

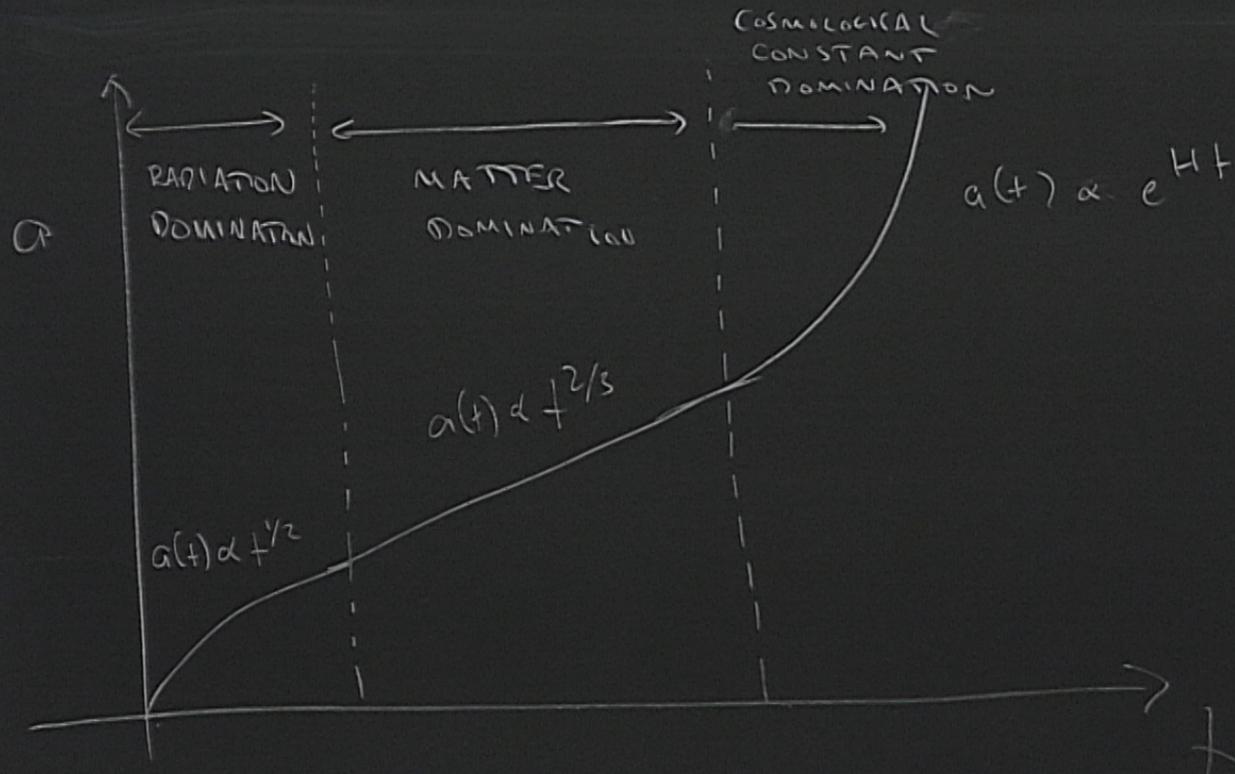
Title: PSI 2017/2018 - Cosmology - Lecture 2

Date: Apr 10, 2018 10:15 AM

URL: <http://pirsa.org/18040014>

Abstract:

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a(t)^2 dx^2$$



• SPATIAL ROTATIONS [3]

• SPATIAL TRANSLATIONS [3]

SPECIAL CASES WITH MORE SYMMETRY?

• MINKOWSKI ($a=1, H=0$)

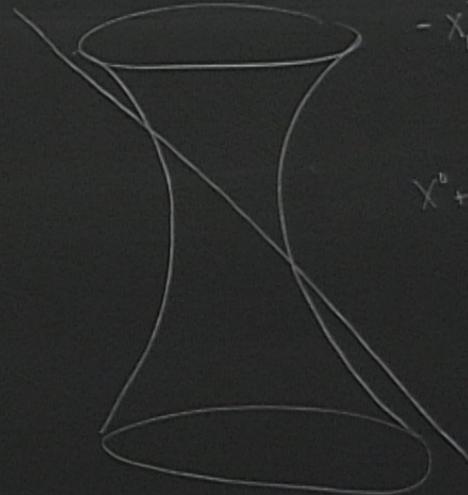
TIME TRANSLATIONS [1]

BOOSTS [3]

• "FRW DE SITTER" ($a = e^{Ht}, H=0$)

4 EXTRA SYMMETRY

"global de Sitter"

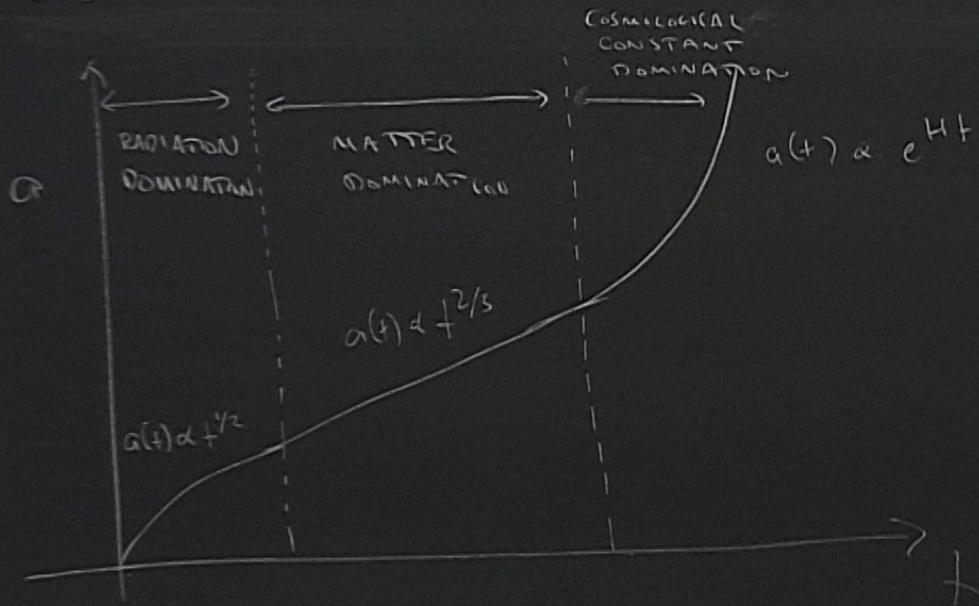


$$-X_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^4 X_i^2 = H_0^{-2}$$

$$X^0 + X^1 \geq 0$$

from
 $a(t) \propto e^{Ht}$

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a(t)^2 dx^2$$



• SPATIAL ROTATIONS [3]

• SPATIAL TRANSLATIONS [3]

SPECIAL CASES WITH MORE SYMMETRY?

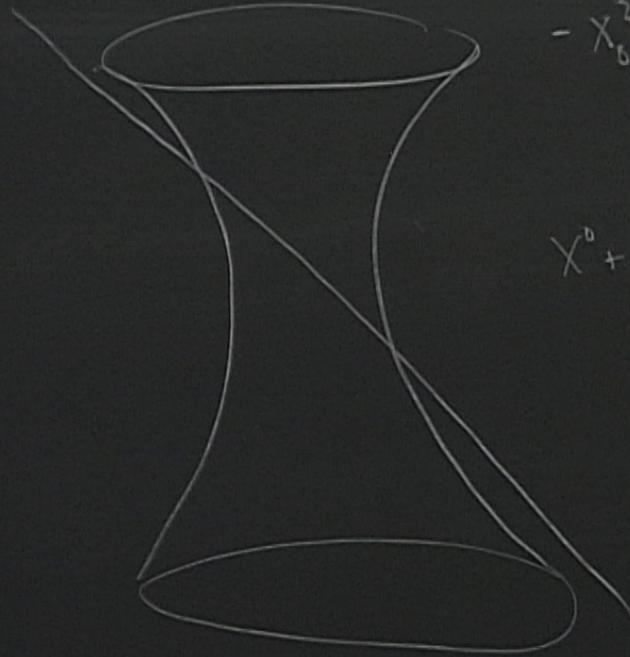
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TIME TRANSLATIONS [1]

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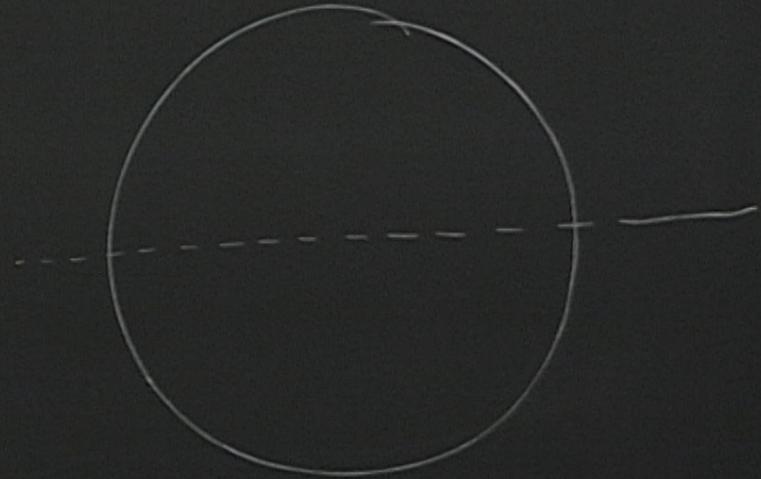
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4 EXTRA SYMMETRY

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$$-X_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^4 X_i^2 = H_0^{-2}$$

$$X^0 + X^1 \geq 0$$



• UNIVERSE HAS A GLOBAL REST FRAME!

• FRW SCALE FACTOR CONVERTS BETWEEN COORDINATE DISTANCES ("COMOVING") AND PHYSICAL DISTANCES

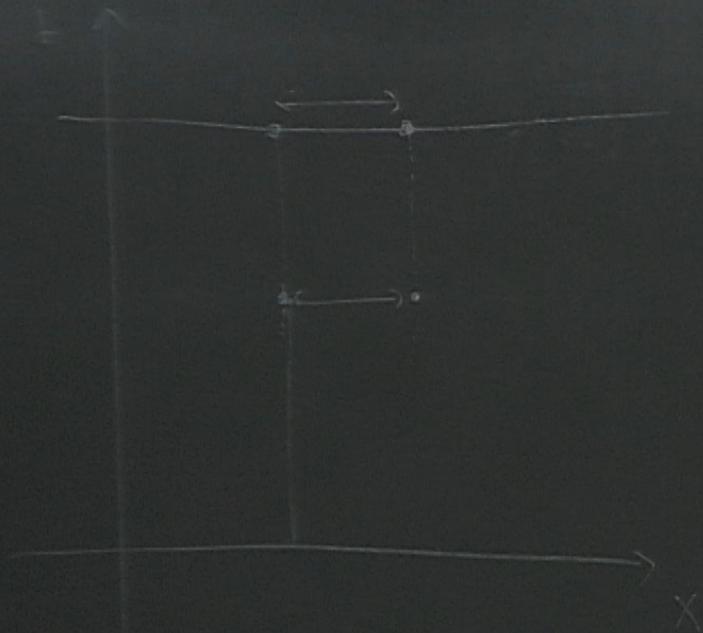
$$(DX)_{\text{phys}} = a(t) (DX)_{\text{coord}}$$

• OBSERVERS AT REST ARE "COMOVING"

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho(t) & 0 \\ 0 & a(t)^2 p(t) \delta_{ij} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\rho(t)$ = PHYSICAL ENERGY DENSITY

$p(t)$ = PRESSURE



• EQUATION OF STATE $w(t) = \frac{p(t)}{\rho(t)}$

• HUBBLE PARAMETER $H(t) = \frac{1}{a} \frac{da}{dt}$

EINSTEIN'S EQS ($G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$)

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

"THE" FRIEDMANN EQUATIONS

$$\dot{H} = -4\pi G (\rho + p)$$

FRIEDMANN'S SECOND EQ.

CONTINUITY EQS ($\nabla_{\mu} T^{\mu\nu} = 0$):

$$\star \frac{d \log \rho}{d \log a} = -3(1+w)$$

TO CLOSE THESE FCS, WE NEED TO KNOW
SOMETHING ABOUT HOW $\rho(t)$ EVOLVES.

SIMPLEST EXAMPLE: CONSTANT- w UNIVERSE

$$w = \frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} \text{ IS CONSTANT.}$$

CONTINUITY $\Rightarrow \rho \propto a^{-3(1+w)}$

$w =$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{array} \right.$	RADIATION DOMINATED	$[\rho a^{-4}]$
		MATTER DOMINATED	$[\rho a^{-3}]$
		COSMOLOGICAL CONSTANT DOMINATED	$[\rho a^0]$

TO CLOSE THESE FCS, WE NEED TO KNOW
SOMETHING ABOUT HOW $\rho(t)$ EVOLVES.

$w =$

EQUATIONS

SECOND EQ.

SIMPLEST EXAMPLE: CONSTANT- w UNIVERSE

$$w = \frac{p}{\rho} \text{ IS CONSTANT.}$$

CONTINUITY
 $\Rightarrow \rho \propto a^{-3(1+w)}$

FRIEDMANN
 \Rightarrow HOMEWORK

$$\Lambda \text{CDM: } \rho(t) = \rho_{r0} a^{-4} + \rho_{m0} a^{-3} + \Lambda$$

$$\rho(t) = \frac{1}{3} \rho_{r0} a^{-4} + \cancel{0} \rho_{m0} a^{-3} - \Lambda$$

$(\cdot)_0 = \text{"EVALUATED TODAY (AT } a=1 \text{"}$

$$\Lambda \text{CDM: } \rho(t) = \rho_{r0} a^{-4} + \rho_{m0} a^{-3} + \Lambda$$

$$\rho(t) = \frac{1}{3} \rho_{r0} a^{-4} + \cancel{0} \rho_{m0} a^{-3} - \Lambda$$

$$\Lambda = \rho_{\Lambda}$$

$$\Omega_{\Lambda} = \frac{\rho_{\Lambda}}{\rho_{\text{tot}}}$$

$(-)_0 =$ "EVALUATED TODAY (AT $a=1$)"

NUMERICALLY INTEGRATE TO GET $a(t)$

EXPANSION HISTORY PARAMETERIZED BY. $(p_{ro}, p_{m0}, \Lambda)$

"COSMOLOGISTS PARAMETERIZATION": $(h, \Omega_c, \Omega_m, \Omega_\Lambda)$

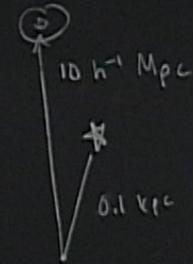
$$H_0 = 100 h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$$

$$h = 0.7$$

$$\Omega_i = \frac{p_{i,0}}{p_{tot,0}}$$

$$[\sum_i \Omega_i = 1]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow p_{tot,0}$$



... PARAMETERIZED BY: $(p_{ro}, p_{no}, \Lambda)$

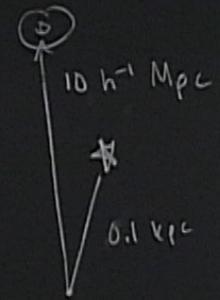
... PARAMETERIZATION: $(h, \Omega_c, \Omega_m, \Omega_\Lambda)$

$100 h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$

$\Leftrightarrow H_{tot,0}$

$$\left[\sum \Omega_i = 1 \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} D &= \frac{z}{H} \quad (z \ll 1) & h=0.5 \\ & & h=1.0 \\ &= 29.98 h^{-1} \text{ Mpc} & \text{[IF } z=0.01] \end{aligned}$$



TIME COORDINATES

- t = PROPER TIME
- a = SCALE FACTOR

$$H(a)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \left(\rho_m a^{-4} + \rho_{m0} a^{-3} + \Lambda \right)$$
$$= H_0^2 \left(\Omega_r a^{-4} + \Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_\Lambda \right)$$

- CONFORMAL TIME τ

DEFINED BY DIFF. EG $\frac{d\tau}{dt} = \frac{1}{a(t)}$

IN CONFORMAL TIME, LIGHTCONES ARE AT 45°

TIME COORDINATES

- t = PROPER TIME
- a = SCALE FACTOR

$$H(a)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \cdot (\rho_m a^{-4} + \rho_{m0} a^{-3} + \Lambda)$$

$$= H_0^2 (\Omega_r a^{-4} + \Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_\Lambda)$$

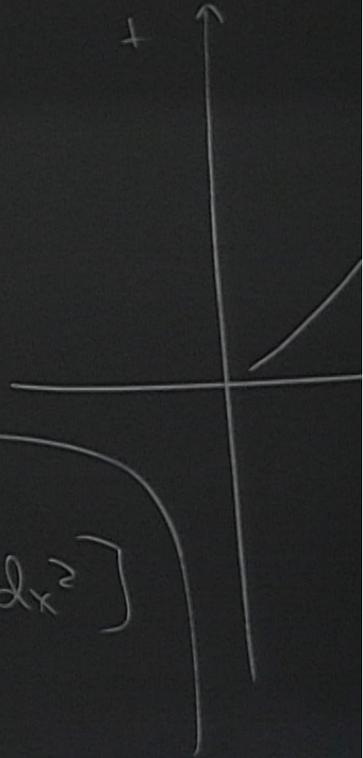
- CONFORMAL TIME τ

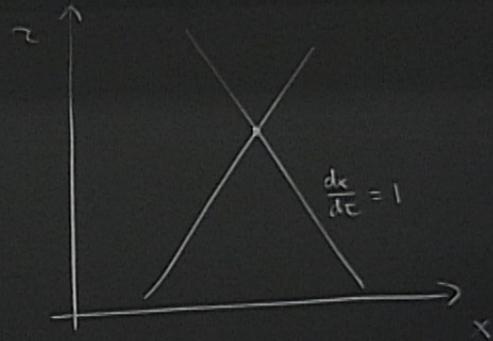
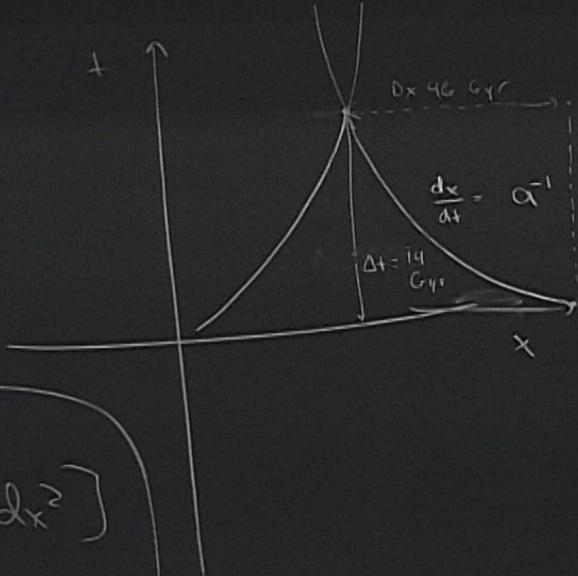
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IN CONFORMAL TIME, LIGHTCONES ARE AT 45°

FRW METRIC IS

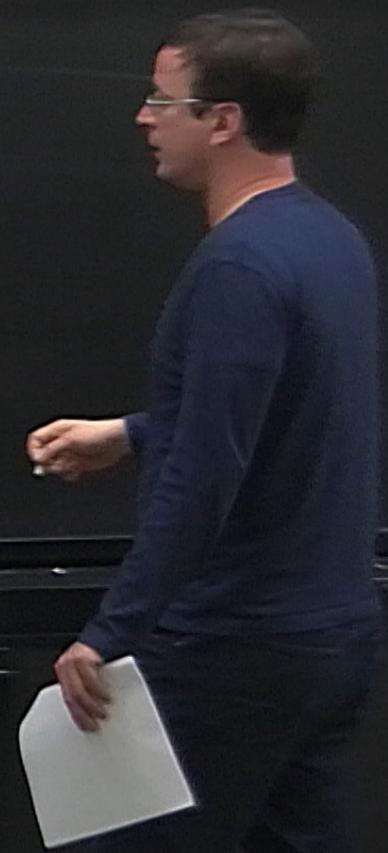
$$ds^2 = a(\tau)^2 [-d\tau^2 + dx^2]$$

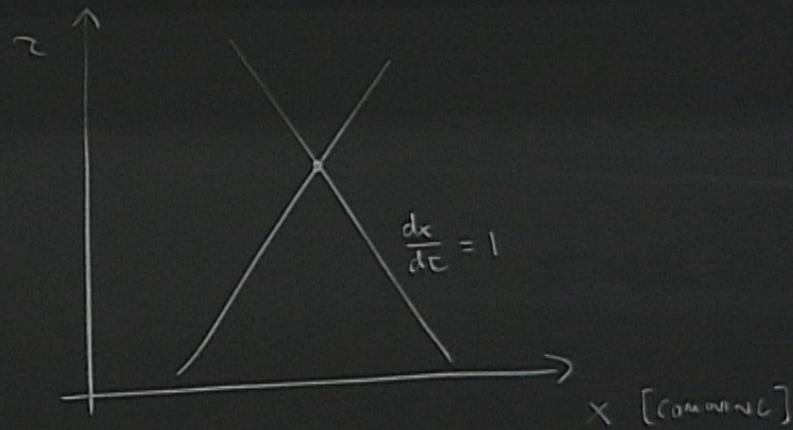
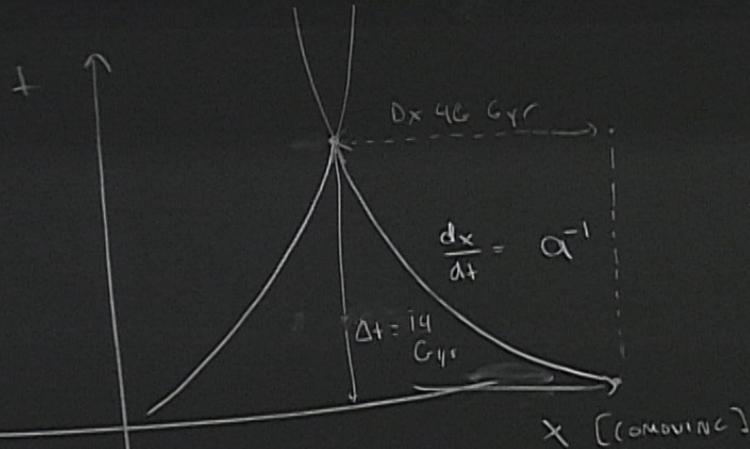




$$-15 \int (\tau)^2 [-d\tau^2 + dx^2]$$

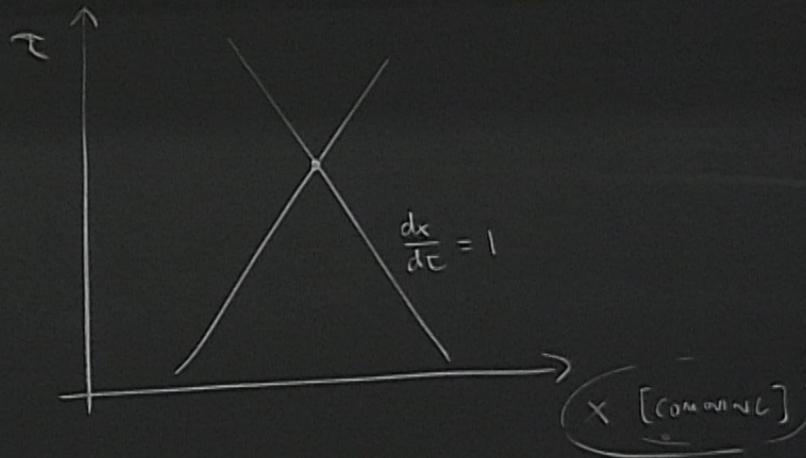
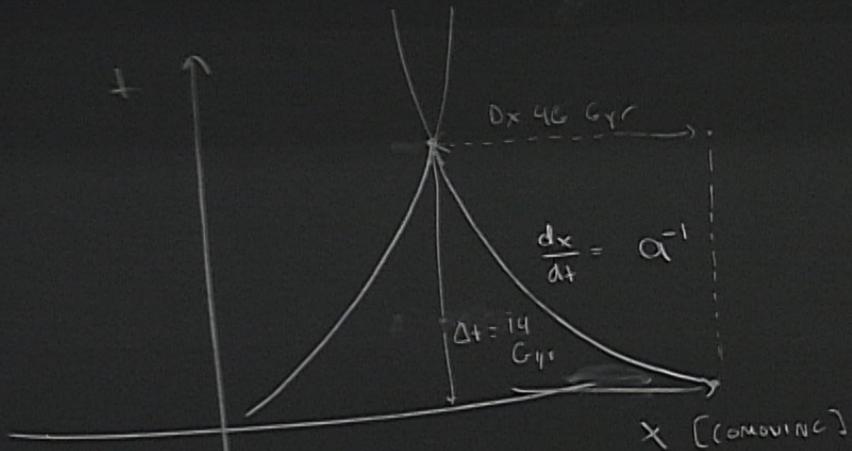
AGE = 14 Gyr
 SIZE = 46 Gyr COMPTON





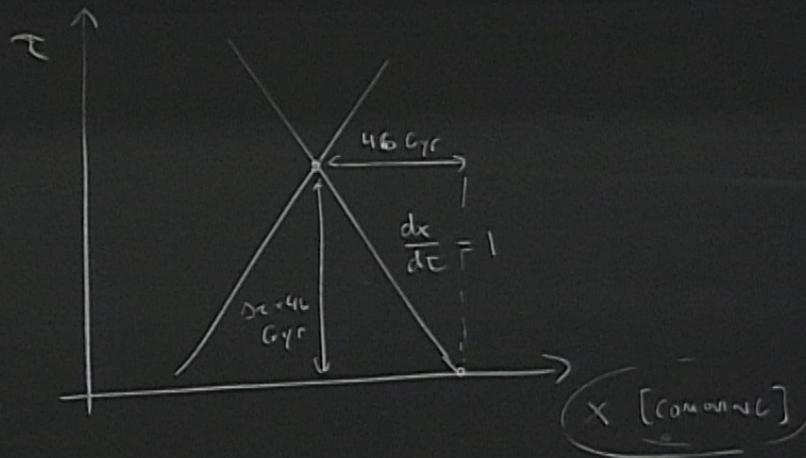
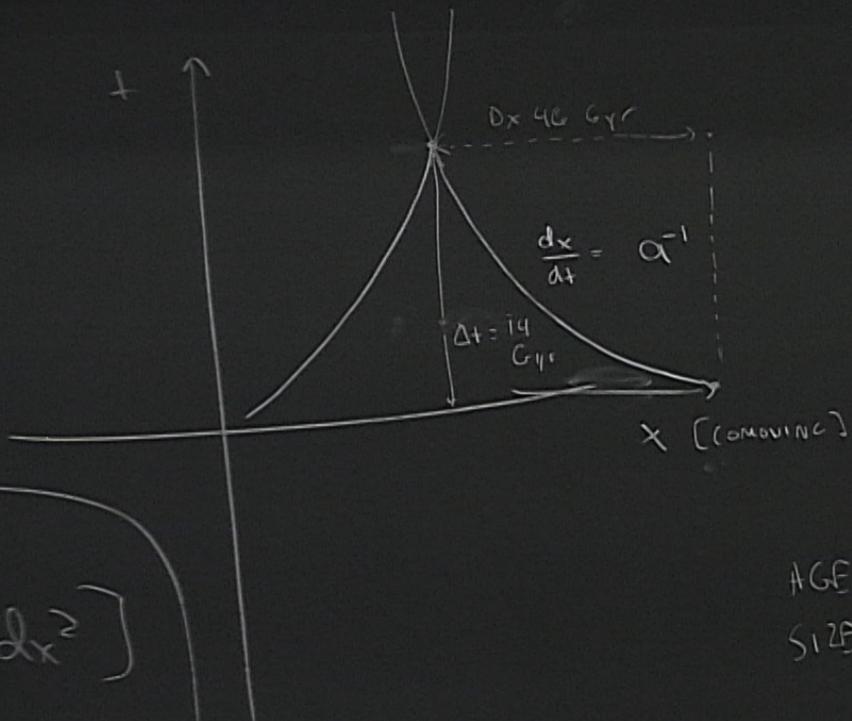
$d\tau^2 + dx^2$

AGE = 14 Gyr
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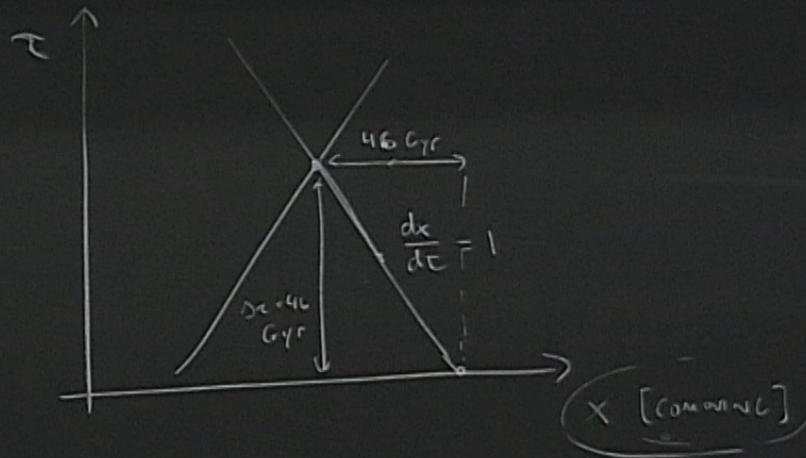
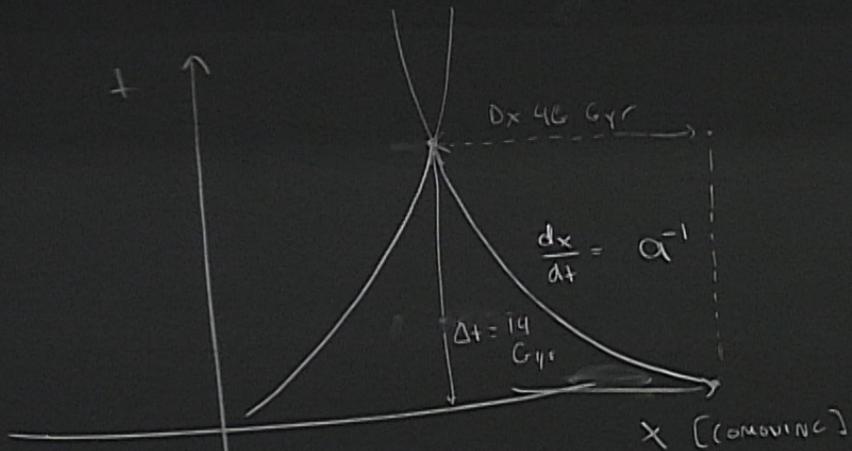
AGE = 14 Gyr
 SIZE = 46 Gyr COMOVING

$dt^2 + dx^2$



AGE = 14 Gyr
 SIZE = 46 Gyr COMOVING

$d\tau^2 + dx^2$



AGE = 14 Gyr
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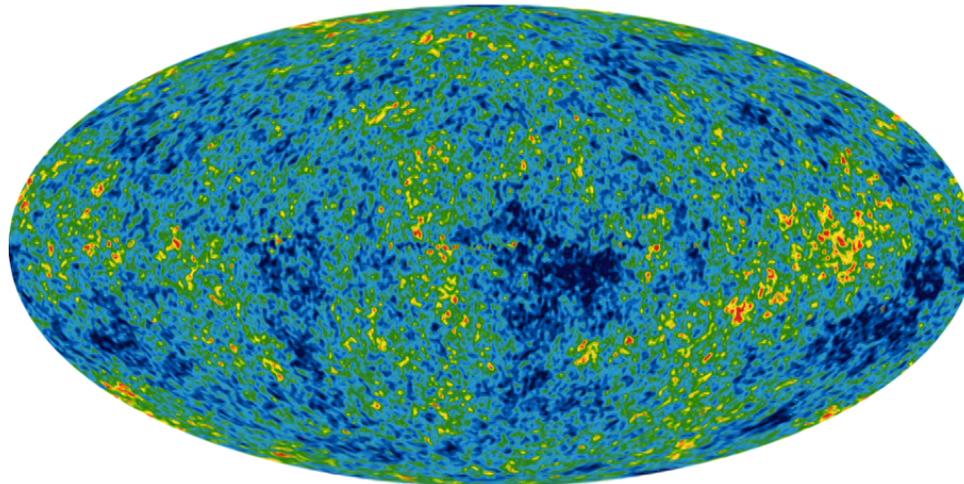
Random variables

Kendrick Smith
PSI 2018, Explorations in Cosmology

The standard model of cosmology is a **probabilistic model**.

For example, it can predict the probability of a given CMB realization occurring, but not the specific realization.

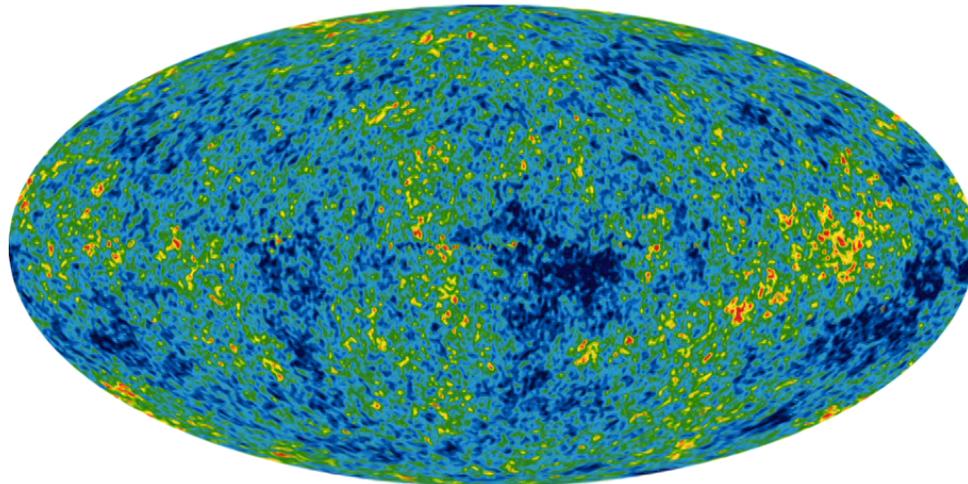
To specify the standard model precisely, we'll need to build up some machinery for working with random variables.



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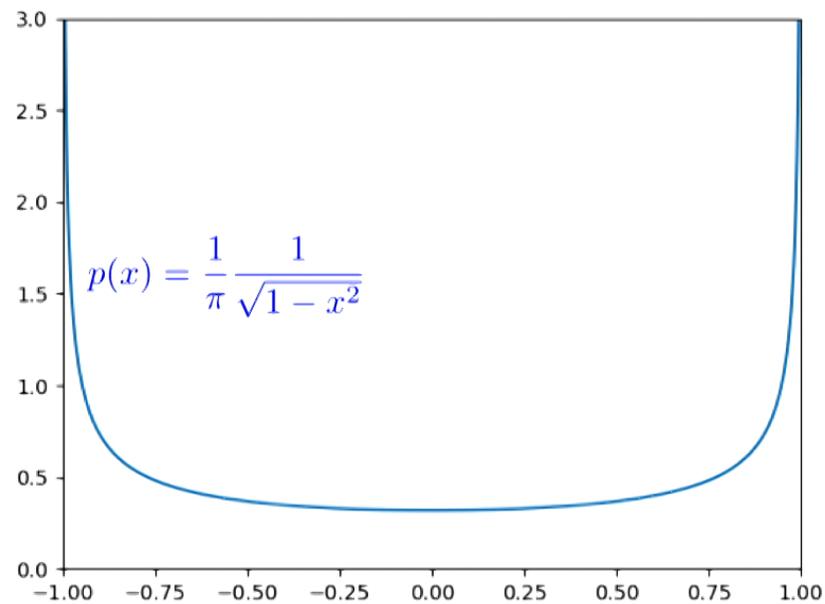
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To specify the standard model precisely, we'll need to build up some machinery for working with random variables.



Physicist's definition of a one-dimensional random variable X :
anything with a probability distribution function (PDF) $p(x)$.

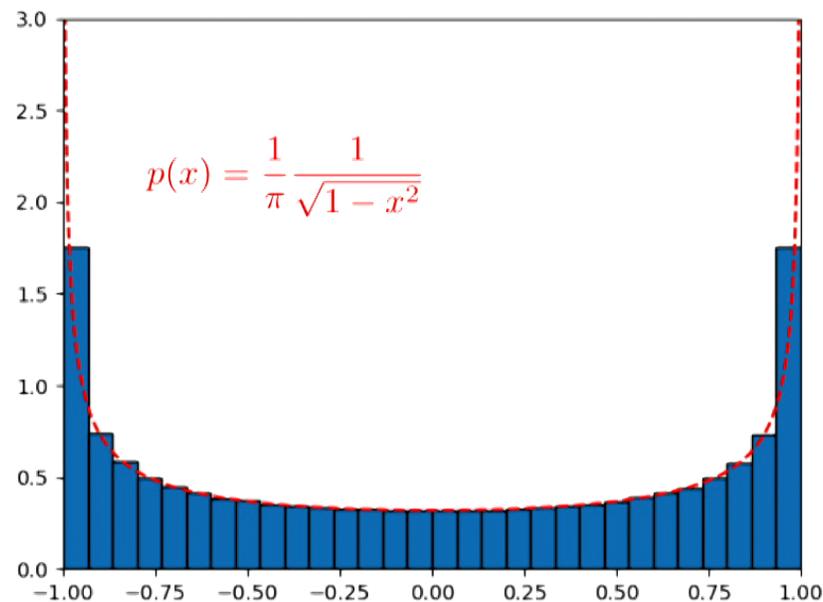
Here is an arbitrarily chosen example.



Histogram of 10^6 random samples in 30 bins, compared to the continuous PDF. The probability for the random variable X to be in bin $[a,b]$ is:

$$\text{Prob}(a < X < b) = \int_a^b dx p(x)$$

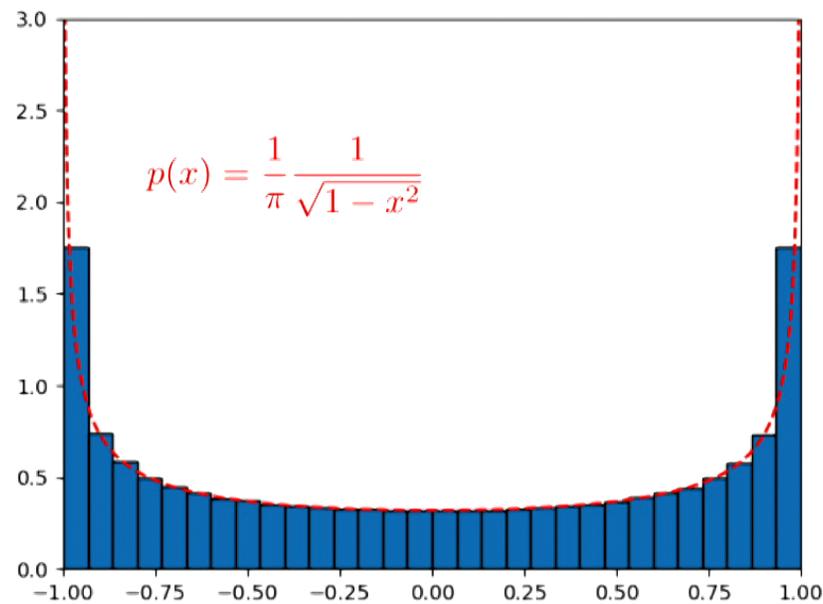
Note that the PDF must satisfy $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx p(x) = 1$



The notation $\langle . \rangle$ denotes an expectation value over realizations of the random variable X . For example:

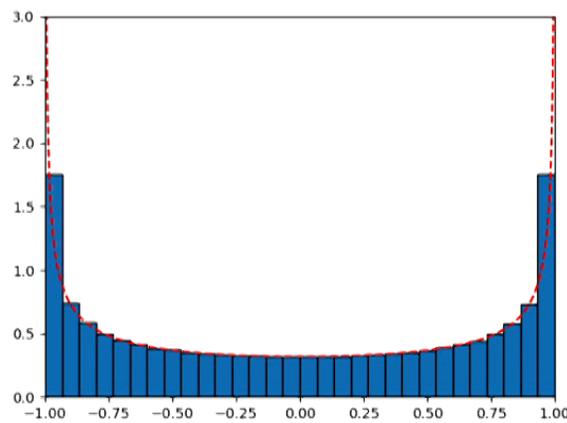
$$\langle X \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 dx x p(x) = 0$$

$$\langle X^2 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 dx x^2 p(x) = \frac{1}{2}$$

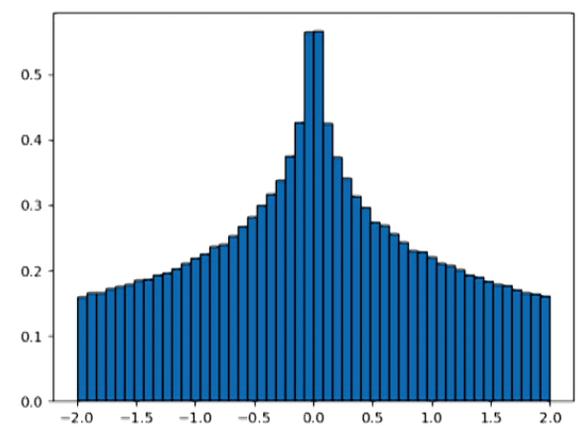


New random variables can be constructed from old ones.

For example, define $Y = (X_1 + X_2)$, where X_1, X_2 are **independent** random variables with the same PDF as before, $p(x) = \frac{1}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}}$

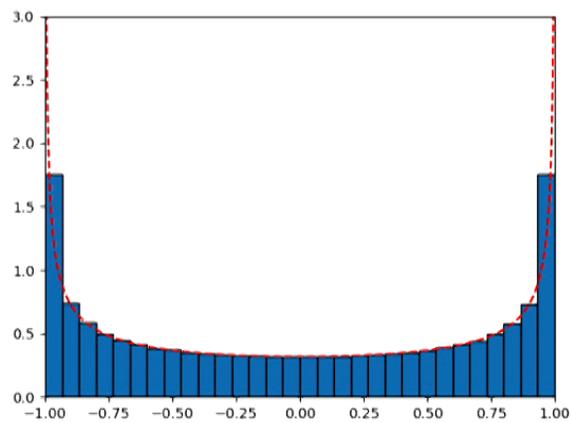


X

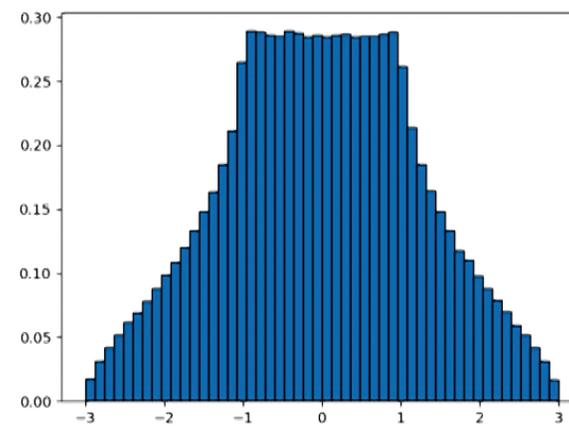


Y = X₁ + X₂

Three X's added together: $Y = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$



X

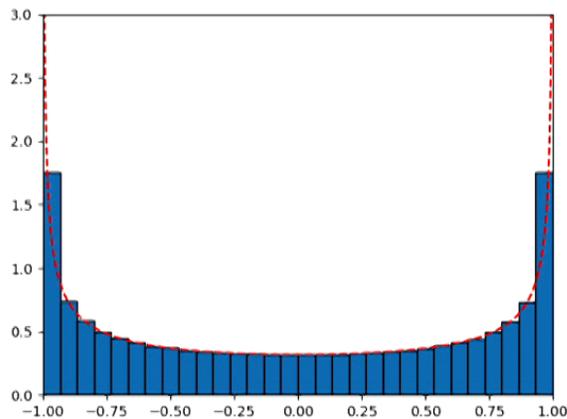


$Y = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$

Twenty X's added together: $Y = \sum_{i=1}^{20} X_i$

In the next few slides, we'll explain where the PDF
 $p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{20\pi}} e^{-x^2/20}$ comes from (including factors of 20, pi).

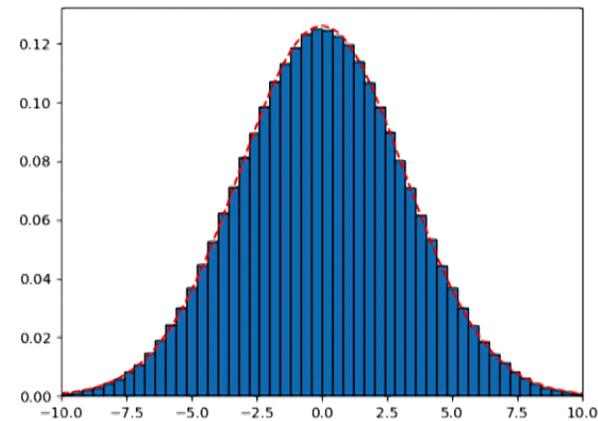
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$



X



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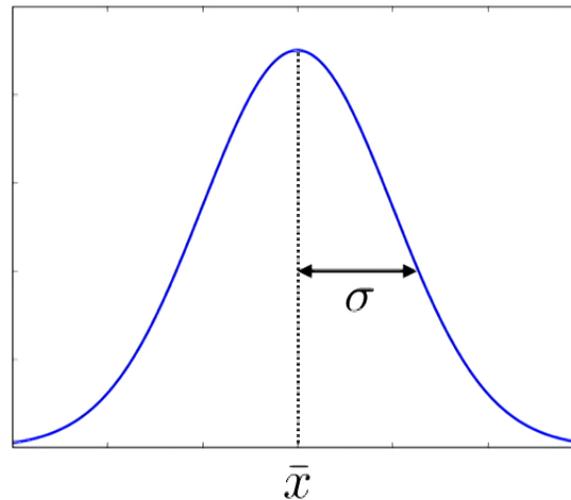
$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{20} X_i$$

Central limit theorem: the sum of a **large number** of **independent, identically distributed** random variables has a PDF which is approximately Gaussian.

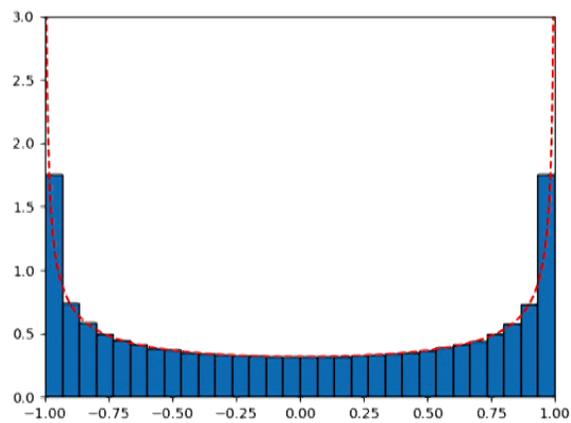
The Gaussian PDF is defined by:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

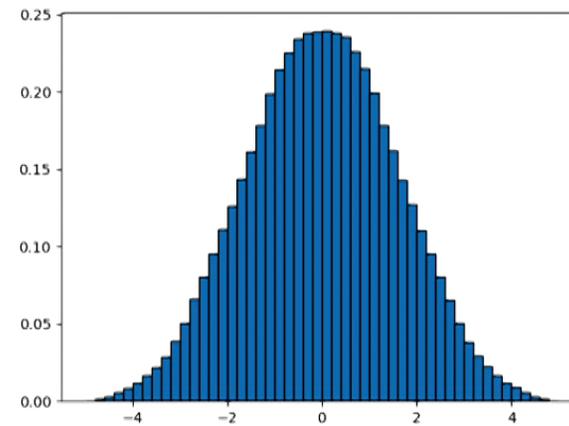
and has two parameters: a mean \bar{x} and a width σ .



Five X's added together: $Y = X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4 + X_5$



X

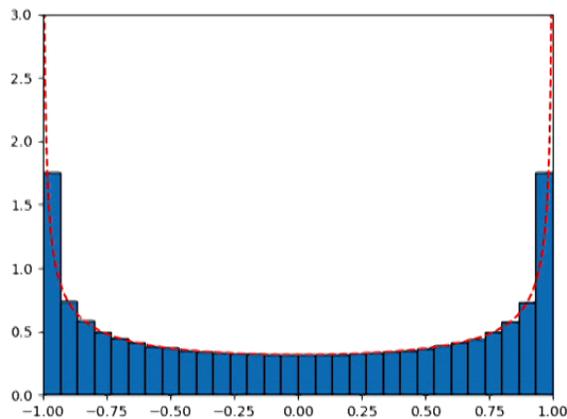


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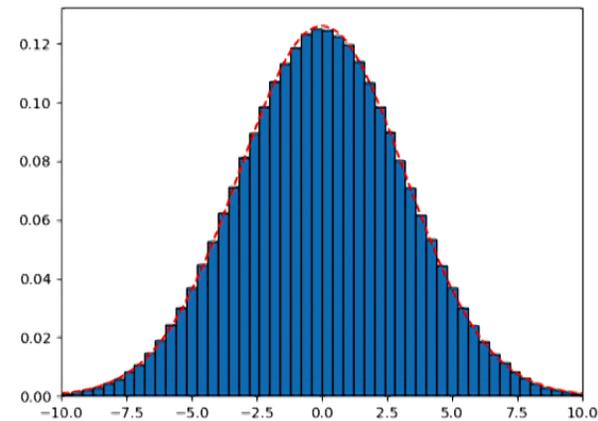
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X



$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{20\pi}} e^{-x^2/20}$$



$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{20} X_i$$

Some definitions: the **mean** and **variance** of a random variable X are defined by:

$$\bar{X} = \langle X \rangle \quad [\text{mean}]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= \langle X^2 \rangle - \langle X \rangle^2 \\ &= \langle (X - \bar{X})^2 \rangle \end{aligned} \quad [\text{variance}]$$

$\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$ can be interpreted as the “typical” size of fluctuations around the mean.

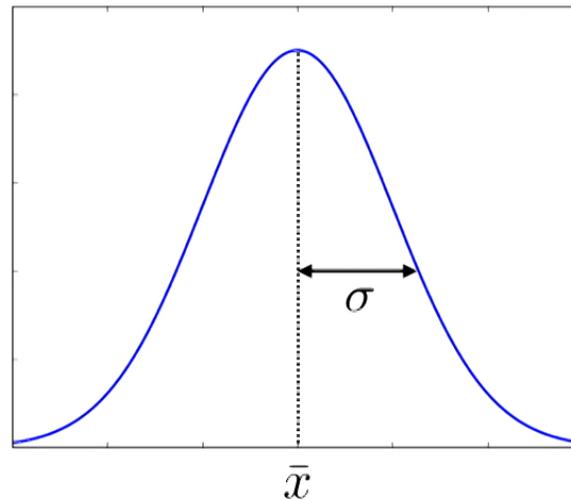
Example: For the Gaussian

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

a short calculation shows:

$$\text{Mean} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx p(x) x = \bar{x}$$

$$\text{Variance} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx p(x) (x^2 - \bar{x}^2) = \sigma^2$$

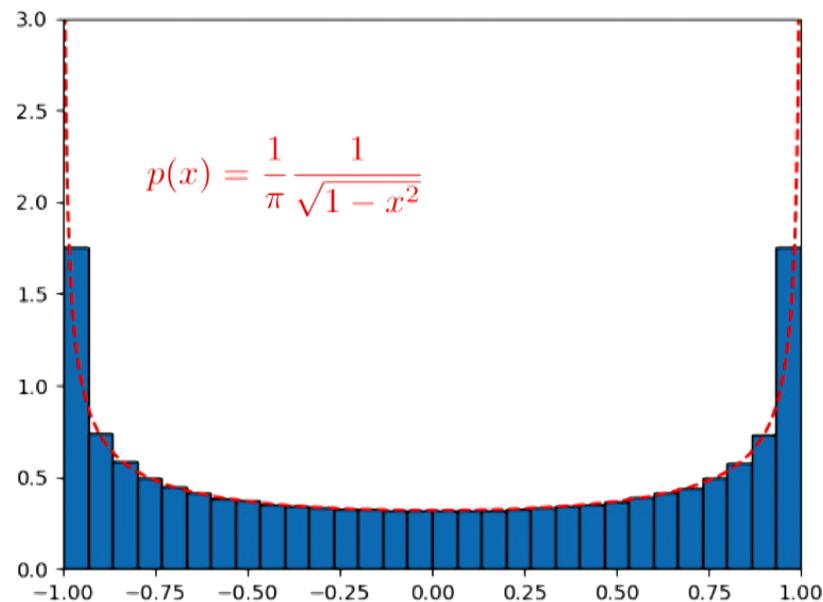


Example 2: for the PDF $p(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ considered previously,

$$\bar{X} = 0$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \langle (X - \bar{X})^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2}$$

Next let's calculate mean and variance of $Y = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$, where the X 's are assumed to be independent samples.



Properties of expectation values:

$$\langle X \pm X' \rangle = \langle X \rangle \pm \langle X' \rangle$$

$$\langle cX \rangle = c\langle X \rangle \quad \text{if } c \text{ is a constant (not a random variable)}$$

$$\langle XX' \rangle = \langle X \rangle \langle X' \rangle \quad \text{if } X, X' \text{ are independent random variables}$$

(not true in general!)

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Now we can calculate mean and variance of $Y = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$

$$\bar{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{X}_i = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(Y) &= \langle (Y - \bar{Y})^2 \rangle \\ &= \langle (\sum_i X_i)^2 \rangle \\ &= \langle \sum_i X_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} X_i X_j \rangle \\ &= \sum_i \langle X_i^2 \rangle + \sum_{i \neq j} \langle X_i \rangle \langle X_j \rangle \\ &= N \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

CONSTANT - W UNIVERSE

CONSTANT

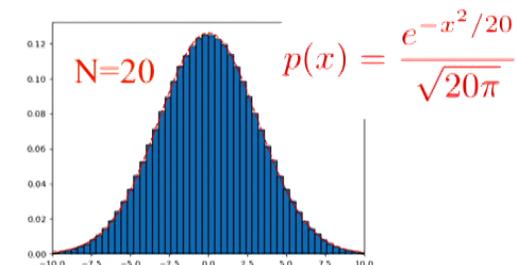
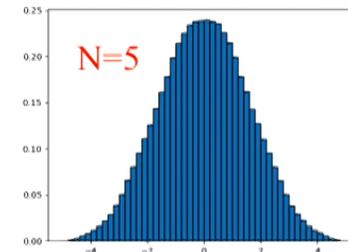
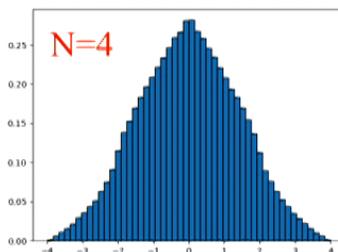
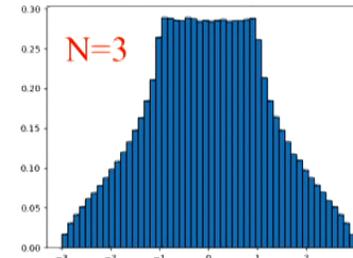
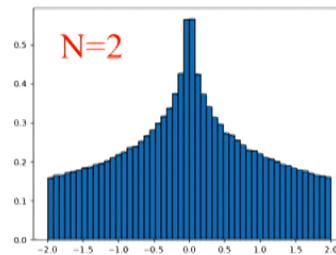
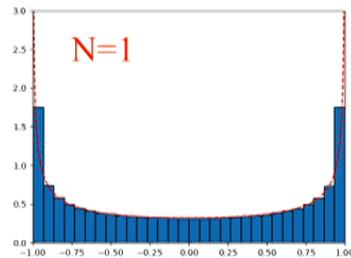
$$p(x, x') = p(x) p(x')$$

This calculation gives the mean and variance of $Y = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$:

$$\bar{Y} = 0 \quad \text{Var}(Y) = N/2 \quad (\text{for all } N)$$

In general, the mean and variance do not determine the PDF $p(x)$.
However, for a Gaussian PDF they do!

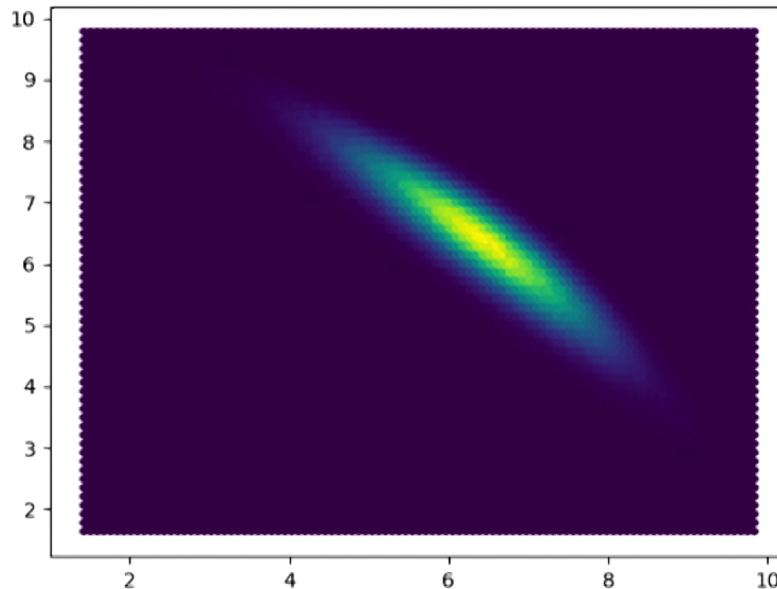
$$p(x) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-(x-\bar{x})^2/2\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N}} e^{-x^2/N} \quad (\text{for } N \gg 1)$$



Multivariate random variables: let's generalize to the case of N random variables (X_1, \dots, X_N) which are not assumed independent.

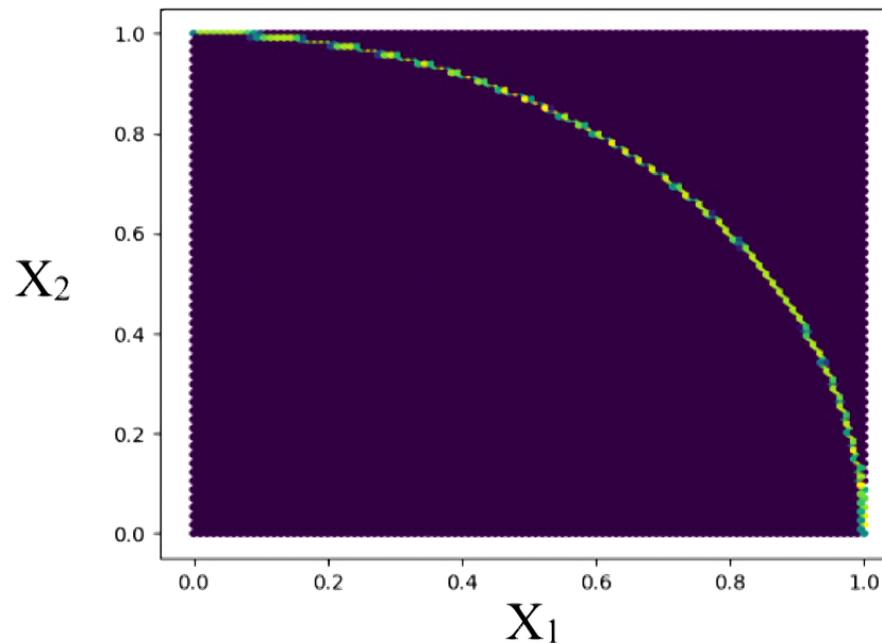
The PDF becomes a function of N variables $p(x_1, \dots, x_N)$.

Example: a multivariate Gaussian (X_1, X_2) with a correlation between X_1 and X_2 . (To be defined precisely in a few slides!)



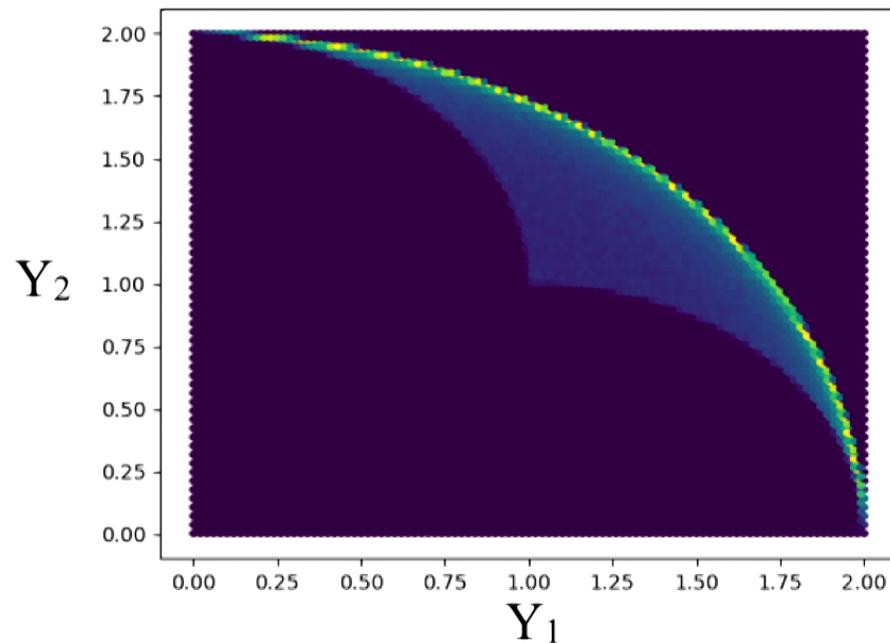
Example:
$$p(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\pi} \delta(\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} - 1) & \text{if } x_1, x_2 \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Just to show an extreme case where the variables x_1, x_2 are very non-independent!

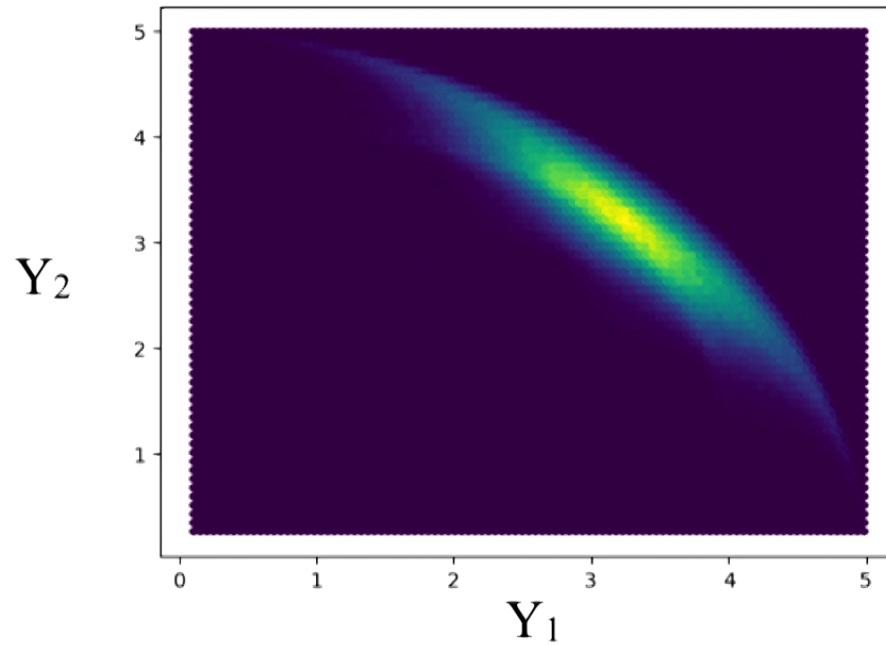


Does the central limit theorem still hold when the random variable is a vector X_i ? (In this case, a two-component vector)

Two X 's: $Y_i = X_i^{(1)} + X_i^{(2)}$



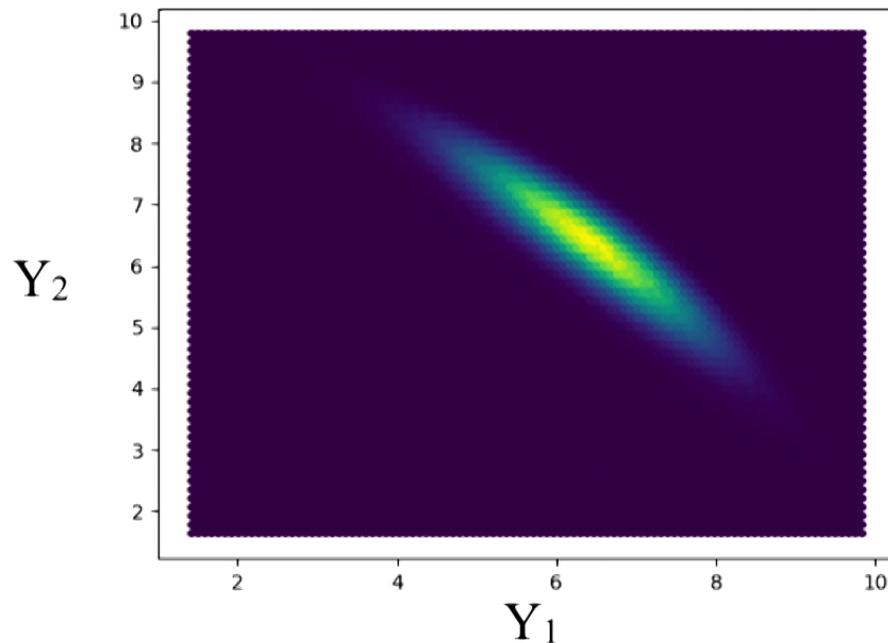
Five X's: $Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^5 X_i^{(j)}$



Ten X's:
$$Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^{10} X_i^{(j)}$$

The distribution has become a multivariate Gaussian.

In two variables, the multivariate Gaussian has five parameters: two “means”, and three parameters describing the size and orientation.



In N variables, the mean becomes an N-component vector

$$\bar{X}_i = \langle X_i \rangle$$

The variance generalizes to an N-by-N **covariance matrix**:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) &= \langle X_i X_j \rangle - \langle X_i \rangle \langle X_j \rangle \\ &= \langle (X_i - \bar{X}_i)(X_j - \bar{X}_j) \rangle \end{aligned}$$

The diagonal elements are variances $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = \text{Var}(X_i)$ which have the same interpretation as before (that is, $\text{Var}(X_i)^{1/2}$ is the characteristic size of fluctuations in X_i around its mean \bar{X}_i)

The off-diagonal elements $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$ quantify the correlation between random variables X_i, X_j . The **correlation coefficient**

$$\text{Corr}(X_i, X_j) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_i) \text{Var}(X_j)}}$$

is always between -1 and 1.

Now we can give the definition of a multivariate Gaussian PDF:

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \frac{1}{\text{Det}(2\pi C)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x_i - \bar{x}_i)C_{ij}^{-1}(x_j - \bar{x}_j)\right)$$

The PDF of a multivariate Gaussian random variable is determined by its mean \bar{X}_i and covariance matrix $C_{ij} = \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$

In cosmology, we are usually interested in Gaussian random variables. Therefore, it suffices to keep track of the mean (a vector) and the covariance (a matrix).

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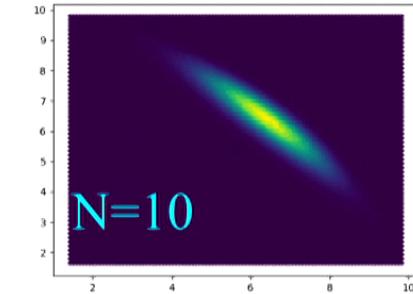
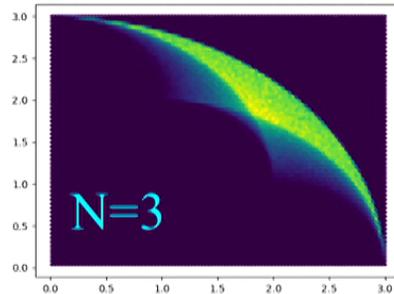
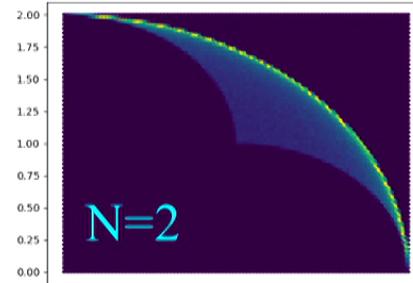
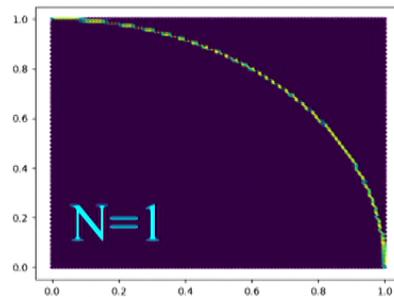
In cosmology, we are usually interested in Gaussian random variables. Therefore, it suffices to keep track of the mean (a vector) and the covariance (a matrix).

In this example, a short calculation gives the mean and covariance:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \bar{X}_1 \\ \bar{X}_2 \end{pmatrix} = N \begin{pmatrix} 0.64 \\ 0.64 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix} = N \begin{pmatrix} 0.095 & -0.087 \\ -0.087 & 0.095 \end{pmatrix}$$

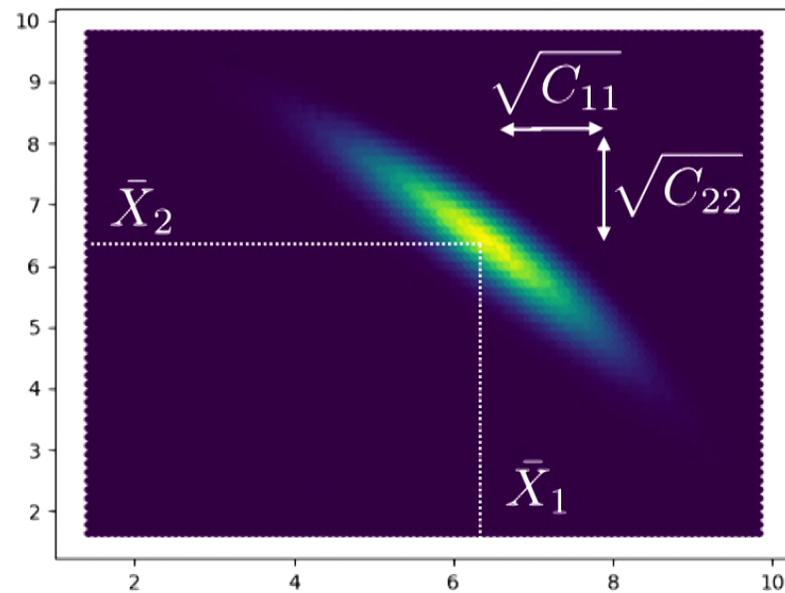
In the large-N limit, these determine the PDF (central limit theorem):

$$p(x_1, x_2) \approx \frac{1}{\text{Det}(2\pi C)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x_i - \bar{x}_i)C_{ij}^{-1}(x_j - \bar{x}_j)\right) \quad (N \gg 1)$$



In this example, the strong “tilt” of the ellipse means that X_1 and X_2 are strongly negatively correlated:

$$C_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \frac{C_{12}}{\sqrt{C_{11}C_{22}}} \approx -0.9$$



The CMB is a multivariate Gaussian random variable!

If the map below is represented with $N=10^7$ pixels, then the statistics are described perfectly (as far as we know) by a multivariate Gaussian, whose N -by- N covariance matrix is calculable. (Numerically, not analytically!)

