COSMOLOGY I

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Content

Introduction: General Relativity and Astrophysics.

Theoretical Cosmology: Cosmological principle; Robertson and Walker metric, redshift, horizons; Friedmann equations, cosmological models with matter, radiation and cosmological constant.

Observational cosmology: luminosity distance, K correction, angular diameter distance, number counts, specific intensity and redshift, radiation absorption.

Early universe: the Standard Big Bang, energy scales, thermodynamics, neutrinos, nucleosynthesis, baryogenesis, recombination.

Inflation: problems of the Standard Big Bang, outline of field theory, relation between mass-energy and pressure, phase transitions, old and new inflation, inflaton dynamics, slow roll and reheating.

Dark Energy: Cosmological constant and related problems, quintessence, other models of dark energy.

Textbooks

- *Notes of the lectures*
- *Gravitation and Cosmology* S. Weinberg Wiley 1972
- *Introduzione alla Cosmologia* F. Lucchin Zanichelli
- *Cosmology, The Origin and Evolution of Cosmic Structure* P. Coles, F. Lucchin – Wiley
- *Structure Formation in the Universe* T. Padmanabhan **-** Cambridge
- *The Early Universe* E.W. Kolb, M.S. Turner Perseus Books
- *Cosmological Physics* J.A. Peacock Cambridge
- *Particle Physics and Cosmology* P.D.B. Collins, A.D. Martin, E.J. Squires Wiley
- •*Cosmologia e cosmologie* S. Bonometto Zanichelli 2008
- •*Cosmology* S.Weinberg Oxford 2008

3 •*Galaxy Formation and Evolution-* Mo, van den Bosch, White - Cambridge University Press 2010

Cosmology

 studies the **Universe** *(= all that exists*): its physical properties and evolution. **But** we have access to only a *finite* part of it*.*

 it's an **applied** science, it doesn't make experiments from Galileo's point of view. But it places constraints to physical theories (e.g.: *astroparticle physics*).

4 The finiteness of the speed of light (c \sim 3 x 10¹⁰ cm s⁻¹) allows us to observe the universe at different epochs (farther = younger) and then follow the time evolution of its constituents and their properties. Increasingly sensitive tools allow us to collect information from more and more distant and weak objects.

Cosmic Objects

Comets and asteroids

nucleus seen by Giotto probe

Asteroids

~ 10 km

Planets and satellites

Earth and Moon

Mars and Juppiter + Io

7 **For cosmology galaxies are the "***building blocks***" of the universe**

Astronomical units

Distance light year 1 ly = 9.5 $\times 10^{17}$ cm (=3 $\times 10^{10}$ cm/s $\times 3 \times 10^{7}$ s)

Luminosity

Solar Luminosity (bolometric) $L_{\odot} \sim 4 \times 10^{33}$ *erg/s*

Cosmic Scales

From an object with luminosity L, at a distance d, we receive a flux F:

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

magnitude (m) (apparent)

logarithmic measure of F (C = constant dipending on λ *):*

$$
m = -2.5 Log_{10} F + C
$$

defined in such a way that if the ratio of fluxes is 100, $\Delta m = 5$ *; m* \blacktriangle *se F*

In general we don't measure the bolometric flux, but within a *spectral band (e.g.: visual V* $\lambda \sim 5500 \text{ Å} = 550 \text{ nm}$ *, blue B* $\lambda \sim 4400 \text{ Å}$ *,* $\Delta \lambda \sim 0.2 \lambda$ *)*

Absolute Magnitude (M)

$$
M = m \quad se \quad d = 10 \, pc
$$

 $m = -2.5 \text{ Log } L + 5 \text{ Log } d + \text{const.}$ $M = -2.5 \text{ Log } L + 5 \text{ Log } (10 \text{ pc}) + \text{const.}$

Distance modulus : $m - M = 5$ *Log d (in pc) -5 from m and M* $\Rightarrow d$

(standard candles, e.g. Cefeids)

If there is extinction, $F \blacktriangleright$ *and m* \blacktriangleright *: m* = *M* + 5 *Log d* - 5 + *A*(λ)

interstellar dust \Rightarrow $A(\lambda)$ ~ $1/\lambda$ ~ 1 mag/kpc in the visible region

Historical background

1692-93: Newton tried to build a model of homogeneous and isotropic universe, but static (unstable). A finite universe would collapse in its center, forming a single spherical mass. But if the matter was distributed in an infinite space, a part of it would collect on a mass, a part on another mass and so on, forming the Sun and the fixed stars. And the universe would be static because, by symmetry, the resultant forces on each star would vanish and there would be no movement. ... But....

$$
\vec{g} = -\nabla \varphi
$$

$$
\varphi = -G \iiint\limits_V \frac{\rho \, dV}{r}
$$

Suppose we remove a ball of matter from an infinite universe. What would be the field in the cavity? If we calculate the potential, this diverges!

If the field within the cavity is equal to zero, reintroducing the matter this collapses due to self-gravity (or the external universe must provide some kind of centrifugal force).

But when we integrate the field due to an infinite number of spherical shells around the cavity we get exactly zero.

At the originof the problem is the fact that Poisson equation $\nabla^2 \varphi = 4 \pi G \varphi$ *does not admit a constant solution*

Idea (Neumann 1896): modify the Newtonian potential

$$
\varphi = -\frac{G m}{r} \quad \to \quad \varphi = -\frac{G m}{r} \cdot e^{-r\sqrt{\lambda}} \quad (\lambda = \text{cost} \approx 0)
$$

Poisson equation becomes:

$$
\nabla^2 \varphi - \lambda \varphi = 4\pi G \rho
$$

which admits the constant solution

$$
\varphi=-\frac{4\pi G\rho}{\lambda}
$$

Einstein will do something similar by introducing the cosmological constant Λ

$$
\nabla^2 \varphi + c^2 \Lambda = 4\pi G \rho
$$

In this form Poisson equation admits the solution $\varphi=0$ *as long as* $c^2 \Lambda = 4\pi G \rho$

14 *But the problems arises from the idea of a static universe, linked to absolute space. If we give up the idea of absolute space, a global, homogeneous contraction of an infinite universe induced by self-gravity could be possible: no star would move preferentially compared to the others.*

 1914: Slipher and others begin to find generally a redshift in the spectra of nebulae.

 1915: Einstein, General Relativity Theory; gravitation is related to the geometry of space and time.

 1917: Einstein builds the first model of the universe, but to get a static model he adds to his equations a term containing the cosmological constant. With the same equations de Sitter proposes a model empty but expanding.

 1922 – 24: Friedmann gets models of the universe in expansion without cosmological constant.

 1924: Hubble,, using Cepheids as distance indicators, states that the Andromeda Nebula is so far that it must be extragalactic.

 1927: Lemaître (independently) gets models for an expanding universe without cosmological constant. He also predicts a linear relationship between speed and distance.

 1929: Hubble announces the discovery of a velocity distance relation for extragalactic nebulae.

v = H ⁰ d *(Hubble's law):* *H0 = 540 km s-1 Mpc-1*

 After Hubble's law was accepted, Einstein considered no more realistic a static universe and abandoned the cosmological constant, considering it the biggest blunder of his life. But ...

… at the end of the second millennium, in our galaxy :

Stellar Parameters

 $R_{\odot} \sim 7 \times 10^{10}$ cm $T_{eQ} \sim 5800 \text{ K}$

Effective Temperature T^e

 $10^{-4} < L/L_{\odot} < 10^{6}$ $0.01 < R/R_{\odot} < 1000$ $1/3$ $\langle T_e/T_e \rangle \ge 20$

Temperature of a black body of radius R having the same luminosity L of the star

Relation among L, R e T^e :

$$
L=4 \pi R^2 \sigma T_e^4
$$

$$
\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-5} \text{ erg s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-4}
$$

The HR diagram

In the L-T^e plane (Hertzsprung-Russel diagram) stars are not randomly distributed

Evoluzion of the Sun (and of stars with $0.08 < M/M_{\odot} < 2$ *)*

20

Planetary Nebulae

Hubble
Heritage

NASA, ESA, and The Hubble Heritage Team (STScl/AURA) • Hubble Space Telescope WFPC2 • S

*Evoluzion of a 5 M*_{\odot} *star*

star 2 < M/M< 10: He \Rightarrow *C*,*O* in core (not degenerate) *C does not turn on Instability - Planetary Nebula C,O core degenerate (White Dwarf)*

 $10 < M/M$ _{\odot} \le ~50: $C \Leftrightarrow \Leftrightarrow \Leftrightarrow \csc{of} F e (-100 \text{ yrs})$ *Core contracts, T , Fe dissociates* $e + p \rightarrow n + \nu_e$ *Collapse stops when* $\rho \sim \rho_{nucl}$ *Shock* + $\nu \Leftrightarrow$ *espulsion of envelope SNII (SNIb/c) Core:* $\cdot M \ll 2 M_{\odot} \Rightarrow NS$ (pulsar) $\cdot M > 2 M_{\odot} \Leftrightarrow BH$

Evolution in time of HR diagram

Supernovae Ia (SNIa)

Are formed in binary stars in which one component is a white dwarf of CO with mass ~ 1.4 M (Chandrasekhar mass). If the mass, by accretion by his partner, exceeds this value \Rightarrow *explosion* \Rightarrow *SNIa*

SNIa are standard candles Visible at very large distance

Cosmic Abundancies

Our galaxy

 open clusters, Pop I

Bulge: old stars, Pop II

Halo: old stars, globular clusters, PopII

$Color:$ $m_B - m_V = M_B - M_V = B - V$ (linked to T_e)

Young, massive stars

HR diagram of nearby stars (Hipparcos satellite)

Galactic disc population also with young stars

~ 10⁵ – 10⁶ old stars- Pop I

Turn-off point : deviation from Main Sequence \Rightarrow age of the cluster

The age of the Universe

Lower limit to the age of the Universe: age of very old objects (plus 0.5-1.0 Gyr to take into account the formation time):

Globular Clusters

From the position of the turn-off point \Rightarrow *age > ~11.5* \pm *1.3Gyr*

White Dwarves

From the cooling time of the coolest white dvarves \Rightarrow *age* (globular cluster *M4*) ~ 12.7 ± 0.7 Gyr

Nuclear Cosmochronology

From the radioactive decay of nuclei with lifetime ~ 10 Gyr $U=U_{0}\;exp(-t/\tau)$ $^{232}Th \rightarrow ^{208}Pb (\tau = 20.27 \text{ Gyr})$ $^{238}U \rightarrow ^{206}Pb (\tau = 6.45 \text{ Gyr})$ *From the comparison between theoretical and observed values of the ratios between unstable and stable elements* \Rightarrow *age (Cayrel star)* 14.0 \pm *2.4 Gyr*

The Large Scale Structure of the Universe

Galaxies are not randomly distributed in space, but they tend to cluster into:

The distribution of galaxies on the celestial sphere

We do not see the third dimension, but already you can see filaments, voids, clumps of galaxies.

To know the true spatial distribution we need the third dimension: the redshift z, from which:

 $z = (\lambda_{obs} - \lambda_{em})/\lambda_{em}$

 $V=c \, z$

 $D = V/H_0 = c \, z/H_0$

The 3D distribution of galaxies

Since the 70s : extended redshift surveys \Rightarrow *3-D samples of galaxies*

"Slices" of the Universe from:

- *CfA1, CfA2 (~15000 gal., B limit 15.5 mag, cz<7000 km/s)* • *SSRS, SSRS2 ~5000 gal.,*
- *B^j limit 15.5 mag*
	- •*Fingers of God*
	- *Great wall*
- *Voids (5000 - 10000 km/s)* **COMA**

Voids This confirms the impression of 2D maps: the galaxies are distributed to form a kind of "cosmic foam" or cosmic web, with empty bubbles and galaxies along the walls

Dark matter in galaxies

velocity, v

radius, r

Mass within r: $M(r) = v^2 r / G$ Density $\sim 1/r^2$

The luminous mass (stars) is only a small fraction of the total mass of galaxies

Dark matter in galaxy clusters

From the dynamics of galaxy clusters (virial theorem, 2K+U=0), from the X-ray emission by the hot intracluster medium, and from the "gravitazional lensing":

> *the luminous mass is mach less than the total mass*

> > 38

GRAVITATIONAL LENSING:

star-forming blue galaxy near the edge of the visible universe.

BLUE GALAXY

> Light path..

What is Dark Matter made of?

The mean density of the Universe

Homogeneou Universe with density ρ_u

A galaxy on the sphere containing the mass $M=4/3 \pi \rho_{\mu} R^3$ *Will have a velocity sufficient to continue expansion if its velocity* $V (=H_0 R)$ *is larger than the escape velocity V^f*

 $\frac{1}{2}$ *m* $V_f^2 = G M m/R \Rightarrow V_f^2 = 2 G M/R$

$$
H_0^2 R^2 \ge \frac{2G}{R} \cdot \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho_u R^3 \Rightarrow \rho_u \le \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G} = \rho_{cr}
$$

$$
\rho_{cr} \cong 2 \cdot 10^{-29} g \ cm^{-3}
$$

cr : critical density of the Universe

 $\rho_{u} \equiv \Omega \rho_{cr}$

Density parameter

From observations: $0.1 < \Omega < 1$

The mass of the Universe

(We mean: the mass of the Universe accessible to observations)

Within the sphere whose surface expands at the speed of light c:
\n
$$
c = H_0 R_H \Rightarrow R_H = c/H_0 \quad (R_H: \text{ Hubble radius})
$$
\n
$$
R_H \approx 3000 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ Mpc} \sim 10^{28} \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ cm}
$$
\n
$$
M_u \approx \frac{4\pi}{3} R_H^3 \Omega \rho_{cr} = \frac{4\pi}{3} \cdot \frac{c^3}{H_0^3} \cdot \Omega \cdot \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G} \approx \frac{\Omega}{2} \cdot \frac{c^3}{H_0 G}
$$
\nFrom $V = H_0 R \Rightarrow R/V = 1/H_0 \sim t_u$ age of the Universe
\n
$$
H_0 = 100 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \sim 3 \times 10^{-18} \text{ s}^{-1} \Rightarrow t_u \sim 10^{10} \text{ anni}
$$
\n
$$
M_u \approx \frac{\Omega}{2} \cdot \frac{c^3}{H_0 G} \approx \frac{\Omega}{2} \cdot \frac{c^3}{G} \cdot t_u \approx \Omega \cdot 10^{56} g \approx \Omega \cdot 10^5 \left(\frac{t_u}{1 s}\right) M_{\odot}
$$
\n
$$
0.1 < \Omega < 1 \Rightarrow M_u \sim 10^{22} M_{\odot}
$$
\n
$$
M_{gal} \sim 10^{11} M_{\odot} \Rightarrow M_u \sim 10^{11} M_{gal}
$$

The mass of the Universe must be "great" because the age of the Universe must be such as to allow the existence of physicists, made of C, N, O.

These elements are produced in stars in different generations and require times of the order of a few billion years.

This is an aspect of the so-called (weak) Anthropic principle : "The observed values of all physical and cosmological quantities are not equally probable, but can assume only values that satisfy the demand that there are places where carbon-based life can evolve and that the universe is old enough to allow that this already happened".

(J.D. Barrow & F.J. Tipler, **The Antropic Cosmological Principle)** *"strong" version: "The Universe must have properties that allow life to develop during its history"*

The nearby Universe

Video downloadable from:

http://www.ifa.hawaii.edu/~tully/outreach/movie.html

Thanks to its progress, Cosmology allowed man to ask new questions about the Universe

COSMOLOGY MARCHES ON

Cosmology as seen by Snoopy

