

Books → The early universe by AEW Kolb & M S Turner.

Topics :

Gravitation & Geometry by S Weinberg.

→ General introduction.

→ Dynamics of space time: General theory of relativity.

→ Standard geometry : Space time for cosmology  
[described by the Robertson-Walker metric]

→ Time evolution for cosmology → Friedman eq<sup>n</sup>

→ Expansion age of the universe

→ Dark energy

Homogeneous Isotropic

Space time → rotating → evolution eq<sup>n</sup>  
[Friedman eq<sup>n</sup>]

3-Dimensions

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$$

$$= [dx \quad dy \quad dz]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \eta_{xx} & \eta_{xy} & \eta_{xz} \\ \eta_{yx} & \eta_{yy} & \eta_{yz} \\ \eta_{zx} & \eta_{zy} & \eta_{zz} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} dx \\ dy \\ dz \end{pmatrix}$$

$$i = 1, 2, 3 \leftrightarrow x, y, z$$

$$ds^2 = \sum_{i,j=1}^3 dx_i dx_j \eta_{ij}$$

Rep.  $\eta_{ij}$  metric of space.

Coordinate → Distance

① ② ③

Continues  
See

4-D

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - d\vec{r}^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$$

Metric of space + time

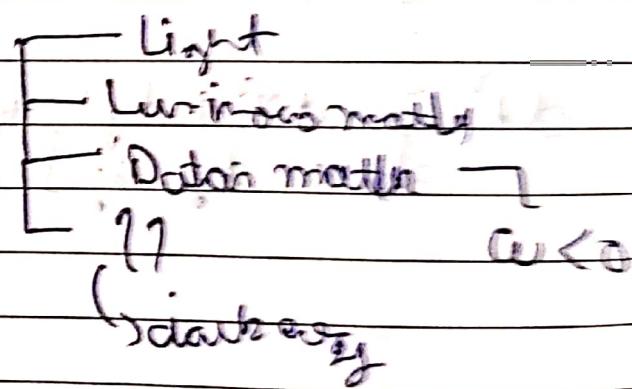
q<sub>μν</sub>  $\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, 3$

$$0 = ds^2 - c^2 dt^2 - d\vec{r}^2$$

$$c^2 dt^2 = d\vec{r}^2$$

Age  $\int_{\text{today}}^{dt}$   $\rightarrow$  can't be calculated

Contents of universe.



① "ra" of stars is :-

Pressure  $P = \omega p$   $\rightarrow$  energy density.

→ Thermodynamics

→ History of universe.

→ Structure formation in the universe.

## standard model of particle physics.

### Interaction

- Gravity
- EM (magnetism)
- Weak interaction
- string  $\rightarrow$   $11$

string theory  
n theory  
M theory  
grand unified theory  
(GUTs)

Big Bang  $10^{-43}$  sec  $10^{34}$  sec

today

Quantum gravity era  
GUTS

model of  
standard particle physics.

$$\rho = K g_s T^4$$

$$\rho P(+)$$

$$\rho = \rho_0 + (g_s, T)$$

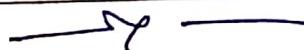
multiple degree of freedom.

## \* Structure Formation of Universe.

Homo-geneous & isotropic  
smooth

Lumpy universe  
galaxies, stars.

Universe



Cosmic microwave.

Background radiation.

## Key observational facts

$\rho \rightarrow$  density

$$\Omega = \frac{\rho}{3H^2/8\pi G} = \frac{\rho}{\rho_c}$$

where  $\rho_c = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}$

critical density:  $8\pi G$

$H$  = hubble constant

$G$  = Newton's gravitational const.

$\Omega > 1$  closed universe  $\odot$

$\Omega = 1$  flat universe  $\odot \oplus \ominus$

$\Omega < 1$  open universe. open —

$\rho$ : luminous  $\rightarrow \rho_{dm} \rightarrow \Omega_{dm} = \frac{\rho_{dm}}{\rho_c}$

$\rho$ : Dark matter  $\rightarrow \rho_{dm} \rightarrow \Omega_{dm} = \frac{\rho_{dm}}{\rho_c}$

$\Omega \approx 0.01$

$\Omega \approx 0.2 - 0.3$

$\Omega_{DE} \approx 0.2 - 0.3$

On things due to dark energy

Hubble space telescope  $\rightarrow H$

Age of the universe  $\rightarrow t_0$

$$\text{in nature } \rho_0 = \frac{2}{3} n^{-1}$$

vacuum energy

if  $\alpha$

Dark energy / vacuum energy  $\rightarrow$

Relationship between  $P$  &  $\rho$  is different  
 $\Rightarrow$   $\alpha$  of state  $= P = w\rho$

Matter  $w > 0$

dark energy

vacuum energy / dark energy  $w < 0$

Friction expansion  $\rightarrow H \uparrow$

Introduction.

General theory of relativity

symmetric energy

- Dynamics of spacetime.

linked to contents  $\rightarrow$  tension, stress, energy

stress energy

Tension

better position among density, pressure

vacuum

→ Tensors

vector transforming the same way from one reference frame to another.

→ Tensor transforms like the product of vectors

$$T_{ij} = v_i v_j$$

Stress tensor.



$$\sigma_{ij} = \text{stress tensor} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

in 4D with time

$$S_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} S_0, S_0, S_0, S_0 \\ S_0 \\ S_0 \\ S_0 \end{pmatrix} \left[ \sigma_{ij} \right]$$

Energy density.

For a perfect fluid

$$S_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} P & 0 \\ 0 & -P \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

P - pressure.

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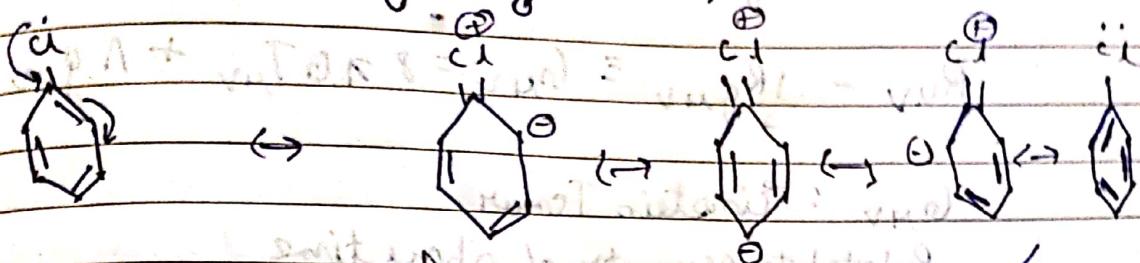
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## Application of resonance effect. (Aromatic)

low reactivity of aryl & vinyl halids.

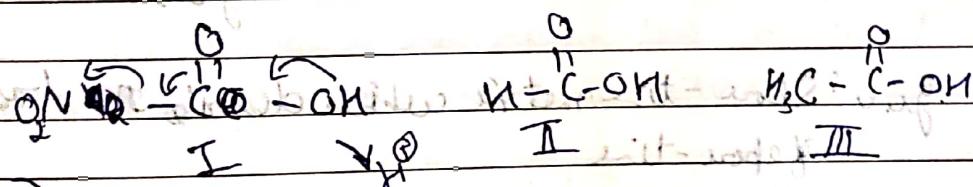
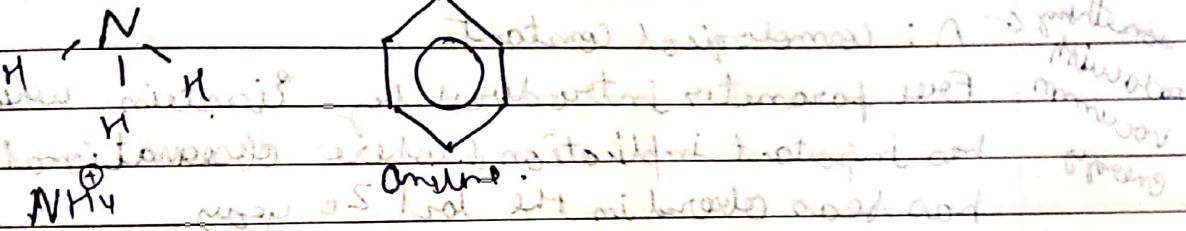


Double bond so stronger & stable  
reduces electron density & R

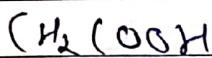
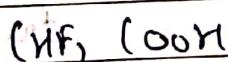
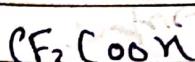
Compare the basic nature of ammonia & aromatic

Amine having NH<sub>3</sub> (factory est acidic)

so NH<sub>3</sub> has partial positive charge



~~acidic~~ - > - > - > weak



highly electro-negative

so EWG

I > II > III

more O & less nitrogen

$$\delta_a + \delta_b + \delta_h = \delta_{\text{H}}$$

# General theory of Relativity

- The central eq<sup>n</sup> is the Einstein eq<sup>n</sup>

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

$G_{\mu\nu}$  : Einstein Tensor

Related to geometry of space-time  
as  $R_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow$  Curvature tensor

$R \rightarrow$  Curvature Scalar

$T_{\mu\nu}$  : Stress energy Tensor

Describes the contents of the universe  
- matter, radiation etc. Components like ( $\rho$ ,  $P$  etc.)

something to do with vacuum energy  $\Lambda$ : cosmological constant.

Free parameter introduced by Einstein which actually has important implications where observational impact has been observed in the last 20 years.

$g_{\mu\nu}$  : Space-time metric which describes the basic properties of space-time

For 4D space-time  $\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, 3$

1. (00) time 2. (11) space

① Give the metric of space-time

Consider first 3D space

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$$

$$= (dx_i dy_j dz_k) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} dx_i \\ dy_j \\ dz_k \end{pmatrix}$$

$$ds^2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 \eta_{ij} dx_i dx_j$$

using the Einstein summation convention (all repeated indices are summed over all possible values - in this case 1, 2, 3)

$$ds^2 = \eta_{ij} dx^i dx^j$$

↓      ↓      ↓  
 space metric coordinate differential  
 (Interval distance squared)

### Now for 4-D

In 4-D, the invariant space-time interval  $ds^2$ ,

The metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$  and the coordinates are related by :

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

where a sum over repeated indices is implied.

To illustrate, let us note that for flat (minibowski) space of special relativity, the metric is more explicitly given by [with  $dx^0 = c dt$ ,  $dx^1 = dx$ ,  $dx^2 = dy$ ,  $dx^3 = dz$ ]

$$ds^2 = c^2 (dt)^2 - (dx)^2 - (dy)^2 - (dz)^2$$

$$= (dx^0)^2 - (dx^1)^2 - (dx^2)^2 - (dx^3)^2$$

For most relativity applications (not including cosmology)  
It is standard to use units such that  $c = 1$

The metric tensor  $g_{\mu\nu}$  can be written in metric  
format for case above

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{bmatrix} +1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{Diag } (+1, -1, -1, -1)$$

It can be written as  $(dx^0 dx^1 dx^2 dx^3) \begin{bmatrix} g_{\mu\nu} \\ dx^0 \\ dx^1 \\ dx^2 \\ dx^3 \end{bmatrix}$   
 (holomorphically)

For light  $ds^2 = 0$

Light cone tangent to light cone  $c dt^2 = 0$

$$c^2 dt^2 = dx^1 + dy^2 + dz^2$$

In another frame  $c dt^2 = 0$   $\rightarrow$  speed of light same

$$c dt^2 = c dx'^1 + c dy'^2 + c dz'^2$$

(inertial) tells us that distance is invariant

invariant under Lorentz transformation  
 $ds^2 = 0 \Rightarrow ds^2 = 0$  independent of  
 choice of reference frame

$$c dt^2 = c dx^1 + c dy^2 + c dz^2 = 0$$

Note that the quantity  $dx^M$  has an index  $M$  which  
 goes over 4 values (0, 1, 2, 3) and is called a 4 vector

1-vectors base come in 2 varieties - and denoted by having an index up or down - though they are simply related to each other through the metric tensor

$$d\mathbf{r}_1 = g_{11} \cdot dx^1 \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow & \text{upper index} \\ \downarrow & \text{contravariant} \end{matrix}$$

Lower index

(covariant) metric tensor

Tensor transforms like the product of vectors

$g_{11}$  rank 2 tensor  $\rightarrow$  has 2 indices & transforms like product of 2 vectors.

$$T_{123} = " = \delta_{12}^{13} = 1$$

$R_{1234} : " \rightarrow \text{transform like product of 4 vectors.}$

The contravariant metric tensor  $g^{11}$  is related to the covariant metric tensor  $g_{11}$  by the relation

$$g^{11} g_{11} = \delta^1_1 = \text{Diag}(1, 1, 1, 1)$$

They give a covariant metric tensor we can determine the contravariant metric tensor. The covariant metric tensor can be used to raise indices:

$$\delta^{\mu}_{\kappa} = 0 \quad \mu \neq \kappa$$

$= 1 \quad \mu = \kappa$

Kronecker Delta

$d\mathbf{x}^\mu = \delta^{\mu}_{\nu} g^{\nu\lambda} dx_\lambda$

## Metric Determining Geometry

In particular, it determines the curvature tensor which enters into the Einstein's eq<sup>2</sup>

Curvature Tensor:  $R^{\mu}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  &  $R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}$   $\downarrow$   $\rightarrow$  Riemann Curvature tensor

$$R^{\mu}_{\alpha\beta} = R^{\mu}_{\alpha\mu\beta} = \partial_{\mu}\Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\beta} - \partial_{\beta}\Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\mu} + \Gamma^{\mu}_{\mu\lambda}\Gamma^{\lambda}_{\alpha\beta} - \Gamma^{\mu}_{\mu\lambda}\Gamma^{\lambda}_{\alpha\beta}$$

where the connection coefficient (also known as Christoffel)  $\Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\beta}$  is:

$$\Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\lambda} (\partial_{\alpha}g_{\beta\lambda} + \partial_{\beta}g_{\alpha\lambda} - \partial_{\lambda}g_{\alpha\beta})$$

~~$$\partial_{\alpha} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\alpha}}$$~~ &  $\partial_{\alpha} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\alpha}}$   $\alpha = 0, 1, 2, 3$

Consider the following metric:

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^{\mu} dx^{\nu}$$

$$= C^2 dt^2 - (x^4(t)) dx^2 - (x^4(t)) x^2 dt^2$$

where  $t$  is the time coordinate and  $x^0, x^1, x^2$  are the spatial coordinates of space.

Choosing units so that  $C=1$  & letting the indices be denoted by  $i=0, 1, 2, 3$

$$\begin{matrix} i=1, 2, 3 \\ \uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow \\ x^0 \quad x^1 \quad x^2 \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{time component} \\ \text{space component} \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{varying from } 1 \text{ to } 3 \end{matrix}$$

use

$$\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\partial_{\alpha} g_{\nu\beta} + \partial_{\beta} g_{\alpha\nu} - \partial_{\nu} g_{\alpha\beta})$$

to determine expressions for

$$1) \Gamma_{ij}^0$$

$$5) \Gamma_{00}^n$$

$$2) \Gamma_{ij}^0$$

$$6) \Gamma_{nn}^0$$

$$3) \Gamma_{ij1}^1$$

$$4) \Gamma_{j11}^1 \quad 7) \Gamma_{nn1}^1$$

Use the expression:

$$R_{\alpha\beta} = R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} = \partial_{\mu}\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\nu} - \partial_{\beta}\Gamma_{\alpha\mu}^{\nu} + \Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^{\nu}\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\lambda} - \Gamma_{\beta\lambda}^{\nu}\Gamma_{\alpha\mu}^{\lambda}$$

$$\partial_{\mu}\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\nu} - \partial_{\beta}\Gamma_{\alpha\mu}^{\nu} + \Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^{\nu}\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\lambda} - \Gamma_{\beta\lambda}^{\nu}\Gamma_{\alpha\mu}^{\lambda}$$

To calculate the following components of the curvature tensor

$$1) R_{00}$$

$$2) R_{ij} \quad (a) R_{0j}, \quad (b) R_{00}, \quad (c) R_{\alpha\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Compute the Ricci Scalar: } R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu} = R_{00} + g^{ij} R_{ij}$$

$$\text{Ex} \rightarrow \text{Calculate } \Gamma_{0\alpha}^0 + \Gamma_{\alpha 0}^0$$

$$\text{Given } \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\partial_{\alpha} g_{\nu\beta} + \partial_{\beta} g_{\alpha\nu} - \partial_{\nu} g_{\alpha\beta})$$

$$\therefore \int_0^M g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = \frac{1}{2} g^{00} (d\phi r dt + dr g_{\theta\theta} - d_\theta g_{\theta\theta})$$

$$\text{Note: } g_{00} = 1, g_{\theta\theta} = \frac{-a^2}{1-r^2};$$

$$g_{00} = -a^2 r^2, g_{\theta\theta} = -a^2 r^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

$$= g_{00} dx^0 dx^0 + g_{01} \cancel{dx^0 dx^1} + g_{10} \cancel{dr' dr'} \\ g_{11} dx^1 dx^1$$

Comparing coefficient with

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2(t) \frac{dr^2}{1-r^2} - a^2(t) r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

We get  $g_{00}, g_{\theta\theta}, g_{\phi\phi}$  &  $g_{00}$  all others

$$\text{Thus, } g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{-a^2}{1-r^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -a^2 r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -a^2 r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Also } g^{\mu\nu} g_{\mu\nu} = \delta^K_J$$

$$\text{where } \delta^K_J = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \text{Diag}(1, 1, 1, 1)$$

$$g_{\mu\mu} = 0$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \frac{a^2}{a^2 g_1^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -a^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{-1}{a^2 g_1^2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{-1}{a^2 g_1^2 \sin \theta} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$g_{00} = \frac{-1}{a^2 g_1^2}$$

$$g^{00} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad g^{00} \cos \theta = 0$$

$$J_{0x} = \frac{1}{2} g^{00} (\partial_0 g_{0x} + \partial_x g_{00} - \partial_0 g_{00})$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} g^{00} \partial_x^2 g_{00}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} g^{00} \partial_x^2 g_{00}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} g^{00} \partial_x^2 g_{00}$$

$$\therefore J_{0x} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{-1}{a^2 g_1^2} \right) [ \partial_0 g_{00} + \partial_x (-a^2 g_1^2) - \partial_0 g_{00} ]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{-1}{a^2 g_1^2} \right) \frac{\partial (-a^2 g_1^2)}{\partial x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{-1}{a^2 g_1^2} \right) (+a^2) \frac{\partial g_1^2}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{a^2 g_1^2} \partial g_1^2$$

$$\boxed{\int_0^x g_1^2 dx}$$

Note

$$\sqrt{g_{\alpha\beta}} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\alpha g_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu g_{\alpha\nu} - \partial_\nu g_{\alpha\mu})$$

$$\sqrt{g_{\alpha\mu}} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\alpha g_{\nu\mu} + \partial_\nu g_{\alpha\mu} - \partial_\mu g_{\alpha\nu})$$

$\nu$  is a repeated index so has to be summed over all the possible values 0, 1, 2, 3 or in any case over 0, 1, 0, 0

$$\sqrt{g_{\alpha\mu}} = \frac{1}{2} g^{00} (\partial_0 g_{\alpha\mu} + \partial_\mu g_{00} - \partial_0 g_{0\mu})$$

~~HWS~~

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu =$$

$$c^2 dt^2 - \underline{\alpha^2(t) dx^2} - \underline{\alpha^2(t) r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)}$$

using  $\sqrt{g_{\alpha\beta}} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\alpha g_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu g_{\alpha\nu} - \partial_\nu g_{\alpha\mu})$

so for  $\sqrt{g_{ij}} = \frac{1}{2} g^{ij} (\partial_i g_{jk} + \partial_j g_{ik} - \partial_k g_{ij})$

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

$$\mu, \nu = 0, i, j, k$$

$$= g_{00} dx^0 dx^0 + g_{0i} dx^0 dx^i + g_{10} dx^1 dx^0 + g_{11} dx^1 dx^1$$

$$+ g_{20} dx^2 dx^0 + g_{21} dx^2 dx^1 + g_{22} dx^2 dx^2$$

composing, we get  
g<sub>00</sub> = 1 (time component)

$$g_{01} = \frac{-\alpha^2}{1 - k_{21}^2} (\text{z component})$$

$$g_{10} = -\alpha^2 g_{11} (\text{x component})$$

$$g_{11} = \frac{-\alpha^2 g_{12}^2 \sin^2 \theta}{1 - k_{21}^2} (\text{y component})$$

$$g_{11,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g^{KM} g_{11,2} = \delta_2^K = \text{diag}$$

$$g^{KM} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1 - k_{21}^2}{\alpha^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{-1}{\alpha^2 \sin^2 \theta} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{-1}{\alpha^2 \sin^2 \theta} \end{bmatrix}$$

④ from eq ②

i = 0, 1, j, K

$$\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2} g^{KM} \left( \partial_M g_{ij} + \partial_N g_{ji} + \partial_K g_{jk} \right)$$
$$+ \frac{1}{2} g^{ij} \left( \dots \right)$$
$$+ \frac{1}{2} g^{jk} \left( \dots \right)$$
$$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1 - k_{21}^2}{-\alpha^2} \right) \left( \partial_x \right) = 0$$

Answers for  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^M$

recall that  $\alpha, \gamma, \beta = 0, i$   
 $i, j \rightarrow r, \theta, \phi$

The non vanishing components

$$\Gamma_{j0}^i = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} + \delta_{ij} \quad \text{where } \dot{a} = \frac{da}{dt}$$

$$\Gamma_{ii}^{00} = -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Gamma_{00}^{ii} = -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} + \delta_{ii}$$

$$\text{check } g_{00} = 1 - \frac{a^2}{r^2} \quad g_{00} = -a^2$$

$$g(\phi\phi) = -a^2 r^2 \sin^2 \phi$$

The non vanishing components are

$$\Gamma_{rr}^r = \frac{1}{r}$$

$$\Gamma_{rr}^{\theta} = \frac{1}{r} (1 - r^2)$$

$$\Gamma_{rr}^{\phi} = -\frac{1}{r} (1 - r^2)$$

$$\Gamma_{\theta\theta}^r = \left( -\frac{1}{r} \right) (1 - r^2)$$

$$\Gamma_{\theta\theta}^{\theta} = \frac{1}{r} \quad \text{check answer}$$

$$\Gamma_{\theta\theta}^{\phi} = \frac{1}{r} \quad \Gamma_{\phi\phi}^{\theta} = -\sin \theta \cos \theta$$

$$\Gamma_{\phi\phi}^{\phi} = \cot \theta$$

Greek letters  
 $\alpha, \beta, \gamma = 0, 1, 2, 3$        $i, j, k, l = 1, 2, 3$

① Solved example for cubic curvature tensor  
 Component  
 Component

Use

$$R_{\alpha\beta} = R^M_{\alpha M\beta} = \partial_M \Gamma^M_{\alpha\beta} - \partial_\alpha \Gamma^M_{M\beta} + \Gamma^M_{\mu M} \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} - \Gamma^M_{\mu\beta} \Gamma^\mu_M$$

Complete  $R_{00}$ :

$$R_{00} = \partial_M \Gamma^M_{00} - \partial_0 \Gamma^M_{M0} + \Gamma^M_{\mu M} \Gamma^\mu_{00} - \Gamma^M_{\mu 0} \Gamma^\mu_M$$

using ~~technique~~ technique already for computing

$\Gamma^{\alpha}_{\beta\gamma}$  can show that  $\Gamma^M_{00} = 0$

$$R_{00} = -\partial_0 \Gamma^M_{M0} - \Gamma^M_{\mu 0} \Gamma^\mu_M$$

Further the only non vanishing component of the form  $\Gamma^M_{M0}$  &  $\Gamma^M_{\mu 0}$  etc. are

$$\Gamma^i_{j0} = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta^i_j \quad ; \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3$$

$$\therefore R_{00} = -\partial_0 \left( \frac{1}{C} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta^i_j \right) - \Gamma^i_{j0} \Gamma^j_{0i}$$

$$= -\partial_0 \left( \frac{1}{C} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta^i_j \right) - \left( \frac{1}{C} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 \delta^i_j \delta^j_i$$

Question what a)  $\delta^i_j$  b)  $\delta^j_i$

a)  $\delta^i_j$       b)  $\delta^j_i$

$$\delta^i_j = 1 \text{ if } i = j \text{ and } 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$(I)^i_j \cdot (I)^j_i = (I)^i_i = \delta^i_i$$

$$\delta^i_j \cdot \delta^j_i = \delta^i_i = \delta^1_1 + \delta^2_2 + \delta^3_3 = 3$$

$$\delta^4_4 = \delta^1_1 + \delta^2_2 + \delta^3_3 + \delta^4_4 = 4$$

↑ positionals.

$$R_{00} = -3 \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right) - 3 \left( \frac{1}{C^2} \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{3}{C} \left[ C \dot{a} \ddot{a} - \dot{a} \dot{a} \right] - 3 \frac{1}{C^2} \frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2}$$

$$\text{Using relation} = -\frac{3}{C^2} \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a} \quad (\text{H.T. } a = a(t))$$

$$R_{00} = -3 \frac{\dot{a}}{C} \frac{\ddot{a}}{a}$$

property  
therefore  $\ddot{a} = \dot{a}' \dot{a}$

$$\frac{d\dot{a}}{dt} = \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2}$$

Going back of einstein eq^n

The geometry of the universe is captured in terms of the einstein curvature tensor

$$G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R$$

$\uparrow$  Ricci curvature tensor       $\uparrow$  metric tensor       $\uparrow$  curvature scalar  
 $R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu}$

$G_{442}$  is related to contents of the universe as described by the stress energy tensor  $T_{442}$  by the einstein eqn:

$$(G_{442} - g_{442} \frac{\Lambda}{c^2}) = \frac{8\pi G_N}{c^4} T_{442}$$

*cosmological constant*      *constants of nature*

$T_{442}$  = Stress Energy Tensor

For an ideal fluid  $T_{442}$  is

$T_{442}$  = stress energy tensor

For an ideal fluid  $T_{442}$  is

$$T_{00} = \rho T_{ii} = -P g_{ij}$$

↓                    ↑  
energy density      Pressure

Stress energy tensor  $T_{442}$  related to simple measurable things like energy density or pressure

studied in thermodynamics

also used for finding off jet temperature etc.

The metric describing the space time for our universe called the Robertson-Walker metric and given by:

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - R^2(t) \left\{ \frac{dr^2}{1-b_{442} r^2} + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right\}$$

$$g_{\mu\nu} = g_{11} dx^1 dx^1 + g_{22} dx^2 dx^2 + \dots$$

from which we can extract the various components of  $g_{11}$ . [Note: We have set  $c=1$  in Aray metric]

The space time described by this Robertson Walker metric can be interpreted as a 3-D sphere embedded by a 4-D space. This can be arrived at mathematically.

Consider first the 2-D curved space in a 3-D Euclidean space with coordinates  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ .

The eqn of the 2 sphere of radius R is

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = R^2$$

The element of length in 3D space

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2$$

Since we are only interested in the 2-D surface described by  $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = R^2$  (The surface of the sphere of radius R) we actually only need 2 independent coordinates. If we choose  $x_1$  &  $x_2$  as the 2 independent coordinates then  $x_3$  can be taken as the "fictitious" third spatial coordinate and eliminated from  $ds^2$  by using Eqs (2.1) & (2.2) in the form below.

$$2x_1 dx_1 + 2x_2 dx_2 + 2x_3 dx_3 = 0$$

$$dx_3 = -(2x_1 dx_1 + 2x_2 dx_2)$$

2-sphere 2 independent coordinates  $x_1, x_2$

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$$dx_3 = \frac{-(x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2)}{\sqrt{R^2 - x_1^2 - x_2^2}} \quad (2.4)$$

substituting (2.4) in (2.3) we get

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + (x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2)^2 / (R^2 - x_1^2 - x_2^2) \quad (2.5)$$

Standard Cosmology

space-time metric for homogeneous isotropic universe

is obtained by judicious choice of coordinates

Geometry 3D sphere embedded in 4-D space

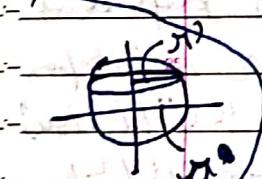
looking first at 2-D sphere in 3D space.

eqn for 2-sphere in 3D

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + (r_1 dr_1 + r_2 d\theta)^2 / (R^2 - x_1^2 - x_2^2)$$

Now introduce the coordinates  $r_1, \theta$  in terms of  $x_1, x_2$  as

$$x_1 = r_1 \cos \theta, x_2 = r_1 \sin \theta \quad (2.6)$$



typically  $(r_1, \theta)$  are polar coordinates in the  $x_3$  plane ( $x_3^2 = R^2 - r_1^2$ ). In terms of the new coordinates  $r_1, \theta$  because

$$dx_1 = r_1 \sin \theta d\theta + dr_1 \cos \theta \quad (2.7)$$

$$dx_2 = r_1 \cos \theta d\theta + \sin \theta dr_1 \quad (2.8)$$

$$dJ^2 = g^2 \left( d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right) - 2r' \sin \theta \cdot \\ + r'^2 \cos^2 \theta d\theta^2 + \cancel{r' \cos^2 \theta d\phi^2} + \cancel{r' \cos \theta \sin \theta d\phi^2} + r' \sin \theta d\phi^2 \\ + r'^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$$

Using trigonometric identities & simplifying we get:

$$dJ^2 = dr'^2 + r'^2 d\theta^2 + \cancel{r' dr'^2} \\ = dr'^2 \left[ 1 + \frac{r'^2}{R^2 - r'^2} \right] + r'^2 d\theta^2$$

$$dJ^2 = \frac{R^2 dr'^2 + r'^2 d\theta^2}{R^2 - r'^2} \quad 2.9$$

we can further define the coordinates such that

$$r' = \frac{r'}{R} \text{ such that } 0 \leq r' \leq 1$$

then  $r' = Rr$ , we recall that  $R$  is a constant

$$dr' = R dr$$

Thus  $dJ^2 = R^2 dr^2 + R^2 r^2 d\theta^2$

$$dJ^2 = R^2 dr^2 + R^2 r^2 d\theta^2$$

$$\therefore dJ^2 = R^2 \left\{ \frac{dr^2}{1+r^2} + r^2 d\theta^2 \right\} \quad 2.10$$

Note similarity of metric to the Robertson-Walker metric. The similarity will become exact when we go to 3-D sphere embedded in 4D space.

Now consider the 3-D space embedded in 4D space given by

$$R^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 \quad (2.11)$$

[where we have introduced the 'fictitious' 4-D coordinate  $x_4$ ]

Consider now:

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + dx_4^2$$

then the fictitious coordinate ( $x_4$ ) can be removed to get:

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + (x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2 + x_3 dx_3) \quad (2.12)$$

In terms of the coordinates  $(r, \theta, \phi)$

$$x_1 = r \sin \theta \cos \phi \quad (2.13)$$

$$x_2 = r \sin \theta \sin \phi \quad (2.14)$$

$$x_3 = r \cos \theta$$

(and  $r = x_1/R$ ) the metric is then given by

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - R^2(t) \left\{ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right\} \quad (2.15)$$

with  $k = +1$

Thus we see that the Robertson-Walker metric for  $R = +1$  can be interpreted as that for a (closed) sphere with radius  $R$  ~~is~~  $\rightarrow$  the  $R = -1$  case can be reconnected by making the  $R \rightarrow i/R$  (This is called hyper sphere & has an incoming radius) It corresponds to open universe. The limiting case is  $R = 0$  which is the boundary limit between open & close universe. It is called the flat universe.

### 0 Kinematics of the Robertson-Walker (RW) metric → Red shifting of light

Consider a light emitted from a distant source at worldline  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_1$  at time  $t_1$  which arrives at a detector at time  $t_2$  at coordinate  $\sigma = 0$ . Light travel along the shortest path (called a "geodesic") which is given by  $d\sigma^2 = 0$  with  $d\theta = 0 = d\phi$

Thus, the coordinate distance  $d\sigma$  & time will be related

$$\text{by : } \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \int_0^{\sigma_1} \frac{d\sigma}{(1 - k\sigma^2)^{1/2}} = f(\sigma_1) \quad (2.17)$$

[recall that RW metric in general is given by]

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - R^2(t) \left[ \frac{d\sigma^2}{1 - k\sigma^2} + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right]$$

setting  $ds^2 = 0$  &  $d\theta = 0 = d\phi$  gives (2.17)

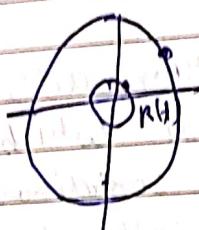
The wave crest emitted at a time  $t_1 + \delta t_1$  will

$\delta t$  is time interval  
 $\delta \theta \approx 10^{-14}$

assume at the deflection, position at time  $t_0 + \delta t_0$  will be same as initial position at time  $t_0$ .  
 The equation of motion will be same as (2.17), with  $t_1 \rightarrow t_1 + \delta t_1$ ,  $t_0 \rightarrow t_0 + \delta t_0$ .  
 Since  $\tau_{(11)}$  is constant [The source is fixed in the comoving coordinate system]  $\Rightarrow$

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \int_{t_1 + \delta t_1}^{t_0 + \delta t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} \quad (2.18)$$

### ① Comoving coordinate system.



$m, \Theta, R$   
 Some, or fixed  
 $R(t)$  changes with time.

physical coordinate system.

Let  $\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = I$

Then (2.18)  $\Rightarrow$

$$I(t_0) - I(t_1) = I(t_0 + \delta t_0) - I(t_1 + \delta t_1)$$

$$I(t_1 + \delta t_1) - I(t_1) = I(t_0 + \delta t_0) - I(t_0)$$

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_1 + \delta t_1} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \delta t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)}$$

$$\lambda = c \delta t$$

~~Redshift~~

For  $\delta t$  sufficiently small corresponding to wavelength

$$\lambda = \left( \frac{c}{\gamma} \right) \cdot \delta t \quad (\gamma = c + R(t))$$

constant taken to be  $c$  constant over the integra

- tions time & we get  $\delta t \approx 10^{-14}$  sec  $10^{17}$  m is prop of light wave.

$$\left[ \frac{\delta t_1}{R(t_1)} = \frac{\delta t_0}{R(t_0)} \right] (2.19)$$

For  $\delta t_1 \rightarrow$  time b/w successive crests of emitted light

( $\delta t_1 \rightarrow$  wavelength of the emitted light =  $\lambda_1$ )

&  $\delta t_0 \rightarrow$  time b/w successive wave crest of detected light.

&  $c(\delta t_0) \rightarrow$  wavelength of the detected light

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_0} = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_1)} \frac{c(\delta t_0)}{c(\delta t_1)}$$

Astronomers define the "red shift" of an object

in terms of the ratio of the detected wavelength to

the emitted wavelength

$$1 + z = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_1} = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_1)}$$

Any increase in  $R(t)$  leads to a red shift (increase in wavelength) of light from distant source.

Today astronomers observe distant galaxies to be red shifted & conclude the the universe is ~~expanding~~ expanding.

## 4) Dynamics time evolution

We start with einstein eq<sup>n</sup> put in the metric from the homogeneous isotropic universe  $\rightarrow$  Robertson Walker metric.

$\rightarrow$  Arrive at the eq<sup>n</sup> describing time evolution of universe  $\rightarrow$  Friedmann eq<sup>n</sup>.

Recall that the einstein eq<sup>n</sup> is

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

where  $G$ : Einstein tensor

$R$ : Curvature tensor

$T_{\mu\nu}$ : Ricci scalar

$T_{\mu\nu}$ : stress energy tensor

$\Lambda$ : cosmological const.

$g_{\mu\nu}$ : space-time metric

The space time metric is given by

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dt^2 - R^2(\tau) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right] \\ &= g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu \end{aligned}$$

This is the RW metric already discussed also note this metric is very similar to metric used in HW 1 b<sup>2</sup>. In fact if we set  $\kappa = 1$  & use mapping  $a(\tau) \rightarrow R(\tau)$  you get metric above.

Thus the non vanishing elements of the metric tensor are  
 $g_{00} = 1$ ,  $g_{11} = \frac{-R^2}{1-k_1^2}$ ,  $g_{22} = -R^2 k_1^2$ ,  $g_{33} = -R^2 k_1^2 \sin^2 \theta$

now using

$$T_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\alpha g_{\nu\beta} + \partial_\beta g_{\alpha\nu} - \partial_\nu g_{\alpha\beta})$$

$$\text{and, } R_{\alpha\beta} = R_{\alpha\mu\beta}^\mu = \partial_\mu [\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu - \partial_\alpha [\Gamma_{\mu\beta}^\mu] + \Gamma_{\mu\mu}^\mu \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu]$$

$$R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu}$$

Con determine all quantities on LHS of einstein eqn.

Further using  $T_{00} = \rho$  &  $T_{ij} = -P_{ij}$  for  $T_{12}$

can determine RHS of the einstein eqn.

Thus we get

$$R_{00} = -3 \frac{\ddot{R}}{R}$$

$$R_{ij} = -\left[ \frac{\dot{R}}{R} \dot{R} + \frac{2\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{2R}{R^2} \right] g_{ij}$$

(where  $i, j$  go over the spatial coordinates & the component is the time component)

$$\text{Further, } \dot{R} = \frac{dR}{dt}$$

$$\dot{R} = \frac{d^2R}{dt^2}$$

The Ricci scalar  $R_{00} = g^{11} R_{11} = g^{11} R$

$$R = -6 \left[ \frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{k}{R^2} \right] \quad \text{scale factor}$$

Recall that the Einstein eq<sup>n</sup> is:

$$R_{11} - \frac{1}{2} R g_{11} = 8\pi G T_{11} + \Lambda g_{11}$$

The 0-0 component of the Einstein eq<sup>n</sup> gives:

$$-3 \frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{1}{2} 6 \left[ \frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{k}{R^2} \right] = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

$$\boxed{3 \left[ \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{k}{R^2} \right] = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda} \quad (2.11)$$

top bracket

The ii component of the Einstein eq<sup>n</sup> gives

$$- \left[ \frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{2\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{2k}{R^2} \right] + \frac{1}{2} 6 \left[ \frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{k}{R^2} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{2\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{k}{R^2} = 8\pi G (-P) + \Lambda} \quad (2.12)$$

where  $\ddot{R} = \frac{d^2 R}{dt^2}$   $\dot{R} = \frac{dR}{dt}$

photon  $\rightarrow c^+$

can simplify no. eqn by introducing

$$P_{vacuum} = \frac{1}{8\pi G} (2.24 \rho)$$

$$\Delta P_{vacuum} = -\frac{1}{8\pi G} (2.24 \rho)$$

Then the earlier eqn (2.22) & (2.23) take the form

$$3 \left[ \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{R}{R^2} \right] = 8\pi G [ P + P_{vacuum}] \quad (2.25)$$

$$\Delta \left[ \frac{2\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{R}{R^2} \right] = -8\pi G (P - P_{vacuum}) \quad (2.26)$$

Further defining

$$P_{total} = P_{ext} + P_{vacuum}$$

$$P_{total} = P + P_{vacuum}$$

we get more compact eqn.

Thus:

$$3 \left[ \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{R}{R^2} \right] = 8\pi G P_{total} \quad 2.27$$

$$\frac{2\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{R}{R^2} = -8\pi G P_{total} \quad 2.28$$

The eqn (2.27) & (2.28) which follows from the einstein eqn can be used to describe the time evolution of the universe.

- ① Consider now how the energy changes in a comoving volume as given by the expression:

$$\textcircled{a} \frac{d(\rho R^3)}{dt} = \frac{d}{8\pi G} [R^2 \ddot{R} + \dot{R}^2 R] \quad (2.29)$$

where we have used eqn (2.27)  $\times R^3$  & applied  $8\pi G$  to the time derivative to both sides.

From eqn (2.29) we can expand to get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\rho R^3)}{dt} &= \frac{3}{8\pi G} [2R \ddot{R} R + \dot{R}^2 R + \dot{R} \dot{R}] \\ &= \frac{3R}{8\pi G} [2\ddot{R} R + \dot{R}^2 + \dot{R}] \end{aligned}$$

This

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\rho R^3)}{dt} &= \frac{3R\dot{R}^2}{8\pi G} \left[ \frac{2\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{\dot{R}}{R} \right] \\ &= \frac{3R\dot{R}^2}{8\pi G} \left[ -\frac{8\pi G P}{R} \right] \quad \text{from eqn (2.27)} \\ &= [-P] \left\{ \frac{dR^3}{dt} \right\} \quad \text{from } \frac{dR^3}{dt} = 3R^2 \frac{dP}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d(\rho R^3)}{dt} = -\rho \frac{d(R^3)}{dt} \quad (2.30)$$

The physical content of the above eq<sup>n</sup> is the first law of thermodynamics in the expanding universe.

Let us now use the eq<sup>n</sup> of state which relates pressure  $P$  & energy density  $\rho$  as:

$$P = w\rho \quad (2.31)$$

Then using eq<sup>n</sup> (2.30) & (2.31) we get:

$$d(\rho R^3) = -w\rho d(R^3)$$

$$d(\rho R^3) = -w\rho dR^3$$

$$R^3 d\rho + \rho_3 R^2 dR + c w p_3 R^2 dR = 0$$

$$\frac{R^3 d\rho}{dR} + 3R^2 \rho + 3wR^2 \rho = 0$$

$$\text{Thus, } \left[ \frac{d\rho}{dR} \right] = -3 \frac{(1+w)\rho}{R} \quad (2.32)$$

From (2.32) it follows that.

$$\rho = C R^{-3(1+w)} \quad (2.33)$$

where  $C$  is a constant

Value of  $w$  is different for diff matter  
from vacuum energy  $\Rightarrow w = -1$

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This can be verified by differentiating or by integrating.

$$\text{then } \frac{dp}{p} = -3(1+w) \frac{dR}{R}$$

$$\text{Thus in general } p = R^{-3(1+w)}$$

where  $w$  enters in the eq<sup>n</sup> of state  $p = w\rho$

For radiation

$$p = \frac{1}{3}\rho \Rightarrow w = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\text{thus } \rho \propto R^{-3(1+\frac{1}{3})}$$

$$\boxed{\rho \propto R^{-4}} \quad \text{For radiation.}$$

Note that the number density of photons  $\sim 1$



universe is expanding  $(R(t))^3$  and photons are constant in number.  
So energy density =  $\frac{1}{R^3}$  for photons

Energy density = Number density  $\times$  energy of each particle.

$$= \frac{1}{R^3} \times \frac{1}{R} \downarrow \text{energy of photons}$$

$$= \frac{1}{R^4} \lambda \quad \text{with expanding universe}$$

① Next, comment (Non-Relativistic Matter)  $v \ll c$

For Matter

$$P = \rho_m R T = \rho_m V_{\text{thermal}}^2$$

$$\text{mass density} \rightarrow \text{where } V_{\text{thermal}} = \sqrt{RT}$$

thermal speed of molecules.

And energy density  $\rho$  is:

$$\rho = \rho_m c^2 \quad (E = mc^2)$$

$$w = \frac{P}{\rho} = \frac{\rho_m V^2}{\rho_m c^2} = \left(\frac{V}{c}\right)^2 \approx 0$$

This for matter we have  $w = 0$

$$\boxed{\rho \propto r^{-3}}$$

For vacuum energy density  $\epsilon_0 \approx 10^{-24} J/m^3$

$$\rho_{\text{vacuum}} = \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$$

$$\delta \rho_{\text{vacuum}} = -\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$$

$$\rho_{\text{vacuum}} = \rho_{\text{vacuum}}$$

Thus

$$\cancel{\rho_{\text{vacuum}}} = \rho \propto R^0$$

Crossed out

(2) Hubble constant changes in million years not 100s of years.

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$$\text{Radiation} \quad \text{Matter} \quad \text{Vacuum}$$

$$\text{Summarizing } \rho \propto r^{-1} \quad \rho \propto r^{-3} \quad \rho \propto r^0$$



Implication of Friedmann eq<sup>n</sup>

Open / Closed / Flat universe condition.

Recall the O-0 component of Einstein eq<sup>n</sup>  
gone ~~with us~~

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R} + \frac{k}{r^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \quad (2.34)$$

The quantity  $\frac{\dot{R}}{R} = H$  is called the hubble parameter.

It is a measure of how ~~fast~~ fast the universe is expanding.

H is a function of time on the cosmological scale. The hubble time  $H^{-1}$  sets the time scale for expansion.

The hubble constant  $H_0$  is the present observed value of the hubble parameter.

Eq<sup>n</sup> (2.34) can be re-written as

$$H^2 + \frac{k}{r^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$$

$$1 + \frac{k}{R^2 H^2} = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3 H^2}$$

$$\frac{k}{R^2 H^2} = \frac{\rho}{3 H^2 / 8\pi G} - 1 \quad (2.35)$$

$\Omega \rightarrow$  Gross collapse first  
 $\Omega < 1$  by the open close universe.  
 $\Omega = 1$  critical density.

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Defining

$$P_C = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}$$

$$\propto \Omega = \frac{P}{P_C}$$

Eqn (2.35) can be written completely as:

$$\frac{R}{R^2 H^2} = \Omega - 1 \quad (2.36)$$

Recall from our discussion of the Robertson-Walker metric's that depending on the value of  $\kappa$  the universe was either closed, open or flat:

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa = +1 &\Rightarrow \text{closed} \Leftrightarrow \Omega > 1 \\ \kappa = 0 &\Rightarrow \text{flat} \Leftrightarrow \Omega = 1 \\ \kappa = -1 &\Rightarrow \text{open} \Leftrightarrow \Omega < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus the geometry of the universe ( $\kappa$ ) is tied to the contents of the universe ( $P/\Omega$ ) & the critical density dividing line is  $P_C = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}$ . This follows from Einstein's / Friedmann's eqn

- Now comparing energy density in radiation & matter

The observed value of the Hubble constant  $H_0$  is in the range of  $70 - 80 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$  & it is usually expressed as

$$H_0 = 100 h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$$

the uncertainty captured in the  $\pm$  dimensionless parameter of  $h$  of order unity which is in the range of 0.7 to 0.8.

$$H = \frac{\dot{R}}{R} = \frac{dR}{dt} \left( \text{km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \right) \text{ directionally}$$

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The matter density measured in the universe today is

$$\Omega_m h^2 = \Omega_{dm} h^2 + \Omega_{\text{luminous}} h^2 \approx 0.1$$

dark matter

[Corresponding to  $\Omega_m = 0.25$ ]

The radiation density (in Hz) cosmic microwave background photons

$$\Omega_{rad} h^2 \approx 4.3 \times 10^{-5}$$

corresponding to a number density of photons

$$n_{rad} = 410 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

Today there is more matter than (CMBR) today, but it was not so in the past.

Recall from our earlier discussion,

$$\text{Radiation} \propto R^{-1} \quad \text{P matter} \propto R^{-3}$$

$$\text{Thus } \frac{\text{Radiation}}{\text{P matter}} \propto \frac{R^{-1}}{R^{-3}} = \frac{1}{R}$$

Thus, at earlier times when universe was smaller ( $R$  was smaller) then the relative value of radiation was higher. In fact,

$$\frac{(\text{Radiation} / \text{P matter})_{\text{earlier}}}{(\text{Radiation} / \text{P matter})_{\text{today}}} \propto \frac{R_{\text{today}}}{R_{\text{earlier}}}$$

$$= \frac{R_{\text{today}}}{R_{\text{earlier}}} = (1 + z)$$

where  $z$  is the redshift we had earlier derived the relationship  $R(t_0) = (1+z) R(t_1)$

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{\text{(Radiation)}}{\text{(Matter)}_{\text{earlier}}} = (1+z) \left( \frac{\text{Radiation}}{\text{Matter}}_{\text{today}} \right)$$

An important epoch in the universe's history is the epoch of matter-radiation equality. At matter-radiation equality,  $z_{eq}$  is given by

$$\frac{\text{(Radiation)}}{\text{(Matter)}}_{\text{equality}} = 1$$

Eq 2.39 then  $\Rightarrow$

$$1 = (1 + z_{eq}) \left( \frac{\text{Radiation}}{\text{Matter}} \right)_{\text{today}}$$

where  $z_{eq}$  is the redshift at which matter-radiation equality happens.

From our earlier discussion WKT found

$$\left( \frac{\text{Radiation}}{\text{Matter}} \right)_{\text{today}} = \frac{1}{(1+z)^3} \approx 4.3 \times 10^{-12}$$

$$(1 + z_{eq}) = 10^{12}$$

$$4.3 \times 10^{-12}$$

$$z_{eq} \approx 3000 (2.40)$$

The is the redshift at which matter & radiation had equality.

$$z = 3000$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} z < 3000 \\ P_m \\ \hline z > 3000 \\ P_r \end{array} \right\}$$

### ③ Comparing value of $\Omega$

Recall that the Friedmann Eq<sup>n</sup>: (0=0 constant of existence)

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{k}{R^{20}} = 8\pi G \rho$$

can be written as:

$$\frac{k}{H^2 R^2} = \Omega - 1 (2.41)$$

By defining  $\Omega = \frac{\rho}{\rho_c}$  and  $\rho_c = 3H^2$

Note that  $\Omega - 1$  is not a constant but in general changes with time.

In fact at early times the energy density is high the hubble parameter H is also high and in compare the ~~H<sup>2</sup>~~  $R/R^2$  term is small & can be neglected in the evolution eq<sup>n</sup>'s thus we get

$$H^2 \propto \rho$$

for MD (matter)

$$H^2 \propto R^{-3}$$

for RD (Radiation)

$$H^2 \propto \rho^{-1}$$

$R \approx 1$

$$\frac{R_0}{R_{\text{eq}}} = (1+z)^{-1}$$

$$\left( \frac{R}{R_{\text{eq}}} \right)^2 = 10^4 (1+z)^{-2}$$

Thus

$$H^2 \rho^2 \propto \rho^{-1} \quad \text{for MD (Q. 42)}$$

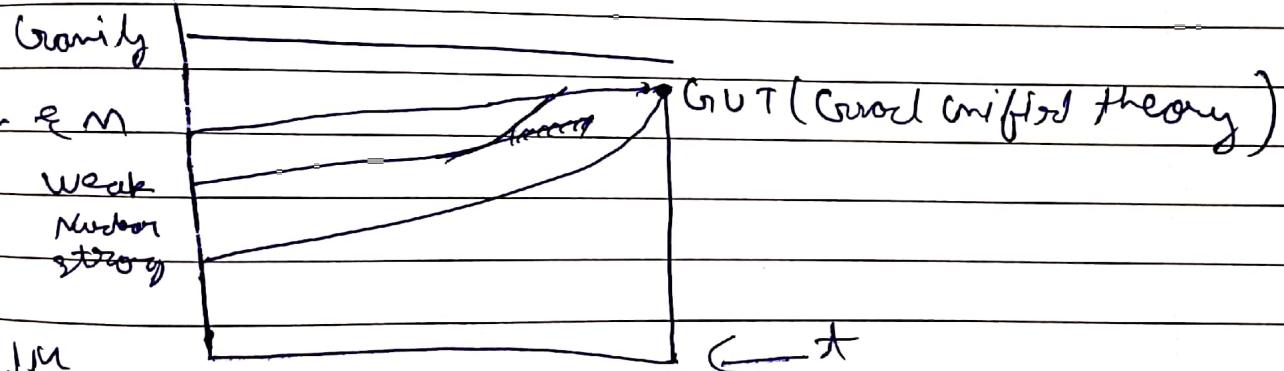
$$H^2 R^2 \propto \rho^2 \quad \text{for RD (Q. 43)}$$

Since  $|1-\Omega|$  is at most of order 1 today using  
 (2.41), (2.42), (2.43) that

$$\frac{10^{-3}}{\text{(approx)}} \leftarrow |z - 1| \approx \frac{R}{R_0} = (1+z)^{-1} \quad (\text{MD})$$

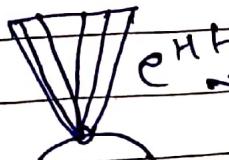
$$\left( \frac{R_{\text{eq}}}{R_0} \right) \left( \frac{R}{R_{\text{eq}}} \right)^2 = 10^4 (1+z)^{-2} \quad (\text{RD})$$

Today the value of  $\Omega$  is very close to 1.  
 Thus we see that at early times  $\Omega$  had to be  
 even closer to 1.



Standard geometry issues

- 1) Horizon problem (monopole)
- 2) Horizon



$e^{Ht} \rightarrow$  cosmological inflation

$$\Omega \rightarrow 1$$

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