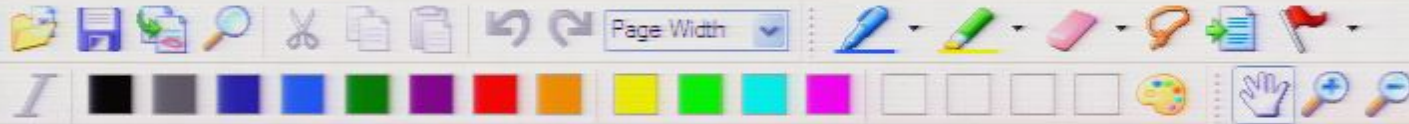


Title: General Relativity for Cosmology - Lecture 18B

Date: Nov 19, 2009 05:30 PM

URL: <http://pirsa.org/09110121>

Abstract:



G R for cosmology, Achim Kempf, Fall 2009, Lecture 22

12/4/2005

Evolution of Friedmann-Lemaître spacetime

Follow solution strategy developed in previous lecture:

- Use the physical laws of matter to determine the equation of state:

$$p = p(\rho)$$

Terminology:

Periods of time in which the eqn. of state can be approximated as:

$$p(\rho) = w\rho \quad \text{with} \quad w = \text{const}$$

are called **cosmic epochs**:

$$w = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{dust: "matter dominated"} \\ 1/3 & \text{radiation: "radiation dominated"} \end{cases}$$



□ Use the physical laws of matter to determine the equation of state:

$$p = p(\rho)$$

Terminology:

Periods of time in which the eqn. of state can be approximated as:

$$p(\rho) = w\rho \quad \text{with} \quad w = \text{const}$$

are called **cosmic epochs**:

$$w = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{dust: "matter dominated" epoch} \\ 1/3 & \text{radiation: "radiation dominated" epoch} \\ -1 & \Lambda \text{ case: "dark energy dominated" epoch} \end{cases}$$

□ Use $p(\rho)$ to solve (see previous lecture)

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3) = -3p(\rho) a^2$$

$$p(\rho) = w\rho \quad \text{with} \quad w = \text{const}$$

are called **cosmic epochs**:

$$w = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{dust: "matter dominated" epoch} \\ 1/3 & \text{radiation: "radiation dominated" epoch} \\ -1 & \Lambda \text{ case: "dark energy dominated" epoch} \end{cases}$$

□ Use $p(\rho)$ to solve (see previous lecture)

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3) = -3\rho a^2$$

to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$

□ Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:



are called **cosmic epochs**:

$$w = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{dust: "matter dominated" epoch} \\ 1/3 & \text{radiation: "radiation dominated" epoch} \\ -1 & \Lambda \text{ case: "dark energy dominated" epoch} \end{cases}$$

□ Use $p(\rho)$ to solve (see previous lecture)

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3) = -3p(\rho) a^2$$

to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$

□ Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:

We know of no physical mechanism that could cause

$\rho_m a^{-3}$ in matter-dominated epoch ($w=0$)

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$

□ Use $\rho(\rho)$ to solve (see previous lecture)

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3) = -3\rho(\rho) a^2$$

to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$

□ Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:

We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case.

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$
 dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy loss due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$
 vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.



$$p = p(\rho)$$

Terminology:

Periods of time in which the eqn. of state can be approximated as:

$$p(\rho) = w\rho \quad \text{with} \quad w = \text{const}$$

are called **cosmic epochs**:

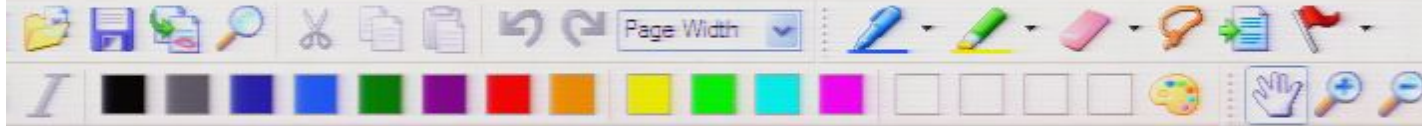
$$w = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{dust: "matter dominated" epoch} \\ 1/3 & \text{radiation: "radiation dominated" epoch} \\ -1 & \Lambda \text{ case: "dark energy dominated" epoch} \end{cases}$$

□ Use $p(\rho)$ to solve (see previous lecture)

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3) = -3p(\rho) a^2$$

to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$



□ Use $\rho(\rho)$ to solve (see previous lecture)

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3) = -3\rho(\rho) a^2$$

to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$

□ Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:

We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case.

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$

dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy loss due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$

vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.



to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$

Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:

We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case today!

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$
 dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy loss due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$
 vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.

Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^E$ i.e. ρ increases with a .



$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3) = -3\rho(a) a^2$$

to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$

Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:

We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case today!

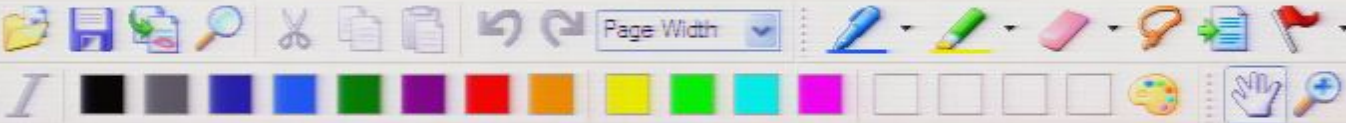
$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$

dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy loss due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$

vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.

Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{\epsilon}$ i.e. ρ increases with a .



We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case today!

Recall special cases:

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$
 dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy loss due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$
 vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.

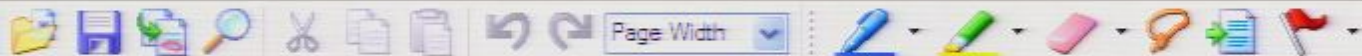
Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_\Lambda a^{\epsilon}$ i.e. ρ increases with a .

□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

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

(we omit the Λ term by agreeing to incorporate Λ in the definition of ρ, p .)

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $\kappa=0$ in a good approximation.



Some evidence suggests
it might be the case
today!

ρ, a^{ω} in dark energy-dominated epoch ($\omega = -1$)
vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.

Note: $\omega < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{\epsilon}$ i.e. ρ increases with a .
 $\epsilon > 0$

□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

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

(we omit the Λ term by agreeing to incorporate Λ in the definition of ρ, p .)

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $\kappa = 0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $\kappa = 0$:

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



□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{we omit the } \Lambda \text{ term} \\ \text{by agreeing to incorporate} \\ \Lambda \text{ in the definition of } \rho, p. \end{array} \right)$$

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.



□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{we omit the } \Lambda \text{ term} \\ \text{by agreeing to incorporate} \\ \Lambda \text{ in the definition of } \rho, p. \end{array} \right)$$

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.



We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case today!

Recall special cases:

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$

dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy loss due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$

vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.

Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_\Lambda a^{\epsilon}$ i.e. ρ increases with a .

□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

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

(we omit the Λ term by agreeing to incorporate Λ in the definition of ρ, p .)

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

to obtain $\rho(a)$. Namely, in each epoch: to solve.

$$\frac{d}{da} (\rho(a) a^3) = -3a^2 w \rho(a)$$

Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:

We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case today!

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$

dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy less due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$

vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.

Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^E$ i.e. ρ increases with a .

Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:



Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^E$ i.e. ρ increases with a .

□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{we omit the } \Lambda \text{ term} \\ \text{by agreeing to incorporate} \\ \Lambda \text{ in the definition of } \rho, p. \end{array} \right)$$

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation

□ Solution:

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{-3(w+1)}$$

Recall special cases:

We know of no physical mechanism that could cause $w < -1$. Yet, some evidence suggests it might be the case today!

$$\rho(a) = \begin{cases} \rho_m a^{-3} & \text{in matter-dominated epoch } (w=0) \\ \rho_r a^{-4} & \text{in radiation-dominated epoch } (w=1/3) \\ \rho_\Lambda a^0 & \text{in dark energy-dominated epoch } (w=-1) \end{cases}$$

dilution of matter, i.e. energy proportional to $\frac{1}{\text{Volume}} \sim a^{-3}$

dilution of energy $\sim \frac{1}{\text{Volume}}$ and energy loss due to wavelength stretching $\sim \frac{1}{a}$

vacuum energy due to cosmological constant is of course constant.

Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^{\epsilon}$ i.e. ρ increases with a .

□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

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

(we omit the Λ term by agreeing to incorporate Λ in the definition of ρ , p .)



Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^E$ i.e. ρ increases with a .

□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{we omit the } \Lambda \text{ term} \\ \text{by agreeing to incorporate} \\ \Lambda \text{ in the definition of } \rho, p. \end{array} \right)$$

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation



□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{we omit the } \Lambda \text{ term} \\ \text{by agreeing to incorporate} \\ \Lambda \text{ in the definition of } \rho, p. \end{array} \right)$$

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

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

(we omit the Λ term
by agreeing to incorporate
 Λ in the definition of ρ, p .)

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $\kappa=0$
in a good approximation.

Result for $\kappa=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation,
there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:



Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$
in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

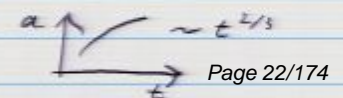
$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$$\left(\frac{t}{t_1} \right)^{2/3}$$

in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$





□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{we omit the } \Lambda \text{ term} \\ \text{by agreeing to incorporate} \\ \Lambda \text{ in the definition of } \rho, p. \end{array} \right)$$

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.



(a)

 a^2

3

(Λ in the definition of $S, p.$)

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$
in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

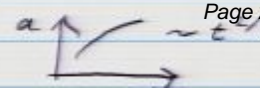
$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{2/3}$$

in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$





Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$
in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

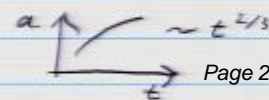
$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$$\left(\frac{t}{t_1} \right)^{2/3}$$

in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$





Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$
in a good approximation.

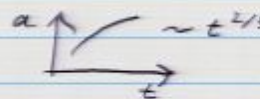
Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{2/3}$ in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$



$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/2}$ in a radiation-dominated epoch: $w=1/3$





in a good approximation.

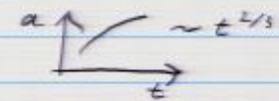
Result for $K=0$:

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

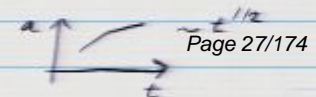
Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{2/3}$ in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$



$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/2}$ in a radiation-dominated epoch $w=1/3$





Note: $w < -1$ would mean $\rho(a) = \rho_0 a^E$ i.e. ρ increases with a .

□ Now use $\rho(a)$ to turn the Friedmann eqn. into an ordinary differential equation for $a(t)$:

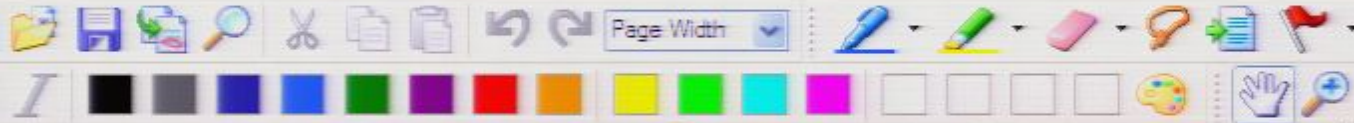
$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{K}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{we omit the } \Lambda \text{ term} \\ \text{by agreeing to incorporate} \\ \Lambda \text{ in the definition of } \rho, p. \end{array} \right)$$

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation



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

(we must use Λ term
by agreeing to incorporate
 Λ in the definition of ρ, p .)

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $\kappa=0$
in a good approximation.

Result for $\kappa=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation,
there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:



Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$
in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

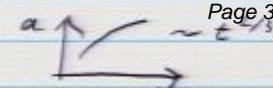
$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{2/3}$$

in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$





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

(we omit the Λ term by agreeing to incorporate Λ in the definition of ρ, p .)

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $K=0$ in a good approximation.

Result for $K=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

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

We must use Λ even
by agreeing to incorporate
 Λ in the definition of ρ, p .

Observational evidence: the universe is spatially flat $\kappa=0$
in a good approximation.

Result for $\kappa=0$:

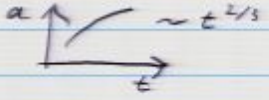
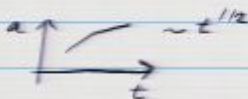
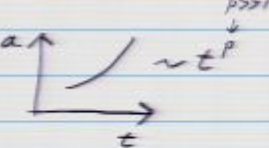
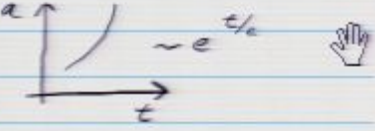
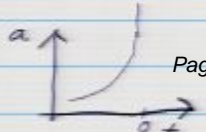
$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}}$$

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation,
there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

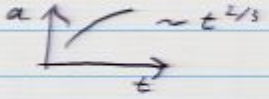
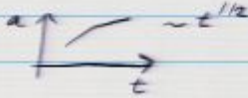
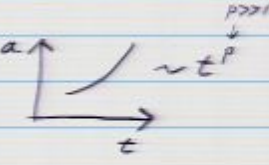
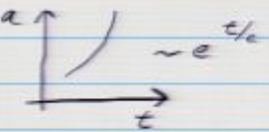
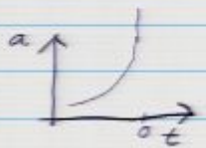
there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

}	$(t/t_x)^{2/3}$	in a matter-dominated epoch: $w = 0$	
	$(t/t_r)^{1/2}$	in a radiation-dominated epoch $w = 1/3$	
	$(t/t_p)^p$	with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (verif y)	
	e^{Ht}	in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.	
	$(-t/t_s)^{-\epsilon}$	in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)	



Consider the most important cases of expansions:

}	$(t/t_0)^{2/3}$	in a matter-dominated epoch: $w = 0$	
	$(t/t_0)^{1/2}$	in a radiation-dominated epoch $w = 1/3$	
	$(t/t_p)^p$	with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power-law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (verify)	
	e^{Ht}	in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.	
	$(-t/t_3)^{-\epsilon}$	in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)	

Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which

$w < -1/3$ (exercise: verify), is called an "inflationary epoch".



is a good approximation.

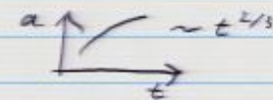
Result for $k=0$:

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

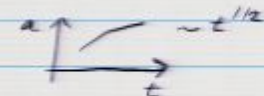
Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{2/3}$ in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$



$\left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/2}$ in a radiation-dominated epoch $w=1/3$



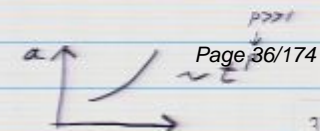
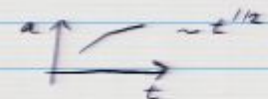
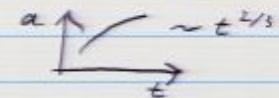
Result for $k=0$:

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

Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$$a(t) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{2/3} & \text{in a matter-dominated epoch: } w=0 \\ \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/2} & \text{in a radiation-dominated epoch } w=1/3 \\ \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^p & \text{with } p \gg 1 \text{ in a so-called "power"} \end{cases}$$





Consider the most important cases of expansions:

}	$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_x} \right)^{2/3}$	in a matter-dominated epoch: $w = 0$	
	$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_r} \right)^{1/2}$	in a radiation-dominated epoch $w = 1/3$	
	$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_p} \right)^p$	with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (very)	
	$a(t) = e^{t/t_d}$	in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.	
	$a(t) = \left(\frac{-t}{t_s} \right)^{-\epsilon}$	in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)	



in a good approximation.

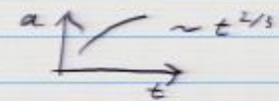
Result for $K=0$:

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

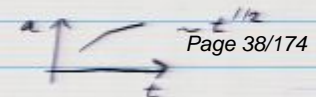
Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$\left(\frac{t}{t_*} \right)^{2/3}$ in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$

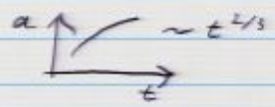

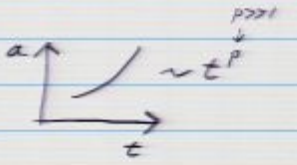
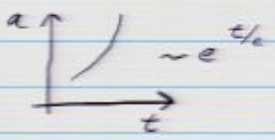
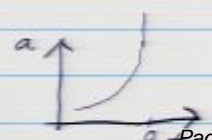


$\left(\frac{t}{t_*} \right)^{1/2}$ in a radiation-dominated epoch $w=1/3$



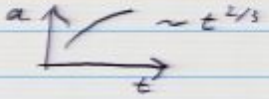

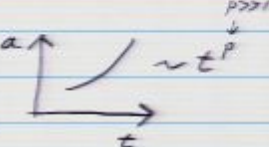
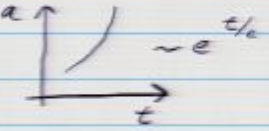
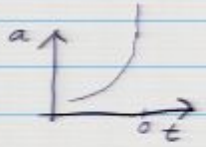


Consider the most important cases of expansions:

}	$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_d}\right)^{2/3}$	in a matter-dominated epoch: $w = 0$	
	$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_r}\right)^{1/2}$	in a radiation-dominated epoch $w = 1/3$	
	$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_p}\right)^p$	with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (very)	
	$a(t) = e^{Ht}$	in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.	
	$a(t) = \left(\frac{-t}{t_s}\right)^{-\epsilon}$	in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)	



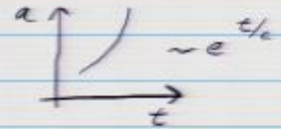
Consider the most important cases of expansions:

}	$(t/t_d)^{2/3}$	in a matter-dominated epoch: $w = 0$	
	$(t/t_r)^{1/2}$	in a radiation-dominated epoch $w = 1/3$	
	$(t/t_p)^p$	with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (very)	
	$e^{\pm t/t_s}$	in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.	
	$(-t/t_s)^{-\epsilon}$	in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)	



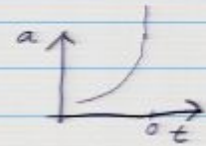
$$e^{t/t_0}$$

in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.



$$(-t/t_0)^{-E}$$

in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a **big rip** in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $E > 0$)

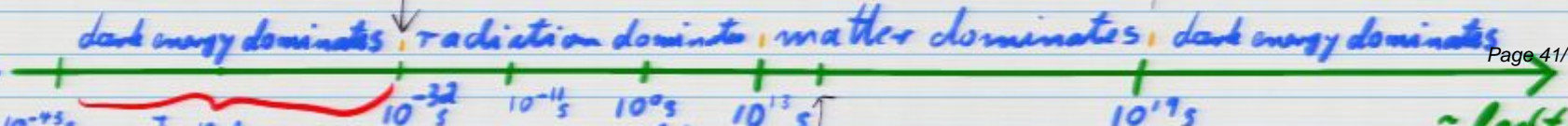


Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which $w < -1/3$ (exercise: verify), is called an **"inflationary epoch"**.

Most likely timeline:

short period of matter domination by "infaton" particles which then decay leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

see below for precise definition of $\rho_{critical}$
 Best fit today: $K = 0$
 $\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("dark energy")
 $\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$
 $\rho_{dark matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$
 $\rho_{visible matter} \approx 0.1 \rho_{matter}$



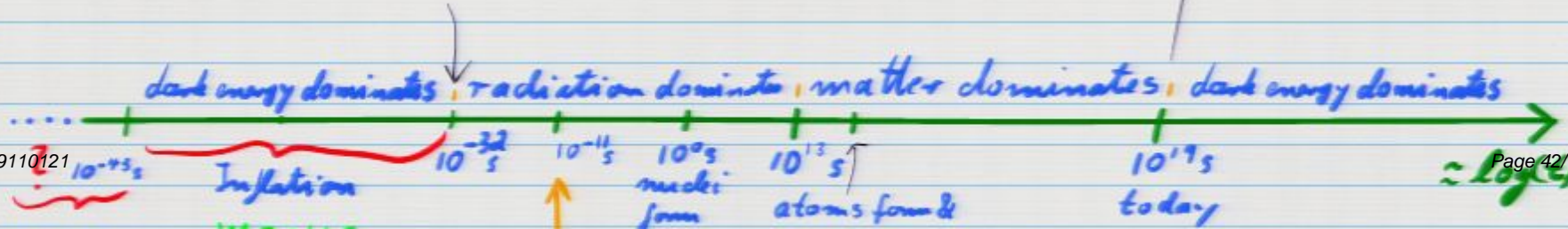


Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which $w < -\frac{1}{3}$ (exercise: verify), is called an "inflationary epoch".

Most likely timeline:

short period of matter domination by "infaton" particles which then decay leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

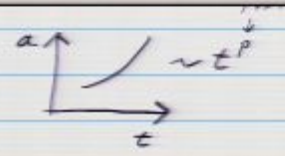
see below for precise definition of $\rho_{critical}$
 Best fit today: $K = 0$
 $\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("dark energy")
 $\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$
 $\rho_{dark\ matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$
 $\rho_{visible\ matter} \approx 0.1 \rho_{matter}$





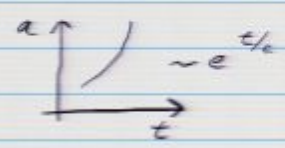
$$a(t) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (t/t_p)^p \\ e^{Ht} \\ (-t/t_s)^{-E} \end{array} \right.$$

with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power-law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (verify)



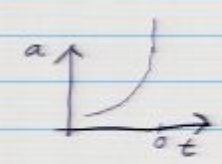
$$e^{Ht}$$

in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.



$$(-t/t_s)^{-E}$$

in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a **big rip** in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $E > 0$)



Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which $w < -1/3$ (exercise: verify), is called an "inflationary epoch".

Most likely timeline:

short period of matter domination by "inflaton" particles which then decay leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

see below for precise definition of $\rho_{critical}$

Best fit today: $K = 0$

$\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("dark energy")

$\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$

$\rho_{dark-matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$

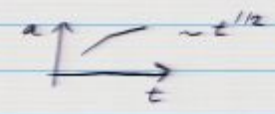
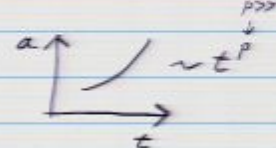
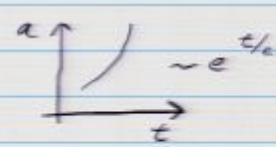
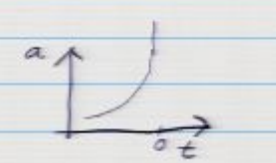
$\rho_{visible-matter} \approx 0.1 \rho_{matter}$



Consider the most important cases of expansions:

}	$(t/t_x)^{2/3}$	in a matter-dominated epoch: $w = 0$	
	$(t/t_r)^{1/2}$	in a radiation-dominated epoch $w = 1/3$	
	$(t/t_p)^p$	with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3}p$ (very)	
	e^{t/t_e}	in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.	
	$(-t/t_s)^{-\epsilon}$	in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)	



}	$(t/t_r)^{1/2}$	in a radiation-dominated epoch $w = 1/3$	
	$(t/t_p)^p$	with $t \gg 1$ in a so-called "power-law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (verify)	
	e^{t/t_e}	in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.	
	$(-t/t_s)^{-\epsilon}$	in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)	

Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which $w < -1/3$ (exercise: verify), is called an "inflationary epoch".

Most likely timeline:

Pirsa: 09110121

see below for precise definition of $\rho_{critical}$

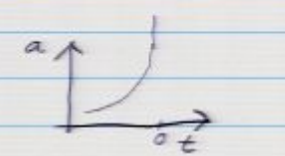
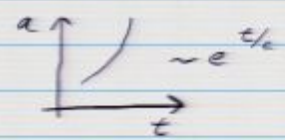
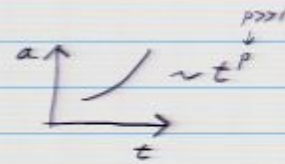
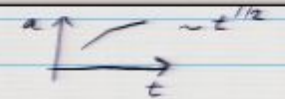
Best fit today: $K = 0$

$\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("Page 45/474")

$\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$



$a(t) = \begin{cases} (t/t_r)^{1/2} & \text{in a radiation-dominated epoch } w = 1/3 \\ (t/t_p)^p & \text{with } p \gg 1 \text{ in a so-called "power-law epoch": } w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p} \text{ (verify)} \\ e^{Ht} & \text{in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: } w = -1. \\ (-t/t_s)^{-E} & \text{in a "super-expanding" epoch with } w < -1 \text{ we would reach a big rip in finite time: at } t \rightarrow 0! \end{cases}$



Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which $w < -1/3$ (exercise: verify), is called an "inflationary epoch".

Most likely timeline:

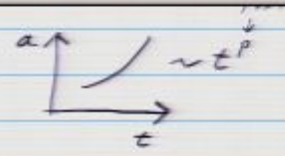
see below for precise definition of $\rho_{critical}$
 Best fit today: $K = 0$
 $\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("dark energy")
 $\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$
 $\rho_{dark-matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$

short period of matter domination

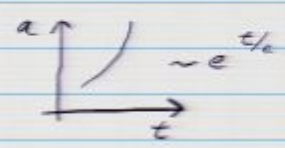


$$a(t) = \begin{cases} (t/t_p)^p \\ e^{Ht} \\ (-t/t_s)^{-\epsilon} \end{cases}$$

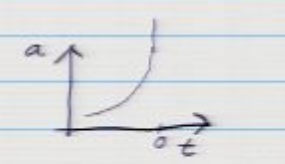
with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (verify)



in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.



in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ we would reach a **big rip** in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$)



Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which $w < -1/3$ (exercise: verify), is called an "inflationary epoch".

Most likely timeline:

short period of matter domination by "inflaton" particles which then decay leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

see below for precise definition of $\rho_{critical}$

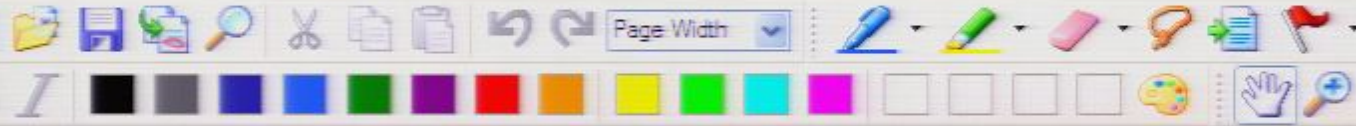
Best fit today: $K = 0$

$\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("dark energy")

$\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$

$\rho_{dark-matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$

$\rho_{visible-matter} \approx 0.1 \rho_{matter}$



in a good approximation.

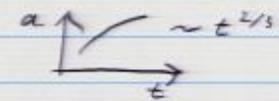
Result for $k=0$:

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

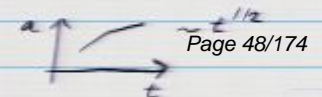
Note that, because \dot{a} is squared in the Friedmann equation, there is always an expanding along with a contracting solution.

Consider the most important cases of expansions:

$\left(\frac{t}{t_*} \right)^{2/3}$ in a matter-dominated epoch: $w=0$



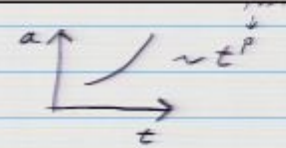
$\left(\frac{t}{t_*} \right)^{1/2}$ in a radiation-dominated epoch $w=1/3$



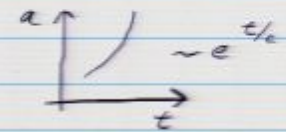


$$a(t) = \begin{cases} (t/t_p)^p \\ e^{t/t_e} \\ (-t/t_s)^{-\epsilon} \end{cases}$$

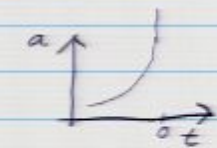
with $p \gg 1$ in a so-called "power-law epoch": $w = -1 + \frac{2}{3p}$ (verify)



in a totally dark energy dominated epoch: $w = -1$.



in a "super-expanding" epoch with $w < -1$ (i.e. $\epsilon > 0$) we would reach a **big rip** in finite time: at $t \rightarrow 0!$



Definition: Any epoch in which $\ddot{a} > 0$, i.e., in which $w < -1/3$ (exercise: verify), is called an "inflationary epoch".

Most likely timeline:

short period of matter domination by "inflaton" particles which then decay leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

see below for precise definition of $\rho_{critical}$

Best fit today: $K = 0$

$\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("dark energy")

$\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$

$\rho_{dark\ matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$

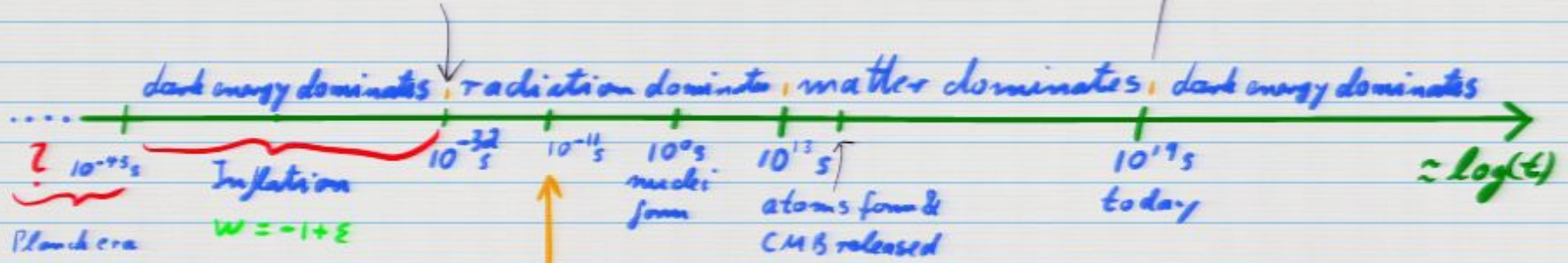
$\rho_{visible\ matter} \approx 0.1 \rho_{matter}$



Most likely timeline:

short period of matter domination by "inflaton" particles which then decay leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

Best fit today: $K=0$
 $\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical}$ ("dark energy")
 $\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$
 $\rho_{dark\ matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$
 $\rho_{visible\ matter} \approx 0.1 \rho_{matter}$



Why inflation?

at this time, the temperature was so high that particle collisions occurred at a typical energy of $1\text{TeV} = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \cdot 10^{12}\text{J}$ which is the maximal energy that accelerator experiments e.g. at CERN currently can produce.



Most likely timeline:

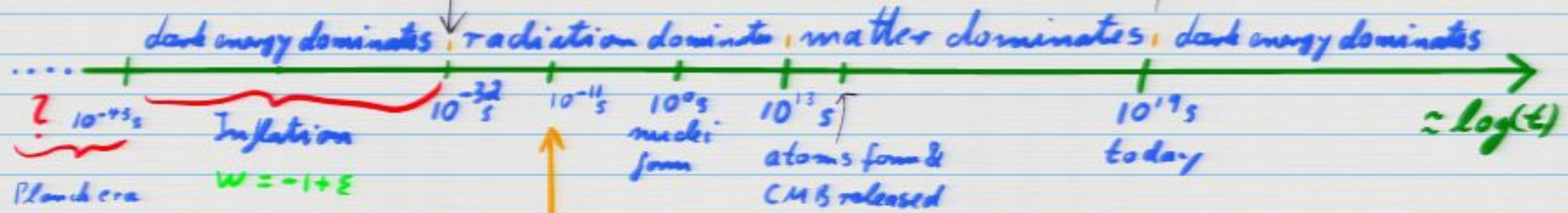
short period of matter domination by "infant" particles which then decay leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

$$\Lambda \approx 0.7 \rho_{critical} \text{ ("dark energy")}$$

$$\rho_{matter} \approx 0.3 \rho_{critical}$$

$$\rho_{dark\ matter} \approx 0.9 \rho_{matter}$$

$$\rho_{visible\ matter} \approx 0.1 \rho_{matter}$$



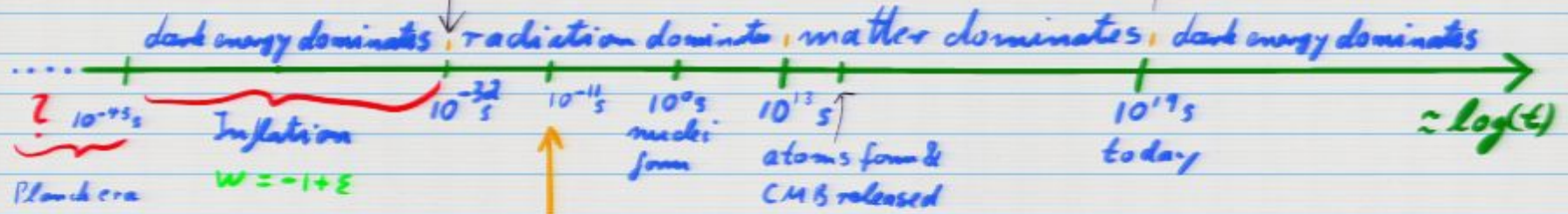
Why inflation?

at this time, the temperature was so high that particle collisions occurred at a typical energy of $1\text{TeV} = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \cdot 10^{12}\text{J}$ which is the maximal energy that accelerator experiments e.g. at CERN currently can produce.



short period of matter domination
by "infaton" particles which then decay
leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

$$\rho_{\text{matter}} \approx 0.3 \rho_{\text{critical}}$$
$$\rho_{\text{dark matter}} \approx 0.9 \rho_{\text{matter}}$$
$$\rho_{\text{visible matter}} \approx 0.1 \rho_{\text{matter}}$$



Why inflation?

at this time, the temperature was so high that
particle collisions occurred at a typical energy
of $1 \text{ TeV} = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \cdot 10^{12} \text{ J}$ which is
the maximal energy that accelerator experiments
e.g. at CERN currently can produce.



e.g. at CERN currently can produce.

The flatness problem:

Reconsider the experimental finding of $K \approx 0$:

□ Rewrite the Friedmann equation

$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

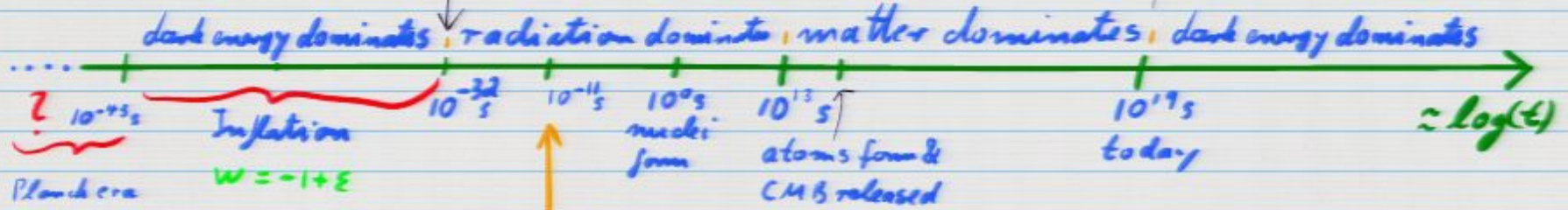
□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density

for $K=0$ is:



short period of matter domination
by "inflaton" particles which then decay
leaving a hot soup of all sorts of particles

dark matter $\approx 0.3 \rho_{\text{matter}}$
visible matter $\approx 0.1 \rho_{\text{matter}}$



Why inflation?

at this time, the temperature was so high that
particle collisions occurred at a typical energy
of $1 \text{ TeV} = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \cdot 10^{12} \text{ J}$ which is
the maximal energy that accelerator experiments
e.g. at CERN currently can produce.



The flatness problem:

Reconsider the experimental finding of $K \approx 0$:

□ Rewrite the Friedmann equation

$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

The flatness problem:

Reconsider the experimental finding of $K \approx 0$:

□ Rewrite the Friedmann equation

$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G\rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$



The flatness problem:

Reconsider the experimental finding of $K \approx 0$:

□ Rewrite the Friedmann equation

$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
 (const. in space
 but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ Rewrite the Friedmann equation

$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?



$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

⇒ At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:



$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

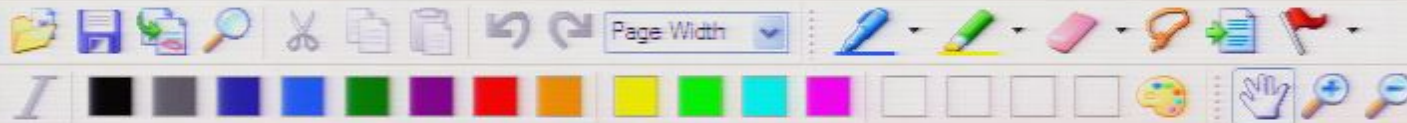
$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

⇒ At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:



by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{tot} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{tot}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{crit}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$



by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{tot} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$: (but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{\kappa}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{tot}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $\kappa=0$ is:

$$\rho_{crit}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ Rewrite the Friedmann equation

$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

$$3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 + 3\frac{K}{a^2} = 8\pi G \rho + \Lambda$$

by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

Hubble parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{tot}}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:



by incorporating Λ in $\rho_{tot} = \rho + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

cosmological parameter
(const. in space
but not in time)

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{tot}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{crit}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)}$$

i.e.: $\rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$



by incorporating it in $\rho_{tot} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{tot}$ and setting $H := \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{tot}(t)$$

□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{crit}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:



At any given time, the critical energy density
for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{crit}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \Omega(t) H(t)^2$$

i.e.

$$\Omega(t) = \frac{H(t)^2}{H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2}}$$



$$\rho_{crit}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

▢ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

▢ Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \Omega(t) H(t)^2$$

i.e.

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{K}{a(t)^2}$$

Exercise: check



□ \Rightarrow At any given time, the critical energy density for $K=0$ is:

$$\rho_{\text{crit}}(t) = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

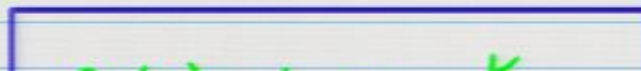
□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{\text{tot}}(t)}{\rho_{\text{crit}}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{\text{tot}}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \Omega(t) H(t)^2$$





▢ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

▢ Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \Omega(t) H(t)^2$$

i.e.

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{K}{a(t)^2}$$

Exercise: check



▢ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

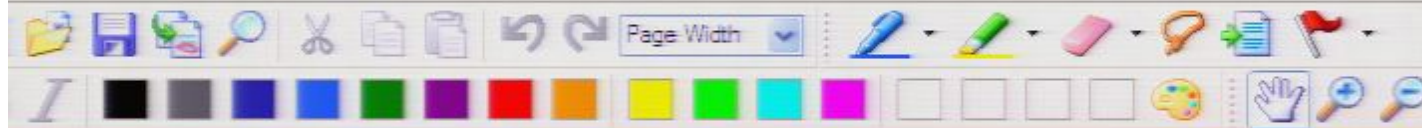
▢ Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \Omega(t) H(t)^2$$

i.e.

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{K}{a(t)^2}$$

Exercise: check



□ How close to critical are we now and at other times?

Definition:

$$\Omega(t) := \frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_{crit}(t)} \quad \text{i.e.:} \quad \rho_{tot}(t) = \Omega(t) \frac{3}{8\pi G} H(t)^2$$

□ Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \Omega(t) H(t)^2$$

i.e.

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{K}{a(t)^2}$$

Exercise: check

□ We are in a matter-dominated epoch: $a \sim t^{2/3}$, $\dot{a} \sim t^{-1/3}$



Thus, the Friedmann equation becomes:

$$H(t)^2 + \frac{K}{a(t)^2} = \Omega(t) H(t)^2$$

i.e.

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{K}{a(t)^2}$$

Exercise: check

□ We are in a matter-dominated epoch: $a \sim t^{2/3}$, $\dot{a} \sim t^{-1/3}$

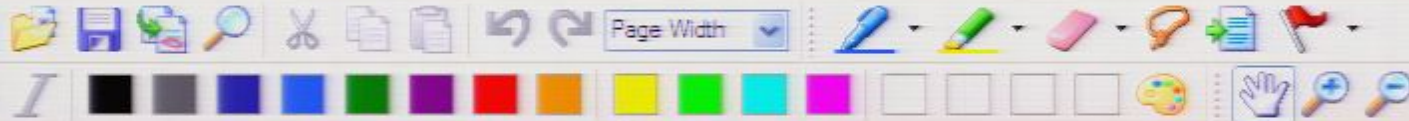
Thus: $\Omega(t) - 1 = K t^{2/3}$

(radiation-dominated epoch
before: $a \sim t^{1/2} \Rightarrow \dot{a} \sim t^{-1/2}$
 $\Rightarrow \Omega(t) - 1 = K t$)

\Rightarrow

$$\frac{\Omega(t_2) - 1}{\Omega(t_1) - 1} = \left(\frac{t_2}{t_1}\right)^{2/3}$$

□ Given that $\Omega(t_2) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$ today, at time t_1 ,
much earlier, say at $t_0 = 10^{-6} t_1$, we had



□ We are in a matter-dominated epoch: $a \sim t^{2/3}$, $\dot{a} \sim t^{-1/3}$

Thus: $\Omega(t) - 1 = K t^{2/3}$

(radiation-dominated epoch
before: $a \sim t^{1/2} \Rightarrow \dot{a} \sim t^{-1/2}$
 $\Rightarrow \Omega(t) - 1 = K t$)

\Rightarrow

$$\frac{\Omega(t_2) - 1}{\Omega(t_1) - 1} = \left(\frac{t_2}{t_1}\right)^{2/3}$$

□ Given that $\Omega(t_1) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$ today, at time t_1 ,
much earlier, say at $t_0 = 10^{-6} t_1$, we had

$$\Omega(t_0) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$$

At $t_n = 10^{-30} t_1$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11}$ s) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-24})$$

accelerator physics goes so far

in radiation-dominated epoch
the effect is even greater
since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$



□ We are in a matter-dominated epoch: $a \sim t^{2/3}, \dot{a} \sim t^{-1/3}$

Thus: $\Omega(t) - 1 = K t^{2/3}$ (radiation-dominated epoch before: $a \sim t^{1/2} \Rightarrow \dot{a} \sim t^{-1/2} \Rightarrow \Omega(t) - 1 = K t$)

\Rightarrow

$$\frac{\Omega(t_2) - 1}{\Omega(t_1) - 1} = \left(\frac{t_2}{t_1}\right)^{2/3}$$

□ Given that $\Omega(t_1) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$ today, at time t_1 , much earlier, say at $t_0 = 10^{-6} t_1$, we had

$$\Omega(t_0) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$$

At $t_n = 10^{-30} t_1$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} \text{s}$) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-24})$$

accelerator physics goes so far

in radiation-dominated epoch the effect is even greater since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$



Thus: $\Omega(t) - 1 = K t^{2/3}$ (radiation-dominated epoch before: $a \sim t^{1/2} \Rightarrow \dot{a} \sim t^{-1/2} \Rightarrow \Omega(t) - 1 = K t$)

\Rightarrow

$$\frac{\Omega(t_2) - 1}{\Omega(t_1) - 1} = \left(\frac{t_2}{t_1}\right)^{2/3}$$

Given that $\Omega(t_1) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$ today, at time t_1 , much earlier, say at $t_0 = 10^{-6} t_1$, we had

$$\Omega(t_0) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$$

At $t_n = 10^{-30} t_1$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} \text{s}$) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-24})$$

accelerator physics goes so far

in radiation-dominated epoch the effect is even greater since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$

⇒

$$\frac{\Omega(t_0) - 1}{\Omega(t_1) - 1} = \left(\frac{t_0}{t_1}\right)^{2/3}$$

□ Given that $\Omega(t_1) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$ today, at time t_1 ,
much earlier, say at $t_0 = 10^{-6} t_1$, we had

$$\Omega(t_0) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$$

At $t_n = 10^{-30} t_1$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} s$) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-24})$$

accelerator physics goes so far

in radiation-dominated epoch
the effect is even greater
since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$

□ ⇒

Flatness is not stable! The universe must have
started out flat with tremendous precision to be



⇒

$$\frac{\Omega(t_0) - 1}{\Omega(t_1) - 1} = \left(\frac{t_0}{t_1}\right)^{2/3}$$

□ Given that $\Omega(t_1) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$ today, at time t_1 , much earlier, say at $t_0 = 10^{-6} t_1$, we had

$$\Omega(t_0) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$$

At $t_n = 10^{-30} t_1$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} s$) we had

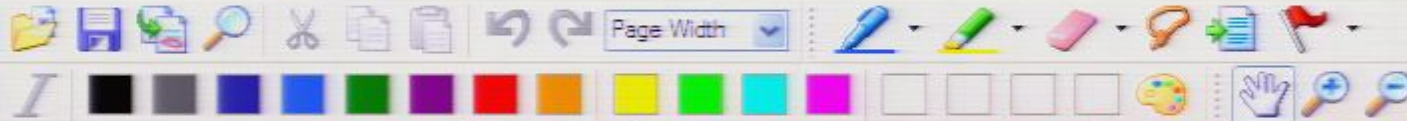
$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-24})$$

accelerator physics goes so far

in radiation-dominated epoch the effect is even greater since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$

□ ⇒

Flatness is not stable! The universe must have started out flat with tremendous precision to be still as flat as we see it today.



$$\Omega(t_1) - 1 = \left(\frac{t_1}{t_0} \right)^2$$

Given that $\Omega(t_1) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$ today, at time t_1 ,
much earlier, say at $t_0 = 10^{-6} t_1$, we had

$$\Omega(t_0) - 1 = \mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$$

At $t_n = 10^{-30} t_1$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} s$) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-24})$$

accelerator physics goes so far

in radiation-dominated epoch
the effect is even greater
since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$

\Rightarrow

Flatness is not stable! The universe must have
started out flat with tremendous precision to be
still as flat as we see it today.



At $t_n = 10^{-30} t$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} s$) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-24})$$

↳ in radiation-dominated epoch
the effect is even greater
since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$

□ ⇒

Flatness is not stable! The universe must have started out flat with tremendous precision to be still as flat as we see it today.

Solution to this fine-tuning problem?

□ Is there a type of epoch in which the universe evolves towards flatness, rather than away from it?

□ Yes! (Brandenburg, Steinhardts, Lynden-Bell ≈ 1980)



At $t_n = 10^{-30} t$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} s$) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx O(10^{-24})$$

acceleration of photons goes so far

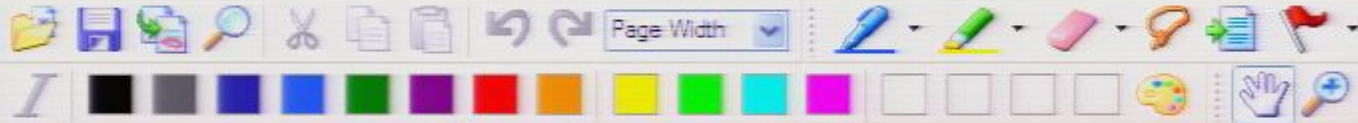
in radiation-dominated epoch
the effect is even greater
since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$

□ ⇒

Flatness is not stable! The universe must have started out flat with tremendous precision to be still as flat as we see it today.

Solution to this fine-tuning problem?

□ Is there a type of epoch in which the universe evolves towards flatness, rather than away from it?



At $t_n = 10^{-30} t$, (i.e. at $t = 10^{-11} s$) we had

$$\Omega(t_n) - 1 \approx O(10^{-24})$$

in radiation-dominated epoch
the effect is even greater
since $\Omega - 1 \sim t$

⇒

Flatness is not stable! The universe must have started out flat with tremendous precision to be still as flat as we see it today.

Solution to this fine-tuning problem?

Is there a type of epoch in which the universe evolves towards flatness, rather than away from it?

Yes! (Brandenburg, Enqvist, Stebbins, Lidz, et al. ~ 1999)



Solution to this fine-tuning problem?

□ Is there a type of epoch in which the universe evolves towards flatness, rather than away from it?

□ **Yes!** (Brant, Englert, Starobinsky, Linde et al ≈ 1980)

To this end, conjecture an early cosm. epoch in which

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{k}{\dot{a}(t)^2} \quad \text{with } \underline{\dot{a}(t) \text{ increasing with } t}.$$

□ Thus, conjecture an early epoch with:

$$\ddot{a}(t) > 0$$

Recall: We call such an epoch **inflationary** and it

arises whenever $w < -\frac{1}{3}$. ("Inflationary attractor" 9/24)



Solution to this fine-tuning problem?

- Is there a type of epoch in which the universe evolves towards flatness, rather than away from it?
- **Yes!** (Brant, Englert, Starobinsky, Linde et al ≈ 1980)
To this end, conjecture an early cosm. epoch in which

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{k}{\dot{a}(t)^2} \quad \text{with } \underline{\dot{a}(t) \text{ increasing with } t}.$$

- Thus, conjecture an early epoch with:

$$\ddot{a}(t) > 0$$

Recall: We call such an epoch **inflationary** and it arises whenever $w < -\frac{1}{3}$. ("Inflationary attractor")



Solution to the fine-tuning problem?

□ Is there a type of epoch in which the universe evolves towards flatness, rather than away from it?

□ **Yes!** (Brant, Englert, Starobinsky, Linde et al ≈ 1980)

To this end, conjecture an early cosm. epoch in which

$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{k}{\dot{a}(t)^2} \quad \text{with } \dot{a}(t) \text{ increasing with } t.$$

□ Thus, conjecture an early epoch with:

$$\ddot{a}(t) > 0$$

Recall: We call such an epoch **inflationary** and it arises whenever $w < -\frac{1}{3}$. ("Inflationary attractor")



$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{k}{\dot{a}(t)^2} \quad \text{with } \underline{\dot{a}(t) \text{ increasing with } t}.$$

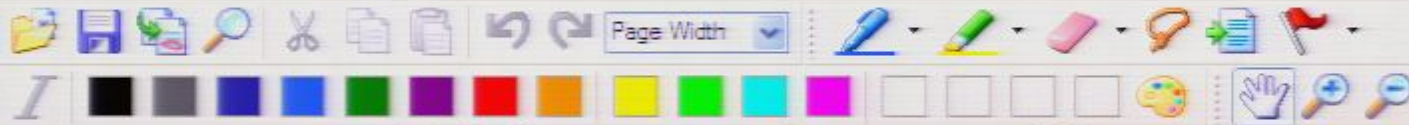
□ Thus, conjecture an early epoch with:

$$\ddot{a}(t) > 0$$

Recall: We call such an epoch **inflationary** and it arises whenever $w < -\frac{1}{3}$. ("Inflationary attractor")

□ Experimental constraints?

In order to account for the degree of flatness observed today (and cross-checked in the CMB), a period of near-exponential inflation should have expanded the universe by a factor of



$$\Omega(t) - 1 = \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)^2} \quad \text{with } a(t) \text{ increasing with } t.$$

□ Thus, conjecture an early epoch with:

$$\ddot{a}(t) > 0$$

Recall: We call such an epoch **inflationary** and it arises whenever $w < -\frac{1}{3}$. ("Inflationary attractor")

□ Experimental constraints?

In order to account for the degree of flatness observed today (and cross-checked in the CMB), a period of near-exponential inflation should have expanded the universe by a factor of at least



Experimental constraints?

In order to account for the degree of flatness observed today (and cross-checked in the CMB), a period of near-exponential inflation should have expanded the universe by a factor of at least

$$\frac{a(t_{\text{now}})}{a(t_{\text{inf}})} \approx e^{60}$$

The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

- the absence of exotic high mass particles that would likely have been produced close to Planck time (and only them).



Experimental constraints?

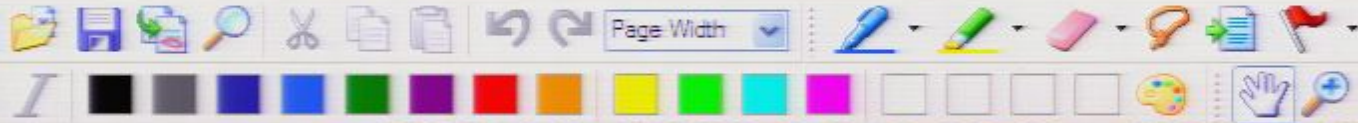
In order to account for the degree of flatness observed today (and cross-checked in the CMB), a period of near-exponential inflation should have expanded the universe by a factor of at least

$$\frac{a(t_{\text{now}})}{a(t_{\text{after}})} \approx e^{60}$$

The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

- the absence of exotic high mass particles that would likely have been produced close to Planck time (and only then).

Namely: The inflationary expansion extremely dilutes all parts



observed today (and cross-checked to the CMB), a period of near-exponential inflation should have expanded the universe by a factor of at least

$$\frac{a(t_{\text{now}})}{a(t_{\text{after}})} \approx e^{60}$$

The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

- the absence of exotic high mass particles that would likely have been produced close to Planck time (and only then).

Namely: The inflationary expansion extremely dilutes all particles.

- ⇒ A new problem:

At the end of an inflationary epoch, must explain how



at least

$$\frac{a(t_{\text{before}})}{a(t_{\text{after}})} \approx e^{60}$$

The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

likely have been produced close to Planck time (and only then).

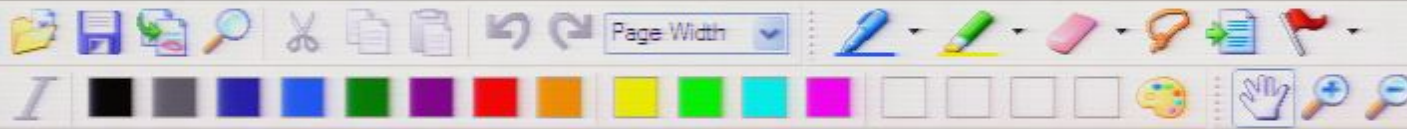
Namely: The inflationary expansion extremely dilutes all particles.

□ ⇒ A new problem:

At the end of an inflationary epoch, must explain how the universe is filled with a high density of matter again.

□ Solution:

The inflationary epoch occurs when a scalar field



The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

- the absence of exotic high mass particles that would likely have been produced close to Planck time (and only then).

Namely: The inflationary expansion extremely dilutes all particles.

- ⇒ A new problem:

At the end of an inflationary epoch, must explain how the universe is filled with a high density of matter again!

- Solution:

The inflationary epoch occurs when a scalar field ϕ has a large potential:

Recall:
$$\mathcal{L}_\phi = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)$$



□ \Rightarrow A new problem:

At the end of an inflationary epoch, must explain how the universe is filled with a high density of matter again!

□ Solution:

The inflationary epoch occurs when a scalar field ϕ has a large potential:

Recall:
$$S_{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)$$

$$P_{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)$$

Speculation:

How did inflation start?

Idea of "chaotic inflation":

In any spacetime a single quantum fluctuation of ϕ might elevate $V(\phi)$ locally so as to spawn a new

so that for large $V(\phi)$ we have

$$w = \frac{P_{\phi}}{S_{\phi}} \simeq -1 \quad \text{i.e. power law inflation}$$

After inflation, $V(\phi)$ becomes the kinetic and mass energy of all sorts of particles, thus making a hot primordial soup.



□ \Rightarrow A new problem:

At the end of an inflationary epoch, must explain how the universe is filled with a high density of matter again!

□ Solution:

The inflationary epoch occurs when a scalar field ϕ has a large potential:

Recall:
$$S_\phi = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)$$

$$P_\phi = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)$$

Speculation:

How did inflation start?

Idea of "chaotic inflation":

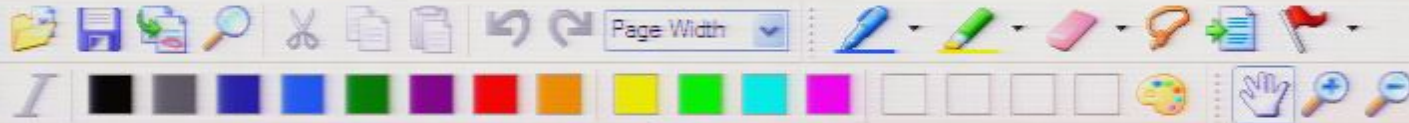
In any spacetime a single quantum fluctuation of ϕ might elevate $V(\phi)$ locally so as to spawn a new universe!

so that for large $V(\phi)$ we have

$$w = \frac{P_\phi}{S_\phi} \simeq -1 \quad \text{i.e. power law inflation}$$

After inflation, $V(\phi)$ becomes the kinetic and mass energy of all sorts of particles, thus making a hot primordial soup.

\uparrow called "re-heating"



At the end of an inflationary epoch, must explain how the universe is filled with a high density of matter again!

□ **Solution:**

The inflationary epoch occurs when a scalar field ϕ has a large potential:

Recall:
$$S_{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)$$

$$P_{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)$$

Speculation:

How did inflation start?

Idea of "stochastic inflation":

In any spacetime a single quantum fluctuation of ϕ might elevate $V(\phi)$ locally so as to spawn a new universe!

so that for large $V(\phi)$ we have

$$w = \frac{P_{\phi}}{S_{\phi}} \simeq -1 \quad \text{i.e. power law inflation}$$

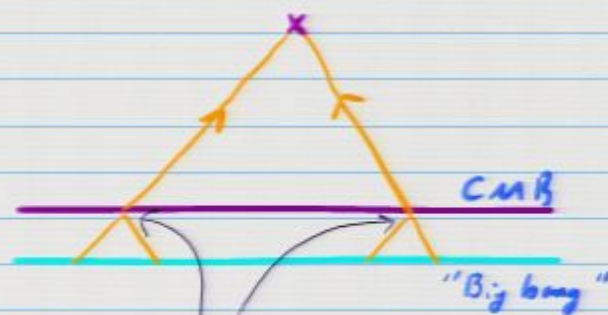
After inflation, $V(\phi)$ becomes the kinetic and mass energy of all sorts of particles, thus making a hot primordial soup.
 ↳ called "re-heating"



The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also solves:

□ The "horizon problem":

Why does the CMB have the same properties even when checking in opposite directions in the sky?



these two areas of the surface that emitted CMB photons do not have a common past. How come they are so similar?



Concretely: Only patches on the CMB sky of angular extent < 1 degree have a common past, if there was no inflation.

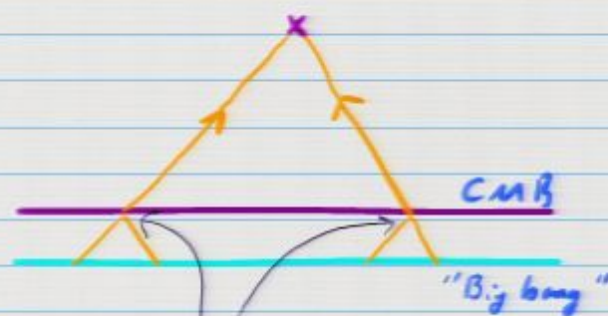
□ Answer:]] the inflationary epoch expanded spacetime sufficiently



The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also solves:

□ The "horizon problem":

Why does the CMB have the same properties even when checking in opposite directions in the sky?



these two areas of the surface that emitted CMB photons do not have a common past. How come they are so similar?



Concretely: Only patches on the CMB sky of angular extent < 1 degree have a common past, if there was no inflation.

□ Answer: If the inflationary epoch expanded spacetime sufficiently, (a factor of e^{60} suffices) then all CMB sources have a common past.



(a factor of e^{60} suffices) then all CMB sources have a common past.

The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

□ the occurrence and precise statistics of inhomogeneities in the universe!

□ **How?** The quantum fluctuations of scalar fields (unlike those of spinor fields of, e.g., electrons and vector fields of, e.g., photons) are being amplified in an inflationary epoch, along with those of g .

⇒ They are thought to have seeded the inhomogeneities in the CMB and therefore ultimately the condensation of hydrogen into galaxies and stars.



The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

- the occurrence and precise statistics of inhomogeneities in the universe!
- **How?** The quantum fluctuations of scalar fields (unlike those of spinor fields of, e.g., electrons and vector fields of, e.g., photons) are being amplified in an inflationary epoch, along with those of g .
 - ⇒ They are thought to have seeded the inhomogeneities in the CMB and therefore ultimately the condensation of hydrogen into galaxies and stars.
- **Experimental check:** Statistics from quantum fluctuations matches data with very good precision:



The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

□ the occurrence and precise statistics of inhomogeneities in the universe!

□ **How?** The quantum fluctuations of scalar fields (unlike those of spinor fields of, e.g., electrons and vector fields of, e.g., photons) are being amplified in an inflationary epoch, along with those of g .

⇒ They are thought to have seeded the inhomogeneities in the CMB and therefore ultimately the condensation of hydrogen into galaxies and stars.



The conjecture of an early inflationary epoch also explains

- the occurrence and precise statistics of inhomogeneities in the universe!
- **How?** The quantum fluctuations of scalar fields (unlike those of spinor fields of, e.g., electrons and vector fields of, e.g., photons) are being amplified in an inflationary epoch, along with those of g .
 - ⇒ They are thought to have seeded the inhomogeneities in the CMB and therefore ultimately the condensation of hydrogen into galaxies and stars.
- **Experimental check:** Statistics from quantum fluctuations matches data with very good precision:



The consequences of an early inflationary epoch also explains

- the occurrence and precise statistics of inhomogeneities in the universe!
- **How?** The quantum fluctuations of scalar fields (unlike those of spinor fields of, e.g., electrons and vector fields of, e.g., photons) are being amplified in an inflationary epoch, along with those of g .
 - ⇒ They are thought to have seeded the inhomogeneities in the CMB and therefore ultimately the condensation of hydrogen into galaxies and stars.
- **Experimental check:** Statistics from quantum fluctuations matches data with very good precision:



- the occurrence and precise statistics of inhomogeneities in the universe!
- **How?** The quantum fluctuations of scalar fields (unlike those of spinor fields of, e.g., electrons and vector fields of, e.g., photons) are being amplified in an inflationary epoch, along with those of g .
 - ⇒ They are thought to have seeded the inhomogeneities in the CMB and therefore ultimately the condensation of hydrogen into galaxies and stars.
- **Experimental check:** Statistics from quantum fluctuations matches data with very good precision:



(...more of spinor fields of, e.g., neutrinos and

vector fields of, e.g., photons) are being amplified in an inflationary epoch, along with those of g .

⇒ They are thought to have seeded the inhomogeneities in the CMB and therefore ultimately the condensation of hydrogen into galaxies and stars.

- **Experimental check:** Statistics from quantum fluctuations matches data with very good precision:

The cosmic microwave background:

- When a hydrogen gas is hotter than $\approx 3000\text{K}$ it ionizes, i.e., it is a plasma. The ions interact with light, i.e. the gas is opaque. Below 3000K the gas is neutral and therefore transparent.

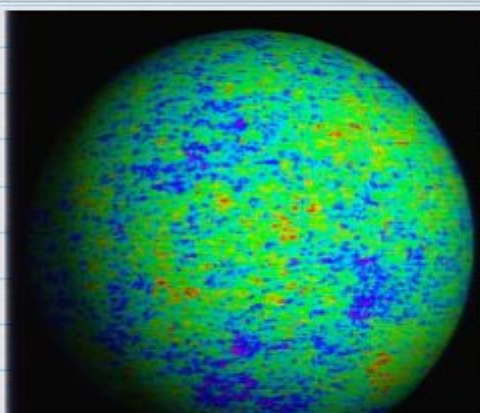


The cosmic microwave background:

- When a hydrogen gas is hotter than $\approx 3000\text{K}$ it ionizes, i.e., it is a plasma. The ions interact with light, i.e. the gas is opaque. Below 3000K the gas is neutral and therefore transparent.
- The universe, filled with H-gas made that transition at an age of $\approx 10^5\text{ys}$. The light prevalent then is still travelling and arriving from all directions.

Actual
temperature
data:

$$(\Delta T \approx 10^{-6}\text{K only!})$$



This can be expanded in spherical harmonics
Y_{l,m}, similar to

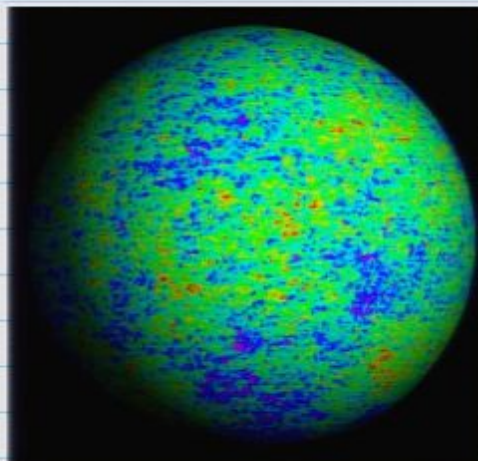


The cosmic microwave background:

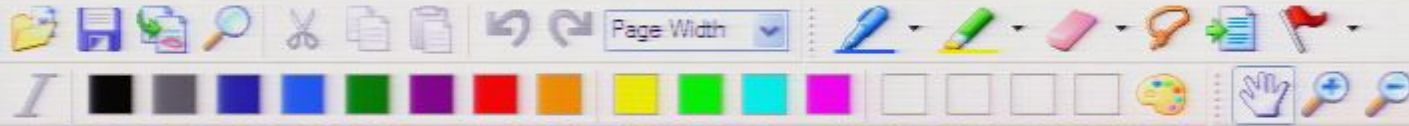
- When a hydrogen gas is hotter than $\approx 3000\text{K}$ it ionizes, i.e., it is a plasma. The ions interact with light, i.e. the gas is opaque. Below 3000K the gas is neutral and therefore transparent.
- The universe, filled with H-gas made that transition at an age of $\approx 10^5\text{ys}$. The light prevalent then is still travelling and arriving from all directions.

Actual
temperature
data:

$$(\Delta T \approx 10^{-6}\text{K only!})$$



This can be expanded in spherical harmonics $Y_{\ell m}$, similar to Fourier on a plane.

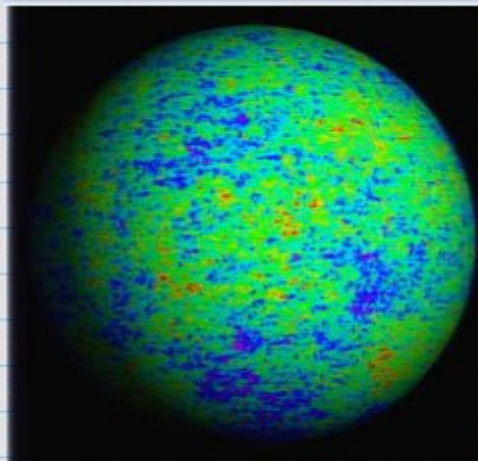


The Cosmic Microwave Background:

- When a hydrogen gas is hotter than $\approx 3000\text{K}$ it ionizes, i.e., it is a plasma. The ions interact with light, i.e. the gas is opaque. Below 3000K the gas is neutral and therefore transparent.
- The universe, filled with H-gas made that transition at an age of $\approx 10^5\text{ys}$. The light prevalent then is still travelling and arriving from all directions.

Actual
temperature
data:

$$(\Delta T \approx 10^{-6}\text{K only!})$$



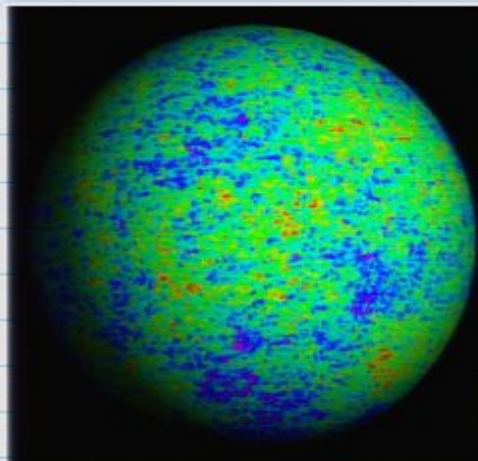
This can be expanded in spherical harmonics. Yes, similar to Fourier on a plane:



- When a hydrogen gas is hotter than $\approx 3000\text{K}$ it ionizes, i.e., it is a plasma. The ions interact with light, i.e. the gas is opaque. Below 3000K the gas is neutral and therefore transparent.
- The universe, filled with H-gas made that transition at an age of $\approx 10^5\text{ys}$. The light prevalent then is still travelling and arriving from all directions.

Actual
temperature
data:

($\Delta T \approx 10^{-6}\text{K}$ only!)



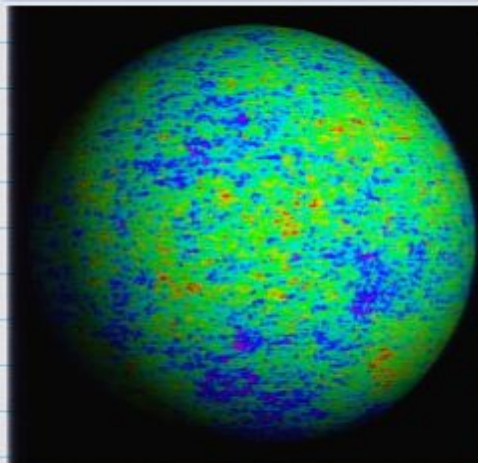
This can be expanded in spherical harmonics $Y_{l,m}$, similar to Fourier on a plane:

light, i.e. the gas is opaque. Below 3000K the gas is neutral and therefore transparent.

- The universe, filled with H-gas made that transition at an age of $\approx 10^5\text{ys}$. The light prevalent then is still travelling and arriving from all directions.

Actual
temperature
data:

($\Delta T \approx 10^{-6}\text{K}$ only!)



This can be expanded in spherical harmonics $Y_{l,m}$, similar to Fourier on a plane:

If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

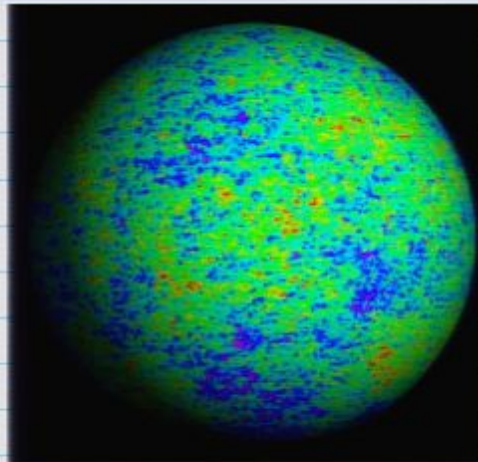


gas is neutral and therefore transparent.

- The universe, filled with H-gas made that transition at an age of $\approx 10^5$ yrs. The light prevalent then is still travelling and arriving from all directions.

Actual
temperature
data:

($\Delta T \approx 10^{-6}$ K only!)



This can be expanded in spherical harmonics $Y_{l,m}$, similar to Fourier on a plane:

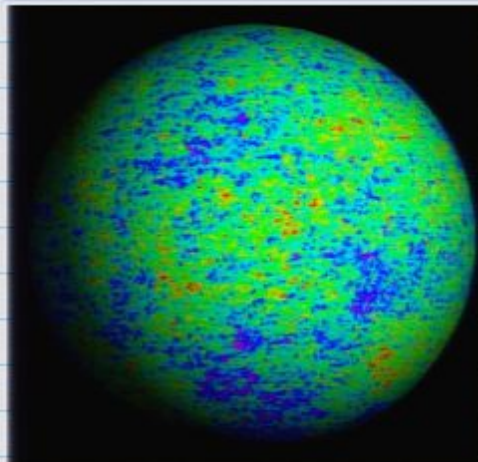
If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):



- ☐ The universe, filled with H-gas made that transition at an age of $\approx 10^5$ ys. The light prevalent then is still travelling and arriving from all directions.

Actual
temperature
data:

$$(\Delta T \approx 10^{-6} \text{K only!})$$



This can be expanded in spherical harmonics $Y_{\ell, m}$, similar to Fourier on a plane:

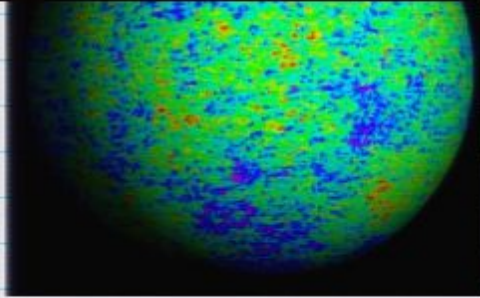
If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):



superficial

data:

($\Delta T \approx 10^{-6} K$ only!)



imposition on

spherical harmonics

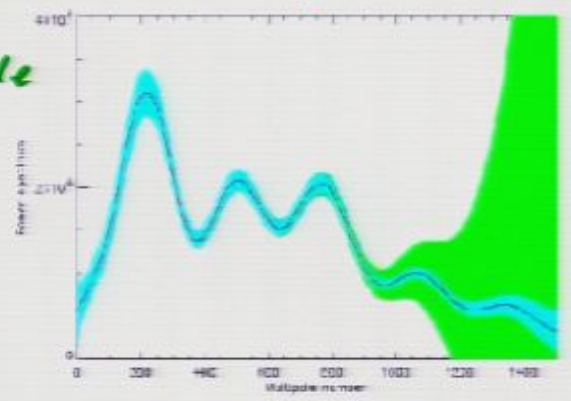
$Y_{l,m}$, similar to

Fourier on a plane:

If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

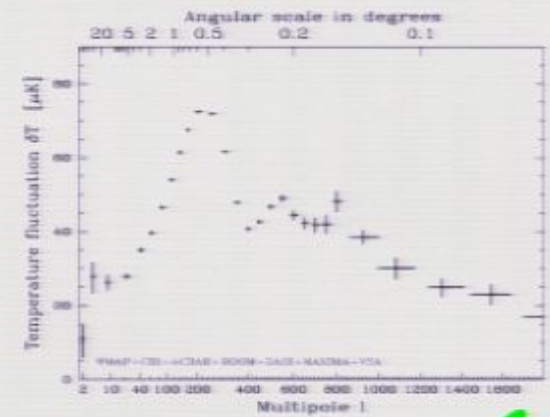
Theory

Amplitude
↑



→ "angular wavelength" l

Experiment

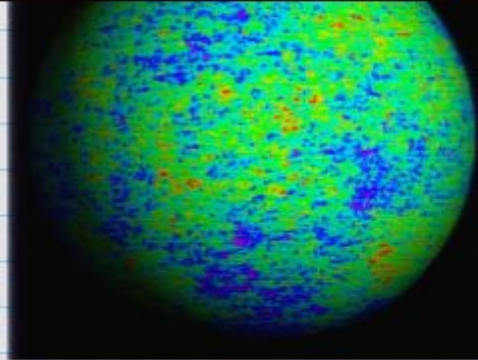




temperature

data:

$(\Delta T \approx 10^{-6} \text{K only!})$

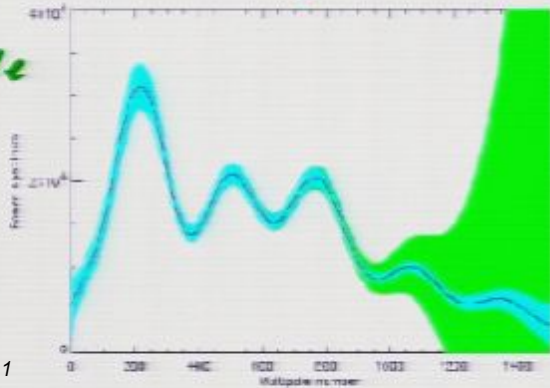


expanded in
spherical harmonics
 $Y_{l,m}$, similar to
Fourier on a plane:

If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g ,
then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

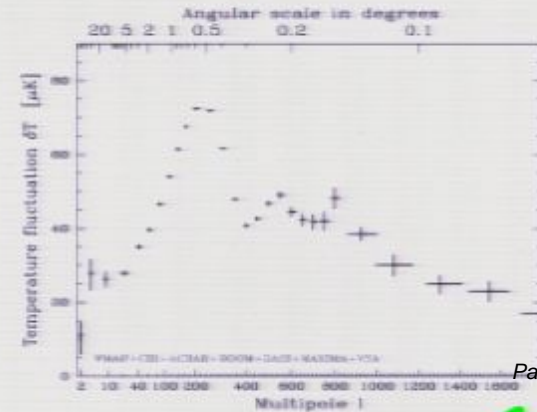
Theory

Amplitude



Pirsa: 09110121

Experiment



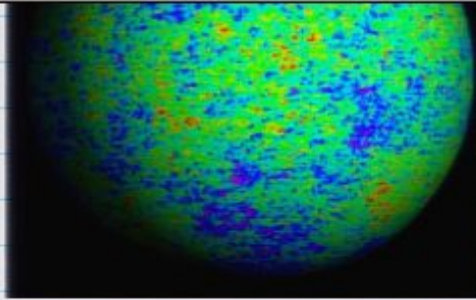
Page 113/174



superconducting

data:

$(\Delta T \approx 10^{-6} \text{K only!})$



expansion of

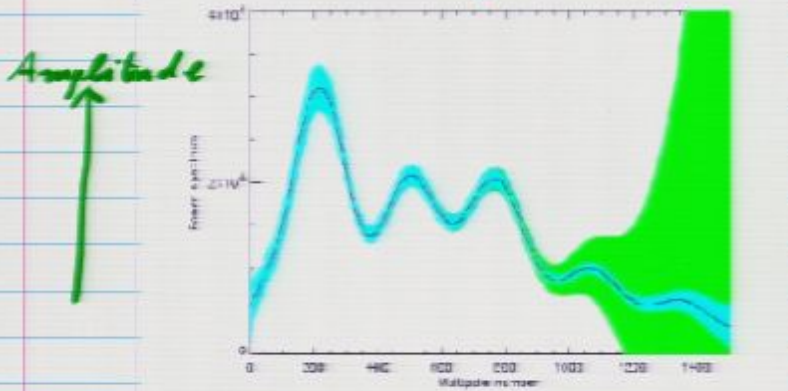
spherical harmonics

$Y_{l,m}$, similar to

Fourier on a plane:

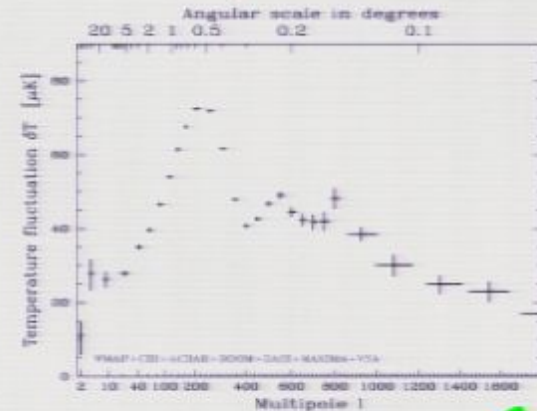
If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

Theory



→ "angular wavelength" l^{-1}

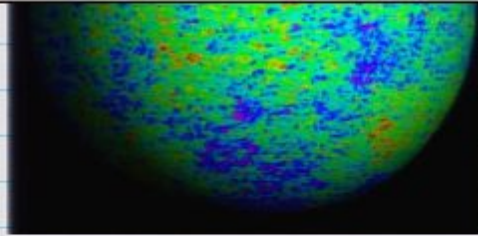
Experiment





data:

($\Delta T \approx 10^{-6} K$ only!)



spherical harmonics

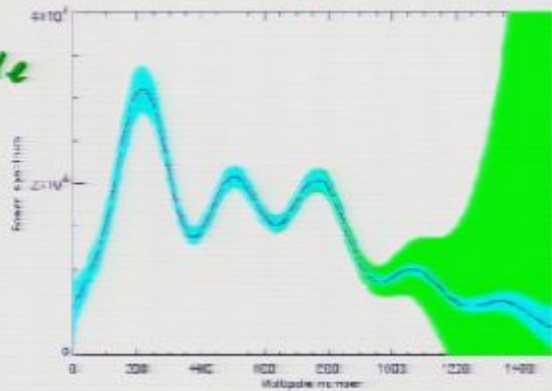
$Y_{l,m}$, similar to

Fourier on a plane:

If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

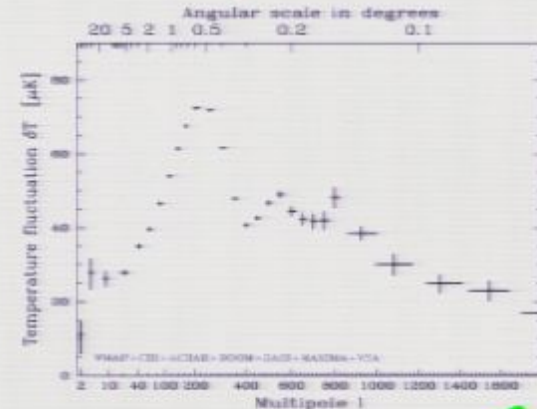
Theory

Amplitude



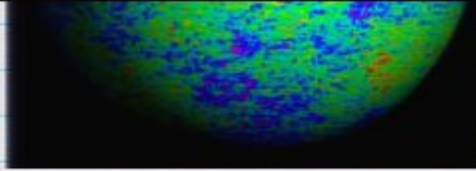
"angular wavelength" l

Experiment





$(\Delta T \approx 10^{-6} \text{K only!})$

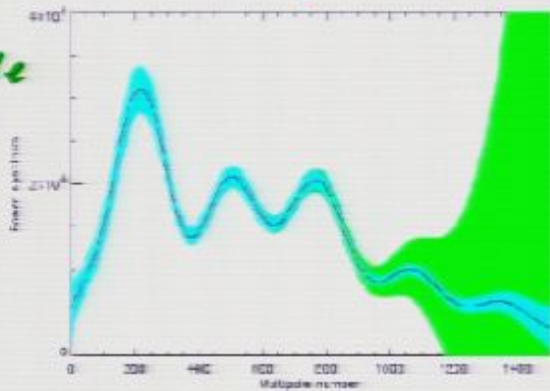


Y_{l,e}, similar to
Fourier on a plane:

If caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g ,
then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

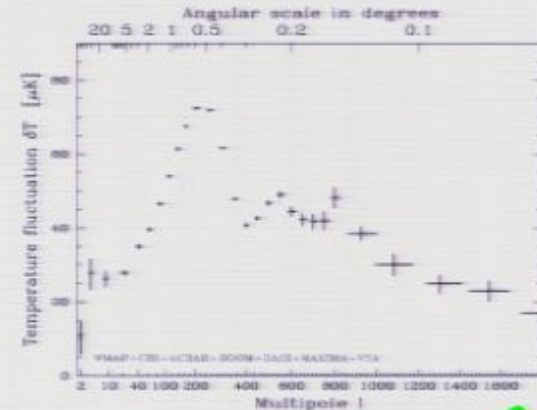
Theory

Amplitude

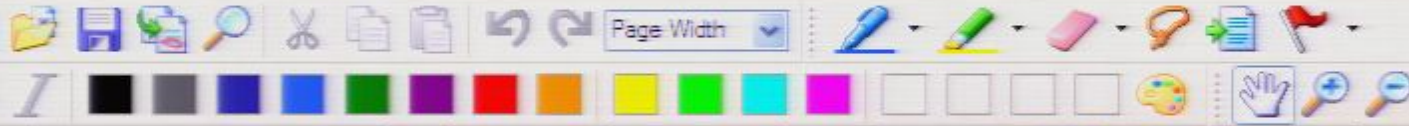


"angular wavelength"⁻¹ l

Experiment



Remark: A... to the left that phase



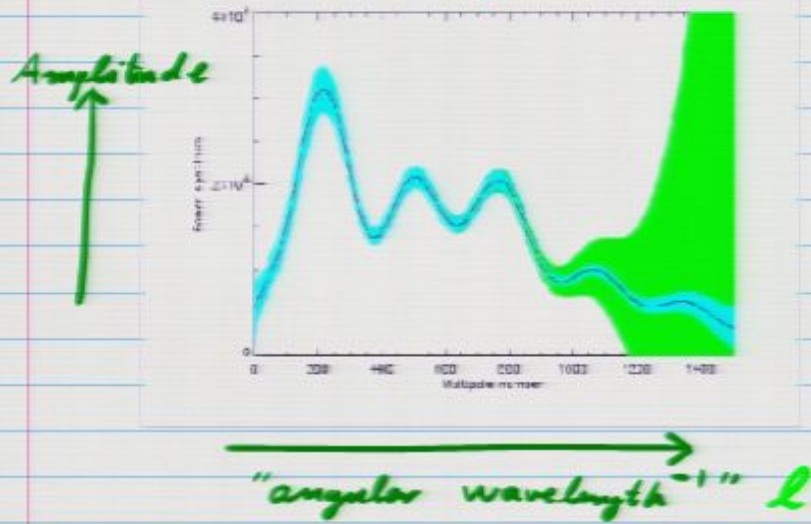
$(\Delta l \approx 10^{-6} \text{K only!})$



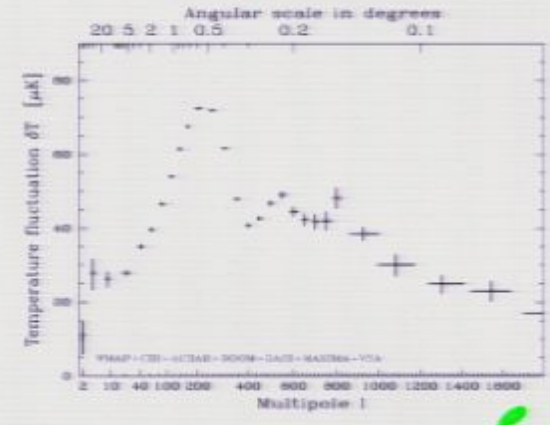
Favorites on a plane:

ΔT caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

Theory



Experiment



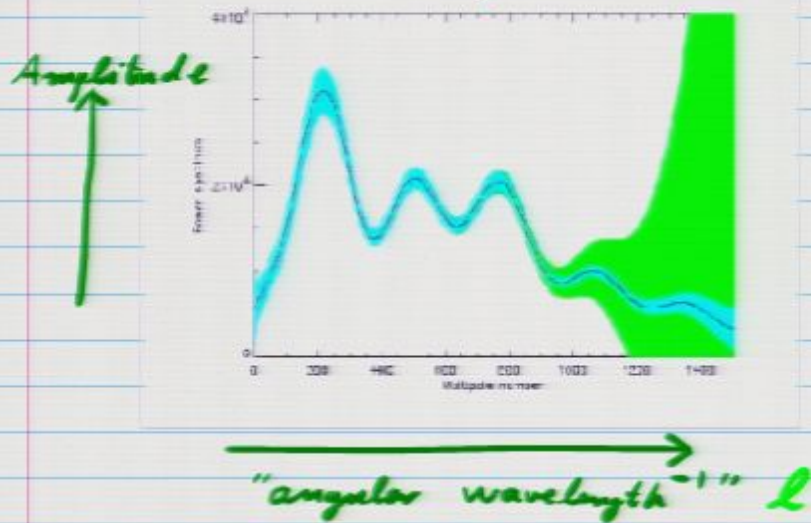
Remark: A competing theory held that phase



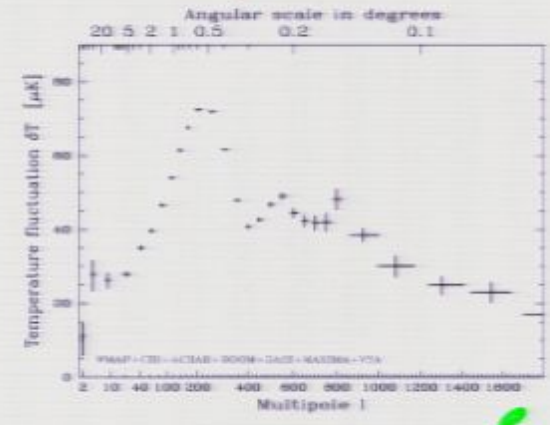
fluctuations on a plane: ^

J_f caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g , then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

Theory



Experiment

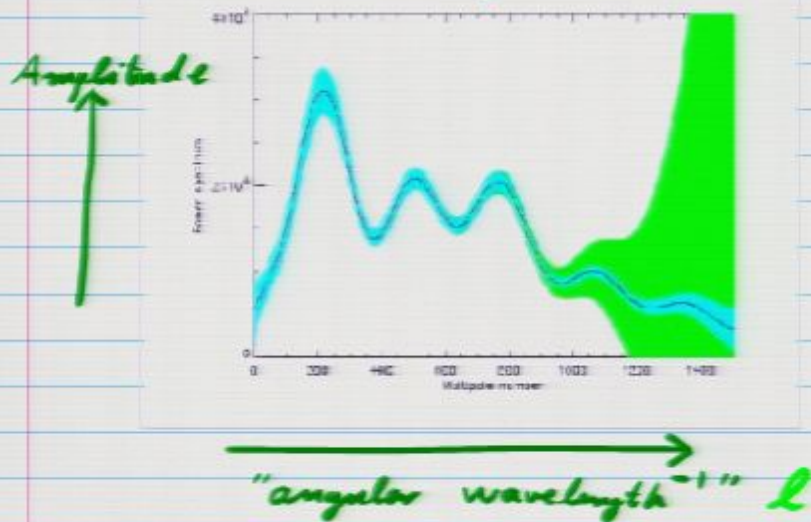


Remark: A competing theory held that phase transitions, as the universe cooled, left behind "topological defects"

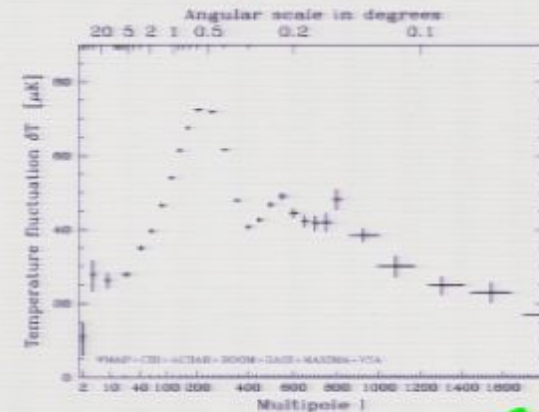


\mathcal{J} caused by quantum fluctuations of ϕ and the metric g ,
then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

Theory



Experiment

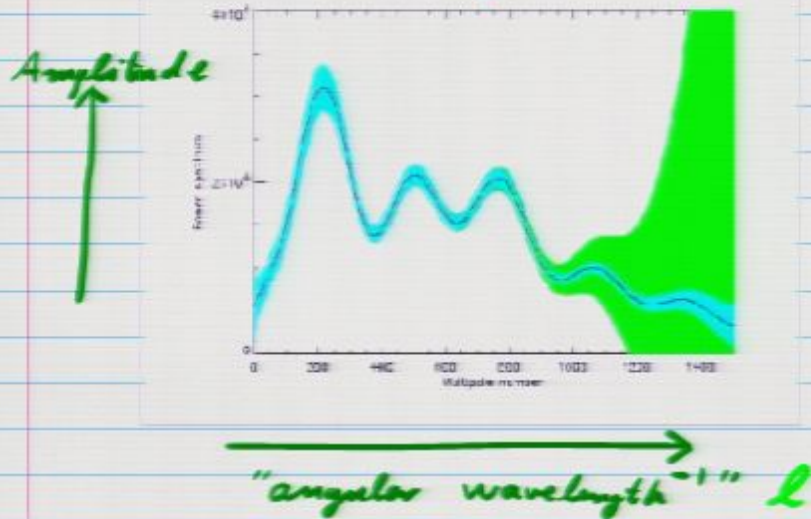


Remark: A competing theory held that phase transitions, as the universe cooled, left behind "topological defects" in the vacuum much like crystal imperfections. Their statist

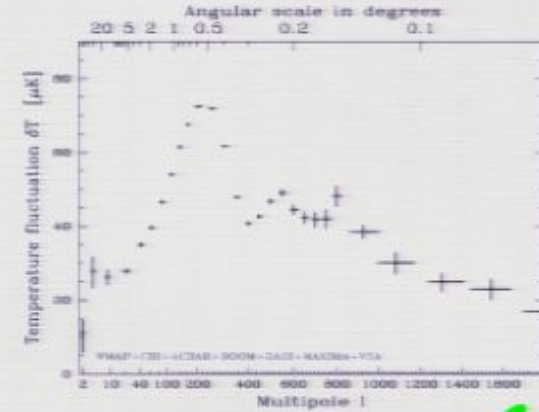


then the predicted statistics was (1980s):

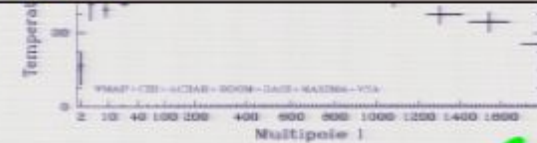
Theory



Experiment



Remark: A competing theory held that phase transitions, as the universe cooled, left behind "topological defects" in the vacuum, much like crystal imperfections. Their statistics would be measurably different. 🖐



→
"angular wavelength"⁻¹ l

Remark: A competing theory held that phase transitions, as the universe cooled, left behind "topological defects" in the vacuum, much like crystal imperfections. Their statistics would be measurably different.

These small inhomogeneities (presumably caused by quantum fluctuations) then explain the statistical distribution of galaxies:

Visualization:

time →



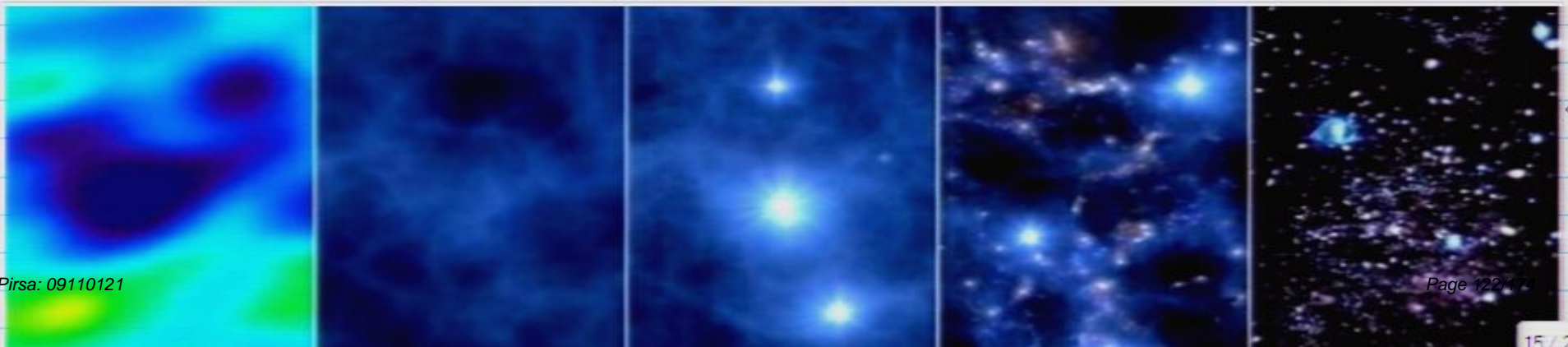


Remark: A competing theory held that phase transitions, as the universe cooled, left behind "topological defects" in the vacuum, much like crystal imperfections. Their statistics would be measurably different.

These small inhomogeneities (presumably caused by quantum fluctuations) then explain the statistical distribution of galaxies:

time

Visualization:



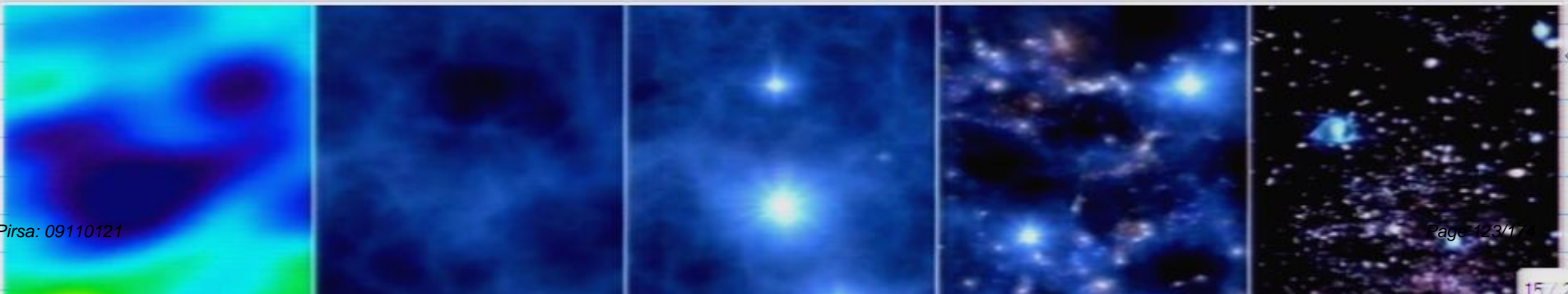


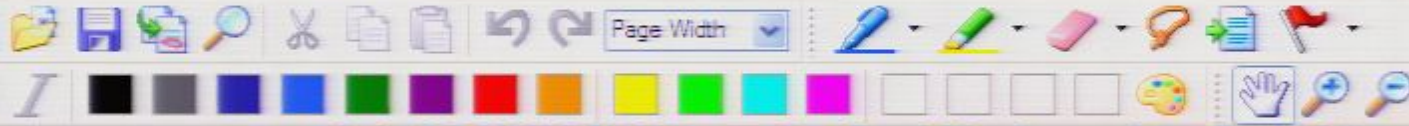
Remark: A competing theory held that phase transitions, as the universe cooled, left behind "topological defects" in the vacuum, much like crystal imperfections. Their statistics would be measurably different.

These small inhomogeneities (presumably caused by quantum fluctuations) then explain the statistical distribution of galaxies:

time

Visualization:





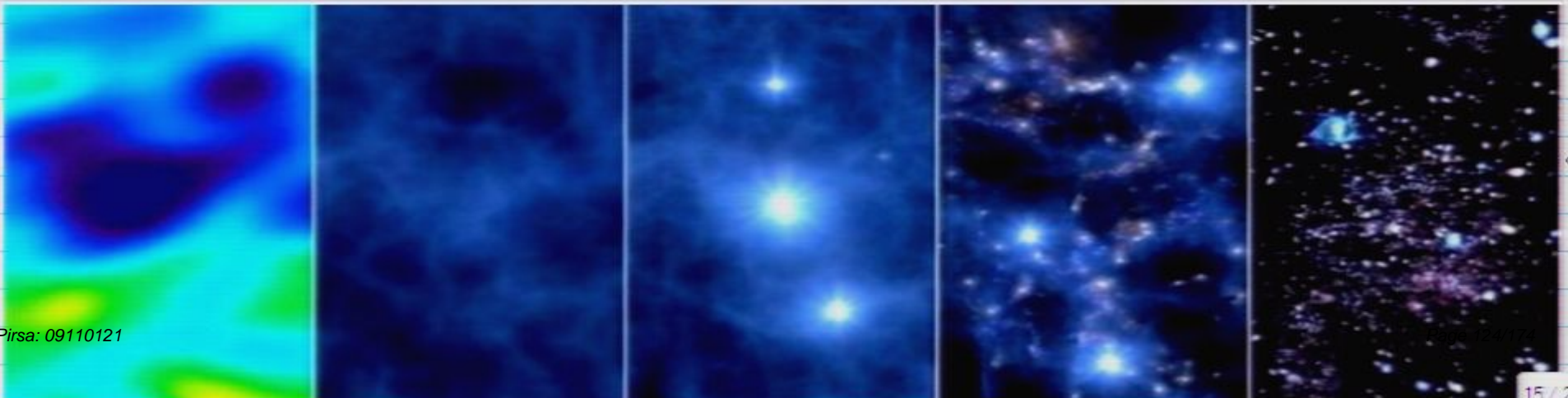
transitions, as the universe cooled, left behind "topological defects" in the vacuum, much like crystal imperfections. Their statistics would be measurably different.

These small inhomogeneities (presumably caused by quantum fluctuations) then explain the statistical distribution of galaxies:

time



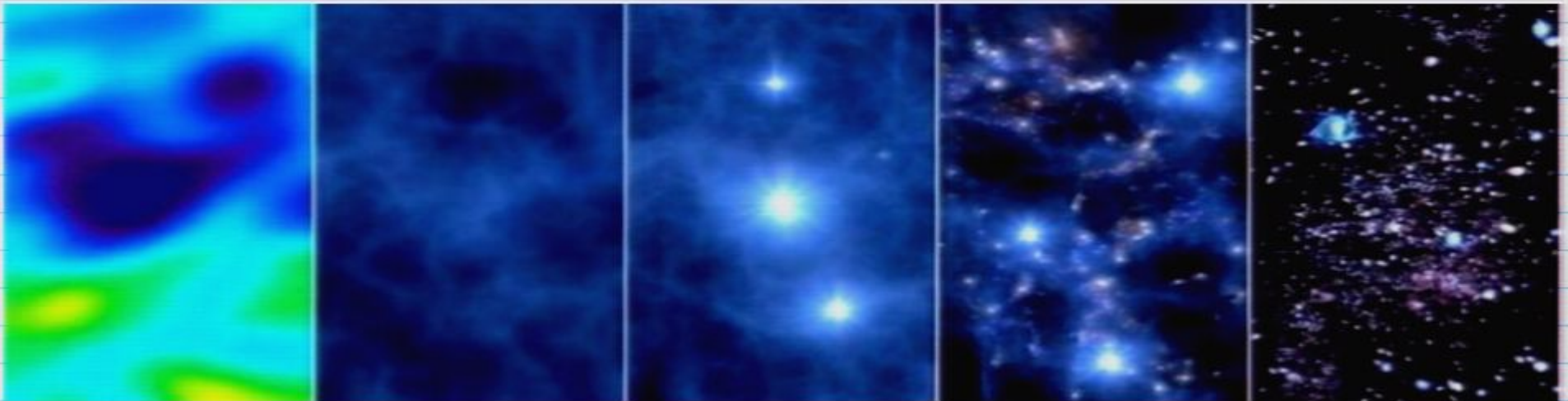
Visualization:





time

Visualization:



The fluctuations soon grow quickly (Jeans instability) i.e. the evolution of the inhomogeneities then becomes nonlinear as full gravity is needed.



The fluctuations soon grow quickly (Jeans instability)
i.e. the evolution of the inhomogeneities then becomes nonlinear as full gravity is needed.

Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described

□ Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int (-\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)) \sqrt{g} d^4x - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g} d^4x$$

□ Introduce convenient variables:

$$v_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\delta \phi}{\sqrt{2\pi}} v_i$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance

Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described in the linear approximation: (sketch only)

- Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int (-\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)) \sqrt{g} d^4x - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g} d^4x$$

- Introduce convenient variables:

$$y^i := a^{-1}(t) x^i$$

$$d\tau := a^{-1}(t) dt$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance
("comoving" coordinates)
("conformal" time)

- Allow the field ϕ to fluctuate:

$$\phi(y, \tau) = \underbrace{\phi_0(\tau)}_{\text{homogeneous}} + \underbrace{\delta\phi(y, \tau)}_{\text{small to 1st order}}$$

Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described in the linear approximation: (sketch only)

- Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int (-\phi \square \phi - V(\phi)) \sqrt{g} d^4x - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g} d^4x$$

- Introduce convenient variables:

$$y^i := a^{-1}(t) x^i$$

$$d\tau := a^{-1}(t) dt$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance
("comoving" coordinates)
("conformal" time)

- Allow the field ϕ to fluctuate:

$$\phi(y, \tau) = \underbrace{\phi_0(\tau)}_{\text{homogeneous}} + \underbrace{\delta\phi(y, \tau)}_{\text{small to 1st order}}$$

Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described in the linear approximation: (sketch only)

□ Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int (-\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)) \sqrt{g} d^4x - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g} d^4x$$

□ Introduce convenient variables:

$$y^i := a^{-1}(t) x^i$$

$$d\tau := a^{-1}(t) dt$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance

("comoving" coordinates)

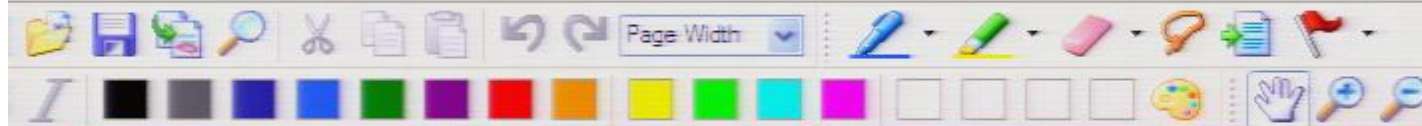
("conformal" time)

□ Allow the field ϕ to fluctuate:

$$\phi(x, z) = \phi(z) + \epsilon \phi(x, z)$$

- homogeneous

small to 1st order

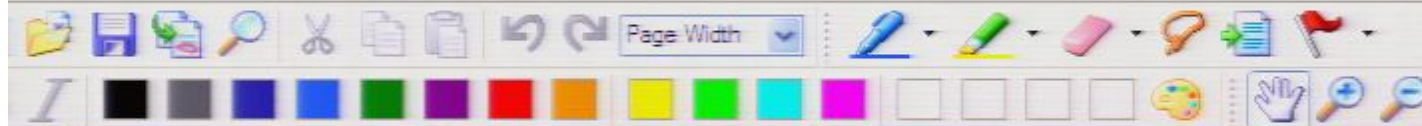


The fluctuations soon grow quickly (Jeans instability)
i.e. the evolution of the inhomogeneities then becomes nonlinear as
full gravity is needed.

Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described
in the linear approximation: (sketch only)

□ Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field



The fluctuations soon grow quickly (Jeans instability) i.e. the evolution of the inhomogeneities then becomes nonlinear as full gravity is needed.

Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described in the linear approximation: (sketch only)

Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field



The fluctuations soon grow quickly (Jeans instability)
i.e. the evolution of the inhomogeneities then becomes nonlinear as full gravity is needed.

Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described
in the linear approximation: (sketch only)

□ Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int (-\phi \square \phi - V(\phi)) \sqrt{g} d^4x - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g} d^4x$$

□ Introduce convenient variables:

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance



Nevertheless:

The early history of the inhomogeneities is well-described in the linear approximation: (sketch only)

□ Start with the action of gravity + inflaton field

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int (-\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)) \sqrt{g} d^4x - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g} d^4x$$

□ Introduce convenient variables:

$$y^i := a^{-1}(t) x^i$$

$$d\tau := a^{-1}(t) dt$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance

("comoving" coordinates)

("conformal" time)

□ Allow the field ϕ to fluctuate:

$$\phi(x, z) = \phi(z) + \epsilon \phi(x, z)$$

- homogeneous

small to 1st order



- Introduce convenient variables:

$$y^i := a^{-1}(t) x^i$$

$$d\tau := a^{-1}(t) dt$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance
 ("comoving" coordinates)
 ("conformal" time)

- Allow the field ϕ to fluctuate:

$$\phi(y, \tau) = \underbrace{\phi_0(\tau)}_{\text{homogeneous}} + \underbrace{\delta\phi(y, \tau)}_{\text{small to 1st order}}$$

- Allow also the metric, g , to deviate locally from spatial flatness, to first order.

- Recall: Any vector field can be decomposed uniquely into gradient field + curl field.

- Similarly: Decompose the metric perturbations:

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int (-\phi \square \phi - V(\phi)) \sqrt{g} d^4x - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{g} d^4x$$

- Introduce convenient variables:

$$y^i := a^{-1}(t) x^i$$

$$d\tau := a^{-1}(t) dt$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance
("comoving" coordinates)

("conformal" time)

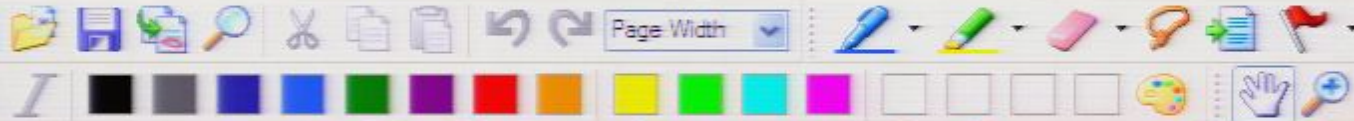
- Allow the field ϕ to fluctuate:

$$\phi(y, \tau) = \underbrace{\phi_0(\tau)}_{\text{homogeneous}} + \underbrace{\delta\phi(y, \tau)}_{\text{small to 1st order}}$$

- Allow also the metric, g , to deviate locally from spatial flatness, to first order.

- Recall: Any vector field can be decomposed uniquely into gradient field + curl field.

- Similarly: Decompose the metric perturbations:



- Introduce convenient variables:

$$y^i := a^{-1}(t) x^i$$

$$d\tau := a^{-1}(t) dt$$

In these coordinates, two galaxies always have the same numerical distance
 ("comoving" coordinates)
 ("conformal" time)

- Allow the field ϕ to fluctuate:

$$\phi(y, \tau) = \underbrace{\phi_0(\tau)}_{\text{homogeneous}} + \underbrace{\delta\phi(y, \tau)}_{\text{small to 1st order}}$$

- Allow also the metric, g , to deviate locally from spatial flatness, to first order.

- Recall: Any vector field can be decomposed uniquely into gradient field + curl field.

- Similarly: Decompose the metric perturbations:

$$ds^2 = ds_s^2 + ds_v^2 + ds_T^2$$



- Allow also the metric, g , to deviate locally from spatial flatness, to first order.
- Recall: Any vector field can be decomposed uniquely into gradient field + curl field.
- Similarly: Decompose the metric perturbations:

$$ds^2 = ds_s^2 + ds_v^2 + ds_T^2$$

contain "scalar" "vector" "tensor" fluctuations.

$$ds_s^2 = a^2(\tau) \left((1 + 2\Phi) d\tau^2 - 2\partial_i \beta dy^i d\tau - [(1 - 2\psi)\delta_{ij} + 2\partial_i \partial_j E] dy^i dy^j \right)$$

$$ds_v^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 + 2V_i dx^i d\tau - [\delta_{ij} + W_{ij} + W_{ji}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

$$ds_T^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 - [\delta_{ij} + h_{ij}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

□ Here:

□ Φ, β, E are scalar perturbation functions

□ V_i, W_i are 3-vector perturbation functions



□ Allow also the metric, g , to deviate locally from spatial flatness, to first order.

□ Recall: Any vector field can be decomposed uniquely into gradient field + curl field.

□ Similarly: Decompose the metric perturbations:

$$ds^2 = ds_s^2 + ds_v^2 + ds_r^2$$

contains "scalar" "vector" "tensor" fluctuations.

$$ds_s^2 = a^2(\tau) \left((1+2\Phi) d\tau^2 - 2\partial_i \beta dx^i d\tau - [(1-2\psi)\delta_{ij} + 2\partial_i \partial_j E] dy^i dy^j \right)$$

$$ds_v^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 + 2V_i dx^i d\tau - [\delta_{ij} + W_{ij} + W_{ji}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

$$ds_r^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 - [\delta_{ij} + h_{ij}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

□ Here:

□ Φ, β, E are scalar perturbation functions

□ V_i, W_i are 3-vector perturbation functions



$$ds_i^2 = a^2(\tau) \left((1 + 2\bar{\Phi}) d\tau^2 - 2\partial_i \bar{\Phi} dy^i d\tau - [(1 - 2\psi)\delta_{ij} + 2\partial_i \partial_j E] dy^i dy^j \right)$$

$$ds_i^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 + 2V_i dx^i d\tau - [\delta_{ij} + W_{ij} + W_{ji}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

$$ds_r^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 - [\delta_{ij} + h_{ij}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

□ Here:

□ $\bar{\Phi}, \psi, E$ are scalar perturbation functions

□ V_i, W_i are 3-vector perturbation functions

□ h_{ij} is a 3-tensor perturbation function

□ Scalar perturbations:

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta t} - \bar{\Psi} \quad \left(' \text{ means } \frac{d}{d\tau} \right)$$

spatial flatness, to first order.

□ Recall: Any vector field can be decomposed uniquely into gradient field + curl field.

□ Similarly: Decompose the metric perturbations:

$$ds^2 = ds_s^2 + ds_v^2 + ds_T^2$$

contain "scalar" "vector" "tensor" fluctuations.

$$ds_s^2 = a^2(\tau) \left((1 + 2\Phi) d\tau^2 - 2\partial_i \beta dy^i d\tau - [(1 - 2\psi)\delta_{ij} + 2\partial_i \partial_j E] dy^i dy^j \right)$$

$$ds_v^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 + 2V_i dx^i d\tau - [\delta_{ij} + W_{ij} + W_{ji}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

$$ds_T^2 = a^2(\tau) \left(d\tau^2 - [\delta_{ij} + h_{ij}] dx^i dx^j \right)$$

□ Here:

□ Φ, β, E are scalar perturbation functions

□ V_i, W_i are 3-vector perturbation functions

□ h_{ij} is a 3-tensor perturbation function

\square h_{ij} is a 3-tensor perturbation function

Scalar perturbations:

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(\text{'} \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

\square Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.

\square Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves



□ Scalar perturbations:

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{(3)} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(' \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

□ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.

□ Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.



□ Scalar perturbations:

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \underline{\Psi} \quad \left(' \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

□ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.

□ Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.

\rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)



□ Scalar perturbations:

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \underline{\Psi} \quad \left(\text{ ' means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

□ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.

□ Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.



□ Scalar perturbations:

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{(0)} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(' \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

□ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.

□ Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.

\rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)



Scalar perturbations.

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(\text{) means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

▢ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.

▢ Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.

\rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)



The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \underline{\Psi} \quad \left(' \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)



- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

- Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}

$$\Rightarrow S = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{a^4}{a'^2} b_0'^2 \left[(\partial_\tau R)^2 - \delta^{ij} R_{,i} R_{,j} \right] d\tau d^3y$$



Scalar perturbations.

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{(3)} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(' \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(\int \text{means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
⇒ neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field
→ High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \underline{\Psi} \quad \left(' \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

▣ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
⇒ neglect here.

▣ Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.

→ High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)



the only gauge (i.e. ca.) on vector and by is the R^{ω} curvature scalar.

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \ddot{\Phi} \quad \left(\text{'} \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?



$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(\text{) means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

□ V_i, W_i are 3-vector perturbation functions

□ h_{ij} is a 3-tensor perturbation function

□ Scalar perturbations:

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \underline{\Psi} \quad \left(\text{' means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

□ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion

⇒ neglect here.

□ Tensor fluctuations yield a **Weyl curvature**, i.e., grav. waves

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \ddot{\Phi} \quad \left(\dot{\quad} \text{means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
⇒ neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field
→ High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

The only gauge (i.e. cd.) invariant entity is the **intrinsic curvature scalar**:

$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \ddot{\Phi} \quad \left(\dot{} \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

▣ Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.

▣ Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.

\rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

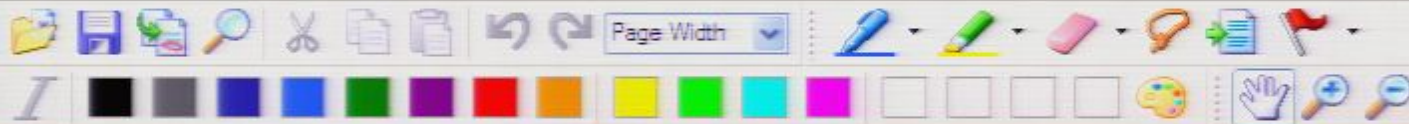


$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \ddot{\Phi} \quad \left(\text{'} \text{ means } \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?



$$R^{\omega} = -\frac{a'}{a} \frac{\delta\phi}{\phi'} - \Psi \quad \left(\text{means } \frac{d}{dr} \right)$$

It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?



It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
 \Rightarrow neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
 \rightarrow High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

□ Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}



It describes the (scalar) quantum fluctuations-induced CMB spectrum.

- Vector fluctuations turn out not to be amplified by expansion
⇒ neglect here.
- Tensor fluctuations yield a Weyl curvature, i.e., grav. waves contribution. Q: In the CMB? A: Yes: the curl of the polarization field.
→ High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

- Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}



contribution. α . At the LMB. γ . 1.25: the curve of the perturbation plane.

→ High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

□ Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}

$$\Rightarrow S = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{a^4}{a'^2} b_0^2 \left[(\partial_\tau R)^2 - \delta^{ij} R_{,i}^{(0)} R_{,j}^{(3)} \right] d\tau d^3y$$

$$- \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int a^2 \partial_\mu h^i_j \partial^\mu h_i^j d\tau d^4y$$

□ Use quantum field theory on curved space to calculate how



High priority research (e.g. recently-launched Planck satellite)

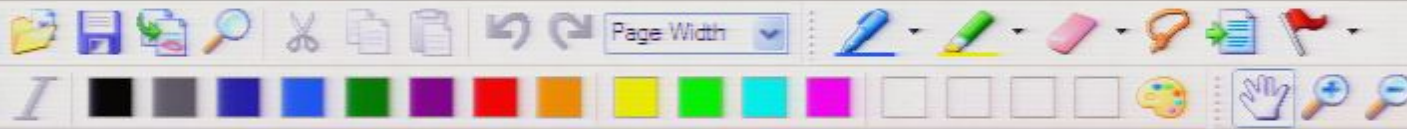
How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

□ Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}

$$\Rightarrow S = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{a^4}{a'^2} k_0^2 \left[(\partial_\tau R)^2 - \delta^{ij} R_{,i} R_{,j} \right] d\tau d^3y$$

$$- \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int a^2 \partial_\mu h^i_j \partial^\mu h_i^j d\tau d^4y$$

□ Use quantum field theory on curved space to calculate how the quantum uncertainties in $R^{(3)}$ and in h^i_j evolve (and amplify!)




How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

□ Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}

$$\Rightarrow S' = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a^4}{a'^2} b_0'^2 \left[(\partial_\tau R)^2 - \delta^{ij} R_{,i}^{(0)} R_{,j}^{(3)} \right] d\tau d^3y \right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int a^2 \partial_\mu h^i_j \partial^\mu h_i^j d\tau d^4y \right)$$

□ Use quantum field theory on curved space to calculate how the quantum uncertainties in $R^{(3)}$ and in h^i_j evolve (and amplify!) 

Remark: See e.g. my own research on how Planck scale physics



How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

□ Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}

$$\Rightarrow S' = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{a^4}{a'^2} b_0'^2 \left[(\partial_\tau R)^2 - \delta^{ij} R_{,i}^{(0)} R_{,j}^{(3)} \right] d\tau d^3y$$

$$- \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int a^2 \partial_\mu h^i_j \partial^\mu h_i^j d\tau d^4y$$

□ Use quantum field theory on curved space to calculate how the quantum uncertainties in $R^{(3)}$ and in h^i_j evolve (and amplify!)

Remark: See e.g. my own research on how Planck scale physics could observably affect inflationary scales and tensor predictions.



□ Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}

$$\Rightarrow S = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{a^4}{a'^2} \kappa_0^2 \left[(\partial_\tau R)^2 - \delta^{ij} R_{,i}^{(0)} R_{,j}^{(3)} \right] d\tau d^3y$$

$$- \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int a^2 \partial_\mu h^i_j \partial^\mu h_i^j d\tau d^4y$$

□ Use quantum field theory on curved space to calculate how the quantum uncertainties in $R^{(3)}$ and in h^i_j evolve (and amplify!)

Remark: See e.g. my own research on how Planck scale physics could observably affect inflationary scales and tensor predictions.



How to calculate the quantum fluctuations?

□ Expand the action to 2nd order in $R^{(3)}$ and h_{ij}

$$\Rightarrow S' = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{a^4}{a'^2} b_0'^2 \left[(\partial_\tau R)^2 - \delta^{ij} R_{,i}^{(0)} R_{,j}^{(3)} \right] d\tau d^3y$$

$$- \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int a^2 \partial_\mu h^i_j \partial^\mu h_i^j d\tau d^4y$$

□ Use quantum field theory on curved space to calculate how the quantum uncertainties in $R^{(3)}$ and in h^i_j evolve (and amplify!)

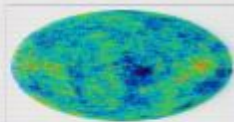
Remark: See e.g. my own research on how Planck scale physics could observably affect inflationary scales and tensor predictions.



Next term:

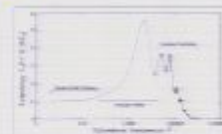
Graduate Course: QFT for Cosmology

Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology



AMATH872 / PHYS785

Winter 2010



<http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~akempf/QFT-for-Cosmology-W10.shtml>

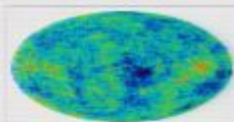
Instructor:	A. Kempf. (MC6071, ext. 35462)
Prerequisite:	AMATH 673, PHYS702 or consent of instructor. Some knowledge of General Relativity.
Time:	Tuesdays + Thursdays 4-5:30pm.
Venue:	Perimeter Institute's Bob room Video-linked to: * Univ. of Waterloo, Room MC6091 * Univ. of Guelph, Rozanski Room 106 * possibly other venues upon request (at 38.117.109.110 via H323)
First lecture:	Tuesday, January 12, 2010, Bob room, PI, 4pm
Office hours:	by arrangement



Next term:

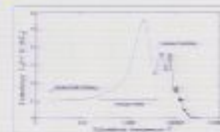
Graduate Course: QFT for Cosmology

Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology



AMATH872 / PHYS785

Winter 2010



<http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~akempf/QFT-for-Cosmology-W10.shtml>

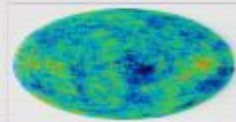
Instructor:	A. Kempf (MC6071, ext. 35462)
Prerequisite:	AMATH 673, PHYS702 or consent of instructor. Some knowledge of General Relativity.
Time:	Tuesdays + Thursdays 4-5:30pm.
Venue:	Perimeter Institute's Bob room Video-linked to: * Univ. of Waterloo, Room MC6091 * Univ. of Guelph, Rozanski Room 106 * possibly other venues upon request (at 38.117.109.110 via H323)
First lecture:	Tuesday, January 12, 2010, Bob room, PI, 4pm
Office hours:	by arrangement

Content:



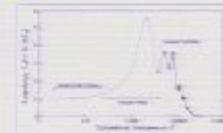
Graduate Course: QFT for Cosmology

Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology



AMATH872 / PHYS785

Winter 2010



<http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~akempf/QFT-for-Cosmology-W10.shtml>

Instructor:	A. Kempf (MC6071, ext. 35462)
Prerequisite:	AMATH 673, PHYS702 or consent of instructor. Some knowledge of General Relativity.
Time:	Tuesdays + Thursdays 4-5:30pm.
Venue:	Perimeter Institute's Bob room Video-linked to: * Univ. of Waterloo, Room MC6091 * Univ. of Guelph, Rozanski Room 106 * possibly other venues upon request (at 38.117.109.110 via H323)
First lecture:	Tuesday, January 12, 2010, Bob room, PI, 4pm
Office hours:	by arrangement

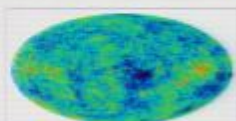
Content:

This course begins with a thorough introduction to quantum field theory. Unlike the usual quantum field theory courses which aim at applications to particle physics, this course then



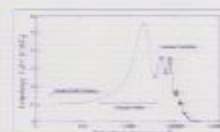
Graduate Course: QFT for Cosmology

Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology



AMATH872 / PHYS785

Winter 2010



<http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~akempf/QFT-for-Cosmology-W10.shtml>

Instructor:	A. Kempf (MC6071, ext. 35462)
Prerequisite:	AMATH 673, PHYS702 or consent of instructor. Some knowledge of General Relativity.
Time:	Tuesdays + Thursdays 4-5:30pm.
Venue:	Perimeter Institute's Bob room Video-linked to: * Univ. of Waterloo, Room MC6091 * Univ. of Guelph, Rozanski Room 106 * possibly other venues upon request (at 38.117.109.110 via H323)
First lecture:	Tuesday, January 12, 2010, Bob room, PI, 4pm
Office hours:	by arrangement

Content:

This course begins with a thorough introduction to quantum field theory. Unlike the usual quantum field theory courses which aim at applications to particle physics, this course then focuses on those quantum field theoretic techniques that are important in the presence of gravity. In particular, this course introduces the properties of quantum fluctuations of fields



	* Univ. of Guelph, Rozanski Room 106 * possibly other venues upon request (at 38.117.109.110 via H323)
First lecture:	Tuesday, January 12, 2010, Bob room, PI, 4pm
Office hours:	by arrangement

Content:

This course begins with a thorough introduction to quantum field theory. Unlike the usual quantum field theory courses which aim at applications to particle physics, this course then focuses on those quantum field theoretic techniques that are important in the presence of gravity. In particular, this course introduces the properties of quantum fluctuations of fields and how they are affected by curvature and by gravitational horizons. We will cover the

highly successful inflationary explanation of the fluctuation spectrum of the cosmic microwave background - and therefore the modern understanding of the quantum origin of all inhomogeneities in the universe (see these amazing visualizations from the data of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey. They display the inhomogeneous distribution of galaxies several billion light years into the universe: [Sloan Digital Sky Survey](#)).

Outline:

- From first to second quantization.
- Introduction to scalar quantum field theory.
- The Unruh effect.
- Canonical quantization in curved space-times.
- Path integral quantization of fields
- Quantum fluctuations of scalar fields and of the metric.
- Applications: Inflationary cosmology and the origin of structure.
- (Time permitting:) Effective action and gravitational backreaction



This course begins with a thorough introduction to quantum field theory. Unlike the usual quantum field theory courses which aim at applications to particle physics, this course then focuses on those quantum field theoretic techniques that are important in the presence of gravity. In particular, this course introduces the properties of quantum fluctuations of fields and how they are affected by curvature and by gravitational horizons. We will cover the

highly successful inflationary explanation of the fluctuation spectrum of the cosmic microwave background - and therefore the modern understanding of the quantum origin of all inhomogeneities in the universe (see these amazing visualizations from the data of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey. They display the inhomogeneous distribution of galaxies several billion light years into the universe: [Sloan Digital Sky Survey](#)).

Outline:

- From first to second quantization.
- Introduction to scalar quantum field theory.
- The Unruh effect.
- Canonical quantization in curved space-times.
- Path integral quantization of fields
- Quantum fluctuations of scalar fields and of the metric.
- Applications: Inflationary cosmology and the origin of structure.
- (Time permitting:) Effective action and gravitational backreaction

Lecture notes:

Detailed lecture notes will be made freely available here, usually a few days before each lecture.

In the meantime, here are the lecture notes of the previous teaching of this course, in W08:

Lecture notes of W08: [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23](#)

Additional Literature:



<http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~akempf/QFT-for-Cosmology-W10.shtml>

<http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~akempf/QFT-for-Cosmology-W10.shtml>

Instructor:	A. Kempf , (MC6071, ext. 35462)
Prerequisite:	AMATH 673, PHYS702 or consent of instructor. Some knowledge of General Relativity.
Time:	Tuesdays + Thursdays 4-5:30pm.
Venue:	Perimeter Institute's Bob room Video-linked to: * Univ. of Waterloo, Room MC6091 * Univ. of Guelph, Rozanski Room 106 * possibly other venues upon request (at 38.117.109.110 via H323)
First lecture:	Tuesday, January 12, 2010, Bob room, PI, 4pm
Office hours:	by arrangement

Content:

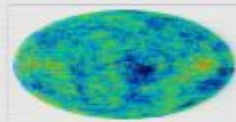
This course begins with a thorough introduction to quantum field theory. Unlike the usual quantum field theory courses which aim at applications to particle physics, this course then focuses on those quantum field theoretic techniques that are important in the presence of gravity. In particular, this course introduces the properties of quantum fluctuations of fields and how they are affected by curvature and by gravitational horizons. We will cover the

highly successful inflationary explanation of the fluctuation spectrum of the cosmic microwave background - and therefore the modern understanding of the quantum origin of all inhomogeneities in the universe (see these amazing visualizations from the data of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey. They display the inhomogeneous distribution of galaxies several



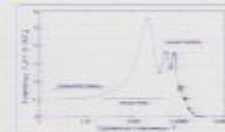
Graduate Course: QFT for Cosmology

Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology



AMATH872 / PHYS785

Winter 2010



<http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~akempf/QFT-for-Cosmology-W10.shtml>

Instructor:	A. Kempf (MC6071, ext. 35462)
Prerequisite:	AMATH 673, PHYS702 or consent of instructor. Some knowledge of General Relativity.
Time:	Tuesdays + Thursdays 4-5:30pm.
Venue:	Perimeter Institute's Bob room Video-linked to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Univ. of Waterloo, Room MC6091 * Univ. of Guelph, Rozanski Room 106 * possibly other venues upon request (at 38.117.109.110 via H323)
First lecture:	Tuesday, January 12, 2010, Bob room, PI, 4pm
Office hours:	by arrangement

Content:

This course begins with a thorough introduction to quantum field theory. Unlike the usual quantum field theory courses which aim at applications to particle physics, this course then focuses on those quantum field theoretic techniques that are important in the presence of gravity. In particular, this course introduces the properties of quantum fluctuations of fields and how they are affected by curvature and by gravitational horizons. We will cover the