Radio faint AGN: a tale of two populations

P. Padovani1,2*, M. Bonzini1, K. I. Kellermann3, N. Miller4, V. Mainieri1, P. Tozzi5

1European Southern Observatory, Karl-Schwarzschild-Str. 2, D-85748 Garching bei München, Germany
2Associated to INAF - Osservatorio Astronomico di Roma, via Frascati 33, I-00040 Monteporzio Catone, Italy
3National Radio Astronomy Observatory, 520 Edgemont Road, Charlottesville, VA 22903-3475, USA
4Department of Mathematics and Physical Sciences, Stevenson University, 1525 Greenspring Valley Road, Stevenson, MD 21153-0641, USA
5INAF - Osservatorio Astrofisico di Arcetri, Largo E. Fermi, I-50125, Firenze, Italy

Innumerable studies have compared the properties of the two AGN classes in various bands to try and shed light on their inherent differences. As a result, the distinction between the two types of AGN has turned out to be not simply a matter of semantics: the two classes represent intrinsically different objects, with RL AGN emitting a large fraction of their energy non-thermally and in association with powerful relativistic jets, while the multi-wavelength emission of RQ AGN is dominated by thermal emission, directly or indirectly related to the accretion disk. The host galaxies are also different, with those of RL AGN being elliptical while those of RQ ones, excluding the most powerful ones, being spiral (e.g. Dunlop et al. 2003).

However, fifty years after the discovery of quasars the question “Why do only a minority of galaxies that contain an AGN have jets?” is still unanswered. One problem is that, while it would be important to compare the properties of the two AGN classes in the band where they differ

ABSTRACT
We study the Extended Chandra Deep Field South (E-CDFS) Very Large Array sample, which reaches a flux density limit at 1.4 GHz of 32.5 μJy at the field centre and redshift ∼ 4, and covers ∼ 0.3 deg². Number counts are presented for the whole sample while the evolutionary properties and luminosity functions are derived for active galactic nuclei (AGN). The faint radio sky contains two totally distinct AGN populations, characterised by very different evolutions, luminosity functions, and Eddington ratios: radio-quiet (RQ)/radiative-mode, and radio-loud/jet-mode AGN. The radio power of RQ AGN evolves ∝ (1 + z)2.5, similarly to star-forming galaxies, while the number density of radio-loud ones has a peak at z ∼ 0.5 and then declines at higher redshifts. The number density of radio-selected RQ AGN is consistent with that of X-ray selected AGN, which shows that we are sampling the same population. The unbiased fraction of radiative-mode RL AGN, derived from our own and previously published data, is a strong function of radio power, decreasing from ∼ 0.5 at P1.4GHz ∼ 1024 W Hz⁻¹ to ∼ 0.04 at P1.4GHz ∼ 1022 W Hz⁻¹. Thanks to our enlarged sample, which now includes ∼ 700 radio sources, we also confirm and strengthen our previous results on the source population of the faint radio sky: star-forming galaxies start to dominate the radio sky only below ∼ 0.1 mJy, which is also where radio-quiet AGN overtake radio-loud ones.

Key words: galaxies: active — galaxies: evolution — galaxies: starburst — radio continuum: galaxies — quasars: general — surveys

1 INTRODUCTION

Soon after the discovery of quasars (Schmidt 1963) it was realized that the majority of them were not as strong radio sources as the first quasars, as they were undetected by the radio telescopes of the time: they were “radio-quiet” (Sandage 1965). It was later understood that these sources were actually only “radio-faint”, as for the same optical power their radio powers were ∼ 3 – 4 orders of magnitude smaller than their radio-loud (RL) counterparts, but the name stuck. Radio-quiet (RQ) active galactic nuclei (AGN) were until recently normally found in optically selected samples and are characterized by relatively low radio-to-optical flux density ratios (R ∼ 10) and radio powers (P1.4GHz ∼ 1024 W Hz⁻¹ locally).

Imnumerous studies have compared the properties of the two AGN classes in various bands to try and shed light on their inherent differences. As a result, the distinction between the two types of AGN has turned out to be not simply a matter of semantics: the two classes represent intrinsically different objects, with RL AGN emitting a large fraction of their energy non-thermally and in association with powerful relativistic jets, while the multi-wavelength emission of RQ AGN is dominated by thermal emission, directly or indirectly related to the accretion disk. The host galaxies are also different, with those of RL AGN being elliptical while those of RQ ones, excluding the most powerful ones, being spiral (e.g. Dunlop et al. 2003).

However, fifty years after the discovery of quasars the question “Why do only a minority of galaxies that contain an AGN have jets?” is still unanswered. One problem is that, while it would be important to compare the properties of the two AGN classes in the band where they differ
most (i.e. the radio band) this requires the identification of AGN in deep ($\lesssim 1$ mJy) radio fields, as RQ AGN are, by definition, radio faint. This has been possible only recently (e.g. Padovani et al. 2009, 2011; Simpson et al. 2012; White et al. 2015, and references therein).

Our group started addressing this topic, together with others including the broader issue of the source population in very deep radio fields, initially in the Chandra Deep Field South (CDFS). This was done by defining a complete sample of 198 radio sources sources reaching $\sim 43$ $\mu$Jy over 0.2 deg$^2$ at 1.4 GHz using the National Radio Astronomy Observatory (NRAO) Very Large Array (VLA) through a multi-wavelength approach (Kellermann et al. 2008; Mainieri et al. 2008; Tozzi et al. 2009; Padovani et al. 2009, 2011).

Miller et al. (2008, 2013) expanded on this by observing the so-called Extended CDFS (E-CDFS), again using the VLA, down to $\sim 30$ $\mu$Jy at 5$\sigma$, in a 2.8$''$ x 1.6$''$ beam over $\sim 0.3$ deg$^2$. This resulted in a sample of almost 900 sources. We have started exploiting these new radio data with the aim of addressing the issues of the faint radio source population and RQ AGN in more detail, given the larger and slightly deeper E-CDFS sample, as compared to the CDFS one. In particular, Bonzini et al. (2012) have identified the optical and infrared (IR) counterparts of the E-CDFS sources, finding reliable matches and redshifts for $\sim 95\%$ and $\sim 81\%$ of them respectively, while Vattakunnel et al. (2012) have identified the X-ray counterparts and studied the radio – X-ray correlation for star forming galaxies (SFG). Finally, Bonzini et al. (2013) have provided reliable source classification and studied the host galaxy properties of RX AGN, RL AGN, and SFG.

The main aims of this paper are:

(i) present the most accurate number counts for the various classes of sub-mJy sources down to $\sim 30$ $\mu$Jy;
(ii) study the evolution and luminosity functions (LFs) of sub-mJy AGN. In particular, our CDFS paper on this topic (Padovani et al. 2011) was affected by small number statistics, particularly for RQ AGN, and by the large fraction ($\sim 50\%$) of upper limits on the far-IR-to-radio flux density ratio ($q$) used for classifying sources. As discussed at length in Padovani et al. (2011), this topic has important implications for constraining the mechanism behind radio emission in RQ AGN and allow a proper comparison with RL AGN;
(iii) investigate more deeply the density evolution of RL AGN found in Padovani et al. (2011) ($\propto (1 + z)^{-1.8}$);
(iv) provide a new approach to the issue of the fraction of RL sources within the AGN population.

Items (i) and (ii) are very relevant, together with the study of the evolution of SFG, also to the issue of the link between the black holes at the centre of AGN and their host galaxies. Moreover, they are also critical to predict the source population at radio flux densities $< 1$ $\mu$Jy, which are important, for example, for the Square Kilometre Array (SKA). All existing estimates, in fact, had to rely, for obvious reasons, on extrapolations and are based on high flux density samples. This affects particularly the highest redshifts, which can better be probed at fainter flux densities.

Our physical definition of the various classes of sub-mJy sources follows that of Padovani et al. (2011), to which we refer the reader. Following Heckman & Best (2014) we will also use the terms “radiative-mode” and “jet-mode” AGN. In short, radiative-mode RL AGN include radio quasars and high-excitation radio galaxies, while jet-mode RL AGN refer to low-excitation radio galaxies. There is considerable overlap between jet-mode AGN and the radio sources morphologically classified as Fanaroff-Riley type I (FR I) (Fanaroff & Riley 1974) and also between RL radiative-mode AGN and FR IIs, although there is a sizeable population of jet-mode FR IIs and a smaller one of radiative-mode FR I (e.g. Gendre et al. 2013, and references therein). As for RQ AGN, radiative-mode sources are the “classical” broad- and narrow-lined AGN (type I and II), while the jet-mode ones are the so-called liners. Note that the two classes have also widely different Eddington ratios, with radiative-mode and jet-mode sources respectively above and below $L/L_{Edd} \approx 0.01$.

In this paper we present the general properties (number counts, redshift distribution, etc.) of the whole sample and then concentrate on the evolution and LFs of AGN. We will discuss in detail SFG in a future publication (Padovani et al., in preparation).

Section 2 describes the VLA-E-CDFS sample, while Section 3 presents the so-far deepest determination of sub-mJy number counts by class. Section 4 studies the sample evolution while Section 5 derives the AGN LFs and their evolution. Finally, Section 6 discusses our results, while section 7 summarizes our conclusions. Throughout this paper spectral indices are defined by $S_\nu \propto \nu^{-\alpha}$ and the values $H_0 = 70$ km s$^{-1}$ Mpc$^{-1}$, $\Omega_M = 0.3$, and $\Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.7$ have been used.

2 THE SAMPLE

2.1 Redshifts

Our original sample is described in Bonzini et al. (2012) and Miller et al. (2013) and includes 883 radio sources detected in 0.324 deg$^2$ at 1.4 GHz in a deep VLA survey of the E-CDFS. The average 5$\sigma$ flux density limit is $\sim 37$ $\mu$Jy, reaching $\sim 30$ $\mu$Jy in the field centre. The fraction of sources with redshift information is $\sim 81\%$, which is not ideal for determining the evolutionary properties and LFs of our sample. We have then excluded the outermost part of the field, where we do not have enough ancillary multi-wavelength data to provide reasonable photometric redshifts. The resulting sub-sample covers an area of 0.285 deg$^2$ (see Bonzini et al. 2013, for details) and includes 765 radio sources with radio flux density $> 32.5$ $\mu$Jy, 87% of which have redshifts (of these, $\sim 40\%$ are spectroscopic and $\sim 60\%$ are photometric). This is the sample we use to build the number counts in Sect. 3. To further increase the fraction of sources with redshift, we have made another cut and considered only sources with a 3.6$\mu$m flux density $f_{3.6\mu m} > 1$ microJy, which is approximately the completeness limit of

1 See Table 4 of Heckman & Best (2014).
the IRAC observations at 3.6 μm (only four sources have $f_{3.6 \mu m} < 1$ microJy). Coupled with a radio flux density limit of 32.5 μJy, this provides us with clean selection criteria and with a sample of 680 radio sources, 92% of which have redshift (the same fraction as in Padovani et al. 2011). We estimate the redshift for the ~8% of the objects in the sample without observed redshift from their $f_{3.6 \mu m}$, as detailed in Appendix A. To further minimise the effects of these redshift estimates we also define two subsamples: AGN (and RQ AGN) with $z \leq 3.66$ and SFG with $z \leq 3.25$. Above these two values, in fact, 80% and 95% of the redshifts, respectively, are estimated. By imposing such cuts, we are then only assuming that the excluded sources are at high redshifts, which makes sense based on their $f_{3.6 \mu m}$ values (see Appendix A), without actually using their values. This is the sample we use mostly to study the evolution and LF of AGN in Sect. 4 and 5.

Note that the effect of these redshift estimates on our results is minimal, for two reasons: 1. our final redshift incompleteness is very small (~3%, ~5%, and ~1.5% for all AGN, RQ, and RL AGN respectively; see Sect. 4.1); 2. redshift affects $V_e/V_q$ values (Sect. 4.1) much less than flux density. Nevertheless, error bars on the LFs are evaluated using the number of sources per bin with redshift determination only and when binning in redshift the percentages of estimated redshifts are also given for each bin.

2.2 Classification

Source classification has been done by Bonzini et al. (2013), expanding upon the scheme of Padovani et al. (2011). In short, by using $q_{24\mu m}$, that is the logarithm of the ratio between the observed 24 μm and 1.4 GHz flux densities, we could define an “SFGs locus” based on the radio – FIR correlation for SFG. Sources below this locus display a radio excess that is the signature of an AGN contribution to the radio luminosity and were therefore classified as RL AGN. Within and above this locus, a source was classified as a RQ AGN if there was evidence of AGN activity in the other bands considered. Namely, if it had a hard band (2–10 keV) X-ray luminosity greater than $10^{39}$ erg s$^{-1}$ or it lay within the “AGN wedge” of the IRAC colour-colour diagram, as defined by Donley et al. (2012). Otherwise, the object was classified as an SFG. We point out that our AGN classification includes all sources independently of optical appearance (i.e., quasar-like and galaxy-like). We refer the reader to Bonzini et al. (2013) for further details.

The issue of the classification of our sources into radiative- or jet-mode sources has been briefly discussed by Bonzini et al. (2013). The optimal approach to be able to make such a distinction requires rest-frame optical/UV emission line ratios but, given the relatively high redshift of our sample and the incomplete spectroscopic coverage, this is only possible for a handful of objects. Bonzini et al. (2013), using a criterion based on the 22 μm power proposed by Gürkan, Hardcastle, & Jarvis (2014), estimated that the large majority of our RL sources are of the jet-mode type; this is confirmed by their LF (Sect. 5.2.1). As regards our RQ AGN, given our selection criteria, which include also a cut in X-ray power, we expect them to be for the large part of the radiative-mode type. This issue is addressed in Sect. 6.2.

We stress that ours is the deepest sample for which both the evolution and LFs of radio sources has been studied.

3 THE SUB-MJY NUMBER COUNTS

More than half a century ago, the earliest radio source counts gave the first indications of cosmic evolution (Ryle & Scheuer 1955) but the results were not without controversy. The central problem in understanding source counts is the conflict between source confusion at lower resolution and missing lower surface brightness sources or underestimating their flux density at high resolution. These issues, while better understood, still exist today. There is no “correct” resolution to use that avoids the effects of confusion and resolution, but there is an optimum resolution depending on the areal density of sources. Modern deep radio surveys reach flux density levels of only a few μJy where the corresponding source density is ~5 sources arcmin$^{-2}$ at $S = 10$ μJy (Vernstrom et al. 2015). So a resolution of at least a few arc seconds is needed to unambiguously separate sources. But many μJy sources are typically an arcsecond in size, so are partially resolved with a one or two arcsecond beam (e.g. Muxlow et al. 2005).

Published deep radio source counts are widely discrepant, even when made with the same instrument, and even with different investigators using the same instrument in the same field (Condon et al. 2012). Since source detection depends on the peak flux density, the effects of resolution cause two problems. First, if a source is resolved the measured peak flux density needs to be multiplied by the ratio of integrated to peak flux density. For strong sources, where both the measured and peak flux densities can be accurately determined this is straightforward. But for sources with lower signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) Gaussian fitting routines give systematically spurious large sizes and a corresponding flux density bias (e.g. Condon 1997). Even more complicated are sources where the peak flux density is below the detection limit, but with integrated flux densities which are above the detection limit. To account for these non-detections one normally may use a source size distribution equivalent to that of stronger survey sources, but this does not necessarily give the correct answer. As described by Miller et al. (2013) we have used peak flux densities, except where we measure a significantly higher integrated value, a procedure which depends on the local SNR. Because of the then limitations of the VLA at the time of the Miller et al. (2013) survey, the 25 MHz IF bands could be divided into only seven sub bands each of 3.125 MHz which resulted in significant bandwidth smoothing away from the field centre. Because each source may appear in more than one subfield, the corrections for bandwidth smoothing are not straightforward (Miller et al. 2013).

An additional problem arises when one physical source is split into two or more distinct components.
(private communication) has calculated the Eddington bias. Because the source counts are steep, that is there is no way to a-priori distinguish between a relatively strong multi-component source or multiple weaker sources. But the derived source count will depend dramatically on which interpretation is used. We have addressed this issue by reference to optical and/or X-ray counterparts using a maximum likelihood criteria to decide which optical counterparts are associated with which radio features (Bonzini et al. 2012).

Finally, we note the problem caused by the so-called Eddington bias. Because the source counts are steep, that is there are more weak sources than strong sources, random noise fluctuations cause more weak sources to appear above any flux density value, than strong sources which fall below this value. As described by Wall & Jenkins (2012) the determination of the Eddington bias to the observed source count is not straightforward. Following the procedure described by Wall & Jenkins (2012), Wall (private communication) has calculated the Eddington bias corrections to the source count assuming a Euclidean slope. We then corrected the number of sources by a factor, which depended on SNR and ranged from 1/1.194 (5 ≤ SNR < 6) to 1/1.052 (0 ≤ SNR < 10). These same factors were also applied when deriving the LFs.

To investigate the relative contribution of the different source types to the radio population as a function of flux density, we consider here the sub-sample within an area of 0.285 deg$^2$, which provides us with more information for this purpose (i.e., we do not make any 3.6μm flux cut). The sensitivity of our survey is a function of the position in the field of view, although a much less strong one than for the single pointing CDFS sample. In more detail, the area covered is equal to 0.285 deg$^2$ and independent of flux density above ~ 60 μJy, decreases quite slowly to 0.279 deg$^2$ and 0.226 deg$^2$ at ~ 50 μJy and ~ 40 μJy respectively, and reaches 0.05 deg$^2$ at the flux density limit (see Miller et al. 2013). We included

Table 1. Euclidean normalised 1.4 GHz counts.

| f, range (μJy) | mean f, (μJy) | Total (sr$^{-1}$ Jy$^{-1.5}$) | SFG (sr$^{-1}$ Jy$^{-1.5}$) | Fraction (%) | Counts (sr$^{-1}$ Jy$^{-1.5}$) | Fraction (%) | RL AGN (sr$^{-1}$ Jy$^{-1.5}$) | RQ AGN (sr$^{-1}$ Jy$^{-1.5}$) |
|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 32.5 – 60     | 46           | 3.10$\pm$0.17                | 1.92$\pm$0.14              | 62$\pm$5    | 1.18$\pm$0.11                | 38$\pm$4    | 0.26$\pm$0.06                 | 0.88$\pm$0.10                 |
| 60 – 83       | 70           | 2.60$\pm$0.25                | 1.72$\pm$0.20              | 60$\pm$6    | 0.88$\pm$0.15                | 34$\pm$6    | 0.32$\pm$0.10                 | 0.57$\pm$0.13                 |
| 83 – 130      | 103          | 3.01$\pm$0.34                | 1.37$\pm$0.22              | 46$\pm$8    | 1.64$\pm$0.24                | 54$\pm$9    | 0.71$\pm$0.17                 | 0.93$\pm$0.19                 |
| 130 – 270     | 188          | 2.99$\pm$0.38                | 1.30$\pm$0.26              | 43$\pm$10   | 1.69$\pm$0.29                | 57$\pm$12   | 1.15$\pm$0.25                 | 0.54$\pm$0.19                 |
| 270 – 700     | 410          | 4.11$\pm$0.77                | 1.59$\pm$0.35              | 39$\pm$14   | 2.52$\pm$0.61                | 61$\pm$18   | 2.01$\pm$0.56                 | 0.50$\pm$0.34                 |
| 700 – 2000    | 1223         | 6.86$\pm$2.10                | 0.40$\pm$0.33              | 61$\pm$5    | 6.45$\pm$1.39                | 94$\pm$27   | 6.07$\pm$2.14                 | 0.40$\pm$0.33                 |
| 2000 – 100000 | 16092        | 35.6$\pm$9.1                 | 100$\pm$33                 | 35.6$\pm$9.4 | 35.6$\pm$9.4 |

Figure 1. a) (left) the Euclidean normalised 1.4 GHz ECDFS source counts (black filled squares) compared to the source counts at 1.4 GHz from the compilation of Condon (1984) (red filled circles); b) (right) the Euclidean normalised 1.4 GHz ECDFS source counts for the whole sample (black filled squares) and the various classes of radio sources: SFGs (green diamonds), all AGN (magenta triangles), RQ AGN (blue circles), and RL AGN (red squares). Error bars correspond to 1σ Poisson errors (Gehrels 1986). See text for details.
sources down to a root mean square (rms) noise of 6.5 μJy, that is a flux density limit of 32.5 μJy.

Fig. 1a compares the E-CDFS number count with previous determinations at relatively high flux densities compiled by Condon (1984). The strong source count above ~1 mJy shows the familiar steep slope resulting from the well known dramatic evolution of radio loud quasars and radio galaxies. Below this value, all of the strongest sources in Universe have already been included, and the count begins to converge. Below 1 mJy, the count steepens (flattens in the normalised plot) again due to the emergence of the low luminosity population of RQ AGN and SFG, which are discussed further in this paper and in the next one of this series.

Table 1 and Fig. 1b² present the Euclidean normalised number counts for the various classes. The normalised number counts agree very well in the region of overlap (flux densities ≥ 43 μJy) with those of the CDFS (Kellermann et al. 2008)³ and appear to be slightly higher at fainter flux densities. The comparison with the number counts of Padovani et al. (2011) is not shown for clarity but the two determinations agree very well, typically within ~1σ. The main results of Padovani et al. (2011) are also confirmed: AGN dominate at large flux densities (≥ 1 mJy) but SFGs become the dominant population below ≈ 0.1 mJy. Similarly, RL AGN are the predominant type above 0.1 mJy but their counts drop fast at lower values.

In more detail, AGN make up 43 ± 3% (where the errors are based on binomial statistics: Gehrels 1986) of sub-mJy sources and their counts are seen to be drop at lower flux densities, going from 100% of the total at ~10 mJy down to 38% at the survey limit. SFG, on the other hand, which represent 57 ± 4% of the sample, are missing at high flux densities but become the dominant population below ≈ 0.1 mJy, reaching 62% at the survey limit. RQ AGN represent 26±2% (or 61% of all AGN) of sub-mJy sources but their fraction appears to increase at lower flux densities, where they make up 75% of all AGN and ≈ 29% of all sources at the survey limit, up from ≈ 6% respectively at ≈ 1 mJy. The relative fractions of the various classes in our sample are shown in Fig. 6 of Bonzini et al. (2013).

4 EVOLUTION

4.1 \( V_\nu / V_\nu \) analysis

We first study the evolutionary properties of the VLA-E-CDFS sample through a variation of the \( V/V_{\nu_{\text{max}}} \) test (Schmidt 1968), the \( V_\nu / V_\nu \) test (Avni & Bahcall 1980; Morris et al. 1991), that is the ratio between enclosed and available volume, since we do not have a single flux density limit (see Sect. 3). More details on this and other

2 A preliminary version of this figure has been shown by Padovani et al. (2014).

3 Due to a small numerical error, the number counts in Kellermann et al. (2008) and, consequently, also those in Padovani et al. (2009) and Padovani et al. (2011), were too high by ~5%.

Figure 2. Fractional redshift distributions for the different classes of sources, deconvolved with the appropriate sky coverage. The dashed areas denote redshifts estimated from the 3.6μm flux density. Error bars represent the 1σ range based on Poisson statistics. The dotted lines take into account the presence of LSS as discussed in Appendix B. We have computed \( V_\nu / V_\nu \) values for our sources taking into account our double flux density limits and the appropriate sky coverage (see eqs. 42 and 43 of Avni & Bahcall 1980). The IR k-correction was done by using the measured near-IR spectral indices. In the radio band spectral indices between 1.4 and 4.86 GHz are available for ~29% of the sources (Kellermann et al. 2008; Huynh et al. 2012), while for the rest the mean values for the relevant classes were assumed. Statistical errors are given by \( \sigma = 1/\sqrt{12 \ N} \) (Avni & Bahcall 1980). We estimate the significance of the deviation from the non-evolutionary case by deriving the p-value that the \( V_\nu / V_\nu \) distribution is similar to a uniform one according to a Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test. Similar results are obtained by using the deviation from 0.5 (the value expected for no evolution) of \( \langle V_\nu / V_\nu \rangle \). To have an initial simple estimate of the sample evolution we have also derived the best fit parameter \( kL \) assuming a pure luminosity evolution (PLE) of the type \( P(z) = P(0)(1+z)^{kL} \) or a pure density evolution (PDE) of the type \( \Phi(z) = \Phi(0)(1+z)^{kP} \), where \( \Phi(z) \) is the luminosity function.

Our results are shown in Table 2, which gives the sample in column (1), the number of sources in column (2), the mean redshift in column (3), the percentage of sources with redshift estimated from the magnitude in column (4), \( \langle V_\nu / V_\nu \rangle \) in column (5), the p-value that the

© 2015 RAS, MNRAS 000, 1–19
but closer to RL AGN. The main results on the sample broad distribution, extending up to (photometric redshifts). RL AGN have also a relatively lower AGN have the highest classes are shown in Fig. 2. As also shown in Table 2, RQ et al. 2007). that is each object is weighted by the inverse of the area calculated taking into account the effect of the sky coverage, in fact, we fit a PDE model as well, which we feel is cable) in column (7) and (8) respectively. When the best fit a PDE model as well, which we feel is cable) in column (7) and (8) respectively. When the best fit indicates negative luminosity evolution (i.e., $k_L < 0$), in fact, we fit a PDE model as well, which we feel is more physical in this case. The mean redshift is calculated taking into account the effect of the sky coverage, that is each object is weighted by the inverse of the area accessible at the flux density of the source (e.g. Padovani et al. 2007).

The fractional redshift distributions for the different classes are shown in Fig. 2. As also shown in Table 2, RQ AGN have the highest $\langle z \rangle$ ($z \sim 2$) and reach $z \sim 6 - 7$ (photometric redshifts). RL AGN have also a relatively broad distribution, extending up to $z \sim 4.5$ but with a lower $\langle z \rangle$ than RQ ones ($z \sim 1$). SFRG are in between but closer to RL AGN. The main results on the sample evolution are the following:

(i) The whole sample has $\langle V_e/V_a \rangle > 0.5$ and shows significant evolution characterized by $k_L = 1.6 \pm 0.1$;
(ii) SFG evolve at a very high significance level ($p$-value < 0.001); their evolutionary parameter for the case of pure luminosity evolution is $k_L = 2.1 \pm 0.1$. This increases to $k_L = 2.4 \pm 0.2$ for a redshift cut $z \leq 3.25$, which reduces the fraction of estimated redshifts. The evolution and LF of SFG will be presented and discussed in Padovani et al., in preparation;
(iii) AGN as a whole evolve relatively weakly, with $k_L = 0.9 \pm 0.2$ ($k_L = 1.1 \pm 0.3$ for $z \leq 3.66$);
(iv) RQ AGN, however, evolve very significantly ($p$-value < 0.001) with $k_L = 2.3 \pm 0.1$, consistent with the value of SFG (a thorough comparison between the two classes is deferred to Padovani et al., in preparation). This increases to $k_L = 3.0 \pm 0.2$ for a redshift cut $z \leq 3.66$, which reduces the fraction of estimated redshifts;
(v) RL AGN also evolve strongly ($p$-value < 0.001) but in the negative sense, with $k_L = -3.9 \pm 0.9$ and $k_D = -2.1 \pm 0.3$. This evolution is in the opposite sense as that of RQ AGN. As we show below (Sect. 4.2 and 5.2.2), the best-fit evolution of RL AGN is more complicated than assumed here.

We note that Padovani et al. (2011) found a difference in $\langle V_e/V_a \rangle$ between RL AGN with powers below and above $P = 10^{24.5}$ W Hz$^{-1}$, with the former having $\langle V_e/V_a \rangle \approx 0.5$ and the latter reaching smaller values. Given the flux density-limited nature of our sample, and the resulting degeneracy between power and redshift, we believe that this difference, which is still present in the current sample, is better characterised as a redshift dependence (see Sect. 5.2.2).

Given the small area of our survey one could worry that the presence of large-scale structures (LSS) (e.g. Gilli et al. 2003) and related redshift spikes might influence some of our results. The LSS in the E-CDFS is discussed in Appendix B. To assess the impact of the LSS on our study, most of our results are presented for the “full” and the “no LSS” sub-samples, as illustrated, for example, in Fig. 2 (cf. the solid with the dotted lines). As shown in Table 2, the resulting $\langle V_e/V_a \rangle$ values and best-fit evolutionary parameters for the latter are well within 1σ from those derived for the former, which shows that the effect of the LSS on these results is minimal. These over-densities are obviously more noticeable when one studies the evolution of the LF with redshift (see, e.g. the top-middle and bottom-left panels of Fig. 9) but even then the revised LFs are typically within $\pm 1$σ from the “full” ones.

### 4.2 The banded $\langle V_e/V_a \rangle$

Given the available statistics, we can easily study possible changes of the evolution with redshift by using the so-called banded $\langle V/V_{\text{max}} \rangle$ statistic, i.e. the quantity $\langle (V - V_o)/(V_{\text{max}} - V_o) \rangle$, or $\langle (V_o - V_e)/(V_o - V_a) \rangle$ in our case, where $V_o$ is the cosmological volume enclosed by a given redshift $z_o$ (Dunlop & Peacock 1990). This procedure allows us to detect any high-redshift (possibly negative) evolution by separating it by the well-known strong (positive) low-redshift evolution.

Fig. 3 shows that $\langle (V - V_o)/(V_o - V_a) \rangle$ for RQ AGN has a very slow decline with redshift, but still with values significantly > 0.5, until it reaches 0.5 at $z \approx 3.3$. This suggests that the evolution might be somewhat weaker at higher redshifts; we will address this in Sects. 5.3.2 and 6.1.2.

As for the RL AGN $\langle V_e/V_a \rangle < 0.5$ for the whole sample so the banded $\langle V/V_{\text{max}} \rangle$ statistic is not useful.
However, we can plot \( \langle V_e/V_a \rangle \) vs. the maximum redshift of the sub-sample to see if there is evidence of positive or at least null evolution at low redshifts. This is done in Fig. 4, which shows that, indeed, up to \( z \approx 1.5 \) \( \langle V_e/V_a \rangle \) is not significantly < 0.5, being actually > 0.5 at the \( \sim 2 \pm 3 \sigma \) level at \( z \sim 0.7 \pm 0.8 \). While part of this is due to the presence of LSS, making these into account still results in \( \langle V_e/V_a \rangle \sim 0.5 \) and actually > 0.5 at the 2.6\( \sigma \) level at \( z \sim 0.7 \). At \( z > 1 \) \( \langle V_e/V_a \rangle \) declines with redshift, reaching gradually its sample value. This shows that the RL AGN evolution changes from being positive/null to being negative around \( z \approx 1 \pm 1.5 \) and that therefore it cannot be characterized by a simple \((1+z)^k\) law. In other words, \( \langle V_e/V_a \rangle \) evaluated for the whole sample tells only part of the story. We will expand on this in Sect. 5.2.2.

4.3 Maximum Likelihood Analysis

A more general approach to estimate the evolution, and at the same time the LF, is to perform a maximum likelihood fit of an evolving luminosity function to the observed distribution in luminosity and redshift. This approach makes maximal use of the data and is free from arbitrary binning; however, unlike the \( V_e/V_a \) test, it is model dependent. We consider one and two power-law LFs, that is \( \Phi(P) \propto P^{-\gamma_1} \) and \( \Phi(P) \propto 1/[(P/P_\gamma)^{\gamma_1} + (P/P_\gamma)^{\gamma_2}] \) respectively, with a break at \( P_\gamma \). We refer the reader to Padovani et al. (2011) for more details.

Our results are shown in Table 3, which gives the sample in column (1), the evolutionary model in column (2), the two LF slopes (if applicable) in columns (3) and (4), the best-fit evolutionary parameter in column (5), and the break power (if applicable) in column (6). Errors are 1\( \sigma \) for one interesting parameter. The best-fit evolutionary parameters agree (within \( 1 \pm 2 \sigma \)) with those derived through the \( V_e/V_a \) approach.

The maximum likelihood approach (but also the \( V_e/V_a \) one) does not provide a goodness-of-fit test. Therefore, as it is typically done, we carry out a KS test on both the cumulative redshift and radio power distributions and compute the probability of having the KS test statistics as large or larger than the observed one. This can be used to reject a model when too low. The \( p \)-values are given in columns (7) (KS\(_L\)) and (8) (KS\(_P\)) respectively, where the > 2\( \sigma \) and > 3\( \sigma \) levels correspond to values < 0.046 and < 0.003 respectively. The fact that in most cases one of the two \( p \)-values is \( \leq 0.04 \) shows that the models we adopted are too simplistic, as detailed in the next Section.

5 LUMINOSITY FUNCTIONS

The results of the maximum likelihood approach expand upon and complement those of the \( V_e/V_a \) test. A simple power law fit for the LF of AGN is excluded with very high significance (\( p \)-value < 0.001), both in the case of PLE and PDE. However, even a double power law fit is inconsistent with the data, which means that the adopted evolutionary laws are too simple. A simple power law
Table 3. Sample Luminosity Functions and Evolution: maximum likelihood analysis best fits. We consider a LF of the type $\Phi(P) \propto 1/(P/P_{\text{max}})^{\gamma_1} + (P/P_{\text{min}})^{\gamma_2}$ and an evolution $\propto (1+z)^k$. KS$_a$ and KS$_p$ are the KS p-values for the redshift and radio power distributions respectively.

| Sample             | Model | $\gamma_1$  | $\gamma_2$  | $k$        | $\log P_{\text{max}}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ | KS$_a$ | KS$_p$ |
|--------------------|-------|--------------|--------------|------------|----------------------------------|--------|--------|
| AGN, $z \leq 3.66$| PDE   | 1.70 ± 0.04  | ...          | 0.11 ± 0.26| ...                              | <0.001 | 0.016  |
| AGN, $z \leq 3.66$| PLE   | 1.70 ± 0.04  | ...          | 0.16±0.41  | ...                              | <0.001 | 0.016  |
| AGN, $z \leq 3.66$| PDE   | 1.2±0.1      | 1.82±0.06    | 0.0±0.3    | 22.6±0.6                         | 0.006  | 0.306  |
| AGN, $z \leq 3.66$| PLE   | 1.2±0.2      | 1.80±0.05    | -0.15±0.23 | 22.6±0.6                         | 0.005  | 0.340  |
| AGN, $z \leq 3.66$, no LSS| PLE | 1.3±0.2      | 1.80±0.05    | 0.1±0.4    | 22.5±0.9                         | 0.039  | 0.383  |
| RQ AGN, $z \leq 3.66$| PLE | 2.3±0.1      | ...          | 2.8±0.2   | ...                              | 0.022  | 0.038  |
| RQ AGN, $z \leq 3.66$, no LSS| PLE | 0.6±0.6      | 2.64±0.19    | 2.52±0.23 | 22.3±0.16                         | 0.372  | 0.885  |
| RQ AGN, $z \leq 3.66$, no LSS| PLE | 0.9±0.05     | 2.72±0.23    | 2.54±0.23 | 22.50±0.25                        | 0.471  | 0.879  |
| RL AGN             | PLE   | 1.40±0.04    | ...          | -6.0±1.4  | ...                              | 0.003  | 0.771  |
| RL AGN, no LSS    | PDE   | 1.40±0.04    | ...          | -2.4±0.3  | ...                              | 0.003  | 0.772  |
| RL AGN, no LSS    | PDE   | 1.41±0.04    | ...          | -2.3±0.3  | ...                              | 0.018  | 0.870  |

Models consistent with the data are indicated in boldface.

fit for the LF of RQ AGN is also excluded (p-value $\sim 0.02$), while a PLE evolution plus a two power-law LF is consistent with the data. As for RL AGN, neither a simple PLE or PDE model can fit the data, while a two power-law LF is not needed (the best fit slopes turn out to be the same well within the errors). The two AGN classes, apart from displaying evolutions with different signs, have also widely different LF shapes, with RL AGN being characterised by a much flatter LF. Note that the effect of the LSS on these results is truly minimal ($< 1\sigma$).

We now turn to study the AGN LFs in more detail. We first study all AGN together but then, given their widely different LFs and evolutions, we examine the two classes separately.

The effect of cosmic variance was included in the LF uncertainties as follows: 1. we first estimated $\sigma_{\text{var}}$ for the relevant redshift range following Moster et al. (2011) (using the IDL code provided in their paper); 2. we then derived the bias $b$ for the appropriate redshift and number density from Fig. 3 (left) of Somerville et al. (2004). We could not use in fact Moster et al. (2011) to get $b$ as well given that their numbers apply to the whole galaxy population above a given stellar mass, while we here deal with a radio-selected sample; 3. we estimated the relative cosmic variance as $\sigma_{\text{rel}} = b \times \sigma_{\text{var}}$ (see Moster et al., 2011, for details and definitions); 4. $\sigma_{\text{rel}}$ was then added in quadrature with the Poisson uncertainties for each sub-population in each redshift bin. We note that, since the number of objects per power bin in our LFs is never very large, the former turned out always to be smaller than the latter.

5.1 All AGN

Fig. 5 shows three different estimates of the local LF for our AGN, done using the $1/V_{\text{max}}$, or in our case $1/V_{\text{a}}$, method. The AGN $z \leq 0.4$ sample, which includes 29 objects, is consistent with no evolution ($\chi^2 = 0.57\pm0.05$) and can therefore be used as a robust proxy for the local AGN LF (filled squares; similar results are obtained by using the $z \leq 0.3$ sample, which however contains only 21 objects). To increase our statistics, we have included in the sample all sources above our radio completeness limit independently of their $f_{36\mu\text{m}}$ values (see Sect. 2.1), which adds four more sources. In Fig. 5 we also plot the best fits to the local ($z \leq 0.3$) LFs from Sadler et al. (2002) and Mauch & Sadler (2007) (dotted and dash-dotted lines respectively). Our local LF is consistent within the errors ($\chi^2 \sim 1.5$) with both but nominally a factor $\sim 1.7 - 2.3$ higher than the Sadler et al. (2002) and Mauch & Sadler (2007) LF respectively.

Our $z < 0.4$ LF agrees with the $z < 0.2$ AGN LF of Mao et al. (2012), based on the Australia Telescope Large Area Survey (ATLAS) at 1.4 GHz, which currently reaches $\sim 150 \mu$Jy per beam. The Smolčić et al. (2009) AGN LF in the 0.1 – 0.35 redshift range (not shown for clarity) is also consistent with ours.

Fig. 5 shows two further estimates of the local LF for E-CDFS AGN, which are based on the whole sample but are model dependent. The first one is the LF de-evolved to $z = 0$ (filled circles) using the best fit evolutionary parameter from the $(V_{\alpha}/V_{\alpha})$ analysis. This LF is not consistent ($\chi^2 \sim 6.1 – 8.2$ respectively, p-value $< 0.0001$) with both previous LFs, which indicates that the redshift evolution is more complex than assumed. The situation does not change taking into account the LSS ($\chi^2 \sim 5.0 – 6.2$, p-value $< 0.0001$). The second one is the LF derived from the maximum likelihood analysis (double power-law fit, PLE), including also the LSS effect, which is $\sim 2 – 3$ times above previous determinations.

This situation is somewhat at variance with that in Padovani et al. (2011), where the local AGN LF was different (p-value $\sim 0.011$) from both the Sadler et al. (2002) and Mauch & Sadler (2007) LF. We attribute this difference to a statistical fluctuation due to the smaller (15 sources vs. 29) local AGN sample available in that paper. As regards the fact that our LFs are still somewhat above previous LFs, we noted in Padovani et al. (2011) that our AGN LF includes the contribution of RQ AGN,
Radio faint AGN: a tale of two populations

5.2 RL AGN

5.2.1 The local LF

Fig. 6 shows three different estimates of the local LF for our RL AGN. The RL AGN $z \leq 0.4$ sample, which includes 23 objects, is consistent with no evolution $(\langle V_c/V_o \rangle = 0.57 \pm 0.06)$ and can therefore be used as a robust proxy for the local RL AGN LF (filled squares). As done for the full AGN sample, this includes all sources above our radio completeness limit independently of their $f_{24\mu m}$ values (see Sect. 2.1). Our local LF is consistent within the errors ($\chi^2_\nu \leq 1.3$) with both the LFs from Sadler et al. (2002) and Mauch & Sadler (2007) (dotted and dash-dotted lines respectively), although still a factor $\sim 1.4 - 1.8$ higher.

We also compare our local LF with the $z \leq 0.5$ Subaru/XMM-Newton Deep Field LF of Simpson et al. (2012) (red open triangles). That paper adopts a somewhat different method to classify AGN into RL and RQ sources, based on the rest-frame ratio of mid-IR to radio flux density $q_{24} = \log(S_{24\mu m}/S_{1.4GHz})$, with RL AGN defined by $q_{24} \leq -0.23$. Our method relies instead on the observed $q_{24}$ and the dividing line is redshift dependent. To take this difference into account, we checked how many RL AGN with $z \leq 0.5$ and flux density $\geq 100$ $\mu$mJy (the limit of Simpson et al. 2012) were classified as RL by our method and by that of Simpson et al. (2012) and corrected their LF by the ratio of the two (1.6). After doing this, the two LFs are in perfect agreement. Note that Del Moro et al. (2013) have also shown that...
q_{\text{a}} \lesssim -0.23$ gives an incomplete selection of RL AGN as it misses evidence for radio jets.

We also include the $0.05 < z < 0.35$ VIDEO-XMM3 LF of McAlpine, Jarvis, & Bonfield (2013) (blue open squares), who selected their AGN based on them being in host galaxies “redder than the spiral galaxy templates” (and therefore are most likely going to be of the RL type). Their LF appears to be somewhat above ours at $P \approx 10^{23}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ but the difference in selection criteria between the two derivations makes a more detailed comparison difficult.

Finally, Fig. 6 shows also two more LFs: the $z < 0.3$ LF of Best et al. (2014) for all sources (red short-long dashed line) and radiative-mode only (green dot - short-dashed line). Our local LF is consistent with the first LF although nominally a factor $\sim 1.3$ times higher. We discuss this, together with the general issue of comparing our LFs to many previous derivations, in Sect. 6.1.1. Our LF is $\sim 2$ orders of magnitude above the radiative-mode radio AGN LF, which confirms the fact that the bulk of our RL AGN are of the jet-mode type (see also Sect. 6.2).

Fig. 6 shows also two further estimates of the local LF for E-CDF S RL AGN, which are based on the whole sample but are model dependent. The first one is the LF de-evolved to $z = 0$ (filled circles) using the best fit evolutionary parameter for PDE from the $(S/V_c)_s$ analysis. This LF is totally inconsistent (p-value < 0.0001) with both previous LFs, which indicates that the redshift evolution is more complex than assumed. (The situation does not change taking into account the LSS; p-value < 0.0001). This is confirmed by the second one, that is the LF derived from the maximum likelihood analysis using a more complex density evolutionary law than PDE, as detailed in Sect. 5.2.2. In this case the best fit LF is in good agreement with both previous LFs up to $P \gtrsim 10^{24}$ W Hz$^{-1}$, which suggests that this evolutionary law might be valid only up to these powers, as we cannot yet constrain the bright end slope of the LF (this has however been done by other wider/shallower surveys).

### 5.2.2 The LF redshift evolution

We noticed in Sect. 4.2 that the RL AGN evolution cannot be simply parametrized by a $(1 + z)^k_l$ law but reaches a peak at $z \approx 0.5 \ldots 1$. We therefore introduce a more complex density evolutionary law, which we term as “$z_{\text{peak}}$ density evolution” (ZDE) as follows:

$$\text{ev}(z) = \frac{(1 + z_{c})^{k_{\text{low}}} + (1 + z_{c})^{k_{\text{high}}}}{(1 + z_{c})^{k_{\text{low}}} + (1 + z_{c})^{k_{\text{high}}}}$$

This allows for a situation where evolution changes sign above some redshift and for a smooth transition. Indeed, $\text{ev}(z) \propto (1 + z)^{k_{\text{low}}}$ and $\text{ev}(z) \propto (1 + z)^{k_{\text{high}}}$ for $z \ll z_c$ and $z \gg z_c$ respectively (and ev(0) = 1). If $k_{\text{low}} > 0$ and $k_{\text{high}} < 0$ then ev(z) peaks at $z_{\text{peak}} = (k_{\text{high}}/k_{\text{low}})^{1/(k_{\text{low}}-k_{\text{high}})}(1+z_{c})-1$. The results of fitting this model to our RL AGN sample are reported in Table 4. We find a best fit $z_{\text{peak}} \sim 0.5$, with the density evolution turning from positive to negative respectively below and above this value, while the slope of the LF is basically the same as derived before. Importantly, the model is consistent with the data as shown by the results of both KS tests. Taking into account the effects of the LSS changes our best fit parameters by less than 1σ.
Table 5. Luminosity Functions of VLA-ECDFS RL AGN.

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{z range} & \log P_{1.4GHz} \ 
\text{W Hz}^{-1} & \log P\Phi(P) \ 
\text{Gpc}^{-3} & N \\
\hline
21.33 & 5.85 \pm 0.26 & 4 \\
21.83 & 4.99 \pm 0.26 & 4 \\
22.33 & 4.58 \pm 0.26 & 5 \\
22.63 & 4.22 \pm 0.26 & 6 \\
23.33 & 3.93 \pm 0.07 & 2 \\
23.63 & 3.62 \pm 0.52 & 1 \\
24.33 & 3.62 \pm 1.94 & 1 \\
25.33 & 3.62 \pm 1.94 & 1 \\
\hline
22.85 & 5.57 \pm 0.13 (4.53 \pm 0.13) & 18 (16) \\
23.35 & 4.30 \pm 0.14 (4.23 \pm 0.16) & 20 (17) \\
23.85 & 3.59 \pm 0.33 (3.46 \pm 0.30) & 4 (3) \\
24.35 & 3.94 \pm 0.41 (3.76 \pm 0.22) & 9 (6) \\
24.85 & 2.99 \pm 0.93 & 1 \\
25.35 & 3.46 \pm 0.39 & 3 \\
25.85 & 3.29 \pm 0.37 (2.99 \pm 0.52) & 2 (1) \\
\hline
23.59 & 4.01 \pm 0.15 & 13 \\
24.09 & 3.74 \pm 0.18 & 9 \\
1.0 < z \leq 1.5 & 3.63 \pm 0.26 & 7 \\
25.09 & 2.78 \pm 0.32 & 2 \\
25.59 & 3.08 \pm 0.54 & 2 \\
26.09 & 3.08 \pm 0.37 & 2 \\
1.5 < z \leq 2.0 & 3.49 \pm 0.21 & 6 \\
24.09 & 2.71 \pm 0.90 & 1 \\
25.99 & 3.18 \pm 0.40 & 3 \\
26.59 & 2.71 \pm 0.52 & 1 \\
2.0 < z \leq 2.5 & 2.98 \pm 0.37 & 2 \\
25.15 & 2.98 \pm 0.32 & 2 \\
2.5 < z \leq 4.5 & 3.00 \pm 0.52 & 1 \\
24.26 & 2.11 \pm 0.52 & 1 \\
24.76 & 2.11 \pm 0.52 & 1 \\
25.26 & 2.41 \pm 0.80 & 2 \\
26.26 & 2.11 \pm 0.52 & 1 \\
26.76 & 2.11 \pm 0.52 & 1 \\
\end{array}
\]

Numbers in parenthesis take into account the effect of the LSS. Errors correspond to 1σ Poisson errors evaluated using the number of sources per bin with redshift determination added in quadrature with the cosmic variance uncertainties. The conversion to units of Mpc\(^{-3}\) dex\(^{-1}\) used, for example, by Simpson et al. (2012), is done by subtracting 9 − log(ln(10)) from our values.

Fig. 7 (tabulated in Table 5) shows the evolution of the RL AGN LF in six redshift bins. The decrease in number at higher redshifts is clearly visible, as is the fact that the ZDE maximum likelihood fit provides a very good representation of the LF redshift evolution.

As discussed in Sect. 6.1.1, a direct comparison between the evolution of our LF and previously published results is not straightforward. However, once one takes into account some of the most obvious differences our results are in agreement with previous ones. As an example, Fig. 7 shows that our LF in the 0.5 − 1.0 redshift bin is somewhat higher, as expected, but still consistent within the errors, with that of Best et al. (2014) (all sources).

The same thing applies to the LFs of Gendre, Best & Wall (2010) in the 0.8 − 1.5 and 1.2 − 2.5 bins.

5.3 RQ AGN

5.3.1 The local LF

The local (\(z \leq 0.3 − 0.4\)) LF for radio-selected RQ AGN has, so far, never been determined\(^5\). We present it in Fig. 8. The RQ AGN \(z \leq 0.4\) sample (filled squares) includes only 6 objects and the corresponding LF is therefore quite uncertain. We therefore complement it by deriving the LF for the full sample de-evolved to \(z = 0\) (filled circles) using the best fit evolutionary parameter from the \((V_c/V_o)\) analysis and the local LF derived from the maximum likelihood analysis (2 power-law, PLE). Given the discussion in Sect. 4 both these estimates should be reliable. We also plot in Fig. 8 the radio LFs for the 12µm (open circles) and Center for Astrophysics (CIA; open squares) Seyferts (Russ, Malkan, & Edelson 1996) and the Palomar Seyferts (Ulvestad & Ho 2001), that is of the local counterparts of (mostly) RQ AGN. There are a couple of points one needs to consider here: 1) all these LFs are bivariate, that is they were derived by observing in the radio band samples of Seyfert galaxies. Given that the original sample selection was done in the optical, it is almost certain that the samples are not complete in the radio and therefore the LFs are lower limits to the true ones; 2) there is some scatter between the various estimates, although this is usually within the rather large error bars, which are due to the fact that many bins include only 1 − 2 sources; 3) the high-power (\(P \geq 10^{24}\) W Hz\(^{-1}\)) tail should not be considered since the 12µm sample, for example, includes a number of “classical” RL sources (e.g. 3C 273, 3C 120, OJ 287). Taking all of the above into account, our determination of the local LF for radio-selected RQ AGN is not inconsistent with the Seyfert LFs. We will return to this issue in Sect. 6.1.2.

5.3.2 The LF redshift evolution

The first ever determined evolution of the RQ AGN radio LF is shown in six redshift bins in Fig. 9 (tabulated in Table 6). The increase in power at higher redshifts is clearly visible, as is the fact that the PLE maximum likelihood fit provides a good representation of the LF redshift evolution, which means that the possible slowdown at higher redshifts hinted at in Sect. 4.2 has to be subtle.

5.4 RL and RQ AGN comparison

Fig. 10 shows the redshift evolution of RL and RQ AGN in various luminosity bins, with the points coming from the \(1/V_o\) method and the lines being the best maximum likelihood fits assuming PLE for RQ AGN and PDE for RL AGN respectively and a single power law (given the relatively small power range). The figure shows that, while at low powers (\(P_{1.4GHz} < 10^{23}\) W Hz\(^{-1}\))...
RQ and RL AGN are equally numerous, the situation changes at $10^{23} < P_{1.4\,\text{GHz}} < 10^{25}$ W Hz$^{-1}$, where RQ AGN overtake RL ones. For example, at $z \sim 2 - 3$ and $10^{24} < P_{1.4\,\text{GHz}} < 10^{25}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ RQ AGN are more abundant than RL ones by factors $\sim 3 - 10$. At even larger powers ($P_{1.4\,\text{GHz}} > 10^{25}$ W Hz$^{-1}$) the number densities of the two classes appear to be similar again but at this point we are running out of RQ AGN.

We stress that the fact that the decline appears to start at larger redshifts for more powerful sources has nothing to do with “cosmic down-sizing” (as instead stated by Simpson et al. 2012) but is simply an effect of our flux density limit. Within a redshift bin, in fact, not all sources in a given radio luminosity bin might be visible by our survey and this leads to a “loss” of objects. As a result, sources will start to fall below the flux density limit at progressively higher redshifts for larger powers. This explains the sudden stop in the rise of both classes, which in deeper samples is expected to continue (obviously barring an intrinsic redshift cutoff).

Ueda et al. (2014) reach maximum number densities $\sim 3 \times 10^5$ Gpc$^{-3}$ for their X-ray selected (largely RQ) AGN with $10^{42} < L_x < 10^{43}$ erg s$^{-1}$ and $z \sim 0.7$ (see their Fig. 12), to be compared with our value of $\sim 7 \times 10^4$ Gpc$^{-3}$ at $z \sim 0.3$ (Fig. 10). This is to be expected as their AGN surface density is $\sim 3,000$ deg$^{-2}$ vs. $\sim 800$ deg$^{-2}$ for our RQ AGN (see Sect. 6.1.2), which simply means that we have not detected all AGN with $L_x > 10^{42}$ erg s$^{-1}$ (but only those above our radio flux density limit).

Finally, we note that the number densities for “classical” RL quasars are orders of magnitude smaller than those of our RL AGN ($\lesssim 1$ Gpc$^{-3}$ for $P_{2.7\,\text{GHz}} > 10^{27}$ W Hz$^{-1}$; see, e.g. Fig. 5 of Wall et al. 2005).

### 6 Discussion

#### 6.1 The evolution of micro-Jy radio sources

We now analyze in more detail the evolution of the two AGN classes and, when applicable, compare it with previous results.
Figure 9. The differential 1.4 GHz LF for RQ AGN in a $P \propto \phi(P)$ form in six redshift bins. The (blue) solid lines represent the best fit double power-law LF from the maximum likelihood method evolved to the central redshift of the bin using the best fit for pure luminosity evolution $(1 + z)^{2.5}$, with dotted lines showing the same LF at the two extreme redshifts defining the bin. The (red) short-dashed line represents the best fit LF at $z = 0$. Error bars correspond to 1σ Poisson errors evaluated using the number of sources per bin with redshift determination added in quadrature with the cosmic variance uncertainties. The percentage of redshifts estimated from $f_{s,\text{true}}$ is also given for each bin. Open symbols in the $z = 0.5 - 1.0$ and $1.5 - 2.0$ bins take into account the presence of LSS. The (black) dotted vertical lines denote the completeness limit in power for each redshift range. See text for details.

6.1.1 RL AGN

The evolution of RL AGN is not described by PLE or a simple PDE. Instead, it can be characterised as a density evolution reaching a peak at $z \sim 0.5$ and then decreasing.

Rigby et al. (2011) studied various samples of steep-spectrum ($\alpha_s > 0.5$) AGN selected from a variety of radio surveys with increasingly smaller areas and flux density limits. They found a significant decline in comoving density at $z > 0.7$ for their lower luminosity sources ($10^{25} < P_{1.4\text{GHz}} < 10^{26}$ W Hz$^{-1}$). Turnovers were still present at higher powers but moved to larger redshifts, suggesting a luminosity-dependent evolution of the redshift peak, similar to the so-called “cosmic downsizing” seen, for example, in the X-ray band (Ueda et al. 2014). Fig. 10 (bottom right) shows the relevant points (filled triangles) from Fig. 11 of Rigby et al. (2011) in one of the two ranges of luminosities we have in common. Considering that, unlike these authors, we have no cut on $\alpha_s$ and therefore we are bound to have more AGN in our sample, our points agree with theirs within our error bars. The same is true for the $10^{26}$–$10^{27}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ range (not shown because there are no RQ AGN at those powers). Fig. 10 shows that at the powers corresponding to the low luminosity end of the Rigby et al. (2011) sample we cannot put any constraints on a peak at $z \sim 0.7$, as we are only sensitive to $z \gtrsim 0.5$, but our data are consistent with the trend present in the Rigby et al. (2011) sample. Moreover, we can use Fig. 10 of Rigby et al. (2011), which shows a strong correlation between $z_{\text{peak}}$ and power. Since our median $P_{1.4\text{GHz}}$ is $\sim 10^{24}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ the $z_{\text{peak}} \sim 0.5$ we find through the ZDE fit appears to be in agreement with the Rigby et al. (2011) results.

Best et al. (2014) have also studied various samples of (steep-spectrum) radio AGN selected from a variety of surveys with increasingly smaller areas and flux density limits. They classify their sources into radiative-mode and jet-mode AGN using emission line diagnostics. Based on Fig. 6, Bonzini et al. (2013), and Sect. 6.2 (see also Fig. 1 of Best et al. 2014), the large majority of our RL AGN have to be of the latter type, so we compare our findings to their results on the jet-mode population. For $P_{1.4\text{GHz}} \lesssim 10^{24}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ Best et al. (2014) (see their Fig. 5) find that its space density stays constant up to $z \approx 0.5$ and then decreases to $z = 1$. At moderate powers, $10^{24} \lesssim P_{1.4\text{GHz}} \lesssim 10^{26}$ W Hz$^{-1}$, the space density increases to $z \sim 0.5$ before falling. At the highest powers the space density appears to increase up to $z \sim 1$ but the statistics is somewhat limited.

Our results are similar to those of Best et al. (2014), taking into account our somewhat more limited coverage.
of the luminosity – redshift plane. Fig. 10 shows that for \( P_{\text{1.4 GHz}} \lesssim 10^{24} \text{ W Hz}^{-1} \) the space density of RL AGN increases up to \( z \approx 0.5 \) while for \( 10^{24} \lesssim P_{\text{1.4 GHz}} \lesssim 10^{26} \text{ W Hz}^{-1} \), and taking into account the effect of the LSS, it increases to \( z \approx 1.0 \) before falling. We cannot say anything about larger powers.

It is important to stress the difference between a “purely flux density limited” sample, like ours, and many others published in the literature, which are very often put together by cross-correlating very large surveys. For example, the Best et al. (2014) LF, as discussed in Heckman & Best (2014), is built by combining four different radio LF’s based on four spectroscopic samples: Las Campanas (Machalski & Godlowski 2000), 2dFGRS (Sadler et al. 2002), SDSS/NVSS/FIRST (Best & Heckman 2012), and 6dFGS (Mauch & Sadler 2007). Although these samples are large (including, e.g. more than 2,500 and 7,000 sources for the 6dFGS and SDSS/NVSS/FIRST samples) one needs to consider that, by construction, they do not sample the full RL AGN population. All of them, in fact, are limited to galaxies (and therefore do not include non-stellar and broad-line sources) and to steep-spectrum (\( \alpha > 0.5 \)) radio sources. Gendre, Best & Wall (2010) and Gendre et al. (2013), who derived the LF for FR I/II radio galaxies, also included only galaxies, excluding any compact or quasar-dominated source. Our LF, being simply radio flux density limited, has no such biases and therefore is bound to find number densities larger than these determinations; this is true also for Mao et al. (2012) and Simpson et al. (2012) (pending their different definition of RL AGN).

Padovani et al. (2011) made a connection between the negative evolution of RL AGN and that of elliptical galaxies. For example, Taylor et al. (2009) have found that the number density of massive (\( M_r > 10^{11} M_\odot \)) red galaxies declines with redshift as \( \Phi(z) \propto (1+z)^{-1.60^{+0.14}_{-0.21}} \) for \( z \leq 1.8 \). If we restrict our sample to \( z \leq 1.8 \) we get \( \Phi(z) \propto (1+z)^{-1.3^{+0.5}_{-0.5}} \), which is very similar.

Fig. 11 compares the LF of our RL AGN in the redshift range 1.3 – 1.7 with two different models at \( z = 1.5 \) from Best et al. (2014). These models, starting from the assumption that jet-mode RL AGN are hosted in quiescent galaxies, combine the known stellar mass function of the host galaxies with the stellar mass dependency of the presence of a RL AGN to make predictions on the evolution of the RL AGN LF. Model 2b is a luminosity-density evolution model, in which the luminosity of the RL AGN increases with increasing redshift and there is a delay of \( \sim 2 \) Gyr between the formation of the host galaxy and the presence of a radio jet. Model 3a is a pure density evolution model in which a subset of the sources classified as jet-mode are in reality related to the radiative-mode RL AGN population. This could be due to a misclassification of some objects or to a change in physical properties with redshift. As shown in Fig. 7 of Best et al. (2014), the LFs predicted by these models are clearly distinguishable only at \( z > 1 \), i.e. beyond their maximum redshift. Our sample covers a wide radio power range also at \( z \sim 1.5 \) and therefore we have the opportunity to test these different models. As shown in Fig. 11, model 3a is consistent with our LF, while model 2b is clearly not. Since the predictions were based on jet-mode only RL AGN, we also restricted our sample only to this type of sources by following Bonzini et al. (2013) and using the 22 \( \mu \)m power criterion proposed by Gürkan, Hardcastle, & Jarvis (2014). Only one of our jet-mode RL AGN turned out to have an Eddington ratio inconsistent with this classification (\( > 0.1 \); see Sect. 6.2) and was therefore re-classified. The jet-mode LF is shown in Fig. 11 (filled red triangles) and is basically the same as the overall LF.

6 Best et al. (2014) have compiled some more recent results, which paint a somewhat more complex evolution.

7 As discussed in Bonzini et al. (2013), this method has not been tested on as faint a sample as ours and therefore we regard this as only a rough classification.

Figure 11. The RL AGN LF at 1.3 ≤ \( z \) ≤ 1.7 compared with two different models from Best et al. (2014) at \( z = 1.5 \). Filled (black) circles include all sources, while (red) triangles represent our best estimate of the jet-mode LF. See text for details.
steepening with redshift in the faint-end slope of the LF and the fact that luminosity evolution appears to stop at $z \approx 2.5$, as shown, for example, in Fig. 11 of Ueda et al. (2014). It is important to note that the latter LF, and all those studied in the X-ray band, refer only to Compton thin AGN, characterised by an absorbing column density $N_H < 1.5 \times 10^{24}$ cm$^{-2}$, while in principle we have no such limitation (although our cut in X-ray power might also exclude Compton thick sources). Keeping that in mind, Fig. 9 shows that the LF faint-end slope is constrained only at $z < 0.5$; moreover, most ($\sim 74\%$) of our RQ AGN have $z < 2$. The two effects combined make any deviation from PLE of the type seen in the X-ray band hard to detect.

We nevertheless split the RQ AGN sample in two sub-samples of the same size with redshift respectively smaller and larger than 1.3, fitting PLE evolution to both. Evolution slows down at higher redshifts, with $k = 4.0 \pm 0.6$ and $k = 2.0 \pm 0.5$ respectively below and above $z = 1.3$. However, the errors on the evolutionary parameters overlap at the $\sim 2\sigma$ level, making this difference not statistically significant. In other words, a high-redshift slowing down of the evolution is consistent with, but not required by, our data.

We note that the surface density of our RQ AGN, $\sim 860$ deg$^{-2}$, is already larger than that reached by the deepest optical surveys, that is $\sim 670$ deg$^{-2}$ for type I and II combined. This number is the sum of $\sim 200$ deg$^{-2}$, from a type II AGN sample based on the zCOSMOS survey and selected on the basis of the optical emission line ratios (Bongiorno et al. 2010), and $\sim 470$ deg$^{-2}$, from a type I AGN sample extracted from the VIMOS VLT Deep Survey (Gavignaud et al. 2006). We note that the overall (RQ plus RL) AGN surface density is $\sim 1,500$ deg$^{-2}$.

As regards the X-ray band, our RQ AGN surface density is $\sim 20$ times smaller than that of Lehmer et al. (2012), which is simply due to the fact that our radio flux density limit is still not as deep as the equivalent one in the X-rays (see also Fig. 10 in Vattakunnel et al. 2012, for a comparison of the star formation rates reachable in the two bands).

To allow for a fairer comparison between our sample and the X-ray samples we have fitted a double power law LF to all points in Fig. 8, obtaining $N_T \sim 2.7 \times 10^5$ Gpc$^{-3}$, a value, which is basically the same as the maximum number density of Ueda et al. (2014). This implies a surface density $\sim 15, 400$ deg$^{-2}$ (using eq. 2 of Padovani 2011), to be compared with $\sim 15,000$ deg$^{-2}$ in the 4 Ms survey of Lehmer et al. (2012). In other words, once one takes into account the fact that our radio flux density limit is still not as deep as the equivalent one in the X-ray band by including the radio LF of Seyfert galaxies, the number and surface densities one obtains are the same, which shows that we are simply looking at the same population from two different bands and the

![Figure 12.](image)

**Figure 12.** The distribution of the ratio of X-ray power to stellar mass, $L_x/M_*$ for RQ (blue solid histogram) and RL (red dashed histogram) AGN. The top labels give the approximate values of the Eddington ratio. Shaded areas are upper limits.

### 6.2 Astrophysics of micro-Jy sources

To analyse in more depth the astrophysical nature of our AGN, we study the ratio of X-ray power to stellar mass, $L_x/M_*$, a proxy for the Eddington ratio $L/L_{Edd}$ (see, e.g. Bongiorno et al. 2012). This can in fact be written as

$$\frac{L}{L_{Edd}} = \frac{k_{bol}}{1.26 \times 10^{38} \Upsilon} \times \frac{L_x}{M_*},$$

(2)

where $k_{bol}$ is the $2 - 10$ keV bolometric correction and $\Upsilon = M_{BH}/M_*$ is the ratio between black hole and stellar mass.

Stellar masses were estimated by Bonzini et al. (2013), using the method of Bongiorno et al. (2012). Fig. 12 displays the distribution of $L_x/M_*$ for RQ (blue solid histogram) and RL (red dashed histogram) AGN, with shaded areas denoting upper limits. We assume $k_{bol} = 25$ (Bongiorno et al. 2012) and $\Upsilon = 0.001$ (Trump et al. 2015, and references therein), noting that, given the observational scatter and a possible dependence of $k_{bol}$ on $L/L_{Edd}$, the resulting $L/L_{Edd}$ values are only approximate. These are given by the top labels in Fig. 12. For our choice of parameters, $L_x/M_* = 5 \times 10^{38}$ erg s$^{-1}$ M$_{\odot}^{-1}$ corresponds to the Eddington limit.

Fig. 12 shows that the two $L_x/M_*$ distributions appear very different, with RQ AGN having much larger values. Given the substantial fraction of upper limits (all on $L_x$) we used ASURV (Lavalley, Isole, & Feigelson 1992), the Survival Analysis package which employs the routines described in Feigelson & Nelson (1985) and Isole

---

8 Some of the topics discussed here and in Sect. 6.3 were originally presented in Padovani (2011). We give here updated numbers.
et al. (1986), which evaluate mean values by dealing properly with non-detections and also compute the probability that two samples are drawn from the same parent population. RQ and RL AGN have totally different (p-values < 0.001) distributions, according to all two-sample tests in ASURV. The means are also very different, being $L_{\text{r}}/M_{\text{r}} \sim 2.4 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$ M$_{\odot}^{-1}$ and $\sim 5.5 \times 10^{30}$ erg s$^{-1}$ M$_{\odot}^{-1}$ for RQ and RL AGN respectively, a factor $\sim 40$ difference. The corresponding (approximate) Eddington ratios are $\approx 0.05$ and $\approx 0.001$. Given that the dividing line between radiative- and jet-mode sources is thought to be $L/L_{\text{Edd}} \approx 0.01$ (e.g. Heckman & Best 2014), our results are consistent with our RQ and RL AGN being mostly of the former and latter type, respectively.

### 6.3 The intrinsic fraction of radiative-mode RL AGN

The RL AGN fraction, $f_{\text{RLAGN}}$, has been derived in the past from bright, optically selected samples which contain RL sources very different from most of the sources studied here. Namely, they are RL quasars and therefore belong with the radiative-mode AGN, while we have mostly jet-mode objects (Sect. 6.2). Indeed, the RL AGN in the “classic” Palomar Green sample studied by Kellermann et al. (1989), from which the “standard” value $f_{\text{RLAGN}} \sim 10\%$ comes,$^9$ have $P_{4\text{GHz}} \gtrsim 10^{25}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ and maximum number densities $P\Phi(P) \sim 11$ Gpc$^{-3}$ (Padovani 1993), that is they are below the plotting area in Figs. 5 and 6 and barely inside in Fig. 8.

The way this fraction was derived was by looking for a bimodality in the radio-to-optical flux density ratio, $R$, classifying as RL the sources with $R$ larger than the value corresponding to the minimum in the distribution (0.1 $< R < 100$ in Kellermann et al. 1989)$^{10}$. Padovani (2011) has pointed out that: a) bright, optically selected samples might include RL quasars with their optical flux boosted by relativistic beaming (e.g. Goldschmidt et al. 1999), which artificially increases their fraction; b) RL AGN are on average more powerful than RQ ones in the optical band (e.g. Zamfir, Sulentic & Marziani 2008). When one reaches the very faint end of the optical LF only RQ AGN will be present and therefore the integrated, intrinsic RL fraction will be quite small. Both of these effects lead to an overestimate of the RL AGN fraction when using the “standard” method. Indeed, it has been known for some time that the radio-loud fraction drops with decreasing optical luminosity (Padovani 1993). Jiang et al. (2007) have also shown that the fraction of RL quasars at $z = 0.5$ declines from 24% to 6% as luminosity decreases from $M_{\text{B}500} = -26$ to $-22$. In other words, the usually quoted value refers to the bright part of the LF and, when integrated over the full range of powers, the resulting $f_{\text{RLAGN}}$ is much smaller.

The best way to approach the question of the intrinsic value of $f_{\text{RLAGN}}$ is to look at the band under discussion, namely the radio one. We plot in Fig. 8 our best estimate(s) of the local LF for RQ (radiative-mode) AGN, together with the $z < 0.3$ LF of radiative-mode RL AGN from Best et al. (2014) (dotted line). One can see that the fraction of radiative-mode RL AGN is a strong function of radio power, as the shape of the two LFs is very different. In particular, for $P_{4\text{GHz}} \gtrsim 10^{24}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ radiative-mode RL AGN dominates and $f_{\text{RLAGN}} \gtrsim 0.5$, while for $P_{4\text{GHz}} \gtrsim 10^{22}$ W Hz$^{-1}$, which is the limiting value for radiative-mode RL AGN, $f_{\text{RLAGN}} \sim 0.04$ (where we have used the double power law fit derived in the previous sub-section). To derive the overall intrinsic value one would need to integrate down to lower values but we do not yet have a handle on the low-end of the radiative-mode RL AGN LF.

Our RQ AGN include absorbed (type II) and unabsorbed (type I) sources, while the LF of radiative-mode RL AGN from Best et al. (2014) is limited to radio galaxies and steep-spectrum radio sources (Sect. 6.1.1). However, as radio quasars are relativistically beamed, they tend to be much more luminous and less numerous than radio galaxies and therefore we believe that down to $P_{4\text{GHz}} \sim 10^{22}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ their exclusion makes very little difference.

We note that if one takes as dividing line between RQ and radiative-mode RL AGN the power at which the two LFs cross, one gets $P_{4\text{GHz}} \approx 10^{23}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ at $z \sim 0$, i.e., the same dividing value between the two classes that has been suggested in the past (see Sect. 2 of Padovani 1993). Given the strong redshift evolution of both LFs, one can predict that this power is redshift dependent and will get larger at higher redshifts, as indeed appears to be the case (Padovani 1993). Future radio studies of deeper/wider samples, which will include RL AGN of the jet-mode and radiative-mode type, should be able to study the RL fraction dependence on redshift by deriving the evolving LFs for both classes.

### 7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We have used a deep, complete radio sample of 680 objects down to a 1.4 GHz flux density of 32.5 $\mu$Jy selected in the E-CDFS area to derive the number counts of the various sub-mJy classes and to study in detail the evolution and luminosity functions of radio faint AGN up to $z \sim 4$. Our main results can be summarized as follows:

(i) What we consider to be the best determination of the source population of the sub-mJy radio sky shows that star-forming galaxies and AGN make up a roughly equal part of the sub-mJy sky down to 32.5 $\mu$Jy, with the former becoming the dominant population only below $\sim 0.1$ mJy. RQ AGN are confirmed to be an important class of sub-mJy sources, accounting for $\sim 25\%$ of the sample and $\sim 60\%$ of all AGN, and outnumbering RL AGN at $\lesssim 0.1$ mJy (Sect. 3).

(ii) The AGN that make up the faint radio sky consists

---

9 Although in that paper the quoted value is $15 - 20\%$.

10 We obviously cannot study the $R$ distribution to look for a possible bi-modality as our RL AGN are mostly jet-mode sources while our RQ AGN are mostly radiative-mode sources (see Sect. 6.2). Furthermore, as discussed by Padovani et al. (2009) and Padovani (2011), $R$ is useful for quasar samples, where it is related to the jet/disk ratio, but loses its meaning for radio galaxies.
of two totally distinct populations: RQ AGN, mostly of the radiative-mode type, and RL AGN, largely of the jet-mode kind, characterised by very different evolutions, LFs, and Eddington ratios (Sects. 5 and 6).

(iii) RL AGN evolve in radio power as $\propto (1 + z)^{2.5}$ similarly to star-forming galaxies, up to $z \sim 4$ but with a hint of a slowing down above $z \sim 1.3$. Their LF is steep ($\Phi(P) \propto P^{-2.5}$ for $P \geq 2 \times 10^{22}$ W Hz$^{-1}$) and their $L/L_{\text{Edd}}$ is typically $\lesssim 0.01$ (Table 3 and Sects. 6.1.2 and 6.2).

(iv) RL AGN evolve in number $\propto (1 + z)^2$ but only up to $z \sim 0.5$, beyond which their number density declines steeply $\propto (1 + z)^{-4}$. Their LF is flat ($\Phi(P) \propto P^{-1.4}$) and their $L/L_{\text{Edd}}$ is typically $\lesssim 0.01$ (Table 4 and Sects. 6.1.1 and 6.2).

(v) The first determination of the local radio LF of RQ AGN appears to be consistent with that of Seyferts. Putting the two together, one derives a number density of RQ AGN equivalent to that of X-ray selected AGN, which shows we are looking at the same population from two different bands (Sects. 5.3.1 and 6.1.2).

(vi) We have approached the question of the intrinsic value of the fraction of radiative-mode RL sources, $f_{\text{RLAGN}}$, within the AGN population by using, for the first time, the radio band (while all previous attempts were normally done in the optical band). By combining the local radio LF of Seyferts and our RQ AGN with a previously published estimate of the LF of radiative-mode RL AGN, we find that for $P_{148\text{MHz}} \gtrsim 10^{24}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ RL AGN dominates and $f_{\text{RLAGN}} \gtrsim 0.5$, while down to $P_{148\text{MHz}} \sim 10^{22}$ W Hz$^{-1}$ $f_{\text{RLAGN}} \sim 4\%$ (Sect. 6.3).

(vii) The surface density of radio-selected, radio-quiet AGN, $\sim 860 \text{ deg}^{-2}$, is already larger than that reached by the deepest optical surveys. This means that sub-Jy radio surveys, given the appropriate ancillary multi-wavelength data, have already the potential of detecting large numbers of radio-quiet AGN by-passing the problems of obscuration, which plague the optical and soft X-ray bands (Sect. 6.1.2).

In an upcoming paper (Padovani et al., in preparation) we will discuss in detail the evolution and LF of the SFG in our sample and how they compare to those of RQ AGN, which is very relevant for the issue of the mechanism behind radio emission in RQ AGN (see also Padovani et al. 2011 and Bonzini et al. 2015, submitted).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Philip Best, Ed Fomalont, Rachel Somerville, Jasper Wall, and an anonymous referee for helpful comments and discussions and Piero Rosati and Shaji Vatunknannel for their work on the E-CDFS survey. We acknowledge the ESO/GOODS project for the ISAAC and FORS2 data obtained using the Very Large Telescope at the ESO Paranal Observatory under Program ID(s): LP168.A-0485, 170.A-0788, 074.A-0709, 275.A-5060, and 081.A-0525. We made use of the TOPCAT software package (Taylor 2005). The VLA is a facility of the National Radio Astronomy Observatory which is operated by Associated Universities, Inc., under a cooperative agreement with the National Science Foundation. This research has made use of NASA’s Astrophysics Data System (ADS) Bibliographic Services.

APPENDIX A: REDSHIFT ESTIMATES

As shown in Fig. A1, reasonable and secure redshifts (i.e., spectroscopic with quality flag $\geq 2$, as defined in Bonzini et al. 2012) are strongly correlated with $f_{3.6\mu m}$, albeit with some scatter in particular at low redshift. The best and simplest approach to estimate the redshift for the $\sim 8\%$ of the objects in the sample without observed redshift is then to derive it from their $f_{3.6\mu m}$ by using the relationship shown in the figure (solid line), that is $\log z = -0.677 \log f_{3.6\mu m} + 1.185$. This was derived applying the ordinary least-square bisector method (Isobe et al. 1990), which treats the variables symmetrically, to the $z \gtrsim 0.3$ sample. The low redshift cut was applied for three reasons: 1. in order to reduce the scatter in the input data; 2. because the maximum $f_{3.6\mu m}$ of the sources without redshift is $\sim 200$ microJy, which corresponds to $z \sim 0.3$ deriving the best fit for the whole sample; 3. because the median $f_{3.6\mu m}$ for sources without redshift is $\sim 10$ microJy and therefore they should typically be at large ($z > 1$) redshift; inclusion of the low-redshift sources in the sample might therefore bias our estimates. We note that the best fits for the different sub-classes give redshift values, which differ only by $\sim 0.4$ for sources having $f_{3.6\mu m} \sim 10$ microJy (the median for sources without

![Figure A1. Redshift versus 3.6μm flux density for our sources with reasonable and secure redshift information (quality flag $\geq 2$ as defined in Bonzini et al. 2012). The solid line is the best fit for $z \gtrsim 0.3$, while the dashed lines represent the root mean square error. See text for details.](image)
redshift). Note also that for $f_{\lambda_{\text{6.7\mu{m}}}} = 1$, the minimum value for the sample, $z \sim 15.3$, which is on the high side. We therefore set the maximum redshift equal to the maximum observed values (spectroscopic or photometric) for the three sub-classes, namely $z \sim 4.7, 7.0,$ and 4.5 for SFG, radio-quiet, and radio-loud AGN respectively.

**APPENDIX B: THE LARGE SCALE STRUCTURE OF THE E-CDFS**

Gilli et al. (2003) have studied the large-scale structure (LSS) in the CDFS in the X-ray band, finding two main, narrow ($\Delta z \lesssim 0.02$) structures at $z = 0.67$ and 0.73 and other spikes at 1.04, 1.62, and 2.57. Indeed, the redshift distributions shown in Fig. 2 peak in the 0.5 – 0.75 bin for all classes. Given the small area of our survey one could worry that such redshift spikes might influence some of our results. We then studied the LSS of the E-CDFS by looking for narrow ($\Delta z \sim 0.01 – 0.03$) structures and smoothing the observed spectroscopic redshift distribution in large ($\Delta z \sim 0.1 – 0.3$) bins to estimate the background distribution. Redshift peaks were defined as spikes being $>2\sigma$ above the background for Poissonian errors. Applying this procedure to the whole sample we recovered the main structures of Gilli et al. (2003), namely those at $z \sim 0.67, 0.73$, and 1.62. We also find a structure at $z = 0.52$, present in the near-IR band data of Gilli et al. (2003), and a new one at $z \sim 0.12$. Studying the LSS for the various sub-classes, however, showed that not all redshift peaks are present for all classes. We then studied the LSS individually finding the following significant peaks: 1) SFG: 0.122 – 0.126 and 0.729 – 0.736; AGN: 0.521 – 0.537, 0.661 – 0.686, 0.729 – 0.738, and 1.603 – 1.619; RQ AGN: 0.521 – 0.529, 0.652 – 0.671, and 1.591 – 1.619; RL AGN: 0.675 – 0.686 and 0.731 – 0.734. We then created “no LSS” sub-samples by removing the sources in the bins listed above in excess of the background distribution. The selection of the sources to be kept, which typically included $\sim 20\%$ of those in the bin, was done by picking the object(s) with radio flux densities closest to the median value of the bin.

**REFERENCES**

Avni Y., Bahcall J. N., 1980, ApJ, 235, 694
Best P. N., Heckman T. M., 2012, MNRAS, 421, 1569
Best P. N., Ker L. M., Simpson C., Rigby E. E., Sabater J., 2014, MNRAS, 445, 955
Bongiorno A., et al., 2010, A&A, 510, AA56
Bongiorno A., et al., 2012, MNRAS, 427, 3103
Bonzini M., et al., 2012, ApJS, 203, 15
Bonzini M., Padovani P., Mainieri V., Kellermann K. I., Miller N., Rosati P., Tozzi P., Vattakunnel S., 2013, MNRAS, 436, 3759
Condon J. J., 1984, ApJ, 287, 461
Condon J. J., 1997, PASP, 109, 166
Condon J. J., et al., 2012, ApJ, 758, 23
Del Moro A., et al., 2013, A&A, 549, AA59
Donley J. L. et al., 2012, ApJ, 748, 142
Dunlop J. S., Peacock J. A. 1990, MNRAS, 247, 19
Dunlop J. S., McLure R. J., Kukula M. J., Baum S. A., O’Dea C. P., Hughes D. H., 2003, MNRAS, 340, 1095
Fanaroff, B. L., & Riley, J. M., 1974, MNRAS, 167, 31p
Feigelson E. D., Nelson P. I. 1985, ApJ, 293, 192
Gavignaud I., et al., 2006, A&A, 457, 79
Gehrels N. 1986, ApJ, 303, 336
Gendre M. A., Best P. N., & Wall J. V., 2010, MNRAS, 450, 1719
Gendre M. A., Best P. N., Wall J. V., Ker L. M., 2013, MNRAS, 430, 3086
Gilli R., et al., 2003, ApJ, 592, 721
Goldschmidt P., Kukula M. J., Miller L., Dunlop J. S., 1999, ApJ, 511, 612
Gürkan G., Hardcastle M. J., Jarvis M. J., 2014, MNRAS, 438, 1149
Heckman T. M., Best P. N., 2014, ARA&A, 52, 589
Huyhn M. T., Hopkins A. M., Lenc E., Mao M. Y., Middelberg E., Norris R. P., Randall K. E., 2012, MNRAS, 426, 2342
Jiang L., Fan X., Ivezić Ž., Richards G. T., Schneider D. P., Strauss M. A., Kelly B. C., 2007, ApJ, 656, 680
Kellermann K. I., Sramek R., Schmidt M., Shaffer D. B., Green R., 1989, AJ, 98, 1195
Kellermann K. I., Fomalont E. B., Mainieri V., Padovani P., Rosati P., Shaver P., Tozzi P., Miller N., 2008, ApJS, 179, 71
Isobe T., Feigelson E. D., Akritas M. G., Babu G. J., 1999, ApJ, 364, 104
Isobe T., Feigelson E. D., Nelson P. I., 1986, ApJ, 306, 490
Lavalle M., Isobe T., Feigelson E. D., 1992, ASPC, 25, 245
Lehmer B. D., et al., 2012, ApJ, 752, 46
Machalski J., Godlowski W., 2000, A&A, 360, 463
Mainieri V., et al., 2008, ApJS, 179, 95
Mao M. Y., et al., 2012, MNRAS, 426, 3334
Mauch T., & Sadler E. M. 2007, MNRAS, 375, 931
McAlpine K., Jarvis M. J., Bonfield D. G., 2013, MNRAS, 436, 1084
Miller N. A., Fomalont E. B., Kellermann K. I., Mainieri V., Norman C., Padovani P., Rosati P., Tozzi P., 2008, ApJS, 179, 114
Miller N. A., et al., 2013, ApJS, 205, 13
Morris S. L., Stocke J. T., Gioia I. M., Smith E. R., Wolter A., Maccacaro T., Dell Cea R., 1991, ApJ, 380, 49
Moster B. P., Somerville R. S., Newman J. A., Rix H.-W., 2011, ApJ, 731, 113
Muxlow T. W. B., et al., 2005, MNRAS, 358, 1159
Norris R. P., et al., 2013, Publications of the Astronomical Society of Australia, 30, e020
Padovani P., 1993, MNRAS, 263, 461
Padovani P., Giovannoli P., Landt H., Perlman E. S. 2007, ApJ, 662, 182
Padovani P., Mainieri V., Tozzi P., Kellermann K. I., Fomalont E. B., Miller N., Rosati P., Shaver P., 2009, ApJ, 694, 235
Padovani, P., 2011, MNRAS, 411, 1547
Padovani P., Miller N., Kellermann K. I., Mainieri V., Rosati P., Tozzi P., 2011, ApJ, 740, 20
Padovani P., Bonzini M., Miller N., Kellermann K. I., Mainieri V., Rosati P., Tozzi P., Vattakunnel S., 2014, in Mickaelian A., Aharonian F., Sanders D., eds, Proc. © 2015 RAS, MNRAS 000, 1–19
| Reference                                                                 |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| IAU Symp. 304, Multiwavelength AGN surveys and                          |
| studies, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, p. 79                  |
| Rigby E. E., Best P. N., Brookes M. H., Peacock J. A.,                  |
| Dunlop J. S., Röttgering H. J. A., Wall J. V., Ker L.,                  |
| 2011, MNRAS, 416, 1900                                                  |
| Rush B., Malkan M. A., Edelson R. A., 1996, ApJ, 473, 130               |
| Ryle M., Scheuer P. A. G., 1955, RSPSA, 230, 448                         |
| Sadler E. M., et al. 2002, MNRAS, 329, 227                              |
| Sandage A., 1965, ApJ, 141, 1560                                        |
| Schmidt M., 1963, Nature, 197, 1040                                     |
| Schmidt M., 1968, ApJ, 151, 393                                         |
| Simpson C., et al., 2012, MNRAS, 421, 3060                              |
| Smolčić, V., et al. 2009, ApJ, 696, 24                                   |
| Somerville R. S., Lee K., Ferguson H. C., Gardner J. P.,                |
| Moustakas L. A., Giavalisco M., 2004, ApJ, 600, L171                    |
| Taylor M. B. 2005, Astronomical Data Analysis Software and Systems XIV, |
| 347, 29                                                                |
| Taylor, E. N., et al., 2009, ApJ, 694, 1171                             |
| Tozzi P., et al., 2009, ApJ, 698, 740                                    |
| Trump J. R., et al., 2015, ApJ, in press (arXiv:1501.02801)             |
| Ueda Y., Akiyama M., Hasinger G., Miyaji T., Watson M. G., 2014, ApJ, 786|
| Ulvestad J. S., Ho L. C., 2001, ApJ, 558, 561                            |
| Vattakunnel S., et al., 2012, MNRAS, 420, 2190                           |
| Vernstrom T., Norris R. P., Scott D., Wall J. V., 2015, MNRAS, 447, 2243|
| Wall J. V., Jackson C. A., Shaver P. A., Hook I. M., &                   |
| Kellermann K. I., 2005, A&A, 434, 133                                    |
| Wall J. V., & Jenkins C. R. 2012, Practical Statistics for              |
| Astronomers, by J. V. Wall, C. R. Jenkins, Cambridge, UK:              |
| Cambridge University Press, 2012, 194 - 196                               |
| White S. V., Jarvis M. J., Häußler B., Maddox N., 2015, MNRAS, 448,    |
| 2665                                                                   |
| Zamfir S., Sulentic J. W., Marziani P., 2008, MNRAS, 387, 856            |