

A Brief Walk in the Universe: A Pedagogical Introduction to Cosmology

I-Non Chiu (邱奕儂)



國立成功大學
National Cheng Kung University

Prefaces

- We will only scratch the surface, because cosmology in 1 hour is difficult...
- The goals of this lecture:
 - ▶ Have a (very) rough idea about cosmology
 - ▶ Have a view on the current progress in this field

Attack of Astronomers



Time: $1 \text{ Gyr} = 10^9 \text{ yr} \approx 3 \times 10^{16} \text{ s} \approx 10^{60} t_{\text{Planck}}$

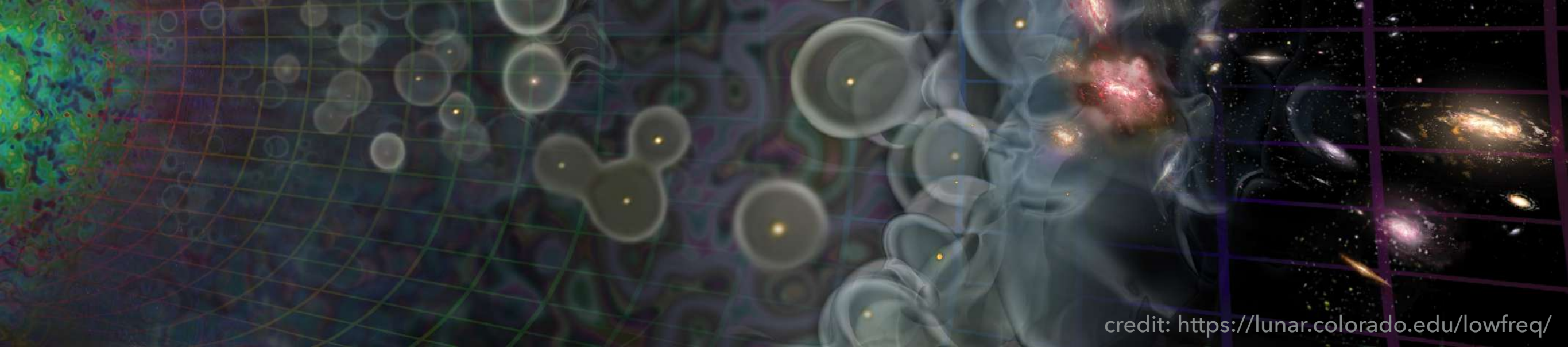
Age of the universe $\approx 14 \text{ Gyr}$

Distance: $1 \text{ Mpc} = 10^6 \text{ pc} \approx 3 \times 10^{22} \text{ m} \approx 10^{57} d_{\text{Planck}}$

Size of the universe $\approx 4000 \text{ Mpc}$

Mass: $1 M_{\odot} \approx 2 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg} \approx 10^{38} m_{\text{Planck}}$

Total mass of a galaxy $\approx 10^{12} M_{\odot}$



What is cosmology?

Cosmology is a study of the universe.

Cosmology is related to everything.

Why do we study cosmology?

Curiosity.

Cosmology always gives surprises (e.g., the cosmic expansion, dark matter and dark energy).

Outlines

- The standard cosmological model
- The homogeneous universe
- The inhomogeneous universe
- Measurements of the universe

The Standard Cosmological Model

The Expansion of the Universe

- ☉ In 1923, Arthur Eddington compiled a list of wavelength shifts of 46 galaxies.
- ☉ 36 **redshifting** and 5 **blueshifting**.

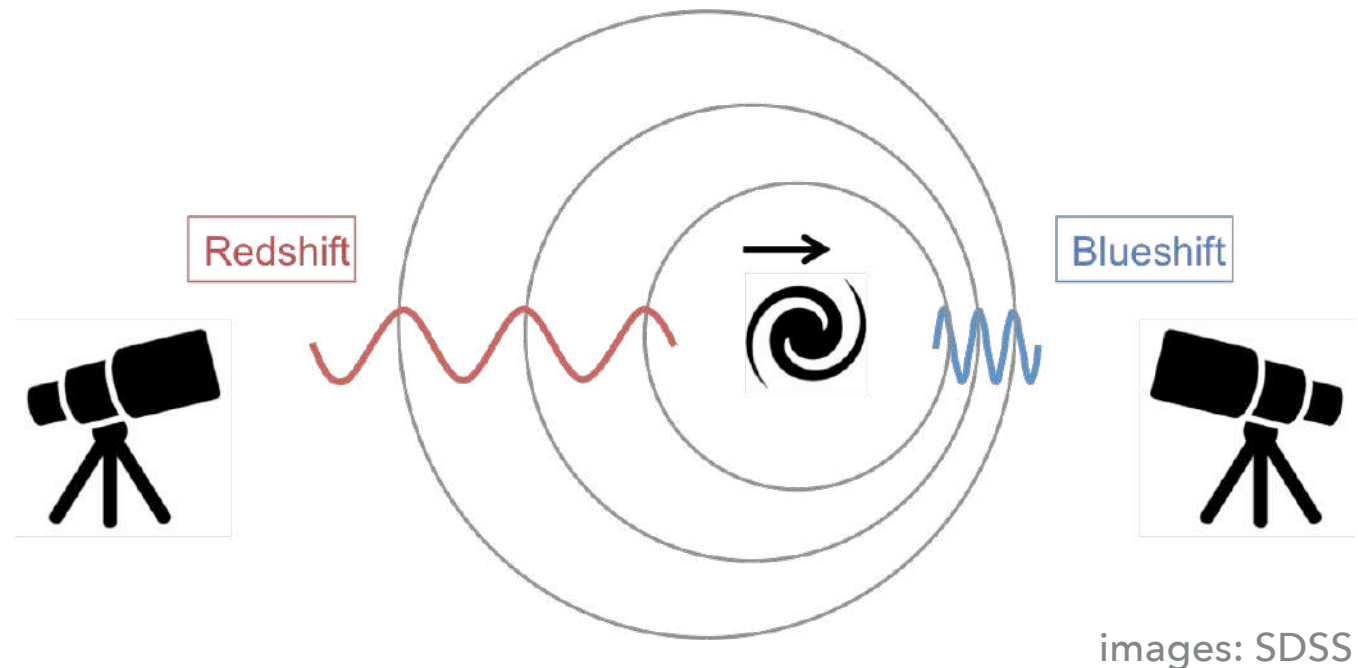
additional nebula N.G.C. 1700 has been observed by Pease, who found a large receding velocity but gave no numerical estimate.

RADIAL VELOCITIES OF SPIRAL NEBULAE

+ indicates receding, - approaching

N.G.C.	R.A. h m	Dec. ° '	Rad. Vel. km. per sec.	N.G.C.	R.A. h m	Dec. ° '	Rad. Vel. km. per sec.
221	0 38	+40 26	- 300	4151*	12 6	+39 51	+ 980
224*	0 38	+40 50	- 300	4214	12 12	+36 46	+ 300
278†	0 47	+47 7	+ 650	4258	12 15	+47 45	+ 500
404	1 5	+35 17	- 25	4382†	12 21	+18 38	+ 500
584†	1 27	- 7 17	+1800	4449	12 24	+44 32	+ 200
598*	1 29	+30 15	- 260	4472	12 25	+ 8 27	+ 850
936	2 24	- 1 31	+1300	4486†	12 27	+12 50	+ 800
1023	2 35	+38 43	+ 300	4526	12 30	+ 8 9	+ 580
1068*	2 39	- 0 21	+1120	4565†	12 32	+26 26	+1100
2683	8 48	+33 43	+ 400	4594*	12 36	-11 11	+1100
2841†	9 16	+51 19	+ 600	4649	12 40	+12 0	+1090
3031	9 49	+69 27	- 30	4736	12 47	+41 33	+ 290
3034	9 49	+70 5	+ 290	4826	12 53	+22 7	+ 150
3115†	10 1	- 7 20	+ 600	5005	13 7	+37 29	+ 900
3368	10 42	+12 14	+ 940	5055	13 12	+42 37	+ 450
3379*	10 43	+13 0	+ 780	5194	13 26	+47 36	+ 270
3489†	10 56	+14 20	+ 600	5195†	13 27	+47 41	+ 240
3521	11 2	+ 0 24	+ 730	5236†	13 32	-29 27	+ 500
3623	11 15	+13 32	+ 800	5866	15 4	+56 4	+ 650
3627	11 16	+13 26	+ 650	7331	22 33	+33 23	+ 500
4111†	12 3	+43 31	+ 800				

The great preponderance of positive (receding) velocities is very striking; but the lack of observations of southern nebulae is unfortunate, and forbids a final conclusion. Eddington 1923



$$z \equiv \frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}} - \lambda_{\text{emit}}}{\lambda_{\text{emit}}}$$

λ_{obs} : Observed frame
 λ_{emit} : Rest frame

$z < 0$ **Blueshift**
 $z > 0$ **Redshift**

The chance is less than $1/10^6$

The Expansion of the Universe



- In 1929, Edwin Hubble measured the distance to the galaxies.
- The receding velocity has proportionality to the distance.
- The universe must be expanding
 - ▶ The farther distance, the higher receding velocity
 - ▶ Isotropy (no preferential direction)
- The beginning of modern cosmology

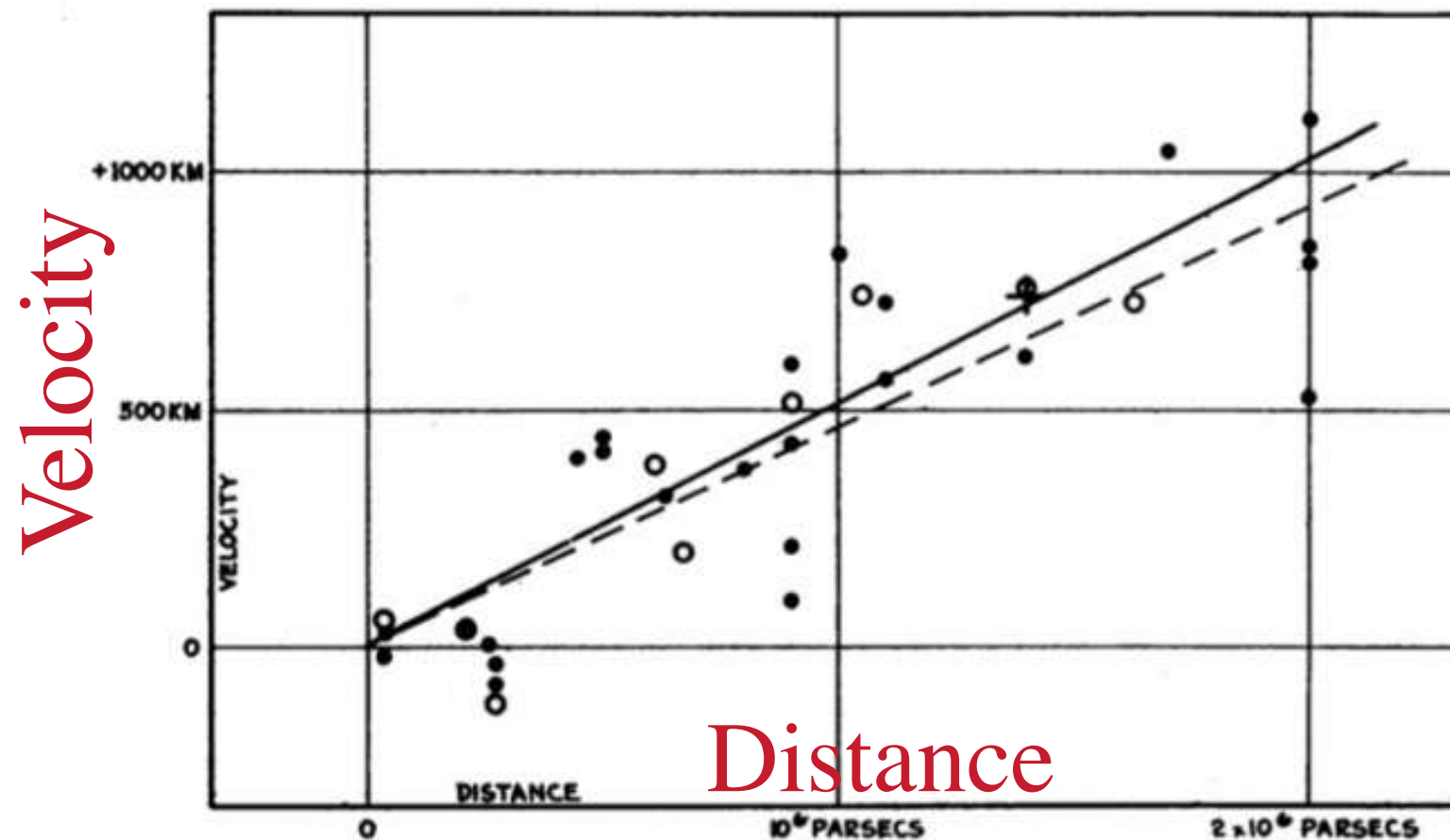
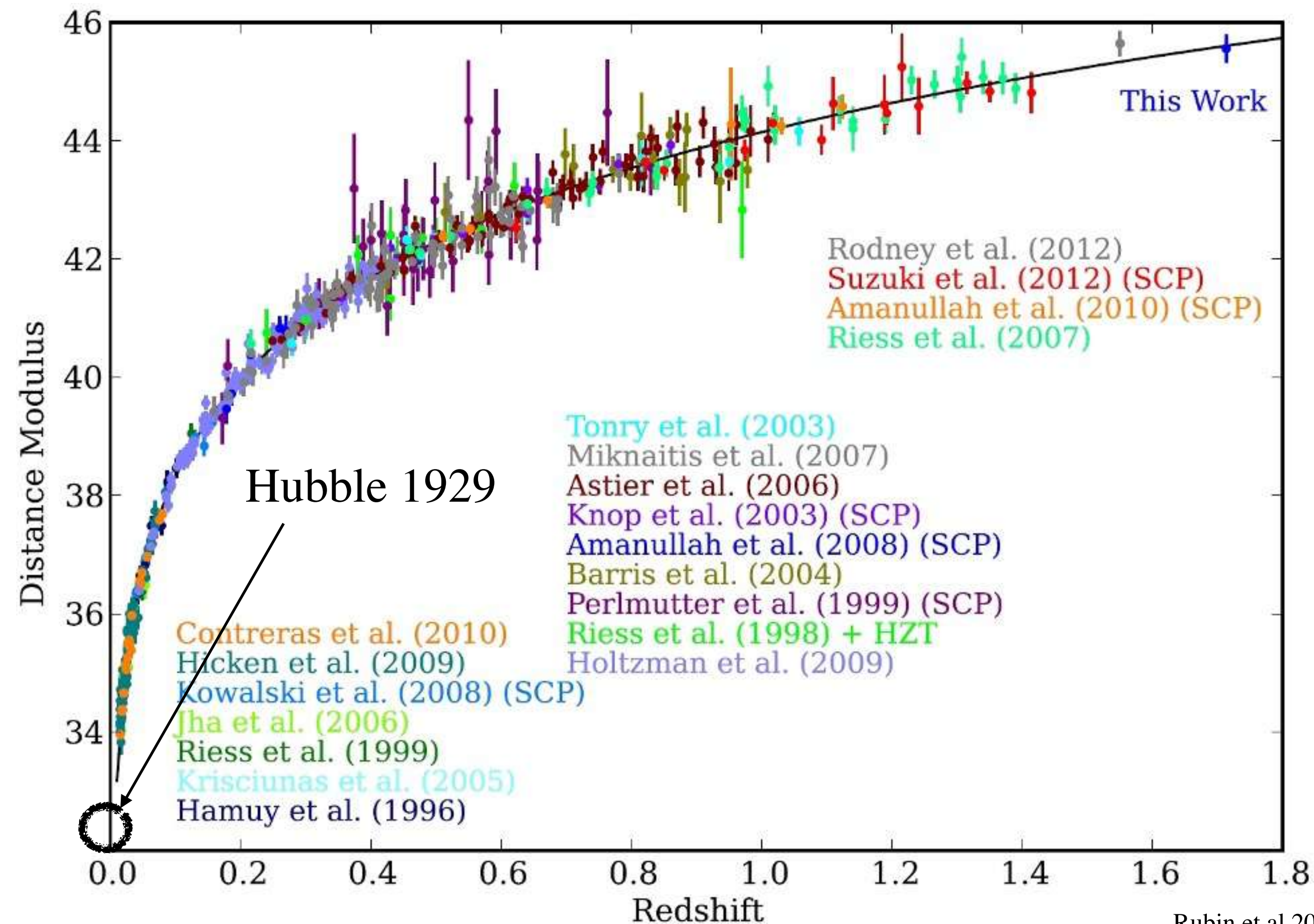


FIGURE 1
Velocity-Distance Relation among Extra-Galactic Nebulae.
Hubble 1929



Rubin et al 2013

2022 NCTS-TCA Summer Student Program

Hubble–Lemaître law (or Hubble Law)



$$c \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{Redshift}}}{z} \equiv v = H_0 \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{Distance}}}{r}$$

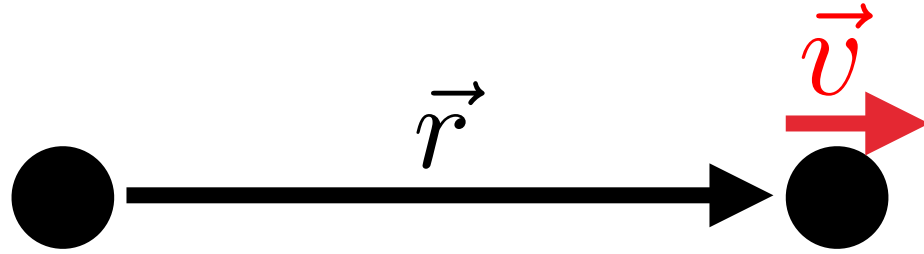
$$H_0 \equiv \text{Hubble constant} \approx h \times 100 \frac{\text{km/sec}}{\text{Mpc}}, \quad h \approx 0.7$$

$$t_H \equiv \frac{1}{H_0} \equiv \text{Hubble time} = \frac{r}{v} \approx 14 \text{ Gyr}$$

$$d_H \equiv c \frac{1}{H_0} \equiv \text{Hubble distance} \approx 4400 \text{ Mpc}$$

Distance measurements quantify the cosmic expansion.

Hubble—Lemaître law (or Hubble Law)



$$r = a(t)\chi$$

$$a(t) = \text{Scale factor with } a(t_0) = 1$$

$$\chi = \text{Comoving coordinate} = r(t_0)$$

$$v \equiv \frac{dr}{dt} = \dot{a}\chi = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}r$$

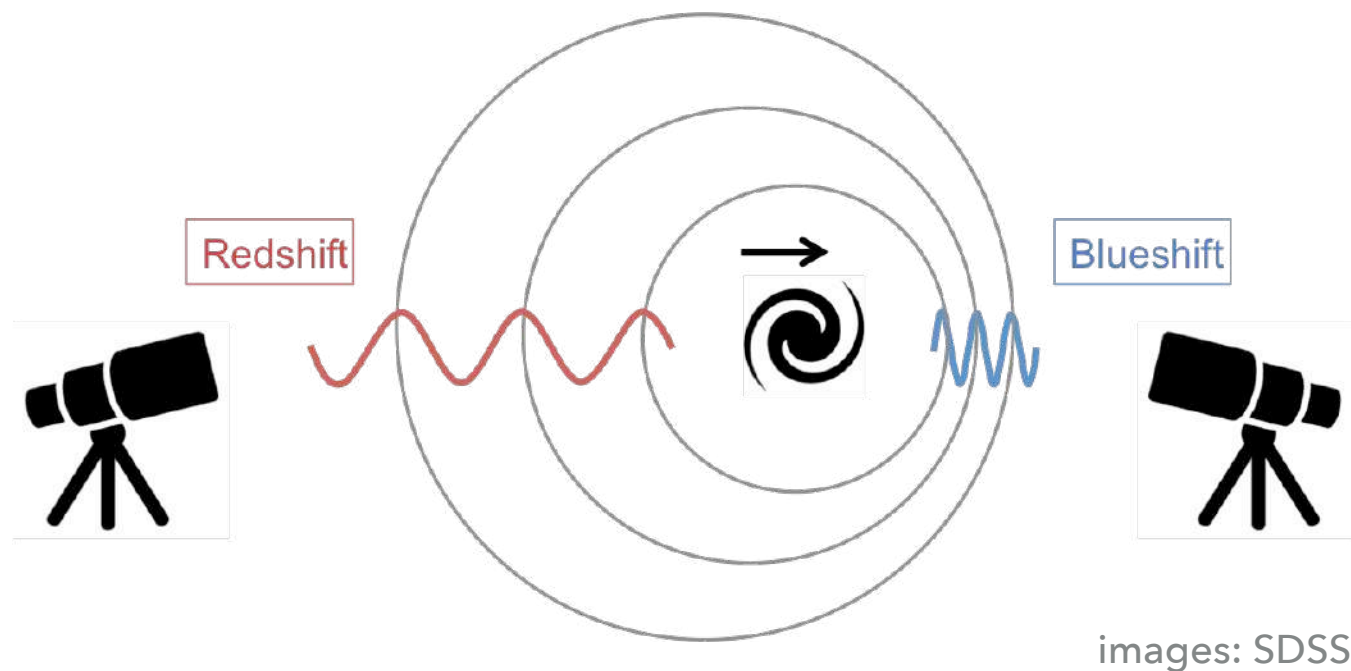
$$H(t) \equiv \text{Hubble parameter} = \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}$$

$$H(t_0) = \text{Hubble constant} \approx 70 \frac{\text{km/sec}}{\text{Mpc}}$$

Hubble Law is a natural result of the **homogeneous and isotropic expansion**.

- **Homogeneous:** $a(t)$ does not depend on \vec{r} .
- **Isotropic:** $a(t)$ is a scalar.

Redshift



$$t_e \quad \bullet \text{---} \bullet$$

$$\lambda_e = a_e L$$

$$t_o \quad \bullet \text{---} \bullet$$

$$\lambda_o = a_o L$$

$$z \equiv \frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}} - \lambda_{\text{emit}}}{\lambda_{\text{emit}}}$$

λ_{obs} : Observed frame

λ_{emit} : Rest frame

$$z < 0 \quad \text{Blueshift}$$

$$z > 0 \quad \text{Redshift}$$

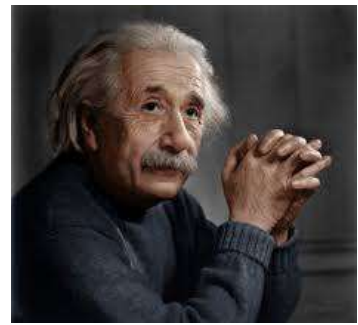
$$z = \frac{\lambda_o - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e} = \frac{a_o L - a_e L}{a_e L} = \frac{a_o}{a_e} - 1 \equiv \frac{1}{a} - 1$$

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

$z = 0$: now (or local universe)

$z > 0$: past (or distant universe)

The Cosmological Models



In 1915, A. Einstein developed the “Einstein equations”.
In his early model, he believed a “static” universe.



In 1929, E. Hubble discovered the expansion of the universe.

The big bang model

The universe is homogeneous and isotropic (i.e., the cosmological principle) with the global properties (e.g., temperature, density) **changing with time**.



G. Gamor



G. Lemaître

The steady state model

The universe is homogeneous and isotropic (i.e., the cosmological principle) with the **constant** global properties (e.g., temperature, density).



Bondi, Gold & Hoyle 1948

The Steady State Cosmological Model

- ☉ Hubble Law does not require a big bang.
- ☉ The steady state model implies the creation of matter.

Constant cosmic expansion

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = H_0 r \Rightarrow r \propto e^{H_0 t}, \text{ assuming } H(t) = H_0.$$

Constant mean matter density

$$V \propto r^3 = e^{3H_0 t} \Rightarrow \dot{M} = \rho \dot{V} = \rho 3H_0 V$$

$$\frac{\dot{M}}{V} = \rho 3H_0 = \rho_0 3H_0 \text{ (assuming } \rho = \rho_0) \approx 10^{-27} \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} / \text{Gyr}$$

$\approx 1 \text{ atom in } 1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ per Gyr}$

The Cosmological Models

The big bang model

The universe is homogeneous and isotropic (i.e., the cosmological principle) with the global properties (e.g., temperature, density) **changing with time**.

The steady state model

The universe is homogeneous and isotropic (i.e., the cosmological principle) with the **constant** global properties (e.g., temperature, density).

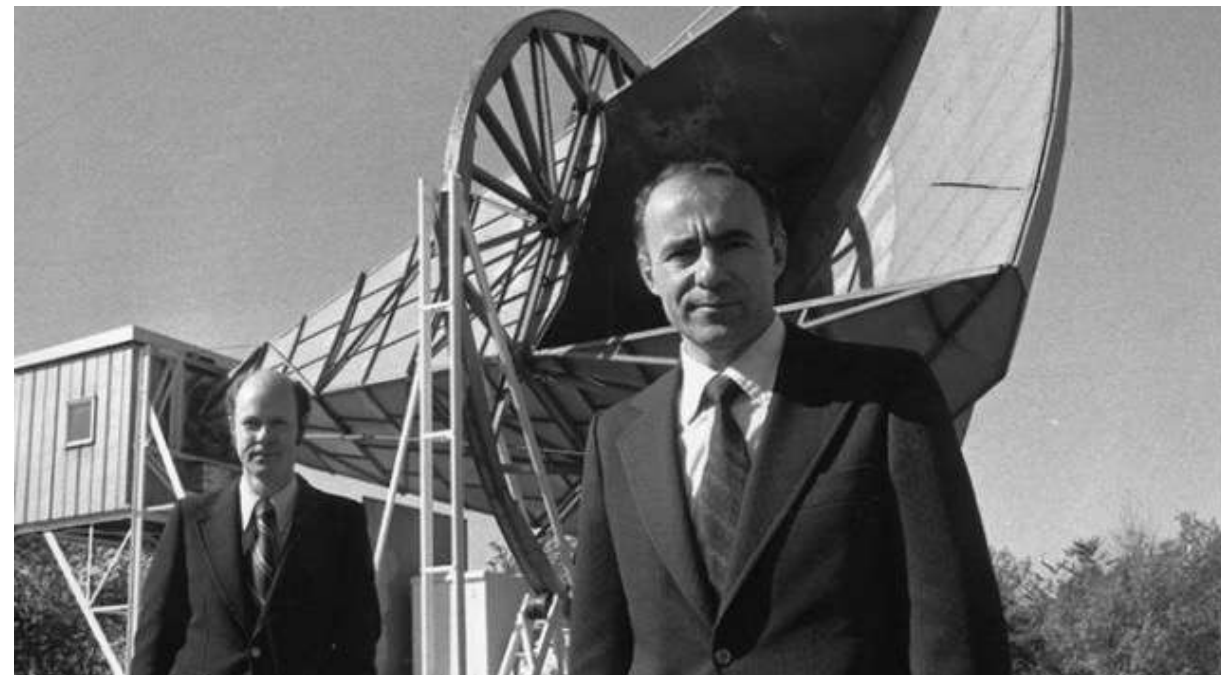
The Cosmological Models

The big bang model

The universe is homogeneous and isotropic (i.e., the cosmological principle) with the global properties (e.g., temperature, density) **changing with time**.

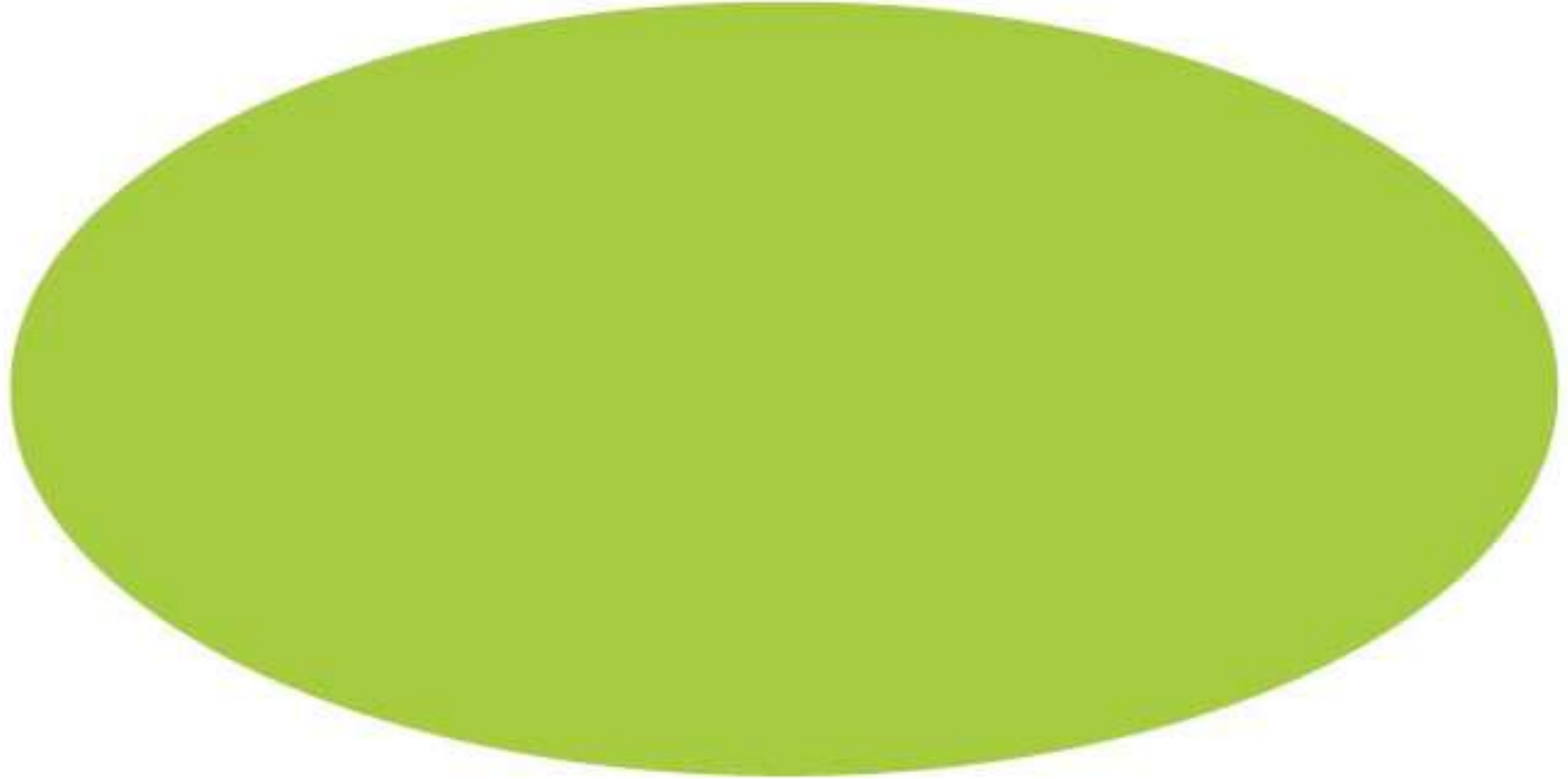
~~The steady state model~~

~~The universe is homogeneous and isotropic (i.e., the cosmological principle) with the **constant** global properties (e.g., temperature, density).~~



In 1965, Arno Penzias and Robert Wilson (accidentally) discovered the “**Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB)**”, which is evidence of the hot big bang.

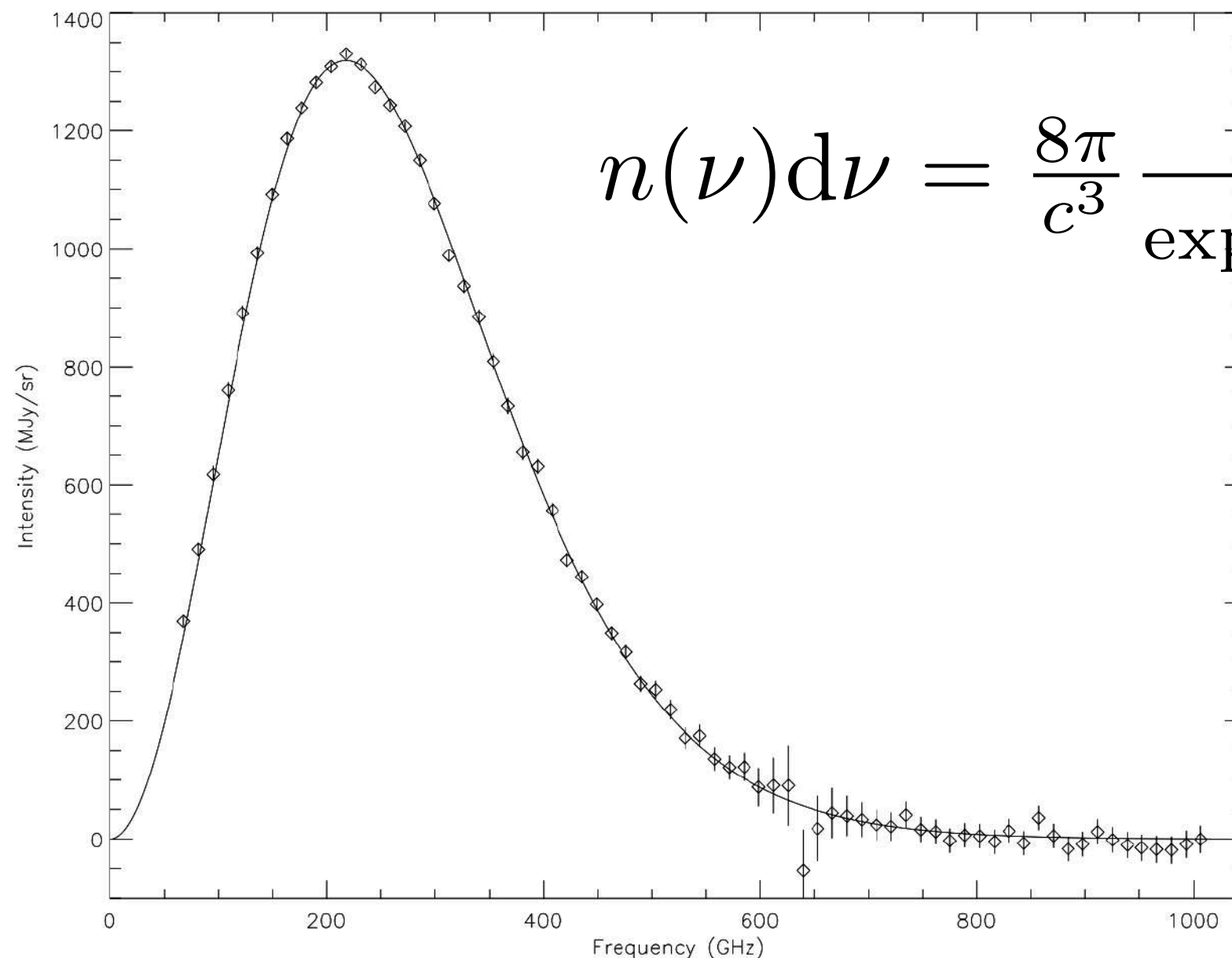
The Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB)



Isotropic 2.7K

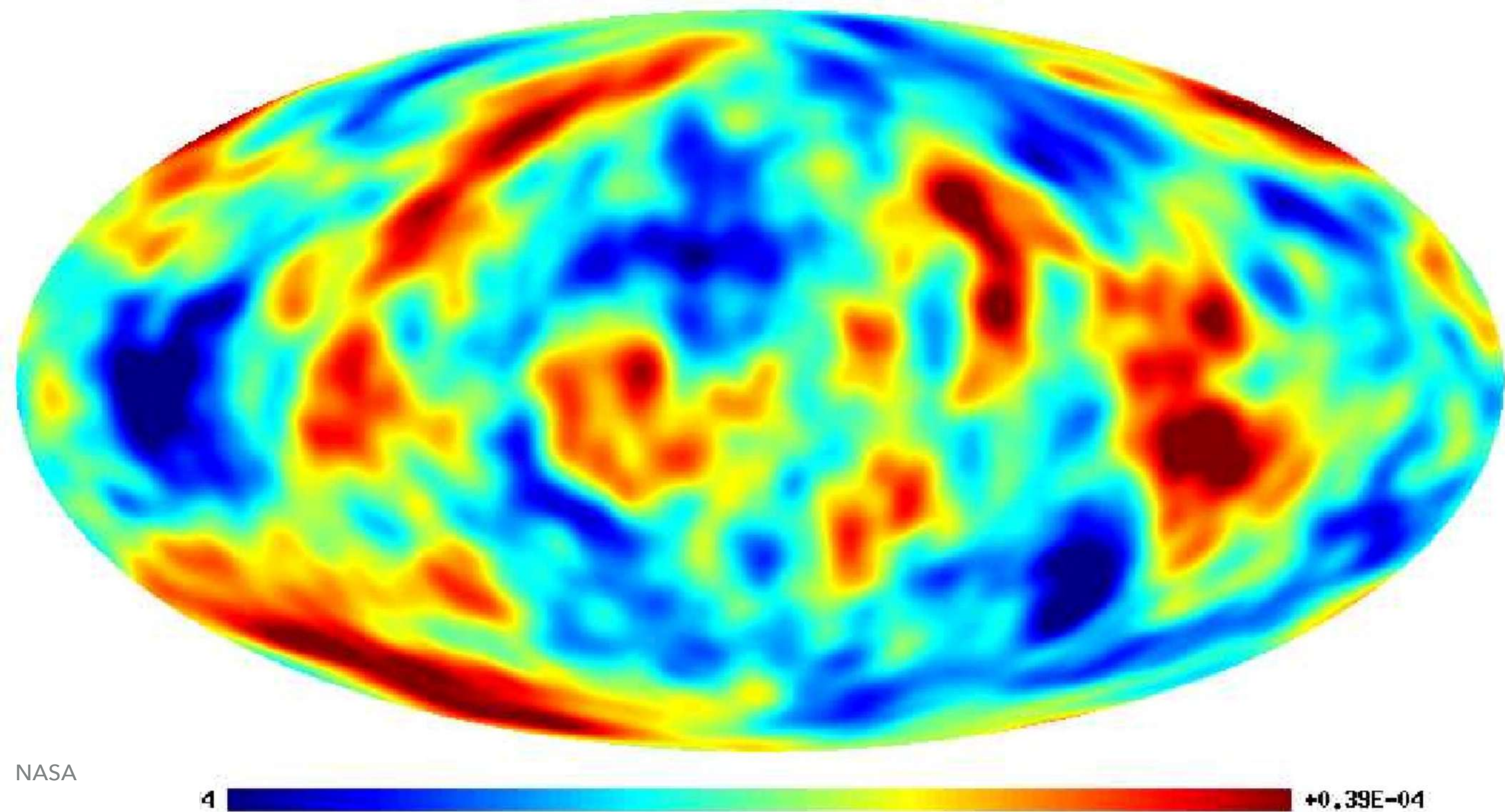
The Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB)

- CMB is excellently fitted by a blackbody radiation with $T = 2.72548 \pm 0.00057$ K.
- The blackbody CMB \Rightarrow a thermal equilibrium \Rightarrow high collision rates of photons \Rightarrow the universe is opaque.
- The global properties change with time (opaque \rightarrow transparent).
- The CMB is **the relic of the hot big bang**.



$$n(\nu)d\nu = \frac{8\pi}{c^3} \frac{\nu^2 d\nu}{\exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}\right) - 1}$$

The Anisotropy of CMB at Small Scales



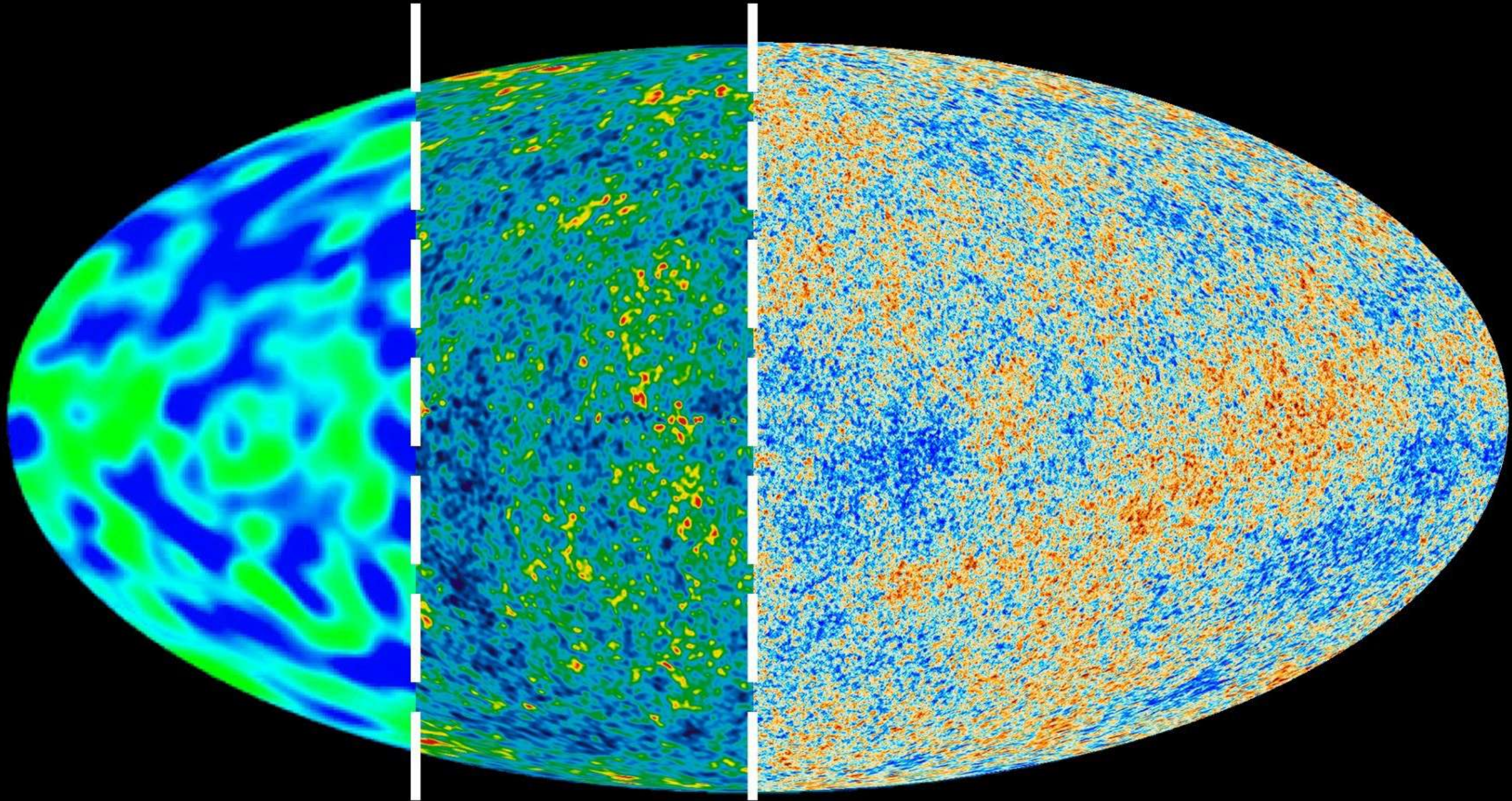
$$\left| \frac{\delta T}{T} \right| \approx 10^{-5} \text{ for } 5 \text{ deg} \lesssim \theta \lesssim 180 \text{ deg}$$

The Triumph of Cosmology—CMB

COBE (1989-1993)

WMAP (2003-2012)

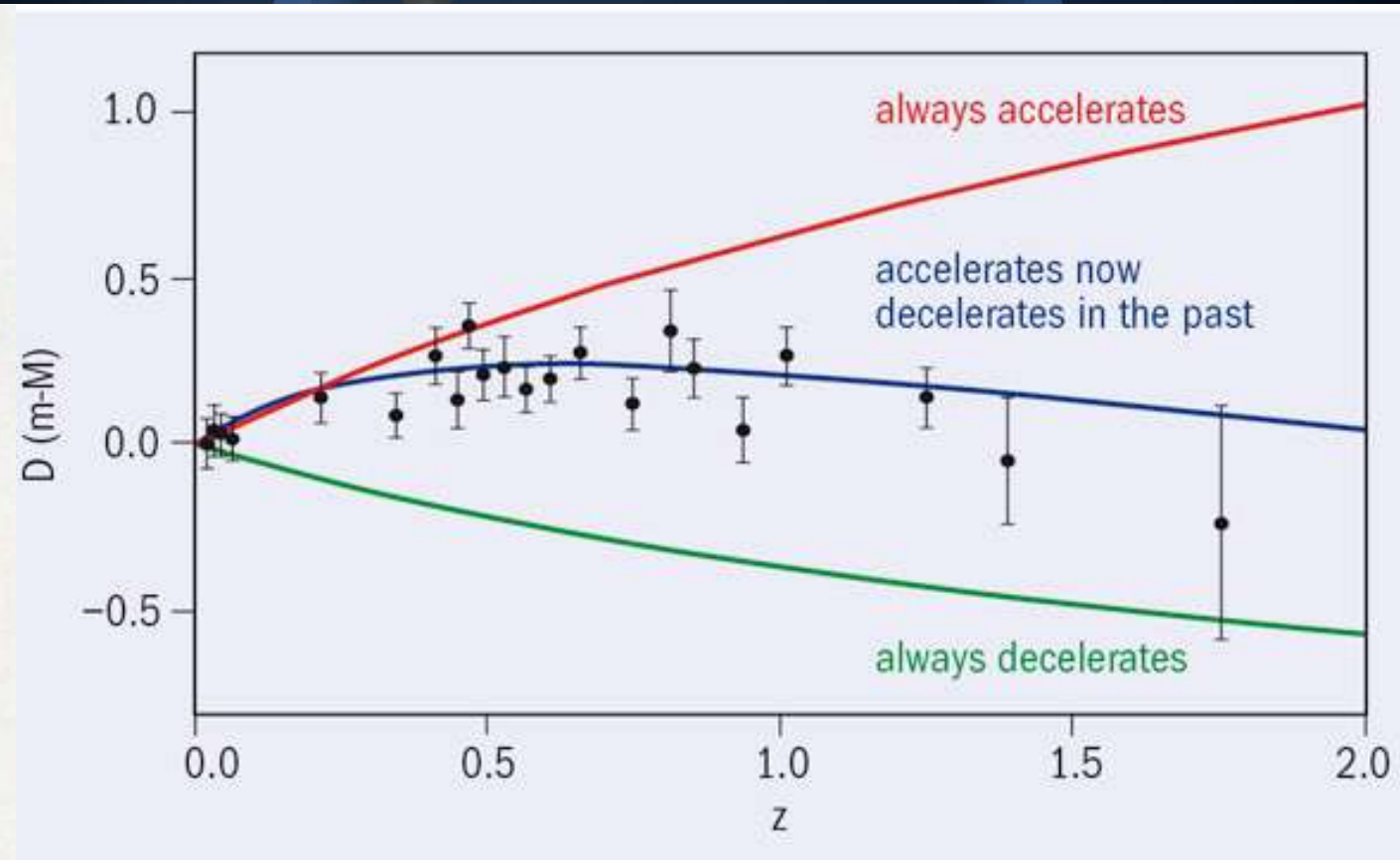
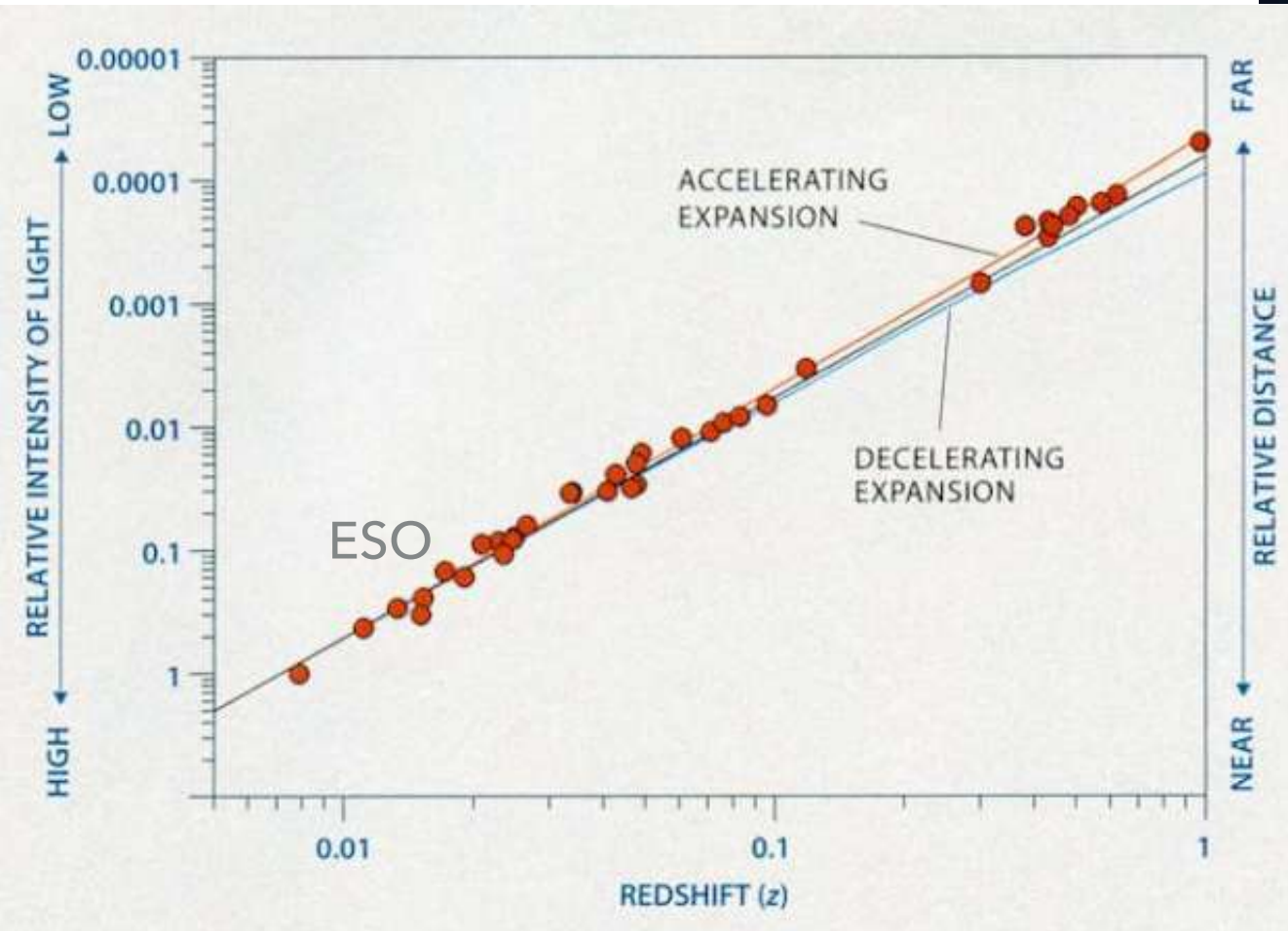
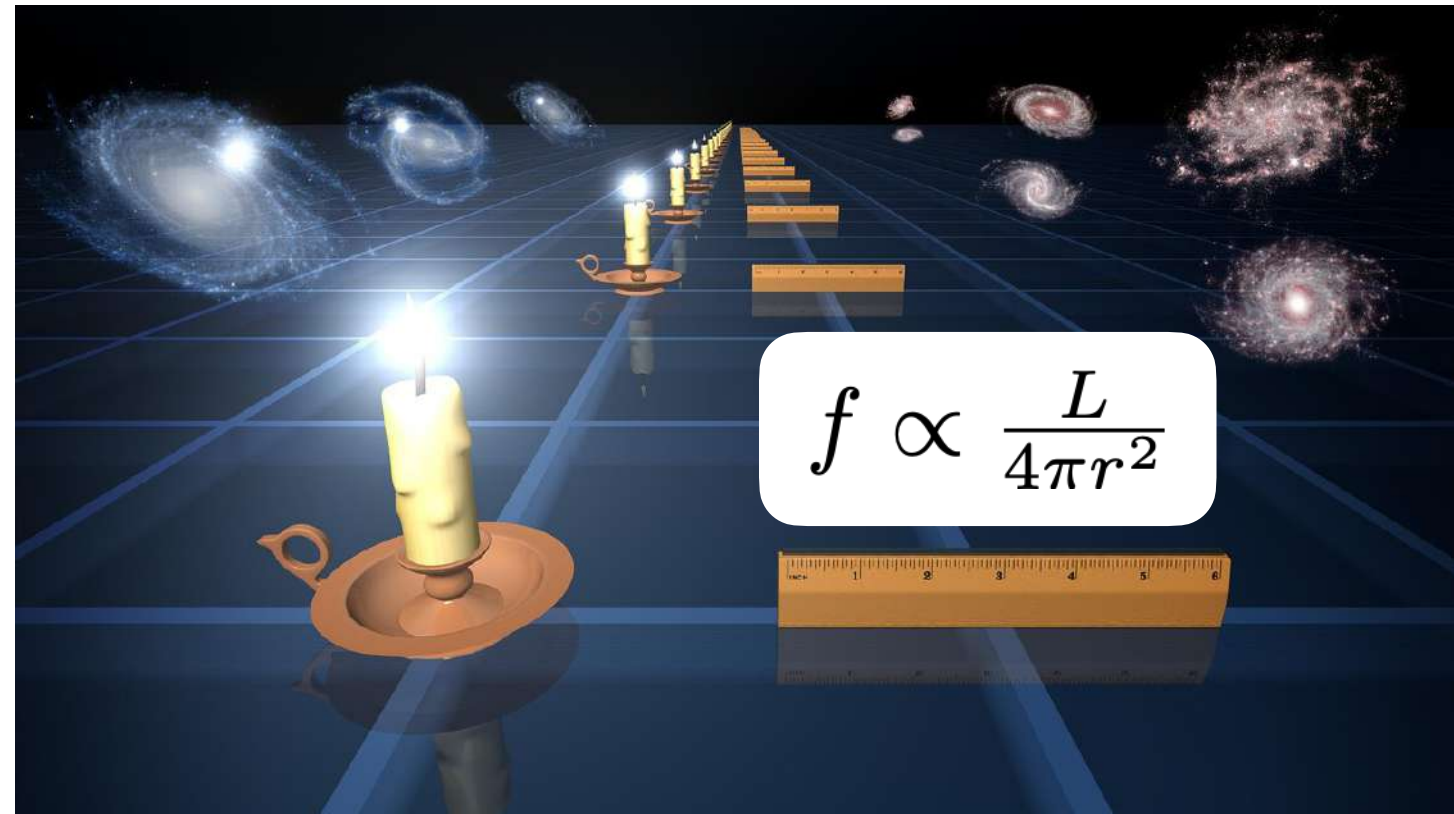
Planck (2009-2013)



The Accelerating Expansion of the Universe

The type Ia supernovae
(the standard candle)
⇒ an accelerating expansion

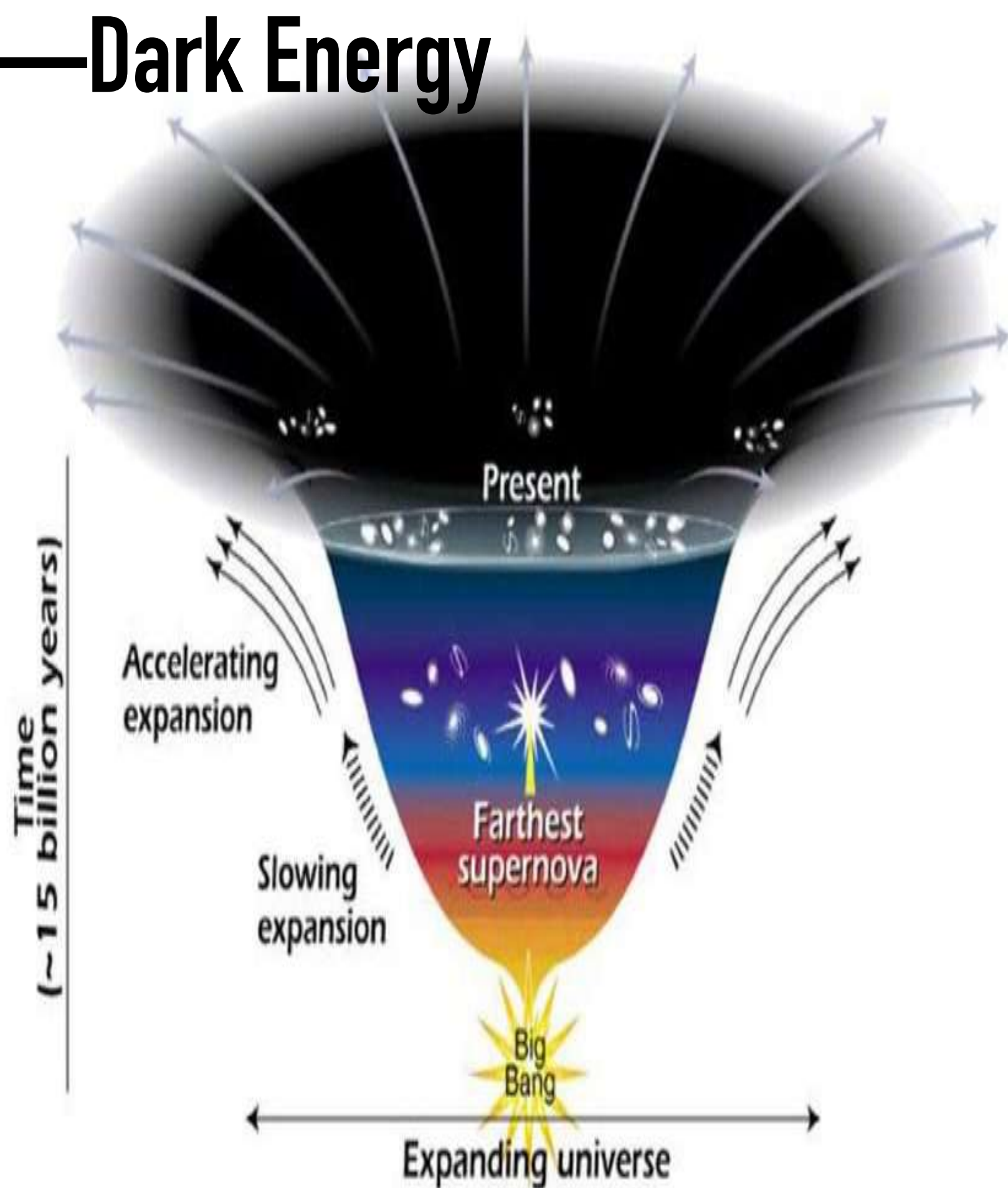
$$cz = H_0 r$$



<https://universe-review.ca/>

A “Dark” Component—Dark Energy

- **Dark Energy**, providing a **negative pressure**, is required by the **accelerating expansion**.
- Completely beyond the standard physics
- Dark energy could be just a “**cosmological constant Λ (Lambda)**”.
- Understanding dark energy is the top priority in physics.
- So far, only cosmology successfully probes dark energy.



Another Darkness: Dark Matter

● In 1930s, F. Zwicky found that the self-gravity of luminous stars is not enough to support Coma cluster.

⇒ *Dunkle Matter* (Dark Matter)

● In 1970s, V. Rubin showed the flat rotation curve.

⇒ a kind of unseen matter must exist

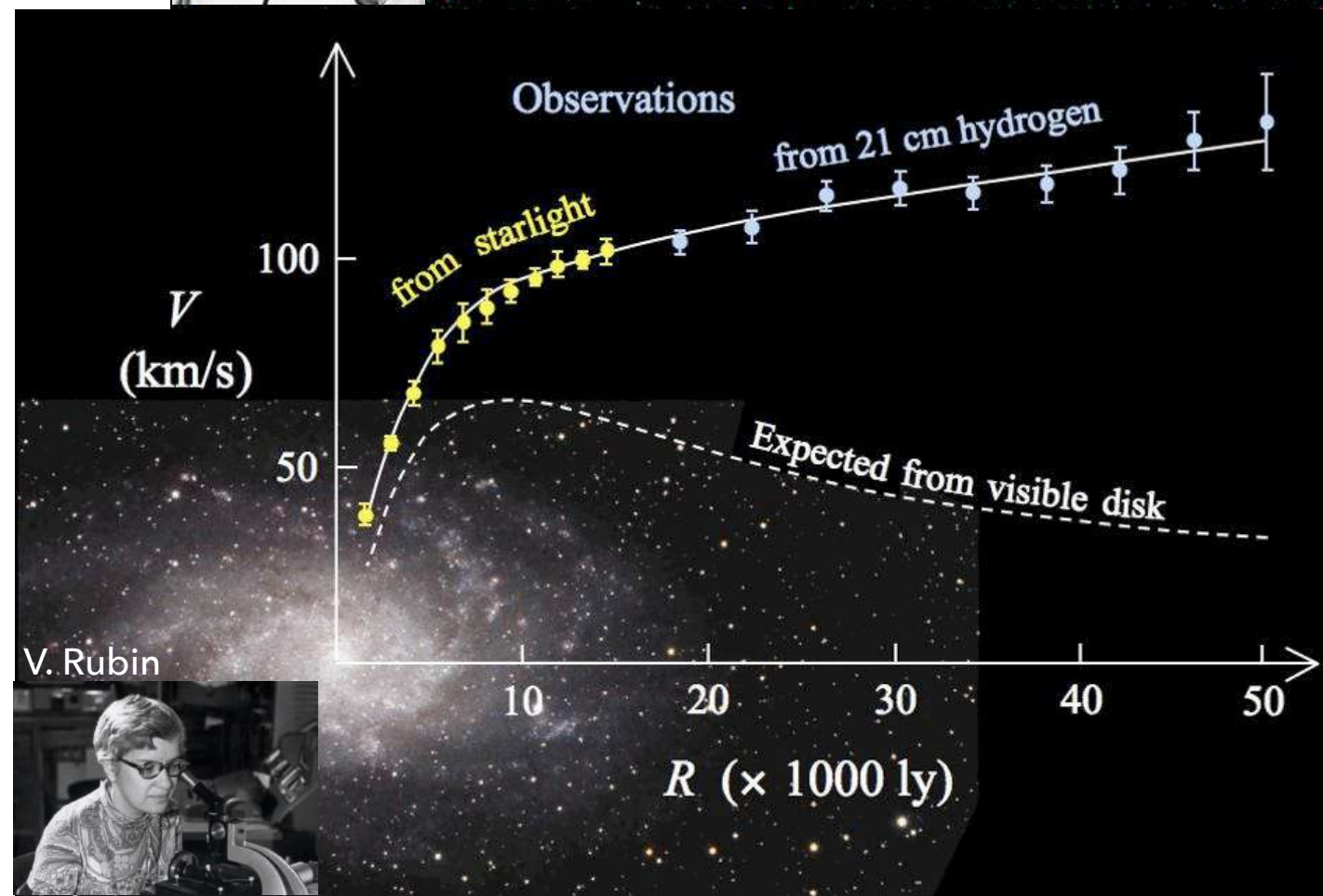
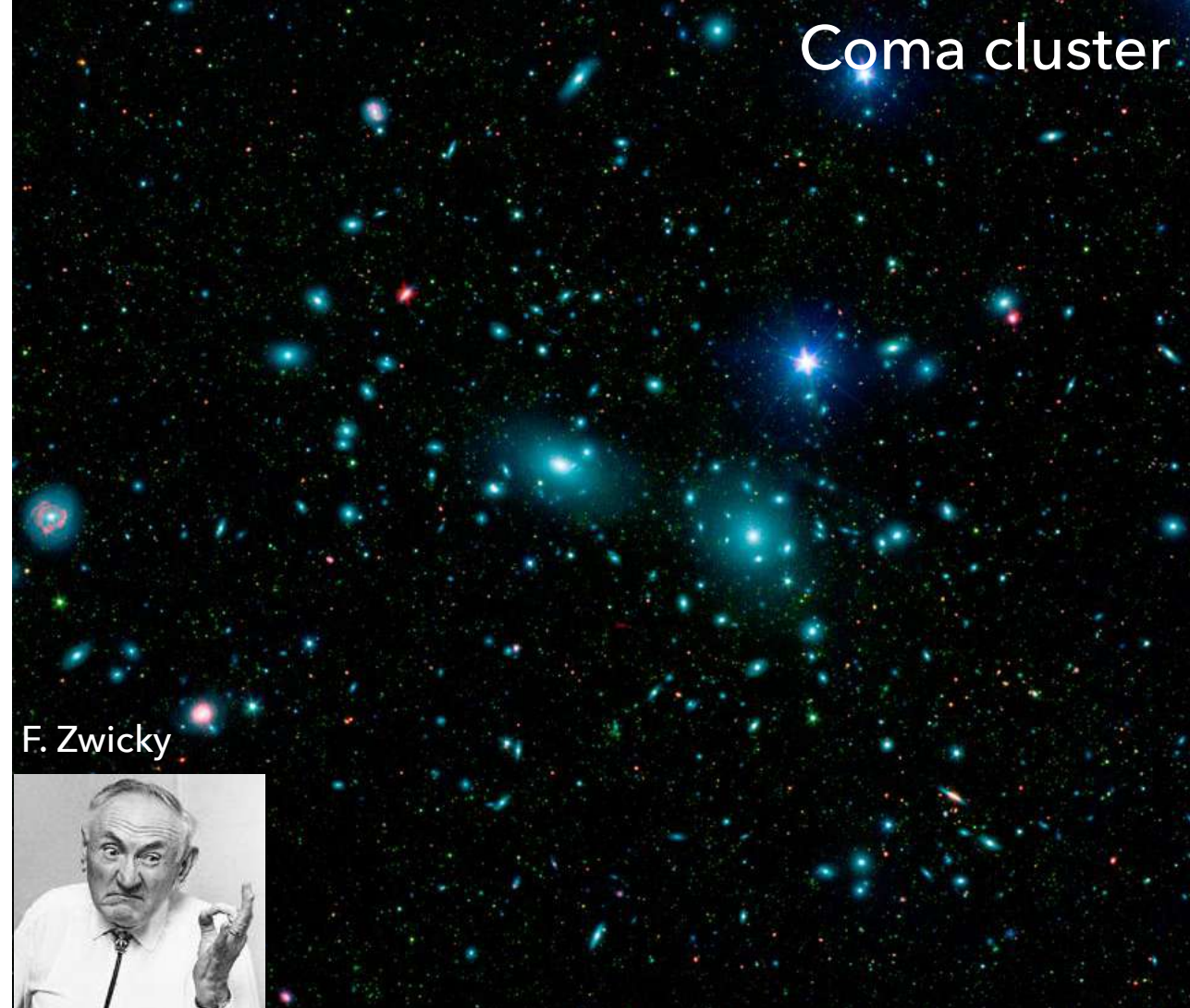
● **(Cold) Dark Matter**

- only interacts via **gravity**

- comprises a large fraction ($\geq 80\%$) of matter

- is beyond the Standard Model

● Dark matter has only been successfully discovered/probed in cosmology.



The Standard Cosmological Model

- The universe is homogeneous and isotropic at large scales.
- The universe originated from a “big bang” and has been expanding since then.
- The cosmic expansion at the present day is accelerating.
- The Λ CDM model: the universe is now composed of
 - $\approx 5\%$ baryonic matter
 - $\approx 25\%$ cold dark matter (CDM)
 - $\approx 70\%$ dark energy (Λ)
- Observational facts supported.



The Homogeneous Universe

Only little is needed to describe the universe:
the **Einstein equations** and the **Boltzmann equation**.

Che-Yu's lecture

The Einstein equations:

The geometry of spacetime is related to the energy content of the universe.

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

Friedmann–Lemaître–Robertson–Walker (FLRW) metric: **a homogeneous and isotropic expansion**

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a(t)^2 \left(\frac{d\chi^2}{1-k\chi^2} + \chi^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right)$$

$$\xrightarrow{k=0} c^2 dt^2 - (dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$$

Friedmann equations:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 + \frac{kc^2}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho + \frac{\Lambda c^2}{3}$$

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \left(\rho + \frac{3p}{c^2} \right) + \frac{\Lambda c^2}{3}$$



A. Friedmann

Recall $H \equiv \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$

k : curvature
 ρ : energy density
 p : pressure
 Λ : cosmological constant

Let's make the following assumptions and definitions.

$$k \approx 0 \text{ (i.e., flat universe)}$$

$$H \equiv \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \text{ (i.e., Hubble Law)}$$

$$\rho_{\Lambda} \equiv \frac{\Lambda c^2}{8\pi G} \text{ (i.e., the energy density of } \Lambda \text{)}$$

$$\rho = \rho_{\text{m}} + \rho_{\gamma} + \rho_{\Lambda} \text{ (i.e., assuming only matter, radiations, and } \Lambda \text{)}$$

$$p_i = w_i \rho_i c^2 \text{ (i.e., the equation of state)}$$

Friedmann equations:

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho = \frac{8\pi G}{3} (\rho_{\text{m}} + \rho_{\gamma} + \rho_{\Lambda})$$

$$H^2 + \dot{H} = \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \sum_{i \in \{\text{m}, \gamma, \Lambda\}} [\rho_i (1 + 3w_i)]$$

The expansion is determined by the content of the universe.

The First Friedmann Equation

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho = \frac{8\pi G}{3} (\rho_m + \rho_\gamma + \rho_\Lambda)$$

Cosmic expansion (Hubble parameter) \Leftrightarrow Energy density

$$\dot{H} = -4\pi G \sum_{i \in \{m, \gamma, \Lambda\}} [\rho_i (1 + w_i)]$$

Combination of two Friedmann equations.

$$2H\dot{H} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \sum_{i \in \{m, \gamma, \Lambda\}} \dot{\rho}_i$$

Time derivative of the first Friedmann equation

$$\sum_{i \in \{m, \gamma, \Lambda\}} \dot{\rho}_i = -3H \sum_{i \in \{m, \gamma, \Lambda\}} [\rho_i (1 + w_i)]$$

$$\dot{\rho}_m = -3H \rho_m (1 + w_m)$$

Density evolutions depend on the Hubble parameter.

$$\dot{\rho}_\gamma = -3H \rho_\gamma (1 + w_\gamma)$$

$$\dot{\rho}_\Lambda = -3H \rho_\Lambda (1 + w_\Lambda)$$

Recall $H \equiv \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$

We know $w_m = 0$ and $w_\gamma = \frac{1}{3}$:

$$\frac{d\rho_m}{\rho_m} = -3 \frac{da}{a} \Rightarrow \rho_m \propto a^{-3}$$

$$\frac{d\rho_\gamma}{\rho_\gamma} = -4 \frac{da}{a} \Rightarrow \rho_\gamma \propto a^{-4}$$

$$\frac{d\rho_\Lambda}{\rho_\Lambda} = -3(1 + w_\Lambda) \frac{da}{a} \Rightarrow \rho_\Lambda \propto a^{-3(1+w_\Lambda)}$$

The density of radiations decays faster than that of matter.

Energy densities depend on a and w

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} (\rho_{m,0} a^{-3} + \rho_{\gamma,0} a^{-4} + \rho_{\Lambda,0} a^{-3(1+w_\Lambda)})$$

The Hubble parameter scaling depends on energy fractions

$$H^2 = H_0^2 (\Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_\gamma a^{-4} + \Omega_\Lambda a^{-3(1+w_\Lambda)})$$

$$\rho_{\text{crit},0} \equiv \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G}$$

Current critical density

$$\Omega_m \equiv \frac{\rho_{m,0}}{\rho_{\text{crit},0}}$$

Current energy fraction of matter

$$\Omega_\gamma \equiv \frac{\rho_{\gamma,0}}{\rho_{\text{crit},0}}$$

Current energy fraction of radiations

$$\Omega_\Lambda \equiv \frac{\rho_{\Lambda,0}}{\rho_{\text{crit},0}}$$

Current energy fraction of “dark energy”

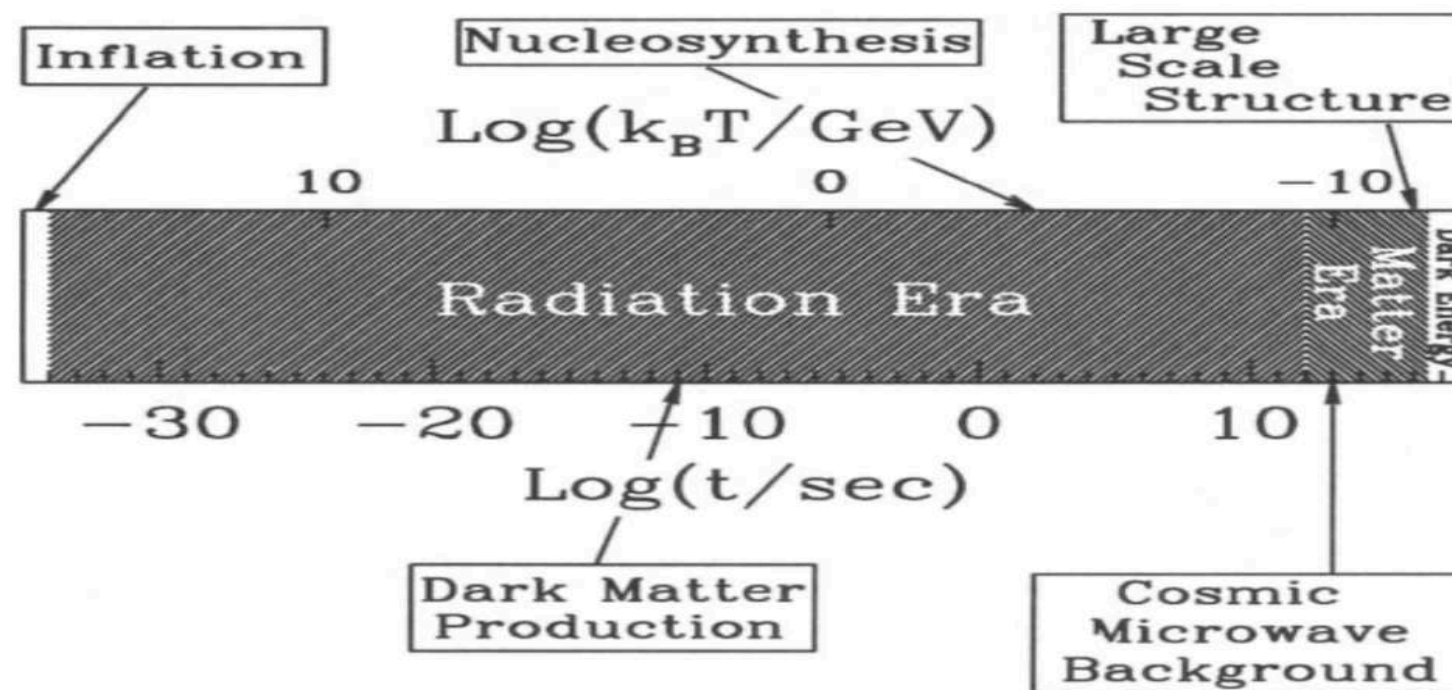
The first Friedmann equation in a general form:

$$H^2 = H_0^2 \left(\Omega_\gamma a^{-4} + \Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_k a^{-2} + \Omega_\Lambda a^{-3(1+w_\Lambda)} \right)$$

At the present day, we observe $\Omega_m \approx 0.3, \Omega_\gamma \approx 10^{-4}, \Omega_\Lambda \approx 0.7,$

Based on the scaling, there was a time at $a \approx 3 \times 10^{-4}$ or $z \approx 3000$ when the universe is in the matter-radiation equality.

$$\frac{\rho_m}{\rho_\gamma} = \frac{\rho_{m,0} a^{-3}}{\rho_{\gamma,0} a^{-4}} \approx \frac{0.3}{10^{-4}} a \approx 3000 a \approx 3000 \times \frac{1}{1+z}$$



S. Dodelson
Modern Cosmology

radiation – matter equality :	$a_{\gamma m} \approx 10^{-4}$	$z_{\gamma m} \approx 3440$	$t_{\gamma m} \approx 50,000$ yr
matter – Λ equality :	$a_{m\Lambda} \approx 0.77$	$z_{m\Lambda} \approx 0.3$	$t_{m\Lambda} \approx 10$ Gyr
now :	$a = 1$	$z = 0$	$t \approx 14$ Gyr

The Second Friedmann (Acceleration) Equation

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

The ac/deceleration of the expansion \Leftrightarrow the nature of energy contents

$$\text{Deceleration} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \ddot{a} < 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad w > -\frac{1}{3}$$

$$\text{Acceleration} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \ddot{a} > 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad w < -\frac{1}{3}$$

In the radiation and matter dominated eras, the expansion is decelerating.

The accelerating expansion $\Rightarrow w < -1/3$.

What is dark energy?

$$\text{If } w = -1, \quad \dot{\rho}_{\Lambda} = -3H\rho_{\Lambda} (1 + w) = 0$$

$$\text{If } w < -1, \quad \dot{\rho}_{\Lambda} > 0$$

$$\text{If } w > -1, \quad \dot{\rho}_{\Lambda} < 0$$

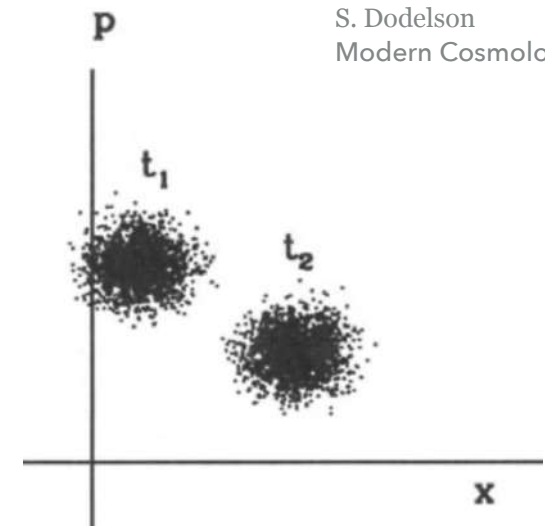
The cosmological constant (Λ)

So far, all observations imply $w \approx -1$.

The Inhomogeneous Universe

Imagine all species (matter, radiations, etc) as fluids of cosmological particles with velocities which evolve in time.

The goal is to solve the distribution $f(\vec{x}, \vec{p}, t)$. This distribution is described by the **Boltzmann equation**. $\frac{df}{dt} = C[f]$



Consider a simple case: non-relativistic particles without collisions with other species in a universe with a homogeneous and isotropic expansion (FLRW metric). The Boltzmann equation leads to the continuity equation and the Euler equation.

The continuity equation: $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho \vec{v}) = 0$

The Euler equation: $\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + \left(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) \vec{v} = -\frac{\vec{\nabla} p}{\rho} - \vec{\nabla} \Phi$

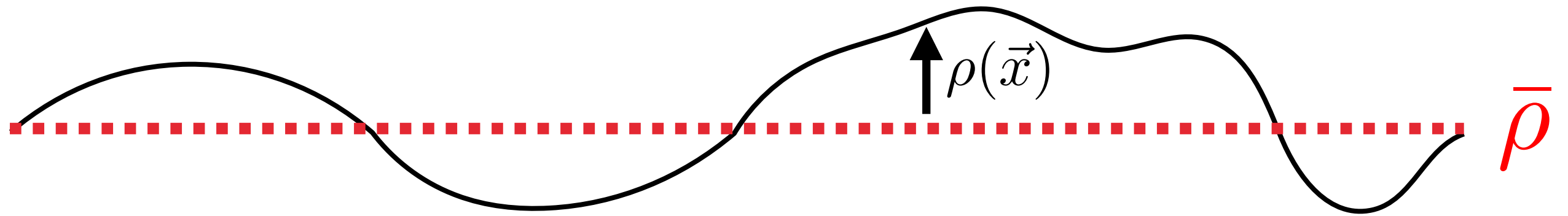
Solvable

The Poisson equation: $\nabla^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho$

The zero-order solution: the uniform background $\rho(\vec{x}, t) = \bar{\rho}(t)$ and the Hubble flow $\vec{v} = H\vec{x}$.

What we care about is the “**first-order**” perturbation.

Linear Perturbations



The structure is a (linear) perturbation to the background. We can rewrite:

$$\rho = \bar{\rho} + \delta\rho$$

$$\vec{v} = \vec{\bar{v}} + \delta\vec{v}$$

$$p = \bar{p} + \delta p$$

$$\Phi = \bar{\Phi} + \delta\Phi$$

The zero-order quantities describe the background (Friedmann equations).

The first-order quantities describe linear structures.

Collecting the first-order terms:

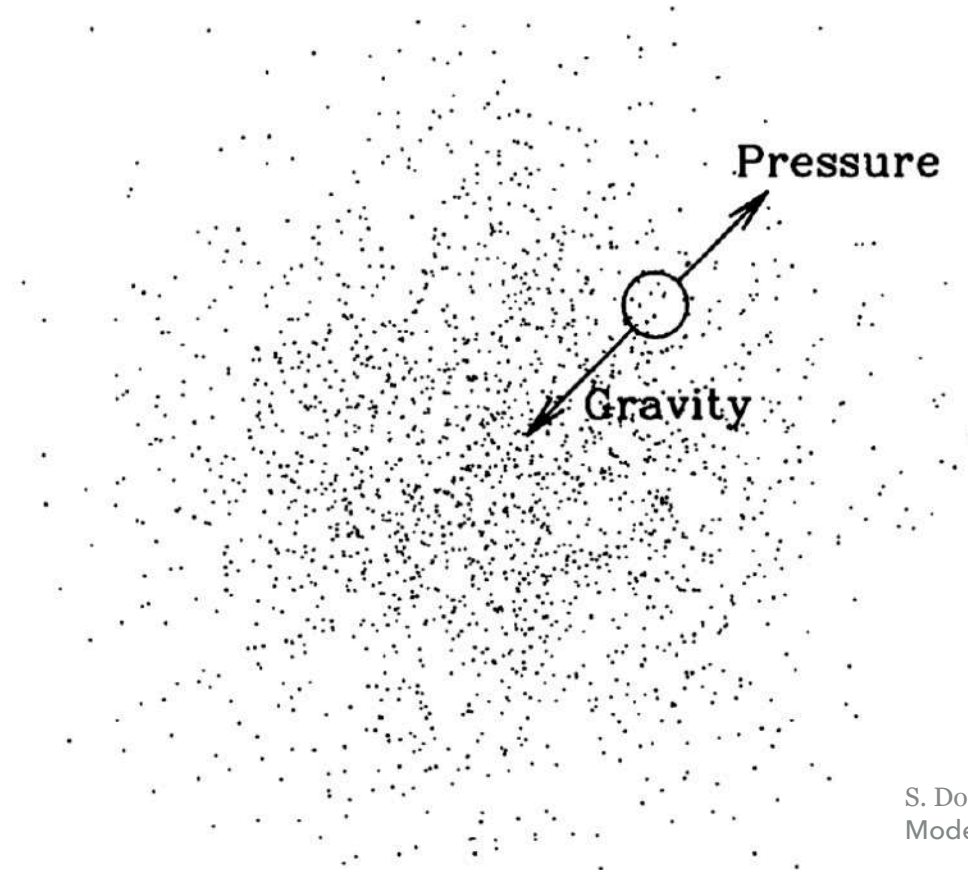
$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} = (4\pi G\bar{\rho} - c_s^2\nabla^2)\delta$$

The Hubble flow is the damping term.

$$\delta \equiv \frac{\delta\rho}{\bar{\rho}} \quad c_s^2 \equiv \frac{\delta p}{\delta\rho}$$

δ : The overdensity of perturbations

The Growth of Structures in a Static Universe



Consider $H = 0$:

$$\ddot{\delta} = \left(4\pi G \bar{\rho} - c_s^2 \nabla^2 \right) \delta$$

$$\lambda_J \equiv c_s \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{G \bar{\rho}}}$$

$\lambda > \lambda_J \Rightarrow$ Gravitational collapse.

$\lambda < \lambda_J \Rightarrow$ Pressure dominated.

There are two competing forces, the self-gravity and the pressure. This leads to the so-called “**Jeans instability**”.

Structures grow exponentially in a static universe.

Perturbations propagate as sound waves.

The Growth of CDM Structures

Let's assume that the particles are cold dark matter (pressureless):

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - 4\pi G\bar{\rho}\delta = 0$$

$$t_H \propto \frac{1}{H} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho}} \qquad t_{\text{collapse}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho_m}}$$

$t_H \lesssim t_{\text{collapse}}$ (*i.e.*, $\rho \gtrsim \rho_m$): The perturbation grows very slowly. That is, structures form slowly if the cosmic density is *not* dominated by matter.

$t_H \approx t_{\text{collapse}}$ (*i.e.*, $\rho \approx \sqrt{\rho_m}$): The perturbation grows. Moreover, structures grow as a power law of time (not exponentially).

One can easily show that the solution to the perturbation equation is “slowed” if the the Hubble expansion is a constant.

The perturbation equation

The competition between the expansion and the self-gravity.

In the radiation-dominated era, the structures do not grow significantly (the **Meszaros effect**).

In the matter-dominated era, the structures grow “linearly”.
The linear growth:
 $\delta(\vec{x}, t) = \delta(\vec{x})D(t) \propto \delta(\vec{x})t^{\frac{2}{3}} \propto \delta(\vec{x})a(t)$

In the “cosmological constant (Λ)” dominated era, the structures remain constant or decays.

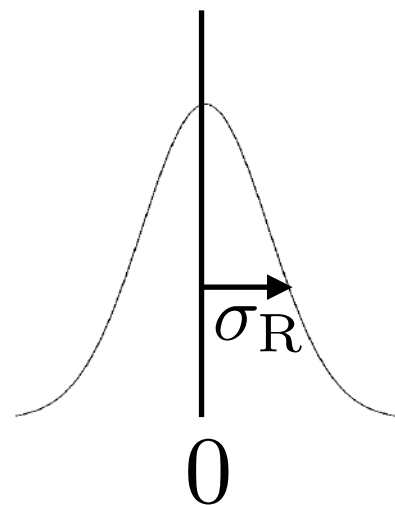
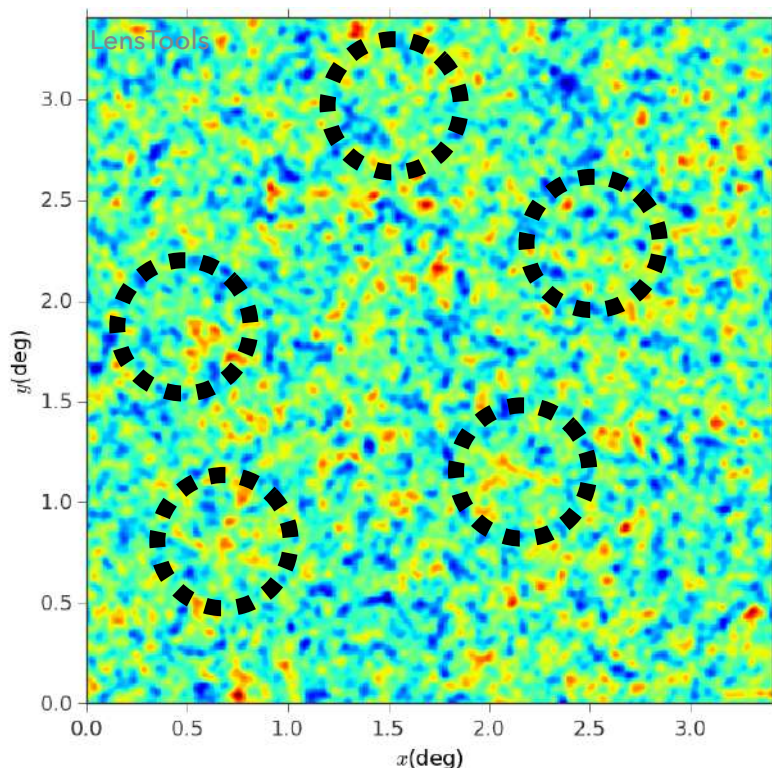
The Density Field—the Gaussian Random Field

So far, we know how the density perturbations evolve in time (asymptotically). To solve the full perturbation equation, we need is the initial perturbations $\delta(\vec{x}, t = 0)$.

Right after the big bang, the universe experienced an extremely rapid (60 e-fold) expansion that we call the “**inflation**”. The “**quantum fluctuation**” during the inflation becomes the “**primordial fluctuation**”, as the initial perturbation.

A general (and quite intuitive!) assumption is that the primordial perturbation is a **Gaussian random field**. Specifically, given a scale of interested, the smoothed overdensity field can be solely described by a **variance**.

$$\Delta_R^2(k) \equiv \frac{1}{2\pi^2} k^3 P(k)$$



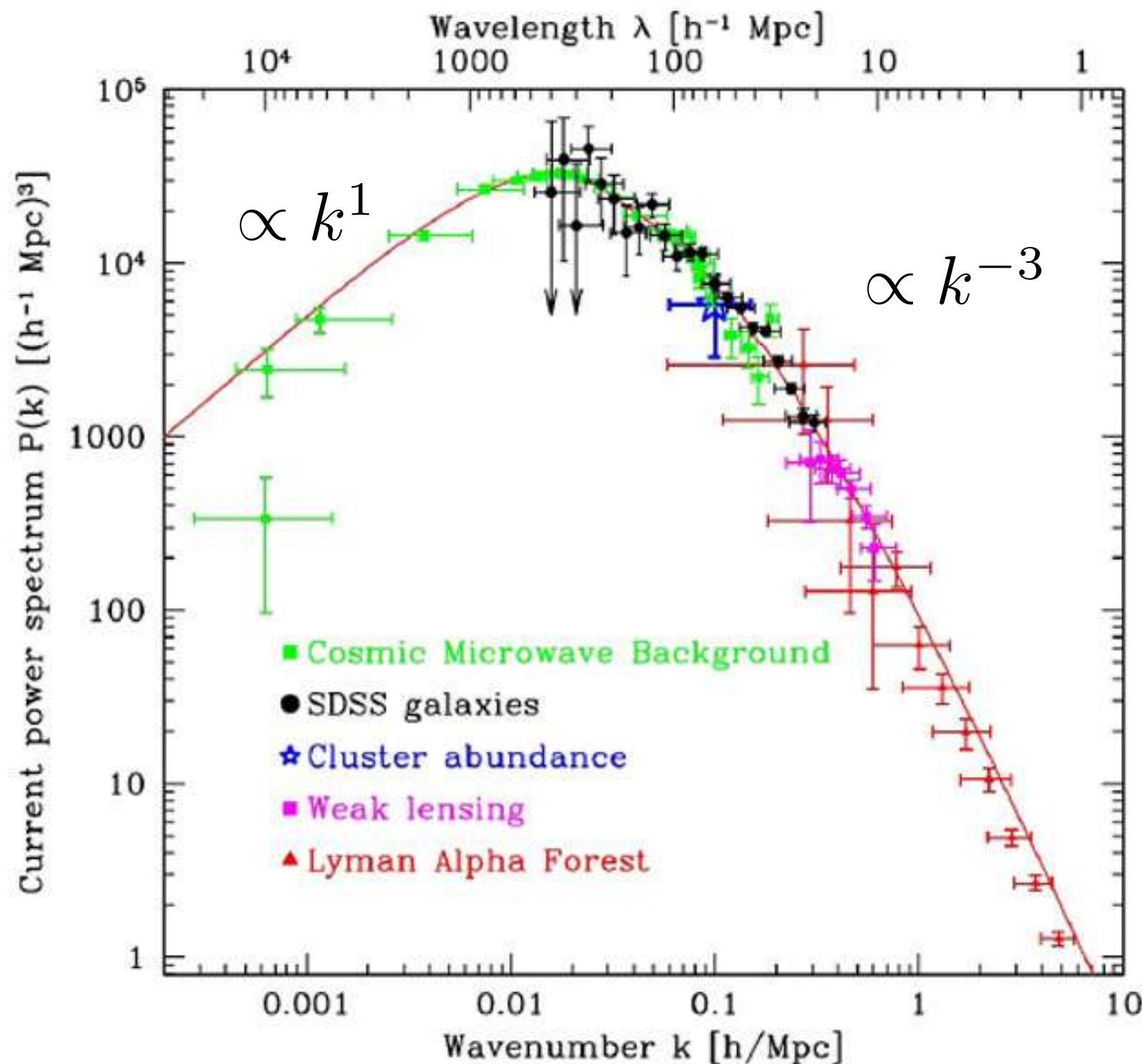
Smaller $R \Leftrightarrow$ larger $k \sim 1/R \Leftrightarrow$ larger variance.

Determining the power spectrum $P(k)$ is big in cosmology.

We know the **initial power spectrum** $P_0(k) \sim k^{0.97}$. We know the evolution (**growth function**). Determining the **normalization** is effectively probing the primordial perturbation.

The Matter Power Spectrum

$$P(k, a) \propto P_p(k) T^2(k) D^2(a)$$

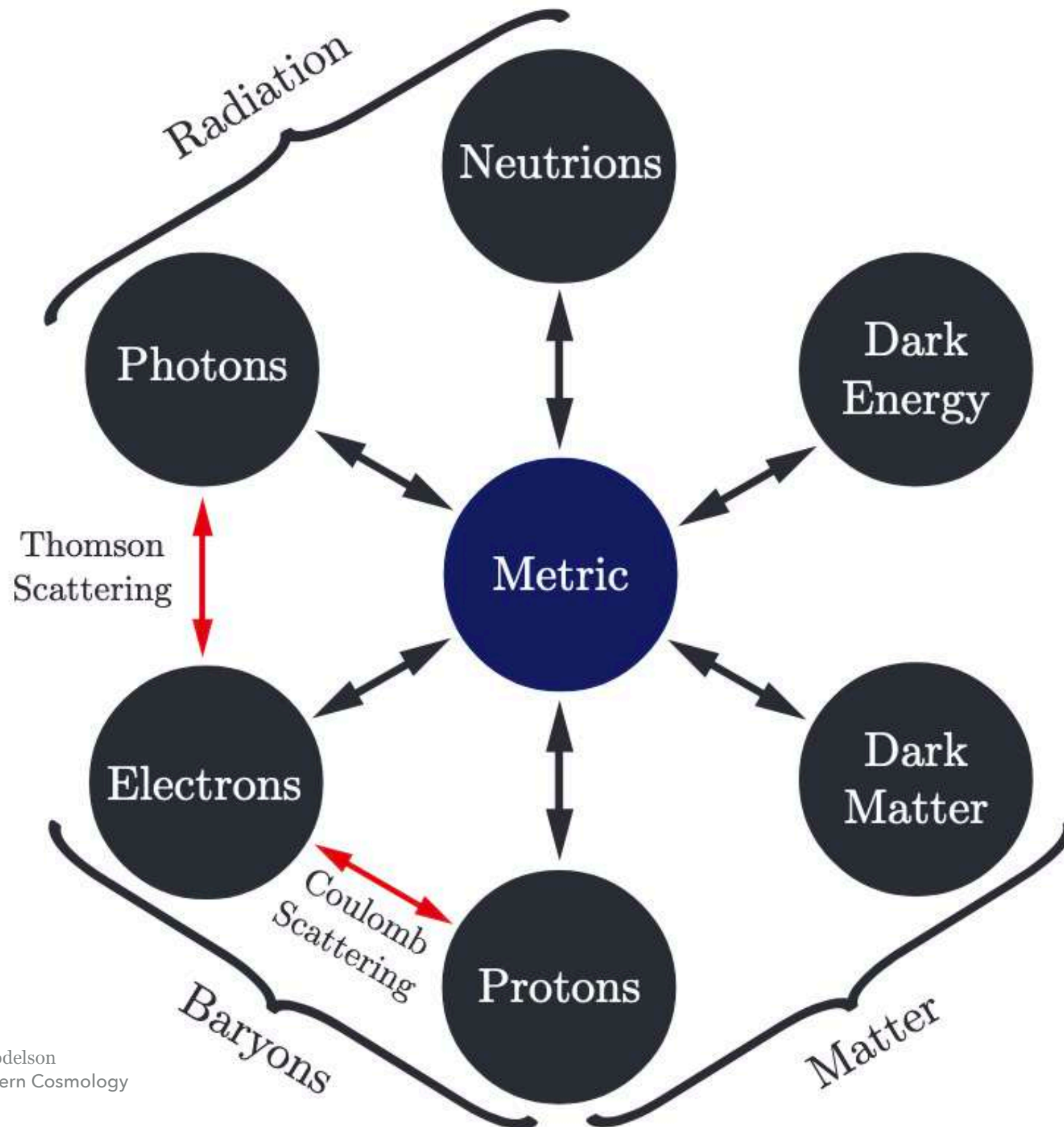


$T(k)$ the transfer function
 $D(a)$ the growth factor
 $P_p(k)$ the primordial spectrum

The matter power spectrum is $\propto k$
($\propto k^{-3}$) at large (small) scales.

At large scales, the slope is set up
by the primordial spectrum, which
is referred to a “**scale-invariant
spectrum**” if $P_p(k) \propto k$.

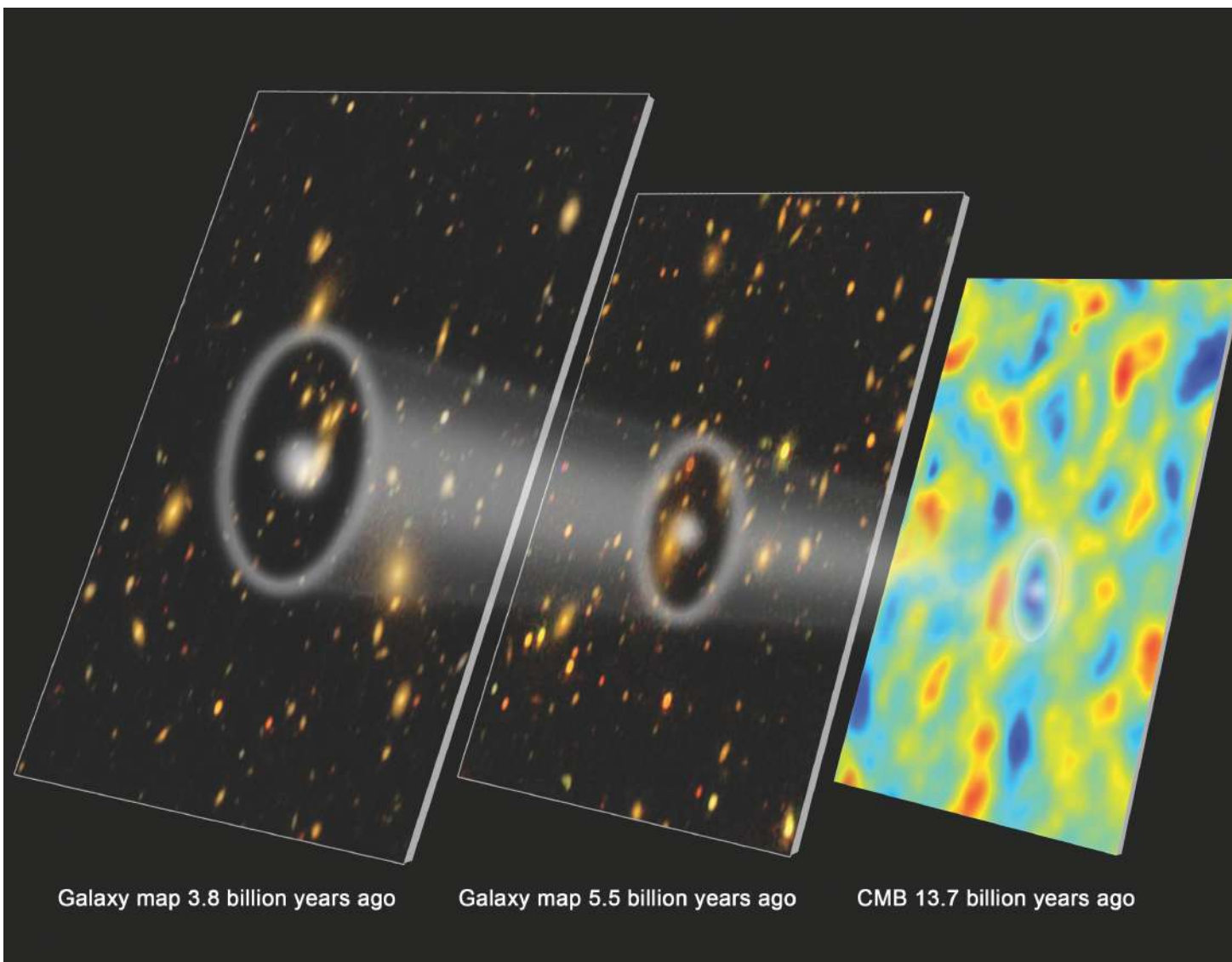
The Full Solutions to the Boltzmann Equation



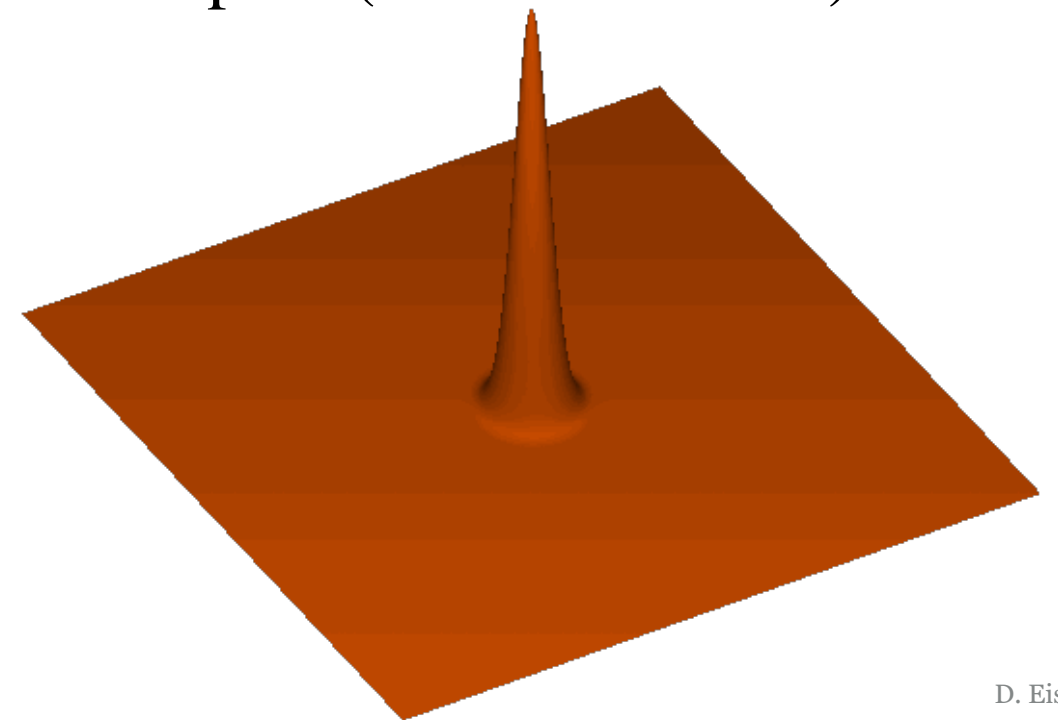
Collision terms $\neq 0$

Measurements of the Universe

Baryonic Acoustic Oscillations (BAO)



In the early universe, perturbations propagate as sound waves in the photon-baryon fluid. At the recombination, photons start to move freely. Meanwhile, the perturbations freeze at a fixed scale of $\approx 100 \text{ Mpc/h}$ (a standard ruler).

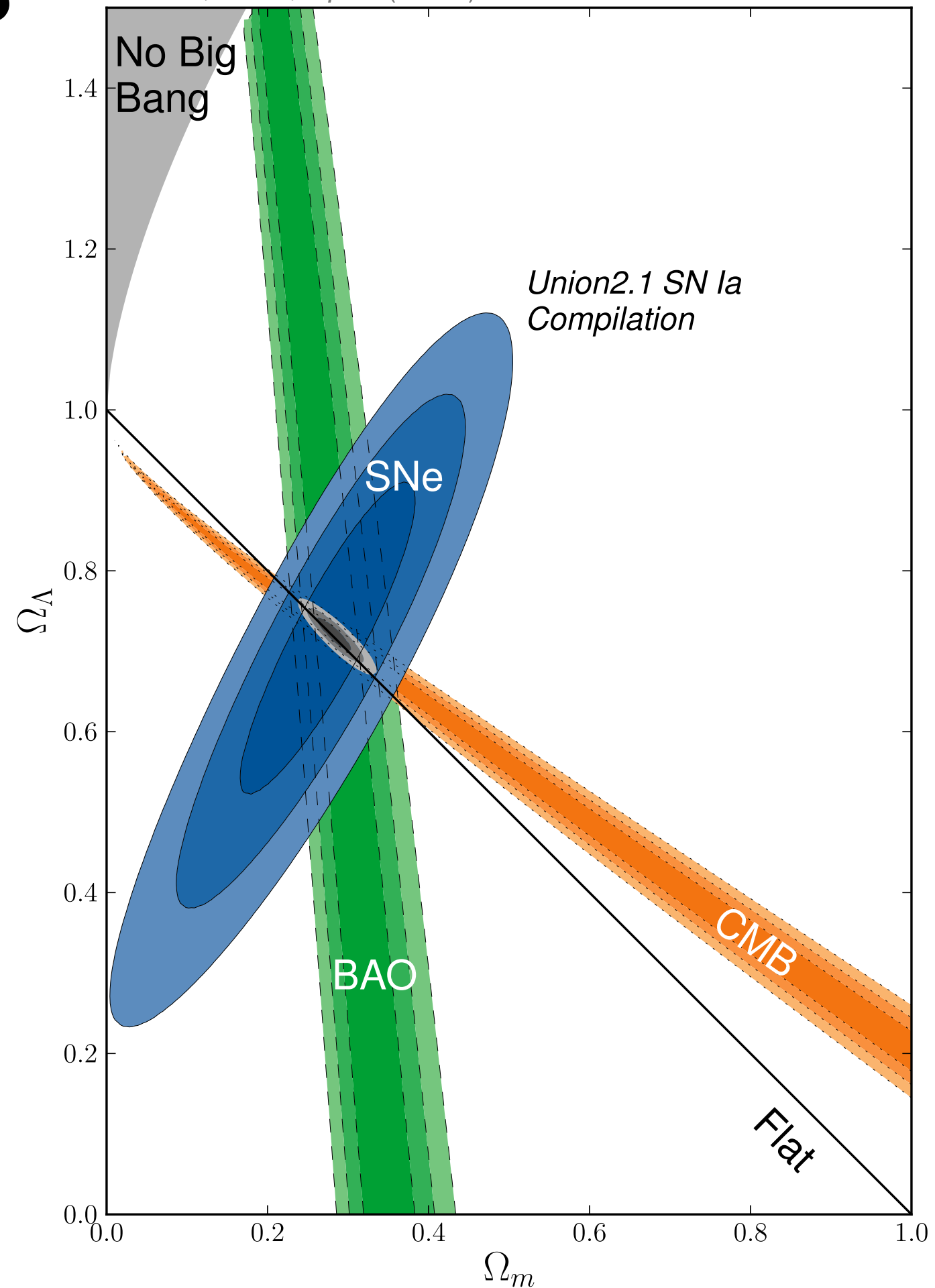


D. Eisenstein

Cosmological Constraints

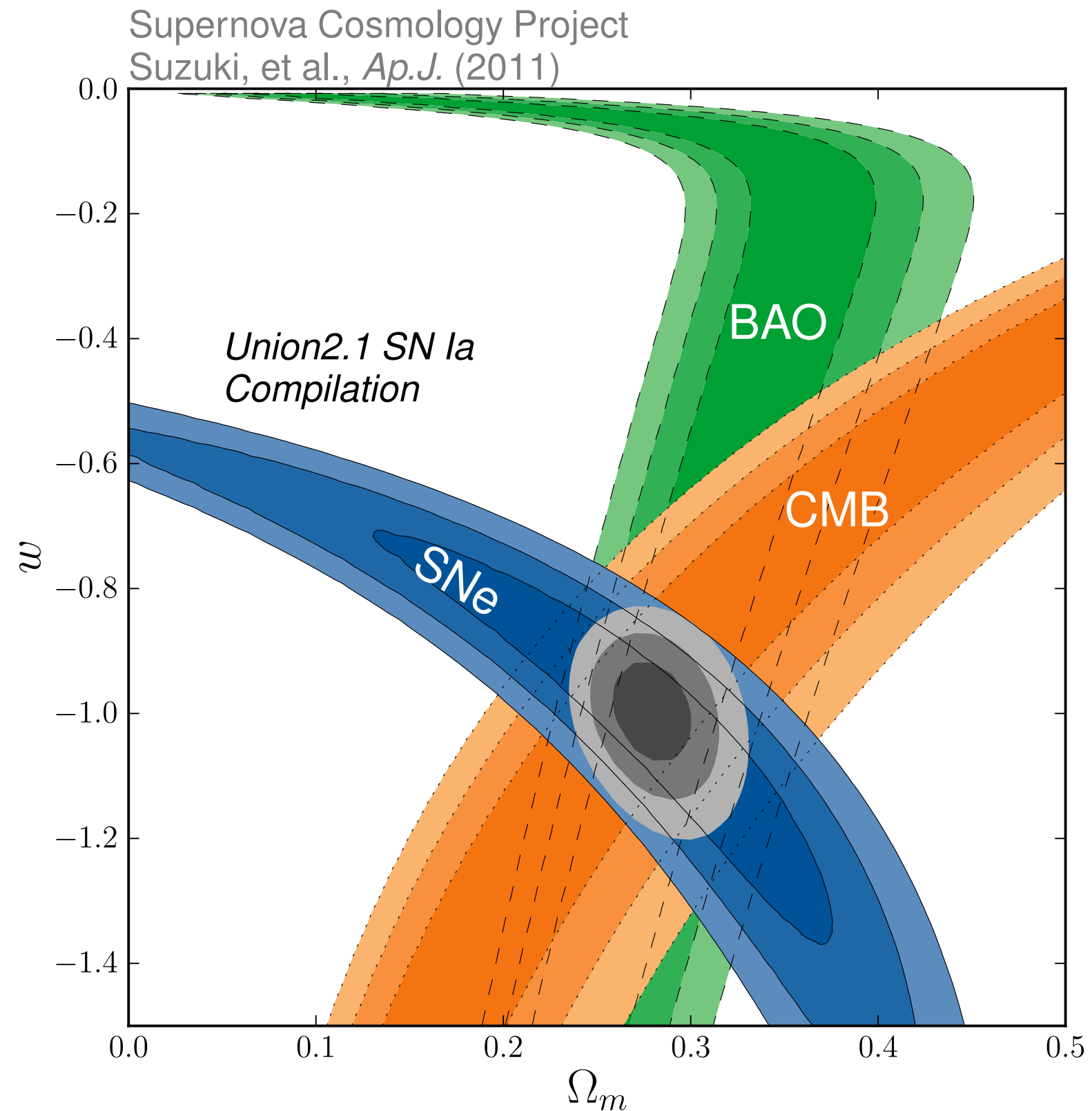
Supernova Cosmology Project
Suzuki, et al., *Ap.J.* (2011)

The universe is flat and has
 $\Omega_m \approx 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda \approx 0.7$

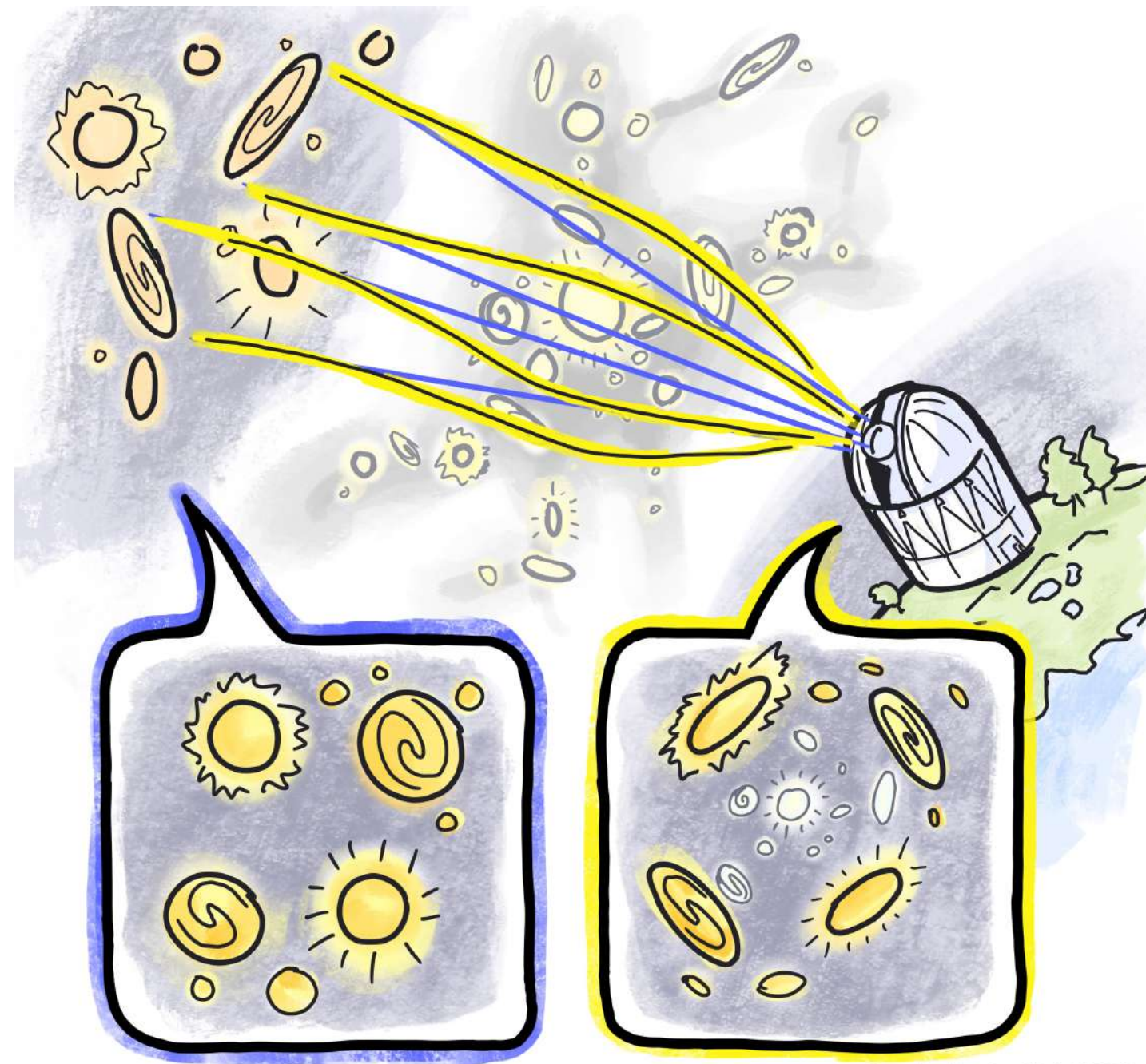


Cosmological Constraints

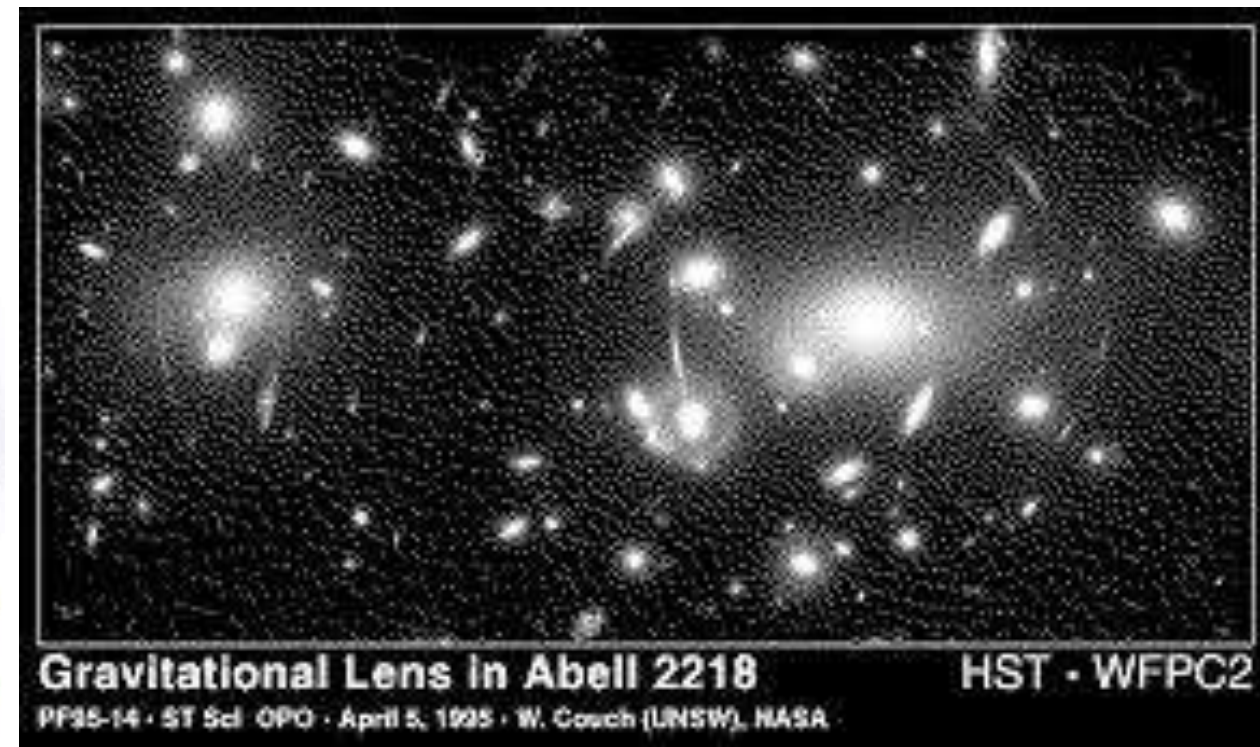
All observations are consistent with
 $w = -1$



Weak Gravitational Lensing

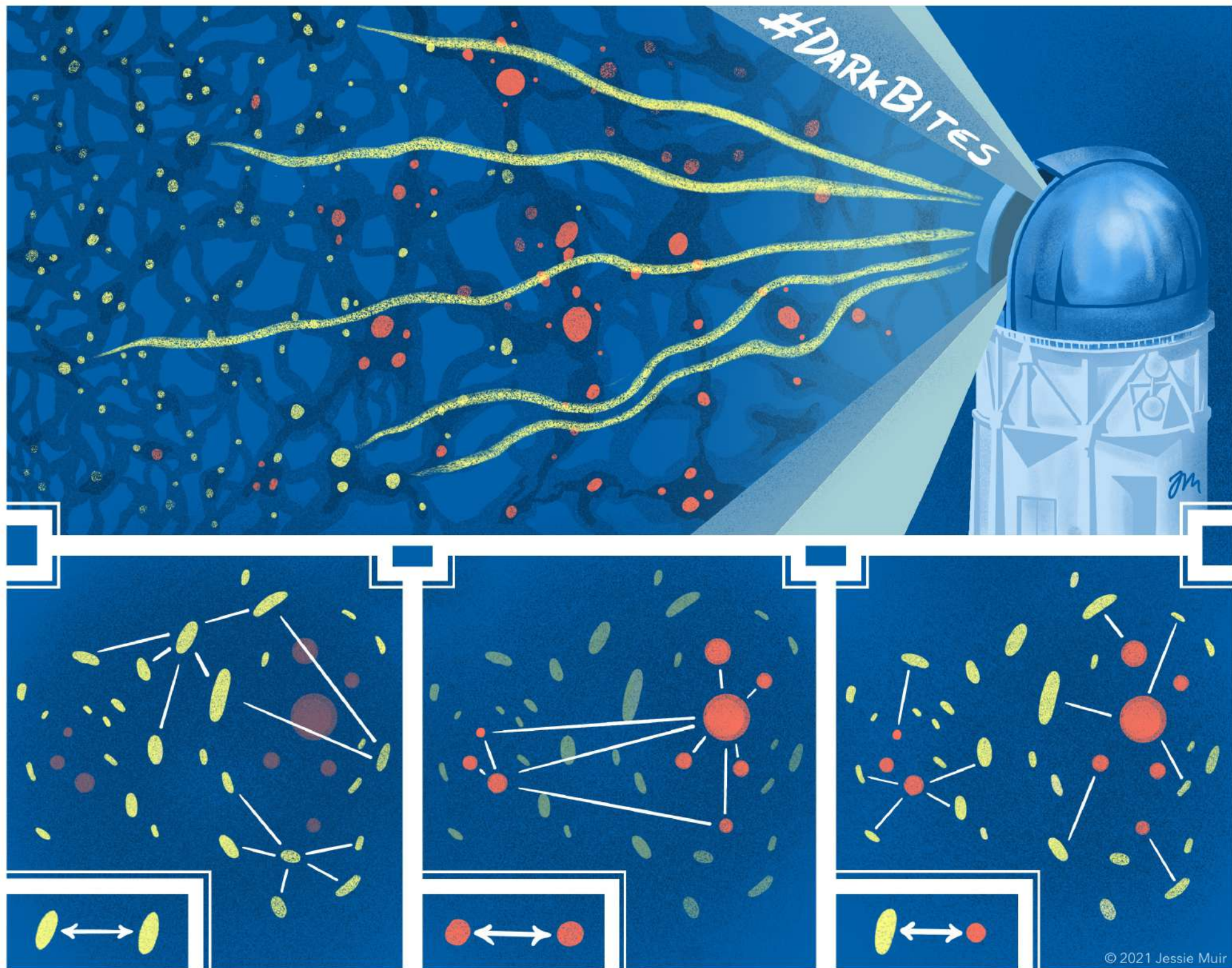


Credit: Jessie Muir 2020



The technique of weak gravitational lensing probes the total potential, providing an extremely powerful tool for cosmology.

Weak Lensing and Clustering of Structures



Lensing x Lensing

Clustering

Weak lensing

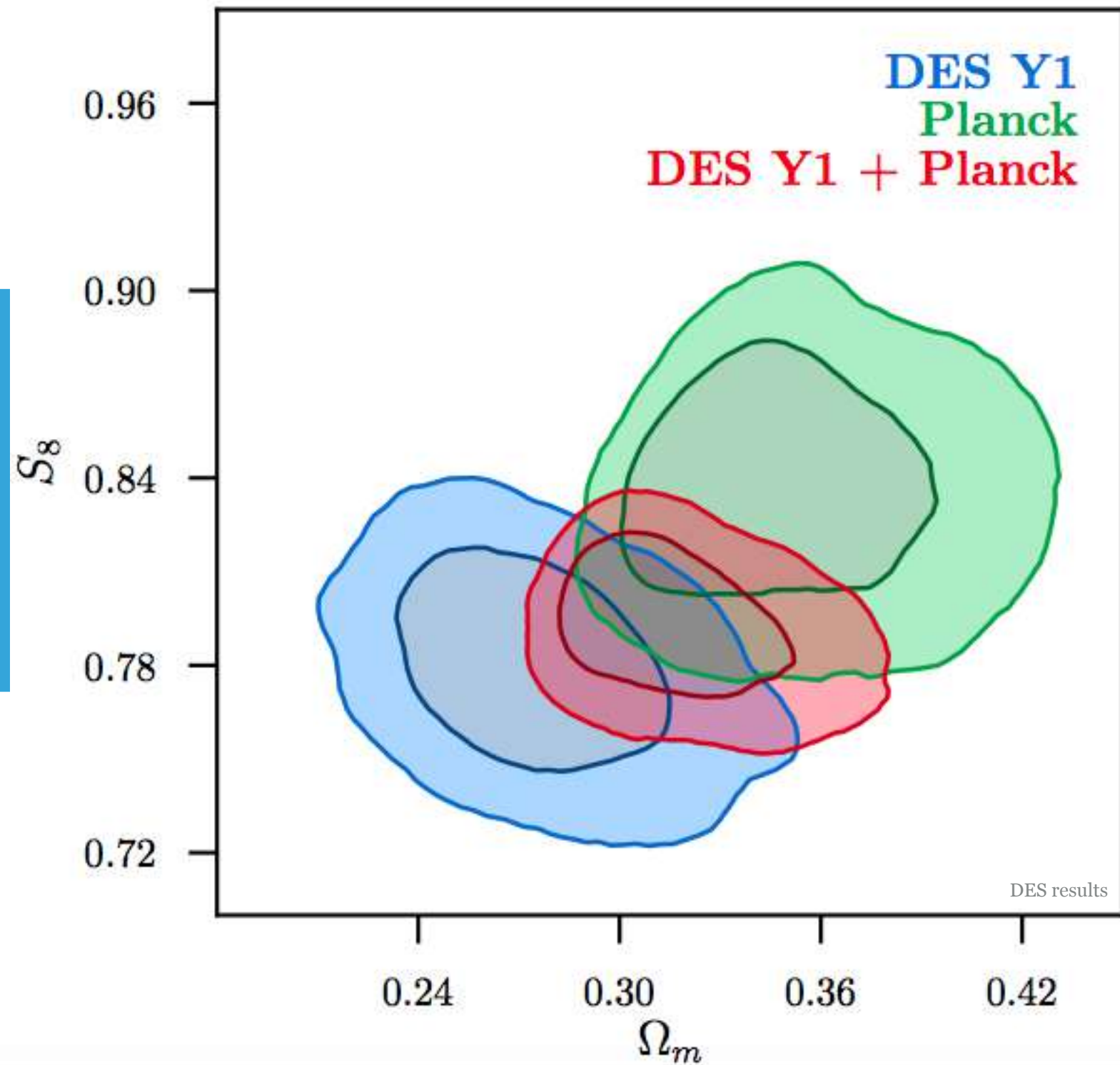
© 2021 Jessie Muir

Cosmological Constraints

$$S_8 \equiv \sigma_8 \sqrt{\Omega_m/0.3}$$

$\propto \sigma_8 \equiv$ overdensity fluctuations
at a scale of 8 Mpc/h

All probes infer a consistent picture of
structure formations.

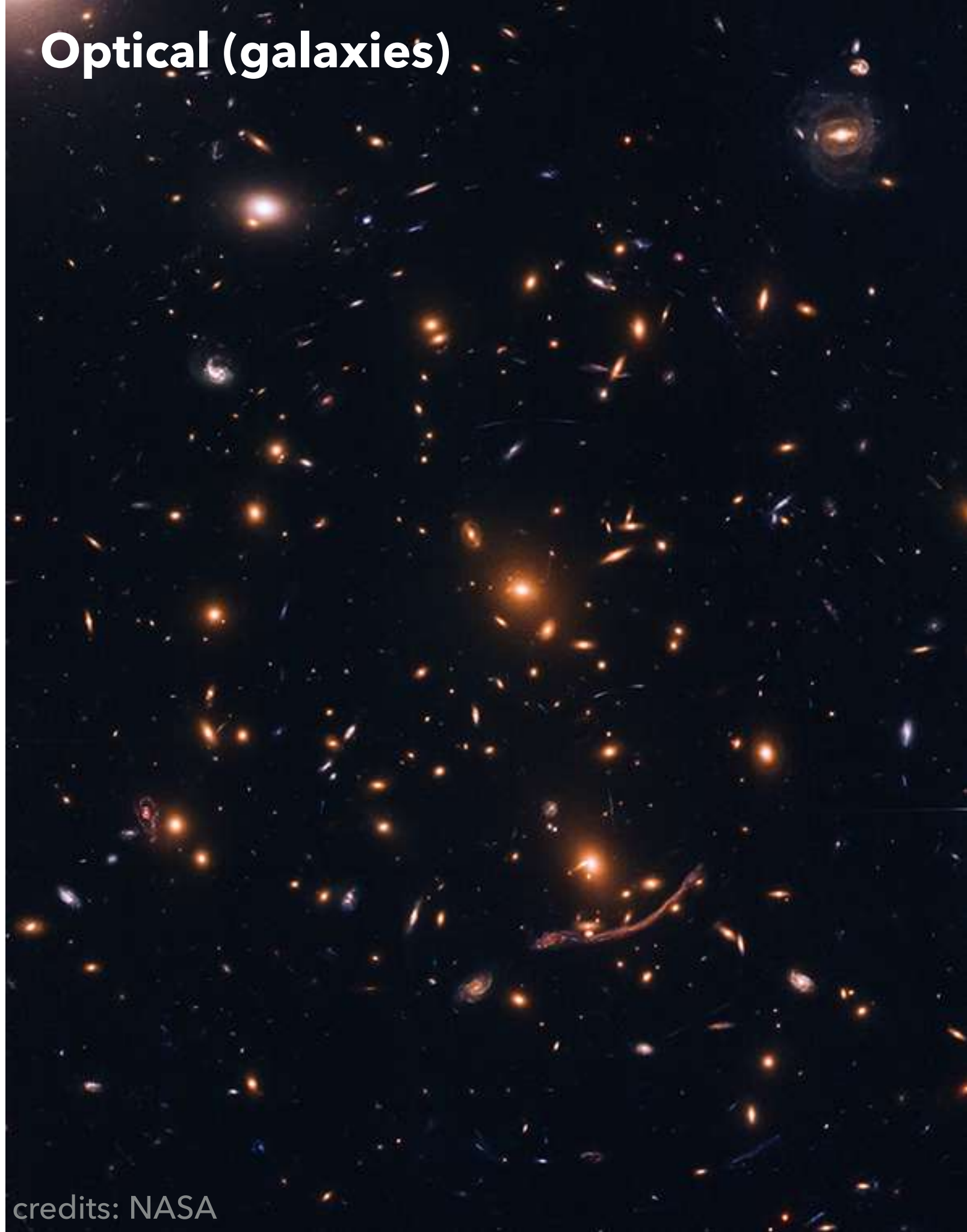


Galaxy Clusters

- ☉ The largest systems in the universe
- ☉ Extremely massive ($M \approx 10^{15} M_{\odot}$) and large ($R \approx \text{Mpc}$)
- ☉ $\approx 80\%$ mass in dark matter
- ☉ $\approx 20\%$ mass in baryons
 - ▶ $\approx 5\%$ mass in stars (galaxies)
 - ▶ $\approx 15\%$ mass in hot plasma (intracluster medium, ICM)

An ideal cosmic laboratory!

Optical (galaxies)



credits: NASA

Galaxy Clusters

X-ray (ICM)

- The largest systems in the universe
- Extremely massive ($M \approx 10^{15} M_{\odot}$) and large ($R \approx \text{Mpc}$)
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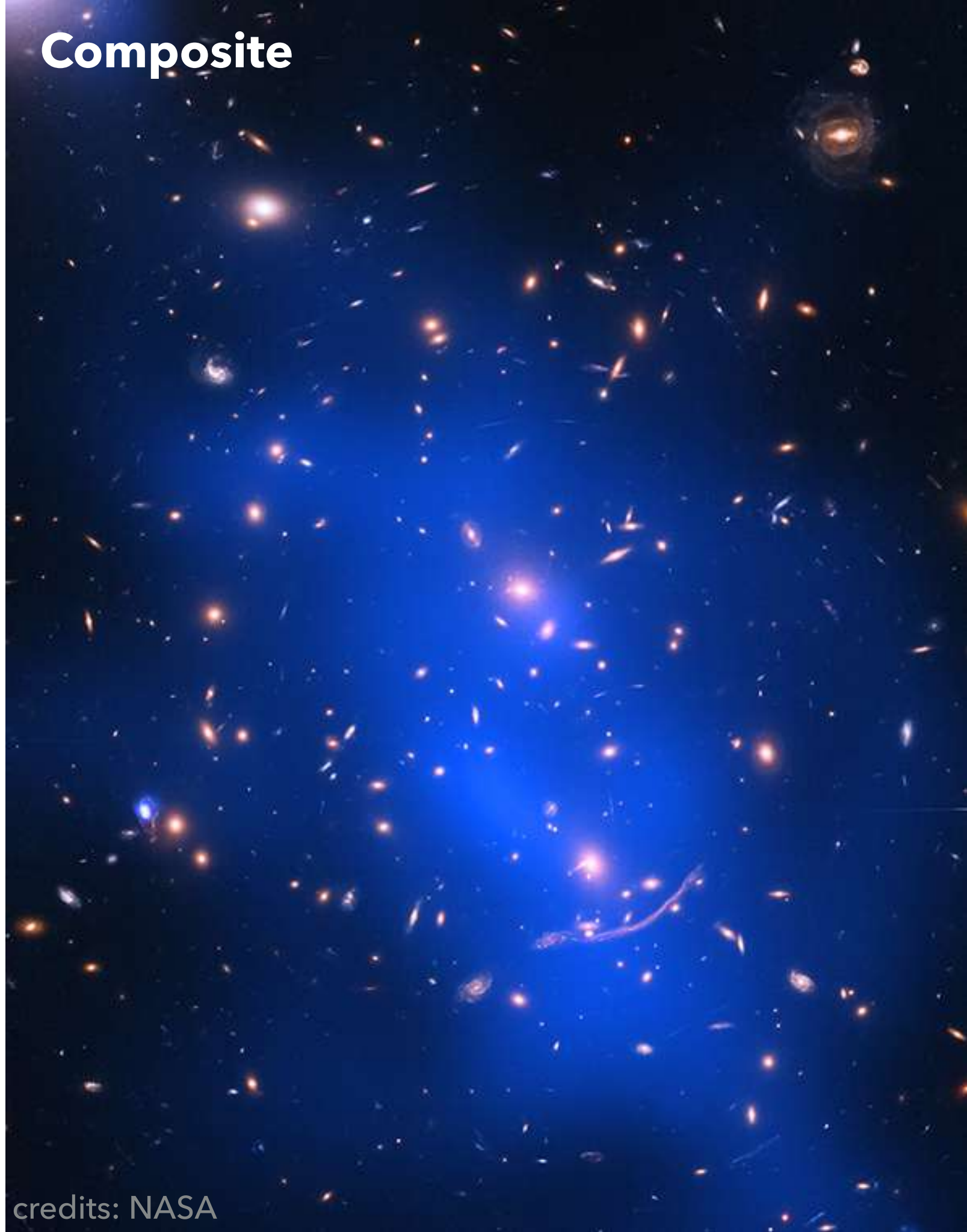
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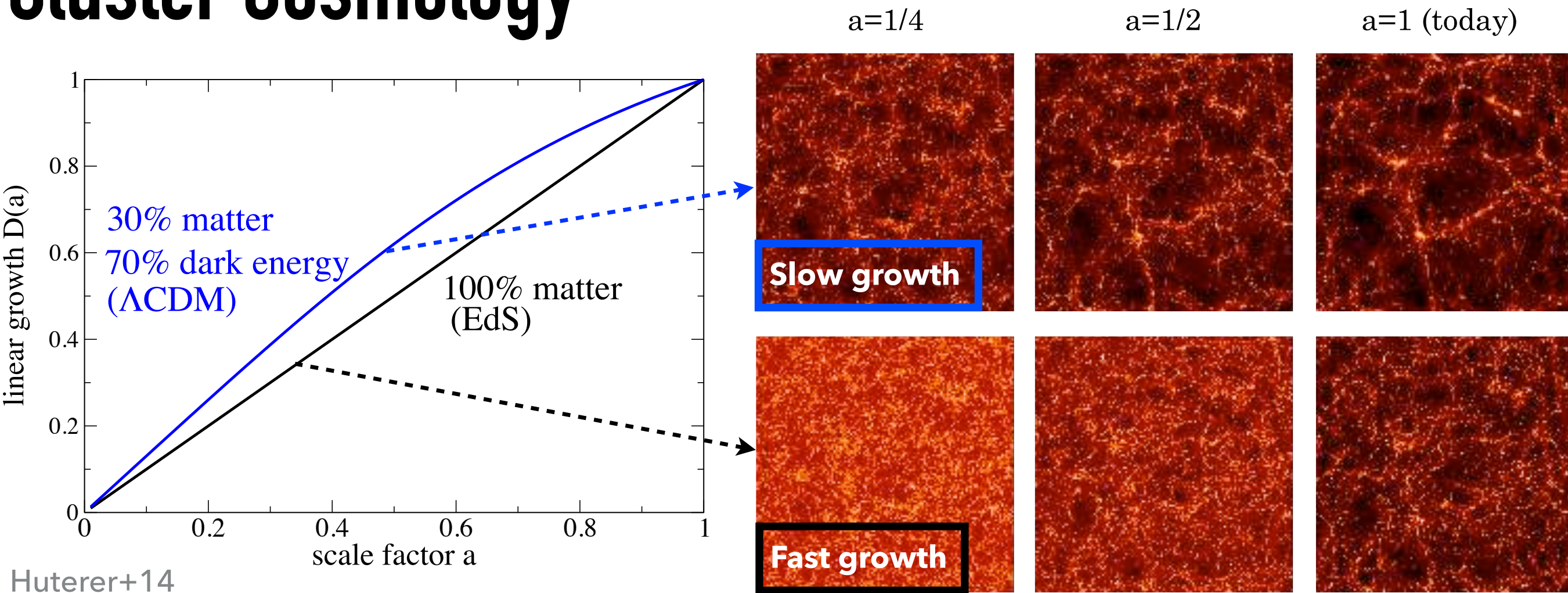
An ideal cosmic laboratory!

Composite



credits: NASA

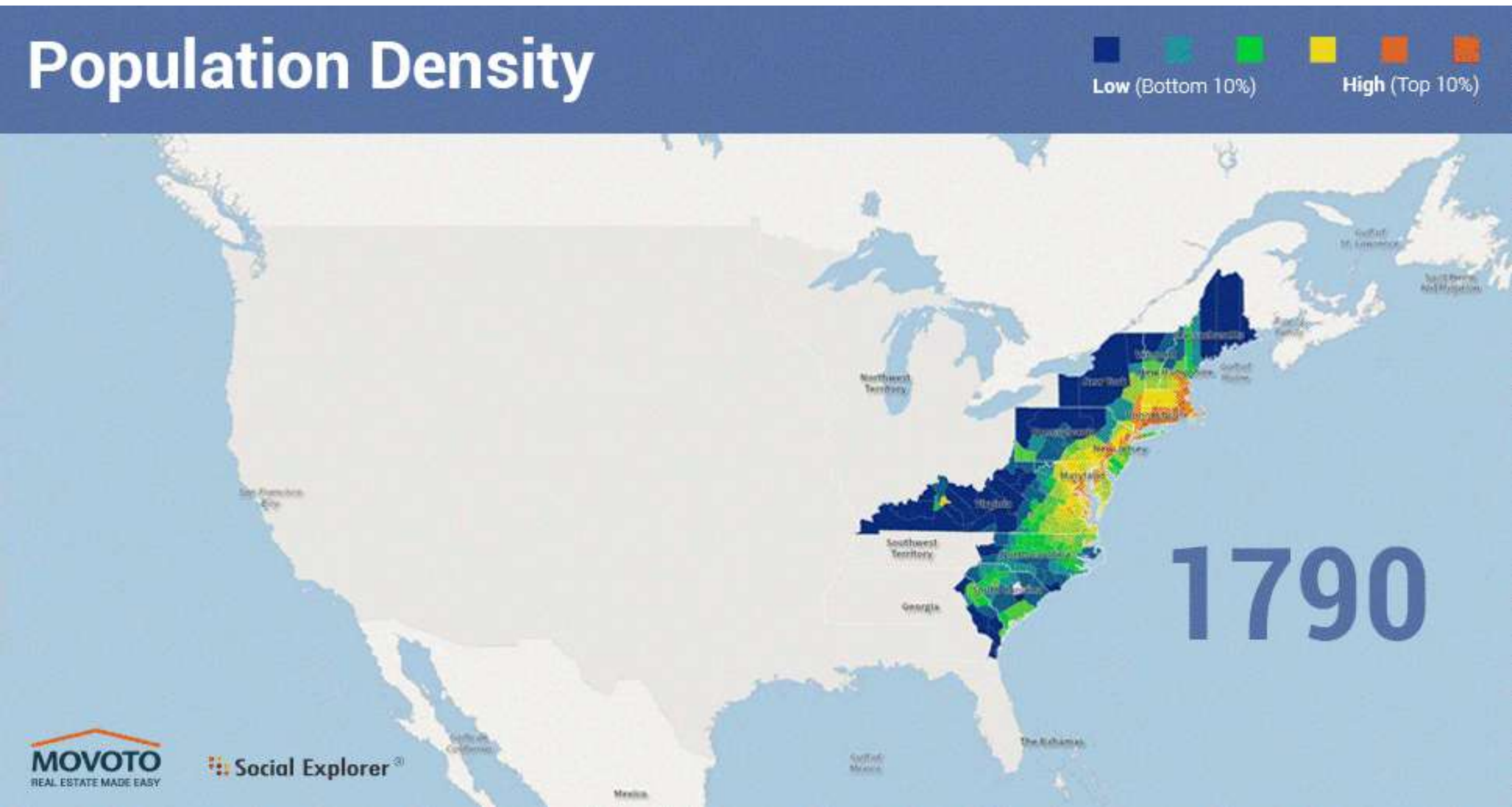
Cluster Cosmology



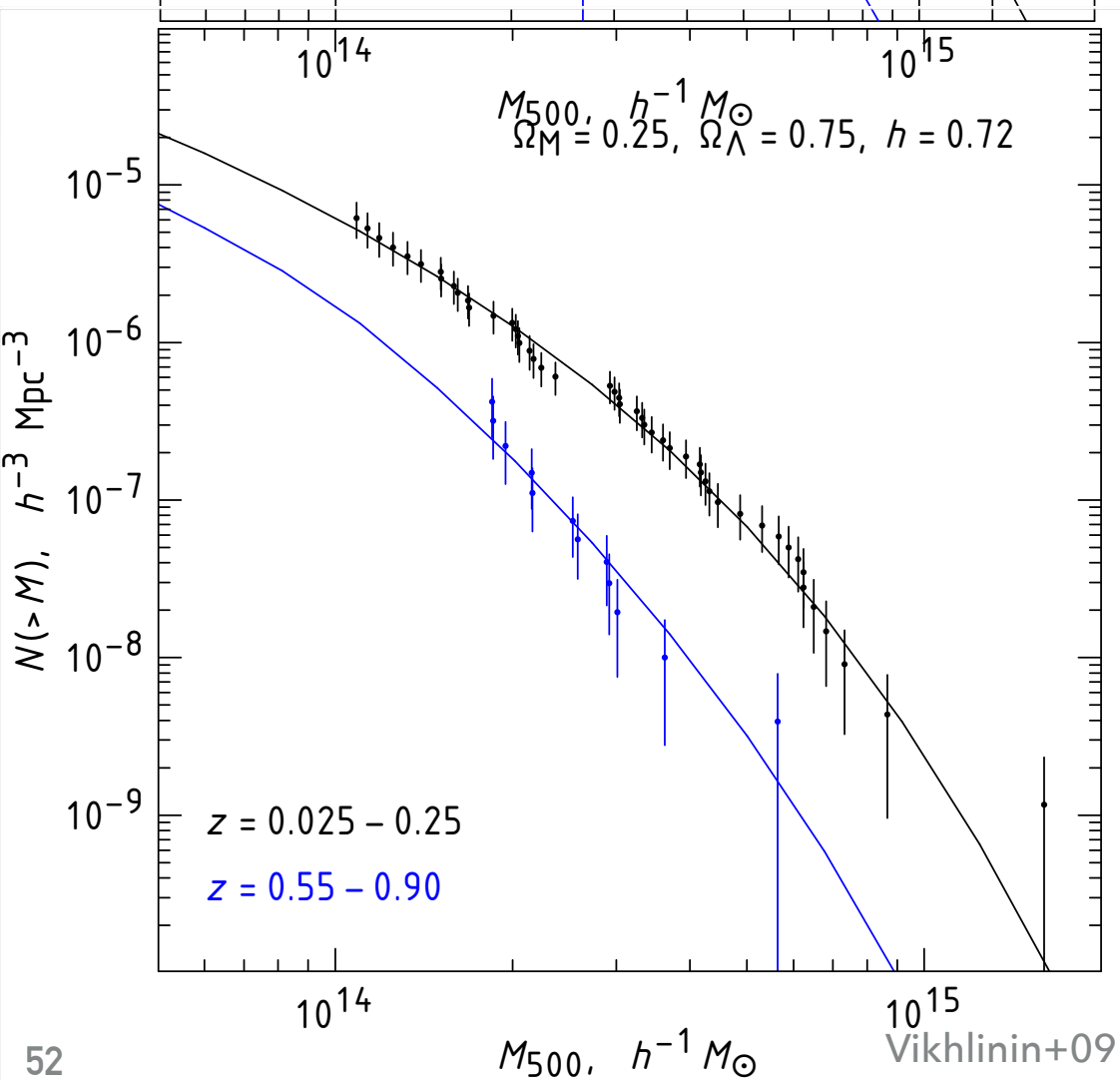
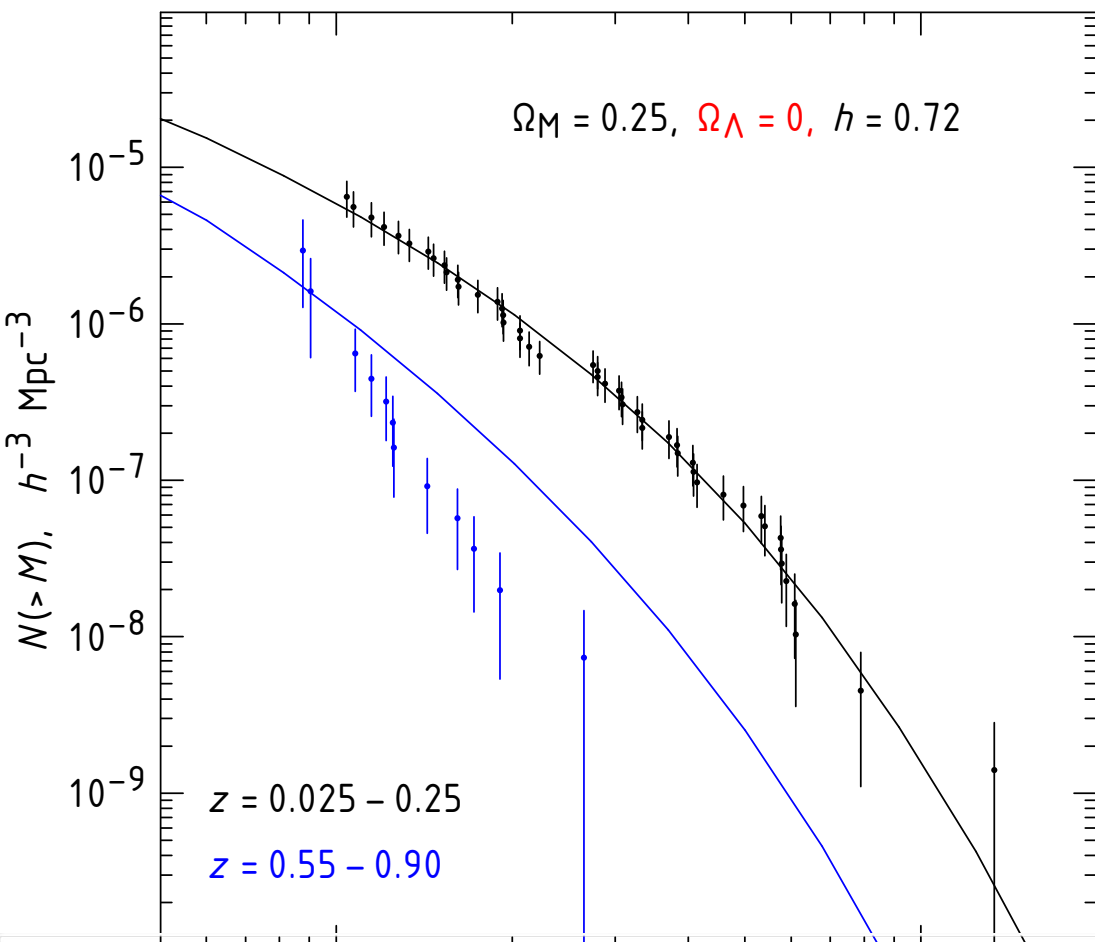
- Structure formations are extremely sensitive to dark energy.
- The number of galaxy clusters in a cosmic volume is powerful in constraining dark energy.

Counting clusters (abundance) to infer cosmology!

Analogy of Cluster Cosmology



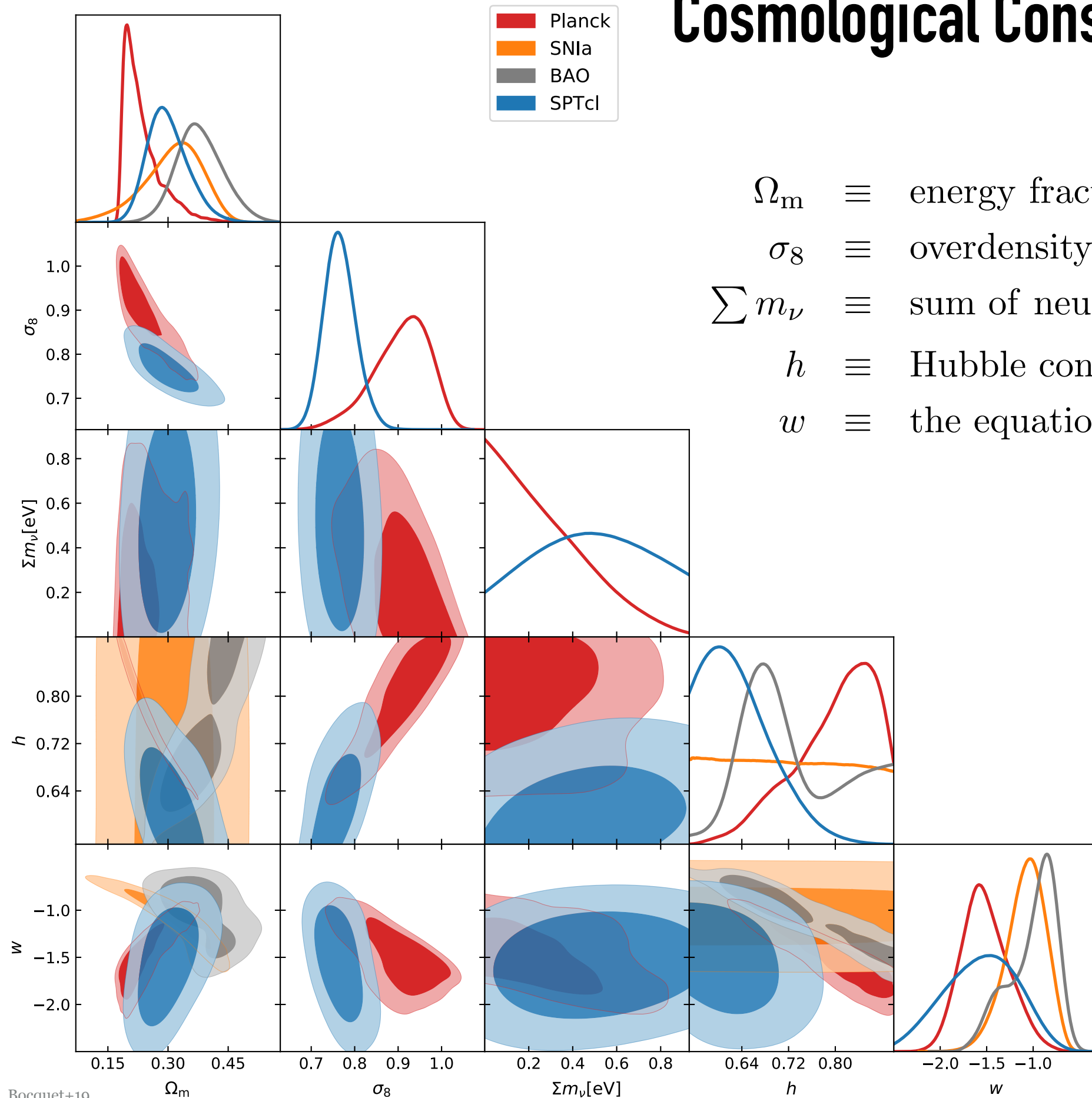
Halo Mass Function



$$\frac{dn}{dM} = f(\sigma) \frac{\rho_m}{M} \frac{d\sigma^{-1}}{dM}$$

$$\sigma \equiv \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int P(k, z) W_M(k)^2 dk^3$$

Cosmological Constraints From Clusters



Take-Home Messages

- The standard cosmological model is introduced:
 - The universe originated from a big bang ≈ 14 Gyr ago and has been expanding since then.
 - The cosmic expansion is accelerating at the present day.
 - The universe is well described by the Λ CDM model:
 - ▶ $\approx 5\%$ baryonic matter
 - ▶ $\approx 25\%$ cold dark matter (CDM)
 - ▶ $\approx 70\%$ dark energy (Λ)
- The universe is homogeneous and isotropic at large scales, well described by the Friedmann equations.
- Cosmic structures of the universe act as linear perturbations to the uniform background.
- We have showcased some observational constraints on cosmology.

Further Reading

- A very nicely written textbook at an undergraduate level:
“Introduction to Cosmology” by Barbara Ryden

<https://www.amazon.com/Introduction-Cosmology-Barbara-Ryden/dp/1107154839>

Online lectures by Prof. Ryden:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ndSD9U34-gM&list=PLwWRX55-E1nYlD7o6W91wV8OYHongFNxU>

- For those who want to dig more:
“Modern Cosmology” by Scott Dodelson is a must-have:

<https://www.amazon.com/Modern-Cosmology-Scott-Dodelson/dp/0128159480>