Cosmology I: Measuring and weighing the Universe

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CERN Summer School July 25, 2017

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Radius of the Earth: \simeq 6000km



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The solar system $\simeq 7\times 10^9 km$ ($\simeq 50 au$ =50 'astronomical units') 1 au $\simeq 1.5\times 10^8 km$ is the average distance between the earth and the sun

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(source: wikipedia)

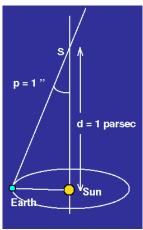
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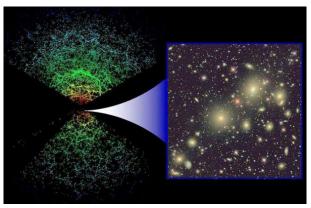




 $1'' = 1^{o}/3600 = 1 arc second$

1parsec \simeq 3.26 light years

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



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

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

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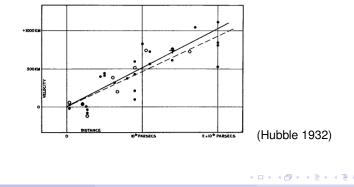
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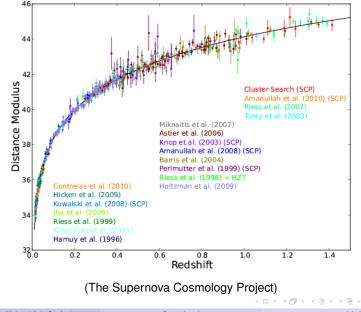
Each mass is attracted by every other mass.

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)





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

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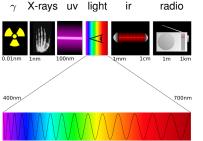
• To mesure the speed we mesure the redshift. This is the Doppler effect for light:

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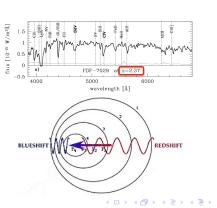
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Redshift

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'



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

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- 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.

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Standard candles

The most powerful standard candles are supernovae of type Ia.



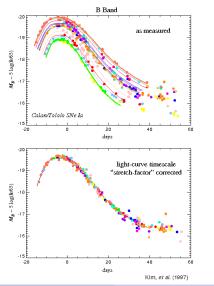
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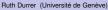
SNIa light curve

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.



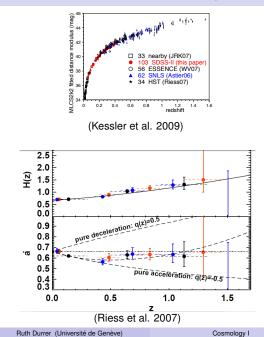
Without correction.

After correction.



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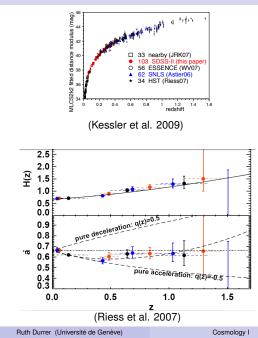


Luminosity distance from apparent flux, *F*, and known intensity, *I*: $F = I/(4\pi d_L^2)$.

Distance modulus = $-\log(app. flux)+constant$ = $\log(d_L^2)+constant$

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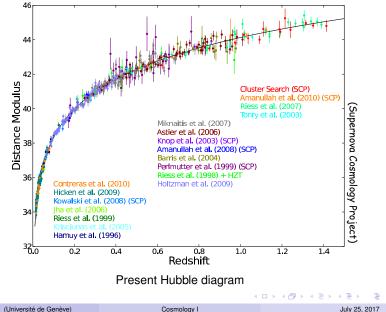


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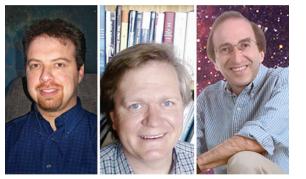
Distance modulus = $-\log(app. flux)+constant$ = $\log(d_L^2)+constant$

$$d_L(z) = (1+z) \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')}$$
$$K = 0)$$
$$H = \frac{\dot{R}}{R} = (1+z)\dot{a}(z)$$
$$a = R/R_0$$
$$\dot{R}(z) > 0, \quad \ddot{R}(z) > 0 \text{ for } z < 0.5.$$

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Nobel Prize in Physics 2011



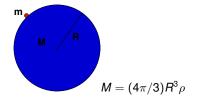


Adam G. Riess Brian P. Schmidt Saul Perlmutter

The Nobel Prize in Physics 2011 was awarded to Saul Perlmutter, 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 ρ_j , which is expanding with velocity $v = \dot{R}$.



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Understanding the expansion of the Universe within Newtonian gravity

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

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

Its energy is

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

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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

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

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This is the Friedmann equation (1922).

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Understanding the expansion of the Universe in Newtonian gravity

Due to the expansion, the density decreases,

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

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

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

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Including general relativity these equations are modified:

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

P is the pressure and Λ is the cosmological constant,

 ρ_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.

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Introducing the 'density' parameters

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

the first Friedmann eqn. becomes

$$\Omega_m + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K = 1$$
.

The expansion of the Universe in General relativity II

To solve the Friedmann equations we need to know K, Λ and the equation of state, $P(\rho)$

 $P = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{matter} \\ 1/3\rho, & \text{radiation, massless particles} \\ -\rho, & \text{cosmological constant, vacuum energy} \\ -1/3\rho, & \text{curvature.} \end{cases}$

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Energy conservation implies ($a = R/R_0 = (1 + z)^{-1}$)

$$\dot{
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For $P = w\rho$ with constant *w* this is solved by $\rho = \rho_0 a^{-3(1+w)}$.

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Energy conservation implies ($a = R/R_0 = (1 + z)^{-1}$)

$$\dot{\rho} = -3(\rho + P)\frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

For $P = w\rho$ with constant w this is solved by $\rho = \rho_0 a^{-3(1+w)}$. If this is the dominant term in the Friedmann eqn. ($K \sim \Lambda \sim 0$), the latter is solved by

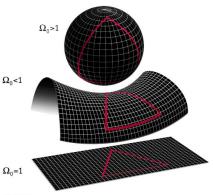
$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2}
ho\,,\qquad a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

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

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

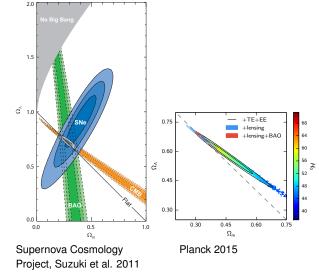
K = 0 ($\Omega_K = 0$): flat space.



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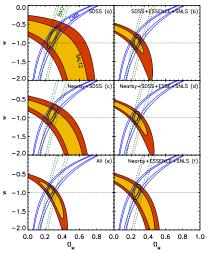
Matter, Ω_m , and cosmological constant, Ω_{Λ} (dark energy).



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).



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- 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'.