



# *Introduction to Cosmology*

*Marek Demianski  
University of Warsaw*

# Relativistic cosmological models

Robertson and Walker showed that the line element of a 3 dimensional homogeneous and isotropic space can be always reduced to the following form:

$$dl^2 = \frac{dr^2}{1 - k r^2} + r^2 ( d\Theta^2 + \sin^2\Theta d\phi^2 )$$

where

$$k = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{spherical space} \\ 0 & \text{flat space} \\ -1 & \text{hyperbolic space} \end{cases}$$

The Friedman model also known as  
Friedman-Lemaitre-Robertson-Walker  
model:

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - R^2(t) \left( \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2) \right)$$

$R(t)$  - the scale factor  
 $k$  - curvature parameter

The Einstein field equations

$$2\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} + \frac{8\pi G}{c^2}p = -\frac{kc^2}{R^2} + \Lambda c^2, \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} - \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho = -\frac{kc^2}{R^2} + \frac{1}{3}\Lambda c^2, \quad (2)$$

subtracting the second equation from the first, we get

$$\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}\left(\rho + \frac{3p}{c^2}\right) + \frac{\Lambda c^2}{3}, \quad (3)$$

$\rho$  – the density of matter (energy)

$p$  – the pressure

$\Lambda$  – the cosmological constant

some time ago we introduced the Hubble constant via  $v = H \cdot d$ ,  
it turns out that it is connected with the rate of change of the scale factor  $R(t)$

$$H(t) = \frac{\dot{R}(t)}{R(t)}. \quad (4)$$

Let us introduce a so called deceleration parameter  $q(t)$ , defined as

$$q(t) = -\frac{\ddot{R}R}{\dot{R}^2}, \quad (5)$$

equation (3) can be rewritten as

$$\left(\varrho + \frac{3p}{c^2}\right) - \frac{\Lambda c^2}{4\pi G} = \frac{3H^2 q}{4\pi G}, \quad (6)$$

equation (2) can be rewritten as

$$\frac{kc^2}{R^2} = \frac{1}{3}(8\pi G\varrho + \Lambda c^2) - H^2, \quad (7)$$

Using equation (6) can be transformed into:

$$\frac{kc^2}{R^2} = \frac{4\pi G}{3q}\left(\varrho(2q - 1) - \frac{3p}{c^2}\right) + \frac{\Lambda c^2}{3}\left(1 + \frac{1}{q}\right). \quad (8)$$

How to determine H and q ?

Let us recall the relation  $1 + z = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_e)}$

$$1 + z = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_0 - \Delta t)} = 1 + \Delta \frac{\dot{R}(t_0)}{R(t_0)} + \Delta^2 \left( \frac{\dot{R}_0^2}{R_0^2} - \frac{\ddot{R}_0}{2R_0} \right),$$

flux  $l = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2 R_0^2 (1+z)^2}$  so the luminosity distance  $d_L = \left( \frac{L}{4\pi l} \right)^{1/2} = r R_0 (1+z)$ ,

for small  $z$ ,  $c \cdot z = H \cdot d_L$

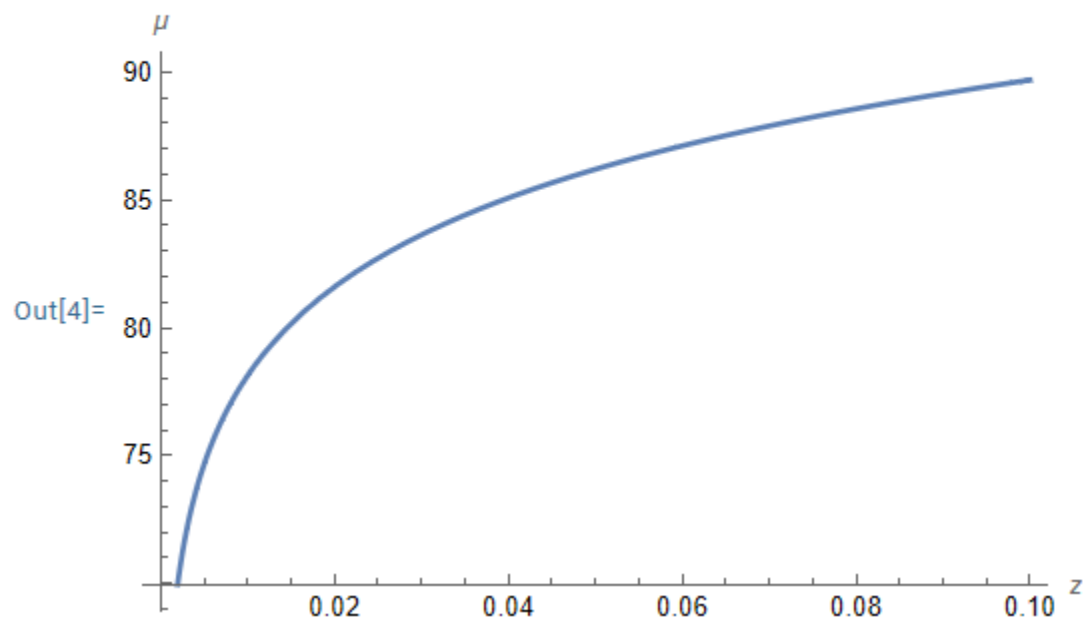
In astronomy the distance-magnitude relation is usually used  $m = 5 \log D + M - 5$

Using the luminosity distance this relation can be transformed into (not easy!)

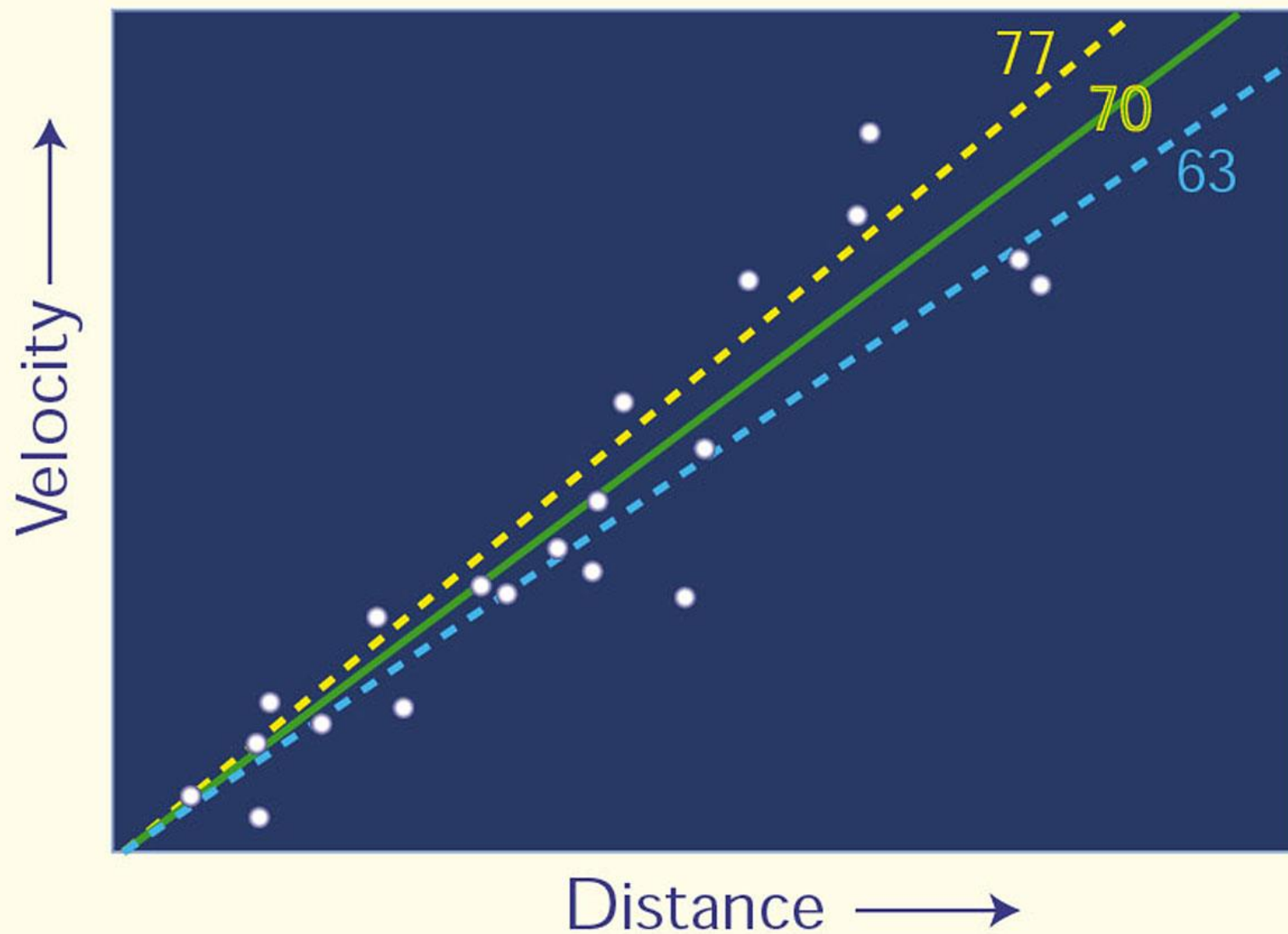
$$m - M = 5 \log \frac{cz}{H_0} + 1.086(1 - q_0)z - 0.27(1 - q_0)(1 + 3q_0)z^2 + 25$$

$H_0$  in  $\frac{km}{sMpc}$ ,  $c$  in  $km/s$

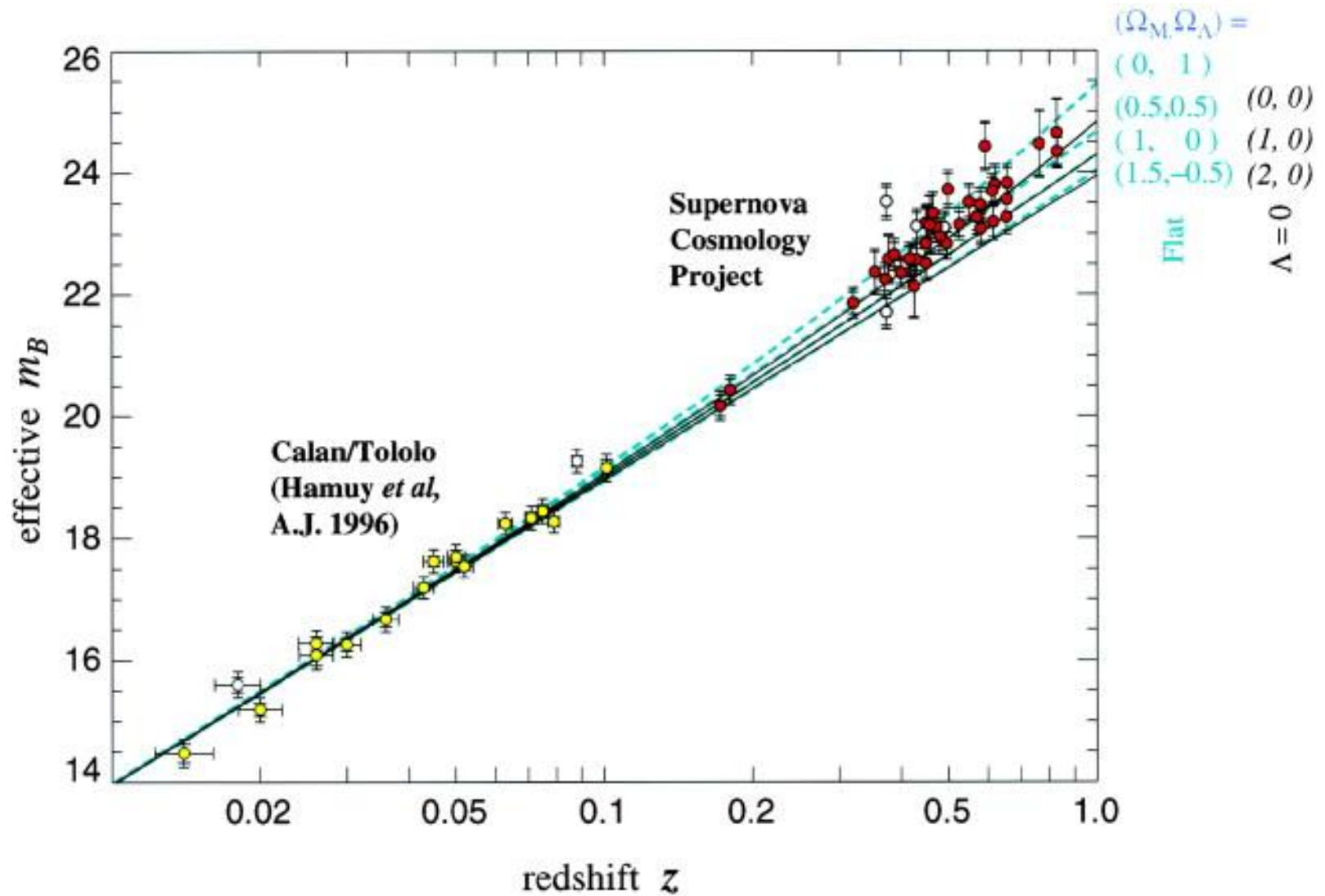
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In[4]:= Plot[5 Log[3 10^8 x / 73] + 1.086 / 2 x - 0.27 5 / 4 x^2 + 25, {x, 0, 0.1}, AxesLabel -> {z, μ}]
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# Hubble Diagram for Cepheids







Some exact solutions of the Friedman equations

Let us consider pressureless gas in a flat universe with  $\Lambda = 0$

In this case the equation (2) reduces to

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \varrho. \quad (9)$$

The energy-momentum conservation law  $T^{ab}{}_{;b} = 0$ , reduces to:

$$\varrho \cdot R^3 = \text{const}. \quad (10)$$

From equations (9) and (10), it follows that

$$R(t) \propto t^{2/3}.$$

In such matter dominated universe  $H(t) = \frac{2}{3t}$  and  $q = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Let us discuss the first obvious consequences:

$R(t) \sim t^{2/3}$  implies that when  $t \rightarrow 0$ ,  $R(t) \rightarrow 0$

so, the Universe had a beginning !

Since  $\rho \cdot R^3 = \text{const}$ , when  $R \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\rho \rightarrow \infty$  !!!

Early in 1940-ties George Gamow realized that if the early Universe was very dense it was also very hot. So let us consider radiation dominated Universe.

Basic thermodynamical properties of radiation:

$$\varepsilon_{rad} = a \cdot T^4, \quad a - \text{Stefan} - \text{Boltzmann constant}, \quad p_{rad} = \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon_{rad}. \quad (11)$$

From the energy-momentum conservation law it follows that:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\varepsilon_{rad}R^3) + p\frac{d}{dt}(R^3) = 0, \quad \text{so}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\varepsilon_{rad}R^3) + \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon_{rad}\frac{d}{dt}(R^3) = 0 \rightarrow$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\varepsilon_{rad} \cdot R^4) = 0, \quad \rightarrow \varepsilon_{rad} \cdot R^4 = \text{const}, \quad \text{or } T \cdot R = \text{const}.$$

Equation (2) assumes now the form:

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\epsilon_{rad}, \text{ or } \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} \sim \frac{1}{R^4},$$

what leads to:

$$R(t) \sim t^{1/2}.$$

It means that when  $R(t) \rightarrow 0$ ,  $T(t) \rightarrow \infty$  !!!

The early Universe was very dense and very hot !!!

In such radiation dominated universe  $H(t) = \frac{1}{2t}$  and  $q = 1$ .

Finally let us consider the flat, empty Universe with  $\Lambda \neq 0$  .

In this case equation (2) assumes a simple form:

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} = \frac{1}{3}\Lambda c^2 ,$$

that leads to an exponential solution:

$$R(t) \sim \exp\left(\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda c^2}{3}} \cdot t\right) .$$

In such dark energy dominated universe  $H(t) = \sqrt{\frac{\Lambda c^2}{3}}$  and  $q = 1$ .

So summarizing we have:

$$R(t) \sim \begin{cases} t^{2/3}, & \text{matter dominated universe,} \\ t^{1/2}, & \text{radiation dominated universe,} \\ \exp\left(\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda c^2}{3}} \cdot t\right), & \text{dark energy dominated universe.} \end{cases}$$

# Critical density

$$\rho_{crit} = \frac{3 H^2}{8\pi G}$$

$$\Omega = \frac{\rho}{\rho_{crit}}$$

$$\Omega = \begin{cases} > 1 \text{ spherical Universe (closed)} \\ = 1 \text{ flat Universe (open)} \\ < 1 \text{ hyperbolic Universe (open)} \end{cases}$$



The notion of critical density allows convenient parametrization of the Hubble constant:

$$H(z) = H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_r(1+z)^4 + \Omega_m(1+z)^3 + \Omega_k(1+z)^2 + \Omega_\Lambda}, \text{ where}$$

$\Omega_r$  - represents contribution of radiation,  $\Omega_m$  - matter,  
 $\Omega_k$  - curvature, and  $\Omega_\Lambda$  - cosmological constant or Dark Energy.

This relation implies that if  $\Omega_r \neq 0$  the early evolution  
of the Universe was dominated by radiation.

Since  $H(z=0) = H_0$  we also have a constrain:

$$\Omega_r + \Omega_m + \Omega_k + \Omega_\Lambda = 1$$

Current values:

$$\Omega_r = 2.47 \cdot 10^{-5} h^{-2}, \quad \Omega_m = 0.315 \pm 0.007, \quad \Omega_\Lambda = 0.685 \pm 0.007.$$

Using the Friedman equations and the Hubble law it is possible to calculate how much time a light signal emitted at  $z$  needed to reach us

$$1 + z = \frac{R(t_0)}{R(t_e)}, \text{ let us use a common convention } R(t_0) = 1, R(t_e) = R(t),$$

$$\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2} - \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho = -\frac{kc^2}{R^2} + \frac{1}{3}\Lambda c^2.$$

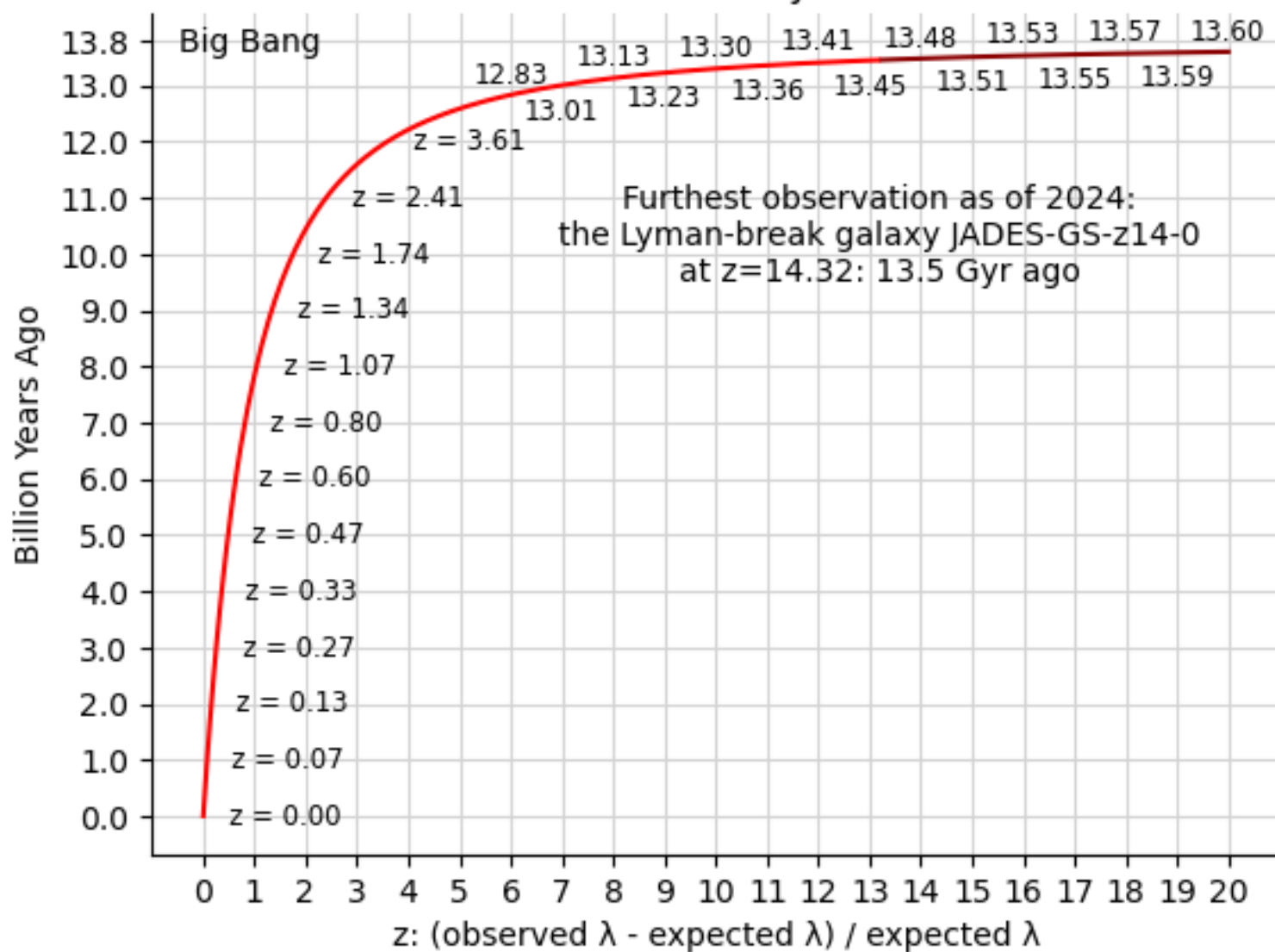
This equation can be rewritten as:

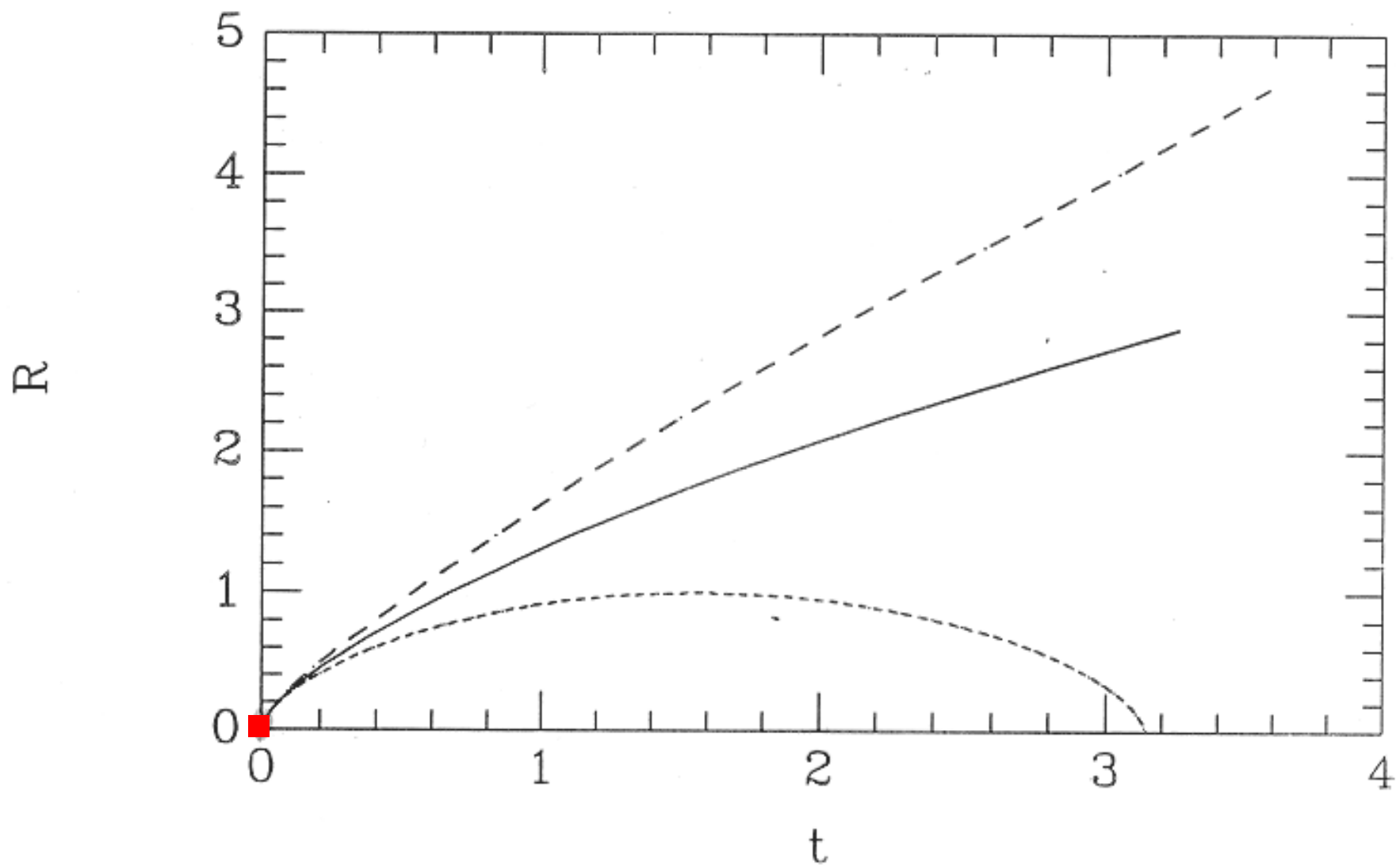
$$H(z) = H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_r(1+z)^4 + \Omega_m(1+z)^3 + \Omega_k(1+z)^2 + \Omega_\Lambda}.$$

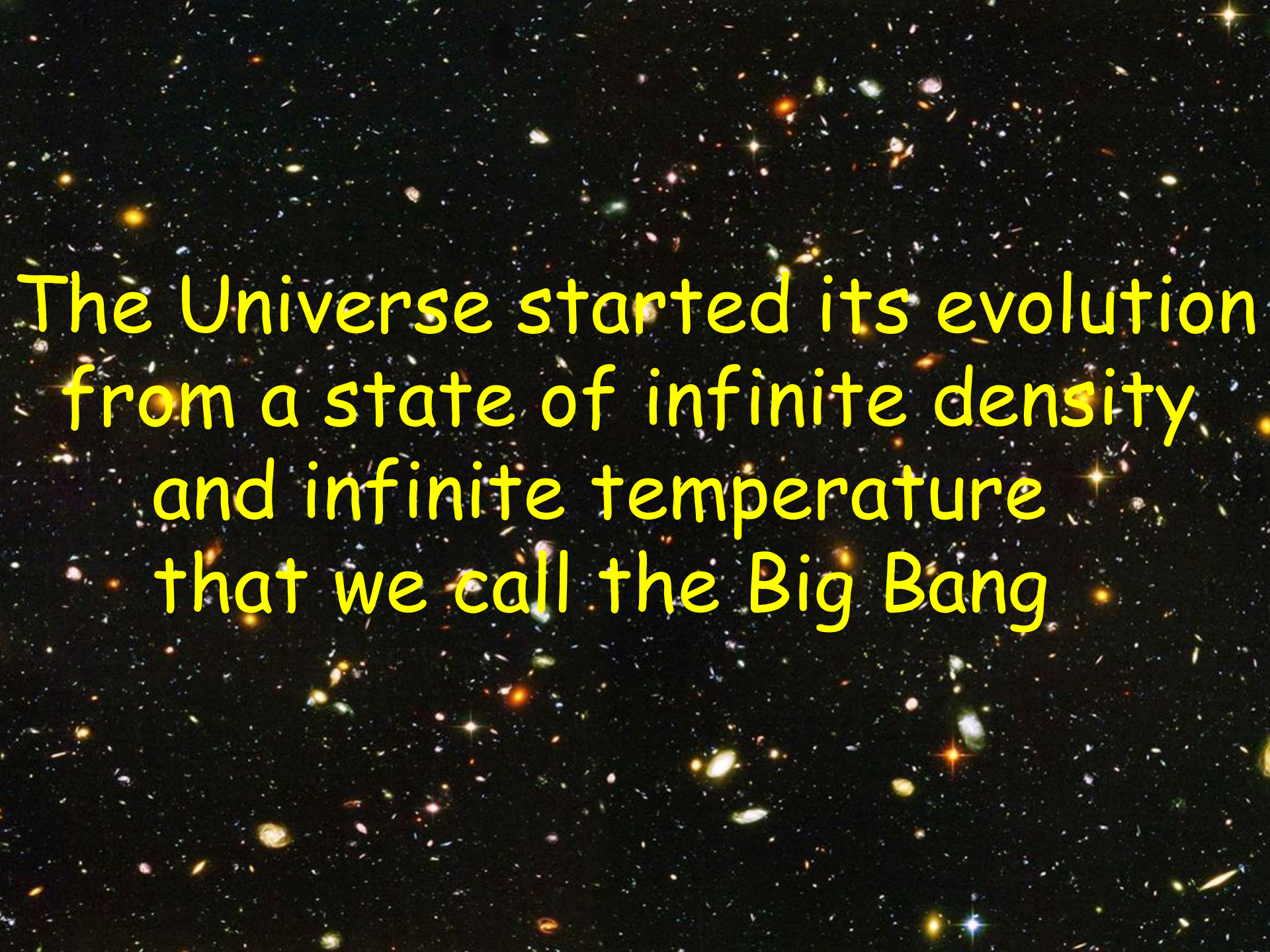
Using  $1 + z = \frac{1}{R(t)}$ , and  $H = \frac{\dot{R}}{R}$ , we find

$$t(z) = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{dz}{(1+z) \sqrt{\Omega_r(1+z)^4 + \Omega_m(1+z)^3 + \Omega_k(1+z)^2 + \Omega_\Lambda}}.$$

# Look-back Time by Redshift







The Universe started its evolution  
from a state of infinite density  
and infinite temperature  
that we call the Big Bang

# Penrose and Hawking singularity theorems

Under very general assumptions, not requiring symmetries, they have shown that the Universe started its evolution from a state of infinite density.

Big Bang is unavoidable !

[singularity theorems](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Penrose%E2%80%93Hawking_singularity_theorem)://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Penrose%E2%80%93Hawking\_singularity\_theorem

Energy scale:

Energy:  $1 \text{ GeV} = 1.6022 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ J}$

Temperature:  $1 \text{ GeV} = 1.605 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ K}$

Proton mass:  $938.272 \text{ MeV}$

Neutron mass:  $939.566 \text{ MeV}$

Electron mass:  $0.5110 \text{ MeV}$





## The state of thermal equilibrium

All particles, depending on their spins, are described by the Fermi-Dirac or Bose-Einstein phase space distribution:

$$f(\vec{p}) = [\exp((E - \mu)/T \pm 1)]^{-1},$$

where  $E$  - denotes energy,  $\mu$  chemical potential, and the Boltzmann constant was set to be equal  $k_B = 1$ . The number density  $n$ , energy density  $\varrho$  and pressure  $p$  of a dilute, weakly interacting gas of particles with  $g$  internal degrees of freedom is given by;

$$n = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int f(\vec{p}) d^3 p,$$

$$\varrho = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int E(\vec{p}) f(\vec{p}) d^3 p,$$

$$p = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{|\vec{p}|^2}{3E} f(\vec{p}) d^3 p,$$

where  $E^2 = |\vec{p}|^2 + m^2$ .

In kinetic equilibrium, the number density of a nonrelativistic nuclear species  $A(Z)$  with mass number  $A$  and charge  $Z$  is given by

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

where  $\mu_A$  is the chemical potential of the species. If the nuclear reactions that produce nucleus  $A$  out of  $Z$  protons and  $A - Z$  neutrons occur rapidly compared to the expansion rate, chemical equilibrium also obtains.

The binding energy of the nuclear species  $A(Z)$  is

$$B_A = Zm_p + (A - Z)m_n - m_A,$$

and the abundance of species  $A(Z)$  is

$$n_A = g_A A^{3/2} 2^{-A} \left( \frac{2\pi}{m_p T} \right)^{\frac{3(A-1)}{2}} n_p^Z n_n^{A-Z} \exp\left(\frac{B_A}{T}\right).$$

${}^AZ$	$B_A$	$g_A$
${}^2\text{H}$	2.22 MeV	3
${}^3\text{H}$	6.92 MeV	2
${}^3\text{He}$	7.72 MeV	2
${}^4\text{He}$	28.3 MeV	1
${}^{12}\text{C}$	92.2 MeV	1

At the onset of nucleosynthesis ( $T \gg 1$  MeV,  $t \ll 1$  sec) the balance between neutrons and protons is maintained by the weak interactions (here  $\nu = \nu_e$ ):

$$n \leftrightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu},$$

$$\nu + n \leftrightarrow p + e^-,$$

$$e^+ + n \leftrightarrow p + \bar{\nu}.$$

When the rates for these reaction are rapid compared to the expansion rate  $H$ , chemical equilibrium obtains,

$$\mu_n + \mu_\nu = \mu_p + \mu_e,$$

what implies that in chemical equilibrium

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = \exp(-Q/T + (\mu_e - \mu_\nu)/T),$$

where  $Q = m_n - m_p = 1.293$  Mev. Neglecting the chemical potential, the equilibrium value of the neutron-to-proton ratio is

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = \exp(-Q/T),$$

Composition of matter at  $T \sim 0.2$  GeV

Photons, neutrinos, electrons and positrons, muons, and taus are in thermal equilibrium

$$\gamma + \gamma \leftrightarrow \mu^+ + \mu^- \leftrightarrow \nu_\mu + \tilde{\nu}_\mu \leftrightarrow \gamma + \gamma$$

$$\gamma + \gamma \leftrightarrow \tau^+ + \tau^- \leftrightarrow \nu_\tau + \tilde{\nu}_\tau \leftrightarrow \gamma + \gamma$$

$$\gamma + \gamma \leftrightarrow e^+ + e^- \leftrightarrow \nu_e + \tilde{\nu}_e \leftrightarrow \gamma + \gamma$$

Reactions between leptons, like

$$e^+ + \mu^- \leftrightarrow \tilde{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu, \quad e^- + \mu^+ \leftrightarrow \nu_e + \tilde{\nu}_\mu,$$

$$e^+ + \nu_e \leftrightarrow \mu^+ + \nu_\mu, \quad e^- + \tilde{\nu}_e \leftrightarrow \mu^- + \tilde{\nu}_\mu.$$

preserve the state of thermal equilibrium.

Reaction rates between different leptons are determined by:

$$\Gamma_{e\nu} = n_e c \sigma_{e\nu} \quad \Gamma_{\mu\nu} = n_\mu c \sigma_{\mu\nu}, \text{ where}$$

$\sigma_{e\nu}$  and  $\sigma_{\mu\nu}$  denote the cross sections for the appropriate reactions. The state of thermal equilibrium is maintained when  $\Gamma(T) \cdot t(T) \gg 1$ .

When this condition is violated, reactions with neutrinos are too slow to maintain thermal equilibrium.

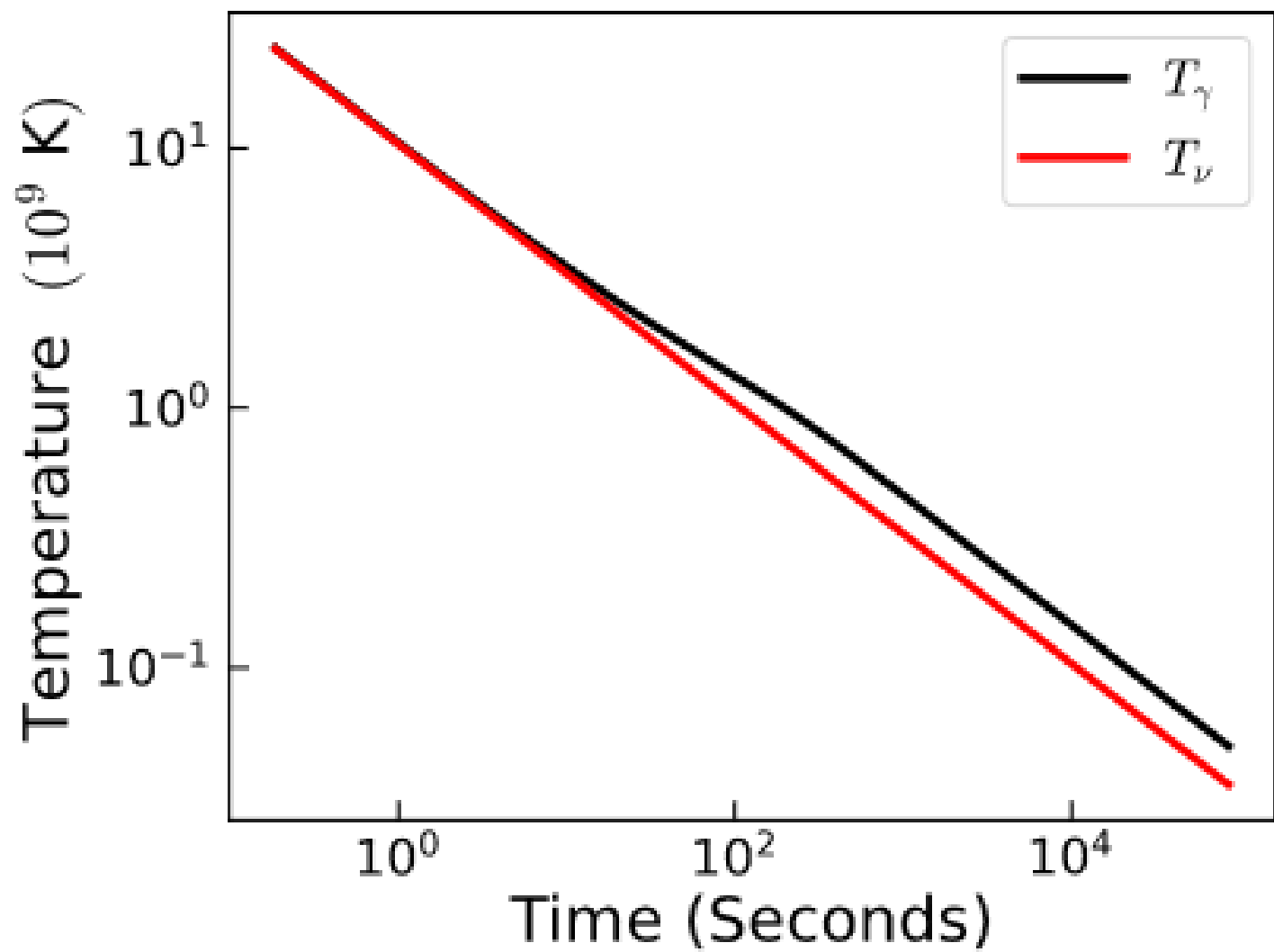
At the moment of freeze out, the number density of neutrinos is  $n_\nu = \frac{3}{8}g_\nu n_\gamma$ ,  
where  $g_\nu = \sum g_{\nu i}$  denotes the total number of spin states.  
At that epoch neutrons and protons are still in a state of thermal equilibrium,  
that is kept due to the reactions:

$$e_+ + n \leftrightarrow p + \tilde{\nu}_e ,$$

$$\nu_e + n \leftrightarrow p + e^- ,$$

$$n \leftrightarrow p + e^- + \tilde{\nu}_e .$$





However at certain temperature  $T_* \approx 1\text{MeV}$ ,  $\Gamma(T_*) \cdot t(T_*) \approx 1$  and the number density of neutrons relative to protons becomes frozen at a level of:

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} \approx \left(\frac{n_n}{n_p}\right)_* = \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta mc^2}{k_B T_*}\right) \approx 0.27.$$

However free neutrons are unstable and they start to decay, so at onset of the primordial nucleosynthesis  $\frac{n_n}{n_p} \approx 0.14$

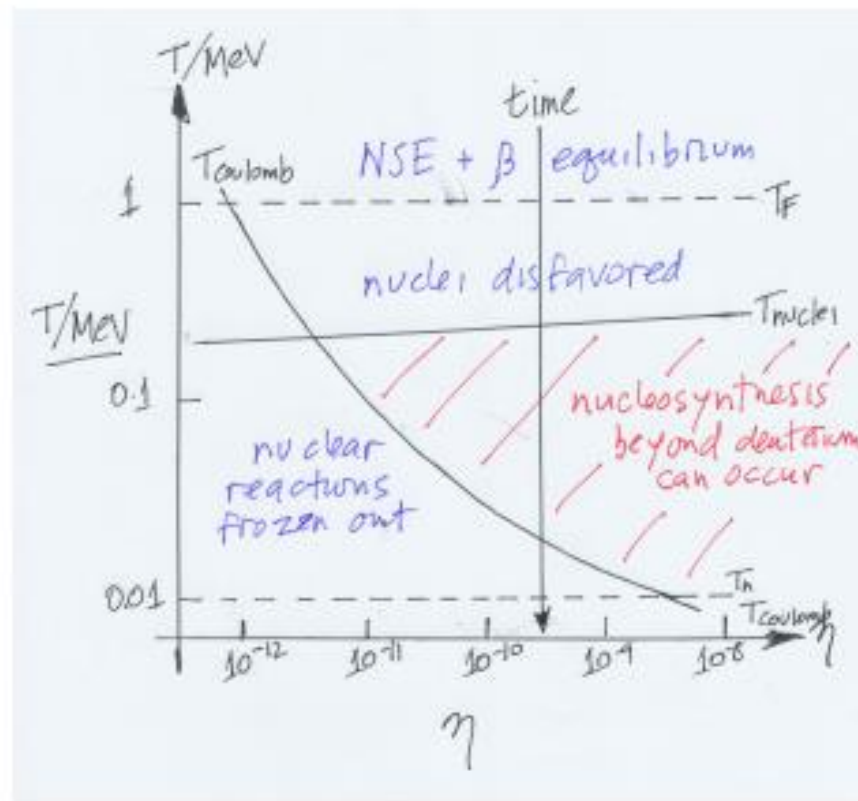
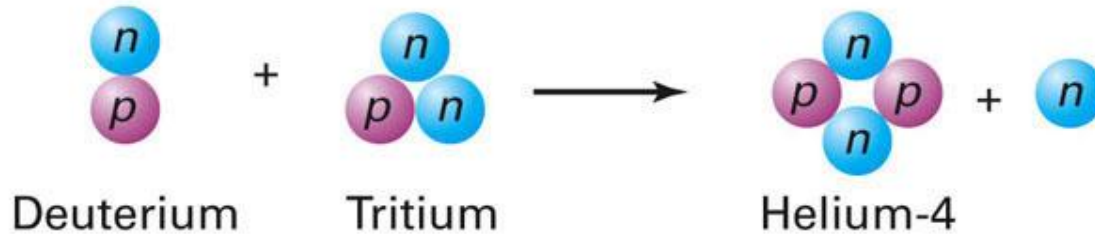
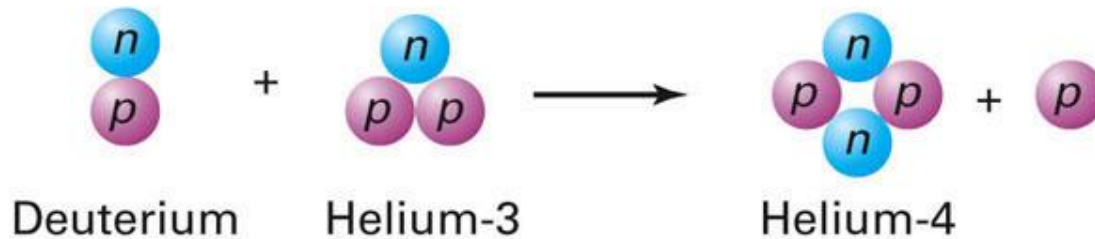
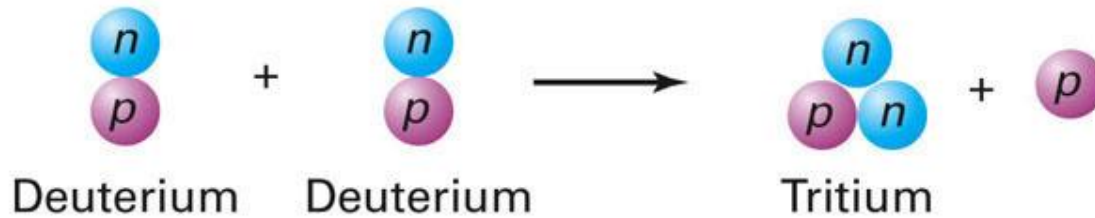
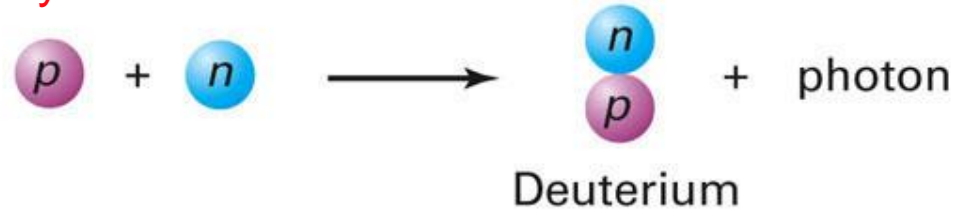


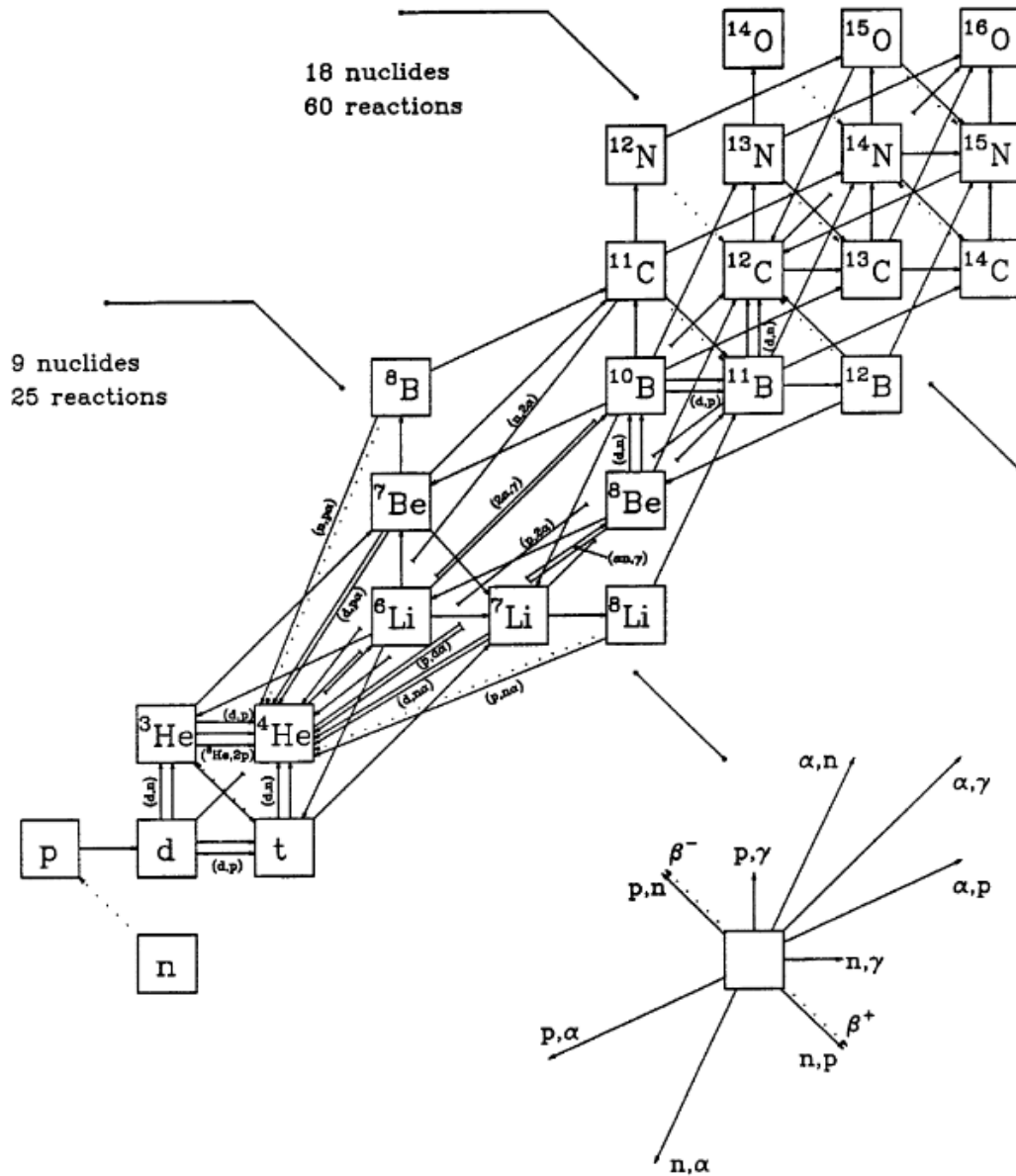
Figure 1: Key temperatures during BBN vs. the baryon-to-photon ratio  $\eta$ :  $T_F$ , the freeze in of the  $n/p$  ratio;  $T_{\text{nuclei}}$ , the temperature below which nuclei are thermodynamically favored over free nucleons;  $T_{\text{Coulomb}}$ , the temperature below which charged-particle nuclear reactions cease occurring; and  $T_n$ , the temperature at which the age of the Universe is the lifetime of a free neutron. Any significant nucleosynthesis beyond deuterium requires  $T_{\text{nuclei}} \geq T_{\text{Coulomb}}$ , or  $\eta \geq 10^{-11}$ . The vertical line marked “time” shows the timeline of successful BBN: freeze in of the  $n/p$  ratio at  $T = T_F \rightarrow$  period of waiting until nuclei are favored  $T_F > T > T_{\text{nuclei}} \rightarrow$  nucleosynthesis  $T_{\text{nuclei}} > T > T_{\text{Coulomb}} \rightarrow$  frozen out nuclear reactions  $T_{\text{Coulomb}} > T \rightarrow$  any free neutrons remaining decay  $T_n > T$ .

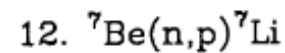
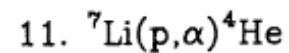
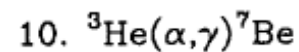
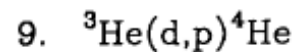
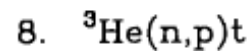
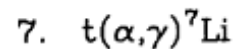
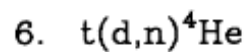
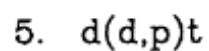
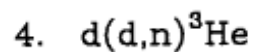
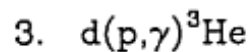
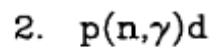
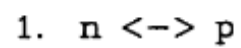
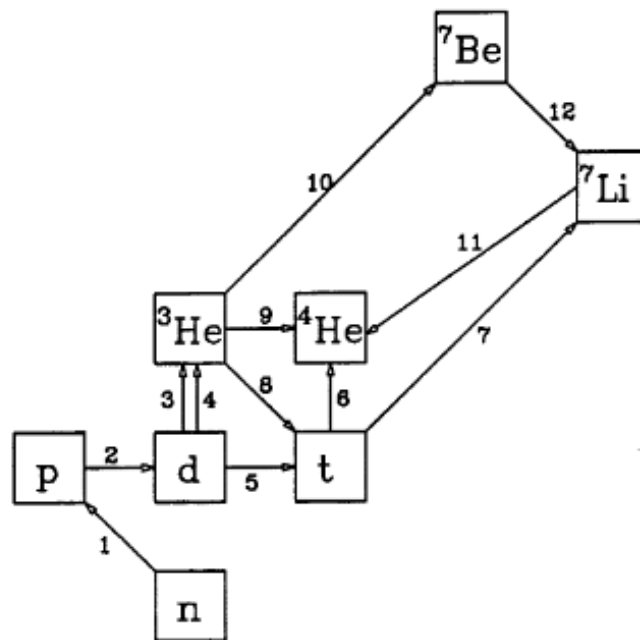
# Nucleosynthesis in the first few minutes of the universe



Temperature	—	Time
$10^{11} K$	—	0.01secs
$10^{10} K$	—	1.07secs
$10^9 K$	—	3 mins
$10^8 K$	—	5.3 hrs
$4 \times 10^3 K$	—	$10^5$ yrs

26 nuclides  
88 reactions





Computational parameters:

cy = 0.300/ ct = 0.030/ initial temp = 1.00E+02/ final temp = 1.00E-02  
 smallest abundances allowed = 1.00E-25

Model parameters:

g = 1.00/ tau = 888.54/ # nu = 3.00/ lambda = 0.000E+00  
 xi-e = 0.000E+00/ xi-m = 0.000E+00/ xi-t = 0.000E+00

Temp	D/H	T/H	He3/H	He4	Li7/H
1.000E+02	3.724E-12	1.861E-25	1.861E-25	4.000E-25	1.861E-25
4.676E+01	1.447E-12	1.645E-24	1.878E-24	4.000E-25	1.724E-25
1.953E+01	6.514E-13	1.349E-24	1.771E-24	4.000E-25	1.483E-25
8.459E+00	6.931E-13	3.474E-23	4.290E-23	3.847E-23	1.284E-25
4.328E+00	3.435E-12	1.573E-19	9.482E-20	1.958E-17	1.216E-25
2.604E+00	6.453E-11	7.236E-14	1.227E-14	1.158E-12	1.197E-25
1.618E+00	9.186E-09	1.271E-09	2.918E-11	1.718E-08	7.021E-25
1.160E+00	2.277E-06	2.007E-07	5.884E-10	9.206E-07	3.093E-18
9.468E-01	2.099E-04	5.488E-06	7.423E-09	1.886E-04	2.221E-13
8.224E-01	4.693E-03	9.150E-05	2.299E-06	7.544E-02	1.505E-09
6.152E-01	3.355E-04	3.918E-06	1.305E-05	2.414E-01	3.726E-10
2.704E-01	8.010E-05	3.642E-07	1.401E-05	2.419E-01	6.245E-11
1.232E-01	7.319E-05	2.464E-07	1.507E-05	2.419E-01	6.051E-11
7.135E-02	7.268E-05	2.340E-07	1.521E-05	2.419E-01	6.066E-11
2.987E-02	7.261E-05	2.345E-07	1.523E-05	2.419E-01	6.067E-11
1.247E-02	7.260E-05	2.342E-07	1.523E-05	2.419E-01	6.067E-11
9.882E-03	7.260E-05	2.339E-07	1.547E-05	2.394E-01	1.271E-10



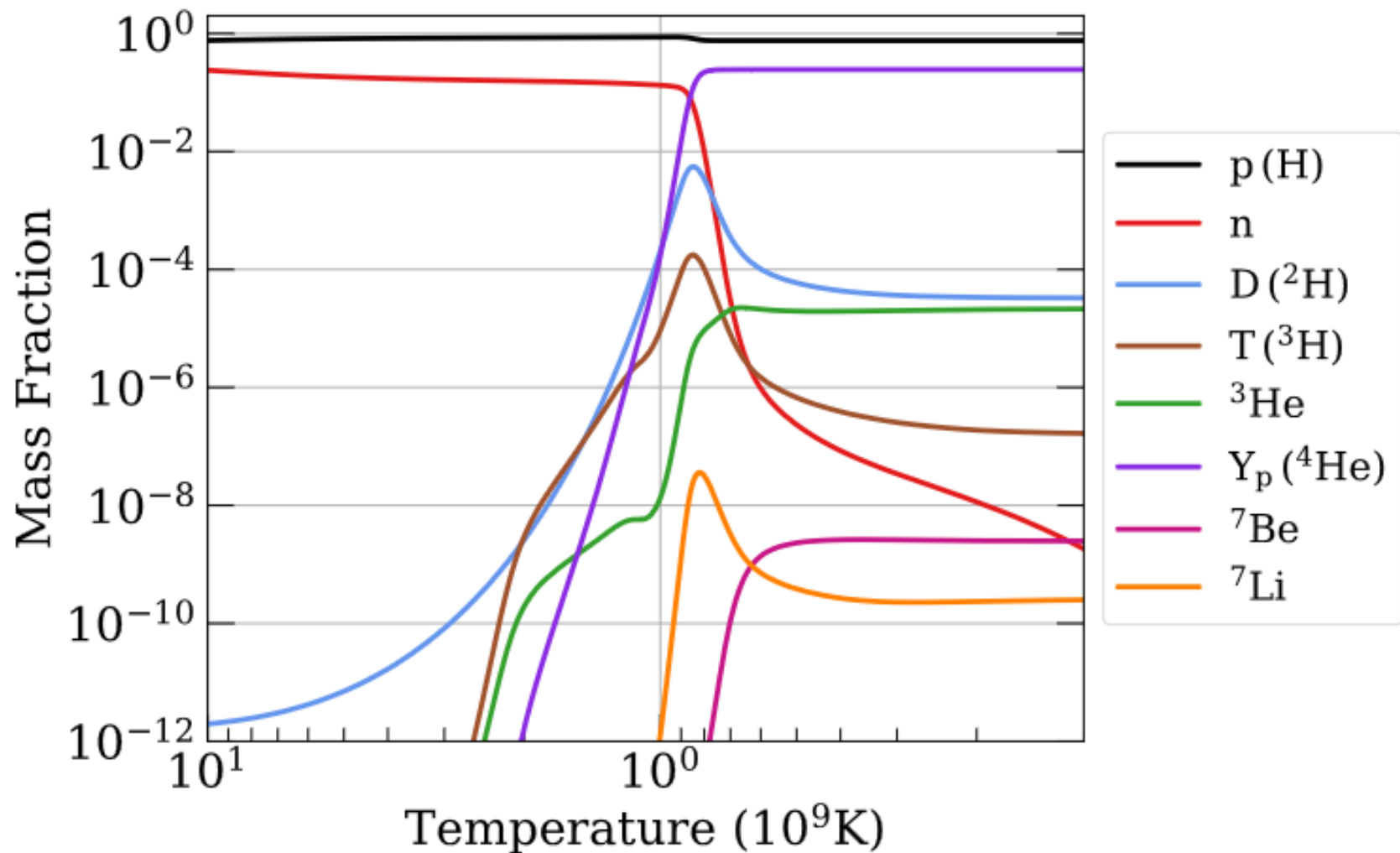
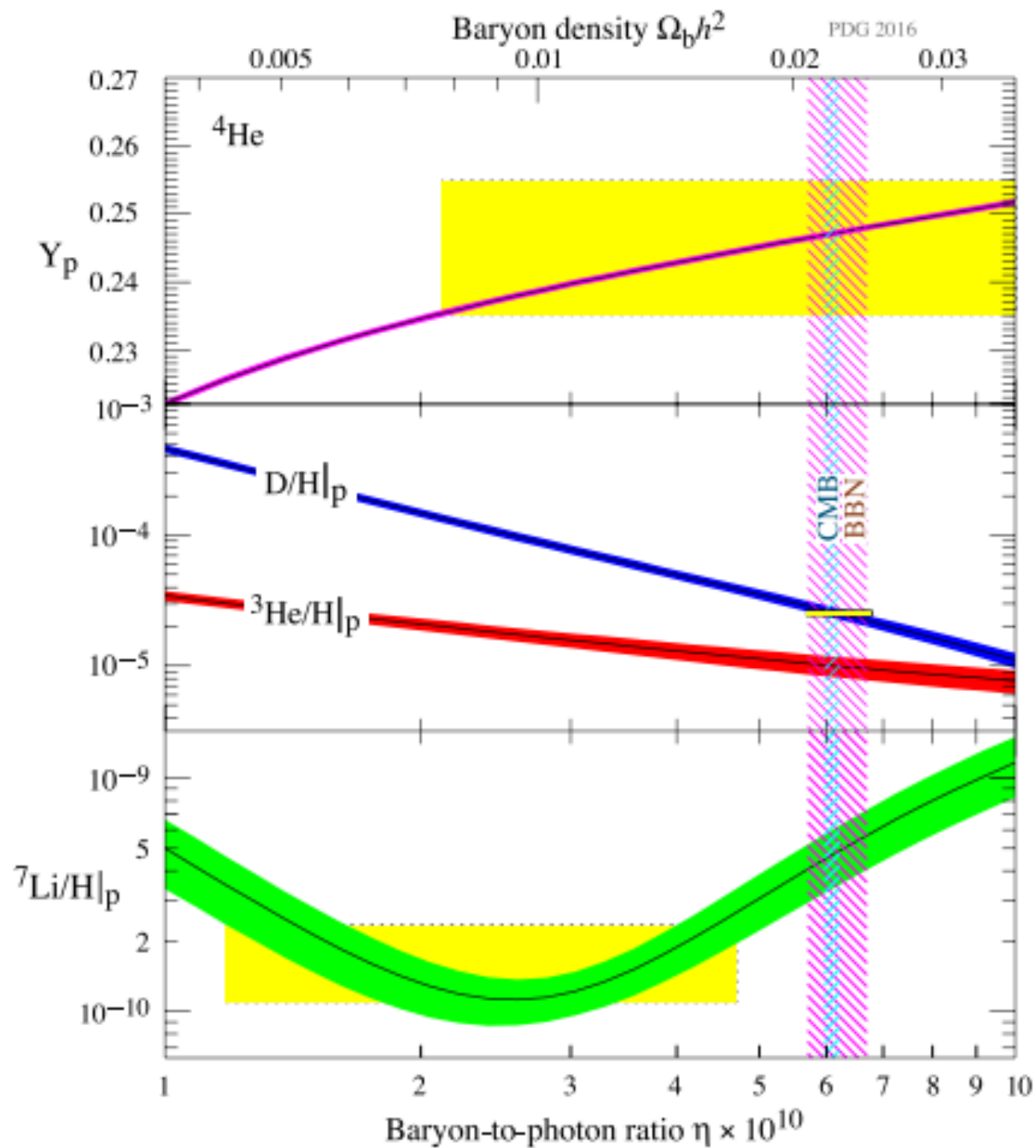


FIG. 3. Abundances of the elements created during BBN, produced using `BBN-simple`. For this calculation we adopt the baryon-to-photon ratio  $\eta = 6.12 \times 10^{-10}$ , the effective number of relativistic species  $N_{\text{eff}} = 3.046$ , and the mean lifetime of the neutron,  $\tau_n \approx 880.2$  s. See text for other details.



# Primordial nucleosynthesis - observational data

$$D/H|_p = (2.53 \pm 0.04) \times 10^{-5}.$$

$$Y_p = 0.245 \pm 0.004,$$

$$Li/H|_p = (1.6 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-10}.$$

$$5.8 \leq \eta_{10} \leq 6.6 \text{ (95\% CL)}.$$

$$0.021 \leq \Omega_b h^2 \leq 0.024 \text{ (95\% CL)},$$