Cosmology

Introduction Geometry and expansion history (Cosmic Background Radiation)

> Growth Secondary anisotropies Large Scale Structure



Cosmology from Large Scale Structure Sky Surveys

- Supernovae la
- CMB
- Baryon Acoustic Oscillations
- Secondary anisotropies
- Cluster counts and clustering
- Redshift space distortions
- Weak gravitational lensing

Your name here!

GEOMETRY G R O W T

Η



This is the time since all separations = 0 (i.e. all objects were in same place)





Slope of line gives $H_0 = 500 (km/s)/Mpc$.



Hubble's Law:

velocity = $H_0 x$ distance

Measuring the expansion



Expansion rate changes with time: Hubble's constant same at all positions in space, but may depend on time

Expect BIG BANG happened about ~14 Gyrs ago (assuming H_0 ~constant)

Expect observable scale of Universe: $d_H = c/H_0$ = (3x10⁵ km/s) / (100h km/s/Mpc) = 3000/h Mpc (set h = 0.71)



 $\label{eq:H0} \begin{array}{l} H_0 = 71 \ (km/s)/Mpc. \end{array}$ Age $\approx 1/H_0 = 14 \times 10^9$ years. Three possible metrics for homogeneous and isotropic 3-space

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + S_\kappa(r)^2 d\Omega^2 ,$$

 $d\Omega^2 \equiv d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2$

Changing from r to $x = S_{\kappa}(r)$ makes this:

$$S_{\kappa}(r) = \begin{cases} R \sin(r/R) & (\kappa = +1) \\ r & (\kappa = 0) \\ R \sinh(r/R) & (\kappa = -1) \end{cases}$$

$$ds^{2} = \frac{dx^{2}}{1 - \kappa x^{2}/R^{2}} + x^{2}d\Omega^{2}$$

Robertson-Walker metric

(If homogeneity and isotropy did not exist, it would be necessary to invent them!)

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2$$
 Minkowski metric

$$ds^{2} = -c^{2}dt^{2} + a(t)^{2} \left[\frac{dx^{2}}{1 - \kappa x^{2}/R_{0}^{2}} + x^{2}d\Omega^{2} \right]$$
$$ds^{2} = -c^{2}dt^{2} + a(t)^{2} \left[dr^{2} + S_{\kappa}(r)^{2}d\Omega^{2} \right]$$

Much of Observational Cosmology dedicated to determining κ , a(t), R₀

Distances in cosmology $ds^2 = a(t)^2 [dr^2 + S_{\kappa}(r)^2 d\Omega^2]$ Along a spatial geodesic: ds = a(t)dr'Proper' distance is d at $d_p(t) = a(t) \int_0^r dr = a(t)r$ fixed a: $d_p(t) = a(t)r(x) = \begin{cases} a(t)R_0 \sin^{-1}(x/R_0) & (\kappa = +1) \\ a(t)x & (\kappa = 0) \\ a(t)R_0 \sinh^{-1}(x/R_0) & (\kappa = -1) \end{cases}$ $\dot{d}_p = \dot{a}r = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}d_p \qquad v_p(t_0) = H_0d_p(t_0)$

Note that $v_p > c$ for sufficiently large d_p

Redshift and expansion

Null-geodesic (light) has ds=0 so: $c^2 dt^2 = a(t)^2 dr^2$

Hence
$$c \frac{dt}{a(t)} = dr$$
 so $c \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_0^r dr = r$
But also $c \int_{t_e+\lambda_e/c}^{t_0+\lambda_0/c} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_0^r dr = r$

Both equal same r, meaning interval between emission and observation always same

We had:
$$\int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_{t_e+\lambda_e/c}^{t_0+\lambda_0/c} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

Subtract
$$\int_{t_e+\lambda_e/c}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$
 from both to get:
$$\int_{t_e}^{t_e+\lambda_e/c} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_{t_0}^{t_0+\lambda_0/c} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

Integral of dt/a(t) during emission = during observation. But a \approx constant during this short dt, so:

$$\frac{1}{a(t_e)} \int_{t_e}^{t_e + \lambda_e/c} dt = \frac{1}{a(t_0)} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \lambda_0/c} dt \text{ making } \frac{\lambda_e}{a(t_e)} = \frac{\lambda_0}{a(t_0)}$$

But $z = (\lambda_0 - \lambda_e)/\lambda_e$ so $1 + z = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_e)} = \frac{1}{a(t_e)}$

Luminosity distance

$$ds^{2} = -c^{2}dt^{2} + a(t)^{2}[dr^{2} + S_{\kappa}(r)^{2}d\Omega^{2}]$$

How is flux = Luminosity/ 4π distance² modified?

flux = Luminosity/Area where: $A_p(t_0) = 4\pi S_{\kappa}(r)^2$

Luminosity = Energy/time, but $E_0 = E_e/(1+z)$ and $dt_0 = dt_e (1+z)$

So flux = Luminosity/ $4\pi S_{\kappa}(r)^2 (1+z)^2$. Define luminosity distance: $d_L = S_{\kappa}(r) (1+z)$.

Even in flat space $d_L = r (1+z) = d_p(t_0) (1+z)$.

Angular diameter distance

Light from (r, θ_1, ϕ_1) and (r, θ_2, ϕ_2) travels to origin:

 $ds = a(t_e) S_{\kappa}(r) \ \delta\theta$ But ds = length ℓ , and $a(t_e) = 1/(1+z)$, so $\ell = S_{\kappa}(r) \ \delta\theta/(1+z)$ Hence $d_A = \ell/\delta\theta = S_{\kappa}(r)/(1+z) = d_L/(1+z)^2$



Z

At small look-back times

$$\begin{aligned} a(t) &= a(t_0) + \frac{da}{dt} \Big|_{t=t_0} (t-t_0) + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 a}{dt^2} \right|_{t=t_0} (t-t_0)^2 + \dots \\ \frac{a(t)}{a(t_0)} &\approx 1 + \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \Big|_{t=t_0} (t-t_0) + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} \right|_{t=t_0} (t-t_0)^2 \\ a(t) &\approx 1 + H_0 (t-t_0) - \frac{1}{2} q_0 H_0^2 (t-t_0)^2 \\ \\ q_0 &\equiv -\left(\frac{\ddot{a}a}{\dot{a}^2}\right)_{t=t_0} = -\left(\frac{\ddot{a}}{aH^2}\right)_{t=t_0} \\ d_p(t_0) &\approx \frac{c}{H_0} \left[z - (1+q_0/2) z^2 \right] + \frac{cH_0}{2} \frac{z^2}{H_0^2} = \frac{c}{H_0} z \left[1 - \frac{1+q_0}{2} z \right] \end{aligned}$$

Measuring the expansion



$$d_p(t_0) \approx \frac{c}{H_0} \left[z - (1 + q_0/2)z^2 \right] + \frac{cH_0}{2} \frac{z^2}{H_0^2} = \frac{c}{H_0} z \left[1 - \frac{1 + q_0}{2} z \right]$$

Standard Candles: SNIa



Supernova Cosmology:

Evidence for a complex expansion history







Expansion history from Geomety (Luminosity distance)

Geometrical Test of curvature:

Standard Rod = Hubble volume at Last Scattering



a If universe is closed, "hot spots" appear larger than actual size





b If universe is flat, "hot spots" appear actual size





c If universe is open, "hot spots" appear smaller than actual size

CMB physics = geometry at late times: Baryon 'Acoustic' Oscillations in the Galaxy Distribution



Can see baryons that are not in stars ...



High redshift structures constrain neutrino mass

The ISW effect

Cross-correlate CMB and galaxy distributions



Interpretation requires understanding of galaxy population



Dilation Effect

Cosmology from growth rate of gravitational instability (which must overcome expansion):

Signal depends on b(a) D(a) d/dt [D(a)/a]





Effect mainly at later times, when Dark Energy begins to dominate



Cai et al. 2010



 $r_{e} = 0 - 500 \text{ Mpc/h}$

Gravitational lensing



Lensing of the CMB



PrimordialLensedExperiments have just started measuring this effect

CMB Temperature (Unlensed)



CMB Temperature (Lensed)



Order of magnitude

- GR lensing: 4Φ
- Potentials linear and small: $\Phi \sim 2 \times 10^{-5}$
- Deflection per lens: $\beta \sim 10^{-4}$
- Characteristic size from peak of Pk: L = 300 Mpc
- Comoving distance to CMB: D = 14000 Mpc
- Number of lenses: $N \sim D/L \sim 50$
- Total deflection: $\beta \sqrt{N} \approx 2 \text{ arcmins} \approx \ell = 3000$
- On these scales CMB smooth, so lensing dominates
- Attractive because single, distant source plane with smooth well-defined features



The Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect(s)





$$\Delta p/p \approx -p/m_{\rm e}(1-\cos\theta)$$



$$y_e = \int \mathrm{d}t \, c \, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{T}} n_{\mathrm{e}} \frac{k_{\mathrm{B}} T_{\mathrm{e}}}{m_{\mathrm{e}} c^2}$$

In early Universe $y_{\gamma} \approx y_e$

y: Amplitude of distortion

$$y = \int \mathrm{d}t \, c \, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{T}} n_{\mathrm{e}} \frac{k_{\mathrm{B}} \left(T_{\mathrm{e}} - T_{\gamma} \right)}{m_{\mathrm{e}} c^2}$$

CMB is dipole in e- restframe SZ effect is ~ mixing of blackbodies

Electron rest frame



Resulting spectrum will not be blackbody





$$n_{SZ} = y T^4 \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \frac{1}{T^2} \frac{\partial n_{\text{Pl}}}{\partial T}$$

$$= y \frac{xe^{x}}{(e^{x}-1)^{2}} \left(x \frac{e^{x}+1}{e^{x}-1} - 4 \right)$$

$$\Delta I_{sz} = I_{sz} - I_{planck} = \frac{2hv^3}{c^2}n_{sz}$$

 $y_{\gamma} \ll 1$, $T_{\rm e} \sim 10^4$

$$y = (\tau_{\text{reionization}}) \frac{k_{\text{B}} T_{\text{e}}}{m_{\text{e}} c^2} \sim (0.1)(1.6 \times 10^{-6}) \sim 10^{-7}$$





 Unique spectral signature: decrease in the CMB intensity at frequencies below ~218 GHz, increase at higher frequencies. Unique spectral signature: decrease in the CMB intensity at frequencies below ~218 GHz, increase at higher frequencies.



Approximately independent of redshift





- Unique spectral signature: decrease in the CMB intensity at frequencies below ~218 GHz, increase at higher frequencies.
- Small (10⁻³ K) spectral distortion. At a given frequency, signal depends on the pressure of the cluster gas at each point in the cluster, so signal varies in strength over the face of a given cluster. Distortion is strongest in the center.
- Intensity summed over an entire cluster depends on the total mass of the cluster: lower mass clusters produce weaker signal. A single galaxy has insufficient mass to cause distortions in the cosmic background radiation.
- Independent of redshift.

Kinetic SZ effect

Both tSZ + kSZ give map of electrons = baryons

So they are nice probes of the gastrophysics of galaxy formation



Can also look for the hot gas in X-rays



Crudely speaking: Lensing→Mass, SZ→pressure, Xray→Temperature

'Bullet'-like clusters: Dark matter ~collisionless



Lensing mass

Xray photons

Why study clusters?

- Cluster counts contain information about volume and about how gravity won/lost compared to expansion
- Probe geometry and expansion history of Universe, and nature of gravity

Massive halo = Galaxy cluster (Simpler than studying galaxies? Less gastrophysics?)



$d^2N/dzd\Omega = dV/dzd\Omega \times \int dm dn/dm$ where V is comoving volume and

dn/dm is comoving number density.

In practice, don't measure m, but an observable O (e.g. speeds of galaxies, Xray flux, SZ decrement) which is expected to correlate with m:

 $d^2N(O)/dzd\Omega = dV/dzd\Omega \times \int dm dn/dm p(O|m,z)$

 Structure at a given time, and, more importantly, growth of structure, provides sharp constraints on models









Structures in galaxy maps look very similar to the ones found in models in which dark matter is WIMPs





Complication: Light is a biased tracer



Not all galaxies are fair tracers of dark matter; To use galaxies as probes of underlying dark matter distribution, must understand 'bias' How to describe different point processes which are all built from the same underlying density field?

THE HALO MODEL

Review in Physics Reports (Cooray & Sheth 2002)

Cosmology from Gravitational Lensing Volume as function of redshift Growth of fluctuations with time



Weak lensing	Flexion	Strong lensing
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Large-scale	Substructure,	Cluster and
structure	outskirts of halos	galaxy cores





 Focal length strong function of cluster-centric distance; highly distorted images possible Strong lensing if source lies close to lens-observer axis; weaker effects if impact parameter large • Strong lensing: Cosmology from distribution of image separations, magnification ratios, time delays; but these are rare events, so require large dataset •Weak lensing: Cosmology from correlations (shapes or magnifications); small signal requires large dataset



Lensing provides a measure of dark matter along line of sight

Weak lensing: Image distortions correlated with dark matter distribution

E.g., lensed image ellipticities aligned parallel to filaments, tangential to knots (clusters)



The shear power of lensing



stronger weaker Cosmology from measurements of correlated shapes; better constraints if finer bins in source or lens positions possible



Redshift space distortions



Redshift space distortions



compute (Fisher 1995)

Alcock-Paczynski

- If the Universe is isotropic, clustering is same radial & tangential
- Stretching at a single redshift slice (for galaxies expanding with Universe) depends on
 - H-1(z) (radial)
 - $D_A(z)$ (angular)
- Analyze with wrong model -> see anisotropy
- AP effect measures D_A(z)H(z)
- RSD limits test to scales where can be modeled



