

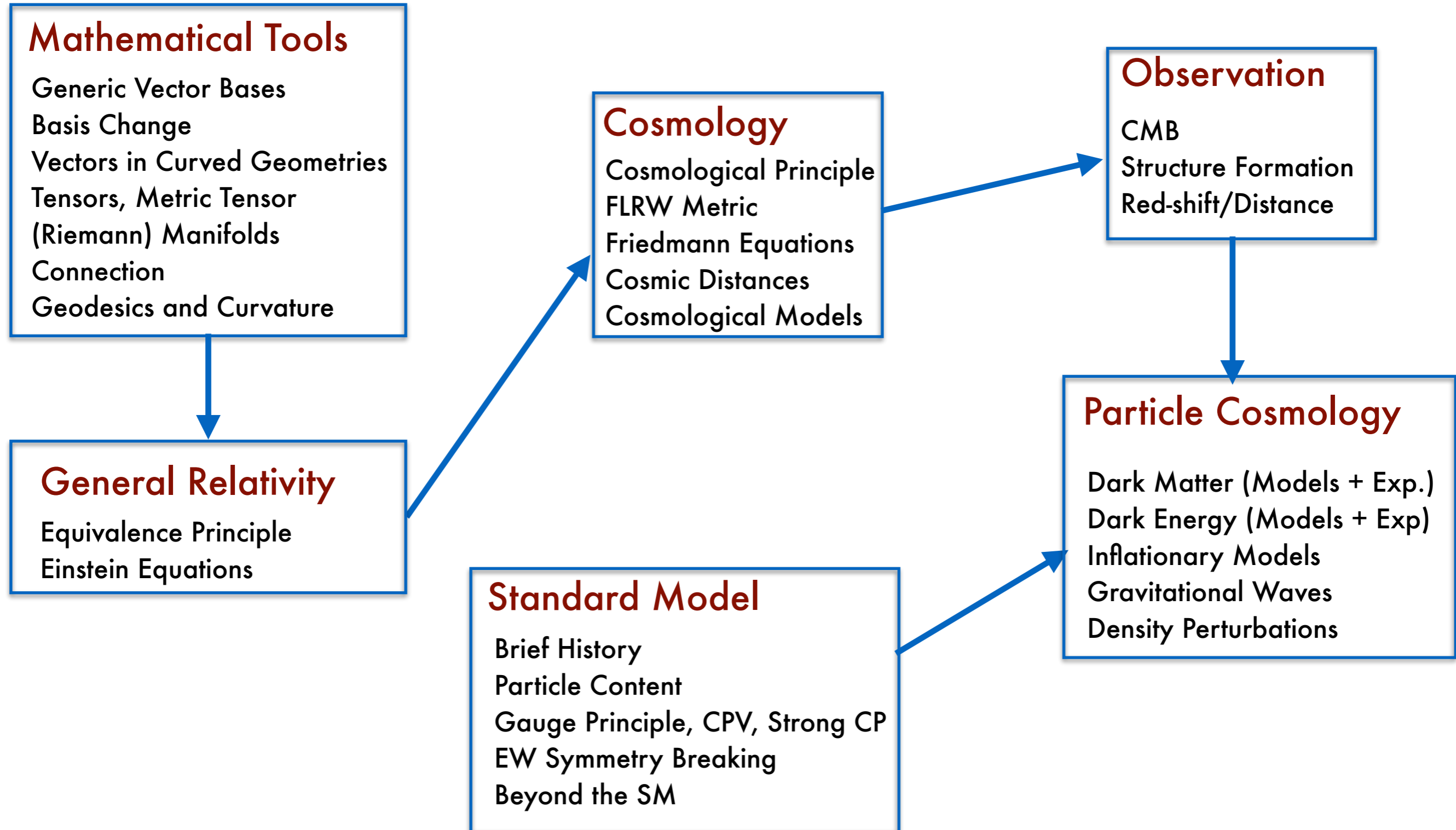
Introductory Particle Cosmology

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Lecture 5



Datum	Von	Bis	Raum
1 Di, 17. Apr. 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
2 Do, 19. Apr. 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
3 Di, 24. Apr. 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
4 Do, 26. Apr. 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
5 Do, 3. Mai 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
6 Di, 8. Mai 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
7 Di, 15. Mai 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
8 Do, 17. Mai 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
9 Di, 22. Mai 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
10 Do, 24. Mai 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
11 Di, 29. Mai 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
12 Di, 5. Jun. 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
13 Do, 7. Jun. 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
14 Di, 12. Jun. 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
15 Do, 14. Jun. 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
16 Di, 19. Jun. 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
17 Do, 21. Jun. 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
18 Di, 26. Jun. 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
19 Do, 28. Jun. 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
20 Di, 3. Jul. 2018	10:00	12:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum
21 Do, 5. Jul. 2018	08:00	10:00	05 119 Minkowski-Raum



H. Minkowski
(1864-1909)

Physics Dept. Building, 5th Floor

Cosmological Red-shift
Estimation of the Age of the Universe
Cosmological Distances
Cosmography
Standard LambdaCDM Model

The Cosmological Red-shift

Light ray in the FLRW space-time: $d\tau^2 = dt^2 - a^2(t) \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} = 0$

Separating the variables: $\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_0^{r_1} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}} = \begin{cases} \sin^{-1} r_1 & k = 1 \\ r_1 & k = 0 \\ \sinh^{-1} r_1 & k = -1 \end{cases}$

Observation



t_0

$t_0 + \delta t_0$



$t_1 + \delta t_1$

Emission



t_1

$$\int_{t_1 + \delta t_1}^{t_0 + \delta t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} - \int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_{\delta t_0}^{\delta t_1} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = 0$$

\Rightarrow
 \downarrow

$$\frac{\delta t_1}{\delta t_0} = \frac{a(t_1)}{a(t_0)} = \frac{\nu_0}{\nu_1} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_0}$$

$a(t)$ does not vary much between two crests

Red-shift Parameter

$$z = \frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda_1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_1)} - 1$$

$z > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_0 > \lambda_1$ **Red-shift** The Universe is expanding

$z < 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_0 < \lambda_1$ **Blue-shift** The Universe is contracting

Second Friedmann equation

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_c \left[\sum_i \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_c} + \frac{\rho_k}{\rho_c} \right]$$

Many components

$$\rho_k = k / (a^2)$$

ATTENTION: just a formal analogy!

Introducing the present-day critical density (and the present-day Hubble parameter H_0)

$$H^2 = H_0^2 \left[\frac{\Omega_m^0}{a^3} + \frac{\Omega_r^0}{a^4} + \frac{\Omega_k^0}{a^2} + \Omega_\Lambda^0 \right]$$

Matter

Radiation

Curvature

Cosmological Constant

The previous formula can be rewritten using the red-shift parameter

$$H^2 = H_0^2 \left[\Omega_m^0 (1+z)^3 + \Omega_r^0 (1+z)^4 + \Omega_k^0 (1+z)^2 + \Omega_\Lambda^0 \right]$$

since $H = -\frac{1}{1+z} \frac{dz}{dt}$ and $\Omega_r^0 \approx 0$ so $\Omega_k^0 = 1 - \Omega_m^0 - \Omega_\Lambda^0$

we obtain the approximate formula

$$\Delta t = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{1+z'} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1 + \Omega_m^0 z')(1 + z')^2 - z'(2 + z')\Omega_\Lambda^0}}$$

where the integral extends from today ($z=0$) to some epoch characterized by z .

$$\Delta t = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{1+z'} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1 + \Omega_m^0 z')(1 + z')^2 - z'(2 + z')\Omega_\Lambda^0}}$$

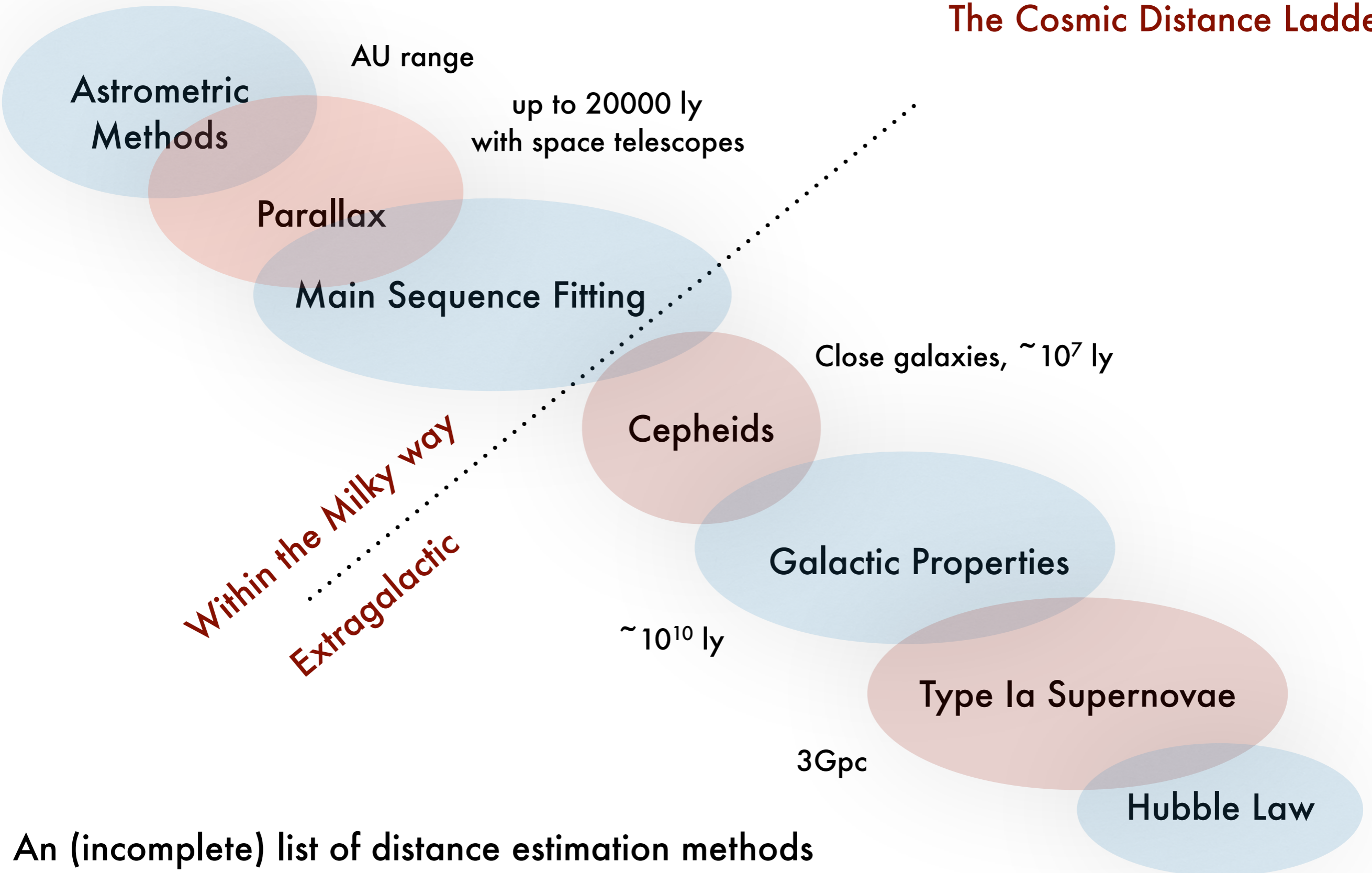
extend to ∞

This integral is $O(1)$, so **Age of the Universe** $\approx 1/H_0 \approx 14$ Gyr

Simple analytical case: flat Universe with no cosmological constant:

$$A = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^\infty \frac{dz'}{(1+z')^{5/2}} = \frac{2}{3H_0} \sim 10 \text{ Gyr}$$

The Cosmic Distance Ladder



An (incomplete) list of distance estimation methods

$$R_i = R(t_i)$$

Power received

$$P = L \cdot \left[\frac{R_1^2}{R_0^2} \right] \cdot \left[\frac{A}{4\pi R_0^2 r_1^2} \right]$$

True luminosity (i.e. power) Photon Energy redshift Distance taking into account expansion

Detector Area

Apparent luminosity

$$l = \frac{P}{A}$$

In Euclidean space

$$l = \frac{L}{4\pi d_L^2}$$

We can thus define the **luminosity distance**

$$d_L = \frac{R_0^2}{R_1^2} r_1 = (z + 1) r_1 R_0$$



Expand the scale factor $a(t) = a_0 \left[1 + H_0(t - t_0) - \frac{1}{2}q_0 H_0^2 (t - t_0)^2 + \frac{1}{6}j_0 H_0^3 (t - t_0)^3 + \dots \right]$

Relation to redshift $1 + z = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_0 - D/c)}$

Luminosity distance $d_L = \frac{a_0^2 r_0}{a(t_0 - D/c)}$

Measurable

Fit to the d_L / z data:

$$d_L(z) = \frac{cz}{H_0} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2}(1 - q_0)z - \frac{1}{6} \left(1 - q_0 - 3q_0^2 + j_0 + \frac{kc^2}{H_0^2 a_0^2} \right) z^2 \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{24} \left(2 - 2q_0 - 15q_0^2 - 15q_0^3 + 5j_0 + 10q_0 j_0 + s_0 + \frac{2kc^2(1 + 3q_0)}{H_0^2 a_0^2} \right) z^3 + \dots \right]$$

Discovery of the Accelerated Expansion



Photo: Roy Kaltschmidt. Courtesy: Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory

Saul Perlmutter



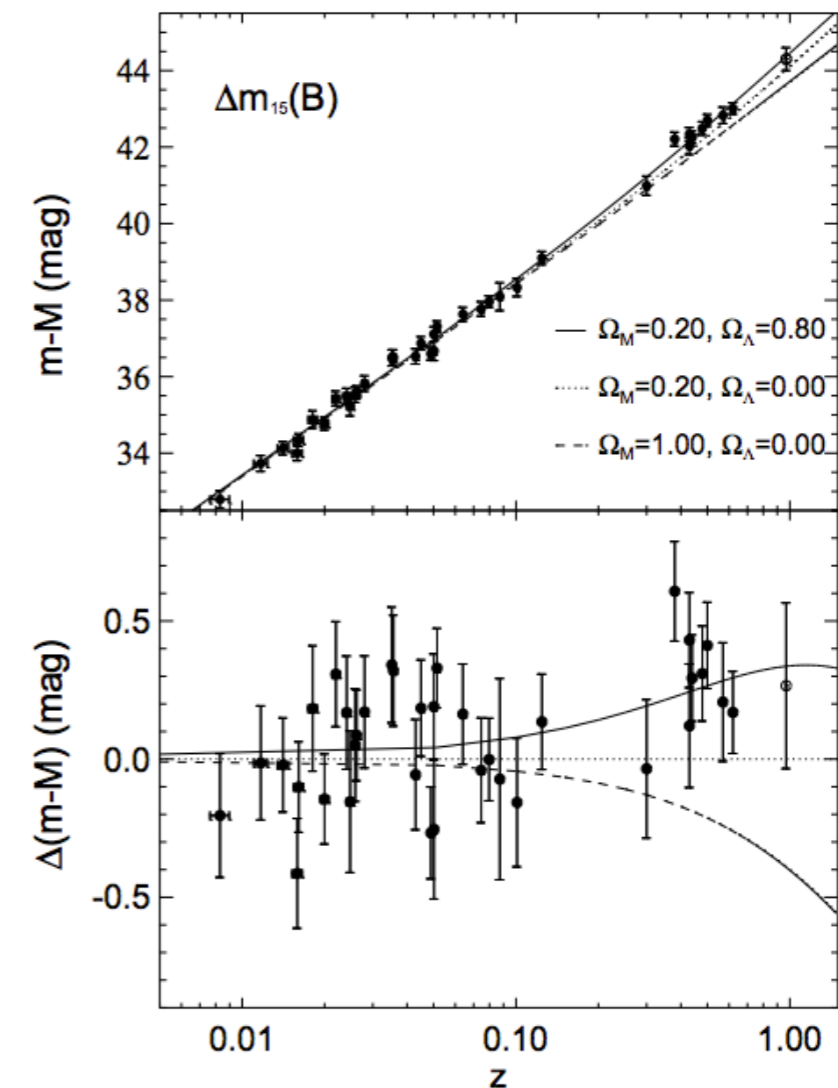
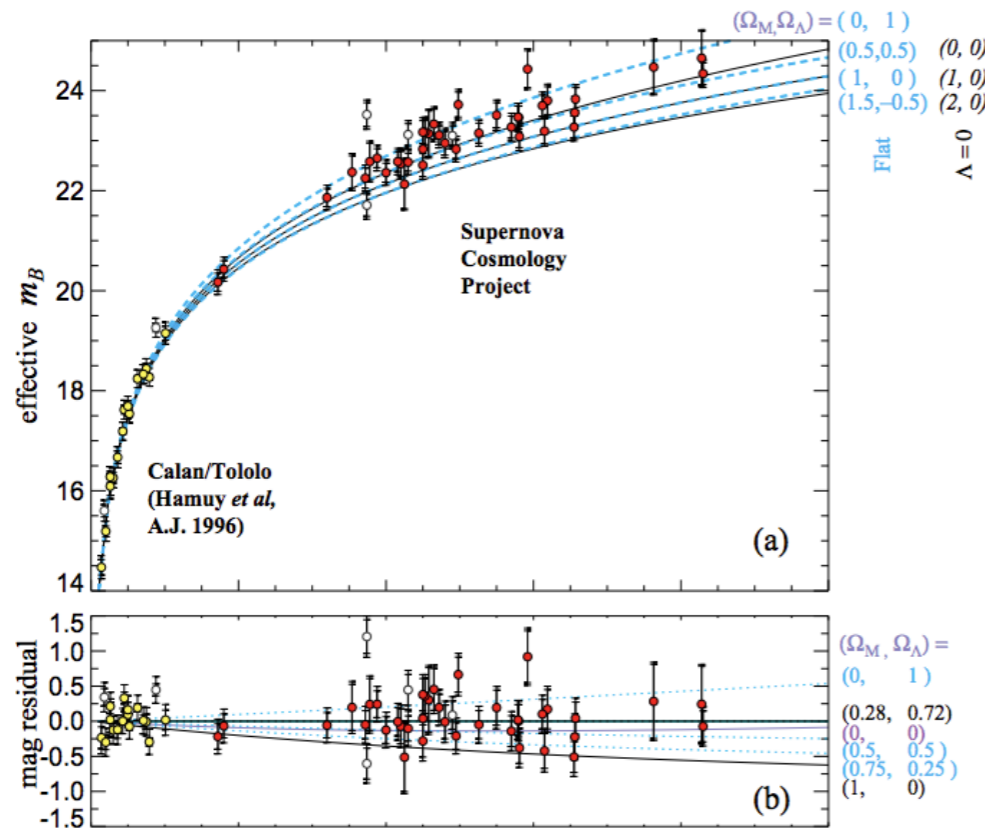
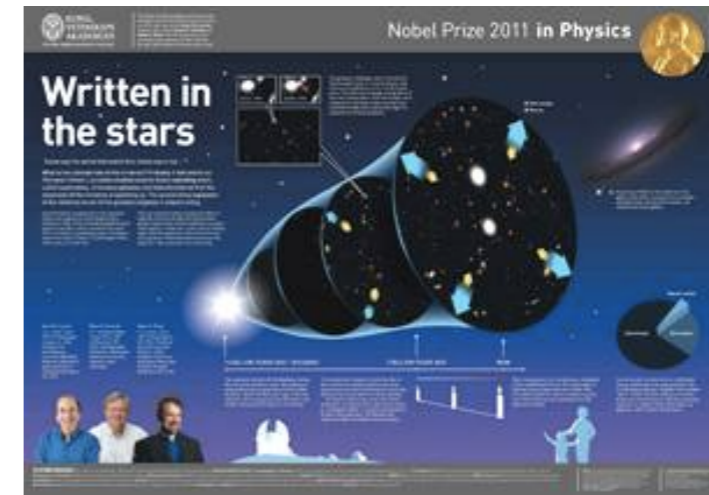
Photo: Belinda Pratten, Australian National University

Brian P. Schmidt



Photo: Homewood Photography

Adam G. Riess



Type 1a Supernovae

Type 1a supernovae are used as standard candles.

SNe Ia occur in binary systems where one of the two stars is a carbon-oxygen white dwarf.

The efficiency of the explosion after accretion is determined by the core temperature and ultimately by the mass of the star

The peak luminosity can be used as standard candle, since this type of stars have similar masses.

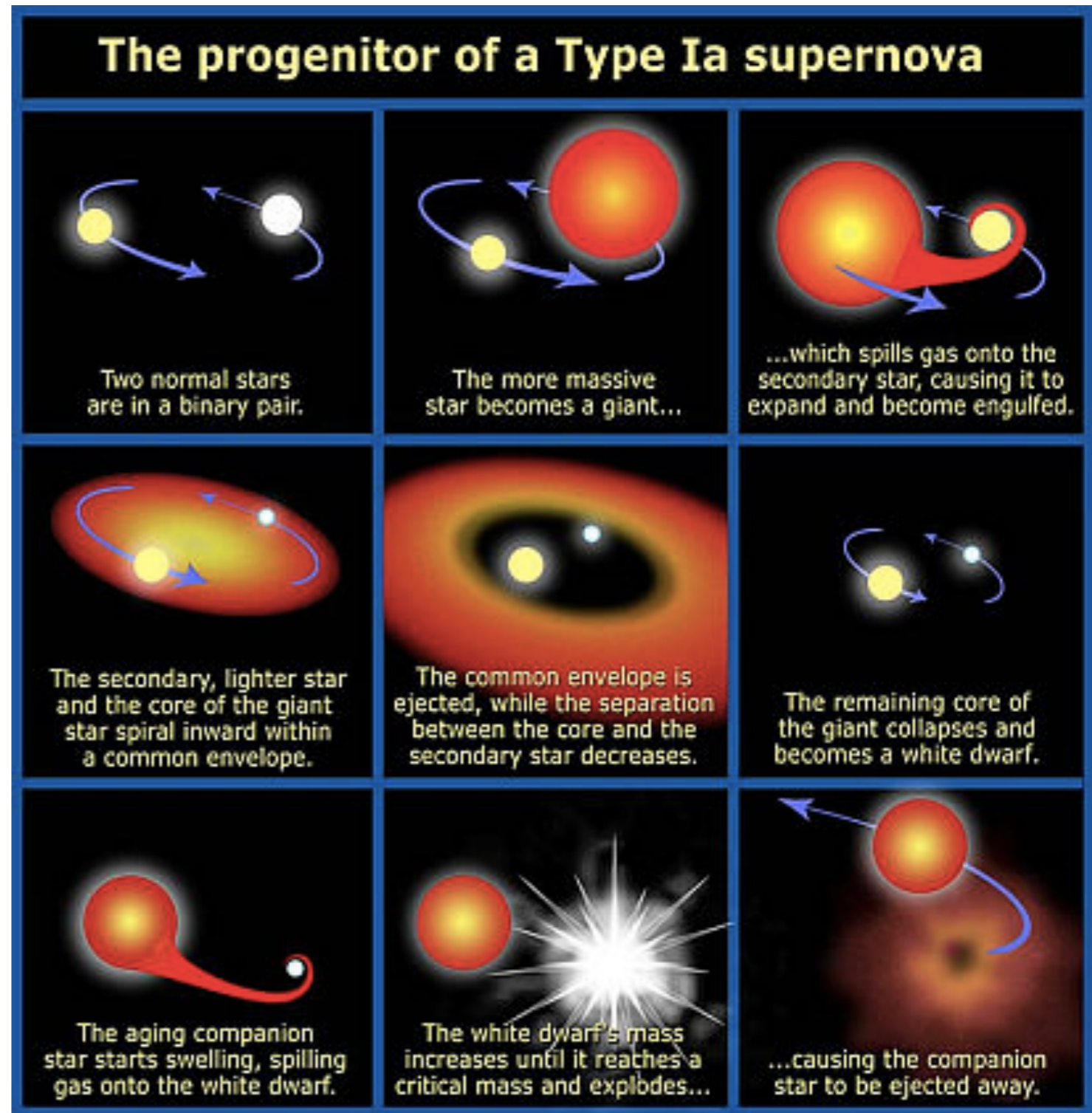


Image from : NASA, ESA and A. Feild (STScI)

Rebinned version of the data from arxiv-1401.4064

