

**Short introduction
to
standard cosmology**

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General relativity

Principle of equivalence (S. Weinberg):

At every space–time point in an arbitrary gravitational field it is possible to choose a “locally inertial coordinate frame” such that, within a sufficiently small region of the point in question, the laws of nature take the same form as in unaccelerated Cartesian coordinate systems in the absence of gravitation.

Practical prescription:

- Take equations which describe a system in the absence of gravity
- Generalize them in such a way that they are generally covariant (preserve their form under a general coordinate transformation) and reduce to the starting equations in flat Minkowski space-time.

Example:

Particle in the absence of any (non-gravitational) forces

locally inertial coordinates: ξ^α

proper time: $d\tau^2 = -ds^2 = -\eta_{\alpha\beta} d\xi^\alpha d\xi^\beta$

equation of motion:

$$\frac{d^2 \xi^\alpha}{d\tau^2} = 0$$

in arbitrary coordinates x^μ we get

$$d\tau^2 = -g_{\alpha\beta} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

$$\frac{d^2 x^\rho}{d\tau^2} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\rho \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} = 0$$

geodesic equation

The whole effect of gravity is encoded in the metric tensor $g_{\alpha\beta}$ and the affine connection $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\rho$!

affine connection

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\rho} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\rho\sigma} (g_{\sigma\mu,\nu} + g_{\sigma\nu,\mu} - g_{\mu\nu,\sigma})$$

curvature tensor

$$R^{\mu}_{\nu\rho\sigma} = \Gamma_{\nu\sigma,\rho}^{\mu} - \Gamma_{\nu\rho,\sigma}^{\mu} + \Gamma_{\rho\kappa}^{\mu}\Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\kappa} - \Gamma_{\sigma\kappa}^{\mu}\Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\kappa}$$

Ricci tensor and curvature scalar

$$R_{\mu\nu} = R^{\kappa}_{\mu\kappa\nu} \qquad R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu}$$

covariant derivatives

$$V^{\mu}_{;\nu} = V^{\mu}_{,\nu} + \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\mu} V^{\sigma} \qquad V_{\mu;\nu} = V_{\mu,\nu} - \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} V_{\sigma}$$

geometrical interpretation:

(covariant) vector A_{μ} after parallel transport along infinitesimally small closed loop changes by

$$\Delta A_{\mu} = \frac{1}{2}R^{\nu}_{\mu\rho\sigma} A_{\nu} \oint x^{\rho} dx^{\sigma}$$

Einstein equations

In the Newtonian limit (slowly moving bodies in weak, static gravitational field):

$$g_{00} = -(1 + 2\phi) \quad \nabla^2 \phi = 4\pi G_N \rho$$

we get

$$-\nabla^2 g_{00} = 8\pi G_N T_{00}$$

This can be generalized to

$$\tilde{G}_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G_N T_{\mu\nu}$$

$\tilde{G}_{\mu\nu}$ is a covariantly conserved tensor with an appropriate Newtonian limit of its 00 component

There is only one such tensor build from the metric tensor and its derivatives (bilinear in derivatives):

$$G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R = 8\pi G_N T_{\mu\nu}$$

In general the l.h.s. of the Einstein equations could contain terms with arbitrary number of derivatives

$$\tilde{G}_{\mu\nu} = \sum_{n=0} \tilde{G}_{\mu\nu}^{(n)}$$

$$\tilde{G}_{\mu\nu}^{(n)} \sim c_n \nabla^n \sim \left(\frac{l_n}{l_{phys}} \right)^n$$

Terms with small (large) number of derivatives are more important at large (small) distances (as compared to the standard $n = 2$ term)

Cosmology – large distances

There is only one tensor with $n < 2$: the metric tensor itself

Its coefficient is called the cosmological constant

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R - \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G_N T_{\mu\nu}$$

$n > 2$

Small distances – very early Universe (?)
quantum theory of gravity (superstrings)

Robertson–Walker metric

The observed (part of the) Universe seems to be isotropic and homogeneous in very large scales

Space–time which at every time ($t = \text{const}$) is homogeneous and isotropic can be described by the Robertson–Walker metric

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[\frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right]$$

where r, θ, ϕ are comoving coordinates

3–dimensional spaces for fixed t are spaces with constant curvature ${}^{(3)}R = 6k/a^2(t)$

$a(t)$ is the time–dependent cosmic scale factor

$k = +1$: finite volume $2\pi^2 a^3(t)$

$k = 0$: infinite flat space

$k = -1$: infinite hyperbolic space

Red-shift in Robertson-Walker metric

Light, $ds^2 = 0$, emitted at $r = r_1$, $t = t_1$
received by us at $r = 0$, $t = t_0$

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_0^{r_1} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}} = \int_{t_1 + \delta t_1}^{t_0 + \delta t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$
$$\frac{\delta t_1}{a(t_1)} = \frac{\delta t_0}{a(t_0)}$$

Received radiation has frequency different from
the frequency of emission

$$\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_0} = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_1} = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_1)} = z + 1$$

$$z = \frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda_1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_1)} - 1$$

Almost all observed galaxies has red-shifted
spectrum $z > 0$

\Rightarrow the cosmic scale factor at the time of emis-
sion was smaller than it is today

\Rightarrow the Universe expands

Friedmann-Robertson-Walker models

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R = 8\pi G_N T_{\mu\nu}$$

Energy-momentum tensor for perfect fluid

$$T_{\mu\nu} = pg_{\mu\nu} + (p + \rho)u_\mu u_\nu$$

For the Robertson-Walker metric one gets the Friedmann equations:

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

$$\left(2\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2} \right) = -8\pi G_N p$$

Their combination gives

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

Today $\dot{a} > 0$

$$(3p + \rho) > 0 \Rightarrow \ddot{a} < 0$$

$\Rightarrow a(t=0) = 0$ – **Big Bang**

Dynamics

Energy–momentum has contributions from radiation, (nonrelativistic) matter and cosmological constant

$$\rho = \rho_R + \rho_M + \rho_\Lambda \qquad p = p_R + p_M + p_\Lambda$$

Equations of state $p_i = w_i \rho_i$

$$w_R = \frac{1}{3} \qquad w_M = 0 \qquad w_\Lambda = -1$$

Energy density changes with the cosmic scale factor

$$\rho_R = \rho_{R0} \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^4 \qquad \rho_M = \rho_{M0} \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^3 \qquad \rho_\Lambda = \rho_{\Lambda 0}$$

Friedmann equation determines the time dependence of the cosmic scale factor

$$H^2 = \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G_N}{3} \left(\frac{\rho_{R0} a_0^4}{a^4} + \frac{\rho_{M0} a_0^3}{a^3} + \rho_\Lambda \right) - \frac{k}{a^2}$$

radiation domination (RD): $a \sim t^{1/2}$

matter domination (MD): $a \sim t^{2/3}$

cosmological const. domin. (Λ D): $a \sim \exp\left(\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}} t\right)$

Curvature (problem)

$$\text{Friedmann equation} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Omega - 1 = \frac{k}{a^2 H^2}$$

$$\Omega = \frac{\rho}{\rho_c} \quad \rho_c \approx 10^{-29} \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3}$$

$$\text{(MD):} \quad |\Omega - 1| \sim a^1$$

$$\text{(RD):} \quad |\Omega - 1| \sim a^2$$

$|\Omega - 1|$ increases with time in expanding, radiation or matter dominated Universe

$$|\Omega_0 - 1| < 10^{-1}$$

$$|\Omega(t_{\text{EQ}}) - 1| < 10^{-5} \quad t_{\text{EQ}} = \mathcal{O}(10^4 \text{yr})$$

$$|\Omega(t_{\text{nucl}}) - 1| < 10^{-17} \quad t_{\text{nucl}} = \mathcal{O}(1\text{s})$$

Natural solution

$$\text{(\Lambda D):} \quad |\Omega - 1| \sim e^{-Ht}$$

Horizon (problem)

Distance to the particle horizon (distance which massless particles could travel from time $t = 0$ till time t)

$$d_h(t) = a(t) \int_0^{r_h(t)} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}} = a(t) \int_0^t \frac{dt'}{a(t')}$$

It is finite for radiation or matter dominated Universe

\Rightarrow only finite parts of the Universe are causally connected

The part of the Universe we observe today consists of about 10^5 parts which were causally disconnected at the time of recombination

Why the observed Cosmic Microwave Background Radiation is so isotropic?

Future of the Universe

- $\Lambda = 0, k = -1$ ($\rho < \rho_c$)
the curvature terms will dominate Friedmann equation giving $a(t) \sim t \rightarrow \infty$
- $\Lambda = 0, k = 0$ ($\rho = \rho_c$)
 $a(t) \sim t^{2/3} \rightarrow \infty$
- $\Lambda = 0, k = +1$ ($\rho > \rho_c$)
expansion stops at the maximal
 $a_{\max} = (8/3)\pi G_N \rho_0 a_0^3$
and collapse begins leading to Big Crunch
- $\Lambda < 0$, arbitrary k (ρ)
like above with a_{\max} decreasing with increasing $|\Lambda|$
- $\Lambda > 0, k \leq 1$ ($\rho \leq \rho_c$)
eternal expansion, exponential at late times

- $\Lambda > 0, k = +1 (\rho > \rho_c)$

Let us define $\Lambda_E = (4\pi G_N \rho_{M0} a_0^3)^{-2}$

– $\Lambda < \Lambda_E$

expansion stops at the maximal

$$a_{\max} > (8/3)\pi G_N \rho_0 a_0^3$$

and collapse begins leading to Big Crunch

– $\Lambda = \Lambda_E$

expansion asymptotically stops at the

$$a_E = 4\pi G_N \rho_0 a_0^3$$

– $\Lambda > \Lambda_E$

expansion slows down until

$$a(t) \approx a_E$$

then speeds up becoming exponential at late times

Static Universe proposed by Einstein:

$$a = a_E \quad \Lambda = \Lambda_E$$

Thermodynamics of the Universe

We assume that Universe was close to thermodynamical equilibrium during most of its evolution.

In equilibrium energy density and pressure are dominated by relativistic particles

$$\rho_R(T) = g_* \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4 \quad p_R(T) = g_* \frac{\pi^2}{90} T^4$$
$$g_* = \sum_{\text{bos.}} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T} \right)^4 + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{\text{fer.}} g_j \left(\frac{T_j}{T} \right)^4$$

The effective number of relativistic degrees of freedom g_* at a given temperature is determined by the elementary particle spectrum

Time vs. temperature

The expansion rate depends on g_* . For (RD)

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi^3}{90} g_* T^4$$

On the other hand

$$H^2 = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{1}{2t}$$

$$\left(\frac{t}{\text{s}}\right) \approx \frac{2.4}{\sqrt{g_*}} \left(\frac{T}{\text{MeV}}\right)^{-2}$$

At time $t \approx 1 \text{ s}$

temperature was $T \approx 1 \text{ MeV}$

Neutrinos decouple and primordial nucleosynthesis starts at about that time

Entropy

Entropy density is given by

$$s = \frac{S}{V} = g_{*s} \frac{2\pi^2}{45} T^3$$
$$g_{*s} = \sum_{\text{bos.}} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T} \right)^3 + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{\text{fer.}} g_j \left(\frac{T_j}{T} \right)^3$$

Entropy in fixed comoving volume is conserved

$$S = g_{*s} \frac{2\pi^2}{45} a^3 T^3 = \text{const}$$

Temperature decreases as the inverse of the cosmic scale factor

$$T \sim a^{-1}$$

when g_{*s} is constant and slower when g_{*s} decreases i.e. when some species becomes nonrelativistic

Decaying particles “reheat” the Universe (particles which are still in thermal equilibrium)

Decoupling

Particles stay in thermodynamical equilibrium only when their interactions are strong enough

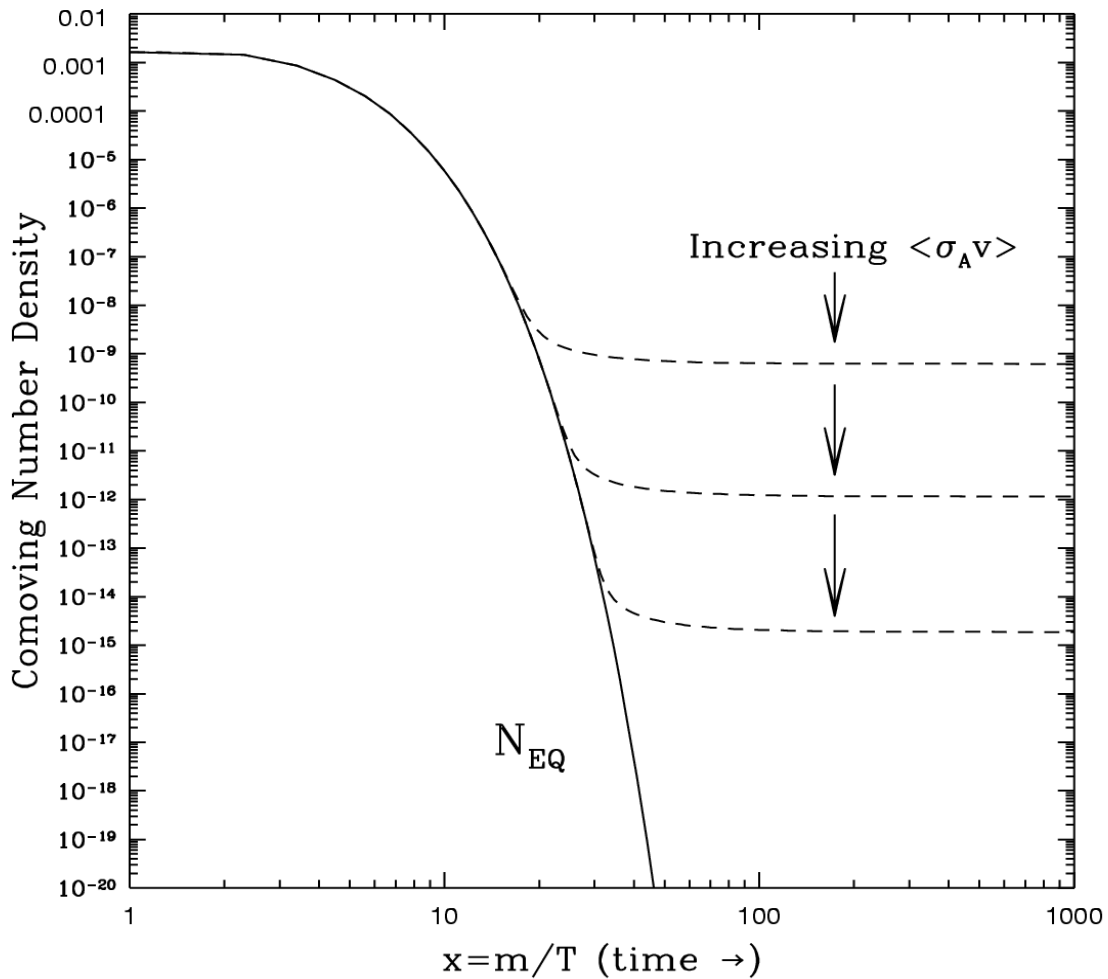
Number of interactions per particle of given type after time t (for $\Gamma \sim T^n$)

$$N_{\text{int}} \approx \int_t^\infty \Gamma(t') dt' \sim \left(\frac{\Gamma}{H} \right) \Big|_t$$

Particle of a given type stay in equilibrium only when $\Gamma \gg H$

They decouple and freeze out at time when $\Gamma \approx H$ (or decay if are unstable)

The details of this decoupling are described by the Boltzmann equation



Particles with stronger interactions:

- stay longer in equilibrium in which their number decreases as $\exp(-m/T)$
- have smaller relic density

Stable, weakly interacting particles with masses of order GeV-TeV are very good candidates for the DARK MATTER

Decoupling of neutrinos

At temperature $T \gtrsim 2 \text{ MeV}$ in equilibrium were photons, electrons and neutrinos

At temperature $0.5 \text{ MeV} \lesssim T \lesssim 2 \text{ MeV}$ in equilibrium were photons and electrons:

At temperature $T \approx 0.5 \text{ MeV}$ electrons annihilated reheating photons by a factor $(11/4)^{1/3}$

$$g_*(\gamma, e^\pm) = \frac{11}{2} \quad g_*(\gamma)_+ = 2$$

“Temperature” of particles after decoupling decreases as”

- “ T ” $\sim a^{-1}$ for hot relics
- “ T ” $\sim a^{-2}$ for cold relics

Today the “temperatures” are

$$T_{\gamma 0} = 2.725 \pm 0.002 \text{ K} \quad T_{\nu 0} \approx 1.95 \text{ K}$$

Primordial nucleosynthesis

For nonrelativistic nuclei (A, Z) in equilibrium

$$n_A = g_A \left(\frac{m_A T}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left(\frac{\mu_A - m_A}{T} \right)$$

$$\mu_A = Z\mu_p + (A - Z)\mu_n$$

For mixture of different nuclei

$$X_A = g_A A^{5/2} 2^{(3A-5)/2} \pi^{-(A-1)/2} \zeta(3)^{A-1}.$$

$$\cdot \left(\frac{T}{m_A} \right)^{3(A-1)/2} \eta^{A-1} X_p^Z X_n^{A-Z} \exp(B_A/T)$$

$$X_A = \frac{An_A}{n_B} \quad B_A = \text{binding energy}$$

$$\eta = \frac{n_B}{n_\gamma} = (6.1 \pm 0.3) \cdot 10^{-10}$$

Nuclei of type A should give important contribution to the total barion mass at temperature of order

$$\frac{B_A}{(A-1)} \left[\frac{3}{2} \ln \left(\frac{m_A}{T} \right) + \ln \left(\frac{1}{\eta} \right) \right]^{-1} \ll \frac{B_A}{(A-1)}$$

For ${}^4\text{He}$ this temperature is about 0.28 MeV instead of $\mathcal{O}(10 \text{ MeV})$

$\eta \gg 1 \Rightarrow$ photons from the Maxwell tail disintegrate heavy nuclei

In a slowly cooling universe most of the barions should build the most strongly bounded nuclei – Fe

The real primordial nucleosynthesis was very much different because the Universe expands

Timetable of primordial nucleosynthesis

- $T = \mathcal{O}(10 \text{ MeV})$ $t = \mathcal{O}(10^{-2} \text{ s})$:
 $X_p = X_n = \frac{1}{2}$, $X_2 < 10^{-11}$
- $T = \mathcal{O}(1 \text{ MeV})$ $t = \mathcal{O}(1 \text{ s})$:
neutrons decouple with
 $X_p \approx \frac{6}{7}$, $X_n \approx \frac{1}{7}$, $X_2 < 10^{-11}$
- $T \lesssim 1 \text{ MeV}$ $t \gtrsim 1 \text{ s}$:
neutrons decay with $\tau_N \approx 10.5 \text{ min}$
 $\Rightarrow X_n(0.3 \text{ MeV}) \approx 0.12$
in equilibrium it would be only about $\mathcal{O}(0.01)$
neutrons
- $T = \mathcal{O}(0.3 \text{ MeV})$ $t = \mathcal{O}(1 \text{ min})$:
 **${}^4\text{He}$ should dominate but it does not be-
cause**
 - there are not enough lighter nuclei: ${}^2\text{H}$,
 ${}^3\text{H}$, ${}^3\text{He}$
 - Coulomb barrier becomes more impor-
tant

- $T = \mathcal{O}(0.1 \text{ MeV})$ $t = \mathcal{O}(3 \text{ min})$:
There is enough light nuclei (^2H , ^3H , ^3He) and practically all neutrons are used to produce ^4He

$$\left(\frac{n_n}{n_p}\right) \approx \frac{1}{7}$$

$$X_4 = \frac{4n_4}{n_B} = \frac{4(n_n/2)}{n_n + n_p} = \frac{2(n_n/n_p)}{1 + (n_n/n_p)} \approx \frac{2/7}{8/7} = \frac{1}{4}$$

- $T \lesssim \mathcal{O}(0.1 \text{ MeV})$ $t \gtrsim \mathcal{O}(3 \text{ min})$:
No production of heavier nuclei (^{12}C , ^{16}O , ...) because
 - Coulomb barrier very strong
 - no stable nuclei with $A = 5, 8$
 - too small density for $3\ ^3\text{He} \rightarrow ^{12}\text{C} + \gamma$

The Universe after primordial nucleosynthesis contained 25% of helium and 75% of hydrogen (instead of being dominated by heavy nuclei like iron)

How primordial nucleosynthesis depends on particle physics

- bigger number of neutrino species $N_\nu > 3$
 - ⇒ bigger g_*
 - ⇒ bigger Hubble constant ($\sim \sqrt{g_*}$)
 - ⇒ higher neutron freeze out temperature
 - ⇒ more neutrons at $T = \mathcal{O}(0.1 \text{ MeV})$
 - ⇒ more ${}^4\text{He}$ produced

- shorter neutron lifetime τ_n
 - ⇒ faster neutron decays between decoupling and ${}^4\text{He}$ production
 - ⇒ (exponentially) less ${}^4\text{He}$ produced

- stronger weak interactions (smaller M_W or bigger coupling)
 - ⇒ neutrons stay longer in equilibrium
 - ⇒ exponentially smaller number of neutrons at $T = \mathcal{O}(0.1 \text{ MeV})$
 - ⇒ (exponentially) less ${}^4\text{He}$ produced