UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE OF OPTICALLY FAINT RADIO SOURCES AND THEIR CONNECTION TO THE SUBMILLIMETER POPULATION

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ABSTRACT

We present a sample of 43 submillimeter sources detected (at >3σ) drawn from our program to follow up optically faint radio sources with the Submillimeter Common User Bolometric Array (SCUBA) instrument. These sources already have associated radio and, in many cases, optical identifications, and many are also detected at 450 μm. We compare these with 12 submillimeter sources drawn from the literature, which were discovered in blank-field mapping campaigns but also have radio detections. We then use this total sample (55 sources) to study and model the evolution of dusty galaxies. A correlation is observed in the submillimeter/radio color-magnitude diagram (CMD), which can be modeled by strong luminosity evolution. The selection effects of the radio/optical preselection technique are determined from the models, and a corrected redshift distribution is constrained using a range of model assumptions. The temperature/redshift effects on the 450 μm detected subset of our sample are studied in relation to the models, and prospects for improved measurements in the shorter submillimeter wavelength windows (450 and 350 μm) are explored.

Subject headings: galaxies: evolution — galaxies: formation — galaxies: high-redshift — radio continuum: galaxies — submillimeter

1. INTRODUCTION

The advent of the Submillimeter Common User Bolometer Array (SCUBA) on the James Clerk Maxwell Telescope (JCMT) has spawned a new era of discovery in the submillimeter wave bands. Submillimeter luminous extragalactic sources were quickly uncovered (Smail, Ivison, & Blain 1997) as the possible high-redshift analogs to local ultraluminous infrared galaxies (ULIRGs). However, the population continues to be poorly understood, largely as a result of two observational difficulties. First, obtaining large samples of objects from SCUBA submillimeter mapping is an arduous process, whereby typically one to two sources are uncovered in a night’s worth of integration on a blank piece of sky. Second, identifying secure detections at other wavelengths is tremendously difficult due to the positional uncertainty and large SCUBA beam size (15”) and the intrinsic faintness of most sources at all other wavelengths.

The tight correlation observed locally between thermal far-infrared (far-IR) emission and synchrotron radio emission (Helou et al. 1985; Condon 1992) suggests a possibility for identifying the submillimeter sources. The positional accuracy and small beam sizes of large radio interferometers such as the VLA can act as a surrogate to the submillimeter, allowing precise identifications at other wavelengths. Smail et al. (2000) demonstrated that a significant fraction of their submillimeter sources could be detected in the radio. However, reaching the radio depths required to detect the submillimeter sources is not trivial. Even the deepest radio map yet obtained, a 100 hr VLA integration at 1.4 GHz in the selected survey area (SSA) 13 survey region (Fomalont et al. 2002) cannot detect all the bright submillimeter sources found in this field (Barger et al. 2001a). At this depth ($S_{1.4GHz} = 20 \mu$Jy) submillimeter sources with warm ($\sim$50 K) dust and luminosities similar to the local ULIRG, Arp 220, will likely be missed at $z \geq 3$. Colder sources would be missed at even lower redshifts (Blain 1999).

Putting aside the precise form of the radio/submillimeter overlap, deep radio observations have emerged as an efficient means to preselect high-redshift, submillimeter sources (Barger, Cowie, & Richards 2000a, hereafter BCR; Chapman et al. 2001a, hereafter C01). This effectively circumvents the time constraint for obtaining large samples of objects with the present-generation submillimeter imaging instruments, SCUBA (Holland et al. 1999) and MAMBO (Bertoldi et al. 2000). These surveys (BCR, C01) have used the bimodal break in the apparent optical magnitudes of radio source identifications lying at $I \sim 24$ (Richards et al. 1999), selecting only the relatively faint sources for submillimeter follow-up—the optically faint radio sources (OFRS). While the entire blank-field submillimeter population (e.g., Smail et al. 2001) is not selected in this manner, a significant percentage of the source counts are recovered ($\sim$70%; BCR, C01). The key advantage, however, is that the optical and radio properties of the sources are known with certainty, with the high-resolution radio providing morphological information for studying the types of galaxies in the submillimeter population (Richards 2000). The challenge is to understand the selection function sufficiently to exploit the rich information gleaned by the large samples of submillimeter sources uncovered in this manner.

In this paper, we investigate the evolutionary behavior of the submillimeter population of galaxies, constrained by the correlations observed in a large sample selected using the radio. We develop models to describe the form of the evolution and study the model-implied radio selection function. The detailed multiwavelength properties of this large sample of radio-selected submillimeter sources are presented elsewhere (Chapman et al. 2002, in preparation; Barger et al. 2001b). We give only a brief description in § 2, and show
2. SAMPLE DEFINITION

We draw on the large number of submillimeter sources cataloged and described in Chapman et al. (2002, in preparation) and Barger et al. (2001b), which were obtained through SCUBA follow-up to radio sources in the extended Hubble Deep Field (HDF) and the Hawaii SSA 13 survey field. The main sample consists of 43 sources detected at 850 \( \mu \text{m} \) above 3 times the rms, corresponding to about 5 mJy. Twenty of these were already presented in BCR and C01. The sources were observed in SCUBA photometry mode, keeping the source on a bolometer at all times (3-bolometer chopping; C01) in order to go deeper than making a fully sampled map of the field. Targets were selected to be optically faint, with no optical source having flux \( l > 24 \) being coincident with the radio position.

Several of these sources have radio/optical astrometry which is difficult to reconcile with radio source centroids offset from relatively bright optical sources by 0'5 to 1'5. In C01, we assumed that six such sources were optically fainter than \( l > 25 \) (three detected in the submillimeter and three undetected). Further statistical analysis and a more precise astrometric solution now suggest that these optically brighter sources are the likely counterparts to the radio sources. Submillimeter follow-up of radio sources subsequent to the C01 study has extended the sample into optically brighter sources as described in Chapman et al. (2002a). Such endeavors have continued to uncover submillimeter luminous sources, albeit at a lower recovery rate than the \( l > 25 \) samples. We estimate that the submillimeter recovery rate for radio sources with \( l > 24 \) is 38%.

The submillimeter follow-up to radio sources leaves a large undetected sample, with an implied \( S_{850} < 5 \) mJy. This beg the question as to the nature of these sources. As discussed in C01, this undetected radio sample has significant submillimeter flux on average, even if they are too faint to detect individually. Since there is no significant difference in the radio flux distribution between the submillimeter detected and undetected OFRS samples, one interpretation is that they are a lower redshift contamination of our detected sample (intrinsically less radio-luminous and harder to detect with SCUBA). However, we do not discount the possibility raised in Richards et al. (1999) that these sources could be high-redshift, radio-loud active galactic nuclei (AGNs). Some fraction of them could also be displaced radio lobes from other radio sources.

A simple inspection of the spectral energy distribution (SED) for the ULIRG Arp 220 suggests that the deep VLA maps used both to select the OFRS for SCUBA follow-up and to attempt identification of submillimeter blank-field surveys (~40 \( \mu \text{Jy} \) completeness) will not detect a galaxy with twice the luminosity of Arp 220 (\( > 2 \) \( \times \) \( S_{850} \)). However, the submillimeter selection function suggests that sources typically detectable by SCUBA should lie mostly at \( z > 1 \) (Blain et al. 1999b). Thus, the radio-identified submillimeter population suggests a redshift range spanning \( z \sim 1-3 \).

We also collected submillimeter sources with radio identifications from the literature in order to compare the properties of sources drawn from blank fields to our OFRS selected submillimeter sources. Seven sources from the Smail et al. (2001) catalog and five from Eales et al. (2000) were identified in the radio and can thus be compared with our sample. Smail et al. (2001) have suggested optical counterparts for their objects, four of which are optically fainter than \( l > 24 \), while three lie between 21 < \( l < 24 \).

3. THE SUBMILLIMETER/RADIO CMD

A favorable situation exists for studying high-redshift sources in the submillimeter wave band: for submillimeter sources lying at redshifts greater than about 1, we can use the submillimeter flux alone to estimate the overall luminosity, only weakly dependent on redshift because of the offsetting effects of the steep positive spectral index in the submillimeter and cosmological dimming. The negative spectral index in the radio further implies that the submillimeter/radio ratio can be used as a rough redshift indicator (Carilli & Yun 1999, 2000; Dunne et al. 2000a; BCR), effectively tracing the trough in the SED formed by the opposing spectral indices.

The flat luminosity-redshift relation implies that any trends observed in the ratio of submillimeter/radio as a function of submillimeter flux must be a result of evolutionary effects. Of immediate interest for our sample is therefore to analyze the \( S_{850} / S_{1.4 \text{GHz}} \) versus \( S_{850} \) plane—essentially a submillimeter/radio CMD. For sources at \( z > 1 \), and in the absence of varying dust effects, such a CMD can be interpreted simply in terms of redshift (\( y \)-axis) and luminosity (\( x \)-axis). However, the redshift estimated in this manner is degenerate with dust temperature (Blain 2000), and it is only the quantity \( (1+z)/T_d \) that is truly constrained by the submillimeter/radio ratio. This increases the impetus to study the CMD in order to assess any obvious trends of this redshift/temperature indicator with submillimeter flux density.

In Figure 1, we present the submillimeter/radio CMD for the total submillimeter observed OFRS sample. Solid circles represent radio sources detected with \( > 3 \) \( \sigma \) significance at 850 \( \mu \text{m} \). An error bar representative of the root mean square (rms) error for the detected sample is shown in the lower right corner. Solid circles show an additional 24 sources from our sample which have \( > 2 \) \( \sigma \) significance at 850 \( \mu \text{m} \). While we do not consider these robust detections, a large fraction will be real submillimeter sources, and the average properties of this marginally detected sample will help extend the statistical properties of OFRSs to fainter fluxes. Crosses represent radio sources with \( < 2 \) \( \sigma \) significance at 850 \( \mu \text{m} \), where sources with negative submillimeter flux density have been arbitrarily plotted at \( S_{850} = 0.3 \) mJy.

In interpreting Figure 1, we caution that our sample is only complete at a flux limit of \( S_{850} \), resulting in accurate distributions in the CMD plane only for these brightest sources. Nevertheless, an apparent correlation is seen, whereby an increasing ratio of 850 \( \mu \text{m} \) flux to 1.4 GHz
flux scales with increasing $S_{850}$. This correlation plausibly extends into the regime of radio sources with $< 3 \sigma$ significance in the submillimeter (open circles and crosses). However, the absence of sources in the upper left corner of the diagram is largely the result of the radio flux limit of the survey, which we represent with a dashed line. Note that the two $> 3 \sigma$ sources lying above the line were selected from the deeper SSA 13 radio field. On the other hand, the dearth of sources in the lower right of Figure 1, compared with the high density of sources in the upper right, must be a true evolutionary effect.

As a comparison with other studies, we also plot in Figure 1 the submillimeter sources with radio counterparts from the catalogs of Small et al. (2001) and Eales et al. (2000) as seven triangles and five squares, respectively. Of interest is the fact that these sources lie scattered around the complete CMD area probed by our OFRS sample, with no obvious bias for the optically brighter members. It is therefore plausible that these sources may trace the same evolutionary trends uncovered by our OFRS population, irrespective of the optical emission. We return to this point later.

Note that all sources presented in the diagram are robustly detected in the radio and are likely to be relatively high star formation rate galaxies, as noted in § 2 above, whether or not we were able to obtain secure submillimeter detections. We can thus study with confidence the CMD at the bright end. However, a more detailed assessment of the population lying in the 1–5 mJy range will require additional, deeper submillimeter measurements, which would provide significant leverage of the CMD correlation to fainter submillimeter flux densities.

4. LOCAL CMD RELATIONS AND A SIMPLE PICTURE OF EVOLUTION

To better understand the intrinsic scatter and correlations present in the submillimeter/radio population at higher redshifts, we examine the local infrared luminous population in the radio and at submillimeter-to-far-IR wavelengths. We present a sample of 19 objects from the IRAS bright galaxy sample (BGS) which have been measured at 850 and 450 μm (Dunne & Eales 2001) and in the radio (Condon et al. 1996). We plot them in the CMD plane (Fig. 2a) as well as color-color diagrams consisting of either $S_{100}/S_{850}$ or $S_{450}/S_{850}$ versus $S_{850}/S_{1.4 GHz}$ (Figs. 2b, 2c). For the range of likely redshifts of the SCUBA sources in this study ($z \sim 1–4$), the 850 μm band will remain a probe of the Raleigh-Jeans graybody tail of the SED. However, the observed 450 μm band will sample a very different part of the SED at higher redshifts, comparable to ~100 μm locally.

The 850 μm/radio CMD reflects the intrinsic scatter in the far-IR/radio relation, coupled with the dispersion from dust temperatures and emissivities as well as measurement uncertainties. The measured scatter of 0.2 dex in 850 μm/radio (Table 1) is close to that found for the far-IR/radio (Helou et al. 1985).

The 450 μm/850 μm CMD shows a flat relation, representing a fairly constant and cool dust temperature component (~20 K), as discussed in Dunne & Eales (2001). The 100 μm/850 μm and 60 μm/100 μm CMDs, however, show a rather large scatter, indicative of a range in warmer (~40 K) dust properties found in this local infrared luminous sample.

The local galaxy color-color relations, using the 450 μm/850 μm versus 850 μm/radio, continue to reflect the apparent constancy of the cool dust properties of this sample. The color-color relation using the local 100 μm band, however, now forms a strong correlation (compare Figs. 2a, 2b), reflecting the effect of dust temperature and emissivity variations on both the 100 μm/850 μm and the 850 μm/radio. This arises since the change in temperature effectively changes the total far-IR luminosity for a fixed 850 μm measurement, and thus changes the correlation of far-IR/radio. The 60 μm band is similar to the 100 μm but exhibits larger scatter as it lies beyond the graybody peak and, hence, has contributions from a range of dust components.

While 19 objects is a small sample from which to establish local correlations, a larger sample exists for IRAS galaxies measured only at 850 μm Dunne et al. (2000b). CCDs for this larger IRAS sample are presented in Figure 2c. The steep negative correlations in the 100 μm/850 μm and 60 μm/850 μm diagrams are still observed, with similar scatter as in the 19-object sample. For reference, we list the scatter and slope of all these local correlations in Table 1.

These correlations may arise due to sources with the highest dust temperatures (and hence 100 μm/850 μm, 60 μm/100 μm ratios), having effectively lower far-IR fluxes for galaxies in this limited range of $L_{850}$. The 850 μm/1.4 GHz ratio, scaling inversely with far-IR, is therefore also lower. The 850 μm/1.4 GHz correlation from the SED template catalog of Dale et al. (2001a, 2001b) suggests that the more quiescent galaxies have a significantly greater 850 μm/1.4 GHz ratio than active IR-luminous star-forming gal-

Fig. 1.—Radio $S_{850 \mu m}$ color-magnitude diagram. Solid circles are radio sources detected with $\geq 3 \sigma$ significance at 850 μm, while open circles are an additional sample of sources marginally detected at $> 2 \sigma$. The error bar in the lower right is representative of the detected sample. Crosses show radio sources with $< 2 \sigma$ significance at 850 μm, where those with observationally estimated fluxes which are negative being plotted at $S_{850} = 0.3$ mJy. We also plot the submillimeter sources with radio counterparts from Small et al. (2001) and Eales et al. (2000) as seven triangles and five squares, respectively. The typical radio flux limit of the sample is shown as a dashed line; the two sources lying above the line were selected from the deeper SSA 13 radio field. A correlation is apparent in the data, but this is largely defined by the upper envelope of the radio sensitivity cutoff.
axies (as expected, since the quiescent galaxies have colder dust). By redshifting the SEDs, we can anticipate the effect of this monotonic scaling of 850 \( \mu m / 1.4 \) GHz with galaxy IR luminosity on our high-\( z \) to fixing the mid-IR luminosity (\( \sim 10 \mu m \)) but results in proportionately higher far-IR (hot dust) or lower far-IR (cool dust) sources. Therefore, a sample of equivalently far-IR luminous sources with colder dust temperatures will be detected by SCUBA at much lower redshifts, and a less extreme luminosity evolution would be required to generate sources which lie in our submillimeter detection window \( S_{850} > 5 \) mJy. The effect of moving to a flat \( \Lambda = 0.7 \) cosmology, however, is to introduce a slope to the CMD which also has to be countered with luminosity evolution or colder sources to maintain sources in our detection window. However, the evolutionary effects are sufficiently strong that the precise cosmology adopted is relatively unimportant.

5. MODELING THE EVOLVING CMD RELATIONS

We now embark on more comprehensive models of our submillimeter/radio CMD and the trends observed in the previous sections. Our aim will be to simulate the properties of our data sample using a Monte Carlo approach and to use this to focus on the evolutionary trends implied by the SCUBA data for the OFRS sample. The data we have do not justify embarking upon a detailed fitting of various model parameters. Rather, we look at some examples of models which are motivated by fitting what is already known about local ULIRGs and distant SCUBA sources, and using these examples, try to draw general conclusions. We start with simple step-by-step assumptions about the population and progress to more involved and (hopefully) realistic effects, taking careful note of the changes in the resulting CMD.

Monte Carlo simulations of the 850 \( \mu m / 1.4 \) GHz CMD are first attempted by assuming a population of Arp 220-like SEDs, equivalent in the far-IR/submillimeter regime to a graybody with dust temperature \( T_d = 50 \) K and emissivity \( \beta = 1.5 \). Figure 4a depicts an ensemble of such objects in the CMD, all having the same luminosity (approximately twice that of Arp 220). The sources follow a Gaussian redshift distribution (indicated in the insets in Fig. 4) matched to the spectroscopically estimated distribution of Barger et al. (1999), thought to be plausible in light of recent Keck redshift measurements for submillimeter sources (Chapman et
al. 2002b). The sources are color-coded by redshift as described in the figure caption and represent density evolution of a single luminosity of source. This is effectively the opposite hypothesis to our toy model above, where the source density per comoving volume remained constant for all time but evolved in luminosity. The corresponding track then traces this characteristic submillimeter galaxy as a function of redshift through the CMD. Note that beyond $z \sim 1$, the source is observed with approximately the same $850 \mu m$ flux density for the adopted $\Omega_M = 1$ cosmology, reflecting the favorable submillimeter $K$-correction described above. However, redshifts map monotonically onto the $850 \mu m/1.4$ GHz axis.

Since we know the local scatter in the $850 \mu m/1.4$ GHz relation (as discussed in § 4, see also Helou et al. 1985; Yun, Reddy, & Condon 2001), we can introduce the assumption that this scatter remains constant and applies at all redshifts. We describe the relation as a Gaussian in the $850 \mu m/1.4$ GHz ratio with an rms scatter of 0.2 dex. The effect of the scatter of this relation on the CMD distribution is shown in Figure 4b, distributing the single luminosity submillimeter family vertically. Without spectroscopic measurements, our
current data cannot constrain the true evolution in the far-IR/radio correlation. Such information will have to await future redshift surveys of radio and submillimeter detected sources (e.g., Chapman et al. 2002b). At the moment, assuming it is the same as the local relation is about the best that can be done.

We can alternatively impose a luminosity distribution on our ULIRG population, as represented in Figure 4c. The bright SCUBA counts at 850 μm are well fitted by a power law (e.g., Barger et al. 1999) and, hence, we first adopt a constant power law for our luminosity functions over all redshifts (lower insets, Fig. 4). This is probably a reasonable assumption for the bright submillimeter sources considered here. This therefore represents a null hypothesis for luminosity evolution. At this point, our radio survey completeness of 40 μJy imposes a diagonal cut on the sources from the upper left corner of the CMD.

We can then combine both the far-IR/radio scatter and luminosity function to create a candidate scenario for the CMD relation, as shown in Figure 4d. Scatter in radio/far-
IR relation has a skewed effect on the data compared to Figure 4c, in the sense of pulling more high-redshift objects downward in the diagram. This can be understood as resulting from a selection bias associated with our radio threshold.

This scenario is clearly incompatible with our observed CMD, failing to reproduce the dearth of sources in the lower right corner of Figure 1. What can we learn from the failure of this picture to help understand how to recover the observational trend in the CMD? First, the model consisted of no luminosity evolution with redshift and a mild number density evolution governed by the imposed redshift distribution. As noted by Blain et al. (1999b, 1999c), the extremely strong density evolution required to fit the 850 μm counts (following a $[1 + z]^{10}$ form) will quickly overproduce the far-IR background. Boosting our present redshift distribution is not a viable modeling route.

The key to the problem lies in removing sources (which do not exist at all in the observations, despite our apparent sensitivity to them) from the lower right corner. As discussed in the previous section, with our toy evolution of a local sample of IRAS galaxies, a reasonably strong luminosity evolution on its own is able to reproduce the general trend of the CMD. Several authors have recently modeled the evolution of dusty galaxies using pure luminosity evolution, reproducing the observed counts and backgrounds at both far-IR and submillimeter wavelengths (e.g., Blain et al. 1999b, 1999c; Rowan-Robinson 2001; Xu et al. 2001). The CMD trend can be understood naturally in terms of luminosity evolution: more luminous objects occur at higher red-
Evolution is pure luminosity, taking the form \((1+z)^3\), consistent with the Blain et al. (1999a) modeling results. Beyond \(z = 3\), the evolution falls with a form \((1+z)^{-4}\). Lines are color-coded by redshift as noted in the figure. Note that the truncation of the function at low luminosities is irrelevant for the flux densities probed by SCUBA.

6. SELECTION FUNCTION AND MODELS

6.1. The Radio Selection Function

Having reproduced our observed CMD data set with a scenario consistent with galaxy counts at a variety of far-IR and submillimeter wavelengths, we are now able to better understand our radio selection function relative to the modeled CMDs.

We can take our model and derive predicted versus measured counts (Fig. 7) and redshift distributions (Fig. 8). With our adopted scatter of 0.2 dex in the far-IR/radio correlation, we recover a large percentage of the submillimeter counts brighter than 10 mJy, falling to a 50% recovery rate by \(\sim 5\) mJy. This appears to be less than the recovery rate quoted in BCR and C01. A simple explanation for this discrepancy is that our Monte Carlo model gives sources with an infinite effective signal-to-noise ratio, while the actual data at the \(\sim 5\) mJy level is barely 3 \(\sigma\) significance. The steep luminosity function therefore results in a large Eddington bias, scattering many \(\sim 2\) \(\sigma\) sources into our detected catalog and making up an apparent excess of source counts in the \(\sim 5\) mJy bin.

Our modeling results have demonstrated that a simplistic estimate of the radio preselection function based on redshifting a single ULIRG falls short of the true picture. Considering the entire population of IR-luminous sources evolving in one of several plausible scenarios consistent with our CMD and the 850 \(\mu\)m counts, it appears that higher redshift sources will scatter into our detection window. Such high-\(z\) objects appear to comprise a significant fraction of our brightest sources, consisting of \(\sim 20\%\) of the \(S_{850} > 10\) mJy detections. Our analysis of the Monte Carlo modeled source count and redshift distribution.
Fig. 6a — Monte Carlo models including luminosity evolution. (a) Simulation of the 850 \(\mu\)m/1.4 GHz CMD but without the submillimeter/radio scatter for clarity. For illustration of the total sample and the effect of radio preselection, we show all sources, but those we can detect have larger symbols. The distribution of detectable sources is qualitatively similar to our observed CMD. Redshifts are color-coded by gray scale as in previous graphs, with bands indicating \(z < 1\), \(z = 1-2\), \(z = 2-3\), \(z = 3-4\), and \(z > 4\). (b) Scatter in the submillimeter/radio relation is now added. The source density for \(S_{850} > 5\) mJy matches that of our observed CMD.

Fig. 7a — (a) Differential source counts extracted from our Monte Carlo simulations. By binning the sources from our CMD as a function of \(S_{850}\), we can recover the total source counts as well as the fraction detected in the radio. The solid line represents the power-law fit to the blank field submillimeter source counts (Barger et al. 1999), while the dashed line represents a fit to the bright end of the lensed counts of Blain et al. (1999) and Chapman et al. (2002c). The histograms represent the total modeled counts (solid), the radio-detected counts (dashed), and the radio-undetected counts (dotted). With our adopted scatter of 0.2 dex in the submillimeter/radio correlation, we recover a large percentage of the submillimeter counts brighter than 10 mJy, falling to a 50% recovery rate by \(~5\) mJy. (b) Integrated source counts estimated from our OFRS sample, shown by filled symbols, with estimated error band. Also plotted is the fit to blank field submillimeter survey counts of Barger et al. (1999) and Eales et al. (2000), shown by the dotted line, and the lensing amplified survey counts of Blain et al. (1999) and Chapman et al. (2002c), shown as crosses and stars, respectively. A recent measurement in the extended HDF region for sources brighter than 12 mJy is shown by the square. The fraction of sources recovered is clearly high.
Fig. 8.—(a–b) Modeled redshift distributions extracted from our Monte Carlo simulations. Dashed lines represent the input redshift distribution of the sources, while the distribution as measured from the 850 μm/1.4 GHz ratio is plotted in dark histogram (solid lines). The shaded inset in the latter case represents the fraction of sources recovered from the radio preselection. The distribution measured from the 850 μm/1.4 GHz (including 0.2 dex scatter) is flattened and also broader than the true distribution. There is an excess of sources at lower redshift and also an excess of high-z sources arising simply from the intrinsic scatter in the 850 μm/1.4 GHz relation, which broadens the peak in our adopted evolution function. (c–d) Actual redshift distribution recovered by the radio selection (solid histogram) compared to the recovery in the absence of scatter in the far-IR/radio relation. In our 5 mJy flux cut, we recover an excess of sources for all $z > 3$, but recover a deficit of sources from $2 < z < 3$. Our radio-selected survey is therefore less complete at $2 < z < 3$ than we would have naively expected. (e–f) Residuals as an estimate of the errors involved in both the intrinsic radio selection and the 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimator. Dashed line: Residuals of the radio-detected sources with a 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimated redshift distribution compared with the input distribution. Solid line: True redshifts of radio-selected sources relative to the total distribution. Light solid line: Difference in the 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimated redshift from the true redshift distribution for the radio-selected sources alone.
recovery therefore suggests that we look at direct comparison with the measured blank-field submillimeter properties presented in BCR, C01, and Chapman et al. (2002, in preparation).

In Figure 7b, we plot the integrated source counts estimated from our optically faint radio source sample (filled symbols with error band). A fit to the blank-field submillimeter survey counts from BCR and Eales et al. (2000) are also shown by the dotted line and the cluster lensing survey counts of Blain et al. (1999a) and Chapman et al. (2002c) by crosses and stars, respectively. The effective volume of our survey is difficult to estimate, as the radio sensitivity falls off with radius from the field center. This issue has been quantified carefully in C01 (and will be discussed further in Chapman et al. 2002, in preparation). Since objects were chosen randomly, we use the visibility function to construct the count, as discussed in these papers.

The fraction of sources recovered is clearly high, although the brighter counts are still not very well constrained. While the ~2 mJy counts are well determined to be 3000–4000 deg^-2 brighter than 5 mJy, it is not clear how steeply the count falls. A recent measurement from Borys et al. (2001) for sources brighter than 12 mJy in the extended Hubble Deep Field is also plotted with a square. This suggests our OFRS recovery rate is about 60%.

Our modeling analysis lead us to a count recovery rate perhaps as high as 70% in the absence of large-scale structure effects. This seems plausible, both from the direct analysis of the counts comparison (Fig. 7b) and from the sources which we know to be missing from the OFRS preselection: the ~15% optically brighter sources at all redshifts, and the remaining sources at redshifts too high to be detected in the radio. This is also in agreement with the direct comparisons of blank-field SCUBA surveys with those sources recovered in the radio from the same fields (Borys et al. 2001; Smail et al. 2001; C01). At the faint end of the counts (Fig. 7b), our preselected sources appear to fall significantly short of the full source counts. This was already evident in our modeling of the recovery rate (Fig. 7a), where only ~10% were detected at the current radio depths by $S_{850} = 1$ mJy.

In Figure 8, we focus on the redshift information gleaned from the 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimators compared to the true distribution. We take two flux cuts on the modeled 850 μm data and overplot the true redshift distribution (dashed histogram) on that obtained by directly applying the 850 μm/1.4 GHz redshift estimator to the total population (solid histogram) and the radio-detected subpopulation (inset histogram). Figure 8a depicts a 5 mJy cut, corresponding roughly to the sensitivity of our SCUBA OFRS survey, while Figure 8b presents a 2 mJy cut comparable to the deepest observations obtainable with SCUBA. Clearly in the absence of 850 μm/1.4 GHz scatter, we recover the true redshift distribution. Introducing the scatter results in a broadening and skewing of the distribution as a result of the strong luminosity evolution adopted in our model. The radio selection (inset histogram) results in a bias, whereby objects at higher redshift, beyond the peak in our evolution function, $g(z)$, are scattered into our radio detection window. However, these appear as an excess of $z \sim 2$ sources, having been scattered down from the large population with ever-decreasing characteristic luminosity ($L^*$ in our luminosity functions). The excess of measured high-$z$ sources arises simply from the intrinsic scatter in the 850 μm/1.4 GHz relation, broadening the peak in our evolution function, $g(z)$. These features must be ubiquitous in any realistic evolutionary model which rises in luminosity to a peak redshift and then declines to even higher redshifts.

These biases are quantified by comparing the actual redshift distribution recovered by the radio selection (histogram) to the recovery in the absence of scatter in the far-IR/radio relation (Figs. 8c, 8d). In our 5 mJy flux cut, we recover an excess of sources for all $z > 3$ but recover a deficit of sources from $2 < z < 3$. Our radio-selected survey is therefore less complete at $2 < z < 3$ than we would have naively expected based on the redshift at which Arp 220 is no longer detectable in the radio. This is important for spectroscopic follow-up of these samples (Barger et al. 1999; Ivison et al. 2000; Chapman et al. 2002b). In Figures 8e and 8f, we also plot the residuals as an estimate of the errors involved in both the intrinsic radio selection and the 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimator. The dashed line shows the residuals of those radio-detected sources with an 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimated redshift distribution compared with the true total distribution. The solid line shows the true redshifts of the radio-selected sources from the total distribution. Finally, the light solid line shows the difference in the 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimated redshift from the true redshift for the radio-selected sources alone.

In Figure 9, we plot the 850 μm/1.4 GHz estimated redshift distribution for the actual SCUBA observed sources in our sample, using the same Arp 220 template SED used in the models to derive redshifts. Utilizing a template with cooler dust would, of course, result in lower redshift estimates.

![Figure 9](image-url)

**Fig. 9.**—Estimated redshift distribution for SCUBA detected and undetected radio sources in our sample. We plot the histogram with a dashed line for radio sources detected in the submillimeter above a 3 $\sigma$ limit. We also plot the distribution for all sources with $S_{850} > 2 \sigma$ (solid line, histogram). Sources with <2 $\sigma$ are shown with a light solid line, suggesting a tail of faint submillimeter sources extending to redshifts comparable to those spanned by the submillimeter detected sample. This 850 μm/1.4 GHz constructed redshift distribution is matched by our Monte Carlo simulations (cf. Fig. 8).
6.2. The Optical Selection Function

The optical selection function rejects any optically brighter submillimeter sources, which comprise >10% of the Smail et al. (2001) submillimeter survey. A constant optical limit (I ≥ 24) in the absence of evolution would select more obscured sources at lower redshifts. However, Adelberger & Steidel (2000) and Chapman et al. (2002d) have suggested that star-bursting sources appear less obscured at higher redshifts, counteracting the effect of cosmological dimming. In fact, a constant optical limit may produce the most uniform sample of sources across the z = 1–3 range.

The majority of the high-redshift ULIRG population, as detected by SCUBA, has been demonstrated to be optically faint, typically with I > 24, K > 20 (BCR; C01; Smail et al. 2001; Chapman et al. 2002a). Obtaining their redshift distribution is crucial for constraining their evolution and, most importantly, for placing them in their cosmological context among the hegemony of other galactic denizens (e.g., Blain et al. 1999b, 1999c). With typical magnitude of I > 24, however, present-generation telescopes are hard-pressed to routinely measure redshifts for such distant, faint, and highly obscured galaxies. This is particularly disappointing given that accurate redshifts are essential for obtaining CO observations of these gas-rich galaxies. The Owens Valley Radio Observatory observations presented by Frayer et al. (1998, 1999) and Chapman et al. (2002e; the SA 22 Lyα blob) of three SCUBA galaxies demonstrate the important physical information that can be obtained if accurate redshifts are available.

Fortunately, around 10% of the SCUBA-detected galaxies are unambiguously identified with relatively bright (I < 24) counterparts (the class II sources in the nomenclature of Ivison et al. 2000, a class which includes the two systems targeted by Frayer et al. 1998, 1999). Such galaxies are spectroscopically observable with 10 m class telescopes and so could offer one route to estimating the redshift distribution of the population as a whole. However, we first have to address the question of the relevance of these optically brighter cousins to the bulk of the SCUBA population with optically faint counterparts. Are the class II galaxies representative of the whole or are they an unrelated population, or perhaps a different episode in the evolutionary sequence?

We have shown some evidence that the optically brighter submillimeter sources may in fact be representative of the larger optically faint population (Fig. 1); the CMD reveals that optically brighter galaxies are scattered uniformly across the fainter population.

At least in part this effect may be explained, because some systems may comprise both obscured and unobscured interacting components, e.g., SMM 14011 from Ivison et al. (2000) and MMD 11 from Chapman et al. (2000, 2002f)—merging systems with the bulk of the submillimeter emission arising in one galaxy component, while the optical emission remains unobscured in an associated component. Equivalently the two components may be mixed up within a single galaxy, through patchy dust and star formation. Our radio selection of optically faint submillimeter sources is blind to these possibilities, and optically brighter sources are often located very nearby the radio position. In other cases, the galaxy may simply have substantial outflows which have expelled dust along preferred viewing directions, allowing a view through the veil.

7. THE 450 μm DETECTIONS AND THE COLOR-COLOR RELATION

Many of our sources are also detected at 450 μm, which allows for the possibility of improving the constraints on evolutionary properties for the sample. We have extracted 450 μm flux densities from the models of Figure 6 and plotted CMD and color-color diagrams in Figure 10 along with the 850 μm/radio CMD (reproduced without the confusion of sources falling beneath our radio limit). In this figure, the redshifts of the sources are mapped onto a continuous color code, represented by the bar in Figure 10.

While some of the sources are only marginally detected at 450 μm, the firm detections obtained at 850 μm and at 1.4 GHz lend support to their reality. We focus on the 19 sources with 450 μm flux detected at greater than 2σ. These data are presented in Figure 11, where we plot both a 450 μm/850 μm CMD and a 450 μm/850 μm versus 850 μm/1.4 GHz color-color diagram. The envelopes of our Monte Carlo models are shown as dashed lines. For comparison, we also plot the five sources from the Smail et al. (2001) sample detected at 450 μm and the single source from Eales et al. (2000) by triangles and squares, respectively. The average (inverse variance weighted) signal at 450 μm of the 850 μm detected sources is 34 ± 6 mJy, consistent with a population with median z = 3 and our adopted dust parameters.

An additional consideration for 450 μm observations is the increased instability in the sky opacity at this shorter wavelength and the larger effect of extinction corrections as a consequence, leading to possibly larger flux uncertainties than naively estimated. The importance of such effects was discussed recently by Dunne & Eales (2001) for a sample of local galaxies measured at 450 μm. We obtained calibration maps for our data at 6 hr intervals on average, and the data were all taken near the middle of the night, where the measured gains at 450 μm are far more stable than at the extremities of the night. While the absolute calibration is therefore not necessarily the dominant error on our measured flux densities, the current inability to measure atmospheric opacity rapidly during observations precludes calibrating the data to better than 20%, and we adopt this as our nominal calibration error.

Recall that locally (§4), the luminous IR sources have a relatively tight 450 μm/850 μm correlation but a much larger scatter in 100 μm/850 μm and 60 μm/850 μm, the latter two being closer in rest wavelength to 450 μm in our highest redshift SCUBA sources. Therefore, the relatively flat relation of 450 μm/850 μm with 850 μm flux observed for our OFRS SCUBA observations is suggestive of a sample which is relatively uniform in dust properties. The Smail et al. (2001) sources have among the lowest 450 μm/850 μm ratios, which could be consistent with redshift effects dominating their submillimeter ratios. Our selection bias to lower redshift sources is much stronger than in their blank-field survey due to the negative submillimeter K-correction. However, the large error bar on our measurements and the associated strong Eddington (noise) bias from selecting all sources with S450 > 2σ is also likely to be a factor. The correlation of 850 μm to 1.4 GHz fluxes, coupled with the skewed detection of higher redshift sources from the Eddington bias, results in an even tighter relation in the 450 μm/850 μm versus 850 μm/1.4 GHz color-color space.

If the higher redshift sources are the most luminous, as suggested by the correlation in 850 μm versus 1.4 GHz
fluxes, we expect a smaller $450\mu m/850\mu m$ with increasing $850\mu m$ flux, a result of the increasing redshift. However, we also expect brighter sources to have hotter dust based on the local IRAS correlation, resulting in a larger $450\mu m/850\mu m$ ratio with increasing $850\mu m$ flux. These two effects will therefore partially cancel in the $450\mu m/850\mu m$ versus $850\mu m$ CMD, resulting in a flat relation.

A scenario with no variation in dust properties or luminosity evolution could also produce such a flat relation. The spread in $450\mu m/850\mu m$ would then be simply a result of the redshift distribution of objects with identical dust properties. However, the radio/submillimeter correlation introduces either luminosity evolution or dust correlation with luminosity. The flat relation must therefore be the result of some intrinsic property.

Our current data do not allow robust constraints on situations where either the dust properties evolve with redshift (e.g., temperature increasing with redshift) or the population has a larger spread in dust properties with increasing redshift. While the conditions were generally rather poor at $450\mu m$ during our JCMT runs, the $850\mu m$ detected sources are mostly luminous enough to be detectable with SCUBA at $450\mu m$ under more favorable conditions. Better $450\mu m$ data would certainly improve the constraints on models.

8. DISCUSSION

8.1. Density Evolution and the Nature of Submillimeter Galaxies

Studies of hierarchical galaxy formation pictures suggest that significant density evolution must occur (e.g., Cole et al. 2000; Blain et al. 1999c). Successful multiwavelength evolutionary scenarios have already been explored within this paradigm (e.g., Blain et al. 1999c). However, the question for our purposes concerns the significance of merging subfragments for the $15''$ scales probed by the SCUBA beam. The SCUBA sources seem likely to trace the merger
events themselves rather than the fragments coming together before merging (and perhaps surviving afterwards without any significant far-IR emission). Therefore, pure luminosity evolution is not necessarily a poor model for the bright end of the SCUBA counts. The situation described above for optically bright versus faint SCUBA sources is also relevant here; luminous sources may sometimes pair with a merging optically bright source, or a snapshot in the merger sequence may have optically luminous and dust-shrouded parts.

Number evolution, however, is not only driven by merging. The SCUBA bright population (if driven by star formation) may represent a transitory stage in a galaxy’s evolution, possibly related to the AGN phenomenon (e.g., Lewis & Chapman 2002; Archibald et al. 2001).

The effect of currently fashionable flat cosmologies is to make the situation worse by introducing a slope to the color-magnitude plot, which also has to be countered with luminosity evolution. This would require even stronger evolution than the \((1+z)^4\) adopted in our present study, assuming the characteristic dust temperature of the sources is unchanged. An alternative would be to bring in an additional density evolution component. We have certainly not demonstrated that our particular model is a unique solution. But it seems that strong luminosity evolution is a requirement of a successful model.

8.2. The Nature of the Sources and Future Work

The fainter submillimeter sources, marginally detected at 2–6 mJy, clearly follow the observed and modeled CMD trend. This suggests that pursuing these candidate fainter sources with deeper SCUBA integrations could yield significant detections, providing a valuable lever arm in luminosity for modeling the evolutionary properties of the sample. The most luminous \(z \sim 3\) Lyman-break galaxies are known to emit at the 1–2 mJy level (Chapman et al. 2000, 2002d; Peacock et al. 2000), so their \(z = 1–2\) counterparts probably contribute some fraction of these fainter submillimeter sources. This is consistent with the high star formation rate deduced by Steidel et al. (1999), who apply a large dust correction to their results.

Ho & Peng (2001) have investigated the strength of the radio synchrotron emission from Seyferts and LINERs locally. The radio-loud AGN effect on the CMD is to lower points (brighten the radio), which cannot easily be compensated for by other properties—dust temperature, for example. This suggests further that it is unlikely that radio-loud AGNs dominate the submillimeter luminous sources. One source from Smail et al. (2001) which has been identified with an AGN component inhabits the lower cutoff region of the CMD, suggesting that this region may in general be inhabited by those submillimeter sources with stronger...
AGN components (a stronger AGN radio source). However, SMM 14011 (Ivison et al. 2000), which has been confirmed spectroscopically as a star-forming galaxy, also inhabits this region, and we can draw no firm conclusions that AGNs show their presence in any obvious manner in our CMD or color-color diagnostics.

Future work identifying the actual counterparts at multiple optical wavelengths, as well as obtaining a larger sample of radio sources with SCUBA measurements (both optically bright and faint), will lead to substantial refinement of our understanding of these issues. Higher spatial resolution HST observations may also elucidate the morphologies of the sources, allowing an understanding of how the radio/submillimeter emission is traced by the optical, and where the heart of the far-IR energy is generated in high-redshift objects. Deeper submillimeter observations of the submillimeter faint radio sources will allow us to place them in context relative to the submillimeter bright radio sources.

9. CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a large sample (55) of submillimeter sources with radio and optical counterparts. We observe a correlation between the submillimeter flux and the submillimeter/radio, which implies that higher redshift sources must be more luminous. Local correlations in the radio/submillimeter/far-IR properties of luminous infrared galaxies provide a benchmark for assessing the trends observed in our higher redshift analogues. In particular, the effects of dust temperature on our evolutionary scenario can be directly assessed. Using a Monte Carlo approach to model the evolution of the IR luminous galaxies, we are able to simultaneously represent the CMD, counts, and submillimeter/radio-implied redshift distribution for our observed sample. Our models are not unique but indicate some general features which any successful model must possess; in particular, this strong luminosity evolution.

The selection function from submillimeter follow-up to optically faint radio can be better understood in relation to our Monte Carlo models. There are inherent biases in the technique beyond that expected from a naive redshifting of the Arp 220 SED out to redshifts where it is no longer detectable in the radio. The combination of radio/far-IR scatter and the necessary rise and fall in the evolution function results in a bias in the selection of sources (if we were able to obtain spectroscopic redshifts for the entire sample).

We uncover an excess of high-redshift sources and lose some of the lower redshift sources that would otherwise be present in our selection window. In the absence of spectroscopic redshifts, the reconstruction of the redshift distribution is broadened and weighted toward lower redshifts.

The few optically bright submillimeter sources in our sample are distributed uniformly throughout the CMD with no preferred locus. This suggests that spectroscopic follow-up of the optically brighter population may provide a reasonable approximation to the true redshift distribution.

This redshift distortion presents the possibility of a population of very high-redshift (z > 3) star-forming galaxies being detected with our radio selection approach. With current radio flux limits, the required luminosities are too large to be included in our sample for z > 5 under the assumptions of our present model.

A subsample of 25 sources are marginally detected in the 450 μm band. When compared to local IRAS galaxies, these suggest a similar range in dust properties to local ULIRGs, possibly with somewhat hotter or more emissive dust.

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