

Announcements:

Class time change for Wed, Jan 22 3:30—5:00
Please make sure and choose your topic by Friday

Now that we have a metric, we ask questions about distances. We'll begin with ***proper distance***.



To find distance, we must agree upon a time and fix that time,
so, $dt = 0$.



$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= -c^2 dt^2 + a(t)^2 [dr^2 + S_k(r)^2 d\Omega^2] \\ &= a(t)^2 [dr^2 + S_k(r)^2 d\Omega^2] \\ &= a(t)^2 dr^2 \\ ds &= a(t) dr \end{aligned}$$

The ***proper distance*** is found by integrating over the radial comoving component, r

$$d_p(t) = \int ds = a(t) \int_0^r dr' = a(t)r$$

The rate of change for the proper distance between the two points is then

$$\dot{d}_p(t) = \dot{a}(t) r = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} d_p$$

At the current time, $t = t_o$ we have a linear relationship between velocity and distance. First define

$$v_p(t_o) \equiv \dot{d}_p(t_o) \quad H_o = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)_{t=t_o} \quad \text{Then, we arrive at } v_p(t_o) = H_o d_p(t_o)$$

$$v_p(t_o) = H_o d_p(t_o)$$

Is well and good, but not very practical because one cannot measure proper distances

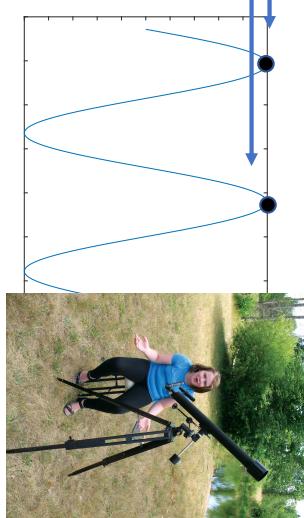
However, we can measure redshifts. While this doesn't give the proper distance, it will give us $a(t)$...progress.

In the following we are using light as our tracer of distance and recall that for light $ds = 0$. Once again, the angular part plays no role in the metric since, $d\Omega = 0$. From the metric we then have

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a(t)^2 [dr^2 + S_k(r)^2 d\Omega^2] = 0 \quad \text{for light}$$

$$c^2 dt^2 = a(t)^2 dr^2 \Rightarrow c \frac{dt}{a(t)} = dr \Rightarrow \boxed{c \int_{t_e}^{t_o} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_{r_e}^r dr'}$$

$$r = c \int_{t_e + \lambda_e/c}^{t_o + \lambda_o/c} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = r'$$



$$\int_{t_o}^{t_e} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_{t_e + \lambda_e/c}^{t_o + \lambda_o/c} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$



So we are here: $\int_{t_o}^{t_e} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_{t_e + \lambda_e/c}^{t_o + \lambda_o/c} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$ To proceed, we subtract

$$\int_{t_e + \lambda_e/c}^{t_o} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

and we note that over these time scales $a(t)$ can be treated as constant so that we get

$$\frac{1}{a(t_e)} \int_{t_e}^{t_e + \lambda_e/c} dt = \frac{1}{a(t_o)} \int_{t_o}^{t_o + \lambda_o/c} dt$$

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

Now define

$$z \equiv \frac{\lambda_o - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e}$$

so that

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

Thus although we can't get distances (yet) by just measuring the redshift, we can tell how fast the universe is expanding.

Last lecture we essentially introduce cosmological *kinematics*. Today we will begin our look at *dynamics*.

Dynamics is cosmology are governed by three factors

- a) Einstein's General Theory of Relativity
- b) The Robertson-Walker metric which arises in an isotropic and homogeneous universe
- c) The Friedman equations, in which b) is applied to a) to arrive for a dynamical picture of how the universe evolves in time.
- d) To do this ourselves requires an understanding of *tensors*, so we'll forgo the full derivation. We'll just present the results when needed.

$$\text{The Einstein Equation(s)}$$

$$\underbrace{G_{\mu\nu}}_{\substack{\text{Spacetime} \\ \text{Geometry}}} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R = \underbrace{8\pi T_{\mu\nu}}_{\substack{\text{Matter} \\ \text{distribution}}} \quad \begin{aligned} G_{\mu\nu} &= \text{The Einstein tensor} \\ R_{\mu\nu} &= \text{The Ricci tensor} \\ g_{\mu\nu} &= \text{The metric tensor} \\ R &= \text{The Ricci scalar} \\ T_{\mu\nu} &= \text{The stress-energy tensor} \end{aligned}$$

16 *coupled* partial differential equations!!

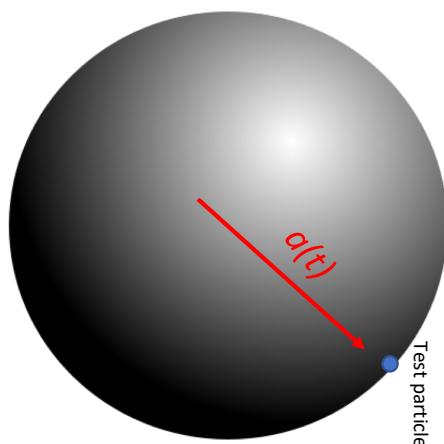
Luckily, for an *isotropic and homogeneous* universe, only the $G_{00} = T_{00}$ equation remains. Whew!

The Friedman equation—how does $a(t)$ evolve

- Can derive using mostly Newtonian mechanics if we include two results from ***GR***
 1. ***Birkhoff's Theorem***: for a spherically symmetric system, the force due to gravity at radius r is determined only by the mass ***interior*** to that radius.
 2. ***Energy*** contributes to the gravitating mass density:

$$\epsilon(t) \equiv \underbrace{\rho_m}_{\substack{\text{density of} \\ \text{matter}}} + \underbrace{\frac{\mu}{c^2}}_{\substack{\text{energy density} \\ \text{of radiation and} \\ \text{relativistic particles}}}$$

- Recall we are solving only $G_{00} = T_{00}$



Do question (1a) on the worksheet and **S T O P**

The Friedman equation (1a):

$$\rho = \frac{M_s}{(4\pi/3)a^3} \Rightarrow M_s = \frac{4}{3}\rho a^3 \quad \text{so}$$

$$\ddot{a} = -\frac{4\pi}{3}G\rho a$$

Now note the we can rewrite the density as $\rho = \rho_o a^{-3}$ and substituting above we get that $\ddot{a} = -\frac{4\pi}{3}\frac{G\rho_o}{a^2}$

Do question (1b) on the worksheet and **S T O P**.

(1b) The universe cannot be static

To proceed, we have to figure out a way to solve $\ddot{a} + \frac{4\pi}{3}\frac{G\rho_o}{a^2} = 0$. What follows is a series of **tricks** designed to do the integration.

Do question (1c) on the worksheet and **S T O P**

(1c) $\ddot{a} + \frac{4\pi}{3}\frac{G\rho_o}{a^2} = 0$ multiply both sides by \dot{a}

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d(\dot{a})}{dt} + \frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{G\rho_o}{a^2} \frac{da}{dt} = 0 \quad \text{now use } \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{da}{dt} = -\frac{d(1/a)}{dt}$$

$$\dot{a}\ddot{a} + \frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{G\rho_o}{a^2} \dot{a} = 0 \quad \text{now use fact that } d(\dot{a})/dt = 2\dot{a}\ddot{a}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d(\dot{a})}{dt} - \frac{4G\rho_o\pi}{3} \frac{d(1/a)}{dt} = 0 \quad \text{factor out a } \frac{d}{dt}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d(\dot{a})}{dt} + \frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{G\rho_o}{a^2} \frac{da}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[\dot{a}^2 - \frac{(8\pi G\rho_o/3)}{a} \right] = 0 \quad \text{what about the quantity in brackets?}$$

Let's finish up. $\left[\dot{a}^2 - \frac{(8\pi G \rho_o / 3)}{a} \right] = -k;$ a constant

Recall that we had $\rho = \frac{\rho_o}{a^3} \Rightarrow \rho_o = \rho a^3$ and that GR tells that it is energy as well as matter that contributes to gravity. Substituting for density and dividing by a^2 gives

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} G\rho - \frac{k}{a^2}$$

And finally replacing the density with the energy + matter gives (Ryden's form) the Friedmann equation:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon(t) - \frac{k c^2}{R_o^2} \frac{1}{a^2} \quad (1)$$

Friedmann's first equation.

Notes:

- You will see it in several different but equivalent forms
- In Ryden's form, she puts back the constants (**c**) which many authors set to 1
- In our derivation, we set $R_o = 1$. She leaves it in the more general form.

Energy + matter

Finish question (1) on the worksheet and **STOP**

The Friedmann equation:
$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon(t) - \frac{kc^2}{R_o^2} \frac{1}{a^2} \quad (1)$$

Let's play around with Eq. (1) a bit. First, the constant k is the curvature and can take on the values $k = +1, 0, -1$ which correspond to ***positive, flat, or negatively curved universes.***

Next recall that $H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$ so that Eq (1) can also be written as

$$(H(t))^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon(t) - \frac{kc^2}{R_o^2} \frac{1}{a^2} \quad (2)$$

$H(t)$ is known as the ***Hubble parameter***. At present time we have $H_o = H(t_o) = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)_{t=0} \approx 68 \text{ km}/(\text{s Mpc})$ and H_o is known as the ***Hubble constant***

The Friedmann equation evaluated at the present moment is

$$H_o^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon_o - \frac{kc^2}{R_o^2} \frac{1}{(a_o^2 = 1)} \quad (3)$$

Do question (2) on the worksheet and **STOP**

$$(2a) \frac{R_o^2 a(t)^2}{c^2} \left(H(t)^2 - \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon(t) \right) = -k$$

(2c) positive, (2d) negative

$$(2b) \frac{R_o^2 a(t)^2}{c^2} \left(H(t)^2 - \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \frac{3c^2}{8\pi G} H(t)^2 \right) = 0 = -k$$

$$(2e) 1 - \Omega(t) = -\frac{k c^2}{R_o^2 a(t)^2 H(t)^2}$$

Regardless of the form used for Friedmann equation, we still do not have enough information to solve for $a(t)$ because there are two unknowns

1. $a(t)$
2. $\epsilon(t)$

Thermodynamics to the rescue. Two key facts

1. The laws of thermodynamics do not change form in **GR**
2. Except perhaps at very earliest moments, the expansion of the universe is **adiabatic**.

The first fact means we can write (1st law of thermo): $dQ = dE + PdV$

The second fact means that $dQ = 0$ so $0 = dE + PdV$.

At your table discuss why the expansion of an isotropic and homogeneous universe must be adiabatic.

For a homogeneous, isotropic, and expanding universe, the first law is (note the time evolution)

$$\dot{E} + P\dot{V} = 0$$

Let's expound on this a bit. For the **volume** of a sphere of comoving radius, r_s , that is expanding along with the universe, we have

$$\begin{aligned} V(t) &= \frac{4\pi}{3}r_s^3a(t)^3 \quad \text{or} \\ \dot{V} &= \frac{4\pi}{3}r_s^3(3a^2\dot{a}) = \boxed{V\left(\frac{3\dot{a}}{a}\right)} \end{aligned}$$

Having taken care of the volume, let's look now at the **E**. The internal energy of a sphere is,

$$\begin{aligned} E(t) &= \epsilon(t)V(t) \\ \dot{E} &= V\dot{\epsilon} + \epsilon\dot{V} \\ \dot{E} &= V\left(\dot{\epsilon} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right) \end{aligned}$$

And now substituting these into the first law we have

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{E} + P\dot{V} &= 0 \\ V\left(\dot{\epsilon} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right) + PV\left(\frac{3\dot{a}}{a}\right) &= 0 \\ \boxed{\dot{\epsilon} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\epsilon + P) = 0} \end{aligned}$$

Fluid equation

The two equations we have are

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \epsilon - \frac{kc^2}{R_o^2 a^2} \quad (1)$$

$$\dot{\epsilon} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\epsilon + P) = 0 \quad (2)$$

These two can be combined to form a 3rd equation that is often very useful. This will be left as an exercise, but result is of combining Eqs (1) and (2) is

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3c^2} (\epsilon + 3P) \quad (3)$$

This is called the *acceleration equation*

Do question (3) on the worksheet and **S T O P**