

Galaxy Zoo: the large-scale spin statistics of spiral galaxies in the Sloan Digital Sky Survey[★]

Kate Land,^{1†} Anže Slosar,^{1,2†} Chris Lintott,¹ Dan Andreescu,³ Steven Bamford,⁴ Phil Murray,⁵ Robert Nichol,⁴ M. Jordan Raddick,⁶ Kevin Schawinski,¹ Alex Szalay,⁶ Daniel Thomas⁴ and Jan Vandenberg⁶

¹*Astrophysics, University of Oxford, Denys Wilkinson Building, Keble Road, Oxford OX1 3RH*

²*Berkeley Center for Cosmological Physics, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory and Physics Department, University of California, Berkeley CA 94720, USA*

³*LinkLab, 4506 Graystone Ave., Bronx NY 10471, USA*

⁴*ICG, University of Portsmouth, Mercantile House, Hampshire Terrace, Portsmouth PO1 2EG*

⁵*Fingerprint Digital Media, 9 Victoria Close, Newtownards, Co. Down BT23 7GY*

⁶*Department of Physics and Astronomy, The Johns Hopkins University, Homewood Campus, Baltimore MD 21218, USA*

Accepted 2008 May 19. Received 2008 March 21

ABSTRACT

We re-examine the evidence for a violation of large-scale statistical isotropy in the distribution of projected spin vectors of spiral galaxies. We have a sample of $\sim 37\,000$ spiral galaxies from the Sloan Digital Sky Survey, with their line of sight spin direction confidently classified by members of the public through the online project Galaxy Zoo. After establishing and correcting for a certain level of bias in our handedness results we find the winding sense of the galaxies to be consistent with statistical isotropy. In particular, we find no significant dipole signal, and thus no evidence for overall preferred handedness of the Universe. We compare this result to those of other authors and conclude that these may also be affected and explained by a bias effect.

Key words: galaxies: spiral – large-scale structure of Universe.

1 INTRODUCTION

Galaxy Zoo (GZ)¹ Lintott C. et al. (2008) is an online project in which volunteers visually classify the morphologies of galaxies selected at random from the spectroscopic sample of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey [SDSS, York et al. (2000)] Data Release 6 (DR6). Information of this type is essential to the development of our understanding of galaxy formation. The public response to the launch of GZ in 2007 July was overwhelming, achieving over 36 Myr classifications within a few months and results that agree exceptionally well with those of professional astronomers Lintott C. et al. (in preparation). To make the project accessible to as many people as possible a relatively simple classification scheme was used, outlined in Table 1.

Along with the morphology of the galaxies the perceived rotation direction was also requested where possible, that is for spiral galaxies, where it is assumed that the arms of the spiral galaxies

trail the rotation. Determining the rotation direction in this way is accurate for 96 per cent of galaxies (Pasha & Smirnov 1982). Moving from the centre of the galaxy outwards, the spiral in fact ‘unwinds’ the opposite way to the rotation, and therefore to avoid further confusion we herein refer to a clockwise and anti-clockwise classification as Z and S-wise, respectively, indicating the projected pattern of the galaxy arms on the sky. A Z-wise galaxy (see Table 1) is assumed to be rotating clockwise with respect to our line of sight, thus with its angular momentum pointing away from us. Likewise, an S-wise galaxy is assumed to be rotating anti-clockwise (also known as ‘counterclockwise’), with its angular momentum vector pointing towards us.

We perform a large-scale multipole analysis of the GZ catalogue of spiral galaxies winding sense, accounting for the partial sky coverage and quantifying the level of uncertainty introduced by this. Locally ($|cz| \lesssim 3000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$) this information can be used to constrain galaxy formation scenarios (Sugai & Iye 1995), while at higher redshifts we can test the fundamental assumption that the Universe is statistically homogeneous and isotropic over cosmological scales. In a companion paper Slosar et al. (in preparation), we use the same spin data to analyse the small-scale two-point correlation function, relating the results to predictions from the tidal-torque theory of structure-momentum formation and N -body simulations.

[★]This publication has been made possible by the participation of more than 100 000 volunteers in the Galaxy Zoo project: www.galaxyzoo.org/Volunteers.aspx.

†E-mail: kr1@astro.ox.ac.uk (KL); anze@berkeley.edu (AS)

¹ www.galaxyzoo.org

Table 1. The GZ classification scheme. The symbols are the same as those used on the buttons of the GZ analysis web page. Note that spiral galaxies have three separate class-types, while ellipticals have just one.

Class	Button	Description
1	****	Elliptical galaxy
2	****	Clockwise/Z-wise spiral galaxy
3	****	Anti-clockwise/S-wise spiral galaxy
4	****	Spiral galaxy other (e.g. edge on, unsure)
5	****	Star or Don't Know (e.g. artefact)
6	****	Merger

In Section 2, we introduce the GZ data set, and basic classification results. Due to the high signal-to-noise (i.e. multiple classifications) of our data set, we are able to further investigate the level of bias that may be introduced into our handedness results because of the visual and human nature of the classifications, and in Section 2.2 we discuss these results and present the final data set in Section 2.3 that we use thereafter. In Section 3, we outline our method of analysis, and the results for our GZ data set. We also consider third-party data sets in Section 3.3, and provide complementary results to those of Longo (2007a), Sugai & Iye (1995), with some clarifying comparisons. We discuss our results in Section 4.

2 THE DATA

As of 2007 November 28th, GZ had over 36 Myr classifications (called ‘votes’ herein) for 893 212 galaxies from 85 276 users. This sample of galaxies were selected to be those that are targeted for spectroscopy by SDSS; extended sources with Petrosian magnitude $\text{petroMag}_r < 17.77$. We also included objects that were not originally targeted as such, but were observed to be galaxies once their spectrum was taken. Where spectroscopic redshifts are available, we find they range to $z \lesssim 0.5$, with an average of $\bar{z} \sim 0.14$ (~ 600 Mpc). The galaxies thus probe our local universe at cosmological scales. Every galaxy in this SDSS DR6 spectroscopic sample has been classified on average ~ 41 times. In practice, ~ 5 per cent of this raw data is removed when we only allow one vote per galaxy per person, taking the first vote where necessary (multiple votes are probably due to people double clicking with the mouse). This results in an average of ~ 39 distinct votes per galaxy.

To reduce this information to one final classification (and corresponding uncertainty) per galaxy a variety of different schemes were investigated. First, for each galaxy we simply counted the number of votes it received for each of the six class-types (see Table 1 for an explanation of the six different class-types), resulting in six class-weights for each object that sum to one (or 100 per cent). The largest class-weight then indicates the final classification of the object, although in practice we only use objects where one class-type receives a significant majority of the votes. This scheme is called ‘unweighted’ as each vote is counted equally in computing the class-weights, regardless of the user.

An alternative method involved weighting the raw votes such that users who tended to agree with the majority have their votes up-weighted, while users who consistently disagreed with the majority have their votes down-weighted. The user-weights are iteratively determined by considering for each object (at each iteration) how well a user’s vote agrees with the class-weights for that object, as determined from the weighted votes from *all* users. All users start with a weight of one, but after a number of iterations this converges, with the final user-weights used to establish the final class-weights for each object. This method has the advantage of down-weighting

users who are consistently unreliable. However, it assumes that the majority vote is always right, and thus may penalize users who are more careful than the average user.

In the end, we find that the results do not differ significantly between the weighted and unweighted schemes. Therefore we herein use the unweighted results as their simplicity (in that they do not correlate the data across the galaxies) will be essential in Section 2.2 when we consider subsets of our data in the analysis of possible bias effects in our results.

From our GZ catalogue of final class-weights, we identify the objects with relatively low final classification uncertainty. Our CLEAN and SUPERCLEAN samples contain objects with at least 10 votes (which is almost all of our GZ galaxies), and a top class-weight of over 80 and 95 per cent, respectively. This guarantees at least a 5 and 7σ detection of the final classification, respectively (assuming people were voting at random from the six options), and in most cases (i.e. for 39 votes) at least 10 and 13σ , respectively. Of course, these significances are purely statistical and there is some human ‘systematic’ error involved that is hard to quantify due to the nature of the experiment. We are justified in claiming, however, that more votes would not change our sample beyond noise fluctuations as the votes are uncorrelated.

Our final CLEAN sample contains 291 626 objects (when class = 2, 3 and 4 votes are all counted as ‘spiral’), and thus we have the morphological classifications at over 5σ confidence for approximately a third of the entire spectroscopic sample of SDSS DR6. Of these we find 97 848 to be spiral galaxies and 184 743 are elliptical galaxies, with the remaining as stars (8074) and mergers (961). We find the galaxy morphology classifications agree exceptionally well with those of expert classifications such as Fukugita et al. (2007) and Schawinski et al. (2007) [see Lintott C. et al. (in preparation) for more details].

2.1 The initial spin sample

In this paper, we are interested in the projected spin classifications of the spiral galaxies; the galaxies classified as class = 2 or 3. We find (17 100, 18 471) of the spiral galaxies are cleanly classified (i.e. over 80 per cent weights) with (Z, S)-wise winding sense, respectively, with equivalent (Z, S)-wise number counts of (6106, 7034) for the SUPERCLEAN sample. In Fig. 1 we show images of some typical members of the CLEAN spin sample. For a null hypothesis of statistical isotropy we would expect (Z, S)-wise handedness to be equally likely across the sky, however, we observe a significant excess of S-wise galaxies in both our samples, at more than 7σ significance.²

We consider how this S-wise excess varies with redshift, to gain insight into the possible source of this signal. Of the SDSS galaxies targeted for spectroscopy, ~ 70 per cent have had their spectrum taken and processed in DR6, and we find (12 055, 13 123) of our CLEAN (Z, S)-wise galaxies have spectroscopic redshifts available. From these, we plot a histogram of the S-wise excess as a function of redshift in Fig. 2. In each redshift bin, we find the total number of galaxies N_i , and the expected number of S-wise galaxies assuming statistical isotropy, that is $\langle N_s \rangle = N_i/2$. We then plot the difference between the number of S-wise galaxies observed in this bin, N_s and the expected number. We further normalize by the expected number

² As determined from the normal approximation to the binomial distribution valid for large-sample sizes, which indicates that the number of S-wise galaxies out of a total of N galaxies has a probability distribution $\sim \mathcal{N}(N/2, N/4)$.

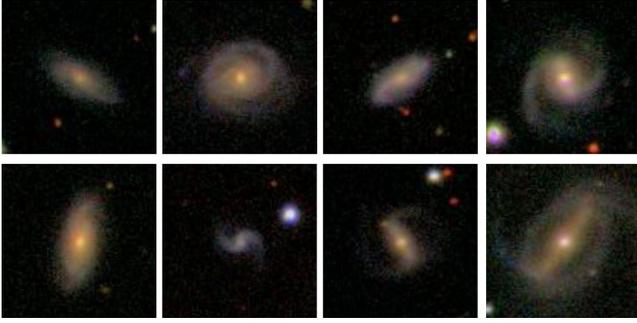


Figure 1. Typical Z and S-wise galaxies in our CLEAN sample. The top four images are classified as Z-wise (with class-weights of 85.0, 88.2, 90.6 and 94.6 per cent), and the bottom four as S-wise (with class-weights of 84.0, 86.2, 87.3 and 93.9 per cent from left- to right-hand side).

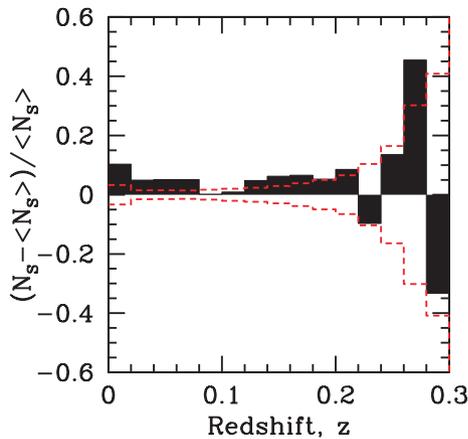


Figure 2. The S-wise excess as a function of redshift. In redshift bins of $\Delta z = 0.02$ we count the number of S-wise galaxies that we find, N_S , and the number we would expect assuming that S and Z-wise galaxies are equally likely, that is $\langle N_S \rangle = N/2$ where N is the total number of galaxies in the redshift bin. We plot the difference between the observed and expected numbers, normalized by $\langle N_S \rangle$ just for visual clarity. We also show the 1σ scatter (red dashed histogram) expected assuming the normal approximation to binomial statistics, $\sigma = 1/\sqrt{N}$.

for clarity. We also include the 1σ error bars from assuming a normal approximation to the binomial distribution. We see that the excess is fairly consistent across our sample, and not associated with any particular redshift. Different physical processes dominate at different redshifts, and thus the consistency of this S-wise excess is perhaps indicative of some overall bias in our results rather than a true astronomical signal.

We investigate this possibility further in the next section, but as a first check we consider the full ~ 35 Myr votes that contribute to our final classifications. We find 2 272 354 votes for Z-wise and 2 482 271 for S-wise. Compared to the total number of votes, and total number of objects, this roughly indicates that there are 58 632 Z-wise and 64 049 S-wise galaxies in our GZ data set, and an excess of S-wise galaxies at over 15σ . The S-wise proportion from the raw-vote counts is 52.5 per cent, which is higher than the 51.9 per cent returned from the CLEAN spin catalogue number counts. This possibly indicates the presence of some biasing effect, as the raw vote proportions should match the CLEAN number-count proportions if there is no bias, as these should both just reflect the true proportions in our sample.

2.2 The bias study

Before we analyse our data we wish to check that our GZ CLEAN spin catalogue (those galaxies with final CLEAN classifications of class = 2 or 3) provides a fair representation of the full GZ data set. It is important that we make these checks as there are a number of possible sources of bias in the GZ classification scheme. The process of visually classifying the winding sense of galaxies may introduce a bias if humans are able to discern patterns of one handedness better than others – an effect that some neuroscientists believe to exist (Gori, Hamburger & Spillmann 2006). The design of the GZ website may also be influencing the decisions of the users, through the symbols on the buttons or the images shown in the tutorial. Alternatively, the position of the buttons on the screen could cause users to sometimes record their votes incorrectly, in a systematic way.

It could be argued that there may exist detectable malicious contamination from a small number of users recording incorrect classifications, in a systematic or random way. However, we only allow one vote per person per galaxy and so the effect of individual users is very limited. Further, with regard to the S-wise excess, if we consider the number of class = 2 and 3 votes that each user records then we observe an *overall trend* in the results – with all users generally clicking the S-wise button more than the Z-wise button. Thus we know that the S-wise excess is not just coming from the results of a few users.

Before we introduce the results of our bias study, let us just clarify how a biasing effect could influence our spin catalogue. We do not hypothesize that any biasing effect could be so large that galaxies in our CLEAN sample are misclassified, that is they have been assigned an incorrect final classification. This would require $\gtrsim 35$ different people who do not know each other to all select the *same* incorrect button when they view that galaxy. Instead, a biasing effect would impact our spin catalogue if it makes it harder for some types of galaxies to be cleanly classified than other types. Take for example a human bias effect, in which a human can discern a S-wise spiral pattern better than a Z-wise spiral pattern. This would mean that a S-wise galaxy has slightly more chance of being in our CLEAN sample than a Z-wise galaxy, resulting in perhaps more S-wise than Z-wise galaxies in our CLEAN sample even if there are an equal number on the sky.

To investigate the possibility of bias-effects being present in our spin catalogue we obtain classifications for mirror images of a subset of the GZ data set. This will conclusively constrain the level of bias effecting our spin results, although we will not necessarily be able to identify the source without further investigations. Extra images of the entire SUPERCLEAN sample (as of 2007 September 4th) and a random 5 per cent of the rest of the GZ catalogue were used. This ‘bias sample’ contained 91 303 objects, and for each we submitted to the GZ website three transformed images: a monochrome version, a vertically mirrored version, and a diagonally mirrored version. From the 2007 November 28th, it has been this bias sample that the website has been collecting classifications for, and as of January 5th we had an average of 22 distinct votes per image that we use herein.

We condense these votes into final classifications as before. We observe effectively no difference in the results from the two different mirror images, and so we combine the mirror votes. Therefore, for each of the objects in our bias sample we have two new sets of class-weights – one set from the monochrome image, and the other from the mirror images. In comparing these two new class-weights, we can assess the level of any bias in our results. We cannot compare these class-weights with those of the original images, as the votes

Table 2. The average class-weights as a function of class-type for the monochrome data and mirrored data. We see that the average class = 2,3 weights do not reverse between the monochrome and mirrored images, therefore indicating that there is a bias effect in the data. The evidence for a true excess of S-wise of galaxies on the sky is thus limited.

class-type (per cent)	monochrome σ	(per cent)	mirrored σ	
1	55.962	0.123	55.015	0.124
2	5.525	0.071	5.646	0.071
3	6.032	0.073	5.942	0.072
4	17.416	0.092	18.461	0.093
5	11.059	0.060	11.265	0.060
6	4.007	0.050	3.670	0.045

were logged at different times and we find the behaviour of users to vary at a detectable level from month to month (this is especially true when a newsletter is sent out to the users and the site receives a surge of traffic). Only votes that have been obtained concurrently can be compared completely fairly.

We perform two different tests for bias in our handedness results [see Lintott C. et al. (in preparation) for an analysis of the bias results with respect to the elliptical vs. spiral classifications]. First we consider the average class-weight for class = 2 and 3, and examine how this changes between the monochrome and mirrored images. We obviously expect to see the average class-weight for class = 3 to be higher than class = 2 for the monochrome images to reflect the S-wise excess that we observe. We then also expect to see this average class-weights to switch over for the mirrored images.

In Table 2, we record the average class-weight (as a percentage) that each class-type receives for the monochrome and mirrored images³. We obtain estimates for the errors on our averages through the jackknife method of resampling (with 2000 samples).

We find that the average (Z, S)-wise weights are (5.5 per cent, 6.0 per cent) for the monochrome images. The significantly higher S-wise average weight (at $\sim 5\sigma$) agrees with our observation of an S-wise excess of galaxies. If there is no bias in our handedness results then we would expect these class-weight averages for the mirror images to swap over, with now a higher class-weight for Z-wise. However, we find average class-weights of (5.6 per cent, 5.9 per cent) for the mirrored images – which still displays a significantly higher S-wise average weight, at $\sim 3\sigma$. The fact that the weights stay the same within statistical accuracy indicates that we have a significant level of bias in our results, and no true S-wise excess. In particular, we can put an upper limit on the intrinsic excess of S-wise galaxies to $|N_S - N_Z|/(N_S + N_Z) < 0.021$ (0.028) at 95 per cent (99.7 per cent) confidence limits.

Secondly, we assess the level of bias that may be effecting the CLEAN and SUPERCLEAN samples. We expect these samples to contain relatively visually clear galaxies, and therefore it is not obvious that a subtle effect such as that found for the average GZ galaxy would still effect these samples. We consider an effectively random sample

³ This is actually not just a simple average over our bias sample, as not all of the galaxies in the bias sample were selected at random. We up-weight the results of the randomly selected portion of our bias sample to balance with the SUPERCLEAN portion and effectively create a random subsample of the full GZ data set. We find the same results if we down-weight the SUPERCLEAN portion of our bias sample, or select just 5 per cent of them at random.

of GZ galaxies⁴. We consider the number of these galaxies that pass the classification criteria of the CLEAN sample for the monochrome images and for the mirrored images. We find (Z, S)-wise numbers of (839, 923) for the monochrome images, and (864, 905) for the mirrored images. Therefore we again see the bias effect, as they both find more S-wise galaxies (although due to the smaller sample size the effect is not as significant as before, with jackknife errors of ~ 25 galaxies). We can, however, always eliminate any possible bias effect by insisting that an image passes the criteria before and after mirroring, and in this case we find (739, 739) (Z, S)-wise galaxies. This indicates that the bias effect can account for the excess exactly.

We find it is beyond the scope of this paper to identify the bias source. It may be that people find it easier to ‘see’ the handedness of an S-wise galaxy. However, we cannot tell the difference between ‘not seeing’ the handedness and clicking the wrong button (by accident). So the two main culprits remain the design of the site, and a human pattern recognition effect.

The latter case would be of interest to neuroscientists. For example, in Gori et al. (2006) the authors found that observers who stared at the centre of a Leviant’s ‘Enigma’ illusion (see their fig. 1) would judge the perceived rotation as clockwise for longer than anti-clockwise (as the motion changes direction)⁵. No explanation for the directional bias was found, but this effect might cause GZ users to be biased in any motion that they perceive in unclear images of spiral galaxies. Whether this leads to a greater chance of selecting the S-wise icon or influencing the results for relatively clear images is not evident.

2.3 The final (bias corrected) data set

The bias study results have demonstrated that there is not an excess of S-wise galaxies at any significant level, but rather that the S-wise class on average receives extra votes for some reason – making it a bit easier for a S-wise galaxy to pass the CLEAN criteria than a Z-wise galaxy. Individual CLEAN classifications are correct, but overall number counts are skewed and we would like to correct for this effect. We do so by reducing the classification criteria for the Z-wise class-weight.

We find Z-wise CLEAN and SUPERCLEAN classification criteria of 0.78 and 0.94, respectively, brings the numbers of S and Z-wise galaxies in to agreement within 1σ , and we employ this Z-wise criteria herein. However, in all our statistical analysis we will marginalize over this correction, and therefore fold in all the uncertainty due to the bias effect.

This is a rather crude bias correction, as the level of bias may vary with redshift, magnitude, size etc. like that of the morphology bias examined in Bamford S. et al. (2008). However, we do not know how the true Z/S -wise ratio varies with distance or magnitude, and thus we cannot make a bias correction that varies with such parameters. Therefore, Z- and S-wise number counts cannot in general be compared for a subset of our ‘bias corrected’ data set.

We have a new bias corrected (‘bc’) CLEAN_BC sample of (Z, S) = (18 467, 18 471) and a SUPERCLEAN_BC sample of (7047, 7034). From this, we remove probable duplicate objects which can arise when a large galaxy is given more than one spectroscopic ID during the SDSS pipeline. We use the maximum PETRORAD_R of a pair

⁴ We use the random portion of our bias sample, and a number of the SUPERCLEAN portion selected at random with the same 5 per cent probability.

⁵ We thank Jim Grange for these interesting comments, and directing us to this work.

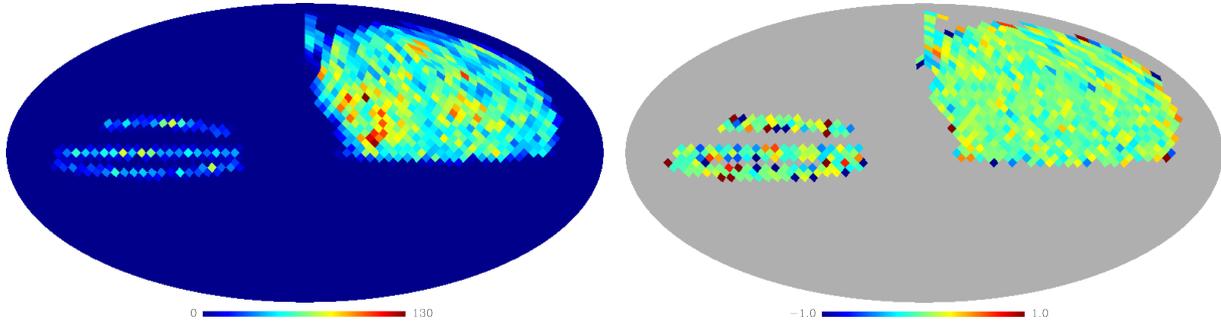


Figure 3. The number of galaxies per pixel (left-hand side) and their average spin (right-hand side) for our CLEAN galaxies. Plotted in elliptical (Mollweide) projection with the Healpix pixelization scheme, with the Equatorial coordinate system rotated to centre on (RA, Dec.)= $(-90^\circ, 0^\circ)$.

to determine if their OBJIDS actually point to the same object, and remove one of them at random, resulting in a CLEAN_BC spin sample of $(Z, S) = (18\,074, 18\,052)$ galaxies, and similarly a SUPERCLEAN_BC sample of $(Z, S) = (6902, 6894)$. For visualization, we reduce this data into a pixelized map by averaging the spins of the galaxies.

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N_i} s_j}{N_i}, \quad (1)$$

where the summation is over the N_i galaxies in the i th pixel, and $s_j = +1, -1$ if the galaxy is Z- and S-wise, respectively. We use the Healpix pixelization scheme (Gorski et al. 2005), with $n_{\text{side}} = 16$. The number of pixels in our map = $12 n_{\text{side}}^2 = 3072$, of which our CLEAN_BC spin sample covers 801, and we plot these results in Fig. 3.

3 ANALYSIS

3.1 Method

We wish to establish the large-scale statistical properties of the galaxy spins. Although there is some level of uncertainty in the overall (S, Z)-wise number counts, it is still possible to look for a dipole, for example, in the spin distributions. Rather than using an averaged map, such as that in Fig. 3, we fit a probability model to all of the galaxies. The null hypothesis that we wish to test against is where we are equally likely to observe a Z or S-wise galaxies wherever you look on the sky – that is statistical isotropy. However, we wish to constrain alternative models in which the probability of observing a Z- or S-wise galaxy varies with position on the sky (the sum of these probabilities must always equal one). To explore this possibility we expand the probability of a galaxy spin being Z-wise into the first few (the largest) spherical harmonic modes, such that it is a function of position on the sky;

$$P(Z|\hat{n}) = 0.5 + M + D \hat{d} \cdot \hat{n} + Q \left(\hat{q}_1 \cdot \hat{n} \hat{q}_2 \cdot \hat{n} - \frac{1}{3} \hat{q}_1 \cdot \hat{q}_2 \right) \\ P(S|\hat{n}) = 1 - P(Z|\hat{n}), \quad (2)$$

where M , D and Q are the magnitude of the monopole, dipole and quadrupole, respectively.

This parametrization of harmonic modes in terms of unit vectors, and an overall magnitude, is known as Maxwell Multipole Vector representation, and it is increasingly being used in cosmic microwave background analysis (Weeks 2004; Copi, Huterer & Starkman 2004). Compared to the standard expansion into spherical harmonic coefficients it has the advantage of providing rotationally invariant parameters or parameters that rotate simply with the coordinates (such as the vectors). The vectors are in fact ‘headless’ –

a change in sign can be absorbed by the magnitude D , Q . To avoid this degeneracy we restrict the magnitude of D and Q to be positive. For the quadrupole the vectors can still both flip signs together, but in reality we find this degeneracy to not be a problem as the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods tend to converge to one solution.

We wish to explore the constraints that our GZ data set provides for these parameters. We can find the probability of the parameters from the likelihood of our data

$$L = \prod_i P(h_i | \hat{n}_i), \quad (3)$$

where h_i is the handedness of the i th galaxy (Z or S), which is at position \hat{n}_i on the sky.

3.2 Results

We use MCMC analysis to explore our likelihood (equation 3). As a consistency check we confirm that we are able to recover various input parameters of equation (2) – although the partial sky coverage does give some degeneracies as expected, between M and D in particular. D and Q are constrained to be positive and we plot their marginalized constraints from our CLEAN_BC and SUPERCLEAN_BC samples in Fig. 4. We have marginalized over all the other parameters, including the monopole component, and therefore have folded in any uncertainty that the bias effect and subsequent correction introduces.

We find that the constraints on D and Q are both consistent with 0, with upper 95 per cent limits of 0.018 and 0.047, respectively, from

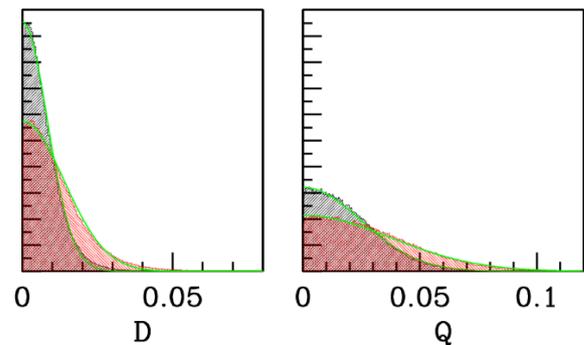


Figure 4. The marginalized constraints on the dipole D and quadrupole Q as defined in equation (2), from MCMC analysis of the likelihood (equation 3). Results are shown for the CLEAN_BC (grey) and SUPERCLEAN_BC (pink) samples. Also plotted are the Gaussian fits to these contours (green), see text for details.

the CLEAN_BC sample, and 0.031 and 0.069 from the SUPERCLEAN_BC sample. Alternatively, we fit Gaussians to the distributions and we find that the best-fitting means ~ 0 to 3 decimal places, with standard deviations for D and Q of 0.0084 and 0.014 from the CLEAN_BC data, and 0.025 and 0.037 from the SUPERCLEAN_BC data. Due to the uncertainty of the monopole component, and the null dipole and quadrupole signal, we have no meaningful constraints on the direction of the vectors.

We conclude that the GZ spin results are consistent with statistical isotropy. In the next section, we compare this result to those of similar studies.

3.3 Third-party data sets

Previous studies of the spin of spiral galaxies include the recent work of Longo (2007a) (herein L07a), where the line-of-sight spin direction was determined by eye for ~ 2800 galaxies visually selected from the SDSS (DR5). An excess of S-wise galaxies was seen in the direction (RA, Dec.) $\sim (202^\circ, 25^\circ)$ (in Equatorial coordinates) indicating that the spin vectors predominantly align in the opposite direction (RA, Dec.) $\sim (22^\circ, -25^\circ)$. The probability of the effect was estimated to be 0.2 per cent under the assumption of isotropy and binomial statistics, although Monte Carlo simulations were not performed.

Similar work was carried out earlier in Sugai & Iye (1995), within the context of probing theories of galaxy formation. The spin dipole was evaluated for ~ 7500 galaxies and found to be in the direction (RA, Dec.) $= (270^\circ, 10^\circ)$, and (RA, Dec.) $= (210^\circ, 40^\circ)$ for a subsample of nearby galaxies ($|cz| < 3000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$). However, the amplitude of the dipole was not found to be significant when compared to Monte Carlo simulations.

Curiously, the dipoles from these two analyses are in completely opposite directions. The samples cover different amounts and parts of the sky, with SDSS mainly in the Northern hemisphere and the sample of Sugai & Iye (1995) predominantly in the Southern hemisphere. In both cases, the dipoles tend to point away from the majority of the data but neither analysis fits for a monopole or takes account of their partial sky coverage in assessing the dipole. With incomplete sky coverage the spherical harmonic decomposition is no longer orthogonal and for a sample covering less than half of the sky it is hard to tell the difference between a monopole (an excess of one type over the other) and a dipole (an asymmetry in the distribution).

Iye & Sugai (1991) compiled a catalogue of the projected spins of 8287 galaxies from the ESO/Uppsala Survey of the ESO (B) Atlas. Two independent judgments of the winding sense were made, and if these disagreed then a third judgement was taken. The result is a catalogue of $(3257, 3268) = (Z, S)$ -wise galaxies, with the remaining 1762 galaxies deemed indistinguishable. These galaxies are all in the Southern hemisphere, and so provide a complementary data set to ours which is primarily in the Northern hemisphere.

We combine our CLEAN_BC data set with their 6525 galaxies with distinguishable handedness and repeat our MCMC analysis fitting our probability model (equation 2). However, in this case we must allow each data set to have its own monopole term, to account for the different levels of possible bias in the results due to the different methods of classification. Again we find constraints that are completely consistent with zero, and we fit a Gaussian of $\sigma = 0.0079$ and 0.017 to the D and Q contours, respectively. The constraints do not reduce as much as one would expect when expanding the data set to the full sky because of the different monopole terms that we have included.

Table 3. The level of agreement between our CLEAN_BC classifications and those of L07a. The ‘-’ column are those galaxies without a CLEAN_BC GZ classification.

Longo	1	2	3	4	5	6	-	tot
Z	0	1143	7	0	1	2	113	1266
S	0	3	1235	0	1	1	125	1365
U	0	43	63	0	1	1	95	223
	0	1189	1305	0	3	4	333	2834

We are able to do a more direct comparison with the data set of L07a, as this also uses galaxies from SDSS and thus with which we overlap. The sample of L07a consists of ~ 2800 galaxies from SDSS DR5 with redshifts $z < 0.04$ and apparent magnitude constraint $g < 17$ that were visually selected as being reasonably clear. Both computerized and visual methods of spin classification were attempted – and the results were found to agree well, but visually scanning was more effective towards higher redshifts – providing an extra ~ 50 per cent galaxies. The classifications used in L07a are thus those from visual classification – where a galaxy image was randomly mirrored in the process.

Of this sample, L07a found 1266 and 1365 galaxies to be Z and S-wise, respectively, with the remaining ‘Unknown’ (U)⁶. We find CLEAN_BC classifications for 2501 of the sample, and the level of agreement is tabulated in Table 3. We see very good agreement between our classifications, and the 10 cases where the handedness classifications contradict each other we have double checked the SDSS images and find the disagreement can be put down to misclassification in L07a – a demonstration of the usefulness of multiple classifications per galaxy.

If we fit just a dipole to the classifications of L07a using our formalism in equation (2) with $Q = M = 0$, then we find a clear detection of a dipole, with constraints on D well fit by a Gaussian with $D = 0.035 \pm 0.017$ and best-fitting direction (RA, Dec.) $\hat{a} = (-19^\circ, -11^\circ)$. This agrees with the signal detected by L07a; a preference for galaxies to be S-wise in roughly the opposite direction (RA, Dec.) $\sim (202^\circ, 25^\circ)$. This was interpreted as a possible special axis about which galaxies have a preferred handedness.

However, with only partial sky coverage it is very hard to distinguish between a dipole and a monopole. And we repeat the analysis, but also marginalising over a monopole term (which can account for a true monopole as well as any bias) in equation (2) but still excluding the quadrupole Q . We find the evidence for a dipole and thus for a preferred direction diminishes, and the constraints on D become consistent with zero within $\sim 1\sigma$ as shown in Fig. 5.

As seen in Table 3, we agree that this subset of ‘visually clear’ galaxies contains more S-wise galaxies than Z-wise (at $\sim 2\sigma$), and that is after we have used our ‘bias corrected’ CLEAN_BC catalogue of spins. However, this alone does *not* mean the L07a sample is clear of any bias effect: the galaxies in this sample were visually selected as being ‘clear’ and judging by the results of Section 2.2 this may explain why there are more S-wise galaxies are in the sample. A monopole term must always be fitted simultaneously to account for any level of bias in the data set, and as we have seen this brings the observation in line with the hypothesis of statistical isotropy (i.e. no significant dipole).

⁶ These numbers correspond to the data set gratefully provided to the authors by M. Longo

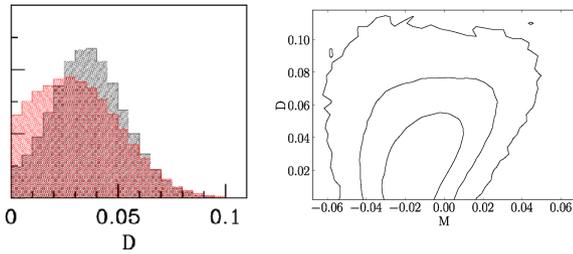


Figure 5. The constraints on the dipole from the sample of L07a, before (black histogram) and after (red) a monopole term is included and marginalized over. The right-hand figure shows the 1, 2 and 3σ contours for the monopole and dipole – demonstrating the degeneracy between the two as expected when you have only partial sky coverage.

4 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have performed a classical test of cosmological statistical isotropy, from observations of the projected spins of galaxies. In line with the cosmological principle we find there is no significant large-scale correlations in the spin distributions [although a detection of the small-scale two-point correlation function is found in Slosar A. et al. (in preparation)].

Due to the multiple classifications present in our data set, we have been able to demonstrate that these visual classifications contain a certain level of bias between the identification of clockwise (Z-wise) and anti-clockwise (S-wise) rotating spiral galaxies. This must be accounted for in any analysis of the data, and is straightforward to do so by allowing the overall probability of the two (S vs. Z) to differ. One then can continue to look for large-scale correlations such as a dipole or a quadrupole.

We find that the projected angular momentum of galaxies in our local Universe are consistent with isotropy. This is in agreement with other similar studies (Sugai & Iye 1995), although our sample is a factor of 5 times larger than any previous data sets. Our classifications agree very well with those of Longo (2007a), who found evidence for a preferred axis in their sample. We find that this evidence diminishes when one allows for an overall monopole term, to account for the unknown level of bias in the results (or a true signal on the sky).

These results aid our understanding of the formation of large-scale structure. They limit the possibility of coherent large-scale magnetic fields that assist in the formation of galactic angular momentum (Longo 2007b). Similarly they constrain scenarios of galaxy formation – providing support for tidal torque theory (Barnes & Efstathiou 1987) as opposed to scenarios in which the angular momentum of galaxies are coherent over large scales. Such scenarios

include those where the angular momentum of galaxies originates from primordial vorticity, or from collapsing inflows (Sugai & Iye 1995).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank M. Longo for many useful conversations, and for kindly sharing his data set with us. We are similarly grateful to H. Sugai and M. Iye for assistance, particularly in recovering and sharing their data set. We are grateful to P. Ferreira and J. Silk for many useful conversations and encouragement.

But ultimate thanks must of course go to all the volunteers that have made GZ possible. Not only does this include $\sim 100\,000$ users who personally identified hundreds of galaxies, but also web-designers, programmers, forum⁷ moderators, bloggers, journalists, guinea-pigs, colleagues, school teachers etc. everyone who has been interested and excited about the project! In particular we acknowledge invaluable contributions from Edd Edmondson and Alice Sheppard.

KL is funded by a Glasstone research fellowship, and further supported by Christ Church, Oxford. CJL acknowledges support from the STFC Science in Society Program. KS is supported by the Henry Skynner Junior Research Fellowship at Balliol College, Oxford.

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⁷ <http://www.galaxyzooforum.org>

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