

Relativity and Cosmology

lecture 21

Recap lecture 20

- Photon trajectories in Schwarzschild.
- Newtonian limits for energy/acceleration in Schwarzschild.

Completed discussion of motion static, spherically symmetric spacetime

Constants of motion, different FOR, event horizon, orbits etc
Spinning black holes ? Not this time ...

Cosmology

- Large scale dynamics of Universe thought to be governed only by **gravitational forces**. In the framework of GR we thus expect the large scale features of the Universe to be described by a spacetime metric which is a solution of the field equations of GR.
- Solutions of Einstein's equations represent all possible spacetimes. Which ones describe our Universe ? This is the subject of cosmology.
- To proceed need to make simplifying assumptions:
 - What type of T appears on RHS of field equations ?
 - What symmetries should we assume for metric describing Universe at large scales ?

Symmetries of spacetime

- Sun is one of about 100 billion stars which are clustered together into Milky Way (about 100 thousand light years across). This is a typical scale for a galaxy. Between galaxies there are voids in space. Galaxies often group into clusters and superclusters - sometimes these appear to be correlated in position.
- However, if you average over large enough distances the Universe appears remarkably **homogeneous** and **isotropic** (looks same at all distances and directions).
- Leads to a *cosmological principle* which basically says that the Universe looks the same from all points within it.

Consequences

- This assumption implies that spacetime is made up of 3d spaces each associated with a different instant of time. Furthermore this space must have constant **spatial curvature** (since no point is distinguished). There are then 3 possibilities for this space.
 1. Flat Euclidean space $R = 0$. Parallel geodesics never cross. Infinite in size.
 2. The 3d sphere S^3 with positive (spatial) curvature $R > 0$. Initially parallel geodesics converge. Finite in size.
 3. 3d hyperboloid. Points in 4d flat space such that $t^2 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2 = 1$. Diverging geodesics. Infinite in size. $R < 0$.

LHS – FRW metric

- All these possibilities can be realized from the metric (Friedmann, Robertson, Walker metric)

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

where $k = 0$, $k = 1$ and $k = -1$ label the three spatial topologies. This form of the metric also incorporates the isotropy of each spatial slice at fixed t .

- Which topology ? Until recently this was unclear - now new observations appear to select the first possibility – a spatially flat Universe on the largest scales ($k = 0$). (COBE/WMAP data)
- Note: single scale factor $a(t)$ governs behavior of Universe - typical distance between galaxies ...

RHS - matter

- RHS of Einstein's equations is **energy-momentum** $T_{\mu\nu}$. Must be given in terms of the (spatially constant) energy density and pressure of matter and radiation.
- The simplest form for these consistent with our cosmological principle is

$$T_{\mu\nu} = (\rho + p) u_\mu u_\nu - p g_{\mu\nu}$$

where ρ and p are the density and pressure of a perfect fluid (we have set $c = 1$)

Cosmological equations

- Finally Einstein's equations become

$$(1) \quad 3 \frac{\left(\left(\frac{da}{dt} \right)^2 + k \right)}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{2a \frac{d^2 a}{dt^2} + \left(\frac{da}{dt} \right)^2 + k}{a^2} = -8\pi G p + \Lambda$$

- The term involving Λ is called the **cosmological constant term** and was introduced by Einstein so that the equations of GR admitted static solutions.

More on Λ

- However in 1929 Hubble announced that all the galaxies were receding from each other with a velocity proportional to their separation - just what you would have expected if $a(t)$ were increasing with time ! Thus Einstein regarded the introduction of this new term as his "Greatest Mistake".
- However, recent modern observations on the apparent acceleration of the distant supernovae appear to favor such a term afterall. The nature and origin of this *dark energy* is a source of much work right now. Also, natural in QM - but why do small ?

Continued

- Can rewrite the two cosmological equations as

$$\frac{d^2 a / dt^2}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (3p + \rho) + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

an equation for the cosmic acceleration and

$$\left(\frac{da/dt}{a} \right)^2 = H^2(t) = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho - k/a^2 + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

where H is the Hubble “constant” governing the velocity of the scale factor. Notice that a non-zero value of H indicates an expanding Universe as observed by Hubble.

Redshift

- To clarify let us define the redshift z as

$$1 + z = \frac{a(t_1)}{a(t_0)}$$

where $t_1 > t_0$. Hence in an expanding Universe $z > 0$. Suppose now that t_0 and t_1 are "close". Then we can expand $a(t_0) = a(t_1) + da/dt|_{t=t_1} (t_1 - t_0)$ Thus

$$z = \frac{da/dt}{a} \delta t$$

But for radially moving light rays in a flat FRW universe $\delta t = a(t)\delta r$ find $z = Ha(t_1)\Delta r$. This is Hubble's law! The red shift is proportional to the distance.

Equation of state

- To proceed further conventional to parametrize the so-called *equation of state* for the matter as $p = w\rho$.
- Radiation $w = 1/3$ (or extremely relativistic matter) and for (cold) non-relativistic matter $w = 0$. The cosmological constant can even be thought of as a peculiar type of matter with $w = -1$.
- Notice that we can only get a accelerating expansion (which we now observe) if $w < -1/3$ which can be done with either a pure cosmological constant or some other exotic form of matter with $w < -1/3$. It *cannot* be achieved with ordinary matter (dark energy problem)

Universes with $p = 0$

- Consider a Universe made up predominately of non-relativistic matter with $p = 0$. The pressure equation can be rewritten as

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(a (da/dt)^2 + ka - \frac{\Lambda}{3} a^3 \right) = 0$$

Using the first cosmological equation we then find the constant

$$C = \frac{8\pi G}{3} a^3 \rho$$

It clearly has an interpretation as the (conserved) amount of mass in a Universe of radius a .

Evolution

- The equation governing the Hubble parameter now looks like

$$\left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 = \frac{C}{a} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}a^2 - k$$

From now on we will consider the (experimentally most relevant case $k = 0$)

- If we set $\Lambda = 0$ we find

$$a(t) \sim t^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

This is called the Einstein-de Sitter model.

- Furthermore, if $\Lambda < 0$ then we can even find a static Universe with $da/dt = 0$ – this was the model first constructed by Einstein (and the reason Λ was introduced).

$$\Lambda < 0$$

- If $\Lambda < 0$ we see that $\frac{da}{dt} = 0$ for $a = (3C/\Lambda)^{\frac{1}{3}}$. Thus the expansion will halt at some point and recontraction will occur – an oscillating Universe. We can find the exact solution in this case too

$$a^3 = \frac{3C}{2 - \Lambda} \left(1 - \cos \sqrt{3(-\Lambda)t} \right)$$

This solution is termed *anti-de Sitter space*.

$$\Lambda > 0$$

- Notice that for positive Λ we can find solutions of the form $a(t) \sim \exp \sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}} t$ – the spacetime is called *de Sitter* and describes one possible type of *inflationary* Universe.
- The best fit to current observation demands a small cosmological constant of this sign.

General situation

- In general we might want the solution to the cosmological equations for matter with a general equation of state w . If w is constant it is not hard to show that the 2 cosmological equations imply that

$$\frac{dH}{dt} + \frac{1 + 3\omega}{2} H^2 = 0$$

where $H = 1/a da/dt$ the Hubble velocity. Using this one can show:

$$a(t) = a_0 \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

where a_0 is current scale factor (and t_0 age of Universe)