

# Large Scale Structure of the Universe

Rogério Rosenfeld

IFT-UNESP/ICTP-SAIFR/LIneA

Dark Energy Survey & LSST



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for Theoretical Physics

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# Five lectures on Cosmology and Large Scale Structure

Lecture I: The average Universe

Lecture II: Distances and thermal history

→ Lecture III: The perturbed Universe

Lecture IV: Theoretical challenges and surveys

Lecture V: Observational cosmology with LSST

# **Plan for Lecture III:**

**III.1 – Growth of perturbations**

**III.2 – Statistics of perturbations**

# III.1- Growth of perturbations

1.1 – Introduction

1.2 – Physical degrees of freedom

1.3 – Newtonian perturbations

1.4 – Jeans instability

1.5 – Linearized newtonian growth of dark matter

1.6 – Transfer function



# 1.1 – Introduction

Background (or average) evolution of the Universe:

$$\bar{G}_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G \bar{T}_{\mu\nu}$$

Evolution of perturbations in the Universe:

$$\delta G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G \delta T_{\mu\nu}$$

FLRW



$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mu\nu}(x, t) &= \bar{g}_{\mu\nu}(t) \\ \rho_i(x, t) &= \bar{\rho}_i(t) \\ p_i(x, t) &= \bar{p}_i(t) = w_i(t) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mu\nu}(x, t) &= \bar{g}_{\mu\nu}(t) + \delta g_{\mu\nu}(x, t) \\ \rho_i(x, t) &= \bar{\rho}_i(t) + \delta \rho_i(x, t) \\ p_i(x, t) &= \bar{p}_i(t) + \delta p_i(x, t) \end{aligned}$$

i = different components  
+ velocity perturbations

## 1.2 – Physical degrees of freedom

There are 10 degrees of freedom in the Einstein tensor

There are 10 degrees of freedom in the energy-momentum tensor

There are 10 equations related to them (Einstein's equation)

There are 4 redundancy (gauge) relations: diffeomorphism transformations

There are  $10+10-10-4=6$  physical degrees of freedom

It is possible to find 6 gauge-invariant degrees of freedom: Bardeen variables.

Alternatively, one can choose (fix) a particular gauge.

Two of these degrees of freedom are associated to gravitational waves – more on Maggiore's lectures. We will only worry with scalar perturbations.

## 1.3 – Newtonian perturbations

We can gain some intuition about the growth of perturbations using a newtonian approximation to GR.

Newtonian approximation is valid for nonrelativistic matter ( $v \ll c$ ,  $p \ll \rho$ ) and for scales deep inside the Hubble radius.

We will use newtonian fluid dynamics describing a fluid in a gravitational field.

This fluid is described by 3 equations:

Continuity equation (energy conservation)

Euler equation (force equation)

Poisson equation (gravity equation)

Consider a fluid element with mass density  $\rho$  and velocity  $\vec{v}$  at position  $\vec{r}$  at time  $t$ :

$$\partial_t \rho = -\vec{\nabla}_r \cdot (\rho \vec{v})$$

$$(\partial_t + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_r) \vec{v} = -\frac{\vec{\nabla}_r p}{\rho} - \vec{\nabla}_r \phi$$

$$\nabla_r^2 \phi = 4\pi G \rho$$



linearize equations with small perturbations (consider only one component):

$$\rho(r, t) = \bar{\rho}(t) + \delta\rho(r, t)$$

$$p(r, t) = \bar{p}(t) + \delta p(r, t)$$

$$v(r, t) = \bar{v}(t) + \delta v(r, t)$$

$$\phi(r, t) = \bar{\phi}(t) + \delta\phi(r, t)$$

Since the Universe is expanding, we want to consider the fluid equations with respect to comoving coordinates  $x$  instead of physical coordinates  $r$ :

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

Velocity is given by:

$$\vec{v}(t) = \dot{a}(t)\vec{x} + a(t)\dot{\vec{x}} = H\vec{r}(t) + \vec{u}$$

Background velocity  
“Hubble flow”

Peculiar velocity  
perturbation

In addition, will take derivatives with respect to  $x$  and time derivatives with fixed  $x$ :

$$\vec{\nabla}_r = \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_x$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)_r = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)_x - H\vec{x} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_x$$

We will introduce the density contrast to parametrize the density perturbations:

$$\delta \equiv \frac{\delta\rho}{\bar{\rho}}$$

The continuity equation can be written as:

$$\left[ \partial_t - H \vec{x} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right] [\bar{\rho}(1 + \delta)] + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot [\bar{\rho}(1 + \delta)(H a \vec{x} + \vec{u})] = 0$$

continuity equation to zeroth order in perturbations ( $\delta=0$ ,  $u=0$ ):

$$\partial_t \bar{\rho} + 3H \bar{\rho} = 0$$

continuity equation for a nonrelativistic matter background

continuity equation to first order in perturbations:

$$\partial_t \delta = -\frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u}$$

er equation to first order in perturbations:

$$\partial_t \vec{u} + H \vec{u} = -\frac{\vec{\nabla} \delta p}{a \bar{\rho}} - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \delta \phi$$

Poisson equation to first order in perturbations:

$$\nabla^2 \delta \phi = 4\pi G a^2 \bar{\rho} \delta$$

possible to obtain one equation involving only  $\delta$ :

Take time derivative of continuity equation

Take divergence of Euler equation

Assume a relation between pressure perturbation and density perturbation with the introduction of the sound speed

The equation for the evolution of the density contrast at the linear level is:

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - \left( \frac{c_s^2}{a^2} \nabla^2 + 4\pi G \bar{\rho} \right) \delta = 0$$

$$\delta p \equiv c_s^2 \delta \rho$$



## 1.4 – Jeans instability

convenient to work in Fourier space:

$$\delta(\vec{x}, t) = \int \frac{d^3k}{2\pi^3} \delta_{\vec{k}}(t) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}}$$

the perturbation equation becomes:

$$\ddot{\delta}_{\vec{k}} + 2H\dot{\delta}_{\vec{k}} + c_s^2 \left( \frac{k^2}{a^2} - k_J^2 \right) \delta_{\vec{k}} = 0$$

physical Jeans scale or wavenumber (as opposed to comoving):

$$k_J \equiv \sqrt{\frac{4\pi G \bar{\rho}(t)}{c_s^2}} \quad \lambda_J = \frac{2\pi}{k_J}$$

On small scales ( $k/a \gg k_J$ ) the solution is oscillating with a damped amplitude. Damping is due to the expansion of the Universe (H term – “Hubble friction”).

On large scales ( $k/a \ll k_J$ ) one can neglect pressure perturbations ( $c_s = 0$ ). We will derive the equation next.

Without Hubble friction the perturbations would be unstable!

Note: when baryons are coupled to radiation ( $c_s^2 = 1/3$ ) the Jeans length  $\sim$  Hubble horizon – perturbations do not grow. But perturbations in DM have negligible pressure length and can grow.

## 1.5 – Linearized newtonian growth of dark matter

Now obtain solutions of the linearized newtonian equation for the case of dark matter. For dark matter, the speed of sound of perturbations (and the corresponding scale) can be neglected:

$$\ddot{\delta}_m + 2H\dot{\delta}_m - 4\pi G\bar{\rho}_m\delta_m = 0$$

Scale independent

Will consider the growth in three regimes of the expansion of the Universe:  
Matter domination  
Radiation domination  
Cosmological constant domination

matter domination:

$$\propto t^{2/3} \Rightarrow H = \frac{2}{3t} \quad H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \bar{\rho}_m \Rightarrow 4\pi G \bar{\rho}_m = \frac{3}{2} H^2 =$$

$$\ddot{\delta}_m + \frac{4}{3t} \dot{\delta}_m - \frac{2}{3t^2} \delta_m = 0$$

solution:

$$\delta_m(t) = c_1 t^{-1} + c_2 t^{2/3}$$



Decaying mode



Growing mode

In matter-dominated era dark matter perturbations grow as:

$$\delta_m(t) \propto a(t)$$

radiation domination:

$$a(t) \propto t^{1/2} \Rightarrow H = \frac{1}{2t}$$

$$\ddot{\delta}_m + \frac{1}{t} \dot{\delta}_m = 0$$

Last term can be neglected

solution:

$$\delta_m(t) = c_1 + c_2 \ln t$$



Constant mode



Growing mode

In radiation-dominated era dark matter perturbations grow as:

$$\delta_m(t) \propto \ln a(t)$$

**Slower growth**

cosmological constant domination:

$$a \propto e^{Ht}$$

$$H(t) = H = \text{const.}$$

$$\ddot{\delta}_m + 2H\dot{\delta}_m = 0$$

Last term can be neglected

solution:

$$\delta(t) = c_1 + c_2 e^{-2Ht}$$



Constant mode



decaying mode

In  $\Lambda$ -dominated era dark matter perturbations **do not grow**



is convenient to introduce the **linear growth function  $D(t)$**  that describes the linear growth of modes inside the horizon (but larger than the Jeans scale), where the growth is independent of scale:

$$\delta_{\vec{k}}(t) \equiv D(t) \delta_{\vec{k}}(t_0)$$

## II.1.6 – Transfer function

growth of perturbations that are larger than the Hubble horizon can depend on its evolving scale characterized by the wavenumber  $k$  (even at the linear level).

We introduce the transfer function to account for this possibility, changing the previous equation to:

$$\delta_{\vec{k}}(t) = D(t)T(\vec{k})\delta_{\vec{k}}(t_0)$$

For perturbations that never leave the horizon,  $T(k)=1$ .

How do perturbations grow outside the horizon?  
This is computed in full-fledged GR perturbations.  
Here I just give the answer, which is simple enough:

$$\delta \propto \begin{cases} a^2 & \text{radiation dominated} \\ a & \text{matter dominated} \end{cases}$$

perturbations produced during inflation are very long wavelength and outside the bubble horizon initially (see Mehrdad's lectures).

eventually they enter the horizon.

When does a perturbation cross the horizon?

That's when the comoving wavevector is caught up by the comoving Hubble scale

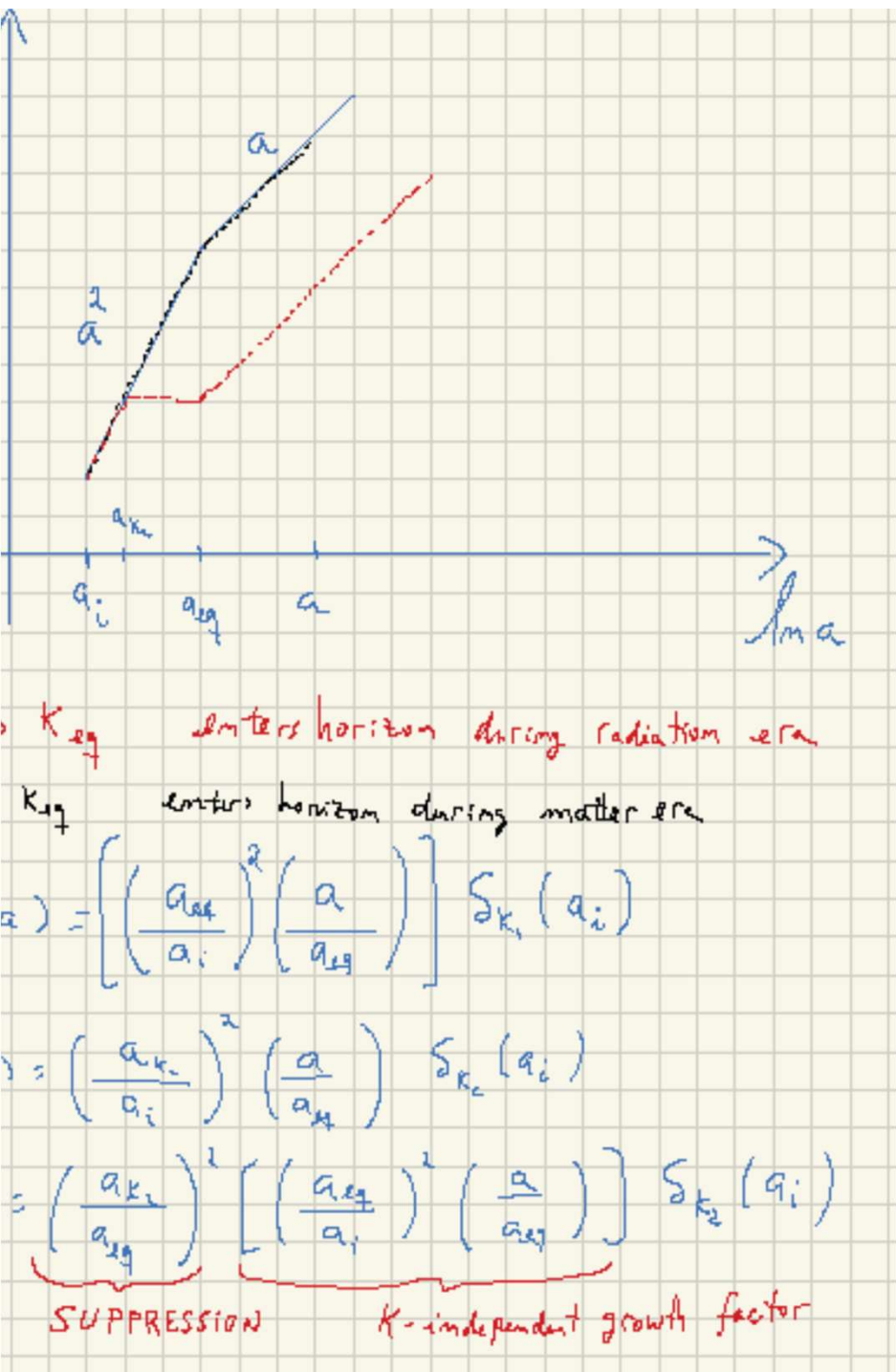
$$k_{h.c.} = a(t)H(t)$$

The crucial point is that perturbations can cross the horizon either in the radiation-dominated or matter-dominated era.

$$k_{eq} = a(t_{eq})H(t_{eq})$$

Short wavelength modes ( $k > k_{eq}$ ) enter the horizon in radiation era.  
Long wavelength modes ( $k < k_{eq}$ ) enter the horizon in matter era.

This different behaviour introduces a scale dependence in the growth of perturbations that is encapsulated in the transfer function.



Horizon crossing at:

$$k_{h.c.} = a(t)H(t)$$

Radiation era:  $H \propto a^{-2}$

$$k_{h.c.} \propto a(t_{h.c.})^{-1}$$

Therefore the transfer function is:

$$T(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & k < k_{eq} \\ \frac{k_{eq}^2}{k^2} & k > k_{eq} \end{cases}$$



# III.2- Statistics of perturbations

2.1 – Initial perturbations

2.2 – Summary statistics

2.3 – Power spectrum

2.4 – Primordial power spectrum

2.5 – Linear matter power spectrum today

2.6 – Higher order statistics

## 2.1 – Initial perturbations

Initial perturbations are generated by small quantum fluctuations during the inflationary phase of the Universe (see Mehrdad's lectures).

They are random variables.

Theory predicts a probability distribution for the initial perturbations.

Most models of inflation predict a gaussian probability distribution.

Our Universe is one possible realization of the random perturbations.

## 2.2 – Summary statistics

Probability distributions are characterized by moments of the distribution – these are “summary statistics”

mean, variance, asymmetry, kurtosis, etc

$$\langle \delta(x) \rangle, \quad \langle \delta^2(x) \rangle, \quad \langle \delta^3(x) \rangle, \quad \langle \delta^4(x) \rangle, \quad \dots$$

A Gaussian distribution is fully characterized by its first 2 moments: mean and variance.

## 2.3 – Power spectrum

density perturbations one expects zero average:  $\langle \delta(\vec{x}) \rangle = 0$

two-point correlation function defines the spatial correlation function  $\xi(r)$ :

$$\langle \delta(\vec{x}_1) \delta(\vec{x}_2) \rangle = \xi(\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2) = \xi(|\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2|) = \xi(r)$$

Homogeneity and isotropy

Two-point spatial correlation function

**e:** since one can't average over different Universes the averages are over different **locations** (different patches of the Universe can be thought of as coming from different realizations).

Interpretation of 2 pt. correlation function: excess (or deficit) of clustering over random at a given scale  $r$

$$dP_{1,2} = (1 + \xi(r))dV_1dV_2$$



random

can also define the power spectrum as Fourier transform of the correlation function

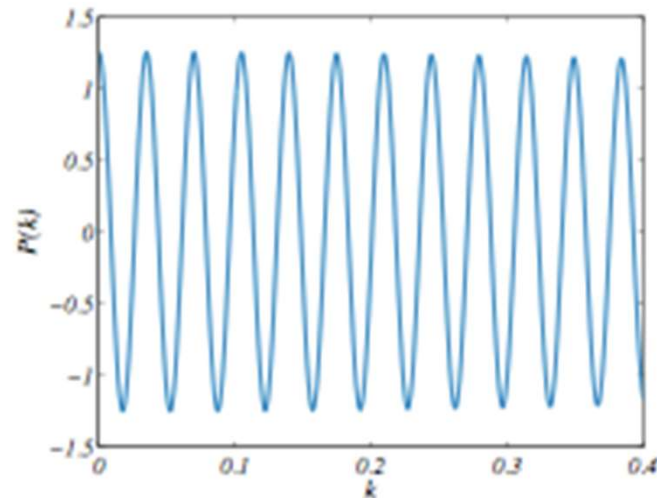
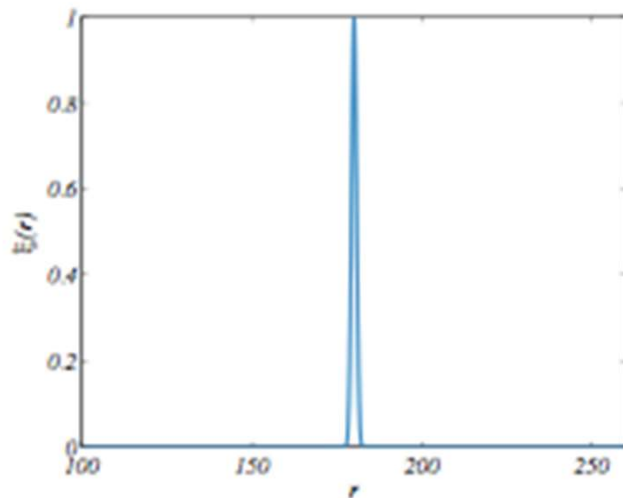
$$P(k) = \int d^3r \xi(r) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}}$$

It's possible to work with either spatial correlation function or power spectrum – advantages and disadvantages.

Sharp peak in correlation results in oscillations in the power spectrum:

$$\xi(r) \approx \delta(r - r_*)$$

$$P(k) \approx e^{ikr_*}$$





In terms of the Fourier transform of the density perturbations:

$$\langle \delta_{\vec{k}} \delta_{\vec{k}'} \rangle = (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{k} - \vec{k}') P(k)$$

Dimensionless power spectrum

$$\Delta^2(k) \equiv \frac{k^3}{2\pi^2} P(k)$$

Recalling:

$$\delta_{\vec{k}}(t) = D(t) T(\vec{k}) \delta_{\vec{k}}(t_0)$$

One finds:

$$P(k, t) = D(t)^2 T(k)^2 P(k)_{ini}$$

## 2.4 – Primordial power spectrum

Primordial power spectrum of scalar perturbations is generated during inflation.

In the simplest models it can be parametrized with an amplitude and a spectral index

$$P(k)_{ini} = A_s k^{n_s}$$

The amplitude  $A_s$  and spectral index  $n_s$  are free parameters of the  $\Lambda$ CDM model.

Simplest models of inflation **predict**  $n_s$  close to 1.

Deviations are related to small so-called slow-roll parameters – see Mehrdad's lecture

Planck 2018:  $n_s = 0.9649 \pm 0.0042$  at 68% CL -  $\sim 10\sigma$  away from 1!

## 2.5 – Linear matter power spectrum today

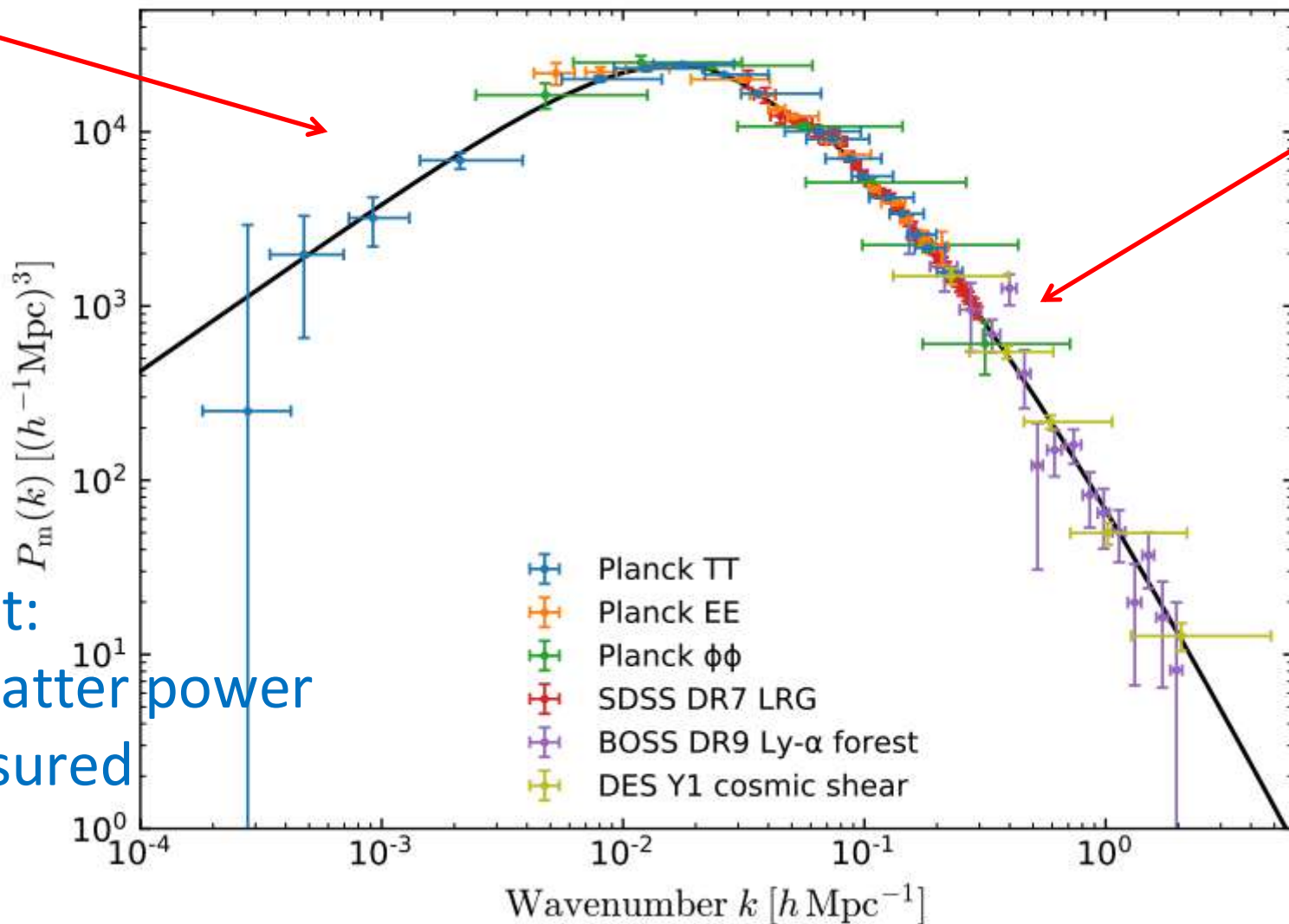
$$P(k, t) = D(t)^2 T(k)^2 P(k)_{ini}$$

Planck Collaboration: The cosmological legacy of *Planck*

$P \propto k$

$P \propto$

of funny plot:  
red linear matter power  
directly measured



## 2.6 – Higher-order statistics

we can also define higher-order statistics, such as the bispectrum  $B(k_1, k_2, k_3)$ :

$$\langle \delta_{\vec{k}_1} \delta_{\vec{k}_2} \delta_{\vec{k}_3} \rangle \equiv (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2 + \vec{k}_3) B(\vec{k}_1, \vec{k}_2, \vec{k}_3)$$

Nongaussian perturbations can be studied by measuring the bispectrum.

Since GR is nonlinear one expects nongaussian perturbations to develop from initial gaussian ones. The detection of nongaussian **primordial** perturbation is a very active area. Measurements are difficult.