

Lecture 35. 29. May 2018

It follows from Friedmann's equations that

$$\dot{\rho} + 3(\rho + p)\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = 0 \quad (10.51)$$

which may be written

$$(\rho a^3)^\cdot + p(a^3)^\cdot = 0 \quad (10.52)$$

Let $V = a^3$ be a comoving volume in the universe and $U = \rho V$ be the energy in the comoving volume. Then we may write

$$dU + pdV = 0 \quad (10.53)$$

This is the first law of thermodynamics for an adiabatic expansion. It follows that the universe expands adiabatically. The adiabatic equation can be written

$$\frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho + p} = -3\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \quad (10.54)$$

Assuming $p = w\rho$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\rho}{\rho} &= -3(1+w)\frac{da}{a} \\ \ln \frac{\rho}{\rho_0} &= \ln \left(\frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{-3(1+w)} \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\rho = \rho_0 \left(\frac{a}{a_0} \right)^{-3(1+w)} \quad (10.55)$$

This equation tells how the density of different types of matter depends on the expansion factor

$$\rho a^{3(1+w)} = \text{constant} \quad (10.56)$$

Special cases:

- dust: $w = 0$ gives $\rho_d a^3 = \text{constant}$
Thus, the mass in a comoving volume is constant.

- radiation: $w = \frac{1}{3}$ gives $\rho_r a^4 = \text{constant}$

Thus, the radiation energy density decreases faster than the case with dust when the universe is expanding. The energy in a comoving volume is decreasing because of the thermodynamic work on the surface. In a remote past, the density of radiation must have exceeded the density of dust:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{d0} a_0^3 &= \rho_d a^3 \\ \rho_{r0} a_0^4 &= \rho_r a^4 \\ \frac{\rho_r a^4}{\rho_d a^3} &= \frac{\rho_{r0} a_0^4}{\rho_{d0} a_0^3}\end{aligned}$$

The expansion factor when $\rho_r = \rho_d$:

$$a(t_1) = \frac{\rho_{r0}}{\rho_{d0}} a_0$$

- Lorentz-invariant vacuum: $w = -1$ gives $\rho_\Lambda = \text{constant}$.

The vacuum energy in a comoving volume is increasing $\propto a^3$.

10.4 Some cosmological models

10.4.1 Radiation dominated model

The energy-momentum tensor for radiation is trace free. According to the Einstein field equations the Einstein tensor must then be trace free:

$$\begin{aligned}a\ddot{a} + \dot{a}^2 + k &= 0 \\ (a\dot{a} + kt)' &= 0\end{aligned}\tag{10.57}$$

Integration gives

$$a\dot{a} + kt = B\tag{10.58}$$

Another integration gives

$$\frac{1}{2}a^2 + \frac{1}{2}kt^2 = Bt + C\tag{10.59}$$

The initial condition $a(0) = 0$ gives $C = 0$. Hence

$$a = \sqrt{2Bt - kt^2}\tag{10.60}$$

For $k = 0$ we have

$$a = \sqrt{2Bt}, \quad \dot{a} = \sqrt{\frac{B}{2t}} \quad (10.61)$$

The expansion velocity reaches infinity at $t = 0$, ($\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \dot{a} = \infty$)

10.4.2 Dust dominated model

From the first of the Friedmann equations we have

$$\dot{a}^2 + k = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho a^2 \quad (10.64)$$

We now introduce a time parameter η given by

$$\frac{dt}{d\eta} = a(\eta) \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} = \frac{1}{a} \frac{d}{d\eta} \quad (10.65)$$

So: $\dot{a} = \frac{da}{dt} = \frac{1}{a} \frac{da}{d\eta}$

We also introduce $A \equiv \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_0 a_0^3$. The first Friedmann equation then gives

$$a\dot{a}^2 + ka = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho a^3 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_0 a_0^3 = A \quad (10.66)$$

is the scale factor of the negatively curved, dust dominated universe model

$$a(\eta) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Omega_{m0}}{1 - \Omega_{m0}} (\cosh \eta - 1) \quad (10.75)$$

$$t(\eta) = \frac{\Omega_{m0}}{2H_0(1 - \Omega_{m0})^{3/2}} (\sinh \eta - \eta) \quad (10.76)$$

Integrating eg. (10.69) for $k = 0$ leads to an Einstein-deSitter universe

$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3} \quad (10.77)$$

Finally integrating eg. (10.69) for $k > 0$ gives, in a similar way as for $k < 0$

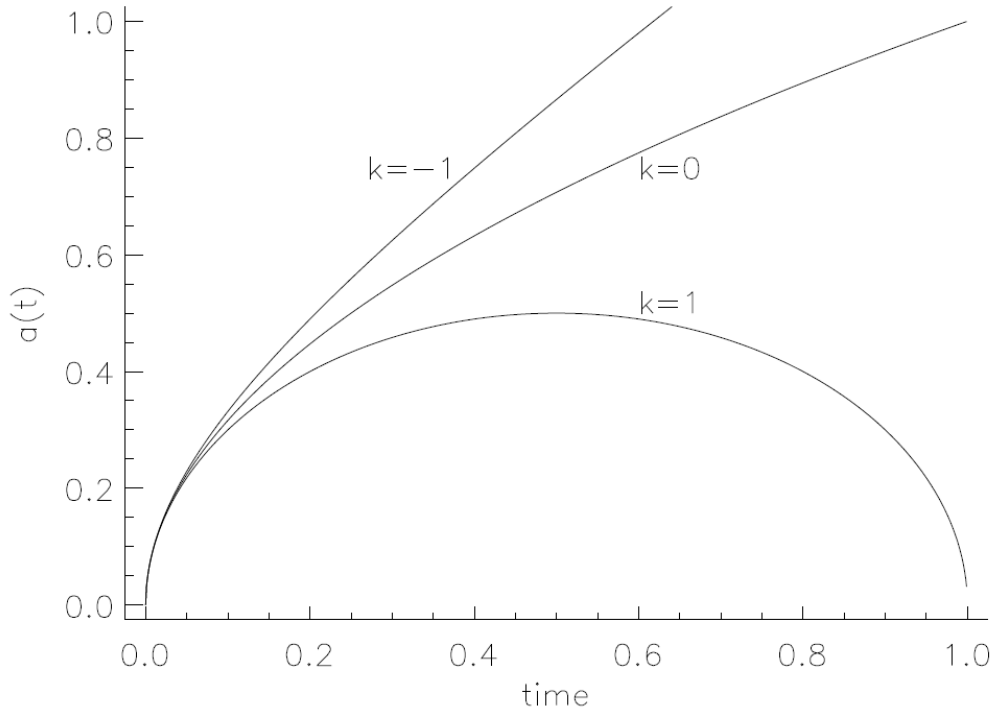
$$a(\eta) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Omega_{m0}}{1 - \Omega_{m0}} (1 - \cos \eta) \quad (10.78)$$

$$t(\eta) = \frac{\Omega_{m0}}{2H_0(\Omega_{m0} - 1)^{3/2}} (\eta - \sin \eta) \quad (10.79)$$

We see that this is a parametric representation of a cycloid.

In the Einstein-deSitter model the Hubble factor is

$$\boxed{H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{t}, \quad t = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{H} = \frac{2}{3} t_H} \quad (10.80)$$



We now consider a flat Friedmann-Lemaitre universe model with dust and a positive cosmological constant. Using that for dust $\rho a^3 = \rho_0$, Friedmann's 1. Equation then takes the form

$$a \dot{a}^2 = K + \frac{\Lambda}{3} a^3, \quad K = \frac{8\pi G \rho_0}{3}.$$

Introducing a new function y by $a^3 = y^2$ this equation can be written

$$\int \frac{dy}{\sqrt{K + (\Lambda/3)y^2}} = t.$$

Integrating with $a(t_0) = 1$ gives

$$a = A^{1/3} \sinh^{2/3} \left(\frac{t}{t_\Lambda} \right), \quad A = \frac{\Omega_{M0}}{\Omega_{\Lambda0}} = \frac{1 - \Omega_{\Lambda0}}{\Omega_{\Lambda0}}$$

Here

$$\Lambda = 8\pi G \rho_\Lambda = 3\Omega_{\Lambda0} H_0^2, \quad t_\Lambda = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3\Lambda}} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda0}}} \frac{1}{H_0}.$$

Inserting $\Omega_{\Lambda0} = 0.7$ and $H_0 = 20$ km/s per million light years gives $t_\Lambda \approx 12 \cdot 10^9$ years.

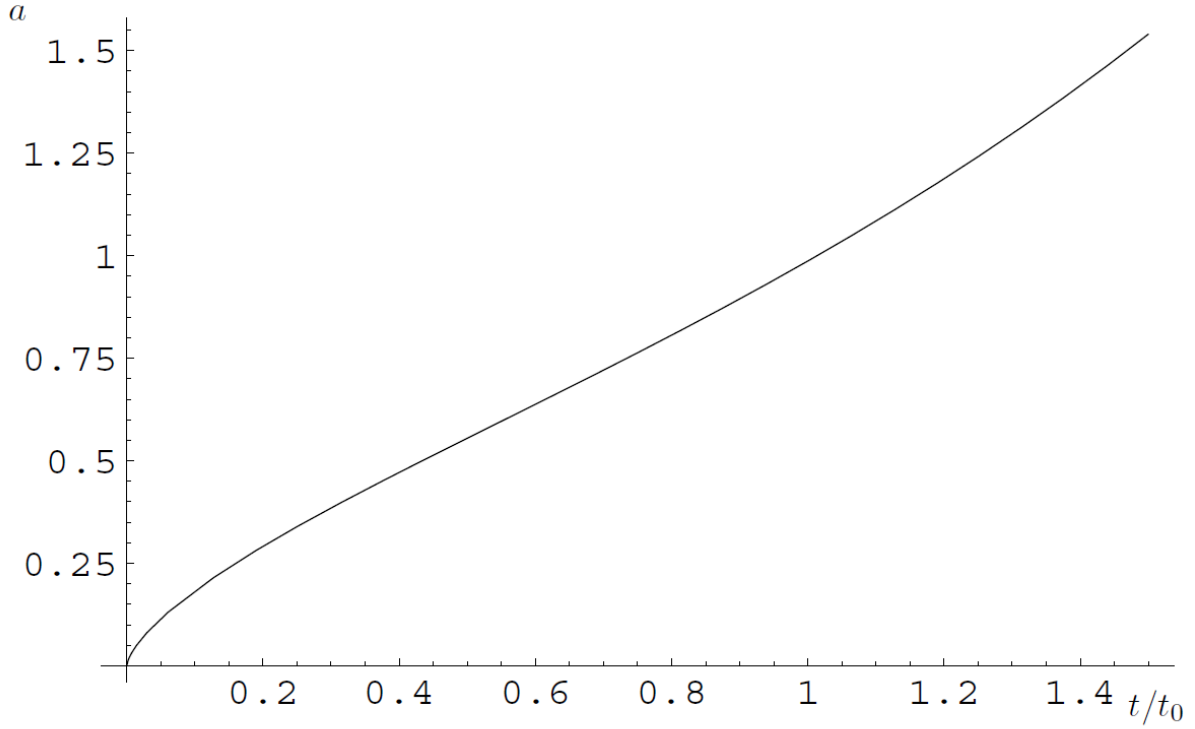


Figure 10.5: The expansion factor as function of cosmic time in units of the age of the universe.

The age t_0 of the universe is found from $a(t_0) = 1$, which by use of the formula $\operatorname{arctanh} x = \operatorname{arcsinh}(x/\sqrt{1-x^2})$, leads to the expression

$$t_0 = t_\Lambda \operatorname{arctanh} \sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda 0}} \quad (10.99)$$

The values above give $t_0 \approx 14.5 \cdot 10^9$ years.

A dimensionless quantity representing the rate of change of the cosmic expansion velocity is the deceleration parameter, which is defined as $q = -\ddot{a}/aH^2$. For the present universe model the deceleration parameter as a function of time is

$$q = \frac{1}{2}[1 - 3 \tanh^2(t/t_\Lambda)] \quad (10.103)$$

The transition from deceleration to acceleration happened when $q=0$ giving

$$t_1 = t_\Lambda \operatorname{arctanh}(1/\sqrt{3}) \quad (10.104)$$

or expressed in terms of the age of the universe

$$t_1 = \frac{\operatorname{arctanh}(1/\sqrt{3})}{\operatorname{arctanh} \sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda 0}}} t_0 \quad (10.105)$$

The corresponding cosmic red shift is

$$z(t_1) = \frac{a_0}{a(t_1)} - 1 = \left(\frac{2\Omega_{\Lambda 0}}{1 - \Omega_{\Lambda 0}} \right)^{1/3} - 1 \quad (10.106)$$

Inserting $\Omega_{\Lambda 0} = 0.7$ gives $t_1 = 0.54t_0$ and $z(t_1) = 0.67$.

For this universe model the emission time for light with redshift z is

$$t_e = t_0 \frac{\operatorname{arcsinh} \sqrt{\frac{\Omega_{\Lambda 0}}{(1 - \Omega_{\Lambda 0})(1 + z)^{3/2}}}}{\operatorname{arcsinh} \sqrt{\frac{\Omega_{\Lambda 0}}{(1 - \Omega_{\Lambda 0})}}}$$

Inserting $\Omega_{\Lambda 0} = 0.7$ and $t_0 = 13.7$ gives for emission time in billion years

$$t_e = 11.3 \operatorname{arcsinh} \frac{1.53}{(1 + z^{3/2})}$$