Testing Gravity using Type Ia Supernovae Discovered by LSST

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ABSTRACT

ZTF today and LSST in the upcoming decade will increase the number of identified z < 0.3 Type Ia supernovae (SNe Ia) from the hundreds to the hundreds of thousands. The increase in the number density of SNe Ia, in parallel with improvements in the standardization of their absolute magnitudes, now make them competitive probes of the growth of structure. The peculiar velocity power spectrum is sensitive to $f\sigma_8$, the product of the linear growth and amplitude of density perturbations. Cross-correlation with synergistic galaxy surveys further constrains $f\sigma_8$ and the galaxy bias. Thus, in the next decade the peculiar velocities of SNe Ia will provide the growth of structure in the local z < 0.3 Universe as a powerful test of General Relativity and other models of gravity.

1. CONNECTION BETWEEN TYPE IA SUPERNOVAE CORRELATIONS AND GRAVITY

The growth of structure depends on the expansion history of the Universe, the nature and density of its contents, and gravity. It is therefore a powerful probe of cosmology and dark energy. Growth of structure can be measured from the baryonic structures in the Universe and from the peculiar velocities of test masses therein. Peculiar velocities are the motions, on top of the cosmological expansion, caused by the gravitational attraction and repulsion of densitiy inhomogeneities in the Universe. The peculiar velocity of an object with a known absolute magnitude is determined from its observer magnitude and redshift. For a given a background cosmology, the observed magnitude provides an estimate of the cosmological redshift, the peculiar velocity is then the difference between the cosmological and observer redshifts.

Baryonic structures and peculiar velocities provide a measurement of the combination fD. D is the "linear growth factor" that gives the overall amplitude of overdensities, and the "linear growth rate"

$$f \equiv \frac{d \ln D}{d \ln a}$$

is how that amplitude changes with redshift. General Relativity predicts $f \approx \Omega_M^{\gamma}$ (with D determined accordingly) with $\gamma = 0.55$, whereas other gravity models can be similarly described with different values of γ (Linder & Cahn 2007). The growth of structure, through the measurement of fD, provides a test of General Relativity and breaks degeneracies between gravitational and dark energy models that explain the accelerating expansion of the Universe. The parameter σ_8 , the standard deviation of overdensities in $8h^{-1}$ Mpc spheres, is commonly used in place of D to normalize the overall amplitude of overdensities, so the standard parameterization used by the community is $f\sigma_8$.

Baryonic structures are sensitive to $f\sigma_8$ through redshift space distortions (RSD), which gives the combination $(b+f\mu^2)\sigma_8$ where b is the bias between the tracer and dark matter and μ gives the angular separation. Correlations between peculiar velocities are sensitive to $f\sigma_8(H_0d_L)^{-1}$. Although the velocities may be measured off of biased tracers, the tracers' dynamics are driven by all mass (including dark matter) and are so bias-free. As mentioned earlier, peculiar velocities are measured relative to the background cosmological expansion that leads to the dependence on H_0d_L . Baryonic structures and peculiar velocities within the same volume are induced by the same overdensities making their cross-correlation insensitive to sample variance (Gordon et al. 2007): galaxy and peculiar velocity surveys provide synergistic constraints more powerful than their naive sum.

The probative power of a specific peculiar-velocity tracer primarily depends on its number density and the precision to which its absolute magnitudes are known. The current generation of peculiar velocity studies use $10^3 - 10^5$ galaxies with Fundamental Plane and Tully-Fisher distances (Masters et al. 2008; Springob et al. 2014; Tully et al. 2016). These galaxies have absolute magnitude uncertainties of ~ 0.4 mag. Next generation surveys WALLABY (Johnston

Redshift	RSD	RSD + PV	cumulative
0.00 < z < 0.05	66.3	13.9	13.9
0.05 < z < 0.10	24.6	7.3	6.5
0.10 < z < 0.15	14.8	5.8	4.3
0.15 < z < 0.20	10.6	5.0	3.3
0.20 < z < 0.25	8.3	4.4	2.6
0.25 < z < 0.30	6.8	4.0	2.2

Table 1. Projected percent uncertainties in $f\sigma_8$ from a 10-year LSST SN survey with 5% distance uncertainties from Howlett et al. (2017a). RSD is from clustering, and RSD + PV is from joint clustering and peculiar velocities. The cumulative column shows the effective uncertainty from combining the redshift and all other shallower redshift bins.

et al. 2008) and TAIPAN (da Cunha et al. 2017) are designed to increase these sample size by an order of magnitude over half the sky to a depth of z = 0.1.

The current sample of SNe Ia has a low number density compared to Fundamental Plane and Tully-Fisher galaxies. Nevertheless, their low intrinsic-magnitude uncertainties can can provide peculiar velocities (expressed equivalently as peculiar magnitudes) of their host galaxies (Hui & Greene 2006; Davis et al. 2011). Existing SN Ia samples have been used to test and ultimately find spatial correlations in peculiar velocities that may be attributed to the growth of structure (Abate & Lahav 2008; Huterer et al. 2015, 2017). However, the signal-to-noise is currently insufficient to perform a meaningful test of GR.

Two advances in the upcoming decade will make SNe Ia important probes of $f\sigma_8$. First, the precision of SN Ia distances can be improved. The commonly-used empirical 2-parameter SED model yields $\sigma_M \gtrsim 0.12$ mag absolute magnitude dispersion. However, SNe transmit more information than just the light-curve shape and single color used in current SN models. Recent studies indicate that with the right data, SNe absolute magnitudes can be calibrated to $\sigma_M \lesssim 0.08$ mag (see e.g. Barone-Nugent et al. 2012; Fakhouri et al. 2015). One such SN is worth $\gtrsim 25$ galaxies with 0.4 mag absolute magnitude uncertainty. Secondly, ZTF today and LSST in the upcoming decade will increase the number of identified z < 0.3 Type Ia supernovae (SNe Ia) from the hundreds to the hundreds of thousands, over the course of 10-years, LSST will find $\sim 150,000$ z < 0.2, $\sim 520,000$ z < 0.3 SNe Ia for which good light curves can be measured. This is a sample size comparable to the number of galaxies projected by WALLABY and TAIPAN.

The precision in $f\sigma_8$ derived from the baseline WFD ten-year SN Ia discoveries has been projected by Howlett et al. (2017a), from both their RSD and peculiar velocities. The results are summarized in Table 1, where a 5% distance uncertainty is assumed for each supernova. SNe Ia alone can provide a 2% measurement of $f\sigma_8$ at z < 0.3 redshifts lower than where galaxy, cluster, and Ly α RSD measurements are sensitive. A joint galaxy RSD and SN peculiar velocity will be even more powerful. Add a SN PV + DESI-like BGS column and/or a PV-only column with Cullan's code?

The projected precisions for LSST-discovered SNe Ia have a number of interesting features. Despite the significant gain in volume and numbers of supernovae, the $f\sigma_8$ uncertainty in increasing redshift bins asymptotes such that there is little benefit in going beyond z=0.3. The constraining power on $f\sigma_8$ comes primarily from peculiar velocities at z<0.2, but are dominated by RSD by z=0.3. It turns out that for z>0.1, the volume is sufficiently large that the LSST sample is not yet sample variance limited.

2. DESIGNING A SUPERNOVA SURVEY TO MEASURE $f\sigma_8$

2.1. Parameters that Determine Scientific Performance

Howlett et al. (2017a) perform their analysis in Fourier space, where the Fisher information matrix of a random Gaussian field with mean zero and covariance C(k) parameterized by λ is

$$F_{ij} = \frac{V}{2} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \text{Tr} \left[C^{-1} \frac{\partial C}{\partial \lambda_i} C^{-1} \frac{\partial C}{\partial \lambda_j} \right], \tag{1}$$

where the covariance for the velocity-velocity correlation

$$C = P_{vv}(k) + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \tag{2}$$

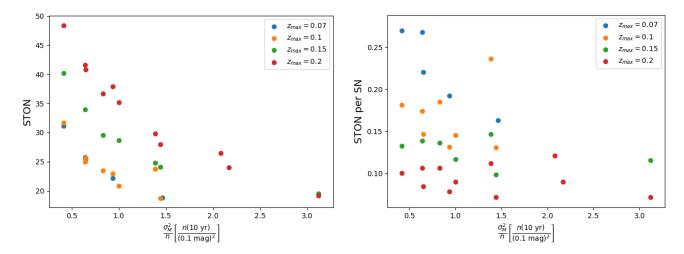


Figure 1. Left: STON of $f\sigma_8$ from simulated LSST SN peculiar-velocities. For several limiting redshift depths, the STON is plotted as a function of σ_M^2/n , normalized to intrinsic magnitude dispersion $\sigma_M = 0.1$ mag and 10-year LSST number densities. Right: The effective contribution to the STON per supernova, quantified as STON divided by the root of the number of tracers.

is dependent on the power spectrum, noise in the velocity measurement dominated by the intrinsic velocity dispersion σ , and the density of velocity probes (Howlett et al. 2017b). The primary dependence on the growth of structure is through

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{\partial P_{vv}}{\partial \lambda} = \text{constant} \tag{3}$$

for the parameter choice $\lambda = (f\sigma_8)^2$. In the sample-variance limit, $F_{\lambda\lambda} \propto V$ whereas in the shot noise limit $F_{\lambda\lambda} \propto V n^2 \sigma^{-4}$.

The survey parameters that determine parameter precision are the volume V, which in turn can be parameterized by the survey solid angle Ω and the redshift depth z_{max} ; the number density of sources n; and the intrinsic magnitude dispersion σ_M , where magnitude and velocity dispersions are related by $\sigma_M = \frac{5}{\ln 10} \frac{1+z}{z} \sigma$.

LSST is expected to discover all z < 0.3 SNe Ia before maximum light in its active Wide Fast Deep (WFD) survey area. Equating LSST discovery with having a meaningful peculiar velocity, the number density is n is thus a non-tunable parameter, which only increases with survey duration. The remaining free parameters are then Ω , z_{max} , and σ_M .

While LSST data can be used to obtain photometric redshifts from host galaxies and supernova light curves, the spectroscopic redshifts needed for precise host-galaxy peculiar velocities require other resources.

- Solid Angle Ω : The variance in $f\sigma_8$ is proportional to solid angle Ω . The baseline LSST survey covers 18,000 sq. deg, at $-75 \lesssim \delta \lesssim 15$ avoiding the Galactic plane. Larger solid-angle coverage for z < 0.3 SN Ia searches, beyond the LSST baseline, benefits peculiar-velocity science. Complementary northern-hemisphere surveys and LSST-expanded or independent coverage of the southern equatorial pole, could double the sky coverage and halve the variance in $f\sigma_8$.
- Redshift Depth z_{max} : For the number densities and intrinsic magnitude dispersions relevant to LSST, the noise is not sample-variance limited. We have run simulations of LSST SN surveys and calculated the signal-to-noise (STON) of $f\sigma_8$ from peculiar velocities. These simulations show, as seen in the left plot of Figure 1, that an increase in the number the number density of tracers leads to significant improvements in STON. It is also worth noting that sample variance is not negligible, as seen by the non-linear dependence of STON on σ_M^2/n .

The effective contribution to the STON per supernova, quantified as STON divided by the root of the number of tracers as shown in the right plot of Figure 1, shows that LSST is in the regime where adding one tracer at lower redshift better improves the STON relative to the addition of one at higher redshift.

Scientific leverage dictates that low-redshift sources are most valuable. This aligns with observational considerations, for which closer and hence brighter objects require more modest follow-up resources. Therefore, z_{max} depends on the follow-up program as the redshift where complete follow-up saturates resources.

• Intrinsic Magnitude Dispersion σ_M : Just as an increase in tracer number density beyond that of a ten-year LSST survey improves the STON in the measurement of $f\sigma_8$, as noted in the discussion on z_{max} , so too does a decrease in the supernova intrinsic magnitude dispersion.

The nominal LSST WFD observing plan is to have each piece of sky observed every couple of days rotating through the 6 grizy bands. The data is sufficient to have effectively complete z < 0.3 SN Ia discoveries. However, the per-band light curves are poorly sampled, which limits the accuracy with which distances can be derived. LSST SN Ia light curves from the WFD survey, with their relatively poor sampling, plus a spectroscopic redshift can give $\sigma_M \sim 0.15$ mag.

Supplemental non-LSST follow-up data in the form or improved temporal light-curve sampling (accurate rise and decline times), expanded (UV, NIR) wavelength coverage, and spectral features can access high-fidelity SN Ia models with lower intrinsic magnitude dispersion and residual systematic bias. For example, infrared data (Barone-Nugent et al. 2012) or spectrophotometry at peak brightness (Fakhouri et al. 2015) are projected to give $\sigma_M \lesssim 0.08$ mag. Uncertainties in $f\sigma_8$ depend on σ_M^2/n so the improvement between 0.08 and 0.15 mag dispersions is equivalent to a factor of 3.52 in number density, or in survey duration.

2.2. Designing an SN Ia Peculiar Velocity Survey

There are different options to consider in the design of a SN Ia peculiar velocity survey, though at this point it is difficult to assess which is optimal or most cost effective. While there are a variety of recently identified indicators of SN Ia diversity that improve upon the 2-parameter model (SALT2) currently used to determine distances, there is not yet an umbrella model that simultaneously captures all indicators, their correlations, and characterizes the model residuals. Constructing such a model is a parallel endeavor that will benefit peculiar-velocity and other SN Ia science. Instead of making specific recommendations, we make several general conclusions based upon the above findings.

- Spectroscopic redshifts: Peculiar velocities are extracted directly from redshift measurements. Redshift uncertainties of > 0.5% contribute significantly to the error budget. We thus conclude that there is the need for spectroscopic R > 200 host-galaxy redshifts.
- Role of LSST: LSST can be taken to be a SN Ia discovery and distance machine, or a discovery machine only.
- Follow-up resources. 21 mag. 2–4m-class telescopes.

3. CONCLUSIONS

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