Cosmology, lect. 5

Curved Cosmos & Observational Cosmology

Einstein Field Equation

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} Rg_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$
$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} Rg_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu} - \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$$

2

Cosmological Principle

General Relativity

A crucial aspect of any particular configuration is the geometry of spacetime: because Einstein's General Relativity is a metric theory, knowledge of the geometry is essential.

Einstein Field Equations are notoriously complex, essentially 10 equations. Solving them for general situations is almost impossible.

However, there are some special circumstances that do allow a full solution. The simplest one is also the one that describes our Universe. It is encapsulated in the

Cosmological Principle

On the basis of this principle, we can constrain the geometry of the Universe and hence find its dynamical evolution.

Cosmological Principle: the Universe Simple & Smooth

"God is an infinite sphere whose centre is everywhere and its circumference nowhere" Empedocles, 5th cent BC

Cosmological Principle:

Describes the symmetries in global appearance of the Universe:

- Homogeneous
- Isotropic





The Universe is the same everywhere: - physical quantities (density, T,p,...)

The Universe looks the same in every direction

- Universality
- Uniformly Expanding





Physical Laws same everywhere

The Universe "grows" with same rate in - every direction - at every location

> all places in the Universe are alike" Einstein, 1931

Geometry of the Universe

Fundamental Tenet

of (Non-Euclidian = Riemannian) Geometry

There exist no more than THREE uniform spaces:

- 1) Euclidian (flat) Geometry
- 2) Hyperbolic Geometry
- 3) Spherical Geometry

Euclides

Gauß, Lobachevski, Bolyai

Riemann

uniform= homogeneous & isotropic (cosmological principle)

Property	Closed	Euclidean	Open
Spatial Curvature	Positive	Zero	Negative
Circle Circumference	$< 2\pi R$	$2\pi R$	$> 2\pi R$
Sphere Area	$< 4\pi R^{2}$	$4\pi R^{2}$	$> 4\pi R^{2}$
Sphere Volume	$< 4/_{3} \pi R^{3}$	$^{4}/_{3} \pi R^{3}$	$> 4/_3 \pi R^3$
Triangle Angle Sum	>180°	180°	< 180°
Total Volume	Finite $(2\pi^2 R^3)$	Infinite	Infinite
	Sphere	Plane	Saddle
Surface Analog			

Curvature of the Universe:

Robertson-Walker Metric

Spherical Surface Distances



Spherical Surface Distances: alternative – geodetic distance x



Spherical Space Distances

r

$$ds^{2} = dr^{2} + R^{2} \sin^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right) \left\{ d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta \, d\phi^{2} \right\}$$

Sphere radius R



Spherical surface is a 2-D section through
an isotropic curved 3D space:
generalization to 3D solid angle
$$(\theta, \phi)$$

 $R\sin\theta d\phi$

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + R^2 \sin^2 \theta \, d\phi^2$$

$$r = R\theta$$

$$ds^{2} = dr^{2} + R^{2} \sin^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)d\phi^{2}$$

$$dr = Rd\theta$$

Spherical Space Distances alternative: geodetic distance





Robertson-Walker Metric

Distances in a uniformly curved spacetime is specified in terms of the Robertson-Walker metric. The spacetime distance of a point at coordinate (r,θ,ϕ) is:

$$ds^{2} = c^{2}dt^{2} - a(t)^{2} \left\{ dr^{2} + R_{c}^{2}S_{k}^{2} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}} \right) \left[d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta \, d\phi^{2} \right] \right\}$$

where the function $S_k(r/R_c)$ specifies the effect of curvature on the distances between points in spacetime

$$S_{k}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) = \begin{cases} \sin\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) & k = +1 \\ \frac{r}{R_{c}} & k = 0 \\ \sinh\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) & k = -1 \end{cases}$$



Spherical space

Flat space

Hyperbolic space

Conformal Time

Conformal Time

Proper time τ

Robertson-Walker metric

$$c^{2}d\tau^{2} = ds^{2} = c^{2}dt^{2} - a(t)^{2} \left\{ dr^{2} + R_{c}^{2}S_{k}^{2} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}} \right) d\psi^{2} \right\}$$

 $d\psi^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta \, d\phi^2$

$$\eta(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \frac{c \, dt}{R(t)}$$

 $d\eta_{\tau}^{2} = \frac{c^{2}d\tau^{2}}{R^{2}} = \frac{c^{2}dt^{2}}{R^{2}} - \left\{ d\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)^{2} + S_{k}^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)d\psi^{2} \right\}$ $= d\eta^{2} - \left\{ dr'^{2} + S_{k}^{2}\left(r'\right)d\psi^{2} \right\}$

Conformal Time $\eta(t)$

Observational Cosmology in FRW Universe

Redshift

Cosmic Redshift



Cosmic Time Dilation

Cosmic Time Dilation

In an (expanding) space with Robertson-Walker metric,

$$ds^{2} = c^{2}dt^{2} - a(t)^{2} \left\{ dr^{2} + R_{c}^{2}S_{k}^{2} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}} \right) \left[d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta \, d\phi^{2} \right] \right\}$$

In a RW metric, light travels with

Cosmic Time Dilation:

$$\Delta t_{obs} = \frac{\Delta t_e}{a(t_e)}$$

 \parallel

Cosmic Time Dilation

$$\Delta t_{obs} = \frac{\Delta t_e}{a(t_e)}$$



light curves supernovae (exploding stars):

characteristic time interval over which the supernova rises and then dims:

systematic shift with redshift (depth)





Hubble Expansion

Expanding Universe

- Einstein, de Sitter, Friedmann and Lemaitre all realized that in General Relativity, there cannot be a stable and static Universe:
- The Universe either expands, or it contracts ...
- Expansion Universe encapsulated in a

GLOBAL expansion factor a(t)

• All distances/dimensions of objects uniformly increase by a(t):

at time t, the distance between two objects i and j has increased to

$$\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j = a(t) \left(\vec{r}_{i,0} - \vec{r}_{j,0} \right)$$

Note: by definition we chose a(t_o)=1,
 i.e. the present-day expansion factor



Interpreting Hubble Expansion

- Cosmic Expansion manifests itself in the in a recession velocity which linearly increases with distance
- this is the same for any galaxy within the Universe !
- There is no centre of the Universe: would be in conflict with the Cosmological Principle

Hubble Expansion

- **Cosmic Expansion is a uniform expansion of space**
- Objects do not move themselves:
 they are like beacons tied to a uniformly expanding sheet:

$$\vec{r}(t) = a(t)\vec{x}$$

$$\dot{\vec{r}}(t) = \dot{a}(t)\vec{x} = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}a\vec{x} = H(t)\vec{r}$$
$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

Hubble Expansion



Objects do not move themselves:
 they are like beacons tied to a uniformly ex Hubble Parameter:



Hubble Parameter

For a long time, the correct value of the Hubble constant H_o
 was a major unsettled issue:

 $H_0 = 50 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \longrightarrow H_0 = 100 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$

- This meant distances and timescales in the Universe had to deal with uncertainties of a factor 2 !!!
- Following major programs, such as Hubble Key Project, the Supernova key projects and the WMAP CMB measurements,

$$H_0 = 71.9^{+2.6}_{-2.7} \, km \, s^{-1} Mpc^{-1}$$

Hubble Expansion



Edwin Hubble

(1889-1953)



 $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{r}$

Hubble Expansion

Hubble Parameter

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Hubble Expansion

Space expands:



displacement - distance

v = H r

Hubble law: velocity - distance


















The evolution of a fluid element on its path through space may be specified by its velocity gradient:

$$rac{1}{a}rac{\partial v_i}{\partial x_j} \;=\; rac{1}{3} heta\,\delta_{ij} \;+\; \sigma_{ij} \;+\; \omega_{ij}$$

in which
 θ: velocity divergence
 contraction/expansion
 σ: velocity shear
 deformation
 ω: vorticity

rotation of element



Global Anisotropic expansion/contraction

Anisotropic Relativistic Universe Models: Bianchi I-IX Universe models

- expand anisotropically
- have to be characterized by at least
 3 Hubble parameters (expansion rate different in different directions)
- Only marginal claims indicate the possibility on the basis of CMB anisotropies



Local Anisotropic Flows: "fatal" attractions

• In our local neighbourhood the cosmic flow field has a significant shear

This shear is a manifestation of

- infall of our Local Group into the Local Supercluster
- motion towards the Great Attractor
- possibly motion towards even larger mass entities: Shapley concentration Horologium supercluster



Global Hubble Expansion Observations over large regions of the sky, out to large cosmic depth:

• the Hubble expansion offers a very good description of the actual Universe

 the Hubble expansion is the same in whatever direction you look: isotropic

Hubble flow:

$$H = \frac{1}{3}\nabla \cdot v$$

Pure expansion/contraction

(Wendy L. Freedman, Observatories of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and NASA)

Cosmic Distances

Light paths RW space

In an (expanding) space with Robertson-Walker metric,

$$ds^{2} = c^{2}dt^{2} - a(t)^{2} \left\{ dr^{2} + R_{c}^{2}S_{k}^{2} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}} \right) \left[d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta \, d\phi^{2} \right] \right\}$$

radial comoving distance r travelled by radiation

in a RW space:

$$ds = 0: \qquad c^{2}dt^{2} - a(t)^{2}dr^{2} = 0$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$cdt = a(t)dr$$

$$r = r(t_0) - r(t_e) = \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{cdt}{a(t)}$$

Distance Measure

RW Distance Measure

In an (expanding) space with Robertson-Walker metric,

$$ds^{2} = c^{2}dt^{2} - a(t)^{2} \left\{ dr^{2} + R_{c}^{2}S_{k}^{2} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}} \right) \left[d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta \, d\phi^{2} \right] \right\}$$

there are several definitions for distance, dependent on how you measure it.

They all involve the central distance function, the RW Distance Measure,

$$D(r) = R_c S_k \left(\frac{r}{R_c}\right)$$

<u>RW Redshift-Distance</u>

Light propagation in a RW metric (curved space):

$$ds^{2} = 0 d\psi^{2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow c dt = -R(t) dr$$

Note: - light propagation is along radial lines

- the "-" sign is an expression for the fact that the light ray propagating towards you moves in opposite direction of radial coordinate r

After some simplification and reordering, we find

$$c dt = c \frac{dR}{\left(\frac{dR}{dt}\right)} = c \frac{dR}{\dot{R}} = c \frac{dR}{HR}$$

 $R_0 dr = \frac{c}{H(z)} dz$

 $R(t) = a(t)R_0 = \frac{R_0}{1+z}$

 $\frac{dR}{R} = -\frac{1}{1+z} dz$

RW Redshift-Distance

Observing in a FRW Universe, we locate galaxies in terms of their redshift z. To connect this to their true physical distance, we need to know what the coordinate distance r of an object with redshift z,

$$R_0 dr = \frac{c}{H(z)} dz$$

In a FRW Universe, the dependence of the Hubble expansion rate H(z) at any redshift z depends on the content of matter, dark energy and radiation, as well ss its curvature. This leads to the following explicit expression for the redshift-distance relation,

$$R_{0}dr = \frac{c}{H_{0}} \left\{ \left(1 - \Omega_{0}\right) \left(1 + z\right)^{2} + \Omega_{\Lambda,0} + \Omega_{m,0} \left(1 + z\right)^{3} + \Omega_{rad,0} \left(1 + z\right)^{4} \right\}^{-1/2} dz$$

Matter-Dominated FRW Universe

in a matter-dominated Universe, the redshift-distance relation is

$$R_0 dr = \frac{c}{H_0} \left\{ \left(1 - \Omega_0\right) \left(1 + z\right)^2 + \Omega_0 \left(1 + z\right)^3 \right\}^{-1/2} dz$$

from which one may find that

$$R_0 r = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{(1+z')\sqrt{1+\Omega_0 z'}}$$

Mattig's Formula

The integral expression

$$R_0 r = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{(1+z')\sqrt{1+\Omega_0 z'}}$$

can be evaluated by using the substitution:

$$u^2 = \frac{k(\Omega_0 - 1)}{\Omega_0 (1 + z)}$$

This leads to Mattig's formula:

$$D(z) = R_c S_k \left(\frac{r}{R_c}\right) = \frac{2c}{H_0} \frac{\Omega_0 z + (\Omega_0 - 2) \left\{\sqrt{1 + \Omega_0 z} - 1\right\}}{\Omega_0^2 (1 + z)}$$

This is one of the very most important and most useful equations in observational cosmology.

Mattig's Formula

$$D(z) = R_c S_k \left(\frac{r}{R_c}\right) = \frac{2c}{H_0} \frac{\Omega_0 z + (\Omega_0 - 2) \left\{\sqrt{1 + \Omega_0 z} - 1\right\}}{\Omega_0^2 (1 + z)}$$

In a low-density Universe, it is better to use the following version:

$$D(z) = R_c S_k \left(\frac{r}{R_c}\right) = \frac{c}{H_0} \frac{z}{1+z} \frac{1+\sqrt{1+\Omega_0 z}}{1+\sqrt{1+\Omega_0 z} + \Omega_0 z/2}$$

For a Universe with a cosmological constant, there is not an easily tractable analytical expression (a Mattig's formula). The comoving Distance r has to be found through a numerical evaluation of the fundamental dr/dz expression.

Distance-Redshift Relation, 2nd order

For all general FRW Universe, the second-order distance-redshift relation is identical, only depending on the *deceleration parameter* q₀:

$$D(z) = R_c S_k \left(\frac{r}{R_c}\right) \simeq \frac{c}{H_0} \left(z - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + q_0\right) z^2\right)$$

 q_0 can be related to Ω_0 once the equation of state is known.

Angular Diameter Distance

Luminosity Distance

Angular Diameter Distance

Imagine an object of *proper size d*, at redshift z, its angular size **D** is given by



Luminosity Distance

Imagine an object of luminosity $L(v_e)$, at redshift z, its flux density at observed frequency v_o is

$$S(v_{o}) = \frac{L(v_{e})}{4\pi D^{2}(1+z)} \implies S_{bol} = \frac{L_{bol}}{4\pi D^{2}(1+z)^{2}} = \frac{L_{bol}}{4\pi D_{L}^{2}}$$

Luminosity distance:

 $D_L = D(1+z)$

Angular vs. Luminosity Distance

The relation between the Luminosity and the Angular Diameter distance of an object at redshift z is sometimes indicated as

Reciprocity Theorem

The difference between these 2 fundamental cosmological measures stems from the fact that they involve "radial paths" measured in opposite directions along the lightcone, and thus are

forward - luminosity distance backward - angular diameter distance

wrt. expansion of the Universe

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}
D_{L} = D(1+z) \\
D_{A} = D/(1+z)
\end{array}\right\} \Rightarrow \frac{D_{L}}{D_{A}} = (1+z)^{2}$$



Angular Diameter Distance matter-dominated FRW Universe



In a matter-dominated Universe, the angular diameter distance as function of redshift is given by:

$$D_{A}(z) = \frac{1}{1+z} R_{c} S_{k} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) = \frac{2c}{H_{0}} \frac{1}{\Omega_{0}^{2} (1+z)^{2}} \left\{\Omega_{0} z + \left(\Omega_{0} - 2\right) \left(\sqrt{1+\Omega_{0} z} - 1\right)\right\}$$

Angular Size - Redshift FRW Universe

The angular size $\mathbb{D}(z)$ of an object of physical size \mathbb{D} at a redshift z displays an interesting behaviour. In most FRW universes is has a minimum at a medium range redshift – z=1.25 in an Ω_m =1 EdS universe – and increases again at higher redshifts.



In a matter-dominated Universe, the angular diameter distance as function of redshift is given by:

$$D_{A}(z) = \frac{1}{1+z} R_{c} S_{k} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) = \frac{2c}{H_{0}} \frac{1}{\Omega_{0}^{2} (1+z)^{2}} \left\{\Omega_{0} z + \left(\Omega_{0} - 2\right) \left(\sqrt{1+\Omega_{0} z} - 1\right)\right\}$$

Luminosity Distance matter-dominated FRW Universe



In a matter-dominated Universe, the luminosity distance as function of redshift is given by:

$$D_{L}(z) = (1+z)R_{c}S_{k}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) = \frac{2c}{\Omega_{0}^{2}H_{0}}\left\{\Omega_{0}z + \left(\Omega_{0}-2\right)\left(\sqrt{1+\Omega_{0}z}-1\right)\right\}$$

Cosmological Distances:

Comparison

FRW Universe Distances summary



Cosmology:

the search for 2 numbers

Cosmology, the search for 2 numbers



How to measure the values of H_0 and q_0 , without any prior assumption on the dynamics, ie. of the particular FRWL cosmological model ? le. how to infer these numbers from observables:

- redshift - luminosity - angular size

Establish relation expansion factor a(t) up to 2nd order (Taylor series):

$$a(t) \approx 1 + H_0(t - t_0) - \frac{1}{2}q_0 H_0^2(t - t_0)^2$$

Time of Emission - Redshift

 The corresponding redshift z of the source that emitted its radiation at time t_e:

$$z \approx H_0 \left(t_0 - t_e \right) + \left(\frac{1 + q_0}{2} \right) H_0^2 \left(t_0 - t_e \right)^2$$

 whose inversion translates into the expression of the emission time t_e for a given redshift z:

$$t_0 - t_e \approx \frac{1}{H_0} \left\{ z - \left(\frac{1 + q_0}{2} \right) z^2 \right\}$$

Coordinate Distance - Redshift

 Coordinate distance d_P(t₀) of source whose radiation is emitted at t_e, and reached us at t₀:

$$d_{P}(t_{0}) = r = c \int_{t_{e}}^{t_{0}} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

$$d_P(t_0) \approx c(t_0 - t_e) + \frac{cH_0}{2}(t_0 - t_e)^2$$

 Using the relation between (t0-te) and redshift z, establishes the relation between coordinate distance d_P(t₀) of source and z:

$$d_{P}(t_{0}) \approx \frac{c}{H_{0}} z \left\{ 1 - \frac{1 + q_{0}}{2} z \right\}$$

Luminosity Distance - Redshift

Luminosity Distance

$$d_L(z) \approx (1+z) d_P(t_0)$$

$$= \frac{c}{H_0} z \left\{ 1 + \frac{1 - q_0}{2} z \right\}$$

• In terms of an object at redshift z, with absolute bolometric magnitude M_{bol} , we may infer the acceleration parameter q_0 from:

$$m_{bol} \approx M_{bol} + 5\log\left[\frac{c}{H_0}/10\,pc\right] + 5\log z + 1.086(1-q_0)z + O(z^2)$$

Cosmic Curvature Measured

Cosmic Microwave Background



Map of the Universe at Recombination Epoch (Planck, 2013):
☑ 379,000 years after Big Bang
☑ Subhorizon perturbations: primordial sound waves
☑ △T/T < 10-5

Measuring Curvature

Measuring the Geometry of the Universe:

- Object with known physical size, at large cosmological distance
- Measure angular extent on sky
- Comparison yields light path, and from this the curvature of space

Geometry of Space



Angular Size - Redshift FRW Universe

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In a matter-dominated Universe, the angular diameter distance as function of redshift is given by:

$$D_{A}(z) = \frac{1}{1+z} R_{c} S_{k} \left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) = \frac{2c}{H_{0}} \frac{1}{\Omega_{0}^{2} (1+z)^{2}} \left\{\Omega_{0} z + \left(\Omega_{0} - 2\right) \left(\sqrt{1+\Omega_{0} z} - 1\right)\right\}$$

Measuring Curvature

- Object with known physical size, at large cosmological distance:
- Sound Waves in the Early Universe !!!!



Temperature Fluctuations CMB



Fluctuations-Origin


Music of the Spheres

- small ripples in primordial matter & photon distribution
- gravity:
 - compression primordial photon gas
 - photon pressure resists
- compressions and rarefactions in photon gas: sound waves
- sound waves not heard, but seen:
 compressions: (photon) T higher
 rarefactions: lower
- fundamental mode sound spectrum
 - size of "instrument":
 - (sound) horizon size last scattering
- Observed, angular size: θ~1°

- exact scale maximum compression, the "cosmic fundamental mode of music" W. Hu



Cosmic Microwave Background



COBE measured fluctuations:> 7°Size Horizon at Recombination spans angle~ 1°

COBE proved that superhorizon fluctuations do exist:

prediction Inflation !!!!!

Flat universe from CMB

• First peak: flat universe



Flat:

appear as big

as they are

Open: spots appear smaller

We know the redshift and the time it took for the light to reach us:

from this we know the

- length of the legs of the triangle
- the angle at which we are measuring the sound horizon.

$$v \approx \frac{c}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\ell \approx 200/\sqrt{1-\Omega_k}$$

Closed: hot spots appear larger

The Cosmic Tonal Ladder



The Cosmic Microwave Background Temperature Anisotropies: Universe is almost perfectly FLAT !!!!

Planck CMB Temperature Fluctuations





FRW Universe: Curvature

There is a 1-1 relation between the total energy content of the Universe and its curvature. From FRW equations:

$$k = \frac{H^2 R^2}{c^2} (\Omega - 1) \qquad \Omega = \Omega_{rad} + \Omega_m + \Omega_\Lambda$$

 $\Omega < 1$ k = -1 Hyperbolic Open Universe $\Omega = 1$ k = 0 Flat Critical Universe

 $\Omega > 1$ k = +1 Spherical Close Universe

Cosmic Curvature & Cosmic Density

$$q \approx \frac{\Omega_m}{2} - \Omega_\Lambda$$
$$k = \frac{H^2 R^2}{c^2} (\Omega_m + \Omega_\Lambda - 1)$$

SCP Union2 constraints (2010)

on values of matter density $\Omega_{\rm m}$ dark energy density Ω_{Λ}

