

QFT for Cosmology, Achim Kempf, Lecture 20

Note Title

How could an initial temporary strong inflation have been caused?

$V(\phi)$ temporarily very large

□ Consider a universe like ours.

Everywhere, at all times, all fields quantum fluctuate.

□ As a rare fluke, the field ϕ quantum fluctuates in a patch a few Planck lengths in size

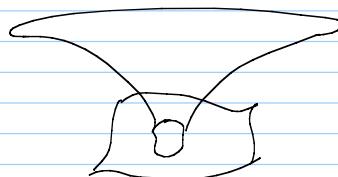


to a ϕ value that makes $V(\phi)$ close to the Planck scale.

(Assume homogeneity in that patch, so that the $\partial_i \phi$ are small)

□ In this patch, $V(\phi)$ is dominant and impacting $a(t)$ like a large Λ would.

⇒ Before the fluctuation can "snap back", general relativity will quasi-exponentially inflate this patch (potentially, e.g., by 10^5 orders of magnitude).



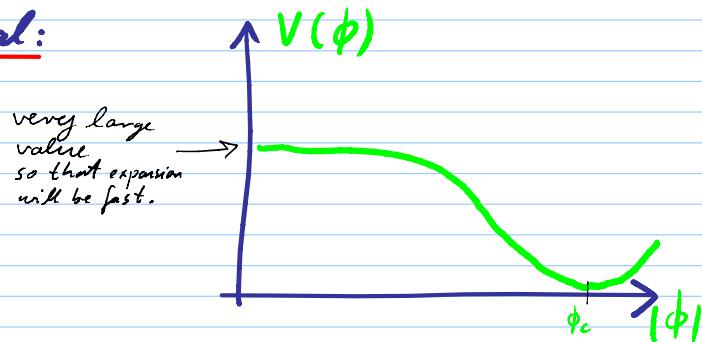
⇒ The mother universe spawns a daughter universe!

□ $V(\phi)$ in the patch starts out high but will dynamically fall eventually to low value → Inflation ends.

□ The energy in $V(\phi)$ turns into hot matter.

□ The daughter universe can spawn new universes and so on...

Example potential:



□ Then, inflation starts when, in a patch, ϕ is very small, even though it is energetically expensive (a rare quantum fluctuation.)

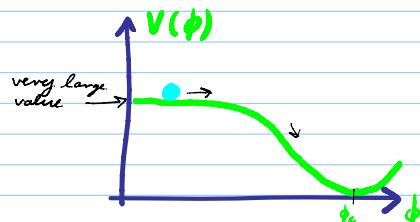
- Then, after ϕ starts out at $\phi=0$ and large $V(\phi)$, it will slowly evolve towards ϕ_c while the universe inflates, thus flattens, and the matter dilutes.
- Once $\phi = \phi_c$ is reached, $V(\phi) = 0$, and inflation has ended.

* Concretely:

The Klein-Gordon equation reads:

$$\ddot{\phi} = -3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \dot{\phi} - \frac{dV}{d\phi}$$

This is like the equation of motion of a ball rolling down a hill, with friction:



$(-\frac{dV}{d\phi})$ acts to pull ϕ down the potential hill.

$(-3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \dot{\phi})$ acts as a "friction" term.

* Definition:

If the initial value of $V(\phi)$ is very large and if the initial slope is very flat, i.e., if the ball for a period rolls slowly, with approximately constant $V(\phi)$, we call this a period of "Slow Roll Inflation".

* Observation:

During the slow roll period, we have, in particular, that $V(\phi)$ dominates over $\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2$.

$$\Rightarrow w(t) = \frac{\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)}{\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)} \approx -1 \quad (\text{temporarily})$$

* But, do we also get temporary exponential inflation?

Indeed, the $0,0$ component of the Einstein equation

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{3}\Lambda = \frac{8\pi G}{3} T_0^0$$

is during the slow roll period:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 \approx \frac{8\pi G}{3} V(\phi)$$

whose solution during slow roll is

$$a(t) \approx a_0 e^{t \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3}} V(\phi)} \quad (\phi \text{ and } V(\phi) \text{ change slowly over time in slow roll.})$$

* Thus, during slow roll, we have effectively a slowly varying Hubble parameter!

Definition:

The function $H(t) := \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}$ is called the Hubble parameter function.

* In the case $a(t) = e^{Ht}$ we recover $H = H(t)$.

* In the case of slow roll inflation, we have

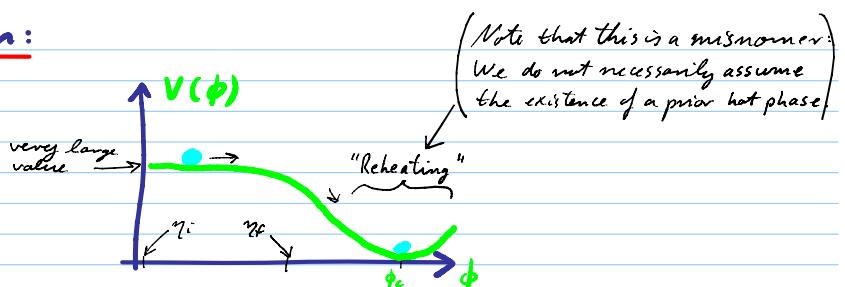
$$H(t) = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} V(\phi(t))}$$

Remark:

□ As $V(t)$ decreases, also $H(t)$ decreases.

⇒ inflation predicts that $\delta\phi_L$ decreases for later and later horizon crossing modes, i.e., for smaller and smaller wavelength modes.
The WMAP satellite's CMB data show evidence for this!

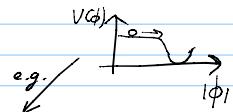
The end of inflation:



* In the period called "Re-heating", the energy of ϕ is transferred into the mode oscillators of the usual (low mass) particles, i.e., the inflaton particles decay and thereby create a high energetic, i.e. hot, plasma of literally all sorts of particles.

* From thereon, the usual big bang cosmology is assumed to have followed.

Quantum fluctuations during cosmic inflation



Strategy:

□ We assume a suitable potential $V(\phi)$ and suitable initial conditions, as discussed before.

⇒ Solutions $\phi(t)$ and $a(t)$ which exhibit slow roll inflation for a suitable finite time interval $[t_i, t_f]$, i.e., $[\eta_i, \eta_f]$.

□ We consider the case of small inhomogeneities in the inflaton field:

$$\phi(x, \eta) = \phi_0(\eta) + \epsilon(x, \eta) \quad \text{with} \quad |\epsilon(x, \eta)| \ll |\phi_0(\eta)|$$

□ This means that we must also consider small fluctuations in the metric, because:

In inflationary theory we are always assuming that the largest contribution to $T_{\mu\nu}(x)$ stems from the inflaton field $\phi(x)$:

$$T_{\mu\nu}^{\text{kin}}(\eta, \vec{x}) = \dot{\phi}_{,\mu} \dot{\phi}_{,\nu} - g_{\mu\nu} \left[\frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} \dot{\phi}_{,\alpha} \dot{\phi}_{,\beta} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 \right]$$

⇒ Thus, because of the Einstein equation,

$$R_{\mu\nu}(x) - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu}(x) R(x) + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}(x) = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}(x)$$

inhomogeneities of $\phi(x)$ induce inhomogeneities of $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$:

→ consider also small inhomogeneities
in the metric, i.e., in the spacetime

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) = a(\eta) \eta_{\mu\nu} + \hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) \quad \text{with} \quad |\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)| \ll 1$$

- We would like to solve the full quantum theory of $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}(x)$ but this is too hard, inconsistent so far.
- In lowest order perturbation theory we first find the classical solutions $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(\eta) = a(\eta) \eta_{\mu\nu}$ and $\hat{\phi}_0(\eta)$ that are completely homogeneous and isotropic.
- Then, we quantize only the $\hat{e}(x, \eta)$ and $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$.

□ Why does this approximation help?

- * For fields \hat{e} , $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}$ that are "small" the equations of motion are effectively linear in $\hat{e}, \hat{g}_{\mu\nu}$.
 - * This is because we can assume that in their equations of motion all terms that are quadratic or of higher power are negligible.
 - * This means that the quantum fields \hat{e} and $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}$ have no potential terms, nor any mass terms.
- ⇒ We will obtain a free, i.e., noninteracting quantum field theory whose nontriviality only stems from the time-varying parameters $a_0(\eta)$, $e_0(\eta)$.

□ Intuition: We should expect two more sources of nontriviality:

1) Interdependence of ϵ and $g_{\mu\nu}$ inhomogeneities:

* Much of the inhomogeneities of $g_{\mu\nu}(x, y)$ will be induced by the inhomogeneities of the inflaton, $\hat{\phi}(x, y)$.

* Vice versa: we can also read the Einstein eqn from left to right \Rightarrow these gravity inhomogeneities induce the inflaton's inhomogeneities.

* Thus, the inflaton's inhomogeneities' dynamics cannot be separated from that of the metric.

2) Some of $g_{\mu\nu}(x, y)$ is independent of ϵ !

Recall:

Gravity is a force with some similarity to electromagnetism:

□ Some electromagnetic fields only exist because there are charges or currents.

Similarly: Some part of the metric will depend on ϕ , while some metric fluctuations (gravitational waves) will be self-sustaining, i.e. they are degrees of freedom independent of ϕ . $\}$

□ But: also, some electromagnetic fields are self-sustaining, i.e., they exist independently, with their own dynamics.

Exercise: show this \rightarrow □ Namely:

$$\vec{E}: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$

Any vector field $\vec{E}(x)$ can be decomposed into:

$$\vec{E}(x) = \vec{E}_s(x) + \vec{E}_v(x)$$

\uparrow "gradient part" or "scalar part" \uparrow "curl part" or "vector part"

Here, \vec{E}_s and \vec{E}_v derive from a scalar function Λ and a vector field \vec{A} respectively:

$$\vec{E}_s = \vec{\nabla} \Lambda \text{ and } \vec{E}_v = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

They obey: $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}_s = 0$ and $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}_v = 0$ (A)

Exercise for physics students: verify \rightarrow

□ According to the Maxwell equations, the scalar part, e.g., of the electric field, \vec{E} , is caused by (or causes) the electric charge density

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \rho$$

* An unusual but mathematically equivalent viewpoint.

* E.g. D-branes in string theory are charges that are defined from this viewpoint.

Thus, E and B fields can sustain each other, which makes possible nonzero electromagnetic fields (namely traveling waves) even where there are no charges.

while the vector part is charge independent

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}_v = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

and similarly for the magnetic field $\vec{B}(x)$.

□ Similarly, some curvature exists only where there is energy-momentum.

□ But, also, some curvature is self-sustaining, with dynamics, e.g., gravitational waves.

\Rightarrow We should expect that $g_{\mu\nu}(x, y)$ contains:

- * some curvature that is induced by (or induces) the inflation inhomogeneities.

- * some curvature inhomogeneities that are self-sustaining, i.e., that possess their own dynamics – and therefore also their own quantum fluctuations.

How to separate these inhomogeneities of $g_{\mu\nu}(x, y)$?

Similar to vector fields $\vec{E} : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ we have for the tensor field g :

□ The perturbations $g_{\mu\nu}$ of the metric tensor can be decomposed into three types:

a) The part of $g_{\mu\nu}$ which can be derived from scalar functions.

b) The part of $g_{\mu\nu}$ which can be derived from vector fields.

c) The part of $g_{\mu\nu}$ which is purely tensor.

Decomposition of $g_{\mu\nu}(x, y)$, with respect to its spatial structure:

□ One usually writes the "line element" ds^2 , i.e., the infinitesimal proper distance (squared) from x to $x+dx$ as

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu}(x, y) dx^\mu dx^\nu \text{ with } dx^\mu = (dy, dx^1, dx^2, dx^3)$$

□ Then, the decomposition takes the form:

$$\underbrace{ds^2}_{\text{zero mode, i.e., homogeneous and isotropic part}} = \alpha^2(y) \left(dy^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (dx^i)^2 \right) + ds_s^2 + ds_v^2 + ds_t^2$$

□ Here, the spatially "scalar" part of the inhomogeneities reads

$$ds_s^2 = \alpha^2(y) \left[2\Phi(x, y) dy^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} B(x, y) dx^i dy + \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left(2\Phi(x, y) \delta_{ij} - 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} E(x, y) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

where Φ, Ψ, B and E are scalar functions.

□ The spatially "vector" part of the metric reads:

$$ds_v^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[2 \sum_{i=1}^3 V_i(x, \eta) dx^i d\eta - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} W_i(x, \eta) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} W_j(x, \eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

where V_i and W_i are 3-vector fields.

□ The spatially "tensor" part of the metric is the remainder, i.e., is what cannot be derived from a scalar or vector field:

$$ds_r^2 = a^2(\eta) \sum_{i,j=1}^3 h_{ij}(x, \eta) dx^i dx^j$$

Here, h_{ij} is a spatial tensor field.

□ Remark regarding the fields V^i, W^i and h_{ij} :

Analogous to the equations (A) above in electromagnetism,

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}_S = \vec{0} \text{ and } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}_S = 0,$$

we now have:

* V_i, W_j obey:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V} = 0, \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{W} = 0 \quad \left(\text{i.e. } \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} V^i = 0 \text{ etc.} \right)$$

* h_{ij} obeys:

$$h_{ij} = h_{ji}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^3 h_{ii}^i = 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} h_{ij} = 0$$

↑

Remark: This implies that h_{ij} describes "Weyl curvature" which is known to describe gravitational waves

Recall:

□ We decompose the inflaton field $\phi(x, \eta)$:

$$\phi(x, \eta) = \phi_0(\eta) + \ell(x, \eta)$$

where:

* $\phi_0(\eta)$ is assumed large and is treated classically.

* $\ell(x, \eta) := \delta\phi(x, \eta)$ describes a field of small inhomogeneities and is to be quantized: $\ell(x, \eta)$

□ We decompose the metric $g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$:

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) = a^2(\eta) \gamma_{\mu\nu} + \gamma_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$$

↑ treated classically ↑ assumed small, to be quantized

□ Here, $\gamma_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$ can be decomposed into scalar, vector and tensor-type inhomogeneities, using functions $E, B, \Psi, \Phi, V_i, W_i, h_{ij}$.

namely: $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) dx^\mu dx^\nu$

zero-mode, i.e., homogeneous and isotropic part

$$ds^2 = a^2(\eta) \left(dy^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (dx^i)^2 \right) + \underbrace{ds_s^2}_{\text{scalar}} + \underbrace{ds_v^2}_{\text{vector}} + \underbrace{ds_t^2}_{\text{tensor}}$$

$$ds_s^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[2\bar{\Phi}(x, \eta) d\eta^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} B(x, \eta) dx^i d\eta \right. \\ \left. - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left(2\bar{\Psi}(x, \eta) \delta_{ij} - 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} E(x, \eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

$$ds_v^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[2 \sum_{i=1}^3 V_i(x, \eta) dx^i d\eta \right. \\ \left. - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} W_i(x, \eta) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} W_j(x, \eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

$$ds_T^2 = a^2(\eta) \sum_{i,j=1}^3 h_{ij}(x, \eta) dx^i dx^j$$

We insert the approximation

$$\phi(x, \eta) = \phi_0(\eta) + \epsilon(x, \eta)$$

$$g_{\mu\nu} = a^2(\eta) \gamma_{\mu\nu} + \gamma_{\mu\nu}(\epsilon, \eta)$$

with ϵ, γ assumed small, into the action:

$$S' = \frac{-1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g_1} d^4x \\ + \frac{1}{2} \int (\partial_\mu \phi)(\partial^\mu \phi) - V(\phi) \sqrt{g_1} d^4x \\ + \text{neglected (other fields)}$$

One obtains many terms with $\bar{\Phi}, \bar{\Psi}, B, E, V, W, h$!

□ These terms can be simplified! Why?

Now that space is curved, there is no longer a preferred foliation of spacetime into spacelike hypersurfaces!

⇒ No preferred choice for the coordinate system.

(e.g., no preferred conformal time & space cds)

□ But the choice of cds will affect the functions above,
i.e. they are in part coordinate system dependent.

and thus our notion of equal time

⇒ We may choose our spacelike hypersurfaces so that
these functions $\Phi, \vec{r}, E, B, V, W, h$ vanish or simplify.

It took on the order of 10 years to clarify this "gauge" question!

□ For detailed references, see e.g.:

* A. Riotto, hep-ph/0210162 (relatively compact)

* R. H. Brandenberger et al, Physics Reports 215, 203 (1992) (long)

□ Result:

* For small inhomogeneities (1st order perturbation) nearly all inhomogeneities can be eliminated by suitable coordinate choice.

* Except, there are two fields, which are coordinate system, i.e., "gauge" independent. Namely:

I) A spatial tensor field:

This is $h_{ij}(x,y)$ itself. It represents $T_{\mu\nu}$ -independent, so-called Weyl curvature, namely gravitational waves. $h_{ij}(x,y)$ measures how much space is locally distorted against itself in different directions.

II) A spatially scalar field, σ , made of ℓ and y_ℓ, v 's scalar part:

Due to the Einstein eqn,

$$\delta \phi(x, y) = \mathcal{C}(x, t)$$

combines with the scalar part of the metric inhomogeneities

$$\Psi(x, y),$$

to yield one dynamical entity, namely:

$$r(x, \gamma) := -\frac{a'_+}{a_+} (\phi_+(\gamma))^{-1} \varphi(x, \gamma) - \underline{\Phi}(x, \gamma)$$

↓ ↑ ↑
 from inflaton from "scalar" part of
 the metric

Physically, what is $r(x,y)$?

* First term: $\Psi(x, y)$ is the (scalar) metric's fluctuation.

* Second term: In $\frac{\epsilon'}{a} \frac{1}{\phi} \mathbf{e}$, the $\mathbf{e}(x,y)$ is the scalar field's fluctuation.