

Lectures-1+2: Cold Dark Matter Hypothesis in Cosmology

- * A model of the observed Universe:

Homogeneous and isotropic background with density perturbations.

(redshift $z \approx 1100$)

- * Observational basis: The CMB is isotropic to a high degree of precision : 1 part in 10^3 . The small temp. fluctuations ($\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}$) of order 10^{-3} have a dipolar pattern (a 'hot' region and a 'cold' region). One part of the dipole is caused by the motion of our solar system w.r.t. to the 'frame' — cannot be separated from the cosmological dipole counterpart. ~~Next~~ If we subtract the dipole, $\frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \approx 10^{-5}$. Hence the early Universe is well-described by an FRW + small fluctuations model.

- * The Problem: The present Universe is very clumpy, with large density fluctuations. First (observed) galaxies were formed at least around $z \approx 10$, which require much larger than $O(1)$ density fluctuations. Therefore, how did the ~~small~~ density fluctuations grow from $O(10^{-5})$ at $z = 1100$, to $O(1)$ at least at $z \approx 10$?

- * Growth of perturbations due to gravity: Clearly, we need to understand the growth of density perturbations due to gravity. We also need to understand the generation of the perturbations in the first place ("primordial density pert.").

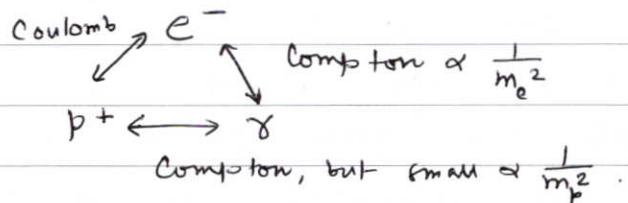
- * The players: Photons, baryons (proton, neutron, electron, light nuclei etc.), neutrinos — the ones we expect to surely take part.

(2)

CMB decoupling temperature ~ 0.26 eV

MR equality " ~ 1 eV

At these temps. protons, electrons,.. are non-relativistic, but photons and neutrinos are relativistic. Until ~~decoupling & at recombination at~~ photon decoupling at $z \sim 1100$, baryons are tightly coupled to photons by Thompson scattering of $e-\gamma$ and Coulomb scattering of $e-p$.



The dynamics, therefore, is fairly complicated. Furthermore, the perturbed gravitational field enters in the phase-space evolution of these energy components, which in turn determine the gravitational field. In general, we need to solve a coupled system of equations for the phase-space distributions and the eqns. for the gravitational field (metric of space-time).

But, part of the essential physics can be captured by studying a gravitating fluid in an expanding Universe, using simple Newtonian dynamics with Newtonian gravity. This approach is sufficient to understand ^{sub-Hubble} perturbations in NR matter (Sub-Hubble : perturbations of wave-lengths $\langle H^{-1} \sim$ curvature scale of the FRW space-time).

(*) Ultimately, it is the NR matter that will cluster, hence the emphasis on studying them. But those are aspects of rel. matter that influence the details of ~~the~~ structure formation.

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Non-relativistic fluid dynamics:

Continuity eqn. (mass conservation in a volume)

$$\left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t}\right)_{\vec{r}} + \underbrace{\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{r}} \cdot (\rho \vec{u})}_{\text{flux}} = 0, \quad \vec{u} : \text{fluid velocity field}$$

(1) $\vec{r} : \text{physical co-ordinate}$

Euler eqn.

$$\underbrace{\rho \left(\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t}\right)_{\vec{r}} + \rho \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{r}} \vec{u}}_{= \rho \left(\frac{d\vec{u}}{dt}\right) \text{(mass x acceleration)}} = - \underbrace{\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{r}} \Phi}_{\text{pressure force}} - \underbrace{\rho \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{r}} \Phi}_{\text{gravitational force}}$$

(2)

Poisson Egn.: The gravitational potential Φ

satisfies

$$\nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho \quad (3)$$

Spatially flat FRW

In an expanding Universe, it is useful to introduce "co-moving" co-ordinates, in terms of which the background metric is $ds^2 = dt^2 - a^2(t)\delta_{ij}dx^i dx^j$

Co-ordinates appearing in the fluid eqns.:

\vec{r} : physical co-ordinates

\vec{x} : co-moving "

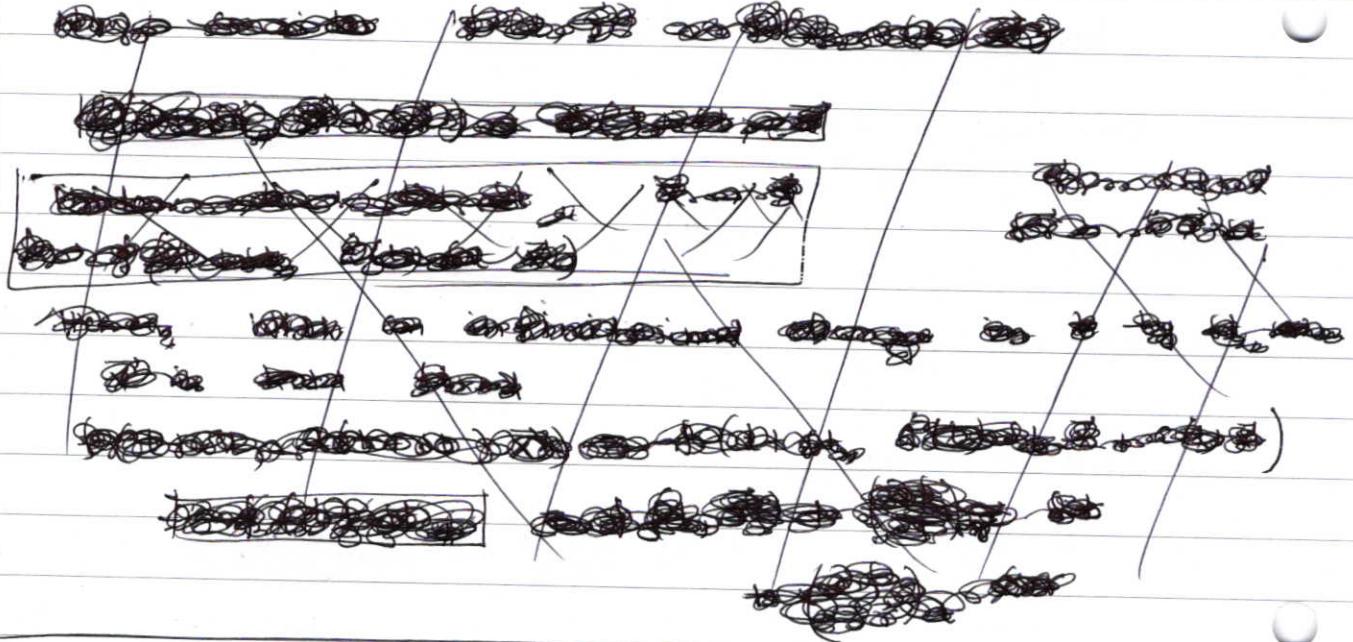
$$\vec{r}(t) = a(t) \vec{x}$$

$$\text{velocity field: } \vec{u}(t) = \dot{\vec{r}}(t) = \dot{a}(t) \vec{x} + a(t) \vec{\dot{x}}$$

$$= H(t) \vec{r} + a(t) \vec{x} \equiv H(t) \vec{r} + \vec{v}(t)$$

Here, $\vec{v} = a \dot{\vec{x}} (a \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt})$ is the physical peculiar velocity, while $H\vec{r}$ is the Hubble flow.

(4)



Now, consider

$$\text{Ex.1. } \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \Big|_{\vec{x}} \right)_{\vec{x}} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_{\vec{x}}}_{\substack{\text{Hold } \vec{x} = a(t) \vec{x} \\ \text{fixed}}} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (a(t) \vec{x}) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{x}} \right)_{\vec{x}}}_{\substack{\text{Change in} \\ \vec{x} \text{ w.r.t. } t \\ \text{Hold } t \text{ fixed}}}$$

$$= \left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right)_{\vec{x}} + H \vec{x} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \right] f$$

$$\text{or, } \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_{\vec{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_{\vec{x}} - H \vec{x} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} f$$

$\left. \begin{aligned} & \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (a(t) \vec{x}) \\ &= \dot{a}(t) \vec{x} \\ &= \frac{\dot{a}}{a} a \vec{x} \\ &= H \vec{x} \end{aligned} \right\} \substack{\text{Now, } \vec{x} \text{ / } x \text{-fixed}}$

Therefore, in the co-moving
co-ordinates, the
continuity eqn. is:

$$\left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right)_{\vec{x}} + (\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot \rho \vec{u}) = 0$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} &: \text{Gradient} \\ &\text{wrt } \vec{x} \text{ at fixed } t \\ \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} &= a^{-1} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \\ \Rightarrow \vec{x} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} &= \vec{x} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right)_{\vec{x}} - H \vec{x} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \right) \rho + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = 0$$

$$\text{Now, } \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot (\rho H \vec{x} + \rho \vec{v})$$

$$= \frac{1}{a} \cdot a H \cancel{\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}}} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot (\rho \vec{x}) + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot (\rho \vec{v})$$

$$= H \vec{x} \cdot \cancel{\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \rho} + H \rho (\cancel{\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot \vec{x}}) + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot (\rho \vec{v})$$

~~Cancel's~~ = 3

Hence,
$$\boxed{\left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right)_{\vec{x}} + 3H\rho + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \cdot (\rho \vec{v}) = 0} \quad - ④$$

Continuity eqn. in an expanding FRW Universe

(5)

Henceforth, all $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)_{\vec{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)_{\vec{x}}$ and $\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \equiv \vec{\nabla}$

Ex. 2. It is straightforward to check that the Euler eqn. in co-moving co-ordinates is

$$\left[\left(\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t}\right)_{\vec{x}} + \frac{\vec{v}}{a} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \vec{u} = -\frac{1}{a} \frac{\vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} P}{\rho} - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \Phi \right] - (5)$$

where, a term such as $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{x}} \vec{u} = u_x (\nabla_x \vec{u}) + u_y (\nabla_y \vec{u}) + u_z (\nabla_z \vec{u})$

Finally, the Poisson eqn. is

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \Phi &= 4\pi G \rho \\ \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla_x^2 \Phi = 4\pi G a^2 \rho} &- (6) \end{aligned}$$

For small perturbations, density $\rho(t, \vec{x}) = \bar{\rho} + \delta\rho(t, \vec{x})$
pressure, $P(t, \vec{x}) = \bar{P} + \delta P(t, \vec{x})$

(*) Since the perturbations are small, we can linearize the fluid eqns.

$$\begin{aligned} AB &= (\bar{A} + \delta A)(\bar{B} + \delta B) \\ &= \underbrace{\bar{A}\bar{B}}_{\text{Zeroth order}} + \underbrace{\bar{A}\delta B + \bar{B}\delta A}_{\text{1st order}} + \underbrace{\delta A\delta B}_{\text{2nd order}} \end{aligned}$$

linearize $\bar{A}\bar{B} + \bar{A}\delta B + \bar{B}\delta A$

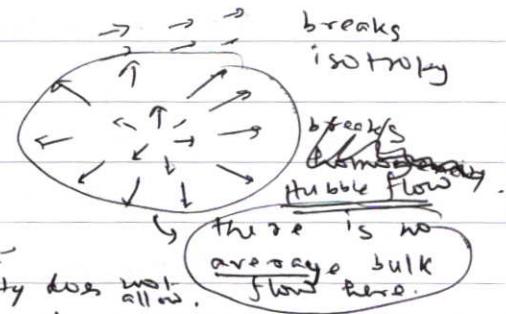
The peculiar velocity field $\vec{v} = 0$ in the FRW background soln., as ~~that~~ a non-zero \vec{v} ^{field} will break isotropy in general.

Background soln.: $\vec{v} = 0$

$$\rho = \bar{\rho}$$

$$P = \bar{P}$$

Also a bulk flow requires density gradient
→ homogeneity does not allow.



By isotropy, the mean value of any 3-vector field $v^i = 0$. Hence, in ^{strictly} the FRW universe, only Hubble flow takes place, and the peculiar vel. are negligibly small zero.

(6)

$$\frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial t} + 3H\bar{g} + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\bar{g} \vec{v}) = 0$$

at zeroth order this eqn. becomes

$$\frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial t} + 3H\bar{g} = 0 \Rightarrow \bar{g} \propto a^{-3} \quad \text{as for a NR fluid in FRW.}$$

The Euler eqn.

$$\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + \frac{\vec{v}}{a} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \vec{u} = -\frac{1}{a} \frac{\vec{\nabla} \bar{P}}{\bar{g}} - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \bar{\Psi}$$

at zeroth order $\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{a} \frac{\vec{\nabla} \bar{P}}{\bar{g}} - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \bar{\Psi}$

$$\text{now, } \vec{u} = H\vec{r} = Ha\vec{x}$$

$$\text{and } \bar{P} = \text{constant (isotropic + homogeneous)} \\ \approx 0 \text{ for NR matter}$$

Hence, $\vec{\nabla} \bar{\Psi} = -a \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = -a \ddot{a} \vec{x}$ $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} Ha$
 $= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \dot{a} = \ddot{a}$

$$\Rightarrow -a \ddot{a} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{x}) = \nabla^2 \bar{\Psi}$$

$$\Rightarrow -a \ddot{a} (\underbrace{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}}_{=3}) = 4\pi G a^2 \bar{P} \quad (\text{by the zeroth order Poisson eqn.})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \bar{P}$$

Recall, in FRW geometry, we had the 2nd Friedmann eqn. $\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (\bar{g} + 3\bar{P})$
 $\approx -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \bar{g}$ for NR matter with $\bar{P} \approx 0$.

Perturbations:

$$g = \bar{g} [1 + \delta], \vec{u} = \vec{\bar{u}} + \vec{v}$$

$\vec{Ha}\vec{x}$ (Hubble flow only)

$$P = \bar{P} + \delta P, \quad \bar{\Psi} = \bar{\Psi} + \delta \bar{\Psi}$$

$$\text{Density contrast } \delta = \frac{g - \bar{g}}{\bar{g}} = \frac{\delta g}{\bar{g}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta g = \bar{g} \delta$$

For $\delta \ll 1$, can linearize the eqns.

$$\vec{P} = \vec{f}(t) \text{ only by homogeneity. } (7)$$

⑥ Continuity eqn. : $\frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} + 3H\delta + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\delta \vec{U}) = 0$

1st order: $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\bar{\delta} \delta) + 3H(\bar{\delta} \delta) + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\bar{\delta} \vec{U}) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \delta \frac{\partial \bar{\delta}}{\partial t} + \bar{\delta} \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} + 3H\bar{\delta}\delta + \frac{\bar{P}}{a} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{U}) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta \left(\frac{\partial \bar{\delta}}{\partial t} + 3H\bar{\delta} \right) + \bar{\delta} \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} + \frac{\bar{P}}{a} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{U}) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow 0 \text{ by the zeroth order eqn.}$

⑦ $\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{U}}$ - (x1) | change in density contrast is related to the divergence of peculiar flow due to continuity.

↑ ↓
growth of sourced
density perturbations by div. of fluid vel.

⑧ Euler eqn. : $\frac{\partial \vec{U}}{\partial t} + \frac{\vec{V}}{a} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \vec{U} = -\frac{1}{a} \frac{\vec{\nabla} \delta P}{\delta} - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \delta \Phi$

in 1st order: $\dot{\vec{V}} + \frac{\vec{V}}{a} \cdot \vec{\nabla} (H\alpha \vec{x}) = -\frac{1}{a} \frac{\vec{\nabla} \delta P}{\delta} - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} (\delta \Phi)$

where $\delta P = 0$ and $\delta \Phi = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\dot{\vec{V}} + \left(\frac{\vec{V}}{a} \times \vec{H} \right) \vec{H} \vec{V} = -\frac{1}{a\delta} \vec{\nabla} \delta P - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \delta \Phi} - (x2)$$

Now if $\delta P = 0$, $\delta \Phi = 0$, then

$$\dot{\vec{V}} + H\vec{V} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} (a\vec{V}) = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{V} \propto a^{-1}}$$

Time derivative of (x1) gives

$$\ddot{\delta} - \frac{1}{a^2} \dot{a} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}) + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{V}}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \ddot{\delta} - \frac{H}{a} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}) + \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left(-H\vec{V} - \frac{1}{a\delta} \vec{\nabla} \delta P - \frac{1}{a} \vec{\nabla} \delta \Phi \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - \frac{1}{a^2} \left(\frac{1}{\delta} \nabla^2 \delta P + \nabla^2 \delta \Phi \right) = 0$$

$(\text{as } \dot{\delta} = -\frac{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}}{a})$

$$\begin{aligned} & \boxed{\frac{\delta(\frac{a}{b})}{\frac{a}{b} + \delta a} \Big|_{b=\delta}^{a+\delta b}} \\ & = (\bar{a} + \delta a)(\bar{b} - \delta b) \\ & = \bar{a}\bar{b} + [\bar{b}\delta a - \bar{a}\delta b] + O(\delta^2) \\ & - \vec{\nabla} \bar{P} (\delta \bar{\delta}) \\ & = 0 \text{ on } \vec{\nabla} \bar{P} = 0 \\ & \vec{P} = \text{constant} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \vec{V} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \vec{x} \\ & = v_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \vec{x} + v_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \vec{x} \\ & \quad + v_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \vec{x} \\ & = v_x \hat{e}_x + v_y \hat{e}_y \\ & \quad + v_z \hat{e}_z \\ & = \vec{V} \end{aligned}$$

(8)

Now, consider a fluid for which

$$P = P(\delta) \quad (\text{eqn. of state})$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta P = \frac{\partial P}{\partial \delta} \delta P \equiv c_s^2 \delta P \quad (c_s^2 = \frac{\partial P}{\partial \delta} = \text{speed of sound in the fluid})$$

Hence, we have,

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - \frac{1}{a^2} \left(c_s^2 \nabla^2 \delta + 4\pi G \bar{\rho} a^2 \delta \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - \left(\frac{c_s^2}{a^2} \nabla^2 + 4\pi G \bar{\rho}(t) \right) \delta = 0}$$

Hence, given $\bar{\rho}(t)$ and c_s , we can compute the time-evolution of the density contrast. This is the primary eqn. governing the growth of $\delta(t)$ for NR matter perturbations in the sub-Hubble regime.

Since, we are dealing with a linear eqn., it is convenient to use Fourier modes. In Fourier space, $\delta(\vec{x}, t) = \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \tilde{\delta}(\vec{k}, t)$

$$\ddot{\tilde{\delta}}(\vec{k}, t) + 2H\dot{\tilde{\delta}}(\vec{k}, t) + \left(\frac{c_s^2 k^2}{a^2} - 4\pi G \bar{\rho}(t) \right) \tilde{\delta}(\vec{k}, t) = 0$$

Each Fourier mode evolves independently at linear order.

define $k_J(t) \equiv \sqrt{\frac{4\pi G \bar{\rho}(t)}{c_s^2(t)}}$

$$\Rightarrow 4\pi G \bar{\rho}(t) = c_s^2 k_J^2$$

Hence, we obtain

$$\ddot{\tilde{\delta}} + 2H\dot{\tilde{\delta}} + c_s^2 \left(\frac{k^2}{a^2} - k_J^2 \right) \tilde{\delta} = 0$$

The Jeans scale in an expanding universe depends on time through $\bar{\rho}(t)$ and possibly $c_s(t)$.

(9)

wavelength

Small scale perturbation (\Rightarrow large k , $\lambda \sim \frac{1}{|k|}$)

$$\frac{k}{a} \gg k_J$$

$$\Rightarrow (\frac{c_s^2}{a^2} - k_J^2) > 0, \quad \text{Hence} \\ \equiv \omega^2 > 0$$

Hence,

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} + \omega^2 \delta = 0$$

This is the eqn. of a damped harmonic oscillator,

with a friction term due to the expansion, $2H\dot{\delta}$.

→ Oscillatory solutions with decreasing amplitude.

\vec{k} is conjugate to \vec{x} , the co-moving length.

Hence, \vec{k} is the co-moving wave-number.

$$\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} = \frac{\vec{k}}{a} \cdot (a \vec{x})$$

physical length
wave number

Large scale perturbations: $\frac{k}{a} \ll k_J$, can ignore the pressure term, and obtain

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - 4\pi G \bar{\rho}(t) \delta = 0$$

Without the ^{expansion} damping term, the fluctuations would have grown exponentially!

Since this eqn. has no k -dependence, each Fourier mode time-evolves in the same way.

$$\delta(\vec{k}, t) = \delta_+(\vec{k}) D_+(t) + \delta_-(\vec{k}) D_-(t)$$

(sols. to a 2nd order differential eqn.)

↑ growing mode ↑ decaying mode

$\delta_{\pm}(\vec{k})$: Fourier modes of the initial density field

$D_{\pm}(t)$: \vec{k} -independent functions describing the linear time evolution

$D_+(t)$: linear growth function

Normalizations: $D_+(t_0) \equiv 1$

$c_s^2 \rightarrow \langle v^2 \rangle$,
the pressure term $\rightarrow 0$,

all modes
with
grow.

→ COM.

More generally,

$c_s^2 \rightarrow \langle v^2 \rangle$,
and depending
upon $\langle v^2 \rangle$

some
modes may
not grow
with
 \vec{k} if k

→ suppressed
at small
length scales

→ WDM
or HDM

$$\left. \begin{aligned} & \ln 10^6 \\ & = 6 \times \ln 10 \\ & = 6 \times 2.3 \\ & = 13.8 \end{aligned} \right\} \frac{T_{BBN}}{T_{MR}} = 10^6$$

Timeline:

(10)

Matter perturbations in a flat matter-dominated Universe: (Relevant for the growth of structure in our Universe after MR equality)

$$\text{In MD: } a \propto t^{2/3} \Rightarrow H = \frac{2}{3t}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4\pi G \bar{\rho}_m(t) = \frac{3}{2} H^2 \quad (\text{bkg. Friedmann eqn})$$

$$= \frac{8}{2} \times \frac{4^2}{9t^2} = \frac{2}{3t^2}$$

$$\text{Hence } \ddot{D} + \frac{4}{3t} \dot{D} - \frac{2}{3t^2} D = 0$$

Try the ansatz $D \propto t^\alpha$

$$\text{then } \alpha(\alpha-1)t^{\alpha-2} + \frac{4}{3t} \alpha t^{\alpha-1} - \frac{2}{3t^2} t^\alpha = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha(\alpha-1) + \frac{4\alpha}{3} - \frac{2}{3} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 3\alpha^2 + \alpha - 2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1+24}}{6} = \frac{-1 \pm 5}{6} = -1, 2/3$$

Hence, $D \sim t^{-1}$ (decaying mode)

or $D \sim t^{2/3}$ (growing mode)

Hence, $D_+(t) \propto t^{2/3}$

$$\Rightarrow D_+ \propto a$$

$$\text{and } D_- \propto a^{-3/2}$$

(*) Hence the density contrast for modes with $\frac{k}{a} \ll k_J$ grows as $[\delta \propto a]$, proportional to the scale factor.

But δ_S , the density fluctuation, is still decreasing, $\delta_S = \bar{\delta} \propto \frac{1}{a^3} \times a \propto a^{-2}$, which is at a rate slower than the bkg. density $\bar{\delta} \propto a^{-3}$.

$$\text{Now, } \nabla^2 \delta E = 4\pi G a^2 \bar{\rho} \delta^+$$

$\Rightarrow \bar{\rho} \delta \propto a^{-2}$, $\nabla^2 \delta E$ is independent of time.

$\Rightarrow \delta E$ is a constant in time in the matter era.

$$c_s^2 = \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho}\right)$$

For a relativistic gas $p \approx \frac{1}{3} \rho$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho}\right) = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow c_s = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$
(11)

(H₀ CMB)

The discussion above applies to baryons after they decouple from photons. Before recombination, the baryons are strongly coupled to photons, forming a (relativistic) photon-baryon fluid, with a sound speed $c_s \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$. Then, if I assume the above eqns. to still hold up to relativistic corrections, $k_J \sim \sqrt{12\pi G_F} = \sqrt{3H^2 \times \frac{3}{2}} \sim 2H$.

For growing modes, $\frac{k}{a} < k_J$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{k}{a} < H \Rightarrow \lambda_{\text{physical}} > H^{-1}$$

Only super-Hubble modes may grow, but ^{all} Newtonian oscillate. Sub-Hubble modes oscillate. The above analysis is anyway invalid for super-Hubble modes.

\Rightarrow Sub-Hubble modes grow only after recombination for baryons, as they decouple from photons, and ^{c_s} replaces. (CDM)

• If on the other hand we had a NR fluid ^{or baryons} not coupled to photons, for them $k_J \gg H$, as $c_s \ll 1$. For sub-Hubble modes, $\lambda_{\text{physical}} < H^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{k}{a} > H$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{k}{a} > k_J$$

there

will be modes for which $\frac{k}{a} \ll k_J \rightarrow \text{growth}$.

Hence baryonic perturbations can grow only from T_MB, while CDM

\Rightarrow Perturbation grow linearly from T_MR. They also grow logarithmically during RD.

How do the ^{decoupled} perturbations for such a NR fluid grow during RD?

$$\ddot{\delta}_c + 2H\dot{\delta}_c - 4\pi G \sum_a \bar{\rho}_a \delta_a$$

$$\sum_a \bar{\rho}_a \delta_a = \bar{\rho}_c \delta_c + \bar{\rho}_r \delta_r$$

\hookrightarrow includes the baryon-radiation fluid.

For the radiation fluid, c_s is large, the pressure wave travels fast and hence δ_r oscillates on scales smaller than the horizon.

\Rightarrow time averaged density contrast of radiation vanishes. DM (δ_c) is the only clustered component. Hence,

$$\ddot{\delta}_c + 2H\dot{\delta}_c - 4\pi G \bar{\rho}_c \delta_c = 0$$

Even if
I start
from

Logarithmic growth during RD : 13.8 factor

Linear " MD up to 0.26 eV

= factor 4.

(12)

\Rightarrow together they give a factor > 53

Of course, the homogeneous radiation density still plays an ^{imp.} role in determining the Hubble expansion rate, $H = \frac{1}{2t}$ for $a(t) \propto t^{1/2}$.

(as $\frac{1}{t} \sim H$)

$$\dot{\delta}_c \approx H^2 \delta_c \gg 4\pi G \bar{\rho}_c \delta_c \text{ as } H^2 \text{ is}$$

determined by $\bar{\rho}_r$ in RD, and $\bar{\rho}_r \gg \bar{\rho}_c$ in RD.

Hence, in $\dot{\delta}_c + 2H\delta_c - 4\pi G \bar{\rho}_c \delta_c = 0$, we can drop $4\pi G \bar{\rho}_c \delta_c$ w.r.t. $\dot{\delta}_c$, hence,

$$\dot{\delta}_c + 2H\delta_c = 0$$

$$\text{or, } \ddot{D} + \frac{1}{t} \dot{D} = 0$$

Two solutions: $D_-(t) \propto \text{constant}$

or $D_+(t) \propto \ln t \propto \ln a$

\Rightarrow The perturbations δ_c can only grow

logarithmically in the RD era, which spans at least from $T_{BBN} \approx 10^6 \text{ eV}$ to $T_{MR} \sim 1 \text{ eV}$!

* If something like dark energy exists and dominates the energy density in some late epoch, then, since it does not cluster, it does not contribute to $\nabla^2 \delta_m$. Hence,

$$\dot{\delta}_m + 2H\delta_m - 4\pi G \bar{\rho}_m \delta_m = 0$$

| $(H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \bar{\rho}_{DE} \text{ constant})$

$H \approx \text{constant}$ during DE domination, furthermore, $4\pi G \bar{\rho}_m \delta_m \ll \dot{\delta}_m$, we have therefore

$$\dot{\delta}_m + 2H\delta_m = 0$$

$$\boxed{D_-(t) = \text{constant} \text{ or } D(t) \propto \frac{1}{a^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{1}{a^2} = -2a^{-3}\dot{a}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \frac{1}{a^2} = -2 \frac{d}{dt} \left(a^{-3}\dot{a} \right)$$

$$= -2\ddot{a}a^{-3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} (\dot{\delta}_m + 2H\delta_m) = 0 \quad \text{as } H = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{\delta}_m + 2H\delta_m = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow a\dot{\delta}_m + \frac{2\dot{a}}{a}\delta_m = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} (\delta_m a) = 0$$

Hence, the eqn. for the growth function is

$$\ddot{D} + 2H\dot{D} = 0 \quad , \text{ with } H \sim \text{const.}$$

Ansatz: $D = a^\alpha$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{D} = \alpha a^{\alpha-1} \dot{a}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ddot{D} = \alpha \ddot{a} a^{\alpha-1} + \alpha(\alpha-1) \dot{a}^2 a^{\alpha-2}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} & \alpha \ddot{a} a^{\alpha-1} + \alpha(\alpha-1) \dot{a}^2 a^{\alpha-2} + 2H\alpha \dot{a}^{\alpha-1} \\ & \quad \dot{a} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \text{const}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{da}{a} = \text{const} \times dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln a = \text{const} \times t$$

$$\Rightarrow a = e^{Ht}$$

$$\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{He^{Ht}}{e^{Ht}} = H.$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \dot{a} = Ha \\ & \Rightarrow \ddot{a} = H\dot{a} = aH^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{either } \alpha = 0, \text{ or, } D = \text{constant}$$

or

$$\dot{a} + \alpha(\alpha-1) a^{-1} \dot{a}^2 + 2H\dot{a} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow aH^2 + (\alpha-1) a^{-1} \dot{a}^2 H^2 + 2H^2 a = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow aH^2 (3 + \alpha - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = 1 - 3 = -2$$

Hence $D(t) \begin{cases} a^{-2} & \rightarrow D_-(t) \\ \text{const.} & \rightarrow D_+(t) \end{cases}$

Hence, the growth of structure halts in the DE era.

Behaviour of different modes: k -dependence of growth

Hubble radius $\sim H^{-1}$ (sometimes also loosely referred to as the horizon, which is of the same order).

As the Universe expands, H changes:

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \propto a^{-3} \text{ in M.D.}$$

$$\propto a^{-4} \text{ in R.D.}$$

$$\Rightarrow H \propto a^{-3/2} \text{ in M.D.}$$

$$\propto a^{-2} \text{ in R.D.}$$

$$\text{or, } H^{-1} \propto a^{3/2} \text{ in M.D.}$$

$$\propto a^2 \text{ in R.D.}$$

Hence the Hubble radius grows with time.

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k : co-moving wave-number

$\lambda = \frac{1}{k}$: " wave-length

$\lambda_{\text{physical}} = \frac{a}{k}$: physical wave-length of a Fourier mode.

$\lambda_{\text{physical}}$ also grows with time (k is fixed)

$\Rightarrow \frac{k}{a}$: decreases w/ time as the universe expands.

If $\lambda_{\text{physical}} \sim H^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{k} \sim H^{-1} \Rightarrow [k \propto aH]$$

If $\lambda_{\text{physical}} > H^{-1}$ (super-Hubble, superhorizon)

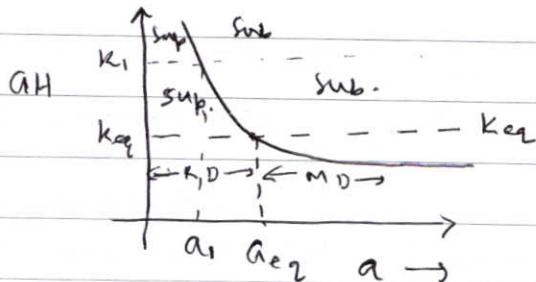
$$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{k} > H^{-1} \Rightarrow [k < aH]$$

If $\lambda_{\text{physical}} < H^{-1}$ (sub-Hubble, subhorizon)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{k} < H^{-1} \Rightarrow [k > aH]$$

Now, $aH \propto a^{-1/2}$ in M.D.

& a^{-1} in R.D.



$$k_{\text{eq}} = a_{\text{eq}} H(a_{\text{eq}})$$

(The mode k_{eq} enters the horizon at a_{eq})

For the value of the scale factor a_1 , s.t. $k_1 = a_1 H_1$, the mode k_1 enters the horizon. For $a > a_1$, the mode is sub-Hubble, and for $a < a_1$, the mode is super-Hubble. So, at an early enough time, all modes should be super-Hubble, and at a late enough time, all modes should eventually enter the horizon.

Dynamics of perturbations at super-Hubble scales require general relativistic perturbation theory, as space-time curvature effects become relevant. In the comoving gauge, the superhorizon evolution of δ is:

$$\underset{\text{gauge-dependent}}{\left[\delta(E, t) \propto \frac{1}{(aH)^2} \propto \begin{cases} a^2 & \text{in R.D.} \\ a & \text{in M.D.} \end{cases} \right]}$$

Hence in M.D., the density contrast grows as $a(t)$ both inside and outside the horizon.

For modes entering the horizon in the MD, the growth is thus independent of scale.

In contrast, in R.D., the perturbations behave differently in- and out-side the horizon.

Sub-horizon modes \rightarrow experience logarithmic growth

Supo- " " \rightarrow grow as a^2 .

The moment of horizon entry depends on the wave-number of the mode, $k = aH$, which leads to a k -dependent growth of the fluctuations.

$$\text{Transfer Function: } T(k) \equiv \frac{D_+(t_i)}{D_+(t)} \frac{\delta(\vec{k}, t)}{\delta(\vec{k}, t_i)}$$

D_+ : scale-independent growth function

t_i : initial time when all modes of interest are outside the horizon.

$k_{eq} \equiv (aH)_{eq}$: wave-number of the mode that entered the horizon at MR equality.

k -dependence of the growing mode

$$\delta(\vec{k}, t) = \delta_+(\vec{k}) D_+(k)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{D_+(t)}{D_+(\vec{k}, t)} = \delta_+(\vec{k}) \text{ at } t$$

$$\frac{D_+(t_i)}{\delta(\vec{k}, t_i)} = \delta_+(\vec{k}) \text{ at } t_i$$

For $k > k_{eq}$, the modes enter the horizon at RD. For $k < k_{eq}$, " " " " a s, " MD

\Rightarrow [The growth is scale-independent for $k < k_{eq}$].

$$k_{eq} = a_{eq} H(a_{eq}) \approx 0.015 \text{ h Mpc}^{-1}$$

$$\approx 0.0105 \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \text{ for } h = 0.7$$

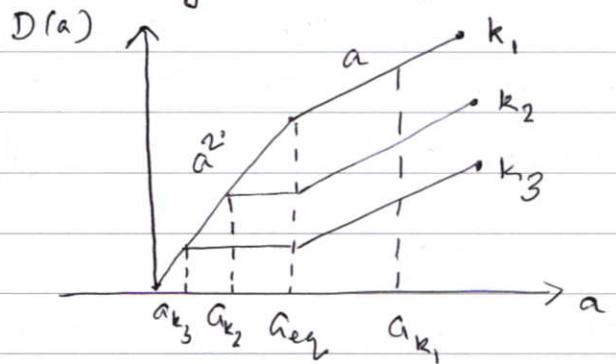
$$\delta(\vec{k}, t) = \delta_+(\vec{k}) D_+(t)$$

$$\delta(\vec{k}, t_i) = \delta_+(\vec{k})_i D_+(t_i)$$

$$T(k) = \frac{\delta_+(\vec{k})}{\delta_+(\vec{k}_i)} = \frac{D_+(t_i)}{D_+(t)} \frac{\delta(\vec{k}, t)}{\delta(\vec{k}, t_i)}$$

given initial
 $\delta_+(\vec{k}_i)$, the final
one $\delta_+(\vec{k})$ can be
obtained using $T(k)$:
 $\delta(\vec{k}) = T(k) \delta_+(\vec{k})_i$

Consider long-wavelength mode : $k < k_{eq}$



⊗ k_1 enters horizon at MD at a_{k_1} . Hence upto a_{eq} it grows as a^2 and after that as a .

$$\text{at } a_{eq}, \quad \frac{\delta(\vec{k}, t_{eq})}{a_{eq}^2} = \frac{\delta(\vec{k}, t_i)}{a_i^2}$$

$$\text{and, } \frac{\delta(\vec{k}, t)}{a} = \frac{\delta(\vec{k}, t_{eq})}{a_{eq}} = \frac{\delta(\vec{k}, t_i)}{a_i^2} \frac{a_{eq}^2}{a_{eq}} \frac{1}{a_{eq}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta(\vec{k}, t) = \delta(\vec{k}, t_i) \left(\frac{a_{eq}}{a_i} \right)^2 \left(\frac{a}{a_{eq}} \right)$$

$$\equiv \frac{D_+(t)}{D_+(t_i)} \frac{D_+(t_{eq})}{D_+(t_i)} \delta(\vec{k}, t_i)$$

$$T(k < k_{eq}) = 1$$

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Short-wavelength modes: $k > k_{eq}$ (e.g. k_2, k_3)

Before horizon entry at a_{k_2} or a_{k_3} , $\delta \sim \cancel{a^2} a^2$.

After " " until a_{eq} , $\delta \sim \ln a \sim \text{const. approximately}$

After a_{eq} , $\delta \sim a$.

$$\begin{aligned}\delta(\vec{k}, t) &= \left(\frac{a_k}{a_i}\right)^2 \left(\frac{a}{a_{eq}}\right) \delta(\vec{k}, t_i) \\ &= \underbrace{\left(\frac{a_k}{a_{eq}}\right)^2}_{\text{additional suppression}} \times \underbrace{\left[\left(\frac{a_{eq}}{a_i}\right)^2 \left(\frac{a}{a_{eq}}\right)\right]}_{\text{Same as before}} \delta(\vec{k}, t_i)\end{aligned}$$

for $k > k_{eq}$

$H \propto a^{-2}$ in RD, so k enters the horizon

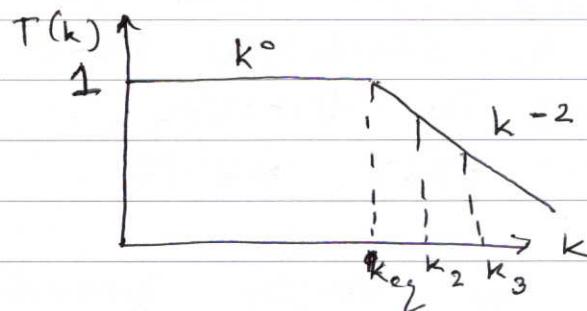
at a_k , s.t. $k = (G_H)_k$

$$\propto a_k a_k^{-2} \propto \frac{1}{a_k}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \left(\frac{G_k}{G_{eq}}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{k_{eq}}{k}\right)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Hence, } T(k > k_{eq}) &= \left(\frac{k_{eq}}{k}\right)^2 \left[\times \ln\left(\frac{k}{k_{eq}}\right) \right] \\ T(k < k_{eq}) &= 1\end{aligned}$$

$$P(k) \sim |\delta_k|^2 \sim T^2(k) \frac{D_f^2(t)}{D_f^2(t_i)} P(k, t_i)$$



Statistical properties:

- (*) The large-scale structure in the Universe isn't distributed randomly, but has interesting correlations between spatially separated points.
- (*) Not just the degree of the density fluctuations, but correlations between them are important.
- (*) $\langle \delta \rangle = 0$ ($\langle \rangle$: ensemble average = $\overline{\delta}$ = spatial average in infinite vol. limit)
- (*) 2-pt. correlation function

$$\xi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2) \equiv \langle \delta(\vec{x}_1) \delta(\vec{x}_2) \rangle$$

Statistical homogeneity: although the Universe is inhomogeneous, it is statistically homogeneous, i.e., the expectation value $\langle f(\vec{r}) \rangle$ must be the same at all \vec{r} .

$\Rightarrow \xi(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2)$ can depend only on the separation $\vec{r} = \vec{x}_2 - \vec{x}_1$. Hence, re-define ξ :

$$\xi(\vec{r}) \equiv \langle \delta(\vec{x}) \delta(\vec{x} + \vec{r}) \rangle$$

Statistical isotropy: For quantities that involve a direction, the statistical properties are independent of the direction.

$$\Rightarrow \xi(\vec{r}) = \xi(r), r = |\vec{r}|$$

(*) Variance of the density perturbation:

$$\langle \delta^2 \rangle \equiv \langle \delta(\vec{x}) \delta(\vec{x}) \rangle \equiv \xi(0).$$

Fourier space:

$$\delta(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int \delta(\vec{k}) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} d^3 k$$

$$\delta(\vec{k}) = \int \delta(\vec{x}) e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} d^3 x$$

$$\langle \delta(\vec{k}) \rangle = 0$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \delta(\vec{x})^* = \delta(\vec{x}') \\ \delta^*(\vec{k}) = \delta(-\vec{k}) \end{array} \right]$$

What is $\langle \delta(\vec{k}) \delta^*(\vec{k}') \rangle$?

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int d^3 x e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \int d^3 x' e^{-i\vec{k}' \cdot \vec{x}'} \langle \delta(\vec{x}) \delta(\vec{x}') \rangle \\ &= \int d^3 x e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \int d^3 x' e^{-i\vec{k}' \cdot (\vec{x} + \vec{r})} \langle \delta(\vec{x}) \delta(\vec{x} + \vec{r}) \rangle \\ &= \int d^3 r \xi(\vec{r}) e^{-i\vec{k}' \cdot \vec{r}} \int d^3 x e^{i(\vec{k} - \vec{k}') \cdot \vec{x}} \\ &= (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k} - \vec{k}') P(\vec{k}), \text{ where,} \\ P(\vec{k}) &= \int d^3 r \xi(\vec{r}) e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}} \quad (\text{power spectrum}) \end{aligned}$$

② Statistical homogeneity $\Rightarrow \delta(\vec{k})$ are uncorrelated.

(Assumed $\xi(\vec{r}) \rightarrow 0$ for $|\vec{r}| \rightarrow \infty$)

$$\xi(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 k e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}} P(\vec{k})$$

$$\text{As } \xi(\vec{r}) = \xi(r), \Rightarrow P(\vec{k}) = P(k)$$

$$P(k) = \int_0^\infty \xi(r) \frac{\sin kr}{kr} 4\pi r^2 dr.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{check: } P(k) &= \int_{2\pi} d^3 r e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}} \xi(r) \\ &= \int_0^\infty d\vec{q} \int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) \int_0^\infty d\sigma r^2 e^{-ikr \cos\theta} \xi(r) \end{aligned}$$

$$\xi(r) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty P(k) \frac{\sin kr}{kr} 4\pi k^2 dk.$$

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The density variance

$$\langle \delta(\vec{x}) \delta(\vec{x}) \rangle = \langle \delta^2 \rangle = \xi(0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty P(k) 4\pi k^2 dk \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty k^3 P(k) \frac{dk}{k} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^\infty k^3 P(k) d\ln k \\ &\equiv \int_{-\infty}^\infty P(k) d\ln k \end{aligned}$$

where, we have defined

$$P(k) \equiv \frac{k^3}{2\pi^2} P(k) \quad \left(\text{another notation for } P(k) \text{ is } \Delta^2(k) \right)$$

↓
Power per logarithmic interval of scales to
the density variance.

$P(k)$ is dimensionless.

$$[P(k)] = \frac{1}{[k^3]} = [L]^3 \rightarrow \text{Mpc}^3.$$

We had

$$P(k, t) = T^2(k) \frac{D_f^2(t)}{D_f^2(t_i)} P(k, t_i)$$

If the primordial power spectrum is of the form $P(k, t_i) = A k^n$, with A , n constants (at least in some interval)
 n : spectral index.

If further $n \approx 1$, then by the Poisson eqn., $\nabla^2 \delta \bar{\Phi} = 4\pi G a^2 \bar{\rho} \delta$

we have $\delta \bar{\Phi}_k = \frac{4\pi G a^2}{k^2} \bar{\rho} \delta$,
then the power spectrum of $\delta \bar{\Phi}_k$,

$$P_{\delta \bar{\Phi}}(k, t_i) \propto k^{-4} P_\delta(k, t_i) \propto k^{n-4}$$

(21)

Hence, the variance of the gravitational potential

$$\sigma_{\Phi}^2 \equiv \xi_{\Phi}(0) = \int \frac{dk}{k} \frac{k^3}{2\pi^2} P_{\Phi}(k, t_i)$$

$$= \int \frac{dk}{k} \Delta_{\Phi}^2(k)$$

where the dimensionless power spectrum

$$\Delta_{\Phi}^2(k) \equiv \frac{k^3}{2\pi^2} P_{\Phi}(k, t_i) \propto k^{n-1}$$

Hence, for $n=1$, the dimensionless power spectrum of the gravitational potential becomes k -independent, so that the variance receives equal contributions from every decade in k .
This \rightarrow scale invariance.

CMB observations indicate $n \sim 1$ ($n = 0.9667 \pm 0.0040$)

We had

$$T(k) \sim \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k < k_{eq} \\ \left(\frac{k_{eq}}{k}\right)^2 \left[\times \ln \frac{k}{k_{eq}} \right] & \text{for } k > k_{eq}. \end{cases}$$

And if we "postulate"

$$P(k, t_i) = A k^n$$

then,

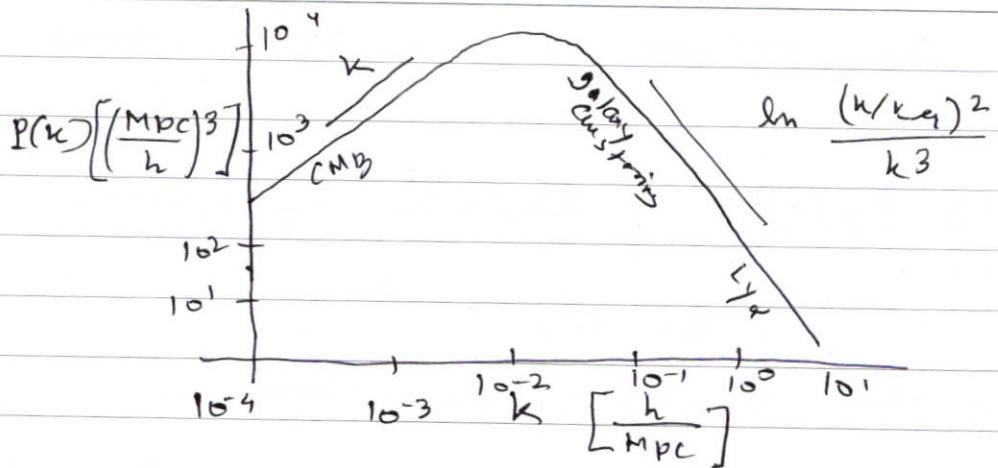
$$P(k, t) \propto \begin{cases} k^n & \text{for } k < k_{eq} \\ k^{n-4} \left(\ln \frac{k}{k_{eq}} \right)^2 & \text{for } k > k_{eq} \end{cases}$$

For $n=1$, we therefore have

$$P(k, t) \propto \begin{cases} k & \text{for } k < k_{eq} \quad (\text{large scales}) \\ k^{-3} \left(\ln \frac{k}{k_{eq}} \right)^2 & \text{for } k > k_{eq} \quad (\text{small scales}) \end{cases}$$

Recall $k_{eq} \approx 0.015 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$

(22)

Aside:

$$= 0 =$$

Baryon in-fall in DM wells:

After decoupling:

$$\ddot{\delta}_c + \frac{4}{3t} \dot{\delta}_c = 4\pi G (\bar{\delta}_b \delta_b + \bar{\delta}_c \delta_c)$$

$$\ddot{\delta}_b + \frac{4}{3t} \dot{\delta}_b = 4\pi G (\bar{\delta}_b \delta_b + \bar{\delta}_c \delta_c)$$

$$\text{Subtracting, } \ddot{\Delta} + \frac{4}{3t} \dot{\Delta} = 0$$

where $\Delta = \delta_c - \delta_b$. Try a power law ansatz:

$$\Delta \sim t^n$$

$$\text{Sols: } n=0, n=-1/3.$$

Growing mode: $\Delta \sim \text{constant}$, but $\delta_m \propto a$.

$$1 - \frac{\delta_b}{\delta_c} = \frac{\delta_c - \delta_b}{\delta_c} = \frac{\Delta}{\delta_c} \xrightarrow[\text{for large } a]{\Delta \sim \text{constant}} \frac{1}{a} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\delta_b}{\delta_c} \rightarrow 1 \text{ at late times.}$$