



Cosmology II - Introduction to Cosmology?

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Lecture slides based on those of Leonard Susskind - Stanford University, USA

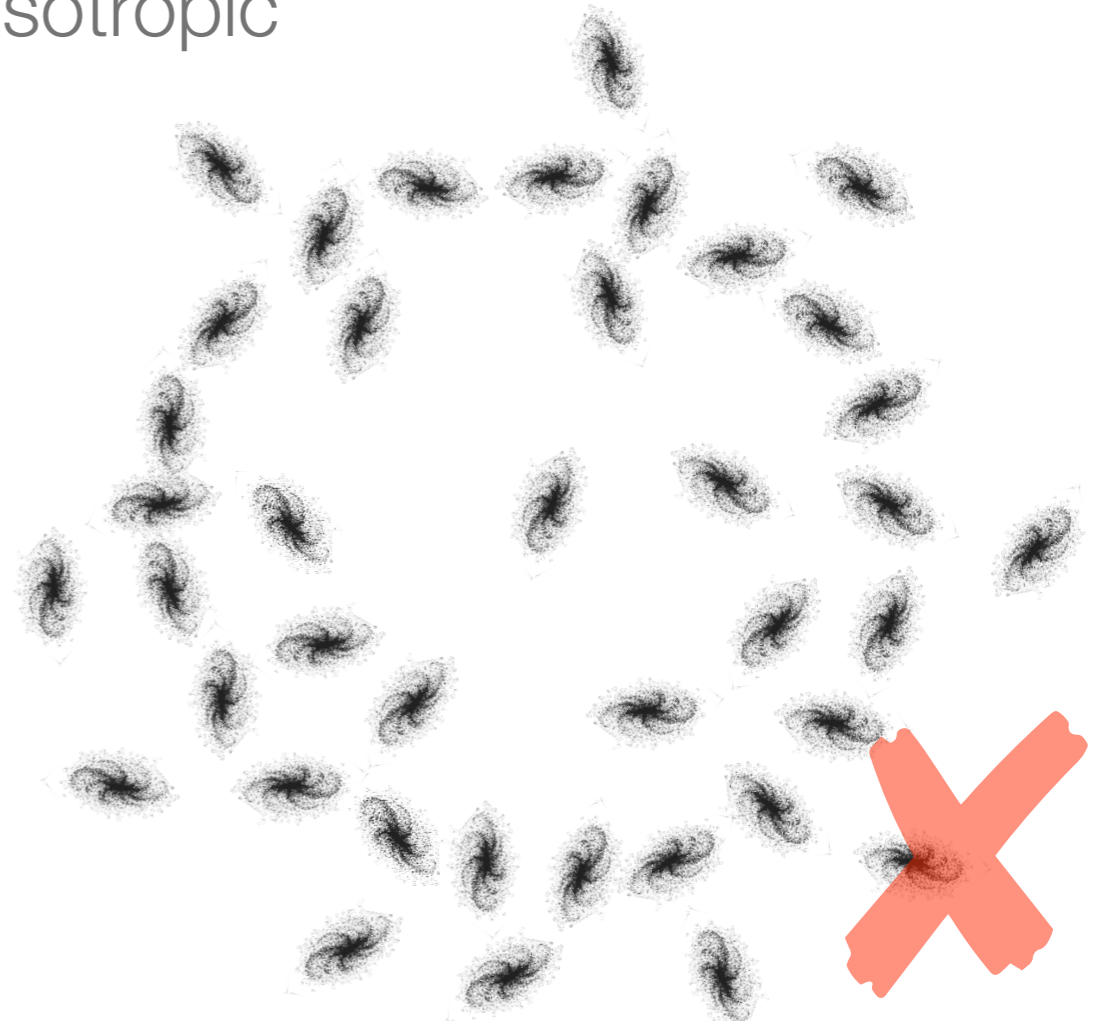
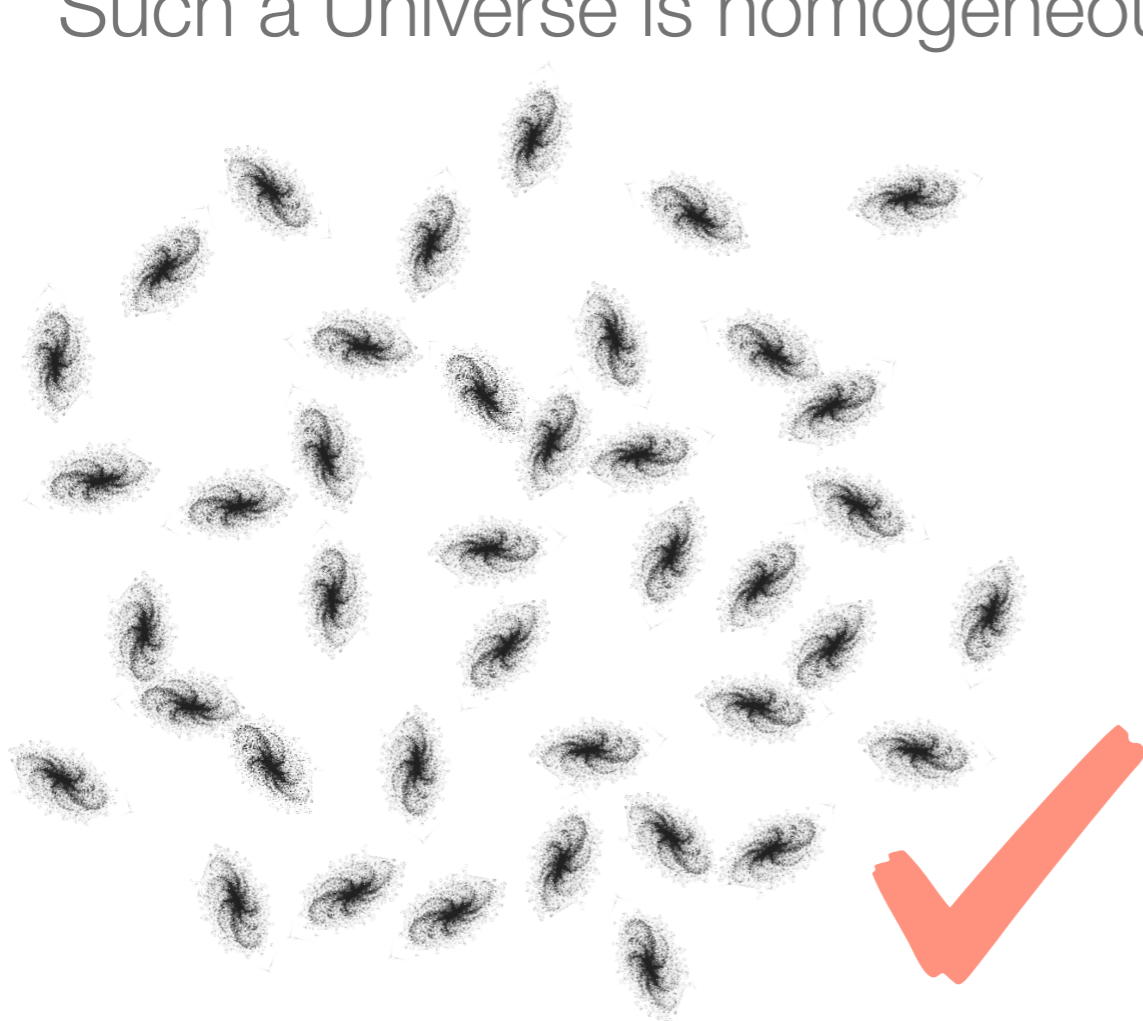
1. Newtonian approach

2. Adding radiation

3. Possible geometries

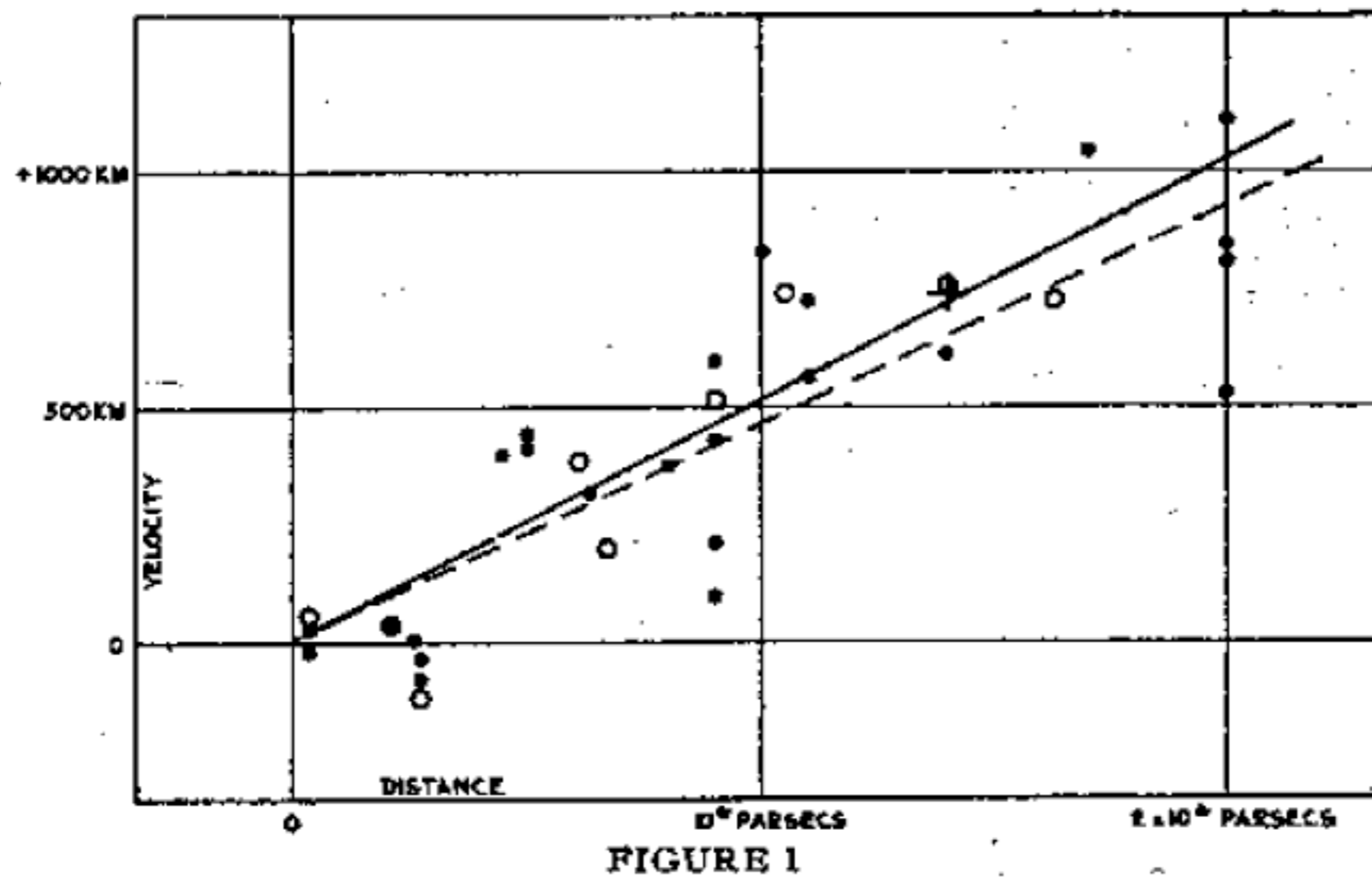
Assumptions

- Standard cosmology makes 2 fundamental assumptions:
 1. The properties of the Universe are isotropic
 2. Our position in the Universe is not preferred to any other (cosmological principle)
- Such a Universe is homogeneous and isotropic



Motivation - Hubble

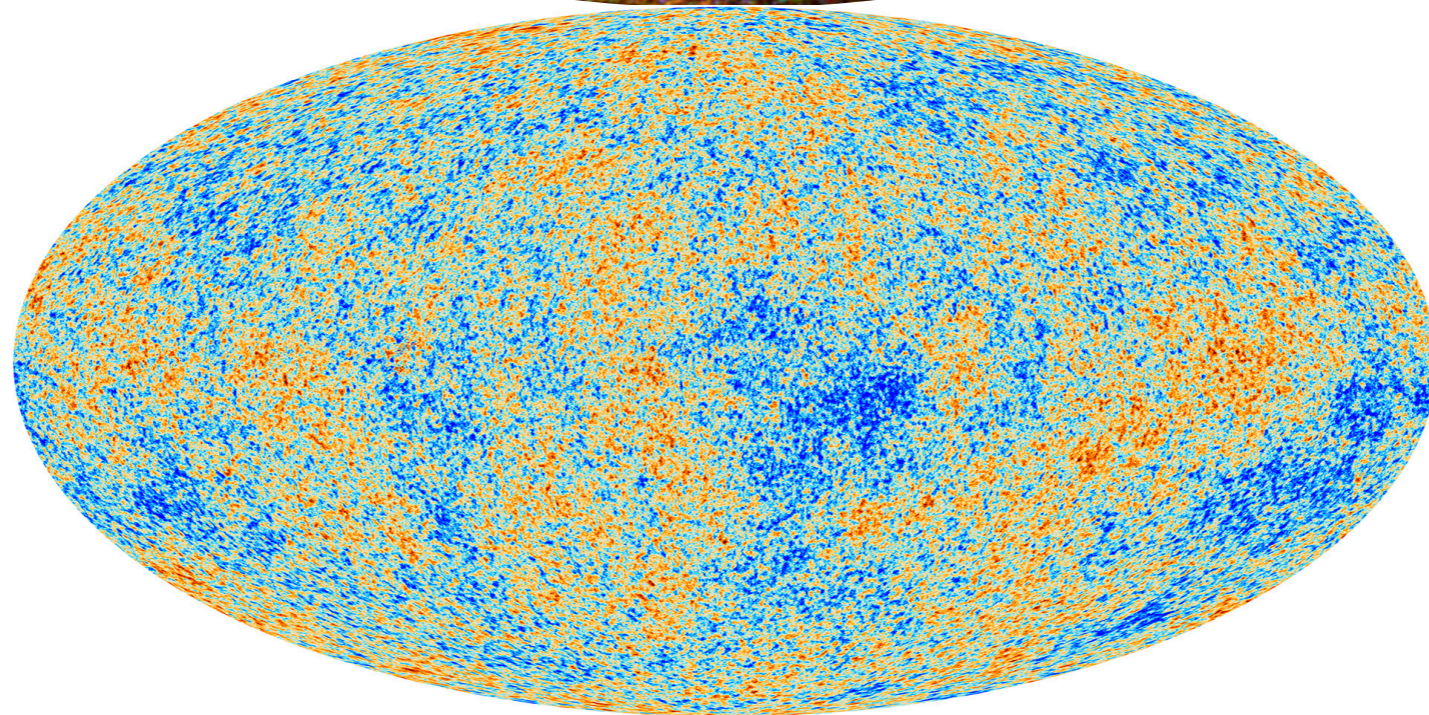
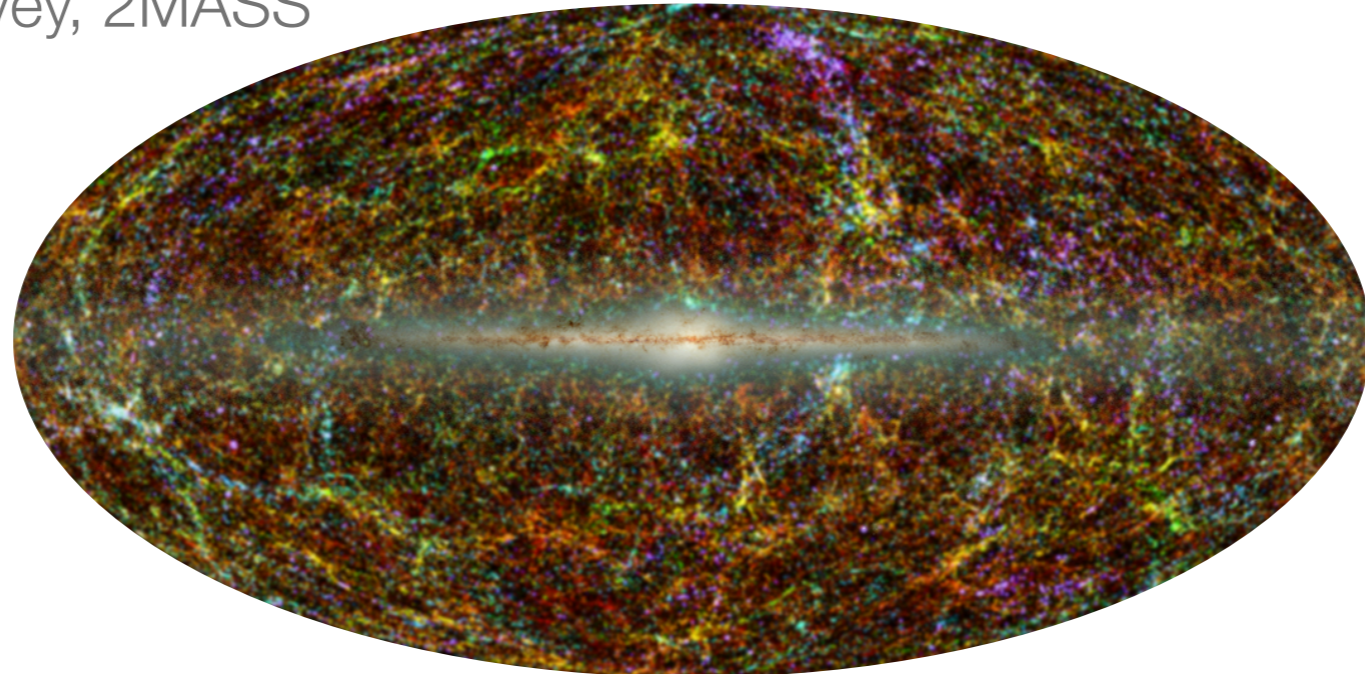
Velocity-Distance Relation among Extra-Galactic Nebulae.



Hubble's original 1929 paper

Isotropic and Homogeneous

2-Micron All-Sky Survey, 2MASS



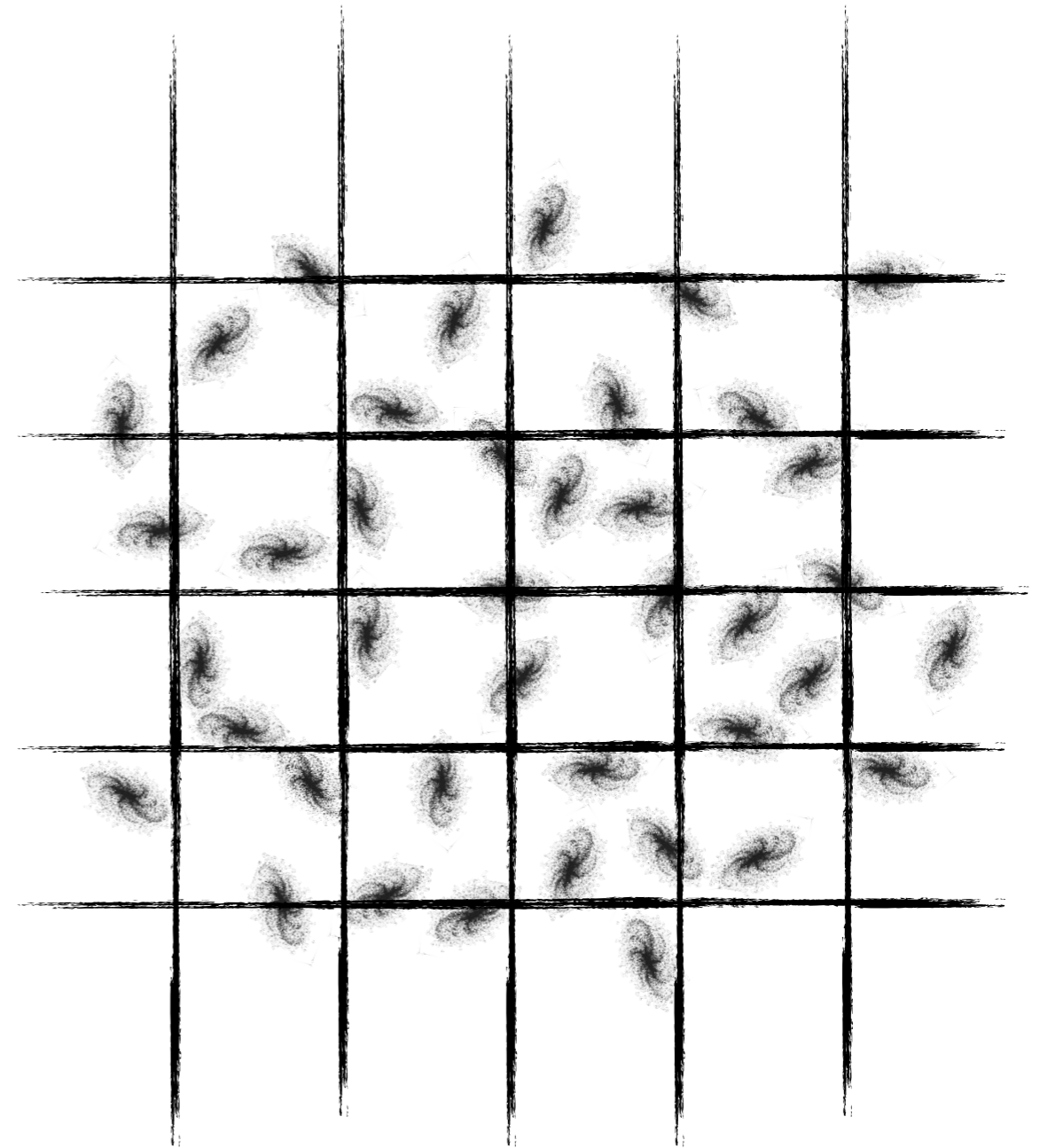
CMB temperature fluctuations, Planck

Uniform gas of particles

- Electrically neutral so gravity is the only important force
- You'd assume that everything just sits still (wrong).

Introduce co-moving coordinates

- Define the lattice of grid points to be co-moving with the galaxies
- Think of the galaxies as fixed to their location in the grid.
- Inherent assumption about behaviour of galaxies. Based on observation (Hubble).
- The galaxies themselves do not stretch!
- The x, y, z coords are **not** distances, they just label the grid lines.



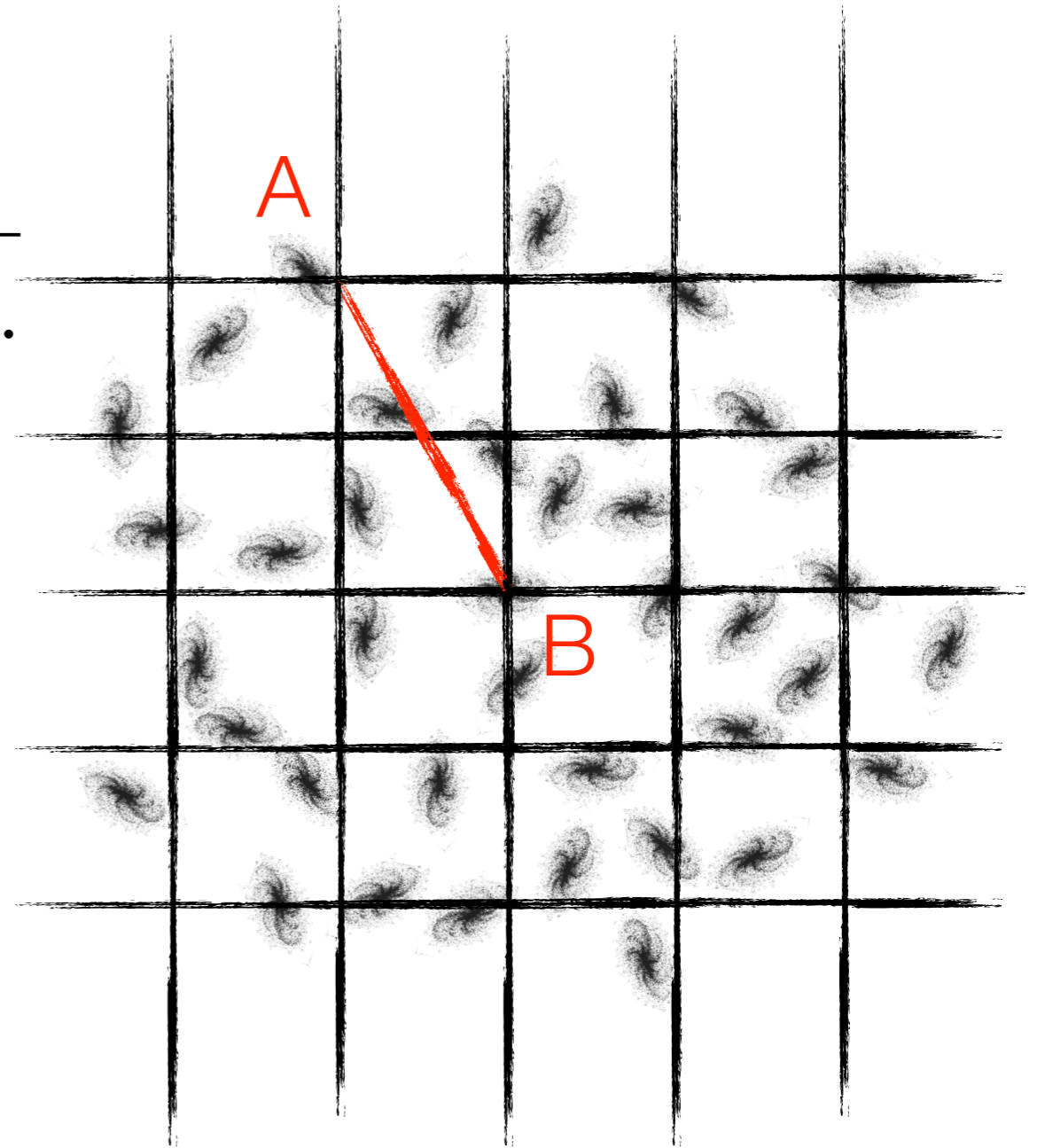
Scale parameter

- Let's define the scale parameter $a(t)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} d_{AB} &= a(t) \sqrt{\Delta x_{AB}^2 + \Delta y_{AB}^2 + \dots} \\ &= a(t) R_{AB} \end{aligned}$$

- The velocity is $v_{AB} = \dot{a}(t) R_{AB}$
- We then define the Hubble parameter/function

$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{v_{AB}}{d_{AB}}$$



Mass in the model

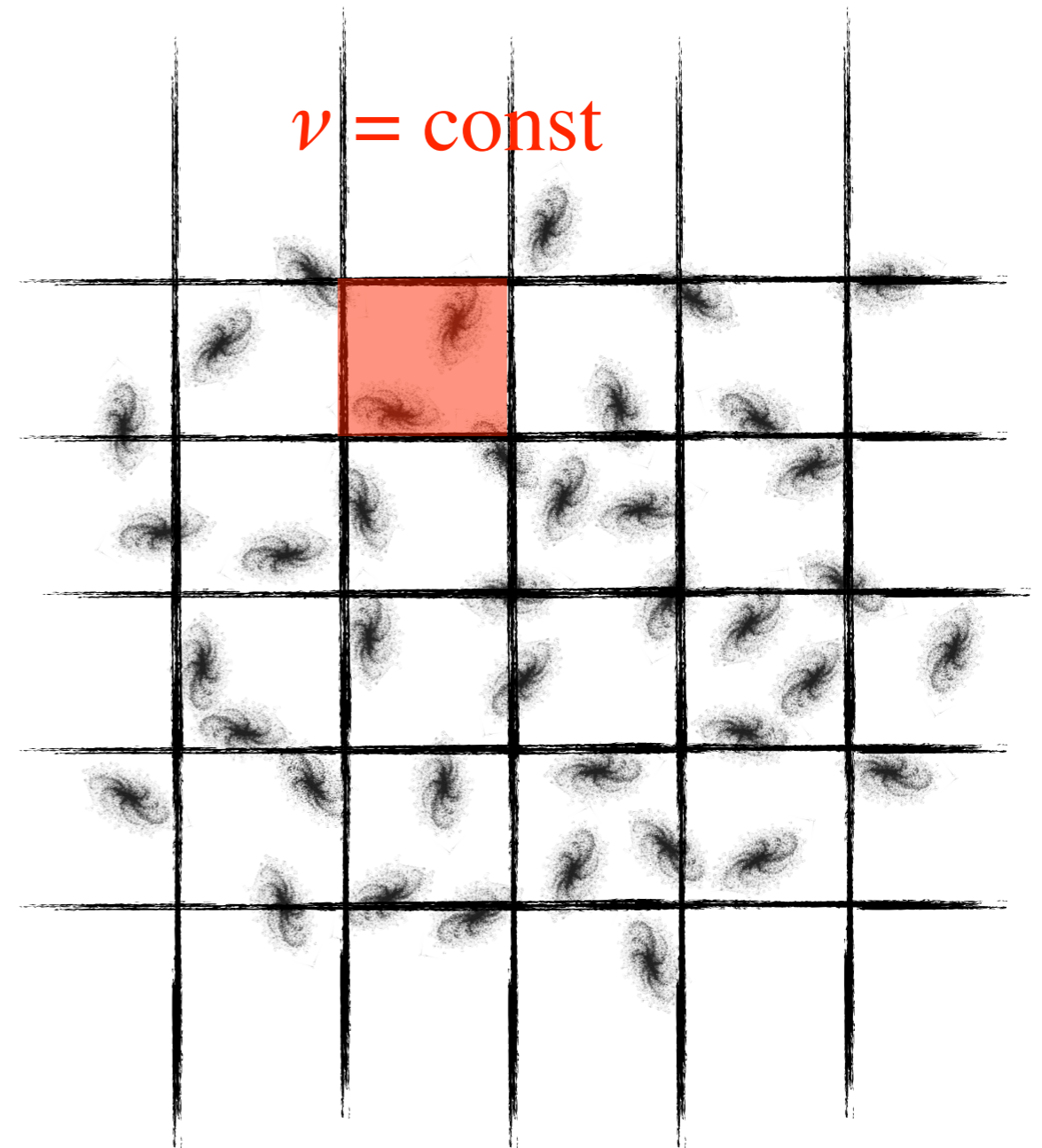
- The mass within a coordinate volume is

$$\Delta M = \nu \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

- But the actual volume is

$$\Delta V = a^3(t) \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

- So the density is $\rho = \frac{\nu}{a^3}$
- Mass per unit coordinate cell is constant but the density will change with $a(t)$



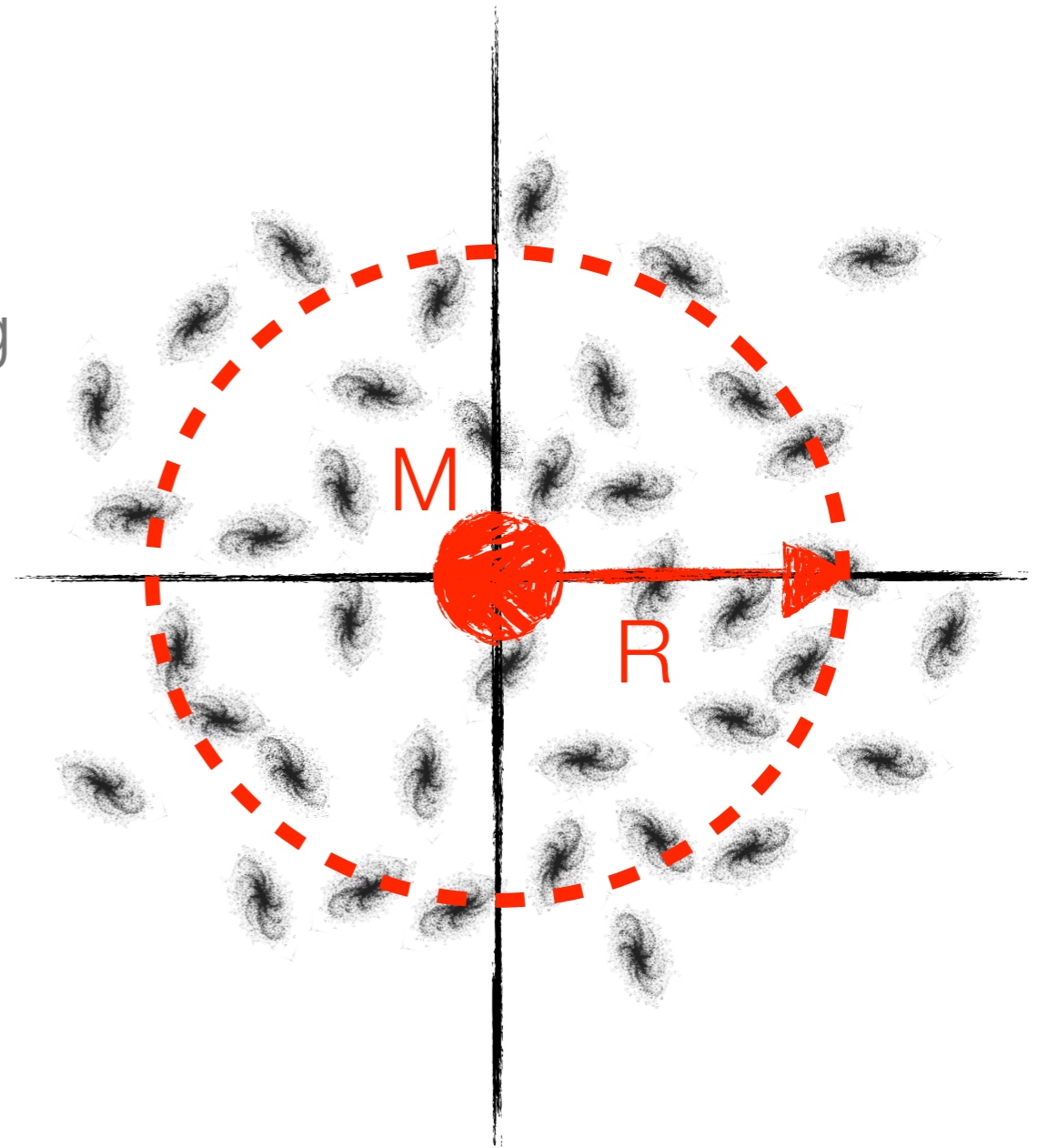
Newtonian Gravity

- Find the **relative** acceleration between us (at origin) and a distant galaxy.
- The acceleration due to the changing scale factor is

$$\ddot{d} = \ddot{a}R$$

- Use Newtons theorem to compute the gravitational acceleration on the galaxy
- Equate to Newtonian gravitational acceleration

$$\ddot{a}R = -\frac{GM}{d^2}$$



Equation of motion

- Since $d = a(t)R$

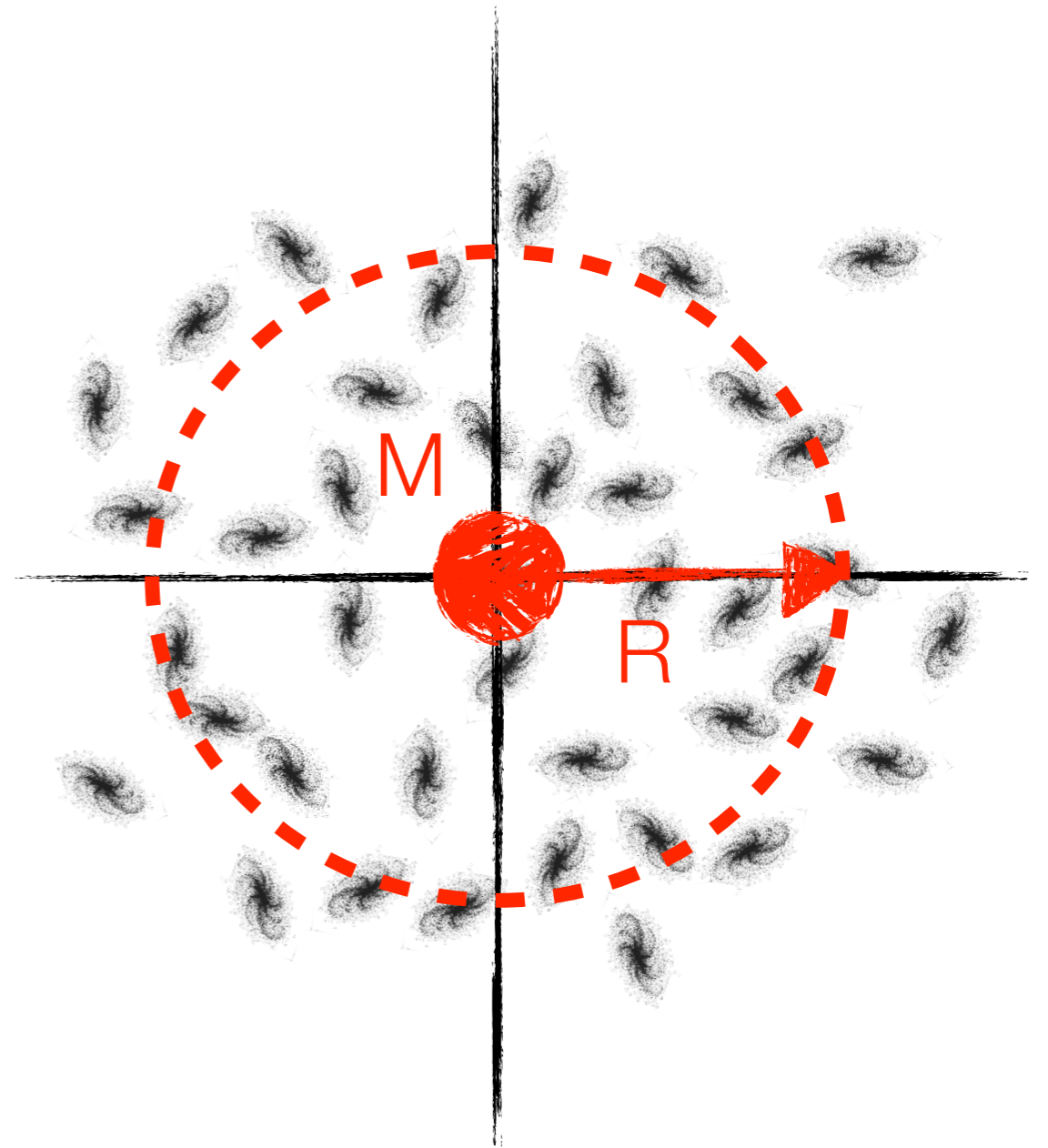
$$\ddot{a}R = -\frac{GM}{d^2} \Rightarrow \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{GM}{a^3 R^3}$$

- The volume of the enclosing sphere is

$$V_{\text{sph}} = \frac{4\pi}{3}(aR)^3$$

- and since $\rho = M/V_{\text{sph}} = \nu/a^3$ we get

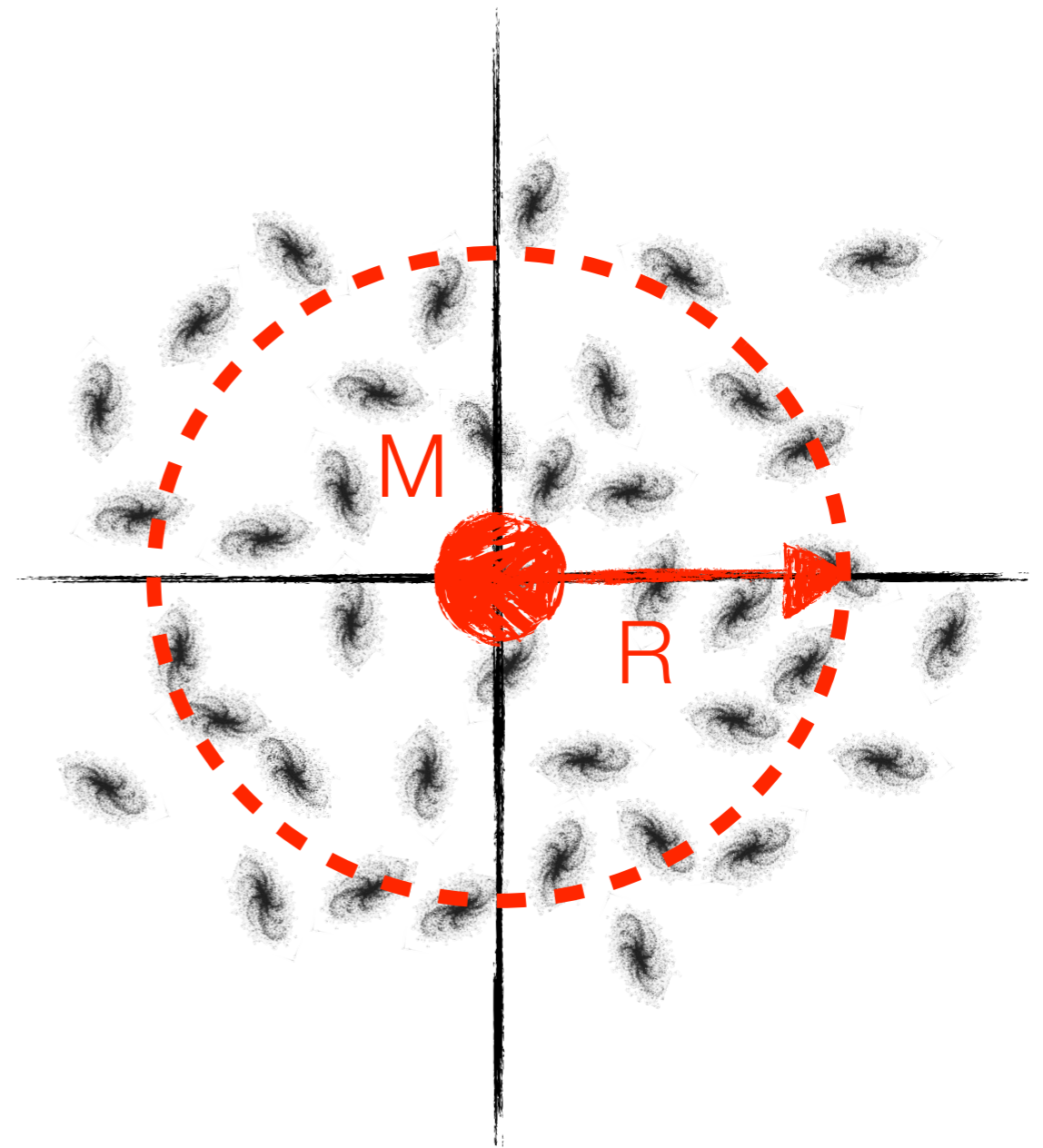
$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi}{3}G\rho$$



Equation of motion

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

- Doesn't depend on R - true for any galaxy (hinges on ν being constant due to homogeneity).
- Also *impossible* to have a static universe (unless it's empty).
- Replace ρ by ν/a^3 $\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G\nu}{3a^3}$
- Gives us an equation of motion of the scale factor - acceleration has to be negative



Energy Conservation

- Particle moving away from a large mass on x-axis

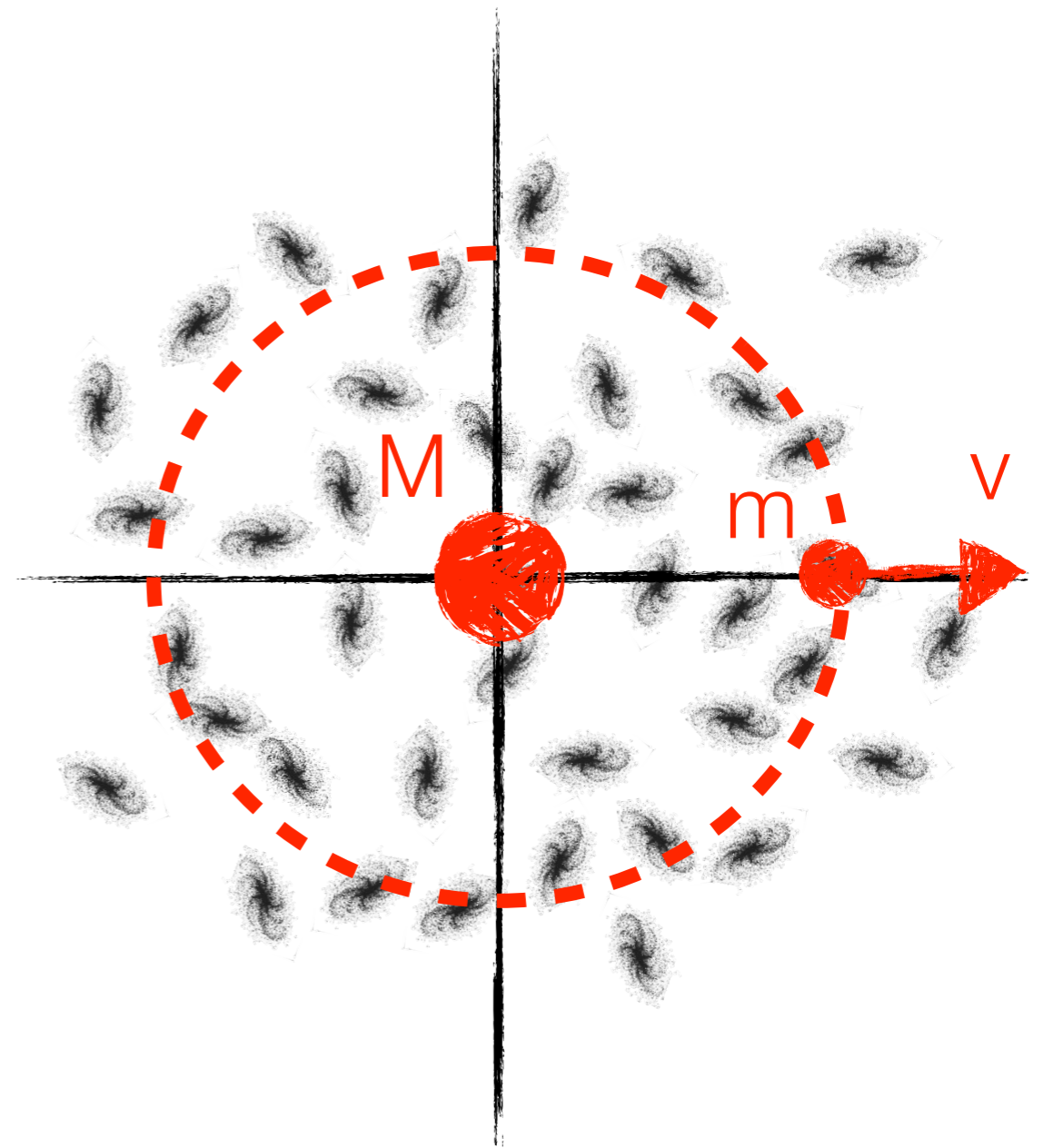
- Energy is conserved so

$$\frac{1}{2}m\dot{d}^2 - \frac{GmM}{d} = E$$

- If E is positive it ultimately escapes, if negative it falls back

- Escape velocity is therefore

$$\dot{d}^2 = \frac{2GM}{d}$$



Energy Conservation - special case

- Replacing and rearranging terms and setting $E = 0$ gives us

$$\frac{1}{2}m(\dot{a}R)^2 - \frac{GmM}{aR} = 0 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{2GM}{(aR)^3}$$

- remembering that the volume of the sphere is

$$V_{\text{sph}} = \frac{4\pi}{3}(aR)^3$$

- Gives us the **Friedmann Equation** (not general since we set $E = 0$)

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

- We already know that $\ddot{a} < 0$ so \dot{a} is reducing, but RHS is +ve, so...

Solve for the scale factor

- Replacing ρ by ν/a^3
$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G\nu}{3a^3} = H^2(t)$$
- The square of Hubble parameter never gets to zero (in this case)
- Can always choose ν to be whatever we want so only need to solve
$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{a^3}$$
- Solution is $a \sim t^{2/3}$ (Newton could have done all of this but didn't have Hubble's observations to guide him)
- This particular Universe would have to be spatially flat, infinite, and matter dominated.

Energy - general case

- Looking at the general $E \neq 0$ case (@ $x = 1$, $d = a(t)$ and $\dot{d} = \dot{a}$)

$$\frac{1}{2}m\dot{d}^2 - \frac{GmM}{d} = E \Rightarrow \dot{a}^2 - \frac{2MG}{a} = C$$

- Rearrange to get nice ratios

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 - \frac{2MG}{a^3} = \frac{C}{a^2}$$

- Since $x = 1$ the volume here is $V_{\text{sph}} = (4/3)\pi a^3$

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

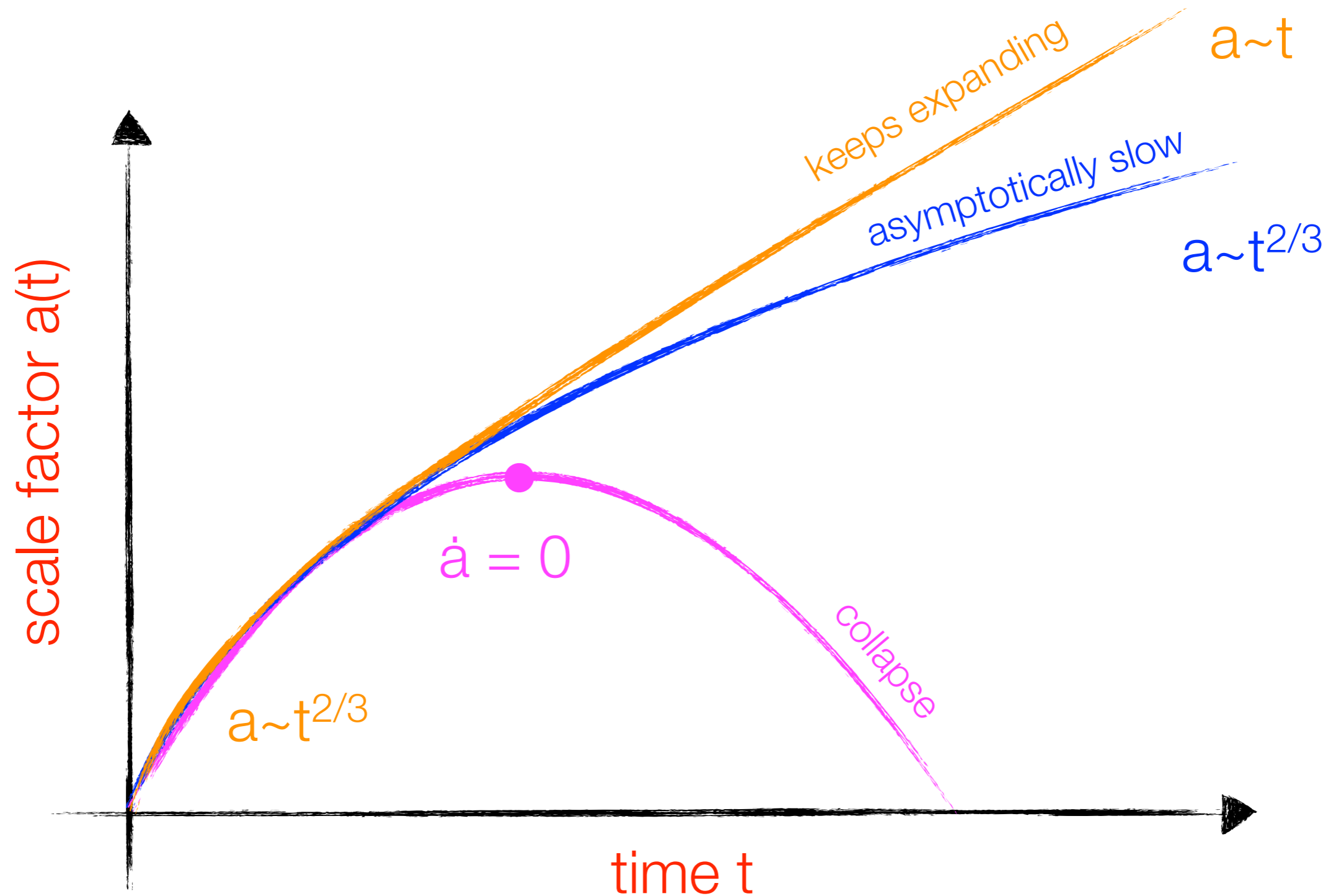
- If $E > 0$ then RHS is always +ve and $\dot{a} > 0$ (had to start being +ve)

Asymptotic behaviour

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

- For +ve energy ($C > 0$) at large a the new term dominates and we get $a \sim t$
- At small a we get the old result $a \sim t^{2/3}$
- For -ve energy ($C < 0$) the RHS can become zero so there is a turning point in the scale factor evolution ($\dot{a} = 0$)
- All of this is for the matter dominated universe (i.e., only considers matter)
- This is directly related to the geometry of the universe (C is related to the curvature of space)

Scale factor evolution



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1. Newtonian approach
 2. **Adding radiation**
 3. Possible geometries

Connection to GR

- rearrange our equation to give

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

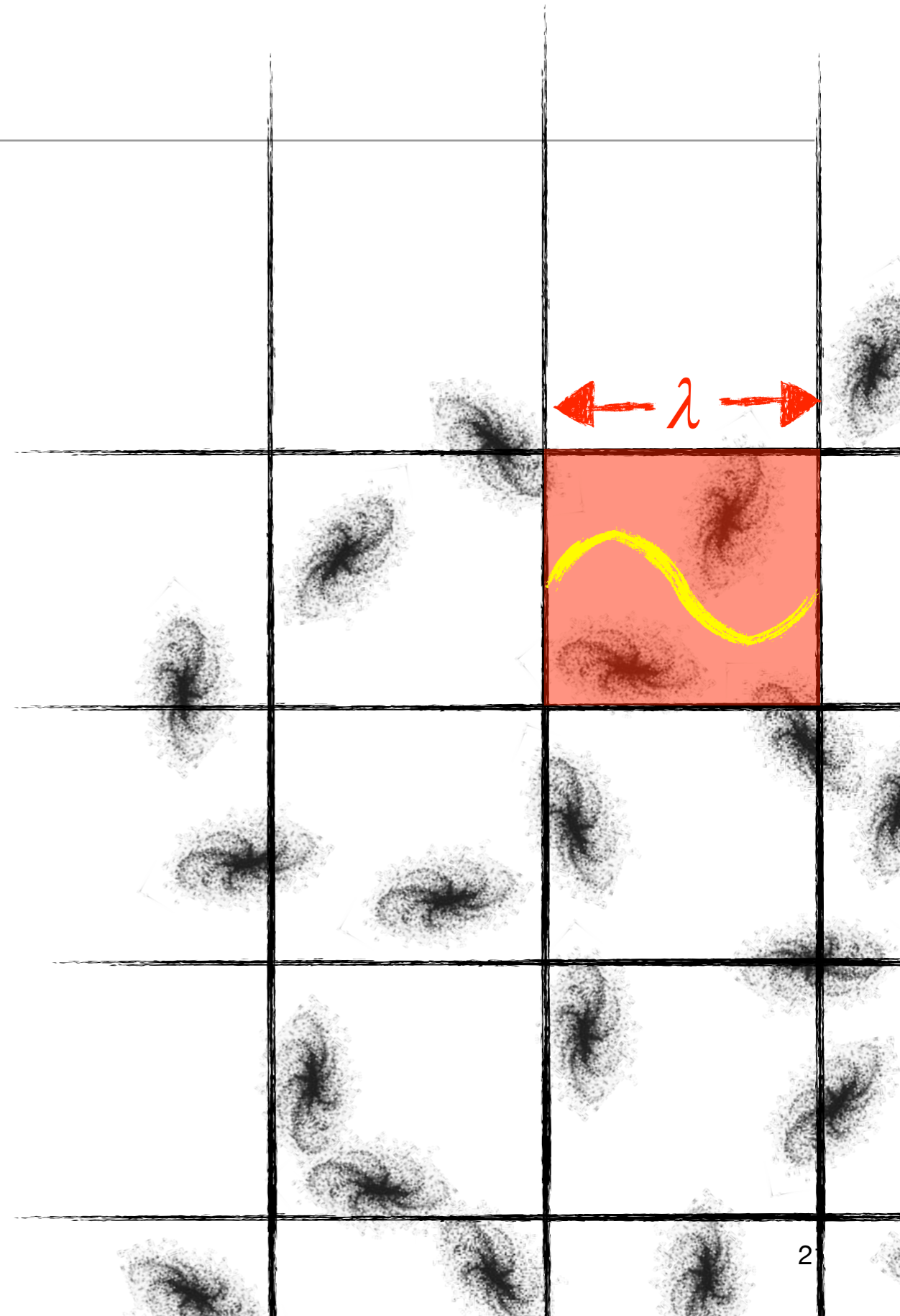
- LHS has geometry, RHS is energy density, looks like Einsteins field equation(s)
- So let's now include radiation energy

$$\rho \Rightarrow M + \gamma$$

and see what happens

Add photons

- Consider a photon within our grid of coordinates
- The photons behave in such a way as to expand their wavelengths in proportion with the grid box they are in
- So since $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \propto \frac{1}{a}$
- The photon energy changes but the total number of photons remains constant.

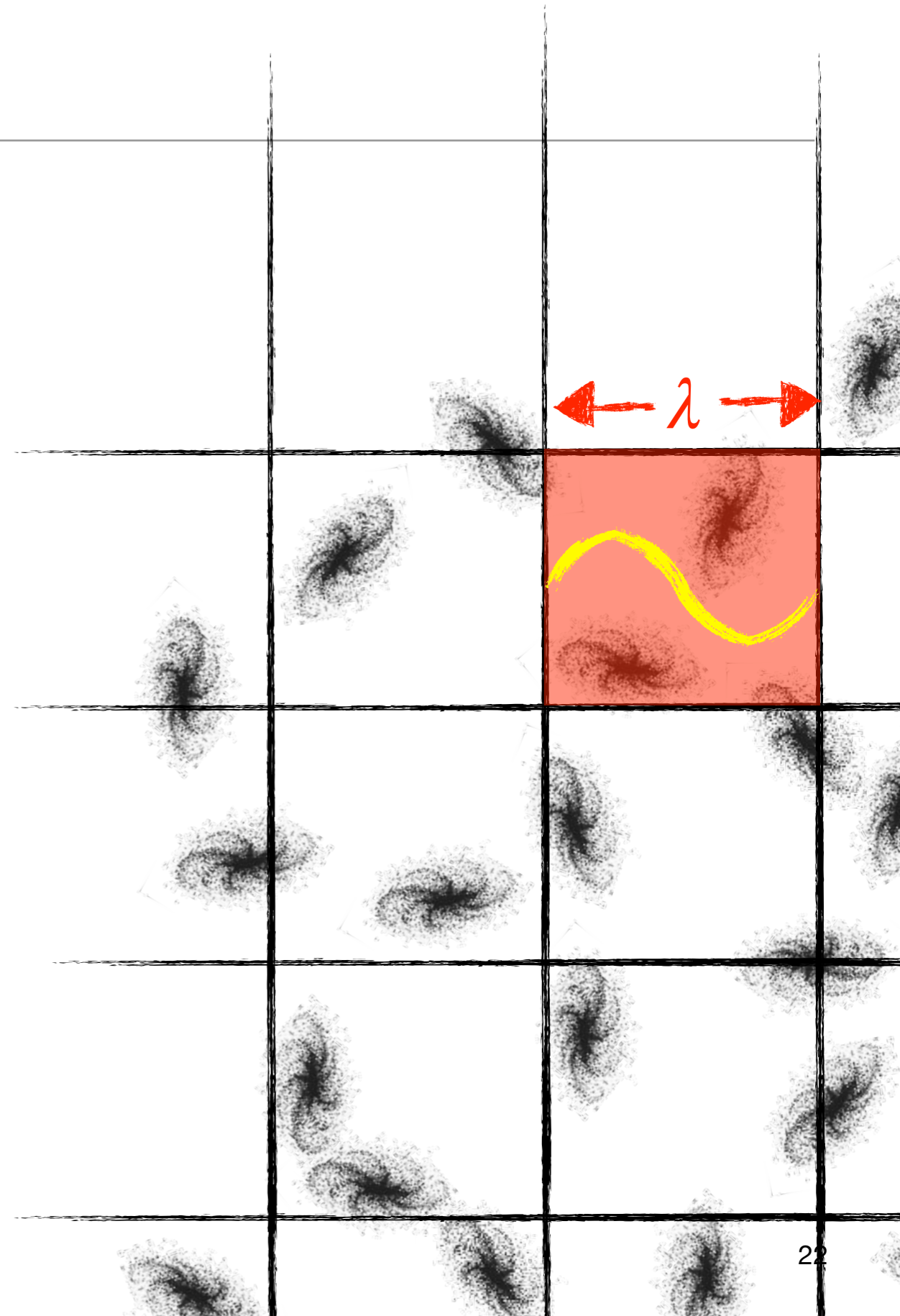


Add photons

- So as $a(t)$ increases the photon energy in the box drops.
- Therefore compared to the mass case there is an extra factor of a in the denominator.
- So for radiation only and the zero energy case

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3a^4}$$

- we get a solution $a \sim t^{1/2}$



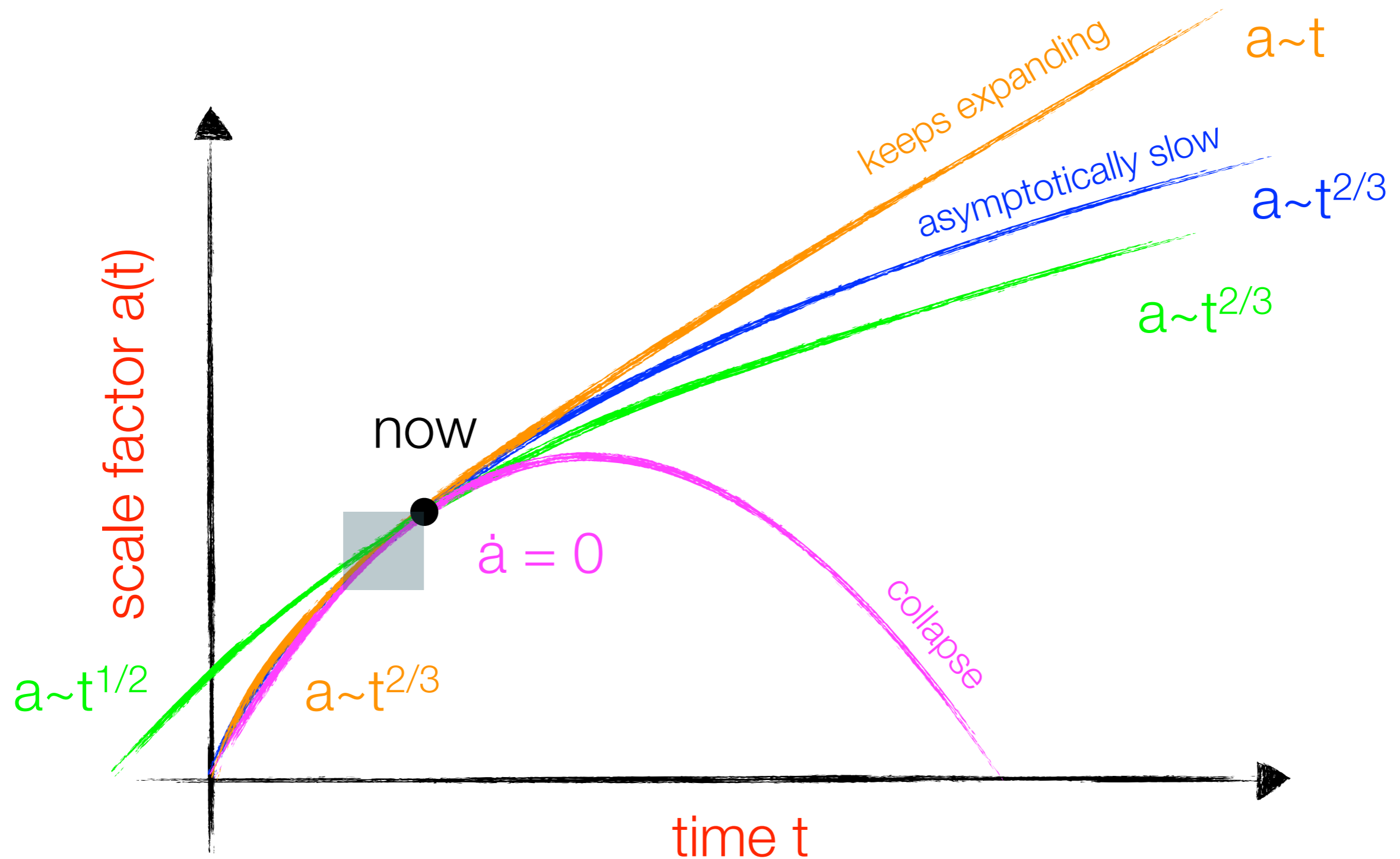
Mass plus radiation

- The general form of the equation will be

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{C_m}{a^3} + \frac{C_\gamma}{a^4}$$

- So at large a matter dominates and at small a radiation dominates
- So the universe starts expanding at $t^{1/2}$ but later on switched to $t^{2/3}$
- The radiation part is made up of photons, neutrinos, gravitons (everything moving at ~speed of light).
- The matter component includes dark matter (all non-relativistic particles)

Scale factor evolution

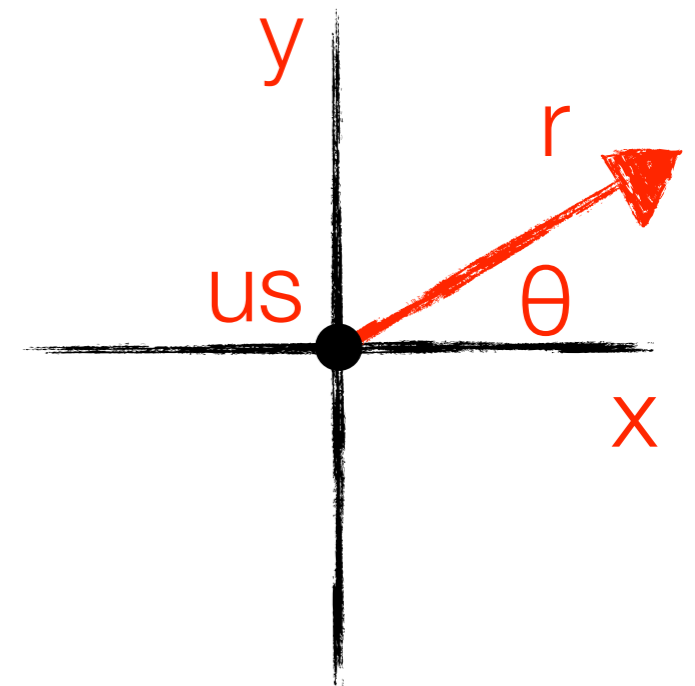


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1. Newtonian approach
 2. Adding radiation
 3. **Possible geometries**

General spaces

- Lets explore the possibility that space is not flat but still homogeneous - only a few options that are homogeneous.

1. Flat space
2. Spheres
3. Hyperbolic space
4. Toroidal + ...



- In 2-D things like paraboloids, ellipsoids, bumpy spaces, are curved but not homogeneous

- 2-D flat space (plane) defined by metric $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2$

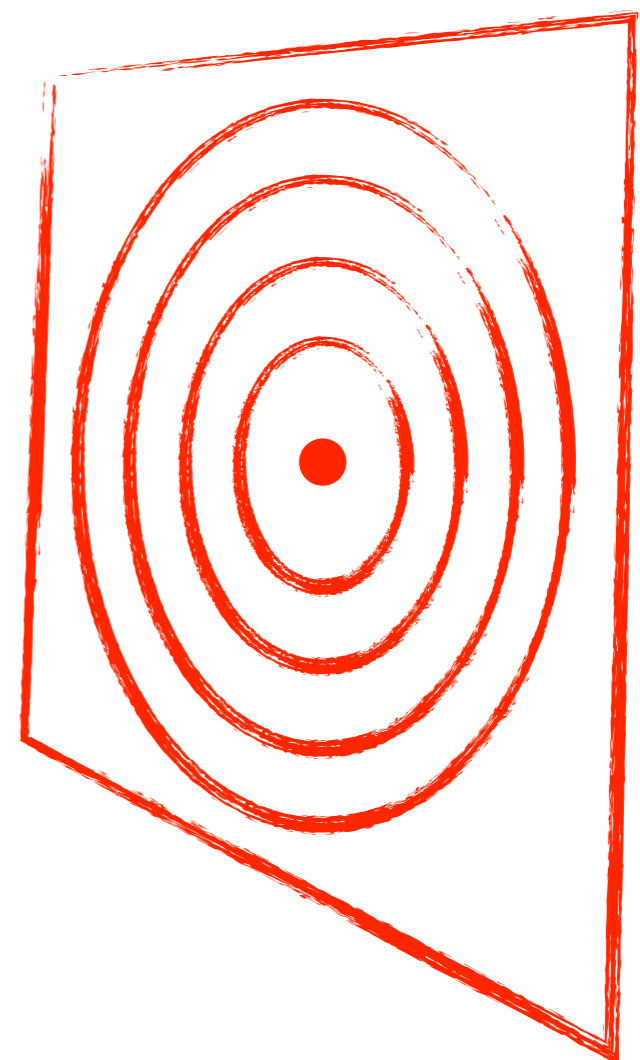
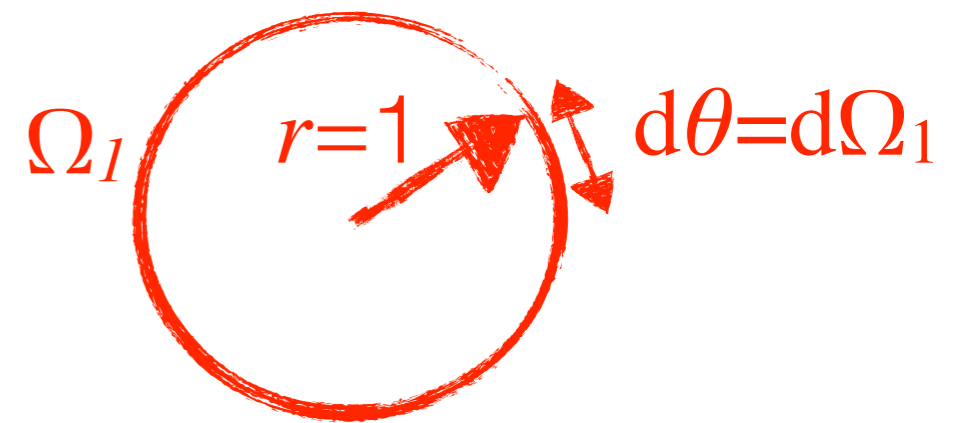
- Useful to thing in polar coordinates (still flat) $ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2$

1-spheres

- $d\theta^2$ is a metric for a particular space (a unit circle) - measures the squared distance along a circle (total distance is 2π)
- *a unit circle is a 1-sphere*, a 1-D sphere - also called Ω_1
- Sometimes refer to $d\theta^2$ as $d\Omega_1^2$

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 \equiv dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega_1^2$$

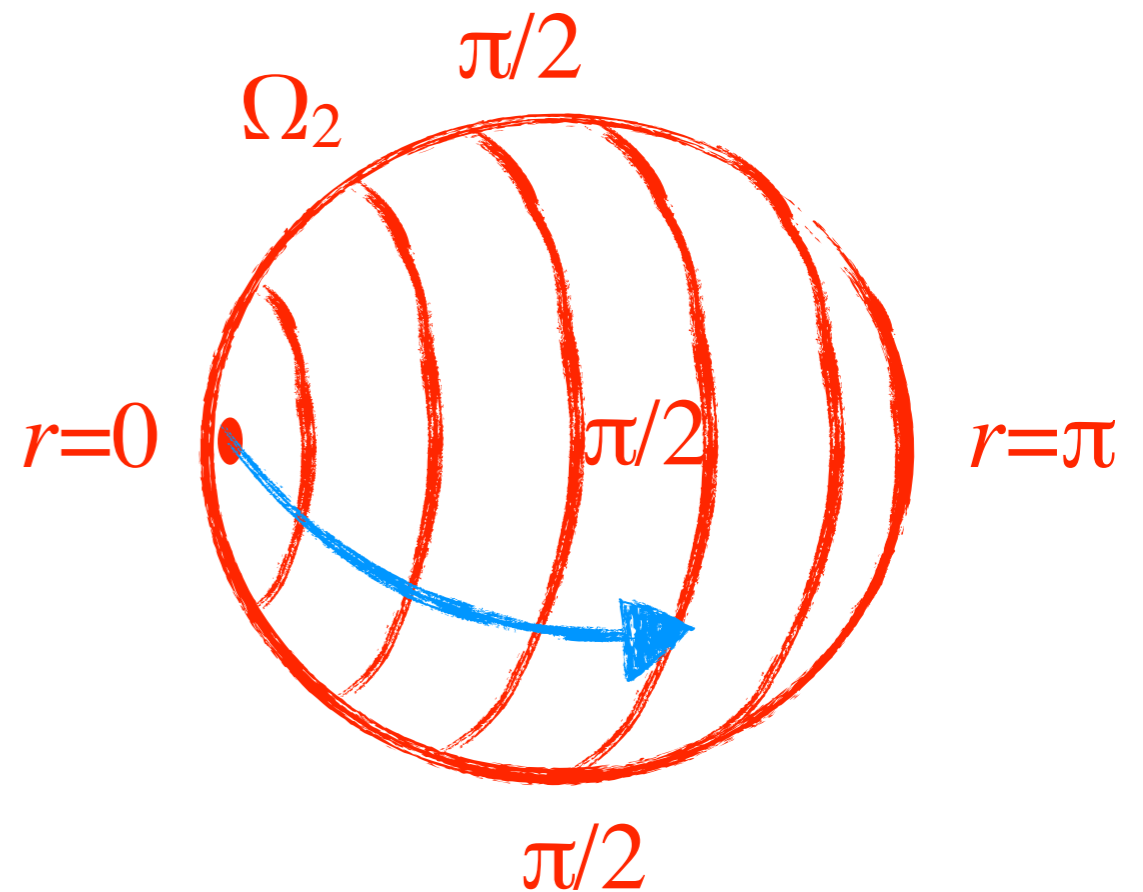
- Think of a flat 2-D space composed of a nested set of 1-spheres - space is flat



2-spheres

- A 2-D astronomer looks away from our own position on the 2-sphere and is surrounded by 1-spheres.
- The 1-spheres grow more slowly with distance and then get smaller.
- Use r to measure an angle, furthest we can see is $r = \pi$
- The metric in our notation is

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + \sin^2 r d\Omega_1^2 = d\Omega_2^2$$

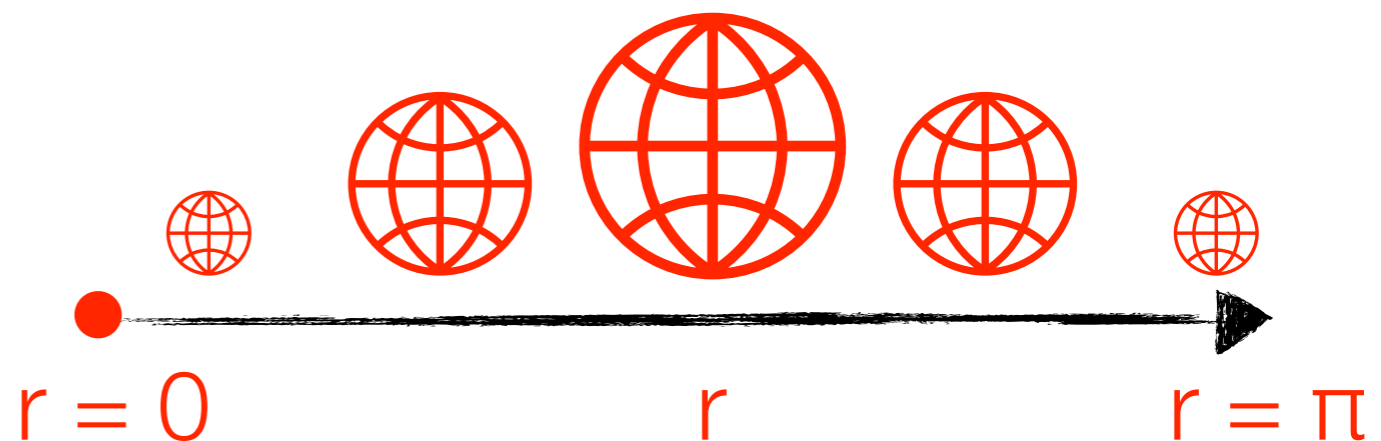


3-spheres

- A 3-sphere is a 3-d space which is homogeneous and if you go in any direction you come back to yourself - ***hard to think about***
- Look into space at different distances and you see 2-spheres around you. Look further and further and the 2 spheres start to get smaller - ***hard to visualise***.
- They are series of nested 2-spheres that grow and collapse as r increases.

- The metric is

$$d\Omega_3^2 = dr^2 + \sin^2 r d\Omega_2^2$$

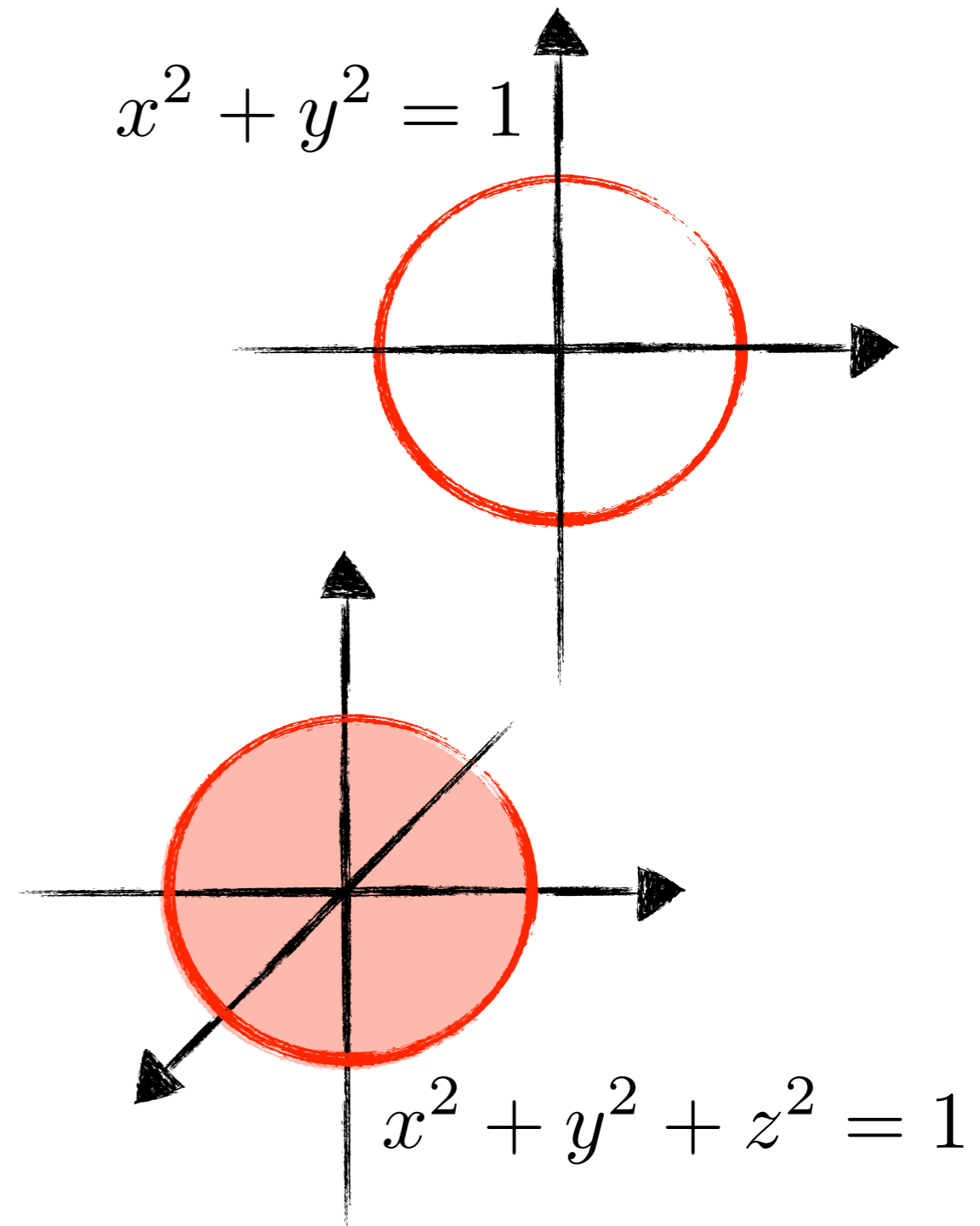


Another way to view spheres - embedding

- We can embed a 1-sphere (circle) in 2-D, and a 2-sphere in 3-D.
- The extra dimension is just a trick - the previous metrics still apply
- To construct a 3-sphere in this way you have to embed it in a 4-D space.

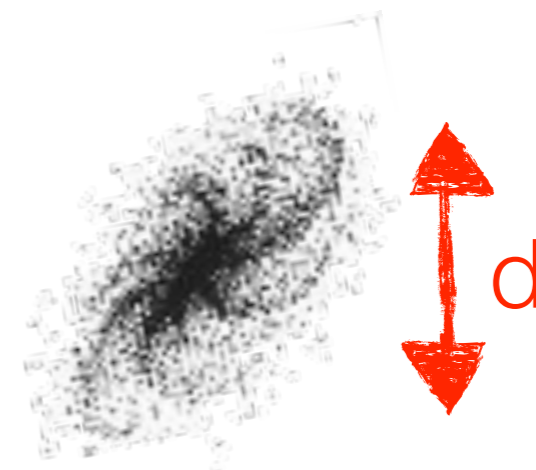
$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 = 1$$

- Clearly not sensible coordinates for traversing the space.



Testing the geometry

- How could you tell if you live on a sphere rather than an infinite flat plane?
- Use telescopes to determine the distances to objects (using tricks like the Hubble law).
- Look at how bright a galaxy is (assume all galaxies are the same intrinsic brightness)
- Look at how much angle they subtend on the sky? (assume all galaxies are the same intrinsic size)



Angular diameter - flat space

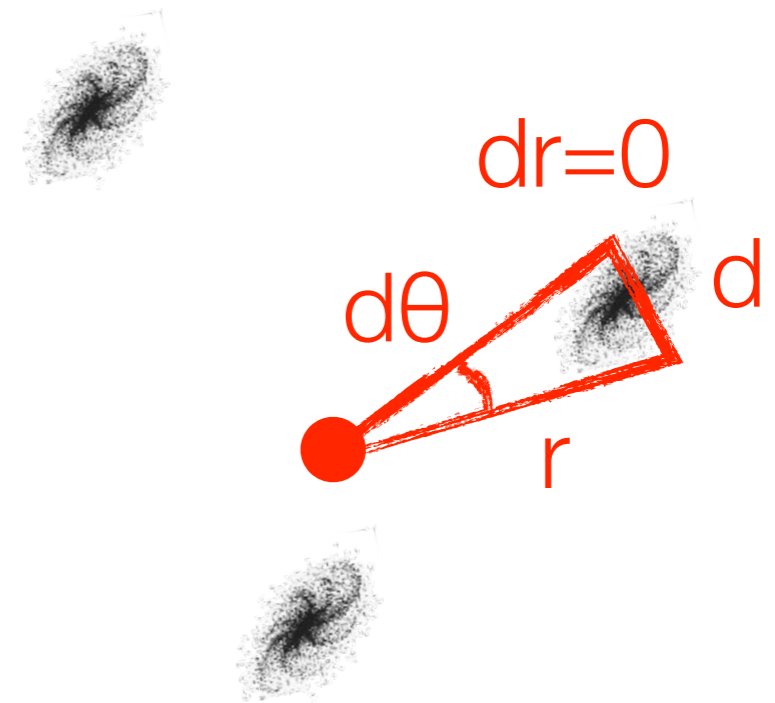
- In flat 2-D space we use the metric to give us

$$ds^2 = r^2 d\theta^2 = d^2$$

- and therefore

$$d\theta = \frac{d}{r}$$

- As you might expect

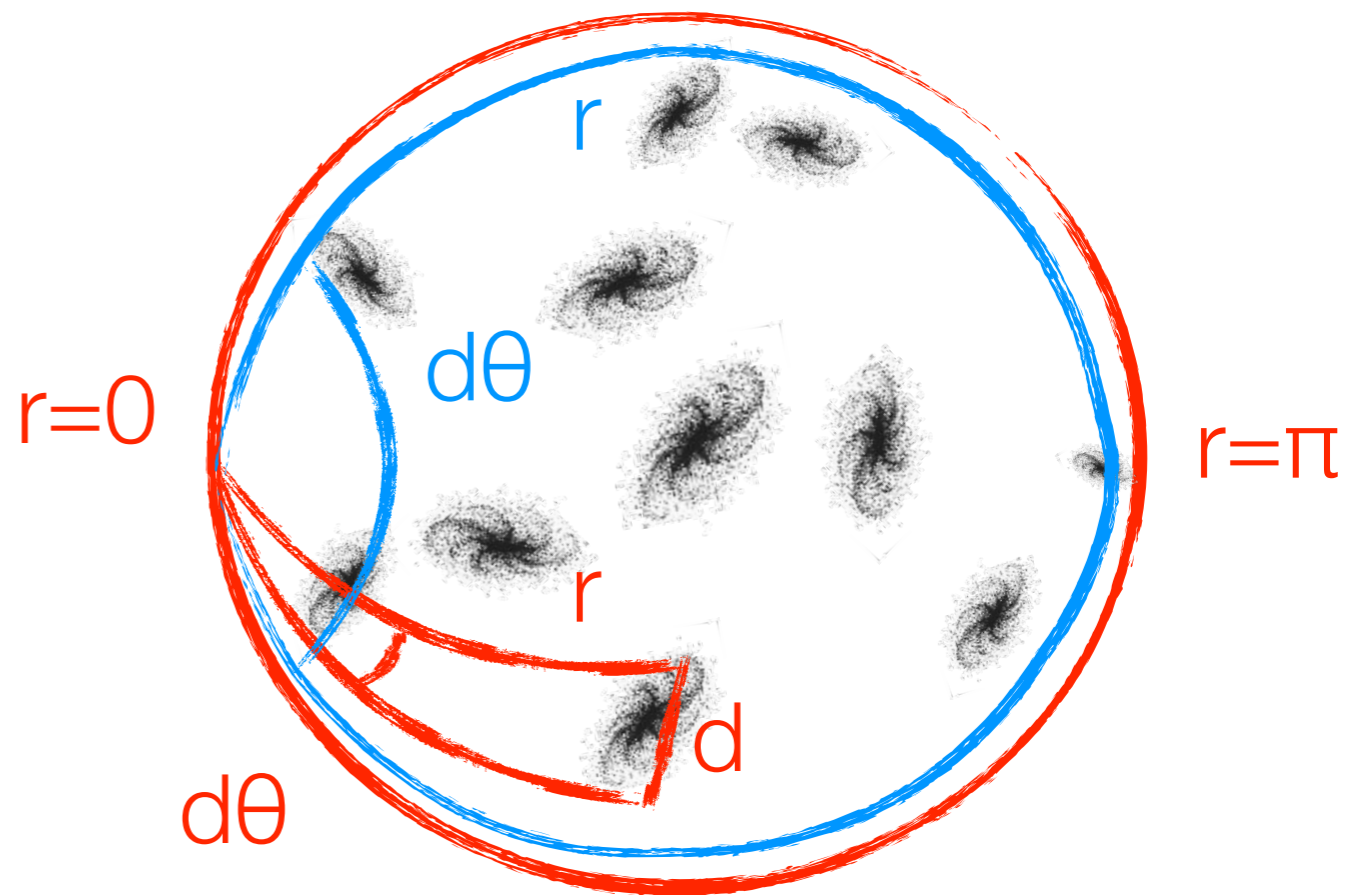


Angular diameter - spherical geometry

- In curved 2-D space we have $ds^2 = \sin^2 r d\theta^2 = d^2$

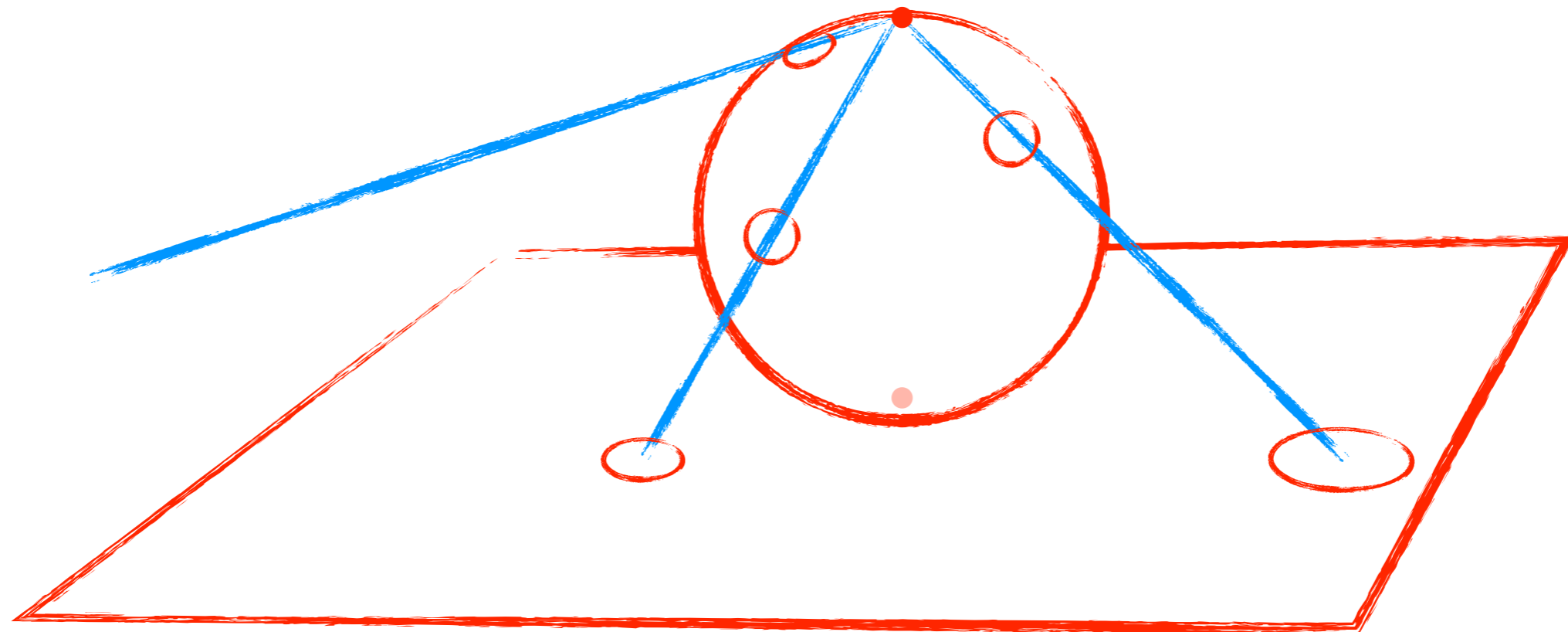
- So $d\theta = \frac{d}{\sin r}$

- Since $\sin r \leq r$, the angle is larger than in the flat case.
- More distant galaxies will of course be dimmer (further away) but would ***appear larger than closer ones***.
- Could also count the number of galaxies as a function of r



Stereographic projection

- Every point on the sphere can be mapped to a point on the plane
- Just a way of representing it so that you can draw it on a plane (it distorts it)
- You can do the same thing for a 3-sphere (I can't draw it).

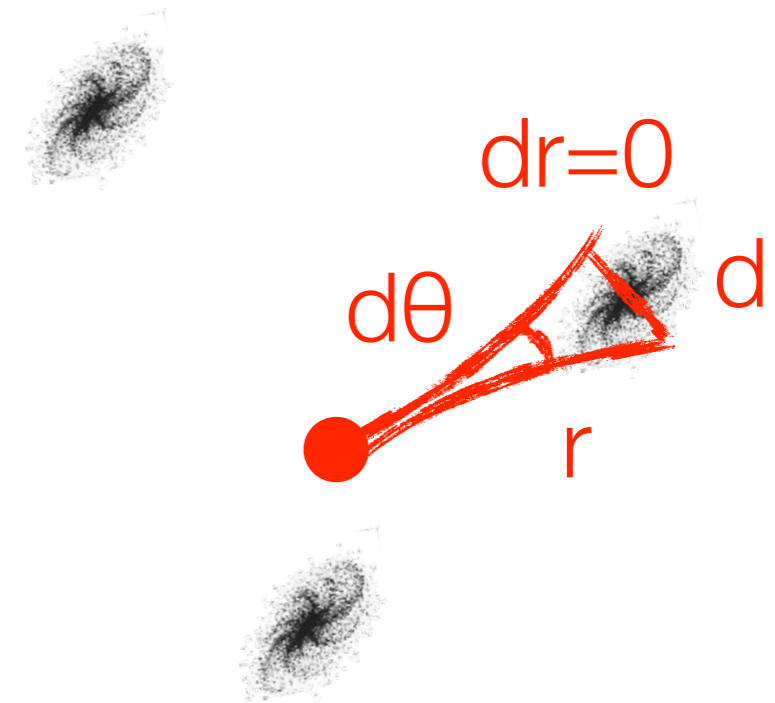


Hyperbolic space

- Harder to imagine than the sphere
- Instead of $d\Omega$ we use $d\mathcal{H}$ - so for 2-D space $d\mathcal{H}_2^2 = dr^2 + \sinh^2 r d\Omega$
- Compare $\sinh r = \frac{e^{ir} - e^{-ir}}{2i}$, $\sin r = \frac{e^r - e^{-r}}{2}$
- For very large r $\sinh r$ is dominated by e^r and grows exponentially but for $\sin r$ large r goes back to zero
- In hyperbolic space you still see circles around you in 2-D but the circles grow exponentially
- In 3-D you get $d\mathcal{H}_3^2 = dr^2 + \sinh^2 r d\Omega_2^2$

Hyperbolic space

- In hyperbolic 2-D space we have $ds^2 = \sinh^2 r d\theta^2 = d^2$
- and therefore $\theta = \frac{d}{\sinh r}$
- For large r we find that $\theta \approx \frac{2d}{e^r}$
- So the angle shrinks fast and the number of galaxies grows fast
- You would notice that distant galaxies look too small and there would be very many of them.



Hyperbolic projection

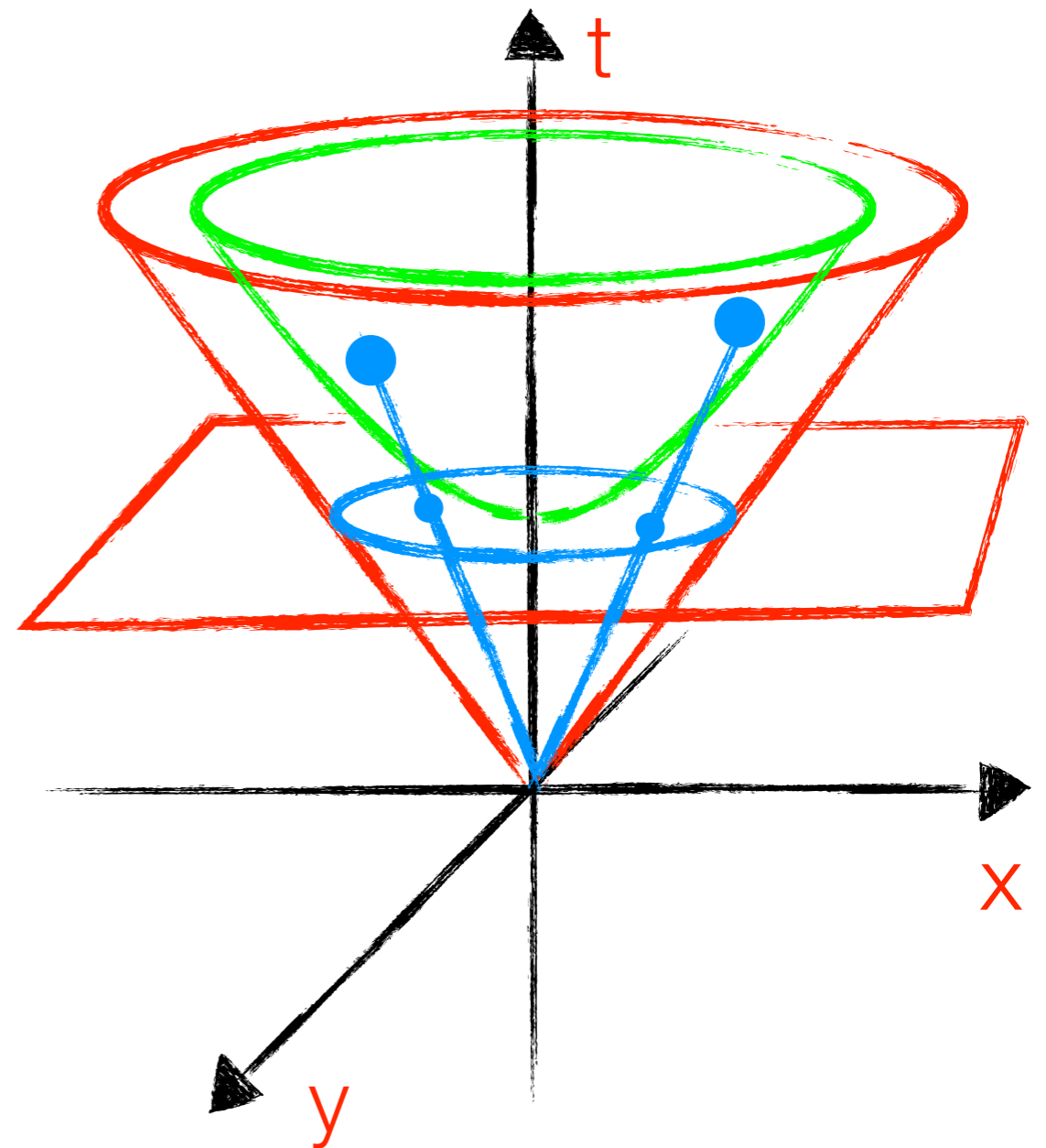
- An embedded 2-sphere can be written as

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$$

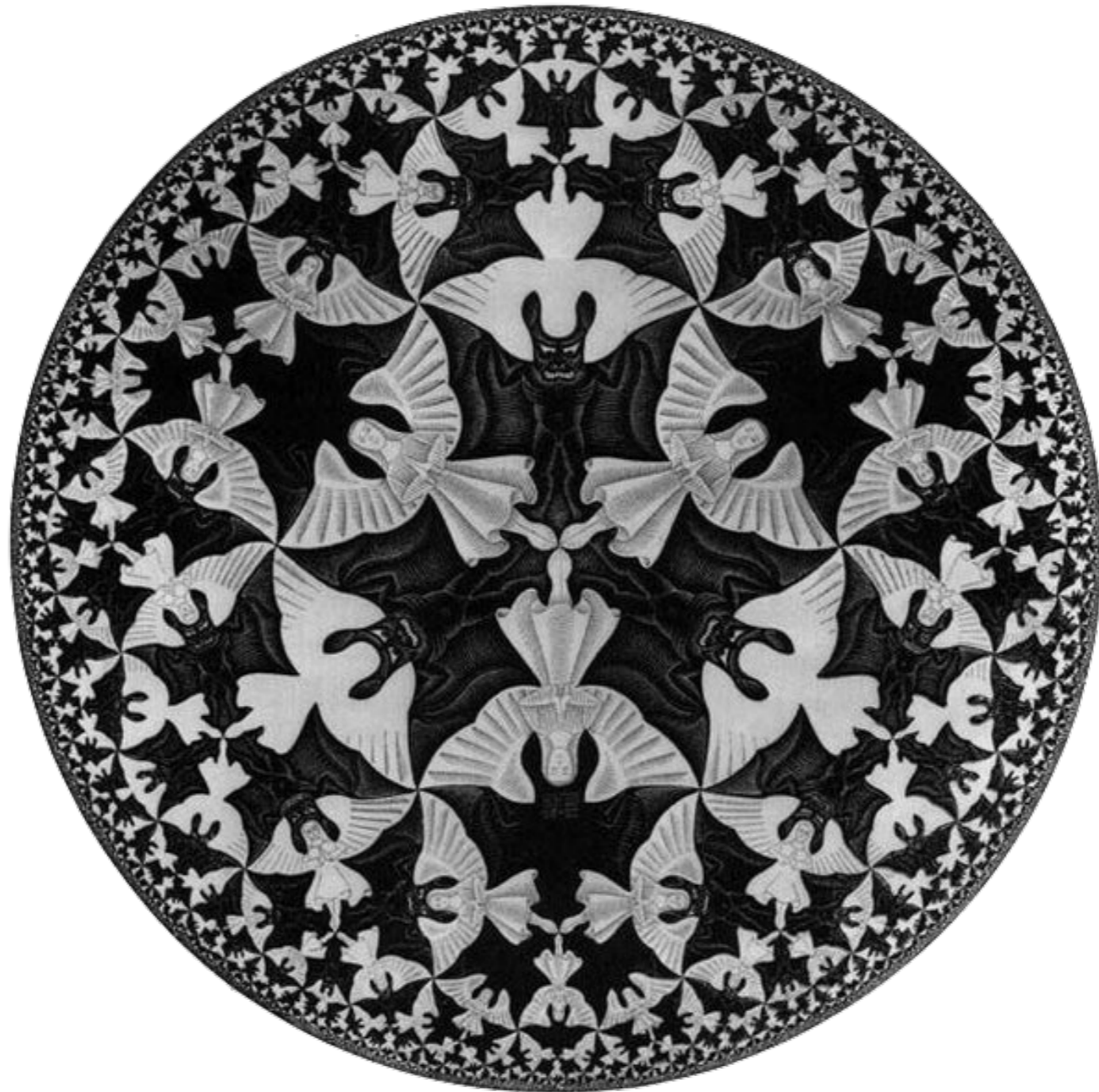
- For a 2-D hyperbolic space the equivalent is (t is a dummy coordinate - defines a hyperboloid)

$$t^2 - x^2 - y^2 = 1$$

- Doesn't look like every point is equivalent on the hyperboloid but it is
- Lots of distortion in this projection
- Just as a sphere has a radius so does the hyperboloid



Hyperbolic projection



Metrics with the scale factor

- The metric of an ordinary sphere of radius a is

$$ds^2 = a^2 (dr^2 + \sin^2 r d\Omega_1^2)$$

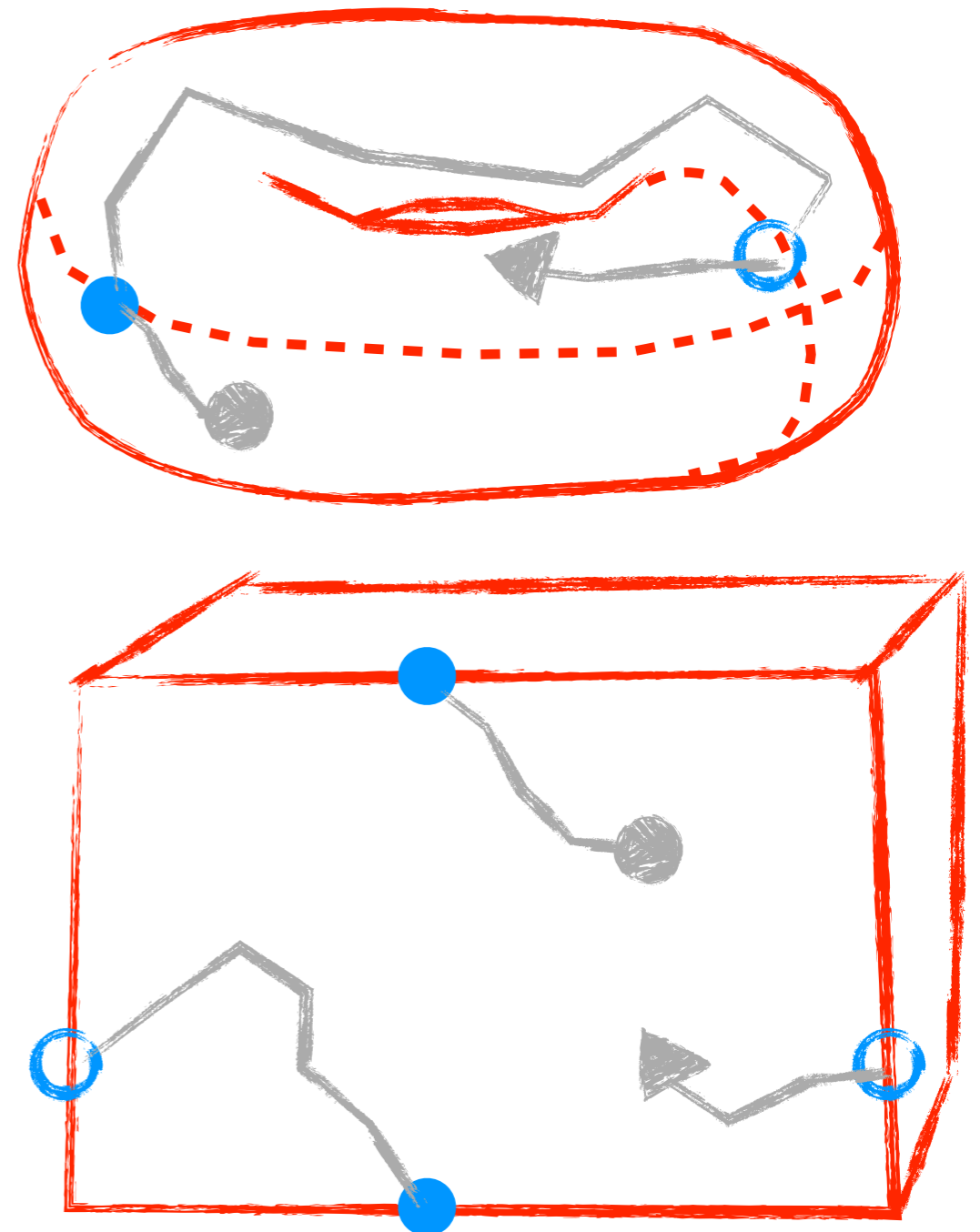
- Same thing for the hyperbolic geometry

$$ds^2 = a^2 (dr^2 + \sinh^2 r d\mathcal{H}_1^2)$$

- It is assumed that we live in either the flat, +ve, or -ve curved universe.
- It currently looks flat out to distances that we can detect - the nearby distances are small compared to the radius of curvature.

Toroidal geometry

- Flat but periodic and homogeneous
- You would be able to see yourself in different directions
- As long as it was big enough then we might mistake it for infinite flat space
- Can do this in 3-D (maybe like portal?)
- A 1-D torus is a circle (1-sphere, Ω_1)



Space-time

- In ordinary flat Minkowski space (special relativity)

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$$

- A photon travels on a null geodesic so $ds^2 = 0$ and $dx = \pm dt$ along the x-axis
- We'll keep time as it is and substitute one of our geometries into the spatial part - also include the scale factor $a(t)$
- For the 2-sphere $ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t)d\Omega_2^2$
- the same for a 3-D universe (change Ω_2 to Ω_3)

Space-time

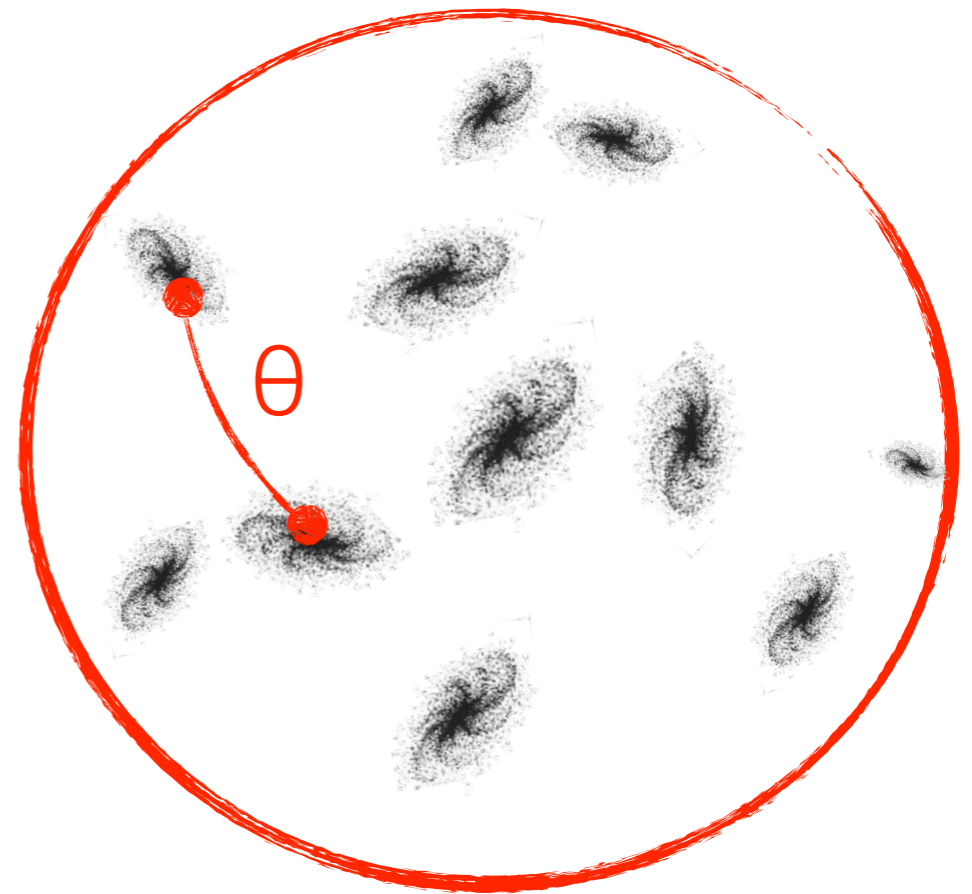
- If our metric is $ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t)d\theta^2$
- What's the distance and relative velocity between 2 galaxies separated by θ ?

$$d = a\theta, \quad \dot{d} = \dot{a}\theta$$

- Then again get the Hubble law

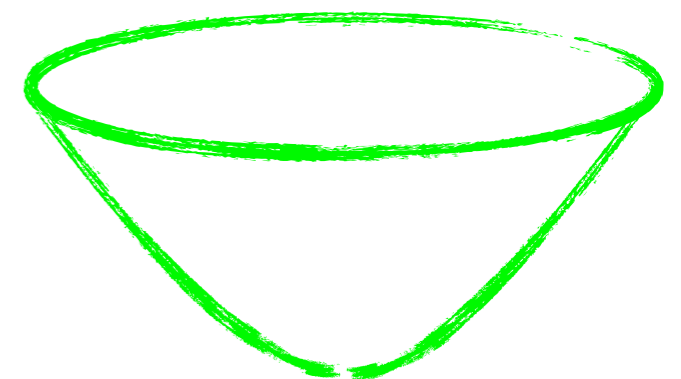
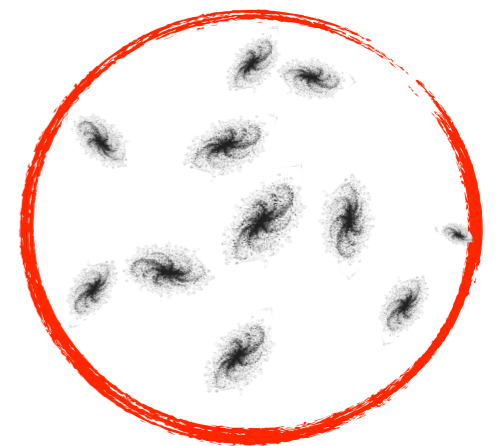
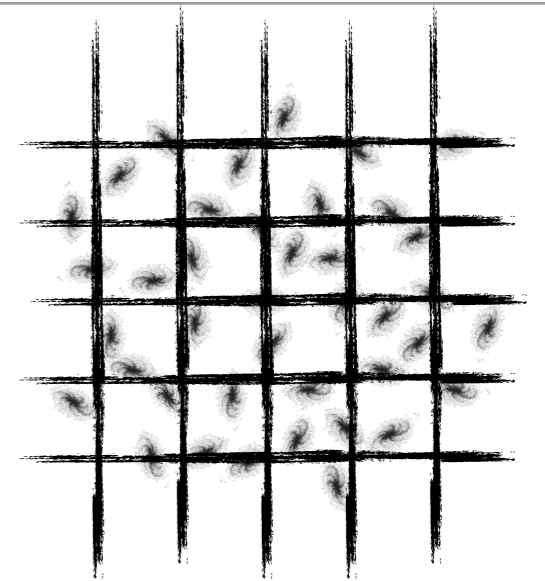
$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{\dot{d}}{d}$$

- Just the same as before (and true for all geometries)



The 3 cases

- Flat $ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) (dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$
- Spherical $ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) d\Omega_3^2$
- Hyperbolic $ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) d\mathcal{H}_3^2$
- All satisfy Hubble's law
- Next stage is to use GR to generate equations of motion for $a(t)$ - the same equations for the Newtonian 3 energy cases.



Thanks for your attention