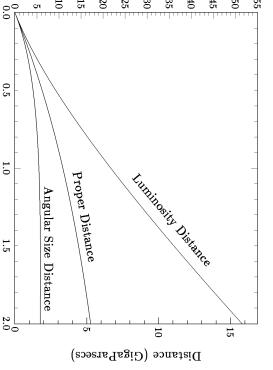
d(z), luminosity distance  $d_L(z)$ , and angular diameter distance  $d_A(z)$  — are given by where  $Mpc^{-1}$ ,  $\Omega_M = \Omega_b + \Omega_{dm} = 0.2736$ ,  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.726$ , and  $\Omega_R = 8.4 \times 10^{-5}$ . If these To continue, we use the WMAP 5-year recommended values:  $H_0 = 70.5 \,\mathrm{km \cdot s^{-1}}$ . where for  $K = \pm 1$ ,  $a(t_0)$  can be rewritten as radial coordinate  $\xi$  is given by where  $\xi$  is related to the frequently used coordinate r by gs Physics 8.952: Particle Physics of the Early Universe Prof. Alan Guth In terms of these quantities, the three definitions of distance — proper distance For  $K = \pm 1$ , the coefficient in Eq. (1.3) can be rewritten, giving If the redshift of the light that we now receive from a distant object is z, then its **PROBLEM 1: DISTANCE TO A GALAXY AT** z = 6.96 (10 points)\* Summarizing the key formulas, the Robertson–Walker metric can be written  $\xi(z) =$  $\xi(z) = \sqrt{\frac{\Omega_K}{-K}} \int_{1/(1+z)}^{z} \frac{1}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4} + \Omega_K x^{-2}}} .$  $\overline{a(t_0)H_0} \ \int_{1/(1+z)} \ \overline{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4} + \Omega_K x^{-2}}}$ MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY  $ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a^{2}(t) \left\{ d\xi^{2} + S_{K}^{2}(\xi) \left( d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta d\phi^{2} \right) \right\} ,$ PROBLEM SET 3 SOLUTIONS  $\Omega_K = 1 - \Omega_{\rm tot} = 1 - \Omega_{\Lambda} - \Omega_M - \Omega_R \; .$  $r=S_K(\xi)\equiv$  $d_A(z) = (1+z)^{-1} a(t_0) S_K(\xi(z))$  $d_L(z) = (1+z) a(t_0) S_K(\xi(z))$  $d(z) = a(t_0)\xi(z)$  $a(t_0) = \frac{1}{H_0} \sqrt{\frac{-K}{\Omega_K}}$ Physics Department  $\begin{cases} \sin \xi & \text{if } K = 1\\ \xi & \text{if } K = 0 \end{cases}$  $\sinh \xi \quad \text{if } K = -1$ . April 7, 2009 (1.5)(1.3)(1.1)(1.7)(1.6)(1.4)(1.2)them separately: can put them on the same graph: all three measures of distance are simply related: K = 0 formulas, and to three significant figures the results will agree: zero. One can proceed numerically either by using the K = -1 formulas or the values are taken literally, then  $\Omega_K = 3.2 \times 10^{-4}$ , but this number is consistent with 8.952 PROBLEM SET 3 SOLUTIONS, SPRING 2009 Distance (Giga-Light-Years) 45 40 30 2025 5055 10 150.0 сл  $d_L($ 0.5Redshift z1.0

For larger z they are so different from each other that it is clearer to graph



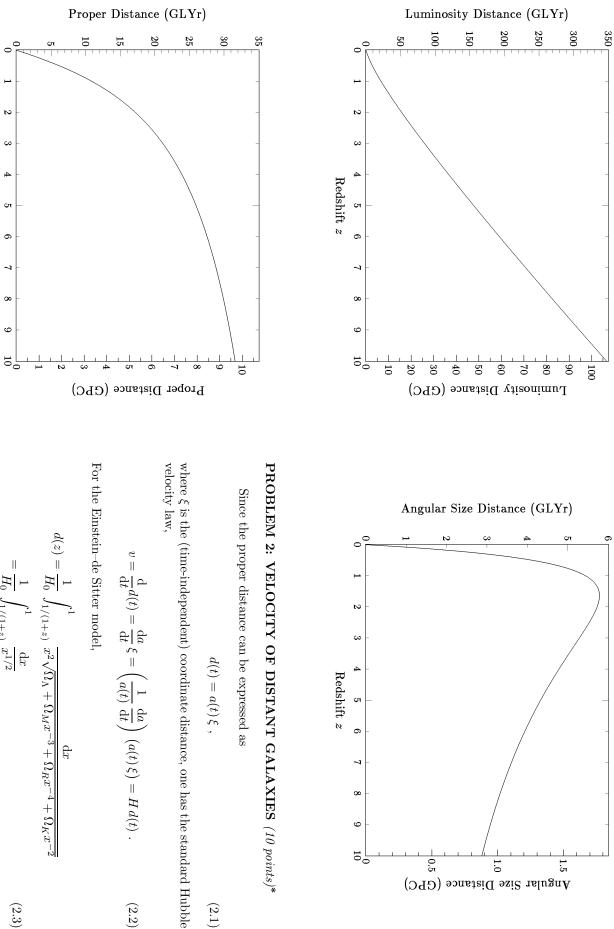
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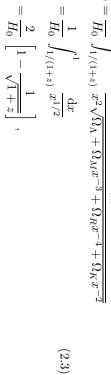
$$d(6.96) = 28.8 \text{ GLYr} = 8.83 \text{ Gpc}$$
  
 $d_L(6.96) = 229 \text{ GLYr} = 70.3 \text{ Gpc}$  (1.8)  
 $d_A(6.96) = 3.62 \text{ GLYr} = 1.11 \text{ Gpc},$ 

where GLYr = giga-light-year, and Gpc = gigaparsec. Note that for a flat universe,

$$z = (1+z) d(z), \qquad d_A(z) = (1+z)^{-1} d(z).$$
 (1.9)

of distance vs. z, using the WMAP 5-year recommended values. For small z one You were not asked to do so, but it is interesting to graph the three measures





(2.2)

(2.1)

Redshift z

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and therefore

$$v = 2\left[1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z}}\right] \ .$$

(2.4)

Alternatively, one can derive Eq. (2.4) by starting with

$$a(t) = \beta t^{2/3}$$

(2.5)

for some constant  $\beta$ . Then a light pulse emitted at time  $t_e$  and received today  $(t = t_0)$  has traveled a proper distance

$$= a(t_0) \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{a(t)} = 3t_0 \left[ 1 - \left(\frac{t_e}{t_0}\right)^{1/3} \right] .$$
 (2.6)

d

By using

$$H_0 = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_0)} = \frac{2}{3t_0}$$

(2.7)

and

$$1+z=rac{a(t_0)}{a(t_e)}=\left(rac{t_0}{t_e}
ight)^{2/3}\,,$$

(2.8)

one sees that Eq. (2.6) reproduces Eq. (2.3) and therefore (2.4).

From Eq. (2.4), v = 1 occurs at redshift

$$1 = 2 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z}} \right] \implies \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z}} = \frac{1}{2}$$
$$\implies \sqrt{1+z} = 2 \implies z = 3.$$
 (2.9)

In general one has

$$v = H_0 d(z) = \int_{1/(1+z)}^{1} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4} + \Omega_K x^{-2}}} , \qquad (2.10)$$

which for the WMAP 5-year recommended parameters and z = 6.96 integrates numerically to give

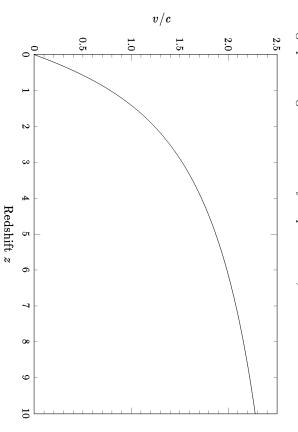
$$\frac{v}{c} = 2.076$$
 . (2.11)

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Setting v = 1 in Eq. (2.10), one can solve it numerically to find that the speed of light is achieved at

$$z = 1.412$$
 . (2.12)

Again you were not asked to draw a graph for v vs. z, but it is interesting to see such a graph. Using the WMAP 5-year parameters, one finds



## **PROBLEM 3: ANGULAR DIAMETER DISTANCE** (10 points)<sup>†</sup>

For this problem we start with the formula for angular diameter distance given in Weinberg (1.10.15):

$$\mathbf{h}(z) = \frac{1}{(1+z)H_0 \,\Omega_K^{1/2}} \sinh \left[ \Omega_K^{1/2} \, \int_{1/(1+z)}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K x^{-2} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4}}} \right]$$
(3.1)

 $d_{\prime}$ 

In the Einstein-de Sitter model,  $\Omega_K = \Omega_\Lambda = \Omega_R = 0$  and  $\Omega_M = 1$ . For the expression above, we use the fact that for small  $\Omega_K$  (and representing the integral above by  $f(\Omega_K, z)$ ):

$$\frac{\sinh\left(\Omega_K^{1/2} f(\Omega_K, z)\right)}{\Omega_K^{1/2}} = f(0, z) + \dots$$
(3.2)

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Using this information, we can obtain the analytic expression for  $d_A(z)$ ,

$$d_A(z) = \frac{1}{(1+z)H_0} f(0,z) = \frac{1}{(1+z)H_0} \int_{1/(1+z)}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2\sqrt{x^{-3}}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{(1+z)H_0} \int_{1/(1+z)}^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/2}}$$
$$(3.3)$$

Computing the derivative with respect to z and finding the extremum, we find that

$$d'_{A}(z) = \frac{1}{H_{0}} \left[ \frac{3}{(1+z)^{5/2}} - \frac{2}{(1+z)^{2}} \right] ,$$
  
so  $d'_{A}(z^{*}) = 0 \implies z^{*} = 5/4.$  (3.4)

Using the  $z^*$  that we just found and putting it in our expression for  $d_A(z)$  gives  $d_A(z^*) = \frac{8}{27H_0}$ .

Now for the more realistic scenario, we use the WMAP 5-year recommended values  $H_0 = 70.5 \text{ km} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ ,  $\Omega_M = \Omega_b + \Omega_{\text{dm}} = 0.2736$ ,  $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.726$ ,  $\Omega_R = 8.4 \times 10^{-5}$ . Also curvature is negligible, so  $\Omega_K = 0$ . So our expression for angular diameter distance becomes

$$d_A(z) = \frac{1}{(1+z)H_0} \int_{1/(1+z)}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2 \sqrt{\Omega_A + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4}}} .$$
(3.5)

To find the maximum of this function, it has to be done numerically. Using the Mathematica function FindRoot we can get the value of z that maximizes  $d_A(z)$  as  $z^* \approx 1.639$ . Putting this value back into  $d_A(z)$  and evaluating the integral numerically we obtain  $d_A(z^*) \approx 0.417/H_0 \approx 5.78$  GLYr  $\approx 1.773$  Gpc.

## **PROBLEM 4: SAHA EQUATION** $(10 \text{ points})^{\dagger}$

Let's write for reference the Saha equation as written in Weinberg (2.3.6) and (2.3.7),

$$X(1+SX) = 1, (4.1)$$

where  $X = n_p/(n_p + n_{1s})$  is the fractional hydrogen ionization, and

$$S = 0.76 n_B \left(\frac{m_e kT}{2\pi\hbar^2}\right)^{-3/2} \exp(B_1/kT) .$$
 (4.2)

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Notice that in this problem, we are told to find the temperature T at which we would obtain X = 1/2 under different values of the parameters. This will involve solving the Saha equation numerically. In order to facilitate this, it is useful to use the espression for S given in Weinberg (2.3.8):

$$S = 1.747 \times 10^{-22} e^{157894/T} T^{3/2} \Omega_B h^2 .$$
(4.3)

Here T is the temperature in degrees Kelvin and h is the Hubble constant in units of  $100 \text{ km} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ .

Now let's proceed to the numerical solution. Again, the Mathematica function FindRoot was used.

- 1. For the case of the original parameters given in Problem 1, the temperature for X = 1/2 is  $T_{1/2} = 3738$  K.
- 2. For the case of having a mass of the electron  $m_e$  that is twice as large as the real value assuming the binding energy  $B_1$  stays constant changes S by a factor of  $2^{-3/2}$ . The result is that  $T_{1/2} = 3645$  K.
- 3. For the case of having a mass of the electron  $m_e$  that is half as large as the real value assuming the binding energy  $B_1$  stays constant changes S by a factor of  $(1/2)^{-3/2}$ . The result is that  $T_{1/2} = 3836$  K.
- 4. For the case of having a binding energy  $B_1$  that is twice as large as the real value, we obtain  $T_{1/2} = 7672$  K. Notice the jump in the temperature with respect to the previous two cases. This sensitivity arises due to the exponential dependence on the binding energy.
- 5. For the case of having a binding energy  $B_1$  that is half as large as the real value, we obtain  $T_{1/2} = 1822$  K. Notice how much the universe must cool prior to reaching X = 1/2!
- 6. Setting  $\Omega_B$  to be 10 times larger than the WMAP 5-year values, we find  $T_{1/2}=3962$  K.
- 7. Setting  $\Omega_B$  to be 10 times smaller than the WMAP 5-year values, we find  $T_{1/2}=3538\,{\rm K}.$

\*Solution written by Alan Guth. <sup>†</sup>Solution written by Carlos Santana.