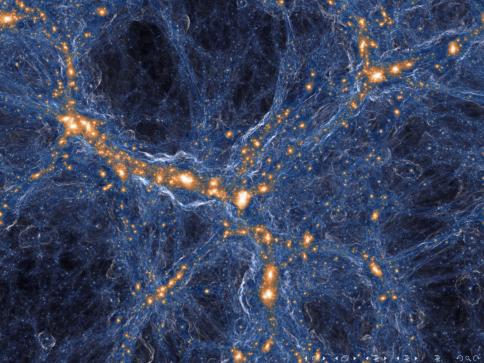
The Physics of Galaxy Clusters 4<sup>th</sup> Lecture

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Lectures in the International Astrophysics Masters Program at Potsdam University

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- $\Rightarrow$  Today's topic: we will learn how to count clusters and how clusters are built up.



● How do the characteristic length scale *R*(*M*) and its associated mass *M* differ from the characteristic length scale *R*(*M*<sub>\*</sub>) ≡ *R*<sub>\*</sub> with its associated "non-linear mass" *M*<sub>\*</sub>?



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where  $\Omega_m = \rho_m / \rho_{cr}$  is the mass density parameter.

• The "non-linear mass"  $M_*$  has a characteristic length scale  $R(M_*) \equiv R_*$  and is defined via

$$\sigma_{R_*}^2 = 4\pi \int_0^\infty \frac{k^2 dk}{(2\pi)^3} P(k) \hat{W}_{R_*}^2(k) = \delta_c^2 ,$$

where  $\delta_c = 1.686$ . Hence, if the density field is smoothed on the scale  $R_*$  then the variance of the resulting field is just equal to the collapse threshold.



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• This means that halos with mass  $M_*$  are forming today (or at the redshift that the analysis is performed at). Halos with  $M < M_*$  have been abundantly forming in the past because their variance is larger than the collapse threshold and halos with  $M > M_*$  are extremely rare (they must be large excursions) if they can form at all  $\Rightarrow$  see "Simplified Form of the Mass Function"



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- Here, we need to consider the formation process of the density fluctuations. The currently leading theory of "Cosmic Inflation" hypothesizes that quantum fluctuations in the inflaton and the graviton field are inflated to macroscopic perturbations with distinct properties. The inflaton is a hypothetical scalar field that drives the accelerated expansion in the early universe shortly after the Planck time,  $t_{\rm P} \approx 10^{-43}$  s.

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- Since the inflaton energy density got eventually converted to radiation and matter by means of the "reheating" process, inflaton fluctuations produce fluctuations in the primordial density field (which are called "scalar" fluctuations because of the scalar nature of the inflaton fields).
- Since the density fluctuations arise from superpositions of enormous numbers of statistically independent vacuum fluctuations of the inflaton field, they are expected to be Gaussian because of the central limit theorem.



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- If we consider consider a tessellation of the volume in the initial conditions and separate regions above and below the collapse threshold, then only the volume above the threshold is able to collapse into halos.
- We can picture this the following way: imagine a density field in two spatial dimensions that is visualized as a landscape with mountains and valleys.
- If we fill in water into this landscape up to the point, where the surface equals the collapse threshold δ<sub>c</sub>, then the islands denominate the regions that will collapse into halos. Hence, the probability of collapsing into such a halo equals the likelihood of finding the islands, i.e., it is the fraction of surface area covered by islands.



• The probability of finding a filtered density contrast  $\overline{\delta}(\mathbf{x})$  at  $\mathbf{x}$  is

$$p(\bar{\delta}, a) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_R^2(a)}} \exp\left[-rac{ar{\delta}^2(oldsymbol{x})}{2\sigma_R^2(a)}
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where the variance  $\sigma$  will depend on time or equivalently on the scale factor *a* through the linear growth factor,  $\sigma_R(a) = \sigma_R D_+(a)$  ( $D_+(a) = a$  in the Einstein-de-Sitter model with  $\Omega_m(a) = 1$ ).



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We adopt the substitution

$$x = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} rac{ar{\delta}}{\sigma_R(a)}$$
 and  $dx = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}\sigma_R(a)} dar{\delta}$ 

and obtain

$$F(M,a) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\delta_c/[\sqrt{2}\sigma_R(a)]}^{\infty} dx e^{-x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{\delta_c}{\sqrt{2}\sigma_R(a)}\right) \ ,$$

where  $\operatorname{erfc}(x)$  is the complementary error function.



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- The distribution of haloes over masses *M* (Eq. 2.81) reads

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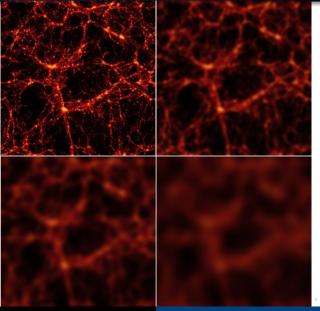
• We calculate the normalization of the Press-Schechter mass function:

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{\partial F(M)}{\partial M} \right| dM = \frac{\delta_{c}}{\sqrt{2\pi}D_{+}(a)} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{d\sigma_{R}}{\sigma_{R}^{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\delta_{c}^{2}}{2\sigma_{R}^{2}D_{+}^{2}(a)}\right)$$
$$= \frac{\delta_{c}}{\sqrt{2\pi}D_{+}(a)} \int_{0}^{\infty} dx \exp\left(-\frac{\delta_{c}^{2}}{2D_{+}^{2}(a)}x^{2}\right)$$
$$= \frac{\delta_{c}}{\sqrt{2\pi}D_{+}(a)} \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} \sqrt{\frac{D_{+}^{2}(a)}{\delta_{c}^{2}}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

where we adopted the substitutions  $\sigma_R^{-1} = x$  so that  $dx = -d\sigma_R/\sigma_R^2$ .



Progressive smoothing of the density field



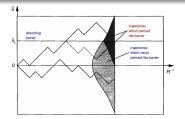
Christoph Pfrommer

The Physics of Galaxy Clusters

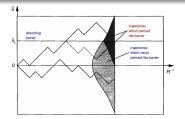
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● Consider halo formation as a random walk ⇒ correct normalisation of the Press-Schechter mass function



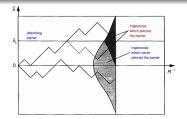


- Consider halo formation as a random walk ⇒ correct normalisation of the Press-Schechter mass function
- Given the density-contrast field δ, a large sphere is centred on some point x and its radius gradually shrunk. For each radius R of the sphere, the density contrast δ averaged within R is measured and monitored as a function of R.



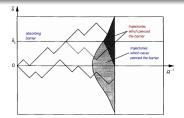
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- By choosing a window function W<sub>R</sub> whose Fourier transform has a sharp cut-off in k space, δ will undergo a random walk because decreasing R corresponds to adding shells in k space which are independent of the modes which are already included.





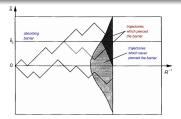
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- By choosing a window function W<sub>R</sub> whose Fourier transform has a sharp cut-off in k space, δ will undergo a random walk because decreasing R corresponds to adding shells in k space which are independent of the modes which are already included.
- $\overline{\delta}(\mathbf{x})$  is thus following a random trajectory. A halo is expected to be formed at  $\mathbf{x}$  if  $\overline{\delta}(\mathbf{x})$  reaches  $\delta_c$  for some radius  $\mathbf{R}$ .
- If  $\bar{\delta}(\mathbf{x}) < \delta_c$  for some radius, it may well exceed  $\delta_c$  for a smaller radius. Or, if  $\bar{\delta}(\mathbf{x}) \ge \delta_c$  for some radius, it may well drop below  $\delta_c$  for a smaller radius.





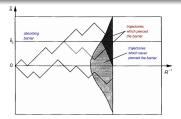
• Explain the physical reason for the missing factor of two and why this has been missed in the first derivation.





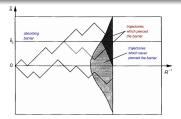
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- We introduce an *absorbing barrier* at δ<sub>c</sub> such that points *x* with trajectories δ̄(*x*) vs. *R* which hit the barrier for some *R* are considered to be part of halos.
- A trajectory meeting the boundary (for the first time) at radius R' has equal probability for moving above or below at smaller R. For any trajectory continuing above the boundary (and thus being part of a halo), there is a mirror trajectory that falls back below the boundary at R < R'.





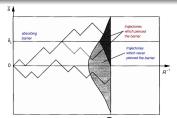
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- However, as this latter trajectory has reached the boundary at R' it will be part of a halo with mass  $\sim M(R')$ . Thus, for each trajectory piercing the barrier for the first time at R' and reaching  $\bar{\delta}(\mathbf{x}) > \delta_c$  at R there is another trajectory, which reached the barrier at R' but has  $\bar{\delta}(\mathbf{x}) < \delta_c$  at R. Thus, the integral in Eqn. (2.78) recovers only half of the points that end up in a halo of mass  $\geq M(R)$ .





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- It missed the dark grey halo population below the barrier that have pierced (or touched) the barrier at some smoothing radius R' > R.

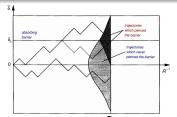




• Thus, the probability for reaching a point  $\overline{\delta} < \delta_c$  along trajectories exclusively below the barrier after piercing the absorbing barrier is the probability for reaching it along *any* trajectory, minus the probability for reaching its mirror point  $\delta_c + (\delta_c - \overline{\delta}) = 2\delta_c - \overline{\delta}$  along trajectories that continue above the barrier,

$$p_{\rm S}(\bar{\delta}) {\rm d}\bar{\delta} = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_R} \left[ \exp\left(-rac{\bar{\delta}^2}{2\sigma_R^2}\right) - \exp\left(-rac{(2\delta_{\rm C}-\bar{\delta})^2}{2\sigma_R^2}\right) 
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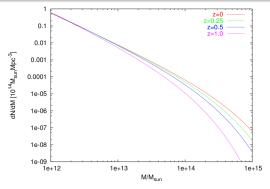
This equation is the probability distribution for the averaged density contrast to fall within [δ̄, δ̄ + dδ̄] and *not* to exceed δ<sub>c</sub> when averaged on *any* scale. The probability for δ̄ to *exceed* δ<sub>c</sub> on some scale is thus

$$1 - P_{\rm s} = 1 - \int_{-\infty}^{\delta_{\rm c}} {\rm d}\bar{\delta} \, \rho_{\rm s}(\bar{\delta}) = {
m erfc}\left(rac{\delta_{\rm c}}{\sqrt{2}\sigma_R}
ight) \, ,$$

without the factor 1/2 in the previous derivation.

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## Simplified form of the mass function



• For a power-law power spectrum with index n,  $P_{\delta}(k) = Ak^n$ , the Press-Schechter mass function is given by  $(m = M/M_*)$ 

$$f(m,a)dm \equiv \frac{dN(m,a)}{dm}dm \propto m^{\alpha-2} \exp\left(-m^{2\alpha}\right) dm,$$

where we defined  $\alpha = 1/2 + n/6$  so that  $\alpha = 0$  for n = -3.

At small halo masses there is roughly an equal mass per log bin in halo mass,

$$m dN/d \log m = m^2 dN/dm \approx \text{const.}$$

# Halo density profiles

 General remarks. Scrutinize the statement that a self-gravitating system of particles does not have an equilibrium state.



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- The virial theorem demands that its total energy (E = K + V) is minus half its potential energy (V),

$$2K + V = E + K = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad K = -E = -\frac{V}{2}.$$

so that we get V < 0 for self-gravitating systems.



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- This can happen through the ejection of a body by means of three-body encounters. As the halo becomes more tightly bound, this in turn increases its energy loss because the dynamical timescale is reduced by this contraction: as the system ejects (kinetic) energy, it increases its potential energy which means that a self-gravitating system has a negative heat capacity.



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- Assume that you have a globular cluster of 10<sup>6</sup> stars and size 10 pc. Explain what happens to the system when you eject one star after each other. What is the theoretical end state?



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so that we get V < 0 for self-gravitating systems.

- The total energy of a system is conserved. When stars with positive kinetic energy leave the self-gravitating cloud of particles, the energy remaining in the particle cloud must become more negative, so the stars are more tightly bound as the potential (energy) deepens.
- This can happen through the ejection of a body by means of three-body encounters. As the halo becomes more tightly bound, this in turn increases its energy loss because the dynamical timescale is reduced by this contraction: as the system ejects (kinetic) energy, it increases its potential energy which means that a self-gravitating system has a negative heat capacity.
- Assume that you have a globular cluster of 10<sup>6</sup> stars and size 10 pc. Explain what happens to the system when you eject one star after each other. What is the theoretical end state?
- A binary star, but this state is never reached because of the slow timescales (dynamical friction).



# Singular isothermal sphere

 Show explicitly that a power-law ansatz in ρ(r) yields the expression for the singular isothermal sphere,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r^2\frac{\mathrm{d}\ln\rho}{\mathrm{d}r}\right) = -\frac{4\pi Gm}{k_{\mathrm{B}}T}r^2\rho \,.$$



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Inserting this into the ordinary differential equation yields

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}(-\alpha r) = -\alpha = -4\pi \frac{\mathrm{G}m}{k_{\mathrm{B}}T} \mathrm{C}r^{2-\alpha}$$

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This has the solution

$$\alpha = 2$$
 and  $C = \frac{k_{\rm B}T}{2\pi Gm}$ 

 $\rho(r) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2\pi G r^2} \quad \text{with} \quad \sigma^2 \equiv \frac{k_{\text{B}} T}{m} .$ 

AIP

or

Christoph Pfrommer The Physics of Galaxy Clusters

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is given by

$$M(< r) = 4\pi \int_0^r \rho(r') r'^2 dr' = \frac{2\sigma^2}{G}r = \frac{2k_{\rm B}T}{Gm}r,$$

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 Simulations of collapsing collisionless dark matter show a dark matter density profile that differs from the isothermal sphere. Instead, the profile is better fit by Navarro-Frenk-White (NFW) density profile.



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Compare the different definitions for halo mass, M<sub>200</sub>, M<sub>200m</sub>, and M<sub>500</sub> and order them by increasing size,



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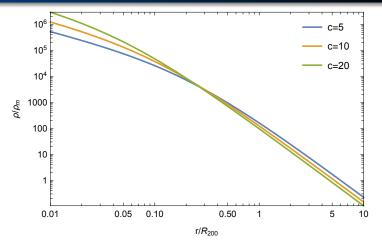
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$$M_{500} < M_{200} < M_{200m}.$$

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Sketch qualitatively the scaled NFW density profiles log(\(\rho\/\rho\_{200}\)) for two different halos which only differ by their concentration parameters. What do you observe? Which halo is on average more massive?





- Sketch qualitatively the scaled NFW density profiles log(ρ/ρ<sub>200</sub>) for two different halos which only differ by their concentration parameters. What do you observe? Which halo is on average more massive?
- More concentrated halos have a larger density at small radii and are on average less massive because of the concentration-mass relation,  $c_{200} \propto M_{200}^{-0.1}$ .



- $\Rightarrow$  We learned how to count clusters and how clusters are built up:
  - The Press-Schechter mass function
    - \* probability of high-density excursions in the filtered density contrast on scale R = fraction of volume filled with halos of mass M
    - $^{*}$  correct normalization: considering halo formation as a random walk and identify collapse threshold  $\delta_{\rm c}$  as absorbing barrier



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  - Halo density profiles:
    - \* self-gravitating systems have a negative heat capacity: once they cool they become hotter
    - \* singular/cored isothermal sphere is a simple model for spherically-symmetric, self-gravitating systems of single-temperature particles
    - \* Navarro-Frenk-White (NFW) density profile is a two-parameter model (normalization + scale radius or halo mass + concentration) measured in dark-matter simulations

