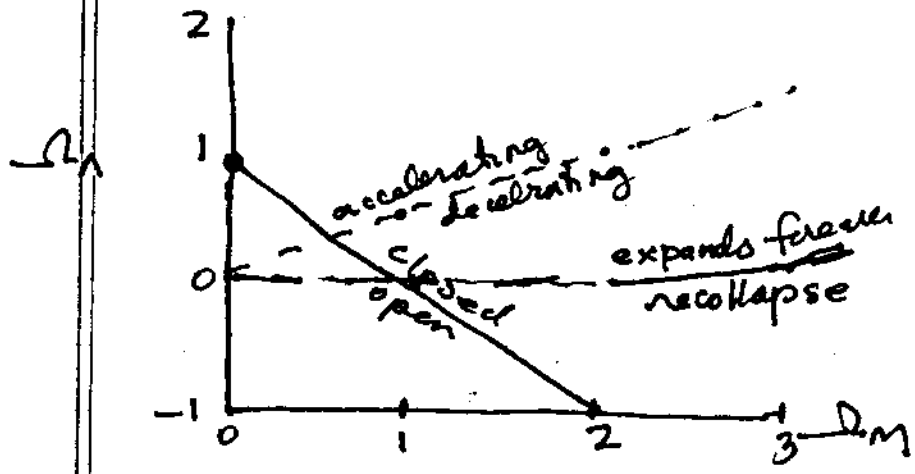


Add comments about previous week's lectures 54

c1)

Ω_K vs Ω_M diagram



- $\Omega_K = 0$
 $\Omega_M > 0$: recollapse
 $\Omega_M \leq 0$: expand forever
- $\Omega_K \neq 0$: changes everything

We discussed two boundary lines

- (A) $\Omega_K = 1 - \Omega_M$: closed versus open
- (B) $\Omega_K = \frac{1}{2} \Omega_M$: decelerating versus accelerating

But \exists a third line between models that expand forever and models that expand to a max and then recollapse.

Straight forward way to check for this is to determine whether $\ddot{a} = 0$ at finite time or finite $x = a(t)/a_0$

Recall:
$$\frac{1}{H_0} \left(\frac{1}{a} \frac{da}{dt} \right) = \frac{H(t)}{H_0} = \sqrt{\Omega_K + \frac{\Omega_M}{x^3} + \frac{\Omega_\Lambda}{x^4} + \frac{(1 - \Omega_M - \Omega_\Lambda - \Omega_K)}{x^2}}$$

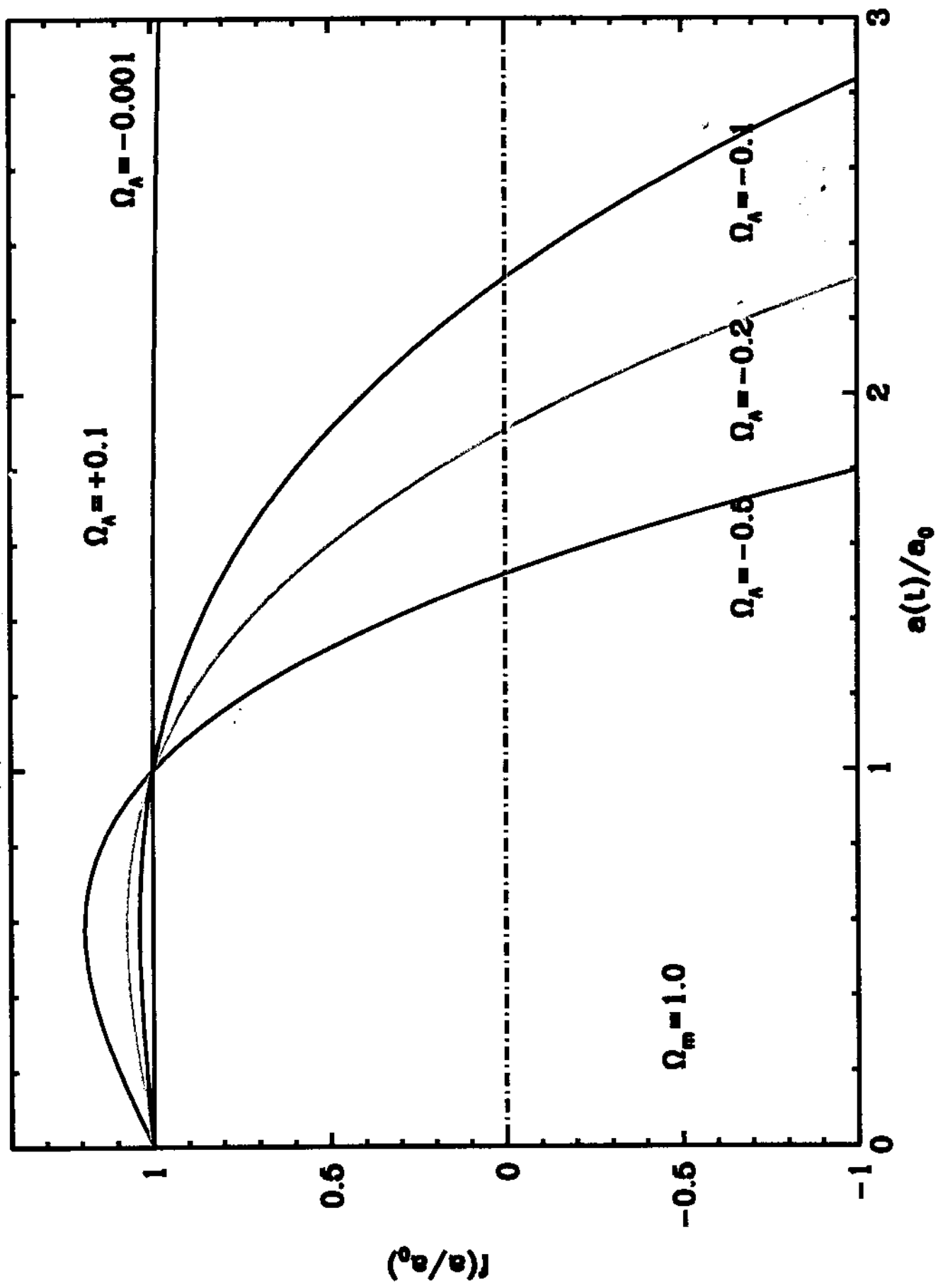
where $x = a(t)/a_0$ and $\Omega_K = 1 - \Omega_M - \Omega_\Lambda - \Omega_\Lambda$

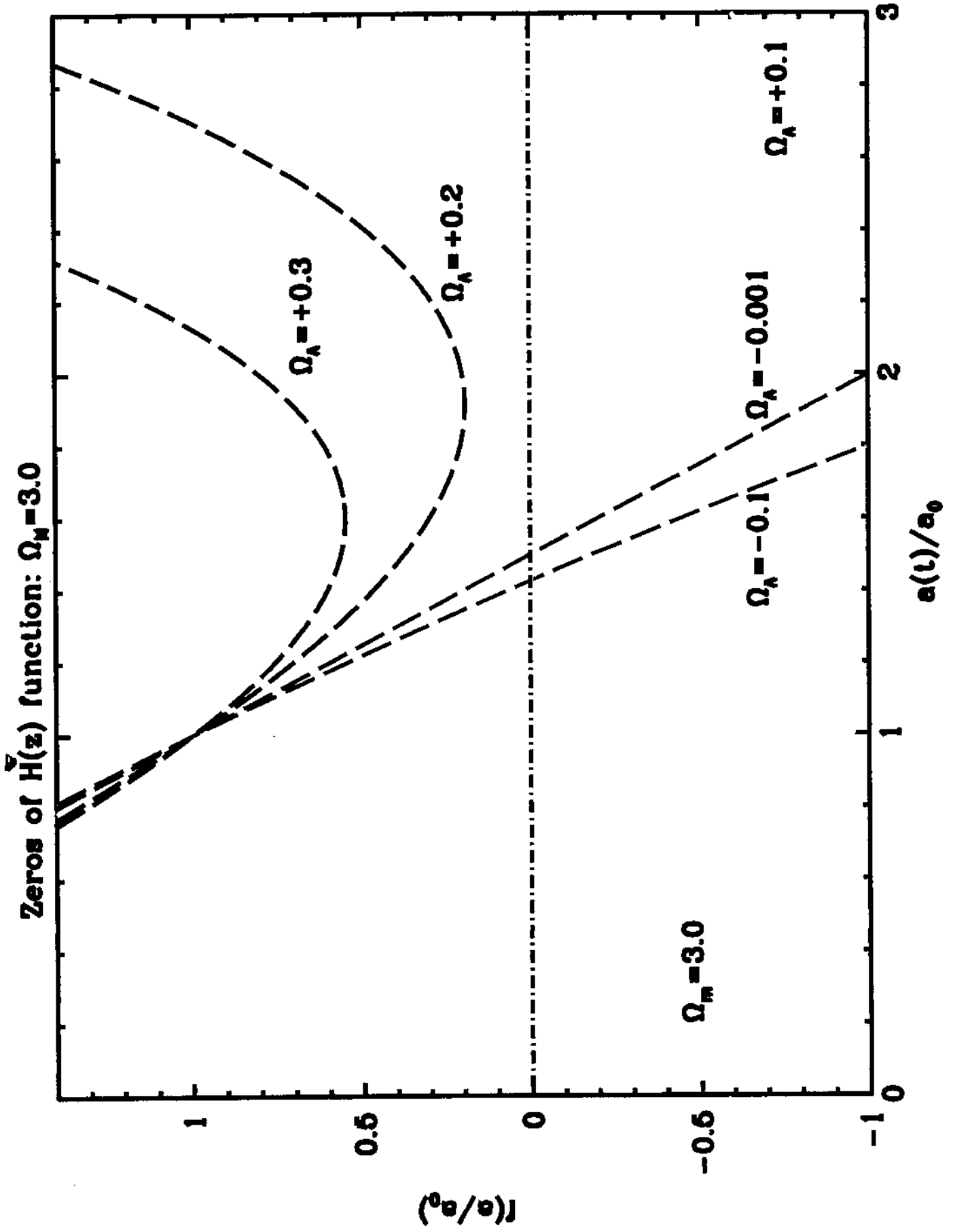
Figure shows example

Conclude:

- (1) As Ω_M increases, ^{cor} recollapse locus with increasing Ω_K . But rule of thumb $\Omega_K > 0 \Rightarrow$ forever
- (2) If $\Omega_K = 0$, recollapse if $\Omega_M > 1$, closed

Zeros of $H(z)$ function





Correction to flatness discussion.

Recall from eq. (13):

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \left(\frac{H_0}{H(t)}\right)^2 \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^2 (\Omega - 1)$$

$$H(t)^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} - \frac{c^2 k}{a^2} \quad \text{or as we saw.}$$

$$\left(\frac{H(t)}{H_0}\right)^2 = \Omega_n + \Omega_m (1+z)^3 + \Omega_r (1+z)^4 + (1 - \Omega_n - \Omega_m)(1+z)^2$$

at earliest times $\Omega_r (1+z)^4$ dominates, but this term is negligible today!

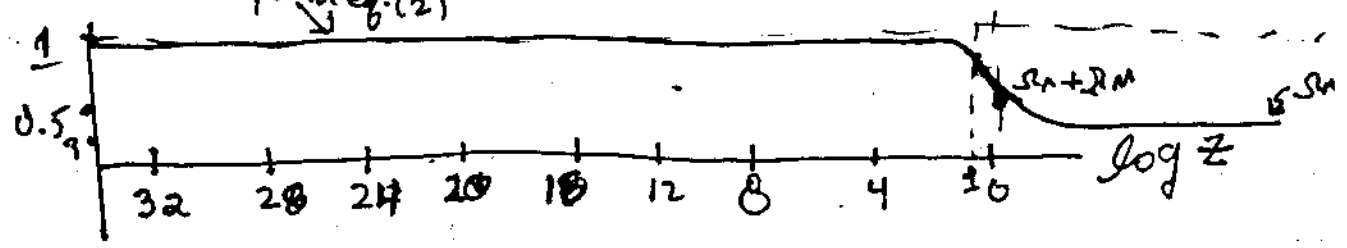
For convenience ~~let~~ let's assume $\Omega_n = .2, \Omega_m = .3$

Recall $\Omega_r = 2.4 \times 10^{-5} R^{-2} \Rightarrow \Omega = .5$

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{c(1+z)^2 (\Omega - 1)}{\Omega_n + \Omega_m (1+z)^3 + \Omega_r (1+z)^4 + (1 - \Omega_n - \Omega_m)(1+z)^2}$$

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{\Omega - 1}{\frac{\Omega_n}{(1+z)^2} + \Omega_m (1+z) + \Omega_r (1+z)^2 + (1 - \Omega_n - \Omega_m)} \quad (2)$$

lim $\Omega(t_p) - 1 = \frac{\Omega - 1}{\Omega_r (1+z)^2} = \frac{4.1 \times 10^4 a^2}{c(1+z)^2} (\Omega - 1)$ (worked out last week)
 $z \rightarrow \infty$
 from eq. (2)



Only recently did $\Omega(t)$ deviate from unit. In the future Ω term dominates as $\lim_{\frac{a_0}{a} \rightarrow \infty} \Omega = \Omega_m = 3$

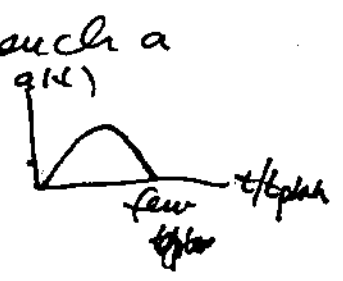
Finally, suppose $\Omega(t_{plank}) = 1.1$

Recall $(1+z_p) \approx 3 \times 10^{31}$

$$\Omega(t_{plank}) - 1 = \frac{4.07 \times 10^4 a^2}{(1+z_{plank})^2} (\Omega - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Omega - 1 = \frac{\Omega(t_{plank}) - 1}{4.07 \times 10^4 a^2} \approx \frac{2 \times 10^{57}}{a^2}$$

Price to pay is enormous: lifetime of such a Universe would be \approx few \times t_{plank} . Only last about $\approx 10^{-42}$ seconds!.



Let's go back to lightlike geodesics: We need to compute them to determine observationally relevant distances, which involve measurements along our past lightcone

Geometry: FRW Metric Again

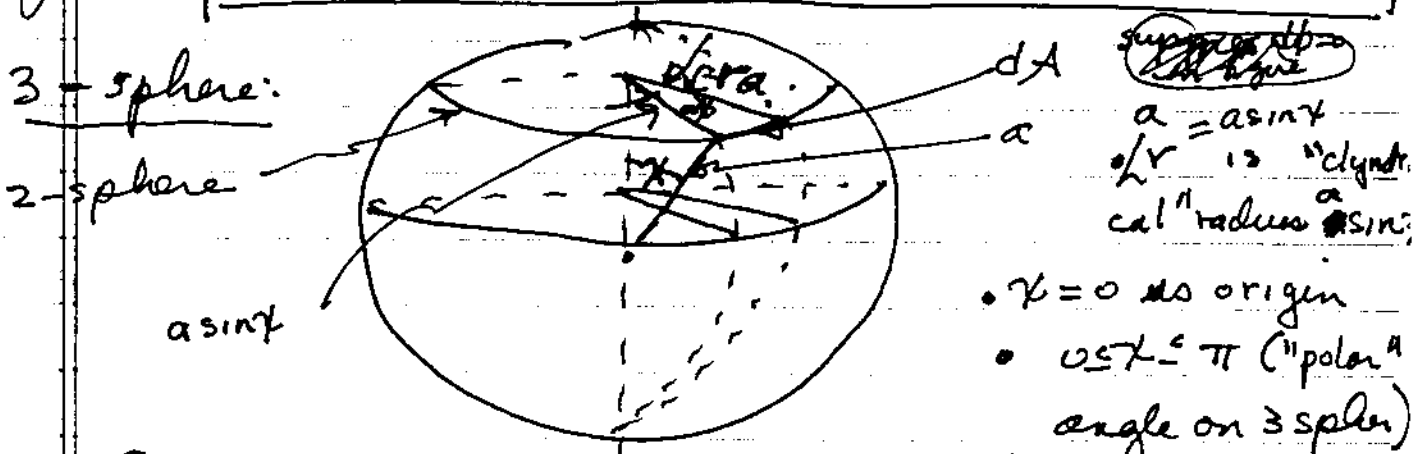
$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2(t) dl^2; dl^2 = a^2 \left[\frac{dr^2}{1-kr^2} + r^2 d\Omega \right]$$

Closed Geometry: $k=+1$

Spatial part of metric: $dl^2 = a^2 \left[\frac{dr^2}{1-r^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2) \right]$

Introduce "polar angle" variable γ such that $r = \sin \gamma$; $dr = \cos \gamma d\gamma$; $1-r^2 = \cos^2 \gamma$

Therefore: $dl^2 = a^2(t) [d\gamma^2 + \sin^2 \gamma (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)]$



- Consider two longitudes separated by $d\phi$ (Figure suppresses θ)

proper area: $dA = r^2 d\Omega = a^2 \sin^2 \gamma \sin \theta d\phi d\theta$

Integrate over 4π sterad $A = 4\pi a^2 \sin^2 \gamma$

Flat Geometry: $K=0$

$$dl^2 = a^2 [dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2)]$$

Let $r = \chi$

Obviously $A = 4\pi a^2 \chi^2$
 $\therefore 0 \leq \chi \leq \infty$

Open Geometry: $K=-1$

$$dl^2 = a^2 \left[\frac{dr^2}{1+r^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

Let $r = \sinh(\chi)$; $dr = \cosh(\chi)$

On this case $dl^2 = a^2 [d\chi^2 + \sinh^2(\chi) (d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2)]$

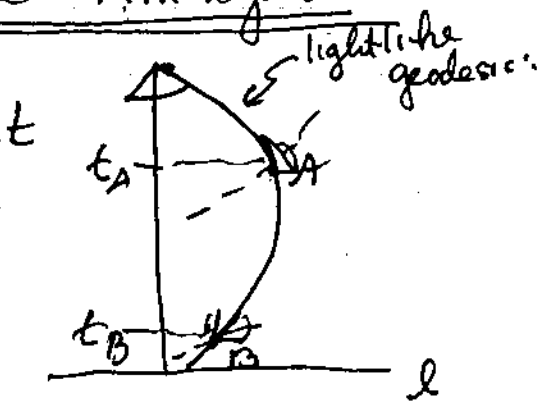
$$A(\chi) = 4\pi a^2 \sinh^2 \chi$$

Summarize : $ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2 [d\chi^2 + F^2(\chi) d\Omega^2]$

K	$F(\chi)$	$A(\chi)$	Range
+1	$\sin \chi$	$4\pi a^2 \sin^2 \chi$	$0 \leq \chi \leq \pi$
0	χ	$4\pi a^2 \chi^2$	$0 \leq \chi \leq \infty$
-1	$\sinh \chi$	$4\pi a^2 \sinh^2 \chi$	$0 \leq \chi \leq \infty$

$$dl^2 = a^2 [d\chi^2 + F^2(\chi) (d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2)]$$

Distance: Ambiguities



Although t_B is further back in time, its proper radial distance is smaller than proper distance to A .

$$dl = a d\chi \Rightarrow l(t) = a(t) \chi \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{proper distance} \\ \text{at } t \end{array} \right.$$

But we cannot measure $l(t)$. Instead
let's use empirical measures of distance!

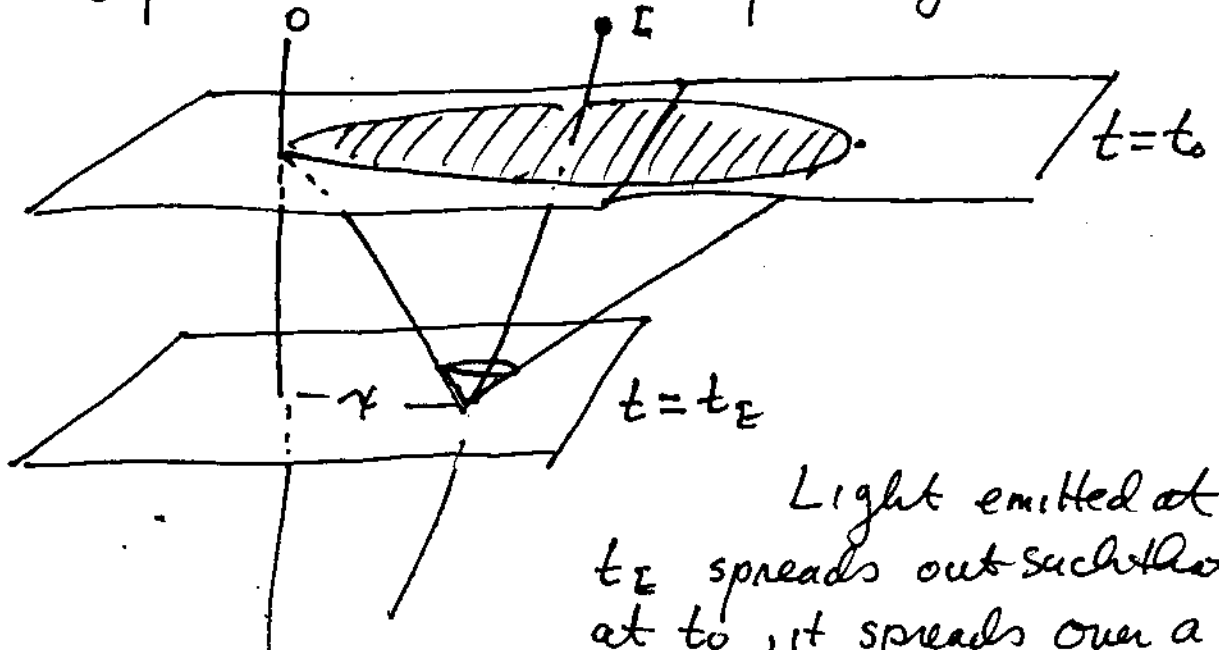
Luminosity distance.

Photon emitted at $t_E(z)$ with frequency ν
detected at $t_0 = t(z=0)$ with frequency ν_0 .

$$\text{Flux} = S_{\text{rad}} \nu_0 = \frac{L_{\text{rad}} d\nu}{4\pi d_L^2} : \text{defines } d_L$$

Photons emitted at $\nu, \nu + d\nu$ detected
at $\nu_0, \nu_0 + d\nu_0$

Assume photons emitted isotropically:



Light emitted at
 t_E spreads out such that
at t_0 , it spreads over a

2-sphere with area $A = 4\pi a_0^2 F^2(\chi)$
where χ is comoving radial coordinate
of emitter E.

As a result: $S_{\nu_0} d\nu_0 = \frac{L_{\nu} d\nu}{4\pi (a_0 F(\gamma))^2} \times \frac{1}{(1+z)^2}$

Extra $(1+z)^{-2}$ arises because

- (a) Photon energy received less than emitted: $h\nu_0 = h\nu_e / (1+z)$
- (b) Arrival time interval gets stretched: $dt_0 = (1+z) dt_e$

Definition of flux: Flux = $\frac{\# \text{ photons detected} \times \text{photon energy}}{\text{Area} \cdot \text{time interval}}$

$S_{\nu_0} d\nu_0 = \frac{\Delta N \cdot h\nu_0}{\text{Area} \cdot dt_0} = \frac{\Delta N \cdot h\nu (1+z)^{-1}}{\text{Area} \cdot (1+z) dt_e}$

$\Delta N = \# \text{ photons emitted in } (\nu_1, \nu_1 + d\nu) = \# \text{ photons detected in } (\nu_0, \nu_0 + d\nu_0)$

$S_{\nu_0} d\nu_0 = \left[\frac{\Delta N \cdot h\nu}{dt_e} \right] \times \frac{1}{\text{Area} \cdot (1+z)^2}$

$S_{\nu_0} d\nu_0 = \frac{L_{\nu} d\nu}{\text{Area} \times (1+z)^2} = \frac{L_{\nu} d\nu}{4\pi (a_0 F(\gamma))^2 (1+z)^2}$

$d_L = a_0 F(\gamma) (1+z)$ defines luminosity distance.

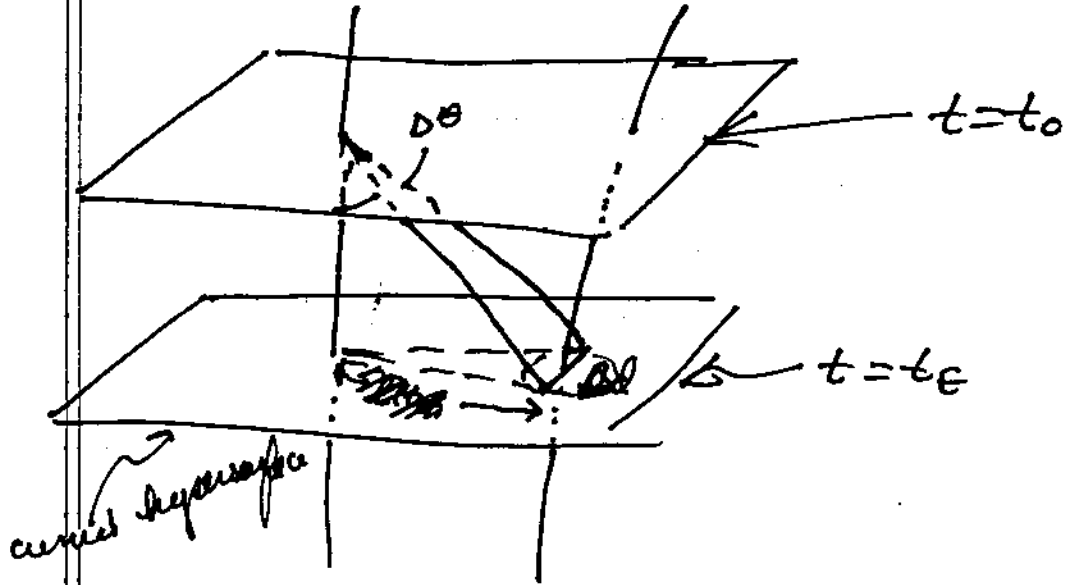
$S_{\nu_0} d\nu_0 = \frac{L_{\nu} d\nu}{4\pi d_L^2} \Rightarrow S_{\nu_0} = \frac{(1+z) L_{\nu}}{4\pi d_L^2}$

Distance by apparent size or angular diameter distance

Suppose we have independent determination of the linear size of some distant object.

- Could be size of galaxy -
- "Sound" horizon.

Let $d_A = \frac{D}{\Delta\theta}$ where $\Delta\theta = \text{angular size!}$



Consider two light like geodesics ~~separated~~

- detected at $t=t_0$
- separated by $\Delta\theta$, but $\Delta\phi=0$
- Source has proper linear diameter Δd at fixed comoving coordinate r

$$\Delta d = \frac{a(t_1)}{F(r)} \Delta\theta$$

Clearly $\Delta d = a(t_1) \times F(r) \cdot \Delta\theta$ or ~~$\Delta d = a(t_1) \times F(r) \cdot \Delta\theta$~~

As a result:

$$d_A = \frac{\Delta d}{\Delta\theta} = a(t_1) F(r)$$

or
$$d_A = \frac{a(t_1)}{a(t_0)} \times a(t_0) F(r)$$

$$d_A = \frac{a(t_0) F(r)}{(1+z)}$$

Comparison with definition of d_L shows that $d_L = (1+z)^2 d_A$

But to get either ~~proper~~ distance as a function of z we need to integrate radial lightlike geodesics along our

past light-cone

Simple case for the Einstein-de Sitter Universe

$\Lambda = 0, \Omega_\Lambda = 0, \Omega_M = 1$ (Ignore Ω_R)

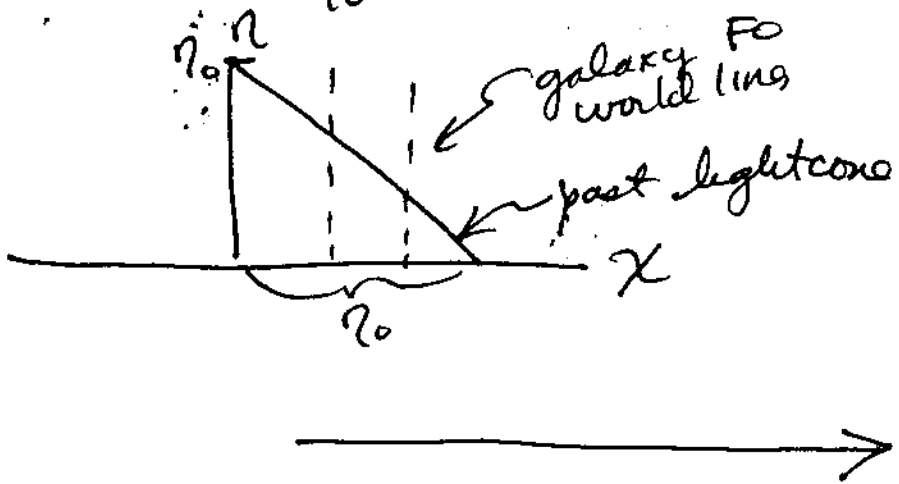
Radial
Light-like
Geodesics

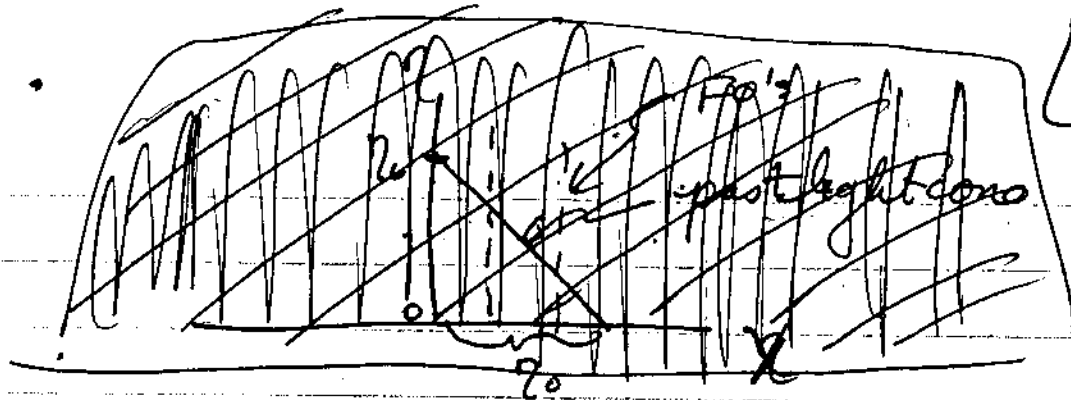
Recall $ds=0 \Rightarrow d\chi = -\frac{cdt}{a(t)}$: incoming

Define conformal time: $d\eta \equiv \frac{dt}{a(t)}$

As a result.. incoming radial photons ~~$dt = -d\eta$~~

$\int_0^\chi d\chi = -\int_{\eta_0}^\eta d\eta' = \eta_0 - \eta \Rightarrow \chi(\eta) = \eta_0 - \eta$





Ex 163

Einstein-de Sitter Model ($\Omega_m=1, \Omega_r=0, \Omega_\Lambda=0$)

Recall $a(t) = a_0 (t/t_0)^{2/3}$; $t_0 = \frac{2}{3} H_0^{-1}$

$$\chi(t) = -c \int_{t_0}^{t(z)} \frac{dt}{a_0} \frac{t_0^{2/3}}{t^{4/3}} = -\frac{c t_0^{2/3}}{a_0} \left[\frac{t^{1/3}}{1/3} \right]_{t_0}^{t(z)}$$

$$\chi(t) = -\frac{3 t_0^{2/3}}{a_0} [t^{1/3} - t_0^{1/3}] = \frac{c t_0}{a_0} \left[1 - \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{1/3} \right]$$

But $\left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{3/2} = \frac{1}{(1+z)^{1/2}}$

As a result: $\chi(t) = 3 \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{c}{H_0}\right) \left(\frac{1}{a_0}\right) \left[1 - \frac{1}{(1+z)^{1/2}} \right]$

$$\chi(z) = 2 \left(\frac{c}{H_0}\right) \left(\frac{1}{a_0}\right) \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1/2} \right]$$

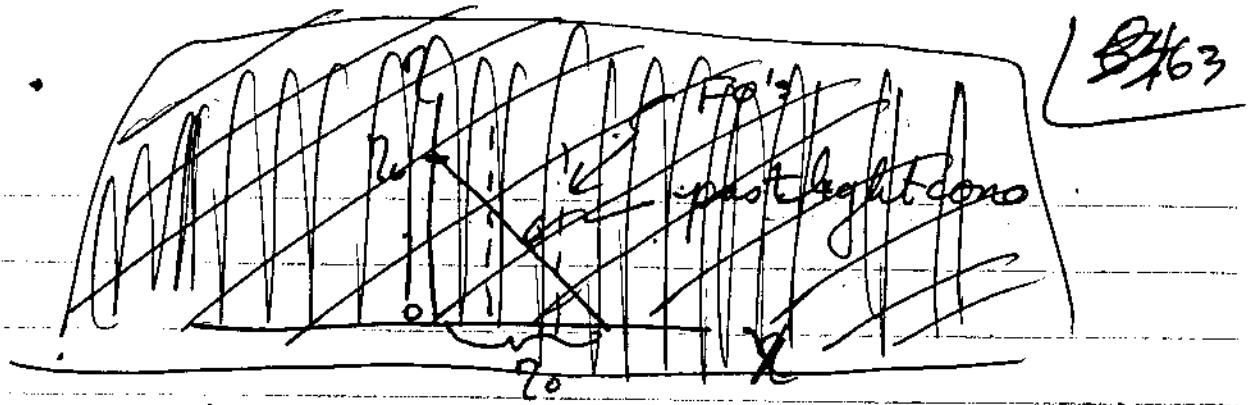
Distance by apparent size:

$$d_A = a(t(z)) \chi(z) = \frac{a_0}{(1+z)} \times \chi(z)$$

Therefore ~~$d_A = a(t(z)) \chi(z)$~~

$$d_A = \frac{a_0}{(1+z)} \times 2 \left(\frac{c}{H_0}\right) \left(\frac{1}{a_0}\right) \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1/2} \right]$$

$$d_A = 2 \left(\frac{c}{H_0}\right) (1+z)^{-1} \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1/2} \right]$$



Einstein-de Sitter Model ($\Omega_m=1, \Omega_r=0, \Omega_\Lambda=0$)

Recall $a(t) = a_0 (t/t_0)^{2/3}$; $t_0 = \frac{2}{3} H_0^{-1}$

$$\chi(t) = -c \int_{t_0}^{t(z)} \frac{dt}{a_0} \frac{t_0^{2/3}}{t^{4/3}} = -\frac{c t_0^{2/3}}{a_0} \left[\frac{t^{1/3}}{1/3} \right]_{t_0}^{t(z)}$$

$$\chi(t) = -\frac{3 t_0^{2/3}}{a_0} [t^{1/3} - t_0^{1/3}] = \frac{c t_0}{a_0} \left[1 - \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/3} \right]$$

But $\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} = \frac{1}{(1+z)^{1/2}}$

As a result: $\chi(t) = 3 \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{c}{H_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right) \left[1 - \frac{1}{(1+z)^{1/2}} \right]$

$$\chi(z) = 2 \left(\frac{c}{H_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right) \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1/2} \right]$$

Distance by apparent size:

$$d_A = a(t_z) \chi(z) = \frac{a_0}{(1+z)} \times \chi(z)$$

Therefore ~~$d_A = \frac{a_0}{(1+z)} \times \chi(z)$~~

$$d_A = \frac{a_0}{(1+z)} \times 2 \left(\frac{c}{H_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right) \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1/2} \right]$$

$$d_A = 2 \left(\frac{c}{H_0} \right) (1+z)^{-1} \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1/2} \right]$$

Key Feature: $\theta_A(z)$ has a maximum value at finite redshift.

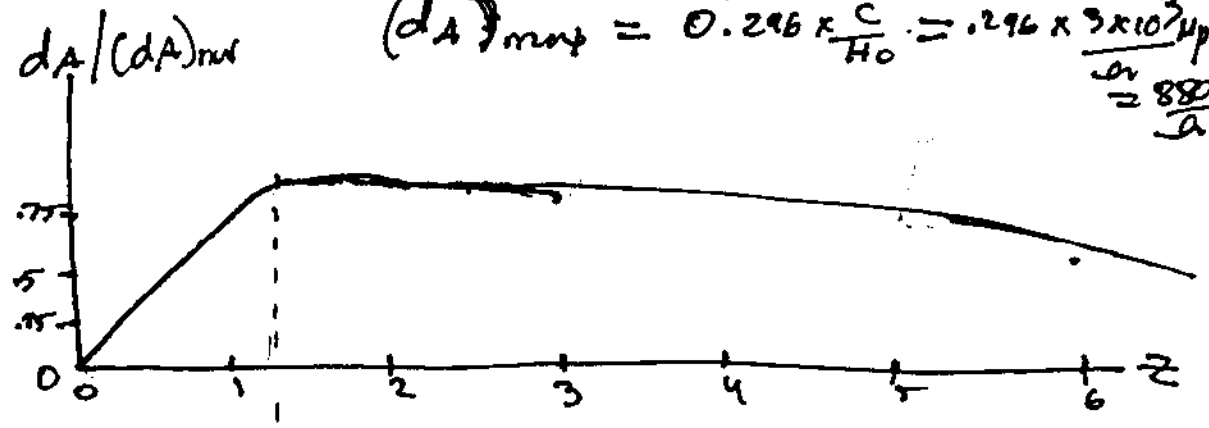
$$\frac{d\theta_A}{dz} = \text{const} \times \frac{d}{dz} \left\{ (1+z)^{-1} - (1+z)^{-3/2} \right\} = 0$$

$$-(1+z)^{-2} + \frac{3}{2}(1+z)^{-5/2} = 0$$

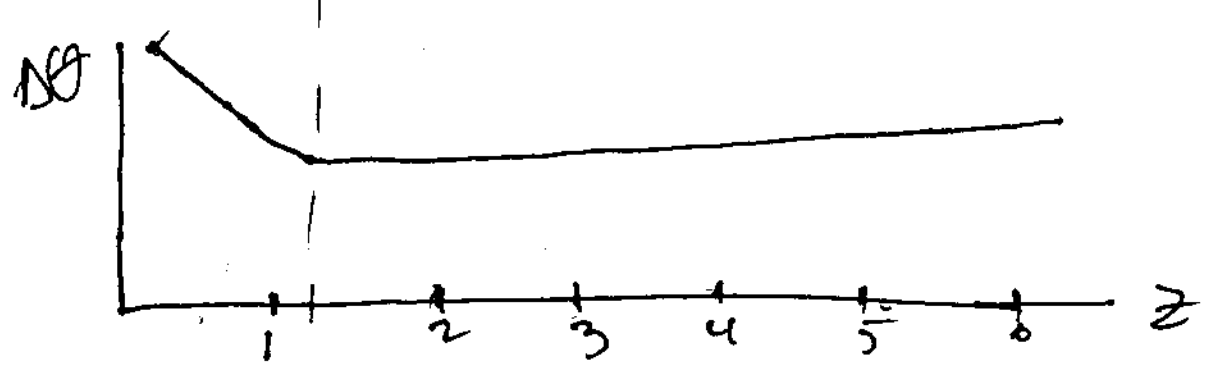
$$(1+z)^{1/2} = \frac{3}{2} \Rightarrow 1+z_{\text{max}} = \frac{9}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow z_{\text{max}} = \frac{5}{4} = 1.25$$

$$(d_A)_{\text{max}} = 0.296 \times \frac{c}{H_0} = 0.296 \times \frac{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{70 \text{ km/s/Mpc}} \approx 1.27 \times 10^8 \text{ km} \approx 88 \text{ Mpc}$$

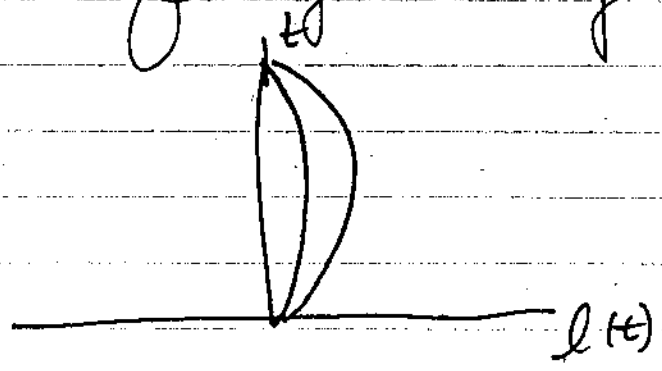


d_A decreases very slowly as z increases for $z > z_{\text{max}}$. As a result the angular diameters have minima & increase for $z > z_{\text{max}}$



⊖ very insensitive to z for large range in redshifts

This is a generic property of Friedmann models and is related to spacetime curvature of lightlike geodesics!



Now let's look at generic case

past light cone:

along radial geodesics $d\theta = d\phi = 0$.

$$\therefore ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2(t) d\chi^2 = 0$$

or $d\chi = -\frac{c dt}{a(t)}$ " inward propagating light

Let $a(t) = x \cdot a_0 \implies d\chi = -\frac{c dt}{a_0 x}$

Recall: $dt = \frac{dx}{H_0 x \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K x^{-2} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4}}}$

$$\therefore d\chi = -\frac{c dx}{a_0 H_0 x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K x^{-2} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4}}}$$

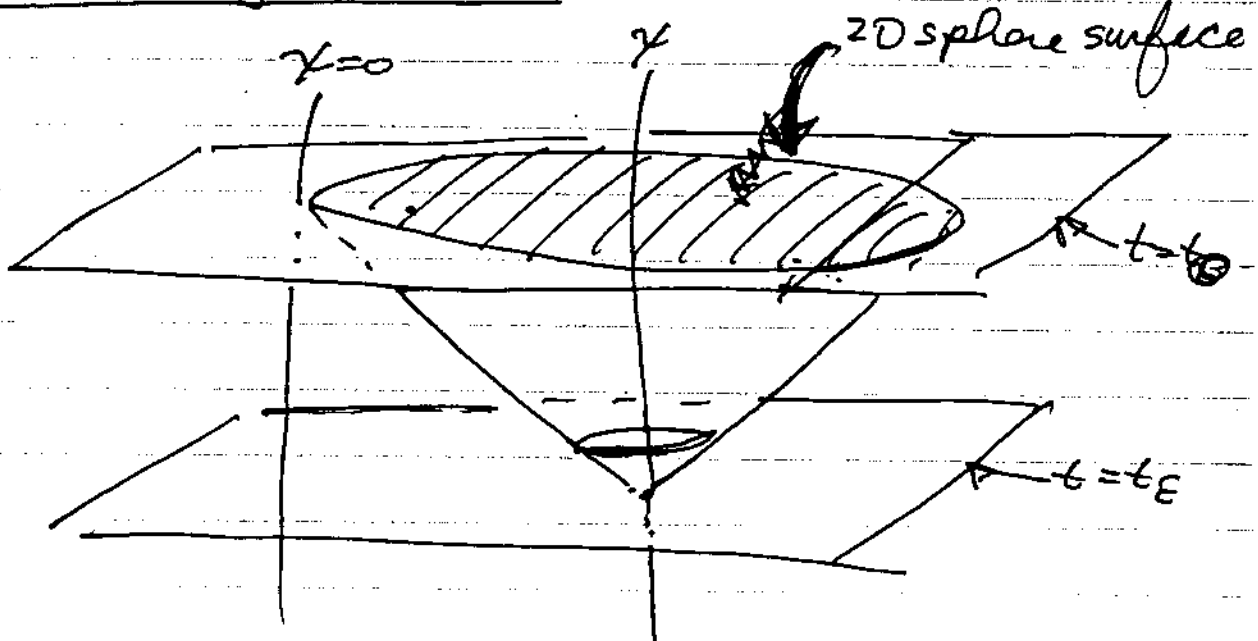
$$\chi(z) = \int_0^{\chi(z)} d\chi = -\frac{c}{a_0 H_0} \int_1^{1/Hz} \frac{dx}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K x^{-2} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4}}}$$

or $\chi(z) = \left(\frac{c}{a_0 H_0}\right) \int_{1/Hz}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K x^{-2} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4}}}$

Now get expressions for d_A, d_L .

Recap - Distance

(1) Luminosity Distance:



Emitter generates forward light cone: Expanding sphere of radiation. Emitted at t_E . Then detected ^{by} us at $t = t_0$. We worked out area of sphere ^(us at t_0) surrounding ~~the~~ with comoving radial coordinate χ . But we can do the same for sphere surround FO at χ since in his frame we ^($\chi=0$) are ~~at~~ at comoving coordinate χ relative to this FO: the two areas are equivalent..

$$A(t_0) = 4\pi a_0^2 F^2(\chi)$$

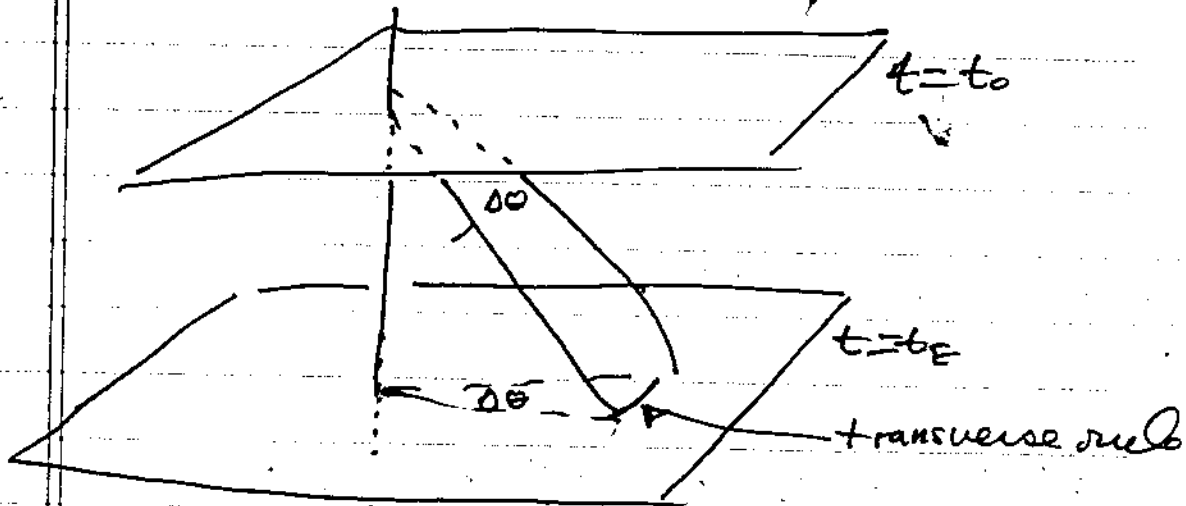
$$S_{\nu} d\nu = \frac{L_{\nu} d\nu}{A(t_0)} \times \frac{1}{(1+z)^2} \Rightarrow \frac{L_{\nu} d\nu}{4\pi d_L^2}$$

$$d_L = a_0 F(\chi) (1+z)$$

(2) Distance by apparent Size

Here we measure distance by comparing angular diameter of an object to its transverse linear diameter

spacetime



But geometry ^{is that of a} $t=t_E$ hypersurface \circ

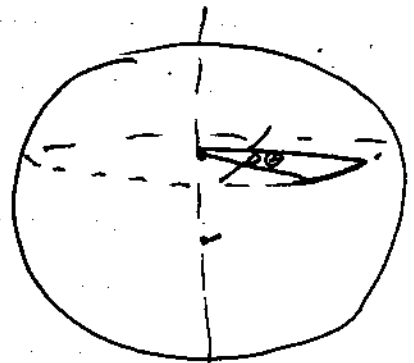
$$dl^2 = a^2 [dr^2 + F^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2)]$$

Across ruler $dr = d\phi = 0$

$$\therefore \Delta d = \Delta l = a(t_E) F(r) \Delta\theta$$

$$\text{Since } d_A \equiv \frac{\Delta d}{\Delta\theta} = a(t_E) F(r) = \frac{a_0 F(r)}{C(1+z)}$$

differs from Euclidean result..



Note d_A is not proper radial distance between 2 FO's with different values of r .
On that case $d\theta = d\phi = 0$. So

$$\text{Valid for any } K \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} dl = a(t) dr \\ l(t_E) = a(t_E) r \end{array} \right\} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} l(t_E) = d_A \text{ only} \\ \text{in } K=0 \text{ case} \end{array} \right\}$$

On $K \neq 0$ models $l(t_E) \neq d_A(t_E)$

Back to General Case

Last time I showed that comoving radial coordinate of object detected along our past light cone at redshift z is given by integrating lightlike geodesics:

$$dy = -\frac{cdt}{a(t)}$$

We found that

$$\chi(z) = \left(\frac{c}{a_0 H_0}\right) \int \frac{dx}{(1+z)^{-1} \sqrt{\Omega_m + \Omega_k x^2 + \Omega_\Lambda x^{-3} + \Omega_r x^{-4}}}$$

Recall: $\Omega_k \equiv \frac{-c^2 k}{(a_0 H_0)^2} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{c}{a_0 H_0}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{\Omega_k}{-k}}$

$$\Omega_k = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \Omega_m - \Omega_\Lambda - \Omega_r}{-k}} = \sqrt{a_0^3 (1 - \Omega_m - \Omega_\Lambda - \Omega_r)}$$

Distance:

$$d_A = \frac{a_0}{1+z} F[\chi(z)] = \frac{c}{H_0} \sqrt{\frac{-k}{\Omega_k}} \times \frac{1}{(1+z)} \times F \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\Omega_m}{-k}} \int \frac{dx}{(1+z)^{-1} \sqrt{\Omega_m + \Omega_k x^2 + \Omega_\Lambda x^{-3} + \Omega_r x^{-4}}} \right\}$$

Special Case: $\kappa=0$

~~N/A~~ On this case $F(\gamma) = \gamma$, and $\sqrt{\frac{\Omega_k}{-\kappa}}$ term cancels, i.e.,

$$d_A = \left(\frac{a_0}{1+z}\right) \times \left\{ \frac{c}{a_0 H_0} \int \frac{dx}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_m + \Omega_r x^{-2} + \Omega_m x^3 + \Omega_p x^{-4}}} \right\}$$

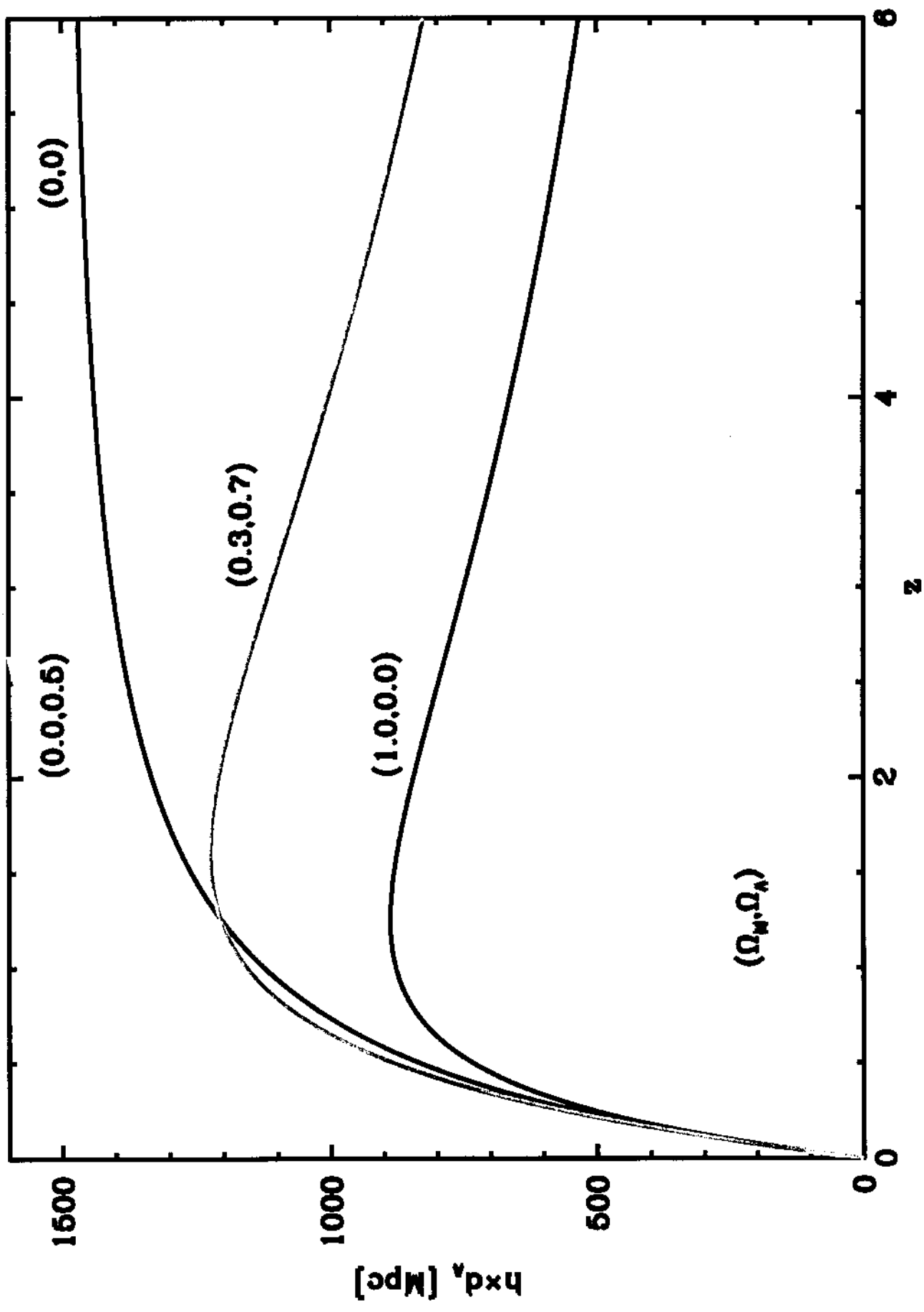
$$\text{or } d_A = \left(\frac{c}{H_0}\right) \left(\frac{1}{1+z}\right) \int \frac{dx}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_m + \Omega_r x^{-2} + \Omega_p x^{-4}}}$$

Figure comparison of $d_A(z)$ for various cosmologies

(I) Fig. 1: d_A versus z

- Models with $\Omega_m \neq 0$ all exhibit maximum in d_A versus z plane
- Models with $\Omega_m = 0$ do not exhibit this maximum.

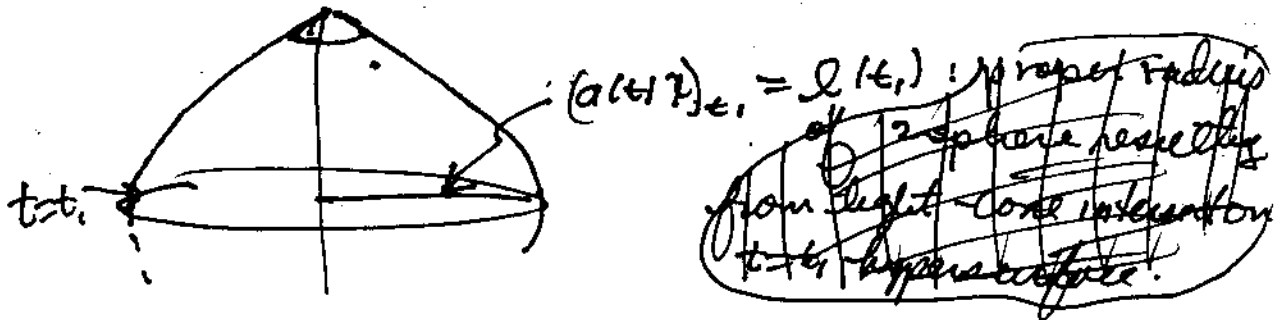
Maxima related to spacetime focusing of lightlike geodesics



As result:

$$\left(\frac{8\pi G\rho}{3}\right)_t^{1/2} a(t_1) > \frac{c}{\chi(t_1)}$$

$$\text{or } (a(t_1)\chi)_t > \left(\frac{3c^2}{8\pi G\rho}\right)_t^{1/2}$$



But $l(t_1)$ is just proper radius of sphere enclosed by past light cone:

$$\text{Enclosed mass: } M(\chi_1) = \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho(t_1) a^3(t_1) \chi_1^3$$

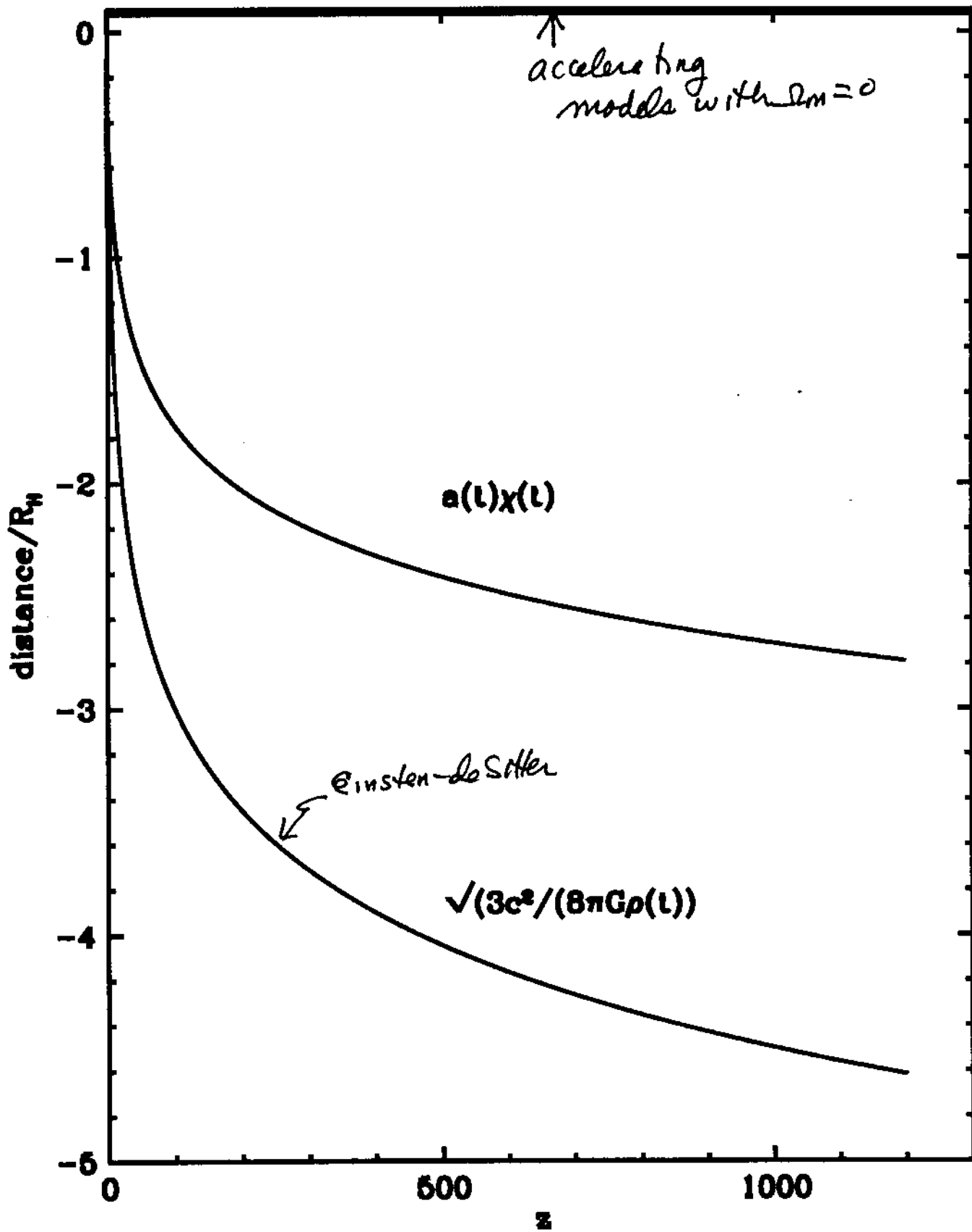
$$\text{Schwarzschild radius } r_s = \frac{2GM}{c^2} = \frac{8\pi G \rho a^3 \chi^3}{3c^2}$$

But sphere will be in its Schwarzschild radius if

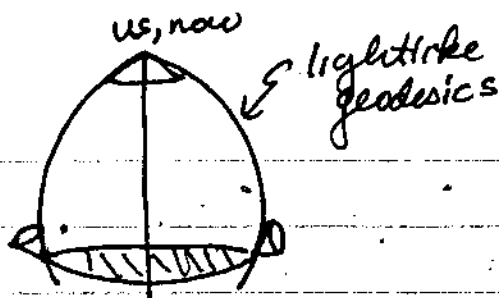
$$a(t_1)\chi(t_1) < r_s$$

$$a(t_1)\chi(t_1) < \frac{8\pi G \rho a^3 \chi^3}{3c^2}$$

$$\text{or if } (a\chi)^2 > \left(\frac{3c^2}{8\pi G\rho}\right)^{1/2} \text{ : convergence criterion!}$$



t
 L_e



71

Past lightcone intersects a sphere on spacelike hypersurface $t=t_1$, with Area A

$$A(t) = 4\pi a^2(t) F^2(r(t))$$

where $r(t)$ is comoving radial coordinate of the sphere.

Geodesics converge provided:

$$\left(\frac{dA}{dt}\right)_{t_1} > 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \left[\frac{d}{dt}(a^2 F^2)\right]_{t_1} > 0$$

This implies: $2a\dot{a}F^2 + a^2 2F \frac{dF}{dr} \frac{dr}{dt} > 0$

Divide by $2a^2 F^2$ and we have

$$\frac{\dot{a}}{a} > -\frac{1}{F} \frac{dF}{dr} \left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)$$

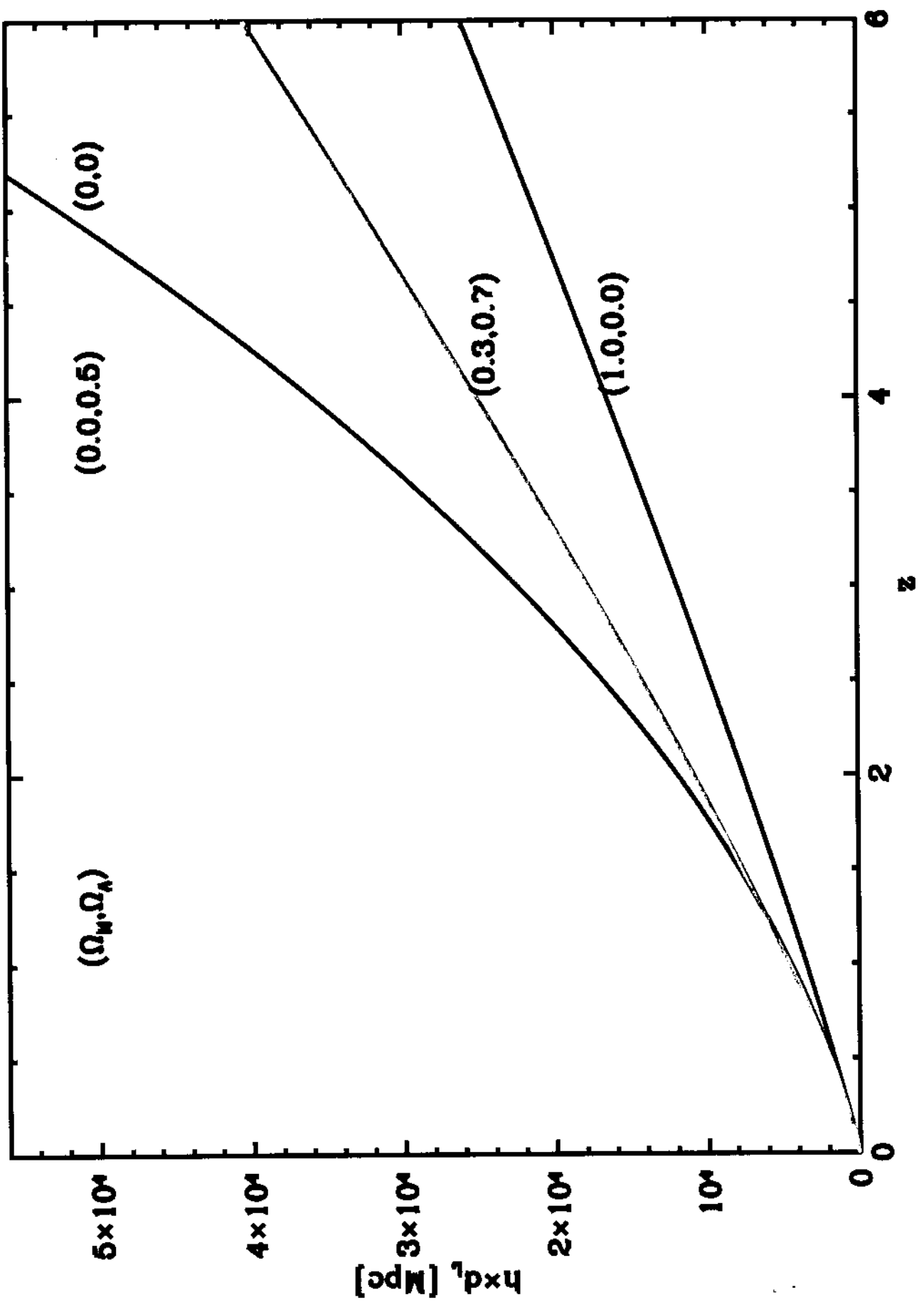
along the past light cone: $dr = -\frac{c dt}{a}$

$$\therefore \frac{\dot{a}}{a} > \frac{1}{F} \frac{dF}{dr} \left(\frac{c}{a}\right)$$

Friedmann eq. $\Rightarrow \dot{a} = \left(\frac{8\pi G \rho a^2}{3} - c^2 k\right)^{1/2}$

Ignore curvature term in past so we have

$$\dot{a} = \left(\frac{8\pi G \rho}{3}\right)^{1/2} a ; \quad F(r) = r : \quad \frac{dF}{dr} = 1$$



Thus light rays along past lightcone diverge until ~~enclosed~~ mass enclosed by intersecting space-like 2-spheres is sufficient large for convergence: these are called 'trapped surfaces'.

(2) Luminosity distance

- No maxima
 - Also differ
- { show figure }

Models with $\Omega_m \neq 0$ have systematically larger $d_L(z)$ than models with $\Omega_m = 0$ and $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$.

(3) SN data:

(4) SN data:

I discussed these standard candles before. Point is that we can obtain their luminosity or absolute magnitudes

$$S_{\nu_0} = \frac{L_{\nu_0}(z)}{4\pi d_L^2} = \frac{\overset{\nu_0}{L_{\nu_0}(z)}}{4\pi d_L^2}$$

$$m_{AB} = -2.5 \log S_{\nu_0} = 48.6 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Defines AB} \\ \text{magnitude} \end{array} \right.$$

$$M_{AB} = m_{AB}(d_L = 10 \text{ pc}) = -2.5 \log \left(\frac{\nu_0 L_{\nu_0}(z)}{4\pi (10)^2} \right) + 48.6$$

To get absolute magnitude, compute ~~flux~~ ^{that} same object would yield if $d_i = 10 \text{ pc}$.

$$S_{N_0}(d=10) = \frac{L_{N_0}}{4\pi(10\text{pc})^2} \quad ; \text{ since } z \ll 1.$$

$$M_{AB} - M_{AB} = -2.5 \log \left(\frac{S_{N_0}(d_i)}{S_{N_0}(10\text{pc})} \right) = -2.5 \log \left[K_N(1+z) \left(\frac{10\text{pc}}{d_i} \right)^2 \right]$$

therefore $M_{AB} - M_{AB} = -2.5 \log [K_N(1+z)] + 5 \log \left(\frac{d_i}{10\text{pc}} \right)$

Standard: $M_{AB} - M_{AB} = K_N + \underbrace{5 \log \left(\frac{d_i}{10\text{pc}} \right)}_{\text{distance modulus}}$

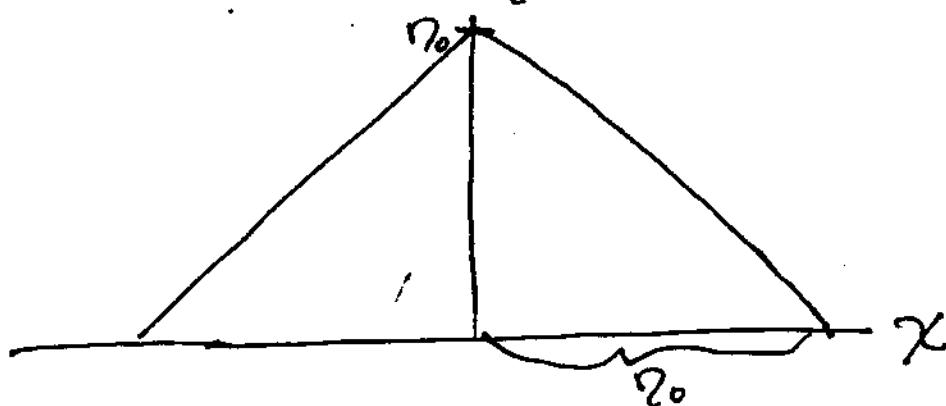
- K_N is called the K correction and is well determined from spectra of SNIa
- M_{AB} deduced. So distance modulus can be obtained and compared with models.

Figure shows that $K=0$, $\Omega_m=0.74$, $\Omega_\Lambda=0.26$ is a good fit. $\Omega_m=1$, $\Omega_\Lambda=0$ is ruled out with high confidence. Good evidence that universe is accelerating!

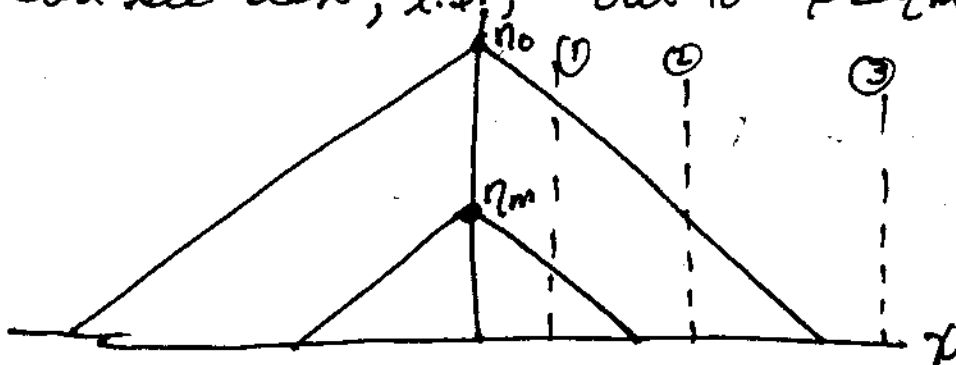
Horizons

Back to conformal time: How much matter can we see?

Recall past light cone equation: $\chi = \eta_0 - \eta$



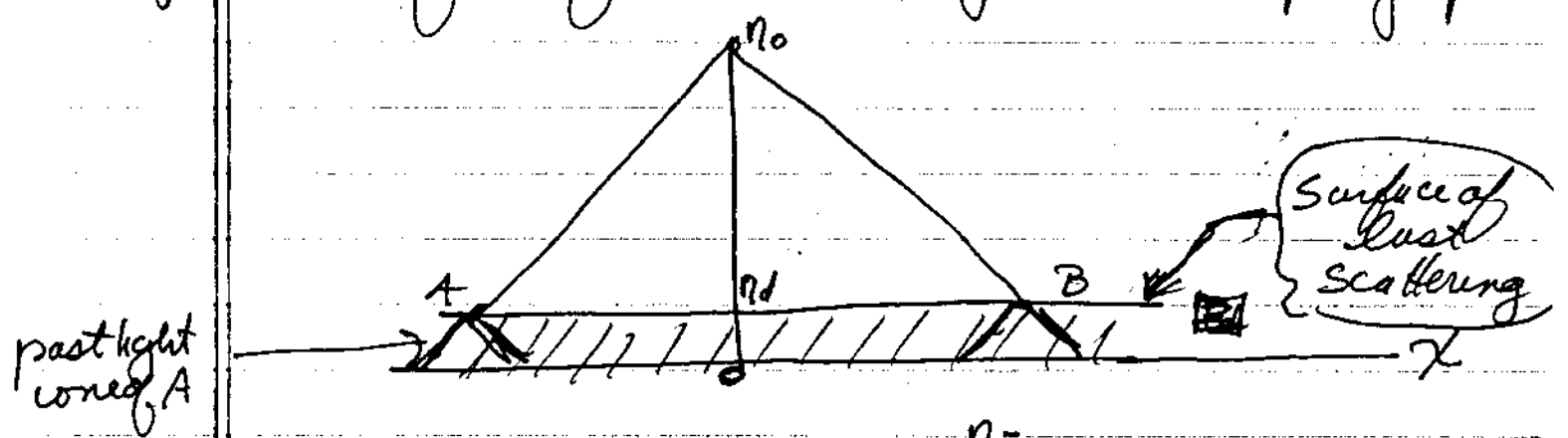
- at present time ($\eta = \eta_0$) we can in principle observe matter with comoving coordinates $\chi \leq \eta_0$
- at earlier time $\eta = \eta_m$, where $\eta_m < \eta_0$, we can see less; i.e., out to $\chi \leq \eta_m$



- at η_m : cannot detect 2 and 3; detect 1
- at η_0 : cannot detect 3; detect 1 and 2

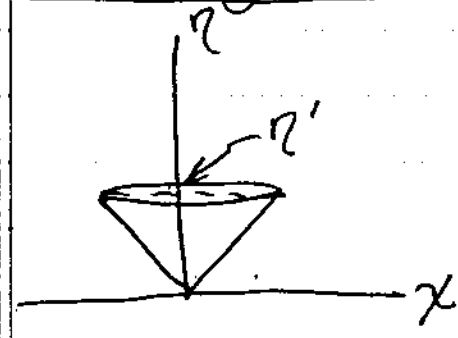
Horizon radius $\chi_H(\eta) = \eta$: Forward light cone from $\eta = 0$: FO's come in horizon as η ^{increases}

Causality: As we shall see, CMB radiation emitted from surface of last scattering or decoupling epoch



Radiation propagates from η_d hypersurface. Different parts of the sky have the same temperature, to one part in 10^5 . This is a puzzle since past light cones of A & B don't overlap. Thus matter in two regions were not in causal contact according to FRW model.

Horizon Equations



- (1) Horizon radius at $\eta = \eta'$ given by $\chi_H = \eta'$
- (2) proper radius: $L_H = a(t) \chi_H$
 $L_H(\eta) = a(\eta) \chi_H(\eta) = a(\eta) \eta$

Model dependence comes from form $a(\eta)$ ~~or $a(t)$~~

Einstein-de Sitter Example : $a(t) = a_0 (t/t_0)^{2/3}$

For a physical scalar. Let $d\eta = \frac{cdt}{a(t)}$ [17]
 { makes η dimensionless }

$$\therefore \eta = c \int_0^t \frac{dt}{a_0 (t/t_0)^{2/3}} = \frac{ct_0^{2/3}}{a_0} \int_0^t dt t^{-2/3}$$

$$\eta = \frac{3ct_0^{2/3} t^{1/3}}{a_0}$$

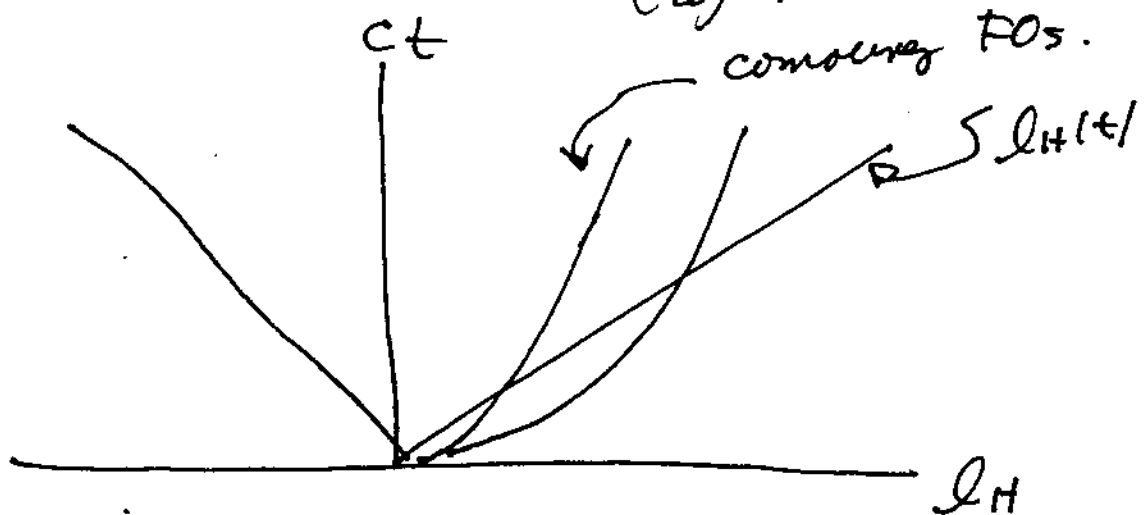
Recall: Proper horizon radius: $l_H(t) = a(t) \eta_H$

$$l_H = a_0 \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3} \frac{3ct_0^{2/3} t^{1/3}}{a_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{l_H(t) = 3ct}$$

Proper distance to comoving observers: $l_H = a(t) \eta$
where $\eta = \text{const}$

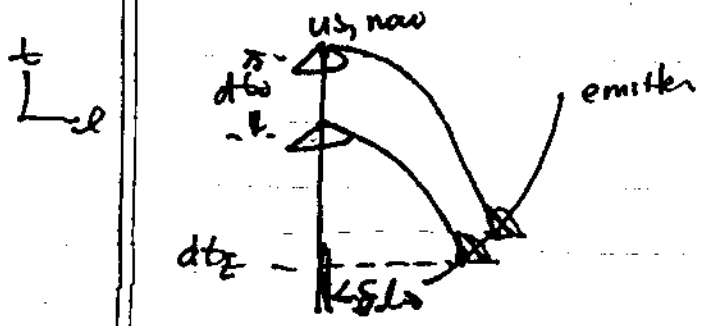
$$\Rightarrow l_H = a_0 \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3} \eta$$



Galaxies come into horizon as universe expands.

Radiative Transfer in an expanding universe

Consider mutually expanding emitter and observer of radiation. If photons are emitted in time interval dt_e and observed in stretched time interval dt_o .



Intensity ~~definition~~

$$I_N = \frac{dN \cdot h\nu}{dA_L \Delta\nu \Delta t d\Omega}$$

- Assume emitter & observer separated by infinitesimal proper distance δl . Then light-travel time $\delta t = \delta l / c$
- During trip photon suffers frequency shift

$$\delta\nu = -\nu \frac{\delta u}{c} = -\nu \left[\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta l \right] / c = -\nu \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta t$$

- Frequency bandwidth changes:
 $\delta[\Delta\nu] = \Delta\nu[t + \delta t] - \Delta\nu[t]$
 $\delta[\Delta\nu] = -\Delta\nu \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta t$

- As a result $\frac{h\nu}{\Delta\nu} = \text{const}$ along lightlike geodesics
- But time intervals: $\delta[dt] = dt[t + \delta t] - dt[t]$
 $= +dt \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right) \delta t$
 along light cone

• Solid angles: From Lorentz transformation:

$$\delta[\Omega] = d\Omega[t+\delta t] - d\Omega(t) = +2d\Omega \frac{a'}{a} \delta t$$

Net effect of expansion on intensity

$$I_\nu[t+\delta t, \nu+\delta \nu] = dN \left(\frac{h\nu}{dA_\perp h\nu} \right) \times \frac{1}{dt(t+\delta t) d\Omega(t+\delta t)}$$

$$= dN \left(\frac{h\nu}{dA_\perp h\nu} \right) \frac{1}{dt(1+\frac{a'}{a}\delta t) d\Omega(1+\frac{2a'}{a}\delta t)}$$

$$\therefore I_\nu[t+\delta t, \nu+\delta \nu] = I_\nu(t, \nu) \left[1 - \frac{3a'}{a} \delta t \right]$$

Taylor Expand:

$$I_\nu + \frac{\partial I_\nu}{\partial t} \delta t + \frac{\partial I_\nu}{\partial \nu} \delta \nu = I_\nu - \left(\frac{3a'}{a} \delta t \right) I_\nu$$

Divide
by δt

$$\frac{\partial I_\nu}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial I_\nu}{\partial \nu} \frac{\delta \nu}{\delta t} = - \left(\frac{3a'}{a} \right) I_\nu$$

$$\boxed{\frac{dI_\nu}{dt} = - \frac{3a'}{a} I_\nu} \quad (1)$$

$a' > 0 \Rightarrow$
 I_ν decreases
due to expansion

Integrate eq. (1) from $t_E \rightarrow t_0$



$$\int_{I_\nu(t_E)}^{I_\nu(t_0)} \frac{dt_\nu}{I_\nu} = -3 \int_{t_E}^{t_0} \frac{a'}{a} dt$$

$$\ln \left[\frac{I_{\nu}(t)}{I_{\nu_E}(t_E)} \right] = -3 \ln \left(\frac{a(t)}{a(t_E)} \right) = -\ln \left[\frac{a(t)}{a(t_E)} \right]^3$$

\Rightarrow ~~$I_{\nu}(t) = I_{\nu_E}(t_E) \left(\frac{a(t)}{a(t_E)} \right)^3$~~

$$I_{\nu}(t) = I_{\nu_E}(t_E) \left(\frac{a(t)}{a(t_E)} \right)^3$$