

Q1. Consider a spherical matter distribution ($\rho(r)$)

We calculate Gravitational potential due to that distribution in different points,

Case I, if matter extends to a R distance then

We have total matter of,

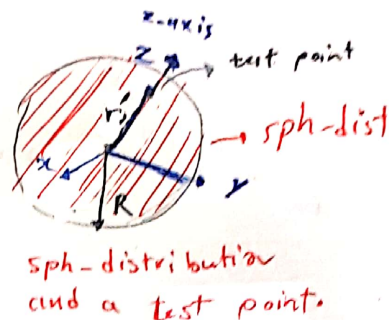
$$M = \int dm = \int \rho dV = \int \rho(r) r^2 dr \int \sin \theta d\theta \int d\phi$$

$$= 4\pi \int_0^R r^2 \rho(r) dr$$

spherical-distribution

In this case the test point is in the sph-dist matter and $r < R$

We align z -axis such that it intercepts test point and find potential:



sph-distribution and a test point.

$$\Phi = -G \frac{Mm}{r} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M = \rho(r) dV = \rho(r) r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi \\ r = \text{Distance between test point and differential volume} \\ = |\vec{r}' - \vec{r}| = (r^2 + r'^2 - 2r \cdot r' \cos \theta)^{1/2} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\text{so } \Phi = -Gm \int_0^R \rho(r) r^2 dr \int_0^\pi \frac{\sin \theta d\theta}{(r^2 + r'^2 - 2rr' \cos \theta)^{1/2}} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$

Let's calculate it

$$\cos \theta = u$$

$$du = -\sin \theta d\theta$$

changing Limits of Integration by minus of

$$= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{du}{(r^2 + r'^2 - 2rr'u)^{1/2}} = ?$$

Note: $\int ds (a+bs)^{-1/2} = \frac{2}{b} (a+bs)^{1/2}$

$$= -\frac{2}{2rr'} (r^2 + r'^2 - 2rr'u)^{1/2} \Big|_{-1}^1 = -\frac{1}{rr'} (\sqrt{(r-r')^2} - \sqrt{(r+r')^2})$$

$$= -\frac{1}{rr'} (|r-r'| - (r+r')) = \frac{1}{rr'} (r+r' - |r-r'|)$$

plug into above--

$$= -2\pi Gm \int_0^R \rho(r) \frac{r}{r'} (r+r' - |r-r'|) dr$$

Note that in this case where matter extends beyond test point we should evaluate absolute value carefully.

Let's divide the integration to 2 values--

$$-2\pi Gm \left(\int_0^{r'} \rho(r) \times \frac{r}{r'} (r+r' - \underbrace{|r-r'|}_{\text{it's Negative}}) dr + \int_{r'}^R \rho(r) \frac{r}{r'} (r+r' - \underbrace{|r-r'|}_{\text{positive}}) dr \right)$$

$r+r' + r - r' = 2r$ $r+r' - r + r' = 2r'$

$$= - \frac{4\pi Gm}{r'} \left(\int_0^{r'} \rho(r) r^2 dr \right) - \frac{4\pi Gm}{r'} \int_{r'}^R r \rho(r) dr$$

Note that $4\pi \int_0^{r'} \rho(r) r^2 dr$ is mass inside of sphere of radius r' \Rightarrow Call it $M(r')$

then

$$\Phi(r') = - \frac{Gm M(r')}{r'} + \dots$$

As you can see potential is like potential between a mass m and a mass $M(r')$ both concentrated in a point at r' distance...

For the second part of Question :

now if we evaluate the integral only second part remains and $(r > r')$

$$\phi_2 = -4\pi Gm \int_{R_1}^{R_2} r \rho(r) dr$$

to evaluate force we should take $\partial_{r'}$ but ϕ_2 is not a function of r'

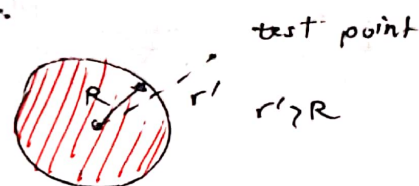
and so the force vanishes \rightarrow this means no force exerted by outer masses.

All is done!

In evaluating this, consider the fact that Force depends on $\frac{\partial}{\partial r'}$ of this Integral and it does not vanish, this term is present because:

there are masses around test point and it's $r = |r - r'| = 0 \rightarrow$ potential is about ∞ so they serve as some kind of singularity.

We can delete this terms by such a matter distribution.



But there's nothing scary about it.



Q2:



and



galaxies?

• As Roos said in Table I \rightarrow typical diameter of galaxy groups are 1-5 Mpc

• Wikipedia also says that typical diameter of galaxies are: $10^3 - 10^5$ pc

$$\sigma_{cl} = 10^3 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{s}}$$

$$N_g = 10^3$$

According to Roos \Rightarrow galaxy number density is $\frac{0.01 h^3}{\text{Mpc}^3}$

But here we need a cluster's number density.

\rightarrow For sake of simplicity. Consider all galaxies to be disc shaped so Area of a galaxy

$$\text{would be } \rightarrow \pi r_g^2 \sim \pi (10^4)^2 \text{ pc}^2$$

\rightarrow the Volume swept by a galaxy is: Area \times time \times speed of galaxy

$$= \pi \times 10^8 \text{ pc}^2 \times \frac{14 \times 10^9}{\text{year}} \times \frac{\pi \times 10^7}{\text{to sec}} \times 10^3 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{s}} \times \frac{1}{3 \times 10^{13} \text{ km}} \text{ pc}$$

$$\approx 4 \times 10^{15} \text{ pc}^3 \sim 4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Mpc}^3$$

$$\text{Number of Collision} = \text{clusters' galaxy density} \times \text{Swept volume}$$

Consider a cluster has typically 5×10^6 pc length

and a galaxy is about 10^4 pc \rightarrow There is $\frac{5 \times 10^6}{10^4} = 500$ galaxies in

a cluster and it's number density is $\frac{5 \times 10^2}{(5 \times 10^4 \text{ pc})^3} = \frac{1}{25} \times 10^{-16} \frac{1}{(\text{pc})^3}$

so number of incidents are:

$$4 \times 10^{15} \text{ pc}^3 \times \frac{1}{25} \times 10^{-16} \frac{1}{(\text{pc})^3} \sim 0.016 \text{ incidents!}$$

Mean free path is: $\rightarrow 14 \times 10^9 \times \pi \times 10^7 \text{ s} \times 10^3 \times \frac{\text{km}}{\text{s}} \sim 4 \times 10^{20} \text{ km} \sim 1.4 \times 10^7 \text{ pc}$

divided by collisions \rightarrow mean free path $\approx 9 \times 10^8 \text{ pc}$

$$\text{mean free time is: } \frac{\text{MFP}}{\sigma_{cl}} \sim \frac{9 \times 3 \times 10^8 \times 10^{13} \text{ km}}{10^3 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{s}}} = 2.7 \times 10^{19} \text{ s} \approx 7 \times 10^{11} \text{ year!}$$

We can plug this time in poisson distribution and get.

$$\text{Pr}(k=1, T_r = 7 \times 10^{11} \text{ yr}) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \approx \frac{1.4 \times 10^{10}}{7 \times 10^{11}} \times e^{-\frac{1.4 \times 10^{10}}{7 \times 10^{11}}} \sim 1.4 \times 10^{-2} e^{-1.4 \times 10^{-2}}$$

where λ is $1.4 \times 10^{10} \text{ yr}$

$$\sim 0.02 = \frac{1}{2}$$

That's really impossible, probably there hasn't been any collision.

It seems that no collisions has been occurred and we can't infer anything from it \rightarrow So the proposed idea is wrong based on my calculation.

Q3. The flux formula is, $\frac{L}{4\pi r^2}$

Let's first calculate R_{\max} (the radius of which galaxies overlap each other or no new lights enters Earth after that radius),

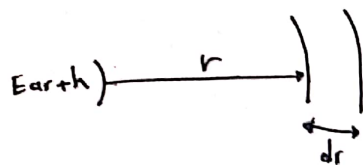
As we now from Olber's calculation $\rightarrow R_{\max} = \frac{1}{A_n}$ where A_n is typical

area of a galaxy $\rightarrow A \approx \pi \times 10^8 \text{ pc}^2 \rightarrow R_{\max} \approx \frac{1}{\pi \times 10^{-9} \times 10^{-9}} \approx 10^{17} \text{ Mpc}$
 $\approx \pi \times 10^{-9} \text{ mpc}^2$

So R_{\max} exceeds Hubble's radius and we should consider galaxies in all the sky.

Flux in a thick shell is $\frac{\text{number of galaxies} \times \text{Luminosity}}{4\pi r^2}$

But $dn = \frac{4\pi r^2 dr}{dV_{\text{shell}}} \times n \rightarrow dF = \frac{4\pi r^2 dr \times n \times L}{4\pi r^2}$



Integrating $\rightarrow F_{\text{tot}} = \int dF = \int_0^{r_H} nL dr = r_H n L$

and Flux of sun [solar flux] is: $\frac{L_{\odot}}{4\pi r_e^2}$ where $r_e = 8.15 \times 10^{16} \text{ m} \approx 4.8 \times 10^{-12} \text{ Mpc}$

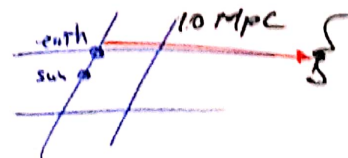
$r_H = C \times t_H = 3 \times 10^8 \times 5 \times 10^7 \times \pi \times 10^7 \times \frac{1}{3 \times 10^{16}} \approx 4700 \text{ Mpc}$

$\Rightarrow F_{\text{gal}} = r_H n \times L = 4700 \times 10^{-3} \times 10^{11} L_{\odot} \approx 4.7 \times 10^{11} L_{\odot} (\text{Mpc})^{-2}$

But: $\frac{F_{\text{gal}}}{F_{\odot}} = \frac{4.7 \times 10^{11} L_{\odot}}{\frac{L_{\odot}}{4\pi r_e^2}} = 4\pi \times 4.7 \times 10^{11} \times (4.8 \times 10^{-12})^2 (\text{Mpc})^2 \times (\text{Mpc})^{-2} \approx 10^{-10}$

So solar flux is 10 order greater than the $F_{\text{gal}} \rightarrow$ that's because \rightarrow

$n \sim 10^{-3} \frac{1}{(\text{Mpc})^3}$ roughly means in $10^3 (\text{Mpc})^3$ box is



a galaxy or in each 10 Mpc (distance) we can see

a galaxy \Rightarrow But $F \propto \frac{1}{r^2}$ and $r \sim \text{Mpc} \rightarrow$ so the galactic flux is

Completely negligible,

Q

Q4 Note that we know all physical lengths would undergo a contraction or expansion
 الف

so is λ (wave length) \rightarrow so the relation between λ_o (observed) , λ_e (emitted) is:

$$\frac{\lambda_o}{a(t_o)} = \frac{\lambda_e}{a(t_e)} \quad [\text{that's true because we normalize length to scale factor in order to get the Comoving length or comoving length}]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda_o}{\lambda_e} = \frac{a(t_o)}{a(t_e)}$$

expanding $a \rightarrow a(t_o) = a(t_e) + \dot{a}(t_e)(t_o - t_e) + O(t_o - t_e)^2 \rightarrow$ divide by $a(t_e)$

$|t_o - t_e| \ll H_o^{-1}$
 suppose \uparrow

$$\frac{a(t_o)}{a(t_e)} = 1 + \frac{\dot{a}(t_e)}{a(t_e)}(t_o - t_e) = \frac{\lambda_o}{\lambda_e} \Rightarrow$$

equality

$$\frac{\lambda_o}{\lambda_e} - 1 = \frac{\lambda_o - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e} = \frac{\Delta \lambda_{o-e}}{\lambda_e} \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta \lambda_{o-e}}{\lambda_e} = \frac{\dot{a}(t_e)}{a(t_e)}(t_o - t_e)$$

now notice that $\rightarrow r = c(t_o - t_e) \rightarrow (t_o - t_e) = \frac{r}{c} \rightarrow$ distance to our specified point

and we know that $H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}$ and by definition of redshift $z \rightarrow 1+z = \frac{\lambda_o}{\lambda_e}$

or $z = \frac{\Delta \lambda_{o-e}}{\lambda_e} \Rightarrow$ putting all this together:

$$\frac{\Delta \lambda_{o-e}}{\lambda_e} = \frac{\dot{a}(t_e)}{a(t_e)}(t_o - t_e) \Rightarrow z = H(t_e) \times \frac{r}{c} \rightarrow cz = H(t_e) r$$

Note that we know from doppler effect, that the speed of that point

is $(cz = v) \rightarrow$ (you can also expand $\sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}}$ in relativistic mechanics to

get that $z = \frac{v}{c} = \beta \rightarrow v = cz$

so $\rightarrow v = H(t_e) r \rightarrow$ Hubble's law

1) Derivating with respect to $t_0 \rightarrow$

$$\frac{dz}{dt_0} = \frac{da(t_0)}{dt_0} \times \frac{1}{a(t)} - a(t_0) \times \frac{1}{a^2(t)} \frac{da(t)}{dt} \frac{dt}{dt_0}$$

$$\frac{dz}{dt_0} = \frac{\dot{a}(t_0)}{a(t)} - \frac{a(t_0)}{a^2(t)} \times \frac{a(t)}{a(t)} \times \dot{a}(t) =$$

$$\frac{dz}{dt_0} = \frac{\dot{a}(t_0)}{a(t)} - \underbrace{\left(\frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)} \right)}_{H(t)} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)} \right)}_{H(t)} \underbrace{\frac{a(t)}{a(t)}}_{1+z} - H(t)$$

\rightarrow putting all together

$$\times \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)}$$

$$\frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} = 1+z$$

our main relation

$$\frac{dz}{dt_0} = H \cdot (1+z) - H(t) \rightarrow H(t) = H \cdot (1+z) - \frac{dz}{dt_0}$$