

Last Time (continued)

- Supernova's -- Today's standard candle

- know L = absolute luminosity
(energy / time)

- know l = apparent luminosity
(energy / area / time)

- Inferred distance

$$l = \frac{L}{4\pi D_L^2} \Rightarrow D_L = \left(\frac{L}{4\pi l} \right)^{1/2}$$

↑
experimental D_L

- Review:

Hubble: $v = H_0 d$

$$H_0 = 70 \frac{\text{km/s}}{\text{Mega pc}}$$

Red

Shift: $\lambda'_{\text{obs}} = (1+z) \lambda_{\text{emit}}$

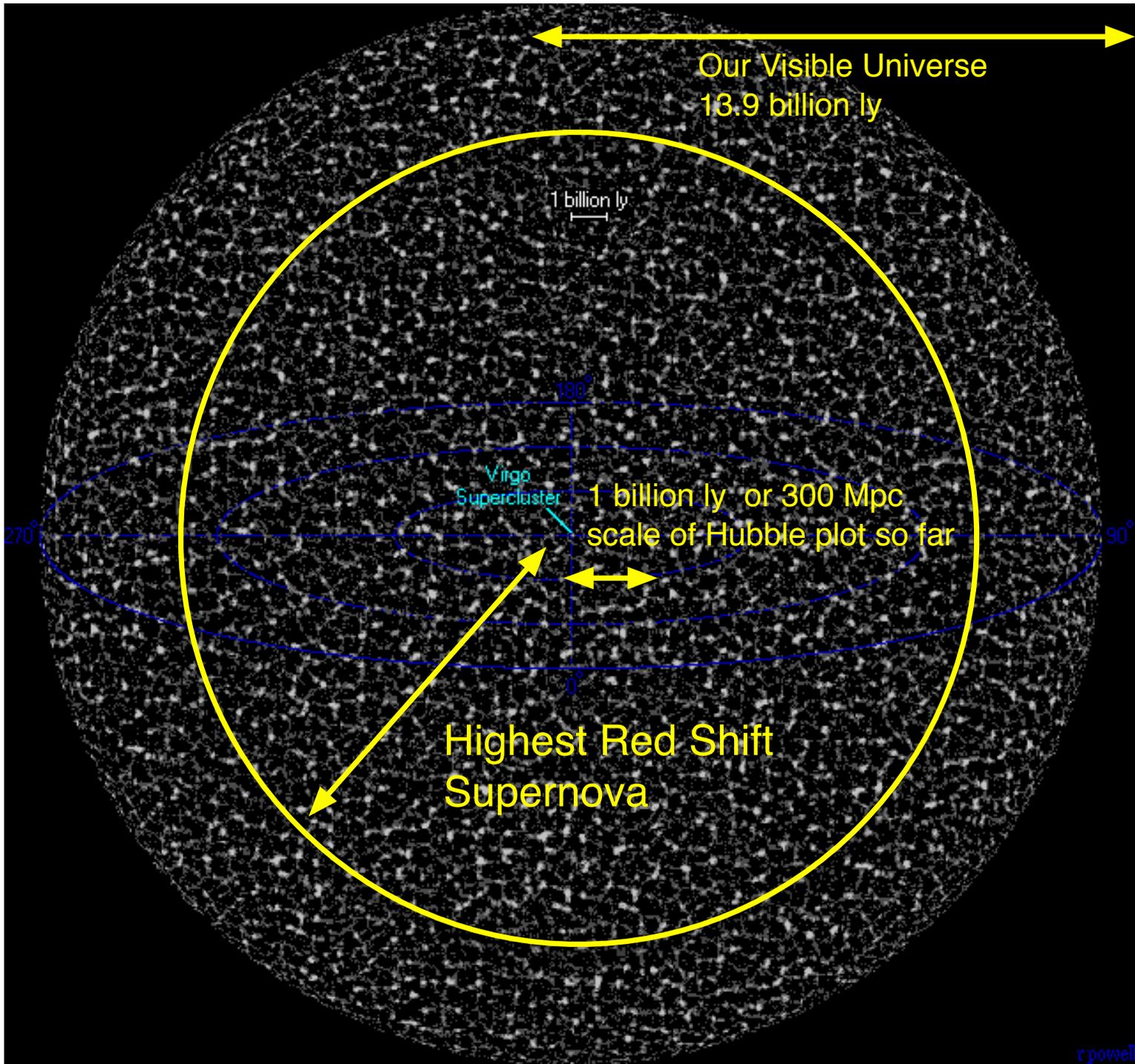
$$f_{\text{obs}} = \frac{f_{\text{emit}}}{(1+z)}$$

$$t_H = \frac{1}{H_0} = 13.9 \text{ Gly}$$

↑
giga light year

for $z \ll 1$:

$$\frac{v}{c} = z$$



• Observe supernova at very large red-shifts
 $z \sim 1$

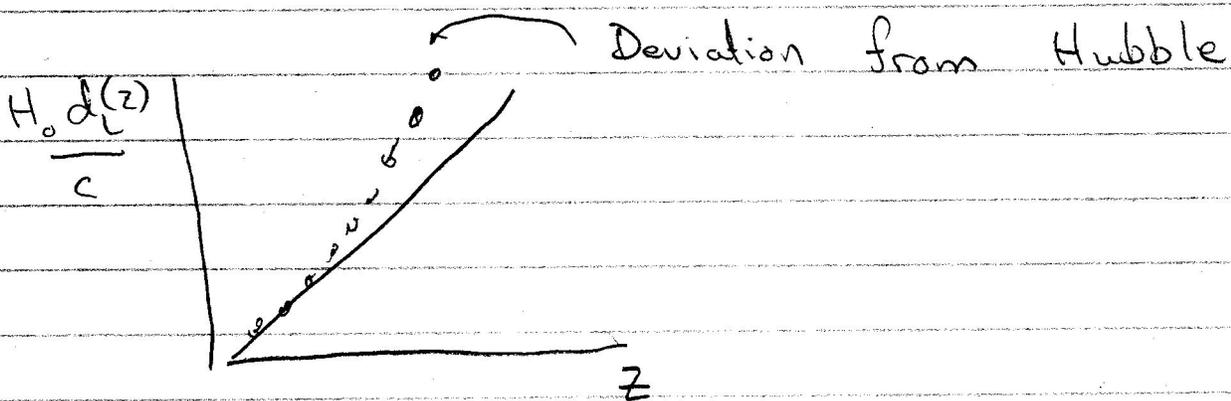
• Observe quasars out to $z=5$

• For small z

$$\frac{v}{c} = H_0 \frac{d_L}{c}$$

$$\frac{H_0 d_L}{c} = z$$

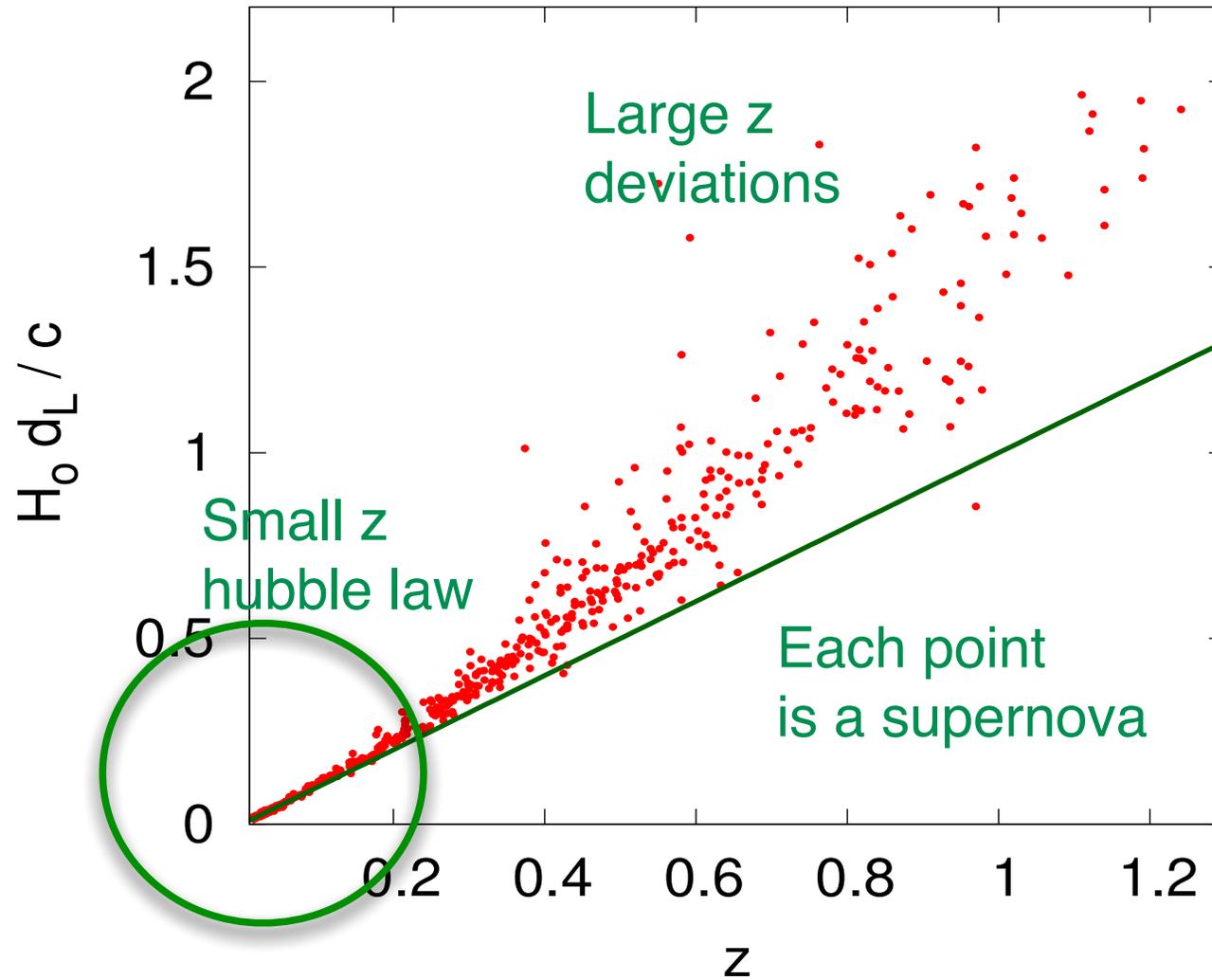
In general find (see slide)



Often plot

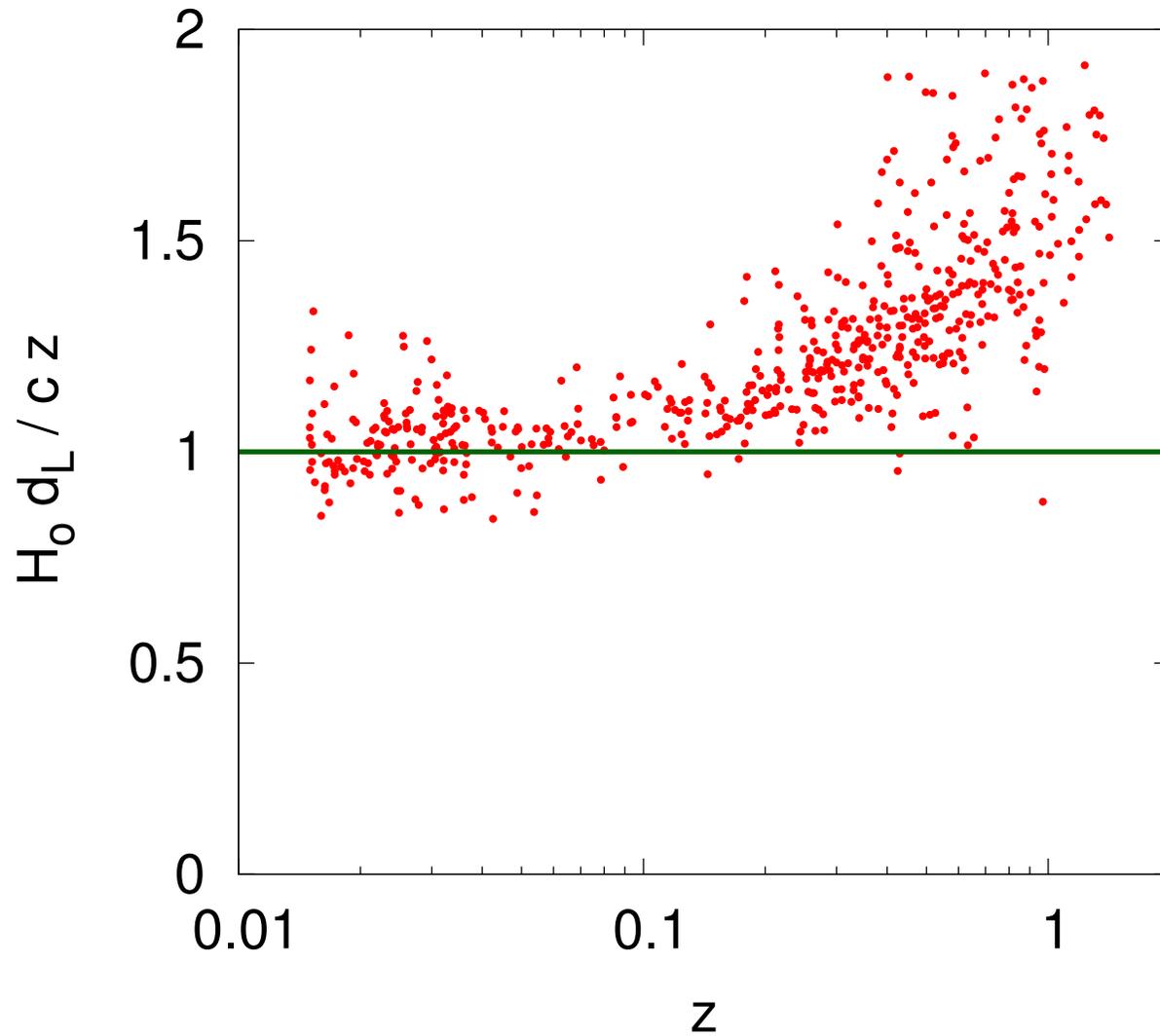
$$\frac{H_0 d_L(z)}{c z} \text{ vs. } z$$

Supernova data:



The deviations from the hubble law can tell us about the past history of the universe!

Another plot of Supernova



Same Data. Deviations from one tell us about the past history of the universe!

The Expanding Universe:

- The universe is expanding. Thus the distance between objects at times past is smaller than today

$$d(t) = a(t) \Delta r$$

distance
between
objects
in times
past

Robertson
- Walker
scale factor
 $a(t) < 1$

the distance
between objects
today

r - labels
the

lines seen in
the slide

"coordinate distance"

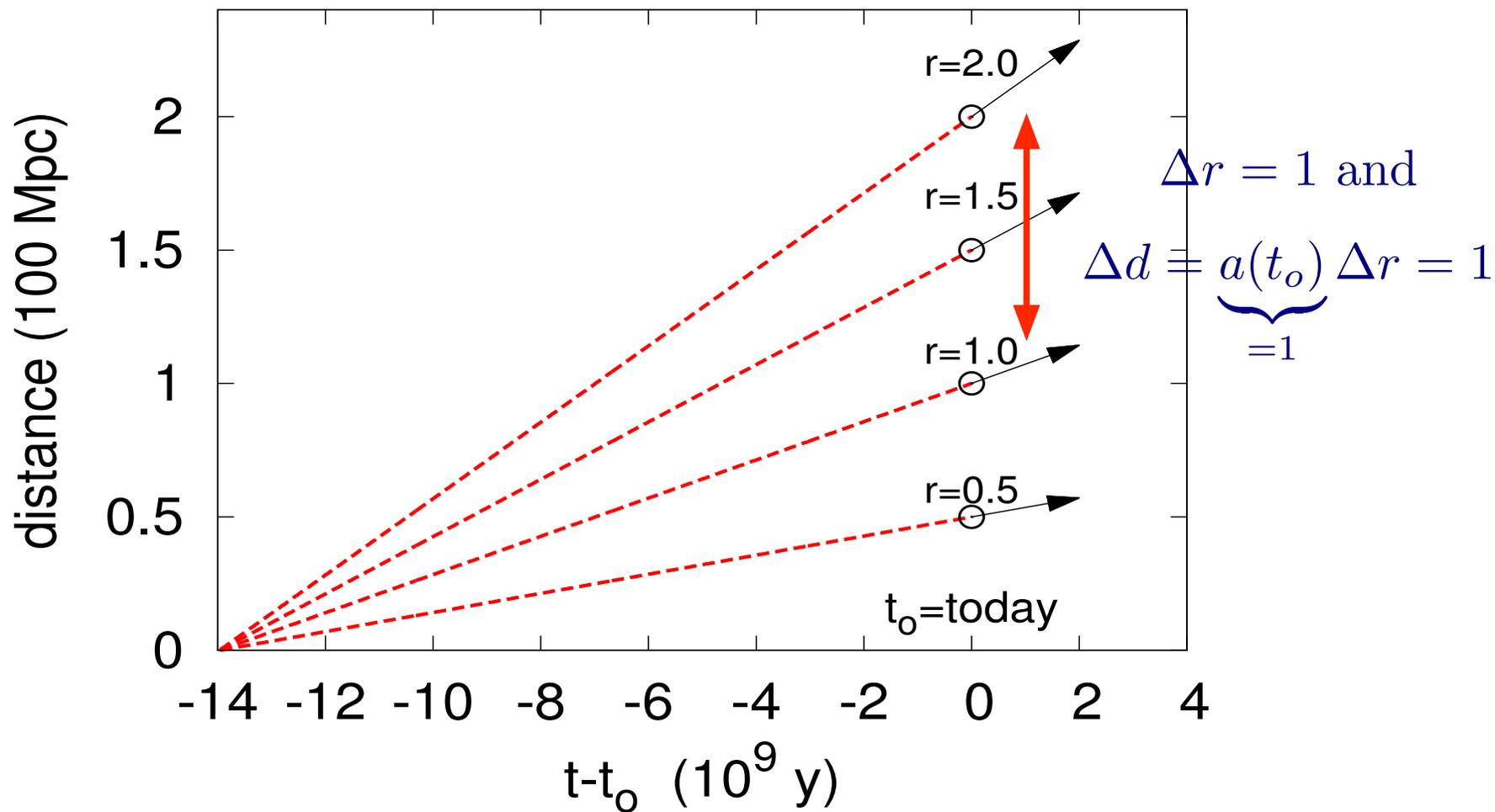
- Then $a(t)$ is defined so that

$$a_0 \equiv a(t_0) \equiv a(\text{today}) = 1$$

So

$$d(\text{today}) = \Delta r$$

Naive Backward Extrapolation



$$\Delta d(t) = a(t) \Delta r$$

• However, at an earlier time, $t_* - t_0 = -7\text{Gy}$,
(Gy is short for Giga = 10^9 year)

the distance between two objects
(at coordinates r_1 and r_2) is less.

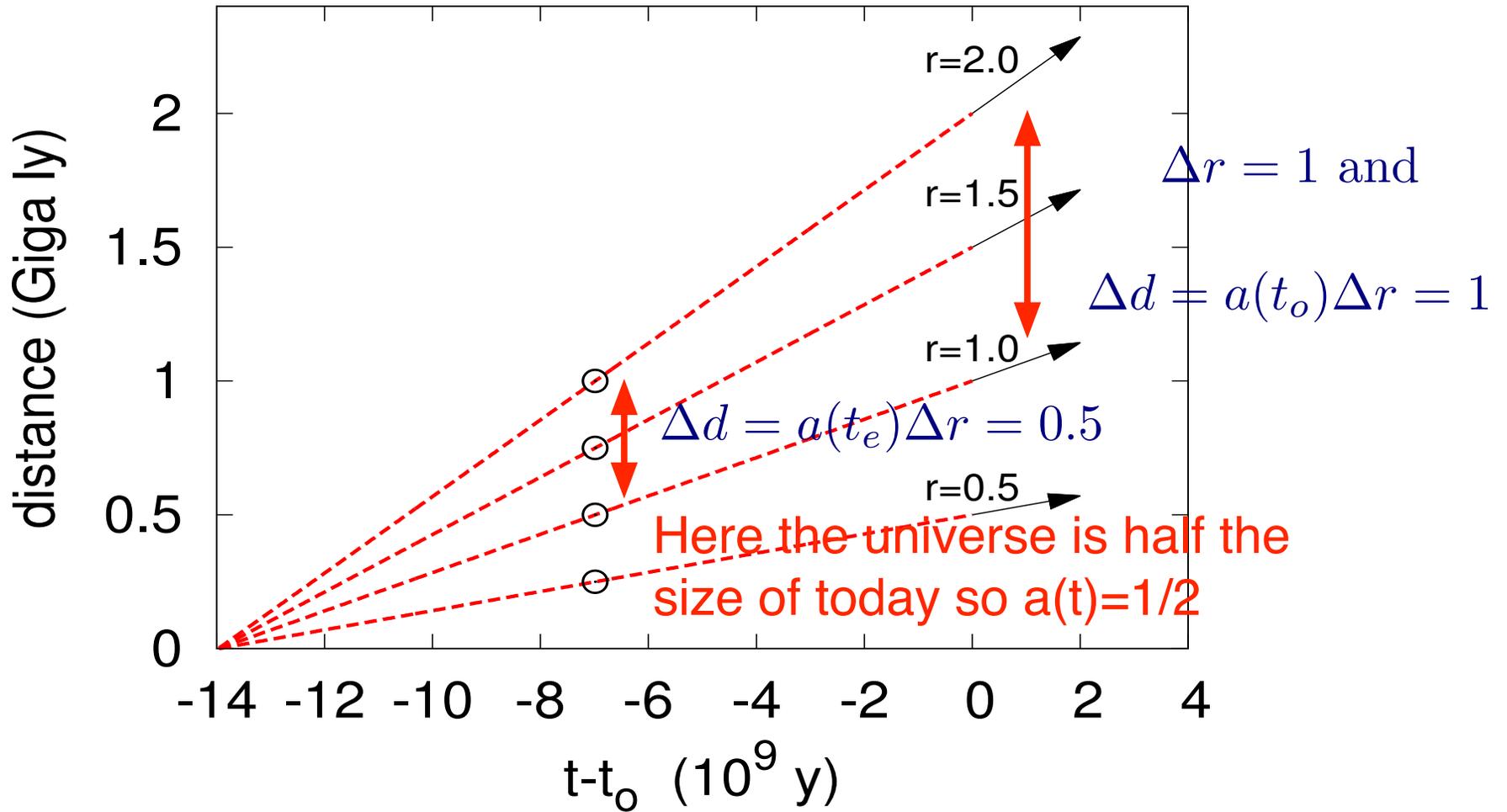
Reading the graph on the next
slide we see that $t = -7\text{Gy}$ ago

$$d \approx \frac{1}{2} \times 6\text{ly}$$

So

$$a(t_*) \approx \frac{1}{2}$$

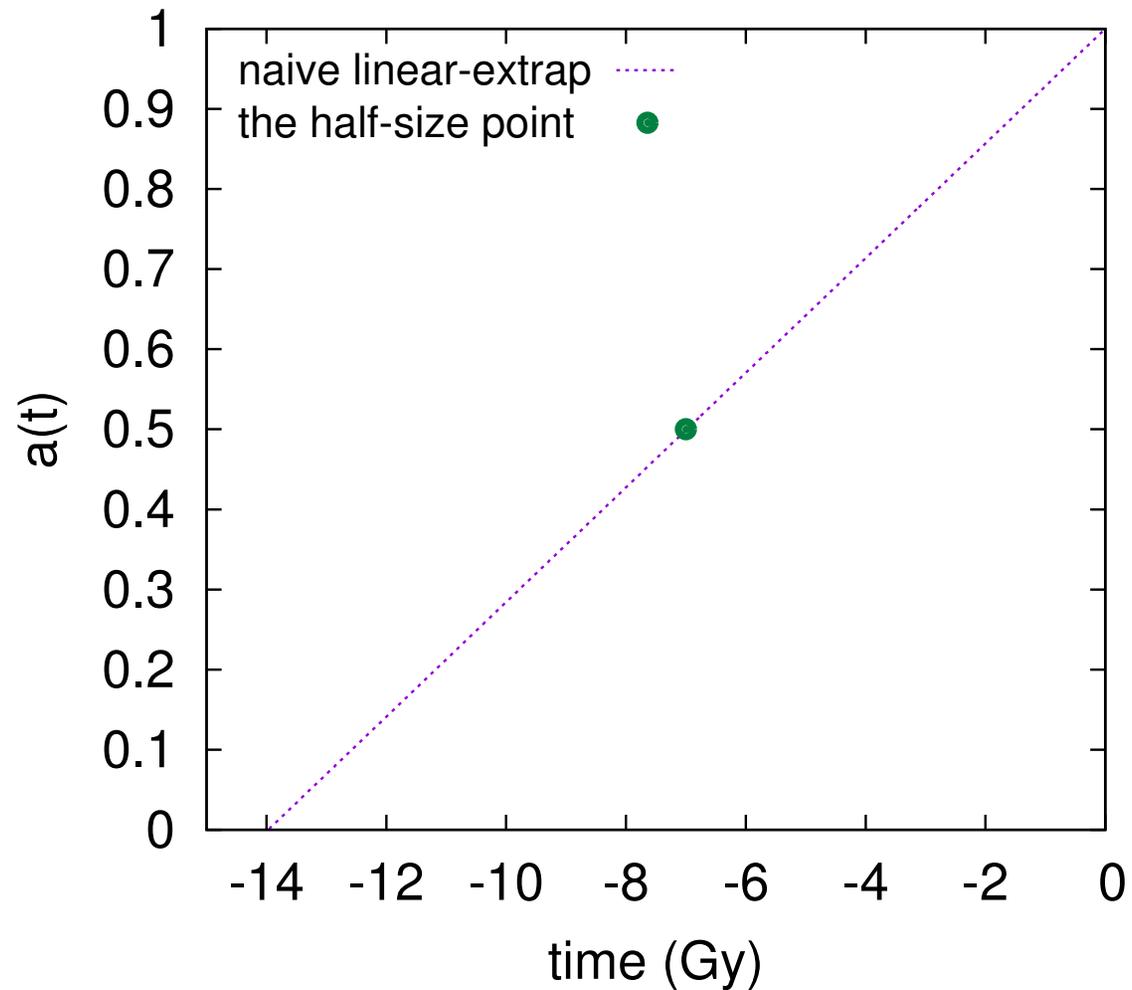
Naive Backward Extrapolation



$$\Delta d(t) = a(t)\Delta r$$

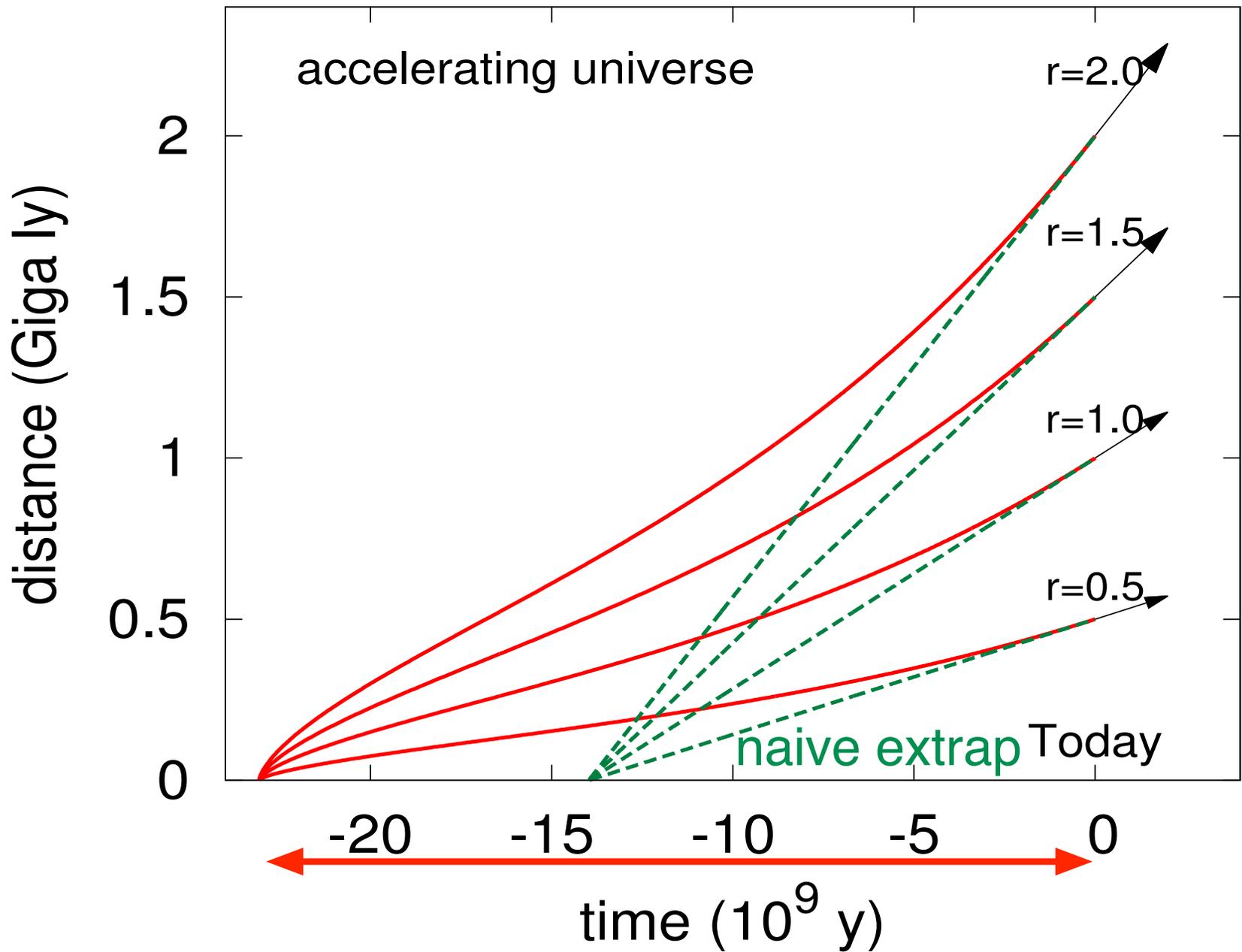
$a(t)$ records how much the universe is smaller than today

$$\underbrace{\Delta d}_{\text{Distance at time } t} = a(t) \underbrace{\Delta r}_{\text{Distance today}}$$

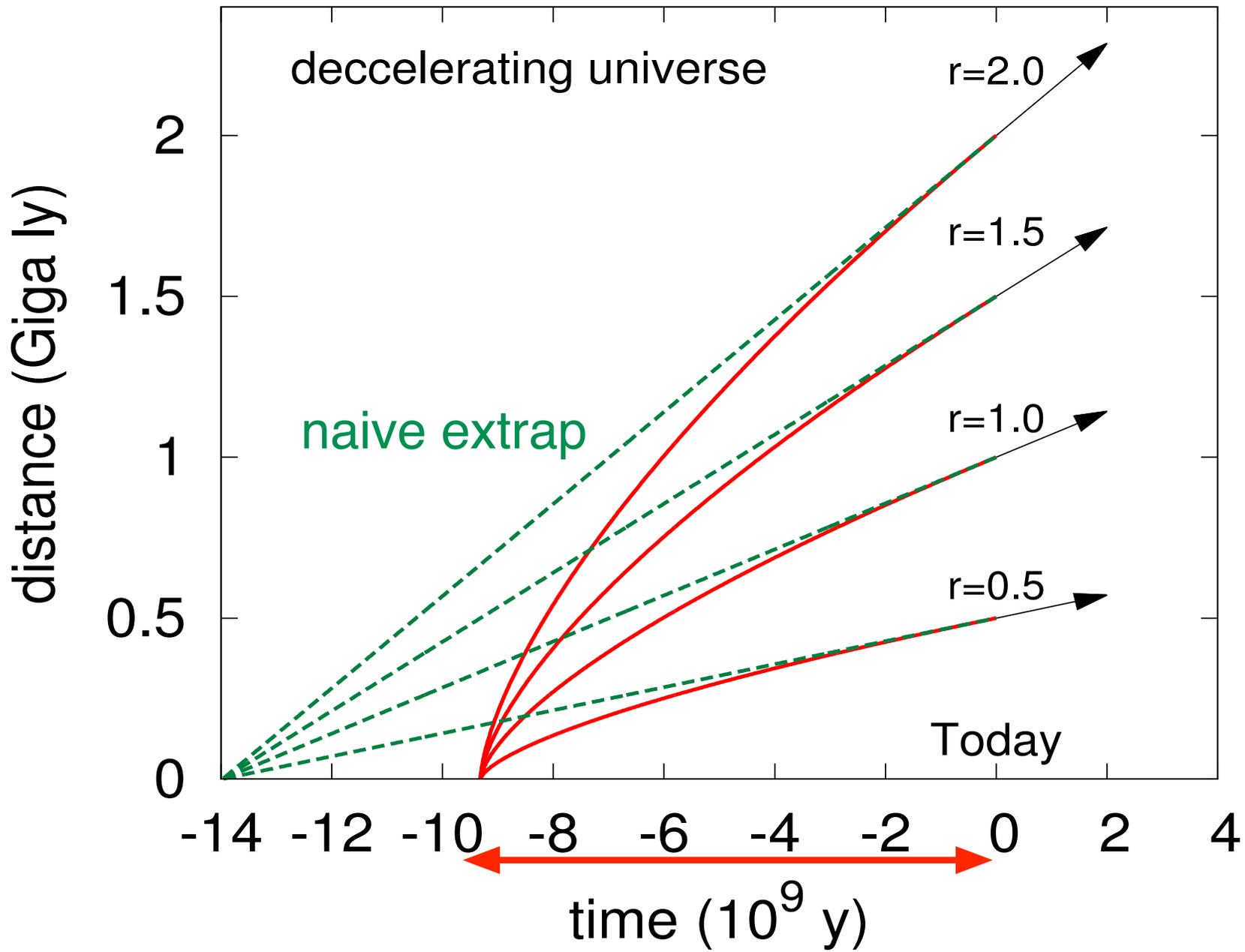


Three model universes which go beyond the Naive extrapolation

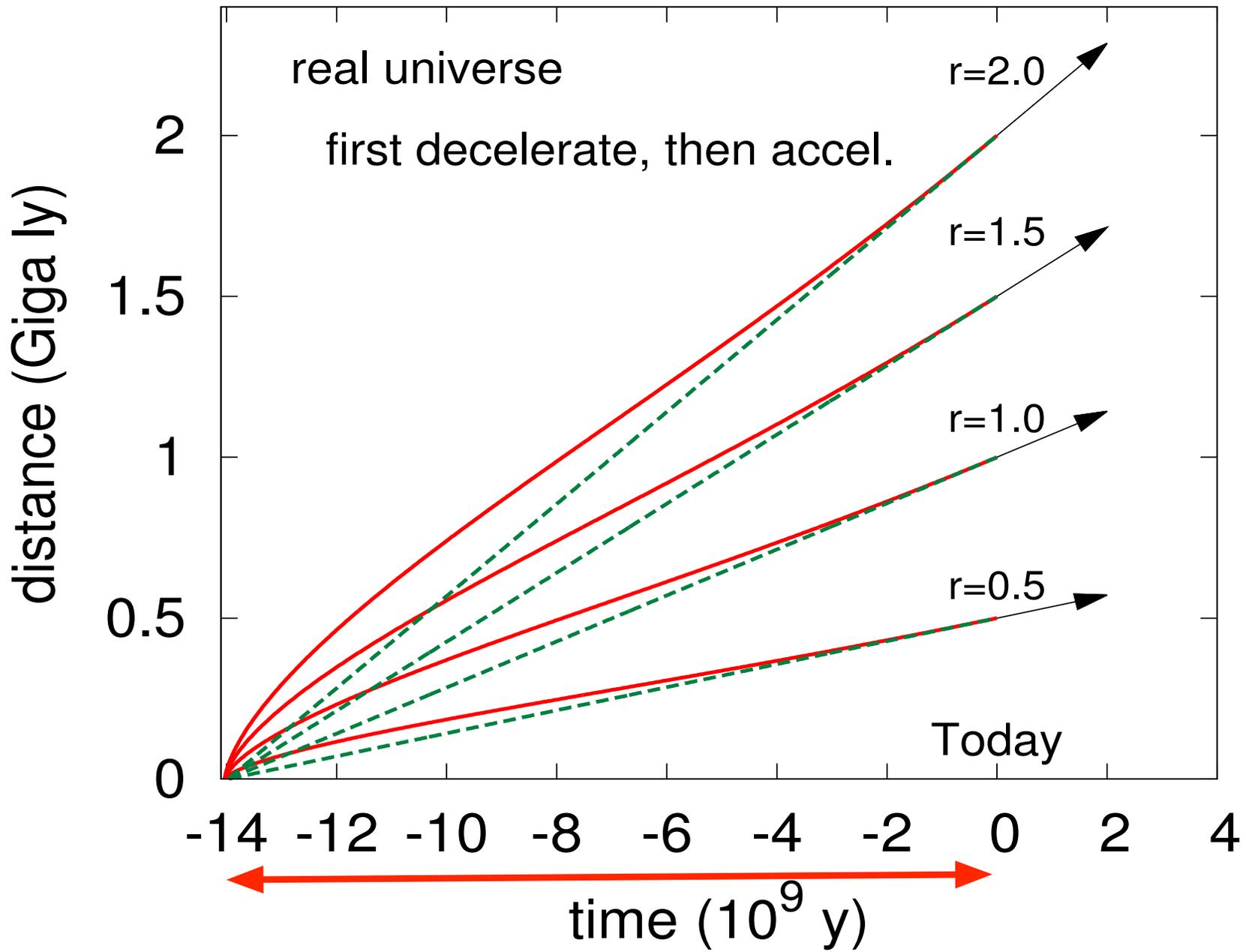
1. Accelerating
2. Decelerating
3. Real Case: Decelerating than Accelerating



Lifetime of Universe is (for this cosmology)
24 Billion Years

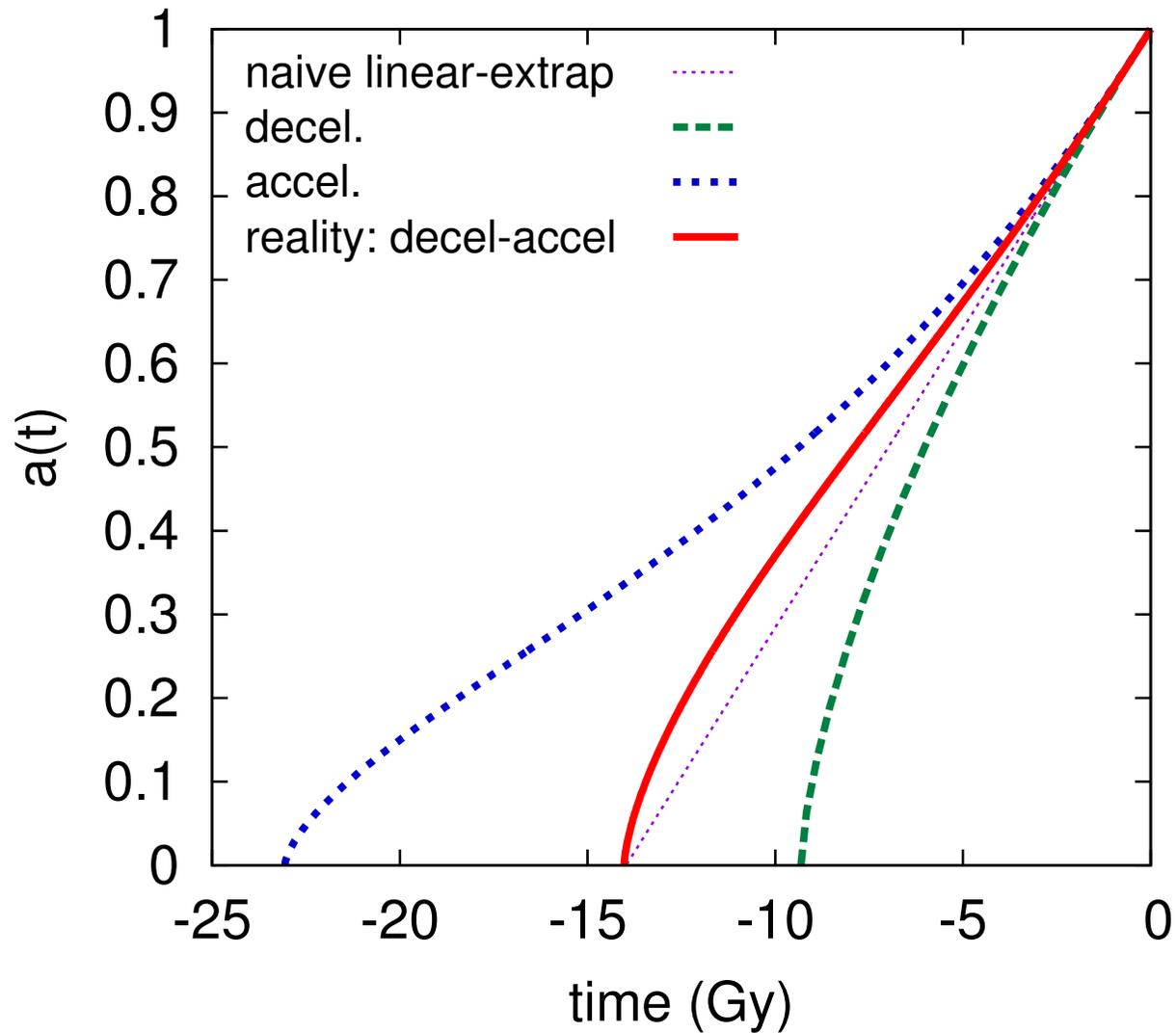


Lifetime of Universe is (for this cosmology)
~9 Billion Years



Lifetime of Universe is (for this cosmology)
14 Billion Years

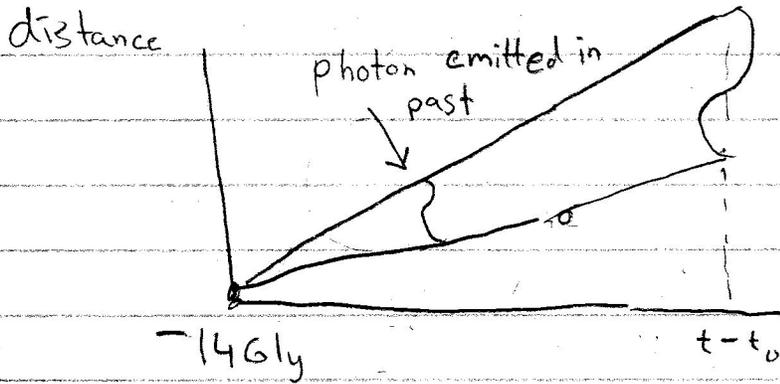
Summarize all cosmologies (expansion histories) with $a(t)$



We will see that $a(t)$ records the red shift for light emitted at time t .

i.e. $a(t)$

The Expanding universe and red shift



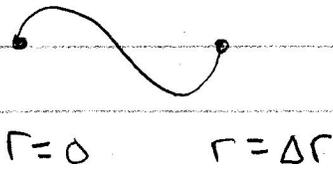
Due to the expansion the photon today has a longer wavelength than when emitted, i.e. is red-shifted.

All lengths increase by the ratio of scale factors:

$$\frac{\lambda}{\lambda_{emit}} = \frac{a(t_*)}{a(t_*)}$$

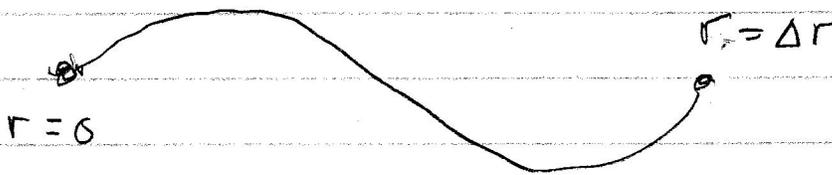
Red Shifts work the same way. Consider a photon emitted 5 Gigaly ago:

5 Gly Ago



$$\lambda_{emit} = a(t_e) \Delta r$$

Today



$$\lambda_{obs} = a(t_o) \Delta r$$

$$\lambda_{obs} = \frac{a(t_o)}{a(t_e)} \underbrace{a(t_e) \Delta r}_{\lambda_{emit}}$$

So with $a(t_0) = a_0 = 1$

$$\lambda_{\text{obs}} = \frac{1}{a(t_e)} \lambda_{\text{emit}}$$

Then comparison

$$\lambda_{\text{obs}} = (1+z) \lambda_{\text{emit}}$$

Says

$$(1+z) = \frac{1}{a(t_e)}$$

- Measured red shift is related to the scale factor at emission $a(t_e) < 1$
- Given a model cosmology, $a(t)$, can relate measured z to the time ^{when} the photon was emitted.

Problem

Problem three supernovae are found at red-shifts

$$z_1 = 0.5 \quad z = 1.0 \quad , \quad z = 1.4$$

In the decelerating cosmology, determine when they exploded. First, determine the scale factors a_1, a_2, a_3 at emission:

Solution

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

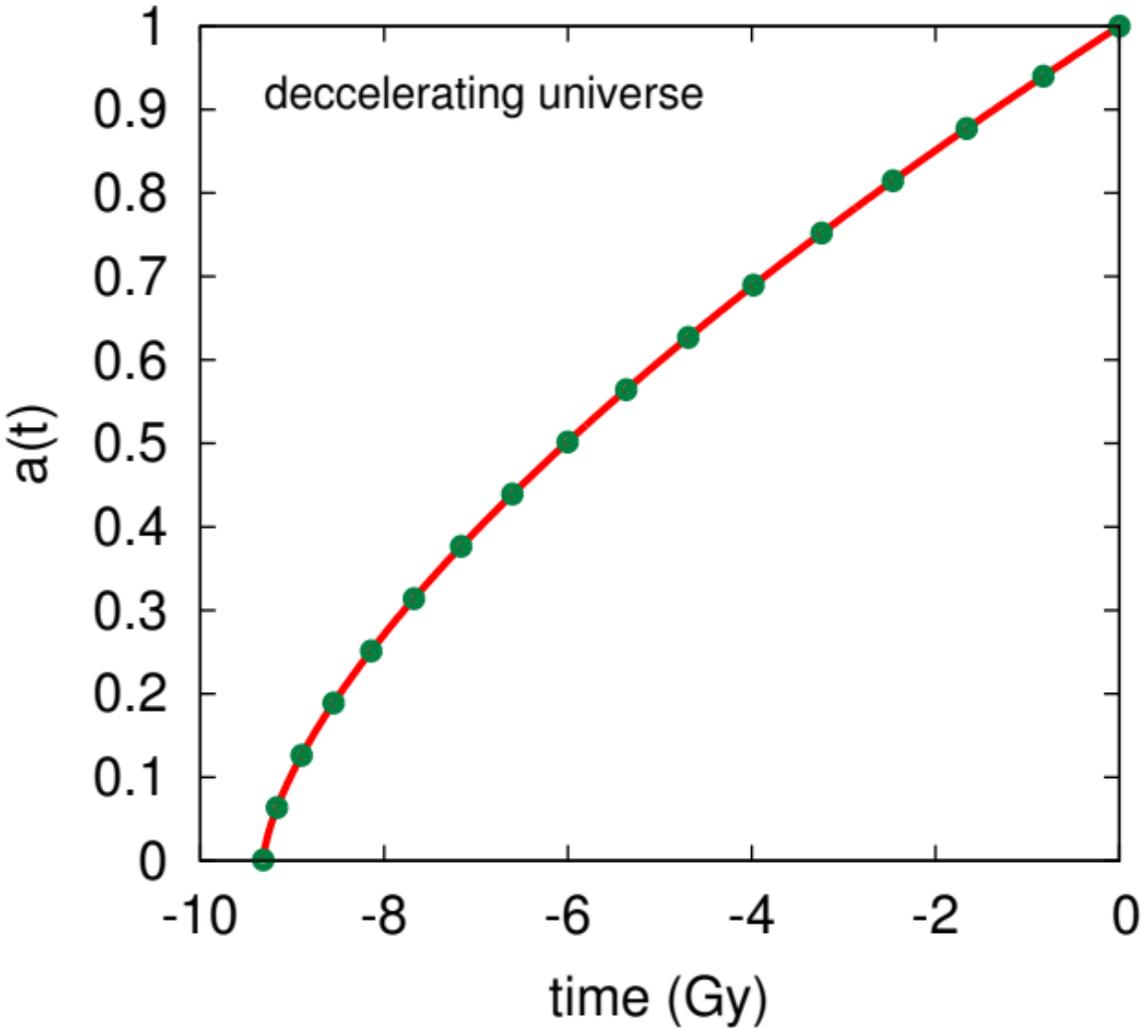
So

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{1+0.5} \quad a_2 = \frac{1}{1+1} \quad a_3 = \frac{1}{2.4}$$

$$a_1 = 0.66 \quad a_2 = 0.5 \quad a_3 = 0.41$$

From graph of $a(t)$ find (next slide!)

$$t_1 = -4.2 \text{ Gy} \quad t_2 \approx -6.0 \text{ Gy} \quad t_3 \approx -6.8 \text{ Gy}$$



Light from Supernovae \uparrow Giga
 \downarrow
 10^9 light years = billion

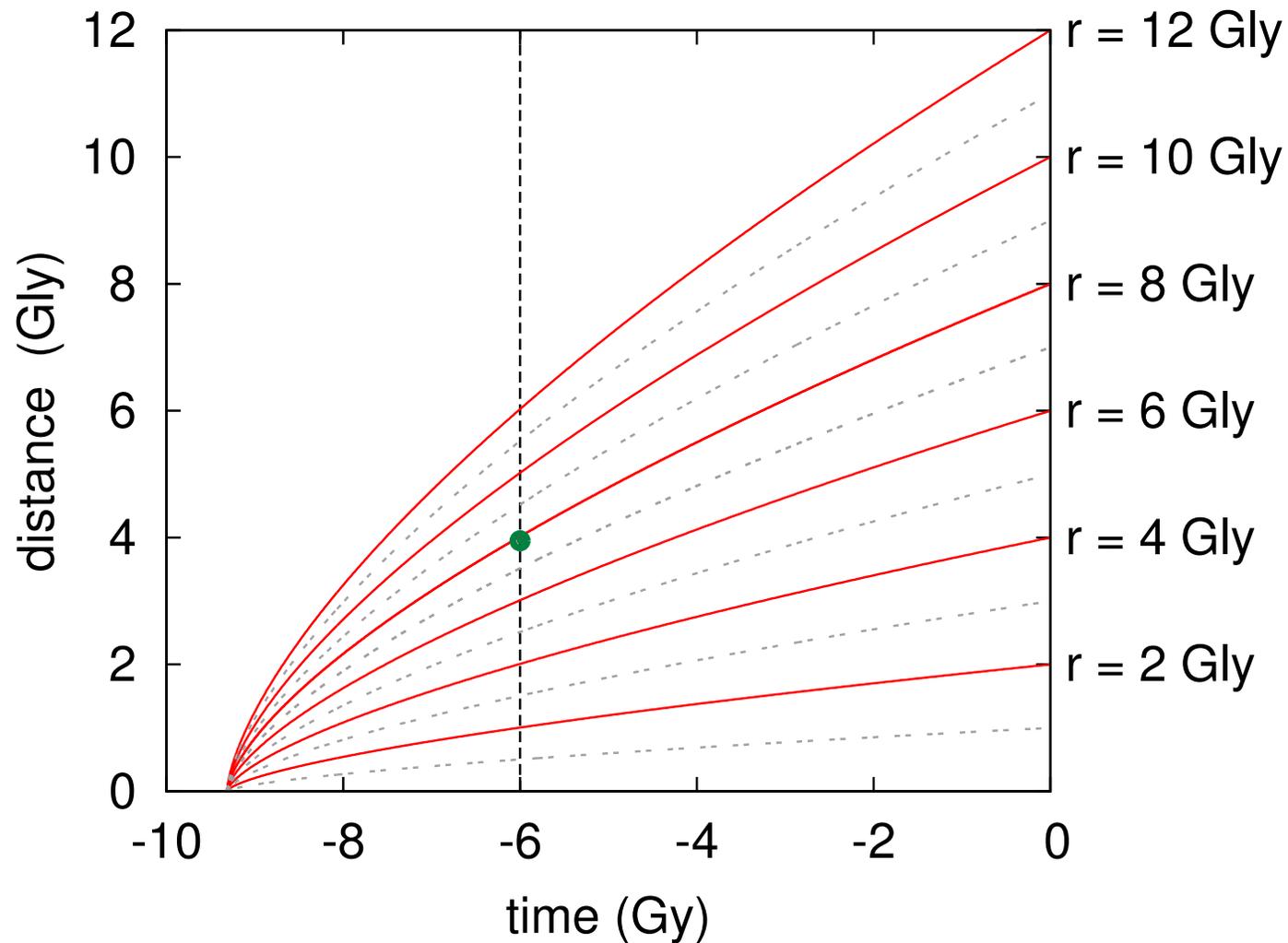
- If a supernova explodes today at distance of 5 Gly away. We won't see it till a time of order ~ 5 billion years later (i.e. we won't see it at all)

• Similarly, if a supernova exploded 10 ly away 5 billion years ago, we won't see the light today it will have passed us $\sim (5 \text{ billion} - 10)$ years ago.

\rightarrow Thus for an explosion at time t_e there is only one distance $\underline{d_*(t_e)}$ which we will see.

- One might think that if an explosion happened five billion ly away, we will see it in 5 billion years. This assumes that the universe is a fixed size. But it is not fixed it is expanding.

What does $r_*(t_e)$ mean?



r_* records where a supernova must explode at time t_e
to be observed today

How to Calculate $d_*(t_e)$? Given $a(t)$

- Start today and trace the light backward in time. In a time Δt , the light moved:
 - Δt is small

$$\Delta d_0 = c \Delta t$$

$$a(t) \Delta r_0 = c \Delta t$$

change in radius at $t = t_0$

$$\Delta r_0 = \frac{c \Delta t}{a(t_0)}$$

change in radius at $t = t_0 - \Delta t$

- Now repeat:

$$\Delta r_1 = \frac{c \Delta t}{a(t_1)}$$

Change in radius at $t = t_0 - 2\Delta t$

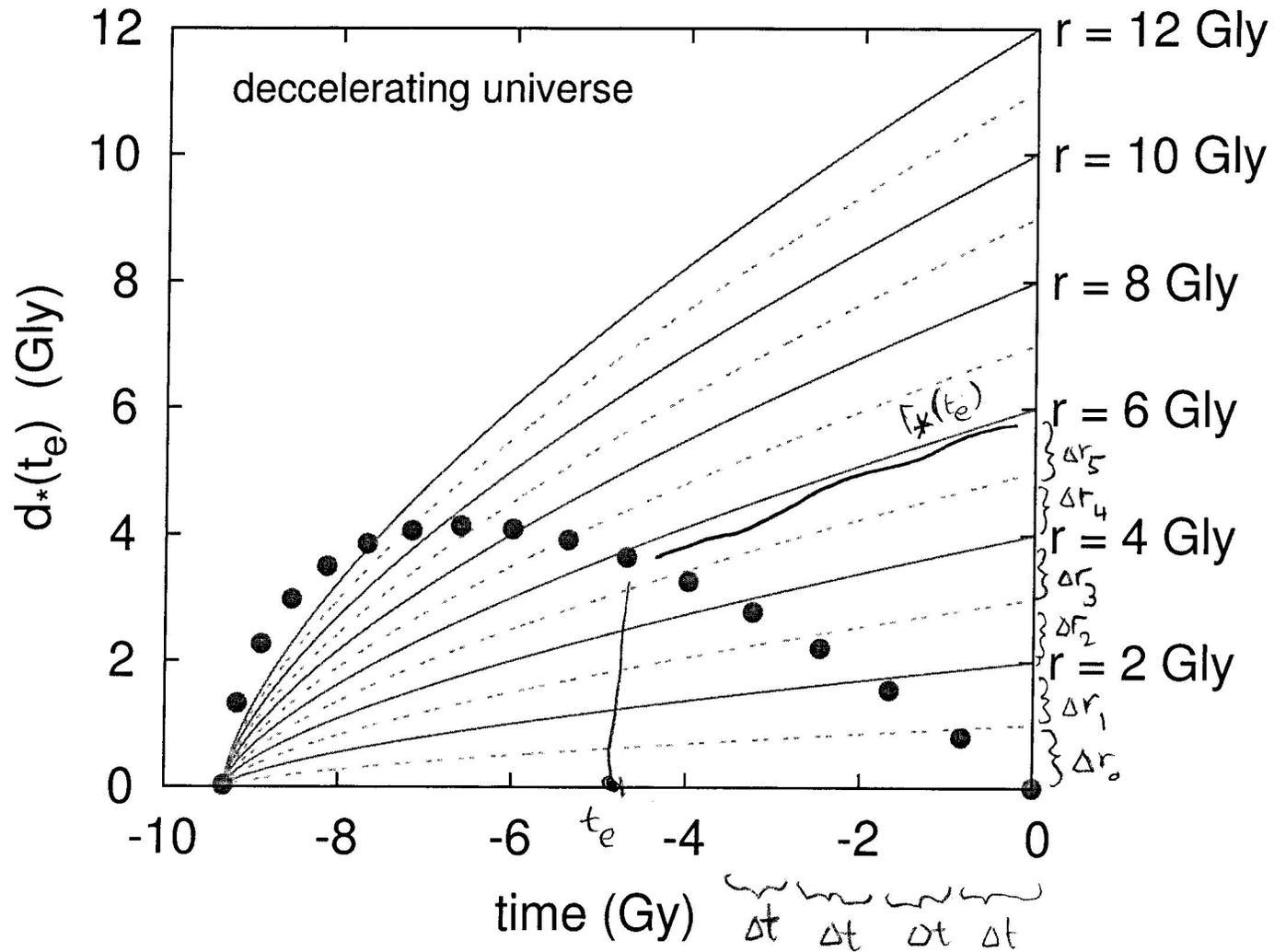
$$\Delta r_2 = \frac{c \Delta t}{a(t_2)}$$

Change in radius at $t = t_0 - 3\Delta t$

$$\Delta r_3 = \frac{c \Delta t}{a(t_3)}$$

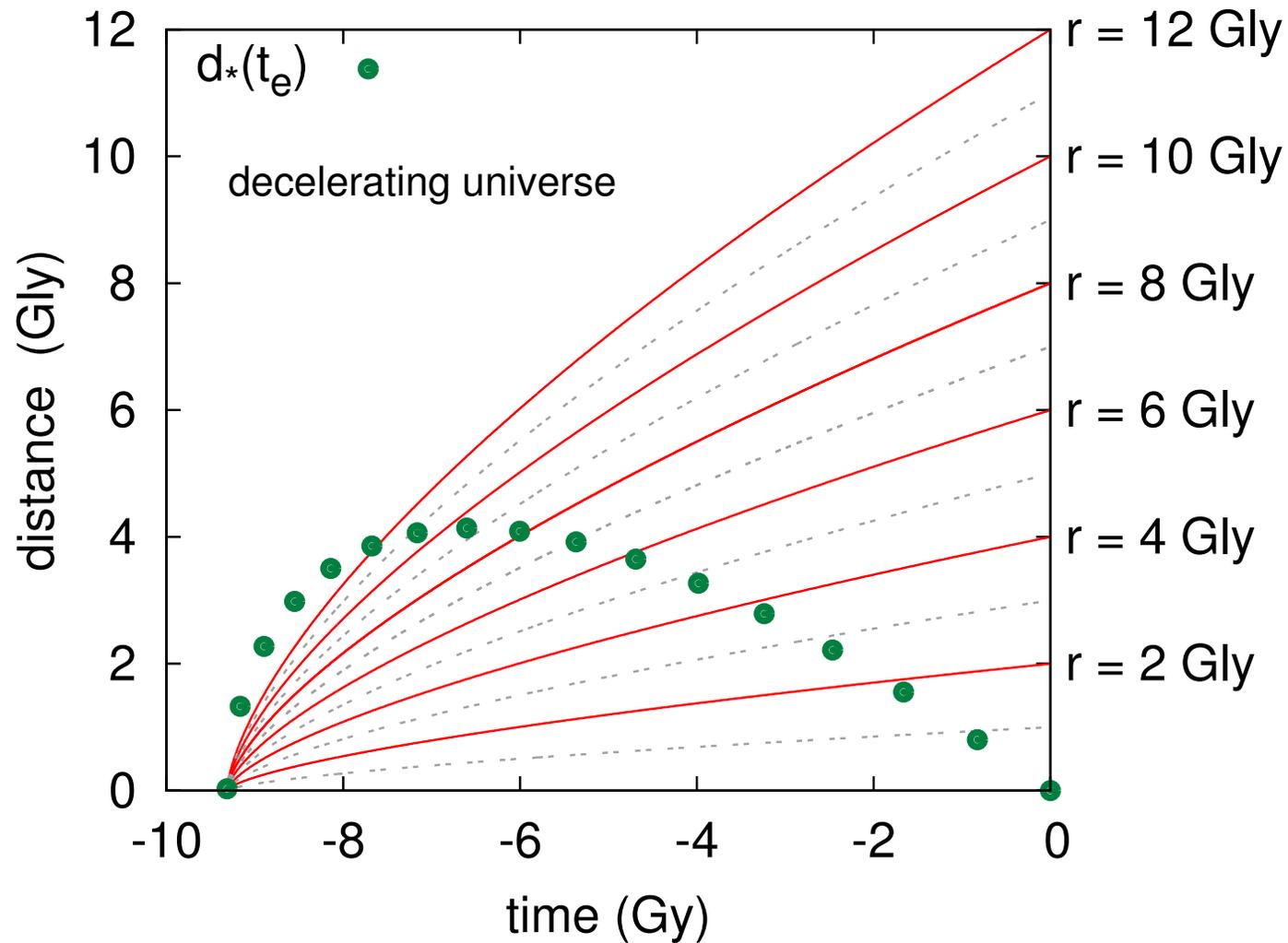
See slides

Computing $r_*(t_e)$ and $d_*(t_e)$:



$r_*(t_e)$ (and $d_*(t)$) record where a supernova must explode at time t_e
to be observed today

Computing $r_*(t_e)$ and $d_*(t_e)$:



r_* records where a supernova must explode at time t_e to be observed today. Note $d_*(t) = a(t)r_*(t)$.

Thus, we determine the radius of emission:

$$r_*(t_e)$$

Then the distance is

$$d_*(t_e) = a(t_e) r_*(t_e)$$

Important: $r_*(t_e)$ depends on the whole history of expansion

• for those who know calculus

$$r_*(t_e) = \int_{t_e}^{\text{today}} \frac{c dt}{a(t)}$$

Thus, we determine the radius of emission:

$$r_*(t_e)$$

Then the distance is

$$d_*(t_e) = a(t_e) r_*(t_e)$$

Important: $r_*(t_e)$ depends on the whole history of expansion

• for those who know calculus

$$r_*(t_e) = \int_{t_e}^{\text{today}} \frac{c dt}{a(t)}$$

Trajectory of Light and Remains of SN:

So if a supernova explodes 6 Billion years ago (in the decelerating cosmology)

(see slide)

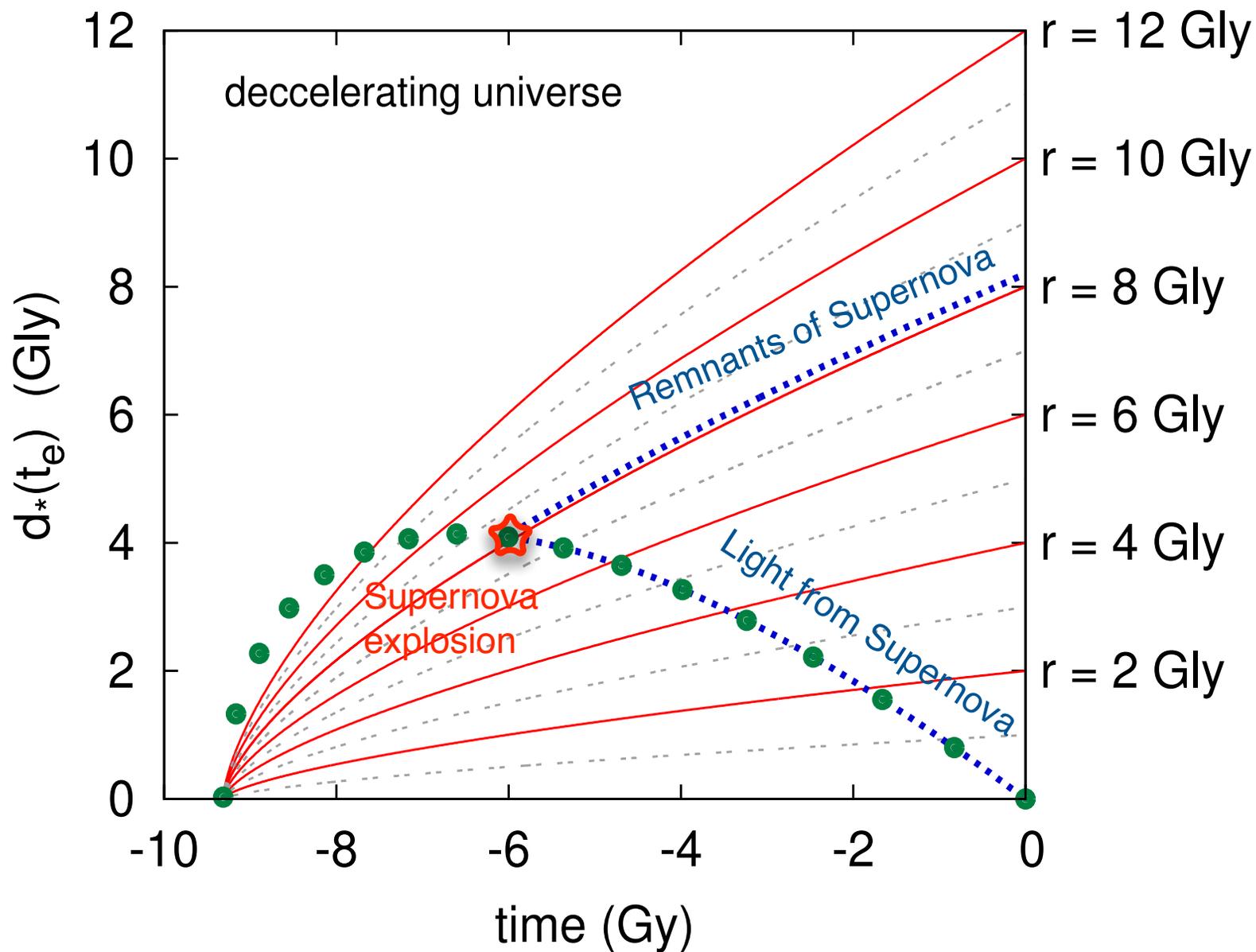
• From graph [^] we see that the

$d_*(t) \approx 3.9 \text{ Gly}$ ← distance from "earth" at explosion

• And

$r_* = 8.2 \text{ Gly}$ ← distance of remnants today

Light and remnants from a supernova



Problem for the three supernova studied previously,

Determine $r_*(t_e)$ for the decelerating cosmology

Solution:

- The three emission times are

$$t_1 = -4.2 \quad t_2 = -6.0 \text{ Gy} \quad t_3 = -6.8 \text{ Gy}$$

$$r_*(t_1) = 5.1 \text{ Gly} \quad r_*(t_2) \approx 8.2 \text{ Gly}$$

$$\text{and } r_*(t_3) \approx 9.9 \text{ Gly}$$

• These numbers are read from graph

(See table for exact #'s)

• $r_*(t_1)$, $r_*(t_2)$, $r_*(t_3)$ are the distances from

us that Supernova remnants are today.

Relation Between Absolute and apparent luminosity for an expanding universe:

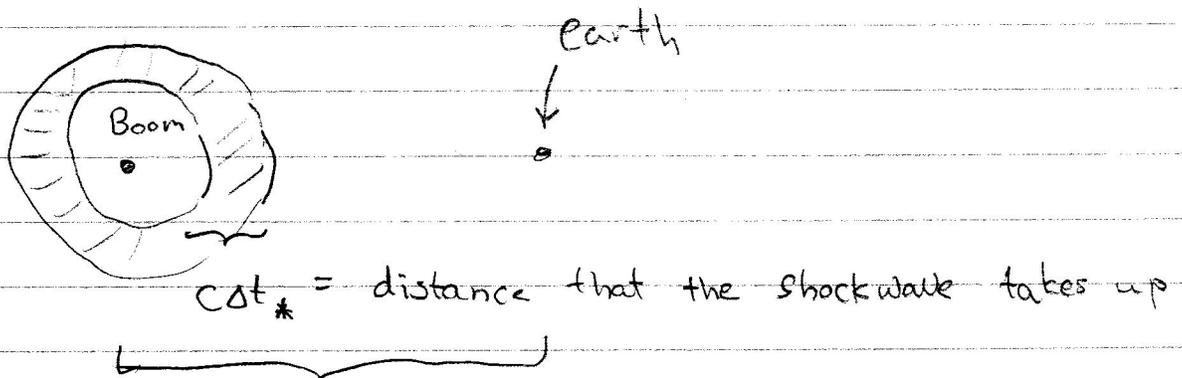
Formula:

$$l = \frac{1}{4\pi r_*^2} (a(t_e))^2 L_*$$

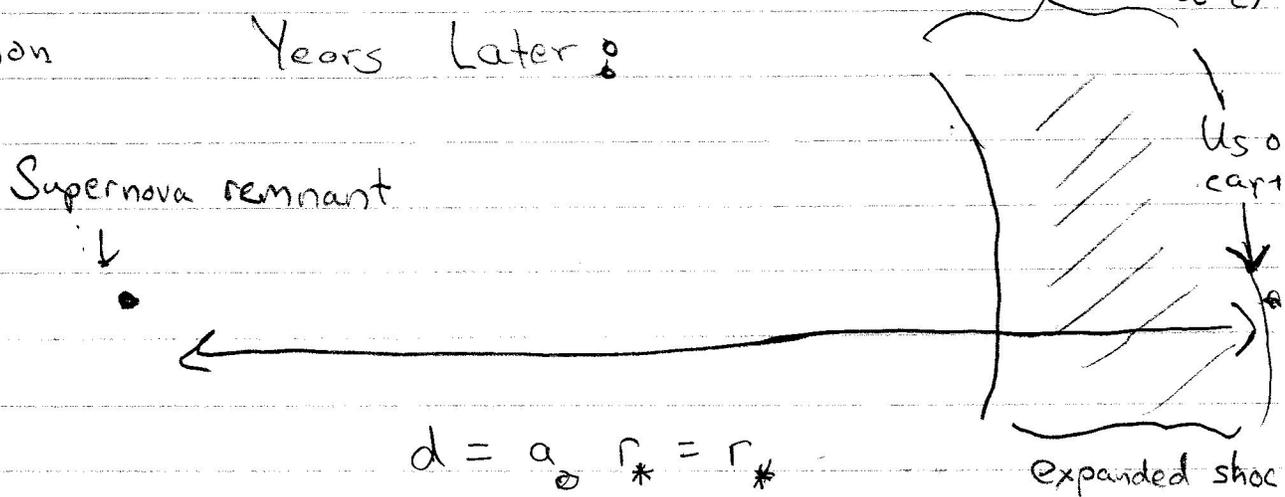
l → apparent luminosity today.
 $4\pi r_*^2$ → the radius of the source at emission.
 $(a(t_e))^2$ → scale factor at emission.
 L_* → absolute luminosity at source.

Derivation:

5 Gy ago:



5 Billion Years Later:



So Energy of source is spread out over $4\pi r_*^2$

$$l = \frac{L}{4\pi r_*^2} \times \left(\frac{a(t_e)}{a_0}\right) \times \left(\frac{a(t_e)}{a_0}\right)$$

• the shell has expanded, $\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} = a_e \frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t_*}$
 So the number per time is less.

• Each photon is red shifted and hence carries less energy

$$l = \frac{L}{4\pi r_*^2(t_e)} a(t_e)^2 L$$

Or:

$$D_L^{\text{theory}} = \left(\frac{r_*(t_e)}{a(t_e)}\right) = \left(\frac{L}{4\pi l}\right)^{1/2} = D_L^{\text{experiment}}$$

D_L^{theory} for a given z , and a an assumption about $a(t)$, determine $r_*(t_e)/a(t_e)$ which can be compared to the measured D_L to see if $a(t)$ is right.

Problem:

Determine the luminosity distance D_L^{theory} for the three red-shifts we had

Also compute $\frac{c}{H_0} \frac{D_L^{\text{theory}}}{z}$ for the

Three red shifts we had

Solution

$$D_L^{\text{theory}} = \frac{r_*}{a(t_e)}$$

with r_* and $a(t_e)$ in table
find

CHRIS DOWD

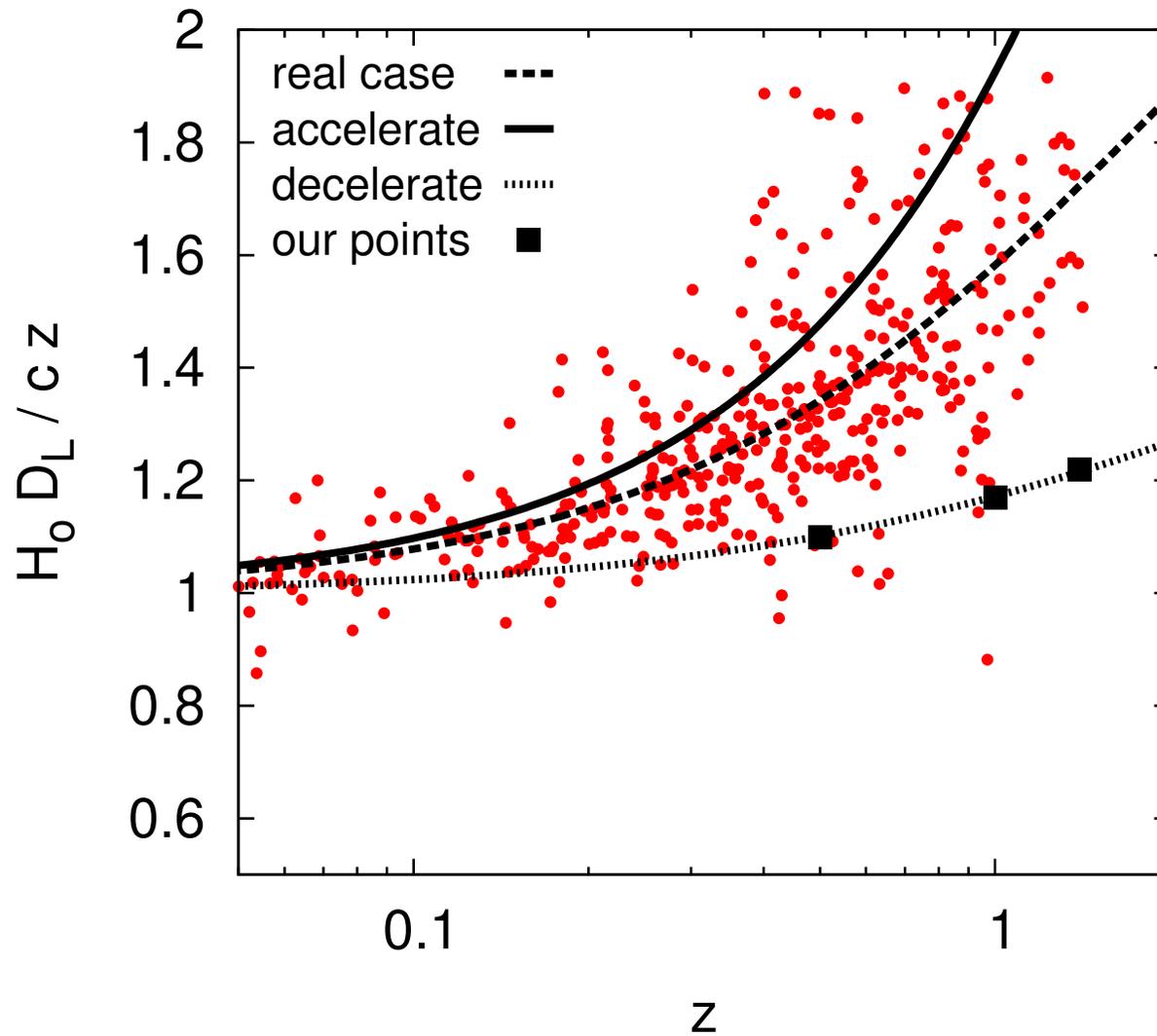
AARON ANKUDAVICHT

Decelerating Cosmology

inputs \rightarrow	z	0.5	1	1.4	$a(t)$ is also input
	$a(t_e)$	0.66	0.5	0.42	
(Gy)	time	-4.24	-6.02	-6.81	
(Gly)	$\Gamma_*(t)$	5.12	8.18	9.91	
(Gly)	$D_L^{\text{th}}(t_e)$	7.69	16.36	23.77	
	$\frac{H_0 D_L^{\text{th}}}{c} z$	1.10	1.17	1.22	\leftarrow output

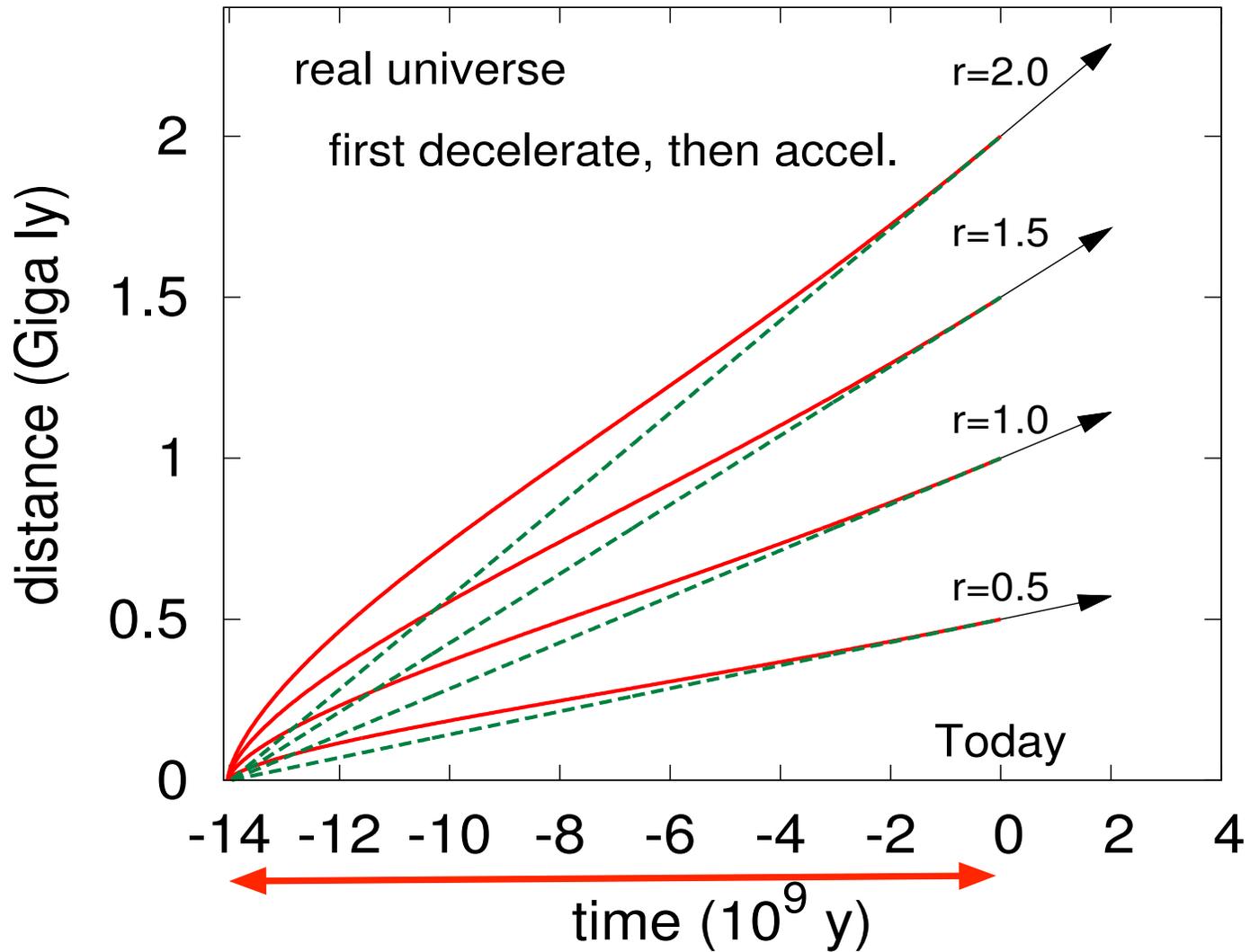
$$\frac{c}{H_0} = \frac{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{70 \text{ km/s / mega pc}} = 13.97 \text{ Gly}$$

What cosmology does the data prefer?



The data want first a period of deceleration then a period of acceleration!

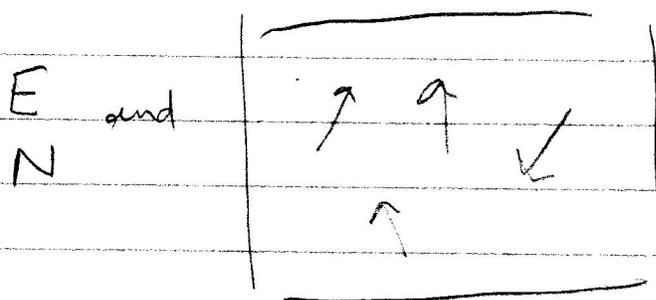
Preferred acceleration history:



Lifetime of Universe is (for this cosmology)
14 Billion Years

Black Body Radiation

~ 1880 Mankind Understands what is temperature



If you think of temperature (times boltzman constant) as the energy per particle you are almost right

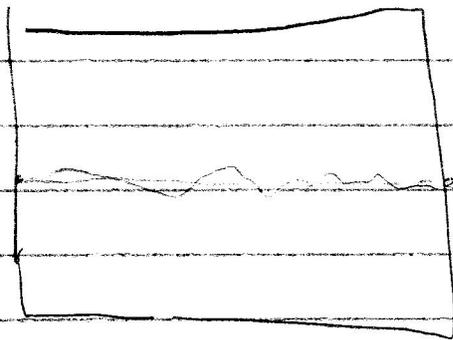
$$\rightarrow k_B T \sim \frac{E}{N}$$

Boltzman Constant

$$k_B = \frac{1}{40} \frac{\text{eV}}{300 \text{ K}} = \frac{1.38 \times 10^{-23}}{\text{K}}$$

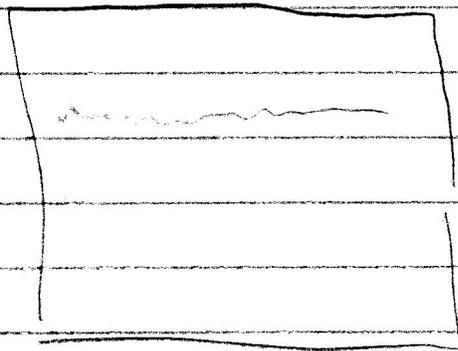
More correctly temperature records how energy is shared between the particles

Then imagine stretching a thin light wire across the box:



The wire would start to vibrate, sharing part of the available energy

Similarly, the electromagnetic field starts to vibrate due to interaction with charged particles in walls.



- The electric-magnetic field shares the energy in the box.

It is for this reason that things glow when they are hot:

- ① The glow different colors at different temperatures
- ② Higher Temperature \longleftrightarrow Shorter wavelength
- ② Higher Temperature \longleftrightarrow more light

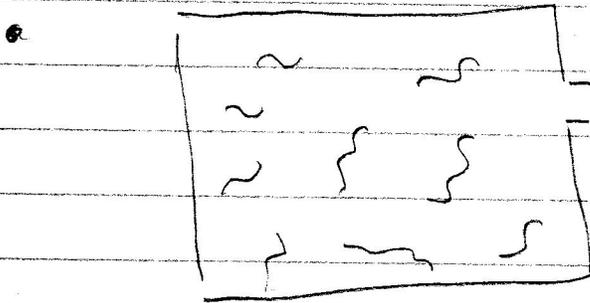
The hot walls in equilibrium with the radiation in an oven



Basics of Black Body Radiation:

- All wavelengths are allowed but the average wave length / frequency is set by the temperature:

$$hf \sim k_B T$$



Most Probable frequency:

$$hf_{\max} = 2.82 \cdot k_B T$$

The number of photons in box is set by the size of box:

↑
exact
formul

$$\frac{\text{volume}}{\text{photon}} \sim \lambda^3$$

So
$$\frac{V}{N} \sim \lambda^3 \sim$$

Or
$$\frac{N}{V} \sim \frac{1}{\lambda^3} \sim \left(\frac{k_B T}{hc} \right)^3$$

For 1000°K

$$hf_{\text{max}} = 2.82 \frac{1 \text{ eV} \times 3000^\circ\text{K}}{40 \times 300^\circ\text{K}}$$

$$hf_{\text{max}} = 0.705 \text{ eV} \leftarrow \text{infrared light}$$

↑ Since you can't see infrared, the light appears red, there is very little blue

But For $10,000^\circ\text{K}$:

$$hf_{\text{max}} = 2.35 \text{ eV} \leftarrow \text{yellow}$$

For this wavelength this is ^{the} most likely wavelength. In general see a lot of different wavelengths.

So the energy density of light in the box is :

$$e = \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{volume}}$$

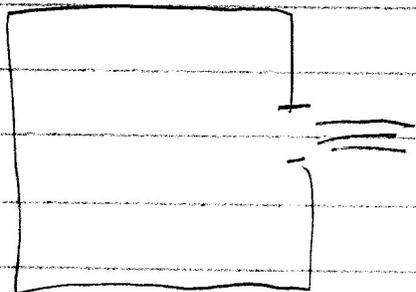
$$\sim hf \frac{N}{V}$$

↑
energy of a photon
 $\sim k_B T$

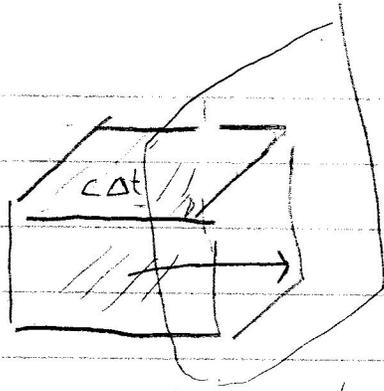
↑
Number per volume

$$e \sim (k_B T) \left(\frac{k_B T}{hc} \right)^3 \propto \frac{k_B^4 T^4}{(hc)^3}$$

Finally how much light does the box emit per time?



Want to know the energy emitted per area per time



So in a given time Δt , a length cdt moves

$$\Delta E = \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{volume}} A \cdot cdt$$

So the energy per area per time is

$$\frac{1}{A} \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} = \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{volume}} \cdot c$$

$$\frac{1}{A} \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} \sim \frac{c}{(hc)^3} (k_B T)^4$$

More generally the emitted light due to radiation

$$\frac{1}{A} \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} = \sigma T^4$$

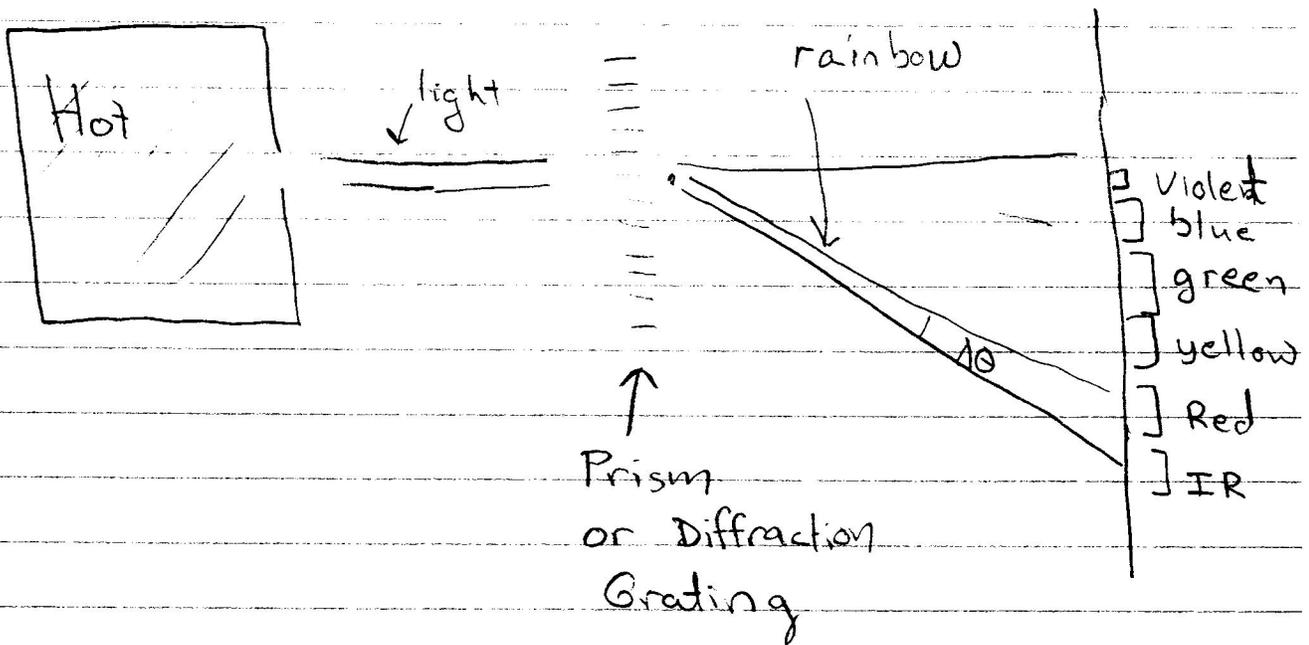
where

$$\sigma = \frac{2\pi^5}{15} \times \frac{k_B^4 c}{(hc)^3}$$

up to a # = $\frac{2\pi^5}{15}$
these are the same.

$$\sigma = 5.6 \times 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 K^4}$$

The Spectrum of the Black Body



- Then want to know how much of the light goes to red green blue etc
- For a detector of angular width $\Delta\theta$ measure light in a range of frequencies Δf

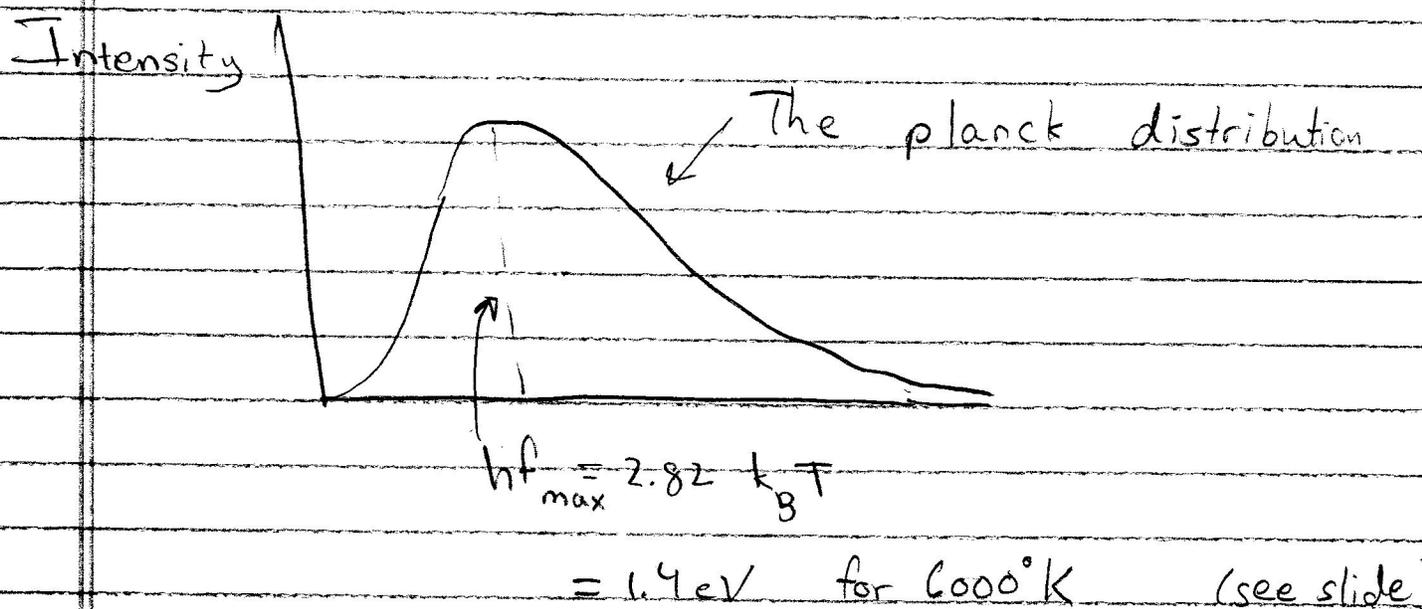
$$f - \frac{\Delta f}{2} < f < f + \frac{\Delta f}{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{A} \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} = \frac{2 \cdot h f^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1}$$

In reality
 $\Delta\theta$ this is ang

energy per area per time per frequ

It is not important to know this formula. It is important to understand that it has a characteristic shape.



- Find a range of frequencies
- The most probable is $2.82 k_B T$
- Not very likely to find a photon with energy much higher than $\sim 10 k_B T$
- The greatest prediction ever of quantum mechanics

Black Body Radiation

