

1 Cosmology

1.1 Cosmological Parameters

$$\Omega_x(t) = \frac{\rho_x(t)}{\rho_{\text{crit}}(t)}$$

Sum to one: $\Omega_m + \Omega_\lambda + \Omega_\kappa = 1$

Values measured today:

Matter: $\Omega_m \approx 30\%$

Dark matter: $\Omega_{DM} = \Omega_m - \Omega_b = 25\%$

Baryonic density: $\Omega_b \approx 5\%$

Cosm. const.: $\Omega_\Lambda = 70\%$

Curvature: $|\Omega_\kappa| < 1\%$

Measured via standard candles and standard rulers.

1.2 Standard Candles

SN Ia explode at same Chandrasekhar mass. High luminosity fluctuations exist.

Phillips: SN Ia with higher peak M take longer to fade. Gives luminosity distance d_L up to an overall factor.

1.3 Distances

Luminosity distance:

$$F = \frac{L}{4\pi d_L^2(z)}$$

Angular diameter distance

$$d_A(z) = \frac{l_{\text{phys}}}{\delta\theta}$$

where l_{phys} is the physical size of the small edge of the triangle.

units the angle is measured in radians!

Their relation is

$$d_L = d_A(1+z)^2$$

where the angular diameter distance is smaller.

Scale factor relates physical and comoving distances

$$r_{\text{phys}} = a(t)r_{\text{comoving}}$$

For the local group ($z \ll 1$), all distances agree:

$$d_{\text{phys}} = d_{\text{comoving}} = d_A = d_L$$

1.4 Magnitudes

Bigger magnitude means fainter object. Dimming: magnitude increases $m + \Delta m_{15}$

Apparent magnitude: $m = -2.5 \log_{10}(\frac{F}{F_{\text{ref}}})$

Absolute magnitude is apparent magnitude at distance of 10pc

$$M = -2.5 \log_{10}(\frac{L}{L_{\text{ref}}})$$

Distance modulus is difference between apparent and absolute magnitudes:

$$\mu = m - M = 5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{d_L}{\text{Mpc}} \right) + 25$$

1.5 Scale Factor

Hubble's law:

$$v = H_0 d$$

with $H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$

Relationship between redshift and scale factor

$$1 + z = \frac{1}{a}$$

Blackbody temperature and scale factor

$$T = \frac{T_0}{a}$$

1.6 Curvature

flat: $\kappa = 0$ closed: $\kappa > 0$ open: $\kappa < 0$

For a flat universe, $\rho = \rho_{\text{crit}} = \frac{H^2(t)}{(8\pi G/3)}$.

1.7 Matter

$$\text{matter: } \rho_m = \frac{\rho_{m,0}}{a^3} \quad \text{radiation: } \rho_r = \frac{\rho_{r,0}}{a^4}$$

Matter-radiation equality z_{eq}

1.8 CMB

Ionised early universe. Thomson scattering of photons with free electrons gives Photon-baryon fluid. At recombination, $z = 1100$, hydrogen forms and photons travel freely \Rightarrow CMB. Temperature $T_{CMB} = 2.72K$

Recombination $z_{\text{rec}} = 1100$ at energy scale $T_{CMB}(z+1) = 3000K$. Later than ionisation energy due to Wien tail.

BAO: photon pressure against grav. collapse \Rightarrow sound waves with wavelength: Comoving sound horizon: $\lambda_S \approx 150\text{Mpc}$ Standard ruler (2-point correlation in CMB), first peak, used to measure d_A and thus cosmological parameters (curvature).

1.9 Large Scale Structure

CMB anisotropies $\frac{\delta T}{T} \sim 10^{-5}$

Perturbations (relative matter density contrast) grow as

- matter: $\delta \sim t^{2/3} \sim a$
- radiation domination: $\delta \sim \ln t$, $a \sim t^{1/2}$
- cosmological constant: $\delta \sim 1$

Need dark matter (not affected by BAO's) to explain structures today.

1.10 Equations

Acceleration Equation

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}\rho(1+3w)$$

Friedmann Equation

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho - \frac{\kappa c^2}{a^2} = H_0^2 \left[\frac{\Omega_m}{a^3} + \frac{\Omega_r}{a^4} + \frac{\Omega_\kappa}{a^2} + \Omega_\Lambda \right]$$

1.11 Horizon and Flatness Problem

Horizon: Horizon distance at recombination with $\Omega_m = 0.3$ subtends 1° on the sky. These places were never in causal contact but still have the same CMB temperature.

Flatness: In order for $\Omega = \frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}} \approx 1$, the initial density must have a particular fine-tuned value giving a flat universe.

Inflation solves these by enlarging a small patch in causal contact to larger than the observable universe, flattening any curvature.

Number of e-folds N_i :

$$\frac{a(t_{\text{end}})}{a(t_{\text{start}})} = e^{N_i}$$

Energy density of inflation: $\rho_i^{ed} = 10^{101} [\frac{TeV}{m^3}]$

1.12 Neutron Freeze-out

Weak force falls as $\Gamma_W \sim t^{-5/2}$, Hubble (expansion) parameter as $H \sim t^{-1}$. When $\Gamma_W < H$, weak interactions do not keep up with expansion and comoving baryon number density is constant.

Helium Mass fraction: 25% of baryonic mass is primordial ${}^4\text{He}$

$$Y = \frac{(\text{Helium mass density})}{(\text{total baryon mass density})} = \frac{4n_{\text{He}}}{4n_{\text{He}} + n_H} \approx 25\%$$

Can measure Ω_b and thus $\Omega_{DM} = \Omega_m - \Omega_b$

1.13 Dark Matter

Evidence:

- flat rotation curves: expect $v^2 \sim r^{-1}$, but observe $v \sim \text{const.} \Rightarrow$ dark halo
- gravitational lensing \Rightarrow total mass determined via strong lensing much larger than baryonic mass
- structure formation
- BBN and CMB
- absence of microlensing rules out MACHOs

WIMPS: non-relativistic (cold) at freeze-out. Neutrinos: relativistic (hot) at freeze-out.

WIMP miracle: relic density of right magnitude.

Cosmological constant domination for $z \ll z_*$ matter- Λ equality

2 Particle Physics

2.1 Feynman Diagrams

- electrical quark charge is written e_q at vertex

2.2 Scattering

Measure $R = \frac{\sigma(\text{hadrons})}{\sigma(\mu^+\mu^-)}$ to cancel out errors in beam intensity and detector efficiency.

2.3 Proton Structure

Each parton carries xp momentum, then

1. initially, have $E_{cm} = E_1 + E_2 = 2pc$ and $p_T = 0$

2. partons carry $E'_T = (x_1 + x_2)pc$ and

$$p'_T = p_1 - p_2 = (x_1 - x_2)p$$

3. Centre of mass energy is then

$$E'_{cm} = \sqrt{s} = \sqrt{(x_1 + x_2)^2 - (x_1 - x_2)^2}pc = \sqrt{x_1 x_2} E_{cm}$$

4. for creation of 2 particles, condition is $E'_{cm} \geq 2mc^2$, so

$$\sqrt{x_1 x_2} \geq 2 \frac{mc^2}{E_{cm}}$$

3 Fluid Dynamics

3.1 Fundamentals

- Mass conservation / continuity equation

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \rho \mathbf{u} = 0$$

- material / Lagrangian derivative following a fluid parcel

$$\frac{D}{Dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla)$$

3.2 Types of Flow

- angular momentum conserving flow

$$u_\theta = \frac{L}{r}$$

- source / sink flow

$$u_r = \frac{Q}{2\pi r}$$

- solid body rotation

$$u_r = u_z = 0 \quad u_\theta = \Omega r$$

3.3 Navier-Stokes I

- body forces (long range)

$$\mathbf{F}_B = \iiint \rho \mathbf{f}_B dV$$

– force per unit mass

– for gravity $\mathbf{f}_B = \mathbf{g}$

- surface forces (short range)

$$\mathbf{F}_S = \iint \mathbf{f}_S dS = \iint (-P\mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\tau}) dS$$

– force per unit area (i.e. stress)

- pressure contribution

$$- \iint P dS = - \iiint \nabla P dV$$

- hydrostatic balance: fluid at rest, external forces (gravity) balanced by pressure gradient force

3.4 Viscosity

- Newtonian fluid

$$\tau = \mu \frac{du}{dz}$$

- viscous stress is tangential (in x-direction)
- viscous force $F = \tau A$, where A is the area of the walls
- viscosity: $\mu > 0$
- kinematic viscosity: $\nu = \mu/\rho$ in $m^2 s^{-1}$
- water:** $\nu_{\text{water}} \sim 10^{-6} m^2 s^{-1}$
- air:** $\nu_{\text{air}} \sim 10^{-5} m^2 s^{-1}$
- 1D viscous force (change in momentum) per unit mass is

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2}$$

In general, viscous force per unit mass is given by

$$\frac{\mathbf{F}}{m} = \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}.$$

For divergence-free flows, $-\nu \nabla \times \zeta$.

Viscosity measures the momentum flow, so constant vorticity flows do not mix / rearrange fluid parcels.

3.5 Boundary Conditions

No-slip: $\mathbf{u} = 0$ at boundaries (e.g. strong friction)

Free-slip: $\mathbf{u} \neq 0$ at boundaries

no normal flow: $\mathbf{u} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}$ flow cannot penetrate boundary

3.6 Navier-Stokes II

- constant density + continuity \implies divergence-free

$$\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = 0 \implies \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

- for Newtonian fluid of const. density, viscous force per unit volume is

$$dF = \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} dV$$

- Navier-Stokes equation (constant ρ, μ)

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \mathbf{f}_B - \frac{\nabla P}{\rho} + \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}$$

- kinematic viscosity $\nu = \mu/\rho$ in $m^2 s^{-1}$

3.7 Flow in Long Channel

Assumptions:

1. Steady-state: $\partial/\partial t = 0$
 2. No edge effects: $\mathbf{u} = u\mathbf{i}$
 3. Flow is slab: $\partial u/\partial z = 0$
 4. no slip BC: $\mathbf{u} = 0$
- Parabolic solution $u(y) = \frac{F}{2\mu}(1 - (y/a)^2)$
 - hydrodynamic lubrication: $\Delta P = \tau l/a \gg \tau$

3.8 Reynolds number

$$R_e = \frac{\text{inertia}}{\text{viscosity}} = \frac{(\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{u}}{\nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}} = \frac{UL}{\nu}$$

3.8.1 Low R_e : Stokes flow

- neglect inertia compared to viscosity
- Steady-state Navier-Stokes for $R_e \ll 1$

$$\mathbf{0} \approx -\frac{\nabla P'}{\rho} + \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}$$

- gravity: background pressure $\mathbf{g} = \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla P_{\text{ref}}$
- perturbation pressure $P' = P - P_{\text{ref}}$
- solution determined by
 - continuity $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$
 - no-slip $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ at boundary
 - $\nabla^2 \zeta = \nabla^2 (\nabla \times \mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$
- features
 - long range r^{-1} effect
 - reversibility $(\mathbf{u}, P') \leftrightarrow (-\mathbf{u}, -P')$

3.8.2 High R_e

- neglect viscosity compared to inertia
- Navier-Stokes for $R_e \gg 1$

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} \approx -\frac{\nabla P}{\rho} + \mathbf{g}$$

- boundary layer $\delta \approx L/\sqrt{R_e}$
- Bernoulli function

$$B = \frac{P}{\rho} + \frac{1}{2}u^2 + \Phi$$

- gravitational potential Φ satisfies $\mathbf{g} = -\nabla \Phi$
- conserved by fluid parcel in steady flow: $\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla B = 0$

3.9 Drag and Lift

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{drag}} = \oint_{\text{object}} (-P\mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\tau}) \cdot \mathbf{i} dS$$

- Stokes' law for low R_e :

$$F_{\text{drag}} = 6\pi\mu u a$$

- reduce drag: streamline the object, or create rough surface to generate turbulent boundary layer
- viscosity is key to drag: sets pressure field and controls drag indirectly. No drag when viscosity is zero.

3.10 Circulation and Vorticity

$$C = \oint \mathbf{u} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \iint \boldsymbol{\zeta} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

- generated by viscous stresses on surface of body
- Kelvin's circulation theorem: when viscous effects are neglected, for constant density fluid,

$$\boxed{DC/Dt = 0}$$

along material contour

\implies for small circuit δS , $\zeta \delta S = \text{constant}$ following the flow

\implies in the absence of viscosity, a fluid of constant density cannot gain circulation or vorticity

3.10.1 Hurricane Formation

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}_R + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \times \mathbf{r} \implies \boldsymbol{\zeta} = \boldsymbol{\zeta}_R + 2\boldsymbol{\Omega}$$

- Kelvin's circulation thm \implies choosing $\delta \mathbf{S} \perp \mathbf{k}$:

$$\mathbf{k} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\zeta}_R + 2\boldsymbol{\Omega}) \delta S = \text{const.}$$

- close to equator $f_0 = 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \cdot \mathbf{k} \approx 0$, so if initially $\mathbf{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{\zeta}_R = 0$, the vorticity will stay that way indep. of δS

3.11 Geophysical Fluid Dynamics

- Navier-Stokes in rotating frame

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = -\underbrace{\nabla \Phi'}_{f_B} - \frac{\nabla P}{\rho} + \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} - \underbrace{2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \times \mathbf{u}}_{\text{Coriolis}}$$

$$-\mathbf{g} = -\nabla \Phi \text{ and } \Phi' = \Phi - \Omega^2 r_H^2 / 2$$

- Rossby number

$$R_o = \frac{\text{inertia}}{\text{Coriolis}} = \frac{U}{2\Omega L}$$

- Geostrophic balance equation

$$-fv \approx -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + fu \approx -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}$$

– valid for $R_e \gg 1 \gg R_o$ (Coriolis \gg inertia \gg viscosity), e.g. Oceans, cyclones in atmosphere, but not hurricanes

– also assumes steady state

– Coriolis parameter: $f = 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \cdot \mathbf{k}$

- Taylor columns: $R_e \gg 1 \gg R_o$