Step 1: Importing Necessary Libraries

We begin by importing Python libraries commonly used in data analysis and visualization:

- numpy for numerical operations
- matplotlib.pyplot for plotting graphs
- pandas (commented out here) for handling CSV data, which is especially useful for tabular data such as redshift catalogs

Tip: If you haven't used pandas before, it's worth learning as it offers powerful tools to manipulate and analyze structured datasets.

For reading big csv files, one can use numpy as well as something called "pandas". We suggest to read pandas for CSV file reading and use that

```
In [1]:
    import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    import pandas as pd # type: ignore
    from astropy.constants import G, c
    from astropy.cosmology import Planck18 as cosmo
    import astropy.units as u
```

Before we begin calculations, we define key physical constants used throughout:

- H_0 : Hubble constant, describes the expansion rate of the Universe.
- c: Speed of light.
- *G*: Gravitational constant.
- q_0 : Deceleration parameter, used for approximate co-moving distance calculations.

We will use **astropy.constants** to ensure unit consistency and precision.

```
In [2]: # Constants:

H_0 = cosmo.H0.to(u.m/u.s/u.pc).value # Hubble constant in m/s/pc
c = c.value # Speed of light in m/s
G = G.to(u.m**3/u.kg/u.s**2).value # Gravitational constant in m^3 kg^-1 s^-2
q0 = -0.534 # Deceleration parameter
```

Read the csv data into the python using the method below

```
In [6]: print (df.head())
                      objid
                                           dec
                                                  photoz photozerr
                                                                      specz \
                                  ra
      0 1237671768542478711 257.82458 64.133257 0.079193 0.022867 0.082447
      1 1237671768542478711 257.82458 64.133257 0.079193 0.022867 0.082466
      2 1237671768542478713 257.83332 64.126043 0.091507
                                                          0.014511 0.081218
      3 1237671768542544090 257.85137 64.173247 0.081102 0.009898 0.079561
      4 1237671768542544090 257.85137 64.173247 0.081102 0.009898 0.079568
                                                 gmag gmagerr
         speczerr proj_sep umag umagerr
                                                                  rmag \
      0 0.000017 8.347733 18.96488 0.043377 17.49815 0.005672 16.75003
      1 0.000014 8.347733 18.96488 0.043377 17.49815 0.005672 16.75003
      2 0.000021 8.011259 20.22848 0.072019 18.38334 0.007763 17.46793
      3 0.000022 8.739276 19.21829 0.050135 17.18970 0.004936 16.22043
      4 0.000019 8.739276 19.21829 0.050135 17.18970 0.004936 16.22043
          rmagerr obj_type
      0 0.004708
                        3
      1 0.004708
      2 0.005828
                        3
      3 0.003769
                        3
      4 0.003769
```

Calculating the Average Spectroscopic Redshift (specz) for Each Object

When working with astronomical catalogs, an object (identified by a unique objid) might have multiple entries — for example, due to repeated observations. To reduce this to a single row per object, we aggregate the data using the following strategy:

```
averaged_df = df.groupby('objid').agg({
            'specz': 'mean',
                                # Take the mean of all spec-z values for that
        object
            'ra': 'first', # Use the first RA value (assumed constant for
        the object)
                            # Use the first Dec value (same reason as
            'dec': 'first',
        above)
            'proj_sep': 'first' # Use the first projected separation value
        }).reset_index()
In [7]:
       # Calculating the average specz for each id:
        averaged_df = df.groupby('objid').agg({'specz': 'mean', 'ra': 'first', 'dec': 'first
        averaged_df.describe()['specz']
                92.000000
Out[7]: count
                 0.080838
        mean
        std
                 0.008578
        min
                 0.069976
        25%
                 0.077224
        50%
                 0.080961
        75%
                 0.082797
                 0.150886
        max
```

Name: specz, dtype: float64

To create a cut in the redshift so that a cluster can be identified. We must use some logic. Most astronomers prefer anything beyond 3*sigma away from the mean to be not part of the same group.

Find the mean, standard deviation and limits of the redshift from the data

```
In [8]: # Calculate mean and standard deviation of specz
z_mean= averaged_df['specz'].mean()
z_std= averaged_df['specz'].std()
z_lower= z_mean - 3 * z_std
z_upper= z_mean + 3 * z_std

print(f"Mean redshift: {z_mean:.4f}")
print(f"Standard deviation: {z_std:.4f}")
print(f"3-sigma redshift range: {z_lower:.4f},{z_upper:.4f}")
Mean redshift: 0.0808
```

Standard deviation: 0.0086
3-sigma redshift range: 0.0551,0.1066

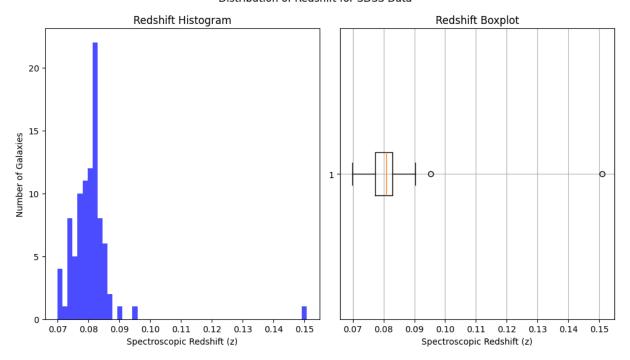
You can also use boxplot to visualize the overall values of redshift

```
In [9]: # Plot the dsitribution of redshift as histogram and a boxplot
    plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
    plt.subplot(1,2,1)
    plt.hist(averaged_df['specz'],bins=50,color='blue',alpha=0.7)
    plt.xlabel('Spectroscopic Redshift (z)')
    plt.ylabel('Number of Galaxies')
    plt.title('Redshift Histogram')

plt.subplot(1,2,2)
    plt.boxplot(averaged_df['specz'],vert=False)
    plt.xlabel('Spectroscopic Redshift (z)')
    plt.title('Redshift Boxplot')
    plt.grid(True)

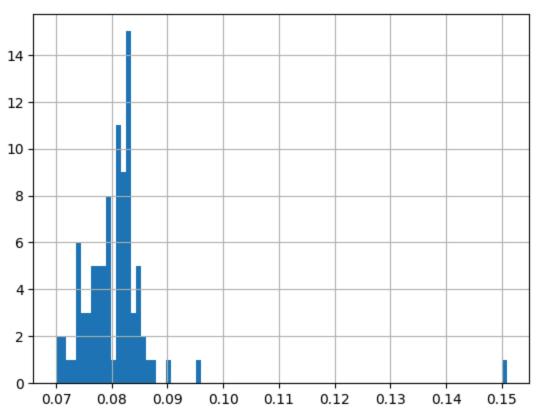
plt.suptitle('Distribution of Redshift for SDSS Data')
    plt.tight_layout()
    plt.show()
```

Distribution of Redshift for SDSS Data



But the best plot would be a histogram to see where most of the objects downloaded lie in terms of redshift value





Filter your data based on the 3-sigma limit of redshift. You should remove all data points which are 3-sigma away from mean of redshift

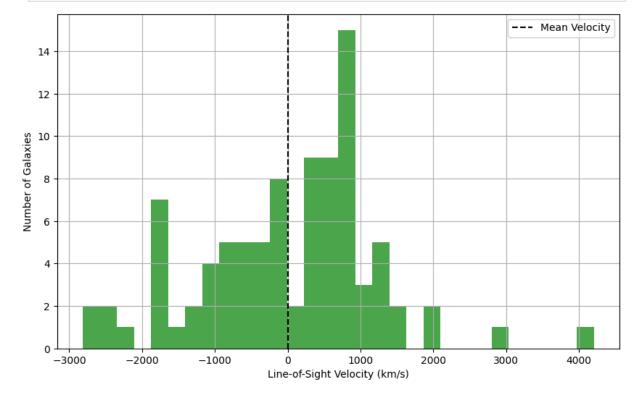
```
In [11]: # Filtering the data based on specz values, used 3 sigma deviation from mean as upp
filtered_df= averaged_df[(averaged_df['specz'] >= z_lower) & (averaged_df['specz']
print(f"Number of cluster members: {len(filtered_df)}")
```

Number of cluster members: 91

Use the relation between redshift and velocity to add a column named velocity in the data. This would tell the expansion velocity at that redshift

```
In [12]: cluster_redshift = filtered_df['specz'].mean()
    filtered_df = filtered_df.copy() # Avoid SettingWithCopyWarning
    filtered_df.loc[:, 'velocity'] = c * ((1 + filtered_df['specz'])**2 - (1 + cluster_filtered_df.loc[:, 'velocity'] /= 1000 # Convert m/s to km/s
```

```
In [13]: #plot the velocity column created as hist
plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
plt.hist(filtered_df['velocity'], bins=30,color='green',alpha=0.7)
plt.axvline(0,color='black',linestyle='--',label='Mean Velocity')
plt.xlabel('Line-of-Sight Velocity (km/s)')
plt.ylabel('Number of Galaxies')
plt.legend()
plt.grid(True)
plt.show()
```



use the dispersion equation to find something called velocity dispersion. You can even refer to wikipedia to know about the term wiki link here

It is the velocity dispersion value which tells us, some galaxies might be part of even larger groups!!

Step 2: Calculate Mean Redshift of the Cluster

We calculate the average redshift (specz) of galaxies that belong to a cluster. This gives us an estimate of the cluster's systemic redshift.

```
cluster redshift = filtered df['specz'].mean()
```

The velocity dispersion (v) of galaxies relative to the cluster mean redshift is computed using the relativistic Doppler formula:

$$v = c \cdot rac{(1+z)^2 - (1+z_{
m cluster})^2}{(1+z)^2 + (1+z_{
m cluster})^2}$$

where:

- (v) is the relative velocity (dispersion),
- (z) is the redshift of the individual galaxy,
- ($z_{\rm cluster}$) is the mean cluster redshift,
- (c) is the speed of light.

```
In [14]: # Calculate velocity dispersion
disp= filtered_df['velocity'].std(ddof=1)
print(f"Velocity dispersion: {disp:.2f} km/s")

#Quick stats using describe
print(f"\nVelocity ststistics:")
print(filtered_df['velocity'].describe())
```

Velocity dispersion: 1218.49 km/s

```
Velocity ststistics:
count 91.000000
         -2.449331
mean
      1218.492945
std
min
     -2814.230840
25%
      -806.606785
50%
       237.179091
75%
       754.977576
      4206.136789
Name: velocity, dtype: float64
```

In [15]: print(f"The value of the cluster redshift = {cluster_redshift:.4f}")
 print(f"The characteristic value of velocity dispersion of the cluster along the li

The value of the cluster redshift = 0.0801

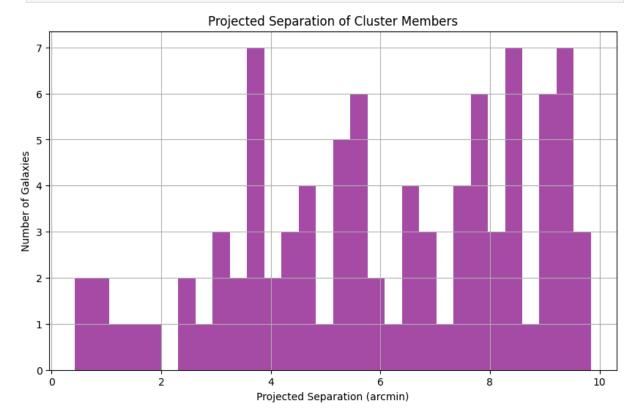
The characteristic value of velocity dispersion of the cluster along the line of sig ht = 1218.49 km/s.

Step 4: Visualizing Angular Separation of Galaxies

We plot a histogram of the projected (angular) separation of galaxies from the cluster center. This helps us understand the spatial distribution of galaxies within the cluster field.

- The x-axis represents the angular separation (in arcminutes or degrees, depending on units).
- The y-axis shows the number of galaxies at each separation bin.

```
In [16]: #Plot histogram for proj sep column
    plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
    plt.hist(filtered_df['proj_sep'],bins=30,color='purple',alpha=0.7)
    plt.xlabel('Projected Separation (arcmin)')
    plt.ylabel('Number of Galaxies')
    plt.title('Projected Separation of Cluster Members')
    plt.grid(True)
    plt.show()
```



Determining size and mass of the cluster:

Step 5: Estimating Physical Diameter of the Cluster

We now estimate the **physical diameter** of the galaxy cluster using cosmological parameters.

• r is the **co-moving distance**, approximated using a Taylor expansion for low redshift:

$$r=rac{cz}{H_0}\Big(1-rac{z}{2}(1+q_0)\Big)$$

where q_0 is the deceleration parameter

• ra is the angular diameter distance, given by:

$$D_A=rac{r}{1+z}$$

 Finally, we convert the observed angular diameter (in arcminutes) into physical size using:

$$\text{diameter (in Mpc)} = D_A \cdot \theta$$

where θ is the angular size in radians, converted from arcminutes.

This gives us a rough estimate of the cluster's size in megaparsecs (Mpc), assuming a flat Λ CDM cosmology.

```
In [17]: # Co-moving distance
    r= (c / H_0) * cluster_redshift * (1-(cluster_redshift / 2) * (1 + q0))

# Angular diameter distance
    D_A= r/ (1 + cluster_redshift)

#Physical diameter(use median proj_sep as angular size)
    theta = np.median(filtered_df['proj_sep']) * (np.pi / (180 * 60))  # Convert
    diameter= D_A * theta / 1e6  # Convert to Mpc (since D_A is in pc)

    print(f"Cluster diameter: {diameter:.2f} Mpc")
```

Cluster diameter: 0.59 Mpc

Step 6: Calculating the Dynamical Mass of the Cluster

We now estimate the **dynamical mass** of the galaxy cluster using the virial theorem:

$$M_{
m dyn} = rac{3\sigma^2 R}{G}$$

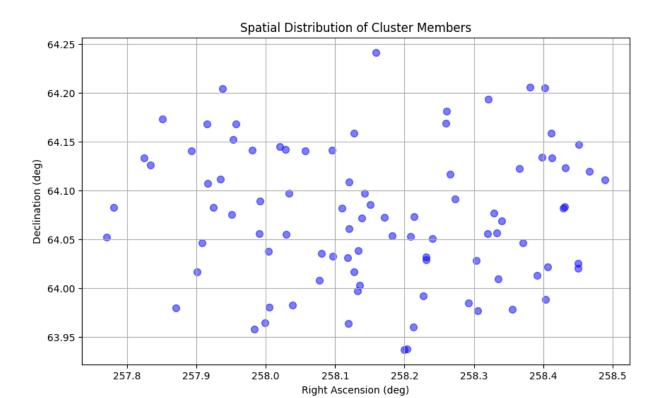
Where:

- σ is the **velocity dispersion** in m/s (disp * 1000),
- R is the **cluster radius** in meters (half the physical diameter converted to meters),
- G is the **gravitational constant** in SI units,
- The factor of 3 assumes an isotropic velocity distribution (common in virial estimates).

We convert the final result into **solar masses** by dividing by $2 imes 10^{30} \, \mathrm{kg}$.

This mass estimate assumes the cluster is in dynamical equilibrium and bound by gravity.

```
In [18]: ### Calculating the dynamical mass in solar masses:
         R = (diameter * 0.5) * 3.0857e22 # Radius in meters
         sigma = disp * 1000 # m/s
         M sun = 1.989e30 \# kg
         M_{dyn} = 3 * (sigma**2) * R / G / M_sun
         print(f"Dynamical Mass of the cluster is {M_dyn:.2e} solar mass")
        Dynamical Mass of the cluster is 3.07e+14 solar mass
In [19]: print(filtered_df.columns)
         filtered_df['gmag'] = df.loc[filtered_df.index, 'gmag']
        Index(['objid', 'specz', 'ra', 'dec', 'proj_sep', 'velocity'], dtype='object')
In [20]: D_L = cosmo.luminosity_distance(cluster_redshift).to(u.pc).value
         M_g = filtered_df['gmag'] - 5 * np.log10(D_L / 10)
         M_g = 5.1
         L = 10**(-0.4 * (M_g - M_g sun))
         upsilon = 5
         M_lum = upsilon * L
         M_lum_total = np.sum(M_lum)
         print(f"Luminous mass: {M_lum_total:.2e} M_sun")
         print(f"Mass-to-light ratio: {M_dyn / np.sum(L):.2f} M_sun / L_sun")
        Luminous mass: 8.54e+12 M_sun
        Mass-to-light ratio: 179.82 M_sun / L_sun
In [21]: #Print all key results together for verification
         print(f"Cluster redshift: {cluster_redshift:.4f}")
         print(f"Velocity dispersion: {disp:.2f} km/s")
         print(f"Cluster diameter: {diameter:.2f} Mpc")
         print(f"Dynamical mass: {M_dyn:.2e} M_sun")
         print(f"Luminous mass: {M_lum_total:.2e} M_sun")
         print(f"Mass-to-light ratio: {M_dyn / np.sum(L):.2f} M_sun / L_sun")
        Cluster redshift: 0.0801
        Velocity dispersion: 1218.49 km/s
        Cluster diameter: 0.59 Mpc
        Dynamical mass: 3.07e+14 M_sun
        Luminous mass: 8.54e+12 M sun
        Mass-to-light ratio: 179.82 M_sun / L_sun
In [22]: ### RA vs. Dec Scatter Plot
         plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
         plt.scatter(filtered_df['ra'],filtered_df['dec'], s=50 , c='blue' , alpha=0.5)
         plt.xlabel('Right Ascension (deg)')
         plt.ylabel('Declination (deg)')
         plt.title('Spatial Distribution of Cluster Members')
         plt.grid(True)
         plt.show()
```



In []: