

1/10/2018

Ry Ch 1.1: Derive from the order-of-magnitude equations for the Planck epoch the energy density during the Planck time: $\rho_P = c^7 / (\hbar \cdot G^2)$

Density: $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$ Energy: $e = mc^2$ Volume: $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$

Since all the mass is energy we replace m with mc^2 . At the Planck time the mass is the Planck mass M_P and the radius is the Planck length l_P . Let's ignore the $\frac{4}{3}\pi$ factor to simplify the math. We are looking at numbers so fantastic the order of magnitude is really all that matters.

Therefore: $\rho_P = \frac{M_P c^2}{l_P^3}$

Planck Mass: $M_P = \left(\frac{\hbar c}{G}\right)^{1/2}$ Planck Length: $l_P = \left(\frac{G\hbar}{c^3}\right)^{1/2}$

Plugging these into the density equation above and squaring both sides to make the math easier results in this equation:

$$\rho_P^2 = \frac{\frac{\hbar c}{G} * c^4}{\left(\frac{G\hbar}{c^3}\right)^3} = \frac{\hbar c}{G} * \frac{c^9}{G^3 \hbar^3} * c^4 = \frac{c^{14}}{G^4 \hbar^2}$$

Taking the square root gives us the final Planck energy density equation:

$$\rho_P = \frac{c^7}{\hbar G^2} \quad \checkmark$$

$c = 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3/\text{kg s}^2$ $\hbar = 1.05 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$

Therefore: $\rho_P = \frac{(3.00 \times 10^8)^7}{(1.05 \times 10^{-34})(6.67 \times 10^{-11})^2} = 4.7 \times 10^{113} \text{ kg/ms}^2$

Ry Ch 1.2a: The Schwarzschild radius of a black hole is $r_s = 2 G M_{BH} / c^2$. Derive the Schwarzschild radius of the Universe during the Planck time, $r_{s,P}$.

Planck Mass: $M_P = 2.18 \times 10^{-8} \text{ kg}$

Therefore, the Schwarzschild radius of the universe during Planck time was:

$$r_s = \frac{2GM}{c^2} = \frac{2(6.67 \times 10^{-11})(2.18 \times 10^{-8})}{(3.00 \times 10^8)^2} = 3.23 \times 10^{-35} \text{ m}$$

Ry Ch 1.2b: How does $r_{s,P}$ compare to l_P ? Describe the fallacy here.

Planck Length: $l_P = 1.62 \times 10^{-35} \text{ m}$

The Schwarzschild radius of the universe at the Planck time is twice as large as the Planck length.

3/3
2/3
derive
2/2

$$\frac{r_s}{l_p} = \frac{3.23 \times 10^{-35}}{1.62 \times 10^{-35}} = 2.00$$

Therefore the whole universe should be a black hole and nothing should ever be able to escape it. Yet, here we are today, outside that radius.

Ry Ch 1.2c: Briefly describe two possible ways out of this dilemma.

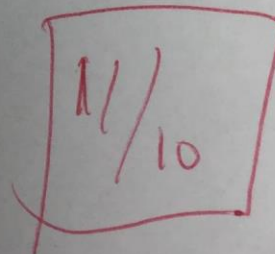
- 1) The universe never really was that small. At some point winding the clock backward and watching the mass get hotter and denser and closer together isn't really what happened.
- 2) Pressures and temperatures were so great that our understanding of basic physics breaks down and under those extreme conditions even gravity acts differently allowing expansion beyond what we understand to be possible today.

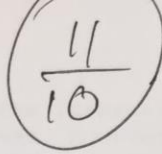
Ry Ch 1.2d (Extra Credit): Later on this semester, we will ask you to compute $r_{s,U}$ for the universe today, and compare it to the Hubble radius r_H today. Describe the same issue here as in 1.2a--1.2c.

The estimated mass of the universe within the Hubble radius today is much larger than the Planck mass. Not counting dark matter or dark energy, estimates are in the range of 10^{53} kg. This estimate yields a Schwarzschild radius of our current universe of:

$$r_s = \frac{2GM}{c^2} = \frac{2(6.67 \times 10^{-11})(10^{53})}{(3.00 \times 10^8)^2} = 1.48 \times 10^{27} \text{ m}$$

Since the Hubble radius is 1.3×10^{26} m the same problem arises. The entire universe should be inside a black hole. If we are inside a black hole, why is it letting us expand, it doesn't make sense.





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AST 322 – HW Ch. 2

1/16/2018

Ry Ch 2.1: Assume you are a perfect blackbody at a temperature of $T = 310$ K. What is the rate, in watts, at which you radiate energy? (For the purposes of this problem, you may assume you are spherical.)

Blackbody radiation power equation (in Watts):

$$\frac{3}{3}$$

$$P = A\epsilon\sigma T^4$$

$$A = \text{Surface Area (m}^2\text{)}, \epsilon = 1 \text{ for perfect blackbody, } T = \text{Temperature in K, } \sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2 \text{K}^4}$$

Assume for simplicity that I am a sphere of radius 1m, therefore:

$$A = 4\pi r^2 = 4\pi \approx 12.6 \text{ m}^2$$

$$P = (12.6)(5.67 \times 10^{-8})(310)^4 = 6.60 \times 10^3 \text{ W}$$

This is the rate I would radiate my energy given my temperature and surface area if I were not receiving any energy from the surroundings.

Ry Ch 2.3: Suppose that intergalactic space pirates toss you out the airlock of your spacecraft without a spacesuit. Combining the results of the two previous questions, at what rate would your temperature change? (Assume your heat capacity is that of pure water, $C = 4200 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$.) Would you be most worried about overheating, freezing, or asphyxiating?

Power gained from the microwave background radiation of space is negligible and can be ignored given the temperature of only 2.7K:

$$P = (12.6)(5.67 \times 10^{-8})(2.73)^4 = 3.97 \times 10^{-5} \text{ W}$$

Specific heat capacity of water is $= 4200 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{kg K}}$. I am mostly water, so let's assume that my total heat capacity is my mass (approx. 100kg) times C. This gives us the number of Joules needed to change my body mass temperature by one K.

$$\Delta T = \frac{\Delta Q}{C}$$

Since Joules per second is Watts and we know that number from above lets solve this equation for the change in temperature for a single second.

$$\frac{3}{3}$$

$$\Delta T = \frac{6.60 \times 10^3}{(4200)(100)} = .0157 \text{ K}$$

This is how many K my temperature will change every second. Multiplying it by 60 gives us .94 K per minute. This means that my body temperature will drop by just under one K per minute floating in space.

The body would lose this temperature disproportionately near the outside of the body, keeping the internal organs warmer longer. Also, it takes several

degrees of temperature loss at the internal organs for several minutes before any significant damage is observed. However, lack of oxygen to the brain can cause permanent brain damage and death in 3-5 minutes. Also, you can't "hold your breath" in space due to the pressure differences, so your body uses up the oxygen in the blood very quickly and you would pass out. Therefore the biggest worry would be asphyxiation.

Ry Ch 2.6: Show that for an energy threshold $E_0 \ll kT$, the fraction of blackbody photons that have energy $hf < E_0$ is:

$$\frac{n(hf < E_0)}{n_\gamma} \approx 0.21 \left(\frac{E_0}{kT} \right)^2$$

Microwave (and far infrared) photon with a wavelength $\lambda < 3 \text{ cm}$ are strongly absorbed by H_2O and O_2 molecules. What fraction of the photons in today's cosmic microwave background have $\lambda > 3 \text{ cm}$, and thus are capable of passing through the Earth's atmosphere and being detected on the ground?

Equation 2.30 from Book: $n(f)df = \frac{E(f)df}{hf} = \frac{8\pi}{c^3} \frac{f^2 df}{e^{\frac{hf}{kT}} - 1}$

Maclaurin expansion of $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots$

Use first 2 terms as simplification / estimation of $e^{\frac{hf}{kT}}$: $n(f)df \approx \frac{8\pi}{c^3} \frac{f^2 df}{1 + \frac{hf}{kT}} = \frac{8\pi}{c^3} \frac{f^2 df}{\frac{kT + hf}{kT}} = \frac{8\pi kT}{c^3 h} \frac{f^2 df}{kT + hf}$

$E = hf$ so $f = \frac{E}{h}$ replacing f yields: $\frac{8\pi kT}{c^3 h^3} E dE$
 $dE = h df$ so $df = \frac{dE}{h}$ and df

integrating from 0 to E_0 : $n(hf < E_0) \approx \int_0^{E_0} \frac{8\pi kT}{c^3 h^3} E dE = \frac{8\pi kT}{c^3 h^3} \left(\frac{E^2}{2} \right)_0^{E_0} = \frac{8\pi kT}{c^3 h^3} \frac{E_0^2}{2}$

Equation 2.31 from Book: $n_\gamma = \beta T^3$ $\beta = \frac{2.4041 K^3}{\pi^2 h^3 c^3}$

$\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$ so $n_\gamma = \frac{2.4041 K^3 8\pi T^3}{\pi^2 h^3 c^3} = \frac{2.4041 K^3 8\pi T^3}{h^3 c^3}$

Finally solving for the fraction:

$$\frac{n(hf < E_0)}{n_\gamma} \approx \frac{4\pi kT E_0^2}{c^3 h^3} \cdot \frac{h^3 c^3}{2.4041 K^3 8\pi T^3} = 0.208 \frac{E_0^2}{K^2 T^2}$$

$$f = \frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{3 \times 10^{-2}} = 1 \times 10^{10} \text{ Hz}$$

$h = \text{planck's constant} = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J/s}$
 $k = \text{Boltzmann constant} = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$

$$E_0 = hf = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} (1 \times 10^{10}) = 6.626 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J}$$

Temperature of microwave background $T = 2.7255 \text{ K}$

$$\text{fraction passed} \approx 0.21 \left(\frac{E_0}{kT} \right)^2 = 0.21 \left(\frac{6.626 \times 10^{-24}}{(1.38 \times 10^{-23})(2.7255)} \right)^2 = 0.0065$$

fraction passing that is not there = $1 - 0.0065 = 0.9935 \approx 99.35\%$

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AST 322 - HW Ch. 3

1/26/2018

3a: Prove Ryden equations (3.20) and (3.21) from (3.19)

3.19 $(\Delta s')^2 = -c^2 (\Delta t')^2 + (\Delta l')^2$

x2

Lorentz transformation computes spatial distance measured in primed frame

$$(\Delta l')^2 = (x'_1 - x'_2)^2 + (y'_1 - y'_2)^2 + (z'_1 - z'_2)^2 = \gamma^2 [x_1 - x_2 - v(t_1 - t_2)]^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2$$

time elapsed between events in primed frame is:

$$\Delta t' = t_1 - t_2 = \gamma [t_1 - t_2 - \frac{v}{c^2} (x_1 - x_2)]$$

Substituting into original equation

$$(\Delta s')^2 = -c^2 \gamma^2 [t_1 - t_2 - \frac{v}{c^2} (x_1 - x_2)]^2 + \gamma^2 [x_1 - x_2 - v(t_1 - t_2)]^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2$$

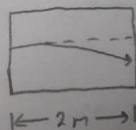
taking c in side brackets gets us to equation 3.20

3.20
$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta s')^2 &= -\gamma^2 [c(t_1 - t_2) - \frac{v}{c} (x_1 - x_2)]^2 + \gamma^2 [x_1 - x_2 - v(t_1 - t_2)]^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2 \\ &= -\gamma^2 [c^2(t_1 - t_2)^2 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} (x_1 - x_2)^2 - 2v(t_1 - t_2)(x_1 - x_2)] + \gamma^2 [(x_1 - x_2)^2 + v^2(t_1 - t_2)^2 - 2v(x_1 - x_2)(t_1 - t_2)] + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2 \\ &= \gamma^2 [-c^2(t_1 - t_2)^2 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (x_1 - x_2)^2 + v^2(t_1 - t_2)^2] + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2 \\ &= \gamma^2 [(v^2 - c^2)(t_1 - t_2)^2 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (x_1 - x_2)^2] + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2 \\ &\quad \text{if } v \ll c \text{ then simplifies to: } \gamma^2 = \frac{1}{1 - v^2/c^2} \text{ then distribute} \end{aligned}$$

3.21

$$(\Delta s')^2 = -c^2 (t_1 - t_2)^2 + (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2$$

3b: In the caption for Ryden Figure 3.3, it states that the deflection of a light beam traveling across a box 2 meters wide subjected to an acceleration of $g=9.8\text{m/s}^2$ will be about $2 \times 10^{-14}\text{m}$. Is Ryden correct about this? Do the calculation for yourself.



← 2m →

$$g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$t = \frac{d}{v} = \frac{2}{3 \times 10^8} = 6.67 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}$$

$$\text{deflection } y = \frac{1}{2} a t^2 = \frac{1}{2} (9.8) (6.67 \times 10^{-9})^2 = 2.18 \times 10^{-16} \text{ m}$$

no, Ryden has a typo. probably meant $2 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}$.

+3

~~problem~~

ok!

Suppose you wanted to measure the deflection of such a beam to verify whether or not this deflection actually occurs. To do this, you have a long, perfectly flat room, with a beam emitter aligned perfectly parallel to the ground at one end, and a detector wall at the other end. If you were able to measure the deflection of this beam (relative to a perfectly straight line) with a precision of 10nm, how far away would your detector wall have to be from your emitter?

if you can measure a deflection (y) of 10 nm (10×10^{-9} m) Then:

$$y = \frac{1}{2} a t^2 \quad t^2 = \frac{2y}{a} \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{2y}{a}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(10 \times 10^{-9})}{9.8}} = 4.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$$

$$t = \frac{L}{v} \quad L = tv = (4.5 \times 10^{-5}) (3 \times 10^8) = 1.35 \times 10^4 \text{ m}$$

The room would need to be 13.6 Km long.

3c: Show that Ryden equation (3.36) can be derived from (3.33), (3.34), and the assumption that $x = S_K(r)$

$$3.33 \quad d\ell^2 = dr^2 + S_K(r)^2 d\Omega^2$$

$$3.34 \quad d\Omega^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2$$

$$x = S_K(r)$$

Substituting into original equation

$$d\ell^2 = dr^2 + x^2 d\Omega^2$$

$$x = R \sin(r/R) \text{ for } K=+1$$

$$\frac{dx}{dr} = \cos(r/R)$$

$$\frac{dx^2}{dr^2} = \cos^2(r/R)$$

$$\frac{dx^2}{dr^2} = 1 - \sin^2(r/R)$$

$$dr^2 = \frac{dx^2}{1 - \sin^2(r/R)}$$

$$\text{Since } x = R \sin(r/R)$$

$$\sin(r/R) = \frac{x}{R}$$

$$\sin^2(r/R) = \frac{x^2}{R^2}$$

Substitution in

$$dr^2 = \frac{dx^2}{1 - \frac{x^2}{R^2}}$$

so $d\ell^2 = \frac{dx^2}{1 - \frac{x^2}{R^2}} + x^2 d\Omega^2 \text{ for } K=+1$

for $K=-1$

$$x = R \sinh(r/R)$$

$$\frac{dx}{dr} = \cosh(r/R)$$

$$\frac{dx^2}{dr^2} = \cosh^2(r/R)$$

$$\frac{dx^2}{dr^2} = 1 + \sinh^2(r/R)$$

$$dr^2 = \frac{dx^2}{1 + \sinh^2(r/R)}$$

$$\text{Since } x = R \sinh(r/R)$$

$$\sinh(r/R) = \frac{x}{R}$$

$$\sinh^2(r/R) = \frac{x^2}{R^2}$$

Substituting in

$$dr^2 = \frac{dx^2}{1 + \frac{x^2}{R^2}}$$

so $d\ell^2 = \frac{dx^2}{1 + \frac{x^2}{R^2}} + x^2 d\Omega^2 \text{ for } K=-1$

for $K=0$

$$x = r$$

$$d\ell^2 = dx^2 + x^2 d\Omega^2 \text{ for } K=0$$

+3

+1

Combine all 3 answers into one equation

$$3.36 \quad d\ell^2 = \frac{dx^2}{1 - K \frac{x^2}{R^2}} + x^2 d\Omega^2$$

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AST 322 - HW Ch. 4

2/12/2018

4a: Prove equations (4.17) and (4.18).

homogeneous, isotropic expansion or contraction
Sphere of radius $R_S(t)$, M_S

Newton's law of gravity $F = -\frac{GM_S m}{R_S(t)^2}$

gravitational acceleration at surface of sphere

$$\frac{d^2 R_S}{dt^2} = -\frac{GM_S}{R_S(t)^2}$$

$$\int \left(\frac{d^2 R_S}{dt^2} \right)^2 dt = \int \frac{GM_S dR_S}{R_S(t)^2 dt}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{dR_S}{dt} \right)^2 = \frac{GM_S}{R_S(t)} + U$$

$E_{\text{Kinetic per unit mass}}$ $E_{\text{gravitational potential energy per unit mass}}$

$$M_S = \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho(t) R_S(t)^3$$

since expansion or contraction is isotropic $R_S(t) = a(t) r_S$

substituting in:

$$4.17 \quad \frac{1}{2} \dot{a}^2 r_S^2 = \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho(t) \frac{a(t)^3 r_S^3}{a(t) r_S} G + U = \frac{4\pi}{3} G r_S^2 \rho(t) a(t)^2 + U \quad \frac{3}{3}$$

multiply by $r_S^2 a^2$

$$4.18 \quad \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(t) + \frac{2U}{r_S^2 a(t)^2}$$

4b: Use Ryden equations (4.26) and (4.33) to show that $(1 - \frac{1}{a(t)}) = (1+z)^{-1} (1 - \frac{1}{a_0})$

$$4.26 \quad H(t)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon(t) - \frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0 a(t)^2} \quad H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

$$4.33 \quad \Omega(t) = \frac{\epsilon(t)}{\epsilon_c(t)} = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2 H(t)^2} \epsilon(t)$$

$$4.26/H(t)^2 \quad 1 = \frac{\epsilon(t)}{\epsilon_c(t)} - \frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0 a(t)^2 H(t)^2}$$

substituting in 4.33

$$4.34 \quad 1 - \Omega(t) = -\frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0^2 H(t)^2 a(t)^2} \quad 1 - \Omega_0 = -\frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0^2 H_0^2}$$

$$1+z = \frac{1}{a(t)}$$

substituting

$$1 - \Omega(t) = \frac{(1 - \Omega_0)}{a(t)^2} = (1+z)^{-2} (1 - \Omega_0)$$

Also prove (4.35) and (4.36). Discuss the implication of these equations, particularly as they relate to the theory of inflation.

Starting with 4.34 as shown above

$$1 - \Omega(t) = -\frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0^2 H_0^2 a(t)^2}$$

$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = H_0 \quad \text{so} \quad 1 - \Omega_0 = -\frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0^2 H_0^2} \quad \text{when time is now}$$

$$\text{rearranging} \quad \frac{\kappa}{R_0^2} = \frac{H_0^2}{c^2} (\Omega_0 - 1)$$

The equations suggest an increasing variance system. meaning that a small variance from a perfect $\Omega_0 = 1$ in the distant past (large redshift) would make the Ω today much further from 1. which means that if we measure an Ω of 1 to several decimal places of accuracy today, in the very early universe of a redshift of 10,000, the universe would need to have been $\Omega = 1$ with an accuracy of at least 4 more decimal places. And if all things are random and there is an equal chance of having any universe Ω then why would we be in one with such a near perfect $\Omega = 1$ if it isn't exactly 1. So it seems reasonable to assume $\Omega = \text{exactly } 1$ in our universe which translates back into a $\kappa = 0$ and a flat universe.

$$\frac{4}{4}$$

4c: Do Ryden Exercise 4.2 - Consider Einstein's static universe, in which the attractive force of the matter density ρ is exactly balanced by the repulsive force of the cosmological constant, $\Lambda = 4\pi G\rho$. Suppose that some of the matter is converted into radiation (by stars, for instance). Will the universe start to expand or contract? Explain your answer.

$$\Lambda = 4\pi G\rho$$

Gives universe a constant energy density E_Λ and pressure $P_\Lambda = -E_\Lambda$ and no $a(t)$

Einstein's static universe is static, but unstable. With stars converting matter into radiation, radiation pressure increases, the balance is tipped and the whole thing goes into runaway acceleration. It would expand and at an increasing rate over time.

$$\frac{2}{3}$$

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AST 322 - HW Ch. 5

2/26/2018

5a: Show equations (5.38), (5.39), (5.41), and (5.42). Use the equations to find the current age of the universe if you assume that $w = 0$ and the energy density is the current empirically known energy density of our universe. Discuss the physical meaning of the assumptions you must make for these equations to be true.

5b: Show equations (5.53) through (5.57), (5.58) through (5.62), and (5.70) through (5.74), using equations (5.36) through (5.52).

5c: Using a plotting program, and assuming $H_0 = 70 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$, make one plot for $d_p(t_e)$ and one plot for $d_p(t_o)$ as functions of z , with different curves for $w=0$, $w=1/3$, and $w=-1$. Use a log-log scale, label appropriately, print, and turn these plots in with your homework. You may compare them to Ryden figure 5.3 to check your answers.

5a)

$$(5.38) \quad q = \frac{2}{3+3w}$$

assume $w=0$

$$(5.39) \quad a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3+3w}$$

find t_0

derivations
on next
page

$$(5.41) \quad H_0 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)_{t=t_0} = \frac{2}{3(1+w)} t_0^{-1}$$

$$(4.31) \quad \epsilon_{c,0} = \frac{3c^2}{8\pi G} H_0^2 = 7.8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ J/m}^3 = 4870 \text{ MeV/m}^3$$

$$(4.27) \quad H_0 = H(t_0) = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)_{t=t_0} = 68 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$$

$$(5.42) \quad t_0 = \frac{2}{3(1+w)} H_0^{-1}$$

$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3 \cdot 68 \text{ km}} \cdot \frac{3.0857 \times 10^{19} \text{ Kgm}}{\text{Mpc}} = 3.025 \times 10^{17} \text{ s} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ yr}}{31536000 \text{ s}} = 9.59 \times 10^9 \text{ yr}$$

$$\approx 9.6 \text{ Gyr}$$

This estimate of the age of the universe of 9.6 Billion years has several assumptions built in. This universe is flat and all the energy density is in the form of matter ($w=0$). This is obviously not true. Our universe has matter, but also radiation ($w=1/3$) and current estimates are that the cosmological constant Λ equates to an Ω_{Λ} of .69 which is even more significant than the matter portion Ω_m of .31. The cosmological constant portion of the matter density has a $w=-1$ so that would significantly change the estimated age of the universe, if that were added into the equations.

5a) Derivations:

(5.25) Friedmann equation

$$\dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \sum_i \epsilon_{i,0} a^{-(1+3w_i)} - \frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0^2}$$

for specially flat universe $\kappa=0$

$$\dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \sum_i \epsilon_{i,0} a^{-(1+3w_i)}$$

for universe with only one component

$$\dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G \epsilon_0}{3c^2} a^{-(1+3w)}$$

if scale factor follows power law then $a \propto t^q$ and $\dot{a} \propto t^{q-2}$

$$t^{2q-2} = \frac{8\pi G \epsilon_0}{3c^2} t^{-(1+3w)q}$$

Equating powers of t

$$2q-2 = -(1+3w)q$$

$$\frac{-2}{q} + 2 = -1-3w$$

$$\frac{-2}{q} = -1-3w-2$$

$$\frac{-2}{q} = -3w-3$$

(5.38)

$$q = \frac{2}{3w+3}$$

for $w \neq -1$

So: $a \propto t^{\frac{2}{3w+3}}$

However in accelerating flat universe $a = \frac{t}{t_0}$ so to normalize this

$$(5.39) \quad a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{\frac{2}{3w+3}}$$

$$t_0 = \frac{1}{1+w} \left(\frac{c^2}{6\pi G \epsilon_0}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\epsilon_0 = \frac{c^2}{6\pi G (1+w)^2} t_0^{-2}$$

$$H_0 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)_{t=t_0} = \frac{8\pi G \epsilon_0 \dot{a}}{3c^2} \cdot \frac{3(1+w)t_0}{2} = \frac{4\pi G (1+w)t_0 \epsilon_0}{c^2}$$

(5.41)

$$\frac{4\pi G (1+w)t_0}{c^2} \cdot \frac{c^2 t_0^{-2}}{6\pi G (1+w)^2} = \frac{2}{3(1+w)} t_0^{-1}$$

rearrange for t_0

$$(5.42) \quad t_0 = \frac{2}{3(1+w)} H_0^{-1}$$

with only non-relativistic matter $w = 0$

starting with (S.42) $t_0 = \frac{2}{3(1+w)H_0}$

(S.53) $t = \frac{2}{3H_0}$

for flat universe where $w > -1/3$

(S.52) $d_{hor}(t_0) = ct_0 \frac{3(1+w)}{1+3w} = \frac{c}{H_0} \frac{2}{1+3w}$

(S.54) $d_{hor}(t_0) = \frac{2c}{H_0} = 3ct_0$

(S.59) $a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{\frac{2}{3+3w}}$

plugging in $w = 0$

(S.55) $a_m(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3}$

(S.49)

$$d_p(t_0) = c \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = ct_0 \frac{3(1+w)}{1+3w} \left[1 - \left(\frac{t_e}{t_0}\right)^{(1+3w)/(3+3w)} \right]$$

plugging in $w = 0$

$$d_p(t_0) = c \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = ct_0 (3) \left[1 - \left(\frac{t_e}{t_0}\right)^{1/3} \right]$$

plugging in S.53-S.55 and $a = \frac{1}{1+z}$ (change S.55 to $\frac{t_e}{t_0} = a^{3/2}$) so $\left(\frac{t_e}{t_0}\right)^{1/3} = a^{1/2} = (1+z)^{-1/2}$

(S.56) $d_p(t_0) = c \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{\left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3}} = \frac{2c}{H_0} \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1/2} \right]$

to get proper distance at time of emission just divide by $(1+z)$

(S.57) $d_p(t_0) = \frac{2c}{H_0(1+z)} \left[1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z}} \right]$

with Radiation only $w = 1/3$

(S.42) $t_0 = \frac{2}{3(1+w)H_0}$

plugging in $w = 1/3$

(S.58) $t_0 = \frac{2}{3(1+1/3)H_0} = \frac{2}{3(4/3)H_0} = \frac{1}{2H_0}$

$d_{hor}(t_0) = ct_0 \frac{3(1+w)}{1+3w} = \frac{c}{H_0} \frac{2}{1+3w}$

plugging in $w = 1/3$

(S.59) $d_{hor}(t_0) = ct_0 \frac{3(4/3)}{2} = 2ct_0 = \frac{c}{H_0} \frac{2}{2} = \frac{c}{H_0}$

$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{\frac{2}{3+3w}}$

plugging in $w = 1/3$

(S.60) $a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{1/4} = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{1/4}$

$$d_p(t_0) = c \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = ct_0 \frac{3(1+w)}{1+3w} \left[1 - \left(\frac{t_e}{t_0}\right)^{(1+3w)/(3+3w)} \right]$$

plugging in $w = 1/3$

$$dp(t_0) = C \int_{t_c}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = C t_0 \left(\frac{3(4/3)}{2} \right) \left[1 - \left(\frac{t_c}{t_0} \right)^{2/3} \right]$$

plugging in 5.60, $a = (1+z)^{-1}$, and $\left(\frac{t_c}{t_0} \right)^{1/2} = a = (1+z)^{-1}$

$$(5.61) \quad dp(t_0) = C \int_{t_c}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{(t/t_0)^{1/2}} = 2C t_0 \left[1 - \left(\frac{t_c}{t_0} \right)^{1/2} \right] = \frac{C}{H_0} \frac{z}{1+z}$$

$$1 - \frac{1}{1+z} = \frac{1+z-1}{1+z}$$

divide by $(1+z)$ to get $dp(t_c)$

$$(5.62) \quad dp(t_c) = \frac{C}{H_0} \frac{z}{(1+z)^2}$$

With Λ only $w = -1$ (flat)

$$\dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \sum_i \epsilon_{i,0} a^{-(1+3w)} - \frac{\kappa c^2}{R_0^2}$$

becomes $w = -1, \kappa = 0$

$$(5.70) \quad \dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon_\Lambda a^2$$

if ϵ_Λ is constant with time

$$H_0 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)_{t=t_0} \quad \text{so}$$

$$(5.71) \quad \dot{a} = H_0 a$$

$$\text{so } \dot{a}^2 = H_0^2 a^2$$

which means

$$H_0^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon_\Lambda$$

$$(5.72) \quad H_0 = \left(\frac{8\pi G \epsilon_\Lambda}{3c^2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{da}{dt} = H_0 a \quad \text{so: } \int \frac{1}{a} da = \int_{t_0}^t H_0 dt$$

$$\ln a = H_0 (t - t_0)$$

$$\epsilon_\Lambda(t) = \epsilon_\Lambda(t_0)$$

$$H_0^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon_\Lambda t_0$$

$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}}$$

$$(5.73) \quad a(t) = e^{H_0(t-t_0)}$$

$$dp(t_0) = C \int_{t_c}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = C t_0 \frac{3(1+w)}{1+3w} \left[1 - \left(\frac{t_c}{t_0} \right)^{(1+3w)/(1+3w)} \right] = \frac{C}{H_0} \frac{2}{1+3w} \left[1 - (1+z)^{-(1+3w)/2} \right]$$

$$dp(t_0) = C \int_{t_c}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{e^{H_0(t-t_0)}} = \frac{C}{H_0} \left[1 - (1+z)^{-1} \right] = -\frac{C}{H_0} z \quad \text{or since it's a distance} = \frac{C}{H_0} z$$

$$\text{since } z+1 = e^{H_0(t_0-t_c)}$$

$$(5.74) \quad dp(t_0) = C \int_{t_c}^{t_0} e^{H_0(t_0-t)} dt = \frac{C}{H_0} \left[e^{H_0(t_0-t_c)} - 1 \right] = \frac{C}{H_0} z$$

5c)

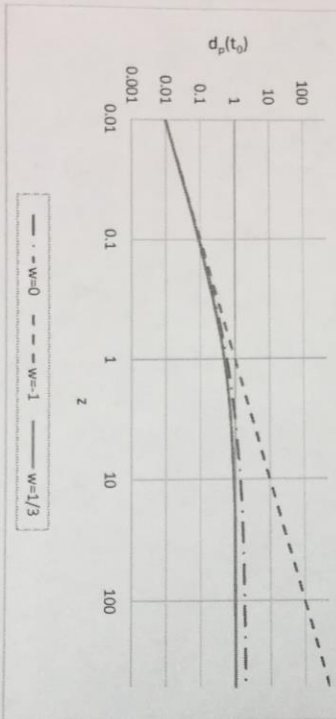
H0 70 km/s/Mpc
c 3.00E+08 m/s/s

$\frac{M}{m}$

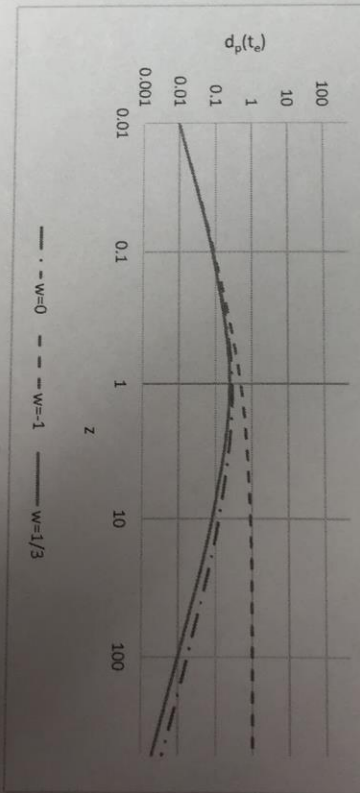
z	Observation			Emission		
	dp/dt	w=0	w=1/3	dp/dt	w=0	w=1/3
0.01	9.9256E-03	1.0000E-02	9.9010E-03	9.8273E-03	9.9010E-03	9.8030E-03
0.1	9.3075E-02	1.0000E-01	9.0909E-02	8.4613E-02	9.0909E-02	8.2645E-02
1	5.8579E-01	1.0000E+00	5.0000E-01	2.9289E-01	5.0000E-01	2.5000E-01
10	1.3970E+00	1.0000E+01	9.0909E-01	1.2700E-01	9.0909E-01	8.2645E-02
100	1.8010E+00	1.0000E+02	9.9010E-01	1.7832E-02	9.9010E-01	9.8030E-03
1000	1.9368E+00	1.0000E+03	9.9900E-01	1.9349E-03	9.9900E-01	9.9800E-04

Measured in units of Hubble distance like in the book

Observation



Emission



11/10 Nice!

Richard Lindeman (1000722418)

AST 322 - HW 6 (Ch.5)

3/12/2018

6a: Integrate to prove equations (5.90) and (5.91) for a matter + positive curvature universe.

6b: Integrate to prove equation (5.101) for a matter + positive lambda universe. One could argue that, with respect to our modern understanding of cosmology, this is the most important model in this chapter. In a sentence or two, briefly argue for or against this claim.

6c: Using a plotting program, plot a (on the y axis) vs t (on the x axis) for equation (5.101), given $H_0 = 68 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$ and $\Omega_{m,0} = .32$. Use a range of $t = 0$ to 15 Gigayears. On the plot, include also a line of constant t at the time of lambda-matter equality (that is, the time for which $a = a_{m\Lambda}$). Label appropriately, print, and turn this plot in with your homework.

$$(5.90) \quad a(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Omega_0}{\Omega_0 - 1} (1 - \cos \theta)$$

$$(5.91) \quad t(\theta) = \frac{1}{2H_0} \frac{\Omega_0}{(\Omega_0 - 1)^{3/2}} (\theta - \sin \theta)$$

$$(5.83) \quad \int_0^a \frac{da}{[\Omega_{r,0}/a^2 + \Omega_{m,0}/a + \Omega_{\Lambda,0}a^2 + (1 - \Omega_0)]^{1/2}} = H_0 t$$

for matter + positive curvature universe $\Omega_{m,0} = \Omega_0$
Friedmann equation

$$(5.85) \quad \frac{H(t)^2}{H_0^2} = \frac{\Omega_0}{a^3} + \frac{1 - \Omega_0}{a^2}$$

$$(5.88) \quad \frac{H(t)^2 a^2}{H_0^2} = \frac{\Omega_0}{a} + (1 - \Omega_0) = \frac{\dot{a}^2}{H_0^2}$$

$$+1 \quad \frac{H_0}{\frac{da}{dt}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Omega_0/a + (1 - \Omega_0)}}$$

$$(5.89) \quad H_0 t = \int_0^a \frac{da}{[\Omega_0/a + (1 - \Omega_0)]^{1/2}} \rightarrow \text{or just use (5.83) eliminating factors for radiation and } \Lambda.$$

$$d\theta \equiv \frac{dt}{a}$$

$$a = \frac{dt}{d\theta}$$

$$dt = d\theta a$$

$$\left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 = H_0^2 \left(\frac{\Omega_0}{a} + (1 - \Omega_0)\right)$$

$$H_0 = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \Big|_{t=t_0}$$

$$\left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 = H_0^2 (\Omega_0/a + 1 - \Omega_0)$$

$$\left(\frac{da}{d\theta a}\right)^2 = H_0^2 a^2 \left(\frac{\Omega_0}{a} + (1 - \Omega_0)\right)$$

$$\left(\frac{da}{d\theta}\right)^2 = H_0^2 (a^2(1 - \Omega_0) + a\Omega_0)$$

$$\frac{da}{d\theta} = H_0 \sqrt{a^2(1 - \Omega_0) + a\Omega_0}$$

$$\theta = \int_0^a \frac{da}{H_0 \sqrt{a^2(1 - \Omega_0) + a\Omega_0}} \quad \begin{matrix} A = 1 - \Omega_0 \\ B = \Omega_0 \end{matrix}$$

$$\int_0^a \frac{da}{\sqrt{Aa^2 + Ba}} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{-A}} \left[\arcsin \left[\frac{2Aa' + B}{|B|} \right] - \arcsin \left[\frac{B}{|B|} \right] \right]$$

as long as $A < 0$ and $|Aa' + B| < |B|$

$$= -\frac{1}{H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_0 - 1}} \left[\arcsin \left[\frac{2(1 - \Omega_0)a + \Omega_0}{|\Omega_0|} \right] - \arcsin \left[\frac{\Omega_0}{|\Omega_0|} \right] \right]$$

+1 good

when $\Omega_0 > 1$

$$\theta = -\frac{1}{H_0 (\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}} \left[\arcsin \left[\frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0) + \Omega_0}{\Omega_0} \right] - \frac{\pi}{2} \right]$$

if this were on the top then it would cancel and simplify math

so let's start by making $d\theta = \frac{dt H_0}{a (\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}}$ so $dt = \frac{d\theta a (\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}}{H_0}$

which also makes units match.

plus that into step 2 yields

$$\left(\frac{da H_0}{d\theta a (\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}}\right)^2 = H_0^2 \left(\frac{\Omega_0}{a} + (1 - \Omega_0)\right)$$

$$\left(\frac{da}{d\theta}\right)^2 = \frac{a^2 H_0^2 (\Omega_0 - 1)}{H_0^2} \left(\frac{\Omega_0}{a} + (1 - \Omega_0)\right)$$

$$\left(\frac{da}{d\theta}\right)^2 = (\Omega_0 - 1) ((1 - \Omega_0)a^2 + \Omega_0 a)$$

$$\frac{da}{d\theta} = (\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2} \sqrt{a^2(1 - \Omega_0) + a\Omega_0}$$

$$\theta = (\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2} \int_0^a \frac{da}{\sqrt{a^2(1 - \Omega_0) + a\Omega_0}}$$

again using

$$\int_0^a \frac{da}{\sqrt{Aa^2 + Ba}} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{-A}} \left[\arcsin \left[\frac{2Aa' + B}{|B|} \right] - \arcsin \frac{B}{|B|} \right]$$

$$A = 1 - \Omega_0$$

$$B = \Omega_0$$

$$\theta = \frac{(\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}}{(\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}} \left[\arcsin \left[\frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0) + \Omega_0}{|\Omega_0|} \right] - \arcsin \frac{\Omega_0}{|\Omega_0|} \right] \quad \text{for } \Omega_0 > 0$$

$$\theta = - \left[\arcsin \left[\frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0)}{\Omega_0} + 1 \right] - \frac{\pi}{2} \right]$$

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} - \arcsin \left[\frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0)}{\Omega_0} + 1 \right]$$

$$\theta - \frac{\pi}{2} = - \arcsin \left[\frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0)}{\Omega_0} + 1 \right]$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta = \arcsin \left[\frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0)}{\Omega_0} + 1 \right]$$

$$\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta \right) = \frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0)}{\Omega_0} + 1$$

$$\cos(\theta) - 1 = \frac{2a(1 - \Omega_0)}{\Omega_0}$$

+1



$$\frac{\Omega_0 (\cos \theta - 1)}{2(1 - \Omega_0)} = a$$

$$(5.90) \quad a(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Omega_0}{\Omega_0 - 1} (1 - \cos \theta)$$

This is what I used to equate θ to t

$$dt = \frac{d\theta}{H_0} \frac{a(\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}}{1}$$

This is (5.90)

$$a = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Omega_0}{(\Omega_0 - 1)} (1 - \cos \theta)$$

combine to get:

$$dt = \frac{d\theta}{2 H_0 (\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2}} (1 - \cos \theta)$$

$$dt = \frac{\Omega_0 (1 - \cos \theta) d\theta}{2 H_0 (\Omega_0 - 1)^{3/2}}$$

$$t(\theta) = \frac{\Omega_0}{2 H_0 (\Omega_0 - 1)^{3/2}} \int_0^\theta (1 - \cos \theta) d\theta$$

$$\int d\theta - \int \cos \theta$$

$$\theta - \sin \theta$$

(5.91) $t(\theta) = \frac{1}{2 H_0} \frac{\Omega_0}{(\Omega_0 - 1)^{3/2}} (\theta - \sin \theta)$

(b)

$$H_0 t = \int_a^{\infty} \frac{da}{[\Omega_{m,0}/a + \Omega_{m,0} a^2]^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{a^{1/2} da}{[\Omega_{m,0} + (1 - \Omega_{m,0}) a^3]^{1/2}}$$

$$\Omega_{\Lambda,0} = 1 - \Omega_{m,0}$$

$$v = a^{3/2}$$

$$dv = \frac{3}{2} a^{1/2} da$$

$$\frac{2}{3} \int_0^v \frac{dv}{[\Omega_{m,0} + (1 - \Omega_{m,0}) v^2]^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{(1 - \Omega_{m,0})^{1/2}} \int_0^v \frac{dv}{\left[\frac{\Omega_{m,0}}{1 - \Omega_{m,0}} + v^2\right]^{1/2}}$$

$$a_{m,0} = \left(\frac{\Omega_{m,0}}{1 - \Omega_{m,0}}\right)^{1/3}$$

$$H_0 t = \frac{2}{3 \sqrt{1 - \Omega_{m,0}}} \int_0^v \frac{dv}{[a_{m,0}^2 + v^2]^{1/2}}$$

$$\int_0^v \frac{v'}{\sqrt{A+v'^2}} = \ln \frac{v' + \sqrt{A+v'^2}}{\sqrt{A}}$$

$$A = a_{m\Lambda}^3$$

+0.5

$$H_0 t = \frac{2}{3(1-\Omega_{m0})} \ln \frac{a^{3/2} + \sqrt{a_{m\Lambda}^3 + a^3}}{a_{m\Lambda}^{3/2}}$$

$$(5.101) \quad H_0 t = \frac{2}{3(1-\Omega_{m0})} \ln \left[\left(\frac{a}{a_{m\Lambda}} \right)^{3/2} + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{a}{a_{m\Lambda}} \right)^3} \right]$$

divide top + bottom by $a_{m\Lambda}^{3/2}$

our universe is flat and has radiation, matter, and Λ . However, in our current state radiation has very little influence, but on a log scale we are living close to matter / lambda equality. In other words this Matter + Lambda only version is a very good approximation for our current state of our universe, so I would agree this could be called the most important model in this chapter.

+1.5

(+3)

6c

 H_0

68 km/s/Mpc 2.2037E-18 /s

3.15576E+16 Sec / Gigayear

 Ω_{m0}

0.32

 $\Omega_{\Lambda 0}$

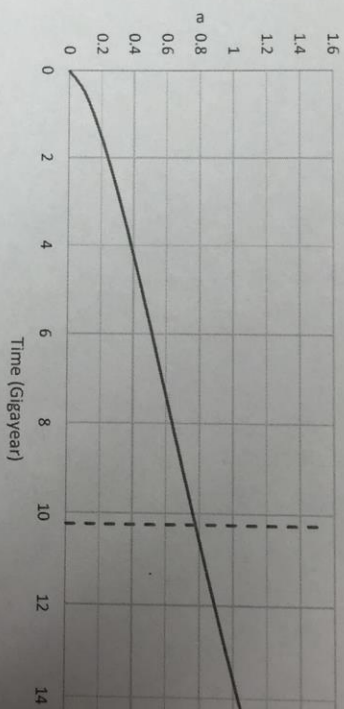
0.68

 $a_{m\Lambda}$

0.777822

time of lambda matter equality

a	H0t	t	t (Gigayear)	t @ $a_{m\Lambda}$
0	0	0	0	10.24602
0.1	0.037255	1.691E+16	0.535699054	10.24602
0.2	0.105113	4.77E+16	1.51146002	10.24602
0.3	0.191844	8.705E+16	2.758596733	10.24602
0.4	0.291767	1.324E+17	4.195441025	10.24602
0.5	0.40013	1.816E+17	5.753623632	10.24602
0.6	0.512666	2.326E+17	7.371828251	10.24602
0.7	0.625811	2.84E+17	8.998791839	10.24602
0.777822237	0.712548	3.233E+17	10.24601852	10.24602
0.8	0.736908	3.344E+17	10.5962955	10.24602
0.9	0.844217	3.831E+17	12.13934209	10.24602
1	0.94677	4.296E+17	13.61398269	10.24602
1.1	1.044152	4.738E+17	15.01427564	10.24602
1.2	1.136312	5.156E+17	16.33948083	10.24602
1.3	1.223412	5.552E+17	17.5919277	10.24602
1.4	1.305727	5.925E+17	18.77556963	10.24602
1.5	1.383582	6.278E+17	19.8950757	10.24602



3
+1