Ast 243:

Cosmological Physics Wayne Hu

Ast 243: Cosmological Physics

Course text book: Ryden, Introduction to Cosmology, 2nd edition

- Olber's paradox, expansion of the universe: Ch 2
- Cosmic geometry, expansion rate, acceleration: Ch 3,6
- Cosmic dynamics and composition: Ch 4,5
- Dark matter and dark energy: Ch 5,7
- Hot big bang and origin of species: Ch 9
- Inflation: Ch 10
- Cosmic microwave background: Ch 8
- Gravitational instability and structure formation: Ch 11,12

Final exam (25%), reading project (25%), HW (50%)

Set 1:

Expansion of the Universe

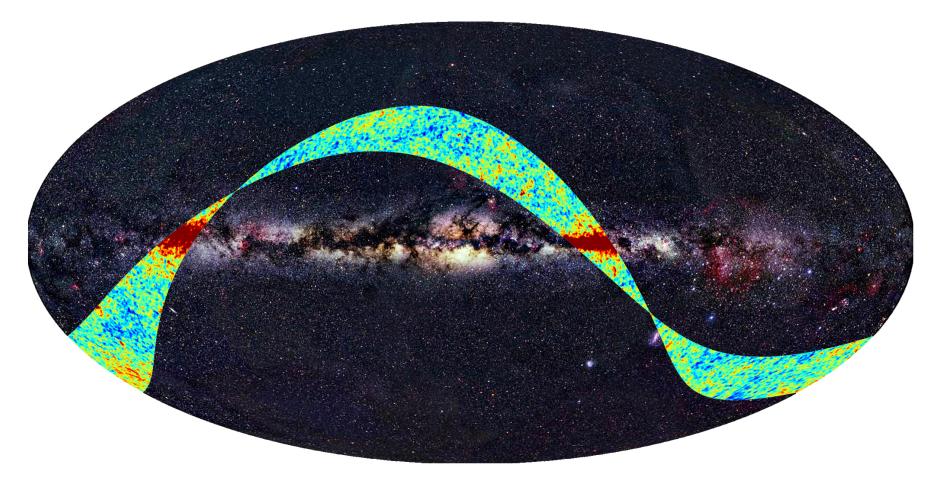
Observables

- Most cosmological inferences are based on interpreting the radiation we receive on Earth from astrophysical objects: stars, galaxies, clusters of galaxies, cosmic microwave background...
- Largely electromagnetic radiation but now also neutrinos, cosmic rays, and most recently, gravitational waves
- How do we convert this basic observable into an evolving 3D (4D) model?

• Basic observable properties of radiation (recall radiative processes course)...

Sky Maps

- Map radiation from directions on the sky
- Background: stars in our Milky Way galaxy
- Color overlay, furthest source: microwave background



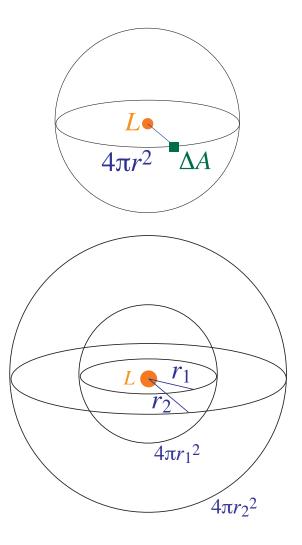
Observables

• Energy flux F given a luminosity L of the source $L = \Delta E / \Delta t$ (energy/time)

$$F = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t \Delta A} = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2}$$

- Astro units: often in cgs erg s⁻¹ cm⁻² (mks W m⁻²)
- Energy conservation says rate of energy passing through the shell at r_1 must be the same as r_2
- Thus flux decreases as $1/r^2$ from the source

$$F(r_1)4\pi r_1^2 = F(r_2)4\pi r_2^2$$
$$F \propto r^{-2}$$

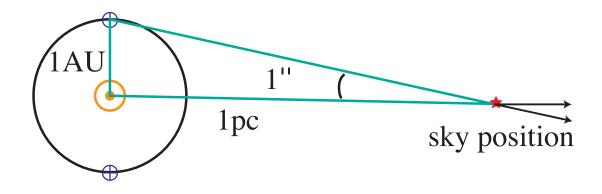


From 2D to 3D

- So even without knowing the luminosity of a set of standard objects, we can judge relative distance from flux $r_2/r_1 = (F_1/F_2)^{1/2}$
- This is the idea of a standard candle, star of the same type, supernovae etc
- Aside: certain variable stars called Cepheids are excellent standard candles pulsation period is linked to the luminosity so we can pick out objects of the same luminosity and use the measured flux to put place their relative position on a map
- 2D map becomes a 3D map and we can start to talk about the physical structure of the universe
- We can calibrate the absolute distance to the nearby ones by other methods, ultimately parallax change in angle on the sky as earth orbits the sun

Cosmological Units

- Astro and cosmo units often look bizarre at first sight however they are useful in that they tell you something about the observation behind the inference
- Ground based optical telescopes are limited by the atmosphere to ~ 1 arcsec resolution so direct parallax measurements before satellites were limited in distance of objects whose parallax is measureable
- Parsec (parallax arcsec) is the distance at which the parallax of an object would give an angular displacement of 1"



Cosmological Units

• Parsec is a typical distance between stars in the galaxy but cosmologists favorite unit is the megaparsec

 $1 Mpc = 3.0856 \times 10^{24} cm$

because it is the typical separation between galaxies

• In other astrophysical contexts, use length scales appropriate to the system - Mpc is based on the AU - earth-sun distance

 – 1 AU subtends 1 arcsec at 1 pc – parallax to close objects allows us to convert relative distance to absolute distance

– 1 pc: nearest stars, 1 kpc distances in the galaxy, 1 Mpc distance between galaxies, 1 Gpc distances across observable universe

Received Light: Received History

• Because of the finite light travel time, light from distant objects is emitted at earlier times so sky maps become snapshots of the history of the universe

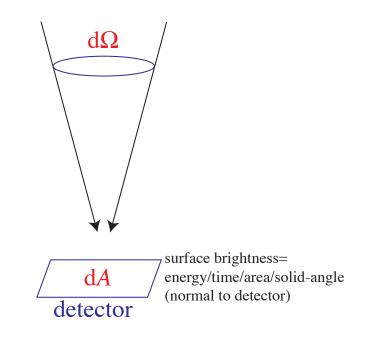
$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta x}{c}$$

- Speed of light can be thought of as a conversion factor between time and distance (see problem set)
- In this class we will often measure time and space in the same units, i.e. we set c = 1 and measure time in Mpc or distance in (light) years
- We shall see that the earliest light we can measure (from the most distant sources) comes from the cosmic microwave background, the afterglow of the big bang many Gpc or Gyr away

Observables: Surface Brightness

- If the 2D map resolves the object in question, we can do better: measure surface brightness
- Direction: columate

 in an acceptance
 angle dΩ normal to
 dA → surface brightness



$$S(\Omega) = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t \Delta A \Delta \Omega}$$

• Units: for example in cgs, erg s⁻¹ cm⁻² sr⁻¹ or mks, W m⁻² sr⁻¹

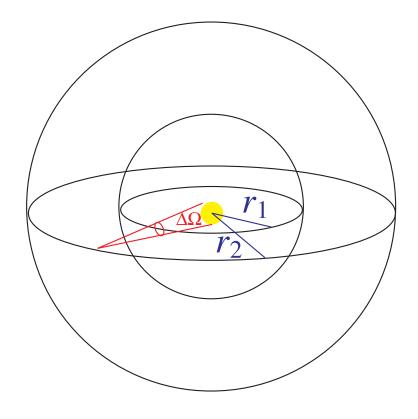
Surface Brightness Conservation

• Surface brightness $\Delta \Omega = (\lambda/d)^2$ for a region with fixed size λ

$$S = \frac{F}{\Delta \Omega} = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2} \frac{d^2}{\lambda^2}$$

• In a non-expanding geometry, these two distances cancel

$$S = \text{const.}$$



• Aside: since $S = L/4\pi\lambda^2$, astro/cosmo units for galactic scale objects are also often quoted in L_{\odot}/pc^2

Olber's Paradox

- Surface brightness of an object is independent of its distance
- So since each site line in universe full of stars will eventually end on surface of star
- Olber's Paradox: why isn't night sky as bright as sun (not infinite)
- We shall see that the resolution lies in the expansion of the universe:
 - finite "horizon" distance for the observable universe
 - and that the two distance factors don't cancel

• To understand the expansion, we need not just a map of the universe but a measurement of motion

Observables: Redshift

- We can also measure the frequency of radiation from objects
- If emission contains atomic lines with a natural rest frequency $\nu_{\rm rest}$ we can measure the redshift or velocity by the ratio of observed to rest frequency

$$z + z = \frac{\nu_{\text{rest}}}{\nu_{\text{obs}}} = \frac{1 + \mathbf{v} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}/c}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

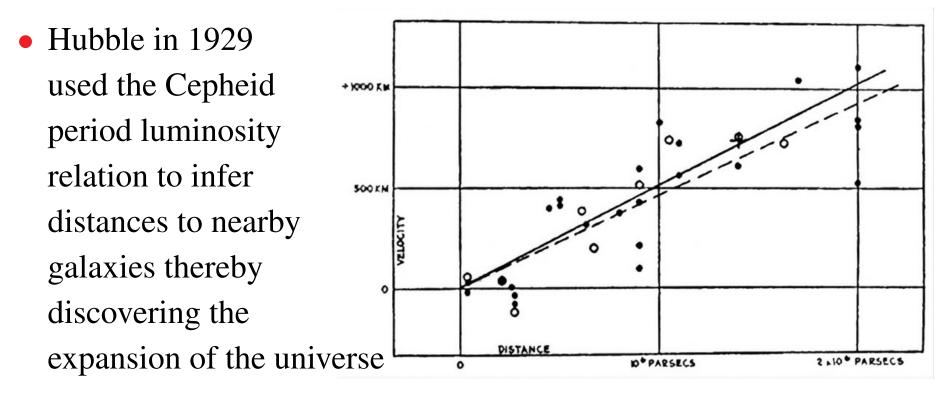
and for $v \ll c$, z = v/c

- Here v · n̂ is the recession velocity i.e. light is shifted to the red if the object is receding from us in the line of sight direction n̂
- In this class we'll often use units where c = ħ = 1 which means time and length are energy are measured in the same units
- If units don't make sense add c, \hbar until they do (see problem set)!

Expansion of the Universe

- Now let's put together these observational tools
- Given a standard candle with known luminosity L, we measure its distance d away from us from the measured flux $F = L/4\pi d^2$
- Given atomic line transitions, we measure the redshift z or equivalently the recession velocity v
- Hubble then plotted out recession velocity as a function of distance....

Hubble Law



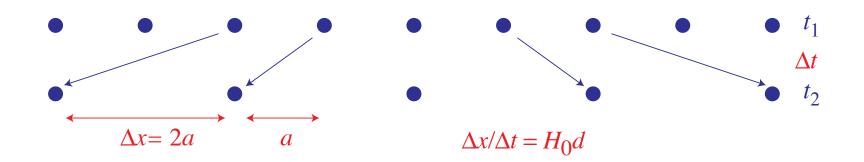
- Hubble actually inferred too large a Hubble constant of $H_0 \sim 500$ km/s/Mpc due to a miscalibration of the Cepheid distance scale
- H_0 now measured as 73.04 ± 1.04 km/s/Mpc by combining a suite of distance measurements [arXiv: 2112.04510]

Fundamental Properties

- Hubble law: objects are receding from us at a velocity that is proportional to their distance
- Universe is highly isotropic at sufficiently large distances
- Universe is homogeneous on large scales
- Let's see why the first property, along with the implications of the second two that we are not in a special position, imply the universe is expanding
- The Hubble law sounds much like we are at the center of an explosion outwards but that would violate homogeneity and put us in a special place
- To be consistent with both, we posit space itself is expanding...

Expansion of the Universe

• Consider a 1 dimensional expansion traced out by galaxies



- From the perspective of the central galaxy the others are receding with a velocity proportional to distance
- Proportionality constant is called the *Hubble Constant* H_0
- Each observer in the expansion will see the same relative recession of galaxies

Expansion of the Universe

- Generalizes to a three dimensional expansion. Consider the observer at the origin and two galaxies at position d_A and d_B
- Recession velocities according to the observer

$$\mathbf{v}_A = H_0 \mathbf{d}_A \,, \quad \mathbf{v}_B = H_0 \mathbf{d}_B$$

• According to galaxy B, the recession velocity of galaxy A is

$$\mathbf{v}_B - \mathbf{v}_A = H_0 \mathbf{d}_B - H_0 \mathbf{d}_A = H_0 \mathbf{d}_{AB}$$

so that B will see the same expansion rate as the observer at the origin given the linearity of Hubble's law

• Hubble's law is best thought of as an expansion of space itself, with galaxies carried along the "Hubble flow"

Recession as Expansion

• Recession and redshifting as coordinate expansion

Olber's Paradox Redux

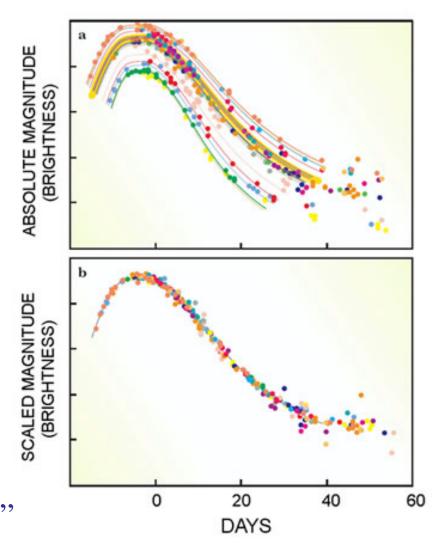
- In an expanding universe Olber's paradox is resolved
- First piece: age finite so there is a finite distance light can travel called the horizon distance even if stars exist in the early universe, not all site lines end on stars
- But even as age goes to infinity and the number of site lines goes to 100%, surface brightness of distant objects (of fixed physical size) goes to zero
 - Angular size increases
 - Redshift of energy and arrival time

we'll see in the next set of lectures

$$S \propto (1+z)^{-4}$$

Supernovae as Standard Candles

- Type 1A supernovae are white dwarfs that reach Chandrashekar mass where electron degeneracy pressure can no longer support the star, hence a very regular explosion
- Moreover, the scatter in luminosity (absolute magnitude) is correlated with the shape of the light curve
 the rate of decline from peak light, empirical "Phillips relation"



• Higher ⁵⁶Ni, brighter SN, higher opacity, longer light curve duration

Beyond Hubble's Law

- Type 1A are therefore "standardizable" candles leading to a very low scatter $\delta m \sim 0.15$ and visible out to high redshift $z \sim 1$
- Two groups in 1999 found that SN more distant at a given redshift than expected
- Cosmic acceleration discovery won the 2011 Nobel Prize in Physics
- Requires more on cosmic geometry to understand...

