Lecture 16: Cosmological Models

- Hubble’s law and redshift in the new picture
- Standard cosmological models - 3 cases
- Hubble time and other terminology
- The Friedmann equation
- The Critical Density and $\Omega$

Reading for lectures 15 & 16: Chapter 11

4/8/14

Next Homework HW 4 Due April 15 2014

There is a very nice new web page about the 'Big Questions' take a look at http://www.worldscienceu.com/
THE DYNAMICS OF THE UNIVERSE
- EINSTEIN’S MODEL

Back to Einstein’s equations of GR

\[ G = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T \]

“G” describes the space-time curvature (including its dependence with time) of Universe... here’s where we plug in the FRW geometries.

“T” describes the matter content of the Universe. Here’s where we tell the equations that the Universe is homogeneous and isotropic.

G and T are tensors

Einstein plugged the three homogeneous/isotropic cases of the FRW metric formula into his equations of GR to see what would happen...

Einstein found...

- That, for a static universe \((R(t)=\text{constant})\), only the spherical case worked as a solution to his equations
- If the sphere started off static, it would rapidly start collapsing (since gravity attracts)
- The only way to prevent collapse was for the universe to start off expanding... there would then be a phase of expansion followed by a phase of collapse
A bit of scientific sociology

✦ So... Einstein could have used this to predict that the universe must be either expanding or contracting!
✦ ... but this was before Hubble discovered that the universe is expanding (more soon!)- everybody thought that universe was static (neither expanding nor contracting).

✦ So instead, Einstein modified his GR equations!
  ✦ Essentially added a repulsive component of gravity
  ✦ New term called “Cosmological Constant,” Λ
  ✦ Could make his spherical universe remain static
  ✦ BUT, it was unstable... a fine balance of opposing forces. Slightest push could make it expand violently or collapse horribly (like balancing a pencil on its point)

A stroke of genius?

✦ Soon after, Hubble discovered that the universe was expanding!
✦ Einstein called the Cosmological Constant “Greatest Blunder of My Life”!
✦ ....but very recent work suggests that he may have been right (more later!)
What determines whether a Universe is open or closed? (In a closed universe gravity eventually stops the expansion of the universe, after which it starts to contract)

For a closed Universe, the total energy density (mass+energy)* in the Universe has to be greater than the value that gives a flat Universe, called the critical density

* excludes vacuum energy from cosmological constant

The 3 Possibilities in a $\Lambda=0$ Universe -

- Relationship of total mass to curvature

+ If space has negative curvature, there is insufficient mass to cause the expansion of the universe to stop- the universe has no bounds, and will expand forever- an open universe (k=-1).

+ If space is flat, there is exactly enough mass to cause the expansion to stop, but only after an infinite amount of time- the universe has no bounds and will also expand forever, but the rate of expansion will gradually approach zero after an infinite amount of time. This "flat universe" is called a Euclidian universe (high school geometry)(k=0)

Historical solutions without a cosmological constant
If space has positive curvature, there is enough mass to stop the expansion of the universe. The universe in this case is not infinite, but it has no end (just as the area on the surface of a sphere is not infinite but there is no point on the sphere that could be called the "end"). The expansion will eventually stop and turn into a contraction.

Thus, at some point in the future the galaxies will stop receding from each other and begin approaching each other as the universe collapses on itself. This is called a closed universe \((k=+1)\).

http://www.physicsoftheuniverse.com/topics_bigbang_bigcrunch.html

Continue reading ch 11

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**Standard cosmological models**

- Let’s return to question of how scale factor changes over time
  - Equations of GR relates geometry to dynamics (where and how much mass is there in the universe)
  - That means curvature can change with time
  - It turns out that there are three general possibilities for the geometry of the universe and how the scale factor changes with time.

4/8/14
**Recap**

- Whether case with $k=-1,0, or 1$ applies depends on the ratio of the actual density to the “critical” density, $\Omega$.
- Properties of standard model solutions:
  - $k=-1, \Omega<1$ expands forever
  - $k=0, \Omega=1$ “just barely” expands forever
  - $k=+1, \Omega>1$ expands to a maximum radius and then recollapses

**Curvature of Universe**

- 3 types of general shapes: flat surface at the left :zero curvature, the spherical surface : positive curvature, and the saddle-shaped surface : negative curvature.
- Each of these possibilities is tied to the amount of mass (and thus to the total strength of gravitation) in the universe, and each implies a different past and future for the universe and how the scale factor changes with time.
Important features of standard models...

- All models begin with $R(t) = 0$ at a finite time in the past.
  - This time is known as the BIG BANG.
  - Space and time come into existence at this moment... there is no time before the big bang!
  - The big bang happens everywhere in space... not at a point!
  - Unfortunately our understanding of physics breaks down at very small scales (Planck scale - $1.6 \times 10^{-35}$ m) at which quantum effects of gravity become strong - corresponds to a very short time $\sim 10^{-43}$ sec after the Big Bang.

Terminology

- **Hubble distance**, $D = ct_H$ (distance that light travels in a Hubble time). This gives an approximate idea of the size of the observable Universe.

- **Age of the Universe**, $t_{\text{age}}$ (the amount of cosmic time since the big bang). In standard models, this is always less than the Hubble time.

- **Look-back time**, $t_{\text{lb}}$ (amount of cosmic time that passes between the emission of light by a certain galaxy and the observation of that light by us).

- **Particle horizon** (a sphere centered on the Earth with radius $ct_{\text{age}}$; i.e., the sphere defined by the distance that light can travel since the big bang). This gives the edge of the actual observable Universe - think back to your Minkowski diagrams.
Hubble time

We can relate this to observations...

+ Once the Hubble parameter has been determined accurately from observations, it gives very useful information about age and size of the expanding Universe...

+ Hubble parameter is ratio of rate of change of size of Universe to size of Universe:

\[ H = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\Delta R}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{dt} \]

+ If Universe were expanding at a constant rate, we would have \( \frac{\Delta R}{\Delta t} = \text{constant} \) and \( R(t) = t \times (\frac{\Delta R}{\Delta t}) \); then would have \( H = (\frac{\Delta R}{\Delta t})/R = 1/t \)

+ \( t_H = 1/H \) would be age of Universe since Big Bang

Hubble time for nonconstant expansion rate

+ Hubble time is \( t_H = 1/H = R/(dR/dt) \)

+ Since rate of expansion varies, \( t_H = 1/H \) gives an estimate of the age of the Universe

+ This tends to overestimate the age of the Universe, since the Big Bang, compared to the actual age
There is a connection between the geometry and the dynamics

- Closed solutions for universe expand to maximum size then re-collapse
- Open solutions for universe expand forever
- Flat solution for universe expands forever (but only just barely... almost grinds to a halt).

The Friedman equation (or “let’s get a bit technical! - pgs 320-325 in text )

When we go through the GR stuff, we get the Friedman Equation... this is what determines the dynamics (the motion of bodies under the action of forces) of the Universe

\[
\left( \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho R^2 - kc^2
\]

- “k” is the curvature constant...
  - k=+1 for spherical case
  - k=0 for flat case
  - k=-1 for hyperbolic (saddle) case
- \(\rho\) is the density of matter (on average) in the universe- changes with time as the universe expands (matter+energy is not created or destroyed, conservation of energy so as universe gets bigger, \(\rho\) gets smaller)
The Friedman equation - Details

\[ \left( \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho R^2 - k c^2 \]

+ What are the terms involved?
  + \( G \) is Newton’s universal constant of gravitation
  + \( \frac{dR}{dt} \) is the rate of change of the cosmic scale factor
    This is same as \( \Delta R/\Delta t \) for small changes in time
    In textbook, symbol for \( \frac{dR}{dt} \) is \( \dot{R} \) (pronounced “R-dot”)
  + \( \rho \) is the total energy density \( +c^2 \); this equals mass/volume for “matter-dominated” Universe
  + \( k \) is the geometric curvature constant (= +1,0,-1)

+ left hand side- (see eq 11.3,11.4 in text) \((dR/dt)^2\) corresponds to \( \Delta r/\Delta t \) (\( v \) velocity) squared ; if we think Newtonian for a moment this can be related to energy= \( 1/2mv^2 \)
The Friedman Eq - cont

- The text uses the analogy of an 'escape' velocity for the expanding universe.
- That is: I can throw a ball off the earth that can escape to infinity, fall back to earth, or just barely escape.
- One can also think in terms of the amount of energy required to get to this velocity.
- In Newtonian physics, one can calculate all this more or less exactly and using the Friedman 'R' one gets:
  \[(dR/dt)^2 = (4/3\pi)G\rho R\]
  where \(\rho\) is the mass-energy density and
  \[(dR/dt)^2 = (8/3\pi)G\rho R^2 + \text{energy}\]
- This 2nd equation is the analogy to the Friedman eq.

Obtaining Friedmann eq. for mass-only Universe from Newtonian theory

- Consider spherical piece of the Universe large enough to contain many galaxies, but much smaller than the Hubble radius (distance light travels in a Hubble time).
- Radius is \(r\) density is \(\rho\). Mass is \(M(r) = 4\pi r^3 \rho / 3\).
- Consider particle \(m\) at edge of this sphere; it feels gravitational force from interior of sphere (using Newton's eq)
  \(F = -GM(r)m/r^2\)
- Suppose outer edge, including \(m\), is expanding at a speed \(v(r) = \Delta r / \Delta t = dr/dt\)
- Then, from Newton's 2nd law, rate of change of \(v\) is the acceleration \(a = \Delta v / \Delta t = dv/dt\), with \(F = ma\), yielding
  \(a = F/m = -GM(r)/r^2 = -4\pi Gr\rho / 3\)
- Using calculus, one gets
  \(v^2 = 8\pi G\rho r^2 / 3 + \text{constant}\)
Then if we identify the “constant” (which is twice the Newtonian energy) with $-kc^2$, and reinterpret $r$ as $R$, the cosmic scale factor, we have Friedmann’s equation!

$$\left(\frac{dR}{dt}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho R^2 - kc^2$$

Divide the Friedman equation by $R^2$ and we get...

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho - \frac{kc^2}{R^2}$$

How did I get that??

H=Hubble’s constant-Hubble law $v=Hd$ ($v =$ velocity, $d =$ distance of the object)

$v=\Delta d/\Delta t$ (we substitute the scale factor $R$ for $d$)

$H= v/d=(dR/dt)/R$ - so $=(dR/dt)^2=(H*R)^2$

Now divide by $R^2$
\[
\left( \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho R^2 - kc^2
\]

★ Divide the Friedman equation by \( R^2 \) and we get...

\[
H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho - \frac{kc^2}{R^2}
\]

★ Let’s examine this equation...
★ \( H^2 \) must be positive... so the RHS of this equation must also be positive.
★ Suppose density is zero \( (\rho=0) \)- empty universe
   ★ Then, we must have negative \( k \) (i.e., \( k=-1 \))
   ★ So, empty universes are open and expand forever
★ Flat and spherical Universes can only occur in presence of (enough) matter.

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**Critical Density**

★ Now, suppose the Universe is flat \( (k=0) \)
★ Friedmann equation then gives

\[
H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho
\]

★ It turns out that if the universe is exactly flat if the density, \( \rho \), is exactly equal to the **critical density**... (good at all times— but \( H \) is a function of \( t \))

\[
\rho \approx \rho_{\text{crit}} \approx \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}
\]
Value of critical density

For present best-observed value of the Hubble constant, $H_0=72$ km/s/Mpc, the critical density, $\rho_{\text{critical}} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G}$, is equal to $\rho_{\text{critical}} = 10^{-26}$ kg/m$^3$; i.e. 6 H atoms/m$^3$ averaged over the whole universe today.

Compare to:
- $\rho_{\text{water}} = 1000$ kg/m$^3$
- $\rho_{\text{air}} = 1.25$ kg/m$^3$ (at sea level)
- $\rho_{\text{interstellar gas}} = 2 \times 10^{-21}$ kg/m$^3$ (in our galaxy)

In general case, we can define the density parameter, $\Omega$, as

$$\Omega = \frac{\rho}{\rho_c}$$

Can now rewrite Friedmann’s equation yet again using this... we get

$$\Omega = 1 + \frac{kc^2}{H^2R^2}$$
**Omega in standard models**

\[ \Omega = 1 + \frac{k c^2}{H^2 R^2} \]

- Thus, within context of the standard model:
  - \(\Omega < 1\) if \(k = -1\); then universe is hyperbolic and will expand forever
  - \(\Omega = 1\) if \(k = 0\); then universe is flat and will (just manage to) expand forever
  - \(\Omega > 1\) if \(k = +1\); then universe is spherical and will recollapse

- Physical interpretation:
  If there is more than a certain amount of matter in the universe \((\rho > \rho_{\text{critical}})\), the attractive nature of gravity will ensure that the Universe recollapses—eventually!

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**Recap**

- The **Friedmann equation** is obtained by plugging each of the possible FRW metric cases into Einstein’s GR equation
  - Result is an equation saying how the cosmic scale factor \(R(t)\) must change in time:
    \[
    \left( \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 = H^2 R^2 = \frac{8 \pi G}{3} \rho R^2 - k c^2
    \]

- The Friedmann equation can also be written as:
  \[ \Omega = 1 + \frac{k c^2}{H^2 R^2} \]
  - where
  \[ \Omega \equiv \frac{\rho}{\rho_{\text{crit}}} \equiv \frac{\rho}{(3H^2 / 8 \pi G)} \]
(ok... my brain hurts... what do I need to remember from the past 4 slides???)

* Important take-home message... within context of the “standard model”:
  * $\Omega<1$ means universe is hyperbolic and will expand forever
  * $\Omega=1$ means universe is flat and will (just manage to) expand forever
  * $\Omega>1$ means universe is spherical and will recollapse
  * Physical interpretation... if there is more than a certain amount of matter in the universe, the attractive nature of gravity will ensure that the Universe recollapses.

### III : SOME USEFUL DEFINITIONS

* Have already come across...
  * **Standard model** (Homogeneous & Isotropic GR-based models, *ignoring Dark Energy*!!)
  * **Critical density** $\rho_c$ (average density needed to just make the Universe flat)
  * **Density parameter** $\Omega=\rho/\rho_c$

* We will also define...
  * **Cosmic time** (time as measured by a clock which is stationary in co-moving coordinates, i.e., stationary with respect to the expanding Universe)
+ **Hubble distance**, $D = ct_H$ (distance that light travels in a Hubble time). This gives an approximate idea of the size of the observable Universe.

+ **Age of the Universe**, $t_{\text{age}}$ (the amount of cosmic time since the big bang). In standard models, this is always less than the Hubble time.

+ **Look-back time**, $t_{\text{lb}}$ (amount of cosmic time that passes between the emission of light by a certain galaxy and the observation of that light by us)

+ **Particle horizon** (a sphere centered on the Earth with radius $ct_{\text{age}}$; i.e., the sphere defined by the distance that light can travel since the big bang). This gives the edge of the actual observable Universe.

**IV: WHERE HAS RELATIVITY GONE?**

+ **Question**: Cosmology is based upon General Relativity, a theory that treats space and time as relative quantities. So, how can we talk about concepts such as...

  + Galaxies being stationary with respect to the expanding Universe? Relativity tells us that there is no such thing as being stationary!
  
  + The age of the Universe? Surely doesn’t time depend upon the observer?

+ What do you think??
Cosmological Models II

- Deceleration parameter
- Beyond standard cosmological models
  - The Friedman equation with $\Lambda$
  - Effects of nonzero $\Lambda$
- Solutions for special cases
  - de Sitter solution
  - Static model
  - Steady state model

The deceleration parameter, $q$

- The deceleration parameter measures how quickly the universe is decelerating (or accelerating), i.e. how much $R(t)$ graph curves
- In standard models, deceleration occurs because the gravity of matter slows the rate of expansion

- For those comfortable with calculus, actual definition of $q$ is:
  $$q = -\frac{1}{RH^2}\frac{d^2R}{dt^2}$$
- In the textbook, $d^2R/dt^2$ is written as $\ddot{R}$, pronounced “$R$ double-dot”
**Matter-only standard model**

- In standard models where density $\rho$ is entirely from the rest mass energy of matter, it turns out that the value of the deceleration parameter is given by

$$q = \frac{\Omega}{2}$$

- We can attempt to measure $\Omega$ in two ways:
  - Direct measurement of how much mass is in the Universe -- i.e. measure mass density $\rho$, measure Hubble parameter $H$, and then compare $\rho$ to the critical value $\rho_{\text{crit}} = 3H^2/(8\pi G)$
  - Use measurement of deceleration parameter, $q$, by measuring how much $R(t)$ curves with time (distance from us)
  - Measurement of $q$ is analogous to measurement of Hubble parameter, by observing change in expansion rate as a function of time: need to look at how $H$ changes with redshift for distant galaxies

**Direct observation of $q$**

- Deceleration shows up as a deviation from Hubble’s law...

- A very subtle effect - have to detect deviations from Hubble’s law for objects with a large redshift
Newtonian interpretation is therefore:

- $k=-1$ is “positive energy” universe (which is why it expands forever)
- $k=+1$ is “negative energy” universe (which is why it recollapses at finite time)
- $k=0$ is “zero energy” universe (which is why it expands forever but slowly grinds to a halt at infinite time)

Analogies in terms of throwing a ball in the air...

Expansion rates

- For flat ($k=0$, $\Omega=1$), matter-dominated universe, it turns out there is a simple solution to how $R$ varies with $t$:

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

- This is known as the Einstein-de Sitter solution
- For this solution,
  $$V = \frac{\Delta R}{\Delta t} = (2/3)(R(t_0)/t_0)(t/t_0)^{-1/3}$$
- How does this behave for large time? What is $H=V/R$?
- In solutions with $\Omega>1$, expansion is slower (followed by recollapse)
- In solutions with $\Omega<1$, expansion is faster
Open, flat, and closed solutions result for different values of $\Omega$.

**Modified Einstein’s equation**

- But Einstein’s equations most generally also can include an extra constant term; i.e. in

$$G = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T$$

the $T$ term has an additional term which just depends on space-time geometry times a constant factor, $\Lambda$.

- This constant $\Lambda$ (Greek letter “Lambda”) is known as the “cosmological constant”;

- $\Lambda$ corresponds to a “vacuum energy”, i.e. an energy not associated with either matter or radiation.

- $\Lambda$ could be positive or negative:
  - Positive $\Lambda$ would act as a *repulsive force* which tends to make Universe expand faster
  - Negative $\Lambda$ would act as an *attractive force* which tends to make Universe expand slower

- Energy terms in cosmology arising from positive $\Lambda$ are now often referred to as “dark energy”.

*We really do not know what this is or means.....*
**Modified Friedmann Equation**

+ When Einstein equation is modified to include $\Lambda$, the Friedmann equation governing evolution of $R(t)$ changes to become:

$$\left(\frac{dR}{dt}\right)^2 = H^2 R^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho R^2 + \frac{\Delta R^2}{3} - kc^2$$

+ Dividing by $(HR)^2$, we can consider the relative contributions of the various terms evaluated at the present time, $t_0$
+ The term from matter at $t_0$ has subscript “M”;
+ Two additional “$\Omega$” density parameter terms at $t_0$ are defined:

$$\Omega_M = \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_{crit}} = \frac{\rho_0}{(3H_0^2/8\pi G)} \quad \Omega_{\Lambda} = \frac{\Lambda}{3H_0^2} \quad \Omega_k = -\frac{kc^2}{R_0^2 H_0^2}$$

+ Altogether, at the present time, $t_0$, we have if the universe is flat

$$1 = \Omega_M + \Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_k$$

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**Generalized Friedmann Equation in terms of $\Omega$’s**

+ The generalized Friedmann equation governing evolution of $R(t)$ is written in terms of the present $\Omega$’s (density parameter terms) as:

$$\dot{R}^2 = \left(\frac{dR}{dt}\right)^2 = H^2 R^2 = H_0^2 R_0^2 \left[ \Omega_M \left(\frac{R_0}{R}\right) + \Omega_{\Lambda} \left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^2 + \Omega_k \right]$$

+ The only terms in this equation that vary with time are the scale factor $R$ and its rate of change $dR/dt$
+ Once the constants $H_0$, $\Omega_M$, $\Omega_{\Lambda}$, $\Omega_k$ are measured empirically (using observations), then whole future of the Universe is determined by solving this equation!-A major activity of astronomers today
+ Solutions, however, are more complicated than when $\Lambda=0$ ...
**Effects of Λ**

- Deceleration parameter (observable) now depends on both matter content and Λ (will discuss more later)
- This changes the relation between evolution and geometry. Depending on value of Λ,
  - closed (k=+1) Universe *could* expand forever
  - flat (k=0) or hyperbolic (k=-1) Universe *could* recollapse

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**“asymptotic” behavior**

\[
\dot{R}^2 = \left(\frac{dR}{dt}\right)^2 = H^2 R^2 = H_0^2 R_0^2 \left[ \Omega_M \left(\frac{R_0}{R}\right)^2 + \Omega_\Lambda \left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^2 + \Omega_k \right]
\]

- Different terms in modified Friedmann equation are important at different times...
  - Early times ⇒ \( R \) is small
  - Late times ⇒ \( R \) is large
- When can curvature term be neglected?
- When can Λ term be neglected?
- When can matter term be neglected?
- How does \( R \) depend on \( t \) at early times in all solutions?
- How does \( R \) depend on \( t \) at late times in all solutions?
- What is the ultimate fate of the Universe if \( \Lambda \neq 0 \)?
Consequences of positive $\Lambda$

- Because $\Lambda$ term appears with positive power of $R$ in Friedmann equation, effects of $\Lambda$ increase with time if $R$ keeps increasing
- Positive $\Lambda$ can create accelerating expansion!
- Rich possibilities of expansion histories

\[
\dot{R}^2 = \left( \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 = H^2 R^2 = H_0^2 R_0^2 \left[ \Omega_M \left( \frac{R}{R_0} \right) + \Omega_\Lambda \left( \frac{R}{R_0} \right)^2 + \Omega_k \right]
\]

Other ideas

- Steady state universe?
  - Constant expansion rate
  - Matter constantly created
  - No Big Bang

- Ruled out by existing observations:
  - Distant galaxies (seen as they were light travel time in the past) differ from modern galaxies
  - Cosmic microwave background implies earlier state with uniform hot conditions (big bang)
  - Observed deceleration parameter differs from what would be required for steady model
Next lecture...

✦ The Early Universe
   ✦ Cosmic radiation and matter densities
   ✦ The hot big bang
   ✦ Fundamental particles and forces
   ✦ Stages of evolution in the early Universe

Special solutions

✦ "de Sitter" model:
   ✦ Case with $\Omega_k=0$ (flat space!), $\Omega_M=0$ (no matter!), and $\Lambda > 0$
   ✦ Then modified Friedmann equation reduces to

\[
\dot{R}^2 = H^2 R^2 = H_0^2 R_0^2 \Omega_\Lambda \left( \frac{R}{R_0} \right)^2 = \frac{R^2 \Lambda}{3}
\]

✦ Hubble parameter is constant:

\[
H = \frac{\dot{R}}{R} = \sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}}
\]

✦ Expansion is exponential:

\[
R = R_0 e^{H t / t_0}
\]
Special solutions

- Static model (Einstein’s)
  - Solution with $\Lambda = 4\pi G \rho$, $k = \Lambda R^2 / c^2$
  - No expansion: $H = 0$, $R = \text{constant}$
  - Closed (spherical)
  - Of historical interest only, since Universe is expanding!