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Adapted coordinates for light signals in cosmology

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Adapted coordinates?



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A bit of history

1938 : Temple's "optical co-ordinates"

The use of optical co-ordinates considerably simplifies general optical theory in relativistic form. Fermat's Principle can be rigorously established and the treatment of the various astronomical determinations of distance can be put in a simple and concise form. Some previous discussions of these topics have been open to question in view of their unjustified use of Riemannian normal co-ordinates on the null cone of the base point. The general results obtained are applied to the case of greatest practical interest—the isotropic expanding universe.

1958 : Joseph's "optical co-ordinates"

The result established here is exact and invariant. It has been found convenient to use the physically significant system of coordinates known as optical coordinates (9) but the results are independent of this choice. The

Since $l^a l^a = 1$ by (2.4), the equations (2.3) define a transformation of coordinates from the system x^{μ} to "optical coordinates" (7) λ , τ , α , β (α , β being any two independent functions of l^a) in a domain D of space-time where the forward null geodesics through points on C do not intersect one another. Let the

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It should be realized that the optical coordinates λ , τ , α , β are observable quantities with direct physical significance in the sense that an operational procedure can be specified for measuring them. They are constructed in an invariant manner depending only on the choice of world line C, and not on any pre-existing coordinate system in space-time. τ , α , β can be realized by the single observer

a geodesic in Minkowskian space-time. With the world line C of the star as base line, the space-time metric can be written in optical coordinates as

$$ds^{2} = d\tau^{2} + 2 d\tau d\lambda - \lambda^{2} (d\alpha^{2} + \sin^{2} \alpha d\beta^{2}). \qquad (4.1)$$

1968 : Saunders "observer's polar coordinates"

In the cosmic co-ordinate system (1), unfortunately, the constants of equation (3) will in general vary from geodesic to geodesic within the pencil, and this makes the calculation of the partial derivatives $\partial k^{\alpha}/\partial x^{\alpha}$ difficult. It is therefore convenient to introduce a second co-ordinate system. Let P be an observer moving along some

normal triad. This co-ordinate system will be referred to as 'observer's polar co-ordinates'; except for a change in parametrization they are the same as the 'optical co-ordinates' of Joseph (1958). Note that in observer's polar co-ordinates Q_2 lies on a null geodesic Γ with $\bar{x}^a = \text{const.}$

null geodesics. The cosmic co-ordinates are Eulerian co-ordinates for this fluid, while the observer's polar co-ordinates are the Lagrangian co-ordinates. It is well

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1984 : Maartens detailed "observational coordinates"



Fig. 2. The <u>sim of observational cosmology</u>: to determine the space-time and its matter content, from the astronomical observations (using indirect observations to confirm the model thus arrived al). This is the inverse of the usual procedure, where cosmological models are used to predict observational relations, which are then compared with actual observations.

In order to carry out a systematic investigation, it is convenient to introduce observational coordinates (cf. Temple [26], Kristian and Sachs [1]). We base these coordinates on the world line C (representing the history of our galaxy). We assume this is a geodesic at the time when the observations are made (when we may assume p = 0). The coordinates $\{x^*\} = \{w, y, e, \phi\}$ are defined in the following



See also Bester, Larena, Bishop '13 & '15 for numerical applications.

The Geodesic Light-Cone (GLC) coordinates :

 $ds_{GLC}^2 = \Upsilon^2 dw^2 - 2\Upsilon dw d\tau + \gamma_{ab} (d\theta^a - U^a dw) (d\theta^b - U^b dw)$ (6 arbitrary functions : $\Upsilon, U^a, \gamma_{ab}$)

Properties :

- w is a null coordinate : $\partial_{\mu} w \ \partial^{\mu} w = 0$,
- ∂_μτ defines a geodesic flow : (∂^ντ) ∇_ν (∂_μτ) ≡ 0 (from g^{ττ}_{GLC} = −1) ,
 photons travel at (w, θ^a) = cst and their path is orthogonal to Σ(w, z).

Interpretation :

 Υ is like an **inhomogeneous scale factor** (lapse function), U^a is a shift-vector and γ_{ab} the metric inside the 2-sphere $\Sigma(\tau, w)$.

FLRW :
$$w = \eta + r$$
, $\tau = t$, $(\theta^1, \theta^2) = (\theta, \phi)$,
 $\Upsilon = a(t)$, $U^a = 0$, $\gamma_{ab} = a^2 r^2 \operatorname{diag}(1, \sin^2 \theta)$.



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Direct simplifications

$$\mathrm{d}s_{GLC}^2 = \Upsilon^2 \mathrm{d}w^2 - 2\Upsilon \mathrm{d}w \mathrm{d}\tau + \gamma_{ab} (\mathrm{d}\theta^a - U^a \mathrm{d}w) (\mathrm{d}\theta^b - U^b \mathrm{d}w)$$

 \Rightarrow Redshift perturbation :

$$(1+z_s) = \frac{(k^{\mu}u_{\mu})_s}{(k^{\mu}u_{\mu})_o} = \frac{(\partial^{\mu}w\partial_{\mu}\tau)_s}{(\partial^{\mu}w\partial_{\mu}\tau)_o} = \frac{\Upsilon(w_o,\tau_o,\theta^a)}{\Upsilon(w_o,\tau_s,\theta^a)} \equiv \frac{\Upsilon_o}{\Upsilon_s}$$

where $u_{\mu} = -\partial_{\mu}\tau$ is the peculiar velocity of the **comoving** observer/source and $k_{\mu} = \partial_{\mu}w$ is the photon momentum. Cf. 1202.1247.

 \Rightarrow (exact) Angular distance (with homogeneous observer neighborhood) :

$$d_A = \gamma^{1/4} \left(\sin \theta^1 \right)^{-1/2}$$
 with $\gamma \equiv \det(\gamma_{ab}) = |\det(g_{\text{GLC}})|/\Upsilon^2$

which, combined with the redshift, gives the distance-redshift relation.

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Hubble diagram

Magnitude :

$$m = -2.5 \log_{10}(\frac{\Phi}{\Phi_{\rm ref}})$$

Flux :

$$\Phi = \frac{L}{4\pi d_L^2}$$

Absolute Mag. :

$$M = -2.5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{\Phi(10 \text{pc})}{\Phi_{\text{ref(pc)}}} \right)$$

Distance Modulus :

$$\mu = m - M = 5\log_{10}(d_L) + cst$$

Two assumptions in SMC :

- GR valid on all scales,
- Isotropy + Homogeneity,
- \Rightarrow FLRW model.

Luminosity Distance (for K = 0) :

$$d_L^{FLRW}(z) = \frac{1+z}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{\mathrm{d}z'}{\left[\Omega_{\Lambda 0} + \Omega_{m0}(1+z')^3\right]^{1/2}}$$





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Distance-redshift relation at $\mathcal{O}(2)$

The GLC metric allows to compute the $d_L(z)$ relation to $\mathcal{O}(2)$ in NG :

$$ds_{NG}^2 = a^2(\eta) \left(-(1+2\Phi)\mathrm{d}\eta^2 + (1-2\Psi)(\mathrm{d}r^2 + \gamma_{ab}^{(0)}\mathrm{d}\theta^a\mathrm{d}\theta^b) \right)$$

with $\gamma_{ab}^{(0)} = r^2 \operatorname{diag}\left(1, \sin^2\theta\right)$, and $\Phi = \psi + \frac{1}{2}\phi^{(2)}$, $\Psi = \psi + \frac{1}{2}\psi^{(2)}$ (Bardeen).

 $\psi^{(2)}, \phi^{(2)} \propto \nabla^{-2} (\partial_i \psi \partial^i \psi) , \ \partial_i \psi \partial^i \psi$ (cf. Bartolo, Matarrese, Riotto, 2005)

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$$d_L(z_s, \theta^a) = d_L^{FLRW}(z_s) \left(1 + \delta_S^{(1)}(z_s, \theta^a) + \delta_S^{(2)}(z_s, \theta^a) \right)$$

At $\mathcal{O}(1)$:

$$\delta_S^{(1)}(z_s, \theta^a) \sim \text{SW} + \text{ISW} + \text{Doppler} - \left(\psi_s^{(1)} + \int_{\eta_+}^{\eta_-} \mathrm{d}x \ \psi\right) - \text{Lensing}^{(1)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Lensing}^{(1)} &= \frac{1}{2} \nabla_a \theta^{a(1)} = \int_{\eta_s^{(0)}}^{\eta_o} \frac{d\eta}{\Delta \eta} \frac{\eta - \eta_s^{(0)}}{\eta_o - \eta} \Delta_2 \psi(\eta, \eta_o - \eta, \bar{\theta}^a) \\ \text{Doppler} &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{\mathcal{H}_s \Delta \eta}\right) (\mathbf{v}_o - \mathbf{v}_s) \cdot \hat{n} \quad , \quad \mathbf{v} \equiv \int_{\eta_{\text{in}}}^{\eta} \mathrm{d}\eta' \frac{a(\eta')}{a(\eta)} \nabla \psi(\eta', r, \theta^a) \end{aligned}$$

At $\mathcal{O}(2)$, full calculation :

- **Dominant terms** : $(Doppler)^2$, $(Lensing)^2!!!$
- Combinations of $\mathcal{O}(1)$ -terms : ψ_s^2 , $([I]SW)^2$, $[I]SW \times Doppler$, $(\psi_s, \int_{n+}^{n-} dx \ \psi) \times (\text{Lensing}, [I]SW, \text{Doppler}) \dots$
- Genuine $\mathcal{O}(2)$ -terms : $\psi_s^{(2)}$, Lensing⁽²⁾ = $\frac{1}{2}\nabla_a \theta^{a(2)}$, $Q_s^{(2)}$...
- A LOT of other contributions : New integrated effects, Angle deformations, Redshift perturbations (\subset transverse peculiar velocity), Lens-Lens coupling, corrections to Born approximation, ... See 1209.4326, also Umeh 1402.1933.

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Stochastic average of inhomogeneous realizations

Inhomogeneities :

$$\psi(\eta, \vec{x}) = \int \frac{\mathrm{d}^3 k}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \ e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \psi_k(\eta) E(\vec{k})$$

with E a unit R.V. which is **homogeneous** $\left(E^*(\vec{k}) = E(-\vec{k})\right)$ and **gaussian** $\left(\overline{E(\vec{k})} = 0, \overline{E(\vec{k}_1)E(\vec{k}_2)} = \delta(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2)\right)$.

Spectrum :
$$|\psi_k(\eta)|^2 = 2\pi^2 \mathcal{P}_{\psi}(k)/k^3$$



Light-cone average is combined with a stochastic average. In CDM :

$$\overline{\langle d_L \rangle} = \int_0^\infty \frac{\mathrm{d}k}{k} \mathcal{P}_\psi(k) C(k\Delta\eta)$$

We do the same \forall terms in $\overline{\langle \delta_S^{(1)} \rangle}$ and $\overline{\langle \delta_S^{(2)} \rangle}$ in ACDM... with approximations. Kaiser & Peacock 2015 for precise discussion on 'directional' \leq 'source' averaging. The averaged modulus $\overline{\langle \mu \rangle}$ depends on $\langle (\Phi_1/\Phi_0)^2 \rangle$ while the standard deviation $\sigma_{\mu} = \sqrt{\overline{\langle \mu^2 \rangle} - \overline{\langle \mu \rangle}^2} = 2.5(\log_{10} e)\sqrt{\overline{\langle (\Phi_1/\Phi_0)^2 \rangle}}$ with $\overline{\langle (\Phi_1/\Phi_0)^2 \rangle} \sim \overline{\langle (\text{Doppler})^2 \rangle} + \overline{\langle (\text{Lensing}^{(1)})^2 \rangle}$



With the Union 2 dataset :

- small z : Velocities explain quite well the scatter.
- large z: Lensing is too weak to explain data's scatter ($\sim \% \Omega_{\Lambda 0}$).



- The total effect is well approximated by Doppler $(z \le 0.2)$ + Lensing (z > 0.3),
- Lensing prediction is in great agreement with experiments so far!
- Cf. Ben-Dayan 2014, 1401.7973 for effect on H_o .

Lensing quantities in GLC coordinates

Amplification matrix $((...)^{\bullet} \equiv \partial_{\tau}(...))$: $\mathcal{A}_{B}^{A}(\lambda_{s}, \lambda_{o}) = \frac{s_{a}^{A}(\lambda_{s}) \left[2u_{\tau}(\dot{\gamma}_{ab})^{-1}\right]_{o} s_{b}^{B}(\lambda_{o})}{\bar{d}_{A}(\lambda_{s})}$ $= \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \kappa - \hat{\gamma}_{1} & -\hat{\gamma}_{2} + \hat{\omega} \\ -\hat{\gamma}_{2} - \hat{\omega} & 1 - \kappa + \hat{\gamma}_{1} \end{pmatrix}$



The angular distance and lensing quantities become :

$$d_A \propto (\gamma \gamma_o)^{1/4}$$
 , $\hat{\mu} = (\det \mathcal{A})^{-1} = \left(\frac{\bar{d}_A}{d_A}\right)^2$,

involving $\bar{d}_A = a(\tau)r$ with $r = w - \int a^{-1}(\tau) d\tau$ measured from the observer,

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \left(1-\kappa\right)^{2}+\hat{\omega}^{2}\\ \hat{\gamma}_{1}^{2}+\hat{\gamma}_{2}^{2}\end{array}\right\} = \left(\frac{u_{\tau_{o}}}{\bar{d}_{A}}\right)^{2} \left\{\left[\frac{\gamma\,\dot{\gamma}_{ab}\gamma^{bc}\dot{\gamma}_{cd}}{\left(\det^{ab}\,\dot{\gamma}_{ab}\right)^{2}}\right]_{o}\gamma\,\gamma^{ad}\pm 2\frac{\sqrt{\gamma\,\gamma_{o}}}{\left(\det^{ab}\,\dot{\gamma}_{ab}\right)_{o}}\right\}\right\}$$

Examples of applications :

Study of the **inhomogeneous** Lemaître-Tolman-Bondi spacetime (LTB) with off-center observer (*Fanizza, Nugier 2014*, 1408.1604) :

- non-perturbative d_A , κ , $|\hat{\gamma}|$, $\hat{\mu}$ in terms of LTB coordinates (t, r, θ, ϕ) ,
- numerical resolution of t(z), r(z) with ansatz for $H_o(r) \Rightarrow$ plots of lensing quantities wrt observation angle from the bubble center.

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Study of an **anisotropic** spacetime, Bianchi I (*Fleury, Nugier, Fanizza 2016* arXiv :1602.0446) :

- precise residual gauge fixing conditions for GLC coordinates,
- d_A and GLC functions written in terms of Bianchi I coordinates,
- numerical calculations indicate a violation of the flux conservation ! $\langle \hat{\mu}^{-1} \rangle_{\Omega} \equiv \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \hat{\mu}^{-1}(\tau_{\text{fixed}}, w_{\text{o}}, \theta^{a}) \, \mathrm{d}^{2}\Omega \neq 1 \text{ with } \hat{\mu} = (\bar{d}_{A}/d_{A})^{2} = \Phi/\bar{\Phi}$

$$\mathrm{d}s_{\mathrm{BI}}^2 = -\mathrm{d}t^2 + a^2(t)e^{2\beta_i(t)}\delta_{ij}\mathrm{d}x^i\mathrm{d}x^i$$



Axisymmetric Bianchi I $\beta_i = (\beta, \beta, -2\beta)$ filled by dust and $\Lambda = 0$.

Associating FLRW with Bianchi I : either identifying H_0 (solid), or identifying ρ_0 (dashed).

Curves are first ≥ 0 and then ≤ 0 .

Here we find that
$$\langle \hat{\mu}^{-1} \rangle_{\Omega} - 1 \sim \Omega_{\sigma 0} \equiv \frac{(a/a_0)^2}{6\mathcal{H}_0^2} \sum_i (\partial_\eta \beta_i)^2$$

 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(2)$ -violation of $\langle \hat{\mu}^{-1} \rangle_{\Omega} = 1$ from large-scale anisotropy of Bianchi I!

Similar to inhom. Swiss-Cheese (Lavinto, Räsänen 2013), but not like perturbative approaches for which $\langle \hat{\mu}^{-1} \rangle_{\Omega} - 1 = \mathcal{O}(4)$ (Ben-Dayan 2013, Bonvin 2015). Low $z \sim$ Malmquist-like bias (Kaiser & Hudson 2015).

Double Light-Cone (DLC) coordinates

GLC for which we replace τ by a future null coordinate w_u !

$$\mathrm{d}s_{GLC}^2 = \Upsilon^2 \mathrm{d}w^2 - 2\Upsilon \mathrm{d}w \mathrm{d}\tau + \gamma_{ab} (\mathrm{d}\theta^a - U^a \mathrm{d}w) (\mathrm{d}\theta^b - U^b \mathrm{d}w)$$

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 $\mathrm{d}s_{\mathrm{DLC}}^2 = -\widetilde{\Upsilon}^2 \mathrm{d}w_u \mathrm{d}w_v + \gamma_{ab} (\mathrm{d}\theta^a - \widetilde{U}^a \mathrm{d}w_v) (\mathrm{d}\theta^b - \widetilde{U}^b \mathrm{d}w_v)$

$$\begin{split} \widetilde{U}^{a} &\equiv \gamma^{ab} \widetilde{U}_{b} = U^{a} + \Upsilon \gamma^{ab} \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial \theta^{b}} \quad , \\ \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial w_{u}} &= \frac{\widetilde{\Upsilon}^{2}}{2\Upsilon} \quad , \quad \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial w_{v}} = \frac{\Upsilon}{2} - \widetilde{U}^{a} \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial \theta^{a}} + \frac{\Upsilon}{2} \gamma^{ab} \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial \theta^{a}} \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial \theta^{b}} \quad . \\ g^{\rm GLC}_{\mu\nu} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\Upsilon & \vec{0} \\ -\Upsilon & \gamma^{2} + U^{2} & -U_{b} \\ -U_{a}^{T} & \gamma_{ab} \end{pmatrix} \quad , \quad g^{\mu\nu}_{\rm GLC} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -\Upsilon^{-1} & -U^{b}/\Upsilon \\ -\Upsilon^{-1} & 0 & \vec{0} \\ -(U^{a})^{T}/\Upsilon & \vec{0}^{T} & \gamma^{ab} \end{pmatrix} \quad , \end{split}$$

 $g^{\rm DLC}_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1^{-}/2 & 0\\ -\tilde{\Upsilon}^2/2 & \tilde{U}^2 & -\tilde{U}_b\\ \vec{0}^T & -\tilde{U}_a^T & \gamma_{ab} \end{pmatrix} \quad , \quad g^{\mu\nu}_{\rm DLC} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2/\Upsilon^2 & -2U^o/\Upsilon^2\\ -2/\tilde{\Upsilon}^2 & 0 & \vec{0}\\ -2(\tilde{U}^a)^T/\tilde{\Upsilon}^2 & \vec{0}^T & \gamma^{ab} \end{pmatrix} \quad .$

See Nugier 2016, arXiv :1606.08296.

Properties of DLC coordinates

- Share the advantages of GLC (e.g. z_s still given by Υ_o/Υ_s)
- Can describe static black holes (also Kerr?)
- Can describe **trajectories** around static BHs
- Can derive the **time delay between UR particles** (like done in GLC in *Fanizza, Gasperini, Marozzi, Veneziano 2016*, arXiv :1512.0848)
- w_u is well defined from GLC coordinates considering perturbations around an FLRW spacetime.

They are **equivalent to the double-null coordinates** of *Brady, Droz, Israel and Morsink 1995* after a gauge fixing!

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Conclusions

Applications of GLC coordinates :

- luminosity distance at $\mathcal{O}(2)$, inhomogeneities effect on Hubble diagram, weak lensing, averaging on our past light cone,
- Specific models : LTB and Bianchi I.
- Link to **Double-Null coordinates**! $(\tau \rightarrow w_u)$
- Number counts and bispectrum at $\mathcal{O}(2)$ (Di Dio *et al.* 1407.0376, 1510.04202)!!!
- Time-of-flight of ultra-relativistic particles.
- \Rightarrow Good coordinates to handle light signals!



Adapted systems of coordinates are very useful! © But not often employed in calculations ©...

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Collaborators :

- G. Veneziano, G. Marozzi, M. Gasperini, P. Fleury, G. Fanizza, I. Ben-Dayan,
- Other researches : B. Metcalf, P. Chen, Hsu-Wen Chiang, E. Romano.

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