

## The local and global properties of different types of supernova host galaxies

Li Zhou<sup>1,2</sup>, Yan-Chun Liang<sup>2</sup>, Jun-Qiang Ge<sup>2</sup>, Yi-Nan Zhu<sup>1</sup>, Xu Shao<sup>2</sup>, Hong Wu<sup>2</sup>, Wei-Bin Shi<sup>3</sup> and Li-Cai Deng<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Astronomy, School of Physics and Astronomy, Sun Yat-sen University, Zhuhai 519082, China; [zhouli59@mail.sysu.edu.cn](mailto:zhouli59@mail.sysu.edu.cn)

<sup>2</sup> National Astronomical Observatories, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China; [ycliang@nao.cas.cn](mailto:ycliang@nao.cas.cn)

<sup>3</sup> Shandong Provincial Key Laboratory of Optical Astronomy and Solar-Terrestrial Environment, School of Space Science and Physics, Shandong University at Weihai, Weihai 264209, China

Received 2020 January 20; accepted 2020 April 22

**Abstract** By using Data Analysis Pipeline (DAP) products of Mapping Nearby Galaxies at Apache Point Observatory (MaNGA), which are publicly available from the SDSS Data Release 15, we analyze the local properties at the SN explosion sites and global properties of different types of SN host galaxies to explore the explosion environments of different types of SNe. In our sample, there are 67 SN host galaxies in the field of view of MaNGA, including 32 Type Ia, 29 core collapse SNe (CCSNe), 1 superluminous SN (SLSN), 1 Type I and 4 unclassified type of SNe, with which we can apply the K-S test for analysis and derive statistically robust results. Due to the limited sample size, we could not remove the mass dependence in this work, which is likely the true driver of the trends for the properties presented in this work. The global star formation rate (SFR) and  $EW(H\alpha)$  for SN Ia hosts are slightly lower than those for CCSN hosts on average. SN Ia host galaxies are  $\sim 0.3$  dex more massive than CCSN hosts, which implies that the number ratio of CCSNe to Type Ia SNe will decrease with increasing stellar mass of host galaxies. The stellar population age of SN Ia host galaxies is older than that of CCSN hosts on average. There is no significant difference between different types of SN hosts for some properties, including local SFR density ( $\Sigma SFR$ ), and local and global gas-phase oxygen abundance. For most galaxies in our sample, the global gas-phase oxygen abundance estimated from the integrated spectra of SN hosts can represent the local gas-phase oxygen abundance at the SN explosion sites with small bias.

**Key words:** galaxies: abundances — galaxies: general — galaxies: stellar content — supernovae: general — techniques: spectroscopic

### 1 INTRODUCTION

As one of the most violent and important processes, supernova (SN) explosions mark the death of a star's life. Supernovae (SNe) can be classified into several types according to their different spectral features (Filippenko et al. 1997; Hamuy et al. 2002; Turatto et al. 2003; Barbon et al. 1979; Rubin et al. 2016; Schlegel 1990).

A star with an initial stellar mass less than  $8 M_{\odot}$  will produce a degenerate carbon-oxygen (CO) white dwarf, which can grow by accreting materials from its non-degenerate companion star. When its mass increases to  $1.4 M_{\odot}$ , a Type Ia SN (SN Ia) is produced after a bright thermonuclear explosion (Becker & Iben 1980; Hoyle & Fowler 1960). SNe Ia are considered as standard

candles and are employed for calculating cosmological distances. They have been utilized to make great contributions in the discovery of dark matter and the accelerating expansion of the Universe (Riess et al. 1998; Perlmutter et al. 1999). Once a star has its initial mass larger than  $8 M_{\odot}$ , an explosion caused by the gravitational collapse will happen and leave a neutron star or black hole as the remnant (Bethe et al. 1979; Arnett et al. 1989). This Core-Collapse supernova (CCSN) includes Type Ib, Ic and II SNe.

Many efforts have been devoted to study the correlations between different types of SNe and their host galaxies by applying single fiber spectra (Han et al. 2010; Kelly et al. 2012; Prieto et al. 2008; Shao et al. 2014). With the development of integral field spectroscopy (IFS) on modern telescopes, the local environment of SNe

and their host galaxies can be investigated with IFS observations of SN host galaxies (Stanishev et al. 2012; Kuncarayakti et al. 2013a,b; Galbany et al. 2016a).

Many works focusing on the SN host galaxies have performed statistical analysis on the local and global properties of different types of SN host galaxies. Galbany et al. (2014) studied 95 different types of SNe hosted in 81 galaxies using IFS of the Calar Alto Legacy Integral Field Area (CALIFA), the PPAK IFS Nearby Galaxies Survey (PINGS) and some other observations. Galbany et al. (2016b) obtained a larger number of SN host galaxies (115) and analyzed their metallicity with IFS data. With both IFS and long-slit data, Lyman et al. (2018) studied the environment of 37 SNe Iax (SN Iax is a peculiar class of SN that differs from normal SNe Ia) explosion sites and their host galaxies. Kuncarayakti et al. (2018) also considered IFS data to analyze the properties of 83 nearby CCSN explosion sites. Based on the IFS observations from PMAS/PPak Integral-field Supernova hosts COmpilation (PISCO), Galbany et al. (2018) investigated the local and global properties of 232 SN host galaxies, which hosted 272 SNe.

There are several works that examined the environment of SN explosion sites for a small sample using the Mapping Nearby Galaxies at Apache Point Observatory (MaNGA, Bundy et al. 2015). With MaNGA IFU data, Chen et al. (2017) and Izzo et al. (2018) analyzed the local environment of SLSN 2017egm in detail, which is one of the most nearby superluminous supernovae (SLSNe). Zhou et al. (2019) selected 11 SNe host galaxies from MaNGA Data Release (DR)13 and provided detailed information on the local and global properties of SN explosion sites and their host galaxies one by one.

In this paper, we will enlarge the sample size and analyze the differences of the local and global properties for different types of SN host galaxies (32 Type Ia, 29 CCSNe, 1 SLSN, 1 Type I and 4 unclassified types) by utilizing their MaNGA IFS observations to derive a more statistically robust conclusion. Also, we will compare the gas-phase oxygen abundance in the region of SNe explosion sites with those of the global regions of the host galaxies. Most of our sample galaxies have redshifts around 0.03 following the sample selection of MaNGA, which are systematically higher than other samples established in previous works.

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 2, we introduce the sample selection method applied to select our SN host galaxies. We arrange the comparisons of the local and global properties of environment for different types of SN host galaxies in Section 3. Finally, we will discuss our results in Section 4 and conclude in Section 5. Throughout this paper, we adopt a cosmological model with  $H_0 = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ ,  $\Omega_M = 0.3$  and  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$ .

## 2 SAMPLE SELECTION AND DATA REDUCTION

We cross-correlate  $\sim 4600$  galaxies in the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) DR15 (Aguado et al. 2019; Westfall et al. 2019) with Asiago Supernova Catalogue (ASC), Sternberg Astronomical Institute (SAI) supernova catalogue and supernovae in Transient Name Server (TNS) website. The detailed sample selection procedures are described as follows.

### 2.1 Supernova Catalogs

With its development, ASC has presented the information on more and more SNe and host galaxies through several years (Barbon et al. 1984, 1989, 1999). Although the last input of ASC was 2017jnj, which was discovered on 2017 December 31, ASC will check and update information on the listed SNe and their host galaxies. Detailed information on ASC is presented in <http://graspa.oapd.inaf.it/>.

The last modified version of SAI was on 2014 October 17 and there were 6545 SNe in this catalog. See detailed information on the SAI supernova catalogue in <http://www.sai.msu.su/sn/sncat/>.

TNS is an official mechanism of IAU and it reports new astronomical transient events. Once a transient event is spectroscopically confirmed, this new SN discovery will be officially named in the form of the naming rules established by IAU. Before being spectroscopically classified, the transient event has a prefix of ‘AT’. If it is classified into any type of SN, the prefix will be changed into ‘SN’. There have been 3967 classified SNe released by TNS to the public from 2016 January 1 to 2019 August 31. See detailed information on TNS in <https://wis-tns.weizmann.ac.il/>.

### 2.2 MaNGA DAP Data Products

MaNGA is one of three core programs of SDSS-IV and is designed to observe 10 000 galaxies with IFS. The survey covers galaxies with redshift ranging from 0 to 0.15, and stellar mass from  $10^9 M_\odot$  to  $10^{11} M_\odot$ , which can help clarify the galaxy evolution processes from birth, growth and finally death (Weijmans & MaNGA Team 2016; Bundy et al. 2015; Law et al. 2015; Drory et al. 2015; Blanton et al. 2017). MaNGA galaxies are divided into two kinds of samples based on their spatial coverage, i.e., the Primary sample for 2/3 and the Secondary sample for 1/3 of galaxies, which can cover galaxies out to  $1.5 R_e$  and  $2.5 R_e$ , with median redshifts of 0.03 and 0.045, respectively (more details are in Bundy et al. 2015; Law et al. 2015; Wake et al. 2017; Yan et al. 2016).

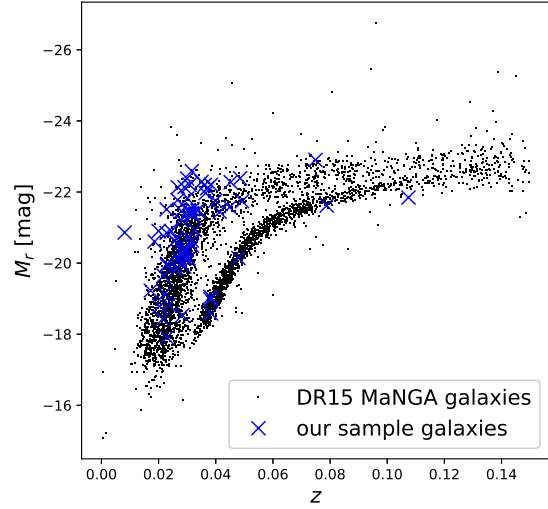
The MaNGA Data Analysis Pipeline (DAP) was initially developed in 2014 with an original IDL version

and applied as a survey-level pipeline to provide data products to the SDSS collaboration. It has been evolved through several years to a Python implementation and is now flexible for prospective users (Aguado et al. 2019; Westfall et al. 2019). The MaNGA DAP products provide galaxy parameters extracted from both emission and absorption lines (Westfall et al. 2019), including spectral indexes, emission-line properties, gas and stellar kinematics, etc.

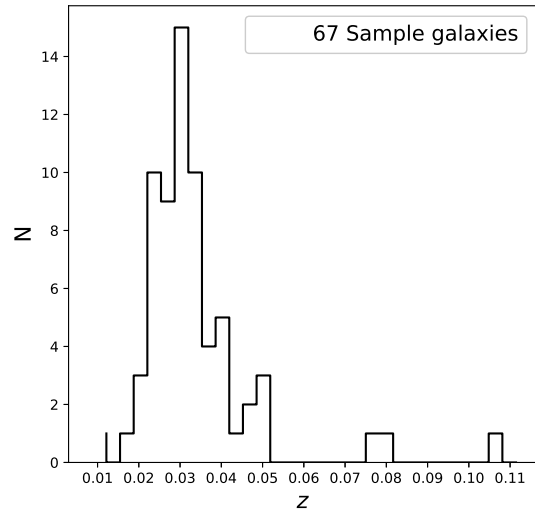
### 2.3 Cross-correlations of Catalogs and Final Sample

To obtain SN host galaxies in the field of view (FoV) of MaNGA, we match the R.A. and Dec. of SNe in ASC, SAI supernova catalogue and TNS with the R.A. and Dec. of more than 4600 galaxies in SDSS DR15. The cross-match radius is set to  $15''$  to match the largest FoV of MaNGA. Then we draw the 2D maps and exclude galaxies in which the SNe are located out of the FoV of MaNGA. Finally, we select 67 SN host galaxies in this matching radius that have been observed. Table 1 presents detailed information. The ‘+’ or ‘-’ symbols in the table signify that there are active galactic nuclei (AGNs) or there are no AGNs in the galaxy centers respectively according to the Baldwin, Phillips and Terlevich (BPT) diagram, and more details will be described in Section 3.1. Through this table, we can see that there are 32 Type Ia SNe, 29 CCSNe, 1 SLSN (2017egm), 1 Type I SN and 4 unclassified SNe.

Figure 1 shows the range of redshift ( $z$ ) and absolute magnitude in the  $r$  band ( $M_r$ , which is taken from MaNGA DRP) for our 67 sample galaxies marked by crosses and DR15 MaNGA galaxies marked by grey dots. The gap in this figure results from the sample selection of MaNGA, which includes Primary and Secondary Samples (Wake 2015; Belfiore et al. 2016). From this figure, we can see that the majority of SN host galaxies come from the Primary Sample, and very few come from the Secondary Sample. There are two possible reasons that may cause this effect. The first possible reason is the number ratio of the Primary and Secondary Samples of MaNGA. The Primary Sample is for 2/3 and the Secondary sample for 1/3 of MaNGA galaxies. The second possible reason is the range of the redshift of SN host galaxies. The median redshift for observed SNe is about 0.03, while the median redshifts of the Primary Sample and Secondary Sample are 0.03 and 0.045, respectively. Therefore, we may obtain more galaxies from the Primary Sample after cross-correlating with the SN catalogs. According to this figure, the redshifts in our sample galaxies range from 0.01 to 0.12 with a median value of about 0.03, and the  $M_r$  of all the 67 sample galaxies range from  $-23$  to  $-18$  mag. From the histogram in Figure 2, we can see that the redshifts of most



**Fig. 1** The redshift and absolute magnitude in  $r$  band distributions for all the 67 sample galaxies compared with the DR15 MaNGA sample galaxies.



**Fig. 2** The redshift distributions for all the 67 sample galaxies.

sample galaxies are located around 0.03. Table 1 presents the details of the redshift for each sample galaxy.

### 2.4 Parameter Estimations

In our work, we examine the emission line fluxes from MaNGA DAP to obtain the properties of dust extinction, star formation rate (SFR) and gas-phase oxygen abundance. The methods for calculating dust extinction, SFR and gas-phase oxygen abundance in this work are the





same as in Zhou et al. (2019). See Zhou et al. (2019) for more details.

We estimate the dust extinction using  $H\alpha$  and  $H\beta$  emission line ratios (Osterbrock & Ferland 2006) and the equation  $Rv = Av/E(B-V)$  (Fitzpatrick 1999). Then we do dust extinction correction for the emission line fluxes in the line of sight direction through galaxies.

According to Kennicutt (1998), we estimate the ongoing SFR from  $H\alpha$  luminosity. We calculate the global SFR by summing the SFR of all the single spaxels in  $1.5 R_e$  of galaxies.

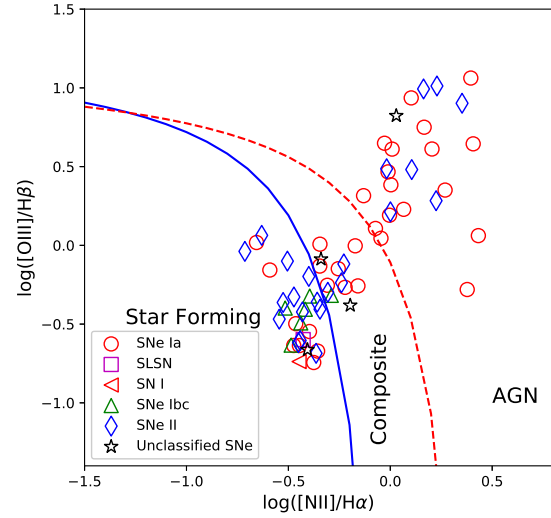
There are several methods to estimate the gas-phase oxygen abundance (Stasińska 2006; Izotov et al. 2006; Liang et al. 2006, 2007; Yin et al. 2007). Here we utilize strong line methods of O3N2 (Alloin et al. 1979; Pettini & Pagel 2004), N2O2 (Liang et al. 2006; Dopita et al. 2000, 2013; Zhang et al. 2017) and R23 (Pilyugin & Thuan 2005; Pagel et al. 1979; McGaugh 1991; Zaritsky et al. 1994; Tremonti et al. 2004; Kewley & Dopita 2002; Kobulnicky & Kewley 2004; Pilyugin 2001) to obtain the global and local gas-phase oxygen abundance of SN host galaxies.

### 3 RESULTS

The global properties are estimated using emission line fluxes from MaNGA DAP of all the useful spaxels in  $1.5 R_e$  of galaxies. The central and SN location properties are estimated using emission line fluxes of the spaxels within a circular region of 2.5 arcsec radius around the galaxy centers and SN explosion positions. The global SFR and gas-phase oxygen abundance for galaxies without AGNs in the galaxy centers are estimated considering emission line fluxes of spaxels in  $1.5 R_e$  of galaxies. While for galaxies with AGNs in the galaxy centers, the global SFR and gas-phase oxygen abundance are estimated with emission line fluxes of spaxels within  $1.5 R_e$  after excluding spaxels in central regions. In this section, firstly we will present the locations of galaxy centers in the BPT diagnostic diagram in Figure 3 to check if there are AGN components in galaxy centers. Then we will compare the global properties of the host galaxies of SNe Ia and CCSNe and the results will be shown from Figure 4 to Figure 11. Also, we will compare the local galaxy properties at the SN explosion locations and display the results in Figure 12 and Figure 13. Table 2 provides the median and mean values of the global and local properties for the SN host galaxies in our sample.

#### 3.1 BPT Diagnostic Diagram

To some extent, the existence of AGNs will bias the measurements. For galaxies with AGNs in the centers,



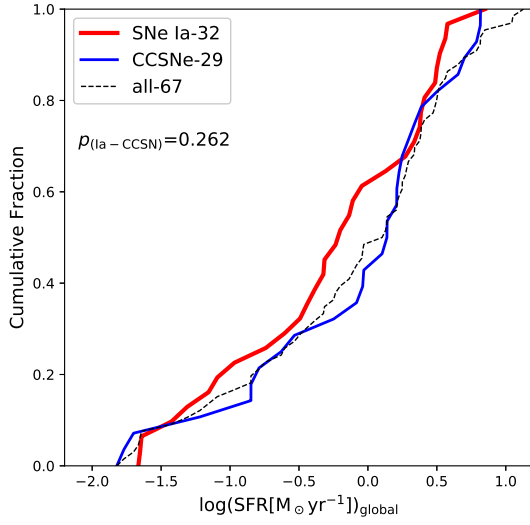
**Fig. 3** The BPT diagram for our sample galaxies. We plot the emission-line flux ratio of  $\log([\text{O III}]/\text{H}\beta)$  versus the ratio  $\log([\text{N II}]/\text{H}\alpha)$  for the central regions of all the galaxies in our sample. Different symbols represent different types of SNe.

the central regions should be excluded when calculating the global SFR and gas-phase oxygen abundance. Due to different excitation mechanisms, AGNs can be distinguished well from star forming galaxies by the BPT diagram, which depicts the flux ratio distribution of  $\log([\text{N II}] \lambda 6583/\text{H}\alpha)$  on the horizontal axis and  $\log([\text{O III}] \lambda 5007/\text{H}\beta)$  on the vertical axis (Baldwin et al. 1981).

Figure 3 presents the locations of the central regions of our sample galaxies in the BPT diagram. In this figure, different symbols represent different types of SNe. According to Figure 3, there are 25 sample galaxies with AGNs in the center. In Table 1, we use ‘+’ to signify that there are AGNs in the center of a galaxy and ‘-’ to represent a galaxy without AGNs. See details in Table 1. The number ratios of Type Ia, CCSN and unclassified types of SN host galaxies with AGNs in the center are 0.53 (17/32), 0.24 (7/29) and 0.25 (1/4), respectively. To reduce the impact of AGNs on global properties, we exclude the central regions of these 25 sample galaxies when estimating the global SFR and gas-phase oxygen abundance.

#### 3.2 The Difference in Global Properties between Different Types of SNe Host Galaxies

We estimate the global SFR through  $H\alpha$  flux by summing the SFR of each useful spaxel in SN host galaxies. Figure 4 shows the cumulative distribution of global SFR

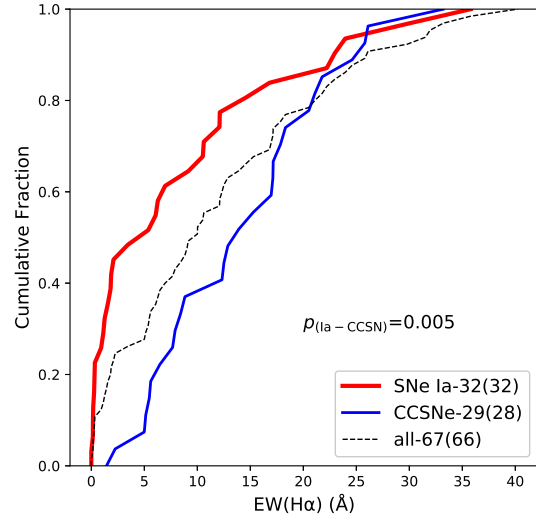


**Fig. 4** The cumulative distributions of global SFR for different types of SN host galaxies.

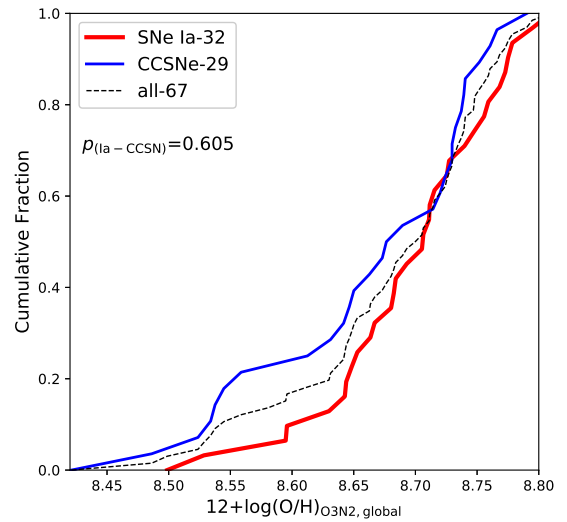
for Type Ia SNe, CCSN and all the sample galaxies, which are marked with red thick solid lines, blue thin solid lines and black dashed lines, respectively. We apply a Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test between SNe Ia and CCSN host galaxies. According to the p-value of the K-S test, which is 0.262, we can see that there is a difference between the global SFR distribution of SNe Ia and that of CCSN host galaxies. SNe Ia can explode in both late-type star forming galaxies and early-type galaxies, but CCSNe only explode in star forming galaxies. We can see from Figure 4 and Table 2 that the average SFR of CCSN host galaxies is higher than that of SN Ia host galaxies, which means that CCSN host galaxies have stronger star forming activities.

The equivalent width of  $H\alpha$  ( $EW(H\alpha)$ ) is thought to be an indicator of the strength of ongoing SFR compared with the past SFR (Sánchez et al. 2013; Galbany et al. 2014). In this work, the global  $EW(H\alpha)$  is estimated by calculating the median value of the spaxels in  $1.5 R_e$  of galaxies. We present the cumulative distributions of the global  $EW(H\alpha)$  for SN Ia and CCSN host galaxies in Figure 5. According to the p-value of the K-S test, there is a significant difference between the global  $EW(H\alpha)$  of these two types of SN host galaxies. From Figure 5 and Table 2, we can see that the  $EW(H\alpha)$  of CCSN host galaxies is higher than that of SN Ia hosts.

The cumulative distributions of global gas-phase oxygen abundance for different types of SN hosts are presented in Figure 6. Here the gas-phase oxygen abundance is estimated using the O3N2 method. From the K-S test, we can see that there is a high probability



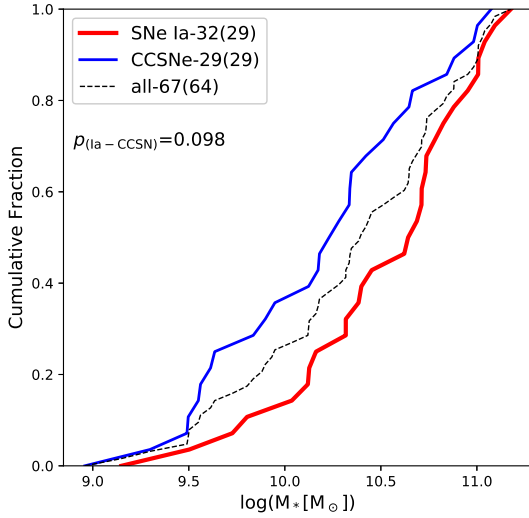
**Fig. 5** The cumulative distributions of global  $EW(H\alpha)$  for different types of SN host galaxies.



**Fig. 6** The cumulative distributions of global gas-phase oxygen abundance for different types of SN host galaxies.

( $p = 0.605$ ) for SN Ia and CCSN hosts with the same distribution, which means the difference in global gas-phase oxygen abundance between SN Ia and CCSN hosts is small.

Here we adopt the stellar mass from NSA, which can provide the stellar mass of the whole galaxy. It is estimated based on the photometry image of the whole galaxy. The cumulative distributions of global stellar mass for different types of SN hosts are depicted in Figure 7. From this figure we can see that the stellar mass of our sample

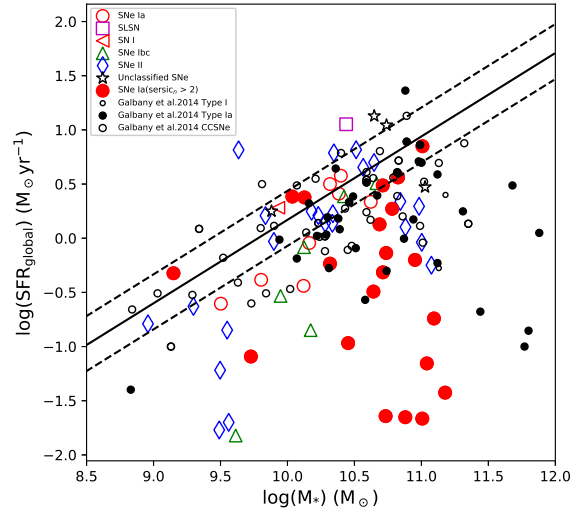


**Fig. 7** The cumulative distributions of global stellar mass for different types of SN host galaxies.

galaxies ranges from  $10^9$  to  $10^{11.5} M_{\odot}$ . Only less than 20% of SNe Ia and 30% of CCSNe are found to explode in galaxies with stellar mass lower than  $10^{10} M_{\odot}$ . This can be explained by the way of searching for nearby SNe, which are often observed by targeting bright massive galaxies. Thus, galaxies with lower stellar mass are unrepresentative for the nearby SN sample (Kelly et al. 2010; Neill et al. 2009; Arcavi et al. 2010; Galbany et al. 2014). According to the p-value of the K-S test, there is a significant difference in the stellar mass between SN Ia hosts and CCSN hosts. From this figure and Table 2, SN Ia hosts are more massive by  $\sim 0.3$  dex than CCSN hosts on average.

We present the relation between stellar mass and global SFR for our sample galaxies and that for sample galaxies from Galbany et al. (2014) in Figure 8. We should note that the stellar mass adopted for our sample galaxies is that of the whole galaxies, while the global SFR is for the part of galaxies within  $1.5 R_e$  of galaxies. We can see that most of our sample galaxies are located close to the relation defined by Elbaz et al. (2007) and Brinchmann et al. (2004), who studied star forming galaxies with redshift  $\sim 0$  from SDSS data. There are some galaxies with higher stellar mass and lower SFR that deviate largely from the locus of Elbaz et al. (2007). Most of these galaxies are the hosts of SNe Ia. On the whole, the relation for our sample galaxies is consistent with that of some literatures (Brinchmann et al. 2004; Elbaz et al. 2007; Galbany et al. 2014; Zhou et al. 2019).

We present the distributions of stellar mass for all the galaxies and global gas-phase oxygen abundance and compare them with those of Tremonti et al. (2004) in



**Fig. 8** The relation between global stellar mass and SFR for different types of SN host galaxies.

Figure 9. Here we choose gas-phase oxygen abundance estimated with the  $R_{23}$  method because the measurements in the relation in Tremonti et al. (2004) are estimated via the  $R_{23}$  method. In this figure, the larger symbols represent galaxies with AGNs in the center. From this figure, we can see that most of our sample galaxies are located within or near the region of 95% level determined by Tremonti et al. (2004). Some massive galaxies deviate slightly from the 95% level and they have lower global gas-phase oxygen abundance. These massive galaxies mostly host SNe Ia and there are AGNs in the centers of galaxies. The relation between stellar mass and gas-phase oxygen abundance in Tremonti et al. (2004) is only for star-forming galaxies in SDSS. However, for some of our SN host galaxies, especially for some SNe Ia, their host galaxies are ellipticals. In our sample, there are AGNs in the central regions for 25 SN hosts. When estimating the gas-phase oxygen abundance, we remove out the central regions for galaxies with AGNs in the centers. Therefore, the global gas-phase oxygen will be lower and located below the lines of Tremonti et al. (2004).

Also, the deviation may be caused by the systematic difference between the procedure for stellar mass and gas-phase oxygen abundance estimation. In our work, we estimate the gas-phase oxygen abundance by calculating the median value of the spaxels with emission line fluxes in  $1.5 R_e$  of galaxies. However, Tremonti et al. (2004) use SDSS single-fiber spectra to obtain the gas-phase oxygen abundance. Therefore, our result may be systematically lower than that in Tremonti et al. (2004). The stellar mass in our work is derived from NSA, which is based on the

**Table 2** The median and mean values with standard deviations of the local and global properties for host galaxies of SNe Ia, CCSNe and all the sample galaxies.

SN Type	Global		Local	
	median	mean	median	mean
	$\log(SFR) [M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}]$		$\log(\Sigma_{SFR}) [M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ kpc}^{-2}]$	
SNe Ia	$-0.24 \pm 0.73$	$-0.30 \pm 0.73$	$-2.15 \pm 1.34$	$-2.54 \pm 1.34$
CCSNe	$0.14 \pm 0.76$	$-0.14 \pm 0.76$	$-2.17 \pm 1.10$	$-2.57 \pm 1.10$
All	$0.12 \pm 0.77$	$-0.13 \pm 0.77$	$-2.10 \pm 1.19$	$-2.49 \pm 1.19$
	$\log(M_{*}) [M_{\odot}]$			
SNe Ia	$10.63 \pm 0.49$	$10.47 \pm 0.49$	...	...
CCSNe	$10.26 \pm 0.56$	$10.18 \pm 0.56$	...	...
All	$10.39 \pm 0.54$	$10.34 \pm 0.54$	...	...
	$EW_{H\alpha} [\text{\AA}]$			
SNe Ia	$5.78 \pm 8.84$	$8.14 \pm 8.84$	$4.08 \pm 11.18$	$9.33 \pm 11.18$
CCSNe	$14.65 \pm 16.66$	$16.65 \pm 16.66$	$21.23 \pm 13.97$	$23.60 \pm 13.97$
All	$10.20 \pm 13.87$	$13.11 \pm 13.87$	$12.60 \pm 14.80$	$16.67 \pm 14.80$
	$H\delta_A [\text{\AA}]$			
SNe Ia	$1.84 \pm 2.28$	$2.15 \pm 2.28$	$1.83 \pm 2.46$	$2.05 \pm 2.46$
CCSNe	$4.38 \pm 1.56$	$4.10 \pm 1.56$	$4.61 \pm 1.33$	$4.53 \pm 1.33$
All	$3.92 \pm 2.18$	$3.32 \pm 1.98$	$4.06 \pm 2.39$	$3.46 \pm 2.39$
	$Dn(4000)$			
SNe Ia	$1.56 \pm 0.28$	$1.59 \pm 0.28$	$1.50 \pm 0.41$	$1.48 \pm 0.41$
CCSNe	$1.32 \pm 0.21$	$1.32 \pm 0.21$	$1.32 \pm 0.12$	$1.34 \pm 0.12$
All	$1.32 \pm 0.28$	$1.44 \pm 0.28$	$1.37 \pm 0.30$	$1.41 \pm 0.30$
	$12+\log(O/H)$ O3N2			
SNe Ia	$8.71 \pm 0.07$	$8.69 \pm 0.07$	$8.72 \pm 0.10$	$8.71 \pm 0.10$
CCSNe	$8.68 \pm 0.09$	$8.66 \pm 0.09$	$8.74 \pm 0.11$	$8.68 \pm 0.11$
All	$8.70 \pm 0.08$	$8.68 \pm 0.08$	$8.72 \pm 0.10$	$8.70 \pm 0.10$
	$12+\log(O/H)$ N2O2			
SNe Ia	$8.96 \pm 0.09$	$8.96 \pm 0.09$	$8.97 \pm 0.11$	$8.97 \pm 0.11$
CCSNe	$8.91 \pm 0.11$	$8.90 \pm 0.11$	$8.94 \pm 0.12$	$8.92 \pm 0.12$
All	$8.95 \pm 0.10$	$8.93 \pm 0.10$	$8.96 \pm 0.11$	$8.95 \pm 0.11$
	$12+\log(O/H)$ $R_{23}$			
SNe Ia	$8.91 \pm 0.07$	$8.91 \pm 0.07$	$8.88 \pm 0.15$	$8.90 \pm 0.15$
CCSNe	$8.88 \pm 0.10$	$8.88 \pm 0.10$	$8.92 \pm 0.13$	$8.91 \pm 0.13$
All	$8.89 \pm 0.10$	$8.89 \pm 0.10$	$8.92 \pm 0.14$	$8.90 \pm 0.14$

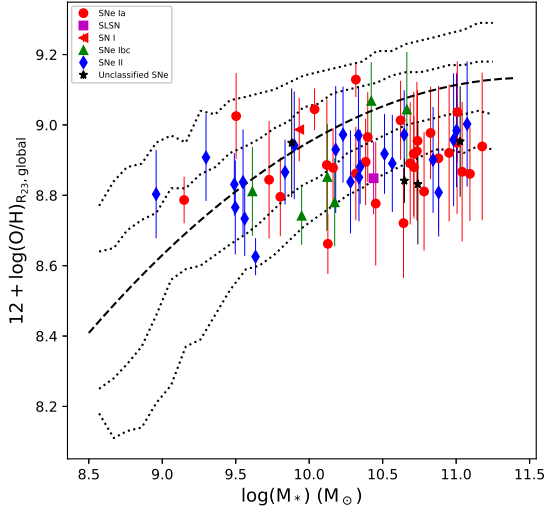
photometry image of the whole galaxy and can hence provide us the mass of the whole galaxy, while the mass from Tremonti et al. (2004) is based on the method in Kauffmann et al. (2003b), which is measured based on a single fiber spectrum of the nucleus and then scaled to the whole galaxy.

Dn(4000) is well known as an indicator for stellar population age (Bruzual et al. 1983; Balogh et al. 1999; Kauffmann et al. 2003a). In our work, the global Dn(4000) and  $H\delta_A$ , which will be described below, are estimated by calculating the median value of spaxels within  $1.5 R_e$  of galaxies. We present the cumulative distributions of the global Dn(4000) for different types of SN host galaxies in Figure 10. From this figure we can see that there is a significant difference in global Dn(4000) between SN Ia and CCSN hosts. On average, the Dn(4000) of SN Ia hosts is larger than that of CCSN hosts, which means that the

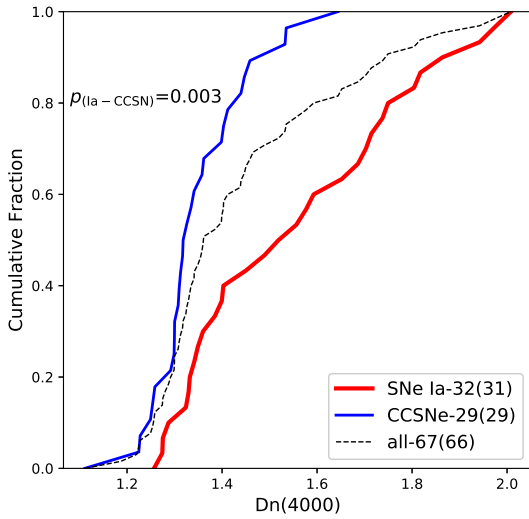
stellar population of SN Ia hosts is older than that of CCSN hosts.

$H\delta_A$  can also trace the stellar population of galaxies (Worthey et al. 1997). In Figure 11, we present the relations between Dn(4000) and  $H\delta_A$  for our sample galaxies and compare them with Kauffmann et al. (2003b), who studied pure burst star formation histories and continuous star formation histories with different metallicities. From Figure 11, we can see that the relations for our sample galaxies are quite consistent with those of Kauffmann et al. (2003b). In this relation, the global values of Dn(4000) for SN Ia host galaxies are larger than those of CCSN host galaxies and the global values of  $H\delta_A$  for SN Ia host galaxies are lower than those for CCSN host galaxies, which means that the stellar population of CCSN host galaxies is younger than that of SN Ia hosts. This result is consistent with the cumulative distribution of Dn(4000).





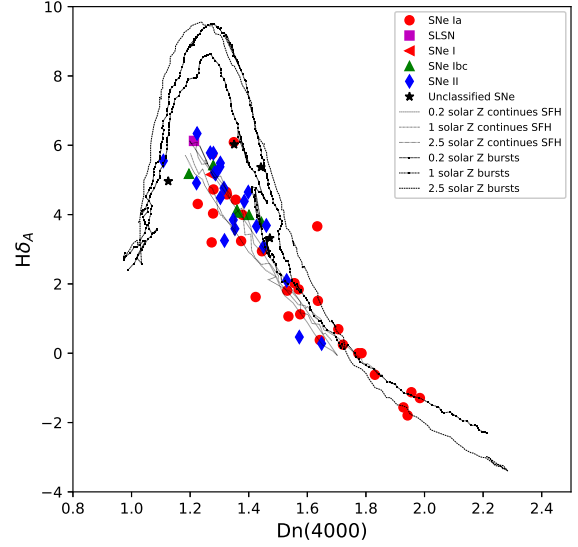
**Fig. 9** The relation between global stellar mass and gas-phase oxygen abundance estimated by  $R_{23}$  for different types of SN host galaxies.



**Fig. 10** The cumulative distributions of global Dn(4000) for different types of SN host galaxies.

### 3.3 The Difference in Local Properties between Different Types of SN Host Galaxies

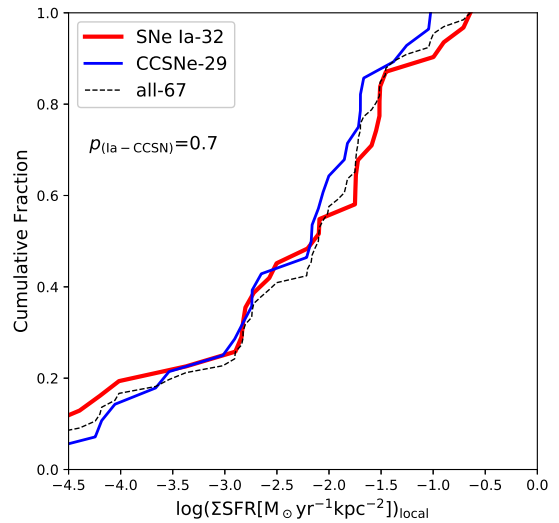
We estimate the local properties of SN explosion sites considering emission line fluxes of useful spaxels in a circular region with a radius of 2.5 arcsec. Figure 12 shows the cumulative distributions of local star formation density ( $\Sigma$ SFR) at the SN explosion sites. We obtain a high p-value for the K-S test ( $p = 0.70$ ), which means that there is



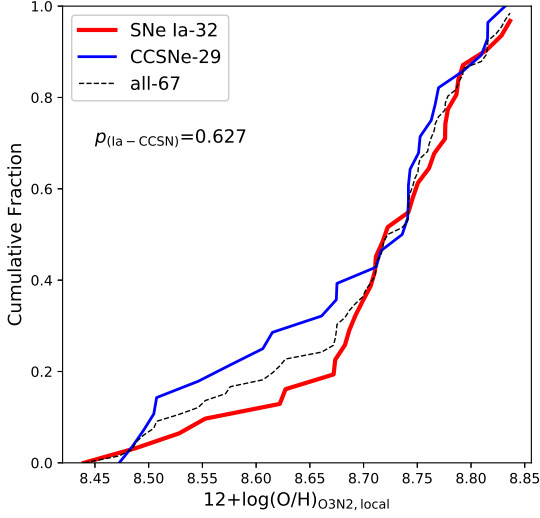
**Fig. 11** The distribution of the global Dn(4000) and  $H\delta_A$  for our SN galaxies. The dashed and chain lines are the relations between Dn(4000) and  $H\delta_A$  for 20% solar, solar and 2.5 times solar metallicity bursts, respectively. The dotted lines are the relations between Dn(4000) and  $H\delta_A$  for 20% solar, solar and 2.5 solar metallicity continuous star formation histories. These lines are taken from [Kauffmann et al. \(2003b\)](#).

no significant difference between the local  $\Sigma$ SFR of SN Ia explosion sites and that of CCSN.

In Figure 13, the cumulative distributions of local gas-phase oxygen abundance for different types of SN



**Fig. 12** The cumulative distributions of local  $\Sigma$ SFR for different types of SN host galaxies at SN explosion sites.



**Fig. 13** The cumulative distributions of local gas-phase oxygen abundance for different types of SN host galaxies at SN explosion sites.

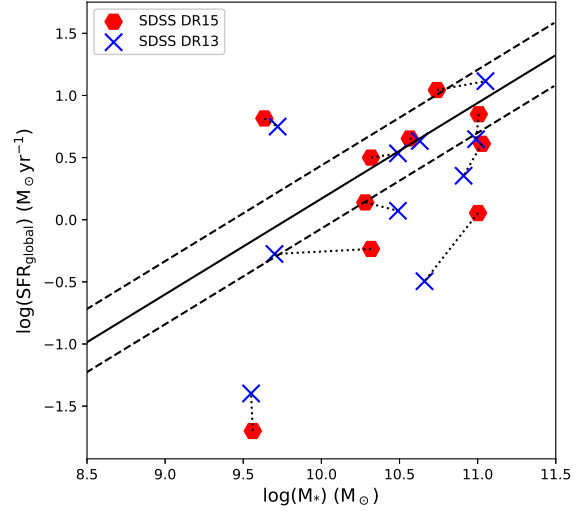
explosion sites are presented. From this figure, we can see that the local gas-phase oxygen abundance of SN Ia explosion sites is slightly higher than that of CCSNe on average. In general, there is no significant difference between the local gas-phase oxygen abundance at the explosion sites for different types of SNe.

## 4 DISCUSSION

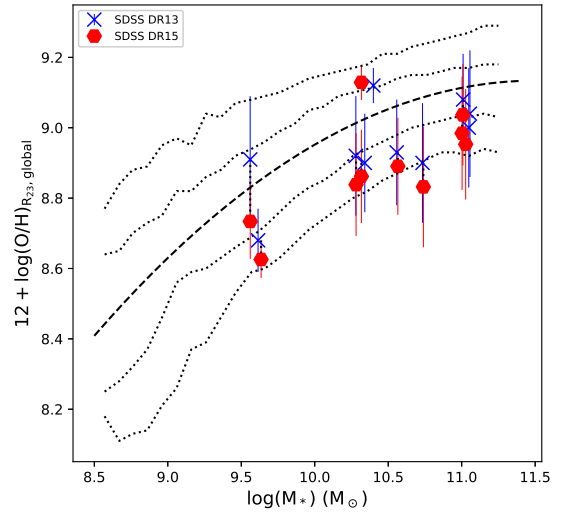
### 4.1 Comparisons with the Measurements in DR13

We compare the distributions of stellar mass and SFR of galaxies in DR15 in this work with those in DR13 studied by Zhou et al. (2019) in Figure 14 for the same sample objects. The red hexagons and blue pluses represent measurements in DR15 and DR13, respectively. The stellar masses in DR15 are derived from NSA and those in DR13 are estimated using STARLIGHT code. From this figure, we can see that the relations between stellar mass and SFR for DR15 data are very consistent with those for DR13 data in Zhou et al. (2019).

In Figure 15, the relations between stellar mass and global gas-phase oxygen abundance estimated by the  $R_{23}$  method for the same sample galaxies in both Zhou et al. (2019) and this work are presented. We can see that the difference between the present measurements in DR15 and those in DR13 is small. All of the same sample galaxies are located within or nearby the lines that enclose 95% of the data from Tremonti et al. (2004).



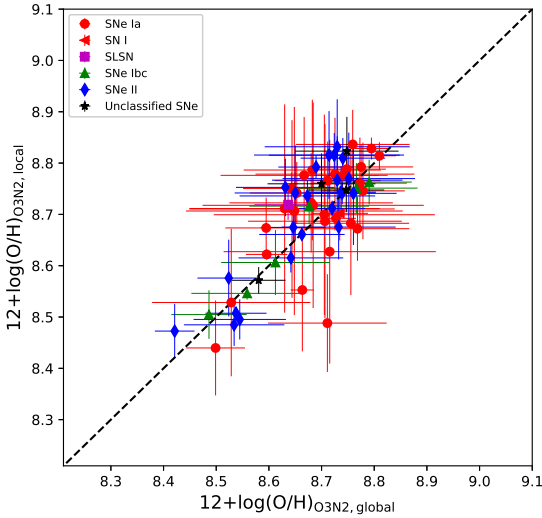
**Fig. 14** The relations of global SFR and stellar mass for the same sample galaxies for DR13 in Zhou et al. (2019) and DR15 data in this paper.



**Fig. 15** The relations of global gas-phase oxygen abundance and stellar mass for the same sample galaxies for DR13 in Zhou et al. (2019) and DR15 data in this paper.

### 4.2 The Difference between Local and Global Gas-phase Oxygen Abundance for Our Sample Galaxies

The specific local properties of SN explosion sites are important to derive the properties of progenitors. However, for some SNe exploding in distant galaxies, whose spectra can often be obtained with long-slit or fixed aperture



**Fig. 16** The difference between local and global gas-phase oxygen abundance for different types of SN host galaxies.

fibers, only global properties of galaxies can be measured. Therefore, we try to study the correlation between local and global properties. According to the correlation, we can estimate the local properties of SN explosion sites through the global properties. Due to our sample limitation that there is a lack of low mass host galaxies, we can employ IFU data to investigate the difference between local and global properties for now.

Here we should note that the progenitors of SNe Ia may be very old stars (Maoz et al. 2011) and the local properties at their recent locations may be different from those of the regions where they originally formed, which is because they may have migrated from their birth place.

The difference between local and global gas-phase oxygen abundance is shown in Figure 16. From this figure we can see that most of our sample galaxies are located close to the dashed line, which represents the ratio of local and global gas-phase oxygen abundance being 1:1. This is consistent with Galbany et al. (2016b) and Zhou et al. (2019). There are some galaxies that deviate slightly from the dashed line and most of these galaxies host SNe Ia.

#### 4.3 The Differences of Measurements between Different Types of SN Host Galaxies

Through the cumulative distributions of global SFR, we can see that for our sample galaxies, CCSNe tend to explode in hosts with higher SFR than SNe Ia. As Kennicutt (1998) and Gogarten et al. (2009) pointed out, massive stars, which are thought to be the progenitors of CCSNe, explode near the sites where they are born and their lifetimes are shorter than less massive stars.

The explosion of massive stars could cause the decrease of  $H\alpha$  emission intensity and peculiar motions of less massive stars around them (Eldridge et al. 2011). Then the less massive stars would explode to SNe Ia in lower  $H\alpha$  emission environments that are further away from the centers of star formation regions. SNe Ia can be observed both in ellipticals and in spiral galaxies, which contain old and young stellar populations (Kehrig et al. 2012). Therefore, the SFR of SN Ia hosts is lower than that of CCSN hosts on average.

In our sample, SN Ia hosts are more massive than CCSN hosts on average. The mean logarithmic stellar mass for SN Ia host galaxies is  $10.47 \pm 0.49$  and  $10.18 \pm 0.56$  for CCSN hosts. The difference in stellar mass between SN Ia and CCSN hosts is  $\sim 0.3$  dex on average. This indicates that the ratio of CCSNe to SNe Ia will decrease with increasing stellar mass of galaxies, which is consistent with Galbany et al. (2014). As Galbany et al. (2014) pointed out, this can be explained by the different delay-time distribution (DTD) for SNe Ia and CCSNe. About half of the progenitors of SNe Ia are older than 1 Gyr (Maoz et al. 2010, 2011), while CCSNe explode within about 40 Myr after star formation. There is a positive relation between SFR and stellar mass within  $10^{11} M_{\odot}$  (Elbaz et al. 2007). Compared with less massive galaxies, there is a larger fraction of old stellar populations in more massive galaxies. Therefore, the ratio of CCSNe to SNe Ia will decrease with the stellar mass of galaxies increasing.

The difference of both global and local gas-phase oxygen abundance between SN Ia and CCSN hosts is small for our sample. The average global gas-phase oxygen abundance estimated by the O3N2 method for SN Ia and CCSN hosts is 8.69 and 8.66, respectively. The mean local gas-phase oxygen abundance for both types is 8.71 and 8.68, respectively. The differences both for global and local are significantly smaller than  $1\sigma$ .

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we present the local and global properties, including SFR, gas-phase oxygen abundance, galaxy mass,  $D_n(4000)$ , etc., for 67 different types of SN host galaxies selected from SDSS DR15 within the FoV of MaNGA. There are 32 Type Ia, 29 CCSNe, 1 SLSN, 1 Type I and 4 unclassified type of SNe in our sample. Using spatially resolved IFS of MaNGA, we could derive the cumulative distribution of the local environment of SN explosion sites and the global properties of different types of SN hosts. Also, we compare the local with global gas-phase oxygen abundance to derive the differences between them. Like our first paper of a series, Zhou et al. (2019), our sample from MaNGA has higher redshifts with a median of  $\sim 0.03$ , which can be utilized to analyze more distant SN host

galaxies. We would like to point out that in our work, due to the limited sample size, we could not remove the mass dependence for different types of SN host galaxies, which is likely the true driver of the trends for the properties presented in this work. Our results are summarized as follows.

On average, the fact that global SFR of SN Ia host galaxies is lower than that of CCSN hosts is consistent with the results of  $EW(H\alpha)$ , which affirms that the star formation activity for CCSN hosts is stronger than for SN Ia hosts. The mean global stellar mass of SN Ia host galaxies is  $\sim 0.3$  dex higher than that of CCSN hosts, which indicates that with the increasing stellar mass of galaxies, the number ratio of SNe Ia to CCSNe will increase. The global gas-phase oxygen abundance between different types of SN host galaxies is almost similar. According to the  $D_n(4000)$  distribution of different types of SN hosts, the stellar population age for SN Ia host galaxies is older than that of CCSN hosts on average.

There is no significant difference in local gas-phase oxygen abundance and local SFR density for SN Ia and CCSN explosion sites in their host galaxies. For most of our sample galaxies, the difference between global and local gas-phase oxygen abundance is small. While for some SN Ia host galaxies, the difference is larger.

There will be a larger sample of SN host galaxies in the MaNGA survey, which has observed  $\sim 4600$  galaxies till now, and there will be 10000 galaxies at the end of this survey. At that time, we could obtain more and more SN hosts and make a more detailed and fair comparison between the explosion environments and progenitors of different types of SNe after removing mass dependence.

**Acknowledgements** We appreciate the referee who provided very constructive and helpful comments and suggestions, which helped to improve our work very much. We thank Yanbin Yang, Francois Hammer and Michel Dennefeld for helpful discussions. This work was supported by the National Science Foundation of China (Grant No.11733006 to HW, 11903046 to JG and U1631105 to WB), and by the Beijing Municipal Natural Science Foundation (No. 1204038 to JG).

Funding for the Sloan Digital Sky Survey IV has been provided by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, the U.S. Department of Energy Office of Science, and the Participating Institutions. SDSS acknowledges support and resources from the Center for High-Performance Computing at the University of Utah. The SDSS web site is [www.sdss.org](http://www.sdss.org).

SDSS is managed by the Astrophysical Research Consortium for the Participating Institutions of the SDSS Collaboration including the Brazilian Participation Group, the Carnegie Institution for Science, Carnegie

Mellon University, the Chilean Participation Group, the French Participation Group, Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics, Instituto de Astrofísica de Canarias, The Johns Hopkins University, Kavli Institute for the Physics and Mathematics of the Universe (IPMU) / University of Tokyo, the Korean Participation Group, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Leibniz Institut für Astrophysik Potsdam (AIP), Max-Planck-Institut für Astronomie (MPIA Heidelberg), Max-Planck-Institut für Astrophysik (MPA Garching), Max-Planck-Institut für Extraterrestrische Physik (MPE), National Astronomical Observatories of China, New Mexico State University, New York University, University of Notre Dame, Observatório Nacional / MCTI, The Ohio State University, Pennsylvania State University, Shanghai Astronomical Observatory, United Kingdom Participation Group, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, University of Arizona, University of Colorado Boulder, University of Oxford, University of Portsmouth, University of Utah, University of Virginia, University of Washington, University of Wisconsin, Vanderbilt University, and Yale University.

## References

- Aguado, D. S., Ahumada, R., Almeida, A., et al. 2019, *ApJS*, 240, 23
- Alloin, D., Collin-Souffrin, S., Joly, M., & Vigroux, L. 1979, *A&A*, 78, 200
- Arcavi, I., Gal-Yam, A., Kasliwal, M. M., et al. 2010, *ApJ*, 721, 777
- Arnett, W. D., Bahcall, J. N., Kirshner, R. P., & Woosley, S. E. 1989, *ARA&A*, 27, 629
- Baldwin, J., Phillips, M. M., & Terlevich, R. J. 1981, *PASP*, 93, 5
- Balogh, M. L., Morris, S. L., Yee, H. K. C., et al. 1999, *ApJ*, 527, 54
- Barbon, R., Ciatti, F., & Rosino, L. 1979, *A&A*, 72, 287
- Barbon, R., Buond, V., Cappellaro, E., & Turatto, M. 1999, *A&AS*, 139, 531
- Barbon, R., Cappellaro, E., Ciatti, F., et al. 1984, *A&AS*, 58, 735
- Barbon, R., Cappellaro, E., & Turatto, M. 1989, *A&AS*, 81, 421
- Becker, S. A., & Iben, Jr. I. 1980, *ApJ*, 237, 111
- Belfiore, F., Maiolino, R., Maraston, C., et al. 2016, *MNRAS*, 461, 3111
- Bethe, H. A., Brown, G. E., Applegate, J., & Lattimer, J. M. 1979, *Nucl. Phys. A*, 324, 487
- Blanton, M. R., Bershady, M. A., Abolfathi, B., et al. 2017, *AJ*, 154, 28
- Brinchmann, J., Charlot, S., White, S. D. M., et al. 2004, *MNRAS*, 351, 1151B
- Bruzual, A. G. 1983, *ApJ*, 273, 105

- Bruzual, G., & Charlot, S. 2003, *MNRAS*, 344, 1000
- Bundy, K., Bershady, M. A., Law, D. R., et al. 2015, *ApJ*, 798, 7B
- Chen, T.-W., Schady, P., Xiao, L., et al. 2017, *ApJL*, 849, L4
- Dopita, M. A., Kewley, L. J., Heisler, C. A., & Sutherland, R. S. 2000, *ApJ*, 542, 224
- Dopita, M. A., Sutherland, R. S., Nicholls, D. C., et al. 2013, *ApJS*, 208, 10
- Drory, N., MacDonald, N., Bershady, M. A., et al. 2015, *AJ*, 149, 77D
- Elbaz, D., Daddi, E., Le Borgne, D., et al. 2007, *A&A*, 468, 33
- Eldridge, J. J., Langer, N., & Tout, C. A. 2011, *MNRAS*, 414, 3501
- Filippenko, A. V. 1997, *ARA&A*, 35, 309
- Fitzpatrick, E. L. 1999, *PASP*, 111, 63
- Galbany, L., Stanishev, V., Mourão, A. M., et al. 2014, *A&A*, 572, A38
- Galbany, L., Anderson, J. P., Rosales-Ortega, F. F., et al. 2016a, *MNRAS*, 455, 4087
- Galbany, L., Stanishev, V., Mourão, A. M., et al. 2016b, *A&A*, 591, A48
- Galbany, L., Anderson, J. P., Sánchez, S. F., et al. 2018, *ApJ*, 855, 107
- Gogarten, S. M., Dalcanton, J. J., Williams, B. F., et al. 2009, *ApJ*, 691, 115
- Hamuy, M., Maza, J., Pinto, P. A., et al. 2002, *AJ*, 124, 417
- Han, D. H., Park, C., Choi, Y. Y., & Park, M. G. 2010, *ApJ*, 724, 502
- Hoyle, F., & Fowler, W. A. 1960, *ApJ*, 132, 565
- Izotov, Y. I., Stasińska, G., Meynet, G., et al. 2006, *A&A*, 448, 955
- Izzo, L., Thöne, C. C., García-Benito, R., et al. 2018, *A&A*, 610, A11
- Kauffmann, G., Heckman, T. M., White, S. D. M., et al. 2003, *MNRAS*, 341, 33
- Kauffmann, G., Heckman, T. M., Tremonti, C. A., et al. 2003, *MNRAS*, 346, 1055
- Kehrig, C., Monreal-Ibero, A., Papaderos, P., et al. 2012, *A&A*, 540, A11
- Kelly, P. L., Hicken, M., Burke, D. L., et al. 2010, *ApJ*, 715, 743
- Kelly, P. L., & Kirshner, R. P. 2012, *ApJ*, 759, 107
- Kewley, L. J., & Dopita, M. A. 2002, *ApJS*, 142, 35
- Kennicutt, Jr., R. C. 1998, *ARA&A*, 36, 189
- Kobulnicky, H. A., & Kewley, L. J. 2004, *ApJ*, 617, 240
- Kuncarayakti, H., Doi, M., Aldering, G., et al. 2013, *AJ*, 146, 31
- Kuncarayakti, H., Doi, M., Aldering, G., et al. 2013, *AJ*, 146, 30
- Kuncarayakti, H., Anderson, J. P., Galbany, L., et al. 2018, *A&A*, 613, A35
- Law, D. R., Yan, R. B., Bershady, M. A., et al. 2015, *AJ*, 150, 19L
- Liang, Y. C., Yin, S. Y., Hammer, F., et al. 2006, *ApJ*, 652, 257
- Liang, Y. C., Hammer, F., Yin, S. Y., et al. 2007, *A&A*, 473, 411
- Lyman, J. D., Taddia, F., Stritzinger, M. D., et al. 2018, *MNRAS*, 473, 1359
- Maoz, D., Sharon, K., & Gal-Yam, A. 2010, *ApJ*, 722, 1879
- Maoz, D., Mannucci, F., Li, W., et al. 2011, *MNRAS*, 412, 1508
- McGaugh, S. S. 1991, *ApJ*, 380, 140
- Neill, J. D., Sullivan, M., Howell, D. A., et al. 2009, *ApJ*, 707, 1449
- Osterbrock, D. E., & Ferland, G. J. 2006, *Astrophysics of Gaseous Nebulae and Active Galactic Nuclei* (Sausalito, CA: University Science Books)
- Pagel, B. E. J., Edmunds, M. G., Blackwell, D. E., et al. 1979, *MNRAS*, 189, 95
- Perlmutter, S., Aldering, G., Goldhaber, G., et al. 1999, *ApJ*, 517, 565
- Pettini, M., & Pagel, B. E. J. 2004, *MNRAS*, 348, L59
- Pilyugin, L. S. 2001, *A&A*, 374, 412
- Pilyugin, L. S., & Thuan, T. X. 2005, *ApJ*, 631, 231
- Prieto, José L., Stanek, K. Z., & Beacom, J. F. 2008, *ApJ*, 673, 999
- Riess, A. G., Filippenko, A. V., Challis, P., et al. 1998, *AJ*, 116, 1009
- Rubin, A., Gal-Yam, A., De Cia, A., et al. 2016, *ApJ*, 820, 33
- Sánchez, S. F., Rosales-Ortega, F. F., Jungwiert, B., et al. 2013, *A&A*, 554, A58
- Schlegel, E. M. 1990, *MNRAS*, 244, 269
- Shao, X., Liang, Y. C., Dennefeld, M., et al. 2014, *ApJ*, 791, 57S
- Stanishev, V., Rodrigues, M., Mourão, A., & Flores, H. 2012, *A&A*, 545, A58
- Stasińska, G. 2006, *A&A*, 454, L127
- Tremonti, C. A., Heckman, T. M., Kauffmann, G., et al. 2004, *ApJ*, 613, 898
- Turatto, M. 2003, in *Supernovae and Gamma Ray Bursters*, ed. K. Weiler 598, 21, (New York: Springer)
- Wake, D. 2015, in *American Astronomical Society Meeting Abstracts*, 225, 143.28
- Wake, D. A., Bundy, K., Diamond-Stanic, A. M., et al. 2017, *AJ*, 154, 86
- Weijmans, A.-M., & MaNGA Team 2016, *Multi-Object Spectroscopy in the Next Decade: Big Questions, Large Surveys, and Wide Fields*, 507, 257
- Westfall, K. B., Cappellari, M., Bershady, M. A., et al. 2019, *AJ*, 158, 231
- Worthey, G., & Ottaviani D. L., 1997, *ApJS*, 111, 377
- Yan, R., Bundy, K., Law, D. R., et al. 2016, *AJ*, 152, 197
- Yin, S. Y., Liang, Y. C., Hammer, F., et al. 2007, *A&A*, 473, 411
- Zaritsky, D., Kennicutt, Jr., R. C., & Huchra, J. P. 1994, *ApJ*, 420, 87
- Zhang, K., Yan, R., Bundy, K., et al. 2017, *MNRAS*, 466, 3217
- Zhou, L., Liang, Y.-C., Ge, J.-Q., et al. 2019, *RAA (Research in Astronomy and Astrophysics)*, 19, 121