

Lecture 13, 2018-10-11

①

convention: $\frac{d}{dt} r(t) \equiv \dot{r}(t) \equiv \dot{r}$ (time dependence implicit)

universe is expanding!

\Rightarrow Recession velocity $v(t) = \frac{d}{dt} r(t) =$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} [a(t) \cdot x] = \dot{a} \cdot x = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \cdot r$$

physical distance

$\frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)} \equiv H(t)$ Hubble parameter

(simplified notation: $\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = H$)

today: $t = t_0 \Rightarrow H(t_0) \equiv H_0 = \frac{\dot{a}(t_0)}{a(t_0)}$

H_0 is the Hubble constant

cepheids $\Rightarrow H_0 \approx (70 \pm 3) \text{ km/s per MPC}$

Other convention (historical): $H_0 = h \cdot 100 \text{ km/s MPC}^{-1}$

$\Rightarrow h = 0.70 \pm 0.03$ (see formula sheet)

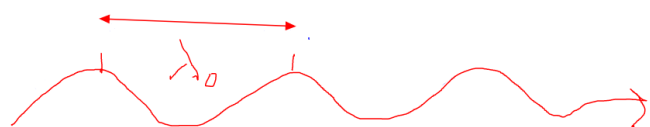
Using general relativity (see Liddle p. 129) one can show

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

λ_e : emitted wavelength

λ_o : observed - " -

Very general formula (valid also for high z)



"stretching" of light-waves \Rightarrow red-shift

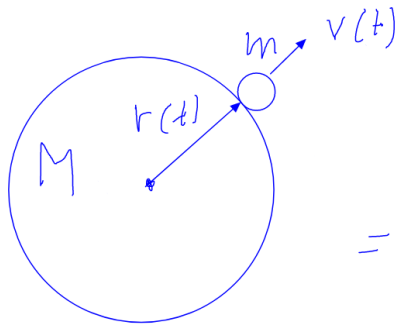
The Friedmann equation

(2)

(see Liddle 3.1) Newtonian treatment (gives right result!):

Assume homogenous sphere of density $\rho(t)$.

Radius $r(t)$. How will velocity of m (small test mass) change?
 $v(t) = \dot{r}(t)$, look at energy situation



Mass within r : $M(t) = \frac{4\pi}{3} r^3(t) \cdot \rho(t)$

Pot. energy $V(t) = -\frac{G_N M(t)m}{r(t)} + \text{const} =$
 $= -\frac{4\pi G_N}{3} r^2(t) \rho(t) m$ G_N : Newton's constant
 \nearrow choose = 0

Kin. energy $T(t) = \frac{1}{2} m v^2(t) = \frac{1}{2} m \dot{r}^2$; write $r(t) = a(t) \cdot x$

$\dot{r}(t) = \dot{a}(t) \cdot x$

Total energy $\bar{U} = T + \bar{V} = \frac{1}{2} m \dot{a}^2 x^2 - \frac{4\pi G_N}{3} a^2 x^2 \rho m =$

$= m (ax)^2 \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 - \frac{4\pi G_N}{3} \rho \right]$

$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G_N}{3} \rho(t) + \frac{2\bar{U}}{m(ax)^2}$

\uparrow depend only on time

\Rightarrow this must be indep. of x

$\Rightarrow \bar{U} \sim x^2$; Put $\frac{2\bar{U}}{m x^2} = -kc^2$ (This is a bit strange, but leads to the GR result)

$\Rightarrow H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G_N}{3} \rho(t) - \frac{kc^2}{a^2}$

The Friedmann eqn.

Formula sheet: $\rho \rightarrow \rho_m + \rho_r$ (matter + radiation)

Another constant $\frac{\Lambda}{3}$ is added ("dark energy" - cosm. const.)

$\frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_e} = 1+z$; $\frac{\rho_m(t)}{\rho_m(t_0)} = \frac{a^3(t_0)}{a^3(t)} = (1+z)^3$ dilution (see later)

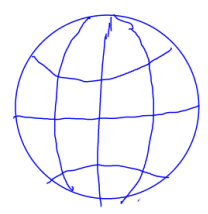
In similar way, $\frac{\rho_r(t)}{\rho_r(t_0)} \sim 1/a^4(t) \sim (1+z)^4$ dilution + redshift

Friedmann eqn:

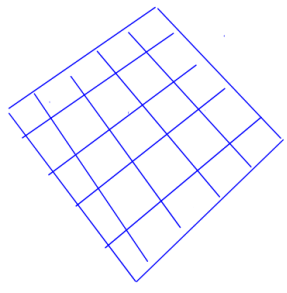
$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G_N}{3}(\rho_m + \rho_r) - \frac{kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$k = \frac{-2U}{m^2 c^2 x^2}$ determines the geometry of the universe

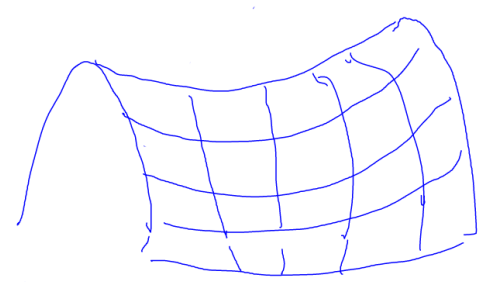
$k > 0$ "closed" 2-dim analogy: sphere finite radius



$k = 0$ plane infinite



$k < 0$ saddle infinite



sum of angles of triangle on sphere is $> 180^\circ$



sum is $= 180^\circ$



sum is $< 180^\circ$

The distances can be written as

$$d\bar{r}^2 = a^2 \left(\frac{dx^2}{1-kx^2} + x^2 d\varphi^2 \right)$$

$k=0$ plane
 $k=1$ sphere

$k=-1$ saddle

[check: plane, use polar coordinates ρ, φ

$$d\bar{r}^2 = d\rho^2 + \rho^2 d\varphi^2; \text{ let } \rho = a \cdot x \Rightarrow d\bar{r}^2 = a^2 (dx^2 + x^2 d\varphi^2)]$$

Relativity \Rightarrow space-time is defined by

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2 \left(\frac{dx^2}{1-kx^2} + x^2 d\varphi^2 \right) \quad \text{2D+time}$$

$$\text{3D+time} \Rightarrow ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2 \left(\frac{dr^2}{1-kr^2} + r^2 d\Omega^2 \right) \quad d\Omega^2 = \sin^2\theta d\theta^2 + d\varphi^2$$

From now on, choose $c=1$ (i.e. measure all velocities in units of $3 \cdot 10^8$ m/s) and for the moment put $\Lambda=0$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Friedmann eqn. } \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(t) - \frac{k}{a^2(t)}$$

$\rho_m(t) + \rho_r(t)$

But, how does ρ depend on time?

Need "fluid equations", can be derived for adiabatic gas:

$$\frac{dE}{dt} + p \frac{dV}{dt} = 0 \quad (\text{I})$$

For unit of co-moving volume $V = \frac{4\pi}{3} a^3 \cdot x^3$ (4)
 $\frac{dV}{dt} = 4\pi a^2 \dot{a}$ $E = \bar{v} \cdot f$
 $\underbrace{= 1}_{\text{unit volume}}$

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = 4\pi a^2 \dot{a} f + \frac{4\pi}{3} a^3 \dot{f}$$

$$p \cdot \frac{dV}{dt} = p \cdot 4\pi a^2 \dot{a}; \quad (I) \Rightarrow \frac{dE}{dt} + p \frac{dV}{dt} = 0$$

$$= \cancel{4\pi a^2 \dot{a} f} + \frac{4\pi}{3} a^3 \dot{f} + p \cdot \cancel{4\pi a^2 \dot{a}} = 0$$

Multiply by $\frac{3}{a} \Rightarrow \dot{f} + 3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)(f+p) = 0$

n : number density, $f = m \cdot n$ ↑ this is really $\frac{f}{c^2}$

Ideal gas, $p = \frac{1}{3} n \langle \vec{v} \cdot \vec{p} \rangle \sim f v^2$. For matter on the universe (in galaxies, clusters, etc) $v/c \sim 10^{-3} \Rightarrow \frac{p}{c^2} \approx 0$

Thus, for matter, $\dot{f} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a} f = 0$ ($p=0$)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\dot{f}}{f} = -3\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \Rightarrow \ln f = -3 \ln a + \text{const}$$

Exponentiate! $\Rightarrow f = \frac{f_0}{a^3}$ \because If $M = M_0 = \text{const}$, $f = \frac{M_0}{V} \sim \frac{M_0}{a^3(t)}$
 (dilution)

If $p \neq 0$; say $p = w \cdot f$ (Equation of state)

then in a similar way (do this!) $\frac{\dot{f}}{f} = -3(1+w)\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)$

$$\Rightarrow f \sim \frac{1}{a^{3(1+w)}} \quad \text{Ex: radiation, } p = \frac{f}{3} = \frac{f}{3} \Rightarrow w = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow f_r \sim \frac{1}{a^{3(1+\frac{1}{3})}} = \frac{1}{a^4}$$

(redshift, $E = h\nu$; $c = \lambda \cdot \nu \Rightarrow \nu$ decreases and therefore the energy $h\nu$)
 As we had guessed!

Look first at $k=0$ "flat" universe (in 3D)

$$H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G_N}{3} \rho(t), \text{ where } \rho(t) = \frac{\rho(t_0)}{a^3(t)} \quad (a(t_0) = 1 \text{ chosen})$$

thus, $\ddot{a}^2 a = \frac{8\pi G_N}{3} \rho_0 = \text{const}$

How to find time dependence of a , $a=a(t)$?

Have to solve $\ddot{a}^2 a = \text{const}$

Ansatz: $a(t) = t^q \quad \dot{a} = q t^{q-1} \sim t^{q-1}$

$\ddot{a}^2 a = t^{2(q-1)} \cdot t^q = \text{const} = t^0$

$\Rightarrow 2q-2+q=0 \Rightarrow q = \frac{2}{3} \Rightarrow a(t) \sim t^{\frac{2}{3}}$

For radiation, $\rho_r \sim \frac{1}{a^4}$ similarly $a(t) \sim t^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{t}$

Age of the Universe

Matter domination ($\rho_m \gg \rho_r$) $a \sim t^{\frac{2}{3}}$

$H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{\frac{2}{3} t^{-\frac{1}{3}}}{t^{\frac{2}{3}}} = \frac{2}{3t}$; $t=t_0 \Rightarrow H=H_0 = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \sim 2.3 \cdot 10^{-18} \text{ s}^{-1}$

$H_0 = \frac{2}{3t_0} \Rightarrow t_0 = \frac{2}{3H_0} = \frac{2}{3 \cdot 2.3 \cdot 10^{-18}} \text{ s} = 3 \cdot 10^{17} \text{ s} \sim 10^{10} \text{ years}$

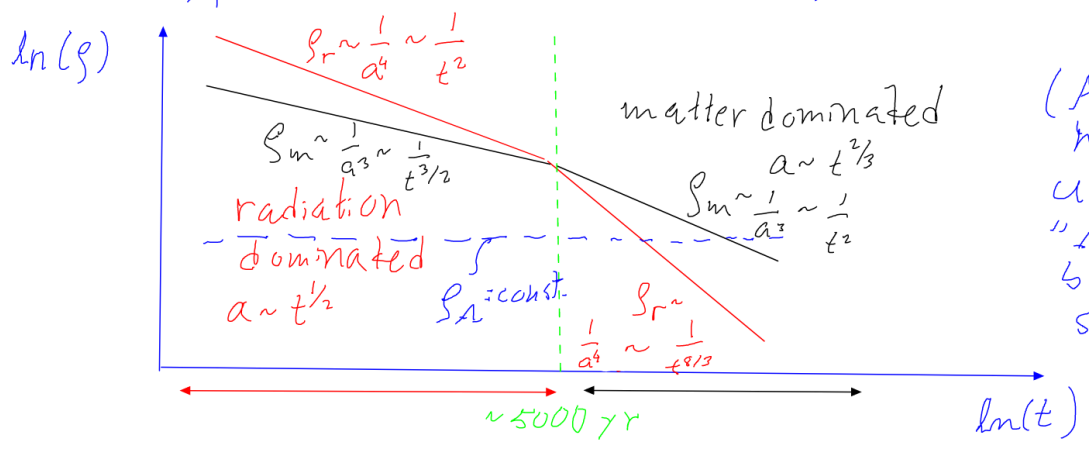
How important is radiation?

At present time, it is very small, CMB $\Rightarrow \rho_r / \rho_m \sim 10^{-5}$

However, $\frac{\rho_r}{\rho_m} \sim \frac{(\frac{1}{a^4})}{(\frac{1}{a^3})} \sim \frac{1}{a} \Rightarrow$ In earliest univ. $a \rightarrow 0$ radiation dominated

Curvature $-\frac{k}{a^2} \Rightarrow$ completely negligible in early univ.

(Also, present data indicate $k \sim 0$)



(Actually, as we have said, the universe is now Λ dominated, but this is for very small $z \approx 2$)