

## Einstein Field Equation

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

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

## 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, $5^{\text {th }}$ cent BC

## Cosmological Principle:

Describes the symmetries in global appearance of the Universe:

- Homogeneous
- Isotropic
- Universality
- Uniformly Expanding

The Universe is the same everywhere:

- physical quantities (density, $\mathrm{T}, \mathrm{p}, \ldots$ )

The Universe looks the same in every direction

Physical Laws same everywhere
The Universe "grows" with same rate in

- every direction
- at every location


## 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

Property

| Spatial Curvature | Positive | Zero | Negative |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Circle <br> 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 | $>180^{\circ}$ | $180^{\circ}$ | $<180^{\circ}$ |
| Total Volume | Finite $\left(2 \pi^{2} R^{3}\right)$ | Infinite | Infinite |
|  | Sphere | Plane | Saddle |
| Surface Analog |  |  |  |

## Curvature of the Universe:

## Robertson-Walker Metric

## Spherical Surface Distances

Sphere radius R


# Spherical Surface Distances: alternative - geodetic distance $x$ 

Sphere radius R


$$
\begin{aligned}
& d s=R \sin \theta d \phi=x d \phi \\
& x \equiv R \sin \left(\frac{r}{R}\right) \Rightarrow d x=\cos \left(\frac{r}{R}\right) d r \\
& \Rightarrow d x^{2}=\left\{1-\sin ^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)\right\} d r^{2} \\
& \kappa=\frac{1}{R^{2}} \quad \Rightarrow d r^{2}=\frac{d x^{2}}{1-\kappa x^{2}} \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
d s^{2}=d r^{2}+R^{2} \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right) d \phi^{2} \\
\Downarrow \\
d s^{2}=\frac{d x^{2}}{1-\kappa x^{2}}+x^{2} d \phi^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Spherical Space Distances

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

Sphere radius R
Spherical surface is a 2-D section through


## Spherical Space Distances alternative: geodetic distance

Sphere radius R

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



# Minkowski Metric spherically isotropic 3D space 

$$
\text { Sphere radius R } \quad d s^{2}=c^{2} d t^{2}-\left[d r^{2}+R^{2} \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)\left\{d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}\right\}\right]
$$



## 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 ( $\mathrm{r}, \theta, \phi$ ) is:

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

where the function $S_{k}\left(\mathrm{r} / \mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{c}}\right)$ 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 $\tau$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& c^{2} d \tau^{2}=d s^{2}=c^{2} d t^{2}-a(t)^{2}\left\{d r^{2}+R_{c}^{2} S_{k}^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) d \psi^{2}\right\} \\
& d \psi^{2}=d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
d \eta_{\tau}^{2} & =\frac{c^{2} d \tau^{2}}{R^{2}}=\frac{c^{2} d t^{2}}{R^{2}}-\left\{d\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)^{2}+S_{k}^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) d \psi^{2}\right\} \\
& =d \eta^{2}-\left\{d r^{\prime 2}+S_{k}^{2}\left(r^{\prime}\right) d \psi^{2}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Conformal Time $\eta(\mathrm{t})$

## Observational Cosmology in FRW Universe

## Redshift

## Cosmic Redshift



## Cosmic Time Dilation

## Cosmic Time Dilation

In an (expanding) space with Robertson-Walker metric,
$d s^{2}=c^{2} d t^{2}-a(t)^{2}\left\{d r^{2}+R_{c}^{2} S_{k}^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)\left[d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}\right]\right\}$

In a RW metric, light travels with

Cosmic Time Dilation:

$$
\begin{gathered}
d s=0: \quad c^{2} d t^{2}-a(t)^{2} d r^{2}=0 \\
\\
\\
c d t=a(t) d r: \quad \frac{d t}{a(t)}=c s t . \\
\\
\\
\\
\\
\Delta t_{o b s}= \\
\\
\\
\\
a\left(t_{e}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

## Cosmic Time Dilation

$$
\Delta t_{o b s}=\frac{\Delta t_{e}}{a\left(t_{e}\right)}
$$



## Evidence Cosmic Time Dilation:

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 $a\left(\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{o}}\right)=1$, 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:

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

$$
\left.\dot{\vec{r}}(t)=\dot{a}(t) \vec{x}=\frac{\dot{a}}{a} a \vec{x}=H(t) \vec{r}\right]
$$

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

## Hubble Expansion

® Cosmic Expansion is a uniform expansion of space
® Objects do not move themselves: they are like beacons tied to a uniformly ex] Hubble Parameter:

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

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

$$
F(H)=\frac{\dot{a}}{a}
$$

## Hubble Parameter

For a long time, the correct value of the Hubble constant $\mathbf{H}_{0}$ was a major unsettled issue:

$$
\mathrm{H}_{0}=50 \mathrm{~km} \mathrm{~s}^{-1} \mathrm{Mpc}^{-1} \longrightarrow \mathrm{H}_{0}=100 \mathrm{~km} \mathrm{~s}^{-1} \mathrm{Mpc}^{-1}
$$

■ 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,

$$
H_{0}=71.9_{-2.7}^{+2.6} k m s^{-1} M p c^{-1}
$$

## Hubble Expansion



Edwin Hubble
(1889-1953)


Hubble Expansion

## Hubble Parameter

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$$

## Hubble Expansion

Space expands:
displacement - distance

$$
v=H r
$$

Hubble law: velocity - distance







## Deformation Cosmic Volume Element



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

$$
\frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}=\frac{1}{3} \theta \delta_{i j}+\sigma_{i j}+\omega_{i j}
$$

in which
$\theta$ : velocity divergence
$\longrightarrow$ contraction/expansion
$\sigma$ : velocity shear
$\longrightarrow$ deformation
$\omega$ : vorticity

## Deformation

## Cosmic Volume 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


## Deformation

## Cosmic Volume Element



## 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


## Deformation Cosmic Volume Element



B
(Wendy L. Freedman, Observatories of the Carmegie insstufion of Washington, and NASA)

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

## Cosmic Distances

## Light paths RW space

In an (expanding) space with Robertson-Walker metric,
$d s^{2}=c^{2} d t^{2}-a(t)^{2}\left\{d r^{2}+R_{c}^{2} S_{k}^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)\left[d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}\right]\right\}$
radial comoving distance $r$ travelled by radiation in a RW space:

$$
d s=0: \quad c^{2} d t^{2}-a(t)^{2} d r^{2}=0
$$

$$
\downarrow
$$

$$
c d t=a(t) d r
$$

$$
r=r\left(t_{0}\right)-r\left(t_{e}\right)=\int_{t_{e}}^{t_{0}} \frac{c d t}{a(t)}
$$

Distance Measure

## RW Distance Measure

In an (expanding) space with Robertson-Walker metric,
$d s^{2}=c^{2} d t^{2}-a(t)^{2}\left\{d r^{2}+R_{c}^{2} S_{k}^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)\left[d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}\right]\right\}$
there are several definitions for distance, dependent on how you measure it.
They all involve the central distance function, the RW Distance Measure,

$$
D(r)=R_{c} S_{k}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)
$$

# RW Redshift-Distance 

Light propagation in a RW metric (curved space):

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
d s^{2}=0 \\
d \psi^{2}=0
\end{array}\right\} \Rightarrow c d t=-R(t) d r
$$

Note: - light propagation is along radial lines

$$
R_{0} d r=\frac{c}{H(z)} d z
$$

- 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

$$
\begin{gathered}
R(t)=a(t) R_{0}=\frac{R_{0}}{1+z} \\
\Downarrow \\
\frac{d R}{R}=-\frac{1}{1+z} d z
\end{gathered}
$$

## 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 $z$,

$$
R_{0} d r=\frac{c}{H(z)} d z
$$

In a FRW Universe, the dependence of the Hubble expansion rate $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{z})$ 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,

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

## Matter-Dominated FRW Universe

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

$$
R_{0} d r=\frac{c}{H_{0}}\left\{\left(1-\Omega_{0}\right)(1+z)^{2}+\Omega_{0}(1+z)^{3}\right\}^{-1 / 2} d z
$$

from which one may find that

$$
R_{0} r=\frac{c}{H_{0}} \int_{0}^{z} \frac{d z^{\prime}}{\left(1+z^{\prime}\right) \sqrt{1+\Omega_{0} z^{\prime}}}
$$

## Mattig's Formula

The integral expression

$$
R_{0} r=\frac{c}{H_{0}} \int_{0}^{z} \frac{d z^{\prime}}{\left(1+z^{\prime}\right) \sqrt{1+\Omega_{0} z^{\prime}}}
$$

can be evaluated by using the substitution:

$$
u^{2}=\frac{k\left(\Omega_{0}-1\right)}{\Omega_{0}(1+z)}
$$

This leads to Mattig's formula:

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

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

## Mattig's Formula

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

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, $2^{\text {nd }}$ order

For all general FRW Universe, the second-order distance-redshift relation is identical, only depending on the deceleration parameter $\mathrm{q}_{0}$ :

$$
D(z)=R_{c} S_{k}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) \simeq \frac{c}{H_{0}}\left(z-\frac{1}{2}\left(1+q_{0}\right) z^{2}\right)
$$

$q_{0}$ can be related to $\Omega_{0}$ 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 国 is given by

$$
d=a(t) R_{c} S_{k}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right) \Delta \theta \quad \square \Delta \theta=\frac{d(1+z)}{D}=\frac{d}{D_{A}}
$$



Angular Diameter distance:

$$
D_{A}=\frac{D}{1+z}
$$

## Luminosity Distance

Imagine an object of luminosity $L\left(v_{e}\right)$, at redshift $z$, its flux density at observed frequency $v_{0}$ is

$$
S\left(v_{o}\right)=\frac{L\left(v_{e}\right)}{4 \pi D^{2}(1+z)} \quad S_{b o l}=\frac{L_{b o l}}{4 \pi D^{2}(1+z)^{2}}=\frac{L_{b o l}}{4 \pi D_{L}^{2}}
$$

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

$$
D_{A}=\frac{D}{1+z}=\frac{1}{1+z} R_{c} S_{k}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)
$$



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

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

## Angular Size - Redshift FRW Universe

$$
\theta(z)=\frac{\ell}{D_{A}}
$$

The angular size ${ }^{\text {® }}(\mathbf{z})$ of an object of physical size 罒 at a redshift z displays an interesting behaviour. In most FRW universes is has a minimum at a medium range redshift $\mathrm{z}=1.25$ in an $\Omega_{\mathrm{m}}=1$ EdS universe - and increases again at higher redshifts.


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

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

## Luminosity Distance matter-dominated FRW Universe

$$
D_{L}=D(1+z)=(1+z) R_{c} S_{k}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)
$$



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

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

# Cosmological Distances: 

Comparison

## FRW Universe Distances summary



## Cosmology:

the search for 2 numbers

## Cosmology, the search for 2 numbers

## Sandage, ARAA 1970 :

Cosmology is the "Search for 2 numbers":

$$
H_{0} \quad q_{0}
$$

How to measure the values of $\mathrm{H}_{0}$ and $\mathrm{q}_{0}$, 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 2 nd order (Taylor series):

$$
a(t) \approx 1+H_{0}\left(t-t_{0}\right)-\frac{1}{2} q_{0} H_{0}^{2}\left(t-t_{0}\right)^{2}
$$

## Time of Emission - Redshift

- The corresponding redshift $\mathbf{z}$ of the source that emitted its radiation at time $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{e}}$ :

$$
z \approx H_{0}\left(t_{0}-t_{e}\right)+\left(\frac{1+q_{0}}{2}\right) H_{0}^{2}\left(t_{0}-t_{e}\right)^{2}
$$

- whose inversion translates into the expression of the emission time $\boldsymbol{t}_{\mathrm{e}}$ 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 $\mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{p}}\left(\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{t}}\right)$ of source whose radiation is emitted at $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{e}}$, and reached us at $\mathrm{t}_{0}$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
d_{P}\left(t_{0}\right)=r=c \int_{t_{e}}^{t_{0}} \frac{d t}{a(t)} \\
d_{P}\left(t_{0}\right) \approx c\left(t_{0}-t_{e}\right)+\frac{c H_{0}}{2}\left(t_{0}-t_{e}\right)^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

- Using the relation between ( $\mathbf{t 0 - t e}$ ) and redshift $\mathbf{z}$, establishes the relation between coordinate distance $d_{p}\left(t_{0}\right)$ of source and $\mathbf{z}$ :

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

## Luminosity Distance - Redshift

- Luminosity Distance

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{L}(z) & \approx(1+z) d_{P}\left(t_{0}\right) \\
& =\frac{c}{H_{0}} z\left\{1+\frac{1-q_{0}}{2} z\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

- In terms of an object at redshift $\mathbf{z}$, with absolute bolometric magnitude $M_{\text {bol }}$, we may infer the acceleration parameter $\mathrm{q}_{\mathbf{0}}$ from:

$$
m_{b o l} \approx M_{b o l}+5 \log \left[\frac{c}{H_{0}} / 10 p c\right]+5 \log z+1.086\left(1-q_{0}\right) z+O\left(z^{2}\right)
$$

## Cosmic Curvature Measured

## Cosmic Microwave Background



Map of the Universe at Recombination Epoch (Planck, 2013):
a 379,000 years after Big Bang
© Subhorizon perturbations: primordial sound waves
$\square \Delta T / T<10-5$

## 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


FRW Universe:
lightpaths described by Robertson-Walker metric $d s^{2}=c^{2} d t^{2}-a(t)^{2}\left\{d r^{2}+R_{c}{ }^{2} S_{k}{ }^{2}\left(\frac{r}{R_{c}}\right)\left[d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}\right]\right\}$

Here: angular diameter distance $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{A}}: \quad \lambda=D_{A} \alpha$

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

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

## Measuring Curvature

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


Temperature Fluctuations CMB


## FRW Universe:

lightpaths described by Robertson-Walker metric

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

Here: angular diameter distance $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{A}}: \quad \lambda=D_{A} \alpha$

## 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:
$\theta \sim 1^{\circ}$
- exact scale maximum compression, the "cosmic fundamental mode of music" W. Hu



## COBE measured fluctuations: <br> $>7^{0}$ <br> Size Horizon at Recombination spans angle $\sim \mathbf{1}^{\circ}$

COBE proved that superhorizon fluctuations do exist:
prediction Inflation ! ! $!$ !

## Flat universe from CMB

## - First peak: flat universe



Closed:
hot spots appear larger


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.

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

$$
\ell \approx 200 / \sqrt{1-\Omega_{k}}
$$

## The Cosmic Tonal Ladder



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

## Planck CMB Temperature Fluctuations



Standard Ruler: $1^{\circ}$ arc measurement of dominant energy spike


Angular Scale


$$
\lambda_{\text {sound horizon }}=D_{A}\left(z_{\text {rec }}\right) \theta_{C M B, 1 \text { st peak }}
$$

## FRW Universe: Curvature

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

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

$\Omega<1 \quad k=-1$
Hyperbolic
Open Universe
$\Omega=1$
$k=0$
Flat
Critical Universe
$\Omega>1$
$k=+1$
Spherical
Close Universe

## Cosmic Curvature

$$
\begin{aligned}
& q \approx \frac{\Omega_{m}}{2}-\Omega_{\Lambda} \\
& k=\frac{H^{2} R^{2}}{c^{2}}\left(\Omega_{m}+\Omega_{\Lambda}-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

SCP Union2 constraints (2010)
on values of matter density $\Omega_{m}$ dark energy density $\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{\wedge}$

Supernova Cosmology Project
Amanullah, et al., Ap.J. (2010)


