Dynamics of starbursting dwarf galaxies II: UGC 4483.

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ABSTRACT

UGC 4483 is a nearby Blue Compact Dwarf (BCD) galaxy. HST observations have resolved the galaxy into single stars and this has led to the derivation of its star formation history and to a direct estimate of its stellar mass. We have analysed archival VLA observations of the 21-cm line and found that UGC 4483 has a steeply-rising rotation curve which flattens in the outer parts at a velocity of ~20 km s⁻¹. Radial motions of ~5 km s⁻¹ may also be present. As far as we know, UGC 4483 is the lowest-mass galaxy with a differentially rotating H I disk. The steep rise of the rotation curve indicates that there is a strong central concentration of mass. We have built mass models using the HST information on the stellar mass to break the disk-halo degeneracy: old stars contribute ~50% of the observed rotation velocity at 2.2 disk scale-lengths. Baryons (gas and stars) constitute an important fraction of the total dynamical mass. These are striking differences with respect to typical dwarf irregular galaxies (dIrrs), which usually have slowly-rising rotation curves and are thought to be entirely dominated by dark matter. BCDs appear to be different from non-starbursting dIrrs in terms of their H I and stellar distributions and their internal dynamics. To their high central surface brightnesses and high central H I densities correspond strong central rotation-velocity gradients. This implies that the starburst is closely related with the gravitational potential and the concentration of gas. We discuss the implications of our results on the properties of the progenitors/descendants of BCDs.

Key words. dark matter – galaxies: individual: UGC 4483 – galaxies: dwarf – galaxies: starburst – galaxies: kinematics and dynamics – galaxies: evolution

1. Introduction

The mechanisms that trigger strong bursts of star formation in galaxies are poorly understood. In the Local Universe, starburst activity is mostly observed in low-mass galaxies, which are usually classified as blue compact dwarfs (BCDs) (e.g. Gil de Paz et al. 2003), amorphous dwarfs (e.g. Gallagher & Hunter 1987), or H II galaxies (e.g. Taylor et al. 1995). Hereafter, we will refer to any starbursting dwarf galaxy as a BCD. Several studies (e.g. Gil de Paz & Madore 2005, Tosi 2009 and references therein) have shown that BCDs are not young galaxies undergoing their first burst of star formation (as suggested by Searle & Sargent 1972), as they also contain old stellar populations with ages >2-3 Gyr. In particular, HST has made it possible to resolve nearby BCDs into single stars and to derive colour-magnitude diagrams deep enough to provide the following information: i) accurate distances of the galaxies, ii) a direct estimate of their total stellar mass, and iii) their star formation history (SFH) (e.g. Tosi 2009). These SFHs show that the starburst is a short-lived phenomenon, typically sustained for a few 10⁸ yr (McQuinn et al. 2010a). Thus, BCDs are transition-type dwarfs but the nature of their progenitors and descendants remains unclear. In particular, it is not known whether there are evolutionary connections with dwarf irregulars (dIrrs), spheroidals (dSphs), and/or ellipticals (dEs) (e.g. Papaderos et al. 1996; van Zee et al. 2001).

There are striking differences between BCDs and other types of dwarf galaxies: i) the old stellar component of BCDs generally has a smaller scale-length and higher central surface brightness than dIrrs and dEs/dSphs (e.g. Papaderos et al. 1996; Gil de Paz & Madore 2005); ii) BCDs have strong concentrations of H I within the starburst region, where the column densities are typically 2-3 times higher than in dIrrs (e.g. van Zee et al. 1998, 2001); iii) BCDs have steep central velocity gradients that are not observed in dIrrs (e.g. van Zee et al. 1998, 2001). The steep velocity gradients may signify a steeply-rising rotation curve (van Zee et al. 2001; Lelli et al. 2012), high velocity dispersion, or non-circular motions (e.g. Elson et al. 2011b). Detailed studies of the gas kinematics are needed to determine the inner shape of the rotation curve. Recently, Lelli et al. (2012) studied the BCD prototype I Zw 18 and found that it has a flat rotation curve with a steep rise in the inner parts, indicating that there is a high central concentration of mass. Such a mass concentration is not observed in typical dIrrs. This points to a close connection between the starburst and the gravitational potential. It is also clear that a BCD like I Zw 18 cannot evolve into a typical dIrrs at the end of the starburst, unless the central concentration of mass is removed. It is important, therefore, to investigate whether all BCDs have steeply-rising rotation curves, and to determine the relative contributions of gas, stars and dark matter to the gravitational potential.

We present a detailed study of the gas kinematics of UGC 4483, a starbursting dwarf galaxy located in the M81 group and resolved into individual stars by HST (Dolphin et al. 2001; Izotov & Thuan 2002). UGC 4483 is extremely metal-poor (12+log(O/H)=7.5, see Skillman et al. 1994 and van Zee & Haynes 2006) and may be classified as a “cometary” BCD, as its high-surface-brightness starburst region is located at the edge of an elongated low-surface-brightness stellar body (see Fig. 1, top-left). Previous H I studies (Lo et al. 1993; van Zee et al. 1998) showed that the galaxy has an extended H I disk, with a strong H I concentration near the starburst region and a steep central velocity gradient, but the H I kinematics was not studied in detail. We analysed archival VLA data and were able to derive a
Table 1: Properties of UGC 4483.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>α (J2000)</td>
<td>08h37m3.1 ± 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>δ (J2000)</td>
<td>69°46′31″ ± 2″</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance (Mpc)</td>
<td>3.2 ± 0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V_{sys} (km s^{-1})</td>
<td>158 ± 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position Angle (°)</td>
<td>0 ± 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclination Angle (°)</td>
<td>58 ± 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V_{rot} (km s^{-1})</td>
<td>19 ± 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M_{dyn} (10^7 M_{⊙})</td>
<td>16 ± 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M_{*} (10^7 M_{⊙})</td>
<td>1.0 ± 0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{H I} (10^7 L_{⊙})</td>
<td>2.5 ± 0.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>L_{0} (10^7 L_{⊙})</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_{0} (10^7 L_{⊙})</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Luminosities were calculated using the apparent magnitudes from Gil de Paz et al. (2003), the distance from Dolphin et al. (2001) and the solar absolute magnitudes from Binney & Merrifield (1998). The stellar mass was calculated integrating the SFH from McGquinn et al. (2010a) and assuming a gas recycling efficiency of 30%. The dynamical mass was calculated taking into account the pressure-support.

3. Results

3.1. H1 distribution and kinematics

Figure 1 shows the total H1 map of UGC 4483 at a resolution of 100″ (top-right) and a R-band image at the same scale (top-left). The H1 distribution is lopsided and closely resembles the optical morphology. There is a strong H1 concentration near the starburst region to the North. At 5.7×4.5 resolution (∼80 pc), the peak column densities are ∼5×10^{21} atoms cm^{-2} (∼40 M_{⊙} pc^{-2}) (same as found by van Zee et al. 1998).

The H1 kinematics of UGC 4483 is illustrated in Fig. 1 (bottom) and Fig. 2 (top). The H1 emission shows a velocity gradient along a position angle P.A. ∼0°, which roughly corresponds to the optical major axis of the galaxy, suggesting that there is a rotating H1 disk. The velocity field indicates large-scale differential rotation. It also shows, however, large-scale asymmetries. In the next section, we derive the rotation curve of UGC 4483 and discuss possible non-circular motions.

3.2. Rotation curve and non-circular motions

Rotation curves of disk galaxies are usually derived by fitting a tilted-ring model to a velocity field (e.g. Begeman 1987). In the case of UGC 4483, there are severe limitations because of the asymmetries in the velocity field. Van Zee et al. (1998) modeled the velocity field of UGC 4483 and obtained a rough estimate of the dynamical mass. We derived a rotation curve using the following approach. As a first step, we fit a tilted-ring model to the velocity field to obtain an initial estimate of the rotation curve. Then, this rotation curve was used as input to build a 3D kinematic model and subsequently corrected by trial and error to produce a model-cube that matches the observations.

When fitting a tilted-ring model to the velocity field, we used a ring width of 100″ (1 beam), thus the points of the rotation curve are nearly independent. The points of the velocity field were weighted by \cos^2(θ), where θ is the azimuthal angle in the plane of the galaxy. We kept the centre (x₀, y₀) and the inclination i fixed, using the values derived from the optical image by fitting ellipses to the outermost isophotes (see table 1). An inclination of 58° is formally a lower limit, because the stellar component may be thick; if the disk is assumed to be 5° more edge-on, the rotation velocities would decrease by only ∼5%.

The velocity field indicates large-scale differential rotation. As a first step, we determined the systemic velocity V_{sys}, by taking the mean value over all the rings. Then, we fixed V_{sys} and determined the rotation velocity V_{rot} and the radial velocity V_{rad} for each ring. The rotation curve has an amplitude of ∼18-20 km s^{-1} (Fig. 4), while the radial velocities are ∼4-5 km s^{-1}.

As a final step in the derivation of the rotation curve, we built 3D kinematic models, similar to Swaters et al. (2009) and Lelli et al. (2010, 2012). The disk kinematics is assumed to be axisymmetric, while the H1 distribution is clumpy, i.e. the surface density varies with position as in the observed H1 map. The procedure is as follows: i) a disk with uniform surface density and constant thickness is constructed by fixing the velocity dispersion σ_{H1}, the rotation velocity V_{rot} and the radial velocity V_{rad} at every radius; ii) the disk is projected on the sky using the geometrical parameters (x₀, y₀), V_{sys}, P.A., and i and a model-cube.
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Fig. 1: Top-Left: R-band image (from Gil de Paz et al. 2003). Top-Right: total H\textsubscript{I} map at 10′′ resolution. The contour values are 1.7, 3.4, 6.8, 13.6, 27.2 \times 10\textsuperscript{20} atoms cm\textsuperscript{−2}. Bottom: channel maps at 10′′ resolution. Contours are at 1.5, 3, 6, 12, 24 \times \sigma, where \sigma=0.66 mJy/beam (\sim 2\times10\textsuperscript{19} atoms cm\textsuperscript{−2}). In each panel, the cross and the circle show the galaxy centre and the beam size, respectively.

is created; iii) the model-cube is convolved with the observational beam; and iv) the H\textsubscript{I} line profiles are rescaled to reproduce the observed H\textsubscript{I} map, i.e. the flux density is recovered at every spatial pixel. For the geometrical parameters, we used the values in table 1. For the vertical distribution, we assumed an exponential-law \textit{exp(−z/z\textsubscript{0})} with \(z\textsubscript{0}=100\) pc. We also assumed that \(\sigma\textsubscript{H\textsubscript{I}}=8\) km s\textsuperscript{−1} over the entire disk; a mean velocity dispersion higher than 10 km s\textsuperscript{−1} can be ruled out by comparing the shape of position-velocity (PV) diagrams obtained from the models and the observations. The values of \(z\textsubscript{0}\) and \(\sigma\textsubscript{H\textsubscript{I}}\) are slightly degenerate, but do not significantly affect the final results. For the rotation curve, we used the rotation velocities obtained by fitting the velocity field, then we corrected them by trial and error to obtain a model-cube that matches the observations. We find a good match by increasing the first four points by \sim 3 km s\textsuperscript{−1}. This rotation curve is shown in Fig. 4. The comparison between models and observations has been done using velocity fields (see Fig. 2) and PV-diagrams (see Fig. 3). Note that the model velocity fields were derived from the model-cubes and, therefore, include the effects of spatial and spectral resolution, velocity dispersion, and possible non-circular motions. Because in our models we initially assumed a uniform H\textsubscript{I} disk, some aspects of the effects of beam-smearing are not fully included if the H\textsubscript{I} distribution varies rapidly on small scales. However, we used PV-diagrams at the full resolution (5.\′′7x4.\′′5) and compared them with those at 10′′ to check that beam-smearing effects do not significantly affect our rotation curve.

Figure 4 (filled-circles) shows that UGC 4483 has a steeply-rising rotation curve that flattens in the outer parts at a velocity of \sim 18-20 km s\textsuperscript{−1}. This is a striking difference with respect to dIrrs of similar mass, as they usually have a slowly-rising rotation curve close to a solid body. As far as we know, UGC 4483 is
Fig. 2: Velocity fields derived from different 3D kinematic models and the observations. The rotation curve used to build the models is shown in the inset on the left (x-axis: radius in arcsec, y-axis: rotation velocity in km s$^{-1}$). Contours range from 140 to 181.6 km s$^{-1}$, with steps of 5.2 km s$^{-1}$. The circles show the beam size (10$''$). See Sect. 3.1 for details.
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Fig. 3: Position-velocity diagrams derived for different 3D kinematic models and from the observations. The slices are taken along the major and minor axes. Contours are at 1.5, 3, 6, 12 $\times$ $\sigma$, where $\sigma=0.66$ mJy/beam. Squares show the rotation curve used to build the models. See Sect. 3.1 for details.

Fig. 4: Observed H\textsc{i} rotation curve (blue-filled circles) and asymmetric-drift-corrected rotation curve (red-open circles).

the lowest-mass galaxy with a differentially rotating H\textsc{i} disk. To further test the validity of this result, we built 3D kinematic models assuming a solid-body rotation curve and compared them with the differentially-rotating disk-model and with the observations. The results are shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3. It is clear that a flat rotation curve provides a better match of the observations than a solid-body one, as the iso-velocity contours of the observed velocity field display a curvature that is typical of differential rotation. The same conclusions are reached by comparing PV-diagrams obtained from the models and the observations along the major axis (Fig. 3, top). The observed PV-diagram shows a “flattening” on the southern-approaching side of the disk, that is reproduced only by a differentially rotating disk. On the northern-receding side, the “flattening” is less clear as the disk is less extended, but a differentially rotating disk is still preferable than a solid body one.

A simple rotating disk, however, cannot reproduce the asymmetries present in the observed velocity field. In particular, the kinematic minor axis, defined by the contours close to the systemic velocity, is not orthogonal to the major axis. This may be due either to radial motions (e.g. Fraternali et al. 2002) or to an oval distortion of the gravitational potential (e.g. Bosma 1978). These asymmetries can be seen also in the PV-diagram taken along the geometrical minor axis, i.e. in the direction perpendicular to the major axis (Fig 3, bottom). Thus, we improved our models by adding a constant radial component of $\sim5$ km $s^{-1}$, which is also indicated by the tilted-ring fit to the velocity field. A model with solid-body rotation plus radial motions is still not acceptable (Fig. 2, bottom-right), whereas a model with differential rotation plus radial motions reproduces most of the features in the data (Fig. 2, middle-right and Fig. 3, bottom).

The errors on the rotation curve have been estimated as $\sigma_{\text{rot}}^2 = \sigma_{\text{fit}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{asym}}^2$, where $\sigma_{\text{fit}}$ is the formal error given by the tilted-ring fit and $\sigma_{\text{asym}}$ is an additional uncertainty due to the asymmetries between the approaching and receding sides, that is estimated as $\sigma_{\text{asym}} = (V_{\text{rot,app}} - V_{\text{rot,rec}})/4$ (Swaters et al. 2009). We point out that the observed H\textsc{i} line profiles are quite broad and, therefore, it is very difficult to trace the rotation curve in the innermost parts. We compared models that have an inner solid-body rise and flatten at different radii and estimated that the rotation curve must flatten between $\sim0.3$ and $\sim0.6$ kpc, giv-
their geometrical parameters: optical centre (cross), P.A.=0°, and radial motions of ~5 km s⁻¹ (top panel, same as Fig. 2 middle-right); shifted dynamical centre (circle), P.A.=10°, and no radial motions (bottom panel). Contours are the same as in Fig. 2. Right: differences between the observed and the model velocity fields. Contours are at ±2, ±4, ±6, ±8 km s⁻¹. The filled circle shows the beam.

In UGC 4483 the H I velocity dispersion σ_HI is only a factor ~2-3 smaller than the observed rotation velocity V_rot. Thus, in order to trace the gravitational potential, the rotation curve has to be corrected for pressure support. We calculated the asymmetric-drift correction following Meurer et al. (1996). We assumed that the H I disk has constant scale-height and velocity dispersion, and fitted the H I surface density profile (Fig. 6) with the Gaussian function Σ_HI (R) = Σ_0 × exp(−R²/2σ²), obtaining Σ_0 = 10.5 M⊙ pc⁻² and s = 580 pc. The circular velocity V_circ, corrected for asymmetric-drift, is thus given by V_circ² = V_rot² + σ_HI² (R²/s²). Using the 3D models, we can constrain the mean velocity dispersion between ~6 and ~10 km s⁻¹. We assumed the intermediate value of 8 km s⁻¹. The asymmetric-drift correction is significant only in the outer parts (see Fig. 4). Depending on the assumed value of σ_HI, the correction at the last measured points may be between ~2 and ~8 km s⁻¹, giving a dynamical mass between about 1 and 2 x 10⁸ M⊙.

In the above analysis, we used the centre and the P.A. derived from the stellar and H I morphologies. However, the differences between the observed and the best-model velocity fields (Fig. 5, top-right) show a systematic pattern that may point to a different location of the dynamical centre (cf. Warner et al. 1973, their Fig. 8). Thus, we built further models by changing the position of the centre and found that a shift of ~14'' (~220 pc) towards the North-West reduces the pattern significantly. Moreover, a disk-model with an off-set centre and a P.A.=10° can reproduce the observed velocity field without radial motions (Fig. 5, bottom). However, these values for the centre and the P.A. are in marked contrast with the observed stellar and H I morphologies. In particular, the distribution of the old stars (which constitute an important fraction of the dynamical mass in the inner parts, see Sect. 3.3) is remarkably symmetric and consistent with the centre and P.A. previously adopted (see Fig. 6 of Dolphin et al. 2001 and Fig. 9 of Izotov & Thuan 2002). Thus, in the following, we keep the dynamical centre coincident with the optical one. This has no significant effects on the derived rotation curve.

3.3. Mass models

In Sect. 3.2, we showed that UGC 4483 has a steeply-rising and flat rotation curve, indicating that there is a strong central concentration of mass. To determine the relative contributions of luminous and dark matter to the gravitational potential, we built mass models following Begeman (1987).
The gravitational contribution of the stars was calculated using a new approach: we estimated the stellar mass-to-light ratio \( M_\star / L \) using the HST results on the resolved stellar populations. Surface brightness profiles were derived from a sky-subtracted R-band image (Fig. 1, top-left), azimuthally averaging over a set of ellipses defined by \((x_0, y_0), i, \) and P.A (see table 1). The sky-background was determined by masking the sources in the field and fitting a 2D polynomial to the masked image. The surface brightness profiles were not corrected for internal extinction, as UGC 4483 is extremely metal-poor (Skillman et al. 1994) and the dust content is likely to be low, but were corrected for Galactic extinction assuming \( A_R = 0.09 \) (Schlegel et al. 1998). Figure 7 shows the surface brightness profiles derived for the entire galaxy and for the southern (approaching) and northern (receding) halves separately. At \( R \approx 20'' \), the northern side of the galaxy is \( \sim 1 \) mag brighter than the southern one, owing to the recent starburst. Dolphin et al. (2001) and Izotov & Thuan (2002) resolved UGC 4483 into single stars and showed that the young stellar populations are mostly concentrated to the North. The mass in young stars, however, constitutes only \( \sim 10\% \) of the total stellar mass: the SFH derived by McQuinn et al. (2010a) (modelling the color-magnitude diagram) implies that the stellar mass formed in the last 500 Myr is \( \sim 0.15 \times 10^7 M_\odot \), whereas the stellar mass formed more than 500 Myr ago is \( \sim 1.31 \times 10^7 M_\odot \). Thus, to calculate the gravitational contribution of the stars, we used the southern surface brightness profile, as it provides a better approximation of the stellar mass surface density. Assuming that 30\% \( \pm 10\% \) of the gas is returned to the inter stellar medium by supernovae and stellar winds, the total stellar mass is \( (1.0 \pm 0.3) \times 10^7 M_\odot \) (cf. McQuinn et al. 2010b), giving a stellar mass-to-light ratio \( M_\star / L_R = 1.1 \pm 0.3 \). The southern surface brightness profile can be fitted by an exponential-law with \( \rho_0 = 22.0 \pm 0.1 \) mag arcsec\(^{-2} \) \((\sim 40 \ L_\odot \text{ pc}^{-2})\) and \( R_0 = 13.1'' \pm 0.1'' \) \((\sim 203 \text{ pc})\). We assumed that the stars are located in a disk with vertical density distribution given by \( \rho(z) = \text{sech}^2(z/z_0) \) (van der Kruit & Searle 1981) with \( z_0 = 0.5 \ R_0 \approx 100 \text{ pc} \).

The gravitational contribution of the gaseous disk was calculated using the azimuthally-averaged H\(1 \) surface density profile, which was derived from the total H\(1 \) map. Figure 6 shows the H\(1 \) density profiles derived by azimuthally-averaging over the entire galaxy and over the southern (approaching) and northern (receding) sides separately. There is a difference of the order of \( \sim 2\% \) \( M_\odot \text{ pc}^{-2} \) between the two halves, that has a small effect on the resulting gravitational contribution. In agreement with the models in Sect. 3.2, we assumed an exponential vertical distribution with \( z_0 = 100 \text{ pc} \). The mass of the H\(1 \) disk was calculated from the total H\(1 \) flux (see table 1) and multiplied by a factor of 1.35 to take into account the presence of helium. Molecular gas was not explicitly considered in the mass model because its amount is unknown.

For the dark matter distribution, we assumed a pseudo-isothermal halo described by the equation

\[
\rho_{\text{DM}}(r) = \frac{\rho_0}{1 + (r/r_c)^2},
\]

where the central density \( \rho_0 \) and the core radius \( r_c \) are both free parameters of the mass model.

Figure 8 (left) shows the rotation curve decomposition assuming that \( M_\star / L_R = 1.1 \), as is found by integrating the galaxy SFH (McQuinn et al. 2010a,b). The gravitational contribution of the stars \( V_\sigma = \sim 50\% \) of the circular velocity \( V_{\text{circ}} \) at \( R_{\text{peak}} = 2.2 \ R_0 \approx 450 \text{ pc} \). The parameters of the halo are: \( \rho_0 = (101\pm20) \times 10^{-3} M_\odot \text{ pc}^{-3} \) and \( r_c = 0.34 \pm 0.05 \text{ kpc} \). These values are comparable with those found by Swaters et al. (2011) for a sample of 18 dIrrs (assuming that \( M_\star / L_R = 1 \)); the halo of UGC 4483, however, is one with the smallest core radius and highest central density. As discussed at the end of Sect 3.1, we applied the asymmetric-drift correction assuming a constant velocity dispersion \( \sigma_{H1} = 8 \text{ km s}^{-1} \). Different values of \( \sigma_{H1} \) would change the circular velocity at large radii and thus give slightly different values for the dark matter halo. In particular, considering that \( \sigma_{H1} \) may be between 6 and 8 \( \text{ km s}^{-1} \), the dynamical mass within the last measured point of the rotation curve may be between 1 and 2 \( \times 10^8 M_\odot \) and the baryon fraction between \( \sim 43\% \) and \( \sim 22\% \), respectively. In any case, baryons (gas and stars) constitute a relevant fraction of the total mass.
A stellar disk is defined to be maximum if \( F_\ast = V_\ast / V_{\text{circ}} = 0.85 \pm 0.10 \) at \( R_{\text{peak}} \) (Sackett 1997; Bershady et al. 2011). In our case \( F_\ast = 0.5 \pm 0.1 \); the error takes into account the uncertainties on the stellar mass, the gas-recycling efficiency and the rotation velocity. This is in line with the results of the DiskMass survey (Bershady et al. 2011), that have measured the stellar velocity dispersion in a sample of spiral galaxies and found that stellar disks typically have \( F_\ast \sim 0.5 \). We point out that the colour-magnitude diagrams of the resolved stellar populations provide the most direct method to quantify stellar masses, as the results depend only slightly on the assumed evolutionary tracks, metallicity, and sampling of the SFH (e.g. Annibali et al. 2003). The initial mass function (IMF), instead, may have a stronger effect: McQuinn et al. (2010a) assumed a single-slope Salpeter from 0.1 to 100 \( M_\odot \) and a binary fraction of 35\%. If the Chabrier and/or Kroupa IMFs are assumed, the stellar mass would systematically decrease by, respectively, -25\% and -30\% and the gas-recycling efficiency may go up to ~50\%, further decreasing the stellar mass.

We note that the molecular gas component has been neglected so far. UGC 4483 is undetected in the CO line with an upper limit of 0.195 K km s\(^{-1}\) within the inner 55′′ (~800 pc) (Taylor et al. 1998). We extrapolated the relation between the CO-to-H\(_2\) conversion factor and metallicity from Boselli et al. (2002) down to the metallicity of UGC 4483 and obtained a corresponding upper limit on the H\(_2\) mass of \( M_{\text{H}_2} \leq 10^7 M_\odot \). Alternatively, we estimated the H\(_2\) mass from the empirical relation between SFR and molecular mass, as determined by Leroy et al. (2008), although this relation may not apply to starburst galaxies. Assuming that SFR = 0.01 \( M_\odot \) yr\(^{-1}\) (McQuinn et al. 2010a), we derived \( M_{\text{H}_2} \approx 1.9 \times 10^7 M_\odot \). Both estimates indicate that the molecular gas may be dynamically important and comparable in mass to the stellar component, implying a full maximum-disk situation, as we now discuss.

Figure 8 (right) shows the maximum-disk solution (Sancisi & van Albada 1987). The stellar contribution can explain the inner parts of the rotation curve if \( M_\ast / R_\ast \approx 3.3 \), i.e. if the stellar mass is ~3 times higher than obtained from the study of the resolved stellar populations. This mass may be provided by molecules, if they are distributed in a way similar to the stars. We also find a good fit by fixing \( M_\ast / R_\ast = 1.1 \) and scaling the H\(_1\) contribution by a factor of ~5, similarly to the results of Hoekstra et al. 2001 for other gas-rich galaxies. These results suggest that the distribution of the dynamical mass is closely coupled to that of the baryonic mass (see e.g. Sancisi 2004 and Swaters et al. 2011). We also checked the position of UGC 4483 on the baryonic Tully-Fisher relation and found that it follows the correlation within the observed scatter (cf. McGaugh 2011).

Finally, we considered the predictions of the MOdified Newtonian Dynamics (MOND) (Milgrom 1983, see Famaey & McGaugh 2011 for a review). Using UGC 4483, we can test MOND without any free parameter, as the value of \( M_\ast / L \) is provided by the colour-magnitude diagram of the resolved stellar populations and the distance is well determined from the tip of the red giant branch (Dolphin et al. 2001; Izotov & Thuan 2002). We found that MOND systematically over-predicts the observed rotation curve by ~5-6 km s\(^{-1}\). The discrepancy does not strongly depend on the assumed \( M_\ast / L \), as it is mainly driven by the atomic gas content, and it would further increase if molecules are also considered in the mass model. However, the discrepancy disappears if the inclination of the H\(_1\) disk is assumed to be ~43° instead of 58° (as is derived from the optical image). This possibility cannot be ruled out by the present observations, because it is not possible to determine \( i \) neither from the total H\(_1\) map (as the H\(_1\) distribution is strongly lopsided) nor from the velocity field.

4. Discussion

In Sect. 3.2, we showed that UGC 4483 has a steeply-rising rotation curve that flattens in the outer parts at a velocity of ~18-20 km s\(^{-1}\). As far as we know, this is the lowest-mass galaxy with a differentially rotating H\(_1\) disk. The steep rise of the rotation curve points to a strong central concentration of mass, which seems to be a characterizing property of BCDs. Indeed, similar results have been found also for other BCDs, e.g. I Zw 18 (Lelli et al. 2012), NGC 2537 (Matthews & Uson 2008), and NGC 1705 (Meurer et al. 1998). The steeply-rising and flat rotation curves of these BCDs are remarkable, as dIrrs typically have slow-rising rotation curves (e.g. Swaters et al. 2009). The terms “steeply-rising” and “slowly-rising” are referred to rotation-velocity gradients measured in physical units (km s\(^{-1}\) kpc\(^{-1}\)) that can be directly related to the dynamical mass surface densities in \( M_\odot \) pc\(^{-2}\). If these gradients are expressed in terms of disk scale-lengths, rotation curves of dIrrs rise as steep as those of spiral galaxies (e.g. Swaters et al. 2009).
In Lelli et al. (2012) (Fig. 10), we have illustrated the dynamical difference between the BCD-prototype I Zw 18 and a typical dIrr of the same mass. Similarly, Fig. 9 compares UGC 4483 with the dwarf irregular DDO 125 (UGC 7577, from Swaters et al. 2009). Assuming that DDO 125 is at a distance of 2.6 Mpc (Jacobs et al. 2009; Dalcanton et al. 2009), the H I observations of Swaters et al. (2009) have a linear resolution of ~180 pc, similar to our linear resolution for UGC 4483 (~155 pc), making it possible to compare H I surface densities and velocity gradients. The two galaxies have approximately the same rotation velocity at the last measured point (~20 km s⁻¹) and dynamical mass (~1-2x10⁶ M☉), but their structural properties are very different: i) the H I surface densities of UGC 4483 are ~3-4 times higher than those of DDO 125 in the inner regions (top); ii) the stellar component of UGC 4483 is much more compact than that of DDO 125 (middle); iii) the rotation curve of UGC 4483 has a steeper rise than the one of DDO 125 and flattens in the outer parts. These structural and dynamical differences between BCDs and typical dIrrs must be the key to understand the starburst phenomenon in BCDs. They also shed new light on the question of the progenitors and descendants of BCDs, as we now discuss.

In Section 3.3, we showed that the central mass concentration of UGC 4483 cannot be explained by the newly formed stars or by the concentration of H I. Old stars, although not sufficient to account for the inner rise of the rotation curve, constitute an important fraction of the mass in the inner parts. Similarly, the central mass concentration of I Zw 18 may be due to old stars and/or dark matter (unfortunately, the HST observations of I Zw 18 do not provide a direct estimate of the mass in old stars, see Contreras Ramos et al. 2011). For both galaxies, the gravitational contribution of molecules is very uncertain and it is unclear whether they are dynamically important or not. These results imply that either the progenitors of these BCDs are unusually compact, gas-rich dwarfs, or there must be a mechanism that leads to a concentration of gas, old stars, and/or dark matter, eventually causing the starburst. This mechanism may be external (interactions/mergers) and/or internal (torques from massive star-forming “clumps”, see Elmegreen et al. 2012). It is also clear that, unless a redistribution of mass takes place, the descendants of BCDs must be compact dwarfs. Compact dIrrs do exist and have the following properties: i) high-surface-brightness exponential profiles (see e.g. UGC 7690 and UGC 8550 in Swaters & Balcells 2002) or low-surface-brightness exponential profiles with an inner light concentration (see e.g. UGC 6628 and UGC 12632 in Swaters & Balcells 2002), and ii) steeply-rising and flat rotation curves (see the same galaxies in Swaters et al. 2009). The evolutionary links outlined here are in line with the results of e.g. Papaderos et al. (1996) and Gil de Paz & Madore (2005), which are based on surface photometry of large galaxy samples and indicate that the old stellar component of BCDs generally has higher central surface brightness and smaller scale-length than typical dIrrs and dSphs/dEs. We present here two plots that compare the structural and dynamical properties of BCDs and dIrrs.

In order to compare the dynamics of BCDs and dIrrs, we use the inner rotation-velocity gradient V rot(R)/R as an estimate of central mass concentration. This is calculated at R = R₀, where R₀ is the galaxy scale-length in the R-band; thus we take into account the different sizes of the systems. In Fig. 10, V rot(R₀)/R₀ is plotted versus the central disk surface brightness µ₀ (left) and the peak H I column density Σ HI,peak (right) for a sample of both BCDs and dIrrs. The BCDs are UGC 4483, I Zw 18, NGC 1705, and NGC 6789. For I Zw 18 we used the R-band structural parameters from Papaderos et al. (2002), the rotation curve from Lelli et al. (2012), and a distance of 18.2 Mpc (Aloisi et al. 2007). For NGC 1705 we used the R-band structural parame-
ters from Gil de Paz & Madore (2005), the rotation curve from Meurer et al. (1998) named “model DD” (see their Fig. 10), and a distance of 5.1 Mpc (Tosi et al. 2001). For NGC 6789 we used the R-band structural parameters and the rotation curve from Lelli et al. (in preparation), and a distance of 3.6 Mpc (Drozdovsky et al. 2001). The dIrrs were taken from the sample of Swaters et al. (2009), by selecting the objects that have high-quality rotation curves ($q \lesssim 2$, see Swaters et al. 2009) and $V_{\text{rot}} < 70$ km s$^{-1}$ at the last measured point. For $\Sigma_{\text{HI,peak}}$, we used the peak value of the azimuthally-averaged H I density profile. The value of $\Sigma_{\text{HI,peak}}$ depends on the linear resolution of the H I observations, but we checked that this does not strongly bias our analysis as the trend in Fig. 10 does not significantly change if one considers only galaxies with linear resolution $\lesssim 500$ pc (corresponding to distances $\lesssim 7$ Mpc). We also point out that BCDs usually have clumpy H I distributions and locally the H I column densities can reach even higher values, up to 40-50 $M_\odot$ pc$^{-2}$, much higher than in dIrrs.

The two diagrams in figure 10 show a clear trend: galaxies with a high rotation-velocity gradient have also high central surface brightness (left) and high peak H I surface density (right). The BCDs are in the upper parts of these distributions: they have $V_{\text{rot}}(R_0)/R_0 > 40$ km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$ whereas dIrrs typically have $V_{\text{rot}}(R_0)/R_0 < 40$ km s$^{-1}$ kpc$^{-1}$. However, some dIrrs (UGC 3966, UGC 8550, UGC 7232, and UGC 7690) have inner-rotation-velocity gradients comparable to those of BCDs and thus, in this respect, are dynamically similar to BCDs. These objects have peak H I column densities much smaller than those found in I Zw 18 and NGC 1705 (Fig. 10, right) and are candidate progenitors/descendants of BCDs. It would be interesting to study the SFHs of these compact dwarf dIrrs and investigate if they experienced a starburst in the recent past.

Finally, we have seen that the asymmetries in the velocity field of UGC 4483 can be described as a global radial motion of 5 km s$^{-1}$. Radial motions have been found in two other BCDs: NGC 2915 (Elson et al. 2011a, b) and I Zw 18 (Lelli et al. 2012). Elson et al. (2011a) assumed that the spiral arms in the H I disk of NGC 2915 are trailing and concluded that the radial motions are an outflow. For I Zw 18 and UGC 4483, it is not possible to discriminate between inflow and outflow, as it is not known which side of the disk is the near one. For both galaxies, we calculated the timescales associated with the radial motions ($\sim R_{\text{HI}}/V_{\text{rad}}$) and found that they are of the same order of magnitude of the orbital times ($\sim R_{\text{HI}}/V_{\text{co}}$). This suggests that any outflow or inflow must be very recent and possibly associated with the most recent burst of star-formation ($\sim 10-20$ Myr, see McQuinn et al. 2010a for UGC 4483 and Aloisi et al. 1999 for I Zw 18). If the radial motions were an outflow, its kinetic energy would correspond to only $\sim 1\%$ of the energy released by supernovae.

5. Conclusions
We analysed archival H I observations of the blue compact dwarf galaxy UGC 4483 and built model datacubes to investigate its gas kinematics. Our main results can be summarized as follows:

- UGC 4483 has a steeply-rising rotation curve that flattens in the outer parts at a velocity of $\sim 20$ km s$^{-1}$. This is, to our knowledge, the lowest-mass galaxy with a differentially rotating H I disk. Radial motions of $\sim 5$ km s$^{-1}$ may also be present.
- The steep rise of the rotation curve indicates that there is a strong central concentration of mass. Mass models with a dark matter halo show that old stars contribute $\sim 50\%$ of the observed rotation speed at 2.2 disk scale-lengths. Baryons (gas and stars) constitute an important fraction of the total dynamical mass. These conclusions are based on the stellar mass obtained from the color-magnitude diagram of the resolved stellar populations.
- The maximum-disk solution requires a stellar mass $3\times$ times higher than observed, that could be provided by molecules. A good solution is also found by scaling the H I contribution by a factor of $\sim 5$. These results suggest that the distribution of the dynamical mass is closely coupled to that of the baryons.

UGC 4483, together with other BCDs like I Zw 18 and NGC 1705, appears structurally different from typical dIrrs in terms of H I distribution, stellar distribution, and dynamics. In particular, a central concentration of mass (gas, stars, and dark matter) seems to be a characterizing property of BCDs. This implies that the starburst is closely related with the gravitational potential and the H I concentration. Our results also suggest that the progenitors/descendants of BCDs must be compact dwarf galaxies, unless a redistribution of mass (both luminous and dark) takes place before/after the starburst phase.

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References

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