

Relativity and Cosmology II

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Lecture #3

Main points of #2

- Found Friedmann equations:

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{K}{R^2} - \frac{\lambda}{3} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$$

$$2 \frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{K}{R^2} - \lambda = -8\pi G \cdot p$$

To find evolution of the universe, they have to be supplemented by equation of state, e.p.

$$p = \frac{K}{3} \quad (\text{relativistic matter})$$

$$p = 0 \quad (\text{non-relativistic matter})$$

- Derived F. equations for non-relativistic case, $\lambda = K = p = 0$, from Newton dynamics

- considered Einstein static universe
it is required, $\lambda = 8\pi G \rho$

- considered Friedman solution,

$$p = 0, \quad K = 0, \quad \lambda = 0$$

$$R = R_0 \pm \frac{2}{3}$$

$$p = \frac{1}{6\pi G} \pm \frac{1}{2}$$

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found that the distances in
expanding universe (flat case) change
as:

$$l \sim R(t) \Rightarrow$$

$$\dot{l} \sim \dot{R}(t) \Rightarrow \frac{\dot{l}}{l} = \frac{\dot{R}}{R} \Rightarrow$$

$$\dot{l} = l H; \quad H = \frac{\dot{R}}{R} = \frac{2}{3t}, \quad \text{for } p=0 \text{ solution}$$

prediction -
redshift:

$$\omega' = (1-v)\omega \quad [\text{Doppler effect}]$$

can be observed, if we have

"standard" candles -

certain type of similar stars

Today:

- red shift, FRW metric
- luminosity distance, FRW metric

Red shift, FRW metric

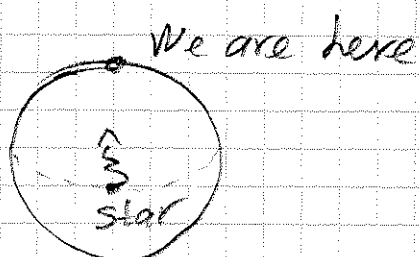
Let coordinates of the star are:

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad \varphi = 0, \quad \bar{r} = \bar{r}_1$$

They are all fixed.

receive light in $\bar{r} = 0$ at t_0
light is emitted in $\bar{r} = \bar{r}_1$ at t_1

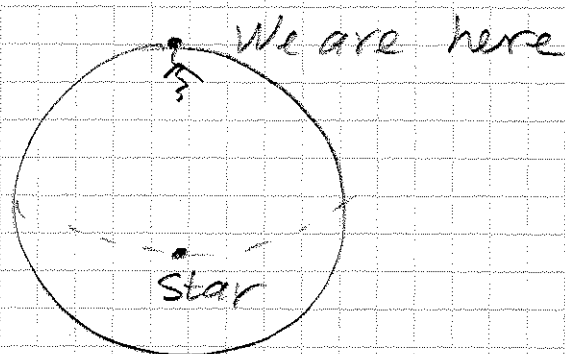
visualization, 2d sphere



$t = t_1$

Size of universe

$R(t_1)$



$t = t_0$

Size of universe

$R(t_0)$

equation for light propagation:

$$ds^2 = 0 \Rightarrow dt^2 - R^2(t) \frac{d\bar{r}^2}{1 - k\bar{r}^2} = 0$$

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \int_0^{r_2} \frac{d\bar{r}}{\sqrt{1 - k\bar{r}^2}} = \begin{cases} \arcsin r_1 & k = +1 \\ r_1 & k = 0 \\ \operatorname{arcsinh} r_1 & k = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$= f(r_1)$$

pulses: $\overline{t_0 \quad t_0 + \delta t_0} \Rightarrow \overline{t_1 \quad t_1 + \delta t_1}$

$$\int_{t_1 + \delta t_1}^{t_0 + \delta t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = f(r_1) - \text{the same} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{\delta t_0}{R(t_0)} = \frac{\delta t_1}{R(t_1)} \quad \text{frequency } \omega \sim \frac{1}{\delta t} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{1}{\omega_0 R(t_0)} = \frac{1}{\omega_1 R(t_1)} \Rightarrow$$

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$$\frac{\omega_0}{\omega_1} = \frac{R(t_1)}{R(t_0)} ; \quad \omega_0 = \omega_1 \frac{R(t_1)}{R(t_0)}$$

what we
measure

what was emitted

Red shift, definition:

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

observed ← emitted

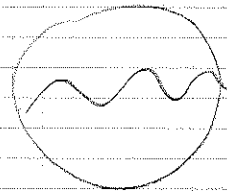
Physical picture:

red shift:

$z > 0$ if

the universe
is expanding

put harmonics on
a sphere



$z < 0$ if the universe

is collapsing (blue shift)

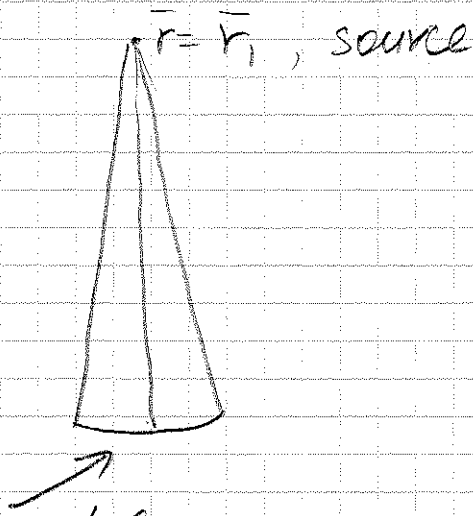
Measurements of distances

- (i) comparison between "absolute luminosity" and apparent luminosity
- (ii) if exact size of object is known, we can find the distance

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(iii) find parallax - change of position of the object due to change of its visible position due to Earth motion

consider in more detail 1st method
(used for cosmological distances)



telescope, radius b , area $S = \pi b^2$
 "geometrical" fraction of energy,
 emitted at $t = t_1$ and passing through
 telescope:

space-part of the interval at $t = t_0$

$$dl^2 = R^2(t_0) \left[\frac{d\bar{r}^2}{1 - k\bar{r}^2} + \bar{r}^2 d\Omega^2 \right]$$

total area of light front:

$$S_{\text{tot}} = \int R^2(t_0) \bar{r}_1^2 d\Omega^2 = 4\pi \bar{r}_1^2 R^2(t_0)$$

fraction: S / S_{tot}

per unit time

Energy flux, registered at telescope:

energy of registered photon

$$P = L \cdot \frac{S}{4\pi R^2(t_0) \cdot r_1^2} \cdot \frac{\hbar \omega_0}{\hbar \omega_1} \cdot \frac{\delta t_1}{\delta t_0}$$

Total Energy emitted energy of emitted photon ratio between pulses emitted (δt_1) and absorbed (δt_0)

$$\frac{\hbar \omega_0}{\hbar \omega_1} = \frac{R(t_1)}{R(t_0)}$$

$$\frac{\delta t_1}{\delta t_0} = \frac{R(t_1)}{R(t_0)}$$

giving

$$P = L \left(\frac{R^2(t_1)}{R^2(t_0)} \right) \frac{S}{4\pi R^2(t_0) r_1^2}$$

apparent luminosity. Power per
unit of surface,

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$$l = \frac{LR^2(t_1)}{4\pi R^2(t_0) \bar{r}_1^2}$$

in flat space we would get:

$$l = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2} \quad d \text{ "photometric" distance}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{L}{4\pi d^2} = \frac{LR^2(t_1)}{4\pi R^2(t_0) \bar{r}_1^2} \Rightarrow$$

$$d = R^2(t_0) \frac{\bar{r}_1}{R(t_1)}$$

let us find now relation between
red shift and d :

Then to this equation we have
to add:

$$\frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_1)} - 1 = z$$

$$\text{and } \int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = f(z), \text{ defined}$$

at page (4)

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This completes the system of equations,
determining z as a function of d

How does it work, linear approximation:

let r_1 is small, and thus t_1 is
close to t_0 .

then $f(r) \approx r$; and

$$\frac{t_0 - t_1}{R} \approx r_1;$$

$$z = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_1)} - 1 = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_0) + \dot{R}(t_0)(t_1 - t_0)} - 1$$

$$\approx + \frac{\dot{R}(t_0)(t_0 - t_1)}{R(t_0)} \approx \frac{\dot{R}(t_0)}{R(t_0)} \cdot r_1 R(t_0)$$

$$\text{but } d \approx R(t_0) \cdot r_1 \Rightarrow$$

$$z \approx \frac{\dot{R}(t_0)}{R(t_0)} \cdot d = H \cdot d$$

red shift is proportional to
distance

Hubble law

In terms of velocity:

$$v = \frac{\dot{R}}{R} \cdot d$$

if Doppler effect is used

Relativity and cosmology II

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Lecture # 4

Main points of #3

- relations between luminosity distance, and red shift

$$d = R^2(t_0) \frac{\bar{r}_i}{R(t_1)} = R(t_0)(1+z) \cdot \bar{r}_i \quad (*)$$

$$z = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_1)} - 1 \quad (**)$$

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \begin{cases} \arcsin \bar{r}_i & k = +1 \\ \bar{r}_i & k = 0 \\ \operatorname{arcsinh} \bar{r}_i & k = -1 \end{cases} \quad (***)$$

- Hubble law:

$$z = Hd; \quad H = \frac{\dot{R}}{R}$$

Plan for today

- luminosity distance - red shift relation for general case
- critical density
- content of the universe, abundances
- cosmological parameters from supernovae
- properties of universe as a function of Ω_m, Ω_Λ

To find d - z relation for general case, find $\bar{r}_1$ from (**):

$$\bar{r}_1 = \begin{cases} \sin\left(\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)}\right) \\ \int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} \\ \text{sh}\left[\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)}\right] \end{cases} \equiv \bar{r}_1(t_1, t_0)$$

depending on $k = +1, 0$ and -1

Then

$$d(z) = R(t_0)(1+z) \bar{r}_1(t_1, t_0),$$

and we have to find t_1 from (**)

We will solve this problem today,
and find how t_1 , etc depend on
the content of the universe.

- first: introduce "vacuum" energy and pressure
- second - introduce critical density
- third - introduce abundances of different components of the universe

Critical density

Let us rewrite F. equations in somewhat different notations:

"vacuum energy density":

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

"total energy density"

$$\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \rho_{\Lambda}$$

"total pressure"

$$P_{\text{tot}} = P + P_{\Lambda}; \quad P_{\Lambda} = -\rho_{\Lambda}$$

↑ vacuum pressure

and replace $\dot{R}$ by HR , where

H is the Hubble constant

Friedman equations:

$$\begin{cases} H^2 + \frac{K}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}} \\ \frac{d\rho}{dt} = -3H(\rho + P) \quad \Leftarrow \text{energy conservation} \end{cases}$$

Definition: critical density $\rho_c \equiv \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G}$

ρ_c depends on time and can be found

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from the knowledge of the Hubble constant

value : $\rho_c \approx 1.88 \cdot h^2 \cdot 10^{-29} \text{ g/cm}^3$

with $H_0 = 100h \text{ km/s/Mpc}$

ρ can be found by other means $\Rightarrow$

$$\text{if } \begin{cases} \rho_{\text{tot}} > \rho_c \Rightarrow k > 0 & \text{universe is closed} \\ \rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho_c \Rightarrow k = 0 & \text{universe is flat} \\ \rho_{\text{tot}} < \rho_c \Rightarrow k < 0 & \text{universe is open} \end{cases}$$

The relation between ρ and ρ_c also important for evolution of the universe.

Example : consider matter-dominated universe with $p = 0$ and $\Lambda = 0$
Equation for R , valid also for $k \neq 0$:

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

multiply by $\dot{R}$ and use the fact that

$$\rho R^3 = \text{const} = \rho_0 R_0^3, \quad \rho = \frac{\rho_0 R_0^3}{R^3}$$

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$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{R}^2 \right) = \dot{R} \ddot{R} = - \frac{4\pi G}{3} \cdot \frac{\rho_0 R_0^3}{R^3} \cdot R \cdot \dot{R} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{R}^2 - \frac{4\pi G}{3} \frac{\rho_0 R_0^3}{R} = \text{const} =$$

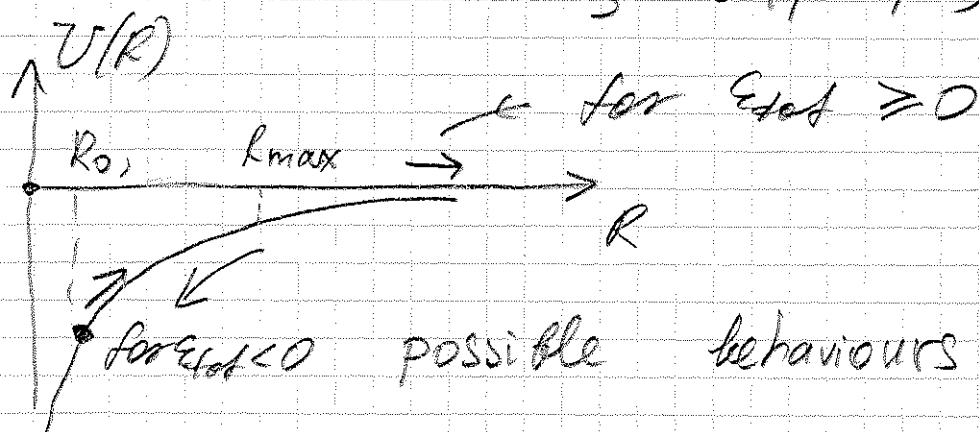
$$- \frac{4\pi G}{3} R_0^3 (\rho_0 - \rho_c)$$

mechanical interpretation:

particle of mass = 1 moves in potential

$$U(R) = - \frac{4\pi G}{3} \rho_0 \frac{R_0^3}{R} \text{ with total energy}$$

$$E_{\text{tot}} = - \frac{4\pi G}{3} R_0^3 (\rho_0 - \rho_c)$$



possible behaviours:

$$(i) \rho_0 < \rho_c \Rightarrow E_{\text{tot}} > 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$R(t) \rightarrow \infty \text{ at } t \rightarrow \infty$$

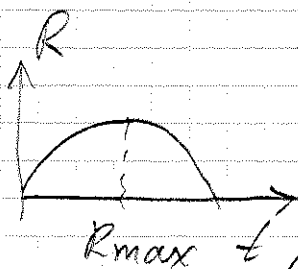
$$(ii) \rho_0 = \rho_c \Rightarrow E_{\text{tot}} = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$R(t) \rightarrow \infty \text{ at } t \rightarrow \infty$$

expands
forever

$$(iii) \rho_0 < \rho_c \Rightarrow E_{\text{tot}} < 0 \Rightarrow R_{\text{max}} = \frac{2R_0\rho_0}{\rho_0 - \rho_c}$$

bounces back and goes to singularity



General content of the Universe

Let universe contain

- radiation with $p_r = \frac{p_r}{3}$
- non-relativistic matter
(+ Dark matter, to be discussed later), $p_m = 0$
- cosmological constant

$$p_\Lambda = -p_\Lambda$$

How did the universe evolve?

Definition: abundances

$$\Omega_r \equiv \frac{p_r}{p_{crit}} ; \quad \Omega_m \equiv \frac{p_m}{p_{crit}} ; \quad \Omega_\Lambda \equiv \frac{p_\Lambda}{p_{crit}}$$

$$\text{from } H^2 + \frac{\kappa}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} p_{tot} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{3H^2}{8\pi G} + \frac{3}{8\pi G} \frac{\kappa}{R^2} = p_{tot} \quad \text{or}$$

$$\frac{H^2}{p_c} + \frac{\kappa}{R^2 H_0^2} = 1$$

$$1 = \Omega_r + \Omega_m + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_\kappa$$

where $\Omega_\kappa = -\frac{\kappa}{R_0^2 H_0^2}$: curvature contribution

Behaviour of p_{tot} :

all defined at t_0 (7)

$$P_{\text{tot}} = P_c \left[\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_M \left(\frac{R(t_0)}{R(t)} \right)^3 + \Omega_r \left(\frac{R(t_0)}{R(t)} \right)^4 \right]$$

part, associated with cosmological constant does not change

part, associated with matter:

$$\frac{d}{dt} (P_M R^3) = 0 \Rightarrow P_M \sim \frac{1}{R^3(t)}$$

part, associated with radiation:

$$\frac{d}{dt} (P_r R^3) + P_r \frac{d}{dt} R^3 = 0$$

$$\text{Since } P_r = \frac{P_c}{3}, \quad \frac{d}{dt} (P_r R^4) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$P_r \sim \frac{1}{R^4}$$

easy to understand:

$$\# \text{ of photons} \sim \frac{1}{R^3}$$

$$\text{energy of photon, } W \sim \frac{1}{R}$$

Convenient form of Friedmann equation:

$$H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}} - \frac{k}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} (\rho_{\text{tot}} + \rho_k)$$

Last term, to have similar notations.

$$\rho_k = -\frac{k}{R^2} \frac{3}{8\pi G} \equiv \rho_c \Omega_k \frac{R(t_0)^2}{R(t)^2}$$

$\nearrow$
 curvature abundance
 "

Ω_k is not independent,

sum rule: $1 = \Omega_m + \Omega_r + \Omega_k$

to derive the sum rule, just divide first equation at this page by H^2 .

Final form of Friedmann equation we will work:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_c \left\{ \Omega_m \left(\frac{R(t_0)}{R} \right)^3 + \Omega_r \left[\frac{R(t_0)}{R(t)} \right]^4 + \Omega_k \left[\frac{R(t_0)}{R(t)} \right]^2 \right\} \quad (****)$$

notation: $R(t_0) = R_0$

(3)

This equation can be also written in a form, which has a simple mechanical analogy:

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{R}^2 + V(R) = 0, \text{ where}$$

$$V(R) = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \rho_c \left\{ \Omega_\Lambda \cdot R^2 + \Omega_M \frac{R_0^3}{R} + \Omega_\gamma \frac{R_0^4}{R^2} + \Omega_K R_0^2 \right\}$$

it describes a motion of particle with zero energy in potential $V(R)$

Let us integrate now (xxxx)

notations: $x = \frac{R(t)}{R(t_0)}$; $R(t) = R_0 \cdot x$

$$\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_M \frac{1}{x^3} + \Omega_K \frac{1}{x^2} + \Omega_\gamma \frac{1}{x^4} \equiv A^2(x)$$

Eq (xxxx) for x :

$$\frac{\dot{x}^2}{x^2} = H_0^2 A^2(x) \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = H_0 A(x) \cdot x$$

$$dt = \frac{dx}{H_0 x A(x)}; \quad \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{x H_0 A(x)}$$

This allows us to get immediately from expression on page 2 for $d(z)$:

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{R(t)} = \int_{x_1}^{x_0} \frac{dt}{dx} \frac{dx}{R_0 x} =$$

$$= \int_{\frac{1}{1+z}}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2 R_0 H_0 A(x)}$$

t_0 corresponds to $x=1$

t_1 corresponds to $x = \frac{1}{1+z} = \frac{R(t_1)}{R(t_0)}$

For example, for $k=0$ we get:

$$d(z) = \frac{1+z}{H_0} \int_{\frac{1}{1+z}}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2 A(x)}$$

Equation, which can unify all cases:

$$d(z) = \frac{1+z}{H_0 \Omega_k^{1/2}} \sinh \left[\Omega_k^{1/2} \int_{\frac{1}{1+z}}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2 A(x)} \right]$$

since, e.g.,

$$\text{for } k=+1 \quad R_0^2 H_0^2 = \Omega_k$$

taking formally $\Omega_k \rightarrow 0$, we get flat case, taking $\Omega_k < 0$ we replace $\sinh \rightarrow \sin$

By-product of computation:

age of the Universe.

Take the formula at the bottom of page ③, and integrate it from $t=0$ to t_0 .

$t=0$ corresponds to $x=0$ (since $R=0$)

$t=t_0$ corresponds to $x=1$

$$t = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x A(x)}$$

How do use $d(z)$ for determination of content of the universe:

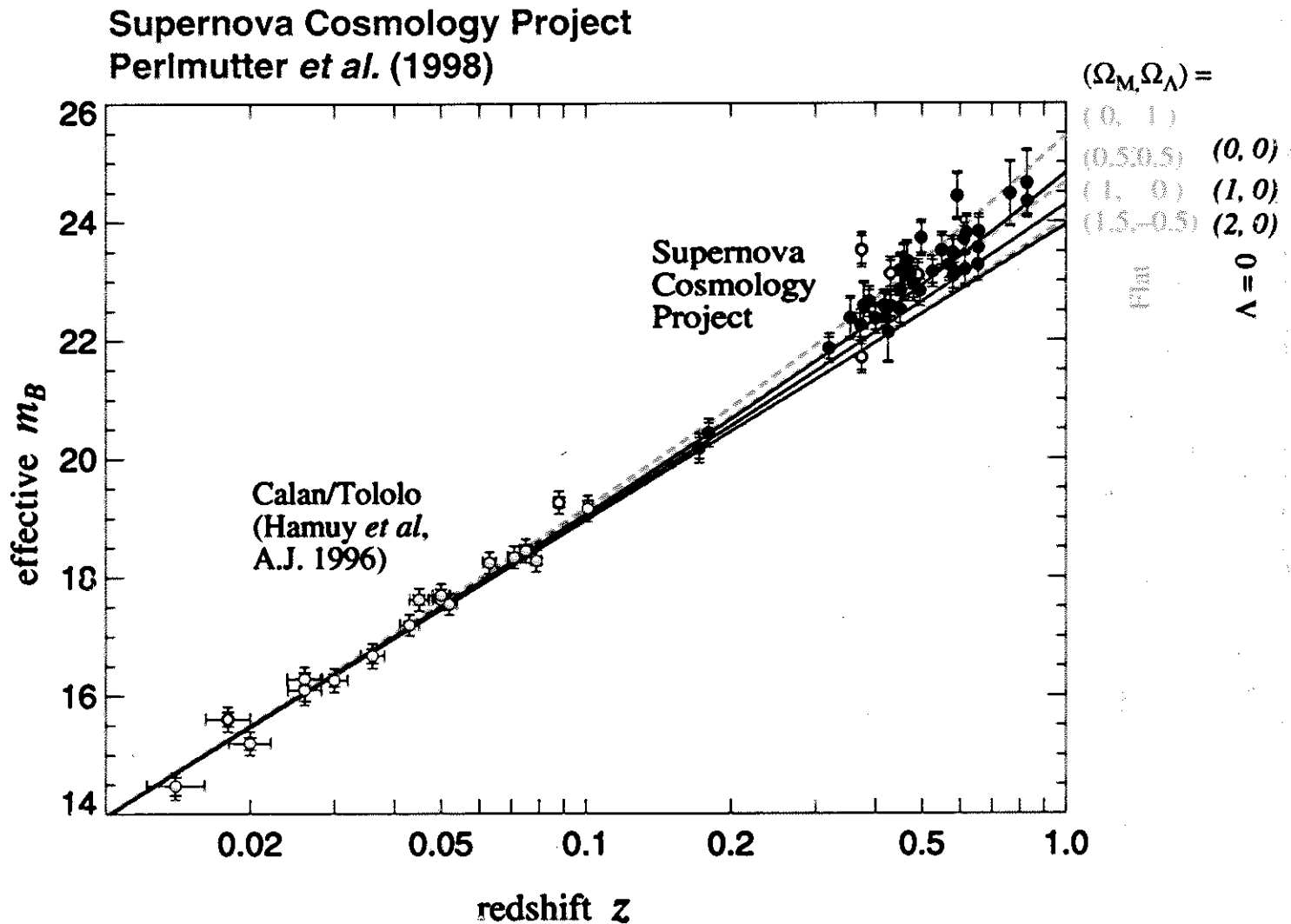
- 1) measure curve $d(z)$
- 2) find parameters Ω_γ , Ω_M and Ω_Λ from fitting this curve by expression for $d(z)$

In practice: $\Omega_\gamma \ll \Omega_M$, $\Omega_\gamma \ll \Omega_\Lambda$ and can be neglected
 Λ CDM model.

standard candles:

SN1a,

Instrument: Hubble space telescope

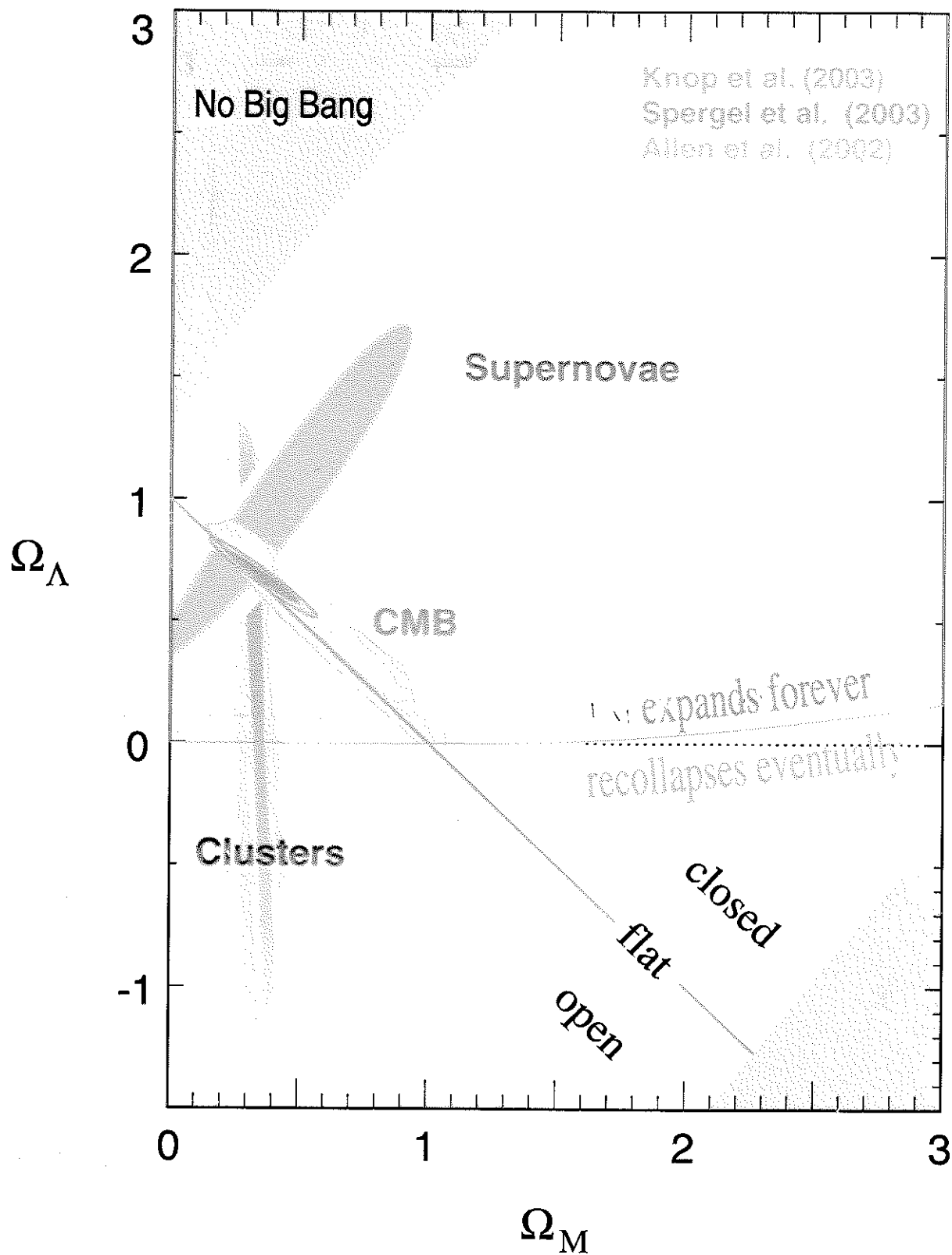


In flat universe: $\Omega_M = 0.28 [\pm 0.085 \text{ statistical}] [\pm 0.05 \text{ systematic}]$

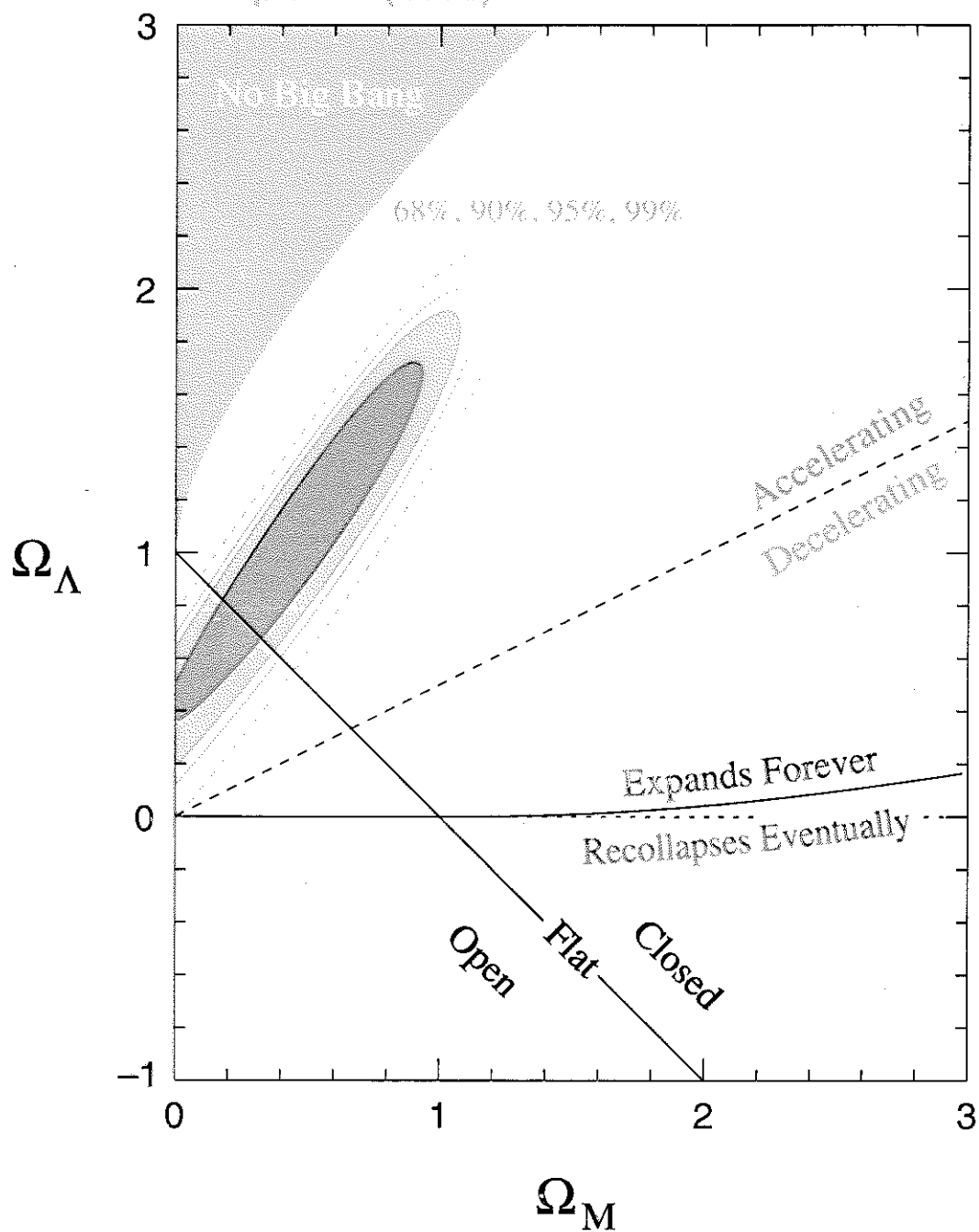
Prob. of fit to $\Lambda = 0$ universe: 1%

astro-ph/9812133

Supernova Cosmology Project



Supernova Cosmology Project
Knop et al. (2003)



Explanations of page #10

- Flat : $\Omega_k = 0$
- Closed : $\Omega_k < 0$
- Open : $\Omega_k > 0$
- Recollapses eventually : $R(t) \rightarrow 0$ for some $t > t_0$ ($\dot{R}(t) = 0$ for some $t > t_0$)
- Expands forever : $\dot{R}(t) > 0$,
- Decelerating : $\ddot{R} < 0$
- accelerating : $\ddot{R} > 0$
- No Big Bang : $R > 0$ for all $t < t_0$
(no singularity)