

The Occurrence of Compact Groups of Galaxies Through Cosmic Time

Christopher D. Wiens,¹ Trey V. Wenger,^{1,2} Kelsey E. Johnson,^{1,2} Panayiotis Tzanavaris,^{3,4} S. C. Gallagher,^{5,6,7,8} and Liting Xiao^{1,9}

¹Department of Astronomy, University of Virginia, P.O. Box 400325, Charlottesville, VA 22904-4325, USA

²National Radio Astronomy Observatory, 520 Edgemont Road, Charlottesville, VA 22903, USA

³Astrophysics Science Division, Laboratory for X-ray Astrophysics, NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center, Mail Code 662, Greenbelt, MD 20771, USA

⁴CRESST, University of Maryland Baltimore County, 1000 Hilltop Circle, Baltimore, MD 21250, USA

⁵Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Western Ontario, London, ON N6A 3K7, Canada

⁶Centre for Planetary and Space Exploration, University of Western Ontario, London, ON N6A 5B9, Canada

⁷Rotman Institute of Philosophy, University of Western Ontario, London, ON N6A 5B9, Canada

⁸Canadian Space Agency, Saint-Hubert, QC J3Y 8Y9, Canada

⁹Division of Physics, Mathematics and Astronomy, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA

Received ; revised ; accepted 2019; published

Abstract

We use the outputs of a semi-analytical model of galaxy formation run on the Millennium Simulation to investigate the prevalence of three-dimensional compact groups (CGs) of galaxies from $z = 11$ to 0. Our publicly available code identifies CGs using the 3D galaxy number density, the mass ratio of secondary+tertiary to the primary member, mass density in a surrounding shell, the relative velocities of candidate CG members, and a minimum CG membership of three. We adopt “default” values for the first three criteria, representing the observed population of Hickson CGs at $z = 0$. The percentage of non-dwarf galaxies ($M > 5 \times 10^8 h^{-1} M_{\odot}$) in CGs peaks near $z \sim 2$ for the default set, and between $z \sim 1 - 3$ for other parameter sets. This percentage declines rapidly at higher redshifts ($z \gtrsim 4$), consistent with the galaxy population as a whole being dominated by low-mass galaxies excluded from this analysis. According to the most liberal criteria, $\lesssim 3\%$ of non-dwarf galaxies are members of CGs at the redshift where the CG population peaks. Our default criteria result in a population of CGs at $z < 0.03$ with number densities and sizes consistent with Hickson CGs. Tracking identified CG galaxies and merger products to $z = 0$, we find that $\lesssim 16\%$ of non-dwarf galaxies have been CG members at some point in their history. Intriguingly, the great majority (96%) of $z = 2$ CGs have merged to a single galaxy by $z = 0$. There is a discrepancy in the velocity dispersions of Millennium Simulation CGs compared to those in observed CGs, which remains unresolved.

Key words: galaxies: statistics, galaxies: groups: general, galaxies: evolution, galaxies: interactions

1. Introduction

Determining which physical mechanisms dominate the processing of gas in galaxies is at the core of understanding galaxy evolution over cosmic time. With high apparent galaxy number densities and relatively low velocity dispersions (Hickson et al. 1992; Mamon 1992), compact groups of galaxies (CGs) appear to be the ideal environment to investigate how gas processing is impacted by relatively strong interactions between multiple galaxies *simultaneously*.

Recent work has demonstrated that the compact group environment has an impact on galaxy evolution that is not seen in several other environments including field galaxies, isolated pair-wise mergers, or galaxy clusters (Johnson et al. 2007; Tzanavaris et al. 2010; Walker et al. 2010, 2012; Lenkić et al. 2016; Zucker et al. 2016). Specifically, galaxies that reside in CGs exhibit a “canyon” in infrared color space that implies a rapid transition between relatively actively star-forming and quiescent systems. Curiously, it should be noted that this transition region in infrared color space corresponds to the optical “red sequence” rather than the “green valley” (Walker et al. 2013; Zucker et al. 2016), indicating that a distinct evolutionary process is taking place in CGs. In other words, the infrared transition region seen in CGs, is not seen in comparison samples and should not be confused with the optical green valley.

This is further corroborated by a bimodality in star formation rates normalized by stellar mass (specific star formation rates,

sSFRs), which is particular to the CG environment (Tzanavaris et al. 2010; Lenkić et al. 2016), although some bimodal behavior has been reported in loose groups as well (Wetzel et al. 2012). Bimodal star formation suppression was also reported by Alatalo et al. (2015) who studied warm H_2 gas in CGs (see also Cluver et al. 2013). Peculiar sSFR behavior was also reported by Bitsakis et al. (2010, 2011), who found that late type galaxies in CGs have systematically low specific star formation rates. Lisenfeld et al. (2017) found that some CG galaxies appear to have a lower star-formation efficiency (SFR/M_{H_2}); however, star-forming compact group galaxies do lie on the star-forming main sequence, consistent with galaxies in other environments (Lenkić et al. 2016).

A number of other works have shown that galaxy evolution is impacted by the compact group environment. Proctor et al. (2004), Mendes de Oliveira et al. (2005), and Coenda et al. (2015) found that CG galaxies tend to be older (in terms of the average age of their stellar populations) than galaxies in other environments. Coenda et al. (2012) found a significantly larger fraction of red and early-type galaxies in CGs, as compared to loose groups, while Martínez et al. (2013) established that brightest group galaxies in CGs are brighter, more massive, larger, redder and more frequently classified as elliptical compared to their counterparts in loose groups. Coenda et al. (2015) found that CGs include a late-type population with markedly reduced sSFRs than loose groups and field populations. The

fraction of quiescent galaxies (i.e., not actively star-forming, independent of the average age of the stellar population) in CGs is higher than in the field or loose-group population (Coenda et al. 2015; Lenkić et al. 2016).

Farhang et al. (2017) compared CGs to fossil groups in the Millennium Simulation, finding that some, but not all, CGs eventually turn into fossil systems. They stressed that CGs appear to be a distinct group environment.

The fact that CGs show distinct features and/or behavior when compared to other environments suggests that the CG environment is “doing *something*” that impacts galaxy evolution in a unique way, not prevalent in other environments. In turn, this may be linked to the high, present or past, interaction activity experienced by galaxies in these systems (e.g., see the detailed results on interactions in CG systems in Plana et al. 1998; Mendes de Oliveira et al. 1998, 2003; Amram et al. 2004; Torres-Flores et al. 2009, 2010, 2014).

The importance of understanding how galaxy evolution is impacted by the group environment is underscored by the fact that most galaxies spend the majority of their time in groups of some kind (e.g. Mulchaey 2000; Karachentsev 2005, and references therein). However, the fraction of galaxies that have been part of a compact group over cosmic time is unclear, and therefore the total impact of the compact group environment on galaxy evolution throughout the Universe has not been well constrained. Catalogs of CGs are restricted to the relatively nearby Universe (e.g., Hickson et al. 1992; Barton et al. 1996; Lee et al. 2004; Deng et al. 2007; McConnachie et al. 2009; Díaz-Giménez et al. 2012; but see Pompei & Iovino 2012) and even in these cases CGs can only be confirmed if velocity information is available for the constituent galaxies. For example, the Redshift Survey Compact Group catalog (Barton et al. 1996) has a magnitude limit of $m_B < 15.5$, only reaching a redshift of $z \lesssim 0.03$. Advances in galaxy simulations over the last decade now enable us to explore the prevalence of CGs out to arbitrarily high redshifts.

1.1. Simulations

As it is not possible to observe a sample of CGs spanning all redshifts, the only available path forward is to utilize cosmic simulations of galaxy evolution. The Millennium Simulation (Springel et al. 2005; Lemson & Virgo Consortium 2006) provides a tool to study the history of CGs in the Universe. It used 2160^3 particles with mass $M = 8.6 \times 10^8 h^{-1} M_\odot$ to trace the evolution of a comoving cube with side-length $500 h^{-1}$ Mpc, where h is the Hubble constant parametrization such that $H_0 = 100 h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. The Millennium Simulation used a Λ CDM model with cosmological parameters $\Omega_M = 0.25$, $\Omega_b = 0.045$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.75$, and $h = 0.73$, consistent with observational results from the Carnegie Hubble Program (Freedman et al. 2012) as well as the WMAP (Hinshaw et al. 2013) mission¹.

The Millennium Simulation used only dark matter particles to which associated properties were later assigned. Dark matter halos were identified using a friends-of-friends algorithm as described in Springel et al. (2005). Galaxies were added to the simulation *post facto* using semi-analytic techniques (e.g. De

Lucia & Blaizot 2007; Guo et al. 2010, 2011, 2013). Galaxies are initially associated with individual dark matter halos, which may become subhalos of larger structures over time. The techniques of De Lucia & Blaizot (2007), for example, expanded on the methods of Croton et al. (2006) and incorporated the effects of rapid star formation and gas loss in galaxy mergers, changes in galaxy properties with varying stellar mass functions and stellar populations, and attenuation due to dust.

The simulation results were saved in a collection of 64 redshift “snapshots”. The identified dark matter halos were then assigned galaxy properties using the semi-analytic techniques discussed in the references above. The snapshots combined with the high resolution of the simulation and the sophisticated semi-analytic galaxy formation and evolution models, provide an excellent tool for studying the history of CGs over cosmic time. Throughout this paper, we adopt the De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) catalog of galaxies created through this semi-analytic approach.

1.2. Previous Work

A number of previous studies have utilized the Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs to investigate CGs. These studies have been limited to relatively low redshifts to facilitate comparison to observations, such as the well-known Hickson catalog (Hickson 1982; Hickson et al. 1992). By using a light cone in the Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs (Henriques et al. 2012), it has also been possible to create “mock” catalogs of CGs, which can be compared to observations and are subject to analogous limitations (e.g., interloping foreground or background galaxies, McConnachie et al. 2008; Díaz-Giménez & Mamon 2010; Díaz-Giménez & Zandivarez 2015; Farhang et al. 2017).

By comparing mock CGs in projection in the Millennium Simulation to observed Hickson Compact Groups (HCGs), McConnachie et al. (2008) found that $\sim 29\%$ of mock CGs identified from “images” alone are physically dense systems of three or more galaxies, and that the remaining projected CGs are results of chance alignments. Díaz-Giménez & Mamon (2010) found that the fractions of 3D dense groups among 2D compact groups depends on the semi-analytical model (SAM) used, the consideration of galaxy blending and the criterion used to define a dense group. Their Table 5 indicates that, for particle-based group definitions and their optimal definition of a dense group combining line-of-sight size and elongation, the fractions of compact groups selected in projection that are physically dense range from 20% for the De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) SAM, to 43% for the Bower et al. (2006) SAM. These fractions rise to over half and up to 3/4, respectively, for CGs that survive the velocity filter. The differences with the results from the McConnachie team arise from different definitions of what constitutes a physically dense group.

Finally, by comparing CGs observed in the 2MASS catalog to those in a mock light-cone from a Millennium Simulation galaxy catalog, Díaz-Giménez & Zandivarez (2015) found that only about a third of CGs are embedded in larger structures, i.e., the majority are truly isolated systems; yet Díaz-Giménez & Mamon (2010) find that only 11% of their velocity-filtered CGs are constituted by the Friends-of-Friends group in 3D, hence are isolated.

¹ In this paper all distances and masses are scaled to $h = 1$.

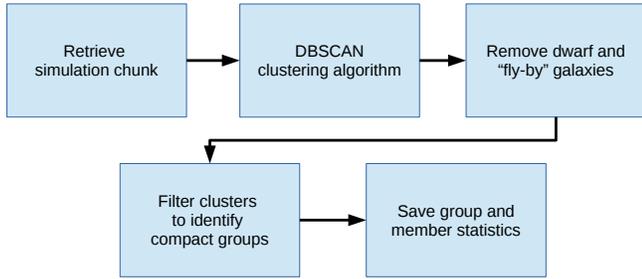


Figure 1. The algorithmic process developed for obtaining and analyzing Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs.

2. Identification of Compact Groups in the Millennium Simulation Galaxy Catalogs

Identifying CGs with robust criteria has presented a challenge to investigators in a number of studies, and the resulting group demographics are sensitive to these criteria (Geller & Postman e.g. 1983; Nolthenius & White e.g. 1987; see also Table 5 in Díaz-Giménez et al. 2012, Taverna et al. 2016 and references therein). Here we invoke an algorithm with a set of tunable parameters that allows us to investigate how the demographics of a compact group sample depend on individual parameters.

2.1. Algorithm

We developed an open-source, publicly available code² to identify and characterize CGs in Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs. This process is sub-divided into several simple algorithms with tunable parameters defining the properties of galaxy groups considered “compact”, where we use “compact” to refer to the 3D spatial separation. The general outline of our methodology (see also Figure 1) is as follows:

1. Download galaxy data from a chunk (snapshot at a given redshift) of the Millennium Simulation, utilizing the De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) catalog;
2. Use a tunable clustering algorithm to identify clusters and groups of galaxies in the simulation chunk;
3. Filter out identified group members which are dwarf or “fly-by” galaxies;
4. Measure statistics of the discovered galaxy groups;
5. Use tunable parameters to filter the identified galaxy groups to select only “compact groups”;
6. Save the statistics of identified compact groups and their galaxy members.

These algorithms contain several tunable parameters that can be used to adjust how CGs are selected from the Millennium Simulation galaxy data. These are briefly outlined here, and described in greater detail in the following sections:

- Neighborhood, NH – the neighborhood parameter of the DBSCAN algorithm (similar to the “linking length” parameter of friends-of-friends algorithms);
- Minimum number of members, N_{\min} – the minimum number of non-dwarf galaxy members an identified candidate group must have in order to be considered a compact group;
- Maximum shell density ratio, SR – the maximum allowable ratio of the virial mass³ density of galaxy subhalos in a shell surrounding a compact group to the virial mass density of galaxy subhalos within that compact group;
- Galaxy mass ratio, MR – the minimum allowable virial-mass ratio of the secondary+tertiary dark matter subhalos to the primary galaxy dark matter subhalos in a group;
- Critical velocity difference, $|\Delta v|$ – the velocity difference between a galaxy and the median velocity of a compact group for the galaxy to be considered a “fly-by” and not a member of the compact group;
- Dwarf limit – the stellar mass limit for a galaxy to be considered a dwarf galaxy and thus excluded from consideration.

2.2. Tunable Clustering Algorithm

To identify clusters and groups of galaxies, we used DBSCAN, which employs an intuitive, number density-based clustering approach (Ester et al. 1996). DBSCAN is very adept at handling arbitrary shapes as it does not depend on any density-smoothing processes. In clustering terminology, each galaxy constitutes a “node”. The algorithm works by searching the defined radial neighborhood of each node and counting the number of neighbors that are within this radius. If the neighborhood contains more than, or equal to, the minimum number of members, then it is flagged. This is repeated for each node/member until all nodes within the neighborhood have been searched, thus classifying the resulting flagged collection of nodes as a “cluster” (Birant & Kut 2006), which in our case is an identified compact group. The group’s center is defined as the median of the positions of the identified galaxy members. The group radius is then the greatest distance from this center to any of the member galaxies.

Thus, DBSCAN requires two initial parameters, *neighborhood* and *minimum number of members*. *Neighborhood* is the radius starting on each identified node and used to search for adjacent nodes. *Minimum number of members* specifies the required minimum number (density) of galaxies that are in the neighborhood of an identified node (a “central” galaxy), for the system to be considered a compact group.

One caveat about the DBSCAN algorithm is that it is only deterministic under certain conditions. The minimum number of members must be less than or equal to three. If this condition is met, which it is in this study, then the algorithm is fully deterministic.

² <https://github.com/cdw9bf/CompactGroup>

³ Virial mass is defined in De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) as the number of gravitationally bound dark matter particles present in the subhalo.

2.3. Properties of Hickson Compact Groups

We selected our CGs in 3-D space from the semi-analytical model outputs in a similar manner as Hickson selected his CGs in redshift space. The selection criteria Hickson used were based on compactness, relative luminosity, minimum number of members, and isolation. The particular parameters were chosen to identify dense systems of multiple galaxies while excluding substructure within galaxy clusters.

Using imaging alone, Hickson (1982) defined his compact groups with a membership of at least four galaxies (although subsequent studies relaxed this restriction to three members; Barton et al. 1996). The requirement for compactness was that the surface brightness averaged over the smallest circle enclosing the group galaxy centers be brighter than 26 mag arcsec⁻². The isolation criterion was that there should be no galaxies brighter than the faintest galaxy within 3 times the angular radius of the group. This aimed to exclude CGs that are associated with galaxy clusters or other regions whose “external” galaxies may strongly influence group galaxies. As these restrictions are subject to projection effects, the presence of foreground or background galaxies can influence the initial identification of CGs (by falsely including or excluding them, Mamon 1986; McConnachie et al. 2008; Brasseur et al. 2009; Díaz-Giménez & Mamon 2010).

In addition, the spectroscopic study of Hickson et al. (1992) introduced the further criterion that an “accordant” member galaxy should be within 1000 km s⁻¹ of the median group velocity. This criterion was meant to remove distant foreground and/or background galaxies that appear in projection along the line of sight.

2.4. Selection Criteria

Our selection criteria were motivated by those used for Hickson’s original catalog, modified to take full advantage of the three-dimensional information in the Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs produced by the semi-analytical model of De Lucia & Blaizot (2007).

We describe subsequently in this section our choices for the input parameter values to DBSCAN based on the known properties of HCGs that have been determined empirically since their identification. The NH parameter is the search radius around a galaxy, effectively determining the degree of group compactness, and is the initial parameter used by the DBSCAN algorithm to identify clustered galaxies. SR is a group isolation criterion, while MR is a criterion characterizing the dominance of the most massive galaxy in a group among the top-ranked group galaxies.

2.4.1. Neighborhood Parameter: NH

The groups that were identified as HCGs have a median 2-D galaxy-galaxy separation of 39 h^{-1} kpc (Hickson et al. 1992). This separation between galaxies is related to the compactness selection criterion, since CGs have to have a surface brightness of at least 26 mag arcsec⁻² (Hickson 1982). Note that the galaxy separation is projected from 3-D space down to 2-D space, and therefore underestimates the intrinsic separation of galaxies in a group. To find the 3-D correction factor, we performed a Monte Carlo simulation in which we constructed 10⁶ realizations of galaxies, randomly positioned in 3-D space. The

median distance between galaxies was measured in 2-D space for each realization. We find that the median 3-D distance between galaxies is roughly $2\pi/5$ larger than the projected 2-D distance. Based on the median projected distance and the multiplier, we estimate the median separation between HCG galaxies in 3-D space to be about 50 h^{-1} kpc. This directly relates to the neighborhood parameter (NH) in the DBSCAN algorithm. We adopt NH = 25, 50, and 75 h^{-1} kpc to bracket the empirical value.

2.4.2. Minimum number of members: N_{\min}

There is no consensus in the literature regarding the minimum number of member galaxies for a candidate compact group. The original Hickson (1982) criterion was $N_{\min} = 4$, and this was adopted by a number of works (e.g. McConnachie et al. 2008; Díaz-Giménez & Zandivarez 2015). On the other hand, several studies have included triplets ($N_{\min} = 3$, e.g. Barton et al. 1996; Tzanavaris et al. 2010; Lenkić et al. 2016). We choose to include triplets as a more general lower limit for the number of CG member galaxies. We do not vary N_{\min} , as this would be a separate full study, the computational demands of which are well beyond this paper. For reference, we note that among our selected candidate CGs, the fractions of systems that are triplets are 61.5% at $z \sim 2$, and 68% at $z = 0$.

2.4.3. Limit on Mass in Surrounding Shell: SR

In order to select against groups that might be associated with larger clusters, we invoke a maximum stellar mass-density requirement for a shell surrounding a compact group. Specifically, the ratio of the stellar mass density within the surrounding shell to the stellar mass density of the compact group, $SR \equiv \rho_{\text{shell}}/\rho_{\text{grp}}$, must be less than a threshold value. In other words, we compare the stellar mass density (as determined from the combined virial masses of the constituent galaxy subhalos) in a shell around an identified group to the stellar mass density of the group’s identified member galaxies. We choose threshold values of $\log(SR) = -3, -4$ and -5 .

Initially, we adopted a shell radial width that was a multiple of the group radius, aiming to mimic the Hickson (1982) isolation criterion, since that was dependent on a group’s angular radius. However, this led to many selected groups that were in fact located within galaxy clusters. The likely explanation for this is that some group radii were so small that multiplying them by a small factor did not adequately sample the local environment. Instead, we opted to use a fixed radial width based on 1) the distance beyond which quenching is not observed in dwarf galaxies (>1.5 Mpc, Geha et al. 2012), and 2) the current distance between the Milky Way and Andromeda Galaxies (~ 0.8 Mpc), which roughly defines the “core” of the Local Group. Based on these two empirical benchmarks, we adopt an intermediate shell radial width of 1 h^{-1} Mpc extending beyond the identified group radius.

Because we use the mass density at a fixed radius, we also exclude any group within 1 h^{-1} Mpc from the edges of the box in each chunk due to the fact that some volume of the sphere outside of the cube is inherently empty and skews the ratio towards a less dense environment.

2.4.4. Mass Ratio of Group Members: MR

In order to select against groups that consist of a single massive galaxy with small satellites, Hickson (1982) required that constituent galaxies have magnitudes within 3 magnitudes of the brightest member. This requirement also helps to mitigate against galaxies that only appear to be members of the group due to projection effects, but are in fact at very different distances. In the Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs all spatial relationships between galaxies are known, ensuring that projection effects do not contaminate the sample. Another advantage of the Millennium Simulation is that it provides masses of the galaxy subhalos from galaxy catalogs that allowed us to directly compare the masses instead of relying on observables such as apparent magnitude (De Lucia & Blaizot 2007). As a result, we are much less sensitive to the specific prescriptions for star formation within the semi-analytical modeling, and our results should be generalizable to other galaxy catalogs based on the Millennium Simulation.

We make the assumption that dominance in galaxy luminosity corresponds to dominance in galaxy and subhalo mass. In order to select against groups that consist of a single dominant galaxy with minor satellites, we required a minimum, threshold value for the mass ratio of the combined mass of the second and third most massive galaxies to that of the most massive galaxy, defined as $MR \equiv (M_{\text{secondary}} + M_{\text{tertiary}})/M_{\text{primary}}$. While this requirement still allows for “minor” galaxy companions, it excludes systems similar to the Milky Way and its satellites. The advantage of this method, as opposed to a hard cutoff in galaxy subhalo mass, is that it allows less luminous galaxies to be members of a compact group as long as they are sufficiently massive. We choose minimum threshold values of $MR = 0.20$, $MR = 0.10$ and $MR = 0.05$; a three-“magnitude” mass ratio would correspond to $MR = 0.06$.

2.4.5. Relative Velocity Restriction

To avoid identifying galaxies as members of a compact group that are not subject to a long-term dynamical interaction, we introduce a velocity filter. This filter eliminates any galaxies that have $|\Delta v| > 1000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ from the median group velocity, and is the velocity filter that was used by Hickson et al. (1992). We find that this only excludes 1.6% of potential CGs. We note that for observational studies, galaxies with peculiar velocities could appear to have accordant velocities, but still potentially not be physically associated with a group. Given that all spatial relationships are known for the galaxies in this work, group members are not subject to this caveat.

2.4.6. Exclusion of Dwarf Galaxies

In our analysis we impose a galaxy mass threshold to exclude galaxies with stellar masses that may be too low. Specifically, only galaxies that have masses greater than $5 \times 10^8 h^{-1} M_{\odot}$ are included. This corresponds to a median dark matter halo mass of $3.4 \times 10^{10} M_{\odot}$ or ~ 40 dark matter particles. Any “galaxies” with zero stellar mass are also removed from the analysis as they are artifacts of the De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) semi-analytical model. As shown in Figure 2, even for redshifts of $z \lesssim 0.5$, this results in the exclusion of $\sim 60\%$ of the mass systems identified in the Millennium Simulation galaxy catalog. At earlier cosmic times, the relative fraction of such “dwarf”

galaxies that are excluded due to this mass cut-off becomes increasingly important, reaching more than 80% at $z \gtrsim 5$.

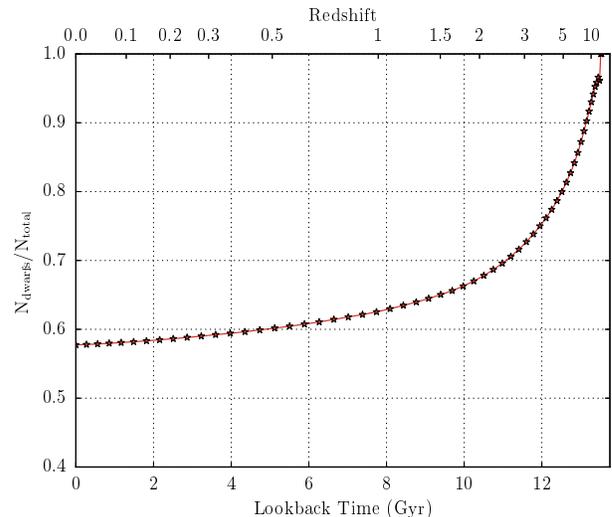


Figure 2. Evolution of the fraction of “dwarf” galaxies (stellar mass $< 5 \times 10^8 h^{-1} M_{\odot}$) identified in the De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) semi-analytical model of galaxy formation run on the Millennium Simulation. These systems are excluded from further analysis for the reasons discussed in § 2.4.6. The exclusion of dwarf galaxies results in a lower limit on the number of identified CGs that becomes increasingly more significant at higher redshift. For $z < 0.5$, the fraction of excluded galaxies based on the mass criterion is $\lesssim 60\%$. The fraction rises rapidly for $z > 1$. See § 2.4.6 for further discussion.

2.4.7. Significance of Selection Criteria

In order to both mitigate the effect of a set of rigid selection criteria and also investigate how compact group demographics may depend on these criteria, we vary NH, SR and MR over a range of values about a “default” set (see Table 1). We first test each non-default value by keeping all other criteria at their default values, and then also use combinations of most “lenient” and most “restrictive” parameter values, in order to constrain the most extreme CG populations. In the case of NH, lower values reduce the size of the search area for neighboring galaxies, so that more compact groups will be selected, and conversely for higher values. For very large values, galaxy clusters will start to be included. Our default value is $50 h^{-1} \text{ kpc}$ (see Section 2.4.1), and we also use the values 25 and $75 h^{-1} \text{ kpc}$.

Our default value for $\log(\text{SR})$ is -4 , and we also use -3 and -5 . For MR the default value is 0.10, and we also use 0.05 and 0.20.

3. Processing Algorithm

3.1. Optimization Strategy

To be able to analyze the full simulation in a time-efficient manner, we developed optimization strategies. The resulting time requirements are extreme: the full simulation catalog has over 26 million galaxies in its most populous snapshot. In order to make the algorithm more computationally efficient, we

divide a given snapshot into roughly equivalent overlapping boxes. Each box has a side length of $102 h^{-1}$ Mpc corresponding to about $1/125$ of the total simulation volume. Only the central $100 h^{-1}$ Mpc were sampled in each box, since, when conducting the density analysis, a buffer zone of $1 h^{-1}$ Mpc is needed at the edge. Without this buffer, the groups on the edge of the box would contain less volume in the spherical density analysis than required to determine a group’s isolation. This process of division allowed us to run the algorithm in an extensively parallelized fashion on as many cores as desired.

3.2. Tracking Galaxies Through the Simulation

To track the galaxies in any snapshot that are, or have ever been, in CGs, each galaxy had to be monitored throughout the simulation. The Millennium Simulation employs a standard naming convention for galaxies, and also provides the descendant ID. Once the groups are identified in the main algorithm, they can then be traced through the simulation forwards or backwards in time to determine the fraction of galaxies living in CGs at any given time step.

Starting from the beginning of the simulation (cosmic time = 0), galaxies and their descendants are placed into a list, which is then searched for repeated galaxies (e.g., when a galaxy merges with another one). This process is repeated for every galaxy in a given treeID. The latter is a grouping assigned by De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) to categorize related groups of galaxies, so that all galaxies in a given compact group will have the same treeID. By dividing the data set according to treeID, further extensive parallelization was achieved.

4. Results

In this section, we present the results of multiple trials using different parameter sets and describe how the adopted selection criteria affect compact group properties and demographics. Table 1 presents the grid of parameter sets and resulting group properties, as well as some key observational HCG properties for comparison.

4.1. Impact of Parameters on Group Properties

4.1.1. Mass Ratio of Group

The restriction on the mass ratio of secondary+tertiary to primary galaxies (MR) has a strong impact on the fraction of galaxies considered to be in CGs at $z \lesssim 5$. A mass ratio of $MR = 0.05$ is the most lenient value, and thus results in the largest fraction of galaxies in CGs. Conversely, $MR = 0.20$ is the most restrictive and reduces the relative number of galaxies considered to be in a compact group by nearly an order of magnitude for $z < 5$ (see Figure 3). All three values of MR result in the fraction of galaxies in CGs peaking between $z \sim 1.5 - 2.4$, with the more restrictive values of MR peaking at higher redshifts. The most liberal value of $MR = 0.05$ (with other parameters set to their default values, set E) results in a maximum fraction of galaxy membership in CGs of $\sim 1.3\%$.

4.1.2. Shell Density Ratio

Varying the shell density ratio (SR) selection criterion resulted in similar patterns to those seen with respect to changing MR. Despite varying SR by two orders of magnitude, the resulting impact on the fraction of galaxies in CGs is not as strong

as seen from only changing MR by a factor of four. However, for $z < 5$ different values of SR do strongly influence compact group selection (Figure 4). For the most restrictive (i.e., most isolated) value of $\log(SR) = -5$ (model D), the relative number of galaxies in CGs never reached values greater than $\sim 0.3\%$. The most liberal value of $\log(SR) = -3$, with other parameters at their default values (Model C), results in a peak fraction of galaxies in CGs of $\sim 0.83\%$ at $z = 1.9$.

4.1.3. Neighborhood

Variations in the neighborhood parameter (NH) also had a strong impact on the demographics of CGs identified in the simulation. As discussed in Section 4.3, a value of $NH = 50 h^{-1}$ kpc is found to produce groups that have similar median sizes to HCGs, while $NH = 25 h^{-1}$ kpc and $NH = 75 h^{-1}$ kpc result in median group sizes that are smaller and larger, respectively, than observed HCGs.

4.1.4. Most Lenient and Restrictive Parameter Sets

In addition to varying individual selection parameters while holding the rest constant at their “default” values, we also test combinations of the most lenient and most restrictive parameter values in order to constrain the most extreme populations of CGs. The most restrictive criteria used here are $\log(SR) = -5$, $MR = 0.20$, and $NH = 25 h^{-1}$ kpc. The most liberal values are $\log(SR) = -3$, $MR = 0.05$, and $NH = 75 h^{-1}$ kpc. As shown in Figure 6, even the most lenient set of criteria only result in the relative population of galaxies in CGs peaking at $\sim 3.1\%$ near a redshift of $z \sim 1.5$.

4.2. Total Fraction of Galaxies in Compact Groups

In addition to the relative number of galaxies that are in CGs at any given redshift, we can also determine the relative number of galaxies that are *currently* in or have *ever* been members of a compact group over cosmological time.

Here, we track the galaxies that are in a compact group at any given instant and continue to count them as part of the total number of galaxies as the groups evolve, even if they should no longer be considered to belong to a compact group due to mergers of constituent galaxies causing the group to have fewer than three members. By tracking the CGs’ descendants, we can determine the number and properties of galaxies in the present day that once were a part of a compact group in their evolutionary history.

As shown in the right panel of Figure 6, the maximal fraction of galaxies in the present day Universe that have ever been part of a CG exceeds 10 percent. Unlike the rest of the parameter sets, the most lenient and most restrictive ones lead to a particularly large variation in the final percentage. The final percentages range from 0.4% to 16.1% across the full parameter range.

As can be seen in the right panels of Figures 3 and 5, both of the MR and NH criteria have a moderate effect on the final fraction. On the other hand, the right panel of Figure 4 shows that the SR criteria have little effect on the final fraction of galaxies that have ever been in CGs.

Finally, we trace the evolution of $z = 2$ CGs down to $z = 0$. We find that the overwhelming majority (16071 out of 16797 CGs, or 96%) have merged into a single galaxy by $z = 0$. The

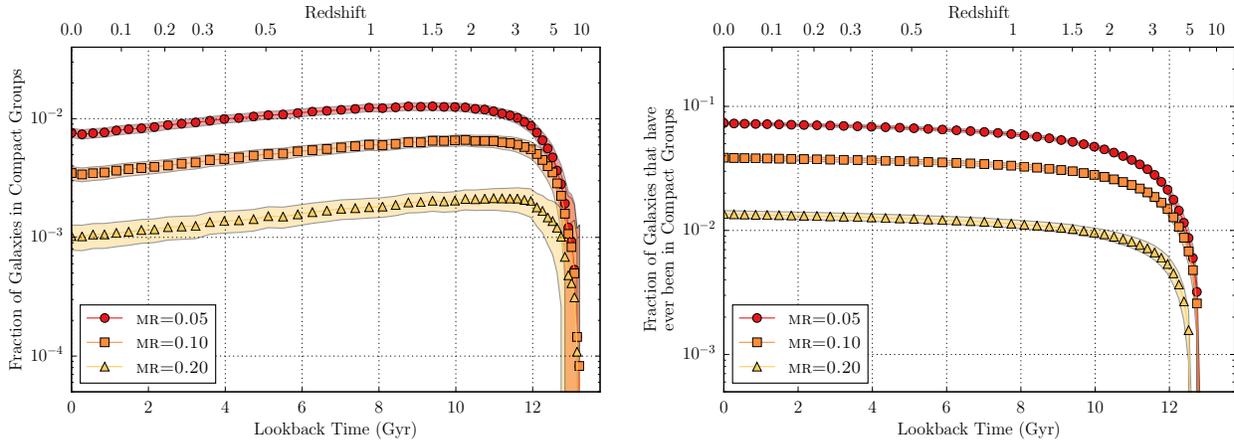


Figure 3. Fraction of galaxies (stellar mass greater than $5 \times 10^8 h^{-1} M_{\odot}$) living in compact groups (left) or that ever lived in one (right). Each analysis uses a neighborhood parameter $NH = 50 h^{-1}$ kpc and a maximum shell density ratio $\log_{10}(SR) = -4$. These curves are the results of varying the mass ratio ($MR = 0.05$, red circles; $MR = 0.10$, orange squares; $MR = 0.20$, yellow triangles). The width of the shaded region is 50 times the Poisson uncertainty. In all cases, the fractions of galaxies in compact groups peak at $z \sim 1.0$ – 2.4 , and drop off sharply at $z \sim 5$ because of our dwarf galaxy cutoff mass. As expected, the most restrictive value of $MR = 0.20$ (with top-ranked galaxies of more comparable masses) results in fewer compact groups at all redshifts.

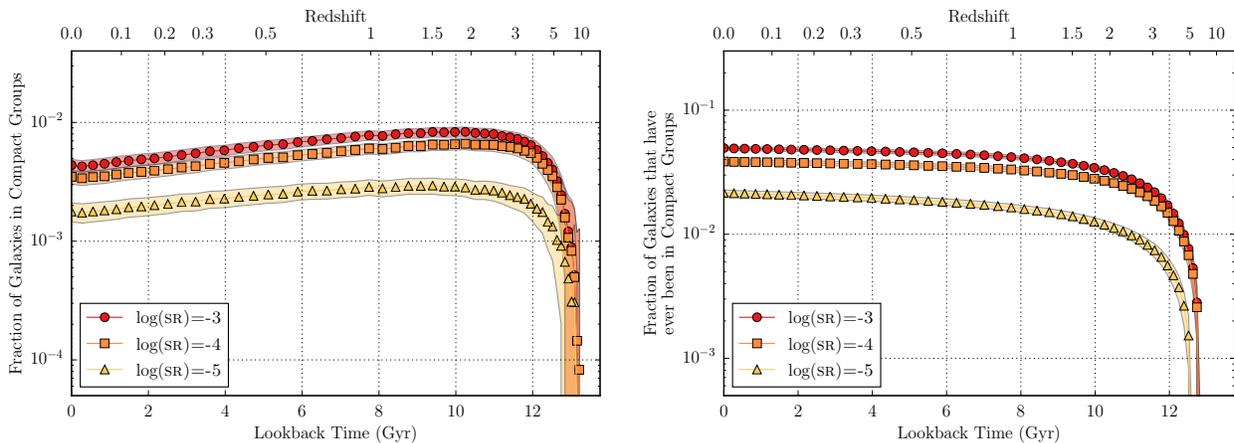


Figure 4. Same as Figure 3 but varying the maximum shell density ratio. Each analysis uses a neighborhood parameter $NH = 50 h^{-1}$ kpc and a minimum mass ratio $MR = 0.10$. These curves are the results of varying the maximum shell density ratio ($\log(SR) = -3$, red circles; $\log(SR) = -4$, orange squares; $\log(SR) = -5$, yellow triangles). The width of the shaded region is 50 times the Poisson uncertainty. Though the overall shapes of the curves are similar to those in Figure 3, varying the values of SR by two orders of magnitude did not produce as strong an effect as varying MR by a factor of 4. A restrictive SR value of -5 (indicating very isolated systems) led to the fewest CG galaxies at all redshifts.

distribution of these galaxies at $z = 0$ in color-magnitude space is shown in Figure 7. Taken at face value, this color-magnitude distribution is notably different from the general Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) sample presented by Blanton et al. (2005); the compact group descendants show a clump of red and luminous galaxies, and two distinct plumes that are not seen in the general SDSS population. However, we caution that there is no guarantee that the semi-analytic model used will in general reproduce the colors of the SDSS population. Perhaps not surprisingly, this distribution is more similar to that observed for galaxies in compact groups (Walker et al. 2013), but there remain clear differences – including the plume of compact group descendants across a range in $g - r$ color at an I -band magnitude

of ~ -23 . However, the caveat that applies to SDSS colors still applies here. Thus, these results tentatively and qualitatively suggest that the products of compact group evolution may have properties statistically distinct from the general galaxy population, which warrants an in-depth follow-up study.

Interestingly, we also identify a small minority of CGs (49 out of the 726 that have *not* merged by $z = 0$) that have at least one galaxy separated by 250 kpc, or more, from other group members. Such member galaxies are reminiscent of NGC 7320C, located in the northeast quadrant of Stephan’s Quintet (HCG 92) and likely to have passed through the group a few times $\sim 10^8$ years ago. It has been suggested that NGC 7320C is responsible for the tidal tail of NGC 7319 (Moles et al.

Table 1. Parameter Grid and Results

Parameter Set	NH (h^{-1} kpc)	log(SR)	MR	Median Galaxy Separation (h^{-1} kpc)	Median Group Radius (h^{-1} kpc)	Median $\sigma_{v,3D}$ (3-D) (km s^{-1})	Max. Pop.	z of Peak	N_{groups} at $z = 0$	n_{groups} at $z = 0$ ($10^{-5} h^3 \text{Mpc}^{-3}$)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
A	25	-4	0.10	19	17	99	0.18%	1.0	3854	3.1
B	75	-4	0.10	47	45	95	1.03%	1.9	16708	13.5
C	50	-3	0.10	37	34	102	0.83%	1.9	13940	11.3
D	50	-5	0.10	29	26	97	0.29%	1.5	5973	4.8
E	50	-4	0.05	37	34	118	1.27%	1.5	24134	19.5
F	50	-4	0.20	35	31	83	0.21%	2.4	3355	2.7
default	50	-4	0.10	37	33	99	0.66%	1.9	11222	9.1
restrictive	25	-5	0.20	18	17	82	0.05%	1.4	1032	0.8
lenient	75	-3	0.05	57	53	119	3.13%	1.5	53288	43.1
HCGs	39	35	331	9.5

Note. Column (1) gives the label of the observational or computational parameter set, characterized by the parameter values that were varied, as specified in columns (2), (3) and (4). Columns (2), (3), and (4) give, in order, the DBSCAN algorithm neighborhood radius; maximum mass-density ratio of galaxies in a shell surrounding a candidate group to the candidate group’s galaxies; and minimum mass-ratio of the second and third galaxies combined to the most massive galaxy in a candidate group. The remaining columns show results for HCGs or compact groups identified in the De Lucia & Blaizot (2007) catalogs produced from the Millennium Simulation, following the adoption of the selection criteria in columns (2) to (4). Column (5) gives the median galaxy-galaxy separation in a group, and column (6) the median group radius. The group radius is defined relative to the group center, taken to be the median of the positions of the identified galaxy members. The group radius is simply the greatest distance from this center to any of the member galaxies. Column (7) gives the median 3-D galaxy velocity dispersion, $\sigma_{v,3D} \equiv \sqrt{\sigma_{v,x}^2 + \sigma_{v,y}^2 + \sigma_{v,z}^2}$. The maximum fraction of galaxies that were in a compact group at the redshift given in column (9) is shown in column (8), while the redshift at which the number of compact groups was at its maximum is given in column (9). The number of compact groups at the present time is shown in column (10), and the volume number density of compact group galaxies at the present time in column (11).

1997). Such galaxies may thus be transient group members that nevertheless could have a significant effect on CG galaxy evolution.

4.3. Comparison to Hickson Compact Groups

We compare the properties of the CGs that we found in the De Lucia & Blaizot semi-analytical model output to those of the CGs found via the observational work of Hickson and collaborators. In particular, we compare the space densities, the median radii, and the median 3-D galaxy velocity dispersions of the groups, $\sigma_{v,3D} \equiv \sqrt{\sigma_{v,x}^2 + \sigma_{v,y}^2 + \sigma_{v,z}^2}$. The results are summarized in Table 1.

The number of CGs identified in Hickson’s catalog can be compared to the number of CGs identified in the Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs for specific parameter sets by making a few assumptions. While Hickson et al. (1992) identified a total of 92 groups⁴ with at least three accordant members within $z \leq 0.14$ over 67% of the sky, the median redshift of groups in the catalog is $z = 0.03$, which suggests the catalog becomes increasingly incomplete for larger values of z . Further, Díaz-Giménez & Mamon (2010) found that the velocity-filtered HCG catalog is only 8% complete even at $z = 0.03$. To this redshift, and over 67% of the sky, there are 47 detected HCGs with accordant velocities in Hickson et al. (1992). Therefore, the

expected number of CGs over 67% of the sky out to $z = 0.03$ is $N_{\text{HCG}} = 47/0.08 = 587.5$, if we assume the Hickson catalog is 8% complete out to this distance. On the other hand, the comoving volume to $z = 0.03$ is $V = (\Delta\Omega/3)(D_L/(1+z))^3$, where $D_L = 92.1 h^{-1}$ Mpc is the luminosity distance to this redshift, and $\Delta\Omega = 8\pi/3$ is the solid angle for a 67% sky coverage. This gives a completeness-corrected expected number density of HCGs to $z = 0.03$ of $n_{\text{HCG}} = 2.9 \times 10^{-4} h^3 \text{Mpc}^{-3}$.

The volume of a snapshot of the Millennium Simulation is $V_{\text{snap}} = (500 h^{-1} \text{Mpc})^3 = 1.25 \times 10^8 h^{-3} \text{Mpc}^3$, and there is one snapshot at $z = 0$. Hence, if the simulation has the same volume density of groups as HCGs, we expect a total number of identified groups in the simulation to be $N_{\text{sim}} = 36,250$ at $z = 0$. This number is between the number produced by set E and the “lenient” parameter set (see Table 1, Column (10)). Thus, if one assumes that the space density of HCGs up to $z = 0.03$ is representative, a more lenient set of parameters is preferred.

The median projected group separation in the Hickson et al. (1992) catalog is $R_{\text{HCG}} = 39 h^{-1}$ kpc. Thus, if the 3-D separation is $2\pi/5$ larger than the projected 2-D separation, then the expected 3-D HCG galaxy separation is $\sim 49 h^{-1}$ kpc. Several of the parameter sets produce median group radii that are within 20% of this value, including the “default”, C, D, E, and F parameter sets. All of these parameter sets share a common Neighborhood (NH) of $50 h^{-1}$ kpc, unlike all the rest of the parameter sets.

⁴ Among these, a further four groups may be questionable; see Díaz-Giménez et al. (2012), and references therein.

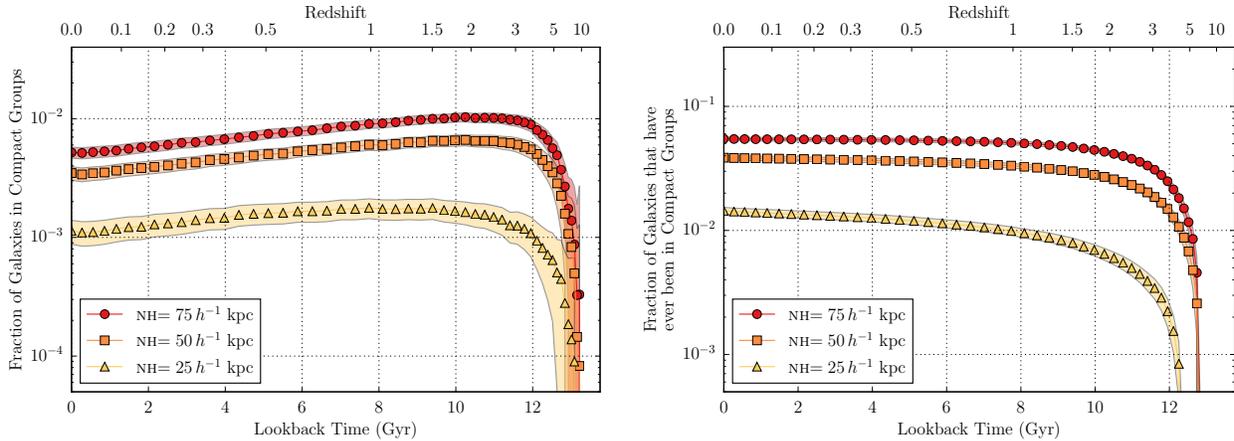


Figure 5. Same as Figure 3 but varying the neighborhood parameter. Each analysis uses a maximum shell density ratio $\log_{10}(\text{SR}) = -4$ and a minimum mass ratio $\text{MR} = 0.10$. These curves are the results of varying the neighborhood parameter ($\text{NH} = 75 h^{-1}$ kpc, red circles; $\text{NH} = 50 h^{-1}$ kpc, orange squares; $\text{NH} = 25 h^{-1}$ kpc, yellow triangles). The width of the shaded region is 50 times the Poisson uncertainty. The most restrictive NH value of $25 h^{-1}$ kpc requires identified systems to be denser.

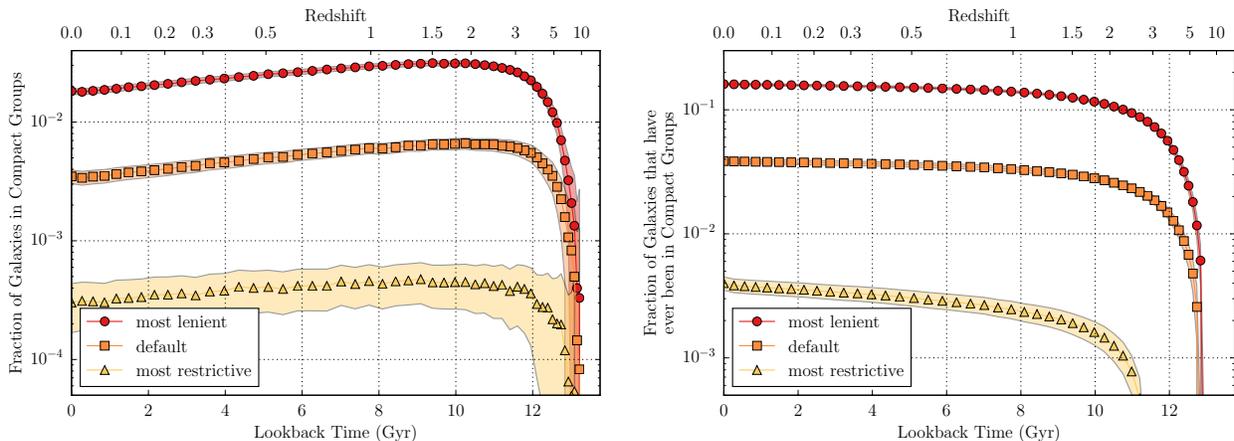


Figure 6. Same as Figure 3 but varying all three parameters. The “most lenient” curve (red circles) is generated using a neighborhood parameter $\text{NH} = 75 h^{-1}$ kpc, a maximum shell density ratio $\log_{10}(\text{SR}) = -3$, and a mass ratio $\text{MR} = 0.05$. The “default” curve (orange squares) with values chosen to best approximate the HCG sample is the result using our “default” values of $\text{NH} = 50 h^{-1}$ kpc, $\log_{10}(\text{SR}) = -4$, and $\text{MR} = 0.10$. The “most restrictive” curve (yellow triangles) is the result using $\text{NH} = 25 h^{-1}$ kpc, $\log_{10}(\text{SR}) = -5$, and $\text{MR} = 0.20$. The width of the shaded region is 50 times the Poisson uncertainty. The specific input criteria for the clustering algorithm are clearly important in determining the normalization of the curves, but their shapes in both panels are similar with compact group galaxy number peaking at $z \sim 1.7$.

While there are parameter sets that reasonably reproduce the observed space density and sizes of HCGs, the 3-D velocity dispersion presents an issue. Hickson et al. (1992) observed a median 1-D velocity dispersion of 200 km s^{-1} and, after considering the uncertainties in the individual velocities, inferred a 3-D dispersion of $\sigma_{v,3D,HCG} = 331 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. The parameter sets tested here, however, all produce significantly smaller 3-D velocity dispersions that are all $< 120 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, and typically $\lesssim 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. We note that for groups with only 3 members, on average, the 3-D velocity dispersion we obtain is 81 km s^{-1} , whereas for groups with 4 members or more, on average, the 3-D velocity dispersion is 159 km s^{-1} . This shows that, even if we had set $N_{\text{min}} = 4$, we would still not be able to reconcile our results with the HCG value of 331 km s^{-1} .

We have performed a series of further tests to assess whether any specific modifications in our approach might result in substantially different velocity dispersions, but were only able to obtain negligible changes. Specifically, we compared results from DBscan both including and excluding dwarf galaxies. We also computed 3D velocity dispersions using the biased dispersion, unbiased dispersion, and gapper techniques, resulting in median velocity dispersions at $z = 0$ of $\sim 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, $\sim 125 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, and $\sim 150 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, respectively, which fall well short of the value observed for HCGs.

We postulate that this disagreement may be due to the inherent differences between selecting observed groups based on 2-D spatial projections as opposed to actual 3-D information available in the simulations. One hypothesis is that this key dif-

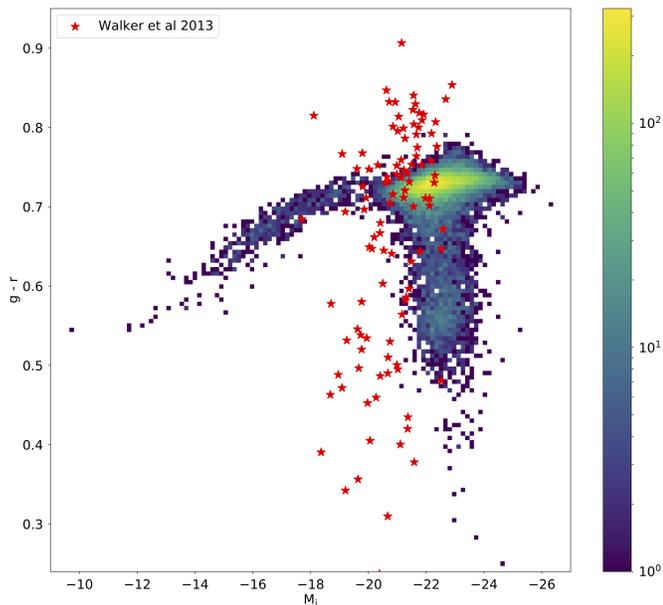


Figure 7. Color-magnitude diagram of Millennium catalog galaxies at $z \sim 2$ that were in compact groups at $z \sim 0$. Walker et al. (2013) CG galaxies are overplotted as red stars.

ference has its origin in the more restrictive selection criteria in 3-D space, resulting in more tightly bound groups than the ones in the Hickson et al. (1992) catalog.

5. Discussion

From the parameter sets used here to identify CGs, it is clear that the precise definition of CGs can have a significant impact on the resulting demographics. Nevertheless, the different parameter sets do result in some broad similarities with respect to compact group populations over cosmic time. For example, all of the parameter sets tested here produce a rapid rise in the population of CGs up to a redshift of $z \sim 4 - 5$, after which the different populations reach peaks at $z \sim 1 - 3$ and then slowly decline.

It is noteworthy that the two parameter sets that best reproduce the properties of HCGs at redshifts of $z < 0.03$ (“default” and C) exhibit the peak in their populations at redshifts of $z = 1.9$, which mirrors the peaks in both the cosmic star formation rate (e.g., Madau & Dickinson 2014) and the galaxy merger rate histories (e.g., Bertone & Conselice 2009). Even during this “peak” epoch of CGs, according to the results for these parameter sets, only up to $\sim 1\%$ of non-dwarf galaxies reside in CGs. For these same parameter sets, only 4-5% of non-dwarf galaxies have been members of CGs at some point over cosmological time.

Despite identifying parameter sets that reproduce the sizes and population of HCGs at $z < 0.03$, we were not able to reproduce the median 3-D velocity dispersion of HCGs. The groups identified in the simulation have median 3-D velocity dispersion of $\sigma_{v,3D} \lesssim 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, while HCGs have median 3-D dispersion of $\sigma_{v,3D,HCG} \sim 331 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. For galaxies with $N_{\min} = 4$,

Díaz-Giménez et al. (2012) found a higher median 1D velocity dispersion of $\sim 248 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ by means of mock redshift catalogs, which translates to $\sigma_{v,3D,HCG} \sim 430 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, also higher than our median $\sim 159 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ for such CGs. We note that the value of $\sim 248 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ is very close to the reported value of ~ 262 and $\sim 237 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ for observed HCGs and 2MASS CGs, respectively, in Díaz-Giménez et al. (2012). This is particularly puzzling given that we adopted a relative velocity restriction of $v = \pm 1000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, identical to that of Hickson et al. (1992). We postulate that this discrepancy may be, in part, due to HCGs being identified based on their apparent projected spatial proximity, although this seems unlikely to account for a factor of ~ 3 between observed and simulated groups. However, the recent work of Tzanavaris et al. (2019) studying the 3D evolution of individual compact groups found in simulations suggests that the velocity fields may be highly non-isotropic, and so such a possibility warrants further study. Alternatively, the discrepancy between simulated and observed CG velocity dispersions might instead represent a real limitation of simulations of this nature to reproduce the observed properties of galaxy systems in the low-mass group range; a mass range for which the simulations were not tuned.

From the results presented here, it would appear that the compact group environment is not prevalent in cosmological history. Even with the most lenient parameter set tested here (which does not fully reproduce the properties of HCGs), only $\sim 16\%$ of non-dwarf galaxies have been members of a compact group at some point in their evolution (Figure 6). A major limitation of the Millennium Simulation is its mass resolution, and the resulting exclusion of dwarf galaxies in this analysis. Given that low-mass galaxies are the dominant population at all redshifts (e.g., Binggeli et al. 1988), this limitation is likely to have a significant impact on the statistics of CGs. The impact of excluding dwarf galaxies will be increasingly strong at higher redshifts where the relative population of dwarf galaxies approaches values of unity (see Figure 2).

6. Conclusions

We investigate the prevalence of the compact group environment over cosmological time using a Millennium Simulation galaxy catalog. The goals of this work are two-fold: first, to constrain the fraction of galaxies that have ever existed in this unusual environment, and second, to determine whether there is an “epoch” of CGs during cosmological history during which this environment was particularly common. To accomplish these goals we use a number of tunable parameters to identify CGs in the simulation. The key parameters are varied over a range that is centered on “default” values that best represent properties of Hickson CGs in the local Universe. The main conclusions are as follows:

1. Every set of parameters tested here produces a peak relative population of CGs between $z \sim 1 - 3$, while both of the parameter sets that best reproduce the properties of HCGs (“C” and “default” in Table 1) result in a peak relative population of CGs at $z \sim 1.9$.

2. The fraction of non-dwarf galaxies that are members of CGs at any redshift never exceeds $\sim 3.2\%$, even for the most lenient parameter set. The best-fit parameter sets result in peak relative fractions of $\lesssim 1\%$.

3. The fraction of non-dwarf galaxies that have *ever* been members of a compact group does not exceed $\sim 16\%$. The best-fit parameter sets indicate that this value is probably closer to $\sim 4\%$.

4. The exclusion of dwarf galaxies from this analysis could have a significant impact on the values presented here in the sense that the relative fractions are lower limits. Including dwarf galaxies becomes increasingly important at higher redshifts.

5. While the $z < 0.03$ number density and median size of our default set of CGs match those of HCGs, the 3-D velocity dispersions of CGs are about half the measured values of HCGs. This suggests that the CGs found in the Millennium Simulation galaxy catalogs are more tightly bound than observed HCGs.

We thank the referee, G. Mamon, for detailed input that improved the presentation in this paper. C.D.W. thanks the University of Virginia Small Research Grants for undergraduates for their support of this project. T.V.W. is supported by the NSF through the Grote Reber Fellowship Program administered by Associated Universities, Inc./National Radio Astronomy Observatory, the D.N. Batten Foundation Fellowship from the Jefferson Scholars Foundation, the Mars Foundation Fellowship from the Achievement Rewards for College Scientists Foundation, and the Virginia Space Grant Consortium. K.E.J. is grateful to the David and Lucile Packard Foundation for their generous support. S.C.G. thanks the Natural Science and Engineering Research Council of Canada and the Ontario Early Researcher Award Program for support. P.T. acknowledges support by NASA ADAP 14-ADAP14-0200 (PI Tzanavaris).

References

- Alatalo, K., Appleton, P. N., Lisenfeld, U., et al. 2015, *ApJ*, **812**, 117
 Amram, P., Mendes de Oliveira, C., Plana, H., et al. 2004, *ApJL*, **612**, L5
 Barton, E., Geller, M., Ramella, M., Marzke, R. O., & da Costa, L. N. 1996, *AJ*, **112**, 871
 Bertone, S., & Conselice, C. J. 2009, *MNRAS*, **396**, 2345
 Binggeli, B., Sandage, A., & Tammann, G. A. 1988, *ARA&A*, **26**, 509
 Birant, D., & Kut, A. 2006, Data and Knowledge Engineering, 60, 208.
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0169023X06000218>
 Bitsakis, T., Charmandaris, V., da Cunha, E., et al. 2011, *A&A*, **533**, A142
 Bitsakis, T., Charmandaris, V., Le Floch, E., et al. 2010, *A&A*, **517**, A75
 Blanton, M. R., Eisenstein, D., Hogg, D. W., Schlegel, D. J., & Brinkmann, J. 2005, *ApJ*, **629**, 143
 Bower, R. G., Benson, A. J., Malbon, R., et al. 2006, *MNRAS*, **370**, 645
 Brasseur, C. M., McConnachie, A. W., Ellison, S. L., & Patton, D. R. 2009, *MNRAS*, **392**, 1141
 Cluver, M. E., Appleton, P. N., Ogle, P., et al. 2013, *ApJ*, **765**, 93
 Coenda, V., Muriel, H., & Martínez, H. J. 2012, *A&A*, **543**, A119
 —. 2015, *A&A*, **573**, A96
 Croton, D. J., Springel, V., White, S. D. M., et al. 2006, *MNRAS*, **365**, 11
 De Lucia, G., & Blaizot, J. 2007, *MNRAS*, **375**, 2
 Deng, X.-F., He, J.-Z., Jiang, P., et al. 2007, *Astrophysics*, **50**, 18
 Díaz-Giménez, E., & Mamon, G. A. 2010, *MNRAS*, **409**, 1227
 Díaz-Giménez, E., Mamon, G. A., Pacheco, M., Mendes de Oliveira, C., & Alonso, M. V. 2012, *MNRAS*, **426**, 296
 Díaz-Giménez, E., & Zandivarez, A. 2015, *A&A*, **578**, A61
 Ester, M., Kriegel, H., Sander, J., & Xu, X. 1996, KDD-96 Proceedings, 226.
<https://www.aaai.org/Papers/KDD/1996/KDD96-037.pdf>
 Farhang, A., Khosroshahi, H. G., Mamon, G. A., Dariush, A. A., & Raouf, M. 2017, *ApJ*, **840**, 58
 Freedman, W. L., Madore, B. F., Scowcroft, V., et al. 2012, *ApJ*, **758**, 24
 Geha, M., Blanton, M. R., Yan, R., & Tinker, J. L. 2012, *ApJ*, **757**, 85
 Geller, M. J., & Postman, M. 1983, *ApJ*, **274**, 31
 Guo, Q., White, S., Li, C., & Boylan-Kolchin, M. 2010, *MNRAS*, **404**, 1111
 Guo, Q., White, S., Boylan-Kolchin, M., et al. 2011, *MNRAS*, **413**, 101
 —. 2013, *MNRAS*, **435**, 897
 Henriques, B. M. B., White, S. D. M., Lemson, G., et al. 2012, *MNRAS*, **421**, 2904
 Hickson, P. 1982, *ApJ*, **255**, 382
 Hickson, P., Mendes de Oliveira, C., Huchra, J. P., & Palumbo, G. G. 1992, *ApJ*, **399**, 353
 Hinshaw, G., Larson, D., Komatsu, E., et al. 2013, *ApJS*, **208**, 19
 Johnson, K. E., Hibbard, J. E., Gallagher, S. C., et al. 2007, *AJ*, **134**, 1522
 Karachentsev, I. D. 2005, *AJ*, **129**, 178
 Lee, B. C., Allam, S. S., Tucker, D. L., et al. 2004, *AJ*, **127**, 1811
 Lemson, G., & Virgo Consortium, t. 2006, ArXiv Astrophysics e-prints, astro-ph/0608019
 Lenkić, L., Tzanavaris, P., Gallagher, S. C., et al. 2016, *MNRAS*, **459**, 2948
 Lisenfeld, U., Alatalo, K., Zucker, C., et al. 2017, *A&A*, **607**, A110
 Madau, P., & Dickinson, M. 2014, *ARA&A*, **52**, 415
 Mamon, G. A. 1986, *ApJ*, **307**, 426
 —. 1992, *ApJL*, **401**, L3
 Martínez, H. J., Coenda, V., & Muriel, H. 2013, *A&A*, **557**, A61
 McConnachie, A. W., Ellison, S. L., & Patton, D. R. 2008, *MNRAS*, **387**, 1281
 McConnachie, A. W., Patton, D. R., Ellison, S. L., & Simard, L. 2009, *MNRAS*, **395**, 255
 Mendes de Oliveira, C., Amram, P., Plana, H., & Balkowski, C. 2003, *AJ*, **126**, 2635
 Mendes de Oliveira, C., Coelho, P., González, J. J., & Barbuy, B. 2005, *AJ*, **130**, 55
 Mendes de Oliveira, C., Plana, H., Amram, P., Bolte, M., & Boulesteix, J. 1998, *ApJ*, **507**, 691
 Moles, M., Sulentic, J. W., & Márquez, I. 1997, *ApJL*, **485**, L69
 Mulchaey, J. S. 2000, *ARA&A*, **38**, 289
 Nolthenius, R., & White, S. D. M. 1987, *MNRAS*, **225**, 505
 Plana, H., Mendes de Oliveira, C., Amram, P., & Boulesteix, J. 1998, *AJ*, **116**, 2123
 Pompei, E., & Iovino, A. 2012, *A&A*, **539**, A106
 Proctor, R. N., Forbes, D. A., Hau, G. K. T., et al. 2004, *MNRAS*, **349**, 1381
 Springel, V., White, S. D. M., Jenkins, A., et al. 2005, *Nature*, **435**, 629
 Taverna, A., Díaz-Giménez, E., Zandivarez, A., Joray, F., & Kanagusuku, M. J. 2016, *MNRAS*, **461**, 1539
 Torres-Flores, S., Amram, P., Mendes de Oliveira, C., et al. 2014, *MNRAS*, **442**, 2188
 Torres-Flores, S., Mendes de Oliveira, C., Amram, P., et al. 2010, *A&A*, **521**, A59
 Torres-Flores, S., Mendes de Oliveira, C., de Mello, D. F., et al. 2009, *A&A*, **507**, 723
 Tzanavaris, P., Gallagher, S. C., Ali, S., et al. 2019, *ApJ* accepted
 Tzanavaris, P., Hornschemeier, A. E., Gallagher, S. C., et al. 2010, *ApJ*, **716**, 556
 Walker, L. M., Johnson, K. E., Gallagher, S. C., et al. 2012, *AJ*, **143**, 69
 —. 2010, *AJ*, **140**, 1254
 Walker, L. M., Butterfield, N., Johnson, K., et al. 2013, *ApJ*, **775**, 129
 Wetzell, A. R., Tinker, J. L., & Conroy, C. 2012, *MNRAS*, **424**, 232
 Zucker, C., Walker, L. M., Johnson, K., et al. 2016, *ApJ*, **821**, 113