

Title: AMATH 875/PHYS 786 - Fall 2015 - Lecture 16

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Abstract:

# GR for Cosmology, Achim Kempf, Fall 2015, Lecture 16

Note Title

## Friedmann-Lemaître cosmological solutions

### Experimental evidence:

Hubble, Humason 1929



- The universe is and has been expanding.
- It appears to be spatially essentially isotropic and homogeneous on scales larger than a few (3-4) billion light years.

↑  
(see e.g. Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS)  
at [www.sdss.org](http://www.sdss.org))

### Idealizing models:

## Idealizing models:

- Assume perfect spatial isotropy and homogeneity:
- $\rightsquigarrow$  "Friedmann & Lemaitre" (later Robertson & Walker) spacetimes

## Concretely:

We assume we can model spacetime as a manifold  $(M, g)$  with:

$$M = J \times \Sigma$$

$$g = -dt^2 + a^2(t) \bar{g}$$

(we will later use an ON frame so that  $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu}$ )

↑ In the basis  $\{dx^\mu\}$  which comes with the coordinate system.

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□  $J$  is an interval,  $J \subset \mathbb{R}$ , and  $t \in J$  is called "cosmic time".  $a(t)$  is called the "scale factor".

□  $(\Sigma, \bar{g})$  is a fully isotropic & homogeneous Riemannian manifold, i.e., a manifold of constant curvature, providing a 3-dim. surface of



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⇒ Using a "Triad"  $\{\bar{\theta}^i\}$ :  
 (ON bases of  $T_p(\Sigma)$ ,  $V_p$ )

$$\bar{\Omega}_{ij} \stackrel{\text{by Def.}}{=} \frac{1}{2} \bar{R}_{ijkl} \bar{\theta}^k \wedge \bar{\theta}^l \stackrel{\text{we use } (*)}{=} K \bar{\theta}_i \wedge \bar{\theta}_j$$

Role of the signature of  $K$ :

Note: 4-dim pseudo-Riemannian manifolds with constant curvature are called "de Sitter universes".

$K > 0$ : ⇒  $\Sigma$  is a 3-dim. sphere (that can be embedded e.g. in a 4 dim euclidean (i.e. flat) space: closed universe

$K = 0$ : ⇒  $\Sigma$  is euclidean  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . flat, infinite universe

$K < 0$ : ⇒  $\Sigma$  is a 3-dim. "pseudo sphere". The constant negative curvature means it is everywhere "like a saddle". These  $\Sigma$  also possess  $\infty$  volume.

Determine the 4-connection  $\omega^\mu{}_\nu$ : (in spatially isotropic & homogeneous case)

Strategy: Calculate  $d\theta^i$  in two ways:

$$1.) \quad d\theta^i = d(a\bar{\theta}^i) = (da) \wedge \bar{\theta}^i + \underbrace{a d\bar{\theta}^i}_{\text{use Eq. } \Sigma 1}$$

$$= \left(\frac{da}{dt} dt\right) \wedge \bar{\theta}^i - a \bar{\omega}^i{}_j \wedge \bar{\theta}^j$$

$$\left(\text{use } a\bar{\theta}^i = \theta^i\right) \Rightarrow$$

$$= \dot{a} \overset{dt}{\theta}^0 \wedge \bar{\theta}^i - \bar{\omega}^i{}_j \wedge \theta^j$$

$$\left(\text{use } \bar{\theta}^i = \frac{1}{a} \theta^i\right. \\ \left.\text{and } \theta^i \wedge \theta^0 = -\theta^0 \wedge \theta^i\right) \Rightarrow$$

$$= -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \theta^i \wedge \theta^0 - \bar{\omega}^i{}_j \wedge \theta^j$$

(A)

$$2.) \quad d\theta^i \stackrel{(A)}{=} -\omega^i{}_0 \wedge \theta^0 - \omega^i{}_j \wedge \theta^j \quad (B)$$

What is  $\omega^0{}_0$ ? Recall 6/20

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$$= \left(\frac{da}{dt} dt\right) \wedge \bar{\theta}^i - a \bar{\omega}^i_j \wedge \bar{\theta}^j$$

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$$2.) \quad d\theta^i \stackrel{(M1)}{=} -\omega^i_{\nu} \wedge \theta^{\nu} = -\omega^i_0 \wedge \theta^0 - \omega^i_j \wedge \theta^j \quad (B)$$



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$$= \left(\frac{da}{dt} dt\right) \wedge \bar{\theta}^i - a \bar{\omega}^i \wedge \bar{\theta}^i$$

(use  $a\bar{\theta}^i = \theta^i$ )  $\Rightarrow$

$$= \dot{a} \theta^i \wedge \bar{\theta}^i - \bar{\omega}^i \wedge \theta^i$$

(use  $\bar{\theta}^i = \frac{1}{a}\theta^i$   
and  $\theta^i \wedge \theta^j = -\theta^j \wedge \theta^i$ )  $\Rightarrow$

$$= -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \theta^i \wedge \theta^i - \bar{\omega}^i \wedge \theta^i$$

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$$2.) \quad d\theta^i \stackrel{(A.1)}{=} -\omega^i \wedge \theta^0 = -\omega^i_0 \wedge \theta^0 - \omega^i_j \wedge \theta^j \quad (B)$$

Compare eqns A, B  $\Rightarrow$

$\omega^i_0 = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \theta^i \quad \text{and} \quad \omega^i_j = \bar{\omega}^i_j$

(Box)

What is  $\omega^i_0$ ? Recall:

$$d\theta^i = \omega^i_{\mu\nu} \theta^\mu \wedge \theta^\nu$$

But  $d\theta^i =$

The Cartan structure equations express the torsion and curvature forms in terms of the connection forms in terms of the connection forms.

1st eqn:  $\Omega_j^i = d\omega_j^i + \omega_k^i \wedge \omega_j^k$   
 2nd eqn:  $\Omega_j^i = d\omega_j^i + \omega_k^i \wedge \omega_j^k$

$$a \bar{\theta}^i \wedge \omega_j^i \wedge \bar{\theta}^j \equiv 0 \quad (\Sigma \pm)$$

\* 1st structure equation on  $M$ :  $\downarrow \{ \begin{matrix} \mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, 3 \\ \mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, 3 \end{matrix} \}$

$$d\bar{\theta}^\mu + \omega_\nu^\mu \wedge \bar{\theta}^\nu \equiv 0 \quad (\Sigma \pm)$$

Determine the  $\omega$ -connection  $\omega_\nu^\mu$ : (in spatially isotropic & homogeneous case)

Strategy: Calculate  $d\bar{\theta}^i$  in two ways:

$$\begin{aligned} 1.) \quad d\bar{\theta}^i &\equiv d(a \bar{\theta}^i) = (da) \wedge \bar{\theta}^i + a d\bar{\theta}^i \\ &\equiv \left( \frac{da}{dt} dt \right) \wedge \bar{\theta}^i = a \bar{\omega}^i_j \wedge \bar{\theta}^j \\ &\equiv a \bar{\theta}^0 \wedge \bar{\theta}^i = \bar{\omega}^i_j \wedge \bar{\theta}^j \end{aligned}$$

use Eq.  $\sum 1$   
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$$(\text{use } a \bar{\theta}^i \equiv \bar{\theta}^i) \Rightarrow$$



Calculate the Einstein tensor:

Recall:

$$\Omega_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} R_{\mu\nu\sigma\varepsilon} \theta^\sigma \wedge \theta^\varepsilon$$

⇒ We can read off  $R_{\mu\nu\sigma\varepsilon}$ .

⇒ We obtain the Ricci tensor  $R_{\mu\nu}$  and the curvature scalar  $R$ .

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⇒ We obtain the Einstein tensor:

$$G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R$$

Result:

$$G_{00} = 3 \left( \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{\kappa}{a^2} \right)$$

$$G_{ii} = -2 \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} - \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} - \frac{\kappa}{a^2}$$

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 0 \text{ for } \mu \neq \nu$$

Exercise: verify

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i.e.,  $G_{\mu\nu}$  is diagonal in this frame.

Exercise: verify



## The energy-momentum tensor:

□ From  $G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$

we obtain that  $T_{\mu\nu}$  must also be diagonal.

□ We identify the diagonal entries as usual as matter energy density  $\rho$ , matter pressure  $p$  and cosmological constant  $\Lambda$ :

Any diagonal  $T_{\mu\nu}$  can be expanded uniquely this way.

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & & & \\ & p & & \\ & & p & \\ & & & p \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{8\pi G} \Lambda \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Why this factor here?  
Because  $\Lambda$  was traditionally put on the LHS, with the curvature)

⇒ The only nontrivial dynamics of matter is here its

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⇒ The only nontrivial dynamics of matter is have its equation of state:

$$\rho = \rho(p) \quad \text{or} \quad p = p(\rho) \quad !$$

What kind of matter causes such a  $T_{\mu\nu}$  ?

Proposition:

The  $T_{\mu\nu}$  of any F.L. spacetime is always of the form of that of a perfect fluid.

- \* The matter doesn't have to be fluid - it could also be e.g. a suitable quantum field.
- \* But the high symmetry of a F.L. spacetime requires that the matter's  $T_{\mu\nu}$  matches that of a perfect fluid

## The Einstein equation:

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$$

now consists of merely 2 equations: Exercise: verify

$$G_{00} = 8\pi G T_{00} \Rightarrow$$

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

← "Friedmann equation" (A)

$$G_{ii} = 8\pi G T_{ii} \Rightarrow$$

$$-2 \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} - \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} - \frac{k}{a^2} = 8\pi G p - \Lambda$$

(B)

□ Notice that  $\Lambda$  contributes

□ positively to the energy but

Observation:

$k/a^2$  occurs in (A) and (B), i.e., we can eliminate it:

$$-\frac{1}{2}a \left( \text{Eqn(B)} + \frac{1}{3} \text{Eqn(A)} \right) \text{ yields:}$$

$$\ddot{a} = -\frac{1}{2}a 8\pi G \left( \frac{\rho}{3} + \rho \right) - \frac{1}{2}a \Lambda \left( -1 + \frac{1}{3} \right)$$

⇒

$$\ddot{a} = -\frac{4\pi G a}{3} (\rho + 3\rho) + \frac{1}{3} a \Lambda$$

Thus for all  $k$ : For ordinary matter must have deceleration, i.e.,  $\ddot{a} < 0$ , but a positive cosm. constant  $\Lambda$



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⇒

$$\ddot{a} = \frac{4\pi G a}{3} (\rho + 3p) - \frac{1}{3} \Lambda a$$

Thus for all  $k$ :

For ordinary matter must have deceleration,  
i.e.,  $\ddot{a} < 0$ ,  $k$  positive or zero. constant  $\Lambda$   
can make  $\ddot{a} > 0$

seems to be already sufficiently  
has taken over ~70%.  $\Lambda$   
is has negligible



$-\frac{1}{2} a \left( Eqm(B) + \frac{1}{3} Eqm(A) \right)$  yields:

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 i.e.,  $\ddot{a} < 0$ , but a positive <sup>constant  $\Lambda$</sup>   
 can make  $\ddot{a} > 0$ . At present, energy <sup>density sufficient</sup>  
 diluted so that  $\Lambda > 0$   
 Our gas of galaxies



⇒

$$\ddot{a} = -\frac{4\pi G a}{3} (\rho + 3p) + \frac{1}{3} a \Lambda$$

Thus for all  $k$ : For ordinary matter must have deceleration, i.e.,  $\ddot{a} < 0$ , but a positive cosm. constant  $\Lambda$  can make  $\ddot{a} > 0$ . At present, energy seems to be already sufficiently diluted so that  $\Lambda$  has taken over ( $\approx 70\%$ ,  $\Lambda, \approx 30\%$ ,  $S$  Our gas of galaxies has negligible  $p$ ).

Experimental evidence?

- Supernova distance versus brightness data and evidence from cosmic background radiation



$$\ddot{a} = -\frac{1}{2} a 8\pi G \left(\frac{\rho}{3} + p\right) - \frac{1}{2} a \Lambda \left(-1 + \frac{1}{3}\right)$$

⇒

$$\ddot{a} = \frac{4\pi G a}{3} (\rho + 3p) + \frac{1}{3} a \Lambda$$

Thus for all  $k$ : For ordinary matter must have  $\rho > 0$  and  $p > 0$ ,  
i.e.,  $\ddot{a} < 0$ , but a positive constant  $\Lambda$   
can make  $\ddot{a} > 0$ . At present,  $\Lambda$  is already  $\approx 10^{-52}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s<sup>2</sup>.  
diluted so that  $\rho \approx 10^{-27}$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>,  $p \approx 10^{-27}$  Pa.  
Our gas of gas is negligible.

Experimental evidence?

$\ddot{a} > 0$  now!

$\Rightarrow$  At present, energy is already sufficiently diluted so that  $\Lambda$  dominates over  $\rho$ :  $\approx 70\%$   $\Lambda$  and  $\approx 30\%$   $\rho$  (dark + visible matter)

Note:  $\rho$  of a gas of galaxies is negligible.

Note:  $\rho$  includes dark matter.

Visible matter is only  $\approx 3\%$ .

$\Delta$  In the far future,  $\rho$  &  $p$  will have diluted  $\rightarrow 0$ , leaving only  $\Lambda$ . Then, the Friedmann eqn reads:

$$3 \left( \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} \right) = \Lambda$$

Or something other than  $\Lambda$  will dominate  $T_{ij}$  then.

Experiments indicate that indeed a faster than exponential expansion may be under way. That cannot come from just  $\Lambda$  dominance alone. See essay topic!

Solutions:

$$a(t) = \begin{cases} \cosh(t\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}}) & \text{for } k=1 \\ \exp(t\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}}) & \text{for } k=0 \\ \sinh(t\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}}) & \text{for } k=-1 \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow$  Exponential expansion is predicted!

## General solution strategy with cosm. constant and matter:

□ We have 3 unknown functions of time

$$a(t), S(t), p(t)$$

and we have 3 equations that they obey:

Eqs. A, B and an equation of state  $p = p(S)$  that depends on the "matter":

$$p_{\Lambda}(S) = -S_{\Lambda} \quad \text{for pure vacuum energy (e.g., in very early universe)}$$

$$p(S) = \frac{1}{3} S \quad \text{for pure radiation (e.g., in the early universe)}$$

$$p(S) = 0 \quad \text{for pure dust (e.g., middle aged universe before } \Lambda \text{ took over)}$$

□ Observation:

(Eqn. A)



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

Indeed, when the parameter  $w$  in  $\rho = w\rho$  is known, (P) yields  $\rho(a)$ :

□ For dust,  $\rho = 0 \Rightarrow \rho \sim a^{-3}$

□ For radiation,  $\rho = \rho/3 \Rightarrow \rho \sim a^{-4}$

□ For pure  $\Lambda$ :  $\rho = -\rho \Rightarrow \rho = \text{const}$

$\rho$  of radiation decays quicker than  $\rho$  of dust because radiation is not only diluted, its wavelengths are also stretched, which reduces the energy too.



$\rho$  of vacuum energy does not dilute!

Intuitive meaning of (P)?

## Intuitive meaning of (P)?

□ (P) is the GR version of the continuity equation for  
 (i.e., without heat exchange) → adiabatic expansion:  $dE = -p dV$   
 with an environment

□ With  $V := a^3$ ,  $E := \rho V$  it yields:

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

□ Thus:  $\frac{d}{da} (a^3 \rho) = -3p a^2$  which is indeed (P).

## Exact proof of proposition (P):

□ The Einstein equation  $G^{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T^{\mu\nu}$  and  $G^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu} = 0$  imply  $T^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu} = 0$

□ Hence:  $T^{\mu\nu} = (\rho + p) u^{\mu} u^{\nu} + p g^{\mu\nu}$



Recall that  
 $\omega'_0 = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \theta^i \Rightarrow$

$$= \theta'' (\omega^c_0(e_x) e_c) = \omega^{\wedge}_0(e_x) = \omega^i_0(e_i)$$

$\uparrow$  used  $\theta^2(e_c) = \delta^2_c$                        $\uparrow$  since  $\omega^0_0 = 0$

$$= \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \theta^i(e_i) = 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

$\Rightarrow$  Eqn. (X) becomes:

Thus:

$$\nabla_u \dot{\rho} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} (\rho + p) = 0 \quad \left( \text{Recall: } u = \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

$$\dot{\rho} \frac{a^3}{a} + 3(\rho + p) a^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} \frac{dt}{da} a^3 + 3\rho a^2 = -3pa^2$$

$$\frac{d\rho}{da} a^3 + \rho 3a^2 = -3pa^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{d}{da} (\rho a^3)} = -3pa^2 \quad \text{this is Eqn (P) } \checkmark$$