

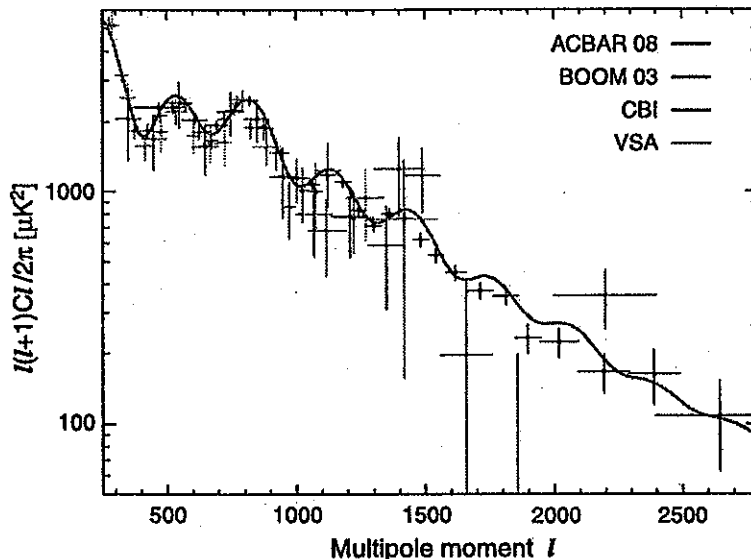
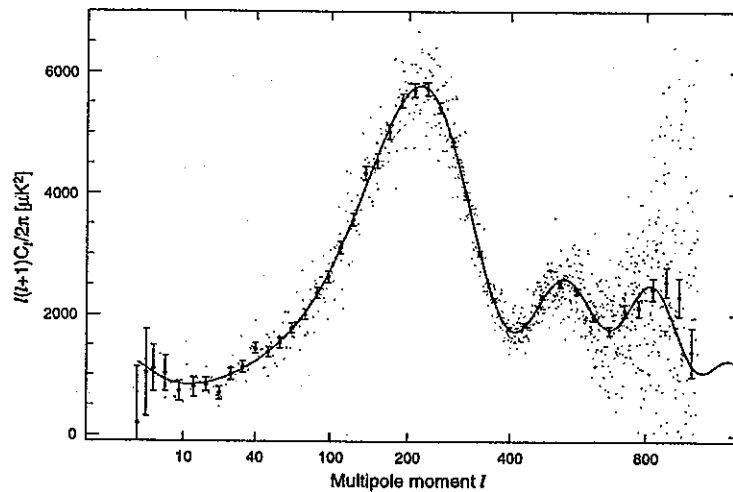
Cume 353: Cosmology

Passing grade for the cume is 70 points.

- **20pt** Attached two plots on Page 1 show angular power spectrum of fluctuations in the temperature $\Delta T/T$ of the microwave background radiation. The spectrum can be split into three domains corresponding to different physical processes operating in those domains: (a) Large angles and low multipoles $l < 100$, (b) intermediate multipoles $l = 100 - 1000$, and very small scales with $l > 1000$. What is the physical mechanism, that defines the amplitude of fluctuations $\Delta T/T$ in each of those domains?

The plot on Page 2 shows the power spectrum of density fluctuations in the Universe $P(k)$. The full curve is the LCDM theory and different symbols are observations. The plot is for redshift $z = 0$

- **20pt** Note that the axes have funny units. The comoving wave number k is in units of h/Mpc and the power spectrum is in units of $(h^{-1}\text{Mpc})^{-3}$. Masses are typically presented in units of mass $h^{-1}M_{\odot}$. Here h is the Hubble constant in units of 100 km/s/Mpc . Explain why each of the measured quantities of $P(k)$, mass, and wavenumbers scale with the Hubble constant in this way.
- **10pt** Assuming that the fluctuations are still in the linear regime, how should the power spectrum $P(k)$ look at redshift $z = 10$? Assume that at that redshift the growth-rate function of the amplitude of linear perturbations δ is $1/10$ of its present-day value.
- **20pt** On a related issue: the amplitude of perturbation defines the epoch of formation of different astronomical objects. Suppose we have three cosmological models which are normalized in such a way that all of them predict the same abundance of clusters of galaxies at $z = 0$. Also assume that all the models have the same density of dark matter. The models are: (a) the flat universe dominated by dark matter (no cosmological constant or dark energy), (b) the LCDM model: flat cosmology with some mixture of the cosmological constant and dark matter, and (c) the open universe with no cosmological constant. Which models predicts more clusters of galaxies at redshift $z = 3$? Explain your answer.
- **30pt** Position of the peak in the spectrum of fluctuations corresponds to the distance to the horizon at the moment of equality. Find the redshift of the moment of equality assuming the following parameters of the Universe at $z = 0$: $\Omega_{\text{matter}} = 0.3$, $\Omega_{\text{relativistic}} = 10^{-5}$, $h = 0.70$. Here $\Omega_{\text{relativistic}}$ is total contribution of radiation and neutrinos to the density of the Universe.

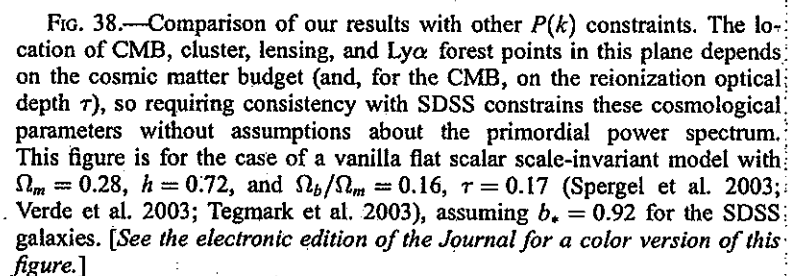


is found to be consistent with the effects of noise, tested with simulations. We also confirm that the effect on parameters is even less for Λ CDM models using *WMAP* with external data, and that the choice of mask has only a small effect on the tensor amplitude, raising the 95% confidence level by $\sim 5\%$.

Finally, we test the effect on parameters of varying aspects of the low- ℓ TT treatment. These are discussed in Appendix B, and in summary we find the same parameter results for the pixel-based likelihood code compared to the Gibbs code, when both use $\ell \leq 32$. Changing the mask at low- ℓ to KQ80, or using the Gibbs code up to $\ell \leq 51$, instead of $\ell \leq 32$, has a negligible effect on parameters.

3.2. Consistency of the Λ CDM Model with Other Datasets

SDSS results in a larger context, Figure 38 with other measurements of the matter power



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APPENDIX

97. MODELS AND NOTATION

This book deals with departures from an ideal homogeneous and isotropic Friedmann-Lemaître cosmological model. The homogeneity and isotropy of the background model imply that all physical variables can be expressed as functions of the proper cosmic time t kept by an observer at rest in a patch of fluid, the standard convention being that $t = 0$ at the singular epoch of the big bang. The proper distance between two chosen particles in the model, reckoned along a hypersurface of fixed t , must scale with time as

$$r(t) = a(t)x, \quad (97.1)$$

where x is a constant for the pair and $a(t)$ is the universal expansion parameter. The wavelength of a free photon stretches with other lengths as $a(t)$, so the wavelength λ_0 observed now, epoch t_0 , of radiation emitted at epoch t at wavelength λ by an object comoving with the fluid is

$$\lambda_0 = \lambda a(t_0)/a(t) = \lambda(1 + Z), \quad (97.2)$$

where Z is the cosmological redshift. The redshift often is used as a label of an epoch.

The rate of increase of proper separation of a pair of particles in the model is

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} r = H(t)r. \quad (97.3)$$

The dot means the derivative of a with respect to cosmic time. $H(t)$ is Hubble's constant at epoch t : the present value is written as

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &= 100 h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}, \\ H_0^{-1} &\sim 3 \times 10^{17} h^{-1} \text{ s} \sim 1 \times 10^{10} h^{-1} \text{ y}. \end{aligned} \quad (97.4)$$

The dimensionless parameter h reflects the uncertainty in this important quantity. It is generally thought to be in the range

$$0.5 \leq h \leq 1. \quad (97.5)$$

Equation (97.3) gives the redshift of an object at proper distance $r \ll cH_0^{-1}$:

$$Z \approx H_0 r / c. \quad (97.6)$$

This is a good approximation at $Z \ll 1$. A convenient measure of the distance to the horizon is the Hubble length

$$r_H = cH_0^{-1} = 3000 h^{-1} \text{ Mpc}. \quad (97.7)$$

This is about the distance free radiation has travelled since the big bang.

The evolution of the model is determined by the dynamic equation (eq. 7.13)

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4}{3} \pi G (\rho_b + 3p_b/c^2) + \Lambda/3, \quad (97.8)$$

with the energy equation

$$d\rho_b/dt = -3(\rho_b + p_b/c^2) \dot{a}/a. \quad (97.9)$$

The mass density is ρ , the pressure is p , and the subscripts refer to the background model.

Equations (97.8) and (97.9) can be integrated once:

$$\frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{8}{3} \pi G \rho_b + \frac{\Lambda}{3} - \frac{R^{-2}}{a^2}. \quad (97.10)$$

The constant of integration R^{-2} appears in the expression for the line element,

$$ds^2 = g_{ij} dx^i dx^j = c^2 dt^2 - \frac{a^2 dx^2}{1 - x^2/R^2 c^2} - a^2 x^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2). \quad (97.11)$$

The coordinates x, θ, ϕ are comoving, fixed to fluid elements. To simplify equations, I have given R units of time rather than length. The proper radius of curvature of the hypersurface $t = \text{constant}$ is $a|R|c$. In a closed

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 - (a) $l < 100$: fluctuations in the gravitational potential at the surface of last scattering and the gravitational redshift. Photons, that move from low grav.potential lose energy and, thus, make slightly colder spots on the sky. Photons from high grav.potential make positive ΔT .
 - (b) $l = 100 - 1000$: The Doppler shift due to velocities in acoustic oscillations: $\Delta\nu/\nu = \Delta V/c$.
 - (c) $l > 1000$: Acoustic peaks are damped by a combination of the Silk effect (diffusion of photons) and effects of finite thickness of the recombination.

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- **20pt** Note that the axes have funny units. The comoving wave number k is in units of h/Mpc and the power spectrum is in units of $(h^{-1}\text{Mpc})^{-3}$. Masses are typically presented in units of mass $h^{-1}M_{\odot}$. Here h is the Hubble constant in units of 100 km/s/Mpc . Explain why each of the measured quantities of $P(k)$, mass, and wavenumbers scale with the Hubble constant in this way.

Answer: This is all about measuring distances using the Hubble flow: $V = Hr$. The recession velocity is measured observationally, and it does depend on H . We then get the distance $R = V/H \propto h^{-1}$. If mass of an astronomical object is measured dynamically, it scales as $M \propto v^2 R/G$, where v is a measure of random velocities in the object and R is its radius. Then v is measured observationally (e.g., los velocities in groups of galaxies, or temperature of gas in clusters of galaxies). Then, $M \propto R \propto h^{-1}$. Wavenumber is $k = 2\pi/\lambda \propto h$. The power spectrum $P(k)$ is defined in units of inverse volume. Thus, the scaling is $P \propto h^3$

- **10pt** Assuming that the fluctuations are still in the linear regime, how should the power spectrum $P(k)$ look at redshift $z = 10$? Assume that at that redshift the growth-rate function of the amplitude of linear perturbations δ is 1/10 of its present-day value.

Answer: In the linear regime all waves grow with the same rate: $P(k, z) = \delta^2 P(k, z = 0)$

- **20pt** On a related issue: the amplitude of perturbation defines the epoch of formation of different astronomical objects. Suppose we have three cosmological models which are normalized in such a way that all of them predict the same abundance of clusters of galaxies at $z = 0$. Also assume that all the models have the same density of dark matter. The models are: (a) the flat universe dominated by dark matter (no cosmological constant or dark energy), (b) the LCDM model: flat cosmology with some mixture of the cosmological constant and dark matter, and (c) the open universe with no cosmological constant. Which models predicts more clusters of galaxies at redshift $z = 3$? Explain your answer.

Answer: The number-density of clusters of galaxies depends on the amplitude of perturbations on cluster scales: the larger the amplitude, the larger is the number of clusters to form. Thus, the model, which predicts the largest amplitude of perturbations, is the model with more clusters. In turn, the growth-rate of perturbations $\delta(a)$ depends on the density of matter $\Omega_{\text{matter}}(a)$, where $a = 1/(1+z)$ is the expansion parameter. For the plain-vanilla cosmological model (a) $\delta(a) \propto a$. This is the fastest growth possible. In the LCDM the fraction of mass in matter was declining with time resulting in slowing down the growth of perturbations. Effect is even stronger for the open model. Once all of them are normalized to the same amplitude of perturbations at $z = 0$, the open model will have the largest Ω_{matter} at $z = 3$, the largest amplitude of perturbations, and, thus, the largest abundance of clusters of galaxies.

- **30pt** Position of the peak in the spectrum of fluctuations corresponds to the distance to the horizon at the moment of equality. Find the redshift of the moment of equality assuming the following parameters of the Universe at $z = 0$: $\Omega_{\text{matter}} = 0.3$, $\Omega_{\text{relativistic}} = 10^{-5}$, $h = 0.70$. Here $\Omega_{\text{relativistic}}$ is total contribution of radiation and neutrinos to the density of the Universe.

Answer: The moment of equality is the time when the density of the non-relativistic matter (dark matter plus baryons) is equal to the density of relativistic particles: $\rho_{\text{dm+baryons}} = \rho_{\gamma+\text{neutrinos}}$. The density of normal matter changes with the expansion parameter as $\rho_{\text{matter}}(a) = \rho_{0,\text{matter}}/a^3$ (mass in a comoving volume is preserved). For the relativistic particles there is another effect: energy of each particle (photon or neutrino) declines as $E = h\nu \propto a^{-1}$. Thus, $\rho_{\text{rmrelativistic}}(a) = \rho_0/a^4$. Densities at present are $\rho_{\text{whatever}} = \Omega_{\text{whatever}}\rho_{\text{crit}}$.

Equate $\rho_{\text{dm+baryons}}(a) = \rho_{\gamma+\text{neutrinos}}(a)$ and get the moment of equality:

$$a_{\text{eq}} = \Omega_{\text{relativistic},0}/\Omega_{\text{matter},0} = 3.3 \times 10^{-5}. \quad (1)$$

Then, $(1+z)_{\text{eq}} = 1/a_{\text{eq}} = 30000$.

KLYPIN SOLUTION

(a) $dF_G = F_G$ (there is no "d" in this)

$$\vec{F}_G = - \frac{GM(r)dm}{r^3} \vec{r}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dU}{dm} &= - \frac{GM(r)}{r} - \int_r^\infty \frac{4\pi G \rho(y) y^2 dy}{y} \\ &= - \frac{GM(r)}{r} - \int_r^\infty \frac{G dm}{y} \end{aligned}$$

(b) In general,
+ (d)

$$U = + \frac{1}{2} \int \rho U dV = \frac{1}{2} \int U dm$$

For a spherical system:

$$U = + \int_0^R 4\pi \rho(r) r^2 dr \cdot \left[- \frac{GM(r)}{r} - \int_r^\infty \frac{4\pi G \rho(y) y^2 dy}{y} \right]$$

For constant-density

$$\rho(r) = \text{const} = \rho_0 = \frac{3M}{4\pi R^3}$$

$$\int_r^\infty 4\pi G \rho(y) y dy = 4\pi G \rho_0 \left(\frac{R^2}{2} - \frac{r^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\frac{GM(r)}{r} = \frac{4\pi G \rho_0 r^2}{3}$$

$$U = - \frac{(4\pi \rho_0)^2 G}{2} \int_0^R r^2 dr \left\{ \frac{R^2}{2} - \frac{r^2}{6} \right\} = - \frac{(4\pi \rho_0)^2 G R^5 \cdot 2}{2 \cdot 3.5}$$

Thus,

$$U = - \frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$