

Title: Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology - Lecture 20240321

Speakers: Achim Kempf

Collection: Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology (PHYS785/AMATH872)

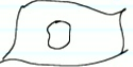
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QFT for Cosmology, Achim Kempf, Lecture 20

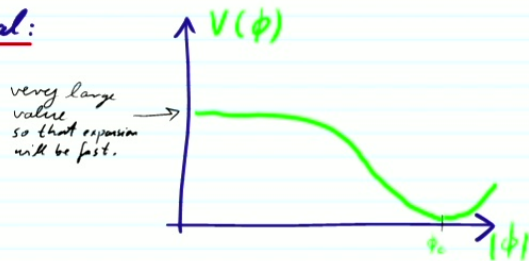
How could an initial temporary strong inflation have been caused?

$V(\phi)$  temporarily very large

- Consider a universe like ours. Everywhere, at all times, all fields quantum fluctuate.
- As a rare fluke, the field  $\phi$  quantum fluctuates in a patch a few Planck lengths in size  to a  $\phi$  value that makes  $V(\phi)$  close to the Planck scale. (Assume homogeneity in that patch, so that the  $\partial_i \phi$  are small)

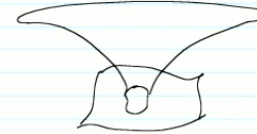
The daughter universe can spawn new universes and so on...

Example potential:



In this patch,  $V(\phi)$  is dominant and imparting  $a(t)$  like a large  $\Lambda$  would.

Before the fluctuation can "snap back", general relativity will quasi-exponentially inflate this patch (potentially, e.g., by  $10^5$  orders of magnitude).



The mother universe spawns a daughter universe!

- $V(\phi)$  in the patch starts out high but will dynamically fall eventually to low value  $\rightarrow$  Inflation ends.
- The energy in  $V(\phi)$  turns into hot matter.

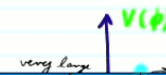
\* Concretely:

The Klein Gordon equation reads:

$$\ddot{\phi} = -3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \dot{\phi} - \frac{dV}{d\phi}$$

$\downarrow$  friction term

This is like the equation of motion of a ball rolling down a hill, with friction:



(potentially, e.g., by  $10^+$  orders of magn. (nd $\phi$ )).

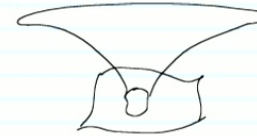
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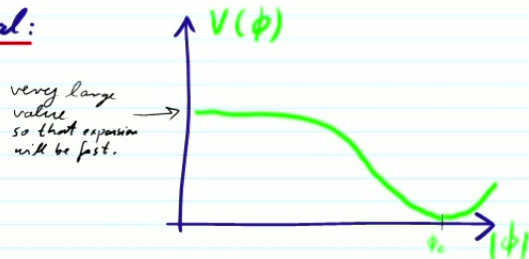


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The daughter universe can spawn new universes and so on...

Example potential:



- Then, inflation starts when, in a patch,  $\phi$  is very small, even though it is energetically expensive (a rare quantum fluctuation.)
- Then, after  $\phi$  starts out at  $\phi=0$  and large  $V(\phi)$ , it will slowly evolve towards  $\phi_c$  while the universe inflates, thus flattens, and the matter dilutes.
- Once  $\phi = \phi_c$  is reached,  $V(\phi) = 0$ , and inflation has ended.

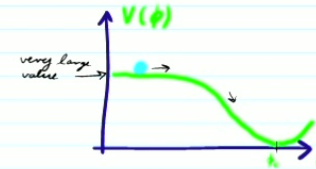
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The Klein Gordon equation reads:

$$\ddot{\phi} = -3 \frac{\dot{\phi}}{a} \phi - \frac{dV}{d\phi}$$

$\downarrow$  friction term

This is like the equation of motion of a ball rolling down a hill, with friction:



- $(-\frac{dV}{d\phi})$  acts to pull  $\phi$  down the potential hill.
- $(-3 \frac{\dot{\phi}}{a} \phi)$  acts as a "friction" term.

will be fast.



- Then, inflation starts when, in a patch,  $\phi$  is very small, even though it is energetically expensive (a rare quantum fluctuation.)
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### \* Definition:

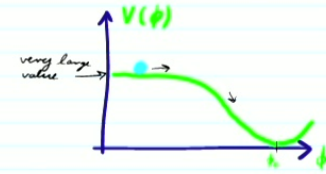
If the initial value of  $V(\phi)$  is very large and if the initial slope is very flat, i.e., if the ball for a period rolls slowly, with approximately constant  $V(\phi)$ , we call this a period of "Slow Roll Inflation".

### \* Observation:

During the slow roll period, we have, in particular, that  $V(\phi)$  dominates over  $\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2$ .

$$\Rightarrow w(t) = \frac{\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)}{\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)} \approx -1 \quad (\text{temporarily})$$

rolling down a hill, with friction:



- $(-\frac{dV}{d\phi})$  acts to pull  $\phi$  down the potential hill.
- $(-3\frac{\dot{\phi}}{a}\phi)$  acts as a "friction" term.

### \* But, do we also get temporary exponential inflation?

Indeed, the 0,0 component of the Einstein equation

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{3}\Lambda = \frac{8\pi G}{3}T^0_0$$

is during the slow roll period:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 \approx \frac{8\pi G}{3}V(\phi)$$

whose solution during slow roll is

$$a(t) \approx a_0 e^{\int \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3}V(\phi)} dt} \quad (\phi \text{ and } V(\phi) \text{ change slowly over time in slow roll.})$$

- \* Thus, during slow roll, we have effectively a slowly varying Hubble parameter!

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### Definition:

The function  $H(t) := \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}$  is called the Hubble parameter function.

\* In the case  $a(t) = e^{Ht}$  we recover  $H = H(t)$ .

\* In the case of slow roll inflation, we have

$$H(t) = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} V(\phi(t))}$$

### Remark:

□ As  $V(\phi)$  decreases, also  $H(t)$  decreases.

$\Rightarrow$  inflation predicts that  $\delta\phi_s$  decreases for later and later horizon crossing modes, i.e., for smaller and smaller wavelength modes. The WMAP satellite's CMB data show evidence for this!

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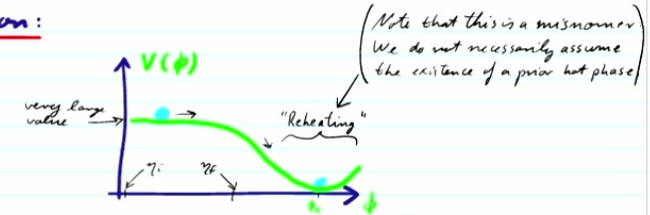
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\* Thus, during slow roll, we have effectively a slowly varying Hubble parameter!

### The end of inflation:



\* In the period called "Re-heating", the energy of  $\phi$  is transferred into the mode oscillators of the usual (low mass) particles, i.e., the inflaton particles decay and thereby create a high energetic, i.e. hot, plasma of literally all sorts of particles.

\* From thereon, the usual big bang cosmology is assumed to have followed.

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$$H(t) = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} V(\phi(t))}$$

Remark:

- As  $V(\phi)$  decreases, also  $H(t)$  decreases.
- ⇒ inflation predicts that  $\delta\phi_k$  decreases for later and later horizon crossing modes, i.e., for smaller and smaller wavelength modes. The WMAP satellite's CMB data show evidence for this!

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- \* From thereon, the usual big bang cosmology is assumed to have followed.

### Quantum fluctuations during cosmic inflation

Strategy:

- We assume a suitable potential  $V(\phi)$  and suitable initial conditions, as discussed before.
- ⇒ Solutions  $\phi(t)$  and  $q(t)$  which exhibit slow roll inflation for a suitable finite time interval  $[t_i, t_f]$ , i.e.,  $[q_i, q_f]$ .
- We consider the case of small inhomogeneities in the inflaton field:

$$\phi(x, y) = \phi_0(y) + \varrho(x, y) \quad \text{with } |\varrho(x, y)| \ll |\phi_0(y)|$$



- This means that we must also consider small fluctuations in the metric, because:

In inflationary theory we are always assuming that the largest contribution to  $T_{\mu\nu}(x)$  stems from the inflaton field  $\phi(x)$ :

$$T_{\mu\nu}^{(M)}(\eta, \vec{x}) = \phi_{,\mu} \phi_{,\nu} - g_{\mu\nu} \left[ \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} \phi_{,\alpha} \phi_{,\beta} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 \right]$$

⇒ Thus, because of the Einstein equations,

$$R_{\mu\nu}(x) - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu}(x) R(x) + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}(x) = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}(x)$$

inhomogeneities of  $\phi(x)$  induce inhomogeneities of  $g_{\mu\nu}$

⇒ Solutions  $\phi(t)$  and  $a(t)$  which exhibit slow roll inflation for a suitable finite time interval  $[t_i, t_f]$ , i.e.,  $[\eta_i, \eta_f]$ .

□ We consider the case of small inhomogeneities in the inflaton field:

$$\phi(x, \eta) = \phi_0(\eta) + \psi(x, \eta) \quad \text{with } |\psi(x, \eta)| \ll |\phi_0(\eta)|$$

⇒ Consider also small inhomogeneities in the metric, i.e., in the spacetime

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) = a(\eta)^2 \eta_{\mu\nu} + \gamma_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) \quad \text{with } |\gamma_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)| \ll 1$$

□ We would like to solve the full quantum theory of  $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x)$  and  $\hat{\phi}(x)$  but this is too hard, inconsistent so far.

□ In lowest order perturbation theory we first find the classical solutions  $g_{\mu\nu}(\eta) = a(\eta)^2 \eta_{\mu\nu}$  and  $\phi_0(\eta)$  that are completely homogeneous and isotropic.

□ Then, we quantize only the  $\hat{\psi}(x, \eta)$  and  $\hat{\gamma}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$ .

to  $T_{\mu\nu}(x)$  stems from the inflaton field  $\phi(x)$ :

$$T_{\mu\nu}^{\text{inf}}(\eta, \vec{x}) = \dot{\phi}_{,\mu} \dot{\phi}_{,\nu} - g_{\mu\nu} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_{,\alpha} \dot{\phi}_{,\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 \right]$$

⇒ Thus, because of the Einstein equation,

$$R_{\mu\nu}(x) - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu}(x) R(x) + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}(x) = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}(x)$$

inhomogeneities of  $\phi(x)$  induce inhomogeneities of  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$ :

□ Why does this approximation help?

\* For fields  $\hat{\psi}$ ,  $\hat{\gamma}_{\mu\nu}$  that are "small" the equations of motion are effectively linear in  $\hat{\psi}$ ,  $\hat{\gamma}_{\mu\nu}$ .

\* This is because we can assume that in their equations of motion all terms that are quadratic or of higher power are negligible.

\* This means that the quantum fields  $\hat{\psi}$  and  $\hat{\gamma}_{\mu\nu}$  have no potential terms, nor any mass terms.

⇒ We will obtain a free, i.e., noninteracting quantum field theory whose nontriviality only stems from the time-varying parameters  $a(\eta)$ ,  $a_0(\eta)$ .

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) = a(\eta) \eta_{\mu\nu} + \hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) \quad \text{with } |\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)| \ll 1$$

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- Then, we quantize only the  $\hat{\phi}(x, \eta)$  and  $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$ .

□ Intuition: We should expect two more sources of nontriviality:

1) Interdependence of  $\hat{\phi}$  and  $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}$  inhomogeneities:

- \* Much of the inhomogeneities of  $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$  will be induced by the inhomogeneities of the inflaton,  $\hat{\phi}(x, \eta)$ .
- \* Vice versa: we can also read the Einstein eqn from left to right  $\Rightarrow$  these gravity inhomogeneities induce the inflaton's inhomogeneities.
- \* Thus, the inflaton's inhomogeneities' dynamics cannot be separated from that of the metric.

Recall:

Gravity is a force with some similarity to electromagnetism:

- Some electromagnetic fields only exist because there are charges or currents.
- But: also, some electromagnetic fields are self-sustaining, i.e., they exist independently, with their own dynamics.

Similarly: Some part of the metric will depend on  $\phi$ , while some metric fluctuations (gravitational waves) will be self-sustaining, i.e. they are degrees of freedom independent of  $\phi$ .

Exercise: show this  $\rightarrow$

□ Namely:  $\vec{E}: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$   
Any vector field  $\vec{E}(x)$  can be decomposed into:

$$\vec{E}(x) = \vec{E}_T(x) + \vec{E}_L(x)$$

equations of motions are effectively linear in  $\hat{\phi}, \hat{g}_{\mu\nu}$ .

- \* This is because we can assume that in their equations of motion all terms that are quadratic or of higher power are negligible.
- \* This means that the quantum fields  $\hat{\phi}$  and  $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}$  have no potential terms, nor any mass terms.
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1) Interdependence of  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}$  inhomogeneities:

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- \* Vice versa: we can also read the Einstein eqn from left to right  $\Rightarrow$  these gravity inhomogeneities induce the inflaton's inhomogeneities.
- \* Thus, the inflaton's inhomogeneities' dynamics cannot be separated from that of the metric.

2) Some of  $\hat{g}_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$  is independent of  $\mathcal{E}$ !

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Any vector field  $\vec{E}(x)$  can be decomposed into:

$$\vec{E}(x) = \vec{E}_s(x) + \vec{E}_v(x)$$

↑ "gradient part" or "scalar part"
 ↑ "curl part" or "vector part"

induced by the inhomogeneities of the inflaton,  $\psi(x, y)$ .

- \* **Vice versa:** we can also read the Einstein eqn from left to right  $\Rightarrow$  these gravity inhomogeneities induce the inflaton's inhomogeneities.
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2) Some of  $g_{\mu\nu}(x, y)$  is independent of  $\psi$ !

Similarly: Some part of the metric will depend on  $\psi$ , while some metric fluctuations (gravitational waves) will be self-sustaining, i.e. they are degrees of freedom independent of  $\psi$ .

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Namely:  $\vec{E}: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$   
Any vector field  $\vec{E}(x)$  can be decomposed into:

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$\uparrow$  "gradient part" or "scalar part"       $\uparrow$  "curl part" or "vector part"

Here,  $\vec{E}_s$  and  $\vec{E}_v$  derive from a scalar function  $\Lambda$  and a vector field  $\vec{A}$  respectively:

$$\vec{E}_s = \nabla \Lambda \text{ and } \vec{E}_v = \nabla \times \vec{A}$$

They obey:  $\nabla \times \vec{E}_s = \vec{0}$  and  $\nabla \cdot \vec{E}_v = 0$  (A)

Exercise for physics students: verify  $\rightarrow$

According to the Maxwell equations, the scalar part, e.g., of the electric field,  $\vec{E}_s$ , is caused by (or causes) the electric charge density

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E}_s = \rho$$

[As a consequence but mathematically equivalent viewpoint:  
\* E.g. D-branes in string theory are charges that are defined from this viewpoint.]

while the vector part is charge independent  $\nabla \times \vec{E}_v = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$  and similarly for the magnetic field  $\vec{B}(x)$ .

These  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$  fields can sustain each other, which makes possible non-trivial electromagnetic fields (namely traveling waves) even when there are no charges.

- Similarly, some curvature exists only where there is energy-momentum.
- But, also, some curvature is self-sustaining, with dynamics, e.g., gravitational waves.

$\Rightarrow$  We should expect that  $g_{\mu\nu}(x, y)$  contains:

- \* some curvature that is induced by (or induces) the inflaton inhomogeneities.
- \* some curvature inhomogeneities that are self-sustaining, i.e., that possess their own dynamics - and therefore also their own quantum fluctuations.

Exercise for physics students: verify →

According to the Maxwell equations, the scalar part, e.g., of the electric field,  $\vec{E}$ , is caused by (or causes) the electric charge density

[An unusual but mathematically equivalent viewpoint. E.g. D-branes in string theory are charges that are defined from this viewpoint.]

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These  $\vec{E}$  and  $\vec{B}$  fields can sustain each other, which makes possible nontrivial electromagnetic fields (namely traveling waves) even when there are no charges.

→ We should expect that  $g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$  contains:

- \* some curvature that is induced by (or induces) the inflation inhomogeneities.
- \* some curvature inhomogeneities that are self-sustaining, i.e., that possess their own dynamics - and therefore also their own quantum fluctuations.

### How to separate these inhomogeneities of $g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$ ?

Similar to vector fields  $\vec{E}: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  we have for the tensor field  $g$ :

The perturbations  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$  of the metric tensor can be decomposed into three types:

- The part of  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$  which can be derived from scalar functions.
- The part of  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$  which can be derived from vector fields.
- The part of  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$  which is purely tensor.

### Decomposition of $g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$ , with respect to its spatial structure:

One usually writes the "line element"  $ds^2$ , i.e., the infinitesimal proper distance (squared) from  $x$  to  $x+dx$  as

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) dx^\mu dx^\nu \text{ with } dx^\mu = (d\eta, dx^1, dx^2, dx^3)$$

Then, the decomposition takes the form:

$$ds^2 = \underbrace{a^2(\eta)}_{\text{scalar}} (d\eta^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (dx^i)^2) + \underbrace{dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2}_{\text{vector tensor}}$$

Here, the spatially "scalar" part of the inhomogeneities reads

$$ds_s^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[ 2\bar{\Psi}(x, \eta) d\eta^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \bar{B}(x, \eta) dx^i d\eta - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left( 2\bar{\Psi}(x, \eta) \delta_{ij} - 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \bar{E}(x, \eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

be decomposed into three types:

- a) The part of  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$  which can be derived from scalar functions.
- b) The part of  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$  which can be derived from vector fields.
- c) The part of  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$  which is purely tensor.

where  $\Phi, \bar{\Psi}, B$  and  $E$  are scalar functions.

□ The spatially "vector" part of the metric reads:

$$ds_v^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[ 2 \sum_{i,j=1}^3 V_i(x,\eta) dx^i d\eta - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} W_j(x,\eta) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} W_i(x,\eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

where  $V_i$  and  $W_i$  are 3-vector fields.

□ The spatially "tensor" part of the metric is the remainder, i.e., is what cannot be derived from a scalar or vector field:

$$ds_t^2 = a^2(\eta) \sum_{i,j=1}^3 h_{ij}(x,\eta) dx^i dx^j$$

Here,  $h_{ij}$  is a spatial tensor field.

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu}(x,\eta) dx^\mu dx^\nu \text{ with } dx^\mu = (d\eta, dx^i, dx^i, dx^i)$$

□ Then, the decomposition takes the form:

$$ds^2 = \underbrace{a^2(\eta) (d\eta^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (dx^i)^2)}_{\text{scalar}} + \underbrace{dx_i^2 + dx_i^2 + dx_i^2}_{\text{vector}} + \underbrace{dx_i^2}_{\text{tensor}}$$

□ Here, the spatially "scalar" part of the inhomogeneities reads

$$ds_s^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[ 2\Phi(x,\eta) d\eta^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} B(x,\eta) dx^i d\eta - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left( 2\Psi(x,\eta) \delta_{ij} - 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} E(x,\eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

□ Remark regarding the fields  $V_i, W_i$  and  $h_{ij}$ :

Analogous to the equations (A) above in electromagnetism,

$$\nabla \times \vec{E}_s = \vec{0} \text{ and } \nabla \cdot \vec{E}_s = 0,$$

we now have:

\*  $V_i, W_j$  obey:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{V} = 0, \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{W} = 0 \quad \left( \text{i.e. } \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} V^i = 0 \text{ etc.} \right)$$

\*  $h_{ij}$  obey:

$$h_{ij} = h_{ji}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^3 h_{ii} = 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} h_{ij} = 0$$

Remark: This implies that  $h_{ij}$  describes "Weyl curvature" which is known to describe gravitational waves

$$-\sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} W_i(x,\eta) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} W_j(x,\eta) \right) dx^i dx^j$$

where  $V_i$  and  $W_i$  are 3-vector fields.

- ▢ The spatially "tensor" part of the metric is the remainder, i.e., is what cannot be derived from a scalar or vector field:

$$ds^2 = a^2(\eta) \sum_{i,j=1}^3 h_{ij}(x,\eta) dx^i dx^j$$

Here,  $h_{ij}$  is a spatial tensor field.

Recall:

- ▢ We decompose the inflaton field  $\phi(x,\eta)$ :

$$\phi(x,\eta) = \phi_0(\eta) + \ell(x,\eta)$$

where:

- \*  $\phi_0(\eta)$  is assumed large and is treated classically.
- \*  $\ell(x,\eta) =: \delta\phi(x,\eta)$  describes a field of small inhomogeneities and is to be quantized:  $\hat{\ell}(x,\eta)$

\*  $V_i, W_j$  obey:  
 $\nabla \vec{V} = 0, \nabla \cdot \vec{W} = 0$  (i.e.  $\sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} V^i = 0$  etc.)

\*  $h_{ij}$  obey:  
 $h_{ij} = h_{ji}, \sum_{i=1}^3 h_{ii} = 0, \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} h_{ij} = 0$

Remark: This implies that  $h_{ij}$  describes "Weyl curvature" which is known to describe gravitational waves

- ▢ We decompose the metric  $g_{\mu\nu}(x,\eta)$ :

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x,\eta) = a^2(\eta) \gamma_{\mu\nu} + \gamma_{\mu\nu}(x,\eta)$$

↑ treated classically
↑ assumed small, to be quantized

- ▢ Here,  $\gamma_{\mu\nu}(x,\eta)$  can be decomposed into scalar, vector and tensor-type inhomogeneities, using functions  $E, B, \Psi, \Phi, V_i, W_i, h_{ij}$ .

namely:  $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu}(x,\eta) dx^\mu dx^\nu$

$$ds^2 = a^2(\eta) \left( d\eta^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (dx^i)^2 \right) + \underbrace{ds_s^2}_{\text{scalar}} + \underbrace{ds_v^2}_{\text{vector}} + \underbrace{ds_t^2}_{\text{tensor}}$$

2000 - mode, i.e., homogeneous and isotropic part

where:

- \*  $\phi_0(\eta)$  is assumed large and is treated classically.
- \*  $\ell(x, \eta) =: \delta\phi(x, \eta)$  describes a field of small inhomogeneities and is to be quantized:  $\hat{\ell}(x, \eta)$

vector and tensor-type inhomogeneities, using functions  
 $E, B, \vec{\Phi}, \vec{\Psi}, V_i, W_i, h_{ij}$ .

namely:  $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta) dx^\mu dx^\nu$

$$ds^2 = \overbrace{a^2(\eta) \left( d\eta^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (dx^i)^2 \right)}^{\text{zero-mode, i.e., homogeneous and isotropic part}} + \underbrace{ds_s^2}_{\text{scalar}} + \underbrace{ds_v^2}_{\text{vector}} + \underbrace{ds_t^2}_{\text{tensor}}$$

$$ds_s^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[ 2\vec{\Phi}(x, \eta) d\eta^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} B(x, \eta) dx^i d\eta - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left( 2\vec{\Psi}(x, \eta) \delta_{ij} - 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} E(x, \eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

$$ds_v^2 = a^2(\eta) \left[ 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 V_i(x, \eta) dx^i d\eta - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} W_i(x, \eta) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} W_j(x, \eta) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

$$ds_t^2 = a^2(\eta) \sum_{i,j=1}^3 h_{ij}(x, \eta) dx^i dx^j$$

We insert the approximation

$$\phi(x, \eta) = \phi_0(\eta) + \ell(x, \eta)$$

$$g_{\mu\nu} = a^2(\eta) \gamma_{\mu\nu} + \gamma'_{\mu\nu}(x, \eta)$$

with  $\ell, \gamma'$  assumed small, into the action:

$$S' = \frac{-1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{|g|} d^4x$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \int (\partial_\mu \phi)(\partial^\mu \phi) - V(\phi) \sqrt{|g|} d^4x$$

+ neglected (other fields)

One obtains many terms with  $\vec{\Phi}, \vec{\Psi}, B, E, V, W, h$  !

$$ds_\gamma^2 = a^2(\gamma) \left[ 2 \sum_{i,j=1}^3 V_{ij}(x,\gamma) dx^i dx^j - \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} W_i(x,\gamma) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} W_j(x,\gamma) \right) dx^i dx^j \right]$$

$$ds_\gamma^2 = a^2(\gamma) \sum_{i,j=1}^3 h_{ij}(x,\gamma) dx^i dx^j$$

□ These terms can be simplified! Why?

Now that space is curved, there is no longer a preferred foliation of spacetime into spacelike hypersurfaces!

⇒ No preferred choice for the coordinate system.  
(e.g., no preferred conformal time & space cds)

□ But the choice of cds will affect the functions above, i.e. they are in part coordinate system dependent.

⇒ We may choose our spacelike hypersurfaces so that these functions  $\Phi, \bar{\Psi}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}, \mathcal{L}$  vanish or simplify.  
and thus our notion of equal time

It took on the order of 10 years to clarify this "gauge" question!

$\mathcal{E}, \bar{\Psi}$  assumed small, into the action:

$$S' = \frac{-1}{16\pi G} \int R \sqrt{|g|} d^4x + \frac{1}{2} \int (\partial_\mu \phi)(\partial^\mu \phi) - V(\phi) \sqrt{|g|} d^4x + \text{neglected (other fields)}$$

One obtains many terms with  $\Phi, \bar{\Psi}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}, \mathcal{L}$ !

□ For detailed references, see e.g.:

- \* A. Riotto, hep-ph/0210162 (relatively compact)
- \* R. H. Brandenberger et al, Physics Reports 215, 203 (1992) (long)

□ Result:

- \* For small inhomogeneities (1<sup>st</sup> order perturbation) nearly all inhomogeneities can be eliminated by suitable coordinate choice.
- \* Except, there are two fields, which are coordinate system, i.e., "gauge" independent. Namely:

(e.g., no preferred conformal time & space cds)

- But the choice of cds will affect the functions above, i.e. they are in part coordinate system dependent.

⇒ We may choose our <sup>and thus our notion of equal time</sup> spacelike hypersurfaces so that these functions  $\Phi, \dot{\Phi}, \epsilon, \delta, \nu, \omega, h$  vanish or simplify.

It took on the order of 10 years to clarify this "gauge" question!

## I) A spatial tensor field:

This is  $h_{ij}(x, \eta)$  itself. It represents  $T_{\mu\nu}$ -independent, so-called Weyl curvature, namely gravitational waves.  $h_{ij}(x, \eta)$  measures how much space is locally distorted against itself in different directions.

## II) A spatially scalar field, $r$ , made of $\varphi$ and $\chi_{\mu\nu}$ 's scalar part:

Due to the Einstein eqn,

$$\delta\phi(x, \eta) = \varphi(x, \eta)$$

combines with the scalar part of the metric inhomogeneities

$$\Psi(x, \eta),$$

to yield one dynamical entity, namely:

## □ Result:

- \* For small inhomogeneities (1<sup>st</sup> order perturbation) nearly all inhomogeneities can be eliminated by suitable coordinate choice.
- \* Except, there are two fields, which are coordinate system, i.e., "gauge" independent. Namely:

$$r(x, \eta) := -\frac{a'}{a_0} (\phi_0(\eta))^{-1} \varphi(x, \eta) - \Psi(x, \eta)$$

recall:  $\phi_0(\eta) =$  classical homogeneous inflaton field  
 ↑ from inflaton      ↑ from "scalar" part of the metric

## Physically, what is $r(x, \eta)$ ?

- \* First term: In  $\frac{a'}{a_0} \frac{1}{\phi_0} \varphi$ , the  $\varphi(x, \eta)$  is the scalar field's fluctuation.
- \* Second term:  $\Psi(x, \eta)$  is the (scalar) metric's fluctuation.