

The Next 2-3 Weeks

- [27.1] The Extragalactic Distance Scale.
- [27.2] The Expansion of the Universe.
- [29.1] Newtonian Cosmology
- [29.2] The Cosmic Microwave Background
- [17] General Relativity & Black Holes
- [29.3] Relativistic Cosmology

Starting ~ week after next
(Oct. 18?)

Important to read through Chapter 17 (Relativity) before I start lecturing on it.

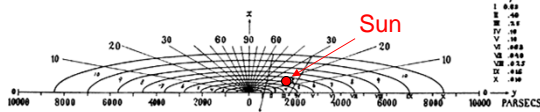
Pay particular attention to 17.2 "Intervals & Geodesics"

- What is a metric?
- The Schwarzschild metric (= non-rotating black hole)
- "The orbit of a satellite" (somewhat flakey example)

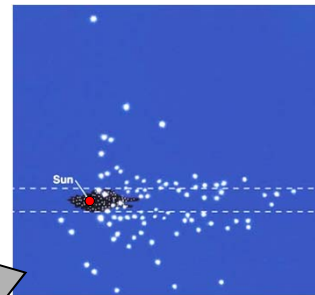
I will present additional material assuming that you have read at least 17.2.

From star counts:

Mapping Our Galaxy



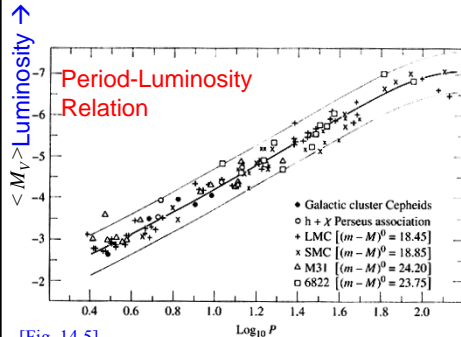
Kapteyn (1922). Surfaces of constant star density.



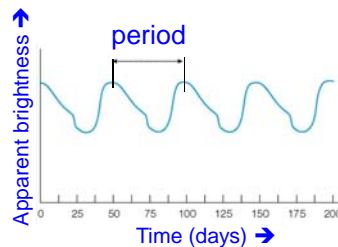
Shapley (1920) Globular Clusters
(distances using RR-Lyraes)

From distribution of Globular Clusters:

- Use **pulsating variables** to find clusters' distances.
- Clusters are out of MW disk → little reddening.

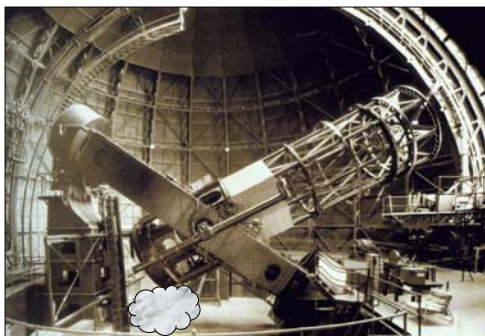


[Fig. 14.5]



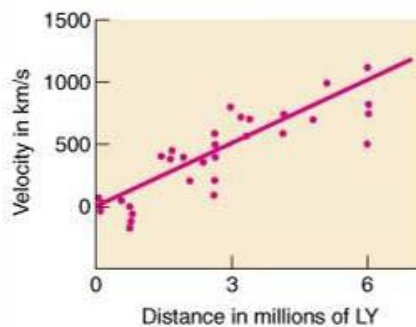
Astronomy in 1929

100 inch telescope
Completed 1918



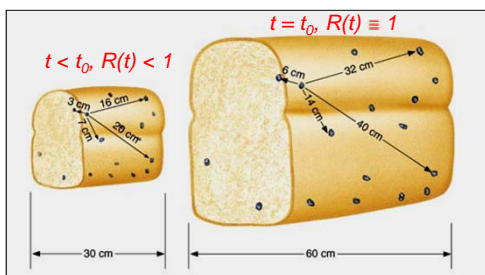
Edwin Hubble

- 1923: Hubble measured distance to M31
 - Pulsating variables
- 1926: Hubble's E, S, I galaxy classification scheme.
- **1929 Expanding Universe**



Astronomy in 1929

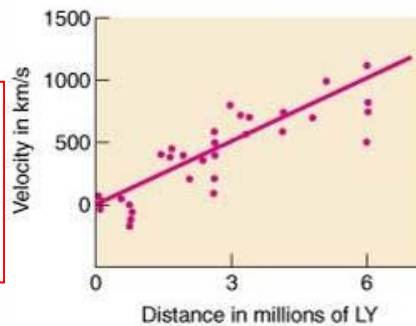
A loaf of raisin bread in a 1929 oven



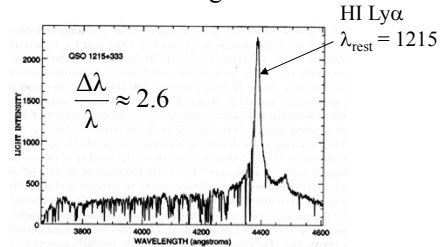
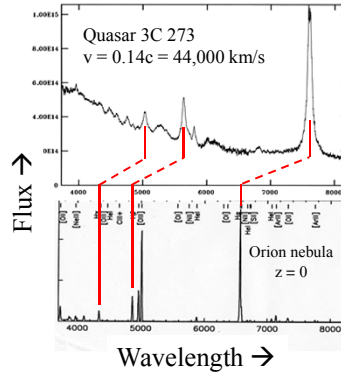
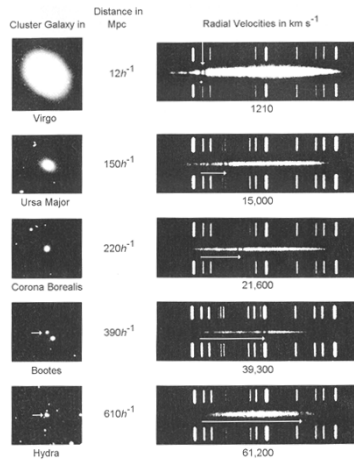
Edwin Hubble

The Scale Factor $R(t)$
Sometimes called $a(t)$
Ratio of size of U. at time t to its current size.
Current time designated $t = t_0$

- 1923: Hubble measured distance to M31
 - Pulsating variables
- 1926: Hubble's E, S, I galaxy classification scheme.
- **1929 Expanding Universe**



Velocity from Redshifts



$$\text{Redshift} = z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}} - \lambda_{\text{rest}}}{\lambda_{\text{rest}}} = \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} \approx \frac{v}{c}$$

~~$$\frac{v}{c} = \frac{(z+1)^2 - 1}{(z+1)^2 + 1}$$~~

Special relativistic result [CO eqn. 4.38]

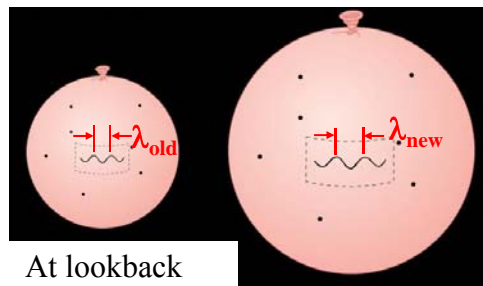
The Expanding Universe

- Individual galaxies do not get stretched.
- Light waves *do* get stretched → redshift.

Redshift

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{new}} - \lambda_{\text{old}}}{\lambda_{\text{old}}} = \frac{\lambda_{\text{new}}}{\lambda_{\text{old}}} - 1$$

$$R(t) = \frac{\lambda_{\text{old}}}{\lambda_{\text{new}}} = \frac{1}{1+z}$$



At lookback time corresponding to redshift z

Now

[doppler demo applet](#)

Redshift → scale factor $R(t)$ at time light was emitted.

Hubble's Distance Measurements

From *The Astrophysical Journal*, 1929:

A RELATION BETWEEN DISTANCE AND RADIAL VELOCITY AMONG EXTRA-GALACTIC NEBULAE

By EDWIN HUBBLE

MOUNT WILSON OBSERVATORY, CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON

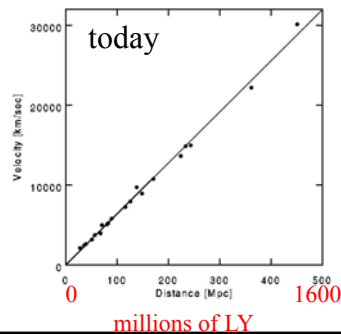
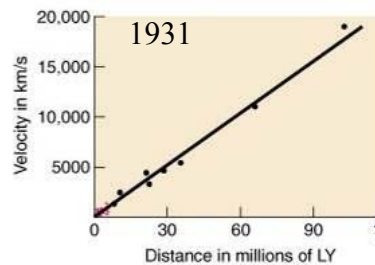
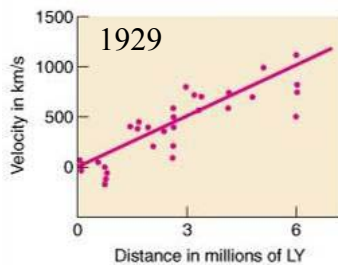
Communicated January 17, 1929

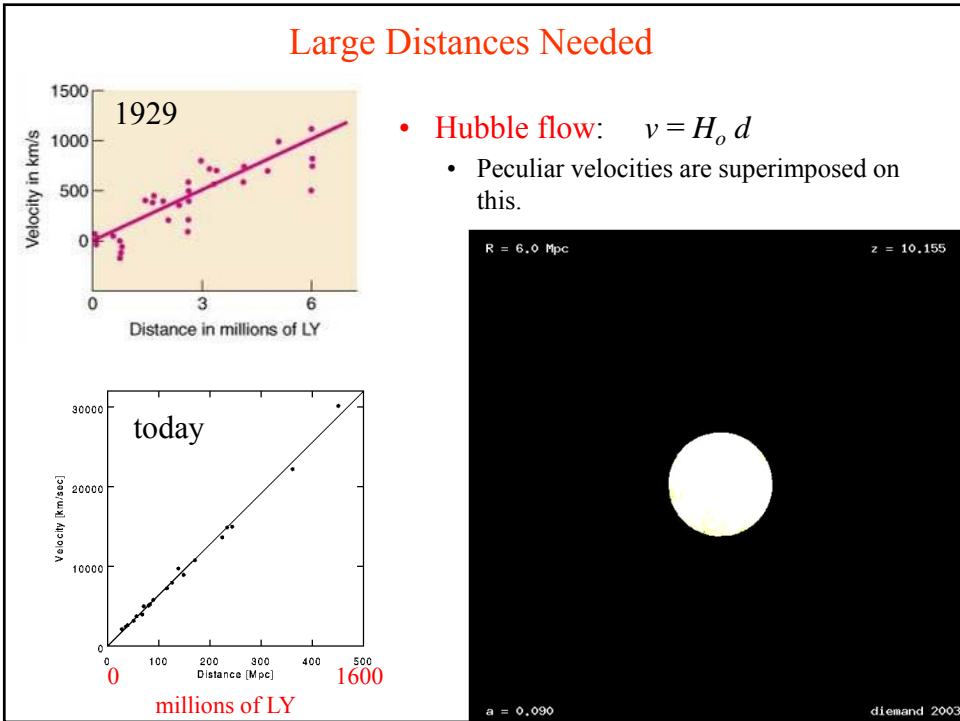
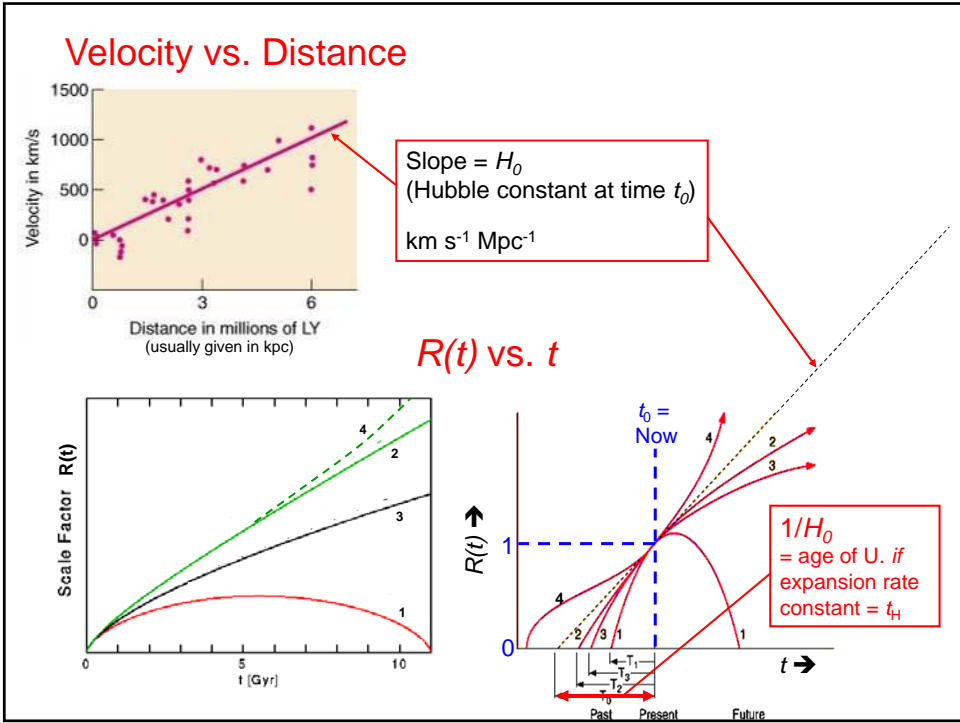
Determinations of the motion of the sun with respect to the extra-galactic nebulae have involved a K term of several hundred kilometers which appears to be variable. Explanations of this paradox have been sought in a correlation between apparent radial velocities and distances, but so far the results have not been convincing. The present paper is a re-examination of the question, based on only those nebular distances which are believed to be fairly reliable.

Distances of extra-galactic nebulae depend ultimately upon the application of absolute-luminosity criteria to involved stars whose types can

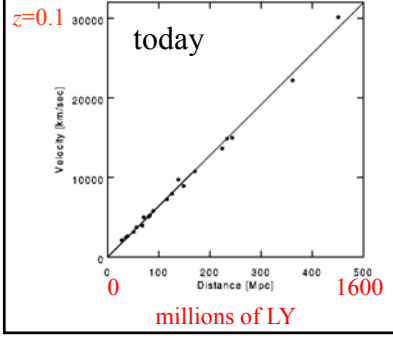
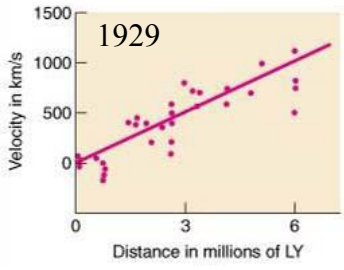
Distances of extra-galactic nebulae depend ultimately upon the application of absolute-luminosity criteria to involved stars whose types can be recognized. These include, among others, Cepheid variables, novae, and blue stars involved in emission nebulosity. Numerical values depend upon the zero point of the period-luminosity relation among Cepheids, the other criteria merely check the order of the distances. This method

Hubble's Law

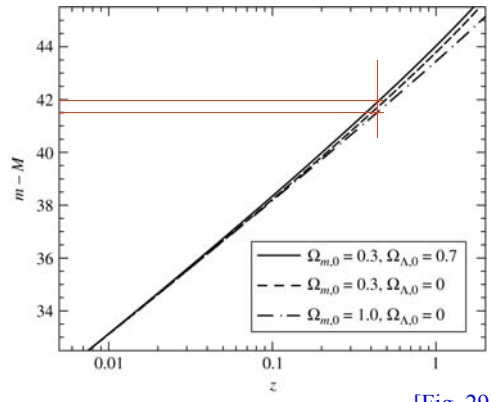




Large Distances Needed

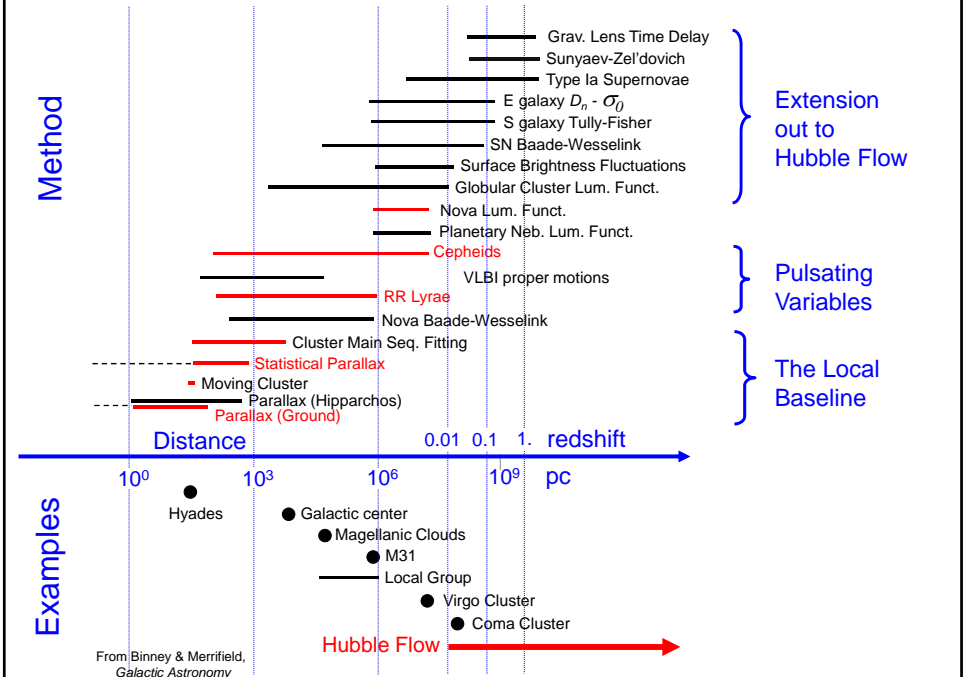


- To distinguish between cosmological models
 - In the example, 0.5 mag accuracy ~ 50% accuracy.



[Fig. 29.26]

The Cosmic Distance Ladder

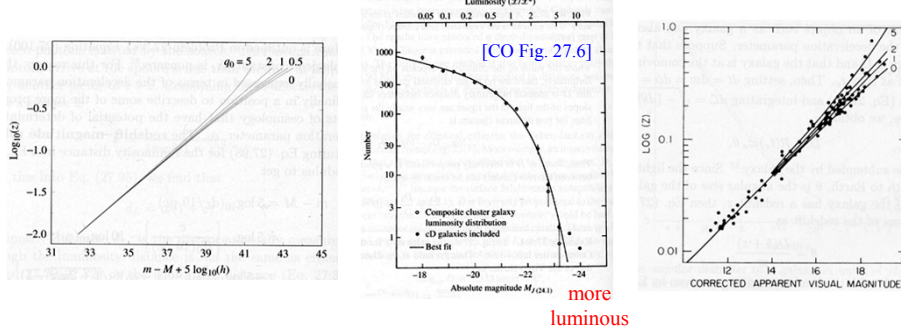


From Binney & Merrifield, Galactic Astronomy

Former approach for reaching large distances: Calibrate Brightest Cluster Galaxies

- To get out to large distances → want most luminous possible objects.

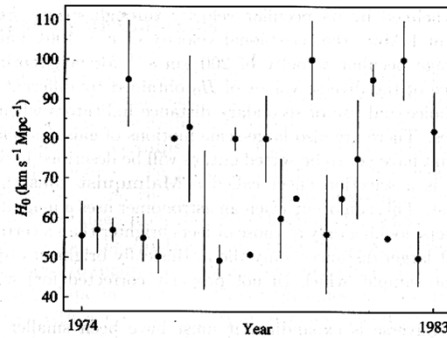
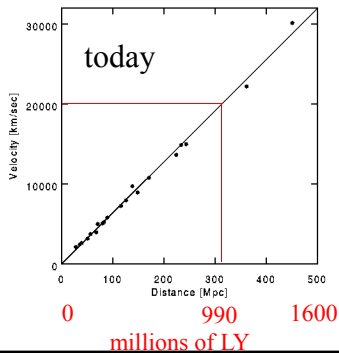
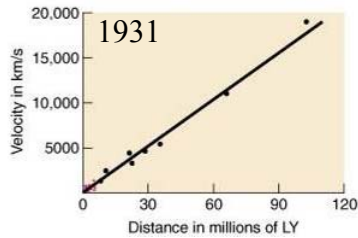
Schechter Luminosity Function



But large distances → large lookback time → evolution effects.

Disaster!

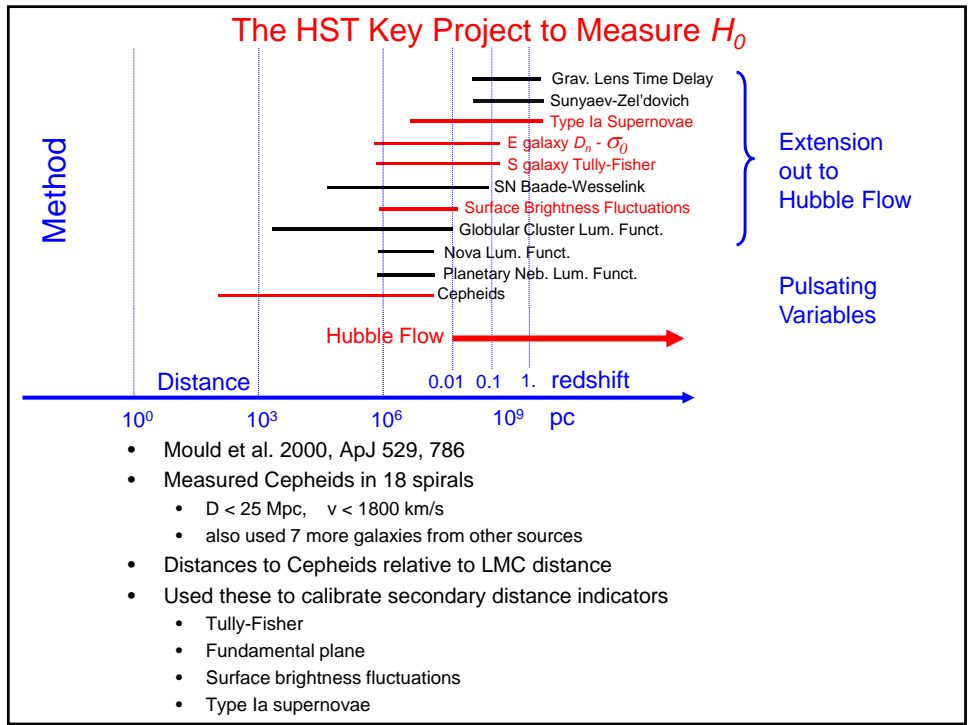
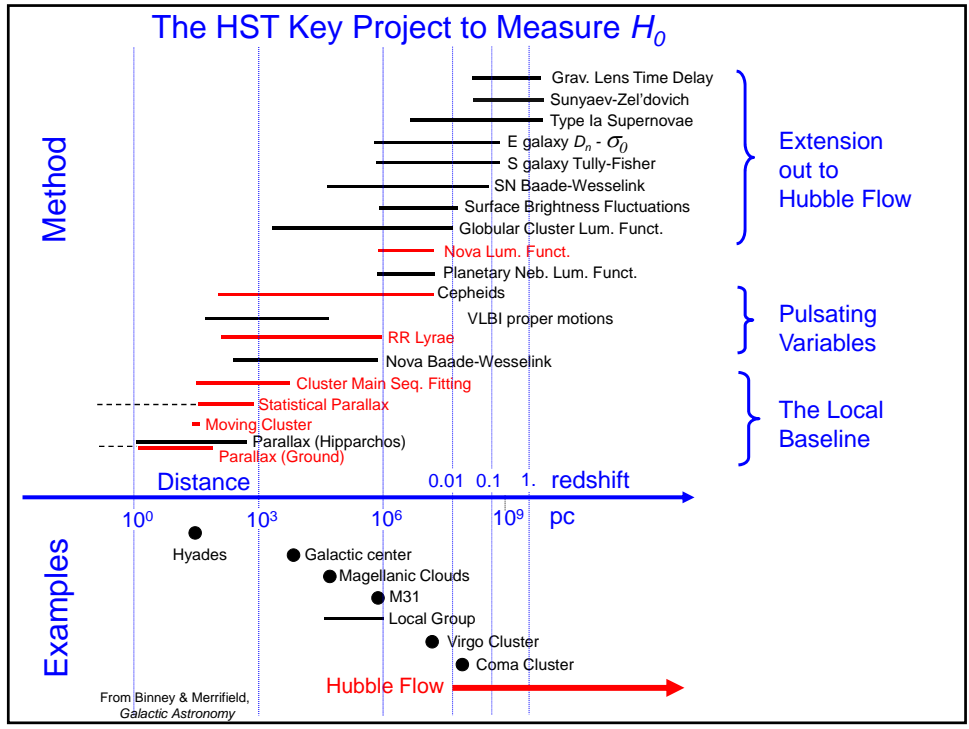
Hubble's Law



Little h

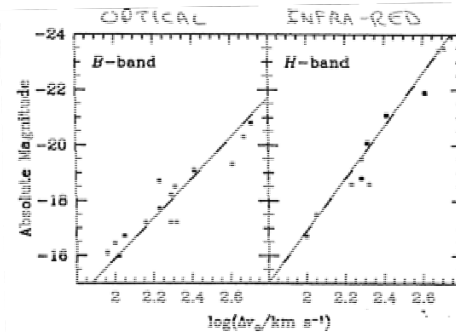
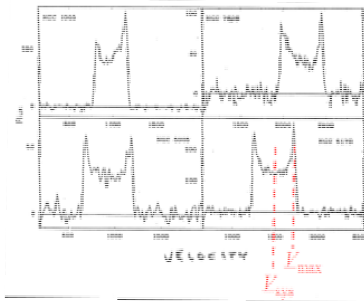
- The Hubble Un-constant (blush)
 $H_0 = 100h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$
- Hubble time

$$t_H = 1/H_0 = 9.78 \times 10^9 h^{-1} \text{ yr.}$$



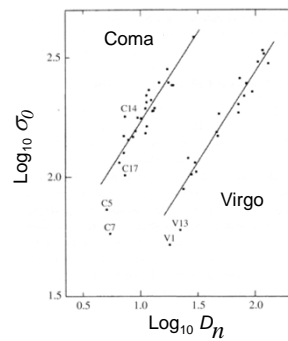
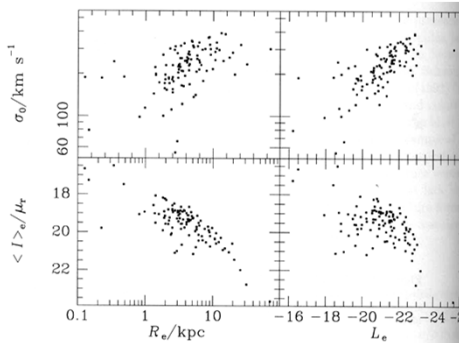
Tully-Fisher Relation

- L - v correlation
- for spiral galaxies, v easily measured using H I 21cm (radio) profiles.
- must apply $\sin i$ correction for inclination.
- infrared Tully-Fisher: IR measurements minimize scatter in L due to absorption \implies tighter correlation
- $F/L \rightarrow$ distance



E Galaxy Fundamental Plane The $D_n - \sigma_0$ relation

- Define:
 D_n = angular diameter at which surface brightness reaches
 $I_n = 20.75$ B-mag/arcsec²
- Observations show that linear size (in kpc) corresponding to D_n is tightly correlated with σ_0
- $D_n - \sigma_0$ relation combines radius, surface brightness and internal velocity dispersion σ_0
 \rightarrow *The Fundamental Plane strikes again!*
- Angular size = $D_n = (\text{linear size})/\text{distance}$
- 15% scatter in resulting distance to any one galaxy.



[CO Fig. 27.5]

Surface brightness fluctuations

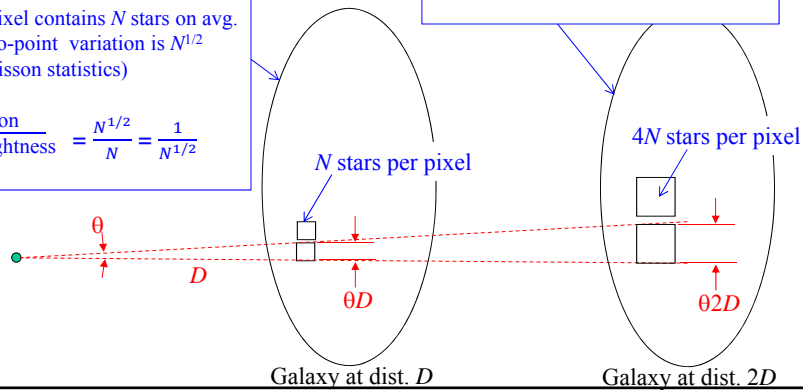
- Same galaxy seen at any distance will have same surface brightness.
 - Flux from each star drops as $1/D^2$
 - But number of stars in each pixel grows as D^2 .
- But surface brightness distributions look smoother for larger D .

- Each pixel contains N stars on avg.
- Point-to-point variation is $N^{1/2}$ (Poisson statistics)

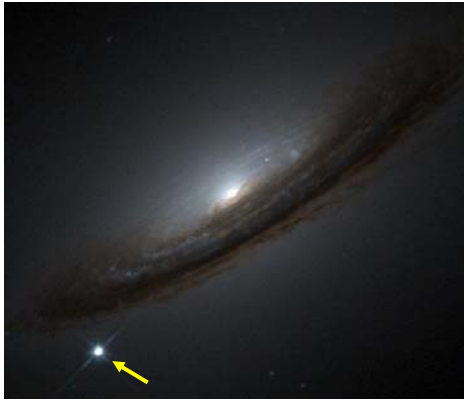
$$\frac{\text{Variation}}{\text{Avg. Brightness}} = \frac{N^{1/2}}{N} = \frac{1}{N^{1/2}}$$

- Each pixel contains $4N$ stars on avg.
- Point-to-point variation is $(4N)^{1/2}$ (Poisson statistics)

$$\frac{\text{Variation}}{\text{Avg. Brightness}} = \frac{(4N)^{1/2}}{4N} = \frac{1}{2N^{1/2}}$$



Type Ia Supernovae



Core collapse supernovae

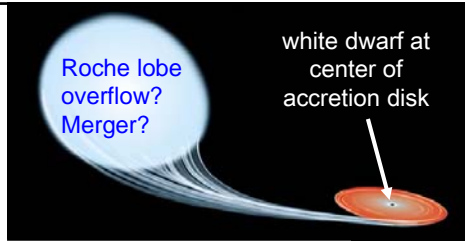
- Massive stars ($M > 8$ or $10 M_{sun}$)
- Wide range in $M \rightarrow$ wide range in L
- Not useful as "standard candles"

Type Ia supernovae

- White dwarf with $M \sim 1.4 M_{sun}$
- L can be precisely calibrated.
- Good standard candles.

Type Ia Supernovae

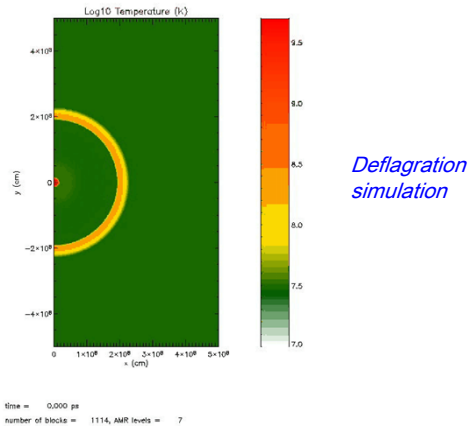
- Something dumps too much mass onto white dwarf.
- Increased density → runaway heating through C + C burning
- Heating rate faster than dynamical timescale
 - White dwarf cannot peacefully respond to pressure increase.
- *Deflagration*
 - leading to *detonation*?



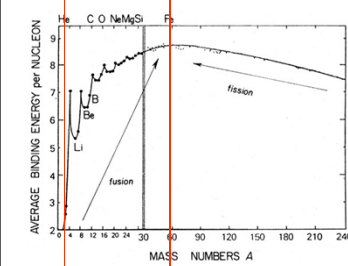
Type Ia Supernovae as “standard candles”.

- Always happens when mass goes just past limit for heating-cooling balance.
 - Supernova always has ~ same luminosity (factor 10).

• Get distance from $Flux = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2}$



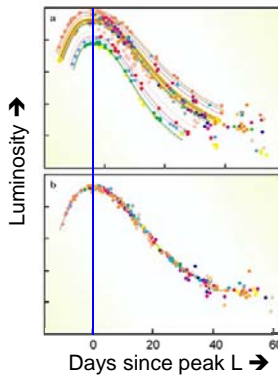
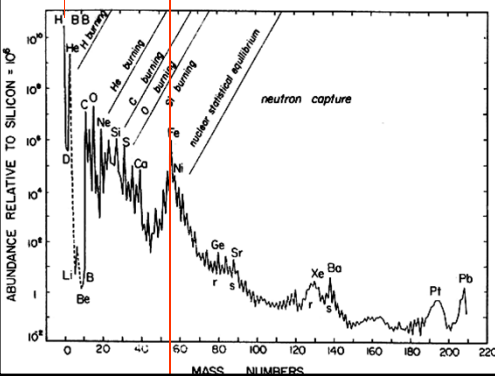
SN Ia as Standard Candles



Light output powered by radioactive decay:



- Amount of Ni determines both luminosity *and* opacity.
- So luminosity and fading timescale are correlated.

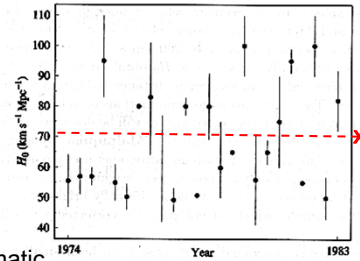


Observed range in *L* and fading timescale.

After correcting for *L* - timescale correlation.

The HST Key Project to Measure H_0

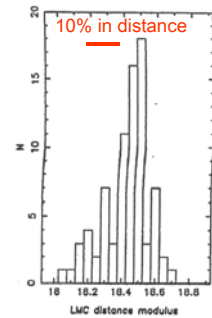
- Measured Distances to Cepheids.
 - relative to LMC distance.
- Used these to calibrate secondary distance indicators in same galaxies.



	value	random	systematic
Tully-Fisher	71	± 4	± 4
$D_n - \sigma_0$	78	8	10
Surface Brightness Fluct.	69	4	6
Type Ia SNe	68	2	2

Average: $H_0 = 71 \pm 6$ km/s/Mpc

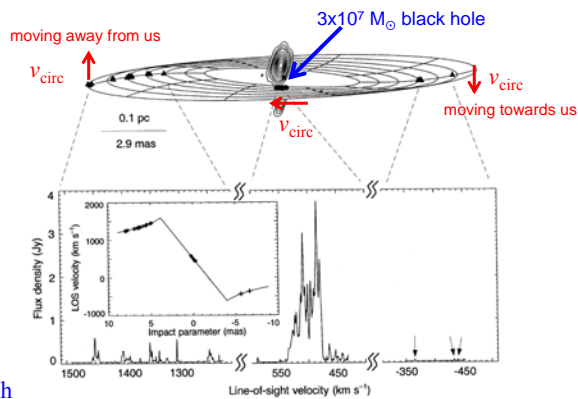
- Uncertainties:
 - Correction for large scale flows
 - Distance to LMC.
 - Taken to be 50 kpc \pm 6.5%



Distribution of published LMC distance moduli



Megamaser Galaxies



- Radio telescope observes H_2O emission line.
- Maser (stimulated emission) when there is long path through gas at same radial velocity (as seen by us).
 - Intense brightening of beam.
- Radio VLBI measurements of maser proper motion $d\theta/dt$ and v_r

- Keplerian rotation around BH.
- Proper motion of maser knot

$$= \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{v_{\text{circ}}}{D}$$

$$D = 7.2 \text{ Mpc}$$

Latest Result: $H_0 = 73.8 \pm 2.6 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$



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doi:10.1088/0004-637X/730/2/119

Nobel Prize

A 3% SOLUTION: DETERMINATION OF THE HUBBLE CONSTANT WITH THE HUBBLE SPACE TELESCOPE AND WIDE FIELD CAMERA 3*

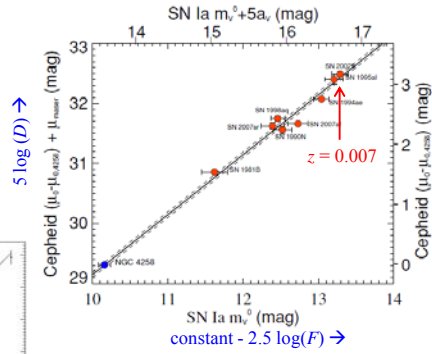
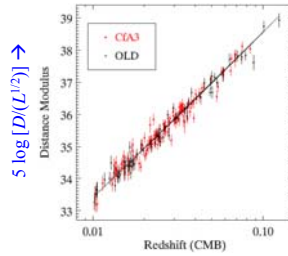
ADAM G. RIESS^{1,2}, LUCAS MACRI³, STEFANO CASERTANO², HUBERT LAMPEIT⁴, HENRY C. FERGUSON², ALEXEI V. FILIPPENKO⁵, SAURABH W. JHA⁶, WEIDONG LI⁵, RYAN CHORNOCK⁷, AND JEFFREY M. SILVERMAN⁵

- Recalibrated Cepheid P-L relation in 3 ways:

- Distance to Megamaser galaxy NGC4258.
- Better parallaxes to MW Cepheids.
- Improved distance to LMC.

- Calibrated luminosities of 8 "nearby" SN Ia using Cepheids in same galaxies.

- Determined H_0 from Hubble diagram for existing sample of 253 SN Ia with redshift $z \leq 0.1$



Distance modulus:
 $(m-M) = 5 \log(D/10 \text{ pc})$
 $L / F \propto D^2$

[CO pg. 62]