

Cosmology

Prof Celine Boehm

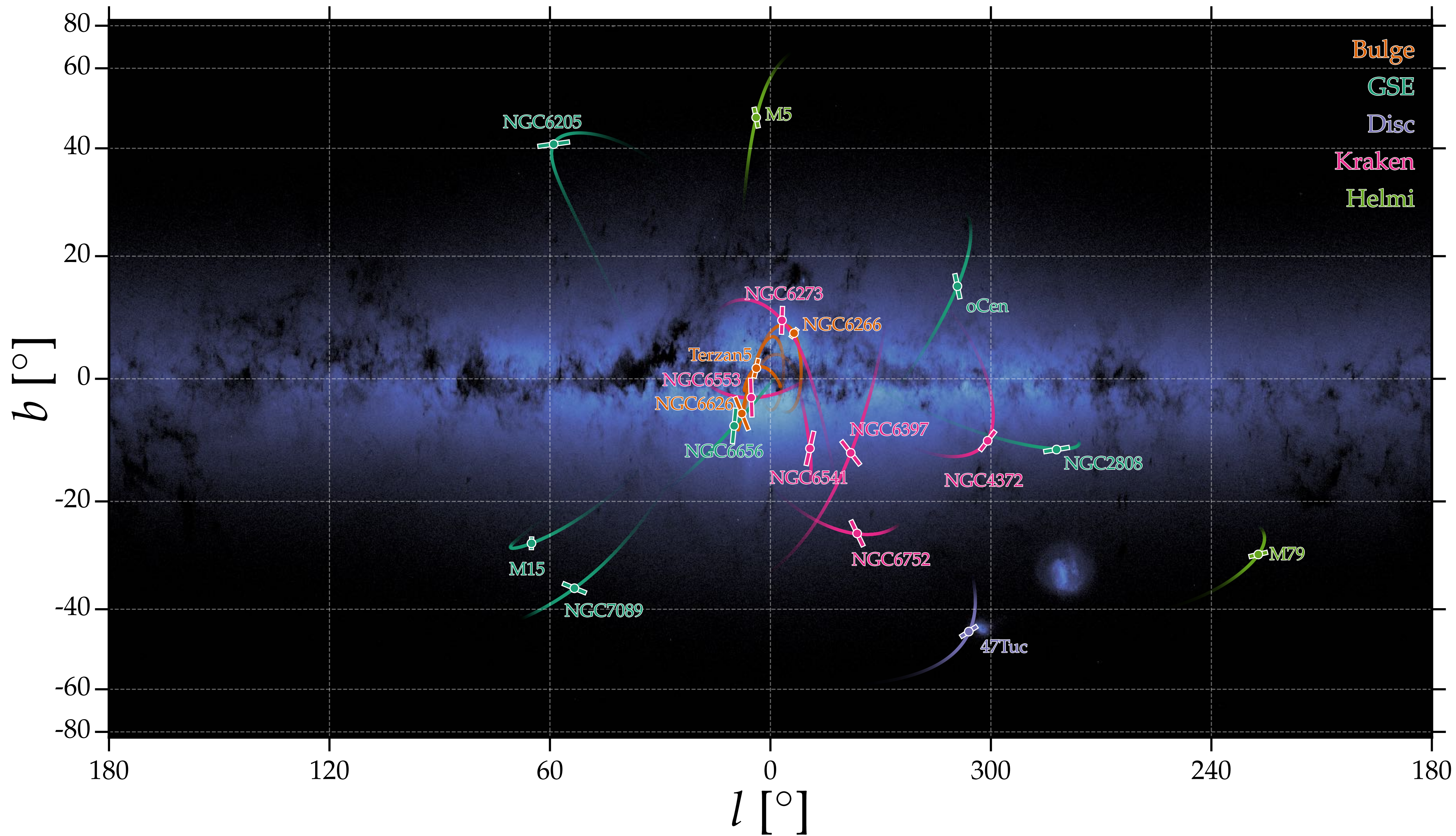




We live in a galaxy



which contains billions of stars





Our place in the Universe

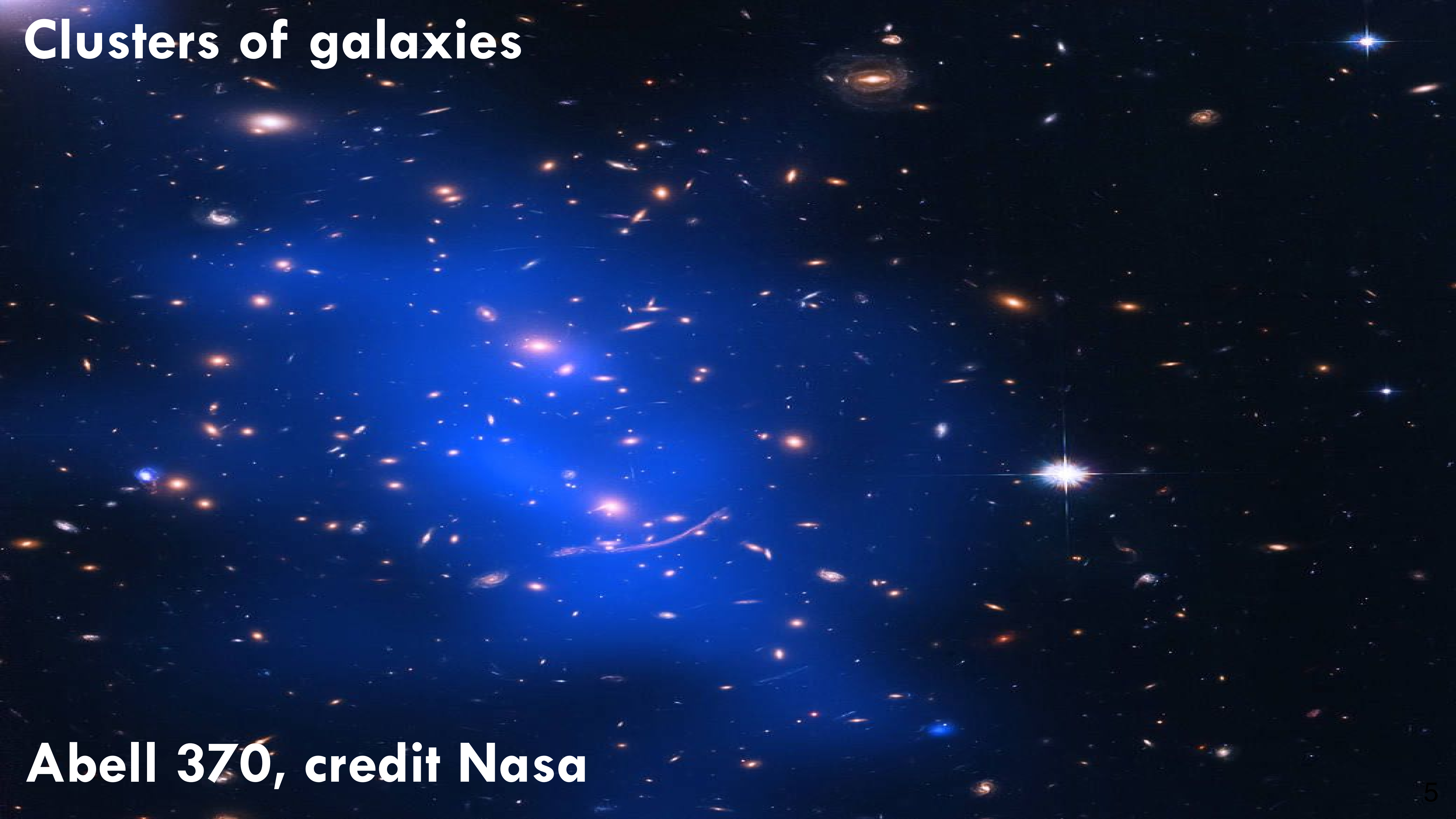
Galaxies within galaxies

LMC and SMC are galaxies within the Milky Way and many more

LMC

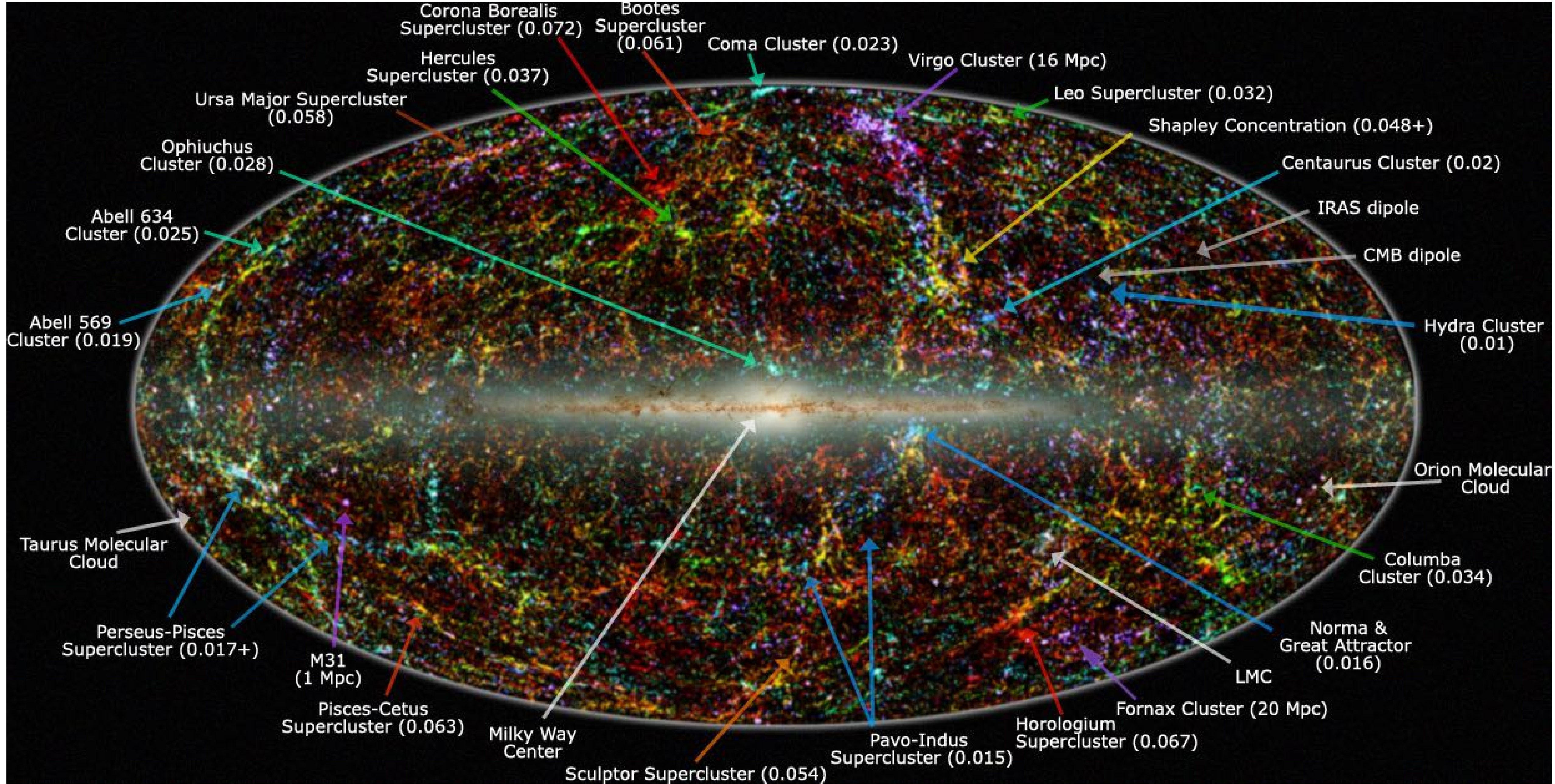
Ret II

SMC



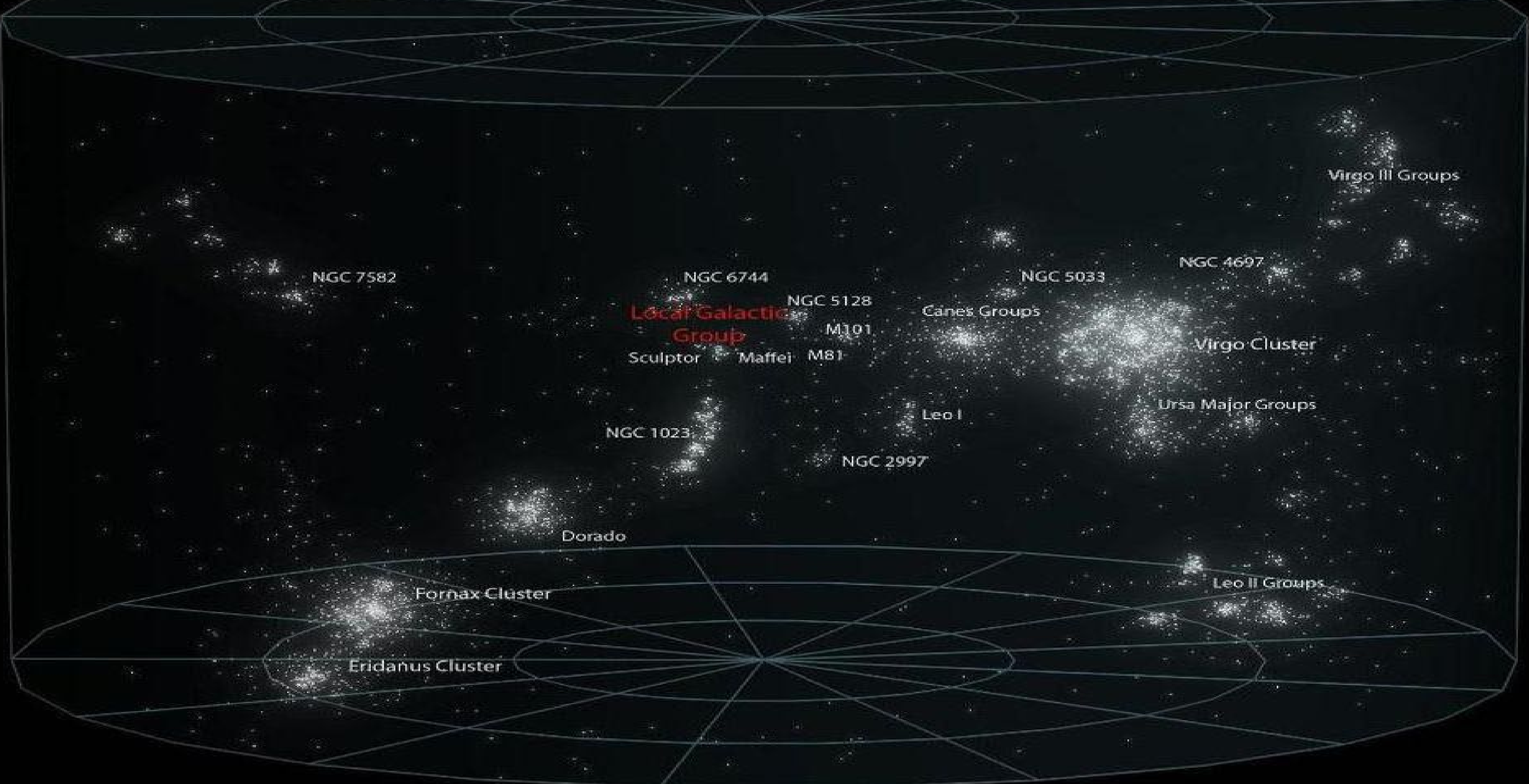
Clusters of galaxies

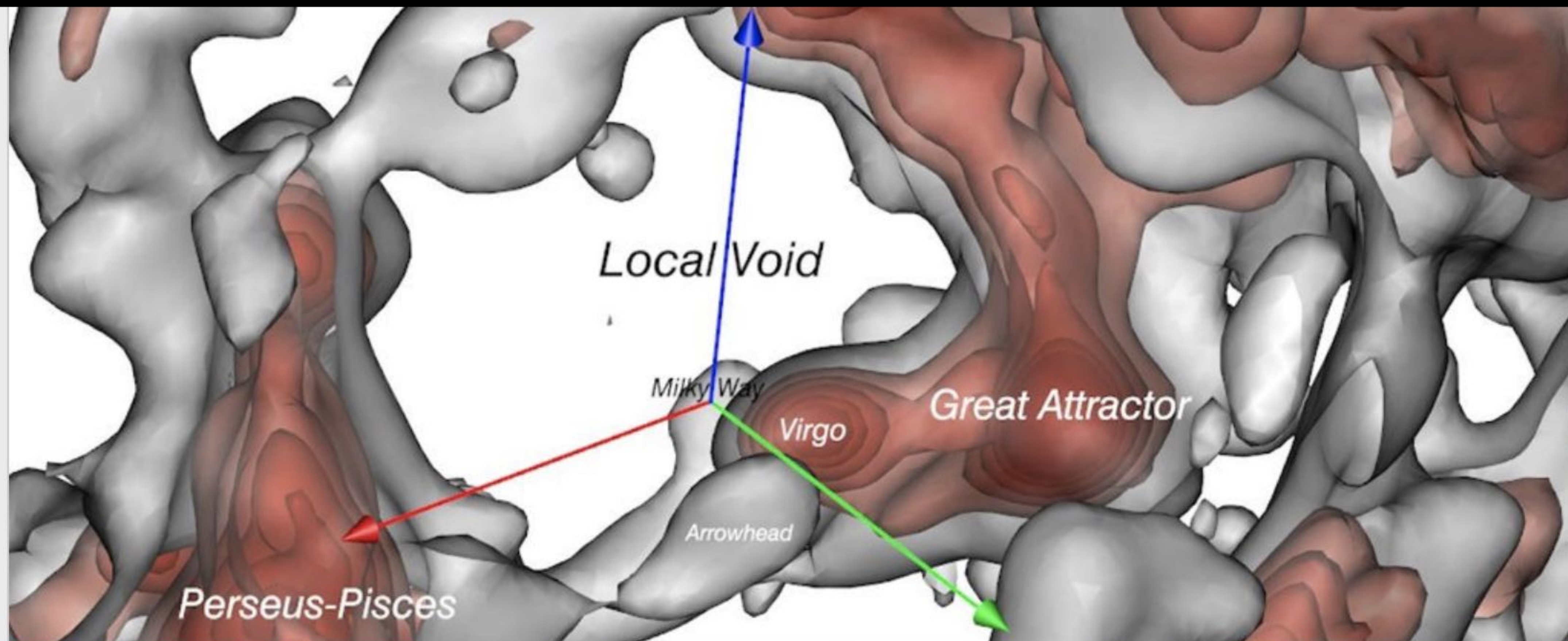
Abell 370, credit Nasa



Our Local Group belongs to an even larger structure, a supercluster with the rich **Virgo cluster** of galaxies at its centre, about 70 million light years (about 21 **Mpc**) away. (Courtesy Astronomy @ Swinburn uni)

Laniakea, our super cluster

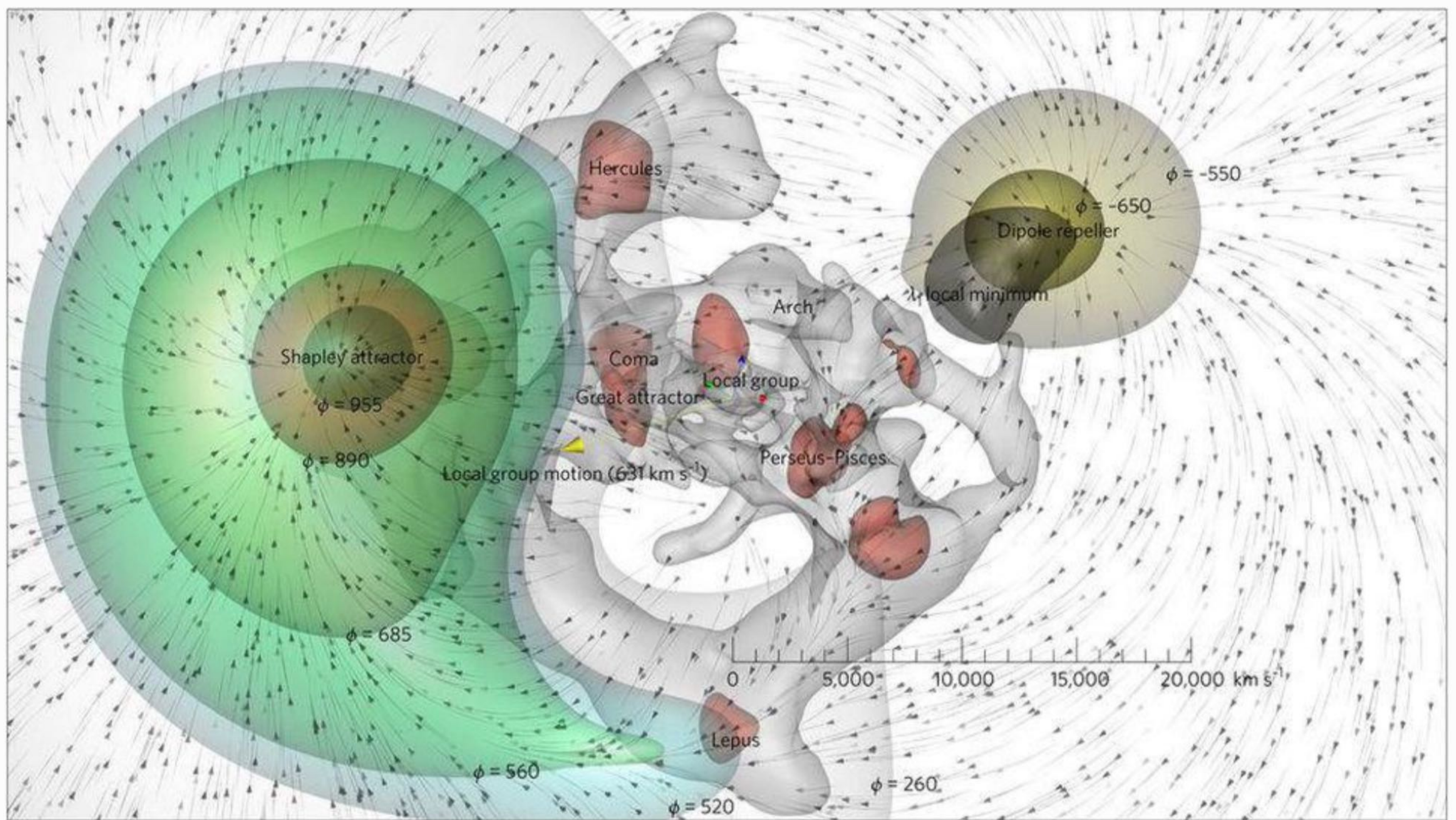




SPACE

There's a Huge Void Near Our Galaxy. Its Mysterious Depths Have Just Been Measured

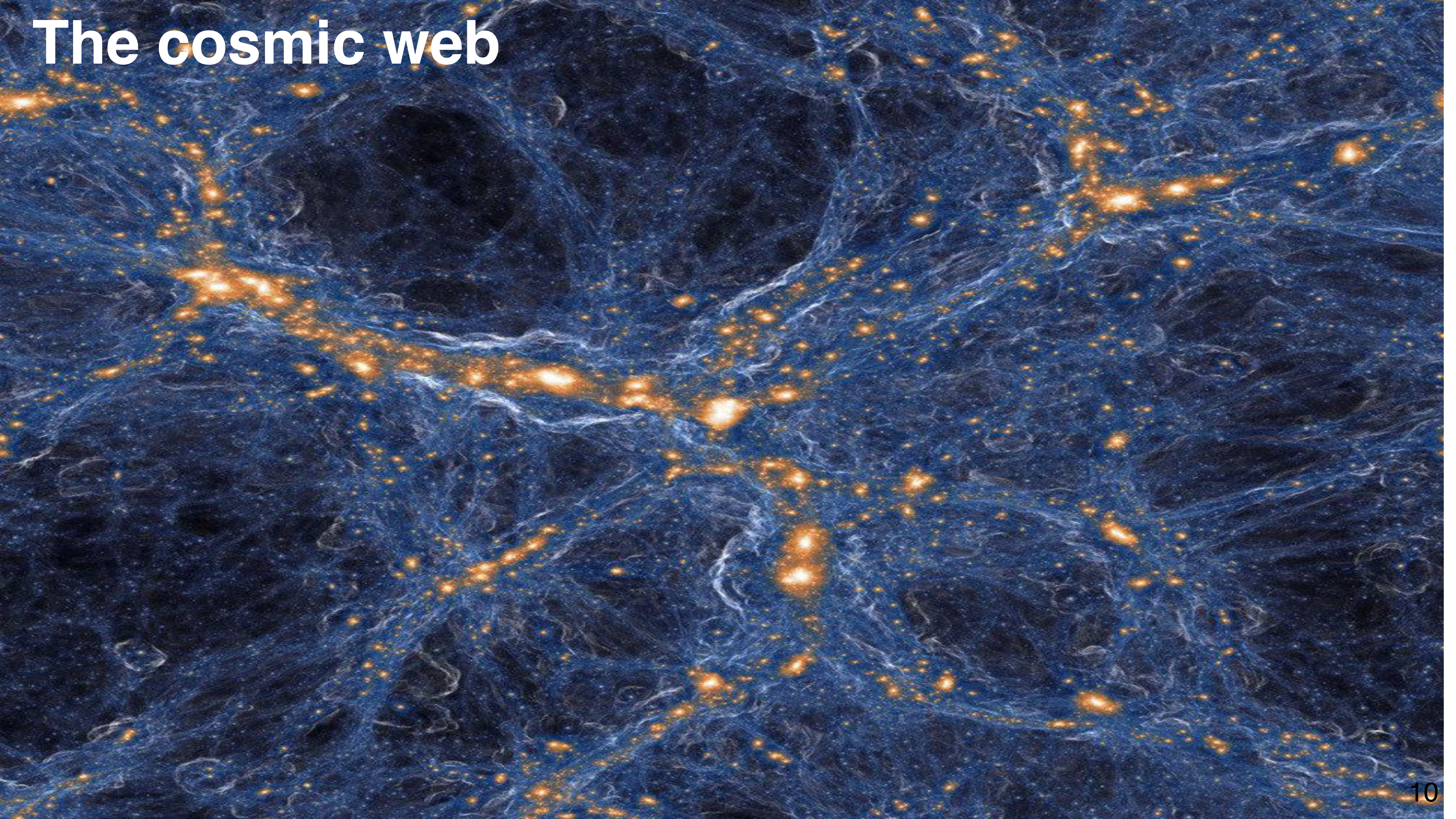
EVAN GOUGH, UNIVERSE TODAY 23 JUL 2019



The relative attractive and repulsive effects of overdense and underdense regions on the Milky Way...

[+] YEHUDA HOFFMAN, DANIEL POMARÈDE, R. BRENT TULLY, AND HÉLÈNE COURTOIS, NATURE ASTRONOMY 1, 0036 (2017)

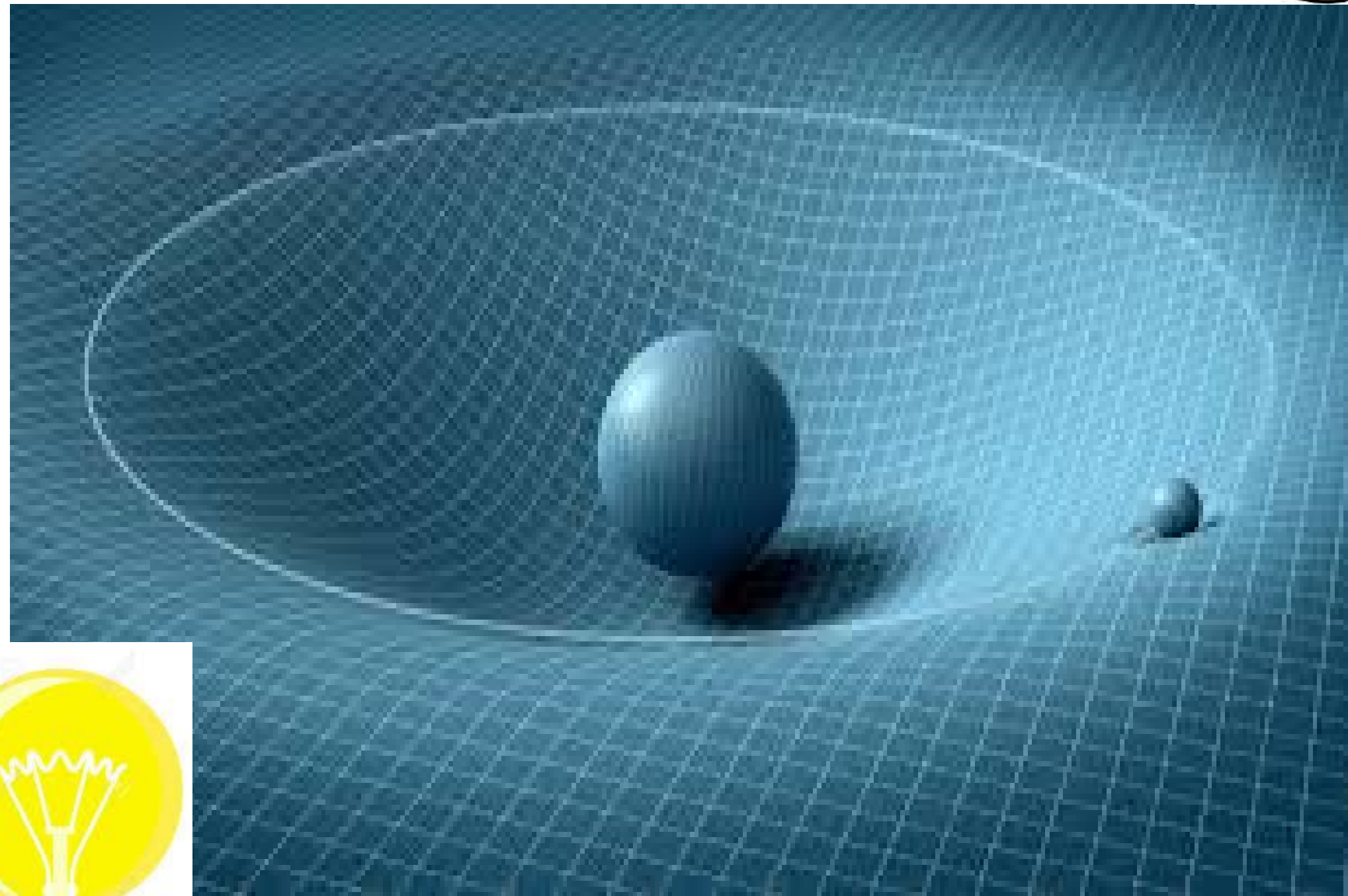
The cosmic web



How did we get this particular Universe?

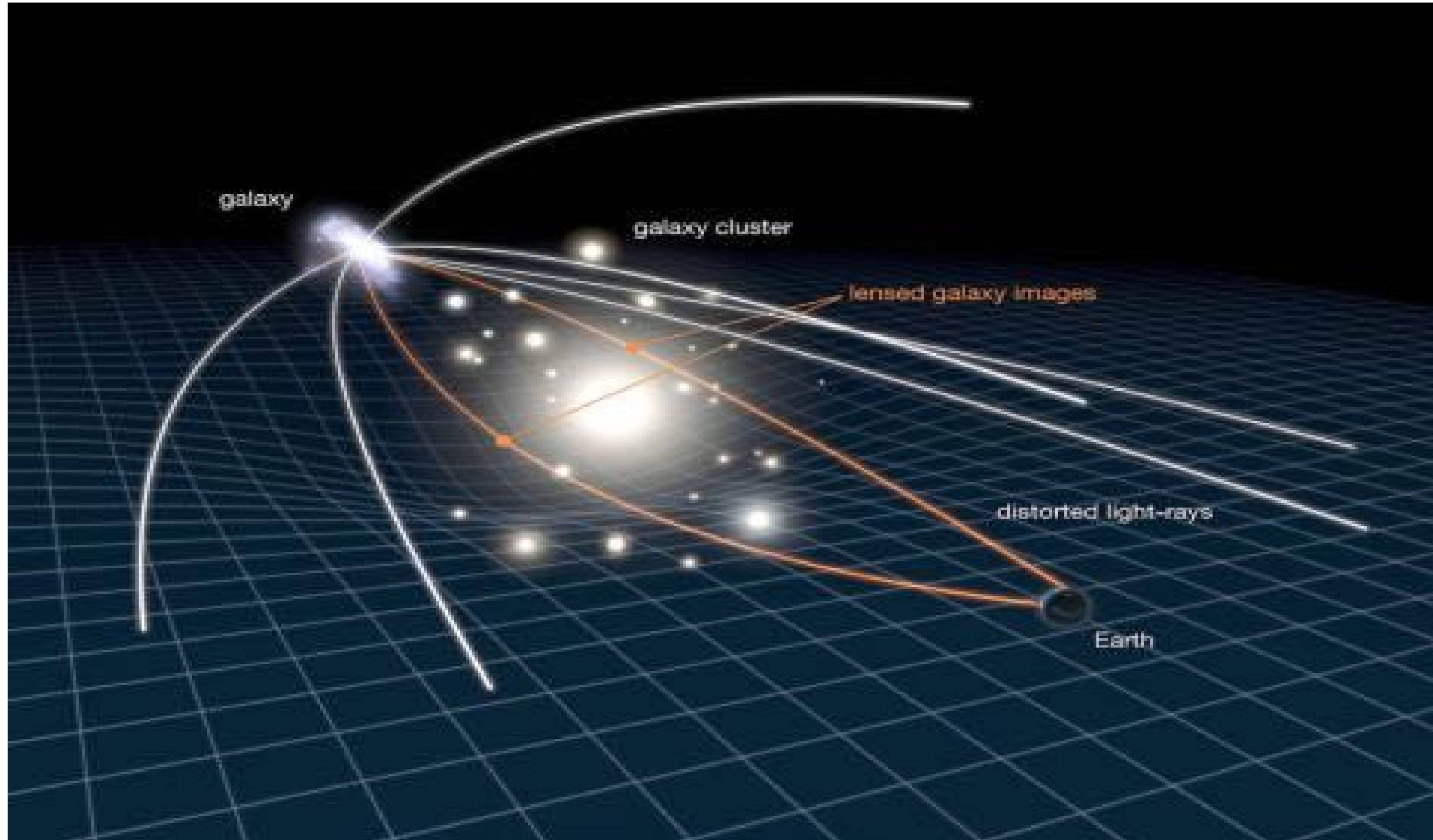
**This is first and foremost a story about photons
making their way to us**

Do photons travel straight?



Light follows space-time but its path will be distorted and therefore its path is curved.

We know that matter curves space-time

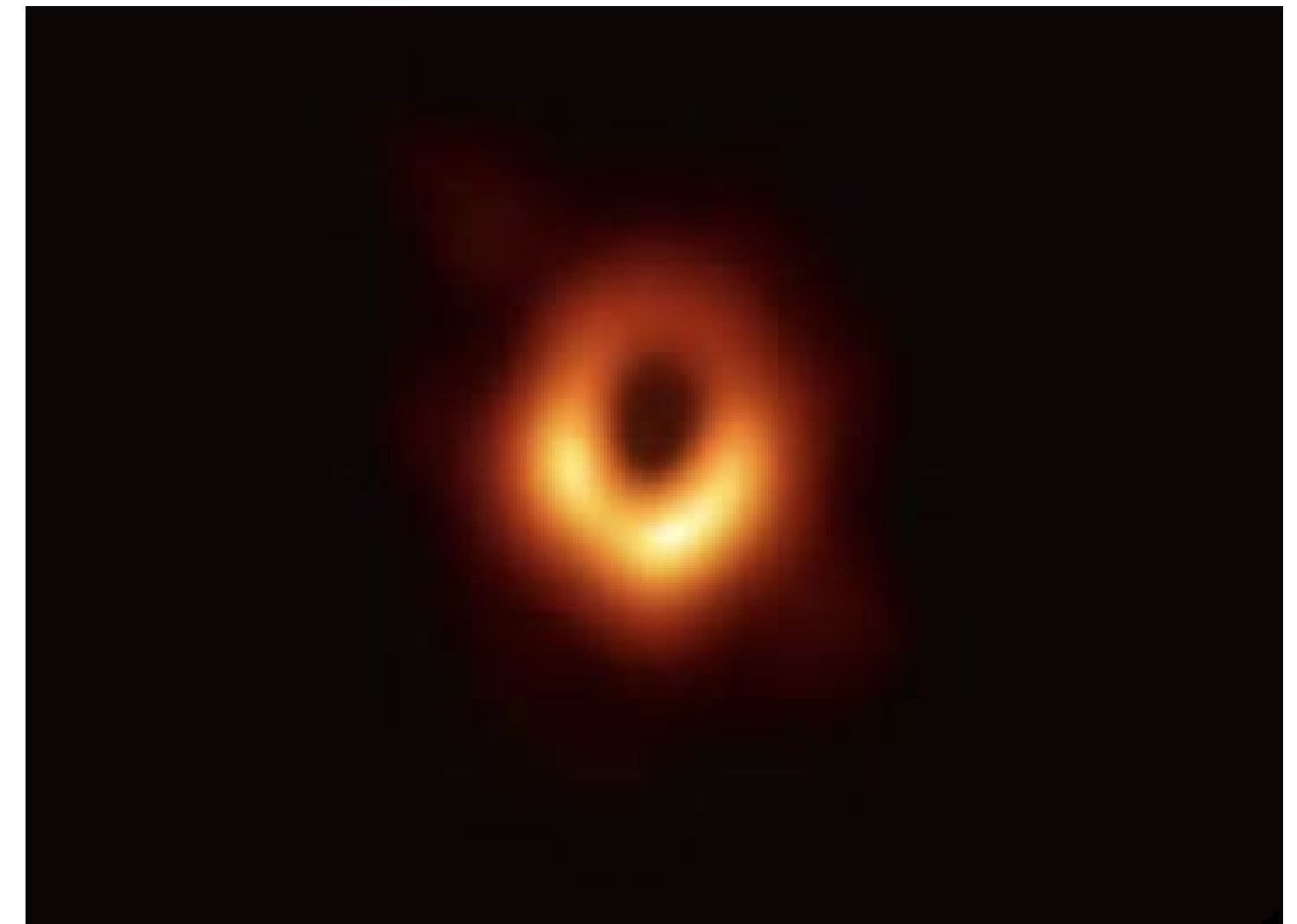


We know that matter curves space-time



The matter inside is curving space
So all objects appear distorted
One can use these distortions to reconstruct
the invisible mass

Event horizon is the same phenomena
EHT collaboration 2019



My take on cosmology

Geometry of the Universe

Content of the Universe

CMB & structure formation

The invisible (challenges)

Part I. Geometry

The fact that the photons travel means we need to define a metric

Minkowski metric $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$

Metric associated with a flat space-time

But this is not taking into account the key principles from GR and the fact that matter can curve space.

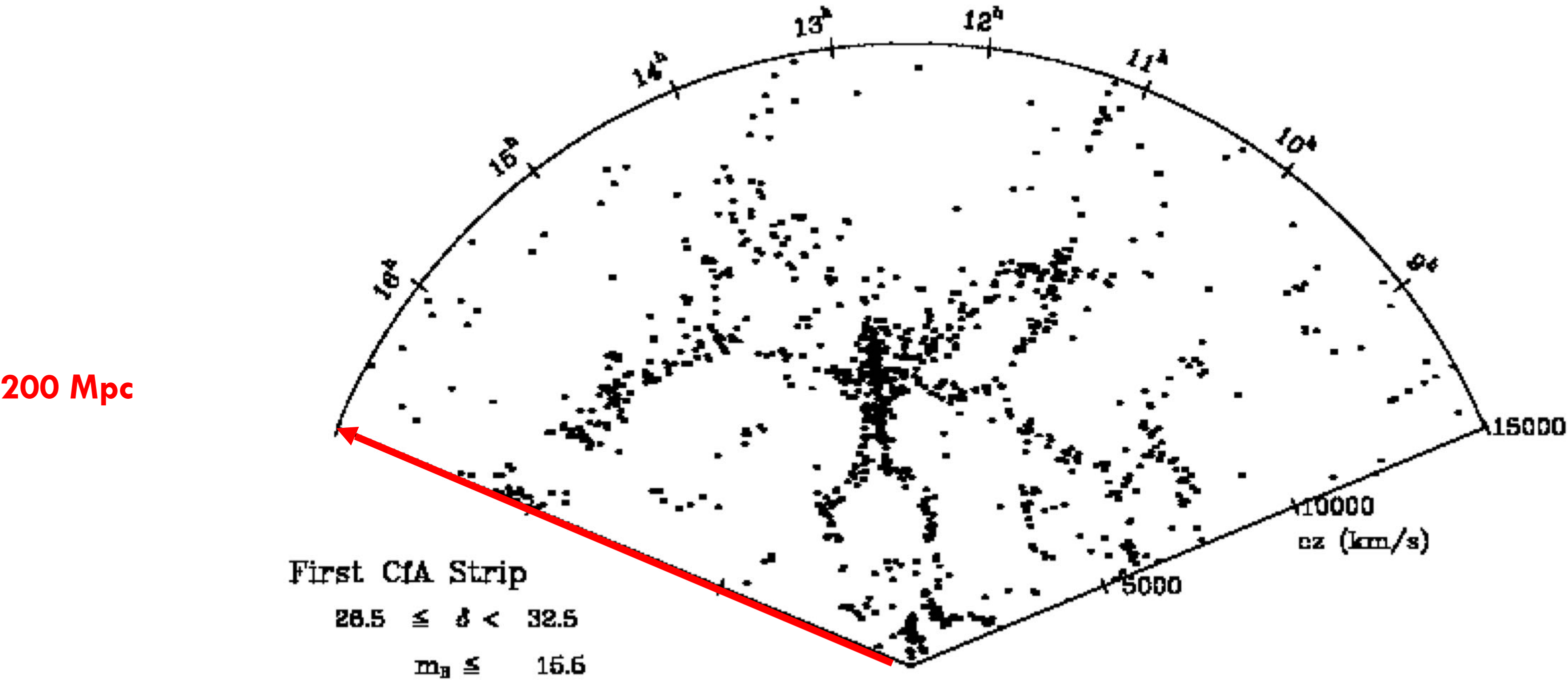
How do we generalise?

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

with $g_{\mu\nu} = \dots$

Part I. Geometry

The Universe is mostly homogeneous and isotropic

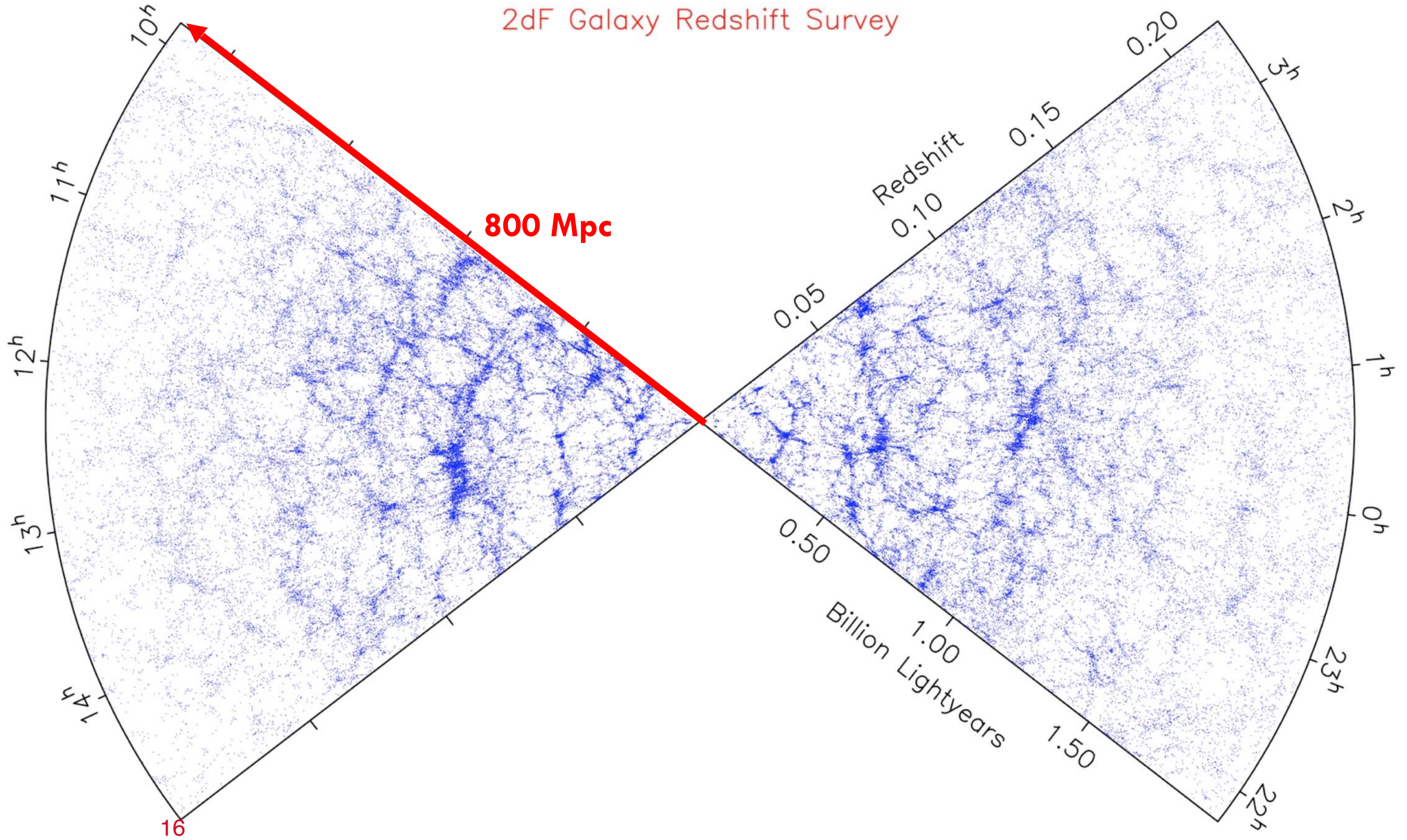


Copyright SAO 1998

Center for Astrophysics (CfA) Survey: Geller & Huchra 1989

Part I. Geometry

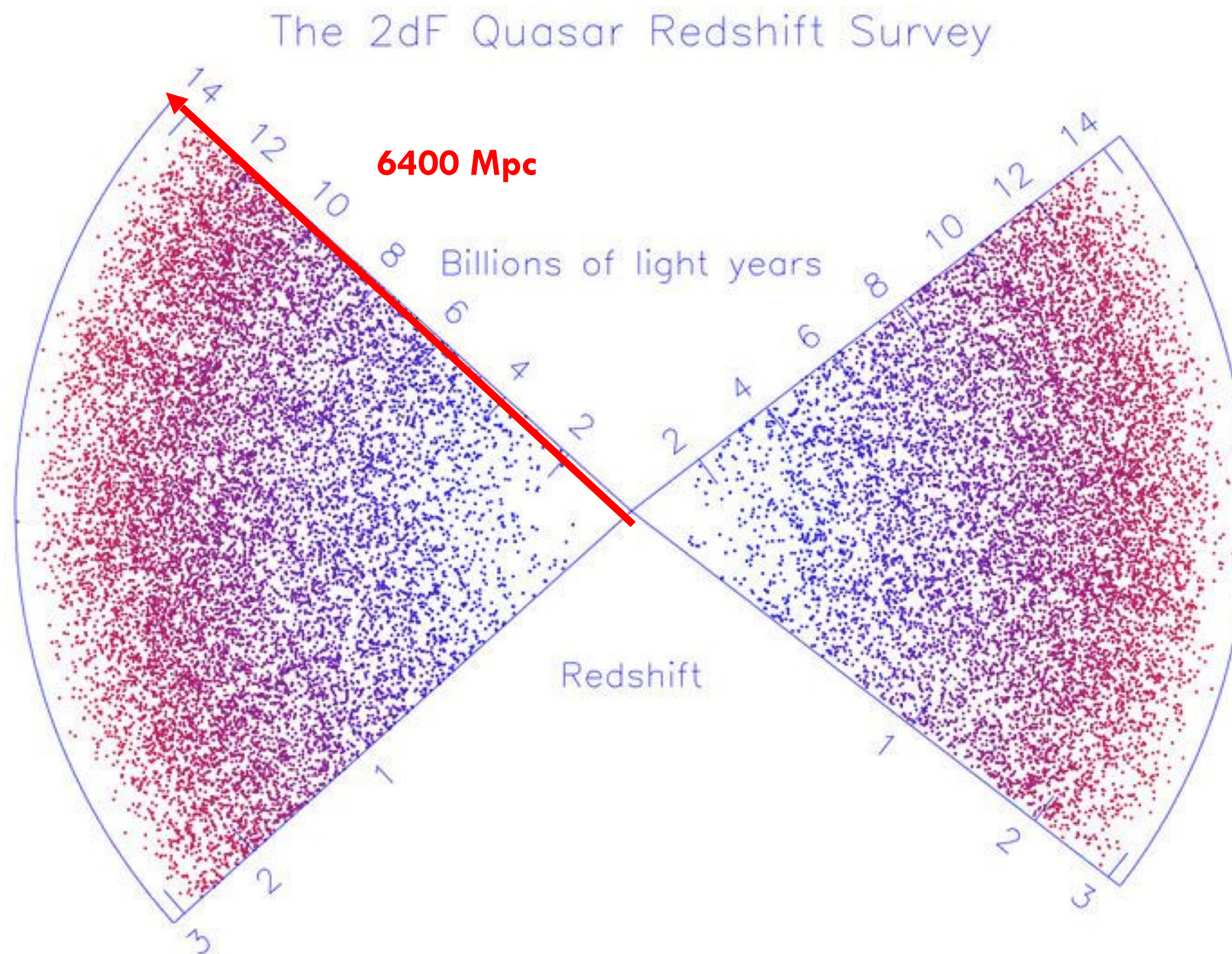
The Universe is mostly homogeneous and isotropic



2dF Galaxy&Redshift Survey (2dFGRS): Colless et al 2001

Part I. Geometry

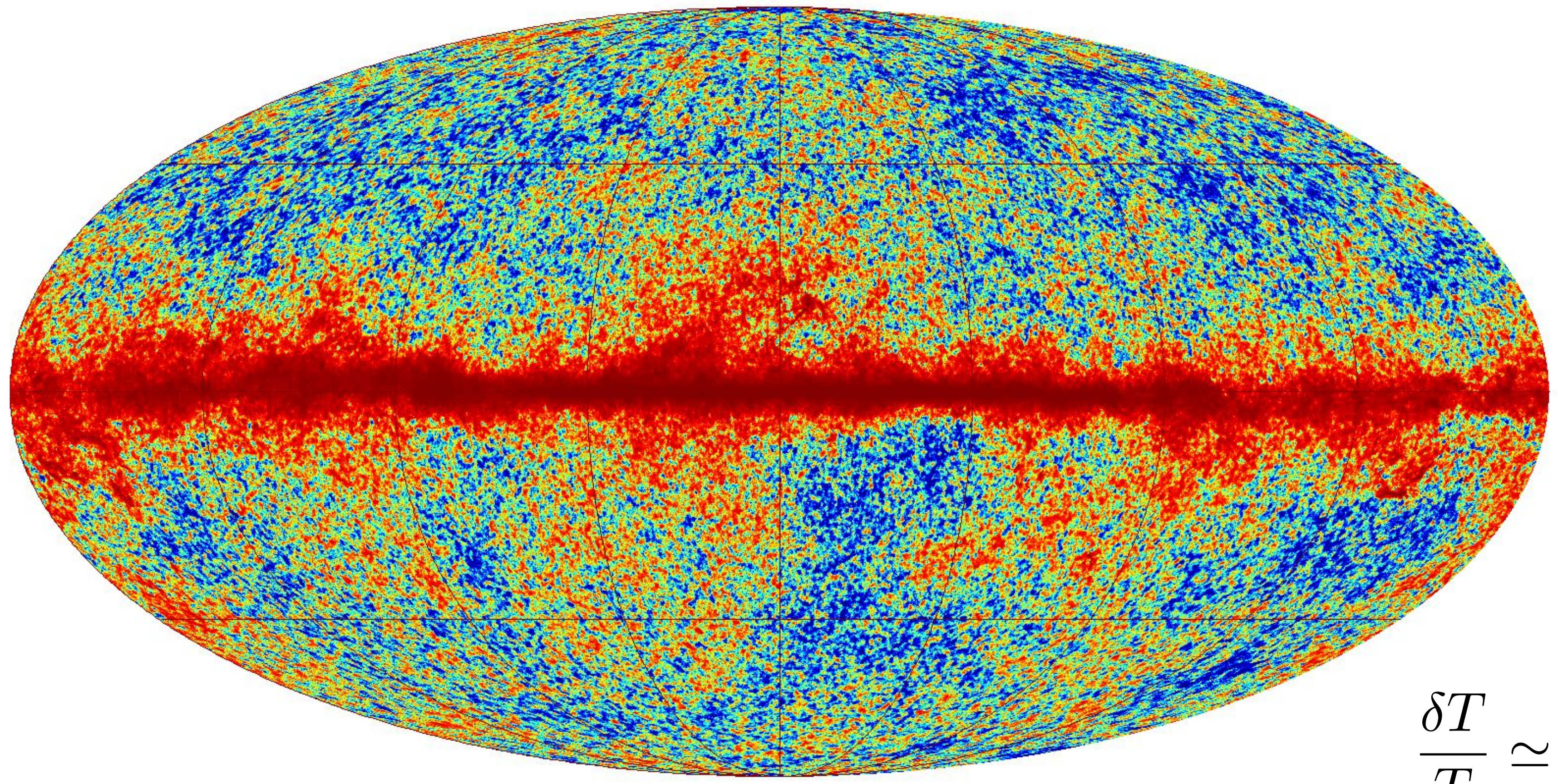
The Universe is mostly homogeneous and isotropic



Part I. Geometry

The Universe is mostly homogeneous and isotropic even at very large redshift

Planck 2018 HFI_SkyMap_143_2048_R1.10_nominal I-STOKES
2048 NESTED GALACTIC

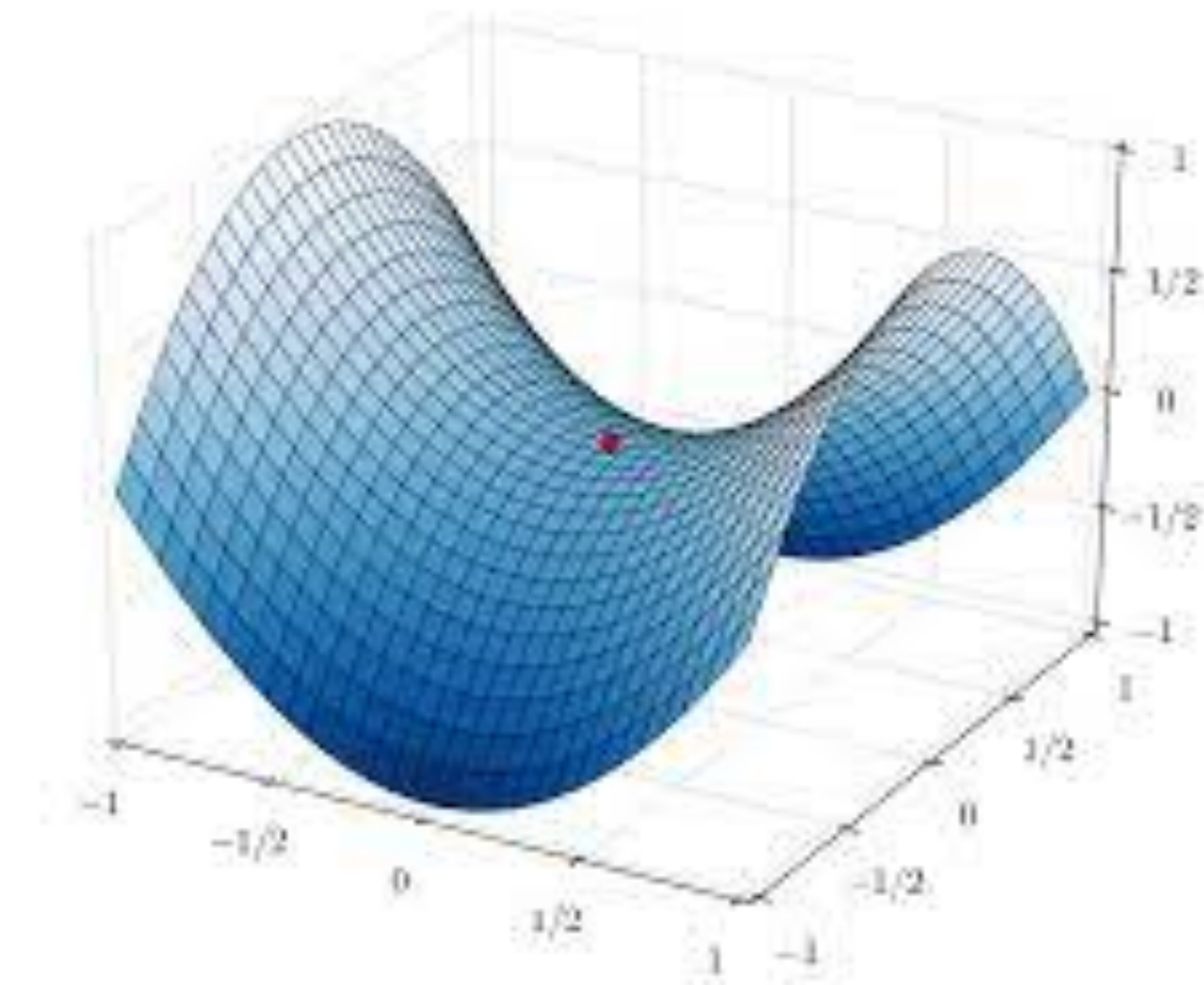
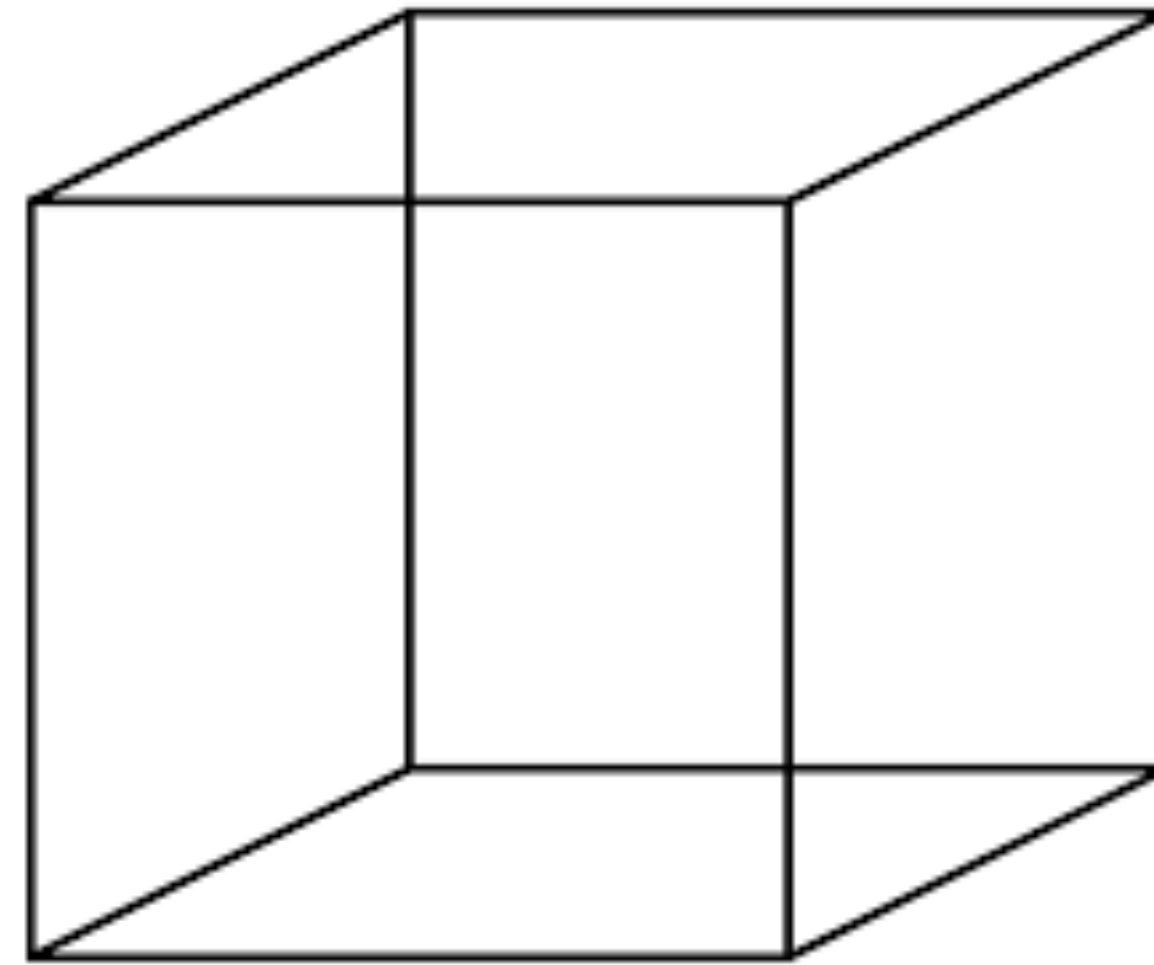


-0.00051 | 0.14 K_CMB

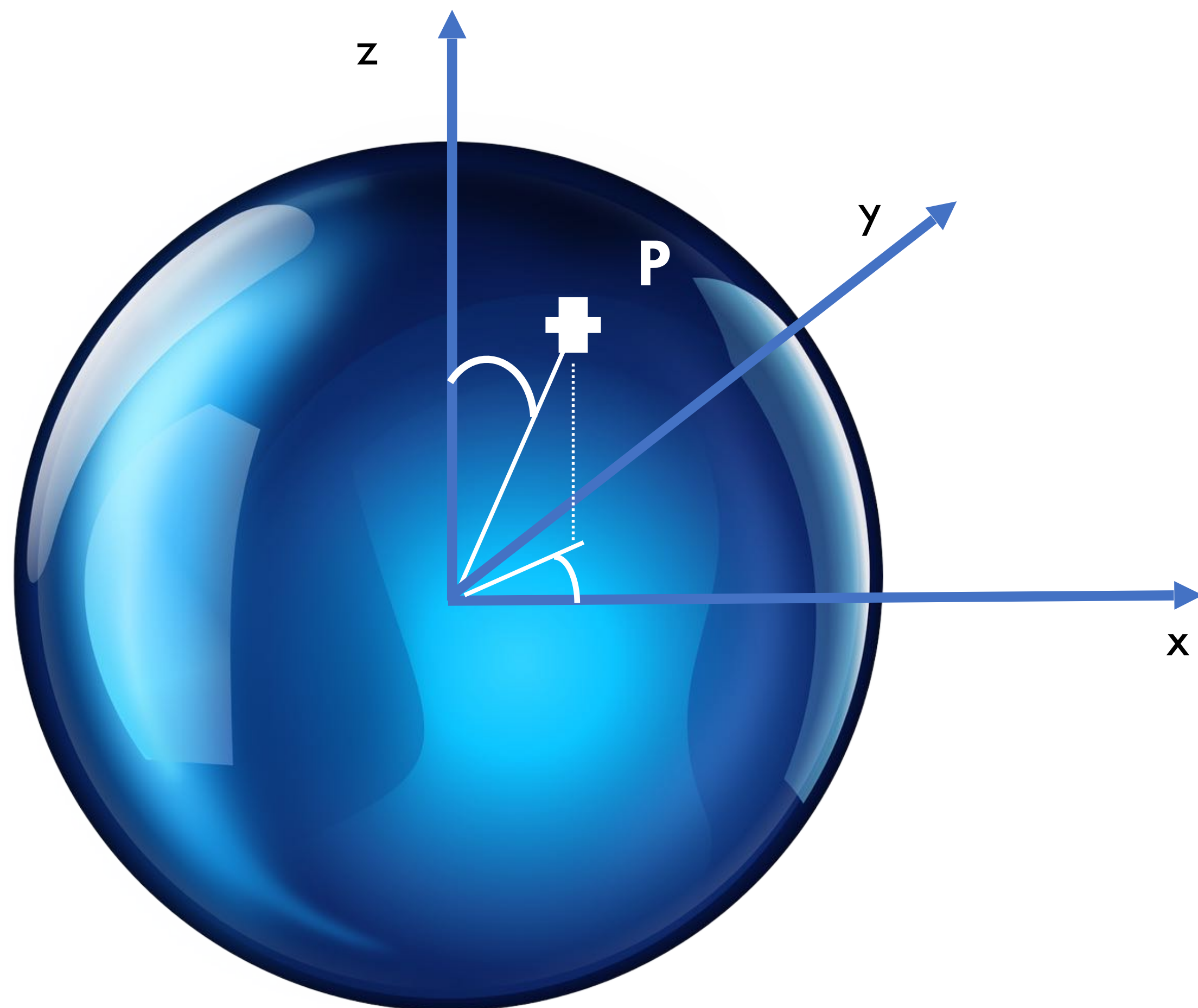
$$\frac{\delta T}{T} \simeq 10^{-5}$$

Part I. Geometry

The Universe is mostly homogeneous and isotropic means



Part I. Geometry



P is located on a sphere of radius R

$$ds^2 = x_p^2 + y_p^2 + z_p^2$$

Can be reinterpreted by defining the coordinates on the sphere

$$x_p = R \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

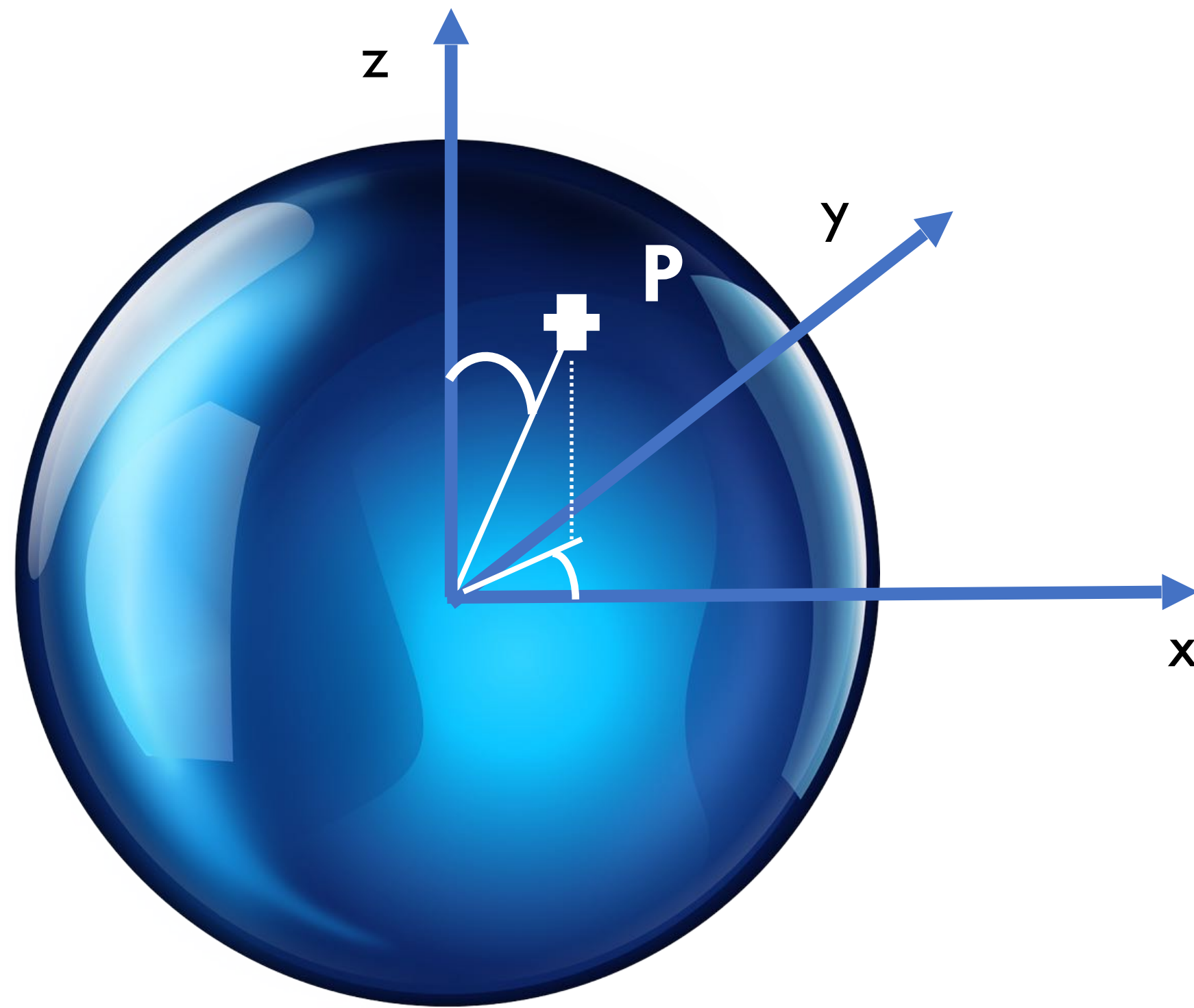
$$y_p = R \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$z_p = R \cos \theta$$

$$ds^2 = \underbrace{(x_p - x_0)^2}_{(dx)^2} + \underbrace{(y_p - y_0)^2}_{(dy)^2} + \underbrace{(z_p - z_0)^2}_{(dz)^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$$

Part I. Geometry

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$$



$$\begin{aligned} x_p &= R \sin \theta \cos \phi \\ y_p &= R \sin \theta \sin \phi \\ z_p &= R \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

derivative

$$\begin{aligned} dx &= \underbrace{dR \sin \theta \cos \phi}_{=0} + R \cos \theta d\theta \cos \phi - R \sin \theta \sin \phi d\phi \\ dy &= \underbrace{dR \sin \theta \cos \phi}_{=0} + R \cos \theta d\theta \sin \phi + R \sin \theta \cos \phi d\phi \\ dz &= -R \sin \theta d\theta \end{aligned}$$

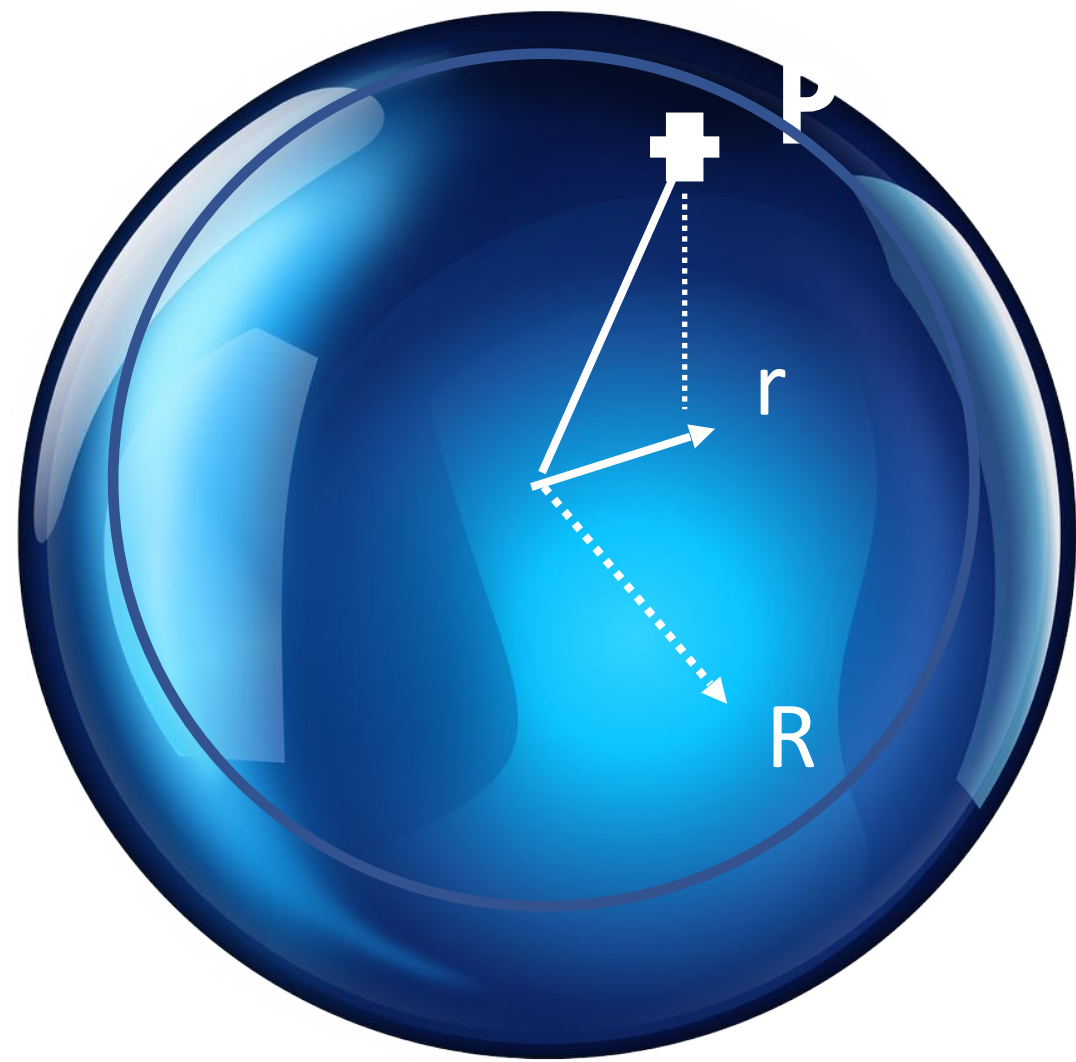
$$ds^2 = R^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

Only geometrical information

Size of the sphere

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 3d to 2d



$$z = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2 - y^2}$$

$$dz = -\frac{(x dx + y dy)}{\sqrt{R^2 - x^2 - y^2}}$$

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + \frac{(x dx + y dy)^2}{(R^2 - x^2 - y^2)}$$

$$x = r \cos \theta$$

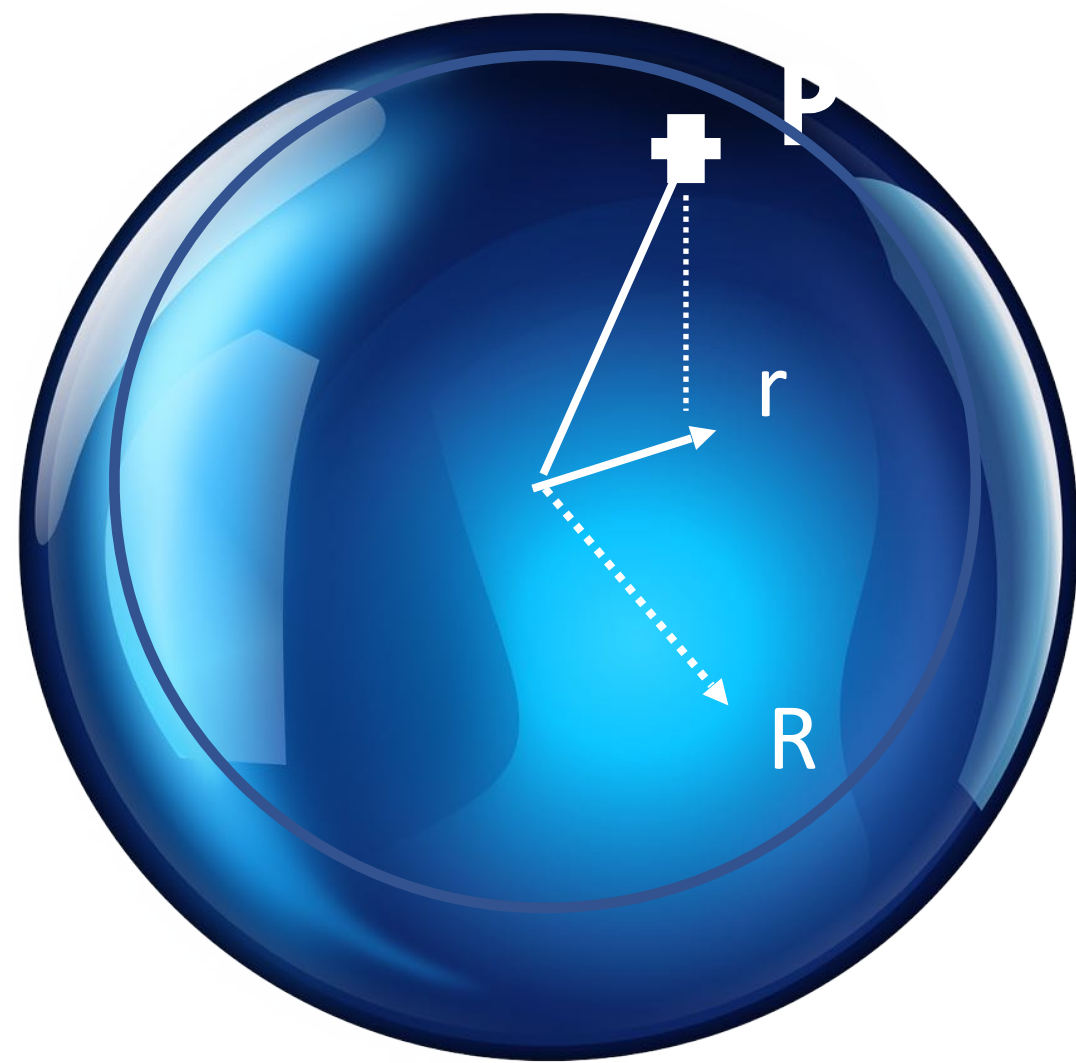
$$y = r \sin \theta$$

$$dx^2 + dy^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2$$

$$dz^2 = \frac{r^2 dr^2}{(R^2 - r^2)} \longrightarrow ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + \frac{r^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2}$$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 3d to 2d



$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + \frac{r^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2}$$

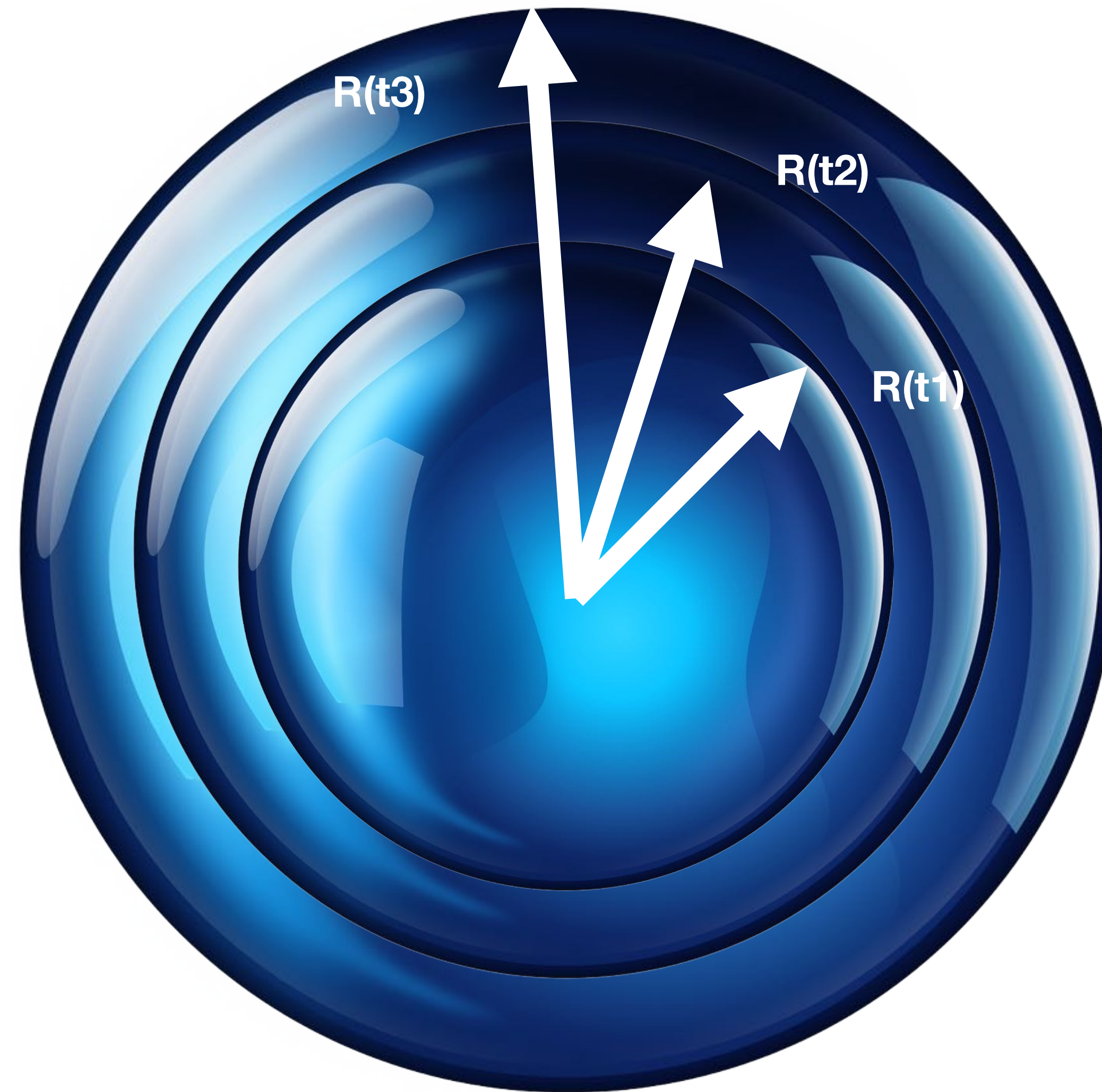
Let us define $r' = r/R$

$$ds^2 = R^2 \left(\frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2} + r'^2 d\theta^2 \right) \quad \text{with} \quad r' = \frac{r}{R}$$

Singularity

**What if we live in 4d but
do not see the 4th dimension?**

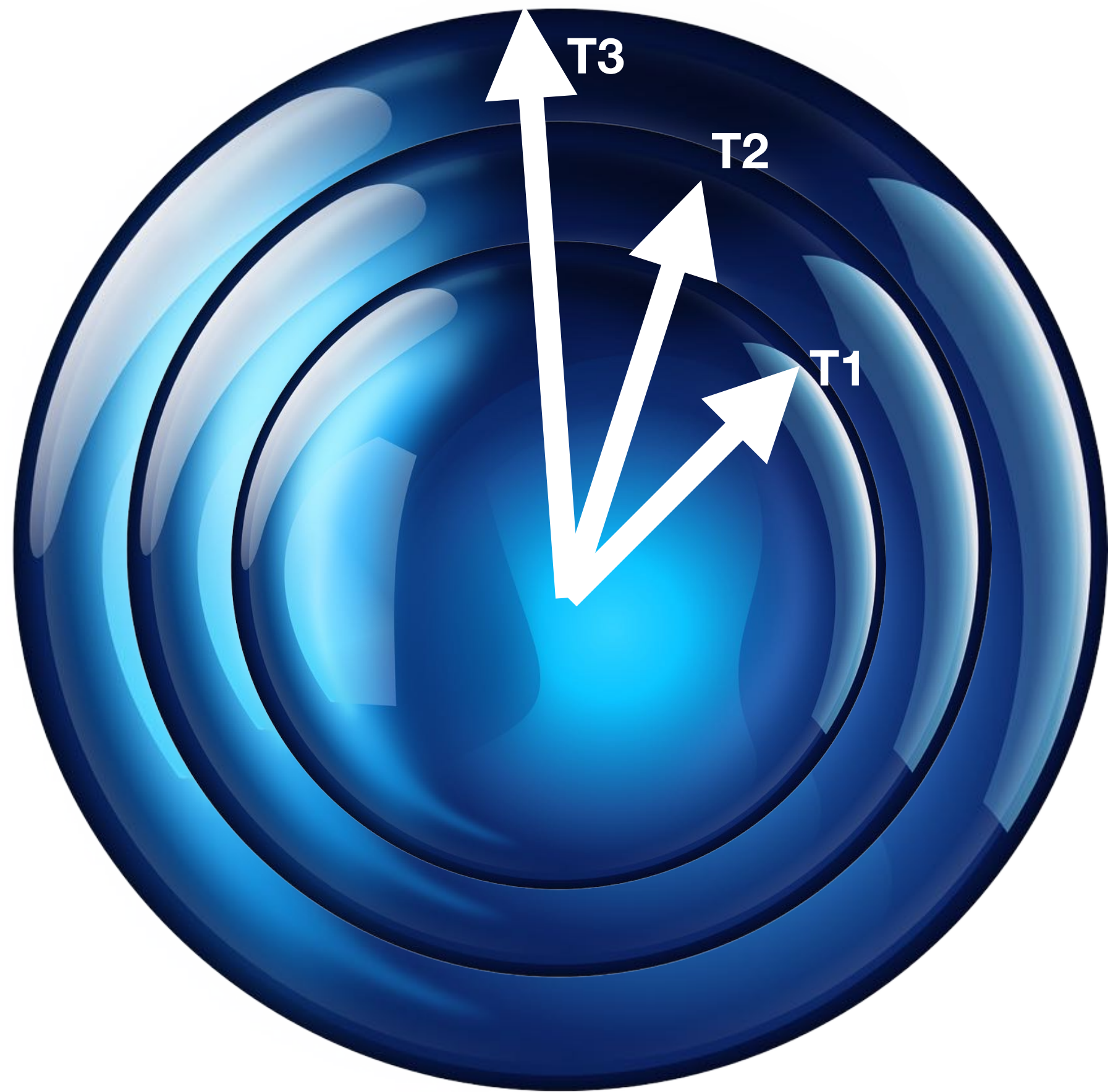
Nested spheres



Typical situation if the Universe evolved with time

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d



4th dimension of time added
Spheres can grow

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 = R^2$$

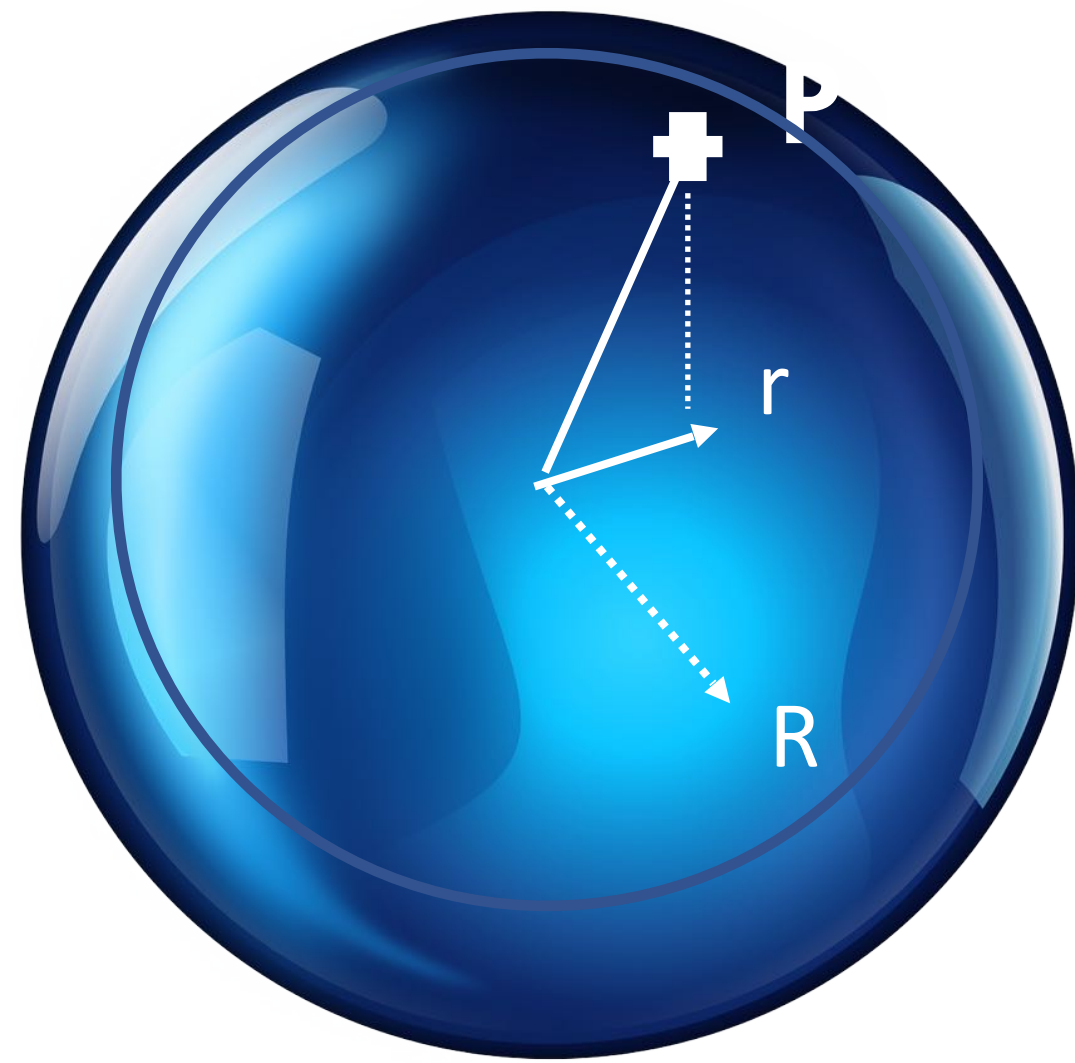
$$w = \sqrt{R^2 - (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}x &= R \sin \theta \sin \phi \sin \chi \\y &= R \sin \theta \cos \phi \sin \chi \\z &= R \cos \theta \sin \chi \\w &= R \cos \chi\end{aligned}$$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d

Step 1: Getting rid off the 4th dimensions



$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 = R^2$$
$$w = \sqrt{R^2 - (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}$$

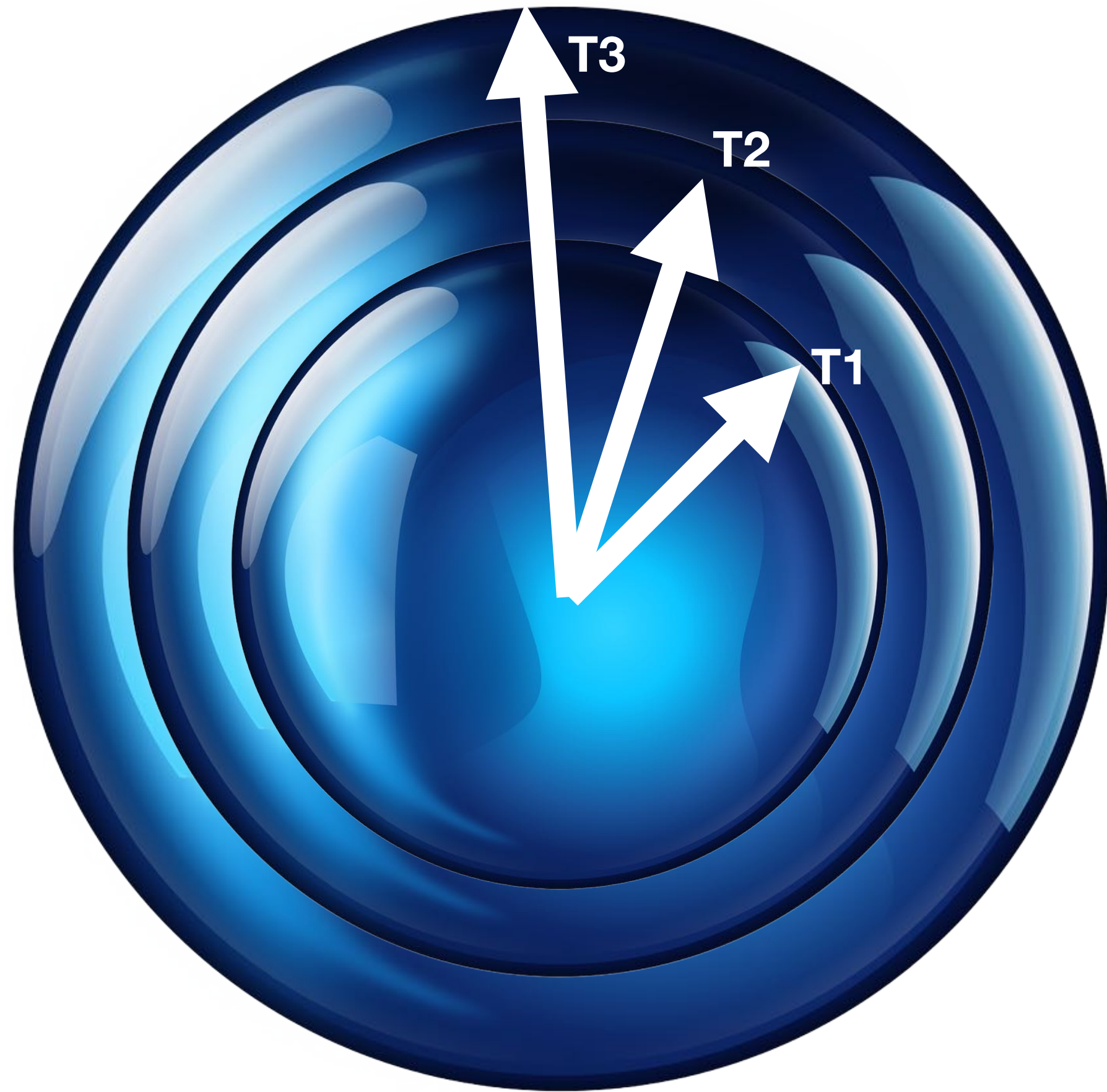
$$r^2 = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$
$$w = \sqrt{R^2 - r^2}$$

$$r^2 = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \quad \longrightarrow \quad r^2 = \sum_i x_i^2 \quad \longrightarrow \quad r^2 = r^2 \sum_i x'_i{}^2$$

R fixed
 $x' = x/r$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d



Step 2: taking derivatives

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 + dw^2$$

$$w = \sqrt{R^2 - (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}$$

R fixed
 $x' = x/r$

$$ds^2 = \frac{r^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2} + dr^2 \sum_i x_i'^2 + r^2 \underbrace{\sum_i dx_i'^2}_{\text{3d-sphere}}$$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d

Step 3: use spherical coordinates

$$ds^2 = \frac{r^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2} + dr^2 \sum_i x_i'^2 + r^2 \underbrace{\sum_i dx_i'^2}_{\text{3d-sphere}} \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_i dx_i'^2 = (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$
$$\sum_i x_i'^2 = 1$$
$$dr^2 \sum_i x_i'^2 = dr^2$$
$$r^2 \sum_i dx_i'^2 = r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d

$$ds^2 = \underbrace{\frac{r^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2} + dr^2 \sum_i x'_i{}^2}_{\text{3d-sphere}} + r^2 \underbrace{\sum_i dx'_i{}^2}_{\text{3d-sphere}} \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_i dx'_i{}^2 = (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$
$$\sum_i x'_i{}^2 = 1$$

$$ds^2 = \frac{R^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2} + r^2 \underbrace{\sum_i dx'_i{}^2}_{\text{3d-sphere}} \quad \longrightarrow \quad ds^2 = \frac{R^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

$$ds^2 = R^2 \left[\frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2} + r'^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right] \quad r' = r/R$$

Interpretation of the metric (from 4d to 3d)

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d

$$ds^2 = R^2 \left[\frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2} + r'^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$w = \sqrt{R^2 - (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} x &= R \sin \theta \sin \phi \sin \chi \\ y &= R \sin \theta \cos \phi \sin \chi \\ z &= R \cos \theta \sin \chi \\ w &= R \cos \chi \end{aligned}$$

$$w = R \cos \chi = \sqrt{R^2 - r^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad r = R \sin \chi \quad \longrightarrow \quad r' = \frac{r}{R} = \sin \chi$$

$$\frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2} = \frac{(\cos \chi d\chi)^2}{\cos^2 \chi}$$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d

$$ds^2 = R^2 \left[\frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2} + r'^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$\text{with } \frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2} = \frac{(\cos \chi d\chi)^2}{\cos^2 \chi} = d\chi^2 \quad \text{and} \quad r' = \frac{r}{R} = \sin \chi$$

$$ds^2 = R^2 [d\chi^2 + r'^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)]$$

$$ds^2 = R^2 [d\chi^2 + \sin^2 \chi (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)]$$

Projection from 3d to 2d

$$ds^2 = R^2 \left(\underbrace{\frac{dr^2}{1 - r'^2}}_{\text{Singularity}} + r'^2 d\theta^2 \right) \quad \text{with} \quad r' = \frac{r}{R}$$

Projection from 4d to 3d

$$ds^2 = R^2 \left[\underbrace{d\chi^2}_{\text{Singularity}} + r'^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right] \quad \text{with} \quad d\chi^2 = \frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2}$$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d

$$ds^2 = R^2 \left[\frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2} + r'^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$ds^2 = R^2 [d\chi^2 + \sin^2 \chi d\Omega^2]$$

("chi") is the angle associated with 4th dimension; $R = R(t)$ and $R(t)$ representing spherical Universe from the past

Adding time

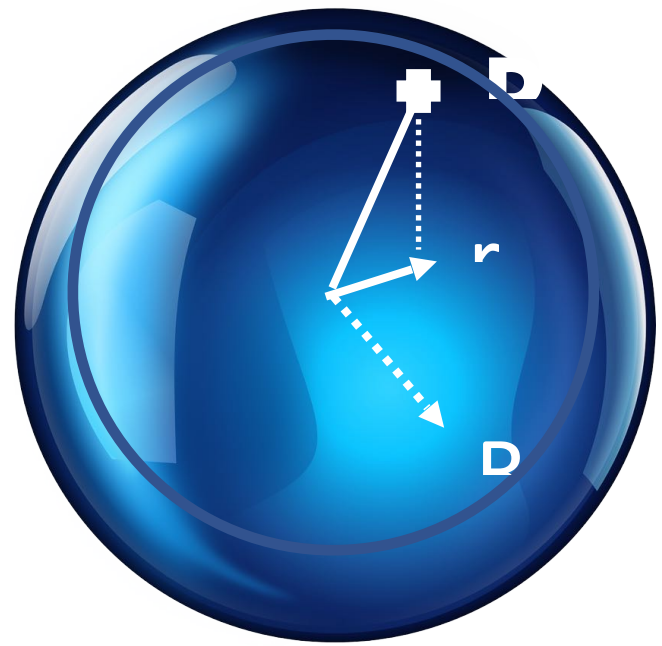


$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + \sin^2 \chi d\Omega^2]$$

$$ds^2 \stackrel{c=1}{=} -dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + \sin^2 \chi d\Omega^2]$$

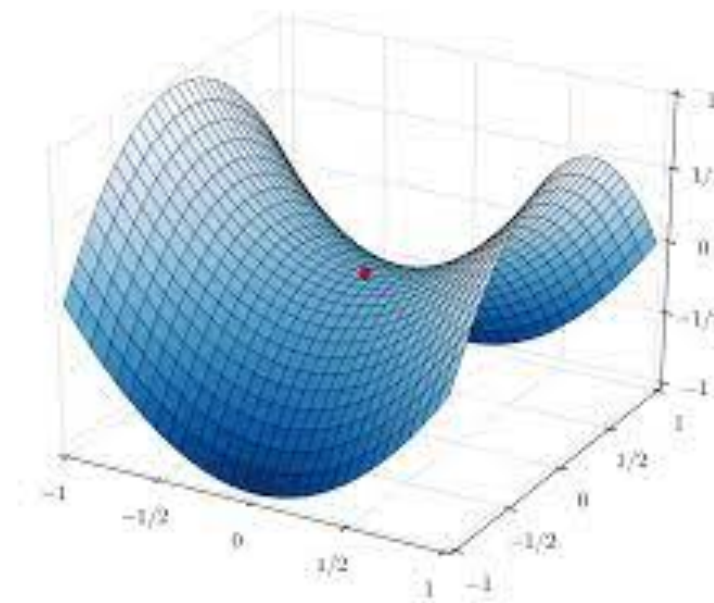
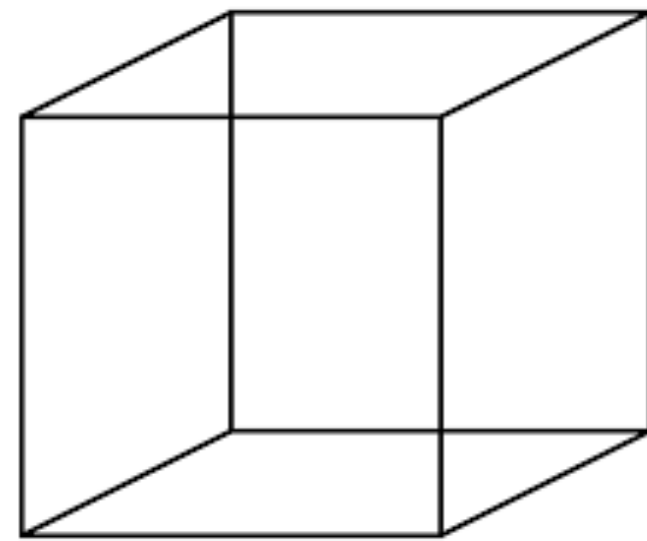
Part I. Geometry

Friedman-LeMaitre-Robertson-Walker



$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 + dw^2$$

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + \boxed{\sin^2 \chi} d\Omega^2]$$



Generalising

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2]$$

Part I. Geometry

Projection from 4d to 3d

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + \sin^2\chi d\Omega^2]$$

Spherical metric in 4d

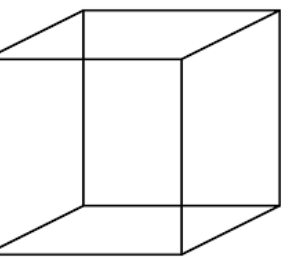
$$d\chi^2 = \frac{dr'^2}{1 - r'^2}$$



$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + d\Omega^2]$$

Flat metric in 4d

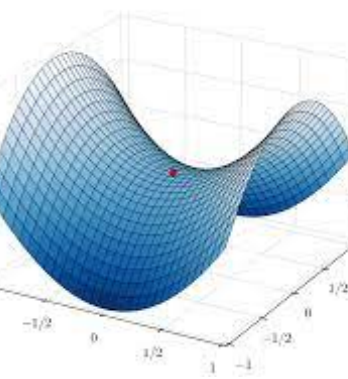
$$d\chi^2 = dr'^2$$



$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + \sinh^2\chi d\Omega^2]$$

Open metric in 4d

$$d\chi^2 = \frac{dr'^2}{1 + r'^2}$$



Part I. Geometry

Generalisation to FRLW metric

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + \underbrace{R^2}_{\text{Grows with time}} \left[\underbrace{d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi)d\Omega^2}_{\text{Independent of time evolution "comoving"}} \right]$$

Grows with time

Independent of time evolution "comoving"

$$d\chi^2 = \frac{dr'^2}{1 - k r'^2}$$

$$k = 1; f_k(\chi) = \sin^2 \chi$$

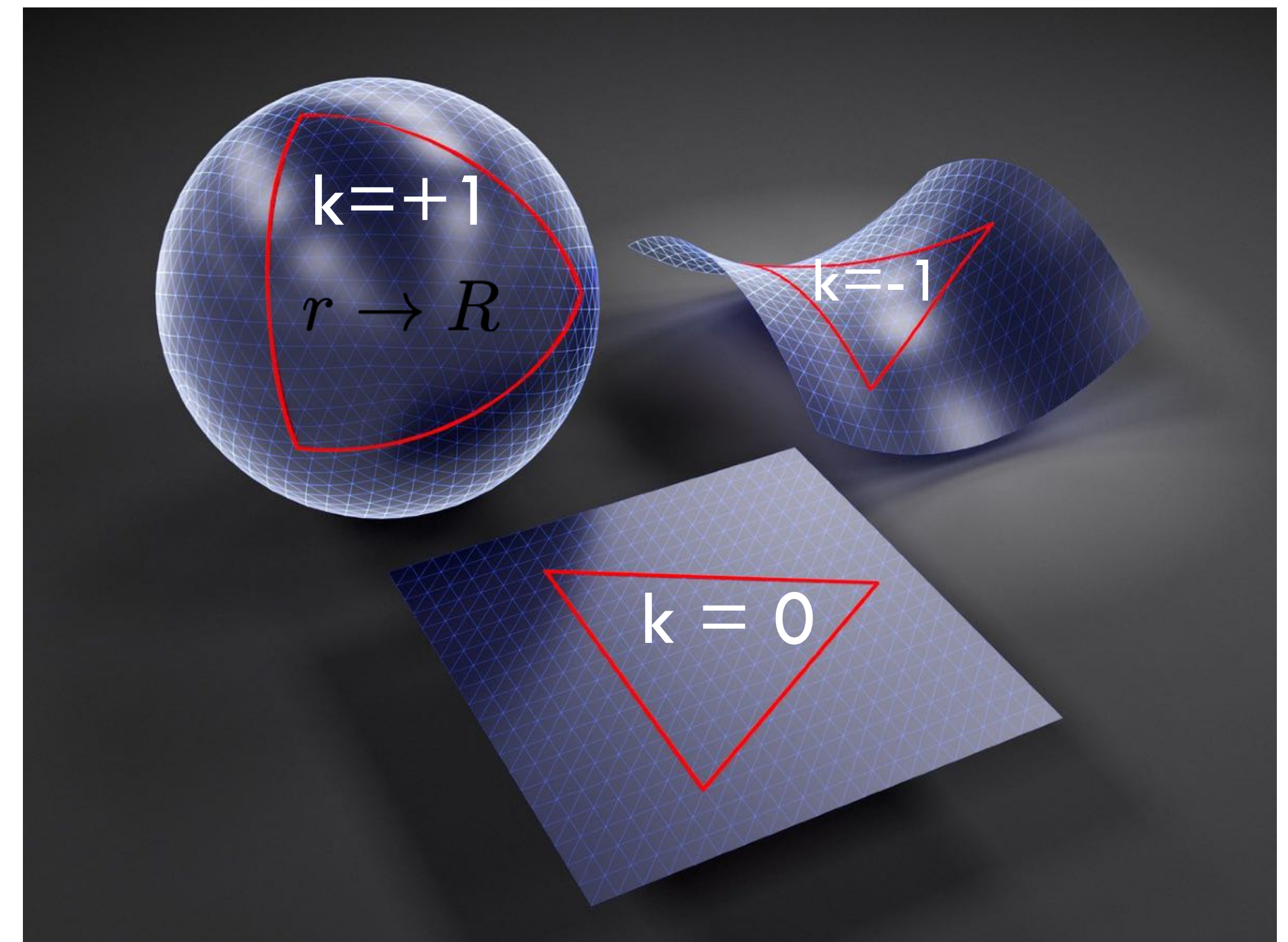
$$k = 0; f_k(\chi) = \chi^2$$

$$k = -1; f_k(\chi) = \sinh^2 \chi$$

Spherical

Flat

Hyperbolic



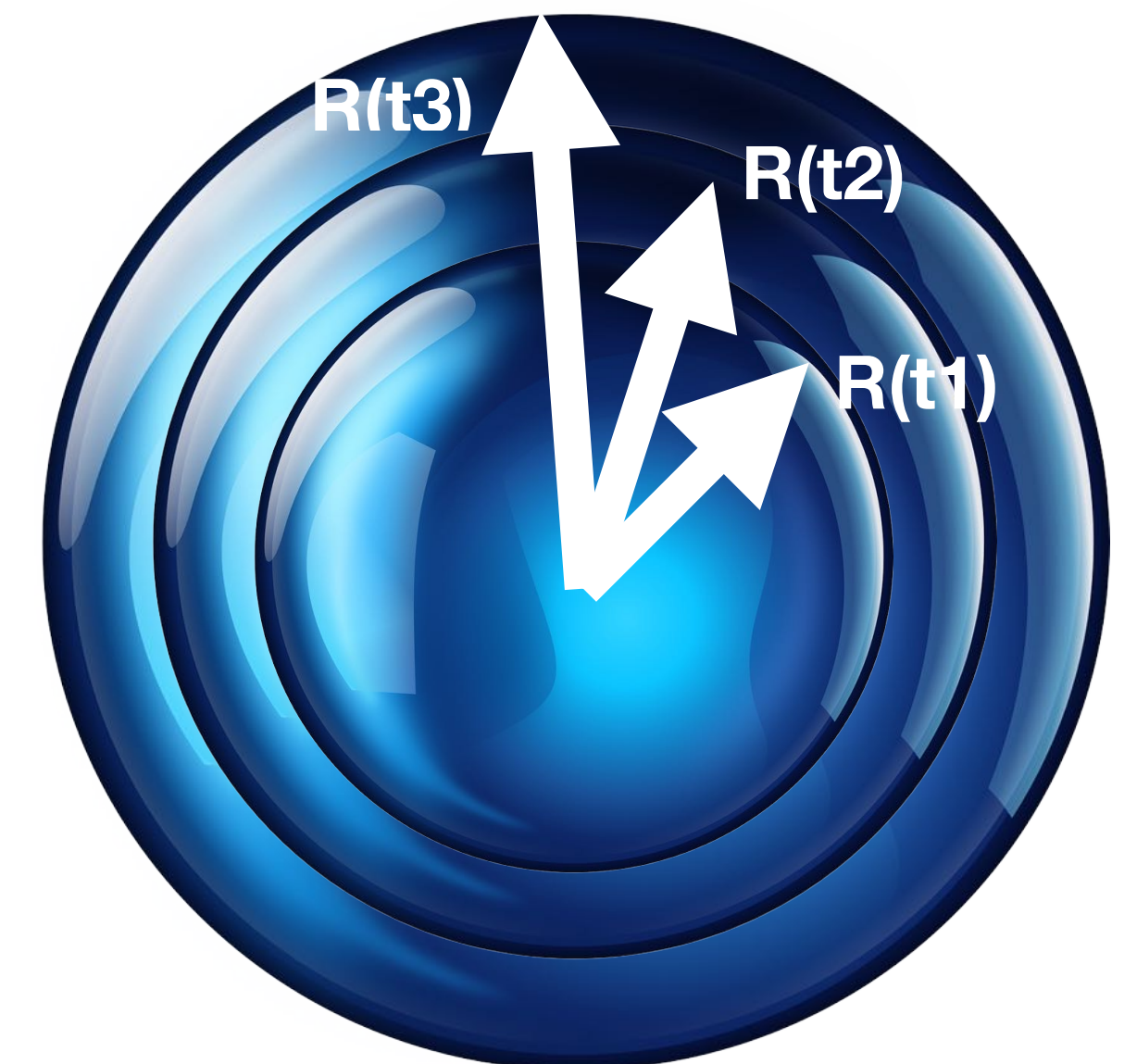
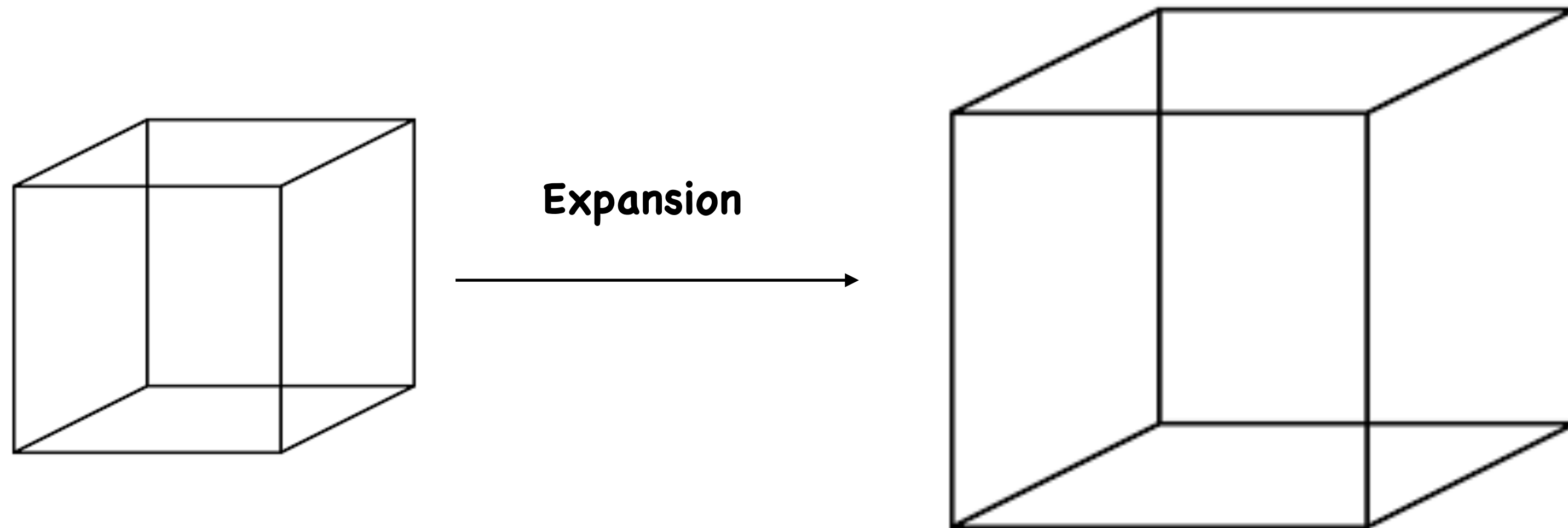
Part I. Geometry

Generalisation to FRLW metric

$$d\chi^2 = \frac{dr'^2}{1 - k r'^2}$$

Singularity in 4d but now the 4th dimension represents the time evolution projected onto the Universe at a given time.

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + \underbrace{R^2}_{\text{scale factor}} [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi)d\Omega^2] \quad \text{with } R(t) \text{ the scale factor}$$



$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2]$$

Scale factor; expansion

Independent of time evolution
“comoving”

$$ds = 0$$

$$c^2 dt^2 = R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2]$$

The term which matters

Geometric factor

Isotropic so it doesn't change the distance

Part I. Geometry

Consequences of FRLW Metric

$$c^2 dt^2 = R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2] \quad \longrightarrow \quad c^2 dt^2 = R^2 d\chi^2$$

with $d\chi^2 = \frac{dr'^2}{1 - k r'^2}$



$$|\chi| = c \int \frac{dt}{R} + cst$$

Measure the expansion

and

$$|\chi| = \int \frac{dr'}{1 - kr'} + cst$$

Measure the curvature ...

Part I. Geometry

Consequences of FRLW Metric

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2]$$

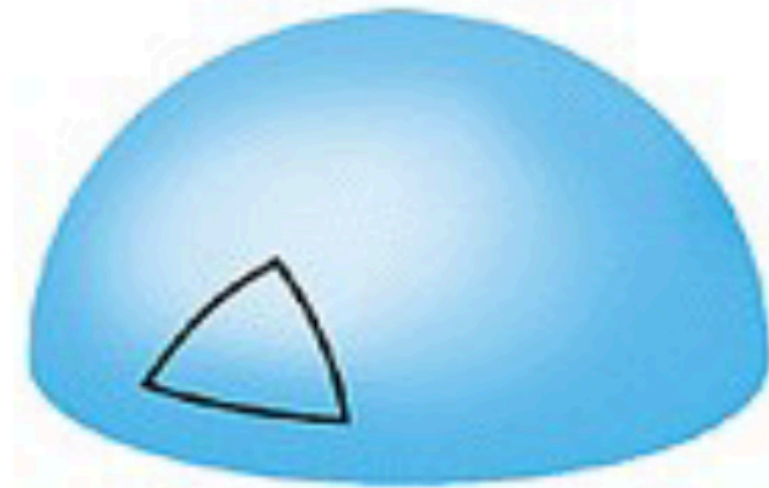
- Possible singularity which occur when r tends to R (closed Universe)
- This singularity does not exist in a flat (Euclidian/Minkowski) or hyperbolic metric
- Current paradigm: current curvature = 0 but $R = R(t)$ and $R(t=0) \sim 0$.
- Analogy of a balloon that keeps growing.
- The photon (i.e. light) defines **OUR** space-time!
- All coordinates are defined with respect to the light in the Universe!

Metric = contains an information about the size of the Universe today

Part I. Geometry

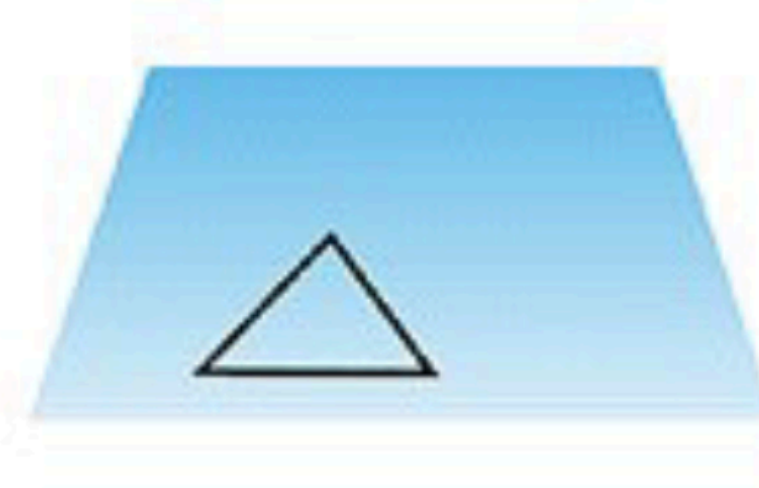
How to measure the curvature?

Closed



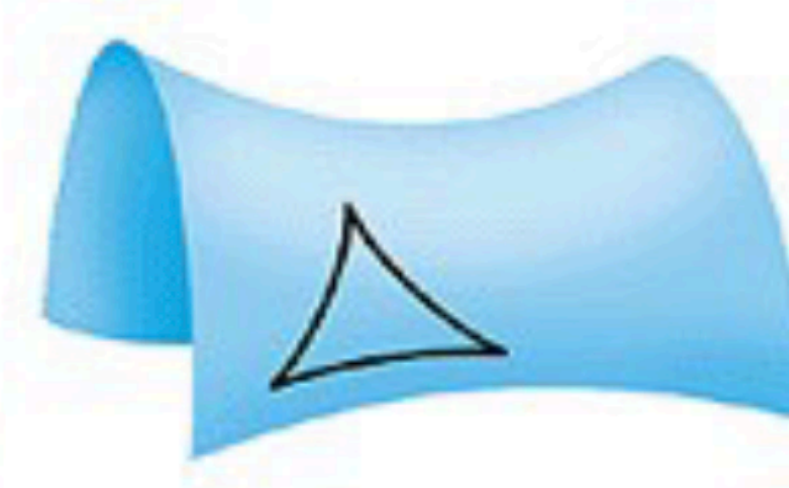
Spherical Space

Flat



Flat Space

Open



Hyperbolic Space

Curvature:

+

0

--

Sum of angles of triangle:

$> 180^\circ$

$= 180^\circ$

$< 180^\circ$

Circumference of circle:

$< 2 \pi r$

$= 2 \pi r$

$> 2 \pi r$

Parallel lines: converge

remain parallel

diverge

Size:

finite

infinite

infinite

Edge:

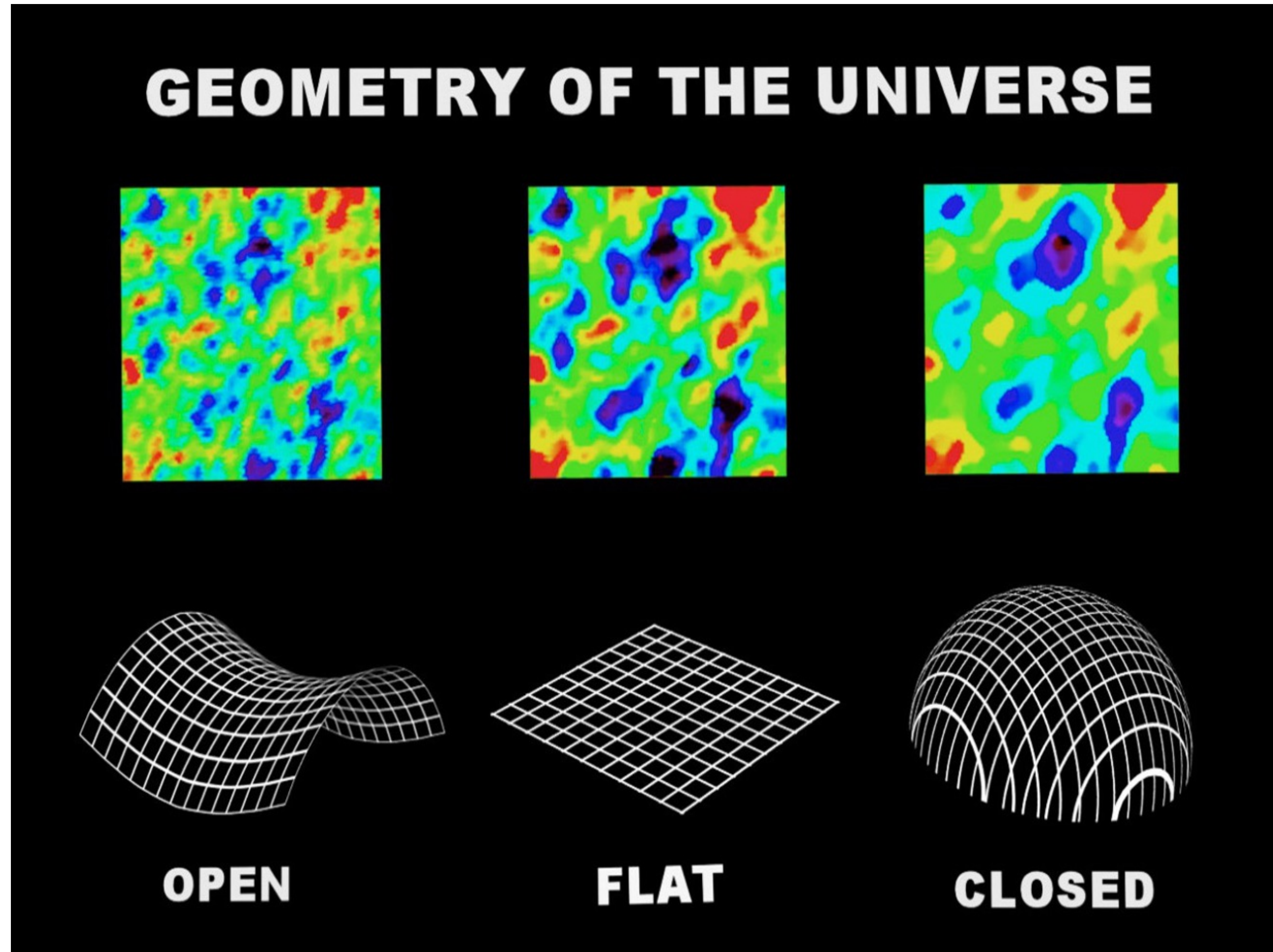
no

no

no

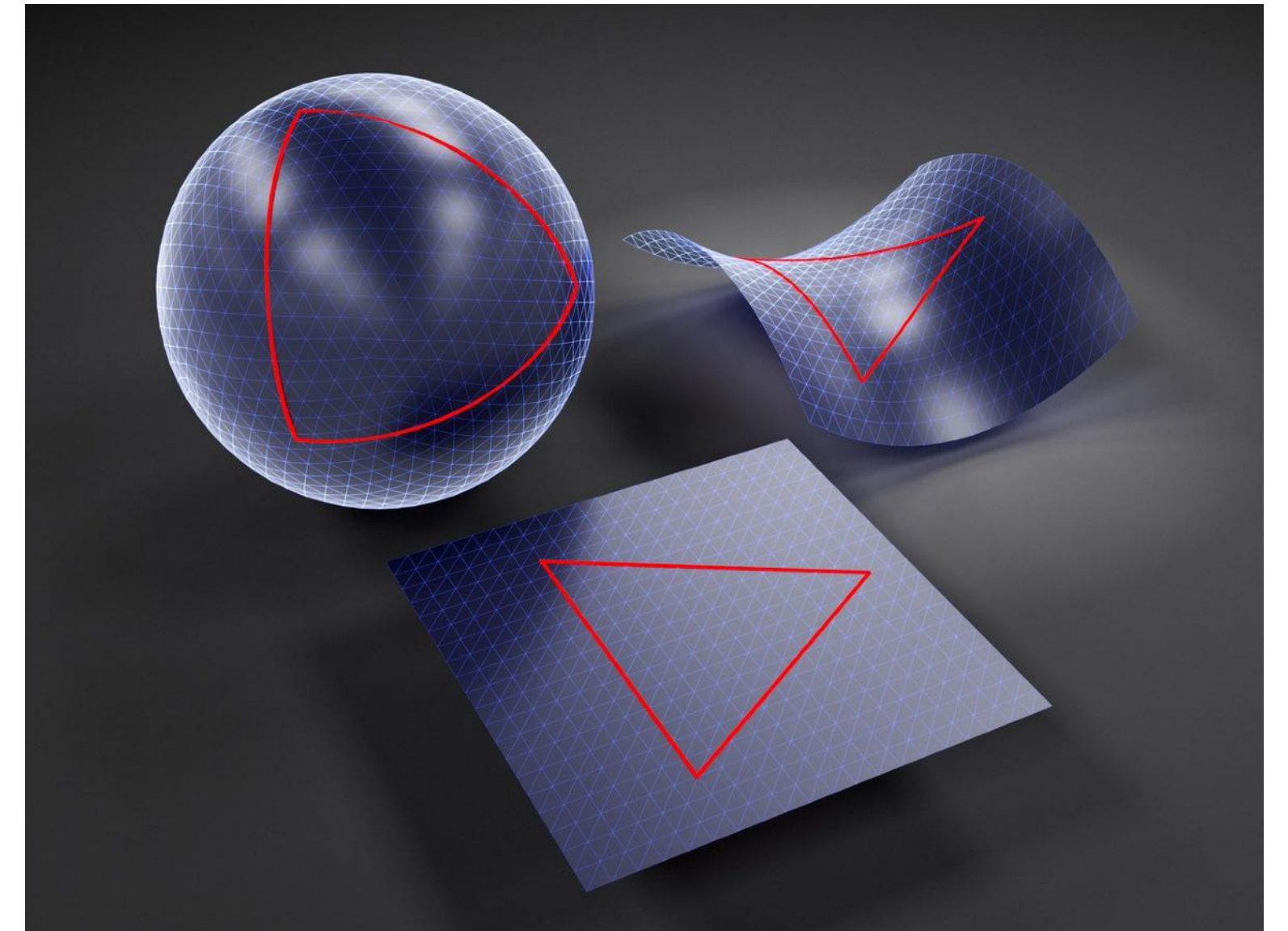
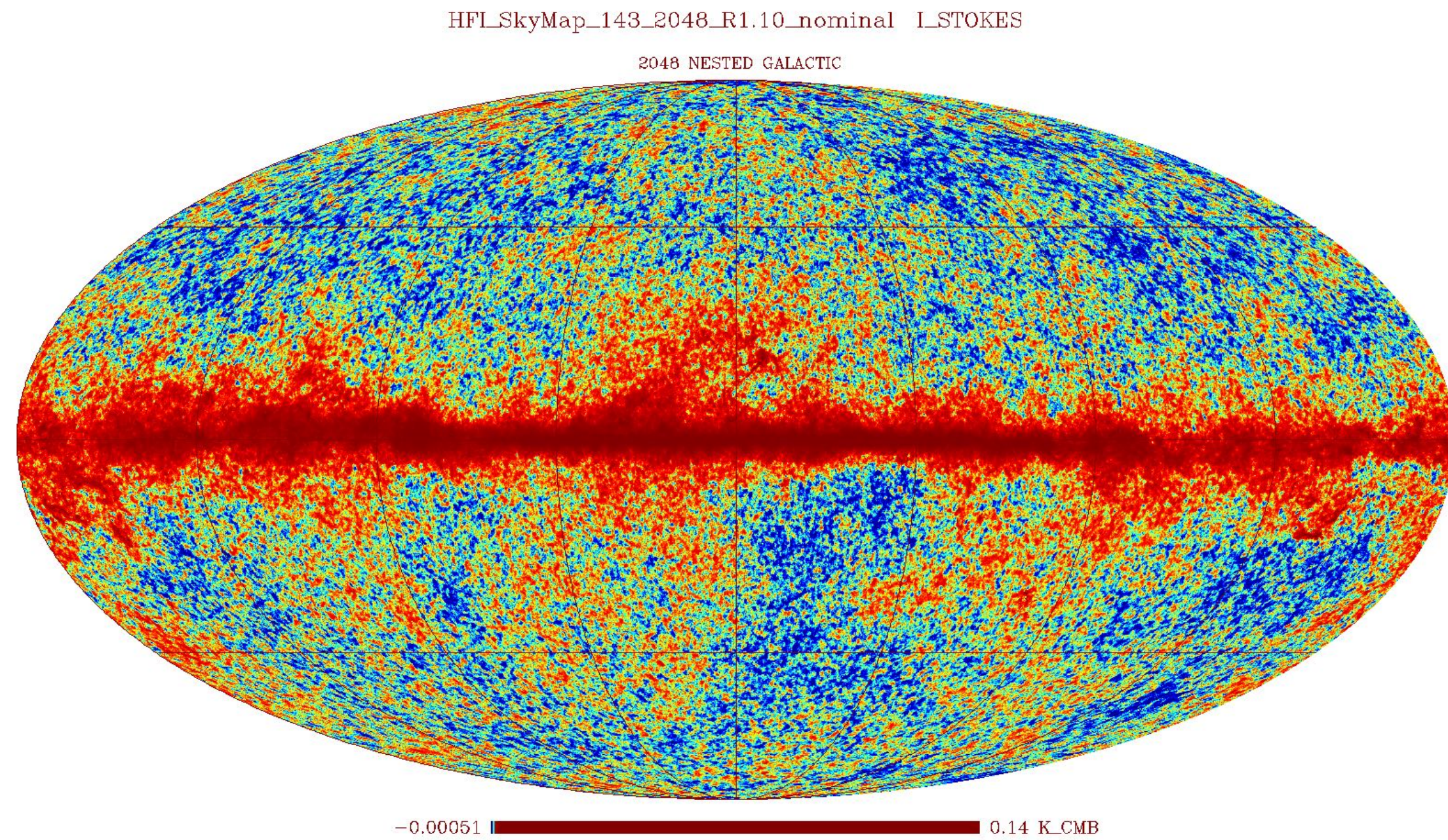
Part I. Geometry

How to measure the curvature?

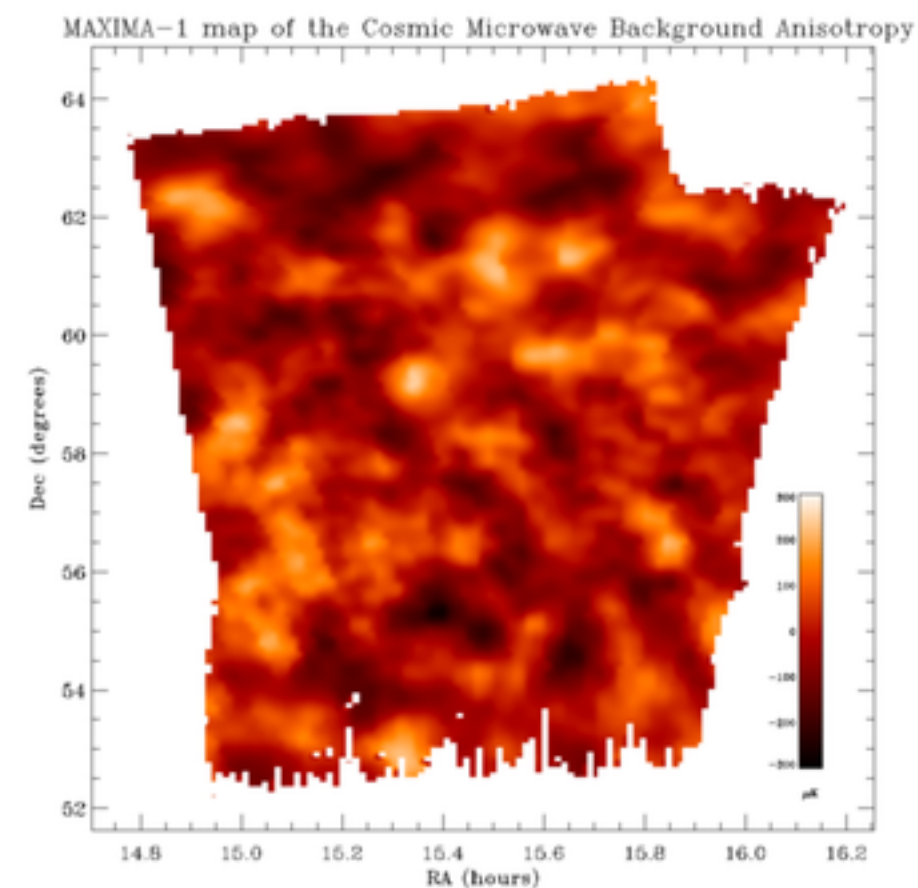


Part I. Geometry

How to measure the curvature?



BOOMERang, MAXIMA, ARCHEOPS



$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2]$$

$$k = 1; f_k(\chi) = \sin^2 \chi$$

Spherical

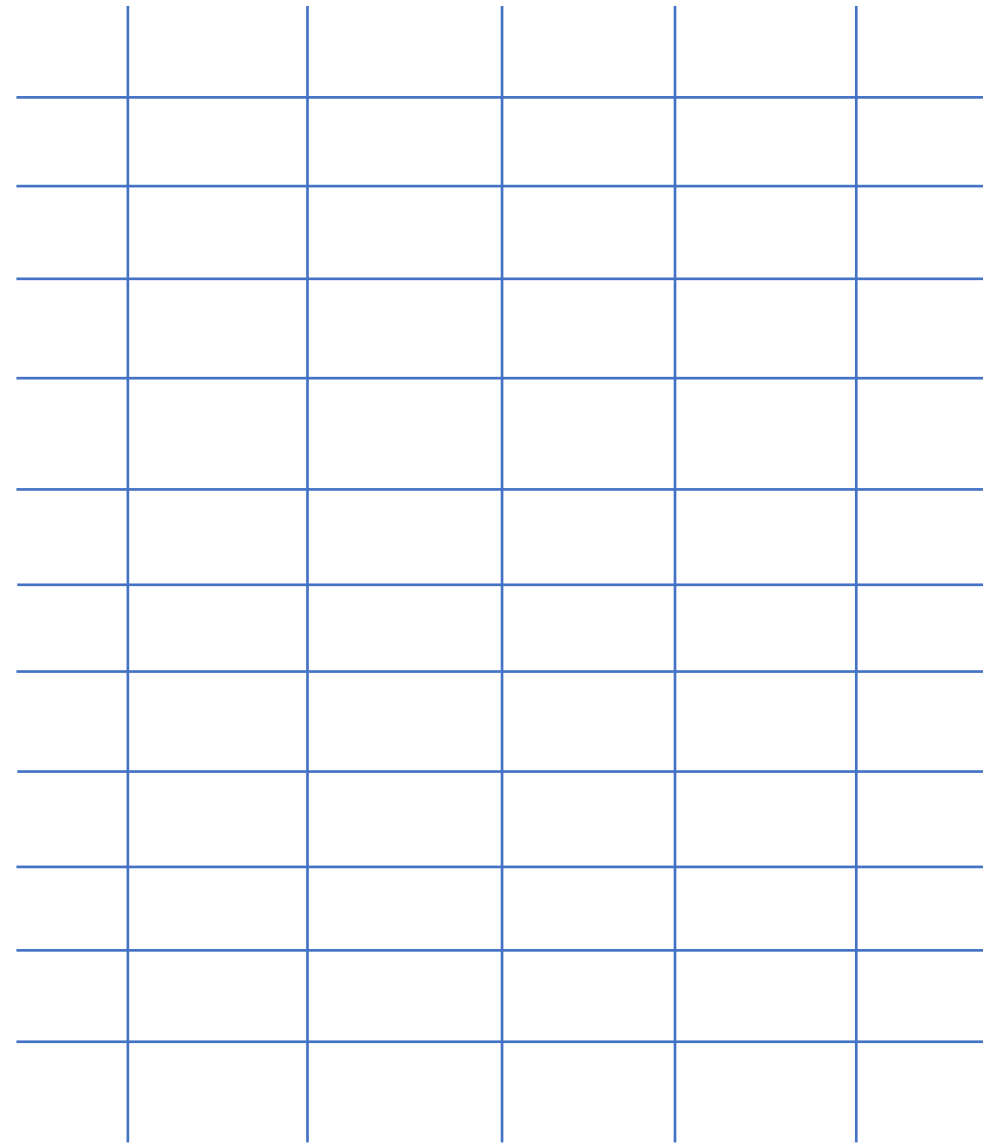
$$k = 0; f_k(\chi) = \chi^2$$

Flat

$$k = -1; f_k(\chi) = \sinh^2 \chi$$

Hyperbolic

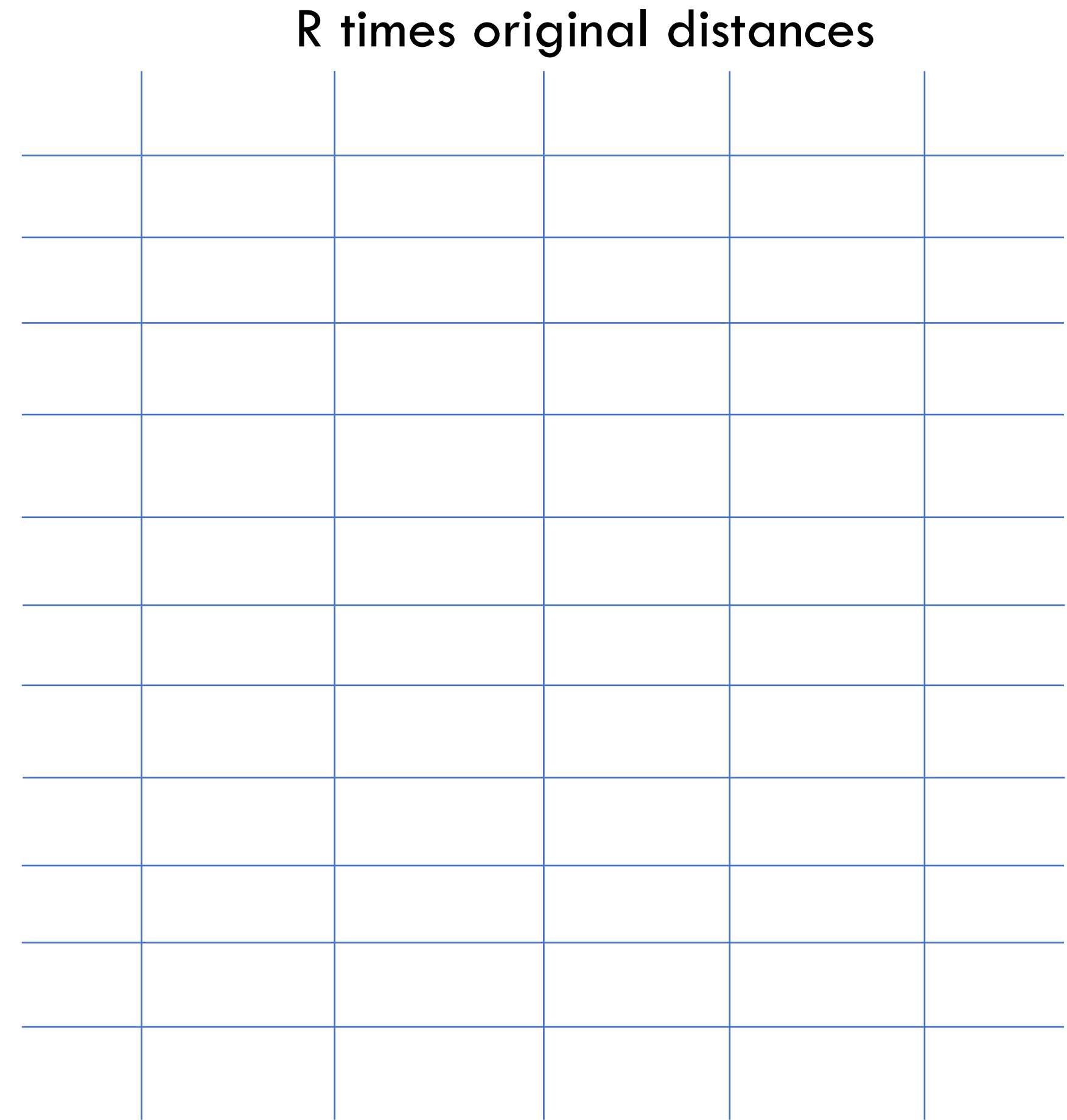
Part I. Geometry



Original distance that get stretched

$$l = l_{\text{comoving}}$$

expansion



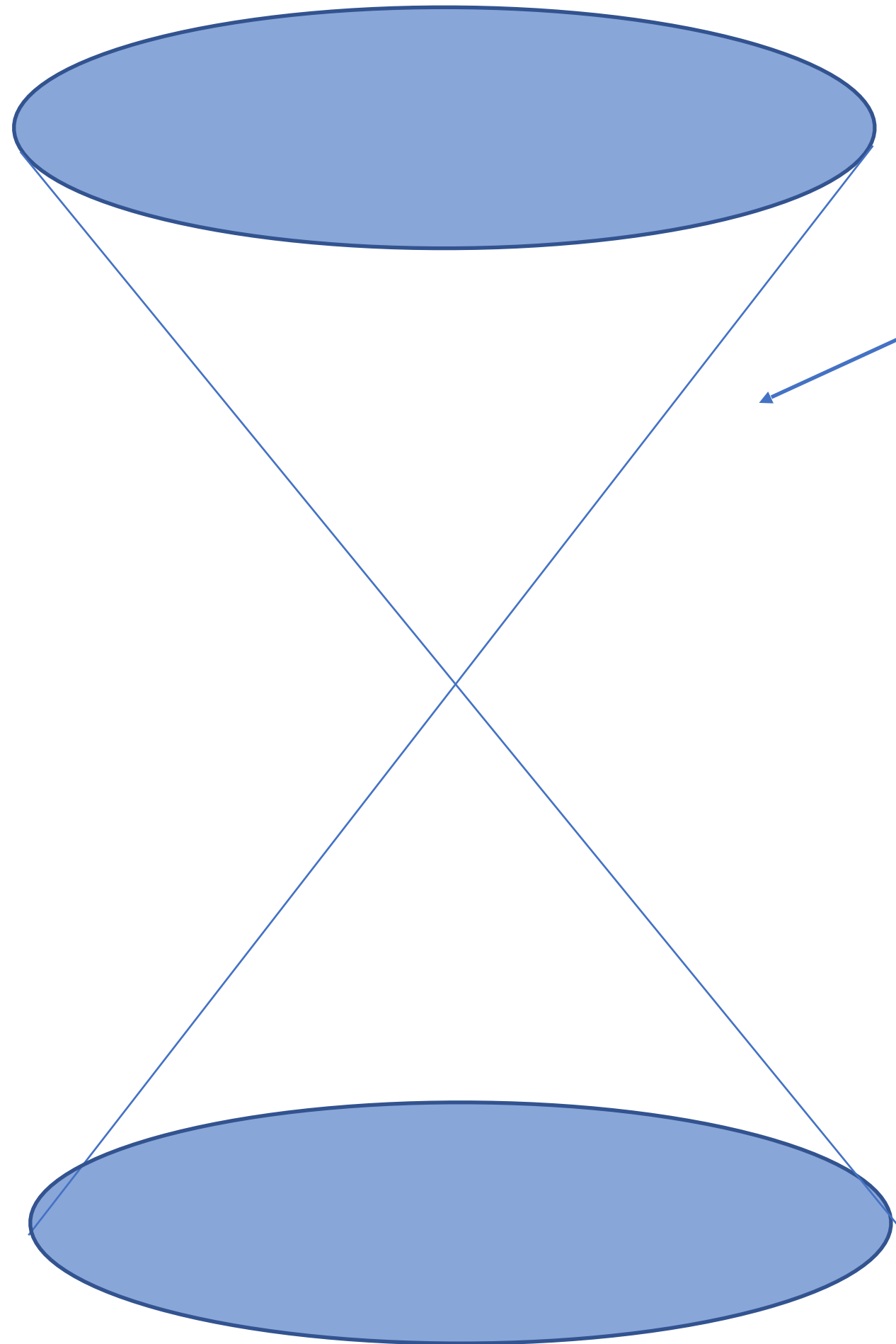
$$r = R l_{\text{comoving}}$$

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + \underbrace{R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi)d\Omega^2]}_{l_{\text{comoving}}}$$

Part I. Geometry

Horizon

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2]$$



Light cone, $ds=0$ $d = c t$

Inside cone, particles ($v < c$) $ds^2 > 0$

Outside cone, tachyons ($v > c$) $ds^2 < 0$

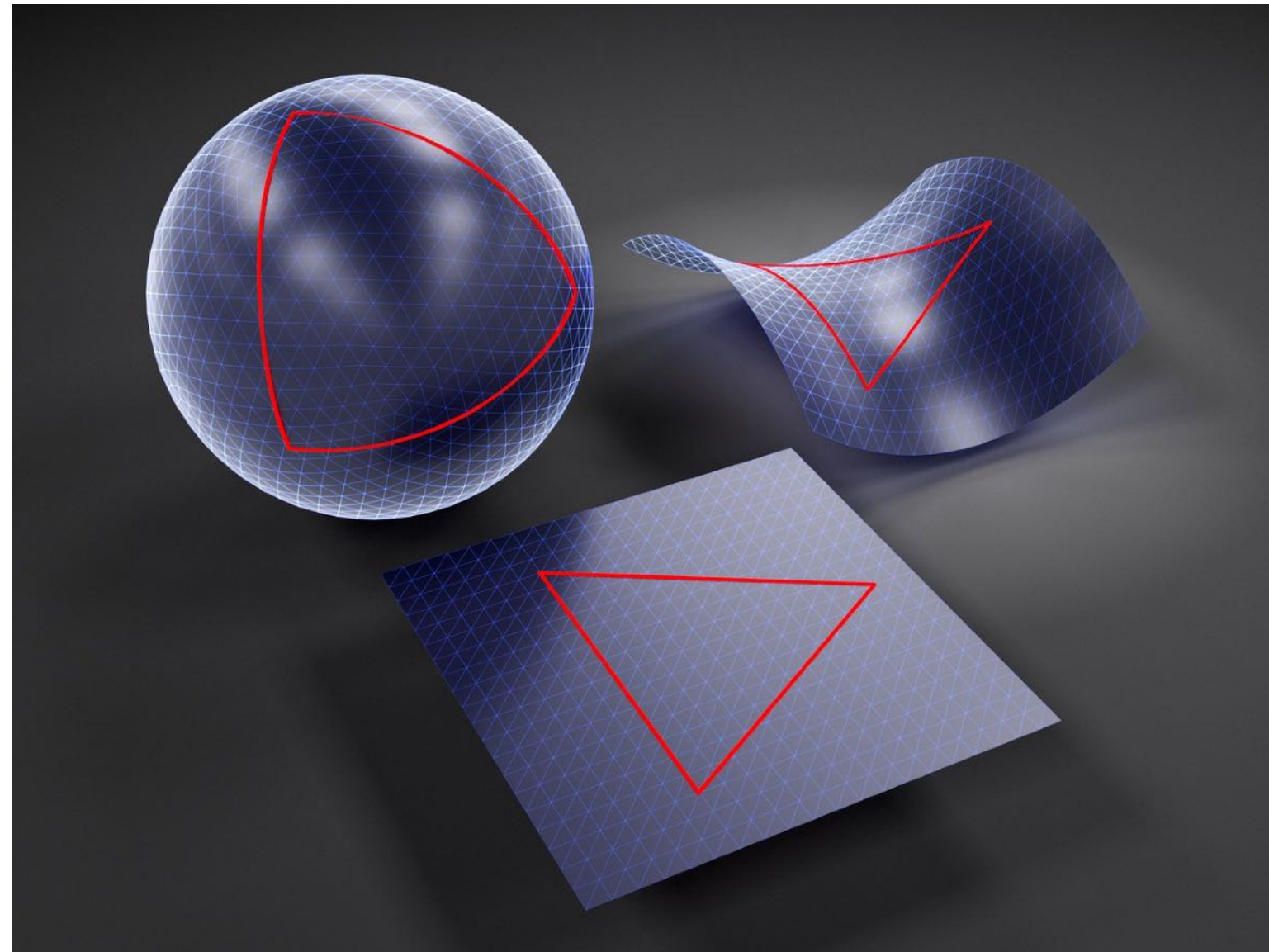
Tachyons are not physical
(we have never seen $v > c$)

Part II. Content of the Universe

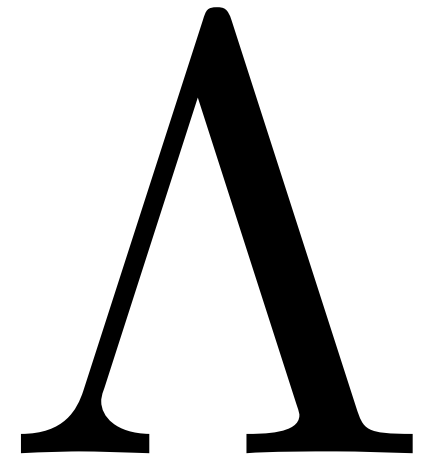
Part II. Content of the Universe

Metric + curvature matter Constant Because why not?

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$$



		three generations of matter (fermions)				
		I	II	III		
mass		≈2.4 MeV/c ²	≈1.275 GeV/c ²	≈172.44 GeV/c ²	0	≈125.09 GeV/c ²
charge		2/3	2/3	2/3	0	0
spin		1/2	1/2	1/2	1	0
		u up	c charm	t top	g gluon	H Higgs
QUARKS						
		≈4.8 MeV/c ²	≈95 MeV/c ²	≈4.18 GeV/c ²	0	
		-1/3	-1/3	-1/3	0	
		1/2	1/2	1/2	1	
		d down	s strange	b bottom	γ photon	
		≈0.511 MeV/c ²	≈105.67 MeV/c ²	≈1.7768 GeV/c ²	≈91.19 GeV/c ²	
		-1	-1	-1	0	
		1/2	1/2	1/2	1	
		e electron	μ muon	τ tau	Z Z boson	
		<2.2 eV/c ²	<1.7 MeV/c ²	<15.5 MeV/c ²	≈80.39 GeV/c ²	
		0	0	0	±1	
		1/2	1/2	1/2	1	
		ν_e electron neutrino	ν_μ muon neutrino	ν_τ tau neutrino	W W boson	
LEPTONS						



Part II. Content of the Universe

& metric

Intuitively:

- **Energy should increase distances → expansion**
- **Matter feels gravity so it should slow expansion**
- **Curvature ?**

The mixture of all components must be constrained by the observed expansion or lack of...

Part II. Content

Expansion rate (or Hubble rate)

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + \underbrace{R^2 [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi)d\Omega^2]}_{l_{\text{comoving}}^2}$$

$$r = R l_{\text{comoving}}$$

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + R^2 l_{\text{comoving}}^2 = -dt^2 + dr^2$$

$$v = \frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{d(R l)}{dt} \quad \longrightarrow \quad v = \frac{dr}{dt} = l \frac{dR}{dt} \quad \longrightarrow \quad v = \frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{r}{R} \frac{dR}{dt}$$

$$v = \frac{dr}{dt} = H r$$

Part II. Content

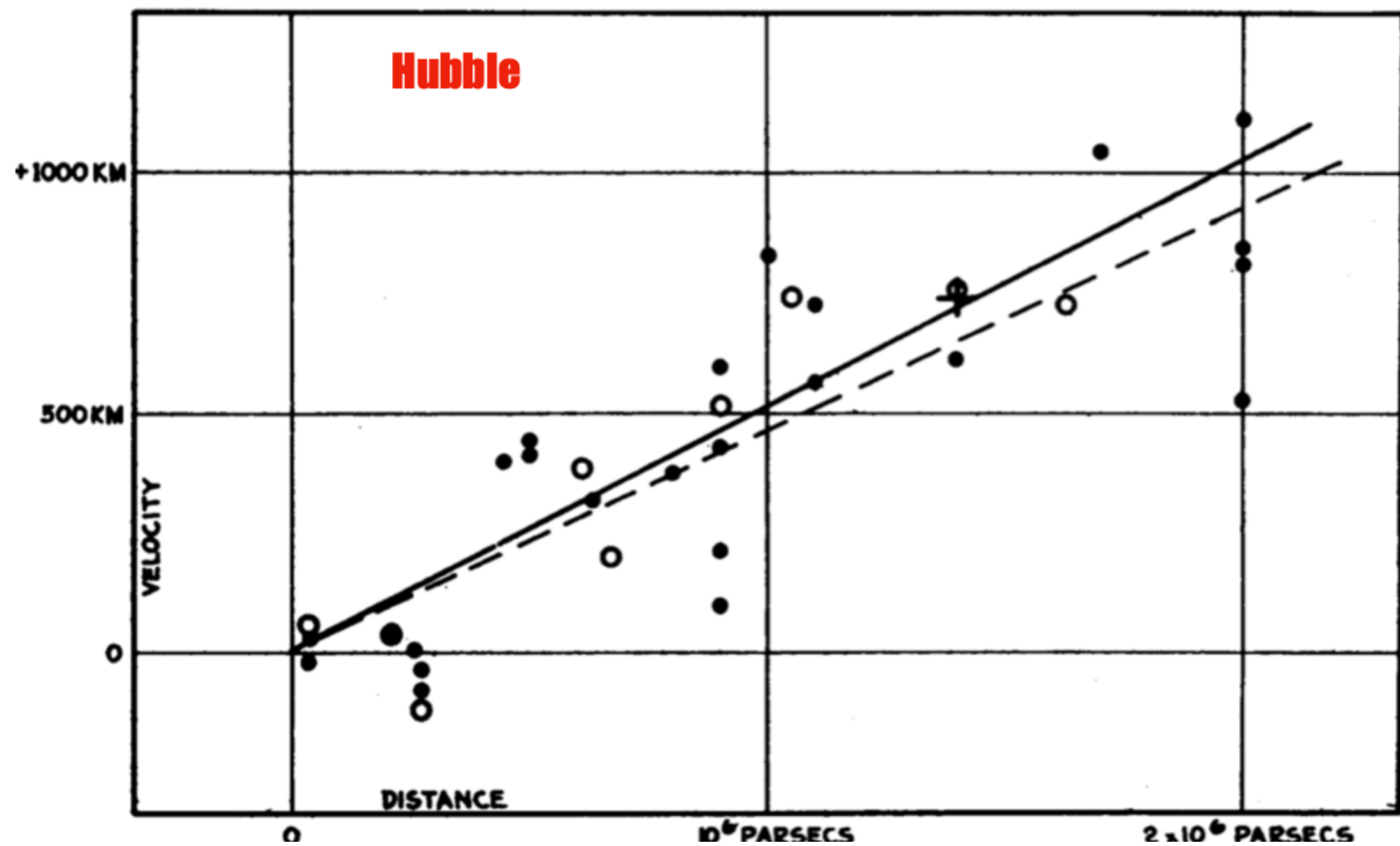
Expansion rate (or Hubble rate)

$$v = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} r = H r$$



$$H = \frac{\dot{R}(t)}{R(t)} = \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}$$

($R(t) \equiv a(t)$ Modern writing convention)



For light emitted in the past at time t_e from a galaxy moving with the cosmic flow, and received today at time t_0 , also in a galaxy moving with the cosmic flow,

$$1 + z = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_e)} = \frac{1}{a(t_e)}$$

leading to the generic relation

$$a(t) = \frac{1}{(1+z)}. \quad \text{with } a(t_0) = 1$$

Part II. Content

Expansion rate (or Hubble rate)

$H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$ Hubble rate defines the rate of expansion of the Universe

$$H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{a(t_0)}{(1+z)} \right) \frac{1}{a} = -\frac{1}{(1+z)} \frac{dz}{dt}$$

and

$$H = -\frac{1}{(1+z)} \frac{dz}{dt} \Rightarrow dt = -\frac{1}{(1+z)} \frac{dz}{H}$$

Today $H_0 \simeq 70 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$

$H_0 \equiv [s^{-1}] \quad \longrightarrow \quad 1/H_0 \sim \text{age of the Universe}$
 $t_0 \simeq 1.4 \times 10^{10} \text{ yr}$

Part II. Content

Expansion rate (or Hubble rate)

$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \equiv \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)} \quad \text{Hubble}$$

$$1 + z_{emitted} = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_{emitted})} \quad a(t_0) = a_0 = 1 \quad \text{Convention as we can't measure } a_0$$

- If we can access the redshift of an object in the past, we have access to the size of the Universe at that time, i.e. $a(t_1)$
- If we have access to the redshift of many objects in the past we can reconstruct $a(t)$ and its evolution.
- If we have $a(t)$, we can compute the derivative and therefore find $H(t)$ and thus have access to the Universe History, its evolution and a chance to understand what drove the recent expansion.

HOLICOW XIII. A 2.4% measurement of H_0 from lensed quasars: 5.3σ tension between early and late-Universe probes

Kenneth C. Wong, Sherry H. Suyu, Geoff C.-F. Chen, Cristian E. Rusu, Martin Millon, Dominique Sluse, Vivien Bonvin, Christopher D. Fassnacht, Stefan Taubenberger, Matthew W. Auger, Simon Birrer, James H. H. Chan, Frederic Courbin, Stefan Hilbert, Olga Tihhonova, Tommaso Treu, Adriano Agnello, Xuheng Ding, Inh Jee, Eiichiro Komatsu, Anowar J. Shajib, Alessandro Sonnenfeld, Roger D. Blandford, Leon V. E. Koopmans, Philip J. Marshall, Georges Meylan

We present a measurement of the Hubble constant (H_0) and other cosmological parameters from a joint analysis of six gravitationally lensed quasars with measured time delays. All lenses except the first are analyzed blindly with respect to the cosmological parameters. In a flat Λ CDM cosmology, we find $H_0 = 73.3_{-1.8}^{+1.7}$, a 2.4% precision measurement, in agreement with local measurements of H_0 from type Ia supernovae calibrated by the distance ladder, but in 3.1σ tension with *Planck* observations of the cosmic microwave background (CMB). This method is completely independent of both the supernovae and CMB analyses. A combination of time-delay cosmography and the distance ladder results is in 5.3σ tension with *Planck* CMB determinations of H_0 in flat Λ CDM. We compute Bayes factors to verify that all lenses give statistically consistent results, showing that we are not underestimating our uncertainties and are able to control our systematics. We explore extensions to flat Λ CDM using constraints from time-delay cosmography alone, as well as combinations with other cosmological probes, including CMB observations from *Planck*, baryon acoustic oscillations, and type Ia supernovae. Time-delay cosmography improves the precision of the other probes, demonstrating the strong complementarity. Allowing for spatial curvature does not resolve the tension with *Planck*. Using the distance constraints from time-delay cosmography to anchor the type Ia supernova distance scale, we reduce the sensitivity of our H_0 inference to cosmological model assumptions. For six different cosmological models, our combined inference on H_0 ranges from ~ 73 – $78 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$, which is consistent with the local distance ladder constraints.

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A Comprehensive Measurement of the Local Value of the Hubble Constant with $1 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ Uncertainty from the Hubble Space Telescope and the SH0ES Team

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Abstract

We report observations from the Hubble Space Telescope (HST) of Cepheid variables in the host galaxies of 42 Type Ia supernovae (SNe Ia) used to calibrate the Hubble constant (H_0). These include the complete sample of all suitable SNe Ia discovered in the last four decades at redshift $z \leq 0.01$, collected and calibrated from ≥ 1000 HST orbits, more than doubling the sample whose size limits the precision of the direct determination of H_0 . The Cepheids are calibrated geometrically from Gaia EDR3 parallaxes, masers in NGC 4258 (here tripling that sample of Cepheids), and detached eclipsing binaries in the Large Magellanic Cloud. All Cepheids in these anchors and SN Ia hosts were measured with the same instrument (WFC3) and filters ($F555W$, $F814W$, $F160W$) to negate zero-point errors. We present multiple verifications of Cepheid photometry and six tests of background determinations that show Cepheid measurements are accurate in the presence of crowded backgrounds. The SNe Ia in these hosts calibrate the magnitude–redshift relation from the revised Pantheon+ compilation, accounting here for covariance between all SN data and with host properties and SN surveys matched throughout to negate systematics. We decrease the uncertainty in the local determination of H_0 to $1 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ including systematics. We present results for a comprehensive set of nearly 70 analysis variants to explore the sensitivity of H_0 to selections of anchors, SN surveys, redshift ranges, the treatment of Cepheid dust, metallicity, form of the period–luminosity relation, SN color, peculiar-velocity corrections, sample bifurcations, and simultaneous measurement of the expansion history. Our baseline result from the Cepheid–SN Ia sample is $H_0 = 73.04 \pm 1.04 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$, which includes systematic uncertainties and lies near the median of all analysis variants. We demonstrate consistency with measures from HST of the TRGB between SN Ia hosts and NGC 4258, and include them simultaneously to yield $72.53 \pm 0.99 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. The inclusion of high-redshift SNe Ia yields $H_0 = 73.30 \pm 1.04 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ and $q_0 = -0.51 \pm 0.024$. We find a 5σ difference with the prediction of H_0 from Planck cosmic microwave background observations under Λ CDM, with no indication that the discrepancy arises from measurement uncertainties or analysis variations considered to date. The source of this now long-standing discrepancy between direct and cosmological routes to determining H_0 remains unknown.

Part II. Content

Relation between H and content

To all observers we can associate a potential energy and a kinetic energy

$$U = T + V$$

$$\begin{array}{l} T = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \\ T = \frac{1}{2} m (Hr)^2 \\ V = -\frac{G m M}{r} = \frac{4\pi G \rho r^2 m}{3} \end{array} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} T = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \\ T = \frac{1}{2} m (Hr)^2 \\ V = -\frac{G m M}{r} = \frac{4\pi G \rho r^2 m}{3} \end{array}} \right\} \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \frac{1}{2} m H^2 r^2 - \frac{4\pi G \rho r^2 m}{3} = U \\ H^2 - \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} = \frac{2U}{m r^2} \end{array}$$

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} + \frac{2U}{m r^2}$$

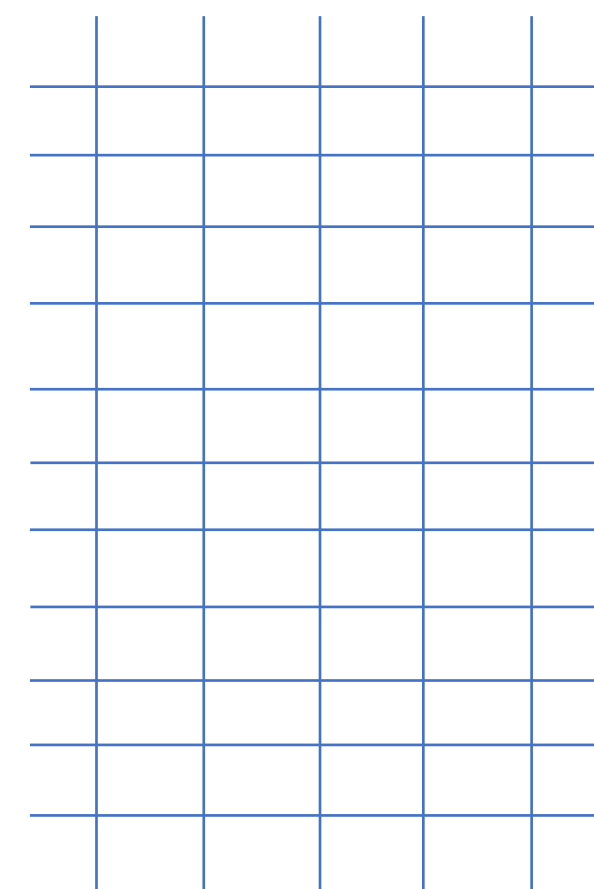
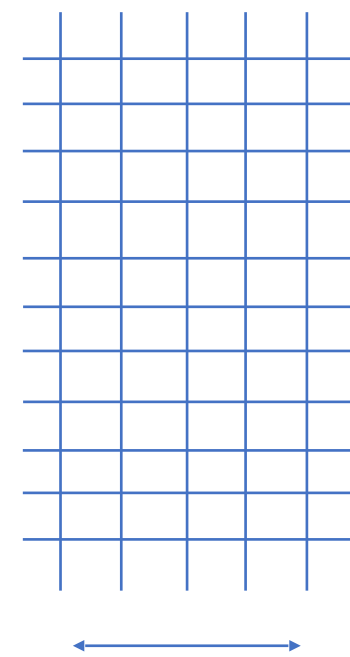
Part II. Content

Relation between H and content

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} + \frac{2U}{mr^2}$$

The expansion depends on the density and therefore the Universe's content

$$R \rightarrow \frac{\dot{R}}{R} \equiv \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)$$



Part II. Content

Relation between H and content

Version using General Relativity

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$$

GEOMETRY=CONTENTS

$g_{\mu\nu}$ = spacetime metric ($ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$)

$G_{\mu\nu}$ = Einstein tensor (spacetime curvature)

G = Newton's gravitational constant

$T_{\mu\nu}$ = energy - momentum tensor

Λ = cosmological constant

Part II. Content

Relation between H and content

$$H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} - \frac{kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} + \frac{2U}{mr^2}$$

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$$

Expansion is driven by the energy associated with particles, curvature & a cosmological constant

$$\rho = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} E \int f(E) d^3 p d\Omega$$

which leads to

$$\rho = B \frac{\pi^2}{30} g T^3$$

with $B = 7/8$ for a fermion and $B = 1$ for a boson.

For photons and any relativistic particle, the energy density therefore behaves as

$$\rho_\gamma \propto T^4$$

while for a massive particle,

$$\rho_\gamma \propto m_i T_i^3$$

once the particle became non-relativistic.

Part II. Content

Energy densities

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} - \frac{kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

For photons and any relativistic particle, the energy density therefore behaves as

$$\rho_\gamma \propto T^4$$

while for a massive particle,

$$\rho_\gamma \propto m_i T_i^3$$

once the particle became non-relativistic.

We are missing

- the relation between time and temperature
- the time evolution of the density

- **Generic time evolution of an energy density**

Part II. Content

Time evolution of densities

$$dE = -p dV$$

P = pression; V = volume

$$E = m c^2 \quad \text{with}$$

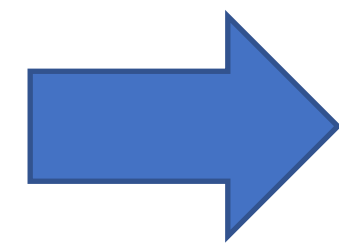
$$m = \rho V$$



$$E = \rho V c^2$$

$$dE = d\rho V c^2 + \rho dV c^2$$

Using $V = a^3 l_{\text{coming}}^3$



$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} V$$

$$\dot{\rho} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2} \right) = 0$$

Background equation

- **time evolution of massive particles energy density**

Part II. Content

Time evolution of matter densities

$$\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2}\right) = 0 \quad \text{Particles} \sim \text{dust, } p=0$$

$$\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\rho = 0 \quad \longrightarrow \quad \frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} = -3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

$$\ln \rho(t) = -3 \ln a(t) + cst$$

$$\rho(t) = cst \times a(t)^{-3}$$

- **time evolution of massless particle energy density**

$$\dot{\rho} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2} \right) = 0$$

with

$$\rho = \frac{1}{3} \frac{p}{c^2}$$

$$\dot{\rho} + 4 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \rho = 0 \quad \longrightarrow$$

$$\ln \rho(t) = -4 \ln a(t) + cst$$

$$\rho(t) = cst \times a(t)^{-4}$$

- **Hubble evolution**

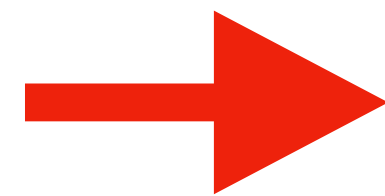
Part II. Content

Time evolution of Hubble rate

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} - \frac{kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} - k\frac{c^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$k = 0 \ \& \ \Lambda = 0 \Rightarrow H^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho_{crit}}{3} \Rightarrow \rho_{crit} = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}$$



$$1 = \underbrace{\frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega} - k \underbrace{\frac{3c^2}{8a^2\pi G\rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega_k} + \underbrace{\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G\rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega_\Lambda}$$

Cosmological parameters

$$\rho = \rho_r + \rho_m$$

radiation matter



$$1 = \Omega_{r,m} + \Omega_k + \Omega_\Lambda$$

$$\rho_{crit} = \frac{3 H_0^2}{8 \pi G} \simeq 0.92 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg/m}^3$$

Today

Converted to Solar Masses / Mega parsec

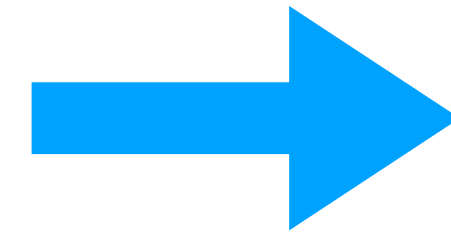
$$\rho_{crit} \simeq 1.36 \times 10^{11} M_{\odot}/\text{Mpc}^3$$

Given that the typical size of galaxies is around 10^{11} solar masses and the typical separation between galaxies is 1 Mpc, the Universe must be near the critical density and therefore \sim flat.

Part II. Content

Time evolution of Hubble rate

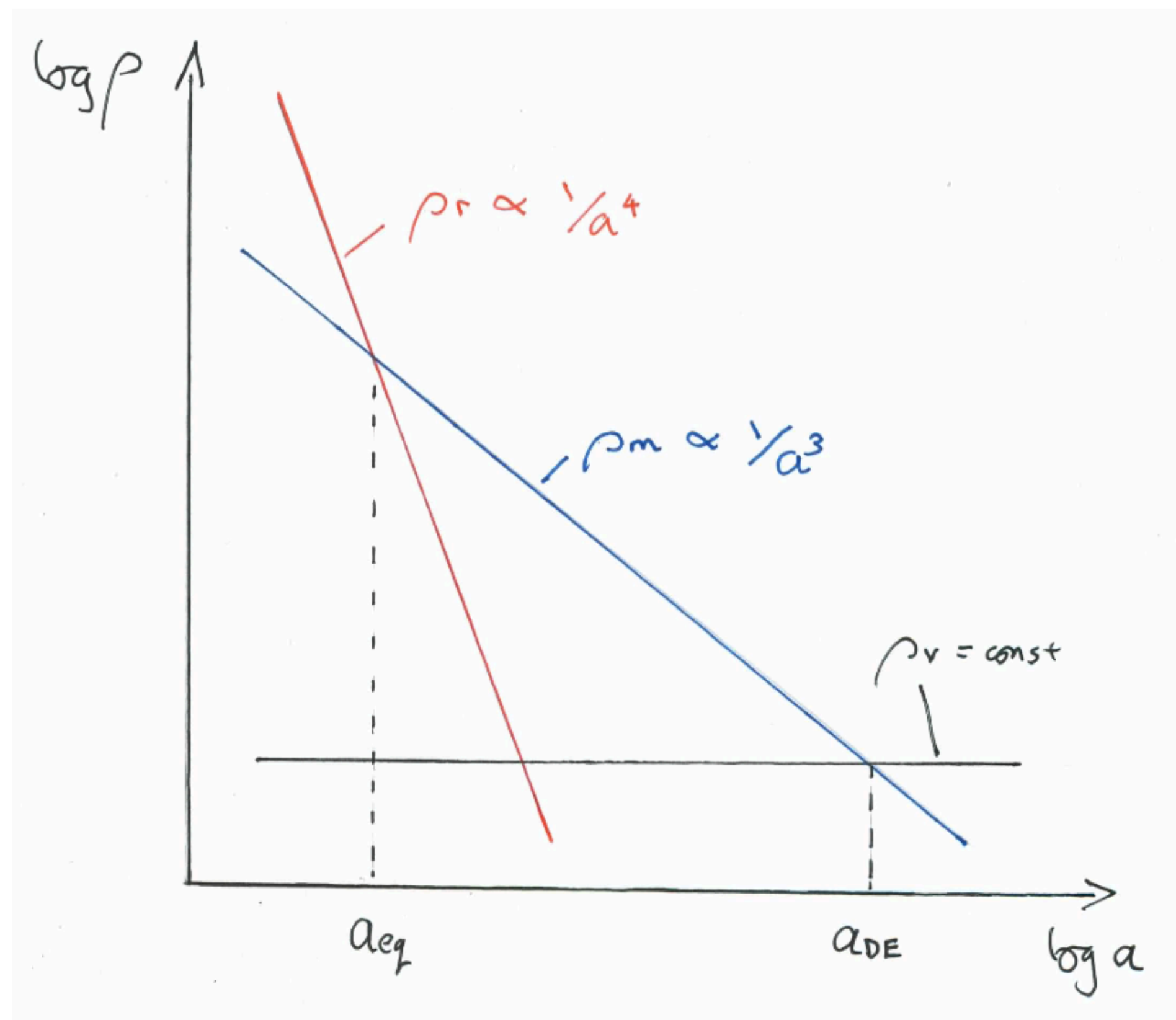
$$1 = \underbrace{\frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega} - \underbrace{k \frac{3c^2}{8a^2 \pi G \rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega_k} + \underbrace{\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G \rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega_\lambda}$$



$$1 = \Omega_{r,m} + \Omega_k + \Omega_\Lambda$$
$$= \frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}}$$

matter $\rho(t) = cst \times a(t)^{-4}$

radiation $\rho(t) = cst \times a(t)^{-3}$



Past dominated by radiation
Then matter and today Universe
dominated by Lambda

- **Expansion vs content & geometry**

Part II. Content of the Universe

$$H^2 = \frac{8 \pi G \rho}{3} + \frac{\Lambda}{3} - \frac{k}{a^2}$$

$$H(z) = H_0 \sqrt{\frac{\Omega_r}{a^{-4}} + \frac{\Omega_m}{a^{-3}} + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_k(1+z)^2}$$

- Energy (lambda and radiation) fuels expansion when they dominate
- Matter too but also slows expansion due to gravity
- Curvature does too for $k = -1$ (otherwise contraction)

$$1 = \frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}} - k \frac{3c^2}{8a^2 \pi G \rho_{crit}} + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G \rho_{crit}}$$

Universe with no cosmological constant "Lambda"

$$1 - \frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}} = -(\dots > 0)$$

$\rho > \rho_{crit}$: Universe is over dense

Positive curvature (k=1); Sphere; closed Universe

$\rho = \rho_{crit}$

Zero curvature (k=0); Flat Universe

$\rho < \rho_{crit}$: Universe is under dense

Negative curvature (k=-1); Hypolic; Open Universe

Part II. Content

Role of lambda in expansion

Sub for ρ from fluid equation:

$$2 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \left[\frac{a\ddot{a} - \dot{a}^2}{a^2} \right] = -\frac{8\pi G}{3} 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2} \right) + \frac{2kc^2 \dot{a}}{a^3}$$

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} - \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = -4\pi G \left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2} \right) + \frac{kc^2}{a^2}$$

Sub for $(\dot{a}/a)^2$ and rearrange to get:

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \left(\rho + \frac{3p}{c^2} \right) + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$



**Deceleration equation
(or acceleration eq!)**

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} - \frac{kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$\dot{\rho} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2} \right) = 0$$

Part II. Content

Role of lambda in expansion

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \left(\rho + \frac{3p}{c^2} \right) + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

If Lambda dominates on the right hand side $\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = \frac{\Lambda}{3}$

$$\Lambda > 0, \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} > 0$$

Expansion is accelerating

$$\Lambda < 0, \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} < 0$$

Expansion is decelerating

Otherwise $\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \left(\rho + \frac{3p}{c^2} \right)$

Part II. Content

Role of lambda in expansion

What is Lambda?

$$\Omega_{\Lambda} = \frac{\Lambda}{3H^2}$$

$$\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2}\right) = 0 \quad \rho = -\frac{p}{c^2}$$

(Positive) Lambda exerts (negative) pressure!

forces the Universe to expand faster

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

- **Time dependence of the scale-factor**

Part II. Content

Time evolution of scale-factor

(flat, matter dominated)

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} - k \frac{c^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$



$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho_m}{3}$$

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho_m}{3}$$



$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \text{cst } \rho_{m,0} a^{-3}$$

$$\dot{a}^2 = \text{cst } \rho_{m,0} a^{-1}$$

$$\frac{da}{dt} = \text{cst } \sqrt{\rho_{m,0}} a^{-1/2}$$

$$a^{1/2} da = \text{cst } \sqrt{\rho_{m,0}} dt$$

$$a = [\text{cst } \sqrt{\rho_{m,0}}]^{3/2} t^{2/3}$$

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} - k\frac{c^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$a = [cst \sqrt{\rho_{m,0}}]^{3/2} t^{2/3}$$

$$a \propto t^{2/3}$$

$$\dot{a} = [cst \sqrt{\rho_{m,0}}]^{3/2} \frac{2}{3} t^{2/3-1}$$

$$\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{t_m}{t} \quad \text{with } t_m \text{ normalisation}$$

Part II. Content

Time evolution of scale-factor

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho_r}{3}$$



$$\dot{a}^2 = \text{cst } \rho_{r,0} a^{-2}$$

$$\dot{a} = \text{cst } \rho_{r,0}^{1/2} a^{-1}$$

$$a^2 = \text{cst } \rho_{r,0}^{1/2} t$$

$$a \propto t^{1/2}$$



$$H \propto \frac{1}{t}$$

$$H \propto a^{-2}$$

Part II. Content

Time evolution of scale-factor

No number density if lambda is a real constant

$$\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\left(\rho + \frac{p}{c^2}\right) = 0 \quad \text{with} \quad \rho = -\frac{p}{c^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_{\Lambda} \propto \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$$

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} - \frac{kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right) = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^{1/2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \left(\frac{da}{a}\right) = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^{1/2} dt$$

$$a \propto e^{\sqrt{\Lambda}t}$$

Accelerated expansion!

- **Putting it all together**

Part II. Content

If dominates, Universe expands
Accelerating expansion

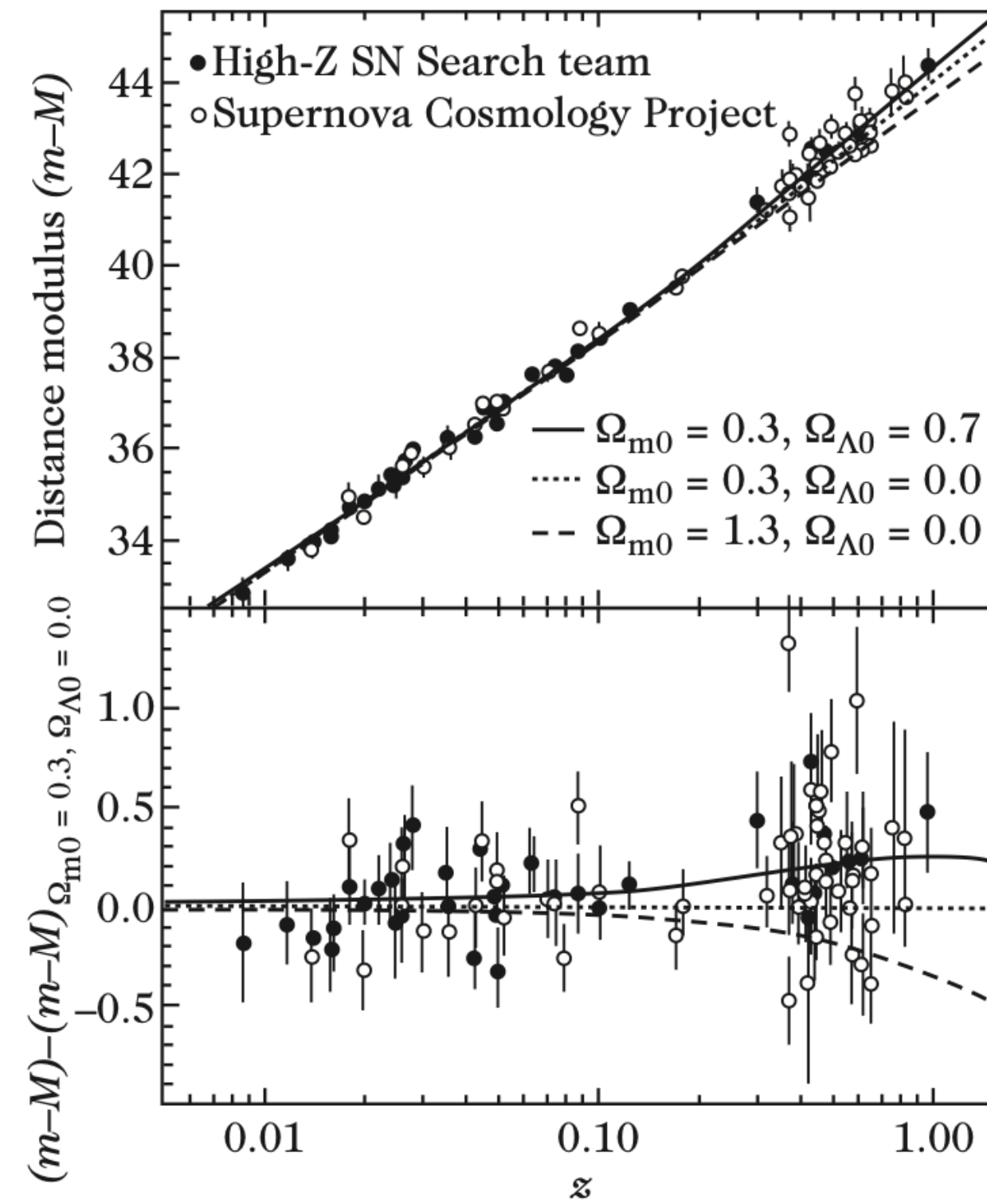
$$1 = \Omega + \Omega_k + \Omega_\Lambda$$

$$1 = \Omega_{radiation} + \Omega_{matter} + \Omega_k + \Omega_\Lambda$$

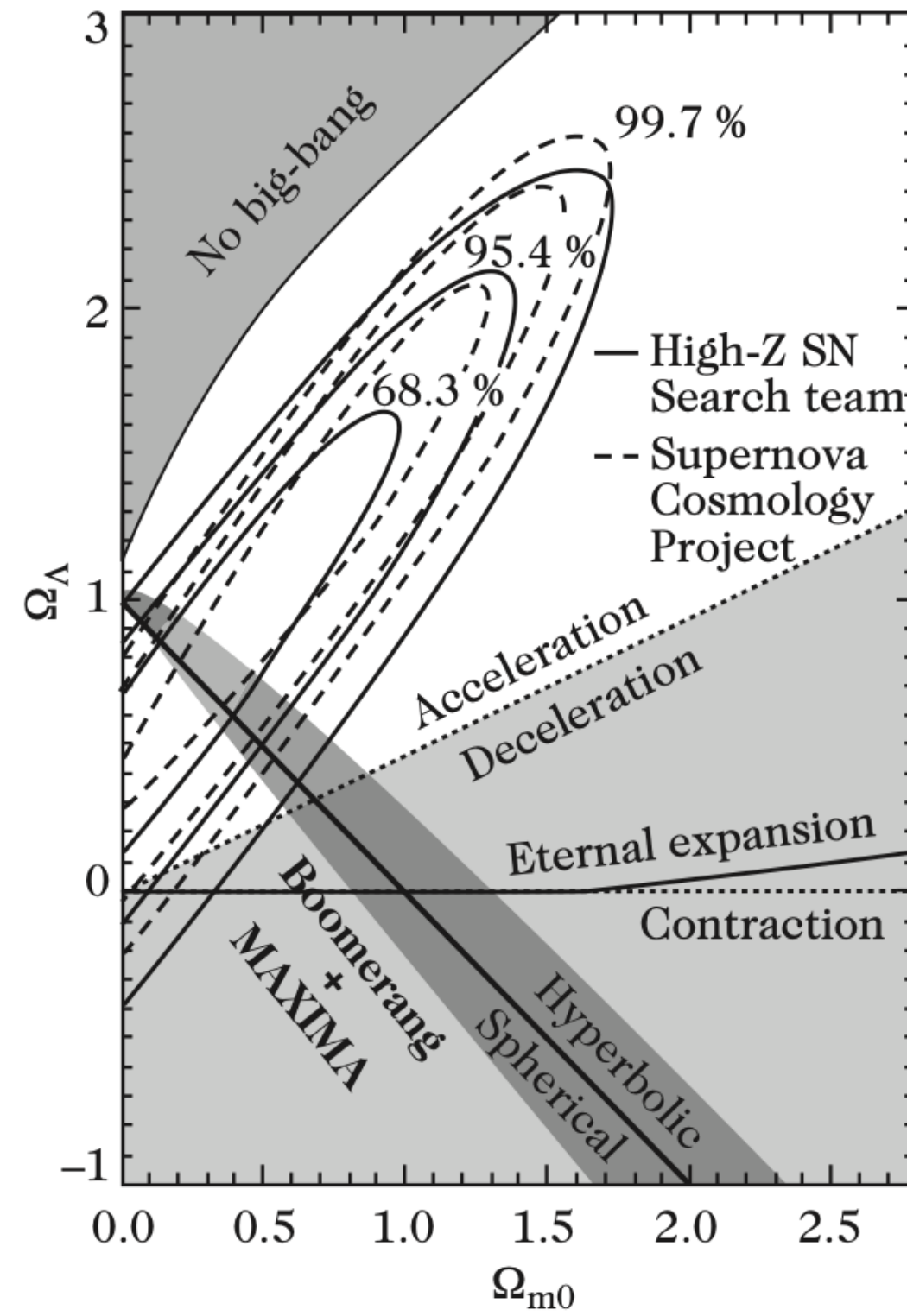
If dominates, Universe expands
Accelerating expansion

If dominates, Universe collapses
Decelerating expansion

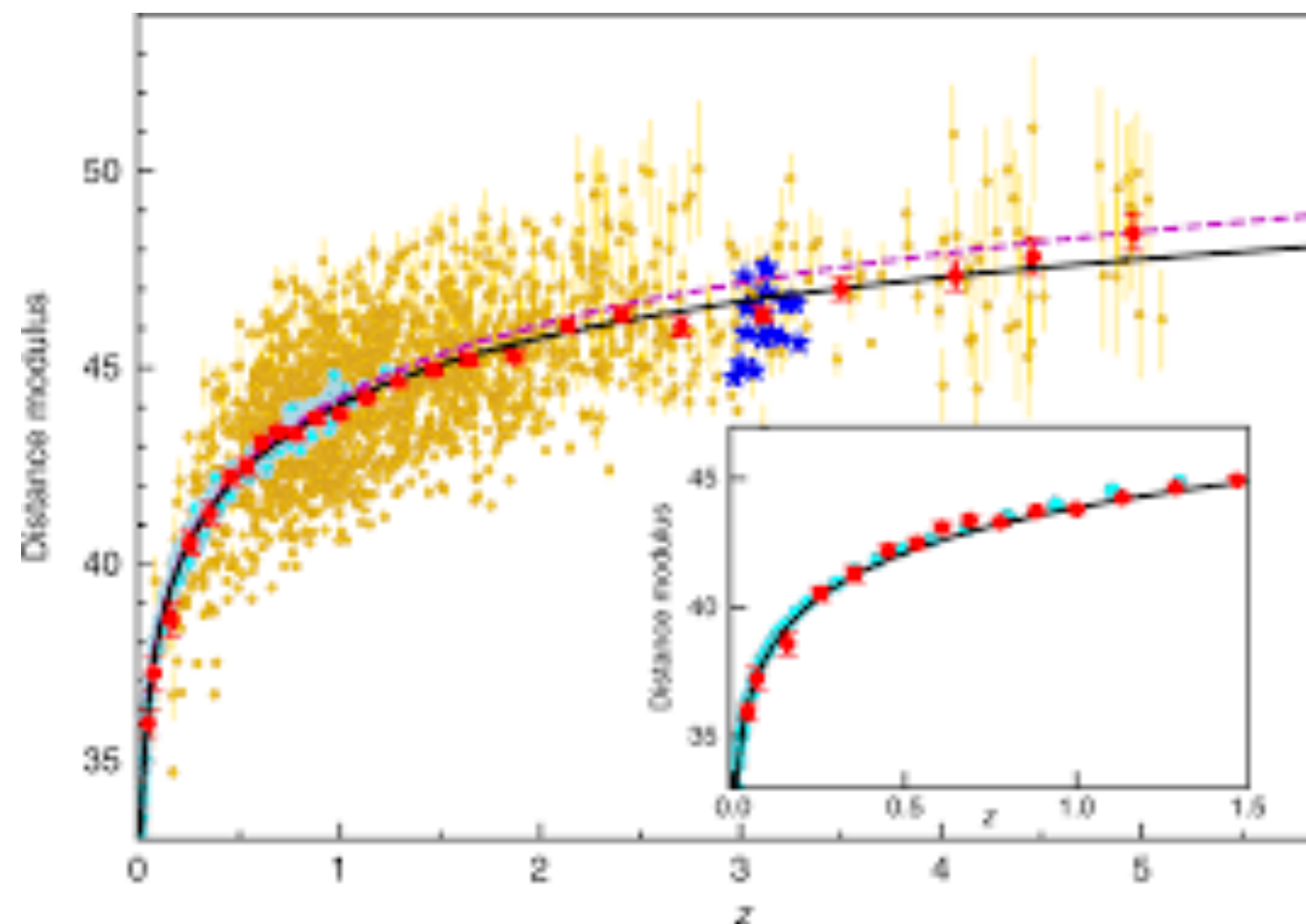
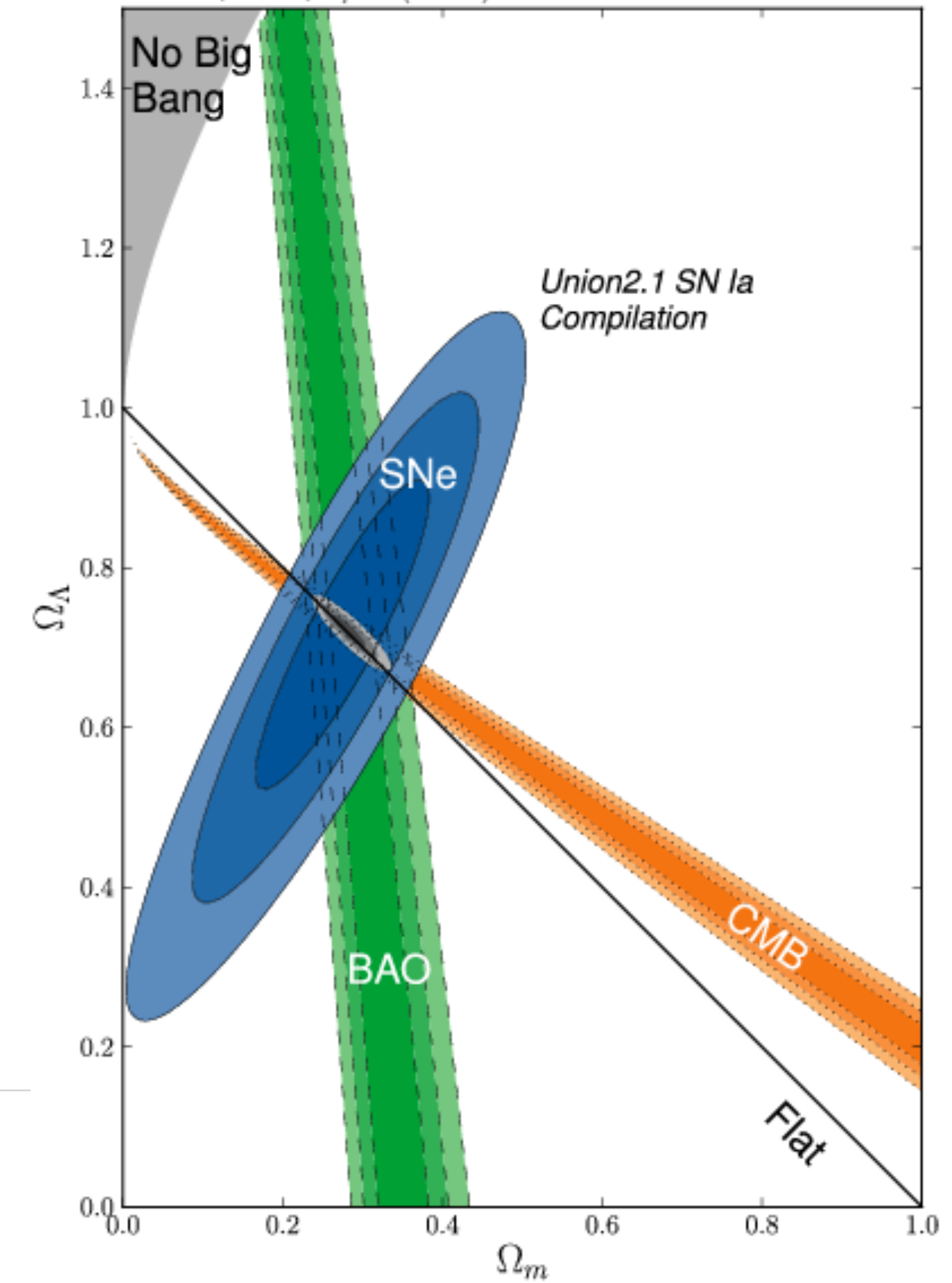
Part II. Content



Courtesy Peter&Uzan textbook



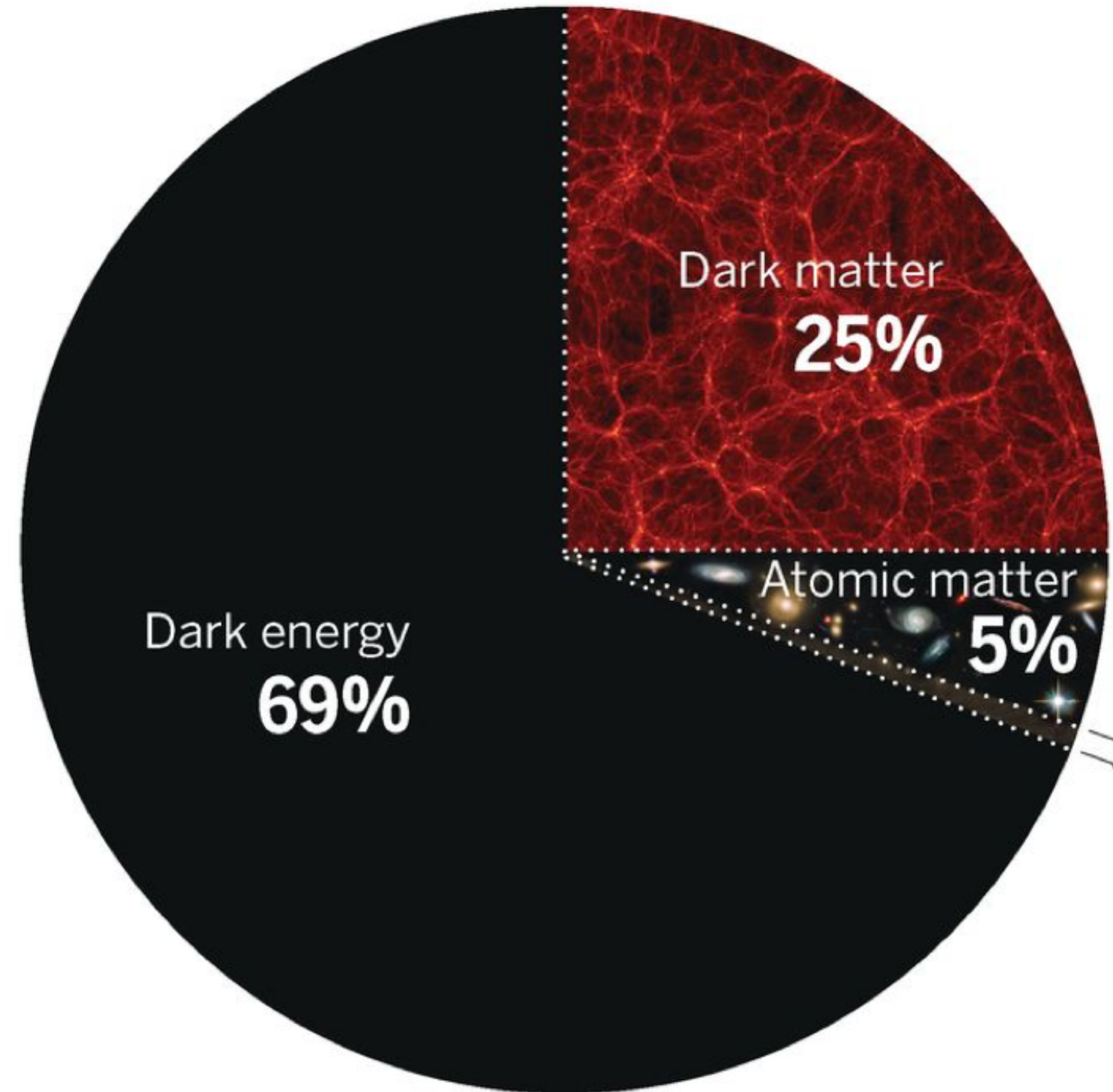
Supernova Cosmology Project
Suzuki, et al., Ap.J. (2011)



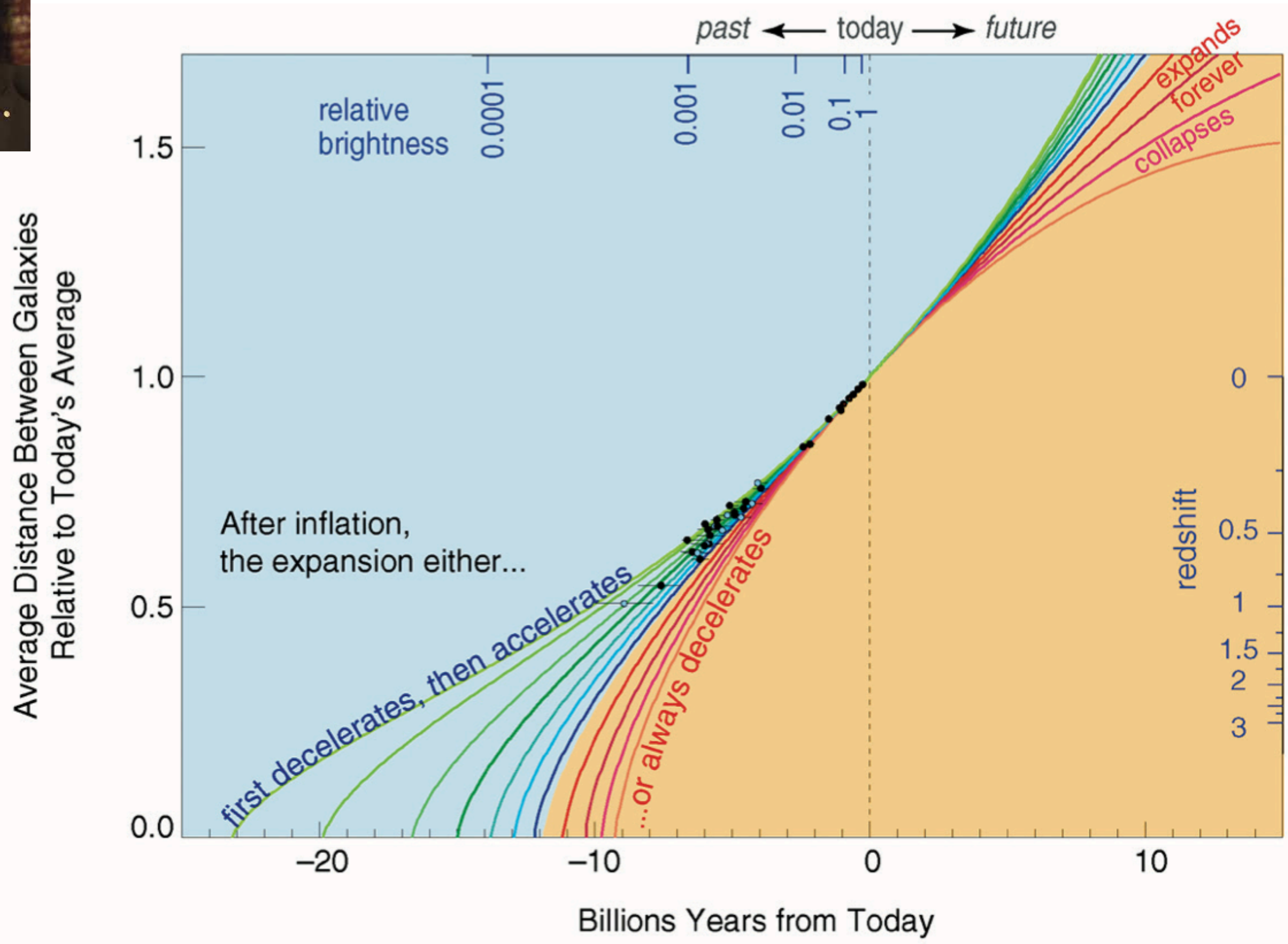
We live in a flat Universe; No curvature

$$1 = \underbrace{\frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega} - \underbrace{k \frac{3c^2}{8a^2 \pi G \rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega_k} + \underbrace{\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G \rho_{crit}}}_{\Omega_{\lambda}}$$

Part II. Content

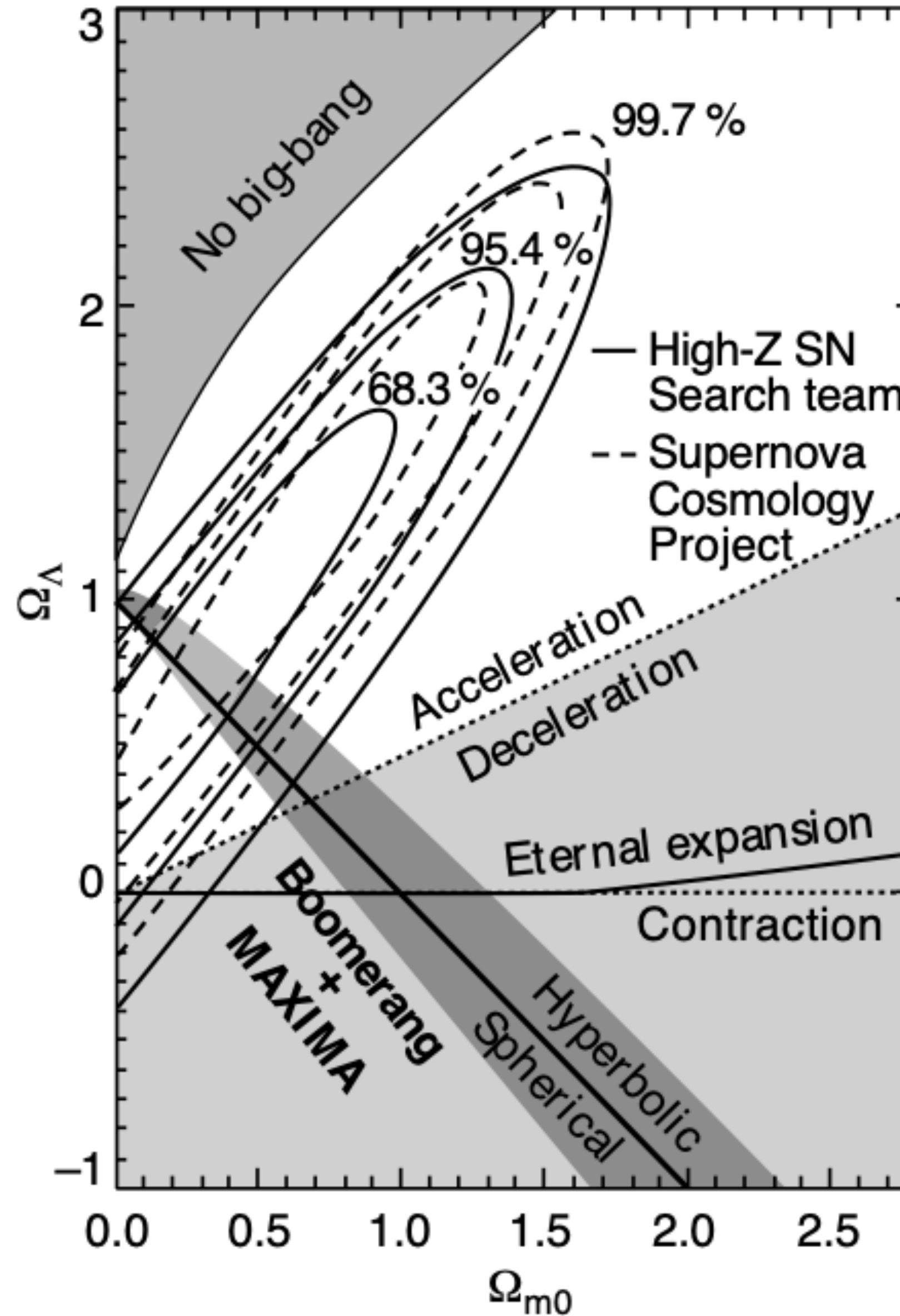
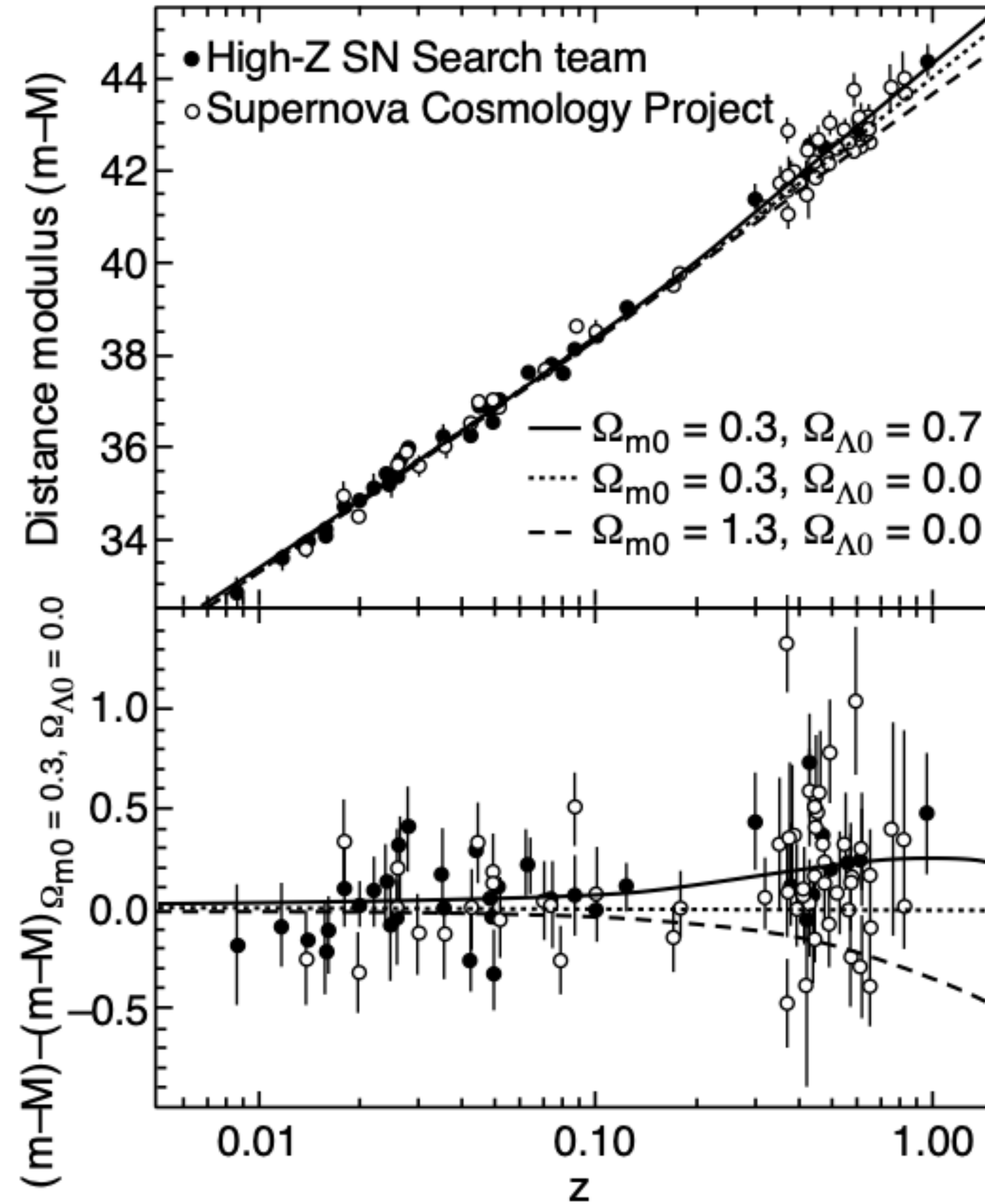


Part II. Content



Part II. Content

Courtesy Peter&Uzan textbook



$$m - M = -2.5 \log [\phi(z) / \phi(10 \text{ pc})]$$

$$m - M = 25 + 5 \log \left[3000 \frac{D_L}{D_{H_0}} \right] - 5 \text{ bgh}$$

Part II. Content

matter $\rho(t) = cst \times a(t)^{-4}$

radiation $\rho(t) = cst \times a(t)^{-3}$

Lambda $\rho(t) = constant$

$$a \propto t^{1/2}$$

$$a \propto t^{2/3}$$

$$a \propto e^{\sqrt{\Lambda}t}$$



$$H \propto \frac{1}{t}$$

$$H \propto a^{-2}$$

$$H \propto a^{-3/2}$$

Part III. CMB & structure formation

Part III. CMB & structure formation

We saw how the content of the Universe relates to its expansion & geometry

We saw that the Universe was first dominated by radiation, matter and then Lambda

Now we need to understand how structures got to form

Part III. CMB & structure formation

COSMIC BLACK-BODY RADIATION*

Could the universe have been filled with black-body radiation from this possible high-temperature state? If so, it is important to notice that as the universe expands the cosmological redshift would serve to adiabatically cool the radiation, while preserving the thermal character. The radiation temperature would vary inversely as the expansion parameter (radius) of the universe.

We deeply appreciate the helpfulness of Drs. Penzias and Wilson of the Bell Telephone Laboratories, Crawford Hill, Holmdel, New Jersey, in discussing with us the result of their measurements and in showing us their receiving system. We are also grateful for several helpful suggestions of Professor J. A. Wheeler.

R. H. DICKE
P. J. E. PEEBLES
P. G. ROLL
D. T. WILKINSON

Cost them the Nobel prize ☹

May 7, 1965
PALMER PHYSICAL LABORATORY
PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY

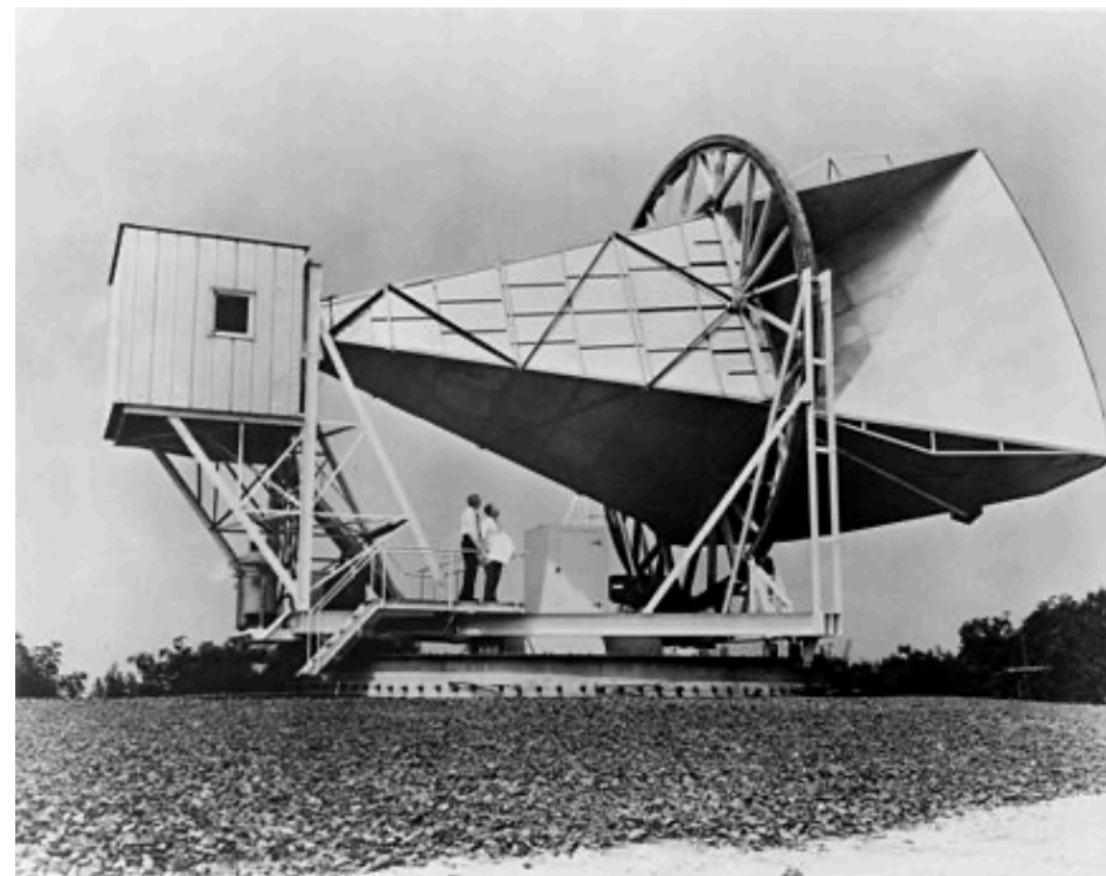


Figure 30: The Holmdel radio antenna at Bell Telephone Laboratories.

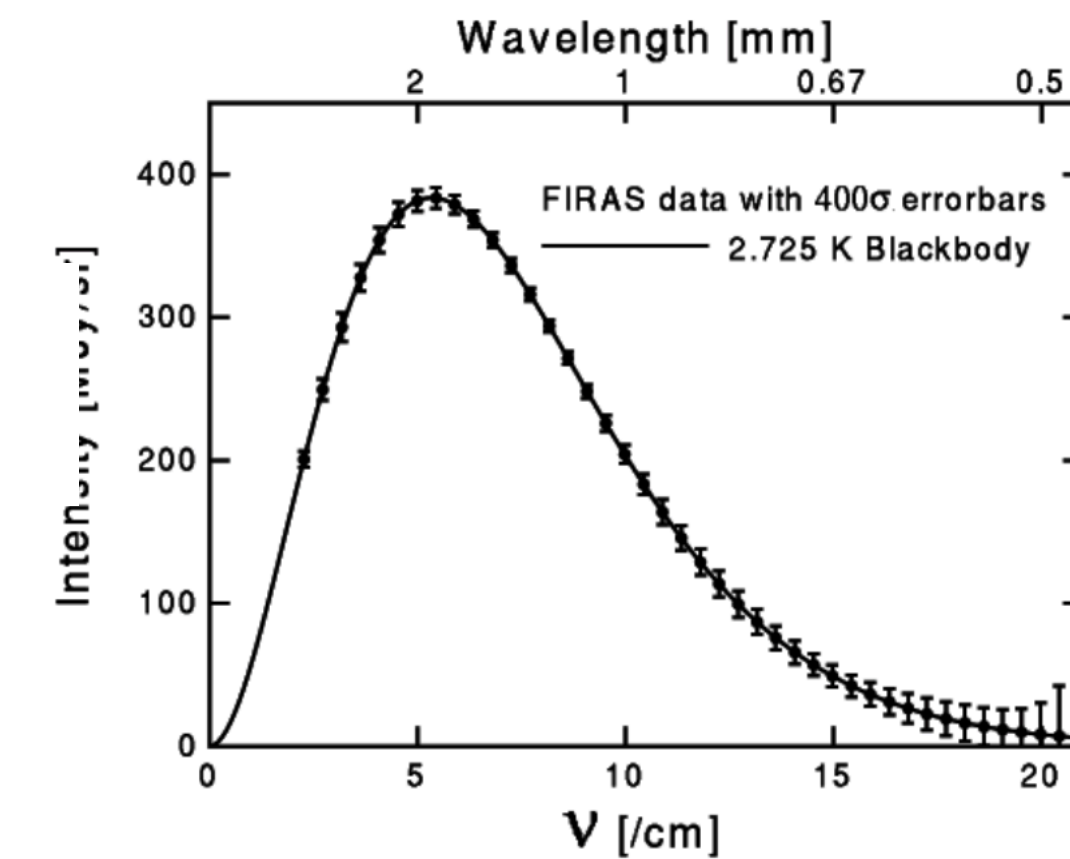


Figure 29: The blackbody spectrum of the CMB, measured in 1990 by the FIRAS detector on the COBE satellite. The error bars have been enlarged by a factor of 400 just to help you see them.

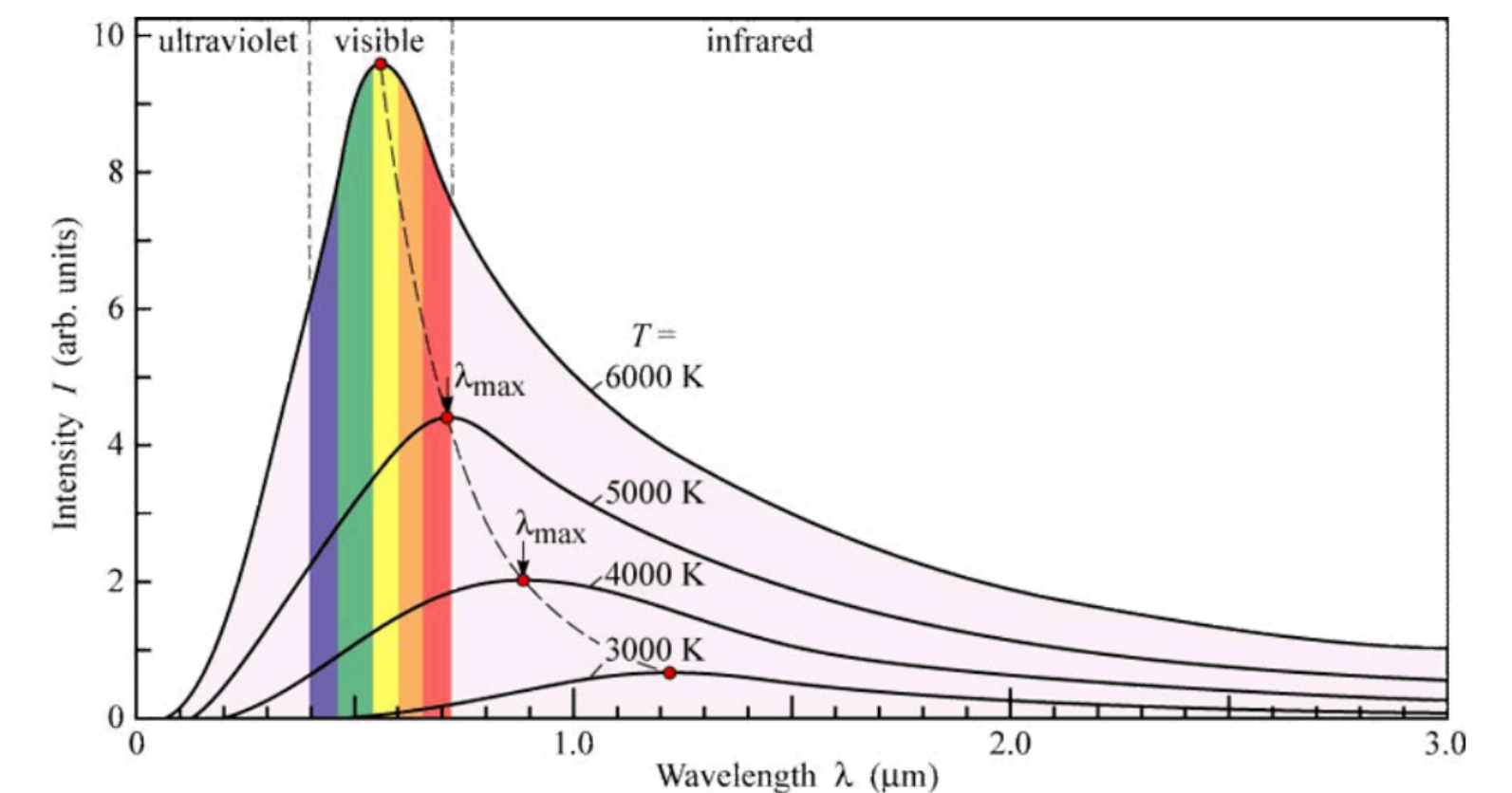
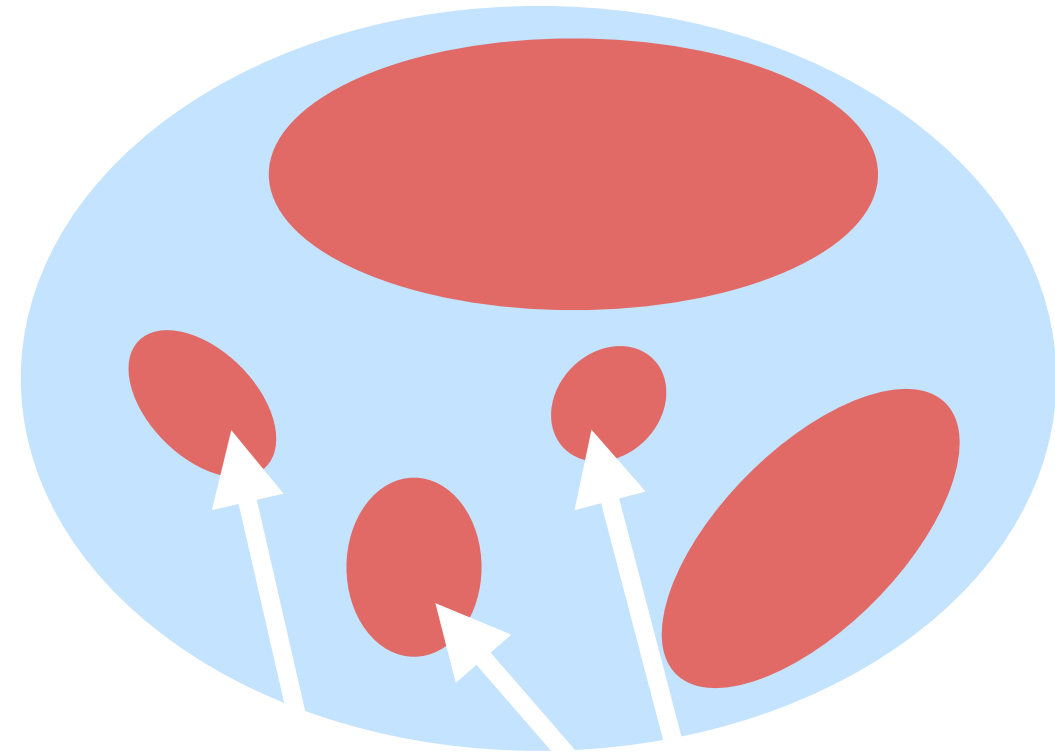


Figure 28: The distribution of colours at various temperatures.

Part III. CMB & structure formation



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Title: The Gravitational Instability of the Universe
Authors: [Peebles, P. J. E.](#)
Publication: Astrophysical Journal, vol. 147, p.859 ([ApJ Homepage](#))
Publication Date: 03/1967
Origin: [ADS](#)
DOI: [10.1086/149077](#)
Bibliographic Code: [1967ApJ...147..859P](#)



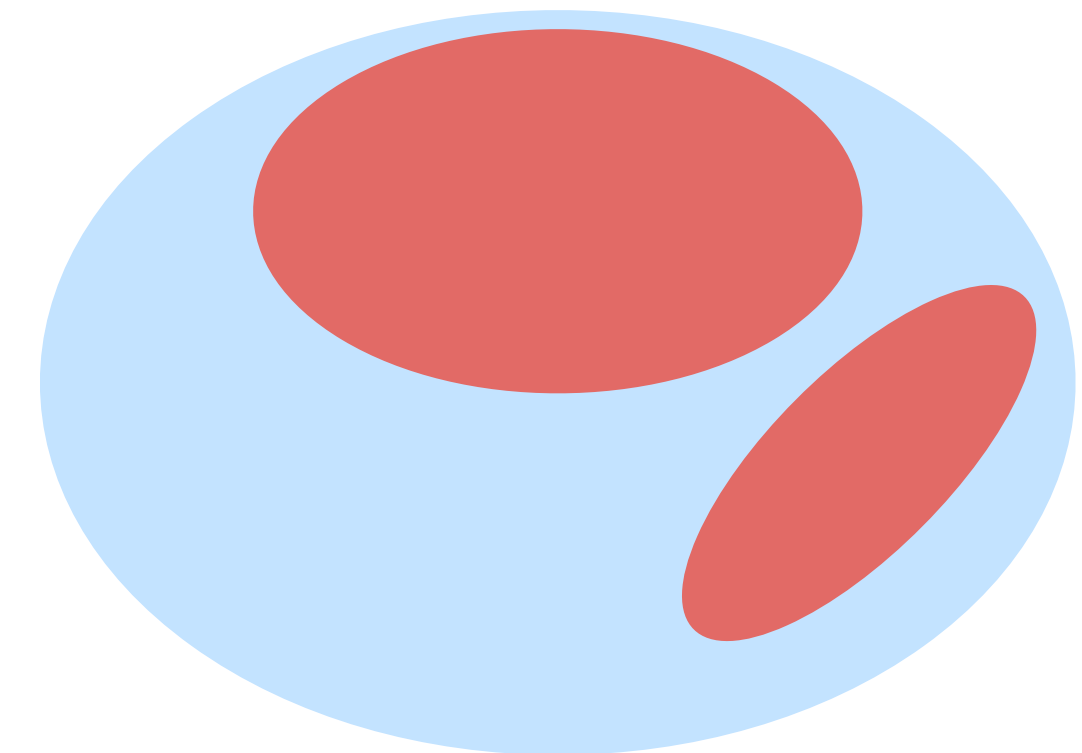
letters to nature

Nature **215**, 1155 - 1156 (09 September 1967); doi:10.1038/2151155a0

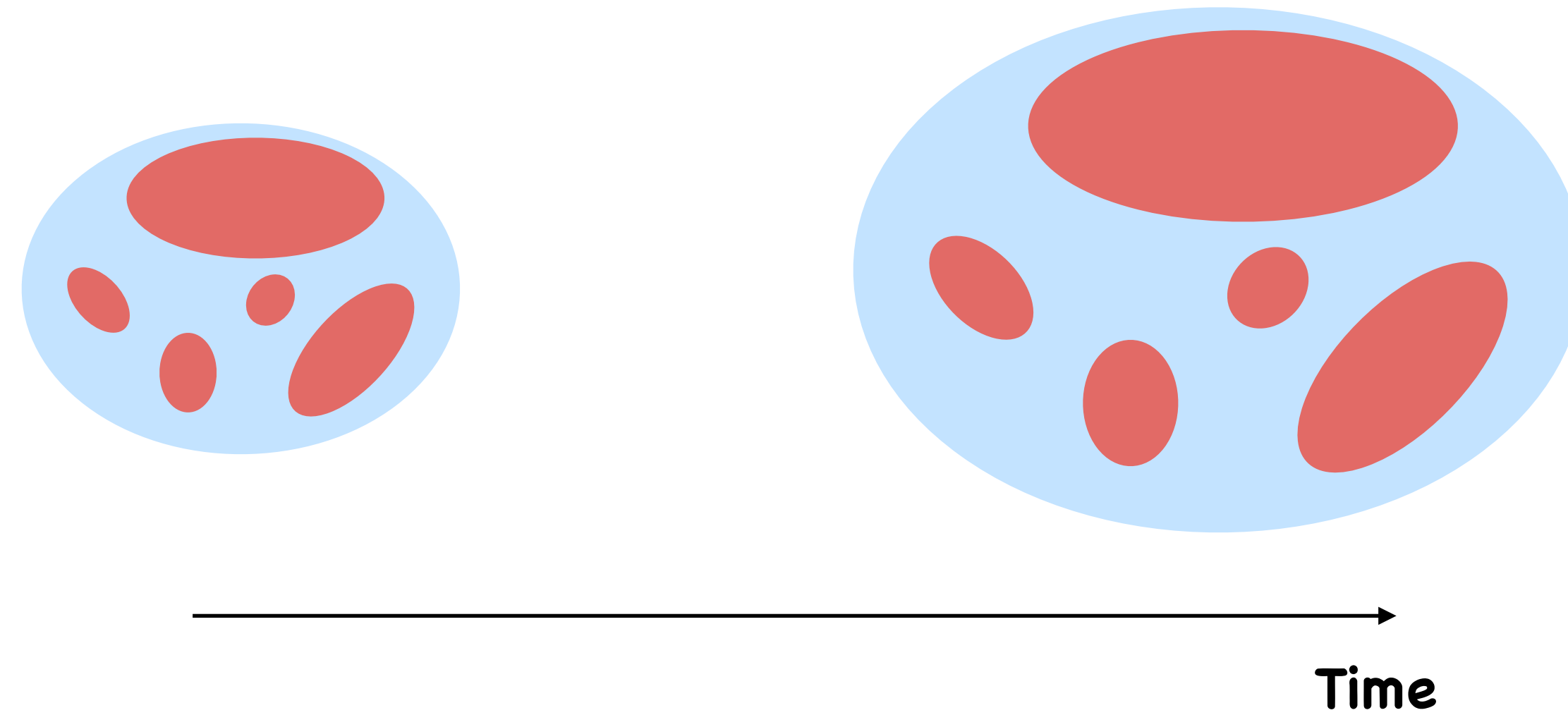
Fluctuations in the Primordial Fireball

JOSEPH SILK

ONE of the overwhelming difficulties of realistic cosmological models is the inadequacy of Einstein's gravitational theory to explain the process of galaxy formation¹⁻⁶. A means of evading this problem has been to postulate an initial spectrum of primordial fluctuations⁷. The interpretation of the recently discovered 3° K microwave background as being of cosmological origin^{8,9} implies that fluctuations may not condense out of the expanding universe until an epoch when matter and radiation have decoupled⁴, at a temperature T_D of the order of 4,000° K. The question may then be posed: would fluctuations in the primordial fireball survive to an epoch when galaxy formation is possible ?



Part III. CMB & structure formation



$$\phi = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2}$$

$$E_0 = \hbar\nu_0 = \frac{E_1}{1+z}$$

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + \underbrace{R^2}_{\text{circled}} [d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi)d\Omega^2]$$

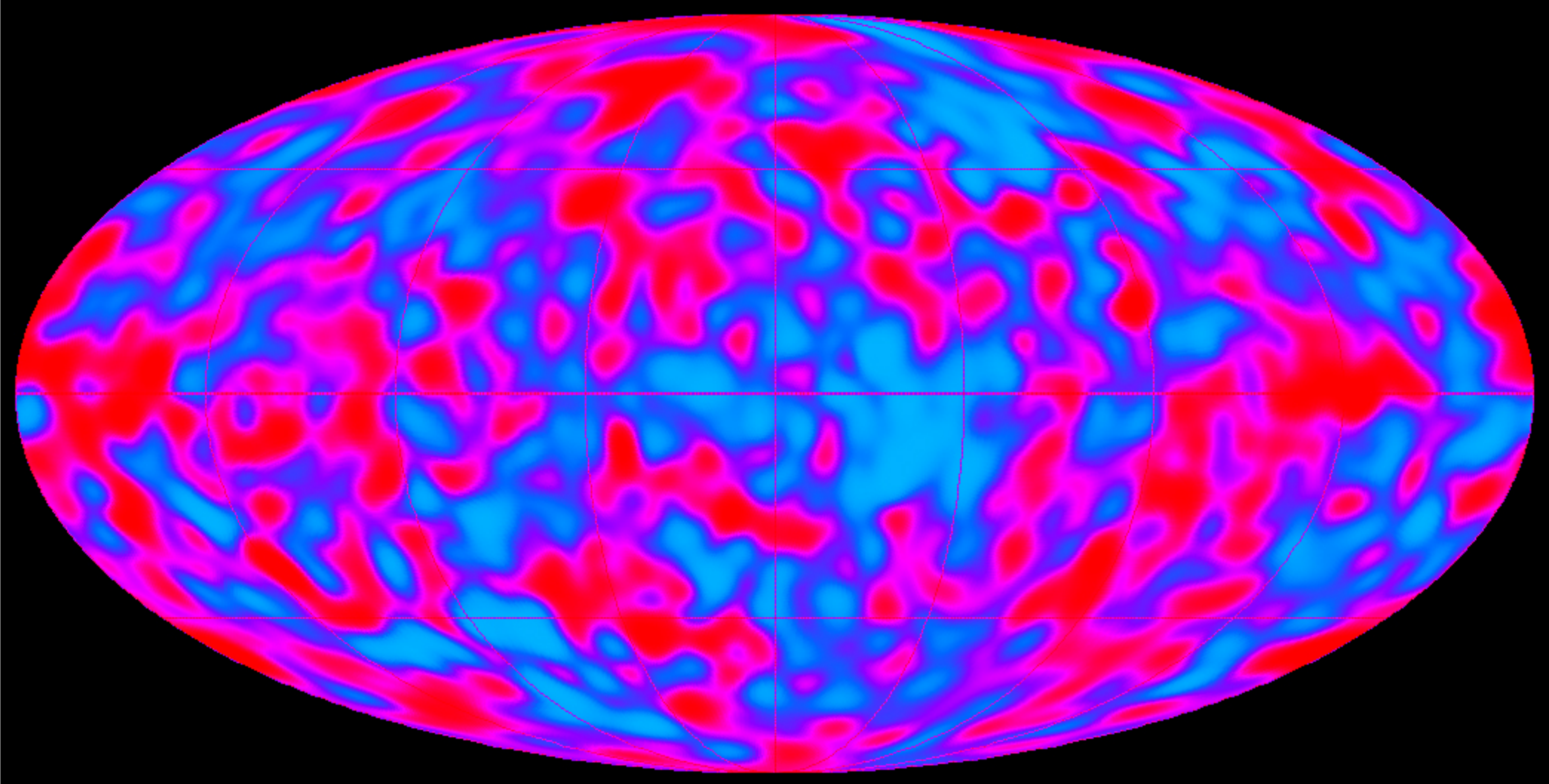
$$\phi = \frac{L}{4\pi a^2 f_k(\chi)^2 (1+z)^2}$$

$$d_L(\chi) = R S_k(\chi)(1+z)$$

$$d_A(\chi) = \frac{d_L(\chi)}{(1+z)^2}$$

Part III. CMB & structure formation

$$\bar{T} = 2.7K \quad \frac{\delta T}{T} \simeq 10^{-5}$$

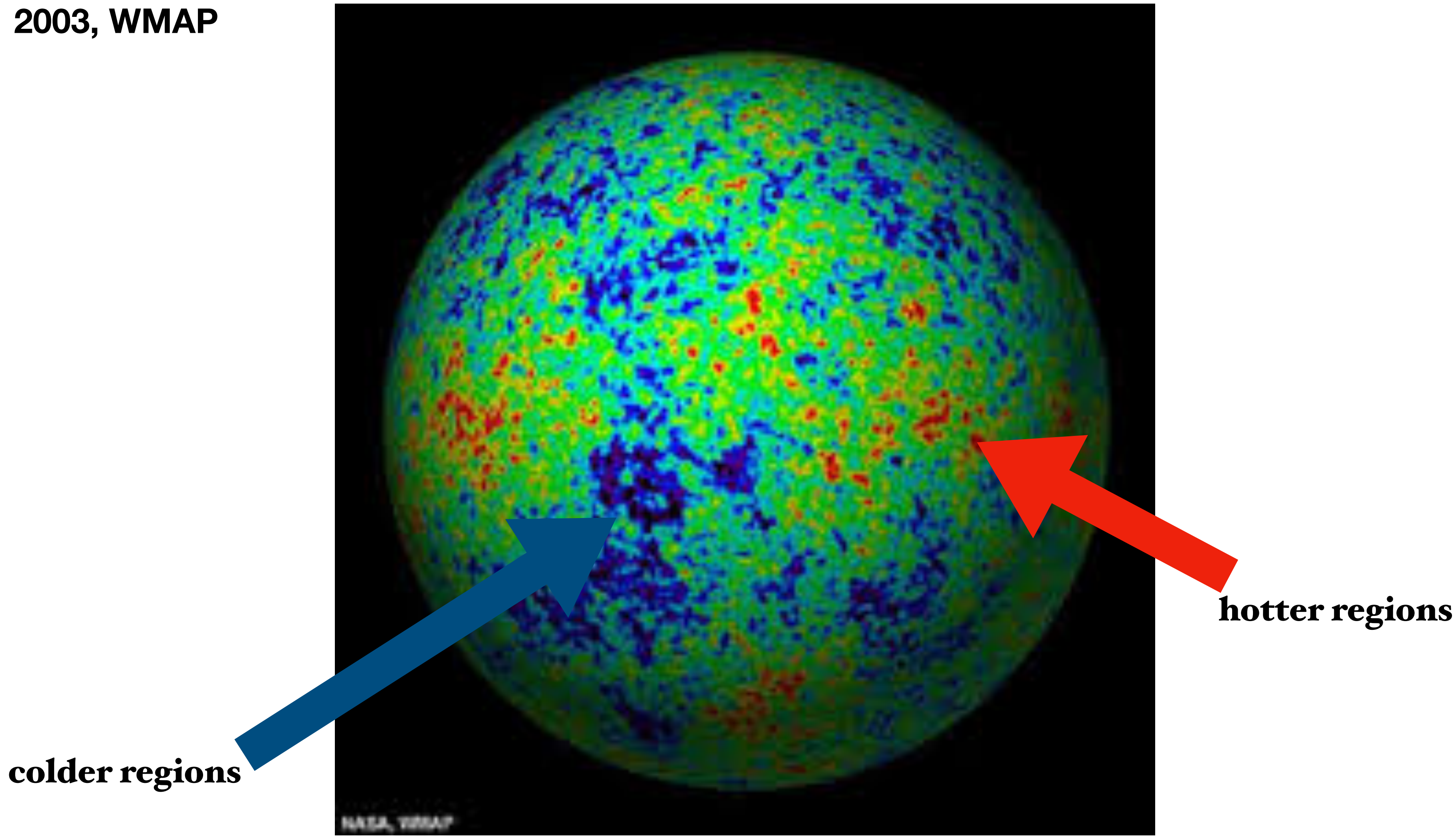


Credit: COBE (1992)

Part III. CMB & structure formation

$$\bar{T} = 2.7K$$

2003, WMAP



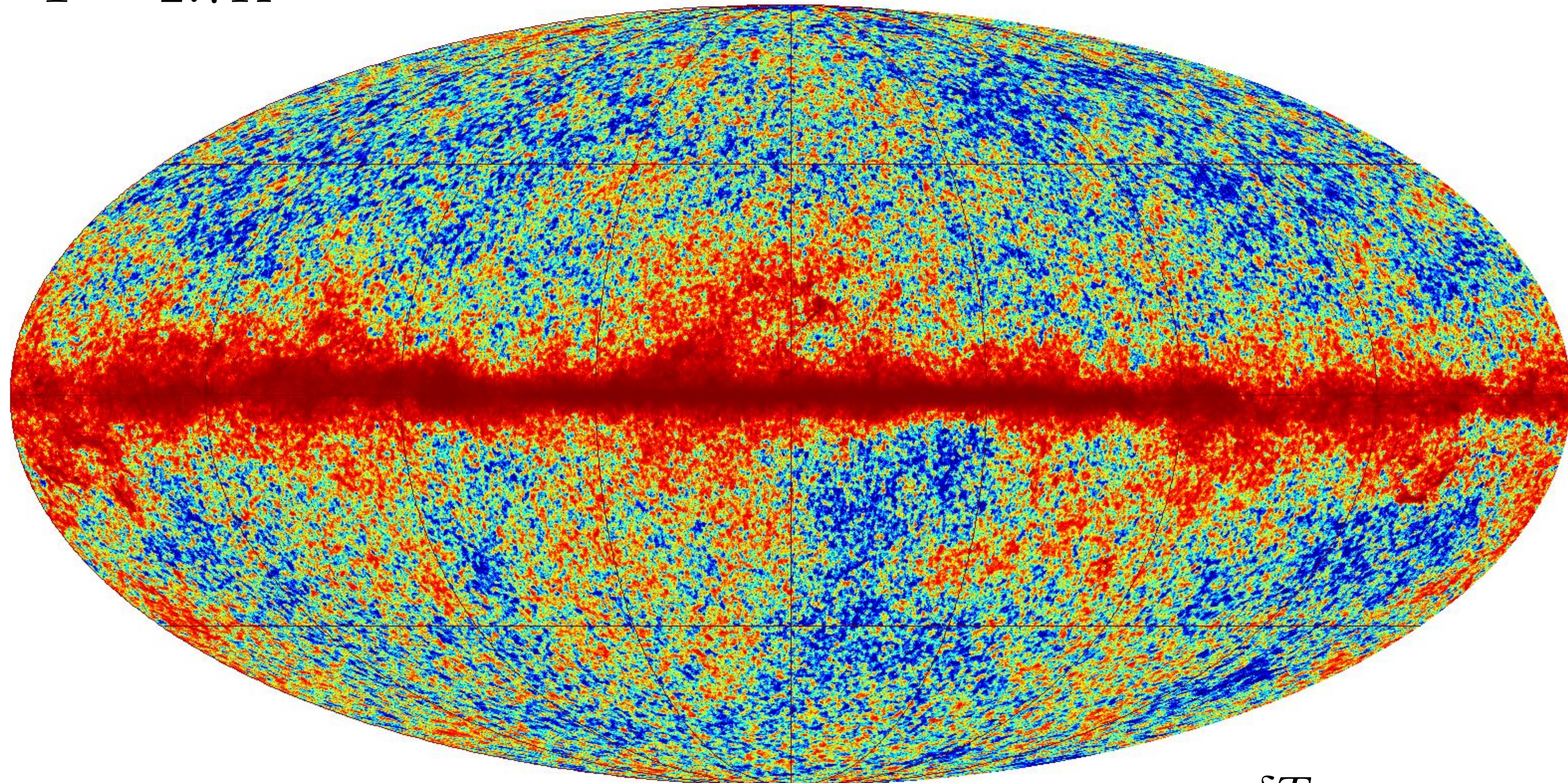
$$\frac{\delta T}{T} \simeq 10^{-5}$$

Part III. CMB & structure formation

HFLSkyMap_143_2048_R1.10_nominal I-STOKES

$$\bar{T} = 2.7K$$

2048 NESTED GALACTIC



-0.00051 | 0.14 K_CMB

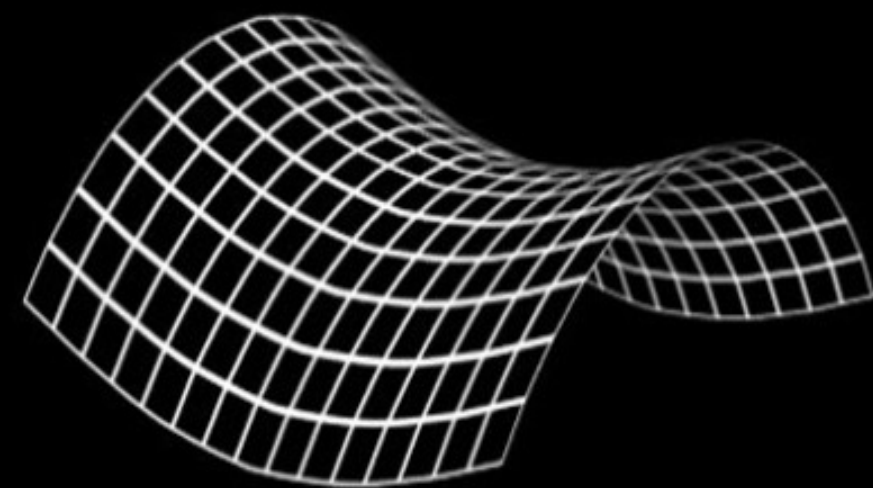
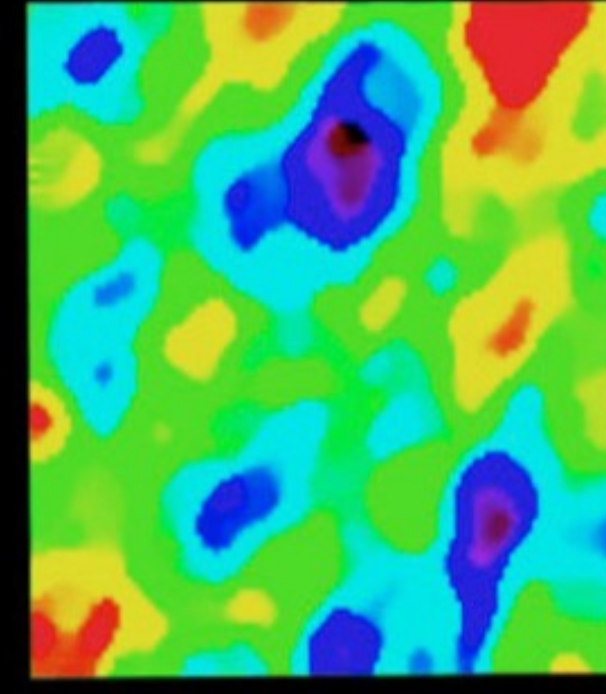
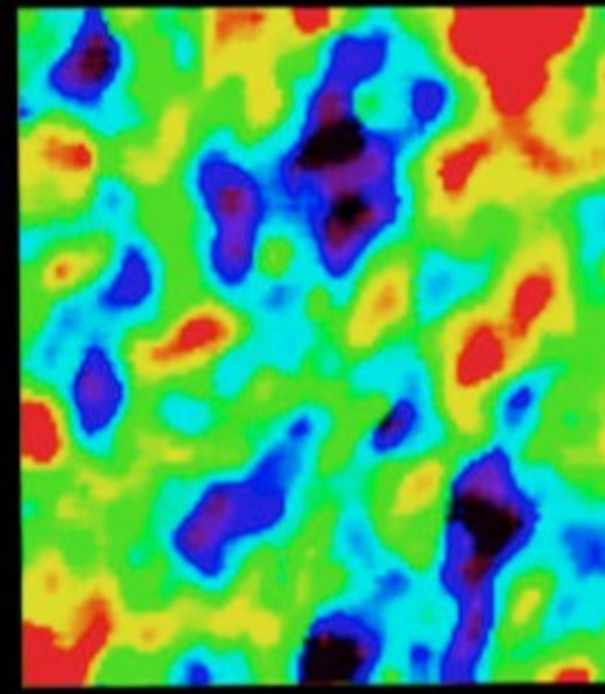
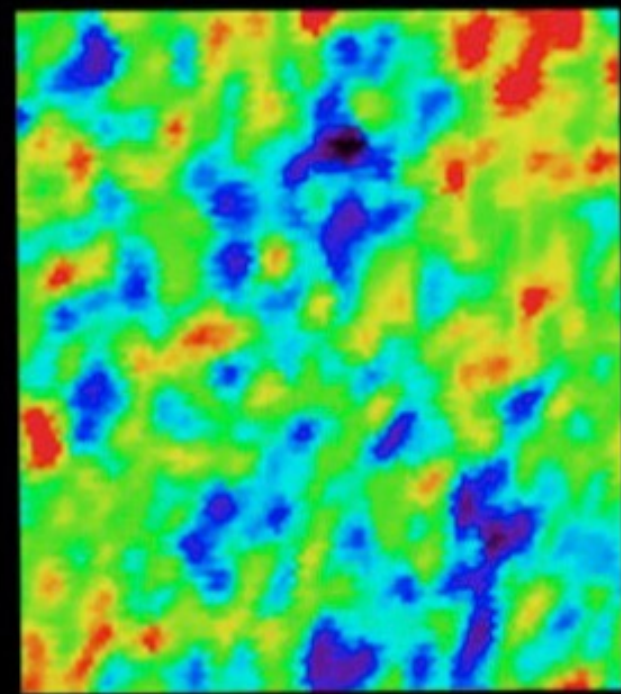
$$\frac{\delta T}{T} \simeq 10^{-5}$$

Planck 2018

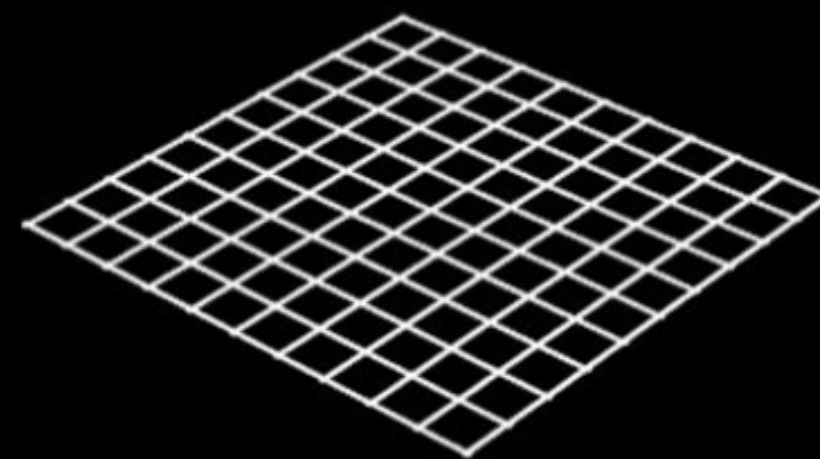
Part III. CMB & structure formation

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - R(t)^2 (d\chi^2 + f_k(\chi) d\Omega^2)$$

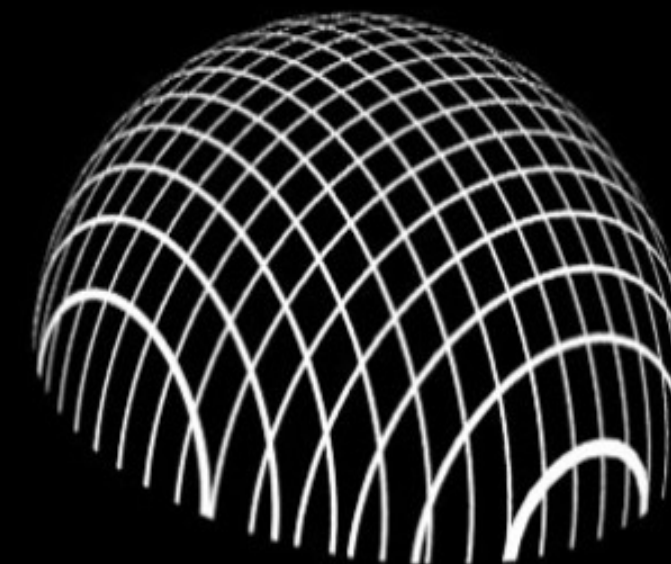
GEOMETRY OF THE UNIVERSE



OPEN



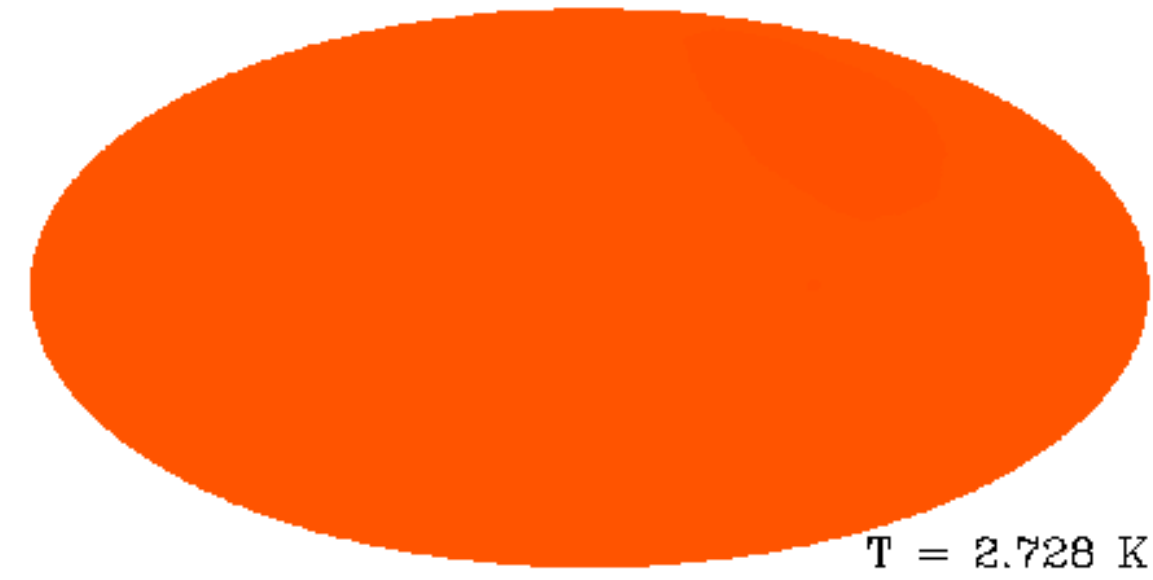
FLAT



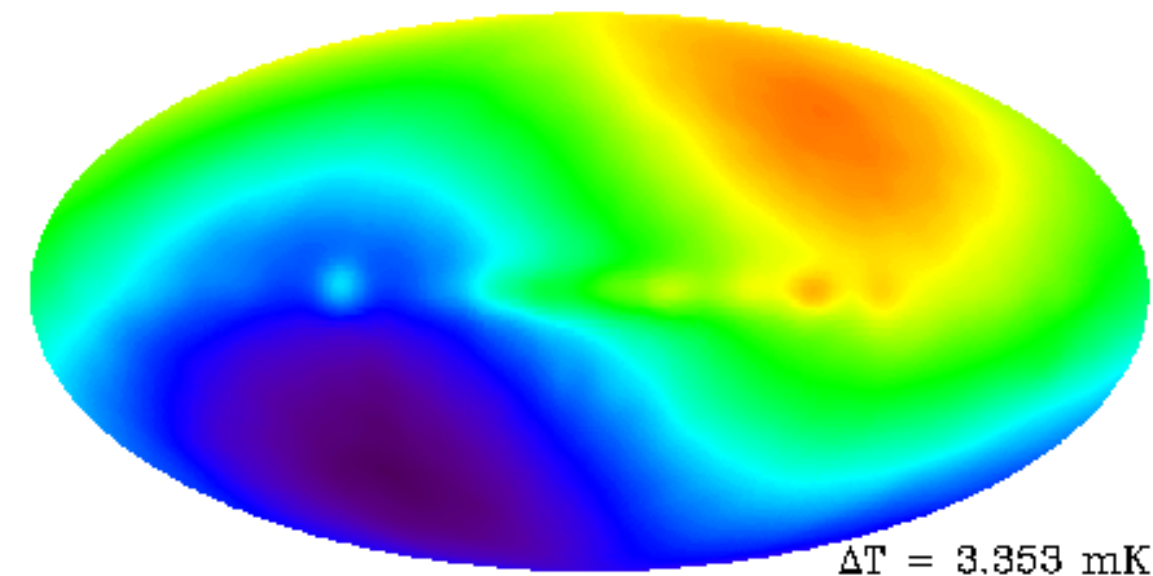
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Part III. CMB & structure formation

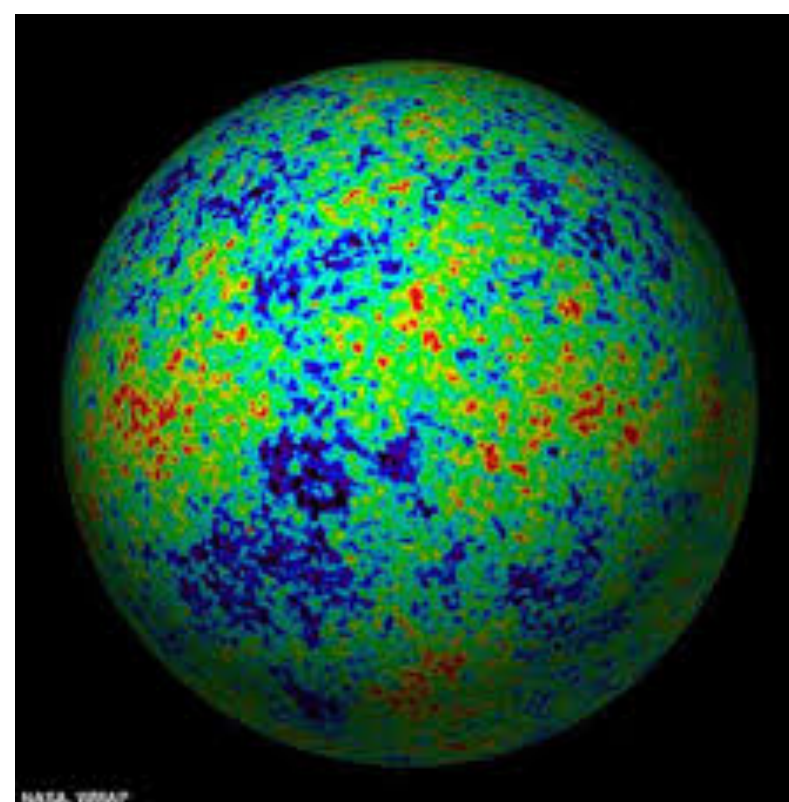
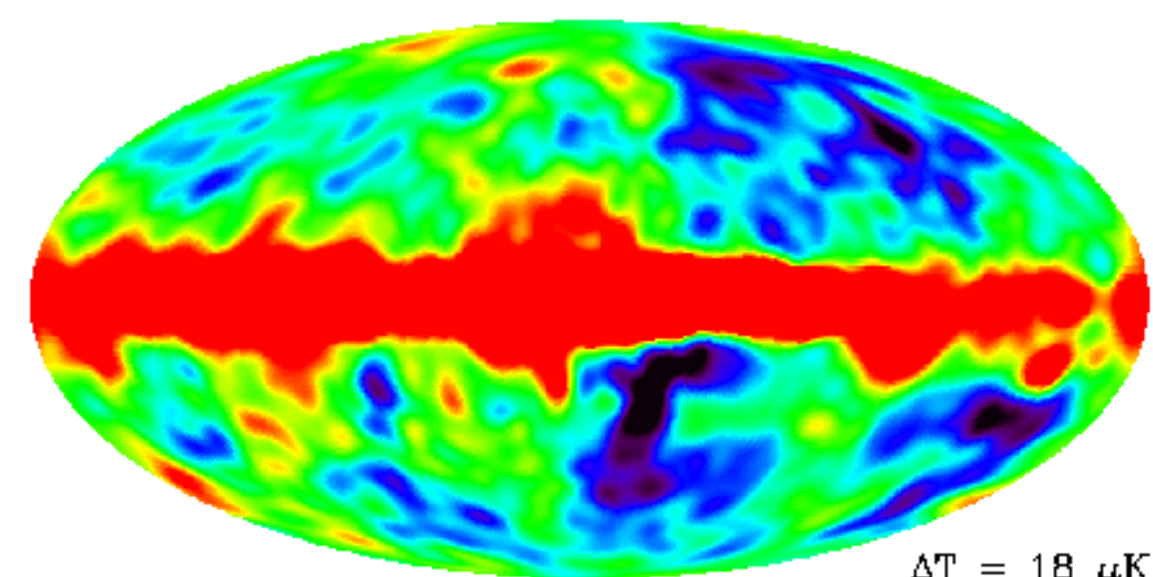
$$Y_0^0 = cst$$



$$Y_1^0 = \cos \theta$$



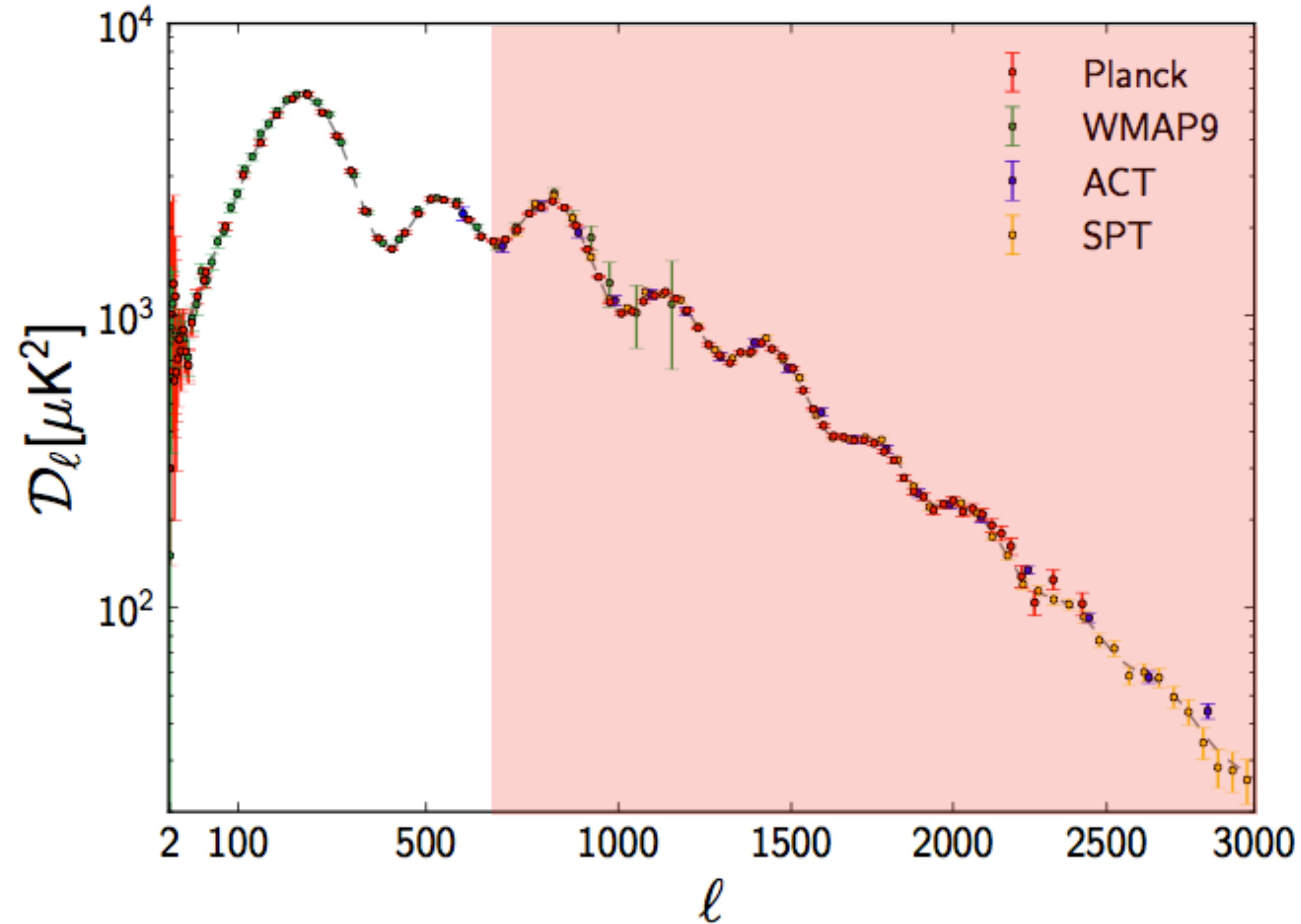
$$Y_l^m$$



The higher l , the smaller the structures

$l > 2000$

Part III. CMB & structure formation



To describe the temperature variations, we can define a temperature field as a function of direction

$$T(\vec{n}) = \bar{T} (1 + \Theta(\vec{n}))$$

where \bar{T} stands for the average temperature. From this definition, we obtain that

$$\Theta(\vec{n}) = \frac{T(\vec{n}) - \bar{T}}{\bar{T}} \equiv \frac{\Delta T}{\bar{T}}$$

which can be decomposed using Fourier as

$$\Theta(\vec{x}) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k}\vec{x}} \Theta(\vec{k})$$

Hence at last scattering, and in the direction \vec{n} , the contrast of temperature can be expressed as

$$\Theta(D_{a^*} \vec{n}) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{n}D_{a^*}} \Theta(\vec{k})$$

So for each direction of the last scattering surface, we can define $\Theta(D_{a^*} \vec{n})$. Since the last scattering surface is the surface of a sphere of radius l_* , we can use spherical harmonics to describe the angular variations of the temperature field.

Spherical harmonics are the basis functions of the decomposition over the sphere so any function f defined on the sphere can be decomposed as

$$f(\vec{w}) = \sum_l \sum_m y_{lm} f_{lm}$$

with

$$f_{lm} = \int y_{lm} f(\vec{w}) d\vec{w}$$

After some maths...

$$\Theta_{lm} = \sum_{p=-\infty}^{\infty} i^p \int d\vec{n} y_{lm} \left[\int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} j_p(kD_{a^*}) Y_{lm}(k)^* \Theta(\vec{k}) \right] Y_{lm}(\vec{n})$$

Part III. CMB

Extracting the Hubble rate

From David Tong's lectures

Extracting H_0

Finally, we can use this machinery to determine the Hubble constant H_0 . We first Taylor expand the scale factor $a(t)$ about the present day. Setting $a_0 = 1$, we have

$$a(t) = 1 + H_0(t - t_0) - \frac{1}{2}q_0H_0^2(t - t_0)^2 + \dots \quad (1.29)$$

Here we've introduced the second order term, with dimensionless parameter q_0 . This is known as the *deceleration parameter*, and should be thought of as the present day value of the function

$$q(t) = -\frac{\ddot{a}a}{\dot{a}^2} = -\frac{\ddot{a}}{aH^2}$$

The name is rather unfortunate because, as we will learn in Section 1.4, the expansion of our universe is actually accelerating, with $\ddot{a} > 0$! In our universe, the deceleration parameter is negative: $q_0 \approx -0.5$.

First, we integrate the path of a light-ray (1.18) to get an expression for the co-moving distance χ in terms of the "look-back time" ($t_0 - t_1$)

$$\begin{aligned} R\chi &= c \int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = c \int_{t_1}^{t_0} \left[1 - H_0(t_0 - t) + \dots \right] dt \\ &= c(t - t_0) \left[1 + \frac{1}{2}H_0(t - t_0) + \dots \right] \end{aligned} \quad (1.30)$$

Next, we get an expression for the look-back time $t_0 - t_1$ in terms of the redshift z . From (1.21), light emitted at some time t_1 suffers a redshift $1 + z = 1/a(t)$. Inverting the Taylor expansion (1.29), we have

$$z = \frac{1}{a(t_1)} - 1 \approx H_0(t_0 - t_1) + \frac{1}{2}(2 + q_0)H_0^2(t_0 - t_1)^2 + \dots$$

We now invert this to give the "look-back time" $t_0 - t_1$ as a Taylor expansion in the redshift z . (As an aside: you could do the inversion by solving the quadratic formula, and subsequently Taylor expanding the square-root. But when inverting a power series, it's more straightforward to write an ansatz $H_0(t_0 - t_1) = A_1z + A_2z^2 + \dots$, which we substitute this into the right-hand side and match terms.) We find

$$H_0(t_0 - t_1) = z - \frac{1}{2}(2 + q_0)z^2 + \dots \quad (1.31)$$

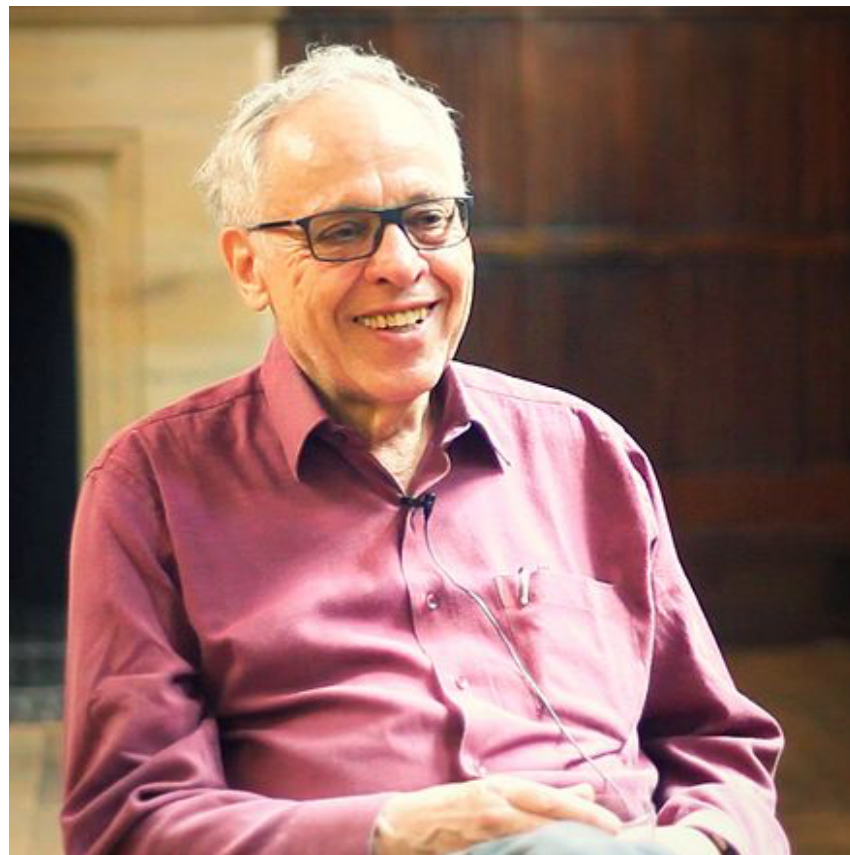
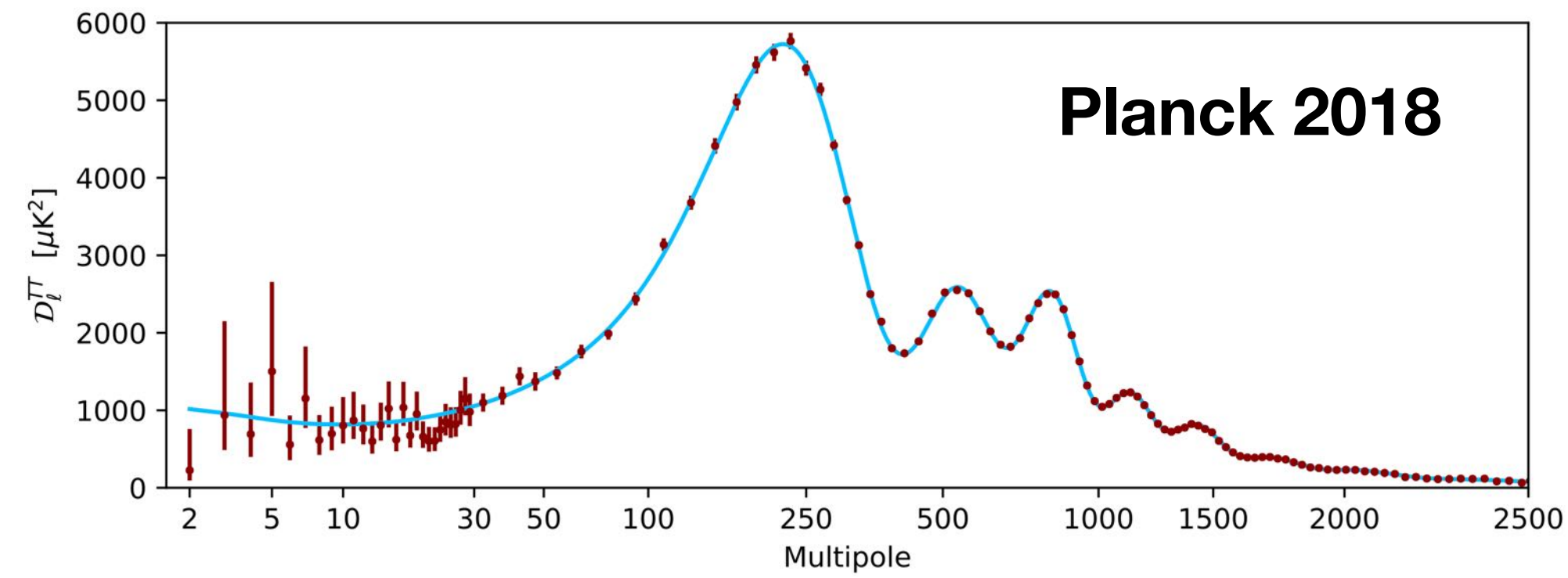
Combining (1.30) and (1.31) gives

$$\frac{H_0R\chi}{c} = z - \frac{1}{2}(1 + q_0)z^2 + \dots$$

We can now substitute this into our expression for the luminosity distance (1.28). Life is easiest in flat space, where $RS_k(\chi) = R\chi$ and we find

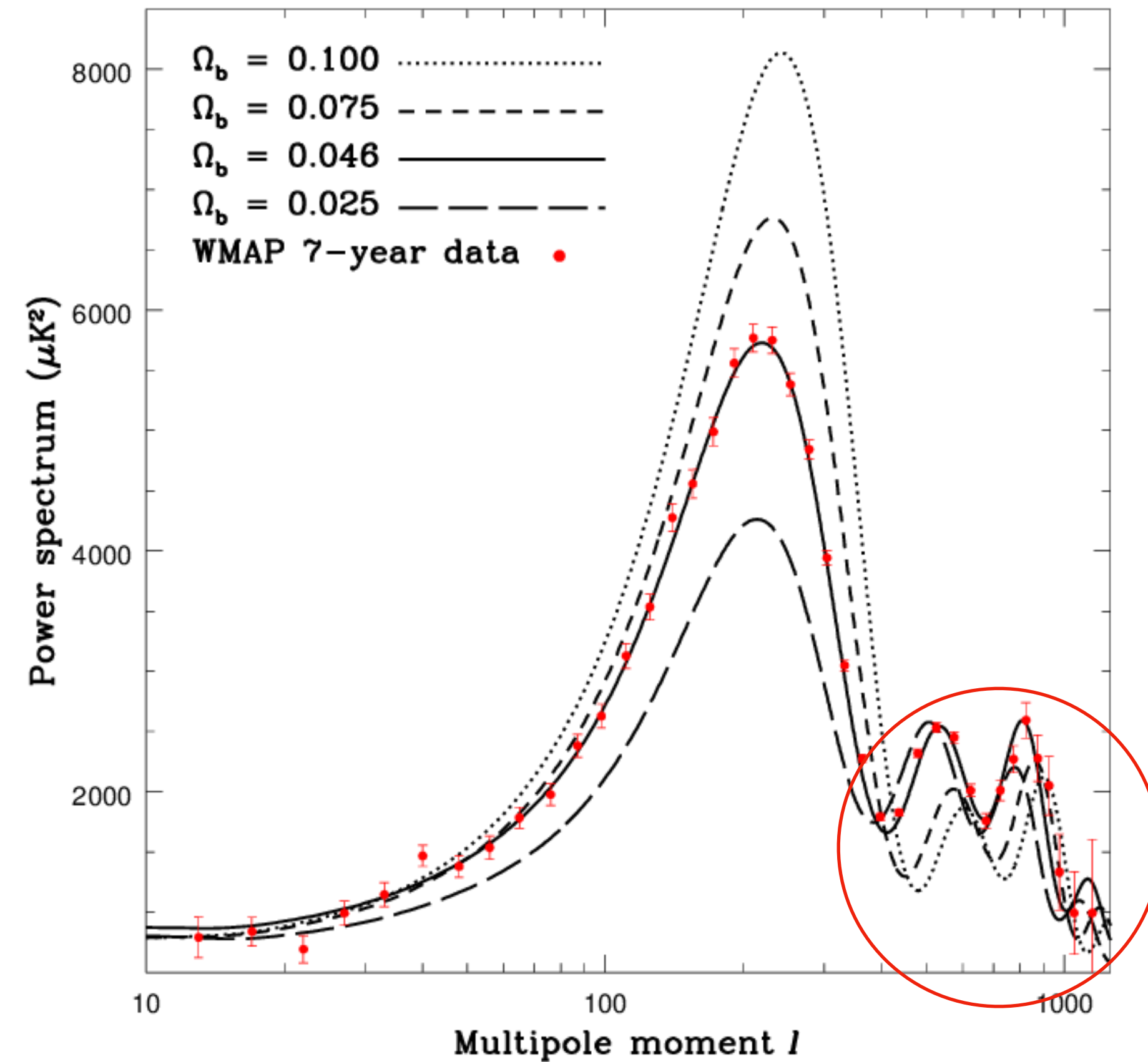
$$d_L = \frac{c}{H_0} \left(z + \frac{1}{2}(1 - q_0)z^2 + \dots \right)$$

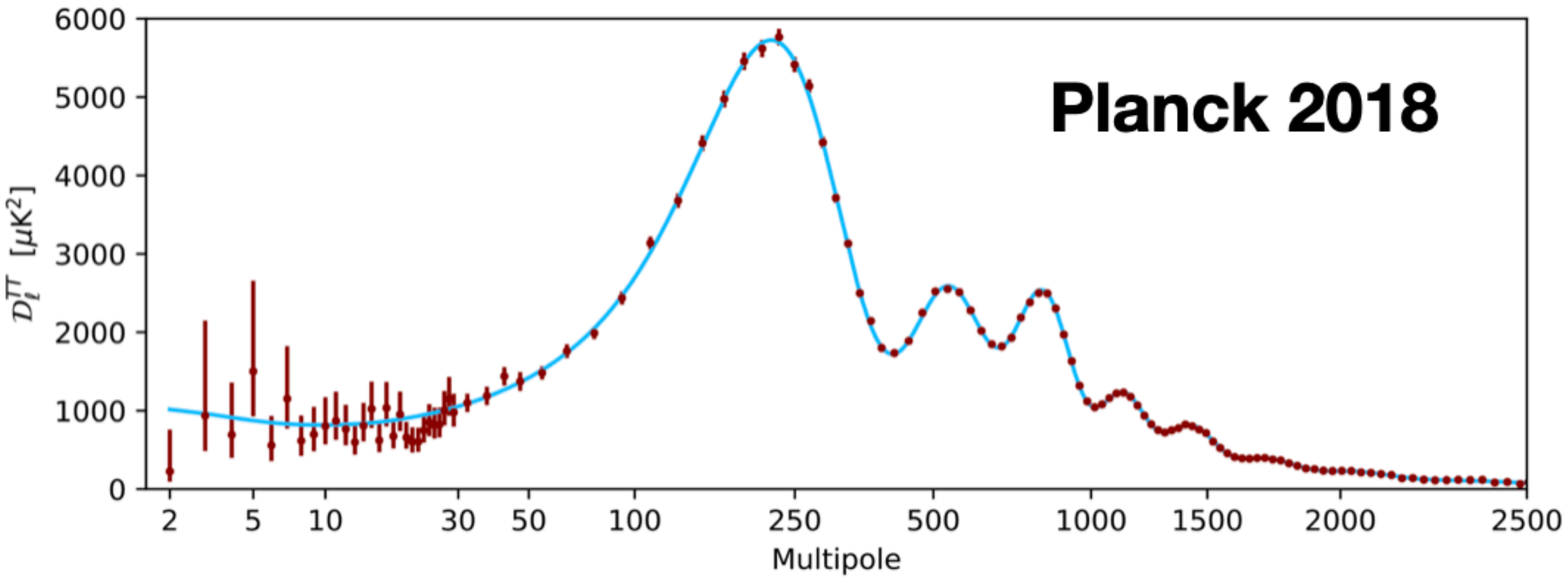
This expression is valid only for $z \ll 1$. By plotting the observed d_L vs z , and fitting to this functional form, we can extract H_0 and q_0 .



Too many baryons lead to a deficit of small structures:
Silk damping (more later)

Follow the dotted line vs hard line!





Parameter	Plik best fit
$\Omega_b h^2$	0.022383
$\Omega_c h^2$	0.12011
$100\theta_{\text{MC}}$	1.040909
τ	0.0543
$\ln(10^{10} A_s)$	3.0448
n_s	0.96605
$\Omega_m h^2$	0.14314
H_0 [km s ⁻¹ Mpc ⁻¹] . . .	67.32
Ω_m	0.3158
Age [Gyr]	13.7971
σ_8	0.8120
$S_8 \equiv \sigma_8 (\Omega_m / 0.3)^{0.5}$. .	0.8331
z_{re}	7.68
$100\theta_*$	1.041085
r_{drag} [Mpc]	147.049

Part III. CMB & structure formation

$$\delta(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{\delta\rho(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\bar{\rho}(t)}$$

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - c_s^2 \left(\frac{1}{a^2} \nabla^2 + k_J^2 \right) \delta = 0$$

$$\delta(\mathbf{k}, t) = \int d^3x e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} \delta(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

$$\ddot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}, t) + 2H\dot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}, t) + c_s^2 \left(\frac{k^2}{a^2} - k_J^2 \right) \delta(\mathbf{k}, t) = 0$$

$$\lambda_J = c_s \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{Gm\bar{n}}} = c_s c \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{G\bar{\rho}}}$$

$$d_H \approx cH^{-1} = c^2 \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi G\bar{\rho}}}$$

Matter perturbations in matter dominated

$$\ddot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}) + 2H\dot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}) - \frac{4\pi G\bar{\rho}}{c^2} \delta(\mathbf{k}) = 0$$

$$\ddot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}) + \frac{4}{3t}\dot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}) - \frac{2}{3t^2}\delta(\mathbf{k}) = 0$$

$$\delta(\mathbf{k}, t) \sim \begin{cases} t^{2/3} \sim a \\ t^{-1} \sim a^{-3/2} \end{cases}$$

Radiation perturbations in radiation dominated

$$\ddot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}) + 2H\dot{\delta}(\mathbf{k}) + c_s^2(1+w) \left(\frac{k^2}{a^2} - (1+3w)k_J^2 \right) \delta(\mathbf{k}) = 0$$

$$\ddot{\delta}_r(\mathbf{k}) + \frac{1}{t}\dot{\delta}_r(\mathbf{k}) - \frac{1}{t^2}\delta_r(\mathbf{k}) = 0$$

$$\delta_r(\mathbf{k}, t) \sim \begin{cases} t \sim a^2 \\ t^{-1} \sim a^{-2} \end{cases}$$

Part III. CMB & structure formation

$$\delta(\mathbf{k}, t) = \int d^3x e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} \delta(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \delta(\mathbf{k}, t) \delta(\mathbf{k}', t) \rangle &= \int d^3x d^3y e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x} + i\mathbf{k}'\cdot\mathbf{y}} \langle \delta(\mathbf{x}, t) \delta(\mathbf{y}, t) \rangle \\ &= \int d^3x d^3y e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x} + i\mathbf{k}'\cdot\mathbf{y}} \xi(r, t) \\ &= \int d^3r d^3y e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r} + i(\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{k}')\cdot\mathbf{y}} \xi(r, t) \\ &= (2\pi)^3 \delta_D^3(\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{k}') \int d^3r e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}} \xi(r, t) \end{aligned}$$

$$P(k, t) = \int d^3r e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}} \xi(r, t)$$

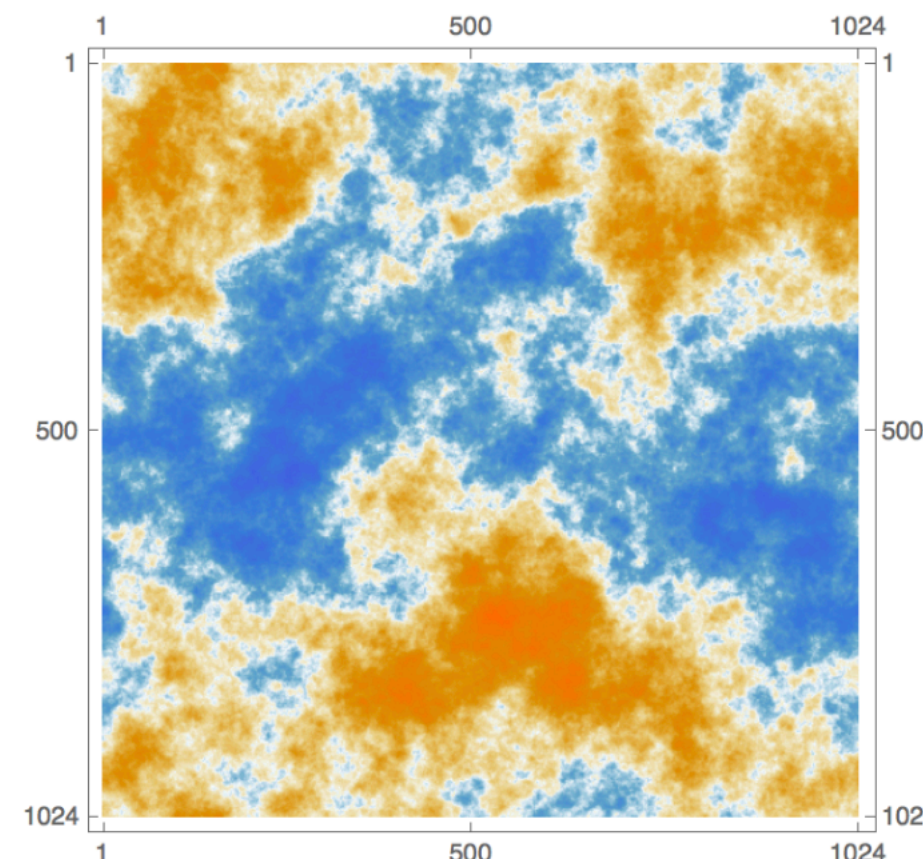
$$\begin{aligned} P(k, t) &= \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_{-1}^{+1} d(\cos\theta) \int_0^\infty dr r^2 e^{ikr \cos\theta} \xi(r, t) \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^\infty \frac{r^2}{ikr} [e^{ikr} - e^{-ikr}] \xi(r, t) \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{k} \int_0^\infty dr r \sin(kr) \xi(r, t) \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle \delta(\mathbf{k}, t_i) \delta(\mathbf{k}', t_i) \rangle = (2\pi)^3 \delta_D^3(\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{k}') P(k)$$

$$P(k) = Ak^n \quad \Delta(k) = \frac{4\pi k^3 P(k)}{(2\pi)^3}$$

Harrison-Zel'dovich Spectrum

$$n = 1$$



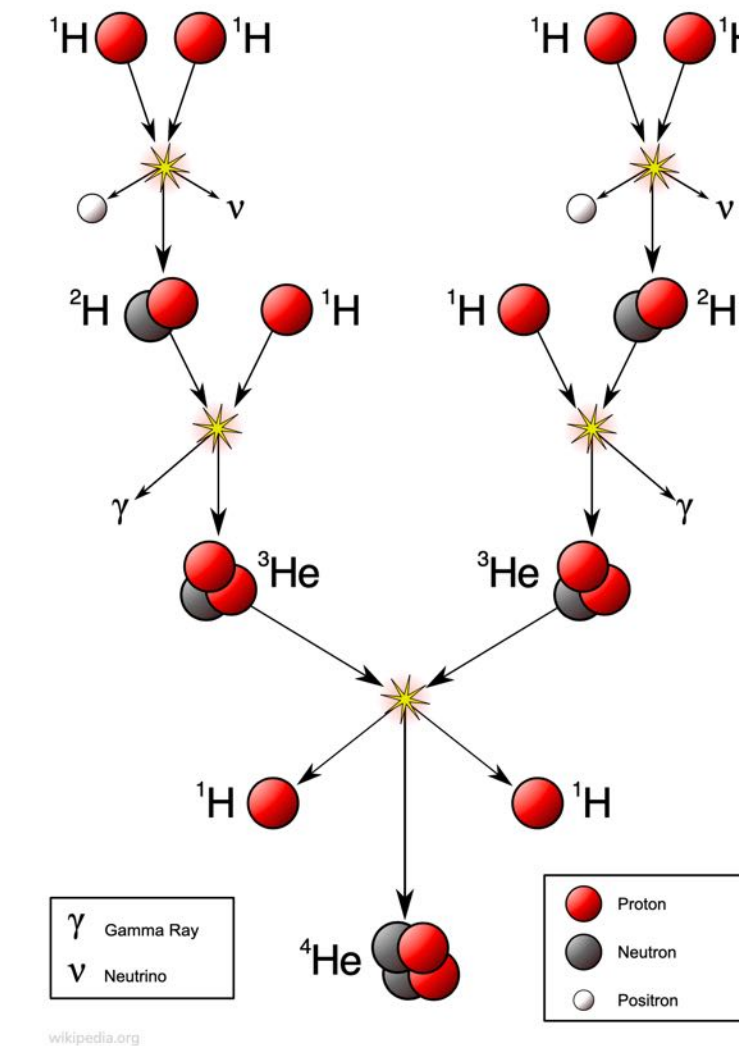
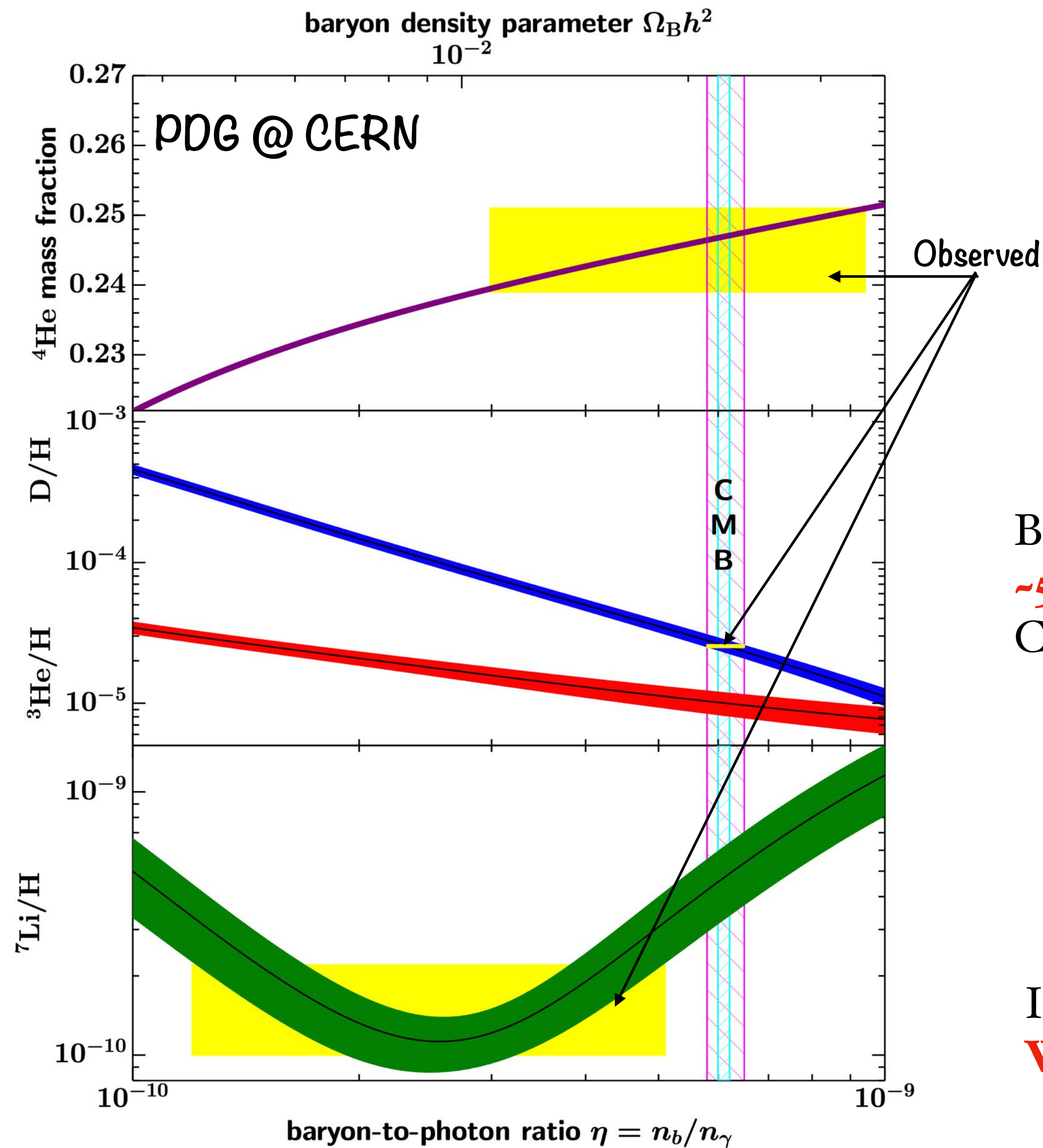
Part III. CMB & structure formation



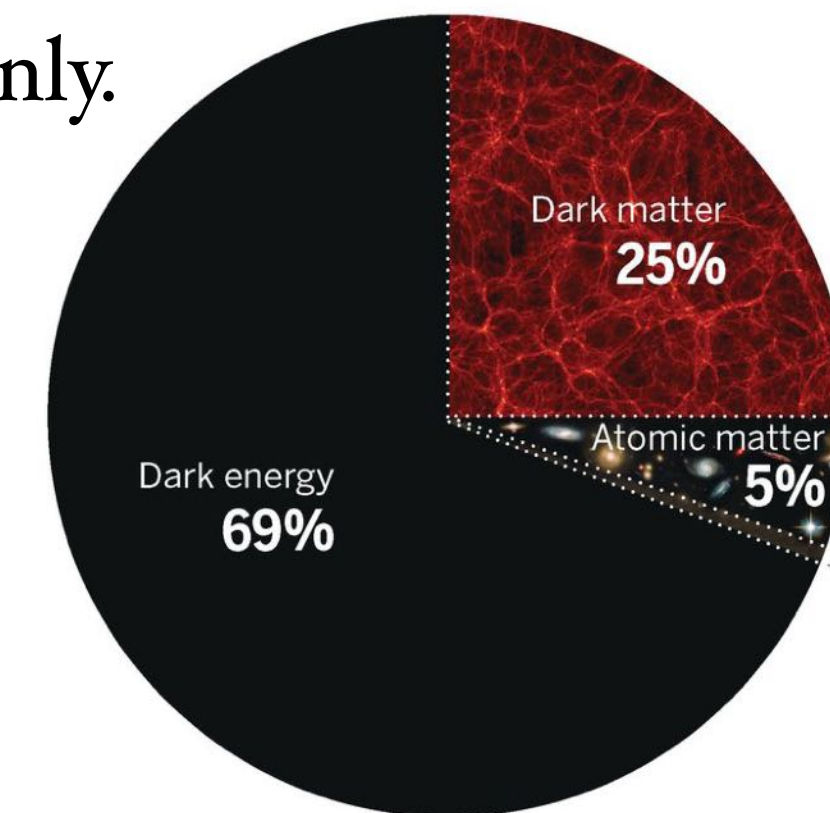
Big Bang (relic photons)

Inflation (flat Universe today)

Nucleosynthesis



Baryons cannot be (all) the dark matter.
~5% max of baryons only.
 Consistent with CMB!





In fact we don't even see this much.
Where are the baryons?

Finding the baryons

Article | Published: 27 May 2020

A census of baryons in the Universe from localized fast radio bursts

J.-P. Macquart , J. X. Prochaska , M. McQuinn, K. W. Bannister, S. Bhandari, C. K. Day, A. T. Deller, R. D. Ekers, C. W. James, L. Marnoch, S. Osłowski, C. Phillips, S. D. Ryder, D. R. Scott, R. M. Shannon & N. Tejos

Nature **581**, 391–395 (2020) | [Cite this article](#)

7521 Accesses | 81 Citations | 892 Altmetric | [Metrics](#)

Abstract

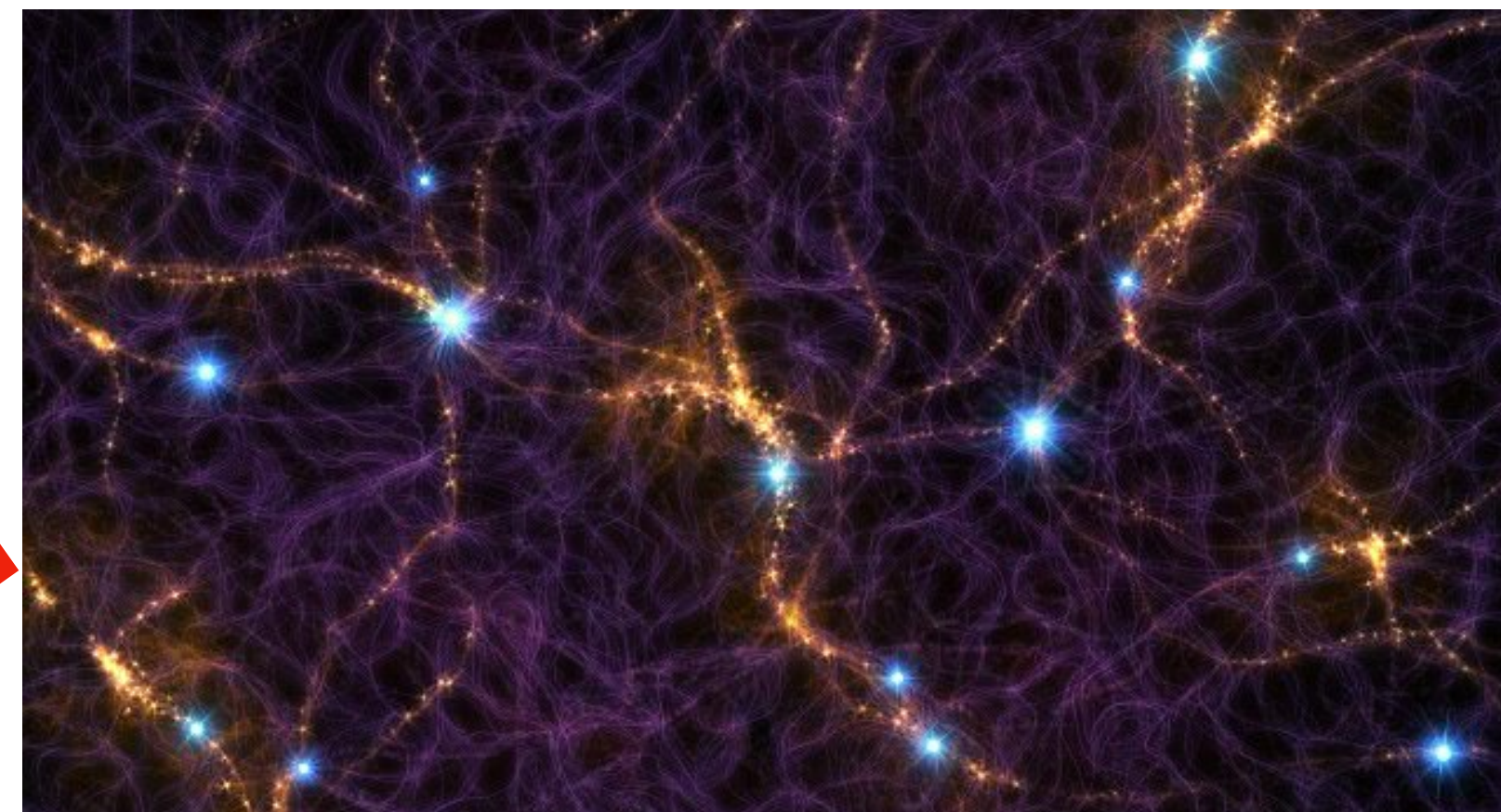
More than three-quarters of the baryonic content of the Universe resides in a highly diffuse state that is difficult to detect, with only a small fraction directly observed in galaxies and galaxy clusters^{1,2}. Censuses of the nearby Universe have used absorption line spectroscopy^{3,4} to observe the ‘invisible’ baryons, but these measurements rely on large and uncertain corrections and are insensitive to most of the Universe’s volume and probably most of its mass. In particular, quasar spectroscopy is sensitive either to the very small amounts of hydrogen that exist in the atomic state, or to highly ionized and enriched gas^{4,5,6} in denser regions near galaxies⁷. Other techniques to observe these invisible baryons also have limitations; Sunyaev–Zel’dovich analyses^{8,9} can provide evidence from gas within filamentary structures, and studies of X-ray emission are most sensitive to gas near galaxy clusters^{9,10}.

Here we report a measurement of the baryon content of the Universe using the dispersion of a sample of localized fast radio bursts; this technique determines the electron column density along each line of sight and accounts for every ionized baryon^{11,12,13}. We augment the sample of reported arcsecond-localized^{14,15,16,17,18} fast radio bursts with four new localizations in host galaxies that have measured redshifts of 0.291, 0.118, 0.378 and 0.522. This completes a sample sufficiently large to account for dispersion variations along the lines of sight and in the host-galaxy environments¹¹, and we derive a cosmic baryon density of $\Omega_b = 0.051^{+0.021}_{-0.025} h_{70}^{-1}$ (95 per cent confidence; $h_{70} = H_0/(70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1})$ and H_0 is Hubble’s constant). This independent measurement is consistent with values derived from the cosmic microwave background and from Big Bang nucleosynthesis^{19,20}.

In [radio astronomy](#), a **fast radio burst (FRB)** is a transient [radio](#) pulse of length ranging from a fraction of a [millisecond](#) to a few milliseconds, caused by some high-energy astrophysical process not yet understood. (Wikipedia)



Artist's impression The bright blue, point sources shown here are the signals from Fast Radio Bursts (FRBs) that may accumulate in a radio exposure lasting for a few minutes. The radio signal from an FRB lasts for only a few thousandths of a second, but they should occur at high rates

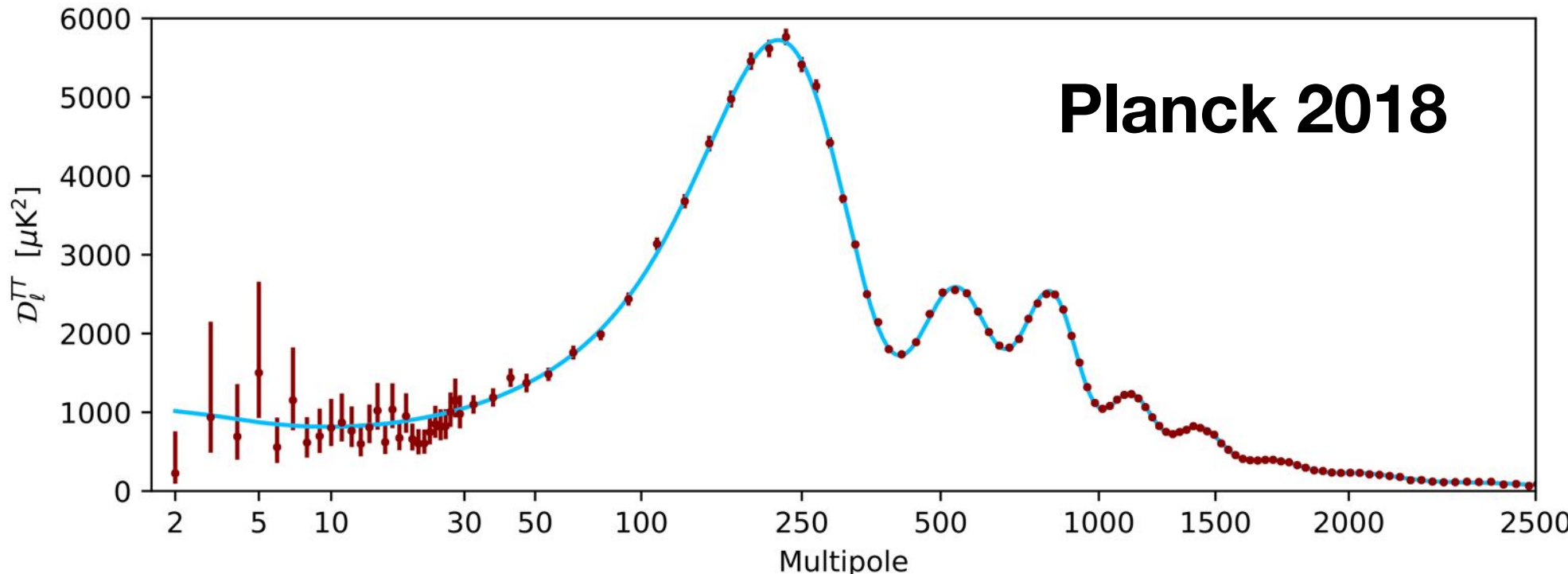


© M. Weiss/CfA

$$\langle DM_{\text{cosmic}} \rangle = \int_0^{z_{\text{FRB}}} \frac{c \bar{n}_e(z) dz}{H_0(1+z)^2 \sqrt{\Omega_m(1+z)^3 + \Omega_\Lambda}}$$

Part IV. Invisible Universe

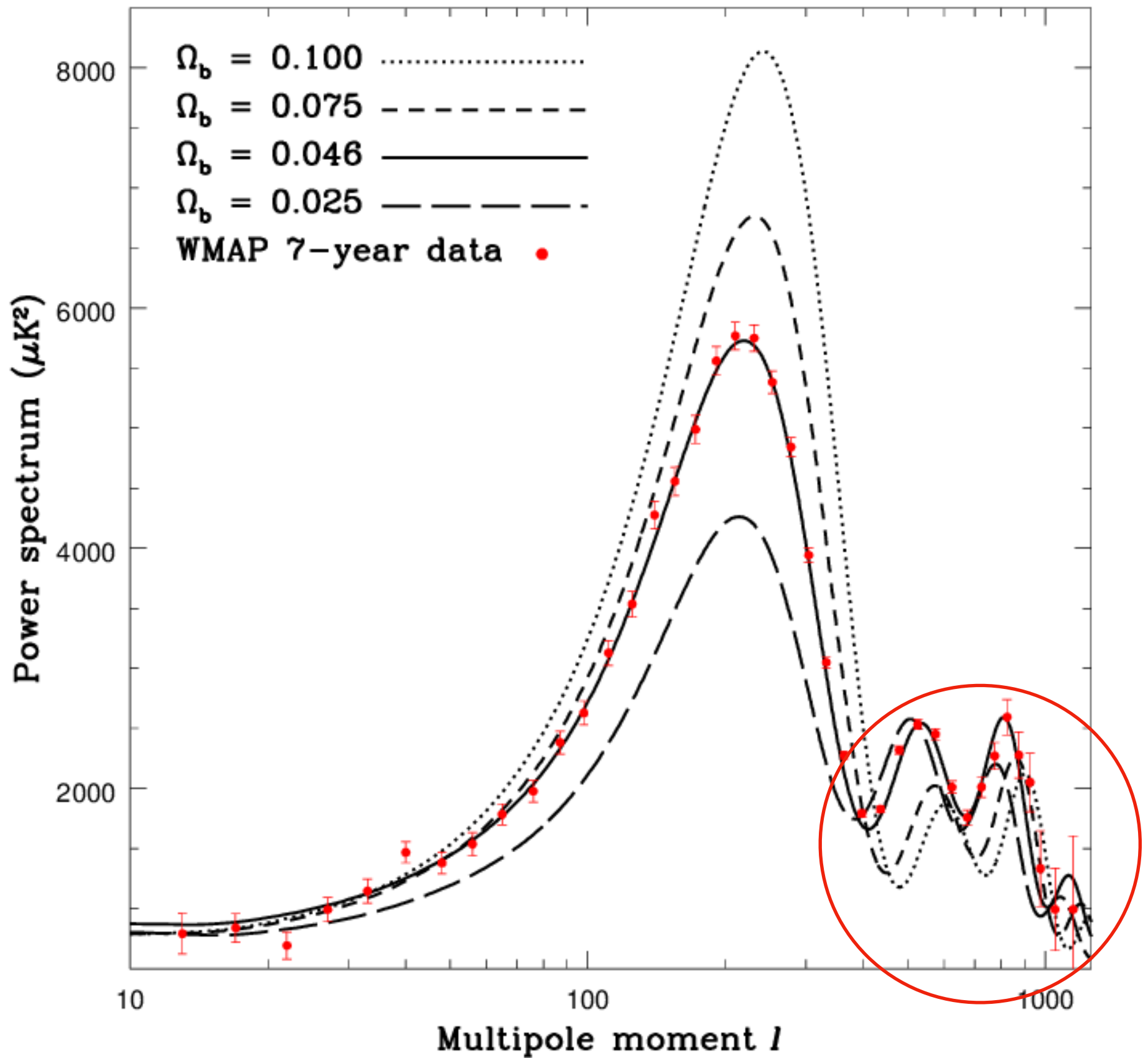
Part IV. Invisible Universe



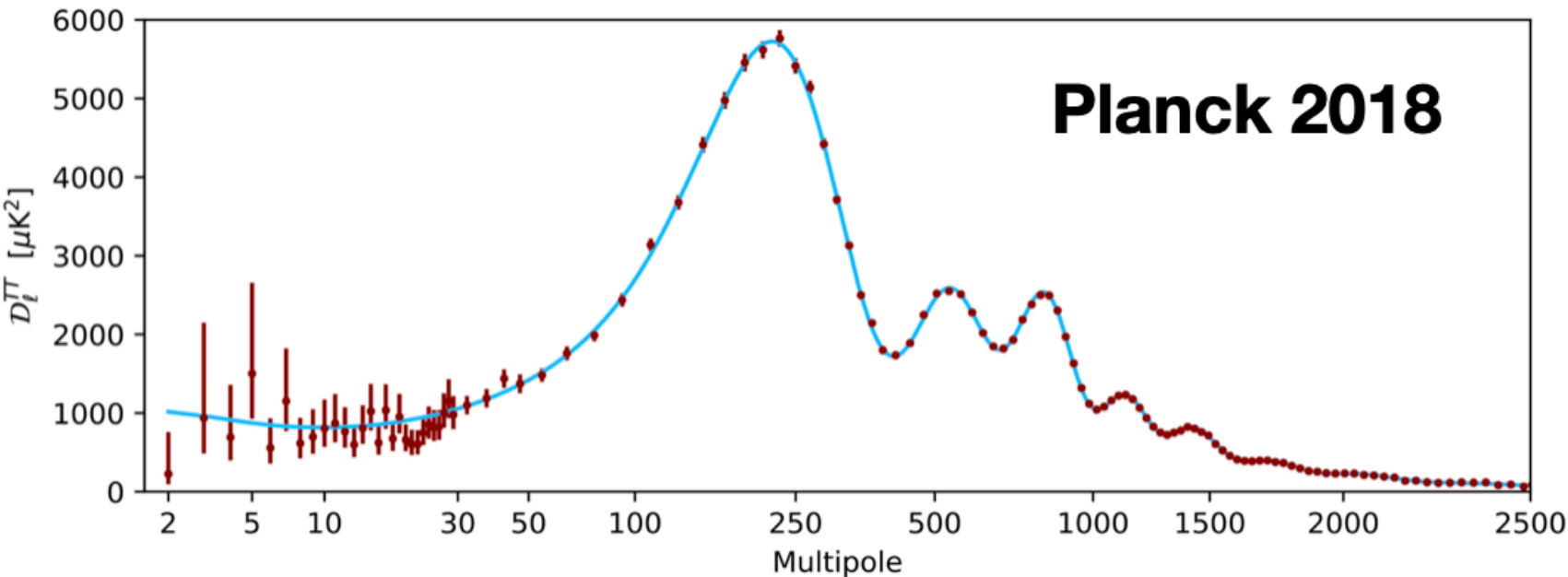
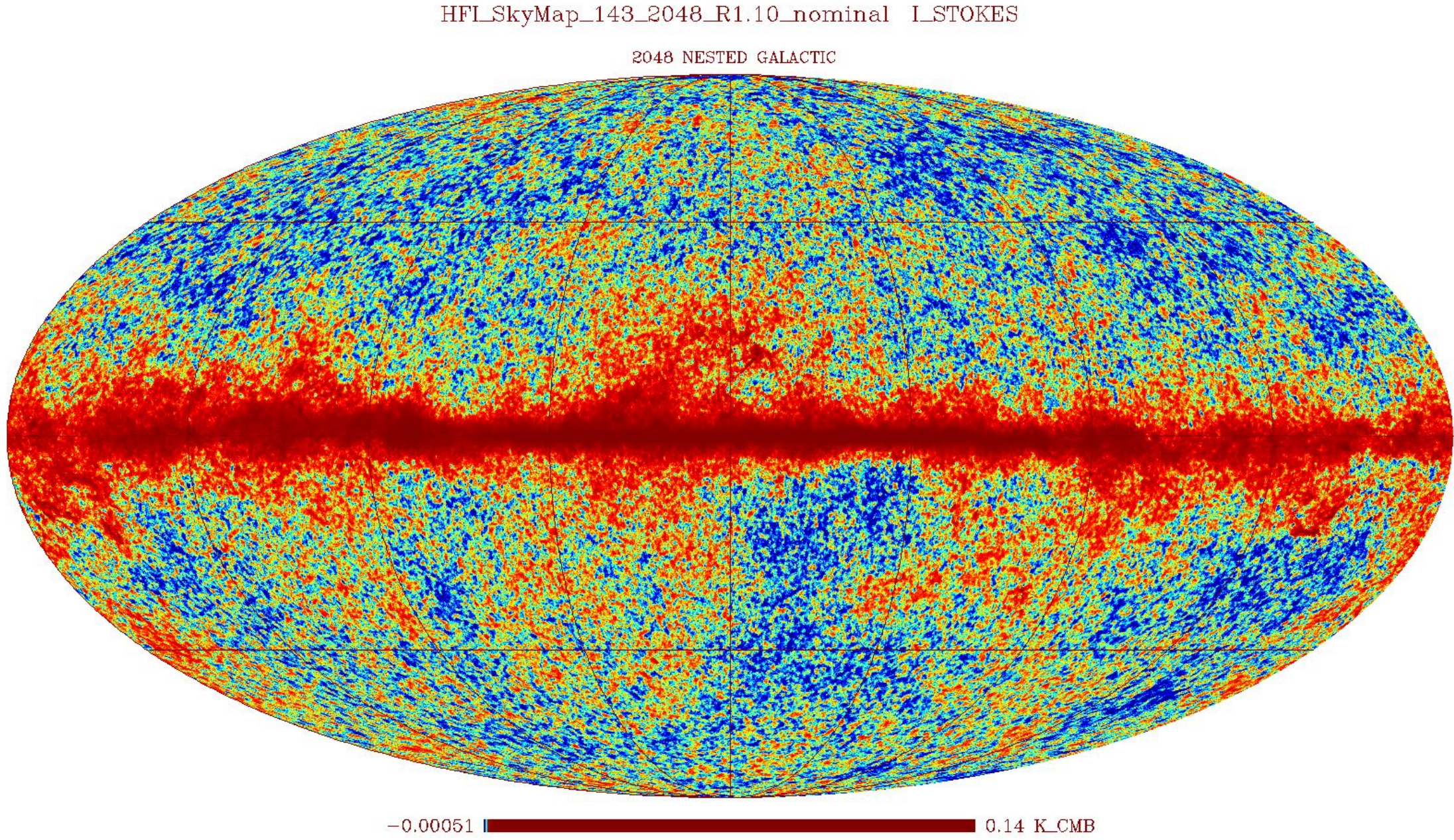
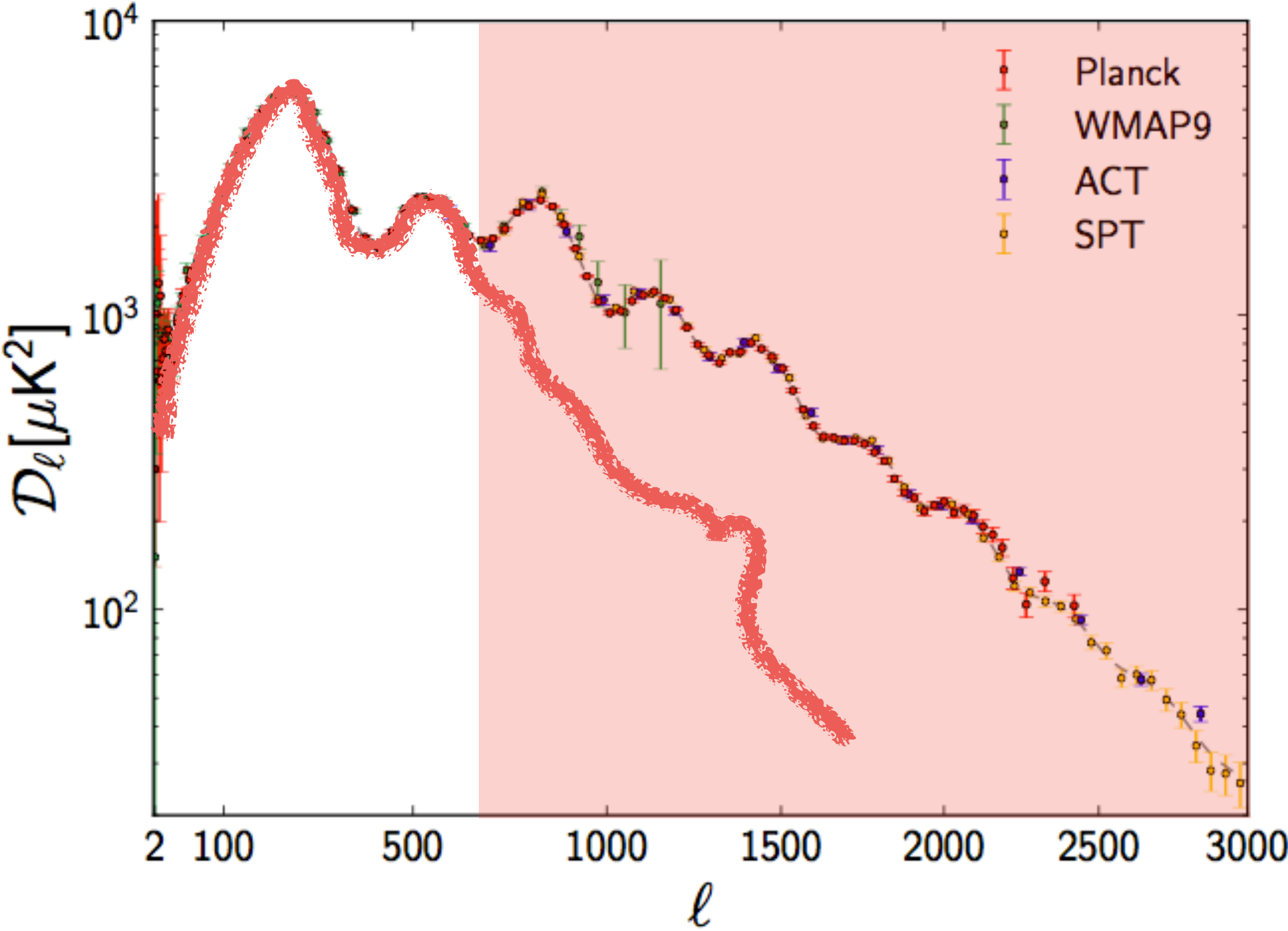
Too many baryons lead to a deficit of small structures:
Silk damping (more later)

There must be a substance that doesn't interact with photons and therefore doesn't dissipate

 **Dark Matter!**

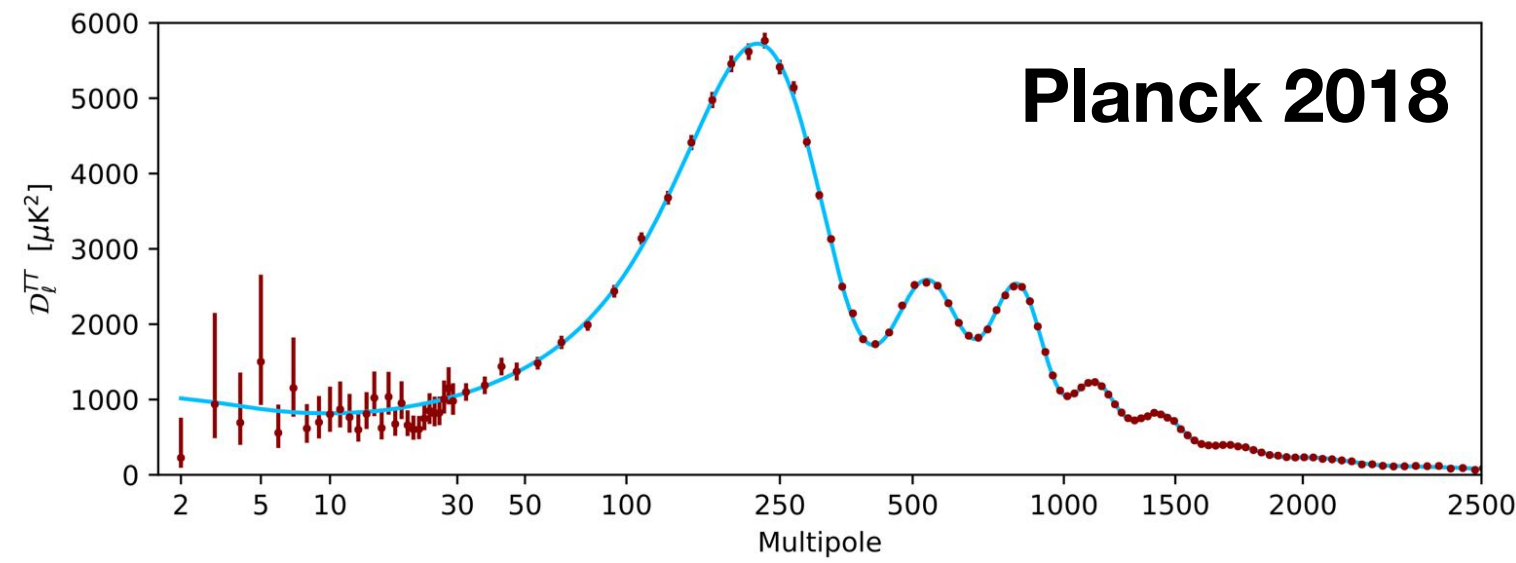


Part IV. Invisible Universe



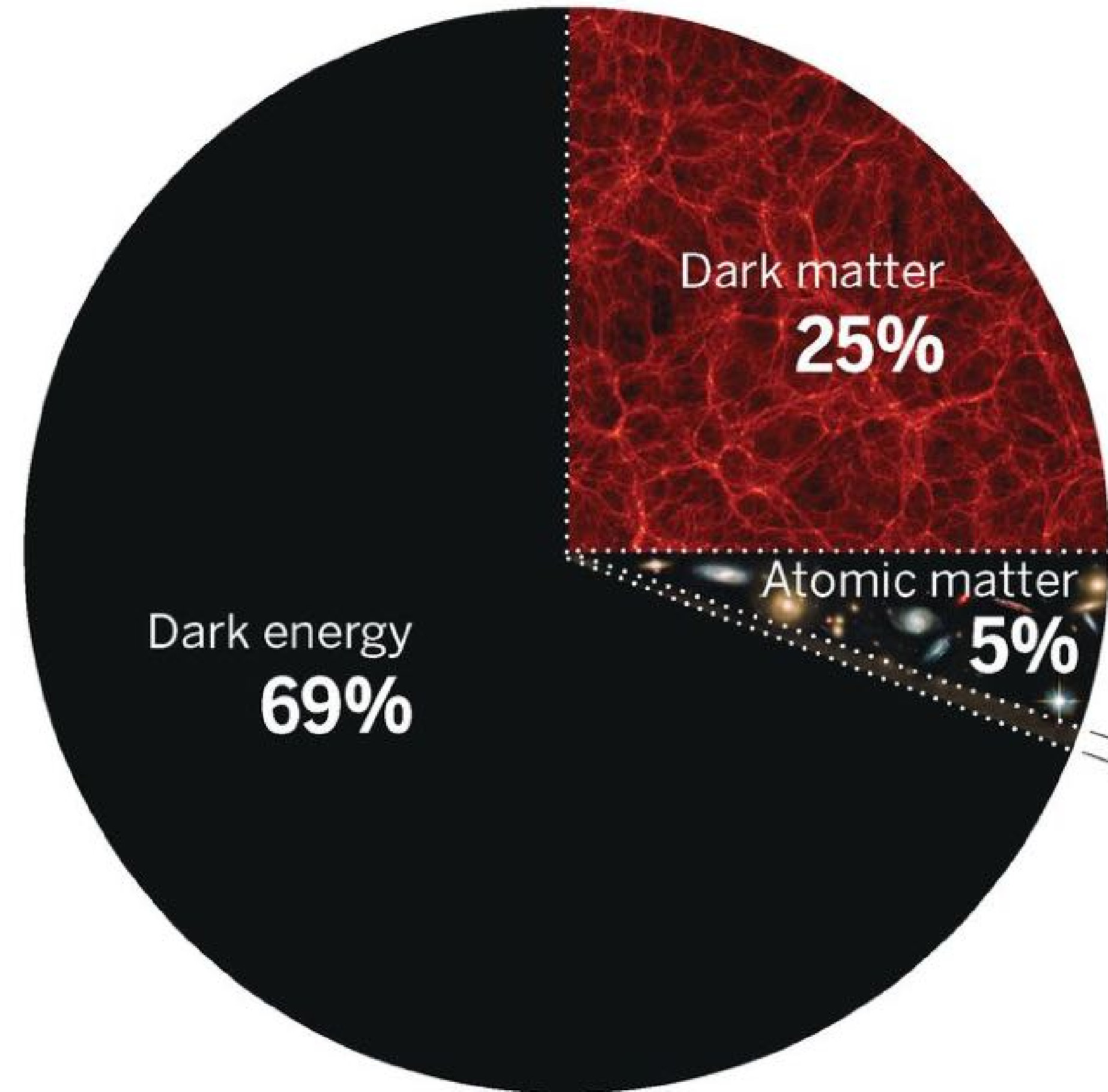
$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\theta}_b &= k^2 \psi - \mathcal{H} \theta_b + c_s^2 k^2 \delta_b - R^{-1} \dot{\kappa} (\theta_b - \theta_\gamma) \\ \dot{\theta}_\gamma &= k^2 \psi + k^2 \left(\frac{1}{4} \delta_\gamma - \sigma_\gamma \right) - \dot{\kappa} (\theta_\gamma - \theta_b), \\ \dot{\theta}_{DM} &= k^2 \psi - \mathcal{H} \theta_{DM}, \end{aligned}$$

Part IV. Invisible Universe



Parameter	Planck best fit
$\Omega_b h^2$	0.022383
$\Omega_c h^2$	0.12011
$100\theta_{MC}$	1.040909
τ	0.0543
$\ln(10^{10} A_s)$	3.0448
n_s	0.96605
<hr/>	
$\Omega_m h^2$	0.14314
H_0 [km s ⁻¹ Mpc ⁻¹] ...	67.32
Ω_m	0.3158
Age [Gyr]	13.7971
σ_8	0.8120
$S_8 \equiv \sigma_8 (\Omega_m/0.3)^{0.5}$..	0.8331
z_{re}	7.68
$100\theta_*$	1.041085
r_{drag} [Mpc]	147.049

1807.06209



The SM framework seems valid

All the matter that Particle Physicists know on Earth

Interactions

	I	II	III		
mass	$\approx 2.4 \text{ MeV}/c^2$	$\approx 1.275 \text{ GeV}/c^2$	$\approx 172.44 \text{ GeV}/c^2$	0	$\approx 125.09 \text{ GeV}/c^2$
charge	$2/3$	$2/3$	$2/3$	0	0
spin	$1/2$	$1/2$	$1/2$	1	0
	u up	c charm	t top	g gluon	H Higgs
	d down	s strange	b bottom	γ photon	
	e electron	μ muon	τ tau	Z Z boson	
	ν_e electron neutrino	ν_μ muon neutrino	ν_τ tau neutrino	W W boson	

Strong force

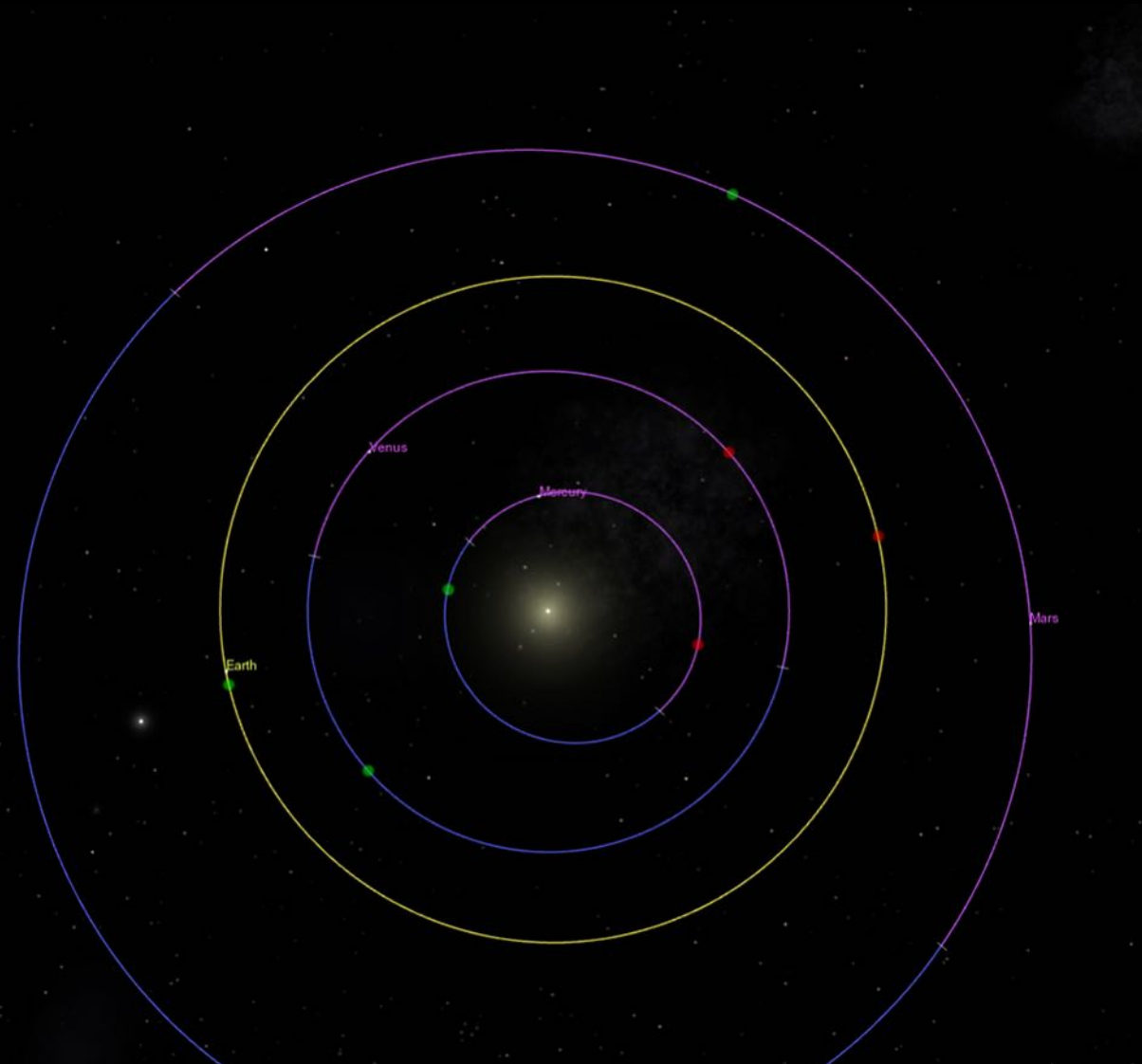
Weak force

Electromagnetism

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} + i\bar{\psi}\not{D}\psi + h.c. + \bar{\psi}_i y_{ij} \psi_j \phi + h.c. + \frac{1}{2} D_\mu \phi^\dagger D^\mu \phi - V(\phi)$$

This model perfectly describes everything we see on Earth

General Relativity seems valid so far



Mercury Perihelion



Gravitational waves



BH horizon



Einstein rings

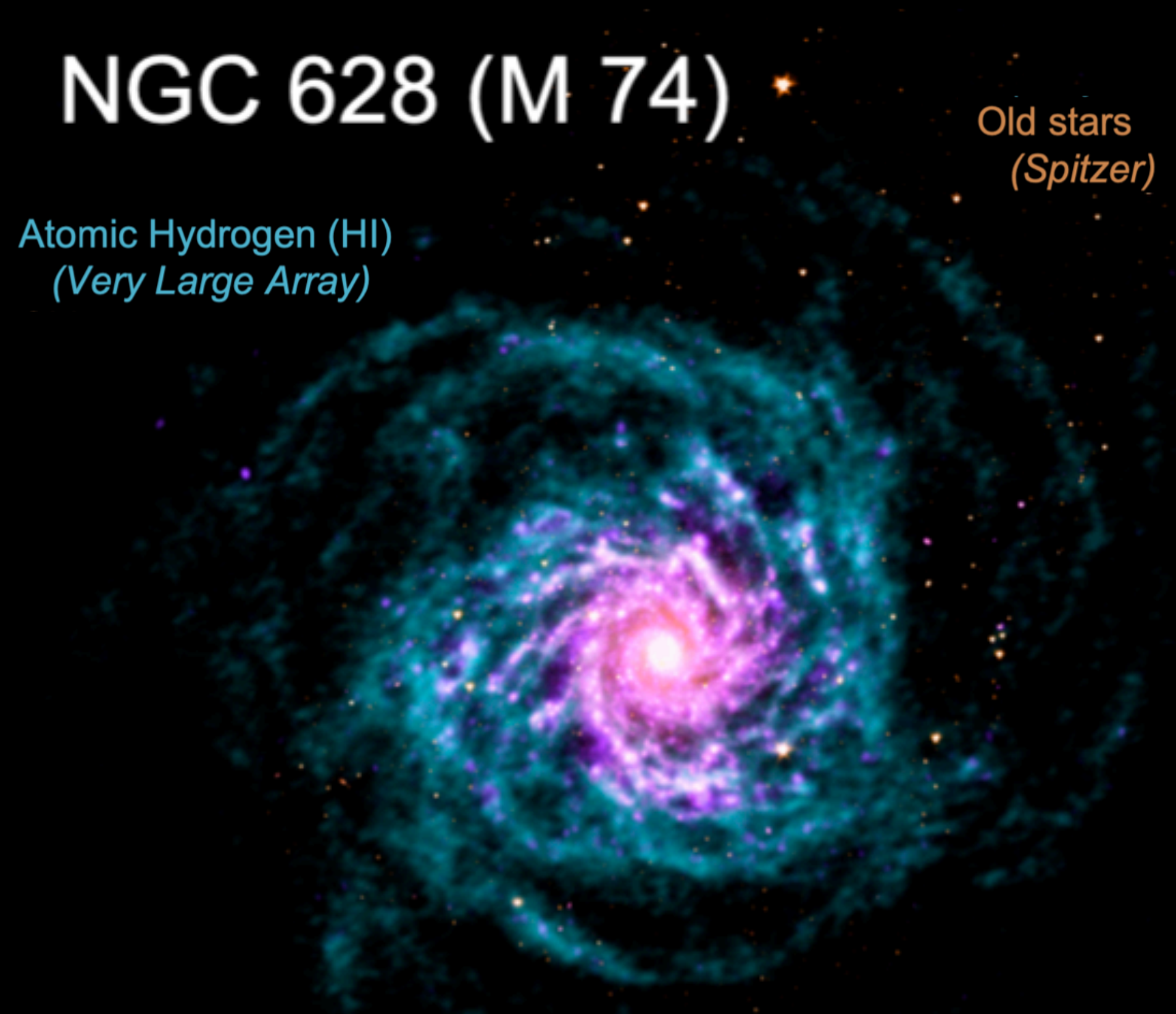
But there are severe issues

Issue #1

NGC 628 (M 74)

Atomic Hydrogen (HI)
(Very Large Array)

Old stars
(Spitzer)

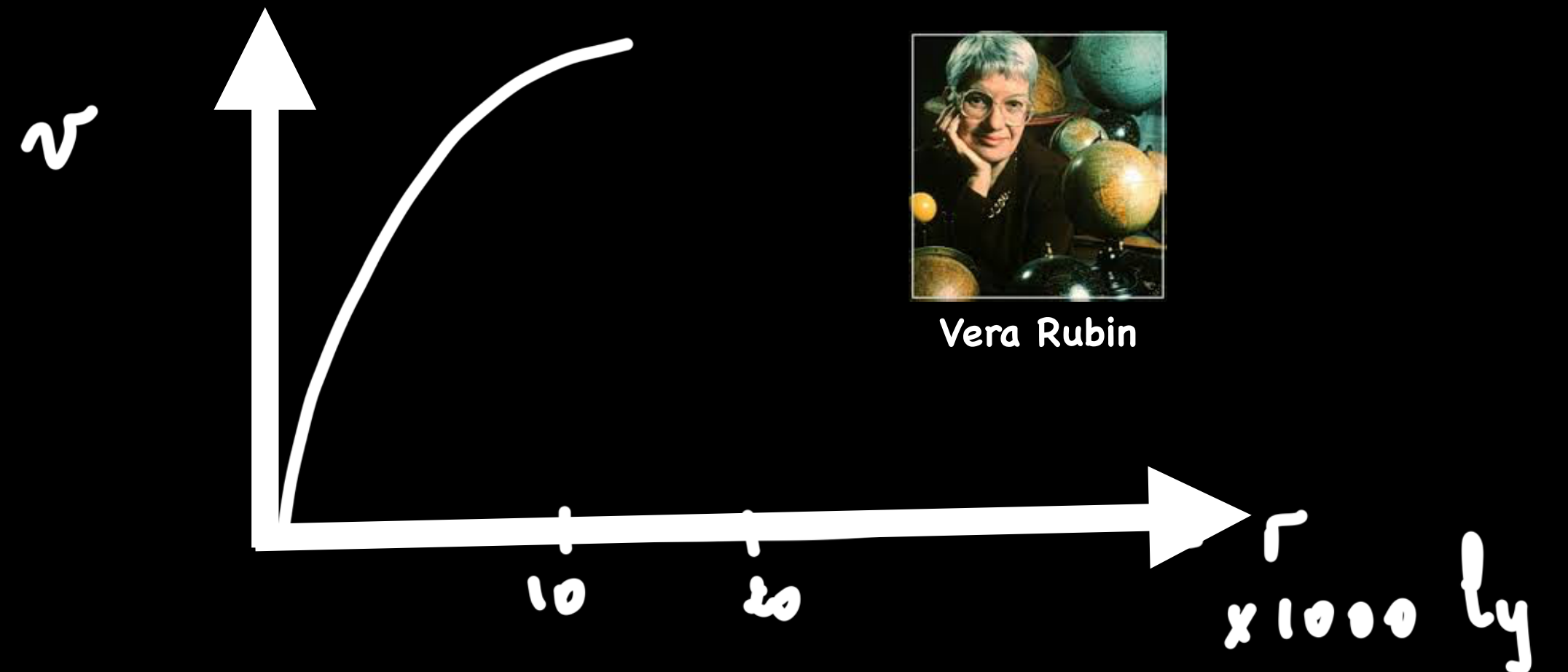


Star Formation
(Galex & Spitzer)

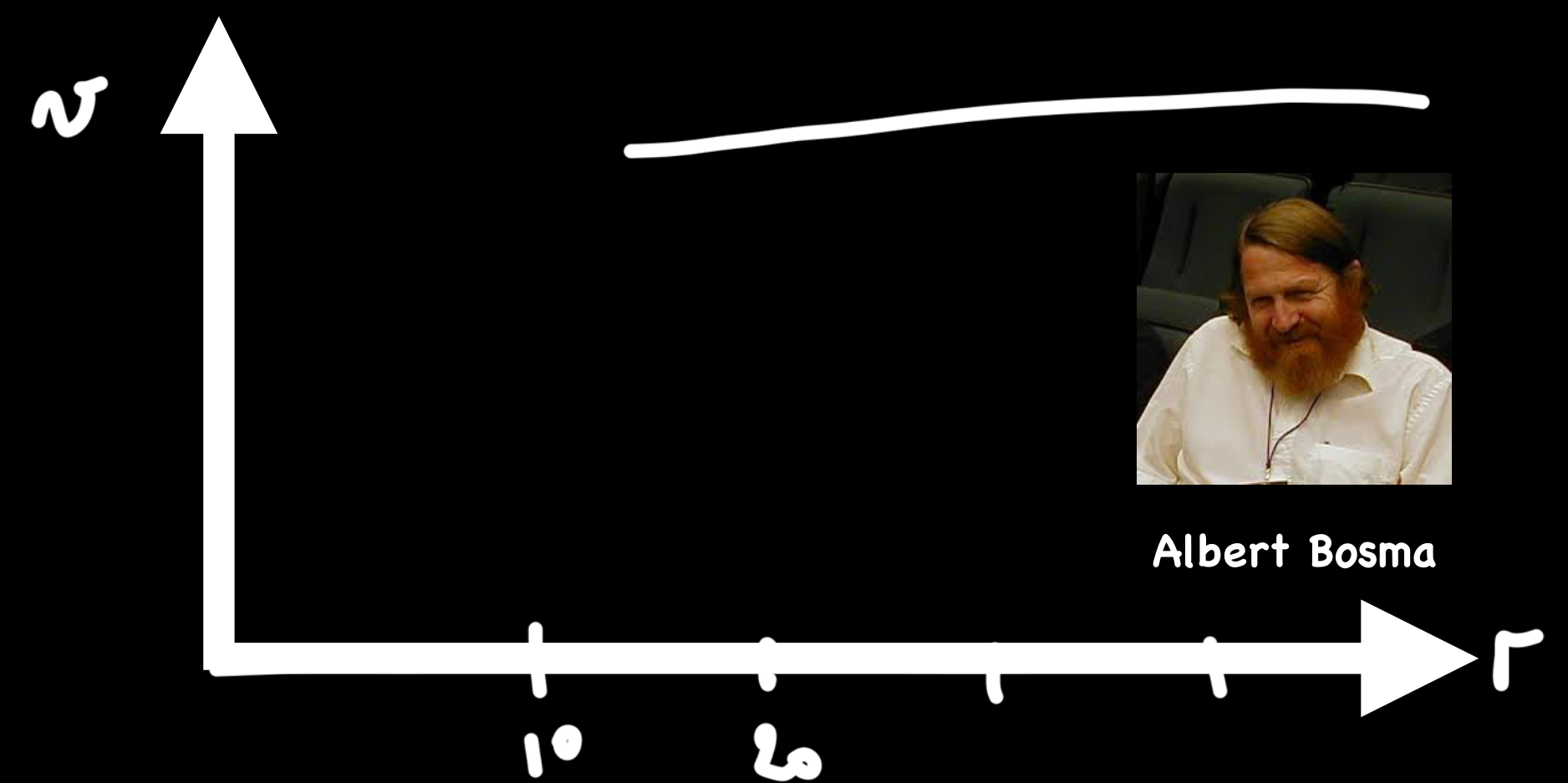
Image credits:
VLA THINGS: Walter et al.
Spitzer SINGS: Kennicutt et al.
Galex NGS: Gil de Paz et al.

10 kpc ———
30,000 light years

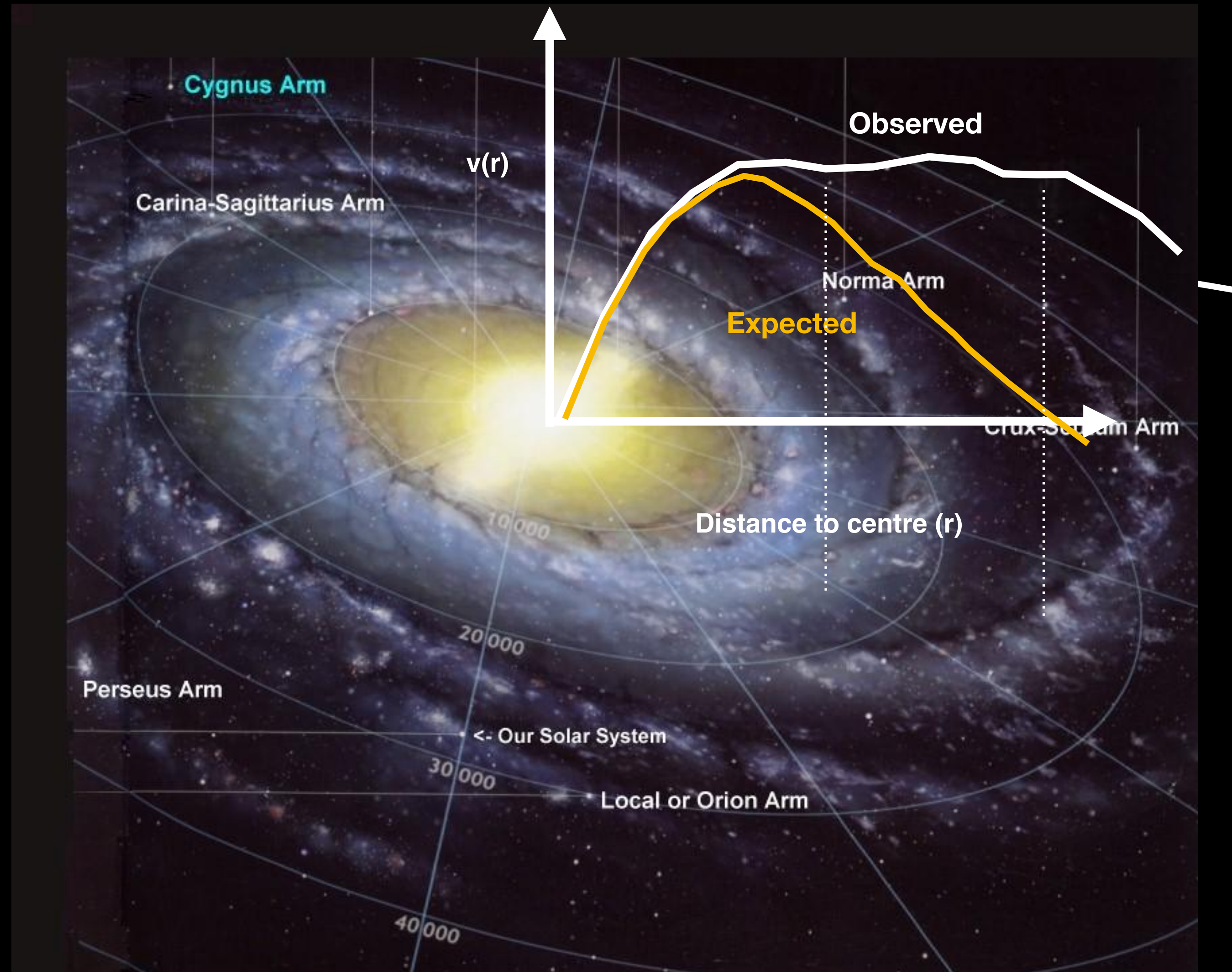
Stars rotate in galaxies



Neutral Hydrogen gas too



Rotation curves of galaxies



No dissipation but ordinary matter does dissipate

Issue #2

Strong lensing in galaxy clusters



Missing mass

Issue #3

Evolution of the Universe

Story of the Universe

At the beginning of time, space exploded out of nothingness to create the ever-expanding universe we inhabit now. It took billions of years for the story, depicted here, to unfold.

—Breanna Draxler



How to form cosmological structures from rapid expansion?

Ordinary matter is bound by BBN to be $< 5\%$ of the content of the Universe but we need more mass to start the genesis of galaxies



Our place in the Universe

Issue #4

Galaxies within galaxies

LMC and SMC are galaxies within the Milky Way and many more

LMC

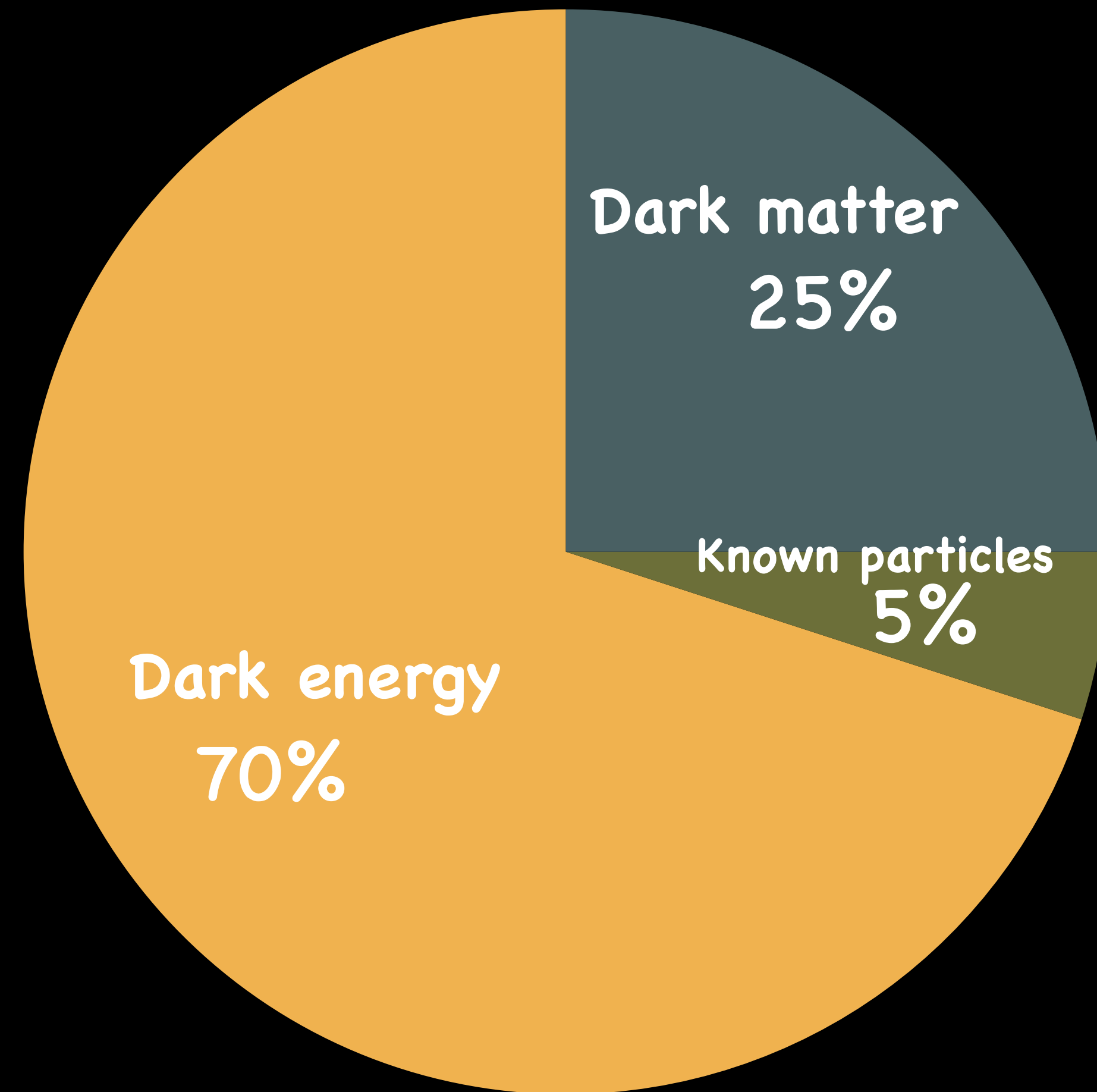
Ret II

SMC

The physics that we know cannot explain
the formation of the objects that we know

We are on for a major paradigm shift

But adding some invisible mass solves all



Solutions?

	Deeper gravitational potential	Fighting Dissipation
Modifying gravity	✓ (Acceleration)	Hard :(
Adding mass/particles	✓	✓

Others...

It is all about the initial conditions, i.e. the CMB!!!

The modified gravity route

Modifying Gravity

GR' + SU(3)XSU(2)XU(1)

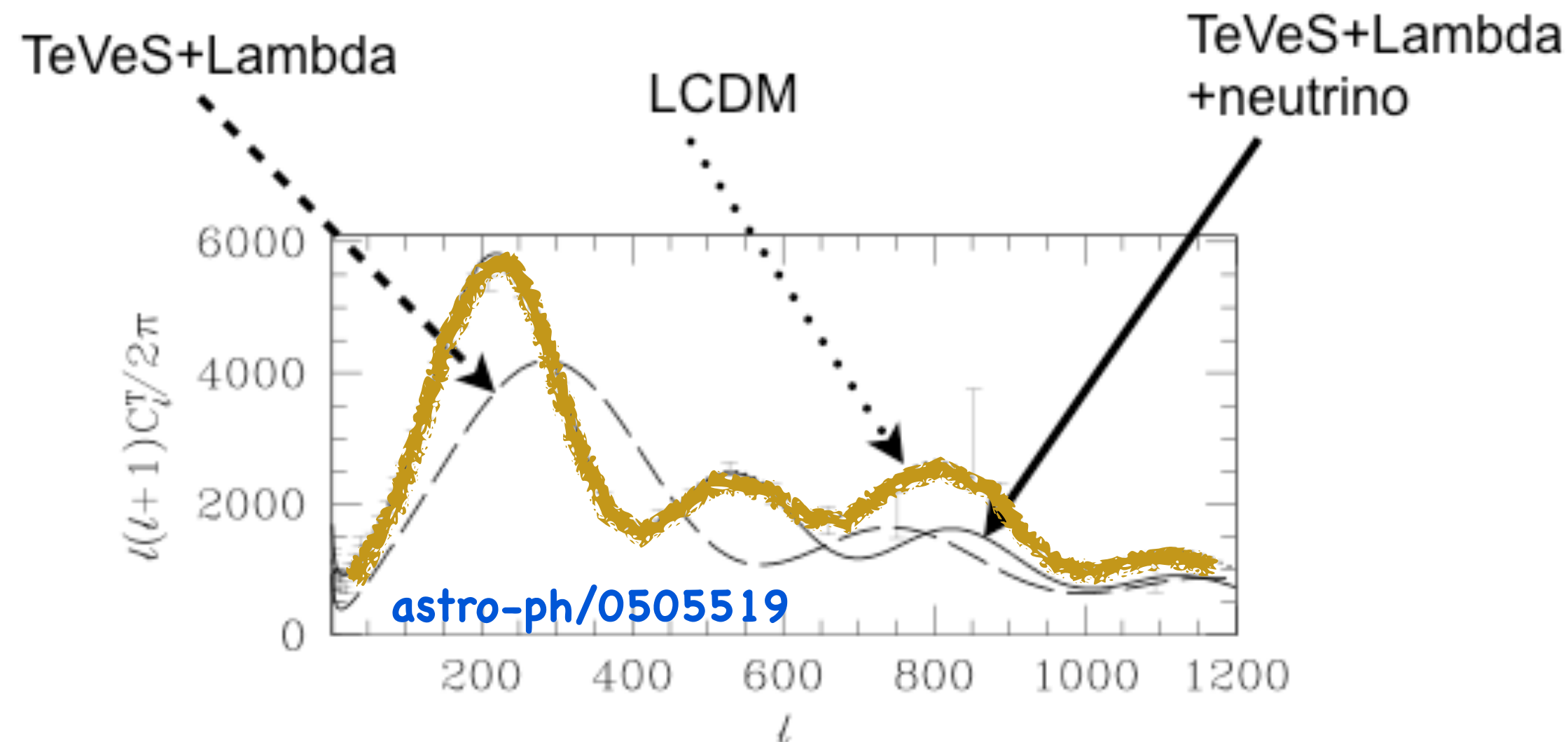
$$\mu \left(\frac{|\vec{a}|}{a_0} \right) \vec{a} = -\nabla\Phi$$



empirical

$$\mu(x) = 1 \text{ if } x > 1 \quad \mu(x) \simeq x \text{ if } x < 1$$

TEVES: [astro-ph/0403694](https://arxiv.org/abs/astro-ph/0403694)



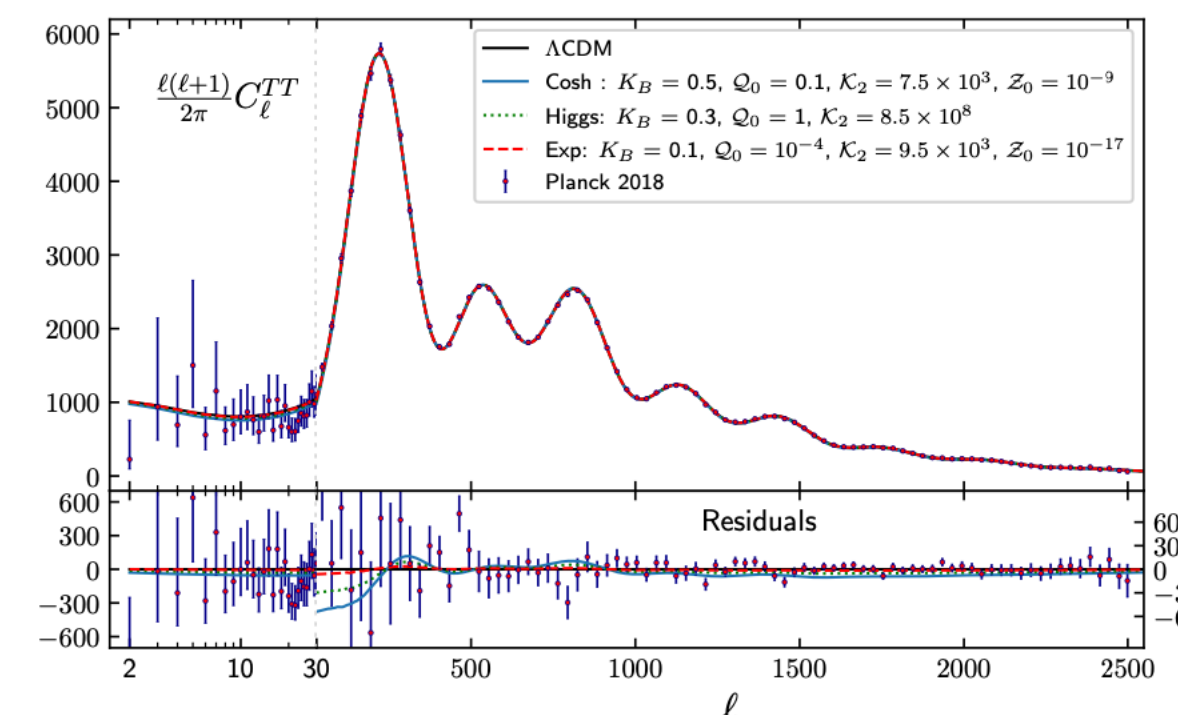
arXiv:2007.00082v3 [astro-ph.CO] 14 Oct 2021

New Relativistic Theory for Modified Newtonian Dynamics

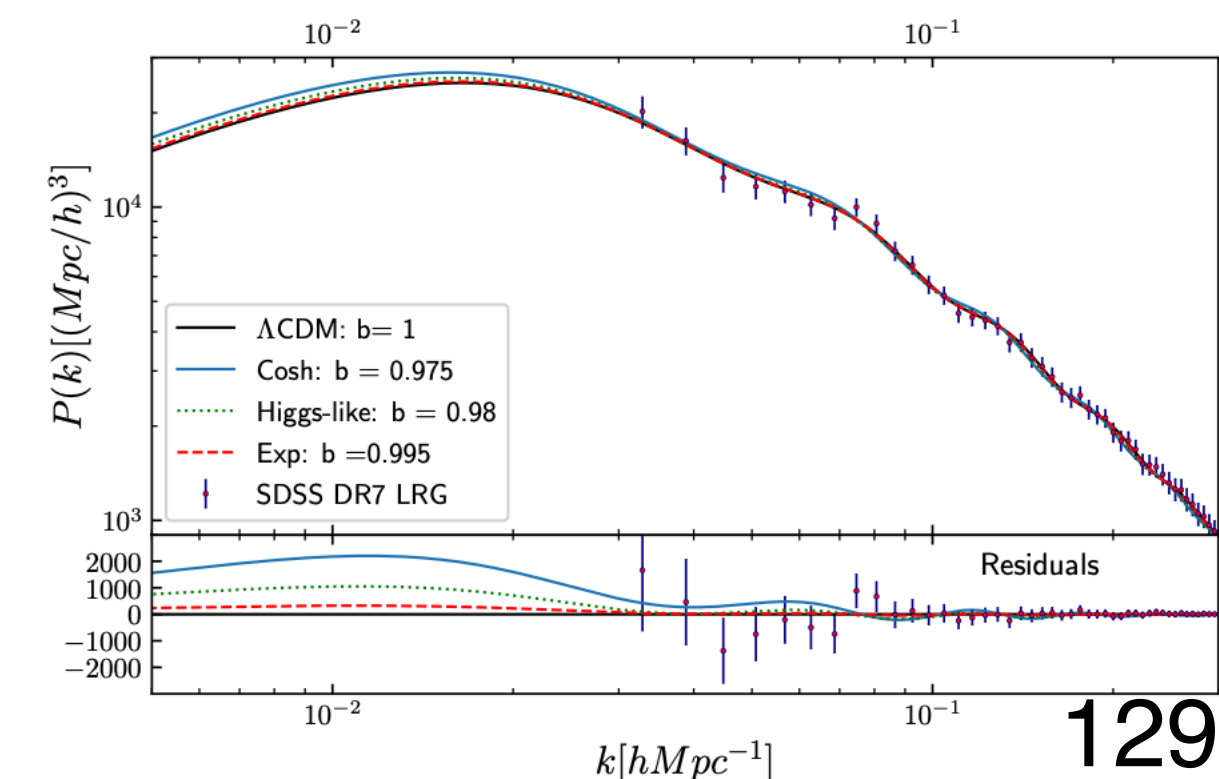
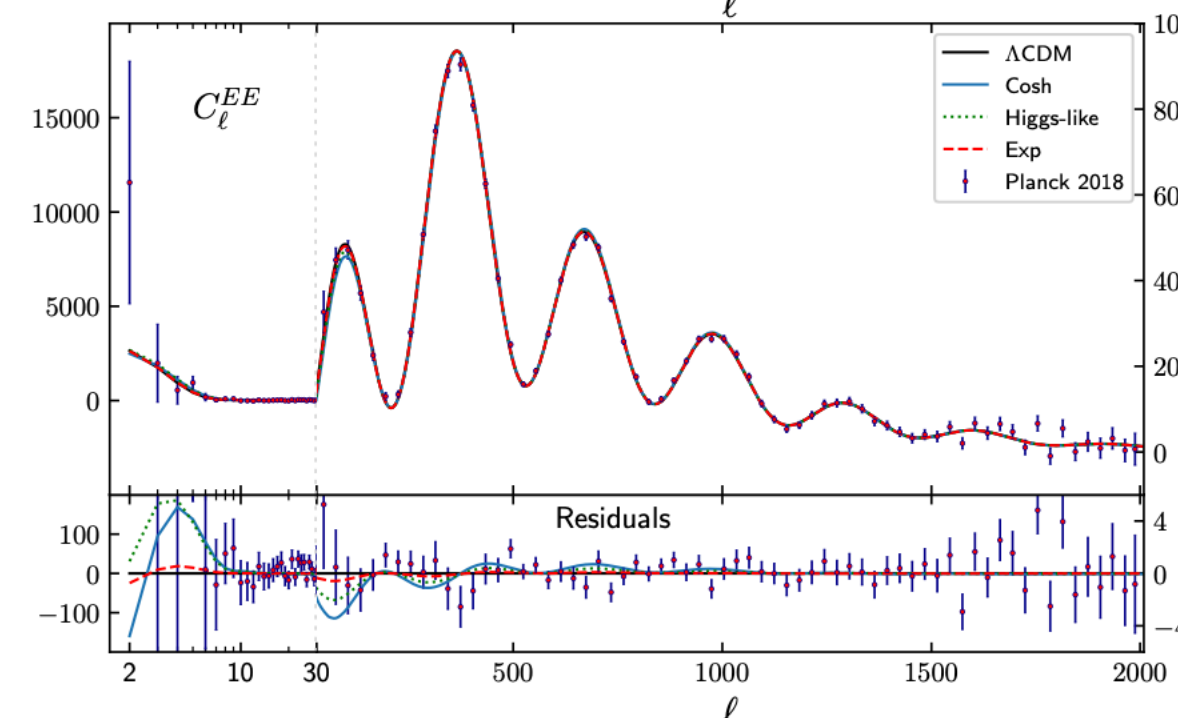
Constantinos Skordis* and Tom Złośnik†

CEICO, Institute of Physics (FZU) of the Czech Academy of Sciences, Na Slovance 1999/2, 182 21, Prague, Czech Republic

We propose a relativistic gravitational theory leading to modified Newtonian dynamics, a paradigm that explains the observed universal galactic acceleration scale and related phenomenology. We discuss phenomenological requirements leading to its construction and demonstrate its agreement with the observed cosmic microwave background and matter power spectra on linear cosmological scales. We show that its action expanded to second order is free of ghost instabilities and discuss its possible embedding in a more fundamental theory.



For a point source of mass M , the MOND-to-Newton transition occurs at $r_M \sim \sqrt{(G_N M/a_0)}$. A MOND force $\sim \sqrt{G_N M a_0}/r$ lends its way trivially to a Newtonian force $G_N M/r^2$ as $r \ll r_M$ but in the inner Solar System this is



Modifying Gravity

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/2007.00082.pdf>

$$S = \int d^4x \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \bar{\nabla}_\mu h \bar{\nabla}_\nu h^{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{4} \bar{\nabla}_\rho h \bar{\nabla}^\rho h + \frac{1}{2} \bar{\nabla}_\mu h^{\mu\rho} \bar{\nabla}_\nu h^\nu{}_\rho - \frac{1}{4} \bar{\nabla}^\rho h^{\mu\nu} \bar{\nabla}_\rho h_{\mu\nu} K_B |\dot{\vec{A}} - \frac{1}{2} \vec{\nabla} h^{00}|^2 - 2K_B \vec{\nabla}_{[i} A_{j]} \vec{\nabla}^{[i} A^{j]} \right. \\ \left. + (2 - K_B) \left[2(\dot{\vec{A}} - \frac{1}{2} \vec{\nabla} h^{00}) \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \varphi + \mathcal{Q}_0 \vec{A}) - (1 + \lambda_s) |\vec{\nabla} \varphi + \mathcal{Q}_0 \vec{A}|^2 \right] + 2\mathcal{K}_2 \left| \dot{\varphi} + \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{Q}_0 h^{00} \right|^2 + \frac{1}{\tilde{M}_p^2} T_{\mu\nu} h^{\mu\nu} \right\} \quad (13)$$

In preparation

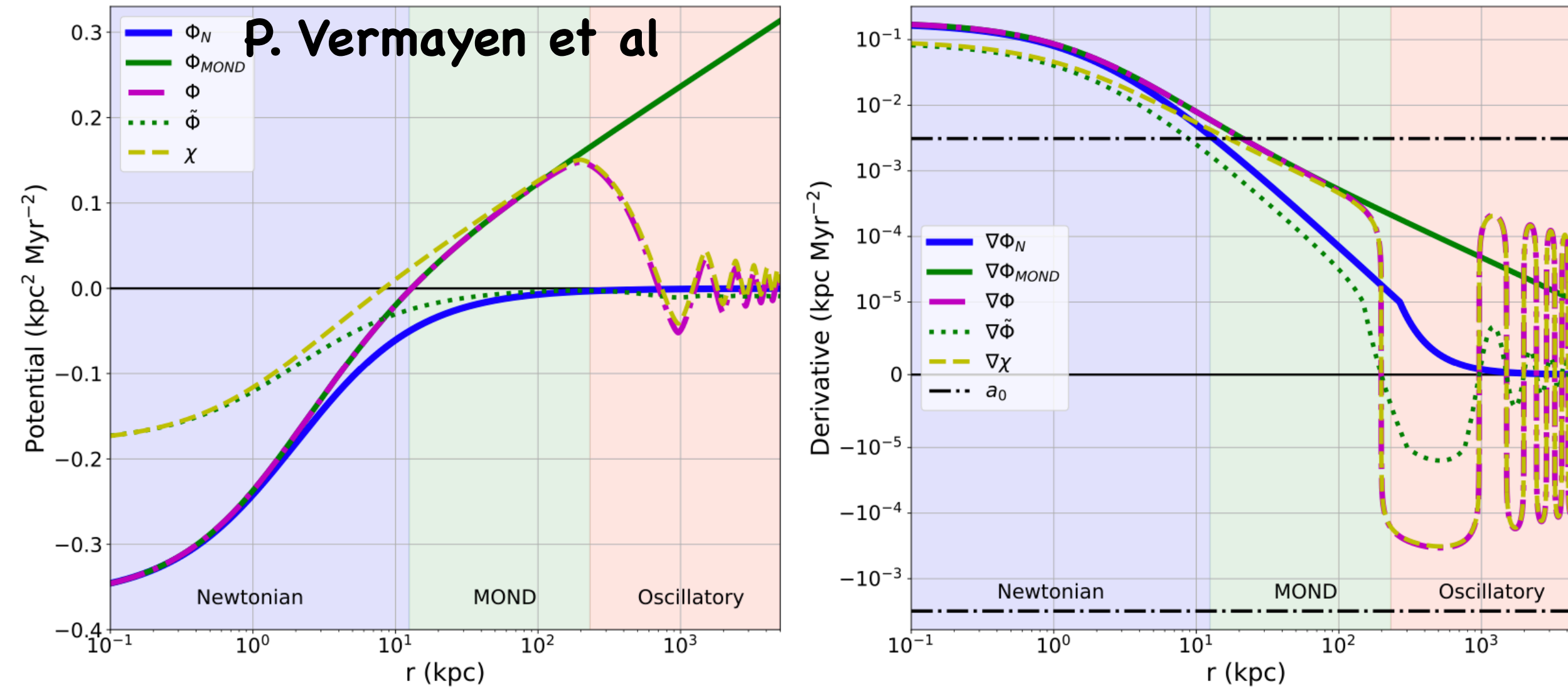


Figure 2. Solution of the field equations (left) and their gradients (right) for the Hernquist density profile and the fiducial model parameters with $(\lambda_s, \mu) = (1, 1 \text{ Mpc}^{-1})$. The blue, green and red regions delineate the Newtonian, MOND and Oscillatory regions respectively. The yellow and green dashed lines are the auxiliary fields $\tilde{\Phi}$ and χ and the pink dotted-dashed line is the metric perturbation which is responsible for defining the trajectories of free falling particles. We have included the Newtonian (blue) and classical MOND (green) solutions for comparison. The break in the blue curve at $\nabla\Phi = 10^{-5}$ is not physical, but related to the symlog scaling that we use for the vertical axis of the right panel.

The “missing mass” route

"Standard Model" solutions

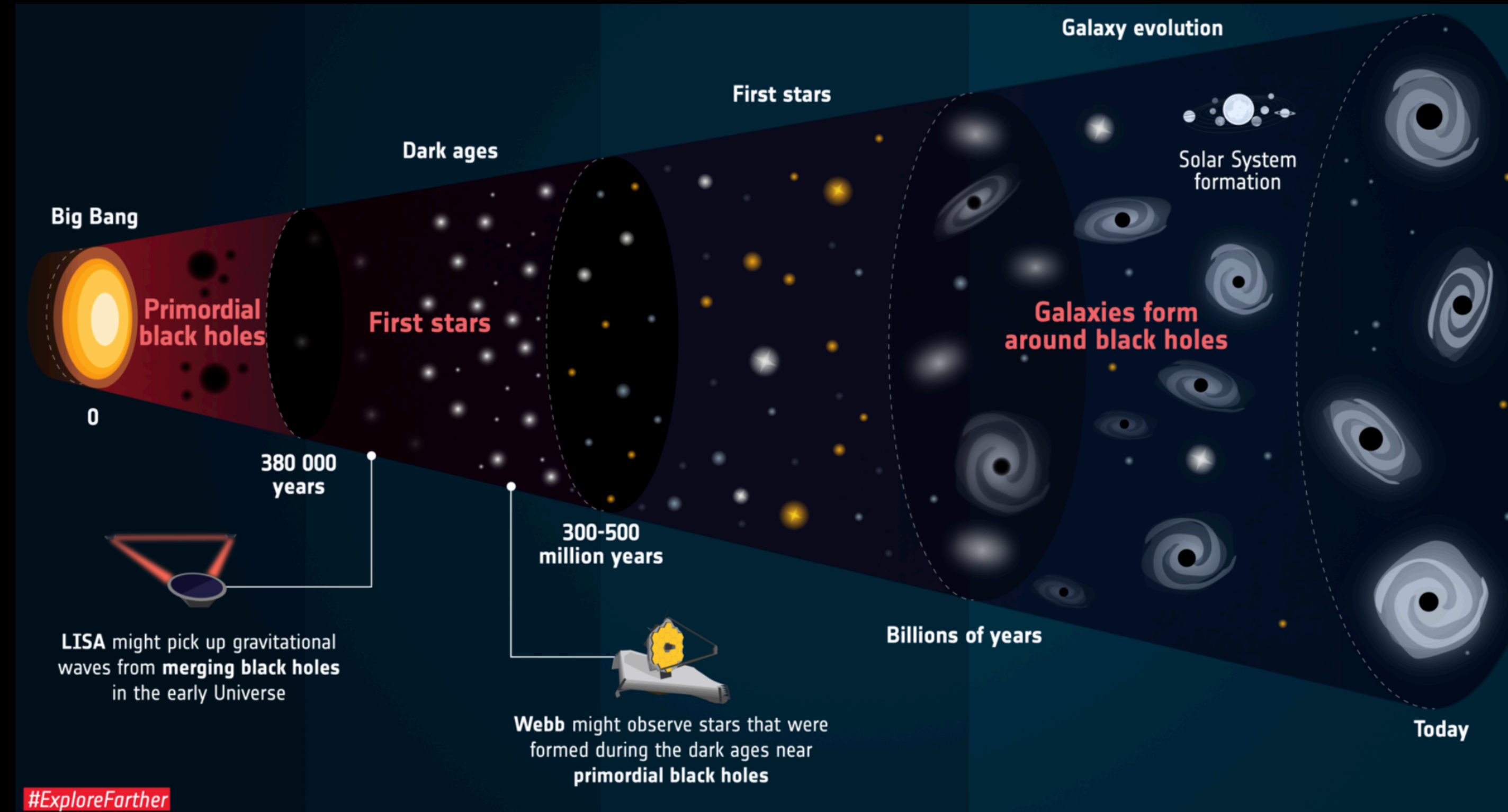
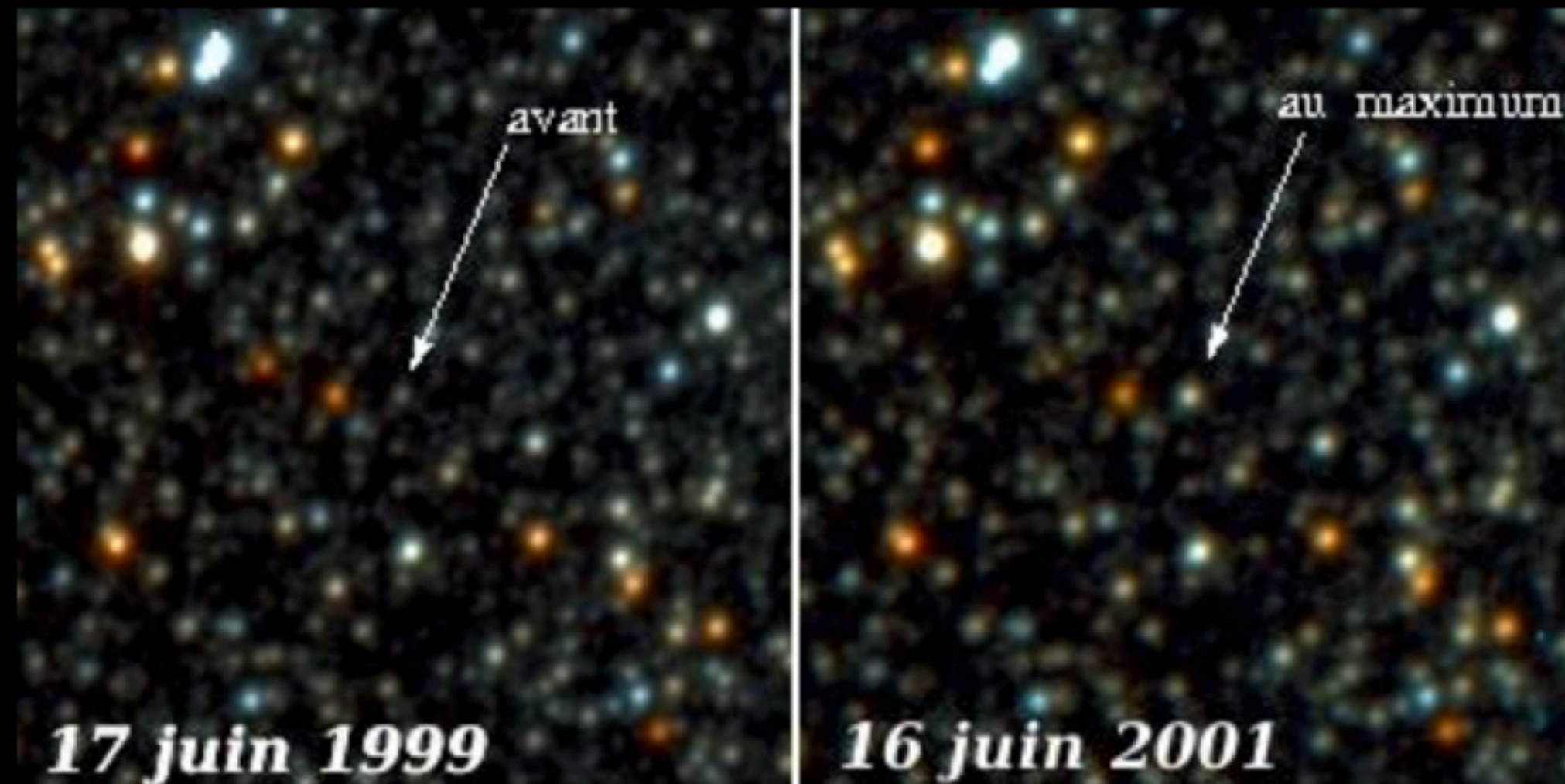
LEPTONS



PBHs

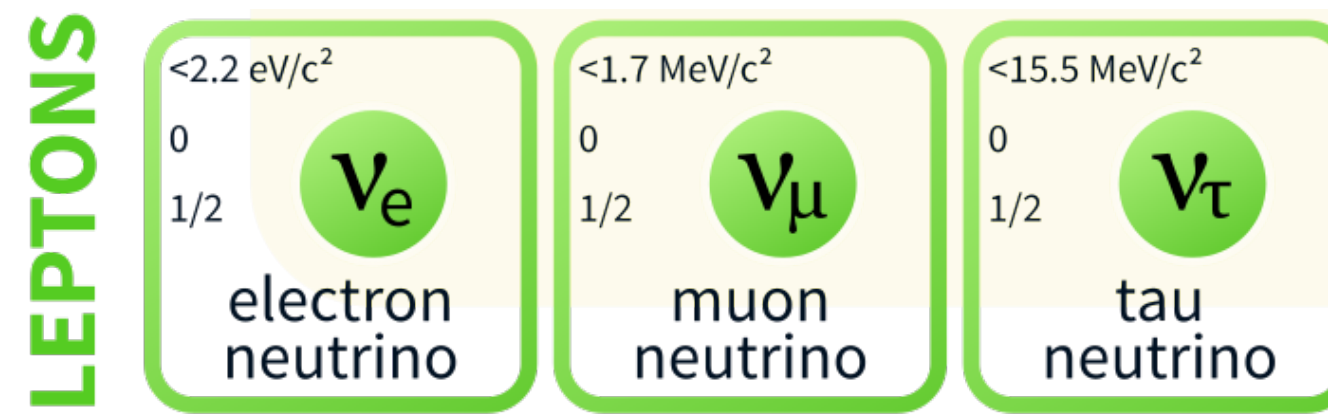


MACHOs



Or ?

Neutrinos



They would need to have a mass $> \text{keV}$ to form as many galaxies as we have observed 133

Dark Matter as ordinary matter

Is it a neutrino?

VOLUME 29, NUMBER 10

PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS

4 SEPTEMBER 1972

An Upper Limit on the Neutrino Rest Mass*

R. Cowsik† and J. McClelland

Department of Physics, University of California, Berkeley, California 94720

(Received 17 July 1972)

In order that the effect of gravitation of the thermal background neutrinos on the expansion of the universe not be too severe, their mass should be less than $8 \text{ eV}/c^2$.

1980 - Zel'dovich et al develop Hot Dark Matter (HDM) theory

1983

CLUSTERING IN A NEUTRINO-DOMINATED UNIVERSE

SIMON D. M. WHITE,^{1,2} CARLOS S. FRENK,¹ AND MARC DAVIS^{1,3}

University of California, Berkeley

Received 1983 June 17; accepted 1983 July 1

ABSTRACT

We have simulated the nonlinear growth of structure in a universe dominated by massive neutrinos using initial conditions derived from detailed linear calculations of earlier evolution. Codes based on a direct N -body integrator and on a fast Fourier transform Poisson solver produce very similar results. The coherence length of the neutrino distribution at early times is directly related to the mass of the neutrino and thence to the present density of the universe. We find this length to be too large to be consistent with the observed clustering scale of galaxies if other cosmological parameters are to remain within their accepted ranges. The conventional neutrino-dominated picture appears to be ruled out.

The formation of galaxies from massive neutrinos

Show affiliations

Davis, M.; Lecar, M.; Pryor, C.; Witten, E.

Scenarios are described that, by including an unstable tau-neutrino, facilitated galaxy formation. Although the unstable particle is chosen to be the tau-neutrino, it is noted that another particle (perhaps not a neutrino at all) with similar mass, lifetime, and decoupling time would serve as well. Without the massive, unstable particle, however, the lighter neutrinos by themselves seem to make galaxy formation on scales less than or equal to 10 to the 12th solar masses almost impossible.

Publication: Astrophysical Journal, Part 1, vol. 250, Nov. 15, 1981, p. 423-431.

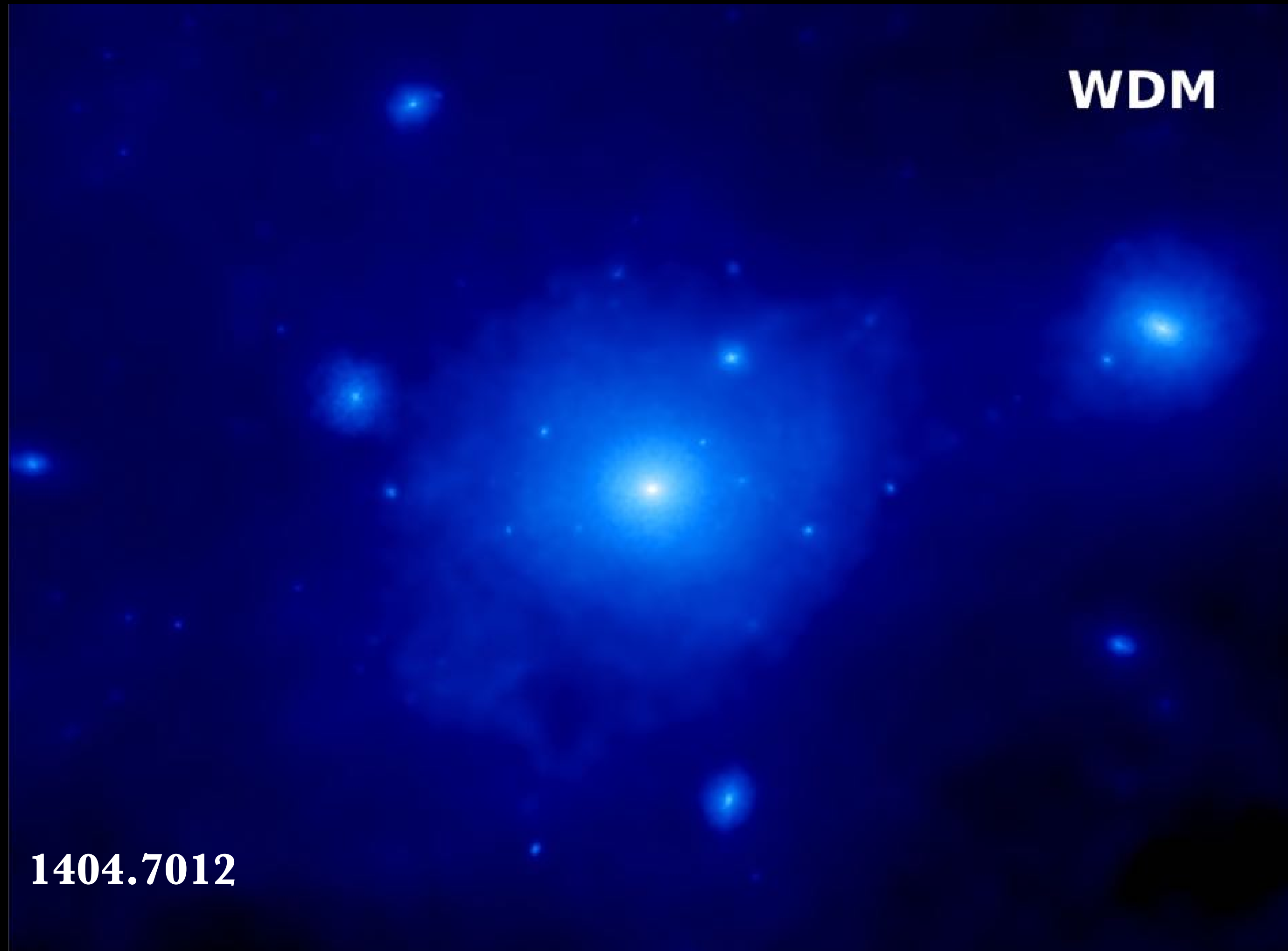
Pub Date: November 1981

DOI: [10.1086/159390](https://doi.org/10.1086/159390)

Bibcode: [1981ApJ...250..423D](https://ui.adsabs.org/abs/1981ApJ...250..423D)

Keywords: Big Bang Cosmology; Galactic Evolution; Neutrinos; Particle Mass; Black Holes (Astronomy); Nuclear Fusion; Perturbation Theory; Universe; Astrophysics

keV neutrinos = Warm dark matter



1988ApJ...332...15

[Bond & Szalay 1983](#) [Bardeen et al. 1986](#)

Halo Formation in Warm Dark Matter Models

Paul Bode and Jeremiah P. Ostriker

Princeton University Observatory, Princeton, NJ 08544-1001

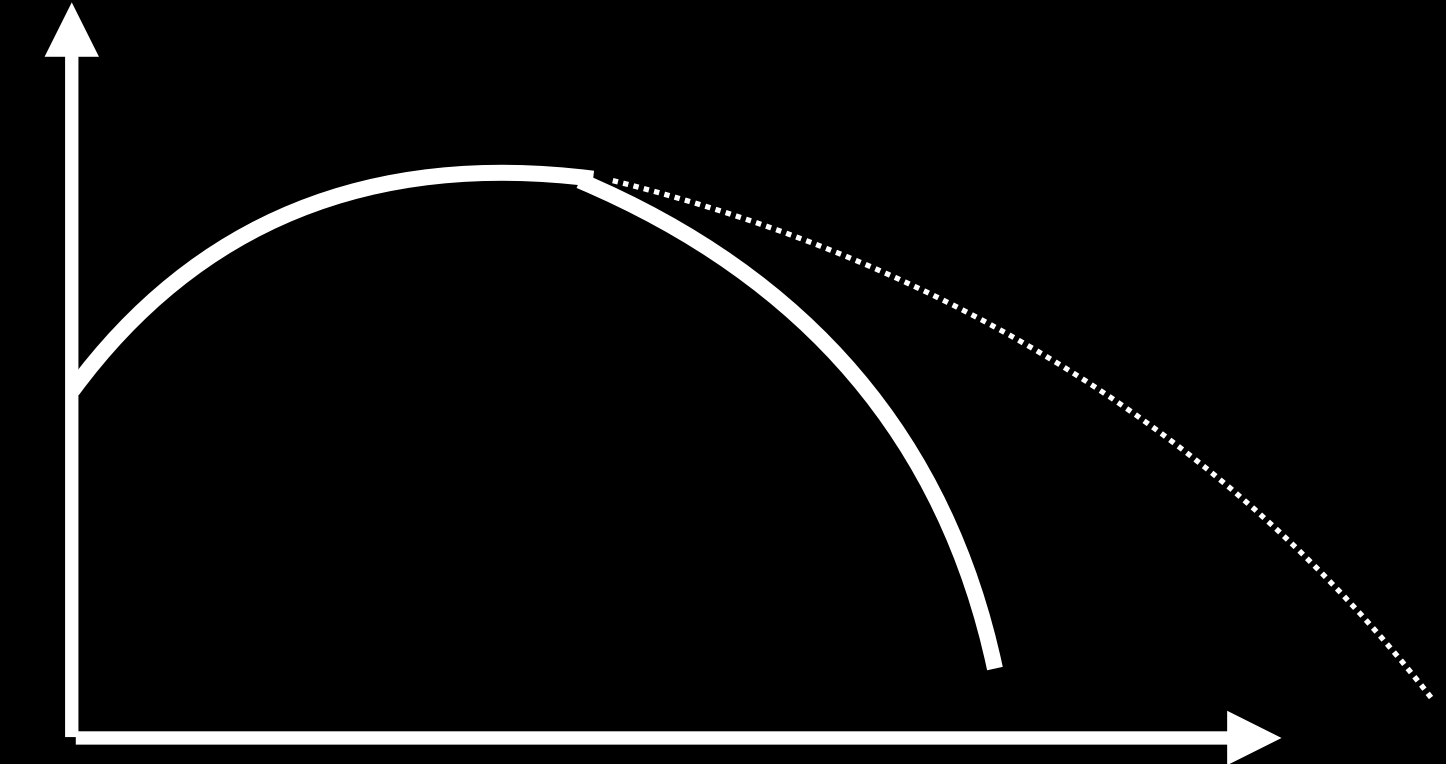
and

Neil Turok

DAMTP, Centre for Mathematical Sciences, Wilberforce Road, CB3 0WA Cambridge, UK

Received 2000 October 26; accepted 2001 March 26

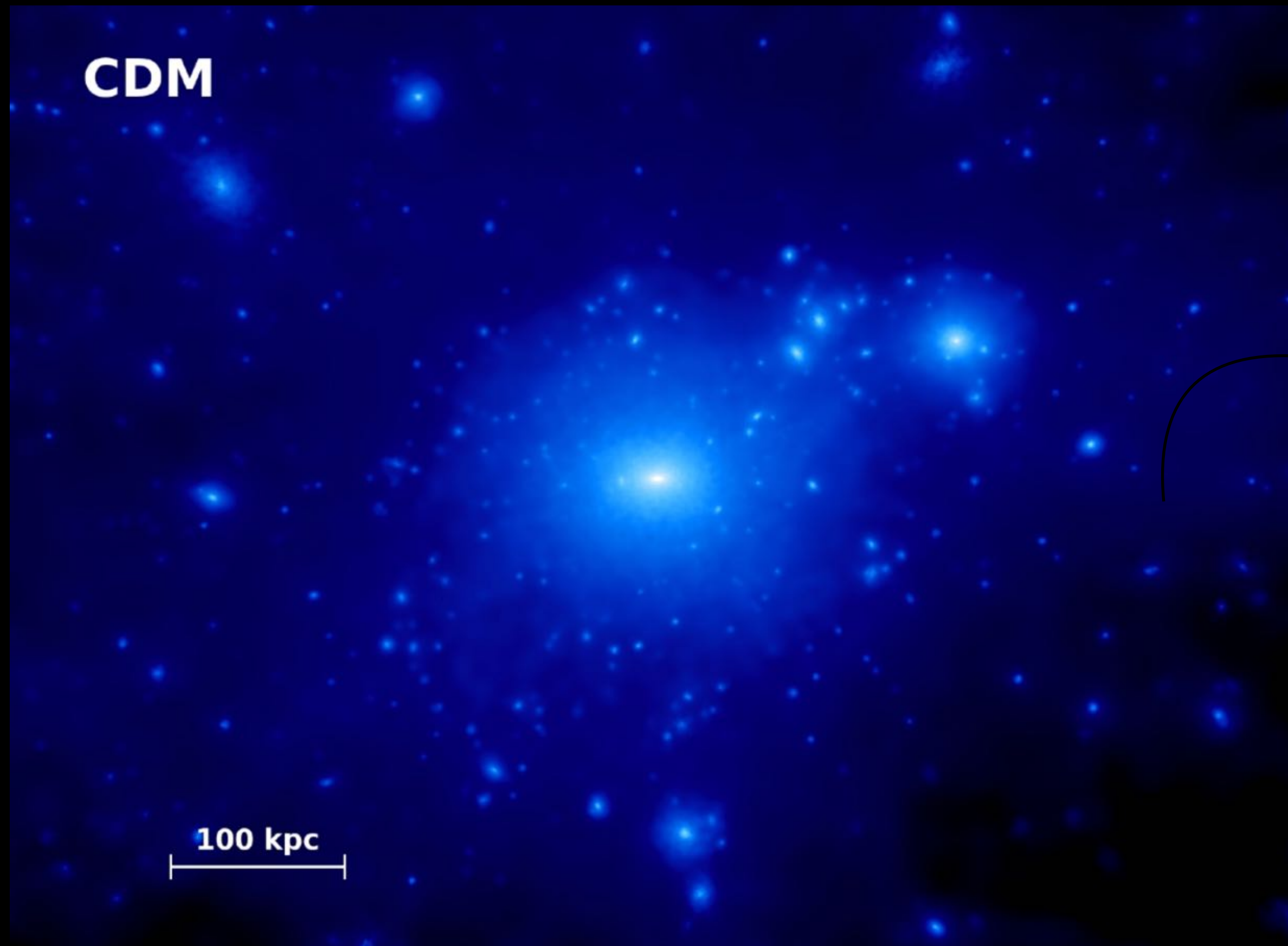
structures



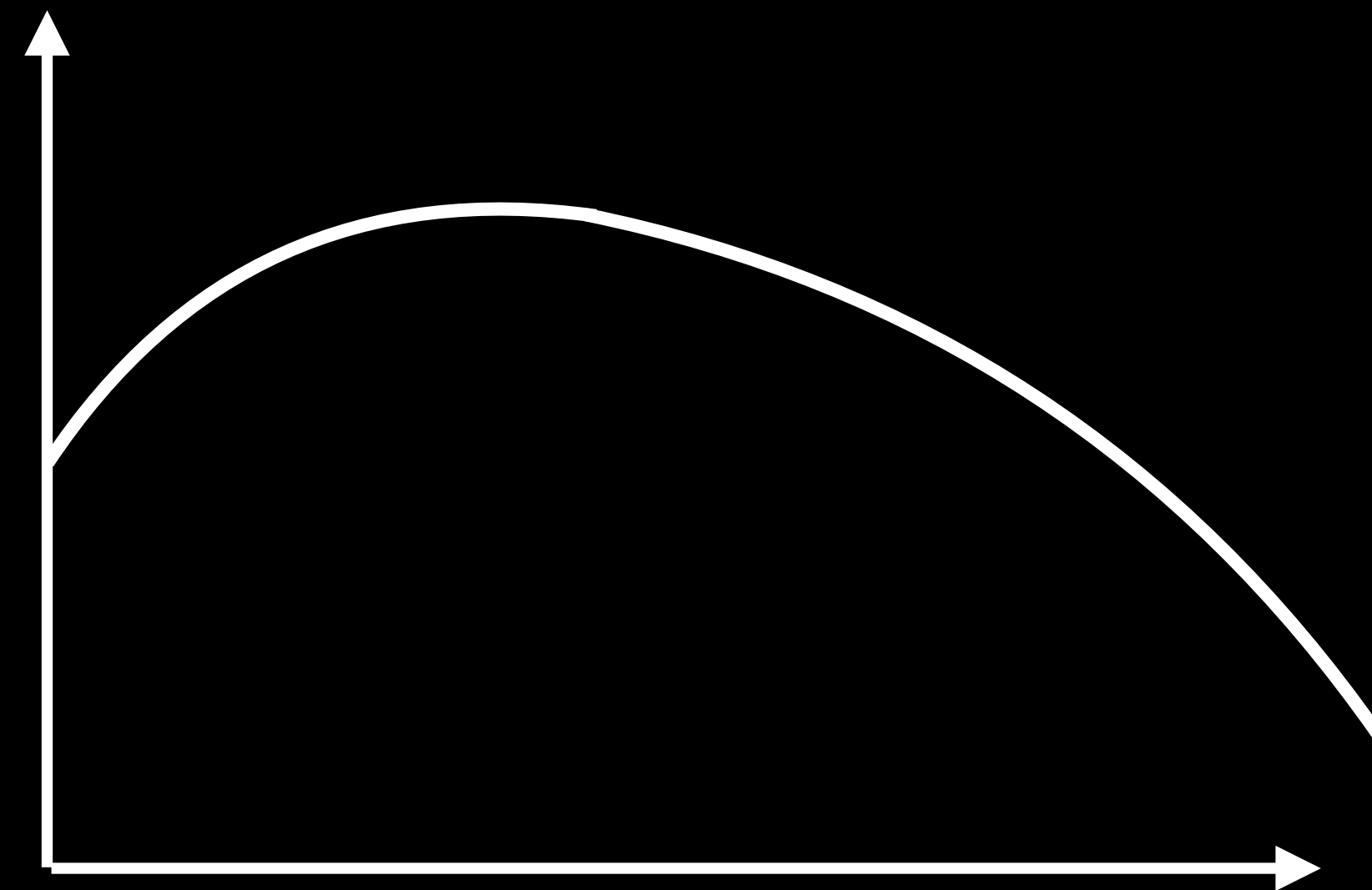
Larger scales -> small scales

$$R_s \approx 0.31 \left(\frac{\Omega_X}{0.3} \right)^{0.15} \left(\frac{h}{0.65} \right)^{1.3} \left(\frac{\text{keV}}{m_X} \right)^{1.15} h^{-1} \text{ Mpc}$$

Cold Collisionless Dark Matter



structures



Larger scales -> small scales

Assuming NO interaction



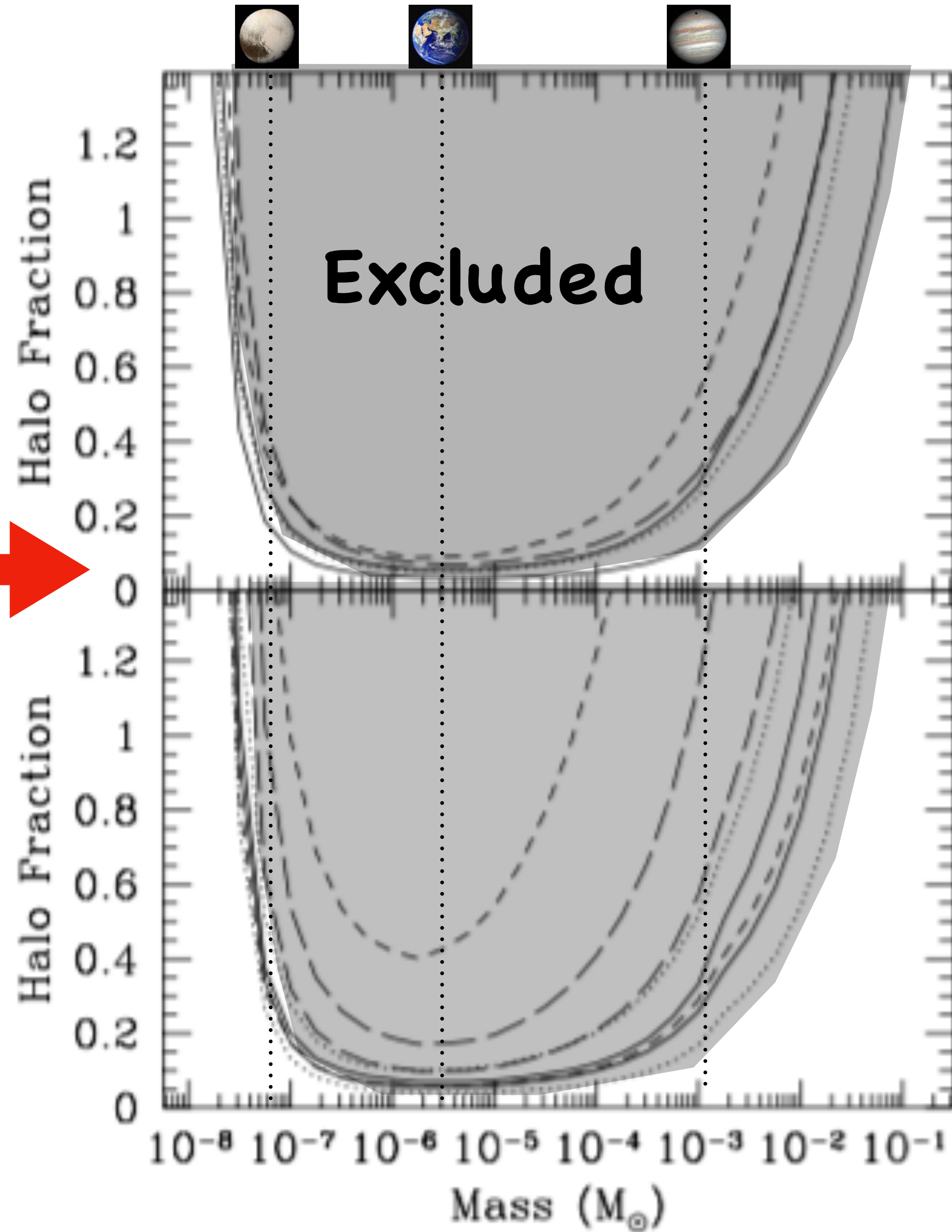
EAGLE SIMULATION
icc.dur.ac.uk/Eagle

$t_{\text{age}} = 13.8 \text{ Gyr}$
Redshift = 0.00

MACHOs

EROS & MACHO experiments

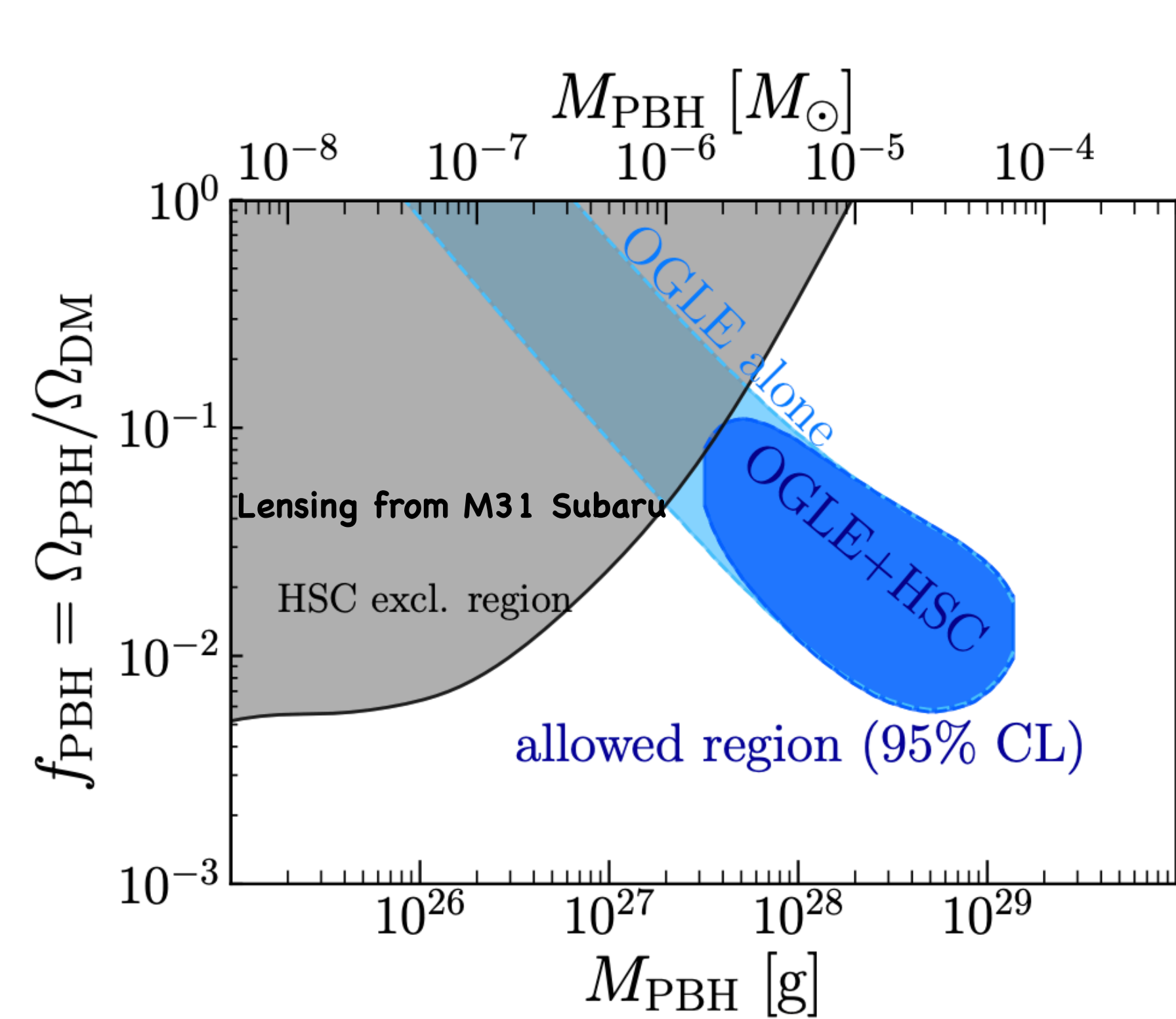
Tiny fraction of our
MW halo allowed but ...



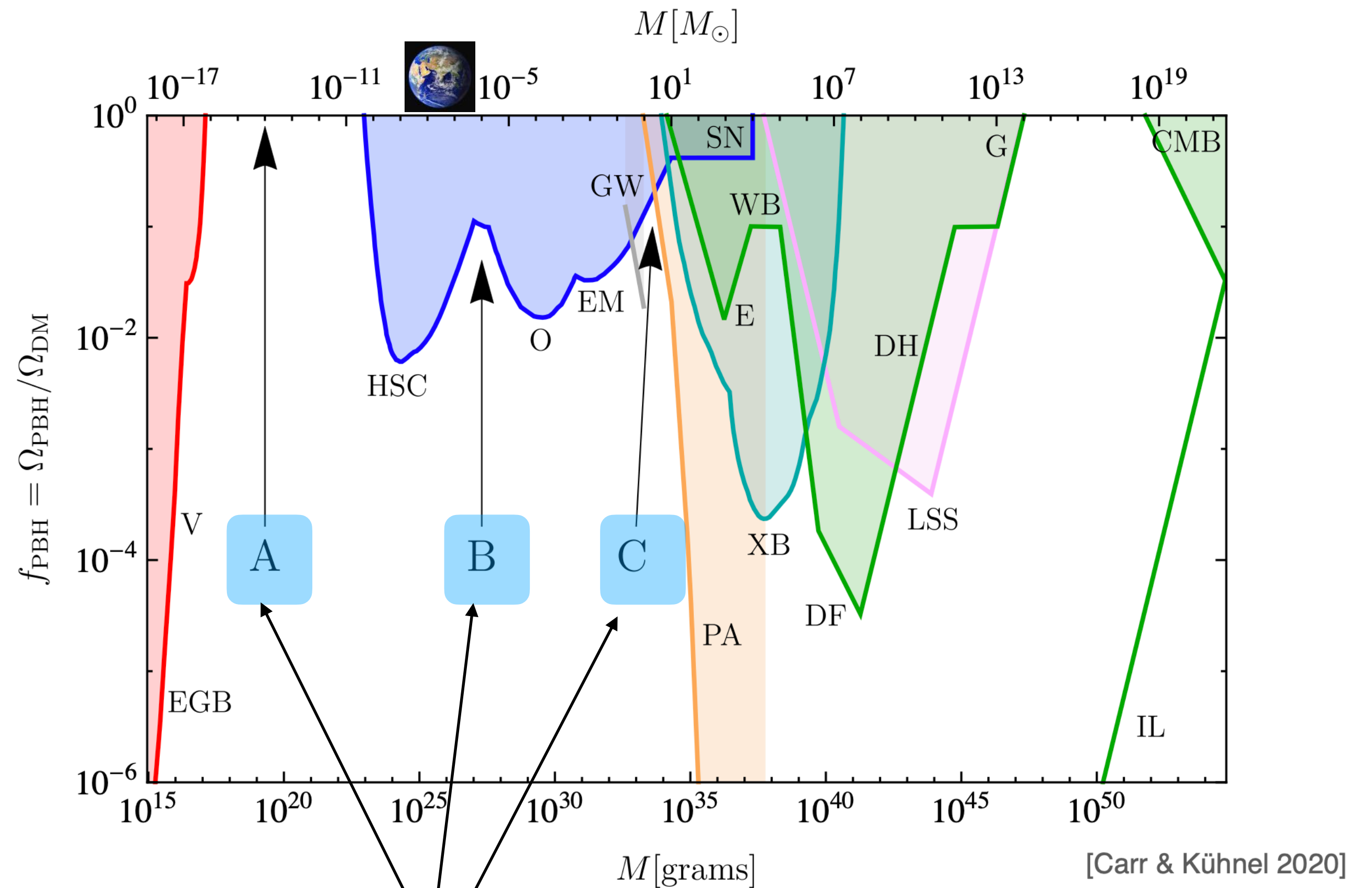
Primordial Black Holes

(See Kuhnel's talk at DSU2022 + papers)

OGLE detected events (0.1-0.3 days light curve timescale)
 18/58 events consistent with 2-5 Msol PBH



[Niikura *et al.* 2019]



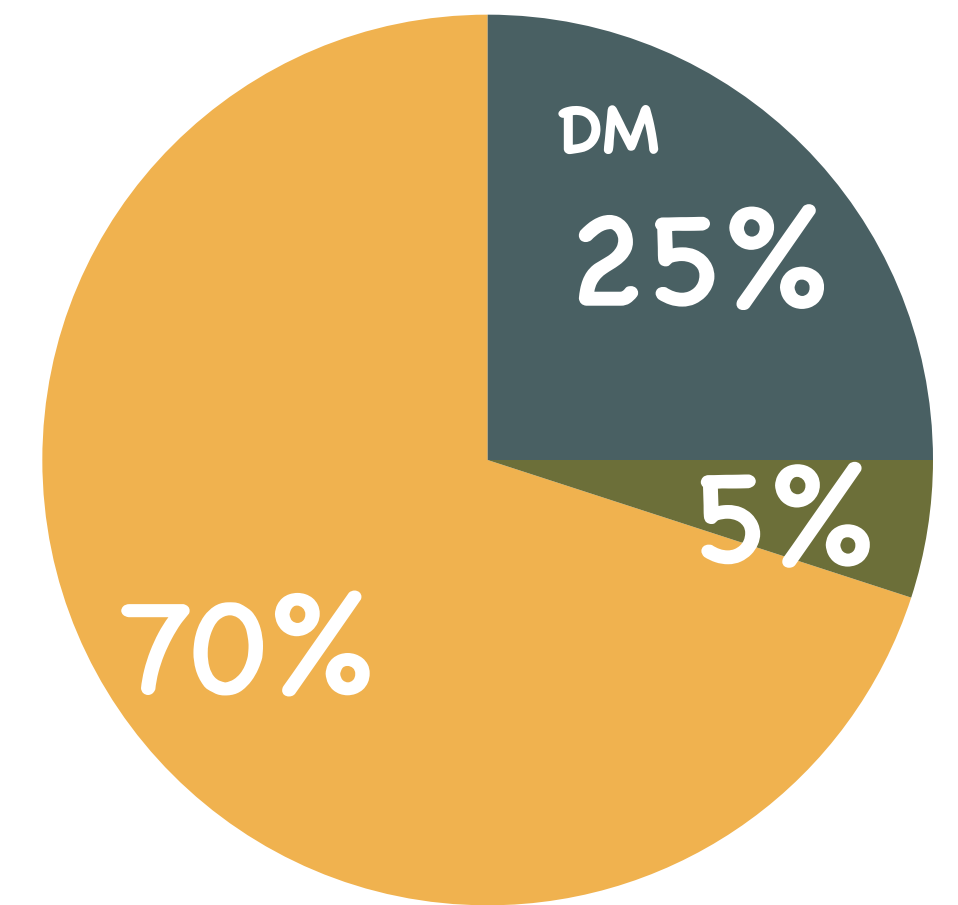
[Carr & Kühnel 2020]

DM?

The “missing mass” beyond Standard Physics

"Dark Matter"

Also Hut 1977



VOLUME 39

25 JULY 1977

NUMBER 4

Cosmological Lower Bound on Heavy-Neutrino Masses

Benjamin W. Lee^(a)

Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory,^(b) Batavia, Illinois 60510

and

Steven Weinberg^(c)

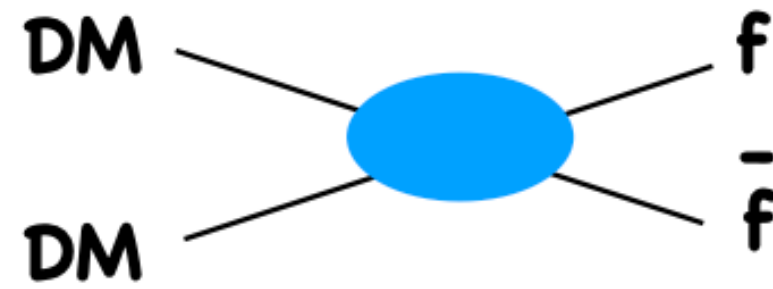
Stanford University, Physics Department, Stanford, California 94305

(Received 13 May 1977)

The present cosmic mass density of possible stable neutral heavy leptons is calculated in a standard cosmological model. In order for this density not to exceed the upper limit of $2 \times 10^{-29} \text{ g/cm}^3$, the lepton mass would have to be *greater* than a lower bound of the order of **2 GeV**.

$$m_\nu < 2\text{eV} \text{ or } m_\nu > 2\text{GeV}$$

Massive weakly interacting particles



Collisionless (to avoid dissipation) but annihilation

Thermal DM

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = -3Hn - \sigma v(n^2 - n_0^2) \rightarrow \Omega h^2 \simeq \frac{3 \times 10^{-27} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}}{\langle \sigma v \rangle}$$

Planck 2018

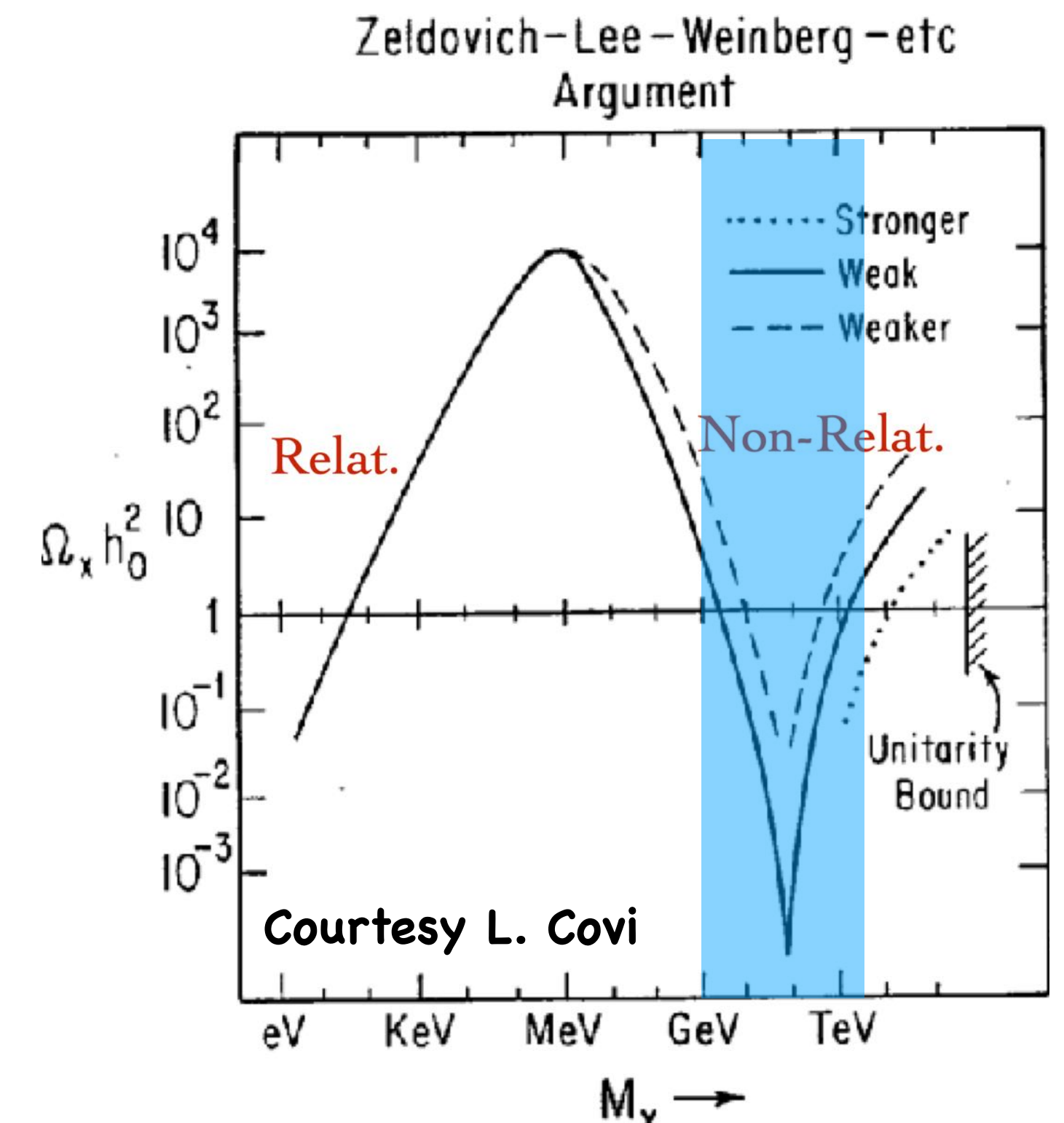
Hut, Lee & Weinberg 77

Add some hypothesis about the DM nature (heavy neutrino)

$$\sigma v \propto \frac{m_{DM}^2}{m_W^4}$$

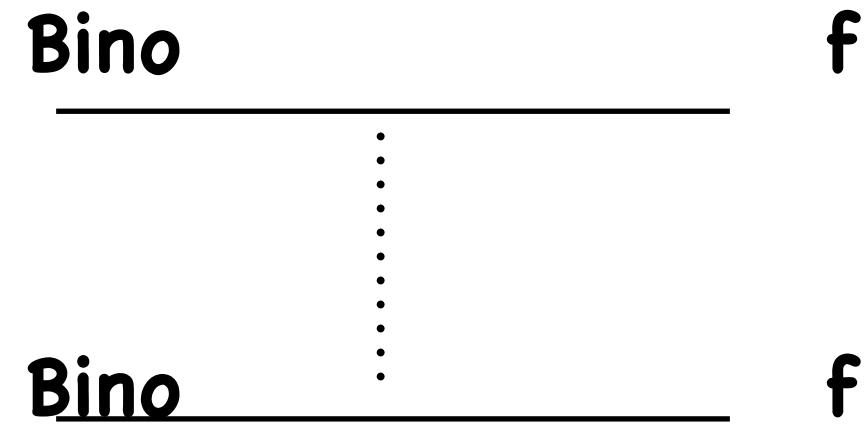
Impose that this cross section explains the relic density

$$\sigma v \propto \frac{m_{DM}^2}{m_W^4} \simeq 3 - 10 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$$



Supersymmetric WIMPs

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/hep-ph/9810360.pdf>



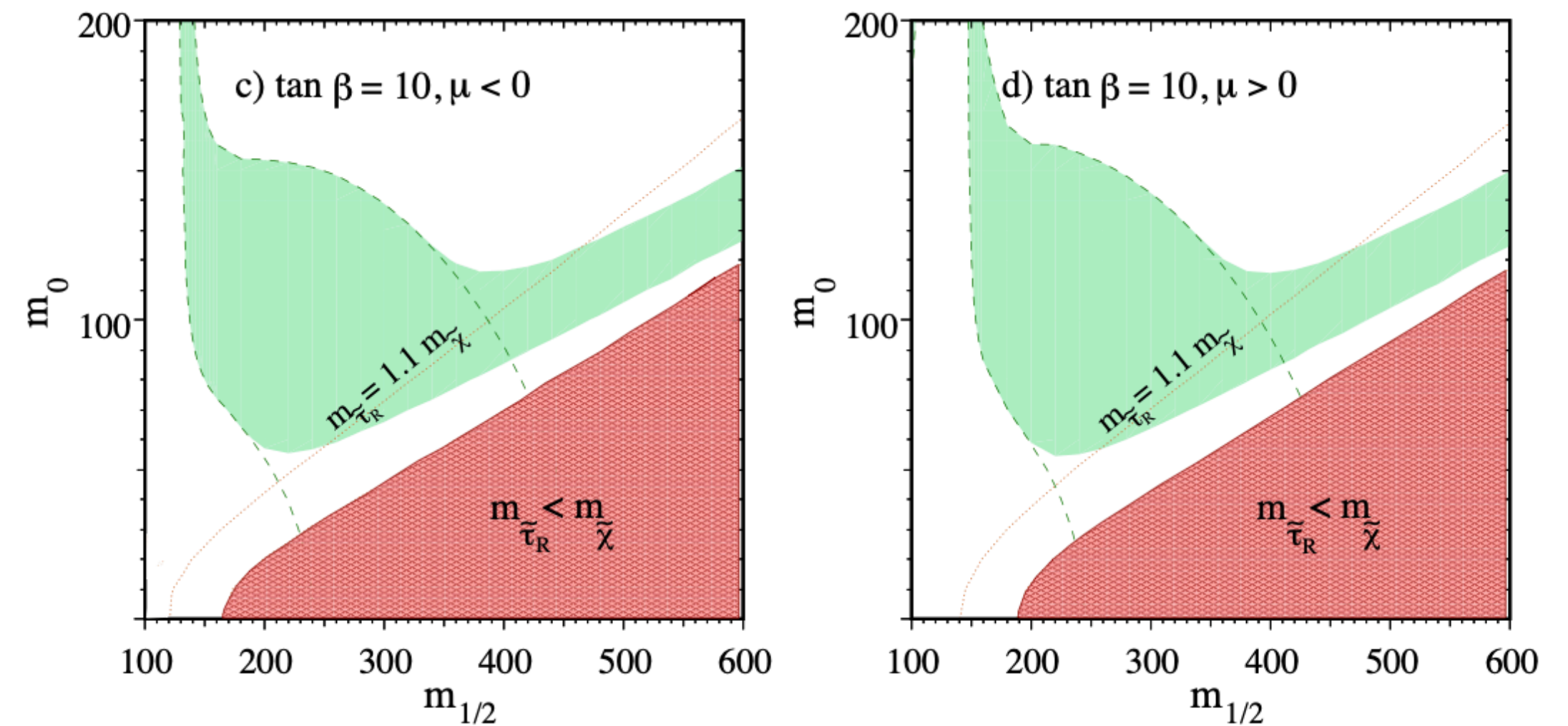
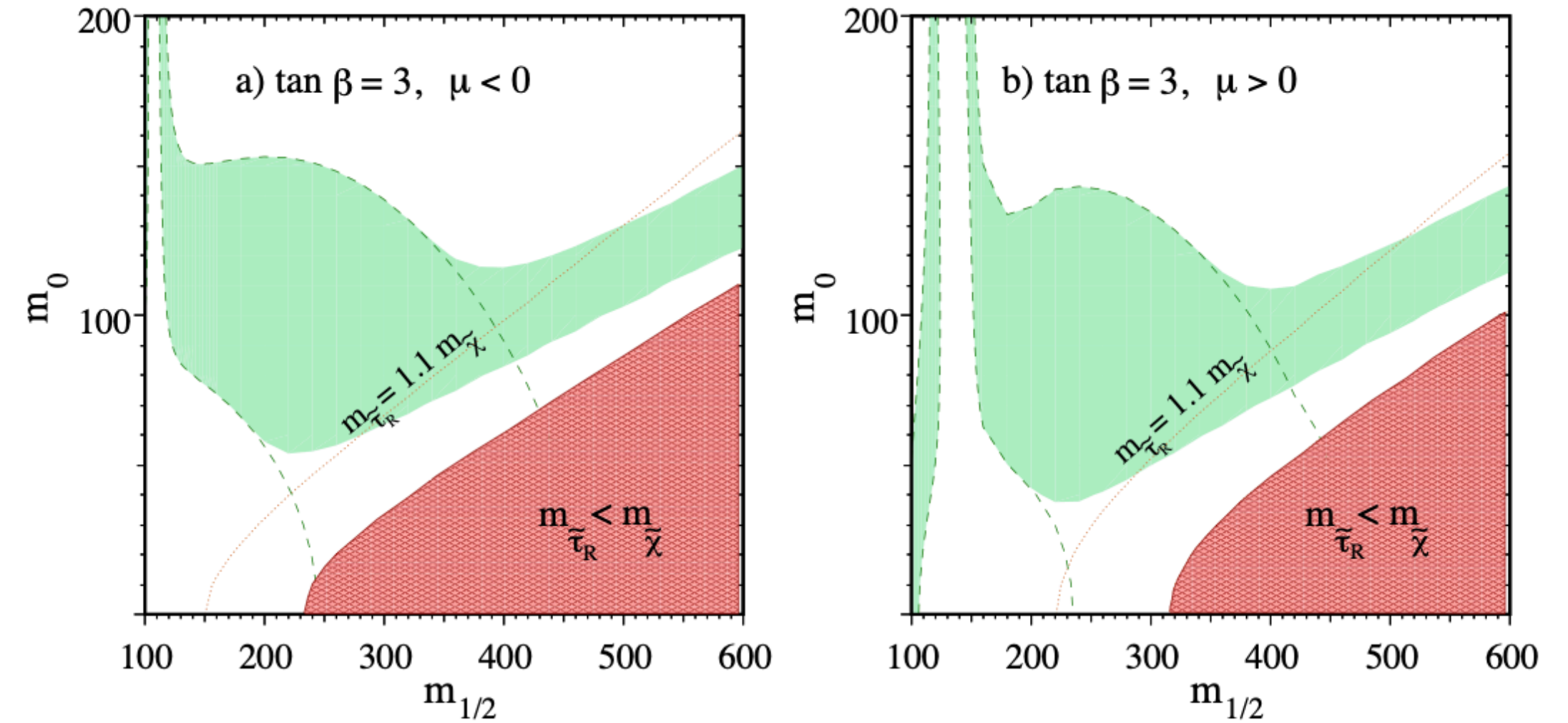
$$\langle\sigma v\rangle = \left(1 - \frac{m_f^2}{m_{\tilde{B}}^2}\right)^{1/2} \frac{g_1^4}{128\pi} \left[(Y_L^2 + Y_R^2)^2 \left(\frac{m_f^2}{\Delta_f^2}\right) + (Y_L^4 + Y_R^4) \left(\frac{4m_{\tilde{B}}^2}{\Delta_f^2}\right) (1 + \dots) x \right]$$

Table 1: Initial and Final States for Coannihilation: $\{i, j = \tau, e, \mu\}$

Initial State	Final States
$\tilde{\ell}_R^i \tilde{\ell}_R^{i*}$	$\gamma\gamma, ZZ, \gamma Z, W^+W^-, hh, \ell^i \bar{\ell}^i$
$\tilde{\ell}_R^i \tilde{\ell}_R^j$	$\ell^i \ell^j$
$\tilde{\ell}_R^i \tilde{\ell}_R^{j*}, i \neq j$	$\ell^i \bar{\ell}^j$
$\tilde{\ell}_R^i \tilde{\chi}$	$\ell^i \gamma, \ell^i Z, \ell^i h$

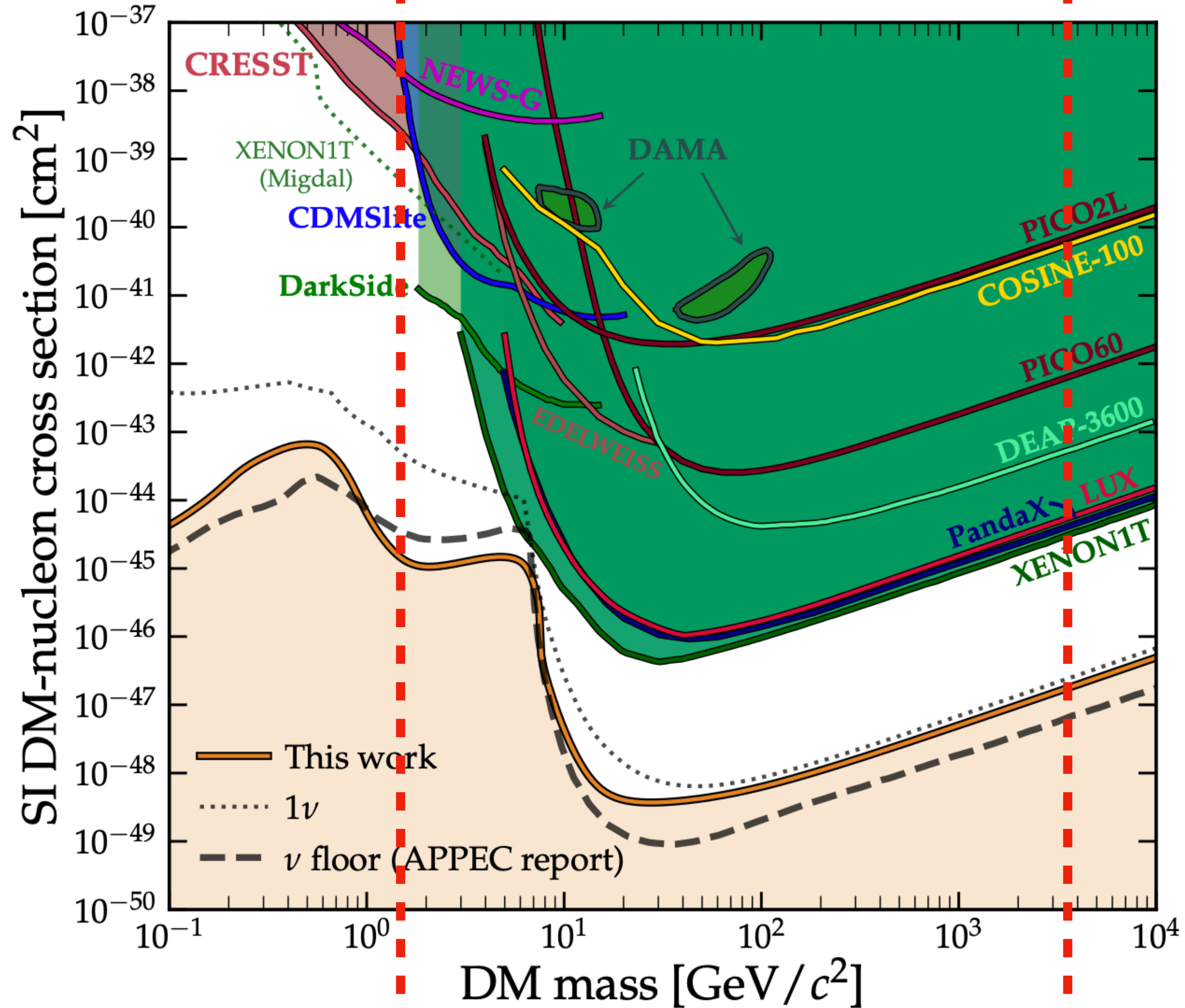
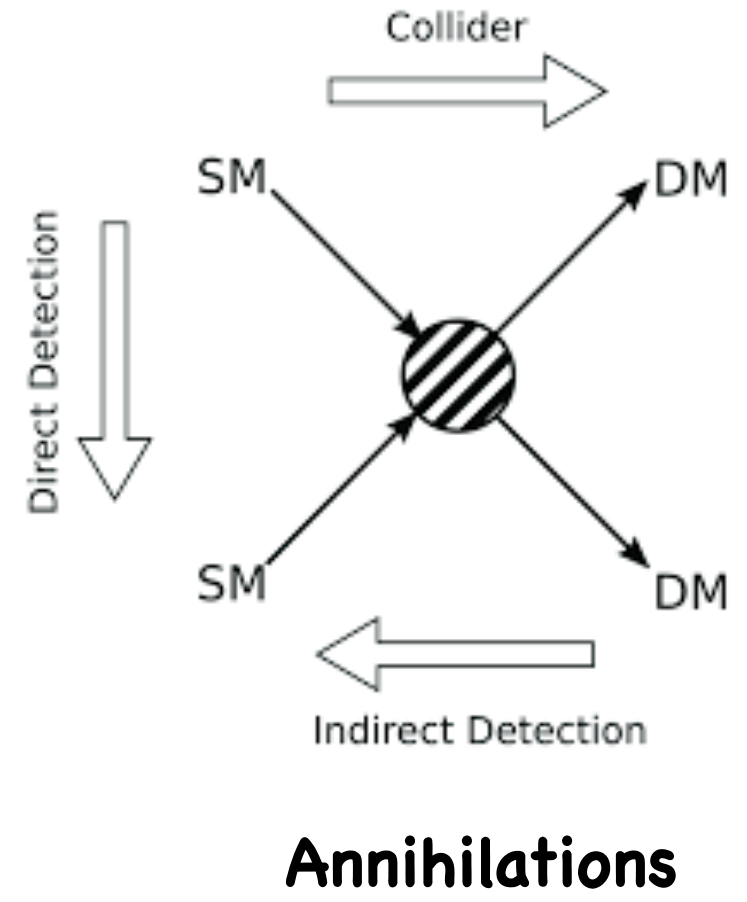
Neutralino mass \gg GeV and within the reach of LHC (or just at the limit)

Neutralino-stau co-annihilation



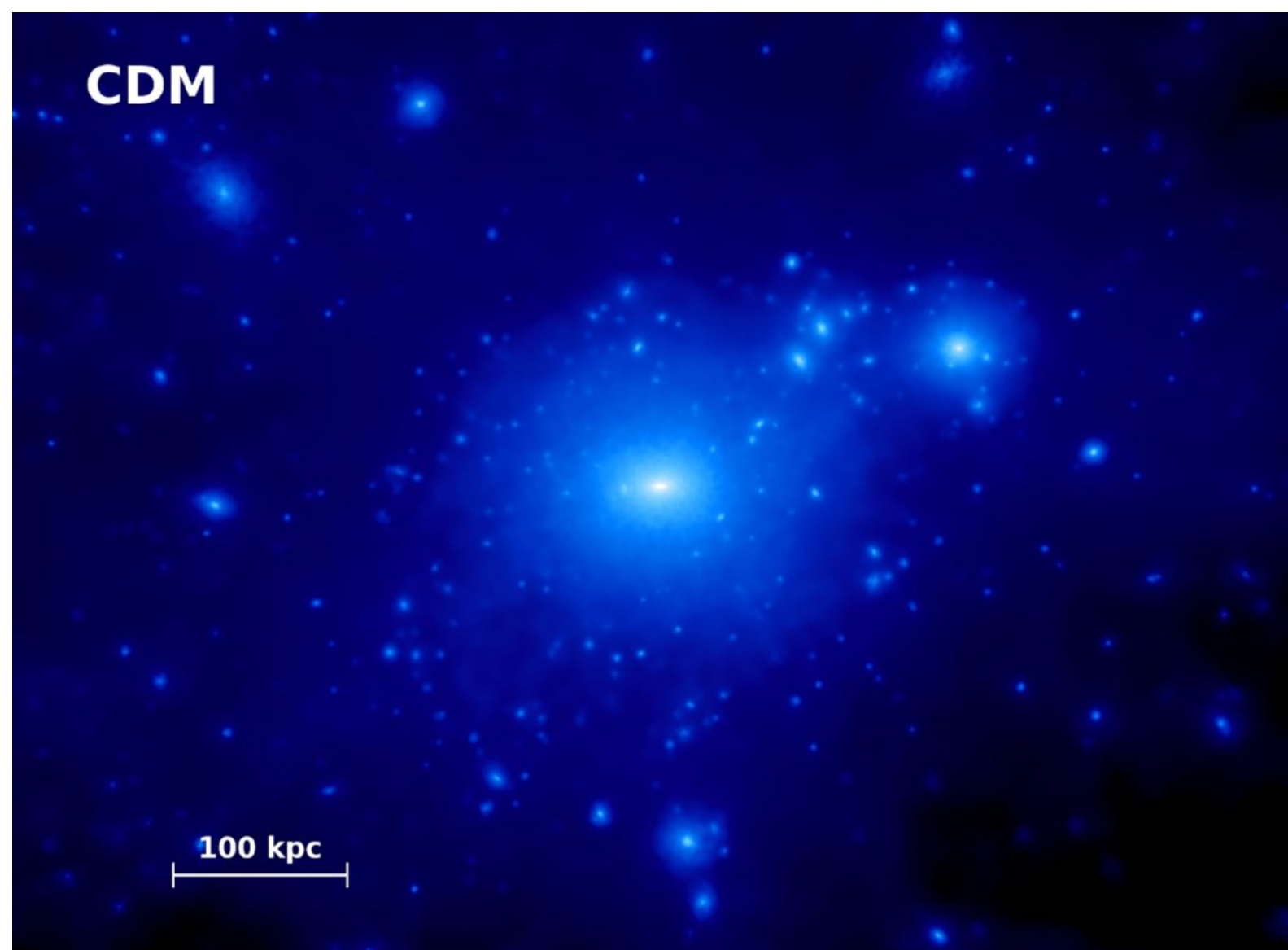
Direct detection constraints

arXiv:2109.03116



But here is a contradiction

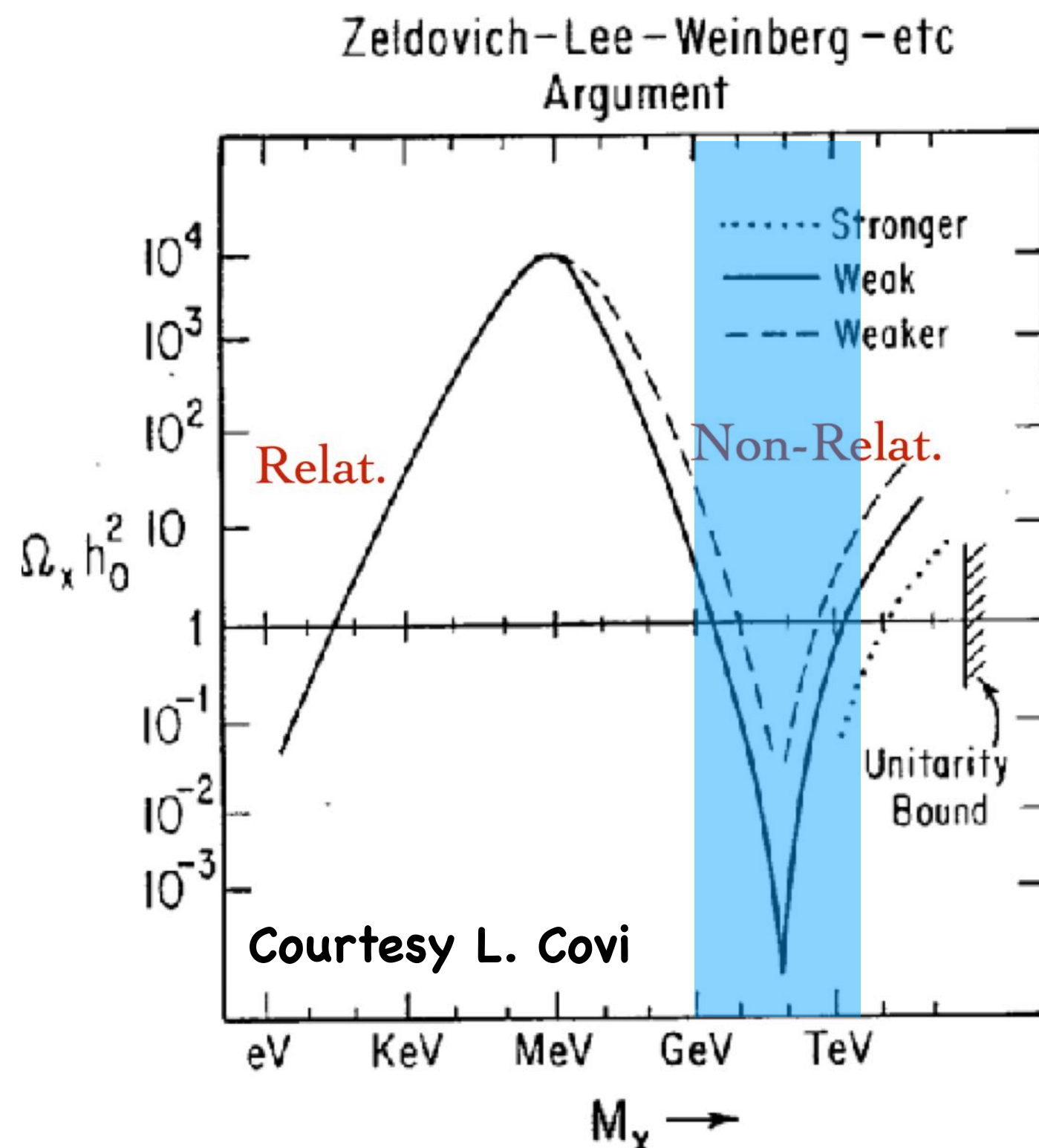
Dark matter is supposedly collisionless
but it does annihilate and therefore
must be heavier than a proton



Cosmology $\sigma = 0$	Particle Physics $\sigma_{ann} \sim \sigma_{weak}$	Cosmology $\sigma_{SIDM} \sim \sigma_T$
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Hold on...

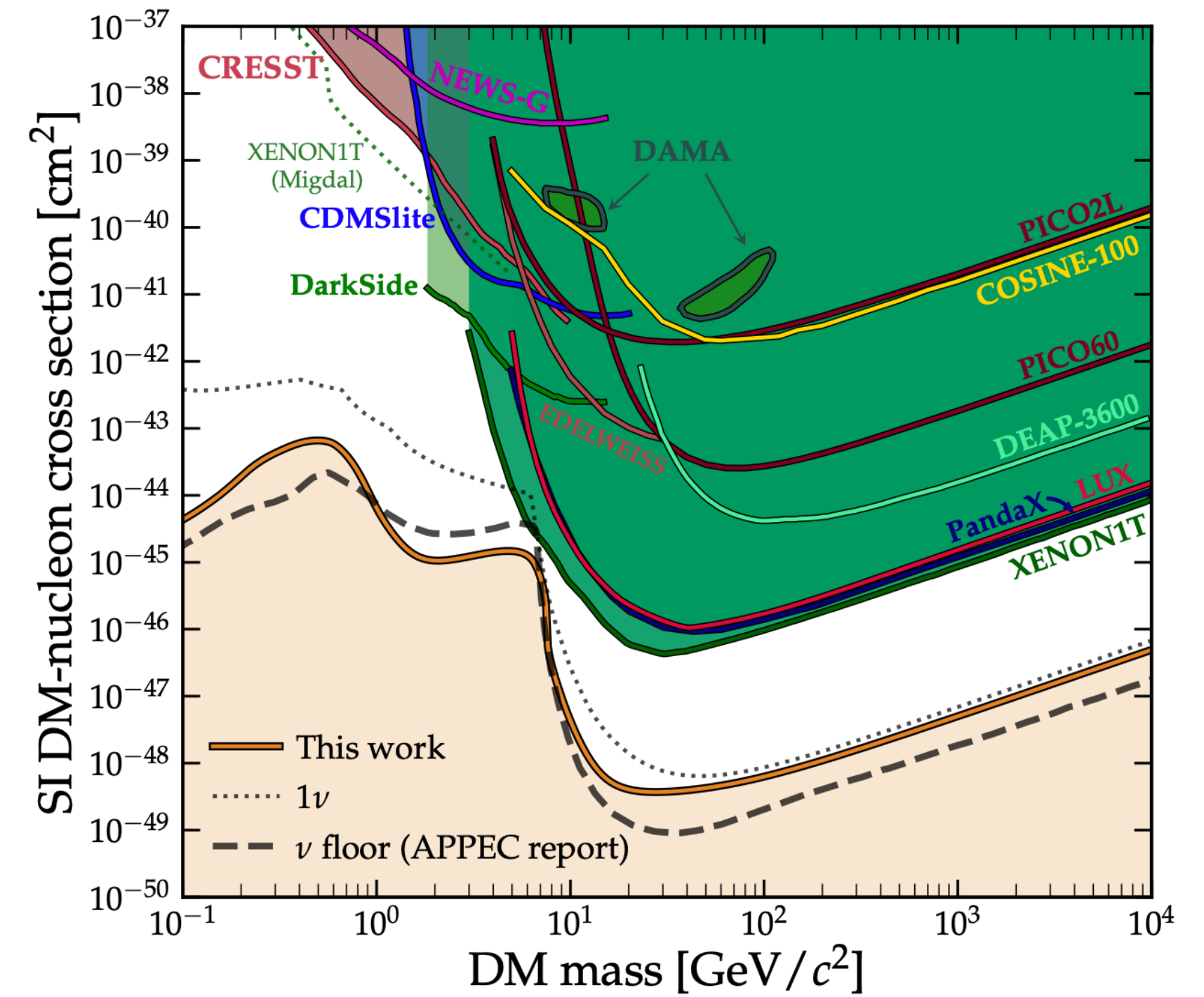
Collisionless but annihilations



DM is heavy



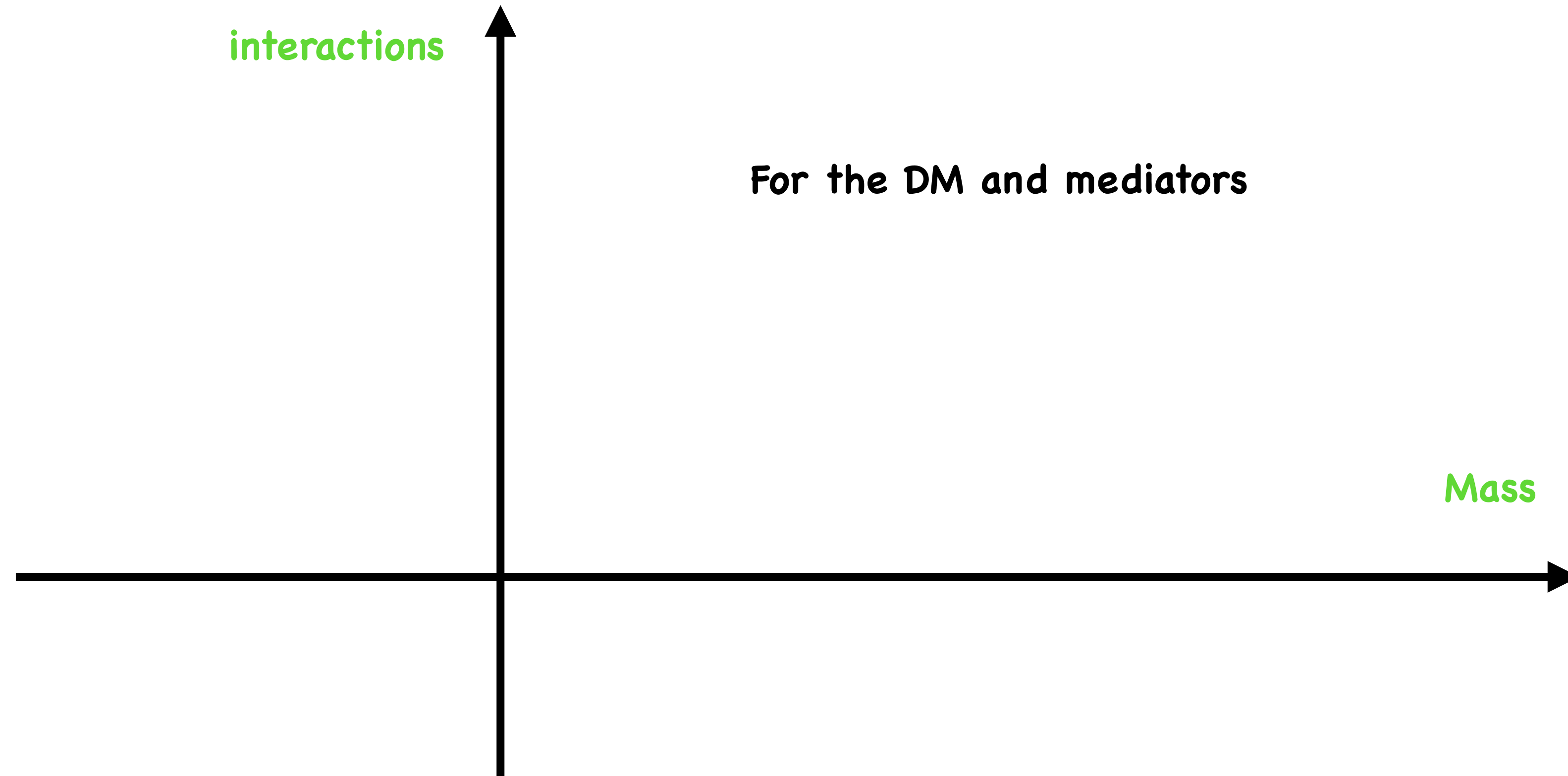
Scattering with nuclei



So DM can scatter off SM particles???

How to characterise Dark Matter?

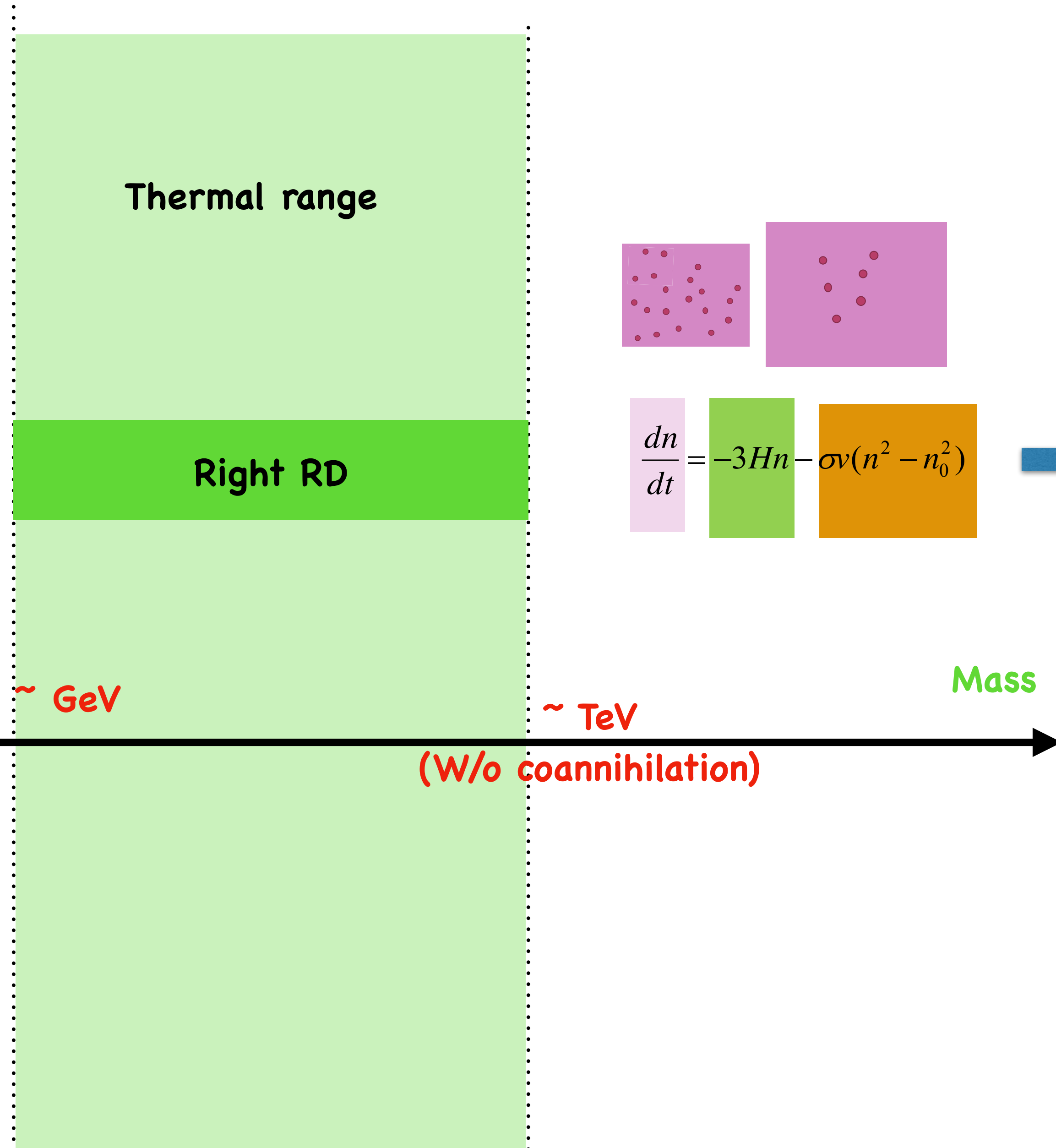
GR + $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1) \times ??$



Mass, spin, Quantum numbers, interactions...

Dark Matter mass range (historically)

interactions



$$\Omega h^2 \simeq \frac{3 \times 10^{-27} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}}{\langle \sigma v \rangle}$$

Parameter	Plik best fit
$\Omega_b h^2$	0.022383
$\Omega_c h^2$	0.12011
$100\theta_{\text{MC}}$	1.040909
τ	0.0543
$\ln(10^{10} A_s)$	3.0448
n_s	0.96605
$\Omega_m h^2$	0.14314
H_0 [km s ⁻¹ Mpc ⁻¹] ...	67.32
Ω_m	0.3158
Age [Gyr]	13.7971
σ_8	0.8120
$S_8 \equiv \sigma_8(\Omega_m/0.3)^{0.5}$..	0.8331
z_{re}	7.68
$100\theta_*$	1.041085
r_{drag} [Mpc]	147.049

$$\sigma v \sim 3 \cdot 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$$

Range of interactions is given by experimental value & error bars ¹⁴⁸

**How can we constrain the elastic scattering
other than by using detectors?**

Effect of collisions in cosmology

letters to nature

Nature **215**, 1155 - 1156 (09 September 1967); doi:10.1038/2151155a0

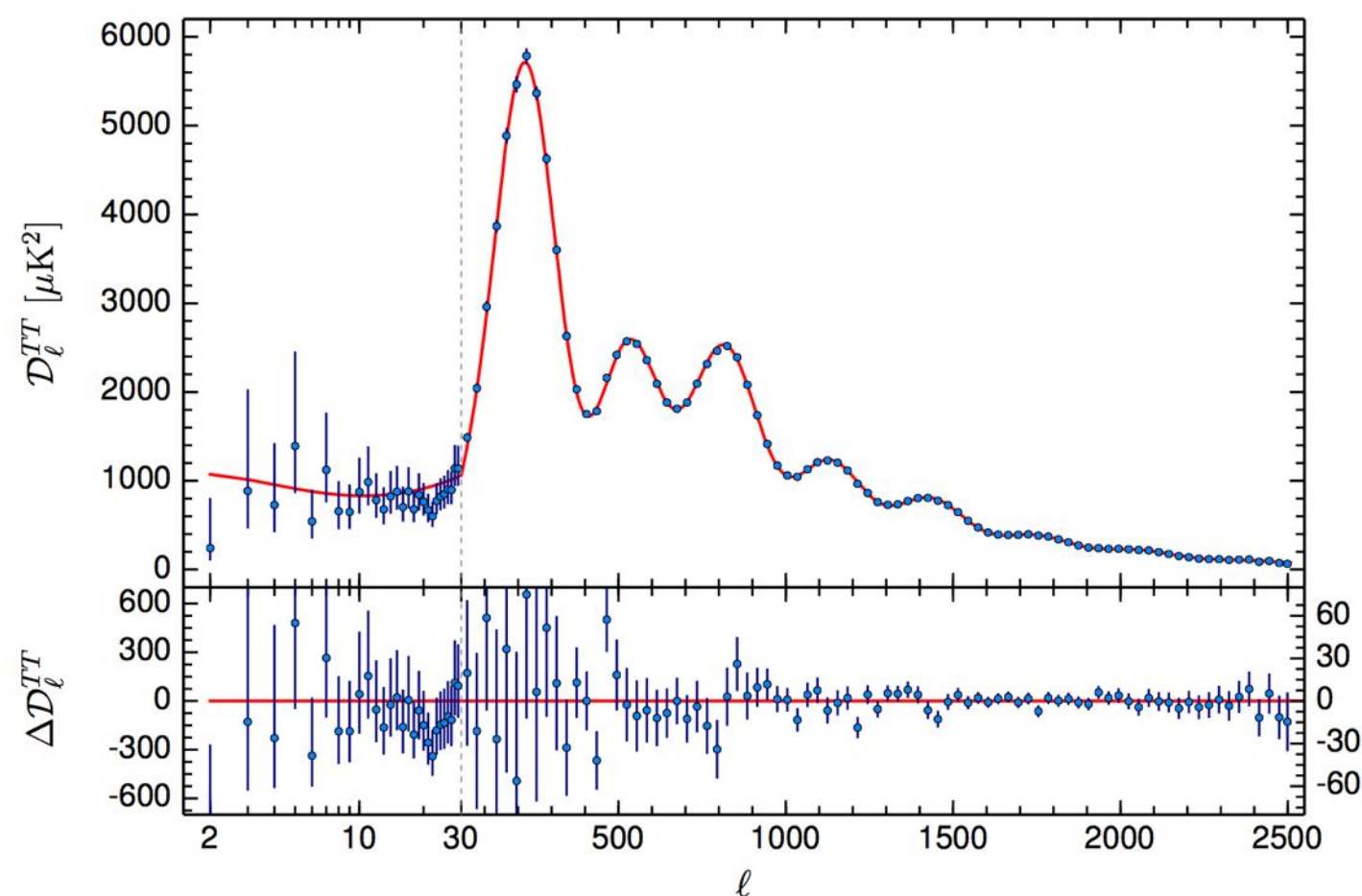
Fluctuations in the Primordial Fireball

JOSEPH SILK

Harvard College Observatory, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

ONE of the overwhelming difficulties of realistic cosmological models is the inadequacy of Einstein's gravitational theory to explain the process of galaxy formation¹⁻⁶. A means of evading this problem has been to postulate an initial spectrum of primordial fluctuations⁷. The interpretation of the recently discovered 3° K microwave background as being of cosmological origin^{8,9} implies that fluctuations may not condense out of the expanding universe until an epoch when matter and radiation have decoupled⁴, at a temperature T_D of the order of 4,000° K. The question may then be posed: would fluctuations in the primordial fireball survive to an epoch when galaxy formation is possible ?

Planck Collaboration: The *Planck* mission



Silk damping

**The photon fluctuations are erased
but so are baryonic fluctuations!**

And the rest can also be erased due to free-streaming

Effect of collisions in cosmology

Silk damping revisited

$$l_{Silk}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \int^{t_{dec(b-\gamma)}} \frac{c^2 \rho_\gamma}{\rho_{tot} a^2 \Gamma_\gamma} (1 + \Theta_\gamma) dt$$

Boehm-Schaeffer 2000, 2004 using Weinberg 1971 & Chapman, Cowling 1970

Generalising the Silk damping

$$l_{cd}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \sum_i \int^{t_{dec(DM-i)}} \frac{v_i^2 \rho_i}{\rho_{tot} a^2 \Gamma_i} (1 + \Theta_i) dt$$

And the free-streaming

$$l_{fs}^2 \propto \int_{t_{dec(DM)}}^{t_0} \frac{v}{a(t)} dt$$

Maximising the collisional damping

$$l_{DM-\gamma}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \int^{t_{dec(DM-\gamma)}} \frac{c^2 \rho_\gamma}{\rho_{tot} a^2 \Gamma_\gamma} dt$$

~ Silk damping

$$l_{DM-\nu}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \int^{t_{dec(DM-\nu)}} \frac{c^2 \rho_\nu}{\rho_{tot} a^2 \Gamma_\nu} dt$$

New and new regime (Like b- ν interactions by Misner 1966)

$$l_{DM-b}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \int^{t_{dec(DM-b)}} \frac{v^2 \rho_b}{\rho_{tot} a^2 \Gamma_b} dt$$

Inefficient unless dark Coulomb interactions

$$l_{DM-DM}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \int^{t_{dec(DM-DM)}} \frac{v^2 \rho_{DM}}{\rho_{tot} a^2 \Gamma_{DM}} dt$$

Self-Interacting

DM-neutrino collisional damping

$$l_{DM-\nu}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \int^{t_{dec(DM-\nu)}} \frac{c^2 \rho_\nu}{\rho_{tot} a^2 \Gamma_\nu} dt \quad \text{with} \quad \Gamma_\nu \equiv \sum_i \Gamma_{dec(\nu-i)}$$

	SM	BSM
Collisional damping	$\Gamma_{\nu-e} > \Gamma_{\nu-DM}$ $\Gamma_\nu > \Gamma_{DM-\nu}$	$\Gamma_{\nu-DM} > \Gamma_{\nu-e}$ $\Gamma_\nu > \Gamma_{DM-\nu}$
Mixed damping	$\Gamma_{\nu-e} > \Gamma_{\nu-DM}$ $\Gamma_{DM-\nu} > \Gamma_\nu$	$\Gamma_{\nu-DM} > \Gamma_{\nu-e}$ $\Gamma_{DM-\nu} > \Gamma_\nu$

$$l_{DM-\nu}^2 \simeq \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \int^{t_{dec(DM-\nu)}} \frac{c^2 \rho_\nu}{\rho_{tot} a^2 H} dt$$

DM stays coupled to free-streaming neutrinos (i.e. $< \text{MeV}$): the lighter the DM, the more efficient

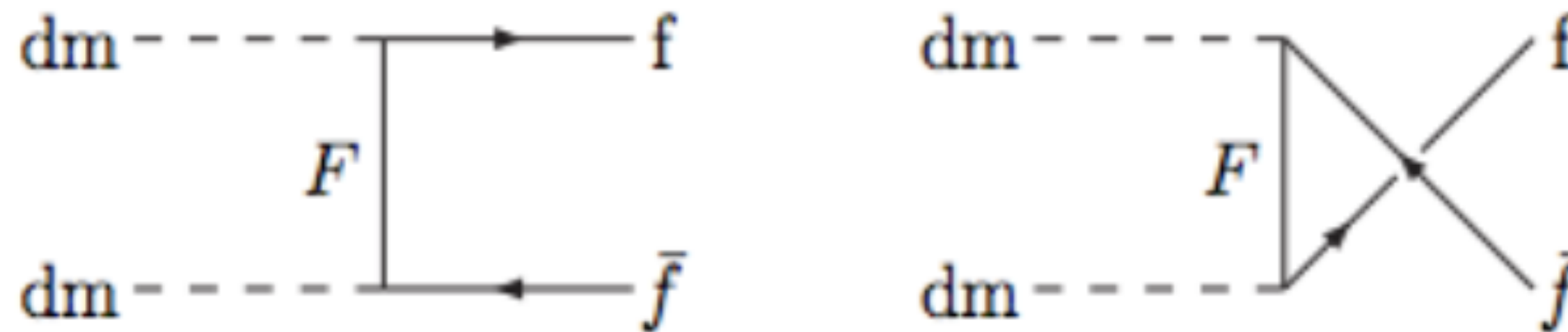
Can the annihilation cross section be independent of the dark matter mass?

Can dark matter be lighter than a proton?

hep-ph/0305261

$$\Omega h^2 \simeq \frac{3 \times 10^{-27} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}}{\langle \sigma v \rangle} \quad \oplus \quad \sigma v \propto \frac{m_{DM}^2}{m_W^4} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{GeV DM}$$

Take a scalar instead of a fermion and assume new interactions

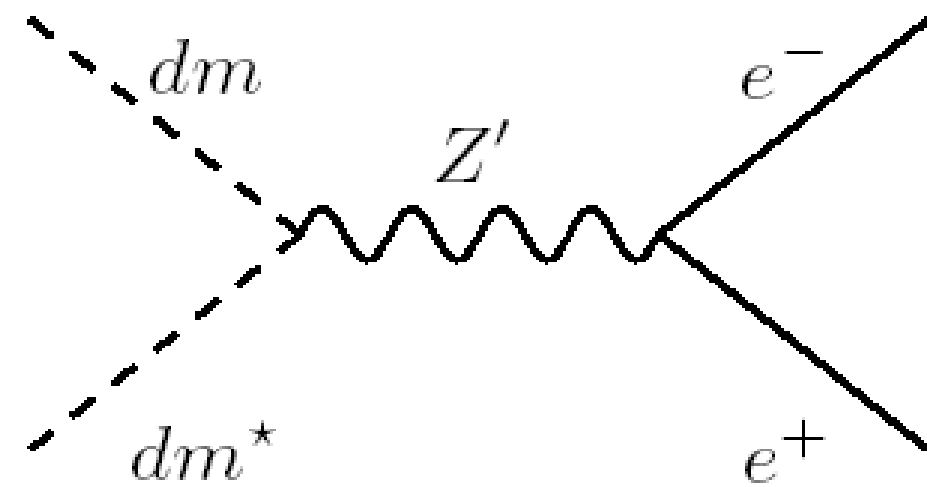


$$\sigma v \propto \frac{1}{m_F^4} \left((C_l^2 + C_r^2) m_f + 2C_l C_r m_F \right)^2 \quad \longrightarrow \quad \sigma v \propto \frac{C_l^2 C_r^2}{m_F^2}$$

Imposing a specific value for sigma doesn't constrain mdm so DM can be light and it is ok!

Evading the Lee-Weinberg limit

Boehm & Fayet hep-ph/0305261



$$\sigma v \propto v^2 \frac{m_{\text{DM}}^2}{m_{Z'}^4} g_{\text{DM}}^2 g_e^2$$

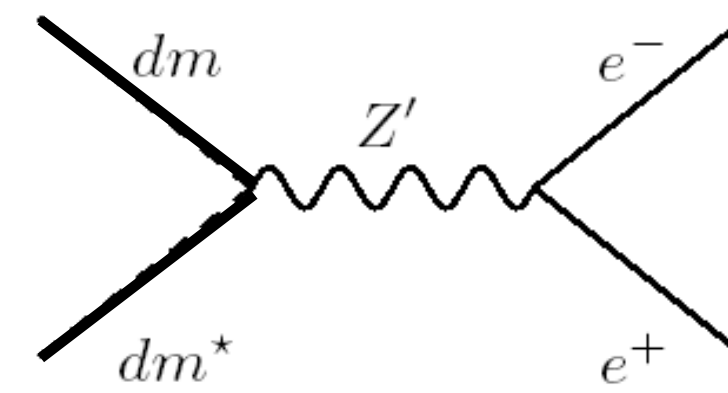
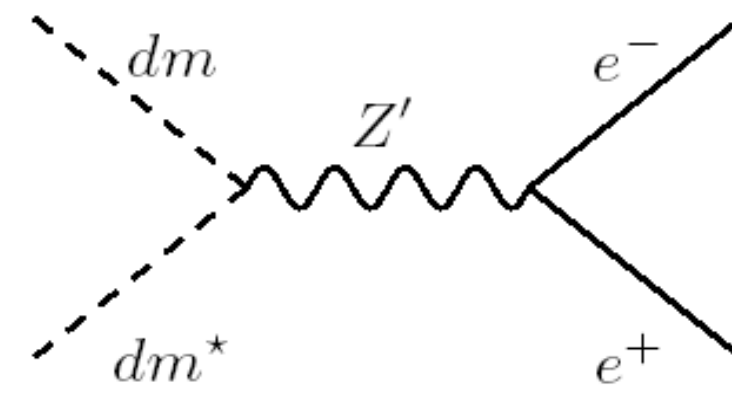
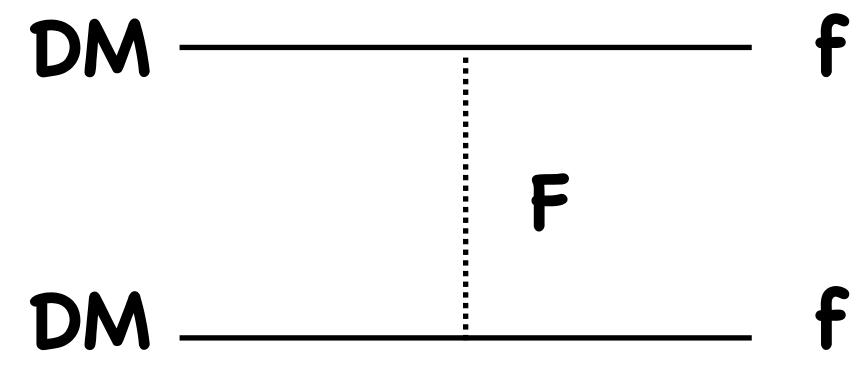
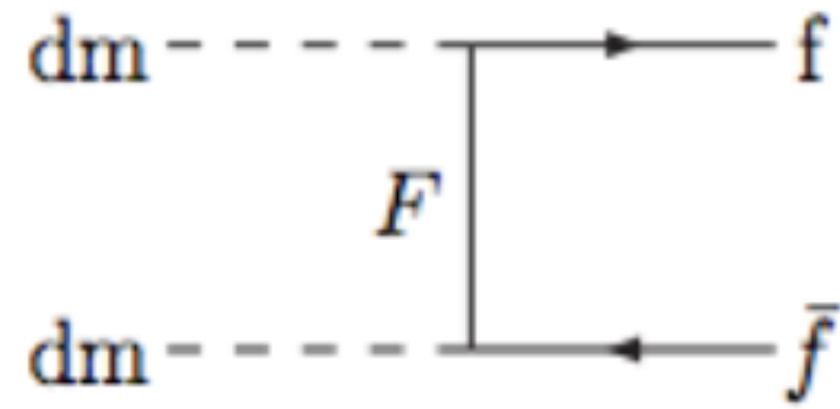
P-wave (but D-wave can be important too)

Depends on the DM mass but the cross section can have the right value if $m_{\text{DM}} = m_{Z'}$

\Rightarrow viable solution for light DM provided that the dark mediator/dark photon is light

Dark Photons/ Z' were used afterwards in a different context: Pamela anomaly, DAMA, Ultra Light DM etc

MeV-GeV range DM : which mediators?



NMSSM-like: light scalar and pseudo scalar (Higgs-like) mediators

Axions?

Spin 3/2?

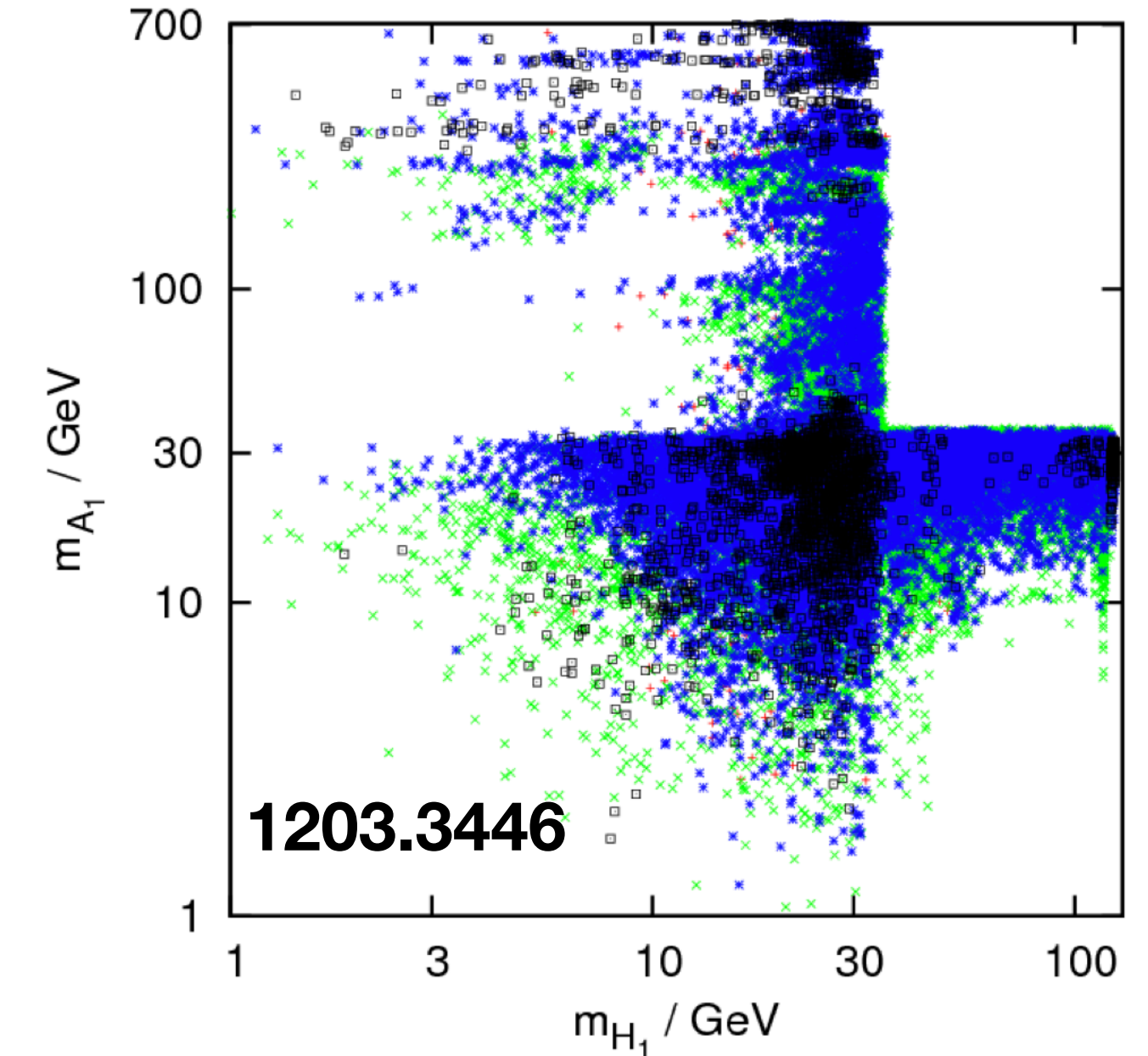
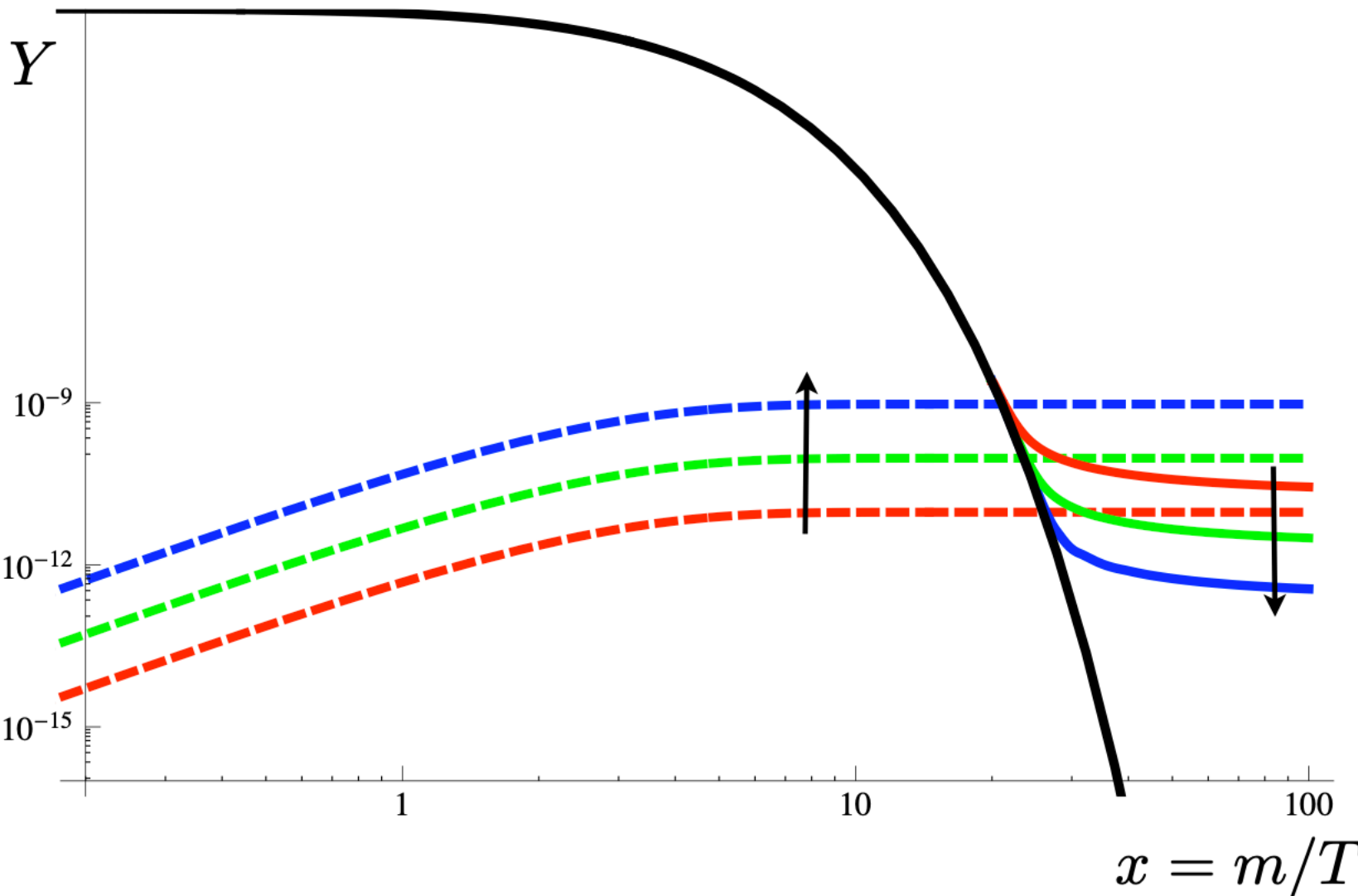
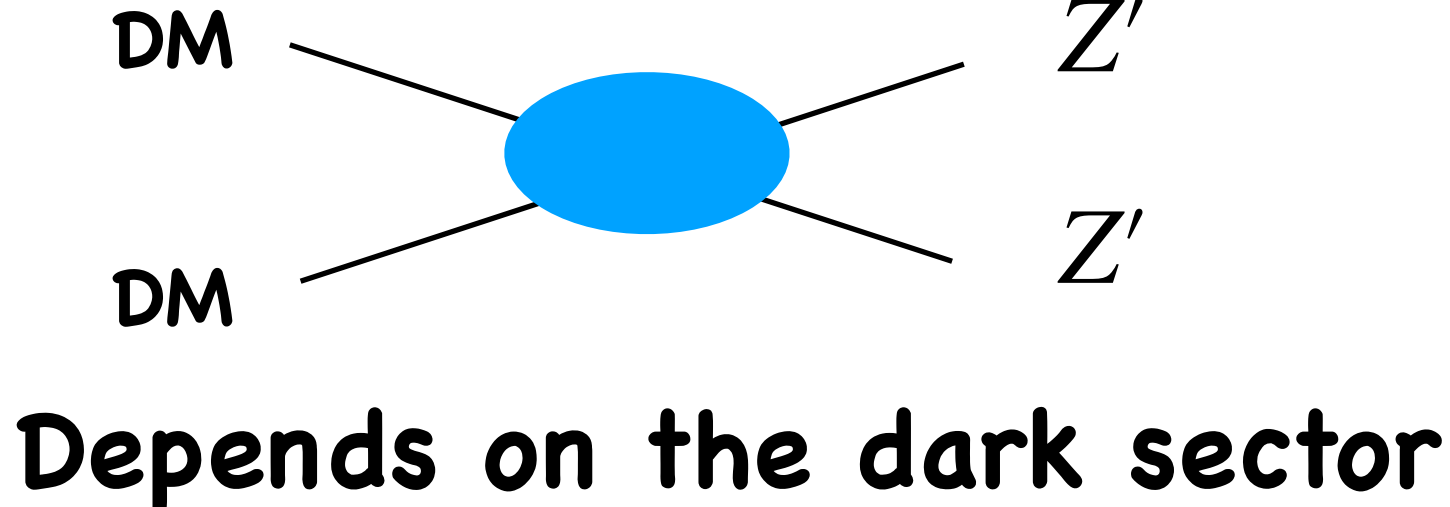
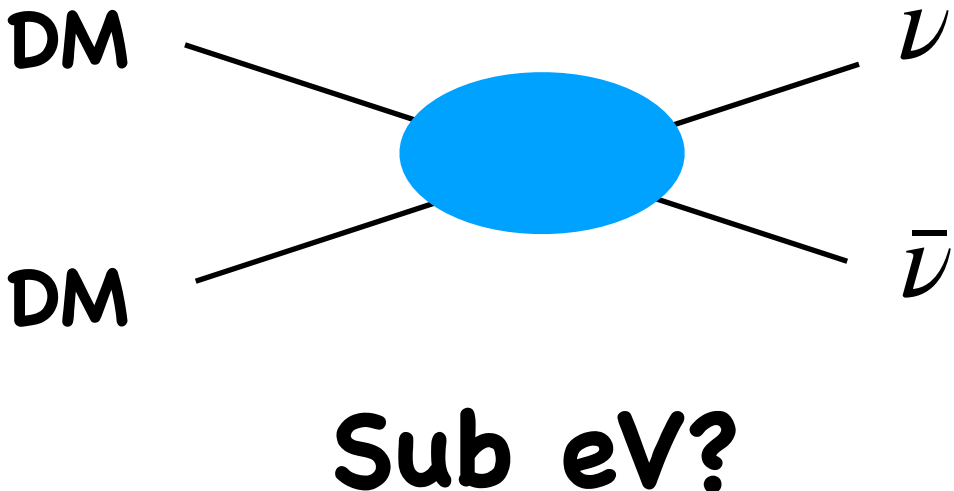
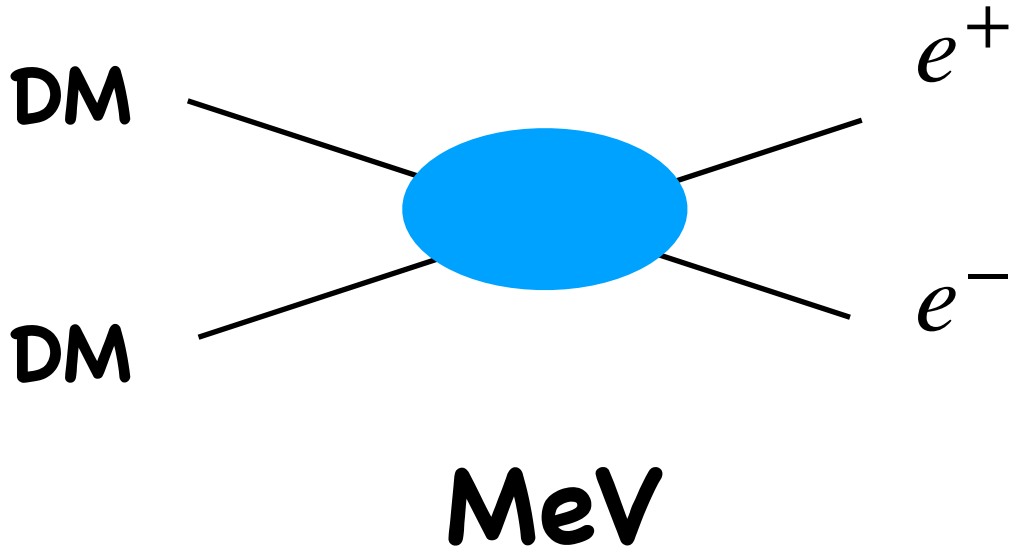


FIG. 2: Masses of the Higgs scalars H_1, H_2 and pseudoscalar A_1 . Red points are ruled out either by HiggsBounds constraints or the ATLAS 1fb^{-1} jets and missing E_T SUSY search. Green points have no Higgs with a mass in 122 – 128 GeV, blue points have a Higgs (H_1 and/or H_2) within this mass range, and black points have such a Higgs with $R_{gg\gamma\gamma} > 0.4$.

Burst of alternative models/thinking

DM can be lighter than a proton but how low can it be?



Should there be annihilations at all?

Asymmetric DM, Freeze-in, non thermal DM

Can annihilating Dark Matter be lighter than a few GeVs?

C. Boehm¹, T. A. Enßlin², J. Silk¹

¹ *Denys Wilkinson Laboratory, Astrophysics Department, OX1 3RH Oxford, England UK;*

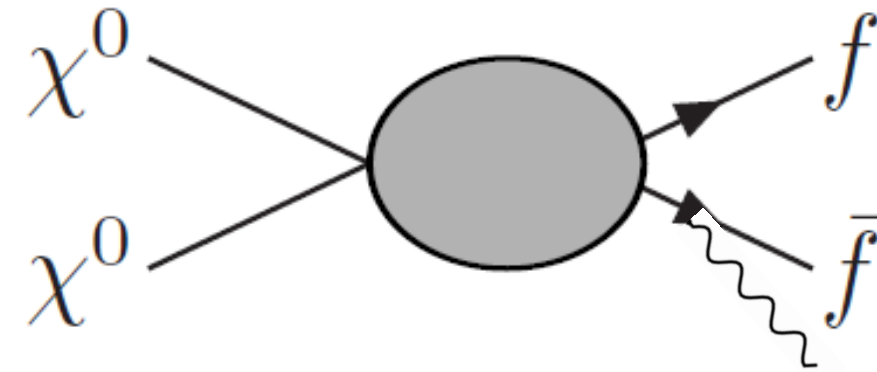
² *Max-Planck-Institut für Astrophysik Karl-Schwarzschild-Str. 1, Postfach 13 17, 85741 Garching*

(Dated: 22 August 2002)

We estimate the gamma ray fluxes from the residual annihilations of Dark Matter particles having a mass $m_{dm} \in [\text{MeV}, O(\text{GeV})]$ and compare them to observations. We find that particles lighter than $O(100 \text{ MeV})$ are excluded unless their cross section is S-wave suppressed.

astro-ph/0208458

Dark Matter haloes



Annihilation for RD needs to be p-wave!

	α	β	γ	r_s kpc	$F(\theta)$			$\Phi / (\langle \sigma v_r \rangle_{26} m_{\text{GeV}}^{-2})$ $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
					1°	10°	45°	
NFW	1	3	1	25	0.077	0.62	1.7	$5.9 \cdot 10^{-6}$
KRA	2	3	0.2	11	$1.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$	0.014	0.15	$7.5 \cdot 10^{-8}$
ISO	2	2	0	4	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-4}$	0.011	0.08	$1.8 \cdot 10^{-7}$
BE	1	3	0.3	4	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-4}$	0.004	0.01	$4.1 \cdot 10^{-6}$

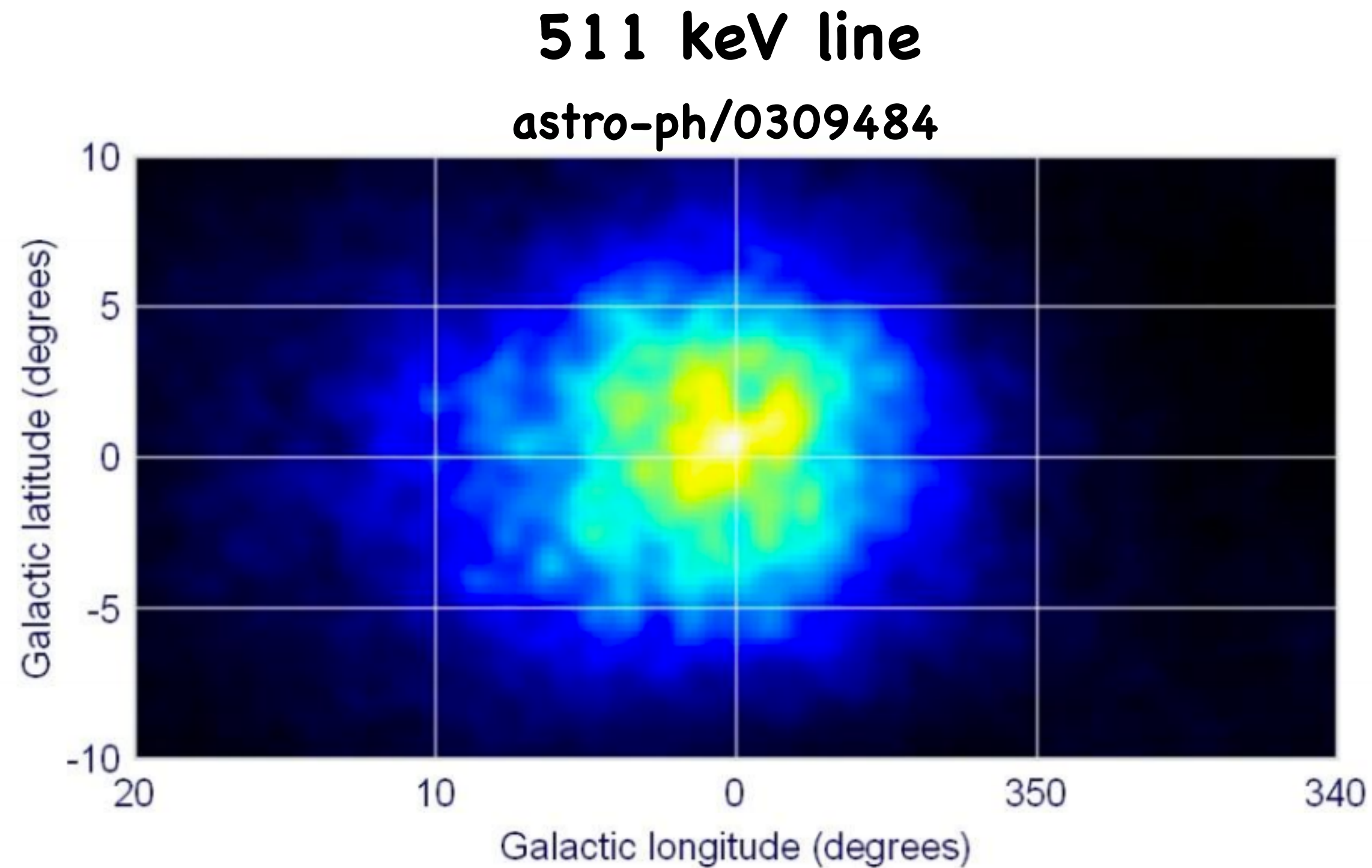
TABLE I: Angular function $F(\theta)$ and central γ -ray flux $\Phi(< 1.5^\circ)$ for different galactic DM profiles, $R_{\text{sol}} = 8.5 \text{ kpc}$ and ρ_0 chosen so that $\rho(R_{\text{sol}}) = 0.3 \text{ GeV}/c^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ [23].

	α	β	γ	r_s kpc	D Mpc	ρ_0 $\text{GeV}/c^2 \text{ cm}^3$	$\Phi_{cl} / (\langle \sigma v_r \rangle_{26} m_{\text{GeV}}^{-2})$ $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
C-NFW	1	3	1	$0.25/h$	$70/h$	$0.090h^2$	$5.3 \cdot 10^{-10} h^3$
C- β -pr.	2	2.25	0	$0.2/h$	$70/h$	$0.13h^2$	$8.8 \cdot 10^{-10} h^3$
V-NFW	1	3	1	0.56	15	0.012	$2.4 \cdot 10^{-9}$
V- β -pr.	2	1.41	0	0.015	15	0.76	$3.0 \cdot 10^{-9}$

TABLE II: Expected fluxes from the Coma (C) and Virgo (V) cluster for different DM profiles [24]. For the β -profile of Virgo, only the flux within 1 Mpc is given. $h = 0.7$.

Astrophysical implications of light dark matter

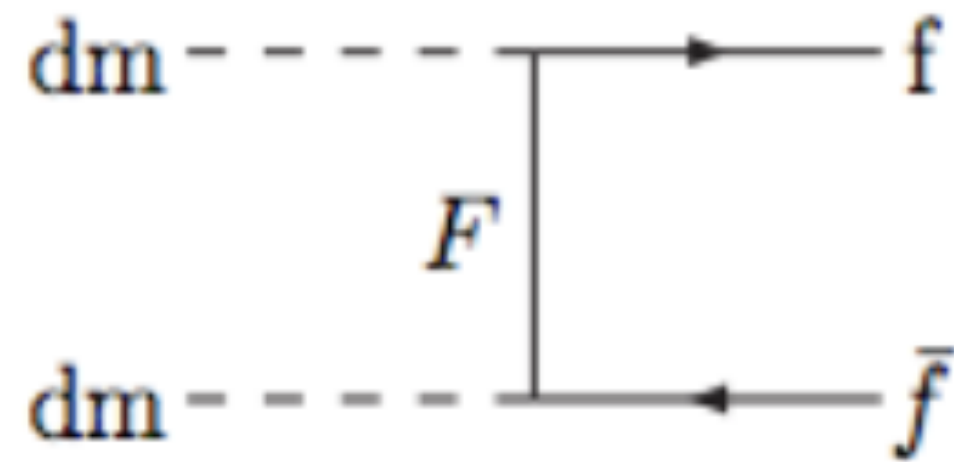
DM DM \rightarrow $e^+ e^-$ **Positronium formation** \rightarrow $\gamma\gamma$ 511 keV (para)
 $\gamma\gamma\gamma$ continuum (ortho)



Morphology of 511 keV line in agreement with DM distribution [astro-ph/0309686](#)

Astrophysical implications of light dark matter

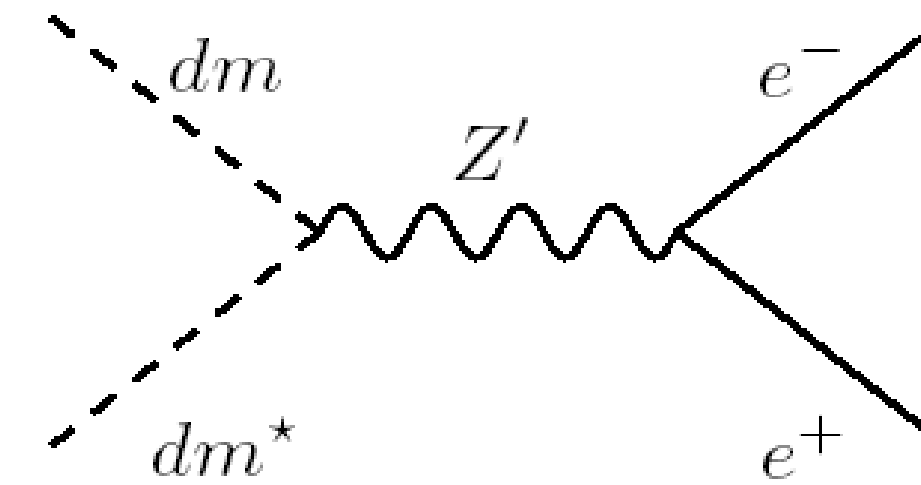
[astro-ph/0507142](https://arxiv.org/abs/astro-ph/0507142)



Can explain the observed 511 keV morphology
But cannot explain the relic abundance

Could explain the observed flux (with scalar dark matter)

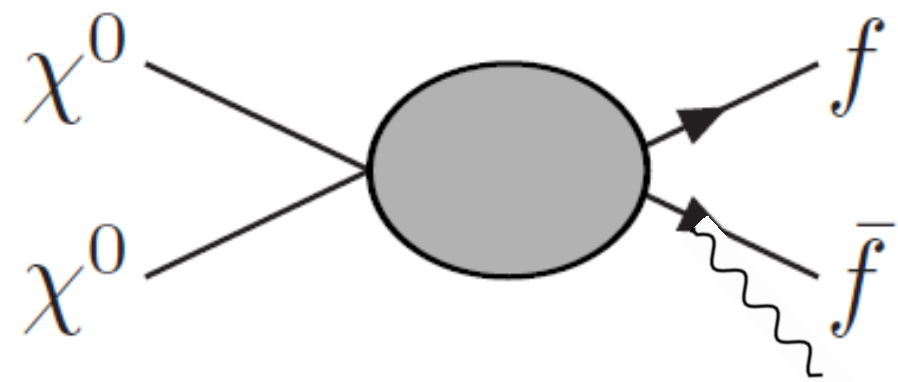
$$\frac{m_F}{100 \text{ GeV}} \simeq 6 \times 10^3 \frac{c_l c_r}{m_{\text{MeV}}}$$



Cannot explain the 511 keV morphology
But can explain the relic abundance

Not the right channel

Astrophysical implications of light dark matter



Gamma-ray emission

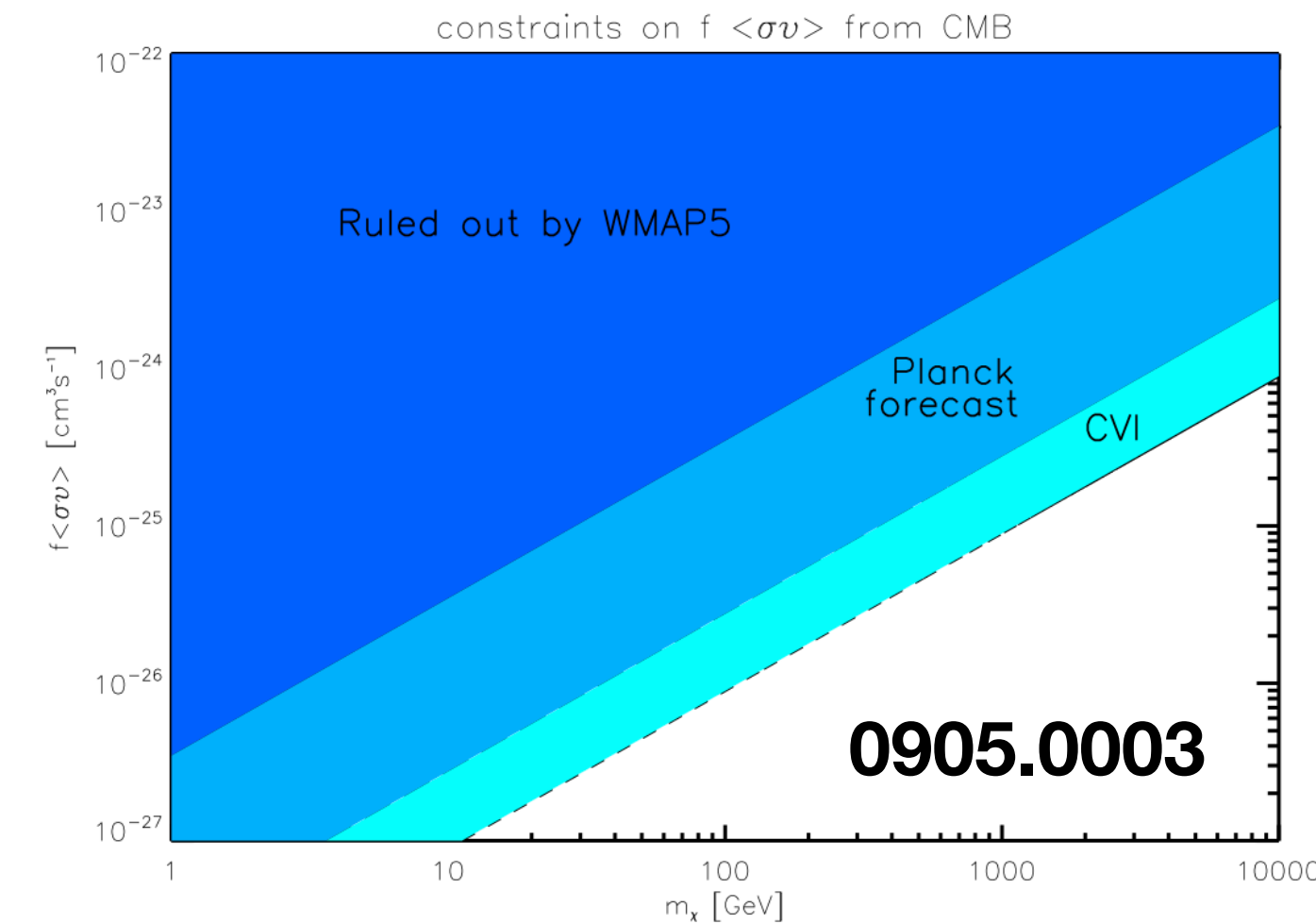
S-wave must be suppressed

P-wave ok

See also by Boudaud et al ([1810.01680](#))

+ X-ray: [2007.11493](#) (Cirelli et al) – strong constraints $m > 20$ MeV

+ CMB study in the context of the 511 keV line in [1301.0819](#)

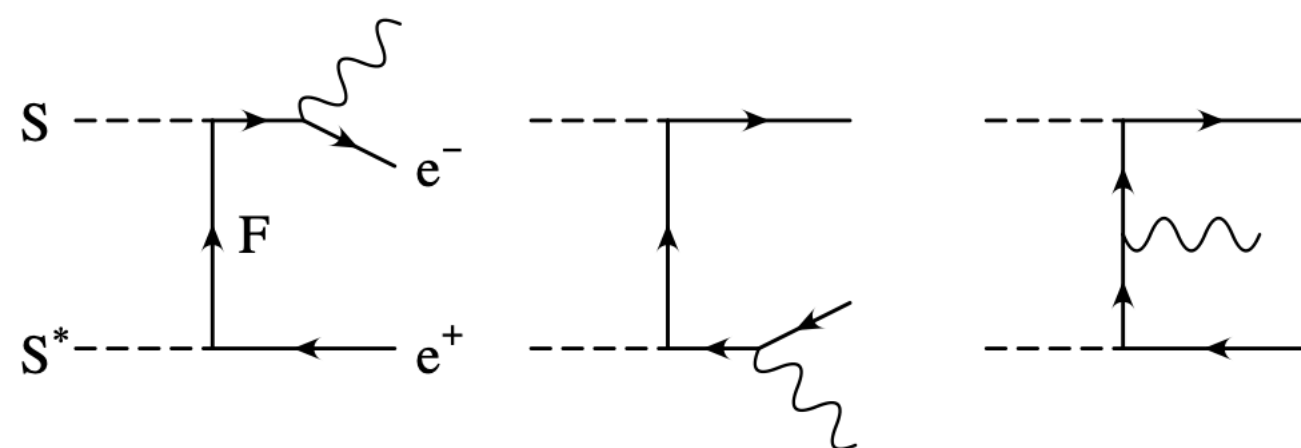


Beacom, Bell & Bertone (0409403)

Using e^+e^- ann into muons

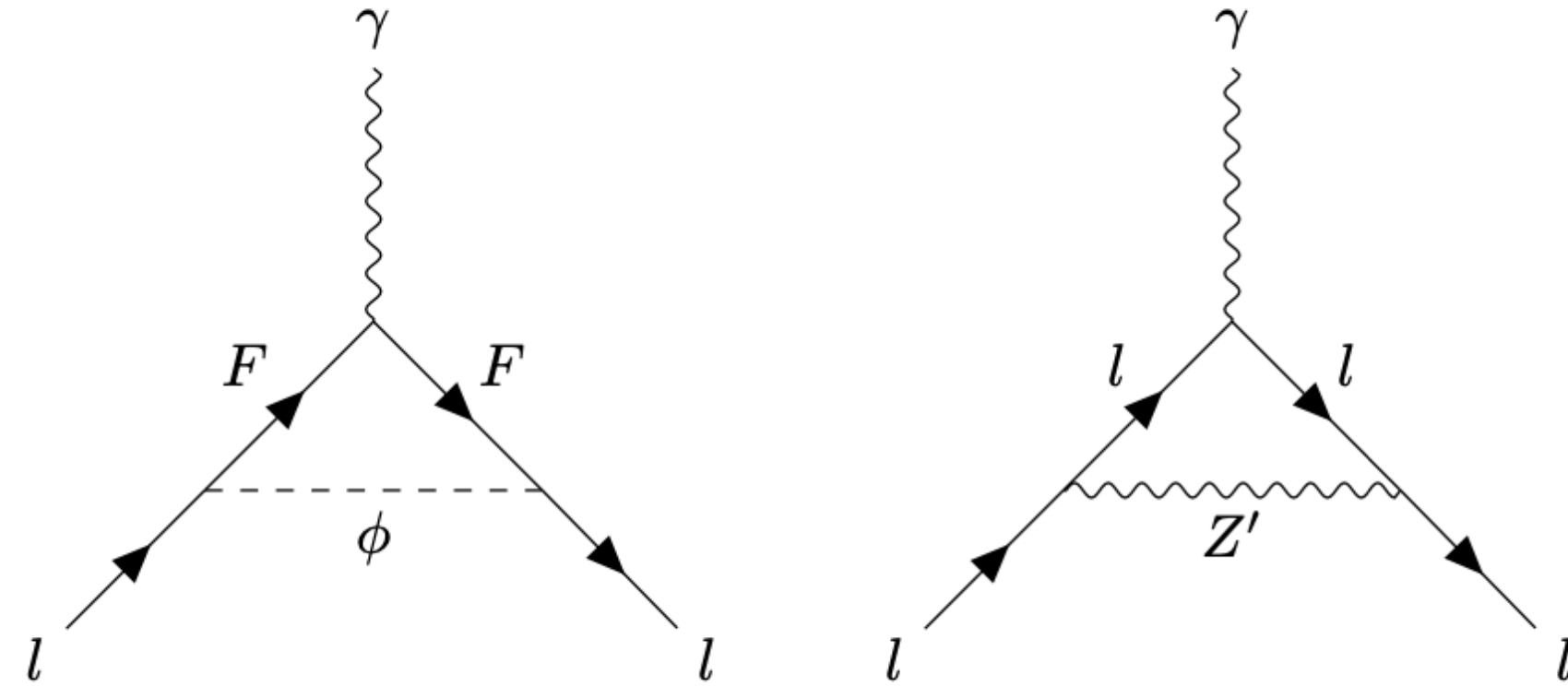
$$\frac{d\sigma_{\text{Br}}}{dE} = \sigma_{\text{tot}} \times \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \frac{1}{E} \left[\ln \left(\frac{s'}{m_e^2} \right) - 1 \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{s'}{s} \right)^2 \right], \quad \text{mdm} < 20 \text{ MeV}$$

Boehm&Uwer (0606058)



$$\frac{d\sigma_{\gamma}}{dx_{\gamma}} \approx \sigma_0 \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \frac{1}{x_{\gamma}} \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{s'^2}{s^2} \right) \ln \left(\frac{s'}{m_e^2} \right) - 2 \frac{s'}{s} \right\}, \quad \text{mdm} < 30 \text{ MeV}$$

g-2 constraints of light dark matter



hep-ph/0305261 :
electron g-2 sets more severe constraints on this model

hep-ph/0405240 hep-ph/0408213 arXiv:0708.2768

More evidence in favour of Light Dark Matter particles? hep-ph/0408213

Celine Boehm, Yago Ascasibar

In a previous work, it was found that the Light Dark Matter (LDM) scenario could be a possible explanation to the 511 keV emission line detected at the centre of our galaxy. Here, we show that hints of this scenario may also have been discovered in particle physics experiments. This could explain the discrepancy between the measurement of the fine structure constant and the value written in the CODATA. Finally, our results indicate that some of the LDM features could be tested in accelerators. Their discovery might favour N=2 supersymmetry.

	F_e	Z'
a_e	$\frac{c_l c_r m_e}{16\pi^2 m_{F_e}}$	$\frac{z_e^2 m_e^2}{12\pi^2 m_{Z'}^2}$
=	$5 \cdot 10^{-12} \sqrt{f} \left(\frac{m_{dm}}{\text{MeV}}\right)$	$10^{-11} \left(\frac{z_e}{7 \cdot 10^{-5}}\right)^2 \left(\frac{m_{Z'}}{\text{MeV}}\right)^{-2}$

To be compared with $a_e \sim 10^{-13}$
DM unlikely to explain the 511 keV line

Constraints on vector-like fermions

arXiv:2010.02954

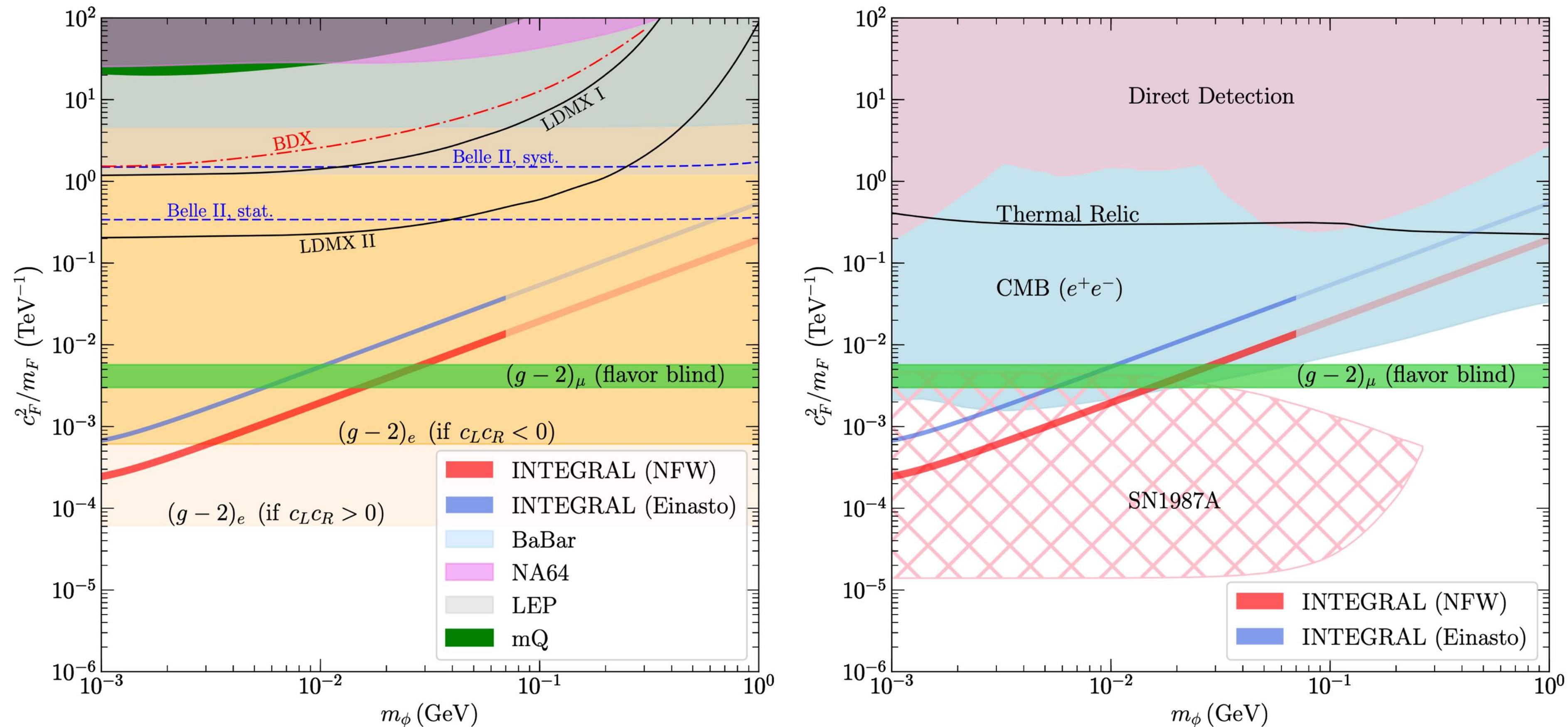


FIG. 6. Bounds on the inverse of effective UV-scale $\Lambda_F^{-1} = c_F^2/m_F$ in the F -mediated model from laboratory experiments (left panel) and from astrophysical observations including direct detection (right panel). The parameter regions of interest for the INTEGRAL excess are shown as thin blue and red bands; for $m_\phi \geq 70$ MeV the DM interpretation is disfavored as indicated by a lighter shading. The green horizontal band where $(g-2)_\mu$ is explained carries the assumption $c_F^\mu = c_F^e$.

Constraints on dark gauge bosons

arXiv:2010.02954

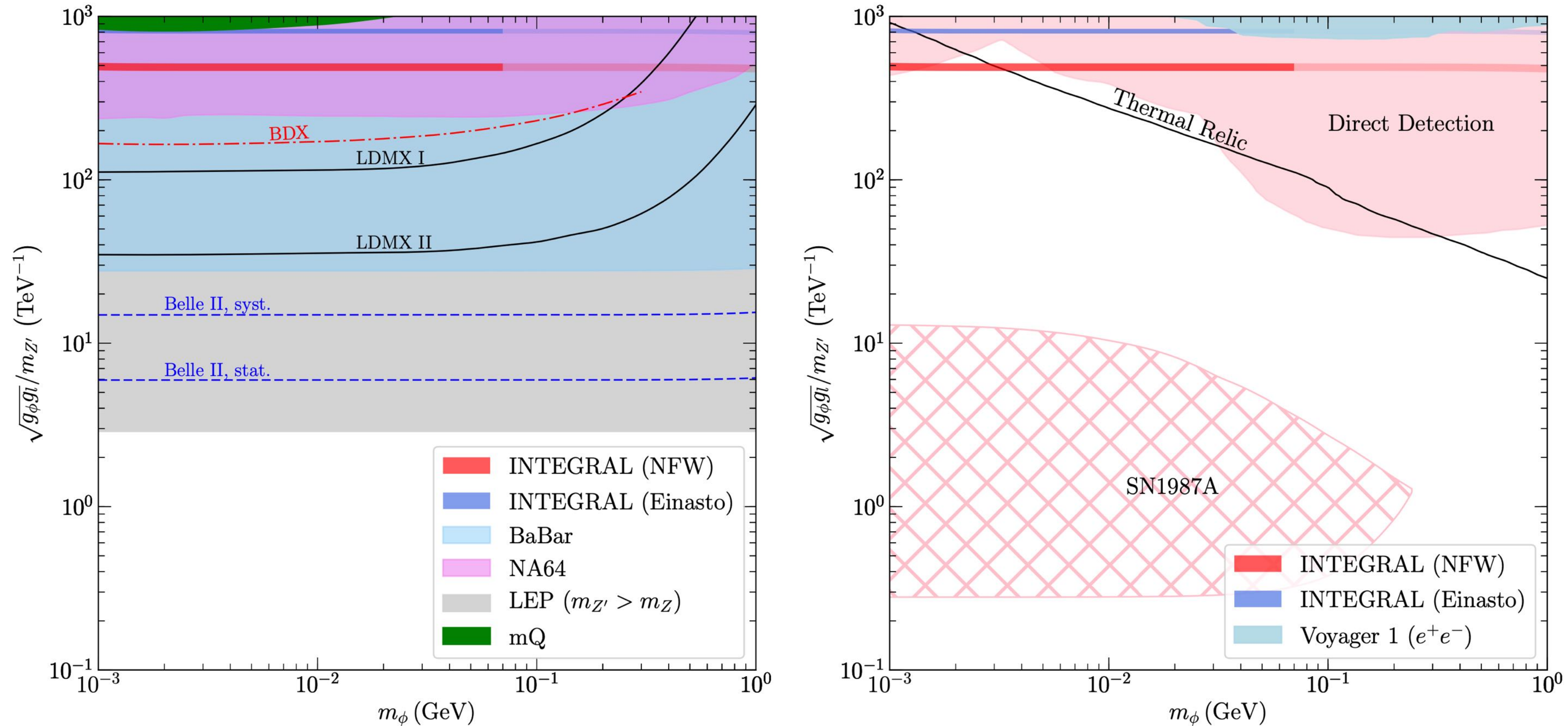
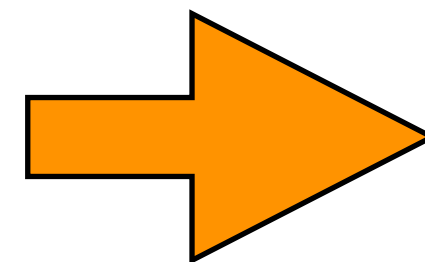
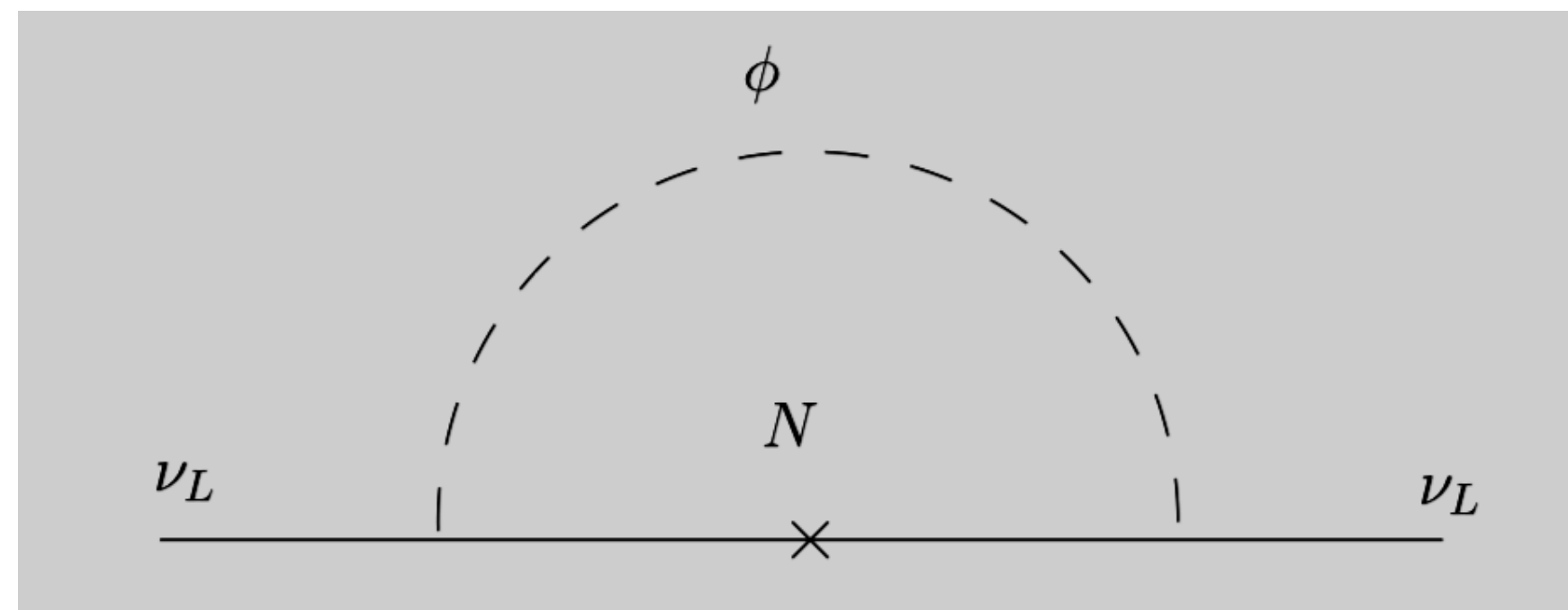
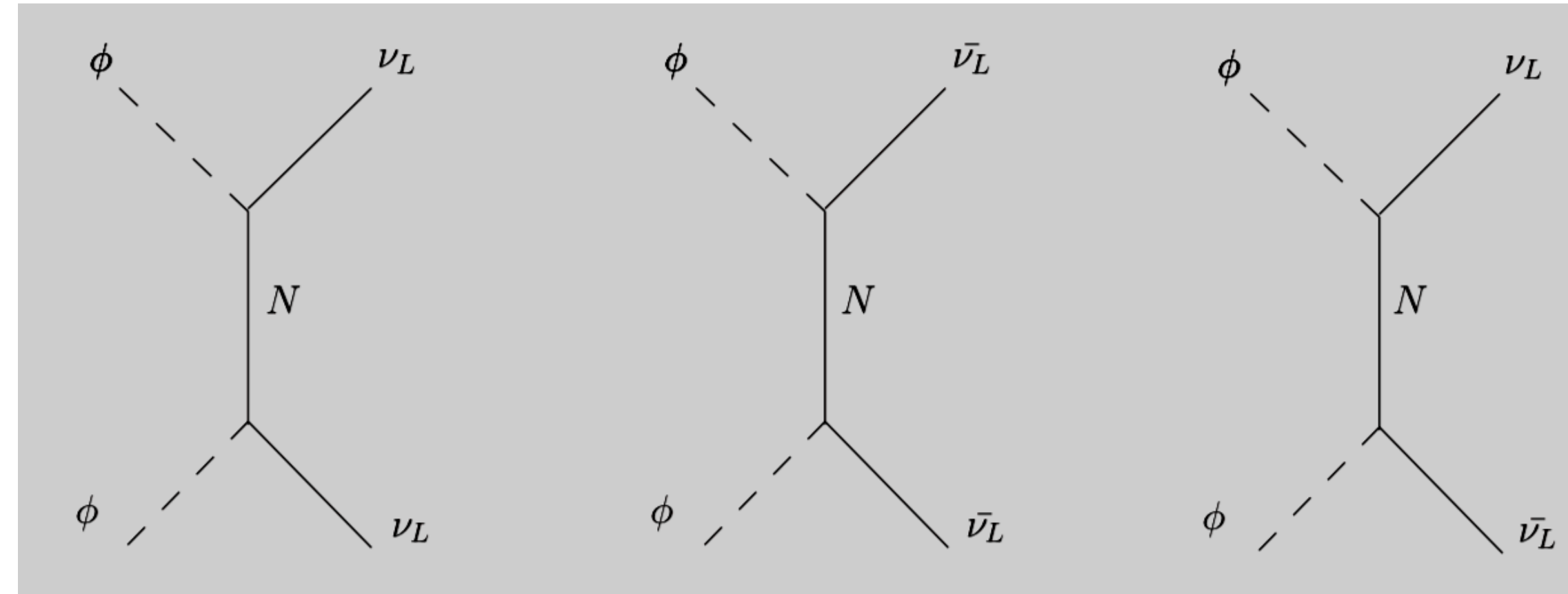


FIG. 7. Bounds on the inverse of effective UV scale $\Lambda_{Z'}^{-1} = \sqrt{g_\phi g_l}/m_{Z'}$ for the Z' model from laboratory tests (left panel) and from cosmological and astrophysical probes including direct detection (right panel). The parameter regions of interest for the INTEGRAL excess are shown as thin blue and red bands; for $m_\phi \geq 70$ MeV the DM interpretation is disfavored as indicated by a lighter shading. LEP bound only applies for $m_{Z'}$ above the EW scale, below which (18) applies instead. We do not show a band for $(g-2)_\mu$, which would need an assumption on g_ϕ/g_l , since it is already excluded elsewhere (see main text and Fig. 2).

Astrophysical implications of light dark matter

hep-ph/0612228

Annihilations into neutrinos



$$m_{\nu_L} \simeq \sqrt{\frac{\langle \sigma v_r \rangle}{128 \pi^3}} m_N^2 (1 + m_\phi^2/m_N^2) \ln \left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{m_N^2} \right).$$

Basic model can give rise to neutrino masses in the eV range but UV completion is hard!

See e.g. work by Yasaman Farzan (e.g. [1009.0829](#) and [1208.2732](#)) + Arhrib et al ([1512.08796](#))

Cosmological implications of light dark matter

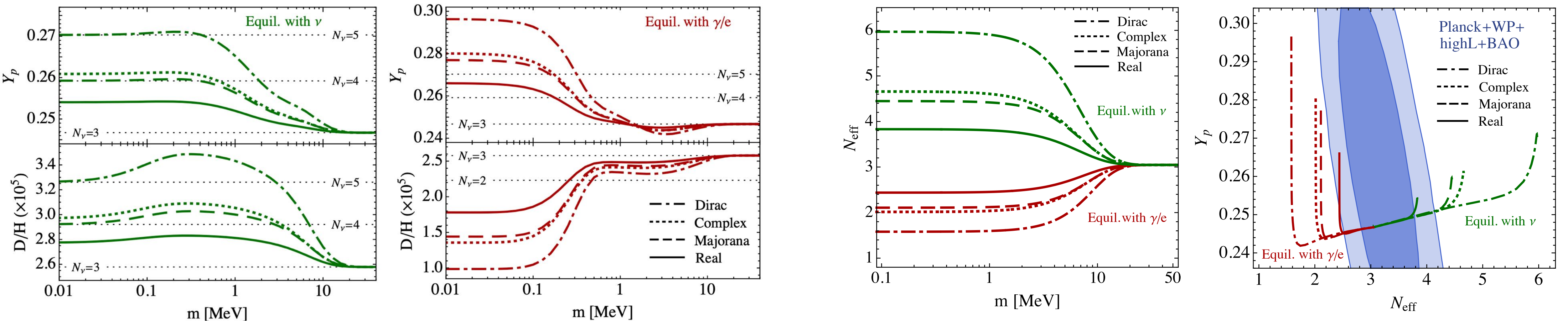
[1207.0497](#) [1303.6270](#)

Raffelt & Serpico [astro-ph/0403417](#)

$M < 10$ MeV but $[4,10]$ MeV exciting for 511 keV

Helium/D abundance

N_{eff}



$M < 10-20$ MeV

Overly simplified summary of (Astro) constraints

Indirect detection:

$m_{dm} < 30 \text{ MeV}$ (for the 511 keV line)

P-wave annihilations or s-wave suppressed

But see talk by Francesca!

CMB / Primordial abundance:

$m_{dm} < 10 \text{ MeV}$

Also

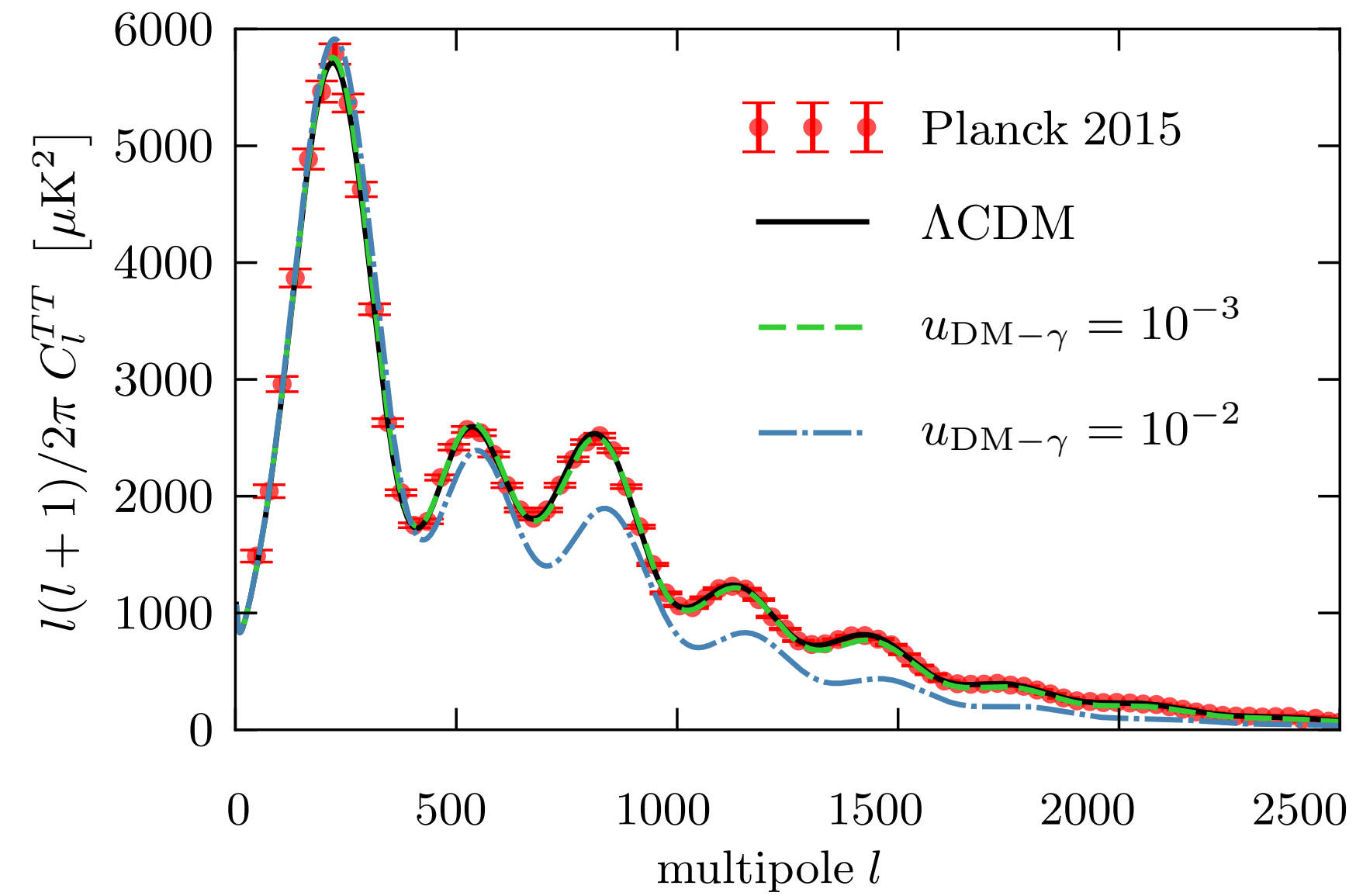
Electron $g-2$ (muon less stringent)

$m_{dm} < 30 \text{ MeV}$

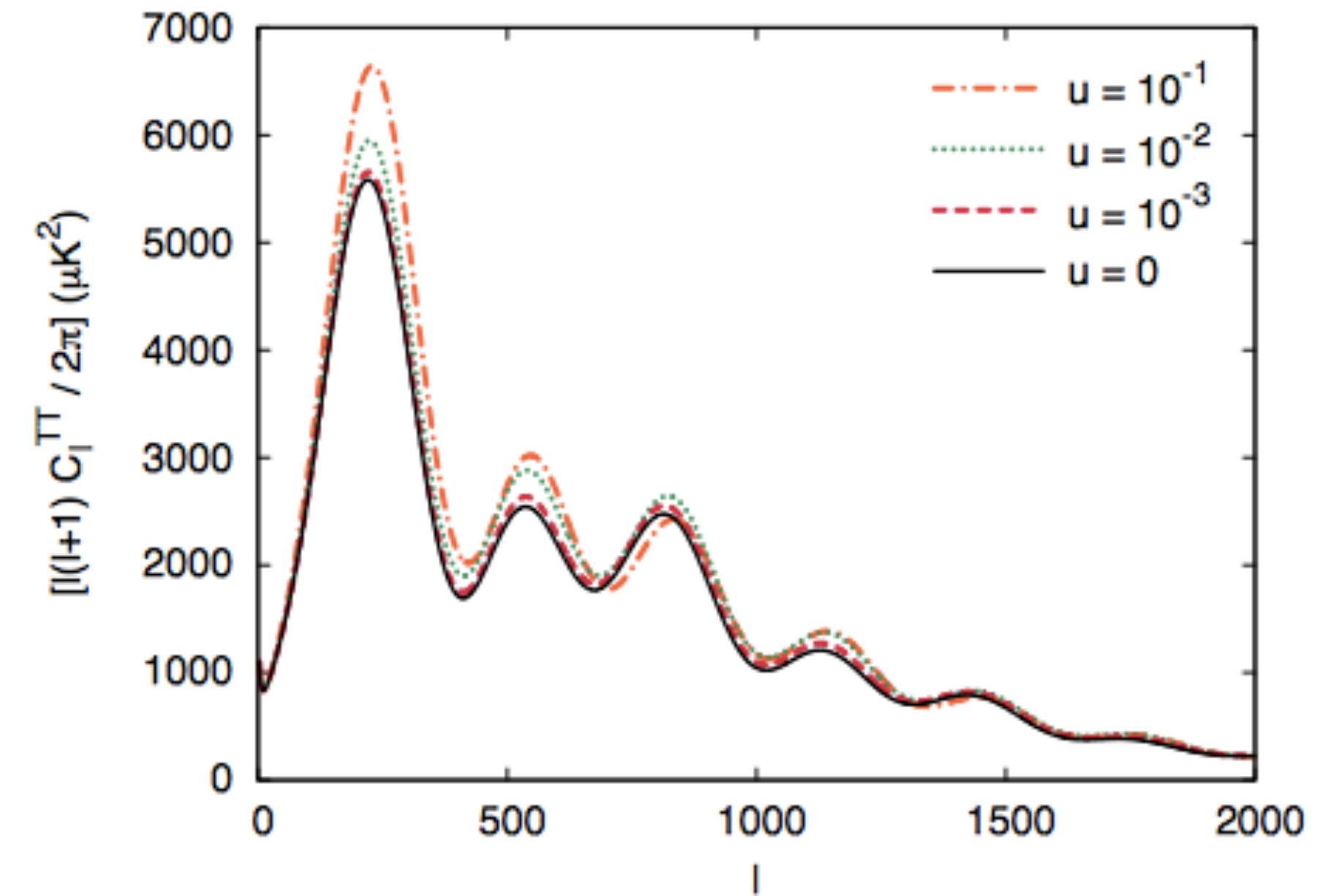
and in fact likely kills many "Astro" models

Cosmological implications of light dark matter

DM-photon interactions



DM-neutrino interactions



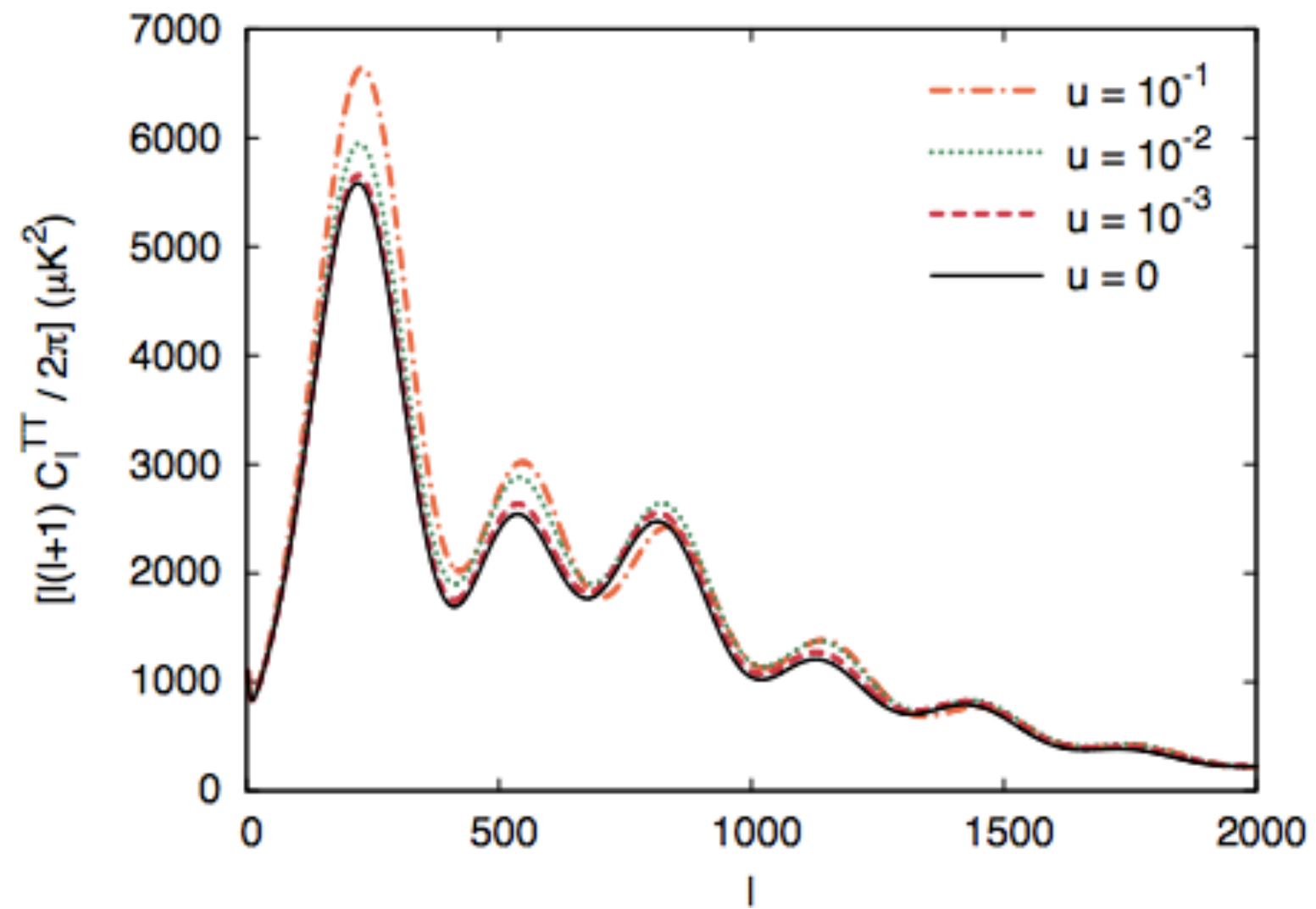
DM-b interactions

SIDM

1401.7597

Impact on cosmological parameters

DM-neutrino interactions

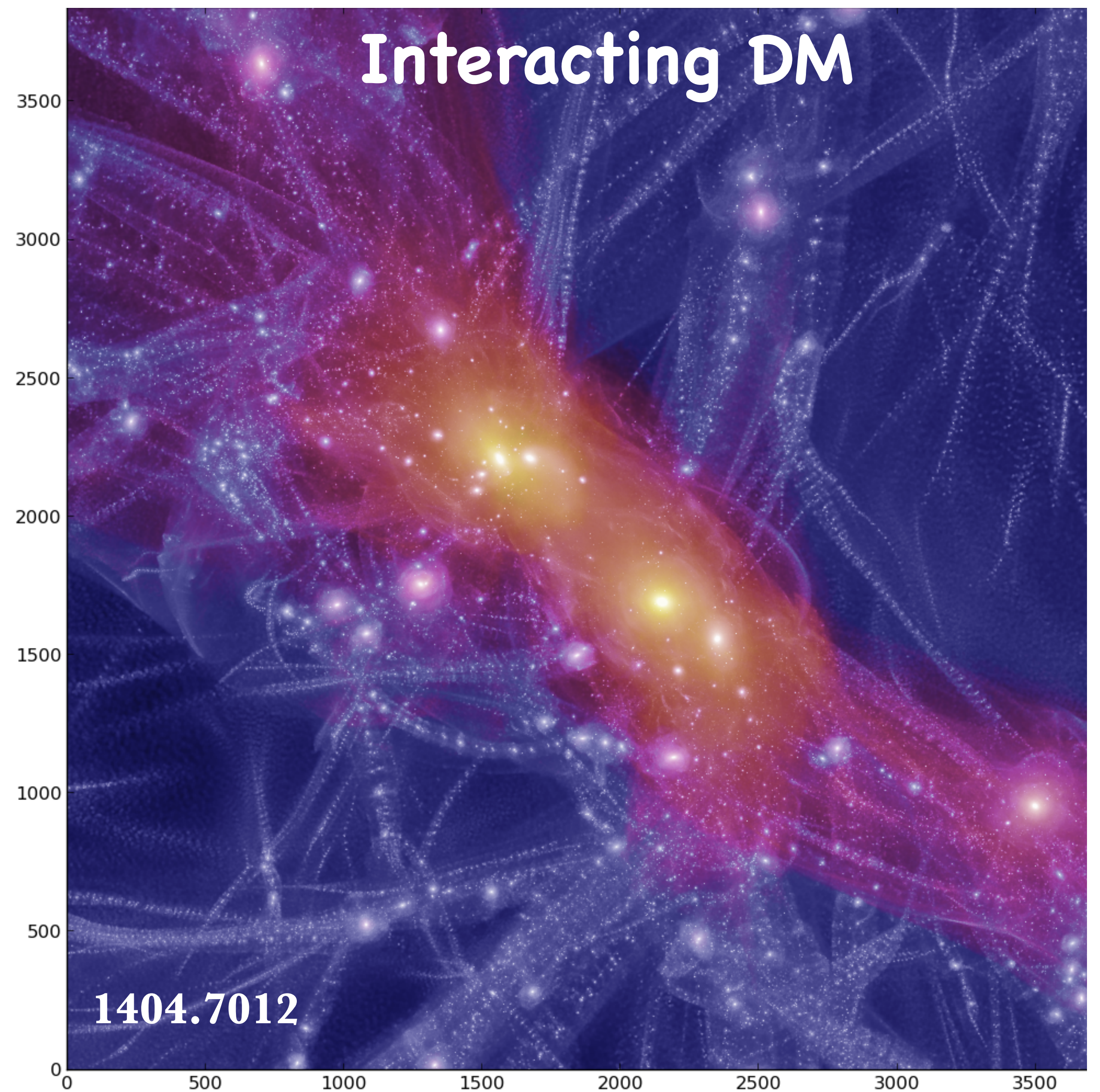
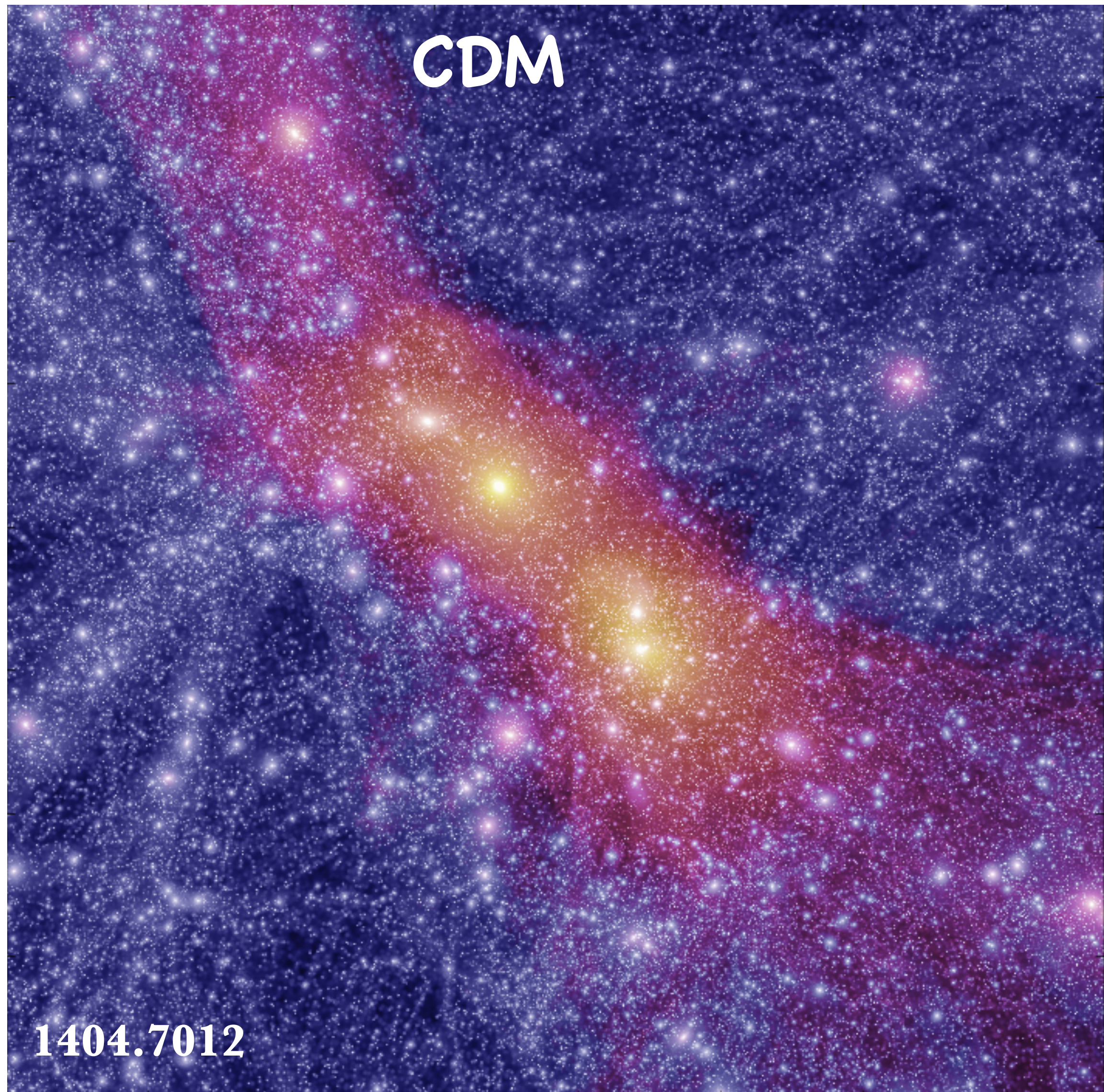


1401.7597

Λ CDM + u	+ N_{eff}	+ N_{eff} + Σm_ν
Parameter	Planck TT + lowTEB + R16	Planck TT + lowTEB + R16
$\Omega_b h^2$	$0.02278^{+0.00026}_{-0.00025}$	0.02278 ± 0.00027
$\Omega_c h^2$	$0.1238^{+0.0037}_{-0.0038}$	$0.1240^{+0.0035}_{-0.0045}$
τ	$0.099^{+0.019}_{-0.021}$	$0.100^{+0.023}_{-0.021}$
n_s	$0.9898^{+0.0088}_{-0.0094}$	$0.990^{+0.009}_{-0.010}$
$\ln(10^{10} A_s)$	$3.143^{+0.041}_{-0.039}$	$3.145^{+0.054}_{-0.037}$
$H_0 [\text{Km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}]$	$72.1^{+1.5}_{-1.7}$	$71.9^{+1.6}_{-1.8}$
σ_8	$0.850^{+0.024}_{-0.018}$	$0.846^{+0.030}_{-0.025}$
u	< -4.0	< -4.0
N_{eff}	3.54 ± 0.20	$3.56^{+0.19}_{-0.26}$
$\Sigma m_\nu [eV]$	0.06	< 0.87

1710.02559

DM -SM interactions & large scales

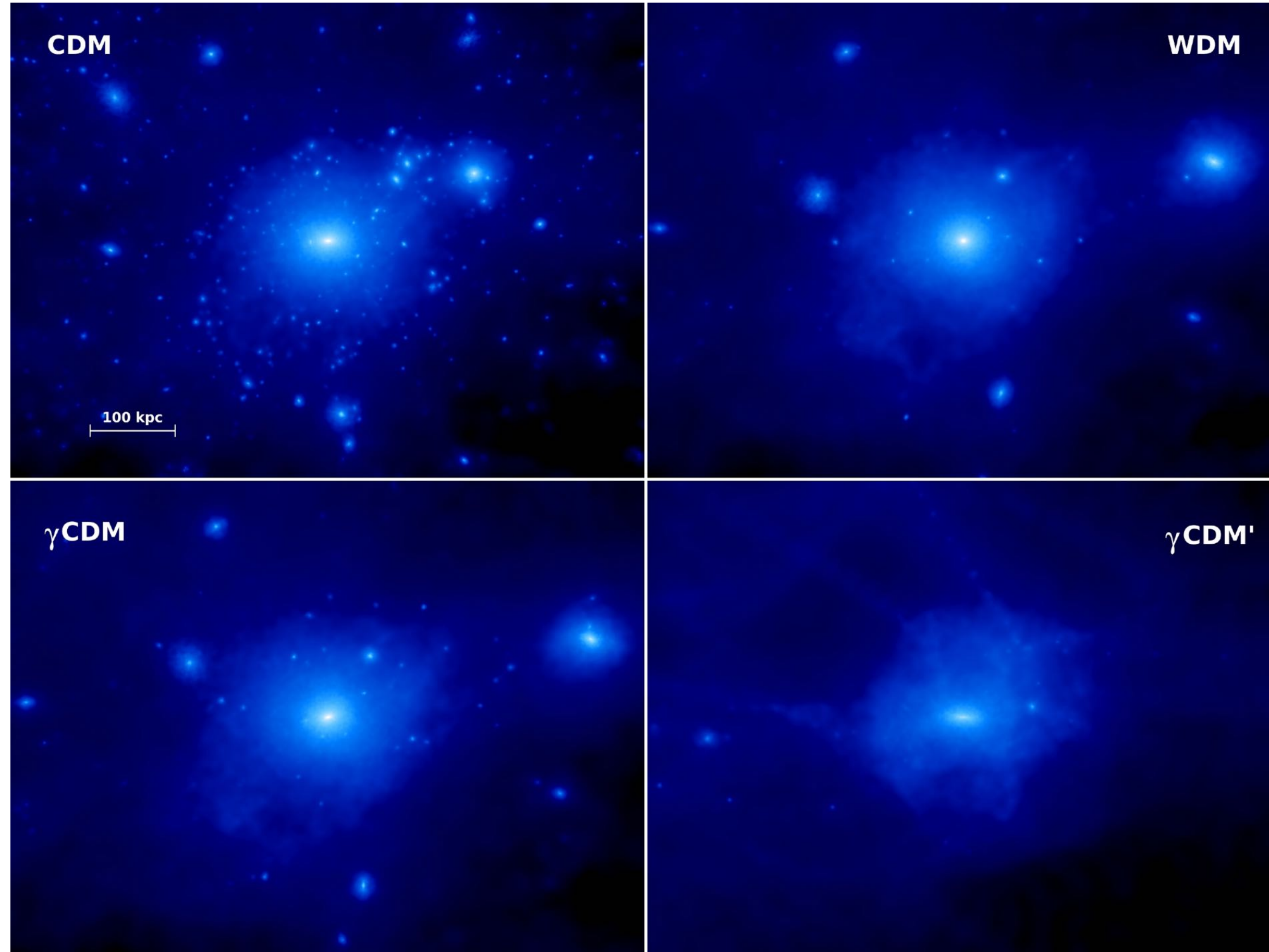


DM-SM [1404.7012](#)

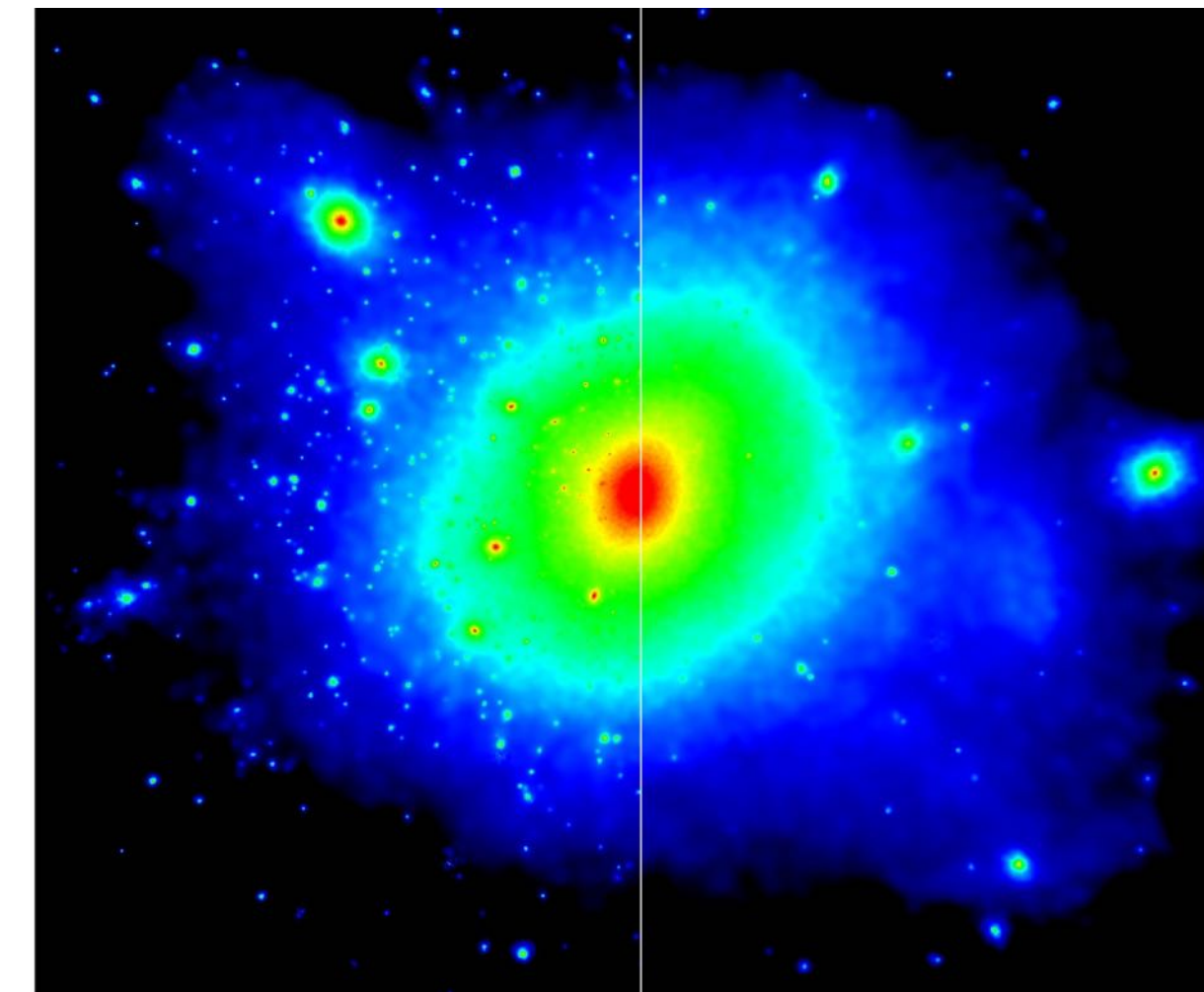
LSST, EUCLID will be essential!

The Milky Way in IDM scenarios

Less satellites



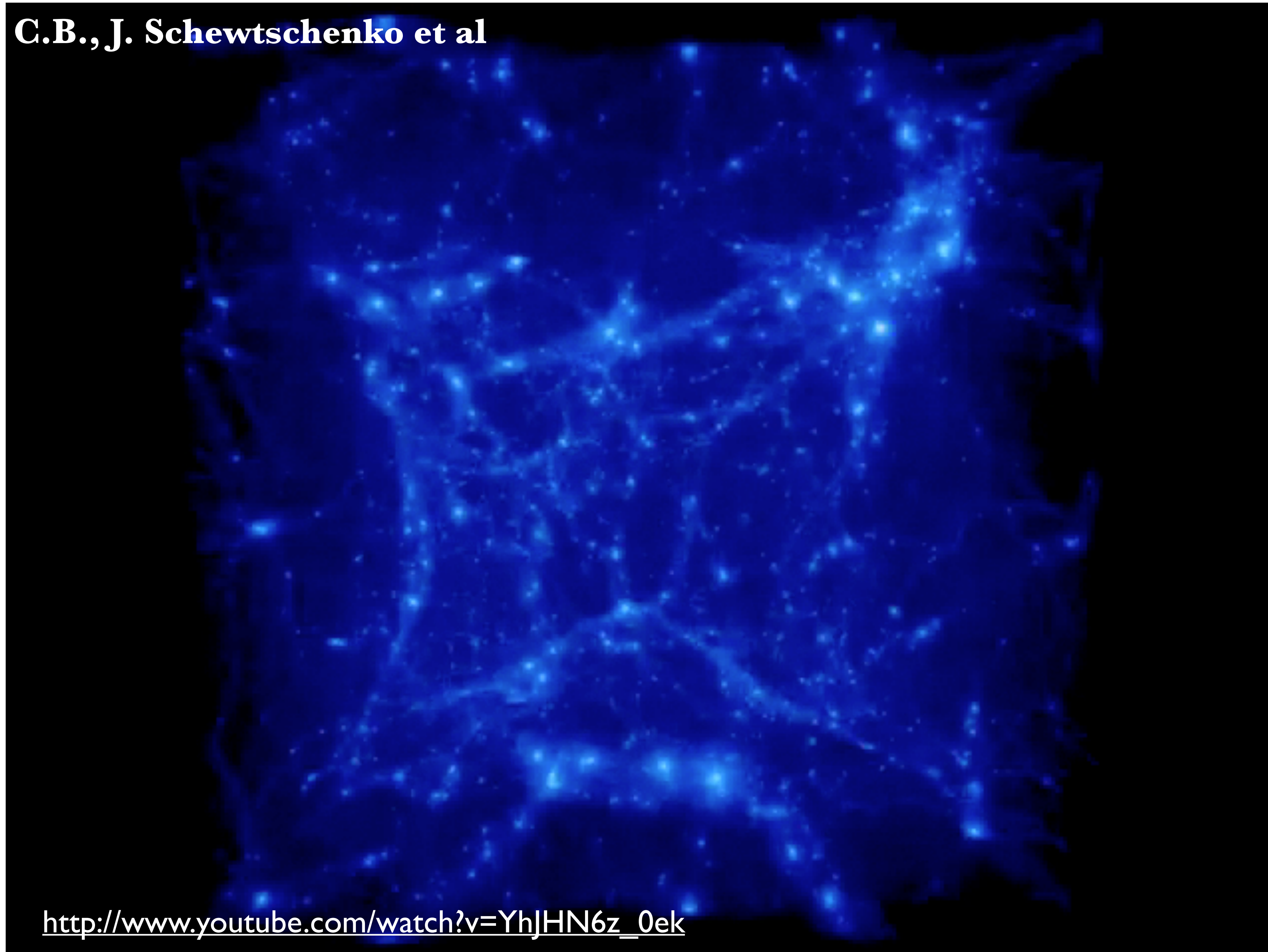
$$u_i = \frac{\sigma_{DM-i}}{\sigma_T} \left(\frac{m_{DM}}{100\text{GeV}} \right)^{-1}$$



$$\sigma v \lesssim 10^{-36} \text{ cm}^2 \left(\frac{m_{DM}}{\text{MeV}} \right)$$

The Milky Way for interacting DM

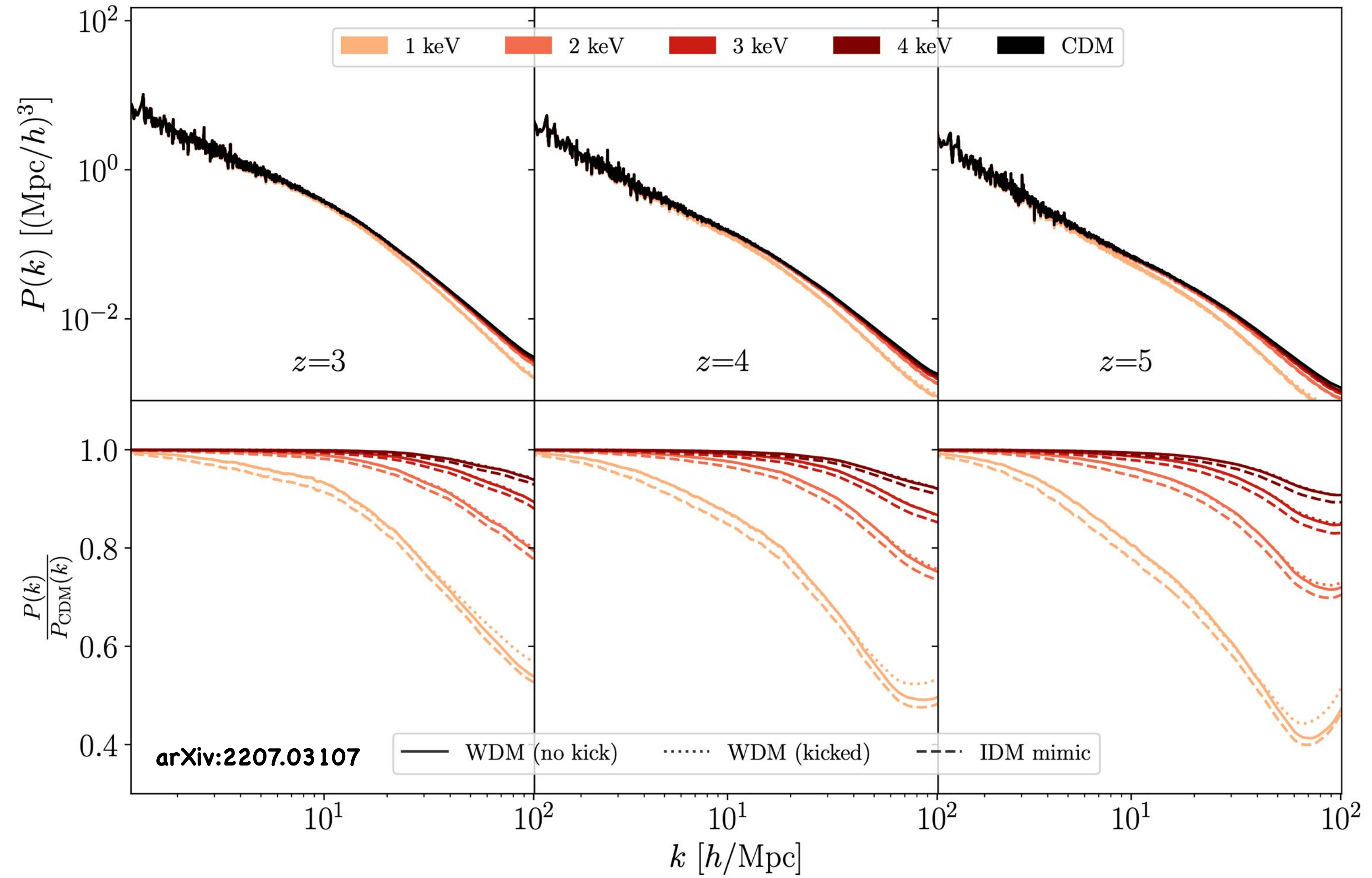
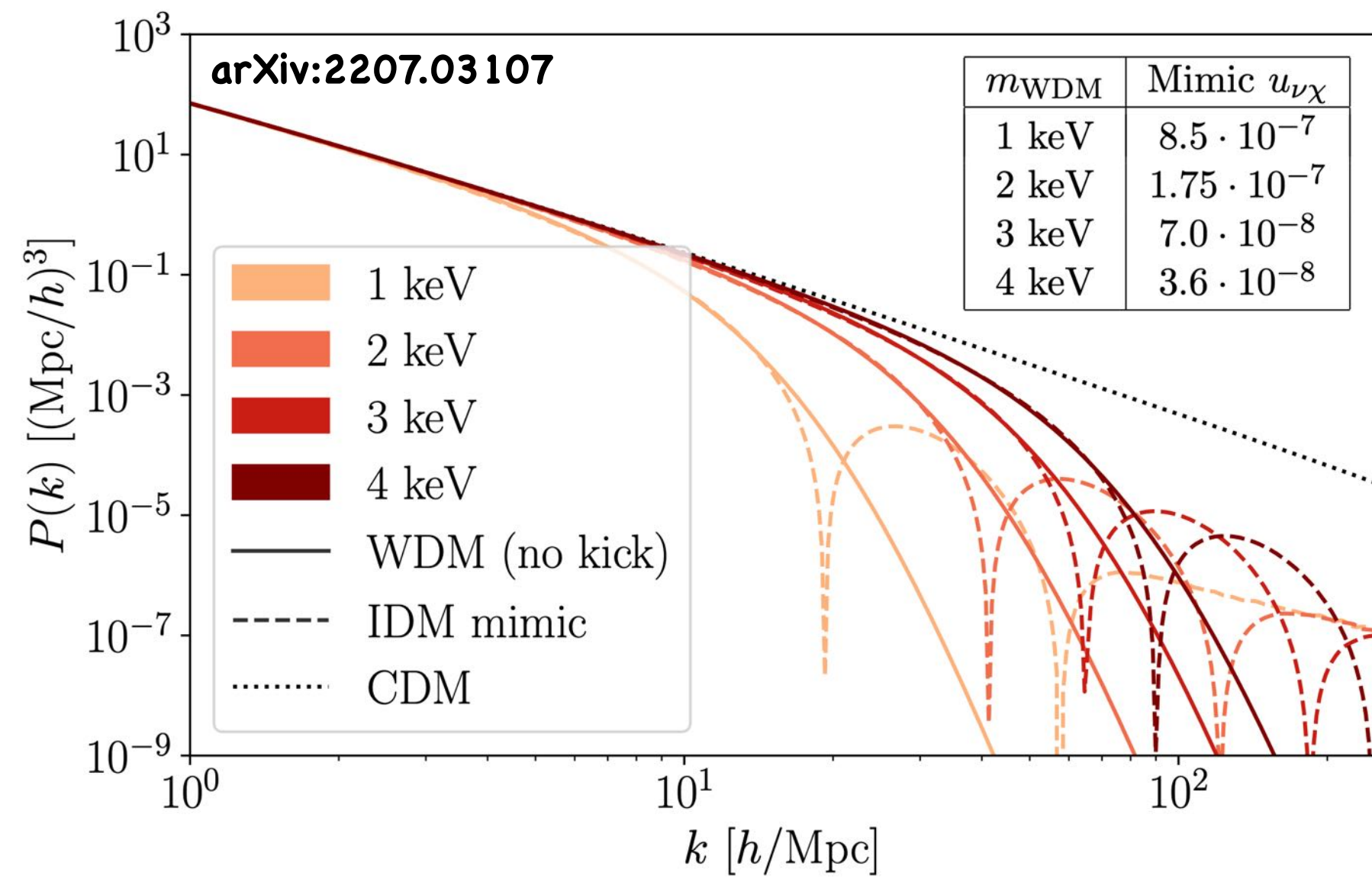
C.B., J. Schewtschenko et al



http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YhJHN6z_0ek

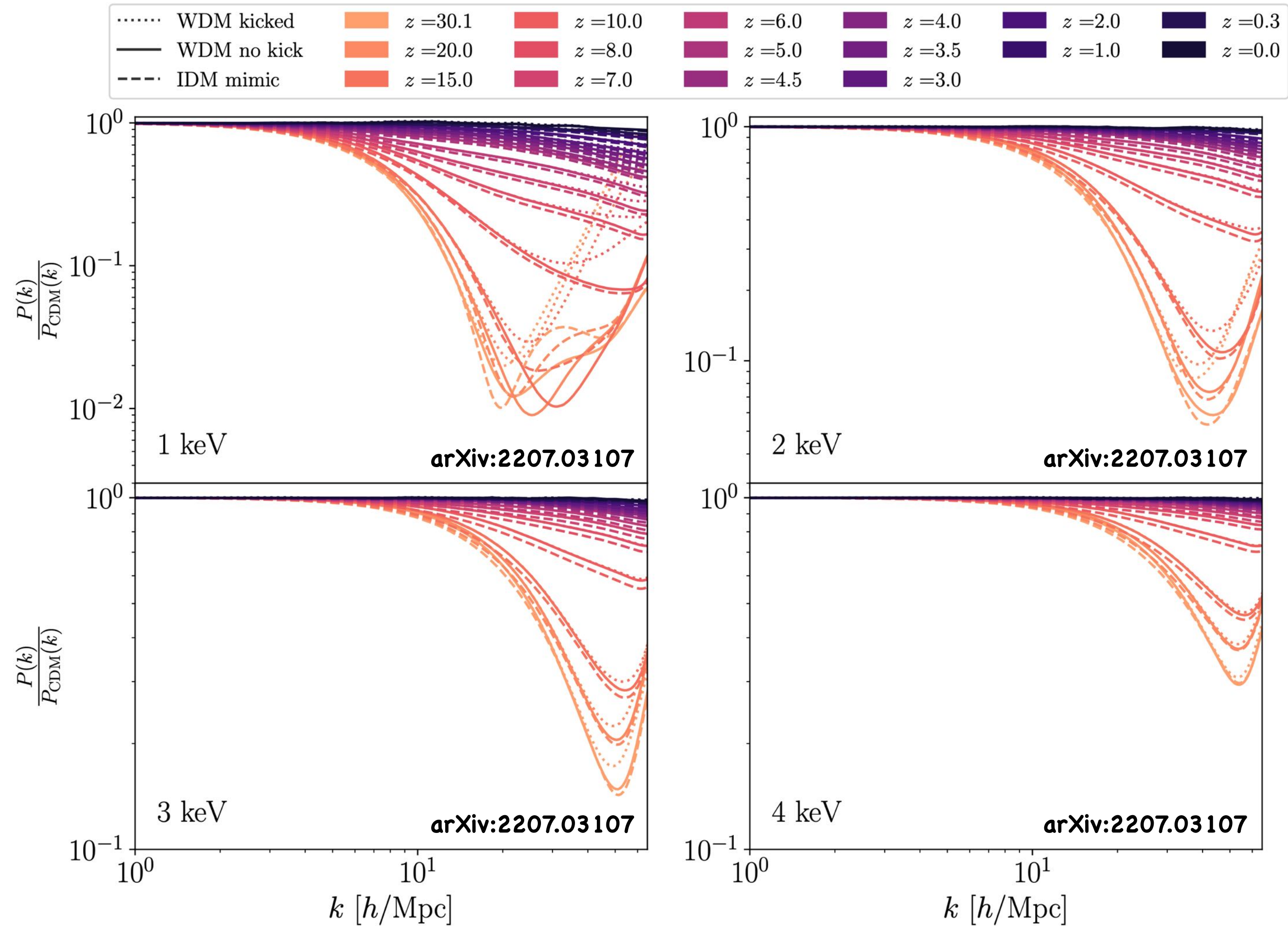
How to probe Dark Matter interactions?

arXiv:2207.03107 in agreement with astro-ph/0309652



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How to probe Dark Matter interactions?

arXiv:2207.14126

Gravitational-wave event rates as a new probe for dark matter microphysics

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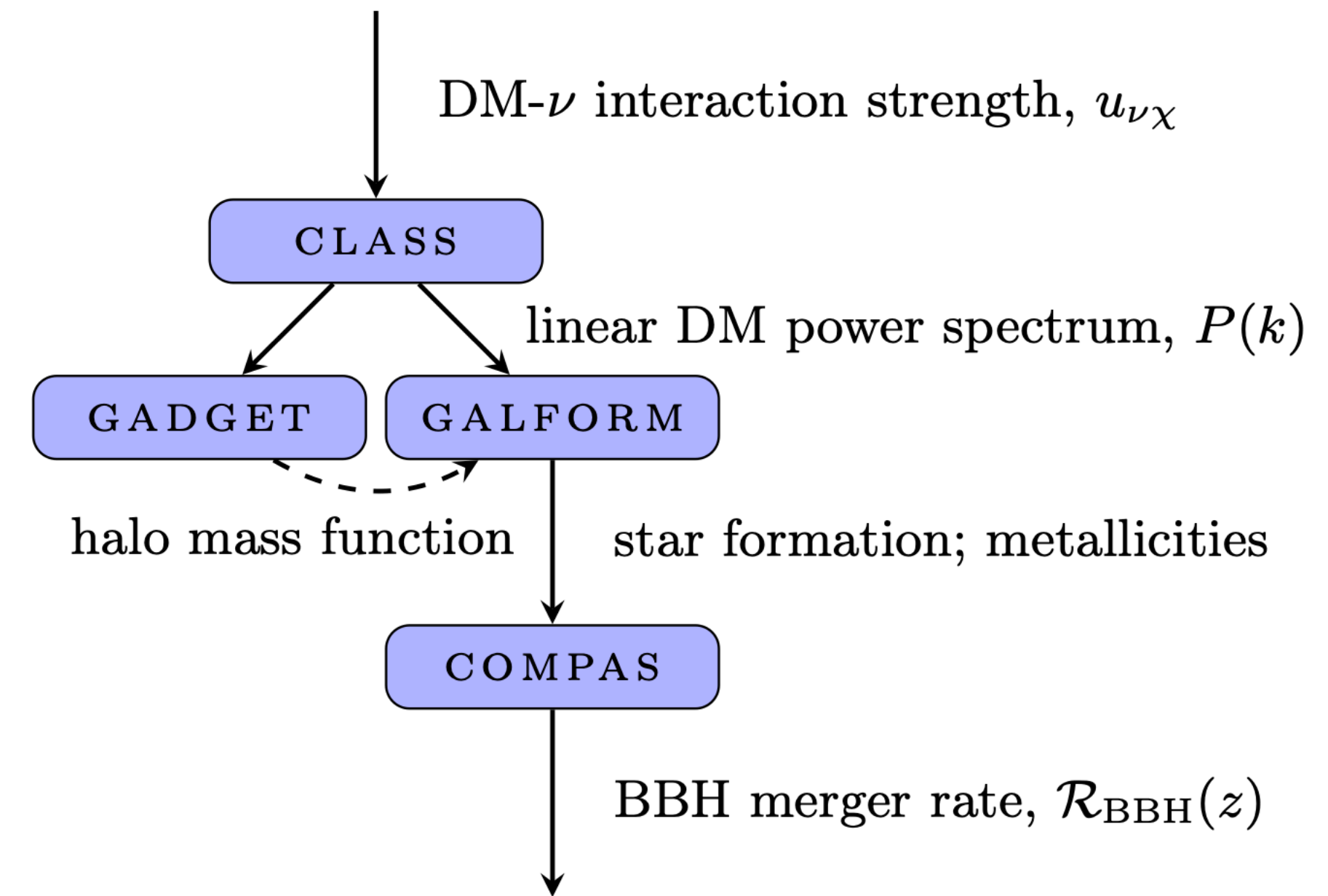
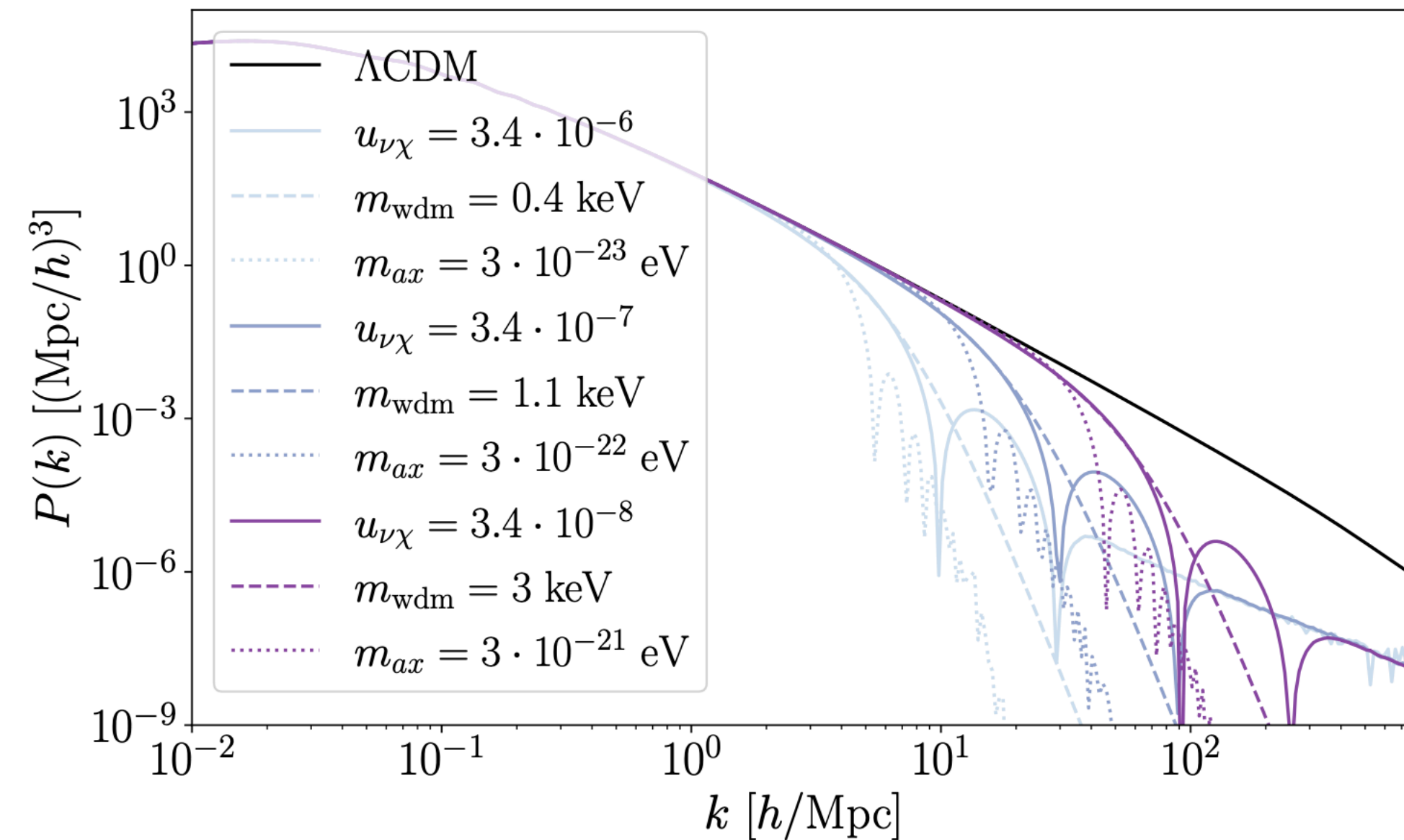
Sydney Consortium for Particle Physics and Cosmology

(Dated: 3 August 2022)

We show that gravitational waves have the potential to unravel the microphysical properties of dark matter due to the dependence of the binary black hole merger rate on cosmic structure formation, which is itself highly dependent on the dark matter scenario. In particular, we demonstrate that suppression of small-scale structure—such as that caused by interacting, warm, or fuzzy dark matter—leads to a significant reduction in the rate of binary black hole mergers at redshifts $z \gtrsim 5$. This shows that future gravitational-wave observations will provide a new probe of the Λ CDM cosmological model.

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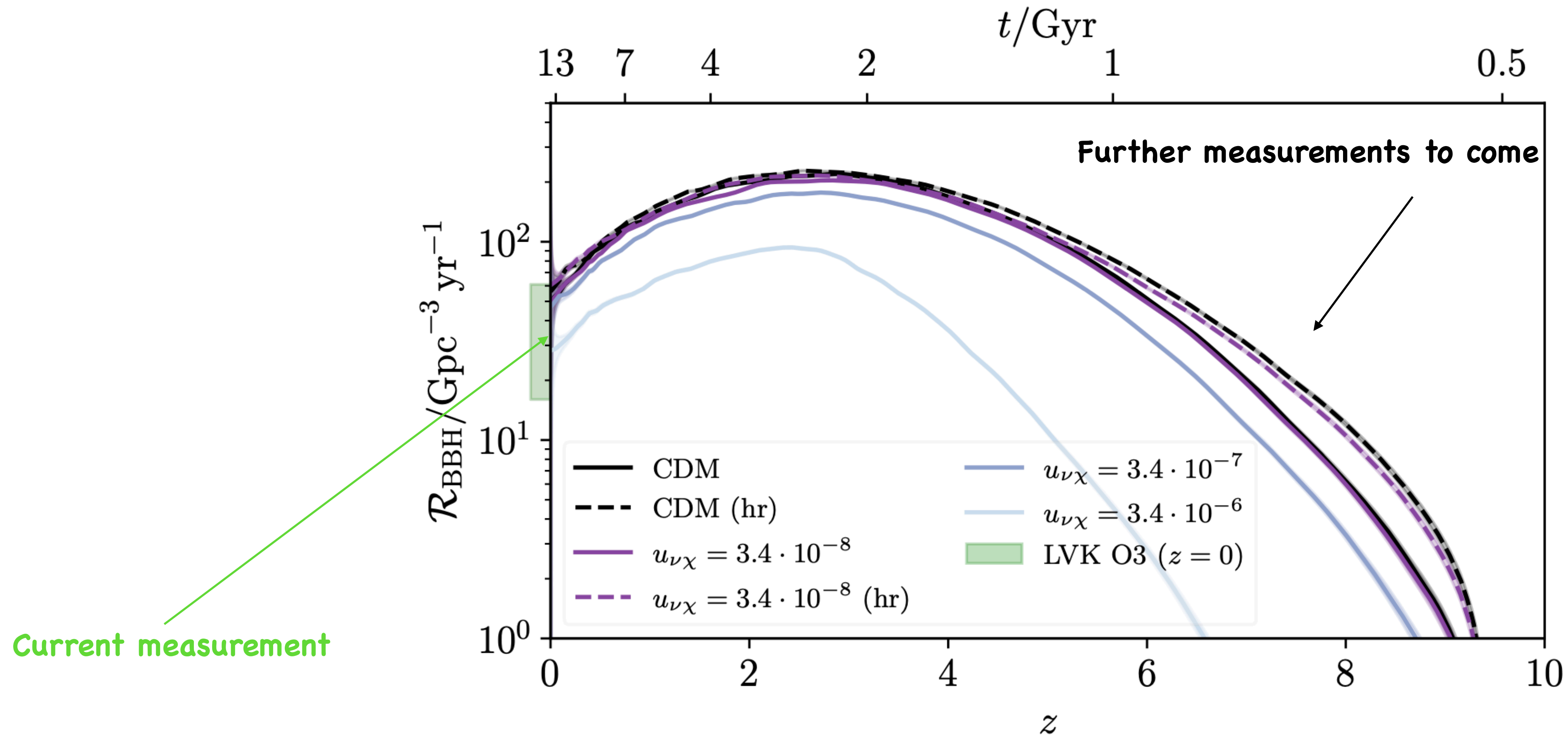


The BBH merger rate is thus essentially a delayed tracer of star formation, whose normalisation depends on the efficiency with which massive binary stars are converted into BBHs. This efficiency is mostly determined by the stellar metallicity.

We use a compas dataset of 20 million evolved binaries (resulting in ≈ 0.7 million BBHs) presented in [104], which is publicly available at [105]. This gives us the BBH formation efficiency as a function of initial mass and metallicity, as well as the delay time between star formation and BBH merger. By combining this with a model for the star formation rate density and metallicity distribution as functions of redshift, we can use the compas “cosmic integration” module [106] to average over the synthetic population and obtain the cosmic BBH merger rate (i.e., the fraction of the stellar mass that is in elements heavier than helium).

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LCDM almost excluded (!!!) so next measurements will be critical!