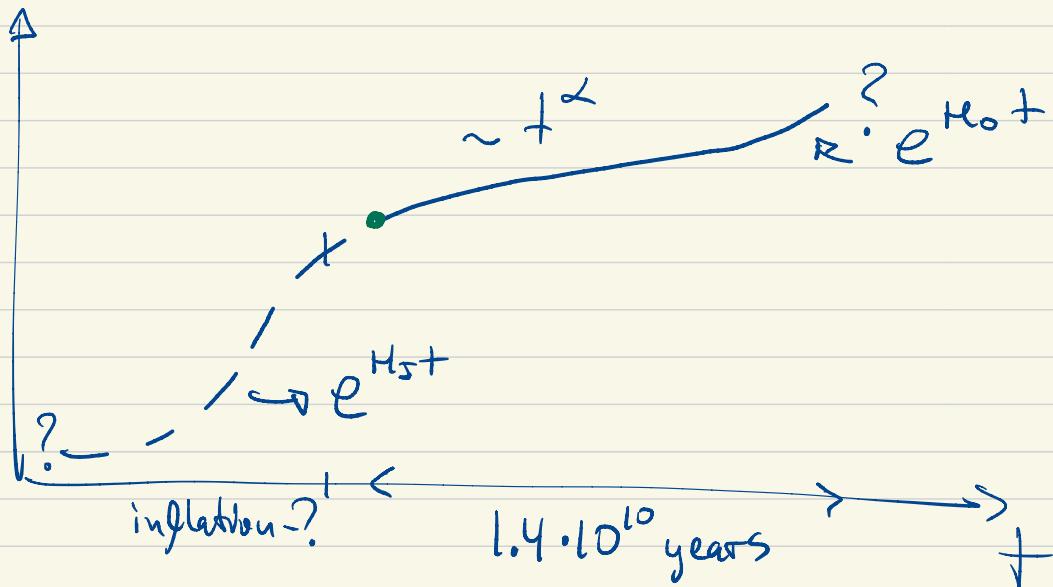


# Lecture 2

- Review
- Friedmann equations
- Solutions
  - Einstein static universe
  - Expanding solutions
  - de Sitter space

# Review of L. 1



$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) \left( \frac{d\bar{r}^2}{1-K\bar{r}^2} + \bar{r}^2 d\Omega^2 \right)$$

$$K = 1, 0, -1$$

closed      flat      open  
 $S^3$        $R^3$        $H^3$

\* covers half of sphere, take  $\bar{r} = \cos\theta$

- Embedding coordinates

# Friedmann Equations

- On large (observable) scales the universe is well-approximated by the FRW metric. In the first part of the course we will study this homogeneous approximation.
- Our next goal will be to determine the function  $a(t)$  from the Einstein equations.
- Let us remember them:

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G_N T_{\mu\nu},$$

where  $G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R$  is the Einstein tensor. Sometimes people single out cosmological constant

$$\text{From } T_{\mu\nu} : T_{\mu\nu} = T_{\mu\nu}^m + \Lambda \frac{1}{8\pi G_N} g_{\mu\nu}$$

Not standard notation

Now, we substitute PRW metric to determine geometric invariants.

[see Carroll 8.44  
for spherical  
coordinates]

$$\Gamma_{ij}^0 = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} g_{ij}$$

$$\Gamma_{\theta j}^i = \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} \delta_{\theta j}^i$$

$$\Gamma_{jk}^i = \frac{k}{a^2} g_{jk} x^i$$

[first three  
embedding  
coordinates]

Ricci tensor and scalar read:

$$R_{00} = -3 \frac{\ddot{a}}{a}$$

$$R_{ij} = \left( \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + 2 \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{2k}{a^2} \right) g_{ij}$$

$$R = 6 \left( \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} \right)$$

Now we need to determine the energy momentum tensor. Let us assume that it is a "perfect fluid" - only characterized by velocity  $u^\mu$

Then there are just two tensor structures:

$$T_{\mu\nu} = A u_\mu u_\nu + B g_{\mu\nu}$$

In the rest frame of the fluid, and in flat space we get

$$u^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$T^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & P \end{pmatrix}$$

So  $A - B = \rho$   $B = P \Rightarrow$

$$A = \rho + P$$

Next, the 00 component of Einstein equations read:

$$\frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} p$$

$ij$  component reads

$$2\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} - 1 = -\frac{8\pi G}{3} p$$

We have two equations and three unknown functions. We also need to relate  $p$  and  $\rho \rightarrow$  specify matter equation of state

Simple models of matter produce

$$\rho = \omega p$$

pressure-less dust:  $p=0, \omega=0$

relativistic matter (radiation)

$$\omega = \frac{1}{3}$$

$\Lambda$  (c.c.)  $\omega = -1$

$\omega \geq -1 \rightarrow$  "Null energy condition"

[we might discuss at some point]

Combining Friedmann equations we get

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

easy to see  $\ddot{a} \geq 0$

Computing  $\nabla_\mu T^{\mu\nu}$  we get

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f a^3) + P \frac{\partial a^3}{\partial t} = 0$$

This is the 1st law of thermodynamics

$$dE + P dV = 0$$

This is not an independent equation,  
it follows from Einstein equations.

Solutions of Friedmann eq's.

## 1. Einstein static Universe

(historically important, but in reality not so much). Einstein wanted a solution with

$$f \neq 0 \quad \dot{a} = 0 \quad (\text{and } \ddot{a} = 0)$$

the F. eqs reduce to:

$$\frac{k}{a^2} - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$$

$$\frac{k}{a^2} - 1 = 0$$

has a solution

$$a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}}, \quad k = 1, \quad \lambda = 4\pi G \rho$$

this is when the cosmological constant was first added to GR !

2. Flat matter dominated

$$\frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{8\pi G_n}{3} \rho$$

$$2\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} - 1 = -\frac{8\pi G_n}{3} \rho$$

$$1 \rightarrow 0 \quad k \rightarrow 0 \quad p \rightarrow 0$$

$$\frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{GP}{3}$$

$$pa^3 = C_1$$

$$\frac{2\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{GC_1}{a^3 \cdot 3} \Rightarrow \frac{da}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{GC_1}{3a}} \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow da\sqrt{a} = dt \sqrt{\frac{GC_1}{3}}$$

$$\frac{2}{3} a^{\frac{3}{2}} = (t - t_0) \sqrt{\frac{GC_1}{3}}$$

$$a = a_0 (t - t_0)^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

$$P \approx \frac{1}{t^2}, \dot{a} > 0, \ddot{a} < 0$$

## 2. General $\omega$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (P a^3) + P \frac{\partial a^3}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\dot{P} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} (P + \rho) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = -3(1+\omega) \frac{da}{a}$$

$$P = a^{-3(1+\omega)} \cdot C$$

$$\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = a^{-\frac{3(1+\omega)}{2}} \Rightarrow a = \text{const.} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{1+\omega}$$

[remember  $\omega \geq -1$ ]

$P = \frac{1}{t^2}$  [if there is another matter component,  $\omega = \omega_i$ ]

$P = t^{-2\left(\frac{1+\omega_i}{1+\omega}\right)}$  smaller  $\omega_i$  dominates at late times

Note that curvature is like matter with  $\rho < 0$  and  $\omega = -\frac{1}{3}$ .

## Cosmological Horizons

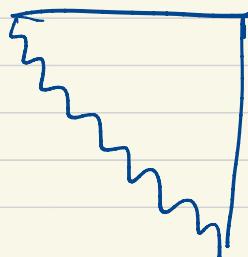
Penrose diagram is similar to flat space if we go to conformal time:

$$-dt^2 + a^2(t) d\vec{x}^2 \rightarrow \frac{-dy^2 + dx^2}{\Omega^2(y)}$$

$$dy = \frac{dt}{a} \quad \text{the question is,}$$

whether the integral converges at infinity.

$$\text{It does if } \omega < -\frac{1}{3}$$



# de Sitter space

$\omega = -1$  , or cosmological constant case .

$$p = \text{const} \quad , \quad a = e^{Ht}$$

$$H = \sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}} \text{ in our notation.}$$

In this case, however, there is no singularity at  $t = -\infty$  ( $R = \text{const}$ )

Global de Sitter can be obtained using closed slicing:

$$\frac{\ddot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} - \frac{1}{3} = 0 \quad a = \bar{H}^{-1} \cosh \bar{H}t$$

$$2 \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} - 1 = 0$$

$$H^2 = \frac{1}{3} \quad (\text{both equations})$$