

**density**

$$\rho_c = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}. \quad (11.418)$$

The ratio of the energy density  $\rho$  to the critical energy density is called  $\Omega$

$$\Omega = \frac{\rho}{\rho_c} = \frac{8\pi G}{3H^2} \rho. \quad (11.419)$$

From (11.417), we see that  $\Omega$  is

$$\Omega = 1 + \frac{k}{(aH)^2} = 1 + \frac{k}{\dot{a}^2}. \quad (11.420)$$

Thus  $\Omega = 1$  both in a flat universe ( $k = 0$ ) and as  $aH \rightarrow \infty$ . One use of inflation is to expand  $a$  by  $10^{26}$  so as to force  $\Omega$  almost exactly to unity.

Something like inflation is needed because in a universe in which the energy density is due to matter and/or radiation, the present value of  $\Omega$

$$\Omega_0 = 1.000 \pm 0.036 \quad (11.421)$$

is unlikely. To see why, we note that conservation of energy ensures that  $a^3$  times the matter density  $\rho_m$  is constant. Radiation red-shifts by  $a$ , so energy conservation implies that  $a^4$  times the radiation density  $\rho_r$  is constant. So with  $n = 3$  for matter and 4 for radiation,  $\rho a^n \equiv 3F^2/8\pi G$  is a constant. In terms of  $F$  and  $n$ , Friedmann's first-order equation (11.415) is

$$\dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho a^2 - k = \frac{F^2}{a^{n-2}} - k \quad (11.422)$$

In the small- $a$  limit of the early Universe, we have

$$\dot{a} = F/a^{(n-2)/2} \quad \text{or} \quad a^{(n-2)/2} da = F dt \quad (11.423)$$

which we integrate to  $a \sim t^{2/n}$  so that  $\dot{a} \sim t^{2/n-1}$ . Now (11.420) says that

$$|\Omega - 1| = \frac{1}{\dot{a}^2} \propto t^{2-4/n} = \begin{cases} t & \text{radiation} \\ t^{2/3} & \text{matter} \end{cases}. \quad (11.424)$$

Thus,  $\Omega$  deviated from unity faster than  $t^{2/3}$  during the early Universe. At this rate, the inequality  $|\Omega_0 - 1| < 0.036$  could last 13.8 billion years only if  $\Omega$  at  $t = 1$  second had been unity to within six parts in  $10^{14}$ . The only *known* explanation for such early flatness is inflation.

Manipulating our relation (11.420) between  $\Omega$  and  $aH$ , we see that

$$(aH)^2 = \frac{k}{\Omega - 1}. \quad (11.425)$$

So  $\Omega > 1$  implies  $k = 1$ , and  $\Omega < 1$  implies  $k = -1$ , and as  $\Omega \rightarrow 1$  the

product  $aH \rightarrow \infty$ , which is the essence of flatness since curvature vanishes as the scale factor  $a \rightarrow \infty$ . Imagine blowing up a balloon.

Staying for the moment with a universe without inflation and with an energy density composed of radiation and/or matter, we note that the first-order equation (11.422) in the form  $\dot{a}^2 = F^2/a^{n-2} - k$  tells us that for a closed ( $k = 1$ ) universe, in the limit  $a \rightarrow \infty$  we'd have  $\dot{a}^2 \rightarrow -1$  which is impossible. Thus a closed universe eventually collapses, which is incompatible with the flatness (11.425) implied by the present value  $\Omega_0 = 1.000 \pm 0.036$ .

The first-order equation Friedmann (11.415) says that  $\rho a^2 \geq 3k/8\pi G$ . So in a closed universe ( $k = 1$ ), the energy density  $\rho$  is positive and increases without limit as  $a \rightarrow 0$  as in a collapse. In open ( $k < 0$ ) and flat ( $k = 0$ ) universes, the same Friedmann equation (11.415) in the form  $\dot{a}^2 = 8\pi G\rho a^2/3 - k$  tells us that if  $\rho$  is positive, then  $\dot{a}^2 > 0$ , which means that  $\dot{a}$  never vanishes. Hubble told us that  $\dot{a} > 0$  now. So if our universe is open or flat, then it always expands.

Due to the expansion of the universe, the wave-length of radiation grows with the scale factor  $a(t)$ . A photon emitted at time  $t$  and scale factor  $a(t)$  with wave-length  $\lambda(t)$  will be seen now at time  $t_0$  and scale factor  $a(t_0)$  to have a longer wave-length  $\lambda(t_0)$

$$\frac{\lambda(t_0)}{\lambda(t)} = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} = z + 1 \quad (11.426)$$

in which the **redshift**  $z$  is the ratio

$$z = \frac{\lambda(t_0) - \lambda(t)}{\lambda(t)} = \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda}. \quad (11.427)$$

Now  $H = \dot{a}/a = da/(adt)$  implies  $dt = da/(aH)$ , and  $z = a_0/a - 1$  implies  $dz = -a_0 da/a^2$ , so we find

$$dt = -\frac{dz}{(1+z)H(z)} \quad (11.428)$$

which relates time intervals to redshift intervals. An on-line calculator is available for macroscopic intervals (Wright, 2006).

### 11.49 Model Cosmologies

The 0-component of the energy-momentum conservation law (11.375) is

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (T^a_0)_{;a} = \partial_a T^a_0 + \Gamma_{ac}^a T^c_0 - T^a_c \Gamma_{0a}^c \\ &= -\partial_0 T_{00} - \Gamma_{a0}^a T_{00} - g^{cc} T_{cc} \Gamma_{0c}^c \\ &= -\dot{\rho} - 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\rho - 3p\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = -\dot{\rho} - 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\rho + p). \end{aligned} \quad (11.429)$$

or

$$\frac{d\rho}{da} = -\frac{3}{a} (\rho + p). \quad (11.430)$$

The energy density  $\rho$  is composed of fractions  $\rho_k$  each contributing its own partial pressure  $p_k$  according to its own **equation of state**

$$p_k = w_k \rho_k \quad (11.431)$$

in which  $w_k$  is a constant. In terms of these components, the energy-momentum conservation law (11.430) is

$$\sum_k \frac{d\rho_k}{da} = -\frac{3}{a} \sum_k (1 + w_k) \rho_k \quad (11.432)$$

with solution

$$\rho = \sum_k \bar{\rho}_k \left(\frac{\bar{a}}{a}\right)^{3(1+w_k)} = \sum_k \bar{\rho}_k \left(\frac{\bar{a}}{a}\right)^{3(1+\bar{p}_k/\bar{\rho}_k)}. \quad (11.433)$$

Simple cosmological models take the energy density and pressure each to have a single component with  $p = w\rho$ , and in this case

$$\rho = \bar{\rho} \left(\frac{\bar{a}}{a}\right)^{3(1+w)} = \bar{\rho} \left(\frac{\bar{a}}{a}\right)^{3(1+\bar{p}/\bar{\rho})}. \quad (11.434)$$

**Example 11.25** ( $w = -1/3$ , No Acceleration) If  $w = -1/3$ , then  $p = w\rho = -\rho/3$  and  $\rho + 3p = 0$ . The second-order Friedmann equation (11.413) then tells us that  $\ddot{a} = 0$ . The scale factor does not accelerate.

To find its constant speed, we use its equation of state (11.434)

$$\rho = \bar{\rho} \left(\frac{\bar{a}}{a}\right)^{3(1+w)} = \bar{\rho} \left(\frac{\bar{a}}{a}\right)^2. \quad (11.435)$$

Now all the terms in Friedmann's first-order equation (11.415) have a common factor of  $1/a^2$  which cancels leaving us with the square of the constant speed

$$\dot{a}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \bar{\rho} \bar{a}^2 - k. \quad (11.436)$$

Incidentally,  $\bar{\rho} \bar{a}^2$  must exceed  $3k/8\pi G$ . The scale factor grows linearly with time as

$$a(t) = \left(\frac{8\pi G}{3} \bar{\rho} \bar{a}^2 - k\right)^{1/2} (t - t_0) + a(t_0). \quad (11.437)$$

Setting  $t_0 = 0$  and  $a(0) = 0$ , we use the definition of the Hubble parameter  $H = \dot{a}/a$  to write the constant linear growth  $\dot{a}$  as  $aH$  and the time as

$$t = \int_0^a da'/a'H = (1/aH) \int_0^a da' = 1/H. \quad (11.438)$$

So in a universe without acceleration, the age of the universe is the inverse of the Hubble rate. For our universe, the present Hubble time is  $1/H_0 = 14.5$  billion years, which isn't far from the actual age of  $13.817 \pm 0.048$  billion years. Presumably, a slower Hubble rate during the era of matter **compensates for the** higher rate during the era of dark energy.  $\square$

**Example 11.26** ( $w = -1$ , Inflation) Inflation occurs when the ground state of the theory has a positive and constant energy density  $\rho > 0$  that dwarfs the energy densities of the matter and radiation. The **internal energy** of the universe then is proportional to its volume  $U = \rho V$ , and the pressure  $p$  as given by the thermodynamic relation

$$p = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial V} = -\rho \quad (11.439)$$

is **negative**. The equation of state (11.431) tells us that in this case  $w = -1$ . The second-order Friedmann equation (11.413) becomes

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}(\rho + 3p) = \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} \equiv g^2 \quad (11.440)$$

By it and the first-order Friedmann equation (11.415) and by choosing  $t = 0$  as the time at which the scale factor  $a$  is minimal, one may show (exercise 11.37) that in a closed ( $k = 1$ ) universe

$$a(t) = \frac{\cosh gt}{g}. \quad (11.441)$$

Similarly in an open ( $k = -1$ ) universe with  $a(0) = 0$ , we have

$$a(t) = \frac{\sinh gt}{g}. \quad (11.442)$$

Finally in a flat ( $k = 0$ ) expanding universe, the scale factor is

$$a(t) = a(0) \exp(gt). \quad (11.443)$$

Studies of the cosmic microwave background radiation suggest that inflation did occur in the **very early** universe—possibly on a time scale as short as  $10^{-35}$  s. What is the origin of the vacuum energy density  $\rho$  that drove

inflation? Current theories attribute it to the assumption by at least one scalar field  $\phi$  of a mean value  $\langle\phi\rangle$  different from the one  $\langle 0|\phi|0\rangle$  that minimizes the energy density of the vacuum. When  $\langle\phi\rangle$  settled to  $\langle 0|\phi|0\rangle$ , the vacuum energy was released as radiation and matter in a **Big Bang**.  $\square$

**Example 11.27** ( $w = 1/3$ , The Era of Radiation) Until a redshift of  $z = 3400$  or 50,000 years after inflation, our universe was dominated by **radiation** (Frieman et al., 2008). During *The First Three Minutes* (Weinberg, 1988) of the era of radiation, the quarks and gluons formed hadrons, which decayed into protons and neutrons. As the neutrons decayed ( $\tau = 885.7$  s), they and the protons formed the light elements—principally hydrogen, deuterium, and helium in a process called **big-bang nucleosynthesis**.

We can guess the value of  $w$  for radiation by noticing that the energy-momentum tensor of the electromagnetic field (in suitable units)

$$T^{ab} = F^a{}_c F^{bc} - \frac{1}{4} g^{ab} F_{cd} F^{cd} \quad (11.444)$$

is traceless

$$T = T^a{}_a = F^a{}_c F_a{}^c - \frac{1}{4} \delta_a^a F_{cd} F^{cd} = 0. \quad (11.445)$$

But by (11.412) its trace must be  $T = 3p - \rho$ . So for radiation  $p = \rho/3$  and  $w = 1/3$ . The relation (11.434) between the energy density and the scale factor then is

$$\rho = \bar{\rho} \left( \frac{\bar{a}}{a} \right)^4. \quad (11.446)$$

The energy drops both with the volume  $a^3$  and with the scale factor  $a$  due to a redshift; so it drops as  $1/a^4$ . Thus the quantity

$$f^2 \equiv \frac{8\pi G \rho a^4}{3} \quad (11.447)$$

is a constant. The Friedmann equations (11.413 & 11.414) now are

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (\rho + 3p) = -\frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} \quad \text{or} \quad \ddot{a} = -\frac{f^2}{a^3} \quad (11.448)$$

and

$$\dot{a}^2 + k = \frac{f^2}{a^2}. \quad (11.449)$$

With calendars chosen so that  $a(0) = 0$ , this last equation (11.449) tells us that for a flat universe ( $k = 0$ )

$$a(t) = (2ft)^{1/2} \quad (11.450)$$

while for a closed universe ( $k = 1$ )

$$a(t) = \sqrt{f^2 - (t - f)^2} \quad (11.451)$$

and for an open universe ( $k = -1$ )

$$a(t) = \sqrt{(t + f)^2 - f^2} \quad (11.452)$$

as we saw in (6.422). The scale factor (11.451) of a closed universe of radiation has a maximum  $a = f$  at  $t = f$  and falls back to zero at  $t = 2f$ .  $\square$

**Example 11.28** ( $w = 0$ , The Era of Matter) A universe composed only of **dust** or **non-relativistic collisionless matter** has no pressure. Thus  $p = w\rho = 0$  with  $\rho \neq 0$ , and so  $w = 0$ . Conservation of energy (11.433), or equivalently (11.434), implies that the energy density falls with the volume

$$\rho = \bar{\rho} \left( \frac{\bar{a}}{a} \right)^3. \quad (11.453)$$

As the scale factor  $a(t)$  increases, the matter energy density, which falls as  $1/a^3$ , eventually dominates the radiation energy density, which falls as  $1/a^4$ . This happened in our universe **about 50,000** years after inflation at a temperature of  $T = 9,400$  K or  $kT = 0.81$  eV. Were baryons most of the matter, the era of radiation dominance would have lasted for a few hundred thousand years. But the kind of matter that we know about, which interacts with photons, is only about **15%** of the total; the rest—an unknown substance called **dark matter**—shortened the era of radiation dominance by nearly 2 million years.

Since  $\rho \propto 1/a^3$ , the quantity

$$m^2 = \frac{4\pi G \rho a^3}{3} \quad (11.454)$$

is a constant. For a matter-dominated universe, the Friedmann equations (11.413 & 11.414) then are

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (\rho + 3p) = -\frac{4\pi G \rho}{3} \quad \text{or} \quad \ddot{a} = -\frac{m^2}{a^2} \quad (11.455)$$

and

$$\dot{a}^2 + k = 2m^2/a. \quad (11.456)$$

For a flat universe,  $k = 0$ , we get

$$a(t) = \left[ \frac{3m}{\sqrt{2}} t \right]^{2/3}. \quad (11.457)$$

For a closed universe,  $k = 1$ , we use example 6.47 to integrate

$$\dot{a} = \sqrt{2m^2/a - 1} \quad (11.458)$$

to

$$t - t_0 = -\sqrt{a(2m^2 - a)} - m^2 \arcsin(1 - a/m^2). \quad (11.459)$$

With a suitable calendar and choice of  $t_0$ , one may parametrize this solution in terms of the **development angle**  $\phi(t)$  as

$$\begin{aligned} a(t) &= m^2 [1 - \cos \phi(t)] \\ t &= m^2 [\phi(t) - \sin \phi(t)]. \end{aligned} \quad (11.460)$$

For an open universe,  $k = -1$ , we use example 6.48 to integrate

$$\dot{a} = \sqrt{2m^2/a + 1} \quad (11.461)$$

to

$$t - t_0 = [a(2m^2 + a)]^{1/2} - m^2 \ln \left\{ 2 [a(2m^2 + a)]^{1/2} + 2a + 2m^2 \right\}. \quad (11.462)$$

The conventional parametrization is

$$\begin{aligned} a(t) &= m^2 [\cosh \phi(t) - 1] \\ t &= m^2 [\sinh \phi(t) - \phi(t)]. \end{aligned} \quad (11.463)$$

**Transparency:** Some **380,000** years after inflation at a redshift of  $z = 1090$ , the universe had cooled to **about**  $T = 3000$  K or  $kT = 0.26$  eV—a temperature at which less than 1% of the hydrogen is ionized. Ordinary matter became a gas of neutral atoms rather than a plasma of ions and electrons, and the universe suddenly became **transparent** to light. Some scientists call this moment of last scattering or first transparency **recombination**.

□

**Example 11.29** ( $w = -1$ , The Era of Dark Energy) **About 10.3** billion years after inflation at a redshift of  $z = 0.30$ , the matter density falling as  $1/a^3$  dropped below the very small but positive value of the energy density  $\rho_v = (2.23 \text{ meV})^4$  of the vacuum. The present time is **13.817** billion years after inflation. So for the past **3** billion years, this constant energy density, called **dark energy**, has accelerated the expansion of the universe approximately as (11.442)

$$a(t) = a(t_m) \exp\left((t - t_m)\sqrt{8\pi G\rho_v/3}\right) \quad (11.464)$$

in which  $t_m = 10.3 \times 10^9$  years.  $\square$

Observations and measurements on the largest scales indicate that the universe is flat:  $k = 0$ . So the evolution of the scale factor  $a(t)$  is given by the  $k = 0$  equations (11.443, 11.450, 11.457, & 11.464) for a flat universe. During the brief era of inflation, the scale factor  $a(t)$  grew as (11.443)

$$a(t) = a(0) \exp\left(t\sqrt{8\pi G\rho_i/3}\right) \quad (11.465)$$

in which  $\rho_i$  is the positive energy density that drove inflation.

During the **50,000**-year era of radiation,  $a(t)$  grew as  $\sqrt{t}$  as in (11.450)

$$a(t) = \left(2(t - t_i)\sqrt{8\pi G\rho(t'_r)a^4(t'_r)/3}\right)^{1/2} + a(t_i) \quad (11.466)$$

where  $t_i$  is the time at the end of inflation, and  $t'_r$  is any time during the era of radiation. During this era, the energy of highly relativistic particles dominated the energy density, and  $\rho a^4 \propto T^4 a^4$  was approximately constant, so that  $T(t) \propto 1/a(t) \propto 1/\sqrt{t}$ . When the temperature was in the range  $10^{12} > T > 10^{10}$  K or  $m_\mu c^2 > kT > m_e c^2$ , where  $m_\mu$  is the mass of the muon and  $m_e$  that of the electron, the radiation was mostly electrons, positrons, photons, and neutrinos, and the relation between the time  $t$  and the temperature  $T$  was (Weinberg, 2010, ch. 3)

$$t = 0.994 \text{ sec} \times \left[\frac{10^{10} \text{ K}}{T}\right]^2 + \text{constant}. \quad (11.467)$$

By  $10^9$  K, the positrons had annihilated with electrons, and the neutrinos fallen out of equilibrium. Between  $10^9$  K and  $10^6$  K, when the energy density of nonrelativistic particles became relevant, the time-temperature relation was (Weinberg, 2010, ch. 3)

$$t = 1.78 \text{ sec} \times \left[\frac{10^{10} \text{ K}}{T}\right]^2 + \text{constant}'. \quad (11.468)$$



During the **10.3** billion years of the matter era,  $a(t)$  grew as (11.457)

$$a(t) = \left[ (t - t_r) \sqrt{3\pi G \rho(t'_m) a(t'_m)} + a^{3/2}(t_r) \right]^{2/3} + a(t_r) \quad (11.469)$$

where  $t_r$  is the time at the end of the radiation era, and  $t'_m$  is any time in the matter era. By **380,000** years, the temperature had dropped to 3000 K, the universe had become transparent, and the CMBR had begun to travel freely.

Over the past **3** billion years of the era of vacuum dominance,  $a(t)$  has been growing exponentially (11.464)

$$a(t) = a(t_m) \exp \left( (t - t_m) \sqrt{8\pi G \rho_v / 3} \right) \quad (11.470)$$

in which  $t_m$  is the time at the end of the matter era, and  $\rho_v$  is the density of dark energy, which while vastly less than the energy density  $\rho_i$  that drove inflation, currently amounts to **68.5%** of the total energy density.

### 11.50 Yang-Mills Theory

The gauge transformation of an **abelian** gauge theory like electrodynamics multiplies a *single* charged field by a space-time-dependent *phase factor*  $\phi'(x) = \exp(iq\theta(x)) \phi(x)$ . Yang and Mills generalized this gauge transformation to one that multiplies a *vector*  $\phi$  of matter fields by a space-time dependent *unitary matrix*  $U(x)$

$$\phi'_a(x) = \sum_{b=1}^n U_{ab}(x) \phi_b(x) \quad \text{or} \quad \phi'(x) = U(x) \phi(x) \quad (11.471)$$

and showed how to make the action of the theory invariant under such **non-abelian** gauge transformations. (The fields  $\phi$  are scalars for simplicity.)

Since the matrix  $U$  is unitary, inner products like  $\phi^\dagger(x) \phi(x)$  are automatically invariant

$$\left( \phi^\dagger(x) \phi(x) \right)' = \phi^\dagger(x) U^\dagger(x) U(x) \phi(x) = \phi^\dagger(x) \phi(x). \quad (11.472)$$

But inner products of derivatives  $\partial^i \phi^\dagger \partial_i \phi$  are not invariant because the derivative acts on the matrix  $U(x)$  as well as on the field  $\phi(x)$ .

Yang and Mills made derivatives  $D_i \phi$  that transform like the fields  $\phi$

$$(D_i \phi)' = U D_i \phi. \quad (11.473)$$

To do so, they introduced **gauge-field matrices**  $A_i$  that play the role of