#### MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Physics Department Physics 8.952: Particle Physics of the Early Universe March 16, 2009 Prof. Alan Guth

## **PROBLEM SET 2 SOLUTIONS**

## PROBLEM 1: THE MANY COORDINATE SYSTEMS OF DE SITTER SPACE (20 points)\*

(a) The (x, y, z, t) coordinate system is related to the global (V, W, X, Y, Z) system by the equations

$$t = H^{-1} \ln [H(W + V)]$$

$$x = e^{-Ht}X$$

$$y = e^{-Ht}Y$$

$$z = e^{-Ht}Z .$$
(1.1)

The first of these equations implies that

$$W + V = H^{-1}e^{Ht} , (1.2)$$

which then implies that the constraint equation

$$X^{2} + Y^{2} + Z^{2} + W^{2} - V^{2} = X^{2} + Y^{2} + Z^{2} + (W + V)(W - V) = H^{-2}$$
(1.3)

can be rewritten as

$$e^{2Ht}(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) + H^{-1}e^{Ht}(W - V) = H^{-2} , \qquad (1.4)$$

implying

$$W - V = H^{-1}e^{-Ht} - He^{Ht}(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) .$$
(1.5)

Taking the sum and difference of Eqs. (1.2) and (1.5),

$$W = H^{-1} \cosh Ht - \frac{1}{2} H e^{Ht} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$

$$V = H^{-1} \sinh Ht + \frac{1}{2} H e^{Ht} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) .$$
(1.6)

The remaining equations for the inverse transformation are

$$X = e^{Ht}x$$
  

$$Y = e^{Ht}y$$
  

$$Z = e^{Ht}z$$
.  
(1.7)

The metric

$$ds^{2} = dX^{2} + dY^{2} + dZ^{2} + dW^{2} - dV^{2}$$
  
=  $dX^{2} + dY^{2} + dZ^{2} + (dW + dV)(dW - dV)$  (1.8)

can then be rewritten by using

$$dX = e^{Ht}(dx + Hxdt)$$

$$dY = e^{Ht}(dy + Hydt)$$

$$dZ = e^{Ht}(dz + Hzdt)$$

$$dW + dV = e^{Ht}dt$$

$$dW - dV = -\left[e^{Ht}H^{2}(x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2}) + e^{-Ht}\right]dt$$

$$-2e^{Ht}H(xdx + ydy + zdz) .$$
(1.9)

By combining Eqs. (1.8) and (1.9), one finds

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + e^{2Ht}(dx^{2} + dy^{2} + dz^{2}) , \qquad (1.10)$$

which is exactly the flat Robertson-Walker metric that we are seeking. Only half of the full space is covered, because Eq. (1.2) implies that W + V > 0.

(b) As the problem explained, for a fixed value of  $V = V_0$  the space is a 4-sphere of radius

$$a = \sqrt{V_0^2 + H^{-2}} , \qquad (1.11)$$

since

$$X^{2} + Y^{2} + Z^{2} + W^{2} = a^{2} = V_{0}^{2} + H^{-2} .$$
(1.12)

If we wish to put Robertson–Walker closed universe coordinates on this sphere, with K = 1, then r should be a dimensionless coordinate ranging from 0 to 1. This can be arranged by choosing

$$X = a r \sin \theta \cos \phi$$
  

$$Y = a r \sin \theta \sin \phi$$
  

$$Z = a r \cos \theta$$
  

$$W = a \sqrt{1 - r^2} .$$
  
(1.13)

More compactly, we can define a 3-vector  $\mathbf{X}$ , with  $X^i \equiv (X, Y, Z)$  as *i* runs from 1 to 3, so then

$$\mathbf{X} = a \, r \, \hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$W = a \sqrt{1 - r^2} \,, \qquad (1.14)$$

where

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}^{1}(\theta,\phi) = \sin\theta\,\cos\phi$$
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}^{2}(\theta,\phi) = \sin\theta\,\sin\phi \qquad (1.15)$$
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}^{3}(\theta,\phi) = \cos\theta \;.$$

We can check that we have the right metric on the 4-sphere by calculating the relevant differentials while holding V fixed. Then

$$d\mathbf{X} = a\,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}\,dr + a\,r\,d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}$$
  
$$dW = -\frac{a}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}\,r\,dr , \qquad (1.16)$$

and

$$ds^{2} = d\mathbf{X}^{2} + dW^{2}$$
  
=  $a^{2} dr^{2} + 2a^{2} r dr \,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \cdot d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} + a^{2} r^{2} d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}^{2} + \frac{a^{2}}{1 - r^{2}} r^{2} dr^{2}$  (1.17)  
=  $a^{2} \left[ \frac{dr^{2}}{1 - r^{2}} + r^{2} d\Omega \right] ,$ 

where

$$d\Omega = d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta \,d\phi^2 \,, \qquad (1.18)$$

and I used the fact that  $\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \cdot d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} = 0$ . This is the metric that we wanted. To get the full spacetime metric, we allow V to vary as well, with

$$a = \sqrt{V^2 + H^{-2}}$$
,  $da = \frac{V \, dV}{a}$ . (1.19)

Then

$$d\mathbf{X} = a\,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}\,dr + a\,r\,d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} + \frac{r\,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}}{a}\,V\,dV$$

$$dW = -\frac{a}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}\,r\,dr + \frac{\sqrt{1-r^2}}{a}\,V\,dV\,,$$
(1.19)

and after some algebra

$$ds^{2} = d\mathbf{X}^{2} + dW^{2} - dV^{2}$$
  
=  $a^{2} \left[ \frac{dr^{2}}{1 - r^{2}} + r^{2} d\Omega \right] - \frac{dV^{2}}{H^{2}V^{2} + 1}$  (1.20)

This will match the closed Robertson-Walker form that we are looking for if

$$dt = \frac{dV}{\sqrt{H^2 V^2 + 1}} , \qquad (1.21)$$

which can be integrated to give

$$t = H^{-1} \sinh^{-1}(HV) . (1.22)$$

 $\operatorname{So}$ 

$$V = H^{-1} \sinh Ht , \qquad (1.23)$$

and

$$a(t) = \sqrt{V^2 + H^{-2}} = H^{-1} \cosh Ht$$
, (1.24)

where the full metric is then

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a^{2}(t) \left[ \frac{dr^{2}}{1 - r^{2}} + r^{2} d\Omega \right] .$$
 (1.25)

Finally, we were asked to express r,  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ , and t in terms of X, Y, Z, W, and V, which we can do by using Eqs. (1.11), (1.13), and (1.22):

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2}{V^2 + H^{-2}}}$$
  

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{Z}{\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2}}\right)$$
  

$$\phi = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{Y}{\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}}\right)$$
  

$$t = H^{-1} \sinh^{-1}(HV) .$$
  
(1.26)

This coordinate system covers the entire spacetime.

As an alternative, one could replace r in the closed universe metric by  $\xi$ , where

$$r \equiv \sin \xi \ . \tag{1.27}$$

Then Eqs. (1.13) are replaced by

$$X = a \sin \xi \sin \theta \cos \phi$$
  

$$Y = a \sin \xi \sin \theta \sin \phi$$
  

$$Z = a \sin \xi \cos \theta$$
  

$$W = a \cos \xi ,$$
  
(1.28)

and the final metric (Eq. (1.25)) is replaced by

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a^{2}(t) \left[ d\xi^{2} + \sin^{2} \xi \, d\Omega \right] .$$
 (1.29)

(c) As the problem suggests, we consider the hypersurface  $W = W_0$ , for which the constraint equation can be written as

$$X^{2} + Y^{2} + Z^{2} - V^{2} = -a^{2} , \qquad (1.30)$$

where

$$a = \sqrt{W_0^2 - H^{-2}} \ . \tag{1.31}$$

In analogy with Eq. (1.14), we try coordinates

$$\mathbf{X} = a r \,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$V = a\sqrt{1+r^2} \,, \qquad (1.32)$$

where  $\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\theta, \phi)$  is again given by Eq. (1.15). As in (b), we can first explore the hypersurface by keeping W (and hence a) fixed. Then

$$d\mathbf{X} = a\,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}\,dr + a\,r\,d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}$$

$$dV = \frac{a}{\sqrt{1+r^2}}\,r\,dr\;,$$
(1.33)

and

$$ds^{2} = d\mathbf{X}^{2} - dV^{2}$$
  
=  $a^{2} dr^{2} + 2a^{2} r dr \,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \cdot d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} + a^{2} r^{2} d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}^{2} - \frac{a^{2}}{1 + r^{2}} r^{2} dr^{2}$  (1.34)  
=  $a^{2} \left[ \frac{dr^{2}}{1 + r^{2}} + r^{2} d\Omega \right] ,$ 

which is the spatial part of a Robertson–Walker open universe, as desired. To get the full spacetime metric we allow W to also vary, with

$$a = \sqrt{W^2 - H^{-2}}$$
,  $da = \frac{W \, dW}{a}$ . (1.35)

Then

$$d\mathbf{X} = a\,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}\,dr + a\,r\,d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} + \frac{r\,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}}{a}\,W\,dW$$
$$dV = \frac{a}{\sqrt{1+r^2}}\,r\,dr + \frac{\sqrt{1+r^2}}{a}\,W\,dW ,$$
(1.36)

which with some more algebra implies that

$$ds^{2} = d\mathbf{X}^{2} + dW^{2} - dV^{2}$$
  
=  $a^{2} \left[ \frac{dr^{2}}{1+r^{2}} + r^{2} d\Omega \right] - \frac{dW^{2}}{H^{2}W^{2} - 1}$  (1.37)

So this time we insist that

$$dt = \frac{dW}{\sqrt{H^2 W^2 - 1}} , \qquad (1.38)$$

which integrates to

$$t = H^{-1} \cosh^{-1}(HW) , \qquad (1.39)$$

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$W = H^{-1} \cosh Ht \tag{1.40}$$

and

$$a(t) = \sqrt{W^2 - H^{-2}} = H^{-1} \sinh Ht$$
 (1.41)

The full metric is then

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a^{2}(t) \left[ \frac{dr^{2}}{1+r^{2}} + r^{2} d\Omega \right] , \qquad (1.42)$$

which is exactly the open Robertson–Walker metric that we sought. To express  $r, \theta, \phi$ , and t in terms of X, Y, Z, W, and V, use Eqs. (1.31), (1.32), and (1.39),

with the result

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2}{W^2 - H^{-2}}}$$
  

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{Z}{\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2}} \right)$$
  

$$\phi = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{Y}{\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}} \right)$$
  

$$t = H^{-1} \cosh^{-1}(HW) .$$
  
(1.43)

This coordinate system does not cover the full de Sitter manifold, since the coordinates have restricted ranges. From Eqs. (1.31) and (1.32), one sees that

$$W > H^{-1}$$
 and  $V > 0.$  (1.44)

As in the closed universe case, there is an alternative coordinate system for the open universe in which r is replaced by  $\xi$ , where in this case

$$r \equiv \sinh \xi \ . \tag{1.45}$$

Then Eqs. (1.32) are replaced by

$$\mathbf{X} = a \sinh \xi \, \hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$V = a \cosh \xi , \qquad (1.46)$$

and the final metric (Eq. (1.42)) is replaced by

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a^{2}(t) \left[ d\xi^{2} + \sinh^{2} \xi \, d\Omega \right] .$$
 (1.47)

(d) As stated in the problem, we choose

$$V = \sqrt{H^{-2} - r^2} \sinh Ht$$

$$W = \sqrt{H^{-2} - r^2} \cosh Ht .$$
(1.48)

Then the de Sitter constraint equation becomes

$$\mathbf{X}^2 = H^{-2} - W^2 + V^2 = r^2 , \qquad (1.49)$$

so the natural parameterization is

$$\mathbf{X} = r\,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\theta,\phi)\;,\tag{1.50}$$

where we again use Eq. (1.15) for  $\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\theta, \phi)$ . Differentiating, we can write

$$dV = H\sqrt{H^{-2} - r^2} \cosh(Ht) dt - \frac{r \sinh Ht}{\sqrt{H^{-2} - r^2}} dr$$
$$dW = H\sqrt{H^{-2} - r^2} \sinh(Ht) dt - \frac{r \cosh Ht}{\sqrt{H^{-2} - r^2}} dr \qquad (1.51)$$
$$d\mathbf{X} = dr \,\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} + r \, d\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \; .$$

It is then straightforward algebra to show that

$$ds^{2} = d\mathbf{X}^{2} + dW^{2} - dV^{2}$$
  
=  $-(1 - H^{2}r^{2})dt^{2} + \frac{dr^{2}}{1 - H^{2}r^{2}} + r^{2}d\Omega$ , (1.52)

which is exactly the desired metric.

From Eqs. (1.48) we see that

$$W \ge 0 \text{ and } |V| \le |W|$$
. (1.53)

Thus the coordinate system covers only one quadrant of the V-W plane. From the final form of the metric, Eq. (1.52), one sees that the metric gives a convenient picture of the universe as seen by a single geodesic observer, at r = 0, including all points out to the observer's horizon at  $r = H^{-1}$ .

### PROBLEM 2: THE TRANSITION FROM DECELERATION TO AC-CELERATION (Weinberg, Assorted Problem #5, with addition) $(10 \text{ points})^{\dagger}$

Suppose that  $\Omega_M = 0.25$ ,  $\Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.75$ , and  $\Omega_K = \Omega_R = 0$ . From the Einstein equations we know one relation involving the acceleration of the scale factor a(t):

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -4\pi G(3p+\rho). \qquad (2.1)$$

Let  $t^*$  be the time since the Big bang (t = 0 here) at which the transition to acceleration occured. Then

$$\frac{\ddot{a}(t^*)}{a(t^*)} = 0 \Rightarrow 3p(t^*) + \rho(t^*) = 0 \Rightarrow p(t^*) = -\frac{\rho(t^*)}{3}.$$
(2.2)

Now matter has  $p_M \approx 0$ , and vacuum energy has  $p_{\Lambda} = -\rho_{\Lambda}$ . Using this we can write the energy density as a function of scale factor as (Weinberg 1.5.38):

$$\rho(t) = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G} \left[ \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_M \left( \frac{a_0}{a(t)} \right)^3 \right].$$
(2.3)

So we can write the result of Eq. (2.2) as

$$-\rho_{\Lambda} = -\frac{H_0^2}{8\pi G} \left[ \Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_M \left( \frac{a_0}{a(t^*)} \right)^3 \right] \,. \tag{2.4}$$

But  $\rho_{\Lambda} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G}\Omega_{\Lambda}$  and with  $\frac{a_0}{a(t^*)} = 1 + z^*$ , where  $z^*$  is the value of the redshift that radiation gets by traveling towards us since time  $t^*$ , we find by replacing these quantities in Eq. (2.4) that:

$$\Omega_{\Lambda} = \frac{1}{3} \left[ \Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_M (1 + z^*)^3 \right] \Rightarrow z^* = \left( \frac{2\Omega_{\Lambda}}{\Omega_M} \right)^{1/3} - 1.$$
 (2.5)

In the end this evaluates to  $z^* = 0.817$ . To find how long ago the acceleration of the universe started, we just subtract the time we called  $t^*$  from the present age of the universe,  $t_0$ . From Weinberg equation 1.5.42 the age the universe had when the radiation, arriving to us with redshift z, was released is:

$$t(z) = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^{\frac{1}{1+z}} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_M x^{-3}}} \,.$$
(2.6)

Here I neglected the curvature and radiation contributions. The present time is then  $t_0 = t(z = 0)$ ; also  $t^* = t(z^*)$ , so the time we want to find is:

$$\delta t = t(0) - t(z^*) = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_{\frac{1}{1+z^*}}^{1} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_M x^{-3}}}.$$
 (2.7)

If we then further use that  $\Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_{K} + \Omega_{R} + \Omega_{M} = 1$  and neglect the radiation and curvature contributions, we can do this integral analytically. Inserting  $\Omega_{M} = 1 - \Omega_{\Lambda}$ , t(0) = 13.7 Gyr we find:

$$\delta t = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_{\frac{1}{1+z^*}}^{1} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + (1-\Omega_\Lambda)x^{-3}}} = \frac{2}{3H_0\sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda}} \log\left[\sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda} x^{3/2} + \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda (x^3-1)+1}\right] \Big|_{x=\frac{1}{1+z^*}}^{x=1}$$
(2.8)  
$$\Rightarrow \delta t \approx (1/H_0)(0.51) .$$

Here the value  $1/H_0$  is determined from the given age of 13.7 Gyr:

$$t_{0} = \frac{1}{H_{0}} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda} + (1 - \Omega_{\Lambda})x^{-3}}}$$
$$= \frac{2}{3H_{0}\sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda}}} \operatorname{ArcSinh}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\Omega_{\Lambda}}{1 - \Omega_{\Lambda}}}\right)$$
$$\Rightarrow t_{0} \approx (1/H_{0})(1.014) \Rightarrow 1/H_{0} \approx t_{0}/1.014 \approx 13.5 \,\mathrm{Gyr}$$
$$(2.9)$$

Thus  $\delta t \approx (1/H_0)(0.51) \approx 6.9 \,\text{Gyr.}$ 

# PROBLEM 3: THE VIRIAL THEOREM WITH A HYPOTHETICAL FORCE LAW (Weinberg, Assorted Problem #5) (10 points)<sup>†</sup>

Consider a cluster of point masses  $m_n$ , with coordinates  $X_n^i$ , i = 1, 2, 3, with respect to the center of mass of the system. Let's start out with the equation in Weinberg 1.9.3:

$$-\sum_{n,i} X_n^i \frac{\partial V_{\text{cluster}}}{\partial X_n^i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \left(\sum_n m_n \boldsymbol{X}_n^2\right) - 2T.$$
(3.1)

In the last equation, T is the kinetic energy of the system due to motion about its center of mass.  $V_{\text{cluster}}$  is the total potential energy of the cluster. The assumption of virialization makes the total time derivative term on the right hand side vanish so we are left with

$$\sum_{n,i} X_n^i \frac{\partial V_{\text{cluster}}}{\partial X_n^i} = 2T.$$
(3.2)

For a two body interaction between bodies l and p with a potential of the form  $V(r_{lp}) = -G c_{lp}/|\mathbf{r}_l - \mathbf{r}_p|^n$  with  $c_{lp} = m_l m_p$  the partial derivative of  $V_{\text{cluster}}$  becomes:

$$V_{\text{cluster}} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{m \neq l} \frac{G c_{ml}}{|\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l|^n}$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial V_{\text{cluster}}}{\partial X_q^i} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{m \neq l} \frac{-n G c_{ml}}{|\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l|^{n+1}} \frac{\partial |\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l|}{\partial X_q^i} \qquad (3.3)$$

$$= \frac{n}{2} \sum_{m \neq l} \frac{G c_{ml}}{|\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l|^{n+2}} \left(\mathbf{r}_l - \mathbf{r}_m\right) \cdot \left(\delta_m^q - \delta_l^q\right) \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i,$$

where  $\hat{e}_i$  is the unit vector along the *i*th direction. Multiplying by  $X_q^i$  and summing over *i* and *q* we find:

$$\sum_{q,i} X_q^i \frac{\partial V_{\text{cluster}}}{\partial X_q^i} = \sum_{q,i,m \neq l} X_q^i \left[ \frac{n}{2} \frac{G c_{ml}}{|\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l|^{n+2}} (\mathbf{r}_l - \mathbf{r}_m) \cdot (\delta_m^q - \delta_l^q) \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i \right]$$

$$= \frac{n}{2} \sum_{m \neq l} \frac{G c_{ml}}{|\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l|^{n+2}} (\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l) \cdot (\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l)$$

$$= n \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m \neq l} \frac{G c_{ml}}{|\mathbf{r}_m - \mathbf{r}_l|^n} \right]$$

$$= -n V_{\text{cluster}}.$$
(3.4)

Here we used  $\mathbf{r}_l = \sum_i X_l^i \, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i$ . So the virial theorem then takes the form

$$2T = -n V_{\text{cluster}}.$$
(3.5)

One can get write the kinetic energy in terms of the mass-averaged square velocity relative to the center of mass,  $\langle v^2 \rangle$  as  $T = (1/2) M \langle v^2 \rangle$ , where M is the total mass of the cluster. A similar thing can be done with  $V_{\text{cluster}}$  by considering the massaveraged value of  $1/r^n$ , where r is the separation between any two masses in the cluster. It becomes  $V_{\text{cluster}} = -(1/2) GM^2 \langle (1/r^n) \rangle$ . Thus using the virial theorem result we can find the total mass M of the cluster:

$$2T = -n V_{\text{cluster}}$$

$$\implies 2\left(\frac{1}{2}M\left\langle v^{2}\right\rangle\right) = -n\left(-\frac{1}{2}GM^{2}\left\langle\frac{1}{r^{n}}\right\rangle\right)$$

$$\implies M = \frac{2\left\langle v^{2}\right\rangle}{n G\left\langle\frac{1}{r^{n}}\right\rangle}.$$
(3.6)

The values of  $\langle v^2 \rangle$  can be obtained from the velocity dispersion arising from Doppler shifts in the spectra coming from the visible galaxies — assuming that in statistical equilibrium the visible masses are representative sample of the virialized cluster. For  $\langle (1/r^n) \rangle$ , we can estimate it for clusters with  $z \ll 1$ . For small z, the angular diameter distance of a cluster  $d_A \approx z/H_0$  (from Weinberg 1.4.9 and 1.4.11). Since the transverse proper distance is related to the angular separation  $\theta$  and  $d_A$  as  $d = \theta d_A$  you get  $d \approx \theta z/H_0$ . Thus  $M \propto 1/H_0^n$ . Even if we go to higher z, at which the dependence of  $d_A$  on redshift ceases to be linear, we still expect  $M \propto 1/H_0^n$ .

#### PROBLEM 4: TIME OF EMISSION OF LIGHT FROM A VERY DIS-TANT GALAXY (10 points)\*

The age of the universe at the time of emission of light that reaches us at redshift z is given by Weinberg's Eq. (1.5.42):

$$t(z) = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^{1/(1+z)} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{x\sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K x^{-2} + \Omega_M x^{-3} + \Omega_R x^{-4}}} , \qquad (4.1)$$

where  $\Omega_K = 1 - \Omega_{\Lambda} - \Omega_M - \Omega_R$ . For the special case of a matter-dominated flat universe, with  $\Omega_M = 1$ ,  $\Omega_{\Lambda} = \Omega_K = \Omega_R = 0$ , the integral is easily carried out, giving

$$t(z) = \frac{2}{3H_0} \frac{1}{(1+z)^{3/2}} .$$
(4.2)

The age of such a universe is given by

$$t_0 = t(0) = \frac{2}{3H_0} , \qquad (4.3)$$

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$t(z) = \frac{t_0}{(1+z)^{3/2}} . aga{4.4}$$

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For  $t_0 = 13.7$  Gyr and z = 6.96, this gives

$$t(6.96)\Big|_{\substack{\text{matter only}}} = \frac{13.7 \text{ Gyr}}{(1+6.96)^{3/2}} = 0.610 \text{ Gyr.}$$
 (4.5)

That is, t(z) is 610 million years.

For the realistic model based on the WMAP 5-year recommended values, as described in the problem, the integral has to be done numerically, using the conversion

$$\frac{1}{H_0} = 9.778 \ h^{-1} \ \text{Gyr} \ , \tag{4.6}$$

where

$$H_0 = 100 \, h \, \mathrm{km} \, \mathrm{s}^{-1} \mathrm{Mpc}^{-1} \, , \qquad (4.7)$$

with  $\Omega_M = \Omega_b + \Omega_{dm} = 0.0456 + 0.228 = 0.2736$ . The integrations give an age of  $t_0 = 13.71$  Gyr and a time of emission for the z = 6.96 galaxy given by

$$t(6.96)\Big|_{\text{WMAP5}} = 0.784 \text{ Gyr.}$$
 (4.8)

You were not asked to draw a graph, but numerical integration using the WMAP 5-year recommended parameters leads to the following:



A useful special case is that of a flat universe with matter and vacuum energy, so  $\Omega_R = \Omega_K = 0$ , with  $\Omega_{\Lambda} = 1 - \Omega_M$ . In that case the integral can also be done analytically, with the result

$$t(z) \bigg|_{\substack{\text{matter/vacuum}\\\text{only}}} = \frac{2}{3H_0\sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda}}} \operatorname{arcsinh}\left[\frac{\sqrt{\Omega_{\Lambda}}}{\sqrt{\Omega_M} (1+z)^{3/2}}\right] .$$
(4.9)

Using the WMAP5 values for  $\Omega_M$  and  $H_0$ , this approximation gives an age  $t_0 = 13.72$  Gyr and t(6.96) = 0.786 Gyr, which are both very close to the values found above for the full numerical integral.

\*Solution written by Alan Guth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Solution written by Carlos Santana.