

PRECISION COSMOLOGY: TESTING THE COSMOLOGICAL PRINCIPLE WITH IMPROVED SUPERNOVA DISTANCES

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ABSTRACT

Type Ia supernova (SNIa) have become a standard cosmological tool, but there are still improvements needed in this age of precision cosmology. Cosmology is reaching a point where we can now start to test the cosmological principle, that the universe is homogeneous and isotropic on large scales. This is a fundamental search to validate our understanding of the mass-energy make-up of the universe and look for entanglement from the era before inflation. I have analyzed the currently available dataset of SNIa to search for bulk flows on a variety of scales. We confirmed a velocity asymmetries across the sky of $\sim 300 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ at low redshift. We cannot rule out a large-scale bulk flow (dark flow) that could be caused by quantum entanglement in the early universe. And we show that a larger SNIa dataset and improved distance precision would provide useful constraints on any dark flow. LSST will provide a large SNIa dataset that has an excellent photometric reliability of 10 millimag across the sky. We plan to simulate large datasets to determine the optimal observing strategy to constrain the dark flow given the photometric precision, cadence, and sky coverage possible from LSST and other SNIa surveys. Further, we will improve the SNIa distance precision by correlating Hubble residuals with properties of the local environment around the supernova. There appears to be some correlation between the global host properties (e.g. star formation rate, metallicity) and SNIa luminosity residuals. And there is a controversy as to whether the local environment is biasing the best estimates of the Hubble constant. We will analyze existing high-resolution Hubble Space Telescope images of SDSS host galaxies to see if the stellar properties at the explosion location correlate with SNIa luminosity.

1. INTRODUCTION

Type Ia supernova (SNIa) have been a standard cosmological tool since they were successfully used to estimate the Hubble constant (Hamuy et al. 1995; Riess et al. 1995), and later see the accelerated expansion of the Universe (Riess et al. 1998; Perlmutter et al. 1999). Cosmology is now focusing on precision and with improved precision we are able to test a fundamental assumption of cosmology: that the universe is homogeneous and isotropic on the largest scales. In order to check the Cosmological Principle, both the statistical and systematic uncertainties in SNIa distances must be reduced. These measurements will give deeper understanding of the evolution of the cosmos and the structure and composition of the universe.

Simple tests can be constructed to see if there is a consistent cosmology in all directions. For these to reach out to distances of gigaparsecs, or of order 0.1 in redshift, SNIa need to have very accurate distance measurements. SNIa distances are already corrected for light curve width and color variations, but further new corrections appear to be important distance accuracy, such as correlations with host galaxy properties or even the local environment near the explosion. Procuring these tests will **finish my thesis statement.**

2. TESTING THE COSMOLOGICAL PRINCIPLE

The expected cosmological model, Λ CDM, works under a testable assumption that the universe is isotropic and homogeneous on large scales, scales greater than the size of the present day first acoustic peaks seen in the

CMB. We already know that gravity breaks this isotropic condition on small scales and produces peculiar motion of galaxies. Specific theories of inflation (like in Mersini-Houghton & Holman (2009)) produce a preferred direction in our visible universe due to a slight curvature in space-time from pre-inflation interactions. **go into theory detail?** Observationally, if this preferred direction exists, we expect to see a uniform bulk velocity flow that extends outside the local group and into what Λ CDM would predict to be a purely isotropic Hubble expansion. Such a large-scale asymmetry has been called a ‘dark flow’. **by whom, Kashlinsky’s first paper or his “review” paper? define the difference between dark and bulk?**

2.1. Previous Tests

The universe’s isotropic nature has been tested, over the last decade, with surveys of nearby galaxies (Ma & Scott 2013), kinetic Sunyaev-Zeldovich (kSZ) effect on distant clusters (Kashlinsky et al. 2010; Planck Collaboration et al. 2014), and with SNIa data sets (Dai et al. 2011; Rathaus et al. 2013, and others as seen in Table 1). Most searches did not see a bulk flow that was significantly larger than allowed by Λ CDM but some saw a bulk flow of greater than 1000 km s^{-1} out to redshifts of $z = 0.25$. This measurement cannot be explained by Λ CDM alone but needs an inflation theory that predicts this cosmic anisotropy. A summary of the results from past searches can be found in table 1. **remove both table references here.**

kaslinsky plot of measurements and what Λ CDM can allow.

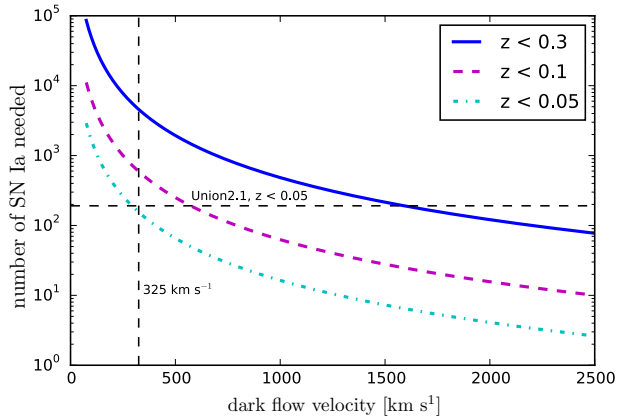


Figure 1. The number of SNIa needed to see a given dark flow velocity, a cosmic scale bulk flow, out to a given redshift. It is seen that Union2.1 can detect flows only out to $z = 0.05$ and nearly 10^4 SNIa would be needed to see a dark flow out to $z = 0.3$. Taken from Mathews et al. (2016)

other plot from aps presentation

My work on initial tests of the Cosmological Principle can be found in Mathews et al. (2016). I worked heavily on developed a new method to search for cosmological asymmetries using the angular separation of a SNIa and the direction of the dark flow. We were able to minimize the data fitting both Λ CDM cosmological variables and an bulk flow. If the same bulk flow is visible across all redshifts, then we have found the dark flow signal. This analysis was performed on the Union2.1 (Suzuki et al. 2012) SNIa sample. We found a mild bulk flow of 325 ± 54 km s^{-1} out to $z = 0.05$. This is consistent with most past measurements and does not contradict Λ CDM.

From further analysis, we determined that the loss of signal past $z \sim 0.05$ was not from the lack of a dark flow, but from the increase of the uncertainty in the distance measurements. An order of magnitude reduction of distance modulus error is needed to see out to $z \sim 0.3$. This is unattainable with the current data sets, but we propose two ways to attack this problem. First, further data sets will reduce the statistical error in SNIa distances over large parts of the sky. This relationship is illustrated in fig. 1. This large sample size should be achievable with the Large Synoptic Survey Telescope (LSST) and its uniform photometric reliability of 10 mmag across the visible sky (Ivezic et al. 2008). A large, uniform data set will push the statistical errors at $z \sim 0.3$ to the systematic floor. Second, we propose to lower the systematic floor by including the properties of the local host environment in correcting SNIa distances.

2.2. Future Tests

At the end of Mathews et al. (2016), we suggest that LSST will produce a data set that is able to search for the cosmic dark flow. Detailed simulations of LSST-like data sets are critical in understanding the limits of the survey when applied to the dark flow problem. These tests will show if the combination of LSST's sensitivity, cadence, and sky coverage will be sufficient to test for isotropic expansion as predicted by Λ CDM and what limits can be placed on the dark flow. WFIRST may also be able to help in this measurement, however, its sky coverage will be limited compared with LSST. Sim-

ulations of the combined LSST and WFIRST data sets will produce useful insights into optimum future surveys.

Since the analysis method is written, getting a good simulated LSST SNIa data set is the hardest part. Telescope uncertainties and project goals have been stated, but these need to be transitioned, and any errors propagated, into positions, redshifts, and distances. The hardest part will be redshift. The community will not be able to get a spectra of the hosts at the rate that LSST will find SNIa, reducing the rate of cosmologically usable SNIa. Also with follow up telescopes in different locations then LSST, the footprint of the cosmologically useful SNIa might be different then LSST's footprint. These and others survey complexities will need to be taken into account for any accurate modeling of what can be done with LSST SNIa.

Large surveys are being leveraged to reduce the statistical uncertainties in distance measurements. But we also plan to reduce the systematic error floor by studying the local environments of SNIa.

talk about difficulties and solutions

3. STANDARDIZING TYPE IA SUPERNOVA

The SNIa community as a whole is focusing on reducing uncertainty in SNIa distances. Knowing distance more precisely will narrow the range for the Hubble constant, the dark energy equation of state as well as constraining the Cosmological Principle.

SNIa are not standard candles, but rather standardizeable candles. Since Phillips (1993) there has been significant work to improve off this basic correction to the variability in SNIa absolute luminosity. SNIa color is also used to standardize SNIa and this has allowed them to be used for critical cosmological measurements ((Riess et al. 1998; Perlmutter et al. 1999)). Currently well-studied SNIa typically have a 15% error in distance modulus (or 7% in distance). So it takes about 50 SNIa to reduce the statistical error down to a few percent in brightness, which is near the the systematic floor. This floor is partly caused by limits on photometric calibration and partly by intrinsic uncertainties in the supernovae themselves.

3.1. New Standardizations

A significant amount of research time and energy is spent on trying to reduce the scatter in the absolute magnitude of SNIa. It has been found that a reduction in this can be seen if the properties of the SNIa's host galaxy are accounted for. Host mass (Childress et al. 2013) and host metallicity (Hayden et al. 2013) have been seen to reduce this intrinsic scatter.

The idea that these global properties directly effect the SNIa is a bit of a stretch, so the community has started to look at the local environment around the SNIa. Rigault et al. (2013) looked at SNIa form the Nearby Supernova Factory and looked at H_α within a 1 kpc radius of each SNIa. They found a bias in standardized brightness of the SNIa. Also Rigault et al. (2015); Jones et al. (2015) looked at SNIa in the Constitution sample with host galaxy data from GALEX but they disagree on whether there is or is not a bias. Sorting this controversy out is critical in improving the estimate of the Hubble constant.

3.2. Getting Closer in with HST

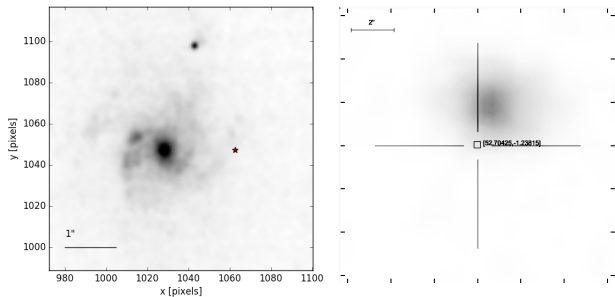


Figure 2. Host galaxy of SDSS SN2635 (2005fw), at a redshift of $z=0.143$. HST (left) one pixel is 114 pc, and SDSS (right) one pixel is 1,140 pc.

I am currently working with Hubble Space Telescope (HST) images of host galaxies of SNIa found during SDSS-II Supernova Survey. HST’s small angular resolution allows for a much smaller definition of local environment. For a galaxy at $z = 0.1$ HST can get an environment of ~ 160 pc, versus the 1 kpc that was used with *GALEX* data in Jones et al. (2015); Rigault et al. (2015). This can be seen in the comparison between SDSS (having a simpler angular resolution to *GALEX*) and HST images of the host galaxy of SN 2005fw seen in fig. 2.

Describe our HST data. z range, from stripe 82 (elcliptic), filters, exposure times, angular resolution

Take out a few of the instances of “will.” This set of HST images will give us a few variables for the local environment that we will be able to use for corrections to the SNIa’s absolute brightness. The first being the SNIa’s fractional pixel rank (FPR). The FPR is the ranked fraction, by brightness, of the pixel at the SNIa’s position relative to the rest of the galaxy. This gives us a proxy for star formation. Another variable would be the color of the SNIa’s pixel. These two variables will be compared to the residuals on the Hubble diagram to look for a bias. Further analysis of sub-sets will be done. We will be able to answer questions like whether there is a bias for SNIa in clumpy regions of elliptical galaxies.

3.3. Beyond HST

Difficulties in this analysis will all come from the data itself. The most obvious issue is that there are only 61 host galaxies, compared to around 1000 SNIa were seen with SDSS (Campbell et al. 2013). There is a large number of targets that still could be observed to increase the data set and improve our statistical uncertainties. More HST observations would be optimal, because it is needed for it high angular resolution in the visible. Ground based infrared photometry with adoptive optics would produce an interesting data set, but it would be difficult to add it to our current optical data.

We can get more data in several other ways. SDSS-IV’s MaNGA is using integrated field units (IFUs) to get spectra at spacial scales of ~ 2 kpc. IFUs are a common technique and their resolution will only get smaller with time. Alternative IFU’s can be used, including Keck OSIRIS that observes in the infrared with a spacial element similar to HST ($0.020'' - 0.100''$) (Larkin et al.

2006), or Gemini GMOS that observes in the optical but has a much larger resolution $0.2''$ (Allington-Smith et al. 2002).

The angular resolution would not be as necessary if we observed host galaxies of local SNIa, but local observations also has issues. First, the number of SNIa is proportional to the volume for which you are looking, and there is more volume at higher redshift. Secondly, there are questions about whether SNIa are the same across cosmic time (find citation), so these local environment test should be done for as wide a range of redshifts as possible. For these reasons, SDSS’s $z \sim 0.1$ is a good redshift to perform these tests. At this redshift, HST’s high angular resolution is the best for observing a true local environment.

what todo about low s/n? Simulations!

4. CONCLUSION

conclusion

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Table 1
Summary of bulk flow searches.

Reference	Obj. Type	No. Obj.	Redshift ^a	Distance ^a h ⁻¹ Mpc	v_{bf} km s ⁻¹	l deg	b deg
Kashlinsky et al. (2010)	kSZ	516	< 0.12	< 345	934 ± 352	282 ± 34	22 ± 20
		547	< 0.16	< 430	1230 ± 331	292 ± 21	27 ± 15
		694	< 0.20	< 540	1042 ± 295	284 ± 24	30 ± 16
		838	< 0.25	< 640	1005 ± 267	296 ± 29	39 ± 15
Dai et al. (2011)	SN Ia	132	< 0.05	< 145	188 ± 120	290 ± 39	20 ± 32
		425	> 0.05	> 145
Weyant et al. (2011)	SN Ia	112	< 0.028	< 85	538 ± 86	250 ± 100	36 ± 11
Ma et al. (2011)	galaxies & SN Ia	4536	< 0.011	< 33	340 ± 130	285 ± 23	9 ± 19
Colin et al. (2011)	SN Ia	142	< 0.06	< 175	260 ± 130	298 ± 40	8 ± 40
Turnbull et al. (2012)	SN Ia	245	< 0.05	< 145	245 ± 76	319 ± 18	7 ± 14
Feindt et al. (2013)	SN Ia	128	0.015 - 0.035	45 - 108	243 ± 88	298 ± 25	15 ± 20
		36	0.035 - 0.045	108 - 140	452 ± 314	302 ± 48	-12 ± 26
		38	0.045 - 0.060	140 - 188	650 ± 398	359 ± 32	14 ± 27
		77	0.060 - 0.100	188 - 322	105 ± 401	285 ± 234	-23 ± 112
Ma & Scott (2013)	galaxies	2404	< 0.026	< 80	280 ± 8	280 ± 8	5.1 ± 6
Rathaus et al. (2013)	SN Ia	200	< 0.2	< 550	260	295	5
Appleby & Shafieloo (2014)	SN Ia	187	0.015 - 0.045	45 - 130	...	276 ± 29	20 ± 12
Planck Collaboration et al. (2014)	kSZ	95	0.01 - 0.03	30 - 90	< 700
		1743	< 0.5	< 2000	< 254
Mathews et al. (2016)	SN Ia	191	< 0.05	< 145	325 ± 54	276 ± 15	37 ± 13
		387	> 0.05	> 145	460 ± 260	180 ± 34	65 ± 340

^a Distances and redshifts are either the maximum, or a characteristic value if available from the original source. If distance and redshift were not both given in the literature, calculated distances vs. redshift were done with WMAP parameters: $\Omega_M = 0.288$ and $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.712$.