

Redshift

→ Galaxies observed in the visible spectrum are red-shifted.

$$z \equiv \frac{\lambda_{ob} - \lambda_{em}}{\lambda_{em}} > 0 \leftarrow \text{redshift}$$

→ Hubble's law:

$$z = \frac{H_0}{c} r \rightarrow \text{distance from earth.}$$

H_0 → Hubble constant.

→ From observation,

$$H_0 = 68 \pm 2 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$$

⇒ The farther galaxies are moving farther away from us!!

But this doesn't mean we are the center of the universe.

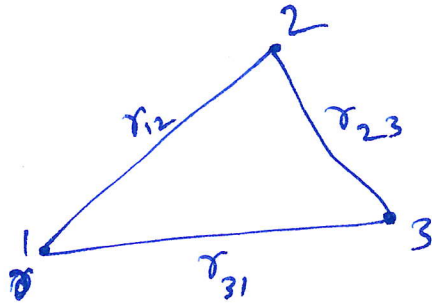
→ Homogeneity implies that an observer in the distant galaxy would observe the same.

→ Consider three galaxies at $\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \vec{r}_3$:

$$\gamma_{12} \equiv |\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|$$

$$\gamma_{23} \equiv |\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_3|$$

$$\gamma_{31} \equiv |\vec{r}_3 - \vec{r}_1|$$



→ For a homogeneous & isotropic expansion, all these galaxies must move uniformly i.e.

$$\gamma_{12}(t) = a(t) \gamma_{12}(t_0)$$

$$\gamma_{23}(t) = a(t) \gamma_{23}(t_0)$$

$$\gamma_{31}(t) = a(t) \gamma_{31}(t_0)$$

↳ Scale factor

→ We define the scale factor s.t. $a(t_0) = 1$
 ↳ present time.

⇒ W.r.t. the observer in galaxy 1:

$$v_{12}(t) = \frac{d\gamma_{12}}{dt} = \dot{a} \gamma_{12}(t_0) = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \cdot a \gamma_{12}(t_0)$$

$$\equiv H(t) a \gamma_{12}(t) = H(t) \gamma_{12}(t)$$

⇒ $v_{12}(t) = H(t) \gamma_{12}(t)$

where $H(t) \rightarrow$ Hubble parameter \sim Hubble constant at time t .

∴ At present time $t = t_0$:

$$v(t_0) = H(t_0) r(t_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{v = H_0 r}$$

→ Assuming that this v is constant (i.e. in absence of external forces),

$$t_0 = \frac{r}{v} = \frac{r}{H_0 r} = \frac{1}{H_0} \leftarrow \text{Hubble time.}$$

↓
Time since the galaxies were in causal contact.

* $t_0 \approx 14.38 \pm 0.42 \text{ Gyr.} \sim 14 \text{ billion yrs.}$

Big bang model of the universe.

~~→ The current "standard" model of universe -
ΛCDM →~~

Q Using our knowledge of general relativity, how to model such a homogeneous, isotropic expanding universe?

→ Friedmann - Lemaitre - Robertson - Walker metric (FLRW/FRW metric)

Recall: $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$ describes the geometry of spacetime.

Considering that the universe at large length-scales \leftrightarrow the ~~was~~ early universe is

(1) homogeneous \rightarrow diagonal elements.

(2) Isotropic

(3) Expanding \rightarrow scale factor $a(t)$

(4) May admit curvature. $\rightarrow S_k(r)$

\rightarrow FLRW metric: \textcircled{a}

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + (a(t))^2 [dr^2 + S_k(r)^2 d\Omega^2]$$

\uparrow
The metric describing the early universe!

where

$$d\Omega^2 \equiv d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2$$

$$S_k(r) = \begin{cases} R \sin(r/R), & k = +1 \\ r, & k = 0 \\ R \sinh(r/R), & k = -1 \end{cases}$$

→ In the natural units, ($c=1$):

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a(t)^2 [dr^2 + S_k^2 d\Omega^2]$$

$$= -a(t)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{dt}{a(t)}\right)^2 + a(t)^2 [\dots]$$

$$\equiv a^2 [-d\eta^2 + dr^2 + S_k^2 d\Omega^2]$$

~ Minkowski

co-moving
for scale
factor!

→ Here,

$$d\eta \equiv \frac{dt}{a(t)} \quad \leftarrow ??$$

Consider the null geodesic, i.e. the trajectory of light, assuming light travels along radial dir:

$$\Rightarrow ds^2 = 0 = -dt^2 + a^2 dr^2$$

$$\Rightarrow dr^2 = \left(\frac{dt}{a}\right)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow |dr| = \left|\frac{dt}{a}\right|$$

$$|dr| = \int \frac{dt}{a} \quad \leftarrow \text{distance travelled by light in time } dt.$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta \equiv \int_0^t \frac{dt}{a(t)} \quad \leftarrow \text{Comoving distance.} \quad \Downarrow \text{Conformal time.}$$

The FRW metric

$$ds^2 = a^2(t) \left[-c^2 \left(\frac{dt}{a} \right)^2 + dr^2 + S_k(r)^2 d\Omega^2 \right]$$

$$\downarrow$$
$$\equiv d\eta$$

$\eta \rightarrow$ conformal time.

$(r, \theta, \varphi) \rightarrow$ comoving coordinates. \leftarrow

$$k = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{+ve curvature} \\ 0, & \text{flat} \\ -1, & \text{-ve curvature.} \end{cases}$$

Independent of scale factor!



Comoving distance doesn't increase with time.

Excludes the effect of expanding universe. \leftarrow

\rightarrow Proper distance:

At a fixed time t :

$$ds^2 = a^2(t) [dr^2 + S_k(r)^2 d\Omega^2]$$

Along the geodesic:

$$ds^2 = a^2(t) dr^2$$

\therefore We define, the proper distance d_p :

$$d_p(t) = a(t) \int_0^r dr = a(t)r$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{d}_p = \frac{d}{dt}(a(t)r)$$

But $r \neq r(t)$,

$$\Rightarrow \dot{d}_p = \dot{a}(t)r = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} d_p$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\dot{d}_p = H d_p} \equiv v_p \leftarrow \text{velocity of a receding galaxy.}$$

→ What if $v_p = c$?

$$\Rightarrow c = H d_p$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{d_p = \frac{c}{H}} \leftarrow \text{Hubble radius.}$$

At current time,

$$\boxed{d_p \equiv r_H = \frac{c}{H_0} \approx 4380 \pm 130 \text{ Mpc.}}$$

The imaginary boundary within which pls move w/ speed $v < c$!!

↓
doesn't mean that pls beyond r_H are unobservable!!

Now, Recall: we started with the question of how to understand the dynamics of the universe at large scales (early times)?

- We know GR governs gravity at large scale
- We have already constructed FRW metric describing early universe.
- The motivation we discussed at the start of this course!!

→ So, if FRW metric describes the geometry of early universe, what does the dynamics look like?

→ The Einstein equations!!

Recall: $S = \int d^4x \sqrt{g} [R + \mathcal{L}_m]$

↳ $\frac{\delta S}{\delta g^{\mu\nu}} = 0$

⇒ $G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} \quad (c=1)$

$= R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R$
(gravity part)

→ Since the metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ has 10 independent components,

$G_{\mu\nu} - 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} = 0 \rightarrow 10$ independent non-linear equations!

↳ 2nd order diff. eq.

→ Fortunately, at least at early times there are symmetries in the universe we can exploit to simplify the Einstein's equation.

→ $T_{\mu\nu}$: stress-energy tensor — we assume the early universe (at large scales) is filled with isotropic & homogeneous perfect gas.

↳ modelling the primary matter content of universe.

\Rightarrow The measurable quantities for such an ideal gas
 are (1) pressure $p(t)$
 (2) energy density $\rho(t)$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{(1) pressure } p(t) \\ \text{(2) energy density } \rho(t) \end{array} \right\} \leftarrow \text{only a fu. of time!}$

\rightarrow No bulk velocity of gas, since it would break isotropy.

Ifly on the gravity side of Einstein eq.,
 we already have

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) [dr^2 + S_k^2(r) d\Omega^2]$$

$$\begin{cases} R_0 \sin(r/R_0), & k=+1 \\ r, & k=0 \\ R_0 \sinh(r/R_0), & k=-1 \end{cases}$$

\Rightarrow Only relevant parameters are $a(t)$, k & R_0 .

\rightarrow Therefore, our goal (and that of early universe cosmology) is to find out how $a(t)$, k & R_0 are related to $\rho(t)$ & $p(t)$?

$$\therefore T^{\mu}_{\nu} = \begin{bmatrix} -\rho & & & \\ & p & & \\ & & p & \\ & & & p \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculating $g_{\mu\nu}$:

→ Let's first look at 00 component:

$$R_{00} - \frac{1}{2} g_{00} R = 8\pi G T_{00}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{00} &= \cancel{\Gamma_{00,\alpha}^\alpha} - \Gamma_{\alpha,0}^\alpha + \cancel{\Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^\alpha \Gamma_{00}^\beta} - \Gamma_{\beta 0}^\alpha \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\beta \\ &= \cancel{\Gamma_{00,0}^0} - \Gamma_{0i,0}^i - \Gamma_{j0}^i \Gamma_{oi}^j \end{aligned}$$

Here,

$$\Gamma_{00}^0 = 0 = \Gamma_{oi}^0 = \Gamma_{io}^0$$

$$\Gamma_{ij}^0 = \delta_{ij} \dot{a}$$

$$\Gamma_{oj}^i = \Gamma_{j0}^i = \delta_{ij} \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{00} = -\delta_{ij} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right) - \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 \delta_{ij} \delta_{ij}$$

$$= -3 \left[\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} - \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} \right] - 3 \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2$$

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

H/W

$$\boxed{R_{ij} = ?}$$

$$= \delta_{ij} (2\dot{a}^2 + a\ddot{a})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore R &= g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu} \\ &= -R_{00} + \frac{1}{a^2} R_{ii} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{R = 6 \left[\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 \right]}$$

Finally, for the 00 component of E. eq:

$$R_{00} - \frac{1}{2} g_{00} R = 8\pi G T_{00}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho} \quad \leftarrow \text{First Friedmann equation!}$$