

Cosmology

TUM WS 2019/2020

Lecture 4

Wolfgang Hillebrandt and Bruno Leibundgut
(<http://www.eso.org/~bleibund/Cosmology>)

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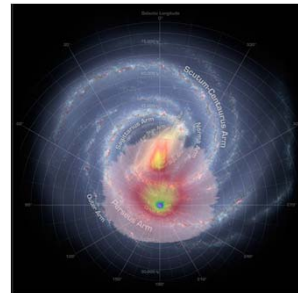
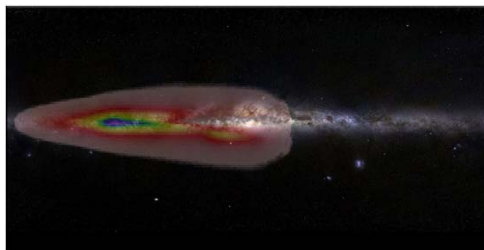
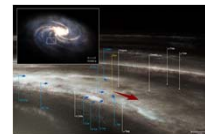
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The reach of Gaia

Parallaxes to a fair fraction of the Milky Way

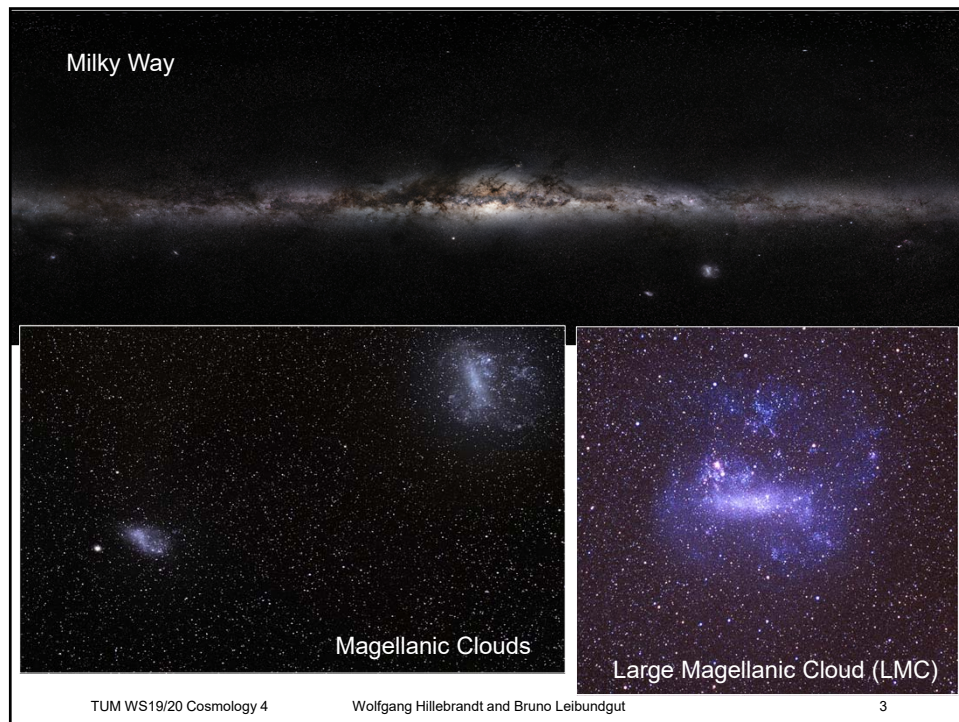
- galaxy structure
 - spiral arms, disk, bulge, halo
- galaxy dynamics
- average distance to the LMC



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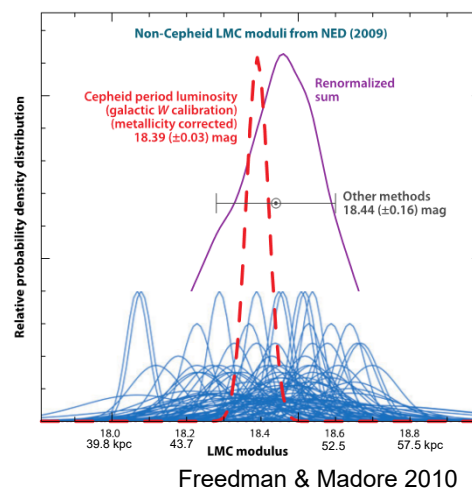
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Large Magellanic Cloud

- Primary calibrator for many methods
 - primary Cepheids
 - RR Lyrae
 - Eclipsing binaries
 - SN 1987A
 - geometric – light travel time from circumstellar ring

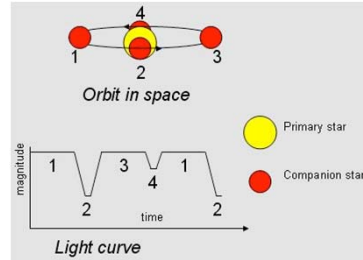


Eclipsing binaries

- Binary star with the orbital axis perpendicular to the line of sight

compare the size of the star
(from the duration of the eclipses)
to its apparent angle on the sky
(from the surface brightness of the star; uses Stefan-Boltzmann law)

→ **angular size distance**

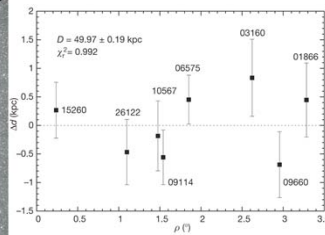
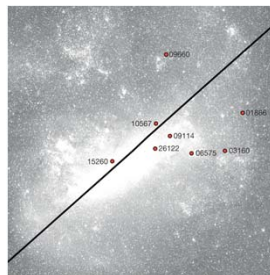
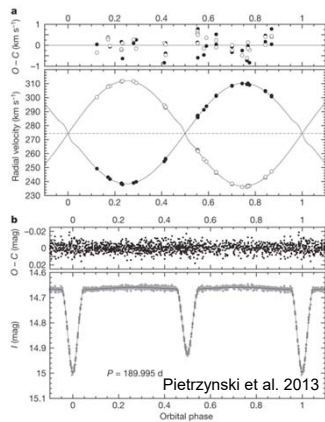


$$d(pc) = 1.337 \cdot 10^{-5} \times \frac{r(km)}{\varphi(mas)}$$

Eclipsing binaries

- Binary star with the orbital axis perpendicular to the line of sight

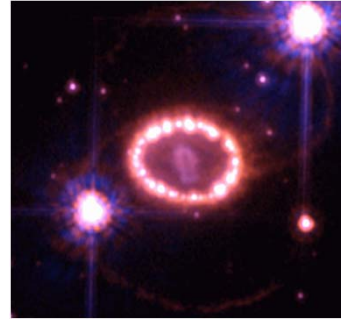
excellent distance to the Large Magellanic Cloud



(e.g., Pietrzynski et al. 2013)

SN 1987A as geometric distance indicator

- Illumination of the circumstellar ring
 - light travel time and ring size give a distance (need to know the inclination angle)



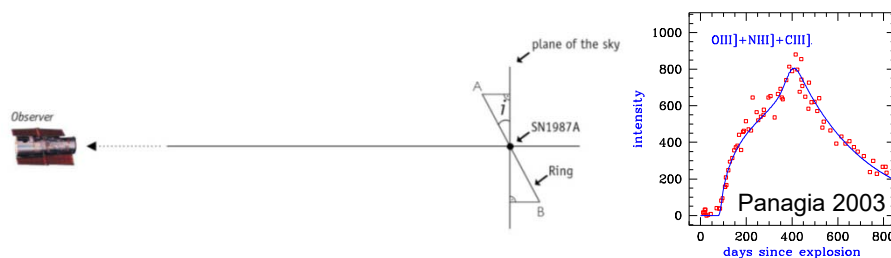
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SN 1987 - Geometric Distance

- Distance due to illumination of circumstellar ring from the supernova flash
 - require speed of light and inclination angle



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Stepping into the Hubble flow

- Beyond the Large Magellanic Cloud distance indicators typically bridge towards the Hubble flow
 - Planetary Nebulae Luminosity Function
 - Globular Clusters
 - Blue Supergiant stars
 - **Cepheid stars**
 - **Masers (geometric)**

Sandage & Tammann 1974

ere and in the next interval to ch embraces the M81-NGC 2403 950; Tammann and Sandage 1968) ar Group (de Vaucouleurs 1959). ansion velocity at this distance is s^{-1} . The Hubble constant cannot by using such nearby galaxies. ce indicators, such as brightest -10) and the size of H II regions, late-type giant spiral galaxies to $m - M \approx 32$. The apparent magni- is $B \approx 22$, and the angular size of tion ($D \approx 400$ pc derived later) is s are then just above plate limit n at this distance the expansion 1 1500 km s^{-1} (if $H_0 \approx 50 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ater), which again is too small. ight zone between $m - M \approx 32$

Paper II. 3. The H II region sizes are distances to 50 late-type field gal interval $m - M < 32$ (Paper IV) absolute magnitudes of the galaxi sample, as a function of luminosi follows from these data. 4. Redshifts of newly identifie with $m - M > 35$ have been m step. Combining the redshifts and tudes of step 3 gives H_0 . Becaus pendent of the redshifts for $g m - M = 35$ (Paper VI), the loc not enter the problem. Any supp the local kinematic field is a separa that does not affect the value of H way. Our final value of the expansi

Into the Hubble Flow

- Typically galaxy properties
 - **Tully-Fisher relation**
 - Faber-Jackson relation
 - Fundamental plane of galaxies
- Other indicators
 - **Surface Brightness Fluctuations**
 - **Type Ia Supernovae**

Independent anchor NGC 4258 (Messier 106)

- Nearby active galactic nucleus



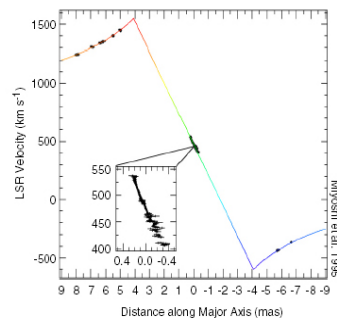
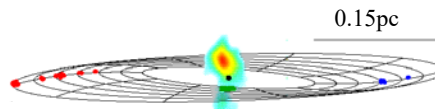
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Water masers in the inner disk of NGC 4258

- Nearly perfect Keplerian rotation



Humphreys et al. 2013
(plots from
Miyoshi et al. 1995
and Herrnstein et al. 1999)

Almost perfect
Keplerian rotation
to ~ 1%

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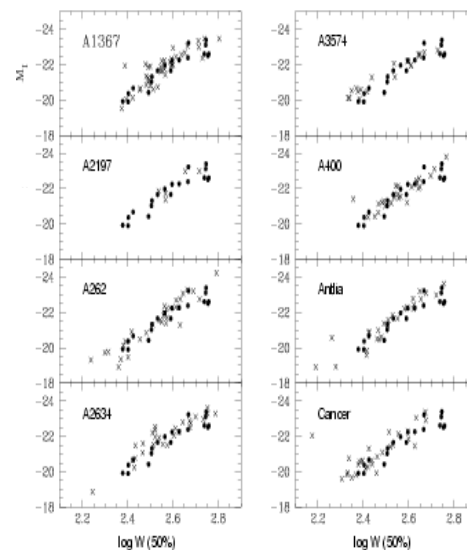
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Distance to NGC 4258 and H_0

- From the maser geometry
7.60±0.23 Mpc (Humphreys et al. 2013)
- Use this to calibrate Cepheids in this galaxy
- with the calibrated Cepheids measure galaxies, which had a SN Ia (Riess et al. 2011)
- calibrate SNe Ia
- measure SNe Ia in the Hubble flow

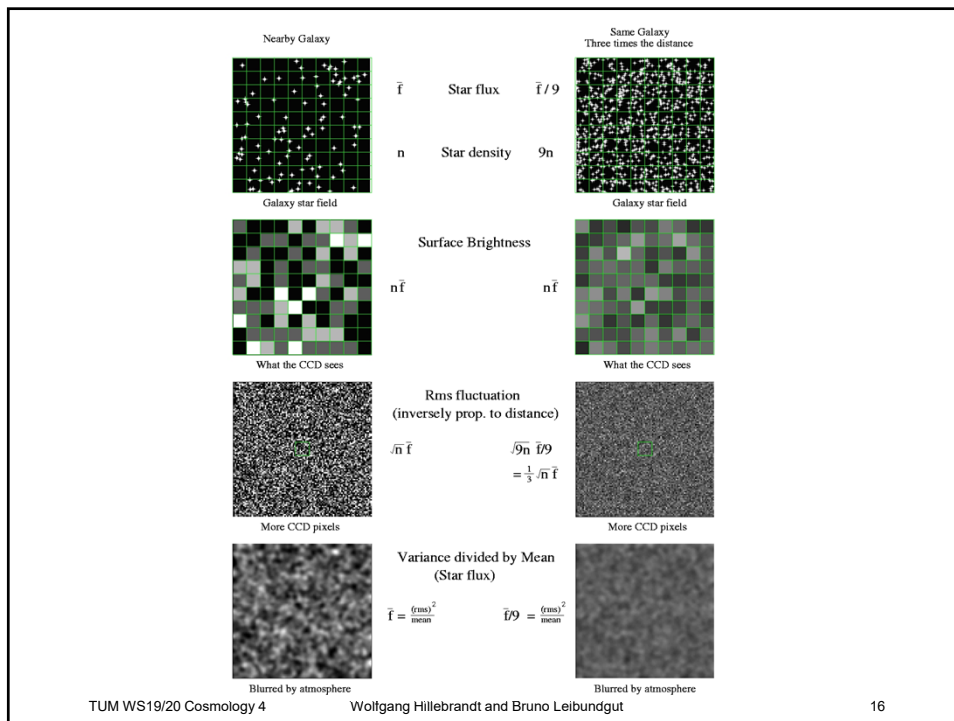
Tully-Fisher method

- Correlate the rotation velocity of a spiral galaxy with its mass and hence luminosity



Surface brightness fluctuations

- Distant objects appear smaller
- More stars per pixel in a galaxy far, far away
- Smoother light distribution, less variation from pixel to pixel
- Amplitude of fluctuations proportional to distance
- Good to ~100 Mpc, $z \sim 0.01$



Type Ia Supernovae

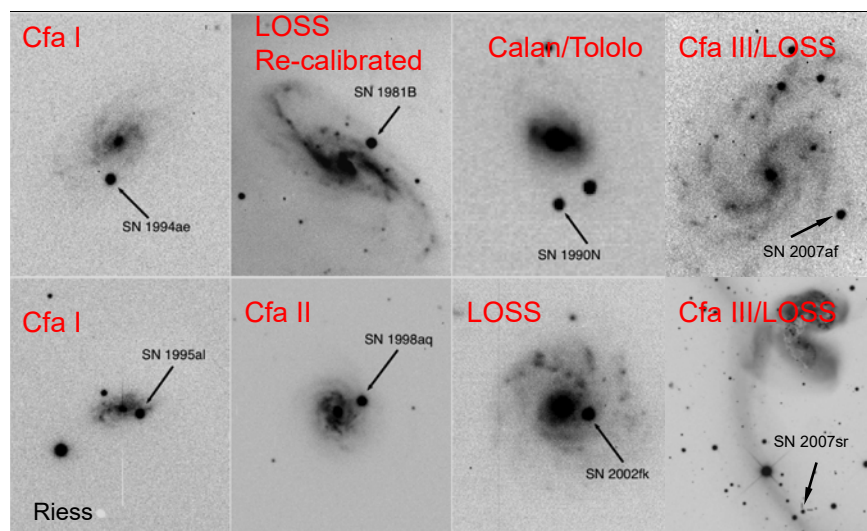
- Very luminous: -19 magnitude at maximum
- Variable, easy to identify, when found
- Rare: only about one SN Ia in a typical galaxy every 100 years
- Can be calibrated by light curve shapes to very good accuracy
- Absorption is an issue, unclear absorption law in distant galaxies, possibly local absorption
- Fairly well understood physical processes, although complicated physics (nuclear burning and hydrodynamics)
- Found now frequently and used extensively in large surveys

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Type Ia Supernovae

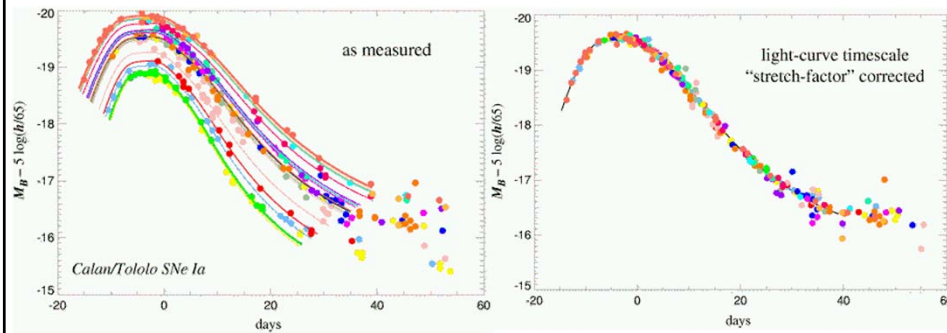


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SN Ia: “standardizable” candles



(B-band light curves; Calan/Tololo sample, Kim et al. 1997)

After calibration: SN Ia are good “standard candles”!

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Hubble diagrams

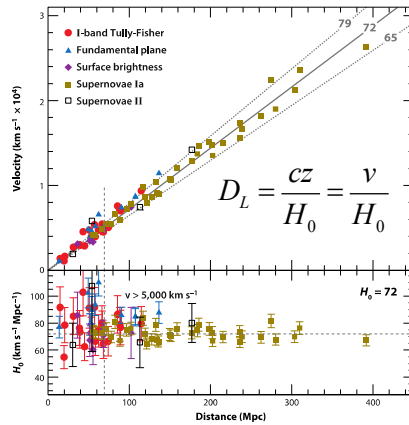
- Work mostly with luminosity distances
- Two types
 - velocity/redshift vs. distance
 - linear in distance
 - Hubble constant = slope
 - redshift vs. distance modulus
 - logarithmic in distance
 - Hubble constant = y-axis intercept

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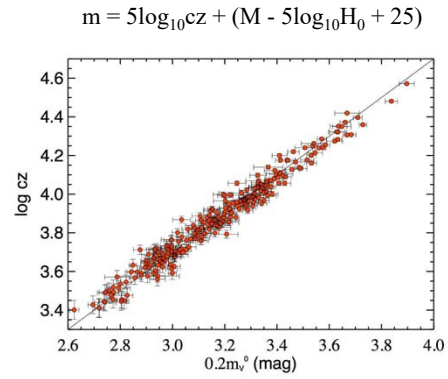
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Hubble diagrams

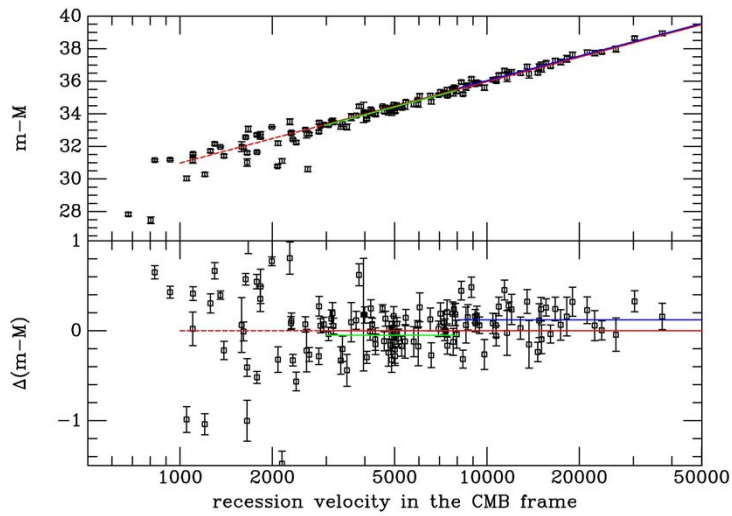


Freedman & Madore 2010

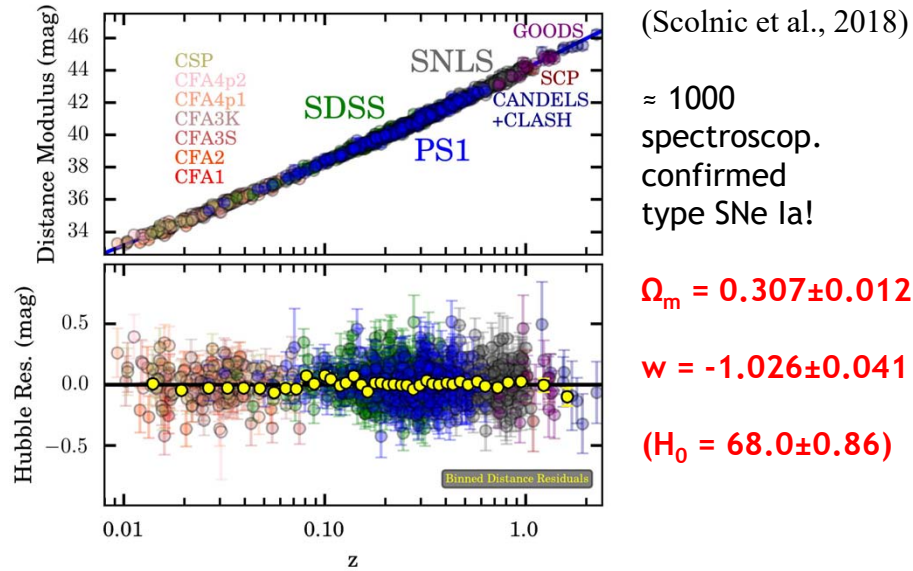


H_0 from intersect.
 Assumes $M = \text{const.}$ ("standard candle")

Classical Hubble diagram

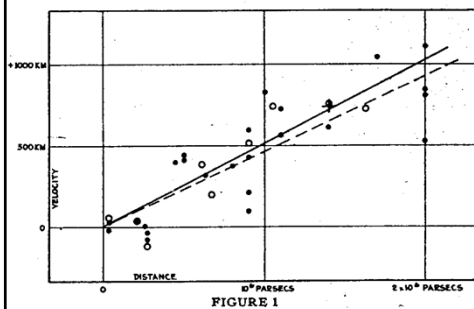


More recent SN Ia Hubble diagram

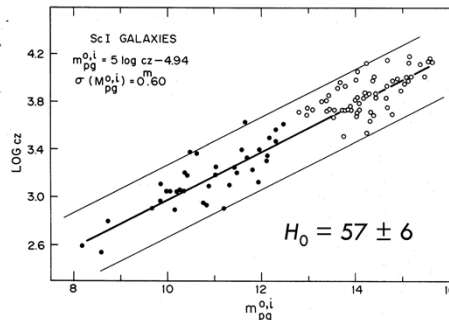


Early Hubble diagrams

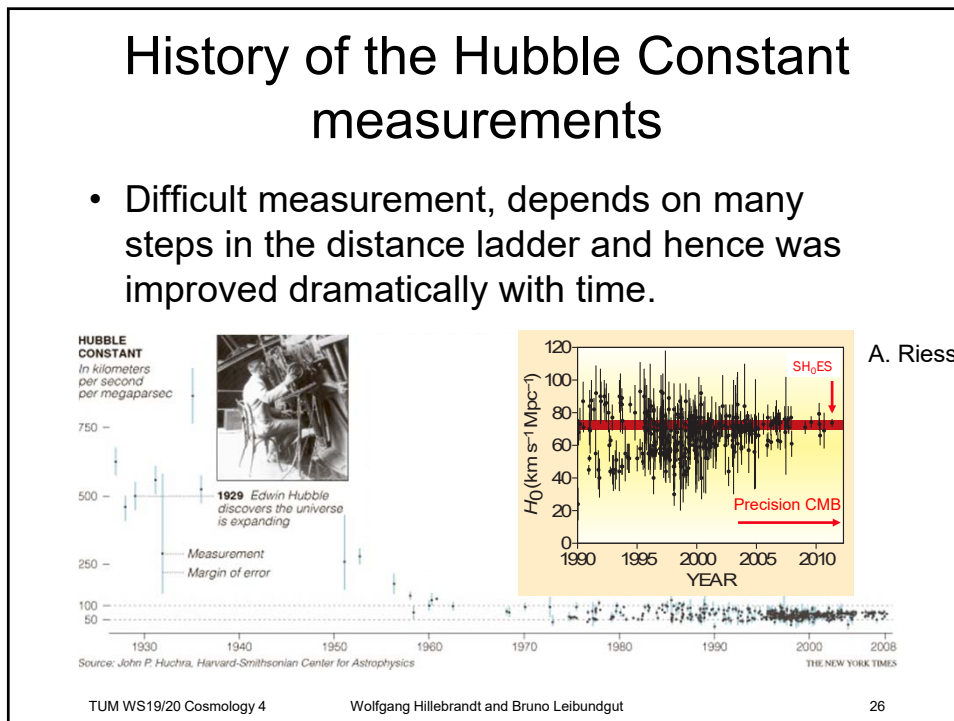
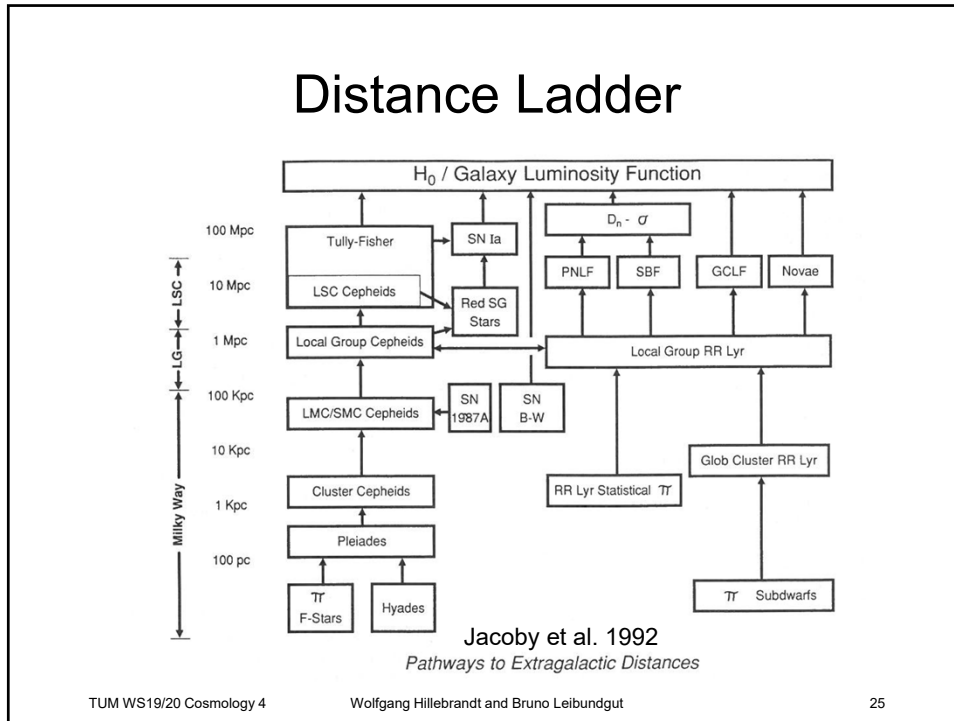
- Attempts of the Hubble diagrams



Hubble (1929)



Sandage (1967)



Intermezzo

Age of the Universe

- Matter-dominated universe has the following age

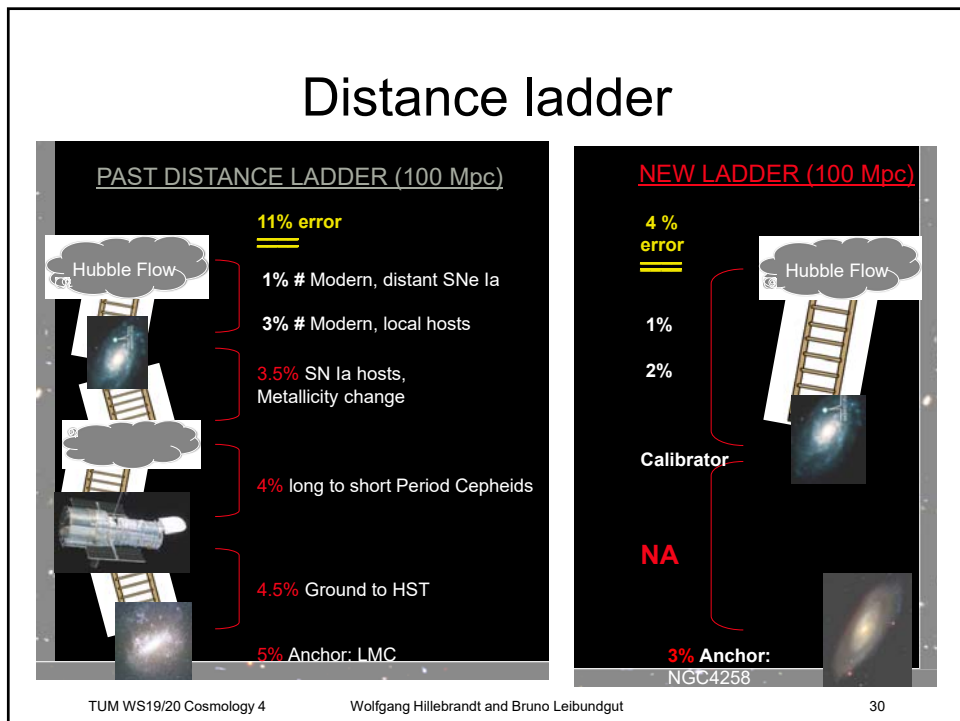
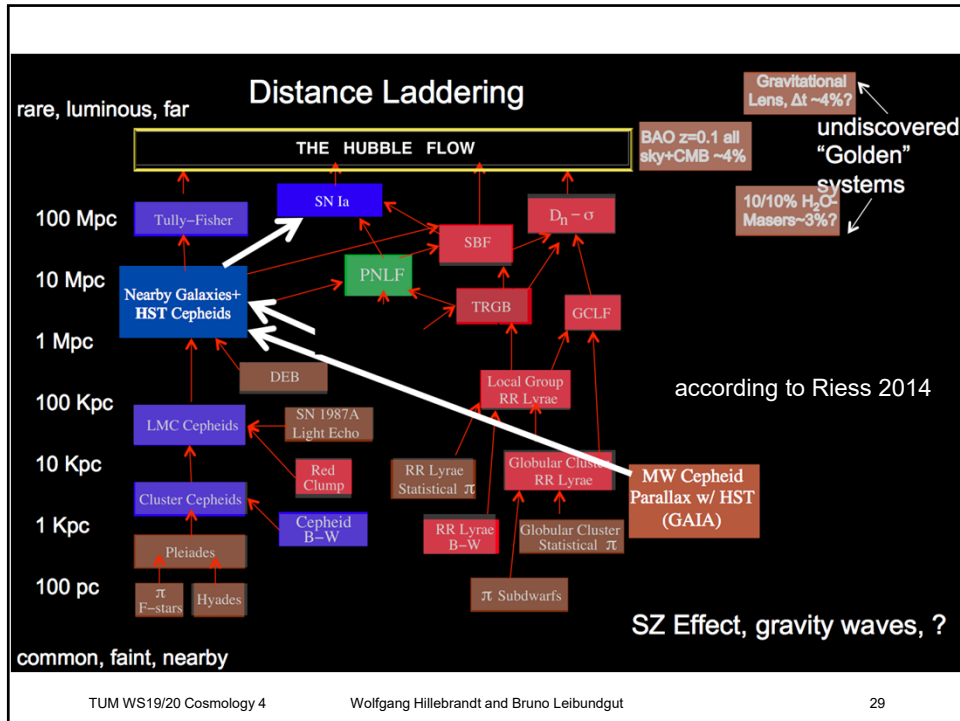
$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3H_0}$$

age of the Earth: $4.5 \cdot 10^9$ years
 oldest stars: $\sim 1.2 \cdot 10^{10}$ years

H_0 (km/s/Mpc)	t_0 (yr)
500	$1.30 \cdot 10^9$
250	$2.61 \cdot 10^9$
100	$6.52 \cdot 10^9$
80	$8.15 \cdot 10^9$
70	$9.32 \cdot 10^9$
60	$1.09 \cdot 10^{10}$
50	$1.30 \cdot 10^{10}$
30	$2.17 \cdot 10^{10}$

Distance ladder

- Minimise number of “rungs” on the ladder (“steps” into the universe)
- Ideally find objects in the Hubble flow for which the luminosity can be determined through physics
 - theory of Type Ia supernovae
 - Expanding photosphere method of supernovae
 - Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect in galaxy clusters
 - Baryonic Acoustic Oscillations

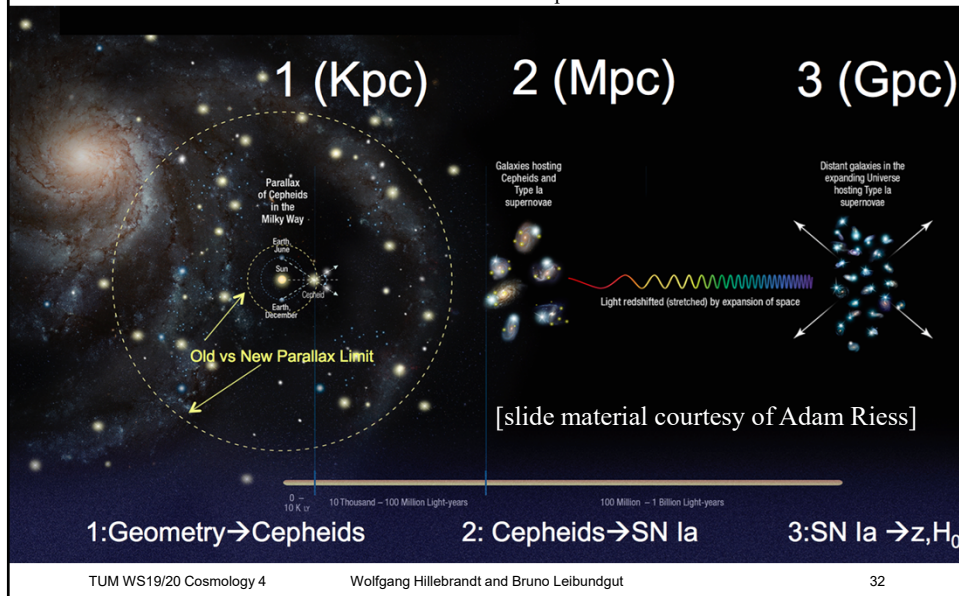


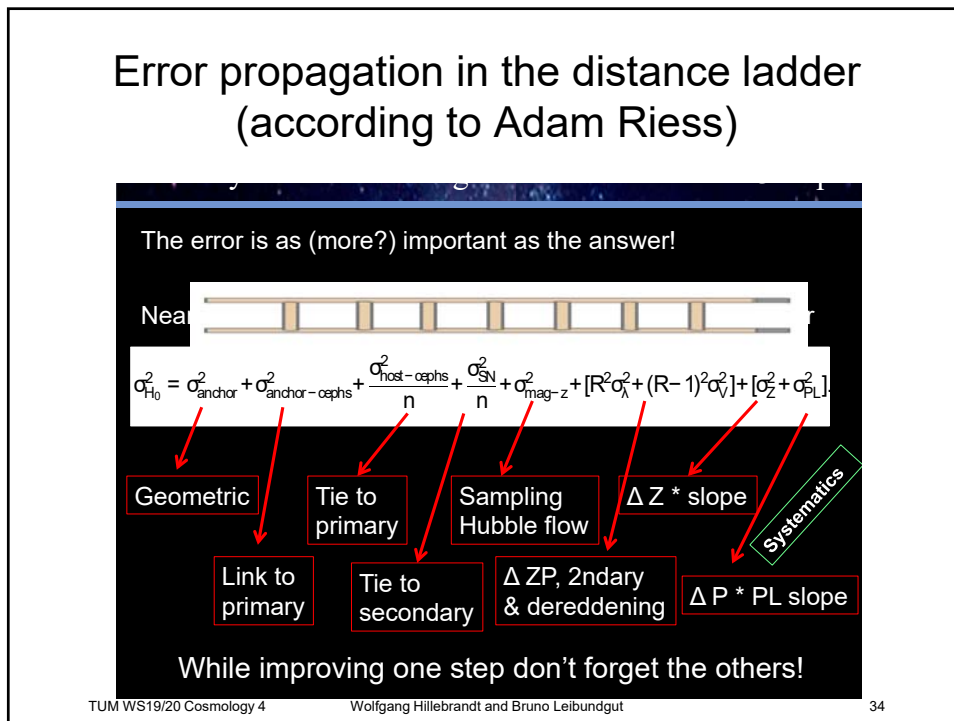
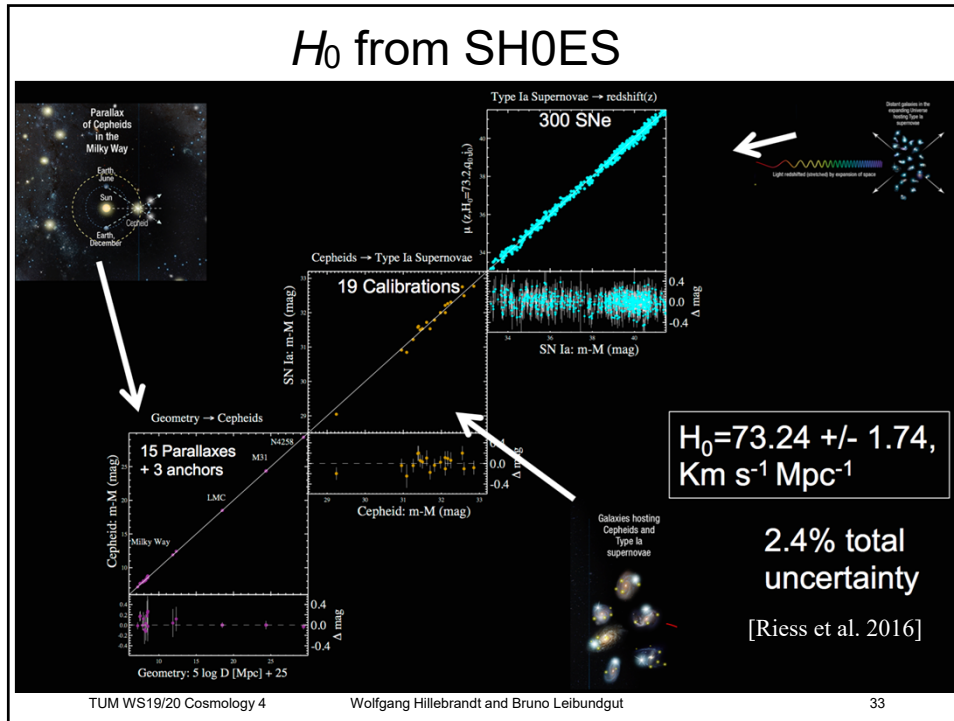
Distance Ladder measurements

- Hubble Space Telescope Key Project [Freedman et al. 2001]
 - $H_0 = 72 \pm 8 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ (10% uncertainty)
 - resolving multi-decade “factor-of-two” controversy
- Carnegie Hubble Program [Freedman et al. 2012]
 - $H_0 = 74.3 \pm 2.1 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ (2.8% uncertainty)
- Carnegie-Chicago Hubble Program [Beaton et al. 2016]
 - aim 3% precision in H_0 via independent route with RR Lyrae, the tip of red giant branch, SN Ia
- Supernovae, H_0 for the dark energy Equation of State (“SH0ES”) project [Riess et al. 2016]

The SH0ES Distance Ladder

ladder to reach objects in Hubble flow ($v_{\text{peculiar}} \ll v_{\text{Hubble}} = H_0 d$)





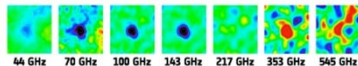
H_0 : Physical methods

- **Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect in galaxy clusters**
- Supernovae
 - **Expanding photosphere method**
 - Physical calibration of thermonuclear supernovae
- geometric methods
 - Baryonic acoustic oscillations
 - Masers
 - **Gravitational lenses**

Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect

- Compton scattering of CMB photons in the hot gas of a galaxy cluster

- temperature dependence

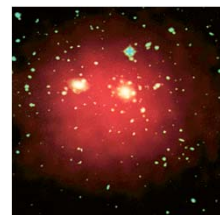
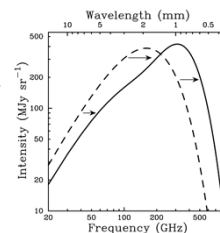


$$\frac{\Delta T}{T} \propto \int n_e dl$$

- X-ray Bremsstrahlung surface brightness

$$I_\nu = \int n_e^2 dl$$

- depth of cluster can be found by eliminating n_e
- assume that cluster is spherical yields D_A



Type IIP (“core collapse”) supernovae

- High mass stars ($>8M_{\odot}$)
- Extended envelopes (still burning)
- Single stars
- Collapse to neutron star or black hole



Crab nebula with pulsar
(constellation Orion)
Remnant of a supernova
observed in 1054

A few observational facts

- > Very bright events: $L \sim 10^{10} L_{\text{sun}}$
- > Fast expanding ejecta: $v \sim 10^4 \text{ km/s}$
- > Energies: electromagnetic $\sim 10^{42} \text{ J}$
kinetic: $\sim 10^{44} \text{ J}$
neutrinos (SN1987A): $\sim 3 \cdot 10^{46} \text{ J}$
- > Progenitor star destroyed (SN 1987A, SN 1993J)
- > Compact remnant (as far as we know)

Expanding photosphere method

- Measure the increase in size of a (type IIP) supernova

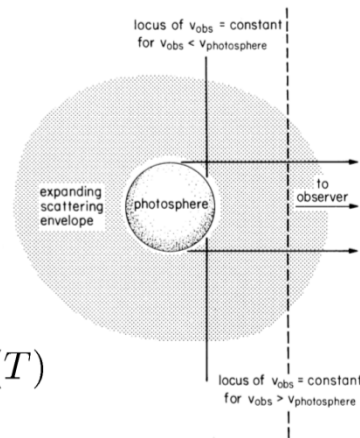
$$R_{\text{ph}} = R_0 + v_{\text{ph}}(t)(t - t_0)$$

- Observed flux depends on the surface area
 - assume blackbody radiation

$$f_{\lambda} = \left(\frac{R_{\text{ph}}}{D} \right)^2 \pi B_{\lambda}(T) = \theta^2 \pi B_{\lambda}(T)$$

(D : distance; B_{λ} : Planck function)

Image: Kirshner & Kwan 1974



Expanding photosphere method

- Solve for t_0 and D

$$t = D \left(\frac{\theta}{v_{\text{ph}}} \right) + t_0$$

- together with redshift: H_0

Images: Schmidt et al. 1994b

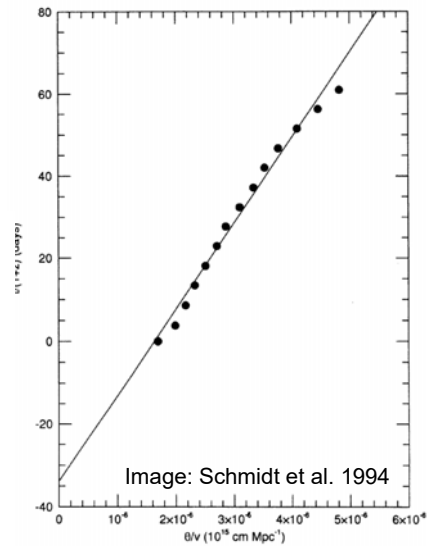
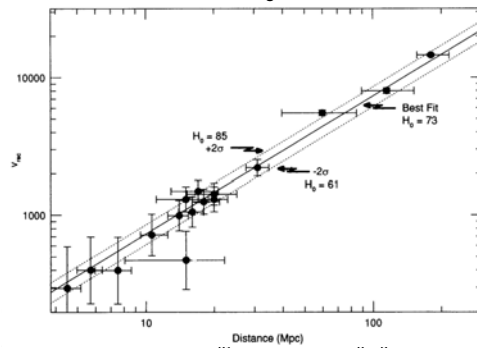


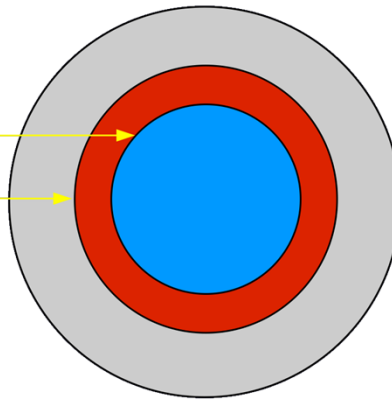
Image: Schmidt et al. 1994

Expanding photosphere method

Main problem: supernova radiation is **not a black body!**

Origin of BB photons:
thermalisation radius R_{th}

Photosphere: surface of
last scattering ($R_{ph} > R_{th}$)

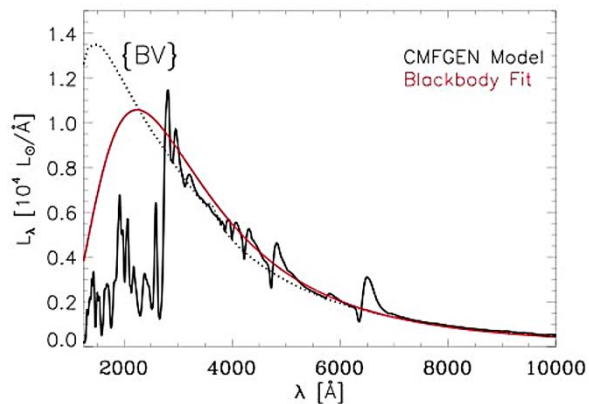


Expanding photosphere method

Main problem: supernova radiation is **not black body!**

Radiation is
“diluted” in
the blue and
UV bands!

Corrected for
by means of a
“dilution
factor” ζ .

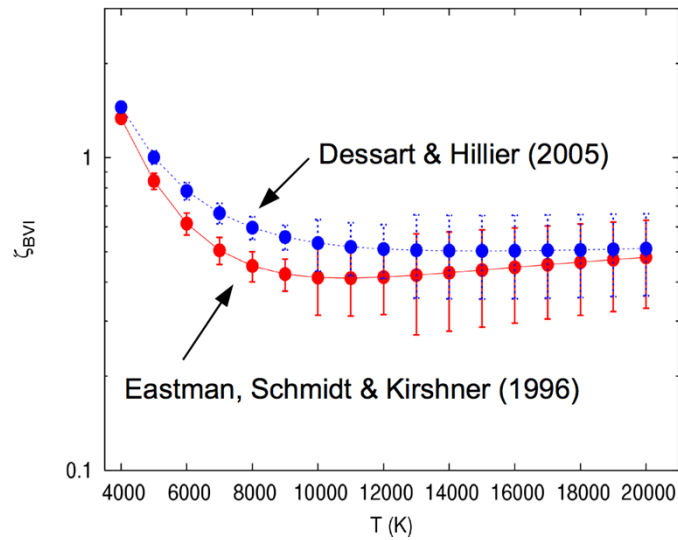


Dessart & Hillier 2005

$$f_\lambda = \theta^2 \zeta^2 \pi B_\lambda(T) \quad \zeta = \frac{R_{th}}{R_{ph}}$$

Expanding photosphere method

From fits to models:



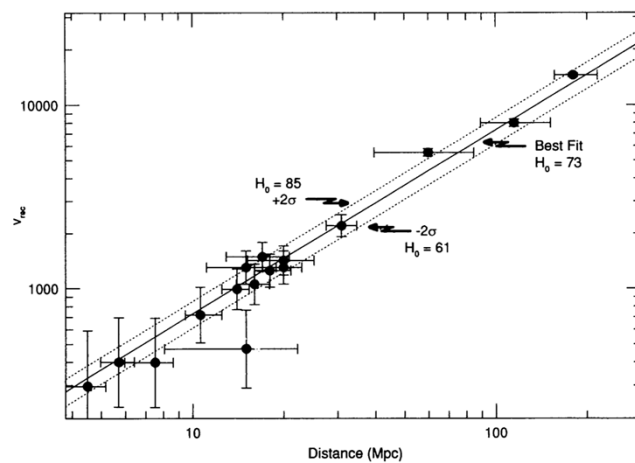
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Expanding photosphere method

An early EPM Hubble diagram (16 SNe, dilution as in Eastman et al.)



Schmidt et al. 1994

$H_0 = 73 \pm 6 \text{ (stat.)} \pm 7 \text{ (syst.) [km/s/Mpc]$

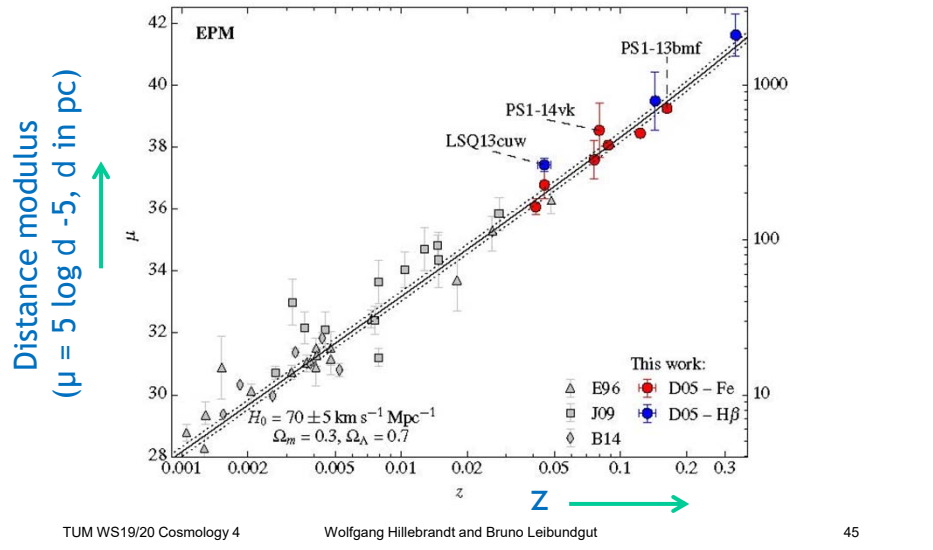
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Expanding photosphere method

A more recent EPM Hubble diagram (Gall et al. 2018):



Determining H_0 from models of thermonuclear supernovae (SNe Ia)

- Hubble's law

$$D = \frac{v}{H_0} = \frac{cz}{H_0}$$

- Luminosity distance

$$D_L = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi F}}$$

- Ni-Co decay

$$E_{Ni} = \frac{\lambda_{Ni} \lambda_{Co}}{\lambda_{Ni} - \lambda_{Co}} \left\{ \left[Q_{Ni} \left(\frac{\lambda_{Ni}}{\lambda_{Co}} - 1 \right) - Q_{Co} \right] e^{-\lambda_{Ni} t} + Q_{Co} e^{-\lambda_{Co} t} \right\} N_{Ni,0}$$

H_0 from the nickel mass

$$H_0 = \frac{cz}{D} = cz \sqrt{\frac{4\pi F}{L}} = cz \sqrt{\frac{4\pi F}{\alpha E_{Ni}}} = cz \sqrt{\frac{4\pi F}{\alpha \varepsilon(t) M_{Ni}}}$$

Hubble law
Luminosity distance
‘Arnett’s rule’
Ni-Co decay and rise time

α : conversion of nickel energy into radiation ($L = \alpha E_{Ni}$)
 $\varepsilon(t)$: energy deposited in the supernova ejecta

Need bolometric flux at maximum F and the redshift z as observables

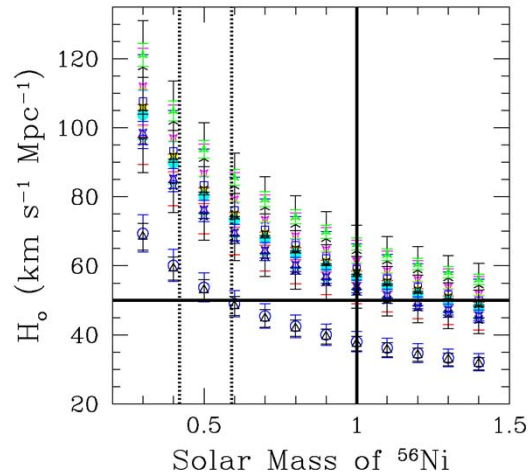
Stritzinger & Leibundgut (2005)

Assumptions

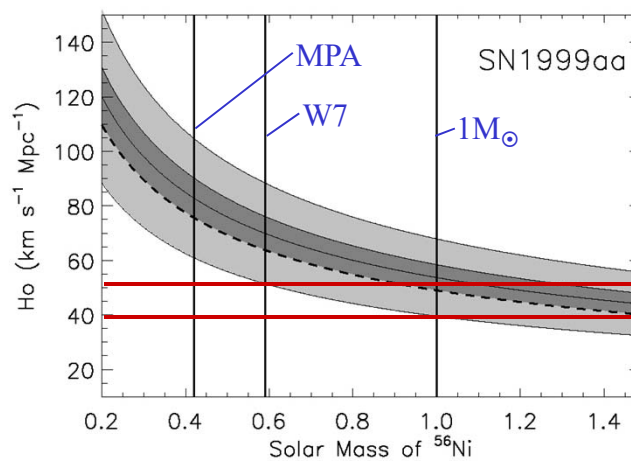
- Rise time (15-25 days) → about 10% uncertainty
- Arnett’s rule
 - energy input at maximum equals radiated energy (i.e. $\alpha \approx 1$, $\varepsilon(t_{\max}) \approx 1$)
- Nickel mass from models
- → uniquely defines the bolometric peak luminosity

H₀ and the Ni mass

- Individual SNe follow the $M^{-1/2}$ dependency.
- **Problem:**
- Since they have individual Ni masses it is not clear which one to apply!



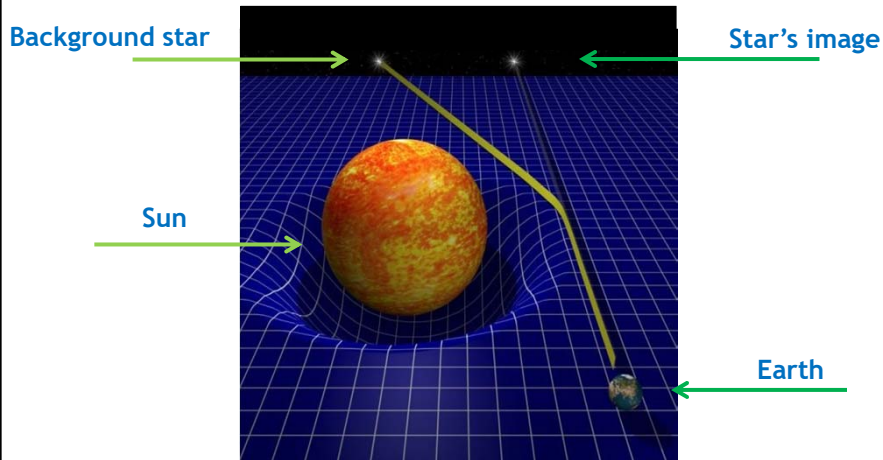
Determine a lower limit for H₀



Gravitationally lensed supernova

(courtesy Sherry Suyu, MPA)

Gravitational lensing:



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Strong optical lensing

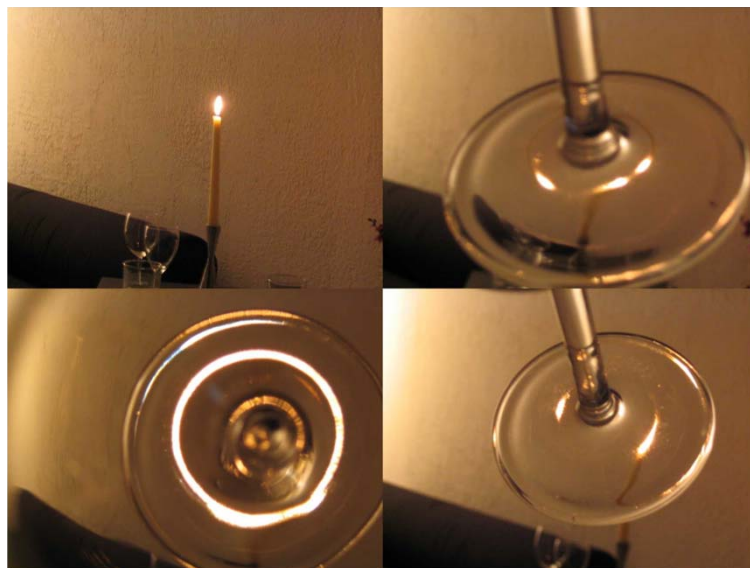


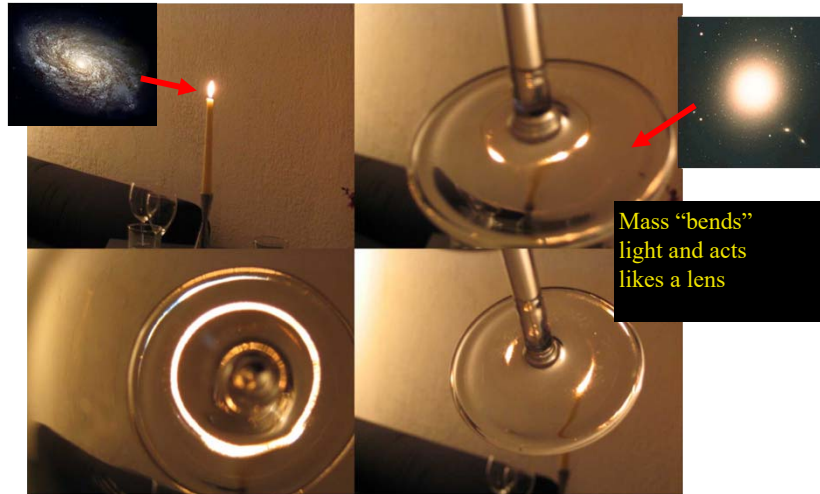
Image credit: P. J. Marshall

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gravitational ~~Strong optical~~ lensing



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Gravitational lens

HST image: SLACSJ0737+3216

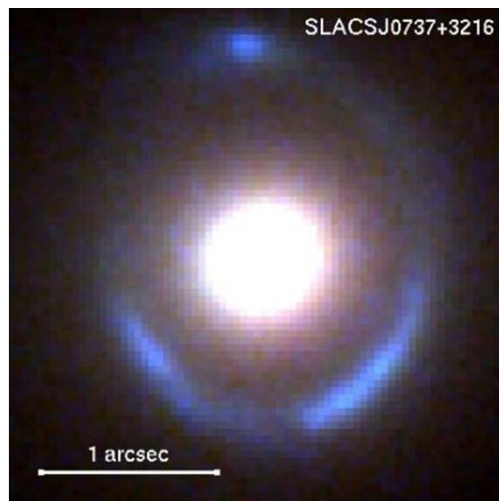


Image credit: P. J. Marshall

Marshall et al. (2007)

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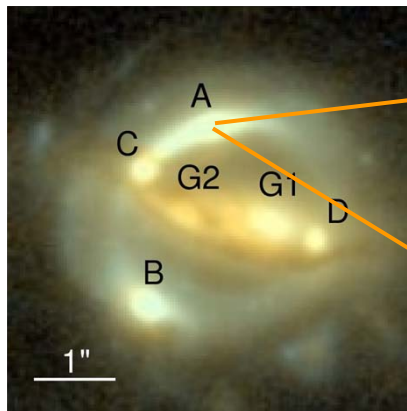
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Strong gravitational lensing

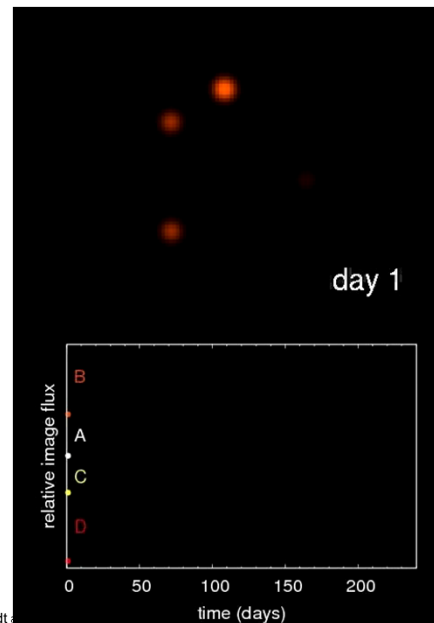
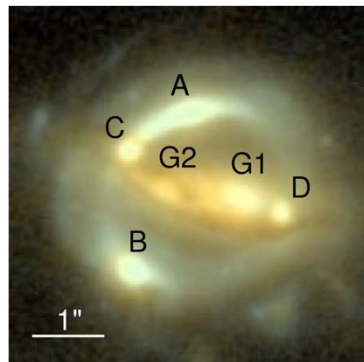
B1608+656

Active galactic nucleus (AGN): accretion of material onto a supermassive black hole



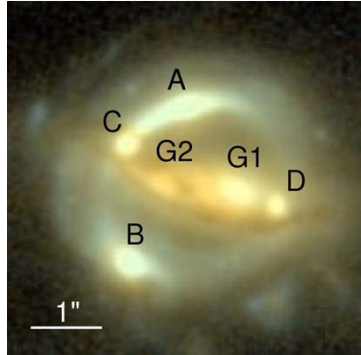
Light emitted from AGN changes in time (“flickers”)

Gravitational lens time delays



[Fassnacht et al. 1999, 2002]
 Movie Credits:
 S. H. Suyu, C. D. Fassnacht

Gravitational lens time delays



Time delay:

$$t = \frac{1}{c} D_{\Delta t} \phi_{\text{lens}}$$

Time-delay distance:

$$D_{\Delta t} \propto \frac{1}{H_0}$$

Obtain from lens mass model

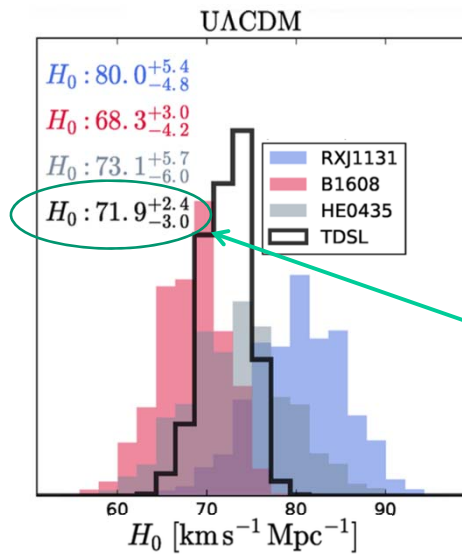
For cosmography, need:

- (1) time delays
- (2) lens mass model
- (3) mass along line of sight

Advantages:

- simple geometry and well-tested physics
- one-step physical measurement of a cosmological distance

H_0 from 3 strong lenses



$H \in [0, 150]$ km/s/Mpc

$\Omega_m = 1 - \Omega_\Lambda \in [0, 1]$

$w = -1$

H_0 with 3.8% precision for flat Λ CDM !

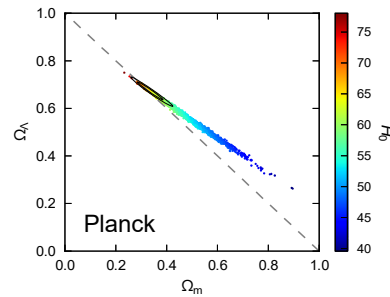
[Bonvin, Courbin, Suyu et al. 2017]

Global solutions

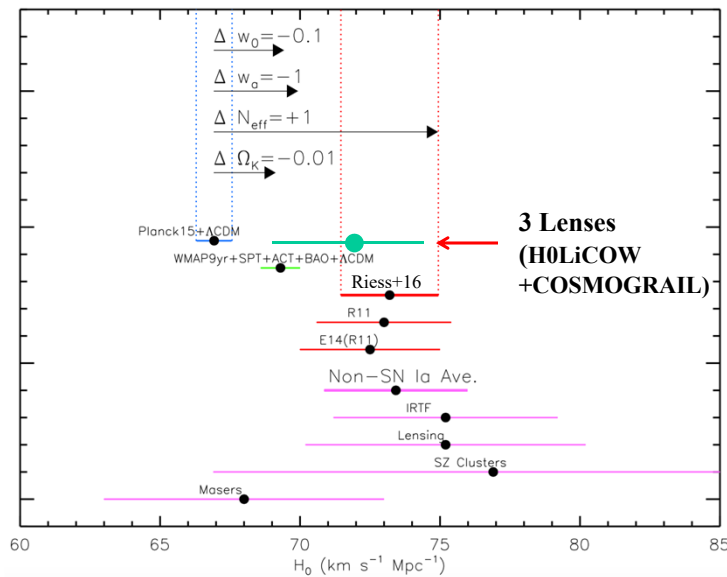
- If all (density) parameters are known H_0 can be determined from the luminosity distance

$$D_L = a_0 r_l (1+z) = \frac{c(1+z)}{H_0 \sqrt{|\Omega_k|}} S \left(\sqrt{|\Omega_k|} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{\sqrt{\Omega_{matter}(1+z')^3 + \Omega_{rad}(1+z')^4 + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_k(1+z')^2}} \right)$$

- use CMB
 - assume $\Omega_{rad} \cong 0, \Omega_k \cong 0$

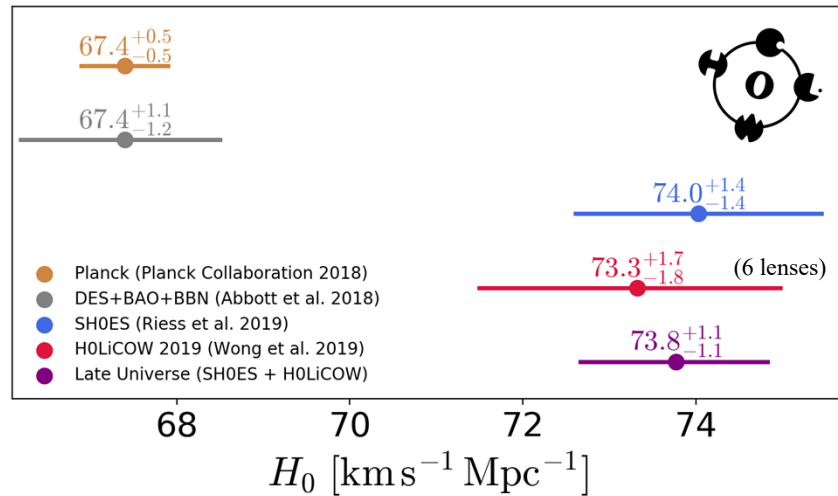


H_0 : global vs. local



H_0 : Summary (as of 2019)

flat Λ CDM



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Issues

- Big unresolved issue is dust obscuration
 - correction uncertain for other galaxies
- Evolution of the object
 - e.g. supernovae different in the past
- Sample contamination by other objects
- Subtleties in the geometry
- Disturbance in the pure Hubble flow
 - peculiar velocities

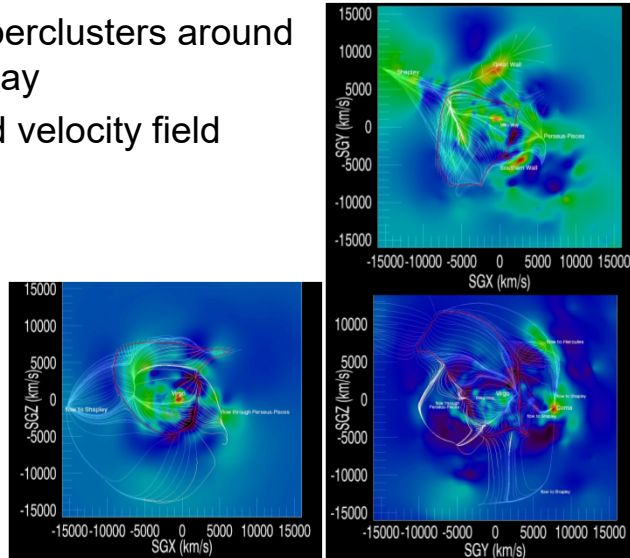
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Local galaxy environment

- Several superclusters around the Milky Way
- complicated velocity field



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