

Introduction

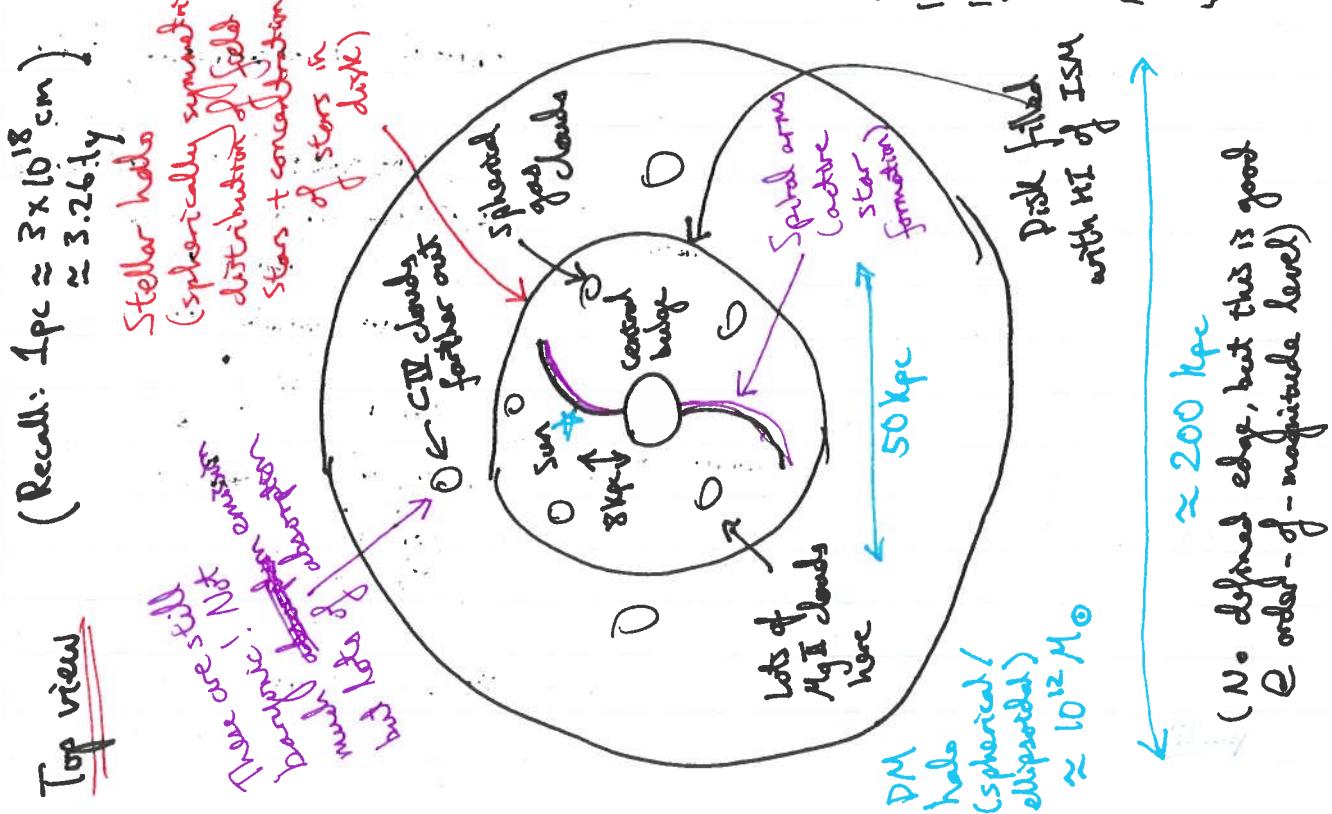
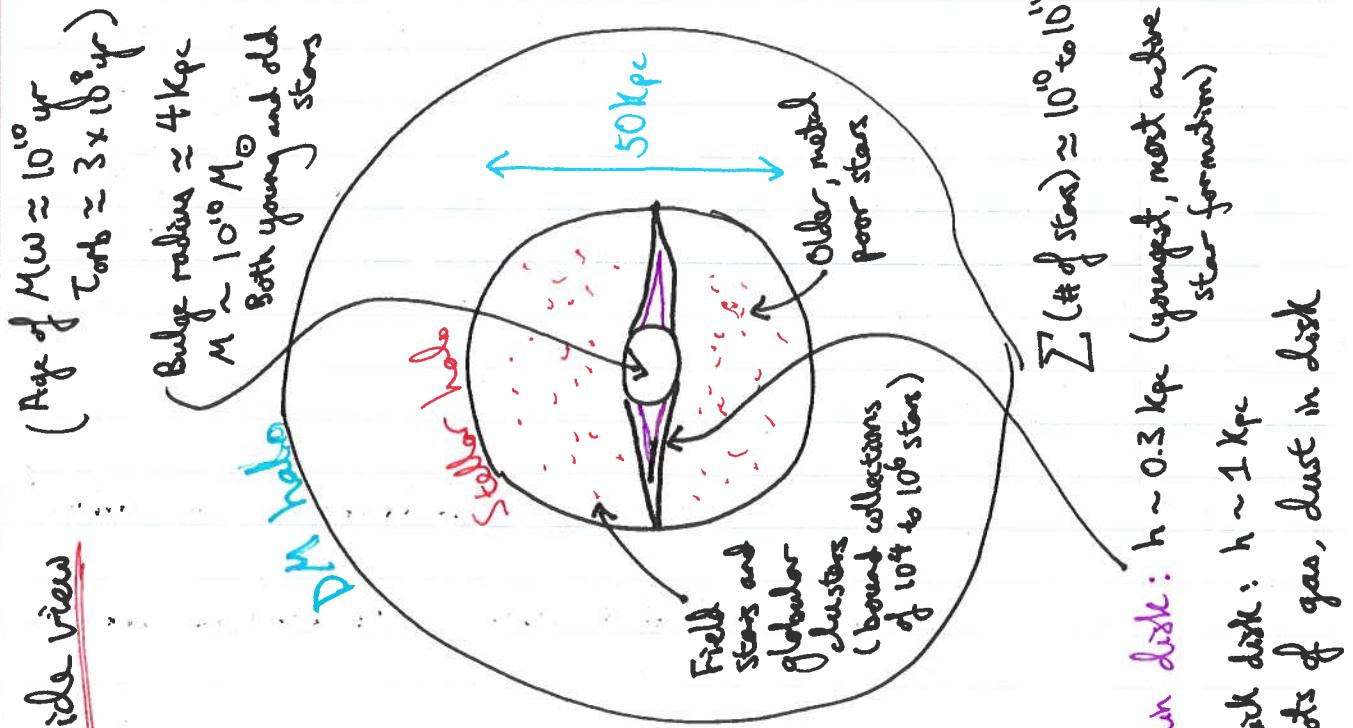
Welcome to PHYS 644, Galaxies + Cosmology! In this course we'll study astrophysics on the scales of galaxies and above.

Intro slides.

The goal here is to impart some basic tools and principles, not to cover everything in mind-numbing detail.

Galaxy Observations

What are the various parts of a typical galaxy? Rotate page...



Those are the pieces of a galaxy. But what sorts of observations give us this picture?

We'll go through a few in this lecture:

- Morphology (shape)
 - Surface brightness
 - Rotation curves
 - Flux (how bright)
 - Spectra (flux as fn of wavelength)
 - Redshift
- } Can only be done for nearby ("low redshift") galaxies
- } Can still be done for distant ("high redshift") galaxies as well as nearby ones.

Morphology

Today's galaxies can be broadly classified into two classes:
spirals and ellipticals ⇒ show pictures

Spiral Galaxies	Elliptical Galaxies
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Younger, bluer stars (High mass stars are bluer). their blackbody temps are higher, but they burn out their fuel sooner ⇒ old stellar populations don't have high mass stars ⇒ redder)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Older, redder stars
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Active star formation esp. in spiral arms.- Lots of gas- "Cold": little dispersion in velocities. Motion of stars dominated by bulk motion	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Little gas- "Hot": little bulk motion. Motion dominated by random velocity dispersions

(I don't mean this literally!
We're talking about the "temperature" of a "gas")

where each particle is a star)

- Held up by rotation

\Rightarrow Slide Q on Density-Morphology relation

- Less likely in dense, cluster environment

- Exponential surface brightness profile (Sersic index $n=1$)

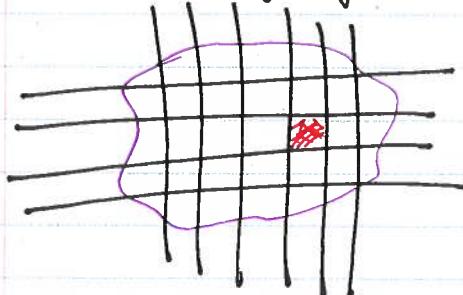
- Held up by "thermal" motion

- More likely to be found in clusters

- deVaucouleurs profile (Sersic index $n=4$)

Surface Brightness

\hookrightarrow "Amount of light per angular area (Eg per arcsec²)"



$$I(r) = I_0 \exp\left[-\left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^n\right]$$

↑
Surface brightness averaged in azimuthal direction

"Sersic index"

Rotation Curves

\hookrightarrow "Speeds of objects (Eg stars or gas clouds) as a function of distance from the centre of a galaxy"

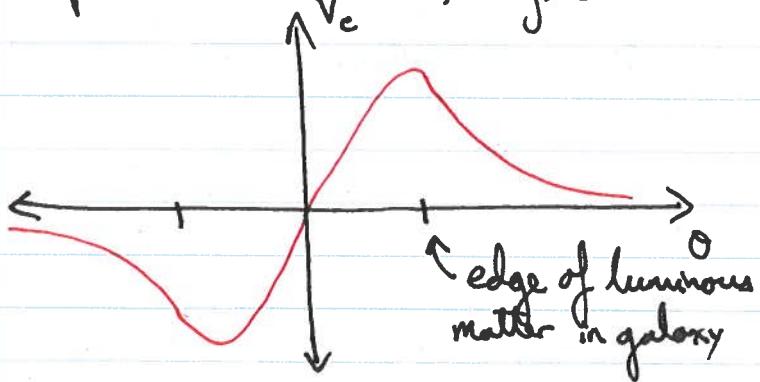
Measure using the Doppler shift of a known spectral line to get line-of-sight velocity

$$\Delta \lambda = -20$$



$$\frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{V_{\text{los}}}{c}$$

Expectation (back in, say, the 1970s):

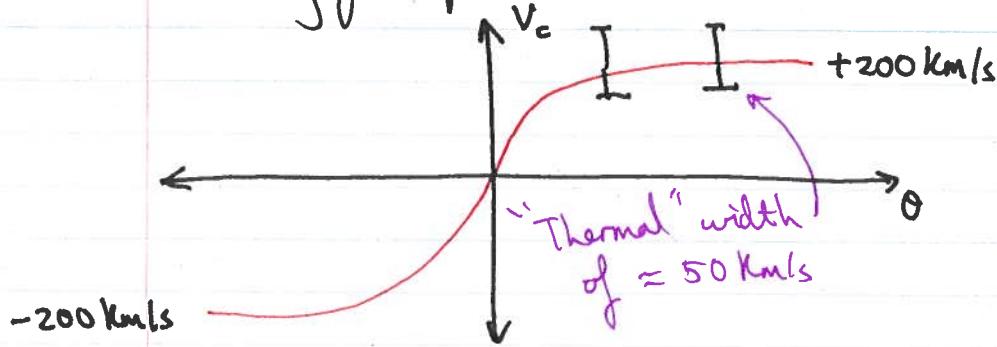


$$\frac{V_c^2}{r} \sim \frac{GM_{\text{gal}}}{r^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_c \sim r^{-1/2}$$

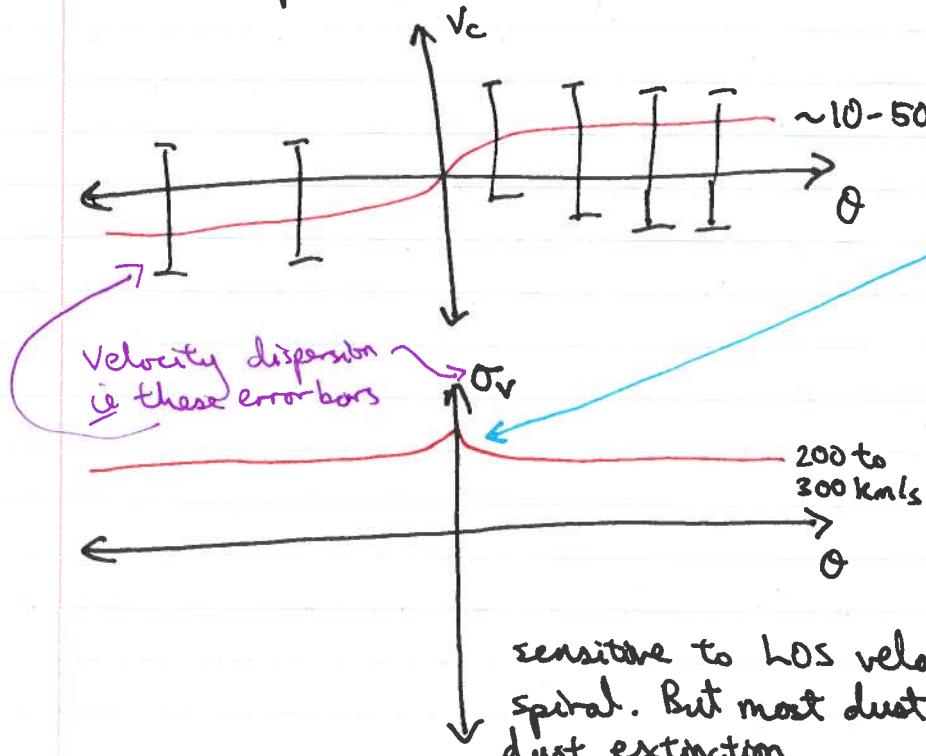
(Although these days there are even stronger pieces of evidence)

Reality for spirals:



Evidence for dark matter!
(Vera Rubin, 1980s)

For ellipticals:



For some ellipticals we see this feature: a Keplerian point mass $\sim r^{-1/2}$ of the central black hole!

This feature is hard to observe for spirals because Doppler is only

→ Slide discussion question about wavelengths

Observation	Band	Why
Intracluster medium (ICM)	X-rays	Very hot gas / plasma thermal bremsstrahlung \Rightarrow energetic photons (1)
Galaxy mergers	UV	Mergers induce star formation \Rightarrow young stars still present and haven't died \Rightarrow lots of UV (2)
Spiral arms	UV, visible	Sites of star formation \Rightarrow young stars
Dust	IR	Emission lines from molecular band structures
Galactic centre	IR / radio	Less extinction (dust scatters short λ preferentially)
Rotation Curves	Visible / Radio (H α) (21cm)	Other things relatively transparent to these lines
Stars	Visible	Peak in blackbody spectrum (3)
Galaxy counts	Visible (also IR these days)	" (4)

① Intracluster medium

Why so hot? Resides in the deep gravitational potential wells of galaxy cluster dark matter halos. When things fall into a deep well they gain lots of kinetic energy!

Estimate temperature:

$$v^2 \sim \frac{GM}{R} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} m_H v^2 \sim \frac{GMm_H}{R}$$

$$k_B T \sim \frac{GMm_H}{R}$$

Take Coma, a typical rich cluster with ≈ 1000 bright galaxies ($\sim 10^4$ including dim ones) about 100 Mpc away and ≈ 2 Mpc across.
 $M_{\text{coma}} \sim 10^{15} M_\odot$

$$k_B T \sim \frac{GM_{\text{coma}} m_H}{R_{\text{coma}}} \sim 20 \text{ keV } (\text{X-rays})$$

$$T \sim 3 \times 10^8 \text{ K, a little high (should be } \sim 10^7 \text{ K, but ok)}$$

② Galaxy mergers

Why do galaxy mergers induce star formation? When two ~~of~~ galaxies collide, the stars and DM basically go through one another, but the gas doesn't \Rightarrow Bullet cluster picture

The gas gets more dense. Now, the cooling rate of gas goes like $\propto n_{\text{gas}}^2$. Why? Because the dominant ISM cooling mechanism is collisional one of excitations followed by photon emission de-excitation. Photons leave the system and the

(The fact that the stars don't collide might be surprising. Stay tuned! We'll see why soon) ←

gas ends up cooler. The gas cooling becomes efficient, allowing gas clouds to clump and form stars.

③ Optical observations of stars

Optical observations do more than just give us pretty pictures.

Tully - Fisher : $L \propto v^4$ (spirals)

relation

\uparrow Speed of stars

Luminosity (intrinsic
brightess) of galaxy

$\approx 10\%$ scatter

Faber - Jackson : $L \propto \sigma_v^4$ (ellipticals)

relation

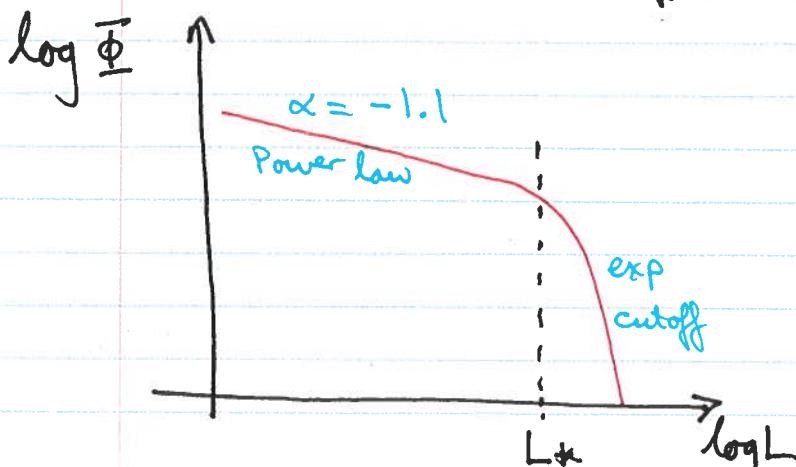
(Higher scatter than TF)

④ Schechter's Law

Schechter's Law is a luminosity function $\Phi(L)$

$$\Phi(L) dL = \left(\begin{array}{l} \# \text{ of galaxies per unit volume} \\ \text{with luminosity between } L \text{ and } L+dl \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \Phi^* \left(\frac{L}{L_*} \right)^\alpha \exp \left(-\frac{L}{L_*} \right) \frac{dL}{L_*}$$



$$\alpha = -1.1$$

$$L_* = 3 \times 10^{10} L_\odot$$

(typical bright galaxy)

$$\Phi^* = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Mpc}^{-3}$$

(Exact parameters depend
on environment)

If we look @ the total # of galaxies:

$$N_{\text{total}} = \int_0^{\infty} \Phi(L) dL = \text{diverges!}$$

The faint end blows up. Unphysical, but does capture the fact that our Universe is dominated by faint objects as far as numbers go.

Total luminosity $L_{\text{total}} = \int_0^{\infty} L \Phi(L) dL = \text{converges, dominated by } L_{\text{high}}$

\therefore Even though there are lots of faint things, the light of our Universe is dominated by relatively bright galaxies like ours.

Aside from the luminosity fit., a lot of the observations we've discussed so far require resolving the spatial structure of a galaxy.

For distant galaxies we often can't. But there are still things we can measure:

Flux



$$f_r = \frac{dE}{dA_{\perp} dt dr} \propto \frac{1}{r^2}$$

"Power per detector area in freq. bin"
("How bright something appears")

$$\text{Apparent magnitude } m_r = -2.5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{f_r}{f_{r,\text{ref}}} \right)$$

Historically taken to be Vega.

$$\text{Absolute magnitude } M_r = m_r - 5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{\text{distance}}{10 \text{ pc}} \right)$$

Hilberg

Spectra

We aren't completely helpless even when we can't spatially resolve a galaxy though. We can look at the light as a function of wavelength or frequency, i.e. spectra

⇒ Show examples

Redshift

Spectra are particularly important for using the Doppler effect to find the velocity of a galaxy as a whole:

$$\text{Redshift } z = \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda}$$

Why do we care? Universe is expanding, so the farther away a galaxy is, the more space between us and it, ~~so~~ which means every bit of space stretches, then more distant = moving away faster.

⇒ Redshift gives us a distance, and since light from distant objects were emitted long ago, also tells us how far back in time we are looking.

Two types of redshift measurements:

i) Spectroscopic redshift. Get a high frequency resolution spectrum, identify lines, measure z directly.

High precision + accuracy but expensive.

ii) Photometric redshift. Look at galaxy through a few coarse filters and fit to a template. Cheap but larger uncertainties

⇒ JWST idea!