

# Seeing patterns in noise: gigaparsec-scale ‘structures’ that do not violate homogeneity

Seshadri Nadathur<sup>★</sup>

*Fakultät für Physik, Universität Bielefeld, Postfach 100131, D-33501 Bielefeld, Germany*

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## ABSTRACT

Clowes et al. have recently reported the discovery of a large quasar group (LQG), dubbed the Huge-LQG, at redshift  $z \sim 1.3$  in the Data Release 7 (DR7) quasar catalogue of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey. On the basis of its characteristic size  $\sim 500$  Mpc and longest dimension  $>1$  Gpc, it is claimed that this structure is incompatible with large-scale homogeneity and the cosmological principle. If true, this would represent a serious challenge to the standard cosmological model. However, the homogeneity scale is an average property which is not necessarily affected by the discovery of a single large structure. I clarify this point and provide the first fractal dimension analysis of the DR7 quasar catalogue to demonstrate that it is in fact homogeneous above scales of at most  $130 h^{-1}$  Mpc, which is much less than the upper limit for  $\Lambda$  cold dark matter. In addition, I show that the algorithm used to identify the Huge-LQG regularly finds even larger clusters of points, extending over Gpc scales, in explicitly homogeneous simulations of a Poisson point process with the same density as the quasar catalogue. This provides a simple null test to be applied to any cluster thus found in a real catalogue and suggests that the interpretation of LQGs as ‘structures’ is misleading.

**Key words:** methods: statistical – surveys – quasars: general – cosmology: observations – large-scale structure of Universe.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

A fundamental assumption of the standard  $\Lambda$  cold dark matter ( $\Lambda$ CDM) cosmological model, and indeed of all cosmological models based on a Friedmann–Robertson–Walker (FRW) metric, is that the Universe is close to homogeneous and isotropic. This means that properties of the Universe such as the matter density or the number density of galaxies should be invariant of spatial position. This is self-evidently not true on small scales and late times, where the distribution of matter is highly inhomogeneous and fluctuations are large. It is assumed that when viewed on larger scales, fluctuations should become smaller, and above a certain scale ( $\sim 100 h^{-1}$  Mpc in the standard  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology) they should be small enough to be negligible.

Clearly such a statement is somewhat ambiguous, in that it depends on what size of fluctuation is regarded as negligible. Indeed, the standard inflationary cosmology predicts fluctuations in the gravitational potential of similar amplitude on all scales, meaning that fluctuations in the matter density also do not go precisely to zero at any scale.

From a theoretical perspective, it may be interesting to ask whether the late-time inhomogeneities can affect the evolution

of average quantities through the ‘backreaction mechanism’ (e.g. Buchert 2000; Ellis & Buchert 2005; Li & Schwarz 2007), rendering the exactly homogeneous and isotropic FRW models insufficient.<sup>1</sup> This is still an open area of research; see Räsänen (2011); Buchert & Räsänen (2012) for recent reviews. From an observational perspective, the question is instead one of consistency: do the observed density fluctuations at different scales agree with the expectations in the standard cosmological model?

For fluctuations in the dark matter density field, such a question can only be addressed indirectly, for instance through measurement of the effect of large dark matter inhomogeneities on the cosmic microwave background via the Sachs–Wolfe (ISW) effect of isolated structures. Indeed, there is evidence of tension between the observed and expected ISW signals of the rarest structures at scales of  $\gtrsim 100 h^{-1}$  Mpc (see for instance Granett, Neyrinck & Szapudi 2008; Hernandez-Monteagudo & Smith 2012; Nadathur, Hotchkiss & Sarkar 2012; Flender, Hotchkiss & Nadathur 2013), which may indicate that dark matter inhomogeneities on such scales are larger than expected.

<sup>1</sup> In such a scenario, a less stringent version of the cosmological principle, postulating statistical homogeneity and isotropy but allowing for large perturbations away from an FRW metric, can be adopted.

<sup>★</sup> E-mail: seshadri@physik.uni-bielefeld.de

Inhomogeneities in the distribution of visible matter can be studied more directly. Given any large redshift catalogue of visible objects that trace the matter density field, two distinct approaches may be taken to the question of testing whether it is compatible with  $\Lambda$ CDM (or any other FRW cosmological model).

The first approach is to determine whether the catalogue as a whole is homogeneous on large scales, and if it is, whether the onset of homogeneity thus measured occurs at the scales expected in  $\Lambda$ CDM. This is usually done using a fractal analysis based on the ‘counts-in-spheres’ measurement of the average number of objects  $N(<R)$  contained within spheres of radius  $R$  centred on an object in the catalogue. This average scales as  $N(<R) \propto R^{D_2}$ , which serves to define the correlation dimension  $D_2(R)$ . For a homogeneous distribution,  $N(<R)$  should scale as  $R^3$ , i.e.  $D_2 = 3$ . The scale above which a given catalogue satisfies this property to within the desired precision may be referred to as the homogeneity scale. Yadav, Bagla & Khandai (2010) provide a conservative upper limit of  $R_H < 260 h^{-1}$  Mpc for the scale by which this transition should be observed in the  $\Lambda$ CDM model; in practice the scale is expected to be much smaller.

Historically, there was some debate over whether such a transition to homogeneity had been observed in shallow redshift surveys that were not ideally suited to this test (see Scrimgeour et al. 2012, and references within for a summary). Using the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) luminous red galaxy (LRG) sample (Eisenstein et al. 2001), which is better suited to such tests, Hogg et al. (2005) found a homogeneity scale of  $R_H \sim 70 h^{-1}$  Mpc. Subsequently, Scrimgeour et al. (2012) showed (using a slightly different definition of  $R_H$ ) that subsamples of the WiggleZ survey (Drinkwater et al. 2010) are compatible with homogeneity at scales above  $70 \lesssim R_H \lesssim 90 h^{-1}$  Mpc. On the other hand, some authors claim to find no large-scale homogeneity in other catalogues (Sylos Labini, Vasilyev & Baryshev 2009a,b; Sylos Labini 2011). Actually, this is a basic test of homogeneity which should be applied to every redshift catalogue independently. This is because even if the matter distribution of the Universe is homogeneous, the distribution of galaxies in an inappropriately chosen sample may not be. Large-scale homogeneity of a given catalogue is however a necessary pre-condition for other statistical quantities determined from it, such as the two-point correlation function, to be meaningful (Gabielli et al. 2005).

The second approach to testing compatibility with  $\Lambda$ CDM, which may usefully be applied even to a catalogue passing the first test, is to search for specific rare structures or density fluctuations within it. The properties of such structures, if found, can then be carefully compared with the predictions for their existence in  $\Lambda$ CDM. This approach is independent of the fractal analysis, in the sense both that it is possible to have individual structures consistent with a  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology that extend over scales larger than the homogeneity scale, and that structures which contradict the detailed predictions of  $\Lambda$ CDM need not affect the overall homogeneity of the catalogue. This is because  $N(<R)$  and  $D_2(R)$  are *average* quantities, so the homogeneity scale is a property of the catalogue considered as a whole and – for a large enough catalogue – only weakly affected by individual fluctuations.

Some examples of luminous superclusters found in the 2dF Galaxy Redshift Survey (GRS) and the SDSS Data Release 4 (DR4) have been claimed to be in some tension with predictions (Einasto et al. 2006, 2007a,b). Studies of other structures in the 2dFGRS (Murphy, Eke & Frenk 2011; Yaryura, Baugh & Angulo 2011) also hint towards tension with theoretical expectations, although it is not clear whether the discrepancy is due to failings of the  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmological model or to models of galaxy formation.

In following the second approach and testing the standard cosmology through observations of individual structures, however, care must be taken in the correct quantification of the likelihood of their existence in the standard model, which will in general depend on the definition of what constitutes a ‘structure’. For instance, the Sloan Great Wall (SGW; Gott et al. 2005) – a filamentary structure identified in the SDSS galaxy distribution that extends over more than 400 Mpc – has been suggested to be extremely unlikely in  $\Lambda$ CDM (Sheth & Diaferio 2011), yet Park et al. (2012) find that structures as large or larger are in fact not unusual in large  $N$ -body cosmological simulations.

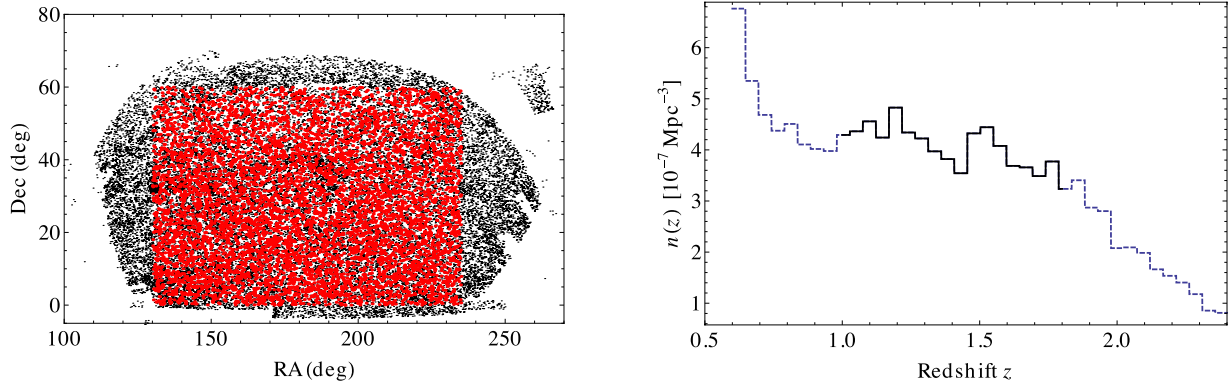
Recently, however, Clowes et al. (2013) have reported the discovery of an even larger structure in the SDSS Data Release 7 quasar catalogue (DR7QSO; Schneider et al. 2010), identified through the use of a three-dimensional single-linkage hierarchical clustering algorithm. Known as the Huge-large quasar group (LQG), this structure is reported to have a characteristic size (defined as volume<sup>1/3</sup>) of  $\sim 500$  Mpc, and a longest dimension in excess of 1 Gpc, making it far larger than the SGW. It is claimed that the existence of such a structure is incompatible with the Yadav et al. (2010) upper limit to the scale of homogeneity, and thus challenges the cosmological principle.<sup>2</sup> If true, this would be a very significant discovery.

However, although the quoted dimensions of the Huge-LQG are at first sight surprisingly large, it is not at all clear what implications it has for the question of the scale of homogeneity of the catalogue as a whole. It is also not clear how unlikely the Huge-LQG actually is in  $\Lambda$ CDM, nor what role the clustering algorithm used in its detection has in assessing this likelihood.

These are the questions addressed in this paper. To do so, I first apply a fractal analysis to the DR7QSO catalogue and demonstrate that it is in fact entirely compatible with homogeneity at large scales. As already mentioned, the exact definition of ‘the scale of homogeneity’ is somewhat ambiguous, and in any case the rather sparse nature of the quasar catalogue (mean nearest neighbour distances are  $\sim 75$  Mpc) means it is not well suited to a precise determination; however,  $R_H$  is certainly less than  $\sim 130 h^{-1}$  Mpc. On the other hand, the extremely large volume of the DR7QSO catalogue and its relatively simple geometry mean that the fractal analysis can be applied without requiring additional prior assumptions about the large-scale homogeneity that is the subject of the test. This was not the case for the analysis by Scrimgeour et al. (2012), due to the use of a correction to number counts for incompletely sampled spheres that pre-supposed homogeneity, though the effect of this was argued to be small. It was also not the case for Hogg et al. (2005), where, although no completeness corrections were used,  $N(<R)$  counts were normalized relative to those expected in a homogeneous distribution.

I then investigate the role of the hierarchical clustering algorithm used by Clowes et al. (2013) to identify the Huge-LQG by applying it to 10 000 homogeneous simulations of a Poisson point process with the same number density of points as the DR7QSO catalogue, and finding the largest ‘cluster’ in each. I examine the dependence of the cluster size on the minimum single-linkage length cutoff used to define a cluster and provide a simple fit in terms of extreme value statistical distributions. Clusters of points as large as the Huge-LQG

<sup>2</sup> Actually the cosmological principle, understood in the sense of requiring only statistical homogeneity and isotropy as discussed above, makes no statement about the *scale* above which this homogeneity should be achieved. The implied challenge of the Huge-LQG is really specifically to the  $\Lambda$ CDM model.



**Figure 1.** Left-hand panel: the small black points show the right ascension and declination coordinates of DR7QSO quasars around the North Galactic Pole. The larger, red points show the coordinates of those quasars which are part of the SCR subsample. For display purposes, only one-third of the quasars in each group, selected at random, are shown in this figure. Right-hand panel: the redshift distribution of DR7QSO quasars that satisfy the  $(\alpha, \delta)$  cuts applied in the text. The blue dashed line shows the comoving number density for all quasars and the solid black line for those in the redshift range  $1.0 \leq z \leq 1.8$  used to define the SCR.

or larger – both in membership and in spatial extent – are found in about 8.5 per cent of these simulations. This shows that the statistical significance attributed to the discovery of the Huge-LQG is vastly overstated, and that it is entirely compatible with random expectations. This conclusion applies even more strongly to other smaller quasar groups reported in the past (Clowes & Campusano 1991; Clowes et al. 2012). In light of this, I suggest that it is misleading to refer to these quasar groups as ‘structures’ at all.

In Section 2, I briefly describe the criteria used to select a suitable subsample from the DR7QSO catalogue and some of its properties. Section 3.1 describes the fractal analysis test for large-scale homogeneity and different definitions of the average ‘scale of homogeneity’. Section 3.2 discusses some aspects of the hierarchical clustering approach to finding structures. I describe the methodology used in this paper in Section 4 and the results in Section 5. The implications for homogeneity and the interpretation of LQGs as ‘structures’ are discussed in Section 6.

For calculation of cosmological distances, I assume a flat Universe with the parameter values  $\Omega_M = 0.27$ ,  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.73$  and  $H_0 = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ . All distances quoted are comoving distances.

## 2 THE SDSS QUASAR CATALOGUE

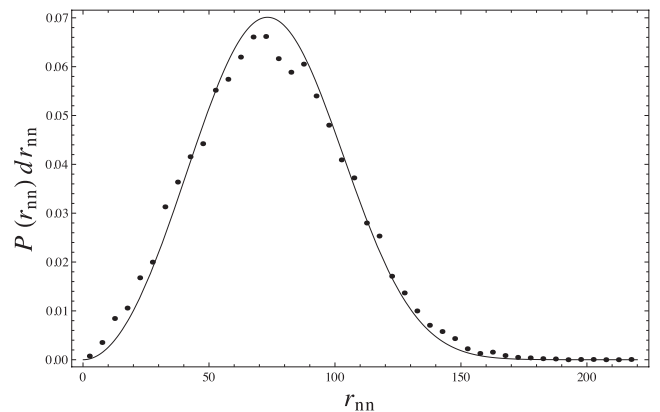
In this work, I use the SDSS DR7QSO catalogue of 105 783 quasars (Schneider et al. 2010). The majority of these quasars were identified as part of the SDSS Legacy Survey, which consists of a large contiguous area around the North Galactic Pole (known as the North Galactic Cap or NGC) and some narrow stripes near the celestial equator. Some additional quasars found on a series of ‘special plates’ complete the rest of the catalogue. In total the catalogue covers a region of  $\simeq 9380 \text{ deg}^2$  on the sky.

The DR7QSO catalogue does not constitute a statistical sample due to changes in the target strategy at different redshifts. However, if focusing on only the low-redshift ( $z \lesssim 2$ ) quasars, a satisfactorily homogeneous selection can be achieved by limiting the *i*-band magnitude to  $i \leq 19.1$  (Vanden Berk et al. 2005; Richards et al. 2006; Schneider et al. 2010). This is also the selection criterion applied by Clowes et al. (2012, 2013), and is therefore adopted here. Following these papers, this analysis also considers only those quasars in the redshift range  $1.0 \leq z \leq 1.8$ . In order to avoid the complications of jagged boundaries for calculating the counts-in-spheres test and comparison with simulated homogeneous distributions, the

sample is further restricted to the contiguous region within the NGC bounded by right ascension  $130^\circ \leq \alpha \leq 235^\circ$  and declination  $0^\circ \leq \delta \leq 60^\circ$ .

I shall refer to the subsample thus defined as the simple contiguous region (SCR). It contains 18 722 quasars and completely encompasses the Huge-LQG of Clowes et al. (2013), the smaller U1.28 and U1.11 quasar groups of Clowes et al. (2012) as well as the ‘control region’ designated A3725 by those authors. Fig. 1 shows the angular distribution of these quasars in  $(\alpha, \delta)$  coordinates superimposed on the distribution of all quasars around the North Galactic Pole, and their comoving number density as a function of  $z$ . The redshift distribution over the range  $1.0 \leq z \leq 1.8$ , though not completely flat, is sufficiently uniform for our purposes.

Because of its high central redshift, depth and wide angular extent, the SCR occupies a very large comoving volume,  $\sim 46 \text{ Gpc}^3$ . This makes it well suited to testing the homogeneity of the quasar distribution on extremely large scales. It is however extremely sparse, with a mean nearest neighbour separation of  $\bar{r}_{\text{nn}} = 74.5 \text{ Mpc}$ . This is remarkably close to the mean nearest neighbour distance for a homogeneous Poisson distribution of points with the same mean density,  $\bar{r}_{\text{nn}}^{\text{P}} \equiv 0.55 (N/V)^{-1/3} = 74.3 \text{ Mpc}$ . Fig. 2 shows the distribution of nearest neighbour distances for the SCR, and the



**Figure 2.** The distribution of nearest neighbour distances for quasars in the SCR subsample. The black points show the relative numbers in bins of 5 Mpc width. The solid line shows the theoretical expectation for a homogeneous Poisson distribution of the same number points in the same volume.

expectation for the Poisson case; despite expected broadening of the tails due to clustering effects, the two are indeed very similar.

Although the SCR encompasses the Huge-LQG, in performing their algorithmic search for quasar clusters, Clowes et al. (2013) did not impose the tighter angular cuts applied here but instead included all quasars in the NGC region that satisfied the redshift selection criterion. The mean nearest neighbour distance for this larger set of NGC quasars is not much larger,  $\bar{r}_{\text{nn}} = 75.2$  Mpc.

### 3 TESTING HOMOGENEITY WITH REDSHIFT CATALOGUES

#### 3.1 Fractal analysis

The simplest test of homogeneity that can be applied to any point set is based on the average of the number of neighbouring points  $N_i(<R)$  contained within a sphere of radius  $R$  centred on the  $i$ th member of the point set, with the requirement that the entire sphere lies within the distribution of points:

$$N(<R) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M N_i(<R), \quad (1)$$

where  $M$  is the number of sphere centres. For a homogeneous distribution  $N(<R) \propto R^D$ , where  $D$  is the number of dimensions, three in this case. The correlation dimension  $D_2(R)$  is calculated as the derivative

$$D_2(R) = \frac{d \ln N(<R)}{d \ln R}, \quad (2)$$

and it quantifies the deviation from this homogeneous scaling.

For any given catalogue of objects that trace the matter density of the Universe,  $N(<R)$  can be related to the two-point correlation function  $\xi(r)$  by

$$N(<R) = \bar{\rho} \int_0^R (1 + b^2 \xi(r)) 4\pi r^2 dr, \quad (3)$$

where  $\bar{\rho}$  is the mean matter density and  $b$  is the bias of the tracer population. Note that the relationship in equation (3) requires the assumption that the homogeneous background exists at large scales, as it is only under this assumption that  $\bar{\rho}$  and  $\xi(r)$  are meaningful quantities.  $N(<R)$  can however be calculated for any catalogue without assuming homogeneity.

As can be seen from equations (2) and (3), clustering effects mean that even in the standard  $\Lambda$ CDM model,  $D_2 < 3$  on small scales. Indeed it is known that on small scales the two-point correlation function measured in galaxy surveys is well approximated by a power-law form

$$\xi(r) = \left(\frac{r_0}{r}\right)^\gamma,$$

where  $r_0 \simeq 5h^{-1}$  Mpc and  $\gamma \sim 1.8$  (e.g. Peebles 1993). On larger scales, if the galaxy sample in question approaches homogeneity,  $D_2$  should asymptotically approach 3. However, the precise definition of the scale above which homogeneity is achieved is a subjective question, which depends on the criterion by which differences from homogeneous scaling are judged.

Gabrielli et al. (2005) use individual  $N_i(<R)$  rather than the average  $N(<R)$ , and define the homogeneity scale as the value of  $\lambda_0$  such that

$$\left| \frac{3N_i(<R)}{4\pi R^3} - \rho_g \right| < \rho_g \quad \forall R > \lambda_0, \quad \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, M\}, \quad (4)$$

where  $\rho_g = N/V$  is the overall density of points in the set. This definition is extremely restrictive, since the condition must be satisfied for *all* centres. It therefore also has the disadvantage that the existence of rare fluctuations means that  $\lambda_0$  must increase as the number of centres  $M$  grows, so that the homogeneity scale of a galaxy catalogue increases with its size.

Bagla, Yadav & Seshadri (2007) suggest instead defining the scale of homogeneity as being the scale at which the average correlation dimension is consistent with the homogeneity value within one standard deviation, i.e.  $|D_2(R) - 3| < \sigma_{\Delta D_2}$ . However, such a definition is also survey dependent, since the error bars on the data depend on the survey size, details of its geometry and selection function, as well as shot noise and cosmic variance effects. Considering only the latter two contributions to  $\sigma_{\Delta D_2}$ , Yadav et al. (2010) find an upper limit to the homogeneity scale of  $260 h^{-1}$  Mpc. Using this definition, the scale actually measured in a real survey will necessarily be smaller. Indeed, Hogg et al. (2005) appear to use a similar criterion applied to  $N(<R)$  determined for the SDSS LRG sample (Eisenstein et al. 2001), and find scaling compatible with homogeneity at scales  $\gtrsim 70 h^{-1}$  Mpc.

Scrimgeour et al. (2012) choose instead to define the homogeneity scale as that scale above which a polynomial fit to either  $N(<R)$  or  $D_2(R)$  determined from the data crosses an arbitrary threshold, in this case taken to be 1 per cent away from the homogeneous value. Such a definition avoids the problem of survey-dependent errors, but depends instead on the bias of the tracer population and the survey epoch; for different subsamples of the WiggleZ survey they find values in the range  $70 \lesssim R_H \lesssim 90 h^{-1}$  Mpc.

Both the latter two definitions of the homogeneity scale depend on the *average* quantities  $D_2(R)$  and  $N(<R)$  determined over all sphere centres. For a large enough survey, this means that fluctuations about any small subset of sphere centres have little effect on the result. Therefore, the existence of individual void or cluster structures in a galaxy or quasar catalogue cannot be used to make inferences about its large-scale homogeneity. Such individual structures *would* affect the scale  $\lambda_0$  defined in equation (4); however, this definition is not commonly used in homogeneity studies.

#### 3.2 Hierarchical clustering

A simple method of identifying structures in a point set such as the DR7QSO catalogue is to use a three-dimensional single-linkage hierarchical clustering algorithm, also sometimes called a percolation algorithm or a ‘friends-of-friends’ algorithm. In this method, points are grouped together by placing spheres of radius  $L$  centred on each point of the catalogue. Overlapping spheres then constitute a ‘cluster’, the membership or ‘richness’ of each cluster being denoted by  $k$ .

This method has been used to search for clusters in several different astrophysical contexts, including Huchra & Geller (1982), Press & Davis (1982), Clowes & Campusano (1991), Einasto et al. (1997), Sheth & Diaferio (2011), Clowes et al. (2012), Park et al. (2012) and Clowes et al. (2013). The advantage of such an algorithm is that it is independent of assumptions about the shape or morphology of the clusters. However, the interpretation of the results depends on appropriate choice of the linkage length  $L$ .

One option is to choose  $L$  to maximize the fraction of clusters found that match some physical characteristics expected to correspond to those of real structures. Another is to maximize the number of clusters of  $k > 1$ . By simply increasing  $L$ , one can certainly increase the likelihood of finding a large cluster of points, but this may not correspond to any physical structure. The probability of

such false positive detections must be considered when specifically searching for large clusters.

To quantify this, we can parametrize  $L$  in terms of the mean nearest neighbour separation of points in the set  $\bar{r}_{\text{nn}}$ :

$$L = \beta \bar{r}_{\text{nn}}.$$

For a homogeneous Poisson distribution of points, a critical percolation threshold exists above which infinite clusters (in practical terms, clusters which extend from one boundary of the volume in question to another) start to appear. This occurs at  $\beta_c \simeq 1.57$  (Gayda & Ottavi 1974; Fremlin 1976).

The linkage length chosen by Clowes et al. (2012, 2013) is  $L = 100$  Mpc. Given the values of  $\bar{r}_{\text{nn}}$  found in Section 2, this gives a value of  $\beta$  that is at least 1.33. Although this is below the critical threshold, the value appears quite large and clearly increases the probability of finding spurious large clusters in noise. Note here that the Huge-LQG consists of only 73 quasars out of a total of  $\sim 19\,000$  in the SCR subsample, so it does not have a particularly large membership. Therefore, a careful estimation of the probability that such a cluster could be found in random noise is required.

Clowes et al. (2013) attempt to do this by calculating the volume of the convex hull of spheres of radius 33 Mpc (half the mean linkage length of member quasars of the Huge-LQG) placed at the 73 member locations. This volume is called the convex hull of member spheres (CHMS) volume of the Huge-LQG, and is then compared with the average CHMS volume of 73 uniformly distributed points placed in a box of volume such that the number density of points approximately matches that of the DR7QSO quasars, over 1000 realizations. Based on this, the authors claim that the Huge-LQG represents a  $3.81\sigma$  departure from random expectations.

However, such a comparison is essentially meaningless. It is hardly surprising that the 73 members of the Huge-LQG occupy a smaller volume than the same number of uniformly distributed points, since the cluster-finding algorithm explicitly ensures that they constitute the most tightly linked group of 73 quasars that could be selected from the full SCR subsample of 18 722! Instead a sensible estimation of the probability that the Huge-LQG could arise from noise can only be made by comparing it to the largest cluster found by applying the same algorithm to a random catalogue of the *same size and density*. This is done as described in the next section.

#### 4 METHODOLOGY

This section describes the methodology used in testing the SCR quasar subsample according to the two approaches described above. In order to apply these tests the redshift and angular coordinates of each quasar are first converted into comoving Cartesian coordinates

$$x = \chi \cos \delta \cos \alpha, \quad y = \chi \cos \delta \sin \alpha, \quad z = -\chi \sin \delta,$$

where  $\chi(z)$  is the comoving distance to redshift  $z$ , and  $(\alpha, \delta)$  are the right ascension and declination coordinates of the quasar. Comoving distances are calculated for a  $\Lambda$ CDM model with parameter values stated above. This introduces an implicit and unavoidable prior assumption of homogeneity and isotropy. However, this is the only such assumption made in the analysis. If the quasar distribution truly were inhomogeneous in some way, one might reasonably expect that this would still be measurable using the fractal analysis (see Scrimgeour et al. 2012 for further discussion of this point).

#### 4.1 Determining $N(<R)$ and $D_2(R)$

The first step in the fractal analysis of the SCR subsample is the determination of the average counts in spheres  $N(<R)$  defined by equation (1). This is done at 21 logarithmically spaced values of  $R$  between 30 and 500 Mpc. At each radius, only those quasars are chosen as sphere centres for which the entire sphere is located within the boundaries used to define the SCR subsample. Other methods for correcting for boundary effects without restricting the number of sphere centres could also be used (Martinez et al. 1998; Pan & Coles 2002; Scrimgeour et al. 2012) but these make further undesirable a priori assumptions about the homogeneity or isotropy of the sample. Due to the size of the SCR volume, the restriction used here allows the use of a relatively large number of quasars as sphere centres even at large  $R$  and so is adequate for our purposes.

Having obtained the  $N(<R)$  values for different sphere radii  $R$ ,  $D_2(R)$  can be calculated from equation (2) using a finite-difference approximation for the derivative.

For convenience of visualization, the  $N(<R)$  values are scaled relative to the value at  $R = 500$  Mpc by dividing by a factor of  $(R/500)^3 N(<500)$ . This rescaling ensures that at  $R = 500$  Mpc, the scaled  $N(<R)$  values must necessarily be equal to 1. However, if homogeneity is attained before this scale (as expected) then the scaled  $N(<R)$  should approach 1 and stay at 1 above some smaller scale. Alternatively, the approach to homogeneity can be judged by the values of  $D_2(R)$ , which should approach 3 and stay at 3 for a homogeneous distribution. Note that this scaling procedure is different to those used in previous analyses (Hogg et al. 2005; Scrimgeour et al. 2012) which introduced a further assumption of homogeneity.<sup>3</sup>

To estimate the errors in these measured values, I use 100 realizations of a homogeneous Poisson distribution of the same number of points within the SCR volume, and determine  $N(<R)$  and  $D_2(R)$  for each realization as before. The covariance matrix between radial bins  $i$  and  $j$  is calculated by

$$C_{ij} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n |(X_i(R_i) - \overline{X(R_i)})|(X_i(R_j) - \overline{X(R_j)})|, \quad (5)$$

where  $X(R)$  is either  $N(<R)$  or  $D_2(R)$ , the sum is over  $n = 100$  realizations and the bar denotes the average quantity determined over the realizations. The diagonal elements of this covariance matrix give the variance  $\sigma^2$  at each radius.

Strictly speaking, the errors calculated using equation (5) are the errors that would be expected in a homogeneous distribution, and not those expected in the quasar catalogue below the homogeneity scale since gravitational clustering effects have been neglected. However, Fig. 2 provides reason to believe that the effects of clustering in the SCR subsample are small; in addition, for the primary purpose of determining the scale above which the distribution is indistinguishable from a homogeneous one, considering the error bars for the homogeneous distribution is sufficient.

<sup>3</sup> Rescaling  $N(<R)$  by the values expected in a homogeneous distribution, as done in these two papers, pre-supposes the existence of a mean density on the scale of the survey, ensuring that the rescaled value approaches unity on these scales. This would not affect the behaviour of  $D_2(R)$ , which could still be used to judge the approach to homogeneity; unfortunately Hogg et al. (2005) did not consider this quantity.

## 4.2 Finding clusters in simulations

In order to identify clusters of quasars according to the clustering algorithm used by Clowes et al. (2013), I make use of the Hierarchical Clustering package in *MATHEMATICA* to create a cluster hierarchy based on the distance matrix for the quasar coordinates. For an input maximum linkage length  $L$ , this hierarchy is then explored using a custom code to select the largest cluster by membership which satisfies the linkage length cutoff. If two clusters have the same number of members, the one with the smaller maximum linkage length is selected.

To check the functioning of the algorithm, I applied it to the SCR subsample with  $L = 100$  Mpc as used by Clowes et al., and confirmed that it identified the 73 quasars of the Huge-LQG as reported. The maximum distance between any two quasars in this group is  $D_{\max} \approx 1076$  Mpc.

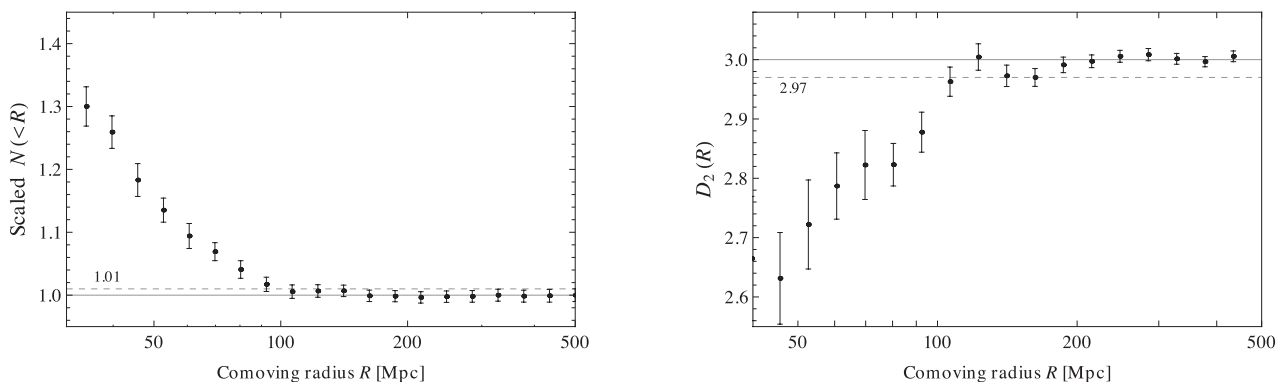
It is worth noting that when applied only to the quasars within the ‘control region’ A3725, which is well separated from all previously reported LQGs, the same algorithm found *another* giant quasar group, composed of 54 quasars and with  $D_{\max} \approx 730$  Mpc. On setting the linkage length  $L = \bar{r}_{\text{nn}} \sim 74$  Mpc (i.e.  $\beta = 1$ ), the largest quasar group in the SCR sample consisted of 15 quasars situated around  $(\alpha, \delta) \sim (207^\circ, 27^\circ)$ , with  $D_{\max} \approx 255$  Mpc. These results suggest that the Huge-LQG is not a particularly exceptional cluster.

Having thus checked the algorithm, I then applied it to 10 000 realizations of a homogeneous Poisson point process, occupying the same region of space as the SCR (the same volume and geometry), and with the same mean number density of points. For the largest cluster found in each realization, I recorded the number of members  $k_{\max}$ , the maximum point separation  $D_{\max}$  and the volume of the convex hull (not CHMS) formed by the member points. This was done both with  $\beta = 1$  (i.e. the linkage length cutoff set to the mean nearest neighbour distance) and with  $\beta = 1.33$ . The latter value is the most generous estimate of the value used by Clowes et al. In fact, given the slightly smaller  $\bar{r}_{\text{nn}}$  value for the SCR subsample compared to all NGC quasars, it corresponds to a value of  $L$  slightly less than the 100 Mpc used by those authors.

## 5 RESULTS

### 5.1 $N(<R)$ and $D_2(R)$

Fig. 3 shows the behaviour of  $N(<R)$  and  $D_2(R)$  at different scales. It can clearly be seen that both show a clear approach to homogeneity



**Figure 3.** Left-hand panel: values of  $N(<R)$  determined by applying the counts-in-spheres test to the SCR subsample for different sphere radii  $R$ . The values are scaled relative to the value at  $R = 500$  Mpc as described in the text. The solid horizontal line at the value 1 describes the expectation for homogeneous scaling; the dashed line shows a 1 per cent deviation from it. Right-hand panel: the correlation dimension  $D_2(R)$  determined from  $N(<R)$  measurements. The solid horizontal line describes the expectation for homogeneous scaling and the dashed line shows a 1 per cent deviation from it.

at scales far below the maximum values probed. In particular, the scaled  $N(<R)$  values are equal to 1 to within one standard deviation at all scales above  $\sim 100$  Mpc. The correlation dimension shows some additional small fluctuations at the 1 per cent level, but is also consistent with the homogeneous value  $D_2 = 3$  to within the error bars at scales  $R \gtrsim 180$  Mpc, (which corresponds to  $R \gtrsim 130 h^{-1}$  Mpc given the choice of  $h$ ). Both  $N(<R)$  and  $D_2(R)$  are within 1 per cent of their homogeneous values (the criterion used by Scrimgeour et al. 2012 to determine homogeneity) at scales above  $\sim 100$  Mpc.

We can therefore conclude that the SCR subsample of the DR7QSO catalogue is compatible with homogeneity above at most  $R \gtrsim 180$  Mpc. The sparseness of the quasar distribution means it is not ideally suited to a precise determination of the scale of homogeneity (and such a scale is in any case not unambiguously defined), but it is certainly perfectly compatible with the Yadav et al. upper limit of  $R_{\text{H}} \sim 370$  Mpc for a  $\Lambda$ CDM universe.

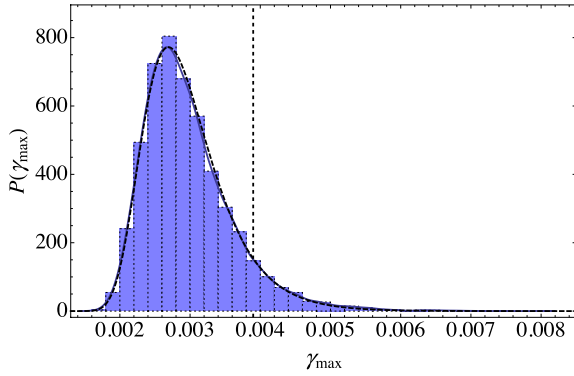
### 5.2 Clusters from simulations

A total of 849 of the 10 000 Poisson simulations analysed with  $\beta = 1.33$  had a largest cluster with  $k_{\max} \geq 73$ , meaning that measuring by cluster membership the Huge-LQG is statistically distinct from clusters found in random noise at less than 92 per cent CL expressed in the same terms as do Clowes et al. (2013), the significance of the departure from random expectations for the Huge-LQG is less than the  $2\sigma$  level, a very different conclusion to theirs.

We can provide a description of the probability of finding a cluster of given size in a Poisson distribution in terms of an extreme value distribution of type I, also known as a Gumbel distribution. This has a probability density function

$$P(x)dx = \frac{1}{\sigma} e^{-z} e^{-e^{-z}} dz, \quad (6)$$

where  $z = (x - \mu)/\sigma$ . This is commonly used to model the distribution of the maximum of a sample of random numbers drawn from various other distributions. Instead of using the membership value directly, we could rescale  $k_{\max}$  by the total number of points in each set,  $\gamma_{\max} = k_{\max}/N$ . The distribution of this quantity is less dependent than that of  $k_{\max}$  on the specific details of this particular simulation, such as the volume and the total number of points, and I suggest that it may be of more universal relevance, though further tests are required to confirm this. Fig. 4 shows the deduced probability density function for  $\gamma_{\max}$  from the simulations, together with a plot of equation (6) with the best-fitting parameters  $\mu = 2.69 \times 10^{-3}$

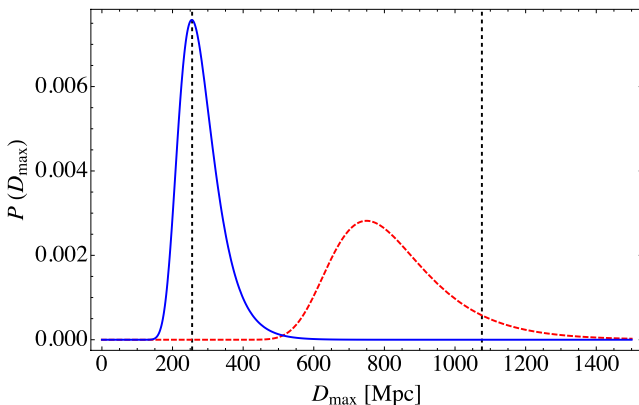


**Figure 4.** The probability density distribution of maximum cluster memberships found in 10 000 homogeneous random simulations, shown in terms of the variable  $\gamma_{\max} = k_{\max}/N$ . The blue towers are a density histogram of the measured values, in bins of width  $2 \times 10^{-4}$ . The blue solid line shows a smoothed fit to the data, using a Gaussian kernel of width  $10^{-4}$ . The black dashed line is the best-fitting form of equation (6). The vertical dashed line indicates the value of  $\gamma_{\max}$  for the Huge-LQG.

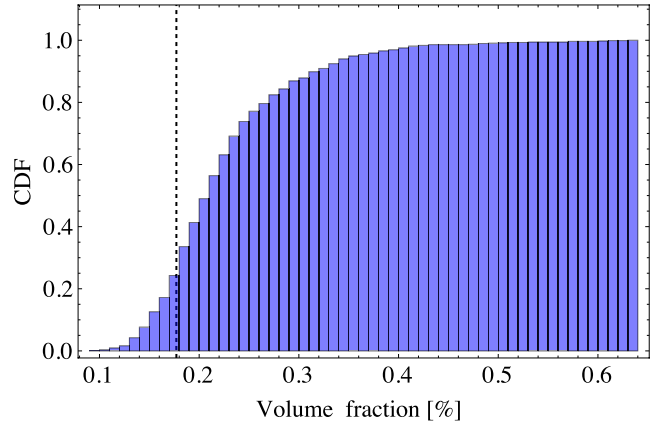
and  $\sigma = 4.67 \times 10^{-4}$ , which is seen to be an extremely good description. The value of  $\gamma_{\max}$  for the Huge-LQG is also indicated. The corresponding best-fitting values for the distribution in the case  $\beta = 1$  are  $\mu = 6.56 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $\sigma = 8.51 \times 10^{-5}$ . Similarly good fits are found using distributions of the form of equation (6) for all measured quantities from simulations.

The Huge-LQG is claimed to be unusual not only because of the number of its quasar members, but also because of its spatial extent. I have chosen to quantify this in terms of the maximum separation between any two members of the cluster,  $D_{\max}$ . The best-fitting probability density functions for  $D_{\max}$  of the form of equation (6) are shown in Fig. 5, both for the case  $\beta = 1.33$  relevant to the Huge-LQG and for  $\beta = 1$ .

This clearly shows both that the hierarchical clustering algorithm can find clusters extending over hundreds of Mpc or even Gpc even in homogeneous distributions of points if the linkage length  $L$  is chosen too loosely, and also that the largest clusters of quasars actually found in the DR7QSO catalogue are not significantly different to those found in homogenous random catalogues.



**Figure 5.** Probability density distributions for the maximum point-to-point separation  $D_{\max}$  in the largest cluster found in random simulations. The blue solid line is for linkage length  $L = \bar{r}_{\text{m}}$ , i.e.  $\beta = 1$ . The red dashed line is for  $\beta = 1.33$ . The vertical dashed lines show the corresponding values for the clusters found in the SCR quasar subsample.



**Figure 6.** The cumulative density function for the comoving hull volume of the set of points constituting the largest cluster found in simulations, expressed as a percentage of the total SCR volume, for only those simulated clusters which have equal or larger number of points than the Huge-LQG. The vertical line indicates the value for the Huge-LQG; roughly 25 per cent of larger clusters are also more tightly linked.

Finally, Fig. 6 shows the cumulative distribution function for the convex hull volume of the largest cluster found in the simulation, expressed as a percentage of the total volume of the SCR, for only those cases (amounting to  $\sim 8.5$  per cent of the total) where the largest cluster contained as many points as the Huge-LQG or more. It can be seen that roughly 25 per cent of such clusters, despite having more members, occupy a smaller volume and so are more tightly linked than the Huge-LQG. Since it compares like with like, this is a more appropriate statistical measure of the unlikeliness of finding such a structure in random noise than that performed by Clowes et al. (2013).

## 6 CONCLUSION

The question of whether the observed distribution of objects in the Universe is consistent with the assumption of large-scale homogeneity and isotropy is a very important one because of the central role the cosmological principle plays in almost all theoretical models. If evidence for the violation of homogeneity were to be found, this would constitute a serious problem for the standard cosmological model. The claim that quasar structures in the DR7QSO catalogue challenged the cosmological principle (Clowes et al. 2012, 2013) therefore needed to be taken seriously, and an investigation of this issue was the major objective of this paper.

However, this claim has been shown to be mistaken, on several counts. First, as was argued in Section 3, the existence of individual structures in a catalogue, even if they are of Gpc sizes, cannot be used to make inferences about the homogeneity or otherwise of the catalogue as a whole. The homogeneity of a catalogue is established by different methods to those used to identify structures, and direct comparisons between the length scales involved are not possible. This is of course not a completely new insight, but clarification of the point was evidently required.

In fact, because of its very large volume, the DR7QSO catalogue can be used to test the homogeneity of the quasar distribution out to much larger scales than probed by previous studies with other surveys, and making fewer a priori assumptions of the homogeneity that is to be tested. I used the standard fractal analysis technique to show that the quasar distribution is indeed perfectly compatible with homogeneity at scales above at most  $R_{\text{H}} \sim 130 h^{-1}$  Mpc.

The evident homogeneity of the quasar distribution at scales far smaller than the sizes of the clusters claimed to have been detected also raises questions about the algorithm used for this detection. The operation of this algorithm depends crucially on the value of the maximum linkage length  $L$ . The detection of the Huge-LQG and other claimed quasar structures relied on a value  $L = 100$  Mpc, which is significantly larger than the mean nearest neighbour separation for the quasars. The justification for this provided by Clowes et al. (2012) is that smaller values increase the probability of failing to detect existing structures; however, the opposite is also true – increasing  $L$  increases the probability of false positive detections. This probability can be quantified by the use of simulations of homogeneous Poisson distributions of points, occupying the same volume as the quasar sample and with the same mean density. Analysis of the operation of the clustering algorithm on 10 000 such simulations shows that clusters that are larger than the claimed quasar structures – both in number of members and spatial extent – are quite common.

In general when using an algorithmic approach to identify clusters of points in a distribution, one must employ some criterion in order to decide whether the results obtained correspond to ‘real’ structures in the Universe, or are merely artefacts of the algorithm. One possible criterion is theoretical: if there is a good reason to believe that the points in the cluster are in fact gravitationally bound, for instance, or if its properties match those of structures that are expected to exist in the real Universe, it may be regarded as real. Alternatively, to assess unusual clusters which do not conform to theoretical expectation, the relevant criterion is whether they are unlikely to have arisen purely from noise.

Since the linkage length used to identify the Huge-LQG is so large, there is no reason I know of to believe that it forms a gravitationally bound structure. Certainly no real structures of such size are expected in the standard cosmology. On the other hand, when using this linkage length the clustering algorithm often finds such extended structures even in pure Poisson noise. It therefore appears that the Huge-LQG fails to satisfy either criterion, and so its interpretation as a ‘structure’ is highly questionable. This conclusion is even more applicable to the other slightly smaller quasar groups whose existence has also been claimed (e.g. Clowes & Campusano 1991; Clowes et al. 2012).

Finally, it is worth noting that a similar situation arose recently with respect to the SGW. Based on the use of a very similar clustering algorithm for its identification, Sheth & Diaferio (2011) argued that the SGW was very unlikely in a  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology, but Park et al. (2012) found that the algorithm often identified even bigger structures in simulations. We should regard this as a reminder not to trust inferences based on rare structures found using such algorithms in the absence of a proper quantification of their action on simulated distributions. At the very least, one needs to use Poisson distributions to test the null hypothesis, as done in this paper. However, if the linkage length  $L$  used is of the order of the scale of clustering in  $\Lambda$ CDM ( $\sim 10$  Mpc), this will not be enough and full  $N$ -body simulations in  $\Lambda$ CDM are required.

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