



SMR.626 - 31

SUMMER SCHOOL IN HIGH ENERGY PHYSICS AND COSMOLOGY

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LECTURES ON COSMOLOGY

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This is a preliminary draft of the notes.
The report here is a preliminary draft
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Please note: These are preliminary notes intended for internal distribution only.

SMR.626 - 27

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A1

Cosmology

2. Standard Background Cosmology

The fundamental relations for the
standard big bang model of the universe
come from the Einstein equations

$$R^{\mu}_{\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\mu}_{\nu} R = 8\pi G T^{\mu}_{\nu}$$

where R^{μ}_{ν} is the Ricci tensor which
contains only the metric and metric derivatives,
 $R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu}$ is the scalar curvature, and
 T^{μ}_{ν} is the energy momentum tensor for
the matter, and G is the Newtonian
gravitational constant. T^{μ}_{ν} is also conserved:

$$T^{\mu}_{\nu ; \mu} = 0.$$

~~On the~~ In an average sense, the universe is assumed to be homogeneous and isotropic. Strong observational support for this assumption can be found in the uniformity of the cosmic microwave background radiation, which is ~~is~~ constant to 1 part in $\sim 10^5$ over the entire sky. The notion of homogeneity and isotropy has been elevated to a principle "The Cosmological Principle." Using this as our guide constrain the metric to the following form called the

"Robertson-Walker" metric

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

~~Robertson-Walker metric~~

where K is the ~~scalar~~ scalar curvature of space, and $a(t)$ is a function of time only which describes the expansion of space with time. We ^{can} then ~~make~~ make the distinction between physical coordinates $\vec{R}$ and comoving coordinates $\vec{r}$:

$$\vec{R} = a(t) \vec{r}$$

comoving coordinates are useful for separating out the general expansion of the universe

A4

To illustrate the effect of expansion let us note the velocity of a test particle e.g. a galaxy at a distance R from us

$$\vec{V} = \frac{d}{dt} \vec{R} = \frac{d}{dt} (a \vec{r})$$

$$= \dot{\frac{a}{a}} a \vec{r} + a \dot{\vec{r}}$$

the first term is the velocity of coordinate expansion and the other is called its peculiar velocity. If the comoving distance does not change $\dot{r}=0$ then

$$\vec{V} = \dot{\frac{a}{a}} \vec{R}$$

and we find at any given time, velocity is proportional to distance

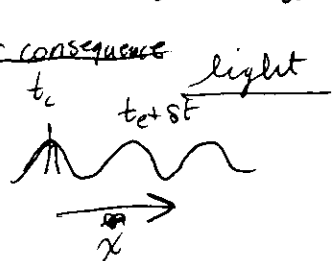
A5

$v \propto R$! Hubble law

$$\vec{v} = \dot{\frac{a}{a}} \vec{R} = H \vec{R}$$

Hubble constant $H_0 = \dot{\frac{a}{a}}(t_0)$

$$H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

other consequence
 t_c $t_c + \delta t$ light


$ds^2 = 0 \Rightarrow dt^2 = a^2 d\vec{r}^2$
 $\frac{dt^2}{a^2} = d\vec{r}^2 \quad \frac{dt}{a} = d\vec{r}$

two galaxies at rest w.r.t. each other in co moving coords (distance $\vec{r}$ constant)

$$\int_{t_c}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a} = \vec{r}$$

$$\int_{t_c + \delta t_c}^{t_0 + \delta t_0} \frac{dt}{a} = \vec{r} \quad \delta t \dot{a} \ll a$$

$$\int_{t_c + \delta t_c}^{t_0 + \delta t_0} \frac{dt}{a} - \int_{t_c}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\delta t_0}{a(t_0)} = \frac{\delta t_c}{a(t_c)}$$

$$\lambda = c \delta t$$

$$\frac{\lambda_0}{a(t_0)} = \frac{\lambda_c}{a(t_c)}$$

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_c)} \lambda_c$$

Wavelength of light gets stretched

light gets redshifted (if $a(t)$ increases).

$$\text{redshift parameter } z = \frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda_e}{\lambda_e}$$

$$= \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_e)} - 1$$

$$(1+z) = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_e)}$$

two ways to verify expansion of the universe

Hubble law $v \propto R$

• redshift of light from faraway objects

for convenience we choose $a(t_0) = 1$

Specific form of $a(t)$ depends on the ~~type~~ type of matter. For a homogeneous & isotropic universe, T_{μ}^{ν} must take the perfect

fluid form ($g_{00} = -1$ $g_{ij} = \frac{1}{a^2} \delta_{ij}$)

$$T_{\mu}^{\nu} = \begin{bmatrix} -\rho & 0 \\ 0 & p \delta_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$$

~~where~~ where the matter of the universe is "at rest". That is we can

$$\text{write } T_{\mu}^{\nu} = (\rho + p) u_{\mu} u^{\nu} + p \delta_{\mu}^{\nu}$$

$$\text{where } u^{\mu} = (1, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$\text{Note } u_{\mu} = g_{\mu 0} u^0 = (-1, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$T_0^0 = -\rho - p + p = -\rho \quad \checkmark$$

Conservation equation

$$T_{\mu}^{\nu}{}_{;\nu} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dp}{dt} = -3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} (\rho + p)$$

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

can be reduced to:

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho - \frac{K}{a^2}$$

and

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

The behavior of $a(t)$ will be derived for the 3 types of "matter" which occur

1) Cold particle matter

2) radiation

3) vacuum energy density

1) Non relativistic cold matter $p \ll \rho$

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

$$\rho = \frac{\rho_0 a_0^3}{a^3}$$

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \frac{\rho_0 a_0^3}{a^3}$$

$$\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_0 a_0^3} a^{-3/2}$$

$$\dot{a} \propto a^{-1/2}$$

$$a \propto t^\beta \Rightarrow \beta - 1 = -1/2 \Rightarrow \beta = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3}$$

2) Radiation $p_r = \frac{1}{3} \rho_r$

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = -4 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} (\rho)$$

$$\rho \propto \frac{1}{a^4}$$

conserv.

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = -3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} (\rho)$$

$$\rho \propto \frac{1}{a^3}$$

you know that:

$$\rho = \frac{N(r)}{\frac{4\pi}{3} a^3(t) r^3}$$

2) radiation $p_r = \frac{1}{3} \rho_r$ $\frac{d\rho}{dt} = -3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\rho + p) = -4\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\rho$ A/D
 $\rho \propto \frac{1}{a^4}$

Note if a light wave leaves at t_e and is received at t_o

$\rho = \frac{\langle E \rangle N}{\frac{4\pi}{3} a^3 r^3}$ ~~the time between successive crests~~ the length between successive crests observed

$c \delta t_o = \frac{a(t_o)}{a(t_e)} c \delta t_e$

$\langle E \rangle = \frac{ch}{\lambda} \langle \frac{1}{a} \rangle = \frac{ch}{\lambda a(t)}$

$I \propto \frac{1}{a}$

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

so $\rho \propto \frac{1}{a^4}$ $\frac{\langle E \rangle}{a}$

$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 \propto \frac{1}{a^2}$

$\dot{a} \propto a^{-1} \Rightarrow a \propto t^{1/2}$

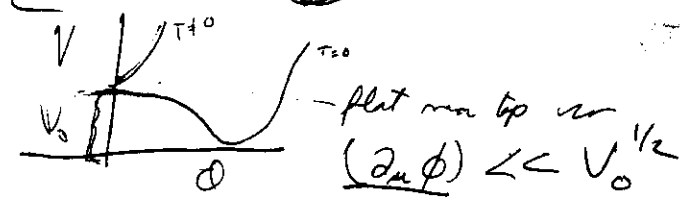
3) Vacuum energy density:

e.g. Spontaneous symmetry breaking

$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi) - V(\phi)$

$T_{\mu\nu} = - \left\{ \partial_\mu \phi \partial_\nu \phi - \delta_{\mu\nu} \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial^\alpha \phi \partial_\alpha \phi - V(\phi) \right] \right\}$

suppose



$T_{\mu\nu} \propto -V_0 \delta_{\mu\nu}$

equivalent to a cosmological constant.

note if we force

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

$p_r = -V_0 = -\rho_v$

$\Rightarrow \frac{d\rho_v}{dt} = -3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\rho + p_r) = 0$

$\rho_v = \text{constant}$

Friedman eq.

$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} (\rho_m + \rho_v) - \frac{k}{a^2}$

$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \left(\rho_m(t) \left(\frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} \right)^{3+1} + \rho_v \right) - \frac{k}{a^2}$

Regardless of what matter is if $\rho_v \neq 0$ or $k \neq 0$ eventually they will dominate the density of the universe

Cosmological constant

~~Adaptive Domains~~ ~~at~~

Vacuum dominated

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_v = \text{const} = H^2$$

$$\Rightarrow a \propto e^{Ht}$$

$\Rightarrow$ exponential expansion

~~q = deceleration~~

note without

$$H_0^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho = \frac{8}{3} \frac{\rho}{\rho_c} + \frac{\Lambda}{3} \quad \Lambda = 8\pi G \rho_v$$

$$\rho_{crit} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G}$$

$$\Omega = \frac{\rho_{matter}}{\rho_{crit}} \quad \text{note if } \rho_{matter} = \rho_{crit} \Rightarrow \Lambda = 0$$

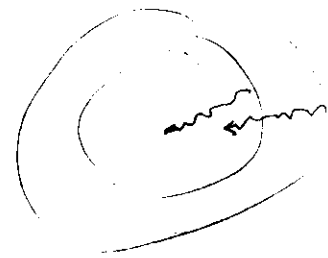
For $\Lambda=0$

note if $\rho < \rho_{crit} \Rightarrow k < 0$ hyperbolic space

$\rho > \rho_{crit} \Rightarrow k > 0$ closed spatial curved S^3

more classical def'n. q_0 - "deceleration parameter"

$$q \equiv -\frac{\ddot{a}}{\dot{a}} \left/ \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)\right. = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\rho + 3p - \rho_v}{\rho_{crit}} \quad \text{if } \rho_v = 0, p = 0 = \frac{1}{2} \Omega$$



"Horizon" size

how far can a photon have travelled since the big bang

$$\int_0^{v_H} dv = \int_0^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a}$$

since today is matter dominated

$$a(t) = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{2/3}$$

$$R_H = t_0^{2/3} \int_0^{t_0} t^{-2/3} dt$$

$$= 3 t_0^{2/3} \left[t^{1/3} \right]_0^{t_0}$$

$$R_H = 3 t_0^{2/3} t_0^{1/3} = 3 t_0$$

since $a(t_0) = 1$

$$\text{physical unit } R_H = 3 t_0$$

$$R_H = \frac{2}{H_0}$$

$$H_0 = \frac{\frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{t_0} \left(\frac{t_0}{t_0}\right)^{2/3}}{\left(\frac{t_0}{t_0}\right)^{2/3}} = \frac{2}{3 t_0}$$

$$H_0 = \frac{2}{3 t_0}$$

$$\text{Horizon size} = 2 \left(\frac{1}{H_0} \right) = 2 (\text{Hubble radius})$$

for $\frac{1}{H_0}$ is locally termed horizon size.

~~all~~ all that we can see is within our horizon. The observable part of the universe is within our horizon. Sometimes called "The universe".

→ Problems Horizon problems

"Cosmo Principle" ~~how~~ how did the universe get so homogeneous & isotropic?

e.g. the cosmic background radiation

$$p_r = a_r T^4 \approx 7.56 \times 10^{-16} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{m}^3 \text{K}^4}$$

$$p_r(t) = \frac{a_r T^4}{a(t)^4} = a_r \left[\frac{T_0}{a(t)} \right]^4$$

• $t \rightarrow 0$ universe gets hotter → matter is ionized in early on CMBR + matter were in thermal eq

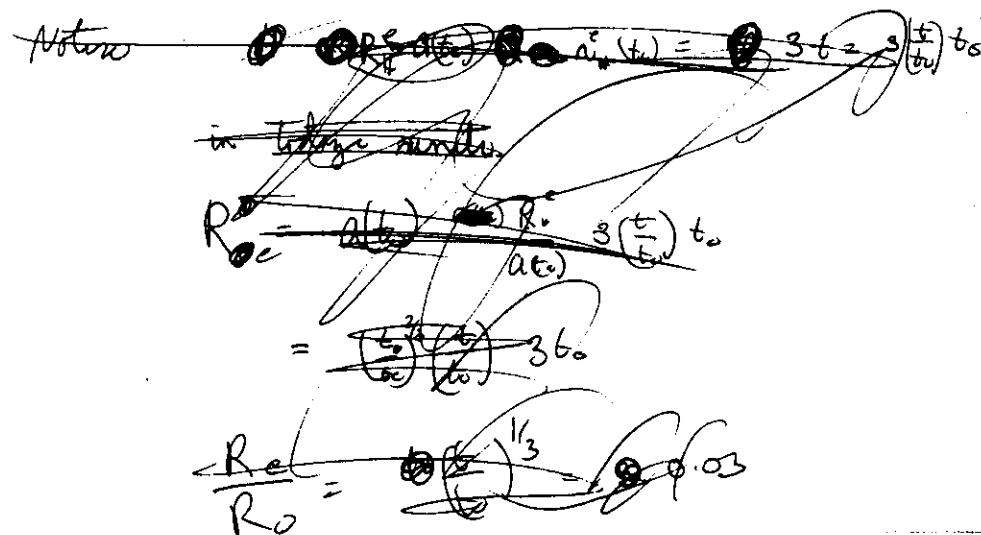


as universe expanded and cooled eventually the matter combined to form neutral H & became transparent. This is called the decoupling time. it happened when the photon temp $\sim 3000 \text{ K}$

$$a(t) \frac{T(t)}{a(t)} = 3000$$

$$a(t) \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{2.74}{3000}$$

$$\frac{t}{t_0} = \left(\frac{2.74}{3000} \right)^2 = 2.76 \times 10^{-5} \sim 100,000 \text{ yrs}$$



Puzzle 2. Flatness Problem

Note Friedman eq.

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho + \frac{8\pi G}{3} p_v - \frac{K}{a^2}$$

for the moment say $p_v = 0$
some dynamical process

if $k=0$ $H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$

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

if $\rho < \rho_{crit} \Rightarrow k < 0$ negative curvature

if $\rho > \rho_{crit} \Rightarrow k > 0$ positive curvature

~~if~~ today $0.1 \rho_{crit} \lesssim \rho \lesssim 2 \rho_{crit}$ at ~~that time~~ if $\rho \neq \rho_{crit}$

then $K \sim \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{crit}$

 $\Rightarrow$ Since $k \neq 0$ term quickly dominates
in the past ρ must be finite then

$$\rho_{crit} - \rho_0 = \frac{3K}{8\pi G}$$

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

$$\rho_c \sim \frac{\rho_c}{a^3}$$

$$\sim \frac{K}{3} \left(\frac{\rho_c}{\rho_c} \right)$$

$$\frac{\rho_c - \rho}{\rho_c} \approx \frac{a^3}{a^2} = a$$

since $T_r \sim \frac{T_r^0}{a}$

$$a = \frac{T_r^0}{T_r}$$

$$\frac{\rho_c - \rho}{\rho_c} \approx \frac{T_r^0}{T_r}$$

In GUT epoch $T_r \approx 10^{16} \text{ GeV} = 10^{25} \text{ eV}$
 $T_r^0 = 10^{-4} \text{ eV}$

$$\frac{\rho_c - \rho}{\rho_c} \approx 10^{-29}$$

Incredible fine tuning initially

In other words if $\rho \neq \rho_c$
 how did ~~K~~ K get turned to
 be so small so that it is
 only important now?

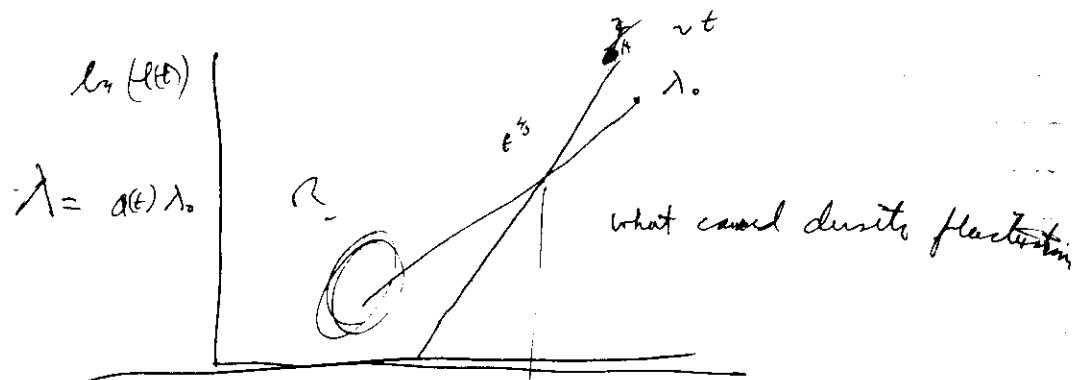
Sp problem

cluster of galaxies $\sim 10 \text{ Mpc}$

$$1 \text{ Mpc} = 3.08 \times 10^{24} \text{ cm}$$

Density fluct. ~~entered the horizon~~
 could not ~~enter the horizon~~
 have arisen from a causal process
 until relatively late in the universe history
 $\frac{2}{H_0} \sim 10 \text{ Mpc}$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(t) &= \sigma(t_0) \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/3} \\ &= \frac{2}{H_0} \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/3} = 12000 \text{ Mpc} \cdot \frac{t}{t_0} \\ \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{1/3} &= \frac{10}{12000} \quad t = 10^{-7} t_0 \end{aligned}$$



What gave rise to this density fluctuations
 in the early universe?

density fluctuations origin?

Inflation

- 1) Horizon problem
- 2) Flatness problem
- 3) Origin of density fluctuations

80.1

1st from yesterday

$$\frac{\pi \times 10^7 \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ yr}} \times \frac{10^5 \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ hr}} \times \frac{1 \text{ Mpc}}{3 \times 10^{24} \text{ cm}}$$

$$H_0 = 100 h \text{ km/sec-Mpc} = \frac{10^5 \text{ cm}}{3 \times 10^{24} \text{ cm}} \times \frac{1 \text{ Mpc}}{3 \times 10^{24} \text{ cm}} \text{ Mpc}$$

$$1 \geq h \geq 0.4 = \frac{1}{10^{10} \text{ s}}$$

$$H_0 = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \quad \text{if } K=0, \quad \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{2}{3t}$$

$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{H_0} = \frac{2}{3} h^{-1} \times 10^{10} \text{ yrs}$$

$$\Rightarrow 7 \times 10^9 \leq t_0 \leq 16 \times 10^9 \text{ yrs}$$

ages of glob. cluster 15-20 yrs

$$\text{ages estimates } 11 \times 10^9 \leq t_0 \leq 20 \times 10^9$$

$$\Rightarrow h \leq 0.6$$

$$\text{if } \Omega_0 = 1$$

other $\rho_{\text{crit}} = \frac{3 H_0^2}{8 \pi G} = 1.9 \times 10^{-29} h^2 \frac{\text{gm}}{\text{cm}^3}$

$$\frac{2(c)}{H_0} = 6000 h^{-1} \text{ Mpc}$$

Big Bang does not mean everything came from a point!



take $t = 10^{-46}$ sec $= \frac{1}{M_{pl}}$

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t)[d\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r}]$$

at a fixed time $ds^2 = a^2(t)d\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r}$

space is infinite; it does not stop at the horizon



you cannot yet see this stuff

Correct picture

Raisin

at $t = \frac{1}{M_{pl}}$



the universe fills all space

creates more space as it expands.

that is why you look anywhere & see $2.74 K$ CMBR

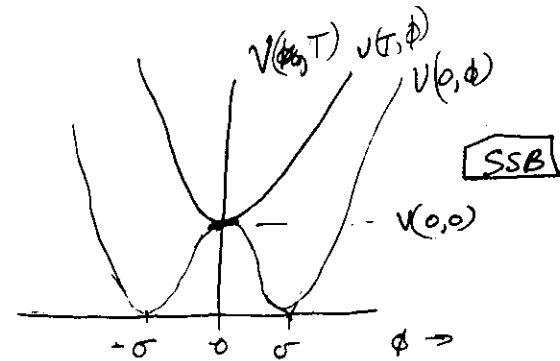
the big bang happened everywhere $\rightarrow$ you can see it everywhere you look.

cosmological
Inflation - The advantages of having an
 inflationary ~~type~~ type era had been
 kicking around ~~in~~ in the community before
~~the~~ the 1980's, but ~~the~~
 a detailed picture of ~~an~~ an inflationary

~~epoch~~ epoch from start to
 finish did not emerge until the 1980's.

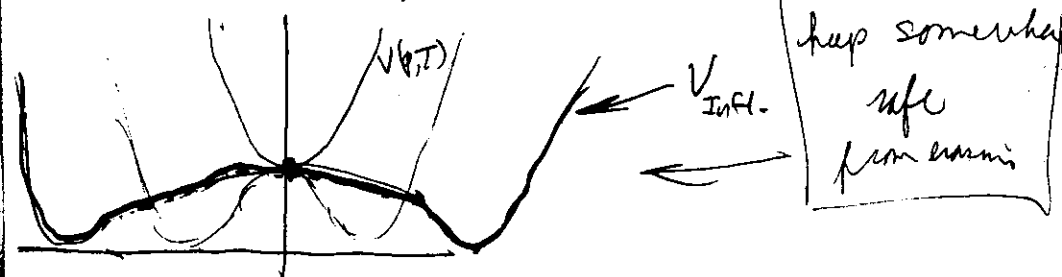
The particle physics connection ~~was~~
~~became~~ became more plausible
 with the ~~triumph~~ success of
 the Spontaneous Symmetry breaking
 paradigm for Electroweak theory.

~~Remember~~ Recall the
 basic scenario for SSB.



$$V(\phi, T) \approx V(\phi, 0) + T^2$$

~~At high Temp~~ At high Temp $T \gg V(0,0)^{1/4}$
 minimum is at $\phi=0$. As it falls
 below this temp, the minimum is ~~farther away~~
 non zero, breaking the symmetry of the ~~low~~ potential.
 The trick of inflation is to have a potential
 with a broad flat shoulder to ~~the~~ $V(0,0)$.



so it takes some time for the ~~field~~ field

to reach its minimum.

$$\mathcal{L} = 2^{\mu} \phi \partial_{\mu} \phi / 2 - V(\phi) \approx \phi^2 / 2 - V(\phi)$$

+ constant & order

notice $\nabla\phi$ terms quickly become negligible
classical equation of motion of the fields ϕ

$$\ddot{\phi} + 3H\dot{\phi} + \Gamma_{\phi}\dot{\phi} + V'(\phi) = 0$$

provided that ϕ particles do not decay immediately and the potential is very flat ($\ddot{\phi}$ negligible by design)

$$\Rightarrow 3H\dot{\phi} \approx -V'(\phi)$$

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = -\frac{V'(\phi)}{3H}$$

$$-\frac{d\phi}{V'(\phi)} = \frac{dt}{3H}$$

To find length of time of inflation

$$\frac{d\phi}{V'(\phi)} = \frac{dt}{3H}$$

$$\frac{d\phi}{V'(\phi)} = \frac{dt}{3H}$$

$$\frac{d\phi}{V'(\phi)} = \frac{dt}{3H}$$

$$\frac{d\phi}{V'(\phi)} = \frac{dt}{3H}$$

$$\Delta\phi = \frac{1}{\Lambda} \int_{\phi_i}^{\phi_f} d\phi$$

$$(\Delta\phi)^2 = \left(\frac{1}{\Lambda} \int_{\phi_i}^{\phi_f} d\phi \right)^2$$

$$H\tau = H\Delta t = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt = \int_{\phi_i}^{\phi_f} \frac{d\phi}{V'(\phi)}$$

← end of inf

Inflation requires

$H\tau = O(10^2)$
to solve horizon & flatness problems

Why?

$$\text{current horizon size} = \frac{2c}{H_0} \quad c=1$$

before inflation horizon size was $\sim \frac{2c}{H_0}$

$$G = \frac{1}{M_{Pl}^2} = \frac{2\phi}{\frac{4\pi}{3}\rho V} \approx \left(\frac{M_{Pl}^2}{M_{ac}^2} \right)^{-1}$$

$$\approx (10^{17}) \text{ GeV}^{-1} \quad \text{if } M_{ac} = 10^{14} \text{ GeV}$$

or infl expands this scale by $e^{Ht} = e^N$

$$(10^{-17}) \frac{e^N}{\text{GeV}} \Rightarrow \text{scale corresponding to } \frac{c}{H_0}$$

that scale has expanded to the present physical scale

Reheating from

$$10^{-17} \frac{e^N}{\text{GeV}} (10^5)$$

during reheating Γ_a

$$\frac{10^{10} \text{ GeV}}{(10^{-4}) \times 10^{-9} \text{ eV}} = \frac{(10^{10}) (10^{28})}{\text{GeV}}$$

$$= 10^{19} \frac{e^N}{\text{GeV}}$$

$\uparrow$ 2.7 K $\uparrow$ T_i

$$z \approx \frac{2}{H_0} \approx 2(3000 \text{ Mpc}) \left(\frac{3 \times 10^{24} \text{ cm}}{\text{Mpc}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ GeV}} \right)$$

$$\boxed{z \approx 10^{42} \frac{1}{\text{GeV}}} \quad \text{save for later}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^N 10^{17} \frac{1}{\text{GeV}} \approx 10^{42} \frac{1}{\text{GeV}}$$

$$e^N \approx 10^{25}$$

$$N \approx 50$$

depending on Mass scale at $ssb(\rho_v) = 10$
and amount of expansion during reheating

— solves horizon problem
i.e. every part of the currently observable universe had been in causal contact before inflation.

flatness problem

$$\text{If } \frac{1}{a^2} \approx \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_v \text{ before inflation}$$

today
ignore Λ for now

$$\frac{1}{a^2} = H_0^2 - \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho - \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$\frac{1}{a^2 H_0^2} = 1 - \frac{\rho}{\rho_{\text{crit}}} = 1 - \Omega$$

$$\frac{1}{a^2 H_0^2} = \left. \frac{1}{a^2} \right|_{\text{before infl}} \times e^{-2N} \times 10^{-10} \left(\frac{10^{-4} 10^{-9}}{10^{10} \text{ GeV}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{4 \times 10^{41} \text{ GeV}} \right)^2$$

↑ ↑
infl reheat
(10⁵) after reheat

let us say that $\frac{1}{a^2}$ before infl $\approx \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{\text{vac}}$

$$= \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_v$$

$$\approx \frac{8\pi}{3} \frac{(10^{11})^4}{(10^{19})^2} (\text{GeV})^2$$

$$\approx 8 \times 10^{18} (\text{GeV})^2$$

$$\approx 10^{18} (\text{GeV})^2$$

$$\frac{1}{a_0^2 H_0^2} = 8 \times 10^{18} (\text{GeV})^2 e^{-2N} \left(\frac{10^{-56}}{10^{-10}} \right) \left(\frac{10^{-10}}{1.6 \times 10^{18} \text{ GeV}} \right)^2$$

$$= 1.3 \times 10^{35} e^{-2N}$$

$$\frac{1}{a_0^2 H_0^2} = 1 - \Omega \lesssim 10^{35} (10^{-45})$$

$$\lesssim 10^{-10}$$

Curvature is negligible today
without Λ $\rho = \rho_{\text{vac}}$ to $> 0 (10^{10})$

Of course inflation will not set Λ to zero so recall $(1 - (\Omega_0 + \frac{\Delta}{3H_0^2})) \lesssim 10^{-16}$.
 Notice, however

if $\frac{\Lambda}{3H_0^2} \lesssim 1$ $\Lambda = 8\pi G \rho_V$

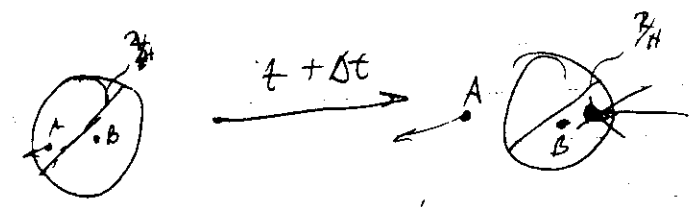
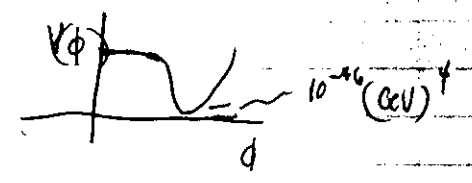
$\frac{8\pi G \rho_V}{3H_0^2} \lesssim 1$

$\rho_V \lesssim \frac{3}{8\pi} \frac{H_0^2}{G} = \rho_{EW}$
 $\lesssim \frac{1}{8} \frac{(GeV)^2 (10^{12} GeV)^2}{10^{13}}$

$\lesssim \frac{1}{8} 10^{-45} (GeV)^4 = 10^{-46} (GeV)^4$

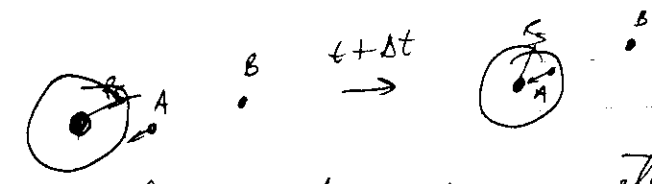
$\rho_V^{1/4} \lesssim 10^{-12} GeV = 10^{-3} eV$

What does this have to do with particle physics of SSB ~~GUT~~ ~~spontaneous~~



A can no longer communicate with B

quite like a black hole

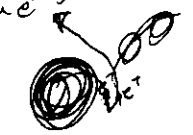


A can no longer communicate with B

Similar in another respect.

near event horizon when quantum fluctuations occur on length scales comparable to the

event horizon ^{scale} _{free} get Hawking radiation



Similar effect occurs in de Sitter space

There are quantum fluctuations on scales comparable to the horizon size

of length $\sim \frac{1}{H}$ and temp

$$T_{GH} = \frac{H}{2\pi} \text{ Gibbons - Hawking temp.}$$

To find the amplitude of density fluctuations $\left(\frac{\delta\rho}{\rho}\right)$ is not trivial. This is because for lengths $\gtrsim$ Horizon scale, such as those which arise during inflation, $\frac{\delta\rho}{\rho}$ is a gauge dependent quantity.

The gauge dependence comes from the fact that we are always comparing the coordinates of a perturbed universe with a background RWF perfectly homogeneous

and isotropic universe. One must be careful to specify the amplitude of density fluctuation in a gauge invariant way.

~~Then~~ It is popular to use the quantity $S = \frac{2}{\delta\rho} \left[\frac{1}{H} \dot{\Phi} + \Phi \right] + \Phi$; $\Phi = \frac{g_i}{\rho + p}$ when evaluated on the scale of the horizon is $S|_{l=\frac{1}{H}} \approx \frac{\delta\rho}{\rho + p}$ $\Phi|_H = \frac{2}{3}\frac{\delta\rho}{\rho}$

Notice during inflation $\rho_\phi = \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)$

$$\text{but } p_\phi = \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)$$

$$\text{or allways } \rho_\phi \approx V(\phi) \approx -p_\phi$$

$$\rho_\phi + p_\phi = \dot{\phi}^2$$

$$\Rightarrow S \approx \frac{2}{3} \rho \left(\frac{1}{H} \dot{\Phi} + \Phi \right) \approx \frac{2}{3} \frac{\rho \dot{\phi}}{(\rho + p)} \approx \frac{\delta\rho}{\rho + p}$$

$$T_u = \int d^3x \phi \partial^\nu \phi - \delta_u^\nu \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_\alpha \phi \partial^\alpha \phi - V(\phi) \right]$$

M.D. $\rightarrow \frac{2}{3} \phi + \Phi = \frac{5}{3} \Phi = \frac{5}{3} \frac{\delta\rho}{\rho}$

Now $\delta p_\phi = \delta \phi V'(\phi)$

$V'(\phi) = 3H\dot{\phi}$ during infl

$$\left. \frac{\delta p}{p} \right|_r \approx \frac{\delta p_\phi}{(p_s + p_\phi)} = \frac{\delta \phi \cdot 3H\dot{\phi}}{(\dot{\phi})^2} = 3 \delta \phi \left(\frac{H}{\dot{\phi}} \right) \Big|_{\text{hor}}$$

$\delta \phi \approx \left(\frac{H}{2\pi} \right) = T_{0H}$

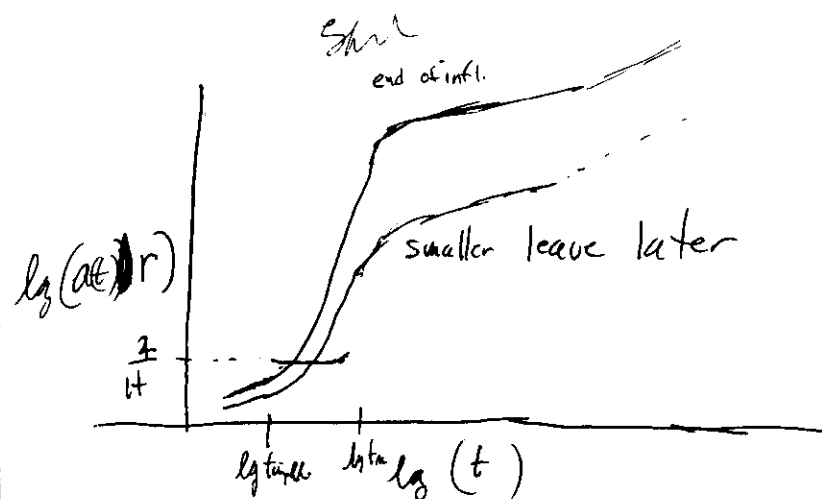
$$\left. \frac{\delta p}{(p+p)} \right|_H \approx \frac{3}{2\pi} \left(\frac{H^2}{\dot{\phi}} \right) \Big|_H$$

during infl. $H \approx \text{constant}$ ϕ very small
 "as time goes by" $\approx$ ~~constant~~
 so $\frac{\delta p}{p} \sim \text{constant}$ H - δ spectrum
 scale-invariant

$H^2 \sim \frac{8\pi}{3} \frac{V}{M_{pl}^2}$ decrease slightly with t

$\dot{\phi}^2$ increase slightly with t

as t increases $\frac{\delta p}{p}$ decrease slightly with t



small ^{length} amplitude ϕ fluct slightly
 smaller than large length amplitude

$$\left. \frac{\delta p}{(p+p)} \right|_H = \left(\frac{3}{2\pi} \right) \left(\frac{H^2}{\dot{\phi}} \right) \Big|_H$$

depends only on the potential
 note $H = \frac{8\pi}{3} \frac{V}{M_{pl}^2}$

$$\dot{\phi} = -V'(\phi)/3H$$

$$\left. \frac{\delta p}{(p+p)} \right|_H = -24 \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} \left(\frac{V^{3/2}}{M_{pl}^3} \frac{dV}{d\phi} \right) \Big|_H$$

Specific Model quantity put
 $V \propto \text{const} - \frac{\lambda \phi^4}{4}$



$$V' = -\lambda \phi^3$$

$$H \int_t^{t_{\text{end}}} dt = H \int_{\phi_c}^{\phi_e} \frac{dt}{d\phi} d\phi$$

end of univ. end of univ.

$$H(t_{\text{end}} - t) = \# \text{ of folds between } t \text{ and end of univ.} = -H \int_{\phi_c}^{\phi_e} \frac{3H}{V'(\phi)} d\phi$$

$$= -3H^2 \int_{\phi_c}^{\phi_e} \frac{d\phi}{-\lambda \phi^3}$$

$$\frac{a(t_e)}{a(t_i)} = e^{H(t_{\text{end}} - t)} = \frac{3H^2}{\lambda} \int_{\phi_c}^{\phi_e} d\phi \phi^{-3}$$

$$= -\frac{3H^2}{2\lambda} \left(\frac{1}{\phi_c^2} - \frac{1}{\phi_e^2} \right)$$

$$\phi_e \gg \phi_c$$

$$H(t_{\text{end}} - t) \approx \frac{3H^2}{2\lambda \phi_c^2}$$

$$N = H(t_{\text{end}} - t) = \frac{3}{2\lambda} \frac{H^2}{\phi_c^2}$$

$$\left(\frac{H}{\phi} \right) = \left[\frac{2\lambda}{3} N \right]^{1/2}$$

Save

Now

$$\left(\frac{g_p}{\rho + p} \right) \Big|_H = \frac{3}{2\pi} \left(\frac{H^2}{-V'/H} \right) \Big|_H$$

$$= \frac{9}{2\pi} \frac{H^3}{V'} \Big|_H$$

$$= -\frac{9}{2\pi} \frac{H^3}{\lambda \phi^3} \Big|_H$$

$$= -\frac{9}{2\pi} \frac{1}{\lambda} \left[\frac{2\lambda}{3} N \right]^{3/2}$$

$$= -\frac{9}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \sqrt{\lambda} N^{3/2}$$

this factor should be

$$\frac{2}{5\pi} \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \text{ with more precise calc.}$$

$$\text{for } \frac{g_p}{\rho} \sim 10^{-5} \Rightarrow \sqrt{\lambda} N^{3/2} \lesssim 10^4$$

$$N \gtrsim 50 \quad N^{3/2} \approx 350$$

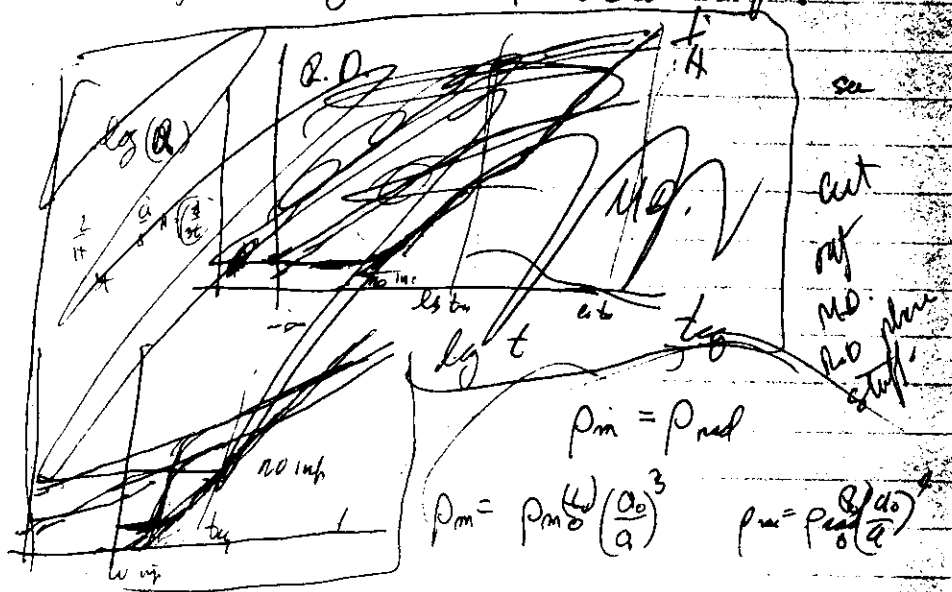
tiny couplings

$$\sqrt{\lambda} \lesssim 3 \times 10^{-7}$$

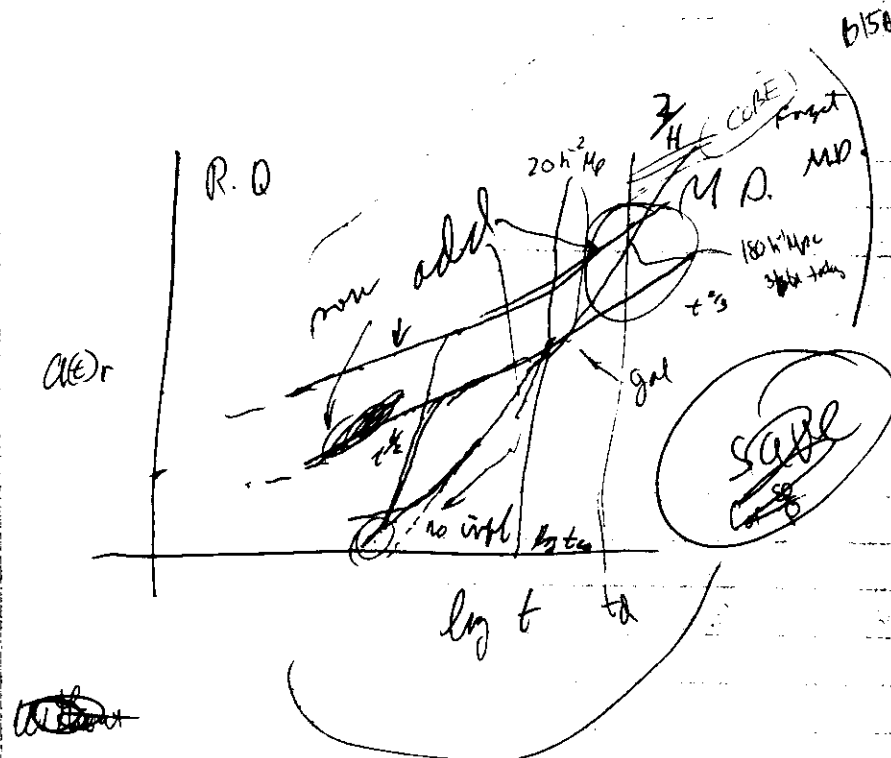
$$\lambda \lesssim 10^{-13} \text{ now.}$$

b15

these quantum fluctuations ~~are~~ ^{through grav. amplification} then thought to give rise to the ~~observed~~ observed structure in the universe. This also gives a physical mechanism for the initial conditions ~~required~~ for these fluctuations, something really lacking without infl.



b15a



B16

Valery Rubakov $t_0 = t_{eq}$

$$\rho_m(t_{eq}) = \rho_{rad}(t_{eq})$$

$$\rho_m(t) \rho_m(t_0) \left[\frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} \right]^3 = \rho_{rad} \left[\frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} \right]^4$$

$$\frac{a(t_{eq})}{a(t_0)} = \frac{\rho_{rad}(t_0)}{\rho_m(t_0)} \quad \downarrow aT^4$$

$$= \left(\frac{t_{eq}}{t_0} \right)^{2/3} = \frac{4 \times 10^{-34} \text{ erg cm}^3}{2 \times 10^{-29} \text{ kg/cm}^3}$$

$$\left(\frac{t_{eq}}{t_0} \right)^{2/3} = 2 \times 10^{-5} \Omega h^{-2} \quad \text{if } h=1$$

$t_{eq} \approx t_{dec}$

$$\left(\frac{t_{eq}}{t_0} \right) = 1 \times 10^{-7} h^{-3} (\Omega h^2)^{3/2}$$

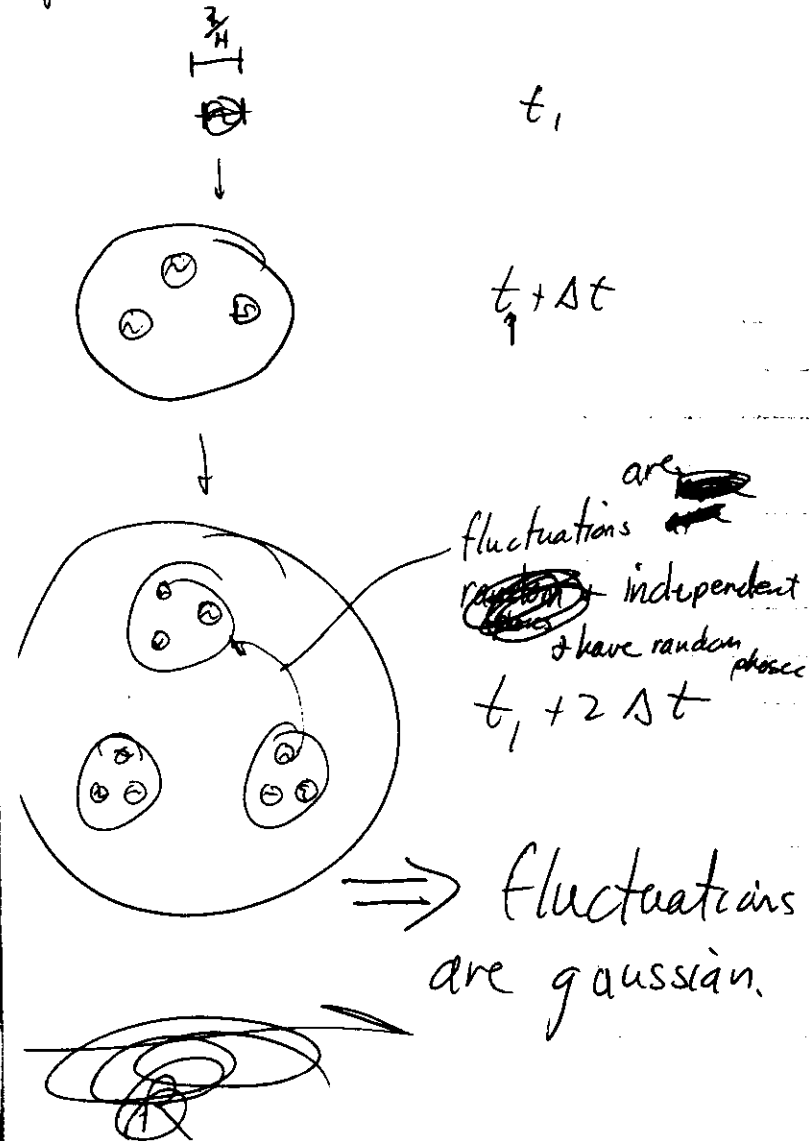
$$t_{eq} = 1 \times 10^{-7} h^{-3} \left(\frac{2}{3} \times 10^{10} \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ yr} \right)$$

$$3ct_{eq} = 3 \times 10^3 h^{-4} \text{ ly} \times \frac{\text{pc}}{3.26 \text{ ly}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \times 10^3 h^{-4} \text{ pc} \quad \left(\frac{h^2}{3ct_{eq}} \right) \quad \text{(over)}$$

B17

point Gaussian



B18

$\Rightarrow$ ~~Structure~~ $\frac{\Delta T}{T}$?

& $\frac{\Delta T}{T}$

• homogeneous

• ~~Structure~~ $\left(\frac{\Delta T}{T} \right)$

$$\Omega_0 \left(+ \frac{\Lambda}{3H_0^2} \right) = 1$$

• ~~Structure~~ ^{roughly} scale invariant $\frac{\Delta T}{T}$
 not up. ~~up~~ over all length scales.

• flux are gaussian

$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta T}{T}$? structure?

side

$$3H^2 = -\frac{1}{2} V(\phi)$$

B19

$$-\frac{d\phi}{(-\lambda\phi^3)} = \frac{r}{3H}$$

$$V = -\frac{\Lambda\phi^4}{4}$$

$$V' = -\lambda\phi^3$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\lambda} \phi^{-3} d\phi = \frac{r}{3H}$$

$$\left. \frac{1}{2\lambda} \phi^{-2} \right|_{\phi_i}^{\phi_f} = \frac{r}{3H}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\lambda} \left(\frac{1}{\phi_f^2} - \frac{1}{\phi_i^2} \right) = \frac{r}{3H}$$

$$\phi_i \ll \phi_f, \text{ so}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\lambda\phi_i^2} \approx \frac{r}{3H}$$

$$H = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} \frac{\Lambda}{4} \phi_i^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{2\pi\Lambda}{3}} \phi_i$$

QM $\rightarrow$

$$\tau_{QM} = \frac{m_{Pl}}{m_{Higgs}} \sim 10^{13}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\lambda\phi_i^2} = \frac{r}{\sqrt{6\pi G\Lambda}} \phi_i^2$$

$$r \approx \frac{\sqrt{6\pi G\Lambda}}{2\lambda} = \frac{1}{M_{Pl}} \sqrt{\frac{3r}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Lambda}}$$

$$T_{Pl} \sim E'$$

$$T_{Higgs} \approx 10^3 \frac{1}{10^{16} \text{ GeV}}$$

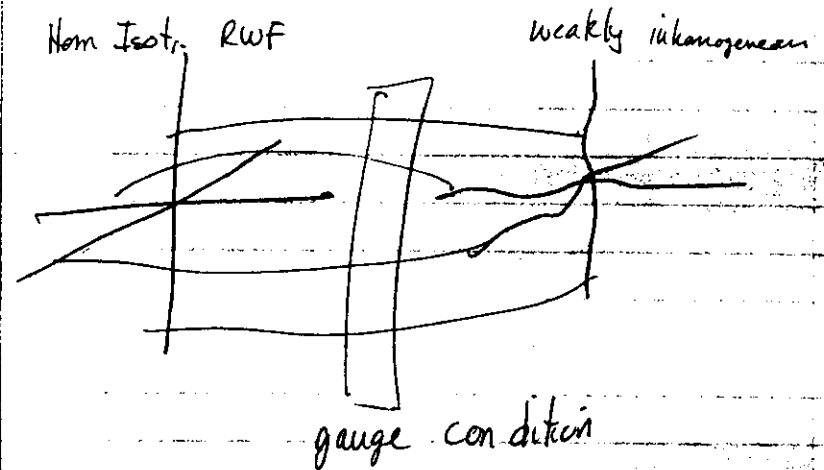
$$\approx \frac{1}{10^{13} \text{ GeV}}!$$

$$\lambda \approx 10^{-5} \quad \Lambda \approx 10^{-14}$$

$$\approx 100 T_{Pl} \quad \approx 10^2 T_{Pl}$$

$$\Delta T/T$$

fluctuation in temperature are closely related to fluctuations in density. In order to calculate $\frac{\Delta T}{T}$, we will need to know $\delta \rho$. Since fluctuations on scale of the horizon ~~are~~ have now been measured, ~~we need~~ we need to use g_{ij} calculation in order to compare prediction accurately. Let me elaborate on gauge invariant variable a bit



example: $\delta \rho$
Keep to flat space: discussion simpler, infl.
In one coordinate system we have

$$\rho = -(\rho^{(0)} + \delta \rho_A)$$

const background small deviation

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

~~$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$~~

$$\Rightarrow (g_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} + \delta g_{\mu\nu}) dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

Suppose in one ~~coordinate system~~ coordinate system I set $\delta \rho_{00} = 0$ so that the time in perturbed coord is 'synchronised'.

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

$$= (g_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} + \delta g_{\mu\nu}) dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

One gauge choice is $\delta t = 0$, i.e. the time coordinate in the perturbed

model is chosen to be the same as the

time in the background metric.

We do not need to make this choice.

Suppose $h_{00} \neq 0$, then

$$t \rightarrow t + T$$

$$\text{where } T \ll t$$

$$\rho(t+T) = \rho^{(0)}(t+T) + \delta\rho(t+T)$$

$$= \rho^{(0)}(t) + T \dot{\rho}^{(0)}(t) + \delta\rho(t)$$

$$= \rho^{(0)}(t) + \left[\delta\rho - 3T \frac{\dot{\rho}}{a} \left(1 + \frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} \right) \right]$$

$$\left. \frac{\delta\rho}{\rho} \right|_{\text{Syndr}} = \frac{\rho - \rho^{(0)}}{\rho} = \left. \frac{\delta\rho}{\rho} \right|_{\text{Syndr}} = \left(3T \frac{\dot{\rho}}{a} \left(1 + \frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} \right) \right)$$

$$\text{ONS} = \left. \frac{\delta\rho}{\rho} \right|_{\text{Syndr}} = 3TH \left(1 + \frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} \right)$$

Need to consider some combination of $\delta\rho$ and some other ~~variables~~ perturbation quantities which combine to eliminate the gauge dependence.

to do a full treatment:

1) (for flat space) work out perturbations

for a plane wave mode - any arbitrary pert is a superposition of plane waves

2) go to conformal time:

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2 d\vec{x} \cdot d\vec{x}$$

looks much more symmetric

$$ds^2 = -a^2 \left[dn^2 - d\vec{n} \cdot d\vec{n} \right]$$

$$a^2(n) dn^2 = dt^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} &= \frac{1}{a} \frac{da}{dt} = \frac{1}{a} \frac{dn}{dt} \frac{da}{dn} \\ &= \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{da}{dn} = \frac{a'}{a^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$M.D. \left(\frac{a'}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{a^2} \left(\frac{a'}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} = \frac{8\pi G \rho_0}{3} \left(\frac{a_0}{a} \right)^3$$

$$\left(\frac{a'}{a} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho_0 a_0^3}{3 a}$$

$$(a')^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho_0 a_0^3}{3} a$$

$$a' = \frac{8\pi G \rho_0 a_0^3}{3} a^{1/2}$$

$$a = \left(\frac{n}{n_0} \right)^2$$

$$\left(\frac{a'}{a} \right) = \frac{2}{n}$$

M.D

perturbed metric

$$ds^2 = a^2(n) \left[\eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu} \right] dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

$$\text{Minkowski } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

~~expand~~ consider the effect of a ~~single~~ scalar perturbation

which behaves like a plane wave

$e^{ik \cdot x} \rightarrow$ an arbitrary perturbation

can be obtained by looking at a

superposition of plane waves

Bardeen (1980) Kodama & Sasaki (1982)

$$h_{00} = -2A(n) Q(x)$$

$$Q = e^{ik \cdot x}$$

$$h_{0j} = -B(x) Q_j(x)$$

$$Q_j = \frac{1}{k} Q_{,j}$$

$$h_{ij} = 2H_L(n) Q \delta_{ij}$$

$$Q_{,ij} = \frac{1}{k^2} Q_{,ij} - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{ij} Q$$

$$+ 2H_T Q_{,ij}$$

energy momentum tensor $T_\nu^\mu = T^{(0)\mu}_\nu + \delta T_\nu^\mu$

$$T_0^0 = -p [1 + \delta(n) Q(\vec{x})]$$

$$T_0^i = -(p+p) v^i Q$$

$$T^i_j = p [\delta^i_j + \pi_L Q \delta^i_j + \pi_T Q^i_j(n)]$$

~~spatial~~ indices raised and lowered with

Kronecker δ_{ij}

(in conformal time coordinates does not change)

$$\frac{dp}{dn} = p' = -3 \frac{a'}{a} (p+p')$$

Infinitesimal gauge transformation

$$\bar{n} = n + T Q$$

$$\bar{n}' = n' + L' Q$$

$$\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}(n, \vec{x}) = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu} g_{\mu\nu}(n-TQ, \vec{x}-L'Q)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{A} = A - T' - \frac{a'}{a} T$$

$$\bar{B} = B + L' + hT$$

$$\bar{H}_L = H_L - \frac{a'}{a} L - \frac{a'}{a} T$$

$$\bar{H}_T = H_T + hL$$

$$\bar{T}_{\mu\nu}(n, \vec{x}) = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu} T_{\mu\nu}(n-TQ, \vec{x}-L'Q)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\delta} = \delta + 3(1+\frac{p}{\rho}) \frac{a'}{a} T$$

$$\bar{v} = v + L'$$

$$\bar{\pi}_L = \pi_L + 3 \frac{\rho p}{\rho + p} (1 - \frac{p}{\rho}) \frac{a'}{a} T$$

$$\bar{\pi}_T = \pi_T$$

Take combinations of the variables
to subtract off gauge piece

e.g. δ

$$\text{take } \bar{v} - \bar{b} = v - b - hT$$

$$\text{so } \left(\frac{1}{h} (\bar{v} - \bar{b}) \right) = \frac{1}{h} (v - b) - T$$

$$3 \left(1 + \frac{p}{\rho} \right) \frac{a'}{a} \frac{1}{h} (\bar{v} - \bar{b}) = 3 \left(1 + \frac{p}{\rho} \right) \frac{a'}{a} \frac{1}{h} (v - b) - 3T$$

$$\delta + 3 \left(1 + \frac{p}{\rho} \right) \frac{a'}{a} \frac{1}{h} (\bar{v} - \bar{b}) = \delta + 3 \left(1 + \frac{p}{\rho} \right) \frac{a'}{a} \frac{1}{h} (v - b) - 3T$$

Δ_c

in comoving gauge $v = b = 0$ $\Delta_c = \delta$

Other combinations are possible

$$\Delta_s = \delta + 3 \left(1 + \frac{p}{\rho} \right) \frac{a'}{a} \frac{1}{h} \left(\frac{1}{h} H_T = 0 \right)$$

$\Delta_s \rightarrow$ Mukhanov, Feldman + Brandenberger
Linde, Turner + Kolb

Δ_c Kodama + Sasaki, Gouda, me

$$\text{Note } \frac{a'}{a} \frac{1}{h} = \left(\frac{1}{a} \frac{a'}{a} \right) \left(\frac{a}{h} \right)$$

$$= H \lambda_{\text{phys}}$$

$$= \frac{H}{\lambda_{\text{phys}}}$$

Note in eq the combination $\frac{a'}{a} \frac{1}{h}$ appears often

when $\lambda_{\text{phys}} \ll H^{-1}$ in size

$$\Delta_c = \Delta_s = \delta$$

when $\lambda_{\text{phys}} \gg H^{-1}$ in size

$$\Delta_c \neq \Delta_s \neq \delta$$

They don't have to be

Other gauge inv combination $\Phi = g.v.$
generalization of the Newton
potential

Resolving $\nabla^2 \Phi = -4\pi G \rho$ except for minus sign
 just capitalise $\nabla^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho a^2$

Now taking $\delta R''_2 - \delta'_2 \delta R = 8\pi G \delta T'_2$

for cold matter $p \approx 0$ + plane wave

$\Delta'_c = -kV$ (cons of mass)

$V' + \frac{a'}{a} V = -k [4\pi G (\frac{a^2}{4h^2}) \rho] \Delta_c$ (can I omit?) $= -k \Phi$

$\Phi = +4\pi G \frac{a^2}{h^2} \rho \Delta_c$ Poisson's eqn of Newtonian

$\Delta''_c = -kV'$

$-\frac{1}{k} \Delta''_c + \frac{a'}{a} \left(\frac{-1}{k} \Delta'_c \right) = -k [4\pi G \frac{a^2}{h^2} \rho] \Delta_c$

$\Delta''_c + \frac{a'}{a} \Delta'_c - 4\pi G a^2 \rho \Delta_c = 0$

$\rho \propto \frac{\rho_0 a^3}{a^3}$

soln is $\Delta_c \propto T^2 a$

As when $\frac{1}{a} \frac{a'}{a} = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{4}$ (const) $\Delta_c \propto a = \Delta_c \propto \frac{1}{T^2} \left(\frac{a}{h} \right)^2$

$\nabla^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho \Delta_c$

D2

$\Phi = +4\pi G \frac{a^2}{h^2} \frac{\rho_0 a^3}{a^3} \Delta_c \frac{a}{a}$
 $= 4\pi G \frac{\rho_0 a^2}{h^2} \Delta_c$ const with

Now if $\Delta_c = \left(\frac{T^2 h^2}{4} \right) \epsilon_H$

when $\frac{a}{h} \frac{2}{T} = \frac{1}{h} \frac{a}{h} = \frac{2 \lambda_{cm}}{h}$

$\Delta_c = \epsilon_H$ Hubble

sufficient for infl. on horizon scale

$\Delta_c = \epsilon_H$ independent of Δ_c
 def $\Rightarrow$ weakly depending $\rightarrow$ ignore ρ

Now $\Phi = 4\pi G \frac{\rho_0 a^2}{h^2} \frac{T^2 h^2}{4} \epsilon_H = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\rho_0}{a} \frac{T_0^2}{h} \epsilon_H$
 $= \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{H_0^2}{c^2} \right) \frac{T_0^2}{h} \epsilon_H = \frac{3}{2} \epsilon_H$

$\Rightarrow \Phi$ is constant on all scales

we choose the form

$$\Delta_c = \epsilon_H \left(\frac{\hbar^2}{2} \right) \hat{a}(\vec{k})$$

when $\frac{\hbar^2}{a} = \frac{1}{a} \frac{a'}{a} = \hbar \Rightarrow \hbar = \frac{a'}{a}$

$$\Delta_c|_{\hbar} = \epsilon_H \hat{a}(\vec{k})$$

ϵ_H is a dimensionless

and $\langle \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{k}) \hat{a}(\vec{k}) \rangle =$

see SM argument

look at ~~Correlation function~~

$$\langle \Delta(\vec{x}, \eta) \Delta(\vec{y}, \eta) \rangle$$

$$= \langle \int d^3 k' \Delta_c(\vec{k}', \eta) e^{i\vec{k}' \cdot \vec{x}} e^{i\vec{k}' \cdot \vec{y}} \rangle$$

$$= \int d^3 k' d^3 k \epsilon_H^2 \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \frac{\hbar^2}{2}$$

$$\langle \Delta(\vec{x}, \eta) \Delta(\vec{y}, \eta) \rangle = \int d^3 k e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \epsilon_H^2 \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \frac{\hbar^2}{2}$$

$$\xi(\omega) = \text{FT Power Spectrum}$$

$$P(\hbar)$$

$$\xi(\omega) = \int d^3 k e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} P(\hbar)$$

$$P(\hbar) = \epsilon_H^2 \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \propto \hbar$$

$$= \epsilon_H^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^4 \hbar \Rightarrow \text{mod}$$

$$\vec{x} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\langle |\Delta(\vec{x}, \eta)|^2 \rangle = \int \frac{d^3 k}{k^3} \epsilon_H^2 \left(\frac{\hbar^2}{2} \right)^4$$

$$\langle |\Delta(\vec{x}, \eta)|^2 \rangle \Big|_{\hbar = \frac{2}{T}} = 4\pi \epsilon_H^2 \int \frac{dk}{k} \left(\frac{\hbar^2}{2} \right)^4$$

$$= 4\pi \epsilon_H^2 \int d(\ln k)$$

contributes to $\Delta(\vec{v})$ for $\hbar$ natural in unit

To show this is in fact what you

want for a scale invariant spectrum

consider a mass fluctuation

$$\frac{\delta M(k)}{M(k)} = \frac{\int d^3k' \rho \int d^3k \Delta_c(\vec{k}, n) e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}}}{\int d^3k' \rho}$$

$$= \frac{\int d^3k \Delta_c(\vec{k}, n)}{V}$$

$$= \int d^3k \Delta_c(\vec{k}, n)$$

$$= \int d^3k \Delta_c(\vec{k}, n) W(k)$$

$$W(k) = \int \frac{d^3x}{V} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} = \frac{2\pi}{V} \int_0^R r^2 dr \int_0^\pi \sin\theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{V} \int_0^R r^2 dr$$

$$= \frac{3}{(kR)^3} (\sin kR - kR \cos kR)$$

$$W(kR) \sim \begin{cases} 1 & kR \ll 1 \\ \rightarrow 0 & kR \gg 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\left\langle \left| \frac{\delta M}{M} \right|^2(k) \right\rangle = \int d^3k' d^3k \langle \Delta_c^*(\vec{k}', n) \Delta_c(\vec{k}, n) \rangle$$

$$W(k) W(k')$$

$$= \int d^3k \epsilon_H^2 \left(\frac{k}{2} \right)^2 \frac{1}{k^3} W^2(kR)$$

$$= \int d^3k \epsilon_H^2 \left(\frac{k}{2} \right)^2$$

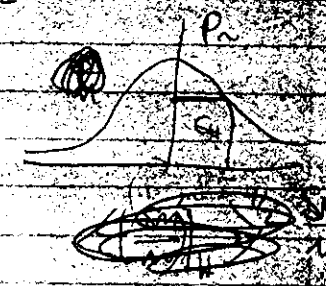
$$W(k) \propto \frac{1}{k^3} \left(\sin kR - kR \cos kR \right)$$

$$\propto \frac{1}{k^3} \left(\sin kR - kR \cos kR \right)$$

$$= \epsilon_H^2 \left(\frac{k}{2} \right)^2$$

$$\text{when } \frac{1}{k} \sim k = \frac{2}{p} \quad \left(\frac{k}{a} = H \right)$$

$$\left(\frac{\delta M}{M} \right)^2 \Big|_H \sim \epsilon_H^2$$

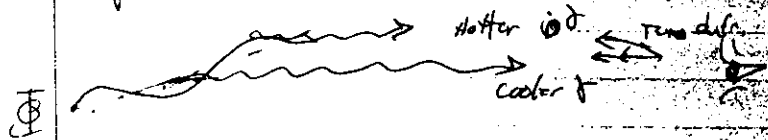


$$\begin{aligned}
 \Phi &= \frac{4\pi G}{h^2} \rho \Delta_c a^2 \\
 &= \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \right) \Delta_c a^2 \frac{1}{h^2} \\
 &= \frac{3}{2} \left[\frac{1}{a^2} \left(\frac{a'}{a} \right)^2 \right] \Delta_c a^2 \frac{1}{h^2} \\
 &= \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{2}{\eta} \right)^2 \epsilon_H^2 \left(\frac{hT}{2} \right)^2 \hat{\alpha}(h) \frac{1}{h^2} \\
 &= \frac{3}{2} h^2 \epsilon_H^2 \frac{1}{h^2} \hat{\alpha}(h) = \frac{3}{2} \epsilon_H^2 \hat{\alpha}(h)
 \end{aligned}$$

$\Phi = \text{const amplitude} \sim \frac{3}{2} \epsilon_H^2 \hat{\alpha}(h)$ *on scale*

(not just horizon size)

shfl. $\Rightarrow \Phi = \text{constant} \Rightarrow \text{temp. fluctuations}$



Temperature fluctuations Sachs-Wolfe effect

$$ST_0 + T_0 = \frac{T_c + ST_c}{1+z}$$

when the universe has cooled

to a temp. where

$c+p \rightarrow H$

Un. becomes transparent

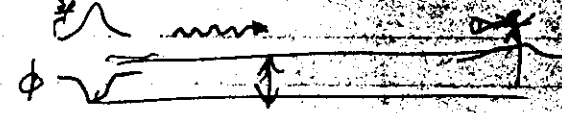
called ~~the photon decoupling~~

$$1+z = 1+z_{\text{exp}} + z_{\text{grav}} = \frac{T_c}{T_0} + \frac{ST_c}{T_0}$$

Temp. decoupling due to expansion

plus grav. redshift

when $t = t_{\text{dec}}$



z_{grav} depends only on difference in potentials



$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{ST_0}{T_0} + 1 &= \left[1 + \frac{ST_c}{T_c} \right] \left[1 - \frac{T_0}{T_c} z_{\text{grav}} \right] \\
 \frac{ST_0}{T_0} + 1 &= \left[1 + \frac{ST_c}{T_c} \right] \left[1 - \frac{T_0}{T_c} z_{\text{grav}} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$1+z = \frac{K_\alpha(n_d) U^\alpha(n_d)}{K_\alpha(n_0) U^\alpha(n_0)}$$

$U^\alpha = 4$ velocity

of fluid

K^α = tangent vector to null geodesic in perturbed spacetime

path = $\vec{x} = \vec{e} n$

$$1+z = \frac{a(n_0)}{a(n_d)} \left[1 - \vec{e} \cdot \vec{v}; Q(\vec{e} n) \right]_{n_0}^{n_d}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \int_{n_0}^{n_d} \frac{dn}{n} \left[2 \frac{a(n)}{a(n_0)} \frac{d}{dn} \left(\frac{a(n)}{a(n_0)} \right) \right]$$

We will change this into formula for use with CDM in which the pert are present at n_d & n_0 simple growth law. Relative velocity is ~~not~~ not gauge invariant. When we combine with $\frac{\delta T_\alpha}{T_\alpha} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\delta p_\alpha}{p_\alpha} \dots$ which is also ~~not~~ not gauge inv. as will

~~a~~ a simple gauge-invariant formula as the gauge pieces cancel in the final analysis

$$\frac{\delta T_\alpha}{T_\alpha}(k, n_0) = \left[\frac{1}{4} \Delta_{cr} + \frac{1}{3} \Phi \right] Q \left(\frac{n=n_d}{n_0} \right) + \frac{1}{n} (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{e} \partial_c) \Phi$$

Intrinsic fluct

Sachs Wolfe effect

doppler shifts due to motions of observer & emitter

note $\Delta_{cr}(n_d) \propto \left(\frac{k n_d}{4} \right)^2 \sim \left(\frac{k}{H} \right)^2$

$$V = -\frac{1}{n} \Delta'_c \propto \left(\frac{k n_d}{2} \right) \propto \left(\frac{k}{H} \right)$$

$$\Phi \propto \frac{3}{2} \phi_H \propto \left(\frac{k}{H} \right)^0$$

for $\lambda \gg \frac{1}{H(n_d)}$ $\frac{\delta T}{T} \approx \frac{1}{3} \Phi Q$

$$\frac{\delta T_0}{T_0} = -\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_H \chi(\vec{h}) Q(n_d \vec{e})$$

$$Q(\vec{e}) = e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{e} n_d}$$

$$= 4\pi \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^l i^l Y_{lm}^*(\theta_d, \phi_d) j_l(kr) Y_{lm}(\theta_d, \phi_d)$$

$$\left(\frac{\delta T_0}{T_0} \right)_{l,m} = -2\pi \epsilon_H \hat{a}(\vec{h}) i^l Y_{lm}^*(\theta_d, \phi_d) j_l(kr)$$

$$\sum_{l,m} \frac{\delta T_0}{T_0} = \sum_{l,m} a_{lm} Y_{lm}(\theta_d, \phi_d)$$

Summing over all l, m modes

$$a_{lm} = \left. \frac{\delta T_0}{T_0} \right|_{l,m} = -2\pi \epsilon_H \int d^3k \epsilon_H \chi(\vec{h}) i^l Y_{lm}^*(\theta_d, \phi_d) j_l(kr)$$

$$\langle |a_{lm}|^2 \rangle = 4\pi^2 \epsilon_H^2 \int d^3k' \langle \hat{a}(\vec{h}') \hat{a}(\vec{h}) \rangle (i)^l (i)^l Y_{lm}^*(\theta_d, \phi_d) Y_{lm}(\theta_d, \phi_d) j_l(k'r) j_l(kr)$$

$$\langle |a_{lm}|^2 \rangle = 4\pi^2 \epsilon_H^2 \int \frac{d^3k}{k^3} Y_{lm}^*(\theta_d, \phi_d) Y_{lm}(\theta_d, \phi_d) j_l^2(kr)$$

$$= 4\pi^2 \epsilon_H^2$$

$$\int d\Omega_d Y_{lm}^*(\theta_d, \phi_d) Y_{lm}(\theta_d, \phi_d) = 1$$

$$= 4\pi^2 \epsilon_H^2 \int \frac{dk}{k} j_l^2(kr)$$

$$\langle |a_{lm}|^2 \rangle = 4\pi^2 \epsilon_H^2 \frac{1}{2l(l+1)}$$

each $|a_{lm}|$ is gaussian & independent

rotationally invariant

$$\langle a_i^2 \rangle = \sum_{m=-l}^l \langle |a_{lm}|^2 \rangle = 4\pi^2 \epsilon_H^2 \frac{2l+1}{2l(l+1)}$$

$\langle a_i^2 \rangle$ is a multivariate $(2l+1)$ Gaussian
 $\Rightarrow \chi^2$ distribution

It is therefore dangerous to determine ϵ_n from the COBE quadrupole. It is much better to use a quantity which uses information over the range of scales, e.g. the temperature autocorrelation function

$$\frac{\delta T}{T}(\vec{e}_1) = - \int d^3k \frac{\epsilon_n}{2} \hat{a}(k)$$

$$C(\theta) = \left\langle \frac{\delta T}{T}(\vec{e}_1) \frac{\delta T}{T}(\vec{e}_2) \right\rangle \quad \text{where } \vec{e}_1 \cdot \vec{e}_2 = \cos \theta$$

$$C(\theta) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \sum_{l=2}^{\infty} \langle a_l^2 \rangle P_l(\cos \theta)$$

$$= \epsilon_n^2 \sum_{l=2}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{2(l+1)} P_l(\cos \theta)$$

You can also predict the variance of $C(\theta)$ ~~with the~~ ^{See} ~~Scaramella~~ ^{Scaramella} ~~Vittorio~~ ^{Vittorio}

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Fluctuations in density

$\Rightarrow$ fluctuations in temp. of

microwave background.

fluctuations of d.m. density $\Rightarrow$

$$\frac{\delta T}{T} = -\frac{1}{3} \Phi(n_u) \Phi(n_d)$$

Positive $\frac{\delta T}{T} \Rightarrow \Phi \Rightarrow \Delta_c$

Δ tells us something about the spectrum of

density fluctuations

which perhaps gives rise to

all structure in the universe.

Generic Infl gives rise to very definite predictions about structure which can be tested

$\frac{\Delta T}{T}$ spectrum of COBE is

consistent with inflation. What about amplitude?

from particle physics point of view - tells you about potential - cottage industry of theories for potentials - what about

not very strong constraints on ~~amplitude~~ spectral index

~~what about~~ ~~could~~ could allow ~~spectrum~~ non-infl. spectrum.

Is amplitude of scale-inv. spectrum consistent with

What is needed to explain

structure? ~~probably~~ ~~it~~ depends on

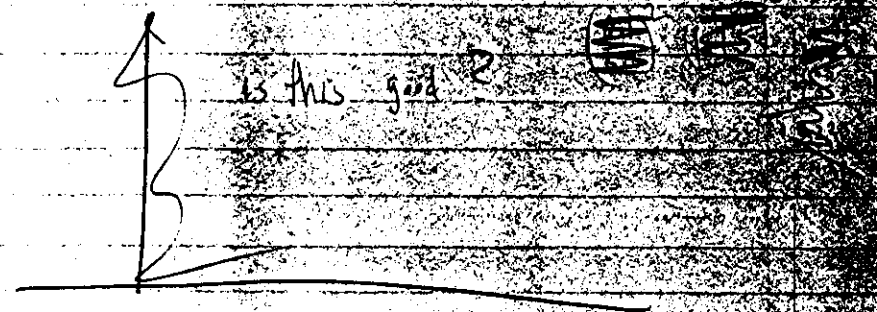
~~and~~ some interesting details.

$$\text{COBE} \quad \left(\frac{\Delta T}{T} \right)_\lambda = \frac{\langle Q_\ell^2 \rangle}{4\pi} \quad \left(Y_{00} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \right)$$

$$\frac{(2\ell+1)\pi^2}{2\ell(\ell+1)} \epsilon_{\ell\ell}^2 = \left(\frac{Q_{\text{rms-ps}}}{T_0} \right)^2$$

$$\left(\frac{16.7 \mu\text{K}}{2.735 \text{ K}} \right)^2 = \left(6.1 \times 10^{-6} \right)^2 = \frac{60}{12} \epsilon_{\ell\ell}$$

$$\boxed{C_\ell = \epsilon_{\ell\ell} \text{ SLOWLY}}$$



Norm & bias.

$$\left\langle \left(\frac{\delta M}{M} \right)^2 (8 h^{-1} Mpc)^3 \right\rangle = \frac{1}{b^2} \left\langle \left(\frac{\delta N_{gal}}{N_{gal}} \right)^2 \right\rangle$$

light does not trace mass if $b \neq 1$

Dark matter unit infl matter

Standard CDM models $b = 1.5 - 3$

HDM models $b = \frac{1}{3} - 1$

~~Mixed HDM~~

$\rho_{CDM} + \rho_{HDM} = \rho_{crit}$ $b = 1 - 7.5\%$

COBE measurement

$\Rightarrow$ CDM $b = 0.8$

HDM = $b = 1.6$

$\left(\frac{1}{4} \right)$ CPHDM $b = 1.3$

other LSS. QDOT Power spectrum
d. corr. $\delta u d$ - $\delta u d$ $v(bulk)$ in

