

## The expansion field: the value of $H_0$

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**Abstract** Any calibration of the present value of the Hubble constant ( $H_0$ ) requires recession velocities and distances of galaxies. While the conversion of observed velocities into true recession velocities has only a small effect on the result, the derivation of unbiased distances which rest on a solid zero point and cover a useful range of about 4–30 Mpc is crucial. A list of 279 such galaxy distances within  $v < 2,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  is given which are derived from the tip of the red-giant branch (TRGB), from Cepheids, and/or from supernovae of type Ia (SNe Ia). Their random errors are not more than 0.15 mag as shown by intercomparison. They trace a linear expansion field within narrow margins, supported also by external evidence, from  $v = 250$  to at least  $2,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . Additional 62 distant SNe Ia confirm the linearity to at least  $20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . The dispersion about the Hubble line is dominated by random peculiar velocities, amounting locally to  $< 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  but increasing outwards. Due to the linearity of the expansion field the Hubble constant  $H_0$  can be found at any distance  $> 4.5 \text{ Mpc}$ . RR Lyr star-calibrated TRGB distances of 78 galaxies above this limit give  $H_0 = 63.0 \pm 1.6$  at an effective distance of 6 Mpc. They compensate the effect of peculiar motions by their large number. Support for this result comes from 28 independently calibrated Cepheids that give  $H_0 = 63.4 \pm 1.7$  at 15 Mpc. This agrees also with the large-scale value of  $H_0 = 61.2 \pm 0.5$  from the distant, Cepheid-calibrated SNe Ia. A mean value of  $H_0 = 62.3 \pm 1.3$  is adopted. Because the value depends on two independent zero points of the distance scale its systematic error is estimated to be 6%. Other determinations of  $H_0$  are discussed. They either conform with the quoted

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value (e.g. line width data of spirals or the  $D_n-\sigma$  method of E galaxies) or are judged to be inconclusive. Typical errors of  $H_0$  come from the use of a universal, yet unjustified P–L relation of Cepheids, the neglect of selection bias in magnitude-limited samples, or they are inherent to the adopted models.

**Keywords** Stars: population II · Cepheids · Supernovae: general · Distance scale · Cosmological parameters

## 1 Introduction

It is said sometimes that once in a career, every astronomer is entitled to write a paper on the value of the Hubble constant. To the point, several compilations of the growing literature on  $H_0$  since 1970 have been made. Those by [Press \(1997\)](#), [Tammann and Reindl \(2006\)](#) and [Huchra \(2007\)](#) are examples.

These authors plot histograms of the distribution of  $H_0$  from about 400 papers since 1970. The sample is so large that the formal error on the average of the histogram is so small that one might infer that the Hubble constant is now known to better than say 1%. Of course, what is missing is the fact that most of the values in the literature are not correct. Many suffer from the neglect of the effects of an observational selection bias that *varies with distance*.

We are faced with a problem in writing this review. Do we strive to give a comprehensive history of the distance scale problem beginning with the first determination of the Hubble constant by [Lemaître \(1927, 1931\)](#); [Robertson \(1928\)](#); [Hubble \(1929b\)](#), and [Hubble and Humason \(1931, 1934\)](#) to be about  $550 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$  (units assumed hereafter), coming into modern times with the debates between the principal players? Or do we only write about the situation as it exists today, comparing the “concordance” value of  $H_0 = 72$  by [Freedman et al. \(2001\)](#) with the *HST* supernovae calibration value ([Hamuy et al. 1996](#); [Tripp and Branch 1999](#); [Suntzeff et al. 1999](#); [Saha et al. 2006](#), hereafter *STT 06*; [Sandage et al. 2006](#), hereafter *STS 06*) that gives  $H_0 = 62$ ? We have decided to take the latter course but also to sketch as a skeleton the beginning of the correction to Hubble’s 1930–1950 distance scale that started with the commissioning of the 200-inch telescope in 1949. An important comprehensive review of this early period before the Hubble Space Telescope (HST) is by [Rowan-Robinson \(1985\)](#); the details are not repeated here.

### 1.1 Early work on the revision to Hubble’s distance scale (1950–1990)

Hubble’s extragalactic distance scale was generally believed from 1927 to about 1950, beginning with the first determinations of the Hubble constant by the four independent authors cited above. This scale lasted until Hubble’s (1929a) distance to M31 was nearly tripled by [Baade \(1954\)](#) in his report to the 1952 Rome meeting of the IAU. He proposed a revision of the Cepheid P–L relation zero point by about 1.5 mag based on his discovery that RR Lyrae stars could not be detected with the newly commissioned 200-in Palomar telescope in M31 at  $V = 22.2$ . From this he concluded that M31 must be well beyond the modulus of  $(m - M) = 22.2$  given earlier by Hubble.

The story is well known and is recounted again by [Osterbrock \(2001, Chapter 6\)](#), in the Introduction to [Tammann et al. \(2008\)](#), hereafter [TSR 08](#), and often in histories elsewhere (e.g. [Trimble 1996](#); [Sandage 1999a](#)).

Following Baade's discovery, the revision of 1930–1950 scale was begun anew with the Palomar 200-in telescope, largely following [Hubble's \(1951\)](#) proposed cosmological program for it. Observational work on the first Cepheid distance beyond the Local Group was completed for NGC 2403. Here we made photoelectric calibrations of magnitude scales and used new calibrations of the Cepheid P–L relations ([Kraft 1961, 1963](#); [Sandage and Tammann 1968, 1969](#)), and we obtained a revised distance modulus of  $(m - M) = 27.56$  ([Tammann and Sandage 1968](#)). Comparing this with Hubble's modulus of 24.0 showed the large scale difference by a factor of 5.2. Next, the modulus of the more remote galaxy, M 101, was determined to be  $(m - M) = 29.3$  ([Sandage and Tammann 1974a](#)) compared with Hubble's modulus of 24.0, giving the large correction factor of 11.5 to Hubble's scale at M 101 ( $D = 7.2$  Mpc). This large stretching was again found in our distance modulus of  $(m - M) = 31.7$  for the Virgo cluster ([Sandage and Tammann 1974b, 1976, 1990, 1995](#)), compared with Hubble's modulus of 26.8. The distance ratio here is a factor of 9.6.

These large factors and their progression with distance came as a major shock in the mid 1970s and were not generally believed (e.g. [Madore 1976](#); [Hanes 1982](#); [de Vaucouleurs 1982](#) etc.). However, the new large distances were confirmed for NGC 2403 by [Freedman and Madore \(1988\)](#), and for M 101 by [Kelson et al. \(1996\)](#) and [Kennicutt et al. \(1998\)](#). Although our distance to the Virgo cluster core is still in contention at the 20% level, there is no question that the correction factor here is also between 7 and 10 at 20 Mpc.

## 1.2 The difficulty of finding $H_0$

The determination of  $H_0$ , the present and hence nearby value of the Hubble parameter, requires—besides true recession velocities—distance indicators with known zero point and with known intrinsic dispersion. The scatter of the Hubble diagram,  $\log v$  versus  $m$  or  $(m - M)$ , would in principle be a good diagnostic for the goodness of a given distance indicator if it were not also caused by peculiar motions. It is of prime importance to disentangle these two sources of scatter because unacknowledged intrinsic scatter of the available distances introduces a systematic increase of  $H_0$  with distance if flux-limited samples are considered, which is normally the case. This is because the mean absolute magnitude of objects in such samples increases with distance due to the increasing discrimination against the less luminous objects. It is important to note that, strictly speaking, this incompleteness bias is not the [Malmquist \(1920, 1922\)](#) bias which applies only to the average effect integrated over the sample being studied; not to individual distances within that sample, each of which must be corrected by a sliding scale.

Neglect of the individual bias values that become progressively larger with increasing distance always gives a Hubble constant that incorrectly appears to increase outward ([de Vaucouleurs 1958, 1976, 1977](#); [Tully 1988](#)).

The widely held view that the increase of  $H_0$  with distance (up to an unspecified limit) was real deprived the Hubble diagram of its second diagnostic power. The slope of the Hubble line had no longer to be 0.2, which is the case for linear expansion (see hereafter Eq. 1). The apparent increase of  $H_0$  with distance was not anymore accepted as proof for bias (e.g. Tammann 1987 vs. Aaronson 1987). It also led to proposals that  $H_0$  not only varied with distance, but also with direction (de Vaucouleurs and Bollinger 1979; de Vaucouleurs and Peters 1985). The search for the asymptotic value of  $H_0$  became self-defeating: one tried to calibrate it at the largest possible distances where, however, the effects of bias are largest.

The bias is always present in a flux limited sample of field galaxies (Sandage 1994a,b, 1995; Federspiel et al. 1994, as analyzed using Spaenhauer diagrams). It is also present in cluster data that are incomplete (Teerikorpi 1987, 1990; Kraan-Korteweg et al. 1988; Fouqué et al. 1990; Sandage et al. 1995; Sandage 2008), and even in field galaxies of any sample that is distance limited but if the data are incomplete in the coverage of the distance indicator (apparent magnitude, 21 cm line width, etc.) (Sandage 2008).

However, claims for  $H_0$  increasing outwards were contradicted by the apparent magnitudes of first-ranked galaxies in clusters and groups. The Hubble diagram of brightest cluster galaxies shows no deviations from linear expansion down to  $\sim 2,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  (Sandage et al. 1972; Sandage and Hardy 1973; Kristian et al. 1978 and references therein). This was confirmed down to  $\sim 1,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  in a study of northern and southern groups (Sandage 1975), which also showed a smooth linear Hubble diagram with no discontinuities over the range of  $1,000 < v < 10,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . The limit on  $\delta H_0/H_0$  was  $< 0.08$ , and a proof was given that the Hubble constant does not increase outward. These results were confirmed by Federspiel et al. (1994) based on the large catalog of 21 cm line widths and  $I$  magnitudes by Mathewson et al. (1992a,b), and also in the large archive literature cited therein by many others. However, it was so far not possible to tie the local expansion field below  $\lesssim 15 \text{ Mpc}$  into the large-scale field because of small-number statistics and of large scatter caused by the important effects of peculiar velocities and distance errors. This problem is the subject of Sect. 2.

In parallel to the discussion on distance errors there were many attempts to determine the mean size of the random one-dimensional peculiar velocities  $v_{\text{pec}}$  by reading the deviations from the Hubble line vertically as velocity residuals, but this is not easier than to determine the dispersion of the distance indicators because the latter have to be known. In fact the problem is here even deeper. The halted expansion of the Local Group, the retarded expansion by the gravity of the Virgo complex, the large virial velocities in clusters, and the increase of peculiar motions with distance, as manifested by the important velocity of a large volume with respect to the CMB dipole all make it difficult to find the characteristic peculiar velocities of field galaxies.

One of the earliest attempts to determine a cosmological parameter of interest (other than  $H_0$ ) was that by Hubble and Humason to measure the mean random velocity of galaxies about an ideal Hubble flow. This, in turn, is related to any systematic streaming, or more complicated systematic motions (a dipole plus even a quadrupole, a shear, or a local rotation) relative to a cosmic frame (Davis and Peebles 1983a for a review; see also Dekel 1994). The discussion by Hubble and Humason (1931) gave values between 200 and 300  $\text{km s}^{-1}$  for the mean random motion (they do not quote

an rms value) about the ridge line of the redshift-distance relation for local galaxies ( $v < 10,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ).

By 1972 a limit was set of  $v_{\text{pec}} < 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  on local scales (Sandage 1972). In subsequent papers, too numerous to be cited here, rather lower values were favored (e.g. Sandage and Tammann 1975a; Giraud 1986; Sandage 1986a; Ekholm et al. 2001; Thim et al. 2003). In a representative study Karachentsev and Makarov (1996) found  $v_{\text{pec}} = 72 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , supported by later papers of Karachentsev and collaborators. The values of  $v_{\text{pec}}$  in function of scale length agree locally (see Sect. 2.5), but clearly increase with distance.

The modest size of the peculiar velocities poses a problem for various hierarchical merging scenarios of galaxy formation which predict mean random motions as high as  $500 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  (cf. Davis and Peebles 1983b; Davis et al. 1985; Ostriker 1993; Governato et al. 1997; Leong and Saslaw 2004).

## 2 The local expansion field

The search for the cosmic (global) value of the Hubble constant  $H_0$  requires some a priori knowledge of the expansion field. How linear is the expansion? Does  $H_0$  vary with distance? How large are typical peculiar motions and/or streaming velocities which may lead to incorrect results on  $H_0$ ? Only once these questions are answered it is possible to judge the goodness of other distance indicators by the shape and the tightness of their Hubble diagrams. While a detailed mapping of non-Hubble motions in function of individual density fluctuations is important in its own right, it is not necessary here. For the average value of  $H_0$  from an all-sky sample of galaxies it is enough to know the dependence of  $H_0$  on distance over scales of  $\geq 3 \text{ Mpc}$  as well as the effect of peculiar motions on the available sample. The problem of large virial motions in clusters can be circumvented by assigning the mean cluster velocity to individual members.

Mapping the expansion field requires hence a significant number of relative distances with a sufficient range and with minimum intrinsic scatter to guard against selection effects which distort the field. Even in case of more than one distance indicator used for the mapping, only relative distances are needed because they can be combined by requiring that they obey the same expansion rate  $H_0$  within a given distance range, i.e. that they have the same intercept  $a$  of the Hubble diagram. Note that

$$\log v = 0.2m_{\lambda}^0 + C_{\lambda}, \quad \text{where} \tag{1}$$

$$C_{\lambda} = \log H_0 - 0.2M_{\lambda}^0 - 5. \tag{2}$$

( $m_{\lambda}^0$  is the apparent, absorption-corrected magnitude of a galaxy at wavelength  $\lambda$ ;  $M_{\lambda}^0$  is the corresponding absolute magnitude). In case that the mean absolute magnitude is assumed to be known or that the true distance moduli are known this becomes

$$\log v = 0.2(m - M)^0 + a, \quad \text{from which follows} \tag{3}$$

$$\log H_0 = a + 5. \tag{4}$$

Many data have become available during the last years for three distance indicators that are ideally suited for the purpose of expansion field mapping because they provide distance moduli with random errors of only  $\leq 0.15$  mag (corresponding to 7.5% in distance) as shown in Sect. 3 by intercomparison. These distance indicators are the tip of the red-giant branch (TRGB), classical Cepheids, and supernovae of type Ia at maximum luminosity (SNeIa). Table 1 below lists 240 TRGB, 43 Cepheid, and 22 SNeIa distances outside the Local Group, which provide the backbone of the determination of  $H_0$ .

Although relative distances are all that is needed to test the linearity of the expansion field and its peculiar motions, absolute distances as zero-pointed in Sect. 3 will be used in the following simply because they are available. This has the advantage that differences of the intercept  $a$  of the particular Hubble diagrams yield an estimate of the systematic error of the adopted distance scale.

## 2.1 Corrections of the distances and of the velocities

*All distances in this paper* (outside the Local Group) are transformed to the barycenter of the Local Group which is assumed to lie at the distance of 0.53 Mpc in the direction of M31, i.e. at two thirds of the way to this galaxy, because the galaxies outside the Local Group expand presumably away from the barycenter and not away from the observer. Distance moduli from the observer, corrected for Galactic absorption, are designated with  $\mu^0 \equiv (m - M)^0$ , while  $\mu^{00}$  stands for the moduli reduced to the barycenter.

The heliocentric velocities  $v_{\text{hel}}$  are corrected to the barycenter of the Local Group following Yahil et al. (1977) and—except for Local Group galaxies—for a self-consistent Virgocentric infall model assuming a local infall vector of  $220 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  and a density profile of the Virgo complex of  $r^{-2}$  (Yahil et al. 1980; Dressler 1984; Kraan-Korteweg 1986; de Freitas Pacheco 1986; Giraud 1990; Jerjen and Tammann 1993, see Eq. (5) in STS 06). The choice of these particular corrections among others proposed in the literature is justified because they give the smallest scatter in the Hubble diagrams (STS 06). Velocities relative to the barycenter are designated with  $v_0$ ; velocities corrected for Virgocentric infall (which makes of course no sense for members of the bound Local Group) are designated with  $v_{220}$ . The velocities of galaxies outside the Local Group are also corrected for the projection angle between the observer and the Local Group barycenter as seen from the galaxy, but the correction is negligible except for the very nearest galaxies.

The Virgocentric infall corrections are only a first approximation. The actual velocity field is much more complex as seen in the model of Klypin et al. (2003). But any such corrections have surprisingly little influence on the all-sky value of  $H_0$  even at small distances (Sect. 3.4.2). The main effect of the adopted infall-corrected  $v_{220}$  velocities is that they yield a noticeably smaller dispersion of the Hubble diagram, as stated before, than velocities which are simply reduced to the barycenter of the Local Group.

Galaxies with  $v_0 > 3,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  are in addition corrected for the CMB dipole motion on the assumption that the comoving local volume extends out to this distance

**Table 1** High accuracy distances of local galaxies

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{hel}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{RRLy\alpha}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{TRGB}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{Cep}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{SNe}^0$ (8)	$\langle\mu^0\rangle$ (9)	$\langle\mu^{00}\rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
WLM	LG	-122	-11		24.87	24.82		24.84	24.47	1, 2
E349-031		221	222		27.53			27.53	27.47	3
N0055	Sc11	129	117		26.64	26.41		26.53	26.51	4, 5
E410-05					26.43			26.43	26.34	5, 6
I0010	LG	-348	-50		23.56			23.56	21.15	7
Sc22	Sc12				28.12			28.12	28.02	6
Cetus	LG				24.42			24.42	23.93	1, 6
E294-10		117	89		26.49			26.49	26.50	6, 8
N0147	LG	-193	103	24.20	24.27			24.23	21.28	1, 6
And III	M31	-351	-71	24.36	24.39			24.38	21.70	1, 6
N0185	LG	-202	92	24.13	24.03			24.08	20.67	2, 9
N0205	M31	-241	48	24.65	24.59			24.62	22.38	1, 6
And IV	M31	256	545		28.93			28.93	28.73	6
N0221	M31	-200	87		24.43			24.43	21.80	6
N0224	M31	-300	-13	24.60	24.46	24.27		24.44	21.83	1, 2
I1574		363	393		28.56			28.56	28.47	6, 8
And I	M31	-368	-87	24.44	24.44			24.44	21.86	1, 6
N0247	Sc12	156	202		27.81			27.81	27.68	3
N0253	Sc12	243	267		27.98			27.98	27.88	6
E540-30	Sc12				27.66			27.66	27.50	6
E540-31	Sc12	295	344		27.62			27.62	27.48	6
E540-32	Sc12				27.67			27.67	27.52	6
SMC	LG	158	-24	18.98	19.00			18.99	23.77	2
And IX		-216	72		24.40			24.40	21.72	1
N0300	Sc11	144	128		26.56	26.48		26.52	26.49	2
Sculptor	LG	110	111	19.59	19.61			19.60	23.60	2
LGS-3		-287	-70		24.20			24.20	22.08	1, 6
I1613	LG	-234	-65	24.35	24.33	24.32		24.33	23.35	2
U685		157	353		28.38			28.38	28.15	5, 6
KKH5		61	368		28.15			28.15	27.86	6
N0404		-48	221		27.43			27.43	27.01	6
And V	M31	-403	-121		24.47			24.47	22.07	1, 10
And II	M31	-188	90	24.15	24.11			24.13	21.14	1, 6
UA17	Cet	1,959	1,940				33.18	33.18	33.16	
N0598	LG	-179	70	24.77	24.66	24.64		24.69	22.85	1, 2
KKH6		53	352		27.86			27.86	27.53	3
N0625		396	338		28.05			28.05	28.04	6
E245-05		391	319		28.23			28.23	28.23	6

**Table 1** continued

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{\text{hel}}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{\text{RRLyr}}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{\text{TRGB}}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{\text{Cep}}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{\text{SNe}}^0$ (8)	$\langle\mu^0\rangle$ (9)	$\langle\mu^{00}\rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
U1281		156	399		28.55			28.55	28.32	5, 8
Phoenix	LG	56	-16	23.05:	23.22			23.22	24.16	6
KK16		207	430		28.62			28.62	28.40	5, 11
KK17		168	394		28.41			28.41	28.17	5, 6
N0784		198	423		28.58			28.58	28.36	5
N0891		528	793		29.96			29.96	29.84	12
N0925		553	782			29.84		29.84	29.72	
E115-21		515	373		28.43			28.43	28.50	5, 8
Fornax	LG	53	3	20.67	20.72			20.70	23.64	13
E154-23		574	444		28.80			28.80	28.84	5
KKH18		216	437		28.23			28.23	27.99	6
N1313		470	307		28.15			28.15	28.26	2
N1311		568	439		28.68			28.68	28.73	5
KK27					28.04			28.04	28.16	5, 6
N1316	For	1,760	1,371				31.48	31.48	31.48	
N1326A	For	1,831	1,371			31.17		31.17	31.17	
I1959		640	511		28.91			28.91	28.95	5
N1365	For	1,636	1,371			31.46		31.46	31.46	
N1380	For	1,877	1,371				31.81	31.81	31.81	
N1425	For	1,510	1,371			31.96		31.96	31.95	
N1448		1,168	1,015				31.78	31.78	31.79	
KK35	I342	105	382		27.50			27.50	27.19	6
UA86	I342	67	337		27.36			27.36	27.04	3
Cam A	I342	-46	232		27.97			27.97	27.74	6
UA92	I342	-99	155		27.39			27.39	27.09	3
N1560	I342	-36	234		27.70			27.70	27.44	6, 8
N1637		717	740			30.40		30.40	30.37	
Cam B	I342	77	335		27.62			27.62	27.36	6
N1705		633	474		28.54			28.54	28.62	6
UA105	I342	111	351		27.49			27.49	27.23	6
LMC	LG	278	42	18.53	18.59			18.56	23.78	2
N2090		921	810			30.48		30.48	30.50	
KKH34		110	374		28.32			28.32	28.15	6
E121-20		575	390		28.91			28.91	29.01	3
E489-56		492	371		28.49			28.49	28.56	6
E490-17		504	371		28.13			28.13	28.22	6
Carina	LG	229	-14	20.09	20.00			20.05	23.89	6
KKH37		-148	106		27.65			27.65	27.43	3
FG202		564	358		28.45			28.45	28.60	6



**Table 1** continued

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{\text{hel}}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{\text{RRLyr}}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{\text{TRGB}}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{\text{Cep}}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{\text{SNe}}^0$ (8)	$\langle\mu^0\rangle$ (9)	$\langle\mu^{00}\rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
U3755		315	335		29.35			29.35	29.35	5, 11
DDO43		354	507		29.46			29.46	29.42	6
N2366	N2403	80	293		27.55			27.55	27.36	11
E059-01		530	312		28.30			28.30	28.47	3
DDO44	N2403				27.52			27.52	27.34	6, 14
N2403	N2403	131	327			27.43		27.43	27.25	
DDO47		272	309		29.53			29.53	29.53	5
KK65		279	314		29.52			29.52	29.52	5
U4115		341	352		29.44			29.44	29.46	5
N2541		548	780			30.50		30.50	30.47	
Ho II	N2403	142	350		27.65			27.65	27.49	6
KDG52	N2403	113	322		27.75			27.75	27.59	6
DDO52		397	555		30.06			30.06	30.04	3
DDO53	N2403	20	204		27.76			27.76	27.63	6
U4483	N2403	156	354		27.53			27.53	27.37	6
D564-08		483	473		29.69			29.69	29.72	3
D634-03		318	290		29.90			29.90	29.94	3
D565-06		498	483		29.79			29.79	29.82	3
N2841		638	882			30.75		30.75	30.73	
U4998		623	870		29.63			29.63	29.57	14
N2915		468	238		27.89			27.89	28.12	6
I Zw 18		751	971		30.32			30.32	30.30	15
Ho I	M81	139	337		27.92			27.92	27.80	6
F8D1	M81				27.88			27.88	27.77	6
FM1	M81				27.67			27.67	27.55	6
N2976	M81	3	179		27.76			27.76	27.64	6
KK77	M81				27.71			27.71	27.60	6
N3021		1,541	1,840				32.62	32.62	32.62	
BK3N	M81	-40	145		28.02			28.02	27.91	6
N3031	M81	-34	147		27.80	27.80		27.80	27.68	2
N3034	M81	203	390		27.85			27.85	27.73	6, 8
KDG61	M81	-135	42		27.78			27.78	27.67	6
Ho IX	M81	46	228		27.84			27.84	27.73	16
A0952+69	M81	99	285		27.94			27.94	27.83	6
Leo A	LG	24	-12	24.54	24.19			24.37	24.97	6
SexB	LG	300	138		25.75			25.75	26.21	2
KKH57	M81				27.97			27.97	27.89	6
N3109	LG	403	129		25.54	25.45		25.50	26.18	2
N3077	M81	14	194		27.91			27.91	27.80	6

**Table 1** continued

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{\text{hel}}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{\text{RRLyr}}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{\text{TRGB}}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{\text{Cep}}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{\text{SNe}}^0$ (8)	$\langle\mu^0\rangle$ (9)	$\langle\mu^{00}\rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
Antlia	LG	362	85		25.55			25.55	26.22	5, 6
BK5N	M81				27.89			27.89	27.78	6
KDG63	M81	-129	34		27.72			27.72	27.62	6
KDG64	M81	-18	155		27.84			27.84	27.73	6
U5456		544	391		27.90			27.90	28.05	6
IKN	M81				27.87			27.87	27.76	3
Leo I	LG	285	154	22.01				22.01	24.19	
SexA	LG	324	117		25.74			25.74	26.28	2
Sex dSph	LG	224	29	19.69	19.77			19.73	23.88	6
N3190		1,271	1,574				32.15	32.15	32.16	
N3198		663	858			30.80		30.80	30.80	
HS117	M81	-37	155		27.99			27.99	27.88	3
DDO78	M81	55	226		27.85			27.85	27.75	6
I2574	M81	57	235		28.02			28.02	27.92	6
DDO82	M81	56	246		28.01			28.01	27.90	6
BK6N	M81				27.93			27.93	27.84	6
N3319		739	878			30.74		30.74	30.75	
N3351	LeoI	778	588		30.23	30.10		30.17	30.23	2, 17
N3368	LeoI	897	715			30.34	30.50	30.42	30.47	
N3370		1,279	1,606			32.37	32.47	32.42	32.44	
N3379	LeoI	911	721		30.32			30.32	30.37	18
KDG73		116	297		27.91			27.91	27.81	19
E215-09		598	345		28.60			28.60	28.80	20
Leo II	LG	-87	-172	21.58	21.72			21.65	24.08	6, 21
N3621		730	487		29.27	29.30		29.29	29.44	2
N3627	LeoI	727	428			30.50	30.41	30.46	30.51	
U6456		-103	133		28.19			28.19	28.06	6, 8
U6541	CVn	250	297		27.95			27.95	27.96	6
N3738	CVn	229	316		28.45			28.45	28.43	6
N3741	CVn	229	251		27.46			27.46	27.51	5, 6
E320-14		654	402		28.92			28.92	29.10	20
KK109	CVn	212	217		28.27			28.27	28.30	6
DDO99		242	228		27.11			27.11	27.22	5, 6
E379-07		641	376		28.59			28.59	28.80	6
N3982	UMa	1,109	1,515			31.87	32.02	31.94	31.93	
N4038		1,642	1,435		30.46			30.46	30.55	22
N4068		210	282		28.17			28.17	28.17	3
N4144		265	294		29.32			29.32	29.33	4, 12
N4163		165	132		27.35			27.35	27.46	3, 5

**Table 1** continued

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{\text{hel}}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{\text{RRLyr}}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{\text{TRGB}}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{\text{Cep}}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{\text{SNe}}^0$ (8)	$\langle \mu^0 \rangle$ (9)	$\langle \mu^{00} \rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
E321-14		610	335		27.52			27.52	27.86	6, 8
U7242	N4236	68	243		28.67			28.67	28.61	3
DDO113		284	253		27.40			27.40	27.51	5, 6
N4214		291	262		27.34			27.34	27.45	5, 6
U7298	CVn	173	243		28.12			28.12	28.12	6
N4236	N4236	0	187		28.24			28.24	28.16	6
N4244	CVn	244	212		28.09			28.09	28.16	4, 9, 12
I3104		429	191		26.80			26.80	27.18	6, 8
N4258		448	488		29.32	29.50		29.41	29.42	9, 11
I0779		222	7		30.32			30.32	30.36	3
N4321	Vir A	1,571	1,152			31.18		31.18	31.22	
N4395	CVn	319	258		28.32	28.02		28.17	28.25	6
N4414		716	983			31.65	31.28	31.46	31.48	
N4419	Vir A	-261	1,152				31.15	31.15	31.19	
DDO126	CVn	218	176		28.44			28.44	28.50	6
DDO125		195	215		27.11			27.11	27.19	5, 6
N4449	CVn	207	221		28.12			28.12	28.16	6
U7605	CVn	310	263		28.23			28.23	28.30	6
N4496A	Vir W	1,730	1,075			31.18	30.77	30.97	31.02	
N4501	Vir A	2,281	1,152				(30.84)	...	...	
N4526	Vir B	448	1,152				31.30	31.30	31.34	
N4527	Vir W	1,736	1,204			30.76		30.76	30.82	
N4535	Vir B	1,961	1,152			31.25		31.25	31.29	
N4536	Vir W	1,808	1,424			31.24	31.28	31.26	31.31	
N4548	Vir A	486	1,152			30.99		30.99	31.03	
Arp211		458	419		29.13			29.13	29.17	6
N4605		143	292		28.72			28.72	28.68	2
N4631		606	501		29.42			29.42	29.47	4
I3687	CVn	354	330		28.30			28.30	28.36	6
N4639	Vir A	1,018	1,152			32.20	32.05	32.12	32.15	
E381-18		624	371		28.55			28.55	28.77	8, 20
E381-20		589	338		28.68			28.68	28.88	20
HI J1247-77		413	181		27.50			27.50	27.79	3
KK166	CVn				28.38			28.38	28.45	6
N4725		1,206	904			30.65		30.65	30.69	
N4736	CVn	308	306		28.34			28.34	28.39	6
N4753		1,239	1,310				31.41	31.41	31.46	
E443-09		645	397		28.88			28.88	29.06	20
DDO155		214	88		26.63			26.63	26.96	5, 6

**Table 1** continued

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{\text{hel}}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{\text{RRLyrr}}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{\text{TRGB}}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{\text{Cep}}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{\text{SNe}}^0$ (8)	$\langle \mu^0 \rangle$ (9)	$\langle \mu^{00} \rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
E269-37	CenA				27.71			27.71	28.02	6
KK182		617	381		28.81			28.81	29.00	20
N4945	CenA	563	300		27.25			27.25	27.63	9
I4182	CVn	321	301		28.19	28.21	28.45	28.28	28.34	2
DDO165		31	216		28.30			28.30	28.23	6
U8215	N4236	218	264		28.29			28.29	28.31	3
E269-58	CenA	400	148		27.90			27.90	28.19	20
N5023		407	433		29.02			29.02	29.04	4, 23
KK189	CenA				28.23			28.23	28.48	20
E269-66	CenA	784	533		27.91			27.91	28.20	20
DDO167	CVn	163	208		28.11			28.11	28.14	6
DDO168	CVn	192	235		28.18			28.18	28.21	6
KK195	M83	571	334		28.59			28.59	28.80	6
KK196	CenA	741	495		28.00			28.00	28.27	20
N5102	CenA	468	218		27.66			27.66	27.98	6
KK197	CenA				27.94			27.94	28.22	20
KKs55	CenA				27.98			27.98	28.26	20
KK200	M83	487	248		28.33			28.33	28.56	6
N5128	CenA	547	298		27.89	27.67		27.78	28.08	6, 24
I4247	M83	274	38		28.48			28.48	28.70	20
E324-24	CenA	516	270		27.86			27.86	28.15	6
CVn dSph	LG	36	46		21.83			21.83	24.03	25
N5204	CVn	201	336		28.34			28.34	28.31	6
U8508		62	169		27.10			27.10	27.09	5, 6
N5206	CenA	571	325		27.70			27.70	28.01	20
E444-78	M83	573	346		28.60			28.60	28.81	20
KK208	M83	381	150		28.35			28.35	28.58	6
DE J1337-33	M83	591	358		28.27			28.27	28.51	6
N5236	M83	513	283		28.56	28.32		28.44	28.66	20
E444-084	CenA	587	357		28.32			28.32	28.55	6
HI J1337-39		492	262		28.45			28.45	28.67	6
N5237	CenA	361	116		27.66			27.66	27.98	20
U8638		274	198		28.15			28.15	28.27	3
DDO181		202	231		27.40			27.40	27.48	5, 6
N5253	CenA	407	172		27.89	28.05	27.95	27.96	28.23	17
I4316	M83	674	444		28.22			28.22	28.46	6
N5264	M83	478	249		28.28			28.28	28.52	6
KKs57	CenA				27.97			27.97	28.25	20
KK211	CenA				27.77			27.77	28.07	6

**Table 1** continued

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{hel}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{RRLy\alpha}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{TRGB}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{Cep}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{SNe}^0$ (8)	$\langle\mu^0\rangle$ (9)	$\langle\mu^{00}\rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
KK213	CenA				27.80			27.80	28.10	6
E325-11	CenA	545	304		27.66			27.66	27.97	6
KK217	CenA				27.92			27.92	28.20	6
CenN	CenA				27.88			27.88	28.16	20
KK221	CenA				28.00			28.00	28.27	6
HI 1348-37		581	367		28.80			28.80	28.99	20
E383-87	CenA	326	91		27.69			27.69	28.00	20
DDO183		192	211		27.55			27.55	27.63	5
HI 1351-47		529	317		28.79			28.79	28.98	20
KKH86		287	148		27.08			27.08	27.38	5, 6
U8833	CVn	227	236		27.52			27.52	27.62	5, 6
E384-016	CenA	561	340		28.28			28.28	28.52	20
N5457		241	387		29.39	29.17		29.28	29.27	2, 17
N5408		506	289		28.41			28.41	28.63	6
KK230		62	82		26.54			26.54	26.71	3, 5
DDO187		153	117		26.87			26.87	27.09	5, 6
SBS1415+437		609	805		30.70			30.70	30.71	26
DDO190		150	229		27.23			27.23	27.28	5, 6
P51659	CenA	390	172		27.77			27.77	28.06	6
E223-09		588	423		29.06			29.06	29.22	20
UMi	LG	-247	-57	19.29	19.51			19.40	23.56	27
E274-01		522	325		27.45			27.45	27.77	20
KKR25		-139	44		26.50			26.50	26.42	5, 6
E137-18		605	456		29.03			29.03	29.17	20
Draco	LG	-292	-75	19.59	19.92			19.76	23.53	27
I4662		302	135		26.94			26.94	27.26	3
N6503		60	357		28.61			28.61	28.49	6
Sag dSph	LG	140	101	17.22	16.51			16.87	23.69	6
N6789		-141	162		27.78			27.78	27.58	6
Sag DIG	LG	-79	-37		25.09			25.09	25.39	6
N6822	LG	-57	7	23.43	23.37	23.31		23.37	24.25	17
E461-36		427	454		29.47			29.47	29.49	3
N6951		1,424	1,814				31.89	31.89	31.85	
DDO210	LG	-141	-36		25.01			25.01	25.05	1, 6
I5052		584	455		28.89			28.89	28.99	4
I5152		122	63		26.52			26.52	26.68	5, 6
N7331		816	1,099			30.89		30.89	30.82	
Tucana	LG	130	-6		24.72			24.72	25.34	6
I5270		1,983	1,914				31.90	31.90	31.89	

**Table 1** continued

Galaxy (1)	Group (2)	$v_{\text{hel}}$ (3)	$v_{220}$ (4)	$\mu_{\text{RRLyr}}^0$ (5)	$\mu_{\text{TRGB}}^0$ (6)	$\mu_{\text{Cep}}^0$ (7)	$\mu_{\text{SNe}}^0$ (8)	$\langle \mu^0 \rangle$ (9)	$\langle \mu^{00} \rangle$ (10)	Ref (11)
UA438		62	89		26.74			26.74	26.67	5, 6
Cas dSph	LG	-307	0		24.45			24.45	22.37	1, 6
Pegasus	LG	-183	61		24.60			24.60	23.32	1, 6
UA442		267	276		28.24			28.24	28.18	6, 8
KKH98		-137	162		26.95			26.95	26.43	6
And VI	M31	-354	-103	24.59	24.48			24.53	22.71	1, 10
N7793		227	234		27.96			27.96	27.90	6

References — (1) [McConnachie et al. 2005](#) (2) [Rizzi et al. 2007b](#) (3) [Karachentsev et al. 2006](#) (4) [Seth et al. 2005](#) (5) [Tully et al. 2006](#) (6) [Karachentsev et al. 2004](#) (7) [Sakai et al. 1999](#) (8) [Tikhonov 2006](#) (9) [Mouhcine et al. 2005](#) (10) [Armandroff et al. 1999](#) (11) [Macri et al. 2006](#) (12) [Tikhonov and Galazutdinova 2005](#) (13) [Rizzi et al. 2007a](#) (14) [Alonso-García et al. 2006](#) (15) [Aloisi et al. 2007](#) (16) [Karachentsev and Kashibadze 2006](#) (17) [Sakai et al. 2004](#) (18) [Sakai et al. 1997](#) (19) [Karachentsev et al. 2002](#) (20) [Karachentsev et al. 2007](#) (21) [Bellazzini et al. 2005](#) (22) [Saviane et al. 2004](#) (23) [Tikhonov et al. 2006](#) (24) [Rejkuba et al. 2005](#); [Karataeva et al. 2006](#); (25) [Zucker et al. 2006](#) (26) [Aloisi et al. 2005](#) (27) [Bellazzini et al. 2002](#)

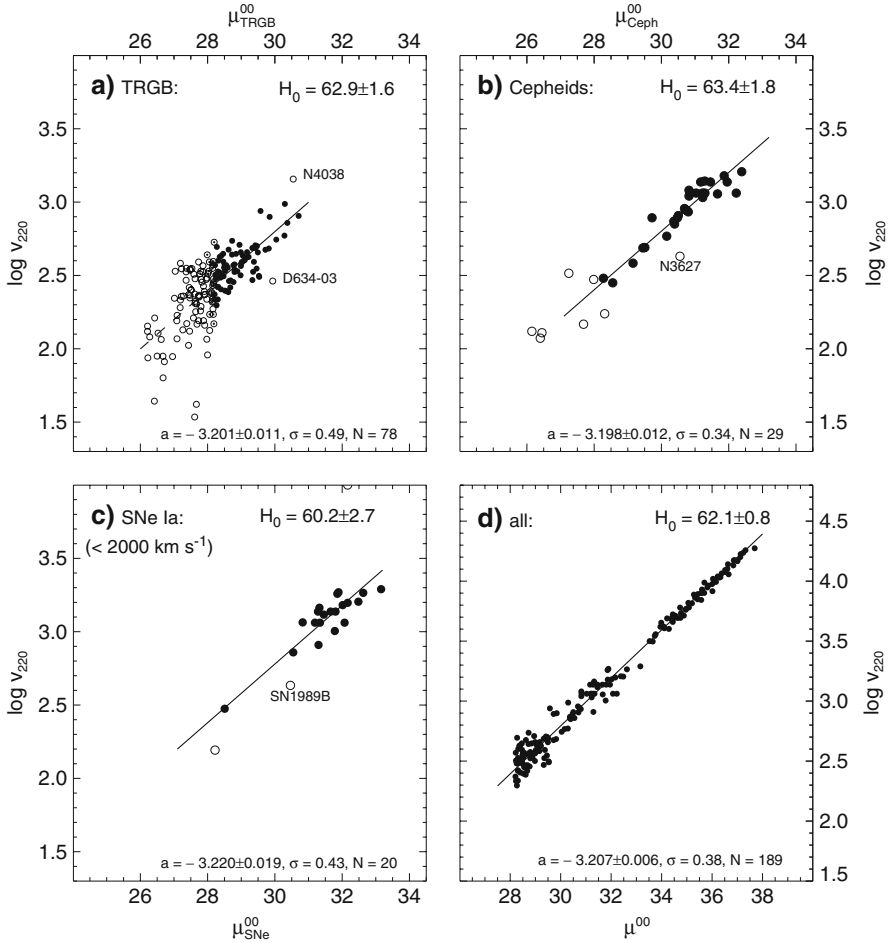
([Federspiel et al. 1994](#)). Even if the merging into the background field kinematics takes place as far out as  $6,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  ([Dale and Giovanelli 2000](#)) it has no noticeable effect on the present conclusions.

## 2.2 The Hubble diagram of TRGB distances

The galaxies outside the Local Group with available TRGB distances are listed in Table 1. The identifications of the galaxies in Col. 1 are from the NED (NASA Extragalactic Database, <http://nedwww.ipac.caltech.edu/index.html>); in some cases they are here slightly abbreviated. Alternative designations are given in the same source. The group assignments in Col. 2 are evaluated from various sources. The heliocentric velocities in Col. 3 are from the NED. The distances  $\langle \mu^0 \rangle$  in Col. 9 are the straight mean of the available distance determinations as seen from the observer. Col. 10 gives the mean distances  $\langle \mu^{00} \rangle$  reduced to the barycenter of the Local Group. The latter are plotted in a Hubble diagram (Fig. 1a). The 78 galaxies with distances  $> 4.4 \text{ Mpc}$  and up to  $\sim 10 \text{ Mpc}$  yield a free-fit Hubble line with slope  $0.166 \pm 0.019$  if  $\log v_{220}$  is used as the independent variable, and with slope  $0.332 \pm 0.038$  if  $\mu^{00}$  is used as the independent variable. The orthogonal solution, i.e. the mean of the two previous solutions, gives a slope of  $0.199 \pm 0.019$ , which is so close to 0.2 that a forced fit with slope 0.2 is justified even for this very local volume.

The dispersion in Fig. 1a, read in  $\mu^{00}$ , is  $\sigma_{\mu} = 0.49$ . This value rests mainly on the effect of peculiar motions. The random error of the distances is not more than 0.15 mag (Sect. 3.4.1). Also observational errors of the velocities contribute little to the dispersion. Hence the contribution of the peculiar motions must be close to 0.47 mag.

A still closer sample of 20 TRGB galaxies in Table 1 within the narrow distance interval 3.9–4.4 Mpc can of course not provide a test for the slope. Yet assuming a slope



**Fig. 1** The Hubble diagram of **a** TRGB, **b** Cepheids, and **c** SNe Ia cut at  $v_{220} < 2,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . **d** shows all galaxies of **a–c** plus the SNe Ia with  $v_{\text{CMB}} < 20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$

of 0.2 gives the same intercept  $a$  and hence the same mean Hubble constant as from the more distant TRGB distances to within 5%. The dispersion of this nearby sample is large at  $\sigma_{\mu} = 0.74$ . It may be increased by observational velocity errors, which for some dwarf galaxies may amount to  $\sim 50 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . Therefore the contribution of the peculiar velocities is here not well determined.

### 2.3 The Hubble diagram of Cepheid distances

The 37 Cepheid distances in Table 1 are plotted in a Hubble diagram in Fig. 1b. A linear regression, omitting seven galaxies with  $\mu^{00} < 28.2$  and the deviating case of NGC 3627, gives a free orthogonal fit for the slope of  $0.200 \pm 0.010$  in excellent agreement with linear expansion.

The dispersion about the Hubble line is small at 0.34 mag. Subtracting in quadrature 0.15 mag for random errors of the Cepheid moduli leaves a contribution of 0.30 mag for the peculiar velocities.

#### 2.4 The Hubble diagram of SNe Ia

22 SNe Ia distances are listed in Table 1. Omitting SN 1937C in IC 4182, which has  $\mu^{00} < 28.2$ , and the deviating SN 1989B in NGC 3627 yields an orthogonal fit for the Hubble line with slope  $0.192 \pm 0.016$ , giving additional support for the nearly perfect linear expansion with slope 0.2 (Fig. 1c). The dispersion is  $\sigma_m = 0.43$  in  $B$ ,  $V$ , and  $I$ .

In addition there are 62 SNe Ia with  $3,000 < v_{220} < 20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 15 in Reindl et al. 2005) whose magnitudes are uniformly reduced as in the case of the nearer SNe Ia. They give an orthogonal slope of  $0.194 \pm 0.002$  which is significantly smaller than 0.2, but it is almost exactly the value predicted for a linearly expanding flat Universe with  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$  (Carroll et al. 1992).

The scatter about the Hubble line in  $B$ ,  $V$ , and  $I$  beyond  $v_{\text{CMB}} = 3,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  is only  $\sigma = 0.14$  mag after absorption corrections and normalization to a fiducial decline rate; in dust-poor S0 and E galaxies it is even smaller. The small scatter is a confirmation that properly reduced SNe Ia yield distance moduli to within 0.15 mag as claimed above. Differently treated SNe Ia by Wang et al. (2006) lead essentially to the same results.

Wood-Vasey et al. (2007) have constructed a Hubble diagram from the near-infrared  $H$  magnitudes, which are less affected by absorption, of 32 SNe Ia in the distance range  $2,000 < v_{220} < 10,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . Again the slope is as close to 0.2 as can be measured. The scatter amounts to only 0.15 mag even without normalization to a fixed decline rate or light curve width.

Jha et al. (2007) have presented a Hubble diagram with a dispersion of  $\sigma_m = 0.18$  for 95 SNe Ia with  $2,500 < v_{\text{CMB}} < 40,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . At low redshifts its asymptotic slope is very close to 0.2 and fits at higher redshifts the slope corresponding to  $\Omega_M = 0.3$ ,  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$ . Yet the authors, reviving similar suggestions by Tammann (1998) and Zehavi et al. (1998), propose a break of the Hubble line of SNe Ia at  $\sim 7,400 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , implying a decrease of  $H_0$  at larger distances by  $\sim 6.5\%$ , but the effect is not seen in the aforementioned studies.

There are other relative distance indicators which confirm the linearity of the expansion field. They are not on a uniform zero point, but strengthen the conclusion of linearity or are at least in agreement with it. The difficulty is in general the large intrinsic scatter which prohibits a stringent test. A way out is to use mean cluster distances from a subset of cluster members. Examples of relative cluster distances reaching out to  $\sim 10,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  are in Dressler (1987), Lynden-Bell et al. (1988), and Jerjen and Tammann (1993). The mean distances of ten clusters with about 20  $D_n - \sigma$  distances each are given by Jørgensen et al. (1996, see also Tammann and Reindl 2006, Fig. 7). Hudson et al. (2004) have derived relative distances of 56 Abell clusters within  $12,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  from an inverse fit to the fundamental plane relation (FP); they find local streaming motions, but their overall expansion is linear in close approximation.

Also the mean distances of 31 clusters with about 15 21 cm line width (TF) distances each (Masters et al. 2006) define a Hubble line for  $1,000 < v_{\text{CMB}} < 10,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$



with a dispersion of 0.12 mag. The latter sample illustrates the inherent problem to select a fair subset of cluster members independent of distance: their three nearest clusters fall systematically off the Hubble line (TSR 08, Fig. 8), whose slope is otherwise almost precisely 0.2.

## 2.5 Characteristics of the expansion field

The evidence from relative TRGB, Cepheid, and SNe Ia distances in Sects. 2.2–2.4 strongly confines the all-sky-averaged deviations from linear expansion and shows that a single value of  $H_0$  applies for all practical purposes from  $\sim 250 < v_{220} < 20,000$  or even  $30,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , at which distance the cosmic value of  $H_0$  must be reached for all classical models. Moreover, the dispersion about the Hubble line is in some cases significantly larger than the observational error of the distance indicators. In these cases it is possible to give meaningful estimates of the random motion of field galaxies. The results are laid out in Table 1. In Col. 1 the distance range (in Mpc nearby and in  $\text{km s}^{-1}$  for the more distant galaxies) is given for a particular distance indicator in Col. 2 with the number of galaxies involved in Col. 3. The free-fit slope of the Hubble line for  $\log v$  versus  $\mu^{00}$  (or  $m^0$ ) is in Col. 4. The slopes for the inverse and orthogonal regressions are in Cols. 5 and 6, respectively. The median velocity of the sample follows in Col. 7. The observed magnitude dispersion is shown in Col. 8 for the case of a fixed slope of 0.2. The dispersion is reduced in quadrature for the mean observational error of the distance determination, which is assumed to be 0.15 mag for the distance indicators used. The remaining scatter must be due to peculiar velocities. Multiplying the magnitude scatter by 0.2 leads to the scatter in  $\log v_{220}$  and hence to  $v_{\text{pec}}/v_{220}$  shown in Col. 9. The product of the latter and the corresponding median velocity yields an estimate of the mean peculiar velocity (Col. 10) at the distance of the median velocity. Finally the intercept  $a$  for the case of a forced slope of 0.2 in Col. 11 and the value of  $H_0$  in Col. 12 will be discussed in Sect. 3.

The main result from Table 2 is the mean weighted slope of the Hubble lines in Col. 6 from different distance indicators. It amounts to  $0.196 \pm 0.004$ . This is impressively close to the case of linear expansion with slope 0.2. It is stressed again that the value of  $H_0$  is therefore the same everywhere in the free expansion field.  $H_0$  can hence be determined at any distance where the most suitable distance indicators are available. “Suitable” means in this context high quality and a sufficient quantity to reduce the random error caused by peculiar motions. The influence of the latter is of course larger at small distances requiring in that case a larger number of good distances.

The values  $v_{\text{pec}}$  in Col. 10 of Table 2 hold for field galaxies, but also include galaxies in groups because their velocity dispersion is not significantly different. The few cluster galaxies are entered with the mean cluster velocity. Even if the tabulated peculiar velocities carry statistical errors of the order of 10–20% there is no doubt that they increase with distance. While the individual distances of 100 field and group galaxies from the Hubble line give a mean value of  $v_{\text{pec}} = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  within 7 Mpc,  $v_{\text{pec}}$  increases to  $130 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  at a distance of  $900 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  (14.4 Mpc). At still larger distances the contribution of the peculiar velocities is of the same size as the distance errors and only upper limits can be set for  $v_{\text{pec}}$ . The upper limit of  $v_{\text{pec}} = 290 \text{ km s}^{-1}$

**Table 2** Characteristics of the expansion field

Range (1)	Distance indicator (2)	$n$ (3)	Slope direct (4)	Slope inverse (5)	Slope orthogonal (6)	$v_{220}$ median (7)	$\sigma_m$ (8)	$v_{pec}/v_{220}$ (9)	$v_{pec}$ (10)	$a$ (0,2 fixed) (11)	$H_0$ (12)
3.9-4.4 Mpc	TRGB	20	...	...	...	282	(0.74)	(0.41)	(114)	$-3.180 \pm 0.034$	$66.1 \pm 5.2$
>4.4 Mpc	TRGB	78	$0.166 \pm 0.019$	$0.332 \pm 0.038$	$0.199 \pm 0.019$	371	0.47	0.24	90	$-3.201 \pm 0.011$	$63.0 \pm 1.6$
260-1,550 km s <sup>-1</sup>	Cep	29	$0.189 \pm 0.013$	$0.212 \pm 0.014$	$0.200 \pm 0.010$	904	0.30	0.15	130	$-3.198 \pm 0.012$	$63.4 \pm 1.7$
310-2,000 km s <sup>-1</sup>	SNe Ia	20	$0.175 \pm 0.021$	$0.219 \pm 0.026$	$0.192 \pm 0.016$	1,575	0.40	0.20	320	$-3.220 \pm 0.019$	$60.3 \pm 2.6$
2,000-10,000 km s <sup>-1</sup>	TF clusters	28	$0.194 \pm 0.005$	$0.197 \pm 0.005$	$0.196 \pm 0.004$	5,089	< 0.12	< 0.06	< 290	...	...
3,000-20,000 km s <sup>-1</sup>	SNe Ia	62	$0.192 \pm 0.003$	$0.196 \pm 0.003$	$0.194 \pm 0.002$	7,720	< 0.15	< 0.07	< 550	$-3.213 \pm 0.004$	$61.2 \pm 0.5$
same with $\Lambda = 0.7$										$-3.205 \pm 0.004$	$62.3 \pm 0.5$

Based upon mean of  $B$ ,  $V$ , and  $I$  magnitudes

at a median velocity of  $5,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  seems realistic if it is compared with the three-dimensional velocity of  $460 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  (after subtraction of the Virgocentric infall vector) of the entire Virgo complex comprising a volume out to  $\sim 3,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  with respect to the CMB (Sandage and Tammann 1985).

### 3 The zero-point calibration of TRGB, Cepheid, and SNe Ia distances

In the previous section it was shown that the variation of the all-sky value of  $H_0$  with distance is unmeasurably small. For this demonstration only relative distances were needed, yet for purely practical purposes zero-pointed TRGB, Cepheid, and SNe Ia distances were used. Their zero-point calibration follows now here.

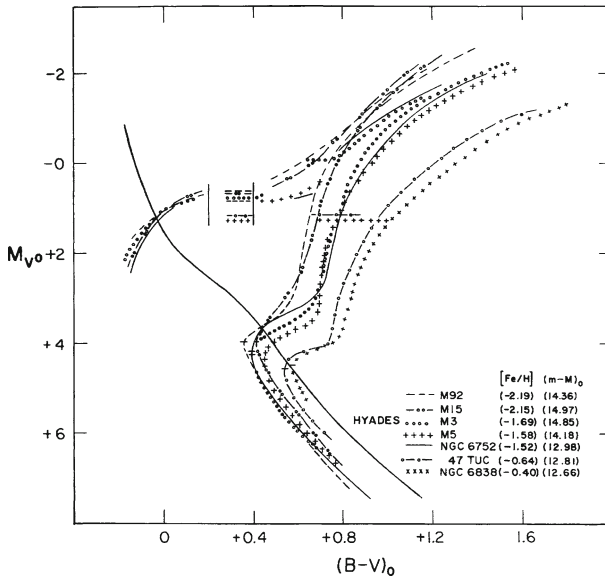
#### 3.1 The zero-point calibration of the TRGB

When Baade (1944a,b), using red-sensitive plates, pushed to resolve the brightest stars in population II galaxies such as M 32, NGC 205, NGC 147, and NGC 185 he noticed that resolution occurs abruptly upon reaching a fixed apparent magnitude. He explained the sudden onset of resolution, later coined “Baade’s sheet”, as the top of globular cluster like red-giant branches having approximately constant luminosity. On modern plates the occurrence of Baade’s sheet is striking (see e.g. Sandage and Bedke 1994, Panels 14, 15, 16, and 25). The fixed luminosity of the brightest metal-poor giants was theoretically explained by Rood (1972) and Sweigart and Gross (1978) by their degenerate cores which make the helium flash independent of mass, and it was observationally confirmed when improved RR Lyrae distances of globular clusters allowed an alignment of their CMDs (Fig. 2). From early beginnings as a distance indicator (Sandage 1971) Baade’s sheet—now named tip of the red-giant branch (TRGB)—has become by now the most powerful and most easily to use tool to determine distances out to  $\sim 10 \text{ Mpc}$  of galaxies containing an old population. The development is marked by important papers by Da Costa and Armandroff (1990), who introduced  $I$  magnitudes for the TRGB, Lee et al. (1993), Salaris and Cassisi (1997), and Sakai et al. (2004).

The absolute  $I$  magnitude of the TRGB was calibrated in TSR 08 using 24 galaxies for which RR Lyrae distances and apparent magnitudes  $m_I^{\text{TRGB}}$  are available. The latter were compiled from the literature and averaged where necessary. The RR Lyrae distances are taken from Table 1 of TSR 08, where also the original sources are referenced. The calibration for evolved RR Lyr stars is taken from Sandage and Tammann (2006, Eq. (8)). The resulting TRGB luminosity is (omitting Sag dSph and the Phoenix dwarf with less reliable observations)

$$M_I^{\text{TRGB}} = -4.05 \pm 0.02 \quad (5)$$

for an old population with average metallicity  $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]_{\text{ZW}} = -1.5$  in the system of Zinn and West (1984). The systematic error is entirely determined by the RR Lyrae stars; it is estimated to be  $\leq 0.1 \text{ mag}$ . It is stressed that the calibration is independent of any Cepheid distances.



**Fig. 2** The composite CMD for seven globular clusters. Note that the brightest red giant stars of the five most metal-poor clusters have very similar absolute magnitudes of about  $M_V = -2.5$  (from Sandage 1986b). The  $I$  magnitude of the brightest red giants is even more stable near  $M_I = -4.05$  as found by Da Costa and Armandroff (1990)

The calibration in Eq. (5) agrees to better than 0.1 mag with other results (e.g. Bergbusch and Vandenberg 2001; Sakai et al. 2004; Bellazzini et al. 2004; Rejkuba et al. 2005). Rizzi et al. (2007b) have fitted the Horizontal Branch (HB) of five galaxies to the metal-dependent HB of Carretta et al. (2000) whose zero point rests on trigonometric parallaxes. Their result is identical to Eq. (5) for the same average metallicity.

Model calculations show that the tip luminosity depends on metallicity (Salaris and Cassisi 1998; Bellazzini et al. 2004; Rizzi et al. 2007b). The sign of the change is not clear, however the authors agree that it is not more than  $\pm 0.05$  mag over the range of  $-2.0 < [\text{Fe}/\text{H}]_{\text{ZW}} < -1.2$ ; only for still higher metallicities the tip magnitude is significantly fainter. The observational evidence fits into these results (see Fig. 1 of TSR 08). The compromise here is to adopt Eq. (5) throughout, independent of metallicity. The resulting error is certainly  $< 0.1$  mag for red giants in the quoted metallicity range. For many galaxies the tip metallicity (or color) is not known; the few cases which fall possibly outside this wide metallicity range are statistically negligible.

For 240 galaxies with  $I$  magnitudes of the TRGB in the literature distance moduli (corrected for Galactic absorption) out to  $\sim 10$  Mpc are given in Table 1 Col. 6, on the uniform basis of Eq. (5). The original sources are listed in Col. 11.

### 3.2 The P–L relation of Cepheids and their zero point

Since Leavitt's (1908, Leavitt and Pickering 1912) discovery of the period–luminosity (P–L) relation of Cepheids it was assumed that the P–L relation of classical Cepheids is universal. Hence calibrated P–L relations in different wavelengths were derived (e.g. Kraft 1961; Sandage and Tammann 1968; Madore and Freedman 1991) and

indiscriminately applied. The assumption of universality, however, was early on shattered when [Gascoigne and Kron \(1965\)](#) found that the Cepheids in LMC are bluer than those in the Galaxy—which alone precludes universal P–L relations—and moreover when [Laney and Stobie \(1986\)](#) found the LMC Cepheids to be hotter than their Galactic counterparts at given period. More recent data confirm the dissimilarity of metal-rich Galactic Cepheids and metal-poor LMC Cepheids.

Turning first to the Galactic Cepheids, good colors are available for them mainly through the individual reddening corrections of [Fernie \(1990, Fernie et al. 1995\)](#); slightly revised by [Tammann et al. 2003](#)). Distances are known of 33 Cepheids in clusters and associations ([Feast 1999](#)). Seven of the cluster distances have recently been confirmed to within 0.1 mag by [An et al. \(2007\)](#). All cluster distances rest on an adopted Pleiades modulus of 5.61 which is secure to 0.02.

In addition absolute magnitudes of 36 Galactic Cepheids come from the so-called BBW method ([Baade 1926; Becker 1940; Wesselink 1946](#)) of moving atmospheres as improved by [Barnes and Evans \(1976\)](#). In 33 cases the absolute magnitudes rest on radial-velocity measurements ([Fouqué et al. 2003; Barnes et al. 2003](#)) and in three cases on interferometric diameter measurements ([Kervella et al. 2004](#) and references therein). The 36 Cepheids and the cluster Cepheids give quite similar slopes of their respective P–L relations and agree at a period of  $P = 10^d$  to within 0.08 mag. If the two data sets are combined with equal weight they give the following Galactic P–L relations in  $B, V, I$  ([Sandage et al. 2004](#)):

$$M_B^0 = -2.692 \log P - 0.575 \tag{6}$$

$$M_V^0 = -3.087 \log P - 0.914 \tag{7}$$

$$M_I^0 = -3.348 \log P - 1.429. \tag{8}$$

They are adopted in the following. They give absolute magnitudes at  $P = 10^d$  which are only 0.05 mag fainter than from trigonometric HST parallaxes of ten Cepheids ([Benedict et al. 2007](#)) or 0.01 mag fainter if some Hipparcos parallaxes are added ([van Leeuwen et al. 2007](#)). This excellent agreement does not hold over the entire period interval as discussed below.

In a second step the LMC P–L relations can independently be derived from 680 Cepheids with dereddened  $B, V,$  and  $I$  magnitudes from [Udalski et al. \(1999\)](#), to which 97 longer-period Cepheids are added from various sources. They cannot be fitted by a single slope, but show a break at  $P = 10^d$ . The resulting LMC P–L relations are ([Sandage et al. 2004](#))

for  $\log P < 1$       and for  $\log P > 1$

$$M_B^0 = -2.683 \log P - 0.995 \quad M_B^0 = -2.151 \log P - 1.404 \tag{9}$$

$$M_V^0 = -2.963 \log P - 1.335 \quad M_V^0 = -2.567 \log P - 1.634 \tag{10}$$

$$M_I^0 = -3.099 \log P - 1.846 \quad M_I^0 = -2.822 \log P - 2.084. \tag{11}$$

The zero point is set here by an adopted LMC modulus of 18.54. The value is the mean of 29 determinations from different authors and methods from 1997 to 2007 as

compiled in STS 06 and TSR 08. Lower values in the literature come mostly from the unjustified assumption that Galactic and LMC Cepheids are directly comparable. – The break at  $P = 10^d$  withstands several statistical tests (Ngeow et al. 2005; Kanbur et al. 2007; Koen and Siluyele 2007), besides being well visible by eye. Also the pulsation models of Marconi et al. (2005) show the break for the metallicity of LMC; it is, however, absent for the higher metallicity of the Galaxy.

It is suggestive that the difference of the P–C and P–L relations in the Galaxy and LMC is caused, at least in part, by the different metallicity of the two galaxies. This leads to the following procedure to derive Cepheid distances of galaxies with intermediate metallicities. Two distances are derived for a given galaxy, one from the Galactic and one from the LMC P–L relation. Noting that Galactic Cepheids have  $[O/H]_{Te} = 8.62$  and LMC Cepheids  $[O/H]_{Te} = 8.36$ —in the  $[O/H]_{Te}$  scale of Kennicutt et al. (2003) and Sakai et al. (2004)—the two distances are then interpolated and slightly extrapolated according to the metallicity of the galaxy under study (STT 06). The resulting Cepheid distances show no significant metallicity effect if compared with TRGB, SNe Ia, and velocity distances (TSR 08). There are indications that eventually other parameters like He-abundance (Marconi et al. 2005) must be involved to explain all differences of the P–L relations.

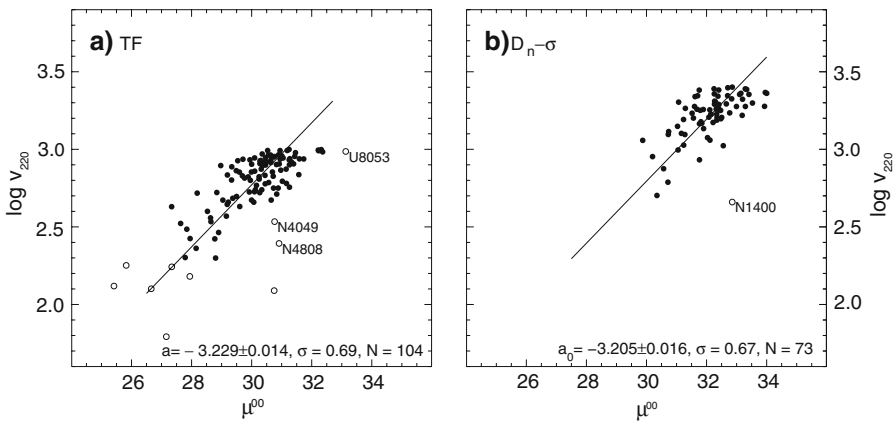
The determination of Cepheid distances is complicated by the necessity to deredden external Cepheids. This requires P–L relations in at least two colors, which implies that an assumption on the intrinsic color (P–C relation) must be made. Most Cepheids outside the Local Group were observed with HST in  $V$  and  $I$  magnitudes. For distances derived from the LMC P–L relation in  $V$  the P–C relation must consistently be applied to derive  $E(V-I)$ . Distances derived from the Galactic P–L relation must correspondingly be dereddened with the Galactic P–C relation. Since Galactic Cepheids are redder in  $(V-I)$  than LMC Cepheids of the same period, the reddening and the absorption corrections of a Galactic Cepheid is therefore smaller than of an LMC Cepheid of the same observed color and period.

The smaller absorption correction of the red, metal-rich Galactic Cepheids is partially offset by the overluminosity of the blue, metal-poor LMC Cepheids. As Eqs. (6)–(11) show LMC Cepheids with  $\log P = 0.5$  are brighter in  $B$ ,  $V$ , and  $I$  than Galactic Cepheids by 0.42, 0.36, and 0.30 mag. The difference decreases with increasing period and changes sign at about  $\log P = 1.5$  (depending on wavelength).

Table 3 shows the effect on distance if an unreddened Galactic Cepheid with period  $P$  and Galactic properties is “mistreated” with the  $V$  and  $I$  P–L relations of LMC. Cols. 3 and 4 give  $M_V$  and  $(V-I)$  for a Galactic Cepheid, Cols. 5 and 6 the same for an LMC Cepheid. If the latter values are applied to a Galactic Cepheid one derives the spurious reddenings and absorptions in Cols. 7 and 8. The absorption diminishes the effective LMC luminosity in Col. 5 to the values in Col. 9. A comparison of Col. 9 with Col. 3 gives then the distance error in the sense  $\mu(\text{LMC}) - \mu(\text{Gal})$ . The change of sign of the distance error with period makes that a Cepheid sample with a wide period distribution will be assigned a rather reasonable mean distance. But most Cepheids outside the Local Group have long periods ( $P_{\text{median}} \approx 25^d$ ) and, if metal-rich, their distances will be systematically underestimated by  $\sim 0.1$  mag, or even more in case of very metal-rich Cepheids with particularly long periods.

**Table 3** Distance difference  $\mu(\text{LMC}) - \mu(\text{Gal})$  of a Galactic Cepheid with period  $P$  depending on whether it is reduced with the Galactic or LMC P-L and P-C relations

Galaxy			LMC						
$P$	$\log P$	$M_V$	$(V-I)$	$M_V$	$(V-I)$	" $E(V-I)$ "	" $A_V$ "	" $M_V$ "	$\Delta(m-M)$
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
5	0.70	-3.07	0.676	-3.49	0.613	0.063	0.21	-3.28	+0.21
10	1.00	-4.00	0.753	-4.25	0.678	0.075	0.25	-4.00	$\pm 0.00$
15	1.18	-4.56	0.799	-4.66	0.752	0.047	0.15	-4.51	-0.05
20	1.30	-4.93	0.830	-4.97	0.790	0.040	0.13	-4.84	-0.07
25	1.40	-5.24	0.355	-5.23	0.821	0.034	0.11	-5.12	-0.12
30	1.48	-5.48	0.876	-5.42	0.846	0.030	0.10	-5.38	-0.15



**Fig. 3** The Hubble diagram of **a** TF distances of a complete sample of spiral galaxies with  $v_{220} < 1,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , **b**  $D_n - \sigma$  distances of E galaxies with  $v_{220} < 2,500 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ,  $H_0 = 62$  assumed. The open symbols are galaxies with  $\mu^{00} < 28.2$  and some outliers. The apparent widening of the Hubble line with distance is a statistical effect due to relatively large distance errors

The steep P-L relations of the Galaxy are shared by the metal-rich Cepheids of some other galaxies (NGC 3351, NGC 4321, M 31), and there is a general trend for less metal-rich Cepheids to exhibit progressively flatter slopes (TSR 08, Fig. 4). This supports the interpretation that metallicity is at least one of the parameters that determines the P-L slope. But the metal-rich Cepheids in an inner field of NGC 4258 (Macri et al. 2006) define a P-L slope as flat as in LMC. It follows from this that still another parameter than metallicity affects the P-L relations. The models of Marconi et al. (2005) identify the He content as a prime candidate.

The difference of the P-L relations in the Galaxy and in LMC cannot be questioned, but the Galactic slope, resting on only 69 open-cluster and BBW calibrators, may still be open to revisions. Gieren et al. (2005) and Fouqué et al. (2007) have in fact proposed less steep slopes by changing in case of the BBW method the period dependence of the projection factor  $p$ , which converts observed radial velocities into pulsational

velocities. Also [Benedict et al. \(2007\)](#) and [van Leeuwen et al. \(2007\)](#) plead for a flatter slope on the basis of a dozen parallax measurements. However, one must then discard the evidence of cluster Cepheids. In any case the assumption of one universal flat, LMC-like P–L relation would leave unexplained the redness of the Galactic Cepheids and the break of the LMC P–L relation at  $P = 10^d$  and its absence in the Galaxy.

The absorption-corrected distance moduli of 37 galaxies, adjusted for metallicity as described above, were derived by [STT 06](#) and of four additional galaxies by [TSR 08](#), where also the original sources are given. The Cepheids of three very metal-poor galaxies were tied without further metallicity corrections to those of SMC for which a mean modulus of  $\mu_{\text{SMC}} = 18.93 \pm 0.02$  was adopted from five independent methods (see [TSR 08](#), Table 7). The total of 43 Cepheid distances is compiled in Table 1, Col. 7. The 29 galaxies with distances  $>4.4$  Mpc are shown in a distance-calibrated Hubble diagram (Fig. 1b). The slope of the Hubble line has been discussed in Sect. 3.2 without the necessity of zero-pointed distances. With the calibration now in hand the intercept becomes  $a = -3.198 \pm 0.012$  (Table 2).

The random error of the Cepheid distances will be discussed in Sect. 3.4. For a  $10^d$  Cepheid with Galactic metallicity the systematic error of the distance, which depends on cluster Cepheids, BBW distances, and which agrees so well with trigonometric parallaxes, is not more than 0.05 mag. For other metallicities the distance error may increase with  $\Delta\mu = (0.05 \pm 0.10) \Delta[\text{O}/\text{H}]_{\text{Te}}$  as shown from a comparison of Cepheid distances with TRGB, SNe Ia, and velocity distances ([TSR 08](#)). The dependence is insignificant and will in any case, even for the lowest metallicities, introduce an additional distance error of less than 0.1 mag.

### 3.3 The zero-point calibration of SNe Ia

The luminosity calibration of SNe Ia was discussed in detail by [STT 06](#) and is not repeated here. For ten normal SNe Ia, corrected for Galactic and internal absorption and homogenized to a common decline rate and color, Cepheid distances are available. They yield the following absolute magnitudes at  $B$  maximum ([STS 06](#)):

$$M_B = -19.49 \pm 0.04 \quad M_V = -19.46 \pm 0.04 \quad M_I = -19.22 \pm 0.04. \quad (12)$$

They are brighter by 0.12 mag than adopted by [Freedman et al. \(2001\)](#) and by 0.25 mag than derived from only four calibrators by [Riess et al. \(2005\)](#). A strict comparison of these values is not possible because the magnitudes are reduced to standard decline rates and colors, but the fainter values are based on a version of the P–L relation adopted for the metal-poor LMC Cepheids, although most of the calibrators are metal-rich. Since most of the relevant Cepheids have also long periods the difference in metallicity is important (cf. Table 3).

A first attempt to independently calibrate SNe Ia through the TRGB rests so far on only two galaxies with their own TRGB distances and on two more galaxies in the Leo I group, for which a mean TRGB distance can be used. The quite preliminary result is  $M_V = -19.37 \pm 0.06$  ([TSR 08](#)) which is in statistical agreement with Eq. (12).



**Table 4** Comparison of different distance determinations

	N	$\Delta\mu$	$\sigma_{m-M}$
$\mu_{\text{TRGB}} - \mu_{\text{RRLyr}}$	20	$0.00 \pm 0.02$	0.08
$\mu_{\text{Cep}} - \mu_{\text{TRGB}}$	17	$-0.05 \pm 0.03$	0.13

As more TRGB distances to SNe Ia will become available the method will become highly competitive.

If Eq. (12) is combined with the consistently reduced apparent magnitudes in  $B$ ,  $V$ , and  $I$  of 98 normal SNe Ia from Reindl et al. (2005) one obtains their true distance moduli. The sample has been divided into two subsets. The one comprises the 22 SNe Ia with  $v_{220} < 2,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  already discussed in Sect. 2.4. They define the distance-calibrated Hubble diagram in Fig. 1c and an intercept of  $-3.220 \pm 0.019$  which is shown in Table 2. The more distant subset contains the 62 SNe Ia with  $3,000 < v_{\text{CMB}} < 20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . They yield an intercept of  $a = -3.205 \pm 0.004$  after allowance for  $\Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.7$ . (For a flat Universe with  $\Omega_M = 0.3$ ,  $\Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.0$ , the intercept becomes  $a = -3.213 \pm 0.004$ , cf. Table 2).

The intercept of the Hubble line cannot be compared with the one obtained by Jha et al. (2007), because the apparent SNIa magnitudes were normalized in a different way and reduced to different standard parameters than in Reindl et al. (2005). The same holds for the work of Wang et al. (2006). They obtain from 73 SNe Ia a Hubble diagram with a dispersion of only  $\sigma_m = 0.12$  in  $V$  and derive a value of  $H_0 = 72.1 \pm 1.6$  (statistical error) using low Cepheid distances for their calibrating SNe Ia. However, if the Cepheid distances in Table 1 are used for their calibrators one finds  $H_0 = 65.4 \pm 1.5$ . The 5% difference from our preferred value reflects the uncertainties caused by the dereddening and normalization of the observed SNIa magnitudes.

The intercepts  $a$  obtained from the zero-point calibration of the TRGB, Cepheid, and SNIa distances are collected in Table 2, Col. 11.

### 3.4 Comparison of different distance determinations

#### 3.4.1 Comparison of individual galaxies

The internal accuracy of the TRGB and Cepheid distances in Table 1 can be determined by comparison with RR Lyrae distances and by intercomparison (Table 4).

The zero difference of the TRGB and RR Lyrae distances is no surprise because the latter have served as calibrators. More remarkable is the small dispersion which implies that the random error of either distance indicator is certainly less than 0.1 mag. A generous error of 0.15 mag has been adopted above. Still more remarkable is in view of the independent zero points the barely significant difference of  $0.05 \pm 0.03$  mag between the Cepheid and TRGB distances, the former being smaller. The difference is neglected because it is not seen in the intercepts  $a$  (Table 2), which involve a larger number of galaxies. The dispersion of 0.13 mag between the two distance indicators sets again an upper limit of say 0.15 mag for the random error of the Cepheid distances.

Also the SNIa distances carry a random error of not more than 0.15 mag as seen from the dispersion of the Hubble diagram of the distant SNe Ia.

There is only a limited number of galaxies with independent distances of comparable accuracy and with presumably small systematic errors. One case is NGC 4258 for which [Herrnstein et al. \(1999\)](#) have determined a modulus of  $29.29 \pm 0.10$  from the Keplerian motion of water maser sources about the galaxy center; the value is in statistical agreement with  $29.41 \pm 0.11$  from the mean of the TRGB and Cepheid distance. [Ribas et al. \(2005\)](#) have derived the distance of NGC 224 (M 31) from an eclipsing binary to be  $24.44 \pm 0.12$  in perfect agreement with the mean RR Lyr, TRGB, and Cepheid distance. The eclipsing binary distance of NGC 598 (M 33) of  $24.92 \pm 0.12$  by [Bonanos et al. \(2006\)](#) is only marginally larger than the mean of  $24.69 \pm 0.09$  from the RR Lyr stars, the TRGB, and the Cepheids. Interesting are also the four Cepheid distances that involve near-infrared magnitudes in  $J$  and  $K$ , which are believed to be less susceptible to metallicity effects and which are tied to the  $J, K$  P–L relation of LMC by [Persson et al. \(2004\)](#). The distances of NGC 300 ([Rizzi et al. 2006](#)), NGC 3109 ([Soszyński et al. 2006](#)), NGC 6822 ([Gieren et al. 2006](#)), and IC 1613 ([Pietrzyński et al. 2006](#)) differ on average from the independent distances in Table 1 by only  $0.00 \pm 0.04$  if  $(m - M)_{\text{LMC}}^0 = 18.54$  is adopted.

From this it seems that the distances in Table 1 form a *homogeneous* system based on a common zero point. The random distance error is probably  $\leq 0.15$  mag for a galaxy with one distance determination and accordingly smaller in cases of two and three determinations. Table 1 is therefore believed to be the best net of local distances presently available. It comprises a wide range of galaxy types; normal E/S0 galaxies with  $v_{220} < 1,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , however, are painfully missing.

### 3.4.2 Comparison of the intercept $a$

The most interesting result of the previous section is the close agreement of the intercepts  $a$ , as compiled in Table 2, Col. 11, from the Population II (old stars) TRGB distances larger than 4.5 Mpc and from the young-Population I Cepheid distances, because they rest on independent zero points. The difference of  $\Delta a = 0.003 \pm 0.016$  (corresponding to  $0.02 \pm 0.08$  mag) is as good as could be expected and reflects on the quality of the mutual zero-point calibrations. One could object that the agreement is coincidental because the median distance of the Cepheids is 2.4 times larger than that of the TRGB galaxies, but the invariance of  $H_0$  with distance is just what was predicted in Sect. 2 from only the slopes of the different Hubble diagrams.

To include also the weight of the numerous nearby and distant SNe Ia (in the latter case with allowance for  $\Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.7$ ) their  $a$ -values were averaged with the one from Cepheids to give  $a = -3.210 \pm 0.012$ . The SNe Ia cannot improve the zero point since they are calibrated with a subset of the same Cepheids, but they help to decrease the statistical error and directly lead into the large-scale expansion field. The preferred solution here is the mean of the latter Cepheid-based value of  $a$  and  $a = -3.201 \pm 0.011$  from the independent TRGB galaxies, i.e.  $a = -3.205 \pm 0.09$ .

From Eq. (4) follows then that

$$H_0(\text{on all scales}) = 62.3 \pm 1.3(\text{statistical error}) \pm 4(\text{systematic error}). \quad (13)$$

The systematic error here is estimated in the following way. A 10% error could be explained only if (1)  $H_0$  varied noticeably with distance which is excluded by the slope of the Hubble line very close to 0.2 (Sect. 2), or (2) if the adopted zero points of the TRGB and of Cepheids were both changed in the same direction by 0.2 mag, which seems impossible. Therefore the systematic error is still rather pessimistically estimated to be 6%. It may be noted that omission of the  $220 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  Virgocentric infall correction would decrease the local value of  $H_0$  by  $\sim 5 \text{ U}$ .

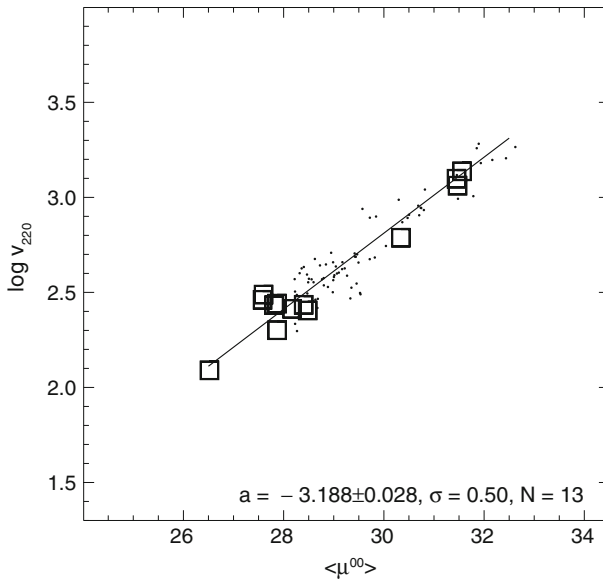
#### 4 Additional distance indicators

Too many proposals have been made, how to measure galaxy distances, to do justice to them here. Only a few methods are mentioned which have been used widely and which have provided sufficient distances for statistical tests.

##### 4.1 21cm line widths Tully-Fisher (TF) method

The spectral line width of the 21cm line or of optical lines (see [Mathewson et al. 1992a](#)), corrected for inclination  $i$ , are a measure of the rotation velocity of spirals and hence correlate with galaxy mass and luminosity ([Gouguenheim 1969](#)). The relation has been applied by [Tully and Fisher \(1977\)](#) and many subsequent authors (some of which are quoted in [Tammann and Reindl 2006](#)) for the distance determination of spirals. A reliable rotation velocity requires  $i < 45^\circ$  which unfortunately implies large corrections for internal absorption. A Hubble diagram of a *complete* distance-limited sample of 104 inclined spirals with  $v_{220} < 1,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  from [Federspiel \(1999\)](#) gives the Hubble diagram shown in Fig. 3a. The scatter of  $\sigma_m = 0.69$  is very large, too large in fact to define an independent slope of the Hubble line. Even the assumption that peculiar velocities contribute  $\sigma_m = 0.30\text{--}0.40$  leaves an intrinsic scatter of  $\sigma_m = 0.55$ . This invites in case of flux-limited samples large selection effects and too large values of  $H_0$  as well as too small estimates of the intrinsic dispersion. With the zero point from 31 Cepheids ([STS 06](#)) one obtains for the distance-limited sample  $H_0 = 59.0 \pm 1.9$ . This result, depending directly on the Cepheid calibrations, is statistically different from the result of the Cepheids themselves, which reveals some of the intricacies of the method.

With the above calibration one obtains from a *complete* sample of 49 inclined, untruncated Virgo cluster spirals, as compiled by [Federspiel et al. \(1998\)](#), and after a small correction for the color difference between calibrators and cluster galaxies a mean TF distance of  $\mu^0 = 31.58 \pm 0.16$ , or reduced to the center of the Local Group  $\mu^{00} = 31.62$  ([STS 06](#)). – [Tully and Pierce \(2000\)](#) have derived for an almost complete sample of 38 inclined spirals of the UMa cluster with  $B$ ,  $R$ ,  $I$ , and  $K'$  photometry  $\mu^0 = 31.35 \pm 0.06$ . After recalibrating their 24 calibrators with the present Cepheid distances one obtains  $\mu^0 = \mu^{00} = 31.45$ . However, the UMa field is complex and may



**Fig. 4** The Hubble diagram of ten groups and of the UMA, Virgo, and Fornax clusters. Field galaxies which are not assigned to a group are shown with *dots*

be divided into two groups at slightly different distances giving moduli of  $31.26 \pm 0.16$  for UMA I and  $31.58 \pm 0.17$  for UMA II (Sandage 2008) – The Fornax cluster with only few inclined spirals does not yield well to the TF method.

#### 4.2 $D_n - \sigma$ or the fundamental plane (FP)

The correlation of the velocity dispersion  $\sigma$  of E galaxies with their luminosity was pointed out by Minkowski (1962) and Faber and Jackson (1976). Later the luminosity was replaced by a suitably normalized diameter  $D_n$  (Dressler et al. 1987) or by surface brightness (Djorgovski and Davis 1987). The method was extended to bulges of spiral galaxies by (Dressler 1987) who derived  $H_0 = 67 \pm 10$ . Faber et al. (1989) have presented a wealth of  $D_n - \sigma$  measurements from which they have derived relative distances  $R_e$ . A subset of 73 of their galaxies brighter than 13.5 mag and with  $v_{220} < 2,500 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  constitute not a strictly complete, but apparently a quite fair sample. Their Hubble diagram is shown in Fig. 3b. The data do not allow to determine the slope, but a forced slope of 0.2 is acceptable. The large observed scatter of  $\sigma_m$  is about the same as for the TF method. Since no primary calibrators are available for E galaxies a value of  $H_0 = 62$  is assumed. This leads to the following calibration

$$\mu^0 = 5 \log R_e + 15.93. \quad (14)$$

If this relation is applied to the 15 Virgo cluster members of the sample one obtains  $\mu^0 = 31.56 \pm 0.10$ , which is still useful because it is independent of the cluster velocity.

The corresponding mean of the 10 E galaxies in the sample, which are members of the Fornax cluster, give  $\mu^0 = 31.69 \pm 0.16$ .

#### 4.3 Other distance indicators

*Surface Brightness Fluctuations (SBF).* Surface brightness fluctuations of E/S0 galaxies as a measure of distance have been introduced by [Tonry and Schneider \(1988\)](#) and have been applied with variable success (references in [Tammann and Reindl 2006](#)). One of the difficulties of the method is, as in case of the  $D_n - \sigma$  method, that no primary calibration for E galaxies exists, and S0 galaxies may or may not follow the same relation and may be more susceptible to dust. The 123 SBF distances compiled by [Tonry et al. \(2001\)](#) give a Hubble diagram with somewhat less scatter ( $\sigma_m = 0.55$ ) than from TF or  $D_n - \sigma$  distances, but the slope is *significantly* steeper than 0.2. This proves the SBF scale to be compressed with  $H_0$  increasing spuriously with distance. The problem could be caused by selection effects, but rather it is inherent to the method. The careful work of [Mei et al. \(2007\)](#) on Virgo cluster ellipticals does not (yet) contribute to the determination of  $H_0$  because they *assume* a mean cluster distance.

*Planetary nebulae (PNLF).* Following a proposal of [Ford and Jenner \(1978\)](#) the luminosity function of the shells of planetary nebulae in the light of the [OIII] $\lambda$ 5007 line has been used as a distance indicator. But the maximum luminosity seems to depend on population size ([Bottinelli et al. 1991](#); [Tammann 1993](#)), chemical composition and age ([Méndez et al. 1993](#); [Ciardullo et al. 2002](#)), and dynamics ([Sambhus et al. 2005](#)). About 30 galaxies, mainly from [Ciardullo et al. \(2002\)](#), with PNLF distances  $> 28.2$  define a Hubble diagram with large scatter and steep slope implying  $H_0$  to increase outwards. At  $\sim 1,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  the PNLF distance scale has lost about 0.5 mag as shown by five galaxies ([Feldmeier et al. 2007](#)) with known SNe Ia whose resulting mean luminosity of  $M_V(\text{SNe Ia}) = -18.96$  should be compared with Eq. (12).

*Luminosity classes (LC).* The luminosity of a spiral galaxy correlates with the “beauty” of its spiral structure. Correspondingly spirals were divided into class I (the brightest) to V (the faintest) by [van den Bergh \(1960a,b,c\)](#) with additional galaxies classified and modified by [Sandage and Bedke \(1994\)](#). The purely morphological classification is independent of distance; it yields therefore relative distances which were valuable for many years when velocity distances were suspected to be severely distorted by peculiar and streaming motions, but the dispersion is large which makes the method susceptible to bias. Locally calibrated and bias-corrected distances led to values of  $H_0$  near 55 ([Sandage and Tammann 1975b](#); [Sandage 1999b](#)).

Some methods like the brightest blue stars, used extensively by Hubble, and the size of the largest HII regions ([Sérsic 1959](#)) have lost their former importance as distance indicators. Others show increasing potential like novae which may reach out to the Virgo cluster ([Gilmozzi and Della Valle 2003](#)), but it is difficult to determine an independent zero point for them and they require much telescope time. – The turnover magnitude of the luminosity function of globular clusters (GCLF) was proposed as a

**Table 5** Distances of groups

Group (1)	N (2)	$\langle v_{220} \rangle$ (3)	$\langle \mu^0 \rangle$ (4)	$\langle \mu^{00} \rangle$ (5)
M 31	15	-21	24.39	21.73
ScI1	4	123	26.52	26.50
M 81	23	200	27.87	27.76
NGC 4236	2	254	28.48	28.46
CVn	21	259	28.17	28.21
ScI2	6	271	27.81	27.68
M 83	10	272	28.40	28.63
CenA	28	276	27.87	28.16
IC 342	7	289	27.58	27.30
NGC 2403	7	308	27.60	27.43
Leo I	7	613	30.34	30.39

**Table 6** Cluster distances  $\mu^{00}$ 

	UMa	Virgo	Fornax
TRGB	...	> 31.3 <sup>a</sup>	...
Cepheids	...	31.45 <sup>b</sup> ± 0.27	31.53 <sup>b</sup> ± 0.23
SNe Ia	...	31.54 <sup>b</sup> ± 0.29	31.60 <sup>b</sup> ± 0.15
TF	31.45 ± 0.06	31.62 ± 0.16	...
$D_n - \sigma$	...	31.60 ± 0.10	31.69 ± 0.16
Adopted (weighted)	31.45 ± 0.06	31.59 ± 0.08	31.62 ± 0.10
Distance (Mpc)	19.5 ± 0.6	20.3 ± 0.3	21.1 ± 1.1
$v_{220}$	1,253 (±40)	1,152 (±35)	1,371 (±30)
$H_0$	64.3 ± 2.9	55.4 ± 2.7	65.0 ± 3.5

<sup>a</sup> TSR 08 from data of Durrell et al. (2007) and Caldwell (2006)

<sup>b</sup> Individually listed in STS 06

standard candle by van den Bergh et al. (1985). The luminosity of the turnover was calibrated using RR Lyr distances in the Galaxy and the Cepheid distance of M 31, to be  $M_V^{\text{TO}} = -7.62$  (Sandage and Tammann 1995, see also Di Criscienzo et al. 2006). A simple-minded application to two galaxies in the Leo group and eight galaxies in the Virgo cluster gave distances that agree with those adopted here (Table 5, 6) to within  $\sim 0.1$  mag (Tammann and Sandage 1999). Kavelaars et al. (2000) found from the same method the Coma cluster to be more distant than the Virgo cluster by  $4.06 \pm 0.11$ ; this leads with  $(m-M)_{\text{Virgo}} = 31.60 \pm 0.08$  (from Table 6) to  $(m-M)_{\text{Coma}} = 35.66 \pm 0.14$ . However, the simple application of the GCLF method is questioned by the bimodal and varying color and luminosity distribution of the GCs in different galaxies (Larsen et al. 2001).

Some “physical” distances do not make use of any known astronomical distance, but are derived from the physics or geometry of an object. Some are mentioned elsewhere in this paper, like BBW distances (Fouqué et al. 2003), eclipsing binaries (Ribas et al. 2005; see also Ribas 2007), the water maser distance of NGC 4258 (Herrnstein et al. 1999), and the luminosities of Cepheids (Marconi et al. 2005). The light echo

distance of SN 1987A (Panagia 2005) has been incorporated into the zero-point distance of LMC. Much work has been devoted to model the luminosities of SNe Ia (for a summary see Branch 1998). The SN II models of Eastman et al. (1996) give distances which lead to an unrealistic increase of  $H_0$  with distance. Models of typeII-P SNe by Nugent et al. (2006) give a mean value of  $H_0 = 67 \pm 4$  for 19 objects, while Hamuy and Pinto (2002) find  $H_0 = 55 \pm 12$  for eight objects. Nadyozhin (2003) has derived from a refined model for the same objects  $H_0 = 55 \pm 5$ , but the result is still quite sensitive to the input parameters (Blinnikov et al. 2005). The list of physical distance determinations could be much extended, but it is a typical problem that their systematic errors are difficult to determine and that they are often restricted to one or a few objects.

Physical methods to determine  $H_0$  at large distances have the disadvantage to depend on the cosmological model. Important results will eventually come from the Sunyaev–Zeldovich effect (SZE) of X-ray clusters, but with values of  $H_0 = 59 - 77$  and systematic errors of  $\sim 20\%$  the results are not yet useful (Udomprasert et al. 2004; Jones et al. 2005; Bonamente et al. 2006). A powerful method to measure large distances comes from gravitational lensed quasars, however the solution for  $H_0$  is sensitive to the mass distribution of the lens, to dark halos and companion galaxies, and even to the large-scale structure in front of the lens and behind. Recent results are  $H_0 \sim 70$  (Fassnacht et al. 2006) and  $H_0 = 64^{+8}_{-5}$  (Read et al. 2007) if  $\Omega_M = 0.3$ ,  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$  is assumed. Auger et al. (2008) can fit the source SBS 1520+530 with  $H_0 = 72$  if a steep mass profile of the lens is adopted, but an isothermal model gives  $H_0 \approx 46$ .

The acoustic fluctuation spectrum of the WMAP3 data is interpreted to give a value of  $H_0 = 72$  (Spergel et al. 2007), which is also consistent with the red giant galaxy distribution of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (Tegmark et al. 2006). However, the result is model-dependent, a priori assuming for instance a perfectly flat Universe or a static value of the parameter  $\Lambda$ . A fundamentally different model allows for time dilation effects and gives a proper integration over voids and filaments by introducing density fluctuations into the Einstein equations as they affect  $H_0$ ,  $\Lambda$ , and the putative, but here illusory acceleration (Wiltshire 2007a,b). This model gives a best-fit value of  $H_0 = 61.7 \pm 1.2$  (Leith et al. 2008).

## 5 Distances of groups and clusters

The galaxies in Table 1 are assigned to different groups in Col. 2. If the distances  $\mu^{00}$  and velocities within a given group are averaged with equal weight one obtains the values shown in Table 5. In addition the data for the distances of the UMa, Virgo, and Fornax clusters are compiled in Table 6 where also the evidence from the TF and  $D_n - \sigma$  method is included. The Hubble diagram of the groups and clusters is shown in Fig. 4. A free fit of the Hubble line, including objects as close as 3.3 Mpc (!), gives a slope of  $0.181 \pm 0.017$ . A forced fit with slope 0.2 gives  $H_0 = 64.8 \pm 4.2$  or, excluding the deviating cases of the IC 342 and NGC 2403 groups,  $H_0 = 60.4 \pm 2.5$ . The average deviation from the Hubble line is only  $55 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  without a clear trend



to depend on distance. Local groups and clusters follow hence, after allowance for a Virgocentric flow model, a quiet Hubble flow.

The 72 galaxies of Table 1 with  $\mu^{00} > 28.2$ , which are *not* assigned to a group or cluster, have about the same dispersion about the Hubble line as the groups and clusters. They give  $H_0 = 63.1 \pm 1.6$ .

The distance of the Coma cluster can be estimated from its relative distance to the Virgo cluster. The difference  $\Delta(m - M)_{\text{Coma-Virgo}}$  is 3.74 from the  $D_n - \sigma$  method (Faber et al. 1989) and 4.06 from globular clusters (Kavelaars et al. 2000). Adding the mean to the Virgo modulus in Table 6 gives  $(m - M)_{\text{Coma}} = 35.50 \pm 0.15$ . The cosmic recession velocity of the Coma cluster, freed of all non Hubble velocities, can be inferred from  $D_n - \sigma$  distances relative to Coma of nine distant clusters (Jørgensen et al. 1996) to be  $7,800 \pm \text{km s}^{-1}$  (Tammann and Reindl 2006 Fig. 7), from which follows  $H_0 = 62.0 \pm 5.0$ .

## 6 Conclusions

An intercomparison of RR Lyr, TRGB, and Cepheid distances shows that their dispersion is not more than 0.15 mag. The same upper limit holds for SNe Ia as seen from the small scatter in their Hubble diagram at large distances. The four distance indicators stand out because they can provide the most accurate distances within their reach for sizable samples of galaxies and, importantly, their small dispersion makes them highly insensitive to selection bias. Although their reach is drastically different, RR Lyr stars being very short-range, SNe Ia extending to cosmological distances, and the TRGB and Cepheid distances lying in between, there is enough overlap to tie them into a single system of distances.

The combined Hubble diagram of TRGB, Cepheid, and SNe Ia distances shows a well defined Hubble line with slope 0.2, corresponding to linear expansion, over a range of  $\sim 250$  to at least  $20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . The slope of 0.2, strongly supported also by other evidence (see Sect. 2) implies that the present mean value of the Hubble constant  $H_0$  is everywhere the same (cosmological effects being exempt by definition). Most of the observed dispersion about the Hubble line must be caused by random peculiar motions; allowing for the (small) distance errors they are  $70 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  within 7 Mpc and increase outwards to a yet undetermined limit (see Table 2, Col. 10). Lower values are in the literature, but the value here seems well determined from 78 TRGB distances (Table 2).

The zero point of the Hubble line is set in two *independent* ways. (a) The absolute magnitude of the TRGB is determined by 22 RR Lyr star distances and agrees well with other determinations. The adopted magnitude of  $M_{\text{TRGB}}^I = -4.05$  carries a systematic error of hardly more than 0.1 mag. The value holds for  $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]_{\text{ZW}} = -1.6$  and changes by less than 0.1 mag in the range  $-2.0 < [\text{Fe}/\text{H}]_{\text{ZW}} < -1.3$  typical for old populations (TSR 08, Fig. 1). The resulting value of  $H_0 = 63.0 \pm 1.6$  ( $\pm 3$ ) from 78 distances larger than 4.5 Mpc refers to an effective distance of only  $\sim 400 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  where the influence of peculiar velocities is still large, but this is compensated by the large number of TRGB distances. (b) Because the P–L relations of the metal-rich Galactic Cepheids and of the metal-poor LMC Cepheids are different they are



independently calibrated. The zero point of the Galactic P–L relation rests on Cepheids in Galactic clusters and on physical BBW distances. The zero point of a 10-day Cepheid is confirmed by trigonometric parallaxes to within a few 0.01 mag, but the error can increase to  $\sim 0.15$  mag for Cepheids with the shortest and longest periods depending on the correctness of the adopted P–L slope. The LMC P–L relation with very well determined slope is zero-pointed by an adopted distance of  $\mu_{\text{LMC}}^0 = 18.54$ . This value is based on a multitude of determinations, excluding of course results depending on the P–L relations of Cepheids themselves; the error is again estimated to be 0.1 mag. It should be noted that significantly smaller LMC distances come mostly from some a priori assumption on the shape and zero point of the P–L relations of the Galaxy and LMC. The Cepheids in other galaxies with metallicities like the Galaxy or LMC are reduced with the corresponding P–L relations; in case of Cepheids with intermediate metallicities the results from the two P–L relations are interpolated. The resulting 29 Cepheid distances larger than 4.5 Mpc give  $H_0 = 63.4 \pm 1.7$  at an effective distance of  $900 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . The good agreement of the value of  $H_0$  from the TRGB and Cepheid distances is highly significant because it is predicted from the well supported linearity of the expansion field.

SNe Ia are calibrated through Cepheids and cannot independently contribute to the zero point of the distance scale. But their large number can reduce the statistical error and serve to carry the value of  $H_0$  to  $\sim 20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . They give  $H_0 = 60.3 \pm 2.6$  at an effective distance of  $1,600 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  and, allowing for a flat Universe with  $\Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.7$ ,  $H_0 = 61.2 \pm 0.5$  from 62 SNe Ia at  $v > 3,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . The adopted value of

$$H_0 = 62.3 \pm 1.3 \quad (\pm 4.0) \quad (15)$$

is the unweighted mean from the Cepheids and Cepheid-calibrated SNe Ia averaged with the result from the TRGB. The generous 6% systematic error is estimated in Sect. 3.4.2.

The value of  $H_0$  rests on the two independent zero points set by the TRGB and Cepheid distances. No other zero-pointed distance indicator is available at present, which could carry the distance scale into the expansion field, i.e. to  $> 4.5$  Mpc, for a sufficient number of 20 or more galaxies. But TF distances of a distance-limited sample of spiral galaxies and  $D_n - \sigma$  distances out to  $2,500 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  as well the Hubble diagram of nearby groups and clusters provide at least a consistency check. We are not aware of any serious objection against the adopted value of  $H_0$ .

The literature abounds in larger values of  $H_0$ . Some are based on the untenable view that the LMC P–L relation of Cepheids, whatever its exact shape and zero point, is universal. Others are the result of selection bias, which becomes particularly severe when it is tried to determine  $H_0$  at the largest distances which can be reached, and from where necessarily only the most luminous objects of their species can enter the catalogs. The importance of selection bias is often underestimated because the quality of the distance indicators is overestimated. The true quality can be determined only if there is broad overlap with high-accuracy distance indicators like RR Lyr stars or TRGB and Cepheid distances, or by consulting the Hubble diagram. The dispersion here, corrected for the reasonably well understood effect of peculiar velocities, gives the random error for a given distance indicator. Also too steep a slope, i.e.  $H_0$  increasing

with distance, is a clear sign of important bias or some other systematic problem of the method. Finally other high values of  $H_0$  are too model-dependent to be reliable.

Future progress on  $H_0$  will come from additional near-infrared photometry of Cepheids where they are relatively insensitive to absorption and metallicity. Enormous potential lies still in the TRGB distances. With a somewhat improved understanding of their metallicity dependence, which is in any case small in old populations, they can provide distances to better than  $\pm 5\%$  for well over 1,000 galaxies of all types within  $\sim 20$  Mpc with present techniques and requiring relatively little telescope time. They will thus map the local velocity field in great detail and also yield a high-weight calibration of SNe Ia extending the impact of the method to cosmological distances.

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