

We developed the Friedmann equation and studied a series of possible universes:

- Empty universe
- Single component universe
- Multi-component universe
- Bench mark model


Do question (1a) on the worksheet and **STOP**

$$(1a) \quad \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = H_o^2 \left[ \frac{\Omega_{r,o}}{a^4} + \frac{\Omega_{m,o}}{a^3} + \Omega_{\Lambda} + \frac{1 - \Omega_o}{a^2} \right]$$

We can measure  $\Omega_{r,o}$ ,  $\Omega_{m,o}$ ,  $\Omega_{\Lambda}$ ,  $H_o$  but we cannot directly measure  $a_o$

Do question (1b) on the worksheet and **STOP**

(1b) Distance. Much of observational cosmology has to do with getting accurate distance measurements.

$$\frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = H_o^2 \left[ \frac{\Omega_{r,o}}{a^4} + \frac{\Omega_{m,o}}{a^3} + \Omega_\Lambda + \frac{1 - \Omega_o}{a^2} \right]$$


Measuring these only gives  $a(t)$  if we assume the Friedmann equation is correct.

To confirm the Friedmann equation we need to measure  $a(t)$  independently and see if the L.H.S = R.H.S

We now do what any good (and bad) physicists does when confronted with the unknown... We Taylor expand.

$$a(t) = a(t_o) + (t - t_o) \left. \frac{da}{dt} \right|_{t=t_o} + \frac{(t - t_o)^2}{2} \left. \frac{d^2a}{dt^2} \right|_{t=t_o} + \dots$$

Do question (2) on the worksheet and **STOP**

$$(2a) \quad \frac{a(t)}{a(t_o)} = 1 + H_o (t - t_o) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\ddot{a}(t)}{a(t_o)} (t - t_o)^2 + \dots$$

$$(2b) \quad \frac{a(t)}{a(t_o)} = 1 + H_o (t - t_o) - \frac{q_o}{2} H_o^2 (t - t_o)^2 + \dots$$

$$(2c) \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3c^2} \sum_w \epsilon_w (1 + 3w)$$

$$-\frac{\ddot{a}}{aH^2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_w \Omega_w (1 + 3w)$$

$$q_o = \frac{1}{2} \sum_w \Omega_{w,o} (1 + 3w)$$

$$(2d) \quad q_o = \frac{1}{2} \Omega_{m,o}$$

Notice, that if we could measure  $q_o$ , this gives us a way of finding  $\Omega_m$ , without actually having to weigh all the stuff in the universe.

# Do question 3

$$(3a) \quad w_r = 1/3, w_m = 0, w_\Lambda = -1 \Rightarrow q_o = \Omega_{r,o} + \frac{1}{2}\Omega_{m,o} - \Omega_\Lambda$$

(3b)  $q_o < 0$  and the universe is accelerating. Benchmark model has  $q_o = -0.55$

Recall that  $\frac{a(t)}{a(t_o)} = 1 + H_o(t - t_o) - \frac{q_o}{2}H_o^2(t - t_o)^2 + \dots$  so to measure  $a$ , we just need to measure  $q_o$  and  $H_o$

We've also just seen that to measure  $q_o$ , we need to measure the critical densities...this is hard !

Oh well, let's table that for now, and see what we can do with  $H_o$

Recall that  $c z = H_o d$ . Ok, well  $z$  is easy to measure, so we're almost there? What about  $d$ ?

$$d_p(t_o) = c \int_{t_e}^{t_o} \frac{dt}{a(t)} \quad \text{But this is no good, it's } a(t) \text{ we need find!...crap.}$$

We now do what any good (and bad) physicists does when confronted with the unknown... We Taylor expand.

$$\frac{1}{a(t)} \approx 1 - H_o(t - t_o) + \frac{1 + q_o}{2}H_o^2(t - t_o) + \dots$$

Do question (4) on the worksheet and S T O P

(4) The integral is straightforward to do since it's a polynomial. To second order with the limits inserted it yields,

$$d_p \approx c(t_o - t_e) + \frac{cH_o}{2}(t_o - t_e)^2$$

However this doesn't get us any closer because we don't know what  $t_o - t_e$  is. Crap. What now?

We now do what any good (and bad) physicists does when confronted with the unknown... We Taylor expand.

$$z = \frac{1}{a(t_e)} - 1 \quad \text{Taylor expanding}$$

$$z \approx H_o(t_o - t_e) + \left(\frac{1+q_o}{2}\right) H_o^2(t_o - t_e)^2 \text{ solving for the time}$$

$$t_o - t_e \approx \frac{1}{H_o} \left[ z - \left(\frac{1+q_o}{2}\right) z^2 \right]$$

Substituting into the proper distance we get that  $d_p \approx \frac{c}{H_o} z \left[ 1 - \frac{1+q_o}{2} z \right]$  and crap, we need  $H_o$  and  $q_o$  to find  $d_p$ .

But we wanted  $d_p$  so we could find  $H_o$  !

Do question (5) on the worksheet and **STOP**

Taylor expanding has not completely worked. Time to try something else. Recall that we seek a distance measurement we can use to determine, at the very minimum  $H_0$ .

Maybe we can use some other type of distance ?

- **Proper distance** roughly corresponds to where a distant object would be at a specific moment of cosmological time, which can change over time due to the expansion of the universe.
- **Comoving distance** between fundamental observers does not change with time, as comoving distance accounts for the expansion of the universe.
- **Luminosity distance** is the distance associated with the amount of flux one measures from a distant object
- **Transverse comoving distance**
- **Angular diameter distance**
- **Light Travel distance**

Well at least we have choices. Let's first look at the *luminosity distance*.

# Luminosity distance, components

- $L$ , luminosity of a known *standard candle*.
  - *Standard candle* is a source whose luminosity, electromagnetic energy per time, is known.
- Flux,  $f$ , the luminosity per unit area
  - Bolometric flux is flux over all wavelengths. Instruments cannot detect all wavelengths so we do not typically measure the bolometric flux.
  - Unit Area is a geometric quantity that will change depending on the metric

$$f = \frac{L}{4\pi d_L^2}; \text{ or } d_L \equiv \left( \frac{L}{4\pi f} \right)^{1/2}$$



Surface area

$$A(t_o) = 4\pi S_k(r)^2$$

We pick up  $(1+z)^2$  fall off in energy due to expansion of the universe (see chapter 3)

$$S_k(r) = \begin{cases} R_o \sin(r/R_o) & k = 1 \\ r & k = 0 \\ R_o \sinh(r/R_o) & k = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$d_L = S_k(r)(1+z)$$

Currently we seem to have  $k = 0$  so  $d_L = r (1 + z) = d_p(t_o) (1 + z)$  Hey, maybe some progress finally.

Do question (7) on the worksheet