

Galaxy Zoo: Disentangling the Environmental Dependence of Morphology and Colour^{*}

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ABSTRACT

We analyze the environmental dependence of galaxy morphology and colour with two-point clustering statistics, using data from the Galaxy Zoo, the largest sample of visually classified morphologies yet compiled, extracted from the Sloan Digital Sky Survey. We present two-point correlation functions of spiral and early-type galaxies, and we quantify the correlation between morphology and environment with marked correlation functions. These yield clear and precise environmental trends across a wide range of scales, analogous to similar measurements with galaxy colours, indicating that the Galaxy Zoo classifications themselves are very precise. We measure morphology marked correlation functions at fixed colour and find that they are relatively weak, with the only residual correlation being that of red galaxies at small scales, indicating a morphology gradient within haloes for red galaxies. At fixed morphology, we find that the environmental dependence of colour remains strong, and these correlations remain for fixed morphology *and* luminosity. An implication of this is that much of the morphology–density relation is due to the relation between colour and density. Our results also have implications for galaxy evolution: the morphological transformation of galaxies is usually accompanied by a colour transformation, but not necessarily vice versa. A spiral galaxy may move onto the red sequence of the colour–magnitude diagram without quickly becoming an early-type. We analyze the significant population of red spiral galaxies, and present evidence that they tend to be located in moderately dense environments and are often satellite galaxies in the outskirts of haloes. Finally, we combine our results to argue that central and satellite galaxies tend to follow different evolutionary paths.

Key words: methods: statistical - galaxies: evolution - galaxies: structure - galaxies: clusters: general - galaxies: clustering - galaxies: haloes - large scale structure of the universe

1 INTRODUCTION

The galaxies in the local universe appear to be classifiable into two broad types: late-type galaxies, with spiral arms, disk-dominated morphologies, ongoing star formation, and blue optical colours; and early-type galaxies, with elliptical

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cal or bulge-dominated morphologies, old stellar populations, and red colours. Many studies have observed a strong correlation between morphology and environment (*i.e.*, the morphology–density relation), with spiral galaxies tending to be located in low-density environments and elliptical galaxies in more dense environments (e.g., Dressler 1980, Norberg et al. 2002, Goto et al. 2003, Blanton et al. 2005, Wolf et al. 2007, Ball et al. 2008). Other bimodal galaxy properties have also been found to be strongly correlated with the environment: blue galaxies with significant star formation activity tend to reside in underdense environments, while galaxies with red colours and low star formation rates tend to reside in overdense environments (e.g., Lewis et al. 2002, Gómez et al. 2003, Kauffmann et al. 2004, Zehavi et al. 2005, Weinmann et al. 2006, Sheth et al. 2006, Tinker et al. 2008, Skibba & Sheth 2008, Bamford et al. 2008b).

In standard Λ CDM cosmological models, cold dark matter haloes form from the gravitational collapse of dark matter around peaks in the initial density field. Haloes assemble hierarchically, such that smaller haloes merge to form larger and more massive haloes in dense environments (Mo & White 1996, Sheth & Tormen 2002). According to the current paradigm of galaxy formation, galaxies form within haloes, due to the cooling of hot gas. Halos and galaxies evolve simultaneously, and the evolution of a galaxy is affected by its host halo. If the halo is accreted by a larger halo, the galaxy will be affected by it as well: for example, the galaxy’s diffuse hot gas reservoir may be stripped, removing its fuel for future star formation (e.g., Larson, Tinsley & Caldwell 1980; Balogh, Navarro & Morris 2000; Weinmann et al. 2006; van den Bosch et al. 2008b). Galaxies may also experience major mergers, which transform late-type galaxies into early-type galaxies with a central bulge component (e.g., Driver et al. 2006, Drory & Fisher 2007). Mergers drive gas towards the center, where it can trigger a burst of star formation and fuel the central black hole, the feedback from which can heat the remaining gas and eventually quench star formation (e.g., Mihos & Hernquist 1996, Wild et al. 2007, Pasquali et al. 2008, Schawinski et al. 2008).

In this general picture of galaxy formation and evolution, it is expected that galaxies’ morphological and star formation properties are differently correlated with the environment. The purpose of this paper is to shed light on some of these galaxy evolution processes by disentangling the environmental correlations of morphology and colour. We use mark statistics of galaxy clustering, which are sensitive to environmental correlations (e.g., Skibba et al. 2006), with catalogues of galaxies in the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS; York et al. 2000) to explore the respective roles of morphology and colour in galaxy evolution. We characterise morphologies using classifications from the Galaxy Zoo project (as described in Section 2.2).

This paper is complementary to the work by Bamford et al. (2008a), who studied the environmental dependence of morphology and colour with similar catalogues, using projected galaxy density within an adaptive radius and distance to the centre of the nearest galaxy group to characterize the environment. Bamford et al. used these environmental indicators to obtain information about the fractions of galaxy morphologies and colours as an explicit function of environment. However, for their local density estimator, a singly density corresponds to a range of scales, while the use of

the distance to the nearest group implicitly assumes group-specific environmental mechanisms, in addition to the assumptions of the group-finding algorithm. Our mark clustering statistics yield complementary information, quantifying environmental trends as an explicit function of scale. This paper and Bamford et al. provide very different statistical descriptions of the same dataset. In addition, Bamford et al. explored the environmental dependence of morphology and colour at fixed stellar mass, while we explore the environmental dependence of morphology at fixed colour, and vice versa. Both papers also shed light on the substantial populations of ‘unconventional’ galaxies: red spirals and blue early-types. Finally, both the mark correlation functions presented here and the correlations with group mass and luminosity in Bamford et al. can be compared to halo occupation models and semi-analytic models in a straightforward manner.

This paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we describe the Galaxy Zoo data and our volume-limited catalogues. We introduce mark clustering statistics, and in particular, the marked correlation function, in Section 3. In Section 4, we present marked correlation functions using Galaxy Zoo morphology likelihoods as marks, which show the environmental dependence of spiral and early-type morphologies, and of merging and interacting galaxies. Next, we disentangle the environmental dependence of morphology and colour in Section 5, by analyzing morphology-environment correlations at fixed colour and colour-environment correlations at fixed morphology. We focus on the populations of red spiral galaxies and blue early-type galaxies in Section 6, and our results allow us to explain their roles in galaxy evolution. Finally, we summarize our results in Section 7.

2 DATA

2.1 Basic Catalog Properties

The catalogues used in this paper are constructed from the SDSS Data Release 6 (DR6; Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2008). We consider only the galaxies in the Main Galaxy Sample, extended objects with $r_{\text{petro}} < 17.77$ (Strauss et al. 2002). We also only use galaxies with spectroscopic redshifts. This raises the issue of fiber collisions, where the thickness of the spectroscopic fibers means that galaxies closer than $55''$ on the sky will be missing spectra and redshifts, and hence, absolute magnitudes. Fiber collisions weakly affect correlation functions at scales of $s \sim 100 \text{ kpc}/h$ in redshift-space, and mark correlation functions as well, if galaxy spectra are required for accurate marks (Skibba et al. 2006). However, the Galaxy Zoo morphologies do not require spectra; moreover, we measure only projected correlation functions and marked correlation functions, on which the effects of fiber collisions are negligible.

We use Petrosian magnitudes for the galaxy luminosities and colours. Absolute magnitudes are determined using `kcorrect v4.1.4` (Blanton & Roweis 2007) and are k -corrected and corrected for passive evolution to $z = 0.1$. We restrict our analysis to volume-limited samples, described in Section 2.3.

Throughout this paper we assume a spatially flat cosmology with $\Omega_m = 0.3$ and $\Omega_\Lambda = 1 - \Omega_m$. We write the Hubble constant as $H_0 = 100h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$.

2.2 Galaxy Zoo Morphologies

Although galaxy colours are directly measurable, their morphologies are not. A variety of galaxy properties, such as those that quantify the radial light profile of a galaxy, have been used as proxies for galaxy morphologies (e.g., Blanton et al. 2005, van den Bosch et al. 2008a). Automated methods for classifying galaxies using more structural information have also been recently developed (e.g., Conselice 2006, Park et al. 2007). However, none of these techniques can yet provide a direct equivalent of traditional visual morphology. Studies such as Lahav et al. (1996) and Ball et al. (2004) have attempted to reproduce visual morphologies with artificial neural networks. However, their classifications rely heavily on luminosity and colour information, whereas true visual morphology is determined without direct reference to these quantities. The Galaxy Zoo project was born out of a need for reliable, visual morphologies for a large sample of SDSS galaxies. Our approach was to enlist the public's help to visually classify the morphologies of nearly one million galaxies in SDSS DR6 (Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2008). Further details of the Galaxy Zoo project, including its motivation, design, and the initial stages of the data reduction, are given in Lintott et al. (2008). We use morphological type likelihoods estimated from the Galaxy Zoo classifications (Bamford et al. 2008a) throughout this paper.

The morphologies utilized here are derived from classifications by over 80,000 members of the international public as part of the Galaxy Zoo project. This project is described in detail by Lintott et al. (2008). Briefly, each galaxy received many, independent morphological classifications, each by a different user. The four possible classifications were labeled as 'elliptical', 'spiral', 'don't know', and 'merger'. The 'elliptical' class, in addition to containing galaxies with elliptical morphology, also contains the majority of S0 galaxies (Bamford et al. 2008a). The merger class mainly comprises interacting pairs, generally with tidal features. The spiral classification was subdivided into 'clockwise', 'anti-clockwise', and 'edge-on/unsure', referring to the direction and orientation of the spiral arms.

The median number of classifications per object is 34, with 98 per cent of our sample having at least 20 classifications each. These classifications were processed into raw 'likelihoods' for a galaxy being of a given morphological type, directly from the proportion of classifications for each type.

The raw Galaxy Zoo dataset is affected by two redshift-dependent biases. The first is the usual selection bias, due to the apparent magnitude and angular size selection limits of the parent SDSS Main Galaxy Sample. In this paper we avoid the issue of selection bias by considering only volume-limited samples. The second effect is classification bias: identical galaxies are more likely to be classified as early-type with increasing redshift, due to signal-to-noise and resolution effects. Bamford et al. (2008a) have quantified the classification bias as a function of galaxy luminosity, size and redshift, which they then use to statistically correct the Galaxy Zoo data. Note that absolutely no reference was made to the environment of the galaxies at any stage of this classification bias correction. Throughout this paper we utilize the de-biased type likelihoods, which we denote P_{sp} and P_{el} for spiral and early-type likelihoods, respectively.

2.3 Volume-Limited Catalogs

We perform our analysis on a volume-limited large-scale structure sample. Our catalogue has limits $-23.5 < {}^{0.1}M_r < -19.5$, $0.017 < z < 0.082$, consisting of 99924 galaxies, with mean number density $\bar{n}_{\text{gal}} = 0.011 (h^{-1}\text{Mpc})^3$. The superscript of 0.1 refers to the fact that all absolute magnitudes have been k -corrected and evolution-corrected to $z = 0.1$; henceforth, we omit the superscript. This luminosity threshold approximately corresponds to $M_r < M^* + 1$, where M^* is the Schechter function break in the r -band luminosity function (Blanton et al. 2003). It also corresponds to an approximate halo mass threshold of $5.8 \times 10^{11} h^{-1} M_{\odot}$ (Skibba & Sheth 2008). We have performed the same analysis with a more luminous volume-limited catalogue, with $M_r < -20.5$, and have obtained results qualitatively similar to those presented in Sections 4-6.

There are several 'false pairs' of objects in the SDSS—large objects with more than one ID associated with them. This results in extra close pairs being counted. We avoid these objects by calculating their angular separation, and then if the distance is less than either of their Petrosian radii, we exclude the smaller 'false' object. There were only a handful of such objects in our volume-limited catalogues.

Most of our analysis is focused on spiral and elliptical galaxies. To avoid 'contamination' by other galaxies, we excluded galaxies with high merger or 'don't know' likelihoods, with P_{mg} or $P_{\text{dk}} > 15$ per cent or with $P_{\text{sp}} + P_{\text{el}} < 75$ per cent in the measurements, except when stated otherwise. These are conservative cuts, and they reduce the sample size of the catalogues by ~ 10 per cent.

For the measured correlation functions and jack-knife errors, which require random catalogues and jack-knife sub-catalogues, we use the hierarchical pixel scheme SDSSPix¹, which characterizes the survey geometry, including edges and holes from missing fields and areas near bright stars. This same scheme has been used for other clustering analyses (Scranton et al. 2005, Hansen et al. 2007) and for lensing analyses (Sheldon et al. 2007). We use the Scranton et al. `jack_random_polygon` with window files from SDSS DR5 (Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2007), which reduces the sample size by an additional ~ 20 per cent, to a final size of 72135 galaxies. For the random catalogues, we used at least ten times as many random points as in the data, and for each of the error calculations, we used thirty jack-knife sub-catalogues. The jack-knife errors of our marked projected correlation functions tend to be larger than the Poisson errors, even at small scales. We note that Norberg et al. (2008) has recently shown that the jack-knife method does not recover the scale dependence of errors of the unmarked correlation function, often overestimating the errors at small scales, and the results are sensitive to the number of sub-catalogues into which the data is split. Although our uncertainty estimates are important, our primary results are not particularly sensitive to the precise value of the errors.

¹ <http://lahmu.phyast.pitt.edu/~scranton/SDSSPix>

3 MARK CLUSTERING STATISTICS AND ENVIRONMENTAL CORRELATIONS

We characterize galaxies by their properties, or ‘marks’, such as their luminosity, colour, morphological type, stellar mass, star formation rate, etc. In most galaxy clustering analyses, a galaxy catalogue is cut into subsamples based on the mark, and the two-point clustering in the subsample is studied by treating each galaxy in it equally (e.g., Norberg et al. 2002, Madgwick et al. 2003, Zehavi et al. 2005, Li et al. 2006, Tinker et al. 2008). These studies have shown that galaxy properties are correlated with the environment, such that elliptical, luminous, and redder galaxies tend to be more strongly clustered than spiral, fainter, and bluer galaxies. For example, Norberg et al. (2002) divided their catalogue by luminosity and spectral type into subsamples, measured their correlation functions, and found that luminous and quiescent galaxies have larger clustering strengths.

However, the galaxy marks in these studies are used to define the subsamples for the analyses, but are not considered further. This procedure is not ideal because the choice of critical threshold for dividing galaxy catalogues is somewhat arbitrary, and because throwing away the actual value of the mark represents a loss of information. In the current era of large galaxy surveys, one can now measure not only galaxy clustering as a function of their properties, but the spatial correlations of the galaxy properties themselves. We do this with ‘marked statistics’, in which we weight each galaxy by a particular mark, rather than simply count galaxies as ‘ones’ and ‘zeroes’.

Marked clustering statistics have recently been applied to astrophysical datasets by Beisbart & Kerscher (2000), Gottlöber et al. (2002), and Faltenbacher et al. (2002). Marked statistics are well-suited for identifying and quantifying correlations between galaxy properties and their environments (Sheth, Connolly & Skibba 2005). They relate traditional unmarked galaxy clustering to the clustering in which each galaxy is weighted by a particular property. Marked statistics are straightforward to measure and interpret: if the weighted and unweighted clustering are significantly different at a particular scale, then the galaxy mark is correlated (or anti-correlated) with the environment at that scale, and the degree to which they are different quantifies the strength of the correlation. In addition, issues that plague traditional clustering measurements, such as incompleteness and complicated survey geometry, do not significantly affect measurements of marked statistics, as these effects cancel out to some extent, since the weighted and unweighted measurements are usually similarly affected. Finally, the halo model framework has been used to interpret the correlations of luminosity and colour marks in terms of the correlation between halo mass and environment (Skibba et al. 2006, Skibba & Sheth 2008). We focus on morphological marks here, and although they could be similarly analyzed with the halo model, perhaps by building on these luminosity and colour mark models, that is beyond the scope of this paper.

There are a variety of marked statistics (Beisbart & Kerscher 2000, Sheth 2005), but the easiest to measure and interpret is the marked two-point correlation function. The

marked correlation function is simply

$$M(r) \equiv \frac{1 + W(r)}{1 + \xi(r)}, \quad (1)$$

where $\xi(r)$ is the two-point correlation function, the sum over galaxy pairs separated by r , in which all galaxies are ‘weighted’ by unity. $W(r)$ is the same sum over galaxy pairs separated by r , but now each member of the pair is weighted by the ratio of its mark to the mean mark of all the galaxies in the catalogue (e.g., Stoyan & Stoyan 1994). The fact that the marked statistic $M(r)$ can usually be accurately estimated by the simple pair count ratio WW/DD , without requiring a random galaxy catalogue, implies that the marked correlation function is less sensitive than the unmarked correlation function to the effects of the survey edges (Sheth, Connolly & Skibba 2005). In effect, the denominator in Eqn. 1 divides out the contribution to the weighted correlation function which comes from the spatial contribution of the points, leaving only the contribution from the fluctuations of the marks. That is, the mark correlation function measures the clustering of the marks themselves, in r -scale environments.

In practice, in order to obviate issues involving redshift distortions, we use the projected two-point correlation function

$$w_p(r_p) = \int dr \xi(r_p, \pi) = 2 \int_{r_p}^{\infty} dr \frac{r \xi(r)}{\sqrt{r^2 - r_p^2}}, \quad (2)$$

where $r = \sqrt{r_p^2 + \pi^2}$, r_p and π are the galaxy separations perpendicular and parallel to the line of sight, and we integrate up to line-of-sight separations of $\pi = 40$ Mpc/h. We estimate $\xi(r_p, \pi)$ using the Landy & Szalay (1993) estimator

$$\xi(r_p, \pi) = \frac{DD - 2DR + RR}{RR}, \quad (3)$$

where DD , DR , and RR are the normalized counts of data-data, data-random, and random-random pairs at each separation bin. We then define the marked projected correlation function

$$M_p(r_p) = \frac{1 + W_p(r_p)/r_p}{1 + w_p(r_p)/r_p}, \quad (4)$$

which makes $M_p(r_p) \approx M(r)$ on scales larger than a few Mpc. The projected correlation functions w_p and $W_p(r_p)$ are normalized by r_p , so as to be made unitless. On large scales both the real-space and projected marked correlation functions (Eqns 1 and 4) will approach unity, because at increasing scale the correlation functions $\xi(r)$ and $W(r)$ (or $w_p(r_p)$ and $W_p(r_p)$) become very small as the universe appears nearly homogeneous. The simple ratio of the weighted to the unweighted correlation function $W(r)/\xi(r)$ (or $W_p(r_p)/w_p(r_p)$) approaches unity similarly, provided that there are sufficient number statistics and the catalogue’s volume is sufficiently large.

4 ENVIRONMENTAL DEPENDENCE OF GALAXY MORPHOLOGY

We explore the environmental dependence of galaxy morphology in Galaxy Zoo in this and the next section by measuring marked projected correlation functions of galaxies in volume-limited catalogues.

When measuring mark clustering statistics, it is important to carefully choose marks that are appropriate for one’s analysis. For example, traditional morphological types of galaxies are discrete marks (e.g., E, S0, Sp, and Irr in Norberg et al. 2002; *cf.*, Wolf et al. 2007, Poggianti et al. 2008). Continuous marks can be more useful for analyses of mark correlations, but like discrete marks, they must be measurable with sufficient precision such that contamination by measurement error is not a serious concern. A variety of continuous marks have been used to attempt to characterize the morphological or structural properties of galaxies, such as Sersic index, surface brightness, r_{90}/r_{50} concentration, and their combinations (Blanton et al. 2005, Christlein & Zabludoff 2005, Conselice 2006, Scarlata et al. 2007, Park et al. 2007, van den Bosch et al. 2008a, Ball et al. 2008, van der Wel 2008). However, while such structural parameters are no doubt informative, they provide limited insight concerning the presence of a disk or spiral arms, and are thus not equivalent to traditional visual morphology; rather, they are often more strongly related to galaxy luminosity or colour (see discussion in Bamford et al. 2008a).

Here we use the morphological-type *likelihoods* estimated in the Galaxy Zoo (Lintott et al. 2008; see Section 2.2) as marks. The likelihoods were estimated using the visual classifications of the Galaxy Zoo, and are corrected for classification bias (Bamford et al. 2008a). These probabilities reflect the certainty with which Galaxy Zoo classifiers were able to assign each galaxy to either of the discrete “spiral” or “elliptical” classes, rather than a continuous measure of morphology. This choice of mark thus encodes our level of knowledge concerning the morphology of each galaxy. The Galaxy Zoo morphologies have been shown to be reliable by comparison with datasets visually classified by professional astronomers. Note that we find that galaxies which are classified as lenticulars by professional astronomers are predominantly placed in the “elliptical” Galaxy Zoo class with high likelihood, and we thus henceforth refer to this class as “early-type”. As estimates of visual morphology in the standard and generally accepted sense, we believe the Galaxy Zoo classifications to be more suitable for our analysis than the various automatic morphology proxies that have been proposed. The Galaxy Zoo type-likelihoods, rather than discrete types or combinations of structural properties, are a reliable choice of mark for exploring the dependence of galaxy morphology on environment.

Mark clustering statistics are sensitive to the distributions of the marks. We begin by presenting morphology mark distributions in Figure 1, for the $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue. The morphology likelihoods P_{sp} and P_{el} are required to be between 0 and 1, and they both are somewhat peaked at the minimum and maximum values, which simply reflects the fact that there is usually good agreement between Galaxy Zoo classifiers on the classification of each object. The figure also clearly shows that the distributions are smoother for the likelihoods corrected for classification bias, discussed in Section 2.2. In what follows, we only use the de-biased type-likelihoods for our analysis.

Now we present our morphology mark correlation functions for $M_r < -19.5$ in Figure 2. At projected separations of $r_p < 10$ Mpc/ h , the mark correlations of P_{el} are significantly above unity, indicating that it is correlated with the environment at these scales; that is, early-types tend to be

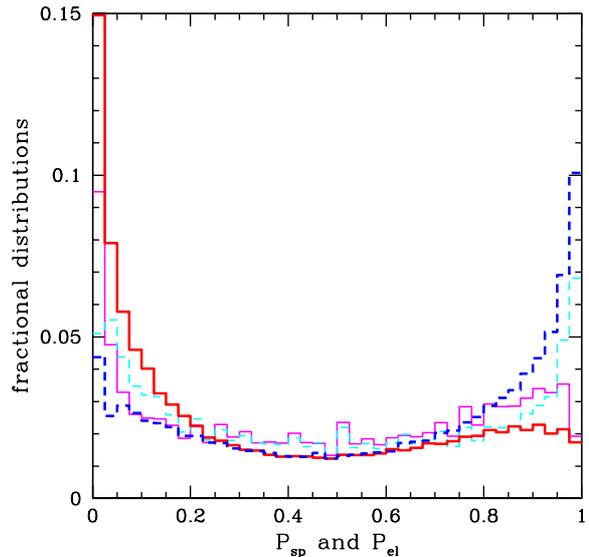


Figure 1. Distributions of morphology marks for $M_r < -19.5$. Thick red (solid) and blue (dashed) histograms show the distributions of P_{el} and P_{sp} , respectively, and thin magenta (solid) and cyan (dashed) histograms show the distributions of their respective uncorrected raw probabilities, prior to the corrections for classification bias.

located in denser environments. In contrast, the mark correlations of P_{sp} are significantly below unity, indicating that it is anti-correlated with the environment—that is, spirals tend to be located in underdense environments. The scale-dependence of the mark correlations is remarkably smooth, monotonically increasing or decreasing towards unity at large scales. The smoothness of these measurements, with no spikes or bumps, is partly due to the large sample size, but it also indicates that the marks have very little noise. This is impressive in itself. Morphological classifications are often very uncertain, but the likelihoods from a large number of classifiers, with robust corrections for ‘classification bias’, appear to be sufficiently precise to yield clear environmental correlations.

The mark correlation functions are a useful tool to show the environmental dependence of morphology, both of pairs of galaxies within a single dark matter halo (on small scales, $r_p \leq 2$ Mpc/ h), and of pairs in separate haloes (on large scales). In contrast, most other studies of morphology and environment have focused on the surface density within one particular scale (e.g., 1 Mpc/ h) or have used the projected distance or surface density out to the N^{th} nearest neighbour, which mixes different scales together. In Figure 2, a transition appears to occur in the P_{el} marked correlation function at $r_p \sim 2$ Mpc/ h , at the scale of the transition from the ‘one-halo’ to the ‘two-halo’ term. At scales much larger than the size of a typical halo, the scale dependence of marked statistics is simply related to the shape of the linear theory power spectrum (Sheth 2005). The large-scale marked correlation functions are related to morphology dependent galaxy bias.

For these mark correlation measurements, in order to focus on the population of galaxies most likely to be spirals

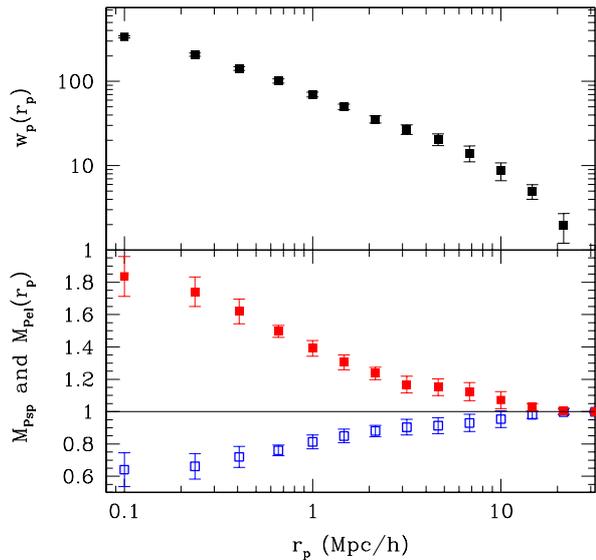


Figure 2. Projected two-point correlation function (upper panel) and mark correlation functions (lower panel) for $M_r < -19.5$. Red (filled) and blue (open) points show the measurements for the P_{el} and P_{sp} marks, with jack-knife error bars.

or early-types, we have excluded galaxies with P_{mg} or $P_{dk} > 15$ per cent or with $P_{sp} + P_{el} < 75$ per cent. Consequently, for nearly all galaxies in the catalogue, the sum of P_{sp} and P_{el} is nearly unity (*i.e.*, $1 - P_{sp}$ is almost equivalent to P_{el}). If these cuts were not made, however, the mark correlations using the $1 - P_{sp}$ mark is slightly weaker than those of P_{el} , indicating that P_{mg} , or even P_{dk} , is weakly correlated with the environment.

We show the measurement of the P_{mg} mark correlation function in Figure 3, now with no cuts on the morphological type-likelihoods. The P_{mg} likelihoods are generally quite accurate, such that every galaxy in the Galaxy Zoo with $P_{mg} \geq 0.6$ has been found to show clear evidence of merging (Darg et al., in prep.). The probability that a galaxy is observed to be undergoing a merger or interaction is approximately uncorrelated with the environment except at scales of $r_p \sim 100$ kpc/h, where it spikes upwards at $M(r_p) = 1.78^{+0.42}_{-0.25}$. (This point has a wide bin width of galaxy separations, $1.75 < \log(r_p/\text{kpc}h^{-1}) < 2.25$, though we obtain a similar spike when we repeat the measurement using a narrower bin and when we vary only the lower or upper limit of the bin.) We have also measured the marked correlation function on even smaller scales, and $M(r_p)$ appears to rise to ≈ 3 at $r_p = 50$ kpc/h and ≈ 30 at $r_p = 25$ kpc/h, though such measurements are very uncertain.

Interestingly, this is very similar to the mark correlation function of the Brinchmann et al. (2004) specific star formation rate SFR/M_* mark measured by Skibba, Wake & Sheth (in prep.), for a similar $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue (open points in Fig. 3). This measurement is for highly star-forming galaxies *only*, with strong emission lines (H_α , H_β , [O III], [N II], with AGN excluded), which is why there is no large-scale trend. The extinction-corrected $SFR(H_\alpha)$ mark correlation function also displays similar behaviour.

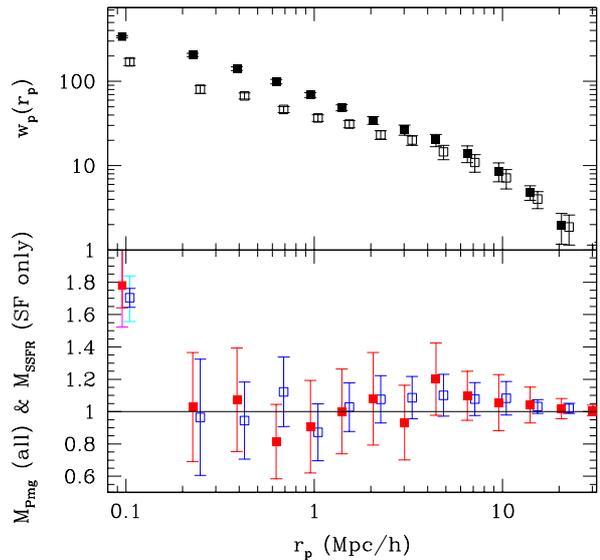


Figure 3. Projected two-point correlation function and P_{mg} mark correlation function for all galaxies in the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue (filled square points). For comparison, measurement from Skibba, Wake & Sheth (in prep.) of $w_p(r_p)$ and $SFR/M_* M(r_p)$ of star-forming galaxies is also shown (open square points). For $M(r_p)$ at 100 kpc/h, error bars show 1 and 2 σ of the distributions of measurements from jack-knife sampling.

This result is consistent with the picture that mergers and interactions between galaxies can drive gas into their central regions, triggering bursts of star formation. In a thorough investigation of merging and interacting galaxies in Galaxy Zoo, Darg et al. (in prep.) have similarly found that the specific SFRs are about twice as high in star-forming merging galaxies than in star-forming control galaxies. Our result is also consistent with Robaina et al. (in prep.), who find a similar small-scale enhancement of star formation at $z \sim 0.6$, also using visually classified morphologies, with SFRs estimated from UV and IR luminosity.

The correlation between P_{mg} and the environment is not unexpected, but it is interesting that the mark correlations are significant out to $r_p \sim 150$ kpc/h, while the effects of galaxy mergers and interactions on morphologies and star formation are expected to be important on much smaller scales. However, our measurements do not imply that these effects persist out to larger scales: a galaxy with a merging neighbour (interacting with a third galaxy) separated by 100 kpc/h may not itself be merging, for example, though the pair's P_{mg} weighting may be larger than average. In addition, our result does not imply a *necessary* connection between the processes of merging and star formation: the merging/interacting and starbursting galaxy pairs are not necessarily the same, and if they are, we cannot establish a causal connection. Because the mark distributions are so different and because of the uncertainties involved, we cannot draw stronger conclusions at this time.

Note that the Galaxy Zoo merger/interaction likelihoods have other potential uses as well. For example, they could be used to estimate merger rates or fractions. Galaxy

close pair counts have been used extensively for this purpose, but P_{mg} weighted pair counts could also contribute to such studies, or could be used as tests for other methods. We can define the following as the fraction of galaxies within a distance r_f that show signs of merging (e.g., distortions or tidal tails that indicate a significant gravitational interaction):

$$f_{\text{merg}}(r < r_f) = \frac{4\pi\bar{n}_{\text{gal}} \langle P_{\text{mg}} \rangle^2 \int_0^{r_f} dr r^2 (1 + W_{P_{\text{mg}}}(r))}{4\pi\bar{n}_{\text{gal}} \int_0^{r_f} dr r^2 (1 + \xi(r))}, \quad (5)$$

where the denominator is the close pair fraction, (see Masjedi et al. 2006, Bell et al. 2006) and $W_{P_{\text{mg}}}(r)$ is the real-space P_{mg} weighted correlation function, normalized by the mean mark $\langle P_{\text{mg}} \rangle$ (which is approximately 0.027 for the catalogue used for Fig. 3) squared. If the real-space weighted and unweighted correlations can be reliably estimated at small scales, then this fraction can be estimated as well. In practice, because of the difficulty of deprojecting $W_{P_{\text{mg}}}(r_p)$ into $W_{P_{\text{mg}}}(r)$, one can estimate f_{merg} with less uncertainty at $r = r_f$ (i.e., $r_f - \delta r_f < r < r_f + \delta r_f$) rather than $r < r_f$. Preliminary results indicate that $f_{\text{merg}}(30 \text{ kpc}/h) \approx 0.3\%$ and $f_{\text{merg}}(15 \text{ kpc}/h) \approx 4\%$, and an extrapolation of $W_{P_{\text{mg}}}(r)$ on smaller scales suggests that it reaches unity at $r \approx 5 \text{ kpc}/h$. These fractions should be seen as lower limits, because we are using the P_{mg} product of galaxies in pairs, and for most galaxies, this likelihood is at or near zero. In addition, some galaxies that may soon merge may not have experienced the tidal fields necessary to distort their morphologies sufficiently to be detected by the Galaxy Zoo classifiers. Using different methods, Darg et al. estimate that the fraction of all galaxies that are merging (rather than the fraction of galaxies in close pairs that show signs of merging, defined in Eqn. 5) is $5 \pm 1\%$ (for $M_r < -20.55$ and $z < 0.1$), and Lotz et al. (2008; for $M_B < -19.3$ at $z \sim 0.3$) estimate that the fraction is $9 \pm 3\%$ for $r < 30 \text{ kpc}/h$. We can estimate this fraction as well, using only the numerator in (5), and we find that it is $\approx 4\%$ for $1 \text{ kpc}/h < r < 30 \text{ kpc}/h$ and $M_r < -19.5$, although this is very uncertain and comparison with the other results is difficult. Note that our results are based on both close pair counts and distorted morphologies; fortunately, Lotz et al. show that these two methods yield approximately similar merger fractions.

Finally, Slosar et al. (2008) have recently detected a chiral correlation function in the spins of spiral galaxies at small galaxy separations. Using tidal torque theory, they interpret this result as correlated angular momenta. However, it is also plausible that spiral arms could be enhanced or even induced by galaxy-galaxy interactions in a manner that is consistent with their signal. This could be tested with a mark cross-correlation function, to determine whether spiral chirality and disturbed morphology are correlated at small scales.

5 DISENTANGLING MORPHOLOGY AND COLOUR

The previous section showed the environmental dependence of galaxy morphology using mark correlation functions with the Galaxy Zoo. It is well-known, however, that morphology and colour are strongly correlated (e.g., Blanton et al. 2005, Ball et al. 2008, van der Wel 2008), and that galaxy colour

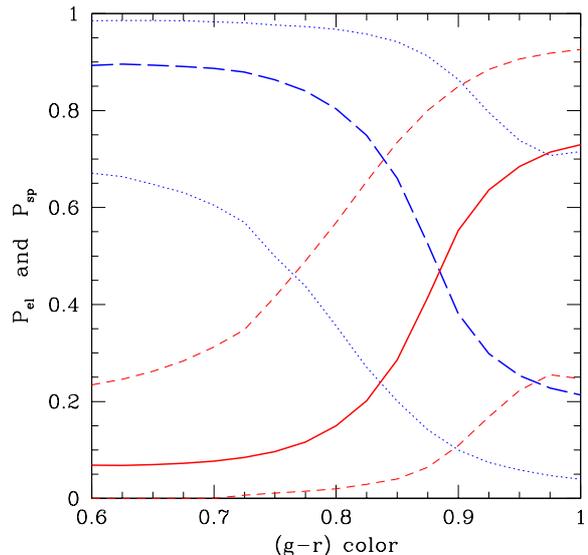


Figure 4. Median correlation between P_{el} likelihood and $g-r$ colour (red solid curve), and P_{sp} and $g-r$ (blue long-dashed curve) in the $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue. Thin lines show the 16 and 84 percentiles.

is also correlated with the environment (e.g., Zehavi et al. 2005, Berlind et al. 2006, Cooper et al. 2008, Coil et al. 2008, Tinker et al. 2008, Wang et al. 2007, Skibba & Sheth 2008, Bamford et al. 2008a; cf., Weinmann et al. 2006 and Skibba 2008 for the different correlations of central and satellite galaxies). As galaxies evolve, their star formation properties and structural properties are expected to transform differently (van den Bosch et al. 2008a); therefore, if we can disentangle the dependence of morphology and colour on the environment, we can shed some light on aspects of galaxy evolution. The main purpose of this section is to separate the environmental dependence of morphology and colour, and we do this by analyzing morphology mark correlation functions at fixed colour, and colour mark correlation functions at fixed morphology.

We begin by explicitly showing the correlation between the Galaxy Zoo likelihoods P_{el} and P_{sp} , and $g-r$ colour, in Figure 4. The correlation is strongest for likelihoods between 0.3 and 0.7, and in the colour range $0.8 < g-r < 0.95$. Note also that there is significant scatter across the whole range in colour and morphology likelihood, but especially at the red end of the plot. We have also measured the morphology fractions as a function of colour (see Bamford et al. 2008a), which also indicate that, while most blue galaxies are spirals, a significant fraction of red galaxies are not early-types.

In Figure 5, we show the projected clustering of all galaxies, and of red and blue galaxies separately, using the following colour-magnitude cut (used by Blanton & Berlind 2007, Skibba & Sheth 2008):

$$(g-r)_{\text{cut}} = 0.8 - 0.03(M_r + 20). \quad (6)$$

Note that this is different than the $u-r$ versus M_r colour-magnitude cut used by Bamford et al. (2008a); we do not

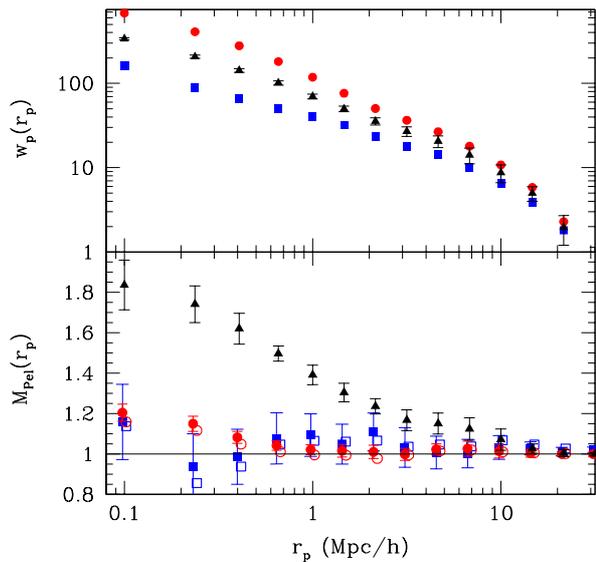


Figure 5. Projected correlation function (upper panel) and P_{el} mark correlation function (lower panel) of all galaxies in the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue (black triangles, from Fig. 2) compared to that of red and blue galaxies (red circle points and blue square points, respectively). ‘Red’ and ‘blue’ galaxy subcatalogues are determined using the colour-magnitude cut in Eqn 6 (filled points) or using the colour likelihood thresholds $P_{\text{red}} > 0.8$ and $P_{\text{blu}} > 0.8$ (open points).

expect our results to be sensitive to the exact choice of the cut.

The upper panel of the figure simply shows that red galaxies are more strongly clustered than blue galaxies. The lower panel shows the environmental dependence of morphology at fixed colour. In particular, we compare the P_{el} mark correlation function for all galaxies (from Figure 2) to the P_{el} mark correlation functions for red and blue galaxies (circle and square points). The morphology mark signal is considerably weakened at fixed colour.

Therefore, *the correlations between morphology and environment are extremely weak at fixed colour*: blue galaxies have no morphology-environment correlation, and for red galaxies, only a weak residual correlation at small scales remains. Colour gradients within haloes have been observed in group and cluster catalogues (Hansen et al. 2007, van den Bosch et al. 2008b), and they appear to be approximately independent of halo mass. Such gradients result in slightly stronger mark correlations, but only at small scales (Skibba 2008). The fact that the residual correlation in Figure 5 occurs only at scales of $r_p < 1 \text{ Mpc}/h$, that is, predominantly within dark matter haloes, implies that in haloes of given mass, red early-types are more strongly clustered than the whole red galaxy population. That is, haloes may host both red early-types and red spirals, but the latter (with low P_{el}) tend to be located further from the halo center and are more likely to be satellite galaxies. This suggests that galaxy morphologies depend more on colour and halo-centric distance than on halo mass, so at fixed colour, we expect a morphology gradient within haloes. If such a gradient is independent

of halo mass—which may be the case because we observe a somewhat similar gradient in a more luminous catalogue, and hence for galaxies in more massive haloes—then it would imply that the transformation of spiral satellite galaxies into lenticular and elliptical galaxies occurs similarly in all environments.

We have also performed similar measurements with a stricter colour-magnitude cut, using colour *likelihoods*, analogous to the morphology likelihoods. In particular, we use the bimodal $g-r$ colour distribution as a function of r -band luminosity: the red sequence and its rms, the blue sequence and its rms, and the blue fraction, as a function of luminosity (Skibba & Sheth 2008). With this information, we estimate each galaxy’s P_{red} and P_{blu} (normalized to total unity) based on its position on the $(g-r) - M_r$ colour-magnitude diagram. When we use the stricter cuts of $P_{\text{red}} > 0.8$ and $P_{\text{blu}} > 0.8$ (open points in Fig. 5), the result is the same: at fixed colour, there is almost no morphology-environment correlation. This complements the result from Bamford et al. (2008a), who found that at fixed stellar mass (determined from $u-r$ colour and r -band luminosity), there is only a weak residual correlation between early-type fraction and projected density and almost no correlation between early-type fraction and projected distance to the nearest galaxy group (their Figures 11 and 14).

Note that the distributions of morphology likelihoods are different for red and blue galaxies. Since mark clustering statistics are sensitive to the distributions of the marks, it is possible that the weakening of the environmental correlations in Figure 5 is simply due to differences between the distributions. However, we show in the appendix that, even after accounting for the different mark distributions, the correlation between morphology and environment at fixed colour is still relatively weak.

Next, in Figure 6, we show the projected clustering of all galaxies, and of early-type and spiral galaxies separately. The upper panel simply shows that early-type galaxies are more strongly clustered than spirals. The lower panel shows the environmental dependence of colour at fixed morphology, analogous to Figure 5. In particular, we compare the $g-r$ colour mark correlation function of all galaxies (from Skibba & Sheth 2008) to that of early-types and spirals. The lower values of $M(r_p)$ here compared to Figure 5 are simply due to the different distributions of colour and morphology likelihoods. The galaxy colours are always within a factor of 1.5 of the mean colour, while the morphology likelihoods vary by more than an order of magnitude. Therefore, the mark product of the colours of a galaxy pair in a dense environment may be not be that much larger than the mark product of a pair in an underdense environment, while the difference between the pairs’ morphology likelihood marks may be much larger.

If one simply counts spiral galaxies as those with $P_{\text{sp}} > P_{\text{el}}$, and early-types as the rest, then the resulting colour mark correlations are somewhat weakened (solid square points), but are still very significant out to large scales ($r_p \sim 10 \text{ Mpc}/h$). If one applies stricter thresholds, with $P_{\text{sp}} > 0.8$ for spirals and $P_{\text{el}} > 0.8$ for early-types, then the mark correlations are weakened slightly further (open square points), but they remain significant out to large scales. This result is robust, and it is not affected by the different colour distributions of spirals and early-types (Appendix A).

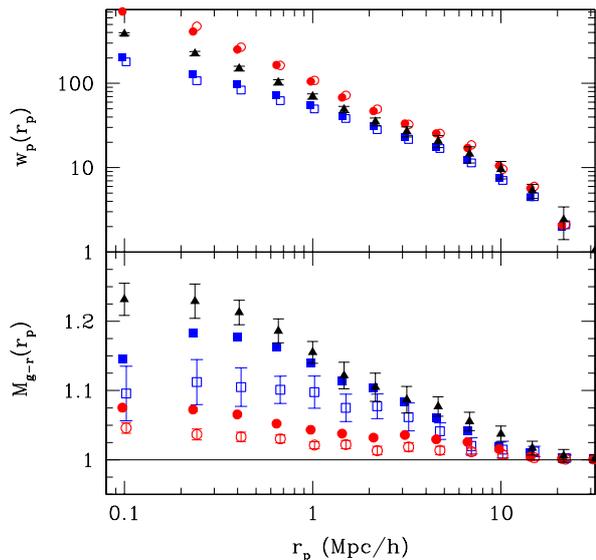


Figure 6. Projected correlation function (upper panel) and $g-r$ colour mark correlation function (lower panel) of all galaxies in the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue (triangle points, from Skibba & Sheth 2008) compared to that of early-type and spiral galaxies (red circle points and blue square points, respectively). The spiral and early-type subcatalogues are determined using the greater morphology likelihood as the distinguishing criterion (filled points) or using the likelihood threshold of $P > 0.8$ (open points).

We have also measured colour mark correlation functions at fixed morphology *and* luminosity, and have found significant residual environmental trends. For example, in Figure 7, we show the $g-r$ mark correlation function of spiral galaxies (with $P_{\text{sp}} > 0.8$) in luminosity bins of $-20 < M_r < -19.5$, $-20.5 < M_r < -20$, and $-21 < M_r < -20.5$. The uncertainties are large because the subsamples are small, consisting of 11216, 9022, and 5621 galaxies, respectively. For the two fainter bins, we detect a statistically significant marked signal out to large scales ($r_p \approx 8 \text{ Mpc}/h$), while the measurement of the third luminosity bin is consistent with no trend. We have obtained a similar result for early-type galaxies, with significant environmental correlations for fainter galaxies and a very weak trend for $-21 < M_r < -20.5$. These results are consistent with those of Bamford et al. (2008a): at faint luminosities, the colours of both spirals and early-types are correlated with the environment, while at bright luminosities, most galaxies of any morphology are fairly red, and the narrow colour distribution results in weaker or nonexistent colour mark correlations. This also explains the weak colour-environment correlation observed by Schawinski et al. (2007), whose sample of early-types is brighter and smaller than ours.

Therefore, *at fixed morphology and luminosity, a relatively strong correlation between colour and environment remains.* This is in stark contrast to the previous result, that at fixed colour, almost no morphology-environment correlation remains. The results in Figures 5 and 6 show that the morphology-density relation is to a significant extent a colour-density relation, which is consistent with the results from

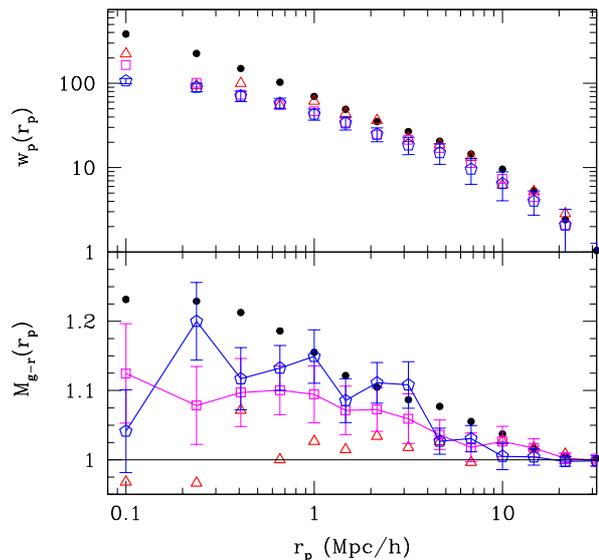


Figure 7. Projected correlation functions and $g-r$ mark correlation functions, as in Figure 6, but for spiral galaxies ($P_{\text{sp}} > 0.8$) in three luminosity bins: $-20 < M_r < -19.5$ (blue pentagons), $-20.5 < M_r < -20$ (magenta squares), and $-21 < M_r < -20.5$ (red triangles). Error bars are shown only for the fainter two subsamples, and the points are connected, for clarity.

other studies (Blanton et al. 2005, Quintero et al. 2006, Wolf et al. 2007, Bamford et al. 2008a). Contrary to these studies and the results in this paper, Park et al. (2007) claim that the key galaxy property is morphology, and that at fixed morphology and luminosity, galaxy colour is nearly independent of the environment. Their disagreement may be due to the fact that their morphology classification was explicitly based on galaxy colours and colour gradients, while we, Bamford et al., and Wolf et al. used visual classifications, and Blanton et al. and Quintero et al. used Sérsic index and surface brightness.

It is worth noting that, as pointed out by Quintero et al. (2006), it is possible in principle that the strong colour-environment correlation and extremely weak morphology-environment correlation is due to the measurement errors of the marks. In particular, it is possible that, (i) the errors of the morphology likelihoods are much larger than those of the colours, and in an extreme case, so large that they wash out some of the environmental correlations; and (ii) the errors themselves could be correlated with each other and with the environment. However, firstly, our error analyses show that the uncertainties in the morphology mark correlation functions are only slightly larger than those of the colour mark correlation functions. Secondly, the Galaxy Zoo morphology classifications were done independently of the environment and were tested with black and white images (Lintott et al. 2008). The corrections for classification bias (Bamford et al. 2008) also appear to be robust for the redshifts to which our volume-limited catalogue is restricted. We conclude that the errors of the morphologies and colours can have only a minimal impact on our correlation function measurements, and they do not affect our results.

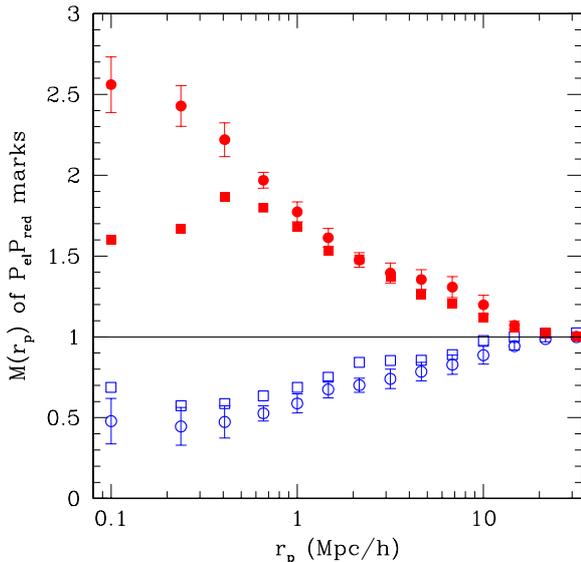


Figure 8. Morphology-colour mark correlation functions, for the following marks: $P_{\text{el}}P_{\text{red}}$ (red filled circles), $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{red}}$ (red filled squares), $P_{\text{el}}P_{\text{blu}}$ (blue open squares), $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{blu}}$ (blue open circles).

The results in this section have implications for galaxy evolution. They suggest first that a morphology transformation is usually accompanied by a colour transformation: that is, if a galaxy transforms from a spiral to an early-type, its star formation is quenched and it becomes red on a relatively short time-scale. On the other hand, a colour transformation can occur without a morphological transformation: for example, a spiral galaxy can move onto the red sequence without becoming an early-type. Such ‘red spirals’ are the subject of Section 6.

Finally, we compare the relative strength of the environmental correlations of colour and morphology in Figure 8. In order to compare more directly to the morphology likelihoods, instead of using the colours of galaxies, we now use their colour likelihoods (described earlier in this section), estimated from the $(g-r) - M_r$ colour distribution as a function of luminosity. Like the colour likelihoods, we now also normalize P_{el} and P_{sp} by $P_{\text{el}} + P_{\text{sp}}$ here, so that they also total unity. The P_{el} and P_{red} mark distributions, and their effect on the mark correlations, are discussed in Appendix A.

Figure 8 shows the result, where we mark each galaxy by the four morphology-colour combinations of P_{el} and P_{sp} , and P_{red} and P_{blu} . Firstly, by comparing the red and blue circle points to the red and blue square points in Figure 2, the environmental correlations for the $P_{\text{el}}P_{\text{red}}$ and $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{blu}}$ marks are clearly magnified, due to the combined environmental dependence of both morphology and colour. That is, red early-types tend to be located in very dense environments, while blue spirals tend to reside in very underdense environments. In addition, on scales of $r_p < 500 \text{ kpc}/h$, the environmental dependence of the red early-types appears to be stronger than the environmental anti-correlations of the blue spirals: for example, $M_{P_{\text{red}}P_{\text{el}}}(r_p)$ (red circles) rises to ≈ 2.5 at $r_p \approx 100 \text{ kpc}/h$ (*i.e.*, the weighted correlation func-

tion is 2.5 times stronger than the unweighted correlation function), while $M_{P_{\text{blu}}P_{\text{sp}}}(r_p)$ drops only to ≈ 0.5 (*i.e.*, the weighted correlation function is only 2 times weaker than the unweighted correlation function). This may be an indication that the vast majority of red early-types are central galaxies.

Secondly, for the $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{red}}$ and $P_{\text{el}}P_{\text{blu}}$ marks, one might expect that the mark signal would be weak or nonexistent, as these are combining opposite environmental correlations. Nonetheless, the mark correlations are fairly strong and significant out to large scales, and their direction suggests that environmental dependence of colour is stronger than that of morphology. In principle, this could be due to the fact the P_{red} distribution is different from P_{el} (which is equivalent to $1 - P_{\text{sp}}$ here). However, even after accounting for the different distributions (in the appendix), we still find that galaxies with high P_{red} and P_{sp} tend to reside in denser environments than average, where the environment is measured between $100 \text{ kpc}/h < r_p < 10 \text{ Mpc}/h$.

There is a downturn in the measurement for the $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{red}}$ mark at small scales ($r_p < 300 \text{ kpc}/h$), which may be due to the relatively high satellite fraction of red spirals (discussed in the next section), resulting in a suppressed central-satellite term, and also may be partly due to morphology gradients within haloes, if they are stronger than colour gradients (*i.e.*, if P_{sp} decreases more rapidly than P_{red} increases at small halo-centric radii). The behaviour of the mark correlation function also demonstrates that the morphology likelihoods and colour likelihoods contain independent information, and that the former is not derivative of the latter.

In any case, the main conclusion from Figure 8 is that redder, more spiral structured galaxies tend to be located in denser environments than average, and red early-types are even more strongly correlated with the environment.

6 RED SPIRAL GALAXIES

While red early-type galaxies and blue late-type galaxies are abundant and well-known, we now turn to less understood populations of galaxies: red spirals and blue early-types. We simply define red spirals as all those galaxies redder than the colour-magnitude cut (6) and with $P_{\text{sp}} > 0.8$, and blue early-types as those bluer than the colour cut and with $P_{\text{el}} > 0.8$.

We showed in Section 5 that at fixed colour the morphology-environment correlation is relatively weak, while at fixed morphology some of the colour-environment correlation remains. It follows from this that a morphology transformation of a galaxy usually implies a concomitant colour transformation, so galaxies that transform into early-types while remaining blue should be rare. In contrast, some galaxies that move onto the red sequence may not undergo a morphology transformation, so there should be a significant population of red spiral galaxies. For our $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue, after excluding galaxies with high likelihoods of P_{mg} or P_{dk} , 8443 galaxies out of 90400 are red spirals (9.3 per cent), while only 654 are blue early-types (0.7 per cent). Since red spiral galaxies are relatively common while blue early-types are not, for the rest of this section we focus only on the red spirals. Schawinski et al. (in

prep.) are currently investigating the blue early-types in the Galaxy Zoo.

It is worth noting that Schiminovich et al. (2007) found, using UV–optical colours and a dust correction based on 4000Å break strength and SED fits, that passive disk-dominated galaxies are relatively rare. It is therefore possible that a significant fraction of the red spirals in our sample have some ongoing star formation, but are reddened by dust extinction. Semi-analytic models also show significant dust extinction among disk-dominated galaxies, with the dust optical depth having a strong correlation with gas mass and anti-correlation with scale radius (Fontanot et al. 2008). Using a combination of IR and UV/optical data, Gallazzi et al. (2008) and Wolf et al. (2008, submitted) find in the outskirts of the A901/902 supercluster a significant population of red, yet star-forming, spirals, with relatively high masses and low Sersic indices. These objects appear red due to low star formation rates and their residual star formation being highly extinguished, and are particularly prevalent at intermediate densities. We will argue that a large fraction of the red spiral galaxies in the Galaxy Zoo are indeed satellite galaxies; their emission line statistics are currently being investigated.

Figure 2 showed that spiral galaxies tend to reside in underdense environments, or low-mass dark matter haloes, while Figure 6 showed that red galaxies tend to reside in overdense environments, or massive haloes. We focus now on the galaxies that are both red *and* spiral. We compare the correlation function of red spiral galaxies to those of all red galaxies and all spiral galaxies in Figure 9. The clustering of red spirals is consistent with that of red galaxies at large scales. However, at small scales ($r_p < 2 \text{ Mpc}/h$), on the scales of galaxy pairs within the same halo, their clustering signal is significantly depressed. This result is consistent with Bamford et al. (2008a), who found that the fraction of red spirals, and of red face-on spirals alone, increases with projected galaxy density, except in the densest environments (*i.e.*, in cluster cores).

This suggests that red spirals are often satellite galaxies in the outskirts of groups and clusters, while red early-types tend to be located in the inner regions of these groups. This is consistent with our interpretation of the weak residual morphology–environment correlation of red galaxies in Figure 5. We test this with a halo occupation model of galaxy clustering, (e.g., Zehavi et al. 2005, Zheng et al. 2007), in which the halo occupation distribution of central and satellite galaxies depends on halo mass and the luminosity threshold. In Figure 9, we show the result of such a model, using mean occupation functions similar to those of Zheng et al. The range of models that approximately fit the measurement (with $\chi_{\text{d.o.f.}}^2 < 1$) have a satellite fraction of $f_{\text{sat}} \approx 32\%$. This is 1/3 larger than the satellite fraction of all galaxies with $M_r < -19.5$, $f_{\text{sat}} \approx 24\%$.

There are two significant differences between the models that fit the correlation function of red spirals in the figure and the fiducial model for all galaxies brighter than the luminosity threshold. Most importantly, the parameter M_1 , which characterizes the amplitude of the mean halo occupation function and approximately corresponds to the mass of a halo that hosts one satellite on average, is only ≈ 12 times larger than the halo mass threshold, M_{min} , rather than the fiducial factor of ≈ 20 . The slope of the halo occupation

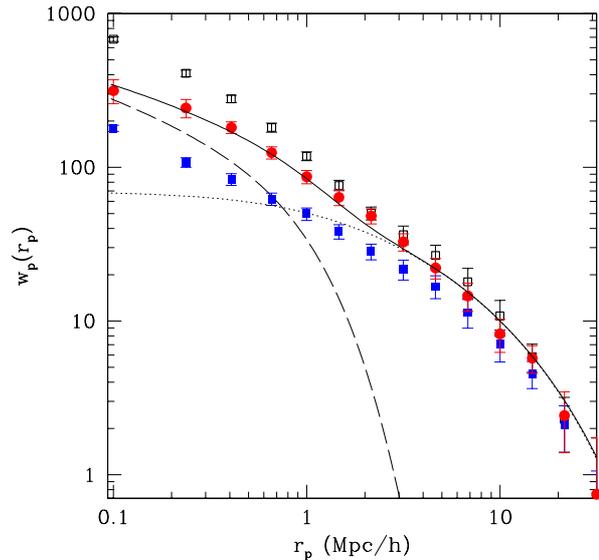


Figure 9. Projected two-point correlation function of red spiral galaxies (red circles) compared to that of all red galaxies (black open squares) and that of all spiral galaxies (blue filled squares) in the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue. A halo occupation model of the correlation function is also shown (solid curve), consisting of galaxy pairs in a single halo (dashed curve) and in separate haloes (dotted curve). The model is consistent with the measurement, with $\chi_{\text{d.o.f.}}^2 = 0.5$.

function is unchanged. These two aspects of the model imply that, not only are many red spirals satellite galaxies, they are expected to reside in haloes of all masses, rather than only in massive haloes. Although red spirals have been observed in the outskirts of galaxy clusters, we predict that they are located in galaxy groups as well. Secondly, in order to fit the suppressed correlation function at scales of $r_p < 500 \text{ kpc}/h$, models in which the satellite galaxy number density profile is less concentrated (by a factor of three) than the dark matter profile are favored. However, this parameter is not well-constrained. It will be interesting to investigate the morphologies of central and satellite galaxies further, and this is the subject of ongoing work, with the galaxy group catalogue of Yang et al. (2007).

We now address the possibility that our results are affected by dust reddening and galaxy inclinations. For example, a significant fraction of edge-on S0s could be mistakenly classified as spirals, or star-forming edge-on spirals could be sufficiently dusty to satisfy our colour criterion for ‘red spirals’. Corrections for inclination-related effects are available in the literature (Masters et al. 2003, Shao et al. 2007, Maller et al. 2008), and they are not negligible. In Galaxy Zoo we can determine whether objects were classified as spiral due to the presence of visible spiral arms or simply due to a disk, edge-on appearance. Following Bamford et al. (2008a), we define as ‘edge-on/unclear’ those objects for which the majority of classifiers could not individually discern a spiral arm direction ($p_{\text{CW}} + p_{\text{ACW}} < p_{\text{EU}}$, where CW, ACW, and EU refer to clockwise, anti-clockwise, and edge-on/unclear, respectively). Note that this is conservative, as even if a mi-

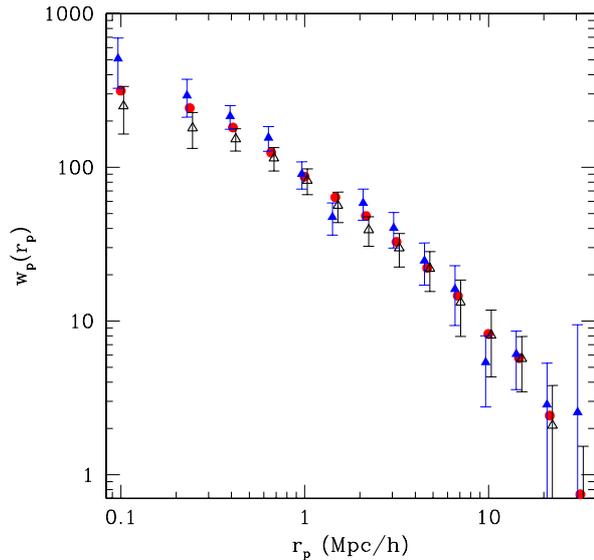


Figure 10. Projected correlation function of red edge-on spirals (open triangles), red face-on spirals (filled triangles), and all red spiral galaxies (red circles, same as Fig. 9) in the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue. The points have been slightly offset in $\log r_p$, for clarity.

nority of classifiers can discern spiral arms in a galaxy, then it is very likely to be a spiral.

In Figure 10, we compare the clustering of red edge-on spirals (galaxies redder than the colour cut in Eqn. 6, with $p_{CW} + p_{ACW} < p_{EU}$, and with $P_{sp} > 0.8$) and of red face-on spirals (redder than the colour cut, with $p_{CW} + p_{ACW} > p_{EU}$, and with $P_{sp} > 0.8$). The red edge-on spirals outnumber the red face-on ones by a factor of more than 3:1. The red edge-on spirals appear slightly less strongly clustered than the red face-on spirals, consistent with the hypothesis that many of them are star-forming galaxies, which tend to be located in underdense environments. Nonetheless, the difference between the clustering measurements is of very weak statistical significance. We have also used the apparent axis ratio (b/a) as an observational inclination indicator, and have found that it too does not depend strongly on the environment. In addition, the b/a distributions of red spirals and blue spirals are similar, especially when the spiral arms are visible. These tests show that galaxy inclinations can have only a minimal effect on our results, and they do not affect our conclusions. A detailed investigation of the effects of dust and inclination on spiral galaxies in the Galaxy Zoo is currently underway.

Finally, we show the colour-magnitude diagram of red spiral galaxies compared to that of all red galaxies and all spiral galaxies in Figure 11. Red spirals consist of 18 per cent of red galaxies and 23 per cent of spiral galaxies. Perhaps not surprisingly, red spirals are concentrated at the fainter, somewhat bluer part of the red sequence. The majority of spiral galaxies occupy the ‘blue cloud’, although they have a wide range in colour at fixed luminosity.

We interpreted the clustering result in Figure 9, and in particular the suppressed small-scale correlation function

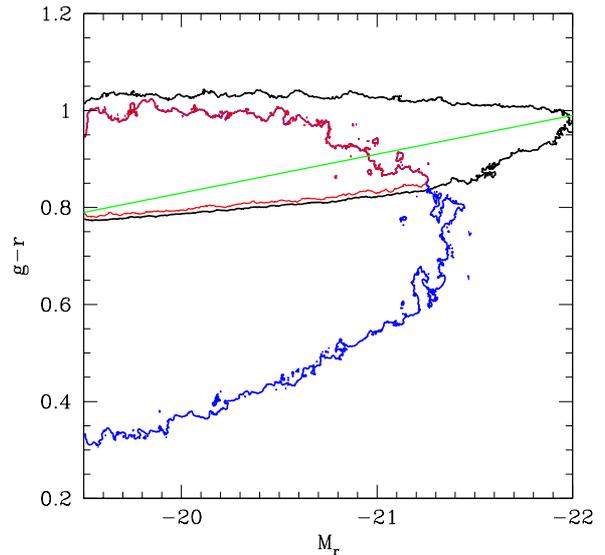


Figure 11. $(g - r) - M_r$ colour-magnitude diagram for the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue. Red contour circumscribes most of the red spiral galaxies; black and blue contours circumscribe most of the red galaxies and spiral galaxies, respectively. The contours encompass colour-magnitude points with galaxy counts that are 5 per cent or more of the maximum count in the *full* catalogue (which is peaked at $g - r = 0.92$, $M_r = -19.9$), thus showing the relative contribution of each subset of the data. The satellite galaxy mean colour-magnitude sequence of Skibba & Sheth (2008) is also shown (green line).

of red spiral galaxies, as evidence that red spirals are often satellite galaxies. In the colour-magnitude diagram in Figure 11 we have also plotted the satellite galaxy mean colour-magnitude sequence of Skibba & Sheth (2008) and Skibba (2008), which they found to be consistent with measurements of colour mark correlation functions in the SDSS and of satellite colours as a function of luminosity and group richness in SDSS group catalogues. Faint satellites are still somewhat blue and many are undergoing processes of star formation quenching, while brighter satellites tend to lie on the red sequence. The fact that the satellite galaxy colour sequence in the figure goes through the colour-magnitude region occupied by red spirals suggests the following picture for satellite galaxy evolution. Most satellite galaxies were late-types when they were accreted onto a larger halo. Then they experience ‘strangulation’, in which their hot diffuse gas is stripped, removing its fuel for future star formation. As its star formation is suppressed, it becomes redder, while its morphology is unchanged—that is, it remains a spiral galaxy—at least for a while. Accompanying the aging of its stellar disk population, there is likely to be gradual transition to earlier spiral type, and potentially to S0 (and hence the GZ early-type class). Finally, the most massive satellites experience mergers, possibly fueling central black holes, and become red ellipticals. This picture is consistent with the analysis of van den Bosch et al. (2008a).

In contrast, central galaxies have a bluer mean colour sequence as a function of luminosity, although they account

for the vast majority of luminous red galaxies (Skibba 2008). We interpret the strong correlation between colour and environment for spiral galaxies in Figure 6 such that, while red spirals are often satellites in massive haloes (*i.e.*, in denser environments), most blue spirals are central galaxies in low-mass haloes (*i.e.*, in less dense environments). We expect the majority of the early-type galaxies, including the blue early-types, to be centrals as well, although in more massive haloes. This suggests a different picture for the evolution of central galaxies. Centrals begin as blue spirals and they continue to form stars as they experience mergers. Following a major dissipative merger, they remain somewhat blue during a final burst of star formation, while they form a bulge and a supermassive black hole. Finally, their gas is consumed and AGN feedback eventually quenches their remaining star formation, and they join the population of red early-types. This picture is consistent with the analysis of Schiminovich et al. (2007), Bell (2008), Pasquali et al. (2008), and Schawinski et al. (2008).

7 DISCUSSION

We have used volume-limited galaxy catalogues from the SDSS Data Release 6 (Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2008) with data from the Galaxy Zoo (Lintott et al. 2008) to study the environmental dependence of galaxy morphology and colour. The Galaxy Zoo project produced a large catalogue of visual morphological galaxy classifications, yielding reliable morphological type likelihoods for hundreds of thousands of galaxies. We measured projected two-point correlation functions and marked correlation functions, and we used the latter to identify and quantify the environmental correlations of morphological type likelihoods and $g-r$ colour on a wide range of scales.

We summarize our results as follows:

- We measured marked correlation functions with P_{sp} and P_{el} as marks, and these showed clear environmental trends, such that at all scales probed, spiral galaxies tend to reside in less dense environments and early-type galaxies tend to be located in overdense environments. Furthermore, the scale-dependence of the mark correlations is remarkably smooth, indicating that the marks have very little noise — that is, the Galaxy Zoo morphological type likelihoods, which have been corrected for classification bias, are very precise.

- We also measured the P_{mg} marked correlation function, and found that it is strongly correlated with the environment only at scales of $r_p \sim 100$ kpc/h. That is, galaxies on these scales have a much larger likelihood of showing evidence of mergers and interactions than average. We compared this measurement to a specific star formation rate marked correlation function measured with a catalogue with similar volume limits (Skibba, Wake & Sheth, in prep.), and showed that it too is strongly peaked at the same scale and is uncorrelated with the environment at larger scales. Naturally, merging and interacting galaxies are normally studied at very small scales, at separations of $r_p < 30$ kpc/h, which is closer than we can reliably probe. However, our result shows either that the effects of galaxy interactions and bursts of star formation persist out to separations of $r_p \sim 100$ kpc/h or more, or that, for galaxies with neighbours on these scales, a significant fraction of their neighbours are merging and

star-bursting. While we cannot conclusively claim that there is a causal connection between mergers and star formation, our result is consistent with the picture that mergers and interactions between galaxies trigger star formation in them.

Studies that attempt to identify both galaxies in interacting systems frequently miss interacting objects, due to selection criteria and difficulties in determining line-of-sight separations, for example. Measuring the mark correlation function, using the merging/interacting *likelihood* as the mark, provides a complementary way of assessing the frequency and properties of galaxy interactions, effective to larger separations, and including all interacting objects, in a statistical sense.

- We have sought to disentangle the environmental dependence of morphology and colour by measuring morphology marked correlation functions at fixed colour and colour marked correlation functions at fixed morphology. We found that blue galaxies show no correlation between morphology and environment at all scales, and red galaxies are weakly correlated with the environment at small scales only ($r_p < 1$ Mpc/h). The fact that this correlation occurs in the ‘one-halo term’, at separations smaller than the size of massive dark matter haloes, is interpreted as an indication of morphology gradients within haloes: red galaxies in the outer regions of haloes tend to be spirals while those in the inner regions tend to be early-types.

- In contrast, at fixed morphology, a relatively strong correlation between colour and environment remains. In particular, both spiral and early-type galaxies show significant colour-environment correlations out to scales of $r_p \sim 10$ Mpc/h, and the colours of the latter have the stronger environmental dependence (see Figure A4). That is, red spiral galaxies tend to be located in denser environments than blue spirals, and red early-types tend to be located in the densest environments, at any scale the environment is measured. The fact that the morphology-environment correlation is very weak at fixed colour while the colour-environment correlation remains strong at fixed morphology implies that the morphology–density relation could be more accurately viewed as a *colour*-density relation, which is consistent with the conclusions of other studies (Blanton et al. 2005, Wolf et al. 2007, Bamford et al. 2008a).

- We used the bimodal $g-r$ colour distribution as a function of r -band luminosity (Skibba & Sheth 2008) to estimate colour likelihoods of galaxies, P_{red} and P_{blu} , analogous to the morphology likelihoods P_{el} and P_{sp} . We used these four likelihoods together as marks, and found that the marked correlation function with the $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{red}}$ mark is significantly above unity. That is, the opposite environmental correlations did not cancel out; instead, the environmental dependence of colour is much stronger than that of morphology.

- This result shows that galaxies that are both red and spiral tend to be located in dense environments. These red spiral galaxies are not insignificant: they are 9 per cent of the galaxies in the $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue, and they account for nearly a quarter of all the spirals. We compared the correlation function of red spiral galaxies to that of all red galaxies and of spirals, and found that the clustering of red spirals is similar to that of red galaxies on large scales, but is depressed on scales of $r_p < 2$ Mpc/h, in the one-halo term, indicating that they have a high satellite fraction. This is more evidence that many red spiral galax-

ies are satellite galaxies. Skibba & Sheth (2008) and Skibba (2008) showed that satellite galaxies tend to follow a particular sequence on the colour-magnitude diagram, and it passes through the region of the diagram occupied by red spirals. These results suggest that satellite galaxies evolve a particular way: faint satellites are accreted as blue late-types, and then they experience ‘strangulation’, in which their hot gas reservoirs are stripped, causing their star formation to be gradually suppressed while they retain spiral morphology.

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APPENDIX A: MARK DISTRIBUTIONS AND THEIR EFFECT ON THE MARKED CORRELATION FUNCTIONS

Mark correlation functions are sensitive to the distributions of the marks. In this appendix, we show the mark distributions for the measurements in Section 5, in which we compared the environmental dependence of galaxy morphology and colour, and we show how the mark correlation measurements are affected when one accounts for the different mark distributions.

In Figure A1, we show the distribution of P_{el} morphology likelihood (normalized by $P_{el} + P_{sp}$), for red and blue

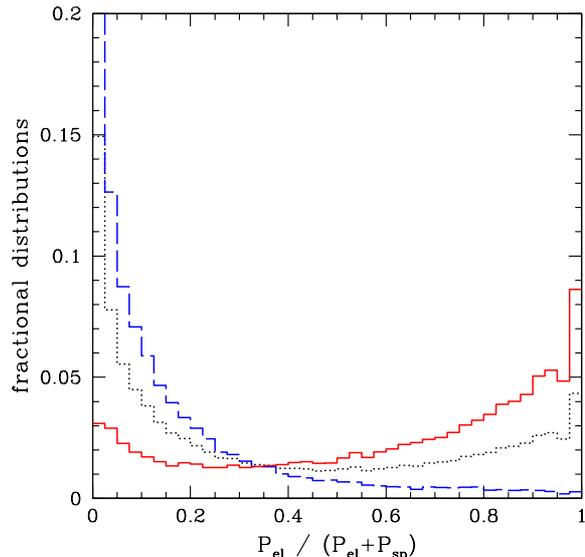


Figure A1. $P_{el}/(P_{el} + P_{sp})$ distributions of all galaxies (black dotted histogram), red galaxies (red solid histogram), and blue galaxies (blue dashed histogram), with $P_{red} > 0.8$ and $P_{blu} > 0.8$, in the $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue.

galaxies, where ‘red’ and ‘blue’ refers to the colour likelihoods estimated from the $g - r$ colour distribution as a function of r -band luminosity (Skibba & Sheth 2008), for $P_{red} > 0.8$ and $P_{blu} > 0.8$. Not surprisingly, a larger fraction of red galaxies than blue galaxies are early-types, and a larger fraction of blue galaxies are spirals.

In order to account for the different mark distributions for the mark correlation functions of red and blue galaxies, we rescale their P_{el} mark distributions so that they have the same distribution as that of all galaxies (black histogram in Fig. A1). The procedure is simple: if there are N marks in a catalogue, then we generate N random marks such that they have the required distribution. Then we sort these marks and replace the original marks in the catalogue with them. We maintain the rank order of the galaxies’ marks; only their distribution has changed.

Following this procedure, we repeated the measurements in Figure 5 with the rescaled marks for red and blue galaxies. The result is shown in Figure A2, and it is almost exactly the same. The morphology gradient of red galaxies on small scales is slightly stronger. There is a hint of a positive environmental correlation for blue galaxies, which could be interpreted as an indication that blue early-types tend to reside in denser environments than blue spirals, but this trend is of weak significance (only $\sim 1 - \sigma$).

Next, we show the distribution of $g - r$ colour for spiral and early-type galaxies, with $P_{sp} > 0.8$ and $P_{el} > 0.8$, in Figure A3. The distribution for early-types is strongly peaked on the red sequence, while spirals have a wide and smooth distribution, with a significant red fraction.

We now rescale the colour mark distributions, with the same procedure as before, forcing the spiral and early-type subsamples to have the same colour distribution as that of all galaxies (black dotted histogram in Fig. A3). The result-

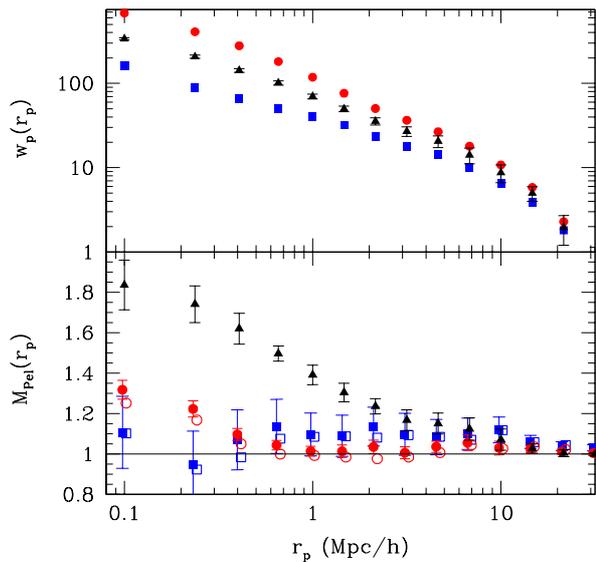


Figure A2. P_{el} marked correlation function (lower panel) of all galaxies in the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue (black triangles) compared to that of red and blue galaxies (red circle points and blue square points), as in Figure 5, but with the mark distributions forced to match the black dotted histogram in Figure A1. ‘Red’ and ‘blue’ galaxy subcatalogues are determined using the colour-magnitude cut in Eqn 6 (filled points) or using the colour likelihood thresholds $P_{\text{red}} > 0.8$ and $P_{\text{blue}} > 0.8$ (open points). The positions of the galaxies are unchanged, so the unmarked correlation functions (upper panel) are the same as before.

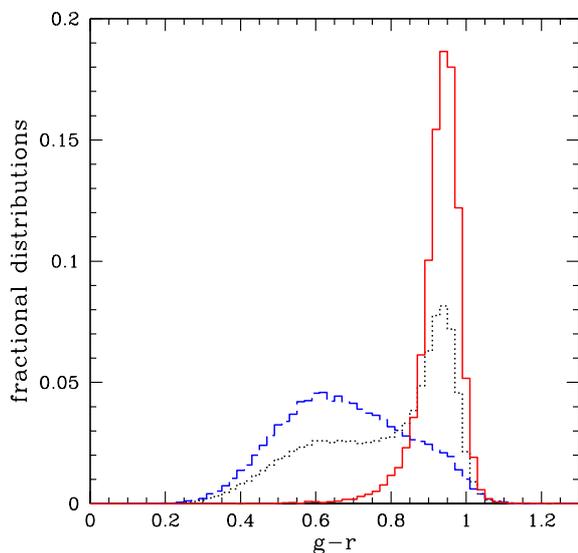


Figure A3. $g-r$ colour distributions of all galaxies (black dotted histogram), early-type galaxies (red solid histogram), and spiral galaxies (blue dashed histogram), in the $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue. Spiral and early-type galaxies are defined with $P_{\text{sp}} > 0.8$ and $P_{\text{el}} > 0.8$, respectively.

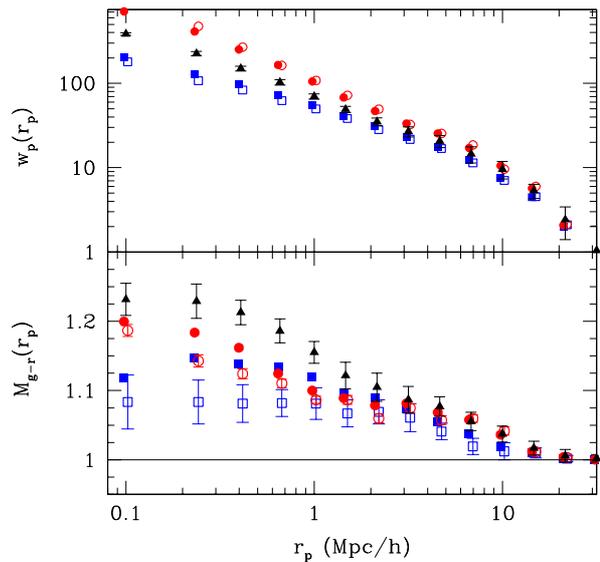


Figure A4. $g-r$ colour marked correlation function (lower panel) of all galaxies in the $M_r < -19.5$ catalogue (triangle points) compared to that of spiral and early-type galaxies (red circle points and blue square points), as in Figure 6, but with the mark distributions forced to match the black dotted histogram in Figure A3. Spiral and early-type subcatalogues are determined using the greater morphology likelihood as the distinguishing criterion (filled points) or using the likelihood threshold of $P > 0.8$ (open points).

ing colour marked correlation functions are shown in Figure A4. This result clearly shows that red early-type galaxies are more strongly clustered than red spirals, especially within the one-halo term. The apparent opposite trend in Figure 6 was simply due to the extremely narrow colour distribution of early-types (*i.e.*, the colours were not allowed to depart significantly from the mean, so the colour marks of strongly clustered red early-types were not much larger than the colour marks of bluer early-types in less dense environments).

Finally, we compare the distribution of P_{el} , normalized by $P_{\text{el}} + P_{\text{sp}}$, to that of P_{red} in Figure A5. The P_{red} distribution is more strongly peaked near 0 and 1 than that of P_{el} , simply because the colour distribution of galaxies is strongly bimodal, with an underpopulated ‘green valley’, across much of the range of luminosities (Skibba & Sheth 2008).

Since the distribution of colour likelihoods is more strongly peaked at the minimum and maximum than the distribution of morphology likelihoods, it is possible that this could artificially strengthen the environmental dependence of colour vis-à-vis that of morphology. We account for this by maintaining the rank order of P_{red} of the galaxies in the catalogue, and giving them the same distribution as that of P_{el} . We then re-measured the marked correlation functions with the four colour-morphology combinations of P_{el} , P_{sp} , P_{red} , and P_{blue} shown in Figure 8. Figure A6 shows the results, and they are almost the same. The only significant difference is that the $P_{\text{blue}}P_{\text{el}}$ mark appears to be uncorrelated with the environment at all scales, possibly due to the

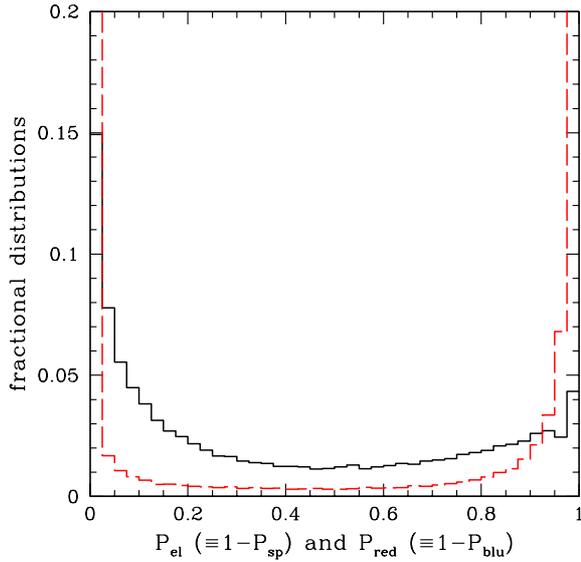


Figure A5. Distribution of P_{el} (solid black histogram), normalized so that $P_{\text{sp}} + P_{\text{el}} = 1$, and P_{red} (red dashed histogram), normalized so that $P_{\text{blu}} + P_{\text{red}} = 1$, in the $M_r < -19.5$ volume-limited catalogue.

fact that blue early-types are extremely rare (0.7 per cent). However, our conclusion that galaxies with high P_{red} and P_{sp} tend to reside in denser environments than average is robust.

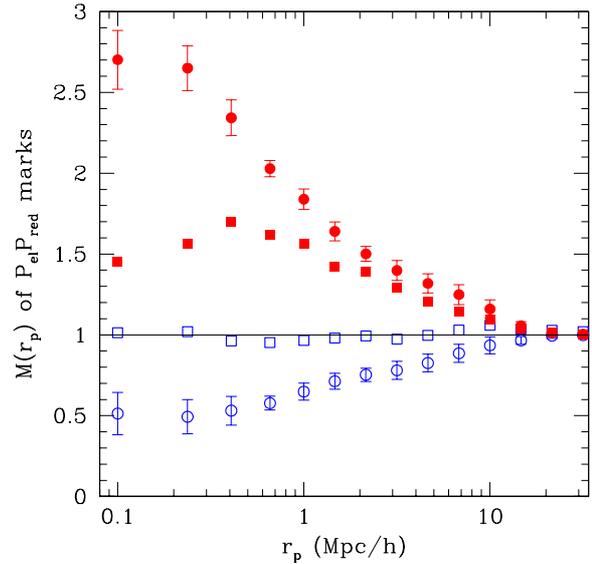


Figure A6. Marked correlation functions for the four colour-morphology combinations, $P_{\text{el}}P_{\text{red}}$ (red filled circles), $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{red}}$ (red filled squares), $P_{\text{el}}P_{\text{blu}}$ (blue open squares), and $P_{\text{sp}}P_{\text{blu}}$ (blue open circles), as in Figure 8, but the distribution of P_{red} (and $1 - P_{\text{blu}}$) is forced to match that of P_{el} in Figure A5.