Hubble Parameter as a function of time

$$\dot{R}^{2}(t) = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho(t)R^{2}(t) - Kc^{2}$$

$$H(t)^2 \left[1 - (\Omega_m + \Omega_{rad} + \Omega_{\Lambda}) \right] = -\frac{Kc^2}{R^2}$$

Friedmann's First Equation

$$\Omega(t) = \Omega_m(t) + \Omega_{rad}(t) + \Omega_{\Lambda}(t)$$

$$H(t)^{2}(1 - \Omega(t))R^{2} = -Kc^{2} = H_{o}^{2}(1 - \Omega_{0})R_{0}^{2}$$

Density Parameters as a function of time

$$\Omega(t) = \Omega_m(t) + \Omega_{rad}(t) + \Omega_{\Lambda}(t)$$

$$\Omega_m(t) = \Omega_{m0}(1+z)^3 \frac{H_o^2}{H(t)^2}$$

Baryons, Dark Matter

$$\Omega_{rad}(t) = \Omega_{rad0}(1+z)^4 \frac{H_0^2}{H(t)^2}$$

Photons, Neutrinos

$$\Omega_{\Lambda}(t) = \Omega_{\Lambda 0} \frac{H_0^2}{H(t)^2}$$

Dark Energy

1

2

Hubble Parameter as a function of time

$$H(t)^{2} = H_{o}^{2} \left[\Omega_{m,o} (1+z)^{3} + \Omega_{rad,o} (1+z)^{4} + \Omega_{\Lambda,o} + (1-\Omega_{o})(1+z)^{2} \right]$$

Where $1 - \Omega_0 = \Omega_k$

Curvature Density Parameter

This equation describes the fractional rate of expansion of the universe as a function of time. Where now every density parameter is defined in terms of their present day values.

Benchmark Cosmology:

2015 Planck results (Table 4 column 2)

$$\Omega_{m0} = 0.308 \pm 0.012 \qquad \Omega_{\Lambda0} = 0.692 \pm 0.012 \qquad \Omega_{\rm rad0} = 8.24 \times 10^{-5} \qquad H_o = 67.81 \pm 0.92$$

10⁰

10¹

10²

104

10³

In Class Lab 10 Discussion

Matter-Radiation Equality

Setting
$$\Omega_m(t) = \Omega_{rad}(t)$$

$$\Omega_{m0}(1+z)^3\frac{H_0^2}{H(t)^2} = \Omega_{rad0}(1+z)^4\frac{H_0^2}{H^2} \qquad (1+z) = \frac{\Omega_{m0}}{\Omega_{rad0}} = 0.308/8.24e - 5 \sim 3700$$

(0.05 Myr after the big bang)

Era of Dark Energy

At some point the Cosmological Constant started to dominate (but it was pretty much negligible before

$$(1+z) = \frac{\Omega_{\Lambda}}{\Omega_m}^{1/3} = (0.698/0.308)^{1/3} = 1.3$$
 (2)

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Proper Distance: Recall: r = R(t)u

Robertson Walker Metric
$$ds^2=(cdt)^2-R(t)^2\left[\left(\frac{du}{\sqrt{1-u^2K}}\right)^2+(ud\theta)^2+(usin\theta d\phi)^2\right]$$

Light rays travel paths with $\mathit{ds^2}$ = 0, called null geodesics. $c^2 dt^2 = d\ell^2$

Light rays travel on radial paths, where $(\theta = 0, \phi = 0)$

$$cdt = R(t) \frac{du}{\sqrt{1 - Ku^2}}$$

Proper Distance

(Ruler Distance – distance to an object TODAY)

Look Back Time

Ryden Chapter 6

Because light travels at a finite speed, we see a younger cosmos as we look toward more distant galaxies at higher redshift.

If you observe a galaxy at redshift z, at what time (t_p) did those photons leave on their journey towards us?

$$R(t) = \frac{1}{1+z} = \lambda_e/\lambda_{obs} \qquad 1+z = \frac{1}{R(t)}$$

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

$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{R}}{R}$$

$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{R}}{R} \qquad \qquad \frac{dz}{dt} = -\frac{1}{R(t)^2} \frac{dR}{dt} = -\frac{1}{R(t)} H(z) = -(1+z)H(z)$$

$$-\int_{t_0}^{t_e} dt = t_0 - t_e = \int_0^z \frac{1}{H(z)} \frac{dz'}{(1+z')} = t_L$$

Look Back Time (Gyr ago) [inverse of Hubble Parameter)

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Comoving Radial Distance

$$cdt = R(t)\frac{du}{\sqrt{1 - Ku^2}}$$

$$c \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \int_{u_e}^{u_0} \frac{du}{\sqrt{1 - ku^2}}$$

Soln to RHS
$$= \begin{cases} |\kappa|^{-1/2} \sinh^{-1} \sqrt{|\kappa|} \, u & \text{if } \kappa < 0 \text{ (a negatively curved 'hyperbolic' universe)} \\ u & \text{if } \kappa = 0 \text{ (a spatially flat universe)} \\ |\kappa|^{-1/2} \sin^{-1} \sqrt{|\kappa|} \, u & \text{if } \kappa > 0 \text{ (a positively curved 'spherical' universe)} \end{cases}$$

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Comoving Radial Distance

$$c \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \int_{u_e}^{u_0} \frac{du}{\sqrt{1 - ku^2}}$$

Re-write the LHS of this equation

Recall:
$$\frac{dz}{dt} = -(1+z)H(z)$$

$$= \int_0^z \frac{c}{R(t)} \frac{dz'}{(1+z)H(z)} \qquad \text{(replacing dt)}$$

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

$$D_C = c \int_0^{z_e} \frac{dz'}{H(z)}$$

Comoving Radial Distance:

Proper Distance in terms of D_c

Proper Distance at any z_o: (Ruler Distance, K=0)

$$cdt = R(t)D_c = \frac{D_c}{1+z}$$

$$D_C = c \int_0^{z_e} \frac{dz'}{H(z)}$$

This is true regardless of the observer's redshift

Today, z = 0 And
$$R(0) = 1$$

$$cdt = D_c$$

So the Proper Distance to an object from us TODAY IS the SAME as its Comoving Distance TODAY. This is the line of sight distance to a galaxy at a given redshift at the present day.

I.e. This is the distance you would put into Hubble's Law

$$v = H(t_0)R(t_o)u = H(t_0)D_C$$

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Horizon Distance: Size of the Observable Universe

• The Size of the observable universe is the proper distance traveled by a photon over the age of the universe.

Horizon Distance today = Comoving Radial Distance

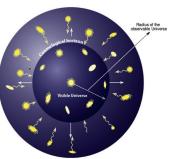
$$d_{H^{\parallel \, =}} \quad cdt = \ R(t_o)u = D_c$$

$$D_C = c \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z)}^{\quad \ z \text{ is large}}$$

At an arbitrary redshift, however:

$$d_H(t_{obs}) = c\Delta t = R(t_{obs})D_c = \frac{D_c}{1 + z_{obs}}$$

Proper Distance at an arbitrary observer distance



Supernovae in distant galaxies found by HST

How do we measure distances to standard candles in an expanding universe???

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Luminosity Distance $F = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2}$

$$F = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2}$$

Ryden Chapter 7

In an expanding universe, far away objects appear dimmer:

$$L_e=rac{h
u_e}{\Delta t_e}$$
 . $L_o=rac{h
u_o}{\Delta t_o}$. Le is the intrinsic luminosity of the source $t_o=t_o$

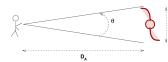
$$L_e = \frac{h\nu_e}{\Delta t_e} \qquad L_o = \frac{h\nu_o}{\Delta t_o} \qquad \text{Le is the intrinsic luminosity of the source}$$

$$L_o = L_e \frac{\nu_o}{\nu_e} \frac{\Delta t_e}{\Delta t_o} = L_e R(t_o) R(t_o) \qquad \frac{R(t) = \frac{1}{1+z} = \lambda_e/\lambda_{obs}}{\frac{\nu_o}{\nu_e} = R(t_o)} \frac{\frac{\Delta t_e}{R(t_e)}}{\frac{\Delta t_e}{R(t_e)}} = \frac{\Delta t_0}{R(t_0)}$$
 d is the Proper Distance between us and the source (Comoving Distance, Dc)
$$F = \frac{L_e}{4\pi} \frac{1}{D_C} \frac{1}{2(1+z)(1+z)} = \frac{L_e}{4\pi d_L^2}$$

 $d_L = (1+z)D_C$

Luminosity Distance: how far an object of known luminosity L would have to be in Euclidean space so that we measure a total flux F.

Angular Diameter Distance



DA is the distance to the source, such that it subtends the same angle it would have in Euclidean Space

$$D_A \equiv \frac{S}{\theta}$$

 $D_A \equiv \frac{S}{\theta}$ s $\theta \text{ [rad]} = \frac{S}{R(t_e)u_e} \equiv \frac{S}{D_A}$ t subtends

emission – so that you see the correct angle

$$D_A = R(t_e)u_e = \frac{R(t_0)u_e}{1+z} = \frac{D_C}{(1+z)} = \frac{D_L}{(1+z)^2} = \frac{S}{\theta}$$

So, the size of a galaxy (or equivalently, the separation between two galaxies) that subtends angle Theta is:

$$S = \theta D_A = \frac{D_C}{1+z}\theta$$