Cosmology I: Measuring and weighing the Universe

#### **Ruth Durrer**

#### Département de Physique Théorique et CAP Université de Genève Suisse



July 23, 2015

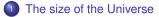
Ruth Durrer (Université de Genève)

Cosmology I

July 23, 2015 1 / 24

(I) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1))

## Contents





・ロト ・ 日 ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・ ヨ ・

Radius of the Earth:  $\simeq$  6000km



<ロ> <同> <同> < 同> < 同> < 同> < 同> <

The solar system  $\simeq 7\times 10^9 km$  ( $\simeq 50 au$  =50 'astronomical units') 1 au  $\simeq 150\times 10^6 km$  is the average distance between the earth and the sun

PLANETS DWARF PLANETS

(source: wikipedia)

(I)

The Milky Way (visible part)  $\simeq 10^{18} km \simeq 10^5$  light years  $\simeq 30'000 parsec$ 



The Milky Way (visible part)  $\simeq 10^{18}$  km  $\simeq 10^5$  light years  $\simeq 30'000$  parsec



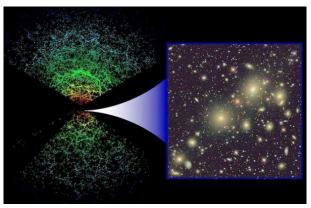


 $1'' = 1^{o}/3600 = 1 arc second$ 

1parsec  $\simeq$  3.26 light years

Ruth Durrer (Université de Genève)

The size of the 'visible Universe' (Hubble scale)  $\simeq 28000$  Mpc  $= 2.8 \times 10^{10}$  parsec (Contains about  $0.5 \times 10^{12}$  galaxies like the Milky Way with mass of about  $10^{12} M_{\odot}$ )



Each point represents a galaxy (Sloan digital sky survey, SDSS)

A B > A B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A
 B > A

As you know, Newtonian gravity is an attractive force. Each mass is attracted by every other mass.

・ロト ・ 日 ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・ ヨ ・

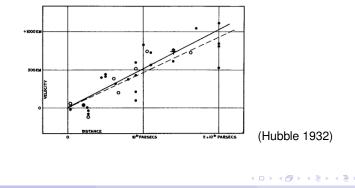
As you know, Newtonian gravity is an attractive force.

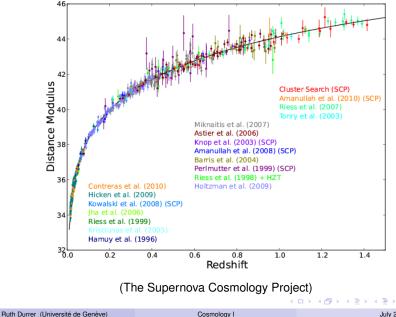
Each mass is attracted by every other mass.

Despite this fact, observations show that the Universe is expanding.

Galaxies recede from each other with a speed proportional to their distance,

$$v = \dot{R} = H_0 \cdot R$$
 (Hubble's law,  $H_0 \simeq 70$  km/s/Mpc)





July 23, 2015

9/24

To determine the 'Hubble diagram' we have to measure two things: the speed and the distance of far away galaxies.

・ロト ・ 日 ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・ ヨ ・

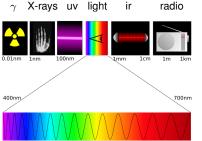
To determine the 'Hubble diagram' we have to measure two things: the speed and the distance of far away galaxies.

• To mesure the speed we mesure the redshift. This is the Doppler effect for light:

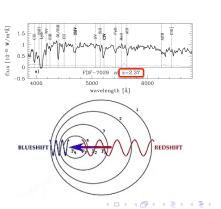
$$z = rac{\lambda - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e} \simeq v/c$$
, if  $z \ll 1$   $\left( z = \sqrt{rac{1 + v/c}{1 - v/c}} - 1 
ight)$ .

# Redshift

Astronomical observations can be made in different wavelengths bands of the electromagnetic spectrum. In the optical band specific spectral lines (atomic transitions) are at fixed wavelength



In a source moving away from us these spectral lines are shifted towards the red, 'redshifted'



To determine the 'Hubble diagram' we have to measure two things: the speed and the distance of far away galaxies.

• To mesure the speed we mesure the redshift. This is the Doppler effect for light:

$$z = rac{\lambda - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e} = v/c\,, \qquad ext{if} \ \ z \ll 1 \qquad \left( \ z = \sqrt{rac{1 + v/c}{1 - v/c}} - 1 \ 
ight)\,.$$

 Mesuring redshifts is easy, but measuring distances is difficult. We need 'standard candles' (or 'standard rulers').

To determine the 'Hubble diagram' we have to measure two things: the speed and the distance of far away galaxies.

• To mesure the speed we mesure the redshift. This is the Doppler effect for light:

$$z = rac{\lambda - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e} = v/c\,, \qquad ext{if} \ \ z \ll 1 \qquad \left( \ z = \sqrt{rac{1 + v/c}{1 - v/c}} - 1 \ 
ight)\,.$$

- Mesuring redshifts is easy, but measuring distances is difficult. We need 'standard candles' (or 'standard rulers').
- In cosmology, seeing far away objects means looking into the past.
   We see the Andromeda galaxy as it was about 2 million years ago.

・ロン ・日 ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・ ヨ ・

To determine the 'Hubble diagram' we have to measure two things: the speed and the distance of far away galaxies.

• To mesure the speed we mesure the redshift. This is the Doppler effect for light:

$$z = rac{\lambda - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e} = v/c$$
, if  $z \ll 1$   $\left( z = \sqrt{rac{1 + v/c}{1 - v/c}} - 1 
ight)$ .

- Mesuring redshifts is easy, but measuring distances is difficult. We need 'standard candles' (or 'standard rulers').
- In cosmology, seeing far away objects means looking into the past.
   We see the Andromeda galaxy as it was about 2 million years ago.
- A moment in the past can be characterized by its redshift z.

To determine the 'Hubble diagram' we have to measure two things: the speed and the distance of far away galaxies.

• To mesure the speed we mesure the redshift. This is the Doppler effect for light:

$$z = rac{\lambda - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e} = v/c\,, \qquad ext{if} \ \ z \ll 1 \qquad \left( \ z = \sqrt{rac{1 + v/c}{1 - v/c}} - 1 \ 
ight)\,.$$

- Mesuring redshifts is easy, but measuring distances is difficult. We need 'standard candles' (or 'standard rulers').
- In cosmology, seeing far away objects means looking into the past.
   We see the Andromeda galaxy as it was about 2 million years ago.
- A moment in the past can be characterized by its redshift z.
- The present expansion rate of the Universe is  $H_0 \simeq 70$  km/s/Mpc. In the past it has been different. We want to determine the expansion rate as function of the redshift, H(z). For this we have to measure the redshift z and the distance d of far away galaxies.

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三▶ ◆□▶ ◆□

## Standard candles

The most powerful standard candles are supernovae of type Ia.

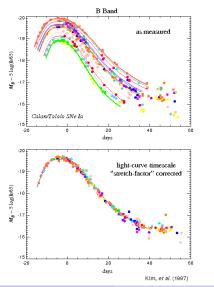


(SN1994D)

Ruth Durrer	(Université de	Genève)
-------------	----------------	---------

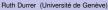
# SNIa light curve

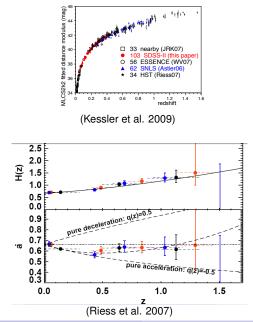
After application of a 'stretch factor' the maximum of the light curve, i.e. the maximum of the luminosity is nearly the same for all supernovae la.



Without correction.

#### After correction.

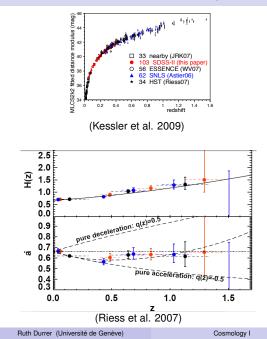




Distance modulus = log(apparent luminosity)+ constant = log $(1/d_L^2)$ + constant

Ruth Durrer (Université de Genève)

< 3



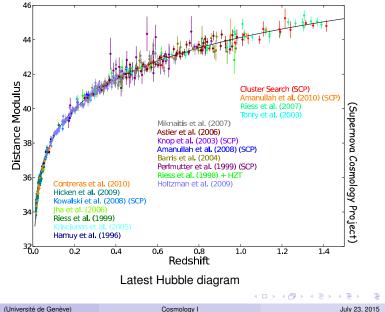
Distance modulus = log(apparent luminosity)+ constant = log(1/ $d_L^2$ )+ constant  $d_L(z) = (1 + z) \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')}$ 

$$H=rac{\dot{R}}{R}=(1+z)\dot{R}(z)$$
  
 $\dot{R}(z)>0\,,\quad \ddot{R}(z)>0$  for  $z<0.5.$ 

Image: A math a math

July 23, 2015 15 / 24

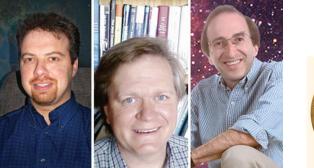
< E



Ruth Durrer (Université de Genève)

July 23, 2015 16/24

## Nobel Prize in Physics 2011





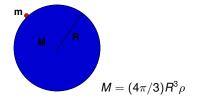
イロン イヨン イヨン イヨ

Adam G. Riess Brian P. Schmidt Saul Perlmutter

The Nobel Prize in Physics 2011 was divided, one half awarded to Saul Perlmutter, the other half jointly to Brian P. Schmidt and Adam G. Riess "for the discovery of the accelerating expansion of the Universe through observations of distant supernovae".

# Understanding the expansion of the Universe within Newtonian gravity

We consider a test mass *m* at the border of a homogeneous sphere of density  $\rho_j$ , which is expanding with velocity  $v = \dot{R}$ .



(4) (3) (4) (4) (4)

## Understanding the expansion of the Universe within Newtonian gravity

We consider a test mass *m* at the border of a homogeneous sphere of density  $\rho$ , which is expanding with velocity  $v = \dot{R}$ .

M R 
$$M = (4\pi/3)R^3\rho$$

Its energy is

$$E = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} + U = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} - \frac{mMG}{R} = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} - \frac{4\pi}{3}m\rho R^{2}G$$

We consider a test mass *m* at the border of a homogeneous sphere of density  $\rho_{i}$ , which is expanding with velocity  $v = \dot{R}$ .

M R 
$$M = (4\pi/3)R^3\rho$$

Its energy is

$$E = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} + U = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} - \frac{mMG}{R} = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} - \frac{4\pi}{3}m\rho R^{2}G$$

As energy is conserved,  $2E/m =: -K = \text{constant} = R^2 - 8\pi G\rho R^2/3$ . With  $H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2$  we obtain

$$H^2 + \frac{K}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho$$

We consider a test mass *m* at the border of a homogeneous sphere of density  $\rho$ , which is expanding with velocity  $v = \dot{R}$ .

M R 
$$M = (4\pi/3)R^3\rho$$

Its energy is

$$E = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} + U = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} - \frac{mMG}{R} = \frac{m}{2}v^{2} - \frac{4\pi}{3}m\rho R^{2}G$$

As energy is conserved,  $2E/m =: -K = \text{constant} = \dot{R}^2 - 8\pi G\rho R^2/3$ . With  $H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2$  we obtain

$$H^2 + \frac{K}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho$$

This is the Friedmann equation (1922).

## Understanding the expansion of the Universe within Newtonian gravity

Due to the expansion, the density decreases,

$$ho = rac{M}{rac{4\pi}{3}R^3}\,, \qquad \dot{
ho} = -3
ho rac{\dot{R}}{R}$$

Due to the expansion, the density decreases,

$$ho = rac{M}{rac{4\pi}{3}R^3}\,, \qquad \dot{
ho} = -3
horac{\dot{R}}{R}$$

If we insert this in the derivative of the Friedmann equation we find

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left[\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^{2} + \frac{\kappa}{R^{2}}\right] = 2\left[\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} - \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^{2} - \frac{\kappa}{R^{2}}\right]\frac{\dot{R}}{R} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\dot{\rho} = -8\pi G\rho\frac{\dot{R}}{R}$$
$$\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}\rho < 0.$$

・ロト ・ 日 ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・ ヨ ・

Due to the expansion, the density decreases,

$$ho = rac{M}{rac{4\pi}{3}R^3}\,, \qquad \dot{
ho} = -3
horac{\dot{R}}{R}$$

If we insert this in the derivative of the Friedmann equation we find

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left[\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{R^2}\right] = 2\left[\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} - \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 - \frac{K}{R^2}\right]\frac{\dot{R}}{R} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\dot{\rho} = -8\pi G\rho\frac{\dot{R}}{R}$$
$$\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}\rho < 0.$$

This is the 2nd Friedmann equation (1922). It requires that the expansion decelerates!

# The expansion of the Universe within General relativity

Including general relativity these equations are modified:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{R} \\ \overline{R} \end{pmatrix}^2 + \frac{K}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \rho_E + \frac{\Lambda}{3} \\ \\ \frac{\ddot{R}}{R} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3c^2} (\rho_E + 3P) + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

*P* is the pressure and  $\Lambda$  is the cosmological constant,

 $\rho_E$  is the energy density. For ordinary matter  $\rho_E = c^2 \rho$ , and *c* is the speed of light. *K* now has a new interpretation. It is the curvature of space.

# The expansion of the Universe within General relativity

Including general relativity these equations are modified:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^{2} + \frac{K}{R^{2}} = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^{2}}\rho_{E} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$
$$\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3c^{2}}(\rho_{E} + 3P) + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

*P* is the pressure and  $\Lambda$  is the cosmological constant,

 $\rho_E$  is the energy density. For ordinary matter  $\rho_E = c^2 \rho$ , and *c* is the speed of light. *K* now has a new interpretation. It is the curvature of space.

Introducing the 'density' parameters

$$\Omega_m = rac{8\pi G
ho_E}{3c^2 H^2}\,, \qquad \Omega_K = -rac{K}{R^2 H^2}\,, \qquad \Omega_\Lambda = rac{\Lambda}{3H^2}\,,$$

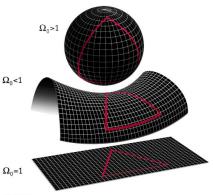
the first Friedmann eqn. becomes

$$\Omega_m + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K = \mathbf{1} .$$

 $\mathcal{K} > 0$  ( $\Omega_{\mathcal{K}} < 0$ ): spherical space,

 ${\cal K}<$  0 ( $\Omega_{\cal K}>$  0): pseudo-spherical space (saddle),

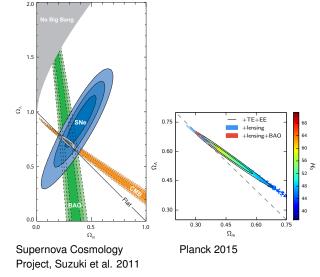
K = 0 ( $\Omega_K = 0$ ): flat space.



イロト イヨト イヨト イヨト

MAP990006

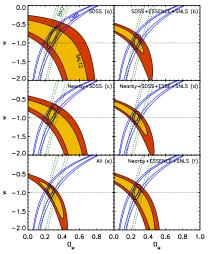
Matter,  $\Omega_m$ , and cosmological constant,  $\Omega_{\Lambda}$  (dark energy).



If pressure is negative,

 $P = w\rho_E$  with w < -1/3 we can have accelerated expansion ( $\ddot{R} > 0$ ) without a cosmological constant. Such a component is called dark energy. A cosmological constant corresponds to a dark energy component with w = -1.

The matter fraction and the parameter *w* of dark energy (Kessler et al. '09).



(I)

• Looking at far away objects in the Universe we are looking into the past.

<ロ> <同> <同> < 同> < 同>

- Looking at far away objects in the Universe we are looking into the past.
- The Universe is expanding. More distant galaxies recede from us faster than more close by ones.

- Looking at far away objects in the Universe we are looking into the past.
- The Universe is expanding. More distant galaxies recede from us faster than more close by ones.
- The distance to a galaxy, or the time at which its light which is currently reaching us has been emitted is determined by its redshift.

- Looking at far away objects in the Universe we are looking into the past.
- The Universe is expanding. More distant galaxies recede from us faster than more close by ones.
- The distance to a galaxy, or the time at which its light which is currently reaching us has been emitted is determined by its redshift.
- The Hubble diagram gives the distance of objects as function of their redshift.

- Looking at far away objects in the Universe we are looking into the past.
- The Universe is expanding. More distant galaxies recede from us faster than more close by ones.
- The distance to a galaxy, or the time at which its light which is currently reaching us has been emitted is determined by its redshift.
- The Hubble diagram gives the distance of objects as function of their redshift.
- Recent observations have shown that the expansion of the Universe is accelerated. Understanding this within general relativity requires 'dark energy'.