proj

May 5, 2023

1 Constrain Cosmological Parameters using Supernovae Data

This notebook uses supernovae data, specifically, the data of the distance modulus vs. redshift to fit equations and constrain cosmological constants.

Here is an overview of our methods: 1) Fetch supernova data

- 2) Visualize data and get the data where redshift is small
- 3) Fit data with small redshift to the following equation and use the fitting results to calculate Hubble Constant H_0 and cosmological constant q_0 .

$$m-M=43.17-5log_{10}(\frac{H_0}{70})+5log_{10}z+1.086(1-q_0)z---- \ ({\rm Eq.}\ 1)$$

To better understand our data, we also try fitting our data backwards in the following steps, i.e., how well different q_0 fits our data.

- 4) Visualize the difference between our data fitted model and some hypothesized models.
- 5) Try different cosmological constants on our data and calculate the loss for each.
- 6) Use Cosmolopy package to more accurately calculate luminosity distance and thus the distance modulus.

```
[155]: import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
import statsmodels.api as sm
```

1.1 1. Load Supernovae Data

```
[156]: sn_data = pd.read_csv("./data.txt", sep="\t", header=0) sn_data.head()
```

```
[156]:
         supernova name
                          redshift
                                     distance modulus
                                                        distance modulus error
       0
                  1993ah
                          0.028488
                                            35.346583
                                                                       0.223906
                          0.050043
                                            36.682368
                                                                       0.166829
       1
                  1993ag
       2
                   1993o
                          0.052926
                                            36.817691
                                                                       0.155756
       3
                   1993b
                          0.070086
                                            37.446737
                                                                       0.158467
       4
                                            37.483409
                                                                       0.156099
                  1992bs
                          0.062668
```

probability

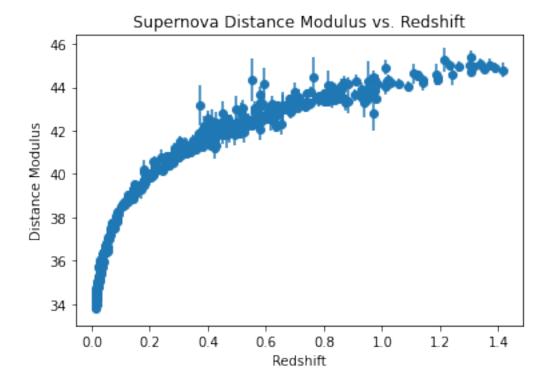
```
0 0.128419
1 0.128419
2 0.128419
```

3 0.128419

4 0.128419

1.2 2. Visualize Data

We observe a log relationship between distance modulus and redshift.



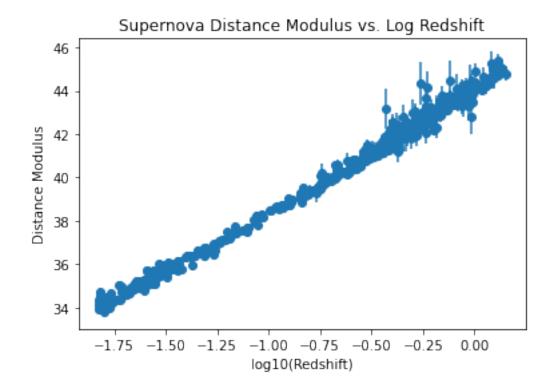
```
[158]: plt.errorbar(np.log10(sn_data["redshift"]), sn_data["distance modulus"], yerr = sn_data["distance modulus error"], xerr=None, fmt='o')

plt.xlabel('log10(Redshift)')

plt.ylabel('Distance Modulus')

plt.title('Supernova Distance Modulus vs. Log Redshift')

plt.show()
```



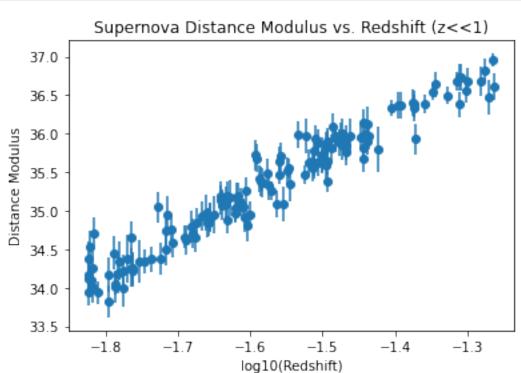
Now we can extract two dataset: small_z_data and medium_z_data.

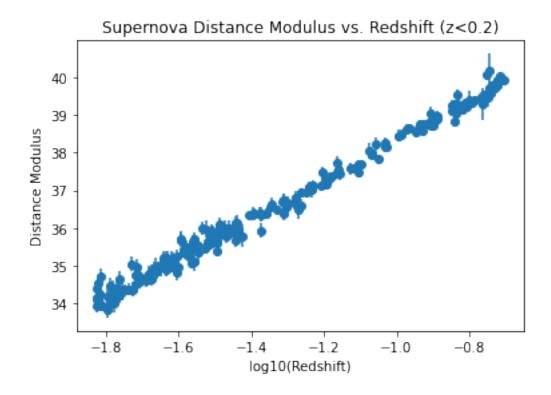
 $small_z_data$ contains the supernova data that has a very small redshift(z«1), and $medium_z_data$ contains the data with relatively bigger redshift but still smaller than 0.2(z<0.2).

We will introduce the use of these two datasets later.

Number of points in small_z_data: 146 Number of points in medium_z_data: 230

```
plt.xlabel('log10(Redshift)')
plt.ylabel('Distance Modulus')
plt.title('Supernova Distance Modulus vs. Redshift (z<0.2)')
plt.show()</pre>
```





1.3 3. Fit Data and Calculate Hubble Constant and Cosmological Constant

Equation 1:
$$m - M = 43.17 - 5log_{10}(\frac{H_0}{70}) + 5log_{10}z + 1.086(1 - q_0)z$$

Observe that when z«1, we can neglect the last term $1.086(1-q_0)z$. The distance modulus and $log_{10}z$ are linear. So we can use the data when z«1 to fit a linear regression model. The fitted intercept can be used to calculate Hubble constant H_0 .

To take into account the error bars, we use weighted least squares where the weights are calculated from distance modulus error.

```
[161]: X = np.array(np.log10(small_z_data["redshift"])).reshape(-1, 1)
X = sm.add_constant(X) # add column of 1 for intercept
y = np.array(small_z_data["distance modulus"])

# Weights for weighted least squares
weights = 1 / np.array(small_z_data["distance modulus error"]) ** 2

HO_model = sm.WLS(y, X, weights=weights).fit()
HO_model.params
```

```
[161]: array([43.26060668, 5.03219119])
```

```
[162]: HO_model.summary()
```

```
[162]: <class 'statsmodels.iolib.summary.Summary'>
```

WLS Regression Results

Dep. Variable:	у	R-squared:	0.951					
Model:	WLS	Adj. R-squared:	0.951					
Method:	Least Squares	F-statistic:	2806.					
Date:	Fri, 05 May 2023	Prob (F-statistic):	2.55e-96					
Time:	22:52:23	Log-Likelihood:	43.463					
No. Observations:	146	AIC:	-82.93					
Df Residuals:	144	BIC:	-76.96					
Df Model:	1							

Covariance Type: nonrobust

========	========	========	========	=========		========			
	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]			
const	43.2606 5.0322	0.147 0.095	293.727 52.973	0.000 0.000	42.969 4.844	43.552 5.220			
Omnibus: Prob(Omnibu Skew: Kurtosis:	s):	0	.485 Jaro	oin-Watson: que-Bera (JB) o(JB): l. No.	:	1.654 1.013 0.603 22.7			

Notes:

[1] Standard Errors assume that the covariance matrix of the errors is correctly specified.

11 11 11

```
[163]: H0 = 70 * 10**((H0_model.params[0] - 43.17) / (-5.0))
print("H0:", H0)
```

HO: 67.13928363809563

Our linear model fits the data well with \mathbb{R}^2 close to 1. We calculate H_0 around 67.14, which is also consistent with other studies.

Now, we could use slightly bigger z to fit the last term $1.086(1-q_0)z$ to calculate q_0 .

```
q0_model.params
```

```
[164]: array([-0.09279572, 1.43659398])
```

```
[165]: q0 = 1 - q0_model.params[1]/1.086 print("q0:", q0)
```

q0: -0.3228305557712643

We get $q_0 < 0$, indicating that we are in an accelarating outward universe.

We could also directly fit data with small redshift to the whole equation, by indicating the model as $m - M = b + a_0 \log_{10} z + a_1 z$.

```
[166]: X0 = np.array(np.log10(medium_z_data["redshift"])).reshape(-1, 1)
X1 = np.array((medium_z_data["redshift"])).reshape(-1, 1)
X = np.append(X0, X1, axis = 1)

X = sm.add_constant(X)
y = np.array(medium_z_data["distance modulus"])

# Weights for weighted least squares
weights = 1 / np.array(medium_z_data["distance modulus error"]) ** 2

model = sm.WLS(y, X, weights=weights).fit()
model.params
```

```
[166]: array([43.1024494 , 4.96133736, 1.66229566])
```

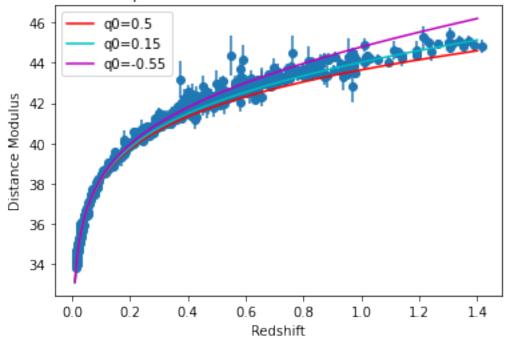
```
[167]: H0 = 70 * 10**((model.params[0] - 43.17) / (-5.0))
print("H0:", H0)
q0 = 1 - model.params[2]/1.086
print("q0:", q0)
```

H0: 72.21179809082025 q0: -0.530658990003376

1.4 4. Compare Observational Results and Expected Results for three Model Universes

One universe is flat, and contains only matter ($\Omega_{m,0}=1,q_0=0.5$). The second universe is negatively curved, and contains only matter ($\Omega_{m,0}=0.3,q_0=0.15$). The third universe is flat, and contains both matter and a cosmological constant ($\Omega_{m,0}=0.3,\Omega_{\Lambda,0}=0.7,q_0=-0.55$). The data are best fitted by the thrid model.

Supernova Distance Modulus vs. Redshift



Comparing the expected results of three model universes and our observed results, we found that if using the whole dataset when z ranges from 0 to 1.4, the model of q0=0.15 seems to fit best. Yet, equation 1 is most accurate when redshift z is small, so let's fit these models to smaller redshift data.

```
[170]: plt.errorbar(medium_z_data["redshift"], medium_z_data["distance modulus"], yerr_u 

== medium_z_data["distance modulus error"], xerr=None, fmt='o', zorder=0)
```

```
z_data = np.linspace(10**(-2), 0.2, num=300)

plt.plot(z_data, calculate_dm(0.5, z_data), 'r', label="q0=0.5")

plt.plot(z_data, calculate_dm(0.15, z_data), 'c', label="q0=0.15")

plt.plot(z_data, calculate_dm(-0.55, z_data), 'm', label="q0=-0.55")

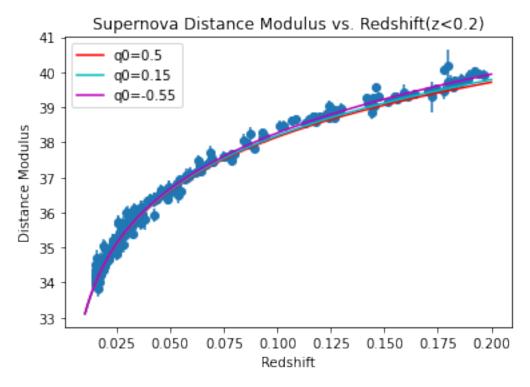
plt.xlabel('Redshift')

plt.ylabel('Distance Modulus')

plt.title('Supernova Distance Modulus vs. Redshift(z<0.2)')

plt.legend()

plt.show()</pre>
```



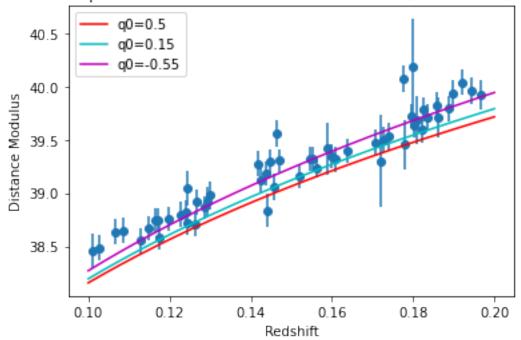
We see that three lines are close when z is small, since the last term $1.086(1-q_0)z$ of Equation 1 is neglegible when z«1. At larger z, three lines deviates. We can zoom in the parts where three line deviates to observe better.

```
z_data = np.linspace(0.1, 0.2, num=200)

plt.plot(z_data, calculate_dm(0.5, z_data), 'r', label="q0=0.5")
plt.plot(z_data, calculate_dm(0.15, z_data), 'c', label="q0=0.15")
plt.plot(z_data, calculate_dm(-0.55, z_data), 'm', label="q0=-0.55")

plt.xlabel('Redshift')
plt.ylabel('Distance Modulus')
plt.title('Supernova Distance Modulus vs. Redshift (0.12<z<0.2)')
plt.legend()
plt.show()</pre>
```





After zooming in, we observe that the third model, where $q_0 = -0.55$ best describes our data, which is consistent with our findings in Part 3.

1.5 5. Fitting with Different Cosmological Constants

```
[200]: def weighted_mean_squared_error(predict, true, weights):
    return np.mean(weights * (predict - true) ** 2)

[201]: losses = []
    q0s = np.linspace(-3, 3, 50)
```

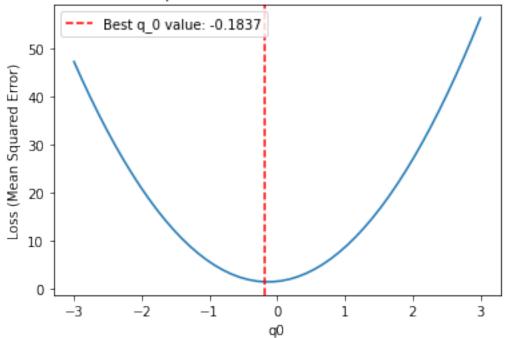
```
weights = 1 / np.array(sn_data["distance modulus error"]) ** 2

for q0 in q0s:
    prediction = [calculate_dm(q0, z) for z in sn_data["redshift"]]
    losses.append(weighted_mean_squared_error(prediction, sn_data["distance_u = modulus"], weights))

best_q0 = q0s[np.argmin(losses)]
plt.plot(q0s, losses)
plt.axvline(x=best_q0, color='r', linestyle="--", label=f"Best q_0 value:_u = fround(best_q0, 4)}")

plt.xlabel('q0')
plt.ylabel('Loss (Mean Squared Error)')
plt.title('q0 vs Loss on Observed Data')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

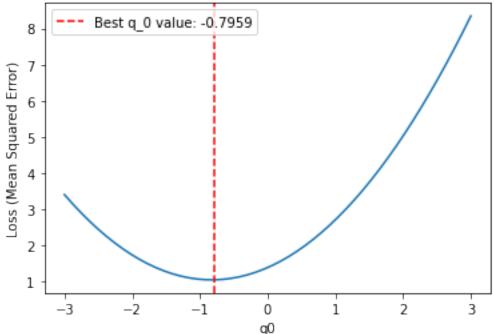




Here we found that q0=-0.1837 best fits our data if we use the whole dataset, but this is not an accurate measurement since our method is more accurate with small z_data, so let's try it now.

```
[202]: losses = []
q0s = np.linspace(-3, 3, 50)
```



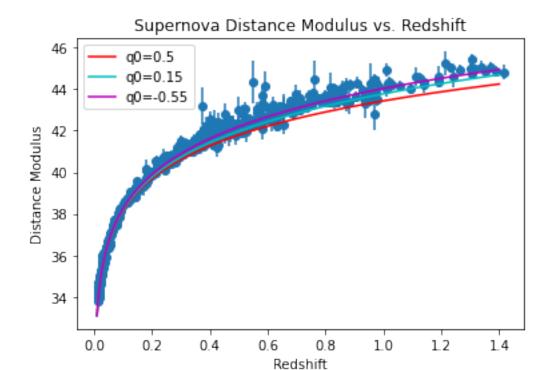


1.6 6. Using Cosmolopy

Now, let's try different cosmological constants (values of Ω) and see what value fits our data best. We could use the cosmolopy package to calculate lumiosity distance accurately and then use that to calculate distance modulus.

Let's first try using this cosmolopy package to generate expected results from three universes in Part 4.

As a reminder, 1st universe is flat, and contains only matter ($\Omega_{m,0}=1,q_0=0.5$). 2nd universe is negatively curved, and contains only matter ($\Omega_{m,0}=0.3,q_0=0.15$). 3rd universe is flat, and contains both matter and a cosmological constant ($\Omega_{m,0}=0.3,\Omega_{\Lambda,0}=0.7,q_0=-0.55$). The data are best fitted by the thrid model.



Here we clearly see that the benchmark model(q0=-0.55) fits our data most.

Now let's use a grid of different combinations of Ω_m and Ω_{Λ} to calculate the expected values of distance modulus, and calculate its difference with the observed data.

```
[207]: omega_m = np.linspace(0, 2.5, num = 20)
    omega_lambda = np.linspace(-1, 3, num = 20)
    weights = 1 / np.array(sn_data["distance modulus error"]) ** 2

X, Y = np.meshgrid(omega_m, omega_lambda)
Z = np.copy(X)

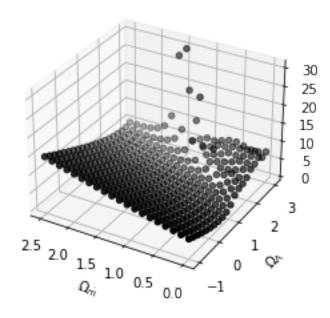
for i in range(len(X)):
    for j in range(len(X[0])):
        m = X[i][j]
        labda = Y[i][j]
        dm_lst = calculate_dm_from_cosmolopy(m, labda, sn_data["redshift"])
        loss = weighted_mean_squared_error(dm_lst, sn_data["distance modulus"], useights)
        Z[i][j] = loss
```

/Users/shentingwei/opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages/cosmolopy/distance.py:102: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered in double_scalars

```
e_z = (omega_M_0 * (1+z)**3. +
```

```
/Users/shentingwei/opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-
      packages/cosmolopy/distance.py:167: IntegrationWarning: The occurrence of
      roundoff error is detected, which prevents
        the requested tolerance from being achieved. The error may be
        underestimated.
        si.quad(_comoving_integrand, z0, z, limit=1000,
      /Users/shentingwei/opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-
      packages/numpy/lib/function_base.py:2197: RuntimeWarning: invalid value
      encountered in <lambda> (vectorized)
        outputs = ufunc(*inputs)
      /Users/shentingwei/opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-
      packages/pandas/core/arraylike.py:364: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered
      in log10
        result = getattr(ufunc, method)(*inputs, **kwargs)
      /Users/shentingwei/opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-
      packages/cosmolopy/distance.py:167: IntegrationWarning: Extremely bad integrand
      behavior occurs at some points of the
        integration interval.
        si.quad(_comoving_integrand, z0, z, limit=1000,
[208]: fig = plt.figure()
       ax = plt.axes(projection='3d')
       ax.scatter(X, Y, Z, color='black')
       ax.invert xaxis()
       ax.set_xlabel('$\Omega_m$')
       ax.set ylabel('$\Omega {\Lambda}$')
       ax.set_title('Mean Squared Loss on Observed data');
```

Mean Squared Loss on Oberved data



The graph above shows how different cosmological constants produce different losses. We can observe that the loss is lower when Ω_{Λ} is less than 1 and Ω_{m} is less than 1. Let's see what combination produces the least mean square error loss comparing with our observed data.

```
[209]: ind = np.unravel_index(np.argmin(Z), X.shape)
    print("Best fit Omega_m:", X[ind], "\nBest fit Omega_Lambda:", Y[ind])

Best fit Omega_m: 0.39473684210526316
    Best fit Omega_Lambda: 1.1052631578947367

[]:
```