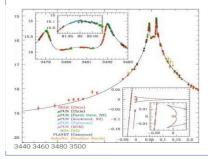
Gravitational lensing From planets to clusters of galaxies



#### **First lecture**

### **Basic equations**

## First application: the point mass lens







Gravitational lensing A short history



Newton realized that masses should deflect light

First Newtonian calculation Johann Soldner (1801)

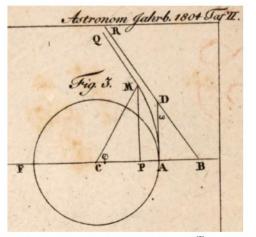
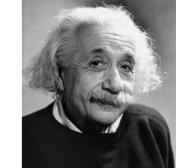


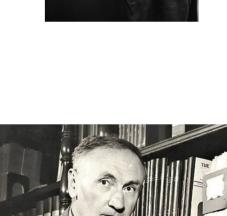
Figure 1. The Figure associated with Soldner's article.<sup>[7]</sup> Reproduced with permission from copy of the *Bayerische Staatsbibliothek*, Signatur: Eph. astr. 23-1804. urn:nbn:de:bvb:12-bsb105383333-5, p.281

Einstein (1915) the correct deflection angle in general relativity is twice the previous Newtonian value

Zwicky (1937) realized that galaxies can split images With large enough separations to be observable







Refsdal (1964) propose to measure the Hubble constant By using time delays (trhough the variability of the lensed source)

Walsh, Carswell, & Weymann (1979) discover the double image of a quasar QSO 0957+561

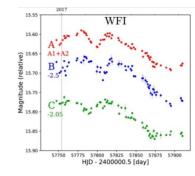
Paczynski (1986b) propose to monitor millions of star in LMC and SMC Now gravitational microlensing can be observed



LMC







# The era of gravitational lensing is opening

The first case of gravitational arc is there

Lynds & Petrosian (1986)

Galaxy cluster Abell 370

#### The first gravitational arc

Lynds & Petrosian (1986)

68.01 Giant Luminous Arcs in Galaxy Clusters

R. Lynds (KPNO/NOAO), V. Petrosian (Stanford U.)

We announce the existence of a hitherto unknown type of spatially coherent extragalactic structure having, in the two most compelling known examples, the common properties: location in clusters of galaxies, narrow arc-like shape, enormous length, and situation of center of curvature toward both a cD galaxy and the apparent center of gravity of the cluster. The arcs are in excess of 100 Kpc in length, have luminosities roughly comparable with those of giant E galaxies, and are distinctly bluer than E galaxies - especially so in one case. Interpretations of the nature of the arcs are discussed within the framework of available data.

### Soucail et al. (1987)

## Galaxy cluster Abell 370

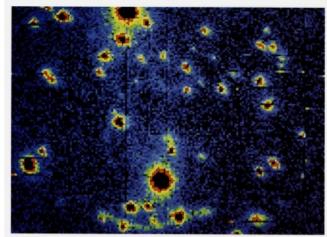


Figure 1: Image of the core of the cluster of galaxies A 370 (z = 0.374), dominated by two giant galaxies ( $\pm$  20 and  $\pm$  35). The arc is located southward galaxy  $\pm$  35 and has a linear size of  $\sim$  8 kpc wide and 160 kpc long. In the lensing hypothesis it is an image of a galaxy at redshift z = 0.59. Note the galaxies superimposed on the arc, especially the brightest one ( $\pm$  37) whose influence has been taken into account in the lensing model.

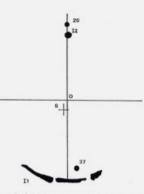
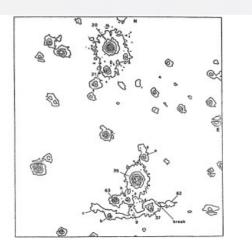
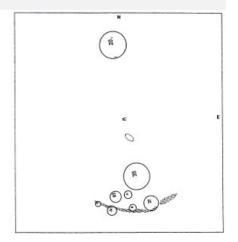


Figure 2: Schematic diagram of the lensing configuration in a three point mass model: 2.25 10<sup>14</sup> M<sub>☉</sub> for the cluster core (point 0)  $3 \cdot 10^{12}$  M<sub>☉</sub> for galaxy # 20 and 0.7 10<sup>12</sup> M<sub>☉</sub> for galaxy # 37.11 and 12 are the two images of a circular source which would appear in S without lensing. Note the large break to the right of 11. The details of such a configuration will be given in a paper submitted to Nature.





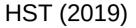


Bogdan Paczynski Nature (1987)

Paczynski proposed that the arcs are the images of background galaxies which are strongly distorted and elongated by the gravitational lens effect of the foreground cluster.

This model was confirmed when the first arc redshifts were measured and found to be greater than that of the clusters.

#### Soucail et al. (1987)



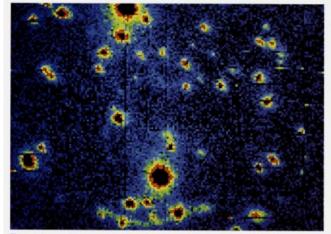


Figure 1: Image of the core of the cluster of galaxies A 370 (z = 0.374), dominated by two giant galaxies ( $\pm$  20 and  $\pm$  35). The arc is located southward galaxy  $\pm$  35 and has a linear size of  $\sim$  8 kpc wide and 160 kpc long. In the lensing hypothesis it is an image of a galaxy at redshift z = 0.59. Note the galaxies superimposed on the arc, especially the brightest one ( $\pm$  37) whose influence has been taken into account in the lensing model.

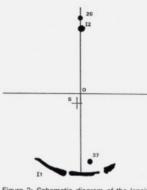
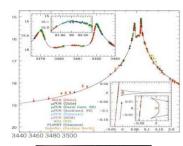


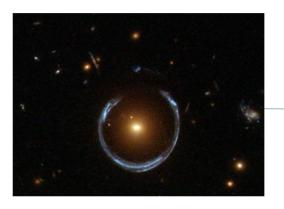
Figure 2: Schematic diagram of the lensing configuration in a three point mass model: 2.25  $10^{14}$  M<sub>☉</sub> for the cluster core (point 0)  $3 \cdot 10^{12}$  M<sub>☉</sub> for galaxy # 20 and 0.7  $10^{12}$  M<sub>☉</sub> for galaxy # 37.11 and 12 are the two images of a circular source which would appear in S without lensing. Note the large break to the right of 11. The details of such a configuration will be given in a paper submitted to Nature.



Gravitational lensing probes all astrophysical scales A journey of increasing scale

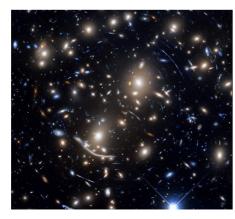


From planets To Galaxies

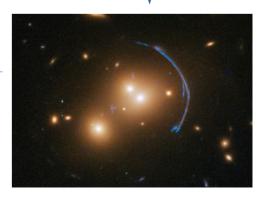


From Galaxies To Galaxy groups





#### From Groups To clusters of galaxies



What kind of information do we obtain from gravitational lensing?

Gravitational lensing offers a direct unbiased measure of the mass Making maps of the mass distribution Dark matter mapping

Lensing has an ability to resolve very fine structure – un-observable by other means

The structure of the lens

planets

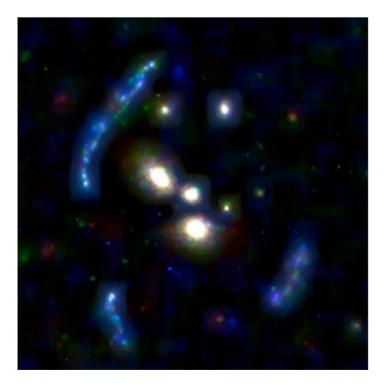
Dark matter substructures

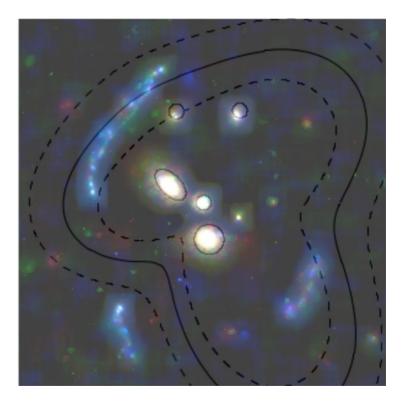
The structure of the source

red giant star

quasar accretion disk

# Lensing offers a direct measure of mass visible or not

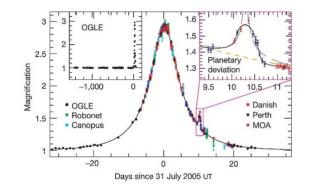


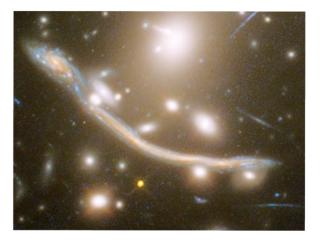


Direct reconstruction of mass

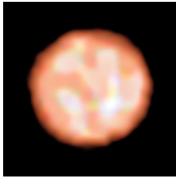
Lensing has an ability to resolve very fine structure

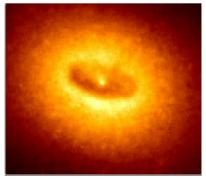
The structure of the lens: planets – Dark matter substructures





The structure of the source: red giant star - quasar accretion disk





What this course does not cover

**Cosmological lensing** 

Cosmic shear

CMB lensing

Galaxy-galaxy lensing

#### Some reviews

Martin Kilbinger: Cosmology with cosmic shear observations: a review

Lewis & Challinor : Weak gravitational lensing of the CMB

The basics of gravitational lensing

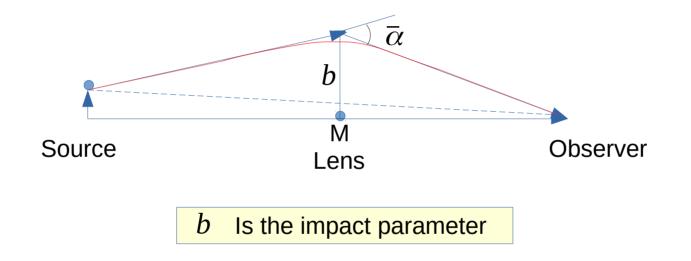
The fundamental scale

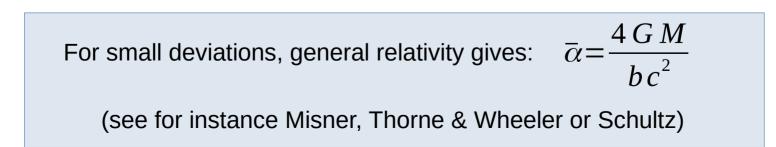
Einstein ring

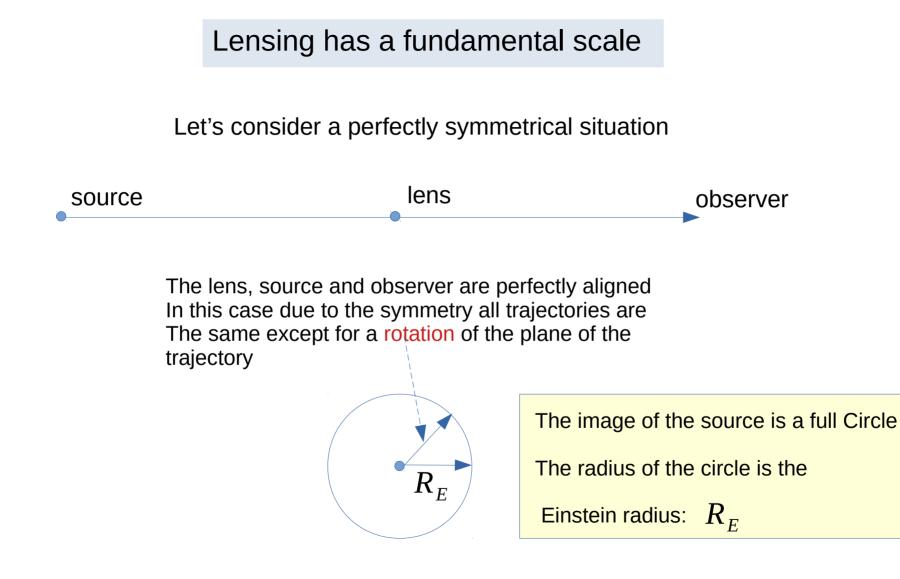
The various lensing regimes

Strong lensing Weak lensing Intermediate regime

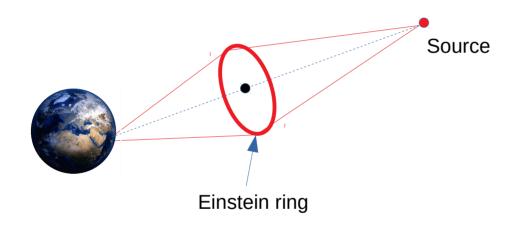
# Lensing: bending of the light trajectory by a massive object

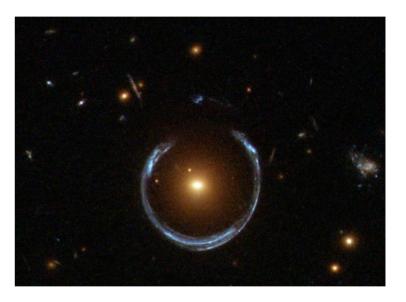






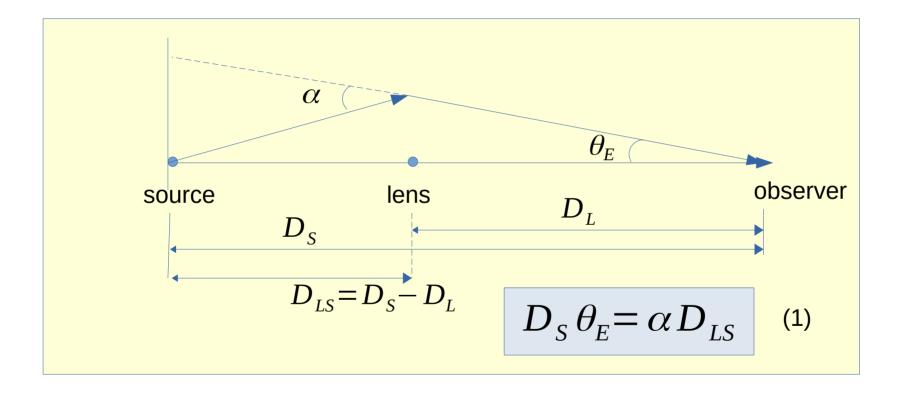
# The Einstein ring





# The image seen from earth

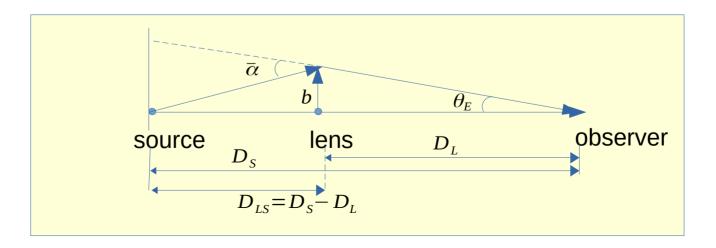
# Estimating the Einstein radius



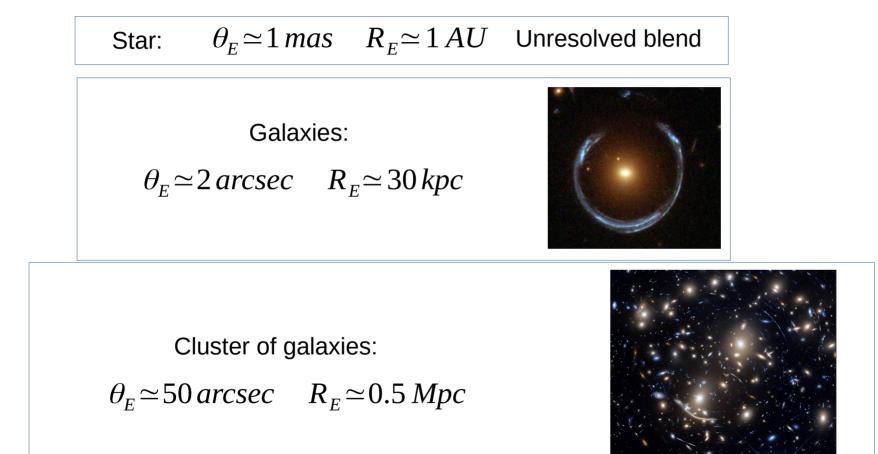
$$\bar{\alpha} = \frac{4 G M}{c^2 b}$$
 with  $b = \theta_E D_L$  combined with  $D_S \theta_E = \bar{\alpha} D_{LS}$ 

We obtain 
$$\theta_E = \sqrt{\frac{4GM}{c^2} \frac{D_{LS}}{D_S D_L}}$$

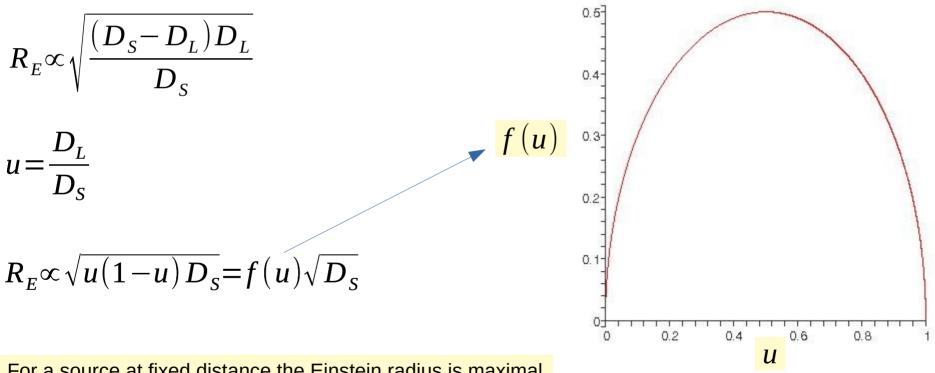
The Einstein radius is: 
$$R_E = \theta_E D_L = \sqrt{\frac{4GM}{c^2} \frac{D_{LS}D_L}{D_S}}$$



Typical values of the Einstein radius



#### The Einstein radius and the distance between the lens and source



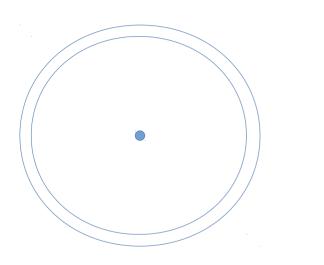
For a source at fixed distance the Einstein radius is maximal When the lens lens is placed at mid-distance The various lensing regimes

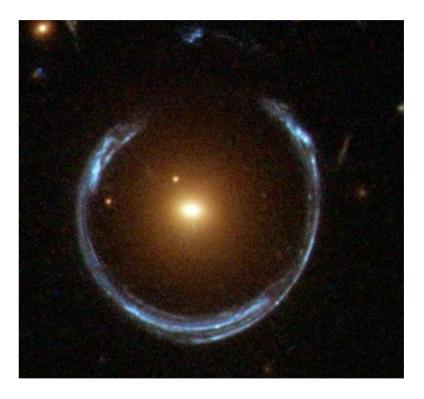
Strong lensing

Weak lensing

Intermediate regime

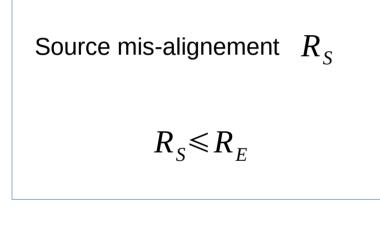
Consequence of the fundamental scale: the various lensing regimes





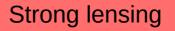
Extended source at the center of circularly symmetric lens: thick Einstein ring

# Slightly mis-aligned source or not circularly symmetrical potential





Broken ring: gravitational arcs



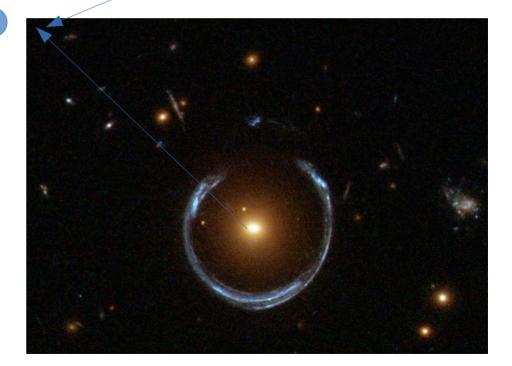
### Source far away from center of lens (a few times the Einstein radius)

Weak effect

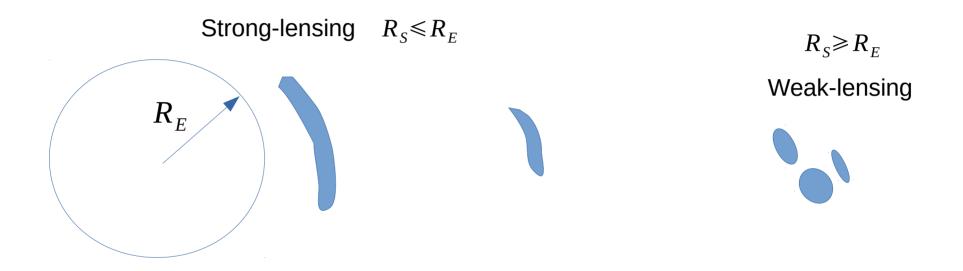
Weak distortion A round source become An ellipse

There is a statistical change in the Ellipticity of background galaxies

Weak-Lensing



Between the weak and strong lensing regime: intermediate regime



Variable elliptical distortion: some curvature

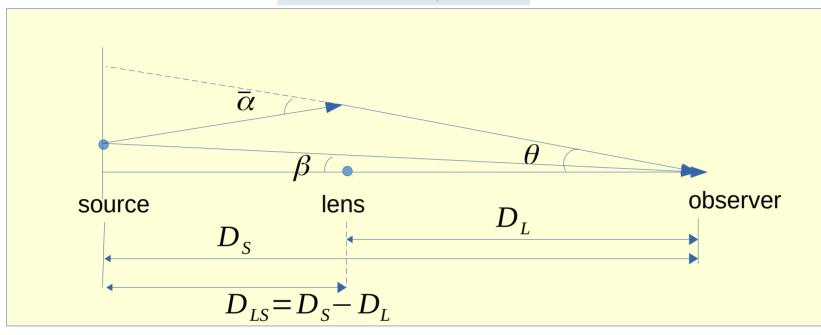
The position of the source defines the regime

# General gravitational lensing in astrophysical context

**Basic equations** 

Full mathematical description

# The lens equation



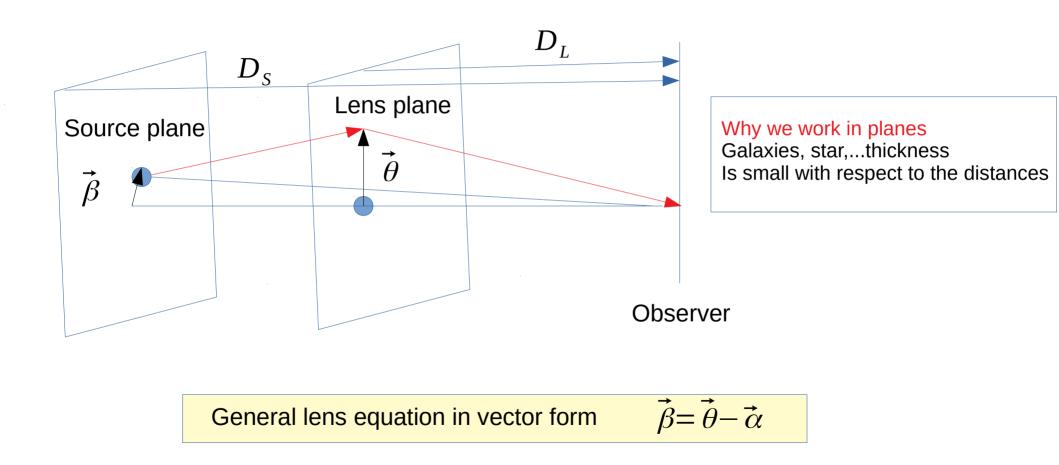
$$\beta D_{S} + \overline{\alpha} D_{LS} = \theta D_{S} \longrightarrow \beta = \theta - \overline{\alpha} \frac{D_{LS}}{D_{S}} = \theta - \alpha$$

 $\beta = \theta - \alpha$ 

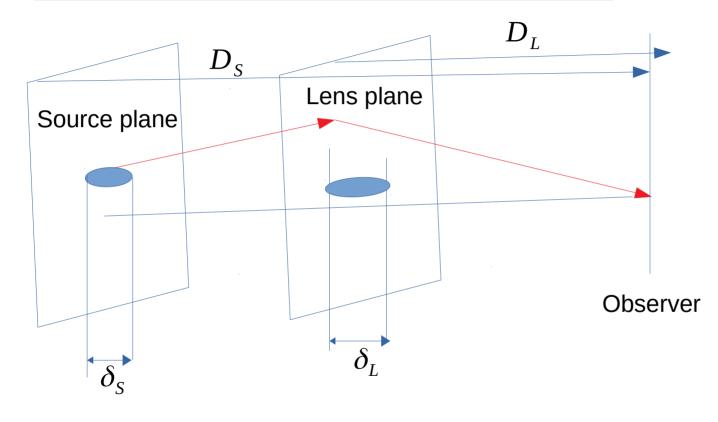
Reduced deflection angle

$$\alpha = \overline{\alpha} \frac{D_{LS}}{D_S}$$

### 3D representation of the lens equation

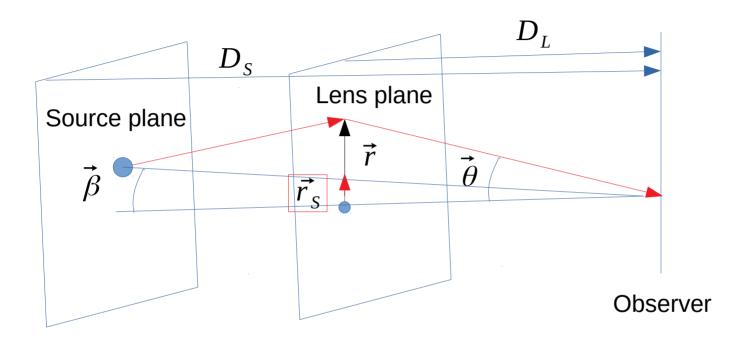


General distribution of lenses: planar approximation The thin lens model



 $\delta_{S} \leq D$  ;  $\delta_{L} \leq D$  ;  $D = D_{S}, D_{L}$ 

## The vectors angle are equivalent to vectors in the plane

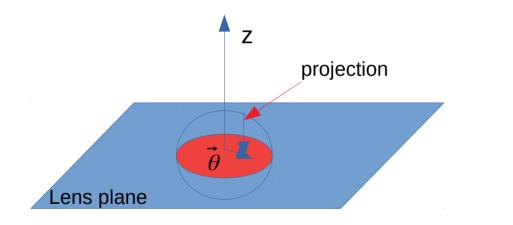


$$\vec{r} = \theta D_L$$
;  $\vec{r_s} = \beta D_L$ 

$$\vec{\beta} = \vec{\theta} - \vec{\alpha}$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\vec{r}_s = \vec{r} - \vec{\hat{\alpha}}$ 

The lens equation for a continuous distribution in the lens plane

In the thin lens approximation the density is projected density in the lens plane Leading to a surface density

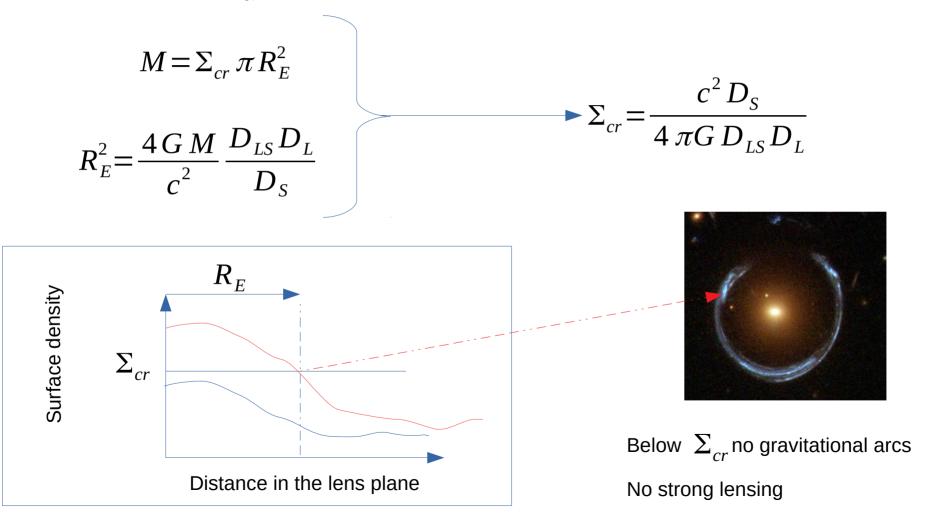


$$\Sigma(\vec{\theta}) = \int \rho(\vec{\theta}, z) dz$$

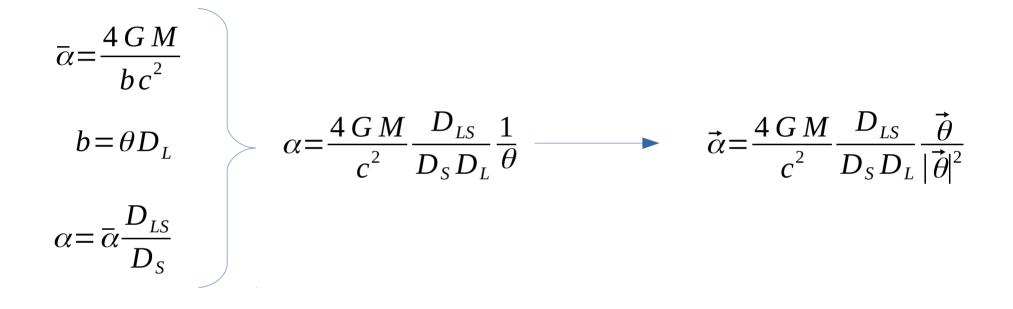
 $\Sigma(\vec{\theta})$  Is the projected surface density in the lens plane

Note:  $\vec{\theta}$  is related to the local coordinate in the lens plane:  $\vec{r} = \vec{\theta} D_L$ 

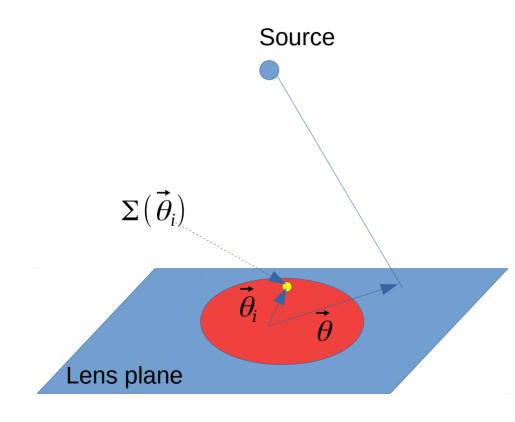
Introducing  $\Sigma_{cr}$  the mean surface density within the Einstein radius



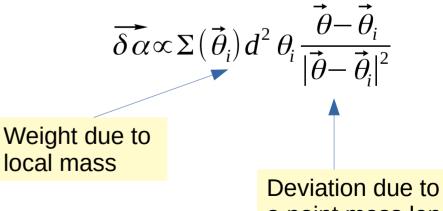
#### Deviation due to a point mass lens



# The lens equation for a continuous distribution in the lens plane



The deviation produced by a small element of the lens is:



a point mass lens

We introduce the normalized surface density (convergence)

$$\kappa(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{\Sigma(\vec{\theta})}{\Sigma_{cr}}$$
  
Then:  $\vec{\delta \alpha} = \frac{1}{\pi} \kappa(\vec{\theta}_i) d^2 \theta_i \frac{\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i}{|\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i|^2}$ 

We co-add the angular deviation for each local element  $\alpha(\vec{\theta}) = \int \vec{\delta \alpha} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{LP} \kappa(\vec{\theta}_i) \frac{\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i}{|\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i|^2} d^2 \theta_i$ 

$$\alpha(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{LP} \kappa(\vec{\theta}_i) \frac{\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i}{|\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i|^2} d^2 \theta_i$$

We introduce the potential

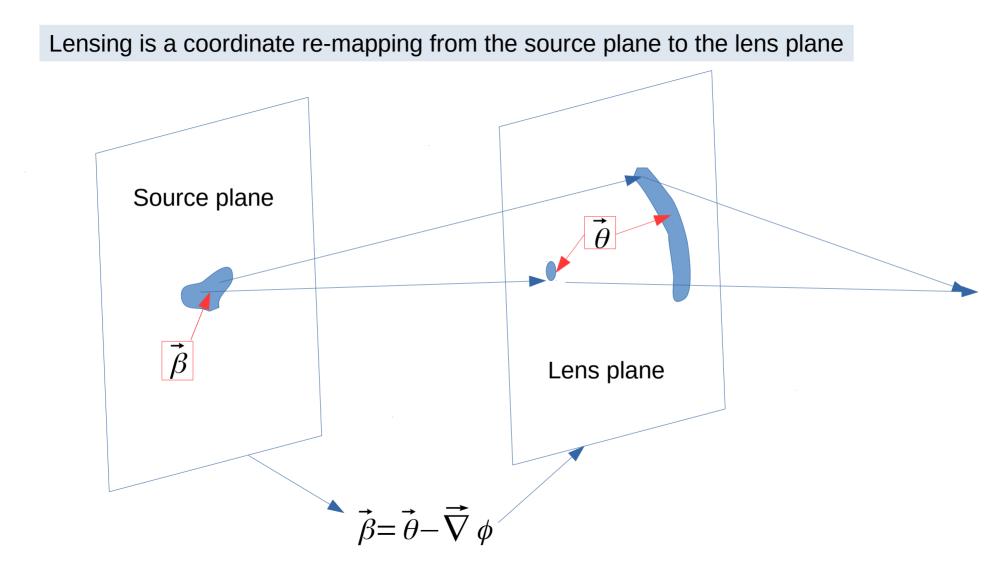
$$\phi(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{LP} \kappa(\vec{\theta}_i) \log\left(|\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i|\right) d^2 \theta_i$$

Then: 
$$\vec{\alpha} = \vec{\nabla} \phi$$

Then finally the lens equation takes the simple form:

$$\phi(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{LP} \kappa(\vec{\theta}_i) \log\left(|\vec{\theta} - \vec{\theta}_i|\right) d^2 \theta_i \qquad \kappa = \frac{1}{2} \Delta \phi$$

The lens equation describe a general change in coordinates from the source coordinates (  $\vec\beta$  ) to the lens coordinates (  $\vec\theta$  )



Additionally the coordinates change introduced by lensing Conserve the surface brightness of the source

(see Misner, Thorne & Wheeler, or Schultz)

The conservation of surface brightness, plus the coordinates transform provided by the lens equation is a complete description of gravitational lensing

# $\vec{\beta} = \vec{\theta} - \vec{\nabla} \phi$ + surface brightness conservation

First application: point mass lens

**Basic equations** 

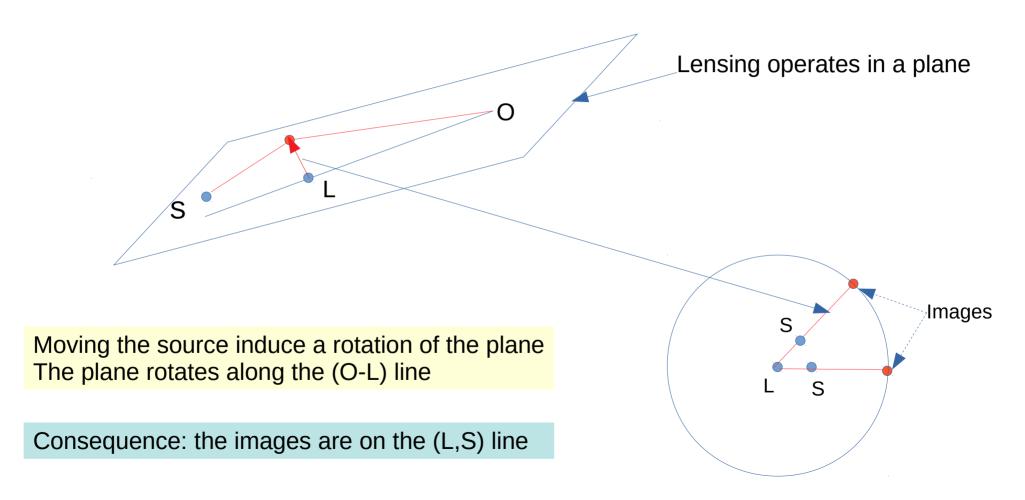
### Amplification of the source

Direct calculation Jacobian Total amplification Light curve Fundamental degeneracies

Astrometric effects

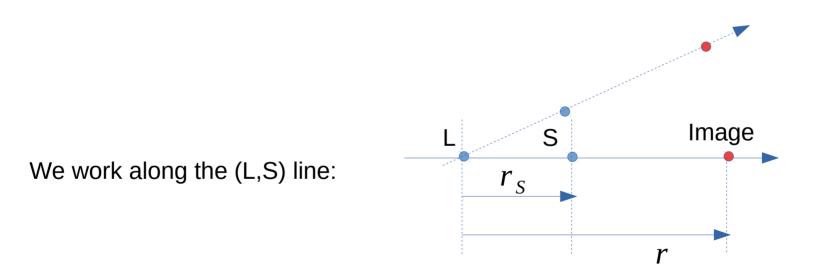
Basic equations Amplitude of the effect

## Lensing by a point mass lens



For convenience we use lens plane coordinates: *r* 

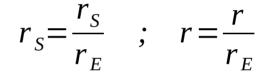
$$r_{s} = \beta D_{L} \quad r = \theta D_{L}$$



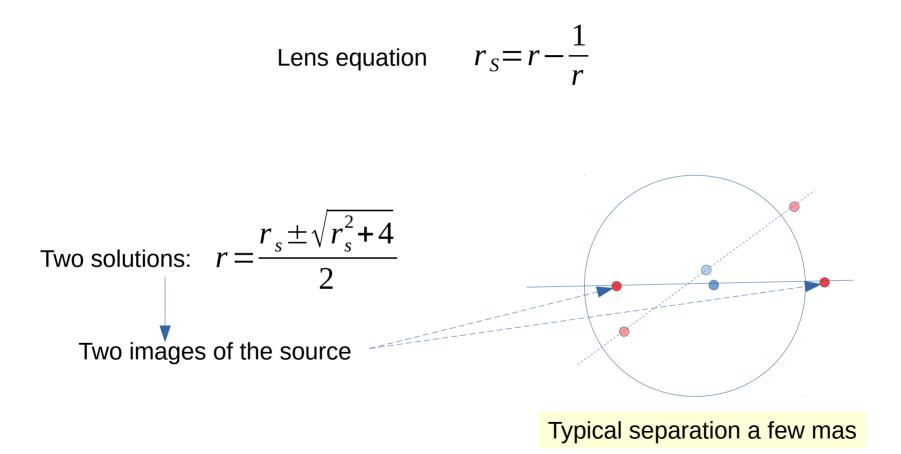
The images are aligned with the (L,S) line Moving the source rorates the line and images



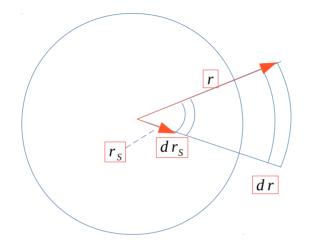
Re-normalization by the Einstein radius,



Lens equation 
$$r_s = r - \frac{1}{r}$$



Total amplification: sum of the flux of the two images (images usually not separable)



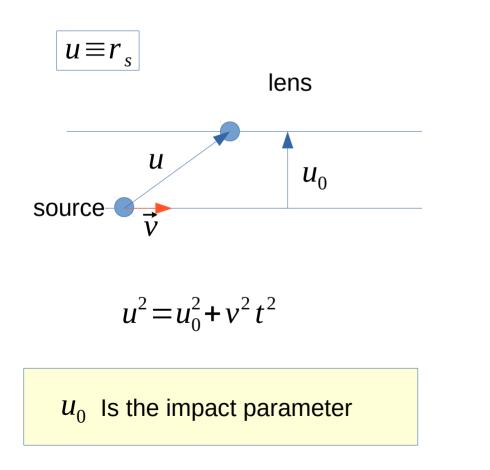
Amplification: 
$$A = \frac{r}{r_s} \frac{dr}{dr_s}$$
  $A = A_1 + A_2$   $r_{1,2} = \frac{r_s \pm \sqrt{r_s^2 + 4}}{2}$ 

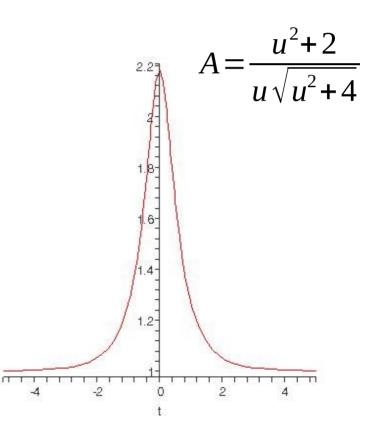
$$A = \frac{r_s^2 + 2}{r_s \sqrt{r_s^2 + 4}}$$

Other method: lensing is a change in coordinates The amplification is the change in the volume element in the coordinate transform This is the determinant of the Jacobian matrix J

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x_s}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial y_s}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial x_s}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial y_s}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} \qquad x_s = x - \frac{x}{r^2} \quad ; \quad y_s = y - \frac{y}{r^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad J = \frac{r^4 - 1}{r^4}$$
$$A = J^{-1} \quad ; \quad A \to \infty \quad r = 1 \quad \longrightarrow \text{Einstein circle=critical line}$$
$$A = A_1 + A_2 = \frac{1}{|J_1|} + \frac{1}{|J_2|} = \frac{r_s^2 + 2}{r_s \sqrt{r_s^2 + 4}}$$

Typical microlensing amplification curve in astrophysical context





$$u^2 = u_0^2 + v^2 t^2$$
  $A = \frac{u^2 + 2}{u\sqrt{u^2 + 4}}$ 

All length are in units of the Einstein radius

We measure: 
$$u_0 \equiv \frac{u_0}{R_E}$$
;  $v \equiv \frac{v}{R_E} = t_E^{-1}$   
The crossing time:  $t_E$  is directly related to  $R_E = \sqrt{\frac{4GM}{c^2} \frac{D_{LS}D_L}{D_S}}$ 

## But the velocity is unknown

And  $R_E$  does not relate directly to the mass since the distances are unknown

Fundamental degeneracies

200 150 50 100  $\begin{array}{l} \text{Star 101-A} \\ \text{A}_{\text{max}} = 8.076 \end{array}$  $\hat{t} = 55.47$ Star 101-B  $A_{max} = 4.606$   $\hat{t} = 151.7$ Star 101-CA<sub>max</sub> = 5.719 A<sub>B</sub>  $\hat{t} = 29.94$ AR  $\begin{array}{l} \text{Star 101-D} \\ \text{A}_{\text{max}} = 71.49 \end{array}$ та 10 на стана. Ч  $\hat{t} = 12.39$ ¥<sup>10⊦</sup> 150 200 50 100 JD - 2449000

10

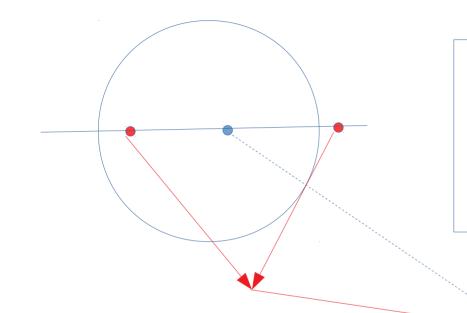
10

The first light curves of microlensing events

Alcock etal. (1997)

(Galactic Bulge events)

# Astrometric effects



We don't observe individual images But a blend of 2 images

The astrometric effect is the shift of the centroid of the image blend

The observable quantity: the shift between the source and centroid position

Calculation of astrometric effects

The position of the images centroid

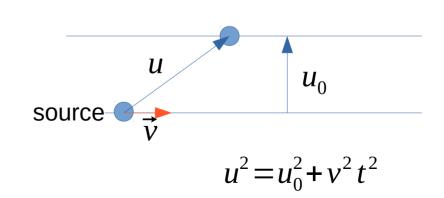
$$\overline{u} = \frac{u_1 A_1 + u_2 A_2}{A_1 + A_2} = \frac{u(u^2 + 3)}{u^2 + 2}$$

The observable quantity: the shift between the source and centroid position

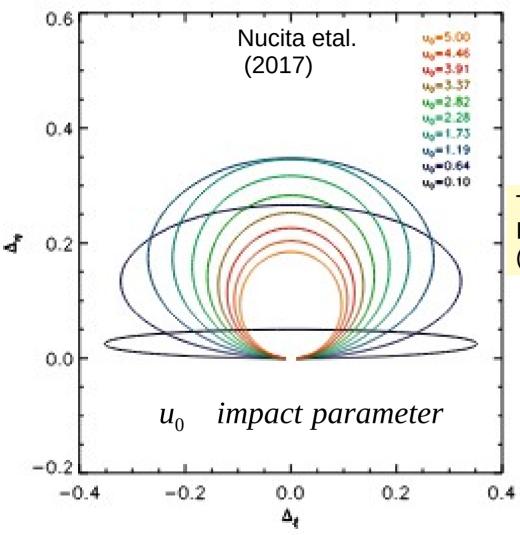
$$\Delta = u - \overline{u} = \frac{u}{2 + u^2}$$

The two projected component of  $\Delta$  are:

$$\Delta_{\xi} = \frac{t - t_0}{t_E(2 + u^2)} \qquad \Delta_{\eta} = \frac{u_0}{(2 + u^2)}$$



lens

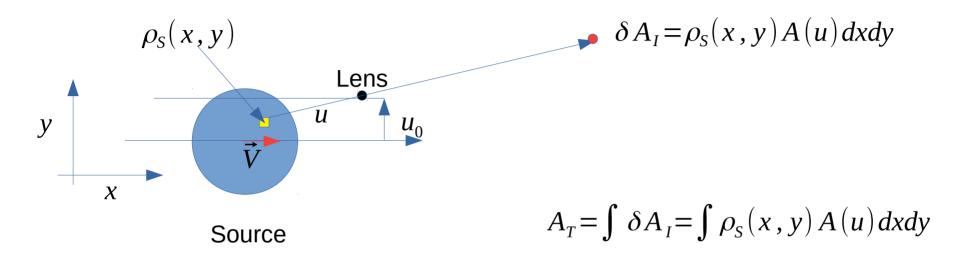


The astrometric effect may increase with Increasing Impact parameter (Unlike the amplification) Lensing by point mass lens:some interesting problems

The extended source problem: the source is not a point The source has a finite size and surface brightness profile

The moving observer: the effect of the earth orbital motion

The extended source problem



$$u^2 = (x + Vt)^2 + (y - u_0)^2$$

## The extended source problem

$$A_T = \int \rho(x, y) A(u) dx dy \qquad A(u) = \frac{u^2 + 2}{u\sqrt{u^2 + 4}}$$

## No real singularity: constant circular area at center in polar coordinates

• 
$$A_0 \rightarrow \int_0^R \frac{\sqrt{u^2 + 2}}{u\sqrt{u^2 + 4}} u \, du$$

Write a numerical code to integrate over the source

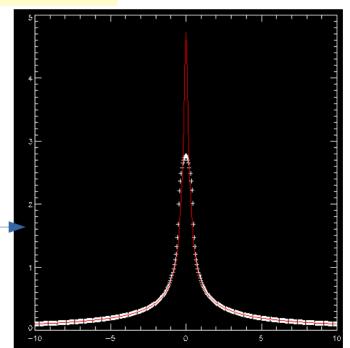
**Constant brightness** 

Limb darkening for stars (color effects ?)

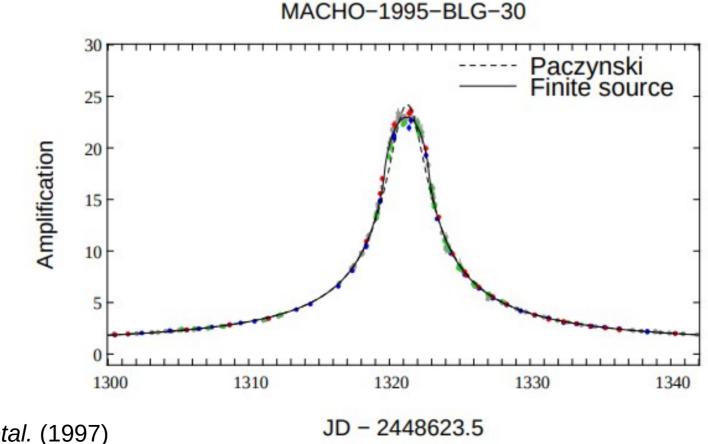
General method to reconstruct the density profile of the source?



## Illustration of the effect



A first case showing finite source size effect

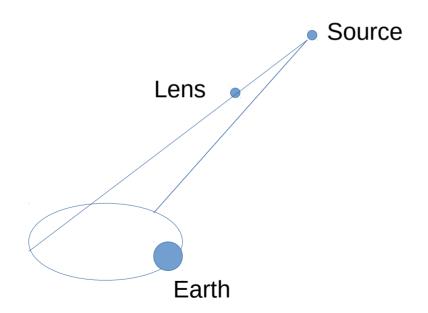


Alcock etal. (1997)

Other interesting problem for point mass lenses

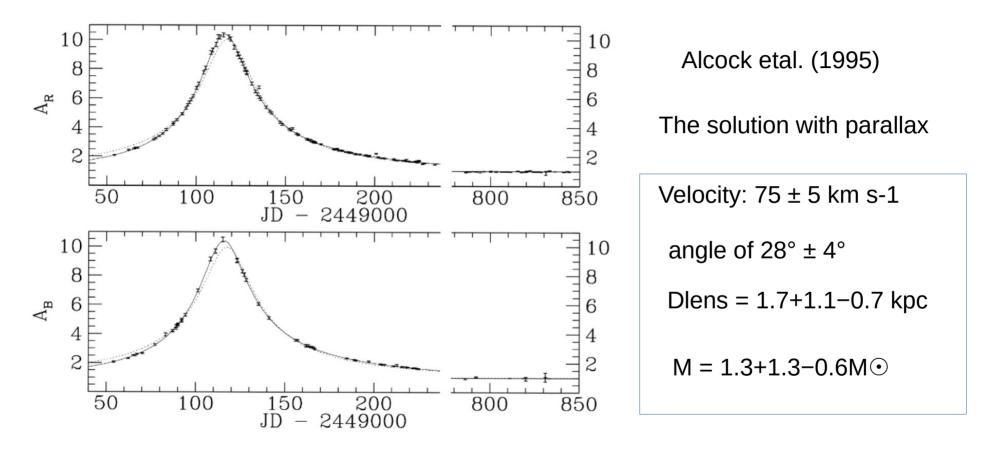
The effect of the earth orbital motion

Parallax effect for the longer microlensing events



The earth motion change the line of sight and the impact parameter: estimate the effect

### The first parallax event



continuous line: fit with parallax dotted line: fit without parallax