

PHY-765 SS19 Gravitational Lensing Week 1

Introduction & The History of GL

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What's the aim of today?

- Who is who?
- Course logistics and plan for the semester
- What is gravitational lensing - a quick overview.
- History - The Early Days of Gravitational Lensing
- Worksheet Week 1
 - Details later

Who is Who?

- Name?
- Focus of studies / topics of interest?
- Background, i.e., “Journey to Potsdam University”?

Course Structure:

- Lasts for 15 weeks
- 1V1S setup, i.e., 45min. “lecture” + 45min, “seminar” each week
 - But will be more 90 minutes of lecture-and-seminar
- Introduction to basics of Gravitational Lensing (GL)
 - From a theoretical side
 - From an observational side
- Focus on general “astronomer skills” used daily in research
 - Science communication
 - Feedback and evaluation
 - Topic condensation
- Weekly worksheets to reflect topic of the week
- Slides and Worksheets available at course web-page
 - https://kasperschmidt.github.io/teaching/SS19_GravLens_UP765

Gravitational Lensing

PHY-765, Summer Semester, Potsdam University, 2019

On this page you'll find information about the course on Gravitaional Lensing (PHY-765) at Potsdam University, summer semester 2019.

If you are interested in the course, please fill out [this short google questionnaire](#). This will help for preparing and focusing the lectures and seminars throughout the semester.

Page Content

- [Course-Description](#)
- [Basic Info](#)
- [Course Plan](#)
- [Lecture Slides](#)
- [Seminar Worksheets](#)
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- [Literature](#)

Course Description

Gravitational Lensing

The theory of gravitational lensing (GL) is one of the three fundamental observational consequences of Einstein's theory of general relativity. GL describes how rays of light are

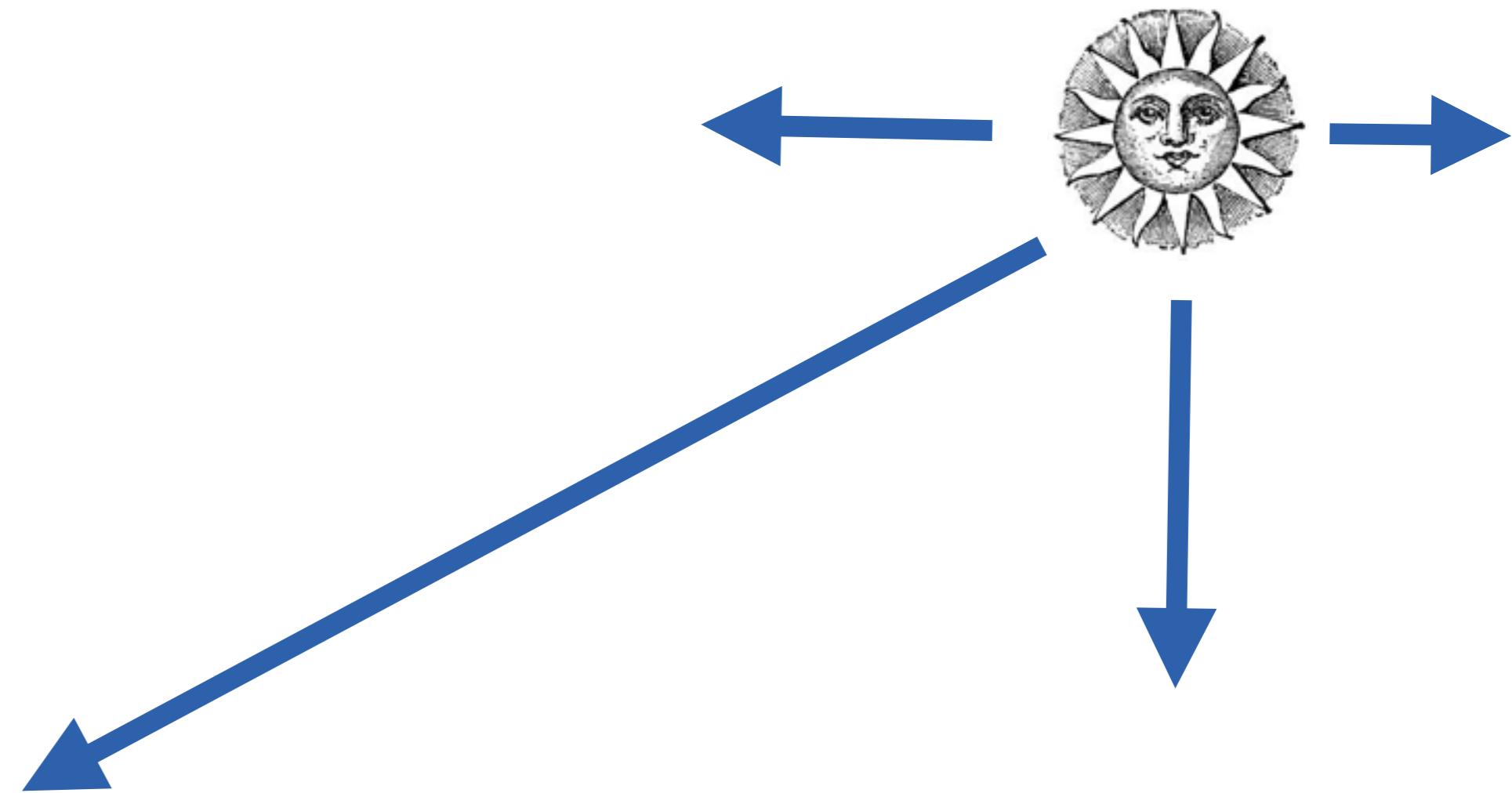
Course Plan on Webpage (updated along the way)

Course Plan: PHY-765 - Gravitational Lensing (GL)

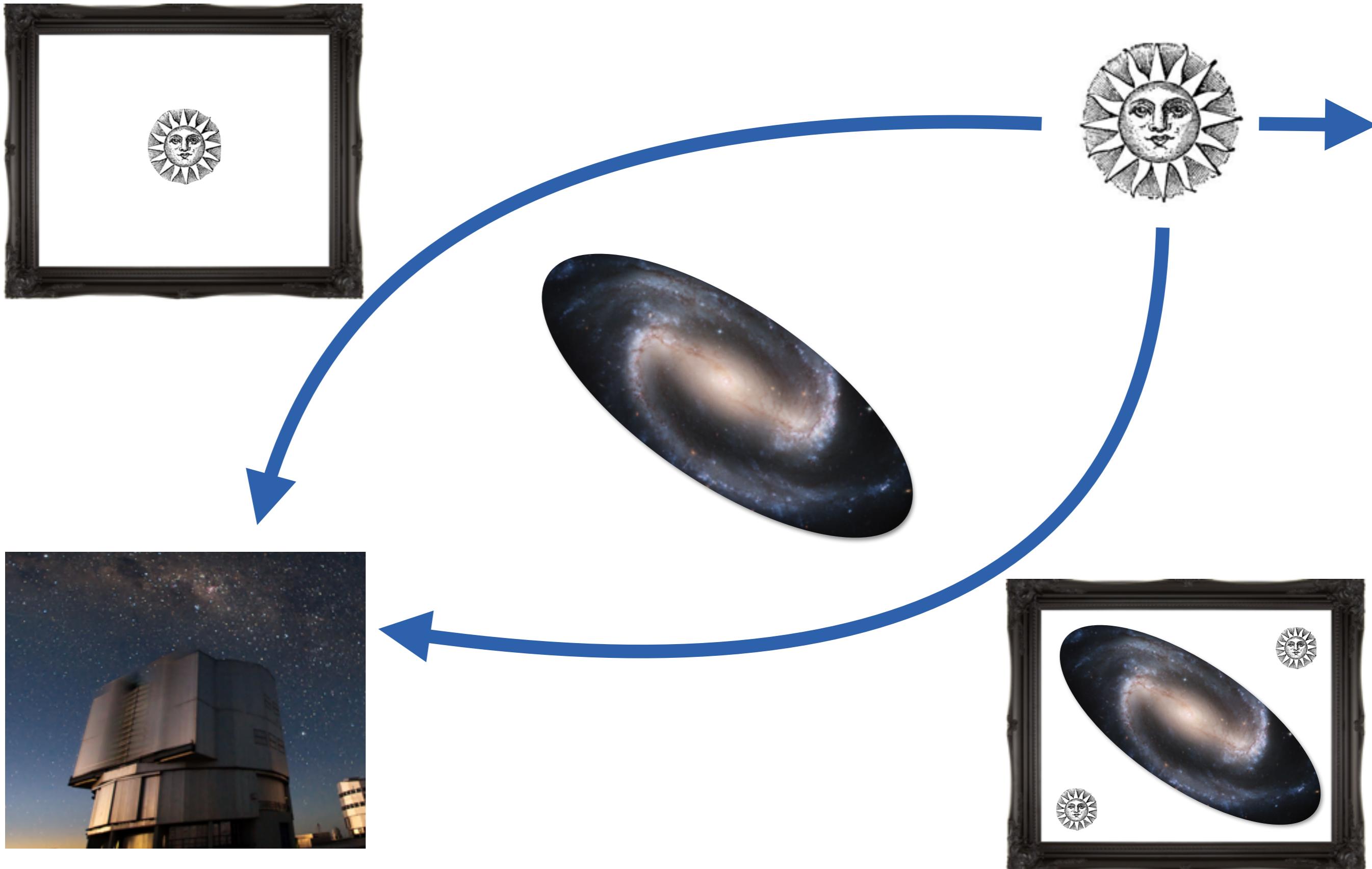
Version: April 9, 2019

Week	Date Time	Lecture	Exercise/Seminar	Location
1	April 10 8:00-10:00	<u>Slides</u> Intro & Early days of GL	<u>Worksheet</u> (Literature searches and first lenses)	2.28.2.011
2	April 17 8:00-10:00	<u>Slides</u> Light deflection and basic GL geometry	<u>Worksheet</u> (Select poster topic for presentation)	2.28.2.011
3	April 24 8:00-10:00	<u>Slides</u> The lens equation	<u>Worksheet</u> (Continue work on poster)	2.28.2.011
4	May 1 8:00-10:00	Holiday - no lecture. Compensated by 5-10 minutes longer days weeks 1-15		N/A
5	May 8 8:00-10:00	<u>Slides</u> Multiple images	<u>Worksheet</u> (Poster presentations)	2.28.2.011
6	May 15 8:00-10:00	<u>Slides</u> Time delays	<u>Worksheet</u> ("Journal club" allocation 1)	2.28.2.011
7	May 22 8:00-10:00	<u>Slides</u> Magnifying sources	<u>Worksheet</u> (Present "journal club" papers 1)	2.28.2.011
8	May 29 8:00-10:00	<u>Slides</u> Finding (strong) gravitational lenses	<u>Worksheet</u> (Paper review)	2.28.2.011

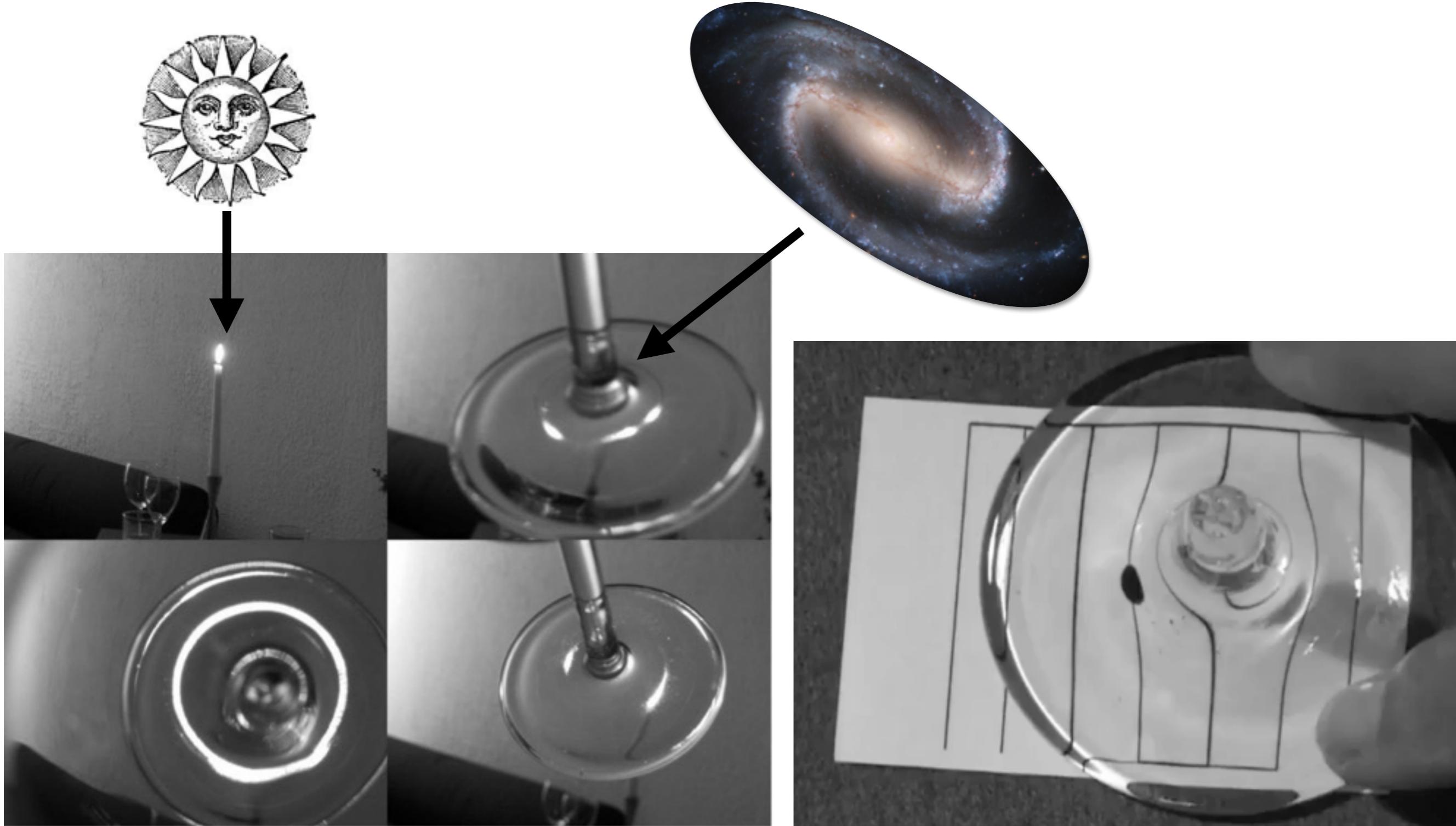
What is Gravitational Lensing?



What is Gravitational Lensing?



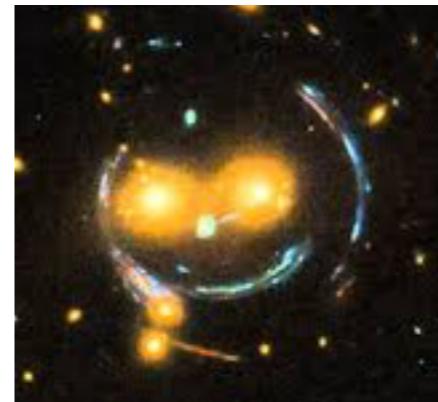
What is Gravitational Lensing?



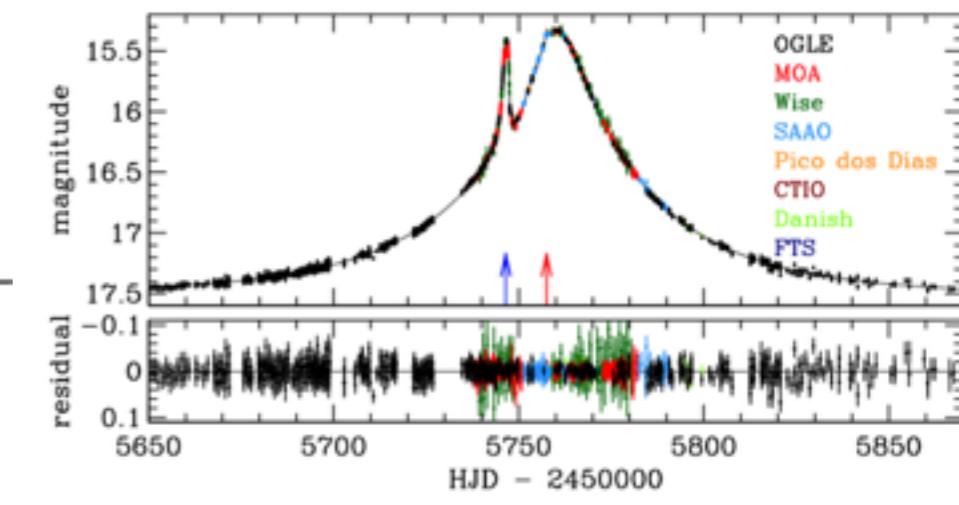
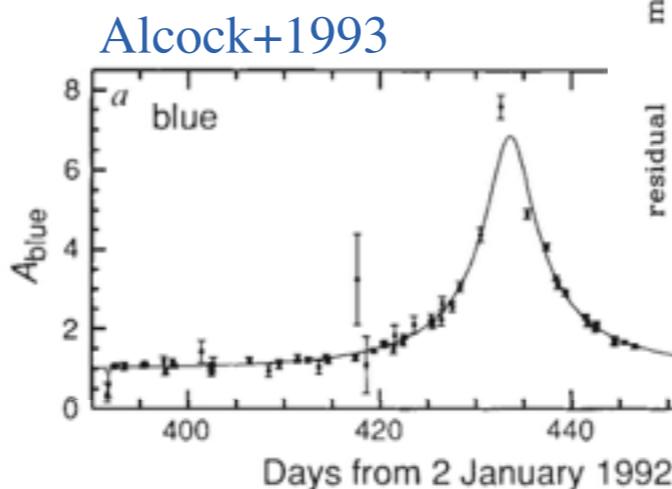
What is Gravitational Lensing?

- Strong
 - Extended & point sources
 - Most extreme distortion of source
 - Multiple images
- Micro (μ -arcsec scales)
 - Strong lensing regime
 - Point source vs. point source
 - Small scales \rightarrow unresolved
- Weak
 - Lens and/or source is often diffuse
 - Statistical assessment of effect

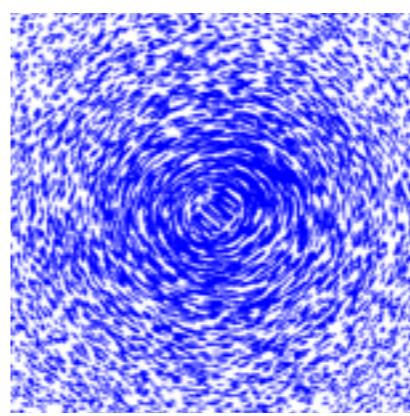
The Cheshire Cat



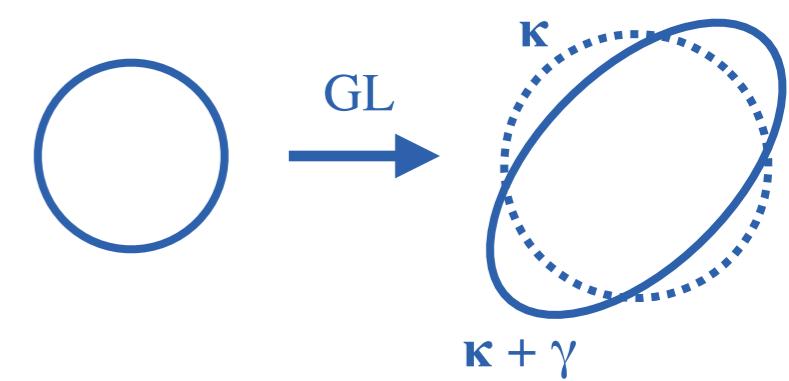
RXJ1131-1231



Skowron+2015



Maturi & Merten 2013



What is Gravitational Lensing Good For?

- Multiple images → Improved S/N and multiple sight lines
- Magnification of light → Reach intrinsically fainter objects
- Improved resolution → Resolve high- z
- $\Delta t \neq 0$ in light travel times → Probing cosmological parameters
- Probing mass of lens → BH, planet, galaxy, galaxy cluster
- ...

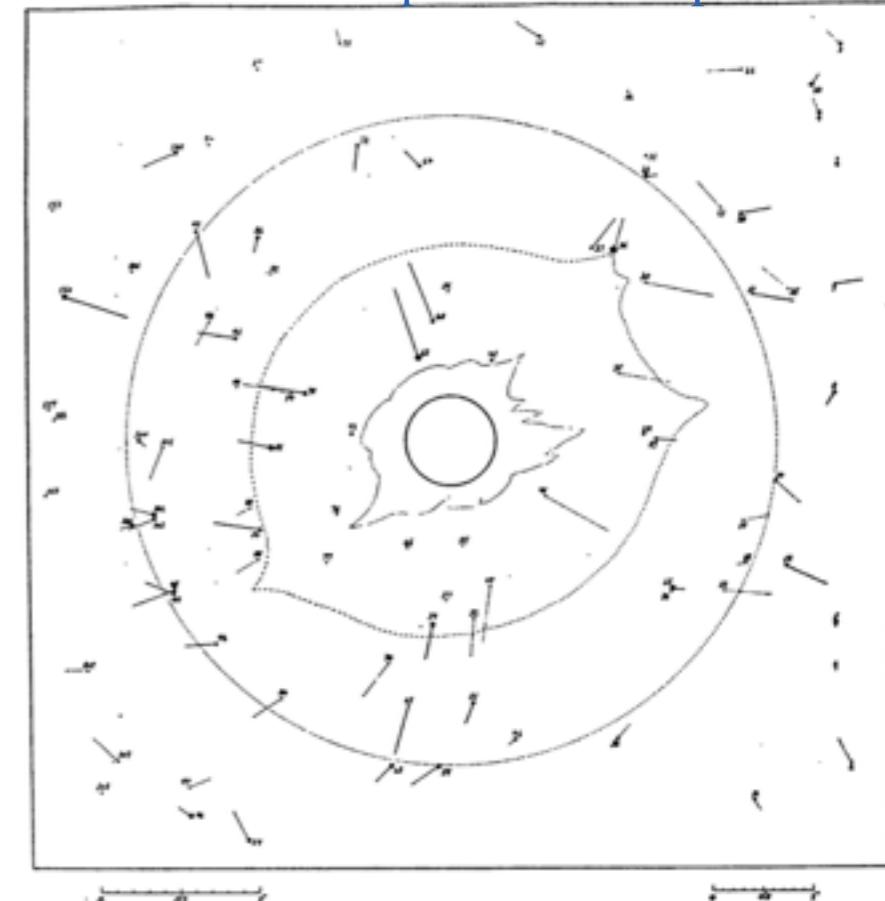
The Early Days of GL

- Before Einsteins GR people already speculated about gravity's affect on light
- Already in Newton+1704, Sir IsaacNewton asked:
 - *“Do not Bodies act upon Light at a distance, and by their action bend its Rays; and is not this action strongest at the least distance?”*
- In 1784 Mitchell wrote Cavendish about “black” bodies' affect on light particles
- Cavendish estimated the deflection using Newtons gravity but never published
- In 1796 Laplace (independently) noted:
 - *“that the attractive force of a heavenly body could be so large, that light could not flow out of it”*
- This lead to the definition of the Schwarzschild radius: $R_s = 2GM / c^2$
- Soldner+1804 derived the Newtonian deflection angle (details next week):
 - $\tan \alpha/2 = GM / v^2 r \rightarrow \alpha_N = 2GM / c^2 r$ if $v = c$ and α is small

The Early Days of GL

- Using this equation the prediction is that a star behind the sun should be shifted by 0.85 arcsec
- In 1911 Einstein independently derived the same value (before GR)
- Freundlich initiated expedition to Russia for the solar eclipse in 1914
 - WWI broke out and Freundlich was arrested by the Russians.
- Einstein+1915's GR provided the correct deflection angle
 - $\alpha = 4GM / c^2r \sim 2 \times \alpha_N = 1.75$ arcsec
- Was confirmed with 1919 and 1922 expeditions
- Lodge 1919 used the term ‘lens’ for the first time
 - Noting bad comparison without focal length
- Chwolson+1924 predicted “fictive double stars” and “ring of light” for perfect alignment

Campbell & Trumpler 1923



The Early Days of GL

- After discussions with Mandl, Einstein published calculations of deflections for a star-star lens in 1936

- Zwicky (1937a,b): (Exercise 1.1)

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LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Nebulae as Gravitational Lenses

Einstein recently published¹ some calculations concerning a suggestion made by R. W. Mandl, namely, that a star *B* may act as a "gravitational lens" for light coming from another star *A* which lies closely enough on the line of sight behind *B*. As Einstein remarks the chance to observe this effect for stars is extremely small.

Last summer Dr. V. K. Zworykin (to whom the same idea had been suggested by Mr. Mandl) mentioned to me the possibility of an image formation through the action of gravitational fields. As a consequence I made some calculations which show that extragalactic nebulae offer a much better chance than stars for the observation of gravitational lens effects.

In the first place some of the massive and more concentrated nebulae may be expected to deflect light by as much as half a minute of arc. In the second place nebulae, in contradistinction to stars, possess apparent dimensions which are resolvable to very great distances.

Suppose that a distant globular nebula *A* whose diameter is $2a$ lies at a distance a , which is great compared with the distance D of a nearby nebula *B* which lies exactly in front of *A*. The image of *A* under these circumstances is a luminous ring whose average apparent radius is $\beta = (\gamma \sigma_0 D)/a$, where γ_0 is the angle of deflection for light passing at a distance r_0 from *B*. The apparent width of the ring is $\Delta\theta = \beta/a$. The apparent total brightness of this luminous ring is q times greater than the brightness of the direct image of *A*. In our special case $q = 2a/D$, with $I = (\gamma \sigma_0 D)/a$. In actual cases the factor q may be as high as $q = 100$, corresponding to an increase in brightness of five magnitudes. The surface brightness remains, of course, unchanged.

The discovery of images of nebulae which are formed through the gravitational fields of nearby nebulae would be of considerable interest for a number of reasons.

(1) It would furnish an additional test for the general theory of relativity.

(2) It would enable us to see nebulae at distances greater than those ordinarily reached by even the greatest telescopes. Any such extension of the known parts of the universe promises to throw very welcome new light on a number of cosmological problems.

(3) The problem of determining nebular masses at present has arrived at a stalemate. The mass of an average nebula until recently was thought to be of the order of $M_N = 10^6 M_\odot$, where M_\odot is the mass of the sun. This estimate is based on certain deductions drawn from data on the intrinsic brightness of nebulae as well as their spectrographic rotations. Some time ago, however, I showed² that a straightforward application of the virial theorem to the great cluster of nebulae in Corona leads to an average nebular mass four hundred times greater than the one mentioned, that is, $M_N' = 4 \times 10^6 M_\odot$. This result has recently been verified by an investigation of the Virgo cluster.³ Observations on the deflection of light around nebulae may provide the most direct determination of nebular masses and clear up the above-mentioned discrepancy.

F. ZWICKY

Norman Bridge Laboratory,
California Institute of Technology,
Pasadena, California,
January 14, 1937.

¹ A. Einstein, Science 84, 506 (1936).
² F. Zwicky, Helv. Phys. Acta 6, 314 (1933).
³ Sinclair Smith, Astrophys. J. 83, 13 (1936).

Emergence of Low Energy Protons from Nuclei

In some experiments recently described⁴ the emission of protons in alpha-particle induced transmutations has been studied. In several cases the interesting fact was noticed that protons of relatively low energy were emitted in considerable numbers. Thus for each of the reactions

$\text{Al}^{27} + \text{He}^{4} \rightarrow \text{Si}^{28} + \text{H}^1$,
 $\text{P}^{31} + \text{He}^{4} \rightarrow \text{S}^{32} + \text{H}^1$,
 $\text{Cl}^{36} + \text{He}^{4} \rightarrow \text{Ar}^{38} + \text{H}^1$,
 $\text{Ca}^{40} + \text{He}^{4} \rightarrow \text{Sc}^{41} + \text{H}^1$,

a group of protons of maximum range 20 cm or less is found and the yield is in general large (more than one-third of the total number of protons emitted). In each case protons of range 10 cm are observed with no apparent diminution of the probability of emission. The question arises as to how these low energy protons get out of the composite nucleus.

In recent experiments in this laboratory the excitation curve for the emission of neutrons from argon under alpha-particle bombardment has been plotted and the nuclear radius found to be 7.5×10^{-11} cm which is in accord with Bethe's revised radii for the radioactive elements⁵ and may be taken as a basis for calculation of the nuclear radii of Ne^{20} , S^{31} , Ar^{38} , Ca^{40} and Sc^{41} . Other evidence (e.g., scattering experiments) indicates, if anything, smaller radii than those found in this way. In Table I are given the radii so calculated, together with the heights of the corresponding proton barriers and the range of a proton just able to surmount them. It will be seen that in every case the experimentally observed ranges are smaller than necessary to scale the barrier. It therefore appears that we can draw one of two significant conclusions from the experimental data. Either barriers to emerging protons are abnormally low or the composite nucleus containing the final product element and the proton has a finite lifetime sufficiently long to enable the proton to leak through the barrier. The latter view, which is in accordance with Bohr's conception of transmutation,⁶

PRODUCT NUCLEUS	NUCLEAR RADIUS ($\times 10^{10}$ cm)	PROTON BARRIER HEIGHT (MeV)	RANGE TO SCALE BARRIER (cm)	EXPERIMENTAL RANGE CM
Si^{28}	6.7	3.0	14.0	< 10
S^{31}	6.9	3.3	16.5	< 10
Ar^{38}	7.2	3.6	19.0	< 10
Ca^{40}	7.4	3.9	22.0	14
Sc^{41}	7.5	4.0	23.0	< 10

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

On the Probability of Detecting Nebulae Which Act as Gravitational Lenses

Recently various authors^{1, 2} have again³ considered the possibility of observing the image of a distant star *A* whose light is bent around some nearer star *B*. For reasons discussed by these authors, the probability that the mentioned effect will ever be observed with stars is vanishingly small. The general feeling therefore was that the idea of gravitational lenses affords "perfect tests of general relativity that are unavailable," as Professor H. N. Russell⁴ puts it.

The problem in question, however, takes on a radically different aspect, if, instead of in terms of stars we think in terms of extragalactic nebulae.⁵ Provided that our present estimates⁶ of the masses of cluster nebulae are correct, the probability that nebulae which act as gravitational lenses will be found becomes practically a certainty. The reasoning which leads to this optimistic view is as follows.

Let us consider only the least probable but perhaps most spectacular case in which the straight line which joins the observer in *O* with the gravitational center of the lens-nebula *B* passes through a distant nebula *A*. What is the probability that for a specified nebula *B* this "coincidence condition" is satisfied? Clearly, if all of the distant nebulae whose apparent magnitude is brighter than m cover a total solid angle ω_m , the probability p for *OB* to intersect one of these nebulae is $p = \omega_m/4\pi$. Consequently, among $n = 1/p$ nearby nebulae *B*, one satisfies on the average the coincidence condition.

On limiting exposures with the 100-inch telescope about 1/400 of the photographic plate is on the average covered by nebular images. Thus for a limiting magnitude of about $m = 21.5$ we have approximately $n = 400$. With gravitational focusing, nebulae considerably fainter than $m = 21.5$ will be observable. Thus around one in about one hundred nebulae *B* the ring-like image of a distant nebula should be expected, provided that the chosen nebula *B* has an apparent angular radius ρ smaller than the angles γ through which light is deflected on grazing the surface of this nebula. Present estimates of masses and diameters of cluster nebulae are such that the observability of gravitational lens effects among the nebulae would seem insured. In any case, whatever the outcome, the search for such effects will provide us with valuable information regarding the masses of nebulae.

In searching through actual photographs, a number of nebular objects arouse our suspicion. It will, however, be necessary to investigate certain composite objects spectroscopically, since differences in the red shift of the different components of such objects will immediately betray the presence of gravitational lens effects. Until such tests have been made, further discussion of the problem in question may be postponed.

F. ZWICKY

California Institute of Technology,
Pasadena, California,
March 15, 1937.

¹ P. and H. London, Proc. Roy. Soc. A148, 71 (1934); Physics 2, 343 (1934). M. v. Laue, P. and H. London, Zeits. f. Physik 96, 539 (1935).
² H. N. Russell, Scientific American, p. 56, Feb. (1937).
³ Dr. G. Stebbins of the Mt. Wilson Observatory kindly informed me that the results of his observations are still incomplete. Among others, E. B. Frost, late director of the Yerkes Observatory, as early as 1913 outlined a program for the search of such lens effects among stars.
⁴ F. Zwicky, Phys. Rev. 51, 295 (1917).
⁵ F. Zwicky, Helv. Phys. Acta 6, 124 (1933).

K. B. Schmidt, kbschmidt@aip.de

PHY-765 GL Week 1: April 10 2019

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The Early Days of GL

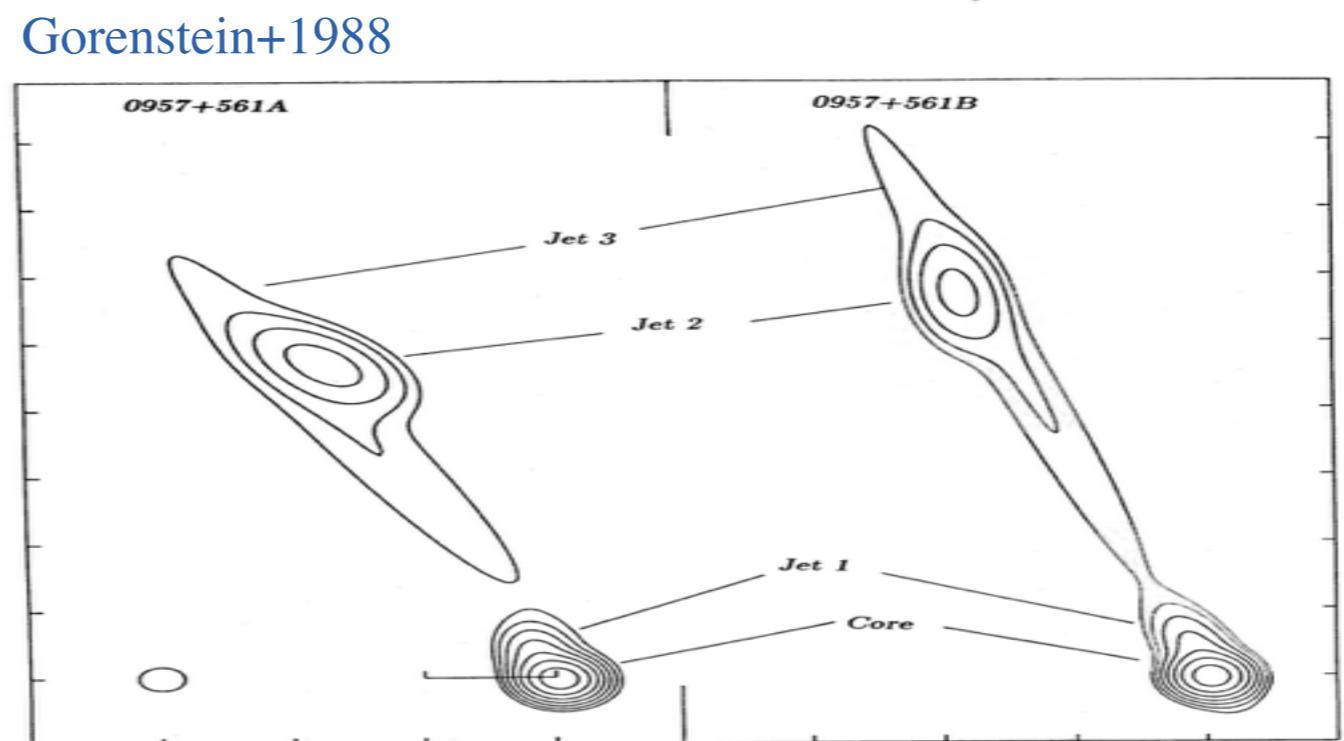
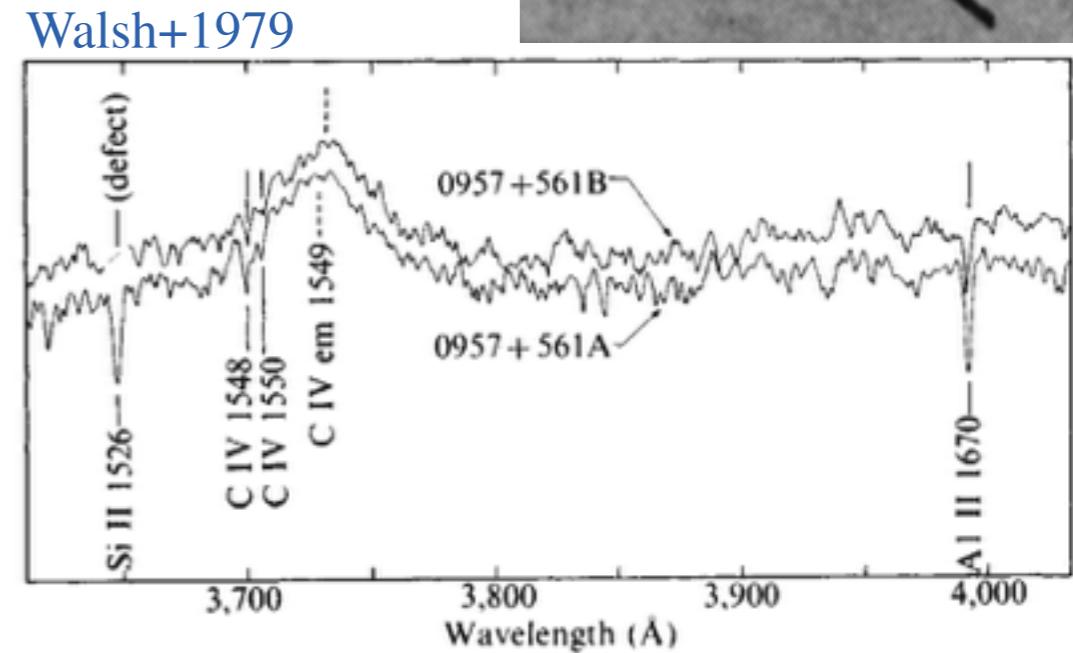
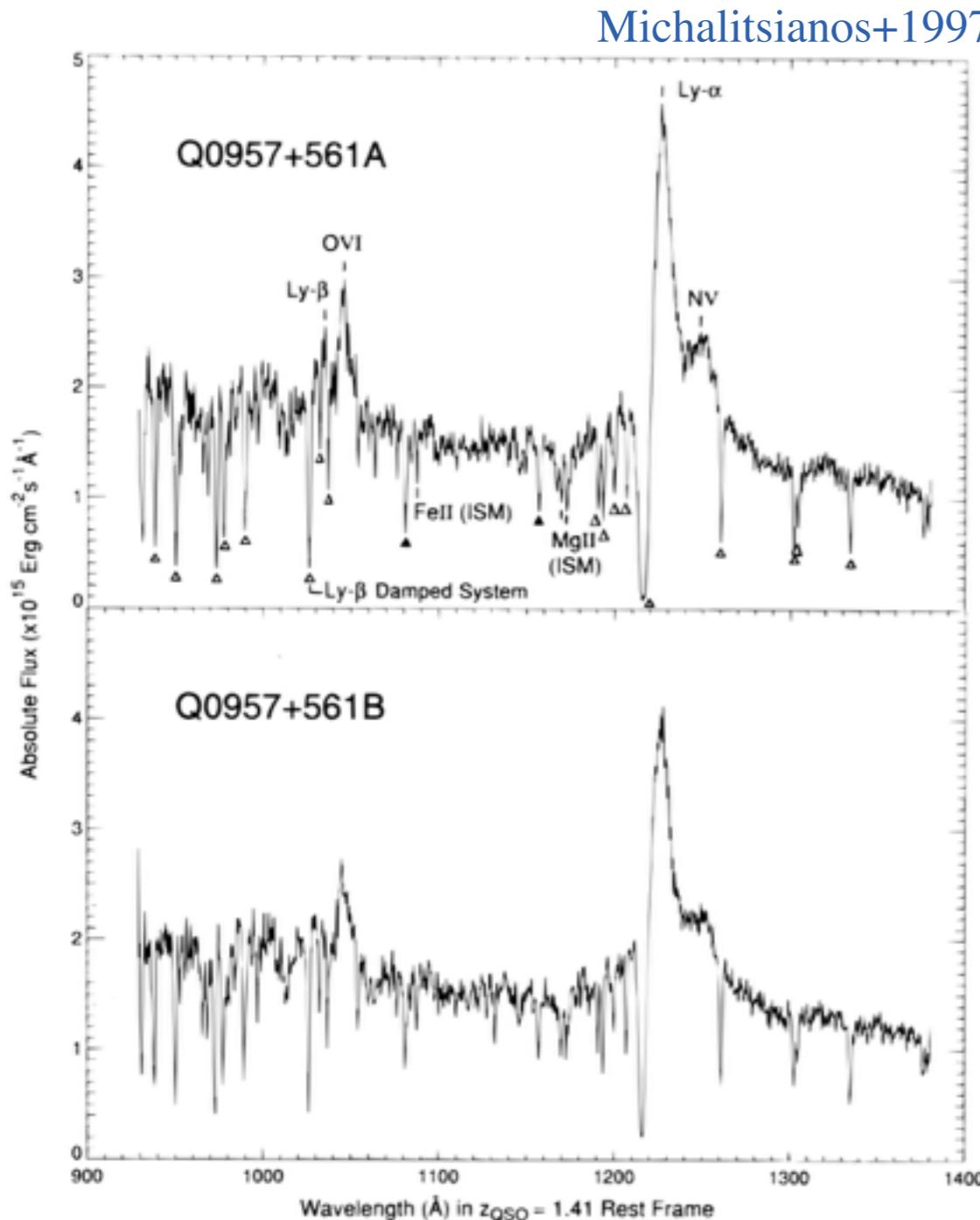
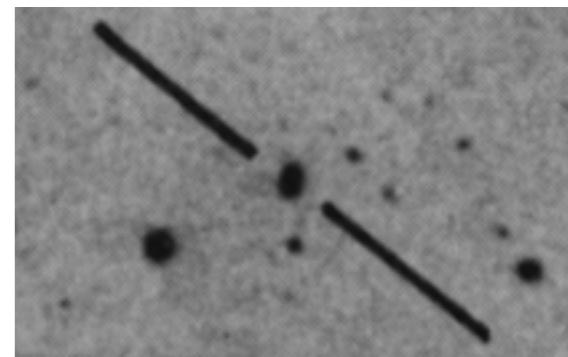
- Zwicky suggested “Nebulae as Gravitational Lenses” in 1937a,b
 - Predicting deflections of up to 0.5 arc minutes
 - Magnification making un-detectable objects detectable (amplification bias)
 - Predicting magnification allow studies of object at higher redshift
 - Foreseeing such lenses as powerfull estimators of lens masses
 - Predict that 1/100 nebulae have (ring-like) lensing effects
 - Pointed out the importance of spectroscopic redshift in determining lenses

The Early Days of GL

- In 1963, Schmidt presented the first stellar-like extragalactic object, QSO
- Early 1960s several authors “revived” the dormant studies of lensing
 - Klimov 1963: Looking at Einstein rings and multiple images
 - Liebes 1964: Looking at star-star (MW star - M31 star) lensing
 - Refsdal 1964a,b: Difference in light travel times of multiple images and the use of these to determine H_0
- Hence, point-sources were now available for lensing of galaxies...

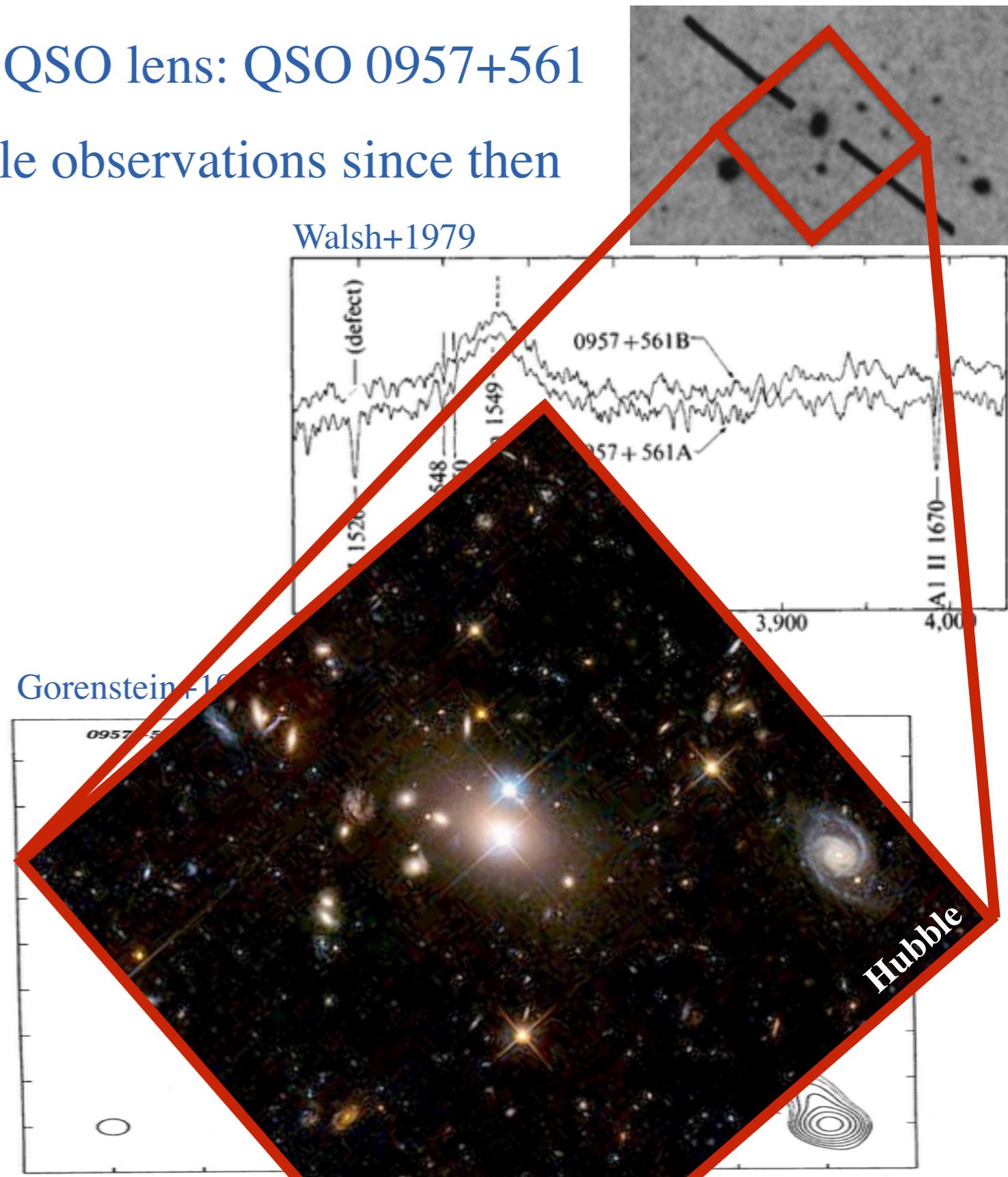
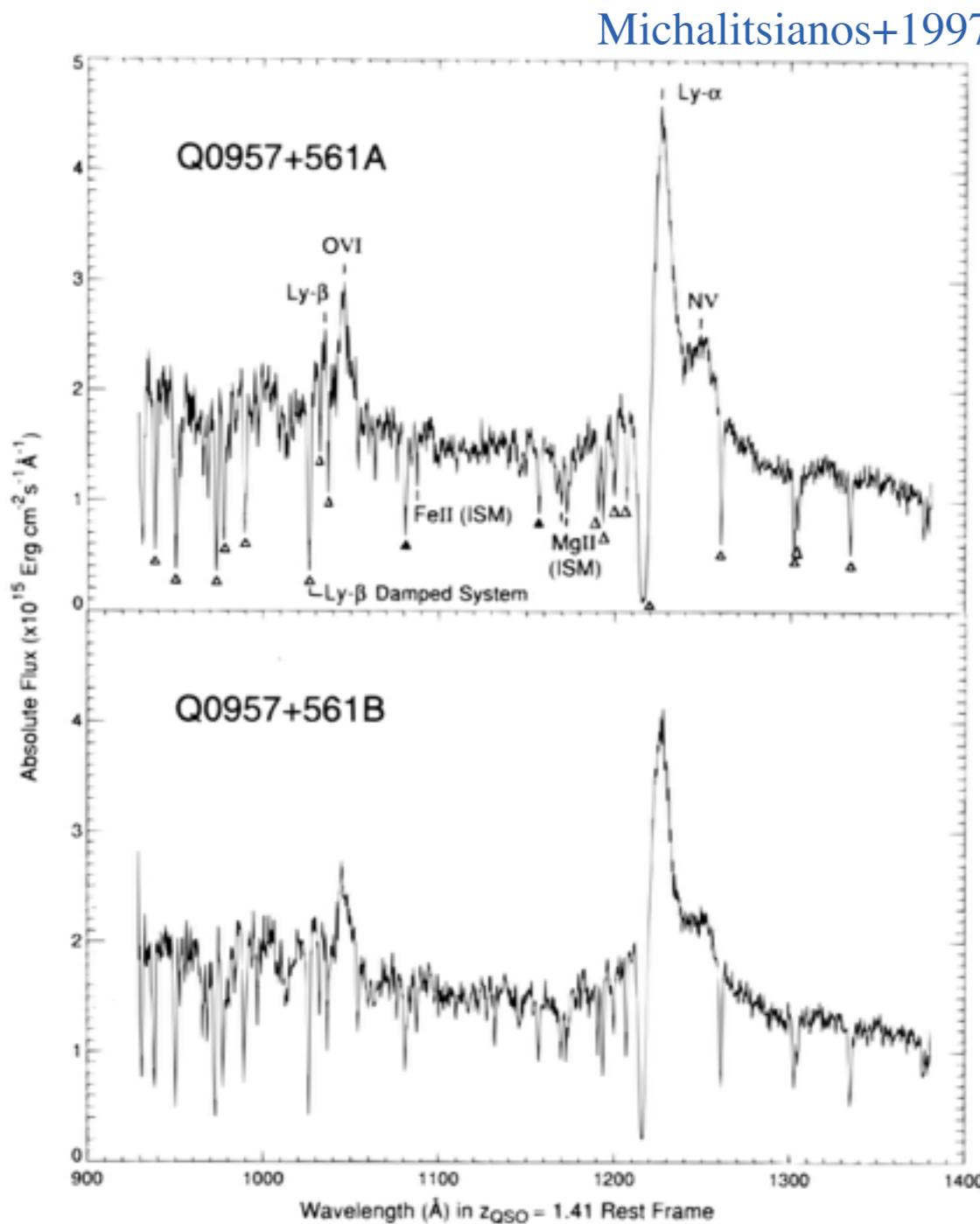
The Discovery of the First Lens(es)

- Walsh+1979 discovered the first QSO lens: QSO 0957+561
- Has been confirmed from multiple observations since then



The Discovery of the First Lens(es)

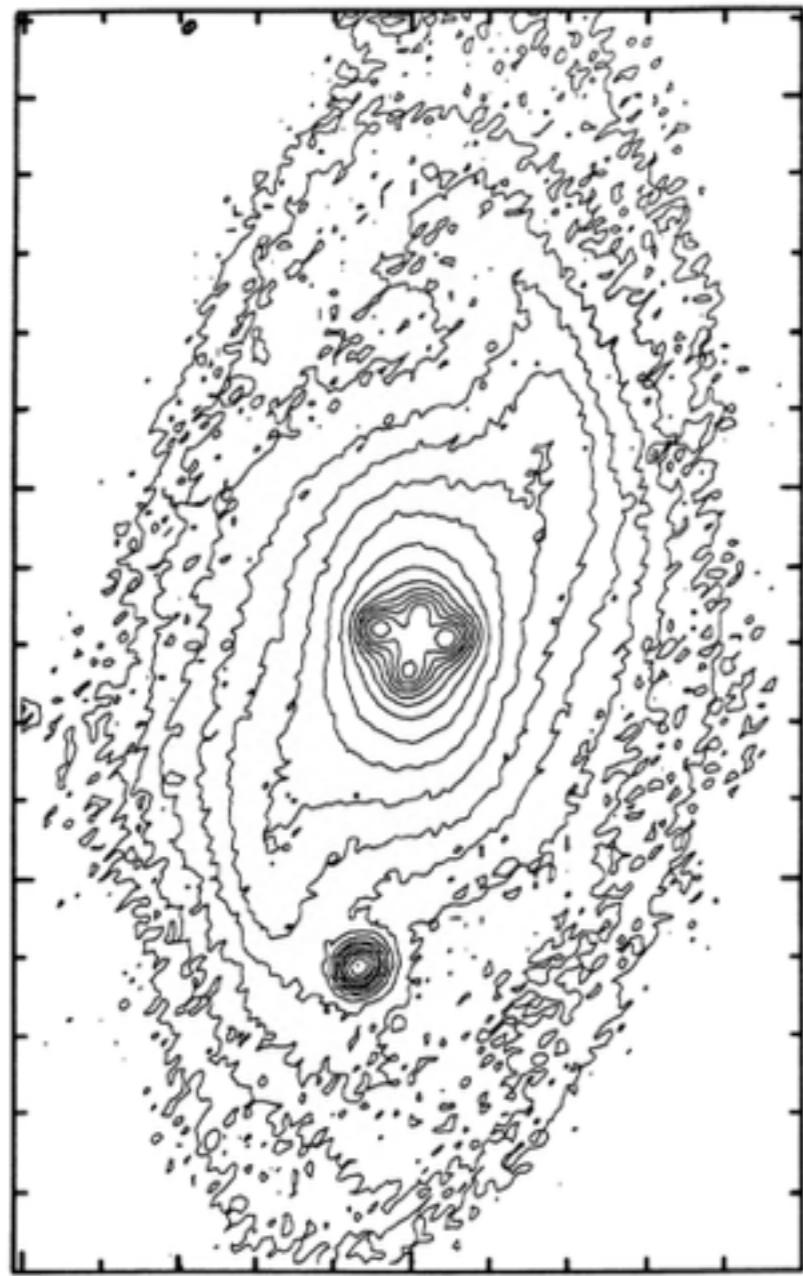
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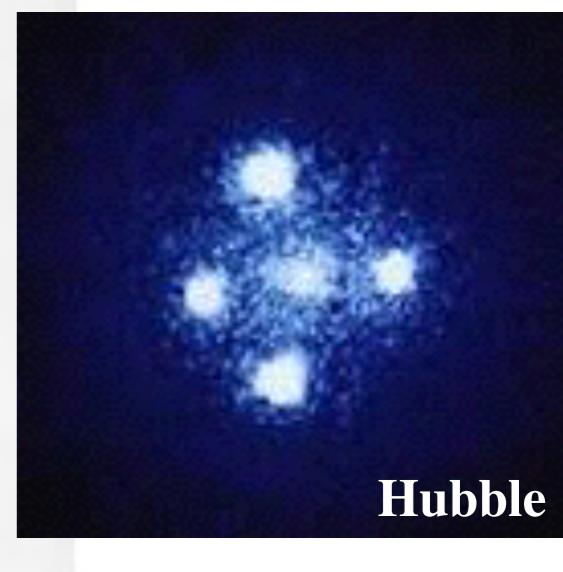
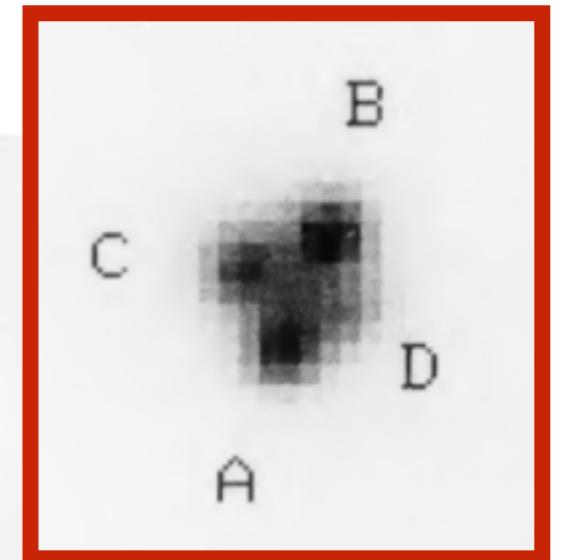
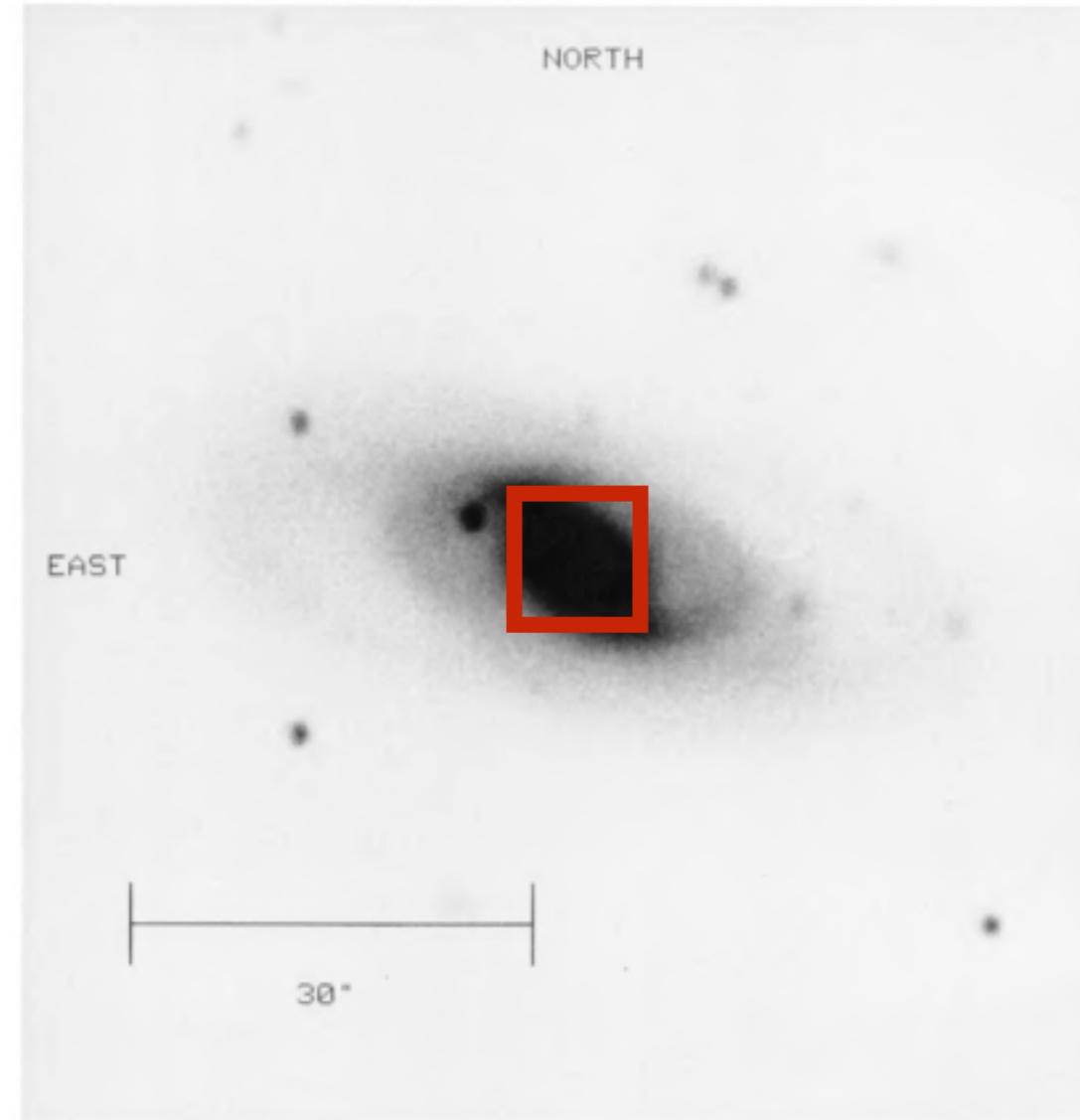
The Discovery of the First Lens(es)

- The Einstein Cross was presented by Huchra+1985

Yee+1988

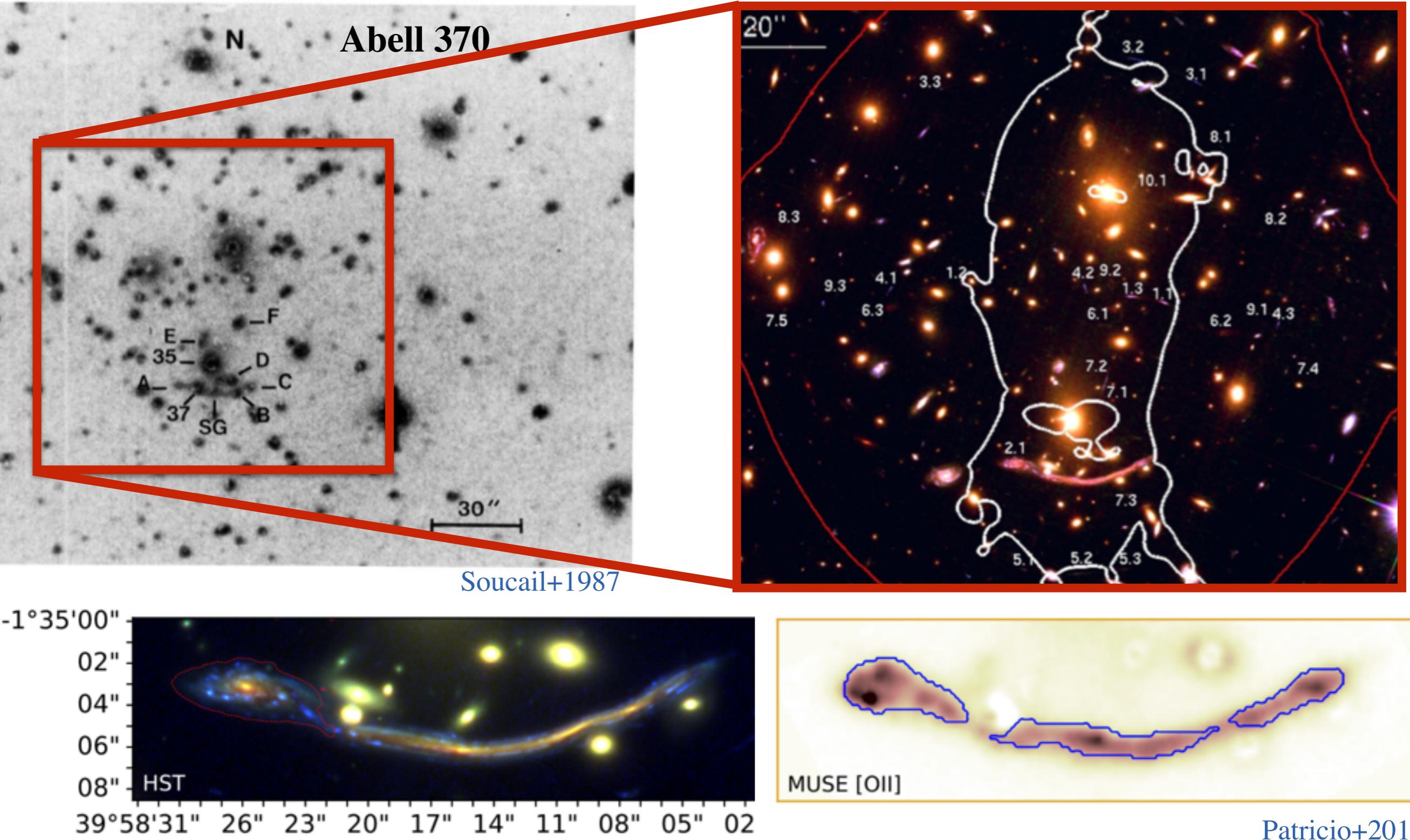


Schneider+1988



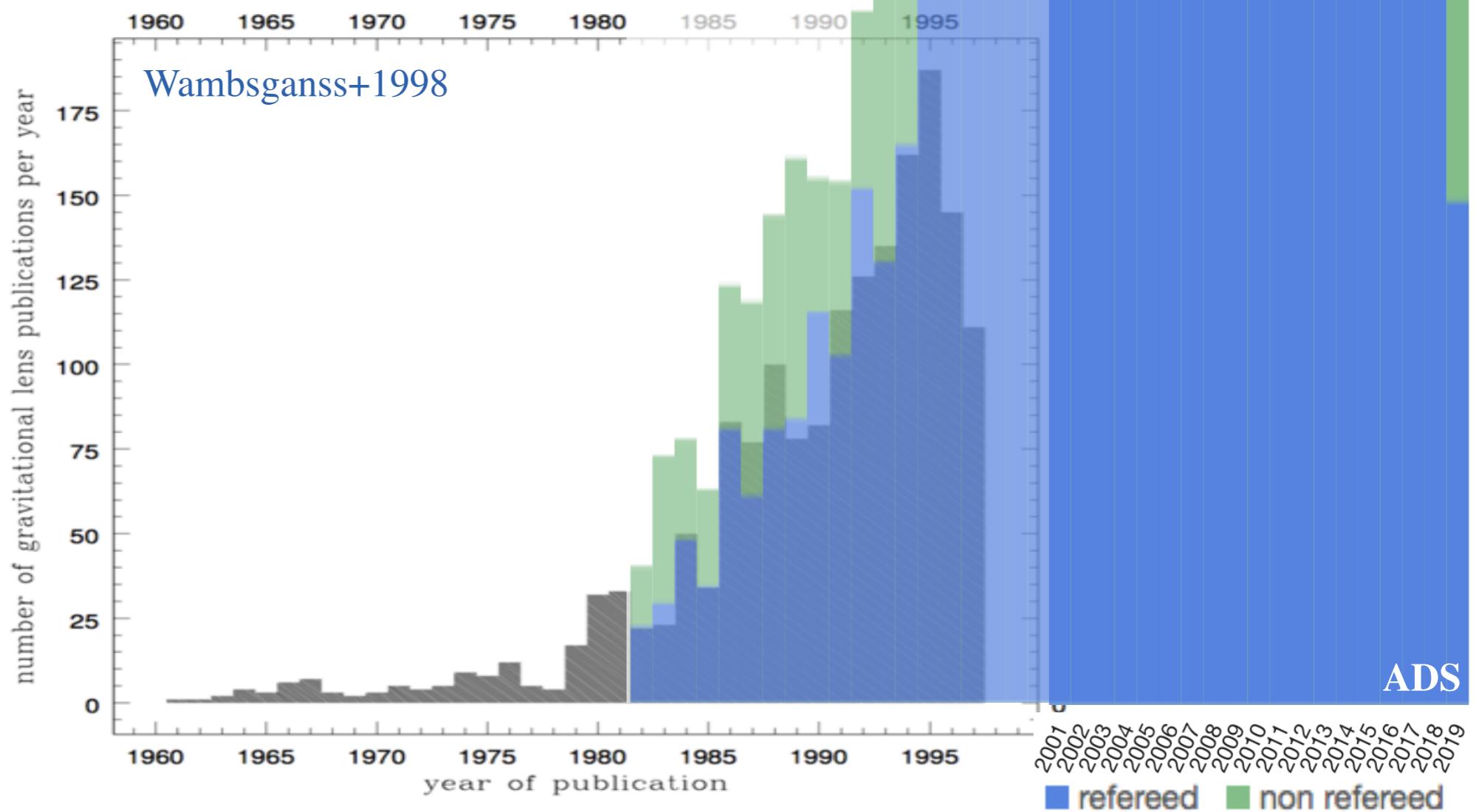
The Discovery of the First Lens(es)

- Discovery of luminous arc in clusters of galaxies occurred in 1986/1987



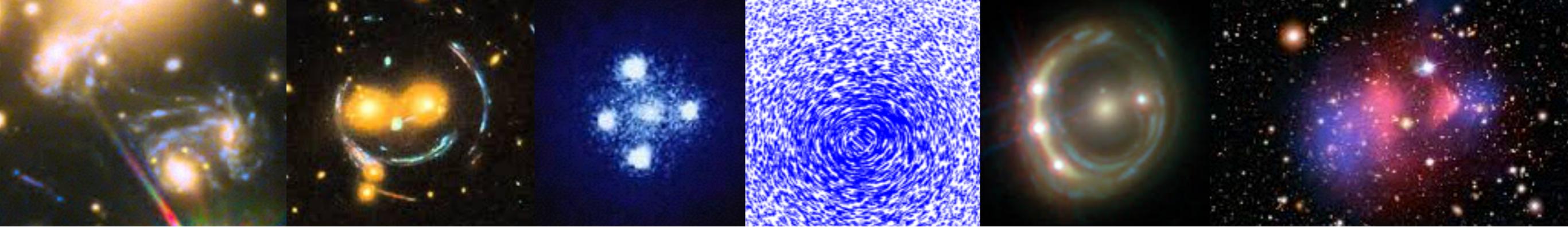
The Growing Importance of GL

- Since the early 1990s things have gone fast
- Since 2014-2018 more than 3000 hours spent on the 6 Hubble Frontier Fields Clusters
- And that's only 6(!) cluster lenses -
Then there are all the other lenses out there...



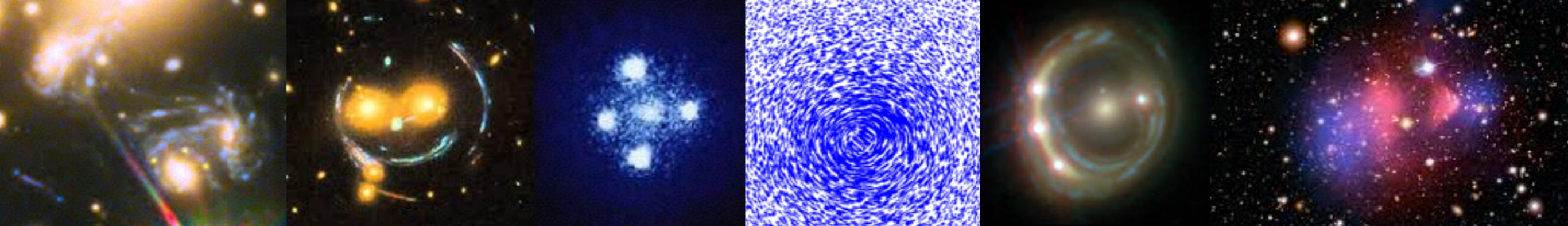
So in summary...

- GL convert the effect of gravity on light
- GL is usually divided in strong, micro and weak lensing
- GL causes multiple images, magnification, time delays, better resolution
- GL has been discussed in literature since the 1700s
- GL was first confirmed in 1919 from behind of background stars by sun
- First QSO (multiple images) lens discovered by Walsh+1979
- First extended arc discovered in 1986/1987
- GL studies are still going strong with no sign of stopping...



PHY-765 SS19 Gravitational Lensing Week 1

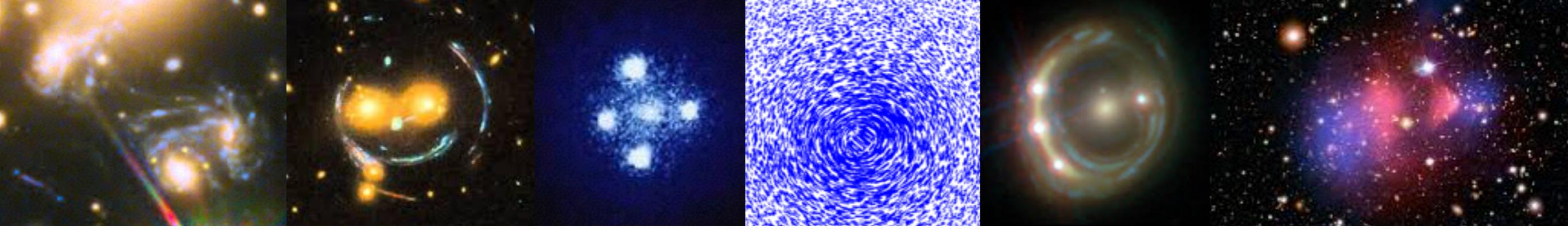
Questions?



PHY-765 SS19 Gravitational Lensing Week 1

The Weekly Worksheets

- New Worksheet every week
- A mix of:
 - “astronomer skill development” exercises
 - classic problem solving
 - instructions for task/assignments to be presented at later stages



PHY-765 SS19 Gravitational Lensing Week 1

This Week's Worksheet