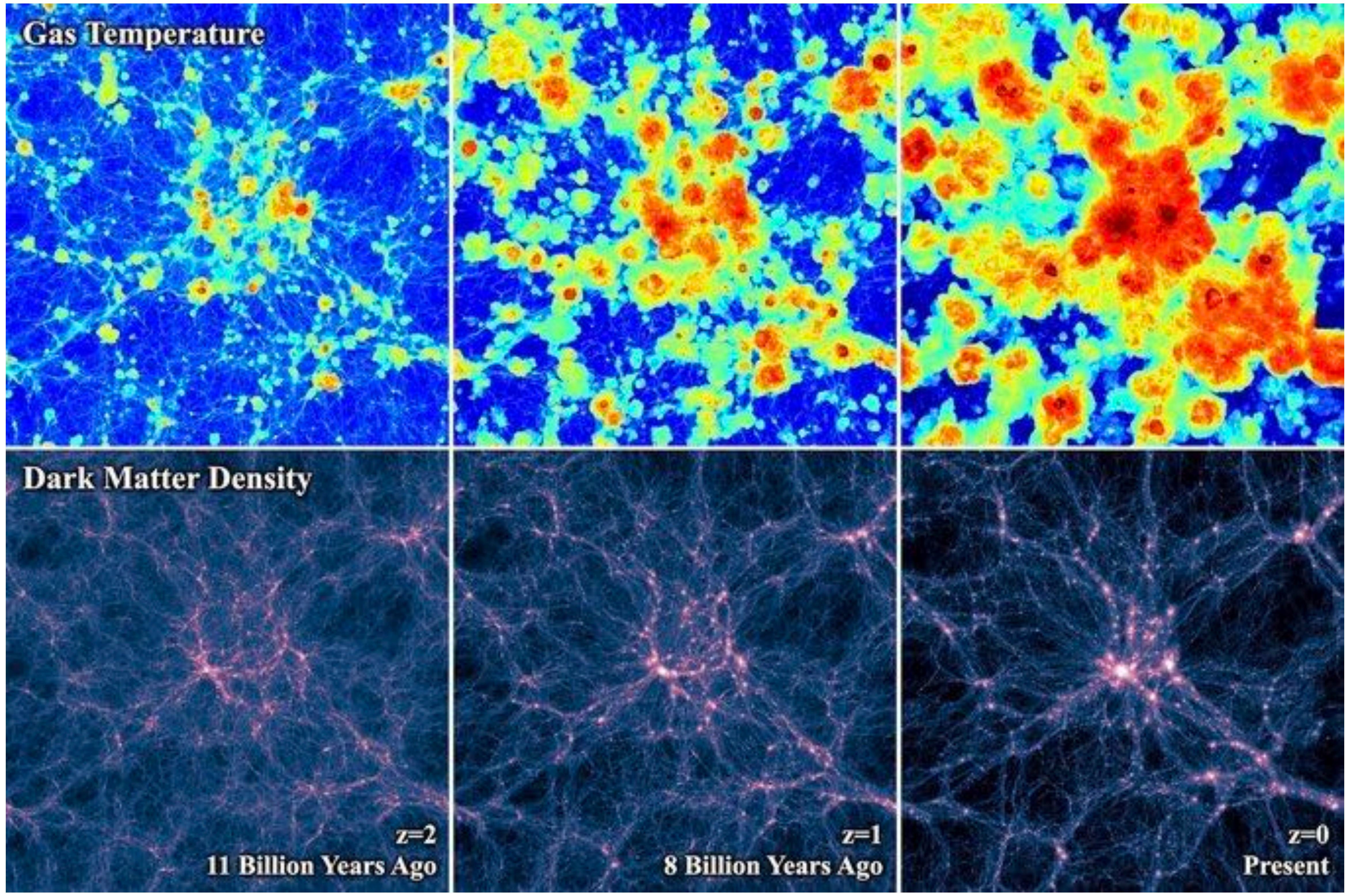
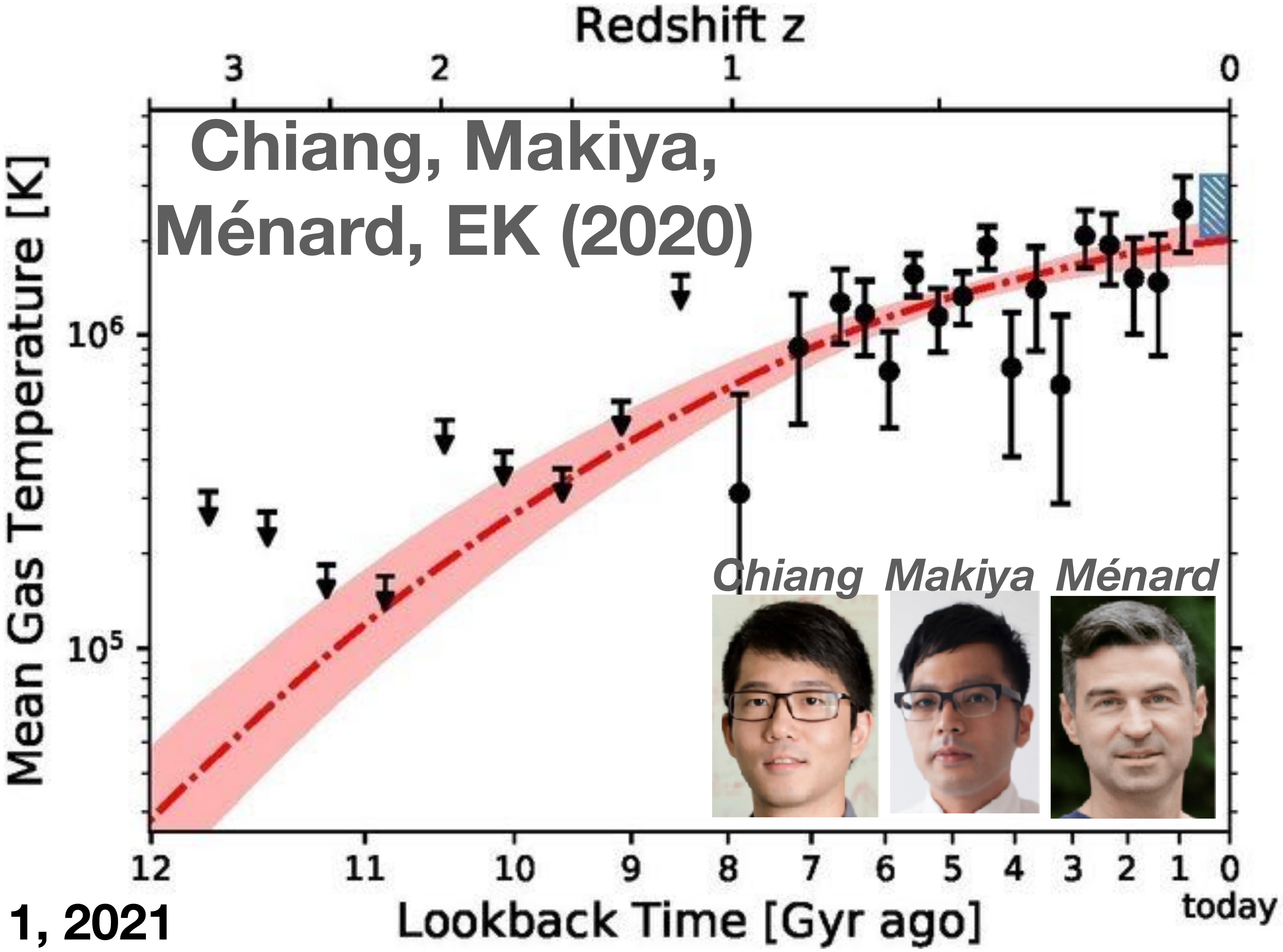
The Thermal and Gravitational Energy Densities in the Large-scale Structure of the Universe

Credit: Dylan Nelson, Illustris Collaboration





Eiichiro Komatsu, The MPA Institute Seminar, March 1, 2021

Outline

Three questions to answer (hopefully) during this talk

1. How hot is the large-scale structure of the Universe today? How was it before?
   - *Chiang, Makiya, Ménard, EK, ApJ, 902, 56 (2020)*
2. Where did the thermal energy come from?
   - *Chiang, Makiya, EK, Ménard, ApJ, in press (arXiv:2007.01679)*
3. What is our result good for?
   - Is it just a nice measurement with a nice interpretation, or actually useful for something? (*Young, EK, Dolag, in preparation*)

MPA Press Release, November 10, 2020

Contact

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Original publication

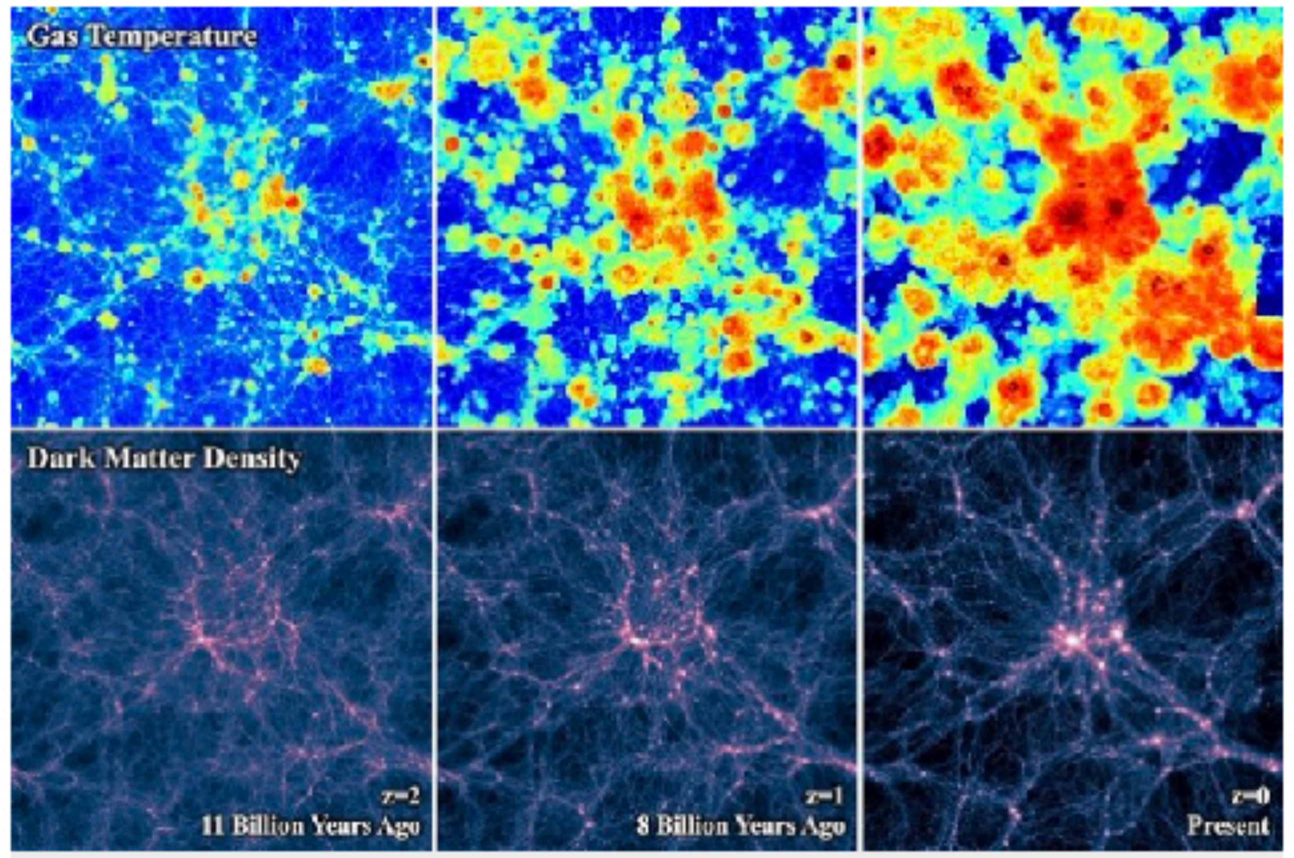
1. *Chiang, Makiya, Ménard and Komatsu*
The Cosmic Thermal History Probed by Sunyaev-Zeldovich Effect Tomography
Astrophysical Journal, 902, 56 (2020)

Taking the temperature of the Universe

NOVEMBER 10, 2020

How hot is the Universe today? How hot was it before? A new study, which has been published in the Astrophysical Journal, suggests that the mean temperature of gas in large structures of the Universe has increased ten times over the last 10 billion years, to reach about 2 million Kelvin today.

The large-scale structure of the Universe refers to the global pattern of how galaxies and galaxy clusters are distributed in space. This cosmic net formed from tiny irregularities in the matter distribution in the early Universe, which were amplified through gravitational attraction. "As the Universe evolves, gravity pulls dark matter and gas in space together into galaxies and clusters of galaxies," said Yi-Kuan Chiang, the lead author of the study and a research fellow at the Ohio State University Center for Cosmology and AstroParticle Physics. "The drag is violent - so violent that more and more gas is shocked and heated up."



Computer simulation of the evolution of the large-scale structure (bottom) and the temperature (top) of the Universe. The time flows from the left to the right panels, with the rightmost panel showing the present-day epoch.

This heated gas can then be used to measure the mean temperature of the Universe over cosmic time. In particular, the researchers used the so-called "Sunyaev-Zeldovich" effect, named after Rashid Sunyaev, director emeritus at the Max Planck Institute for Astrophysics, who first predicted this phenomenon theoretically. This effect arises when low-energy photons of the cosmic microwave background radiation are scattered by hot electrons in the large-scale structure of the Universe. The scattering transfers energy from electrons to photons, making the hot electron gas visible. The intensity of the Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect is proportional to the thermal pressure of the gas, which, in turn, is proportional to the temperature of electrons.

While this measurement is straightforward in principle, collecting the

JHU Press Release,
November 10, 2020

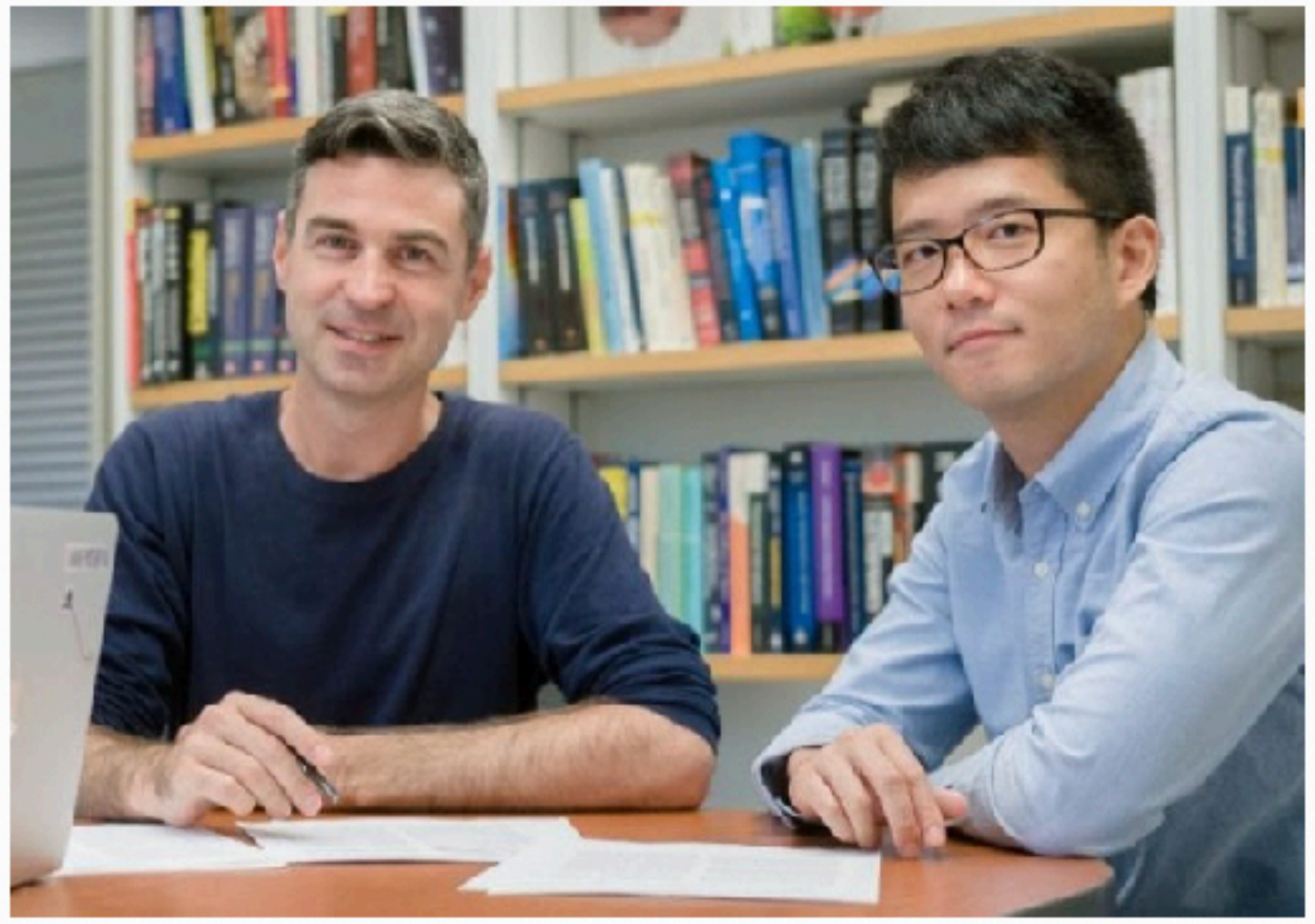
JOHNS HOPKINS
KRIEGER SCHOOL of ARTS & SCIENCES

Henry A. Rowland Department of
Physics & Astronomy

Brice Ménard and Yi-Kuan Chiang Measure the Global Warming of Galaxies

Posted on: **November 10, 2020**

Posted in: **Astrophysics**



Associate Professor Brice Ménard and former postdoctoral fellow in the department, Yi-Kuan Chiang, have published research in *Astrophysical Journal* that demonstrates how the temperature of galaxy clusters today, on average, is 10 times hotter than 10 billion years ago.

"We have measured temperatures throughout the history of the universe," said Ménard, "As time has gone on, all those clusters of galaxies are getting hotter and hotter because their gravity pulls more and more gas toward them."

The research team used a technique that Ménard developed with Chiang. With it, they estimated the redshift of gas concentrations seen in images of microwave light going back in time all the way to 10 billion years ago. They call the new tool the Tomographer and it is able to explore the redshift distribution of any source catalog or sky map, using the a clustering-redshift technique.

The cosmic energy inventory
Fukugita & Peebles (2004)

- We know the mean total mass density of the Universe: **Ω_m ~ 0.3**.
- We also know the mean baryonic mass density of the Universe: **Ω_B ~ 0.05**.
- We also have estimates for many other energy densities in the Universe:

THE COSMIC ENERGY INVENTORY

MASATAKA FUKUGITA
Institute for Advanced Study, Einstein Drive, Princeton, NJ 08540; and Institute for Cosmic Ray Research,
University of Tokyo, Kashiwa 277-8582, Japan

AND

P. J. E. PEEBLES
Joseph Henry Laboratories, Princeton University, Jadwin Hall, P.O. Box 708, Princeton, NJ 08544
Received 2004 June 3; accepted 2004 August 9

ABSTRACT

We present an inventory of the cosmic mean densities of energy associated with all the known states of matter and radiation at the present epoch. The observational and theoretical bases for the inventory have become rich enough to allow estimates with observational support for the densities of energy in some 40 forms. The result is a global portrait of the effects of the physical processes of cosmic evolution.

Fukugita & Peebles (2004)

TABLE 1
THE COSMIC ENERGY INVENTORY

Category	Parameter		Components[a]	Totals[a]
1	Dark sector:			0.954 ± 0.003
1.1	Dark energy		0.72 ± 0.03	
1.2	Dark matter		0.23 ± 0.03	
1.3	Primeval gravitational waves		$\lesssim 10^{-10}$	
2	Primeval thermal remnants:			0.0010 ± 0.0005
2.1	Electromagnetic radiation		$10^{-4.3 \pm 0.0}$	
2.2	Neutrinos		$10^{-2.9 \pm 0.1}$	
2.3	Prestellar nuclear binding energy		$-10^{-4.1 \pm 0.0}$	
3	Baryon rest mass:			0.045 ± 0.003
3.1	Warm intergalactic plasma		0.040 ± 0.003	
3.1a	Virialized regions of galaxies	0.024 ± 0.005		
3.1b	Intergalactic	0.016 ± 0.005		
3.2	Intracluster plasma		0.0018 ± 0.0007	
3.3	Main-sequence stars: spheroids and bulges		0.0015 ± 0.0004	
3.4	Main-sequence stars: disks and irregulars		0.00055 ± 0.00014	
3.5	White dwarfs		0.00036 ± 0.00008	
3.6	Neutron stars		0.00005 ± 0.00002	
3.7	Black holes		0.00007 ± 0.00002	
3.8	Substellar objects		0.00014 ± 0.00007	
3.9	H I + He I		0.00062 ± 0.00010	
3.10	Molecular gas		0.00016 ± 0.00006	
3.11	Planets		10^{-6}	
3.12	Condensed matter		$10^{-5.6 \pm 0.3}$	
3.13	Sequestered in massive black holes		$10^{-5.4}(1 + \epsilon_n)$	
4	Primeval gravitational binding energy:			$-10^{-6.1 \pm 0.1}$
4.1	Virialized halos of galaxies		$-10^{-7.2}$	
4.2	Clusters		$-10^{-6.9}$	
4.3	Large-scale structure		$-10^{-6.2}$	
5	Binding energy from dissipative gravitational settling:			$-10^{-4.9}$
5.1	Baryon-dominated parts of galaxies		$-10^{-8.8 \pm 0.3}$	
5.2	Main-sequence stars and substellar objects		$-10^{-8.1}$	

Fukugita & Peebles (2004)

Category	Parameter	Components[a]	Totals[a]
5.3................................	White dwarfs	$-10^{-7.4}$	
5.4................................	Neutron stars	$-10^{-5.2}$	
5.5................................	Stellar mass black holes	$-10^{-4.2}\epsilon_s$	
5.6................................	Galactic nuclei: early type	$-10^{-5.6}\epsilon_n$	
5.7................................	Galactic nuclei: late type	$-10^{-5.8}\epsilon_n$	
6....................................	Poststellar nuclear binding energy:		$-10^{-5.2}$
6.1................................	Main-sequence stars and substellar objects	$-10^{-5.8}$	
6.2................................	Diffuse material in galaxies	$-10^{-6.5}$	
6.3................................	White dwarfs	$-10^{-5.6}$	
6.4................................	Clusters	$-10^{-6.5}$	
6.5................................	Intergalactic	$-10^{-6.2 \pm 0.5}$	
7....................................	Poststellar radiation:		$10^{-5.7 \pm 0.1}$
7.1................................	Resolved radio-microwave	$10^{-10.3 \pm 0.3}$	
7.2................................	FIR	$10^{-6.1}$	
7.3................................	Optical	$10^{-5.8 \pm 0.2}$	
7.4................................	X-ray–γ-ray	$10^{-7.9 \pm 0.2}$	
7.5................................	Gravitational radiation: stellar mass binaries	$10^{-9 \pm 1}$	
7.6................................	Gravitational radiation: massive black holes	$10^{-7.5 \pm 0.5}$	
8....................................	Stellar neutrinos:		$10^{-5.5}$
8.1................................	Nuclear burning	$10^{-6.8}$	
8.2................................	White dwarf formation	$10^{-7.7}$	
8.3................................	Core collapse	$10^{-5.5}$	
9....................................	Cosmic rays and magnetic fields		$10^{-8.3^{+0.6}_{-0.3}}$
10..................................	Kinetic energy in the IGM		$10^{-8.0 \pm 0.3}$

- But we did not know the mean thermal energy density of the Universe, Ω_{th}
  - Let's measure this!

Our definition of the thermal energy density

nk_BT rather than $(3/2)nk_BT$

- We define the thermal energy from **k_BT**, rather than the kinetic energy, $(3/2)k_BT$.
  - If you do not like this definition, keep this factor of 3/2 in your mind.
- Then the mean (comoving) thermal energy density is equal to the mean thermal pressure in the comoving volume:

$$\Omega_{\rm th}(z) \equiv \frac{\rho_{\rm th}(z)}{\rho_{\rm crit}} = \frac{\langle P_{\rm th}(z)\rangle}{\rho_{\rm crit}\,(1+z)^3},$$

where $\rho_{\rm crit} = 1.054 \times 10^4\ h^2\ {\rm eV\ cm^{-3}}$ is the present-day critical energy density.

Order-of-magnitude estimate

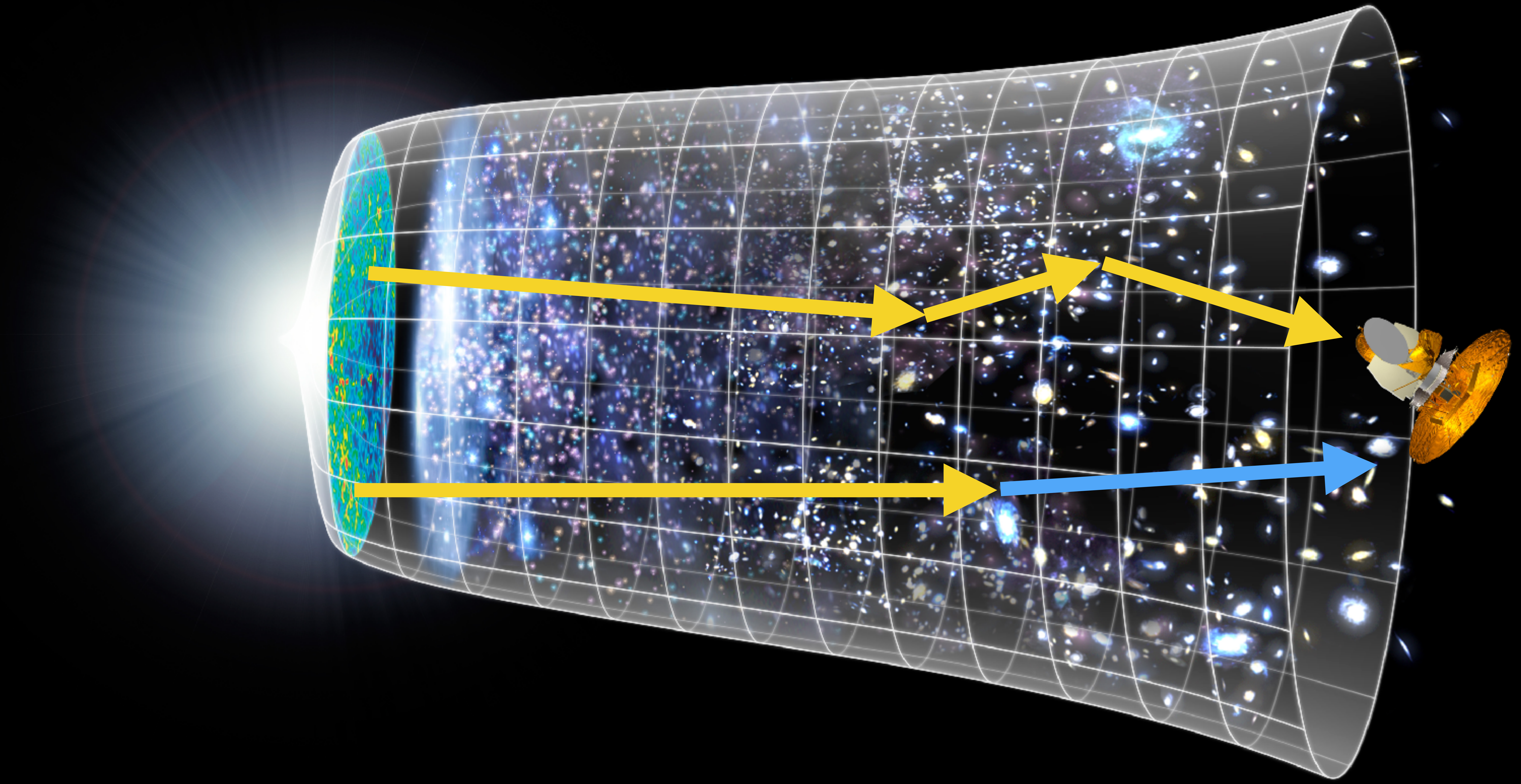
There is more than one way to do this. Here is one example.

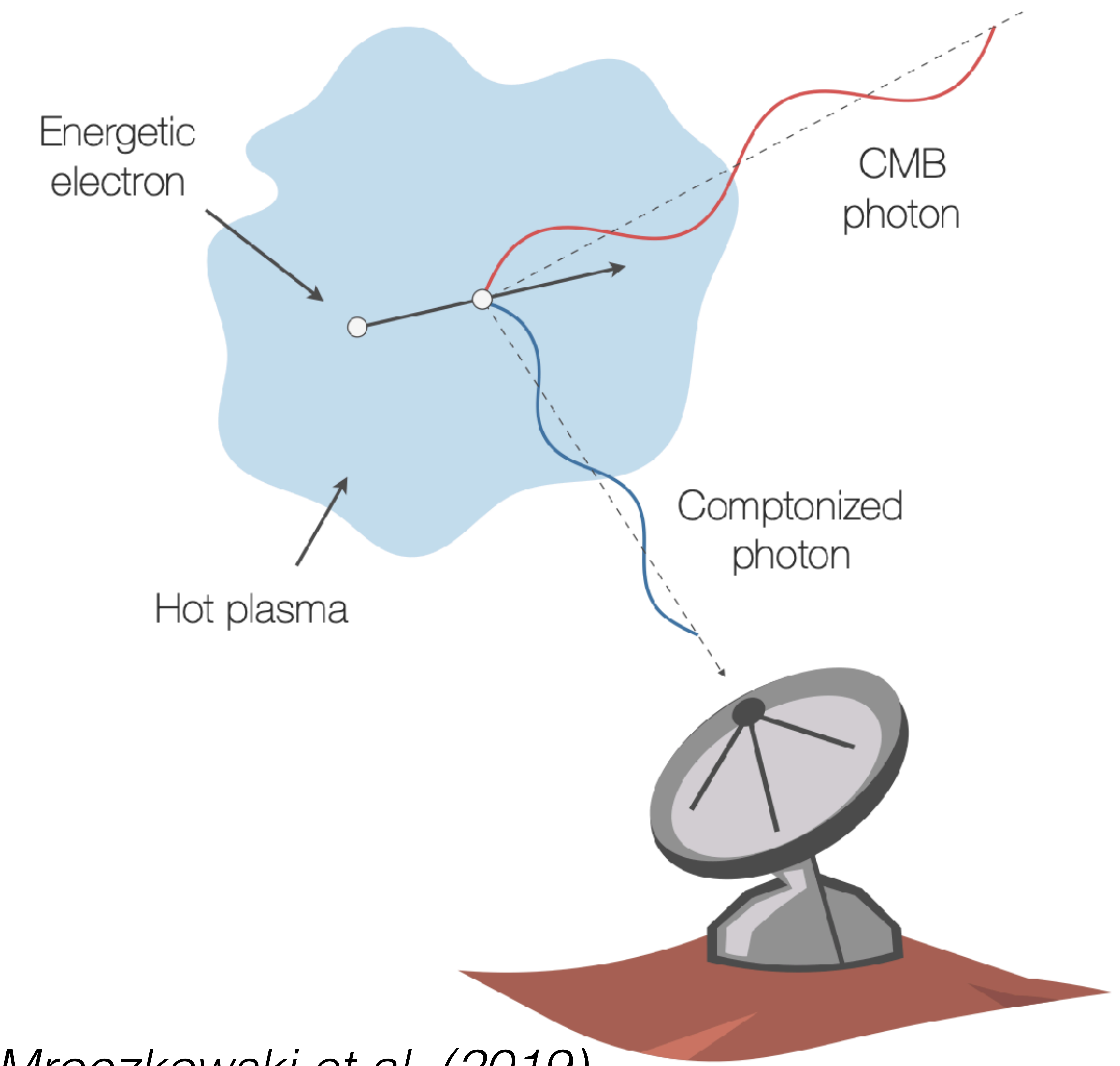
- $P_{th} = \rho_{gas}\sigma^2$, where σ^2 is some typical 1D velocity dispersion in the large-scale structure.

- $\Omega_{th} = \Omega_{gas}\sigma^2 \sim$ **2×10^{-8}** $(\Omega_{gas}/0.05)(\sigma/200\text{ km/s})^2$

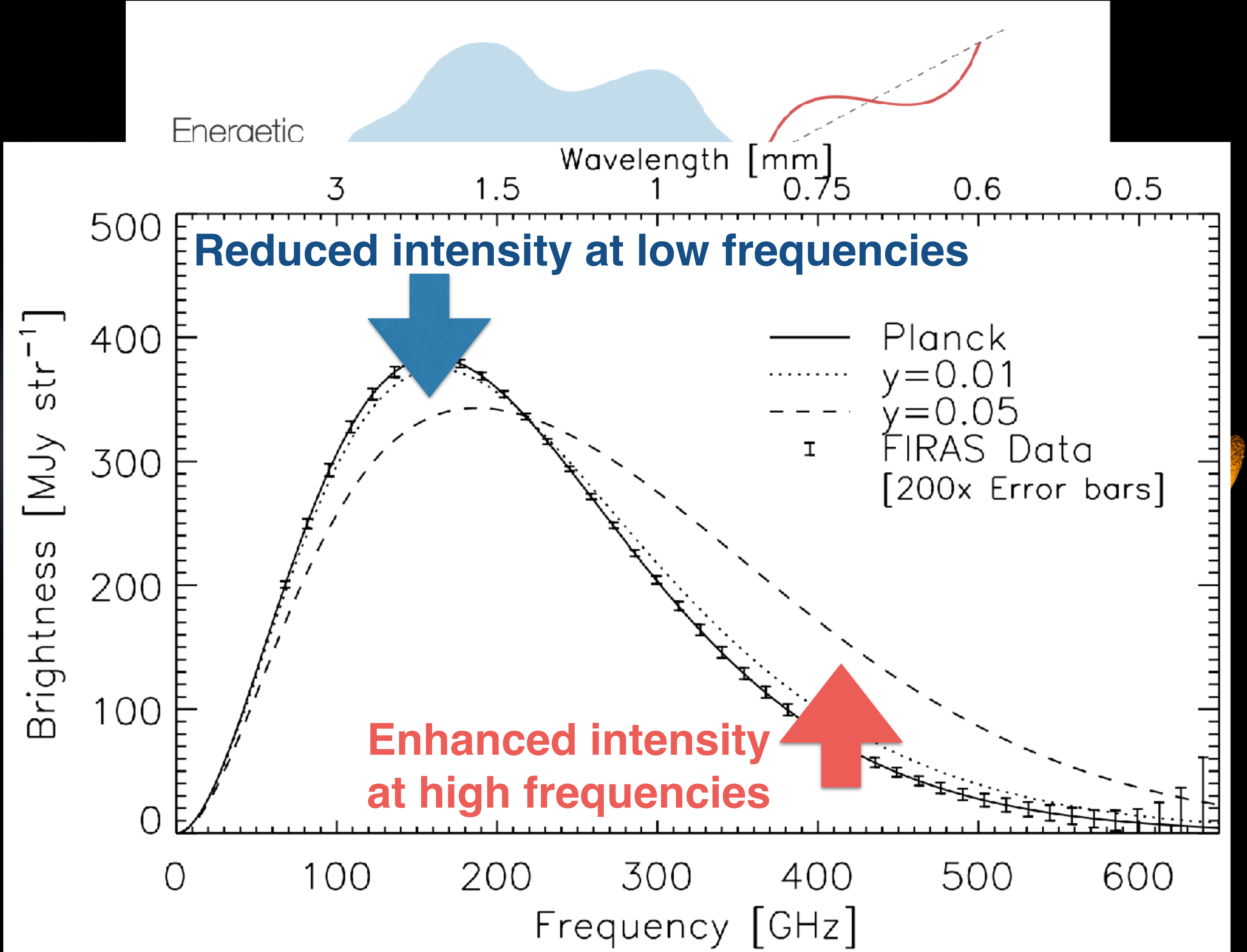
- *Spoiler: our measurement gives* ***$\Omega_{th} = (1.7\pm0.1)\times10^{-8}$*** *at z=0. Not bad, but this isn't actually the right way to do it in detail.*

- OK, let's go. We use the thermal Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect to do this measurement.

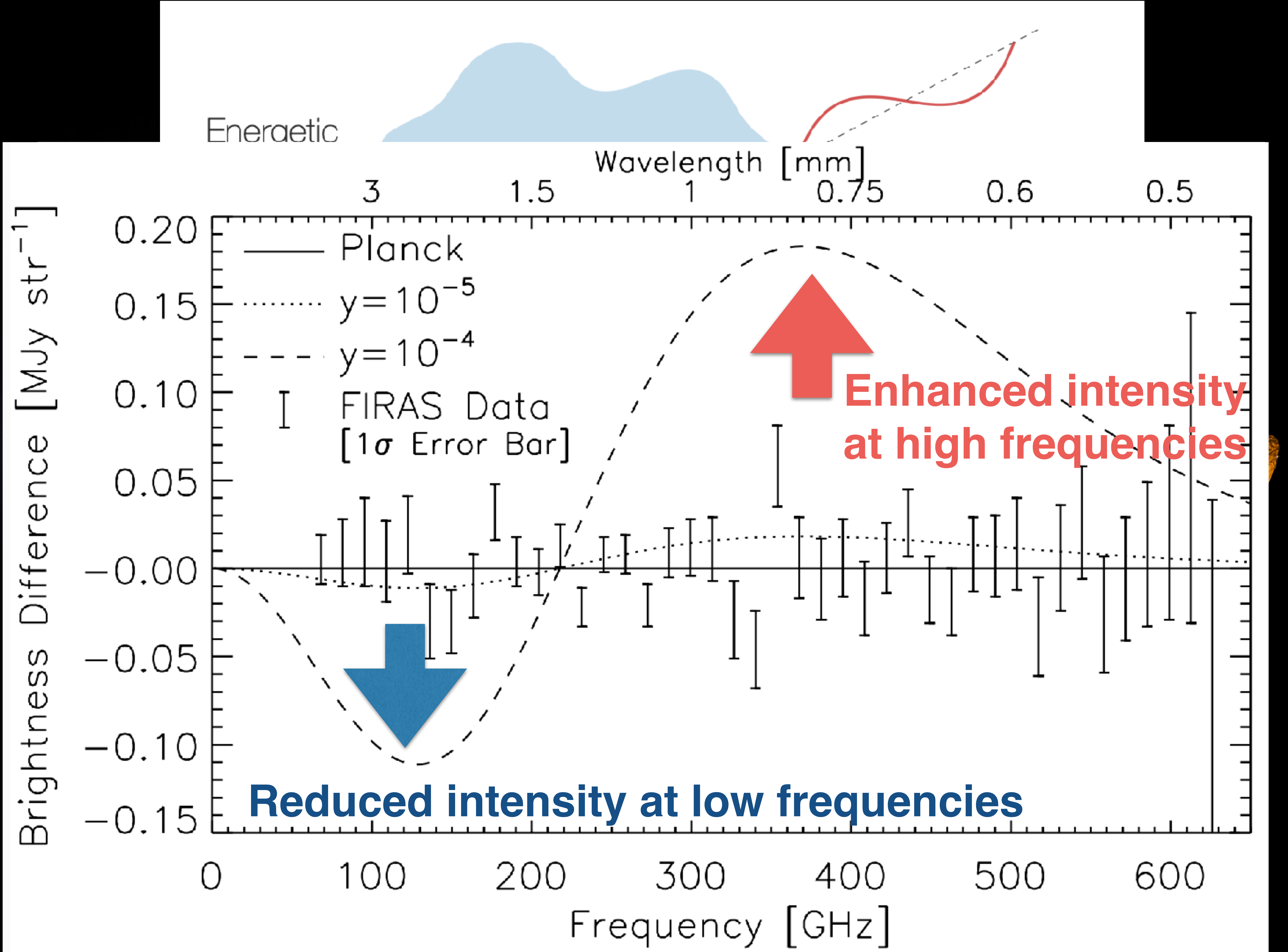




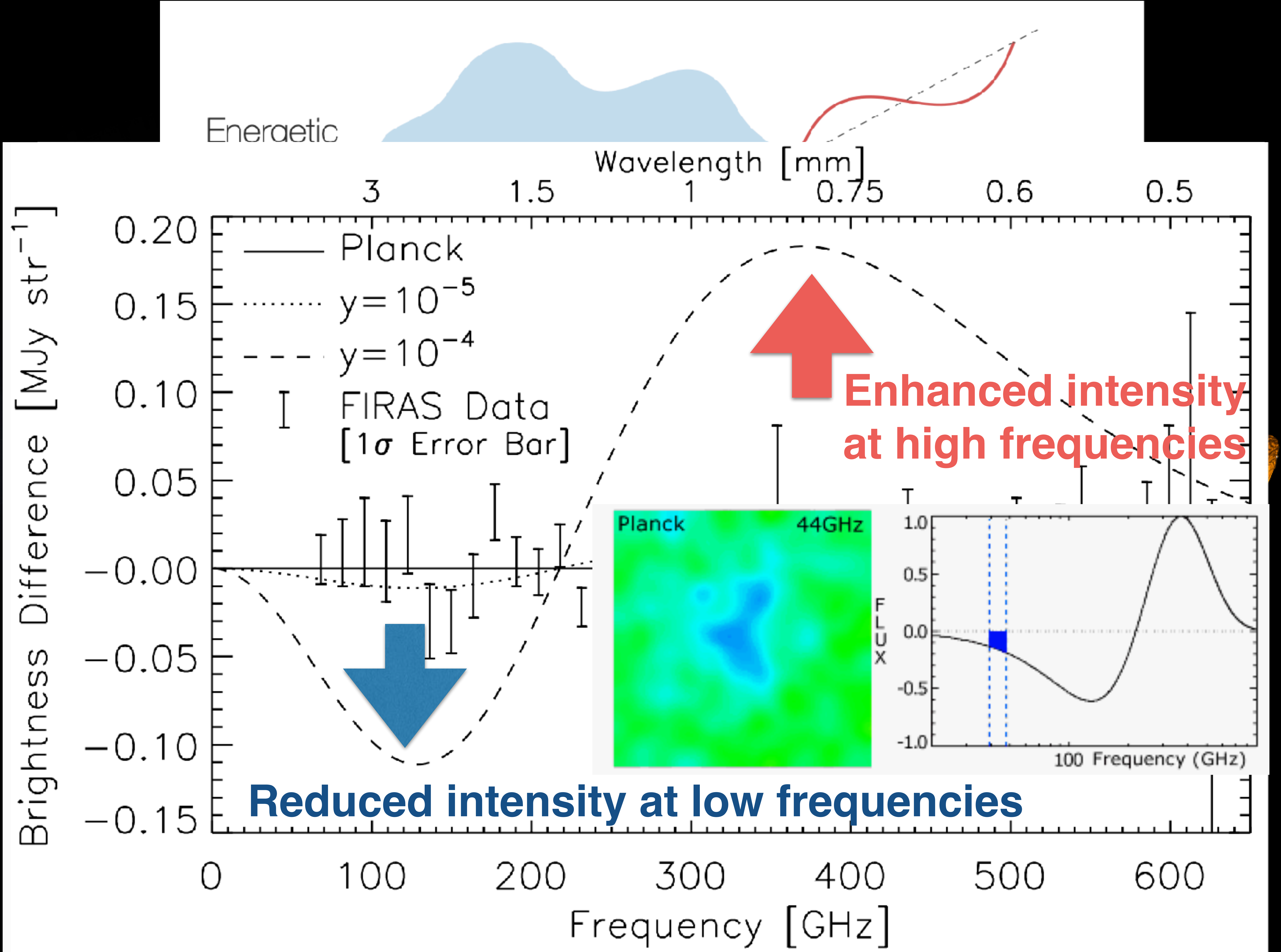
Mroczkowski et al. (2019)



Energetic
Wavelength [mm]
3
1.5
1
0.75
0.6
0.5
500
400
300
200
100
0
Brightness [MJy str^{-1}]
Reduced intensity at low frequencies
Planck
y=0.01
y=0.05
FIRAS Data
[200x Error bars]
Enhanced intensity
at high frequencies
0
100
200
300
400
500
600
Frequency [GHz]



Energetic
Wavelength [mm]
3
1.5
1
0.75
0.6
0.5
Brightness Difference [MJy str^{-1}]
0.20
0.15
0.10
0.05
−0.00
−0.05
−0.10
−0.15
Planck
y=10^{-5}
y=10^{-4}
FIRAS Data
[1σ Error Bar]
Enhanced intensity at high frequencies
Reduced intensity at low frequencies
0
100
200
300
400
500
600
Frequency [GHz]

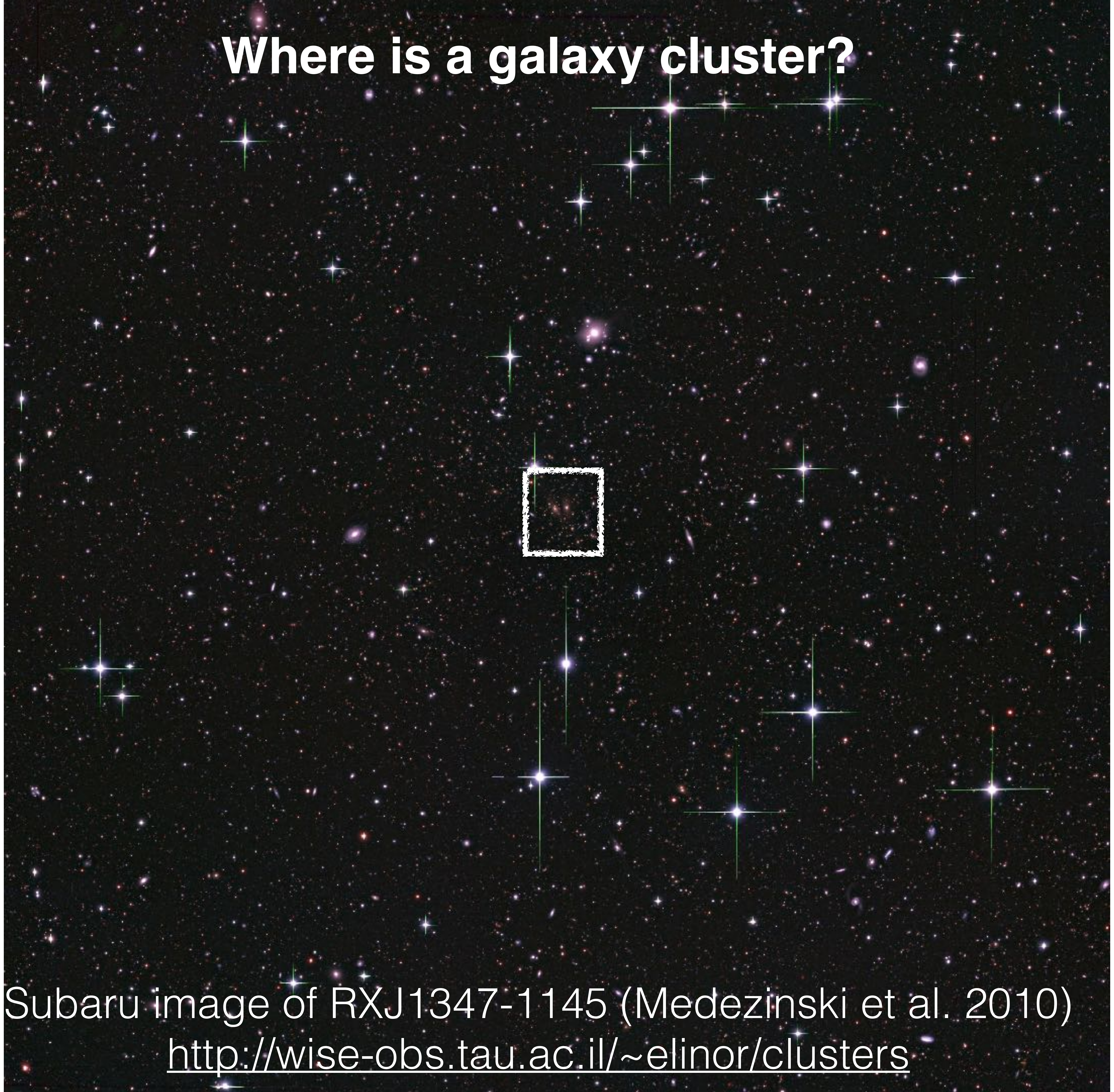


Energetic
Wavelength [mm]
3
1.5
1
0.75
0.6
0.5
Brightness Difference [MJy str^{-1}]
Planck
y=10^{-5}
y=10^{-4}
FIRAS Data
[1σ Error Bar]
Enhanced intensity
at high frequencies
Planck
44GHz
FLUX
100 Frequency (GHz)
Reduced intensity at low frequencies
Frequency [GHz]

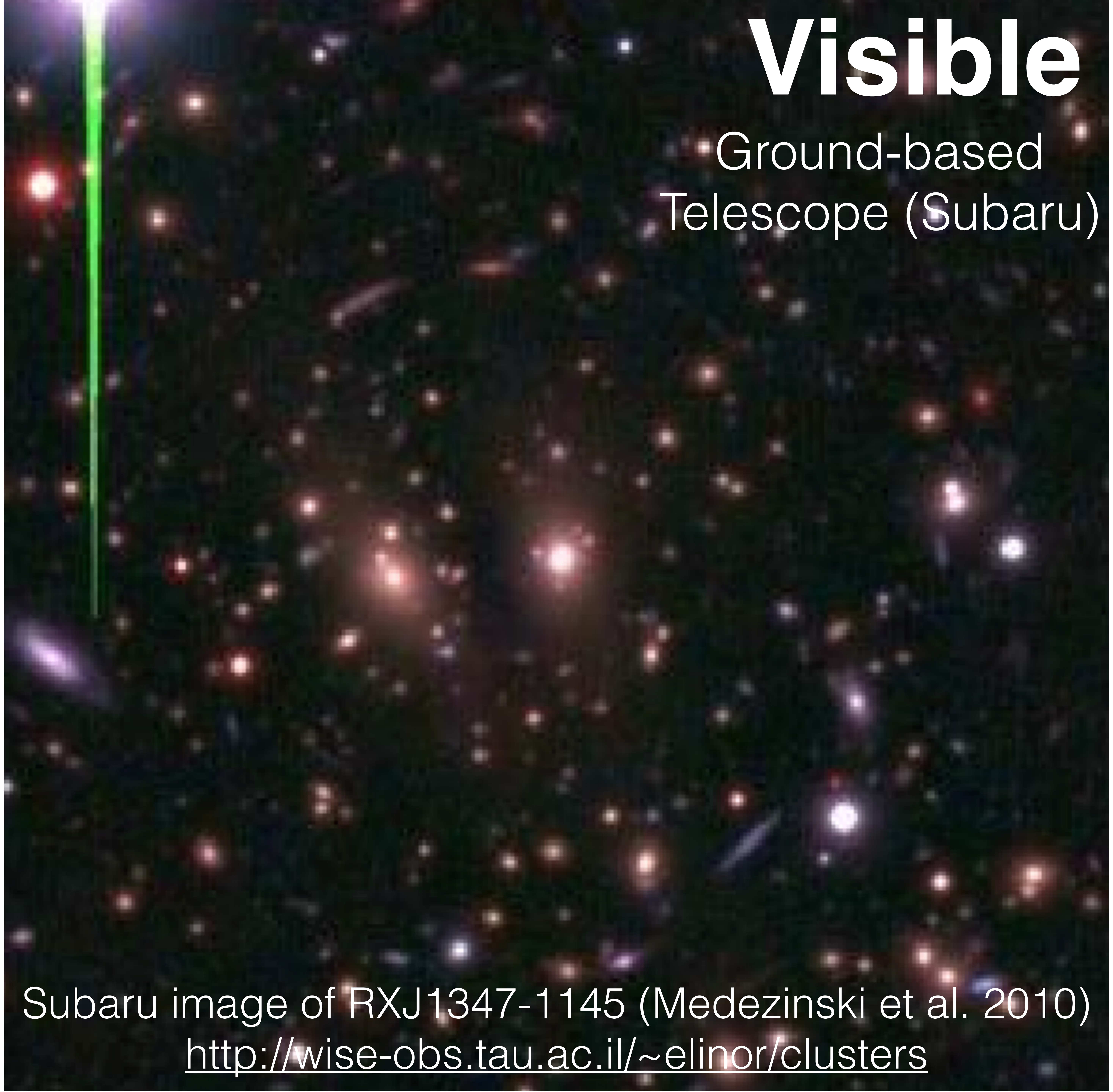
Where is a galaxy cluster?

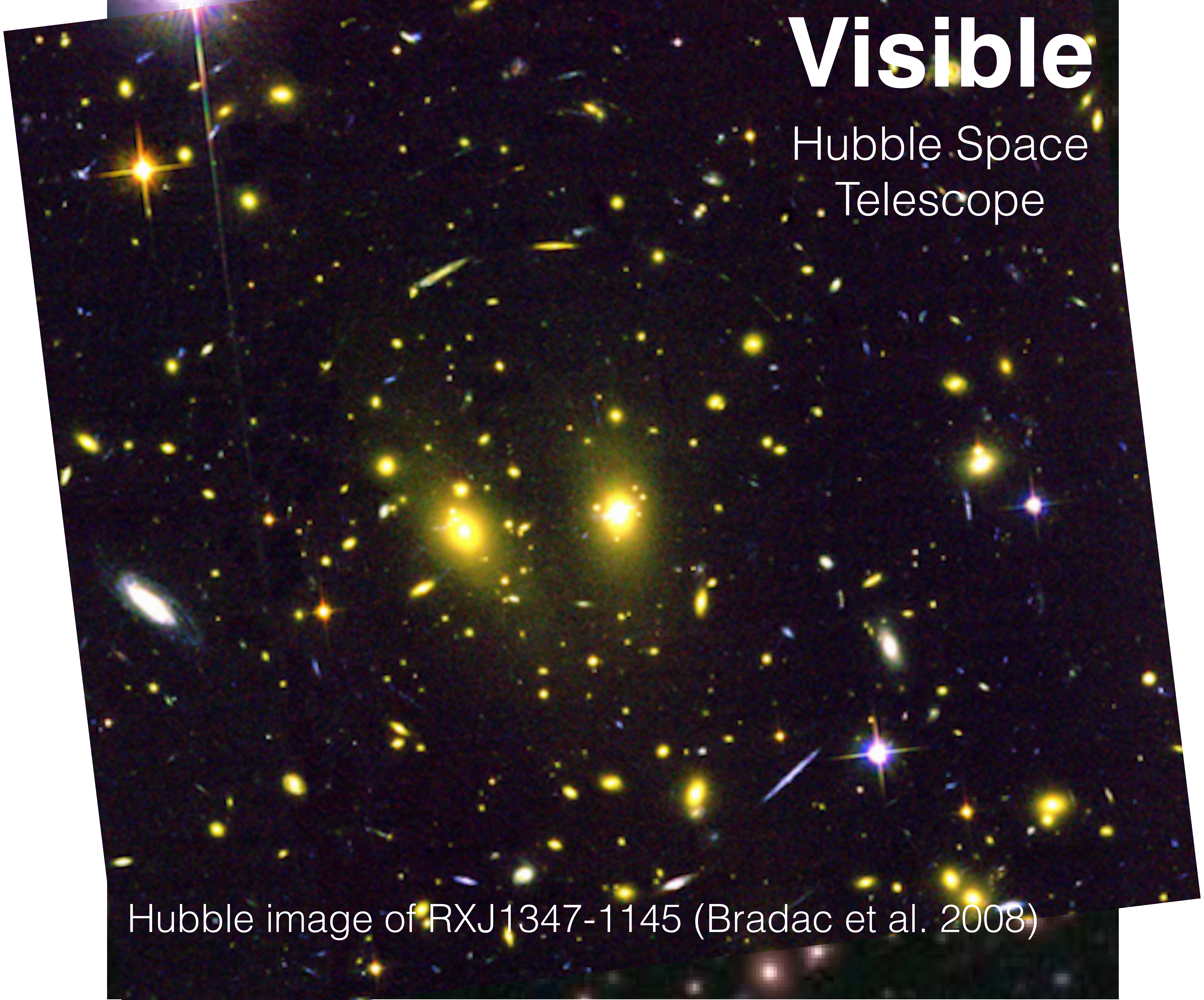
Subaru image of RXJ1347-1145 (Medezinski et al. 2010)
http://wise-obs.tau.ac.il/~elinor/clusters

Where is a galaxy cluster?



Subaru image of RXJ1347-1145 (Medezinski et al. 2010)
http://wise-obs.tau.ac.il/~elinor/clusters

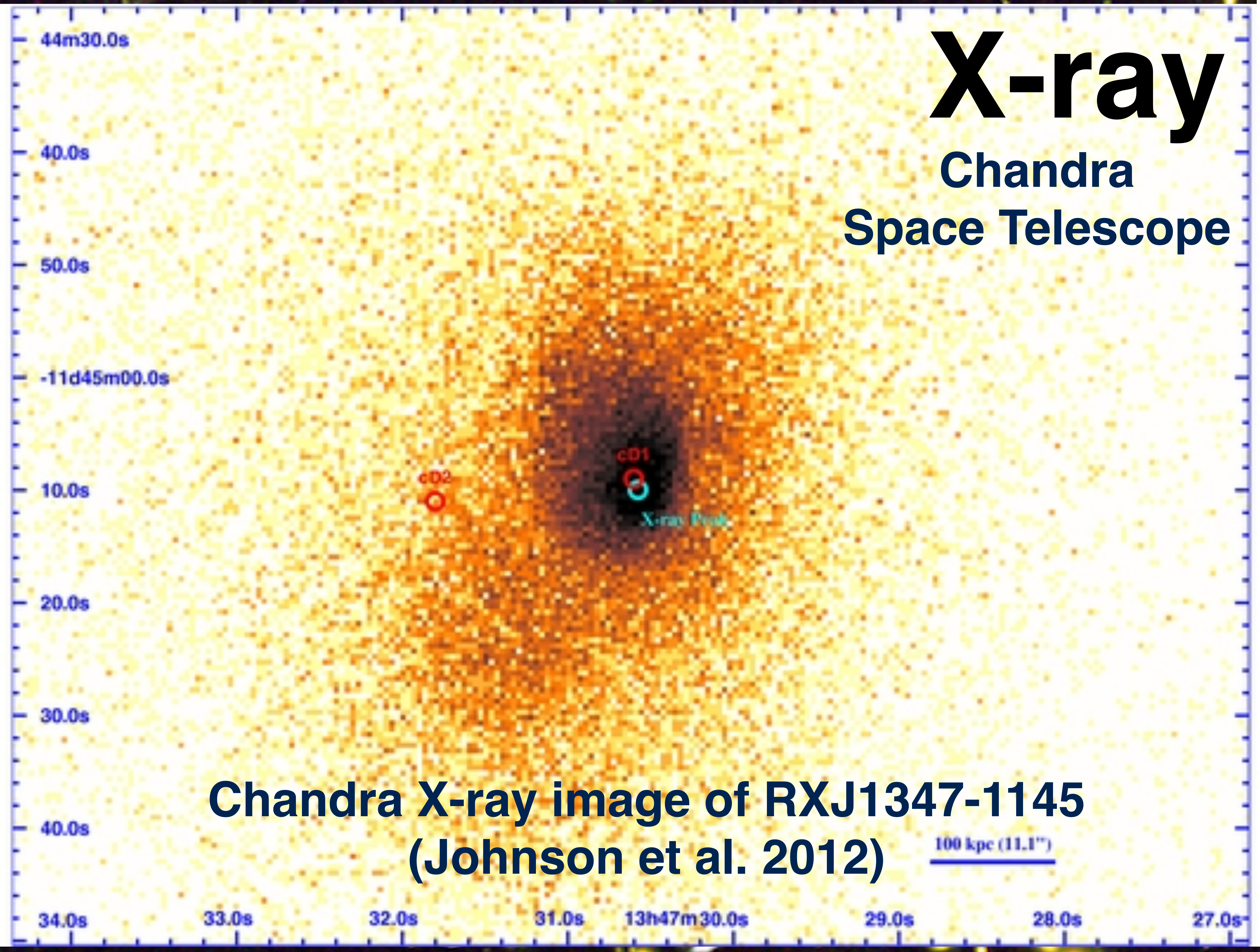

Visible
Ground-based
Telescope (Subaru)
Subaru image of RXJ1347-1145 (Medezinski et al. 2010)
http://wise-obs.tau.ac.il/~elinor/clusters



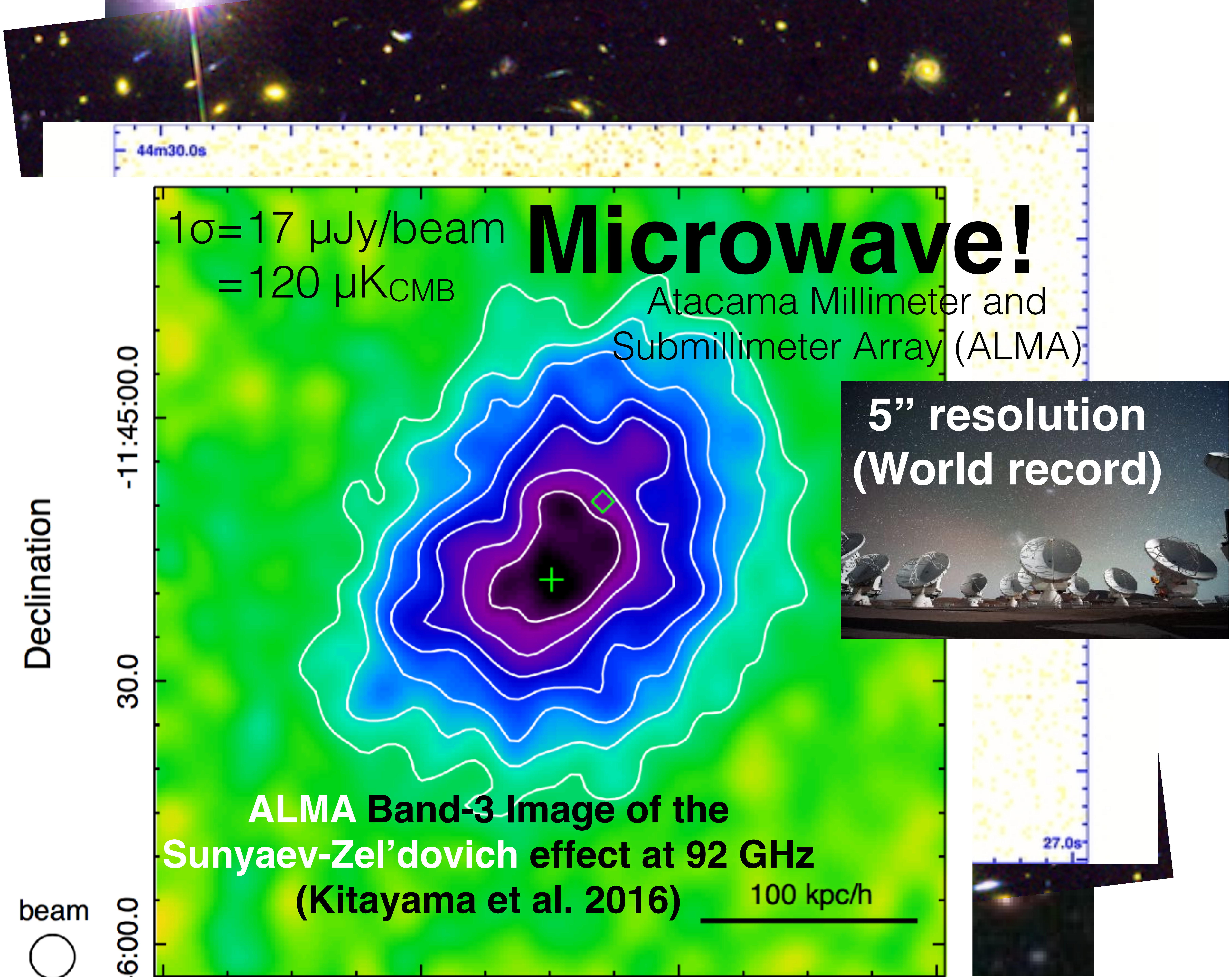
Hubble image of RXJ1347-1145 (Bradac et al. 2008)

X-ray

Chandra
Space Telescope

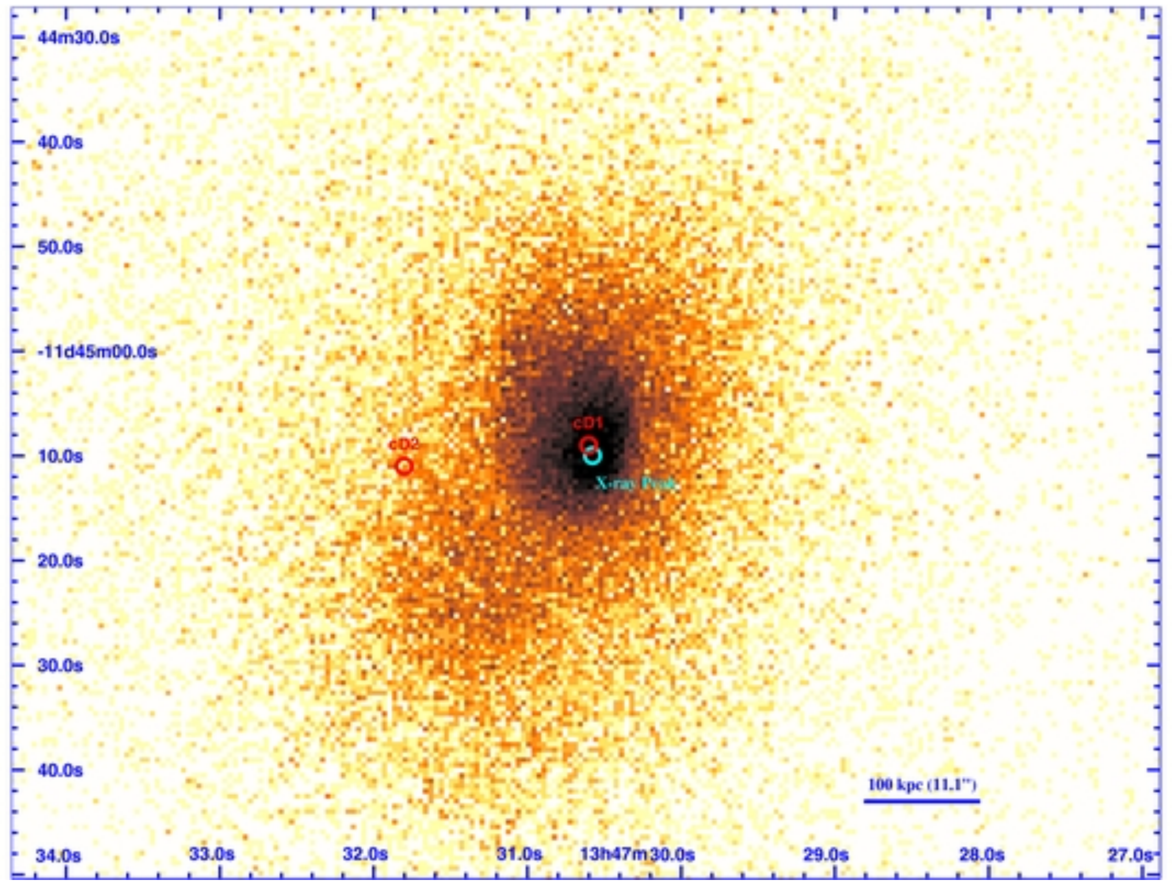


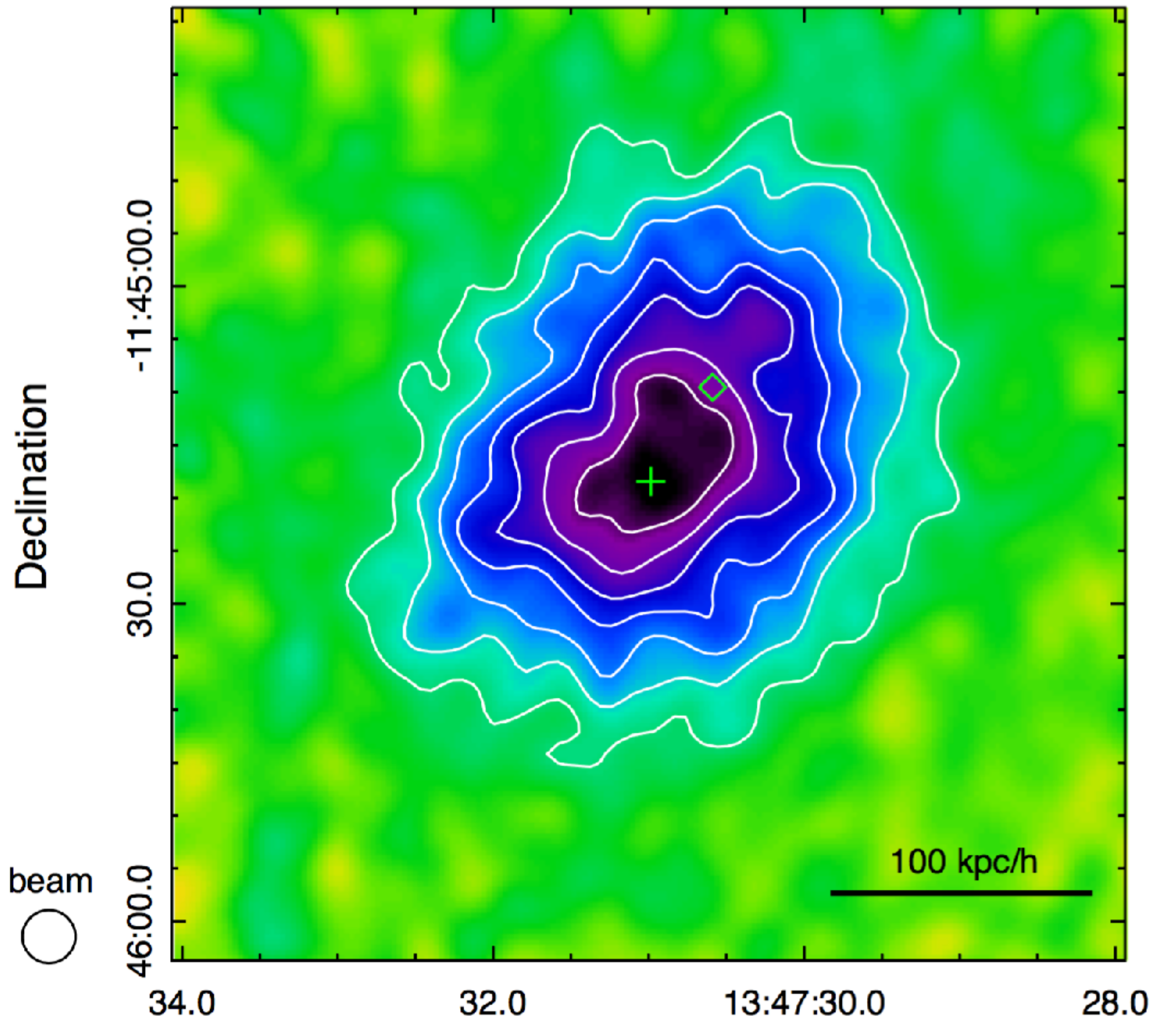
Chandra X-ray image of RXJ1347-1145
(Johnson et al. 2012)


Microwave!
Atacama Millimeter and
Submillimeter Array (ALMA)
1σ=17 μJy/beam
=120 μKCMB
5” resolution
(World record)
ALMA Band-3 Image of the
Sunyaev-Zel’dovich effect at 92 GHz
(Kitayama et al. 2016)
100 kpc/h
Declination
-11:45:00.0
30.0
6:00.0
beam
44m30.0s
27.0s

Multi-wavelength Data

$$I_X = \int dl\ n_e^2 \Lambda(T_X) \qquad I_{SZ} = g_\nu \frac{\sigma_T k_B}{m_e c^2} \int dl\ n_e T_e$$





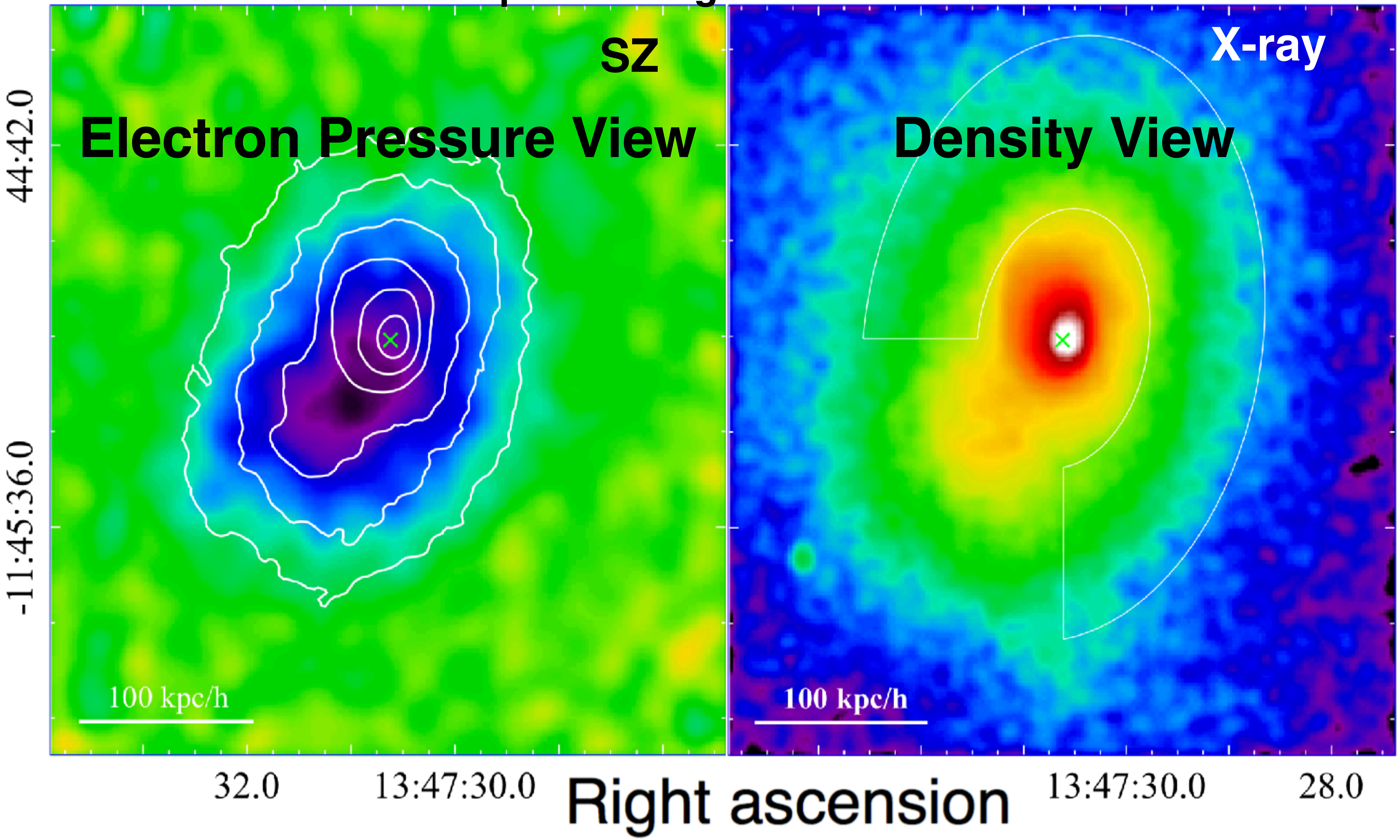
Optical:
- 10^{2-3} galaxies
- velocity dispersion
- gravitational lensing

X-ray:
- hot gas (10^{7-8} K)
- spectroscopic T_X
- Intensity ~ $n_e^2 L$

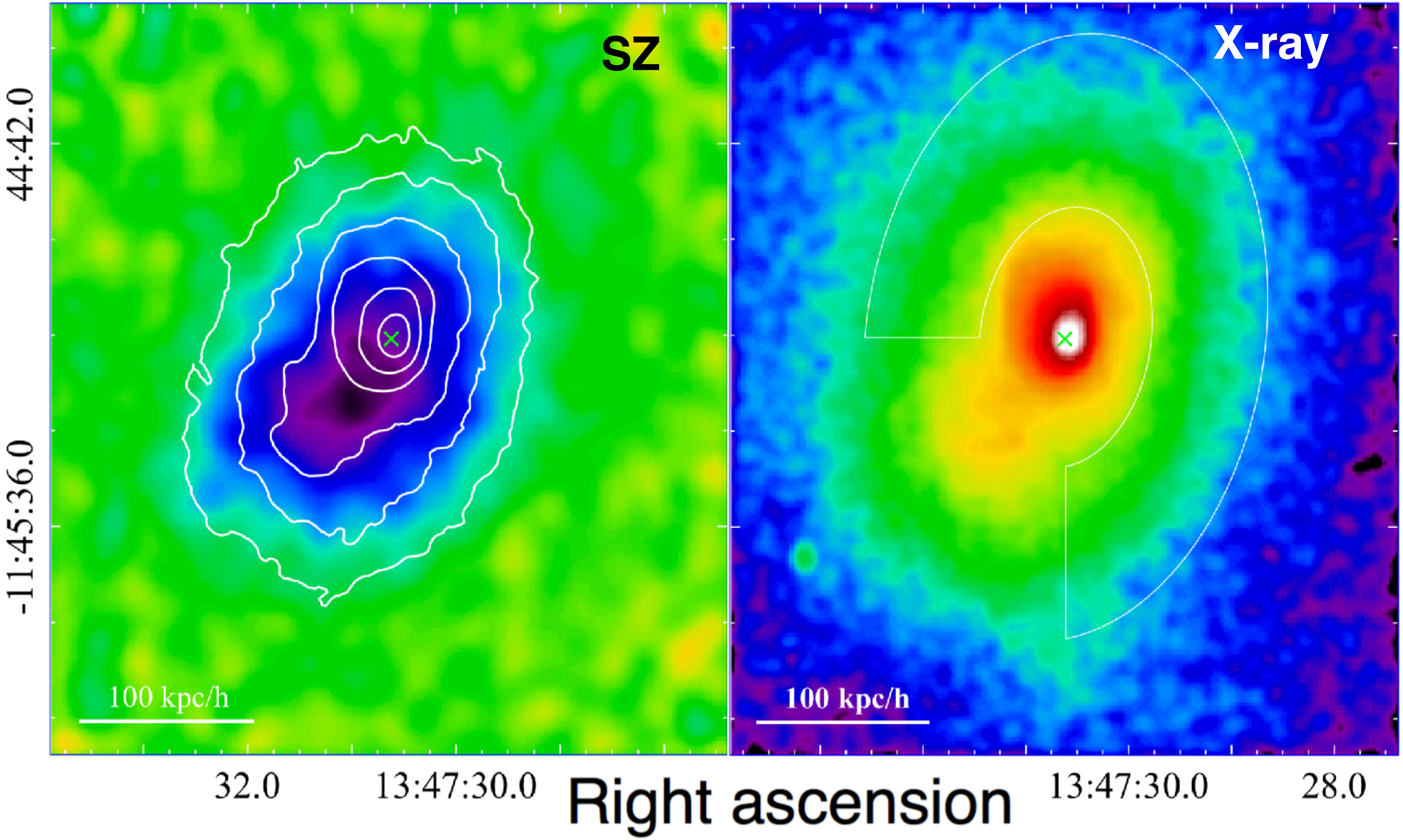
SZ [microwave]:
- hot gas (10^{7-8} K)
- electron pressure
- Intensity ~ $n_e T_e L$

They are similar, but not quite the same

This is the first time to compare SZ and X-ray images at a comparable angular resolution.

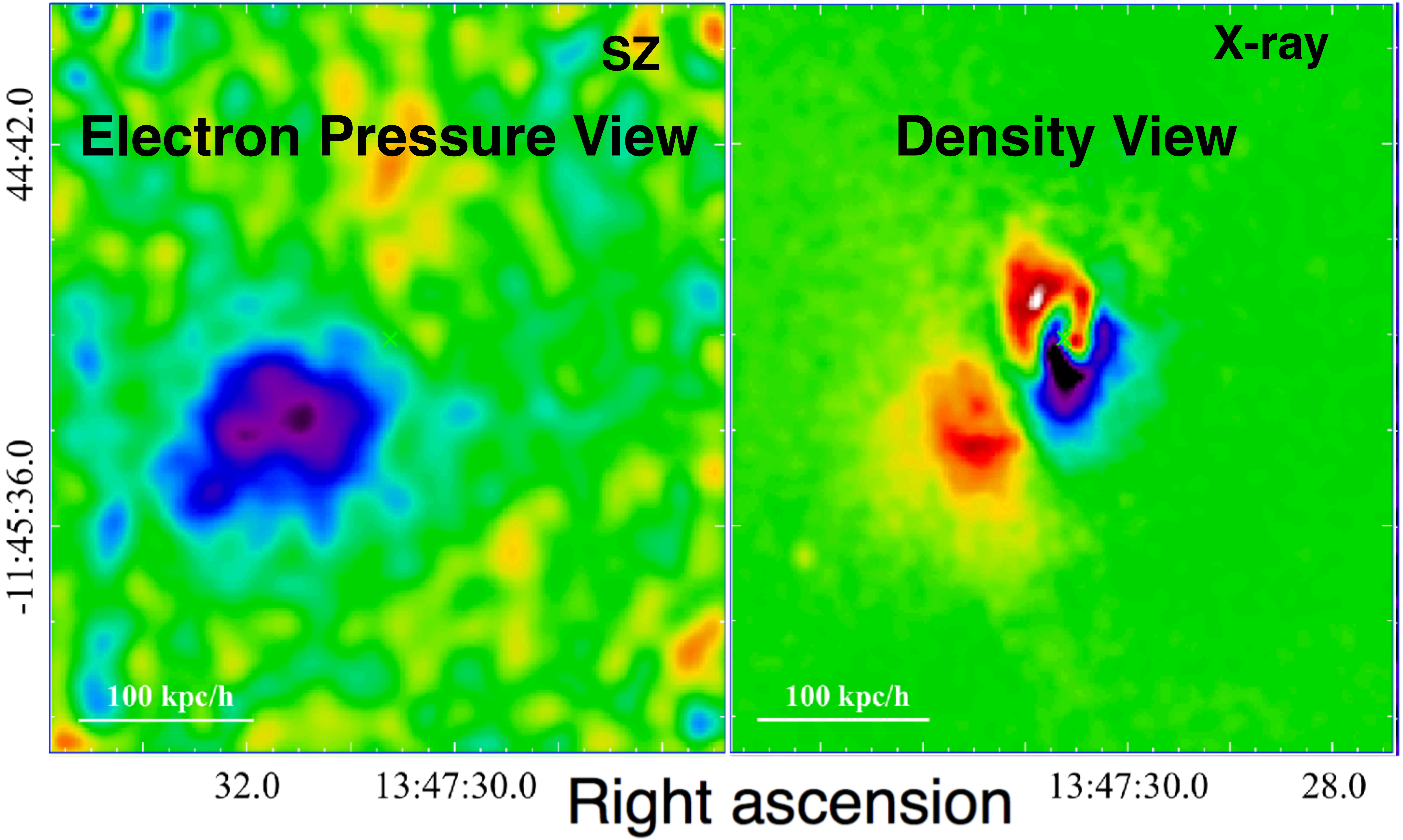


Let's subtract a smooth component



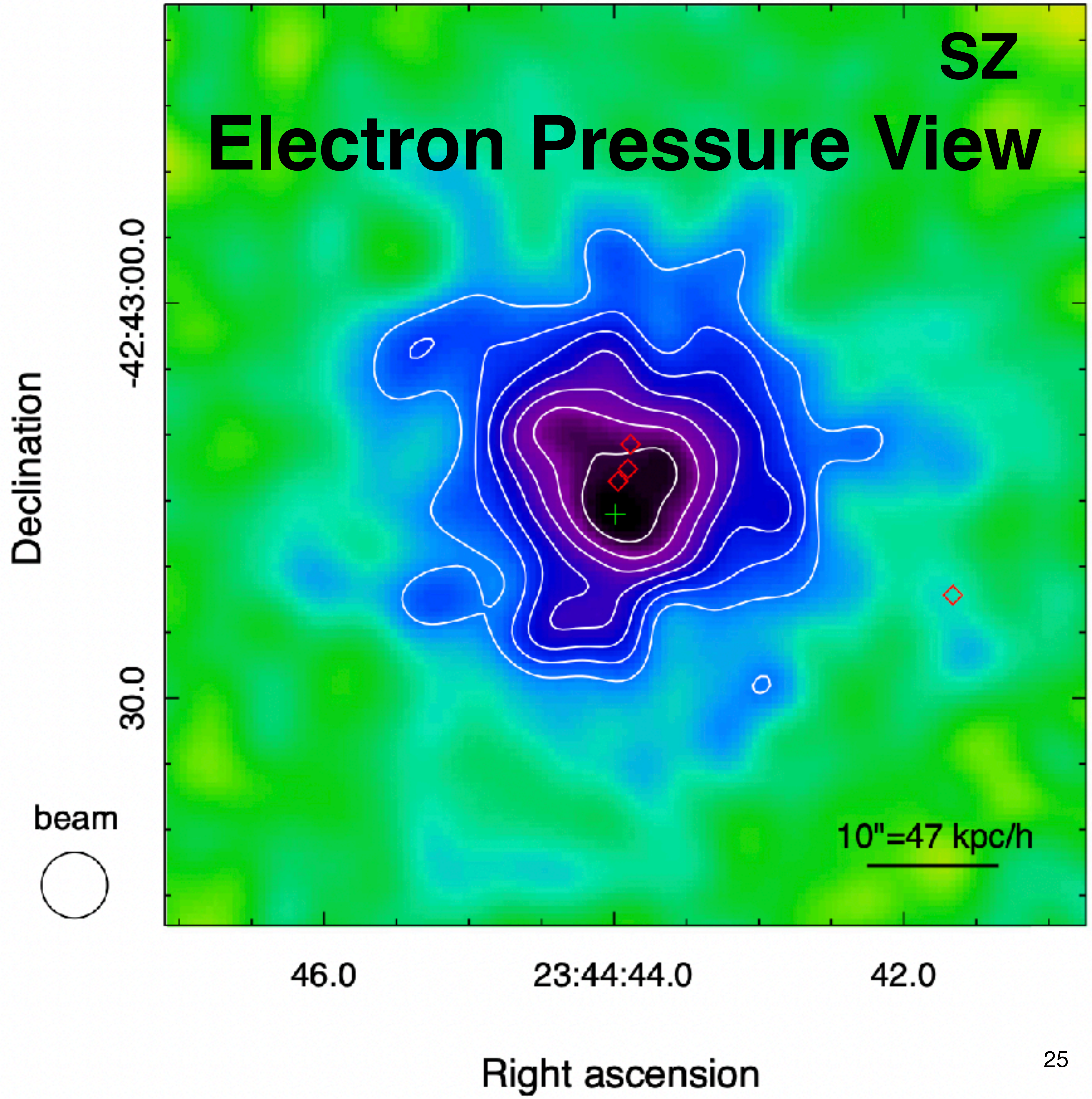
Ueda et al. (2018)

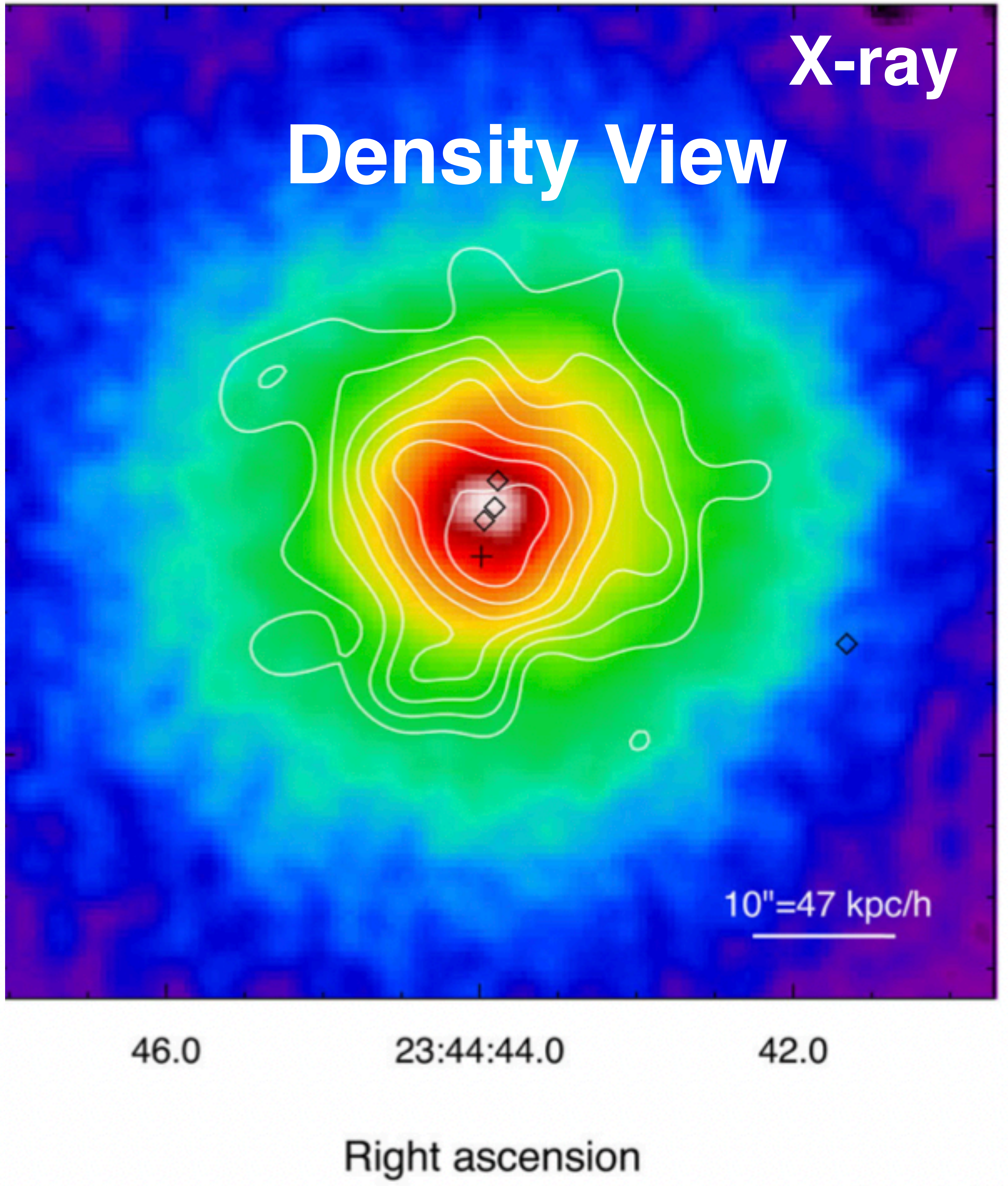
Let's subtract a smooth component



Kitayama et al. (2020)

Another example: Phoenix Cluster (z=0.597)





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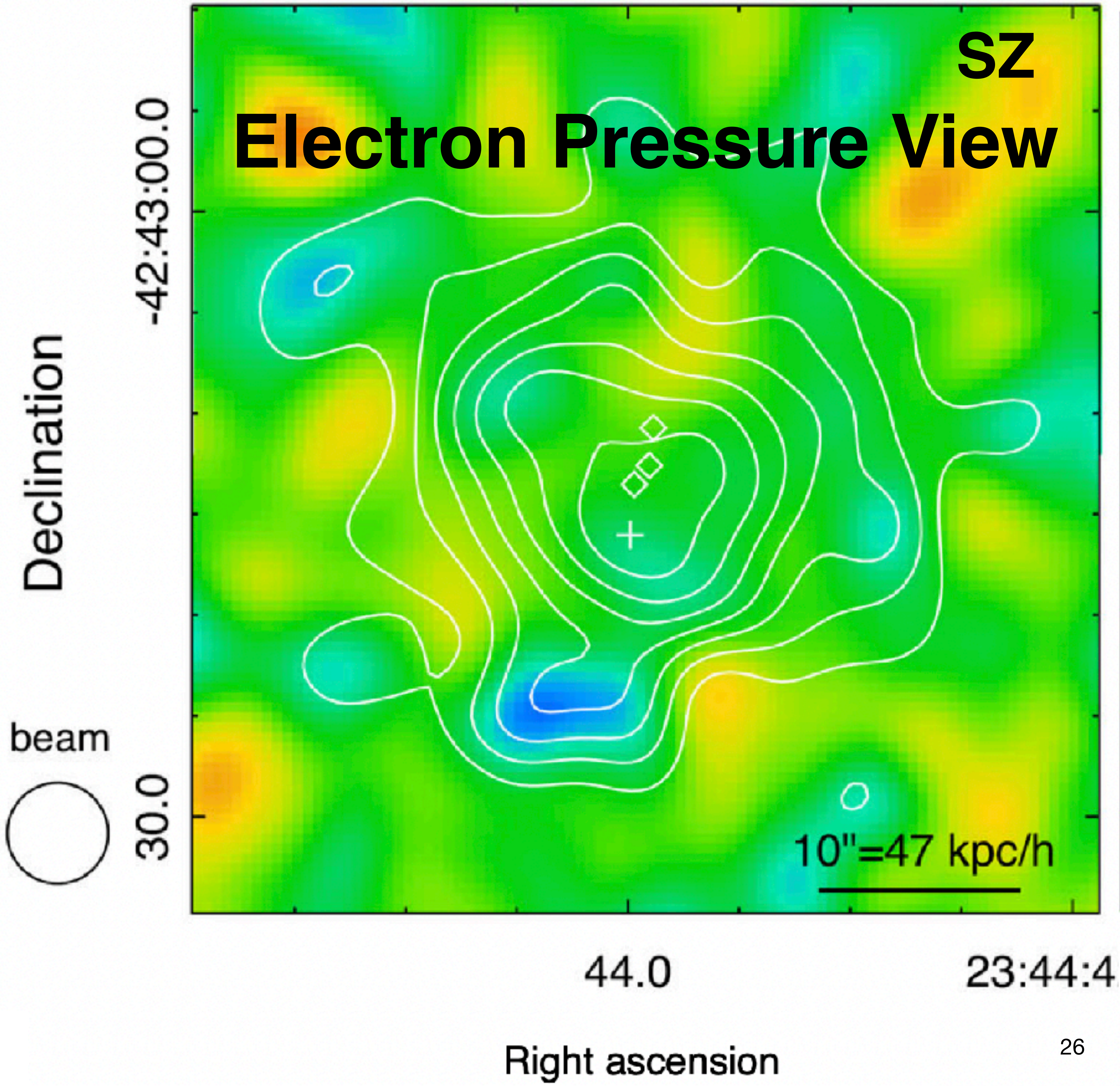
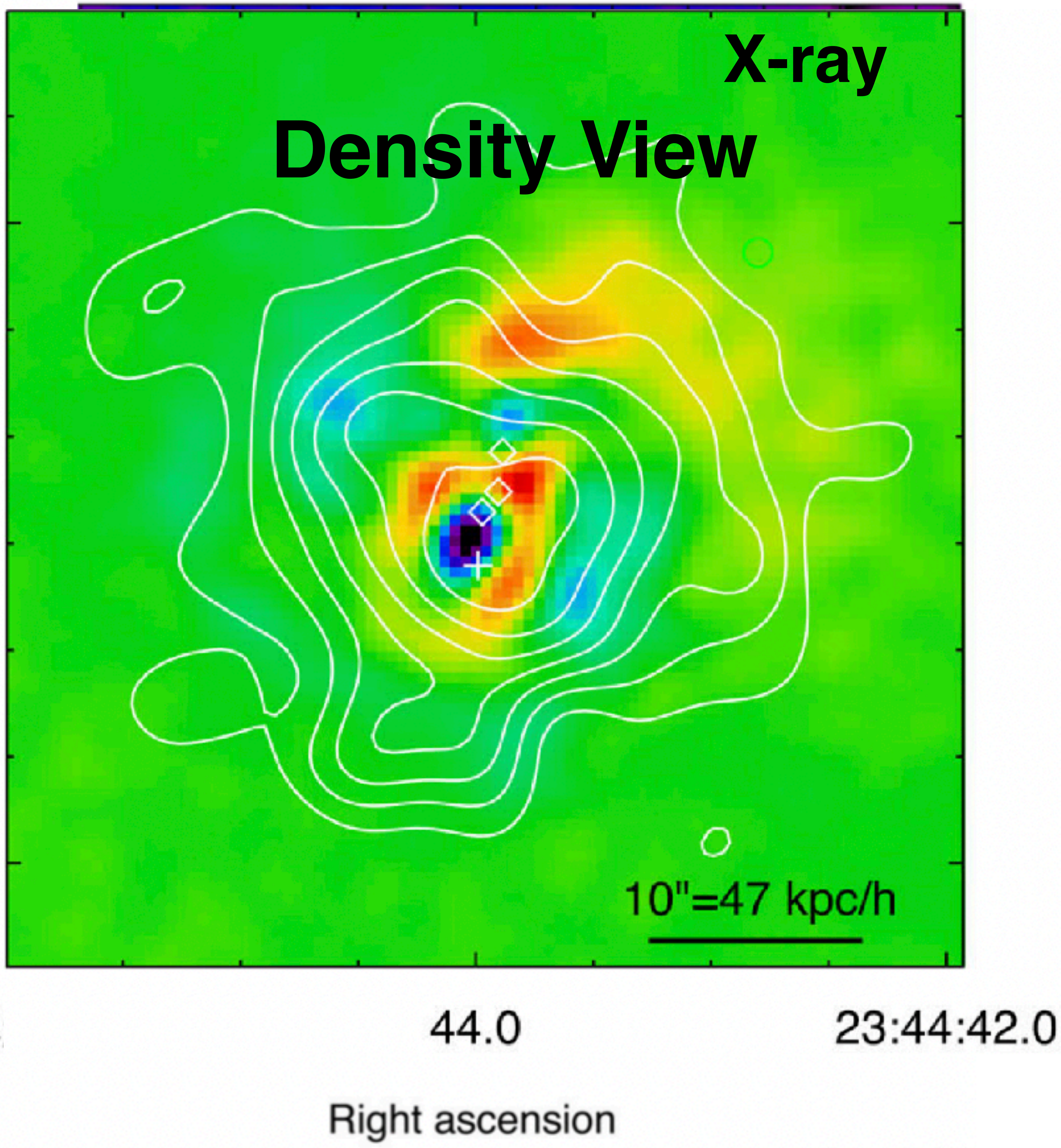
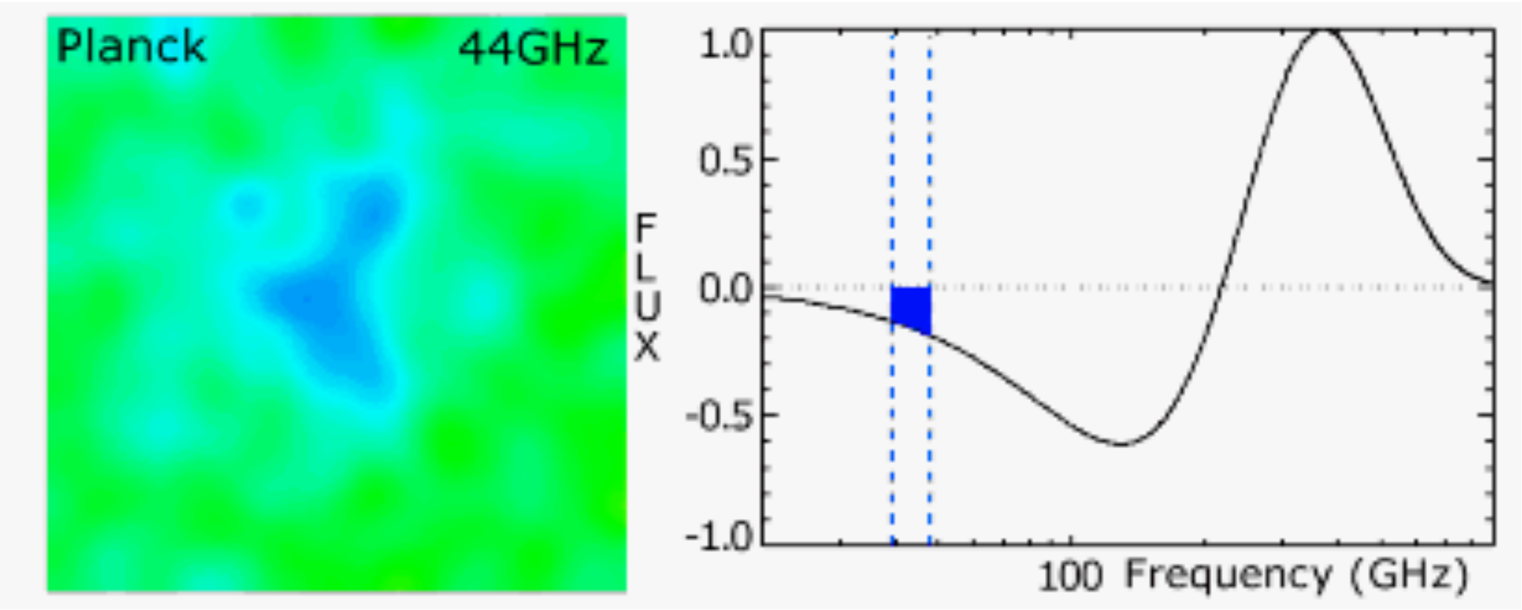




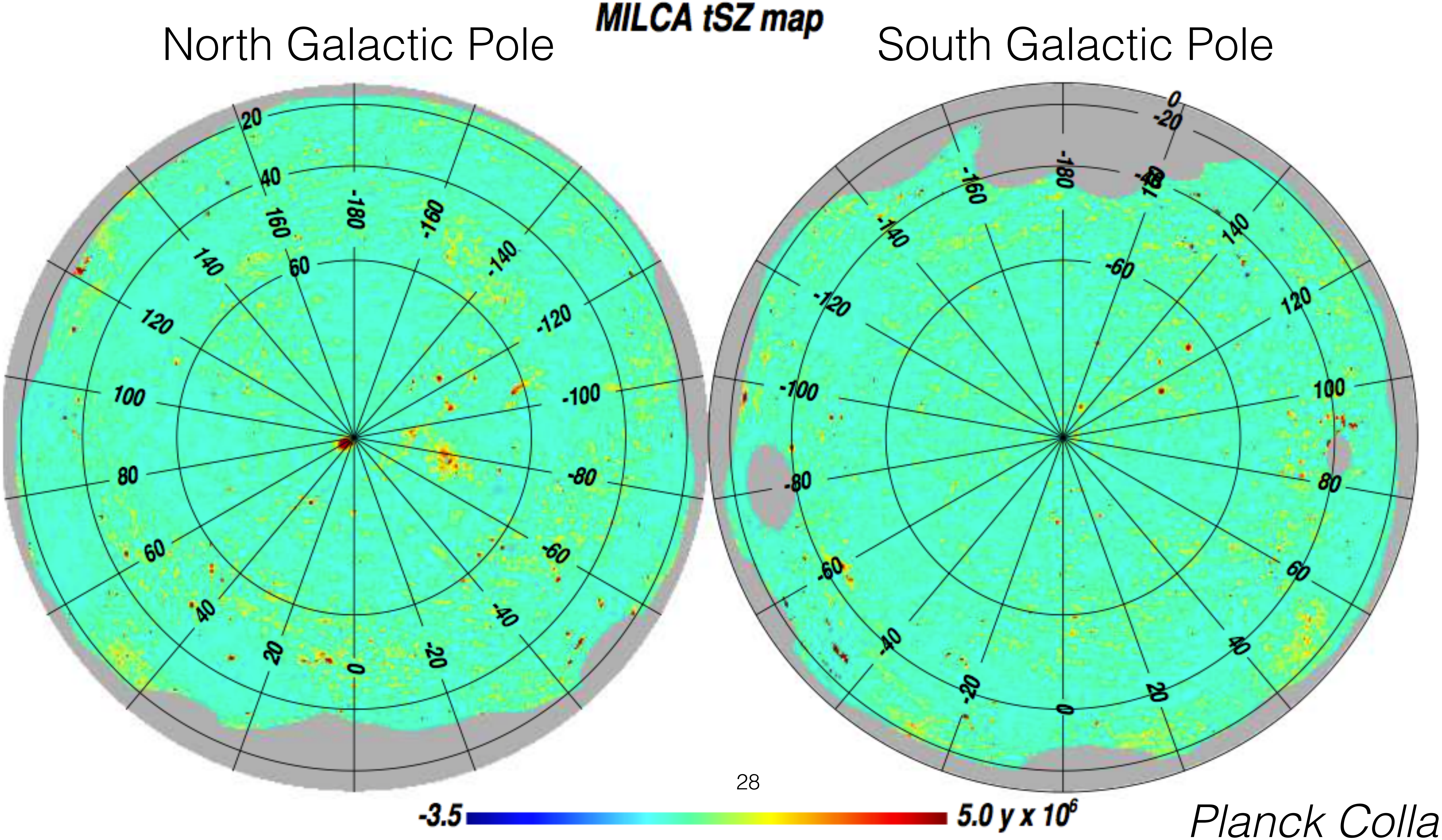
Chiang, Makiya, Ménard, EK, ApJ, 902, 56 (2020)

Q1: How hot is the large-scale structure of the Universe?

Create a full-sky SZ map using the multi-frequency data!



Full-sky Electron Pressure Map



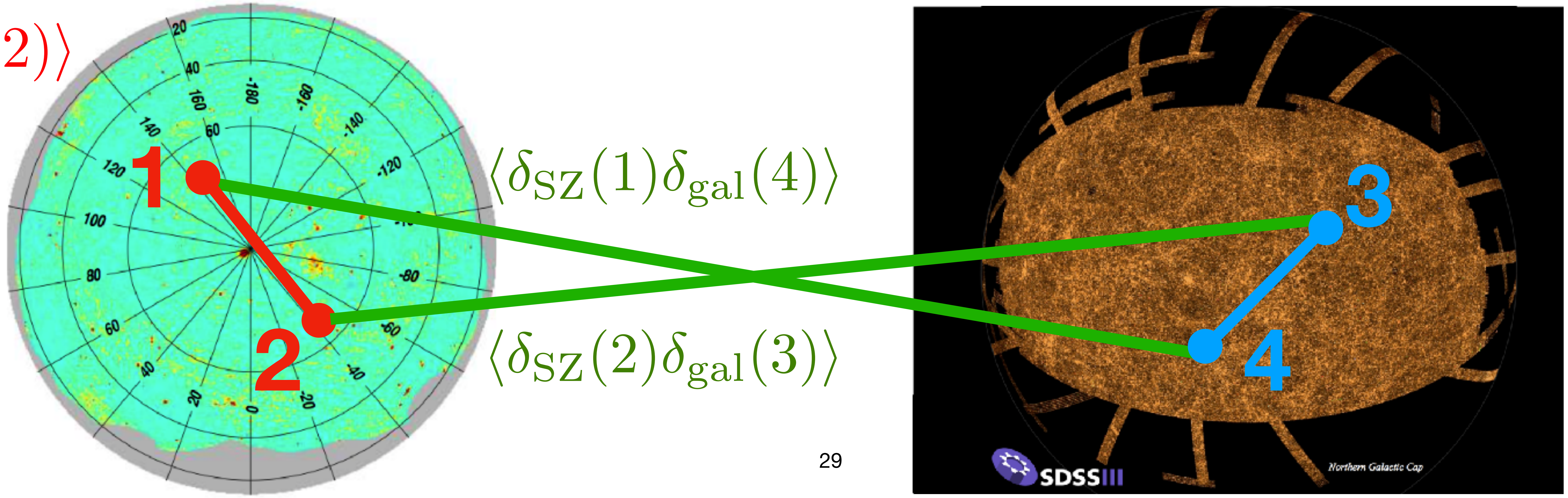
Planck Collaboration

Makiya, Ando & EK (2018)

The Limitation of the SZ data

The need for “Tomography”

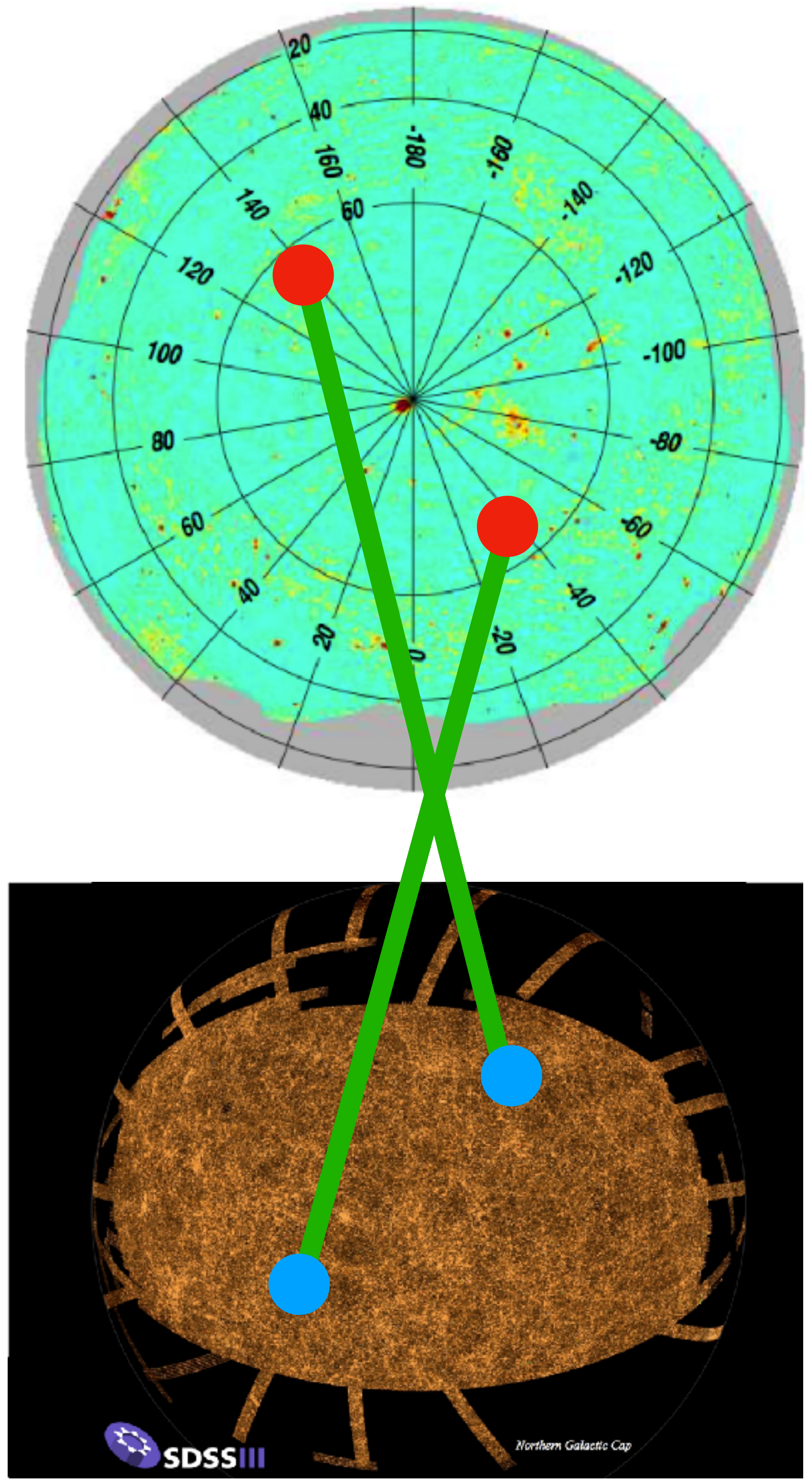
- This map gives us all the hot electron pressure **in projection**.
  - No redshift information.
- We can overcome this limitation by cross-correlating the SZ map with the locations of galaxies with the known redshifts => **the SZ tomography**.



See Chiang's versatile cross-correlation tool, "*Tomographer*": http://tomographer.org

The data used

Planck and SDSS



- **For the SZ: Multi-frequency component separation**
  - The Planck High-frequency Instrument (HFI) data at 100, 143, 217, 353, 545 and 857 GHz.
  - In addition, we use the IRAS data at 3 and 5 THz for better separating the cosmic infrared background (CIB; from dusty galaxies).
- **For the galaxies and quasars: 2 million redshifts at $0<z<3$**
  - The SDSS main, SDSS-III/BOSS, and SDSS-IV/eBOSS data sets.

The basic methodology: A heuristic description

Vikram, Lids & Jain (2017)

- We focus on the clustering signal at large scales (the so-called “2-halo term” of clustering).
    - Ignore non-linear clustering inside dark matter halos, but focus only on clustering between distinct halos.
- In this limit, we can write $P_e = \langle P_e \rangle (1+b_y \delta_{matter})$ and $n_{gal} = \langle n_{gal} \rangle (1+b_{gal} \delta_{matter})$. Thus, the cross-correlation yields

$$\frac{\langle P_\mathrm{e} n_\mathrm{gal} \rangle}{b_\mathrm{gal} \langle n_\mathrm{gal} \rangle \langle \delta_\mathrm{matter} \delta_\mathrm{matter} \rangle} = b_y \langle P_\mathrm{e} \rangle$$

What we measure from the cross-correlation

What we want in the end

Measured from the auto galaxy correlation

From the ΛCDM model

The first key deliverable

Chiang et al. (2020)

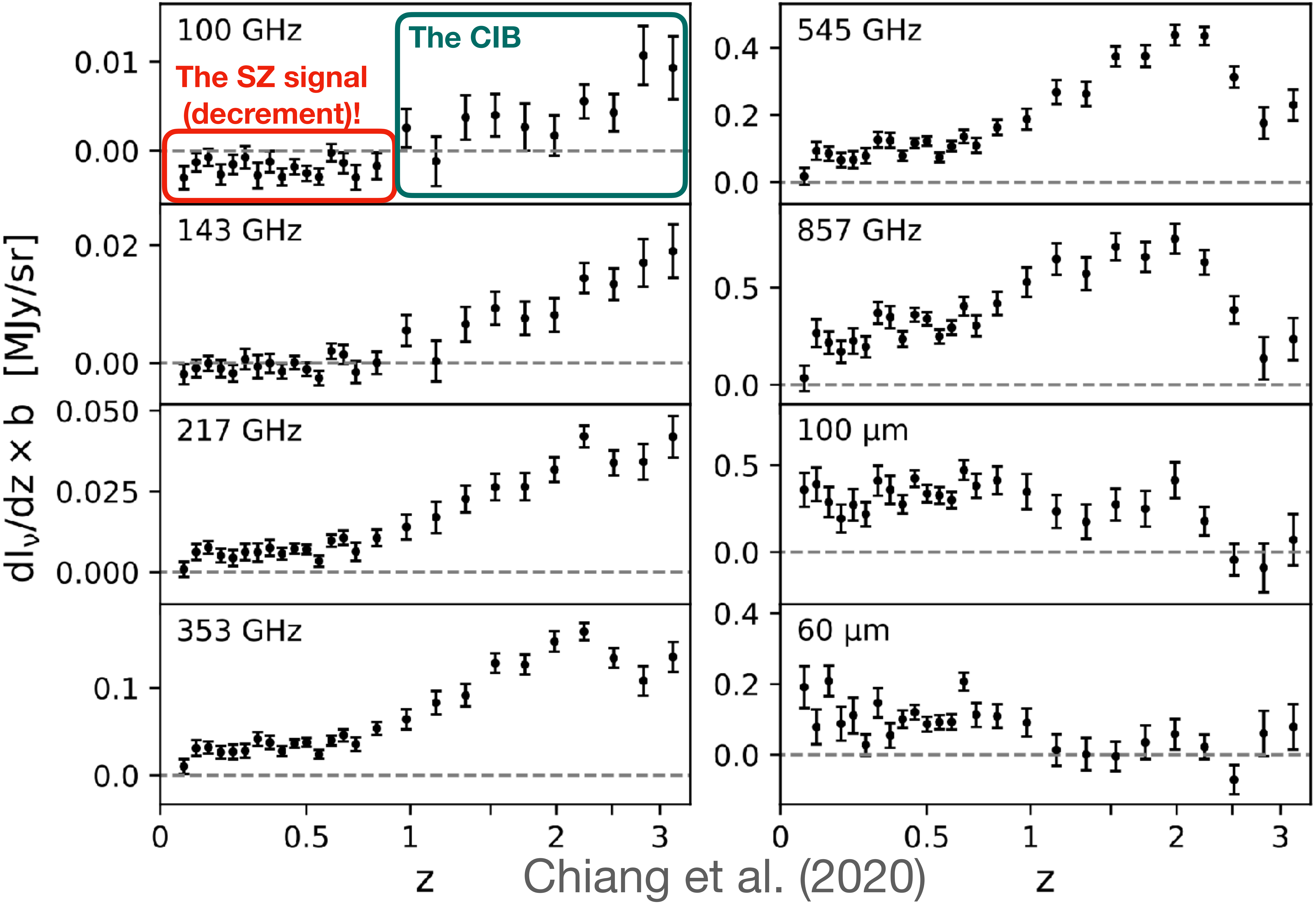
How the measurements look

To show that we are in the "linear" regime

- The data within the grey band are used for the analysis, where the ratio is a constant, justifying the extraction of the single constant amplitude in each z bin.

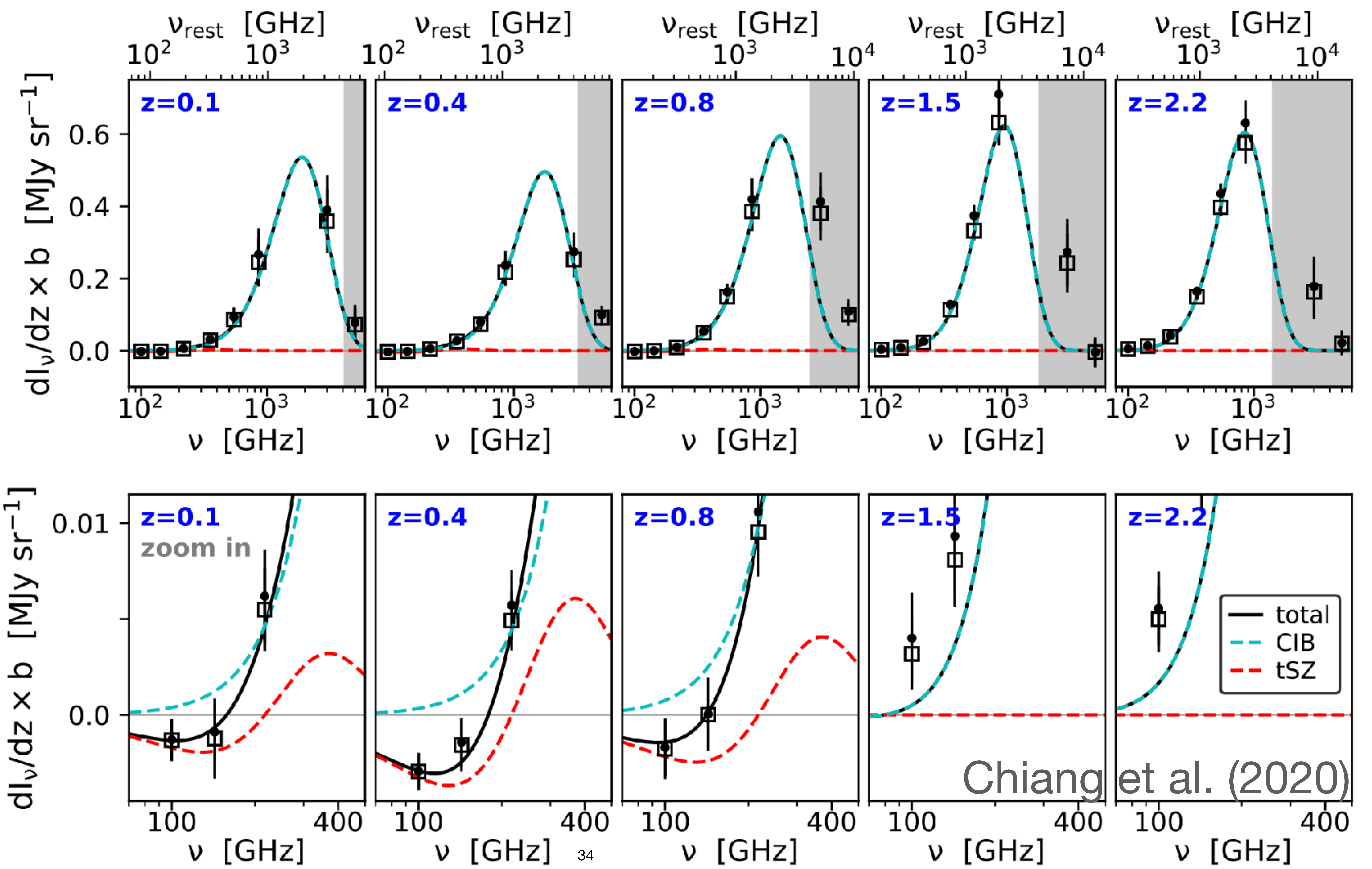
The Planck/IRAS-SDSS cross-correlations

The need for the multi-component fits (SZ+CIB).



Chiang et al. (2020)

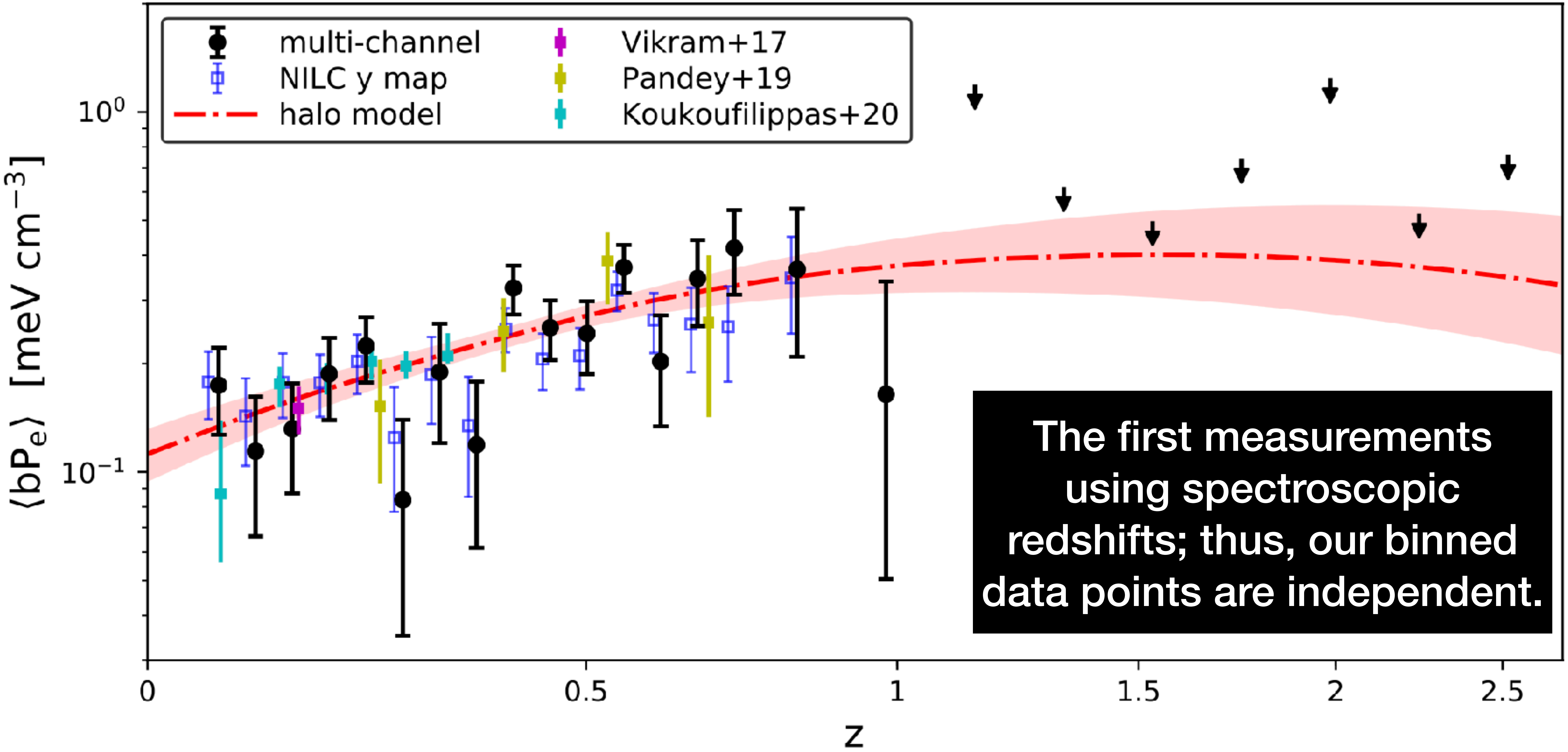
Tomography of the SED of not only SZ, but also CIB!



Chiang et al. (2020)

The first main result: Model-independent

Bias-weighted mean electron pressure of the Universe!

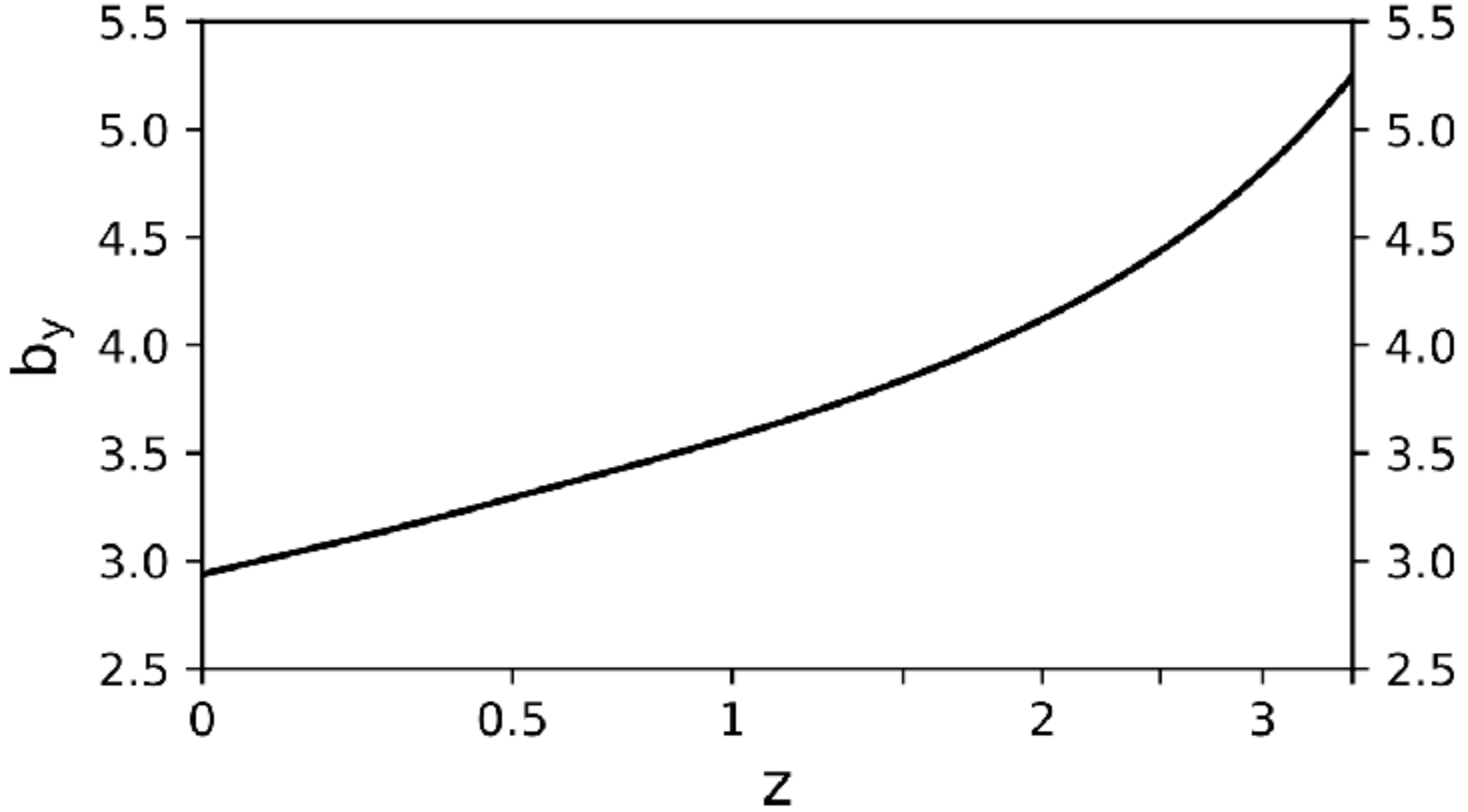


<bP$_e$> -> <P$_e$>

Debiasing by the physical model

- To get the mean pressure, we need to "de-bias" $\langle bP_e \rangle = b_y \langle P_e \rangle$. This can be done by computing and dividing by

$$b_y(z) = \frac{\langle bP_\mathrm{e} \rangle}{\langle P_\mathrm{e} \rangle} = \frac{\int dM \frac{dn}{dM} M^{5/3+\alpha_P} b_\mathrm{halo}(M,z)}{\int dM \frac{dn}{dM} M^{5/3+\alpha_P}}$$



$\alpha_P = 0.12$ is the empirical correction for non-self-similar scaling found by the X-ray data (Arnaud et al. 2010).

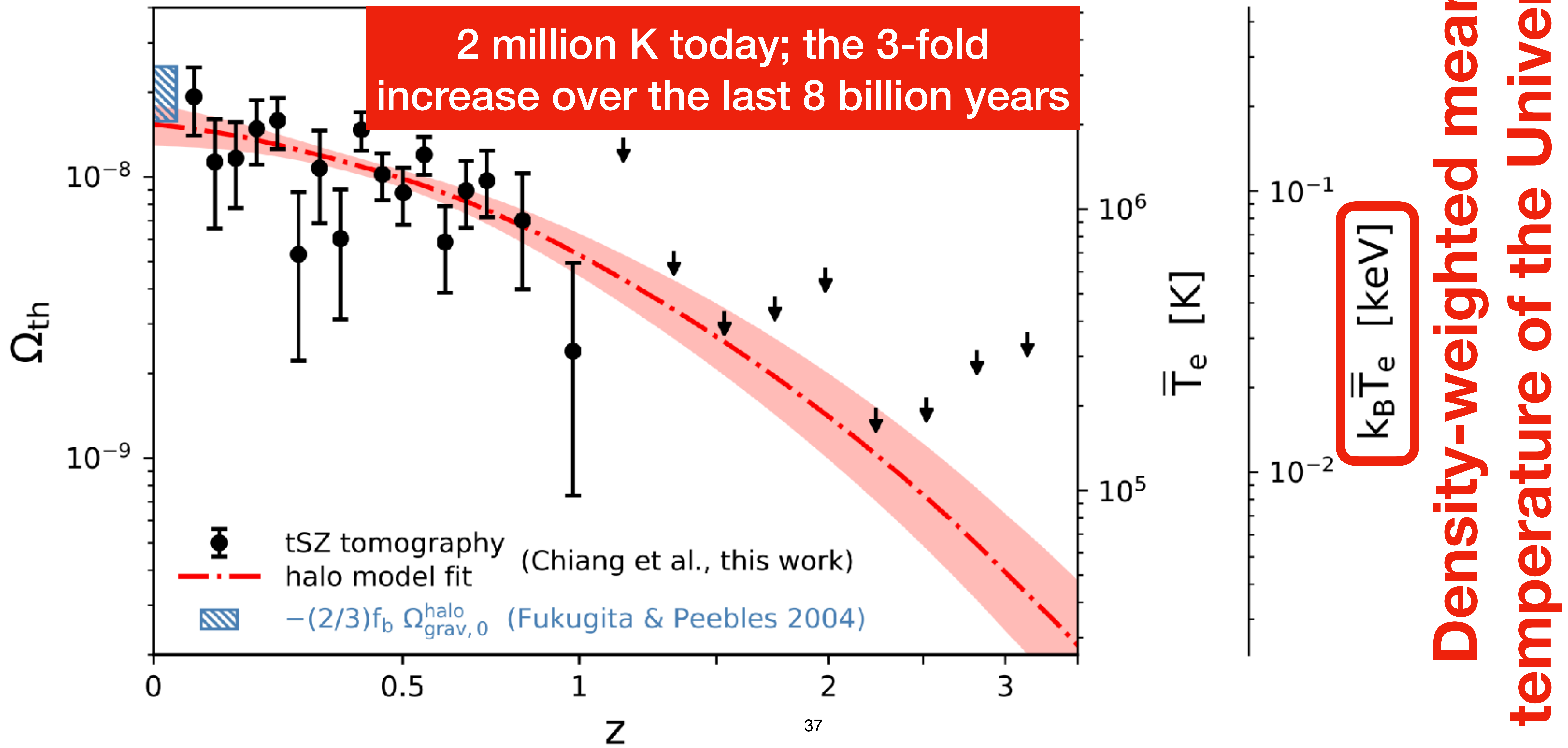
Excellent agreement with the measurement from the Magneticum Simulation (Young, EK, Dolag, in prep)

Chiang et al. (2020)

$$\Omega_{\rm th}(z) = 1.78 \times 10^{-8} \; \frac{k_{\rm B}\bar{T}_\rho(z)}{0.2\ {\rm keV}} \frac{\Omega_{\rm b}}{0.049}$$

The second main result

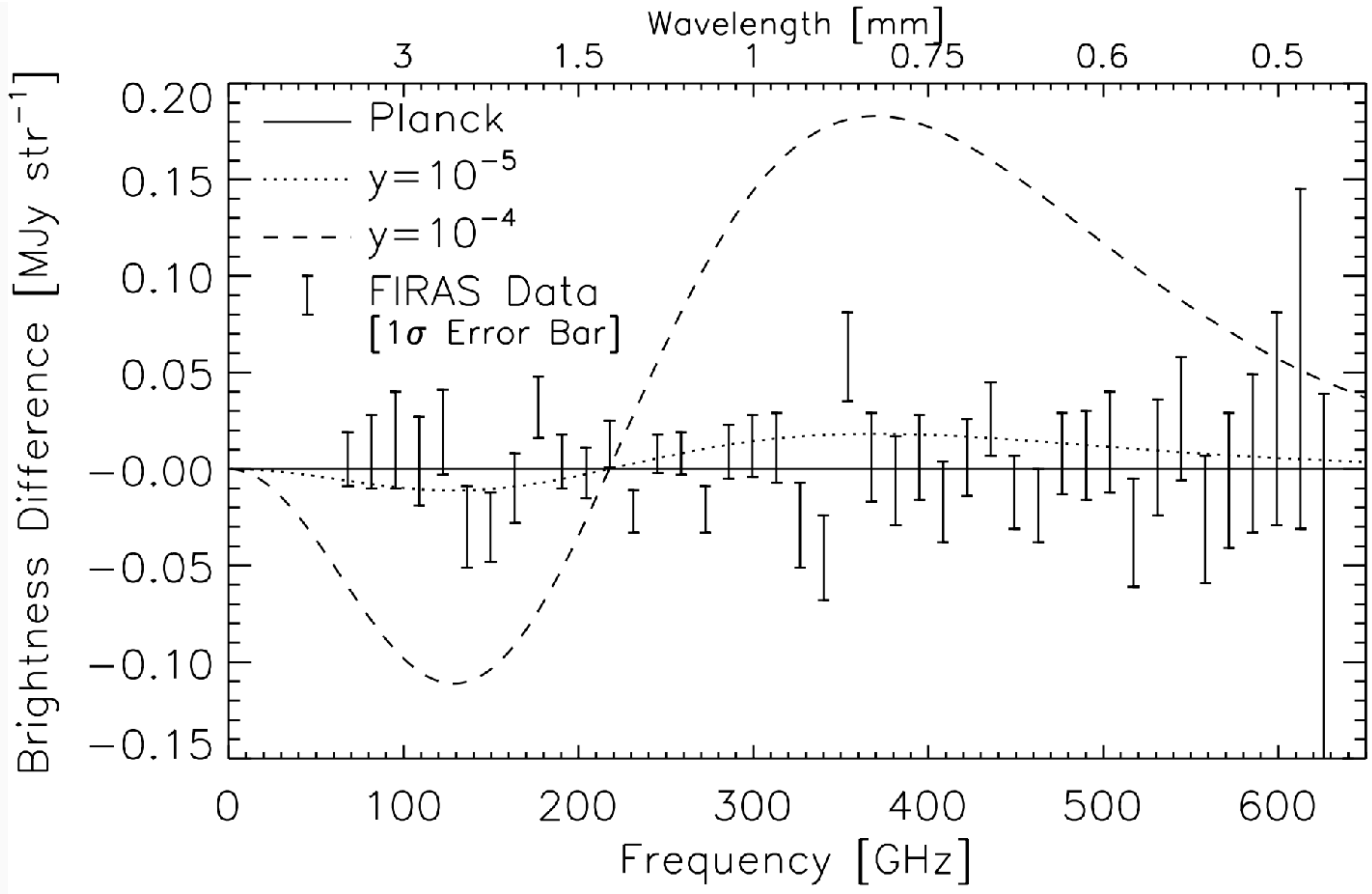
The mean thermal energy density of the Universe!



Chiang et al. (2020)

The prediction for the future space mission

The sky-averaged Compton y parameter



- Sometime in future, there will be a space mission measuring the sky-averaged (monopole) spectrum of the CMB, improving upon COBE/FIRAS by a factor of 10^{3-5}.
- Such a mission will measure the average distortion from the hot gas in the Universe.
- Our data suggest **<y>=1.2x10^{-6}**

Chiang, Makiya, EK, Ménard (2021), arXiv:2007.01679

Q2: Where did the thermal energy come from?

Of course you know the answer…

Open any textbook!

- You can find a statement like, "*As the large-scale structure forms and the matter density fluctuation collapses, the gravitational energy is converted into the thermal energy via a shock.*"
    - Yes, of course this picture is correct. However, how much do we know about this energy conversion **quantitatively**?
    - To my knowledge, no quantitative assessment of this statement has been made before.
- Our approach: We have measured Ω_{th}. We can calculate Ω_{grav} using theory of the structure formation. Let's compare the two and see if they make sense.

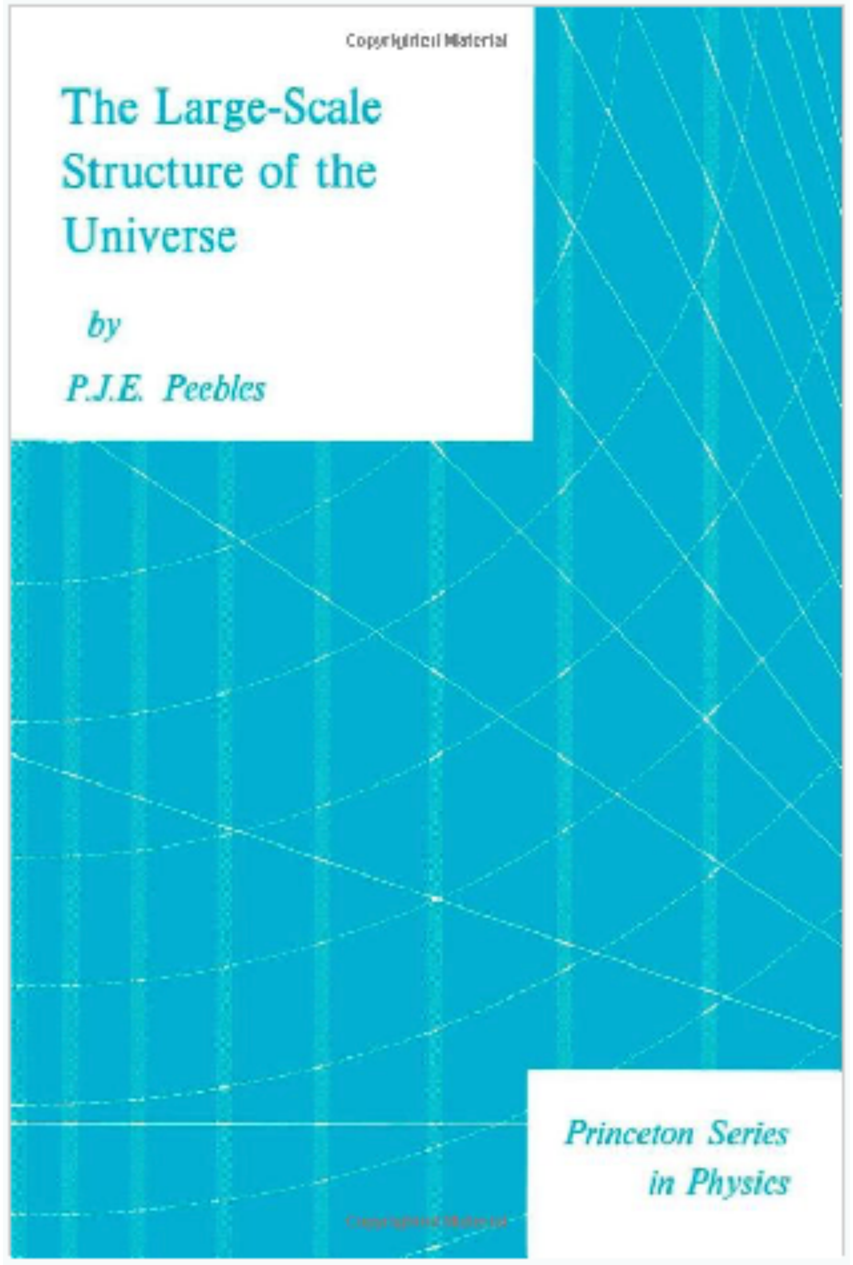
Section 9 of Peebles's Book in 1980

The "W": Gravitational potential energy per unit mass

Considering a system of mass M consisting of particles with mass m_i, such that $M = \sum_i m_i$,

$$MW = -\frac{1}{2}a^3\rho_{\rm m}(a)\int d^3x\ \delta(\mathbf{x},a)\phi(\mathbf{x},a)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2}Ga^5\rho_{\rm m}^2(a)\int d^3x\int d^3x'\ \frac{\delta(\mathbf{x},a)\delta(\mathbf{x}',a)}{|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'|}$$



- The ensemble average is given by the density-potential cross power spectrum:

$$MW = -\frac{1}{2}\rho_{\rm m0}\left(\int d^3x\right)\int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3}P_{\phi\delta}(k,a)$$

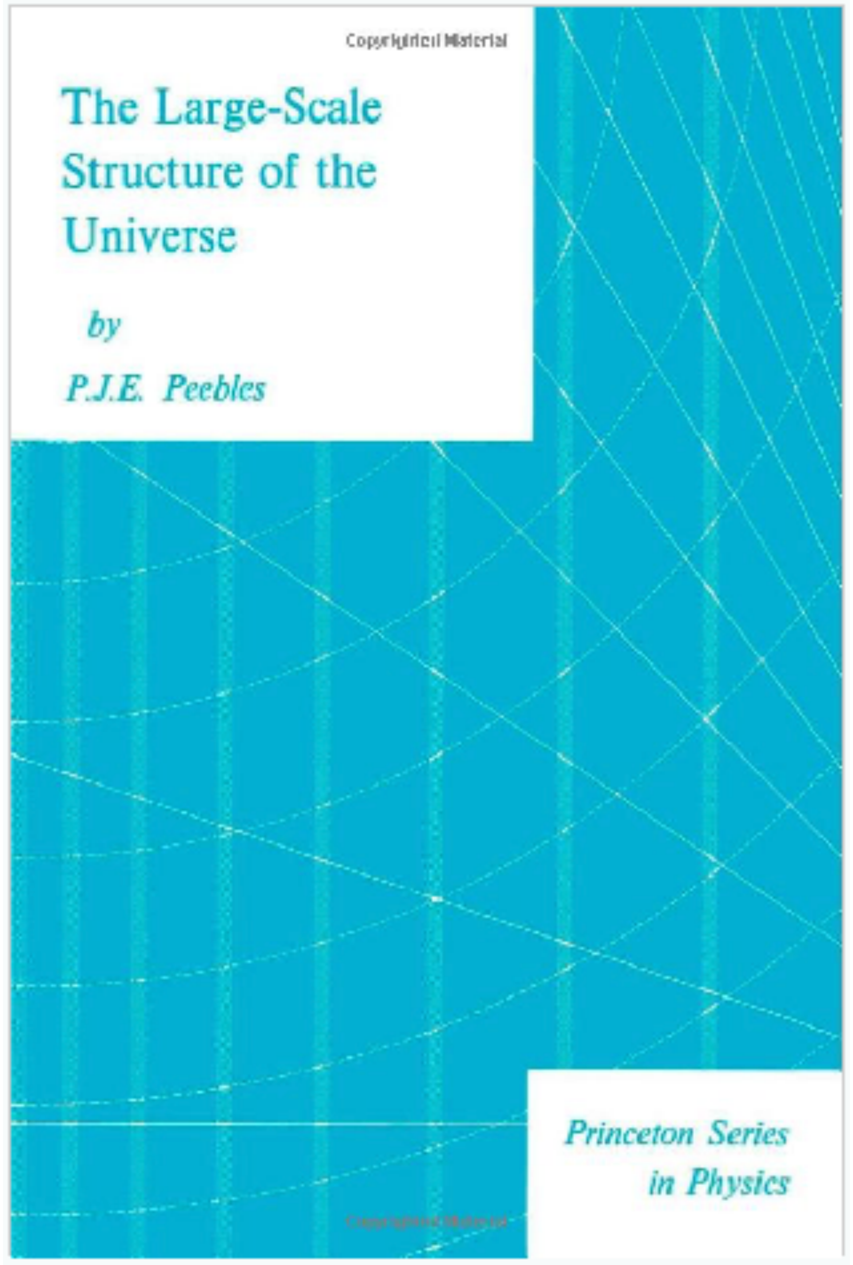
$$M = \rho_{\rm m0}\int d^3x$$

With the Poisson equation:

$$P_{\phi\delta}(k,a) = -4\pi G\frac{\rho_{\rm m0}}{a}\frac{P(k,a)}{k^2}$$

Section 9 of Peebles's Book in 1980

The "W": Gravitational potential energy per unit mass



Considering a system of mass M consisting of particles with mass m_i, such that $M = \sum_i m_i$,

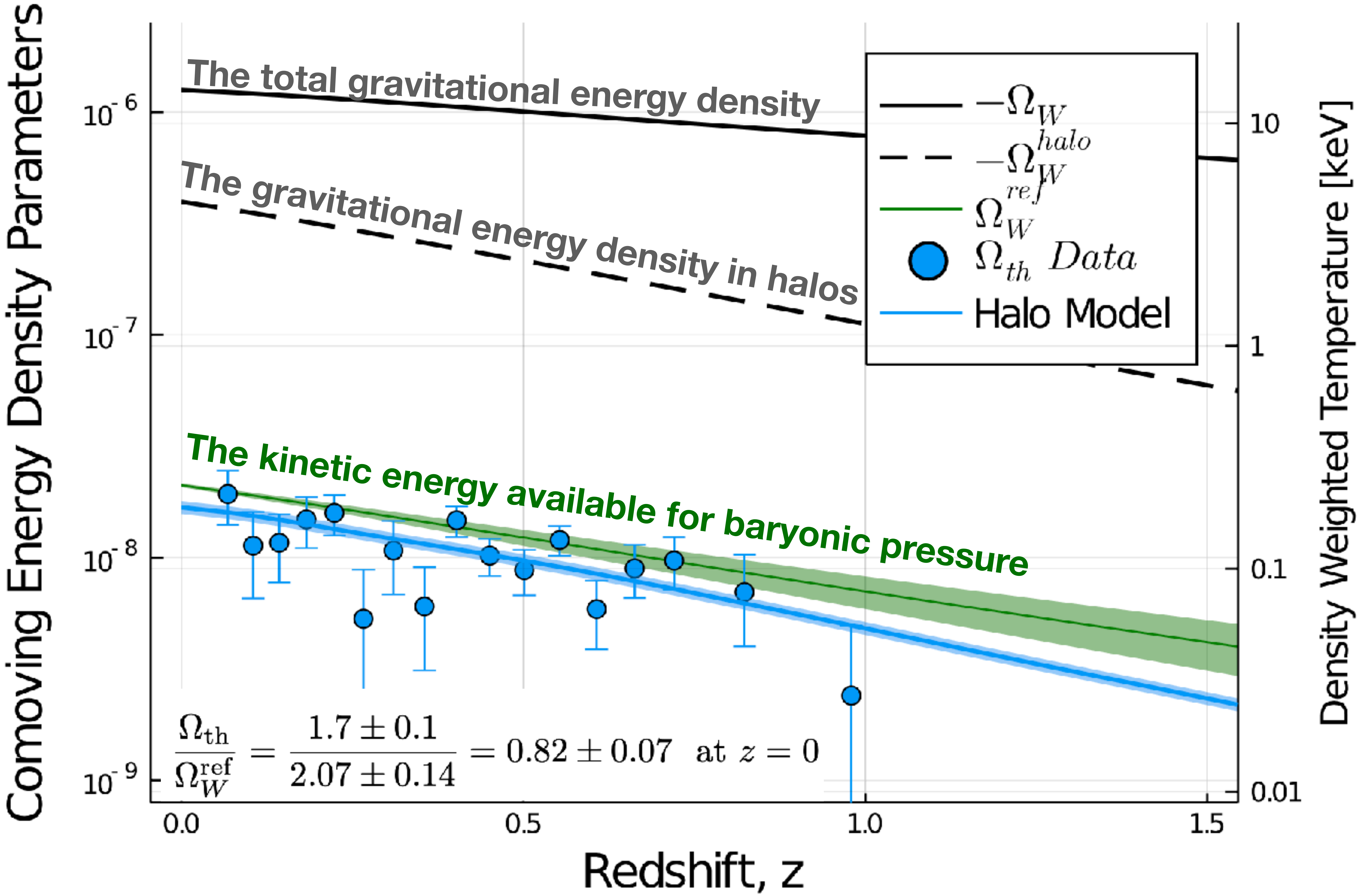
$$MW = -\frac{1}{2} a^3 \rho_{\rm m}(a) \int d^3x \; \delta(\mathbf{x}, a) \phi(\mathbf{x}, a)$$

$$W = -\frac{3\Omega_{\rm m} H_0^2}{8\pi^2 a} \int_0^\infty {\rm d}k \; P(k, a)$$

This is the exact formula for W (in the Newtonian limit).

Chiang et al. (2021), arXiv:2007.01679

The Energy Balance in the Large-scale Structure



The energy density parameter for W:

$$\Omega_W = \frac{\Omega_{\rm m}}{c^2} W$$

The halo contribution:

$$\frac{\Omega_W^{\rm halo}}{\Omega_W^{\rm tot}} \simeq 0.3 \quad \text{at } z = 0$$

Pressure available for baryons

$$\Omega_W^{\rm ref} = -\frac{1}{3} f_{\rm b}\, \Omega_W^{\rm halo}$$

Conclusion from the second part

The energy balance does work, but where is the rest of the K.E.?

- We can now make the following statement:
  - **The measured thermal energy density accounts for ~80% of the gravitational potential energy available for kinetic energy of collapsed baryons.**
  - This is the first quantitative assessment of the textbook statement on gravitational -> thermal energy conversion in the large-scale structure formation (using the observational data).
- **What is the rest (~20%)?** => Non-thermal pressure due to the mass accretion! [Shi and EK (2014); Shi et al. (2015; 2016)]
- There is a lot more (x3) kinetic energy available in the LSS beyond collapsed baryons. **Where/how can we find it?** Kinetic SZ effect?

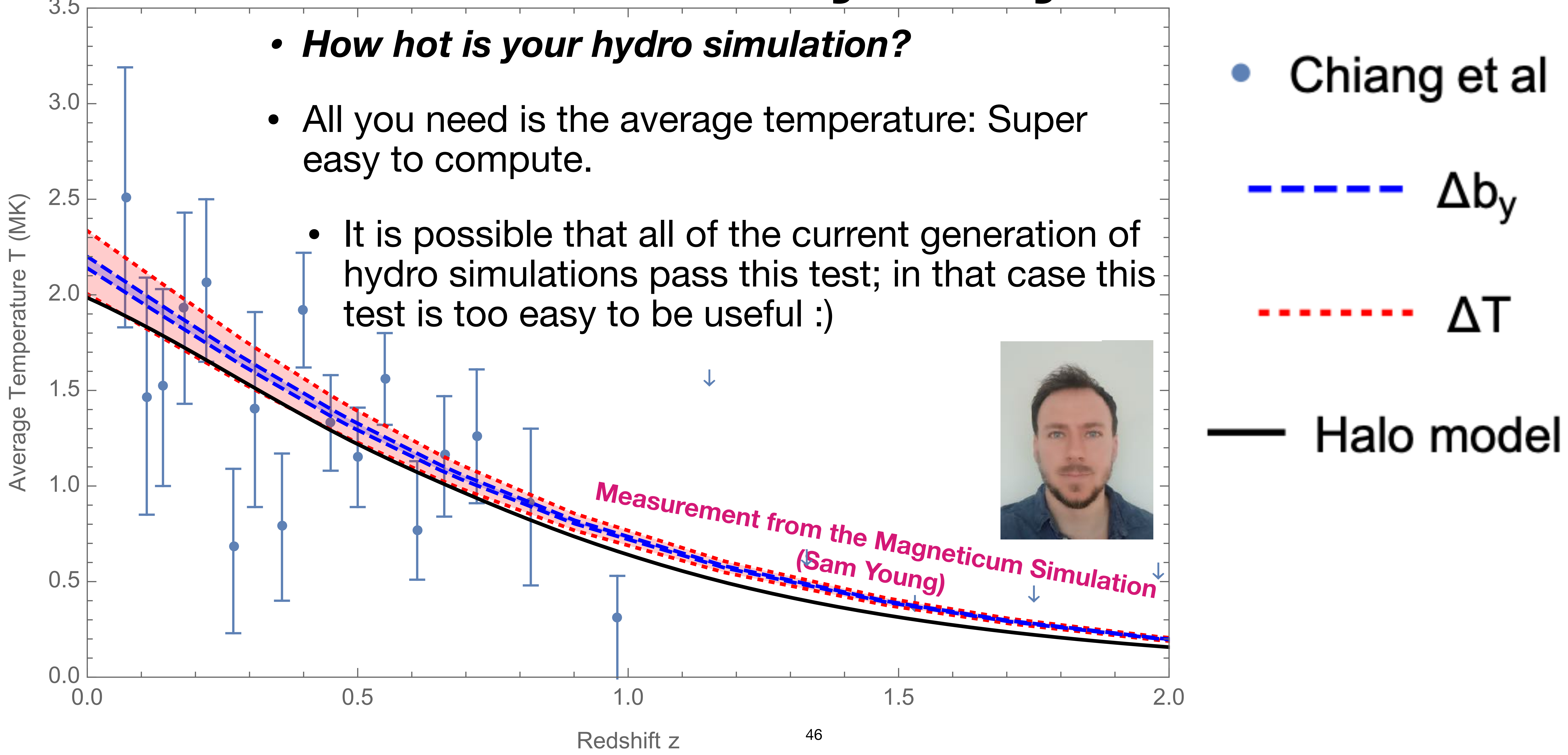
Q3: Is this good for anything?

Is this just beautiful physics, or actually useful for anyone?

Young, EK, Dolag, in preparation

"Thermometer" test of your hydro simulation

- ***How hot is your hydro simulation?***
- All you need is the average temperature: Super easy to compute.
  - It is possible that all of the current generation of hydro simulations pass this test; in that case this test is too easy to be useful :)



Conclusions

The energy balance seems to work in the Universe

- We have measured the evolution of the mean thermal energy density (equivalently the density-weighted mean temperature) of the large-scale structure of the Universe out to z~1.

  - **Personally**: This is the completion of the 20 years of homework since *Refregier, EK, Spergel, Pen (2000)*. We used Ue-Li Pen's moving mesh hydro code to predict the evolution of the density-weighted mean temperature. We finally measured this.

- Detailed comparison to the gravitational energy of the LSS shows that the thermal energy accounts for ~80% of the kinetic energy available for thermal pressure of collapsed baryons. The rest can be accounted for easily by non-thermal pressure (*Shi & EK 2014*).

- Is this good for anything? You tell us!

W to K: the mean kinetic energy per unit mass

Layzer-Irvine equation (Layzer 1963; Irvine 1961; Dmitriev & Zeldovich 1964)

- Given the knowledge of W, we can calculate the mean kinetic energy per unit mass, K, using the Layzer-Irvine equation:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(K+W)+\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(2K+W)=0$$

where K is the mean kinetic energy per unit mass, $K = \sum_i m_i v_i^2/(2\sum_i m_i)$.

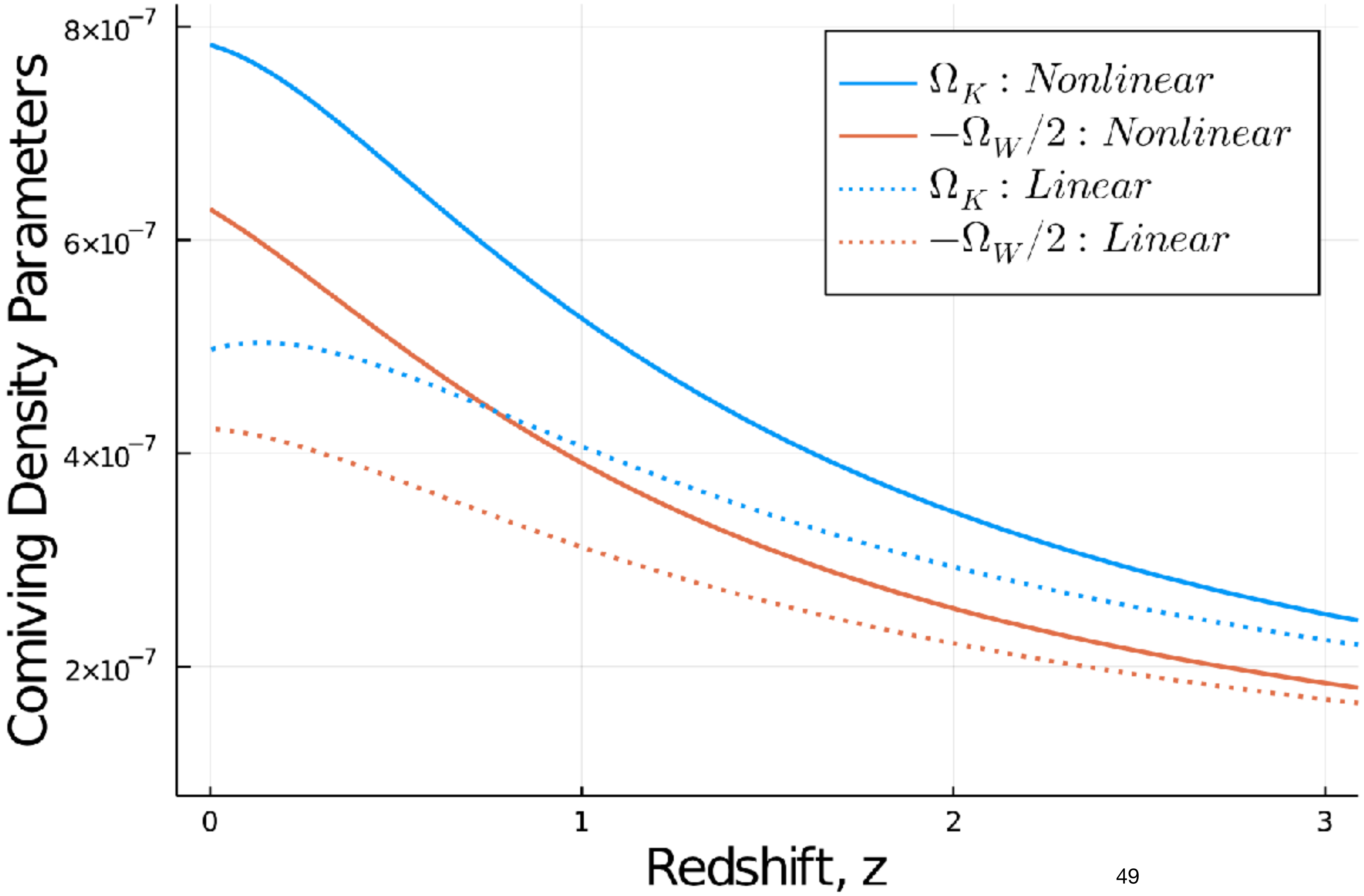
- The initial condition for K can be set using the linear theory result at sufficiently early time (Davis et al. 1997),

$$K=-\frac{2f^2}{3\Omega_{\mathrm{m}}(a)}W$$

where $f \equiv \mathrm{d}\ln\delta_1/\mathrm{d}\ln a$ with the linear density contrast δ_1 and $\Omega_{\mathrm{m}}(a) = \Omega_{\mathrm{m}}/[a^3E^2(a)]$ is the matter density parameter at a given a.

W to K: The Result

More kinetic energy is available than the virial theorem K = –W/2



- This result captures the kinetic energy of all structures.
- Here, we do not separate random and bulk motion of collapsed and non-collapsed structures, respectively.
- For comparison to the thermal energy, we used the virial relationship, K = –W/2.