Decoupled black hole accretion and quenching: the relationship between BHAR, SFR and quenching in Milky Way- and Andromeda-mass progenitors since \( z = 2.5 \)


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ABSTRACT

We investigate the relationship between the black hole accretion rate (BHAR) and star formation rate (SFR) for Milky Way (MW) and Andromeda (M31)-mass progenitors from \( z = 0.2 \) to 2.5. We source galaxies from the \( K_s \)-band-selected ZFOURGE survey, which includes multiwavelength data spanning 0.3–160 \( \mu \)m. We use decomposition software to split the observed spectral energy distributions (SEDs) of our galaxies into their active galactic nuclei (AGNs) and star-forming components, which allows us to estimate BHARs and SFRs from the infrared (IR). We perform tests to check the robustness of these estimates, including a comparison with BHARs and SFRs derived from X-ray stacking and far-IR analysis, respectively. We find that, as the progenitors evolve their relative black hole–galaxy growth (i.e. their BHAR/SFR ratio) increases from low to high redshift. The MW-mass progenitors exhibit a log–log slope of 0.64 \( \pm \) 0.11, while the M31-mass progenitors are 0.39 \( \pm \) 0.08. This result contrasts with previous studies that find an almost flat slope when adopting X-ray-/AGN-selected or mass-limited samples and is likely due to their use of a broad mixture of galaxies with different evolutionary histories. Our use of progenitor-matched samples highlights the potential importance of carefully selecting progenitors when searching for evolutionary relationships between BHAR/SFRs. Additionally, our finding that BHAR/SFR ratios do not track the rate at which progenitors quench casts doubts over the idea that the suppression of star formation is predominantly driven by luminous AGN feedback (i.e. high BHARs).

Key words: galaxies: active – galaxies: evolution – galaxies: high-redshift – infrared: galaxies.

1 INTRODUCTION

The Milky Way (MW) and Andromeda (M31) have long provided astronomers with invaluable insight into galaxy evolution (Freeman & Bland-Hawthorn 2002). With deep new surveys, it is now possible to search for their probable progenitors at high-\( z \) and learn about their evolutionary history that led to their
present-day properties. For example, Van Dokkum et al. (2013) used data from the 3D-HST (Brammer et al. 2012) and CANDELS (Grogin et al. 2011; Koekemoer et al. 2011) surveys to probe MW-mass progenitors out to $z = 2.5$, while Papovich et al. (2015) used data from the ZFOURGE survey (Straatman et al. 2016) to probe MW- and M31-mass progenitors, while pushing to higher redshifts ($z \sim 3$). By investigating the evolution of various physical parameters, including rest-frame colours, morphologies, gas fractions, size and star formation rates (SFRs), these studies point to a scenario in which the progenitors of MW- and M31-mass galaxies gradually transition from gas-rich, star-forming galaxies at high-$z$ to quenched, bulge-dominated galaxies at low-$z$.

The growth of bulges is often associated with supermassive black holes (SMBHs; e.g. Cisternas et al. 2011), where local scaling relations, manifested in the $M-\sigma$ relation (e.g. Marconi et al. 2004; McConnell & Ma 2013), have driven a wealth of research in the area of SMBH–galaxy coevolution. For example, theoretical simulations commonly invoke feedback from the active nucleus of SMBHs to regulate the star formation activity of galaxies (e.g. Silk & Rees 1998; Croton et al. 2006), while several observational studies have identified correlations between active galactic nucleus (AGN) luminosity and SFR (Rafferty et al. 2011; Chen et al. 2013; Dai et al. 2015; Heinis et al. 2016). However, what can be learned from these works is limited due to progenitor bias (e.g. Van Dokkum & Franx 2001; Leja, van Dokkum & Franx 2013). Given this, it is pertinent to ask whether the SMBH–galaxy correlations hold within the framework of evolving MW- and M31-mass progenitors, which may provide greater insight into the processes that drive the transition of star-forming galaxies into quiescent ones.

In this paper, we investigate the SMBH–galaxy coevolution of MW- and M31-mass progenitors by tracking their mean black hole accretion rates (BHARs) and mean SFRs since $z = 2.5$. We place these results in the context of galaxy quenching by comparing the evolution of the BHARs and SFRs to the quenching rate over similar time-scales. This work will help provide greater insight into the formation processes of MW- and M31-mass progenitors and to what extent the feedback from SMBH accretion plays in the quenching of galaxies over cosmic time. Throughout this paper, we use an AB magnitude system, a Chabrier (2003) IMF and assume a ΛCDM cosmology with $H_0 = 70$ km s$^{-1}$ Mpc$^{-1}$, $\Omega_m = 0.3$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$.

2 DATA SETS

In this paper, we select galaxies from the recent public release of ZFOURGE$^1$ (Straatman et al. 2016), with coverage in three 11 arcmin $\times$ 11 arcmin pointings in the CDFS (Giacconi et al. 2002), COSMOS (Scoville et al. 2007) and UDS (Lawrence et al. 2007) fields. ZFOURGE uniquely employs deep near-infrared (near-IR) imaging taken with six medium-band filters ($J_1$, $J_2$, $J_3$, $H_4$, $H_5$, $K_5$) in FourStar (Persson et al. 2013) mounted on the 6.5 m Magellan Baade telescope. The ultradepend $K_5$ detection images reach 5σ point source limiting depths of ~25 AB mag. Near-IR imaging is supplemented with existing data from CANDELS HST (Grogin et al. 2011; Koekemoer et al. 2011; Skelton et al. 2014), Spitzer/IRAC and Herschel/PACS, as well as other ground-based filters, to generate multiwavelength catalogues spanning 0.3–160 µm. Photometric redshifts were calculated in EAZY (Brammer, Van Dokkum & Coppi 2008) using five templates generated from the PÉGASE library (Fioc & Rocca-Volmerange 1997), plus three additional dust-reddened templates (Brammer et al. 2008), a passive red galaxy template (Whitaker et al. 2011) and a strong emission line galaxy template (Erb et al. 2010). Stellar masses were calculated by fitting the Bruzual & Charlot (2003) models to FAST (Kriek et al. 2009), assuming solar metallicity, a Calzetti et al. (2000) dust extinction law (with $A_V = 0–4$), a Chabrier (2003) initial mass function (IMF) and exponentially declining star formation histories of the form SFR$(t) \propto e^{-t/\tau}$.

To estimate the average BHAR of the MW- and M31-mass progenitors, we measure AGN luminosities using a combination of IR and X-ray observations. We make use of overlapping Spitzer/IRAC and Herschel/PACS far-infrared (FIR) imaging, which is sourced from the GOODS Spitzer Legacy program (PI: M. Dickinson) and GOODS-H (Elbaz et al. 2011) for the ZFOURGE-CDFS field, S-COSMOS Spitzer Legacy program (PI: D. Sanders) and CANDELS-H (Inami et al., in preparation) for the ZFOURGE-COSMOS field, and SpUDS Spitzer Legacy program (PI: J. Dunlop) and CANDELS-H for the ZFOURGE-UDS field. For X-ray observations, we make use of the deepest Chandra imaging available, which is sourced from the Chandra Deep Field-South Survey: 7 Ms Source catalogues (Luo et al. 2017) for the ZFOURGE-CDFS field, the Chandra COSMOS Survey I. Overview and Point Source catalogue (Elvis et al. 2009) for the ZFOURGE-COSMOS field, and the X-UDS Chandra Legacy Survey (PI: Hasinger) for the ZFOURGE-UDS field.

3 DATA ANALYSIS

3.1 Progenitor selection

To investigate the evolution of MW- and M31-mass galaxies, we select progenitors with present-day stellar masses near those of the MW ($M_* = 5 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$ at $z = 0$; McMillan 2011; Van Dokkum et al. 2013; Licquia & Newman 2015) and M31 ($M_* = 10^{11} M_\odot$ at $z = 0$; Mutch, Croton & Poole 2011). Progenitor galaxies were selected using the approach in Papovich et al. (2015), who traced the stellar mass evolution of present-day MW- and M31-mass galaxies using the multi-epoch abundance matching method of Moster, Naab & White (2013). From this work, Moster et al. (2013) derived the fitting functions for the star formation history and mass accretion history for galaxies of arbitrary present-day stellar mass. Papovich et al. (2015) then integrated the fitting functions with respect to time, accounting for mass-losses from stellar evolution, to derive the stellar mass evolution of the present-day MW-mass and M31-mass galaxies. As shown in Fig. 1, estimates for the 80 per cent mass completeness limits mean that the data from ZFOURGE is unlikely to introduce selection biases in our attempt to track the stellar mass evolution of progenitors to $z = 2.5$. We identify 2860 MW-mass galaxy progenitors and 1473 M31-mass galaxy progenitors, spanning $z = 0.2–2.5$.

3.2 Black hole accretion rates

The luminosity emitted by an AGN is a result of a mass-accretion event (e.g. Alexander & Hickox 2012) which can be described by $L_{\text{AGN}} = \epsilon c^2 \dot{M}/dt$, where $\epsilon$ is the accretion efficiency (often estimated to be $\epsilon = 0.1$; e.g. Marconi et al. 2004). In units of $M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$, the BHAR can be expressed as

$$\text{BHAR} = 0.15 \frac{\epsilon}{0.1} \frac{L_{\text{AGN}}}{10^{45} \text{erg s}^{-1}}$$

where $L_{\text{AGN}}$ is the AGN bolometric luminosity. In the following section, we describe the methods used to estimate $L_{\text{AGN}}$ for all AGNs in our sample.
3.3 SED decomposition of $L_{\text{IR}}$

We use the multiparametric SED fitting code, CIGALE\(^2\) (Code Investigating GALaxy Emission; Burgarella et al. 2005; Noll et al. 2009) to decompose the rest-frame IR luminosity ($L_{\text{IR}}$) of MW- and M31-mass galaxy progenitors into their AGNs and star-forming components. By binning these components, we estimate, respectively, the mean BHARs and SFRs of the progenitors in bins of stellar mass and redshift. In Table 1, we list the parameters we use to complete SED fitting and decomposition. CIGALE completes decomposition using a two-step process. First, it creates a library of SED models using the chosen parameters, before identifying the best-fitting model to the observed photometry through $\chi^2$ minimization. Galaxy parameters and their associated uncertainties are estimated using a Bayesian approach, which derives the probability that each parameter value is representative of a given galaxy (see Burgarella et al. 2005). From these various parameters, we focus on the recovered $L_{\text{IR}}$, which consists of contributions from stellar-heated dust (dominated by young stars) and AGN-heated dust ($L_{\text{AGN}}$).

For the stellar-heated dust, we adopt the semi-empirical templates of Dale et al. (2014), which include modified templates from the Dale & Helou (2002) library. For the AGN-heated dust, we adopt the templates of Fritz, Franceschini & Hatziminaoglou (2006), which consider the emission of the central source as well as the radiation from the dusty torus. The Fritz et al. (2006) templates introduce six additional parameters (see Table 1), which describe the geometrical configuration of the torus and the properties of the dust emission. We fix these parameters to mean values based on studies that extensively test AGN fitting with CIGALE (Ciesla et al. 2015; Bernhard et al. 2016; Heinis et al. 2016; Wylezalek et al. 2016). By fixing these parameters, we reduce the parameter space and hence the overall degeneracy of the models, without compromising the recovery of the components. Further details are available in Ciesla et al. (2015), while Table 1 lists the parameters we use to complete SED fitting and decomposition.

A caveat to this approach is CIGALE’s reliability at low AGN luminosities. Ciesla et al. (2015) found for such sources that the software would tend to overestimate the AGN contribution up to ~120 per cent. The authors attribute this overestimation to bias from the probability distribution function (PDF) analysis, where the PDF is truncated and returns an elevated value. To address this, we select all sources with error$_{L_{\text{AGN}}} < L_{\text{AGN}}$ and scatter them down by randomly drawing a new $L_{\text{AGN}}$ value from a Gaussian centred on zero with a standard deviation of error$_{L_{\text{AGN}}}$. We compute the averages reported below using these new $L_{\text{AGN}}$ values whenever CIGALE returns a non-detection of an IR AGN component. For a secure detection, we adopt the output directly from CIGALE.

Previous studies, which have used CIGALE to decompose the $L_{\text{IR}}$ have shown that robust luminosity estimations are heavily reliant on rest-frame IR data (Buat et al. 2013; Ciesla et al. 2015). Therefore, we use FourStar (1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.6, 1.7 and 2.2 $\mu$m), IRAC (3.6, 4.5, 5.8 and 8 $\mu$m), MIPS (24 $\mu$m) and PACS (100 and 160 $\mu$m) broad-band data in our SED fitting. While all sources are detected in multiple bands, only ~65 per cent are detected in at least one near-IR, one mid-IR and one far-IR band. For non-detections (flux < 0), we replace flux values with their corresponding uncertainties and treat them as upper limits. Examples of best-fitting models and decomposition are shown in the left-hand panel of Fig. 2.

We apply two tests in order to assess CIGALE’s ability to robustly estimate parameters. The first is a check of the CIGALE-derived SFRs, which we achieve by comparing the results to those from an FIR-derived conversion of the bolometric 8–1000 $\mu$m IR luminosity calculated from a luminosity-independent conversion (Wuyts et al. 2008, 2011) using PACS 160 $\mu$m fluxes. The results, which are presented in the right-hand panel of Fig. 2, show a strong correlation between the two methods of derivation. A noticeable exception is for a selection of high-redshift sources, which stray from the 1:1 line. When we investigate these sources, we find that they are dominated by AGN (i.e. greater than 50 per cent AGN-heated component) to the $L_{\text{IR}}$. While the FIR regime is believed to be largely uncontaminated by AGN (Netzer et al. 2007; Mullaney et al. 2012a), it is not

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\(^2\) http://cigale.lam.fr

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Table 1. Modules and parameters used in CIGALE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Star formation history</td>
<td>Delayed $r$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial mass function</td>
<td>Chabrier (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attenuation law</td>
<td>Calzetti et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dust emission models</td>
<td>Dale et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGN emission models</td>
<td>Fritz et al. (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-folding time-scale $^a$, $t$ (Gyr)</td>
<td>1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of oldest stars $^a$, $t$ (Gyr)</td>
<td>1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E(B-V)$, for young population</td>
<td>0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of torus radii $^b$</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optical depth at 9.7 $\mu$m of torus$^b$</td>
<td>0.3, 3.0, 6.0, 10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter for torus density$^{b,c}, \beta$</td>
<td>$-0.5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter for torus density$^{b,c}, \gamma$</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening angle of torus$^b$</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angle of AGN axis to line of sight$^b$</td>
<td>0.001, 50.100, 89.990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGN fraction of $L_{\text{IR}}^b$</td>
<td>0.00–0.95 (steps of 0.05)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. $^a$SFR($t$) $\propto$ $e^{-t/\tau}$.  
$^b$AGN parameters from Fritz et al. (2006).  
$^c$$\rho(\theta, \phi) = \alpha \theta^\beta e^{-\gamma |\cos(\phi)|}$.  

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Figure 1. The stellar mass evolution of MW-mass (solid blue line boxes) and M31-mass (dashed red line boxes) galaxy progenitors, including counts for each redshift bin. The data points show the stellar masses of all sources in ZFOURGE over $z = 0.2–2.5$. The red curve shows the 80 per cent stellar mass completeness limit for star-forming and passive galaxies in ZFOURGE (Spitler et al., in preparation).
BHAR and SFR in MW & M31-mass progenitors

3.4 $L_{\text{AGN}}$ from X-ray stacking

We use the X-ray stacking code, STACKFAST$^3$ (Hickox et al. 2007) to estimate the average X-ray luminosity for MW- and M31-mass galaxy progenitors in bins of redshift. X-ray stacking allows us to account for those sources that are not individually detected in X-rays. We determine the stacked source count rate (in counts s$^{-1}$) for the M31- and MW-mass progenitors in bins of redshift and convert to flux (in erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in the 0.5–7 keV band assuming an intrinsic X-ray spectrum with $\Gamma = 1.8$. We derive the average

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$^3$ http://www.dartmouth.edu/~stackfast/
X-ray luminosity using
\[ L_X [\text{erg s}^{-1}] = 4 \pi d_l^2 (1 + z)^{1/2} f_s, \]  
(2)
where \( d_l \) is the average luminosity distance determined for each redshift bin. Finally, to convert \( L_x \) to \( L_{\text{AGN}} \), we apply a constant bolometric correction factor of 22.4 (based on a sample of local, \( L_x = 10^{31} - 46 \text{ erg s}^{-1} \), AGNs from Vasudevan & Fabian 2007). More details of STACKFAST are described in section 5.1 of Hickox et al. (2007), while the basics of our X-ray data processing, reduction and image analysis can be found in Goulding et al. (2012).

4 RESULTS

4.1 Evolution of star formation and black hole accretion

4.1.1 Evolution of the BHARs

Using equation (1), we estimate the mean BHAR of all galaxies in bins of stellar mass and redshift, and plot the BHAR history of the MW- and M31-mass progenitors in Fig. 4 (top panel). Both the X-ray and IR-derived BHARs start relatively high in the highest redshift bins and track a similar path as they reduce in rate towards the present day. The notable difference between the two samples is a significant offset. Specifically, we find the IR-derived BHARs to be \( \sim 4 \) times higher than the X-ray BHARs. One likely cause of this discrepancy is absorption effects. Currently, we assume no absorption during the X-ray analysis, but if we let the average intrinsic neutral hydrogen column density for the X-ray sample be \( N_H \sim 3 \times 10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-2} \) (i.e. heavily obscured), this would fully account for the offset. Such levels of obscuration are supported by the flux hardness ratios (HRs) of our X-rays.4 A similar elevation for IR-derived BHARs was found in Gruppioni et al. (2011).

4.1.2 Evolution of the SFRs

Fig. 4 (middle panel) shows the evolution of the mean SFRs, in bins of stellar mass and redshift, for the progenitors. For the M31-mass progenitors, SFRs start high (\( > 30 \text{ M}_\odot \text{ yr}^{-1} \)) at the highest redshifts observed, before peaking at \( \sim 40 \text{ M}_\odot \text{ yr}^{-1} \) around \( z \sim 1.75 \). Following this peak, the SFRs for the M31-mass progenitors decline monotonically to values of a few solar masses per year at \( z = 0.2 \). The MW-mass progenitors follow a similar trend, but are lower at \( z > 1 \). The SFRs for MW-mass progenitors start at \( \sim 5 \text{ M}_\odot \text{ yr}^{-1} \) in the highest redshift bins, peak at \( \sim 15 \text{ M}_\odot \text{ yr}^{-1} \) around \( z \sim 1.5 \) and then decline at similar values to the M31-mass progenitors at \( z < 1 \). The evolution of the mean SFRs in Fig. 4 is found to qualitatively match those in Van Dokkum et al. (2013) and Papovich et al. (2015), albeit slightly lower in value. As mentioned in Section 3.3, this offset is likely attributed to the different approach to deriving SFRs and the removal of AGN emission performed in this study.

4.1.3 Evolution of the relative black hole–galaxy growth

Fig. 4 (bottom panel) shows the evolution of the ratio between the BHAR and SFR for the progenitors. In all cases, we find that the BHAR/SFR ratios increase with redshift for the MW- and M31-mass progenitors, where the quiescent fraction is defined as the ratio of the total number of quiescent galaxies to the total number of galaxies (\( f_{\text{quies}} = N_{\text{quies}}/(N_{\text{quies}} + N_d) \)). We separate quiescent galaxies from star-forming galaxies using UVJ-colour analysis (see Cowley et al. 2016). Errors are calculated using the Clopper-Pearson

4 We calculate flux HR between the 0.5–2 and 2–7 keV bands. We find HR values consistent with moderate to heavy obscuration, with the M31-mass progenitors systematically higher (HR \( \sim 4 \)) than the MW-mass progenitors (HR \( \sim 3.8 \)).
Tight correlations between BHAR and SFR are well documented (e.g. Merloni & Heinz 2008; Aird et al. 2010; Gruppioni et al. 2011; Silk 2013) and observations (Mullaney et al. 2012b; Dai et al. 2015; Calhau et al. 2017) producing a nearly flat BHAR/SFR ratio across cosmic time. This flat correlation is often explained by a simple scenario where a joint fuelling process regulates both SMBH growth and star formation (see Mullaney et al. 2012b).

In contrast to past work, our results show that the BHAR/SFR ratios of our progenitor samples tend to decrease towards the present day. As this appears to hold whether we use X-ray or IR-derived BHARs (see the caveat for M31 below), we hypothesize that this difference is driven by sample differences as previous efforts have used various sample galaxy selections (e.g. X-ray or mass-limited samples). To test this hypothesis, we limited our sample to X-ray-selected AGN in ZFOURGE (Cowley et al. 2016) and examined the evolution of the BHAR/SFR ratios for the MW- and M31-mass progenitors using both X-ray and IR-derived BHARs. We find an almost completely flat relationship in BHAR/SFR ratios (slopes of $-0.04$ and $-0.11$, respectively) across all redshifts, which is consistent with the literature (e.g. Stanley et al. 2015).

While we find an evolving BHAR/SFR ratio for the bulk of our sample, a possible exception is the M31-mass progenitors, which exhibit an almost flat ratio when using the X-ray-derived BHARs. While this differs from the IR-derived BHAR/SFR ratios of the M31-mass progenitors, we postulate that this may be driven by obscuration effects, where the X-rays of the more massive, high-redshift M31-mass progenitors are highly obscured (e.g. Polletta et al. 2008; Treister, Krolik & Dullemond 2008). Indeed, when we investigate the X-ray HRs for the M31-mass progenitors, we find results consistent with heavy obscuration (HR $\sim 4$) at this redshift range. Therefore, such results argue for the inclusion of IR-based AGN whenever possible to fully assess the impact of dust obscuration changes.

The apparent differences we find for the evolution of BHAR/SFR ratios compared to past work illustrate the importance of selecting progenitor samples when looking for evolutionary changes in AGNs. Indeed, mass-limited, star-forming or X-ray-selected galaxies may not capture underlying evolutionary trends due to the fact that these samples contain galaxies with very different evolutionary paths (Leja et al. 2013). This work directly addresses this by adopting a selection that attempts to account for the mass growth of galaxies over the redshift range considered here.

Finally, the decline of the mean BHARs and SFRs with decreasing redshift casts doubts over the suppression of star formation being predominantly driven by luminous AGN feedback (i.e. high BHARs) in MW- and M31-mass progenitors. While one may expect to see an increase in BHARs during a period of quenching, we instead find that the rate at which the progenitors quench (see Fig. 5) is decoupled from the BHARs, which decline over similar time-scales. An alternative scenario to explain this is one of morphological quenching (Martig et al. 2009), where the formation of a bulge stabilizes gas in the galactic disc and suppresses the efficiency of star formation (e.g. Ceverino, Dekel & Bournaud 2010; Martig & Bournaud 2010; Genel, Dekel & Cacciato 2012; Sales et al. 2012; Genzel et al. 2014).

This scenario is supported by the work of Papovich et al. (2015), who find the Sérsic index of the same progenitors to increase with decreasing redshift, suggesting a growth in spheroid size towards the present. This view is consistent with recent findings that AGN feedback may only play a dominant role in star formation quenching at lower-$z$, during periods of low-level (i.e. radio mode) activity in bulge-dominated hosts (e.g. Gurkan et al. 2015; Cowley et al. 2016). With this said, if bulge growth remains closely tied to SMBH growth throughout cosmic time, then our BHARs suggest that bulge growth is actually decoupled from quenching.

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