
Chapter 1

Introduction

Some history

Ptolemäus (85 – 165 b.c.)	antropocentric view; earth = centre of the universe
Kopernicus (1473 – 1543)	earth and planets orbit the sun
Kepler (1571 – 1630)	elliptical orbits
Newton (1643 – 1727)	laws of gravity
Kant (1724 – 1630)	Milky Way = island of stars
Herschel (1738 – 1822)	Milky Way is disk-like
Einstein (1917)	GRT; gravitation \leftrightarrow curved space-time, i.e. matter distorts space-time; first triumph: light deflection by sun (1919)
Friedmann (1922)	static & expanding solutions of Einstein's field equations
Lemaître (1927)	

Some history

Hubble (1929)

discovery of cosmic expansion

Oort (1932)

Dark Matter in Coma Cluster of galaxies

Zwicky (1933)

Gamow (1948)

**formation of light elements in the universe;
prediction of CMB as relict of BB**

Penzias & Wilson (1965)

discovery of 3K CMB

COBE (1992)

**CMB spectrum is perfectly Planckian; anisotropy
of CMB is $\Delta T/T \leq 10^{-5} \Rightarrow$ DM on cosmic scales**

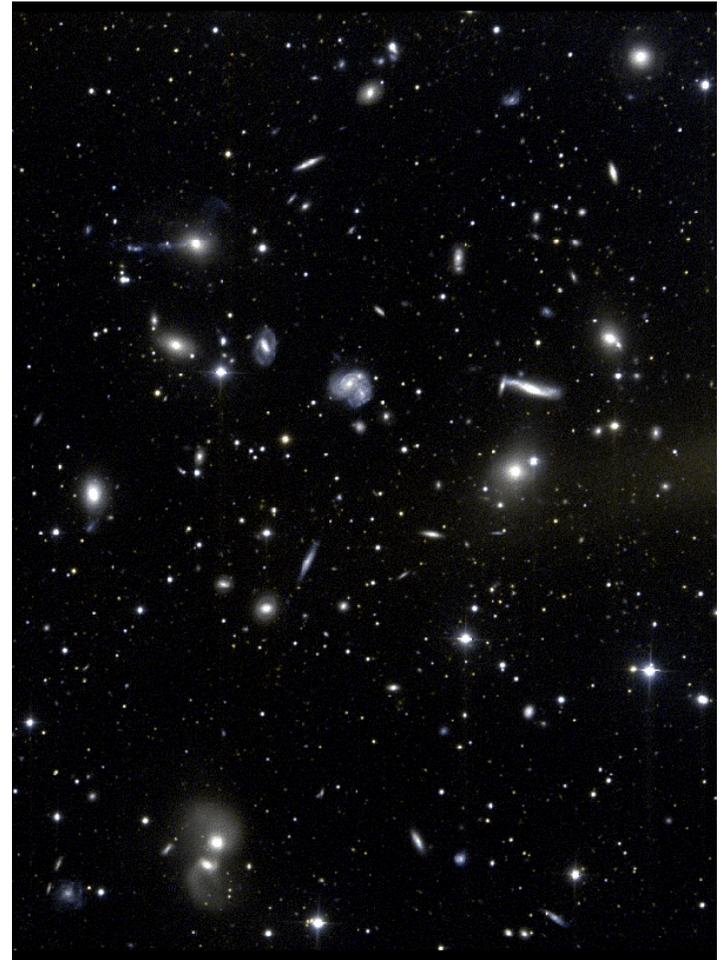
WMAP (2003)

**power spectrum of CM; "precision cosmology";
detection of CMB polarization**

Galaxies



10^{11} stars
 10^5 light years diameter

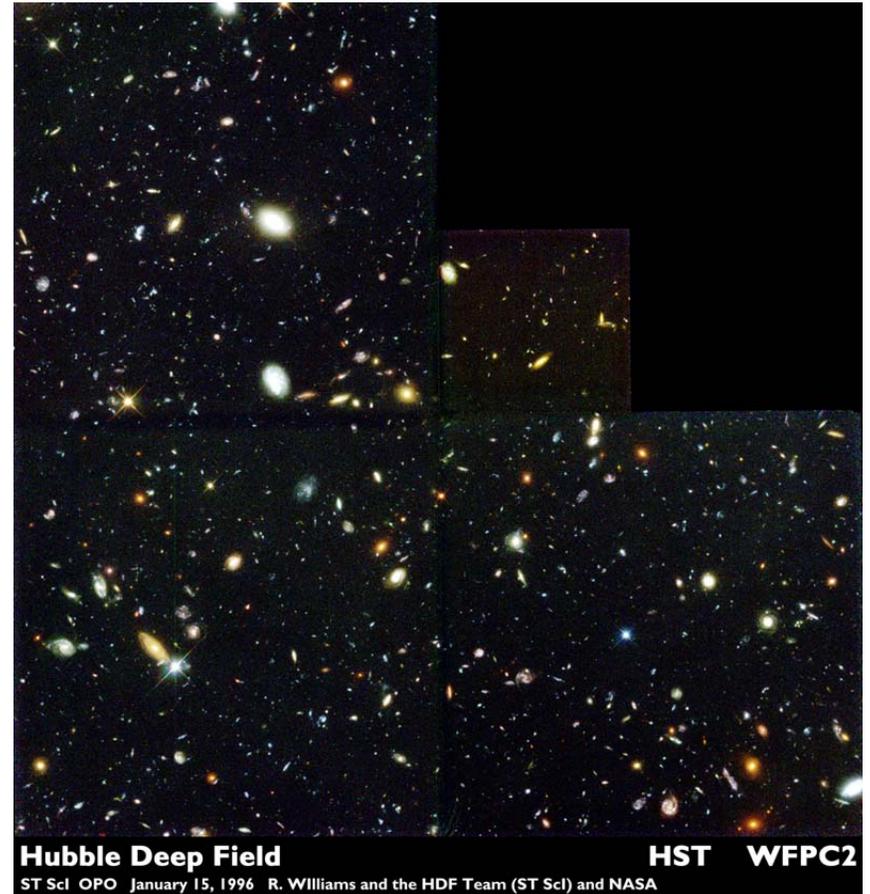


a few thousand galaxies
a few Mpc diameter

The Hubble Deep Field

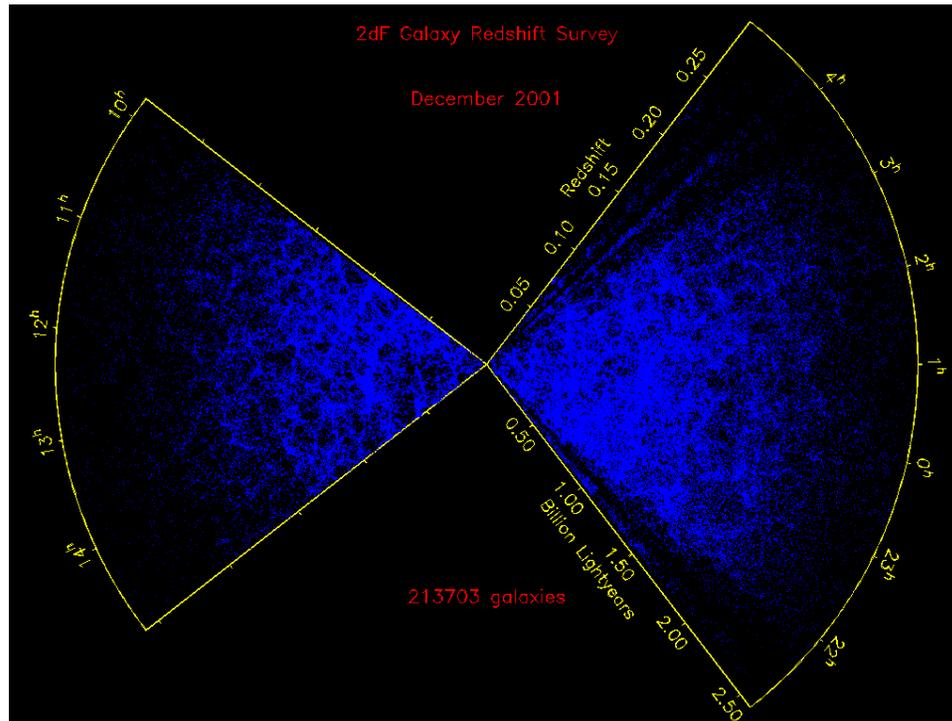


the Hubble Space Telescope

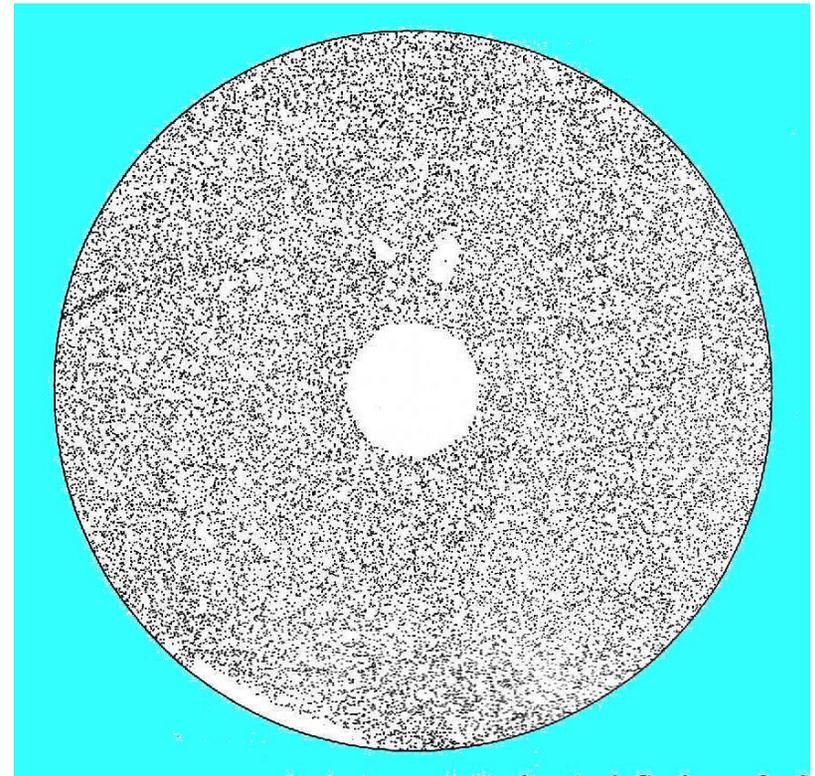


140'' → $3.6 \cdot 10^{-8}$ of total sky
~ 3500 galaxies!

Isotropy

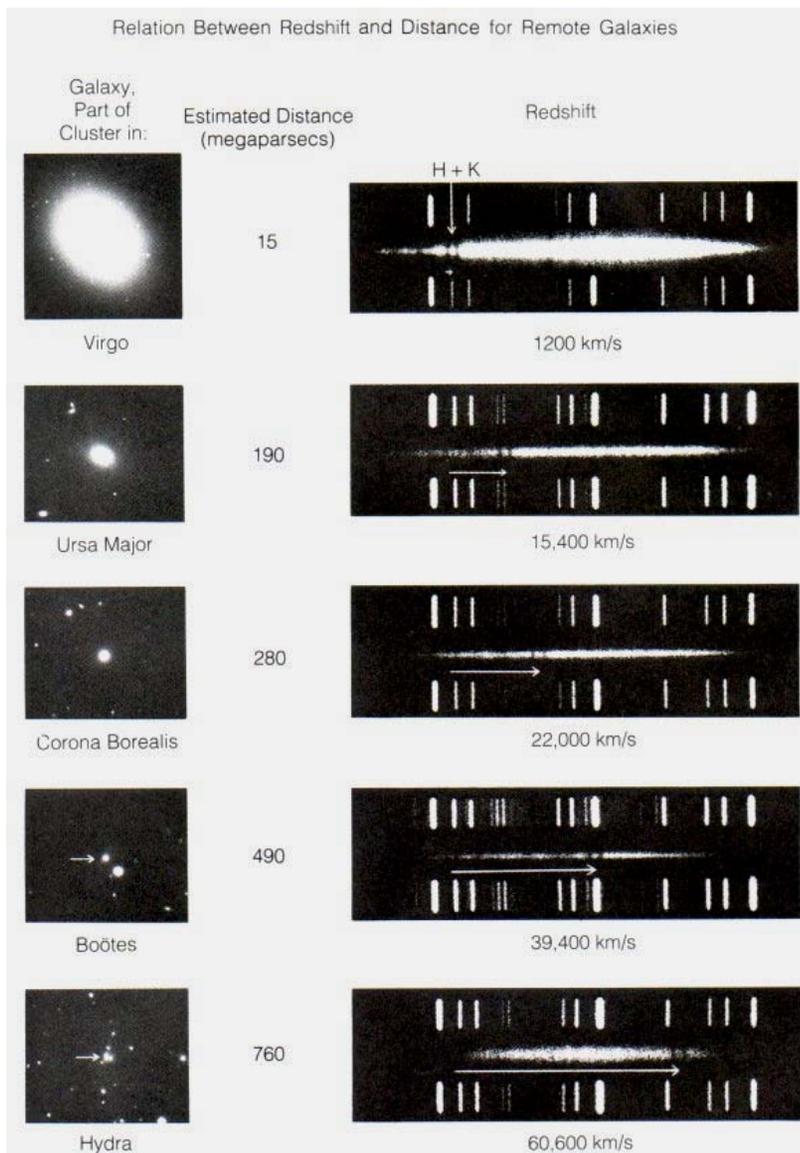


2dF redshift survey
~ 200000 galaxies



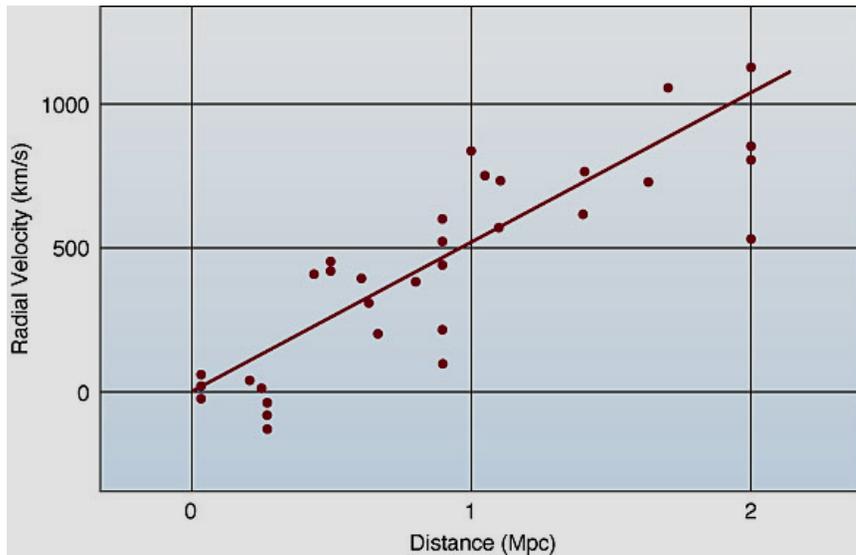
NRAO 5 GHz radio survey
~ 31000 radio sources

Redshift

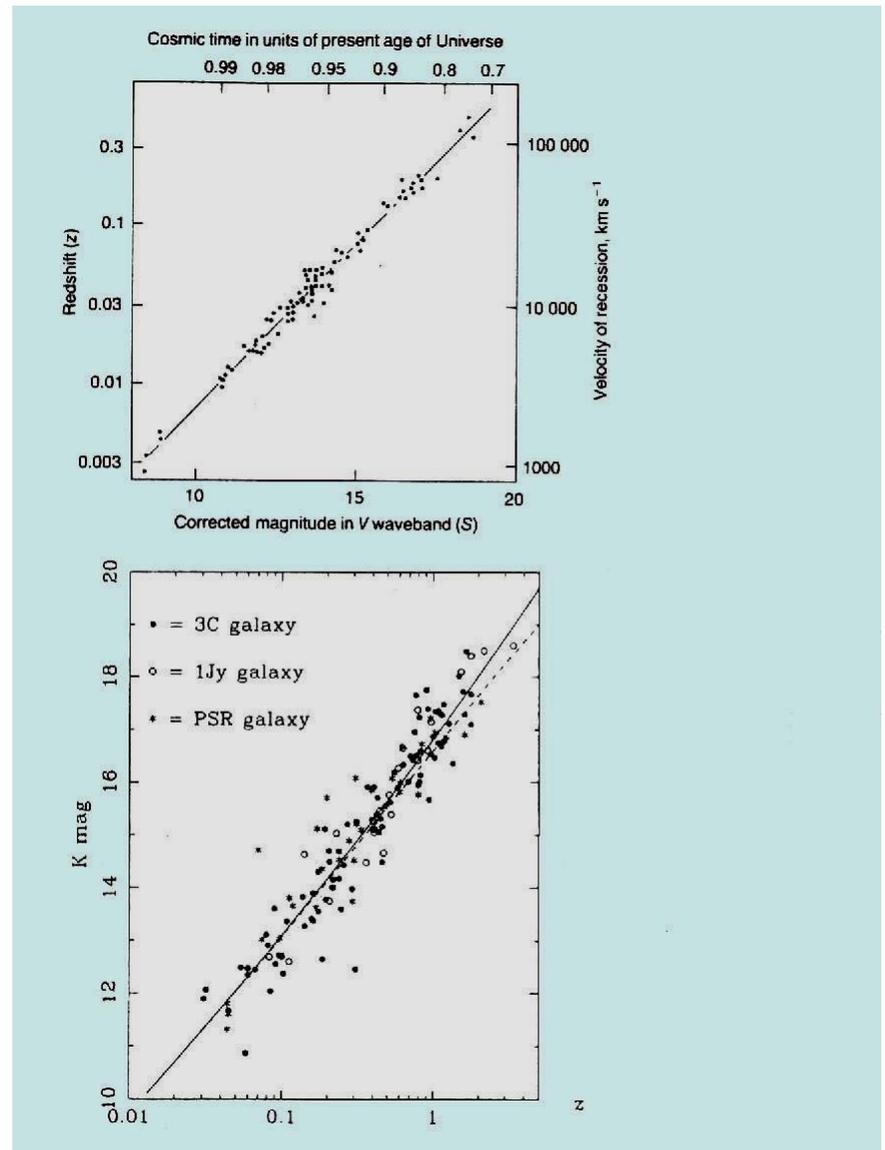


**emission-line spectra of galaxies;
white arrow indicates location of
H + K lines of calcium**

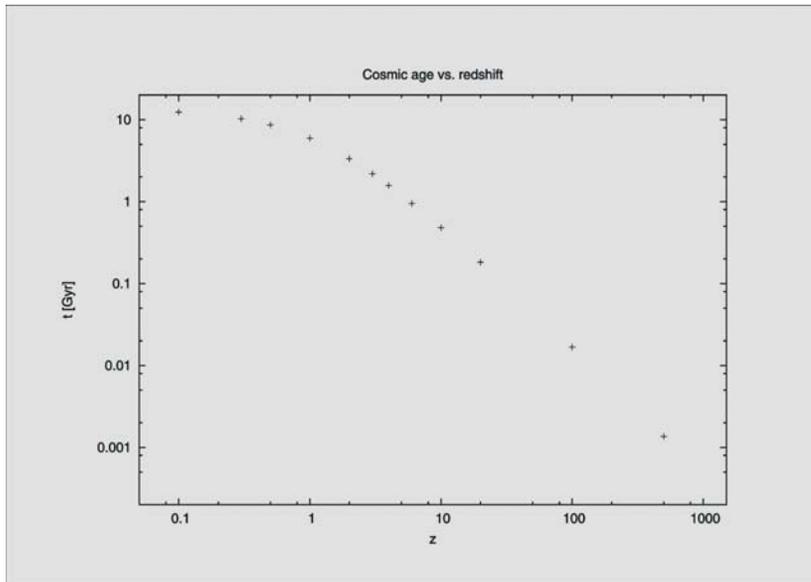
Hubble diagramme



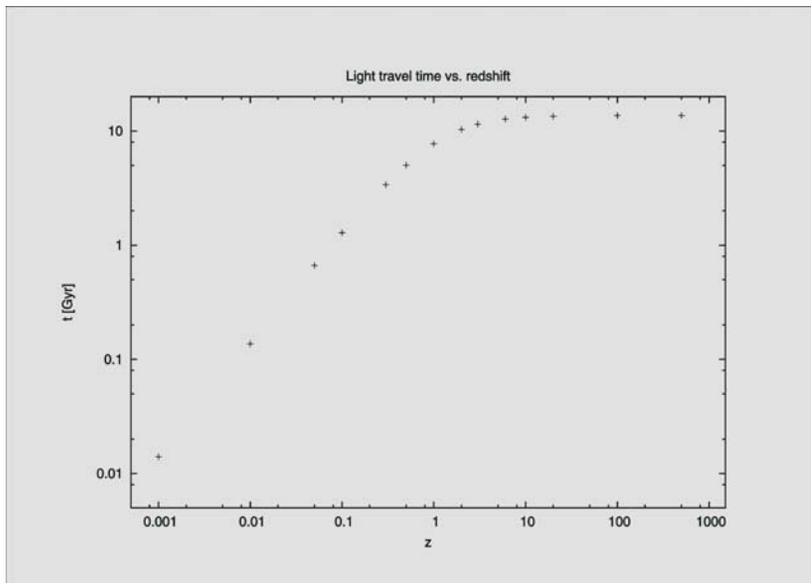
Old (top) and new (right) version of the Hubble diagram



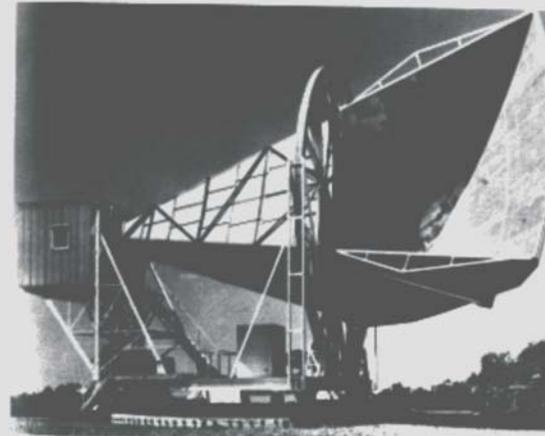
Age and size of universe



cosmic age versus redshift

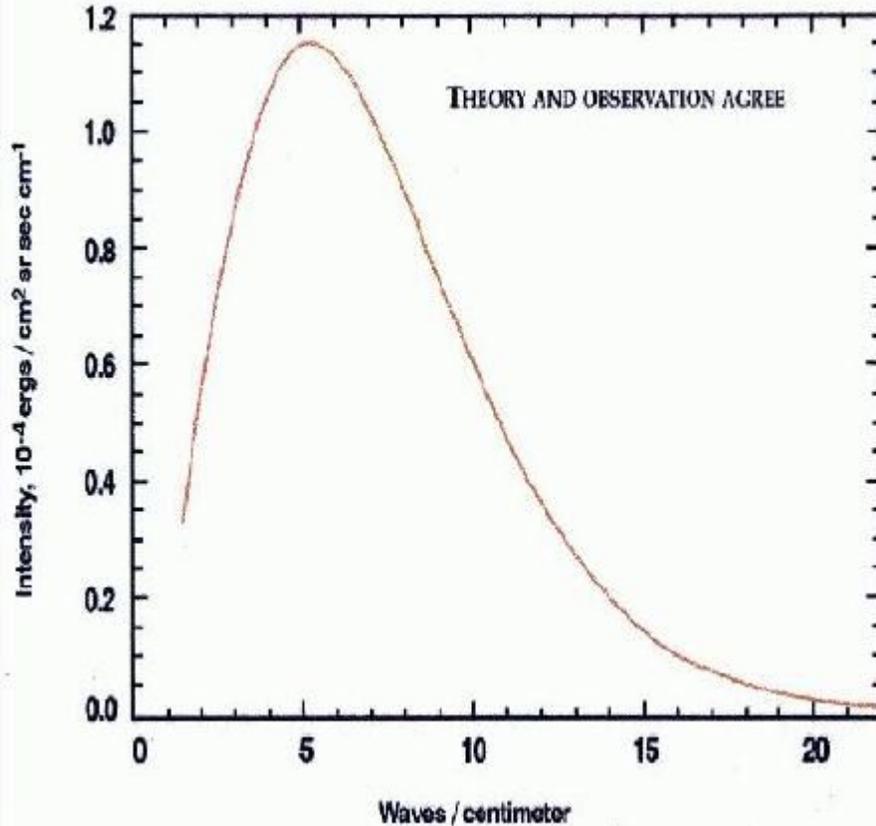


light travel time versus redshift

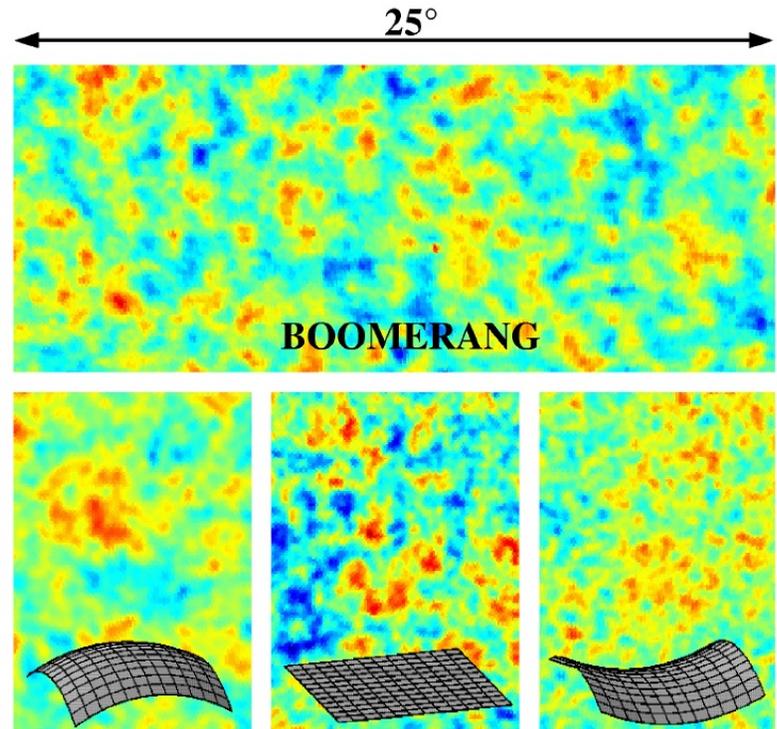


Penzias & Wilson with horn antenna

COSMIC MICROWAVE BACKGROUND SPECTRUM FROM COBE



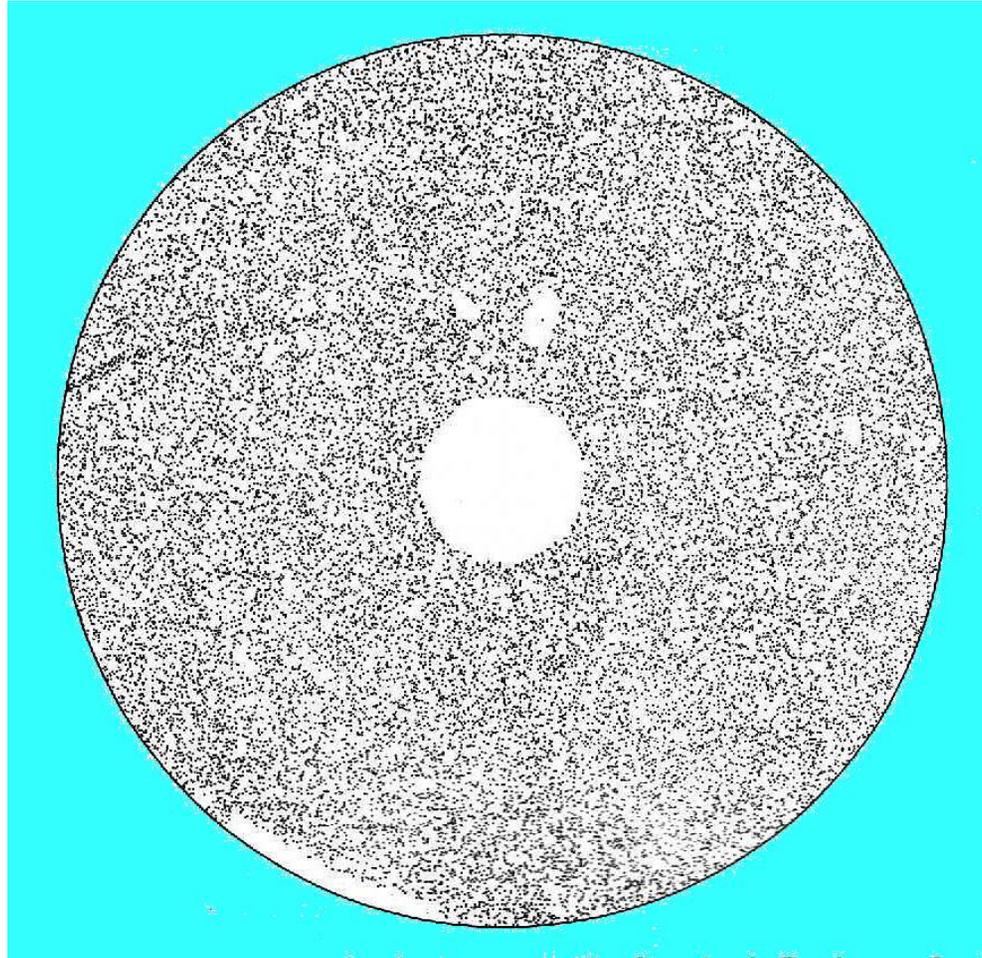
CMB spectrum



CMB anisotropies

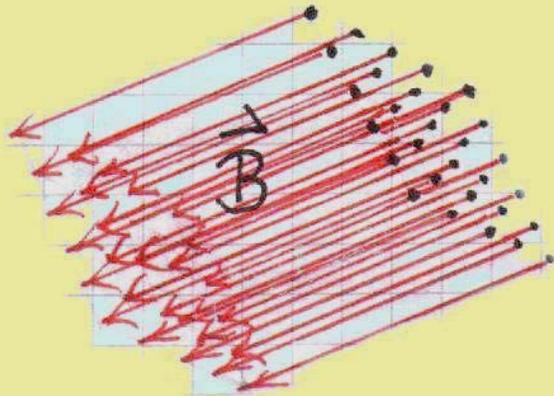
- top: measured by *Boomerang*
bottom: expected for closed (left)
flat (middle)
open (right) universe

Isotropy

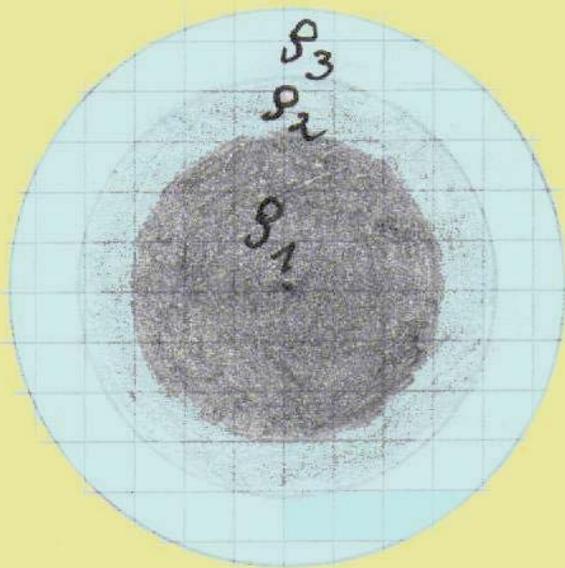


**radio sources probe large
scales**

Homogeneity & Isotropy



a homogeneous, but anisotropic universe ...



an isotropic, but inhomogeneous universe ...

Relevant constants, quantities, and units

Quantity	Symbol	Value
speed of light	c	$2.99792458 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1}$
light year	ly	$9.46 \cdot 10^{17} \text{ cm}$
parsec	pc	$3.09 \cdot 10^{18} \text{ cm}$
solar luminosity	L_{\odot}	$3.83 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ erg s}^{-1}$
solar mass	M_{\odot}	$1.99 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ g}$
Hubble parameter	H_0	$100 \cdot h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$
normalized	h	0.71 ± 0.07
Planck constant	h	$6.6261 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{ erg s}$
gravitational constant	G	$6.67259 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}$
Boltzmann constant	k	$1.38066 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ erg K}^{-1}$
Stefan-Boltzmann const.	σ	$5.66962 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ erg cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-4}$
proton mass	m_p	$1.6726 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ g}$
electron mass	m_e	$9.1094 \cdot 10^{-28} \text{ g}$
critical density	ρ_c	$1.879 \cdot 10^{-29} \cdot h^2 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ i.e. $11 \cdot h^2 \text{ protons m}^{-3}$
Planck mass	m_{pl}	$2.177 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ g}$
Planck time	t_{pl}	$5.391 \cdot 10^{-44} \text{ s}$
Planck length	l_{pl}	$1.616 \cdot 10^{-33} \text{ cm}$

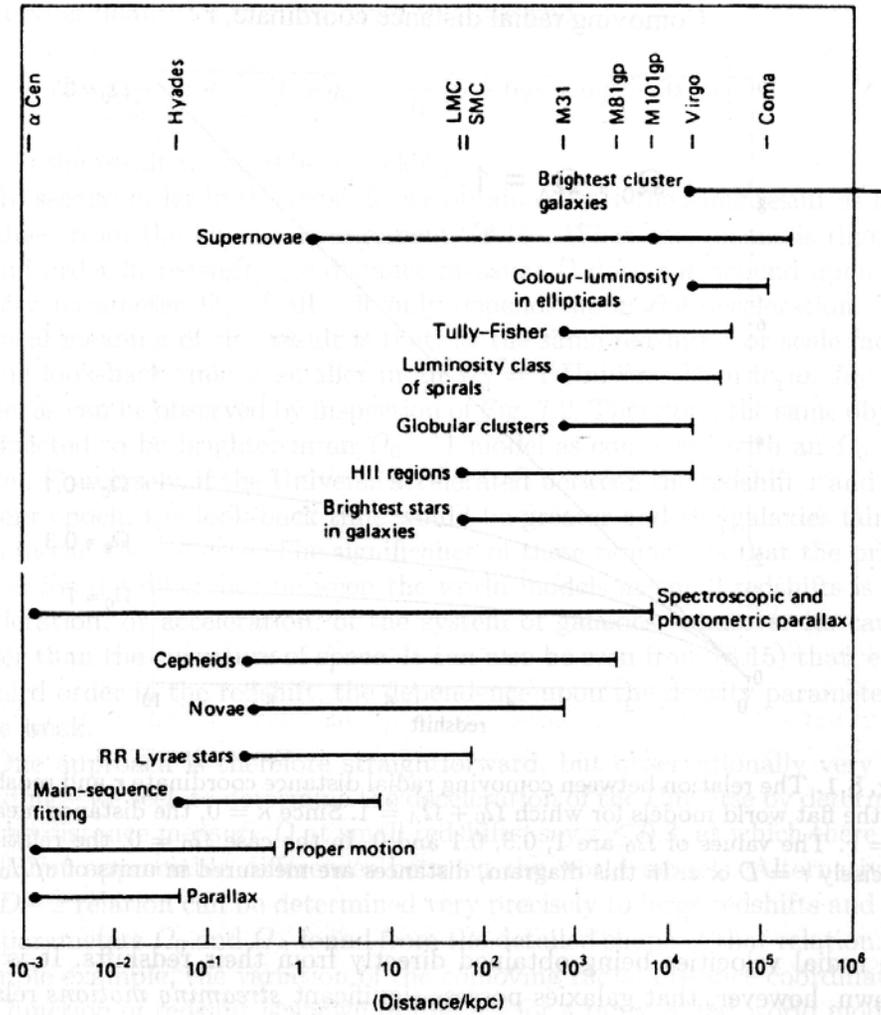
$$\rho_c = \frac{3 \cdot H_0^2}{8\pi \cdot G}$$

$$m_{pl} = \left(\frac{h}{2\pi \cdot c \cdot G} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$l_{pl} = \left(\frac{h}{2\pi \cdot c^3 \cdot G} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$t_{pl} = \left(\frac{h}{2\pi \cdot c^5 \cdot G} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

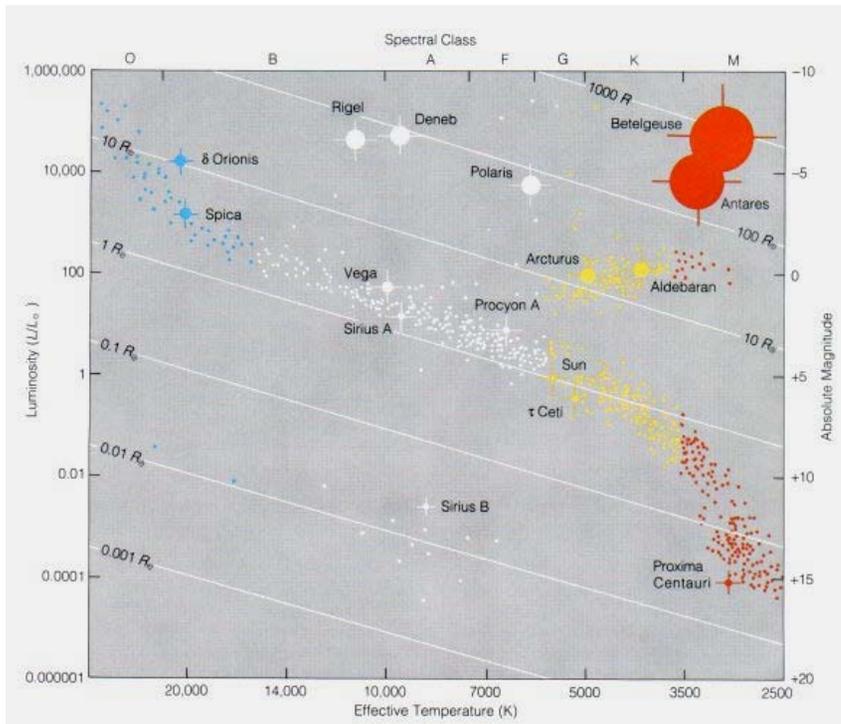
Cosmological distance ladder



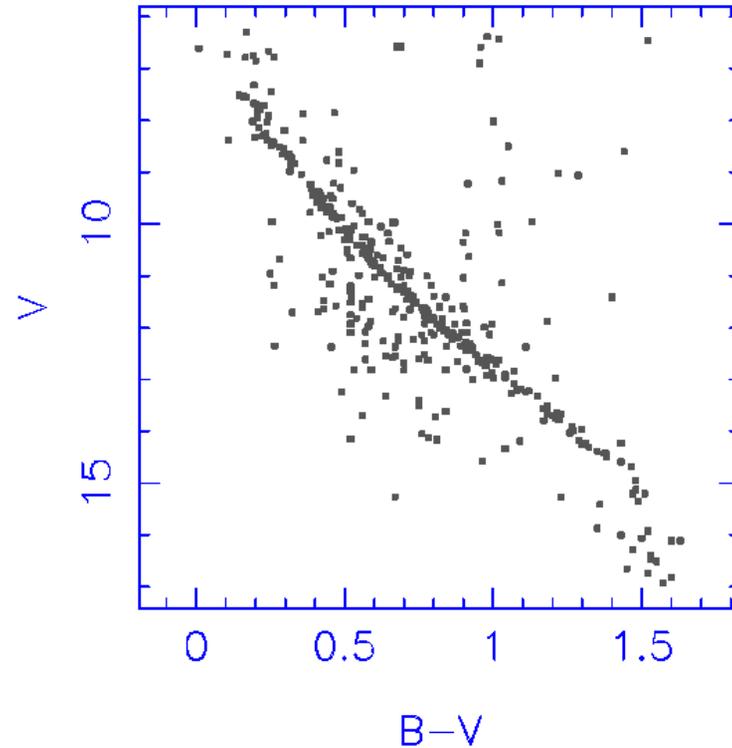
cosmological distance ladder from
~1 pc through >1 Gpc

note: supernovae (Type Ia) now
(2004) reach out to $z = 1.7!$

Spectroscopic parallax



Praesepe

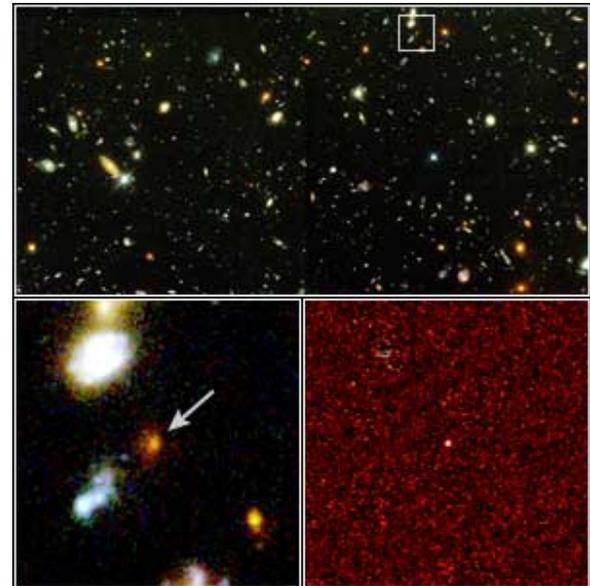


Supernovae Ia

To measure the expansion rate at large distances, we search for events that are very bright, and predictably so: **Type Ia Supernovae**.

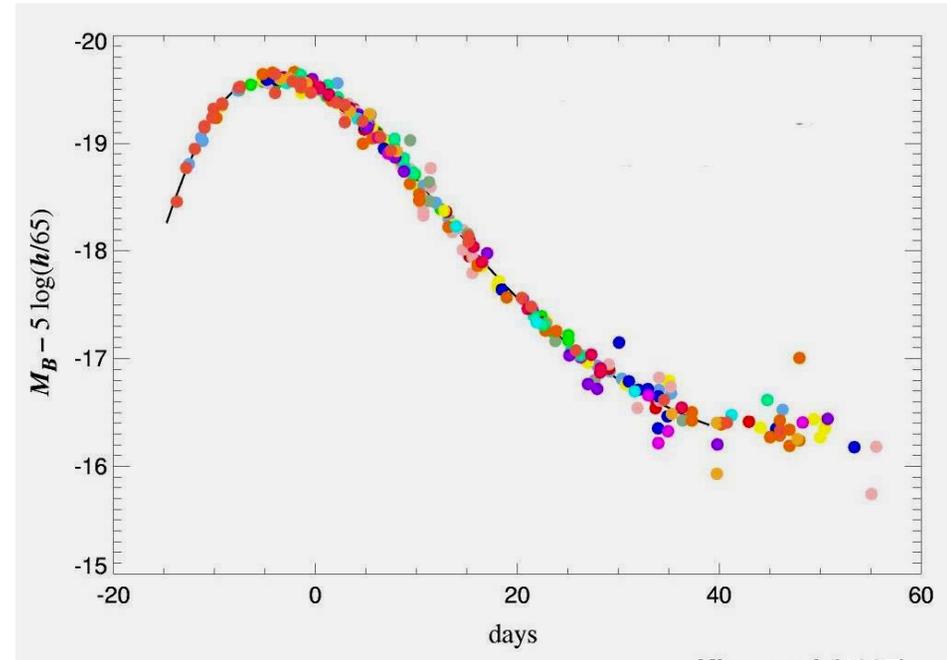
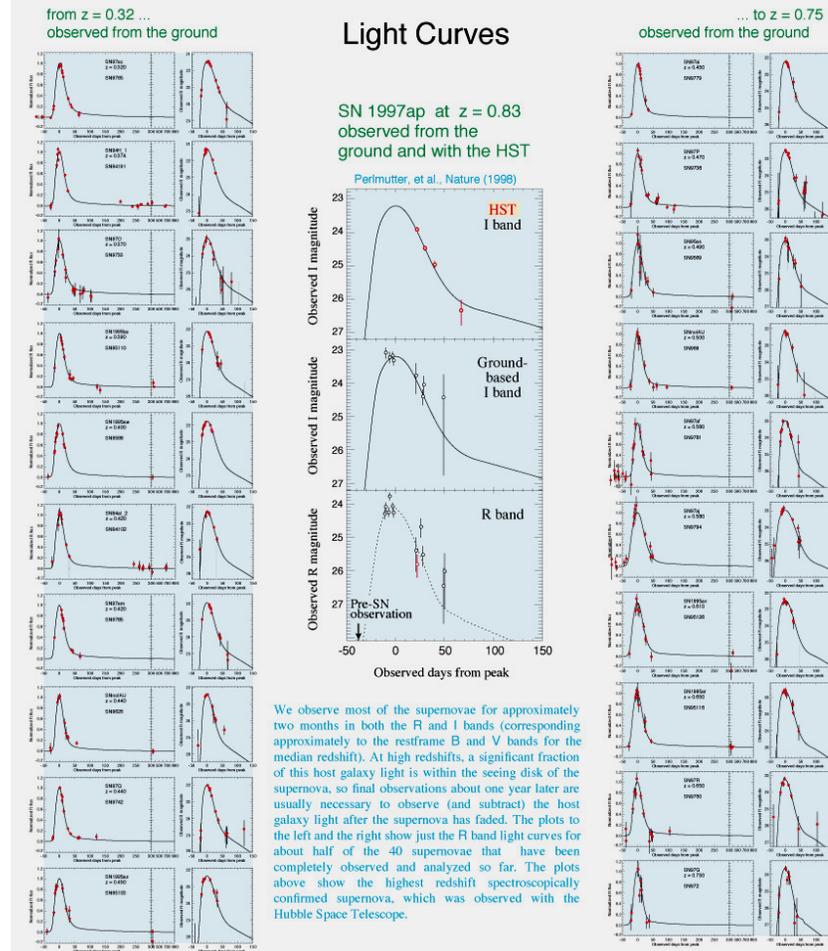


Matter gradually accretes onto a compact white dwarf star, until the gravitational pull becomes too great (at the Chandrasekhar limit) and the star collapses and explodes.



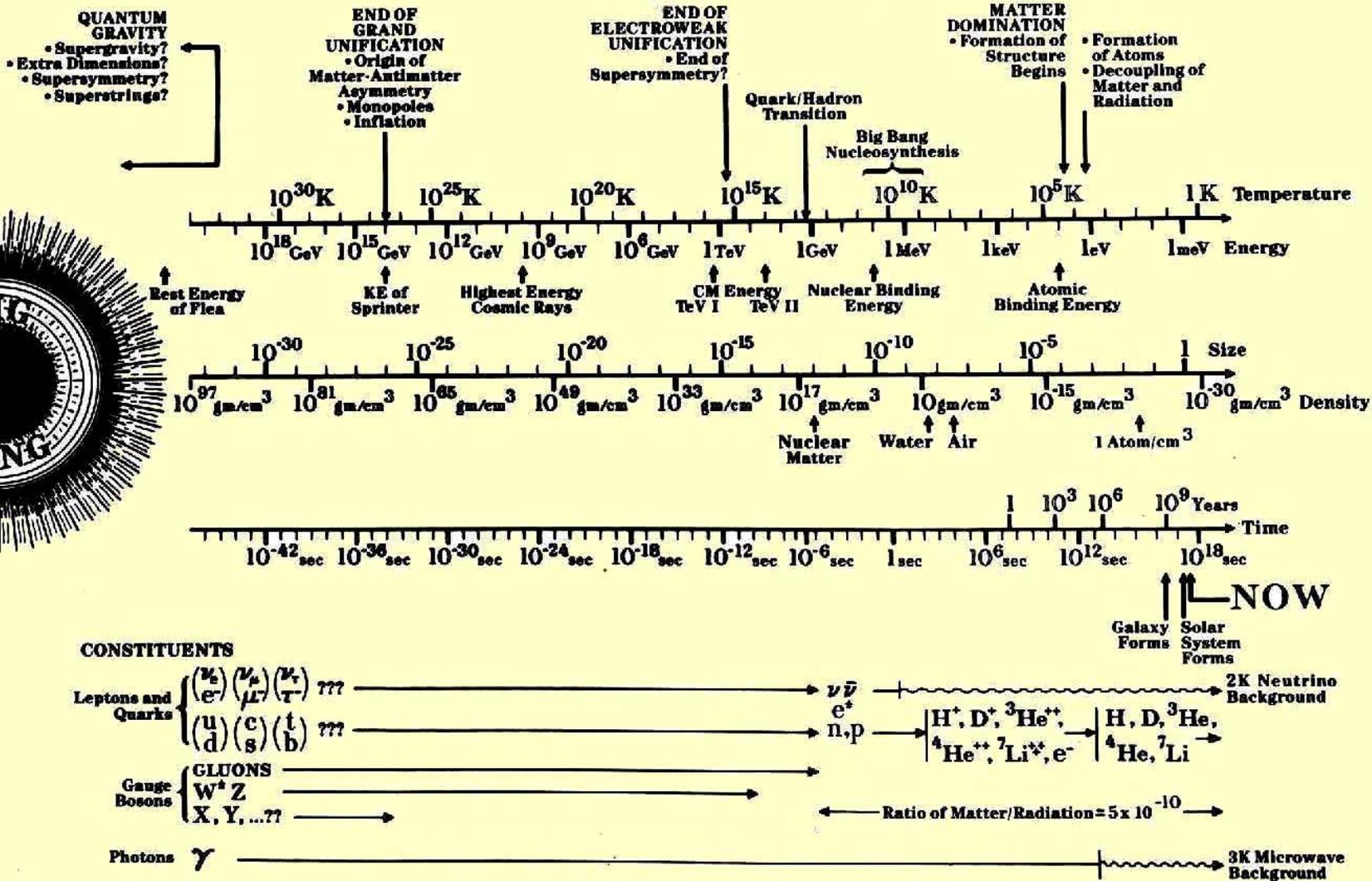
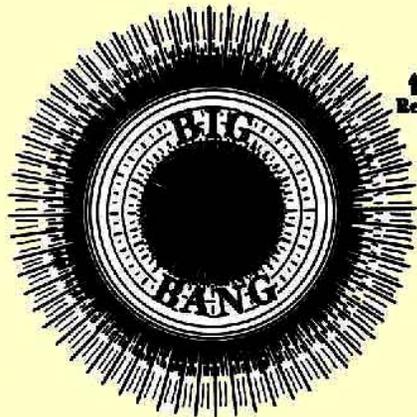
SN Ia as distance indicators

Type Ia Supernovae



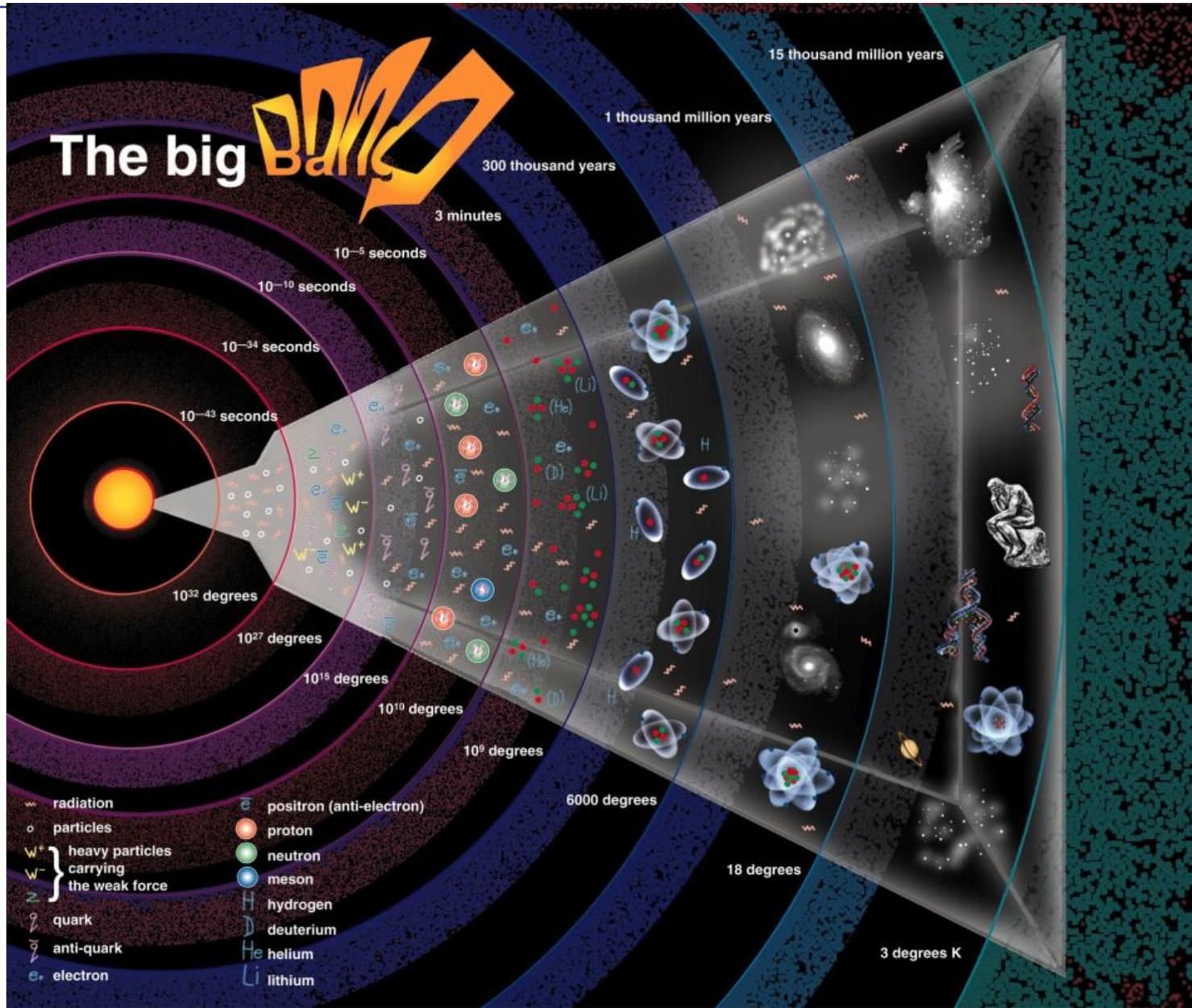
top: SN Ia light curves superimposed to same distance
left: raw light curves

Big Bang History



Fermilab, 1996

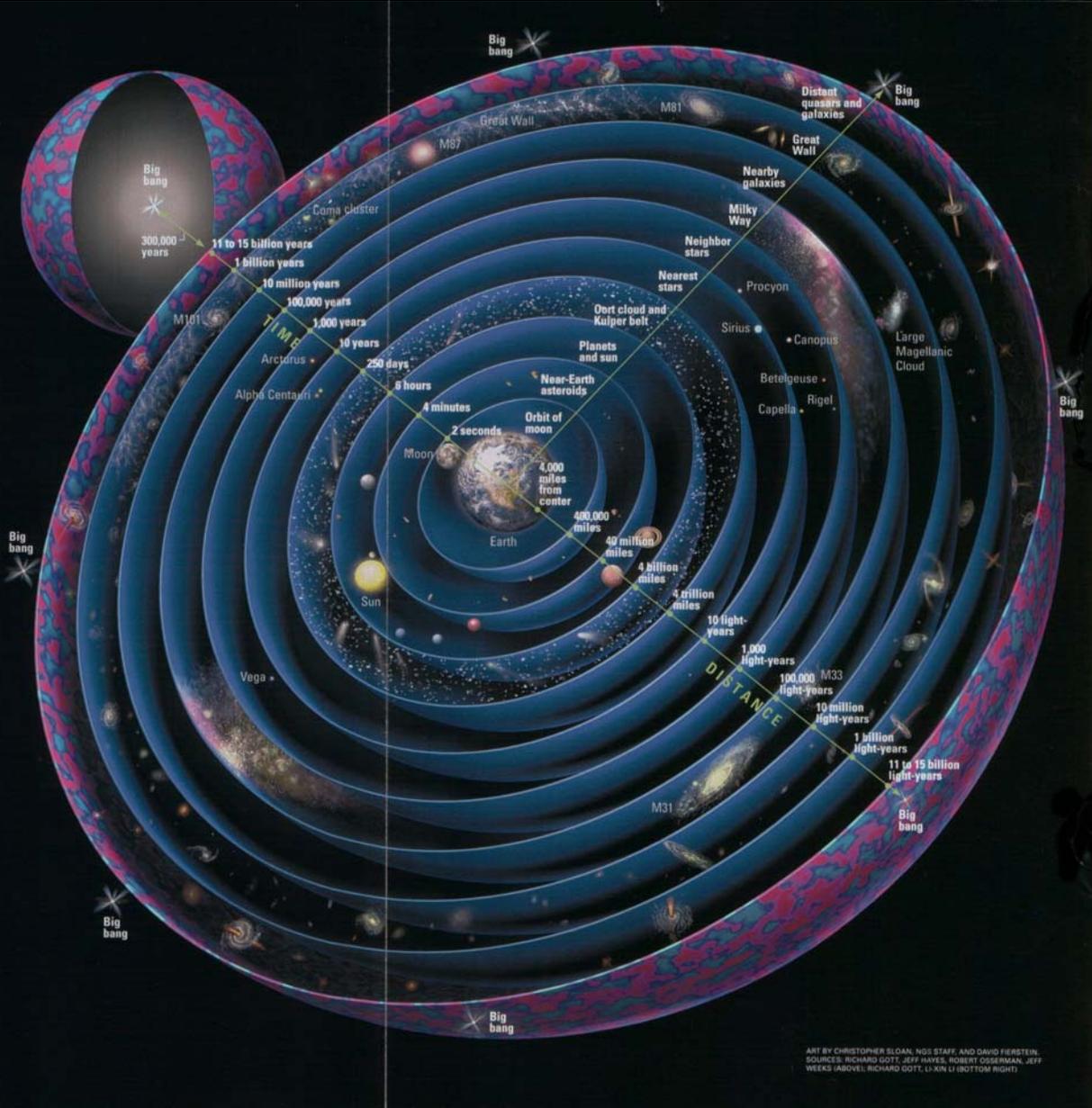
BB 'inside-out'



BB 'outside-in'

The view from Earth

The ancients had it wrong: The Earth is not the center of the universe. But the Earth *is* at the center of the part of the universe that we can see. A being on a planet orbiting, say, a star in the galaxy M87 would see a different part of the universe, one centered on him. In a universe thought to be 11 to 15 billion years old, we can see out a distance of 11 to 15 billion light-years in all directions. From the Earth's viewpoint at midnight GMT, January 1, 2000, the elements of the cosmos will appear as they do here (right). Distances are not shown to scale but increase dramatically as they become more remote. The farther out we look, the farther back in time we see. Light takes 50 million years to arrive from M87, so we see it as it appeared 50 million years ago. The limit of our view is the time when the universe emerged from a state of hot plasma and became transparent, some 300,000 years after the big bang. That period is seen as the glow of the microwave background (shown in red and blue). The portion of the big bang we could then observe would be a point of infinitesimal size and infinite density.



ART BY CHRISTOPHER SLOAN, NSI STAFF, AND DAVID FERSTEIN.
 SOURCES: RICHARD GOTT, JEFF HAYES, ROBERT GRISMAN, JEFF WEEKS (ABOVE); RICHARD GOTT, LI-XIN LI (BOTTOM RIGHT)