2. WISE Full Sample Measurements

In this subsection we present the photometry and characterization measurements for the entire sample of 17 galaxies, extracted from the WISE HiRes imaging. Appendix A presents a comparison between the matched Spitzer IRAC and MIPS-24 imaging, as well as between archival IRAS 12 and 25 μm measurements. Appendix B presents the GALEX measurements.

Similar to the Spitzer and MIPS bands, all four WISE bands provide valuable spectral information, tracing both stellar light and that arising from the ISM associated with star formation. The WISE W1 3.4 μm and W2 4.6 μm bands are nearly ideal tracers of the stellar mass distribution in galaxies because they image the R-J limit of the blackbody emission for stars 2000 K and hotter. These bands are relatively extinction free, and have a W1 – W2 color that is constant and independent of the age of the stellar population and its mass function (Pahre et al. 2004; Jarrett et al. 2011). Thus, a combination of the W1 and W2 luminosities with the corresponding mass-to-light ratio, which varies much less in the mid-IR compared with the optical, leads to the aggregate stellar mass or “backbone” mass assembly of the galaxy (detailed results are presented in Section 6).

At longer wavelengths, the stellar light gives way to the cooler emission of the ISM. The 22 μm band is sensitive to warm dust emission, arising in the vicinity of hot H ii regions. Calzetti et al. (2007) using similar 24 μm data from the Spitzer Space Telescope, showed that mid-IR fluxes when combined with Hα fluxes provide a powerful reddening free indicator of O/B star formation. Similarly, the 12 μm data are sensitive to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) emission arising from the photon-dominated regions (PDRs) located at the boundaries of H ii regions and molecular clouds and thus excited by far-UV photons. UV photons that manage to escape the dust trap will be traced by GALEX imaging, thus completing the census of the current rate of star formation. SFRs derived from the GALEX, 12 and 22 μm bands are presented in Section 6.

4.2.1. WISE Source Characterization

Measurements extracted from HiRes imaging is presented in three separate tables: the fiducial isophotal photometry in Table 2, the extrapolated fluxes in Table 3, and the half-light and concentration indices in Table 4. The quoted flux uncertainties include contributions from the Poisson errors and background estimation errors (but do not include the calibration errors). All reported flux densities and their formal uncertainties are in mJy units.

We adopt a fiducial aperture to report integrated fluxes since cross-band comparisons (i.e., colors) may be directly computed from the reported flux measurements. As discussed in Section 3.5, for most galaxies, WISE W1 (3.4 μm) is the most sensitive band to the faint lower surface brightness emission in the outer disks; consequently, we adopt the W1 1σ isophotal aperture as the fiducial aperture for aperture measurements in the W1, W2, and W3 WISE bands, and use the W4 isophotal aperture for the W4 integrated fluxes. Note that the axis ratio and orientation are based on the higher signal-to-noise ratio isophote at 3σ in W1; see Section 3.5. The typical 1σ surface brightness in W1 is ~23 mag arcsec−2 (Vega).
We employ a different strategy for elliptical galaxies (and also the nearby irregular galaxy NGC 6822). The light observed in the long-wavelength bands is too faint to obtain a reliable flux in the (relatively) large W1 aperture (see Section 4.2); the integrated flux tends to bias high when using a large aperture due to contamination from faint, foreground stars that are not subtracted from the images. Consequently, for NGC 584, NGC 777, M 87 and NGC 6822, the reported W1 and W2 fluxes are derived from the W1 isophote, and the W3 flux from the W3 isophote, and the W4 flux from the W4 isophote. The typical 1σ isophotal surface brightness for the W2, W3, and W4 bands, respectively, is 21.8, 18.1, and 15.8 mag arcsec−2 (Vega). Details of the isophotal apertures are specified in Table 2 and its notes.

Derived from the integrated fluxes (Table 2), the WISE colors and their estimated formal plus calibration uncertainties are presented in Figure 4. Here the magnitudes have been corrected for the estimated foreground Galactic extinction, where we have
adopted the following coefficients based on merging the Cardelli et al. (1989), Flaherty et al. (2007), and Indebetouw et al. (2005) relations for the near- and mid-IR windows: $A_K = 0.114$; $A_{3.4\mu m} = 0.056$; $A_{4.6\mu m} = 0.049$; $A_{12\mu m} = 0.049$; $A_{22\mu m} = 0.0$. For the inclined galaxies (M 81, NGC 1566, NGC 2403, NGC 6118, NGC 5907), the expected internal extinction is estimated using the prescription from Masters et al. (2003): $A_K \approx 0.26 \log(a/b)$, where $a/b$ is the inverse of the axis ratio.

The color $W1 - W2$ is a metric for the steepness of the falling R-J tail and is also sensitive to nuclear activity (Stern et al. 2012), for the sample is relatively narrow in range, $\sim 0.2$ mag, between the elliptical galaxies and the star-forming galaxies—for the most part sampling the same evolved stellar population. In contrast, the color $W2 - W3$ ranges across $\sim 4$ mag, from the relatively blue, R-J dominated, elliptical galaxies, to the red, molecular PAH-dominated star-forming galaxies. A linear normal-galaxy “sequence” is formed from early to late-type galaxies. Similarly, the $W3 - W4$ color traces the ISM emission from star-forming galaxies; $W3$ is dominated by the PAH emission and $W4$ is dominated by the warm dust emission arising from the UV radiation field. There are three galaxies that stand out in the $W3 - W4$ color diagram: M 51b, M 87, and NGC 6822. The mid-IR light of M 87 is dominated by the evolved stellar population, but in the 22 $\mu m$ band the central jet begins to dominate the emission, pushing the color to (relatively) redder levels. The early-type galaxy M 51b has blended ISM dust/PAH emission from its larger, late-type companion, M 51a, as well as possessing a nuclear molecular structure (cf. Kohno et al. 2002), thereby exhibiting hybrid IR colors that reflect stellar and ISM emission. NGC 6822 is the only dwarf galaxy in the sample, possessing an old stellar population.

### Table 4

| Name       | $R_1$  | $W_1$  | $C_1$ | $f_{1 disk}$ | $R_2$  | $W_2$  | $C_2$ | $f_{2 disk}$ | $R_3$  | $W_3$  | $C_3$ | $f_{3 disk}$ | $R_4$  | $W_4$  | $C_4$ | $f_{4 disk}$ |
|------------|--------|--------|-------|-------------|--------|--------|-------|-------------|--------|--------|-------|-------------|--------|--------|-------|-------------|
| NGC 584    | 25.2   | 15.796 | 5.46  | 0.595       | 27.0   | 15.947 | 5.40  | 0.579       | 24.0   | 15.132 | 4.44  | 0.594       | 20.3   | 14.200 | 2.90  | 0.226       |
| NGC 628    | 114.7  | 18.550 | 3.41  | 0.692       | 117.5  | 18.470 | 3.28  | 0.761       | 124.7  | 14.934 | 2.48  | 0.661       | 114.1  | 13.300 | 2.15  | 0.993       |
| NGC 777    | 24.3   | 16.791 | 5.64  | 0.658       | 27.9   | 17.043 | 6.06  | 0.679       | 26.8   | 16.317 | 4.35  | 0.731       | 21.3   | 15.555 | 2.45  | 0.053       |
| NGC 1398   | 55.2   | 16.679 | 6.30  | 0.758       | 63.4   | 16.922 | 6.09  | 0.815       | 140.1  | 16.153 | 2.95  | 0.990       | 124.8  | 14.854 | 2.59  | 0.998       |
| NGC 1566   | 66.5   | 17.227 | 4.11  | 0.383       | 65.0   | 17.068 | 4.05  | 0.258       | 76.0   | 13.919 | 2.66  | 0.997       | 78.4   | 12.123 | 2.71  | 0.420       |
| NGC 2403   | 176.9  | 16.145 | 3.27  | 0.343       | 194.1  | 18.175 | 3.64  | 0.384       | 181.3  | 14.650 | 2.83  | 0.226       | 217.7  | 12.986 | 3.26  | 0.457       |
| NGC 6822   | 298.8  | 19.615 | 2.50  | 0.869       | 335.8  | 19.663 | 2.69  | 0.481       | 324.3  | 17.464 | 2.36  | 0.192       | 305.1  | 14.207 | 2.45  | 0.969       |
| NGC 5907   | 79.8   | 16.045 | 3.13  | 0.540       | 82.6   | 15.962 | 3.25  | 0.441       | 93.4   | 12.982 | 3.06  | 0.276       | 101.6  | 11.261 | 2.54  | 0.962       |
| NGC 5457   | 201.7  | 18.667 | 2.87  | 0.984       | 218.2  | 18.645 | 3.02  | 0.937       | 207.2  | 14.963 | 2.36  | 0.192       | 302.6  | 14.207 | 2.45  | 0.969       |
| NGC 5236   | 146.5  | 17.040 | 3.30  | 0.960       | 145.4  | 16.873 | 3.25  | 0.940       | 130.4  | 12.826 | 3.00  | 0.139       | 139.0  | 11.406 | 2.54  | 0.962       |
| NGC 5195   | 43.6   | 16.184 | 7.54  | 0.702       | 44.6   | 16.163 | 8.05  | 0.561       | 39.1   | 13.397 | 0.00  | 0.660       | 0.0    | 0.000   | 0.00  | 0.889       |
| NGC 5236   | 146.5  | 17.040 | 3.30  | 0.960       | 145.4  | 16.873 | 3.25  | 0.940       | 130.4  | 12.826 | 3.00  | 0.139       | 139.0  | 11.406 | 2.54  | 0.962       |
| NGC 5194   | 117.6  | 17.145 | 3.27  | 0.928       | 123.2  | 17.073 | 3.22  | 0.930       | 139.0  | 13.308 | 2.66  | 0.074       | 128.5  | 11.607 | 2.94  | 0.851       |
| NGC 5195   | 43.6   | 16.184 | 7.54  | 0.702       | 44.6   | 16.163 | 8.05  | 0.561       | 39.1   | 13.397 | 0.00  | 0.660       | 0.0    | 0.000   | 0.00  | 0.889       |

Notes. The half-light is relative to the extrapolated integrated flux; see Table 3. The concentration index is ratio of the 3/4 light-radius to the 1/4 light-radius. The disk fraction, $f_{disk}$, is the fraction of the total integrated light that is attributed to the disk component characterized by the Sérsic function fit to the extended light. Measurements are not corrected for Galactic or internal extinction.

Figure 4. WISE colors for the sample, derived from matched aperture photometry. The units are Vega magnitudes. The error bars represent the formal uncertainties (Table 2) and a 1.5% photometric calibration uncertainty. Measurements have been corrected for Galactic and internal extinction. The galaxy name is indicated next to the measurement, where single numbers represent the NGC #.
population that dominates the short-wavelength bands (similar in color to early-type spirals) and isolated star formation regions that give it a $W3 - W4$ color that is comparable to late-type spirals.

To estimate the total flux, the double-Sérsic fit to the radial surface brightness (see Appendix C) is used to extrapolate the integrated flux to lower levels, corresponding to a radius that is 3 disk scale lengths extended beyond the 1σ isophotal radius. The resulting photometry is presented in Table 3. In $W1$, the flux densities range from 0.2 Jy (NGC 777) to 12 Jy (M 81). The brightest flux, ~14 Jy, is recorded for IC 342 in the $W4$ band, and the largest sizes, ~10", are derived for NGC 2403 and M 81. The extrapolation adds only a small correction to the isophotal fluxes in the $W1$ and $W2$ bands, typically only a few percent (see Figure 5). This result suggests that the $W1$ and $W2$ isophotal radii basically capture the total flux of the systems, attributed to the sensitivity and depth of these bands in WISE. In contrast, the $W3$ and $W4$ bands require large corrections: $W3$ ranges from a nearly few percent to 30%, and $W4$ up to 70% corrections, notably for the early-type galaxies, NGC 2403, the ringed-spiral NGC 1398, and the low surface brightness “flat” NGC 6822.

Derived using the extrapolation fluxes as a proxy for the total flux, the half-light, concentration, and disk fraction indices are presented in Table 4. As expected, the highest $W1$ and $W2$ surface brightnesses (likewise, concentration indices) are observed for the early-type galaxies, dominated by the bulge light that is tracing the large stellar masses (see Figure 6). The contrast seen between the central light and the total light is much less, so in the long-wavelength bands, $W3$ and $W4$, the mid-IR emission largely originates from the disk ISM. $W3$ exhibits somewhat higher concentration and $B/D$ ratios for the early-type galaxies (due to the R-J component), while for $W4$, with a few exceptions (e.g., M 87 due to the central AGN), the concentration index is basically the same for all Hubble types, presumably because $W4$ is insensitive to the R-J emission from stars. As viewed in these ISM-sensitive bands, the mid-IR light is more evenly distributed throughout the systems.

Figure 5. Ratio of the extrapolation (“total”) flux to the isophotal (1σ) flux. The galaxy name is indicated below the measurement, where single numbers represent the NGC #. The Hubble T-Type is derived from the morphology (Table 1).

4.2.2. Comparing WISE with Spitzer and IRAS

Building on the analysis that was carried for NGC 1566 in Paper I, Appendix A presents a detailed comparison between WISE and ancillary matched photometry for the entire sample presented in this work. It is augmented with SED analysis using population synthesis models and the bandpass information, with results that validate the WISE photometric calibration and WERGA imaging at 5%–10% relative to Spitzer and IRAS.

5. CASE STUDY OF M 83

In this section we showcase the science potential of the WISE and Spitzer imaging for studying the galaxy NGC 5236 (M 83), comparing the stellar, gas, and dust distribution that the IR observations provide, to complementary tracers of star formation and gas distribution, including UV, Hα, molecular CO, and neutral H I millimeter/radio observations.

5.1. M 83: The Infrared and UV Properties

M 83 is one of the most spectacular nearby galaxies, possessing a face-on, grand-design spiral arm system that is anchored by a large-scale bar. Its beautiful symmetry and prominent spiral arms has earned the moniker, the Southern Pinwheel Galaxy. It is also notable for its extended H I disk, spanning more than a degree along its major axis (Tilanus & Allen 1993; Koribalski et al. 2004; Koribalski 2010), and its central nuclear region that is almost exclusively molecular gas (Crosthwaite et al. 2002; Lundgren et al. 2008). In global terms, the molecular gas contributes about 25% to the total gas content.

The mid-IR disk spans about 18' down to the 1σ background level in $W1$. Figure 7 compares the WISE HiReS imaging and the IRAC+MIPS-24 imaging for the central 14' disk. As with the NGC 1566 comparison between IRAC and WISE HiReS (Paper I), the M 83 comparison impressively shows how well the WISE HiReS reconstructions improve the spatial resolution, nearly matching the ~2"-resolved imaging of IRAC. For both color representations, the faint blue light is tracing the evolved stellar population, smoothly distributed across arms and inner arms, while the orange/red light is arising from star formation, localized to the spiral arms, bar and nuclear regions, as traced by the molecular (PAH) and warm dust emission. The WISE and Spitzer angular resolution and optimal sensitivity to the gas/ISM reveals substructure between the spiral arms, likely related to the shear-formed “spurs” that arise from differential compression of gas as it flows through the arms (Shetty & Ostriker 2006). Other grand design spirals in the sample also show transverse spurs, including M 101, M 51a, NGC 6946, and most notably, IC 342, who’s disk/spiral pattern may be described as a lacework of nodes (massive star formation sites) and filaments (spiral and transverse arms; see Figure 1). Finally, the bar itself appears bounded, to the northeast and to the southwest, by the highest concentration of star formation in the disk—these are the bar transition zones, or bar “cusps.” These zones arise from the convergence of gas stream lines due to the interaction of the gravitational density wave with the bar (see Kenney & Lord 1991). Orbit crowding compresses the gas and star formation ensues in these relatively small regions of the disk. Later we investigate the southwest cusp with our multi-wavelength data set that probes down to ~100 pc scales.

The IR observations of WISE and Spitzer provide a direct probe of the physical conditions of the ISM responding to the present-day star formation. Confined primarily to the spiral arms, the stars form in giant molecular clouds and complexes
Figure 6. Central concentration index for the galaxy sample, corresponding to the ratio of the 3/4 light-radius to the 1/4 light-radius. For comparison, also shown is the bulge-to-disk ratio based on the double-Sérsic fit to the azimuthally averaged elliptical–radial profile (see Appendix C). The galaxy name is indicated below the measurement, where single numbers represent the NGC #. The Hubble T-Type is derived from the morphology (Table 1).

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

that are dotted along the arms and in the bar. Figure 8 shows that with radial averaging, the WISE colors reveal the axisymmetric arms and complexes (e.g., bar end cusps at a radius of 110″), notably with the W2 − W3 color (dashed line), whereas the evolved stellar population is smoothly distributed throughout the disk and bulge (solid line). In a global integrated-light view (right panel of Figure 8), the SED is characterized by a significant (aggregate massive) population of old stars, forming the near-IR peak and R-J tail in the mid-IR, very strong PAH emission at 6.2, 7.7, and 11.2 μm, and a rising warm (dust-emitted) continuum that is powered by young, hot stars, as evident from the relatively bright UV flux observed throughout the disk of M 83.

For disk/spiral galaxies, the stars that provide the most feedback to the ISM are the hottest and most massive. The O and B stars emit strong UV radiation that ionizes and heats the ISM, providing the energy needed to warm dust, excite and break apart molecules thereby creating HII and photodissociation regions (e.g., Tielens & Hollenbach 1985; Wolfire et al. 2003). This young population of stars is ideally probed by the GALEX UV survey (Martin et al. 2005) using the 0.1516 μm (FUV) and 0.2267 μm (NUV) bands, obtaining a spatial resolution comparable to that of WISE. The integrated flux of M 83 in these two bands is 9.56 (AB mag) and 10.12 (AB mag), respectively, for NUV and FUV, where the magnitudes have been corrected for the foreground extinction toward M 83 (AV = 0.22 mag); see Gil de Paz et al. (2007) for the extinction coefficients. Figure 8 presents the full integrated SED of M 83, plotting the UV, near-IR, and mid-IR photometric results. The figure includes a model that is generic to Sd-type galaxies (generated using the GRASIL code of Silva et al. 1998), simply illustrating that M 83 possesses integrated characteristics of late-type galaxies.

Combining the GALEX UV and WISE IR observations provides a more complete understanding of the star formation that drives the evolution of disk galaxies. In Figure 9, we present a qualitative perspective of how GALEX and WISE observations of M 83 form a snapshot gallery of the galaxy anatomy. The color scheme is such that the ISM emission appears orange/red, the evolved stellar “backbone” appears green, and the photospheric light from young, hot stars appears magenta (FUV) and blue (NUV). The largest star formation complexes have both UV and IR light strongly correlated, appearing as white blobs, notably viewed near the bar ends and the connecting eastern spiral arm. The UV–IR color composite also reveals striking differences between the distribution of young stars and the warm ISM: (1) The GALEX emission is clearly extended beyond the
mid-IR limits, highlighting localized star formation that is well outside of the primary (optical $R_{25}$) disk and spiral arm system, a property that is also seen in many other spiral galaxies studied with GALEX (e.g., Thilker et al. 2005; Goddard et al. 2010). (2) The nuclear region and much of the central bar have very little UV emission, while the mid-IR continuum is bright in all WISE bands. (3) There is diffuse UV emission filling most of the disk, likely arising from B stars that have dispersed from their birth clouds. (4) The trailing edge of the spirals arms have strong W3 IR emission (note the orange/brown color inside of the spiral arms), arising from excited 11.3 $\mu$m PAH emission integrated along the galaxy’s line of sight. (5) To the north of the nucleus, near the edge of the mid-IR disk, there is a large mid-IR “void” or fork in the spiral arms; in contrast, the entire area is filled with UV emission arising from massive star clusters.

The distinct separation of the UV from the IR emission is further illuminated in Figure 10, comparing the WISE W3 12 $\mu$m image and the GALEX NUV 0.23 $\mu$m image of M 83. The primary bar+spiral arms are clearly seen in the 12 $\mu$m image, wrapping around the nucleus and extending to the north where
it forks into two separate arms. Between these two arms there is hardly any mid-IR emission. Comparing to the NUV image, the bar+spiral arms are not prominent (the southwestern end of the bar has the brightest emission seen in the NUV), but the inter-arm “void” to the north is easily apparent at these wavelengths. The contrast between the W3 and the NUV is demonstrated in the flux ratio, $F_{\nu}(\text{NUV})/F_{\nu}(\text{W3})$, shown in the third panel of Figure 10: The gray scale is such that strong UV (relative to W3) appears gray or black, and inversely, strong W3 appears white. The “white” structures show where the UV radiation has been fully absorbed by the dust and re-emitted at longer IR wavelengths. The “gray” complexes have less dust extinction and some large fraction of the UV light escapes. The “black” traces where the UV light is fully escaping from the veil of dust, due to either the absence of gas/dust (perhaps blown out by supernova winds) or the dust geometry; e.g., super star cluster located foreground to the molecular cloud, or located outside of a spiral arm, photoionizing gas and destroying the mid-IR PAHs in the local vicinity.

The northern inter-arm fork/void region is enormous, over $2' (>3 \text{ kpc})$ in length. It has two clumps of prominent UV emission (i.e., likely OB associations) and relatively strong diffuse emission filling the void. How does such a large area come to be evacuated of dust and gas (see below) while also filled by light from young, hot stars? The size of such a region seems to preclude a simple wind-blown event coming from a super star cluster; for example, the prominent (and resolved by Hubble Space Telescope) stellar cluster, NGC 206, seen in
Figure 11. M 83 (NGC 5236) azimuthal elliptical–radial surface brightness profiles (Vega mag arcsec$^{-2}$), comparing WISE (black line) with IRAC and MIPS-24 (magenta line). A double Sérsic function (gray dashed line) is fit to the WISE radial profile, where the blue dashed line is the “bulge” component and the magenta dashed line is the “disk” component. Additionally, the GALEX NUV and FUV radial profiles are shown in the W3 and W4 panels (note that the GALEX AB magnitudes have been offset by $\sim$7 mag to fit within the y-axis dynamic range).

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

the disk of M 31 has cleared out a much smaller physical area ($\sim$500 pc diameter hole; see Hunter et al. 1996) by contrast. Could the M 83 void be a remnant of some tidal interaction or similar dynamical disturbance due to accretion of a low-dust, gas-rich satellite galaxy? We note that M 83, the largest member of its galaxy group, has a large optically detected tidal stream to the north of this region (Malin & Hadley 1997; Pohlen et al. 2004), tracing the disruption of a dwarf galaxy in the strong gravitational field of M 83. These IR–UV properties are not unique to M 83. Other massive galaxies, including M 101 (see Figure 1) and, as noted above, M 31, also exhibit tidal streams and large unveiled (dust-free) UV star clusters and associations (e.g., Thilker et al. 2005).

There is another UV-filled void to the southwest of the nucleus, just beyond the bar cusp, that is somewhat symmetric in location with the northern void relative to the nucleus. Alternative to UV transparency or a simple dust geometric effect, the diffuse UV radiation may arise from older (less massive) star complexes that have either dispersed or blown away their birth cradle environment, revealing open clusters that are dominated by A and B stars (not unlike the Pleiades star cluster). Such regions would be much smaller in area than the northern fork/void discussed above. This mechanism was proposed by Thilker et al. (2007) as one of the explanations for the striking differences observed between the IR and UV emission by the nearby star-forming galaxy NGC 7331.

Averaging with elliptical–radial axial symmetry, the resulting azimuthal surface brightness profiles of M 83 also reveal the spatial offsets between the UV and IR emission. Figure 11 presents the surface brightness for WISE (W1 and W2) and Spitzer (IRAC-1 and IRAC-2), and the addition of GALEX (NUV) to the W3+IRAC-4 profiles and GALEX (FUV) to the W4+MIPS-24 profiles. The WISE and Spitzer magnitudes are in Vega units, and the GALEX magnitudes are in AB units plus an offset of $\sim$7 mag to fit within the plot. The figure panels also show the double-Sérsic fit to the radial profile (bulge in cyan, disk in blue).

The first panel shows that W1 3.4 $\mu$m and IRAC-1 3.6 $\mu$m have similar profiles, both reaching depths of 24 mag arcsec$^{-2}$ (corresponding to 26.7 mag arcsec$^{-2}$ in AB). The sharp “bump” at a radius of $\sim$110$''$ corresponds to the bright continuum emission arising from the bar end cusps where the gas has piled.
neutral hydrogen distribution of the southern spiral galaxy M 83. Left: large-scale moment-0 map of the extended H\textsubscript{i} gas distribution, constructed from mosaic data obtained with both the 21 cm multibeam system on the 64 m Parkes dish and ATCA. Right: ATCA high-resolution H\textsubscript{i} moment-0 map (red contours) overlaid onto the WISE 12 \textmu m map (gray scale, log-stretch) of the central disk (denoted with a gray box in the left panel). The H\textsubscript{i} contour levels are 0.1, 0.27, 0.43, and 0.6 Jy beam\textsuperscript{−1} km s\textsuperscript{−1}. The ATCA beam is approximately 10′, comparable to the WISE 22 \textmu m band, but note that the diffuse gas (see the left panel) is resolved out when emphasizing the longer ATCA baseline measurements.

To summarize our IR–UV imaging results thus far: although there is a clear physical connection between the star formation activity and the warm dust emission arising from the ISM, the M 83 IR-to-UV flux ratio diagram and surface brightness profiles emphasize that the distribution of young stars and UV diffuse emission is only partially correlated with mid-IR radiation, emphasizing the importance of tracking the obscured (IR) and unobscured (UV) star formation. We next investigate the IR to gas connection.

5.2. M 83: Radio H\textsubscript{i} and Infrared Connection

The neutral hydrogen gas reservoir of M 83 extends \sim 1° (80 kpc) in length, containing a HIPASS-measured total of $8.3 \times 10^5 M_\odot$ of H\textsubscript{i} (Koribalski et al. 2004). Another $4 \times 10^9 M_\odot$ of molecular hydrogen resides in the central interior and bar of M 83 (Lundgren et al. 2004, 2008, for a distance of 4.66 Mpc). The total dynamical mass is estimated to be $6 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$ (Lundgren et al. 2008) and $8 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$ (Crosthwaite et al. 2002).

We have obtained new high spatial resolution 21 cm imaging of the M 83 region using the Australia Telescope Compact Array (ATCA) as part of the Local Volume H\textsubscript{i} Survey (LVHIS; Koribalski 2010), and in combination with single-beam observations using the Parkes 64 m dish,\textsuperscript{22} constructed a map of the H\textsubscript{i} distribution that is comparable in resolution to that of WISE and GALEX (10′ versus 5′). Figure 12 presents the neutral gas distribution of M 83, viewed to its fullest extent (left panel) and focusing on the inner disk in which the IR is detected (right panel). At the largest scales, the gas is well extended beyond the optical/IR disk, forming a warped structure that indicates

\textsuperscript{22} Applying uniform weighting of the \mu s-data gives more weight to the longest baselines in the compact array (\sim 6 km).
tidal disturbance. To the north, a long H\textsc{i} filament corresponds spatially and kinematically to the tidal stream of stars tracing a dwarf galaxy that is shredding and spiraling into the M 83 gravitational well. The highly asymmetric extended gas distribution suggests that other small galaxies may also be accreting onto the disk.

Closer to the central region, more ordered spiral arms are discerned. The right panel of Figure 12 shows the H\textsc{i} overlaid (red contours) on the W 3 12 \mu m image. The spatial correspondence between the neutral gas and the integrated (line of sight) PAH–ISM emission is striking: except for the nuclear region, where the H\textsc{i} is absent (having been converted to molecular gas for consumption), the atomic hydrogen traces the current star formation on large angular scales. Since it is the molecular hydrogen gas that serves as the primary fuel for star formation, we would not necessarily expect the neutral hydrogen to be so closely correlated with the PAH emission arising from PDRs and H\textsc{ii} regions (e.g., see below). However, the Kennicutt–Schmidt Law (K-S; Kennicutt 1989), which relates the SFR surface density to the gas surface density, tells us that the total gas (neutral plus molecular) controls the star formation—here traced by the 12 \mu m maps, which highlight the sites of enhanced star formation density.

This gas-to-IR dependence is further emphasized in the extended Schmidt Law detailed in Shi et al. (2011). High-resolution maps of molecular CO emission (tracing the cold H\textsubscript{2} distribution) show concentrated, clumpy associations that trace the embedded star formation, particularly along the inner eastern arm (see Lord & Kenney 1991; Rand et al. 1999). What leads to the strong correlations between neutral H\textsc{i} and the IR emission? Beyond replenishment through accretion and bar-directed feeding from the massive H\textsc{i} reservoir, Tilanus & Allen (1993; see also Lundgren et al. 2008) propose that the atomic hydrogen in the central disk of M 83 is in fact the byproduct of molecular hydrogen that has been dissociated by the strong radiation fields arising from the massive star formation in the spiral arms. The gas is likely to pass though many neutral to molecular neutral cycles during the lifetime of star formation in the spiral arms. In any event, it is clear that the interplay between molecular gas and neutral gas can produce a complex physical association with the SFR and its efficiency.

To investigate the gas to mid-IR emitting dust relationship at the finest scales that our multi-wavelength data enable, we zoom into the southwest bar transition zone, located roughly at 13\textdegree 36\textquoteleft 36\textquoteleft 86, -29\textdegree 52\textquoteleft 55\textquoteleft 3 (J2000). The region contains several massive star formation complexes, as revealed in Figure 13, generating strong radiation fields that heat the gas and dust that has fanned into this region, recently mapped with far-IR imaging from Herschel (cf. Foyle et al. 2012). The neutral gas content is represented by the H\textsc{i} 21 cm map (upper left), and the molecular gas by the 12CO contours (red). The obscured star formation is traced by the PAH emission as seen at 12 \mu m, and the unobscured star formation by the UV and H\alpha imaging. Finally, the evolved population emission peaks in the near-IR, here represented by W 1 3.4 \mu m. The “cusp” is clearly evident with these probes, the bar ends at center and then promptly turns to the northwest as it transitions to the massive spiral arm that gives M 83 its distinctive morphology. It is clear that the molecular gas (red contours) more closely aligned with the star formation (both W 3 and the UV) than the neutral gas; nevertheless, the total gas is concentrated in the same area as the bright star formation knots. The density wave and bar kinematics have focused the fuel that is now driving the star formation. The B-band image, whose angular resolution discerns features as small as 10 pc, exhibits dark dust lanes that represent the thickest concentrations of gas, roughly outlining the UV (transparent) knots and coincident with the W 3 IR (obscured) emission. The recombination H\alpha shows that the star formation complex breaks into several small clumps bathed in diffuse emission that W 3 clearly detects. Kenney & Lord (1991) make the case that the southwest bar cusp is composed of distinct kinematic gas components that originated from different regions of the disk but have streamed
Figure 14. Many faces of M 83, highlighting the evolution from gas to stars. The 10′ panels show: the neutral (H\textsubscript{i} gray scale) and molecular hydrogen (CO contours) gas content, massive star formation as viewed by \textit{GALEX} NUV (gray scale) and FUV (white contours), \textit{WISE} view of 11.3 \textmu m PAH emission (W\textsubscript{3} band) and reprocessed starlight (W\textsubscript{4} band) both associated with star formation, and the center panel shows the stellar distribution of the previous generations of star formation as viewed with the W\textsubscript{1} (3.4 \textmu m; gray scale) and W\textsubscript{2} (4.6 \textmu m; white contours) bands. The CO(1-0) is from Crosthwaite et al. (2002).

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

into the transition zone forming dense molecular clouds. The red contours also show that they are spatially distinction, resolved by both \textit{WISE} and \textit{GALEX}. A wealth of information is provided by the multi-wavelength data sets presented here, highlighting the importance of extracting both spatial and spectral elements to study and decode the physics in star formation.

5.3. M 83: From Gas to Stars

Understanding the process that fuels the star formation, requires both the neutral and molecular hydrogen content be mapped and studied with respect to the young, hot population of stars (\textit{GALEX}) and the ISM that responds to the energy input (\textit{WISE} and \textit{Spitzer}). Figure 14 summarizes the evolution from gas to stars using the maps presented in this work, starting in the upper left and moving clockwise, completing the cycle in the center panel. We start with the fuel: the primordial H\textsubscript{i} combines to form molecular H\textsubscript{2}, which gravitationally collapses (e.g., via spiral density waves) to form new stars. Massive O and B stars radiate copious amounts of UV photons, which are detected by \textit{GALEX} in the FUV and NUV bands. Most of the radiation, however, is scattered and absorbed by dust grains that are distributed throughout the spiral arms and birth clouds. The radiation excites the complex PAH molecules that form on dust grains located outside of H\textsubscript{II} regions. These photodissociation regions are detected by \textit{WISE} in the W\textsubscript{3} 12 \textmu m band and by \textit{Spitzer} in the IRAC 8 \textmu m band. The radiation warms small dust grains to temperatures of \textasciitilde 100–150 K, radiating (modified blackbody) photons in the mid-IR window that is detected by \textit{WISE} with the W\textsubscript{4} 22 \textmu m band and by \textit{Spitzer} with the MIPS 24 \textmu m band. Over time the stars disperse from their birth clouds, becoming visible to detection at optical wavelengths. Massive stars burn hot and bright, living for only a few to tens of millions of years before exploding and sending their gas back into the ISM for recycling. Less massive stars live much longer: solar-type stars burn for billions of years, evolving into luminous red giants. These stars, far more numerous that the massive O and B stars, form the aggregate massive backbone of the galaxy. These cool giants emit most of their photospheric radiation in the near-IR window, detected and studied by \textit{WISE} with the W\textsubscript{1} 3.4 \textmu m and W\textsubscript{2} 4.6 \textmu m bands and by \textit{Spitzer} with the IRAC.
3.6 μm and 4.5 μm bands. While some galaxies undergo dynamical interactions (e.g., within group and cluster environments), the basic ingredients and processes that drive M 83, sketched in Figure 14, are how galaxies form and evolve over vast stretches of time.

6. STAR FORMATION RATE

Both the present SFR and total stellar mass (M*) are fundamental parameters for the study of galaxy evolution. Direct comparison of the global SFR (from the WISE long-wavelength bands) with stellar mass (short-wavelength bands) enumerate the present-to-past star formation history, or effectively, how fast the galaxy is building. This specific SFR (sSFR) is a critical metric of morphological evolution. In this section, we explore the SFR and stellar mass properties of our large galaxy sample, providing a preliminary prescription for estimating these quantities from the spectral luminosities. We focus on the global properties in this work, with an extension to much larger samples and to more detailed work on the internal star formation, gas, and stellar density properties left to future work. Table 5 presents the νLν luminosity densities for the near-IR (2MASS Ks band), mid-IR (WISE and MIPS-24) and GALEX FUV/NUV, corrected for foreground Galactic extinction and the expected internal extinction (see Section 4.2.1). The expected uncertainty in the luminosity is ~10%, assuming 5% uncertainty in the distance estimate. Here the νLν values have been normalized by the total solar luminosity (L⊙): 3.839 × 1033 erg s⁻¹.

To convert the luminosities to the “in-band” equivalent,²³ scale the νLν by a factor of 7.37, 22.883, 58.204, 38.858, and 28.250 for the K, W1, W2, W3, and W4 bands, respectively, where the scaling factor takes into account the difference between the total solar luminosity and the in-band value (as measured by the 2MASS and WISE bands; see section below on stellar masses).

For nearby galaxies, the present star formation is traditionally studied using tracers of massive stars, notably Balmer emission arising from H i regions (e.g., Kennicutt 1998), which requires significant extinction corrections to account for absorbed or scatter light. With the advent of space-based UV observations of galaxies in the local universe, notably from GALEX, these studies are now carried out on large, diverse, and statistically significant samples. Since the UV photons originating from or associated with hot, young stars are predominately absorbed by dust grains and re-radiated at longer wavelengths, the IR window may be used to effectively trace the underlying star formation, although ideally a combination of the IR and GALEX UV provides the most complete estimate. Studies using IRAS, Infrared Space Observatory, and Spitzer observations have correlated the mid- and far-IR emission with the present young stellar population that is embedded within molecular clouds that embody spiral arms and disks of galaxies. Most relevant to WISE, global SFRs may be directly estimated using the warm dust grain and integrated PAH emission (alternatively, gas column density-normalized PAH emission) or combinations of UV or Hα and IR tracers to capture both the unobscured and obscured star formation (Calzetti et al. 2007; Leroy et al. 2008; Calzetti 2011; Kennicutt et al. 2009; Rieke et al. 2009; Treyer et al. 2010). Below we present both IR and combined IR+UV SFRs.

We establish the global WISE SFRIR relation by bootstrapping from the well-studied MIPS-24 relation (e.g., Calzetti et al. 2007; Rieke et al. 2009; Rujopakarn et al. 2012). Although using only the 24 μm luminosity to estimate the SFRIR is not as accurate as using the LIR, or some combination of IR, UV, and optical, it still provides a tight correlation for galaxies with moderate to high metallicities (but see Relaño et al. 2007 for SFR analysis of individual H ii regions). Using the Rieke et al. (2009) relation to derive the SFRIR from MIPS-24 luminosity,
we plot the WISE \( \nu L_{12} \) and \( \nu L_{22} \) against the MIPS-estimated SFR\(_{IR} \) (Figure 15). For the SFR range between 0 and 3, we find the best-fit \( \nu L_{12} \) and \( \nu L_{22} \) relations to be

\[
\text{WISE W3: SFR}_{IR} (\pm 0.28) (M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}) = 4.91(\pm 0.39) \times 10^{-10} \nu L_{12}(L_{\odot}), \tag{1}
\]

\[
\text{WISE W4: SFR}_{IR} (\pm 0.04) (M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}) = 7.50(\pm 0.07) \times 10^{-10} \nu L_{22}(L_{\odot}). \tag{2}
\]

The rms scatter between the MIPS-estimated SFR\(_{IR} \) and the WISE SFRs (Equations (1) and (2)) is 0.28 and 0.04 \( M_{\odot} \) \text{ yr}^{-1}, for SFR (12 \( \mu \)m) and SFR (22 \( \mu \)m), respectively; the actual uncertainty in any given WISE-derived SFR is at least 10% given the uncertainty in the luminosity. As expected, there is a very tight relation between the WISE \( \nu L_{22} \) and the Rieke SFR\(_{IR} \), since both WISE W4 and MIPS-24 have very similar bandpasses, tracing the warm ISM dust continuum. Conversely and similar to the larger scatter observed in the IRAC 8 \( \mu \)m-to-SFR relation (Calzetti et al. 2007), the WISE \( \nu L_{12} \)-to-SFR\(_{IR} \) relation exhibits a trend that reflects the complex relationship of combined thermal dust + silicate absorption + PAH emission with star formation activity. The strength of the PAH emission bands depends on the metallicity, column density of gas, and ionizing radiation field from the young stellar population (Engelbracht et al. 2008; Draine 2011), but the 11.3 \( \mu \)m PAH can also be excited by spatially diffuse, evolved (~Gyr) stellar population (Calzetti 2011). Nevertheless, the \( \nu L_{12} \) relation is very useful to have because the W3 (12 \( \mu \)m) band is so much more sensitive than the W4 (22 \( \mu \)m) band, and often, for galaxies beyond the local universe, is the only detection from WISE.

We have attempted to isolate the line-of-sight integrated PAH emission in the W3 band from the underlying continuum by subtracting from the W3 a scaled version of W1, representing the R-J stellar light. Note that we are ignoring the warm-dust emission in W3 that arises from the dust shells of AGB stars and from AGN; these potentially important components are further discussed below. Using the three elliptical galaxies in the sample, which trace only the photospheric continuum contribution, we determine that the W3 to W1 scale factor is \( \sim 15\% \) (which may be compared with the IRAC-4 to IRAC-1 ratio of 23%; Helou et al. 2004). The resulting \( \nu L_{PAH} \) is shown in Figure 15 as open circles. The scatter in the SFR (\( \nu L_{11.3 \mu m PAH} \)) relative to the Rieke SFR\(_{IR} \) is slightly smaller, 0.26 \( M_{\odot} \) \text{ yr}^{-1}, but still much larger than the SFR (22 \( \mu \)m) distribution. For comparison we also show the SFR estimated using the Goto et al. (2011) relation, which attempts to adapt the SINGS 8 and 24 \( \mu \)m luminosity-to-\( L_{TIR} \) relation to the expected WISE W3 and W4 bandpasses. The Goto et al. (2011) SFRs are very likely overestimated, \( \sim 2 \times \) larger than those predicted by Rieke et al. (2009) for 22 \( \mu \)m and \( \sim 3 \times \) larger for 12 \( \mu \)m.

We stress that the relations presented here (Equations (1) and (2)) are only preliminary due to the small size of our sample. A more thorough investigation should involve a larger sample, that includes a wide range in metallicity and \( \nu L_{IR} \) (e.g., SINGS sample), calibrating the WISE luminosities to the SFR derived through UV, IR, and hydrogen recombination line analysis as with Calzetti et al. (2007) and Kennicutt et al. (2009). A final important caveat: even with a more complete sample to establish the WISE SFR relations, the mid-IR is sensitive to only the warm tracers of star formation (PAHs, small dust grains), and thus represents a lower limit to the total IR SFR that also includes the heavily obscured star formation in dense molecular cores, best traced by the far-IR emission (e.g., observations from IRAS, Herschel, and AKARI).

For the galaxy sample, the IR SFRs are estimated using the empirical relations, Equations (1) and (2), and are listed in Table 6. They trace the dust-obscured star formation activity, which is dependent on the dust geometry and total gas/dust column density. For the UV photons—associated with young massive stars—that manage to escape the galaxy, GALEX may be used to estimate the unobscured star formation; Table 6 lists the SFR estimated from the FUV and NUV extinction-corrected measurements as follows. Buat et al. (2008, 2011) calibrate the FUV SFR, characterizing it in terms of the GALEX luminosity as follows: \( \log \text{SFR}_{FUV} = \log (\nu L_{FUV}/L_{\odot}) - 9.69 \). The SFR based on the NUV luminosity density is provided by Equation (6) of...
Schiminovich et al. (2007): SFR$_{NUV} = 10^{-28.165} L_{NUV}$ (erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$). For the sample, about half of the UV SFRs are larger or comparable to the estimates using the IR tracers, which verifies the importance of accounting for the unobscured star formation. Combining both UV and IR estimates, the “total” SFR may be characterized (Elbaz et al. 2007; Buat et al. 2011) as (1$-$η)SFR$_{IR}$ + γSFR$_{FUV}$, where η is the fraction of mid-IR light that originates from the dust shells of AGB stars and γ scales the UV transparency. In effect, the value of η will depend on the fractional number of AGB and intermediate, post-starburst stars (ages 1–3 Gyr) that contribute to the mid-IR light; Buat et al. (2011) compute an ensemble average value of 0.17 for η using a large sample of field galaxies. Adopting the Buat et al. (2011) values for η (0.17) and γ (unity), the UV+IR SFR is listed in the last column of Table 6, and is generally larger (~10%–20%) of the IR component. So, for example, consider the SFR of NGC 5236 (M 83): Reported in Section 5, the extinction-corrected integrated FUV flux is 10.11 mag (325 mJy), translating to a luminosity of $4.4 \times 10^4 L_\odot$. Using the relation of Buat et al. (2011), the M 83 SFR$_{FUV}$ is then 0.9 $M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$, or roughly 1/3 of the estimate SFR$_{IR}$ (Table 6), assuming γ is unity and using the average η value, the total SFR would then be ~3.3, which is 14% greater than the reported SFR$_{IR}$. We note that the resulting total SFRs have values that are generally 5%–50% larger than the tabulated values in Leroy et al. (2008), but are systematically much smaller than the SFRs predicted using the GALEX FUV+MIPS(24) relation in the same work (Equation (D10) of Leroy et al. 2008).

The global SFRs are graphically presented in Figure 16, where we compare with the neutral hydrogen gas content to demonstrate the essential star formation efficiency trend of the K-S scaling relation, connecting the star formation density to the total gas density. Although the H1 is usually associated with the diffuse IR emission, while the molecular gas (as traced by CO and HCN emission) is more closely associated with star formation, we demonstrated in the last section that the obscured star formation in M 83 is associated with the neutral gas distribution. And indeed, we observed a clear trend (rms scatter ~ 1 $M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$) in both SFR$_{IR}$ and SFR$_{H1}$ and the H1 mass. Also shown in the figure is the trend quantified using the SINGS sample and a nearby high-H1 mass galaxy (Cluver et al. 2010) that covered a much larger range in neutral gas mass, $10^2$–$10^4 M_\odot$. The slope in the SFR-to-gas trend will increase if the contribution from the molecular gas is included:

### Table 6

| Name  | SFR$_{IR}$ (12 μm) ($M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$) | SFR$_{IR}$ (22 μm) ($M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$) | SFR$_{IR}$ (24 μm) ($M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$) | SFR$_{FUV}$ (0.15 μm) ($M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$) | SFR$_{FUV}$ (0.23 μm) ($M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$) | SFR$_{tot}$ (IR+UV) ($M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$) |
|-------|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|
| NGC 584 | 0.1 | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ |
| NGC 628 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 1.1 |
| NGC 777 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| NGC 1398 | 1.5 | 0.5 | ... | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.9 |
| NGC 1566 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 1.3 |
| NGC 2403 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.6 |
| NGC 3031 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.5 |
| NGC 4486 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 |
| NGC 5194 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 3.5 |
| NGC 5195 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.3 |
| NGC 5236 | 2.0 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 3.2 |
| NGC 5457 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 2.2 | 1.7 | 3.3 |
| NGC 5907 | 2.0 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 1.5 |
| NGC 6118 | 1.0 | 0.7 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| NGC 6822 | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ | $<10^{-2}$ |
| NGC 6946 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 3.2 |
| IC 342 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 0.9 | 2.4 |

Notes. SFR$_{IR}$ ($12 \mu m$) = $4.9 \times 10^{10} L_{22}$ ($L_\odot$) and SFR$_{IR}$ ($22 \mu m$) = $7.5 \times 10^{10} L_{22}$ ($L_\odot$) (see Figure 15). SFR$_{IR}$ ($24 \mu m$) is derived from $L_{24 \mu m}$ and Equations (10) and (11) of Rieke et al. (2009). The UV rates are estimated from the FUV luminosity (using the relation from Buat et al. 2008, 2011) and the NUV luminosity density (using the relation from Schiminovich et al. 2007). The total UV+IR SFR, characterized as (1$-$η)SFR$_{IR}$ + γSFR$_{FUV}$, where η is the fraction of mid-IR light that originates from the dust shells of AGB stars and γ scales the UV transparency; here, η is assumed to be 0.17 and γ is unity (see Elbaz et al. 2007 and Buat et al. 2011).
gas-rich galaxies have higher fractions of molecular gas (e.g., 25%–50% of the total gas), while gas-poor galaxies have much lower fractions of H\textsc{ii} (e.g., Leroy et al. 2008; see also the COLDGASS scaling relations in Saintonge et al. 2012). The highest global SFRs belong to M 51a, M 83, M 101, and NGC 6946, while the lowest rates belong to the elliptical galaxies and the dwarf NGC 6822. The lower the H\textsc{ii} content, the smaller the IR luminosity (and hence, SFR as predicted by the global K-S relation), while the most luminous disk galaxies have the highest gas content. The H\textsc{ii} reservoir feeds and builds the molecular hydrogen reservoir, which is what ultimately fuels the star formation and slowly builds the stellar mass of the galaxy (see below for discussion of the scaling relation between SFR and $M_\ast$).

For comparison purposes, Figure 16 includes the IR SFRs derived using the relations given by Donoso et al. (2012), who cross-matched WISE 12 \(\mu\)m fluxes with SDSS photometry and spectroscopy of a large, statistically significant sample of nearby galaxies ($z \sim 0.08$). The 12 \(\mu\)m emission is sensitive to both recent SF ($\sim$few hundred $10^6$ yr) and to star formation averaged over Gyr timescales. Moreover, the emission may arise or be associated with AGN as well as the host itself. Consequently, they separated their matched sample into star-forming, intermediate, and type-2 AGN, calibrating the self. Consequently, they separated their matched sample into star-forming, intermediate, and type-2 AGN, calibrating the SFR based on optical emission lines with the WISE 12 \(\mu\)m luminosity. Using these three relations applied to the WERGA galaxy sample W3 luminosities, the Donoso et al. relation SFRs are consistent with the calibrated SFRs from this work (Equations (1) and (2)). Specifically, the star formers (red diamonds) tend to have the highest SFRs and are 20%–30% larger than those derived in this work (Equation (1)), intermediates (green diamonds) are most consistent with the WERGA sample, and the AGN types (blue diamonds) have the lowest SFRs, but still in line with the overall scatter in W3. They point out that most of the 12 \(\mu\)m emission arises from the young stellar populations, <0.6 Gyr in age, consistent with the M 83 analysis comparing in detail the W3 distribution relative to the UV and radio emission (see Section 5). For the earlier type galaxies, however, the AGN types have 12 \(\mu\)m emission that is dominated by the older, evolved stars (including the AGB population), with ages between 1 and 3 Gyr. As we show below, these populations are an important component in the simple stellar population (SSP) models that are used to derive the underlying stellar mass that is traced by the near-IR 1–5 \(\mu\)m emission. The larger scatter seen in the SFR$_{IR}$ based on the WISE 12 \(\mu\)m (or the IRAC 8 \(\mu\)m) emission relative to the SFR based on the WISE 22 \(\mu\)m (or MIPS 24 \(\mu\)m) emission is a consequence of the different emission mechanisms (AGN, PDR, and stellar) and metallicity that augment the mid-IR PAH emission strength. Nevertheless, in the absence of reliable SF tracers (e.g., extinction-corrected Hα luminosity, 22 or 24 \(\mu\)m luminosity, $L_{\text{TIR}}$, or radio 20 cm continuum), the SFR$_{RG}$ based on WISE 12 \(\mu\)m provides an adequate proxy for the star formation activity.

7. STELLAR MASS ESTIMATION

Most of the baryons that comprise a galaxy are locked up in the evolved stellar population, low-mass (~solar) stars that emit the bulk of their light in the 1–3 \(\mu\)m near-IR window. A photometric census of this population of cool K and M giants, in combination with the mass-to-light ratio ($M/L$), renders an estimate of the total baryonic stellar mass for a galaxy. This simplistic prescription for deriving the stellar mass is complicated by individual variations in the initial mass function (IMF), star formation history and population ages, metallicity, dust extinction, AGB (notably the luminous thermal pulsating stars) contributions, and nuclear activity. Nevertheless, there are many studies that have successfully employed both optical and near-IR (2 \(\mu\)m) observations (e.g., 2MASS) to conduct statistical studies of the extragalactic stellar mass–light relation (see Bell et al. 2003; Zibetti et al. 2009). With the advent of Spitzer/IRAC imaging of nearby galaxies, the emphasis is now turning to the mid-IR 3 and 5 \(\mu\)m window of the R-J distribution, with the major advantages being the superior sensitivity to lower surface brightness emission (thus capturing more of the total flux) while less sensitive to the foreground dust extinction. On the other hand, the disadvantage of the mid-IR relative to the near-IR is the added sensitivity to light arising from dust emission associated with star formation and with the evolved population of thermally pulsating AGB stars, both of which will boost the mid-IR luminosity and thereby render an overestimate of the stellar mass (e.g., Meidt et al. 2012). As we shall see below, there is a strong dependence of the $M/L$ ratio on the mid-IR galaxy color, but we caution the results are preliminary and further analysis with a larger sample is paramount.

The WISE “in-band” luminosity, $L_\lambda$ is derived using the equation

$$L(\text{band})/L_\odot = 10^{-0.4(M(\text{band}) - M_\odot(\text{band}))},$$

where $M(\text{band})$ is the absolute magnitude of the source and $M_\odot(\text{band})$ is the absolute magnitude of the Sun as measured in the band. Employing the 2MASS and WISE band RSRs (Jarrett et al. 2011), the SEDs of the Sun and Vega (Fukugita et al. 1995), we derive (cf. Oh et al. 2008) the absolute in-band magnitude of the Sun: 3.32, 3.24, 3.27, 3.23, and 3.25 mag for $K_s$, $W1$, $W2$, $W3$, and $W4$, respectively; these values are used to estimate the stellar mass in conjunction with the $M/L$ ratio.

Recent work that has attempted to derive the $M/L$ calibration for IRAC 3.6 \(\mu\)m and 4.5 \(\mu\)m (usually by bootstrapping from the near-IR) includes Li et al. (2007), Oh et al. (2008), Westmeier et al. (2011), and Zhu et al. (2010). The latter used SWIRE imaging and archival “reference” (stellar) masses that were estimated by combining SDSS photometric data with models from Bruzual & Charlot (2003). The mid-IR $M/L$ that Zhu et al. (2010) present depends on the IRAC luminosities and, to correct for galaxy-to-galaxy variation in the star formation history, on the optical ($g-r$) color (see Equations (6) and (7) in their work).

Yet other studies (e.g., Zibetti et al. 2009), employ the latest SSP models of Charlot & Bruzual (see Bruzual 2007) that have an updated treatment of the AGB contribution, although there remains significant disagreement between observations and the new SSP models (e.g., Kriek et al. 2010; see more discussion on this topic below). Another method that was applied to Spitzer observations of the Circinus Galaxy (For et al. 2012) combines near-IR derived $M/L$ with conversion to Spitzer wavelengths through color conversions and SSP models as follows: using the $M/L$ ($K_s$) relation derived from the analysis of Bell & de Jong (2001) and stated in Westmeier et al. (2011, see their Equation (8)) and $M/L$ near- to mid-IR transformations from Oh et al. (2008), the IRAC $M/L$ relation in terms of the ($J-K$) color follows

$$\text{IRAC 3.6 }\mu\text{m: } (M/L)(M_\odot/L_\odot) = (0.92 \times 10^{1.434(J-K) - 1.380}) - 0.05.$$
flux to equivalent IRAC-1 flux based on the Hubble type (see Figure 21). The WISE $M/L$ becomes

$$WISE \ 3.4 \ \mu m: \ (M/L)(M_\odot/L_\odot) = ((0.92/\xi_1) \times 10^{1.434(J-K_s)-1.380}) - (0.05/\xi_1). \quad (5)$$

One of the most extensive $M/L$ investigations comes from the S4G study of nearby galaxies (e.g., Meidt et al. 2012; see also Eskew et al. 2012), utilizing sensitive IRAC 3.6 μm and 4.5 μm imaging from the “warm” Spitzer Mission. Employing a Chabrier-type IMF (e.g., Chabrier 2003) that is optimal for early-type galaxies, the SSP models of Bruzual & Charlot (2003), and cross-calibrating 2MASS near-IR colors of K/M giants to those measured with Spitzer-GLIMPSE, they derive a relation between IRAC-1 3.6 μm $M/L$ and the [3.6]–[4.5] color:

$$IRAC \ 3.6 \ \mu m: \ \log(M/L)(M_\odot/L_\odot) = -0.22 + 3.42([3.6] - [4.5]). \quad (6)$$

Although these studies are in preliminary stages, the S4G relation appears to render results that are consistent with other metrics (see below), notably for the early-type galaxies (i.e., dominant R-J emission). The WISE equivalent of this relation follows by applying a small scaling factor to convert the WISE magnitudes to equivalent IRAC magnitudes. This entails using the zero-point flux to magnitude conversion, and Hubble type and expected WISE-to-IRAC flux ratio based on model templates are used to derive the band-to-band scaling factors. The $M/L$ would become

$$WISE \ 3.4 \ \mu m: \ \log(M/L)(M_\odot/L_\odot) = -0.75 + 3.42((W1 - W2) - 2.5 \log(\xi_2/\xi_1)), \quad (7)$$

where $\xi_1$ accounts for the $W1$-to-IRAC-1 band-to-band differences, and $\xi_2$ accounts for the $W2$-to-IRAC-2 band-to-band differences as per Hubble type. Using elliptical galaxies as an example, the $W1$/IRAC-1 flux ratio is 1.06, and the $W2$/IRAC-2 flux ratio is 0.94, the $WISE \ M/L$ relation is then

$$WISE \ 3.4 \ \mu m \ (early \ types): \ \log(M/L)(M_\odot/L_\odot) = -0.31 + 3.42(W1 - W2). \quad (8)$$

A more direct, but largely empirical method for using the WISE colors to adjust the $M/L$ relation for star formation history effects, is to adopt the stellar “mass” derived using the $K_s$-band in-band luminosity and compare with the “light” traced by the $W1$ (3.4 μm) luminosity. This hybrid method then correlates the mass with the light in the sense that the $K$ and $W1$ bands are sampling the same stellar population. Accordingly, Figure 17 presents the hybrid $M_s(K_s)$-to-$L_{W1}$ ratio as a function of the $W1$–$W2$ color and the $W2$–$W3$ color, where the stellar mass is estimated using the 2MASS $K_s$-band luminosity (Jarrett et al. 2003) and the Zhu et al. (2010) relation (their Equation (5)) that includes the $(g-r)$ color correction.24 It should be stressed that since we have used the Zhu et al. (2010) for the $K$-band stellar masses, the resultant masses are smaller by ~0.3–0.4 dex compared to those masses derived using, for example (see Figure 18(a)), Bell et al. (2003), Leroy et al. (2008), and de Blok et al. (2008), due to the Zhu et al. (2010) formulation which uses “reference” stellar masses (see also Kannappan & Gawiser 2007). We see from Figure 17 that the $M/L$ has a clear linear trend with WISE color: the $M/L$ is higher for the early types (i.e., bulge-dominated blue galaxies) relative to the late types (star-forming, red galaxies). This trend likely arises from extinction (e.g., dust geometry), metallicity and population age differences. The linear equation that best fits the sample distribution (Figure 17, dashed lines) is

$$WISE \ 3.4 \ \mu m: \ \log(M_s(K_s)/L_{W1})(M_\odot/L_\odot) = -0.246(\pm0.027) - 2.100(\pm0.238)(W1 - W2); \quad (9)$$

$$WISE \ 3.4 \ \mu m: \ \log(M_s(K_s)/L_{W1})(M_\odot/L_\odot) = -0.192(\pm0.049) - 0.093(\pm0.016)(W2 - W3). \quad (10)$$

The steepness in the $M/L$ relation with WISE color over a relatively short range (−0.02 mag < $W1 - W2$ < 0.17 mag) may be influenced by the small sample of “normal” galaxies presented in this work. Comparing to a much larger sample of nearby ($z < 0.1$) galaxies extracted from the Galaxy and

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24 Estimated (~10%–20%) using SED model templates; see also the Hubble type vs. $(g-r)$ color distribution in James et al. (2008).
introduced here, we estimate the stellar mass for our galaxy at best, incomplete. All of which contribute to the observed \( \text{WISE} \) contributions, metallicity, IMF dust geometry, nuclear activity, range in stellar population (notably giant and AGB relative). The GAMA field has a greater variety of galaxy types, covering a wide range of properties. As would be expected, the molecular gas is fueling the massive star formation, indirectly traced by \( \text{CO} \) emission. Both the gas and stellar backbone and bulge populations (the cycle is graphically depicted in Figure 14). On smaller scales, indeed this is observed (see Figure 13 for details), but now converting the \( \text{W}3 \) image to stellar mass to derive the sSFR and SFR per unit mass. At the other extreme, late-type spirals (e.g., M 83) are actively forming stars from molecular hydrogen (with the neutral hydrogen tracking the gas content), building their stellar backbone and bulge populations (the cycle is graphically depicted in Figure 14). On smaller scales, indeed this is observed in Figure 20, a revisit of the southwest bar transition of M 83 (see Figure 13 for details), but now converting the \( \text{W}3 \) image to SFR and the \( \text{W}1 \) image to stellar mass to derive the sSFR at parsec-physical scales. Overlaid (in yellow/orange) are the \( \text{CO} \) contours, tracking the molecular gas. Both the gas and the highest sSFR regions are coincident, with values that peak at \( \text{log SFR}/M_* \approx -9.75 \), as shown in the red dashed histogram. As would be expected, the molecular gas is fueling the massive star formation, indirectly traced by \( \text{W}3 \) through PAH emission arising from PDRs. For the local universe, the existence of a tight scaling relation between the stellar mass (star formation history) and the SFR (current activity) is a vital clue that the formation of stars (and hence galaxy evolution) is regulated by secular (physical) processes that that are active over long (Gyr) periods of time. Moreover, this behavior where high-mass galaxies form fewer stars per unit stellar mass compared with less massive systems is typically found to exist for \( z < 2 \), with an overall decline in sSFR with decreasing redshift (e.g., Daddi et al. 2007; Noeske et al. 2007; Pannella et al. 2009; Karim et al. 2011). The shift of star formation efficiency from higher mass systems in the past to lower mass systems observed locally is often referred to as “cosmic downsizing” (Cowie et al. 1996).

8. STAR FORMATION HISTORY

In this section, we construct the scaling relation between the star formation and the stellar mass of the galaxy sample. Accordingly, using this mass (Equation (9) and the W1 luminosity) in conjunction with the SFRIR (22 \( \mu \text{m} \); Equation (2)) and the combined IR+UV SFR, we derive the global sSFR, gauging the present-to-past star formation history. Figure 19 presents the sSFR compared to the Hubble type and to the stellar mass content. The sSFR derived using the total SFR compared to the IR SFR is slightly higher (\( \sim 0.3 \) dex), yet both exhibit a similar trend with morphology, gas mass, and stellar content. The shift of star formation efficiency from higher mass systems in the past to lower mass systems observed locally is often referred to as “cosmic downsizing” (Cowie et al. 1996).
Figure 19. sSFR compared to the Hubble type and stellar mass. The stellar mass is derived using the $M/L$ relation from this work (Equation (9)). Two global SFRs are shown: black points correspond to the SFR ($22 \mu m$; Equation (2)) and blue squares correspond to the combined IR+UV SFR. There is a similar linear trend (illustrated by the blue shaded regions) for both Hubble type and the host stellar mass. A range in SFRs (from 0.1 to $10 M_\odot \, yr^{-1}$) are represented by the dashed lines.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

Figure 20. sSFR in the southwestern bar cusp of M 83. Left: the sSFR is derived from the $W_1$ (stellar mass) and $W_3$ (SFR) imaging. The green contours range from $-10.5$ to $-9.75$ for log SFR/$M_*$ (yr$^{-1}$). The orange contours correspond to the molecular gas (see Figure 13); right: histogram showing the sSFR distribution for the region. The red dashed line denotes the $12 \mu m$ high surface brightness knots: $<13$ mag (0.2 mJy) arcsec$^{-2}$.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

This observed difference in star formation efficiency between Hubble types, gas reservoir, and stellar content is consistent with the large sample results of Donoso et al. (2012), who compared the sSFR of star-forming, intermediate, and bulge-dominated AGN-type galaxies, as well as the GASS/COLDGASS analysis (Saintonge et al. 2011, 2012) that explored the relationship between the atomic and molecular gas components and the star formation histories using SDSS and GALEX. Finally, we note that the simple WISE color diagram (Figure 4(a)) has a similar behavior as the derived sSFR diagram because the colors, in fact, are tracing the same evolutionary states. That is, the $W_1 - W_2$ versus $W_2 - W_3$ colors in (Figure 4(a)) essentially capture the sSFR.

9. SUMMARY

In this paper we have presented the results of a mid-IR and UV photometric study of 17 large, nearby galaxies, using the WISE, Spitzer, and GALEX space telescopes. The primary science goals were to (1) characterize and assess the quality of source extraction for resolved galaxies observed by WISE, (2) to validate the WERGA measurements by comparison with those using Spitzer imaging, and (3) to derive the star formation activity and (4) the stellar mass content for the sample. For the galaxy M 83 (NGC 5236), we examined in detail the distribution of young and old stars, star formation activity, and gas content. We highlight here our main results from the M 83 analysis and from the larger sample.

1. Employing an MCM-HiRes deconvolution technique, we have reconstructed WISE images that have an improvement in angular resolution that is approximately a factor of three to four relative to the nominal (Atlas) WISE imaging, and comparable (to within 30%) in resolution to that of Spitzer/IRAC and Spitzer/MIPS-24. A more complete description and demonstration of MCM is given in Paper I.

2. The typical 1σ isophotal surface brightnesses for the WISE $W_1$, $W_2$, $W_3$, and $W_4$ bands, respectively, are 21.8, 18.1,
and 15.8 mag arcsec$^{-2}$ (Vega). Azimuthal averaging achieves surface brightnesses that reach depths of 24.0, 23.0, 19.4, and 18.5 mag arcsec$^{-2}$ for bands W1, W2, W3, and W4, respectively, equivalent to AB mag of 26.7, 26.3, 24.6, and 25.1 mag arcsec$^{-2}$, respectively.

3. The photometric performance using the MCM-HiRes reconstructed WISE imaging appears to be of high quality as gauged by detailed comparison with 2MASS, Spitzer, and IRAS photometric properties, augmented with SED analysis using population synthesis models. We caution that there remain cosmetic (negative depression) artifacts enveloping high surface brightness sources (e.g., bright stars; bright nuclei), particularly with W4 (22 $\mu$m); see Paper I for further discussion of these “ringing” artifacts.

4. For the barred spiral galaxy M 83, the direct comparison between WISE and GALEX of the two-dimensional distribution of the warmed ISM and the massive star population reveals the obscured (WISE) and unobscured (GALEX) sites for star formation. Intriguingly, the neutral H$1$ gas correlates strongly with the 11.3 $\mu$m PAH emission, traced by the WISE 12 $\mu$m band, which is usually associated with the molecular gas that fuels star formation; the H$1$ may be the byproduct of molecular hydrogen that has been dissociated by the strong radiation fields arising from the massive star formation in the spiral arms of M 83.

5. Employing the 2MASS and WISE band RSRs, and the SEDs of the Sun and Vega, we derive the absolute in-band magnitude of the Sun: 3.32, 3.24, 3.27, 3.23, and 3.25 mag for $K_s$, W1, W2, W3, and W4, respectively.

6. We have calibrated the IR global SFR relation that is appropriate to the WISE 12 and 22 $\mu$m bands using the Spitzer 24 $\mu$m relation as a bootstrap. In combination with the GALEX luminosities, computed SFRs that encompass both the obscured (traced by WISE) and unobscured (GALEX) present-day star formation activity. We find that the SFR relative to the neutral gas content follows a simple linear trend in which the larger the gas reservoir the higher the SFR, consistent with the K-S scaling relation.

7. The aggregate stellar mass is estimated using the 3.4 and 4.6 $\mu$m bands of WISE. We have derived several variations of the IRAC and WISE $M/L$ relations, bootstrapped from the well-studied $K_s$-band relations and from population synthesis models that relate the mid-IR light that arises from the evolved stellar population to the total stellar content.

8. Combining the global SFR and the stellar content, we investigate the sSFR, gauging the present-to-past star formation history for the sample of galaxies. We find a clear scaling relation between the sSFR and the with Hubble type and the gas content: Early-type galaxies have exhausted their fuel supply, so there is either slow or no growth in the total stellar mass. Late-type spirals and galaxies with large gas reservoirs, are actively forming stars from molecular hydrogen and building their stellar disk and bulge populations.

9. We discuss the construction of WERGA that comprises a complete, volume-limited sample of the local universe. The strengths of WISE to trace the stellar mass and the star formation activity mean the WERGA will play a crucial and complementary role in the multi-wavelength effort to understand galaxy assembly and evolution.

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APPENDIX A

SPITZER AND IRAS PHOTOMETRY

This appendix presents both the ancillary photometry measurements and the direct comparisons with those of WISE. Extending the analysis presented in Paper I, the objective is to validate the spatially de-convolved WISE imaging global and surface brightness measurements using ancillary infrared observations.

A.1. Spitzer Source Characterization

In order to directly compare the WISE isophotal aperture photometry with that of Spitzer, the same aperture size and shape used for the WISE measurements (Table 2) are applied to the IRAC and MIPS-24 measurements. The resulting photometry is presented in Table 7. These tabular results do not include any Galactic or internal extinction corrections.

Measurements are carried out for those galaxies with post-BCD mosaics available from either the SINGS archive or the Spitzer Heritage Archive. In a few cases the resulting mosaic images are too small to extract the integrated flux (using the WISE fiducial aperture) or to measure a reliable local background. NGC 1398 and NGC 6118 were only observed during the Spitzer Warm Mission, and thus only the IRAC-1 and IRAC-2 data were available. In the case of NGC 4486 (M 87), only the MIPS-24 mosaics were adequate in size to extract a complete flux. For the case of IC 342, the IRAC imaging does adequately cover the field, however the nucleus of IC 342 is so bright that it saturated the 12 s exposures. Consequently, we used the short-exposure (HDR) images to measure the IRAC-1 and IRAC-2 mosaics. For IRAC-3 and IRAC-4, since they were too faint to measure with the short HDR imaging, we used saturation recovery methods (developed by the Spitzer Science Center) to rectify the saturated nucleus of IC 342, which is so bright at these wavelengths that the light is dominated by the unresolved nucleus.

Most of the galaxies in the sample have integrated fluxes that have been previously published, notably from Dale et al. (2007) for the SINGS sample and Gordon et al. (2008) for M 101. Even though there has been no attempt to match apertures with the Dale et al. (2007) measurements, there is relatively good agreement between their flux densities and those of the isophotal photometry. We find that for most sources, the agreement is better than 10%, with a few notable exceptions: NGC 584, NGC 6822, and M 51b. The early-type galaxy NGC 584 is much brighter in the IRAC-4 and MIPS-24 measurements of
the SINGS extraction, likely due to using an aperture that is too large for relatively weak R-J emission in these bands (see Section 4.2 for discussion). Similarly, a smaller aperture (compared with SINGS) was used to extract the W4 and MIPS-24 photometry for NGC 6822, resulting in a much smaller flux by comparison. NGC 6822 is the most difficult galaxy to characterize due to its low surface brightness, flat-profile morphology, and proximity to the Galactic Plane with its associated foreground star and dust emission contamination. Another outlier in the comparison, NGC 5195 (M 51b) is much fainter in the SINGS extraction, likely due to the complexity and uncertainty with deblending M 51b from the larger M 51a. As a final comparison, we note that for the giant spiral galaxy, M 101, there is excellent agreement with photometry (where the aperture measurements are uncorrected) reported by Gordon et al. (2008) measured the following uncorrected IRAC fluxes for M 101: 2.84, 1.76, 3.69 and 7.26 Jy, IRAC-1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively. The MIPS-24 flux is 10.5 Jy. Both the IRAC and MIPS-24 measurements are within 5% of the uncorrected measurements of this work.

A.2. Comparing WISE with Spitzer and IRAS

Averaging over large scales, a comparison between the WISE and Spitzer imaging is provided by the mean radial profiles for each galaxy in each band, plots are included in Appendix C. The IRAC/MIPS-24 profile (magenta line) typically matches closely with the WISE profile (black line), with offset differences due to the bandpass differences. For a more quantitative global analysis, we turn to the integrated fluxes. Directly comparing the WISE isophotal photometry with the aperture-matched photometry of IRAC and MIPS-24 requires taking into account the bandpass differences between the two infrared missions. Computing synthetic photometry of model galaxy SED templates (GRASIL: Polletta et al. 2006, 2007; Silva et al. 1998) from the WISE and Spitzer bandpass RSRs (Jarrett et al. 2011), we are able to predict the integrated flux ratio between WISE and Spitzer photometry for a range of Hubble types. Figure 21 presents WISE versus Spitzer photometry flux ratios, which are compared to predicted ratios from early-type, late-type, and starburst galaxies. As noted in Section 3, color corrections for both WISE and Spitzer sources have been applied.

Comparing W3 3.4 μm with that of IRAC-1 3.6 μm, W1 will tend to be brighter than IRAC-1 since the WISE band is relatively bluer; i.e., it is more sensitive to R-J light from the evolved population that is peaking in the near-IR window. And indeed, that is what is observed, particularly for the early-type galaxies (NGC 584, NGC 777, M 87, NGC 1398, and M 51b), which tend to be 5%–10% brighter in W1 (the expected value is ~6%). The late-type galaxies range between 0% and 5% brighter in W1, which is in line with the expectation. The notable outliers are the S4G galaxies NGC 6118 and NGC 1398, which are 10%–15% too bright in W1 compared with the expectation; and M 51a, which is too faint by 5%–10%, likely due to it complex blending with M 51b. IC 342, interestingly, has a ratio that is consistent with a starburst SED in which warm dust has inverted the ratio; indeed, the nucleus of IC 342 is undergoing a strong starburst (cf. Laine et al. 2006; Brandl et al. 2006; J. Turner 2011, private communication).

Comparing W2 2.2 μm with that of IRAC-2 4.5 μm, the WISE fluxes are expected to be slightly fainter, ~5%, than the IRAC fluxes because of the slope in the R-J tail. The observed scatter in the flux ratio is on that order, with early and late types mixing without any obvious segregation. The outliers are M 51a/b, a blended pair system, and NGC 6822, which is a Magellanic dwarf located behind the Milky Way.

The W3 12 μm bandpass is significantly different from the IRAC-4 8.0 μm both in terms of the central wavelength and the sensitivity to the ISM. The IRAC-4 band is centered on the 7.7 μm PAH band (and includes the 6.2 μm PAH band),

Table 7

| Name         | IRAC-1 (Jy) | IRAC-2 (Jy) | IRAC-3 (Jy) | IRAC-4 (Jy) | MIPS-24 (Jy) |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| NGC 584      | 0.347 ± 0.007 | 0.216 ± 0.004 | 0.142 ± 0.004 | 0.070 ± 0.002 | 0.019 ± 0.001 |
| NGC 628      | 0.822 ± 0.017 | 0.589 ± 0.012 | 1.025 ± 0.028 | 3.344 ± 0.083 | 2.882 ± 0.051 |
| NGC 777      | 0.167 ± 0.004 | 0.112 ± 0.003 | 0.095 ± 0.008 | 0.037 ± 0.005 | 0.008 ± 0.004 |
| NGC 1398     | 0.794 ± 0.016 | 0.514 ± 0.010 |             |             |              |
| NGC 1566     | 0.705 ± 0.014 | 0.485 ± 0.010 | 0.861 ± 0.022 | 2.047 ± 0.051 | 2.851 ± 0.050 |
| NGC 2403     | 1.610 ± 0.033 | 1.083 ± 0.021 | 1.854 ± 0.049 | 3.996 ± 0.099 | 5.536 ± 0.098 |
| NGC 3031     | 10.535 ± 0.213 | 6.644 ± 0.130 | 6.111 ± 0.164 | 6.216 ± 0.162 | 5.296 ± 0.094 |
| NGC 4486     | ...          | ...          | ...          | ...          | ...          |
| NGC 5194     | 2.611 ± 0.053 | 1.748 ± 0.034 | 4.082 ± 0.105 | 10.912 ± 0.271 | 12.757 ± 0.226 |
| NGC 5195     | 1.120 ± 0.023 | 0.712 ± 0.014 | 0.667 ± 0.017 | 0.970 ± 0.024 | 1.434 ± 0.025 |
| NGC 5236     | 6.083 ± 0.123 | 4.048 ± 0.079 | 6.350 ± 0.168 | 22.986 ± 0.572 | 42.155 ± 0.745 |
| NGC 5476     | 2.245 ± 0.050 | 1.639 ± 0.032 | 2.891 ± 0.081 | 7.508 ± 0.187 | 8.340 ± 0.147 |
| NGC 5907     | 0.760 ± 0.015 | 0.519 ± 0.010 | 0.834 ± 0.021 | 1.882 ± 0.046 | 1.713 ± 0.030 |
| NGC 6118     | 0.165 ± 0.003 | 0.114 ± 0.002 |             |             |              |
| NGC 6822     | 1.832 ± 0.037 | 1.255 ± 0.025 | 0.985 ± 0.027 | 1.179 ± 0.032 | 1.448 ± 0.026 |
| NGC 6946     | 3.157 ± 0.064 | 2.187 ± 0.043 | 5.096 ± 0.134 | 13.221 ± 0.329 | 20.177 ± 0.357 |
| IC 342       | 7.680 ± 0.155 | 5.168 ± 0.101 | 7.806 ± 0.218 | 22.219 ± 0.553 | 39.486 ± 0.698 |

Notes.

a Aperture size, axis ratio, and orientation are matched to WISE; see Table 2 for coordinate position and aperture details.

b Photometry of NGC 5194/5 is uncertain due to blending.

c For comparison, Gordon et al. (2008) measured the following uncorrected IRAC fluxes for M 101: 2.84, 1.76, 3.69 and 7.26 Jy, IRAC-1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively. The MIPS-24 flux is 10.5 Jy. Both the IRAC and MIPS-24 measurements are within 5% of the uncorrected measurements of this work.

d IRAC imaging of IC 342 saturated in the core, recovered using short-exposure HDR images. Measurements are not corrected for Galactic or internal extinction.
which is small and tends toward charged molecules, while the W3 band is centered on the 11.3 PAH band, which is larger and tends toward neutral-charge molecules (cf. Tielens 2008; Draine 2011). The broad W3 band also includes the silicate absorption band at 10 μm, a typically significant feature in IR-luminous galaxies. The expected flux ratios are, consequently, expected to be large depending on the galaxy type, ranging from 0.6 for early types (R-J emission) and 1.2 for star-forming disk galaxies with AGN. Although the range is large, the observed ratios appear to be within 5%–10% of the expected values. The highest ratio belongs to IC342, which is likely the strongest nuclear starburst in the sample. The other strongly star-forming galaxies, including NGC 2403, NGC 6946, and M 83, all have high ratios, indicating strong 11.3 μm PAH emission.

For the longest wavelength extractions, we compare W4 22 μm with the MIPS-24 measurements. The expected flux ratios range from 0.9 (late types) to 1.1 (early types). The observed ratios tend to cluster around unity, suggesting an uncertainty of ∼5%–10% between WISE and Spitzer measurements in these two bands. The only outlier is M 87, revealing a difference in nuclear AGN emission observed by WISE and Spitzer. Finally, a note about the MIPS-24 observations of M 81, NGC 1566, and M 51b: they all have Spitzer imaging that does not fully cover the field as wide as WISE; hence, there is a slight (∼5%) underestimate of their Spitzer fluxes.

We now compare the WISE isophotal photometry with published IRAS 12 and 25 μm fluxes. As with the Spitzer comparison, we derive the expected ratios using model SED templates and the WISE/IRAS bandpass RSRs. No color corrections have been applied to the IRAS fluxes, only the published values are used for this comparison. The results are presented in Figure 22. Due to the limited sensitivity of IRAS, all of the galaxies in this comparison are gas-rich star-forming systems, roughly Sc/d types (M 81 is the exception, it is an early-type spiral).

For 12 μm, we expect ratios between 1.0 (early-type spirals) and 1.35 (starbursts). The observed ratios are 1.1 to 1.4 for most of the systems, which is ∼10% brighter than the expected range for Sc/Sd type galaxies. M 83 appears to have a flux ratio that is 10% too faint, but well within the uncertainties (IRAS...
fluctuations). We would then conclude that WISE W3 photometry is systematically ~10% brighter than IRAS estimates.

For 25 μm, we expect a more narrow range in flux ratio, from 0.9 (late types) to 1.1 (early types). What is observed is that most sources do have ratios in that range, but exceptions include NGC 5907 (ratio is too high), NGC 6118 (too low), and M 101 (too low). It is not clear whether this is a WISE or IRAS discrepancy, but the latter is the more likely given that WISE W4 and MIPS-24 have very good agreement. The uncertainty between WISE W4 and IRAS 25 μm extractions is ~20%, consistent with the quoted IRAS flux density uncertainties.

APPENDIX B

GALEX PHOTOMETRY

Aperture photometry extracted from the GALEX images of the sample galaxies (except NGC 6118, which was not observed by GALEX) is presented in Table 8. Since there is little (or weak) spatial correspondence between the UV and the IR properties (discussed in Section 5, M 83 results), there is no attempt to match the UV apertures with those of WISE; instead, we use the optical RC3 elliptical shape values, with slight adjustments where needed. The reported flux densities have not been corrected for the foreground Galactic extinction, however the table also includes the expected foreground extinction (AB mag units) in the GALEX bands (see Treyer et al. 2007). In Section 6, we estimated the UV SFR using these flux densities corrected for Galactic extinction.

APPENDIX C

RADIAL SURFACE BRIGHTNESS PROFILES

Figure 23 shows the azimuthally averaged, radial surface brightness profiles for sample of galaxies, including both WISE HiRes (black solid line) and Spitzer (magenta solid line) measurements. The results paired in the standard way: W1/IRAC-1, W2/IRAC-2, W3/IRAC-4, and W4/MIPS-24, from left to right panels, respectively. The WISE profile shapes are simply characterized using a double Sérsic function fit: the inner galaxy or bulge light (cyan dashed line) and the disk (blue dashed line); the gray dashed line is the total contribution from the bulge and disk.

For the elliptical and early-type galaxies (NGC 584, NGC 777, and M 87), the WISE and Spitzer results are solidly consistent for all radii down to the background level, but for the longer wavelengths the signal is much fainter and the surface brightness drops rapidly with radius. The star-forming galaxies also show good correspondence between WISE and Spitzer profiles. Note that for the W3 to IRAC-4 comparison, the band-passes are sufficiently different such that there is an offset in surface brightness. The expected offset, based on the spectral shape, ranges from a scale factor of 0.6 (early types) to 1.1 (star-forming) to 1.2 (AGN); see Figure 7 for details. One clear

| Name    | Axis Ratio | P.A. (°) | R25 (°) | F_{FUV} (mJy) | A_{FUV} (mag) | F_{NUV} (mJy) | A_{NUV} (mag) |
|---------|------------|---------|---------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| NGC 584 | 0.66       | 69.5    | 2.9     | 0.4           | 0.35          | 1.6           | 0.35          |
| NGC 628 | 0.93       | 80.0    | 10.3    | 75.2          | 0.59          | 104.7         | 0.58          |
| NGC 777 | 0.74       | 145.0   | 2.1     | 0.3           | 0.38          | 0.6           | 0.38          |
| NGC 1398| 0.71       | 100.0   | 5.2     | 9.4           | 0.11          | 14.6          | 0.11          |
| NGC 1566| 0.91       | 59.0    | 6.5     | 51.5          | 0.08          | 66.1          | 0.08          |
| NGC 2403| 0.61       | 126.0   | 14.9    | 251.2         | 0.33          | 322.1         | 0.33          |
| NGC 3031| 0.70       | 157.0   | 21.1    | 177.0         | 0.66          | 248.9         | 0.66          |
| NGC 4486| 0.94       | 0.0     | 7.9     | 6.5           | 0.19          | 13.8          | 0.19          |
| NGC 5194| 0.65       | 184.0   | 8.2     | 131.8         | 0.29          | 214.8         | 0.29          |
| NGC 5195| 0.79       | 79.0    | 9.3     | 4.5           | 0.29          | 10.0          | 0.29          |
| NGC 5236| 1.00       | 0.0     | 14.0    | 325.1         | 0.55          | 544.5         | 0.55          |
| NGC 5457| 0.95       | 80.0    | 17.2    | 334.2         | 0.07          | 416.9         | 0.07          |
| NGC 5907| 0.16       | 156.0   | 7.2     | 8.1           | 0.09          | 12.5          | 0.09          |
| NGC 6822| 1.00       | 0.0     | 15.1    | 359.8         | 1.94          | 539.5         | 1.90          |
| NGC 6946| 0.96       | 80.0    | 9.4     | 288.4         | 2.82          | 461.3         | 2.74          |
| IC 342  | 0.96       | 81.0    | 15.0    | 1037.6        | 4.60          | 1116.9        | 4.39          |

Notes. The reported flux densities have not been corrected for the foreground Galactic extinction; however, A_{FUV} and A_{NUV} are the estimated extinctions (in AB mag units) for the GALEX bands and may be used to correct the flux densities accordingly. The formal errors are less than 1%; but including the flat-field and calibration errors, the actual photometric uncertainty is ~5%. The semi-major axis, R_{25}, is approximately equal to one-half of the optical (RC3) D25 diameter. Photometry of NGC 5194/5 is uncertain due to blending.
trend that is seen is that the Spitzer images (notably IRAC) are sometimes too small to capture the total flux of the galaxy, and as a consequence the local background subtraction tends to chop off the outer most extended light. For example, the W3 profile of M 83 (see also Figure 13) drops to zero at a radius of 250‴, whereas the WISE W3 (as well as GALEX) extends beyond 500‴.

Finally, the low surface brightness galaxy in the sample, NGC 6822, shows the largest departure differences between WISE HiRes and the Spitzer imaging profiles. In all four bands, the WISE profiles show a saw-tooth ringing pattern, which is not seen in Spitzer profiles. This galaxy is characterized by a flat diffuse component punctuated with stars and (a few) star formation regions (see Figure 1). The averaged WISE profiles of NGC 6822 are in fact dominated by noise fluctuations and the “ringing” artifacts that are induced by the MCM process (see Paper I for more details on the amplified noise and ringing behavior). However, without the radial averaging, the differences are not so apparent when comparing images side-by-side; see Figure 24, which shows the W3 12 μm (drizzle and HiRes versions) and IRAC 8 μm images of NGC 6822. This case serves as a cautionary note: For dwarf and low surface brightness galaxies, the drizzle co-addition method is the preferred enhanced resolution process for WISE imaging.
APPENDIX D

WISE ENHANCED RESOLUTION GALAXY ATLAS

The results presented in this work represent the pilot study of a large program in which we will use the WISE image and source catalog archive to build the WERGA, consisting of the largest galaxies in the sky, that will complete the S4G IRAC-1 and IRAC-2, $D = 40$ Mpc volume-limited, survey, as well as complement other large surveys (e.g., SDSS, 2MASS, AKARI, LVIS).

A key feature of the WERGA is the construction of images with a factor of $\sim 3$–4 improvement in spatial resolution.
compared to the public-release mosaic imaging. The achieved resolutions are comparable, ∼25%–30%, to those of Spitzer IRAC and MIPS-24. We estimate that MCM/HiRes resolution enhancement (Paper I) is most effective for all galaxies with a near-IR diameter greater than ∼2′. Using the 2MASS XSC (Jarrett et al. 2000, 2003) to select sources by their near-IR angular size, we find over ∼10,000 galaxies with diameters greater than this limit. For galaxies smaller than this size threshold, the most effective and practical resolution-enhancement method is to employ Variable-Pixel Linear Reconstruction (“drizzling”), which improves spatial resolution performance compared with nominal WISE imaging by ∼30%–40%, but is also much less CPU-intensive than the MCM/HiRes reconstruction.

Both sets of images, four bands each, will comprise the WERGA imaging that will be released to the public via NED as part of this project. This all-sky image Atlas will have broad and enduring impact to the community, representing the only WISE imaging that is dedicated to resolved sources, and with the HiRes reconstructions a unique and fundamental component that transforms the all-sky survey into a powerful “observatory” not unlike that of the Spitzer Space Telescope. The legacy value of these high-resolution images will span decades given that AKARI and WISE are likely to be the only mid-IR all-sky survey for many years to come; indeed, most galaxies in the local universe have only been imaged and measured by WISE (e.g., compared to the Spitzer coverage of the local universe).

The advantage of WISE of simultaneously tracing the stellar mass and the star formation activity means the WERGA will play a crucial and complementary role in the multi-wavelength

Figure 23. (Continued)
endeavor to understand galaxy assembly and evolution. This dual capability means that the WERGA could provide a resolved anchor for the (typically, spatially coarse) atomic and molecular gas studies of the SFR to stellar mass scaling relations that are now underway (e.g., GASS/COLDGASS). Moreover, in the coming decade we will see the entire sky mapped with unprecedented spectral sensitivity and spatial detail by radio-wave surveys (ASKAP, MeerKAT, and Apertif SKA pathfinders). Notably, the ASKAP-WALLABY (Koribalski & Staveley-Smith 2013, in preparation) and EMU (Norris et al. 2011) projects will extract neutral hydrogen content and radio continuum (e.g., synchrotron) emission from galaxies in the local universe, both of which in combination with WISE provide insight to the present and past star formation histories.

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