A Measurement of the Millimeter Emission and the Sunyaev-Zel’dovich Effect Associated with Low-Frequency Radio Sources

Megan B. Gralla,1 Devin Crichton,1 Tobias A. Marriage,1 Wenli Mo,1,2 Paula Aguirre,3 Graeme E. Addison,4 V. Asboth,4 Nick Battaglia,5 James Bock,6,7 J. Richard Bond,8 Mark J. Devlin,9 Rolando Dünner,3 Amir Hajian,8 Mark Halpern,4 Matt Hilton,10,11 Adam D. Hinck,4 Renée A. Hlozek,12 Kevin M. Huffenberger,13 John P. Hughes,14 R. J. Ivison,15,16 Arthur Kosowsky,17 Yen-Ting Lin,18 Danica Marsden,19 Felipe Menanteau,20 Kavilan Moodley,10 Gustavo Morales,3 Michael D. Niemack,21 Seb Oliver,22 Lyman A. Page,23 Bruce Partridge,24 Erik D. Reese,6,25 Felipe Rojas,3 Neelima Sehgal,26 Jon Sievers,23 Cristóbal Sifón,27 David N. Spergel,12 Suzanne T. Staggs,23 Eric R. Switzer,8,28 Marco P. Viero,6 Edward J. Wollack,28 Michael B. Zemcov6,7

1 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Johns Hopkins University, 3400 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218
2 Dept. of Astronomy, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611
3 Instituto de Astrofísica, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Casilla 306, Santiago 22, Chile
4 Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of British Columbia, 6224 Agricultural Road, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z1, Canada
5 McWilliams Center for Cosmology, Wean Hall, Carnegie Mellon University, 5000 Forbes Ave., Pittsburgh PA 15213, USA
6 California Institute of Technology, 1200 East California Boulevard, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA
7 Jet Propulsion Laboratory, 4800 Oak Grove Drive, Pasadena, CA 91109, USA
8 Canadian Institute for Theoretical Astrophysics, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, M5S 3H8, Canada
9 Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Pennsylvania, 209 South 33rd Street, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA
10 Astrophysics and Cosmology Research Unit, School of Mathematics, Statistics & Computer Science, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, 4011, South Africa
11 Centre for Astronomy & Particle Theory, School of Physics & Astronomy, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, NG7 2RD, U.K
12 Department of Astrophysical Sciences, Peyton Hall, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA
13 Department of Physics, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida 32306
14 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, Piscataway, NJ 08854-8019, USA
15 UK Astronomy Technology Centre, Science and Technology Facilities Council, University of Edinburgh
16 Institute for Astronomy, University of Edinburgh, Royal Observatory, Blackford Hill, Edinburgh EH9 3HJ, UK
17 Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Edinburgh, Royal Observatory, Blackford Hill, Edinburgh EH9 3HJ, UK
18 Institute of Astronomy and Astrophysics, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan
19 Department of Physics, University of California Santa Barbara, CA 93106, USA
20 National Center for Supercomputing Applications, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1205 W. Clark St, Urbana IL, 61801
21 Department of Physics, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853
22 Astronomy Centre, Department of Physics & Astronomy, University of Sussex, Brighton BN1 9QH, UK
23 Joseph Henry Laboratories of Physics, Jadwin Hall, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA 08544
24 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Haverford College, Haverford, PA 19041, USA
25 Department of Physics, Astronomy, and Engineering, Moorpark College, 7075 Campus Rd., Moorpark, CA 93021
26 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY 11794-3800, USA
27 Leiden Observatory, Leiden University, P.O. Box 9513, NL-2300 RA Leiden, The Netherlands
28 NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD, 20771, USA

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ABSTRACT
We present a statistical analysis of the millimeter-wavelength properties of 1.4 GHz-selected sources and a detection of the Sunyaev-Zel’dovich effect associated with the halos that host them. The Atacama Cosmology Telescope (ACT) has conducted a survey at 148 GHz, 218 GHz and 277 GHz along the celestial equator. Using samples of radio sources selected at 1.4 GHz from the Faint Images of the Radio Sky at Twenty-Centimeters (FIRST) Survey and the National Radio Astronomy Observatory Very Large Array Sky Survey (NVSS), we measure the stacked 148, 218 and 277 GHz flux densities for sources with 1.4 GHz flux densities ranging from 5 to 200 mJy. At these flux densities, the radio source population is dominated by active galactic nuclei (AGN), with both steep and flat spectrum populations, which have combined radio-to-millimeter spectral indices ranging from 0.5 to 0.95, reflecting the prevalence of steep spectrum sources at high flux densities and the presence of flat spectrum sources at lower flux densities. The thermal Sunyaev-Zel’dovich (SZ) effect associated with the halos that host the AGN is detected at the 5σ level through its spectral signature. When we compare the SZ effect with weak lensing measurements of radio galaxies, we find that the relation between the two is consistent with that measured by Planck for local bright galaxies. We present a detection of the SZ effect in some of the lowest mass halos (average $M_{200} \sim 10^{13} M_{\odot} h^{-1}$) studied to date. This detection is particularly important in the context of galaxy evolution models, as it confirms that galaxies with radio AGN also typically support hot gaseous halos. With Herschel observations, we show that the SZ detection is not significantly contaminated by dusty galaxies or by dust associated with the AGN or galaxies hosting the AGN. We show that 5 mJy < $S_{1.4}$ < 200 mJy radio sources contribute $\ell (\ell + 1) C_\ell / (2\pi) = 0.37 \pm 0.03 \mu K^2$ to the angular power spectrum at $\ell = 3000$ at 148 GHz, after accounting for the SZ effect associated with their host halos.

Key words: galaxies: active – galaxies: statistics – galaxies: haloes – galaxies: clusters – radio continuum: galaxies.
derived from more massive halos (e.g., Sifón et al. 2013) reveals that the SZ effect in 1.4 GHz selected AGN should offset the non-thermal millimeter emission at 148 GHz by a significant (∼50%) fraction. The Planck Collaboration et al. (2012) recently reported a detection of the SZ effect of halos of similar mass that they selected via stellar mass. These observations suggest the feasibility of measuring the SZ effect from the halos that host radio-loud AGN with existing data sets. If the SZ effect can be separated from the synchrotron source spectral behavior, we can provide evidence of the existence of hot gas atmospheres in dark matter halos hosting galaxies with radio loud AGN.

At flux densities above 1 mJy, counts of 1.4 GHz radio sources are dominated by AGN that span a wide range in redshift, with median redshift ∼ 1 (Condon 1989). The synchrotron spectral behavior of radio sources is complex and varies significantly from source to source (e.g., de Zotti et al. 2010; Sadler et al. 2006; Sajina et al. 2011; Lin et al. 2009). Models describing radio source spectral behavior often characterize sources into two types: flat-spectrum (α ∼ 0, where α is defined such that S ∝ ν−α) and steep-spectrum (α ∼ 0.8). Optically thin synchrotron emission, usually associated with radio lobes, results in a steep spectrum, while optically thick emission, usually associated with compact cores, results in a flattened spectrum source (e.g., de Zotti et al. 2010). Using optical observations and radio data at multiple frequencies, the counts of 1.4 GHz sources have been successfully modeled with radio luminosity functions associated with these two populations (e.g., Condon 1984; Peacock 1985; Danese et al. 1987; de Zotti et al. 2005; Massardi et al. 2011), with the flat spectrum population emerging as faint sources at z = 1. These radio luminosity functions have been extrapolated, assuming a spectral index, to the millimeter regime where they have been used to predict the source population, especially for use in foreground models of CMB data (CMB; e.g., Toffolatti et al. 1998; de Zotti et al. 2005; Sehgal et al. 2010; Tucci et al. 2011). In addition to the synchrotron emission from the AGN, the AGN host galaxies can contain dusty star forming regions, as have been previously investigated from the AGN, the AGN host galaxies can contain dusty Tucci et al. 2011). In addition to the synchrotron emission, we can now directly test the spectral behavior of low-frequency sources from 1.4 GHz to 277 GHz and find a robust detection of the SZ effect in radio-loud AGN halos, particularly evident at 148 GHz.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the data from ACT, the 1.4 GHz radio source samples, the IR data, and additional 5 GHz radio survey data used. Section 3 presents the median SEDs for AGN and for SFGs from a relatively low redshift radio source sample constructed by Best & Heckman (2012) by matching radio sources with galaxies with spectroscopic measurements from SDSS, as well as the results of modeling different components of these SEDs. In Section 4 we extend this analysis to a larger sample of radio sources from Kimball & Ivezić (2008) that extends to higher redshift, albeit a sample that lacks optical counterpart identification, and split the sample into bins of 1.4 GHz flux density. Finally, we discuss and summarize our results and their implications for the SZ effect for the typical radio AGN halo and for the CMB power spectrum in Sections 5 and 6. Unless specified otherwise, we assume a flat ΛCDM cosmology with Ωm = 0.30, ΩΛ = 0.70. For the Hubble constant, we adopt the notation $H_0 = 70h_0$ km s$^{-1}$ Mpc$^{-1}$, and $E(z)$ describes the evolution of the Hubble parameter and is defined as $E(z) = \sqrt{1 + z^2} + \Omega_\Lambda$.  

2 DATA

2.1 ACT Data

ACT is a six-meter, off-axis Gregorian telescope in the Atacama Desert of Chile at an altitude of 5200 meters (Swetz et al. 2011). The location was chosen for the atmospheric transparency at millimeter wavelengths and the ability to observe both northern and southern celestial hemispheres. ACT had four observing seasons between 2007 and 2010 and surveyed both a southern celestial hemisphere region ($\delta = -53.5^\circ$) and an equatorial region. ACT observed simultaneously in three frequency bands centered on 148 GHz (2.0 mm), 218 GHz (1.4 mm) and 277 GHz (1.1 mm) with angular resolutions of 1.4′, 1.0′, and 0.9′, respectively. Each band had a dedicated array of 1024 transition edge sensors.
This paper uses the 2009-2010 148 GHz, 2009-2010 218 GHz and 2010 277 GHz equatorial observations. Prior to all other analyses described in this paper, the ACT data were matched-filtered (e.g., Tegmark & de Oliveira-Costa 1998) with the ACT beam (Hasselfield et al. 2013b, for more details see below in Section 2.1.1) in order to increase the signal to noise of compact sources. The filtering procedure is the same as described in Marsden et al. (2013). Each map for each season was calibrated separately (for uncertainties in overall calibration, see below in Section 2.1.1) and filtered with the beam appropriate for that season and band. The resulting calibrated, filtered maps were combined into a multi-season map via a weighted average, with the weights set for each pixel by the number of observations. The ACT sensitivity varies throughout the maps according to the depth of coverage. The typical rms noise level is 2.2, 3.3 and 6.5 mJy for 148, 218 and 277 GHz, respectively.

The ACT equatorial region contains detectable levels of Galactic cirrus emission. In order to check whether Galactic contamination affects our results, we applied the dust mask used in the analysis of the angular power spectrum of the ACT data (Das et al. 2013). This mask was generated using data from the Infrared Astronomical Satellite (IRAS) as processed by IRIS (Miville-Deschênes & Lagache 2005). Our results are not significantly affected when we mask the regions with strongest dust emission.

2.1.1 Calibration

The uncertainty on the absolute temperature calibration of the 148 GHz band to WMAP is 2% (at $l = 700$; Sievers et al. 2013; Hajian et al. 2011). The relative calibration between the 148 GHz and 218 GHz bands was done by cross-correlation (Das et al. 2013), and the resulting calibration uncertainty for the 218 GHz is 2.6%. Therefore the 218 GHz calibration error is correlated with the 148 GHz calibration error. Because the CMB survey maps for the 277 GHz array have not yet been calibrated to WMAP, the 277 GHz calibration is derived from Saturn and Uranus observations (Hasselfield et al. 2013b) and has a larger uncertainty of 7%, which is uncorrelated with the absolute calibration uncertainties of the 148 GHz and 218 GHz data. Additionally, errors in the assumed instrument beam and the map-making can propagate to uncertainty in the recovered ACT flux densities. In propagating these additional uncertainties, we follow the procedure used by Marsden et al. (2013) and arrive at additional uncertainties in 148, 218, and 277 GHz flux densities of 1.9%, 2.6%, and 13%, respectively. The conservative 277 GHz flux density uncertainty reflects that this work presents the first successful reduction of these data, and we expect that as the reduction process for these data further matures, future work will have less uncertainty on the 277 GHz flux density scale.

As discussed in Dünner et al. (2012), the ACT mapmaking pipeline recovers the flux densities of bright simulated sources to 1%. During the mapmaking procedure, bright sources are identified in a first-pass map and removed from the time-stream data before making the final map. However, faint sources do not have this two-step procedure applied to them, so in principle their flux density recovery could differ from that of the bright sources. We have tested the flux density recovery for faint sources by adding simulated sources to the data and putting them through the mapmaking procedures, and we find that the flux densities of faint (< 10 mJy) sources are also recovered to 1%.

Combining the effects of calibration, beam measurement, and map-making, the flux density uncertainties for the 148 GHz band and 218 GHz band are 3%, 5%, respectively, and the correlated component is 3%. The total error for the 277 GHz band is 15%, which is to a good approximation uncorrelated with flux density errors in the lower two ACT frequency bands. The full covariance is used when modeling flux density data in Sections 3 and 4.2.

2.2 Radio Source Samples

The FIRST survey mapped over 10,000 deg$^2$ at 1.4 GHz (20 cm) from 1993 to 2004 using the VLA with imaging resolution of 5′′ (Becker, White & Helfand 1995; White et al. 1997). The resulting source catalog has astrometric accuracy of 1′′. The overall limiting flux density threshold ranges from 0.75 mJy to 1 mJy in its equatorial region. In addition to FIRST, the National Radio Astronomy Observatory (NRAO) VLA Sky Survey (NVSS; Condon 1998) was conducted at 1.4 GHz and covers the full sky above $-40^\circ$ declination to a depth of ~ 2.5 mJy.

Best & Heckman (2012) construct a sample of radio sources with spectroscopic redshifts by matching galaxies from the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) with NVSS and FIRST. The catalog has a limiting radio flux density of 5 mJy. The sample is split into star-forming galaxies and AGN according to radio and optical spectroscopic properties: the 4000Å break strengths and the ratio of radio luminosity to stellar mass, the ratio of radio to emission line luminosity, and a standard ‘BPT’ emission-line diagnostic (Baldwin, Phillips & Terlevich 1981; Kauffmann et al. 2003). We use 667 radio-loud AGN in the region of overlap with the ACT survey (with median redshift of 0.30, see Figure 1), and 149 star-forming galaxies (with median redshift of 0.05, see Figure 1). Only 27 of the 667 AGN are identified by Best & Heckman (2012) as high excitation radio galaxies based on their optical emission lines, so the population can be modeled as dominated by low excitation radio galaxies. We construct and analyze the SEDs of these populations in Section 3.

The Best & Heckman (2012) sample has the twin advantages of providing redshifts and of differentiating between SFGs and AGNs. It is, however, much smaller than samples drawn from radio surveys without optical IDs and confined to relatively low redshifts. To also exploit the full statistics of the sensitive radio surveys and to, albeit coarsely, investigate evolution with redshift, in Section 4 we study a sample drawn from a combined cross-matched catalog of Kimball & Ivezić (2008). Because this sample is not restricted to radio sources matched to galaxies in SDSS, it extends to higher redshift. From this catalog, we use all FIRST detections falling within the region of overlap with the ACT survey that are assigned at least one match to an NVSS source. Matches are required to lie within 30′′ of one another. Should there be multiple FIRST or NVSS sources within the 30′′ matching radius, we use only the highest ranked match as per

http://www.cv.nrao.edu/~akimball/radiocat/

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For the stacking analysis, we use the source locations from FIRST, which are measured at high astrometric precision by the survey’s 5′ FWHM beam. In our subsequent modeling of these sources, we use their associated NVSS flux density measurements. The larger 45′ FWHM beam of NVSS is less prone to resolving out flux density from extended sources and thus provides more accurate 1.4 GHz flux densities, as well as being a closer match to the ACT beam. To avoid stacking on lobes of extended sources that are identified as separate sources in the FIRST catalog and more generally to avoid double counting sources that fall within a single ACT beam, we exclude sources that have neighboring sources within 1′. This leaves 9,436 sources within the overlapping FIRST and ACT observing regions (~339 square degrees; 305° ≤ α ≤ 58°, −1.5° ≤ δ ≤ 1.5°). We restrict the sample to the 4,563 sources that have 5 ≤ S_{1.4} < 200 mJy. Because we model the average SED of these sources with an AGN model, we want to remove SFGs from the sample. We mask any of these sources that lie within 5′ of SFGs from the catalog of Best & Heckman (2012). This eliminates 211 sources from the sample. The expected number of SFGs for this sample is 140 (for comparison, 149 SFGs were identified in Best & Heckman 2012), as calculated using 1.4 GHz count models based on luminosity functions from Dunlop & Peacock (1990) and Sadler et al. (2002). For the remaining sources, assumed to be radio AGN, we adopt the redshift distribution from de Zotti et al. (2010) (which was fit to data from Brookes et al. 2008) when modeling the SED. This distribution is shown in Figure 1 and has a median redshift of 1.06 (compared to 0.30 for the Best & Heckman 2012 sample).

Sources with ACT flux density greater than three times the rms noise level of the map in any of the three bands are identified and excluded from the stacking analyses. Because the noise is determined locally, the flux density at which these cuts are drawn varies with position in the map, but typical values for the flux density threshold are 6 mJy at 148 GHz, 9 mJy at 218 GHz, and 18 mJy at 277 GHz. These sources represent outlier objects that are likely bright based on orientation, such as blazars (Urry & Padovani 1995) or based on chance alignments, such as rare, lensed star forming galaxies (Negrello et al. 2010; Vieira et al. 2010; Marsden et al. 2013). By removing these millimeter bright sources, we reduce known inclination and lensing dependent selection effects present in a small subset of the sources. Similarly, negative 3σ deviations from the mean flux density in either band are also excluded, which will exclude large galaxy clusters with SZ decrements at 148 GHz and reduce the bias potentially introduced by excluding positive deviations in flux density from the mean. These cuts based on the ACT flux densities exclude 219 (4.8%) radio sources from the stacking analysis of the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample and 23 (3.3%) AGN from the Best & Heckman (2012) sample.

The synchrotron emission from radio-loud AGN is known to be variable. The FIRST, NVSS and ACT surveys were not simultaneous, so variability could affect the inferred spectral indices. Because the radio sources were selected based on their 1.4 GHz flux densities, variability would preferentially bias the 1.4 GHz flux density high relative to the 148 and 218 GHz flux densities, effectively steepening the average spectral index. However, the 1.4 GHz selected sources do not tend to vary as much as sources selected at ACT frequencies (which are more likely to be highly variable blazars, e.g., Marriage et al. 2011). For example, Thyagarajan et al. (2011) look for variability within the FIRST data, using three potential criteria to determine variability: the distribution of the peak flux density at different times deviates significantly (>5σ) from a normal distribution, the maximum deviation of the peak flux density from the mean exceeds 5σ, and the largest variation between data points on a light curve exceeds 6σ. They find that for FIRST radio sources with counterparts identified as SDSS galaxies, the fraction that is variable at 1.4 GHz is 0.6%; the corresponding fraction for FIRST sources matched to SDSS quasars is 1%.

2.3 Infrared data

We investigate the ensemble SED properties of these AGN by calculating the median flux densities at their positions across a wide range of multi-wavelength data sets. To investigate the contribution of dust to the SED of the radio sources, we take advantage of surveys conducted by the Herschel Space Observatory (Pilbratt et al. 2010) using the Spectral and Photometric Imaging REceiver instrument (SPIRE; Griffin et al. 2010) that overlap with the ACT survey region: HerMES Large-Mode Survey (HeLMS), which is part of the Herschel Multi-Tiered Extragalactic Survey (HerMES; Oliver et al. 2012), and the publicly available Herschel Stripe 82 Survey3 (HerS; Viero et al. 2013a).

SPIRE has three bands, centered at approximately 500, 350 and 250 μm (corresponding to 600, 857 and 1200 GHz, respectively). The maps used are made with SANEPIC (Patanchon et al. 2008). Of the radio loud AGN in the ACT region from Best & Heckman (2012), 384 (58%) fall within

3 http://www.astro.caltech.edu/hers/
the HerS or HerMES survey regions, as do 80 SFGs (54%). Of the radio sources in the sample from Kimball & Ivezić (2008), 2,125 fall within the HerS or HerMES survey regions.

2.4 Flux density measurements

At 1.4 GHz, we use the cataloged NVSS flux densities corresponding to the Best & Heckman (2012) and Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sources. Data from the Parkes-MIT-NRAO survey (PMN; Griffith & Wright 1993; Tasker et al. 1994) and a Green Bank Telescope survey (Condon et al. 1994) at 4.85 GHz provide an additional constraint on the ensemble radio spectral index. For PMN and GBT as well as the Herschel surveys, we measure the flux densities in the map of each survey at the source positions, which correspond to the positions of the optical counterparts for Best & Heckman (2012) and to the positions of FIRST sources for Kimball & Ivezić (2008).

For the ACT data, as discussed in Marriage et al. (2011), given the form of the filter, the source-centered value of the filtered map multiplied by the solid angle of the beam is the source flux density. To calculate the flux densities from the map, ACT pixel values are corrected by a factor that accounts for averaging of the instrument beam peak over the 0.5′-square pixel of the ACT maps. An additional correction factor is applied to account for the fact that measured flux density depends on the location of a source within a pixel. For example, a source will have a lower measured flux density if it is located at the junction of two pixels instead of the center of a pixel. We make no effort to correct this miscentering effect on a source-by-source basis, as the associated per-source dispersion is much lower than the rms noise level and averages down to a negligible level in the stack. Instead we apply an average correction given that any source has equal probability of falling anywhere within the 0.5′-square pixel. These factors correspond to 1.06 at 148 GHz, 1.10 at 218 GHz, and 1.14 at 277 GHz.

We performed null tests by calculating the weighted average flux densities of randomly selected, source-free locations within the ACT-FIRST overlap region in all three ACT frequency bands. These were computed in the 7 flux density bins used in Section 4 for 1000 trials of 4,344 samples each. These null tests were found to be consistent with no signal with a $\chi^2$ of 5.7, 11.3 and 3.4 at 148 GHz, 218 GHz and 277 GHz, respectively, each with 7 degrees of freedom. The corresponding probability of a random realization to exceed the observed 148 GHz, 218 GHz and 277 GHz $\chi^2$ estimates are 0.57, 0.13 and 0.85 respectively.

Details on the stacking and uncertainty estimation for our analysis of the Best & Heckman (2012) sample and of the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample are provided in Sections 3 and 4, respectively.

3 SPECTRAL ENERGY DISTRIBUTION CONSTRUCTION AND MODELING

In this section, we investigate the median SED for the Best & Heckman (2012) sample (with selection described in Section 2.2), which has spectroscopic redshift measurements (median $z = 0.30$) and was categorized into populations of AGN and SFGs. In this section, we model each of these populations independently.

3.1 Stacked flux density measurements

The SED models (described in Section 3.2.1 and 3.3.1) were fit to the median of the flux densities (calculated as described in Section 2.4) for each band. The distribution of the flux densities of the sources (particularly at 1.4 GHz) is very broad, so we use the median flux densities in each band in order to lessen the influence of bright outliers. For each source in the Best & Heckman (2012) catalog, we use all data available. Some sources lie outside the footprints of the Herschel surveys but fall within the ACT survey region, and we include their radio and millimeter flux densities in this analysis. Thus the infrared median flux densities are drawn from a smaller sample of sources than the radio and millimeter median flux densities, but all sources are drawn from the same parent sample, with the IR sample restricted only by sky area, so selection differences should not be significant. Indeed, the radio and millimeter median flux densities of the full sample are consistent within 1σ with the median flux densities of the subsample that lie within the Herschel survey areas. The infrared surveys were treated as interchangeable, as the median flux densities for radio AGN in HerS are within the 1σ uncertainties of the median flux densities of radio AGN in HerMES for each Herschel band.

The covariance matrix for the median flux densities was constructed via a bootstrap resampling of the source flux densities. Because the source flux densities are likely to be correlated between bands (a source bright in one Herschel band is likely to be bright in other Herschel bands), we retained off-diagonal elements of the covariance matrix. We have taken the overall photometric error for the SPIRE photometer to be 7%, of which 5% is correlated between SPIRE bands. We added the square of this photometric uncertainty to the variance of the Herschel bands and the square of the correlated component to the covariance between Herschel bands, and we similarly included the uncertainties in the ACT calibration described in Section 2.1.1 in the appropriate diagonal and off-diagonal terms of the covariance matrix. This covariance matrix was used to calculate the likelihood of the data given the model according to the following formulation:

$$-2\ln L \propto A^T C^{-1} A$$

where $A$ is equal to the data (median flux densities for each band) minus the model evaluated for a given set of parameters and $C$ is the covariance matrix (which does not depend on the model parameters). We used an MCMC analysis to determine the best fit parameters and associated uncertainties for the model.

3.2 Radio loud AGN

3.2.1 AGN spectral energy distribution model

We construct a model for the SED of the radio AGN containing components for the synchrotron, SZ effect and dust...
contribute to the millimeter regime for star forming galaxies, is expected to be negligible, especially given how relatively little flux density it contributes to the spectral energy distributions of the much lower redshift star-forming galaxies in Section 3.3. The synchrotron component is modeled with a single spectral index: \( S \propto \nu^{-\alpha} \). Although the spectral index may steepen due to electron aging, no deviation in \( \alpha \) is significantly detected in our analysis of the larger sample (Section 4.3). The frequency dependence of the SZ spectral distortion of the CMB (for units of specific intensity) is given by the following equation (as in Carlstrom, Holder & Reese 2002, with derivation from Sunyaev & Zel’dovich 1970; Sunyaev & Zeldovich 1972):

\[
g(x) = \frac{x^4 e^x}{(e^x - 1)^2} \left( \frac{x e^x + 1}{e^x - 1} - 4 \right) \left( 1 + \delta_{SZ}(x, T_e) \right)
\]

(2)

where the dimensionless frequency \( x = \frac{\nu}{T_e} \) and \( \delta_{SZ}(x, T_e) \) is the relativistic correction to the frequency dependence. The relativistic correction is typically only appreciable for massive galaxy clusters, which comprise only a small fraction of the host halos of the AGN. For comparison, the ACT SZ-selected cluster sample analysis (Hasselfield et al. 2013a) uses relativistic corrections that range from 3–10% of the cluster y parameter for a sample of much more massive clusters (by roughly 2 orders of magnitude, as seen in Figure 10) than is typical for this study.

The SZ spectral distortion described in Equation 2 is attributed to the hydrostatically supported ionized gaseous halo around the AGN. There may be an additional SZ signal associated with a non-radiating relativistic plasma inside of “cocoons” (e.g., observed as X-ray cavities in galaxy clusters) formed by the AGN during radio-mode feedback. The hypothesis of such a relativistic plasma is motivated by the fact that the minimum non-thermal pressure associated with the relativistic electrons sourcing the observed synchrotron from the cocoons is estimated to be an order of magnitude too small to be in hydrostatic equilibrium with the surrounding X-ray emitting gas (e.g., Blanton et al. 2001; Ito et al. 2008). The spatial extent of the cocoon \( (R < 50 \text{ kpc}) \) is significantly smaller than the extent of the ionized gaseous halo, but the cocoon’s gas pressure will likely be on average higher and the spectral distortion different from that of the non-relativistic SZ effect of the larger host halo. The formation of a cocoon may be modeled analytically as a point explosion (Ostriker & McKee 1988) using self-similar solutions to describe shock motion and associated gas state parameters (Sedov 1959). With this or other models of the cocoons, the spectral distortions of the CMB by the associated relativistic plasma (Wright 1979) inside the cocoons can then be calculated (e.g., Yamada, Sugiyama & Silk 1999; Platania et al. 2002; Pfrommer, Enßlin & Sarazin 2005; Chatterjee & Kosowsky 2007). These calculations, together with simulations (e.g., Chatterjee et al. 2008; Scannapieco, Thacker & Couchman 2008; Prokhorov, Antonuccio-Delogu & Silk 2010; Prokhovor et al. 2012), imply a signal in many systems that falls significantly below that of the SZ effect from the bulk of the non-relativistic gas of the halo and below the sensitivity of the current data. Prokhorov, Antonuccio-Delogu & Silk (2010) suggest that high pressure cocoons in high-redshift systems could produce an SZ effect at 217 GHz corresponding to flux densities greater than 1 mJy. Our results rule out the possibility that such high pressure systems characterize the average SED of radio loud AGN. Beyond this observation, we do not attempt to put constraints on SZ from the hypothesized non-radiating relativistic plasma inside cocoons and instead attribute all the SZ effect in our model to the non-relativistic gaseous atmospheres. As shown in Section 3.2.2, this model is a good fit to the data given their current precision.

We parameterize our model using the measured amplitude of the SZ effect at 148 GHz, which we call \( A_{SZ} \). In order to use the same parameter to model the 277 GHz data, we take into account the SZ effect frequency dependence defined according to Equation 2 as well as apply a beam (and therefore band) dependent correction factor that arises due to the effect of the filter transfer function. This correction factor is discussed in detail in Section 5.1. For the Best & Heckman (2012) sample, we calculate this correction factor to be 15% (for comparison, the effective uncertainty on the calibration for the 277 GHz data is 15%).

The dust contribution is modeled by calculating the median flux density for the dust components of the source sample, with every source being assigned a model dust spectrum of the form \( \nu^\beta B_{\nu}(T) \). Each gray body spectrum corresponds to a single AGN, and the redshift is assigned according to the AGN’s optical spectroscopic redshift. Thus the flux density observed at frequency \( \nu \) for a source at redshift \( z \) is given by

\[
S_{\nu}(L, z) = \frac{L_{IR}}{4\pi(1+z)d_M(z)} \frac{(\nu(1+z))^{\beta} B_{\nu}(1+z)(T)}{\int (\nu')^{\beta} B_{\nu}(T)d\nu'}
\]

(3)

where the limits of the integral are 300 to 2.1 x 10^4 GHz, \( d_M(z) \) is the comoving distance and \( B_{\nu}(T) \) is the black body spectrum for a given dust temperature. This parameterization is similar to that used in Addison, Dunkley & Bond (2012), except that our model only includes a single temperature dust component. Each source is assigned a temperature of 20 K and an emissivity index of \( \beta = 1.8 \). Hardcastle et al. (2013) fit dust SEDs to the average Herschel flux densities for a similarly selected sample of radio-loud AGN with SDSS spectra available. They found the best-fit \( \beta = 1.8 \). With this \( \beta \), for a model with a single temperature dust component, they found the best fit \( T = 20.3 \text{ K} \), although they also found evidence for multiple dust temperature components contributing. We fit for a single parameter describing the amplitude of every spectrum, which we call \( L_{IR} \), corresponding to the model’s infrared bolometric luminosity of the dust component. If there is a positive correlation between the AGN and dusty IR sources, there may be multiple dusty sources preferentially clustered near AGN that could contribute to the median flux density measured, potentially biasing it higher than for a single source (as discussed for galaxies that contribute to the CIB; e.g., Dole et al. 2006; Marsden et al. 2009; Viero et al. 2013b). Physically correlated structures must be near the AGN in redshift space, so the spectral shape is likely to be unaffected, although the bolometric luminosity of the dust measured would become an upper limit for any single component.

3.2.2 Results of fitting the median AGN spectral energy distribution

For the radio-loud AGN, we fit for the following parameters of the model outlined in Section 3.2.1: the radio spectral in-
Figure 2. The median flux densities in NVSS, PMN/GBT, ACT and Herschel surveys of radio AGN from Best & Heckman (2012). As described in Section 3.2.1, a model with synchrotron, SZ effect and dust components is fit to the AGN data, and the model parameters describing the best fit (shown here) are listed in Table 1. The dashed lines illustrate the synchrotron plus SZ effect component of the model and the dust gray body component of the model, and the solid line illustrates the full model evaluated for the best fit parameters. The error bars on the medians shown are the diagonal elements of the covariance matrix computed via bootstrap sampling (off-diagonal elements were included for the fitting). Some of the error bars are smaller than the size of the symbols. The χ² of the fit is 5.8, with 4 degrees of freedom.

Table 1. Best fit parameters for median AGN SED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>α</td>
<td>0.55 ± 0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A_{SZ}</td>
<td>0.45 ± 0.13 mJy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log₁₀(L_{IR}/L₅₀)</td>
<td>8.7 ±0.1/0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_{sync}</td>
<td>12.2 ± 0.5 mJy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 degrees of freedom. The value and significance of A_{SZ} are robust to changes in the assumed dust temperature (T = 10, 15, 20, 30 K were tested) and β (β = 2.0, 1.8, 1.5, 1.0, 0.5 were tested).

We have also experimented with models that do not involve an SZ effect signal, but rather attempt to fit the data by altering source spectra. Unfortunately, few datasets constrain the spectral behavior of large samples of radio sources at these frequencies. The Planck mission constrains the millimeter-wavelength SEDs of very bright (for example, matched to sources with S_{20} > 300 mJy) radio blazars (Planck Collaboration et al. 2011a) and finds some evidence for spectral steepening. Although we exclude such sources from this analysis, we nonetheless consider a model with a spectral index change of -0.5 at 70 GHz and allow the spectral index of the dust re-emission (β) to take on values that produces a minimum chi-square. For this model, β = 0.9 produces the best fit, but the resulting χ² is 9, compared to the χ² of 6 for the preferred model (with no spectral steepening, β set to 1.8, and a term for the SZ effect amplitude). When β is set to 1.8, which is typical for nearby galaxies (Smith et al. 2013), the resulting χ² is 11. However, the synchrotron spectral behavior for the bright Planck sources, which consist mostly of blazars, differs significantly from the average spectral behavior of the sources in our sample. To allow more flexibility in the synchrotron shape, we adopt a model where we fix the dust spectrum β to be 1.8 and the SZ effect contribution to be 0, but introduce parameters for the location of the break in the synchrotron spectrum (ν_{break}) and the amount of steepening (δα), defined such that α(ν > ν_{break}) = α + δα. The best fit model values for α,
respectively. The location of the break, \( \nu_{\text{break}} \), is not well
constrained. The \( \chi^2 \) value is 5.8, with 3 degrees of freedom. If we reinroduce the SZ effect term, \( \Delta S_\gamma \), into the model and fix \( \nu_{\text{break}} \) to be 5 GHz, the resulting best fit parameters for \( \alpha, \delta \alpha, \) and \( \Delta S_\gamma \) are 0.48 \pm 0.04, 0.16 \pm 0.08, and 0.3 \pm 0.15, respectively. The \( \chi^2 \) is 1.3, with 3 degrees of freedom. Thus even with this flexibility, a model with SZ is preferred, although with much lower significance than for a model with a single synchrotron spectral index. We investigate this for the larger Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample in Section 4.3, where we again find that the model including the SZ effect is preferred, and more robustly.

### 3.3 SFG spectral energy distribution

#### 3.3.1 SFG model

The main components of the spectra of star forming galaxies include synchrotron emission that dominates at low frequencies, dust emission that dominates in the infrared, and free-free emission that contributes in the millimeter wavelength regime. We adopt the same spectral model as used by Peel et al. (2011), who investigate the millimeter wavelength SED’s of nearby late-type galaxies using data from Planck. The synchrotron component is modeled as \( S \propto \nu^{-\alpha} \), and the dust component is measured as a gray body spectrum with the same form as Equation 3. This model for the dust emission is supported by recent work: Clemens et al. (2013) find that single temperature (21K) dust spectra (measured from IR data from Herschel, IRAS, and Planck) are well fit by Planck High Frequency Instrument data in combination with IR data from Wide-Field Infrared Survey Explorer (WISE), Spitzer, IRAS, and Herschel. We fit for the parameters \( \alpha \) and \( L_{\nu} \). In addition to the dust emission, the free-free emission is expected to contribute to the ACT bands and is modeled as

\[
S_\gamma = 2 \times 10^{26} kT_e e^{(1-\alpha)} (\nu_{\text{GHz}}/c^2)
\]

where \( S_\gamma \) is expressed in Jy, \( k \) is the Boltzmann constant in J/K, \( T_e \) is the electron temperature in K, \( \Omega \) is the solid angle the galaxy subtends in steradians, \( \tau_\gamma \) is the optical depth, \( \nu \) is the frequency in Hz and \( c \) is the speed of light in m/s. We assume \( T_e = 8000 \) K, as is typical for the Milky Way, and calculate \( \Omega \) for a 10 kpc disk. The optical depth is calculated by

\[
\tau_\gamma = 3.014 \times 10^{-2} T_e^{-3/2} \nu^{-2} E_M g_\gamma
\]

where \( \nu \) is expressed in GHz, \( T_e \) in K, \( E_M \) is the emission measure in the commonly cited units of cm\(^{-6}\)pc, and \( g_\gamma \) is the Gaunt factor, which causes curvature in the high frequency free-free spectrum and is approximated as \( g_\gamma = \ln(4.955 \times 10^3/\nu) + 1.5 \ln(T_e) \) for \( \nu \) in GHz and \( T_e \) in K. The numerical factors are given by Oster (1961). We fit for the emission measure to characterize the contribution of the free-free emission to the SFG spectrum.

In addition to these sources of continuum emission, we expect that the 218 GHz band will contain some contribution from the CO \( J(2-1) \) spectral line at 230.5 GHz. The redshift distribution of the SFGs spans from 0.010 to 0.283 (see Figure 1), with median redshift of 0.047. The ACT 218 GHz band is 17.0 GHz wide, with central frequency at 219.7 GHz (Swetz et al. 2011). Approximating the band transmission as a step function, for sources in the range \( 0.01 < z < 0.09 \), the CO line will fall within the ACT band. This corresponds to 80% of the SFGs in the sample that fall within the ACT survey region. The true contribution of the CO line to the average SED depends on the detailed shape of the band transmission. In order to include the CO line in the SED model, we have added a parameter for additional flux density in the 218 GHz band. As a result, the 218 GHz data do not constrain the SED continuum, although obtaining a reasonable value for the CO flux density contributed can indicate consistency.

#### 3.3.2 SFG modeling results

The SED model was fit to the median of the flux densities of the SFGs for each band as described for the AGN in Section 3.2.1. We fit for the following parameters of the model outlined above: the radio synchrotron spectral index (\( \alpha \)), a normalization parameter for the synchrotron emission at 1.4 GHz, the emission measure of the free-free emission \( (E_M g_\gamma) \), the additional flux density at 218 GHz attributed to CO line emission \( (S_{CO}) \), and the typical bolomeric IR luminosity of the dust component expressed in solar units \( (\log_{10}(L_{IR}/L_\odot)) \). Best-fit parameters are listed in Table 2, and the best-fit model is shown with the median flux densities in Figure 3. The \( \chi^2 \) for the best fit SFG model is 4.5, with 3 degrees of freedom. As with the AGN model, the covariance includes both measurement uncertainty and intrinsic variation in the flux densities.

We can compare the best fit values of the median SFG SED to published models for nearby star-forming galaxies in the literature. Peel et al. (2011) use Planck data to constrain the SEDs of M82, NGC 253 and NGC 4945. They fit for more parameters than our data can constrain (particularly for the gray body spectrum, such as the dust temperature and \( \beta \)). Comparing with their results provides a consistency check. The emission measures they quote for their best fit model are 920 \( \pm 110 \) cm\(^{-6}\)pc for M82, 284 \( \pm 17 \) cm\(^{-6}\)pc for NGC 253 and 492 \( \pm 81 \) cm\(^{-6}\)pc for NGC 4945. Their ensemble value of \( 943 \pm 245/-308 \) cm\(^{-6}\)pc is in agreement with M82. Their best fit synchrotron spectral indices range from 1.1 \( \pm 0.1 \) to 1.6 \( \pm 0.4 \), and our value of 0.9 \( \pm 0.5 / -0.4 \) also agrees well. Degeneracy between \( \alpha \) and \( E_M g_\gamma \) is expected such that steeper values of \( \alpha \) imply higher values of \( E_M g_\gamma \), and this degeneracy is observed in the MCMC posterior distribution of those parameters. Including data for more bands at low frequency would better constrain these parameters.

We can also compare the CO line flux density with expectations from the literature. Bayet et al. (2006) measure the flux density of the CO \( J(2-1) \) line for nearby starburst NGC 253. Scaling by the square of the luminosity distances, the CO \( J(2-1) \) flux density at the median SFG redshift would be 36 mJy. NGC 253 is a bright starburst, so its CO line flux density is likely brighter than that of typical SFGs. The gas density of star forming galaxies correlates with the star formation rate through the well-known Kennicutt-Schmidt relation (Schmidt 1959; Kennicutt 1998). Genzel et al. (2010) find a linear relation between the CO luminosity and the far IR luminosity for star forming galaxies. If we scale the flux density by the ratio of the bolometric luminosity...
nosity of NGC 253 (Rice et al. 1988) to the bolometric IR luminosity best fit to the SFG median SED, the expected CO flux density implied is 3.6 mJy, which lies within 1σ of the best fit CO flux density contribution to the SED.

4 MILLIMETER WAVELENGTH BEHAVIOR FOR DIFFERENT RADIO SOURCE FLUX DENSITIES

In this section, we investigate how the SEDs of the radio sources relate to their 1.4 GHz radio source flux density by binning the sample from Kimball & Ivezić (2008). This sample is much larger than that used in Section 3, but it lacks optical counterparts and thus lacks individually measured spectroscopic redshifts and classification as AGN or SFGs. This sample also extends to higher redshift (Figure 1), enabling a comparison of properties of a low redshift sample (discussed in Section 3) and a higher redshift sample.

4.1 Stacked flux density measurements

We compute the mean of the flux densities, which are calculated as described in Section 2.4, corresponding to subsets of sources from the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) radio source catalog (with selection described in Section 2.2). First, we logarithmically bin sources by their associated 1.4 GHz NVSS flux density ($S_{1.4}$) into 7 bins with centers ranging from 6.4 to 149.1 mJy. Then, for each source within a flux density bin, we determine the ACT flux density and the number of ACT observations at the FIRST position of the source, which determines the noise in any given pixel (see Marriage et al. 2011). Weighted by the number of observations, the ACT 148 GHz, 218 GHz and 277 GHz flux densities ($S_{148}$, $S_{218}$, and $S_{277}$ respectively) are then averaged to give the stacked ACT flux density for each 1.4 GHz flux density bin. Weighted averages are similarly calculated for the GB T/PMN data and Herschel, with the weights defined as the inverse of the square of the uncertainties on the flux density measurements. For the Herschel surveys, which do not cover the entire region of sky used in the ACT analysis (2,123 out of 4,344 of the radio sources used in this analysis lie within Herschel survey footprints), we combine all of the sources across 1.4 GHz flux density bins, calculating a single ensemble averaged flux density for each Herschel band. Constraining a single dust component also has the benefit that we do not need to know the redshift distribution of sources as a function of their 1.4 GHz flux densities and can model the full population as has been studied in the literature.

The distribution of ACT stacked flux densities within each bin was investigated via a Monte Carlo bootstrap analysis, resampling the flux density distribution with replacement for 1000 trials. We use the weighted averages of the observed sample flux densities, and we adopt the uncertainties based on the bootstrap samples. For the modeling in Section 4, we only include the covariance from the calibration uncertainties calculated in Section 2.1.1 and not bootstrap sampled covariance because we bin by 1.4 GHz flux density, which limits the amplitude of the cross-frequency-band sample covariance relative to the dominant noise in the map (unlike in Section 3.2.1, which includes sources across the full range of 1.4 GHz flux density).

Table 3 lists the results of stacking the PMN/GBT, ACT and Herschel data at the FIRST source locations for the radio source sample from Kimball & Ivezić (2008). Thumbnails of the stacked ACT data for each 1.4 GHz flux density bin of the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample are shown in Figure 4. Figure 5 shows the stacked ACT flux densities at 148 GHz, 218 GHz and 277 GHz. The stacked ACT flux densities associated with the FIRST sources are detected at $\geq 3\sigma$ significance at 148 and 218 GHz for all but the highest 1.4 GHz flux density bin. The stacked ACT flux densities typically lie between 0.2 and 2.0 mJy. The faintest 1.4 GHz flux density bin contains 1,767 sources and the brightest contains just 61 sources.

The average $S_{148}$, $S_{218}$ and $S_{277}$ are always lower than the corresponding $S_{1.4}$, as would be expected for synchrotron dominated sources with radio spectral index $\alpha_{1.4-148} > 0$, where flux density $S \propto \nu^{-\alpha}$. However, the average $S_{218}$ and $S_{277}$ are greater than the average $S_{148}$ for all but the highest corresponding bin in $S_{1.4}$, and for most bins $S_{277}$ is also higher than $S_{218}$. In contrast, the synchrotron sources detected in ACT and South Pole Telescope (SPT) data, which are typically blazars and would be excluded from this analysis, tend to have flat spectral indices ($\sim 0.2$) from low frequency (1.4 GHz or 5 GHz) to the millimeter regime, but then have falling spectral indices ($\alpha \sim 0.5$) between the millimeter bands (Veira et al. 2010; Marsden et al. 2013; Mocanu et al. 2013). There are two possible explanations for this spectral behavior in the stacked ACT flux densities of radio sources: either the 1.4 GHz selected sources have, on average, an inverted millimeter spectral index $\alpha_{148-218} < 0$ and $\alpha_{148-277} < 0$ or the SZ effect is causing the SED to rise from a decrement at 148 GHz through a null at 218 GHz to an increment at 277 GHz. We investigate each of these scenarios in the following sections, finding that the SZ effect provides a better fit to the data and thus is the preferred explanation.

4.2 Spectral Energy Distribution Modeling

We fit the model outlined in Section 3.2.1 to the weighted average flux densities for each 1.4 GHz flux density bin. For this model we allow the synchrotron spectral index $\alpha$ to vary as a function of 1.4 GHz flux density with the following parameterization:

$$\alpha = \alpha_0 + \beta \log_{10}(S_{1.4}/S_{\text{pivot}})$$

(6)

where $\alpha_0$ and $\beta$ are fit as a function of $S_{1.4}$. The central frequencies used here correspond to the synchrotron effective band centers (Swetz et al. 2011). The $S_{1.4}$ normalization ($S_{\text{pivot}} = 149.1$ mJy, corresponding to the average 1.4 GHz flux density for the highest bin) has been chosen to minimize degeneracy between $\alpha_0$ and $\beta$. Recalling that the AGN population can be characterized by a bimodal distribution including flat ($\alpha \sim 0$) and steep ($\alpha \sim 0.8$) spectrum sources and that the average synchrotron spectrum could also be affected by steepening due to electron aging, we also investigate whether there is evidence for a break in the average synchrotron spectrum (see Section 4.3). We parameterize the $A_{32}$ as constant across all 1.4 GHz flux density bins, motivated by previous observations that the distribution of radio luminosities does not correlate with host galaxy mass or cluster velocity dispersion (Best et al. 2005, 2007).
We adopt the redshift distribution based on data from Brookes et al. (2008) with the form given by de Zotti et al. (2010). The redshift distribution enters in the construction of the composite gray body spectrum (Equation 3) and in the angular shape of the average SZ pressure profile, which affects how the SZ signal is sampled by the filter as first discussed in Section 3.2.1 and further discussed in Section 5.1. For this assumed redshift distribution, the measured SZ effect at 277 GHz is 12% lower than that inferred by the spectral behavior (Equation 2) and the SZ effect amplitude at 148 GHz. This correction factor is included in the construction of the model, which is parameterized by the SZ effect amplitude at 148 GHz, $A_{SZ}$. Similarly, because the redshift distribution for this sample differs from that of Best & Heckman (2012), the same intrinsic amplitude of the pressure profile would produce different measurements for $A_{SZ}$ due to the effect of the filtering on the pressure profiles. We take this effect into account before comparing the integrated $Y$ parameter in Section 5.1.

The CO $J(2-1)$ spectral line at 230.5 GHz is not likely to contribute to the SZ emission for the vast majority of the sources, the redshift would place the CO line outside of the ACT band.

We perform an MCMC to determine the posterior probability distributions for the parameters $\alpha_0$, $\beta$, $A_{SZ}$ and $\log_{10}(L_{140}/L_\odot)$, which are given uniform priors. We account for the full covariance of the uncertainties on the calibration and recovery of the ACT and Herschel flux densities (Section 2.1.1). Figure 5 shows the model evaluated for the best fitting parameters along with the data. Figure 6 shows the resulting parameter distributions for the main parameters of interest. All chains show good convergence, with Gelman-Rubin R - 1 parameter $< 0.005$. The best fit model has a $\chi^2 = 31.2$ with 27 degrees of freedom (PTE=0.26), so the model is a good fit to the data.

The parameter estimates from this analysis shed light on AGN and the SZ effect from radio-loud AGN hosts. Figure 7 shows the best fit model for $\alpha$ (Equation 6) and the amplitude of the SZ effect, along with the measured values for each 1.4 GHz flux density bin. The SZ effect associated with AGN hosts $A_{SZ} = 0.307 \pm 0.052$ mJy is detected with 5 $\sigma$ confidence. This level of SZ is consistent with expectations given other SZ measurements of low mass systems and the estimated mass of the host halos of radio-active AGN. The data are well fit by an SZ effect term that is constant for all 1.4 GHz flux density bins. See Section 5 for further discussion of these results, including a comparison of the SZ effect measured for this sample with that measured for the Best & Heckman (2012) sample.

The spectral index from 1.4 to 4.8 GHz is consistent with the spectral index from 1.4 to 218 GHz for sources across the full range of 1.4 GHz flux densities. The AGN parameters $\beta$, and $\alpha_0$ are constrained most at intermediate to high $S_{1.4}$, where the SZ effect represents a smaller fraction of the flux density (though still $\sim 20 - 30\%$) than in fainter bins. The estimated effective AGN spectral index at the highest 1.4 GHz flux density bin is $0.95 \pm 0.61$, consistent with optically thin, “steep spectrum” synchrotron emission, as observed in other studies. As indicated by the $\beta$ parameter, the AGN spectral index varies with 1.4 GHz flux density such that at the lowest 1.4 GHz flux density bin (5 $S_{1.4} \approx 6$ mJy), $\alpha = 0.5$. This is expected for a source popu-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bin</th>
<th>$S_{1.4}$ Range (mJy)</th>
<th>$N_{bin}$</th>
<th>$S_{1.4}$ (mJy)</th>
<th>$S_{1.4s}$ (mJy)</th>
<th>$S_{148}$ (mJy)</th>
<th>$S_{218}$ (mJy)</th>
<th>$S_{277}$ (mJy)</th>
<th>$S_{500}$ (mJy)</th>
<th>$S_{857}$ (mJy)</th>
<th>$S_{1200}$ (mJy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.00 – 8.47</td>
<td>1767</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>3.7 ± 0.2</td>
<td>0.37 ± 0.05</td>
<td>0.66 ± 0.08</td>
<td>1.0 ± 0.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.47 – 13.0</td>
<td>1092</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>5.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>0.38 ± 0.07</td>
<td>0.79 ± 0.1</td>
<td>1.3 ± 0.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.3 – 24.3</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>7.8 ± 0.3</td>
<td>0.59 ± 0.09</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.1</td>
<td>1.5 ± 0.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>23.3 – 41.2</td>
<td>612</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>12.0 ± 0.5</td>
<td>0.64 ± 0.1</td>
<td>1.1 ± 0.2</td>
<td>0.96 ± 0.3</td>
<td>3.9 ± 0.4</td>
<td>4.4 ± 0.4</td>
<td>4.4 ± 0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>41.2 – 69.7</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>21.0 ± 0.9</td>
<td>0.94 ± 0.1</td>
<td>1.4 ± 0.2</td>
<td>1.5 ± 0.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>69.7 – 118.0</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>88.4</td>
<td>30. ± 1.</td>
<td>1.4 ± 0.2</td>
<td>1.8 ± 0.3</td>
<td>2.7 ± 0.7</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>118. – 200.0</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>149.0</td>
<td>45. ± 1.</td>
<td>1.9 ± 0.3</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.4</td>
<td>1.5 ± 0.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^\dagger$The Herschel data shown correspond to a single 1.4 GHz flux density bin containing all radio sources in the sample within the Herschel survey area.

**Figure 4.** Thumbnail images (0.25$'\times0.25'$) of filtered ACT data stacked on FIRST source locations. While the 148 GHz sources fade in the lower flux density bin, the 218 GHz sources remain visible. The 277 GHz map is noisier, so we have shown the 277 GHz flux densities for each bin for use in the analysis in Section 4.2. The 1.4 GHz flux density bins used are listed in Table 3.
significantly higher than the best fitting bolometric luminosities for the lower redshift Best & Heckman (2012) sample (log_{10}(L_{IR}/L_\odot) = 8.7 + 0.1 / -0.3), as likely indicates redshift evolution in the dust emission from the host galaxies.

4.3 Flat and Steep Spectrum AGN and Synchrotron Spectral Steepening

Because the sources in this work are selected at 1.4 GHz (and sources detected at millimeter waves are excluded), models describing populations of low frequency sources apply to this sample more directly than those describing sources at higher frequencies. Massardi et al. (2011) investigate source populations from 1 GHz to millimeter waves and find that steep spectrum sources dominate the 1 GHz source counts at all flux density levels, although with increasing contributions from BL Lac sources (characterized by flat spectra) at low flux densities (\gtrsim 10 mJy) and from flat spectrum radio quasars at high flux densities (\gtrsim 500 mJy). Thus for this paper (which only includes sources below 200 mJy), we would expect to see a population of flat spectrum sources become more important at low 1 GHz flux densities, with the caveat that the spectral behavior at high frequencies may diverge from that predicted by the counts based on studies up to 5 GHz. This population would introduce a flattening of the inferred spectral index at low 1 GHz flux densities. We do indeed find that the population-averaged spectral index from 1 GHz to millimeter frequencies is flatter at low 1 GHz flux densities, with the caveat that the spectral behavior at high frequencies may diverge from that predicted by the counts based on studies up to 5 GHz.
the other model parameters: 

\[ A_{\text{SZ}} = C_0 \alpha \langle \nu \rangle \]  

for each 1.4 GHz flux density bin. This term is calculated as the difference between the measured flux densities and the expected flux densities at a given 1.4 GHz flux density bin by solving for \( \alpha \) and \( C_0 \), where \( C_0 \) is a constant with 1.4 GHz flux density. In both plots, the gray regions indicate the 1σ confidence region. The pink and blue regions indicate the 1σ and 3σ confidence regions, respectively. The parameters correspond to the amplitude of the SZ effect from ionized gas in AGN dark matter halos (\( A_{\text{SZ}} \)). The amount by which the synchrotron spectrum index steepens (\( C_0 \)), and the frequency at which the spectrum steepens (\( \nu_{\text{break}} \)), is well constrained by our data and tends to favor a location for the steepening above the lowest ACT band at 148 GHz. The amplitude of the SZ effect is significantly non-zero even for models in which steepening is allowed.

\[ \chi^2 = 55.3 \]  

with 26 degrees of freedom. Finally, we saw in Section 4.2 that for the model in which we include an SZ effect parameter, the average spectral index from 1.4 GHz to 4.8 GHz agrees well with the average spectral index from 1.4 GHz to 218 GHz for a given 1.4 GHz flux density bin, implying that the simpler model without spectral steepening adequately describes the data.

4.4 Galaxy Groups and Clusters

Radio AGN occasionally reside in massive galaxy clusters and groups. To check whether the SZ effect inferred from the modeling of the data is dominated by galaxy clusters instead of arising from the more typical, lower-mass environments that host most AGN, we identify and remove radio sources associated with optically-selected clusters.

\[ \chi^2 = 31.0 \]  

for 25 degrees of freedom (PTE = 0.19), so the fit is not significantly improved by the addition of this parameter. If we only model the sources with \( S_{1.4} < 10 \) mJy, the value for \( C_0 \) does not change significantly. The emergence of a population of flat-spectrum sources could in principle contribute to the term in our model attributed to the SZ effect at low 1.4 GHz flux densities, but this scenario is not preferred by our data when we introduce \( C_0 \). If we completely replace the SZ effect parameter from the model by this \( C_0 \) parameter, the resulting \( \chi^2 = 55.3 \), with 26 degrees of freedom. Finally, we saw in Section 4.2 that for the model in which we include an SZ effect parameter, the average spectral index from 1.4 GHz to 4.8 GHz agrees well with the average spectral index from 1.4 GHz to 218 GHz for a given 1.4 GHz flux density bin, implying that the simpler model without spectral steepening adequately describes the data.

4.4 Galaxy Groups and Clusters

Radio AGN occasionally reside in massive galaxy clusters and groups. To check whether the SZ effect inferred from the modeling of the data is dominated by galaxy clusters instead of arising from the more typical, lower-mass environments that host most AGN, we identify and remove radio sources associated with optically-selected clusters.
The Gaussian Mixture Brightest Cluster Galaxy (GMBCG) catalog\(^5\) (Hao et al. 2010) contains more than 55,000 optically-selected galaxy clusters in SDSS Data Release 7 with redshift range 0.1 < z < 0.55. While the radio source redshift distribution extends to higher redshift (see Figure 1), we can estimate the contribution of clusters to the SZ effect signal associated with radio sources based on this lower redshift sample. Gralla et al. (2011) found that the number of radio sources per unit cluster mass does not evolve strongly with redshift. The number density of radio sources does evolve with redshift, implying that if anything the fraction of radio loud AGN in clusters at redshifts above \(z \sim 0.5\) is lower than today. Thus a significant fraction of the contribution of clusters’ SZ effect to the average SZ effect associated with radio AGN halos should be captured by investigating these low to intermediate redshift systems.

Within the area of overlap between the ACT and FIRST surveys, there are 1,993 GMBCG clusters. Comparing this subset with our 1.4 GHz sample, there were 405 sources within a 1’ projected radius of a GMBCG cluster (out of 4,344 total sources in the sample). Of these, only 192 would have been included in the stacking analysis; the others would have been excluded because they contain multiple radio sources. Excluding these sources near clusters from the analysis changes the \(S_{148}\) average values by < 5\%, which is small compared to the errors. The model parameters (Section 4.2) are not significantly affected by the exclusion of sources that are near clusters, indicating that the \(A_{SZ}\) term is not dominated by the richest systems.

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 SZ effect of radio source host halos

As presented in Sections 3.2.2 and 4.2, there is evidence for the SZ effect from the hot atmospheres associated with the halos hosting the radio-loud AGN at the 3σ level for the sample selected from Best & Heckman (2012) and at the 5σ level for the sample selected from Kimball & Ivezić (2008). In order to compare our results between samples and the sample selected from Best & Heckman (2012) and at the halos hosting the radio-loud AGN at the 3σ level for the sample selected from Kimball & Ivezić (2008). The redshift distribution extends to higher redshift (see Figure 9).

As presented in Sections 3.2.2 and 4.2, there is evidence

\[ A_{SZ} = 2\pi I_0 \int g(148 \text{ GHz}) | \Phi(\theta) y_{\text{gas}}(\theta) d\theta, \]  

where \(I_0\) is the CMB intensity, \(g\) is the SZ frequency dependence (Equation 2), and \(\Phi(\theta)\) is the matched filter, all corresponding to the 148 GHz band. Azimuthal symmetry of the projected SZ effect has been assumed. The function \(y_{\text{gas}}(\theta)\) is the dimensionless Compton parameter. The hat indicates it has been modified to account for the effects of the ACT beam and pixelization. This profile is related to the gas pressure profile \(P(r)\) through the line of sight projection according to

\[ y_{\text{gas}}(\theta) = \frac{\sigma_T}{m_e c^2} \int \sigma_T M_c d\theta, \]

where \(\sigma_T\) is the Thomson cross section, \(m_e c^2\) is the rest mass energy of the electron, and \(R_{500}\) and \(\theta_{500}\) refer to the radius and angle, respectively, within which the average density of the dark matter halo is 500 times the critical density, \(\rho_{\text{crit}}(z)\). Though we report quantities in this work referenced to the larger radius \(R_{500}\), characteristic of the halo’s virial radius, we adopt the \(R_{200}\) scaling for \(P(r)\) because we have chosen to model the pressure according to the “universal pressure profile” (UPP) of Arnaud et al. (2010). The UPP is derived from X-ray observations of clusters, for which \(R_{500}\) is a more natural scale. Sun et al. (2011) show that an average pressure profile for galaxy groups agrees well with the UPP. This profile is also used by Planck Collaboration et al. (2012) to model the SZ effect of the halos hosting local bright galaxies.

To estimate a characteristic \(R_{500}\) for the radio AGN, we use the lensing mass estimate from Mandelbaum et al. (2009) \((M_{200} = 2.3 \pm 0.6 \times 10^{13} h^{-1}_7 \text{M}_\odot)\). For \(R_{500}\) and other relevant quantities (e.g., angular diameter distance), we calculate medians and means based on the redshift distributions shown in Figure 1. To use the mass estimate from Mandelbaum et al. (2009) with the UPP \(R_{200}\)-scaled profile, we convert \(M_{200}\) to \(M_{500} \approx 1.5 \times 10^{13} h^{-1}_7 \text{M}_\odot\) assuming the dark matter follows a Navarro, Frenk & White (1997) (NFW) profile, using the concentration–mass relation from Duffy et al. (2008). Estimated in this way, \(R_{200} = 0.345_{-0.05}^{+0.03} \text{Mpc} (\theta_{500} = 1.24') \) for the sample of Best & Heckman (2012), and \(R_{200} = 0.25_{-0.02}^{+0.03} \text{Mpc} (\theta_{500} = 0.64') \) for the higher redshift sample of Kimball & Ivezić (2008). The redshift distribution of halos for which Mandelbaum et al. (2009) estimated a mean \(M_{200}\) is best matched to the lower-redshift sample of Best & Heckman (2012). Lacking a mass estimate for radio AGN-hosting halos with the higher redshift distribution of the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample, we have simply used the same \(M_{200}\) to estimate \(R_{200}\) for both samples.

Unfiltered brightness profiles proportional to \(y_{\text{gas}}(\theta)\) together with the ACT 148 GHz and 277 GHz beams are shown in Figure 9. Since the ACT data were filtered to optimally recover point source flux, we must correct for the bias arising from the interaction of the extended SZ intensity profile with the matched filter. In general, the measured \(A_{SZ}\) will be lower than the total “SZ flux density” of the extended profile. To estimate the bias correction, we apply the same filter kernels to maps containing beam convolved, simulated pressure profiles, input with known amplitude, and examine the resulting output amplitudes. Using simulated profiles placed according to the redshift distributions assumed for each sample, we can construct the estimated distribution of multiplicative factor \(f\) required to correct for this bias. This bias factor allows us to write \(\sigma_{\text{SZ}}\), as in Equation 7, in terms of the integrated Compton \(Y^\prime\) parameter, \(Y_{200}\), defined as the Compton \(y_{\text{gas}}(\theta)\) integrated to \(\theta_{500}\):

\[ \sigma_{\text{SZ}} \approx I_0 | g(148 \text{ GHz}) | f^{-1} Y_{200} \]

We find that for the lower-redshift Best & Heckman (2012) sample, the median \(f\) corresponds to factors of 1.32 and 1.52 for the 148 GHz and 277 GHz bands respectively. For the full sample of Kimball & Ivezić (2008) the mean corre-

\(^5\) http://home.fnal.gov/~jghao/gmbcg_sdss_catalog.html

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mass for both samples, if the high redshift halos have lower this can also introduce a systematic uncertainty that would a tic uncertainties, we varied the assumptions made in this between the high and low redshift samples would be intrin- tions yield an integrated \( E(z)^{-2/3} D_A(z)^2 Y_{200} = (5.4 \pm 1.2) \times 10^{-7} h_{70}^{-2} \) Mpc\(^2\) where \( D_A \) is the angular diameter distance. For the Best & Heckman (2012) sample, these assumptions, along with the redshifts measured for the sources, yield an integrated \( E(z)^{-2/3} D_A(z)^2 Y_{200} = (1.4 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-7} h_{70}^{-2} \) Mpc\(^2\). The integrated \( Y \) for the lower redshift Best & Heckman (2012) sample thus exceeds that of the mostly higher redshift Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample, although at low (< 2\( \sigma \)) significance. This may indicate evolutionary growth in the typical halo mass and associated gaseous atmosphere of radio galaxies from high redshift to today. Because the the Compton parameter is integrated to \( \theta_{500} \), it follows that the \( Y_{200} \) thus determined depends systematically on the mass \( (Y_{200} \propto \theta_{500}^3, \text{so } Y_{200} \propto M_{200}^{3/2} ) \) due to this geometric factor. While the uncertainty on the mass is propagated through this relation to the uncertainty quoted on the measured \( Y_{200} \), this can also introduce a systematic uncertainty that would follow the same relation. Since we have assumed the same mass for both samples, if the high redshift halos have lower average mass, the underlying difference in the integrated \( Y \) between the high and low redshift samples would be intrin- sically larger than this observed difference.

In order to characterize the level of additional systematic uncertainties, we varied the assumptions made in this calculation about the radio source redshift distribution, the typical pressure profile and the typical halo concentration in order to test the sensitivity of the calculated integrated \( Y \) parameter on these assumptions. If we adopt the redshift distribution of the radio sources given by Ho et al. (2008), the value for the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample becomes \( E(z)^{-2/3} D_A(z)^2 Y_{200} = (4.5 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-8} h_{70}^{-2} \) Mpc\(^2\), which is in agreement with the value calculated above for the redshift distribution as reported by de Zotti et al. (2010). Adopting the halo-concentration-mass relation from Neto et al. (2007) yields \( E(z)^{-2/3} D_A(z)^2 Y_{200} = (1.5 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-7} h_{70}^{-2} \) Mpc\(^2\) for the Best & Heckman (2012) sample and \( E(z)^{-2/3} D_A(z)^2 Y_{200} = (5.7 \pm 1.3) \times 10^{-7} h_{70}^{-2} \) Mpc\(^2\) for the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample. Finally, if we adopt the best-fit profile of Planck Collaboration et al. (2013), who measured the SZ pressure profiles of 62 massive, low redshift clusters, we find a resulting value of \( E(z)^{-2/3} D_A(z)^2 Y_{200} = (2.0 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{-7} h_{70}^{-2} \) Mpc\(^2\) for the Best & Heckman (2012) sample and \( E(z)^{-2/3} D_A(z)^2 Y_{200} = (8.7 \pm 2.0) \times 10^{-8} h_{70}^{-2} \) Mpc\(^2\) for the Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample. This pressure profile parameterization is more extended than the fiducial Arnaud et al. (2010) profile, so a given estimate of the amplitude of the signal yields a larger value for the integrated \( Y \) parameter.

Figure 10 shows the integrated \( Y \) parameters for both samples, with the low redshift Best & Heckman (2012) in- terpreted \( Y \) parameter plotted against the mass measure- ment for a similarly low redshift sample from a weak lensing analysis by Maudelbaum et al. (2009). If the true masses of these systems are as implied, this study has measured the SZ effect for some of the lowest mass halos to date, as most other work investigating the stacked SZ properties of galaxies and groups targeted \( \sim 10^{14} \text{M}_\odot \) systems (Hand et al. 2011; Planck Collaboration et al. 2011c; Sehgal et al. 2013). Planck Collaboration et al. (2012) probe down to a similar mass regime as we do and are also consistent with extrapolations from \( \text{Y-M} \) scaling relations based on high (galaxy cluster) mass halos. While these previous studies bin according to mass proxy, this work computes an average value over what is likely a wide range of halo masses (see Section 5.2). There is remarkable agreement among our SZ measurement for the low redshift radio galaxies, the weak lensing and clustering mass measurement of radio galaxies similarly selected, and the measurements from Planck Collaboration et al. (2012) for the relation between \( Y \) and mass for local galaxies. The higher redshift Kimball & Ivezić (2008) sample integrated \( Y \) lies below the lower redshift value, possibly indicating evolutionary growth in the typical mass of radio galaxy hosts.

5.2 Implications for galaxy formation models
Recent observations and theory support an overall picture where most radio AGN are powered by radio-mode (or hy- drostatic mode) accretion, where hot gas from a hydrostati- cally supported halo ultimately cools and fuels the AGN, which in turn heats that gaseous halo, establishing a feed- back mechanism. Our measurement of the mean SZ effect integrated \( Y \) parameter associated with radio-AGN-hosting halos provides a direct measurement of the hot gas associated with this mechanism.

Previous studies have found that the halos that host

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**Figure 9.** The angular profiles of the projected SZ effect pressure and for the ACT beams. The dashed line shows the profile assumed for the sample from Best & Heckman (2012) (median \( z = 0.30 \)) and the solid line shows the profile assumed for the sample from Kimball & Ivezić (2008) (median \( z = 1.06 \)). The red line shows the ACT 148 GHz beam profile, and the purple line shows the ACT 277 GHz beam profile.
Galaxy cluster BCGs are known to be preferentially radio-loud when compared to optical AGN (Best et al. 2005; Gralla et al. 2009) and also repeat their analysis after excluding radio AGN that lie within known optically selected clusters. While this reduces the difference between the halo masses of radio AGN and the control sample by ~15%, they still see evidence that the dark matter halos hosting radio AGN are more massive.

Quantifying the extent to which our measurement supports the radio mode feedback paradigm requires a prediction for the average $Y$ parameter. In order to make a first estimate based on the theoretical and observational framework that is currently available in the literature, we make the following assumptions. We assume a stellar mass function (for present day halos; Cole et al. 2001), the fraction of radio-loud AGN as a function of stellar mass (Best et al. 2005) and a prescription for attributing dark matter halo mass as a function of stellar mass (Li et al. 2006; Mandelbaum et al. 2009). Figure 11 illustrates the expected distribution of stellar masses (and corresponding dark matter halo masses) for radio AGN, optical AGN, and all galaxies, based on these assumptions. Although the distribution of masses for each population is broad, the average halo mass of radio AGN is significantly higher than for either optical AGN or for the total galaxy population. The expected average dark matter halo mass is $M_{200} \sim 2 \times 10^{13} M_\odot$, which is in the range probed by our study (Figure 10). If radio emission from jets were present in all active galaxies such that they would be selected in this sample, the average halo mass of the population would correspond to an undetectable (for self-similar scaling, $Y \propto M_5^{5/3}$) SZ effect signal given the current sensitivity and sample statistics. The fact that the measured $Y$ is consistent with the higher mass distribution expected for radio loud AGN provides a key consistency check of the picture that radio jets are actively providing feedback only to the most massive halos. Even more directly, the SZ effect provides evidence for the presence of ionized gas in the halos that host radio galaxies. We hope that the availability of this new observation will encourage the direct calculation of $Y$ from simulations, thereby providing a new constraint for testing cosmological structure formation models with radio-mode AGN feedback.

5.3 Contribution to CMB power spectrum

Recent large millimeter surveys have enabled more sophisticated source population and spectral index modeling of high frequency radio sources than has previously been possible (e.g., Tucci et al. 2011). In a practical cosmological context, understanding the millimeter wave spectral behavior of radio sources is useful for modeling and removing the contribution of radio sources to high resolution measurements of the cosmic microwave background. Current experiments like Planck, SPT and ACT can use radio sources detected in their surveys to constrain the spectral indices of bright radio sources (Vieira et al. 2010; Marriage et al. 2011; Planck Collaboration et al. 2011b; Mocanu et al. 2013). However, detected sources may also be easily masked from cosmological analyses, while faint sources that fall below the detection thresholds of these experiments still contribute to the observed power over the angular scales they probe. A better understanding of the spectral behavior of such radio sources enables better modeling of their contribution to the cosmological parameters.
We approximate the uncertainty for each flux density bin as
\[ \sigma_{S,i} = \sqrt{N_S S_{i,obs}^2 / N} \]
where \( N_S \) is the number of sources, \( S_{i,obs} \) is the observed flux density, and \( N \) is the number of observations.

The observed average flux density at 148 GHz for each bin is \( S_{i,obs} = S_i - A_{SZ} \). We approximate the uncertainty for each flux density bin as
\[ \sigma_{C^{PS}} = \frac{S_{i,obs}^2}{\sqrt{N} + (2S_{i,obs}^2 + S_{i,obs}^2)} \]
where \( S_{i,obs} \) is the observed flux density at 148 GHz, and \( N \) is the number of observations.

As seen Equation 10, the power contributed by the sources at 148 GHz is partially suppressed by the SZ effect term, and similarly the 277 GHz power is partially enhanced by the SZ effect. The total power can be broken into components as
\[ C^{PS} = C^{A \times A}_{\ell} + C^{SZ \times SZ}_{\ell} + C^{A \times SZ}_{\ell} \]
where \( C^{A \times A}_{\ell} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} N_i S_i^2 \) accounts for the power contributed by the radio sources' emission, \( C^{SZ \times SZ}_{\ell} \approx N_{tot} A_{SZ}^2 \) accounts for the power contributed by the SZ effect of the hosts of the radio sources, and \( C^{A \times SZ}_{\ell} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} N_i S_i A_{SZ,i} \) is the cross-power. In order to calculate the \( C^{A \times A}_{\ell} \) term, we add to the average 148 GHz flux density for each bin a constant corresponding to the SZ effect contribution at 148 GHz, \( A_{SZ} \), for the best fit model (\( A_{SZ} = 0.307 \pm 0.052 \) mJy; see Section 4.2). Thus the contribution of the radio sources, corrected for the SZ effect of their hosts, to the CMB power spectrum at 148 GHz becomes \( \langle \ell (\ell + 1) C^{A \times A}_{\ell} / (2\pi) \rangle = 0.37 \pm 0.03 \) mK² at \( \ell = 3000 \). This contribution is in general agreement with that predicted by models: for sources with 0.3 mJy < \( S_{148} < 2 \) mJy, Tucci et al. (2011) model predictions range from 0.29 to 0.32 mK² and de Zotti et al. (2005) predict 0.35 mK². Similarly, the contribution to the power spectrum from radio sources at 277 GHz after correcting for the SZ effect (including both its frequency dependence given in Section 3.2.1 and the effect of the filter discussed in Section 5.1) is \( \langle \ell (\ell + 1) C^{A \times A}_{\ell} / (2\pi) \rangle = 0.21 \pm 0.025 \) mK² at \( \ell = 3000 \). For comparison, the prior on the contribution of radio sources to the CMB power spectrum measured by ACT at 148 GHz that was used by Dunkley et al. (2013) for sources \( S_{148} < 15 \) mJy was 2.9 ± 0.4 mK² at \( \ell = 3000 \). The estimated power of sources in the SPT power spectrum after masking to a level of 6 mJy is 1.3 ± 0.2 mK² at \( \ell = 3000 \) (Reichardt et al. 2012). The amount of power that we estimate the radio sources in this study (5.0 mJy < \( S_{148} < 200 \) mJy, 0.3 mJy < \( S_{148} < 2 \) mJy) contribute after correcting for the SZ effect is 0.37 ± 0.04 mK², which accounts for a fraction of the assumed priors (~25% for SPT and ~10% for ACT).

We can also evaluate the power contributed by the SZ effect of the halos that host radio sources and the cross-power between the SZ effect and AGN emission components. Because we bin in terms of radio source power and not SZ effect amplitude, there is the assumption that \( \langle A_{SZ}^2 \rangle \sim \langle A_{SZ} \rangle^2 \). The SZ effect term becomes \( \langle \ell (\ell + 1) C^{SZ \times SZ}_{\ell} / (2\pi) \rangle = 0.06 \pm 0.004 \) mK² (statistical uncertainty) at \( \ell = 3000 \). For comparison, Sievers et al. (2013) find that the contribution of the thermal SZ effect to the ACT CMB power spectrum at \( \ell = 3000 \) is 3.4 ± 1.4 mK². The cross-power term is \( \langle \ell (\ell + 1) C^{A \times SZ}_{\ell} / (2\pi) \rangle = -0.29 \pm 0.07 \) mK².

6 CONCLUSIONS

We have investigated the ensemble millimeter properties of 1.4 GHz selected radio sources by stacking 148, 218, 277, 600, 857 and 1200 GHz data from ACT and Herschel on the positions of radio sources selected from two joint catalogs of FIRST and NVSS 1.4 GHz sources. Although most of the radio sources are AGN, whose spectra are expected to fall with increasing frequency at millimeter wavelengths, we see evidence for an average rising spectrum. This observed spectral inversion in the ACT bands is attributed to the SZ effect of the halos that host the AGN. We construct SEDs for a sample of radio sources (Best & Heckman 2012) that have optical counterparts and thus known redshifts and classifications as either AGN or SFGs. In order to constrain...
fainter 1.4 GHz source flux densities. The best-fit model

\[ S(\nu) \propto \nu^{-\alpha} \]

at 148 GHz is the cross-power between the SZ effect and the radio source emission to the SZ effect to the measured flux densities. The G.M. received funding from the Chilean grants FONDECYT of Ontario, the Ontario Research Fund – Research Excel-

\[ S(\nu) \propto \nu^{-\alpha} \]

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\[ S(\nu) \propto \nu^{-\alpha} \]

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