



Microcosmo e Macrocosmo

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Microcosmo e Macrocosmo

- Le proprietà *globali* e *locali* dell' universo dipendono dalle particelle che lo compongono, e dalle loro interazioni.
- Per questo si possono usare le leggi della fisica per prevedere struttura globale ed evoluzione dell' universo (Cosmologia) e delle sue strutture (Astrofisica).
- Viceversa, spesso le osservazioni astrofisiche e cosmologiche danno indicazioni di grande interesse per la fisica fondamentale.
- Inoltre, i cosmologi e gli astrofisici hanno sviluppato le più avanzate metodologie sperimentali, sfruttando le interazioni tra i vettori di informazione (la luce, i fotoni) e i sistemi di rivelazione (materia microscopica) per indagare i dettagli più elusivi del cosmo.

Microcosmo e Macrocosmo

- Prima lezione: Come con la fisica si può descrivere l' universo a grande scala e la sua evoluzione
- Seconda lezione: le misure sull' universo primordiale e le grandi domande ancora aperte.

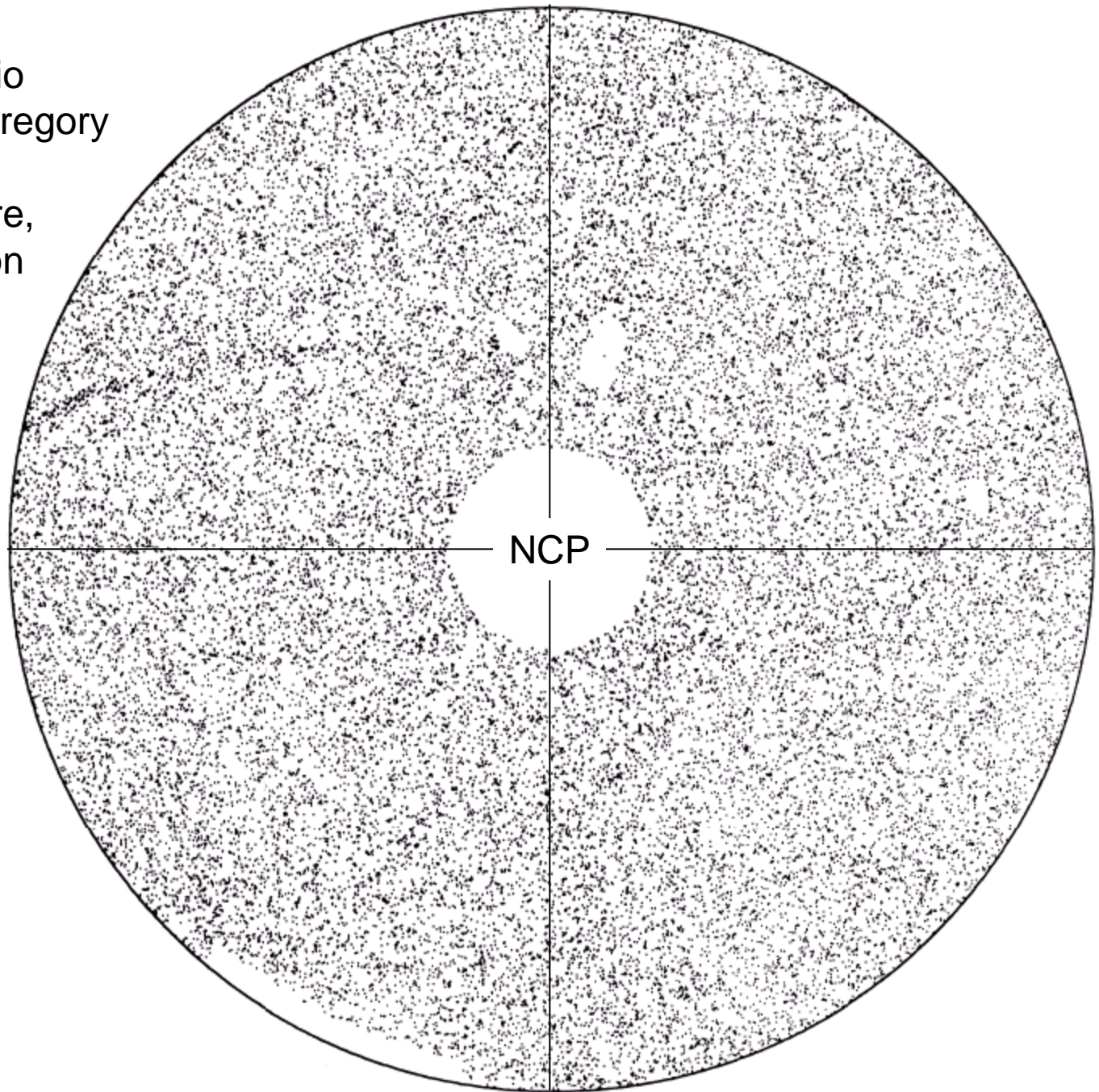
Cosmology

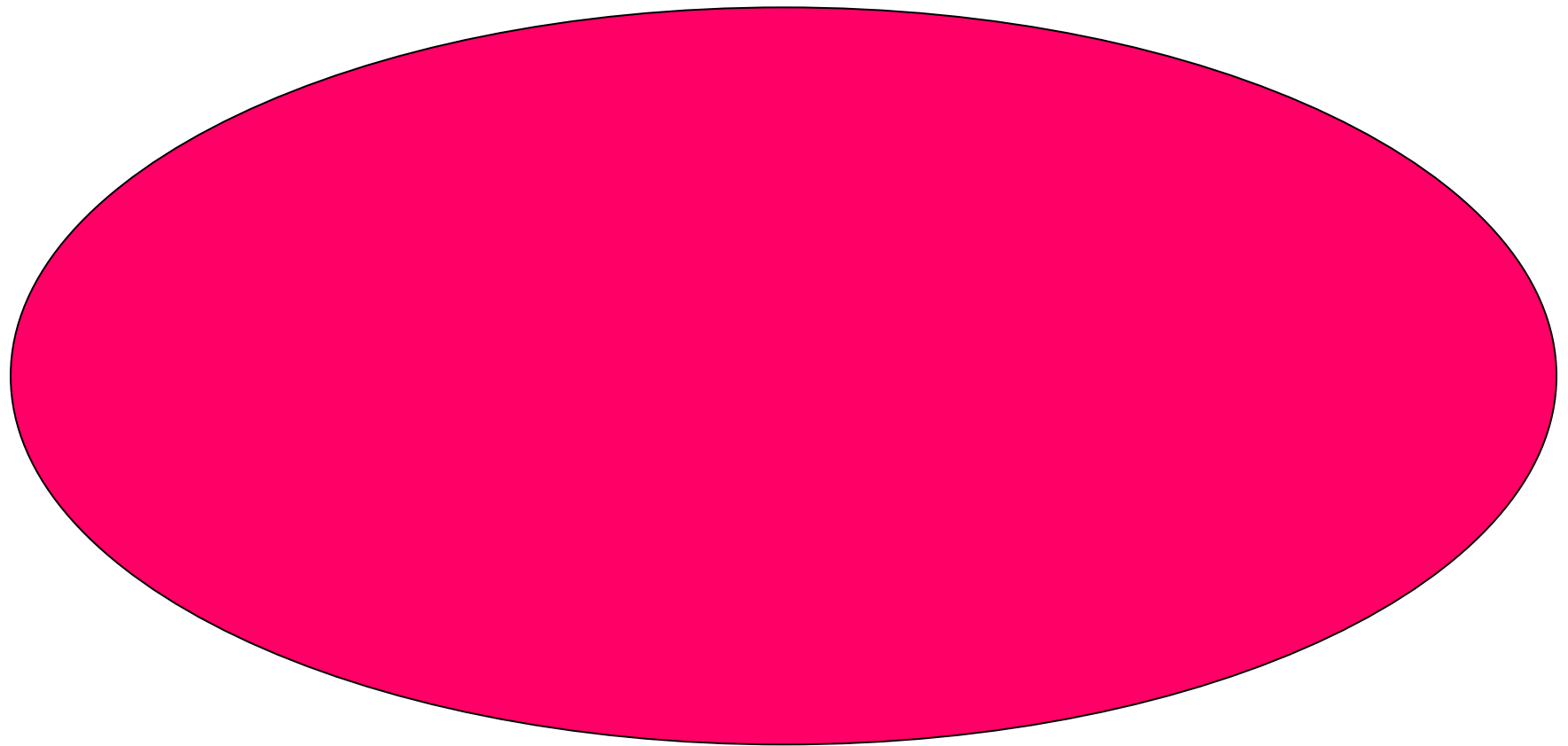
- The aim of cosmology is to describe the universe and its evolution using the laws of physics.
- Overview of *Observational Cosmology*: a paradigm based on observations
- Two levels:
 - background cosmology (the universe at large scales)
 - fluctuations with respect to background (structures in the universe, including clusters of galaxies, galaxies, stars, planets us)

Method

- Simplify the problem :
- Homogeneous and isotropic fluid filling the universe (cosmological principle)
- OK at large scales (background universe):
 - Isotropy of Radiogalaxies
 - Isotropy of microwave, X-rays, infrared Backgrounds
 - Copernican Principle: we are not special in the universe
 - 3D galaxy distribution surveys
- Applied forces: gravitation
- Theory: General Relativity (GR)

Distribution of the
brightest 31000 radio
sources ($\lambda=6$ cm, Gregory
and Condon 1991)
Northern hemisphere,
equal-area projection

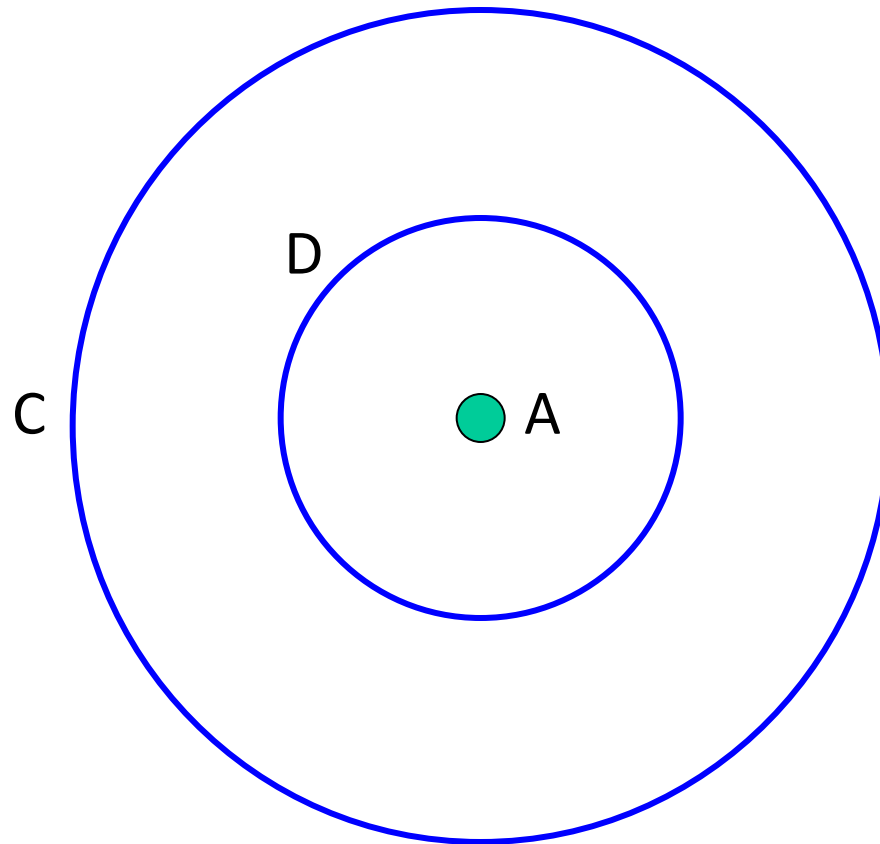




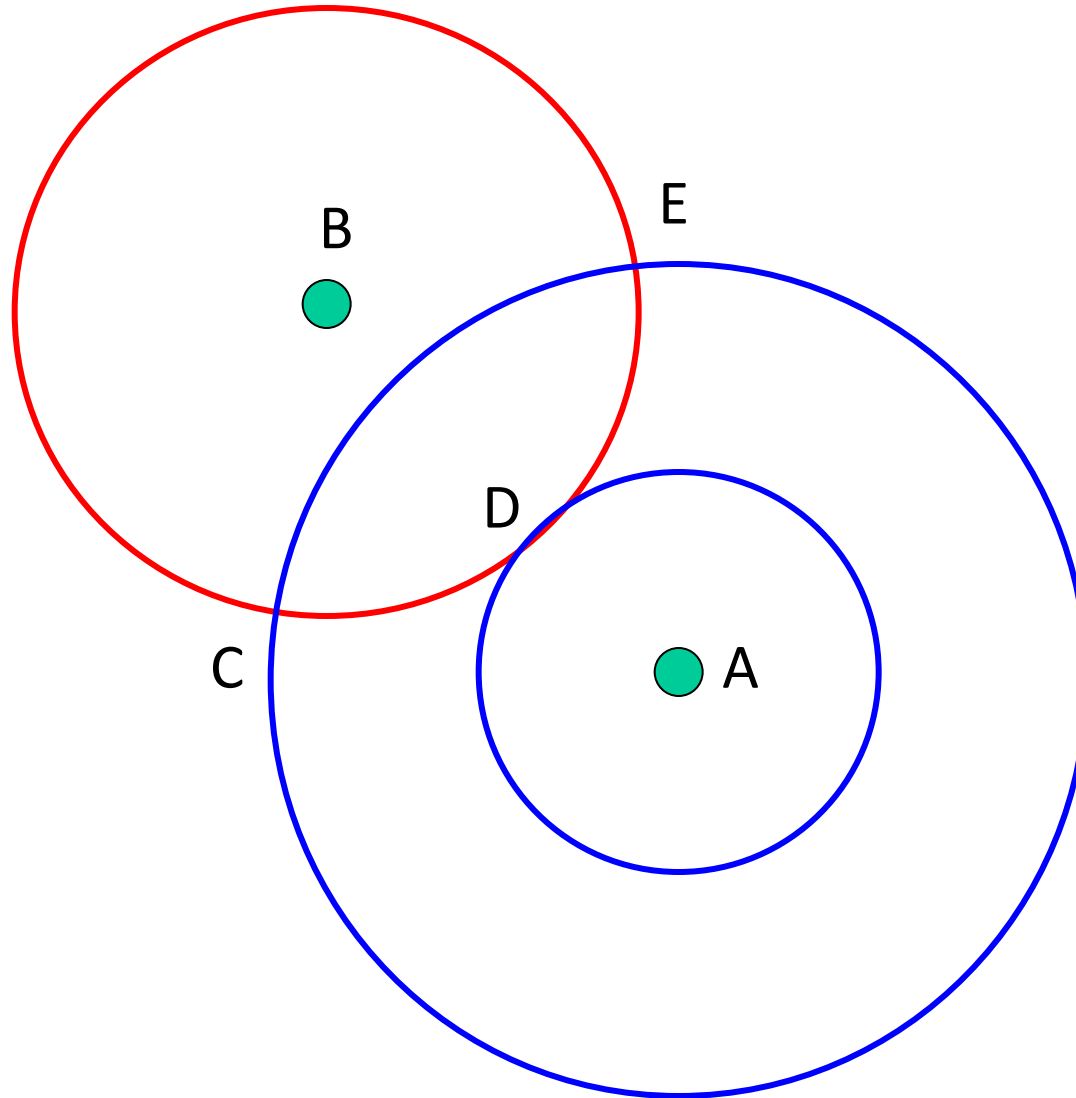
0 5
brightness temperature of the sky (K)
at $\nu=150$ GHz

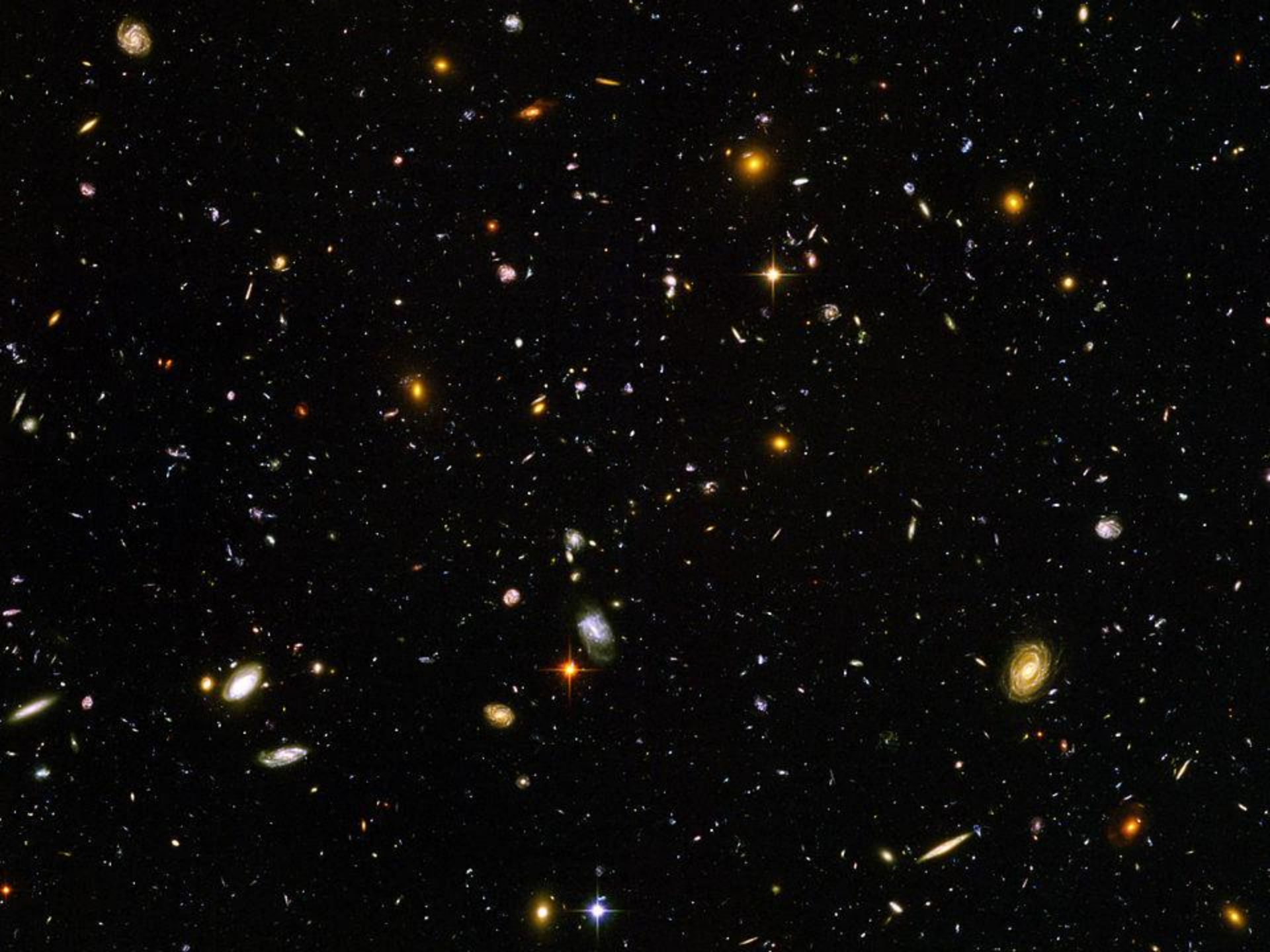
- The CMB dominates the sky brightness at mm wavelengths
- And is very much isotropic: the early universe was very homogeneous
- The most boring picture of the sky ever !

Copernican principle + isotropy = homogeneity

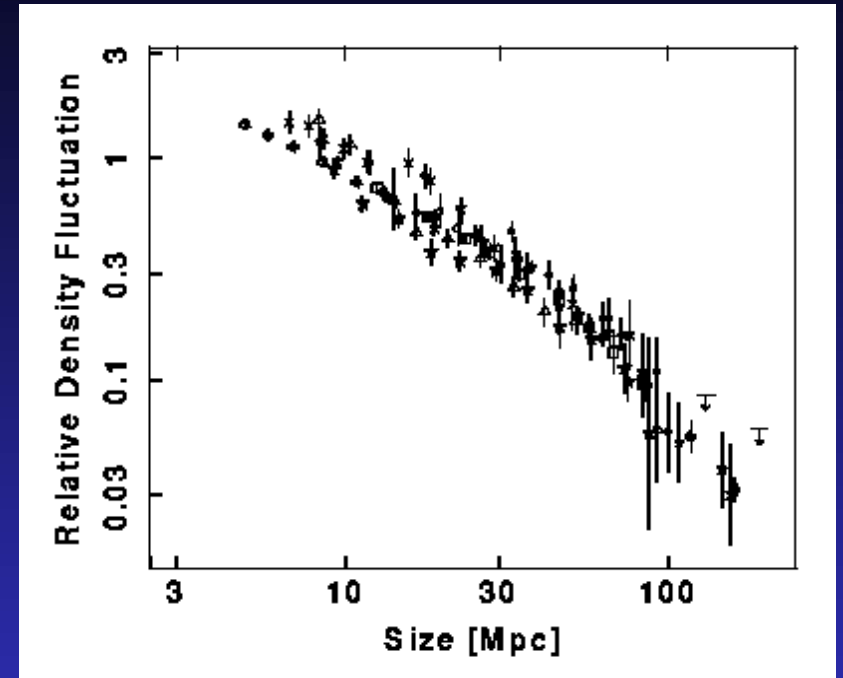
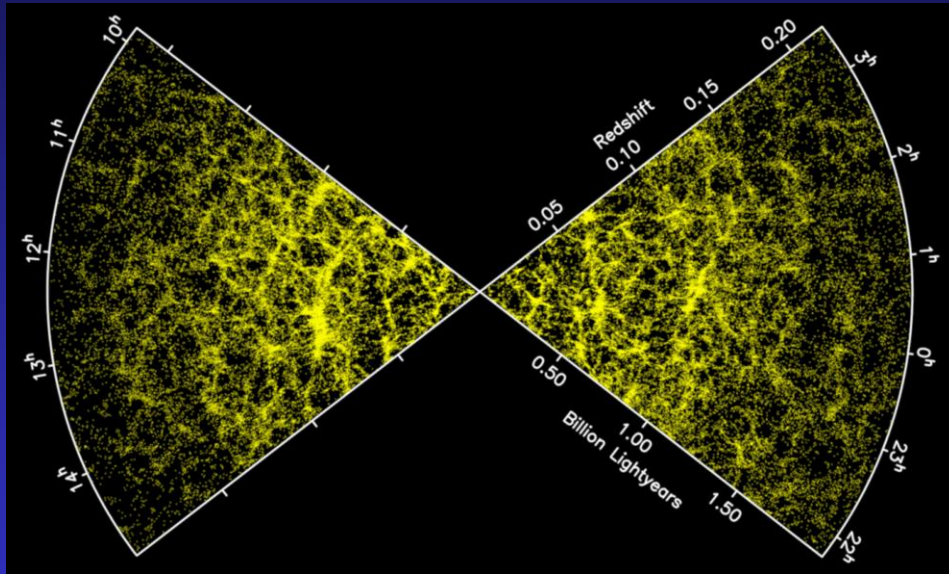
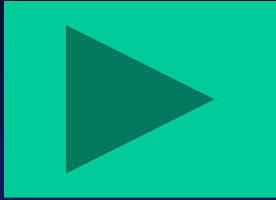


Copernican principle + isotropy = homogeneity





3D galaxy distribution surveys



Peacock and Dodds
(1994, MNRAS, 267, 1020)

- The Universe is homogeneous and isotropic at large angular scales (>100 Mpc)

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GR prescription

- Specify the geometry (metric), write down the mass-energy content, and Einstein's equations will do the rest for you.
- In our case (4D=3D+ict):

– metric:

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$$

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

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

– mass-energy content of the universe ?





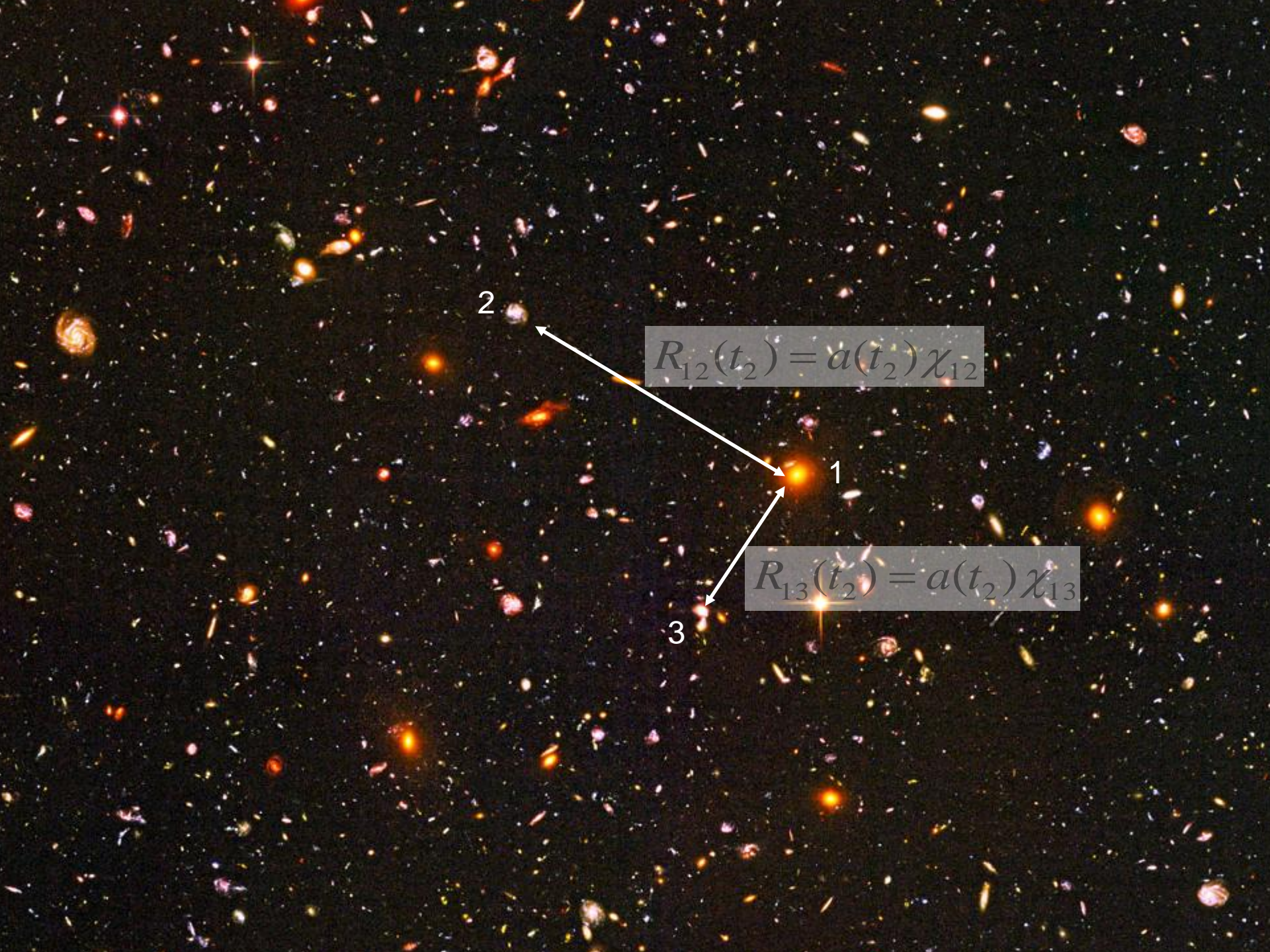
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$$R_{12}(t_1) = a(t_1)\chi_{12}$$

1

$$R_{13}(t_1) = a(t_1)\chi_{13}$$

3



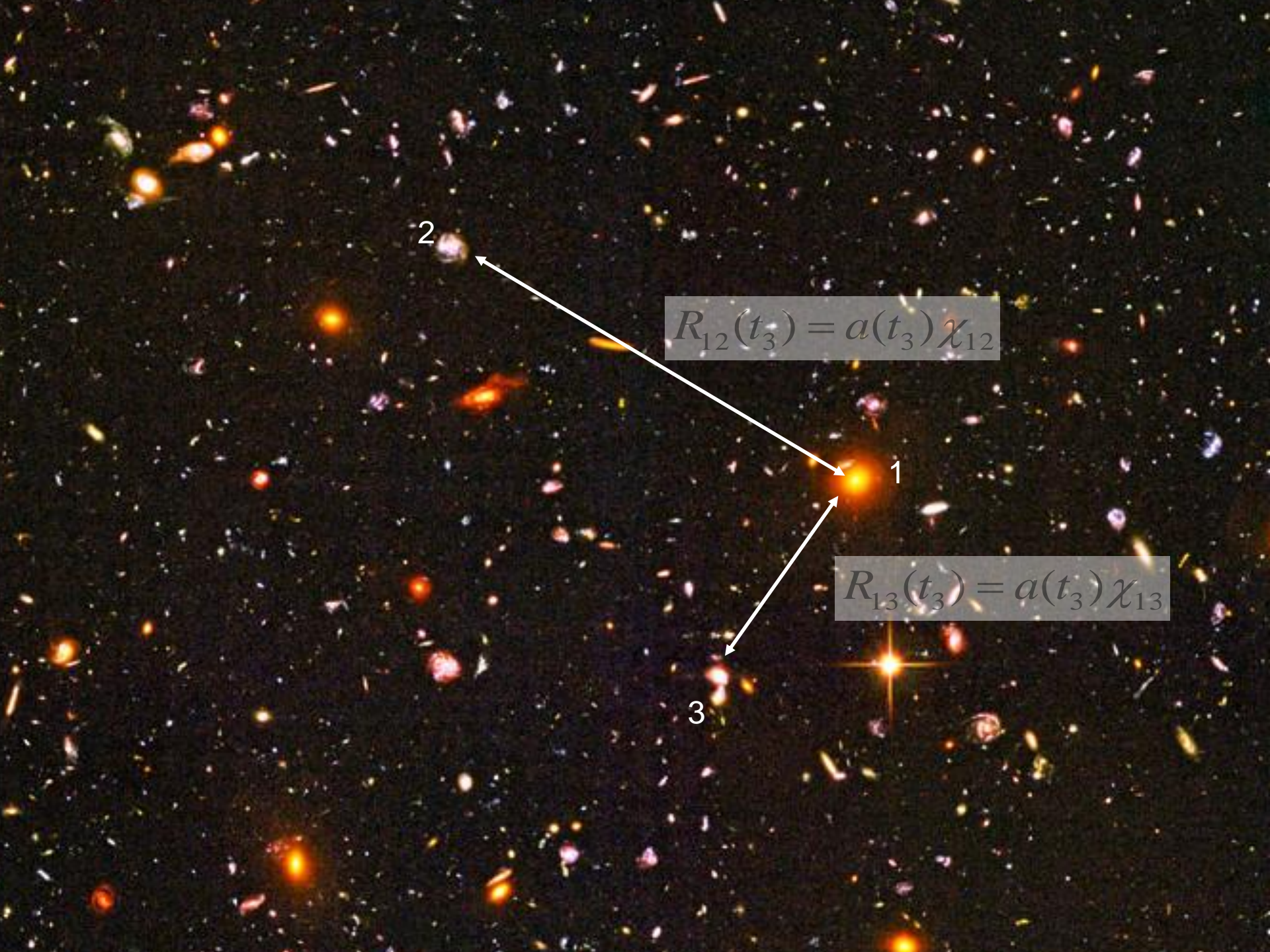
2

$$R_{12}(t_2) = a(t_2)\chi_{12}$$

1

$$R_{13}(t_2) = a(t_2)\chi_{13}$$

3



2

$$R_{12}(t_3) = a(t_3)\chi_{12}$$

1

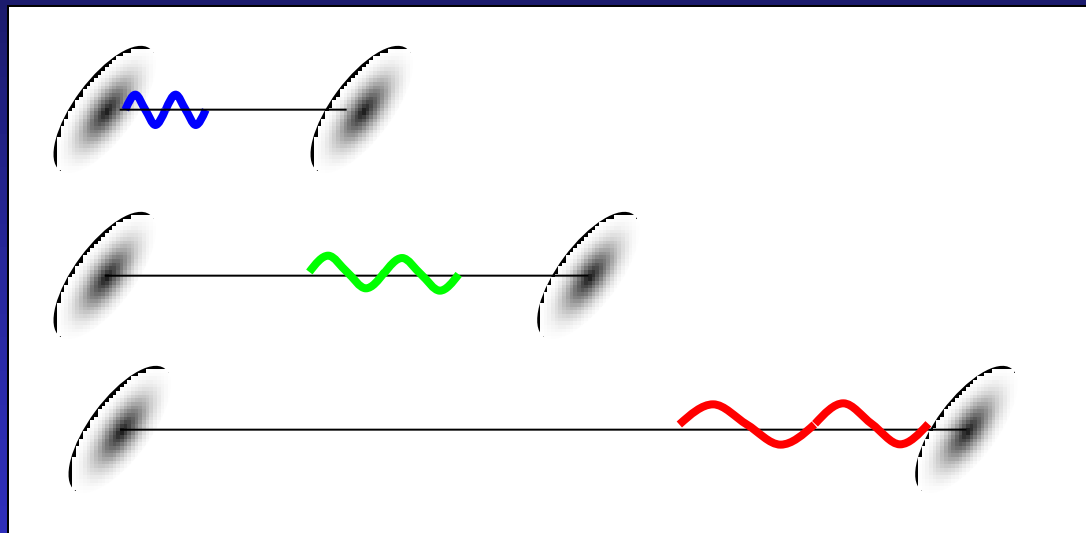
$$R_{13}(t_3) = a(t_3)\chi_{13}$$

3

Redshift

- If the universe is not static [$a=a(t)$] the wavelength of light changes when travelling in the universe:

$$\frac{\lambda_{\text{det}}}{\lambda_{\text{em}}} = \frac{a(t_{\text{det}})}{a(t_{\text{em}})}$$



- Cosmological redshift in an expanding universe

Hubble's law

- The farther a galaxy
- The longer the travel time of light (photons)
- The larger the expansion of the universe meanwhile
- The larger the wavelength increase
- The largest the redshift

$$\frac{\lambda_{\text{det}}}{\lambda_{\text{em}}} = \frac{a(t_{\text{det}})}{a(t_{\text{em}})} > 1$$

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{det}} - \lambda_{\text{em}}}{\lambda_{\text{em}}}$$

- **z increases with distance.**
- For small distances ($z \ll 1$): Hubble's law:

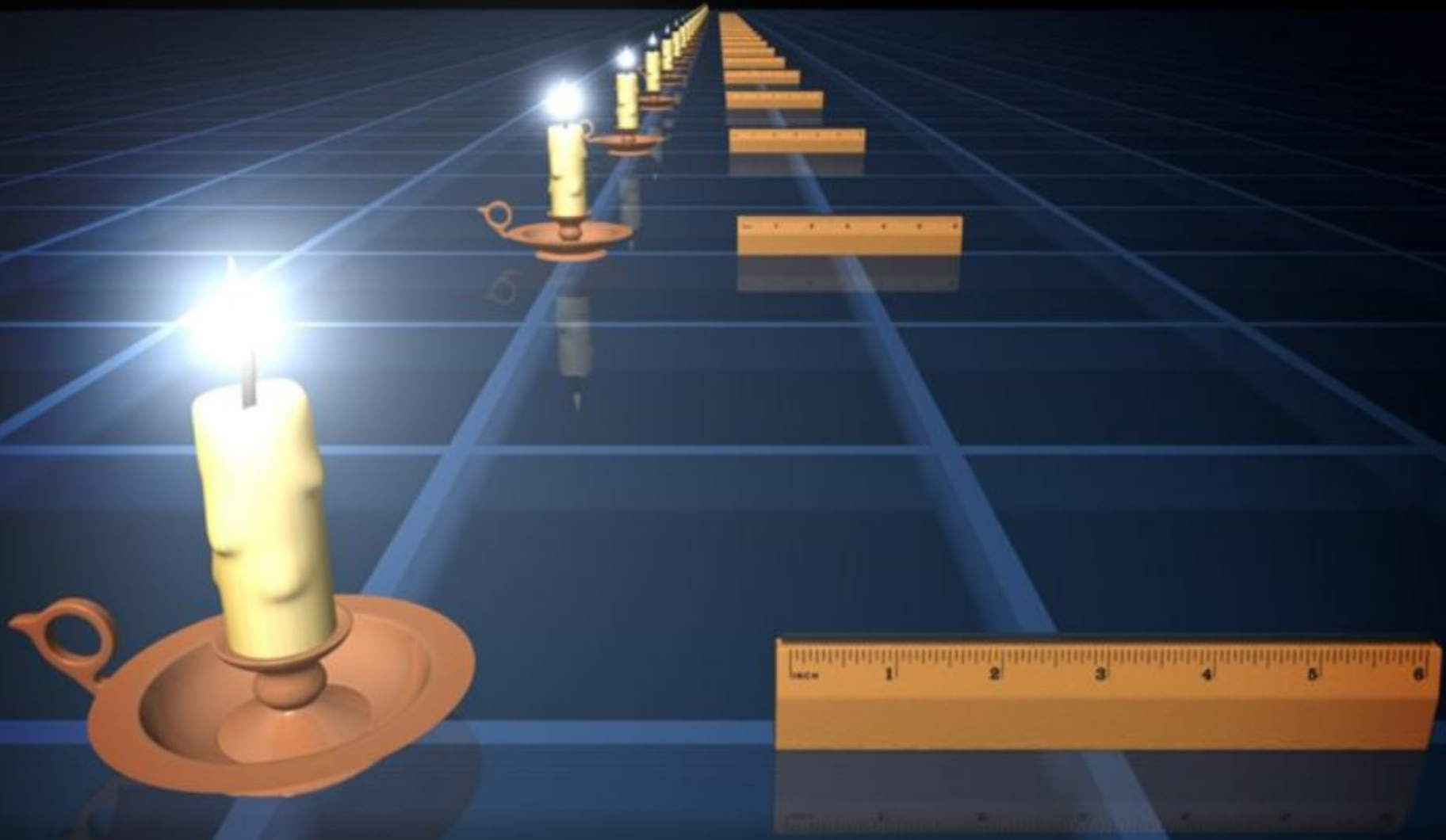
Measurable \longrightarrow
(direct measurement
with spectrometers)

$$z = \left[\frac{H_o}{c} \right] D$$

\uparrow
A constant

\longleftarrow Measurable
(indirect, using
distance indicators)

Distance Indicators



$$F = \frac{L}{4\pi D_L^2} \rightarrow D_L = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi F}}$$

Known
a-priori

measurable

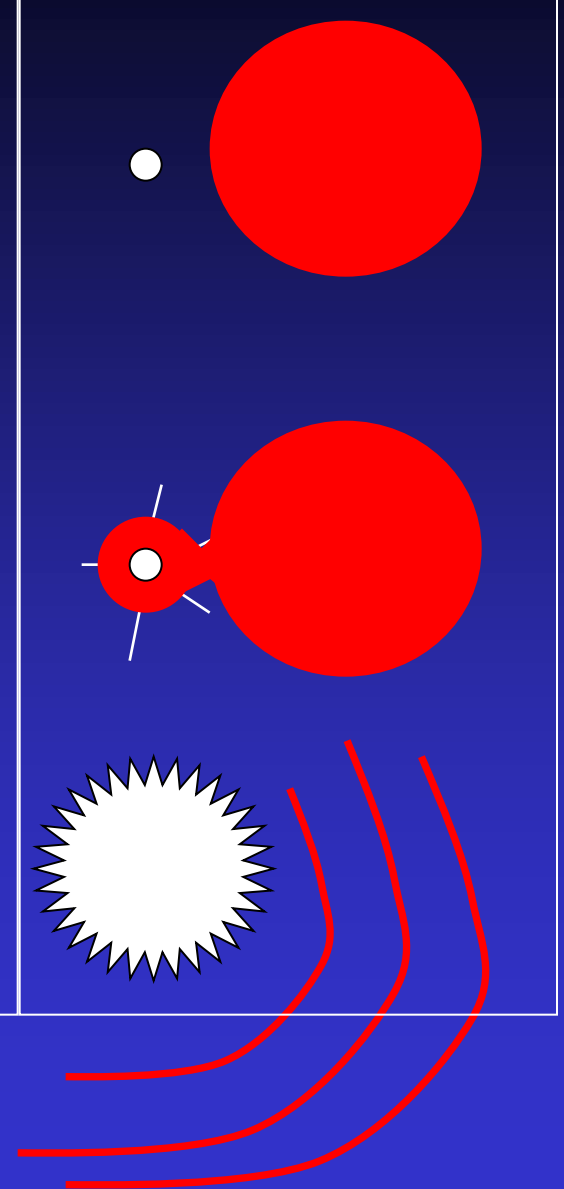
$$\theta = \frac{\ell}{D_A} \rightarrow D_A = \frac{\ell}{\theta}$$

Known
a-priori

measurable

SNe1a

- A rare phenomenon
- Double system : red giant + white dwarf
- Accretion of red giant material on the white dwarf
- When the mass of the WD approaches Chandrasekhar's mass ($1.4M_{\text{sun}}$), internal pressure cannot withstand self gravity anymore, and the star explodes

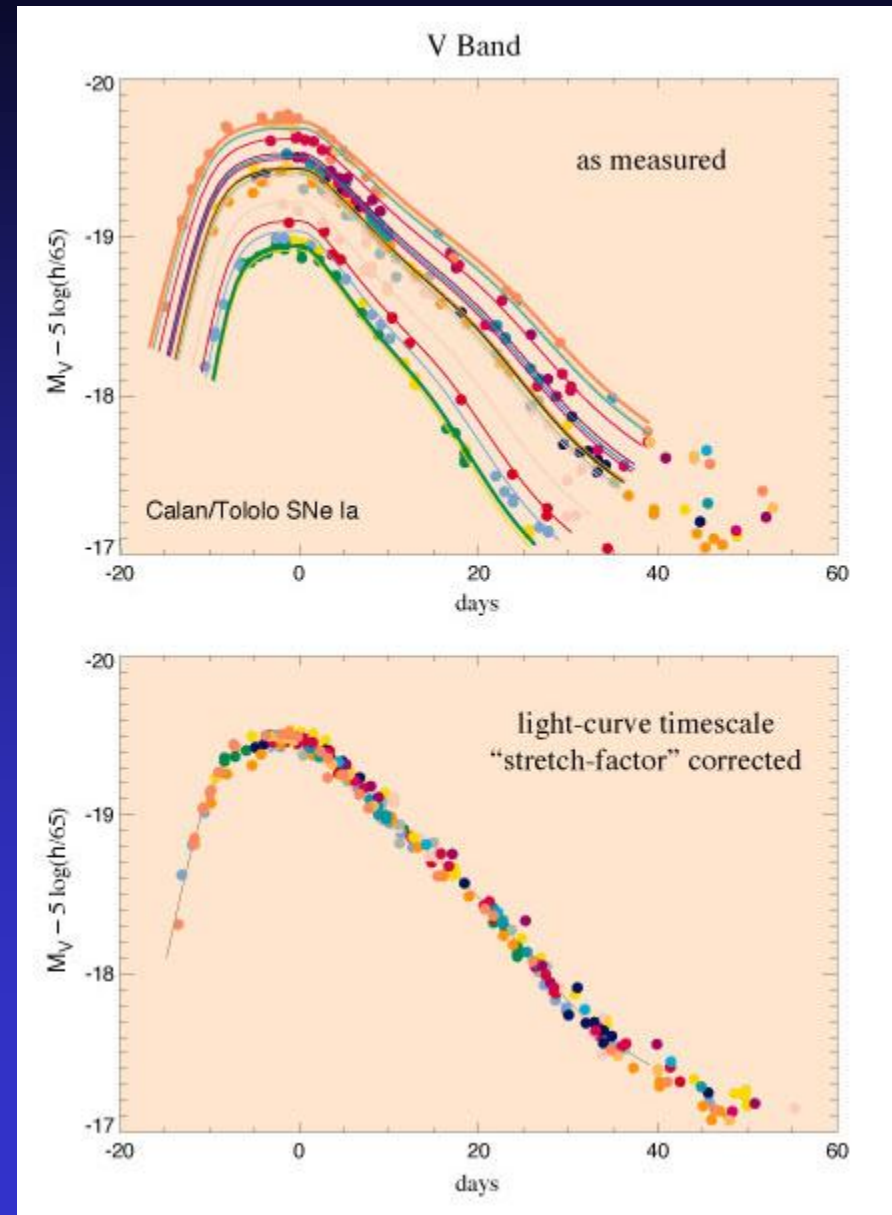


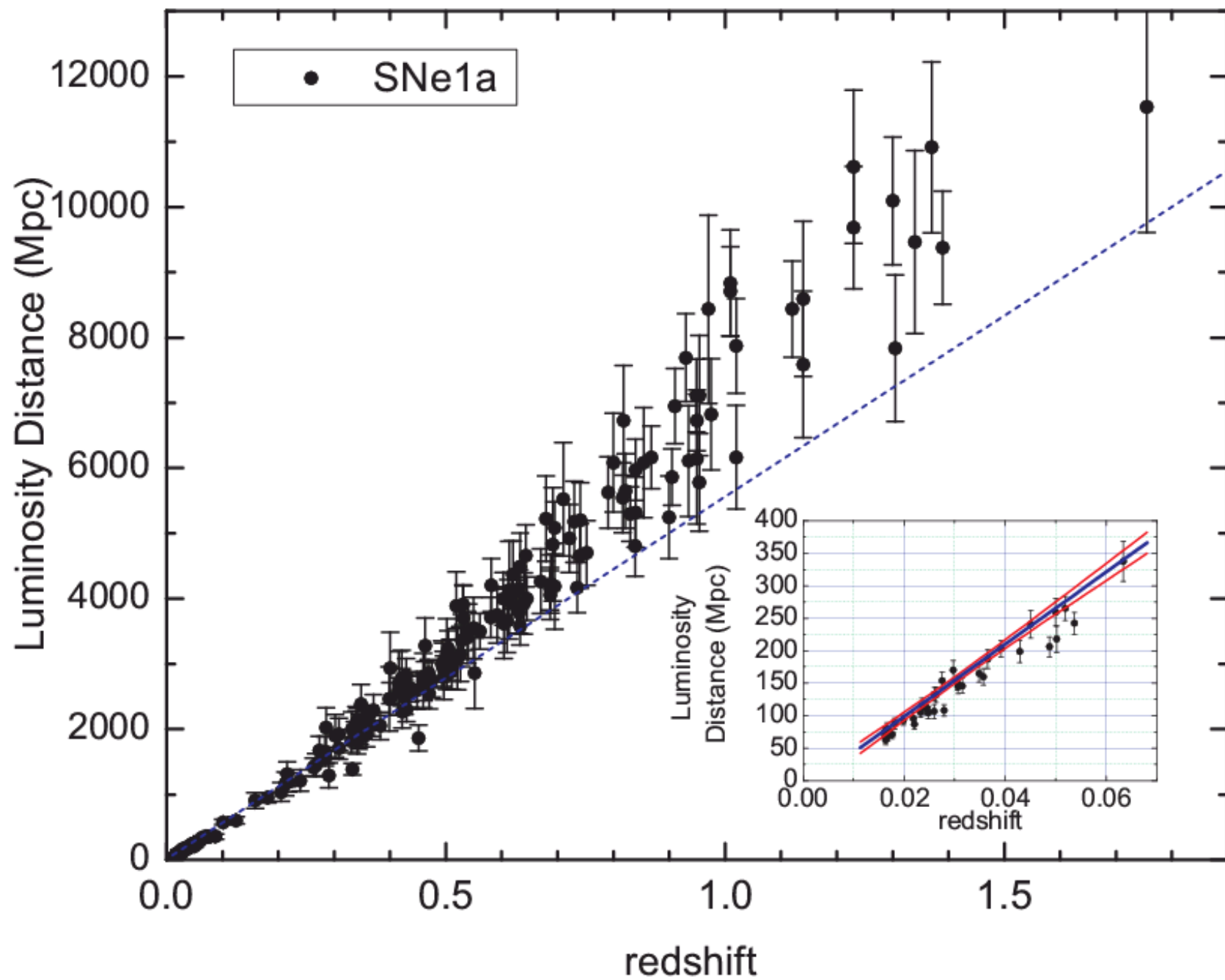
- The luminosity and the light-curve are due to the decay of radioactive nuclei produced during the implosion of the inner part of the star.



- Since the composition and the initial mass are all about the same, the absolute luminosity is about the same for all SNe Ia.
- Corrections can be applied using the correlation between maximum luminosity and duration of the light-curve

SNe Ia



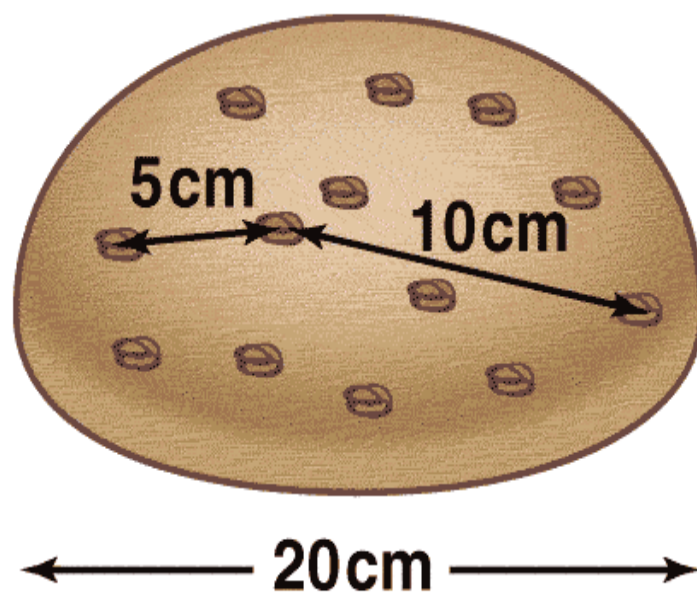


Hubble's constant

- Using standard candles (SNe1a, but also Cepheids) it is found that Hubble's law is valid, and Hubble's constant is:

$$z = \left[\frac{H_o}{c} \right] D \longleftrightarrow H_o = (74.3 \pm 2.1) \text{ km/s/Mpc}$$

- A galaxy at a distance of 1 Mpc (3 million light years) recedes from us at a speed of 74 km/s.
- A galaxy at a distance of 10 Mpc (30 million light years) recedes from us at a speed of 740 km/s.
- There is no center for this expansion.



Friedman's equation

- At this point we are in a position to write half of Einstein's equation (metric part) for an homogenous isotropic universe.
- To write the other half, we need to specify how much of the different possible forms of mass-energy densities is present in the universe, and how each contribution scales with the expansion of the universe:
 - Matter $\rho_M = \rho_{Mo} / a^3$
 - Radiation $\rho_R = \rho_{Ro} / a^4 \leftarrow n = n_o / a^3$; $E = h\nu = hc / \lambda \approx 1/a$
 - Cosmological Constant $\rho_\Lambda = \rho_{\Lambda o}$
- All densities are given in adimensional form, as a fraction of the critical density:

$$\rho_{co} = \frac{3H_o^2}{8\pi G} = (1.04 \pm 0.07) \times 10^{-29} \text{ g/cm}^3$$

$$\Omega_{io} = \frac{\rho_{io}}{\rho_{co}}$$

Friedman's equation

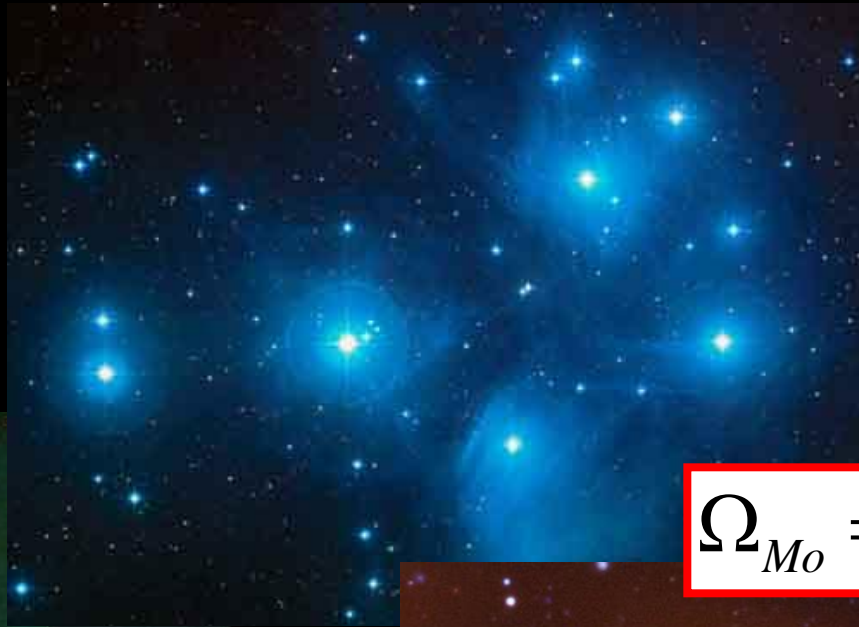
- Einstein's equation, in the case of a homogenous isotropic universe, gives

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = H_o^2 \left[\frac{\Omega_{Ro}}{a^4} + \frac{\Omega_{Mo}}{a^3} + \frac{(1-\Omega_o)}{a^2} + \Omega_{\Lambda} \right]$$

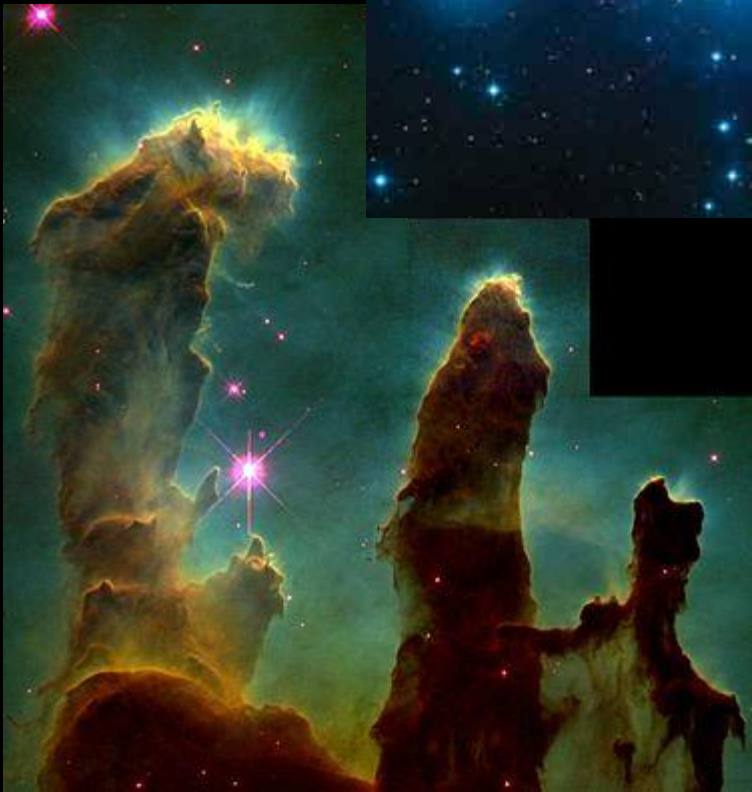
- The solution $a(t)$ tells us how all the distances in the universe evolve with time (i.e. how the universe expands).
- To find the solution, we need to find empirically the mass energy densities ρ_{Ro} , ρ_{Mo} , ρ_{Λ} and from them the parameters Ω_{Ro} , Ω_{Mo} , Ω_{Λ}

Baryonic Matter

- Baryonic matter interacts electromagnetically
- We can measure it because it emits, or absorbs, or scatters light and electromagnetic waves.
- Us, planets, stars, interstellar matter, galaxies, etc. contain baryonic matter.
- Measuring the luminosity, one can infer the mass responsible for such a luminosity.
- Most recent estimates: $\Omega_{Mo} = (0.045 \pm 0.003)$
- Consistent with primordial nucleosynthesis.
- A minor component of our universe.



$$\Omega_{Mo} = (0.045 \pm 0.003)$$



Dark Matter

- Dark matter does not interact electromagnetically.
- We can measure it only through its gravitational interaction, which is much weaker than electromagnetic.
- The dynamics of stars in galaxies and of galaxies in clusters of galaxies cannot be explained without the presence of dark matter
- Additional evidence comes from gravitational lensing and other effects.

$$\Omega_{DMo} = (0.22 \pm 0.02)$$