## Gas Accretion onto Galaxies

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# Gas Accretion onto Galaxies



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#### **Foreword**

Astrophysics is hard. This branch of physics presents a number of obvious challenges to observers and experimental scientists. The targets are at tremendous distances, signals are weak, experimental setup is difficult or impossible to control (i.e., we must analyze the data that nature provides and cannot carefully design experiments), and results are often limited by cosmic variance and telescope time. Edwin Hubble's famous characterization of observational astrophysics is apt: "... we search among ghostly errors of observations for landmarks that are scarcely more substantial." Similarly, modern astrophysics makes intense demands on theorists. Current problems are rarely tractable with analytical treatments, and computer simulations require exquisite resolution and extreme dynamic range in order to adequately capture crucial small-scale microphysical processes in a cosmological (large-scale) context. Indeed, in the area of galaxy formation and evolution, full numerical modeling of all of the relevant physics is usually impossible; many important but unresolved processes must be handled with sub-grid prescriptions, and different prescriptions for sub-grid physics can lead to profoundly different results. To make progress today, theorists must be inventive and resourceful, but they must also exercise caution about systematic uncertainties in simulation outcomes.

For these reasons, it is perhaps not surprising that just a few years ago, a highly influential paper by Kereš et al. presented a seemingly simple question: how do galaxies get their gas? This is clearly a fundamental question about galaxy evolution, and at first glance this seems like a relatively straightforward issue. After all, the (presumably pristine) intergalactic gas reservoir from which galaxies form is mostly a simple hydrogen plasma, and many of the complications that plague other topics (e.g., dust, molecules, turbulence, magnetic fields, and cosmic rays) might be negligible or at least of secondary importance. However, in reality this simple question has proved to be a recalcitrant problem, for many reasons. On the observational side, accreting intergalactic gases have very low densities, and at the expected densities, emission from the accreting gas is very difficult (often impossible) to detect. Moreover, the infalling material can be shock heated into temperature ranges (e.g., the so-called warm-hot intergalactic medium at  $10^5$ – $10^7$  K) that require ultraviolet or X-ray observations with cutting-edge telescopes

vi Foreword

in space, an expensive endeavor. This seemingly simple question creates headaches for theorists as well, e.g., in addition to shock heating, infalling gas can be shredded by processes such as the Kelvin-Helmholtz instability. Conversely, some accreting material could be thermally unstable and could fragment into rather small and low-mass clouds that ultimately drop into a galaxy and fuel star formation. These processes can be difficult to accurately model in computational simulations, especially if the simulation has a large enough size to provide a proper cosmological context. In addition, gas accretion is not an isolated phenomenon; as the material descends into a galaxy, it may encounter outflowing and enriched material driven away by star formation or feedback from supermassive nuclear black holes, and the interactions between the infalling and outflowing matter can significantly change how accretion works (and the theoretical predictions to be tested with observations). Stripping of gas from satellite galaxies may play a role in addition to infalling primordial material, and of course dark matter cannot be ignored. In the end, understanding how galaxies get their gas turns out to be a very difficult question.

However, there are reasons to feel optimistic about the likelihood of progress on understanding galactic gas accretion. Absorption spectroscopy can detect low-density gas and is orders of magnitude more sensitive than emission studies, and access to high-resolution spectroscopy in the rest-frame UV and X-ray bands provides detailed information on all of the likely phases in circumgalactic and intergalactic media from z=0 to z>5, including the elusive warm-hot gas. The deployment of the Cosmic Origins Spectrograph (COS) on the Hubble Space Telescope has been particularly transformative. By providing coverage of UV resonance lines from a wide variety of elements and ionization stages at low and intermediate redshifts, COS has enabled statistically useful studies of absorption lines from circumgalactic/intergalactic plasmas in a variety of contexts, and programs such as the COS-Halos survey have led to rapid progress on low-density and highly ionized gas in galaxy halos. On the theoretical side, Moore's Law continues to hold, and advances in computational power support increasingly sophisticated simulations. Theoretical modeling is improving by leaps and bounds.

For these reasons, this is an ideal time for a set of detailed reviews of recent observational and theoretical work on the topic of how galaxies acquire their gas. The chapters in this book present a set of reviews that span many of the key observations of circumgalactic material ranging from cool and neutral matter to hot and highly ionized plasma over a wide range of redshifts. The book also presents excellent discussions of theoretical motivations and progress on several aspects of accretion and galactic feedback. I expect that this publication will provide a valuable tool for pundits and highly experienced researchers as well as students that are just beginning to come up to speed on galaxy evolution. I am sure that I will often reach for this set of reviews, and I commend the authors and editors for assembling an excellent compendium on a crucial aspect of galaxy evolution.

Amherst, MA, USA November 2016 Todd Tripp

### **Preface**

From majestic spirals to behemoth ellipticals to disordered dwarfs, the richness and diversity of galaxies has been a subject of study since the time of Hubble. A common feature among all galaxies is that their growth is driven by accretion of material from a vast reservoir of surrounding intergalactic gas, which provides fuel for forming new stars and growing supermassive black holes. Yet this ubiquitously predicted accretion has been notoriously difficult to detect directly. Until recently accretion was only seen around our own Milky Way, but advancing facilities have now enabled astronomers to obtain tantalizing evidence of accretion out to much earlier epochs, back to when galaxies were in their heyday of growth. Meanwhile, supercomputer simulations have highlighted that simple gravitationally driven accretion is only one aspect of a vast and complex story for how galaxies obtain their fuel, a story that includes energetic processes such as supernova-driven winds and black hole accretion. This edited volume presents the current state of accretion studies from both observational and theoretical perspectives, and charts our progress towards answering the fundamental yet elusive question, "how do galaxies get their gas?"

Understanding how galaxies form and evolve has been a central focus in astronomy for over a century. These studies have accelerated in the new millennium, driven by two key advances: the establishment of a firm concordance cosmological model that provides the backbone on which galaxies form and grow, and the recognition that galaxies grow not in isolation but within a "cosmic ecosystem" that includes the vast reservoir of gas filling intergalactic space. This latter aspect in which galaxies continually exchange matter with the intergalactic medium via inflows and outflows has been dubbed the "baryon cycle", and is featured as one of the central questions in the 2010 Astronomy Decadal Survey (*New Worlds, New Horizons*). The topic of our book is directly related to the baryon cycle, in particular its least well-constrained aspect, namely gas accretion.

Accretion is a rare area of astrophysics in which the basic theoretical predictions are established, but the observations have been as yet unable to verify the expectations. Accretion has long been seen around the Milky Way in so-called High Velocity Clouds, but the inferred accretion rates are uncertain. Detecting accretion even around nearby galaxies has proved challenging; its multiphase nature requires

viii Preface

sensitive observations across the electromagnetic spectrum for full characterization. Theory also strongly predicts that accretion is much more rapid in the early universe, so much effort has gone into developing new ways to detect accretion in distant, unresolved galaxies. A promising approach involves looking for kinematic signatures, but accretion signatures are often confused with internal motions within galaxies. Meanwhile, theorists have realized that accretion left unchecked would lead to galaxies that look nothing like observed galaxies. Hence accretion must somehow be a self-regulating process. Understanding the physical origin of this delicate balance of the baryon cycle that leads to galaxies as we see them has proved to be an immense challenge, requiring the most advanced supercomputer simulations to model properly. Accretion studies therefore touch a wide range of astrophysical processes, and hence a wide cross section of the astronomical community.

An edited volume on this topic is timely for a number of reasons. Observational facilities are finally able to access the wavelength ranges and depths at which accretion processes may be manifest. Because inflowing gas is diffuse and does not glow like stars, the best hope for direct detection generally lies in absorption-line spectroscopy. It turns out that the ultraviolet waveband contains the most interesting lines for this purpose, which has made the Cosmic Origins Spectrograph on Hubble a game changer for baryon cycle observations. Meanwhile, the emergence of multi-object spectroscopy on 10m-class ground-based telescopes such as Keck and VLT has likewise revolutionized our understanding of baryon cycle processes at intermediate redshifts, where the UV lines are redshifted into the more accessible optical band. These baryon cycle studies represent a key line of investigation for upcoming 30m-class facilities and the proposed next-generation UV/optical space telescope (LUVOIR), which may even be sensitive enough to map UV line emission from accreting gas. At the same time, radio investigations at low redshift continue to unravel the properties of the neutral gas around galaxies in high spatial resolution. Hence the time is right to survey these multiple lines of investigation and determine the state of the field in accretion studies of the baryon cycle.

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Baltimore, MD, USA Cape Town, South Africa December 2016 Andrew Fox Romeel Davé

# **Contents**

An I	Intro	duction to Gas Accretion onto Galaxies	1
Mar	y E. F	Putman	
1	Intro	duction	1
2	The	Need for Accretion Through Cosmic Time	2
3	Expe	ected Modes of Accretion	5
4	Dire	ct Observational Evidence for Accretion	7
5	Sum	mary	10
Refe	erence	es	11
		etion onto the Milky Way	15
Phil	ipp R	ichter	
1	Intro	duction	15
	1.1	Historical Remarks	15
	1.2	Cosmological Context	16
	1.3	Parameterization of Gas Accretion	18
2	The	Observed Distribution of Gas Around the Milky Way	20
	2.1	Neutral Gas	21
	2.2	Warm Ionized Gas	26
	2.3	Hot Ionized Gas	30
	2.4	Gas-Accretion Rates from Observations	32
3	Simu	lations of Milky Way Gas Accretion	35
	3.1	Hydrodynamical Simulations of Gas Infall	35
	3.2	Cosmological Hydrodynamical Simulations	38
	3.3	Comparison with Observations	40
4	Conc	cluding Remarks	41
Refe	erence	S	43
		Gas Accretion onto Nearby Galaxies	49
Feli		ockman	
1		xies Then and Now	49
2	The 1	Disk-Halo Interface: Clouds and Shells	51

x Contents

3	High Velocity Clouds	53
	3.1 High Velocity Clouds in M31 and M33	54
	3.2 The Smith Cloud: Accretion in Action	56
4	H I Outside Local Group Galaxies	58
5	Other Neutral Gas in the Local Group	59
	5.1 IC 10	59
	5.2 M31–M33 Clouds	60
6	Starless H I Near and Far	61
Ref	Ferences	63
Ga	s Accretion and Star Formation Rates	67
Jor	ge Sánchez Almeida	
1	Introduction: Key Physical Parameters	67
2	Characteristic Physical Parameters	69
3	Evidence for a Relationship Between the SFR and the Gas	
	Infall Rate	71
	3.1 The Gas-Consumption Time-Scale	71
	3.2 Relationship Between Stellar Mass, SFR, and Gas Metallicity	72
	3.3 Relationship Between Lopsidedness and Metallicity	76
	3.4 Metallicity Drops in Starbursts of Local Star-Forming Galaxies	78
	3.5 The Traditional G-dwarf Problem	80
	3.6 Existence of a Minimum Metallicity for the	
	Star-Forming Gas	82
	3.7 Origin of α-enhanced Gas Forming Stars in Local Galaxies	84
	3.8 The Metallicity of the Quiescent BCD Galaxies	85
	3.9 Direct Measurement of Inflows in Star-Forming Galaxies	86
4	Obvious Complications and Future Trends	87
5	Conclusions	89
Ref	Ferences	90
Gas	s Accretion Traced in Absorption in Galaxy Spectroscopy	95
	te H. R. Rubin	
1	Introduction	95
2	First Detections: Gas Accretion in Late-Stage Galaxy Evolution	97
	2.1 First Reports of Inflow Observed Down the Barrel	97
	2.2 Inflows onto AGN-Host Galaxies	98
	2.3 Inflows on the Smallest Scales: Feeding Luminous QSOs?	100
	2.4 Inflows onto Early-Type and Post-Starburst Galaxies	102
	2.5 Summary	103
3	Tracing Inflows with Rest-Frame Ultraviolet Galaxy Spectroscopy	103
4	Toward Assessment of the Incidence of Inflow	108
	4.1 Spectral Confusion	108
	4.2 Spatial Resolution	111
5	Summary and Future Directions	112
Ref	Ferences	114

Contents xi

Gas	S Accretion via Lyman Limit Systems	117
Nic	olas Lehner	
1	Introduction	117
2	Metallicity: Methodology and Uncertainties	121
3	The Metallicity of the pLLSs and LLSs at $z \lesssim 1$	123
4	Metallicity Distribution at High z and Redshift Evolution	127
5	Metallicities as a Function of $N_{\rm HI}$ over Cosmic Time	129
6	Pristine LLSs	130
7	C/α in pLLSs and LLSs over Cosmic Time	131
8	Lyman Limit Systems and O VI	133
9	Gas Accretion via pLLSs and LLSs?	
10	Conclusions and Future Directions	140
Ref	erences	142
Cas	Accretion in Star-Forming Galaxies	145
	nn G. Kacprzak	173
1	Introduction	145
2	The Spatial Distribution of the Circumgalactic Medium	
-	2.1 Circumgalactic Gas Radial Distribution	146
	2.2 Circumgalactic Gas Spatial Distribution	148
3	Circumgalactic Gas Kinematics	
5	3.1 Internal or Intrinsic Gas Kinematics	151
	3.2 Relative Gas-Galaxy Kinematics	153
4	Circumgalactic and Galaxy Gas-Phase Metallicities	156
5	Putting It All Together	159
6	Direct Imaging of Gas Accretion.	160
7	Summary	162
	erences	162
	e Circumgalactic Medium in Massive Halos	167
	ao-Wen Chen	
1	Introduction	167
2	Incidence/Covering Fraction of Cool Gas in Quiescent Halos	169
3	Radial Profiles of Absorbing Gas	174
4	Kinematics	
5	Chemical Enrichment	
6	Quasar Host Halos	
7	Summary and Future Prospects	
Ref	erences	191
Gas	S Accretion and Giant Lyα Nebulae	195
Seb	astiano Cantalupo	
1	Introduction	195
2	Observations of Giant Lyα Nebulae	196
	2.1 Quasar Lyα Nebulae	196
	2.2 Radio-Galaxy Lyα Halos	201
	2.3 Lyα Blobs	202

xii Contents

3	Origin of the Emission	205
	3.1 Recombination Radiation	205
	3.2 Continuum Pumping (Scattering)	208
	3.3 Collisional Excitation (Cooling)	210
4	Origin of the Emitting Gas, Kinematics, and Gas Flows	212
5	Summary	217
-	erences	217
KCI	cicinces	210
Gas	s Accretion and Galactic Chemical Evolution: Theory	
and	l Observations	221
Kris	stian Finlator	
1	Introduction	222
2	Physical Processes	223
	2.1 Mergers	224
	2.2 Outflows and Galactic Fountains	225
	2.3 Environment	229
3	Galaxy Growth and Halo Growth	230
4	The Equilibrium Model	231
	4.1 A Single Zone	231
	4.2 Multi-Zone Models	236
5	Extensions to the Equilibrium Model	237
	5.1 The $M_*$ -Z-SFR Relation: Observations and Intuition	238
	5.2 The <i>M</i> *-Z-SFR Relation: Equilibrium Treatments	239
	5.3 The $M_*$ -Z-SFR Relation: Non-equilibrium Treatments	241
6	Summary	244
	erences	246
	s Accretion and Angular Momentum	249
Kyl	e R. Stewart	
1	Introduction	249
2	Angular Momentum of Dark Matter Halos	251
	2.1 Tidal Torque Theory	253
	2.2 Angular Momentum Acquisition via Mergers	254
3	The Angular Momentum of Galaxies	255
	3.1 Modeling Gas Accretion onto Galaxies	255
	3.2 Hydrodynamic Simulations of Galaxy Formation	256
4	Angular Momentum of Gaseous Halos	
	4.1 Observations of High Angular Momentum Gas	258
	4.2 "Cold Flow" Gas Accretion and Angular Momentum	259
5	Summary and Conclusion	265
Ref	erences	268

Contents xiii

Obs	ervational Diagnostics of Gas Flows: Insights from	
Cosı	mological Simulations	271
Clau	de-André Faucher-Giguère	
1	Introduction	271
2	Absorption Diagnostics	273
	2.1 H I Covering Fractions	273
	2.2 Metal Absorption Systems Transverse to Galaxies	279
	2.3 Down-the-Barrel Metal Absorption Lines	281
	2.4 Kinematic and Azimuthal Angle Diagnostics	282
	2.5 Cosmological Absorber Statistics	286
3	Emission Diagnostics	289
	3.1 Lyα Emission from the CGM	290
	3.2 UV Metal Line Emission from the CGM	292
	3.3 X-ray Emission from Hot Halo Gas	293
4	Conclusions and Outlook	294
Refe	rences	296
		201
	Effect of Galactic Feedback on Gas Accretion and Wind Recycling	301
	ke van de Voort	201
1	Introduction	301
2	Virial Relations	303
2	2.1 Cooling Time	306
3	Methods to Probe the Gas Cycle	307
	3.1 Semi-Analytic Models	307
	3.2 Equilibrium Models	308
	3.3 Hydrodynamical Simulations	309
4	The Importance of Feedback and Wind Recycling	310
	4.1 Ejective and Preventive Feedback	312
	4.2 The Effect of Feedback on the Properties of Accreting Gas	315
5	Discussion and Conclusions	317
Refe	erences	319
Gas	Accretion via Condensation and Fountains	323
	po Fraternali	323
1	Introduction	323
2	Extraplanar Gas: Life at the Disc-Halo Interface	326
3	Galactic Fountains and the Origin of Extraplanar Gas	329
4	Hydrodynamical Simulations of Disc-Corona Mixing	333
5	Galactic Fountain with Accretion: Beyond the Ballistic Model	340
6	Observational Evidence of Fountain-Driven Accretion	342
7	Galaxy Evolution with Fountain Accretion	347
8	Concluding Remarks	349
_	concluding Remarks	349 350

xiv Contents

Gas	Accretion and Star-Formation Rates with IFUs	
and	Background Quasars	355
Nico	as F. Bouché	
1	Gas Accretion in the Context of Galaxy Evolution	355
2	Detecting Gas Accretion	358
	2.1 Observational and Technological Breakthroughs	358
	2.2 Measuring the Gas Accretion Rate	360
3	Gas Accretion from IFU Surveys	361
	3.1 Case Study 1: HE2243 at $z = 2.32$	361
	3.2 Case Study 2: J1422 at $z = 0.91$	363
	3.3 Case Study 3: H I Selection	366
4		366
Refe	ences	
Inde		369

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xvi Contributors

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## Acronyms

#### Gas Accretion onto Galaxies, Fox and Davé, eds.

ACS Advanced Camera for Surveys

AGN Active galactic nuclei

ALMA Atacama Large Millimeter/Submillimeter Array

AMR Adaptive mesh refinement

AO Adaptive optics

ASKAP Australian Square Kilometer Array Pathfinder

BAL Broad Absorption Line

BASIC Bimodal Absorption System Imaging Campaign

BAT Burst Alert Telescope BCD Blue compact dwarf

BOSS Baryon Oscillation Spectroscopic Survey

CGM Circumgalactic medium

CL Confidence limit

CLUES Constrained Local UniversE Simulations

COS Cosmic Origins Spectrograph

DIG Diffuse ionized gas

DLA Damped Lyman-alpha (system)

DM Dark Matter

EAGLE Evolution and Assembly of Galaxies and their Environments

EBHIS Effelsberg-Bonn HI Survey

ESI Echelette Spectrograph and Imager (instrument on Keck)

FIRE Feedback in Realistic Environments (simulations)

FMR Fundamental metallicity relation
FWHM Full width at half maximum
GASS Galactic All-Sky Survey
GBT Green Bank Telescope
GMM Gaussian mixture modeling

GMOS Gemini Multi-Object Spectrograph

xviii Acronyms

HALOGAS Hydrogen Accretion in LOcal GAlaxieS (survey)

**HST** Hubble Space Telescope **HVC** High-velocity cloud HzRG High-z radio galaxy Intracluster medium **ICM** IFU Integral field unit **IGM** Intergalactic medium **IMF** Initial mass function **ISM** Interstellar medium

IVC Intermediate-velocity cloud
JVLA Jansky Very Large Array
JWST James Webb Space Telescope
KCWI Keck Cosmic Web Imager

KMOSS K-Band Multi-Object Spectrograph

KODIAQ Keck Observatory Database of Ionized Absorbers toward Quasars

LAB Leiden Argentine Bonn (survey)

LAB Lyman-alpha blob
LAE Lyman-alpha emitter
LBG Lyman-break galaxy
LBT Large Binocular Telescope

LINER Low-ionization nuclear emission line regions

LLS Lyman limit system
LMC Large Magellanic Cloud
LRG Luminous red galaxy

LRIS Low Resolution Imaging Spectrometer

LUVOIR Large UltraViolet/Optical/InfraRed (mission concept)

LVC Low-velocity cloud

ACDMLambda Cold Dark Matter (cosmology/model)MANGAMapping Nearby Galaxies at APO (survey)MEGAFLOWMusE GAs FLOw and Wind (survey)

MOSFIRE Multi-Object Spectrometer For Infra-Red Exploration

MQN MUSE Quasar Nebulae MS Magellanic Stream

MUSE Multi-Unit Spectroscopic Explorer (instrument on VLT)

MZR Mass-metallicity relation
QBCD Quiescent blue compact dwarf

QSO Quasi-stellar object

PCWI Palomar Cosmic Web Imager
PDF Probability distribution function
PLLS Partial Lyman limit system
PSF Point spread function
SDSS Sloan Digital Sky Survey
SFG Star forming galaxy
SFR Star formation rate

SIMPLE SInfoni Mg II Program for Line Emitters

Acronyms xix

SINFONI Spectrograph for INtegral Field Observations in the Near Infrared

SKA Square Kilometer Array SLLS Super Lyman limit system

SN Supernovae

SPH Smoothed particle hydrodynamics Sub-DLA Sub-damped Lyman-alpha (system)

SXRB Soft X-ray background TMT Thirty-Meter Telescope

TPCF Two-point correlation function

TTT Tidal torque theory

UV Ultraviolet

UVB Ultraviolet Background VLT Very Large Telescope

VMP Very metal poor (gas or absorbers) WHAM Wisconsin H-alpha Mapper

WSRT Westerbork Synthesis Radio Telescope

XMP Extremely metal poor (galaxy)