JWST Reveals a Possible $z \sim 11$ Galaxy Merger in Triply Lensed MACS0647-JD

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Abstract

MACS0647–JD is a triply lensed $z \sim 11$ galaxy originally discovered with the Hubble Space Telescope. The three lensed images are magnified by factors of $\sim 8$, 5, and 2 to AB mag 25.1, 25.6, and 26.6 at 3.5 $\mu$m. The brightest is over a magnitude brighter than other galaxies recently discovered at similar redshifts $z > 10$ with JWST. Here, we report new JWST imaging that clearly resolves MACS0647–JD as having two components that are either merging galaxies or stellar complexes within a single galaxy. The brighter larger component “A” is intrinsically very blue ($\beta \sim -2.6 \pm 0.1$), likely due to very recent star formation and no dust, and is spatially extended with an effective radius $\sim 70 \pm 24$ pc. The smaller component “B” ($r \sim 20^{+8}_{-5}$ pc) appears redder ($\beta \sim -2 \pm 0.2$), likely because it is older (100–200 Myr) with mild dust extinction ($A_V \sim 0.1$ mag). With an estimated stellar mass ratio of roughly 2:1 and physical projected separation $\sim 400$ pc, we may be witnessing a galaxy merger 430 million years after the Big Bang. We identify galaxies with similar colors in a high-redshift simulation, finding their star formation histories to be dissimilar, which is also suggested by the spectral energy distribution fitting, suggesting they formed further apart. We also identify a candidate companion galaxy “C” $\sim 3$ kpc away, likely destined to merge with A and B. Upcoming JWST Near Infrared Spectrograph observations planned for 2023 January will deliver spectroscopic redshifts and more physical properties for these tiny magnified distant galaxies observed in the early universe.

**Unified Astronomy Thesaurus concepts:** Galaxies (573); High-redshift galaxies (734); Strong gravitational lensing (1643); Galaxy clusters (584); Early universe (435)

1. Introduction

Galaxies have formed from the repeated mergers of small star-forming clumps over cosmic time, with some small galaxies left over even today, such as the Magellanic Clouds. JWST has now discovered two such small galaxies within the first 430 million years that are seen close to the very start of this process. Studies have shown that up to 85% of present-day massive galaxies went through a galaxy merger in their lifetime, indicating that galaxy mergers play an important role in the formation and evolution of galaxies (e.g., Bell et al. 2006; Stewart et al. 2009; Hopkins et al. 2010a; Lotz et al. 2011; Rodriguez-Gomez et al. 2015; Duncan et al. 2019; Sotillo-Ramos et al. 2022). The Milky Way itself likely experienced a major merger at $z \sim 2$ with the so-called Gaia-Sausage-Enceladus galaxy (Belokurov et al. 2018; Helmi et al. 2018; Bonaca et al. 2020; Naidu et al. 2021; Xiang & Rix 2022). Based on reconstructions of this event, Naidu et al. (2021) concluded that $\approx 50\%$ of the stellar mass of the current halo of the Milky Way came from this galaxy. More generally speaking, mergers build up the stellar content and transform galaxy morphology (e.g., Toomre & Toomre 1972; Barnes 1992; Mihos & Hernquist 1996; Husko et al. 2023). Mergers are also believed to affect the kinematics and distribution of stars (e.g., Naab et al. 2009; van Dokkum et al. 2010; Newman et al. 2012), and play a key role in the growth of supermassive black holes (e.g., Treister et al. 2012; Ellison et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2023).

JWST (Gardner et al. 2006) is a state-of-the-art infrared space-based telescope, which was launched in 2021 December and started scientific observations recently in 2022 July (Rigby et al. 2022). Numerous high-redshift candidates have been discovered based on their photometric redshifts and dropout selections (e.g., Adams et al. 2022; Attek et al. 2022; Bradley et al. 2022; Castellano et al. 2022; Donnan et al. 2023; Finkelstein et al. 2022; Harikane et al. 2023; Naidu et al. 2022; Whitler et al. 2022a; Yan et al. 2023). Within its first few months, JWST is quickly transforming our understanding of the early universe (e.g., with flat/disk galaxies reported at $z \sim 2$–6 (Ferreira et al. 2022; Nelson et al. 2022).

Gravitational lensing by massive galaxy clusters magnifies the light and sizes of distant objects. Thanks to these cosmic telescopes, not only are the fluxes of faint objects in the early universe boosted to the observable regime, the sizes of small-scale structures are amplified (e.g., Claeyssens et al. 2023; Meštič et al. 2022; Vanzella et al. 2022; Welsh et al. 2023, 2022). Thus, lensing has enabled us to discover early galaxies and study their properties (e.g., Coe et al. 2013). In order to study several key scientific topics in the early universe, several lensing cluster surveys have been conducted, including the Cluster Lensing and Supernova survey with Hubble (CLASH; Postman et al. 2012a), the Hubble Frontier Fields (Lotz et al. 2017), and the Reionization Lensing Cluster Survey (Coe et al. 2019).

CLASH is one of the large Hubble treasury programs which adopted the lensing technique to study distant galaxies (e.g., Zheng et al. 2012; Coe et al. 2013; Bouwens et al. 2014; Bradley et al. 2014; Smit et al. 2014), supernovae and cosmology (e.g., Graur et al. 2014; Patel et al. 2014; Rodney et al. 2014; Srolger et al. 2015; Gómez-Valent & Amendola 2018; Riess et al. 2018), dark matter in clusters (e.g., Eicher et al. 2013; Pacucci et al. 2013; Sartoris et al. 2014; Umetsu et al. 2014; Merten et al. 2015), and galaxies in clusters (e.g., Postman et al. 2012b; Burke et al. 2015; Donahue et al. 2015; Connor et al. 2017; Fogarty et al. 2017).

CLASH imaged 25 massive galaxy clusters in 16 filters with the Hubble Space Telescope (HST) from the near-UV ($\sim 200$ nm) to near-IR ($\sim 1.6 \mu$m). Five of the clusters were selected for their strong lensing strength, including MACSJ0647.7+7015

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56 NASA Postdoctoral Fellow.
57 Hubble Fellow.
58 NSF Graduate Fellow.
59 https://www.stsci.edu/~postman/CLASH/
60 https://relics.stsci.edu
as observed by Coe et al. (2022; Donnan et al. 2023; Finkelstein et al. 2022; Harikane et al. 2023; Naidu et al. 2022), candidates recently discovered in JWST imaging.

Based on HST images, where it was detected in only the two reddest filters, F140W and F160W, dropping out of 15 bluer filters, including the J F125W, hence the name JD (J-band dropout). Despite lensing magnifications up to a factor of 8, MACS0647–JD was spatially unresolved in HST imaging.

MACS0647–JD was the first robust z ~ 11 candidate of the HST era, followed by GN-z11, which surpassed it at z ~ 11 (Oesch et al. 2016) and is similarly bright (F160W AB mag 25.1) MACS0647–JD is 1–5 mag brighter than recently discovered z ~ 8–16 candidates reported in JWST imaging (Figure 1; Adams et al. 2022; Atek et al. 2023; Bradley et al. 2022; Donnan et al. 2023; Finkelstein et al. 2022; Harikane et al. 2023; Leethochawalit et al. 2023; Naidu et al. 2022). Because it is so bright, we can study its physical properties in more detail. More detail about the photometry and lensing will be later described in Sections 2 and 3.1.

Pirzkal et al. (2015) analyzed HST Wide Field Camera 3 (WFC3)/IR G141 grism spectroscopy of MACS0647–JD, concluding that any emission line bright enough to reproduce the observed photometry was ruled out by the observations. Any line or combination of emission lines with a flux of 10^{-17} erg s^{-1} cm^{-2} Å^{-1} would have been detected at the 5σ level, adding further support for z ~ 11, excluding a lower-redshift interloper, as in Brammer et al. (2013).

Lens modeling contributes geometric redshift corroboration based on the measured separations between the lensed images. The models in Coe et al. (2013) and Chan et al. (2017) both supported z ~ 11.

Lam et al. (2019) analyzed deep Spitzer imaging (50 hr band^{-1}), modeling and subtracting light of nearby galaxies to arrive at tentative detections of MACS0647–JD. Photometry varied between the three lensed images, yielding estimates of stellar mass M_*/M_⊙ ~ 10^8–10^9, specific star formation rates (sSFRs) ~3–10 Gyr^{-1}, and ages ranging between ~10 and 400 Myr (the age of the universe at z ~ 11).

JWST observing program GO 1433 (PI: Coe) aims at studying MACS0647–JD in more detail, obtaining higher-resolution images, measuring colors, and obtaining spectroscopy to more precisely measure the redshift and constrain other physical properties including metallicity. Near Infrared Camera (NIRCam) imaging was obtained in six filters spanning 1.0–5.0 μm out to a ~4300 Å rest frame at z = 10.6. The second epoch of observations, planned for 2023 January, will obtain Near Infrared Spectrograph (NIRSpec) micro-shutter assembly (MSA) PRISM observations and add the NIRCam F480M filter, fully redward of the Balmer break, to obtain better measurements of ages and stellar masses at z ~ 11. All data from this program are public. We are releasing high-level science products and analysis tools online.61

In this paper, we report new observations of MACS0647–JD with six JWST NIRCam filters and derive physical properties including the stellar mass and dust content, while constraining the star formation history (SFH). This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we describe the JWST and HST observational data and the data-reduction process. In Section 3, we present the detected objects and their sizes and separations based on lens modeling. We detail photometry measurements in Section 4 and spectral energy distribution (SED) fitting in Section 5. In Section 6, we discuss our results, including measurements of physical parameters from SED fitting. We also present properties of analog galaxies identified with similar colors in a hydrodynamic simulation. We summarize our conclusions in Section 7.

We adopt the AB magnitude system (m_{AB} = 31.4 – 2.5 log(f_/ν Jy); Oke 1974; Oke & Gunn 1983) and the Planck 2018 flat Lambda cold dark matter cosmology (Planck Collaboration et al. 2020) with H_0 = 67.7 km s^{-1} Mpc^{-1}, Ω_M = 0.31, and Ω_Λ = 0.69, for which the universe is 13.8 billion years old, and 1'' ~ 4 kpc at z ~ 11.

2. Observational Data

We analyze new JWST NIRCam images (GO 1433; PI: Coe), shown in Figure 2, as well as archival HST images, described below and detailed in Table 1. All of the data are publicly available in the Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes (MAST; doi:10.17909/d2er-wq71). We also provide reduced data products aligned to a common pixel grid (Section 2.3).

2.1. Hubble Space Telescope Observations

MACS0647+70 has been observed with 39 orbits of HST imaging in 17 filters. It was first observed by programs GO 9722 (PI: Ebeling) and GO 10493 and 10793 (PI: Gal-Yam) in the Advanced Camera for Surveys (ACS) F555W and F814W filters. Then CLASH (GO 12101; PI: Postman) obtained imaging in 15 additional filters with WFC3/UVIS, ACS, and WFC3/IR, spanning 0.2–1.7 μm. Additional imaging in WFC3/IR F140W was obtained as part of a grism spectroscopy program (GO 13317; PI: Coe).

61https://cosmic-spring.github.io

Figure 1. F356W AB magnitude vs. redshift for MACS0647–JD and z ~ 8–16 candidates recently discovered in JWST imaging (Adams et al. 2022; Bradley et al. 2022; Donnan et al. 2023; Finkelstein et al. 2022; Harikane et al. 2023; Leethochawalit et al. 2023; Naidu et al. 2022). MACS0647–JD is shown both as observed (magnified) and delensed (intrinsic) according to our models.

(MACS0647, z = 0.591; Ebeling et al. 2007) modeled by Zitrin et al. (2011). CLASH observations of MACS0647+7015 revealed 32 lensed z ~ 6–8 candidates (Bradley et al. 2014) and a triply lensed z ~ 11 candidate, MACS0647–JD (Coe et al. 2013).

MACS0647–JD had a photometric redshift z = 10.7±0.4 based on HST images, where it was detected in only the two reddest filters, F140W and F160W, dropping out of 15 bluer filters, including the J F125W, hence the name JD (J-band dropout). Despite lensing magnifications up to a factor of 8, MACS0647–JD was spatially unresolved in HST imaging.

MACS0647–JD was the first robust z ~ 11 candidate of the HST era, followed by GN-z11, which surpassed it at z = 11.1 (Oesch et al. 2016) and is similarly bright (F160W AB mag ~26) without the benefit of lensing magnification. Lensed as brightly as F356W AB mag 25.1, MACS0647–JD is 1–5 mag brighter than recently discovered z ~ 8–16 candidates reported in JWST imaging (Figure 1; Adams et al. 2022; Atek et al. 2023; Bradley et al. 2022; Donnan et al. 2023; Finkelstein et al. 2022; Harikane et al. 2023; Leethochawalit et al. 2023; Naidu et al. 2022). Because it is so bright, we can study its physical properties in more detail. More detail about the photometry measurement and the lensing will be later described in Sections 2 and 3.1.

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2.2. James Webb Space Telescope Observations

Here, we present new JWST NIRCam imaging in six filters, F115W, F150W, F200W, F277W, F365W, and F444W, spanning 1–5 μm. These public data were obtained on 2022 September 23 as part of Cycle 1 program GO 1433 (PI: Coe). Total exposure times of 2104 s in each filter achieved 5σ depths of AB mag 28.0 to 29.0 for small sources (r = 0′′.1 aperture). Depths were measured by placing circular apertures in blank regions of the image using the PHOTUTILS ImageDepth routine.62

In each filter, we obtained four dithered exposures using INTRAMODULEBOX primary dithers to cover the 4″–5″ gaps between the short-wavelength detectors, while maximizing image area observed at full depth. Dithering also mitigates bad pixels and image artifacts, while improving resolution of the final drizzled images. Each exposure uses the SHALLOW4 readout pattern with 10 groups and one integration.

Backgrounds were relatively high that time of year for this target (~80% higher than minimum). The telescope was rolled to a position angle of 280°. We observed the cluster in NIRCam module A and a nearby “blank” field with module B. The brighter lensed images, MACS0647–JD1 and JD2, were observed with NIRCam short-wavelength (SW) detector A3, while JD3 was observed with A1.

This program, GO 1433, will obtain additional public data, expected in 2023 January, consisting of NIRCam imaging in F200W and F480M and NIRSpec MSA PRISM spectroscopic observations.

2.3. Data Reduction

We process imaging data from MAST from all the programs above. The reduced images, along with source catalogs, are

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62 https://photutils.readthedocs.io/en/stable/api/photutils.utils.ImageDepth.html
publicly available online along with public data from other JWST programs.63

We retrieve the individual calibrated exposures processed by the HST and JWST pipelines (FLT and Level 2b CAL images, respectively). We then process all of these using the GRIZLI pipeline (Brammer et al. 2022), coadding all exposures in each filter, and aligning all stacked images to a common 0\textprime\textprime 04 pixel grid with coordinates registered to the Gaia Data Release 3 (DR3) catalogs (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2021). The NIRCam short-wavelength images are drizzled to 0\textprime\textprime 02 pixels (on the same grid at half the resolution). All HST and JWST images are aligned to a common world coordinate system registered to the Gaia DR3 catalogs (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2021). We create color images using the \textit{Trilogy} pipeline.65

Finally, the GRIZLI pipeline combines all images in each filter, drizzling them to a common pixel grid using \textit{ASTRODRIZZLE} (Koekemoer et al. 2003; Hoffmann et al. 2021). The NIRCam short-wavelength F115W, F150W, and F200W images are drizzled to 0\textprime\textprime 04 pixels (on the same grid at half the resolution). All HST and JWST images are aligned to a common world coordinate system registered to the Gaia DR3 catalogs (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2021). We create color images using the \textit{Trilogy} pipeline.

2.4. James Webb Space Telescope Stellar Diffraction Spikes and Scattered-light Artifacts

At relatively low Galactic latitude, $b = 25^{\circ}$, there are many stars affecting the image. One particularly bright $\sim 8$th magnitude star $\sim 2'$ southwest of JD1 and JD2 (observed in module B) produces a diffraction spike that crosses the entire module A image of the cluster. Fortunately, none of the lensed images JD1, 2, 3 are impacted by the spikes, with the possible exception of one that comes close to JD2 in F277W. Other scattered-light artifacts are isolated and do not impact the lensed images of MACS0647–JD. “Claws” are visible as horizontal stripes in our F200W image well south of JD3. These are presumably due to an extremely bright ($K \leq 3$ Vega mag) star very far from the field of view ($10^\circ$ in the telescope’s V3 direction). They do not move significantly between dithers and cannot be modeled or subtracted.

Dragon’s Breath Type II is visible as vertical stripes in our F200W image, near the west edge, extending south of center in the A4 detector, also far from JD1, 2, 3.68

3. Three Stellar Components

The JWST NIRCam images clearly resolve MACS0647–JD into two galaxies or components: A and B (Figure 3).

### Table 1

| Camera | Filter | $\lambda$ (\textmu m) | Exp. Time (s) | Depth (AB) |
|--------|--------|-----------------------|---------------|------------|
| HST WFC3/UVIS | F275W | 0.23–0.31 | 3879 | 27.4 |
| HST WFC3/UVIS | F336W | 0.30–0.37 | 2498 | 27.6 |
| HST WFC3/UVIS | F390W | 0.33–0.45 | 2545 | 28.1 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F435W | 0.36–0.49 | 2124 | 28.0 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F475W | 0.39–0.56 | 2248 | 28.2 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F555W | 0.46–0.72 | 7442 | 28.7 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F606W | 0.46–0.72 | 2064 | 28.3 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F657N | 0.54–0.71 | 2131 | 27.9 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F775W | 0.68–0.86 | 2162 | 27.8 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F814W | 0.69–0.96 | 8800 | 28.5 |
| HST ACS/WFC | F850LP | 0.80–1.09 | 4325 | 27.3 |
| HST WFC3/IR | F105W | 0.89–1.21 | 2914 | 28.3 |
| HST WFC3/IR | F110W | 0.88–1.41 | 1606 | 28.7 |
| HST WFC3/IR | F125W | 1.08–1.41 | 2614 | 28.3 |
| HST WFC3/IR | F140W | 1.19–1.61 | 2411 | 28.7 |
| HST WFC3/IR | F160W | 1.39–1.70 | 5234 | 29.6 |
| JWST NIRCam | F115W | 1.0–1.3 | 2104 | 28.1 |
| JWST NIRCam | F150W | 1.3–1.7 | 2104 | 28.3 |
| JWST NIRCam | F200W | 1.7–2.2 | 2104 | 28.4 |
| JWST NIRCam | F277W | 2.4–3.1 | 2104 | 28.9 |
| JWST NIRCam | F356W | 3.1–4.0 | 2104 | 29.0 |
| JWST NIRCam | F444W | 3.8–5.0 | 2104 | 28.8 |

### Notes.

- 5\textprime\textprime point-source AB magnitude limit (within a 0\textprime\textprime 2 diameter aperture).
- We excluded one data set (JQU04020: 3960 s) because it is contaminated by scattered light from the WFPCC internal lamp, which was in use for a parallel program.

53 https://s3.amazonaws.com/grizli-v2/JwstMosaics/v4/index.html

### Table 2

| Filter | JD1 | JD2 | JD3 |
|--------|-----|-----|-----|
| F115W  | A3 0.9687 | A1 0.9826 |
| F150W  | A3 0.9536 | A1 0.9777 |
| F200W  | A3 0.9658 | A1 0.9891 |
| F277W  | A5 1.0239 | A5 1.0239 |
| F356W  | A5 0.9763 | A5 0.9763 |
| F444W  | A5 1.0073 | A5 1.0073 |

Note: We multiply JD1, 2, 3 fluxes and uncertainties by these values to correct from GRIZLI v4 calibration to jwst_0995.pmap.
Component A is brighter and spatially extended, while B is fainter, more compact, and redder in the short-wavelength filters. These two components are clearly seen in each of the three lensed images JD1, 2, 3. Both are J-band dropouts, not detected in F115W.

Additionally, we identify a candidate companion galaxy C, another J-band dropout (Figure 4), observed 2.2, 2.2, and 0.9 from JD1A, JD2A, and JD3A, respectively (see Figure 2). It is fainter than A and B and even more compact.

3.1. Lens Modeling

A first lens model for this cluster, prior to CLASH imaging, was presented by Zitrin et al. (2011). Lens modeling enabled by the CLASH HST images has been presented in Coe et al. (2013), Zitrin et al. (2015), and Chan et al. (2017) using various methods: Lenstool (Jullo et al. 2007; Jullo & Kneib 2009), Zitrin-LTM (Broadhurst et al. 2005; Zitrin et al. 2009), and WSLAP+ (Diego et al. 2005, 2007). Magnification estimates range from 6.0–8.4, 5.5–7.7, and 2.1–2.8 for JD1, 2, 3, respectively. Uncertainties are thus roughly ±17%, similar to performances modeling simulated lenses with excellent constraints. These models have decent constraints with between 9 and 12 multiply lensed galaxies, however none have spectroscopic redshift.

JWST imaging reveals more multiply lensed image systems, which will be published alongside a new lens model in A. K. Meena et al. (2023, in preparation). The model was obtained using a revised, analytic version of the parametric method presented in Zitrin et al. (2015) and was recently used, for example, in Pascale et al. (2022). This preliminary, new parametric lens model yields magnification estimates of ~6.9, 6.3, and 2.1 for JD1, 2, 3, with tangential (linear) magnifications of ~4.7, 4.4, and 1.8. Another preliminary new mass model using GLAFIC (Oguri 2010) predicts magnifications of ~9.1, 5.5, and 1.8 for JD1, 2, 3, respectively.

JWST imaging also yields direct new measurements of the observed flux ratios ~3.5:2.3:1 for JD1, 2, 3 based on NIRCam photometry measured in F200W and redward, averaging 340, 223, and 97 nJy (AB mag 25.1, 25.5, and 26.4). Based on these measured flux ratios, we adopt fiducial magnification estimates.

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69 https://jwst-docs.stsci.edu/jwst-near-infrared-camera/nircam-features-and-caveats/nircam-dragon-s-breath-type-ii
of $\sim 8.0$, 5.3, and 2.2 for JD1, 2, 3, respectively, with tangential magnifications of $\sim 5$, 4, and 2. These are roughly consistent with previous estimates, and the total magnification $\sim 15.5$ is roughly equal to the total in our new preliminary lens model. The average delensed flux in F200W, F277W, F356W, and F444W is 43 nJy (AB mag 27.3, $M_{UV} = -20.4$) with an uncertainty of $\sim 17\%$.

### 3.2. Sizes and Separations

We use GALFIT (Peng et al. 2010) to model JD1 A and B in the sharpest image, F150W. Galaxy A is fit well by a two-component Sérsic model (see Figure 5), including a compact core and a more extended host with a radius of $4.4 \pm 1.5$ pixels = 0".09 (adopting a Gaussian profile for both, and a Sérsic index $n = 0.5$). Delensing that by the tangential linear magnification $\sim 5$, yields a radius $\sim 70^{+34}_{-24} \text{ pc}$. Galaxy B is fit well by a single compact source with a radius of $1.3^{+0.3}_{-0.3}$ pixels, with a delensed radius $\sim 20^{+3}_{-3} \text{ pc}$. This analysis method was tested and validated with simulations in Meštrović et al. (2022). Note that we use the morphology measurements from F150W to model the F200W image, as shown in Figure 5, and is well fitted.

A similar independent analysis with IMFIT (Erwin 2015) fitting galaxy A to a single component yields a radius of 3 pixels (with higher Sérsic index $n \sim 2$ versus 0.5 for the GALFIT extended component). This yields a smaller delensed radius $\sim 45$ pc for A.

A third analysis measuring the curve of growth (flux versus radius) yields delensed effective radii $\sim 70$ and 50 pc for A and B, respectively.

To measure separations between A, B, and C, we delens images JD1, 2, 3 to the source plane (Figure 6). We find the cores of A and B are separated by $\sim 0.71$ (\sim 400 pc) in both the Zitrin-analytic GLAFIC models. The candidate companion C is $\sim 3$ kpc away.

### 4. Photometry Measurements

The GRIZLI pipeline uses SEP (Barbary 2016), a Python implementation of SourceExtractor (Bertin & Arnouts 1996), to detect sources in a stacked NIRCam image and measure aperture-matched photometry in all filters. Photometry is measured in circular apertures with radii 0.75.

JD1, 2, 3 are detected as objects #3593, 3349, and 4871 in the public v4 catalog (Section 2.3). Table 3 provides their measured coordinates and photometry recalibrated using Table 2. These are total fluxes measured for galaxies A+B. The photometry of individual galaxies A and B is organized in Table 4. To measure photometry of these components individually, we use the methods below.

The candidate companion galaxy C is detected as objects #3621, 3314, and 4858.

#### 4.1. PIXEDFIT

To spatially resolve the SEDs of the two galaxies, we use PIXEDFIT (Abdurro’uf et al. 2021). For this resolved SED analysis, we use 13-band imaging from ACS and NIRCam (excluding ACS F850LP and WFC3/IR filters with broader point-spread functions, PSF, as well as the lower-wavelength WFC3/UVIS filters), similar to the analyses carried out in

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[Image 54x468 to 558x739]
Abdurro’uf et al. (2023). First, all images are resampled to 0.02 pixels using `reproject` (Robitaille et al. 2020). Then, we use SEP (Barbary 2016) to detect objects in the NIRCam images, generating a segmentation map defining pixels belonging to A+B. Photometry is measured in elliptical apertures defined within the segments and without overlap. Aperture A is an ellipse with semimajor axis 0.2 and semiminor axis 0.1. Aperture B is a circle with radius 0.1. Radial profiles decrease within these apertures, reaching a minimum between them that defines their boundary.

We initially forgo PSF matching to retain spatial resolution. However, we note measured colors may be affected by lost and/or blended flux in the redder filters. The F444W PSF FWHM is 0.14 with 54% encircled energy within \( r = 0.1 \), compared to 70% for F150W.\(^{71}\) We perform aperture corrections based on point-source encircled energy and discuss how this affects the results below. The effect is to make colors redder, though we note this may be an overcorrection with flux also blending between A and B.

Aside from A and B, there are no other nearby objects affecting the photometry. Local backgrounds are small, consistent with zero, and not subtracted.

\(^{71}\) https://jwst-docs.stsci.edu/jwst-near-infrared-camera/nircam-performance/nircam-point-spread-functions

### 4.2. IMFIT

IMFIT (Erwin 2015) has been used to perform 2D fitting to MACS0647–JD. The PSF used in the fitting has been generated, for each filter, using isolated stars. The two clumps have been fitted separately, alternately masking them, followed by a simultaneous fitting step with the parameters for clump A kept fixed. A Sérsic profile has been used for clump A, while for clump B both Sérsic and point-like profiles resulted in similar values for the reduced \( \chi^2 \). Photometry has then been performed on the models generated from the results from the 2D fitting, using an elliptical aperture for clump A.

### 4.3. Chebyshev–Fourier Functions

CHEFs (from Chebyshev–Fourier functions; Jiménez-Teja & Benítez 2012) are a mathematical orthonormal basis specially designed to model the surface luminous distribution of galaxies. First, a segmentation map is created using SourceExtractor (Bertin & Arnouts 1996) to identify the regions that are dominated by each object. Then, objects are sorted by magnitude and fitted with CHEFs, so the light contribution from the brightest objects is removed previous to the modeling of the fainter objects. As CHEFs are an orthonormal basis, they can fit any shape, thus recovering all the light even in the case of irregular morphologies. The CHEFs model of each object is calculated in a circular region.
with radius twice the equivalent radius of the area assigned to the object by the segmentation map. However, the flux is measured up to the radius where the profile of the model either converges to zero or submerges into the sky noise.

5. Spectral Energy Distribution Fitting

We perform SED fitting with various methods to estimate the photometric redshift and physical parameters of MACS0647-JD. The various methods adopt different SED templates and assumptions about the physical parameters, summarized in Table 5. We also match the observed clump colors to simulated galaxies with realistic bursty SFHs (Section 5.6).

5.1. EAZY

Our public data set includes SED-fitting results from EAZY (Brammer et al. 2008) using recently implemented SFHZ templates with redshift-dependent SFHs. EAZY fits non-negative linear combinations of these templates to the observed photometry. The code is fast, analyzing thousands of galaxies in minutes. It estimates photometric redshifts \( z = 10.6^{+0.3}_{-0.2}, z = 10.6^{+0.4}_{-0.4}, \) and \( z = 10.2^{+0.5}_{-0.5} \) (95% C.L.) for JD1, 2, 3, respectively (A+B components combined, with F200W AB mag 25.0, 25.5, and 26.2).

The fainter companion galaxy C (F200W AB mag 28.0, 27.3, and 27.8 with large uncertainties) is also a J-band dropout that can be well fit to SEDs at \( z = 10.6 \) given its larger photometric uncertainties, as we show in Section 6.6. The photometric redshifts are highly uncertain, with 95% confidence ranges 0.5–10.2, 2.2–10.3, and 9.8–11.5 for JD1C, JD2C, and JD3C, respectively.

While EAZY also provides quick estimates of physical parameters, we turn to other methods to more fully explore the parameter space and estimate values with uncertainties for the individual clumps A and B.

5.2. Bagpipes

Bagpipes\(^3\) (Carnall et al. 2018) fits redshift along with a multidimensional space of physical parameters using the MultiNest nested sampling algorithm (Feroz & Hobson 2008; Feroz et al. 2009; Feroz & Skilling 2013). We run Bagpipes with various sets of assumptions.

We use BPASS v2.2.1 SED templates (Eldridge & Stanway 2009), importantly including binary stars, resulting in brighter rest-UV flux (Eldridge 2020; Eldridge & Stanway 2022). We use the fiducial BPASS initial mass function (IMF) \( \text{imf135}\_300 \) (Kroupa et al. 1993) slope \( \alpha = -2.35 \) between 0.5 and 300 \( M_\odot \) and a shallower \( \alpha = -1.3 \) for lower-mass stars 0.1–0.5 \( M_\odot \). This is close to the shallower upper-mass slope IMF of Kroupa (2002). Metallicities range from (0.0005–2) \( Z_\odot \).

We reprocess the templates using the photoionization code CLOUDY c17.03 (Ferland et al. 1998, 2013, 2017) to include nebular continuum and emission lines. We generate templates for the ionization parameter \( U \) ranging between \( \log(U) = -4 \) to \( -1 \).

We assume an analytic SFH model, “delayed \( \tau \)” SFR \( (t) \propto t \exp(-t/\tau) \). The star formation rate (SFR) rises linearly, then slows before declining exponentially, unless the free parameter \( \tau \) is larger than the formation age (as in our fits), in which case there is no decline.

For dust attenuation, we use the Salim et al. (2018) parameterization with slope \( \delta \) allowed to vary between 0 (Milky Way) and steeper \(-0.45\) (Small Magellanic Cloud, SMC), and 217 Å bump strength \( B \) allowed to vary between 0 and 5 (where the Milky Way has \( B = 3 \) and the SMC has \( B \sim 0 \)). Young stars (age \( < 10 \) Myr) residing in stellar birth clouds experience more dust extinction by a factor \( \eta \) in the range 1–3.

\(^{32}\) https://github.com/gbrammer/eazy-photoz/tree/master/templates/sfhz

\(^{33}\) https://bagpipes.readthedocs.io
5.3. PIXEDFIT

As an independent comparison, we also perform SED fitting using PIXEDFIT (Abdurro'uf et al. 2021). For SED modeling, we use Flexible Stellar Population Synthesis (FSPS, Conroy et al. 2009; Leja et al. 2017), the IMF of Chabrier (2003), Padova isochrones (Girardi et al. 2000; Marigo & Girardi 2007; Marigo et al. 2008), the MILES stellar spectral library (Sanchez-Blazquez et al. 2006; Falcon-Barroso et al. 2011), and the two-component dust attenuation law by Charlot & Fall (2000). We assume a parametric SFH model in the form of a double power law. FSPS incorporates CLOUDY code for modeling the nebular emission. We model the attenuation due to the intergalactic medium (IGM) using Inoue et al.’s (2014) model. We assume uniform priors for redshift (2.0–15.0), age (0.01–10.0 Gyr), $Z$ (log($Z/Z_{\odot}$): [−2.0, 0.2]), and SFH timescale $\tau$ (0.1–32 Gyr). The fitting with the double power-law SFH has two more free parameters that control the slopes of the rising and falling star formation episodes ($\beta$ and $\alpha$). We assume a uniform prior for these parameters with a range of $10^{-2.0} - 10^{2.0}$. For the fitting method, we apply a Markov Chain Monte Carlo method and set the number of walkers and steps to be 100 and 1000, respectively.

5.4. Prospector

To get an independent comparison with nonparametric SFH models, we run SED fitting using Prospector (Leja et al. 2017; Johnson et al. 2021), adopting both constant and nonparametric SFHs. Similar to PIXEDFIT, FSPS uses Flexible Stellar Population Synthesis models and CLOUDY code to account for the nebular emission. We assume a Chabrier (2003) IMF with mass range 0.1–300 $M_{\odot}$, and the IGM attenuation model of Inoue et al. (2014). We assume a uniform prior for redshift ($z = 6–15$), and log-uniform priors for stellar mass ($5 \leq \log(M/M_{\odot}) \leq 12$), $V$-band optical depth assuming a SMC dust extinction law ($−3 \leq \log(\tau_V) \leq 0.7$; Pei 1992), stellar metallicity ($−2.2 \leq \log(Z/Z_{\odot}) \leq −0.3$; we further assume that the interstellar gas-phase metallicity is equal to the stellar metallicity), and ionization parameter $−4 \leq \log(U) \leq −1$. For our constant SFH model, we assume a log-uniform prior on formation age from 1 Myr to the age of the universe at the redshift under consideration. Throughout this process, we remove Ly$\alpha$ from the fitting templates.

The nonparametric SFH models implemented in Prospector are piecewise constant functions in time. We adopt eight time bins spanning from the time of observation to a formation redshift, $z_{\mathrm{form}} = 15–30$ (uniform prior), where the two most recent bins range from 0–3 to 3–10 Myr and the remaining six are spaced evenly in logarithmic lookback time. We adopt the “continuity” prior in Prospector, which tends to weight against sharp changes in SFR between adjacent time bins.

5.5. BEAGLE

We also perform SED fitting using the BEAGLE tool (Chevallard & Charlot 2016). BEAGLE uses templates by Gutkin et al. (2016), which combines the 2016 version of BC03 with the CLOUDY code to incorporate nebular emission. We assume a constant SFH model and fit for age with a uniform prior ranging from 1 Myr to the age of the universe at the redshift under consideration. We adopt the same priors on redshift, stellar mass, $\tau_V$, $Z$, and log($U$) as for the nonparametric Prospector models. We assume that the total interstellar (dust- and gas-phase) metallicity is equal to the stellar metallicity, but note that BEAGLE self-consistently accounts for the depletion of metals onto dust grains, regulated in part by the dust-to-metal mass ratio ($\xi_d$), which we fix to $\xi_d = 0.3$.

5.6. GAINN

Finally, we identified simulated galaxies with colors similar to those observed for MACS0647–JD to estimate its redshift and SFH. We analyzed detailed ENZO (Bryan et al. 2014) star-forming radiative-hydrodynamic simulations of the early universe with synthetic photometry generated by Barrow et al. (2020). The simulated galaxy redshifts and colors were used as a training set for the Galaxy Assembly and Interaction Neural Network (GAINN; Santos-Olmsted et al. 2023). Additional details are provided in Appendix A.3 and results are presented below.
Table 6
Physical Properties of MACS0647–JD Estimated from Bagpipes Corrected for Magnification (Flux Ratio)

|                | JD1                     | JD2                     | JD3                     | Combined                |
|----------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Formation age  | 1.00 × 596              | 1.00 × 596              | 1.00 × 596              | 1.00 × 596              |
| Mass-weighted age | 4.3 × 596               | 4.3 × 596               | 4.3 × 596               | 4.3 × 596               |
| Stellar mass (log(M/M_☉)) | 8.6 × ±0.11           | 8.6 × ±0.11           | 8.6 × ±0.11           | 8.6 × ±0.11           |
| SFR (M_☉ yr⁻¹) within 100 Myr | 3.1 × 1               | 3.1 × 1               | 3.1 × 1               | 3.1 × 1               |
| log sSFR (yr⁻¹) | −7.98 × ±0.09           | −7.98 × ±0.09           | −7.98 × ±0.09           | −7.98 × ±0.09           |
| Photometric redshift | 10.64 × ±0.06       | 10.70 × ±0.09           | 10.65 × ±0.10           | 10.65 × ±0.10           |
| Relative flux (>F200W) | 1                      | 0.66                   | 0.28                    | 1.94                   |
| Magnification (flux ratio) | 8                      | 5.3                    | 2.2                     | 15.5                   |
| Magnification (lens model) | 6.9                    | 6.3                    | 2.1                     | 15.3                   |
| Tangential magnification | 4.7                    | 4.4                    | 1.8                     |                       |

Note. Magnification uncertainties are on the order of 15% (Meneghetti et al. 2017) and are not included in the uncertainties quoted above for stellar mass and SFR.

6. Results and Discussion

6.1. Photometric Redshift
MACS0647–JD is confidently at z = 10.6 ± 0.3 (Figure 7), with this range spanning the most likely redshifts from five SED-fitting packages as well as the GAINN deep-learning network, which estimates z = 10.48, 10.81, and 10.54 for JD1, 2, 3, respectively. The components A and B are also each independently strong z ~ 11 candidates (with no significant likelihood below z < 9.5), despite lower signal-to-noise ratio photometry in each individual object.

We also tried restricting z < 9 with Bagpipes, finding significantly worse (χ² ~ 500) fits at z ~ 0.2 for JD1, 2, 3 (that reproduce the flat NIRCam colors at 2–5 μm but miss the NIRCam F150W and F115W photometry, also failing to drop out in bluer filters). Dusty/old galaxies at z ~ 2–5 have SEDs that are far too red, with SEDs rising through the near-IR.

6.2. Physical Properties

In Table 6, we report the physical properties of MACS0647–JD treated as a single galaxy analyzed by Bagpipes with photometry from the GRIZLI v4 catalog (recalibrated). SED fits are shown in Figure 8. We report results for each of the three lensed images JD1, 2, 3 and for the stacked photometry, correcting SFR and mass for magnification. Assuming A+B had the same SFH, this analysis estimates a mass-weighted age 60 ± 25 Myr, with a SFR 4 ± 1 M_☉ yr⁻¹ averaged over 100 Myr, a stellar mass between 3–6 × 10^8 M_☉, and a sSFR ∼ 10 Gyr⁻¹ (∼10%). We acknowledge the stellar masses estimates are subject to uncertainties in the SFH, stellar mass function, stellar metallicities, and dust properties.

The SFR and stellar mass are consistent with the predicted stellar main sequence from semi-analytic models (Dayal et al. 2014, 2022; Yung et al. 2019) and simulations (Dekel et al. 2013; Whitaker et al. 2014; Tacchella et al. 2018; Behroozi et al. 2019). We plot these relations and results from other z ~ 9–12 candidates measured in JWST observations in Figure 9.

The sSFR is also consistent with predictions at this redshift, as shown in Figure 10. Note in these model predictions (Dekel et al. 2013; Whitaker et al. 2014; Tacchella et al. 2018; Behroozi et al. 2019; Dayal et al. 2022) that the sSFR is relatively flat at high redshifts, increasing only 0.2 dex from z = 6 to 11. This suggests a significant role for mergers in the early universe; sSFR(z) would continue to rise more as (1+z)^2.25 if growth were dominated by cold-mode accretion (e.g., Dekel et al. 2009).

6.3. Components A and B: Ages, Dust, and Mass

In Table 7, we report results for components A and B analyzed individually by various SED-fitting methods with photometry from PIXEDEP. The fiducial values are organized in Table 8. SED fits from Bagpipes are plotted in Figure 11. The corner plots of A and B are provided in Figure 12. SFRs from SED-fitting methods are plotted in Figure 13. SFHs from simulated galaxies matching the colors of A and B using GAINN are plotted in Figure 14.

B’s redder color may be explained by age and/or dust. Results vary depending on the method and assumptions, including SFH. Dust is negligible (A(ν) < 0.02 mag) for A in most analyses, and slightly higher (A(ν) ~ 0.1 mag) for B, assuming steep SMC-like attenuation strongly suppressing the rest-UV.

Stellar mass estimates are on the order of 10^8 M_☉ with some agreement on higher mass for clump A by a factor of 2 or more (e.g., A ∼ 2 × 10^8 M_☉; B ∼ 10^8 M_☉).

Mass-weighted ages from the SED-fitting methods range up to ~50 Myr and ~100 Myr for A and B, respectively. GAINN analog simulated galaxies, similarly, have mass-weighted ages 50 ± 5 Myr and 125 ± 25 Myr for A and B, respectively.

B’s SED was relatively rare among the simulated galaxies. It was best matched by galaxies that formed most of their stars over 80 Myr prior to observation, then either remained less active (<0.01 M_☉ yr⁻¹) or perhaps had some shorter burst of star formation. The simulated galaxies with colors similar to A had dissimilar star formation, being bursty during that period when B was less active.

JD1A is intrinsically very blue (β ~ −2.6 ± 0.1) as measured with a power-law fit to the F200W, F277W, and F356W photometry measured by PIXEDEP, where β is the rest-frame UV continuum slope F_ν ∝ ν^(β−2). We measure β = −2.69 without PSF correction and β = −2.54 after correcting for point-source encircled energy within r = 0.′′6 (see Section 4.1). Other recent JWST observations have revealed even bluer slopes (β ~ −3) in galaxies at z ~ 7–8.5 (Topping et al. 2022) and in a candidate z ~ 16 galaxy (Furtak et al. 2023), all with stellar masses on the order of 10^8 M_☉. Topping et al. (2022) found these blue colors required large escape fractions, f_{esc,H II} ~ 0.6–0.8, of photons leaking directly from stellar H II regions, bypassing nebular reprocessing. Our measured β ~ −2.6 ± 0.1 is slightly redder and can be fit by our SED models that all assume f_{esc} = 0. Nevertheless, it is in the regime where some significant f_{esc} should be considered to avoid biasing age and mass measurements.
Figure 8. Photometry and Bagpipes BPASS SED fits for JD1, 2, 3, both as observed and delensed by fiducial magnifications $\mu = 8.0, 5.3$, and 2.2. Filled circles with error bars give measured photometry in each filter, and open boxes show model fluxes for each best-fit SED model spectrum shown. JWST photometry is highlighted by magenta stars. The $P(z)$ of JD1, 2, 3, as well as the stacked one, is shown in the small box in the upper panel.

Figure 9. Star formation rate (SFR) vs. stellar mass for MACS0647–JD and recently discovered $z \sim 9$–12 candidates analyzed in JWST imaging (Bradley et al. 2022; Furtak et al. 2023; Leethochawalit et al. 2023; Naidu et al. 2022). We plot Bagpipes results for JD1 (A+B). The results lie along predictions for the $z = 10$ star formation main sequence from semi-analytic modeling (Yung et al. 2019) and DELPHI simulations (Dayal et al. 2014, 2022). Note that we show the stellar mass estimated from delayed $\tau$ SFH for JD1 (A+B). Possible systematic uncertainty from different assumed SFH is shown in a dotted line.

Figure 10. Specific SFR (sSFR) as a function of redshift. We show the Bagpipes result for the JD1 photometry, while acknowledging the results vary from different methods. We compare with published results from Tasca et al. (2015; $\log(M_*/M_\odot) > 9.7$), Khusanova et al. (2021; $9.6 < \log(M_*/M_\odot) < 9.8$), Stefanon et al. (2023; $\log(M_*/M_\odot) \sim 8.4$), Topping et al. (2023), and Di Cesare et al. (2023). We also compare with predictions from Dekel et al. (2013), Whitaker et al. (2014), Tacchella et al. (2018), and DELPHI (Dayal et al. 2014, 2022). Note that we show the stellar mass estimated from delayed $\tau$ SFH for JD1 (A+B). Possible systematic uncertainty from different assumed SFH is shown in a dotted line.
Figure 11. Bagpipes SED fits to photometry of individual clumps A and B measured by Pixelfit with 3% uncertainty added in quadrature.

Table 7
Physical Properties of A and B Analyzed Individually by Various Methods Assuming $z = 10.6$

| Clump  | Photometric Uncertainty | Method       | SFH                | Age$^a$   | Stellar Mass | Specific SFR$^b$ | Dust A$_V$ mag | $\chi^2$ |
|--------|-------------------------|--------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------|-----------------|----------------|---------|
| JD1A   |                         | Bagpipes     | Delayed $\tau$ exponential | 1.3 ± 0.2 | 7.2 ± 0.1    | 101$^{+4}_{-1}$ | 0.00 ± 0.00     | 93      |
|        | +3%                     | Bagpipes     | Delayed $\tau$ exponential | 1$^{+1}_{-1}$ | 7.2$^{+0}_{-0}$ | 101$^{+4}_{-1}$ | 0.00 ± 0.00     | 82      |
|        | +10%                    | Bagpipes     | Delayed $\tau$ exponential | 14$^{+14}_{-9}$ | 7.7$^{+4}_{-3}$ | 48$^{+32}_{-22}$ | 0.01 ± 0.02     | 67      |
|        |                         | Pixelfit     | Double power law    | 23$^{+19}_{-9}$ | 8.2$^{+3}_{-1}$ | 8$^{+2}_{-3}$   | 0.34 ± 0.25     | 105     |
|        |                         | Prospector   | Nonparametric cont. | 43$^{+25}_{-20}$ | 8.3 ± 0.1    | 0               | 0.01 ± 0.02     | 18$^c$  |
|        |                         | Prospector   | Constant           | 35$^{+8}_{-6}$ | 8.0 ± 0.1    | 14 ± 3          | 0.00 ± 0.00     | 90$^c$  |
|        |                         | BEAGLE       | Constant           | 35 ± 7     | 8.1 ± 0.1    | 14$^{+4}_{-3}$  | 0.00 ± 0.00     | 103$^c$ |
| JD1B   |                         | Bagpipes     | Delayed $\tau$ exponential | 70$^{+49}_{-30}$ | 7.8$^{+1}_{-0}$ | 11$^{+4}_{-3}$  | 0.10 ± 0.06     | 15      |
|        | +3%                     | Bagpipes     | Delayed $\tau$ exponential | 67$^{+45}_{-30}$ | 7.8$^{+2}_{-1}$ | 12$^{+4}_{-3}$  | 0.10 ± 0.07     | 14      |
|        | +10%                    | Bagpipes     | Delayed $\tau$ exponential | 81$^{+41}_{-30}$ | 7.8$^{+1}_{-0}$ | 10$^{+4}_{-3}$  | 0.10 ± 0.08     | 12      |
|        |                         | Pixelfit     | Double power law    | 111$^{+32}_{-30}$ | 8.2$^{+1}_{-0}$ | 0$^{+2}_{-2}$   | 0.25 ± 0.14     | 20      |
|        |                         | Prospector   | Nonparametric cont. | 127$^{+50}_{-38}$ | 8.1 ± 0.2    | 3$^{+2}_{-2}$   | 0.12 ± 0.02     | 2.9$^c$ |
|        |                         | Prospector   | Constant           | 3$^{+3}_{-2}$ | 6.9 ± 0.2    | 185$^{+10}_{-16}$ | 0.03 ± 0.03     | 1.5$^c$ |
|        |                         | BEAGLE       | Constant           | 10$^{+4}_{-3}$ | 7.3 ± 0.6    | 51$^{+13}_{-18}$ | 0.01 ± 0.01     | 0.6$^c$ |

Notes. Photometry is measured in the brightest image JD1 by Pixelfit, analyzed with and without inflated uncertainties and corrected for magnification. Most of these SED-fitting methods assume a Chabrier (2003) IMF (Table 5). BAGPIPES assumes a Kroupa et al. (1993) IMF; to renormalize those results, we multiplied the stellar masses by 0.94 (Madau & Dickinson 2014).

$^a$ Mass weighted.

$^b$ Within recent 10 Myr.

$^c$ Calculated in F200W and redder photometry.

Table 8
Estimated Clump Properties Adopting Fiducial Stellar Mass and SFR

| Clump  | Radius (pc) | Stellar Mass $^a$ | Stellar Mass Density $^a$ | SFR $^a$ | SFR Density $^a$ |
|--------|-------------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------|-----------------|
| JD1A   | 70$^{+49}_{-30}$ pc | $10^9 M_{\odot}$ | 1800 $M_{\odot}$ pc$^{-2}$ | 1 $M_{\odot}$ yr$^{-1}$ | 18 $M_{\odot}$ yr$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-2}$ |
| JD1B   | 20$^{+14}_{-8}$ pc  | $6 \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$ | 12,000 $M_{\odot}$ pc$^{-2}$ | 0.6 $M_{\odot}$ yr$^{-1}$ | 120 $M_{\odot}$ yr$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-2}$ |

Note. The estimated stellar mass and SFR vary from different SED-fitting packages under different assumptions (e.g., SFH). The uncertainties of stellar mass density and SFR density may be up to 200%. 13
Binary stars are important to include in SED modeling as in BPASS, especially for such blue galaxies (Eldridge 2020; Eldridge & Stanway 2022). Binary interactions produce more Wolf–Rayet/helium stars at later ages, generating more energetic photons. Thus, blue observed SEDs may be fit well by older (tens of millions of years) BPASS templates including binaries, whereas templates without binaries may require very young ages (<10 Myr).

We also note uncertainty in the photometry and some variation in $\beta$ measured by the various methods and in the three lensed images. Ultimately, upcoming NIRSpec spectroscopy will improve measures of $\beta$ and age, and reveal other signatures of large escape fractions.

6.4. Stellar Mass and Star Formation Rate Densities

The stellar complexes in MACS0647–JD are very dense, with $\sim 10^8 M_\odot$ stellar mass packed into effective radii of $\sim 70^{+24}_{-24}$ and $20^{+8}_{-6}$ pc for A and B, respectively. Assuming fiducial masses $10^8$ and $6 \times 10^7 M_\odot$ for A and B, respectively, the stellar mass
surface densities $\Sigma_{\text{eff}}$ are roughly on the order of $\sim 2000$ and $\sim 12,000\, \text{M}_\odot\, \text{pc}^{-2}$, where $\Sigma_{\text{eff}} = (M/2)/(\pi R_{\text{M}/2}^2)$ and the half-mass–radius $R_{\text{M}/2} = (4/3)R_{\text{eff}}^{75}$. These are higher than the highest density $\sim 1800\, \text{M}_\odot\, \text{pc}^{-2}$ reported by Chen et al. (2023) because their size measurements, unaided by lensing, were only sensitive to structures with radii $> 150\, \text{pc}$. The density for clump B is just an order of magnitude less than the maximal density $10^5\, \text{M}_\odot\, \text{pc}^{-2}$ reported by Hopkins et al. (2010b).

A similar rough estimate of SFR densities yields $\sim 20$ and $\sim 120\, \text{M}_\odot\, \text{yr}^{-1}\, \text{kpc}^{-2}$. These are high values, though less than the highest values, $> 1000\, \text{M}_\odot\, \text{yr}^{-1}\, \text{kpc}^{-2}$, reported for submillimeter galaxies.

6.5. Galaxy Clumps or Merger?

The stellar components A and B may be two merging galaxies, or they may be two clumps that formed together in situ $\sim 400\, \text{pc}$ apart within a single galaxy. We cannot distinguish these scenarios with the current data. Given their masses $\sim 10^9\, \text{M}_\odot$, they would affect their surroundings such that we would expect them to form at the same time within a

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The factor of 4/3 might not be warranted since these are much larger than star clusters, in which case the densities would increase by a factor of $\sim 2$; see Portegies Zwart et al. (2010).

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Figure 14. Star formation histories (SFHs) of simulated galaxies with colors similar to clumps A (top) and B (bottom). Note the anticorrelation: A analogs form most stars while most B analogs are less active, and vice versa. Timescales are the same on both x-axes. Mass-weighted ages and $\chi^2$ values from SED fits are given in the legend. Photometry of the simulated galaxies was measured by Barrow et al. (2020) and matched to the observations using the GAINN deep-learning network (Santos-Olmost et al. 2023, submitted).
A significant age difference would suggest they are separate galaxies now merging. We cannot conclusively distinguish the ages of A and B given the current data, though the simulated analog galaxies at similar redshift and SED separate galaxies now merging. We cannot conclusively find the star formation to be dissimilar (see Appendix A.3).

MACS0647–JD was discovered in CLASH imaging with a search volume of a few times 1000 Mpc$^3$ at $z \sim 11$ (Coe et al. 2013). We employ the Astraeus cosmological simulations (Hutter et al. 2021) to calculate the likelihood of finding such a merger within that search volume. With a box size of (230 cMpc)$^3$ and a minimum resolved halo mass of $M_h \sim 10^{6.6} M_\odot$, these simulations are ideally suited for such statistics. We find 0.176 mergers in a (10 cMpc)$^3$ volume for systems such as JD1 and JD2 and 0.056 mergers per (10 cMpc)$^3$ for three clumps with $M_h \sim 10^{6.6} M_\odot$ (Legrand et al. 2023).

Dust may also contribute to the different colors observed between A and B. Clumps are often obscured by different amounts of dust within a galaxy. Atacama Large Millimeter/submillimeter Array (ALMA) observations of $z \sim 7$ galaxies reveal spatially varying dust that is sometimes even offset from the stars observed in the rest-UV (Bowler et al. 2022; Dayal et al. 2022). JWST observations of $z \sim 6–8$ galaxies in blank fields reveal clumpy morphologies are common; each galaxy has a few multicolored star-forming complexes separated by $\sim 300–4300$ pc, with various ages, dust reddening, and masses (Chen et al. 2023).

The ground-based spectroscopic survey VIMOS UltraDeep Survey (VUDS) found 21%–25% of $z \sim 2–6$ galaxies are dominated by two massive clumps, each $\sim 10^9–10^{10} M_\odot$, with smaller fractions of galaxies having three, four, or more clumps (Ribeiro et al. 2017). Major mergers are invoked to explain the galaxies with two massive clumps, while disk instability can explain the formation of three or more smaller clumps in situ.

### 6.6. A Possible Companion

The candidate companion galaxy C is also a J-band dropout with three lensed images at the predicted locations for a galaxy 3 kpc away at $z \sim 11$. It is $> 2$ mag fainter, so the photometric redshifts are more uncertain. In Figure 15, we show the photometry for JD1C, JD2C, and JD3C can all be well fit with EAZY SEDs assuming $z = 10.6$. (This is also the most likely redshift for JD3C, though it is not for JD1C and JD2C.)

The redshift can also be constrained from strong-lens mass modeling. Both of our lens models (Section 3.1) find the observed lensed image locations are best fit by high-redshift solutions $z \sim 11$.

### 6.7. Comparisons to Simulated Galaxies

We compare our results to various expectations from large cosmological semi-analytic models, an N-body cosmological simulation, and high-resolution zoom-in hydrodynamic simulations of the early universe.

We first compare to the DELPHI semi-analytic model (Dayal et al. 2014, 2022). In brief, this model reconstructs galaxy halo assembly histories from $z \sim 40–4.5$, tracking buildup of gas and star formation, including feedback. With minimal free parameters and calibration, it reproduces observed high-$z$ luminosity functions, stellar mass functions, and ALMA dust estimates. Details are provided in Appendix A.2.

Given a stellar mass of $10^8 (10^9) M_\odot$ at $z \sim 10.6$, DELPHI predicts a host halo mass $M_h \sim 10^{10} (10^{11}) M_\odot$, absolute UV magnitude $M_{UV} \sim -19.5 (-20)$, dust $A_V \sim 0.03 (0.12)$ mag, and a stellar radius $\sim 70 (350)$ pc for galaxies at $z \sim 10$, consistent with our observations, especially for the lower-end stellar mass $10^8 M_\odot$. Finally, this model predicts stellar mass-weighted ages that range between 35 and 180 Myr for galaxies of a similar mass at $z \sim 10$; the range of ages reflects the varied assembly histories.

These small amounts of dust are also consistent with recent modeling by Ferrara et al. (2022) suggesting that negligible dust at these redshifts could help explain the unexpectedly large numbers of $z \sim 10–14$ candidates reported in early JWST observations.

Next, we consider the merging galaxies from a hydrodynamic simulation (Barrow et al. 2017), presented in Figure 6, that bears a resemblance to MACS0647–JD A+B and C. This was the most massive halo in that simulation, and it has a total stellar mass $4 \times 10^{11} M_\odot$. The analog C is connected by a faint filament of stars and gas. This configuration was likely the result of previous galaxy mergers, including A+B, as evidenced by hot regions tracing supernovae remnants.

Within a separate hydrodynamic simulation of a 66 Mpc$^3$ comoving volume with adaptive mesh refinement resolution sufficient to track gas down to 0.25 pc at $z = 12$ and form individual Population III stars as well as metal-enriched star clusters (Santos-Olmsted et al. 2023, submitted), we perform a more thorough search for simulated galaxies with colors similar to A and B. The best-matching analogs have mass-weighted ages of $\sim 50$ and $\sim 125$ Myr, with B having little or no SFR within the past 100 Myr before observation. Bursty SFHs with
dormant periods of several tens of millions of years are common in these simulations. Observationally, the question is whether we observe them when they are active with SFR in the past 10 Myr and thus brightest in the rest-UV.

JD1A’s photometry was well matched to SEDs from the simulation (Santos-Olmsted et al. 2023, submitted) showing routine bursts of star formation, while JD1B showed clear evidence of suppressed star formation with a relatively flat UV slope and weaker evidence for the presence of emission lines. The close projected distance of only 400 pc in a halo that should be several kiloparsecs wide for a stellar population of this mass might imply that the two regions formed in the same halo, but the SED fits SFHs with suppressed star formation for several dynamical times in only B. The difference in SFHs implies that both halos were subject to independent radiative and dynamical environments and likely formed much farther apart than 400 pc before coming closer, or, alternatively, both objects may be farther apart than their projected separation despite their coincident redshift. Both scenarios, the SED model and the simulation, suggest an in-progress merger. This interaction merits further study with models tuned to investigate bursty star formation events and may yield more insight into high-redshift galaxy interactions and mergers.

6.8. Prospects of Future James Webb Space Telescope Observations

The physical properties of MACS0647–JD inferred by our JWST NIRCam observations indicate that future JWST spectroscopy should allow the detection of several strong emission lines, which would make it possible to improve constraints on the metallicity, gas ionization state, dust reddening, and SFH of this intriguing z ≈ 11 system. Based on the photometric redshift, the planned JWST/NIRSpec PRISM observations extending to 5.3 μm (~4300 Å rest frame) may detect strong emission lines like [C III] λ1908, [O II] λ3727, Hγ and [Ne III] λ3869+Hγ+He I λ3889 (blended).

Other strong rest-frame optical emission lines like [O III] λ5007 and Hα will fall in the wavelength domain of JWST’s Mid-Infrared Instrument (MIRI). The inferred SFR of MACS0647–JD suggests that both [O III] λ5007 and Hα may be detected with MIRI medium-resolution spectroscopy targeting JD1, which would then also allow simultaneous MIRI imaging of part of the MACS0647 cluster field. Such MIRI imaging could, depending on the position angle, also cover JD3, which is predicted to be sufficiently bright for detection in both F560W and F770W.

7. Conclusions

In this study, we report on public JWST imaging observations of the z ~ 11 galaxy MACS0647–JD taken with six NIRCam filters (F115W, F150W, F200W, F277W, F356W, and F444W) by GO program 1433 (PI: Coe). Three lensed images are observed with magnifications ~8, 5, and 2 and F356W AB mags of 25.1, 25.6, and 26.6. The delensed F356W magnitude is 27.3, with M_UV = −20.4 ± 17%. MACS0647–JD is a J-band dropout appearing in all filters redward of F115W. Its photometric redshift is z = 10.6 ± 0.3 as estimated by six different methods.

MACS0647–JD is spatially resolved into two components, A and B, separated by ~400 pc in projection. They may be merging galaxies or two clumps that formed in situ within one galaxy.

Component A is brighter and very blue (β ~ −2.6 ± 0.1), dust-free with a delensed radius ~70 ± 21 pc, and mass-weighted age ~50 Myr. Component B is smaller and redder with perhaps some dust Av ~ 0.1 mag, a delensed radius ~20 ± 8 pc, and mass-weighted age ~100 Myr. Simulated galaxies with similar colors as observed for A and B at similar redshift have dissimilar SFHs despite their proximity, which is consistent with our SED-fitting results, suggesting they formed some distance apart, perhaps as separate galaxies observed now as they were on their way to merge.

Both have stellar masses ~10^8 M_⊙, with A likely more massive by a factor of 2 or so. With SFRs on the order of 1 M_⊙ yr^{-1} averaged over the past 10 Myr and sSFRs ~10 Gyr^{-1}, these galaxies are consistent with expectations for the stellar main sequence at z ~ 11. Given their small radii < 100 pc, they have very high stellar mass surface densities, up to ~10^4 M_⊙ pc^{-2}, with correspondingly large SFR surface densities up to ~100 M_⊙ yr^{-1} kpc^{-2}. These are large, though not exceeding theoretical limits or values measured for other extreme objects.

A small candidate companion galaxy, C, is identified ~3 kpc away. Three lensed images of C at the expected locations are all J-band dropouts. While fainter (F356W AB mag ~ 28) with more uncertain photometry, its SED is consistent with z ~ 10.6.

The NIRCam imaging spans 1–5 μm to rest-frame 4300 Å at z = 10.6. F444W is only partially redward of the Balmer break, limiting our ability to estimate ages and stellar masses. Additional observations with the reddest NIRCam filter, F480M, and the NIRSpec MSA PRISM are upcoming and planned for 2023 January.

We are grateful and indebted to all 20,000 people who worked to make JWST an incredible discovery machine.

We dedicate these JWST observations to Rob Hawkins, former lead developer of the Astronomer’s Proposal Tool (APT). Rob lost his life in 2020 November while astronomers around the world were using APT to prepare observations we proposed for JWST Cycle 1.

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Facilities: JWST(NIRCam), HST(ACS, WFC3).

Software: ASTROPY (Astropy Collaboration et al. 2013, 2018, 2022), PHOTUTILS (Bradley et al. 2022), GRIZLI (Brammer et al. 2022), EAZYPY (Brammer et al. 2008), PIXEDFIT (Abdurro’uf et al. 2021, 2022) Bagpipes (Carnall et al. 2018), CLOUDY (Ferland et al. 1998, 2013, 2017), Prospector (Leja et al. 2017; Johnson et al. 2021), BEAGLE (Chevallard & Charlot 2016), JDAVIZ (JDADF Developers et al. 2022).

Appendix

A.1. Photometry Measurement for Individual Clumps

In Section 4, we measure the photometry for components A and B using different methods including PIXEDFIT, IMFIT, and CHEFs. Only the photometry from PIXEDFIT was used for SED fitting to estimate physical properties. Here, we provide a comparison among the three different methods, which is shown in Figure 16. We also test the SED fitting for the photometry from IMFIT and CHEFs. The results are similar to the result using PIXEDFIT photometry.

A.2. DELPHI Semi-analytic Model

In brief, the DELPHI semi-analytic model (Dayal et al. 2014, 2022) uses a binary merger tree approach to build the dark matter assembly histories of \( z \sim 4.5 \) galaxies with halo masses \( \log(M_h/M_\odot) = 8–14 \) up to \( z \sim 40 \). It then jointly tracks the buildup of dark matter halos and their baryonic components (gas, stellar, metal, and dust mass) between \( z \sim 40–4.5 \) including the impact of both internal (supernova) and external (reionization) feedback; here, we consider a case that ignores reionization feedback since reionization affects \( \lesssim 20\% \) of the volume of the universe at \( z \sim 10.5 \) (Dayal et al. 2020). The key strength of this model lies in its minimal free parameters (the star formation efficiency and fraction of supernova energy coupling to gas) and the fact that it is baselined against all available high-\( z \) data sets including the evolving UV luminosity function, the stellar mass function, and the most recent dust estimates at \( z \sim 7 \) from the Reionization Era Bright Emission Line Survey ALMA large program (Bouwens et al. 2022).

A.3. GAINN Analog Simulated Galaxies

Synthetic fluxes from JWST’s wideband filters F115W, F150W, F200W, F277W, F356W, and F444W were used as a training set for photometric redshift predictions of the combined fluxes of the A and B objects using the GAINN method (Santos-Olmsted et al. 2023, submitted), which trains deep convolutional neural networks on synthetic photometry created in post-processing from in situ star-forming ENZO (Bryan et al. 2014) radiative-hydrodynamic simulations. GAINN was originally designed for redshifts higher than

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**Figure 16.** Photometry of JD1A and JD1B measured from three different methods, PIXEDFIT, IMFIT, and CHEFs, with 3% and 10% uncertainty added in quadrature for PIXEDFIT.
11.4, and so the SFHs were shifted forward in time by 50, 100, and 150 Myr to produce a training set. Then, a 20-layer network was trained on the approximately 12,000 SEDs in the set that fell between $z = 12$ and $z = 10$ to accommodate the likely redshift of MACS0647–JD, and achieved a mean absolute error of 0.0261 in the validation set. Predicted redshifts for MACS0647–JD were consistent with galaxies at $z \sim 10.6$, returning a value of $z = 10.6417$ for object A and a value of $z = 10.5614$ for object B.

Additionally, $\chi^2$ SED fitting to GAINN-simulated galaxies was performed on JD1A’s and JD1B’s fluxes in F200W, F277W, F356W, and F444W, which focus on the rest-UV slope of both objects. Fitting was accomplished by first shifting over 10,000 synthetic observations in GAINN to $z = 10.6$ and then using relative synthetic flux to create a mass- and redshift-independent comparison. Then, the synthetic flux of the SED was scaled to the observed flux of JD1A and JD1B and $\chi^2$ values were calculated for the other three bands. We report four SFHs corresponding to the lowest values of $\chi^2$ for both JD1A and JD1B along with their mass-weighted mean stellar age after restricting our output to the best-fit result in any particular halo tree branch.

JD1B’s spectra was relatively rare in the simulation, resulting in various predictions with higher squared error, but it often matched to SFHs with the strongest episodes of star formation ending earlier than 100 Myr before the observation, with some results showing a more recent burst. The predicted mean stellar ages were between 100 and 160 Myr, which is consistent with an absence of young stars and the flat UV slope of JD1B.

All histories matched to JD1A featured bursty episodes of star formation peaking between 50 and 100 Myr before the observation, followed by a turnoff and a resumption of star formation at the time of observation. Predictions for mean stellar age also converged between 45 and 80 Myr, which was consistent with the observed blue UV slope. All matched SEDs had strong emission lines, implying that previous episodes of star formation well enriched the ISM.

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