

Planck intermediate results. XXV. The Andromeda Galaxy as seen by Planck

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ABSTRACT

The Andromeda Galaxy (M31) is one of a few galaxies that has sufficient angular size on the sky to be resolved by the *Planck* satellite. *Planck* has detected M31 in all of its frequency bands, and has mapped out the dust emission with the High Frequency Instrument, clearly resolving multiple spiral arms and sub-features. We examine the morphology of this long-wavelength dust emission as seen by *Planck*, including a study of its outermost spiral arms, and investigate the dust heating mechanism across M31. We find that dust dominating the longer wavelength emission (≥ 0.3 mm) is heated by the diffuse stellar population (as traced by 3.6 μm emission), with the dust dominating the shorter wavelength emission heated by a mix of the old stellar population and star-forming regions (as traced by 24 μm emission). We also fit spectral energy distributions (SEDs) for individual 5' pixels and quantify the dust properties across the galaxy, taking into account these different heating mechanisms, finding that there is a linear decrease in temperature with galactocentric distance for dust heated by the old stellar population, as would be expected, with temperatures ranging from around 22 K in the nucleus to 14 K outside of the 10 kpc ring. Finally, we measure the integrated spectrum of the whole galaxy, which we find to be well-fitted with a global dust temperature of (18.9 ± 0.9) K with a spectral index of 1.61 ± 0.11 (assuming a single modified blackbody), and a significant amount of free-free emission at intermediate frequencies, which when converted into a star formation rate agrees well with the star formation estimate from H α emission of $0.4 M_{\odot} \text{yr}^{-1}$. We see no evidence for spinning dust emission, with a 3σ upper limit of 1.26 Jy in the 20-60 GHz band.

Key words. Galaxies: individual: Messier 31 – Galaxies: structure – Galaxies: ISM – Submillimeter: galaxies – Radio continuum: galaxies

1. Introduction

The infrared (IR) and submillimetre (submm) wavelength domain is particularly useful for understanding the processes driving star formation in various galactic environments, since dust grains re-emit in this frequency window the energy that has been absorbed from the UV-optical starlight. Our view of the global

inner and outer disk star formation and ISM properties of the spiral galaxy in which we live is limited by our position inside the Galaxy, but our nearest spiral neighbour, the Andromeda Galaxy (also known as Messier 31 and NGC 224), offers the best view of the environmental effects within an entire galaxy, particularly because of its large angular extent on the sky.

M31 has been extensively studied at IR/submm wavelengths with data from the *Infrared Astronomical Satellite* (IRAS, Habing et al. 1984; Walterbos & Schwing 1987), the *Infrared*

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Space Observatory (ISO, Haas et al. 1998), the Spitzer Space Telescope (Barmby et al. 2006; Gordon et al. 2006), and, most recently, the Herschel Space Observatory (Fritz et al. 2012; Groves et al. 2012; Smith et al. 2012; Ford et al. 2013; Kirk et al. 2013; Draine et al. 2014; Viaene et al. 2014). Except for the *Herschel* data, these IR observations have been restricted to observing the peak of the dust emission in the far infrared (FIR) as well as mid-infrared (MIR) emission from $\gtrsim 100$ K dust and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. In contrast, it has been particularly difficult to map M31 at wavelengths longer than $500 \mu\text{m}$, which is needed to constrain the Rayleigh-Jeans side of the dust emission and the contribution of non-thermal emission sources to the spectral energy distribution (SED). In fact, the submm data for nearby spiral galaxies that have been published (e.g., Dunne et al. 2000; Stevens et al. 2005; Dale et al. 2007) have had low signal-to-noise levels, have been biased towards infrared-bright sources, or have only covered the centres of galaxies.

Data from *Planck* (Tauber et al. 2010)¹, which range from 28.4 to 857 GHz, allow us to examine the Rayleigh-Jeans tail of the dust SED and the transition into free-free and synchrotron emission at longer wavelengths. Moreover, since *Planck* observed the entire sky at high sensitivity, its High Frequency Instrument (HFI, Lamarre et al. 2010) provides high signal-to-noise maps of M31 that extend to the outermost edges of the galaxy.

Planck's large-scale map of the region provides the opportunity to study dust heating in M31 out to the optical radius of the galaxy. Prior investigations with *IRAS* of dust heating in our Galaxy and others had produced seemingly contradictory results, with some studies indicating that dust seen at 60–100 μm was heated primarily by star-forming regions (Devereux & Young 1990; Buat & Xu 1996) and others demonstrating that evolved stellar populations could partially contribute to heating the dust seen by *IRAS* (e.g., Lonsdale Persson & Helou 1987; Walterbos & Schwering 1987; Sauvage & Thuan 1992; Walterbos & Greenawalt 1996). More recent observations with *Herschel* of a number of galaxies, including M81, M83, NGC2403 (Bendo et al. 2010, 2012a) and M33 (Boquien et al. 2011), demonstrated that dust-dominating emission at wavelengths shorter than $160 \mu\text{m}$ was primarily heated by star-forming regions (henceforth abbreviated as ‘‘SFR dust’’), while dust-dominating emission at wavelengths over $250 \mu\text{m}$ may be primarily heated by the total stellar populations, including evolved stars in the discs and bulges of the galaxies (henceforth abbreviated as interstellar radiation field dust, or ‘‘ISRF dust.’’) *Planck* observations of the SED of M31 allow us to examine dust heating within the galaxy at frequencies much lower than was possible with *Herschel*. Once the dust heating sources are identified empirically and the SED is separated into different thermal components based on the heating sources, it will be possible to more accurately measure the temperature of the coldest dust within M31, which is also critically important to properly estimate the dust mass.

Non-thermal emission from M31 can also be measured at the lowest frequencies covered by *Planck*. Synchrotron emission from M31 was discovered in the early days of radio astronomy (Brown & Hazard 1950, 1951). It has subsequently been mapped

at low frequencies (Beck et al. 1998; Berkhuijsen et al. 2003), and associated emission has even been detected at gamma-ray frequencies (Abdo et al. 2010). However, the synchrotron emission has not been studied at higher frequency. Free-free emission is also expected from M31. This emission may be used to measure star formation rates in a way that is not affected by dust extinction or reliant upon assumptions about the dust heating sources (e.g., see Murphy et al. 2011). However, free-free emission from M31 has not yet been identified. *Planck* data provide the opportunity to do this for the first time.

Section 2 of this paper describes the *Planck* data, and Sect. 3 the ancillary data that we use here. We discuss the morphology of the dust as seen by *Planck* in Sect. 4, the colour ratios and the implications they have on the dust heating mechanism in Sect. 5, and the spectral energy distributions on $5'$ scales in Sect. 6 and for the whole of M31 in Sect. 7. We conclude in Sect. 8.

2. *Planck* data

Planck (Tauber et al. 2010; Planck Collaboration I 2011) is the third generation space mission to measure the anisotropy of the cosmic microwave background (CMB). It observes the sky in nine frequency bands covering 30–857 GHz with high sensitivity and angular resolution from $31'$ to $5'$. The Low Frequency Instrument (LFI; Mandolesi et al. 2010; Bersanelli et al. 2010; Mennella et al. 2011) covers the 30, 44, and 70 GHz bands with amplifiers cooled to 20 K. The High Frequency Instrument (HFI; Lamarre et al. 2010; Planck HFI Core Team 2011a) covers the 100, 143, 217, 353, 545, and 857 GHz bands with bolometers cooled to 0.1 K. Polarization is measured in all but the highest two bands (Leahy et al. 2010; Rosset et al. 2010). A combination of radiative cooling and three mechanical coolers produces the temperatures needed for the detectors and optics (Planck Collaboration II 2011). Two data processing centres (DPCs) check and calibrate the data and make maps of the sky (Planck HFI Core Team 2011b; Zacchei et al. 2011). *Planck*'s sensitivity, angular resolution, and frequency coverage make it a powerful instrument for Galactic and extragalactic astrophysics as well as cosmology. Early astrophysics results are given in Planck Collaboration VIII–XXVI 2011, based on data taken between 13 August 2009 and 7 June 2010. Intermediate astrophysics results are presented in a series of papers between the major data releases.

In this paper we use *Planck* data from the 2013 distribution of released products (Planck Collaboration I 2014), which can be accessed via the *Planck* Legacy Archive interface², based on the data acquired by *Planck* during its ‘‘nominal’’ operations period from 13 August 2009 to 27 November 2010. In order to study M31 in the *Planck* maps, the CMB needs to be subtracted. CMB maps in the M31 region are shown in Fig. 1. The CMB-subtracted *Planck* maps are presented in Fig. 2 at their native resolution and their properties are summarized in Table 1. We use various combinations of the *Planck* maps throughout this paper, and all maps are used to qualitatively study the emission at all *Planck* frequencies in Sect. 4. Maps at 217 GHz and higher frequencies are used to quantitatively investigate the emission in Sects. 5 and 6, and all frequencies are used to measure the total emission in Sect. 7.

CMB subtraction is particularly important for M31, given the similarities in angular size between M31 and the anisotropies in the CMB. Additionally, there is an unfortunately large

¹ *Planck* (<http://www.esa.int/Planck>) is a project of the European Space Agency – ESA – with instruments provided by two scientific Consortia funded by ESA member states (in particular the lead countries: France and Italy) with contributions from NASA (USA), and telescope reflectors provided in a collaboration between ESA and a scientific Consortium led and funded by Denmark.

² http://www.sciops.esa.int/index.php?project=planck&page=Planck_Legacy_Archive

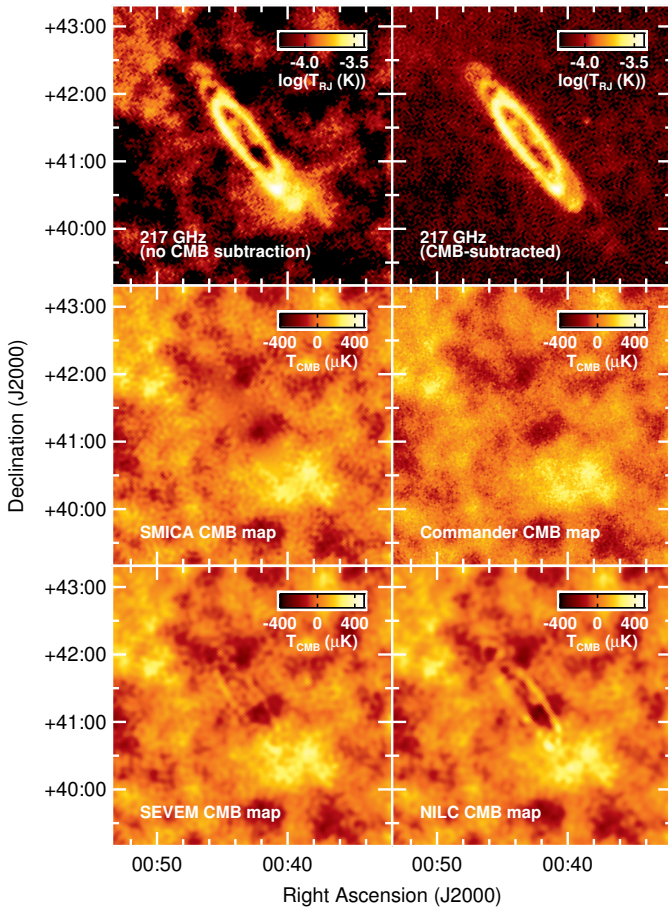


Fig. 1. *Top left:* M31 at 217 GHz, with no CMB subtraction. *Top right:* the SMICA CMB-subtracted 217 GHz map. *Middle left:* the SMICA map of the CMB in the same region. *Middle right:* Commander CMB map. *Bottom left:* SEVEM CMB map. *Bottom right:* NILC CMB map.

(approximately 290 μK) positive CMB fluctuation at the southern end of M31, which can be clearly seen in the CMB map panels of Fig. 1. As part of the *Planck* 2013 delivery, CMB maps from four component separation techniques were released, namely maps from the Commander, NILC, SEVEM and SMICA component separation methods (Planck Collaboration XII 2014). We specifically use the SMICA CMB map to subtract the CMB from the *Planck* data, as from a visual inspection this appears to be the cleanest map of the CMB in this region from the four methods (see Fig. 1). The NILC and SEVEM maps are particularly contaminated by emission from M31; we also use the NILC map to test the impact of residual foreground emission being subtracted out of the maps along with the CMB. Figure 1 shows the 217 GHz map pre- and post-CMB subtraction, along with the four CMB maps of the M31 region.

The maps are converted from T_{CMB} to T_{RJ} using the standard coefficients as described in Planck Collaboration ES (2013); we also use the nominal frequencies for the bands, and (when fitting a spectral model to the data) colour corrections, depending on the spectra of the emission. The 100 and 217 GHz *Planck* bands include CO emission. The CO emission from M31 has been mapped with ground-based telescopes (e.g., Koper et al. 1991; Dame et al. 1993; Nieten et al. 2006, but these do not include the

full extent of M31 that is considered here. The CO emission is too weak to be reliably detected in the full-sky *Planck* CO maps (Planck Collaboration XIII 2014).³ We do not correct for the CO emission in the maps; instead we omit the 217 GHz channel from the SED fitting in Sect. 6, and we compare the level of CO emission expected from the ground-based CO map of Nieten et al. (2006) (described in Sect. 3.1) with the emission attributable to CO in the integrated *Planck* measurements of M31 in Sect. 7.

To assess the uncertainty in the *Planck* maps, we estimate the instrumental noise and cirrus contamination by measuring the scatter of flux densities in an adjacent background region of the *Planck* maps (see Sect. 6 for details). We conservatively assume calibration uncertainties of 10% for 857 and 545 GHz and 3% for all other *Planck* frequencies (see Planck Collaboration ES 2013).

For some parts of this analysis (particularly the integrated spectrum in Sect. 7), the *Planck* full-sky maps are used directly in HEALPix⁴ format (Górski et al. 2005). For the higher resolution analyses, however, we use “postage stamp” 2-D projected maps centred on M31. To conserve the photometry of the data whilst repixelizing, we use the Gnomdrizz package (Paradis et al. 2012a) to create the postage stamp maps from the HEALPix data; since the HEALPix Gnomview function uses nearest-neighbour interpolation, it does not necessarily conserve the photometry, although we tested that there is no significant difference in this case. The resulting postage stamp maps in equatorial coordinates are of size $250' \times 250'$ with $0.5' \times 0.5'$ pixels, centred on RA $10^{\circ}68$, dec $41^{\circ}27$ ($l = 121^{\circ}2$, $b = -21^{\circ}6$).

When quantitatively analysing the data, we first smooth to a common resolution of either $5'$ (at 217 GHz and above, where the data have a native resolution of $4'39$ – $4'87$) or 1° (at all frequencies) by convolving the map with a circular Gaussian beam with a full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) of $\theta_{\text{conv}} = (\theta_{\text{new}}^2 - \theta_{\text{old}}^2)^{1/2}$, where θ_{new} is the desired FWHM and θ_{old} is the current FWHM of the maps. For some of the later analysis, we also repixelize the $5'$ resolution data into $5'$ pixels (see Sect. 5), while the 1° data are analysed at their native HEALPix N_{side} resolution. The *Planck* beams are not symmetric at the roughly 20% level (e.g., see Zacchei et al. 2011; Planck HFI Core Team 2011b); smoothing the data to a common resolution reduces the effect of the asymmetry. However, a residual low-level effect will still be present in this analysis, for example in terms of introducing some correlation between adjacent $5'$ pixels.

3. Ancillary data

The ancillary data that we use in this paper fall under two categories. For the higher resolution spatial analysis, we need observations with resolution equal to or greater than the *Planck* high frequency resolution of $5'$; these are described in Sect. 3.1. For the integrated SED, we can make use of large-scale survey data with a resolution of 1° or higher; we describe these data sets in Sect. 3.2. All of the data sets are summarized in Table 1.

We also make use of ancillary information about the distance and inclination of M31. M31 is at a distance of (785 ± 25) kpc

³ There is no detection in the *Planck* Type 1 CO map (Planck Collaboration XIII 2014); the morphology is not consistent with the known structure in the Type 2 map, and although there is a detection in the Type 3 map and the ring morphology is visible, the detection does not have a high signal-to-noise ratio and may be contaminated by dust emission.

⁴ <http://healpix.jpl.nasa.gov>

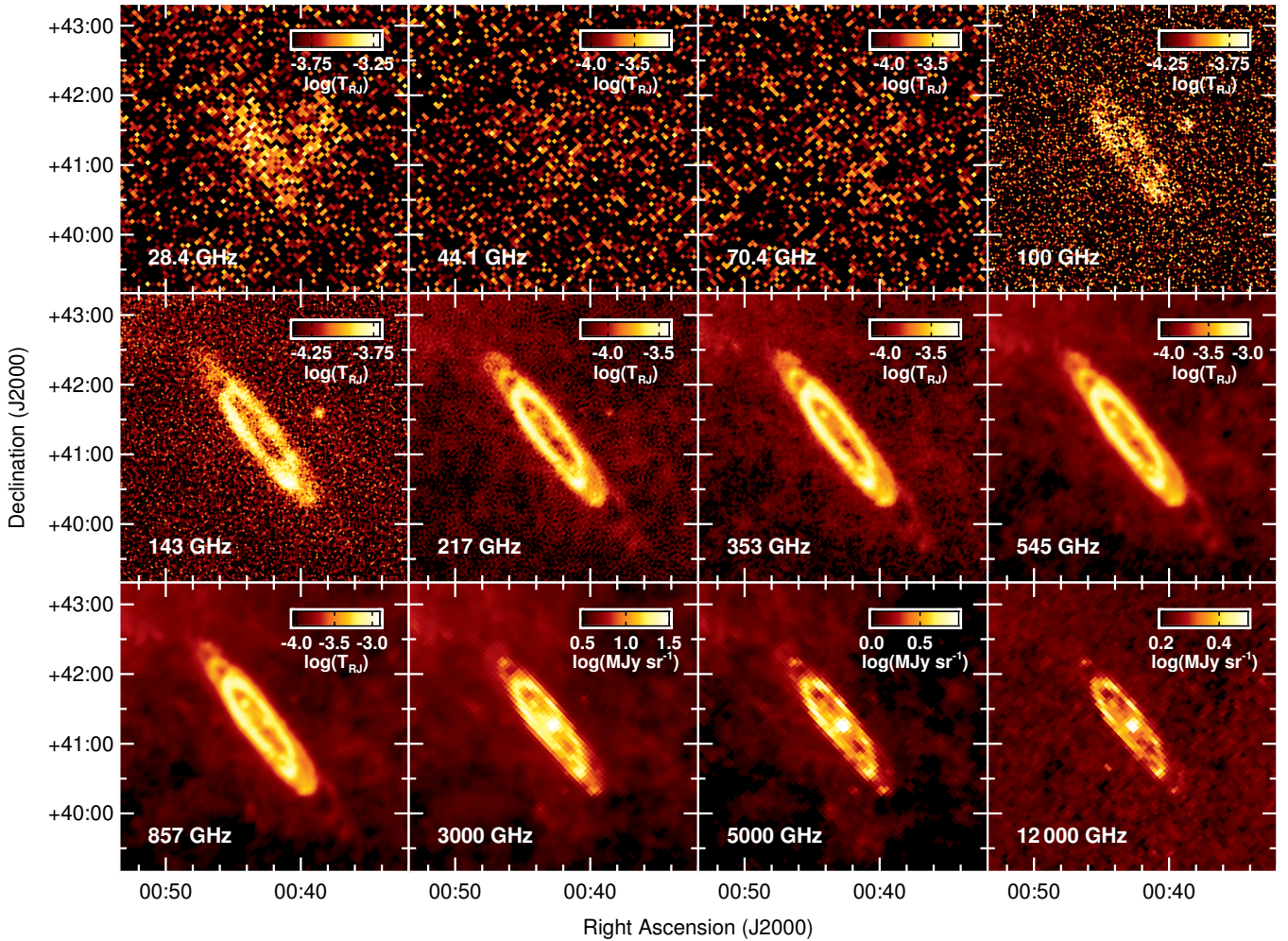


Fig. 2. Maps of M31 in total intensity from *Planck* (after CMB subtraction) and in *IRAS* (IRIS). *Top to bottom, left to right*: *Planck* 28.4, 44.1, 70.4, and 100 GHz; *Planck* 143, 217, 353, and 545 GHz; *Planck* 857 GHz, *IRAS* 100 μm , 60 μm , and 24 μm . All plots have a 1° equatorial graticule overlaid, are $250' \times 250'$ with $0.5' \times 0.5'$ pixels and are centred on RA $10^{\text{h}}06^{\text{m}}58^{\text{s}}$, dec $41^{\circ}27'$, with North and East to the left. *Planck* maps are in units of K_{RJ} , and *IRAS* maps are in units of MJy sr^{-1} .

(McConnachie et al. 2005), with an optical major isophotal diameter of 190.5 ± 0.1 and a major-to-minor ratio of 3.09 ± 0.14 (de Vaucouleurs et al. 1991). Following Xu & Helou (1996), we assume that it has an inclination angle $i = 79^\circ$ and a position angle of 37° with respect to North (both in equatorial coordinates).

3.1. The 5' data set

We use five data sets in addition to the *Planck* data in our 5' resolution study. At high frequencies, we use *IRAS*, *Spitzer*, and *ISO* data to trace the shorter wavelength dust emission. At lower frequencies, we use ground-based H I and CO data sets to trace the gas within the galaxy. To match the pixelization and resolution of these other data to the *Planck* data, we regrid the data onto $0.25'$ pixels in the same coordinate system and sky region as the *Planck* data and then smooth them to a common resolution of $5'$. Further repixelization to $5'$ pixels is then carried out for the analysis in later sections.

The *IRAS* data at 12, 25, 60, and 100 μm are in the form of the the Improved Reprocessing of the *IRAS* Survey (IRIS)

(Miville-Deschênes & Lagache 2005)⁵, which is based on the *IRAS* Sky Survey Atlas (Wheelock et al. 1994), but has improved processing to achieve a higher resolution of 3.8 – 4.3 depending on the frequency. The 25, 60, and 100 μm maps are shown alongside the *Planck* maps in Fig. 2.

To trace dust emission in the infrared, we use 24, 70, and 160 μm data originally acquired by Gordon et al. (2006) using the Multiband Imaging Photometer for *Spitzer* (MIPS; Rieke et al. 2004) on the *Spitzer Space Telescope* (Werner et al. 2004). The 24, 70, and 160 μm data have point spread functions with FWHM of $6''$, $18''$, and $38''$, respectively. The data were processed using the MIPS Data Analysis Tools (Gordon et al. 2005) as well as additional data processing steps described by Bendo et al. (2012b). The data processing includes the removal of the effect of cosmic ray hits and drift in the background signal. The background is initially subtracted from the individual data frames by characterizing the variations in the background signal as a function of time using data that fall outside of the galaxy. This removes large-scale background/foreground structure outside the galaxy, including the cosmic infrared background (CIB)

⁵ <http://www.cita.utoronto.ca/~mamd/IRIS/>

Table 1. Sources of the data sets used in this paper, as well as their frequency, wavelength, resolution, calibration uncertainty, and rms on 5′ scales (for data with 5′ resolution or better only; see later). The Analysis column indicates whether the data set has been used in the 5′ high-resolution (H) and/or 1° low-resolution (L) analysis. The first part of the table describes the continuum data sets, and the second part describes the spectral line data sets.

Source	ν [GHz]	λ [mm]	Res.	Unc.	σ (5′, Jy)	Analysis	Reference
Haslam	0.408	734	60′	10 %	...	L	Haslam et al. (1982)
Dwingeloo	0.820	365	72′	10 %	...	L	Berkhuijsen (1972)
Reich	1.4	214	35′	10 %	...	L	Reich et al. (2001)
WMAP 9-year	22.8	13	49′	3 %	...	L	Bennett et al. (2013)
Planck	28.4	10.5	32′24	3 %	...	L	Planck Collaboration II (2014)
WMAP 9-year	33.0	9.0	40′	3 %	...	L	Bennett et al. (2013)
WMAP 9-year	40.7	7.4	31′	3 %	...	L	Bennett et al. (2013)
Planck	44.1	6.8	27′01	3 %	...	L	Planck Collaboration II (2014)
WMAP 9-year	60.7	4.9	21′	3 %	...	L	Bennett et al. (2013)
Planck	70.4	4.3	13′25	3 %	...	L	Planck Collaboration II (2014)
WMAP 9-year	93.5	3.2	13′	3 %	...	L	Bennett et al. (2013)
Planck	100	3.0	9′65	3 %	...	L	Planck Collaboration VI (2014)
Planck	143	2.1	7′25	3 %	...	L	Planck Collaboration VI (2014)
Planck	217	1.38	4′99	3 %	0.02	LH	Planck Collaboration VI (2014)
Planck	353	0.85	4′82	3 %	0.05	LH	Planck Collaboration VI (2014)
Planck	545	0.55	4′68	7 %	0.13	LH	Planck Collaboration VI (2014)
Planck	857	0.35	4′33	7 %	0.30	LH	Planck Collaboration VI (2014)
COBE-DIRBE	1249	0.240	40′	13 %	...	L	Hauser et al. (1998)
ISO	1763	0.175	1′3	10 %	0.8	H	Haas et al. (1998)
Spitzer MIPS B3	1870	0.16	0′63	12 %	0.53	H	Gordon et al. (2006); Bendo et al. (2012b)
COBE-DIRBE	2141	0.14	40′	13 %	...	L	Hauser et al. (1998)
COBE-DIRBE	2997	0.10	40′	13 %	...	L	Hauser et al. (1998)
IRAS (IRIS) B4	3000	0.10	4′3	13 %	0.39	LH	Miville-Deschênes & Lagache (2005)
Spitzer MIPS B2	4280	0.07	0′3	10 %	0.12	H	Gordon et al. (2006); Bendo et al. (2012b)
IRAS (IRIS) B3	5000	0.06	4′0	13 %	0.08	LH	Miville-Deschênes & Lagache (2005)
IRAS (IRIS) B2	12 000	0.025	3′8	13 %	0.06	LH	Miville-Deschênes & Lagache (2005)
Spitzer MIPS B1	12 490	0.024	0′1	4 %	0.012	H	Gordon et al. (2006); Bendo et al. (2012b)
IRAS (IRIS) B1	25 000	0.012	3′8	13 %	0.04	LH	Miville-Deschênes & Lagache (2005)
Spitzer IRAC	83 000	0.0036	1′7	3 %	...	H	Barmby et al. (2006); Spitzer Science Center (2012)
DRAO HI	1.4	...	0′37	5 %	...	H	Chemin et al. (2009)
IRAM CO	115.	...	0′38	15 %	...	H	Nieten et al. (2006)

and zodiacal light, but residual foreground cirrus structures and compact sources remain in the data. Any residual background emission in the final maps is measured outside the optical disc of the galaxy and subtracted from the data. For additional details on the data reduction process, see the description of the data reduction by Bendo et al. (2012b). PSF characteristics and calibration uncertainties are described by Engelbracht et al. (2007), Gordon et al. (2007), and Stansberry et al. (2007). We use the data outside of the mask to assess the rms uncertainty in the *Spitzer* data, including thermal noise, residual cirrus and other large-scale features that contribute to the uncertainty on 5′ scales.

We additionally utilise the 3.6 μm data produced by Barmby et al. (2006) using the *Spitzer* Infrared Array Camera (IRAC; Fazio et al. 2004) to trace the older stellar population in the bulge of M31; these data have a resolution of 1′7.

We further make use of the *ISO* 175 μm data from Haas et al. (1998, private communication), which has 1′3 resolution. This data set (along with the low-resolution *COBE*-DIRBE data) sits in the frequency gap between *Planck* and *Spitzer*. As the version of the data that we use has not been pre-calibrated, we calibrate it such that the sum of the pixels adds up to the overall flux density of 7900 Jy within the area surveyed by *ISO*, as reported in Haas et al. (1998). We caution that the *ISO* data are not well sampled, meaning that some of the large-scale emission will be

missing from the data, which may result in underestimates of the flux densities in the following analysis.

Several maps of HI emission from M31 exist (e.g., Unwin 1983; Chemin et al. 2009; Braun et al. 2009). We make use of the recent HI emission map from Chemin et al. (2009) to trace the gas within M31. This map was constructed using a combination of interferometric and single dish data using the Synthesis Telescope and the 26-m Telescope at the Dominion Radio Astrophysical Observatory (DRAO). This combination means that the map has 22′ resolution, whilst not resolving out extended emission, and it also covers the full extent of M31, including the outermost spiral arms. Although the original map is contaminated by HI emission from our Galaxy at the same frequencies as that from part of M31, this has been removed by Chemin et al. (2009). We flatten the image cube to an intensity map (by summing up the brightness temperature over the frequency channels within a spatial pixel), convolve it to 5′, and re-sample it to match the *Planck* data set using *Aladin*⁶ (Bonnarel et al. 2000) to take into account differences in the coordinate projection systems used.

Finally, we also make use of the $^{12}\text{CO } J=1\rightarrow 0$ map of M31 from Nieten et al. (2006), which is constructed from 23′ resolution observations with the IRAM 30-m telescope. This map

⁶ <http://aladin.u-strasbg.fr/>

covers the 10 kpc ring structure, but does not include the outermost spiral arm structures. We use this map to compare with the *Planck* data in the bands that have been contaminated with CO emission, particularly for the integrated spectrum in Sect. 7. The data (downloaded from NED) were reprojected using AIPS prior to being smoothed and repixelised.

3.2. The 1° data set

When looking at the integrated spectrum of M31, we make use of a number of large-area, low-resolution surveys. These are publicly available in HEALPix format. We convolve the data sets to a resolution of 1° to match the resolution of the low-frequency data sets and perform the analysis directly on the HEALPix maps.

At low frequencies, we use the low-resolution radio maps of the sky at 408 MHz (Haslam et al. 1981; Haslam et al. 1982), 820 MHz, (Berkhuijsen 1972) and 1.4 GHz (Reich 1982; Reich & Reich 1986; Reich et al. 2001). We assume that there is a 10% uncertainty in these maps, which includes both the uncertainty in the flux density calibration (between 5 and 10% depending on the survey) and also uncertainties arising from the morphology of the surrounding structure interacting with the aperture photometry technique we use. This choice of uncertainty has been shown to be reasonable for Galactic anomalous microwave emission (AME) clouds (Planck Collaboration Int. XV 2014). For the 408 MHz map, we also add 3.8 Jy to the uncertainty to take into account the baseline striations in the map, which are at the level of ± 3 K (Haslam et al. 1982; Planck Collaboration Int. XV 2014). All of the maps have been calibrated on angular scales of around 5°, and consequently the difference between the main and full beams (the latter including sidelobes) needs to be taken into account when measuring the flux densities of more compact sources. This is significant for the 1.4 GHz map, where the factor for objects on 1° scales is approximately 1.55. As M31 is on an intermediate scale, we adopt an intermediate correction factor of 1.3 ± 0.1 , and also include the uncertainty in this correction factor in the flux density uncertainty. We assume that the value and uncertainty on the ratio for the 408 MHz and 2.3 GHz maps is small, and hence will be well within the existing calibration uncertainties, as per e.g., Planck Collaboration Int. XV (2014). We also make use of the integrated flux densities from higher-resolution surveys collated by Berkhuijsen et al. (2003) for comparison to those extracted from the maps.

At intermediate frequencies, in addition to *Planck*-LFI data, we use the deconvolved and symmetrized 1°-smoothed *WMAP* 9-year data at 22.8, 33.0, 40.7, 60.7, and 93.5 GHz (Bennett et al. 2013)⁷. When fitting a model to these data, we apply colour corrections following the recipe in Bennett et al. (2013), and we conservatively assume a calibration uncertainty of 3%.

At higher frequencies, we include the low-resolution *COBE*-DIRBE data at 240, 140, and 100 μ m (Hauser et al. 1998), in addition to the *IRAS* data described above. We assume that these data have an uncertainty of 13%. We also use the integrated flux densities from *Herschel* observations as published in Fritz et al. (2012).

4. Infrared morphology

The *Planck* maps of M31 are shown in Fig. 2. At 100 GHz and all higher *Planck* frequencies, the prominent 10 kpc dust ring of Andromeda can clearly be seen – as expected based on previous

infrared observations of M31 – as well as a number of other extended features.

At high frequencies, where we have the highest signal-to-noise and highest spatial resolution, we can see features much further out than the 10 kpc ring. The left-hand and middle panels of Fig. 3 show the *Planck* 857 GHz map labelled to show the locations of the key features in the dust emission; the right-hand panel of Fig. 3 shows the HI map from Chemin et al. (2009) for comparison. A cut through the 857 and 353 GHz maps is shown in Fig. 4. To the south, a total of four spiral arm or ring structures can clearly be seen – the 10 kpc ring (“F8”), as well as a second structure just outside of the ring (“F9”) and the more distant 21 kpc (“F10”) and 26 kpc (“F11”) arms. These features have also been identified by Fritz et al. (2012). We see a hint of the emission at 31 kpc (“F12”), which is also seen in HI emission, but we are unable to confirm it as being part of M31, because of the large amount of surrounding cirrus emission from our Galaxy. To the north, we see three sets of spiral arm structures (“F4”, “F3”, and “F2”) and a wisp of emission at the northernmost end of the galaxy (“F1”, confirmed by cross-checking against HI emission, as shown in the central panel) before running into confusion from Galactic emission. These features can be seen most clearly at 857 and 545 GHz, but are also clearly visible in the 353, 217 and 143 GHz maps after CMB subtraction. The 10 kpc ring can still be seen clearly at 100 GHz, but at that frequency the more extended structure is not visible. We will use the terminology of “ring” for the 10 kpc ring, since it has been clearly demonstrated to be a near-complete ring (e.g., see Haas et al. 1998), and “arm” for all other structures that may not completely circle the galaxy.

An area of particularly strong long-wavelength emission can be clearly seen at the southern end of the 10 kpc ring, down to frequencies of 100 GHz (see Fig. 2; in Fig. 3 it is just to the right of “F8” and is also marked as “S6”). This has the highest contrast with the rest of M31 at frequencies of 143 and 217 GHz; there are also hints of it down to 70 GHz. This is probably what is seen at the highest frequencies of the *WMAP* data and in *Planck* data by de Paolis et al. (2011); De Paolis et al. (2014); i.e., the asymmetrical emission between the north and south parts of M31 that they detect is caused by either varying dust properties across the galaxy or CMB fluctuations, rather than being caused by galactic rotation.

Within the 10 kpc ring, several features are also visible. A bright spot inside the Galactic ring to the north is marked as “F5” in the central panel of Fig. 3. This region corresponds to a limb of an asymmetric spiral structure within the 10 kpc ring that has also been seen in the higher-resolution *Spitzer* data (Gordon et al. 2006). *Planck* does not detect the emission from the central nucleus, despite the prominence of this region in maps of M31 at higher frequencies. This implies that the majority of the dust in this region is at a higher dust temperature than average – an implication which will be explored in later sections. *Planck* does, however, detect a compact object to the right of the nucleus (marked as “F7”) that has also been seen with *IRAS* (Rice 1993), *ISO* (Haas et al. 1998), and *Spitzer* (Gordon et al. 2006); the latter suggests that this emission is located where a bar and the spiral arm structure meet.

Outside of the ring, we see some cirrus dust emission from our own Galaxy, particularly at the higher *Planck* frequencies. This is largely present on the north side of M31, towards the Galactic plane, but it can also be seen elsewhere, for example there is an arc of cirrus emission above the outermost rings at the south end of M31. Depending on the temperature and spectral properties of this emission, it may present problems for studies

⁷ http://lambda.gsfc.nasa.gov/product/map/dr4/maps_band_smth_r9_i_9yr_get.cfm

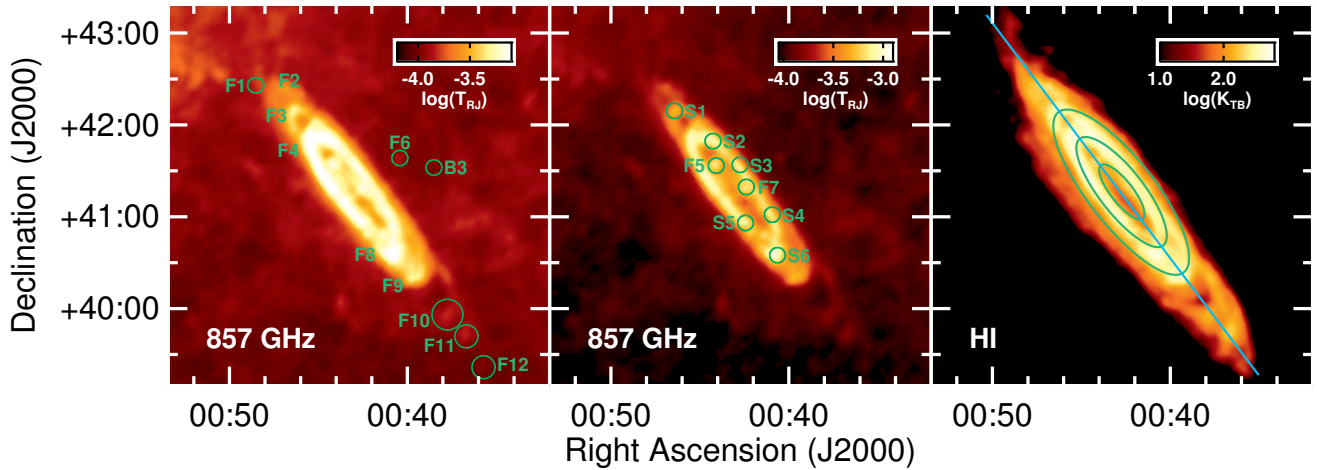


Fig. 3. *Left:* The 857 GHz map of M31, highlighting the extension of the dust out to large distances. Fields of interest are labelled with “F,” and circled in some cases. The position of the radio source B3 0035+413 is also shown (labeled B3). *Middle:* The 857 GHz map, with a scale chosen to highlight the brighter emission. Circles labelled with “S” indicate the sources included in the *Planck* ERCSC; two fields in the centre region are also labelled with “F”. *Right:* A map of the HI emission from M31 (Chemin et al. 2009) convolved to the same resolution as the *Planck* 857 GHz map, with 5, 10, and 15 kpc rings overlaid in green, and the cut used in Fig. 4 in blue.

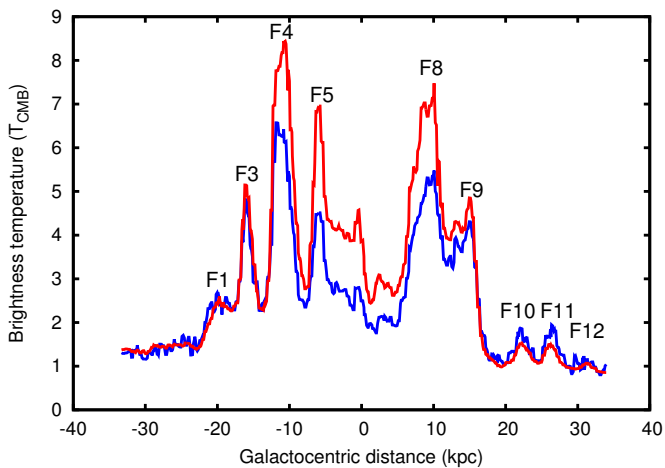


Fig. 4. Cut along the major axis of M31. Negative values are on the higher declination side of the galaxy. The red line is 857 GHz and the blue line is 353 GHz rescaled by a factor of 1000. Various spiral arm structures, including the outermost rings at 20–30 kpc, are clearly visible at both frequencies. Fields are numbered as per Fig. 3.

of the Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect in the halo of M31 (e.g., Taylor et al. 2003) unless the emission is properly taken into account or suitably masked.

M110/NGC205 is clearly detected at 857 GHz (position: $00^{\text{h}}40^{\text{m}}22.1^{\text{s}}$, $+41^{\circ}41'7''$ J2000, distance (809 ± 24) kpc, McConnell et al. 2005, “F6”). This dwarf galaxy has also been seen in thermal dust emission by *Spitzer* and *Herschel* (De Looze et al. 2012), and it is known to be surprisingly dust-rich. Messier 32, which is at position $00^{\text{h}}42^{\text{m}}41.8^{\text{s}}$, $+40^{\circ}51'55''$, is not detected. This is because it is faint at these frequencies (it has been measured by *ISO* to be less than 0.27 Jy at 200 μm , Temi et al. 2004), and it is also very close to the bright 10 kpc ring, which

means that it is not in a clean environment to be detected with the spatial resolution of the *Planck* data.

There is also a detection of the blazar B3 0035+413 as a compact source at 30, 100, 143, and 217 GHz (position $00^{\text{h}}38^{\text{m}}30^{\text{s}}$, $+41^{\circ}34'40''$; marked in the left-hand panel of Fig. 3 as “B3”). The high-frequency flux density of this flat spectrum source, as measured by the One Centimetre Receiver Array at 30 GHz, is (395 ± 20) mJy (Lowe et al. 2007), so it is unsurprising that it is seen in the *Planck* maps at these frequencies. It is not included in the *Planck* Early Release Compact Source Catalogue (ERCSC) (Planck Collaboration VII 2011), since the CMB signal is much stronger than the source flux at these frequencies. It is, however, in the second *Planck* catalogue, the Planck Catalogue of Compact Sources (PCCS; Planck Collaboration XXVIII 2014), due to the filtering carried out prior to source extraction; it is listed there as PCCS1 100 G120.34–21.17 (DETFLUX of 350 ± 80 mJy), PCCS1 143 G120.32–21.16 (260 ± 40 mJy), and PCCS1 217 G120.28–21.16 (220 ± 40 mJy). At a redshift of 1.35, the source is not physically associated with M31, but is just a line-of-sight coincidence.

Several bright segments of the M31 ring structure were detected in the ERCSC at the 143 GHz to 857 GHz frequency channels. Most of these sources are flagged as EXTENDED (EXT) in the ERCSC, which indicates that under a Gaussian fit, the square root of the product of the fitted major axis and minor axis is larger than 1.5 times the beam FWHM at a given frequency. The ERCSC sources are marked in the central panel of Fig. 3, where they are circled at their 857 GHz positions, with the circles being $5'$ in radius, such that they have a diameter approximately equal to twice the FWHM at the 857 GHz channel. Sources 2 to 5 are clearly within the star-forming ring ~ 10 kpc offset from the nucleus, while source 1 belongs to the outer ring that is seen both by *ISO* and *Spitzer* MIPS. A much larger number of segments of the ring are included by the PCCS, with 21–32 sources detected in PCCS 217–857 GHz bands on the inner ring alone, which are marked as extended. Due to the large number of segments included in the PCCS, we do not circle them in Figure 3.

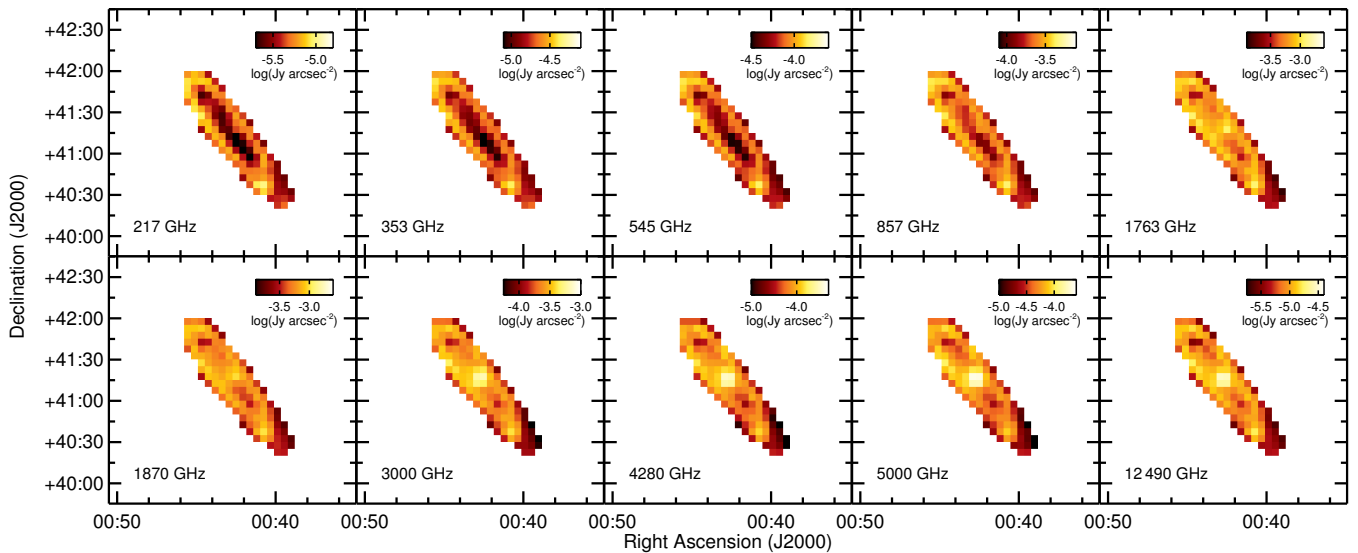


Fig. 5. Masked and pixelized 5' data set ordered in increasing frequency (decreasing wavelength). The maps are $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$ in size. There is a clear change of morphology as frequency increases, with the rings being most prominent at the lower frequencies, and the nucleus being highlighted at higher frequencies.

At *Planck*'s lowest frequencies, M31 is clearly detected but is not resolved, because of the low resolution at these frequencies. It is clearest at 28.4 GHz, but can also be seen at 44.1 and 70.4 GHz – although at these frequencies CMB subtraction uncertainty starts to become important. The emission mechanism powering the source detections at these frequencies will be discussed in the context of the integrated SED in Sect. 7.

5. Colour ratios and implications for dust heating

5.1. Colour ratios

A number of recent analyses based on *Herschel* data have used FIR surface brightness ratios to examine dust heating sources within nearby galaxies. Bendo et al. (2010) performed the first such analysis on M81; subsequent analyses were performed on M33 by Boquien et al. (2011) and on M83 and NGC 2403 by Bendo et al. (2012a). These techniques have been shown to be more robust at identifying dust heating sources than comparing FIR surface brightnesses directly to star formation tracers, since brightness ratios normalize out the dust column density.

We studied the dust heating sources in M31 using surface brightness ratios measured in all *Planck* data at frequencies of 217 GHz and above, as well as in *ISO*, *Spitzer*, and *IRAS* data. We convolved all of the high-resolution data (marked with “H” in Table 1) to 5' resolution using a Gaussian kernel. We then rebinned the data to 5' pixels; we selected this size because it is the same size as the beam, and so the signal in each pixel should be largely independent of the others. It is important to do this repixelization in order to avoid the appearance of artificial correlations in the data. We masked out data from outside the optical disc of the galaxy by requiring the pixel centre to be less than 22 kpc away from the centre of M31 (which is equivalent to a 1.42° radius along the major axis). To avoid pixels strongly affected by foreground or background noise, we only used data from pixels that had been detected in the 353 GHz image at 10 times the rms uncertainty in the data (measured in a 10×10 pixel region of sky to the far bottom-left of the data set used here). We also removed pixels at the top-left corner of the images, where

the data have been contaminated by bright cirrus structures in the foreground. Finally, we removed pixels at the edge of the optical disc, which primarily sample a combination of background emission and emission from the wings of the beams for sources in the dust ring. This leaves 126 independent data points.

The rebinned data are shown in Fig. 5. The 10 kpc ring is present at all frequencies, but emission from the centre of the galaxy becomes more prominent as the frequency increases. At 1800 GHz, or $170 \mu\text{m}$, both sources are approximately similar in surface brightness. The bright feature at the southern end of M31 (source “S6” in Fig. 3) is clearly present at all frequencies, although it is more notable at $\nu < 1700$ GHz. There is a change of morphology apparent as frequency increases, with the rings being most prominent at the lower frequencies, and the nucleus being highlighted at higher frequencies.

Figure 6 shows the surface brightness ratios between adjacent frequency bands in the combined *Planck* and ancillary data set, where e.g., S_{545}/S_{353} denotes the colour ratio between 545 and 353 GHz. The ratios of lower frequency bands (i.e., the *Planck* bands) appear to smoothly decrease with radius, although the data are somewhat noisy at S_{545}/S_{353} . The 10 kpc ring is hardly noticeable at all in the lower frequency ratio maps. In the higher frequency ratio maps (e.g., the S_{4280}/S_{3000} map), the ring is much more prominent, and the colours also appear enhanced in a compact region around the nucleus.

These results imply that the different frequencies are detecting dust heated by different sources. At higher frequencies, the enhanced surface brightness ratios in the ring and the nucleus indicate that the dust is being heated by the star-forming regions in these structures. At lower frequencies, however, the ratios vary more smoothly with radius, and the ring does not appear to be as enhanced as in the data for the higher frequencies. This is consistent with dust heating being dominated by the total stellar population, including stars in the bulge of the galaxy, which should vary smoothly with radius (as has been suggested for other galaxies by Bendo et al. 2010, 2012a).

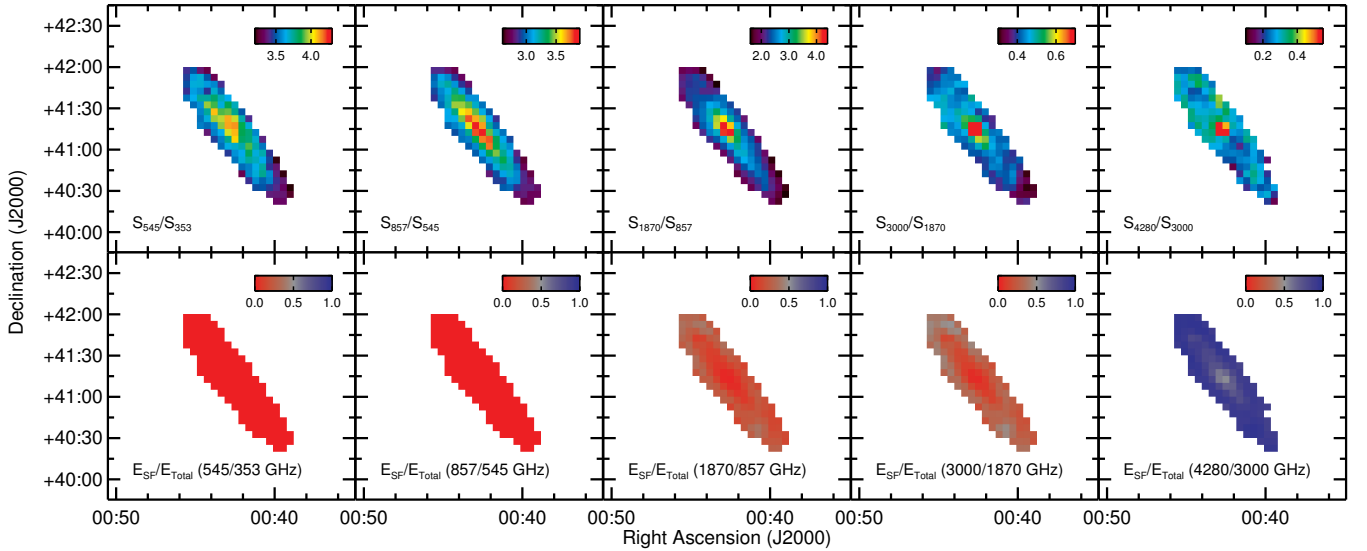


Fig. 6. *Top:* Colour ratio plots with 5' pixels. *Left to right:* S_{545}/S_{353} , S_{857}/S_{545} , S_{1870}/S_{857} , S_{3000}/S_{1870} , and S_{4280}/S_{3000} . The 5' pixels are slightly bigger than the beam size, such that the signal they contain is largely independent. The colour ratios for the lower frequency plots do not trace the local features; rather, they depend on the galactocentric distance. The higher frequency plots – in particular the highest frequency one – trace the local structure much more. *Bottom:* Images of the relative contribution of star formation to heating the dust traced by the specified pair of frequencies. These maps were derived using Eq. (2) and the parameters in Table 2.

5.2. Determination of dust heating mechanism

To link the surface brightness ratios to heating sources, we compared the ratios to tracers of the total stellar population and star formation. As a tracer of the total stellar population, we used the *Spitzer* 3.6 μm image, which is generally expected to be dominated by the Rayleigh-Jeans tail of the photospheric emission from the total stellar population (Lu et al. 2003). While the 3.6 μm band may also include roughly 1000 K dust emission from star-forming regions (Mentuch et al. 2009, 2010), this effect is usually only a major issue in late-type galaxies with relatively strong star formation compared to the total stellar surface density. A high infrared-to-visible ratio or a dominant active galactic nuclei (AGN) could also contaminate the 3.6 μm emission; however, neither of these issues are present in M31. We used the *Spitzer* 24 μm image as a star-formation tracer, as this has been shown to generally originate from SFR dust (Calzetti et al. 2005, 2007; Prescott et al. 2007; Zhu et al. 2008; Kennicutt et al. 2009), although we caution that it is possible for some 24 μm emission to originate from dust heated by the diffuse interstellar radiation field from older stars (e.g., Li & Draine 2001; Kennicutt et al. 2009). The 24 μm band also includes a small amount of stellar emission; this was removed by multiplying the 3.6 μm image by 0.032 and then subtracting it from the 24 μm image, as described by Helou et al. (2004).

In Fig. 7, we show the surface brightness ratios for the binned data as a function of the 3.6 and 24 μm data. Statistics on the relations are given in Table 2. Only the S_{4280}/S_{3000} ratio shows a stronger correlation with the 24 μm emission than the 3.6 μm emission, which implies that only the dust dominating emission at ≥ 4280 GHz is heated by star-forming regions. All the other ratios are more strongly correlated with 3.6 μm emission, which demonstrates that the total stellar populations, and not solely the star-forming regions, are heating the dust observed below 3000 GHz.

As an additional assessment of the heating sources of the dust observed at these frequencies, we fit the S_{545}/S_{353} , S_{857}/S_{545} , S_{1870}/S_{857} and S_{4280}/S_{1870} ratio data to the 3.6 and 24 μm data using the equation

$$\ln\left(\frac{S_{\nu_1}}{S_{\nu_2}}\right) = \alpha \ln(I_{\text{SFR}} + A_1 I_{\text{stars}}) + A_2. \quad (1)$$

This equation, derived from the Stefan-Boltzmann law by Bendo et al. (2012a), relates the surface brightness ratios of the dust with the dust heating sources. The ratio S_{ν_1}/S_{ν_2} on the left side of the equation is related to the dust temperature through a power law (assuming that the dust seen in any pair of frequencies has only one temperature or a narrow range of temperatures). Therefore, S_{ν_1}/S_{ν_2} can ultimately be expressed as a function of the total energy emitted by the dust using a version of the Stefan-Boltzmann law modified for dust with an emissivity function that varies as ν^β . The I_{SFR} and I_{stars} terms represent the energy absorbed by the SFR dust (traced by the 24 μm band) and the ISRF dust (traced by the 3.6 μm band). The slope α and the scaling terms A_1 and A_2 are free parameters in the fit. The scaling terms will adjust the I_{SFR} and I_{stars} data to account for the fraction of light from those sources that is absorbed by the dust.

After Eq. (1) has been fit to the data, the relative magnitudes of the I_{SFR} and $A_1 I_{\text{stars}}$ terms can be used to estimate the fraction of dust heating (traced by the variation in the surface brightness ratios for any pair of frequencies) that can be related to each heating source. We calculated the fraction of dust heating from star-forming regions using

$$\frac{E_{\text{SF}}}{E_{\text{Total}}} = \frac{I_{\text{SFR}}}{I_{\text{SFR}} + A_1 I_{\text{stars}}}. \quad (2)$$

The resulting parameters from fitting Eq. (1) to the data are given in Table 2. We also give the resulting $E_{\text{SF}}/E_{\text{Total}}$ values based on the flux density measurements integrated over the disc

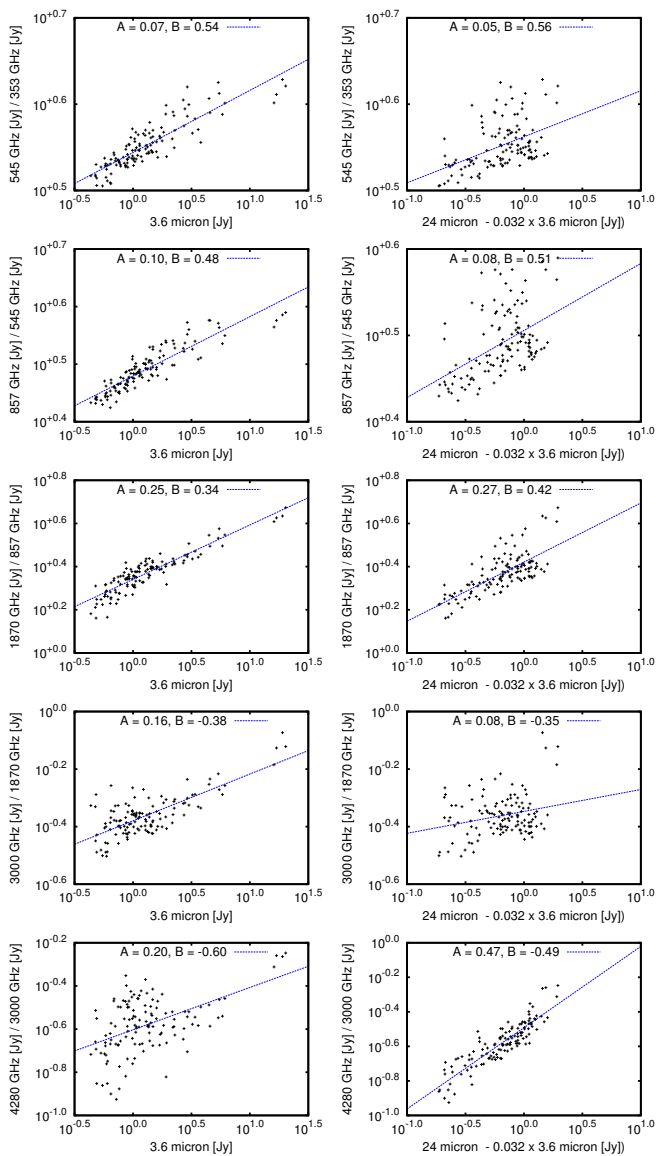


Fig. 7. Correlations between colour ratios and 3.6 μm , tracing the stellar population (*left*), and 24 μm , tracing star formation regions (*right*). The best fits of the form $\log_{10}(y) = A \log_{10}(x) + B$ are shown by the solid lines. The correlation with 3.6 μm emission becomes less significant as the frequencies of the colour ratios increase, whilst the 24 μm correlation becomes more significant. The correlation values are given in Table 2.

of the galaxy. Uncertainties in the α and $E_{\text{SF}}/E_{\text{Total}}$ values are estimated using a Monte Carlo approach, but we did not report uncertainties for the A_1 and A_2 terms because the terms become degenerate when $I_{\text{SFR}} \ll A_1 I_{\text{stars}}$ and because the A_1 term is poorly constrained where $I_{\text{SFR}} \gg A_1 I_{\text{stars}}$, resulting in high uncertainties for the scaling terms. Figure 6 shows the $E_{\text{SF}}/E_{\text{Total}}$ maps calculated using Eq. (2) and the best fitting A_1 terms. What all of these data demonstrate is that the relative fraction of SFR dust decreases when going from higher frequencies to lower frequencies. The results for the S_{4280}/S_{3000} ratio show that around 90% of the colour variations can be related to SFR dust. In the centre of the galaxy, however, more than 50% of the emission at these frequencies originates from dust heated by the total stellar population, including stars in the bulge. The S_{857}/S_{545} and S_{545}/S_{353}

Table 2. Results from fitting Equation 1 to the colour data. Upper limits are 1σ . The last two columns are the correlation coefficients (C) from Fig. 7. Top: using SMICA CMB subtraction. Bottom: using NILC CMB subtraction.

Ratio	α	A_1	A_2	$E_{\text{SF}}/E_{\text{Total}}$	$C(3.6)$	$C(24)$
S_{545}/S_{353}	0.070 ± 0.011	1.	1.25	$< 6 \times 10^{-9}$	0.87	0.47
S_{857}/S_{545}	0.102 ± 0.011	275.	0.58	< 0.11	0.90	0.49
S_{1870}/S_{857}	0.277 ± 0.02	2.10	0.49	0.20 ± 0.10	0.91	0.72
S_{3000}/S_{1870}	0.19 ± 0.03	1.32	-1.03	0.27 ± 0.15	0.75	0.26
S_{4280}/S_{3000}	0.36 ± 0.03	0.068	-1.22	0.87 ± 0.05	0.50	0.89
S_{545}/S_{353}	0.063 ± 0.011	1.	1.27	$< 8 \times 10^{-9}$	0.86	0.61
S_{857}/S_{545}	0.101 ± 0.011	32.	0.75	< 0.12	0.90	0.50
S_{1870}/S_{857}	0.276 ± 0.02	2.05	0.49	0.20 ± 0.10	0.91	0.72
S_{3000}/S_{1870}	0.20 ± 0.03	1.26	-1.03	0.27 ± 0.15	0.75	0.26
S_{4280}/S_{3000}	0.36 ± 0.04	0.066	-1.22	0.87 ± 0.05	0.50	0.89

colours show that the dust emission at these frequencies primarily originates from ISRF dust. The contribution of SFR dust, even in the ring, is relatively weak. In fact, when Eq. (1) was fit to the S_{545}/S_{353} data, the resulting parameters indicated that the contribution from the I_{SFR} component was negligible; the terms in Table 2 were adjusted to normalize A_1 to 1. The transition between SFR dust and ISRF dust is at around 3000 GHz.

We have also carried out this analysis using data where the NILC map was used to subtract the CMB. We find that the results are not very sensitive to the contamination of the CMB map by M31. The results from fitting Eq. (1) to the NILC-subtracted data are shown in the bottom half of Table 2 and are well within the stated uncertainties. The apparently different values for A_1 and A_2 for the S_{857}/S_{545} ratios are due to the degeneracy in these parameters, as described above.

Groves et al. (2012) and Smith et al. (2012) have also examined dust heating in M31 using *Herschel* data that overlaps with the *Planck* frequencies. Both groups found that the dust emission in the centre of M31 appears to be heated by the total stellar population, including the bulge stars, which agrees with our results. However, Smith et al. (2012) found that the dust temperatures in the ring may be weakly correlated with star formation activity and is not correlated with the total stellar emission, whereas we find that about 50% of the dust in the ring seen below 3000 GHz is still heated by the total stellar population. This is probably related to the different analyses and underlying assumptions used. Smith et al. (2012) assume that a single modified blackbody spectrum can accurately describe all data between 600 and 1870 GHz, whereas we treated each pair of frequency bands independently and found that the 545–1870 GHz range contains dust from two different thermal components heated by different sources. Hence, the Smith et al. (2012) fits may have been unduly influenced by relatively small amounts of hot dust that may have masked the presence of the colder dust within the ring and therefore may not have been able to detect the dust primarily emitting at < 870 GHz that is heated by the diffuse interstellar radiation field.

The conclusions that the dust in M31 seen at *Planck* frequencies is primarily heated by the total stellar population and not just the star forming regions is broadly consistent with the recent *Herschel* results using similar techniques (Bendo et al. 2010; Boquien et al. 2011; Bendo et al. 2012a), as well as some of the older *IRAS* studies of dust heating in our Galaxy and other nearby galaxies (e.g., Lonsdale Persson & Helou

1987; Walterbos & Schwering 1987; Sauvage & Thuan 1992; Walterbos & Greenawalt 1996). Some dust emission and radiative transfer models for galaxies (e.g., Draine et al. 2007; Popescu et al. 2011) include two dust components: diffuse dust heated by a general interstellar radiation field; and dust heated locally by star forming regions. The results here are broadly consistent with the characterisation of the dust emission by these models. However, we observe the transition between SFR dust and ISRF dust at 70–100 μm , whereas in the model fits shown by Draine et al. (2007), the transition generally takes place at shorter wavelengths (below 70 μm).

6. SEDs at 5' resolution

We now move on to investigate and quantify the distribution of dust temperatures and spectral indices within M31 by fitting thermal dust spectra to the 5' data set (as described in the previous section) comprised of *Planck*, *Spitzer*, *IRAS*, and *ISO* data. We use the dust heating fraction that was quantified in the previous section in order to focus only on the colder dust that is heated by the total stellar population.

To remove the effect of the background, including offsets in the map, the average contribution from the CIB, and the average Galactic cirrus contribution, we background-subtract the *Planck* and *IRAS* maps. To do this we use the mean flux density in two 13×13 pixel areas to the bottom-left and top-right of the 2D maps, which straddle the galaxy at locations that are well away from both the emission from M31 and our Galaxy (see Fig. 8). We also use the rms scatter within these regions to estimate the uncertainty in the data caused by noise and cirrus contamination. As the *Spitzer* and *ISO* data have already been background-subtracted, and as the maps do not extend to the background subtraction regions that we are using for the other data, we do not background-subtract these further. We assess the uncertainty on each pixel by combining the calibration uncertainties (as per Table 1) in quadrature with the rms of the map estimated in the same regions as the background subtraction or, for the *Spitzer* data, the rms of the data outside the mask. We have estimated the background and rms using different regions and found consistent results. These uncertainties also take into account the contribution of the cirrus and CIB structure on smaller scales; as the rms is in the range 0.015–0.37 Jy (depending on the frequency), this is generally small compared to the signal from M31, except in the outermost rings.

6.1. Fitting method

We focus on fitting the SEDs of the ISRF dust rather than the total SED. The ISRF dust will be the most massive component of the interstellar dust, as it is the coldest dust component in the galaxy and also the most dominant source at ≤ 3000 GHz (see e.g., Draine et al. 2007).

We use the maps of the ratio of the contribution of star formation and the old stellar population shown in Fig. 6 to rescale the flux densities of the 545, 857, 1763, 1870, and 3000 GHz data points. We use the 353 GHz map as a zero point and rescale the higher frequency flux densities based on the ratio maps (e.g., the 857 GHz map is rescaled by $[1 - R_{545}^{857}]$ where $R = E_{\text{SF}}/E_{\text{Total}}$ between the indicated frequencies within the pixel; we refer to these values as “rescaled flux densities” in the following analysis. At the lowest frequencies, nearly all of the dust emission is attributed to the global stellar population component, while at higher frequencies the ratio will indicate how much energy in the higher frequency band originates from SFR dust relative to

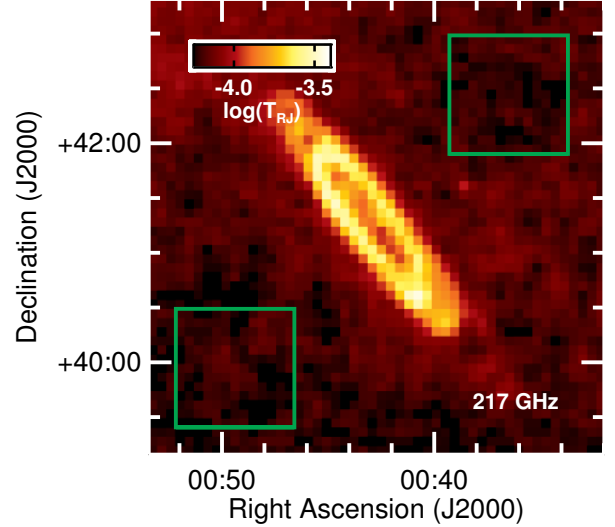


Fig. 8. *Planck* 217 GHz map at 5' resolution showing the two regions used to calculate the background and rms (top-right and bottom-left).

the lower frequency band. If the relative fraction of SFR dust is very low, then the ratios can be used as an approximate way to rescale the flux densities for the higher frequency bands. We also fit the global SED to demonstrate the difference that the rescaling makes on the measured dust properties.

We carry out a least-squares fit using a single modified blackbody function with a normalization based on the 353 GHz (850 μm) optical depth, i.e.

$$S_{\text{dust}}(\nu) = 2h \frac{\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT_{\text{dust}}} - 1} \tau_{353} \left(\frac{\nu}{353 \text{ GHz}} \right)^{\beta_{\text{dust}}} \Omega. \quad (3)$$

Independent fits within each 5' pixel (with solid angle Ω) are used to derive the optical depth at 353 GHz, τ_{353} , and the dust temperature T_{dust} . We use $T_{\text{dust}} = 15$ K as the starting value for the fit. We fix the dust spectral index at $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 2.0$, as used by Li & Draine (2001) (see discussion in the next paragraph); we also look at the consequences of allowing this to vary in Sect. 6.3. We exclude the *Planck* 217 GHz data from the fit because of CO contamination, and we do not use data above 3000 GHz (100 μm), because we are only considering the large dust grain population rather than small dust grains or PAH emission. During the fitting process we iteratively colour correct the data based on the model.

We also calculate the dust mass per arcminute based on τ_{353} (chosen to reduce the sensitivity of the calculation to the dust temperature) via

$$M_{\text{dust}} = \frac{\tau_{353} \Omega D^2}{\kappa_{353}} \quad (4)$$

(Hildebrand 1983), where we use the dust mass absorption coefficient at 353 GHz, $\kappa_{353} = 0.0431 \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$, as being representative of the diffuse interstellar medium (Li & Draine 2001; this value agrees well with that measured by Planck Collaboration Int. XVII 2014, and is also close to the value measured in Planck Collaboration XI 2014). The value of κ_{353} depends on β_{dust} (see Planck Collaboration Int. XVII 2014); however the value of κ_{353} that we use here is from a specific model and should not be rescaled. As such we only use Eq. (4) to calculate the dust

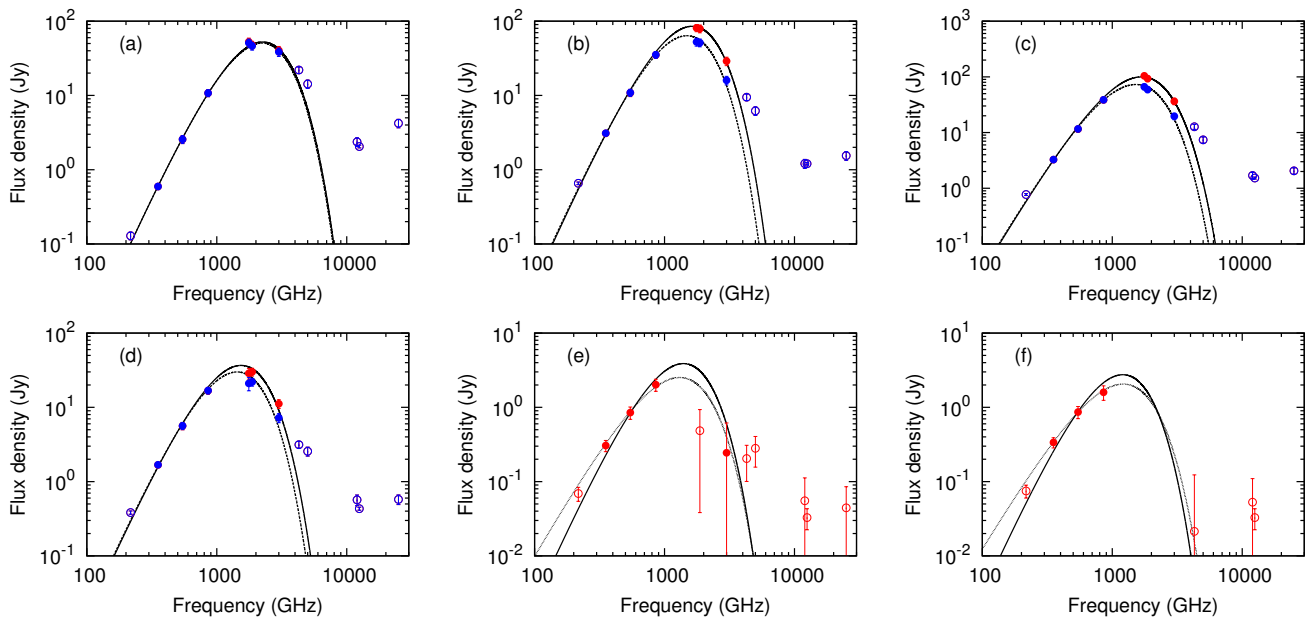


Fig. 9. Representative SEDs in various parts of M31. The solid line shows the fit of the modified blackbody with $\beta = 2$ to the full flux densities (shown in red), and the dashed line shows the fit to the rescaled flux densities (shown in blue). Only the filled data points are used in the fits. The fit parameters are discussed in the text. *Top row:* a) The SED of a pixel in the nuclear region ($00^{\text{h}}42^{\text{m}}30^{\text{s}}, +41^{\circ}09'$); b) the northern edge of the 10 kpc ring ($00^{\text{h}}45^{\text{m}}40^{\text{s}}, +41^{\circ}54'$); c) the bright pixel in the southern end of M31 ($00^{\text{h}}40^{\text{m}}45^{\text{s}}, +40^{\circ}39'$). *Bottom row, Outer spiral arms:* d) 14.8 kpc arm ($00^{\text{h}}39^{\text{m}}53^{\text{s}}, +40^{\circ}23'$); e) 22 kpc arm ($00^{\text{h}}37^{\text{m}}43^{\text{s}}, +39^{\circ}58'$); and f) 26 kpc arm ($00^{\text{h}}36^{\text{m}}52^{\text{s}}, +39^{\circ}43'$). The last two SEDs also show a variable β_{dust} fit with a dotted line.

masses for fits where we have fixed $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 2.0$, which is approximately the spectral index for the carbon dust in the model of [Li & Draine \(2001\)](#). When we allow β_{dust} to vary we show the amplitudes of the best-fitting functions (τ_{353}). For the fits where $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 2.0$, the dust mass per pixel can be converted into optical depth by dividing by $1.45 \times 10^{10} M_{\odot}$. We quote dust mass surface densities in units of $M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$; along the major axis of M31 there is 228 pc per arcmin, which after adjusting for inclination gives 0.273 kpc^2 per arcmin².

6.2. Representative SEDs

We show representative SEDs of individual pixels in [Fig. 9](#), looking at the nuclear region, positions on the north and south sides of the 10 kpc ring, and pixels containing the outer spiral arm structure to the south of the galaxy. These plots include both SED fits to the entire spectrum, and to the emission that is related to heating by the stellar population (with both original and rescaled flux densities shown in the SED).

We find that the long wavelength data are generally well-fitted by a single modified blackbody with a fixed spectral index of 2.0, with χ^2 values between 0.46 and 14.4 and an average value of $\bar{\chi}^2 = 3.6$ ($N_{\text{dof}} = 4$). In general we find a significantly lower χ^2 for the rescaled SEDs compared to the original SEDs. This low χ^2 indicates that the estimates of the uncertainties in the data are conservative; however, the data points are not independent, as the maps are correlated due to their common calibration schemes, an estimate of which has been incorporated in these uncertainties (see [Sects. 2 and 3](#)).

In the nuclear region, the data fit the model well (see the left-hand panel of [Fig. 9](#)), and there is a clear separation between the large grain contribution compared with the small grains, since the large grain contribution peaks at around 60 Jy at ap-

proximately 140 μm (2 THz) compared with only 2 Jy at 25 μm (12 THz). This pixel is dominated by ISRF dust up to high frequencies (as also seen by [Viaene et al. 2014](#)), such that there is not a large difference between the original and rescaled SED fits. The model residual at 217 GHz, which could be ascribed to CO emission, is less than the uncertainty on the data point. For the original SED, we find a mass surface density of $(1.10 \pm 0.19) \times 10^4 M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$ and a temperature of $(21.8 \pm 0.9) \text{ K}$ with $\chi^2 = 1.34$ ($N_{\text{dof}} = 4$). We find very similar results for the rescaled SED; we find a mass surface density of $(1.11 \pm 0.08) \times 10^4 M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$ and a temperature of $(21.5 \pm 0.4) \text{ K}$, with $\chi^2 = 1.22$ ($N_{\text{dof}} = 4$). This temperature agrees well with that of [Fritz et al. \(2012\)](#), who found $(22.2 \pm 0.4) \text{ K}$ from *Herschel* data. However, it is considerably less than the approximately 35 K found by [Groves et al. \(2012\)](#). This region is the warmest in the entire galaxy, which is unsurprising, since warmer dust is present in spiral galaxies with large bulges ([Sauvage & Thuan 1992; Engelbracht et al. 2010](#)).

Moving to the 10 kpc ring, we find that this has higher optical depth/dust masses than the rest of M31, but that the dust heated by the global stellar population has lower temperatures than the dust heated by the global stellar population in the nucleus. However, there are multiple heating processes present, as demonstrated by the rescaled SEDs being much lower than the unscaled SEDs, and the SFR dust will be warmer than the dust emission studied here. We present an example on the northern edge of the ring in the top-centre panel of [Fig. 9](#). In this pixel, the rescaled [original] SEDs are fitted by a mass surface density of $(10.6 \pm 0.5) \times 10^4 M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$ [$(8.9 \pm 0.4) \times 10^4 M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$], and a temperature of $(14.3 \pm 0.12) \text{ K}$ [$(15.8 \pm 0.1) \text{ K}$], with χ^2 of 3.57 [3.17] ($N_{\text{dof}} = 4$). As with the nucleus, the large dust grain component is significantly brighter than the small dust grain emission. Again, the residual at 217 GHz is less than the uncertainty on the data point. We also look at a pixel on the

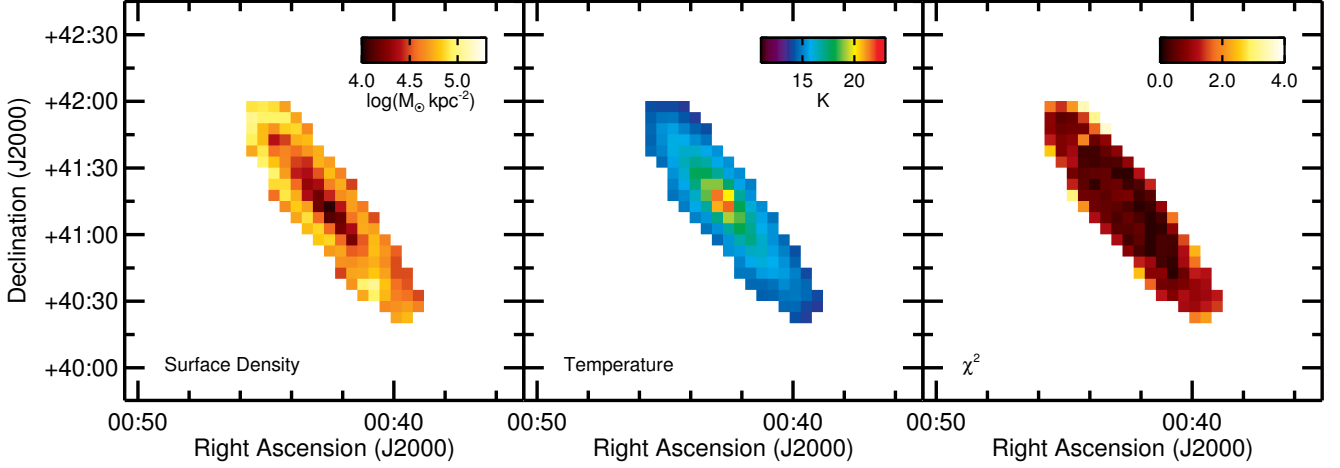


Fig. 10. Maps of the fitted dust mass surface density (*left*), temperature (*middle*) and reduced χ^2 (*right*) for a one-component fit to the 5' data set using the rescaled SEDs. The ring morphology can be clearly seen in the dust mass density, while the dust temperature decreases with galactocentric distance.

southern edge, which is particularly bright at low frequencies, shown in the right-hand panel of Fig. 9. Once more, there is a good separation between the lower-frequency large dust grain and the higher-frequency small dust grain populations. The temperature and spectral indices are similar to the northern pixel, with the rescaled [original] SEDs fitted by a mass surface density of $(10.8 \pm 0.7) \times 10^4 M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$ [$(9.1 \pm 0.4) \times 10^4 M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$] and a temperature of $(14.7 \pm 0.2) \text{ K}$ [$(16.2 \pm 0.1) \text{ K}$], and χ^2 of 2.32 [3.06] ($N_{\text{dof}} = 4$). The residual at 217 GHz in this pixel is $(0.08 \pm 0.03) \text{ Jy}$ [$(0.13 \pm 0.03) \text{ Jy}$], implying that there is some CO emission detected by *Planck* in this (and neighbouring) pixels. This is 10% [17%] of the total emission at 217 GHz in that pixel.

We also look at the dust properties in the outermost spiral arms of M31. *Herschel* observations of M31 (Fritz et al. 2012) find dust distributed in three ring-shaped structures extending out to 21, 26, and 31 kpc, with dust temperatures of 19.2, 18.2, and 17.1 K (all with uncertainties of approximately $\pm 0.2 \text{ K}$) respectively, derived using a single component $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 2$ dust model. We look at three pixels on the 14.8, 22 and 26 kpc spiral arms, the SEDs for which are shown in the bottom row of Fig. 9. We do not include *Spitzer* or *ISO* data in the fits for the outermost two spiral arm SEDs. The background subtraction method used for the *Spitzer* data removed large-scale background structures in a way that was different than the background subtraction in other maps, and *ISO* did not map out that far. In addition, the 22 and 26 kpc arms were not included in the colour ratio analysis, so we consider the original rather than rescaled SED for those arms. The temperatures for these, using the *Planck* data and $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 2.0$, are 14.8 ± 0.2 ($\chi^2 = 9.0$) [rescaled, 13.9 ± 0.1 , $\chi^2 = 8.5$, $N_{\text{dof}} = 4$], 13.5 ± 1.0 ($\chi^2 = 4.7$, $N_{\text{dof}} = 2$) and $(11.6 \pm 0.3) \text{ K}$ ($\chi^2 = 5.3$, $N_{\text{dof}} = 1$). The SEDs are also poorly fitted with a fixed $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 2.0$, so we also try a variable β_{dust} fit for the outermost arms. We find a much flatter spectral index for these, with the 22 kpc ring at $(15.5 \pm 1.3) \text{ K}$ and $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 1.1 \pm 0.3$, and the 26 kpc ring at $(14.8 \pm 1.5) \text{ K}$ and $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 1.0 \pm 0.3$, although these fits lie above the 217 GHz data point that is not fitted in the data. These results for T_{dust} and β_{dust} are likely to be biased due to the absence of higher frequency data points to constrain the peak of the SED, which could explain the lower temperatures

found here compared with those by Fritz et al. (2012); a combination of *Planck* and *Herschel* data would better constrain the properties here, but that is beyond the scope of this paper.

6.3. Maps of the dust parameters

In Fig. 10 we plot the best-fit parameter values for the dust heated by the old stellar population, as well as the reduced χ^2 values for all pixels, with the dust mass density deprojected so that the pixels are in units of $M_{\odot} \text{ kpc}^{-2}$. The fitted dust temperature traces the stellar population, with the dust decreasing in temperature with distance from the centre of M31. The dust mass traces the 10 kpc ring structure, with the highest masses in the north part of the ring and in the bright region in the south part of the ring. We have compared our dust masses with those from Planck Collaboration Int. (2014); after correcting their map for the inclination of M31 we find that their dust mass are approximately 30% higher than ours, which is due to the different dust modelling technique used as well as the different zero levels in the maps.

Figure 11 shows the dust mass density and temperature per pixel as a function of galactocentric distance, for both the entire and rescaled SEDs. The fits to the rescaled SEDs have lower temperatures and higher dust masses than the fits to the full SEDs, and the difference increases in significance as the galactocentric distance increases. The dust mass clearly increases from the nucleus outwards, peaking at the position of the ring (around 10 kpc), before decreasing again. The dust that is heated by the evolved stellar population is hottest in the centre of M31 at about 22 K, and the temperature decreases down to around 14 K at the distance of the ring. These trends are broadly comparable to those found by Fritz et al. (2012), which are shown by the dashed black line in the plot, and have the opposite trend at larger distances than the results of Smith et al. (2012), shown by the solid magenta line. The dust temperature behaviour as a function of distance most likely differs between these analyses due to the different dust models used, in particular whether the dust spectral index is fixed or allowed to vary; this will be discussed later in this section.

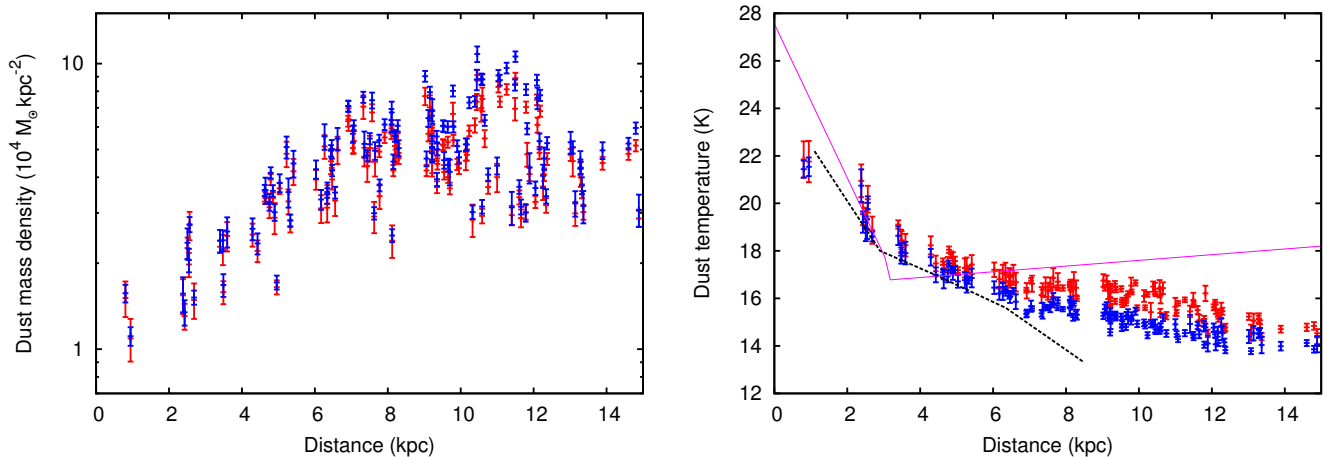


Fig. 11. The fitted dust mass surface density (*left*) and dust temperature (*right*) as a function of galactocentric distance. Red points are from fitting the entire SED, while blue points are fitting to the fraction of the flux density that can be attributed to the dust heated by the global stellar population. Temperatures from [Fritz et al. \(2012\)](#) and [Smith et al. \(2012\)](#) are shown by the dashed black line and the solid magenta line, respectively; these differ from the analysis here due to the different dust models used and whether the dust spectral index has been allowed to vary or not. There is a systematic shift towards lower dust temperatures and higher dust masses with the rescaled SEDs.

The temperatures from the rescaled and unscaled SEDs agree well with each other in the centre of the galaxy, but diverge from each other beyond about 5 kpc. We expect the SFR to contribute more to dust heating at larger distances from the centre as the bulge stars peak in the centre of the galaxy and the SFR peaks in the ring. At the centre of the galaxy, the old stellar population in the bulge dominates the ISRF, and the dust seen at wavelengths as short as $70 \mu\text{m}$ is heated by the ISRF, which means that the rescaled vs. unscaled SEDs should be essentially the same. The rescaled and unscaled SEDs may converge outside of the 10 kpc ring, but we lack the sensitivity to accurately measure the SED at larger radii and therefore cannot see this reconvergence.

We also combine the values from all pixels and fit a fixed β_{dust} model to the overall SED from M31. We find that this has an average temperature for the rescaled [original] SED of $(15.7 \pm 0.3) \text{ K}$ [$(16.3 \pm 0.3) \text{ K}$] and a combined dust mass of $(8.2 \pm 0.7) \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$ [$(7.8 \pm 0.6) \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$]. The combined dust mass from the fits to the individual pixels is $(4.3 \pm 0.3) \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$ [$(3.8 \pm 0.3) \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$], just under a factor of two lower. This is the opposite of the results of [Galliano et al. \(2011\)](#), who found 50% higher dust masses when fitting data for the LMC at higher resolution compared to the integrated SED, and [Aniano et al. \(2012\)](#) who find up to 20% higher dust masses from fitting the resolved data for NGC 628 and NGC 6946. However it is in agreement with [Smith et al. \(2012\)](#) who, like us, find a significantly higher dust mass from the integrated SED than the individual pixel SEDs in M31, and also [Viaene et al. \(2014\)](#) who find a dust mass 7% higher using an integrated SED. The difference between the masses is caused by different weightings resulting from the morphology and temperature distribution within M31. In the case of the LMC and other dwarf galaxies, warm dust in star-forming regions are embedded within a dust component of cool large grains heated by a relatively weak diffuse interstellar radiation field. When integrating over large areas, the resulting temperatures are warmer and dust surface densities are lower than what would be found within individual subregions. In M31 and other galaxies with large bulges (e.g., M81; [Bendo et al. 2010, 2012a](#)), the temperature of large dust grains heated by the diffuse interstellar radiation field in the centres of the galaxies may be higher

than the temperature of the large dust grains heated locally by star-forming regions in the outer disc. When integrating over an area that includes both the centre of the galaxy and the star-forming ring, the inferred dust temperatures may appear lower and the dust surface densities may appear higher than what would be found in individual subregions within the galaxies. The combined dust mass from the individual pixels will be more physically accurate, and is in agreement with the overall dust mass for M31 found by [Draine et al. \(2014\)](#).

However, [Smith et al. \(2012\)](#) find about $2.8 \times 10^7 M_{\odot}$ with their higher resolution analysis, but this is likely to be related to the different approaches with SED fitting. Smith et al. effectively assumed that all emission above $100 \mu\text{m}$ originates from dust heated by a single source, whereas we show that some of the emission above 1000 GHz originates from dust heated by star formation. The [Smith et al. \(2012\)](#) dust temperatures will therefore be higher, which will bias the resulting dust masses lower.

We have also fitted the data using a variable spectral index. The results of these fits for both the full and rescaled SEDs are shown in [Fig. 12](#). The behaviour of the temperature and spectral index are somewhat different in these two situations. When fitting the entire SED, the resulting temperatures are much flatter than for the fixed β_{dust} case, whilst the spectral index decreases with galactocentric distance. The same behaviour is still evident when the rescaled SEDs are fitted; however, it is less significant. This helps explain some of the differences between our analysis and that using the *Herschel* data described in [Smith et al. \(2012\)](#), where the entire SED has been fitted without taking into account the heating mechanism. The behaviour of flatter spectral indices further out from the galactic centre was noted by [Smith et al. \(2012\)](#), and has also been seen in our Galaxy ([Paradis et al. 2012b; Planck Collaboration XI 2014](#)). The fitted spectral indices are steep, with a range of 1.8–2.5 for M31 both here and in [Smith et al. \(2012\)](#); in comparison, our Galaxy has much flatter spectral indices of 1.4–1.8 ([Planck Collaboration XI 2014](#)).

We plot the temperatures vs. β_{dust} for both the entire SED and the rescaled SED in [Fig. 13](#). There is a systematic shift towards colder temperatures of about 9% when fitting the rescaled

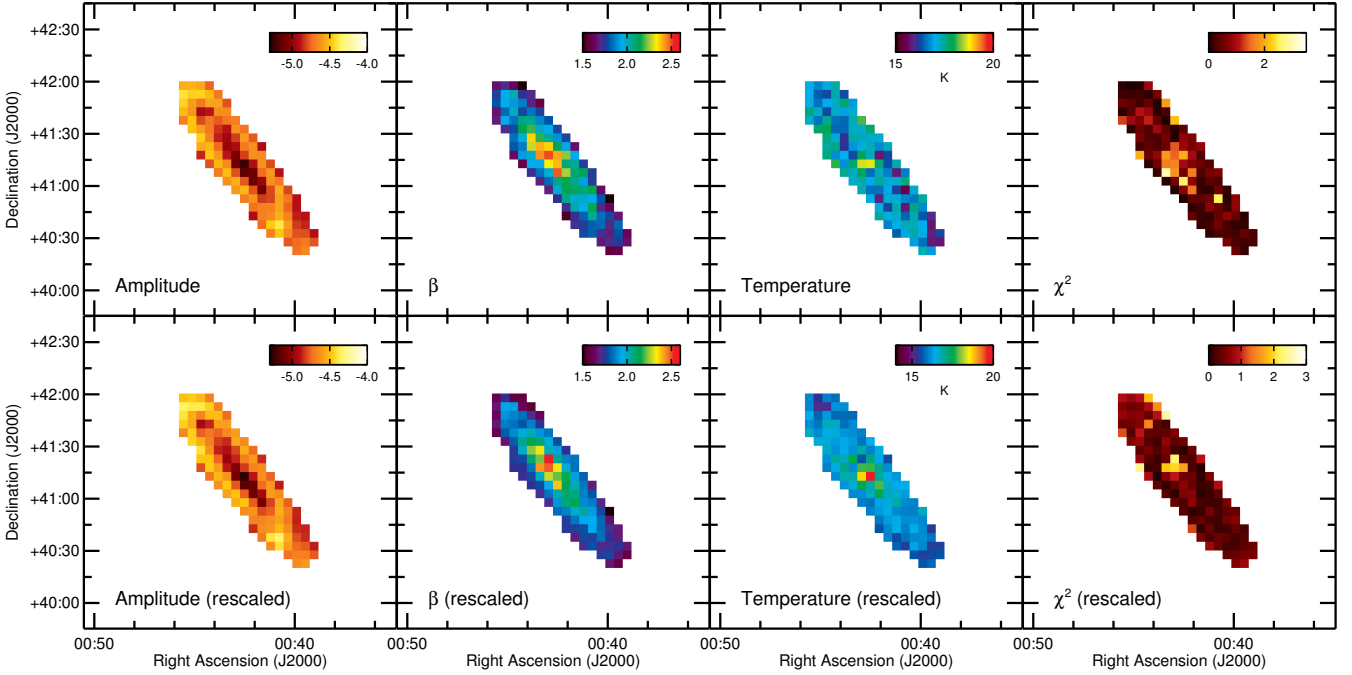


Fig. 12. Results from allowing β_{dust} to vary. *Top*: fitting for the entire SED. *Bottom*: Fitting to the rescaled SED (i.e., only the dust component that is heated by the stellar population). *Left to right*: the fitted dust optical depth, spectral index, temperature, and reduced χ^2 . Note the difference in morphology for the dust temperature and indices.

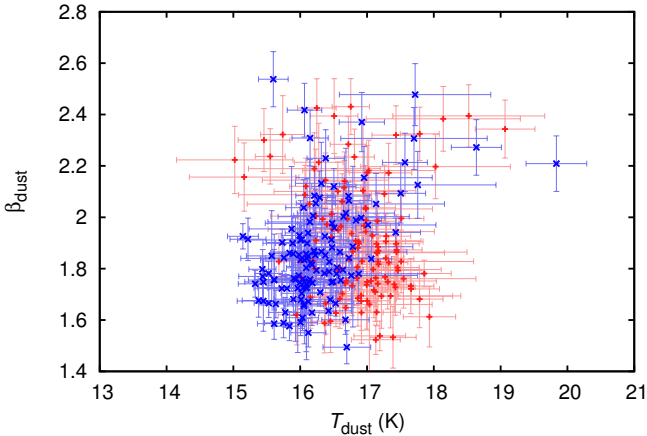


Fig. 13. T_{dust} vs. β_{dust} for the entire SED (red plus symbols) and the rescaled SED (blue crosses). There is a systematic shift to lower dust temperatures with the rescaled SEDs, while the distribution of β_{dust} does not substantially change.

SED compared with the entire SED, while the β_{dust} distribution steepens slightly from an average of 1.88 for the entire SED to 1.94 for the rescaled SED. It is well known that there is a significant degeneracy present when both the temperature and spectral index are allowed to vary (e.g., see Shetty et al. 2009; Galametz et al. 2012; Juvela & Ysard 2012), but we do not see evidence for this here.

We have also carried out this analysis using the NILC CMB subtraction and find very similar results, with differences primarily in the outermost pixels where the signal is weaker compared

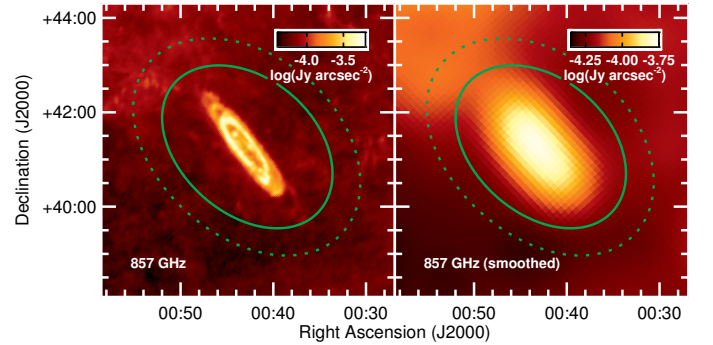


Fig. 14. Aperture used to extract the total emission from M31, superimposed on the raw (*left*) and 1° -convolved (*right*) 857 GHz map.

to the CMB. As seen in Sect. 5, the colour ratio analysis is negligibly affected by the different CMB subtraction; the SED fitting is more sensitive to differences in the 353 GHz flux density. For the fixed β case, the dust mass changes by an average of 0.37σ , and a maximum of 1.8σ , and the temperature changes by an average of 0.4σ and a maximum of 2.6σ , with the largest changes being at high galactocentric distances.

7. Integrated SED

We use aperture photometry to construct an integrated spectrum of M31 as a whole, using the same code developed for Planck Collaboration XX (2011) and Planck Collaboration Int. XV (2014), with modifications to enable us to have an elliptical

Table 3. Flux densities for the integrated spectrum from aperture photometry. Note that the flux densities have not been colour-corrected.

Survey	Frequency [GHz]	Flux density [Jy]	
Haslam	0.408	37.3 ±	5.5
Dwingeloo	0.82	18.4 ±	4.0
Reich	1.42	13.0 ±	1.4
WMAP	22.8	2.56 ±	0.13
Planck	28.4	2.55 ±	0.14
WMAP	33.0	3.04 ±	0.20
WMAP	40.7	2.63 ±	0.25
Planck	44.1	2.37 ±	0.29
WMAP	60.7	3.74 ±	0.51
Planck	70.4	3.67 ±	0.62
WMAP	93.5	9.2 ±	1.1
Planck	100	9.8 ±	1.5
Planck	143	21.2 ±	1.9
Planck	217	80.1 ±	8.8
Planck	353	291 ±	14
Planck	545	980 ±	100
Herschel	599.6	1390 ±	170
Herschel	856.5	3200 ±	390
Planck	857	2900 ±	300
Herschel	1199	6090 ±	900
COBE-DIRBE	1249	5100 ±	720
Herschel	1874	10600 ±	2500
COBE-DIRBE	2141	6800 ±	900
COBE-DIRBE	2997	3600 ±	500
IRAS	2997	3570 ±	470
Herschel	2998	5900 ±	1400
Herschel	4283	1010 ±	240
COBE-DIRBE	4995	760 ±	100
IRAS	4995	820 ±	110
IRAS	12000	126 ±	17
IRAS	25000	181 ±	24

aperture. The aperture is shown in Fig. 14. We use an inner radius of 120', and a background annulus between 120' and 160', with a ratio of the major to minor axes of 0.7 and an angle of 45°. We convolve the data set to 1° resolution prior to extracting the flux densities to have a matched resolution data set across all frequencies, which allows us to accurately compile the measured flux densities across the spectrum. We also make use of the *Herschel* integrated flux densities provided by Fritz et al. (2012), which have uncertainties of 7% for SPIRE and 20% for PACS. The measured flux densities for M31 at the various frequencies (prior to colour correction) are listed in Table 3.

We use a Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) technique, as described by Planck Collaboration XVI (2011), to fit the multiple components of the spectrum between 0.408 and 3,000 GHz via

$$S(\nu) = A_{\text{sync}} \nu^\alpha + S_{\text{ff}}(\nu) + S_{\text{AME}}(\nu) + S_{\text{dust}}(\nu) + S_{\text{cmb}}, \quad (5)$$

where the synchrotron emission is characterised by a power law with amplitude A_{sync} and index α . S_{dust} is given by a single modified blackbody spectrum as

$$S_{\text{dust}}(\nu) = 2h \frac{\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT_{\text{dust}}} - 1} \tau_{250} \left(\frac{\nu}{250\mu\text{m}} \right)^{\beta_{\text{dust}}} \Omega, \quad (6)$$

with free parameters τ_{250} , T_{dust} and β_{dust} . Note that this is fitted to the measured SED, rather than a rescaled SED as in previous sections.

Table 4. Best-fitting parameters for the integrated spectrum from the Bayesian analysis.

Parameter	Value
τ_{250}	$(1.1 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-5}$
β_{dust}	1.61 ± 0.11
T_{dust} [K]	18.9 ± 0.9
EM [cm^{-6} pc]	4.9 ± 1.6
ΔT_{CMB} [K]	$(3.6 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-6}$
A_{sync} [Jy]	14.7 ± 1.8
α_{sync}	-0.95 ± 0.16
A_{AME} [cm^{-2}]	$(2.4 \pm 2.1) \times 10^6$
χ^2	19.6
N_{dof}	16

The free-free flux density, S_{ff} , is calculated from the brightness temperature, T_{ff} , based on the optical depth, τ_{ff} , using

$$S_{\text{ff}} = \frac{2kT_{\text{ff}}\Omega\nu^2}{c^2}, \quad (7)$$

where Ω is the solid angle, ν is the frequency,

$$T_{\text{ff}} = T_e(1 - e^{-\tau_{\text{ff}}}), \quad (8)$$

and the optical depth, τ_{ff} , is given by

$$\tau_{\text{ff}} = 5.468 \times 10^{-2} T_e^{-1.5} \nu^{-2} \text{EM} g_{\text{ff}}, \quad (9)$$

in which the Gaunt factor is approximated by (Draine 2011)

$$g_{\text{ff}} = \ln \left(\exp \left[5.960 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\pi} \ln(Z_i \nu_9 T_4^{-3/2}) \right] + e \right), \quad (10)$$

where $e = 2.71828$. We assume a fixed electron temperature of $T_e = 8000$ K, which is a typical value from our Galaxy, and fit for the emission measure (EM).

We also fit for anomalous microwave emission using

$$S_{\text{AME}} = A_{\text{sp}} j(\nu) \Omega, \quad (11)$$

where we use a warm ionized medium (WIM) model for $j(\nu)$ calculated from SPDUST (Ali-Haïmoud et al. 2009; Silsbee et al. 2011). The amplitude A_{sp} has units of column density (cm^{-2}).

The CMB is fitted using the differential of a blackbody at $T_{\text{CMB}} = 2.7255$ K (Fixsen 2009):

$$S_{\text{cmb}} = \left(\frac{2k\Omega\nu^2}{c^2} \right) \Delta T_{\text{CMB}}, \quad (12)$$

where ΔT_{CMB} is the CMB fluctuation temperature in thermodynamic units. We do not attempt to remove CMB from the SED before carrying out the fit. The CMB amplitude can be either negative or positive.

The Bayesian fit is shown in Fig. 15, with the mean fit parameters given Table 4. The samples from the SED likelihood function are shown in Fig. 16. We find that there is a good fit across all of the frequencies ($\chi^2 = 19.6$ with $N_{\text{dof}} = 16$), with steep spectrum synchrotron emission dominating the radio frequencies, a significant amount of free-free emission dominating the flux densities between 10 and 50 GHz, along with CMB at frequencies around 100 GHz, and cold thermal dust emission at higher frequencies.

We find that the synchrotron emission in the aperture has an amplitude at 1 GHz of (14.7 ± 1.8) Jy and a steep spectrum with a

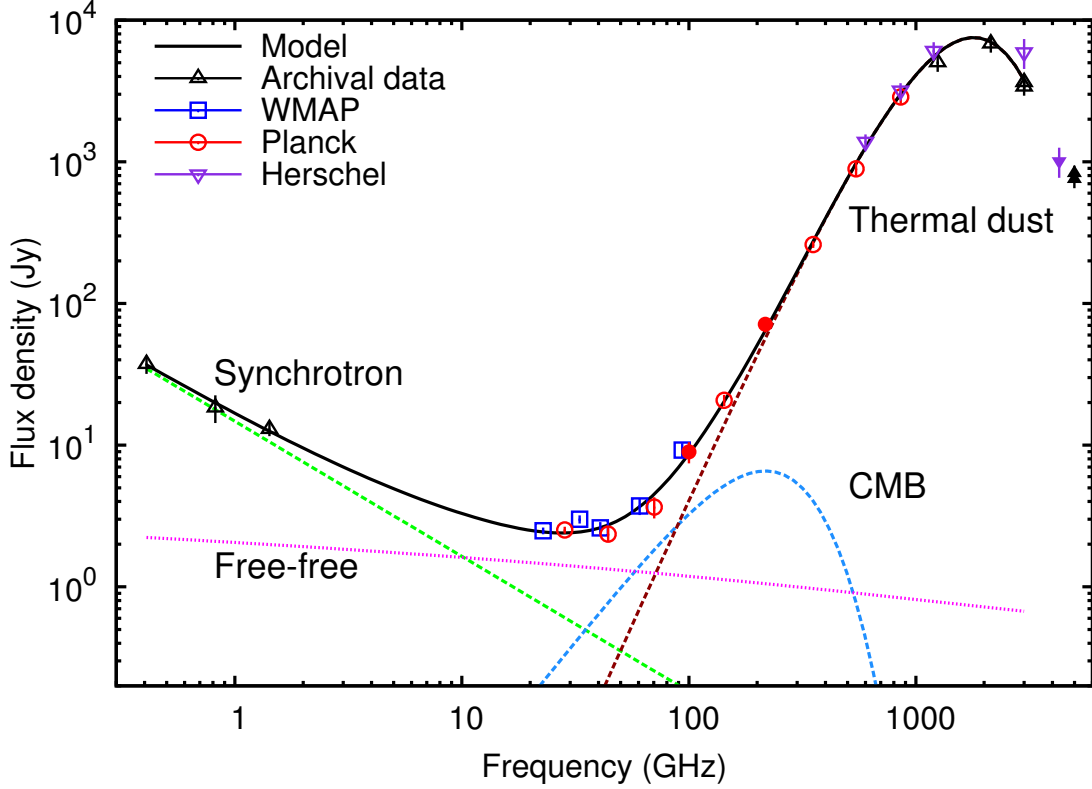


Fig. 15. The integrated SED from radio to far-infrared, with the best-fit model from Bayesian analysis (see Sect. 7). Data points are from *WMAP* (blue), *Planck* (red), *Herschel* (purple) and other archival data (black). Filled points represent data that were not included in the fit. The best fit is shown in black; the green line shows the synchrotron fit, the magenta line shows the free-free emission, the dark red line shows the thermal dust, and the light blue line shows the CMB. No AME component is shown, as this is unconstrained by the Bayesian analysis.

power-law index of -0.95 ± 0.16 , which is in the range of typical synchrotron spectral indices for normal galaxies of about -0.85 (e.g., Condon 1992; Niklas et al. 1997, but these may include a contribution from a thermal component, see Peel et al. 2011). This is poorly constrained as synchrotron is not a significant component in the fit at the *Planck* and *WMAP* frequencies.⁸ This emission includes both compact and diffuse emission from M31 that is within the aperture, as well as foreground emission from our Galaxy and emission from bright quasars behind M31 (particularly at the lowest frequencies) – although faint AGN, being more numerous, should statistically cancel out, as there should be as many of them in the background annulus as in the aperture. Bright compact sources are particularly visible in the high-resolution surveys of M31, as described by Graeve et al. (1981). Berkhuijsen et al. (2003) use a compilation of source-subtracted measurements of M31 to measure the integrated flux densities out to 16 kpc and find significantly lower flux densities than the fit here. For example, they quote (11.20 ± 0.81) Jy of emission at 408 MHz from Pooley (1969) compared to the (37.3 ± 5.5) Jy that we find here from the Haslam et al. (1981) 408 MHz map; in contrast Graeve et al. (1981) find a much higher flux density of (63.7 ± 6.7) Jy when the “halo” emission around M31 (which comes from point sources and a Galactic spur) is also consid-

ered. This difference is therefore presumably due to foreground emission and extragalactic sources in the aperture.

A significant amount of free-free emission is needed to account for the flux density detected in the lower *Planck* and *WMAP* bands; the model fit implies that most of the flux density seen at frequencies of 20–60 GHz is caused by free-free emission. Similar results have been seen in other nearby galaxies. For example, Peel et al. (2011) also found that a significant amount of free-free emission was needed to give realistic star formation rates for Messier 82, NGC 4945, and NGC 253. Free-free emission scales linearly with the star-formation rate (see e.g., Murphy et al. 2011). Azimlu et al. (2011) have calculated the star formation rate based on H α imaging and find it to be $0.44 M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, which is higher than the $(0.25 \pm 0.05) M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ found by Ford et al. (2013) using ultraviolet and 24 μm data. The SFR of $(0.36 \pm 0.14) M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ estimated by Xu & Helou (1996) using *IRAS* data of M31 lies in between these. Star formation rates can be calculated from the EM (and flux densities) that we are fitting for here using the formulae from Condon (1992). We find an EM of $(4.9 \pm 1.6) \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ pc}$ (≈ 1.7 Jy at 10 GHz), which equates to an SFR of $\approx 0.29 M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; this is consistent with the SFR from Ford et al. (2013) and Xu & Helou (1996), and lower than the SFR from H α .

Due to the high correlation between α_{sync} and EM we have tried setting priors on those parameters, with values of $\alpha_{\text{sync}} = -0.90 \pm 0.3$ and $\text{EM} = 7.7 \pm 0.5$ (corresponding to the H α SFR). Applying both priors improves the fit, with $\alpha_{\text{sync}} = -1.18 \pm 0.10$ and $\text{EM} = 7.2 \pm 0.4$; however, aside from A_{sync} , which de-

⁸ Additional data at frequencies around 5–15 GHz, e.g., by C-BASS (King et al. 2010), would be required to see whether the synchrotron radiation is steepening or flattening at high frequencies, see e.g., Strong et al. (2011) and Peel et al. (2012).

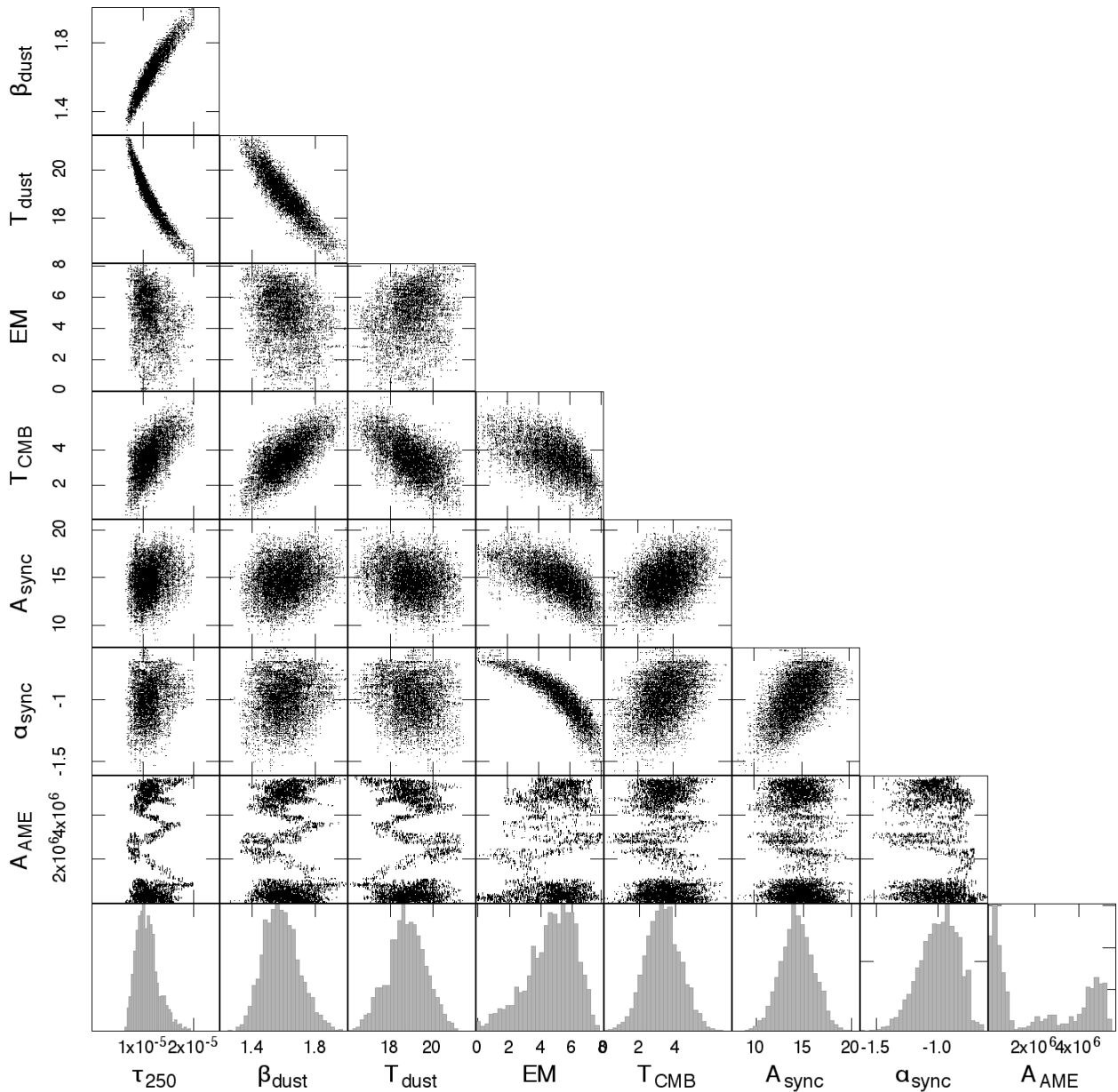


Fig. 16. The samples from the SED likelihood function for the Bayesian analysis. The bottom row shows the one-dimensional (marginalized) posterior for the parameters, with the other rows showing all of the two-dimensional marginal distributions. The amplitude of the AME contribution is unconstrained.

creases to (12.8 ± 1.4) Jy when the priors are applied, there is negligible effect on the overall goodness of fit and on the mean values of the other fit parameters (changes are less than 1σ). As such, we have conservatively used no priors for our canonical model here.

The Bayesian fit gives an AME amplitude of $(2.4 \pm 2.1) \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-2}$; however this mean and uncertainty does not adequately describe the distribution that is visible

in the likelihood (see Fig. 16), and the MCMC chains are unconverged for this parameter (including when priors on EM and α_{sync} were applied). Consequently, we also make use of the fit residuals combined with the model uncertainties to place an upper limit on the AME from M31. First, we can estimate the amount of AME that we might expect. From observations of anomalous emission in our Galaxy (Todorović et al. 2010; Alves et al. 2012), the ratio between AME at 30 GHz and

thermal dust emission as seen by *IRAS* at 100 μm is expected to be about 1:3000, although there is a considerable amount of scatter in this number (see [Planck Collaboration Int. XV 2014](#); additionally [Planck Collaboration XVII 2011](#) found a ratio of 1:2000 for the Small Magellanic Cloud) and it is sensitive to dust temperature ([Tibbs et al. 2012](#)). As we find (3570 ± 470) Jy at 100 μm , this implies that the 30 GHz AME emission should be 1.19 ± 0.15 Jy (with the uncertainty only from the 100 μm flux density, not from the ratio). The residual that we find at 30 GHz is (0.1 ± 0.7) Jy, which is <2.2 Jy at 3σ . Combining the measurement residuals at 20–60 GHz gives an average residual of (0.15 ± 0.37) Jy, or <1.26 Jy at 3σ . This means that while we do not detect AME from M31, we find an upper limit that means that AME in M31 must be less than, or comparable to, the AME level seen in our Galaxy. The results are compatible with those for AME in other nearby galaxies presented by [Peel et al. \(2011\)](#) and the detection of AME within only one of ten star-forming clouds observed by [Murphy et al. \(2010\)](#) and [AMI Consortium et al. \(2010\)](#) within NGC 6946. The main source of uncertainty here is the level of the free-free emission. Observations at frequencies of 5–10 GHz (e.g., a 5 GHz measurement from C-BASS, [King et al. 2010](#)) would improve these constraints.

We find that the thermal dust emission can be well characterised with a single modified blackbody spectrum, with an effective temperature of (18.9 ± 0.9) K, a spectral index $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 1.61 \pm 0.11$ and an optical depth of $(1.1 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-5}$. The overall cold temperature of the dust agrees with the *Herschel* observations, which found an average temperature of (18.1 ± 0.2) K ([Fritz et al. 2012](#)). This is higher than the temperature of (16.5 ± 0.3) K found in Sect. 6.3. The higher temperature obtained when allowing β_{dust} to vary is an expected consequence of the degeneracy between temperature and β_{dust} ([Shetty et al. 2009](#)). The spectral index is lower than would have been expected from the statistical $\beta_{\text{dust}}-T_{\text{dust}}$ relation seen in nearby galaxies in [Planck Collaboration XVI \(2011\)](#), where at this temperature $\beta_{\text{dust}} > 2$ would have been expected. It is, however, higher than the values seen in the LMC and SMC of around 1.5 and 1.2, respectively ([Planck Collaboration XVII 2011](#)), and is comparable to the typical values of β_{dust} seen in our Galaxy [Planck Collaboration Int. XVII \(2014\)](#). We note that it is surprising how well the single temperature modified blackbody fits the data. Even though this function does not replicate the emission at $< 100 \mu\text{m}$ from small dust grains that are stochastically heated by the diffuse ISRF, it still appears to be a good model for the overall emission from a galaxy and can provide a characteristic temperature for the large dust grains.

A positive differential CMB contribution is found, with an amplitude of $(3.6 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-6}$ K. That this signal is positive is not too surprising, given the presence of the large positive CMB anisotropy seen in Fig. 1. [Planck Collaboration XVII \(2011\)](#) also found positive residual CMB contributions for the LMC and SMC, and [Planck Collaboration Int. XV \(2014\)](#) found that AME sources preferentially had larger CMB contributions to their spectra. The CMB amplitude is degenerate with the dust spectral index, so a flattening of this spectral index (e.g., as seen in our Galaxy by [Planck Collaboration Int. XIV 2014](#)) would reduce the contribution from the CMB in this spectrum; the positive CMB fluctuation may be accounting for a small excess of emission in the range 100–300 GHz. Further investigation of the CMB contribution would be needed to identify whether that is the case here or not.

The 100 and 217 GHz bands of *Planck* are particularly contaminated with ^{12}CO ,⁹ and consequently these bands were not included in the fit. Using the unit conversion coefficient estimates of the ^{12}CO contamination of the *Planck* maps from [Planck Collaboration ES \(2013\)](#) of (14.78 ± 0.21) and $(45.85 \pm 0.11) \mu\text{K}_{\text{CMB}} [\text{K km s}^{-1}]^{-1}$ at 100 and 217 GHz, respectively, and the sum of the emission in the [Nieten et al. \(2006\)](#) CO map of $109481 \text{ K km s}^{-1}$, we estimate that within the elliptical aperture centred on M31, the *Planck* maps should contain a total of 0.58 Jy of CO emission at 100 GHz and 3.6 Jy at 217 GHz. These estimates agree within a factor of two with measurements of the CO contamination given by the residuals after subtracting the thermal dust model. At 100 GHz, there is 0.30 Jy of flux density above the model fit, corresponding to 3.3 % of the flux density measured at that frequency, which is lower than expected. This could be due to some of the CO emission being included in the thermal or CMB component fits within this model. At 217 GHz it is 6.8 Jy, or 9.5 %, which is just under a factor of two higher than expected. One possible explanation for this discrepancy is that the 217 GHz map contains CO emission from M31 that was not measured by the ground-based survey, or there could be CO contamination by emission from our Galaxy. Another possibility is that the modified blackbody is not sufficient to describe the data at these frequencies, or that the degeneracy with the CMB amplitude is affecting the fit at these frequencies.

8. Conclusions

Planck has clearly detected emission from the Andromeda galaxy across all of its frequency bands, and the High Frequency Instrument has mapped out the emission at 5' scales. Multiple spiral arm features are seen to both the north and south of the galaxy, with the 10 kpc ring clearly detected down to 100 GHz, and additional spiral arm structures extending out to 26 kpc from the nucleus. Knots of emission at various points within M31 can also be seen in the *Planck* data.

Smoothing the *Planck* data to a common resolution and combining it with ancillary data, has provided a powerful probe of the dust properties. By looking at colour ratio plots, it can be seen that the dust observed at the longest wavelengths ($\gtrsim 0.3$ mm) is heated by the diffuse stellar population (as traced by the stellar emission at 3.6 μm), whilst the dust observed at higher frequencies is heated by more local features (as traced by the star formation emission at 24 μm). Throughout the *Planck* frequency range the dust emission is primarily from dust heated by the diffuse stellar population rather than star formation.

By fitting a single modified thermal dust spectrum to individual pixels, the variations in dust mass and temperature across M31 can be seen. When a fixed $\beta_{\text{dust}} = 2$ is used and the SED is rescaled to include only the component that is attributable to the dust heated by the old stellar population, then the dust temperature is inversely proportional to the galactocentric distance. When the spectral index is allowed to vary, then we recover values of $\beta_{\text{dust}} \approx 2$ when only fitting the rescaled pixel SEDs. When we fit the unscaled pixel SEDs using a variable β_{dust} (see Sect. 6.3), we find that β_{dust} traces the heating from the old stellar population rather than measuring the dust grain properties.

⁹ ^{13}CO also emits in these frequency bands with a similar unit conversion coefficient, but the ^{13}CO line amplitudes are a factor of around 10 fainter than the ^{12}CO amplitudes (e.g., [Allen et al. 1995](#)); $^{12}\text{CO}/^{13}\text{CO}$ ratios are expected to be similar in M31 to Galactic values, since ^{13}CO is produced through hot-bottom burning in asymptotic giant branch stars ([Herwig 2005](#)).

Using aperture photometry, the integrated spectrum of all of the emission from M31 has been measured. This spectrum is well fitted with a combination of free-free, CMB and cold thermal dust emission. Overall, the fitted dust temperature is reasonably cold, at (18.9 ± 0.9) K, with a spectral index of 1.61 ± 0.11 . The significant amount of free-free emission brings the star formation rate into agreement with $H\alpha$ observations. We find a limit on the amount of AME in M31 of <1.26 Jy at 3σ , which is comparable to the expected level of around 1 Jy from measurements of the ratio of AME to thermal dust emission in our Galaxy.

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