

SECOND COSMOLOGY SCHOOL



Ministry of Science
and Higher Education
Republic of Poland

INTRODUCTION TO COSMOLOGY
Kielce, Poland 11.07 - 24.07.2016



HECOLS
Polish-French
collaboration
in astrophysics



Naukaonline.pl
Polish Academy of Sciences ACADEMIA

Cosmology with strong lensing systems

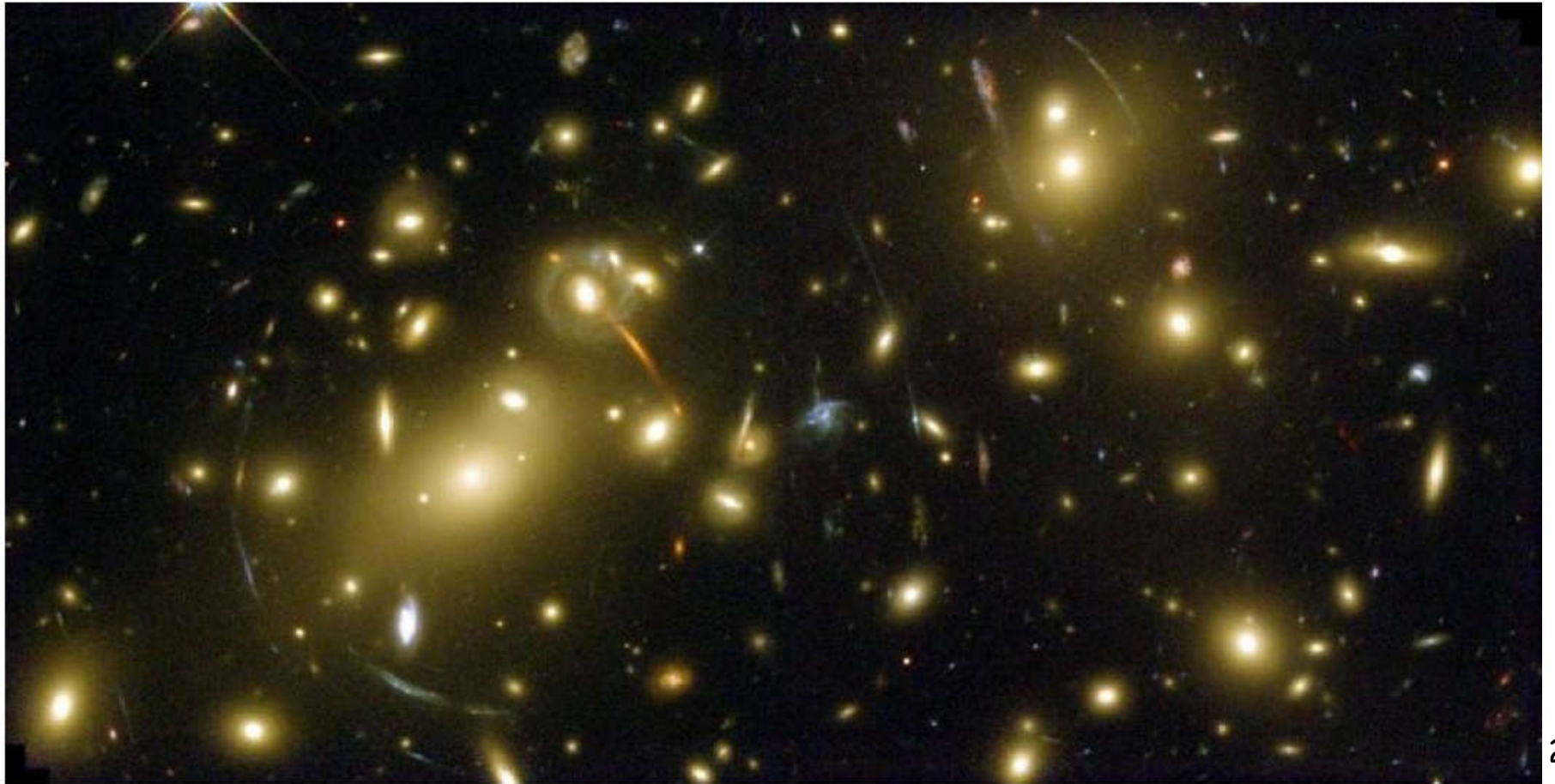
Marek Biesiada

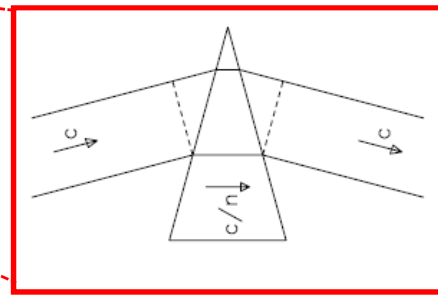
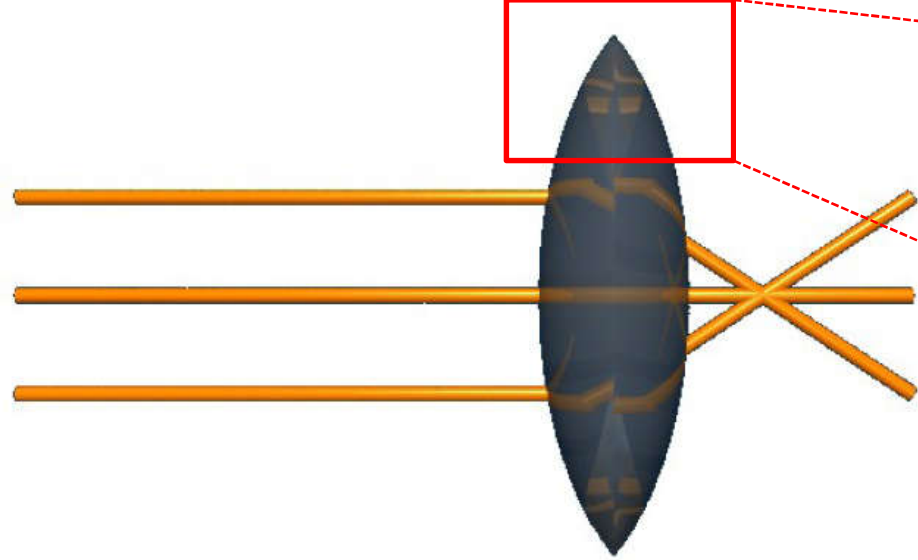


Department of Astrophysics and Cosmology
Institute of Physics,
University of Silesia
Katowice, Poland

Gravitational lenses

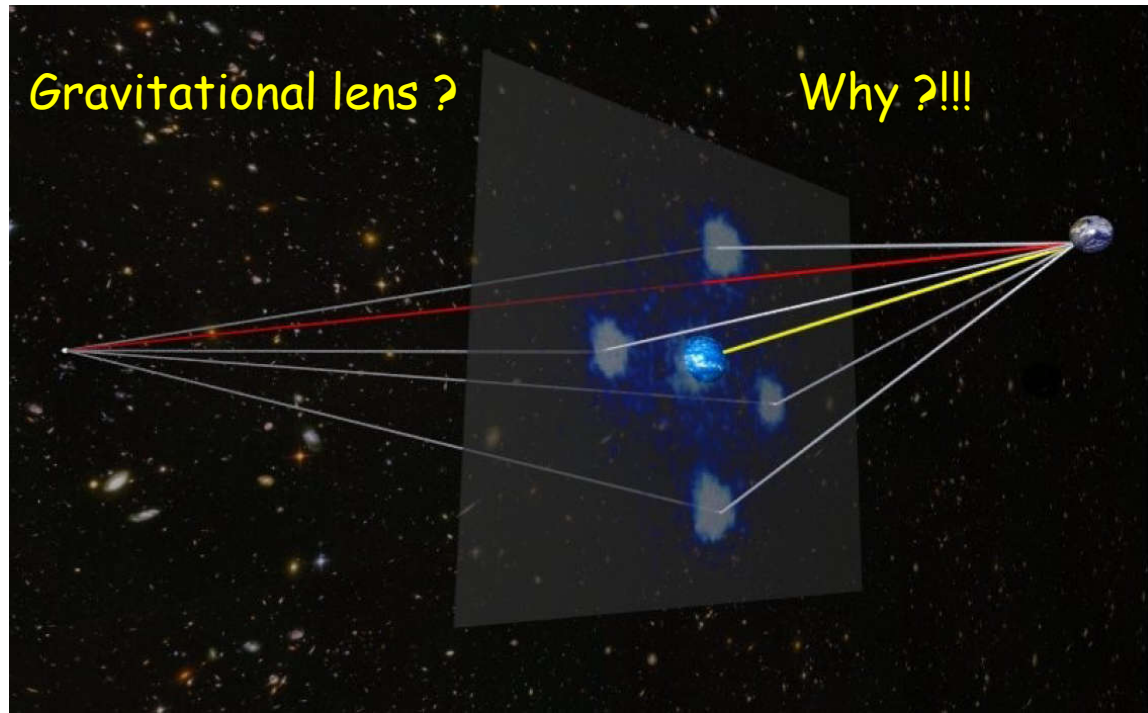
Why?





Usual lens bends light because of the difference in the index of refraction n

But in vacuum $n = 1$!



It all began in 1915

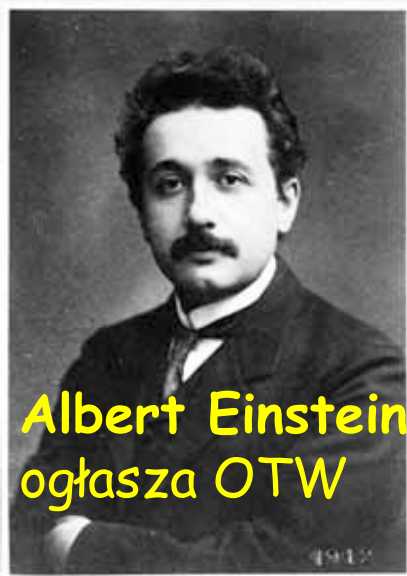
2015 -Centenary of
GR



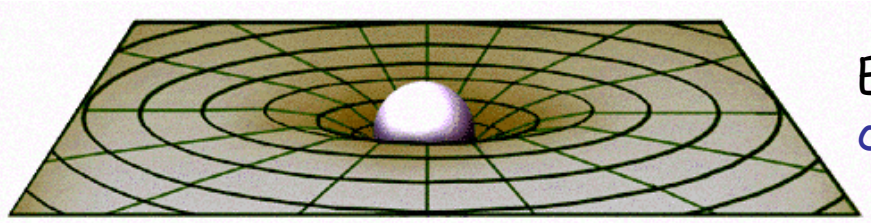
United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Year of Light
2015



Albert Einstein
ogłasza OTW

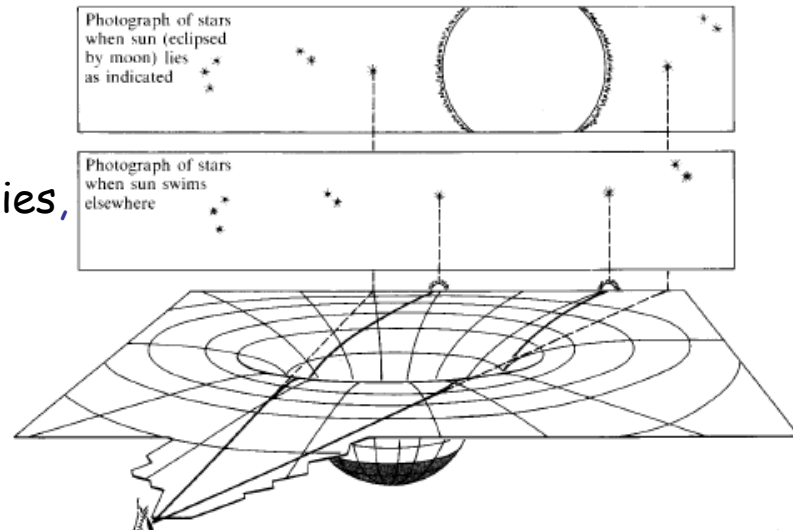


Einstein Equations - matter
curves spacetime

Free motion in curved spacetime
is along geodesics
(the shortest paths)

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

Bending of light near the surface of
the Sun
Curvature of spacetime
affects not only trajectories of massive bodies,
but
also of the light !



Bending of light - History:

John Michell (1724-1793) in a letter to Henry Cavendish (1731-1810) [independently von Soldner 1801]

- suppose that light is comprised of particles
- in the gravitational field of the Sun light particle moves along a trajectory (being a solution of a Newtonian 2 body problem)
- in general it would be a conical section (ellipse, parabola, hyperbola)
- for light it's clearly a hyperbola ($c \gg v_{esc}$)

• hence the bending angle

$$\alpha = \frac{2GM}{c^2 b}$$

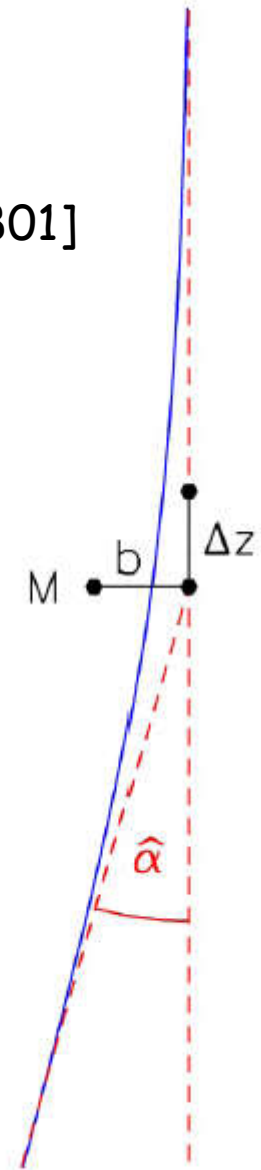
• for a corpuscule of light grazing the Sun

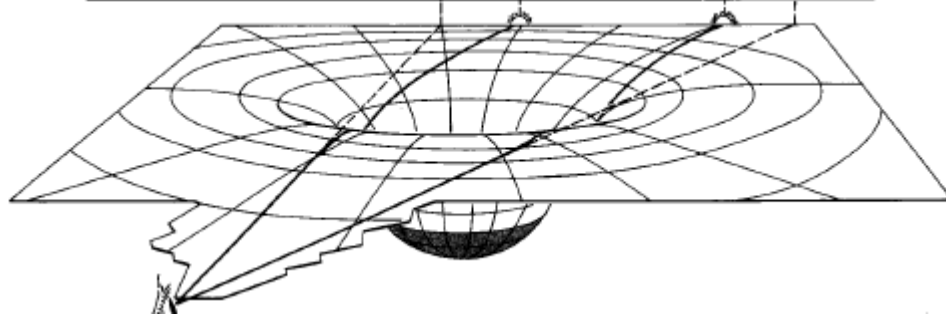
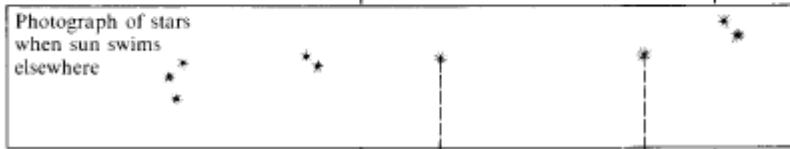
$$m = M_{\odot} = 1.989 \times 10^{30} \text{kg}$$

$$R = R_{\odot} = 6.96 \times 10^8 \text{m}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{2GM}{c^2 R} = 0''.875$$

„seeing“ 0.''5 - 1.''



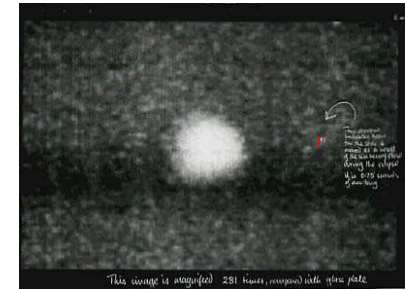
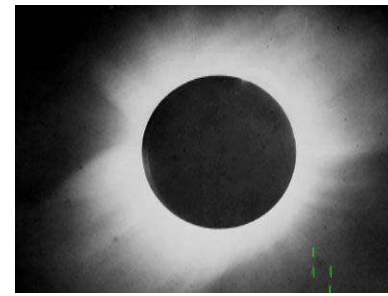


Light bending near the surface of the Sun

Calculations within the GR

$$\alpha = \frac{4GM}{c^2 R} = 1''.75$$

Einstein becomes a „celebrity“ - within next year more than 100 books on Relativity Theory are written



29.V.1919
Sir Arthur Eddington

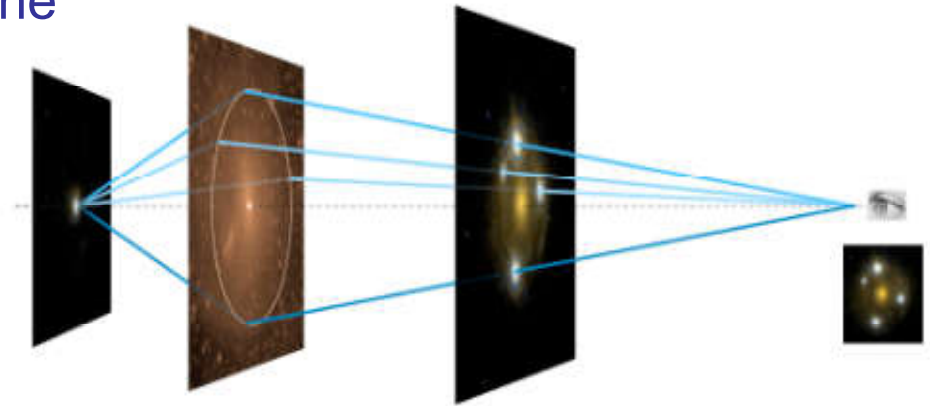
Total solar eclipse in front of the Hyad cluster

Gravitational Lensing

Spherically symmetric lens model – the simplest realistic case

Einstein radius (determined by **mass** !)
- defines **characteristic angular scale**

$$\theta_E = \sqrt{\frac{4GM_E}{c^2} \frac{D_{ls}}{D_s D_l}}$$



Two images form on the opposite side of the lens

Time delay between images

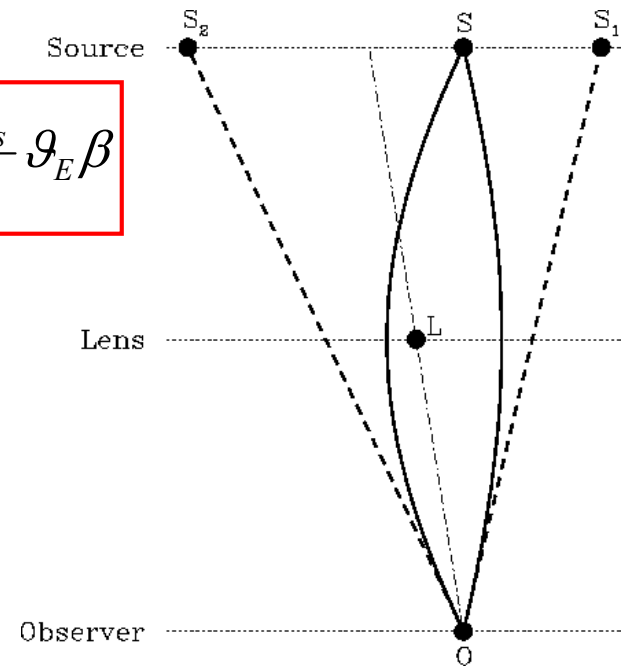
$$\Delta t = \frac{2(1+z_l)}{c} \frac{D_l D_s}{D_{ls}} \theta_E \beta$$

Two lensing regimes:

Strong:

- multiple images
- time delays between images – (a method to measure H_0)

Weak: image distortion



Gravitational lensing - early days

- Einstein skeptical concerning this effect

solar mass $1 M_{\odot}$ lenses, with distances 5 - 10 kpc typical for the Galaxy
have Einstein rings $0''.001$ - **unobservable** !

- Zwicky 1937 (!) galaxies as lenses

masses $10^{11} - 10^{12} M_{\odot}$
distances 10 Mpc - 1 Gpc
Einstein ring $1''$.

This is observable !



LENS-LIKE ACTION OF A STAR BY THE DEVIATION OF LIGHT IN THE GRAVITATIONAL FIELD

SOME time ago, R. W. Mandl paid me a visit and asked me to publish the results of a little calculation, which I had made at his request. This note complies with his wish.

The light coming from a star A traverses the gravitational field of another star B , whose radius is R_o . Let there be an observer at a distance D from B and at a distance x , small compared with D , from the extended central line \overline{AB} . According to the general theory of relativity, let α_o be the deviation of the light ray passing the star B at a distance R_o from its center.

For the sake of simplicity, let us assume that \overline{AB} is large, compared with the distance D of the observer from the deviating star B . We also neglect the eclipse (geometrical obscuration) by the star B , which indeed is negligible in all practically important cases. To permit this, D has to be very large compared to the radius R_o of the deviating star.

It follows from the law of deviation that an observer situated exactly on the extension of the central line \overline{AB} will perceive, instead of a point-like star A , a luminous circle of the angular radius β around the center of B , where

$$\beta = \sqrt{\alpha_o \frac{R_o}{D}}$$

It should be noted that this angular diameter β does

not decrease like $1/D$, but like $1/\sqrt{D}$, as the distance D increases.

Of course, there is no hope of observing this phenomenon directly. First, we shall scarcely ever approach closely enough to such a central line. Second, the angle β will defy the resolving power of our instruments. For, α_o being of the order of magnitude of one second of arc, the angle R_o/D , under which the deviating star B is seen, is much smaller. Therefore, the light coming from the luminous circle can not be distinguished by an observer as geometrically different from that coming from the star B , but simply will manifest itself as increased apparent brightness of B .

The same will happen, if the observer is situated at a small distance x from the extended central line \overline{AB} . But then the observer will see A as two point-like light-sources, which are deviated from the true geometrical position of A by the angle β , approximately.

The apparent brightness of A will be increased by the lens-like action of the gravitational field of B in the ratio q . This q will be considerably larger than unity only if x is so small that the observed positions of A and B coincide, within the resolving power of our instruments. Simple geometric considerations lead to the expression

$$q = \frac{l}{x} \cdot \frac{1 + \frac{x^2}{2l^2}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{x^2}{4l^2}}}$$

where

$$l = \sqrt{\alpha_o D R_o}$$

DECEMBER 4, 1936

SCIEN

If we are interested mainly in the case $q \gg 1$, the formula

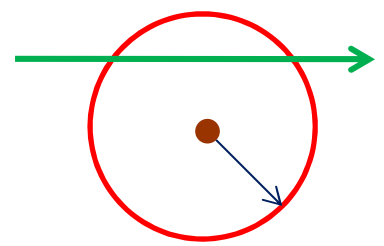
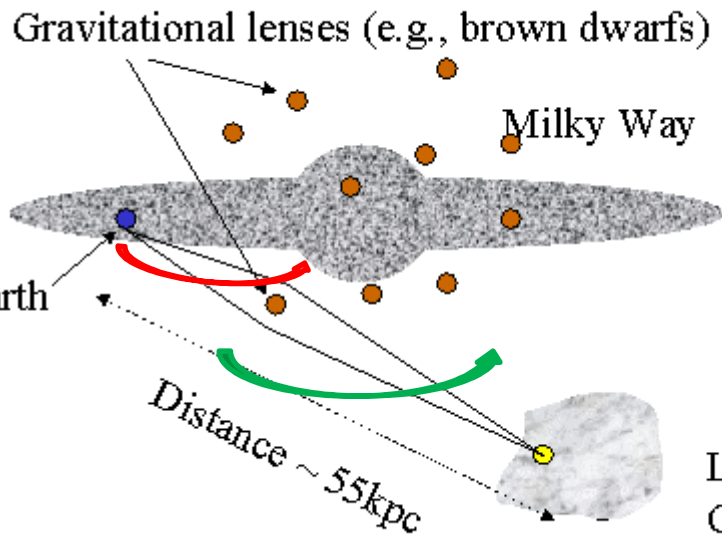
$$q = \frac{l}{x}$$

is a sufficient approximation, since $\frac{x^2}{l^2}$ may be neglected. Even in the most favorable cases the length l is only a few light-seconds, and x must be small compared with this, if an appreciable increase of the apparent brightness of A is to be produced by the lens-like action of B .

Therefore, there is no great chance of observing this phenomenon, even if dazzling by the light of the much nearer star B is disregarded. This apparent amplification of q by the lens-like action of the star B is a most curious effect, not so much for its becoming infinite, with x vanishing, but since with increasing distance D of the observer not only does it not decrease, but even increases proportionally to \sqrt{D} .

ALBERT EINSTEIN

INSTITUTE FOR ADVANCED STUDY,
PRINCETON, N. J.



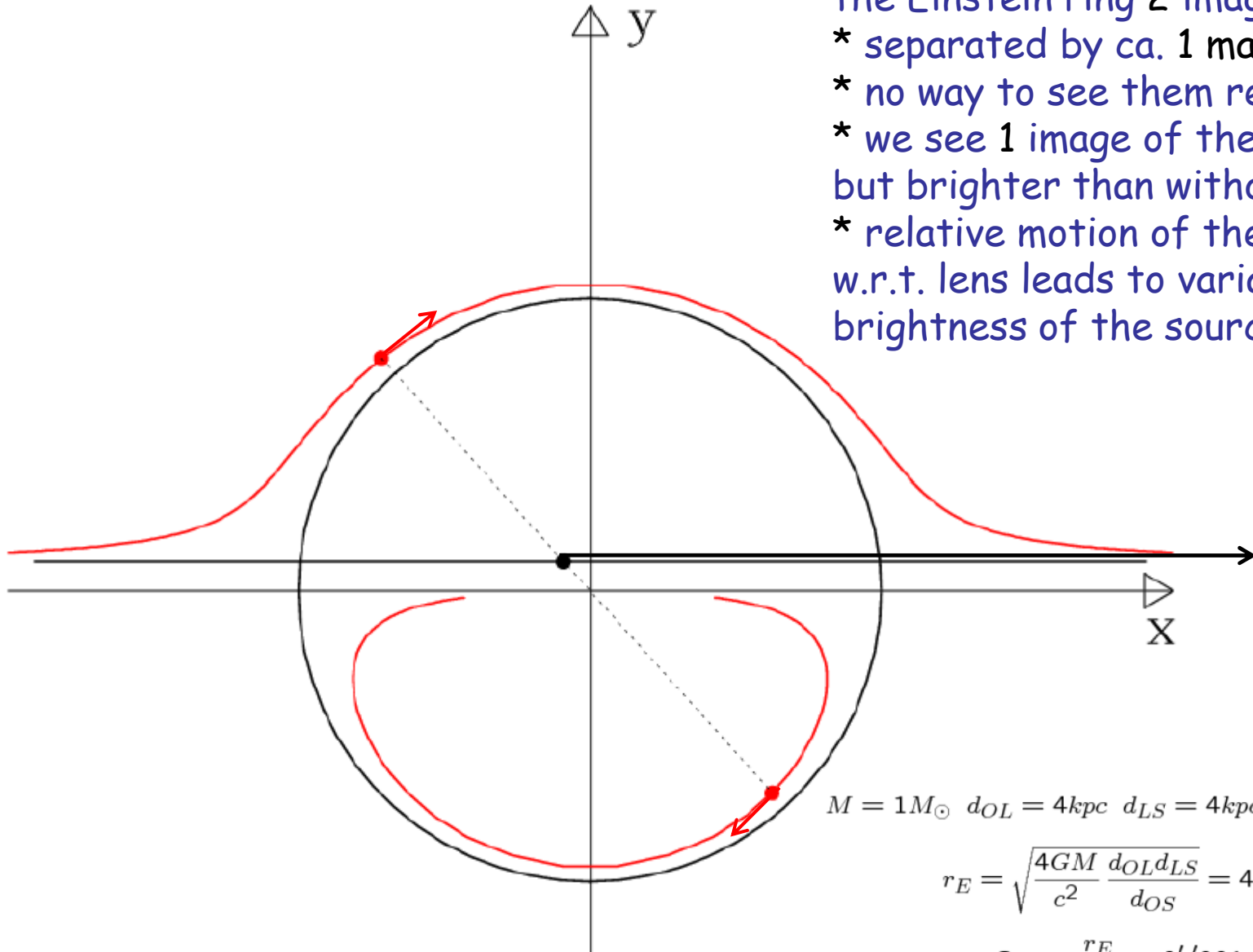
relative motion
source vs. lens

promień Einsteina
soczewki

Bohdan Paczyński 1986
observational idea of microlensing



When source crosses
the Einstein ring 2 images appear
* separated by ca. 1 mas
* no way to see them resolved
* we see 1 image of the source
but brighter than without lensing
* relative motion of the source
w.r.t. lens leads to variable
brightness of the source

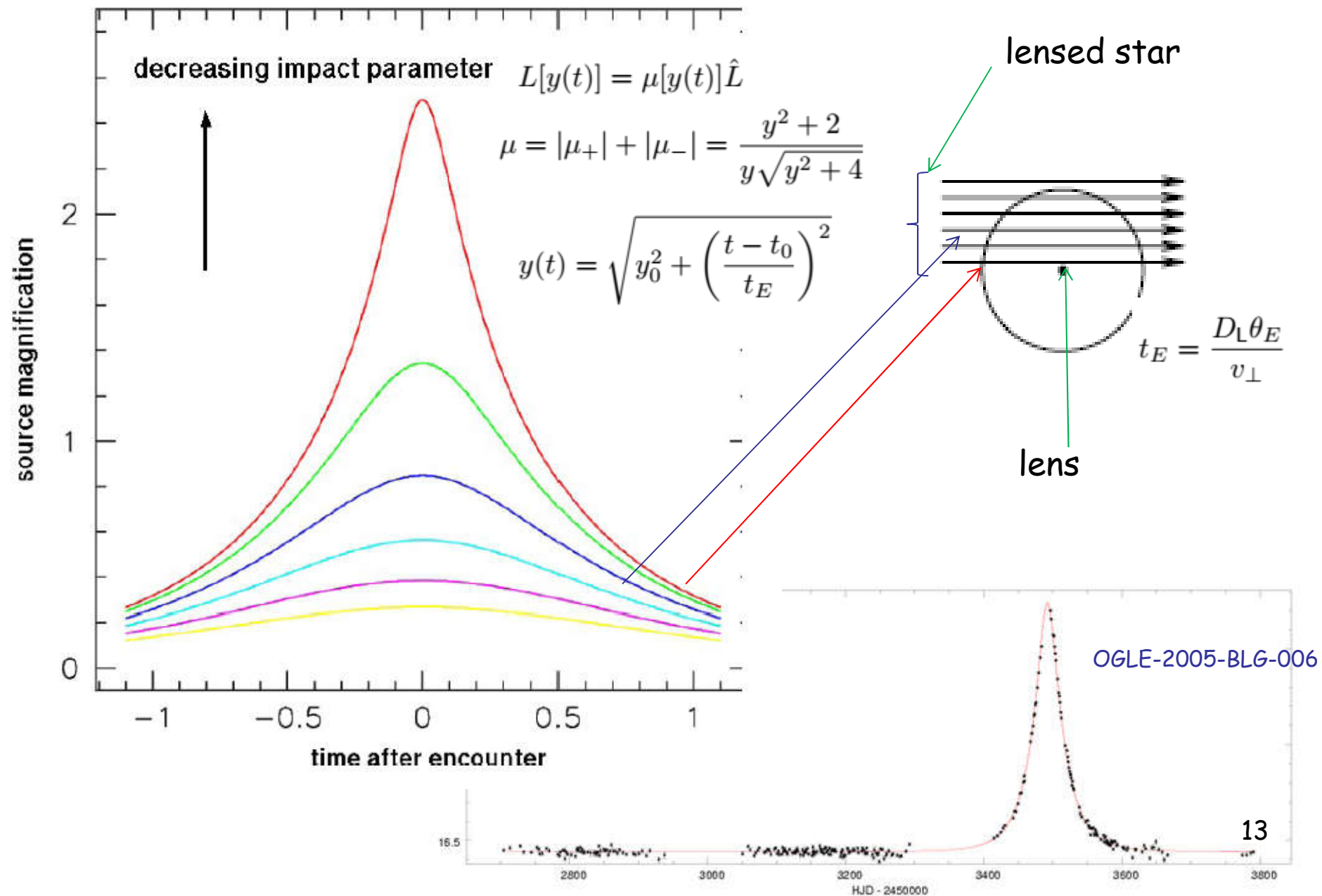


$$M = 1M_{\odot} \quad d_{OL} = 4kpc \quad d_{LS} = 4kpc \quad d_{OS} = 8kpc$$

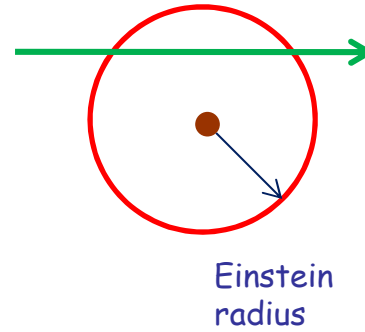
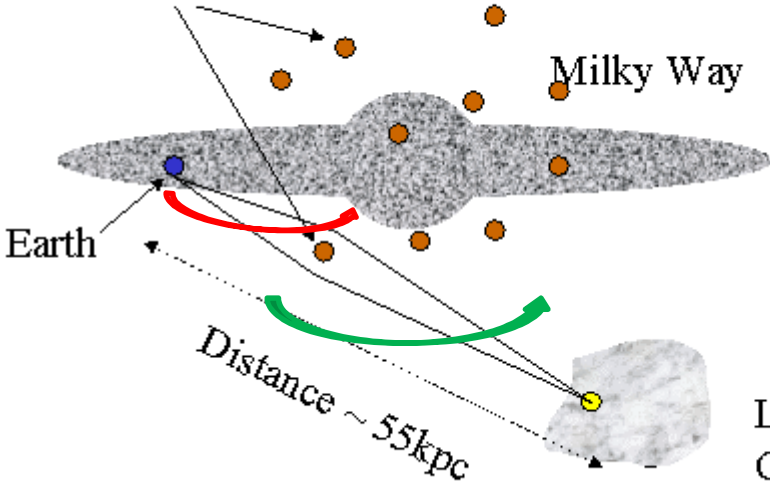
$$r_E = \sqrt{\frac{4GM}{c^2} \frac{d_{OL}d_{LS}}{d_{OS}}} = 4AU$$

$$\Theta_E = \frac{r_E}{d_{OL}} = 0'.001$$

Microensing lightcurve



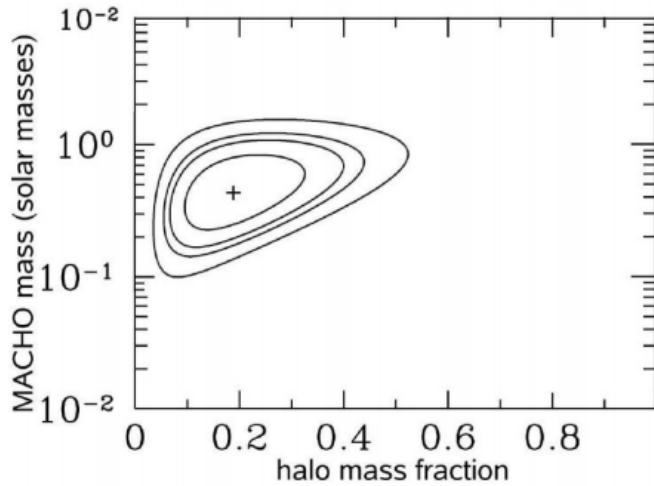
Gravitational lenses (e.g., brown dwarfs)



relative motion
source vs. lens

Einstein
radius

Bohdan Paczyński 1986
observational idea of microlensing

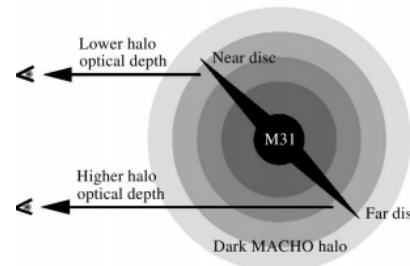


$$\tau_{\text{LMC(MACHO)}} = 1.2^{+0.4}_{-0.3} \times 10^{-7}$$

Alcock C. et al. (2000) ApJ 542, 281

$$\tau_{\text{LMC(EROS)}} \approx 10^{-7}$$

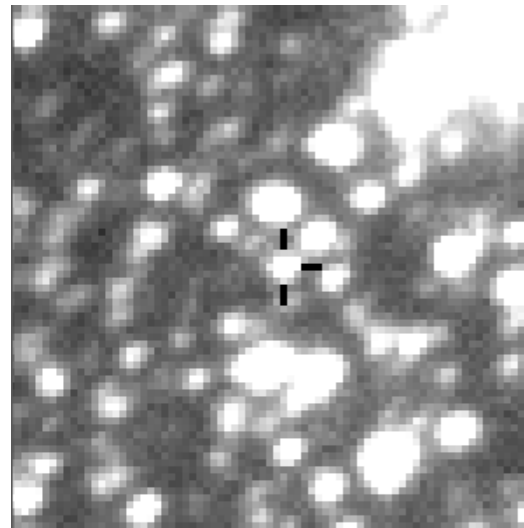
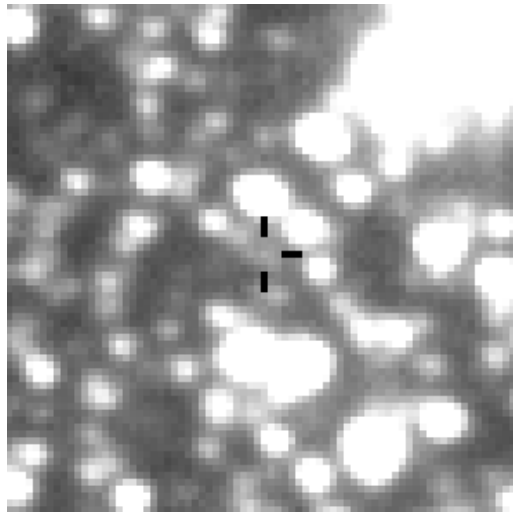
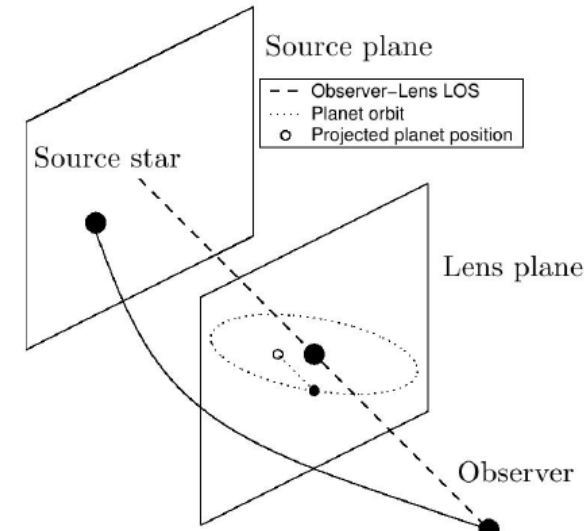
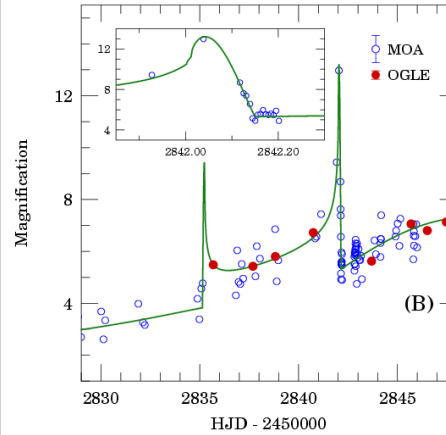
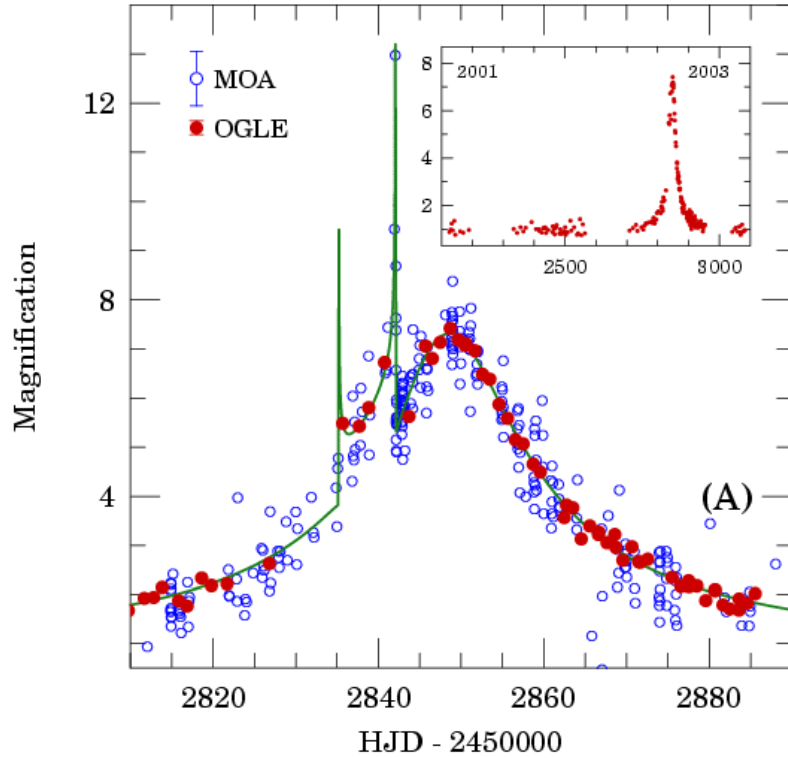
Afonso C. et al. (2003) A&A 400, 951



Kerins E. et al. (2001) MNRAS 323, 13

Pixelensing towards M31

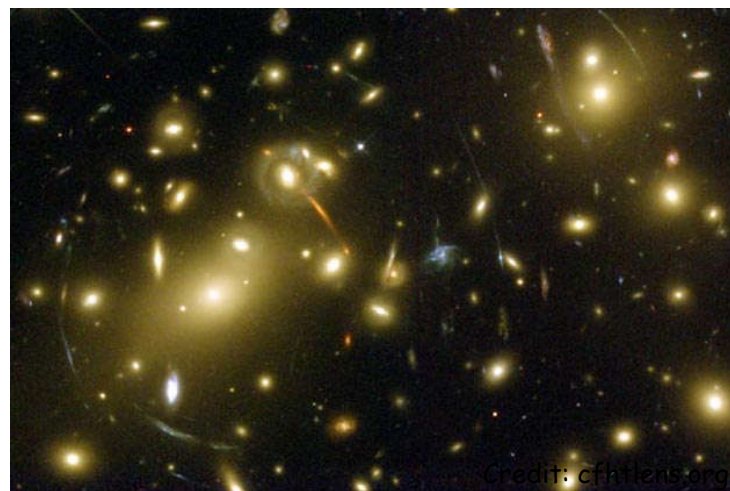
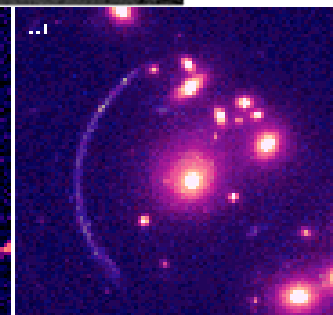
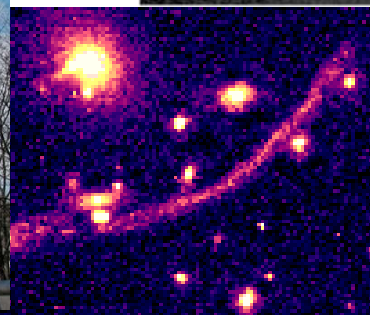
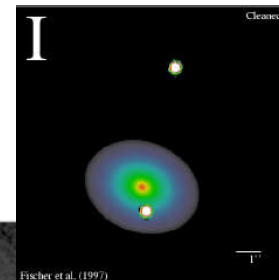
Search for extraterrestrial planets - B.Paczynski, S. Mao 1991



OGLE team
discovered
14 planetary systems
using this technique

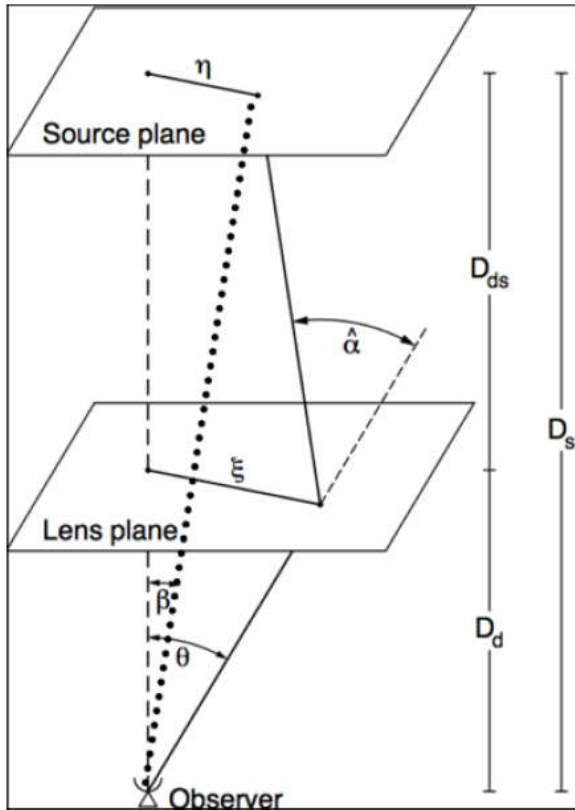
Strong lensing history

- **Revival** - Refsdal 1964 idea: H_0 can be measured from time delays
- Walsh, Carswell & Weymann 1979 - QSO-0957+561A,B
- „mysterious“ giant arcs around clusters
A370, Cl2244 (Paczynski suggests gravitational lensing)
Soucail, Fort, Mellier 1987 confirm it spectroscopically
- in the period 1978 - 1992 only 11 lenses discovered
- 2006 about 70
- now we have 300 strong lensing systems:
ongoing surveys
SLACS, BELLS, CFHT - SL2S, CLASS, SQLS,
HAGGLEs, AEGIS, COSMOS, CASSOWARY
- in the future Pan-STARRS, LSST, JDES, SKA



Gravitational lensing

Light rays formalism



Wavefronts formalism
(Fermat principle)

Light travels along a path extremalizing

time of flight $\int \frac{n}{c} dl$

$$\hat{\alpha}(\theta) D_{ls} + \beta D_s = \theta D_s$$

Lensing equation:

$$\beta = \theta - \alpha(\theta)$$

gradient \uparrow
 ψ_{2D}

$$\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta} - \frac{\partial \psi_{2D}}{\partial \vec{\theta}} = 0$$

Gravitational lensing

Wavefronts formalism
(Fermat principle)

index of refraction

$$\delta \int_A^B n(\vec{x}(l)) dl = 0$$

Light travels along a path extremalizing

time of flight $\int \frac{n}{c} dl$

weak field limit of GR

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = \left(1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right) c^2 dt^2 - \left(1 - \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right) (d\vec{x})^2$$

null geodesics

$$\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right) c^2 dt^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right) (d\vec{x})^2$$

$$c' = \frac{|d\vec{x}|}{dt} = c \sqrt{\frac{1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}}{1 - \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}}} \approx c \left(1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right)$$

$$n = c/c' = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}} \approx 1 - \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}$$

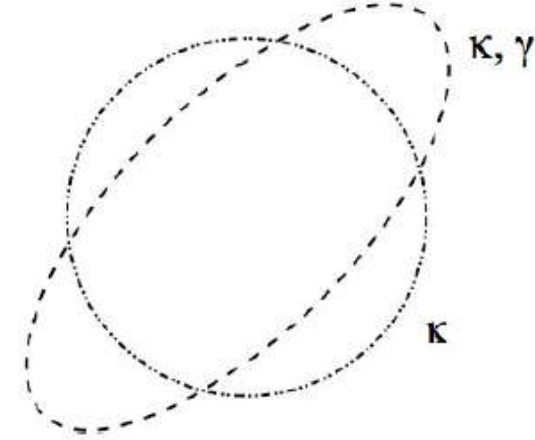
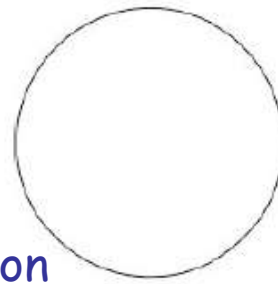
index of refraction

2-dimensional Newtonian potential - projected to the lens plane

$$\hat{\Psi}(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{D_{LS}}{D_L D_S} \frac{2}{c^2} \int \Phi(D_L \vec{\theta}, z) dz$$

$$\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta} - \frac{\partial \psi_{2D}}{\partial \vec{\theta}} = 0$$

Some Theory



Jacobi matrix for the lens equation

$$\mathcal{A}(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{\partial \vec{\beta}}{\partial \vec{\theta}} = \left(\delta_{ij} - \frac{\partial^2 \psi(\vec{\theta})}{\partial \theta_i \partial \theta_j} \right)$$

convergence - isotropic

$$\nabla^2 \psi = 2\kappa$$

$$\mathcal{A}(\vec{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \kappa - \gamma_1 & -\gamma_2 \\ -\gamma_2 & 1 - \kappa + \gamma_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

shear - anisotropic

$$\gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \theta_i^2} - \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \theta_j^2} \right)$$

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \theta_i \partial \theta_j}$$

$$\gamma \equiv \gamma_1 + i\gamma_2 = |\gamma| e^{2i\varphi}$$

$$\mathcal{A}(\vec{\theta}) = (1 - \kappa) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - \gamma \begin{pmatrix} \cos 2\phi & \sin 2\phi \\ \sin 2\phi & -\cos 2\phi \end{pmatrix}$$

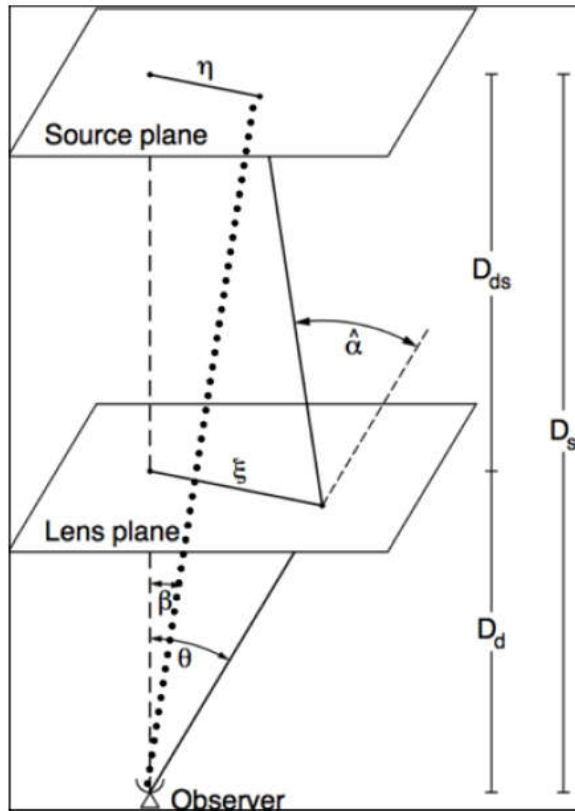
$$\mu \equiv \det M = \frac{1}{\det A} = \frac{1}{(1 - \kappa)^2 - \gamma^2}$$

magnification

Gravitational lensing



Light rays formalism



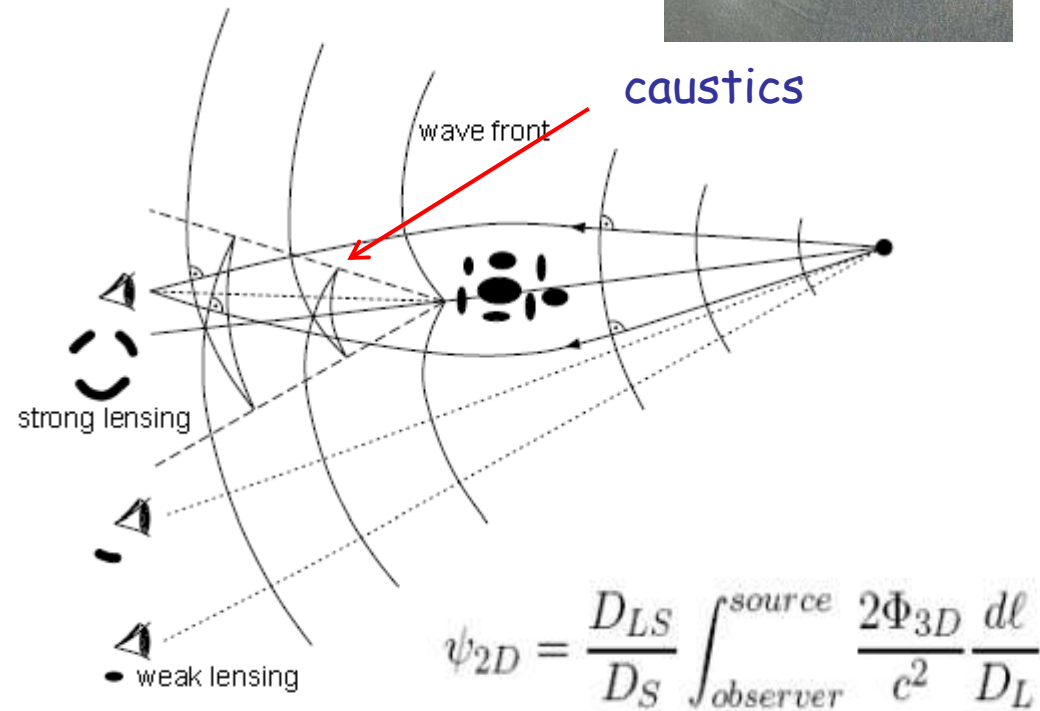
$$\hat{\alpha}(\theta) D_{ls} + \beta D_s = \theta D_s$$

$$\beta = \theta - \alpha(\theta)$$

gradient ψ_{2D}

$$\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta} - \frac{\partial \psi_{2D}}{\partial \vec{\theta}} = 0$$

Wavefronts formalism (Fermat principle)



$$\psi_{2D} = \frac{D_{LS}}{D_S} \int_{\text{observer}}^{\text{source}} \frac{2\Phi_{3D}}{c^2} \frac{dl}{D_L}$$

$$\tau = \frac{1 + z_L}{c} \frac{D_L D_S}{D_{LS}} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta})^2 - \psi_{2D}(\vec{\theta}) \right]$$

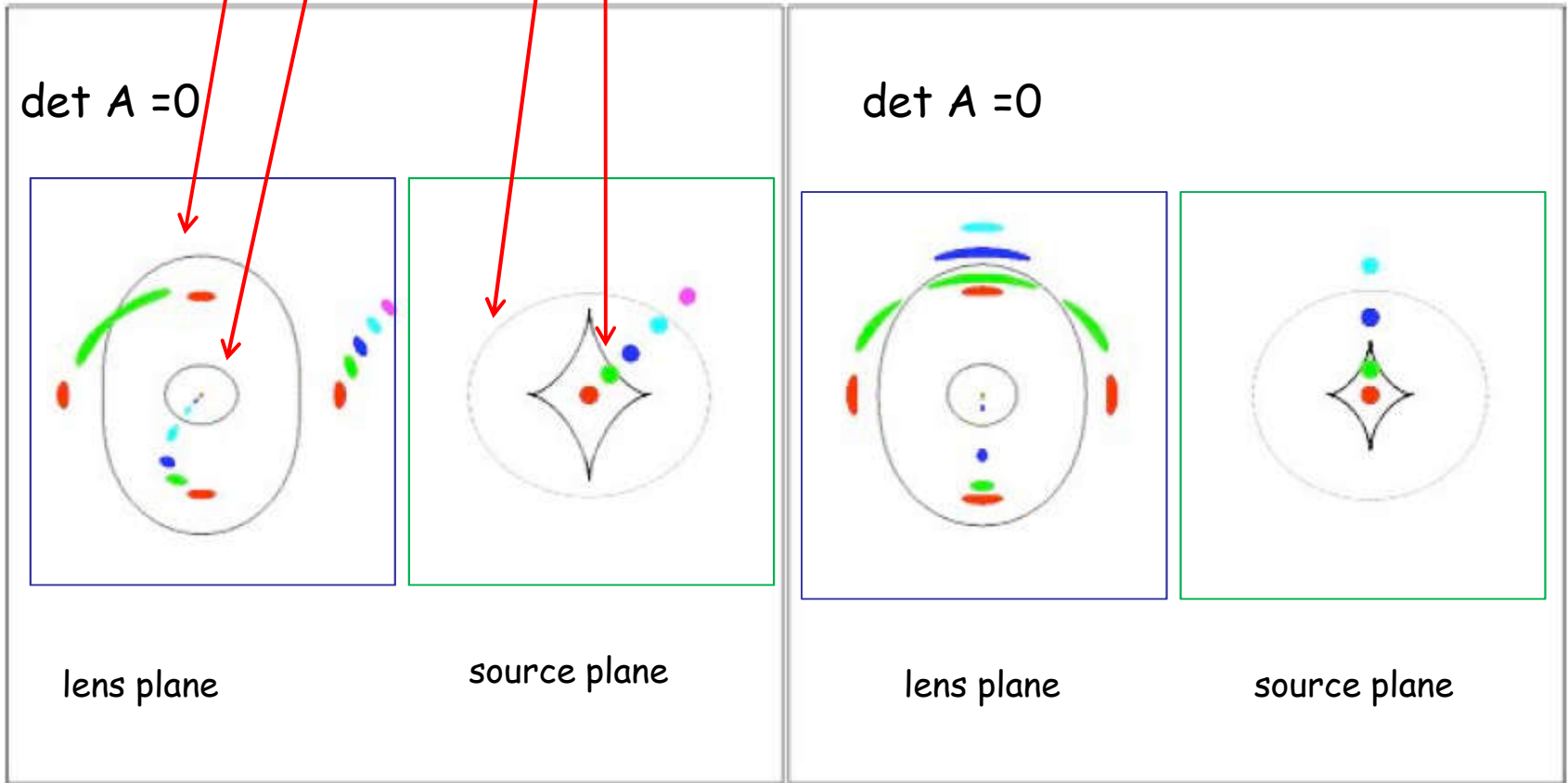
$$\nabla \tau(\theta; \beta) = 0.$$

geometrical term

Shapiro effect

Lens equation

Critical curves and caustics for the elliptic lens model



Recommended reading:

Quick yet comprehensive starters:

Massimo Meneghetti - Introduction to
Gravitational Lensing (Lecture scripts)

http://www.ita.uni-heidelberg.de/~massimo/sub/Lectures/gl_all.pdf

Ramesh Narayan, Matthias Bartelmann -
Lectures on Gravitational Lensing (1995 Jerusalem
Winter School)

<http://www.tau.ac.il/~lab3/MICROLENSING/JeruLect.pdf>

Classical Books:

P. Schneider, J.Ehlers, E.E. Falco - Gravitational
Lenses (Springer 1992)

Gravitational lensing: Strong, weak, and micro,
Saas-Fee Adv Courses
(ed.) Meylan, G., Jetzer, Ph., North P. (Berlin: Springer 2006)

Effect of gravitational lensing - summary

Two regimes of lensing:

Einstein radius

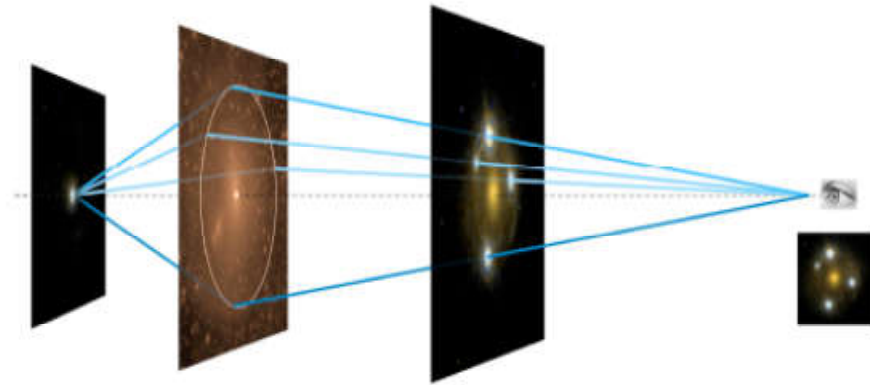
(determined by mass !)

- sets a characteristic angular scale

Strong:

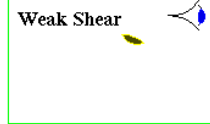
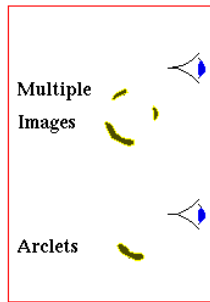
- multiple images
- time delay between images
- method to determine H_0
- image amplification

weak: distortion of images

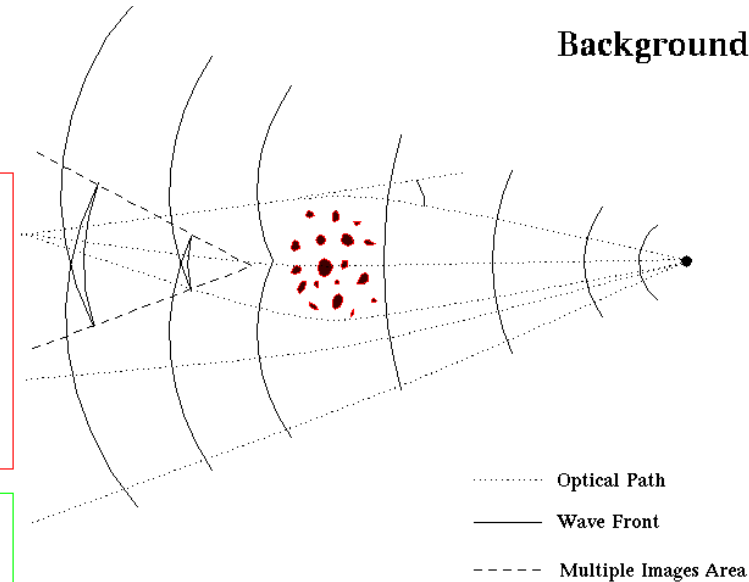


Background Galaxy

Non-Linear



Linear



..... Optical Path
—— Wave Front
- - - - Multiple Images Area

Application of strong lensing

Structure of galaxies in different evolutionary stages:

lenses as „cosmic telescopes“
lensing + stellar kinematics

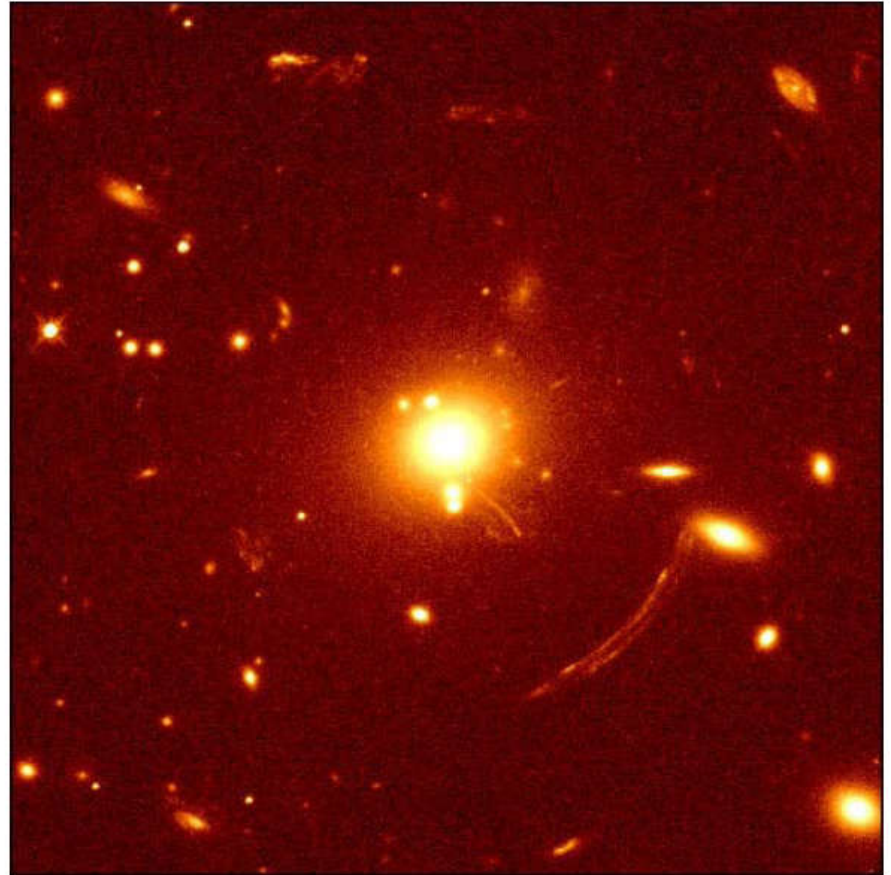
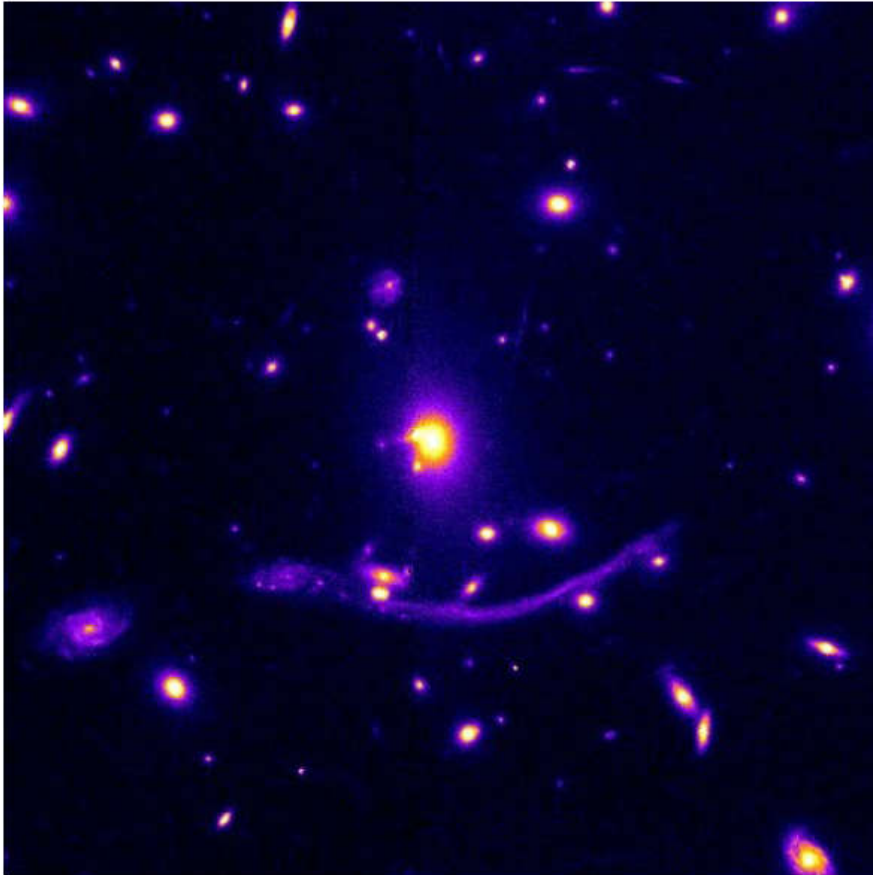
Dark matter at galactic scale:

„missing“ mass clumps at small scales
anomalous flux ratios
microlensing

Cosmology:

determining the Hubble constant
dark energy problem

Cosmic telescopes - gravitational lenses magnify the image of the source, unfortunately they strongly distort it

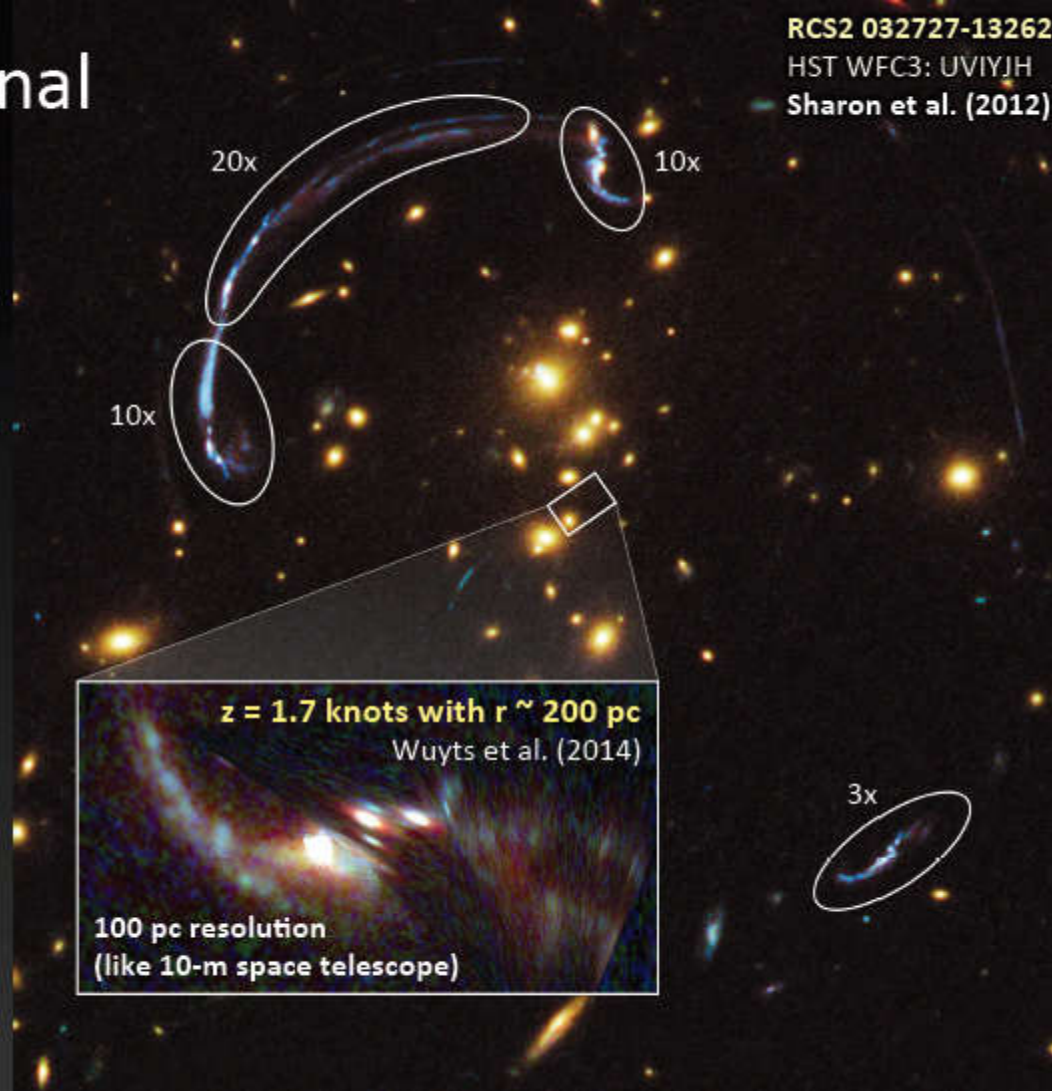


Cosmic telescopes



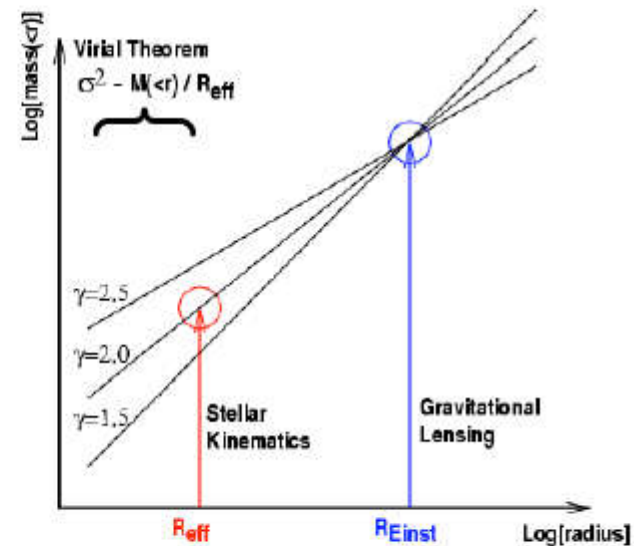
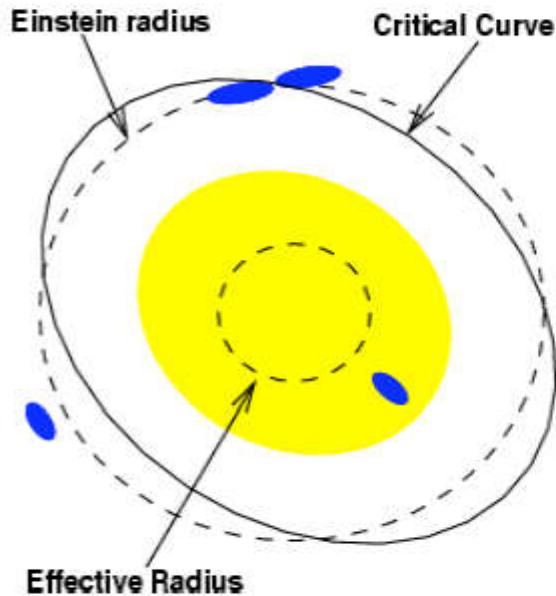
RCS2 032727-132623
HST WFC3: UVIIJH
Sharon et al. (2012)

Gravitational
lensing
magnifies
the
distant
universe



$z = 1.7$ knots with $r \sim 200$ pc
Wuyts et al. (2014)
100 pc resolution
(like 10-m space telescope)

Coupling SL – internal kinematics



Einstein Radius = one point on mass profile

Internal kinematics within SDSS fiber aperture = another point on mass profile

Both methods only based on gravity (~few gas physics).

Some technical details - terminology

de Vaucouleurs profile

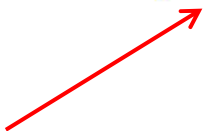
$$I(R) = I_e \exp[-7.67[(R / R_e)^{1/4} - 1]]$$

Effective radius R_e
radius of an isophote containing 1/2 of the total luminosity

Central velocity dispersion

σ_{e2} (or σ_{e8}) = velocity dispersion inside $R_e / 2$ (or $R_e / 8$)

We have to correct for the aperture $\sigma_{e2} = \sigma_{ap} \left(\frac{R_{eff}}{2 r_{ap}} \right)^{-0.04}$


$$r_{ap} = (xy / \pi)^{1/2}$$

Slit is rectangular: x - width, y - length

Jeans Equation

spherical Jeans equation

$$\frac{1}{\nu} \frac{d\nu\sigma_r^2}{dr} + \frac{2\beta(r)}{r} \sigma_r^2 = -\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \quad (\text{B.90})$$

relates the radial velocity dispersion $\sigma_r = \langle v_r^2 \rangle^{1/2}$, the isotropy parameter $\beta(r) = 1 - \sigma_\theta^2/\sigma_r^2$ characterizing the ratio of the tangential dispersion to the radial dispersion, the luminosity density of the stars $\nu(r)$ and the mass distribution $M(r)$. A well known result from dynamics is that you cannot infer the mass distribution $M(r)$ without constraining the isotropy $\beta(r)$ (e.g. Binney & Mamon 1982). Models with $\beta = 0$ are called isotropic models (i.e. $\sigma_r = \sigma_\theta$), while models with $\beta \rightarrow 1$ are dominated by radial orbits ($\sigma_\theta \rightarrow 0$) and models with $\beta \rightarrow -\infty$ are dominated by tangential orbits ($\sigma_r \rightarrow 0$).

Koopmans, L.V.E.¹

2.1 Combining Lensing Mass and Stellar Velocity Dispersions

Let us suppose the following spherical scale-free model for the lens galaxy:

$$\begin{cases} \nu_l(r) &= \nu_{l,0} r^{-\delta} \\ \nu_\rho(r) &= \nu_{\rho,0} r^{-\gamma'} \\ \beta(r) &= 1 - \langle \sigma_\theta^2 \rangle / \langle \sigma_r^2 \rangle \end{cases}, \quad (2.1)$$

where $\nu_l(r)$ is the luminosity density of stars – a trace component – embedded in a total (i.e. luminous plus dark-matter) mass distribution with a density $\nu_\rho(r)$. The anisotropy of the stellar velocity ellipsoid is β , constant with radius. For a lens galaxy with a projected mass M_E inside the Einstein radius R_E , the luminosity weighted average line-of-sight velocity dispersion inside an aperture R_A is given, after solving the spherical Jeans equations, by

$$\langle \sigma_{||}^2 \rangle (\leq R_A) = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[\frac{GM_E}{R_E} \right] f(\gamma', \delta, \beta) \times \left(\frac{R_A}{R_E} \right)^{2-\gamma'}, \quad (2.2)$$

where

$$f(\gamma', \delta, \beta) = 2\sqrt{\pi} \left(\frac{\delta - 3}{(\xi - 3)(\xi - 2\beta)} \right) \times \left\{ \frac{\Gamma[(\xi - 1)/2]}{\Gamma[\xi/2]} - \beta \frac{\Gamma[(\xi + 1)/2]}{\Gamma[(\xi + 2)/2]} \right\} \times \left\{ \frac{\Gamma[\delta/2] \Gamma[\gamma'/2]}{\Gamma[(\delta - 1)/2] \Gamma[(\gamma' - 1)/2]} \right\} \quad (2.3)$$

with $\xi = \gamma' + \delta - 2$. Similarly,

$$\sigma_{||}^2(R) = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[\frac{GM_E}{R_E} \right] \left(\frac{\xi - 3}{\delta - 3} \right) f(\gamma', \delta, \beta) \times \left(\frac{R}{R_E} \right)^{2-\gamma'} \quad (2.4)$$

In the simple case of a SIS with $\gamma' = \delta = \xi = 2$ and $\beta = 0$, we recover the well-known result

$$\sigma_{||}^2(R) = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[\frac{GM_E}{R_E} \right] \quad (\text{SIS}), \quad (2.5)$$

Now, the idea is that

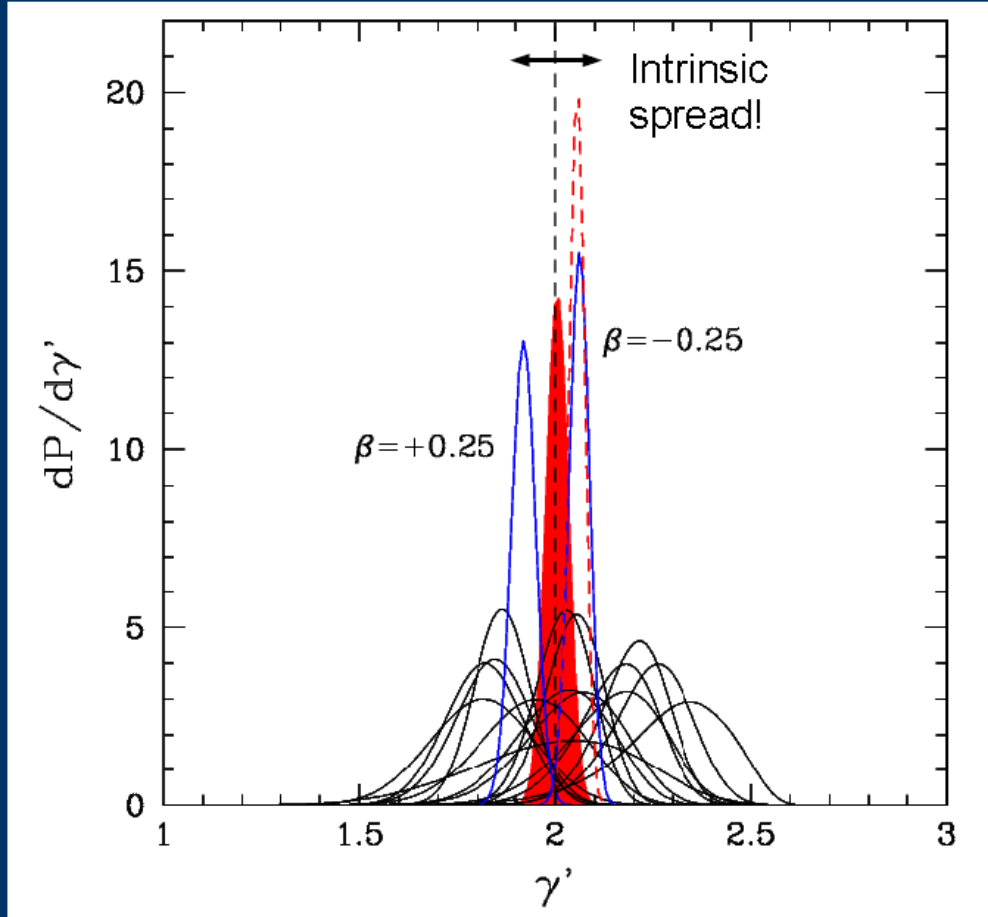
mass inside Einstein radius calculated from lensing

$$M_l = \frac{c^2}{4G} \frac{D_l D_s}{D_{ls}} \theta_E^2$$

should be equal to mass inside Einstein radius calculated from dynamics

$$M_d = \frac{\pi}{G} \sigma_0^2 R_E \left(\frac{R_E}{R_{ap}} \right)^{2-\gamma} f(\gamma, \delta, \beta)$$

The density slope of E/S0 galaxies between $z=0.08-0.33$



(Koopmans et al. 2006)

Total density slope
inside $\sim 0.3-1.0 R_{eff}$

$$\langle \gamma' \rangle = 2.01 \pm 0.03$$

ML analysis:
Intrinsic spread is only 6%
(similar to Gerhard et al. 2001)

THE SL2S GALAXY-SCALE LENS SAMPLE. II. COSMIC EVOLUTION OF DARK AND LUMINOUS MASS IN EARLY-TYPE GALAXIES

ANDREA J. RUFF^{1,2*}, RAPHAËL GAVAZZI³, PHILIP J. MARSHALL^{1,4}, TOMMASO TREU^{1†}, MATTHEW W. AUGER¹, AND FLORENCE BRAULT³
(2011) *ApJ*, 727, 96

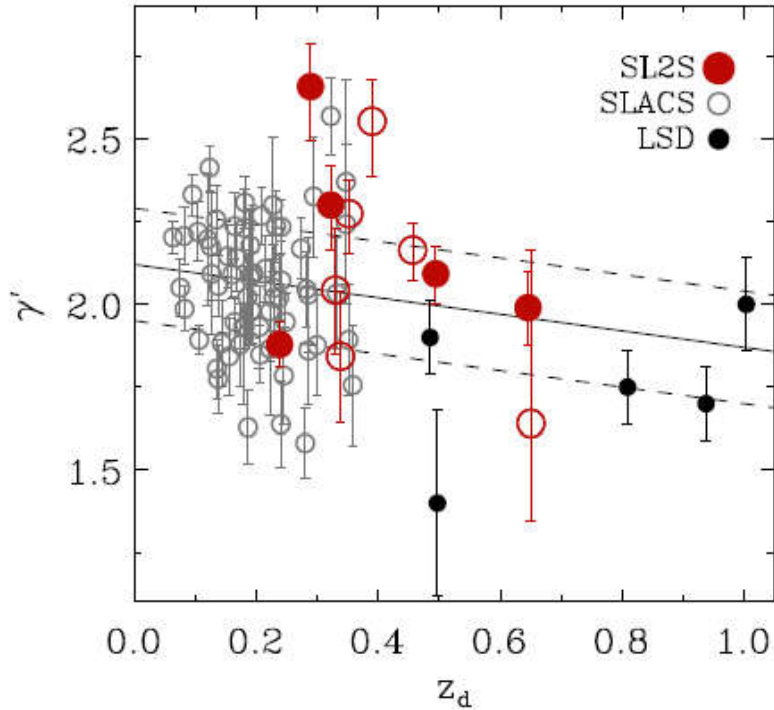


FIG. 13.— Cosmic evolution of total mass density slope, γ' . The SLACS and LSD values were taken from: (Auger et al. 2010) and (Treu & Koopmans 2002; Koopmans & Treu 2003; Treu & Koopmans 2004), respectively. The error bars show the 16th and 84th percentiles. The best fit to the data is shown by the solid line and the scatter is shown by the dashed lines.

We quantify this statement by fitting the $\gamma'(z_d)$ data with a linear relation in the mean slope, still including Gaussian scatter about that relation:

$$\langle \gamma' \rangle(z_d) = \langle \gamma'_0 \rangle + \frac{\partial \langle \gamma' \rangle}{\partial z_d} z_d \pm S_{\gamma'}. \quad (15)$$

For the SL2S data alone, we find $\langle \gamma'_0 \rangle = 2.22^{+0.17}_{-0.21}$, $\partial \langle \gamma' \rangle / \partial z_d = -0.16^{+0.48}_{-0.51}$ for the gradient and, in this

evolving γ' case, the scatter is $S_{\gamma'} = 0.23^{+0.09}_{-0.06}$. When we include the SLACS and LSD data points, we find $\langle \gamma'_0 \rangle = 2.12^{+0.03}_{-0.04}$, $\partial \langle \gamma' \rangle / \partial z_d = -0.25^{+0.10}_{-0.12}$, and $S_{\gamma'} = 0.17^{+0.02}_{-0.02}$.

THE BOSS EMISSION-LINE LENS SURVEY. II. INVESTIGATING MASS-DENSITY PROFILE EVOLUTION IN THE SLACS+BELLS STRONG GRAVITATIONAL LENS SAMPLE¹

ADAM S. BOLTON², JOEL R. BROWNSTEIN², CHRISTOPHER S. KOCHANEK³, YIPING SHU², DAVID J. SCHLEGEL⁴, DANIEL J. EISENSTEIN⁵, DAVID A. WAKE⁶, NATALIA CONNOLLY⁷, CLAUDIA MARASTON⁸, RYAN A. ARNESON^{2,9}, AND BENJAMIN A. WEAVER¹⁰

(2012) ApJ, 744, 41

BELLS II: Density Profile Evolution

5

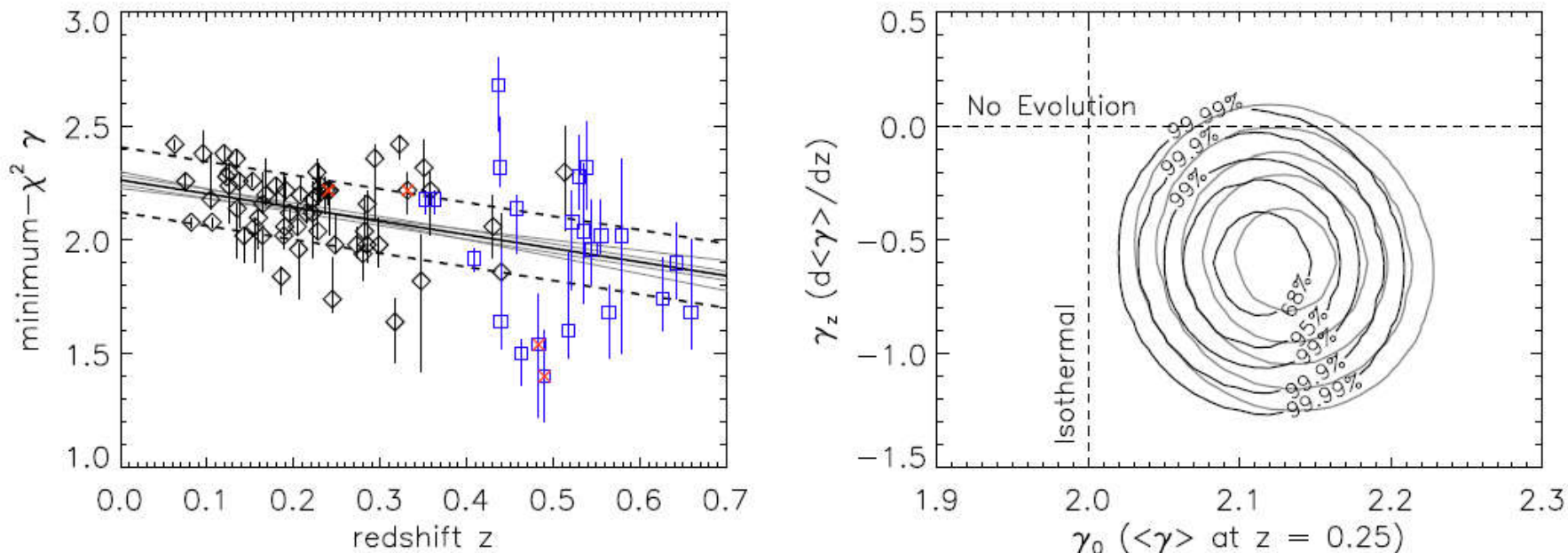


FIG. 2.— *Left*: Minimum- χ^2 values for the logarithmic total mass-density profile slope γ for SLACS (black diamonds) and BELLS (blue squares) lenses. Error bars indicate $\Delta\chi^2 = 1$. The solid line shows the best-fit relation, gray lines indicate the “1-sigma” error in the slope and zero-point of this relation, and dashed lines indicate the best-fit intrinsic RMS population scatter. Red crosses indicate systems with a maximum-likelihood log-velocity dispersion ($\log_{10} \sigma_e$, in km s^{-1}) either greater than 2.5 or less than 2.2 (see Figure 3.) Data points and error bars are for illustrative purposes only: the population parameter fits are done using the full $\chi^2(\gamma)$ function for each lens, as described in §3. *Right*: Posterior probability contours enclosing credible regions for the zero-point and evolution of the logarithmic mass-density slope parameter γ . Black curves are for the Nuker profile-based analysis; gray curves are for a de Vaucouleurs profile-based analysis.

The existence of dark matter in other galaxies

Horseshoe



The Horseshoe system has a very large $R_{\text{Einst}}=30$ kpc but only a single galaxy in the center suggesting an extremely massive DM halo.

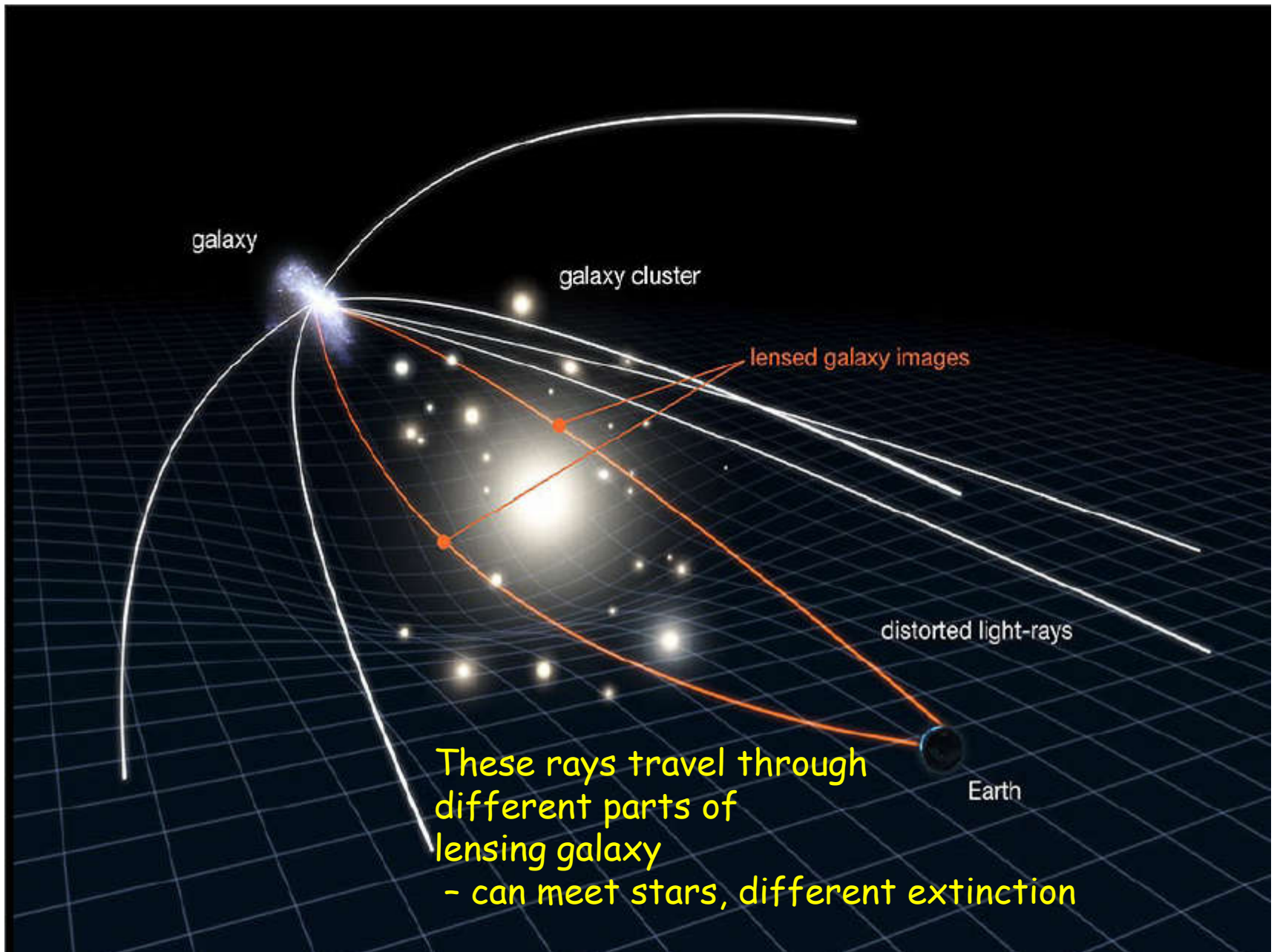
Table 1. Properties of the cosmic Horseshoe¹.

	Parameter	Values
Lens	RA	11h 48m 33.15s
	Dec	19° 30' 03"5
Galaxy	Redshift	0.444
	Effective radii	$1'96 \pm 0'02$
	g_L	(20.84 ± 0.06) mag
	r_L	(19.00 ± 0.02) mag
	i_L	(18.22 ± 0.01) mag
	z_L	(17.75 ± 0.04) mag
	Axis ratio, q	0.8 ± 0.1
Source	Redshift ²	2.38116 ± 0.00012
	Star formation rate	$\sim 100 M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$
	Dynamical mass	$M_{\text{dyn}} \simeq 10^{10} M_{\odot}$
Ring	Diameter	$10''2$
	Length	$\sim 300^{\circ}$
	u_L	21.6 mag
	g_L	20.1 mag
	i_L	19.7 mag
	Mass enclosed ³	$(5.02 \pm 0.09) \times 10^{12} M_{\odot}$

¹ Belokurov et al. (2007) measured the redshift of the source to be $z = 2.379$. We find a systematic shift that brings the source redshift to be $z = 2.3811$ in agreement with Quider et al. (2009).

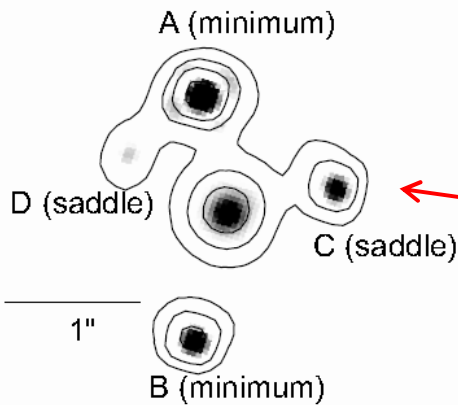
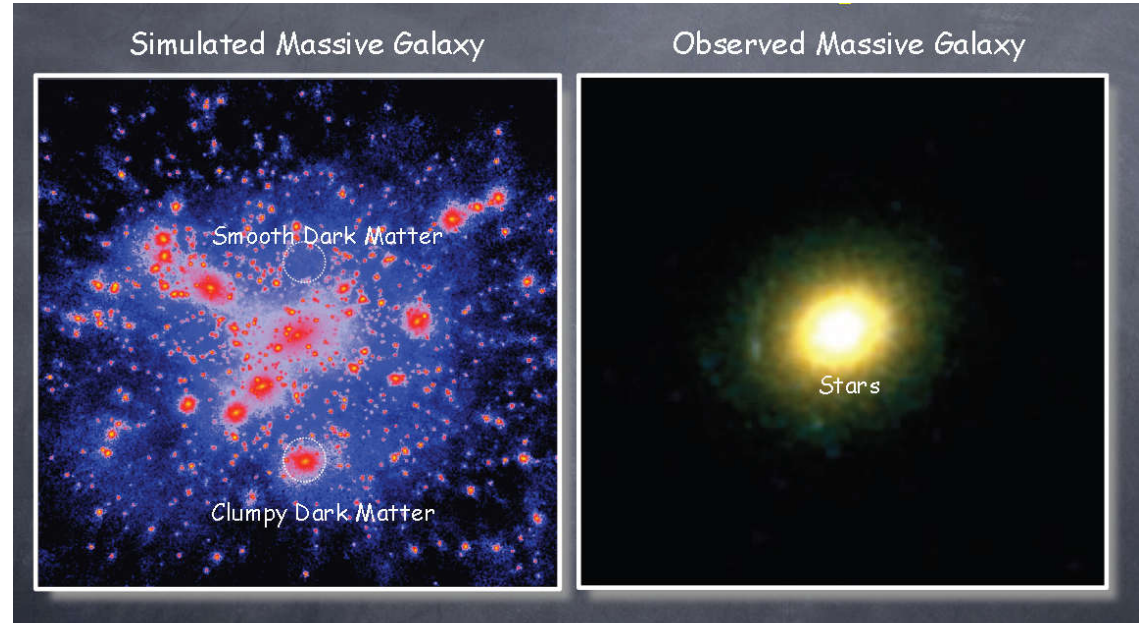
² The mass within the Einstein radius or, more precisely, within the ring diameter, is taken from Dye et al. (2008).

³ Parameters obtained from images taken with the 2.5 m Isaac Newton Telescope (INT). Magnitudes are taken from SDSS DR7. See Belokurov et al. (2007)



Cosmological application of strong lensing: dark matter mass distribution in galaxies

mass distribution
in galactic scales



different brightness
of macro-images;

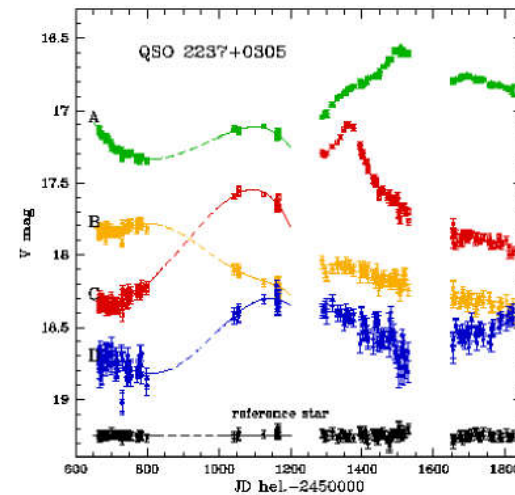
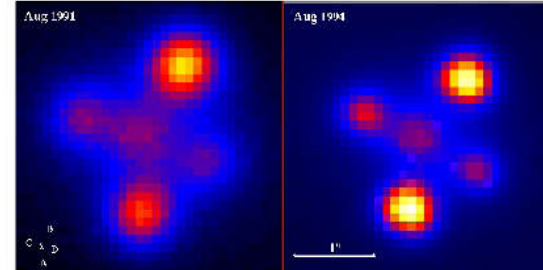
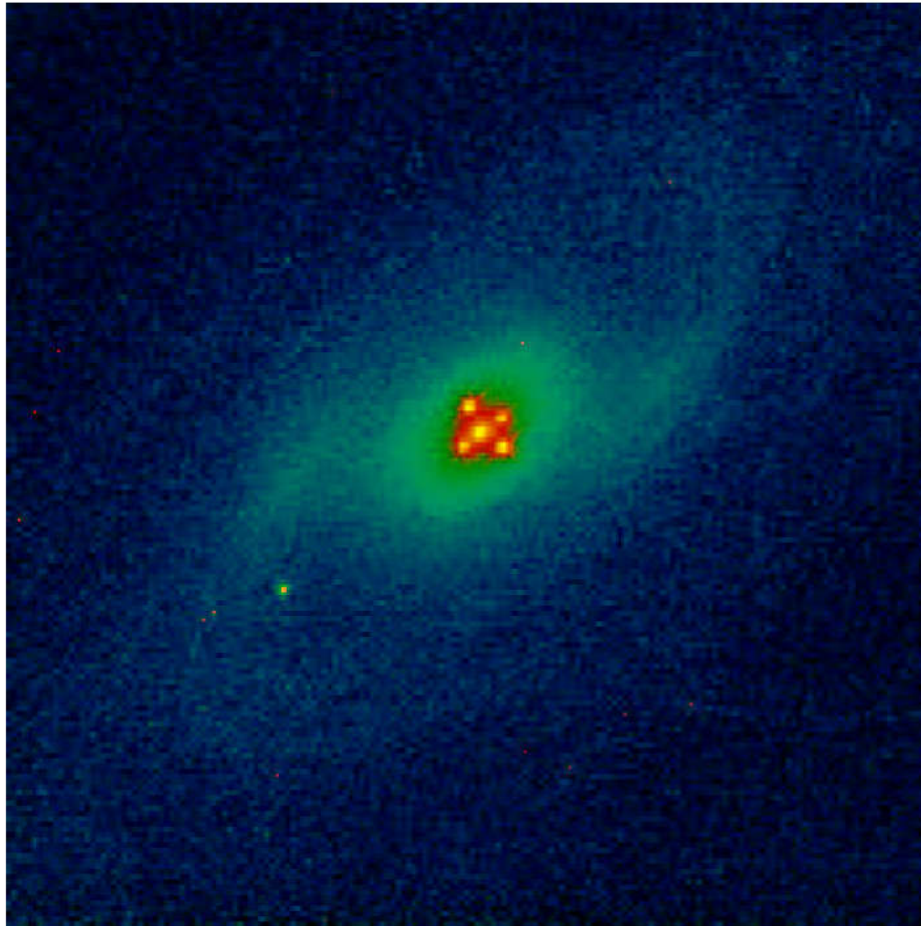
Theory predicts
their magnifications

Flux anomalies

Effect
due to lensing
by dark matter
clumps (?)

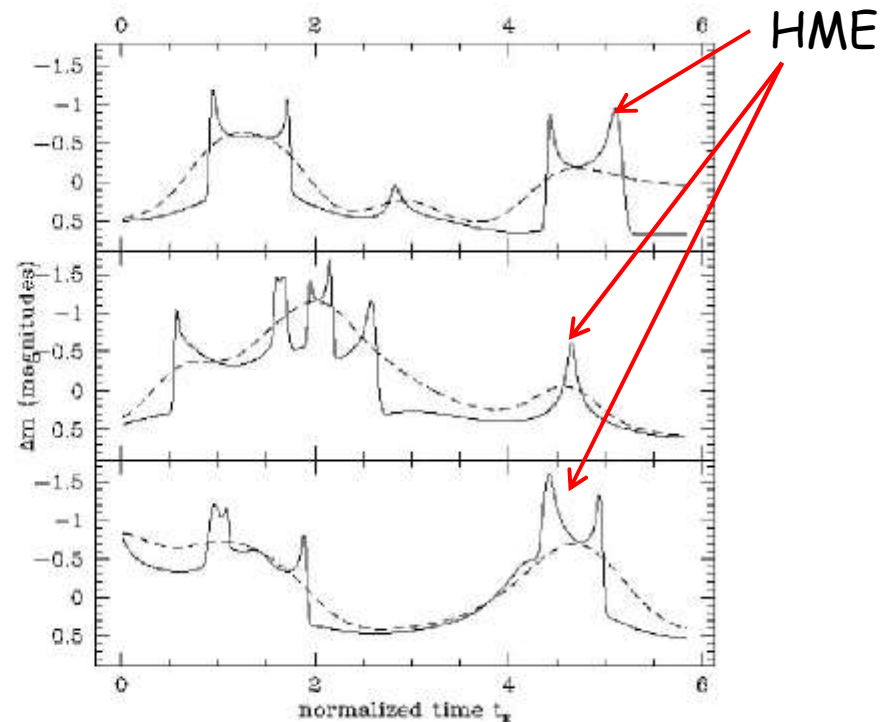
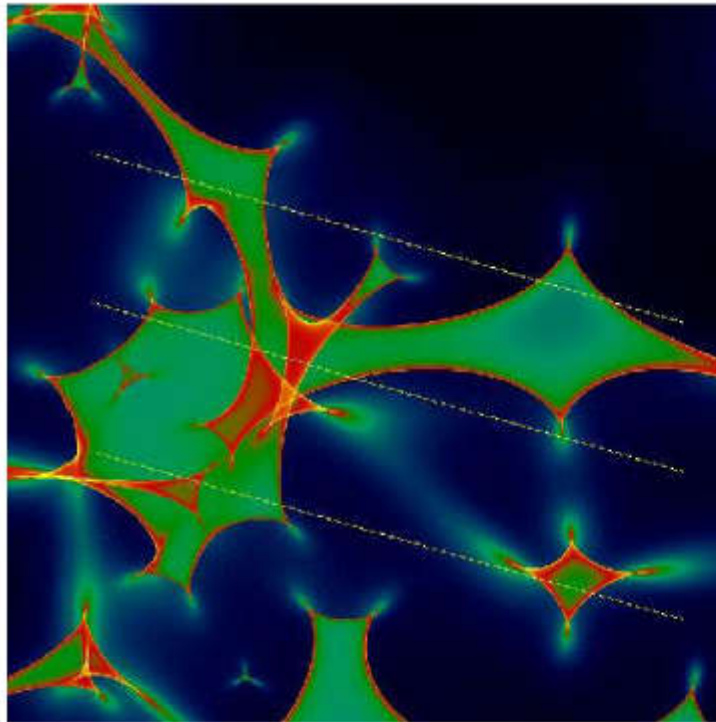
Time delays between images - proportional to H_0^{-1}

Variable source (AGN) + time delays \rightarrow light curves of images



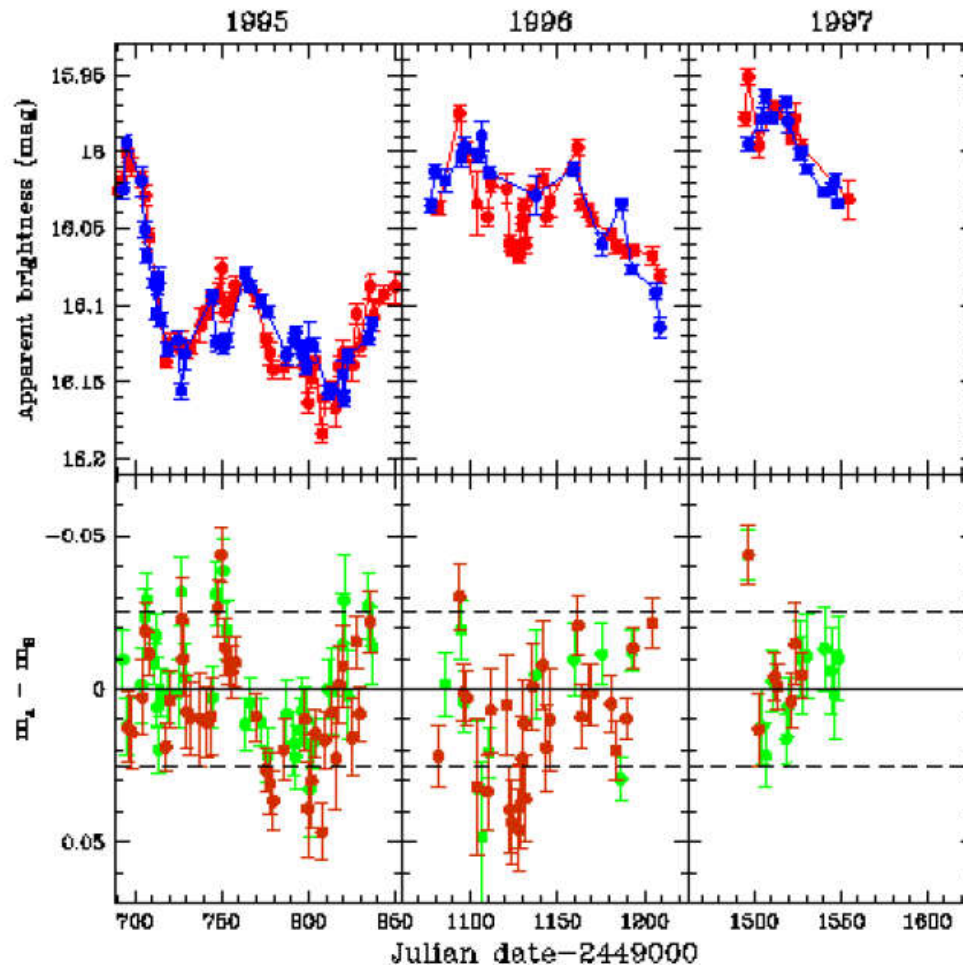
Simulated microlensing of a quasar

Lightcurves corresponding to 3 paths of the source over the caustics



Caustic system generated by a simulated distribution of stars

Microensing of macro-images



Lightcurves of macro-images superimposed after shifted by time delay (and corrected for image magnification)

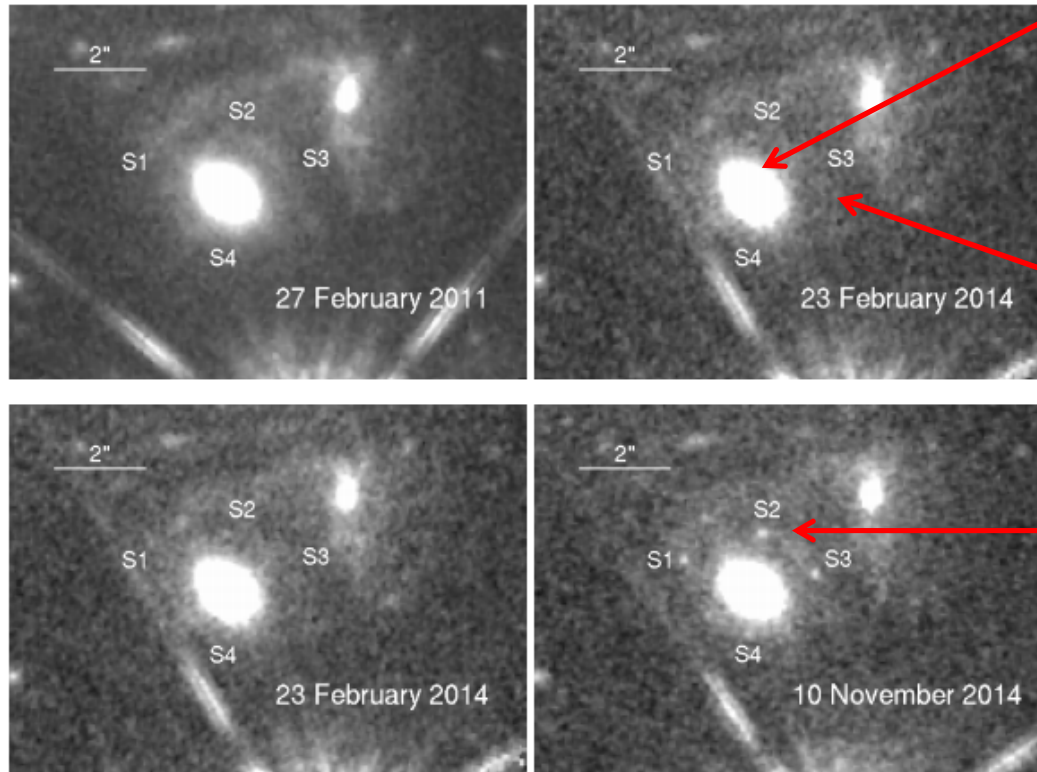
Microensing

residuals after subtracting lightcurves of macro-images

Fig. 47. Observed lightcurves of the double quasar Q0957+561; top: superposition of lightcurves of image A and (time shifted and magnitude shifted) image B; bottom: difference lightcurves (Wambsganss et al. 2000)

„Refsdal“ supernova

„Refsdal supernova“ discovered 11 Nov. 2014
Kelly et al. (2015) *Science* 347,1123



$z=0.54$ elliptical galaxy
belonging to
MACS J1149.6+2223
cluster

$z = 1.49$ source - spiral
galaxy

host of SNIID

Fig. S4: Images of the lensing system from archival *HST* WFC3-IR observations in the *F140W* filter. All exposures obtained prior to 3 November 2014 show no evidence for variability at any of the positions associated with SN Refsdal.

„Refsdal“ supernova

future reappearance
expected in ca. 1 yr

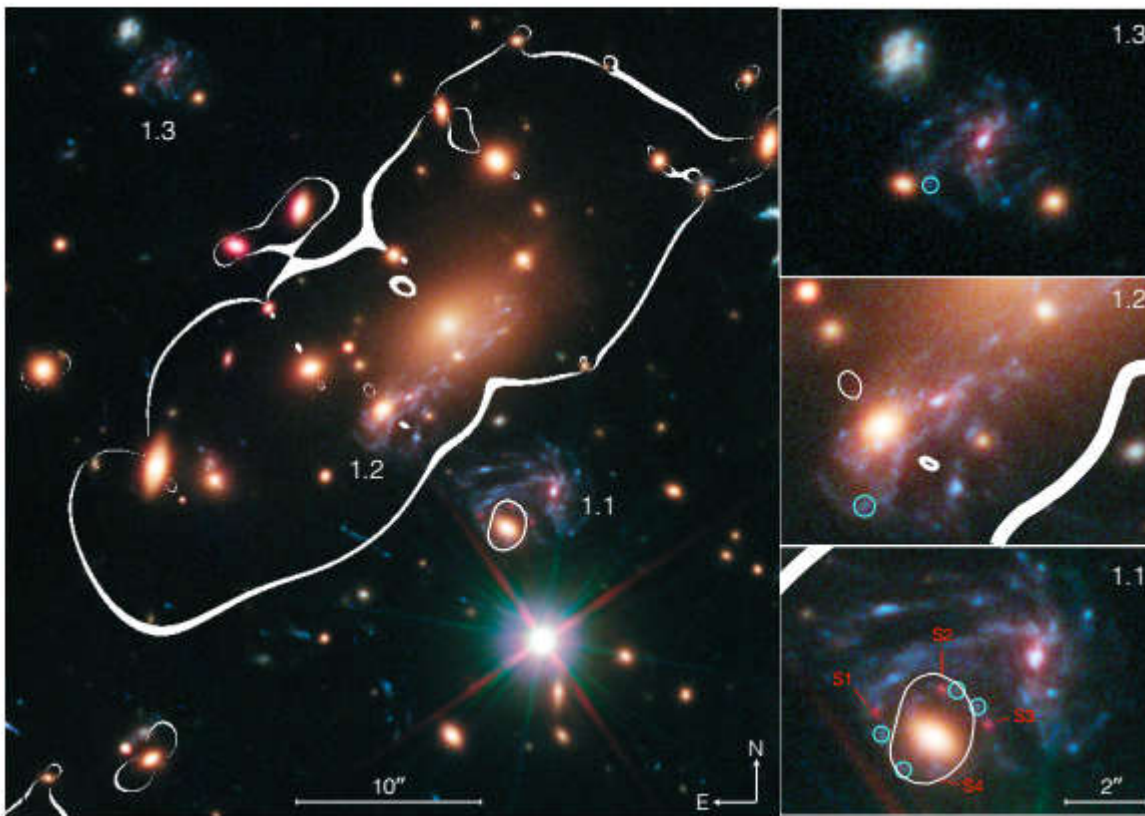
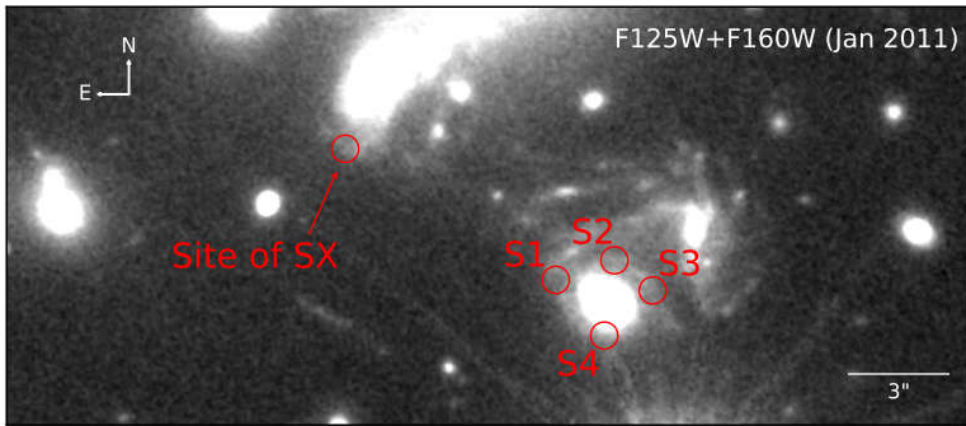


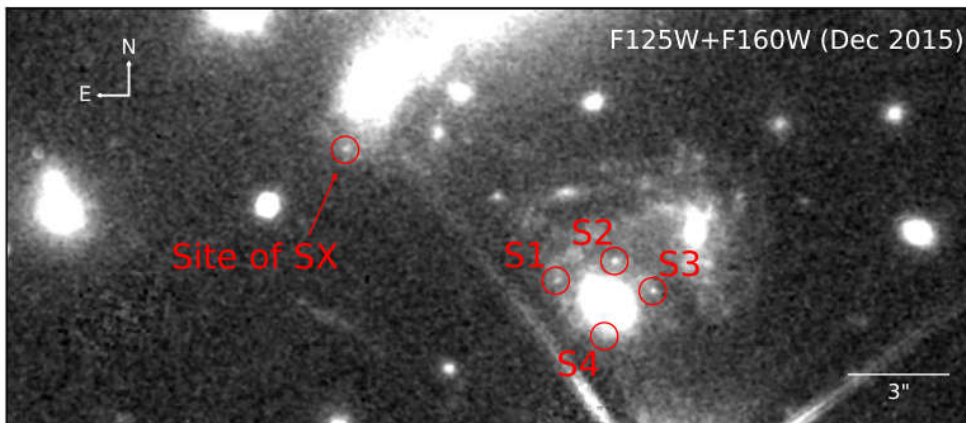
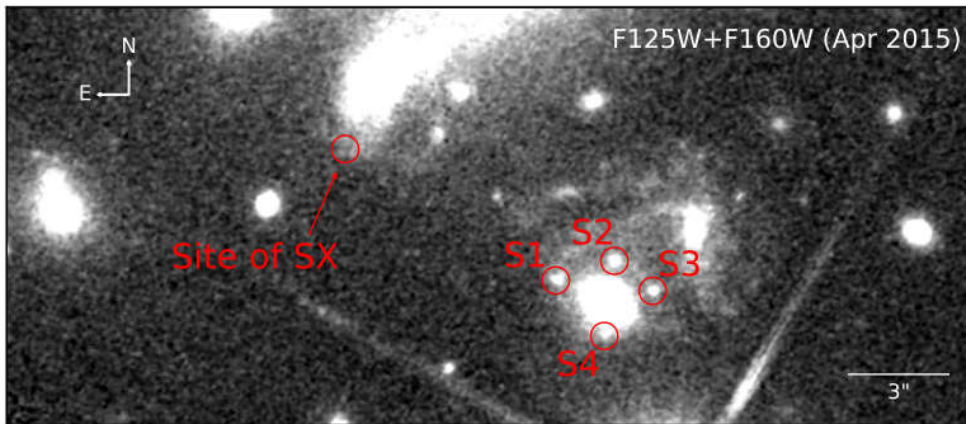
Fig. 2: Color-composite image of the galaxy cluster MACSJ1149.6+2223, with critical curves for sources at the $z = 1.49$ redshift of the host galaxy overlaid. Three images of the host galaxy formed by the cluster are marked with white labels (1.1, 1.2, and 1.3) in the left panel, and each is enlarged at right. The four current images of SN Refsdal that we detected (labeled S1 to S4 in red) appear as red point sources in image 1.1. Our model indicates that an image of the SN appeared in the past in image 1.3, and that one will appear in the near future in image 1.2. The extreme red hue of the SN may be somewhat exaggerated, because the blue and green channels include only data taken before the SN erupted. In image 1.1, both a single bright blue knot (cyan circles) and SN Refsdal are multiply imaged into four distinct locations. The image combines infrared and optical *HST* imaging data from the Frontier Fields and GLASS programs, along with images from the CLASH and the FrontierSN programs (GO-13790, PI: S.A.R.).



Kelly et al. (2016) *ApJL*

11 Dec. 2015
SNII found in SX image
as predicted !!!

Great success of GR
(mass distribution modeling
from strong lensing)



Application of strong lensing

Structure of galaxies in different evolutionary stages:

lenses as „cosmic telescopes“
lensing + stellar kinematics

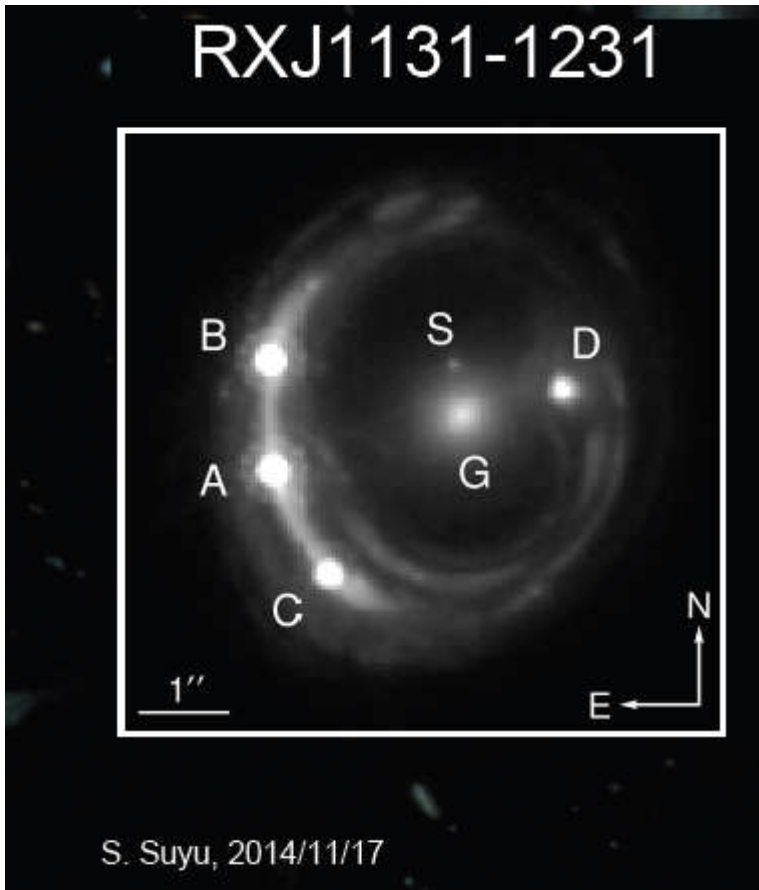
Dark matter at galactic scale:

„missing“ mass clumps at small scales
anomalous flux ratios
microlensing

Cosmology:

determining the Hubble constant
dark energy problem

Cosmology with strong lensing time delay



Results: Suyu et al. 2013

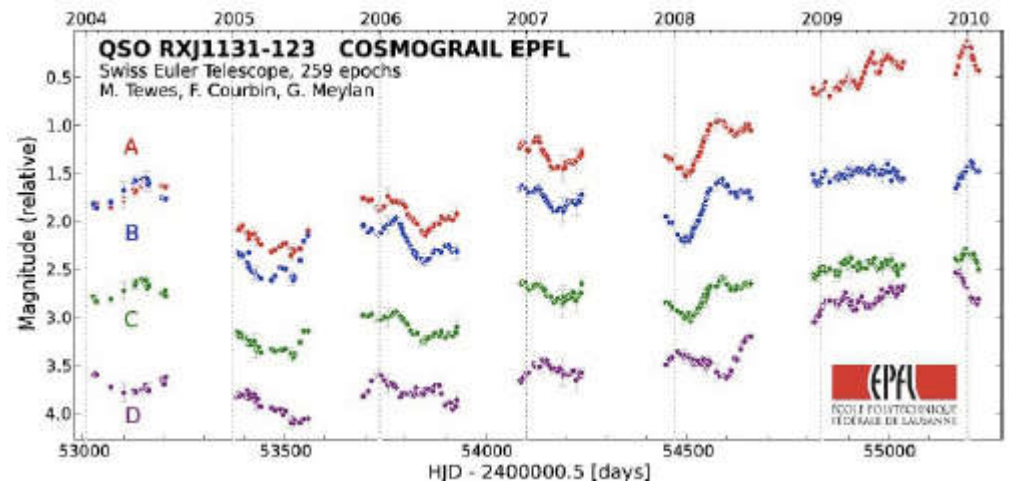
$$H_0 = 75.2^{+4.4}_{-4.2} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$$

$$\Omega_{de} = 0.76^{+0.02}_{-0.03} \quad w = -1.14^{+0.17}_{-0.20}$$

$$t(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{(1+z_d)}{c} \frac{D_d D_s}{D_{ds}} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta})^2 - \psi(\vec{\theta}) \right]$$

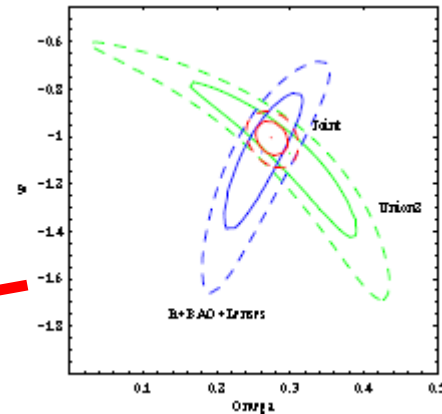
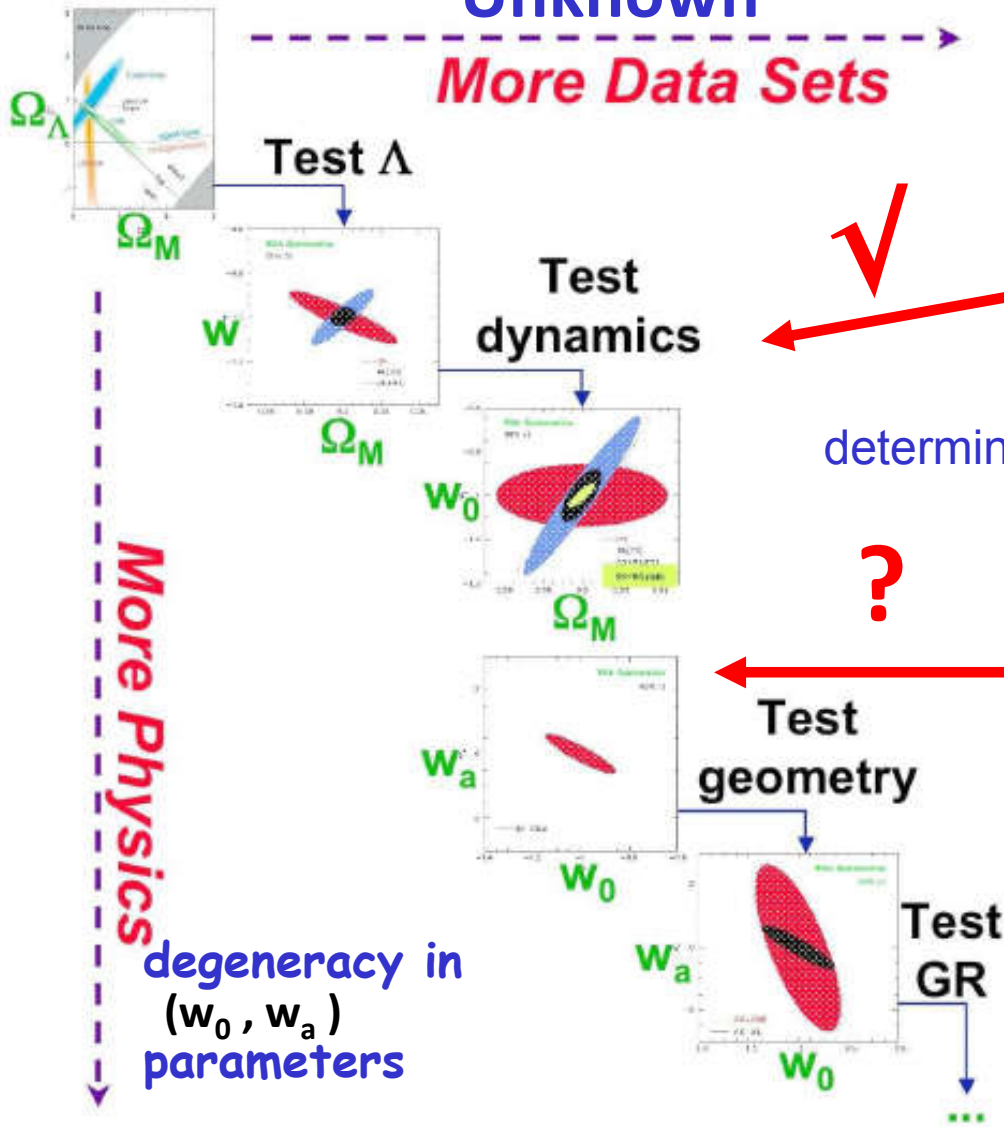
Time delay distance (points to $(1+z_d)$)
 Shapiro delay (points to $-\psi(\vec{\theta})$)
 Excess time delay (points to $t(\vec{\theta})$)
 geometric time delay (points to $\frac{1}{2} (\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta})^2$)

Time delay with 1.5% accuracy



Modern cosmology: Incremental Exploration of the Unknown

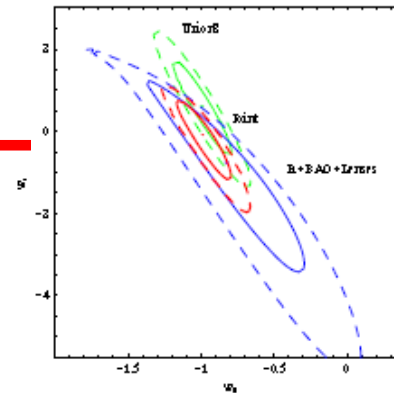
More Data Sets



MB,
B.Malec,
A.Piórkowska
2011

determine cosmic equation of state $p_X = w\rho_X$

?



check if it evolves
in time

$$w(z) = w_0 + w_a \frac{z}{1+z}$$

we need complementary tests

- * break degeneracy
- * coherence test

degeneracy in
(w_0, w_a)
parameters

Linder (astro-ph/0511197)

Heuristic arguments behind old searches for strong lenses: (Kochanek 2004)

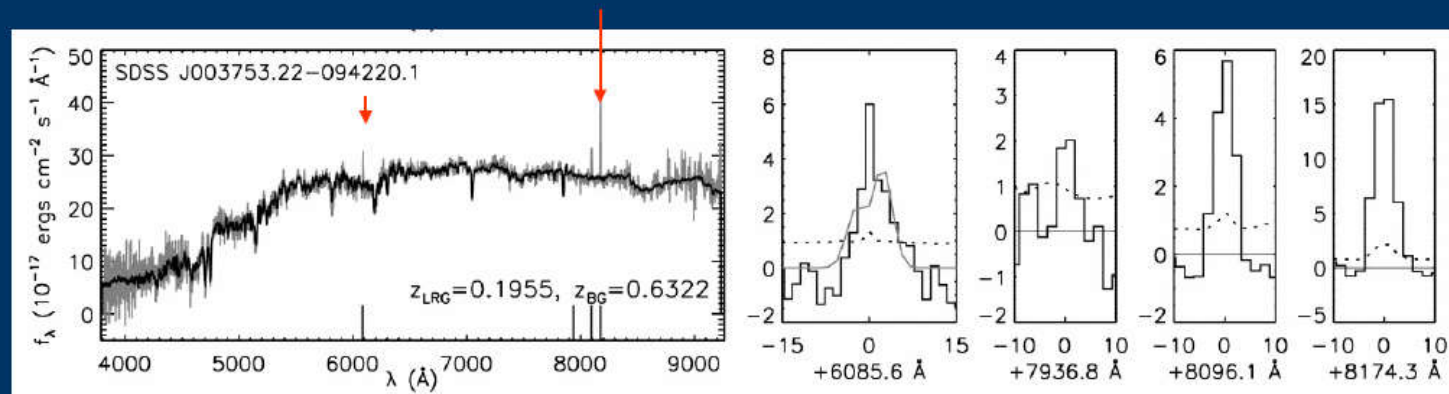
- Typical galaxy with Einstein radius ϑ_E has cross section $\pi\vartheta_E^2$
- if you examine N such galaxies for a sign of lensing, you expect to find $N \pi\vartheta_E^2 \Sigma_{\text{source}}$ lenses, where Σ_{source} is surface density of sources
- if you examine N sources for a galaxy in front of them, you expect to find $N \pi\vartheta_E^2 \Sigma_{\text{lens}}$ lenses, where Σ_{lens} is surface density of lensing galaxies
- now, surface density of massive galaxies is much higher than surface density of easily detectable high z sources $\Sigma_{\text{lens}} \gg \Sigma_{\text{source}}$
- hence you need to examine fewer sources than galaxies to find the same number of lenses

But in the era of massive galaxy surveys (like SDSS) ...

Sloan Lens ACS (SLACS) Survey

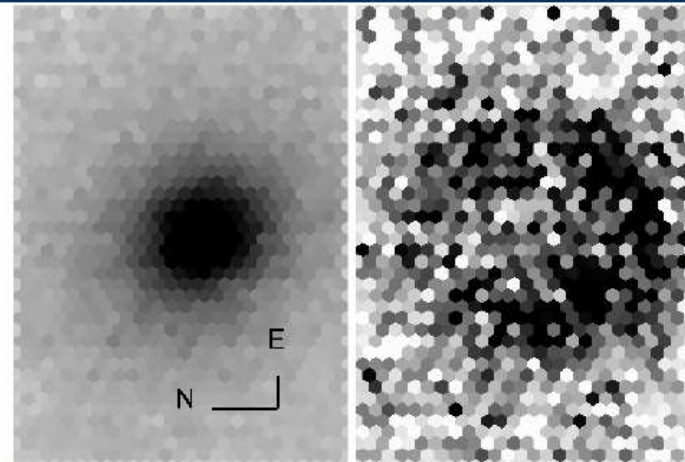
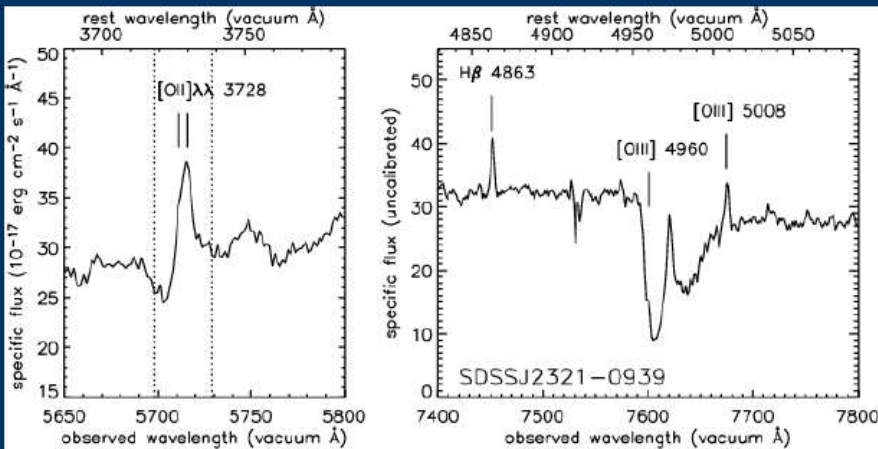
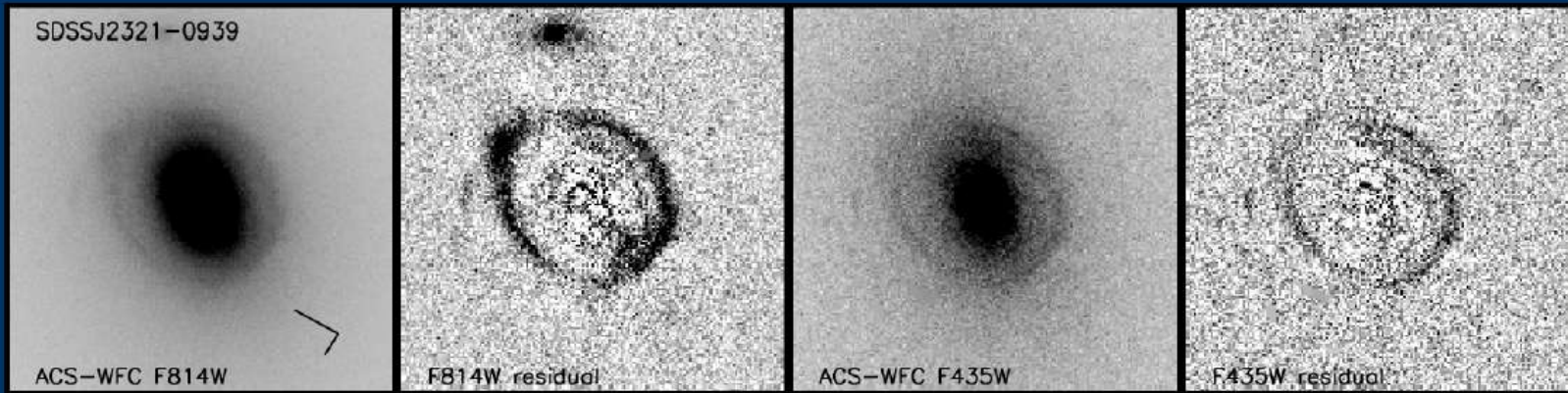
SELECTION OF LENS CANDIDATES:

- 150,000 Luminous Red +MAIN Galaxies from SDSS
(e.g. Eisenstein et al. 2004)
- Each galaxy has a SDSS spectrum \rightarrow redshift(s) & velocity dispersion
- Some spectra show higher- z emission lines.
At least 3 emission lines including OII- $\lambda\lambda$ 3728 ? \rightarrow **New lens?**
- HST-ACS 7-min snapshots/1 GO orbit in F435W/F555W and F814W.



Example: SDSS J2321-0939

HST + IFU Follow-up (Gemini/Magellan & VLT)

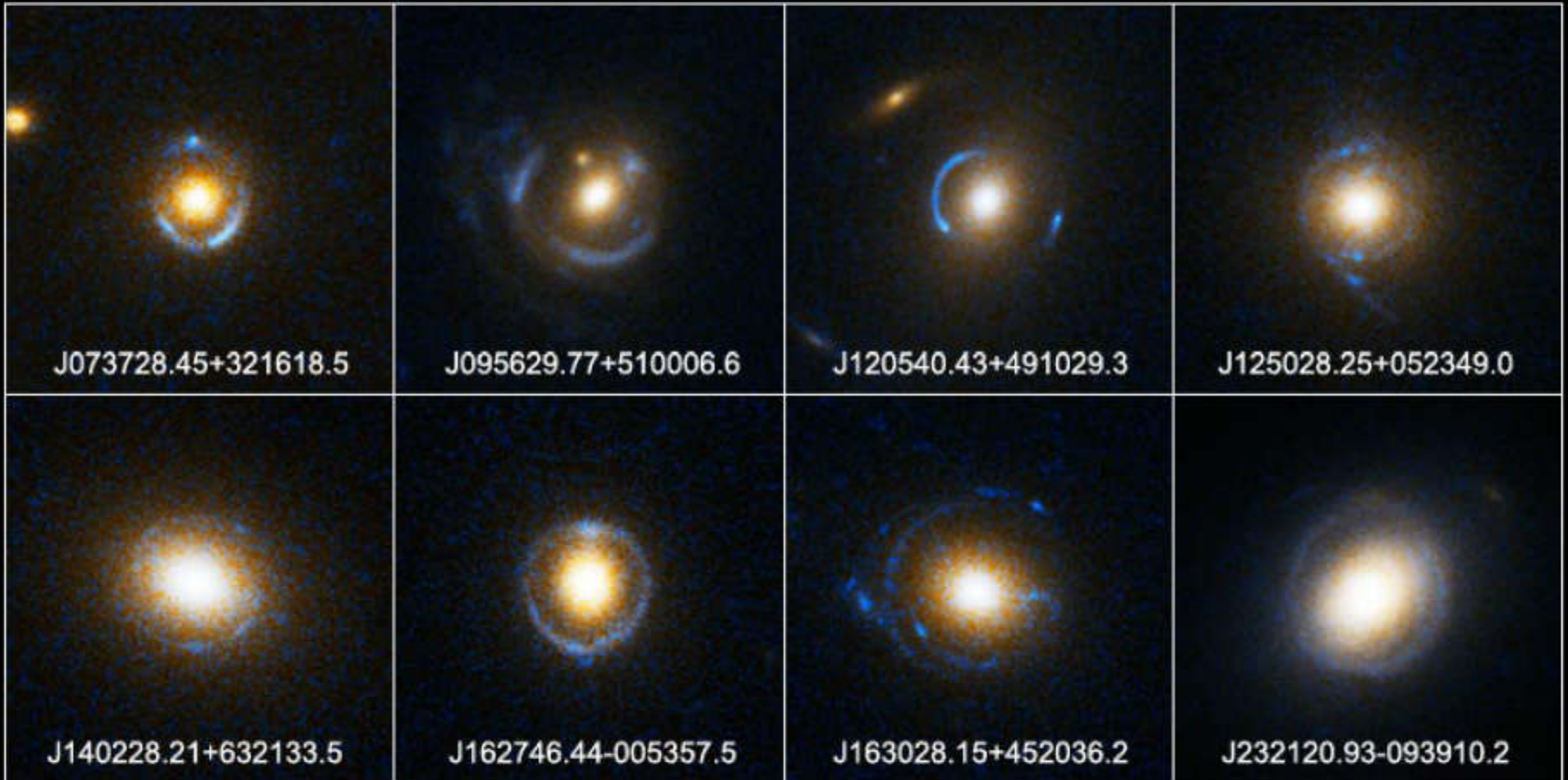


(Bolton et al. 2006)

Massive spectroscopic surveys: SLACS, BELLS, SL2S SDSS, BOSS ... SL2S (CFHT)

Einstein Ring Gravitational Lenses

Hubble Space Telescope • ACS

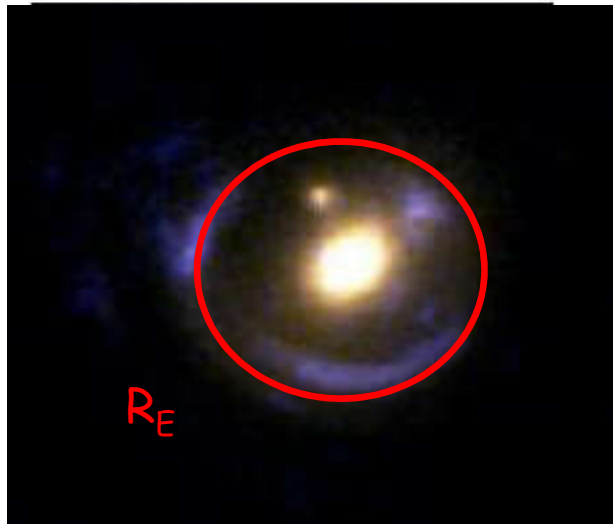


NASA, ESA, A. Bolton (Harvard-Smithsonian CfA), and the SLACS Team

STScI-PRC05-32

Combining Lensing & Dynamics:

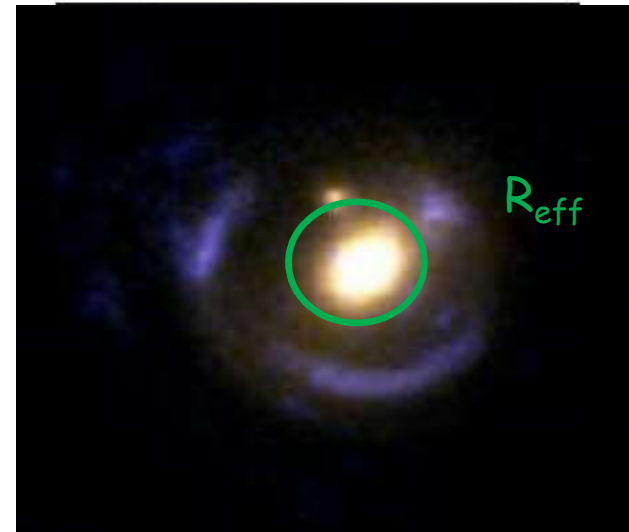
GRAVITATIONAL LENSING



Accurate determination of total mass inside Einstein radius (projected along R_{Ein} cylinder)

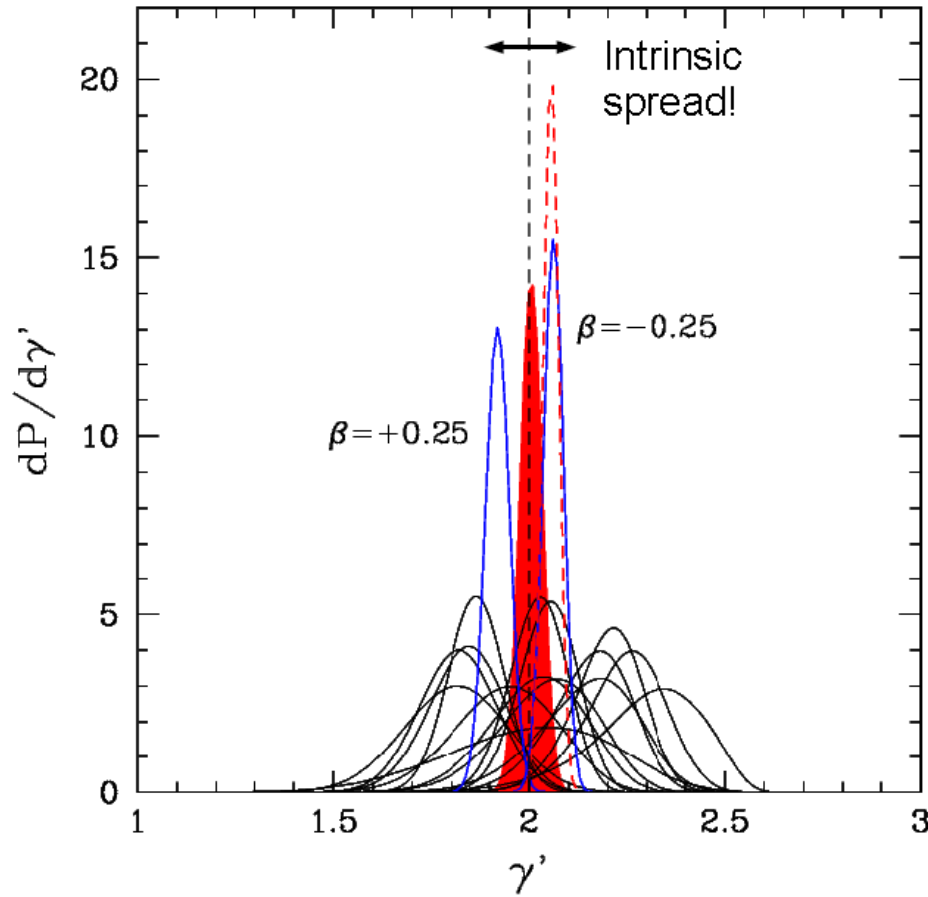
+

STELLAR DYNAMICS



Information on 3D mass profile within the region probed by kinematic observations

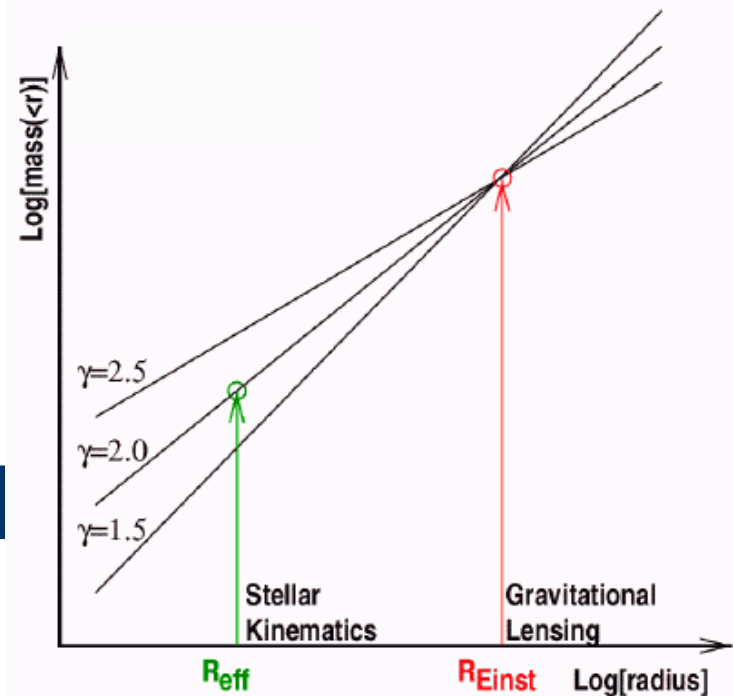
The density slope of E/S0 galaxies between $z=0.08-0.33$



(Koopmans et al. 2006)

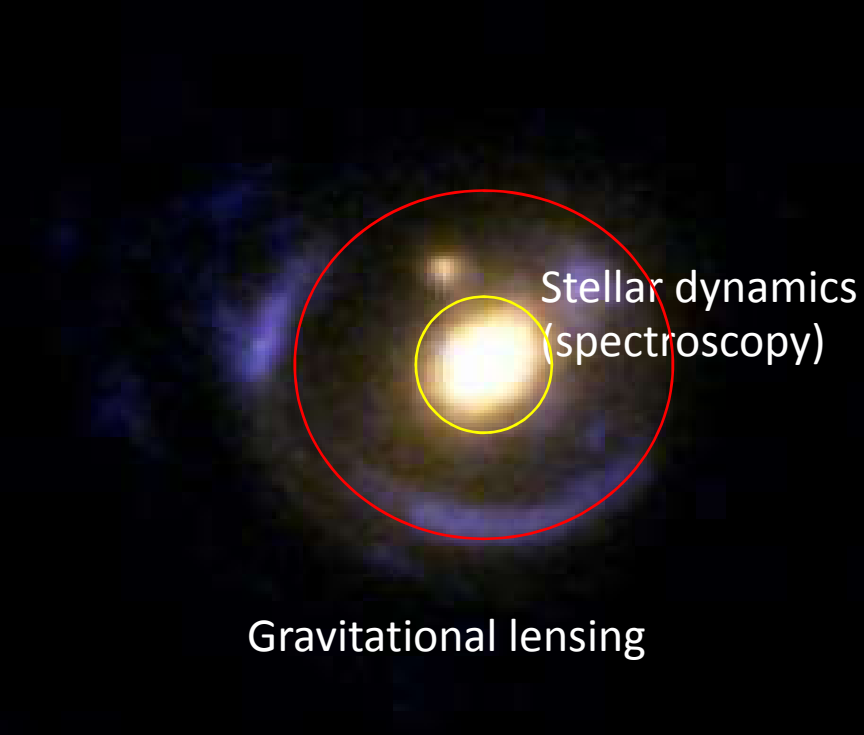
Total density slope
inside $\sim 0.3-1.0 R_{\text{eff}}$

$$\langle \gamma' \rangle = 2.01 \pm 0.03$$



After L. Koopmans :

www.angles.eu.org/meetings/mid_term/copenhagen_leon.pdf



Idea

Velocity dispersion - spectroscopy

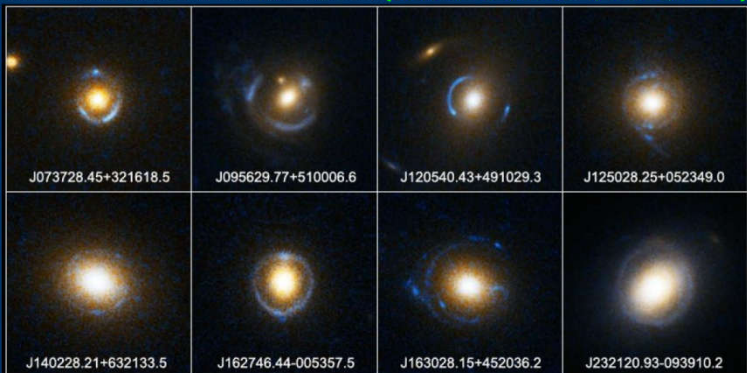
$$\theta_E = 4\pi \left(\frac{\sigma_v}{c} \right)^2 \frac{D_{LS}}{D_S}$$

From angular separation of images

Ratio determined by cosmological model

Sloan Lens ACS (SLACS) Survey

HST (Snapshot) Survey of spectroscopically selected lens-candidates from the SDSS. (Bolton et al. 2004, 2005, 2006)



Cosmic equation of state from strong gravitational lensing systems

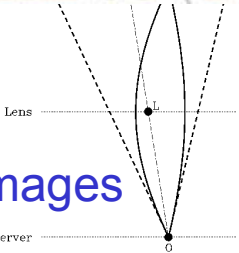
Marek Biesiada,^{*} Aleksandra Piórkowska^{*} and Beata Malec^{*}

Department of Astrophysics and Cosmology, Institute of Physics, University of Silesia, Uniwersytecka 4, 40-007 Katowice, Poland

Constraints on cosmological models from strong gravitational lensing systems

Shuo Cao,^a Yu Pan,^{a,b} Marek Biesiada,^c Włodzimierz Godłowski^d and Zong-Hong Zhu^{a,1}

JCAP03 (2012) 016



$$\theta_E = 4\pi \frac{\sigma_{SIS}^2}{c^2} \frac{D_{ls}}{D_s}$$

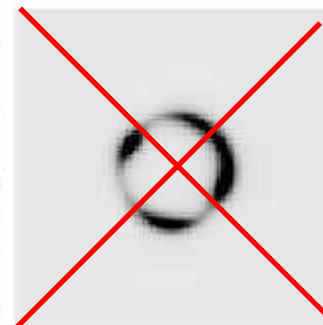
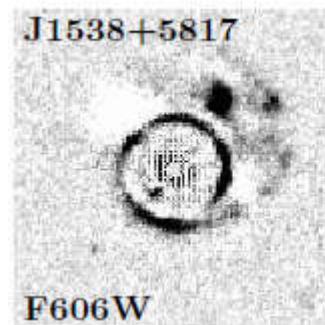
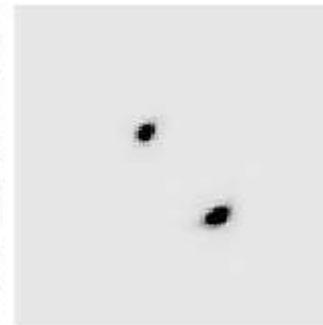
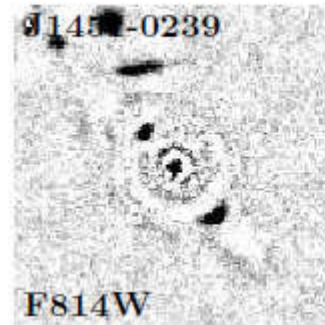
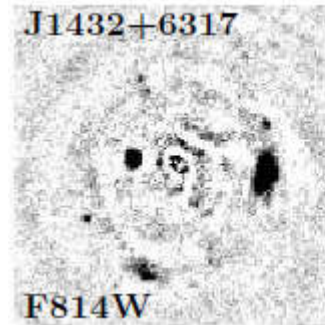
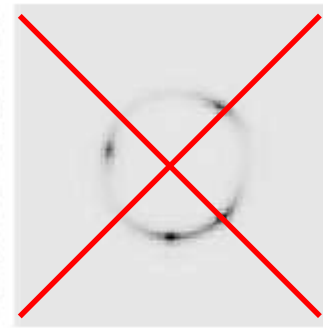
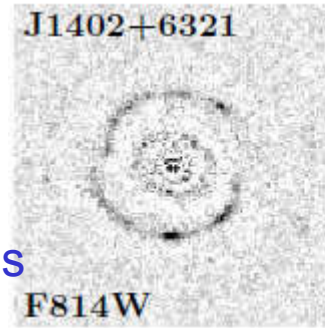
$$D^{obs} = \frac{c^2 \theta_E}{4\pi \sigma_0^2 f_E^2}$$

10 cluster lenses
 70 galaxy lenses
 from SLACS

Subsample
 of 2 image systems

36 SLACS lenses

$$\sigma_{SIS} = f_E \sigma_0$$

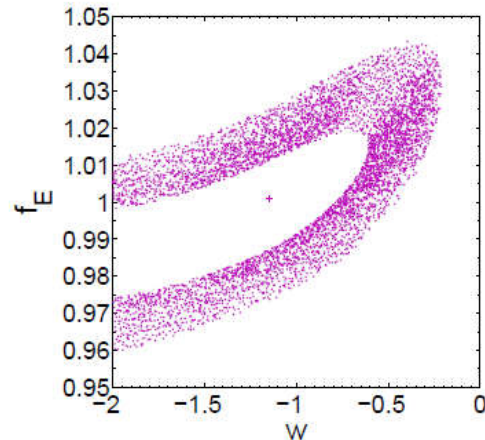
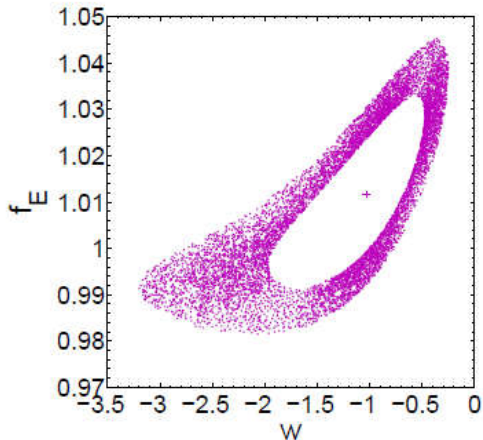


2 images

marginalize over f_E

$$\mathcal{L}(p) = \int \mathcal{L}(p, f_E) P(f_E) df_E$$

2 image sample



cluster + galaxy strong lenses

Present values

Cosmological model	Best-fitting parameters ($n = 80$)	Best-fitting parameters ($n = 46$)
Λ CDM	$\Omega_m = 0.20^{+0.07}_{-0.07}$	$\Omega_m = 0.26^{+0.11}_{-0.10}$
w CDM	$w = -1.02^{+0.26}_{-0.26}$	$w = -1.15^{+0.34}_{-0.35}$
CPL	$w_0 = 0.60 \pm 1.76$ $w_a = -7.37 \pm 8.05$	$w_0 = -0.24 \pm 2.42$ $w_a = -6.35 \pm 9.75$

WMAP7+BAO+H

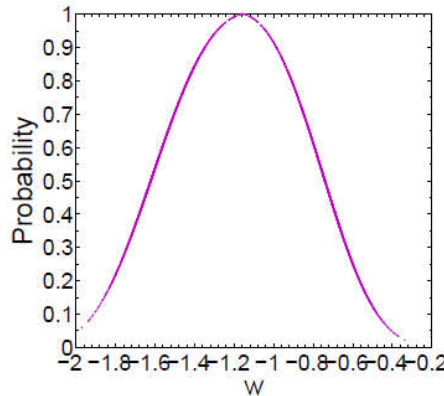
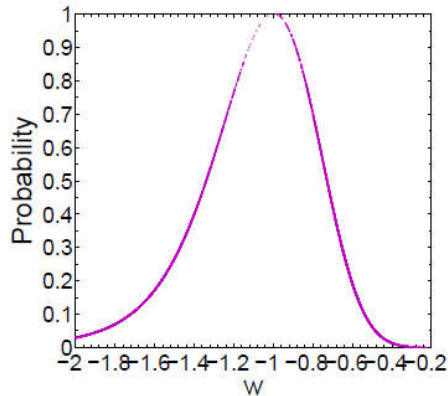
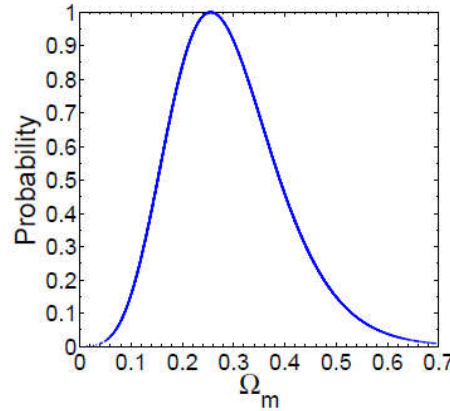
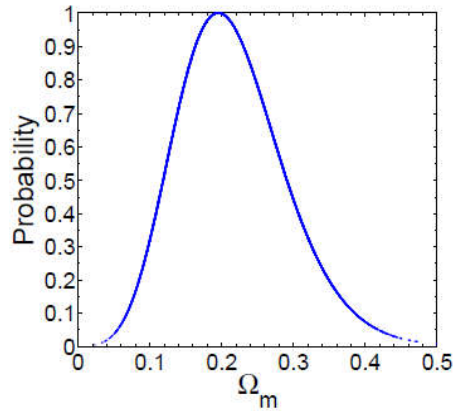
$$\Omega_m = 0.272$$

$$w = -1.10 \pm 0.14$$

$$w_0 = -0.93 \pm 0.13$$

$$w_a = -0.41 \pm 0.71$$

Komatsu et al. 2011



2 image lens sample

Full sample

COSMOLOGY WITH STRONG-LENSING SYSTEMS

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Received 2015 January 23; accepted 2015 May 1; published 2015 June 17

Spherical power-law mass distribution

$$\rho \propto r^{-\gamma}$$

Stellar dynamics (spherical Jeans equation):
mass inside projected aperture radius
scaled to Einstein radius

Lensing: mass inside Einstein radius

$$M_{\text{lens}} = \frac{c^2}{4G} \frac{D_s D_l}{D_{ls}} \theta_E^2$$

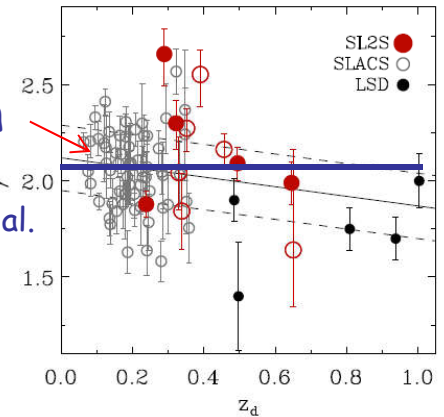


$$M_{\text{dyn}} = \frac{\pi}{G} \sigma_{\text{ap}}^2 R_E \left(\frac{R_E}{R_{\text{ap}}} \right)^{2-\gamma} f(\gamma)$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{G} \sigma_{\text{ap}}^2 D_l \theta_E \left(\frac{\theta_E}{\theta_{\text{ap}}} \right)^{2-\gamma} f(\gamma)$$

Based on
SLACS
Koopmans et al.
2006

$$\theta_E = 4\pi \frac{\sigma_{\text{ap}}^2}{c^2} \frac{D_{ls}}{D_s} \left(\frac{\theta_E}{\theta_{\text{ap}}} \right)^{2-\gamma} f(\gamma)$$



A.Ruff, R.Gavazzi et al. 2010

$$\gamma(z_l) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 z_l$$

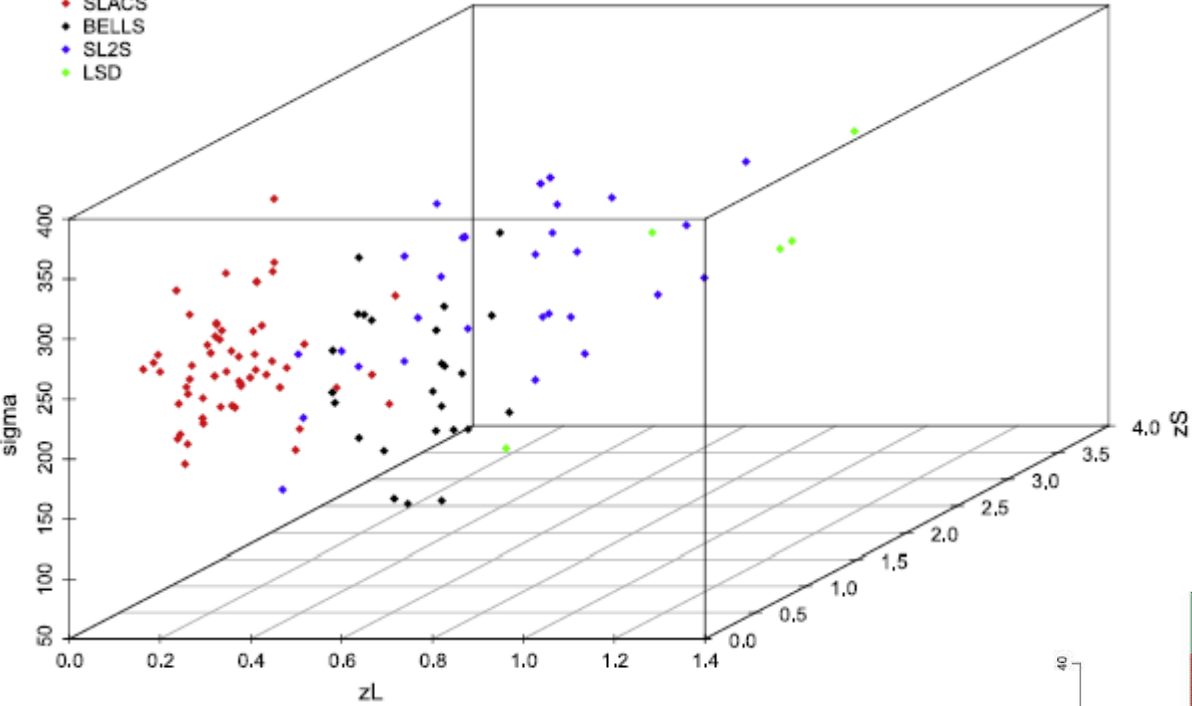
γ slope evolution

$$D^{\text{obs}} = \frac{c^2 \theta_E}{4\pi \sigma_{\text{ap}}^2} \left(\frac{\theta_{\text{ap}}}{\theta_E} \right)^{2-\gamma} f^{-1}(\gamma)$$

vs.

$$D^{\text{th}}(z_l, z_s; p) = \frac{D_{ls}(p)}{D_s(p)} = \frac{\int_{z_l}^{z_s} \frac{dz'}{h(z'; p)}}{\int_0^{z_s} \frac{dz'}{h(z'; p)}}$$

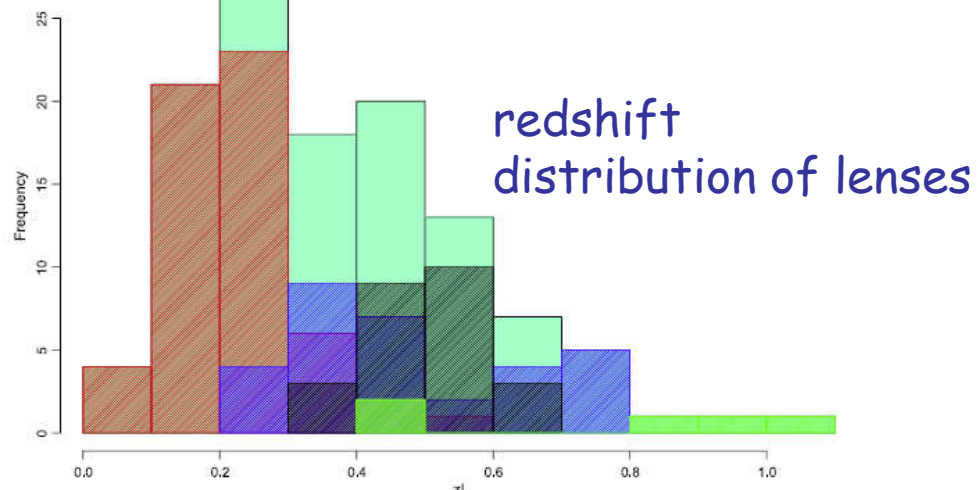
- SLACS
- BELLS
- SL2S
- LSD



118 lenses:

SLACS	57
BELLS	25
SL2S	5
LSD	5

Histogram of zL



Histogram of zS

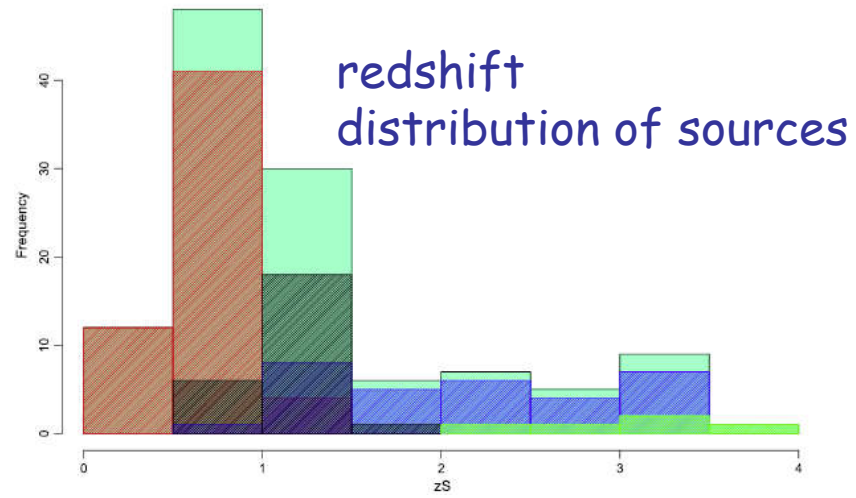
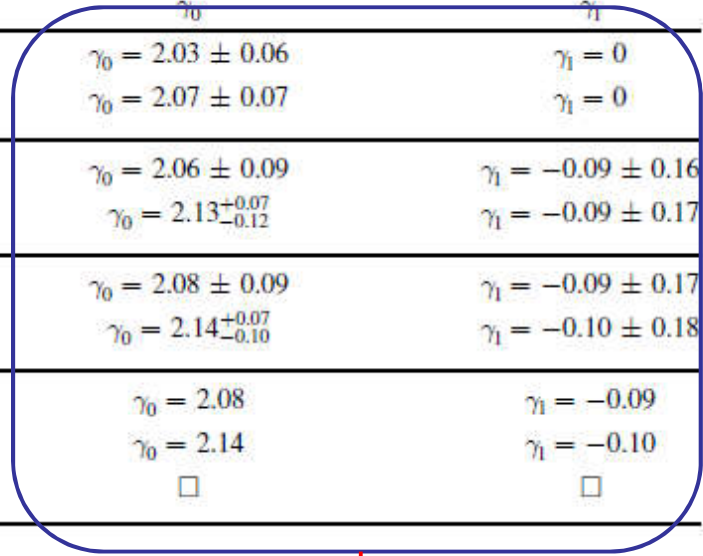
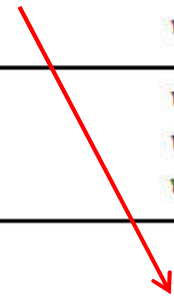
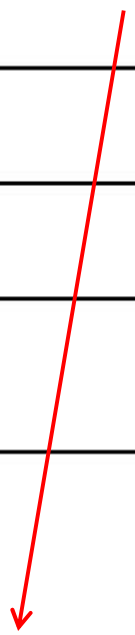


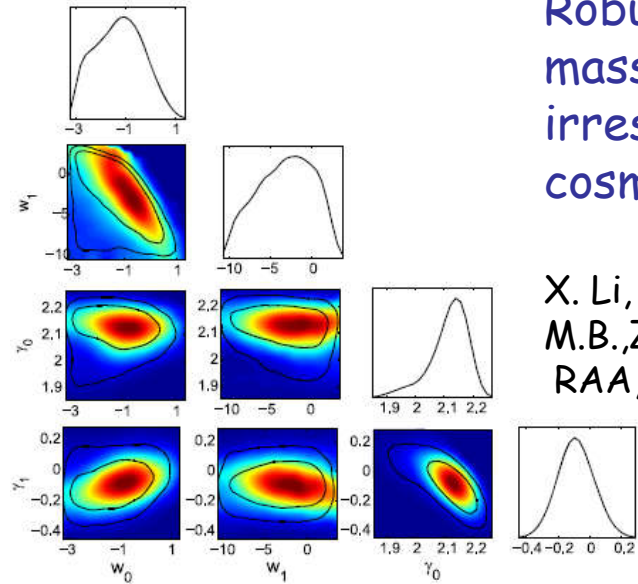
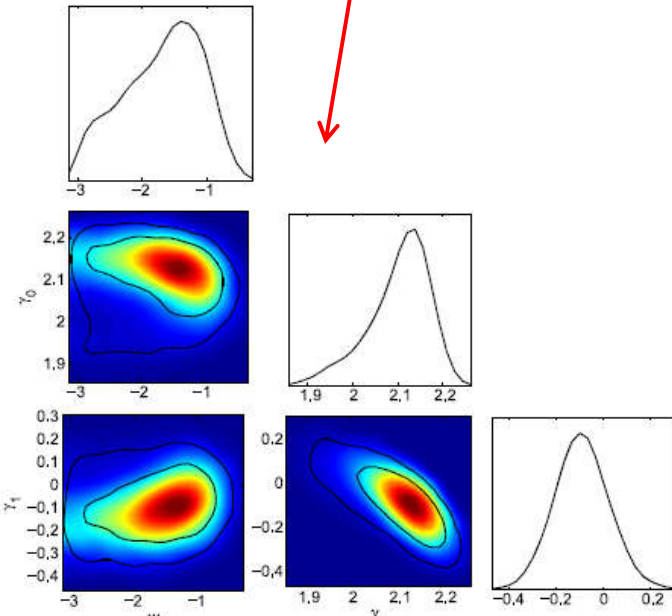
Table 2
Dark Energy (XCDM Model and CPL Parametrization) Constraints Obtained on the Full 118 Strong-lensing (SL) Sample^a

Cosmology (Sample)	w_0	w_1	γ_0	γ_1
XCDM1 (SL; σ_{ap})	$w_0 = -1.45^{+0.54}_{-0.95}$	$w_1 = 0$	$\gamma_0 = 2.03 \pm 0.06$	$\gamma_1 = 0$
XCDM1 (SL; σ_0)	$w_0 = -1.15^{+0.56}_{-1.20}$	$w_1 = 0$	$\gamma_0 = 2.07 \pm 0.07$	$\gamma_1 = 0$
XCDM2 (SL; σ_{ap})	$w_0 = -1.48^{+0.54}_{-0.94}$	$w_1 = 0$	$\gamma_0 = 2.06 \pm 0.09$	$\gamma_1 = -0.09 \pm 0.16$
XCDM2 (SL; σ_0)	$w_0 = -1.35^{+0.67}_{-1.50}$	$w_1 = 0$	$\gamma_0 = 2.13^{+0.07}_{-0.12}$	$\gamma_1 = -0.09 \pm 0.17$
CPL1 (SL; σ_{ap})	$w_0 = -0.15^{+1.27}_{-1.60}$	$w_1 = -6.95^{+7.25}_{-3.05}$	$\gamma_0 = 2.08 \pm 0.09$	$\gamma_1 = -0.09 \pm 0.17$
CPL1 (SL; σ_0)	$w_0 = -1.00^{+1.54}_{-1.95}$	$w_1 = -1.85^{+4.85}_{-6.75}$	$\gamma_0 = 2.14^{+0.07}_{-0.10}$	$\gamma_1 = -0.10 \pm 0.18$
CPL2 (SL; σ_{ap})	$w_0 = -0.16^{+1.21}_{-1.48}$	$w_1 = -6.25^{+6.25}_{-3.75}$	$\gamma_0 = 2.08$	$\gamma_1 = -0.09$
CPL2 (SL; σ_0)	$w_0 = -1.05^{+1.43}_{-1.77}$	$w_1 = -1.65^{+4.25}_{-6.35}$	$\gamma_0 = 2.14$	$\gamma_1 = -0.10$
CPL2 (SN)	$w_0 = -1.00 \pm 0.40$	$w_1 = -0.12^{+1.58}_{-2.78}$	□	□



Robust inference of mass density profile - irrespective of cosmological model

X. Li, S. Cao, X. Zheng,
M.B., Z.-H. Zhu
RAA, 16, 84 (2016)



THE DISTANCE DUALITY RELATION FROM STRONG GRAVITATIONAL LENSING

Kai Liao¹, Zhengxiang Li², Shuo Cao², Marek Biesiada^{2,3}, Xiaogang Zheng², and Zong-Hong Zhu²

Published 2016 May 10 • © 2016. The American Astronomical Society. All rights reserved.

[The Astrophysical Journal, Volume 822, Number 2](#)

Limits on the power-law mass and luminosity density profiles of elliptical galaxies from gravitational lensing systems

[MNRAS \(2016\) in print](#)

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Comparison of cosmological models using standard rulers and candles

[RAA 16, 84 \(2016\)](#)

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Why strong lensing systems ?

Dark Energy Complementarity

- We expect that the greatest accuracy and confidence in the measurements will come from independent crosschecks and complementarity between different methods probing the cosmology:

Albrecht et al. (DETF) 2006

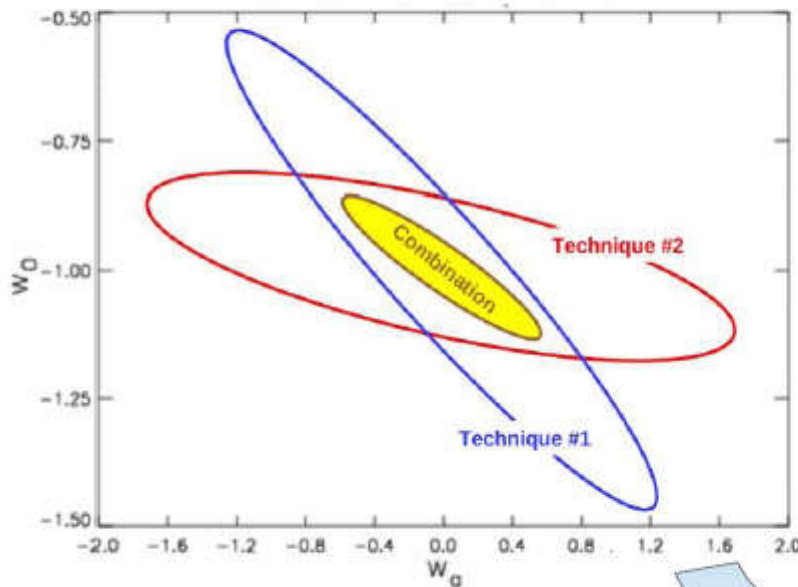
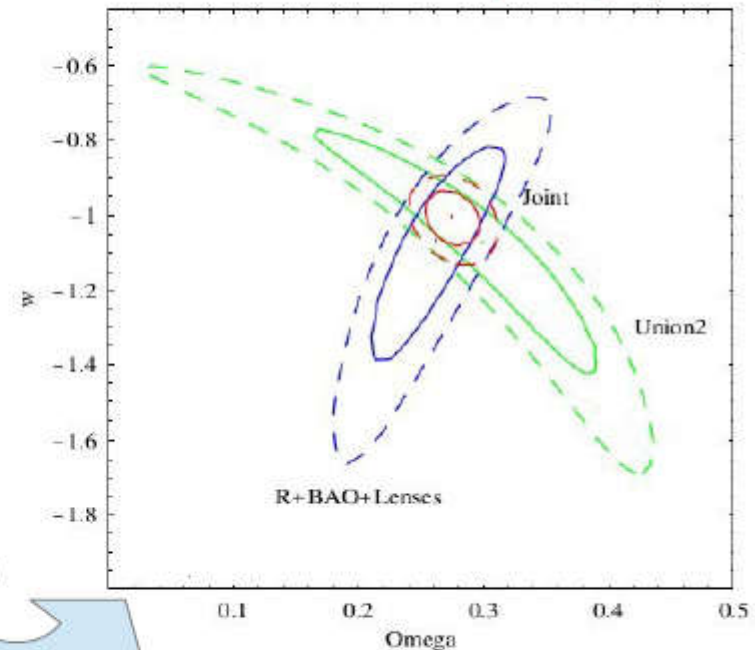


Illustration of the power of combining techniques.

Biesiada, Malec, AP, 2011

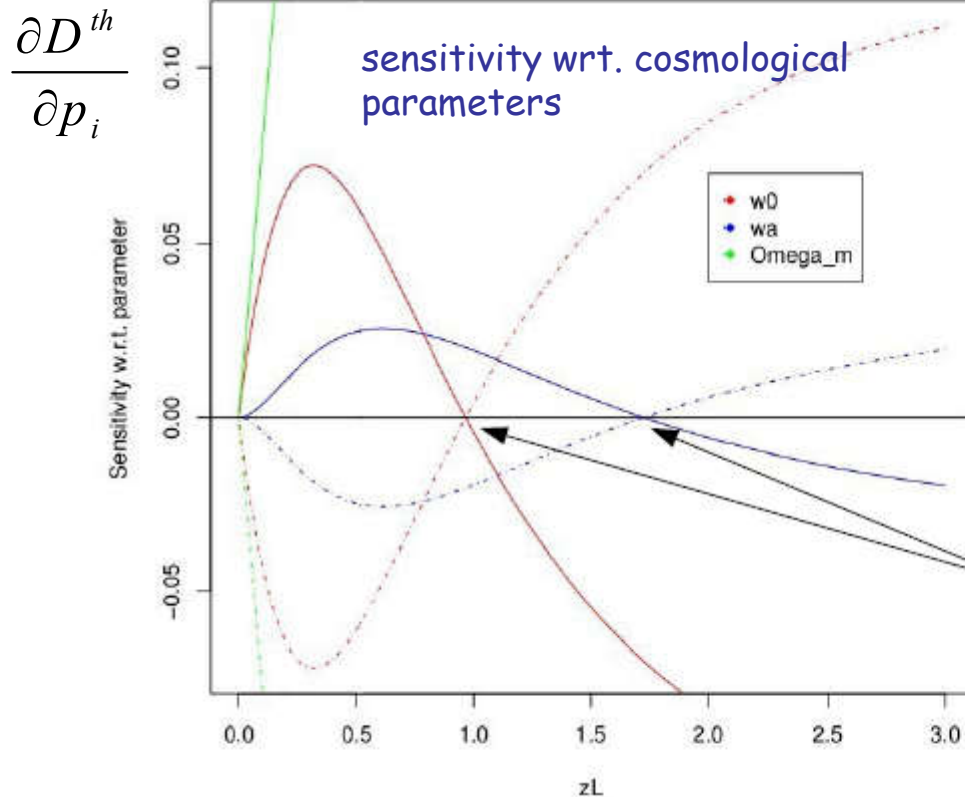


just like complementarity of standard rulers and standard candles in Ω - w parameter plane

Complementarity of strong lensing measurements

- For a certain redshift range competition between two ingredients in the distance ratios in strong gravitational lensing measurements may cause a positive correlation between w_0 and w_a :

$$D^{\text{th}}(z_l, z_s; \mathbf{p}) = \frac{D_s(\mathbf{p})}{D_{\text{ls}}(\mathbf{p})} = \frac{\int_0^{z_s} \frac{dz'}{h(z'; \mathbf{p})}}{\int_{z_l}^{z_s} \frac{dz'}{h(z'; \mathbf{p})}}$$



we expect that the correlation between w_0 and w_a should shift from negative to positive depending on the redshift

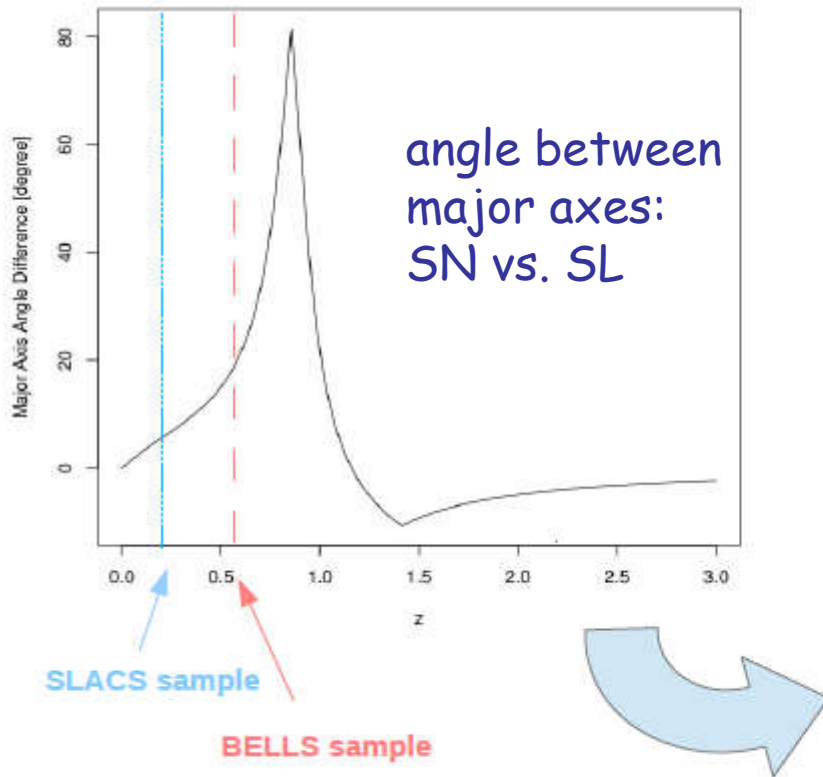


the crossings from negative to positive sensitivity occur at different redshifts

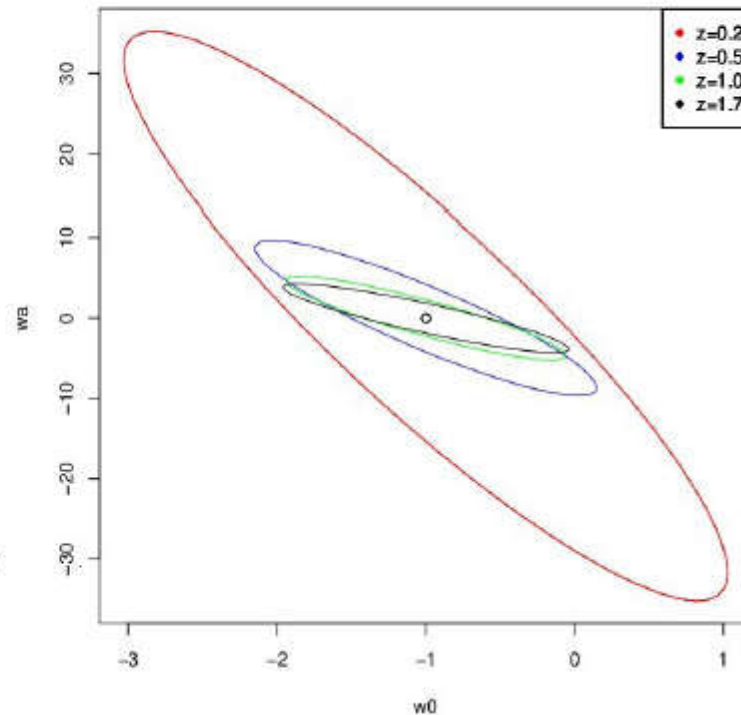
We consider here only: $z_s = 2z_l$

Complementarity of strong lensing measurements

- Strong lensing measurements are not perfect orthogonal to other distance measurement methods in the w_0 - w_a plane but to a certain extent they can be considered as complementary:



confidence contours for an idealized experiment measuring the distance ratio for several samples with different redshifts:



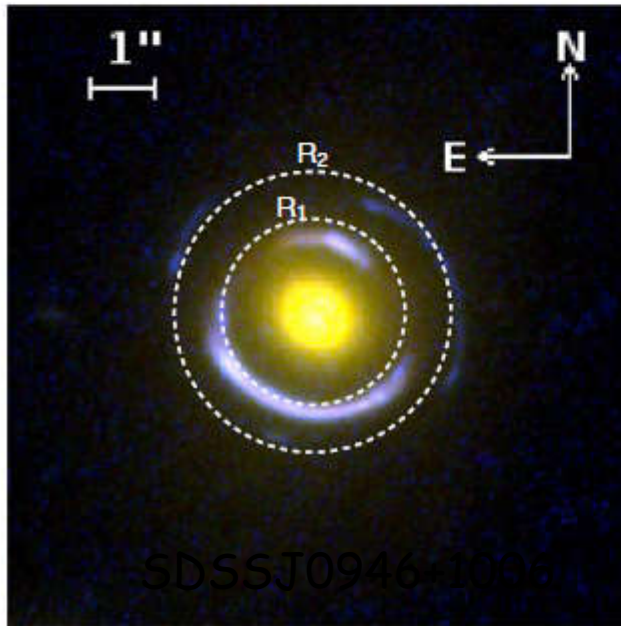
AP, Biesiada & Gavazzi, 2013

major axis angle of confidence contour for an idealized experiment as a function of redshift:

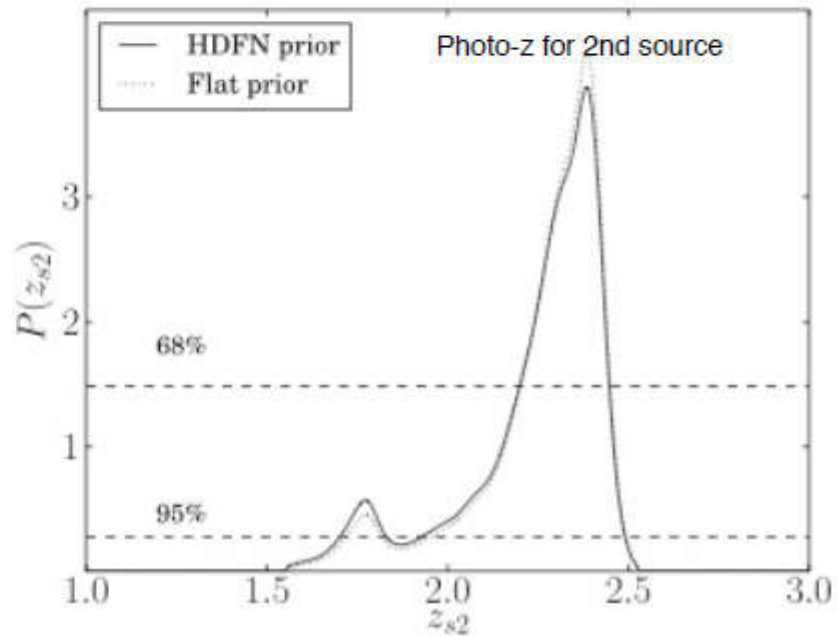
Two Einstein ring systems

If strong lensing provides M_{Einst} accurately inside R_{Einst} , then having two rings provides the density profile inside the two rings w/o hardly any assumption.

Color Composite

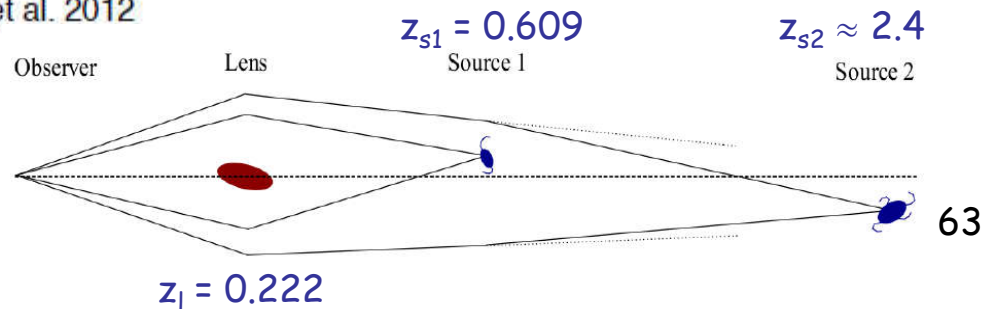


Multi-color HST data



Sonnenfeld et al. 2012

Gavazzi R., Treu T., Koopmans L. V. E., Bolton A. S., Moustakas L. A., Burles S., Marshall P. J., 2008, ApJ, 677, 1046



Constraining the dark energy equation of state with double source plane strong lenses

MNRAS 432, 679 (2013)

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³ *Kavli Institute for Cosmology, University of Cambridge Madingley Road, Cambridge CB3 0HA*

The observable:

The Ratio of Einstein Radii.



$$\eta = \frac{\theta_{E,1}}{\theta_{E,2}}$$

$$\theta_E^{\text{SIS}} = 4\pi \frac{\sigma_V^2}{c^2} \frac{D_{ls}}{D_s}$$

$$\eta^{\text{SIS}} = \frac{D_{ls1} D_{s2}}{D_{ls2} D_{s1}}$$

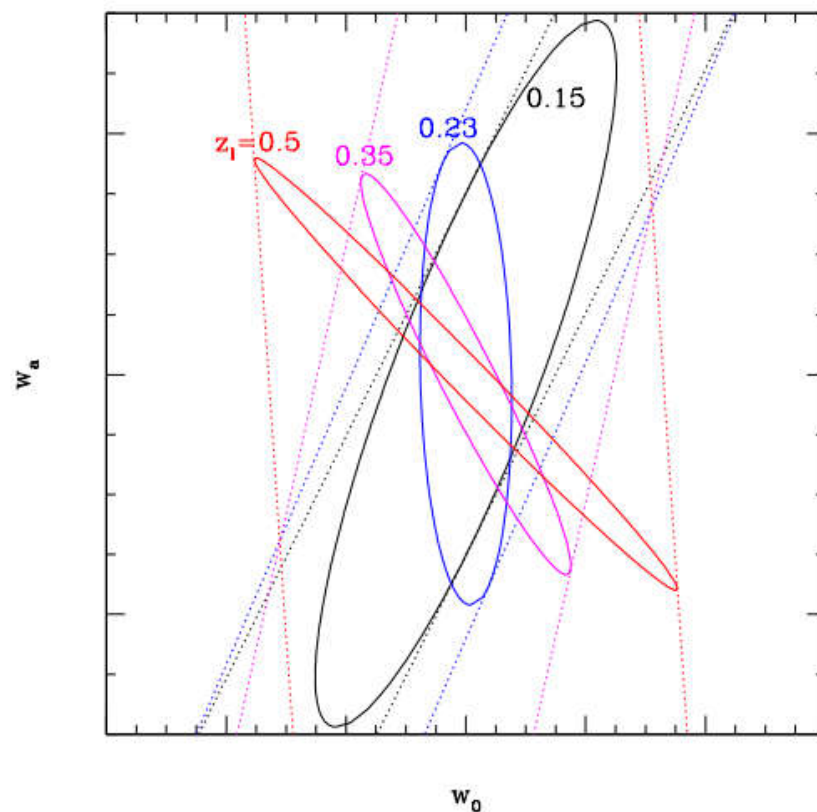
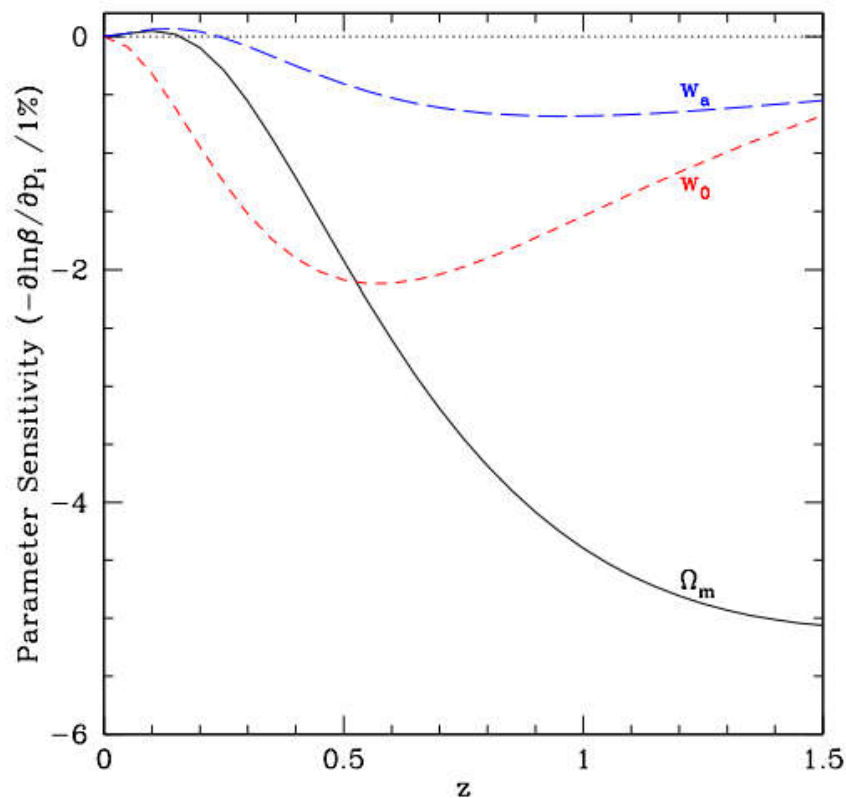
No dependence on the Hubble constant!

Doubling Strong Lensing as a Cosmological Probe

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University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA*

(Dated: May 18, 2016)



arXiv:1605.04910v1 [astro-ph.CO]

THE POPULATION OF GALAXY-GALAXY STRONG LENSES IN FORTHCOMING OPTICAL IMAGING SURVEYS

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Submitted to the Astrophysical Journal, 2015 May 28

ABSTRACT

Ongoing and future imaging surveys represent significant improvements in depth, area and seeing compared to current data-sets. These improvements offer the opportunity to discover up to three orders of magnitude more galaxy-galaxy strong lenses than are currently known. In this work we forecast the number of lenses discoverable in forthcoming surveys and simulate their properties. We generate a population of statistically realistic strong lenses and simulate observations of this population for the Dark Energy Survey (DES), Large Synoptic Survey Telescope (LSST) and Euclid surveys. We verify our model against the galaxy-scale lens search of the Canada-France-Hawaii Telescope Legacy Survey (CFHTLS), predicting 250 discoverable lenses compared to 220 found by Gavazzi et al. (2014). The predicted Einstein radius distribution is also remarkably similar to that found by Sonnenfeld et al. (2013). For future surveys we find that, assuming Poisson limited lens galaxy subtraction, searches in DES, LSST and Euclid datasets should discover 2400, 120000, and 170000 galaxy-galaxy strong lenses respectively. Finders using blue minus red ($g - i$) difference imaging for lens subtraction can discover 1300 and 62000 lenses in DES and LSST. The uncertainties on the model are dominated by the high redshift source population which typically gives fractional errors on the discoverable lens number at the tens of percent level. We find that doubling the signal-to-noise ratio required for a lens to be detectable, approximately halves the number of detectable lenses in each survey, indicating the importance of understanding the selection function and sensitivity of future lens finders in interpreting strong lens statistics. We make our population forecasting and simulated observation codes publicly available so that the selection function of strong lens finders can easily be calibrated.

Perspectives for strong lensing:


* increasing number of strong lenses discovered by searches such as CLASS , SLACS, SL2S, SQLS, HAGGLEs, AEGIS, COSMOS, CASSOWARY, BELLS

* new projects: Pan-STARRS, LSST, JDEM / IDECS3, SKA4 will yield an explosion in the number of strong lenses

- strongly lensed systems with known central velocity dispersions are a new class of "standard rulers" (Einstein radius being standardized by stellar kinematics)

- their use entered the stage of providing first estimates on cosmological parameters

- they will develop into a technique complementary to other methods



DZIĘKUJĘ ZA UWAGĘ!

Thank you !

