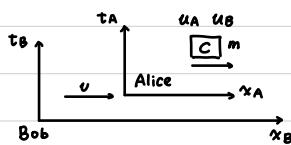


PHYS 2022 MODERN PHYSICS
PART 1. SPECIAL RELATIVITY



1 Principles of Special Relativity

1.1 Galileo's Principle of Relativity (R)

Laws of nature take the same form in all inertial frames

$$t_B = t_A, x_B = x_A + vt_A$$

In Alice's frame.

$$F = ma_A.$$

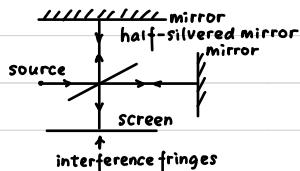
In Bob's frame.

$$F = ma_A = m\ddot{x}_A = m\ddot{x}_B = m\ddot{a}_B.$$

$$\ddot{x}_A = \ddot{x}_B, \ddot{x}_B = \ddot{x}_B = \ddot{x}_A + v.$$

(R) is respected by Newtonian mechanics.

1.2 The speed of light



From Maxwell equations, the velocity addition rule is inconsistent with the observer-independent speed of light. The Michelson-Morley interferometer experiment proved that.

1.3 Einstein's Relativity

The postulates of special relativity

(R) Laws of nature take the same form in all inertial frames

(C) The vacuum speed of light is c in all inertia frames

The postulate of observer-independent events

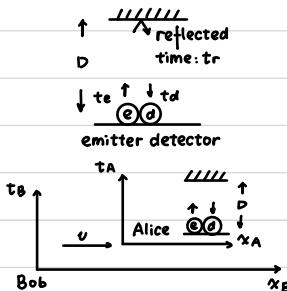
(E) Event: happen to a particular small object at a particular moment (localized at a spacetime point). The occurrence of an event is observer-independent.

2 Time Dilation

Construction of a light clock

$$\Delta t \equiv t_A - t_E = \frac{2D}{c}.$$

$$\Delta t_A = \frac{2D}{c}.$$



In Alice's view,

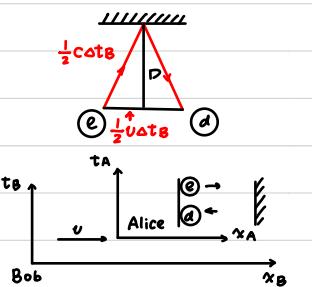
$$(\frac{1}{2}c\Delta t_B)^2 = (\frac{1}{2}v\Delta t_B)^2 + D^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta t_B = \frac{2D}{c} \sqrt{\frac{1}{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{\Delta t_A}{\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \gamma \Delta t_A, \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}} > 1$$

3 Length Contraction

Construct a light ruler $D = \frac{1}{2}c\Delta t$.

In Alice's view, $D_A = \frac{1}{2}c\Delta t_A$.





Velocity addition

1. Define a speed meter

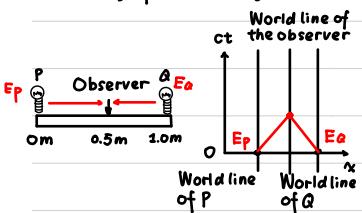


$$\Delta t = D \left(\frac{1}{v} + \frac{1}{c} \right).$$

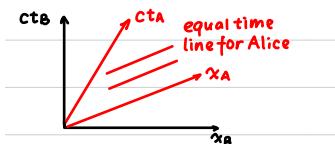
2. Load it in a moving car

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For Alice: } \Delta t_A &= D_A \left(\frac{1}{v_A} + \frac{1}{c} \right) \\ \text{For Bob: } \Delta t_B &= \Delta t_{B1} + \Delta t_{B2} \\ \Delta t_{B1} &= \frac{D_B}{v_B - v}, \quad \Delta t_{B2} = \frac{D_B}{c - v} \\ \Rightarrow \theta &= \frac{v_A + v}{1 + \frac{v_A v}{c^2}}. \end{aligned}$$

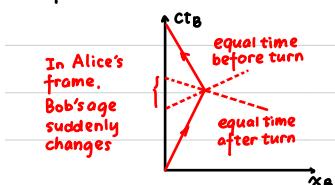
The meaning of simultaneity wrt an observer



Equal time slices



Twin paradox



In Bob's view, $\Delta t_B = D_B + v \Delta t_A$

$$\Delta t_{B2} = D_B - v \Delta t_B$$

Thus

$$\Delta t_B = \Delta t_{B1} + \Delta t_{B2} = \frac{D_B}{c-v} + \frac{D_B}{c+v} = \frac{2}{c} \frac{D_B}{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} = \frac{2}{c} \frac{D_B}{\gamma^2}.$$

$$\text{Since } \Delta t_B = \gamma \Delta t_A, \quad D_B = \frac{c}{2} \frac{\Delta t_B}{\gamma^2} = \frac{c}{2} \frac{\Delta t_A}{\gamma} = \frac{D_A}{\gamma} = \frac{D_A}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}.$$

5 Meaning of the "Same Time" (Simultaneity)

5.1 Simultaneity Depends on Which Observer

Spacetime diagram: 1. An event is a point

2. Light travels 45° line

3. An object (or observer) is a line (called world line) with

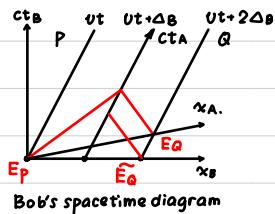
$$|\text{slope}| > 45^\circ \text{ everywhere } \left| \frac{\Delta(ct)}{\Delta x} \right| = \frac{c}{v} > 1 = \tan 45^\circ.$$

4. An inertial observer is a straight line

5. A static object is a line parallel to the ct axis

6. Events at the same time are parallel to the x -axis.

Simultaneity is a relative concept



5.2 Causality and Types of Separations

Time order associated with cause and effect

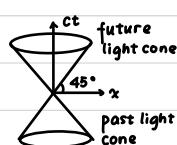
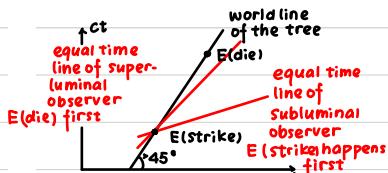
Event E(strike): Lightning strikes on the tree

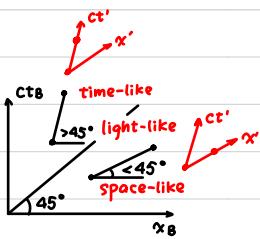
↓ Causality

Event E(die): The tree dies

Special relativity without superluminal motion is consistent with causality

Causal structure of spacetime: past and future light cones





No perfect rigid body in relativity

Space-like, null and time like intervals

Space-like: exists observer wrt whom 2 space-like separated happen at the same time. The events are pure space separated wrt this observer. The time order of the events can be flipped for different observers.

Time-like: exists observer wrt whom two time-like events happen at the same position. The events thus separated only in time wrt this observer. The time order of the events is absolute and has to be agreed on for all observers. Causally-related events are separated by time-like intervals

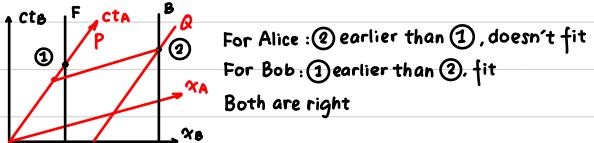
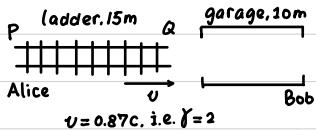
Light-like (null): Light travels with light-like lines.

6 Example: The Ladder Paradox

Alice: garage moves, length is $10m/2 = 5m$. ladder doesn't fit in the garage

Bob: ladder moves, length is $15m/2 = 7.5m$. ladder fits in the garage.

Two events: 1. P enters front door F 2. Q exists back door B



For Alice: ② earlier than ①, doesn't fit
For Bob: ① earlier than ②, fit
Both are right

7 The Lorentz Transformation

Space Transformation of a boost

Suppose Alice holds a ruler with length x_A . Wrt Bob, the length is $\frac{x_A}{\gamma}$
 $t_B = 0, x_B = \frac{x_A}{\gamma}$.

$$\text{Then } x_B = \frac{x_A}{\gamma} + ut_B = x_A - \gamma(x_B - ut_B).$$

Following (R), we get $x_B = \gamma(x_A + ut_A)$.

Time transformation of a boost

$$x_B = \gamma[(x_B - ut_B) + ut_A] \Rightarrow t_A = \gamma(t_B - \frac{u}{c^2}x_B), t_B = \gamma(t_A + \frac{u}{c^2}x_A)$$

Summary: the Lorentz Transformation

$$\begin{bmatrix} cta \\ x_A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma & -\beta\gamma \\ -\beta\gamma & \gamma \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} ctb \\ x_B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Rotation } \begin{bmatrix} x_A \\ y_A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_B \\ y_B \end{bmatrix}$$

$\begin{cases} cta = \gamma(ctb - \beta x_B) \\ x_A = \gamma(x_B - \beta cta) \\ y_A = y_B \\ z_A = z_B \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} ctb = \gamma(cta + \beta x_A) \\ x_B = \gamma(x_A + \beta cta) \\ y_B = y_A \\ z_B = z_A \end{cases} \quad (\beta = \frac{u}{c})$
--	--

$$\vec{U}_A = (U_{Ax}, U_{Ay}, U_{Az}) = \left(\frac{dx_A}{dt_A}, \frac{dy_A}{dt_A}, \frac{dz_A}{dt_A} \right).$$

$$\vec{U}_B = (U_{Bx}, U_{By}, U_{Bz}) = \left(\frac{dx_B}{dt_B}, \frac{dy_B}{dt_B}, \frac{dz_B}{dt_B} \right).$$

$$U_{Bx} = \frac{dx_B}{dt_B} = \frac{\gamma d(x_A + ut_A)}{\gamma dt_A + u dt_A} = \frac{dx_A + ut_A}{dt_A + \frac{u}{c^2} dx_A} = \frac{u_A x + u}{1 + \frac{u_A u}{c^2}}$$

$$U_{By} = \frac{dy_B}{dt_B} = \frac{\gamma dy_A}{\gamma dt_A + \frac{u}{c^2} dx_A} = \frac{dy_A}{\gamma (1 + \frac{u_A u}{c^2})}$$

$$U_{Bz} = \frac{dz_B}{dt_B} = \frac{u_A z}{\gamma (1 + \frac{u_A u}{c^2})}$$

Hyperbolic functions

$$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$

$$\tanh x \equiv \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x}$$

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$$

$$\cosh(i\theta) = \cos \theta$$

$$\sinh(i\theta) = i \sin \theta$$

8 The Geometry of Spacetime

rapidity

Rewrite the Lorentz transformation using $\phi = \operatorname{arctanh} \beta$

$$\beta = \tanh \phi = \frac{u}{c} = \frac{\sinh \phi}{\cosh \phi} \Rightarrow \frac{u}{c^2} = 1 - \frac{1}{\cosh^2 \phi} = \cosh \phi - 1.$$

$\Rightarrow \sinh \phi = \beta \gamma$. Then

$$ct_B = ct_A \cosh \phi + x_A \sinh \phi$$

$$x_B = ct_A \sinh \phi + x_A \cosh \phi$$

Define $\phi = i\theta$, $ct = iw$

rotation of the $w-x$ plane.

$$\begin{cases} iw_B = iw_A \cos \theta + x_A (i \sin \theta) \\ x_B = iw_A (i \sin \theta) + x_A \cos \theta \end{cases} = \begin{cases} w_B = w_A \cos \theta + x_A \sin \theta \\ x_B = -w_A \sin \theta + x_A \cos \theta \end{cases}$$

In Euclidean space $ds^2 = dw^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 = -d(ct)^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$.

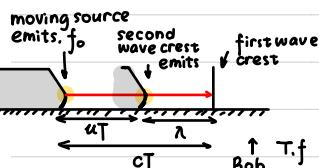
ds^2 is an invariant quantity under Lorentz transformation

$x^\mu = (ct, x, y, z)$ a 4-vector in Minkowski space.

$ds^2 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ time-like, $ds^2 > 0 \Leftrightarrow$ space-like, $ds^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ light-like, null

for an observer $ds^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 = 0$

for an observer $d(ct)^2 = 0$



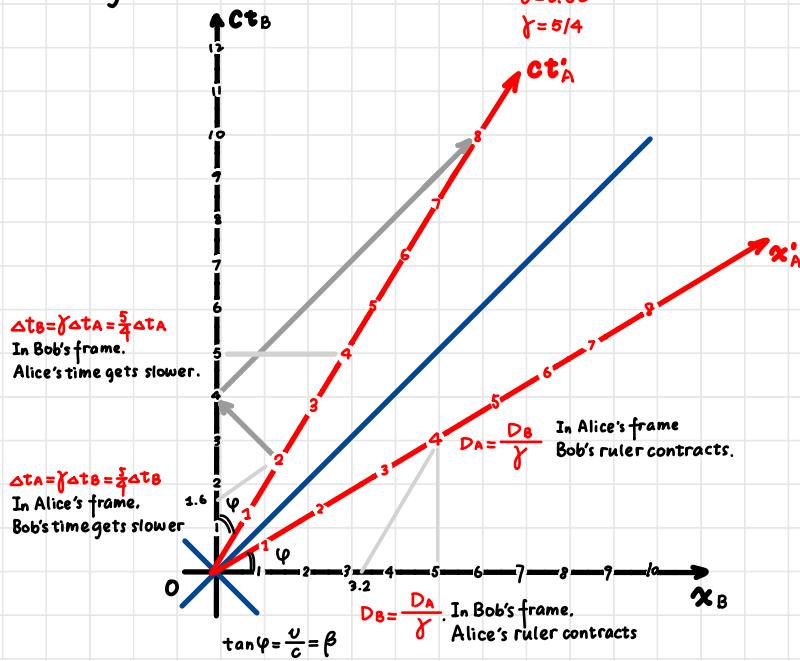
$$\lambda = (c-u)T, f = \frac{c}{(c-u)T}.$$

$$T = \frac{T_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{cT_0}{\sqrt{c^2 - u^2}}.$$

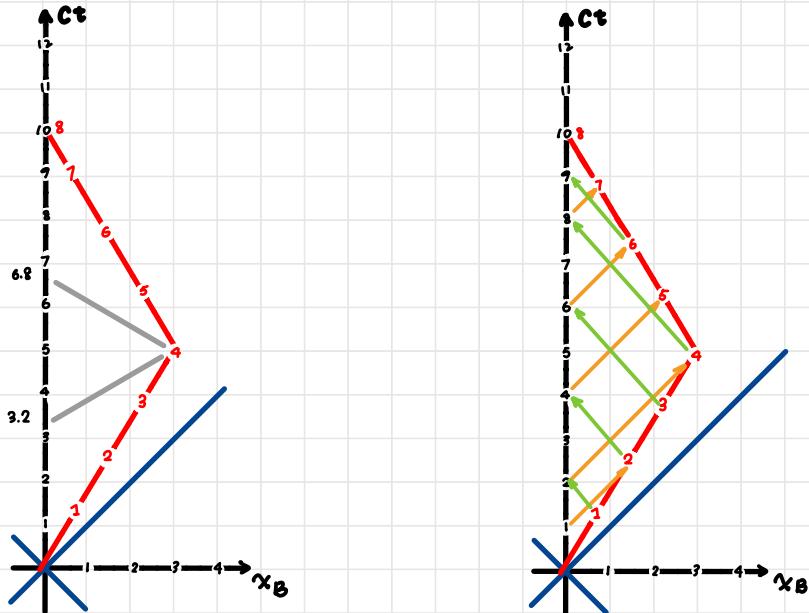
$$\frac{1}{T} = \frac{\sqrt{c^2 - u^2}}{c} \cdot \frac{1}{T_0} = \frac{\sqrt{c^2 - u^2}}{c} \cdot f_0.$$

$$f = \frac{c}{c-u} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{c^2 - u^2}}{c} f_0 = \boxed{\frac{c+u}{c-u} f_0}.$$

The Spacetime diagram ($v=0.6c$)



The twin paradox ($v=0.6c$)



$$1\text{eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{J.}$$

9 Relativistic Momentum and Energy

Relativistic Momentum

Define proper time

$$d\tau = \sqrt{-\frac{ds^2}{c^2}} = \sqrt{dt^2 - \frac{dx^2}{c^2}} = \frac{dt}{\gamma}.$$

Proper time is the time measured by the moving object itself.

$$\text{Momentum} \quad \vec{p} = m \frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau} = \gamma m \vec{v}.$$

$$\text{Force} \quad \vec{F} \equiv \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = \frac{d(\gamma m \vec{v})}{dt} = \gamma m \vec{a} + \gamma^3 m \vec{v} \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{a}}{c^2}$$

As $v \rightarrow c$, $F \rightarrow \infty$ = c is the speed limit

Relativistic Energy

$$K = \int F dx = \int \frac{d(\gamma m v)}{dt} dx = \int v d(\gamma m v) = (\gamma - 1) mc^2 \quad \begin{matrix} \text{Status: independent} \\ \text{from process} \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{Taylor expansion at } v=0: \gamma = (1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})^{-\frac{1}{2}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{v^2}{c^2} + \dots$$

$$\text{In Newtonian mechanics, } K = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$$

Mass m is a constant of boost (const wrt all observers)

Consider $M \rightarrow 2m$ split process Consider $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$, $m \rightarrow 0$, $\gamma mc^2 \rightarrow$ finite quantity
 Final state Energy Conservation Initial state, not moving
 Kinetic Energy $K \approx 2\gamma mc^2 \xrightarrow{\text{Energy Conservation}} E = 2\gamma mc^2 = Mc^2$.

rest mass, invariant mass
 $E_{\text{rest}} = mc^2$.

Total energy (relativistic energy)

$$E = \gamma mc^2.$$

relativistic mass

The 4-dimensional vector

4-D vector $(cdt, d\vec{x})$, inner product $ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + d\vec{x}^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$

$$\text{4-D vector of momentum} \quad \vec{p} = \gamma m \frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau} \Rightarrow \vec{p} = (\gamma mc, \gamma m \vec{v}) = (\frac{E}{c}, \vec{p})$$

$$\vec{p} \cdot \vec{p} = -\left(\frac{E}{c}\right)^2 + \vec{p}^2 = -\gamma^2 m^2 c^2 + \gamma^2 m^2 v^2 = -\gamma^2 m^2 c^2 \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) = -m^2 c^4 \Rightarrow |\vec{p}|^2 = \frac{E^2}{c^2} - m^2 c^4$$

$\Rightarrow E^2 = |\vec{p}|^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4$. A particle may have energy and momentum even it has

no rest mass. In such a case, $E = pc$, the particle always travel at c in vacuum.

$$\text{Doppler Effect*} \quad \text{momentum of light} \quad E = h\nu \quad \underline{h = \frac{c \lambda \nu}{\lambda}} \quad h \frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{c}{P}$$

$$\text{Alice: } k_A = (mc, \vec{o}), p_A = \left(\frac{E_A}{c}, \vec{p}_A\right) \quad k_A \cdot p_A = -mE_A$$

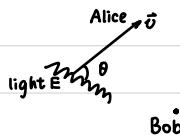
Alice's vector wrt Bob

$$\text{Bob: } k_B = (\gamma mc, \gamma m \vec{v}), p_B = \left(\frac{E_B}{c}, \vec{p}_B\right), k_B \cdot p_B = -\gamma m(E_B - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{p}_B)$$

$$k_A \cdot p_A = k_B \cdot p_B \Rightarrow E_A = \gamma(E_B - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{p}_B) = \gamma(E_B - v p_B \cos\theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow E_A = \gamma E_B (1 - \frac{v}{c} \cos\theta)$$

$$\underline{E = h\nu} \quad w_A = \gamma w_B (1 - \frac{v}{c} \cos\theta)$$



1 The Equivalence Principle

Two quantities of mass

Inertial mass: $m_I = \frac{F}{a}$, is a measure of inertia - laziness in changing its velocity



Alice would feel inertial force downward



Gravitational mass: $m_G = \frac{F}{g}$ for gravity - how strongly gravity attracts the matter.

Einstein's equivalence principle

Assume the complete physical equivalence of a (uniform) gravitational field and a corresponding acceleration of the reference frame.

This answered: $m_I = m_G$, because inertia (a) equals to gravity.

Uniform gravity can be cancelled by constant acceleration

g is equivalent to $a = -g$, and $a = -g$ could be cancelled by $a = g$.

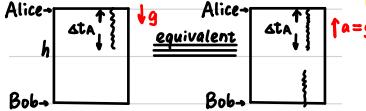
e.g. One feels no gravity in free falling lifts.

Light bends in uniform gravity

Light bends the same way as in an accelerated environment.

2 Time with Uniform Gravity

Higher is faster



$t=0$, the pulse starts to pass through A. A.B has velocity $v=a$. s is the length of the light pulse. s should be a constant.

Alice sends two light pulses with interval Δt_A . Assume $c\Delta t_A \ll h$, $gh \ll c^2$.

Wrt Alice, $v=0$ when she sends the signal. $s = c\Delta t_A \Rightarrow \Delta t_A = \left(1 + \frac{gh}{c^2}\right)\Delta t_B$

Wrt Bob, $v = \frac{gh}{c}$ when he receives the signal. $s = (c + \frac{gh}{c})\Delta t_B$

Bob finds Alice faster. $t=0$ Alice and Bob

Time dilation with a gravitational potential

Gravitational potential ϕ , $d\tau_A = \left(1 + \frac{\phi_A - \phi_B}{c^2}\right) d\tau_B$.

The metric for a spherical star

For Alice, $d\tau_A = \left(1 + \frac{\phi_A}{c^2}\right) d\tau_B \Rightarrow d\tau_A = \left(1 - \frac{GM}{rc^2}\right) d\tau_B$

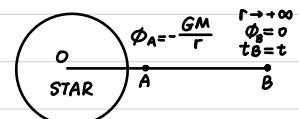
Alice is static at a fixed position wrt the star, $d\vec{x} = 0$.

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 = -c^2 \left(1 - \frac{GM}{rc^2}\right)^2 dt^2 = -c^2 \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}\right) dt^2 = -(1 + \frac{2\phi_A}{c^2}) c^2 dt^2$$

The Schwarzschild metric

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

The Schwarzschild radius $r_s = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$



3 Black Holes

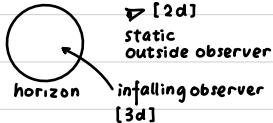


$r < r_s$
Alice
•

$r = r_s$
Bob

Observation at $r = r_s$:

∞ time dilation
 ∞ gravitational potential \Rightarrow horizon



A Classical Black Hole:

mass, angular momentum, charge
c.f. a fundamental particle

What happens near $r = r_s$

For any finite interval Δt_A according to Alice

$$\Delta t_B = \Delta t_A \times \left(1 - \frac{r_s}{r}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \rightarrow \infty$$

Bob finds Alice frozen on the $r = r_s$ surface. Light emitted at r_s need ∞ time to reach Bob. Bob cannot see anything happen at $r < r_s$.

Event horizon and black hole

$r = r_s$ is a surface to limit the events that Bob can see. Thus $r = r_s$ is known as an **event horizon**. The dense object hides inside this event horizon and thus is **invisible**. No light from this object can reach outside. The object is known as a **black hole**

"Inside" the horizon: the future is doomed at a singularity.

At $r < r_s$, the metric could be written as

$$ds^2 = -\underbrace{\left(\frac{r_s}{r} - 1\right)^{-1}}_{>0} dr^2 + \underbrace{\left(\frac{r_s}{r} - 1\right)}_{>0} c^2 dt^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2).$$

Now dr is like time and dt is like space. For Alice, the $-r$ direction is now the time direction.

Everything inside the black hole falls towards the future at $r = 0$. It's known as **singularity**.

4 Gravitational Waves

Special relativity and Newtonian gravity are inconsistent

$F = G_N \frac{Mm}{r^2}$. If Alice waves her hand, the Bob from a light year away could measure a slightly different gravitational attraction from Alice immediately. But from special relativity, no information can travel faster than light.

Learn from E&M

The source electric charge accelerates \Rightarrow E&M wave is emitted.

The gravitational waves are the fluctuations of spacetime. They travel at the speed of light and are transverse waves.

O Introduction

Olber's Paradox

Two possible reasons why the sun is bright:

1. The sun spreads a larger solid angle.

2. The energy emitted by the sun is greater than the energy emitted by the star per solid angle

$$(\text{Power received per solid angle}) = \frac{A}{4\pi r^2} / \frac{4\pi R^2}{4\pi R^2} = A \frac{L_0}{\pi r_0^2}$$

Surface brightness of the sun $\Sigma_0 \equiv \frac{L_0}{\pi r_0^2} = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. The sun is as bright as other stars per solid angle. It's brighter because it has a large solid angle.

Surface brightness of the night sky: 5×10^{-27} .

Olber's paradox If the universe is infinite, then there would be a star at any solid angle \Rightarrow The night sky is as bright as the sun.

Another approach: the luminosity decays as $1/r^3$, the number of stars at distance r

should scale as r^2 . Sum up and all the stars should be as bright as the sun.

The Observable Universe

To solve the paradox, assume the universe is finite.

$$(\text{Probability encounter a star}) = n R_u \pi r_0^2 \approx \frac{10^{-17}}{10^{-1}} = 10^{-14}$$

$$\Rightarrow R_u = \frac{10^{-14}}{n \pi r_0^2} = \frac{10^{-4}}{(10^9 \text{ Mpc})(10^{-27} \text{ Mpc})} = 10^4 \text{ Mpc} \approx 10^{10} \text{ lyr}$$

Radius of observable universe: $R_u = 10^{10}$ lyr.

(Speed of light) \times (Age of universe) $= R_u \Rightarrow$ Age of universe: 10^{20} years.

1 The dynamics of the universe

The cosmological principle

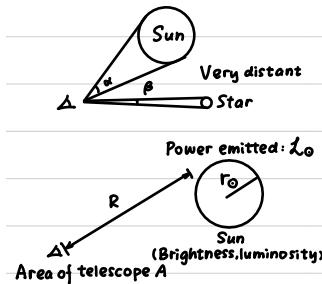
Our universe is approximately homogeneous and isotropic on larger scales.
($100 \text{ Mpc} \sim 10^4 \text{ lyr}$)

Distant galaxies are leaving us

Hubble measured the spectrum of light from other galaxies. One can find out the velocity of galaxies by Doppler-like effects, through measuring the observed spectrum.

From the Copernicus principle to the expanding universe

The universe does not have a center. Wherever you are on the universe, you find the neighboring points leaving you \Rightarrow The universe is expanding.



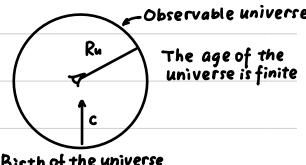
n: density of stars



$$\Delta R_u: \text{size of universe}$$

$$\text{Mpc} \approx 3 \times 10^{22} \text{ m}$$

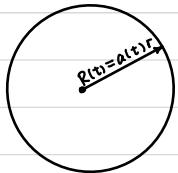
$$\approx 3 \times 10^6 \text{ lyr}$$



Birth of the universe

Copernicus Principle:

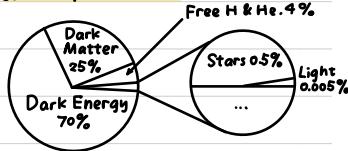
Humans are not privileged observers of the universe, that observations from the Earth are representative of observations from the average position in the universe.



Physical distance: $R(t)$
real distance, actual physical measurements.

Comoving distance: r

Content of the universe



$$p = w\rho \Rightarrow \rho = \rho_0 \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{-3(1+w)}$$

Pressureless dust: $p=0$
(non-relativistic matter)

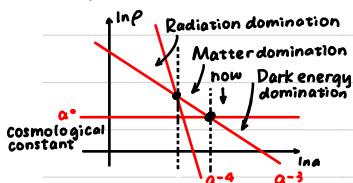
$$\rho \propto a^{-3}$$

Radiation: $p = \frac{\rho}{3}$.
(relativistic matter)

$$\rho \propto a^{-4}$$

Dark energy: $p = -\rho$
(ρ is const.)

$$\rho \propto a^0$$



Imagine a universe filled with pressureless dust. The dust particles expand together

with the universe expansion, without additional motion by themselves.

The comoving coordinate is related to the physical coordinate by $R(t) = a(t)r$

$a(t)$ is known as the **scale factor**, quantifying the time dependence of the universe.

Define the **Hubble parameter**, the expansion rate of the universe

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

The universe tells matter how to get diluted

Consider a component in the universe with energy density ρ and pressure p .

First law of thermodynamics $dE = TdS - pdV$

$dS = 0$ as heat will not be conducted in a homogenous universe.

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = p \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d(a^3 \rho)}{dt} = \rho \frac{da^3}{dt} = \dot{\rho} + 3H(\rho + p) = 0$$

This is called the **continuity equation** in cosmology.

Matter tells the universe how to expand

Consider a dust particle with mass m , comoving distance r . The energy conservation

$$\text{equation is } \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2 - \frac{GMm}{r} = E = \text{constant.}$$

E is determined by the initial condition of the universe. Observation tell that $E \approx 0$.

$$M \text{ is the mass inside the sphere } M = \frac{4\pi R^3}{3} \rho.$$

Then we obtain the **Friedmann Equation** telling the universe how to expand

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

2. The early universe

20ps	temperature	A spontaneous symmetry breaking generated mass for known massive fundamental particles.
20ms	150MeV	Free quarks are binded into protons and neutrons. Their binding energy is the main source of mass of atomic matter
3min	0.1MeV	Light elements, especially helium, are created from p.n.
50.000 years	1eV	Dominated by non-relativistic radiation
400.000 years	0.3eV	Universe becomes transparent, light can travel freely Structures grow in the universe.
14 billion years (Present)		Start to be dominated by dark energy.