

# Astronomy, Astrophysics, and Cosmology

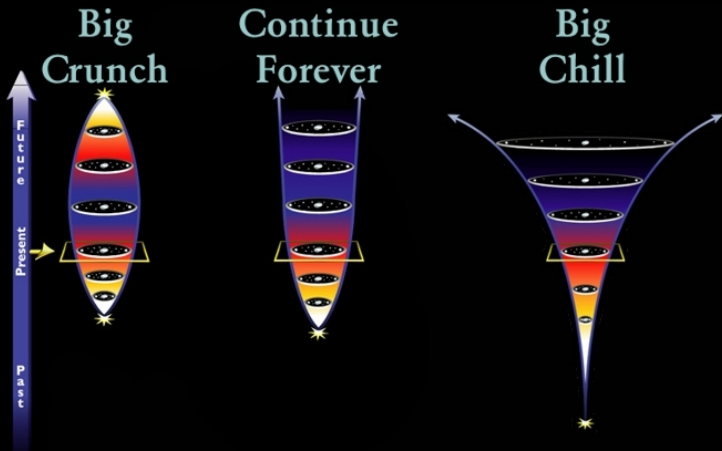
Luis A. Anchordoqui

Department of Physics and Astronomy  
Lehman College, City University of New York

Lesson VI  
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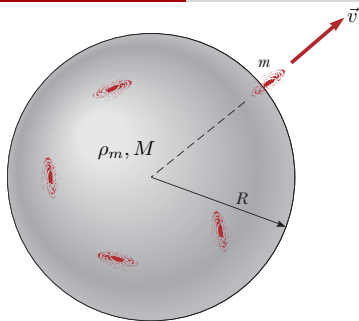
[arXiv:0706.1988](https://arxiv.org/abs/0706.1988)



# Table of Contents

- 1 Expansion of the Universe
  - Friedmann-Robertson-Walker cosmologies

- In 1917 Einstein presented model of universe which describing geometrically symmetric (spherical) space with finite volume but no boundary
- In accordance with Cosmological Principle model is homogeneous and isotropic
- It is also static  $\Rightarrow$  volume of space does not change
- To obtain static model Einstein introduced new repulsive force in his equations
- Size of this cosmological term is given by  $\Lambda$
- Einstein presented model before redshifts of galaxies were known taking universe to be static was then reasonable
- When expansion of universe was discovered argument in favor of cosmological constant vanished
- Most recent observations seem to indicate that non-zero  $\Lambda$  has to be present



- Consider spherical region of galaxies with larger radius than distance between clusters of galaxies but smaller radius than any distance characterizing the universe
- Assume  $\Lambda = 0$
- Mass of this sphere

$$M = \frac{4\pi R^3}{3} \rho_m \quad (1)$$

- Consider the motion of a galaxy at edge of spherical region

- According to Hubble's law  $\Rightarrow v = HR$
- Galaxy kinetic energy

$$K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}mH^2R^2 \quad (2)$$

- Potential energy at edge of sphere

$$U = -\frac{GMm}{R} = -\frac{4\pi mR^2\rho_m G}{3} \quad (3)$$

- Total energy

$$E = K + U = \frac{1}{2}mH^2R^2 - Gm\frac{4\pi}{3}R^2\rho_m \quad (4)$$

has to remain constant as universe expands

- Rewrite (4) as

$$\frac{2E}{mR^2} = H^2 - \frac{8\pi}{3}G\rho_m \quad (5)$$

- Since we assume that universe is homogeneous

$H$  and  $\rho_m$  cannot be functions of  $R$

- LHS of

$$\frac{2E}{mR^2} = H^2 - \frac{8\pi}{3}G\rho_m \quad (6)$$

cannot depend on chosen distance  $R$  to coordinate center

- However  $\Rightarrow 2E/(mR^2)$  is time-dependent  
because galaxy-Earth distance changes as universe expands
- Since mass of test galaxy is arbitrary  
choose  $|2E/(mc^2)| = 1$  holds at an arbitrary moment (with  $E \neq 0$ )
- For different times  $\Rightarrow$  LHS of (6) scales as  $R^{-2}$

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3}G\rho_m - \frac{kc^2}{a^2R_0^2} \quad (7)$$

## Friedmann equation

- Since  $E$  is constant  $\Rightarrow k$  is constant too
- Actually  $\Rightarrow k = 0, \pm 1$  is known as curvature constant
- We account for equivalence of mass and energy  
by including not only mass but also energy density

$$\rho = \rho_m c^2 + \dots \quad (8)$$

- Friedmann equation (without  $\Lambda$ ) in Newtonian limit

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} G \rho_m - \frac{kc^2}{a^2 R_0^2} \quad (9)$$

becomes

$$H^2 \equiv \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} G \frac{\rho}{c^2} - \frac{kc^2}{a(t)R_0^2} \quad (10)$$

- (10) agrees exactly with the one derived from general relativity



- $H_0$  fixes present density  $\rho_0$  for  $k = 0$  as

$$\rho_0(k = 0) \equiv \rho_c = \frac{3H_0^2 c^2}{8\pi G} \quad (11)$$


- Most cosmological quantities depend on actual value of  $H_0$
- One “hides” this dependence by introducing  $h$

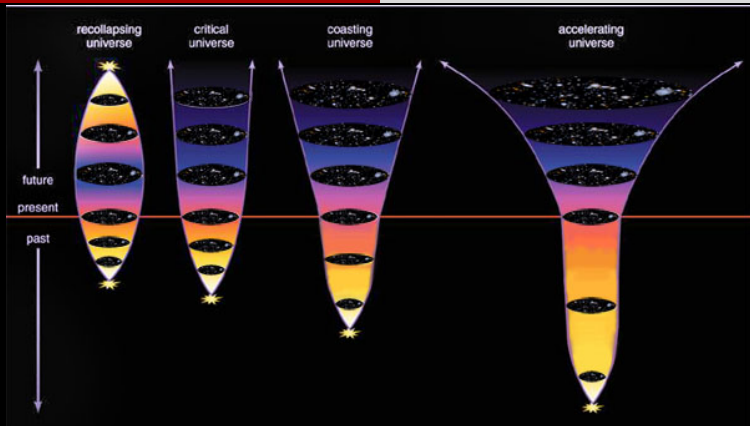
$$H_0 = 100 h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \quad (12)$$

- Critical density can be written in terms of Hubble parameter

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_c &= 2.77 \times 10^{11} h^2 M_\odot / \text{Mpc}^3 \\ &= 1.88 \times 10^{-29} h^2 \text{ g} / \text{cm}^3 \\ &= 1.05 \times 10^{-5} h^2 \text{ GeV} / \text{cm}^3 \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

- $h \approx 0.7$  flat universe requires energy density  $\sim 10$  protons/m<sup>3</sup>

- Expansion of universe can be compared to motion of mass launched vertically from surface of celestial body
- Form of orbit depends on initial energy
- To compute complete orbit  
mass of main body and initial velocity have to be known
- In cosmology corresponding parameters are:
  - ✧ mean density
  - ✧ Hubble constant
- If density exceeds critical density  
expansion of any spherical region will turn to a contraction  
and it will collapse to a point
- This corresponds to closed Friedmann model
- If  $\rho_m < \rho_c$   ever-expanding hyperbolic model is obtained
- These 3 models of universe are called standard models
- They are simplest relativistic cosmological models for  $\Lambda = 0$
- Models with  $\Lambda \neq 0$  are mathematically more complicated  
but show same behaviour



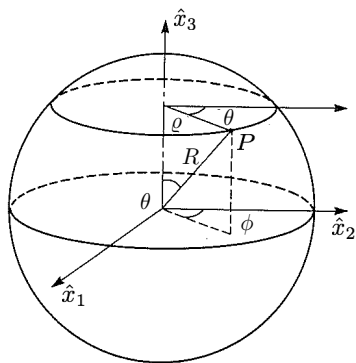
- Define abundance  $\Omega_i$  of different players in cosmology as their energy density relative to  $\rho_c$
- Examples

$$\Omega_m = \frac{\rho_m}{\rho_c} = \frac{8\pi G}{3H_0^2} \rho_m \quad \text{and} \quad \Omega_\Lambda = \frac{\Lambda c^2}{3H_0^2} \quad (14)$$

- By solving Einstein equations Robertson and Walker showed that  $k$ -hypersurfaces  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (hyper-sphere, hyper-plane, hyper-pseudosphere) are possible geometries for homogeneous and isotropic expanding universe
- FRW line element is most generally written in the form

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2(t) \left[ \frac{d\varrho^2}{1 - k\varrho^2/R^2} + \varrho^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right] \quad (15)$$

- Spatial component of the FRW metric  $\mathbb{R}^3$  consists of uniformly curved space of radius  $R$  scaled by square of scale factor  $a(t)$



- Equation of  $S^2$  of radius  $R$

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = R^2 \quad (16)$$

- Line element in 3-dimensional Euclidean space

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 \quad (17)$$

- If  $x_3$  is taken as fictitious third spatial coordinate  
it can be eliminated from  $ds^2$  by use of (16)

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + \frac{(x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2)^2}{R^2 - x_1^2 - x_2^2}. \quad (18)$$

- Introduce coordinates  $\varrho$  and  $\theta$  defined in terms of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  by

$$x_1 = \varrho \cos \theta \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = \varrho \sin \theta. \quad (19)$$

- $\varrho$  and  $\theta$   $\Leftrightarrow$  polar coordinates in the  $x_3$ -plane  $\Rightarrow x_3^2 = R^2 - \varrho^2$
- In terms of new coordinates  $\Leftrightarrow$  (18) becomes

$$ds^2 = \frac{R^2 d\varrho^2}{R^2 - \varrho^2} + \varrho^2 d\theta^2 \quad (20)$$

- For  $S^3$   $\Rightarrow$  fictitious fourth spatial dimension is introduced
- In cartesian coordinates  $S^3$  defined by

$$R^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 \quad (21)$$

- Spatial metric of 4-dimensional Euclidean space

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + dx_4^2 \quad (22)$$

- Fictitious coordinate can be removed to give

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + \frac{(x_1 dx_1 + x_2 dx_2 + x_3 dx_3)^2}{R^2 - x_1^2 - x_2^2 - x_3^2} \quad (23)$$

- In terms of coordinates

$$x_1 = \varrho \sin \theta \cos \phi \quad x_2 = \varrho \sin \theta \sin \phi \quad x_3 = \varrho \cos \theta \quad (24)$$

metric is given by spatial part of (15) with  $k = 1$

- Equivalent formulas for space of constant negative curvature can be obtained with replacement  $R \rightarrow iR$  in (16)
- Metric corresponding to form of (20) for negative curvature case

$$ds^2 = \frac{R^2 dq^2}{R^2 + q^2} + q^2 d\theta^2 \quad (25)$$

- Embedding of hyperbolic plane  $H^2$  in Euclidean space requires three fictitious extra dimensions and such embedding is of little use in visualizing geometry
- While  $H^2$  cannot be globally embedded in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  it can be partially represented by pseudosphere
- Embedding  $H^3$  in Euclidean space requires four fictitious extra dimensions

- If universe had positive curvature  $k = 1$   
then universe would be closed or finite in volume
- This would not mean galaxies extended out to certain boundary  
beyond which there is empty space
- There is no boundary or edge in such a universe
- If a particle were to move in straight line in particular direction  
it would eventually return to starting point  
perhaps eons of time later





- Using substitution

$$\varrho = S_k(r) = \begin{cases} R \sin(r/R) & \text{for } k = +1 \\ r & \text{for } k = 0 \\ R \sinh(r/R) & \text{for } k = -1 \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

FRW line element can be rewritten as

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2(t) [dr^2 + S_k^2(r) (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)] \quad (27)$$

- Time variable  $t$  in FRW metric  
is cosmological proper time  $\Rightarrow$  called cosmic time for short
- $t$  measured by observer who sees universe  
expanding uniformly around him
- Spatial variables  $(\varrho, \theta, \phi)$  or  $(r, \theta, \phi)$  are comoving coordinates  
of point in space
- If expansion of universe is homogeneous and isotropic  
comoving coordinates of any point remain constant with time

## Expansion of homogeneous universe is adiabatic

- To describe time evolution of  $a(t)$   $\Rightarrow$  need equation describing how energy content of universe is affected by expansion
- First law of thermodynamics

$$dU = TdS - PdV \quad (28)$$

with  $dQ = 0$  becomes

$$dU = -PdV \Rightarrow \frac{dU}{dt} + P\frac{dV}{dt} = 0 \quad (29)$$

(no heat exchange to outside  $\Rightarrow$  since no outside exists)

- Caveat  $\Rightarrow$  when particles annihilate (e.g. electrons and positrons) this adds heat and makes expansion temporarily non-adiabatic
- This matters at some specific epochs in the very early universe

## Fluid equation

- For sphere of comoving radius  $R_0$

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi R_0^3 a^3(t) \Rightarrow \dot{V} = 4\pi R_0^3 a^2 \dot{a} = 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}V \quad (30)$$

- Since  $U = \rho V$

$$\dot{U} = \dot{\rho}V + \rho\dot{V} = V\left(\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\rho\right) \quad (31)$$

- Substituting (30) and (31) into (29) we have

$$V\left(\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\rho + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}P\right) = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{\rho} = -3(\rho + P)\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \quad (32)$$

- Expansion decreases energy density by dilution  
and by work required to expand gas with pressure  $P \geq 0$

- To solve fluid equation  $\Rightarrow$  need equation of state relating  $P$  and  $\rho$
- Suppose we write this in form

$$P = w\rho \quad (33)$$

- In principle  $\Rightarrow w$  could change with time
- Assume any time derivatives of  $w$   
are negligible compared to time derivatives of  $\rho$
- Reasonable assumption if  $w$  is determined by microphysics  
that is not directly tied to universe expansion
- Fluid equation implies

$$\frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} = -3(1 + w)\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \quad (34)$$

with solution

$$\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} = \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{-3(1+w)} \quad (35)$$

- For non-relativistic matter (a.k.a. dust)

$$w = \frac{P}{\rho} \sim \frac{mv_{\text{th}}^2}{mc^2} \sim \frac{v_{\text{th}}}{c} \ll 1 \quad (36)$$

$v_{\text{th}}$   $\Leftrightarrow$  thermal velocity of particles of mass  $m$

- To near-perfect approximation  $w = 0 \Leftrightarrow \rho_m \propto a^{-3}$
- Light (or more generally any highly relativistic particle) has associated pressure  $\Leftrightarrow$  radiation pressure
- For radiation  $w = 1/3 \Leftrightarrow \rho_{\text{rad}} \propto a^{-4}$
- This behavior also follows from a simple argument:  
 number density of photons falls as  $n \propto a^{-3}$   
 and energy per photon falls as  $h\nu \propto a^{-1}$   
 because of cosmological redshift

## Acceleration equation

- Multiply Friedmann equation by  $a^2$

$$\dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} \rho a^2 - \frac{kc^2}{R_0^2} \quad (37)$$

- Take time derivative

$$2\dot{a}\ddot{a} = \frac{8\pi G}{3c^2} (\dot{\rho}a^2 + 2\rho a\dot{a}) \quad (38)$$

- Divide by  $2\dot{a}a$   $\Rightarrow$

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = \frac{4\pi G}{3c^2} \left( \dot{\rho} \frac{a}{\dot{a}} + 2\rho \right) \quad (39)$$

- Substitute from fluid equation

$$\dot{\rho} \frac{a}{\dot{a}} = -3(\rho + P) \Rightarrow \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3c^2} (\rho + 3P) \quad (40)$$

- If  $\rho$  and  $P$  are positive  $\Rightarrow$  expansion of the universe decelerates

## Example

- Flat universe  $\Rightarrow k = 0$
- For non-relativistic matter  $\Rightarrow$  solution to Friedmann equation is

$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(t) = \frac{\rho_0}{a^3} = \frac{\rho_0 t_0^2}{t^2} \quad \text{with} \quad t_0 = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{H_0} \quad (41)$$

- Bizarre universe dominated today by radiation pressure  $\Rightarrow$  yields

$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(t) = \frac{\rho_0}{a^4} = \frac{\rho_0 t_0^2}{t^2} \quad (42)$$

- We can picture time evolution of universe as follows
  - Early universe  $\Rightarrow$  relativistic matter (radiation pressure dominates)  
 $a(t) \propto t^{1/2}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{rad}} \propto t^{-2}$ ,  $\rho_m \propto a^{-3} \propto t^{-3/2}$
  - Density of radiation falls more quickly than that of dust
  - When dust dominates  $\Rightarrow a(t) \propto t^{2/3}$ ,  $\rho_m \propto t^{-2}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{rad}} \propto a^{-4} \propto t^{8/3}$   
 dust domination increases

- how to measure distances in FRW spacetime?
- Consider galaxy which is far away from us  $\Rightarrow$  sufficiently far away that we may ignore small scale perturbations of spacetime and adopt FRW line element
- In expanding universe distance between two objects is increasing with time
- If we want to assign spatial distance between two objects we must specify  $t$  at which distance is the correct one
- Suppose that you are at the origin and galaxy which you are observing is at comoving coordinate position  $(r, \theta, \phi)$
- Proper distance  $d_p(t)$  between two points equals length of spatial geodesic between them when scale factor is fixed at value  $a(t)$



- Proper distance between the observer and galaxy  
can be found using FRW metric at fixed time  $t$

$$ds^2 = a^2(t) [dr^2 + S_k^2(r) (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)] \quad (43)$$

- Along spatial geodesic between the observer and galaxy  
angle  $(\theta, \phi)$  is constant

$$ds = a(t) dr \quad (44)$$

- Proper distance  $d_p$  is found by integrating over  $r$

$$d_p = a(t) \int_0^r dr = a(t) r \quad (45)$$

*Episode VII*

***THE FORCE AWAKENS***

Get ready...