

Gravitational Lensing

An Introduction to the Main Concepts

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Table of Contents

- ① Types of Lensing
- ② Geometric Setup and Deflection Angles
- ③ Convergence, Magnification and Shear
- ④ Point Mass Lensing
- ⑤ Additional Types of Lenses
- ⑥ Weak Gravitational Lensing
- ⑦ Computational Methods

Types of Lensing

- **Strong Lensing:** Strong bending of light rays to produce arcs, multiple images and Einstein Rings. Lens density greater than critical density $\Sigma > \Sigma_{cr}$.



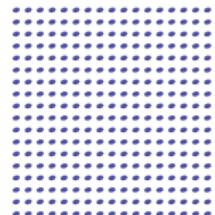
Credit: Wikipedia

Types of Lensing

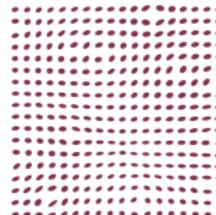
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- **Weak Lensing:** Deflection impossible to detect for a single source. Effects are apparent by statistically averaging. Also for cosmology/dark matter.



Credit: Wikipedia



Unlensed sources



Weak lensing

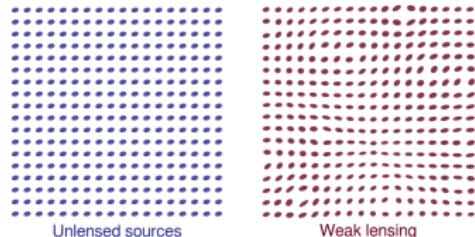
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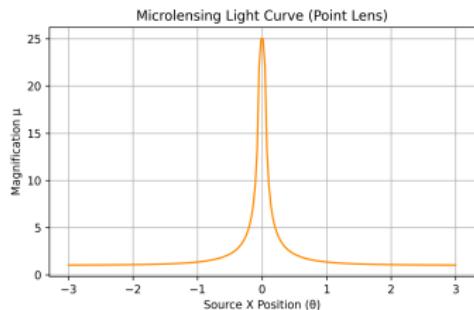
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- **Microlensing:** Lens object is usually smaller (like a star). Information obtained through brightness variations.



Credit: Wikipedia

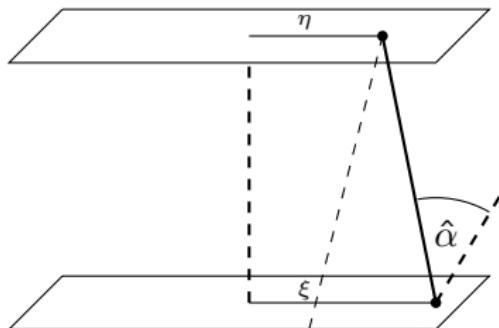


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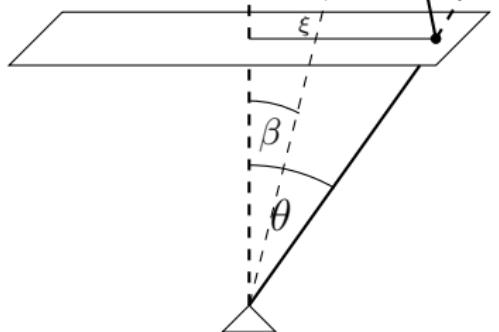


Gravitational Lensing Diagram

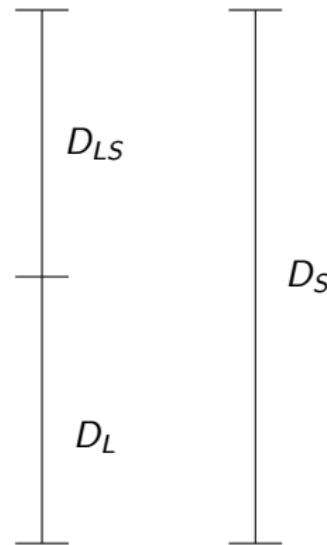
Sourceplane



Imageplane



Observer



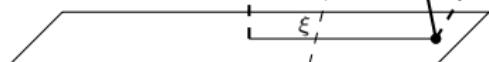
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Sourceplane



η

Imageplane

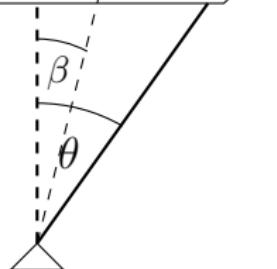


ξ'

D_{LS}

D_S

Observer



β

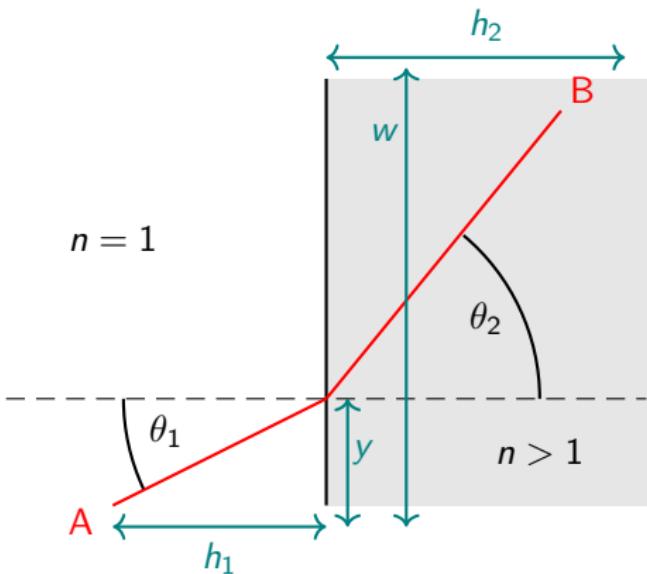
θ

D_L



- Small Angles: $\vec{\theta}D_S = \vec{\beta}D_S + \hat{\alpha}D_{LS}$ (with $\vec{\eta} = \vec{\beta}D_S$ and $\vec{\xi} = \vec{\theta}D_L$).
- **Lens Equation:** $\boxed{\vec{\beta} = \vec{\theta} - \vec{\alpha}(\vec{\theta})}$, with $\vec{\alpha}(\vec{\theta}) = \hat{\alpha}(\vec{\theta})D_{LS}/D_S$.

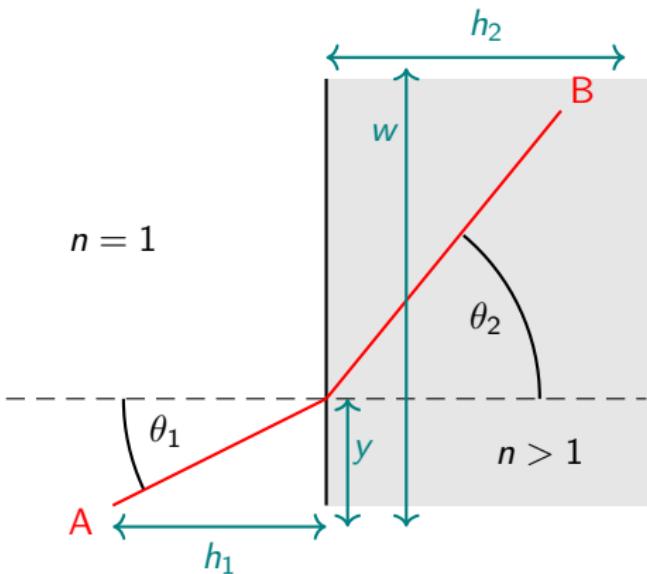
Snell's Law



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- Total travel time:

$$t = \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{h_1^2 + y^2} + \frac{n}{c} \sqrt{h_2^2 + (w - y)^2}$$



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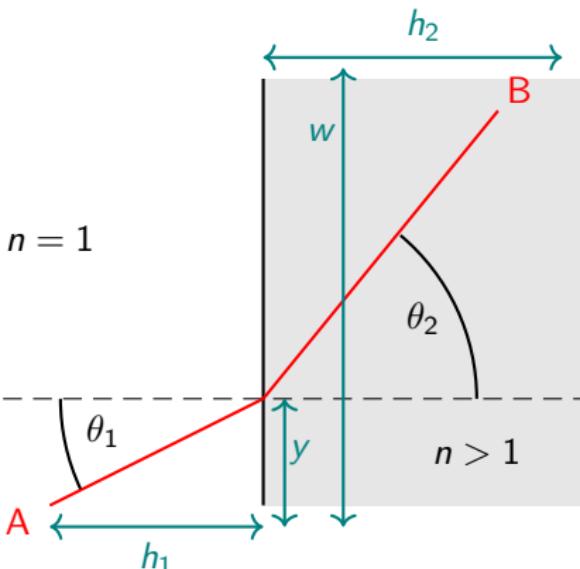
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$$\frac{dt}{dy} = 0$$

- Equivalence:

$$\frac{y}{\sqrt{h_1^2+y^2}} = n \frac{(w-y)}{\sqrt{h_2^2+(w-y)^2}}$$



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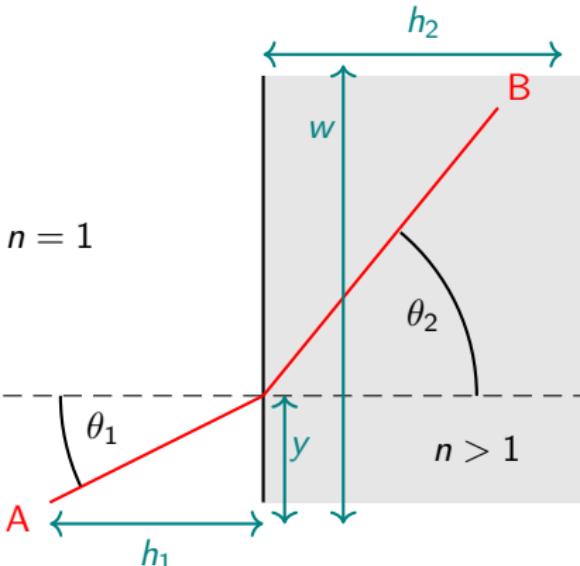
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- $\Rightarrow \boxed{\sin \theta_1 = n \sin \theta_2}$



Light Rays in Space-Time

- Metric Tensor: $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$

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- Weak Lens Perturbation:

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag} \left[1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}, -\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right), -\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right), -\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi}{c^2}\right) \right]$$

- Index of Refraction: $\Rightarrow n = \frac{c}{c'} \simeq 1 - \frac{2\phi}{c^2}$

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- We obtain a deflection angle $\Rightarrow \hat{\vec{\alpha}}(b) = \frac{2}{c^2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \nabla_{\perp} \vec{\phi} dz$

Light Rays in Space-Time

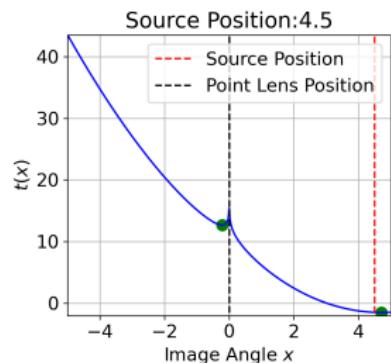
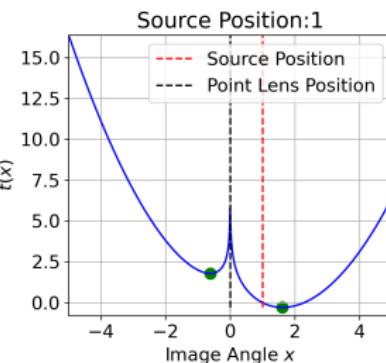
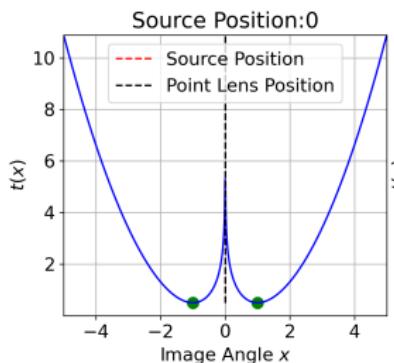
- Light ray deflection causes time delay $t_{\text{total}} = t_{\text{geom.}} + t_{\text{grav.}}$
- Time delay: $\tau(\vec{\theta}) = \frac{1+z_L}{c} \frac{D_L D_S}{D_{LS}} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta})^2 - \Psi(\vec{\theta}) \right]$

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$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{\theta} \tau(\vec{\theta}) &= \nabla_{\theta} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta})^2 - \Psi(\vec{\theta}) \right] \\ &= (\vec{\theta} - \vec{\beta}) - \nabla_{\theta} \Psi(\vec{\theta}) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Lens Eq.}\end{aligned}$$

Time Delay Surface for Point Lens



Time Delay to Measure H_0

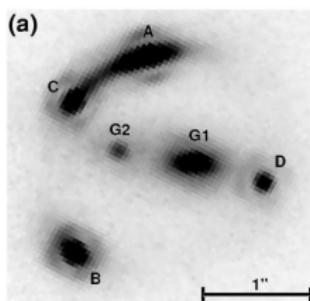
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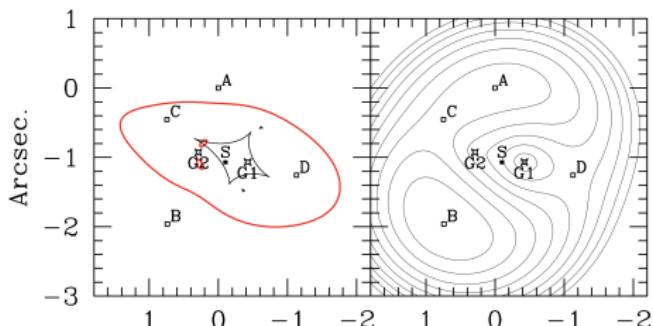
- The difference in arrival times can be used to determine Hubble's constant: $\Delta t \sim 1/H_0$
- The physical system size depends on the Hubble constant.
- Measuring redshifts, angular positions to derive a lens mass model, assuming a cosmology and measuring the time delay allow us to estimate H_0 .
- (Koopmans et al. 2003) estimates: $H_0 = 75^{+7}_{-6} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$

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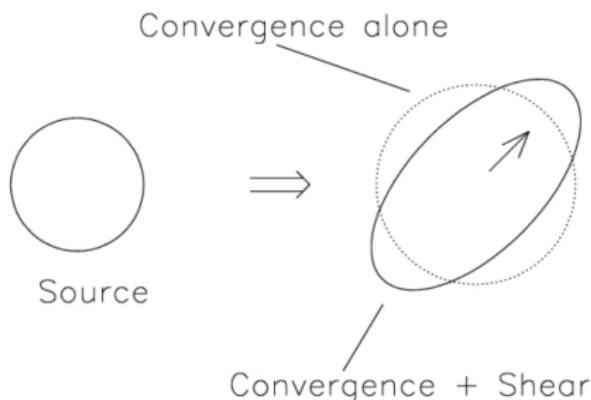
Lensing image
(Koopmans et al. 2003).



Potential surface (Koopmans et al.
2003).

Convergence, Magnification and Shear

- The convergence and the shear are properties of the shape distortion which dictates the magnification.



Narayan & Bartelmann, 1995

Convergence:

- Define rescaled projection of potential onto lens plane:
$$\hat{\psi} = \frac{D_{LS}}{D_L D_S} \frac{2}{c^2} \int \phi(D_L \vec{\theta}, z) dz \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi = \frac{D_L^2}{\xi_0^2} \hat{\psi}$$
- Gradient gives: $\vec{\nabla}_x \psi(\vec{x}) = \vec{\alpha}(\vec{x})$
- Laplacian gives twice the convergence: $\nabla_x^2 \psi(\vec{x}) = 2\kappa(\vec{x})$

where
$$\kappa(\vec{x}) = \frac{\Sigma(\vec{x})}{\Sigma_{cr}}; \Sigma_{cr} = \frac{c^2}{4\pi G} \frac{D_S}{D_L D_{LS}}$$

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Shear:

- Distortion Matrix $A = \frac{d\vec{y}}{d\vec{x}} = \left(\delta_{ij} - \frac{\partial \alpha_i}{\partial \alpha_j} \right) = \left(\delta_{ij} - \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \psi_j^2} \right)$
- Split isotropic part off:
$$(A - \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} A \cdot I) = \begin{pmatrix} -(\psi_{11} - \psi_{22})/2 & -\psi_{12} \\ -\psi_{12} & (\psi_{11} - \psi_{22})/2 \end{pmatrix}$$
- Shear $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2) = ([\psi_{11} - \psi_{22}] / 2, \psi_{12})$

Convergence, Magnification and Shear

- Jacobian written as $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \kappa - \gamma_1 & -\gamma_2 \\ -\gamma_2 & 1 - \kappa + \gamma_1 \end{pmatrix}$
- Magnification: $\boxed{\mu = 1/\det A} = 1 / [(1 - \kappa^2) - \gamma^2]$

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	Einstein Cross	Cusp Caustic	Fold Caustic
Source Plane			
Image Plane			

Credit: pbworks.com

Point Mass Lensing

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- Deflection angle vector: $\vec{\alpha}(b) = \frac{2GM}{c^2} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \frac{dz}{(b^2+z^2)^{3/2}}$
 $\Rightarrow \vec{\alpha}(b) = \frac{4GM}{c^2 b} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi \\ \sin \phi \end{pmatrix}$

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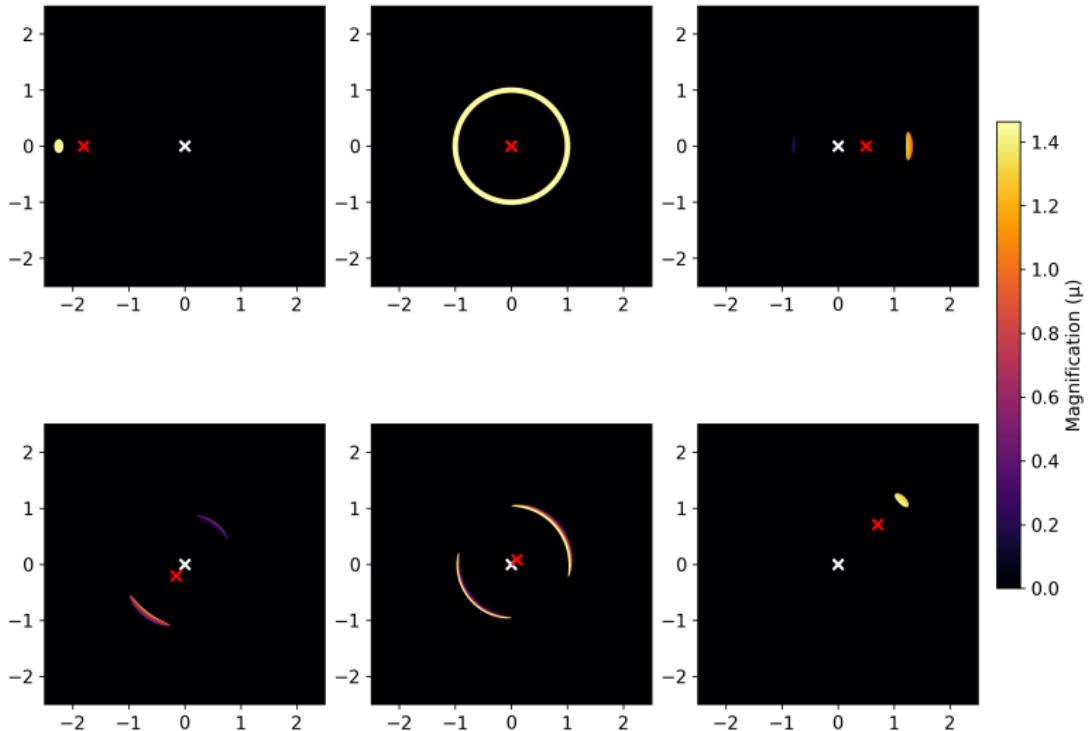
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- Magnitude of deflection: $|\vec{\alpha}| = \frac{4GM}{c^2 b}$
- Twice the magnitude as predicted by Newton, since we account for the curvature of space-time. Time runs slower closer to a potential well, however the space around it is also curved.

Point Mass Lensing

Point Mass Lens at Origin



Types of Lenses

Point Mass Lenses

$$\hat{\alpha}(b) = \frac{4GM}{c^2 b}$$

Axially Symmetric Lenses

$$\hat{\alpha}(\xi) = \frac{4GM(\xi)}{c^2 \xi}$$

Singular Isothermal Sphere (SIS)

Assume matter behaves like an ideal gas, thermal and hydrostatic equilibrium, in spherically symmetric potential.

$$\rho(r) = \frac{\sigma_v^2}{2\pi G r^2}$$

$$\alpha(x) = x/|x|$$

Softened Isothermal Sphere

Remove singularity with core radius

$$\Psi = \sqrt{x^2 + x_c^2}$$

$$\alpha = x/\sqrt{x^2 + x_c^2}$$

Navarro-Frenk-White profile (NFW)

Dark matter halo \rightarrow reproduces calculations

$$\rho(r) = \rho_s / [(r/r_s) (1 + r/r_s)^2]$$

Extensions to background sources, elliptical lenses and more

Weak Gravitational Lensing

- There are 30-40 galaxies per square arcminute of the sky.
Translates into 25,000 galaxies over an area the size of the moon!

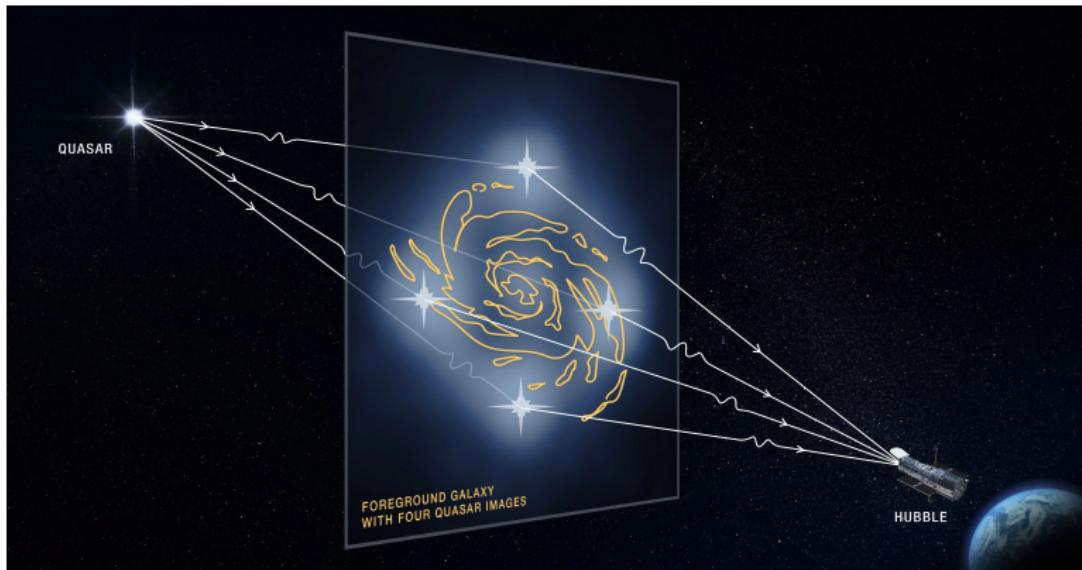
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- Ellipse axes: $a = \frac{r}{1-\kappa-\gamma}$ and $b = \frac{r}{1-\kappa+\gamma}$
 \Rightarrow Ellipticity $\epsilon = \frac{a-b}{a+b}$
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 \Rightarrow Split: $\epsilon_1 = \epsilon \cos 2\phi$ and $\epsilon_2 = \epsilon \sin 2\phi$
- For source with intrinsic $\epsilon^{(s)}$, we get
$$\epsilon_i = \epsilon_i^{(s)} + \gamma_i = \epsilon^{(s)} \begin{pmatrix} \cos 2\phi \\ \sin 2\phi \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
- Averaging gives $\langle \epsilon \rangle = \langle \gamma \rangle$

Computational Methods and Techniques



Example of lensing galaxy. Credit: NASA

- **Main Lensing Aims:** Estimate the characteristics of the lensing model.
- **Process:** Specify coordinates then perform optimisation algorithms.

- **Parameterised Lens Modeling:** Lens equation
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Computational Methods and Techniques

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- ◊ *Simplified Imageplane:* Solve the lens equation to the source plane with fiducial parameters estimated. Map back to the image plane where likelihood is computed (**inversion** of lens equation - Newton-Raphson).

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- ◊ *Full Imageplane:* Map to source plane with a full modeling of sources. Corresponding images are mapped to image plane where likelihood is computed.

- **Non-parametric Lens Modeling:**

- ◊ Surface mass density as a sum over basis functions
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- Divide lens plane into grid with mass elements Σ_i and minimise statistic.
- Mass sheet degeneracy (adding a mass sheet and rescaling luminosities gives the same images)
⇒ Add a regularisation term:
$$L(\mathbf{k}) = L_{\text{pos}}(\mathbf{k}) + \lambda_M L_{\text{reg},M}(\mathbf{k})$$
with $L_{\text{pos}}(\mathbf{k}) = \sum_i \left[(\vec{\beta} - \vec{\beta}_i)/\sigma_i \right]^2$ and $L_{\text{reg},M}(\mathbf{k}) = \sum_{j,I} (\kappa_j - \kappa_I)$, where j, I are neighbours.

Computational Methods and Techniques

- Sample parameter space using Monte-Carlo chains, each time solving for the log-likelihood.

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- A typical likelihood is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{k}, \vec{\beta}) \propto \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\vec{\theta}_i - A_i \vec{k} - \vec{\beta} \right)^T \Sigma_i^{-1} \left(\vec{\theta}_i - A_i \vec{k} - \vec{\beta} \right) \right)$$

which is a function of the residuals and Σ_i is the covariance matrix of the positional uncertainty.

- This form is the Mahalanobis distance.

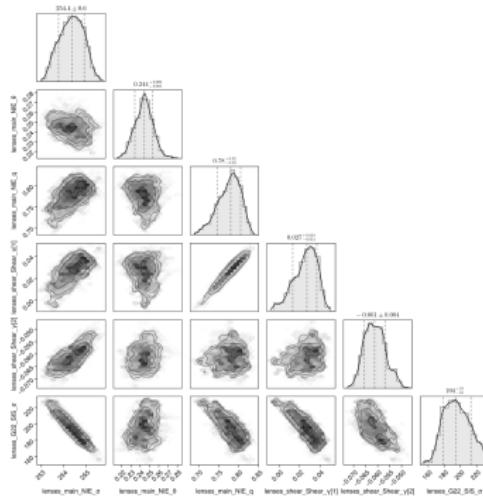
Computational Methods and Techniques

- Sample parameter space using Monte-Carlo chains, each time solving for the log-likelihood.
- A typical likelihood is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{k}, \vec{\beta}) \propto \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\vec{\theta}_i - A_i \vec{k} - \vec{\beta} \right)^\top \Sigma_i^{-1} \left(\vec{\theta}_i - A_i \vec{k} - \vec{\beta} \right) \right)$$

which is a function of the residuals and Σ_i is the covariance matrix of the positional uncertainty.

- This form is the Mahalanobis distance.
- Gives us \Rightarrow uncertainties.



Thank you