Infrared Magnitude-Redshift Relations for Luminous Radio Galaxies

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ABSTRACT

Infrared magnitude-redshift relations (K-z relations) for the 3CR and 6C samples of radio galaxies are presented for a wide range of plausible cosmological models, including those with non-zero cosmological constant \( \Omega_\Lambda \). Variations in the galaxy formation redshift, metallicity and star formation history are also considered. The results of the modelling are displayed in terms of magnitude differences between the models and no-evolution tracks, illustrating the amount of K-band evolution necessary to account for the observational data.

Given a number of plausible assumptions, the results of these analyses suggest that: (i) cosmologies which predict \( T_0/H_0 \gtrsim 1 \) can be excluded; (ii) the star formation redshift should lie in the redshift interval \( 5 \leq z_f \leq 20 \), values towards the lower end of the range being preferred in cosmologies with larger values of \( T_0/H_0 \); (iii) the Einstein-de Sitter model (\( \Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0 \)) provides a reasonable fit to the data; (iv) models with finite values of \( \Omega_\Lambda \) can provide good agreement with the observations only if appropriate adjustments of other parameters such as the galaxy metallicities and star-formation histories are made. Without such modifications, even after accounting for stellar evolution, the high redshift radio galaxies are more luminous (that is, more massive) than those nearby in models with finite \( \Omega_\Lambda \), including the favoured model with \( \Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7 \). For cosmological models with larger values of \( T_0/H_0 \), the conclusions are the same regardless of whether any adjustments are made or not. The implications of these results for cosmology and models of galaxy formation are discussed.

Key words: galaxies – active galaxies – radio galaxies – galaxy evolution – cosmological parameters.

1 INTRODUCTION

The models used to account for the infrared magnitude-redshift relation of luminous radio galaxies are sensitive to the assumptions made concerning the evolution of their stellar content, as well as the choice of cosmological model. Galaxies at a particular redshift are observed at different cosmic epochs in different cosmological models and so their predicted spectra at a given redshift can vary quite dramatically. Accurate modelling of the evolution of galaxy spectra with cosmic time is required if the infrared K magnitude-redshift relation is to be used to constrain the range of acceptable world models. In this paper the spectral evolution of galaxies is modelled for different plausible cosmological models using the most recent spectral synthesis codes of Bruzual and Charlot (2001), GISSEL2000, and these results compared with the observational data. Even for the simplest cases, numerous cosmological and evolutionary effects need to be taken into account and it is often not intuitively obvious how changes in the assumptions made change the predicted relations – one of the objectives of this paper is to provide these insights. Although our prime concern is the K-z relation for radio galaxies, the considerations of this paper are relevant to all such cosmological studies.

The radio galaxies associated with the most powerful extragalactic radio sources seem to form a remarkably uniform class of galaxy out to large redshifts. Following the early work of Lilly and Longair (1984), Best et al. (1998) carried out a much more detailed analysis of the photometric properties of a complete sample of 3CR radio galaxies, the brightest radio galaxies in the northern sky selected at 178 MHz (Laing et al. 1983). They modelled the K-z relation for world models with \( \Omega_0 = 0 \) and \( \Omega_0 = 1 \), in both cases as-
The observational data used in this analysis consist of infrared K magnitudes for 72 3CR galaxies in the redshift interval 0 < z < 1.8 (Best et al. 1998), and 57 6C galaxies in the range 0 < z < 3.4 (Eales et al. 1996, 1997). The 3CR galaxies comprise a complete sample of radio sources with flux densities $S_{178}$10.9 Jy at 178 MHz, with a mean flux density of about 15 Jy; the 6C sample is complete in the flux density interval $2.2 \leq S_{151} \leq 4.4$ Jy at 151 MHz, with an equivalent mean flux density at 178 MHz of about 2.6 Jy. The 3CR K magnitudes were obtained for $z < 0.6$ from observations with the IRCAM3 array on the UK Infrared Telescope (Best et al. 1997), and for $z < 0.6$ from the photometry of Lilly & Longair (1984). The 6C data points were mostly derived from IRCAM observations, but also from colour corrected K′ observations with the redeye camera of the Canada-France-Hawaii Telescope (Eales et al. 1997).

Various factors had to be included to create a self-consistent set of K magnitudes. Firstly, aperture corrections were made, reducing the magnitudes to a standard circular aperture of metric diameter 63.9 kpc. These aperture corrections are dependent on the cosmological model, due to differences in the angular diameter versus redshift relation; however, the changes from the standard $\Omega_0 = 1$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$ model are generally small, $\lesssim 0.1$ mag, and so the data were converted to 63.9 kpc in the $\Omega_0 = 1$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$ model, and the model–to–model variations were included in the predicted model tracks.

The 63.9 kpc aperture was chosen since this had been adopted for the 6C observations wherever possible. In cases where there was a nearby companion galaxy, or other problems prevented the use of the full aperture, magnitudes for the 6C galaxies were determined for smaller apertures and aperture corrections applied by Eales et al. (1997); for galaxies at redshifts $z < 0.6$ they assumed that the radio galaxies follow an elliptical galaxy growth curve (Sandage 1972), and at redshifts $z > 0.6$ they assumed that the growth curve for the luminosity $L$ of the galaxy was given by $L(< r) \propto r^{0.35}$. The K–magnitudes of the 3CR galaxies were originally determined within a 9 arcsec diameter aperture. At large redshifts, this is almost equivalent to 63.9 kpc, and so the aperture corrections were small. Larger aperture corrections were necessary at low redshifts since the 9 arcsec aperture included only the central regions of the galaxy (Lilly & Longair 1984). A de Vaucouleurs profile for giant ellipticals was used to correct these magnitudes to the standard diameter, since the analysis of Best et al. (1998) showed that this is a good representation of the variation of the K surface brightness with radius. It is also consistent with the radial optical light profile found for low redshift radio galaxies by Lilly, McLean and Longair (1984).

The resulting K–z relation for 3CR and 6C galaxies, represented by open boxes and crosses respectively, is shown in Fig. 1. New versions of the predicted K–z relations are shown for an $\Omega_0 = 1$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$ world model. These involve the use of the most recent set of spectral synthesis codes (gissel2000), for which a Scalo Initial Mass Function was adopted, with upper and lower mass cut-offs of 100$M_\odot$ and 0.1$M_\odot$ respectively; solar metallicity was assumed. In addition, improved K-band transmission data for the K-band filter of UKIRT were used. Details of these procedures are discussed in Section 3.2. The differences as compared with the analysis carried out by Best et al. (1998) are very small, and so their conclusions for the $\Omega_0 = 0$ and $\Omega_\Lambda = 1$ models are unchanged. In particular, the $\Omega_0 = 1$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$ model with passive evolution of the stellar content of the galaxies provides a satisfactory fit to the observations and will be used as a fiducial model in the new computations.

2 THE K–Z RELATION FOR LUMINOUS RADIO GALAXIES

2.1 The Revised K–z Diagram

The observational data used in this analysis consist of infrared K magnitudes for 72 3CR galaxies in the redshift interval 0 < z < 1.8 (Best et al. 1998), and 57 6C galaxies in the range 0 < z < 3.4 (Eales et al. 1996, 1997). The 3CR galaxies comprise a complete sample of radio sources with flux densities $S_{178}$10.9 Jy at 178 MHz, with a mean flux density of about 15 Jy; the 6C sample is complete in the flux density interval $2.2 \leq S_{151} \leq 4.4$ Jy at 151 MHz, with an equivalent mean flux density at 178 MHz of about 2.6 Jy. The 3CR K magnitudes were obtained for $z < 0.6$ from observations with the IRCAM3 array on the UK Infrared Telescope (Best et al. 1997), and for $z < 0.6$ from the photometry of Lilly & Longair (1984). The 6C data points were mostly derived from IRCAM observations, but also from colour corrected K′ observations with the redeye camera of the Canada-France-Hawaii Telescope (Eales et al. 1997).

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Figure 1. The revised K-z diagram for powerful radio galaxies for the world model with $\Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0$. The open squares represent 3CR galaxies and the crosses 6C galaxies. The solid curve corresponds to the predicted K-z relation for a non-evolving stellar population. The three other relations are for passively evolving galaxies in which the stellar population formed at a constant rate for an initial period of 1 Gyr. The three formation redshifts were: $z_f = 3$ – dot-dashed line; $z_f = 5$ – dashed line, and $z_f = 20$ – dotted line. The solid triangles show mean values of the K-magnitudes for both the 3CR and 6C data averaged in intervals of $0.1T_0$, where $T_0$ is the age of the world model, $T_0 = 2/3H_0$ for this case. The bars show the standard deviation of the distribution of magnitudes in each of these bins.

2.2 The 3CR, 6C and MRC Radio Galaxies

One of the intriguing features of the comparison of the 3CR and 6C data is that, although they are in excellent agreement at redshifts $z < 0.6$, there is a progressive shift in their mean magnitudes at greater redshifts, the mean K-magnitude of the 6C galaxies at $z > 1$ being about 0.6 magnitudes fainter on average than the 3CR galaxies (Eales et al. 1997). This can be seen in Fig. 1, where the boxes, representing 3CR galaxies, lie towards the low limit of the distribution of the crosses, 6C galaxies, at $z > 1$.

Given the quite large dispersion about the mean K-z relation, Bayesian statistics have been used to investigate the significance of this magnitude difference and how it evolves with redshift without making restrictive assumptions about the underlying distribution (see Figure 2). The results show clearly the mean difference between the two data sets of about 0.6 magnitudes at high redshift/early times and its decrease to zero at later times. The mean value of $\delta y(x)$ increases slightly at the lowest redshifts to about 0.15 magnitudes, but this increase is not significant. At high redshifts the difference in K-magnitudes between 3CR and 6C galaxies is significant at the 95% confidence limit.

This result for the 6C galaxies is mirrored by that of the still fainter 7C radio galaxies (Willott, priv comm). However, McCarthy (1999) and van Breugel (1998) have studied the K-z relation for radio galaxies in the MRC 1Jy sample, which contains sources with flux densities $S_{408} > 1$Jy at 408MHz ($\equiv S_{178} \sim 5.8$Jy) from the Molonglo reference catalogue (McCarthy et al 1996), and they find that the mean K-band magnitudes of the MRC radio galaxies to be only 0 to 0.2 magnitudes fainter than the 3CR, a much smaller difference than for the 6C sources. The $\sim 25\%$ spectroscopic incompleteness of this sample may introduce a bias in that it is more difficult to obtain redshifts for intrinsically fainter galaxies, but McCarthy argues that this bias is unlikely to be sufficiently great to alter the mean magnitude of the MRC galaxies by 0.6 magnitudes.

The important aspect of this discussion is whether or not there is a correlation between radio luminosity and K-absolute magnitude, as would be the case if it is accepted that there is a real difference between the K-z diagrams for the 3CR and 6C samples. For the purpose of the present analysis, we have assumed that the difference between the 6C and 3CR samples, being smaller than the scatter within either sample, can be ignored. Therefore, we have taken mean values and dispersions for the combined sample. These are indicated by the solid triangles and associated error bars in Fig. 1.

A literal interpretation of the K-z diagram shown in Fig. 1 suggests that to a good approximation the luminous radio galaxies belong to a single population of passively evolving galaxies of the same stellar mass. The galaxies also have the same characteristic radii of about 10 kpc over the entire range $0 < z < 1.5$ (Best et al. 1998, McLure & Dun-
whether it remains true that the luminous galaxies present on the K-z relation have the same stellar mass, and how different assumptions about the underlying cosmology and the evolution of the stellar populations change this conclusion.

3 MODELLING PROCEDURES

3.1 Cosmological Models

Because of the availability of the GISSEL codes of Bruzual and Charlot, the opportunity has been taken to consider a wider range of evolutionary histories of the star formation rate of radio galaxies and to couple this with an expanded range of cosmological models, in particular, those with non-zero values of the cosmological constant ($\Lambda$). Friedman world models with zero cosmological constant and $\Omega_0 = 0, 0.1, 0.3$ and 1.0 have been considered, as have a range of models with non-zero $\Omega_\Lambda$. The relation between cosmic time and redshift is:

$$t = \int_0^z \frac{dz}{H_0 (1+z)\Omega_0 (1+z)^3 + \Omega_\Lambda (1+z)^{3/2}}.$$  (1)

For the world models with flat geometries, $\Omega_0 + \Omega_\Lambda = 1$, corresponding to those favoured by recent analyses of the power spectrum of fluctuations in the Cosmic Microwave Background Radiation as observed in the Boomerang and Maxima experiments (e.g. Jaffe et al. 2000), there is a parametric solution:

$$t = \frac{2}{3H_0 \Omega_\Lambda^{1/2}} \ln \left( \frac{1 + \cos \theta}{\sin \theta} \right) \tan \theta = \left( \frac{\Omega_0}{\Omega_\Lambda} \right)^{1/2} (1 + z)^{3/2}.$$  (2)

Numerical integrations have been used for other models, and for determining the variation of co-moving radial distance coordinate with redshift. The models with non-zero $\Omega_\Lambda$ considered in this analysis are listed in Table 1. Two of these have flat geometries and the other two models have open geometries with low values of both $\Omega_0$ and $\Omega_\Lambda$. This range of models with finite values of $\Omega_\Lambda$ spans those which would be consistent with the results found in the Supernova Cosmology project (Perlmutter et al. 1999).

3.2 Galaxy Spectral Synthesis

The GISSEL codes of Bruzual and Charlot provide a means of modelling galaxy spectra through isochrone synthesis. The models used in the present analysis all include the passive evolution of the stellar populations of the galaxies. The standard model is taken to have solar metallicity, $Z = Z_\odot$, and the stellar population of the galaxy was formed in an initial uniform starburst with a duration of 1.0 Gyr. The GISSEL code enabled the spectral evolution of this model to be determined for ages up to 20 Gyr and this is shown in Fig. 3(a) at a number of ages which are equally spaced logarithmically in cosmic time. Generally, only the late stages of evolution of the starburst ($t \gg 10^9$ years) are of interest in this analysis. For one of the models, $\Omega_0 = 0.1$ and $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.9$, the present age of the Universe, $T_0$, is greater than 20 Gyr and evolution in this model was terminated at a low redshift limit of $z = 0.3$.

It is instructive to note that, in Fig. 3(a), at optical
Table 1. Parameters of the different cosmologies investigated in this paper. It is assumed that $H_0 = 50 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\Omega_0$</th>
<th>$\Omega_\Lambda$</th>
<th>Age at $R = 1$ $(T_0/H_0)$</th>
<th>$T_0$ (Gyr)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and infrared wavelengths the spectra are roughly equally spaced logarithmically in luminosity at ages greater than $10^6$ years, indicating that, at a given wavelength, the spectral energy decreases roughly as a power-law with cosmic time. As shown by Gunn (1978), Longair (1998) and others, this power-law behaviour can be understood in terms of the rate at which stars evolve from the main sequence onto the red giant branch, if the initial mass function is assumed to be of power-law form. Such simple arguments predict that the typical energy decreases roughly as a power-law with cosmic time. As shown by Gunn (1978), Longair (1998) and others, the evolution can be roughly described by $L \propto t^{-1.2}$, whereas at $2.2 \mu m$ the exponent decreases to about $-0.5$. Therefore, the simple approximation is not adequate for the present analysis. For essentially all our computations, only evolution at epochs greater than $10^7$ years is required. It can be seen however that at earlier times the K-band luminosity increases with age. This is associated with the evolution of stars onto the asymptotic giant branch. The stellar evolution models of Maeder and Megn (1989) and Girardi et al. (2000) show that, for stars with $M \geq 2M_\odot$, as the stellar mass decreases, the luminosity of the upper AGB stars increases and their temperature decreases. Thus, the simple monotonically decreasing spectral luminosity is only applicable for times greater than $10^8$ years when the turn-off mass drops below $2M_\odot$ and the AGB contribution becomes less important than evolution onto the red giant branch.

In previous analyses, it was assumed that the metallicity of the galaxies corresponded to solar values. The evidence of the Madau plot in its various incarnations (see, for example, Madau et al. 1998) and the analyses of the metallicities of the absorption line systems in distant quasars have suggested that the chemical abundances of the elements have evolved very significantly over the redshift interval $0 < z < 4$ (see, for example, Pettini et al. 1998). To understand the effects of metallicity upon the predicted K-z relation, models have been created for four different metallicities: $0.2Z_\odot$, $0.4Z_\odot$, $Z_\odot$, and $2.5Z_\odot$.

Different star formation histories have also been considered. These include a continuous exponentially decreasing star formation rate, with an e-folding time of 1 Gyr, and a simple delta-function starburst. Combined models could then be constructed involving multiple star formation events occurring at different cosmic times. For example, if the onset of radio source and quasar activity were contemporaneous with (or stimulated) an active starburst, the additional starburst component might affect the K-magnitude of the galaxy. To illustrate how such events could impact the K-z relation, model starbursts can be added to the underlying passive evolution of the majority old stellar population. Two model star bursts were considered. In the first, the starburst took place instantaneously, and was observed at times $10^6$, $10^7$ and $10^8$ years after that event; this spectral evolution is shown in Fig. 3(b). The intriguing aspect of these spectra is that the starburst is most luminous in the infrared wavelength after about $10^7$ years. After about this time the most massive stars complete their evolution on the main sequence and join the asymptotic giant branch. It is interesting that the time scale of $10^7$ years is of the same order as the typical age of the radio source events associated with the 3CR and 6C sources and so such a star burst could contribute to the K-luminosity of the galaxy. In the second example, the case of a constant star burst lasting $10^6$ years is considered, but observed at $10^6$, $10^7$ and $10^8$ years after the start of that event; these spectra are shown in Fig. 3(c). In this case, the star burst is expected to have a much smaller effect upon the K-luminosity of the galaxy. It can be seen that, after $10^6$ years, the starburst has the same spectrum as the first model, but with only one hundredth of the luminosity since only that fraction of the stars have formed by that time. On the other hand, after $10^7$ years, the starburst is more luminous than in the first model since there is a significant contribution of recently formed stars to the K-luminosity. In either case, it can be seen that starbursts observed between $10^7$ and $10^9$ years after the onset of the starburst can have a significant impact upon the K-luminosity of the galaxy. Models have been considered in which the mass fractions of newly formed stars range between 0.5% and 5.0% of the total stellar mass of the galaxy.

The resulting spectral energy distributions (SEDs) were then redshifted and convolved with the transmission function of the standard K-filter. These were then combined with the different world models to create K-z diagrams. A catalogue of the range of models considered is given in Tables 3 and 4.

4 RESULTS
4.1 Changing the Cosmological Model

It is simplest to illustrate the effects of changing the parameters of the cosmological models by subtracting the predicted K-z track for the chosen cosmology from the corresponding predictions of the $\Omega_0 = 1$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$ model: $\Delta K$ is defined as $K(\Omega_0 = 1) - K(\text{model})$ so that negative values of $\Delta K$ mean that a galaxy of a given absolute luminosity would be observed to have a fainter apparent magnitude. The results for the cosmologies listed in Table 1 are shown in Fig. 4 and tabulated in Table 2.

It is instructive to distinguish those contributions to $\Delta K$ due to the choice of cosmological model and those due to the evolving spectrum of the galaxy. The latter can be thought of as the K-correction including the effects of the
Figure 3. – Continued. (c) The spectral evolution of a uniform 10^8 year starburst observed at ages 10^6, 10^7 and 10^8 years, the spectrum at the latest time being the brightest over the full range of wavelength plotted. In all three figures, the spectra are normalised to the luminosity per unit solar mass of stars.

Figure 3. (a) Synthesised Spectral Energy Distributions for the standard passive evolution model, consisting of an initial uniform starburst of duration 10^8 years with solar metallicity, Z = Z☉. The predicted spectral energy distributions of the galaxy is displayed at eight different ages which are equally spaced logarithmically in cosmic time. The vertical lines show the regions of the spectrum corresponding to the rest wavelength of the observed K-band radiation at redshifts z = 3, 2, 1 and 0. (b) SEDs for the additional starbursts used in our alternative star formation histories, as described in section 3.2. These are instantaneous starbursts, observed at ages of 10^6, 10^7 and 10^8 years.

The evolution of the stellar population. Following the notation of Longair (1998), the flux density of the galaxy is given by

$$S_t(ν,0) = \frac{L[ν0(1 + z), t_i(z)]}{4\pi D^2_0(z)(1 + z)}$$

where i labels the choice of cosmological model and D_i(z) is a distance measure which is related to the standard luminosity distance D_0 by D_i = D_0(z)(1 + z). The luminosities of the modelled galaxies in the different cosmologies are normalised by varying their stellar mass, such that at zero redshift they have K-band luminosities L_{K(z=0)} matching the observed K-z relation. Therefore if $L'[ν, t]$ is the luminosity of the galaxy per solar mass,

$$L[ν0(1 + z), t_i(z)] = L'[ν0(1 + z), t_i(z)] \times \frac{L_{K(z=0)}}{L'[ν0, t_i(0)]}$$

The ratio of the flux densities in the ith model to that in the fiducial model, for the same observed flux density at small redshifts is given by

$$\frac{S_i(ν0, z)}{S_0(ν0, z)} = \frac{L'[ν0(1 + z), t_i(z)]}{L'[ν0, t_i(0)]} \times \frac{L'[ν0, t_i(0)]}{L'[ν0(1 + z), t_i(z)]} \times \frac{D^2_0(z)}{D^2_i(z)}$$

Thus, the magnitude difference associated with the choice of cosmological model is

$$\Delta K_Ω = 5 \log[D_Ω(z)/D_0(z)],$$

while that associated with observing different parts of the evolving spectral energy distribution at different cosmic times is

$$\Delta K_{ev} = 2.5 \log \left[ \frac{L'[ν0(1 + z), t_i(z)]}{L'[ν0, t_i(0)]} \times \frac{L'[ν0, t_i(0)]}{L'[ν0(1 + z), t_i(z)]} \right]$$

The total change in magnitude is given by $\Delta K = \Delta K_Ω + \Delta K_{ev}$. Table 2 shows these differences for the models listed in Table 1.

Fig. 4 shows that galaxies are expected to be fainter at large redshifts in all the models considered as compared with the model with $Ω_Ω = 1$, $Ω_Λ = 0$; this means that for the same observed K-magnitude, the galaxies would have to be intrinsically more luminous. There are several effects which contribute to this decrease. The most important of these is the fact that, for a given redshift, galaxies are observed at greater radial co-moving coordinate distances as compared with the model with $Ω_Ω = 1$, $Ω_Λ = 0$. In addition, the cosmic times at which the spectral energy distributions are observed are significantly different. What is important, however, are the relative epochs at which the galaxies are observed. It turns out that, in the passively evolving models, the relative changes in observed luminosity (ΔK_Ω) are significantly less than the effects of the cosmological model (ΔK_Ω). This can be understood from Table 2 which shows the ages and distance coordinates at which galaxies at different redshifts are observed in the different cosmologies listed.
in Table 1 assuming \( H_0 = 50 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \); included in this Table are the contributions of \( \Delta K_\Omega \), the total change in K-magnitude \( \Delta K \) and the difference between them \( \Delta K_{\text{ev}} \), which represents the contribution of the changing spectral energy distribution of the galaxies with cosmic epoch.

Table 2 demonstrates quantitatively the important point that, at all redshifts, the choice of cosmological model is always much more important than the evolution corrections within the context of passively evolving models for the stellar populations of the galaxies, so far as the differences from the fiducial model are concerned.

It is interesting that it is possible to reproduce quite accurately the results of the exact computations by interpolating the luminosity changes at the appropriate redshifted wavelength in the template spectra shown in Fig. 3(a). It is found that this approach generally produces results accurate to about 0.1 mag, which is normally accurate enough to draw useful conclusions. The value of this approach is that it enables the investigator to use Fig. 3(a) to work out quite precisely the effects of the K-corrections for any other world model with any given value of Hubble’s constant and for alternative assumptions relative to the template spectral evolution shown in Fig. 3(a).

Poggianti (1997) provides tables of K-corrections and evolutionary corrections for observations in a number of specific filters, assuming an \( \Omega_0 = 0.45 \) cosmology. We have compared these results with those of our two most similar cosmologies, i.e. \( \Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0 \) and \( \Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0 \). Despite a different set of spectral synthesis models, the evolutionary corrections for an elliptical galaxy formed with an e-folding time of 1 Gyr given by Poggianti are in good general agreement with our own, suggesting that the choice of stellar synthesis code does not have a large impact on the evolutionary corrections determined. The K-corrections given by Poggianti for their single cosmology in the K-band also agree well with our own results.

Considering first the range of models shown in Fig. 4, it is evident that only the passively evolving \( \Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0 \) model provides a reasonable fit to the data. The error bars shown in the figure represent the standard errors in the mean of the K-magnitude of the galaxies, within the given redshift intervals, and are less than the standard deviations shown in Fig. 1 by a factor of \( \sqrt{N} \), where \( N \sim 10 \rightarrow 20 \).

For illustrative purposes, a quantitative comparison between four of the models plotted in Fig. 4 is given in Table 3. These are the models with \( \Omega_0 = 1.0, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.0 \); \( \Omega_0 = 0.1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.0 \); \( \Omega_0 = 0.1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.3 \); and \( \Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7 \). In the first part of the table, the magnitude difference, \( \Delta K \), between the data points and the no-evolution tracks at redshifts \( z = 0.5, 1.0 \) and 2.0 are listed, and in the second the difference in \( \Delta K \) between the data points and the passive evolution models of Fig. 4 are shown. These data are also included as the first two entries in Table 4. The K-z relations have been normalised to the same K-magnitude at low redshifts 0, 1, 2 and 3. It is assumed that \( H_0 = 50 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \). The third line of each entry shows the contribution of the choice of cosmological model \( \Delta K_\Omega \) to \( \Delta K \). The fourth line shows the exact contribution of \( \Delta K_{\text{ev}} \) to \( \Delta K \). The fifth line shows the total value of \( \Delta K \) which is derived from integration over the band pass of the K-filter.
Because of these somewhat surprising conclusions, the impact of changing the assumptions made in the fiducial model in plausible ways has been analysed in more detail.

**4.2 Star Formation Epoch**

The epoch at which the stellar populations were formed was allowed to vary between redshifts of 2 and 100. The sense of the changes to the K-z relations are similar for all cosmological models. Fig. 5 shows the K-band magnitude differences of the models relative to the no-evolution track in the same cosmology for models with $\Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0$ and $\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$. The magnitude differences relative to the fiducial model are listed in Table 4 for $\Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0$. Results have not been tabulated for models with $\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$, as the magnitude differences within these models were not dissimilar to those in the Einstein–de Sitter cosmology. In Fig. 5, the values of $\Delta K$ are plotted against cosmic time as a fraction of $T_0$, where $T_0$ is the present age of the Universe listed in Table 1 for $H_0 = 50$ km $s^{-1}$ Mpc$^{-1}$.

In Fig. 5, it is assumed that the galaxies have solar metallicity. All models have been normalised to the same magnitude at the lowest redshifts, at which the mean K-z relation is well defined. The models diverge at earlier times. As expected, if the epoch of star formation is less than the reference value $z_f = 10$ the predicted tracks are more luminous at redshifts $z \sim 2 - 3$. The largest differences occur in the cases in which the star formation is assumed to begin at $z_f = 2$ and $3$, these being less than that at which radio galaxies are known to exist. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that, unless the epoch of star formation were as unreasonably low as $z_f = 2 - 3$, changing the epoch of star formation does not result in a particularly large change in $\Delta K$.

The reason for this can be understood from Fig. 3(a). By adopting 2.2 $\mu$m as the wavelength at which the magnitude-redshift relation is determined, even at redshift $z = 3$, the changes in the luminosity of the galaxies at a rest wavelength of 500 nm are quite small and change monotonically with time. Indeed, the difference between observing the starburst at ages 0.32 to 1.25 $\times$ 10$^9$ years amounts to less than a factor of three at 5000 Å in the rest frame. This behaviour contrasts dramatically with what would be expected if the redshift-magnitude relation were determined in, say, the R waveband. Then, Fig. 3(a) shows that the variations in luminosity at rest frame wavelengths of 1500 Å would be very sensitive to even small amounts of ongoing star formation. These calculations illustrate the considerable advantages of carrying out studies of the redshift magnitude relation in the K-waveband – the observations provide information more directly about the bulk star formation activity of the galaxies.

As expected, as $z_f$ increases the predicted K-z relations become fainter at large redshifts and there is little difference between the tracks in both models if $z_f$ is greater than 10. In the case of the model $\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$, the fit to the data can be improved considerably if the star formation redshift $z_f \sim 3 - 5$ is adopted. Values of $\Delta K$ for the examples given in Fig. 5(a) at redshifts of 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 are included in Table 4.
**4.3 The Value of Hubble’s Constant**

Intuitively, it would seem that the choice of Hubble’s constant would have a significant impact upon the form of the K-z relation since the cosmic time-scale is significantly different if, say, \(H_0\) were are large as 100 km s\(^{-1}\) Mpc\(^{-1}\). Then, all cosmic time-scales would be reduced by a factor of two, allowing much less time for the evolution of the stellar populations of the galaxies and also observing them at very much earlier times at large redshifts. These changes, as well as those for \(H_0 = 65\) km s\(^{-1}\) Mpc\(^{-1}\), are given in Table 4. In the cases of models with larger values for \(H_0\), an initial starburst of very short duration was adopted so that the galaxy is observed during the passive evolution phase; the tabulated values in Table 4 have included this change in star formation history.

It is noteworthy that changing the value of Hubble’s constant has a remarkably small effect upon the predicted evolutionary tracks. The reasons for this can be understood from inspection of Fig. 3(a). As was emphasised in Section 3.2, so long as the analysis is restricted to redshifts less than 3, the spectral evolution of the stellar energy distribution is monotonic with time and can be reasonably described by power-laws at different wavelengths from 0.5 to 2.2 \(\mu\)m. Thus, if the value of Hubble’s constant is changed, the stellar mass of the galaxies required to normalise the K-z relation at low redshift is changed, but the differences in the values of \(\Delta K_{\text{obs}}\) depend primarily upon the changing relative cosmic times observed at different redshifts. In general, these are quite small and so changing the value of \(H_0\) does not greatly change the evolutionary corrections. If the redshift magnitude relation were determined at rest-frame UV wavelengths, this would certainly not be the case.

**4.4 Varying the Metallicity of the Galaxies**

The metallicity of the galaxies can significantly influence their evolutionary tracks. Rather than attempting to adopt some arbitrary chemical history, the evolutionary codes have been run for metallicities of \(0.2Z_\odot\), \(0.4Z_\odot\), \(Z_\odot\) and \(2.5Z_\odot\). The results are displayed in Fig. 6 for the same two cosmologies discussed in Section 4.2 and for \(z_t = 10\). For the Einstein-de Sitter cosmology, these results are also tabulated in Table 4. All four K-z tracks are normalised to the same magnitude scale as the fiducial model, rather than to the same magnitude at the present epoch. This procedure has been adopted so that at all times the variations due to changes in metallicity are clearly displayed. The sense of the changes is that, the lower the metallicity, the more luminous the galaxy at early epochs. It is apparent from Fig. 6(b), that assuming a lower metallicity at large redshifts improves the fit of the \(\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7\) model as compared with the fiducial model.

The lowest metallicity track is initially the brightest (largest \(\Delta K\), and the \(2.5Z_\odot\) track the faintest, but the tracks cross over at low redshift. The greatest variation between the tracks occurs at early epochs and, as we have seen from Section 3.2, it is at these young ages that the galaxies undergo the greatest amount of evolution. The early evolution of the spectral energy distribution is highly sensitive to the metallicity of the galaxy because, for a star of a given mass, changing the metallicity leads to a change in the age at which it moves from the main sequence onto the AGB; for lower values of \(Z/Z_\odot\) the stars evolve more rapidly since there is less line blanketing and lower opacity. This has two consequences: firstly, the more rapid evolution means that lower metallicity stars were more luminous at early times; secondly, the stars were also shorter lived and at later times there are fewer stars present in the older galaxies, which

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cosmological Model</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>(\Delta K) from the no-evolution track at different redshifts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 1.0, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.0)</td>
<td>3CR Data</td>
<td>(0.597 \pm 0.140)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6C Data</td>
<td>(0.706 \pm 0.097)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 0.1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.0)</td>
<td>Combined Data</td>
<td>(0.646 \pm 0.089)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 0.1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.3)</td>
<td>Combined Data</td>
<td>(0.712 \pm 0.091)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7)</td>
<td>Combined Data</td>
<td>(0.789 \pm 0.091)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>(\Delta K) difference between model and observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 1.0, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.0) standard initial starburst</td>
<td>-0.177 \pm 0.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 0.1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.0) standard initial starburst</td>
<td>-0.303 \pm 0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 0.1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.3) standard initial starburst</td>
<td>-0.352 \pm 0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7) standard initial starburst</td>
<td>-0.420 \pm 0.091</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Changes in the K magnitudes, ΔK, relative to the standard passive evolution model in an Ω_0 = 1, Ω_Λ = 0 world model for the representative world models. Results are given for redshifts z = 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0. Positive values of ΔK, which is defined as K_0 − K_{model}, indicate that the new model results in a greater increase in infrared luminosity as compared with the standard passive evolution model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>ΔK from the observational data:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>z = 0.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standard Passive Evolution Model:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ω_0 = 1.0, Ω_Λ = 0, z_t = 10, Z = Z_⊙</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1Gyr starburst, H_0 = 50 km s^{-1} Mpc^{-1}.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change from standard passive evolution model</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔK difference from standard passive evolution model:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z = 0.5</td>
<td>z = 1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ω_0 = 0.1, Ω_Λ = 0.0</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ω_0 = 0.1, Ω_Λ = 0.3</td>
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<td>Ω_0 = 0.3, Ω_Λ = 0.7</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>(4.3)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H_0 = 50 km s^{-1} Mpc^{-1}</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H_0 = 65 km s^{-1} Mpc^{-1}</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z = 0.4 Z_⊙</td>
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<td>Z = 1.0 Z_⊙</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z = 2.5 Z_⊙</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instantaneous SFR</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1Gyr Constant rate</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential SFR</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra starburst, 2.5% mass, 10^6 years old</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra starburst, 2.5% mass, 10^7 years old</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra starburst, 2.5% mass, 10^8 years old</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra starburst, 10^7 years old, 0.5% mass</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra starburst, 10^7 years old, 1.0% mass</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra starburst, 10^7 years old, 2.5% mass</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra starburst, 10^7 years old, 5.0% mass</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore appear fainter than a higher metallicity galaxy of a similar age.

It is interesting that the divergence of the different metallicity tracks occurs when the Universe was roughly half its present age, corresponding to the redshift at which the K-z relations for the 3CR and 6C samples begin to diverge. It is just conceivable that such an effect could account for the difference between these samples, but it would require those 6C galaxies which are less luminous than the 3CR galaxies to have higher metallicities. There is no obvious reason why greater radio luminosity should be correlated with lower metallicity of the stellar populations of the radio galaxies.

The diagrams in Fig. 6 can be used to construct approximate evolving galaxy models in which the metallicities of the galaxies increase with cosmic epoch. Such evolution tracks can be found by changing from one locus to another as the metallicity increases. The range of models shown in Fig. 6 illustrates how such changes would alter the predicted K-z relations.

4.5 Star Formation History

The results so far have involved an initial starburst during which the star formation rate has been assumed to be constant. It is important to consider also models in which there is ongoing star formation, and in particular those in which the occurrence of a radio source event might be associated with a major star formation event in the host galaxy. This
The values of $\Delta K$ relative to the no-evolution model as a function of cosmic time, for galaxies with different assumed values of the redshifts, $z_f$, at which their stellar populations formed for (a) the critical model, $\Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0$ and (b) a flat model with $\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$. In both plots, upper solid line corresponds to $z_f = 2$, the upper dashed line to $z_f = 3$, the upper dot-dashed line to $z_f = 5$, the lower solid line to $z_f = 10$, the lower dashed line to $z_f = 20$ and lower dot-dashed line to $z_f = 100$. In both plots it is assumed that the stars are formed in a 1 Gyr starburst during which the star formation rate is constant. Solar metallicity is assumed. The mean values of the observed values of $\Delta K$ in equal cosmic time intervals of $0.1/T_0$ are plotted as in Fig. 1, with error bars corresponding to the standard error in the mean of the K-magnitudes of both sets of observational data.

The K-band luminosity of evolving galaxies arises from two stellar populations. Stars with mass $M \gtrsim 2M_\odot$ evolve beyond core and shell helium burning to become asymptotic giant stars; those with $M \lesssim 2M_\odot$ become red giant stars forming the old red giant branch seen, for example, in globular clusters. For the present study, we are mainly interested in the evolution of the overall stellar population of the galaxies over cosmic time-scales greater than $10^9$ years. This age corresponds to the main sequence lifetime of a star of mass $2M_\odot$. Therefore, at ages greater than $10^9$ years, the evolution is dominated by stars evolving onto the standard red giant branch and the arguments given in section 3.2 can account for the decreasing luminosity of the galaxy. On the other hand, if there are epochs of rapid star formation, the bulk of the near-infrared luminosity is associated with stars on the asymptotic giant branch. For the most luminous stars, evolution onto the asymptotic giant branch takes place after a few times $10^6$ years. Figure 3(b) shows dramatically the large increase in K-luminosity of an instantaneous starburst when it is about $10^7$ years old associated with the formation of AGB stars. On the other hand, if the starburst is of longer duration, say $10^8$ years as illustrated in figure 3(c), the effect is somewhat diluted by the continued formation of all types of massive stars.

Considering first variations in the long-term star formation history of the galaxy populations, Fig. 7 displays three different types of star formation history: (i) the standard 1-Gyr starburst, (ii) an instantaneous starburst of negligibly short duration, and (iii) a model in which the star formation rate decays exponentially with an e-folding time of $10^9$ years. There is very little difference between the three mod-
els, all three of which have been normalised to the same stellar mass at late cosmic times.

The brightest model (largest $\Delta K$) except at the very earliest times is the exponential star formation model, and the faintest the instantaneous burst model. These results are not surprising since, it is only the behaviour after $10^6$ years which is relevant to the K-z relation for $z \leq 3$. Once star formation ceases, the continued star formation of the exponential model, and sustained production of AGB stars (albeit in small numbers), is sufficient to make this model the brightest track at low redshift. The most evolved model, the instantaneous starburst, has the lowest luminosity at low redshift. These differences between the models are very small, as can be seen from the values given in Table 4.

Fig. 8 shows the standard model coupled with the SEDs of instantaneous starbursts at three different ages ($10^6$, $10^7$ and $10^8$ years old), the additional starburst accounting for $2.5\%$ of the total stellar mass of the galaxy. The model with the additional burst occurring the longest time before observations, $10^8$ years, gives the least change from the predictions of the underlying model. Similarly, the $10^6$ year old recent burst also results in only a slight difference at low redshift. In the first case, the additional young ($10^8$ years old) high mass stars have evolved beyond the AGB, and in the second case ($10^6$ years old) they have not yet had enough time for their evolution to reach that stage. Fig. 3 shows that the rest frame K-band flux of an evolved instantaneous burst at these ages is much closer to that for the underlying star formation model than the $10^7$ year old track. At high redshift, however, we need to consider a somewhat bluer rest-frame wavelength region. Whilst there is a small difference for the $10^6$ year old model, the $10^8$ year old recent burst is slightly brighter still, which is seen in Fig. 8. The model with the $10^7$ year old recent burst component shows the greatest change from the standard model, as expected from Fig. 3. The $\Delta K$ values for these models given in Table 4 are solely due to the additional recent burst component. The additional burst consistently brightens the K-z tracks at late times. The reason for the effect being most pronounced at small redshifts is that the luminosity of the starburst is assumed to be independent of redshift. Since the K-luminosity increases in roughly power-law fashion with increasing redshift, the luminosity of the starburst is soon swamped by the majority population of red giant branch stars. Fig. 9 displays the results for the same set of models as in Fig. 8, but the mass fraction of the additional starburst is varied rather than its age. The tracks in this figure involve an additional $10^7$ year starburst and four mass fractions.

If the mass of the starburst as a function of redshift remains constant, the overall shape of the K-z relation is flattened at late times and does not result in an improved fit to the observational data. Some scatter may be introduced into the K-z relation, because the radio galaxies are observed at a range of ages from $10^6$ to $10^8$ years. In order for starbursts to change significantly the shapes of the K-z relations, the additional starburst mass would need to change with redshift. This is quite possible, as there is more gas available in any merger-induced starburst at high redshift. The same would be true if the starburst were radio jet induced (e.g., Rees 1989), which provides a possible explanation of the alignment effect (McCarthy et al. 1987, Chambers et al. 1987). Figs. 8 and 9 can be used to estimate how sig-

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**Figure 7.** The values of $\Delta K$ as a function of cosmic time relative to the no-evolution model for the critical model, $\Omega_\theta = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0$, for galaxies modelled with different star formation histories. Dashed line: instantaneous starburst. Solid line: 1 Gyr starburst with constant star formation rate. Dot-Dashed line: Exponentially decaying starburst with $10^7$ year e-folding time-scale. Galaxies are modelled assuming solar metallicity, and $z_f = 10$. Symbols are as in Fig. 5(a).

**Figure 8.** Changing $\Delta K$ with age of the universe, for galaxies modelled with complex star formation histories with an additional starburst occurring a fixed time before the observations, as outlined in section 2.2. The plotted tracks represent the following models: solid line – no additional starburst, dashed line – additional starburst occurring $10^6$ years prior to the observations, dot-dashed line – starburst $10^7$ years old, dotted line – starburst $10^8$ years old. Galaxies are modelled with solar metallicity, and $z_f = 10$, in an Einstein-de Sitter universe. The extra starburst accounts for $2.5\%$ of the total stellar mass of the galaxy. Symbols are as in Fig. 5.
nificantly the K-band luminosity could have changed if the magnitude of the starburst were to vary with cosmic epoch. Just as in the case of evolving metallicity, so in the case of evolving starbursts, the evolutionary history can be estimated by moving from one track to another in Figs. 8 and 9. For example, in Fig. 9, if the early starbursts involved 5% of the galaxy mass, the evolutionary track would begin on the dotted line; if this subsequently decreased to 2.5% and 1%, the track would change to the dot-dashed and dashed lines respectively. A 5% starburst by mass is the absolute maximum allowable given the constraints of the observed ultraviolet luminosities for the 3CR radio galaxies at $z\sim 1$ (e.g. Best et al. 1998). In this extreme case the magnitude increase in K is at most about 0.5 magnitudes.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The above analyses of the K-z relations for a wide range of plausible cosmological models have established a number of useful general rules concerning the potential use of the luminosities of massive galaxies as standard candles. The value of carrying out these studies in the K-waveband at 2.2 $\mu$m for redshifts $z \leq 3$ is clearly illustrated by the synthesised spectral energy distributions shown in Fig. 3(a) in which it can be seen that the evolution of the dominant stellar populations can be predicted with some confidence. As has been discussed by previous authors, the dominant evolutionary trends are associated with the evolution of stars in the mass range $1 - 2 M_\odot$ from the main sequence onto the red giant branch. An equally important result is that, over this range of redshifts, the choice of cosmological model is much more important than the corrections associated the evolution of the stellar populations of the galaxies, as is vividly illustrated by the values in Table 2. Thus, provided standard galaxies can be identified over the redshift range $0 \leq z \leq 3$, there are good prospects for obtaining useful information about the choice of cosmological model.

The problem with this programme is the identification of such a class of standard galaxy, particularly in the light of the favoured picture of hierarchical clustering to account for the formation of structures such as galaxies and clusters of galaxies over the same redshift interval. The analysis of Best et al. (1998) showed that the 3CR radio galaxies seemed to form a population of galaxies of constant mass within the framework of the $\Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0$ world model, although they described a number of reasons why this was a somewhat surprising result. The present calculations have extended that analysis to a much wider range of cosmological models and considered in more detail the effects of the evolution of the stellar populations of the galaxies. The results shown in Fig. 4 and documented in Table 2 show that all the new models are a significantly poorer fit to the large redshift data. In particular, the principal cause of the poorer fits is the choice of cosmological model. Expressed in physical terms, in the critical $\Omega_0 = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0$ model, galaxies at a given redshift are observed at significantly smaller distance measures than in all the other models considered and so have the brightest K-magnitudes. In all the other models considered, a literal interpretation of the results would be that the radio galaxies at redshifts $z > 1$ have greater stellar masses than the radio galaxies nearby. The analysis has shown that this result is independent of the choice of Hubble’s constant.

It is of particular interest to find ways in which the favoured flat cosmological model with $\Omega_0 = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$ can be reconciled with the observational data. As the results in Table 4 indicate, to produce an improved fit to the observational data one or more of the following changes to the standard evolution picture must be introduced:

- A lower redshift of star formation, $3 < z_\text{f} < 4$, provides a much improved fit to the observed K-z relation for this cosmological model (Fig. 5b). A problem with this improved fit is that the galaxies would then be expected to be very much more luminous in optical wavebands with significant evidence for younger stellar populations, whilst the red colours of distant radio galaxies suggest a much larger luminosity-weighted stellar age (e.g. cf Dunlop et al., 1996). Further, the observation of well-formed galaxies which are powerful radio sources out to redshift $z = 5.19$ (van Breugel et al., 1999) indicates that at least some of these galaxies formed at higher redshifts.
- The metallicities of the galaxies may have been significantly less at redshifts $z \sim 2$ than they are at the present epoch. As shown in Fig. 6(b), decreasing the metallicity of the galaxy to only about 20% of the present cosmic value improves significantly the fit of the model to the observations.
- Starbursts associated with the radio source events can lead to a significant enhancement of the K-band luminosities of the galaxies, due to the rapid evolution of luminous massive stars onto the asymptotic giant branch. This could potentially improve the fit of the models in lambda cosmologies if associated starbursts brighten the distant galaxies, but not those at redshifts less than 1. This is quite plausible since such starbursts could be enhanced at high redshifts due to the extra gas available at these epochs for forming stars, either in a
galaxy merger or triggered by the radio jet; indeed additional blue luminosity is observed in powerful radio galaxies at high redshifts (the alignment effect). There is clearly much scope for arbitrarily adjusting the masses, timescales and cosmic evolution of the starbursts to improve the fit to the K-band data. However, the excess blue luminosity associated with the alignment effect requires only a few $10^9 M_\odot$ of newly formed stars (< 5% of the galaxy mass), even were it all to be associated with star formation activity (e.g. Dunlop et al. 1989; Best et al., 1998): this sets a strong constraint upon the luminosities and durations of the bursts.

The alternative approach is to accept that, even after accounting for stellar evolution, the radio galaxies at $z \geq 1$ may indeed be more luminous, that is, have a greater stellar mass, than those at small redshifts. This conclusion would mean that the low and high redshift radio galaxies would not form a single evolving population, and would be surprising in terms of hierarchical clustering scenarios according to which such massive galaxies at high redshift are extremely rare. Given the growing evidence that the distant radio galaxies belong to cluster environments, it may be plausible that they had undergone more mergers than the nearby radio galaxies, which are found in more rarified environments: this possibility could be tested by carrying out cross-correlation analyses of radio galaxies of different K-luminosities with field galaxies, although this becomes a demanding project for the radio galaxies at $z \geq 1$. The similar characteristic sizes of the 3CR radio galaxies at redshifts 1 and 0, however, sets constraints upon the intrinsic differences in luminosities which effectively rule out the most extreme cosmological models, those with $T_0/H_0 \gtrsim 1$.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by the Formation and Evolution of Galaxies network set up by the European Commission under contract ERB FMRX–CT96–086 of its TMR programme. KJI acknowledges the support of a PPARC research studentship. PNB would like to thank the Royal Society for generous financial support through its University Research Fellowship scheme.

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