

Cosmology and Relativity for IOAA

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- 1 Relativity
- 2 Cosmology
- 3 Problems

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- 2 Cosmology
- 3 Problems

Basic principles and terminology

Time and space on equal footing: **spacetime**

Special relativity \implies physics in **flat** spacetimes

General relativity \implies physics in **curved** spacetimes

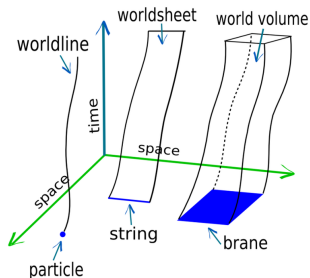
Observer S in spacetime specified by its **reference frame** t, x, y, z

No preferred observers. Speed of light same in all inertial reference frames.

A point in spacetime $[t, x, y, z]$ called an **event**

Time perceived by objects moving in frame S : **proper time** τ

As $[t, x, y, z]$ of moving object change with τ , it traces out a **worldline**



Galileo transformation

Different observer (reference frame) S' moving w.r.t. S with v in the x direction.

Axes of S' labelled by t', x', y', z' . Say S' **boosted** from S .

How are t', x', y', z' and t, x, y, z related?

Up to 1905: **Galileo transformation**

$$t' = t \quad (1a)$$

$$x' = x + vt \quad (1b)$$

$$y' = y \quad (1c)$$

$$z' = z \quad (1d)$$

Velocity u with components u_x, u_y, u_z in S and u'_x, u'_y, u'_z in S' has

$$u'_x = u_x + v \quad (2a)$$

$$u'_y = u_y \quad (2b)$$

$$u'_z = u_z \quad (2c)$$

In particular

$$c' = c + v \quad (3)$$

In 1887 (Michelson & Morley): $c = c' \implies$ Galileo wrong!

Requiring

① $c' \stackrel{!}{=} c$

② inverse boost = boost by $-v$

gives **Lorentz transformation**

$$ct' = \gamma(ct + \frac{v}{c}x) \quad (4)$$

$$x' = \gamma(x + \frac{v}{c}ct) \quad (5)$$

where

$$\gamma = \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-1/2} \quad (6)$$

We then have

$$u'_x = \frac{\Delta x'}{\Delta t'} = \frac{\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + v}{1 + \frac{v}{c^2} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}} = \frac{u_x + v}{1 + \frac{u_x v}{c^2}} \quad (7)$$

which indeed gives $c' = c$

Proper time, time dilation

$(\Delta t, \Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z)$ a segment on a world line in S .

Denote

$$\Delta\tau^2 = \Delta t^2 - (\Delta x/c)^2 - (\Delta y/c)^2 - (\Delta z/c)^2 \quad (8)$$

Rest frame S_0 : $\Delta x_0 = \Delta y_0 = \Delta z_0 = 0 \implies \Delta\tau_0 = \Delta t_0$ Boost by v to any S'

$$\Delta\tau'^2 = \frac{\gamma^2}{c^2}(c\Delta t + \frac{v}{c}\Delta x)^2 + \frac{\gamma^2}{c^2}(\Delta x + v\Delta t)^2 + \frac{1}{c^2}\Delta y^2 + \frac{1}{c^2}\Delta z^2 = \dots = \Delta\tau^2. \quad (9)$$

$\implies \Delta\tau$ is **Lorentz invariant**

\implies In any S : $\Delta\tau = \Delta t_0$ = time interval as perceived in $S_0 \implies \Delta\tau$ = proper time!

$$\Delta\tau = \Delta t \sqrt{1 - \frac{\Delta x/\Delta t}{c} - \frac{\Delta y/\Delta t}{c} - \frac{\Delta z/\Delta t}{c}} = \Delta t/\gamma. \quad (10)$$

i.e.

$$\Delta t = \gamma \Delta\tau \quad (11)$$

$\xrightarrow{\gamma > 1}$ **time dilation**

Note that $v = c$ (photons, gravitons) $\implies \Delta\tau = 0$

Relativistic Doppler formula

Two signals emitted in S at $t_1^e = 0$, $t_2^e = T$ and $x_1^e = x_2^e = 0$.

In S' we obtain emission events

$$t_1^{e'} = 0 \quad (12a)$$

$$x_1^{e'} = 0 \quad (12b)$$

and

$$t_2^{e'} = \gamma T \quad (13a)$$

$$x_2^{e'} = \gamma v T \quad (13b)$$

The signals are detected by an observer sitting at $x' = a \gg \gamma v T$ at

$$t_1^{d'} = \frac{a}{c} \quad (14a)$$

$$t_2^{d'} = \frac{a - x_2^{e'}}{c} + t_2^{e'} = \frac{a}{c} + \gamma T - \gamma \frac{v}{c} T, \quad (14b)$$

that is $T' = t_2^{d'} - t_1^{d'} = (1 - \frac{v}{c})\gamma T$ satisfies

$$T' = T \sqrt{\frac{c-v}{c+v}} \quad (15)$$

\Rightarrow relativistic Doppler effect

Energy & momentum depend on reference frame:

$$E' = \gamma(E + \frac{v}{c}cp_x) \quad (16a)$$

$$cp'_x = \gamma(cp_x + \frac{v}{c}E) \quad (16b)$$

with $\varepsilon^2 = E^2 - c^2p_x^2 - c^2p_y^2 - c^2p_z^2$ Lorentz invariant

In S_0 have $p_{x,0} = p_{y,0} = p_{z,0} = 0 \implies \varepsilon = m_0c^2$ (for all S)

$$E^2 = m_0^2c^4 + p^2c^2 \quad (17)$$

Massless particles (photons, gravitons) $\implies E = pc$

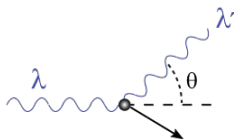
Total four-momentum **conserved** in all dynamical processes:

$$E = \text{const.} \quad p_x = \text{const.} \quad p_y = \text{const.} \quad p_z = \text{const.} \quad (18)$$

Alternative derivation of relativistic Doppler for photons

$$\hbar\omega' = E' = \gamma(E + \frac{v}{c} \cdot \frac{E}{c}) = \gamma(1 + \frac{v}{c})\hbar\omega \implies \omega' = \sqrt{\frac{c+v}{c-v}}\omega. \quad (19)$$

Compton scattering



What is $\lambda'(\lambda, \theta)$?

Conservation of four-momentum:

$$\frac{hc}{\lambda} + m_e c^2 = \frac{hc}{\lambda'} + \sqrt{m_e^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2} \quad (20a)$$

$$\frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \cos \theta + p \cos \psi \quad (20b)$$

$$0 = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \sin \theta - p \sin \psi \quad (20c)$$

Therefore

$$p^2 = p^2 \sin^2 \psi + p^2 \cos^2 \psi = h^2 \left(\frac{1}{\lambda^2} + \frac{1}{\lambda'^2} - \frac{2}{\lambda \lambda'} \cos \theta \right) \quad (21)$$

We eventually obtain

$$\lambda'(\lambda, \theta) = \lambda + \frac{h}{m_e c} (1 - \cos \theta) \quad (22)$$

Light ray propagating in S , not parallel to x

$$E = \hbar\omega \quad (23a)$$

$$cp_x = \hbar\omega \cos \theta \quad (23b)$$

$$cp_y = \hbar\omega \sin \theta \quad (23c)$$

In S' we have

$$E' = \gamma \hbar\omega (1 + \frac{v}{c} \cos \theta) \quad (24a)$$

$$cp'_x = \gamma \hbar\omega (\cos \theta + \frac{v}{c}) \quad (24b)$$

with $cp'_y = cp'_y = \hbar\omega \sin \theta$. Therefore $\tan \theta' = p'_y/p'_x = \sin \theta / \gamma (\cos \theta + \frac{v}{c})$ i.e.

$$\cos \theta' = \frac{\cos \theta + \frac{v}{c}}{1 + \frac{v}{c} \cos \theta} \quad (25)$$

For $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ and $\theta' = \frac{\pi}{2} - \alpha'$ we have $\sin \alpha' = \frac{v}{c} \implies \alpha' \stackrel{v \ll c}{\approx} \frac{v}{c} \implies$ classical aberration
In astrophysics: relativistic beaming (Problem 2), Poynting–Robertson effect (Problem 3)

Principles of General Relativity

There is no gravitational force

All effects due to gravity can be explained by **curvature** of spacetime.

Proper time interval modified to

$$\Delta\tau^2 = -\frac{1}{c^2} \sum_{\mu,\nu=0}^3 g_{\mu\nu} \Delta x^\mu \Delta x^\nu \quad (26)$$

ref. frame coords $x^0 = t$, $x^1 = x$, $x^2 = y$, $x^3 = z$ and $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$ expressing the curvature

A. Einstein (1915):

- 1 Spacetime tells matter how to move:

All objects follow the shortest possible path (geodesic) in spacetime.

- 2 Matter tells spacetime how to curve:

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} R g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

Special relativity formulae continue to hold, but only **locally**.

Vacuum everywhere except for a gravitating body M at $r = 0$ gives proper time interval

$$\Delta\tau^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}\right) \Delta t^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}\right)^{-1} \Delta r^2 \quad (27)$$

During Δt , observers r_1 and r_2 at rest experience proper time intervals

$$\Delta\tau_i = \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r_i c^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \Delta t \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{\Delta\tau_2}{\Delta\tau_1} = \left(\frac{1 - \frac{2GM}{r_2 c^2}}{1 - \frac{2GM}{r_1 c^2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} > 1 \quad \text{for } r_2 > r_1 \quad (28)$$

\Rightarrow **gravitational time dilation**; note that $\Delta\tau_1/\Delta\tau_1 \rightarrow \infty$ as $r_1 \rightarrow R_g = 2GM/c^2$
Consequence: photon emitted at $r = R$ will have following redshift at $r = \infty$

$$z = \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{Rc^2}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \quad (29)$$

\Rightarrow **gravitational redshift**

Can compute radial photon trajectories by setting $\Delta\tau = 0$

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \pm \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}\right) \quad (30)$$

Plan for today

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All present observations indicate that

On large scales, the universe is homogeneous, isotropic, flat and expanding.

Distance between any two objects can therefore be written as

$$\Delta r(t) = a(t) \Delta r \quad (31)$$

where Δr is their present distance and $a(t)$ is increasing in time with $a(t_0) = 1$

Terminology

$\Delta r(t)$	physical distance
Δr	comoving distance
$a(t)$	scale factor

Corresponding proper time interval (Friedmann-Lemaître-Robertson-Walker)

$$\Delta \tau^2 = \Delta t^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} a(t)^2 \Delta r^2 \quad (32)$$

with Δr comoving distance.

Evolution of $a(t)$

Flatness condition $\rho = \rho_{\text{crit}}$ gives

$$H(t)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad (33)$$

where $H(t) = \dot{a}(t)/a(t)$ is the **Hubble parameter** (speed of expansion)

Spacetime tells matter how to move:

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_0 a^{-3} & \text{matter} \\ \rho_0 a^{-4} & \text{radiation} \\ \rho_0 & \text{dark energy} \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

Solving (33) for $a(t)$ we have

$$a(t) = \begin{cases} (t/t_0)^{\frac{2}{3}} & \text{matter} \\ (t/t_0)^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{radiation} \\ e^{H_0(t-t_0)} & \text{dark energy} \end{cases} \quad (35)$$

together with

$$H(t) = \begin{cases} 2/(3t) & \text{matter} \\ 1/(2t) & \text{radiation} \\ H_0 & \text{dark energy} \end{cases} \quad (36)$$

Present-day parameters

Define the present-day density parameters

$$\Omega_x = \frac{\rho_{x,0}}{\rho_{\text{crit},0}} \quad (37)$$

where $x \in \{m, r, \Lambda\}$.

Flatness condition (33) can then be rewritten as

$$H(a) = H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_r a^{-4} + \Omega_\Lambda} \quad (38)$$

Sometimes define the **reduced** Hubble parameter $h = H_0 / (100 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1})$

We then have

$$\rho_{\text{crit},0} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G} \approx 1.878 \times 10^{-26} h^2 \text{ kg m}^{-3} \quad (39)$$

Current Λ CDM fit gives

h	0.6774 ± 0.0046
Ω_m	0.3089 ± 0.0062
Ω_Λ	0.6911 ± 0.0062
Ω_r	0.0001

Observables: cosmological redshift

Physical lengths expand with $a(t)$

$$\lambda' = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} \lambda. \quad (40)$$

for a photon emitted at t detected now. Hence

$$a(t) = \frac{1}{1+z} \quad (41)$$

Important: this is **not** a Doppler redshift. Speeds calculated using Doppler formula have no physical basis.

Can use (41) to rewrite (38) as

$$H(z) = H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_m(1+z)^3 + \Omega_r(1+z)^4 + \Omega_\Lambda} \quad (42)$$

Some important redshifts

Matter-radiation eq.	3000
Recombination	1100
Dark ages	1100 – 20
Reionization	20 – 6
GN-z11	11.09

Observables: luminosity and angular diameter distance

We can measure intensity I of a source with luminosity L . Ignoring extinction have

$$I = \frac{L}{4\pi r_L^2}, \quad (43)$$

where r_L defines the **luminosity distance**.

To relate this to the comoving distance r , note that

- ① energies of all photons decrease by $(1+z)^{-1}$
- ② time intervals between photons increase by $(1+z)$

This gives

$$r_L = r(1+z) \quad (44)$$

We can also measure the angular diameter δ of a source with physical diameter D . We have

$$\delta = \frac{D}{r_A} \quad (45)$$

Converting D to comoving scale, we obtain

$$r_A = \frac{r}{1+z} \quad (46)$$

Basic trick:

Comoving dist. r_{AB} between A and B can be found by connecting them with a photon.

Comoving distance Δr traversed by a photon over interval Δt

$$\Delta r = \frac{\Delta r(t)}{a(t)} = \frac{c \Delta t}{a(t)} \quad (47)$$

Hence (can be also derived from the FLRW proper time interval (32))

$$r_{AB} = c \int_{t_A}^{t_B} \frac{dt}{a(t)}. \quad (48)$$

This is particularly useful: all things we see on the sky are connected to us by a photon!

Use (49), (41) and (42) to calculate comoving dist. r at redshift z as (**Hubble's law**)

$$r(z) = c \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')} \stackrel{z \ll 1}{\approx} \frac{cz}{H_0}. \quad (49)$$

Note that the approximation becomes exact in Λ -dominated universe $H(z) = H_0 = \text{const}$

We have

$$r(z) = c \int_t^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a} = c \int_{a(z)}^1 \frac{da}{a\dot{a}} = c \int_{a(z)}^1 \frac{da}{a^2} \frac{1}{H(a)} \quad (50)$$

where in the last step we used the definition $H = \dot{a}/a$.

Further changing the variables to redshift, we obtain

$$r(z) = c \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')} \underbrace{\frac{1}{a(z')^2} \frac{1}{(1+z')^2}}_{=1} = c \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')} . \quad (51)$$

Hence, for $z \ll 1$, it follows that

$$r(z) \approx \frac{cz}{H_0} . \quad (52)$$

Derivatives:

$$\frac{d}{dt} t^p = p t^{p-1} \quad (53a)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} e^{Ht} = H e^{Ht} \quad (53b)$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} (1+z)^p = p(1+z)^{p-1} \quad (53c)$$

Integrals:

$$\int dt t^p = \frac{t^{p+1}}{p+1} \quad p \neq -1 \quad (54a)$$

$$\int dt e^{Ht} = \frac{1}{H} e^{Ht} \quad (54b)$$

$$\int dz (1+z)^p = \frac{z^{p+1}}{p+1} \quad p \neq -1 \quad (54c)$$

matter-dominated universe \equiv Einstein – de Sitter universe

Have $a(t) = (t/t_0)^{\frac{2}{3}}$, $H(z) = H_0(1+z)^{\frac{3}{2}}$ and so

$$r(z) = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^z dz' (1+z')^{-\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{2c}{H_0} [1 - (1+z)^{-\frac{1}{2}}] \quad (55a)$$

$r_L(z)$ and $r_A(z)$ follow straightforwardly. For $z \ll 1$, we indeed have

$$\frac{2c}{H_0} [1 - (1+z)^{-\frac{1}{2}}] \approx \frac{2c}{H_0} [1 - (1 - \frac{1}{2}z)] = \frac{cz}{H_0} \quad (56)$$

Λ -dominated universe \equiv de Sitter universe

Have $a(t) = e^{H_0(t-t_0)}$, $H(z) = H_0 = \text{const.}$ and so

$$r(z) = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^z dz' = \frac{cz}{H_0} \quad (57a)$$

\implies Hubble's law linear for all z

Past comoving horizon: maximum comoving distance from which the particles could have travelled to influence us at present

$$r_{\text{PCH}} = c \int_0^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = c \int_0^\infty \frac{dz}{H(z)} \quad (58)$$

Future comoving horizon: maximum comoving distance to which we can travel starting at present.

$$r_{\text{FCH}} = c \int_{t_0}^\infty \frac{dt}{a(t)} = c \int_{-1}^0 \frac{dz}{H(z)} \quad (59)$$

Not all universes have past and future horizons, i.e. it can happen that $r_{\text{PCH}, \text{FCH}} = \infty$

Examples: in Einstein – de Sitter have

$$r_{\text{PCH}} = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^\infty dz (1+z)^{-\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{2c}{H_0}, \quad r_{\text{FCH}} = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_{-1}^0 dz (1+z)^{-\frac{3}{2}} = \infty \quad (60)$$

while in de Sitter universe have

$$r_{\text{PCH}} = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^\infty dz = \infty, \quad r_{\text{FCH}} = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_{-1}^0 dz = \frac{c}{H_0} \quad (61)$$

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Problem 1: Neutron star

Observed spectrum of a galactic neutron star contains a line at $E = 400$ keV. This line should correspond to the $e^+e^- \rightarrow 2\gamma$ annihilation. Assume $m_e = 511 \text{ keV}/c^2$

- a) Calculate the radius R of the neutron star as a multiple of $R_g = 2GM/c^2$.
- b) Assuming that the bulk of the star consist of nuclear matter with density $\rho = 4 \times 10^{17} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, find M/M_\odot and R in km.

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Solution:

- a) Annihilation occurs preferentially when kinetic energies are much lower than rest masses. Hence $E_\gamma = m_e c^2 = 511 \text{ keV}$ and so $z = E_\gamma/E - 1 \approx 0.28$. This gives $R/R_g \approx 2.6$.
- b) We obtain

$$2.6 \approx \frac{R}{R_g} = \frac{Rc^2}{2GM} = \frac{3c^2}{8\pi\rho GR^2} \implies R \approx 12.5 \text{ km}$$

$$\text{and } M = \frac{4}{3}\pi\rho R^3 \approx 1.6M_\odot.$$

Problem 2: GN-z11

Assume that $H_0 = 67.8 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$

- a) Find the value of a^* and z^* when matter and dark energy had equal densities.

Consider the high-redshift galaxy GN-z11 with $z = 11.09$.

- b) Find the comoving distance to GN-z11.
- c) What was the age of the universe when the photons, which we observe today, were emitted from GN-z11? What is the actual distance travelled by these photons?
- d) Given its observed angular diameter $\delta = 0.5''$, find its physical diameter D .
- e) Given its magnitude $m = 26.8 \text{ mag}$, estimate its luminosity (neglecting extinction).

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Solution:

- a) We need $\Omega_{m,0}(1+z)^3 = \Omega_{\Lambda,0}$, i.e. $a^* = (\Omega_{m,0}/\Omega_{\Lambda,0})^{\frac{1}{3}} \approx 0.75$ and $z^* = 1/a - 1 \approx 0.33$

- b) We have

$$r = \int_0^z \frac{cdz'}{H(z')} = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^{z^*} dz' + \frac{c}{H_0} \int_{z^*}^z dz' (1+z')^{-\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{2c}{H_0} \left[\frac{z^*}{2} + (1+z^*)^{-\frac{1}{2}} - (1+z)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$

i.e. $r = 6.6 \text{ Gpc}$. Linearised Hubble's law would instead give 49 Gpc .

- c) Have $(t^*/t)^{2/3} = (1+z)/(1+z^*)$ and $a^* = e^{H_0(-t_0+t^*)}$, so $t^* \approx 9.65 \times 10^9$ y and so $t \approx 350 \times 10^6$ y. The photons therefore travelled distance $\approx 13.4 \times 10^9$ ly ≈ 4.1 Gpc.
- d) The angular diameter distance is equal to $r_A = r/(1+z) \approx 0.55$ Gpc. The linear size then follows as $D = r_A \delta \approx 1200$ pc.
- e) We have luminosity distance $r_L = (1+z)r \approx 80$ Gpc. We then have

$$m - M_{\odot} = -2.5 \log \frac{(10 \text{ pc})^2 L}{r_L^2 L_{\odot}} \implies L = L_{\odot} \left(\frac{r_L}{10 \text{ pc}} \right)^2 10^{-0.4(m - M_{\odot})}$$

i.e. $L \approx 10^{11} L_{\odot}$.

Problem 3: The further the bigger

Assuming matter dominated universe and a galaxy of fixed physical size D , show that there is a value z^* of redshift where the observed angular diameter of the galaxy starts increasing with increasing z .

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Solution: we have

$$\delta(z) = \frac{D}{r_A(z)} = \frac{1+z}{r(z)} D,$$

where

$$r(z) = c \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')} = \frac{c}{H_0} \int_0^z (1+z')^{-\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{2c}{H_0} [1 - (1+z)^{-\frac{1}{2}}],$$

so

$$\delta(z) = \frac{H_0 D}{2c} \frac{1+z}{1 - (1+z)^{-\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

This can be shown to have a minimum at $z^* = 5/4$.

Problem 4: Gershtein – Zeldovich bound

We have $n_{\nu_e} = n_{\nu_\mu} = \dots = (3/11)n_\gamma$, where n_γ and $n_{\nu_e}, n_{\nu_\mu}, \dots$ are the number densities of relic photons and relic neutrinos, respectively, and today we have $n_\gamma \doteq 410 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Assuming that relic neutrinos are the sole component of dark matter in our universe, find the sum $m_0 = m_{\nu_e,0} + m_{\nu_\mu,0} + \dots$ of the rest masses of all neutrino species. Write your answer in eV/c^2 .

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Solution: we have

Current density of relic neutrinos:

$$\rho_\nu = \rho_{\nu_e} + \rho_{\nu_\mu} + \dots = m_{\nu_e,0}n_{\nu_e} + m_{\nu_\mu,0}n_{\nu_\mu} + \dots = \frac{3}{11}n_\gamma m_0,$$

(entropy conservation for $e^+e^- \rightarrow 2\gamma$)

The universe is flat $\implies \rho_c = 3H_0^2/(8\pi G)$.

Dark matter consists of neutrinos only $\implies \rho_\nu = \rho_{\text{DM}}$

$$\rho_\nu = \frac{3}{11}n_\gamma m_0 = X\rho_c = \frac{3XH_0^2}{8\pi G} \implies m_0 = \frac{11XH_0^2}{8\pi Gn_\gamma} \doteq 11 \text{ eV}/c^2.$$

This gives an upper bound (Gershtein–Zeldovich)

Problem 5: Relativistic beaming effect

Consider a star with magnitude $m = 0$ mag and zero radial speed. What would be the magnitude if we started moving towards the star at speed $v = 0.5c$?

Problem 6: Breakthrough starshot*

How long would it take to accelerate a solar sail with $m = 1 \text{ g}$ to $v = 0.2c$ with a 100 GW laser?

Problem 7: Sunyaev – Zeldovich effect

Consider electron at rest and an incident photon, wavelength λ .

- a) Fill in the gaps in the derivation of the Compton formula for $\lambda'(\lambda, \theta)$

Now consider a galaxy cluster with total mass $M = 1.2 \cdot 10^{15} M_{\text{S}}$.

- b) Consider intracluster gas at equilibrium with particle mass m_0 . Derive an approximate formula for its typical temperature.
- c) Evaluate this temperature for hydrogen and free electron gas. Comment.

Interaction of intracluster electron gas with CMB photons gives rise to the **Sunyaev – Zel'dovich effect**. The cluster is at rest relative to CMB frame.

- d) Find the typical magnitude of change of wavelength of a single CMB photon scattered by an intracluster electron.

You can simplify your analysis by considering only co-linear collisions in the CMB frame.

- e) Consider the net change of wavelength of CMB photons and decide whether it is positive (i.e. the photons get cooler) or negative (the photons are heated).
- f) Estimate the corresponding change in the CMB temperature.