

Campus

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# Campus

A4

笔记本 8mm 线格 40页

KOKUYO

# Cosmology: Theory and observations

## INFO:

### Part 1:

- General discussion about cosmology
- Dynamics in cosmology.

### Part 2:

- CMB
- large scale structure.

### Part 3:

- observation cosmology

### CAMB → CAMB.info

\* pocas tareas: cálculos largos.

\* Nombrar la nomenclatura en las tareas ya que son distintas según el libro.

## Cosmology is ...

Galaxias como puntos, se estudia el universo a gran escala.

cosmos → orden.

cosmogonia: Orden ↔ caos. Dar una descripción del caos.

caos: espacio que se abre.

↳ Lienzo influenciado por la cantidad de materia. interacción con la materia.

Vacio tiene una energía

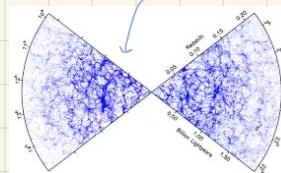
para universo tardío, galaxias como puntos.

hay más al centro por la capacidad de recibir fotones a galaxias más lejanas.

survey: distribución de galaxias

galaxias quieren estar juntas. Toman patrones particulares.

Gravedad responsable de las estructuras.

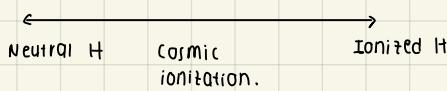


spectroscópico: espectro de emisión completa.

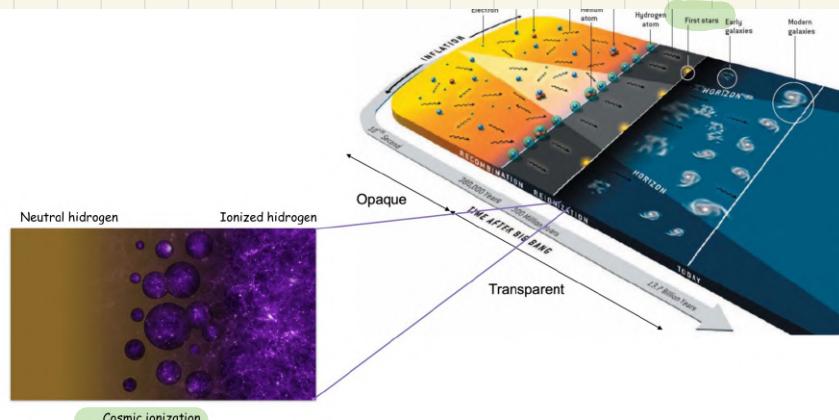
photométrica: espectro de emisión de la galaxia medido con filtros particulares.

Hidrógeno ionizado.

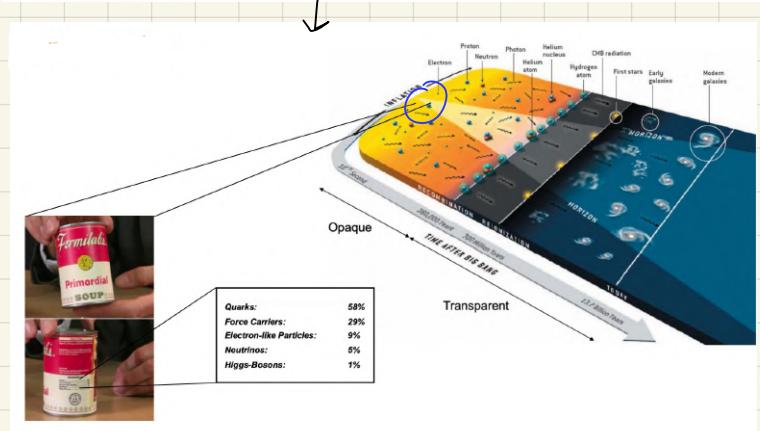
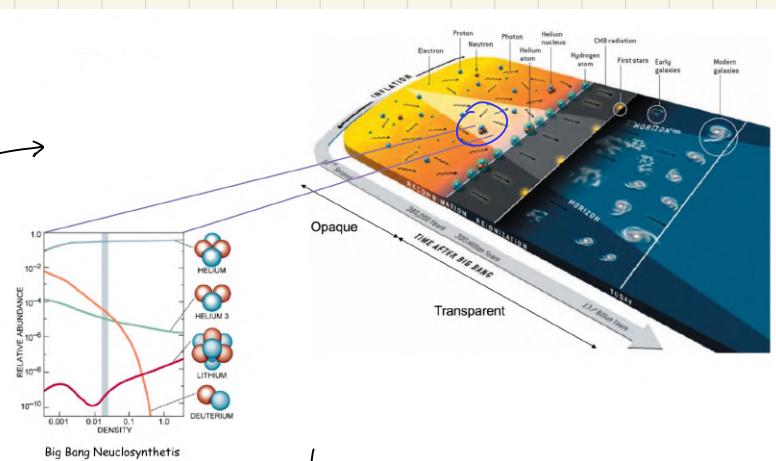
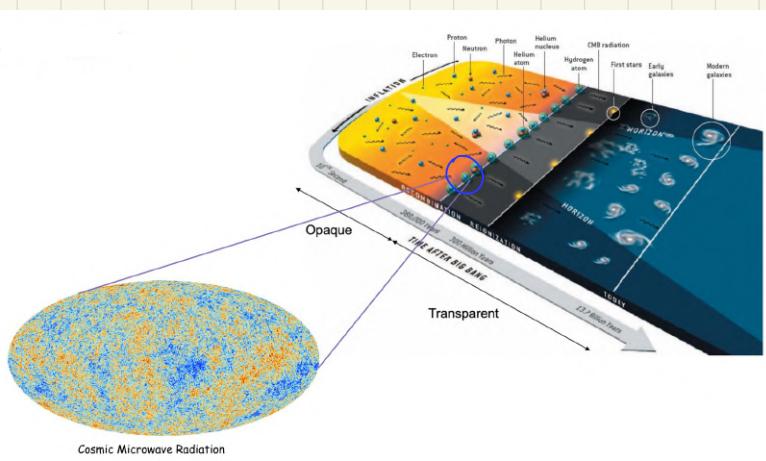
→ MÁS lejos: gás ionizado (mucho energía de la CMB). Fotones golpean el gás.



gas de H  
estrellas  
calientan el gas.



Primeras estrellas ionizan el gas de H.



Event	time $t$	
Inflation	$10^{-34}$ s (?)	<b>Inflation</b>
Baryogenesis	?	<b>Baryogenesis</b>
EW phase transition	20 ps	
QCD phase transition	20 $\mu$ s	→ Change from normal matter to quark-gluon plasma (QGP)
Dark matter freeze-out	?	
Neutrino decoupling	1 s	<b>Thermal History</b>
Electron-positron annihilation	6 s	
Big Bang nucleosynthesis	3 min	<b>Big Bang Nucleosynthesis</b>
Matter-radiation equality	60 kyr	
Recombination	260-380 kyr	<b>Cosmic Microwave Background Radiation</b>
Photon decoupling	380 kyr	
Reionization	100-400 Myr	<b>Cosmic Dawn</b> <b>Large-Scale Structure</b> <b>Observational Cosmology</b> <b>Gravitational Waves</b> <b>Open Problems</b>
Dark energy-matter equality	9 Gyr	
Present	13.8 Gyr	

- NO se puede ver más allá del CMB.
- universo observable: Todo lo que se puede observar.
- Fotones relacionados con la densidad con la que se forman estructuras.
- inflación cósmica → Distintos modelos. Se verá solo uno. → de energía oscura y gravedad modificada.

#### Principles:

- principio de equivalencia débil:  $m_a = m_g$
- " " fuerte: gravedad = aceleración.
- cosmological principle: homogéneo e isotrópico a gran escala → depende de cuánto es grande.
- principio de relatividad: same equations everywhere. (teo. central del límite)

Einstein eq.

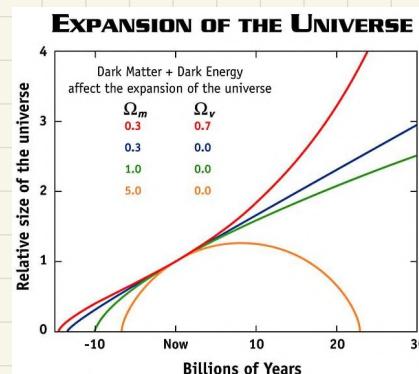
$$G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu} \quad \rightarrow \quad R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}.$$

Parámetro de Hubble: tener en cuenta ≠ efectos:

- $H_0 \sim 70 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$ . → Velocidades peculiares: mov. de una galaxia dada por otra.
- $H_0$ : present day expansion rate.

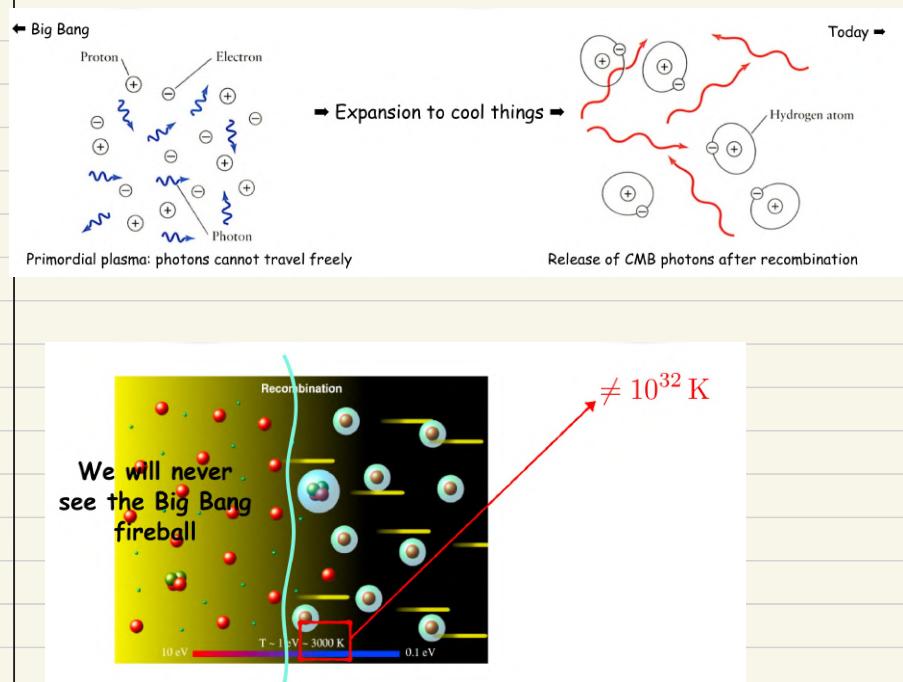
≠ colors ↔ ≠ fates  
(destino del universo)

The "fireball" of the Big Bang: CMB.



Más lejos estamos, más rápido se ve que se expande pero todos los puntos se expanden de la misma manera.

<p>* radiación : todas las componentes relativistas.</p> <p>Aumenta temp.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>QED / QCD → partículas elementales.</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Dark matter freeze-out : Materia acoplada → hay que esperar para que se junten e<sup>-</sup> (muy caliente) con protones.</li> <li>Matter-radiation equality : Estas 2 componentes son comparables entre sí. ↳ antes de esto domina la radiación.</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Photon decoupling : e<sup>-</sup> calientes emiten radiación. (fotones se desacoplan)</li> </ul>
	<p style="text-align: right;">→ CMB.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <p style="text-align: center;">fotón luego es absorbido por otro e<sup>-</sup>. (universo opaco)</p>
	<p style="text-align: center;">35,000 años . Universo opaco</p>
	<p>Early time cosmology : Antes de la CMB.</p>
	<p>* EB limit : límite del efecto electromagnético</p>
	<p>The fireball of the Big Bang :</p> <p>Penzias &amp; Wilson worked in 1965 at the Bell-labs</p> <p>investigating the radio emission from the Milky Way.</p> <p>measured a strange noise.</p> <p>→ Dicke</p> <p>→ Peebles</p> <p>→ Roll</p> <p>→ Wilkinson.</p>
	<p>le dieron una explicación física:</p> <p>→ Expansion to cool things</p> <p>→ CMB radiation</p>
	<p>Expanding Universe → principle of redshift.</p>
	<p>Disminuye la energía → Disminuye la T°. → <math>E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}</math></p>
	<p><math>T \approx 1.4 \cdot 10^{32} \text{ K}</math> ↗ <math>T = 2.76 \text{ K}</math> → We will never see the Big Bang fireball.</p> <p>Big bang → Expansion to cool things</p> <p>plasma primordial</p> <p>↳ barrera a los <math>3000 \text{ K} \neq 10^{32} \text{ K}</math></p>
<p>* En el desacoplo de los neutrinos :</p> <p><math>T_{CMB} = 10^10 \text{ K}</math></p>	<p>fotones no pueden viajar libremente.</p> <p>↳ last scattering</p> <p>3000 K → <math>T(a) = \frac{T_0}{a}</math></p>



## Cosmological Principle(s)

- It assumes conventional physics, including general relativity theory and quantum physics.
  - This yields a successful account of the origin of the light elements.
- In the large-scale average the universe is close to homogeneous, and has expanded in a near homogeneous way from a denser hotter state.
- Structure formation on the scale of galaxies and larger was a result of the gravitational growth of small primeval departures from homogeneity, as described by general relativity in linear perturbation theory.
- There's no preferred direction everywhere we look. → podemos simplificar el carácter
- Only 4% of total matter is of a known kind, the 96% is unknown: the adiabatic cold dark matter ( $\Lambda$ CDM) model gives a fairly definite and strikingly successful prescription from the initial conditions to the gravitational instability.

All this growth and all this expansion depends on what the Universe has

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu} R + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

\* escalas grandes  $\sim 100 \text{ Mpc}$ .

→ todo en análisis de fourier  
↳ vector de onda k y coord. r.

vectorial

↪ partículas pesadas,  
 $\Lambda$ CDM no tienen energía.  
energía oscura  
4%

2006 - Smoot & Mather → discovery of the anisotropies of the CMB.

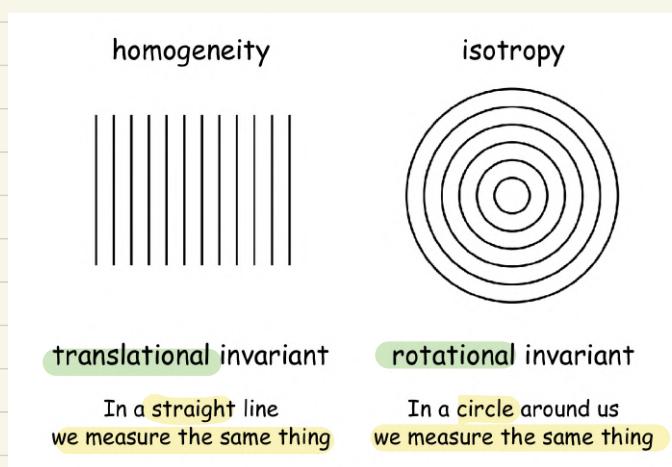
- Pequeñas fluctuaciones primordiales.  
+

diferencias de T° de  $10^{-5}$  K

Teoría de la gravedad que permite formar estructuras.

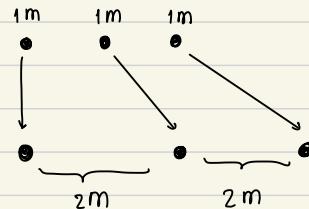
\* Modificar la  
gravedad. → teorías.

with perturbation  
theory.



Análisis de background: Tomar el promedio.

- Under homo. and isotropy, every point behaves the same.



Eq. Einstein:

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

This part will depend on the metric

$g_{\mu\nu}$

→ choose some form.

asociada a la energía del vacío / componente "nueva de materia".

↑  
cosmological constant. (no cambia el carácter invariante de las ecuaciones),

will depend on matter:

- how much → con la densidad
- how it "behaves". → presión de radiación.

· **reemplaza el**   
**potencial gravitacional.**  
 · **coordenada localmente**  
**inercial.**  
  
 sist. sin aceleración  
 (mov. lineal uniforme)

- The metric:  $g_{\mu\nu}$
- de rango 2 (4x4 matrix).
- $g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\nu\mu}$
- Not degenerate**, i.e.  $\det(g_{\mu\nu}) = |g_{\mu\nu}| = g \neq 0$
- Inverse  $g^{\mu\nu} g_{\nu\sigma} = \delta^\mu_\sigma$ .

Metric provides a notion of locally inertial frames → sense of "no rotation"

línea de elemento  $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$   
 o métrica.

↓  
 · curvature of the manifold.

$$\frac{\partial A_\mu}{\partial x^\nu} = \lim_{dx \rightarrow 0} \frac{A_\mu(x+dx) - A_\mu(x)}{dx^\nu}$$

Proper parallel transport: (derivado)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial A_\mu}{\partial x^\nu} &= \lim_{dx \rightarrow 0} \frac{A_\mu(x+dx) - A_\mu(x) - \delta A_\mu}{dx^\nu} = \lim_{dx \rightarrow 0} \frac{A_\mu(x+dx) - A_\mu(x)}{dx^\nu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\beta} A_\alpha \frac{dx^\beta}{dx^\nu} = \\ &= \frac{\partial A_\mu}{\partial x^\nu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\nu} A_\alpha \end{aligned}$$

Covariant derivative  $A_{\mu;\nu} = A_{\mu,\nu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\nu} A_\alpha$

Covariant derivative of a covariant vector

$$A_{\mu;\nu} = A_{\mu,\nu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\nu} A_\alpha$$

There is also a covariant derivative of a contravariant vector

$$B^\mu_{;\nu} = B^\mu_{,\nu} + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\nu} B^\alpha$$

→ orthonormal de  
plano tangente.

the covariant derivative differs from the ordinary derivative by as many extra terms as there are indices.  
 For example

$$\begin{aligned} B^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu} &= B^{\mu\nu}_{,\nu} + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\nu} B^{\alpha\nu} + \Gamma^\nu_{\mu\beta} B^{\mu\beta}, \\ A^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu} &= A^{\mu\nu}_{,\nu} + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} A^{\alpha\nu} + \Gamma^\nu_{\alpha\beta} A^{\mu\beta} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\beta} A^{\mu\sigma} \end{aligned}$$

The covariant derivative follows the Leibniz chain formula

$$(A^\mu B^\nu)_{;\beta} = A^\mu_{;\beta} B^\nu + A^\mu B^\nu_{;\beta}$$

But what is the  $\Gamma$  symbol?

The quantity  $(A^\mu B^\nu g_{\mu\nu})_{;\beta} = 0$  is a scalar and its derivatives is zero.

The same is for its covariant derivative. This will give:

$$g_{\mu\nu;\beta} = 0$$

From this, we can construct cyclically the Christoffel symbol:

$$\Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} \left( \frac{\partial g_{\beta\mu}}{\partial x^\nu} + \frac{\partial g_{\nu\beta}}{\partial x^\mu} - \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\beta} \right) = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} (g_{\beta\mu,\nu} + g_{\nu\beta,\mu} - g_{\mu\nu,\beta})$$

It is easy to verify that the covariant derivative of the inverse of the metric tensor is also identically zero  
 $g^{\mu\nu}_{;\alpha} = 0$

It follows that the operation of raising or lowering of indices commutes with covariant differentiation.

$$(g^{\mu\nu} A_\nu)_{;\alpha} = g^{\mu\nu} A_{\nu;\alpha}.$$

## parallel transport.

paths 1 and 2 connecting P and P'. Since it is curved space, the difference is not zero

$$\Delta A^\alpha = (-\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\mu,\nu} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\nu,\mu} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\mu}\Gamma^\sigma_{\beta\nu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\nu}\Gamma^\sigma_{\beta\mu})A^\beta d\xi^\nu d\xi^\mu$$

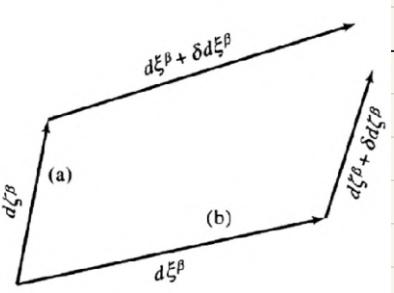
This shows that the result of parallel transport is path dependent

$$\Delta A^\alpha = R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} A^\beta d\xi^\nu dx^\mu$$

Riemann tensor, which has  $4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 4$  component (only 20 are independent)

$$R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} = -\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\mu,\nu} + \boxed{\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\nu,\mu}} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\mu}\Gamma^\sigma_{\beta\nu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\nu}\Gamma^\sigma_{\beta\mu}$$

describe la curvatura → gravedad (derivada del símbolo de Christoffel).  
 la doble derivada de la métrica → efectos no lineales  
 la doble derivada de la métrica → "desplazamiento"  
 "desplazamiento" → gravedad  
 tiene sentido con el tensor de Riemann.  
 deriva. cov. del símbolo de Christoffel.



### Riemann tensor

$$R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} = -\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\mu,\nu} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\nu,\mu} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\mu}\Gamma^\sigma_{\beta\nu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\nu}\Gamma^\sigma_{\beta\mu}$$

We can also lower indices

$$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} = g_{\alpha\sigma} R^\sigma_{\beta\mu\nu}$$

$$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} = -R_{\beta\alpha\mu\nu}$$

$$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} = -R_{\alpha\beta\nu\mu}$$

$$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}$$

$$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} + R_{\alpha\mu\nu\beta} + R_{\alpha\nu\beta\mu} = 0$$

We can have an extra useful identity:

$$R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu;\sigma} + R^\alpha_{\beta\nu\sigma;\mu} + R^\alpha_{\beta\sigma\mu;\nu} = 0$$

si se mueve en todas direcciones, volverá a la misma dirección.

if we introduce geodesic coordinates then Christoffel symbols are zero, so the Riemann tensor reads:

$$R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} = -\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\mu,\nu} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\nu,\mu}$$

Which reduces to

$$-\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\mu,\nu,\sigma} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\nu,\mu,\sigma} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\nu,\sigma,\mu} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\sigma,\nu,\mu} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\sigma,\mu,\nu} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\mu,\sigma,\nu} = 0$$

Which is trivial

By contracting the first and last indices of  $R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu}$

We have the Ricci tensor

$$R_{\beta\mu} = R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\alpha}$$

which is symmetric

Contracting again the two indices we have the Ricci scalar

$$R = R^\beta_\beta = R^{\alpha\beta}_{\alpha\beta}$$

From the Bianchi's identity we find that this composition is

$$\left( R^\mu_\nu - \frac{1}{2} \delta^\mu_\nu R \right)_{;\mu} = 0$$

What does the Riemann tensor tell us mathematically?

The commutative rule fails

It can be shown that:

$$A_{\beta;\mu;\nu} - A_{\beta;\nu;\mu} = R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} A_\alpha$$

Formal: starting with an action and derive the corresponding equations of motion.

D' Almberthiano:

Deriv. cov. de  $g_{\mu\nu} = 0$

no es tensor

Newton

$$[\nabla^2 g]_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow \square g_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow R^\rho_{\sigma\mu\nu} \rightarrow R_{\mu\nu}$$

$$R_{\rho\sigma\mu\nu;\lambda} + R_{\sigma\lambda\mu\nu;\rho} + R_{\lambda\rho\sigma\mu\nu;\sigma} = 0$$

$$0 = g^{\nu\sigma} g^{\mu\lambda} (R_{\rho\sigma\mu\nu;\lambda} + R_{\sigma\lambda\mu\nu;\rho} + R_{\lambda\rho\sigma\mu\nu;\sigma}) = \nabla^\mu R_{\rho\mu} - \nabla_\rho R + \nabla^\nu R_{\rho\nu}$$

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho$$

$$T_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{with} \quad T_{\mu\nu;\mu} = 0$$

$$R_{\mu\nu} = F(\Gamma, \Gamma_{,\mu}) = F(g, g_{,\mu}, g_{,\mu\nu})$$

materia se conserva

$$\Rightarrow \left[ R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R \right]_{;\mu} = 0$$

xq el universo es homogéneo

e isotrópico.

Since we want to describe the average expanding dynamics of space-time of a homogenous and isotropic Universe

General metric:

$$ds^2 = g_{00} dt^2 + 2g_{0i} dx^i dt - \sigma_{ij} dx^i dx^j$$

isotropy  $\Rightarrow g_{0i} = 0$

recircular el tiempo.

synchronization  $\Rightarrow g_{00} = -1$

spatial part to expand uniformly  $\Rightarrow$

Friedman-Lemaître-Robertson-Walker metric

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + \underbrace{a^2(t)}_{\text{factor de escala (espacio que se expande)}} \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - \frac{k}{r^2}} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

universo homogéneo e isotrópico en expansión.

Asumimos  $k \approx 0$  (casi plano)



## Slide 03 Cosmo:

### Cosmology: metric

Metric in general:  $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$  where  $x^\mu = (x, y, z)$  = vector

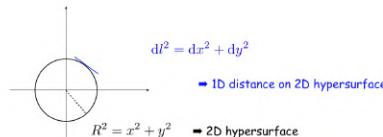
In 3D Euclidean space:  $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 \implies g_{\mu\nu} = 1$

In curved space-time:  $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$  where  $x^\mu = (ct, x^i)$  4-vector

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \gamma_{13} \\ 0 & \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \gamma_{23} \\ 0 & \gamma_{31} & \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \text{metric tensor}$$

Any non-trivial  $g_{00}$  component can be absorbed redefining time  $dt' = \sqrt{g_{00}} dt$

1D space = hypersurface in 2D space



We would like to get rid of the 2nd dimension (i.e. y) as we live in 1D space (i.e. x)

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dx^2 + dy^2 \\ R^2 &= x^2 + y^2 \xrightarrow{\text{derivative}} 0 = xdx + ydy \quad dy = -xdx/y \\ &\xrightarrow{\text{rearrange}} y^2 = R^2 - x^2 \end{aligned}$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{dy } \xrightarrow{\text{a travéz de la ecq. de la}} \\ \text{circunferencia} \\ \text{no hay curvatura } \xrightarrow{\text{en el radio}} \text{reverso} \end{array} \right\} ds^2 = dx^2 + \frac{x^2 dx^2}{R^2 - x^2} \quad (R \rightarrow +\infty \implies ds = dx)$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{no hay curvatura } \xrightarrow{\text{en el radio}} \text{reverso} \\ \gamma_{11} = 1 + \frac{x^2}{R^2 - x^2} \end{array} \right\}$

Spherical 3D space

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + dz^2 \\ R^2 &= x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + z^2 \quad \gamma_{ij} = ? \quad \text{el que usamos para definirlo en función de las otras dimensiones (nuestro y).} \\ 0 &= x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2 + x_3 dx_3 + zdz \quad \text{differentiate} \\ &\downarrow \quad \text{combine} \\ ds^2 &= dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + \frac{(x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2 + x_3 dz)^2}{R^2 - (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2)} \quad \text{depende de las demás.} \end{aligned}$$

General 3D space

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= \left( \frac{R^2}{R^2 - r^2} \right) dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \quad \text{Using rescaled (comoving) coordinate} \\ &\xrightarrow{\text{Hyperesfera}} ds^2 = R^2 \left[ \left( \frac{1}{1 - x^2} \right) dx^2 + x^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right] \quad r = Rx \\ &\quad \text{en el libro "gravitación" se calcula este paso.} \quad dr = R dx \\ &\quad K = +1 : \text{spherical} \quad K = 0 : \text{Euclidean} \\ &\quad K = -1 : \text{hyperbolic} \\ \text{We add time} &\quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{ds}^2 = R^2 \left[ \left( \frac{1}{1 - Kx^2} \right) dx^2 + x^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right] \\ \text{ds}^2 = -dt^2 + R^2 \left[ \left( \frac{1}{1 - Kx^2} \right) dx^2 + x^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right] \end{array} \right\} \text{Nuestro a.} \end{aligned}$$

comoving distance

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \gamma_{13} \\ 0 & \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \gamma_{23} \\ 0 & \gamma_{31} & \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \text{metric tensor}$$

g<sub>00</sub> = 0  $\rightarrow$  if time depended on space, measurement of time could distinguish one place from another...

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \gamma_{13} \\ 0 & \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \gamma_{23} \\ 0 & \gamma_{31} & \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \text{metric tensor}$$

It should describe a homogeneous and isotropic 3D space, i.e. maximal symmetry for the 4D hypersurface described by the vector x

3D space = hypersurface in 4D space

bajo la asunción de homogeneidad e isotropía.

Spherical 3D space

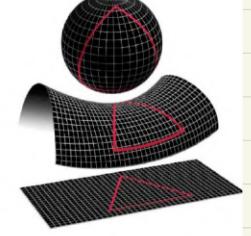
$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + dz^2 \\ R^2 &= x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + z^2 \quad \rightarrow \text{isotropía, no hay términos metidos, } (x_1, x_2, \dots) \end{aligned}$$

Hyperbolic 3D space

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + dz^2 \\ R^2 &= x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + z^2 \quad \text{una diferencia} \end{aligned}$$

Euclidean 3D space

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 \quad \rightarrow \text{desaparece una coordenada}$$



These are the only possible cases for homogeneous and isotropic metrics!

Spherical 3D space

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + \frac{(x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2 + x_3 dx_3)^2}{R^2 - (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2)}$$

$$\vec{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r \sin \theta \cos \phi \\ r \sin \theta \sin \phi \\ r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 = g_r dr^2 + g_\theta d\theta^2 + g_\phi d\phi^2$$

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) + \frac{r^2 dr^2}{R^2 - r^2}$$

$$ds^2 = \left( \frac{R^2}{R^2 - r^2} \right) dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{varía el dr (variar la componente radial)} \\ \text{varía el dr (variar la componente radial)} \end{array} \right\}$

$$\begin{cases} g_r = \left| \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial r} \right| = 1 \\ g_\theta = \left| \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial \theta} \right| = r \\ g_\phi = \left| \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial \phi} \right| = r \sin \theta \end{cases}$$

We arrive to the FLRW metric with  $R(t) \rightarrow a(t)$

Compact version (as before)

$$x^\mu = (ct, x^i)$$

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - Kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$\underbrace{\text{diciendo que el universo se expande}}$  comp. angular no importa (homogéneo e isotrópico)

$$0 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) \frac{dr^2}{1 - Kr^2} \implies c dt = a(t) dr$$

And with this we can do all the calculations:

Redshift  
Geodesic  
Friedman equations  
Distances

$$H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \quad \text{Hubble law}$$

$\downarrow$  el espacio tiempo que se expande

From the FLRW metric, if we assign the coordinates  $r, \theta, \phi$  at a given time to, the function  $a(t)$  acts as an overall factor in the expansion or contraction.

$\rightarrow$  nos movemos en el elemento de línea de láser lo mismo que la luz.

The physical distance measured along a null geodesic  $ds=0$  (i.e. along a light beam) is

$$D = c dt = a(t) dr$$

$$\dot{D} = \dot{a} dr = H D$$

$$H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \quad \text{Hubble law}$$

$\downarrow$  el espacio tiempo que se expande

Hubble law applies to any system that expands (or contracts) in a homogeneous and isotropic way

Distance

$$r = \int \frac{dr'}{\sqrt{1 - Kr'^2}}$$

$\downarrow$  distancia comoving  
se mueve con la expansión

are fixed on space and time and "move" with it. These are therefore called comoving distances.

The physical distances  $D = a(t)r$  vary instead with the expansion.

## The first distance

The physical (proper) distance

how it was in the past

$$\lambda = a(t)\lambda_0 \quad \begin{matrix} \text{distancia cambia entre galaxias según cuanto se expande el universo entre ellas.} \\ \rightarrow o en el pasado y si ahora } \end{matrix}$$

what we measure today

For convenience, we often define the present distances such that  $\lambda_0$  is what we measure today. The comoving distance (moving with the expansion) is fixed.



## Cosmology: dynamics

The Christoffel symbols are

$$\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\alpha}(g_{\alpha\nu,\lambda} + g_{\alpha\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\alpha}) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{descripción de la métrica} \\ \text{de la métrica} \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{But the metric is } ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t)\gamma_{ij}dx^i dx^j \quad \gamma_{11} = \frac{1}{1-Kr^2}, \quad \gamma_{22} = r^2, \quad \gamma_{33} = r^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$\text{And } g_{00} = -1$$

$$\Gamma_{00}^0 = \frac{1}{2}g^{0\alpha}[g_{\alpha,0,0} + g_{0\alpha,0} - g_{00,\alpha}] = -\frac{1}{2}g^{00}g_{00,0} = 0$$

And then one by one, the non-null Christoffel symbols are:

$$\Gamma_{ij}^0 = a^2 H \gamma_{ij}, \quad \Gamma_{0,j}^i = \Gamma_{j,0}^i = H \delta_j^i,$$

$$\Gamma_{11}^1 = \frac{K r}{1 - K r^2}, \quad \Gamma_{22}^1 = -r(1 - K r^2), \quad \Gamma_{33}^1 = -r(1 - K r^2) \sin^2 \theta,$$

$$\Gamma_{33}^2 = -\sin \theta \cos \theta, \quad \Gamma_{12}^2 = \Gamma_{21}^1 = \Gamma_{13}^3 = \Gamma_{31}^1 = \frac{1}{r}, \quad \Gamma_{23}^3 = \Gamma_{32}^2 = \cot \theta,$$

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4}T_{\mu\nu}$$

Ricci tensor

$$R_{\mu\nu} = \Gamma_{\mu\nu,\alpha}^\alpha - \Gamma_{\mu\alpha,\nu}^\alpha + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\beta\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\alpha - \Gamma_{\beta\nu}^\alpha\Gamma_{\mu\alpha}^\beta$$

Ricci scalar

$$R = g^{\mu\nu}R_{\mu\nu}$$

Christoffel symbols

$$\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\alpha}(g_{\alpha\nu,\lambda} + g_{\alpha\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\alpha})$$

How to proceed? Basically one by one with the indices and find the non-null solutions.

Reminder: 0 is time and i=1,2,3 is space

$$\begin{aligned} R_{00} &= \Gamma_{00,i}^\alpha - \Gamma_{0,i,0}^\alpha + \Gamma_{00}^\beta\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\alpha - \Gamma_{\beta,0}^\alpha\Gamma_{0\alpha}^\beta = \\ &= \cancel{\Gamma_{00,0}^0} + \Gamma_{00,i}^i - \cancel{\Gamma_{00,0}^0} - \Gamma_{0,i,0}^i + \Gamma_{00}^0\Gamma_{\alpha 0}^\alpha + \Gamma_{00}^i\Gamma_{\alpha i}^\alpha - \Gamma_{00}^\alpha\Gamma_{0\alpha}^0 - \Gamma_{i0}^\alpha\Gamma_{0\alpha}^i = \\ &= \Gamma_{00,i}^i - \Gamma_{0,i,0}^i + \Gamma_{00}^0\Gamma_{i0}^i + \Gamma_{00}^i\Gamma_{0i}^0 + \Gamma_{00}^0\Gamma_{ji}^j - \Gamma_{00}^i\Gamma_{0i}^0 - \Gamma_{i0}^0\Gamma_{00}^i - \Gamma_{i0}^j\Gamma_{0j}^i \end{aligned}$$

The Ricci tensor is a combination of the Christoffel symbols

$$\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\alpha}(g_{\alpha\nu,\lambda} + g_{\alpha\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\alpha})$$

$$\text{But the metric is } ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t)\gamma_{ij}dx^i dx^j \quad \gamma_{11} = \frac{1}{1-Kr^2}, \quad \gamma_{22} = r^2, \quad \gamma_{33} = r^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$\Gamma_{ij}^0 = a^2 H \gamma_{ij}, \quad \Gamma_{0,j}^i = \Gamma_{j,0}^i = H \delta_j^i,$$

$$\Gamma_{11}^1 = \frac{K r}{1 - K r^2}, \quad \Gamma_{22}^1 = -r(1 - K r^2), \quad \Gamma_{33}^1 = -r(1 - K r^2) \sin^2 \theta,$$

$$\Gamma_{33}^2 = -\sin \theta \cos \theta, \quad \Gamma_{12}^2 = \Gamma_{21}^1 = \Gamma_{13}^3 = \Gamma_{31}^1 = \frac{1}{r}, \quad \Gamma_{23}^3 = \Gamma_{32}^2 = \cot \theta,$$

$$\text{The components are } R_{00} = -3(H^2 + \dot{H}), \quad R_{0i} = R_{i0} = 0, \quad R_{ij} = a^2(3H^2 + \dot{H} + \frac{2K}{a^2})\gamma_{ij}$$

$$R = 6(2H^2 + \dot{H} + \frac{K}{a^2}).$$

Consider a wave source at rest. The interval between two crests is

$$\lambda_0 = c dt$$

If in the same  $dt$  the source moves away from the observer with velocity  $-v$ , the interval between two crests stretches by the distance traveled by the source, that is  $D = v dt$

$$\lambda_e = c dt + v dt$$

*se aleja con cierta velocidad el espacio*

Moving according to Hubble

relative difference

$$\frac{d\lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{\lambda_e - \lambda_0}{\lambda_0} = \frac{v}{c}$$

*dicho doppler.*

Because  $dt = t_{\text{emission}} - t_{\text{observed}} < 0$

*ej ahora: mayor a lo demás.*

Integrating and normalizing

Defining the redshift as

$$z = \frac{\lambda_e - \lambda_0}{\lambda_0} \Rightarrow \lambda_e = (1+z)\lambda_0 \Rightarrow (1+z) = \frac{1}{a}$$

*↳ redshift tiene relación con  $\lambda$*

*↳ q con una frecuencia*

*↳ energía del fotón:  $hf$*

## Geodesic equation

Geodesic equation

Generalization of the "straight line"; world-line of a particle free of external forces:

i.e. freely moving or falling particle

4-velocity

$$u^\mu = \frac{dx^\mu}{ds} \quad -$$

$$\frac{du^\mu}{ds} + \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu u^\alpha u^\beta = 0$$

The  $\mu = 0$  component

$$\frac{du^0}{ds} + \Gamma_{0\beta}^\mu u^\alpha u^\beta = 0 \quad \text{because} \quad \Gamma_{0j}^0 = a^2 H \delta_{0j}$$

$$\frac{du^0}{ds} + \Gamma_{0j}^0 = \frac{du^0}{ds} + a^2 H \gamma_{ij} u^i u^j = \frac{du^0}{ds} + H(u^0)^2$$

$$0 = g_{\mu\nu} u^\mu u^\nu = -(u^0)^2 + a^2 \gamma_{ij} u^i u^j$$

*massless particle.*

$$\frac{d}{ds} = \frac{dx^0}{ds} \frac{d}{dx^0}$$

*para el volumen y la expansión del universo.*

$$\frac{du^0}{dt} = -\frac{da}{a} \Rightarrow u^0 \propto \frac{1}{a}$$

*densidad de radiación constante*

*The energy decreases with  $a(t)$*

*↳ densidad de E es  $m/vol$  y  $vol \propto a^3$*

The Ricci tensor is a combination of the Christoffel symbols

$$\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\alpha}(g_{\alpha\nu,\lambda} + g_{\alpha\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\alpha})$$

Good procedure is to list them  $g_{00} = -1; g_{ij} = a^2(t)\delta_{ij}$

$$\Gamma_{00}^0 = \frac{1}{2}g^{0\alpha}[g_{\alpha,0,0} + g_{0\alpha,0} - g_{00,\alpha}] = \frac{1}{2}g^{00}g_{00,0} = 0$$

$$\Gamma_{0j}^0 = \frac{1}{2}g^{0\alpha}[g_{\alpha,j,0} + g_{i\alpha,j} - g_{0j,\alpha}] = -\frac{1}{2}g^{00}g_{ij,0} = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}\delta_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma_{i0}^j = \Gamma_{0i}^j = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}\delta_{ij}$$

All the others, for this particular metric, are 0!

Watch: we assumed that  $k=0$

Dynamics depends on matter

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4}T_{\mu\nu}$$

de la gravitación

Para todas las componentes del universo.

We need to define what to add in our Universe which is homogenous and isotropic.

We need a fluid that is homogeneous and isotropic in the same rest frame where the universe is experienced to be homogeneous and isotropic. Such fluids are said to be perfect.

Fluido perfecto: No hay traspaso del flujo de calor.

solo depende  
de t

$$T_{00} = \rho(t), \quad T_{i0} = T_{0j} = 0, \quad T_{ij} = p(t)a^2(t)\gamma_{ij},$$

$$\text{In a compact form introducing the 4-velocity } u^\mu = \{-1, 0, 0, 0\}$$

Sino, habría una dirección privilegiada.

Nos movemos con el fluido.

$$T_{\mu\nu} = (\rho + p)u_\mu u_\nu + pg_{\mu\nu}$$

What is a perfect fluid?

Real fluids are "sticky" and contain (and conduct) heat. Perfect fluids are idealized models in which these possibilities are neglected. Specifically, perfect fluids have no shear stresses, viscosity, or heat conduction.

$\uparrow$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Densidad NO depende de} \\ \text{la posición sino que del} \\ \text{tiempo.} \end{array} \right.$

→ Igual en todos los puntos.

• Si me pongo lejos o afuera del fluido, las componentes espaciales son 0 también y no se mueven.

We have all the materials to work out the equations that describe the whole dynamics

$$G_{00} = R_{00} - \frac{1}{2}g_{00}R = 8\pi G T_{00}$$

$$3\left(H^2 + \frac{K}{a^2}\right) = 8\pi G\rho$$

$$G_{ij} = R_{ij} - \frac{1}{2}g_{ij}R = 8\pi G T_{ij}$$

$$-a^2\left(3H^2 + 2\dot{H} + \frac{K}{a^2}\right)\delta_{ij} = 8\pi Ga^2 p\delta_{ij}$$

densidades  
(sin curvatura).

The Friedmann equations:

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho - \frac{K}{a^2} \rightarrow \text{Velocity of expansion}$$

$$\text{The Raychaudhuri equation: } 3H^2 + 2\dot{H} = -8\pi G p - \frac{K}{a^2} \rightarrow \text{Acceleration of expansion}$$

We constructed the Einstein equations such that

$$G_{\mu\nu;\mu} = 0 \iff T_{\mu\nu;\mu} = 0$$

purely geometric

materia está conservada

matter is conserved

This means that we can find a conservation law for matter component

$$\dot{\rho} + 3H(\rho + p) = 0$$

$$(p = w\rho)$$

For adiabatic fluid whose pressure is a function only of the density  
And we introduced a new parameter  $w$  = equation of state parameter

$$\boxed{\rho = \rho_0 \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{-3(1+w)}}$$

We are assuming that  $w$  is constant.  $\rho_0$  and  $a_0$  extremes of integration.  
The EOS  $w$  will tell us how that particular matter behaves.

$$\text{Ec. de conservación} \quad \dot{\rho} + 3H(\rho + p)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\substack{\text{Fluido} \\ \text{adiabático}}} \rho = \rho_0 \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{-3(1+w)}$$

$$p = w\rho$$

q redondeo

Materia relativista: $w = 1/3$ 

→ fotones, neutrinos relativistas, ...  
-4 [ $T \gg m$ ]

$$\rho_r = \rho_{r,0} \left( \frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{-4}$$

Materia no-relativista: $w = 0$ 

$$\rho_m = \rho_{m,0} \left( \frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{-3}$$

como el volumen.

Dark energy: $w = -1 \Rightarrow p$  negativo

$$\rightarrow \rho_{DE} = \rho_{DE,0} \left( \frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{-3(1+w)} = \rho_{DE,0}$$

curvature can be considered as a fluid:

 $w = -1/3$ 

$$\rho_k = \rho_{k,0} \left( \frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{-2}$$

→ No es un fluido!

(sólo para escribirlo)

It is useful to define the critical density as

$$\rho_{\text{crit}} = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G} \quad \rightarrow \text{Densidad tal que la curvatura es igual a } 0$$

And the density parameter for a species (normalized)

$$\Omega_s = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_{\text{crit}}}$$

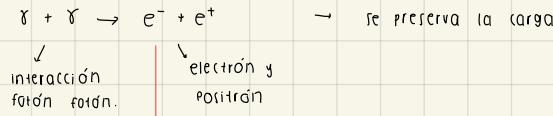
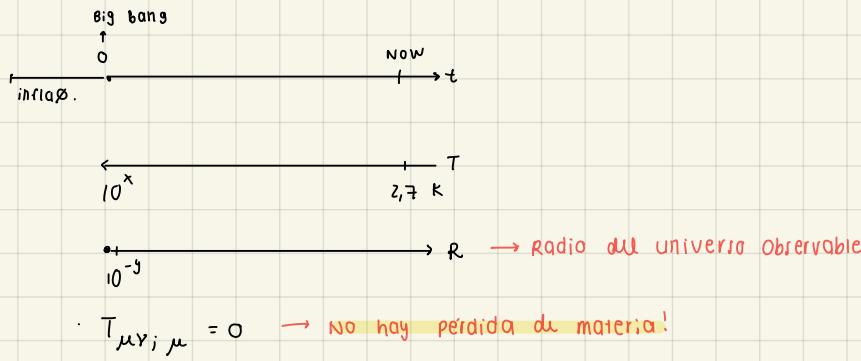
$$H^2 = \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = H_0^2 \sum_s \Omega_{s,0} \left( \frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{-3(1+w_s)}$$

evaluada al  $t$  actual → tiene un  $H_0$ 

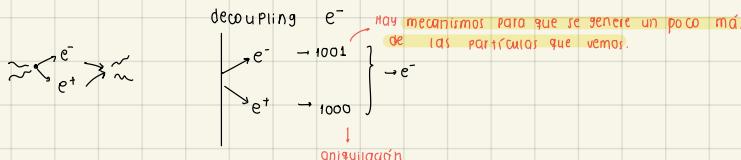
The final Hubble parameter (you've been waiting for)

$$H^2 = H_0^2 \left[ \Omega_{r,0} a^{-4} + \Omega_{m,0} a^{-3} + \Omega_{K,0} a^{-2} + \Omega_{DE,0} a^{-3(1+w)} \right]$$

radiación  
no relativista  
(materia)  
curvatura  
DE.

Important issue in cosmology:  $\Omega_K = -K_0/H_0^2$  makes the total  $\Omega = \Sigma_s \Omega_s = 1$  at any given time.In cosmology we want to measure  $\sum_{s \neq K} \Omega_s = 1 - \Omega_K = 1 - \Omega_{r,0} - \Omega_{m,0} - \Omega_{DE,0}$  → suma de densidades es 1.

electrón y  
positrón  
nunca estas partículas están libres  
para poder desacoplararse.



→ excepción de electrones  
en comparación con  
positrones.

\* siempre es un sistema aislado → conserva energía. → No puede salir la E fuera del universo ya que la información tendría que viajar más rápido que la F de la luz.

\* Inflación: qué pudo crear materia?  
 ↓  
 debido a un campo: inflación  
 ↓ crece y crea

Higgs bosón.

\* Partículas livianas sin masa sienten más  
 ↑ T° de su entorno

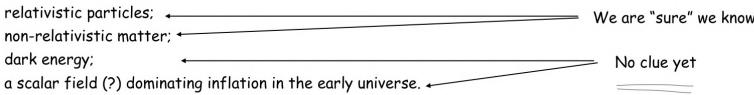
↓

se desacoplan antes las partículas  
más pesadas.

↳ se desacoplan por completo los  
fotones ⇒ CMB

# Matter species

They are broadly classified into:



Some info from GR: a particles as a momentum and a mass  $\{\vec{p}, m\}$  with  $|\vec{p}| = p$  and its energy is  $E = \sqrt{m^2 + \vec{p}^2}$

The phase-space occupancy of a species in equilibrium at a temperature T follows

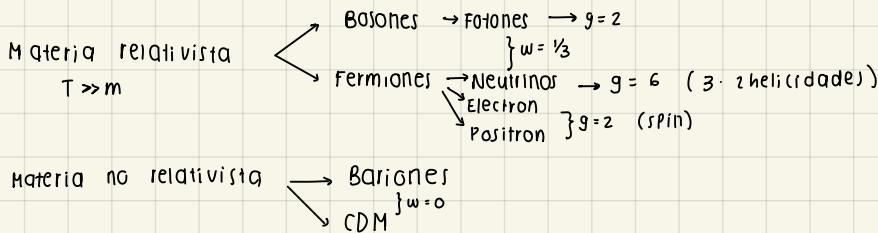
$$f(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{\exp[(E - \mu)/T] \pm 1}$$

↳ como todos los partículas se comportan en este gas.

Fermi-Dirac      Bose-Einstein

watch: the above equation depends only on the module of p due to homogeneity and isotropy

Since the minimum volume of phase space in terms of x and p is given by  $(2\pi\hbar)^3$  due to Heisenberg's principle, the number of phase space elements is  $d^3x d^3p / (2\pi\hbar)^3$



The energy density and the pressure per unit volume (no integration on x) are

$$\rho = g_* \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} E(p) f(p) = \frac{g_*}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty dE \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{1/2}}{\exp(E - \mu)/T \pm 1} E^2,$$

↑ nota da los grados de libertad internos de la partícula

$$p = g_* \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} \frac{pv}{3} f(p) = g_* \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} \frac{p^2}{3E} f(p) = \frac{g_*}{3\pi^2} \int_m^\infty dE \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{3/2}}{\exp(E - \mu)/T \pm 1} E^2.$$

grados de libertad de la partícula (spins) → distinto por cada componente de especie.

remind in special relativity that

$$E = mc^2 \quad E = m c^2 / \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}; \quad p = m v / \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$$

## Relativistic component

$$T \gg m \implies m \rightarrow 0$$

↓ temp. mucho más grande que la masa (como los fotones)

And for non-degenerate particles  $T \gg \mu$

$$\text{With integrals} \quad \int_0^\infty dx x^3 / (e^x - 1) = \pi^4 / 15; \quad \int_0^\infty dx x^3 / (e^x + 1) = 7\pi^4 / 120$$

$$\rho = \begin{cases} (\pi^2/30) g_* T^4, & \text{(Bosons) } \rightarrow \text{Fotones. (2 polarizaciones)} \\ (7/8)(\pi^2/30) g_* T^4, & \text{(Fermions)} \end{cases}$$

$p = \rho/3, \rightarrow p = \omega p \Rightarrow \frac{\rho}{3} = \omega p \Rightarrow \omega = \frac{1}{3}$  para las comp. relativistas

## photons

are bosons and have two spin states:  $g=2$   
also  $\mu/T < 9 \times 10^{-5}$

The Planck satellite measured the present temperature of CMB photons to be  $T = 2.725 \pm 0.002$  K

$$\rho_\gamma = \frac{\pi^2 k_B T^4}{15 \hbar^3 c^5}$$

temp. de la CMB  
permite obtener la relació  $K^4 \sim \frac{k_B}{m^3}$

$$\Omega_{\gamma,0} = \frac{\rho_{\gamma,0}}{\rho_{\text{crit}}} \quad \text{densidad q. nuestro universo sea plano.}$$

$$\rho_{\text{crit}} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G} = \frac{3(100 h)^2}{8\pi G} \text{ km} \quad \text{diferentes valores le ponemos a h. (nº entre 0 y 1)}$$

$$\rho_{\text{crit}} = 1.88 \times 10^{-26} h^2 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

With some magic conversion

$$1 \text{ K}^4 = 1.279 \times 10^{-32} \text{ kg/m}^3$$

And with the temperature measured by Planck

$$\rho_{\gamma,0} = 4.641 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg/m}^3 \rightarrow \Omega_{\gamma,0} = 2.469 \times 10^{-5} h^{-2} \rightarrow \text{trabajamos con su fracc.}$$

Which depends on the measured h

→ NOS dice cómo se distribuyen las partículas en el espacio de momento y la coord. x. (cómo se portan en este gas)

→ Para que sea correcto completar hay que considerar las colisiones.

# Relativistic matter

## neutrinos

are fermions

But their energy density is given by

Neutrinos, partículas con masa  $\approx 0$ .

$$\rho_\nu = N_{\text{eff}} \frac{7\pi^2}{120} T_\nu^4$$

Si la partícula tiene una masa ligera, hay que esperar a que baje la  $T^\circ$  (para que se desacoplen).

Where  $N_{\text{eff}}$  is the effective number of neutrinos, which in the standard model is = 3

proceso relativista

However, Planck measured  $N_{\text{eff}} = 3.15$ . Where does this come from? To allow extra relativistic degree of freedom!

The Universe is filled with boson and fermions, which they decouple at different times from the thermal bath.

## decoupling

$\downarrow$   
neutrinos  $\rightarrow$  electron  
positron.

$\longrightarrow$  BBN

The Big Bang Nucleosynthesis (BBN) occurred around the energy scale  $\sim 0.1 \text{ MeV}$  to form light elements such as deuterium and helium. The decoupling of neutrinos from the rest of the cosmic plasma, immediately followed by the annihilation of electrons ( $e^-$ ) and positrons ( $e^+$ ), occurred earlier than the BBN epoch. The presence of extra relativistic degrees of freedom changes the amount of the light elements predicted by the BBN, which allows to put a bound on  $N_{\text{eff}}$ .

The non integer of  $N_{\text{eff}}$  comes from the cooling down of the Universe and different species decouple at different times

## neutrinos and $\sim 1 \text{ MeV}$

$$\rho_{\text{rel}} = \boxed{g_*} \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4 \quad \text{and} \quad g_* = g_{\text{bos}} + \boxed{\frac{7}{8}} \rho_{\text{fer}}$$

Coef que aparece de la  
 $\neq$  de bosones y fermiones.

3 + 2 helicidades

$$g_* = g_\gamma + \frac{7}{8}(g_\nu + g_{e^+} + g_{e^-}) = 2 + \frac{7}{8}(6 + 2 + 2) = 10.75$$

2 spin.

3 neutrinos with 2 helicity, and 2 spins for electrons and positrons

The only interactions keeping neutrinos coupled are

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_e &\rightleftharpoons e^+ + e^-, \\ \nu_\mu + \bar{\nu}_\mu &\rightleftharpoons e^+ + e^-, \\ \nu_\tau + \bar{\nu}_\tau &\rightleftharpoons e^+ + e^-, \end{aligned}$$

When do they start to decouple? When the interaction rate  $\sim$  expansion rate ( $H^2 \sim \rho_{\text{rad}}$ )

$\downarrow$   
T° del entorno bajo

$$\boxed{\frac{\Gamma_{\text{int}, \nu}}{H}} \simeq \left( \frac{T}{1 \text{ MeV}} \right)^4$$

It happens at  $\sim 1 \text{ MeV}$

cuando el universo se expande, es imposible que las partículas se junten de nuevo.

From that point on, the distribution of neutrinos freezes, and evolves as if it were a thermal bath with its own temperature.

## neutrinos and $\sim 0.5 \text{ MeV}$

Now, the neutrinos are decoupled and the thermal bath is composed by

$$\rho_{\text{rel}} = g_*^{\text{rest}} \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4 + g_*^\nu \frac{7}{8} \frac{\pi^2}{30} T_\nu^4$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} g_*^{\text{rest}} &= 2 + \frac{7}{8} \times 4 \quad \text{and} \quad g_*^\nu = \frac{7}{8} \times 6 \\ &\text{fotón} \quad \text{c' y } e^- \quad \text{helicidades} \\ g_*^{\text{rest}} &= g_*^\gamma = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad g_*^\nu = \frac{7}{8} \times 6 \\ &\text{fotón quedan los fotones} \end{aligned}$$

with cooling positron and electrons annihilate

This change is what makes things right, but for this we need the Entropy!

The change of density in a volume implies a change of density

$$TdS = d(\rho V) + pdV = Vd\rho + (p + \rho)dV$$

$$dS = \frac{V}{T} \frac{d\rho}{dT} dT + \frac{(p + \rho)}{T} dV$$

depende de la  $T^\circ$  y el volumen.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\partial_V S = (\rho + p)/T} \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{\partial_T S = (V/T)d\rho/dT}$$

Using the continuity eq.

$$d\rho + (\rho + p) \frac{dV}{V} = 0$$

$$\partial_T \partial_V S = \partial_V \partial_T S \Rightarrow \frac{dp}{dT} = \frac{(\rho + p)}{T}$$

$$dS = d \left[ \frac{V(\rho + p)}{T} \right] = 0$$

entropía constante (no densidad de entropía)

Adiabaticidad.

$$\hookrightarrow \text{conservation eq. } \rho + 3H(\rho + p) = 0$$

2º ley termo.

$$TdS = dU + pdV$$

$$dV = d(a^3)$$

$$\frac{dU}{dt} + p \frac{dV}{dt} = 3a^2 \dot{a}p + a^3 \dot{p} + 3pa^2 \dot{a} = 0$$

$$dU = d(a^3 p)$$

$$TdS = 0$$

→ fluido barotrópico.

↓ presión const.

+ que un fluido perfecto

2º ley termo.

$$TdS = dU + pdV = 0$$

expansión es adiabática:

To barotropic fluid:

$$p = w\rho \rightarrow \rho a^{3(1+w)} = \text{cte}$$

## Relativistic matter

This condition

$$dS = d\left[\frac{\tilde{V}(\rho + p)}{T}\right] = 0$$

$$g_*^i = g_*^{\text{rest}}$$

$$= 2 + \frac{7}{8} \times (4)$$

$$g_*^i = g_*^{\text{rest}} = 2$$

implies that during transitions

$$= 2 + \frac{7}{8} \times (4)$$

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## Time and scale factor

Once we have the Friedmann equations we can evaluate the dynamics of space-time

Let's give an example assuming the Universe is filled by only one form of general matter

$$H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = H_0^2 \Omega_0 \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{-3(1+w)} \quad \begin{cases} \rho_m(a) \\ \rho_{crit}(a) \end{cases} = \frac{\Omega_{m,0} a^{-3}}{H^2(a)/H_0^2} = \Omega_m(a)$$

se dieron cuenta que no estaba desacelerando

parametro de desaceleracion  
(cuanto esté desacelerando el universo)

For the specific flat LCDM model (and ignoring radiation)

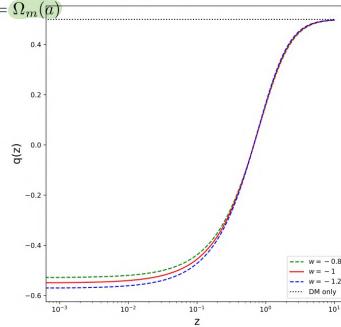
$$q = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \Omega_i (1 + 3w_i) = \Omega_r(a) + \frac{1}{2} \Omega_m(a) + \frac{1 + 3w_{DE}}{2} \Omega_{DE}(a)$$

añadimos otra componente  
base por degenere

only 4% for 2% variation in DE eos!

Can be measured?

We measure  $H(z)$  but...  $q = -1 - \frac{\dot{H}}{H}$



$$\int_{t_0}^t dt' = \int_{a_0}^a \frac{da'}{a H}$$

$$a(t) = a_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{2} (1+w) H_0 (t-t_0) \right]^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

Both time and scale factor depend critically on the matter species(s) in the Universe.

We can work out a more direct relation between the scale factor and time.

If we set  $t=0$  and  $a=0$ , we find

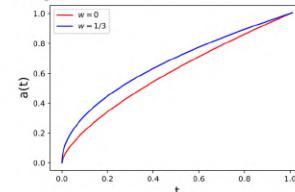
$$a(t) = a_0 \left( \frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

with  $t_0 = \frac{1}{2H_0}$

Estudiar los parametros según la época de dominio:

For matter,  $w=0$

$$a(t) = a_0 \left( \frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}}$$



For radiation,  $w=1/3$

$$a(t) = a_0 \left( \frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$H^2 = H_0^2 \left\{ \Omega_{r,0} \tilde{a}^4 + \Omega_{m,0} \tilde{a}^3 + \Omega_{DE,0} \tilde{a}^{3(1+w)} \right\}$$

término dominante en una época.

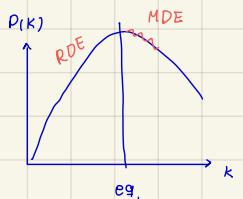
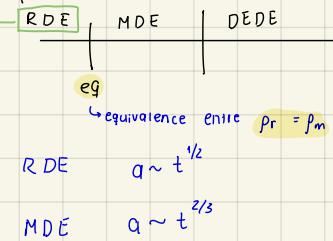
$$\Omega \in (0, -1)$$

$$a_1 < a_2$$

perurbaciones no pueden crecer, T° muy caliente y no se forman estructuras

Radiation

EXPANSIÓN ACCELERADA.



## Early time Universe

Let us study the early universe, at times much earlier than the  $\Lambda$ -dominated era, i.e.  $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$

$$H^2 = H_0^2 [\Omega_{r,0} a^{-4} + \Omega_{m,0} a^{-3}] \xrightarrow{\text{las 2 componentes son dominantes}} H_0 dt = \frac{a da}{\sqrt{\Omega_{r,0} + \Omega_{m,0} a}}$$

$$H_0(t-t_0) = \frac{2}{3\Omega_{m,0}^2} (a\Omega_{m,0} - 2\Omega_{r,0}) \sqrt{a\Omega_{m,0} + \Omega_{r,0}} \Big|_{a_0}^a$$

$$\Omega_{r,0} a_{eq}^{-4} = \Omega_{m,0} a_{eq}^{-3}$$

$$a_{eq} = \Omega_{r,0} / \Omega_{m,0}$$

en que tiempo eran densidades iguales

Setting  $t_0 = 0 = a_0$ . And defining radiation density = matter density

$$t = \frac{\sqrt{2}t_{eq}}{\sqrt{2}-1} \left[ 1 - \left( 1 - \frac{a}{2a_{eq}} \right) \sqrt{1 + \frac{a}{a_{eq}}} \right]$$

with

\* CMB 300.000 años.  
después fue el CMB

medido con CMB → medida con local measurements

$$\Omega_{\gamma,0} = 2.469 \times 10^{-5} h^{-2}$$

$$t_{eq} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3H_0\Omega_{m,0}^{1/2}} a_{eq}^{3/2} (\sqrt{2}-1) = 49491 \text{ years} \quad \text{if } h = 0.67$$

$$= 37110 \text{ years} \quad \text{if } h = 0.72$$

$$\Omega_{r,0} = \Omega_{\gamma,0} + \Omega_{\nu,0} = \Omega_{\gamma,0} \left[ 1 + N_{eff} \times \frac{7}{8} \times \left( \frac{4}{11} \right)^{4/3} \right]$$

$$t_{eq} \approx 50.000 \text{ años}$$

$$\text{CMB} \approx 300.000 \text{ años} \rightarrow \text{CMB después de eq.}$$

## Late time Universe

Let us study the late universe, at times in  $\Lambda$ -dominated era

$$H = H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_{m,0} a^{-3} + \Omega_\Lambda}$$

$$H_0 dt = \frac{\sqrt{a} da}{\sqrt{\Omega_{m,0} + \Omega_\Lambda a^3}}$$

$$\rho_\Lambda(a) = \rho_m(a)$$

$$t - t_0 = \frac{2a_{\Lambda M}^{3/2}}{3H_0\Omega_{M,0}^{1/2}} \left( \operatorname{arcsinh} \left[ \left( \frac{a(t)}{a_\Lambda} \right)^{3/2} \right] - \operatorname{arcsinh} \left[ a_\Lambda^{-3/2} \right] \right)$$

$$a_\Lambda = (\Omega_m/\Omega_\Lambda)^{1/3}$$

$\zeta$  matter-DE,

To determine  $t_0$  we consider the evolution of the universe throughout the three ages (rad-mat-DE)  $\rightarrow$  we introduce an intermediate time  $t_*$  during which the universe was matter dominated, such that  $a_\Lambda \gg a_* \gg a_{eq}$

→ factor de escala intermedio.

$$H_0 t_0 = \int_{a_*}^1 \frac{da}{[\Omega_{M,0} a^{-1} + \Omega_\Lambda a^2]^{1/2}} + \int_0^{a_*} \frac{da}{[\Omega_{M,0} a^{-1} + \Omega_{R,0} a^{-2}]^{1/2}}$$

→ para separar la integral en las componentes.

→ calculamos toda la edad del universo.

And we find

$$\frac{1}{\Omega_{M,0}^{1/2}} \left[ \frac{2}{3} a_\Lambda^{3/2} \operatorname{arcsinh} \left( a_\Lambda^{-3/2} \right) - \frac{2}{3} a_*^{3/2} \right] + \frac{4a_{eq}^2}{3\Omega_{R,0}^{1/2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{a_*}{a_{eq}} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right] = H_0 t_0$$

Given  $\Omega_{m,0} = a_{eq} \Omega_{r,0}$ , in the previous expression the terms containing  $a_*$  cancel out, and one is left with

$$t_0 = \frac{2a_{eq}^2}{3H_0\Omega_{R,0}^{1/2}} \left[ \left( \frac{a_\Lambda}{a_{eq}} \right)^{3/2} \operatorname{arcsinh} \left( a_\Lambda^{-3/2} \right) + 2 \right]$$

$$\Omega_{b,0} h^2 = 0.02230$$

$$\Omega_{c,0} h^2 = 0.1188$$



$$t_0 = 1.36 \times 10^{10} \text{ years}$$

$$\Omega_{r,0} h^2 = 4.1511 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$h = 0.67$$

Distances

- physical (proper) distance: cuán distancia están 2 puntos entre ellos. Depende del tiempo con el factor de escala.
- comoving distance: distancia que nunca cambia en el tiempo. Se mide con la expansión del t.

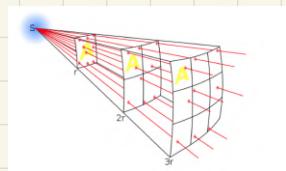
$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1-Kr^2} + r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

Light beam travels in:

$$\frac{dt}{a(t)} = \frac{-dr}{\sqrt{1-Kr^2}} \rightarrow \text{cuanto viajaron los fotones.}$$

$$\int_{t_e}^{t_o} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = S_K(r), \quad S_K(r) = \int_0^r \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1-Kr^2}}, \quad r = S_K(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(x) & K=1 \\ x & K=0 \\ \sinh(x) & K=-1 \end{cases}$$

con la inversa.

Luminosity distance

Flux of a source is what we receive.  
 $d_L = \sqrt{\frac{L_0}{4\pi F}}$  → luminosidad emitida

$$F = \frac{L_0}{4\pi S_k^2(t)} \rightarrow \text{luminosidad intrínseca al tiempo } t. \text{ (observada)}$$

Fluxo depende de la superficie

cuánto viajó la luz.

$$d_L = \sqrt{\frac{L_0}{L_0} S_K(r)} = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta E \Delta t_0}{\Delta t e \Delta t_0} S_K(r)}, \quad S_K(r)$$

luminosidad emitida

Luminosidad: Energía en un tiempo.

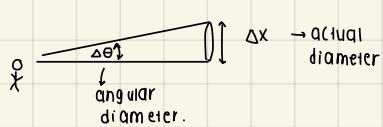
$$= \sqrt{\frac{\Delta t_0}{\Delta t e} \left( \frac{\Delta t_0}{\Delta t e} \right)^{1/2}} S_K(r)$$

$$= (1+z) S_K(r)$$

\* En el tiempo en que la luz es emitida en comparación con el tiempo en el que llega, el universo se expandió.

$$d_L = \frac{c(1+z)}{H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_K}} \sinh \left( \sqrt{\Omega_K} \int_0^z \frac{H_0}{H(z')} dz' \right) \rightarrow \text{Forma compacta de las ecs. anteriores.}$$

↳ para relacionar el flujo que recibimos con la distancia.

Angular diameter distance

$$d_A = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta \theta}$$

$$\rightarrow \Delta x = a(t_i) S_K(r) \Delta \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow d_A = a(t_i) S_K(r) = \frac{a_0}{1+z} S_K(r) = \frac{1}{1+z} \cdot \frac{c}{H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_K}} \sinh \left( \sqrt{\Omega_K} \int_0^z \frac{H}{H(z')} dz' \right)$$

Distance duality

$$d_L = (1+z)^2 d_A(z) \rightarrow \text{No hay pérdida de fotones.}$$

→ Fotones viajan en geodésicas nulas.

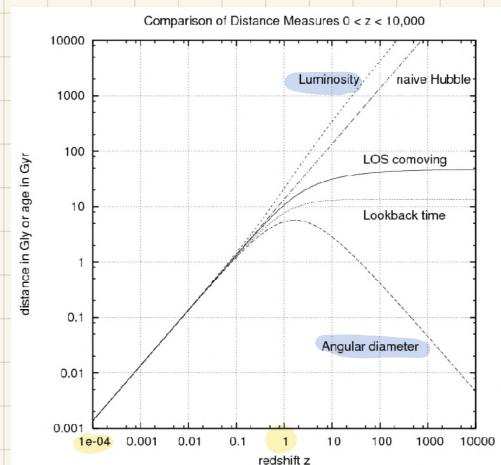
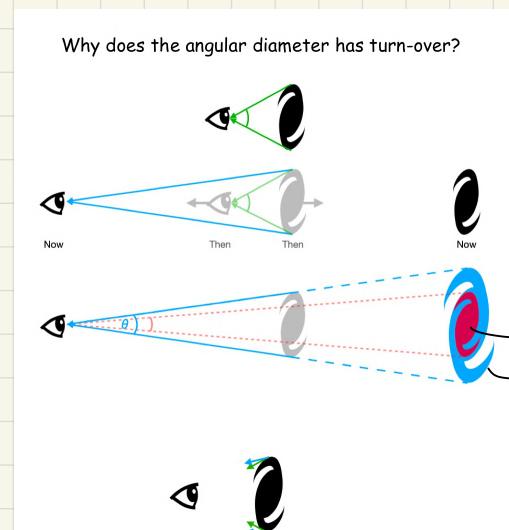
\*  $d_L$  + lejos la fuente, más viajan los fotones, + grande el efecto de estiramiento.

\*  $d_A$

Redshift  $0.3 \approx 1$

Momento en que la energía oscura comienza a dominar.

$$a_{eq} = \left( \frac{\Omega_m}{\Omega_\Lambda} \right)^{1/3}$$

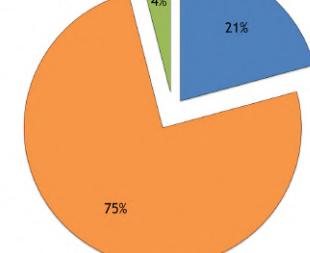


$d_L \rightarrow$  standard candles  $\rightarrow$  intrinsic luminosity known

$d_A \rightarrow$  "rulers"  $\rightarrow$  BAO  $\rightarrow$  medida del parámetro de Hubble.  
desde la CMB,  
intrinsic size, known

\* Curvas de luminosidad: forma de la fuente.

Baryonic matter  
Dark matter



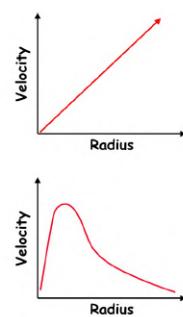
Standard cosmological model

### Materia Bariónica

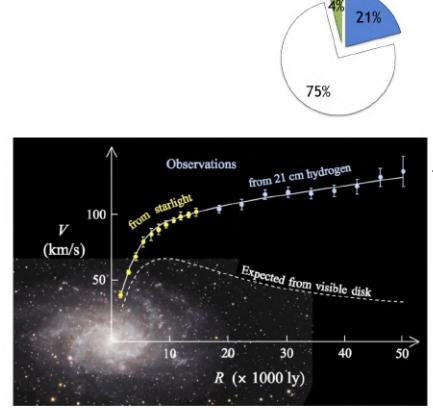


### Materia oscura

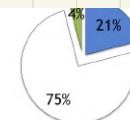
$\rightarrow$



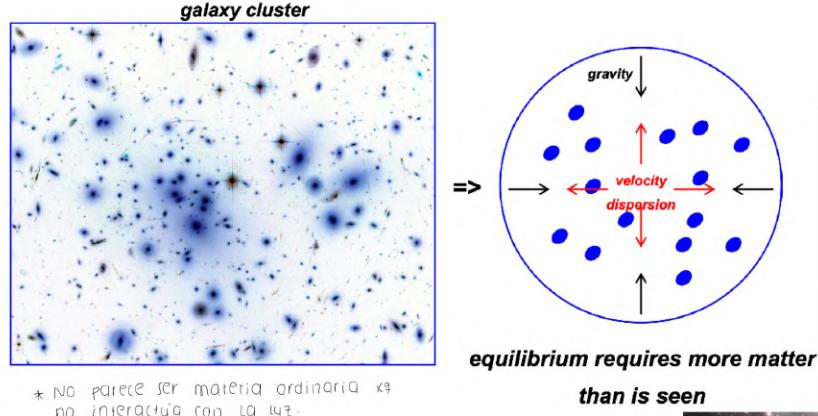
"Dark Matter" already proposed by Fritz Zwicky in 1933:



"Dark Matter" needed to explain Vera Rubin's galactic rotation curves in 1975/80



Velocidad de las estrellas al alejarse de las galaxias crece más de lo que debería.  
se puede si hay materia que no se ve.

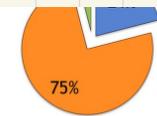
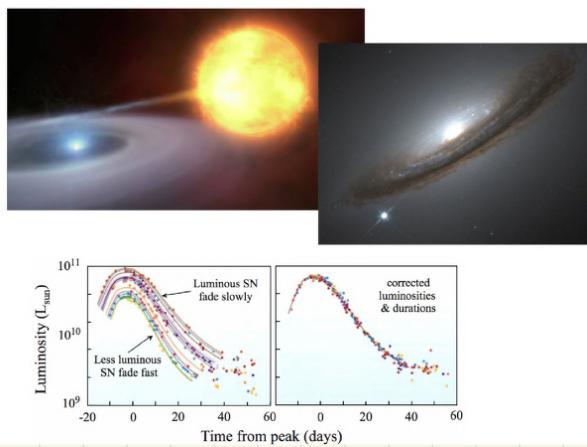


→ Para que se junten más galaxias en cúmulos de galaxias debe haber DM.

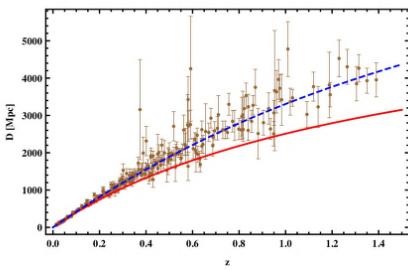
→ También se obtiene de la CMB.

## Energía oscura

First observed effect 1998



Theoretical distances did not match the observed distances



Geometry

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

Matter(s)



matter  
lente  
luz  
Matter(s)  
Photons affected in Change of energy (frequency) and Direction

→ universo se expande, luz se hace + roja.  
objetos siguen la forma del espacio tiempo que se curva (cambio de dirección).

Si comprimimos la materia bariónica comienza a actuar la presión.  
Presión: cómo se propaga info. de un pto. a otro.

## The $\Lambda$ CDM model

Radiation:

Photons the totality come from CMB when they decoupled form matter

Neutrinos they decoupled much earlier than photons

Baryons

Dark matter

Curvature

Dark energy

Hubble parameters

$$\Omega_{\gamma,0} = 4.48 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\Omega_{\nu,0} = 3.4 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\Omega_{b,0} = 0.044 \pm 0.003$$

$$\Omega_{c,0} = 0.258 \pm 0.015$$

$$\Omega_{K,0} = 0.001 \pm 0.002$$

$$\Omega_{DE,0} = 0.6889 \pm 0.0056$$

medidas precisas para los 6 paráms.

CMB

Más sensible a objetos que dominan ahora!

CMB + late

CMB

Late

tensión de la constante

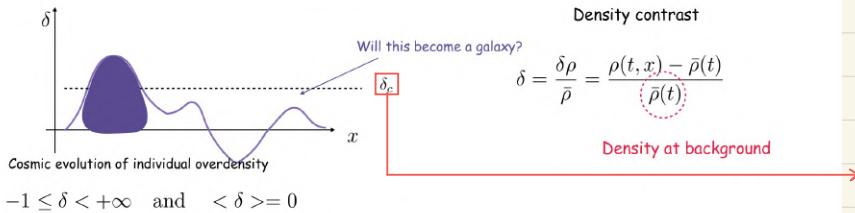
supernovas

$$H_0 = 67.66 \pm 0.42 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$$

$$H_0 = 73.66 \pm 1.68 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$$

## Growth of matter perturbations

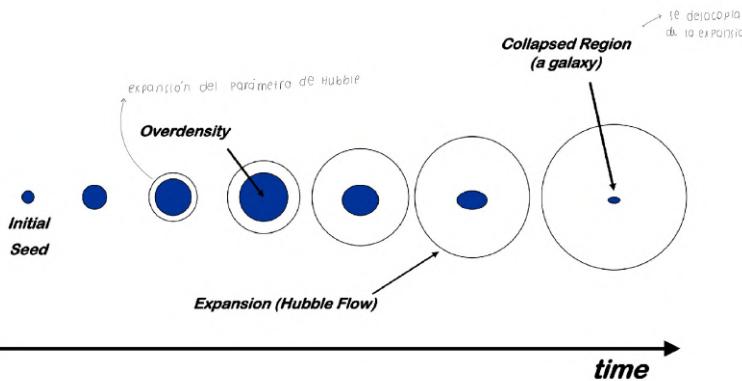
We were interested on how the energy densities evolve in time



The idea is to say: at the very beginning the overdensities are really comparable to the background density with just small variations

$$\rho(t, x) \sim \bar{\rho}(t) \implies \delta \ll 1$$

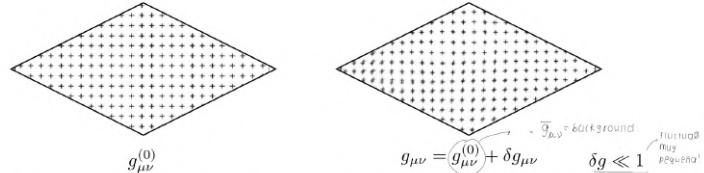
### We start cosmological perturbation theory



### Cosmological perturbations theory

$\delta \ll 1$  is not a priority of the theory but rather to linearize our equations, i.e.: linear perturbation theory

A metric that deviates from the FLRW spacetime can be written as the sum of an unperturbed FLRW part plus something else, that we can generally call "perturbed" metric.



In GR the field equations are invariant under a general coordinate change. This means that the split between a background metric and a perturbed one is not unique.

We would like to keep the FLRW metric as "the" background whenever we make a general transformation. These are called Gauge transformations

The choice of gauge is not an easy task, it depends on what you want/need.

In cosmology we use two main gauges:

-Newtonian gauge: attach the "observer" to the unperturbed frame.

the observers will detect a velocity field of particles falling into the clumps of matter and will measure a gravitational potential

-Synchronous gauge: attach the "observer" to the perturbed particle.

they do not see any velocity field and there is no gravitational potential

Which one to use?

Newtonian is used for perturbations inside the horizon: late time cosmology

Synchronous is used for perturbations outside the horizon: early time cosmology

Métrica FLRW  
(background) → Gauge → Newtonian

- ↳ ya dentro del horizonte causal.
- ↳ dentro de la perturbación
- ↳ no vemos campos de  $\vec{v}$ .
- ↳ encima de la perturbación
- ↳ Early time cosmology
- ↳ cuando las estructuras comienzan a estar dentro del horizonte causal.

Synchronous (Early time cosmology)

- ↳ cuando las estructuras comienzan a estar dentro del horizonte causal.

### Newtonian (or longitudinal) gauge

$$g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} + \delta g_{\mu\nu}$$

Most general metric

Simétrico: homogeneidad  
antisimétrico: vectorial

$$\delta g_{\mu\nu} = a^2 \begin{pmatrix} -2\psi & w_i \\ w_i & 2\phi\delta_{ij} + h_{ij} \end{pmatrix}$$

claro tensor  $3 \times 3$

Here  $\psi$  and  $\phi$  are space scalars

$w_i$  is a 3-vector

$h_{ij}$  is a traceless 3-tensor

in traza 0

Remind that we need to "play" with the equations and we need up indices things. We use the condition:

$$g_{\alpha\mu}g^{\mu\beta} = \delta_\alpha^\beta$$



$$\delta g^{\mu\nu} = -\delta g_{\alpha\beta} g^{(0)\alpha\mu} g^{(0)\beta\nu}$$

bajar y subir índice.

En orden lineal se los términos al cuadrado se eliminan.

From Helmholtz's theorem one can decompose the vector  $w_i$  into a longitudinal and a transverse component

$$\vec{w}_i = \vec{w}_i^{\parallel} + \vec{w}_i^{\perp}$$

longitudinal  
transversal

by construction

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{w}_i^{\perp} = \nabla \wedge \vec{w}_i^{\parallel} = 0$$

longitudinal  
transversal

Being  $\nabla \wedge w_i^{\parallel} = 0$  then  $w_i^{\parallel} = \nabla w_s$

vector como el grad.  
de un escalar.  
La escalar!

But which to take?

When we derive the Einstein equations for the (0i) components, we will have therefore longitudinal and transverse terms.

Taking the **curl** of the equations, we are left with only the **transverse equations**.

Taking the **divergence**, we are left with the **longitudinal ones**.

→ gauge newtoniano o gauge longitudinal.

Therefore, the two components can be treated separately.

The density perturbation  $\delta$  is a scalar quantity, only the longitudinal terms, which can be derived from a scalar quantity and it couples to the density perturbations.

The same discussion applies to  $h_{ij}$

We can decompose

$$h_{ij} = h_{ij}^{\parallel} + h_{ij}^{\perp} + h_{ij}^T,$$

and

$$\partial^i h_{ij}^{\parallel}, \quad \partial^i h_{ij}^{\perp}, \quad h_{ij}^T$$

vectors  
long. & transv.  
vectors transv.

Taking

$$\epsilon_{ijk} \partial_i \partial_k h_{ij}^{\parallel} = 0, \quad \partial_i \partial_j h_{ij}^{\perp} = 0, \quad \partial_i h_{ij}^T = 0$$

Curl

Divergence

Now, since  $\delta h_{ij}^{\parallel}$  is **curl-free**, it can be written in terms of a scalar function  $B$

$$h_{ij}^{\parallel} = \left( \partial_i \partial_j - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{ij} \nabla^2 \right) B = D_{ij} B,$$

interpretar la diagonal

On the contrary, the perturbations  $h_{ij}^{\perp}, h_{ij}^T$  cannot be derived from a scalar function.

The first one is a vector giving rise to rotational velocity perturbations.

The second one is a tensor giving rise to gravitational waves.



We need to take into account only the part of  $w_i$  and  $h_{ij}$  derived from scalars. This may be done by introducing two new scalar functions,  $E$  and  $B$ , that produce the vector  $E_i$  and the tensor  $D_{ij}B$

$$\delta g_{\mu\nu} = a^2 \left( \begin{array}{c} -2\psi \\ E_i \\ E_i \\ 2\phi \delta_{ij} + D_{ij}B \end{array} \right)$$

\* componentes vectoriales se hace 0 xq no podemos tener direcciones privilegiadas.

Out of the four scalar functions  $\psi, \phi, E, B$ , one can construct gauge-invariant quantities, that is, combinations that remain invariant at first-order under a general coordinate infinitesimal transformation.

The situation can be much simplified if one works in a specific gauge. This can be done by imposing up to four conditions on the metric, which corresponds to the four gauge coordinate transformations. Here we choose them to be  $w_i = 0$  (from which  $E = 0$ ) and  $B = 0$ , and we are left:

$$ds^2 = a^2(\tau) [-(1+2\psi) d\tau^2 + (1-2\phi) dx_i dx^i]$$

FLRW Background.

Where we used the conformal time  $dt = ad\tau$  which changes  $H = \frac{da}{ad\tau} = \frac{da}{a^2 d\tau} = \frac{\dot{H}_\tau}{a}$

parámetro de Hubble al tiempo propio.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H} &= aH = \frac{da}{d\tau} \cdot \frac{1}{a} \\ &= \frac{da}{dt} \cdot \frac{(dt/d\tau)}{a} \cdot \frac{1}{a} \\ &= \left( \frac{da}{dt} \right) \frac{1}{a} \end{aligned}$$

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

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} + \delta G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} + 8\pi G \delta T_{\mu\nu}$$

When working with perturbations, just think of them as a "derivative operator". For instance

$$\delta R_{\mu\nu} = \delta \Gamma_{\mu\nu,\alpha}^{\alpha} - \delta \Gamma_{\mu,\alpha\nu}^{\alpha} + \delta \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\alpha} \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\beta} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\alpha} \delta \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\beta} - \delta \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^{\alpha} \Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\beta} - \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^{\alpha} \delta \Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\beta}$$

Which also implies

$$\delta \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} \delta g^{\mu\alpha} (g_{\alpha\nu,\lambda} + g_{\alpha\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\alpha}) + \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\alpha} (\delta g_{\alpha\nu,\lambda} + \delta g_{\alpha\lambda,\nu} - \delta g_{\nu\lambda,\alpha})$$

Doing the calculations (a lot), the only non-zero terms are

$$\delta \Gamma_{00}^0 = \dot{\psi},$$

$$\delta \Gamma_{ij}^0 = -\delta_{ij} [2(\phi + \psi) \mathcal{H} + \dot{\phi}]$$

$$\delta \Gamma_{0i}^0 = \delta \Gamma_{i0}^0 = \delta \Gamma_{00}^i = \psi_i,$$

$$\delta \Gamma_{j0}^i = \delta \Gamma_{0j}^i = -\delta_j^i \dot{\phi}$$

Remind we changed variable,  
the dot refers to conformal time

We want to work in Fourier space.

It's equal to assume that the perturbation variables  $\phi, \psi$  (and also those of matter) are the sum of plane waves; since the equations are linear, each plane wave obey the same equations with a different  $k$ :

$$\phi(x, \tau) \rightarrow e^{ik\tau} \phi_k(\tau)$$

$$\nabla \phi(x, \tau) \rightarrow i e^{ik\tau} k \phi_k(\tau)$$

$$\nabla^2 \phi(x, \tau) = \nabla_i \nabla_j \phi(x, \tau) \rightarrow -e^{ik\tau} k^2 \phi_k(\tau)$$

The Fourier modes  $e^{ik\tau}$  can be dropped out, since the equations are linear and therefore they decoupled.

$$\delta G_0^0 = \frac{2}{a^2} [k^2 \phi + 3\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{H}\psi + \dot{\phi})]$$

$$\delta G_i^i = -\delta G_0^i = -\frac{2k}{a^2} (\mathcal{H}\psi + \dot{\phi})$$

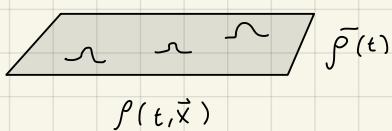
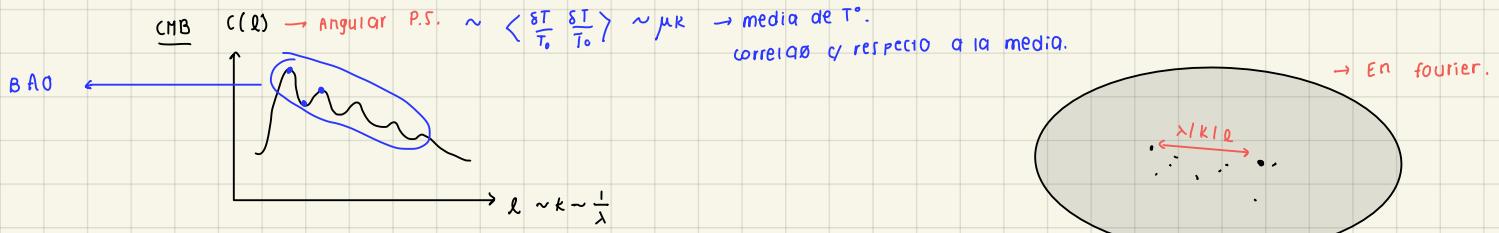
$$\delta G_i^i = \frac{2}{a^2} \{k^2(\phi - \psi) + 3\psi(\mathcal{H}^2 + 2\mathcal{H}) + 3[\mathcal{H}(2\dot{\phi} + \ddot{\phi}) + \ddot{\phi}]\},$$

$$\delta G_j^i = -\frac{k^2}{a^2} (\phi - \psi), \quad \text{when } i \neq j.$$

conocer entre los potenciales.

que es una ec. dinámica

. Función de correlación a 2 puntos :

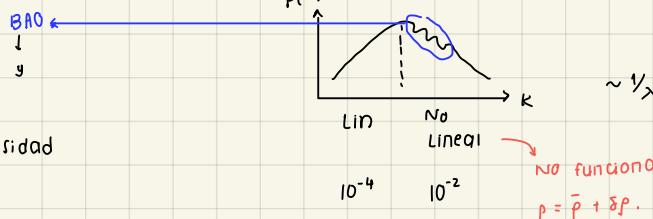


$$\begin{aligned} p(t, \vec{x}) &= \bar{p}(t) + \delta p(t, \vec{x}) \\ &= \bar{p}(t) \left[ 1 + \frac{\delta p}{\bar{p}} \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\delta = \frac{\delta p}{\bar{p}} \ll 1$$

$$\begin{matrix} \varsigma & \varsigma \\ \varsigma & \varsigma \end{matrix} \xrightarrow{k}$$

$p(k) \sim \langle \delta \delta \rangle \rightarrow$  la media de las dos fluctuaciones.



→ Newtonian Gauge: 2 potenciales gravitacionales.

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = \text{escalar! (invariante)}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -g^2(1+2\phi) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & g_{11} & g_{12} \\ 0 & g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \overline{g}_{\mu\nu} + \delta g_{\mu\nu}$$

$$g_{ij} = a^2(1-2\phi)$$

porque es de 1º orden  
perturbativo.

hay que aprenderlos... para el examen!

$$g_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R$$

$$T_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} [g_{\mu\beta,\nu} + g_{\nu\beta,\mu} - g_{\mu\nu,\beta}]$$

$$T_{00}^{(0)} = \overline{T}_{00}^0 + \delta T_{00}^0$$

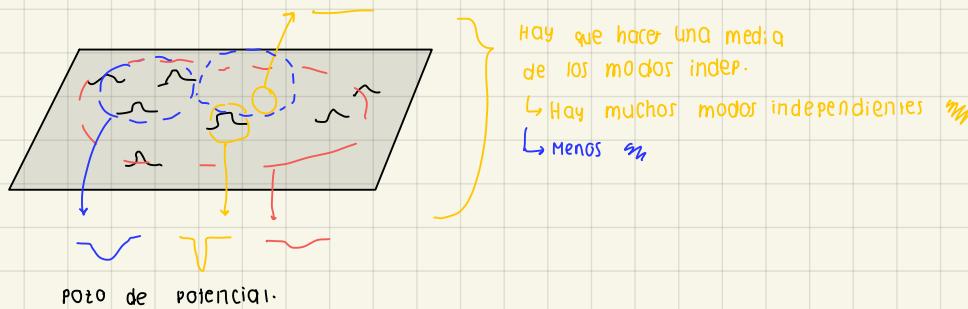
background      parte perturbada.

$$G_{00} = \overline{G}_{00} + \delta G_{00} = 8\pi G (\overline{T}_{00} + \delta T_{00}) \rightarrow \delta G_{00} = 8\pi G \delta T_{00}$$

$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \bar{\rho}$

- Pasar al espacio de Fourier.
- Cualquier onda la podemos representar como una suma infinita de términos.  
 $\phi(x, \tau) \rightarrow e^{ikr} \phi_k(\tau)$  desaparece el prod. escalar entre ambos vectores por la isotropía.
- $\nabla \phi(x, \tau) \rightarrow i e^{ikr} k \phi_k(\tau)$
- $\nabla^2 \phi = \nabla_i \nabla_j \phi(x, \tau) \rightarrow -e^{ikr} k^2 \phi_k(\tau)$

- Eventos astronómicos son sistemáticos  $\rightarrow$  tener en consideración efectos sistemáticos.
- Marginalizar sobre todos los valores de cada parámetro.



- Un espacio más grande  $\Rightarrow$  efectos gravitacionales son + grandes.

## CLASE 2

GC. Einstein:

$$\delta G^{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G \delta T^{\mu\nu}$$

$$\delta G^i_j = k^2 (\phi - p) = 8\pi G T^i_j$$

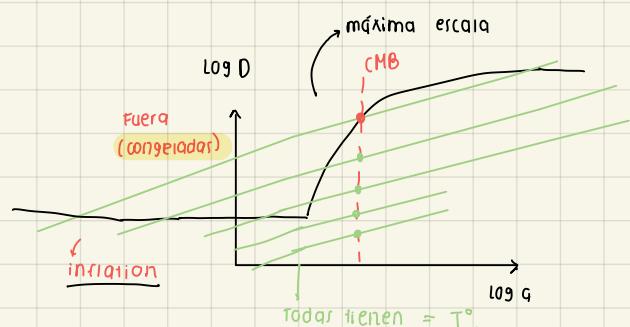
$$\rightarrow T^{\mu\nu} = (\rho + p) u^\mu u^\nu + p \delta^{\mu\nu} + \pi^{\mu\nu}$$

$$T^i_j = 0 + \pi^i_j \quad \text{ninguna componente contribuye}$$

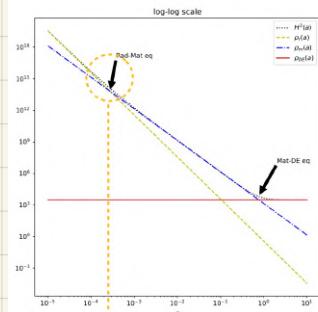
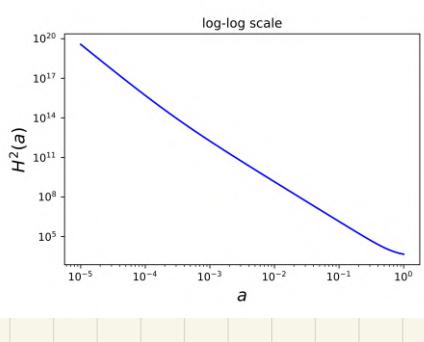
↓  
viscosidades o efectos particulares del fluido.

\* CMB  $\rightarrow$  toma un  $k$  y evalúa la ec. diferencial

CLASS



$$D \sim \int \frac{1}{a^2 H} \rightarrow \text{distancia comoving}$$



Radiation-Matter equality

$$\rho_r(a) = \rho_m(a) \implies \Omega_{r,0} a_{eq}^{-4} = \Omega_{m,0} a_{eq}^{-3}$$

$\zeta$  T° baja y la materia empieza a dominar antes del desacoplo. (CMB)

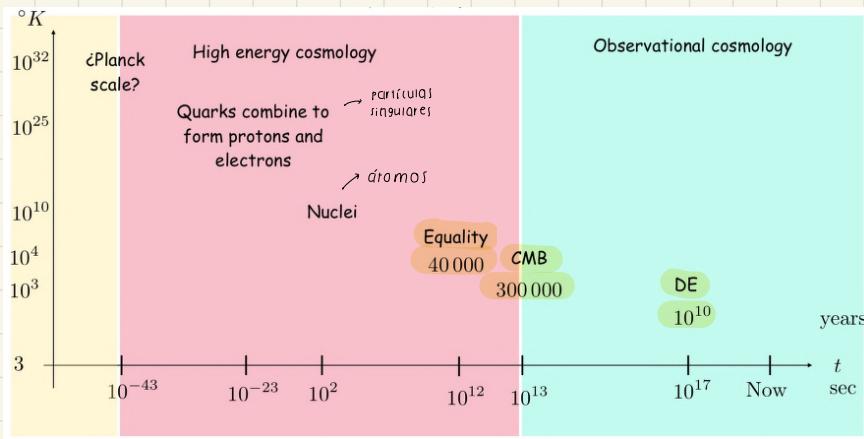
$$a_{eq} = \frac{\Omega_{r,0}}{\Omega_{m,0}} = 2.61 \times 10^{-4}$$

Matter-DE equality

$$\rho_m(a) = \rho_{DE}(a) \implies \Omega_{m,0} a_{eq}^{-3} = \Omega_{DE,0} a_{eq}^{-3(1+w)}$$

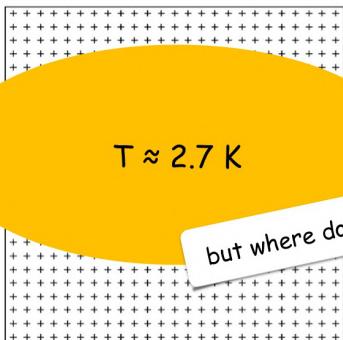
$$a_{eq} = \left( \frac{\Omega_{m,0}}{\Omega_{DE,0}} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 0.76$$

Important for structure formation and it is the "real" equality



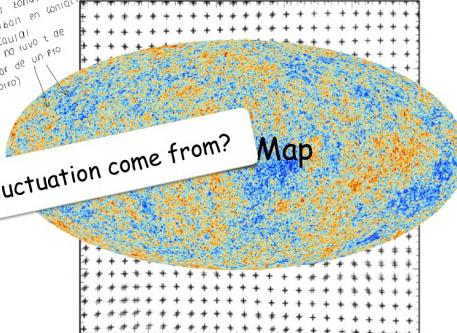
## Where and how structures form?

homogenous & isotropic



background

homogenous & isotropic



w/ small perturbations

$$\frac{\Delta T}{T} \sim 10^{-5}$$

What about the matter component? We do exactly the same thing.

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \underbrace{(\rho + p) u_\mu u_\nu + p g_{\mu\nu}}_{\text{usual terms}} + \underbrace{[q_\mu u_\nu + q_\nu u_\mu + \pi_{\mu\nu}]}_{\text{new terms}} \neq 0$$

viscosidad del fluido  
para fotones que salen de la CMB  
Neutrinos

$q$  = heat vector

$\pi$  = shear stress

If they are zero  $\Rightarrow$  perfect fluid  
(new terms)

We assume this

$$\begin{aligned} u^\mu &= \frac{dx^\mu}{ds} = \left\{ \frac{1}{a(1+\psi)}, \frac{dx^i}{a d\tau} \right\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{a}(1-\psi), \frac{v^i}{a} \right\} \\ u_\mu &= g_{\mu\nu} u^\nu = \left\{ -a(1+\psi), a v_i \right\} \\ u_\mu u^\mu &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

métrico perpendicular approx. lineal (logar)

un tramo de un intervalo

$$\delta = \frac{\delta\rho}{\rho}, \quad \theta = \nabla_i v^i = i k_i v^i$$

adimensional  
contrario de densidad  
divergencia de la v

And we perturbed the EM tensor of the fluid

$$\delta T_\nu^\mu = (\delta\rho + \delta p) u_\nu u^\mu + (\rho + p)(\delta u_\nu u^\mu + u_\nu \delta u^\mu) + \cancel{\delta p} g_\nu^\mu + p \delta g_\nu^\mu$$

Barotropic fluid  $\delta p = c_s^2 \delta\rho = \frac{dp}{d\rho} \delta\rho = \frac{\dot{p}}{\rho} \delta\rho = w \delta\rho$

For constant  $w$

Admitimos que dependa sólo del tiempo y sea adiabático

The perturbed Einstein equations

$$\begin{aligned} 0 - 0 & k^2 \phi + 3H(\mathcal{H}\psi + \dot{\phi}) = -4\pi G a^2 \delta\rho \\ 0 - i & \mathcal{H}\psi + \dot{\phi} = 4\pi G a^2 (1+w) \rho \theta \\ i - i & \frac{1}{3} k^2 (\phi - \psi) + \psi (\mathcal{H}^2 + 2\dot{\mathcal{H}}) + \mathcal{H} (2\dot{\phi} + \dot{\psi}) + \ddot{\phi} = -4\pi G a^2 c_s^2 \delta\rho \\ i - j & \phi = \psi \end{aligned}$$

c.l. de las otras 2 ec.

The perturbed fluid equations... we want the fluid to be conserved  $T_{\mu\nu;\mu} = 0$

$$\delta T_{\nu;\mu}^\mu = \delta T_{\nu,\mu}^\mu - \delta \Gamma_{\nu\beta}^\alpha T_\alpha^\beta - \Gamma_{\nu\beta}^\alpha \delta T_\alpha^\beta + \delta \Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^\beta T_\nu^\alpha + \Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^\beta \delta T_\nu^\alpha = 0$$

$v = 0$  for our density contrast

$$\dot{\delta} = -(1+w)(\theta - 3\dot{\phi}) - \mathcal{H} \left( \frac{\delta p}{\rho} - w\delta \right)$$

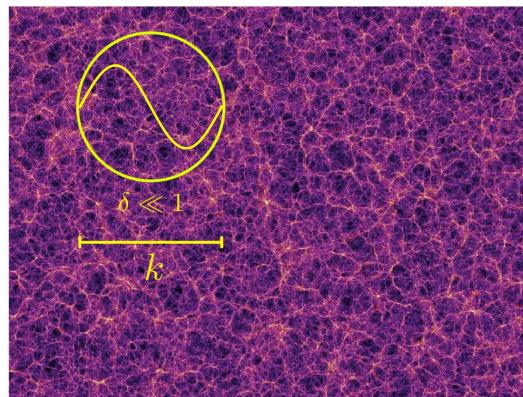
ec. dinámica yr a  $\delta$   
dependen de los campos grav. del fluido.

El campo modifica la materia.  
Todo conectado

$v = i$  for our velocity component

$$\dot{\theta} = -\mathcal{H}(1-3w)\theta - \frac{\dot{w}}{1+w}\theta + \frac{1}{1+w} \frac{k^2 \delta p}{\rho} + k^2 \psi$$

We used the wave number  $k$  in our equations but what does it mean practically?



This is how matter distributes: cosmic web

Let's do some numbering

$$\Omega_{m,0} = 0.32$$

$$\rho_{\text{crit}} = \frac{3 H_0^2}{8\pi G} \sim 10^{-26} \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$\rho_{m,0} \sim 10^{-26} \text{ kg/m}^3 \rightarrow \text{densidad de background}$$

$$\rho_{\text{galaxy}} \sim 10^{-19} \text{ kg/m}^3 \rightarrow \text{perturbación (galaxia)}$$

$$\delta \sim 10^7 \ll 1$$

$$\frac{\rho_m}{\rho_{\text{galaxy}}} = \delta$$



By saying we consider perturbations of a certain scale means considering certain volumes.

But the scale  $k = 2\pi/\lambda$  and  $\lambda$  is a distance, which is measured in Mpc.  $\lambda = 100 \text{ Mpc}$   $k = 0.062 \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ .

The equations of perturbations depend on the scale  $k$ ; hence the density field  $\delta$  (and all the other perturbed quantities) will grow differently at different scales.

There exist typical scales above or below which perturbations can grow, stay constant or even decrease.

→ distancia la cual viajó el fotón

### Causal horizon & sound horizon.

**Causal horizon:** → cambia en el tiempo + te lo dan que rotan de viajar  $\Rightarrow$  espacio puede viajar  
→ límite observativo (hasta donde medimos)

the scale above which there's no communication

→ la perturbación

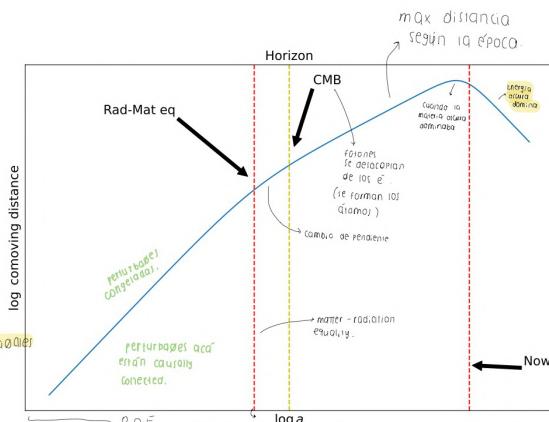
$$k_{ch} = a H(a)$$

It's a scale that evolves with time.

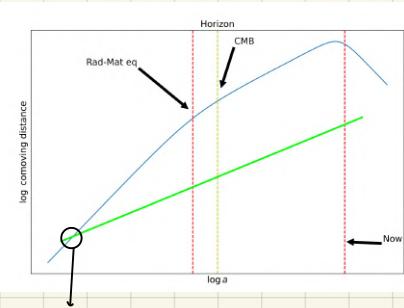
For perturbations to grow they have to be causally connected, i.e. inside this horizon

→ tienen que comunicarse de alguna manera perturbaciones tienen que estar dentro de la causal para que los efectos gravitacionales se puedan sentir.  
 $\lambda = a \lambda_0$  or  $k \sim 1/\lambda$  causal para que los efectos gravitacionales se puedan sentir.

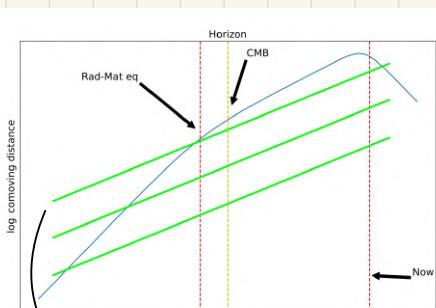
está en el pasado el valor medido ahora



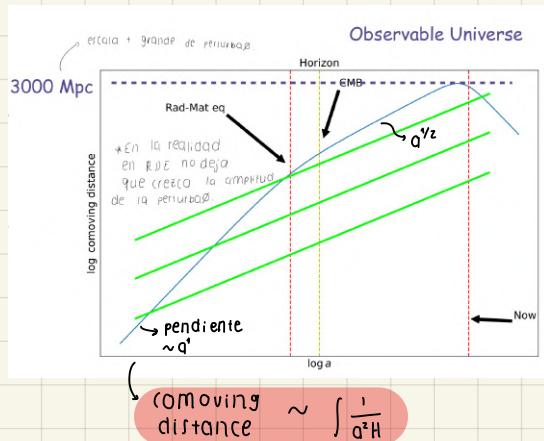
· En inflación todas las perturbaciones estaban dentro del horizonte causal.



Inflación permite que entran las perturbaciones.



perturbaciones que entran después tienen menos tiempo para evolucionar



Different perturbations enter the horizon at different epoch, depending when they will grow at a certain rate.

### Sound horizon:

the scale above which there's communication but below which the pressure support is too strong

$$k_{sh} = a H(a) / c_s$$

# para # componentes de materia.

It's a scale that also evolves with time.

Look that  $c_s < 1$  (= light)

→  $k_{sh} > k_{ch}$

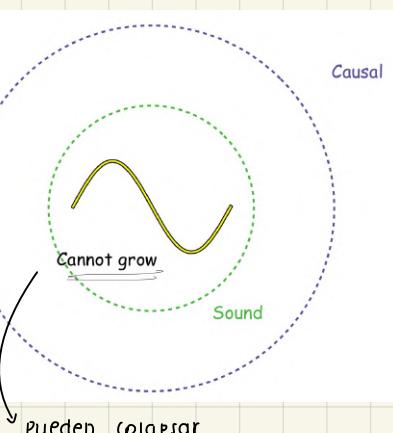
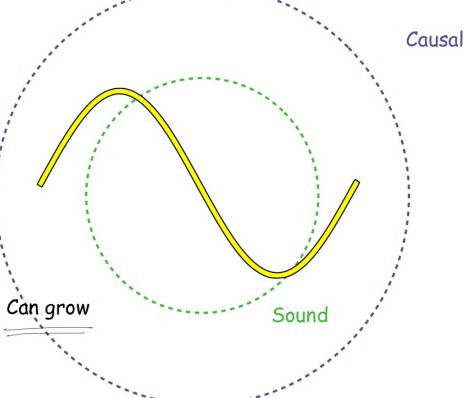
It depends on the particular fluid we are considering:

radiación hace que no colapsen las perturbaciones

$$\text{radiation } c_s = 1/3$$

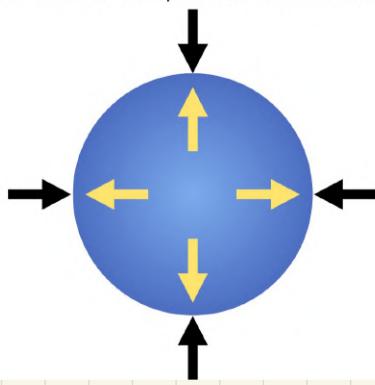
$$\text{matter } c_s = 0$$

$$\text{DE } c_s \sim 1 \rightarrow \text{perturbaciones no pueden crecer}$$



What is this pressure support for a fluid?

Think of it as a star: the equilibrium is reached when radiation pressure balances gravity



But what  $c_s = 0$  means?

Matter perturbations at any scale can grow indefinitely.

Si los comprimimos mucho se colapsan

Is it unrealistic? Maybe for baryons since they interact each other with other forces...

Remember: we're considering cosmological scales. Very small scales cannot be treated with linear theory

- Si  $c_s = 1$ , las pert. recién entraron al horizonte causal así que no han podido crecer.

\* CDM → cold: no tiene un término de presión importante podemos comprimirlo mucho.

Scale larger than the horizon  $k \ll aH$

$$\dot{\delta} = -(1+w)(\theta - 3\dot{\phi}) - \mathcal{H}\left(\frac{\delta p}{\rho} - w\delta\right)$$

$$\dot{\theta} = -\mathcal{H}(1-3w)\theta - \frac{\dot{w}}{1+w}\theta + \frac{1}{1+w}\frac{k^2\delta p}{\rho} + k^2\psi$$

Assume perfect barotropic fluid  $\delta p = w\delta\rho$

Assume also  $\phi = \text{const}$

$$\ddot{\delta} + 3aH(1-3w)\dot{\delta} = 0$$

$\delta = \text{constant}$

If you want to solve the eqs just replace the epoch and the fluid

$$k^2\phi + 3aH(\phi + aH\psi) = -4\pi Ga^2\rho\delta$$

Perturbations outside the horizon do not grow

Eqs. generales para cualquier componente.

→ xq no hay un término de fuerza proporcional a  $\delta$ . ( $\propto$  es q no aumenta)

Scale smaller than the horizon  $k \gg aH$

$$\dot{\delta} = -(1+w)(\theta - 3\dot{\phi}) - \mathcal{H}\left(\frac{\delta p}{\rho} - w\delta\right)$$

$$\dot{\theta} = -\mathcal{H}(1-3w)\theta - \frac{\dot{w}}{1+w}\theta + \frac{1}{1+w}\frac{k^2\delta p}{\rho} + k^2\psi$$

→ Pressurless matter,  $w=0$  but with some  $c_s$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\delta} &= -\theta + 3\dot{\phi} - \mathcal{H}c_s^2\delta, & \xrightarrow{k \gg aH} & \text{ec. de Einstein} \\ \dot{\theta} &= -\mathcal{H}\theta + c_s^2k^2\delta + k^2\phi & \xrightarrow{\phi \sim \delta/k^2} & \delta'' + \mathcal{H}\delta' + (c_s^2k^2 + k^2\phi) = 0 \\ & & & k^2\phi = -4\pi Ga^{-1}\delta \end{aligned}$$

We find  $\ddot{\delta} + \mathcal{H}\dot{\delta} + \left(c_s^2k^2 - \frac{3}{2}\mathcal{H}^2\right)\delta = 0$

Jeans scale

$$\begin{cases} c_s^2k^2 - \frac{3}{2}\mathcal{H}^2 \geq 0 & \text{oscillating} \\ c_s^2k^2 - \frac{3}{2}\mathcal{H}^2 < 0 & \text{growing} \end{cases}$$

↳ A escalas más pequeñas, la perturbación no crece.

Jean scale es básicamente la  $\tilde{\sigma}$  del sonido.  
(perturbación más pequeña que puede crecer).

## In MDE

Pure CDM  $w=cs=0$

$$\ddot{\delta} + \mathcal{H}\dot{\delta} - \frac{3}{2}\mathcal{H}^2\delta = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{d\tau} = a^2 H \frac{d}{da}$$

$$\delta'' + \left(\frac{3}{a} + \frac{H'}{H}\right)\delta' - \frac{3}{2a^2}\delta = 0$$

The presence of  $H$  might lead to different growth: we can replace any dominant component, but it's not that easy. Remind that the gravitational potential is the sum of all the components, hence it will take the dominant component at that time.

$$H = H_0\sqrt{\Omega_{m,0}a^{-3}}$$

$$\delta'' + \frac{3}{2a}\delta' - \frac{3}{2a^2}\delta = 0$$

$$\delta = c_1 a + c_2 a^{-3/2}$$

sol. que crece      sol. que decrece.

During the epoch? They'll grow slower. So MDE is the most interesting epoch for LSS.

Extra info: we said that in linear theory each wave evolves independently and what we did is

$$\delta = \delta(a, k) = \delta(a)\delta(k)$$

→ Pure CDM: pudo desacoplar antes que la radiación.

## In RDE

Pure CDM  $w=cs=0$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\delta} &= -\left(\theta - 3\dot{\phi}\right) & \xrightarrow{\text{para CDM}} & \text{(comparamos } \delta_r \ll \delta_m) \\ \dot{\theta} &= -\mathcal{H}\theta + k^2\psi \end{aligned}$$

And the potential is:

$$k^2\phi = -4\pi Ga^2 \sum_s \rho_s \left[ \delta_s + \frac{3aH}{k^2} (1+w_s)\theta_s \right]$$

→ Ahora tenemos que incluir todas las componentes! → componente que domina es la radiación.

And we saw that for pure CDM in MDE the potential had only CDM. If we assume we are in RDE (and still small scales) then

$$k^2\phi = -4\pi Ga^2 \rho_r \delta_r \sim 0$$

Small wrt CDM

CDM se pudo desacoplar del baño térmico térmico mucho antes que los báriones.

$$\delta'' + \left(\frac{3}{a} + \frac{H'}{H}\right)\delta' = 0 \quad \text{And with: } H = H_0\sqrt{\Omega_{r,0}a^{-4}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \delta = \text{const.} + \ln(a) \quad \rightarrow \text{no crece la perturbación.}$$