

Title: Looking for non-dark matter: Sunyaev-Zeldovich-gravitational-lensing cross correlations

Date: Mar 10, 2015 11:00 AM

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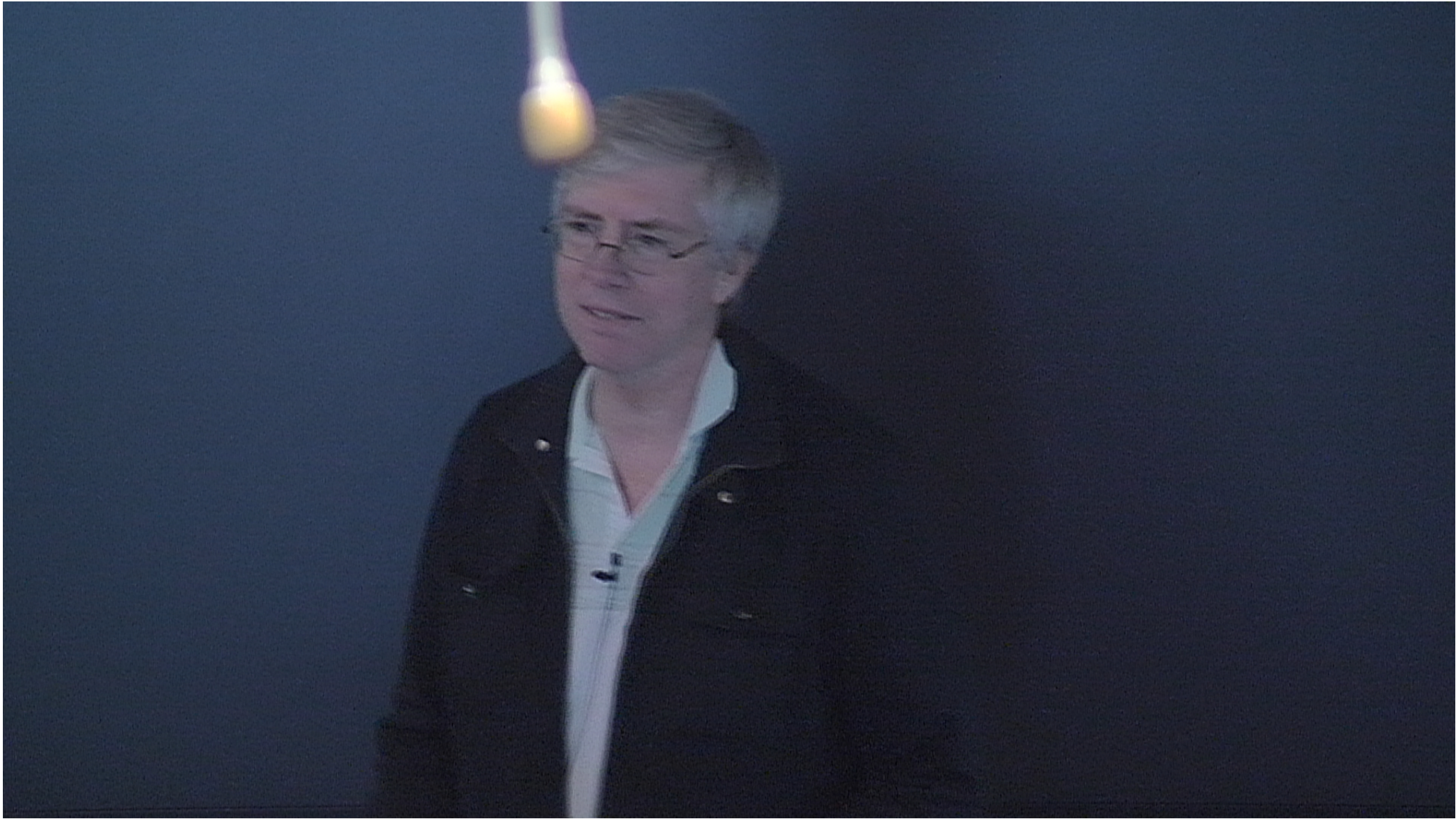
Abstract: <p>Visible matter consists mostly of hydrogen and helium, only a small fraction
of which is in stars. Until recently, the bulk of the gas in the local
universe was in fact not seen. In the largest structures, massive galaxy
clusters, the gas is seen via its x-ray emission, but in the much more
numerous groups and isolated galaxies, it has not been possible to detect
it. I will describe how, in the last year or so, the situation has changed,
with the detection of a cross-correlation between the thermal SZ effect and
lensing maps, and through the stacking of SZ images at the locations of
galaxies. These and similar techniques will tell us about the physics by
which stars and massive black holes heat and move gas in and around the
halos of galaxies and cluster, and will allow for tighter constraints on the
value of the primordial power spectrum (σ_8).</p>



Looking for non-Dark Matter

Sunyaev-Zeldovich-gravitational-lensing cross correlations

Nick Battaglia, Colin Hill, Ludo van Waerbeke, Gary Hinshaw



Looking for non-dark matter

- Astronomers and (especially) cosmologists believe in dark matter
 - We can look outside and see luminous matter
 - But the luminous matter we see around galaxies doesn't add up—there is a “missing baryon”
- Does Λ CDM really work?
- Simulations
- Observations of both dark and baryonic matter
- Constraints on cosmological parameters: σ_8

Cold dark matter, the structure of galactic haloes and the origin of the Hubble sequence

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A popular theory for galaxy formation holds that the Universe is dominated by exotic particles such as axions, photinos or gravitinos (collectively known as cold dark matter, CDM)¹⁻³. This hypothesis can reconcile the aesthetically pleasing idea of a flat universe with the standard theory of primordial nucleosynthesis and with upper limits on anisotropies in the cosmic microwave background⁴⁻⁶. The resulting model is consistent with the observed dynamics of galaxy clustering only if galaxy formation is biased towards high-density regions^{7,8}. We have shown that such a biased model successfully matches the distribution of galaxies on megaparsec (Mpc) scales⁹. If it is to be viable, it must also account for the structure of individual galaxies and their haloes. Here we describe a simulation of a flat CDM universe which can resolve structures of comparable scale to the luminous parts of galaxies. We find that such a universe produces objects with the abundance and characteristic properties inferred for galaxy haloes. Our results imply that merging plays an important part in galaxy formation and suggest a possible explanation for the Hubble sequence.

The morphology of most galaxies can be represented as a superposition of a rotationally supported disk and an ellipsoidal stellar system. The Hubble sequence classifies galaxies according to the relative importance of these components. Spiral bulges and faint ellipticals show substantial rotation, but most bright ellipticals rotate slowly¹⁰. Further, ellipticals are found preferentially in regions of high galaxy density whereas spirals avoid such regions¹¹. Spirals are surrounded by unseen massive haloes which are responsible for the flat rotation curves of their outer disks¹²; little is known about the mass distribution surrounding ellipticals. These systematic properties of galaxies and the associated characteristic scales are the least that any theory of galaxy formation should explain. Below we show that, at this level, a flat CDM universe provides an attractive arena for galaxy formation.

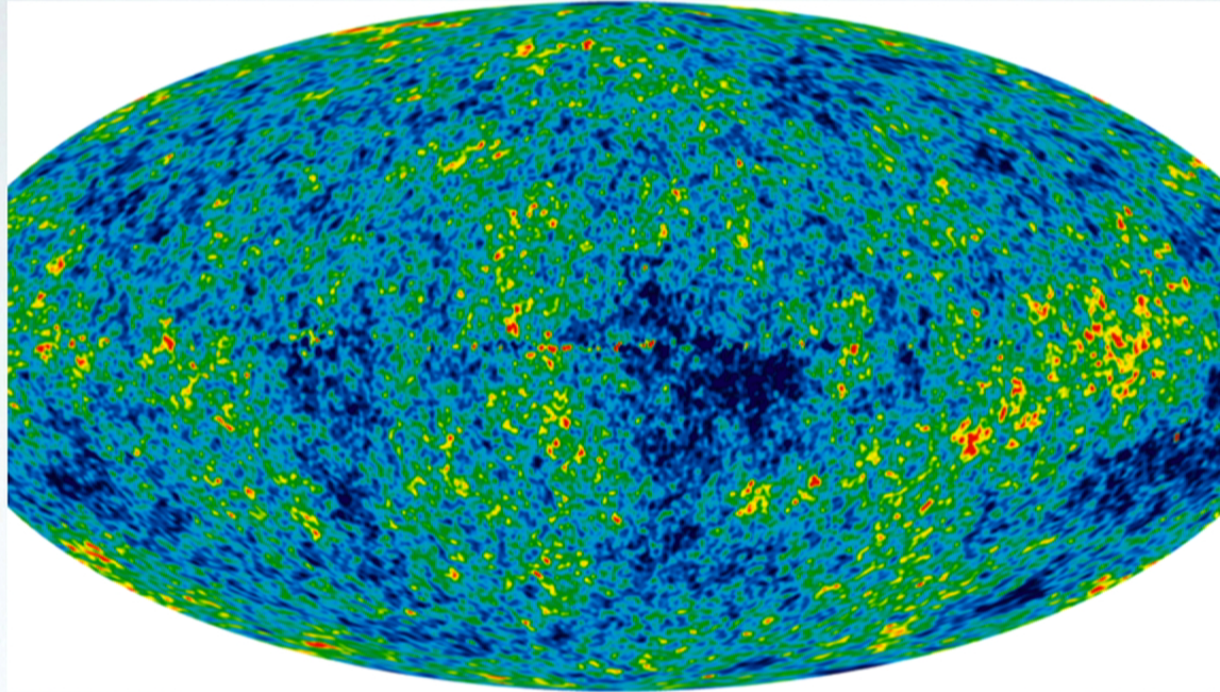
are no further free adjustable parameters. The model contains 2×10^5 particles. In the real Universe, on average, about 2 galaxies brighter than M33. Our code works correctly on scales larger than this resolution limit corresponds to the end of the calculation.

The left-hand panels of Fig. 1 show the evolution of structure in our model. By a time when circular speeds exceeding high peaks of the initial linear growth rate, circular speeds $> 200 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. The most centrally concentrated. Between 0.5 and 1.0, most of them remain isolated and stable, while others merge into larger structures. The evolution of three large clusters is shown in sequence of mergers, another cluster is shown merging at the end of the simulation. The inner regions are relatively smooth and significantly triaxial, while the outer regions effectively erased the structure of the large asymmetries present in the initial distribution of the angular momentum investment. The inner regions subclumps to outlying material. For example, the most bound 20% of the cluster loses 70% of its angular momentum between a redshift of 1 and the present day.

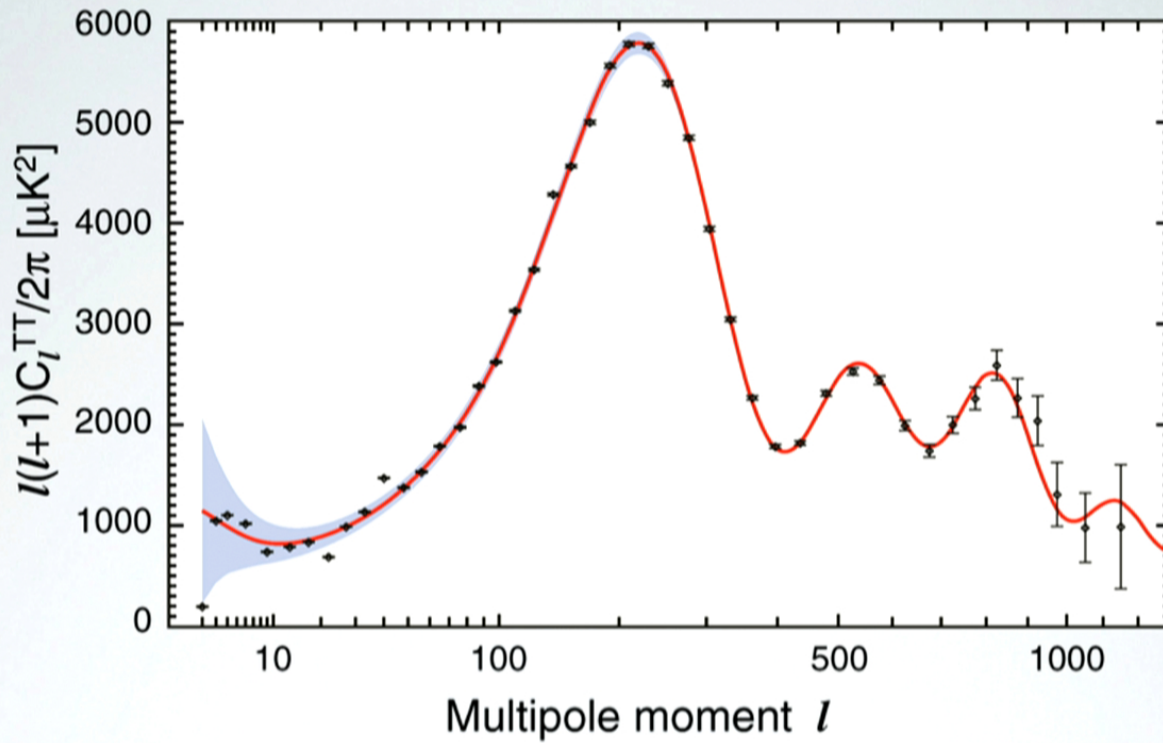
Figure 2 shows the circular velocity curves for the 10 largest objects in the present day. These curves are similar to the measured rotation curves of spiral galaxies. Observed rotation curves have smaller radii than we can resolve in our calculation. However, unpublished work by Barnes, G. R. Blumenthal and others shows that inclusion of the gravitational pull of the centre of the halo can result in rotation curves that resemble the inner regions of the largest objects in the simulation. The rotation curve is similar to that of M31 and the outer regions down to that of M33. Prior to the final merger, the massive binary had flat rotation curves and 260 km s^{-1} ; at the final time, the pair had coalesced. Their merged halo has an asymptotic velocity of 350 km s^{-1} . The energy of the remnant was in the form of a pair. The slow rise within 60 kpc is due to the top two rotation curves in Fig. 2, which are the largest spirals.

During the initial collapse

Initial conditions



WMAP SCIENCE TEAM



POWER SPECTRUM

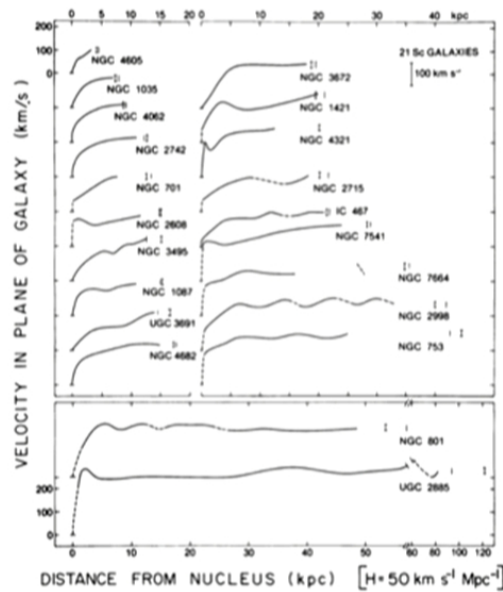


FIG. 5.—Mean velocities in the plane of the galaxy, as a function of linear distance from the nucleus for 21 Sc galaxies, arranged according to increasing linear radius. Curve drawn is rotation curve formed from mean of velocities on both sides of the major axis. Vertical bar marks the location of R_{25} , the isophote of $25 \text{ mag arcsec}^{-2}$; those with upper and lower extensions mark R^* , i.e., R_{25} corrected for inclination and galactic extinction. Dashed line from the nucleus indicates regions in which velocities are not available, due to small scale. Dashed lines at larger R indicates a velocity fall faster than Keplerian.

Dark Matter

Rubin et al. (1980) ApJ 238 471

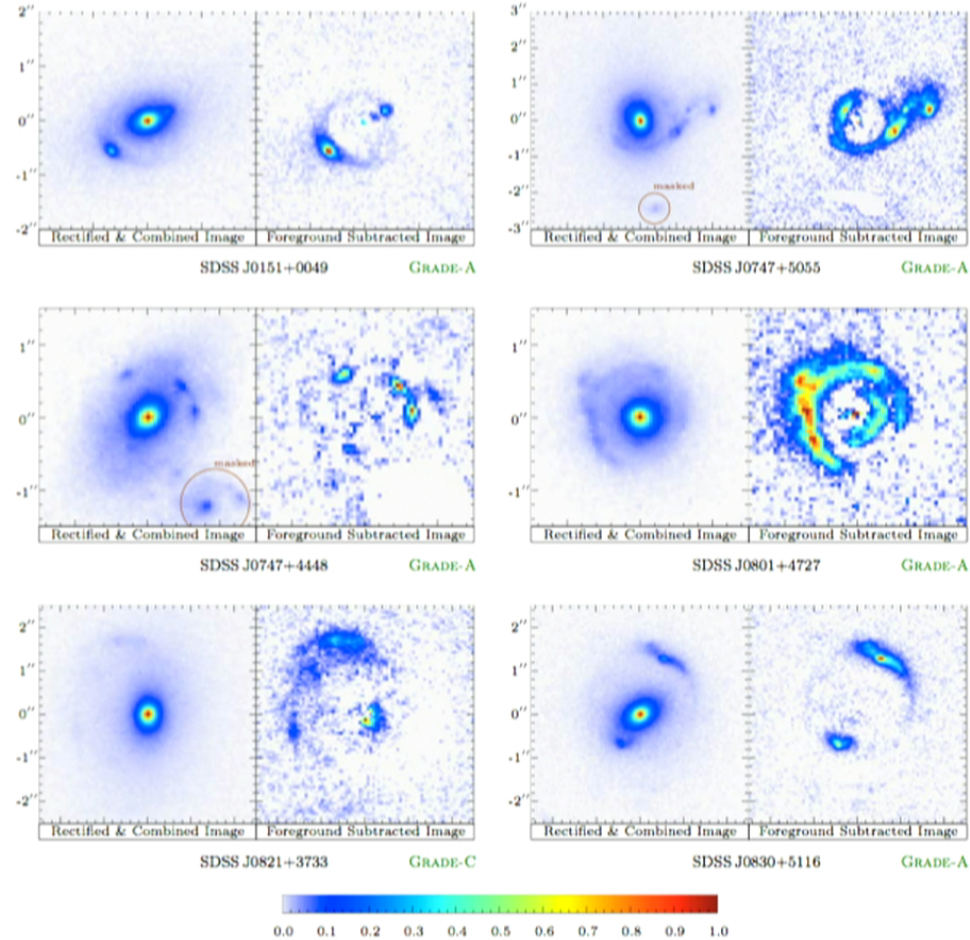
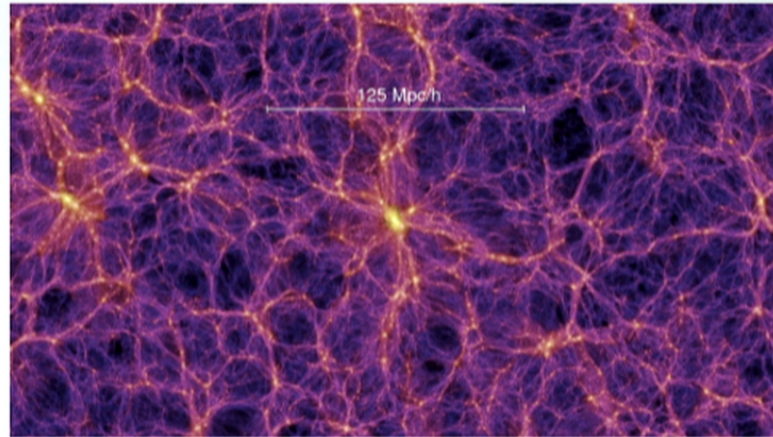
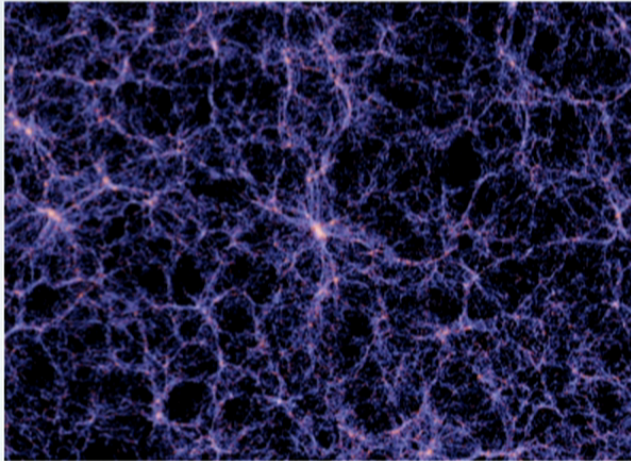


Figure 2. BELLS strong gravitational lens galaxies and foreground-subtracted images. The 36 grade-A, -B, and -C lenses discovered under *HST* cycle 18 program 12209. For each system, the left panel shows the *HST* ACS-WFC F814W rectified and combined images with north up and east to the left, and the right panel reveals the lensed features which remain after the foreground galaxy has been subtracted by the B-spline method described in Section 3. Probable non-lensed extraneous features that were masked are circled. System properties from the BOSS data are listed in Table 2, and those from the *HST*-ACS data are listed in Table 3. Comments justifying our lens grade are provided in Table 4.

Brute force and ignorance

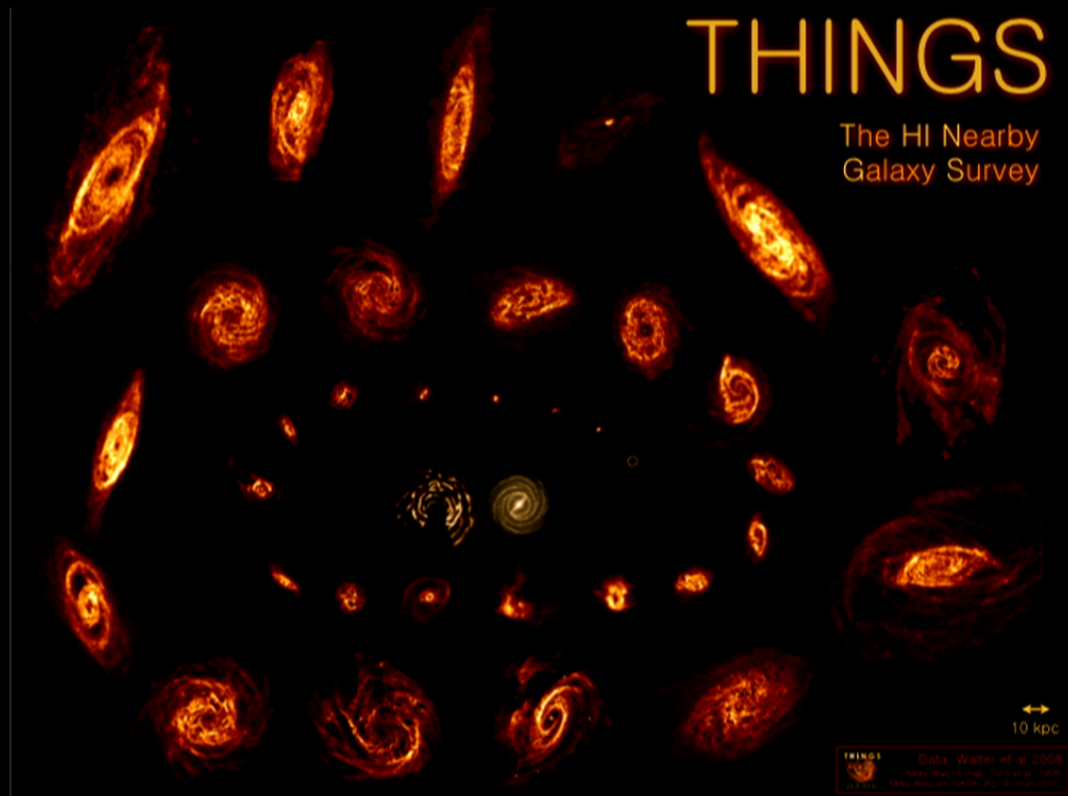


MILLENNIUM SIMULATION
GALAXIES ON THE LEFT DARK MATTER
ON THE RIGHT



Stars are easy to see

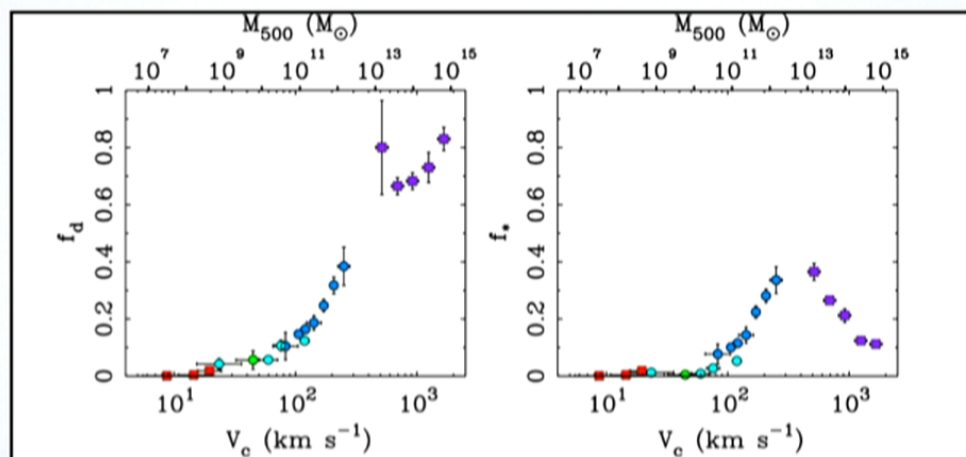
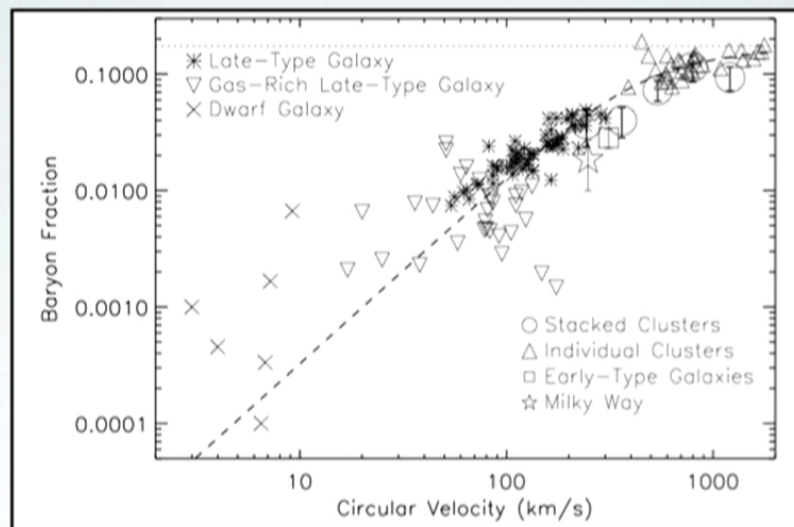
But they form only in halos, and they account for < 25% of the cosmic abundance in their host halos



Neutral hydrogen

Is also easy to see, but accounts for $< 10\%$ of baryons

Dai et al. (2010)
ApJ, 719, 119



MCGAUGH ET AL. (2010) APJL, 708, 1

Where are the baryons?

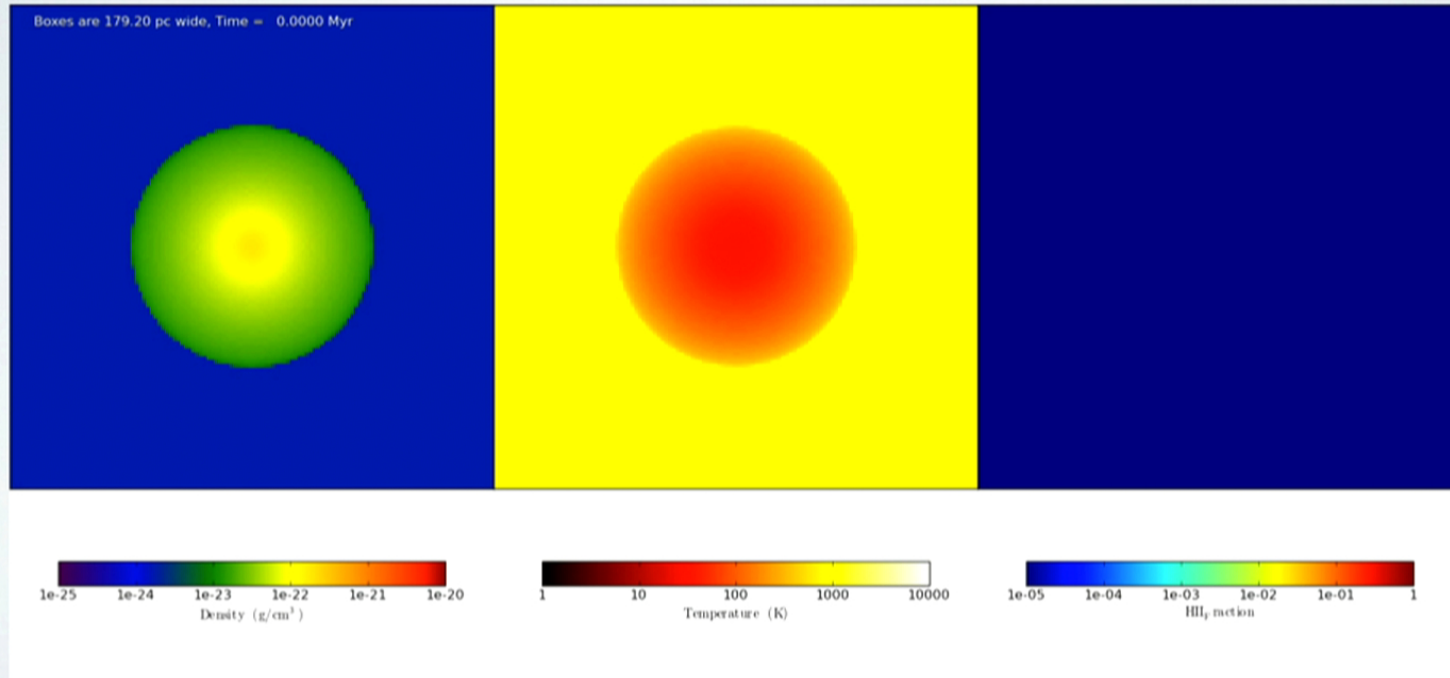
Note: this is a low z problem only



STELLAR FEEDBACK

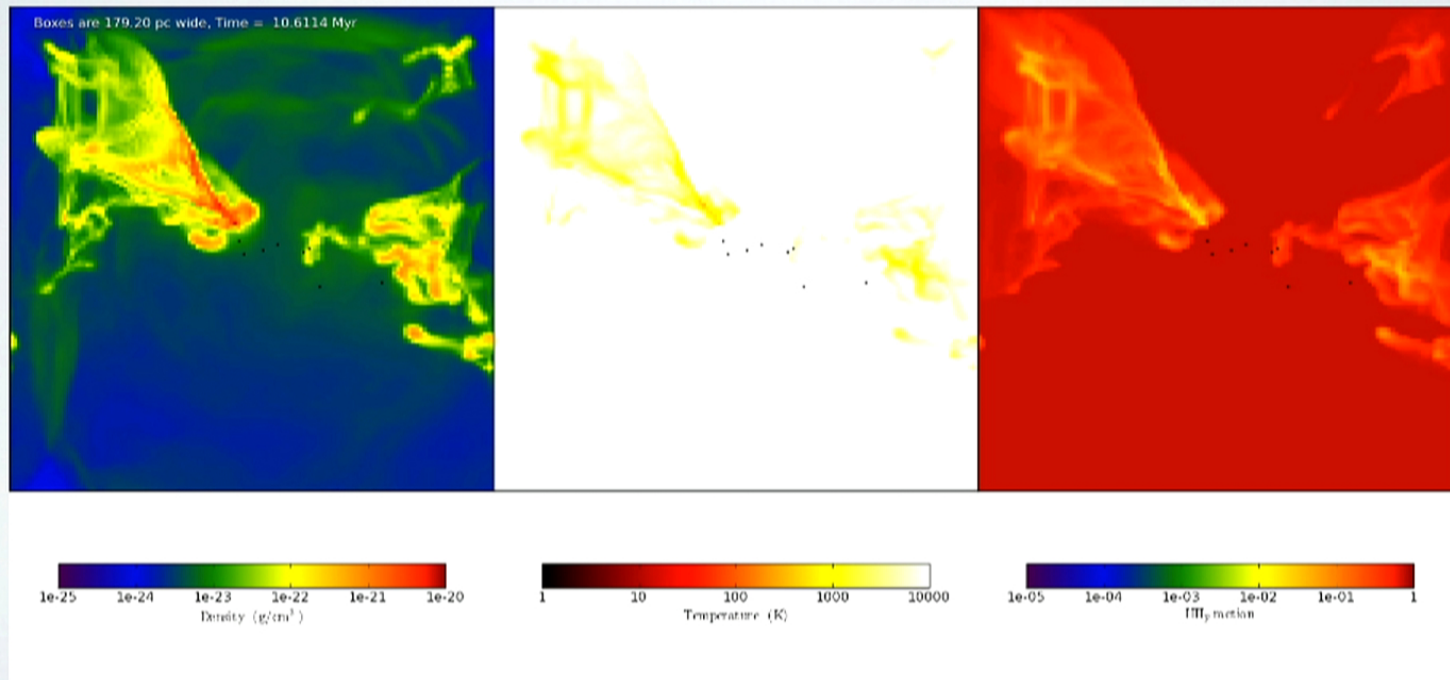
Supernovae, O star Winds, Radiative Heating,
Radiation Pressure

BLOWING UP GMCS IN COLOR 3D

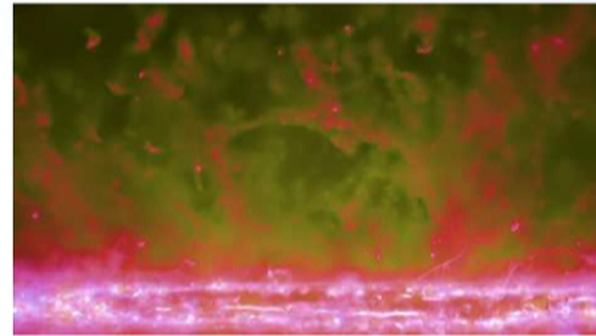
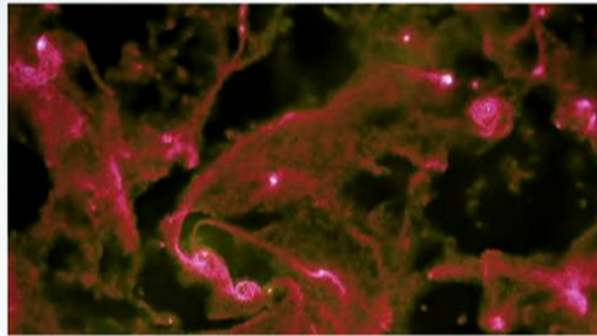
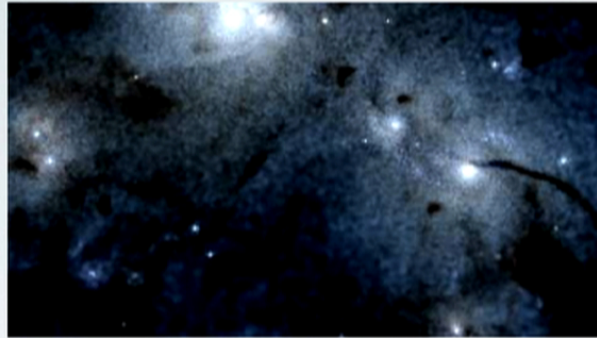


Harper-Clark; ENZO2 raytracing

BLOWING UP GMCS IN COLOR 3D



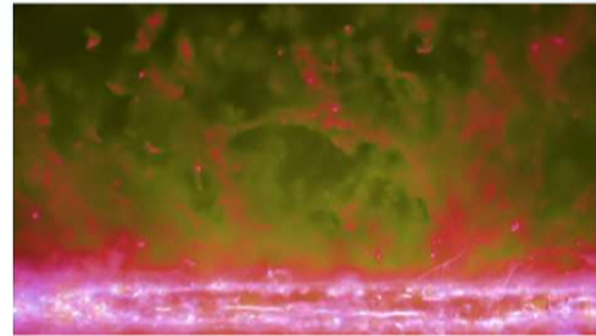
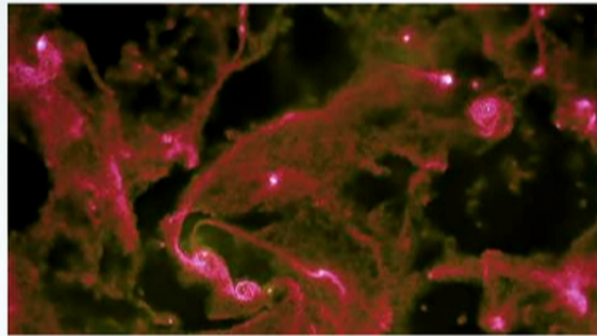
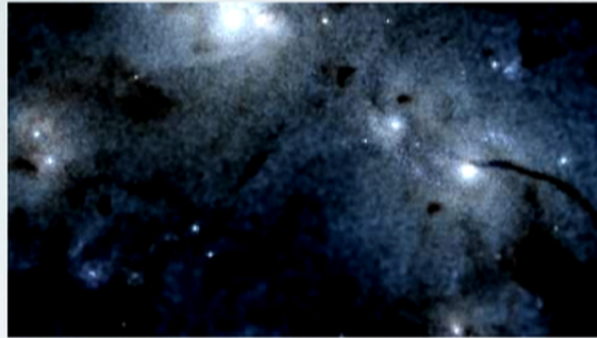
Harper-Clark; ENZO2 raytracing



GALACTIC SCALE SIMULATIONS

FEEDBACK SLOWS STAR FORMATION AND DRIVES WINDS
HOPKINS, QUATAERT

Gadget (sph) & MFM (~moving grid)



GALACTIC SCALE SIMULATIONS

FEEDBACK SLOWS STAR FORMATION AND DRIVES WINDS
HOPKINS, QUATAERT

Gadget (sph) & MFM (~moving grid)

Cosmological Simulations

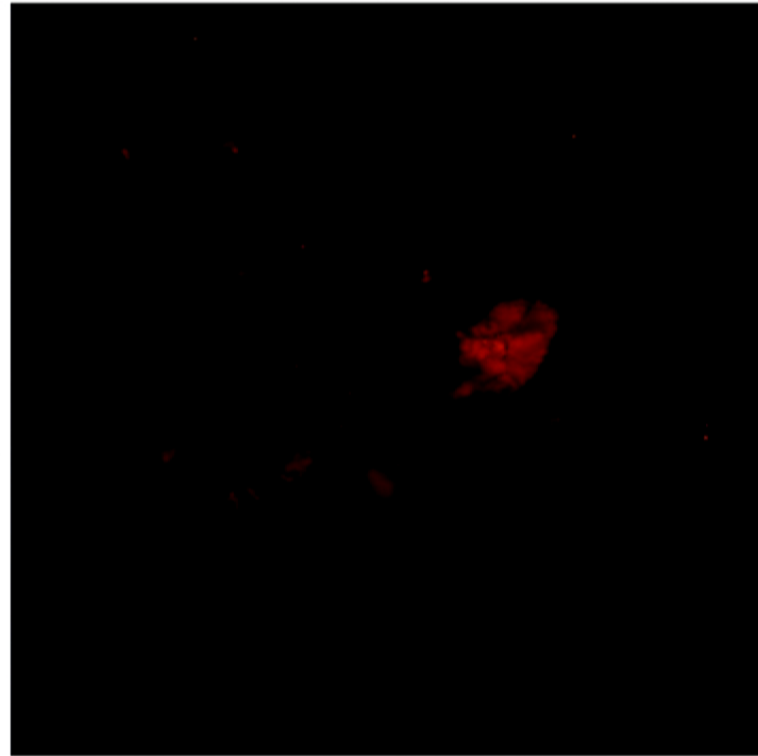
FIRE: Feedback in Realistic Environments

Proto-MW: Gas Temperature:

No Feedback



Following Full Feedback



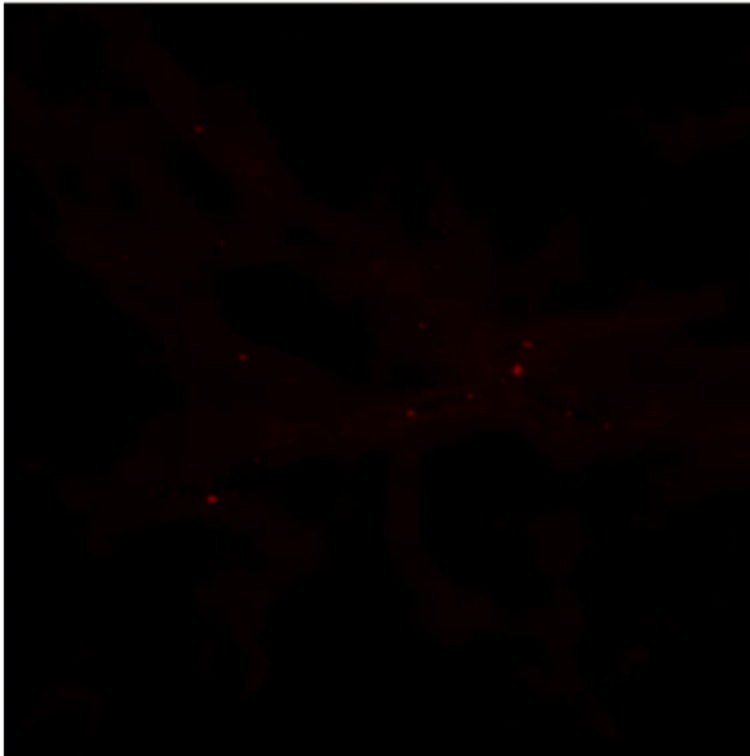
Hopkins et al. (2014) MNRAS 445 581

Cosmological Simulations

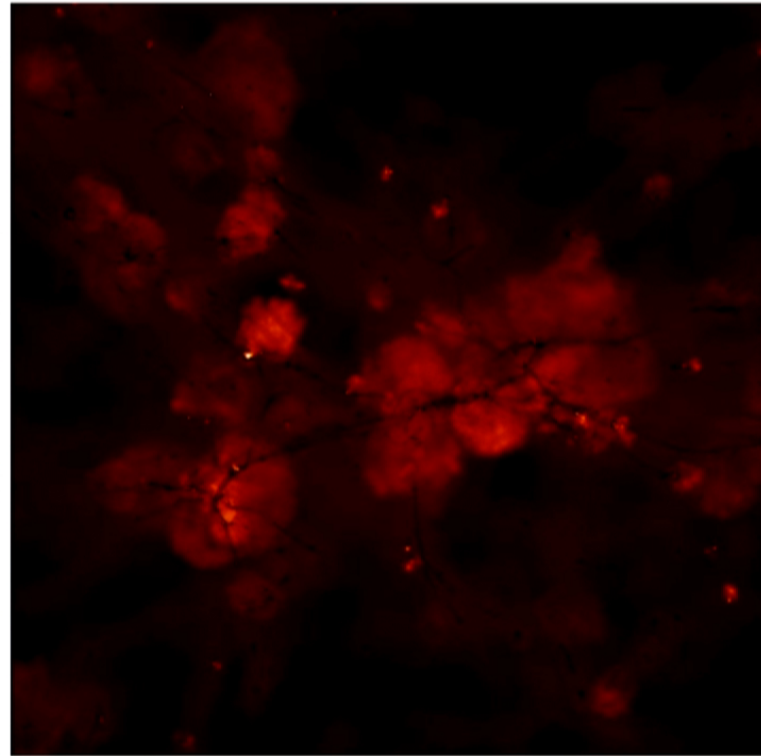
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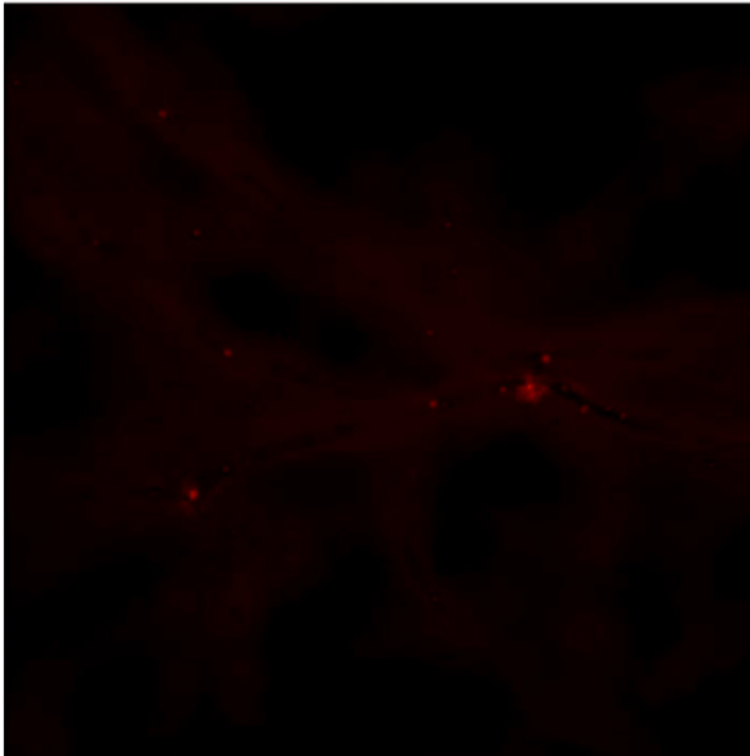
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Cosmological Simulations

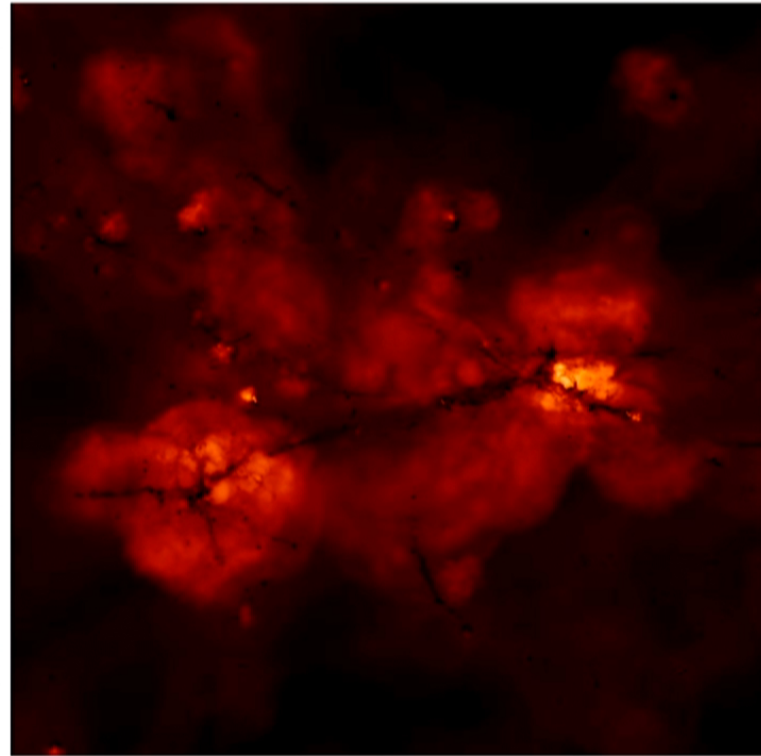
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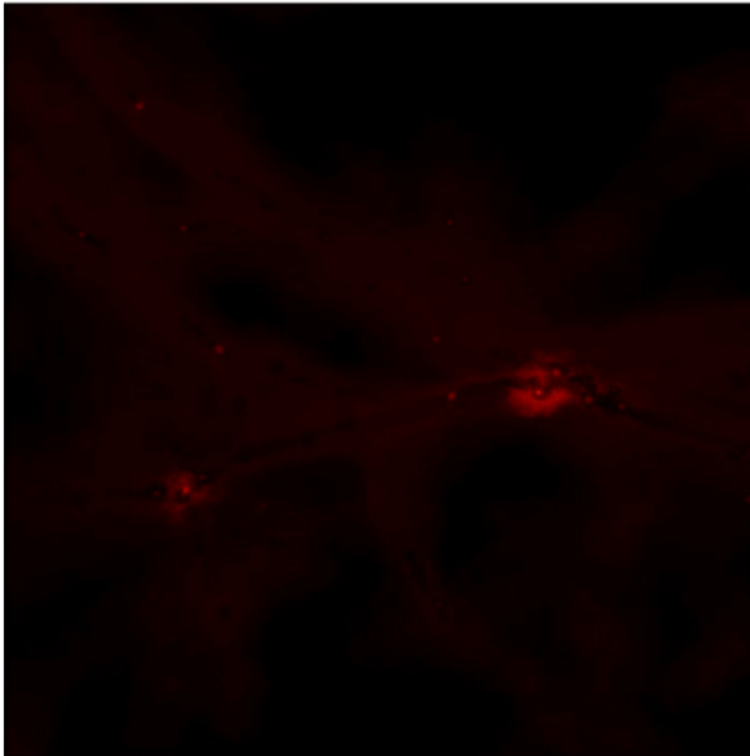
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Cosmological Simulations

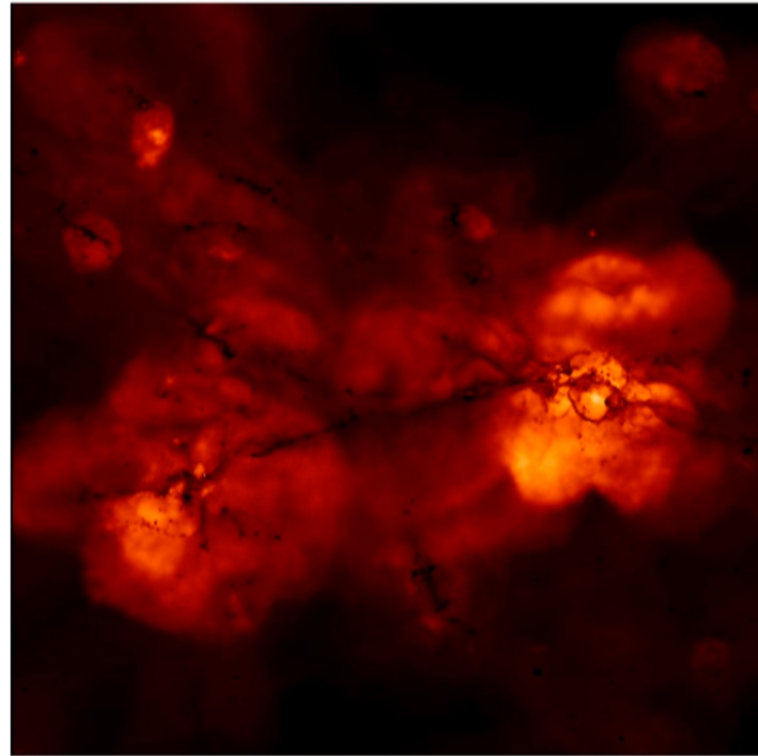
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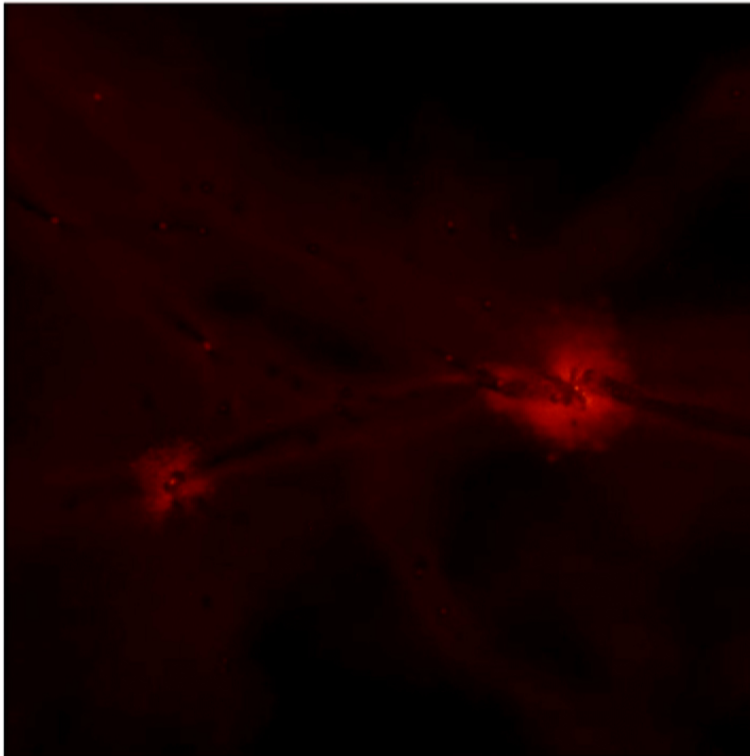
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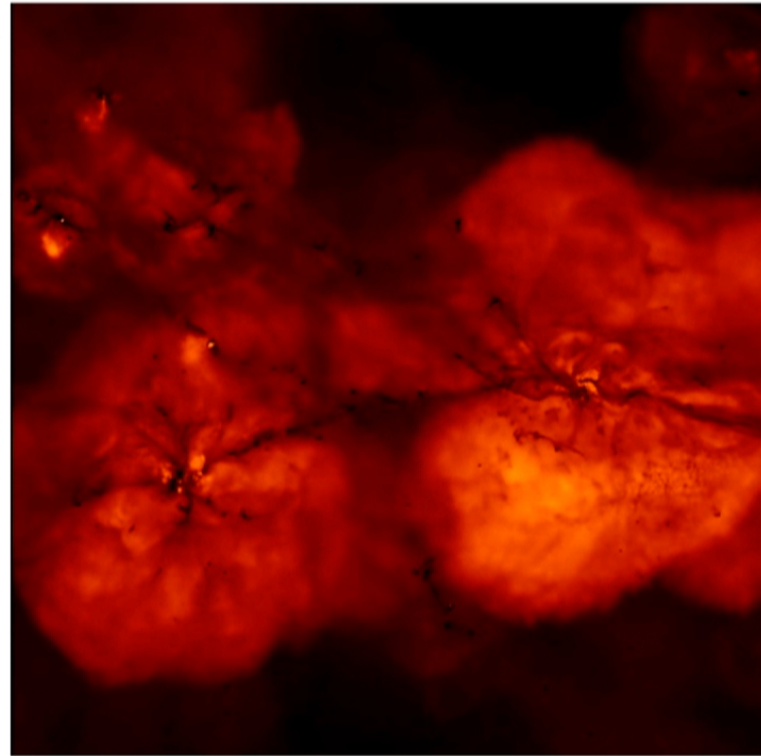
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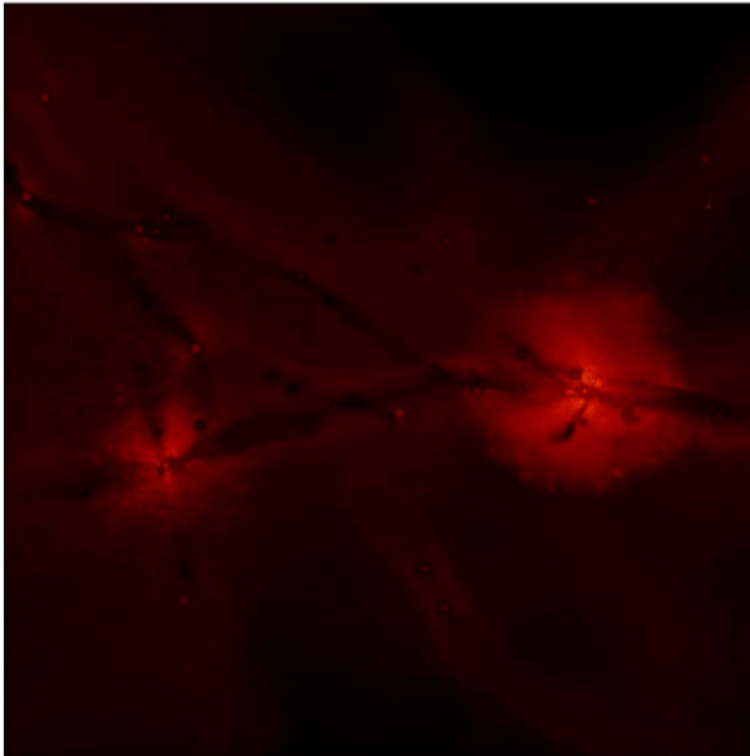
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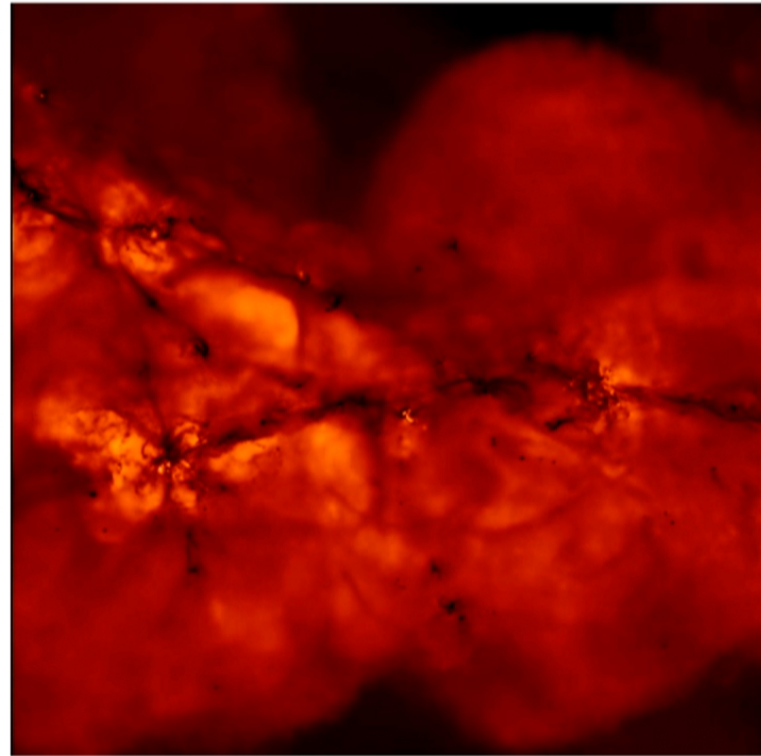
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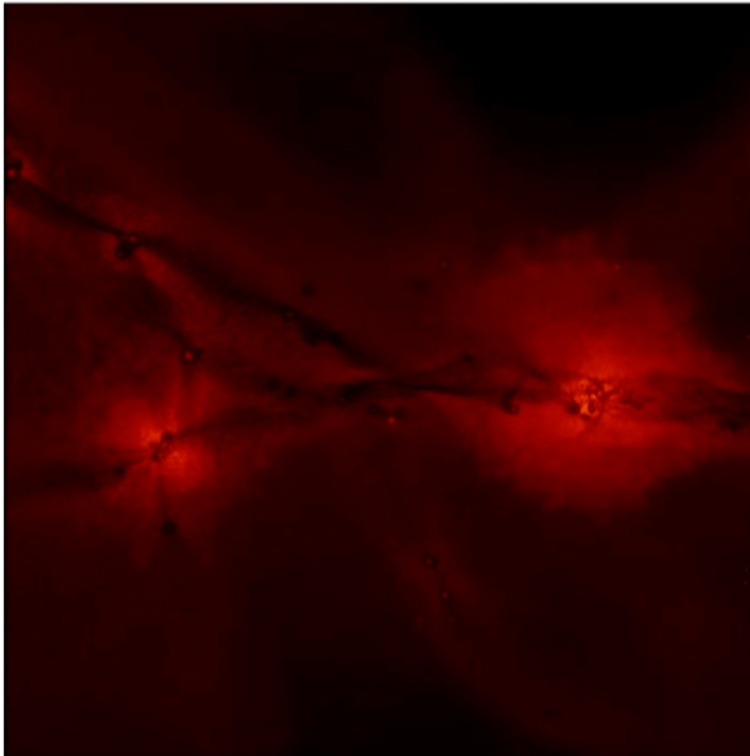
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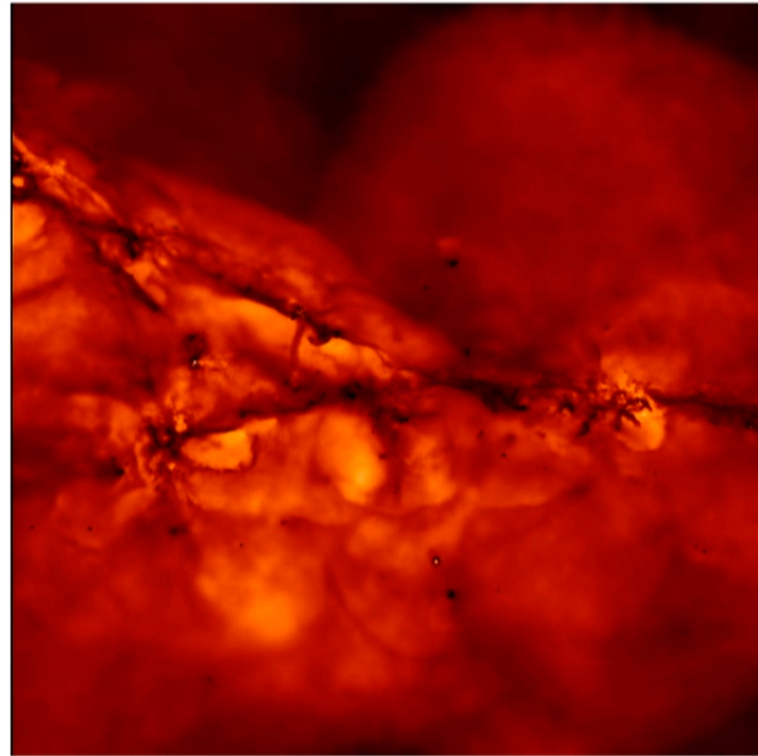
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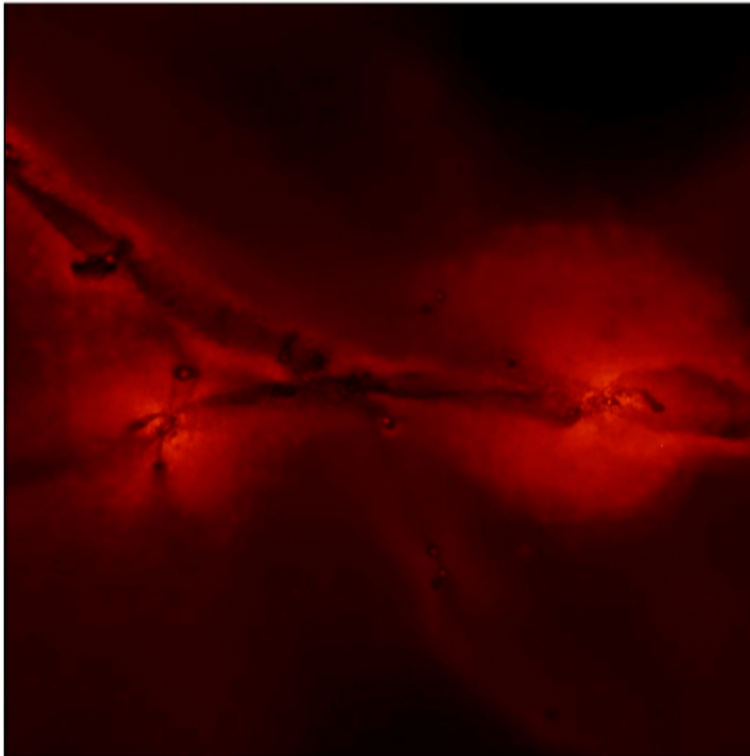
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Cosmological Simulations

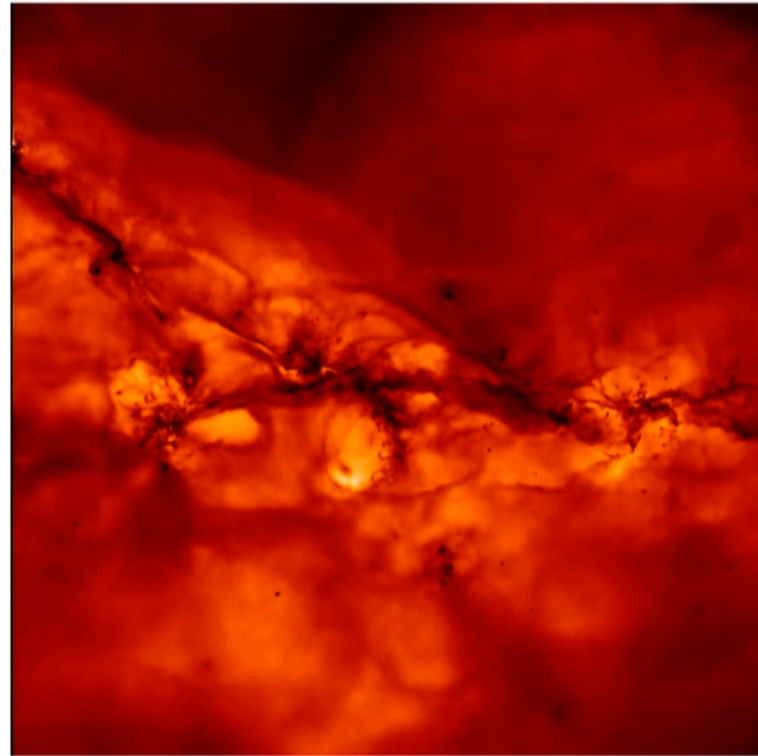
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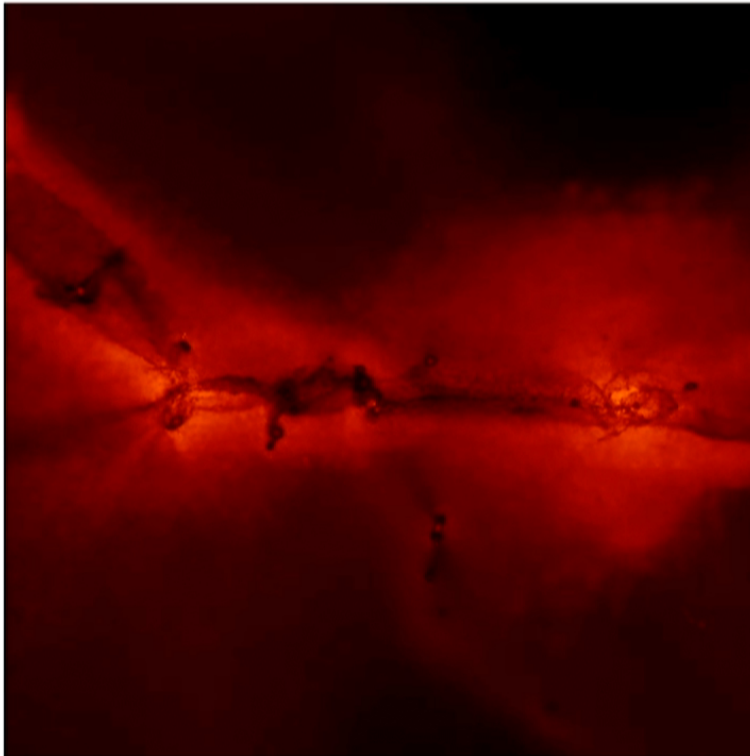
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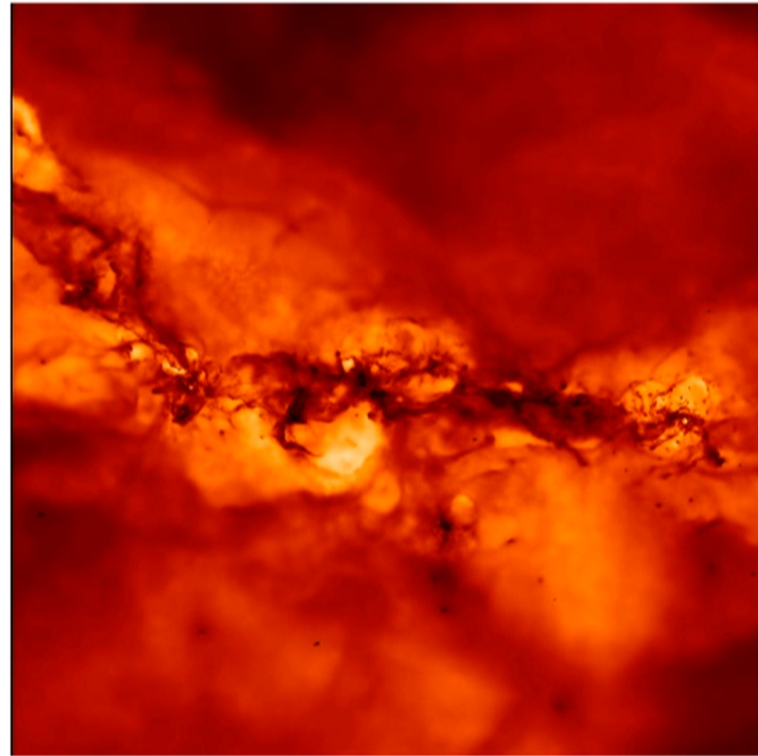
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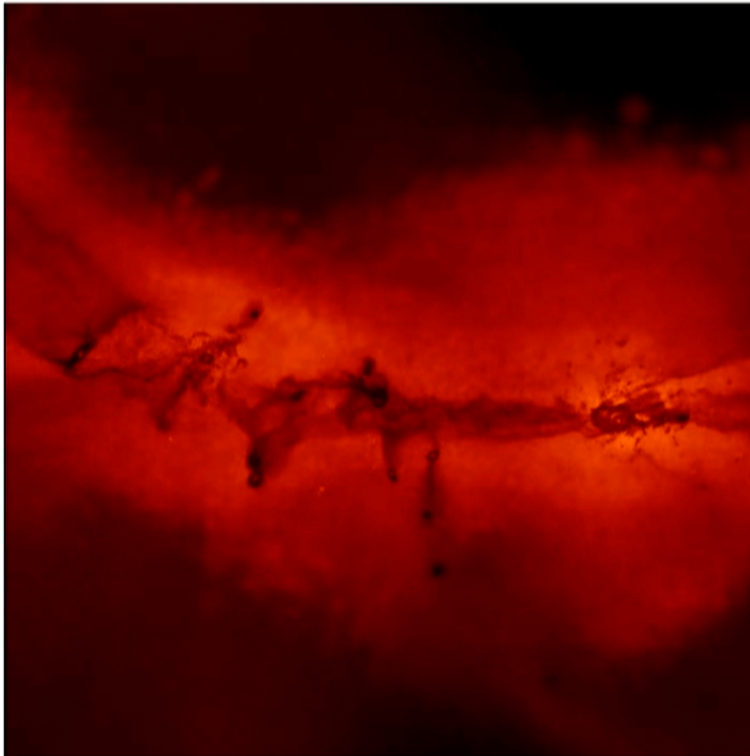
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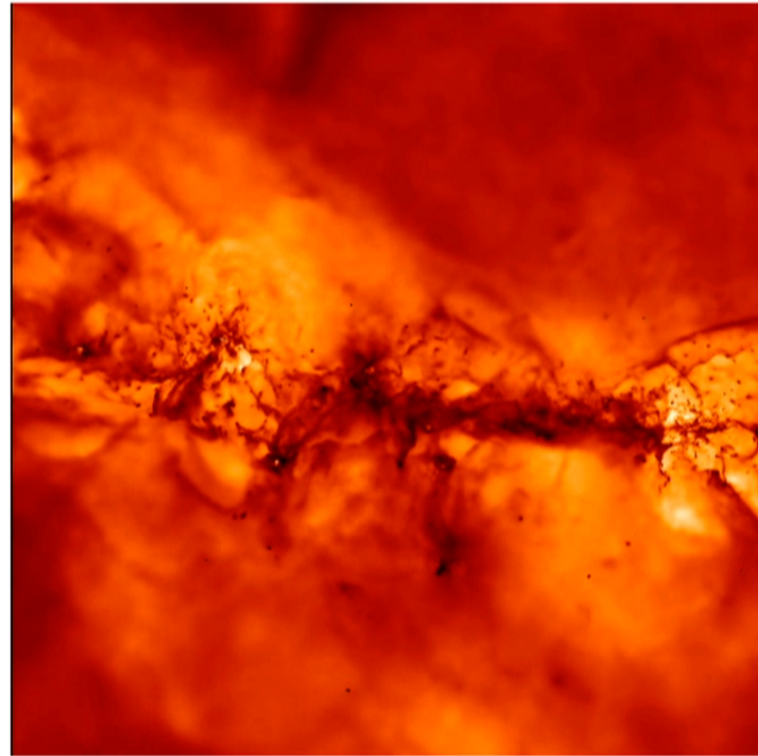
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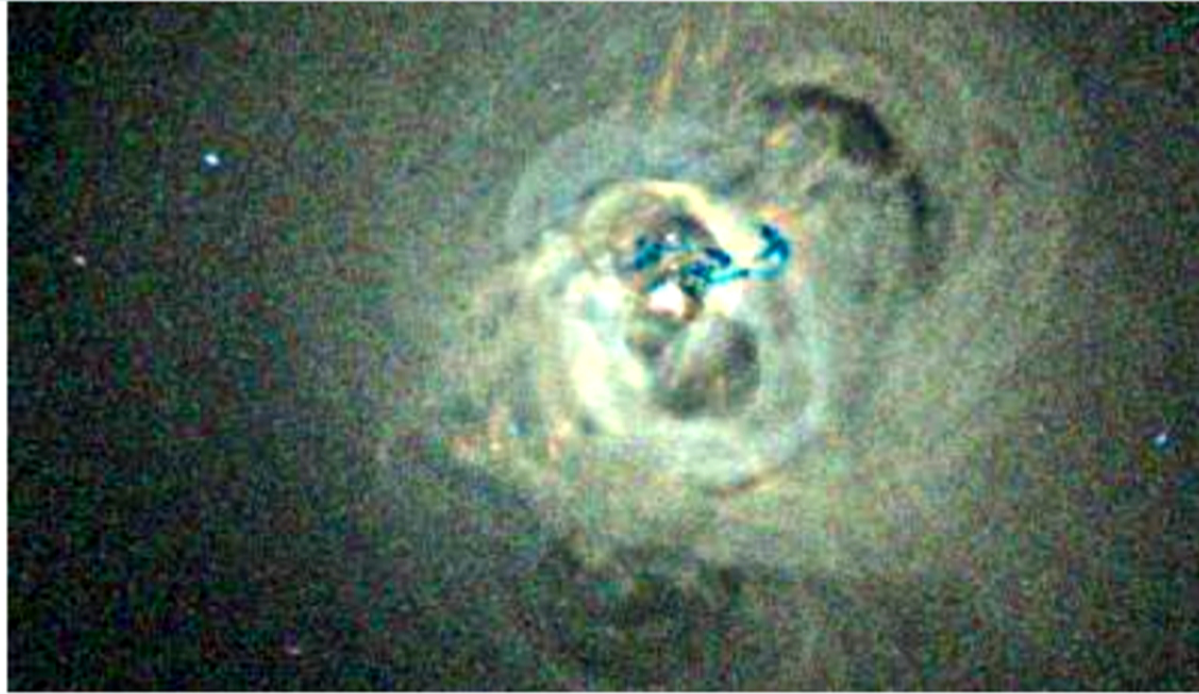
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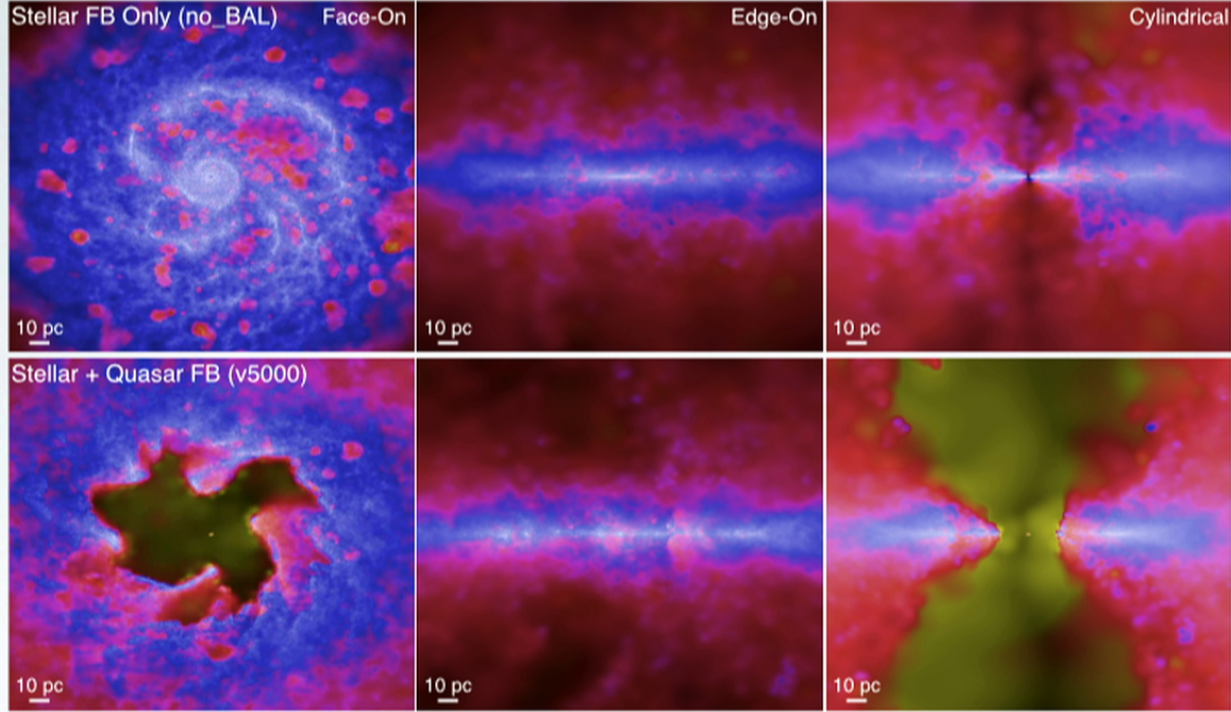


Hopkins et al. (2014) MNRAS 445 581



AGN FEEDBACK

Radio Jets, Broad Absorption Line Winds, Radiative Heating, Radiation Pressure



AGN FEEDBACK

BAL wind and radiative heating

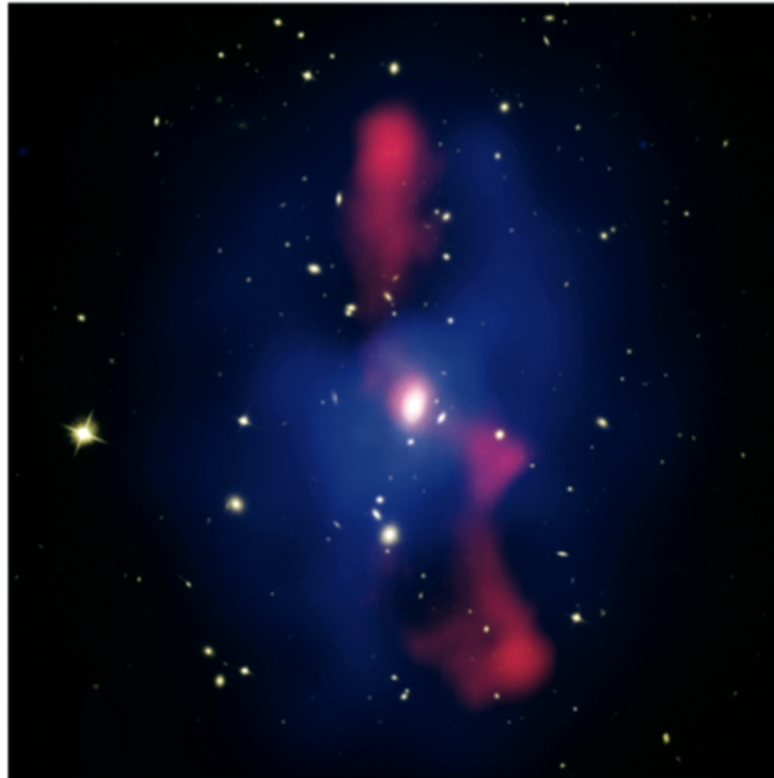


Figure 2

Hubble Space Telescope visual image of the MS0735.6+7421 cluster superposed with the *Chandra* X-ray image in blue and a radio image from the Very Large Array at a frequency of 330 MHz in red. The X-ray image shows an enormous pair of cavities, each roughly 200 kpc in diameter that are filled with radio emission. The radio jets have been inflating the cavities for 10^8 years with an average power of $<2 \times 10^{46}$ erg s^{-1} . The displaced gas mass is $<10^{12} M_{\odot}$. The cavities and radio source are bounded by a weak shock front. The cavities are well outside the central galaxy and cooling region of the cluster. The supermassive black hole grew by at least $<3 \times 10^8 M_{\odot}$ during the outburst.

AGN FEEDBACK



So can we detect the baryons?

The ones in and around halos...

Detecting baryons in the form of diffuse gas

- Look for emission, e.g., x-rays
 - proportional to n^2
 - seen in massive cluster, and in stacks of smaller objects
- Sunyaev-Zeldovic (Compton scattering of CMB)
 - proportional to n_e

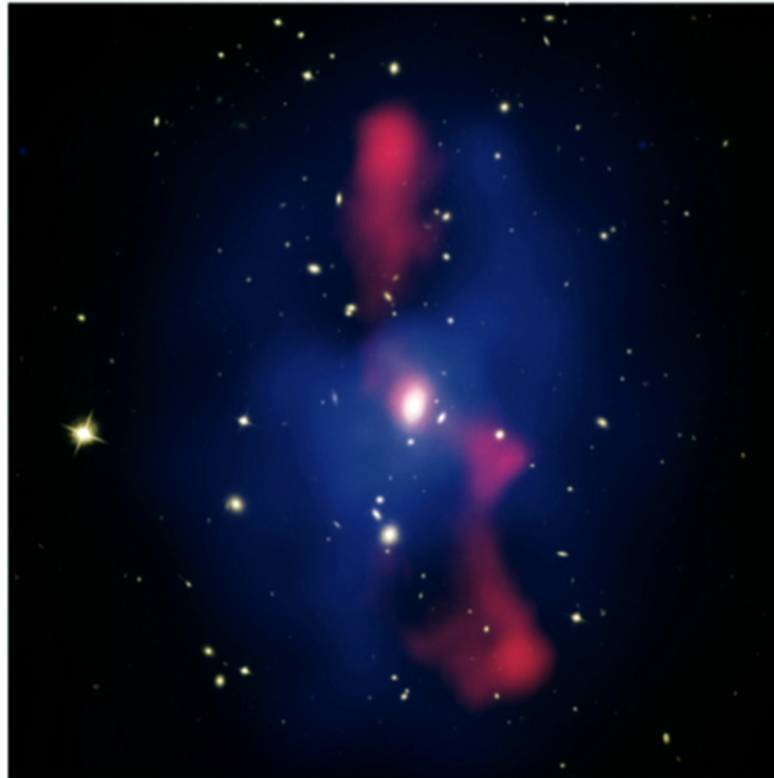
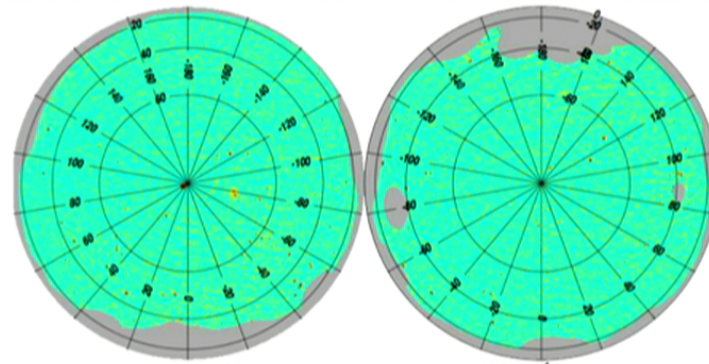


Figure 2

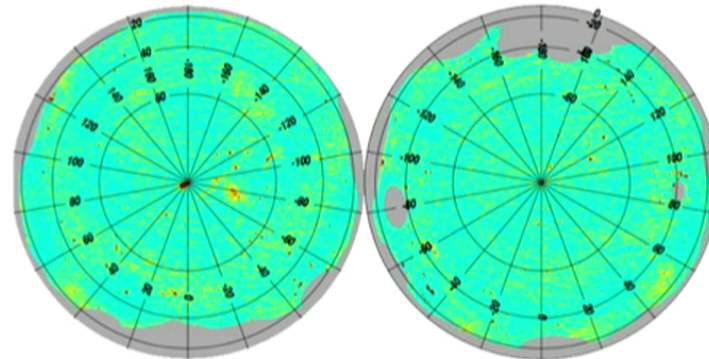
Hubble Space Telescope visual image of the MS0735.6+7421 cluster superposed with the *Chandra* X-ray image in blue and a radio image from the Very Large Array at a frequency of 330 MHz in red. The X-ray image shows an enormous pair of cavities, each roughly 200 kpc in diameter that are filled with radio emission. The radio jets have been inflating the cavities for 10^8 years with an average power of $<2 \times 10^{46}$ erg s^{-1} . The displaced gas mass is $<10^{12} M_{\odot}$. The cavities and radio source are bounded by a weak shock front. The cavities are well outside the central galaxy and cooling region of the cluster. The supermassive black hole grew by at least $<3 \times 10^8 M_{\odot}$ during the outburst.

X-RAY EMISSION!



-3.5  5.0 $\gamma \times 10^4$

MILCA tSZ map



-3.5  5.0 $\gamma \times 10^4$

PLANCK 'Y' MAPS

Planck Collaboration: Gas content of dark matter halos

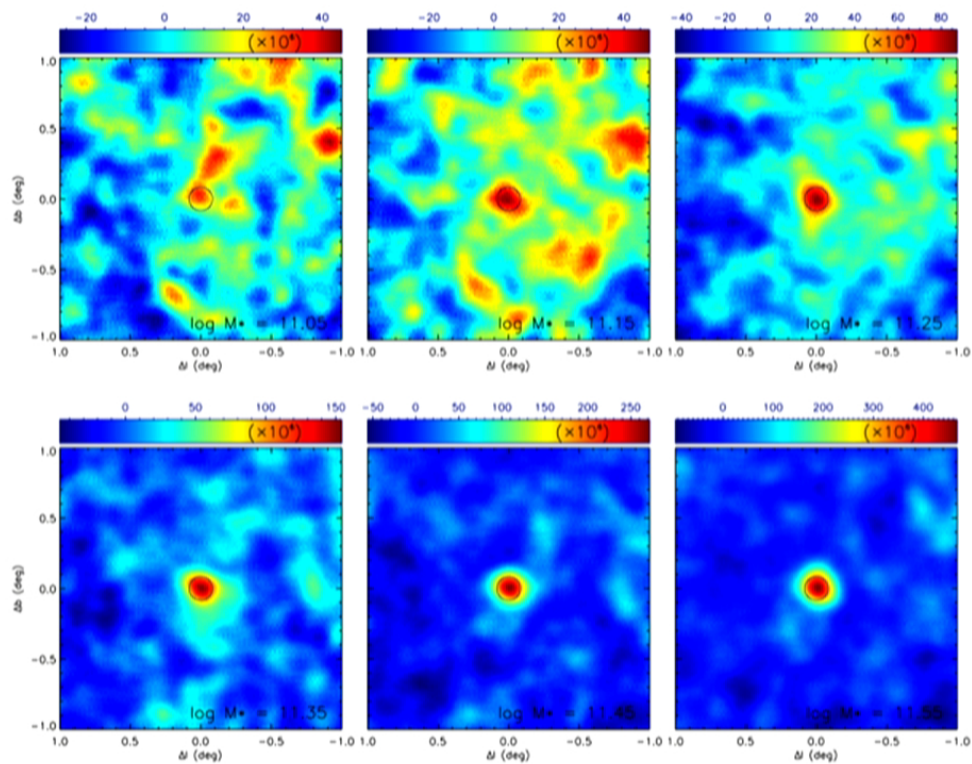


Fig. 5. Equal-weighted stacks of reconstructed SZ maps (i.e., Comptonization parameter maps) for objects in six mass bins centred, from *left to right* and *top to bottom*, at $\log_{10}(M_*/M_\odot) = [11.05, 11.15, 11.25, 11.35, 11.45, 11.55]$. In all cases, the bin size is taken to be 0.2, so the galaxies in two consecutive panels partially overlap. Maps are 2° on a side, with Galactic north at the top. The SZ signal traced by the central galaxies is clearly detected in all bins above $\log_{10}(M_*/M_\odot) = 11.25$. In all panels, the circles indicate the FWHM of the data, which corresponds to $10'$.

PLANCK XI

Do baryons (in the form of diffuse gas) trace the dark matter?

- Cross-correlate SZ maps with lensing maps

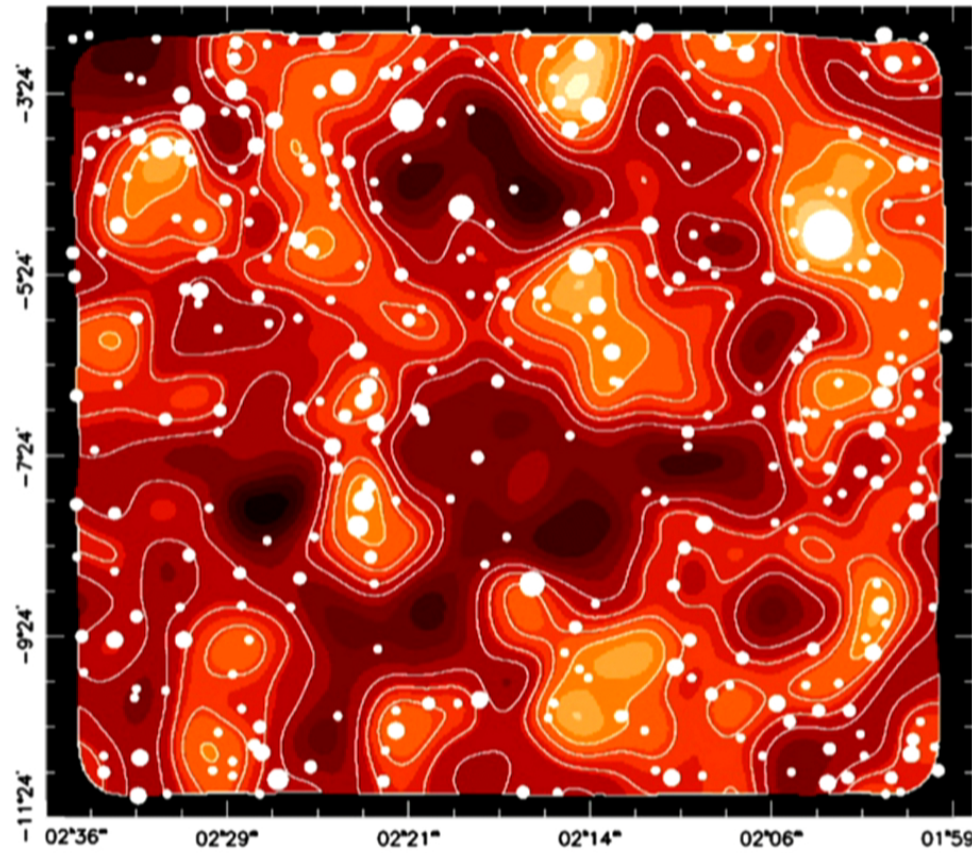
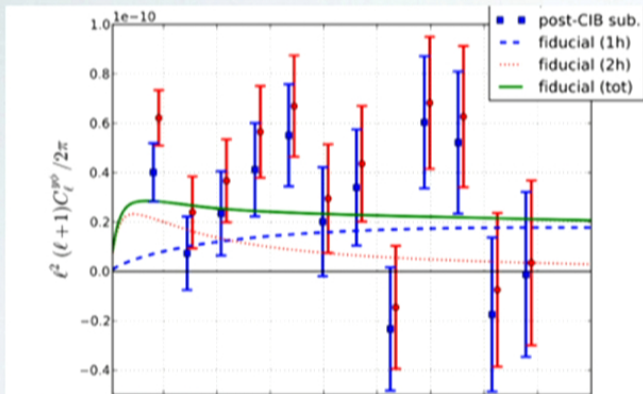


Figure 8. Mass maps for the W1 field. The continuous map with contours shows the mass reconstructed from gravitational lensing. The contours indicate the 1σ , 2σ , 3σ and 4σ on this map, where σ is the rms of the convergence. The open circles indicate the position of peaks in the predicted mass map, constructed from galaxies as described in Section 4.3. The circle size is proportional to the peak height. The field of view is approximately $9 \times 8 \text{ deg}^2$.

Van Waerbeke et al (2013) MNRAS 433 3373



Hill & Spergel

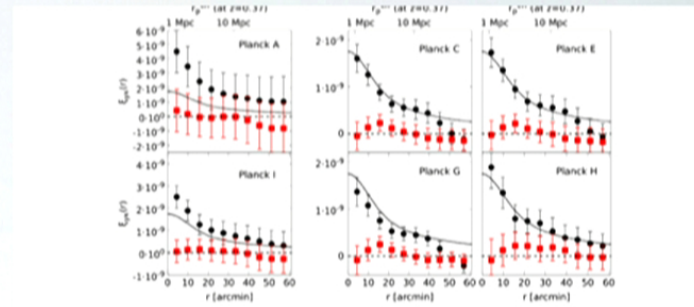
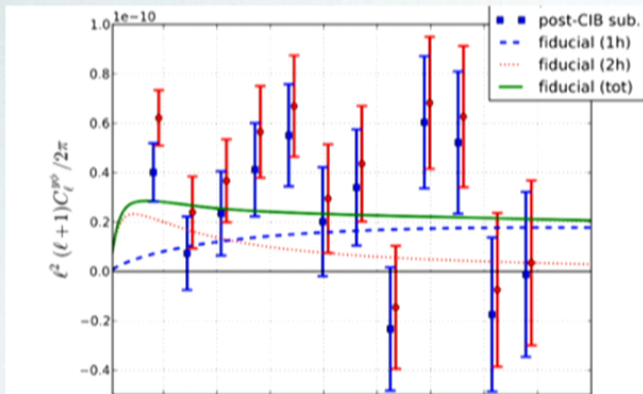


FIG. 3 (color online). The filled black circles show the cross correlation $\xi_{g\theta}(r)$ between the gravitational lensing and the Surtyayev-Zeldovich maps. The bottom x axis indicates the $y \times x$ pixels angular separation in arcminutes and the top x axis corresponds to the physical scale seen at the average redshift of the lenses. The filled red squares show the cross correlation between SZ and the lensing B mode. Planck A and I in the left two panels correspond to SZ maps with the largest foreground contamination (see Table I). The four panels on the right (Planck C, E, G, H) correspond to the most extreme foreground cleaning parameters that we have considered (see Table I). In all panels, the solid thick black line corresponds to the predicted $\xi_{g\theta}(r)$ using WMAP7 cosmology and the source redshift

van Waerbeke, Hinshaw, & Murray

(LENSING) MASS-SZ CROSS CORRELATION



Hill & Spergel

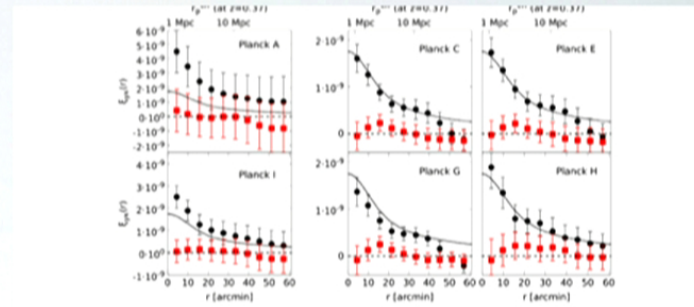


FIG. 3 (color online). The filled black circles show the cross correlation $\xi_{g\mu}(r)$ between the gravitational lensing and the Sunyaev-Zeldovich maps. The bottom x axis indicates the $y \times x$ pixels angular separation in arcminutes and the top x axis corresponds to the physical scale seen at the average redshift of the lenses. The filled red squares show the cross correlation between SZ and the lensing B mode. Planck A and I in the left two panels correspond to SZ maps with the largest foreground contamination (see Table I). The four panels on the right (Planck C, E, G, H) correspond to the most extreme foreground cleaning parameters that we have considered (see Table I). In all panels, the solid thick black line corresponds to the predicted $\xi_{g\mu}(r)$ using WMAP7 cosmology and the source redshift.

van Waerbeke, Hinshaw, & Murray

(LENSING) MASS-SZ CROSS CORRELATION

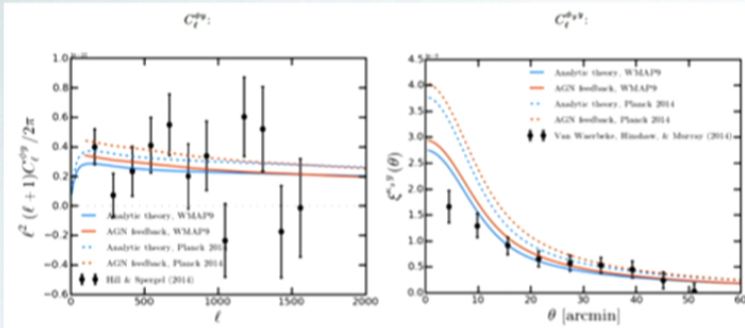


FIG. 7.— Comparison of the cross-spectra from the AGN feedback simulations and analytic halo model calculations to the observational results from Hill & Spergel (2014) and Van Waerbeke et al. (2014). In the right panel, we convert the theoretical results to the real-space cross-correlation function $\xi^{*+*}(\theta)$ from Van Waerbeke et al. (2014). Both measurements prefer a lower amplitude than that predicted by the Planck cosmological parameters. Note that the multipole-space C_l^{*+*} data points in the left panel are nearly uncorrelated from bin to bin, while the real-space ξ^{*+*} data points in the right panel are strongly correlated.

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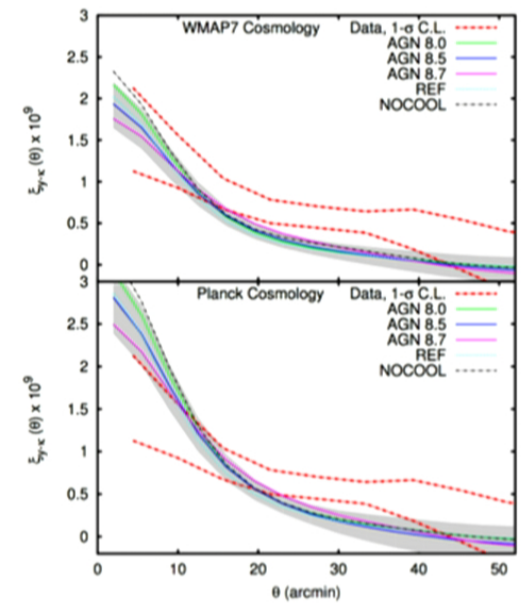


FIG. 1. Comparison of the cross-correlation function ξ_{*+*} computed from hydrodynamical simulations to the signal detected in [7]. Per Table 1, five different baryon feedback models are considered. The grey band represents the error on the mean.

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A detection is nice. What can we do with
it?
Future work

- Cross-correlation amplitude $\sim \sigma_8^{6.1} \Omega_m^{1.5}$ (Hill & Spergel)
 - constrain σ_8
- Learn about the cluster physics
- Locate the missing baryons—maybe