

O modelo "Padrão" da Cosmologia

FLRW - Friedmann, Lemaitre
Robertson e Walker

Espaço tempo homogêneo e isotrópico

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

Resolvendo agora as Eq. de Einstein com esta métrica obtêm-se as Eq. de Friedmann:

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

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

= cte.
Hubble

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

que podem ser ainda expressas como:

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

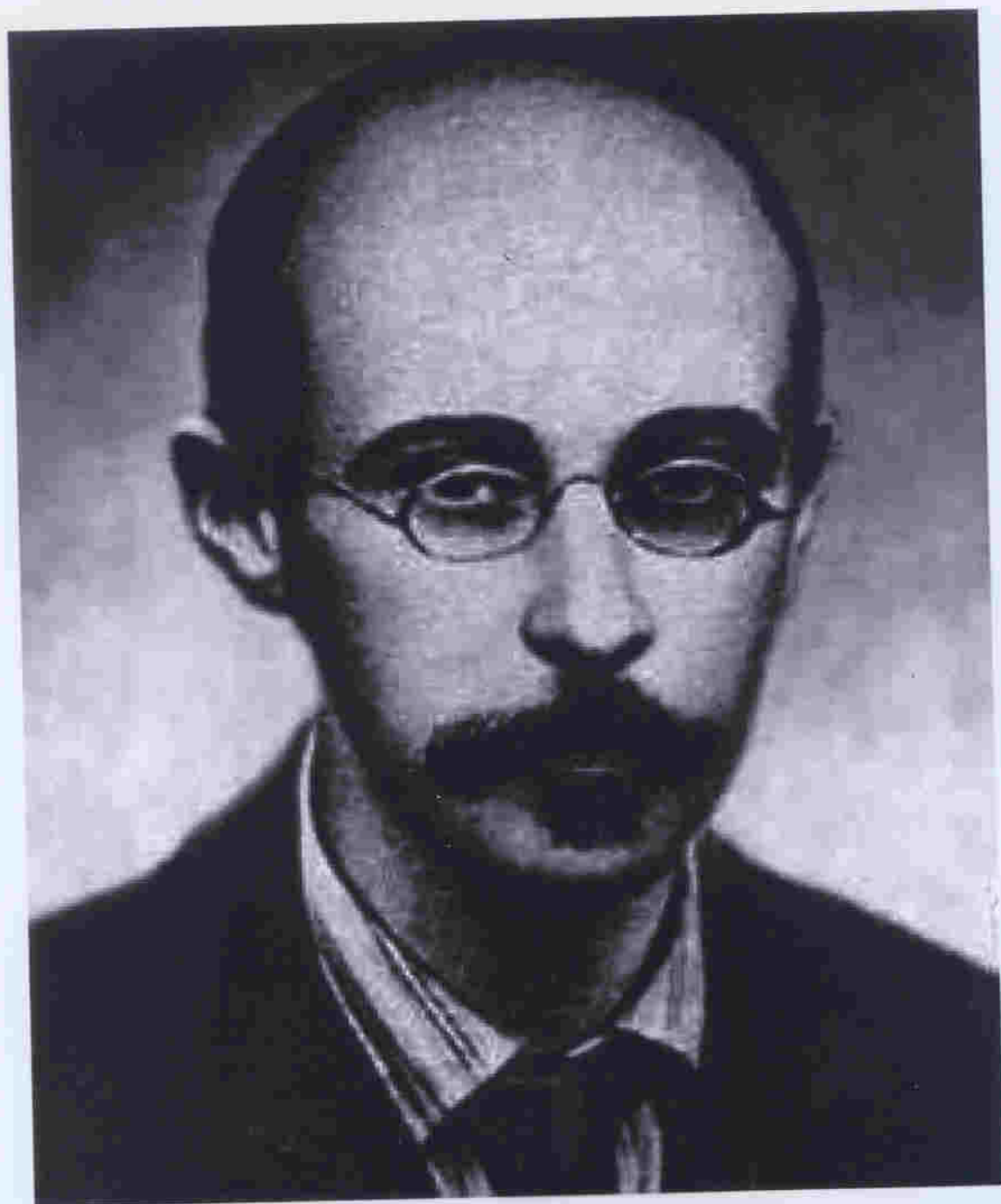
conservação
Energia

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{a^3}{T} (\rho(T) + p(T)) \right) = 0$$

conservação
Entropia
 $S = \frac{V}{T} (p + h)$

e ainda

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



Alexander Friedmann
1888-1925

Newton . . .

- Da lei de Newton

$$m R'' = - \frac{G M m}{R^2}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{a''}{a} = - \frac{4\pi}{3} G \rho}$$

interior da
esfera!

- Da conservação de Energia

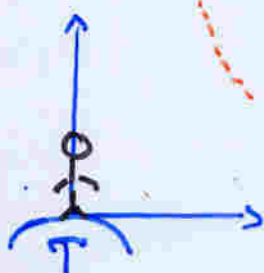
$$\frac{1}{2} m \dot{R}^2 - \frac{G M m}{R} = \text{cte}$$

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

- Na mecânica clássica a pressão não contribui para a "massa gravitacional"
- A curvatura espacial está relacionada com $-(\text{Energia total})$ ou seja com a Energia de ligação do sistema

Fuga para o vermelho (redshift)

Raios de luz radial
em geodésicas $ds^2=0$!
($d\varphi = d\theta = 0$)



$$cdt = a(t) \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1-Kr^2}}$$

Uma primeira frente de onda emitida
pela estrela (t_E, r_E) chega ao observador $(t_0, 0)$

$$\int_{t_E}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \frac{1}{c} \int_0^{r_E} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1-Kr^2}}$$

Para uma segunda frente de onda $(t_E + \Delta t_E, r_E)$

$$\int_{t_E + \Delta t_E}^{t_0 + \Delta t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \frac{1}{c} \int_0^{r_E} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1-Kr^2}}$$

e portanto

$$\int_{t_E}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_{t_E + \Delta t_E}^{t_0 + \Delta t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)} \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta t_0}{\Delta t_E} \sim \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_E)}$$

$$z = \frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda_E}{\lambda_E}$$

$$1+z = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_E} = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_E)}$$

$\neq$ Doppler!!!

Σ Dopplers infinitesimais

$z \sim v$ se $z \ll 1$

Universo estático

$$\dot{a} = 0$$

$$\frac{\kappa}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$$

$$\rho = \frac{3\kappa}{8\pi G a^2} \quad \kappa = 1 !$$

$$a'' = 0$$

$$(\rho + 3p) = 0$$

$$p = -\frac{1}{3} \rho$$

Pressão negativa!

geralmente (equação de estado)

$$p = \alpha \rho$$

$$\alpha \approx 0$$

matéria

$$= \frac{1}{3}$$

radiação

É necessário introduzir um novo tipo de "entidade" - o vácuo!

$$p = -\rho$$

$$\alpha = -1$$

Num Universo estático de matéria não relativista e vácuo:

$$\underline{\rho_{\text{m}} = 2 \rho_{\text{vacuo}}}$$

A constante cosmológica

Na construção da Eq. de Einstein

$$\partial_\nu G^{ku} = \partial_\nu T^{ku} = 0$$

mas

$$\partial_\nu (G^{ku} + \Lambda g^{ku}) = 0$$

Eq. mais geral

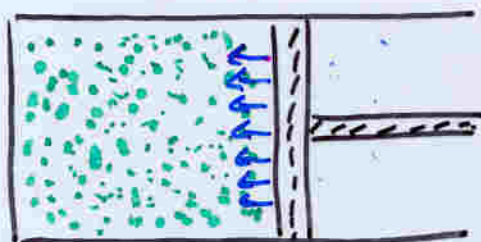
$$G^{ku} + \Lambda g^{ku} = - \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T^{ku}$$

ou ainda

$$G^{ku} = - \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} [T^{ku} + T_\Lambda^k]$$

$$T_\Lambda^{ku} = \begin{bmatrix} p_\Lambda & & & \\ & -p_\Lambda & & \\ & & -p_\Lambda & \\ & & & -p_\Lambda \end{bmatrix} \quad p_\Lambda = \frac{\Lambda c^4}{8\pi G}$$

$$p_{\text{vacuo}} = -p_{\text{vacuo}}$$



Pressão negativa!

$$dU = -p dv$$

$$dU = p dv$$

$$p = \text{etc}$$

E ainda a constante cosmológica

Num Universo sem matéria ou radiação (só vácuo!) - de Sitter

$$\frac{a''}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (-2\rho_{vac})$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}$$

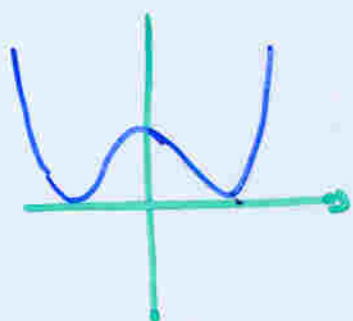
$$cte > 0$$

$$a(t) \approx e^{\chi t}$$

$$\chi = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$$

- A constante cosmológica desempenha o papel de uma "massa" negativa, induz uma força de repulsão
- Num Universo dominado pela constante cosmológica a expansão é exponencial!!!

A existência de quebra de simetria em potenciais escalares (mecanismo de Higgs) pode induzir ρ_{vac} enormes!!!



$$V(\phi) \sim -\frac{1}{2}k^2|\phi|^2 + \lambda\phi^4$$

$$\rho_{vacuo} \sim V_{min} \sim \frac{M^4}{4\lambda}$$

$$\sim (200 \text{ GeV})^4 \quad \text{M.S.}$$

$$\sim (10^{19} \text{ GeV})^4 \quad \text{Planck}$$

mas experimentalmente $\rho < 10^{-46} \text{ GeV}^4 !!!$

Universos de uma só componente

- Dependência de " ρ " com " a "

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt}(\rho a^3) = -\rho \frac{d}{dt} a^3 \\ \rho = \alpha \rho \end{cases}$$

conservação
Energia
Eq. de estado

$$\rho \propto a^{-3(1+\alpha)}$$

- Dependência de " a " com " t "

$$\begin{cases} \frac{a''}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}(\rho + 3p) \\ a(t) \sim t^{\frac{2}{3}} \end{cases}$$

$$a \sim t^{\frac{2}{3(1+\alpha)}}$$

- Universos

	α	ρ	$a(t) \quad t \ll$
matéria	0	a^{-3}	$t^{2/3}$
radiação	$1/3$	a^{-4}	$\sqrt{t}$
"Vácuo"	-1	cte	$[e^{Ht}]$
"curvature"	$-1/3$	a^{-2}	t
???	$[-1, 0]$		

Radiação $\rightarrow$ matéria $\rightarrow$... Vácuo !!! ($\Lambda \neq 0$)

Densidades "normalizadas" (Ω)

Eq. Friedmann

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

$$K = 0$$

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

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

Definiendo densidades "normalizadas"

$$\Omega_i = \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_{crit}}$$

$$\Omega_{tot} = \Omega_{rad} + \Omega_m + \Omega_\Lambda$$

$$\frac{K}{H^2 a^2} = \Omega - 1$$

$$K = 0 \Leftrightarrow \Omega_{tot} = 1$$

e ainda por "analogia"

$$\Omega_K = -K/\dot{a}^2$$

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

$$\Omega_m + \Omega_{rad} + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K = 1$$

$$H^2 = H_0^2 \left[\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K \bar{a}^2 + \Omega_m \bar{a}^3 + \Omega_{rad} \bar{a}^4 \right]$$

Eq. de Friedmann

Universo de matéria

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Peacock

- $\Omega_m \gg \Omega_{\text{rad}}$ e $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$

- $\Omega_m > 1 \Rightarrow K = 1$

- $\Omega_m = 1 \Rightarrow K = 0$

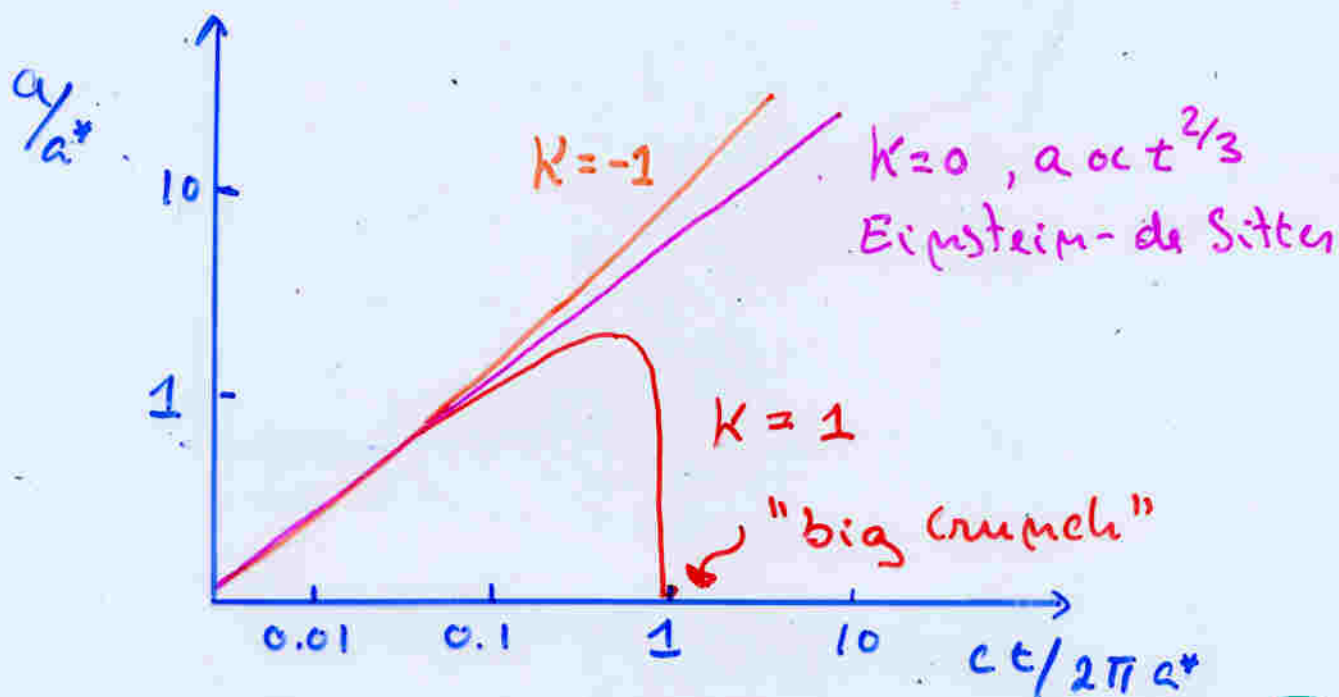
- $\Omega_m < 1 \Rightarrow K = -1$

$$\frac{K}{H^2 a^2} = \Omega - 1$$

A eq. de Friedmann se reduz a:

$$\dot{a}^2(t) = \frac{8\pi G \rho_0 a_0^3}{3 a(t)} - K$$

de solução:



Univ. Radiação versus Univ. Matéria

$$\rho_{\text{rad}}(a) = \rho_{\text{rad}}(a_0) \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{-4} \quad \left| \quad \rho_{\text{rad}} = \rho_{\text{mat}} \right.$$

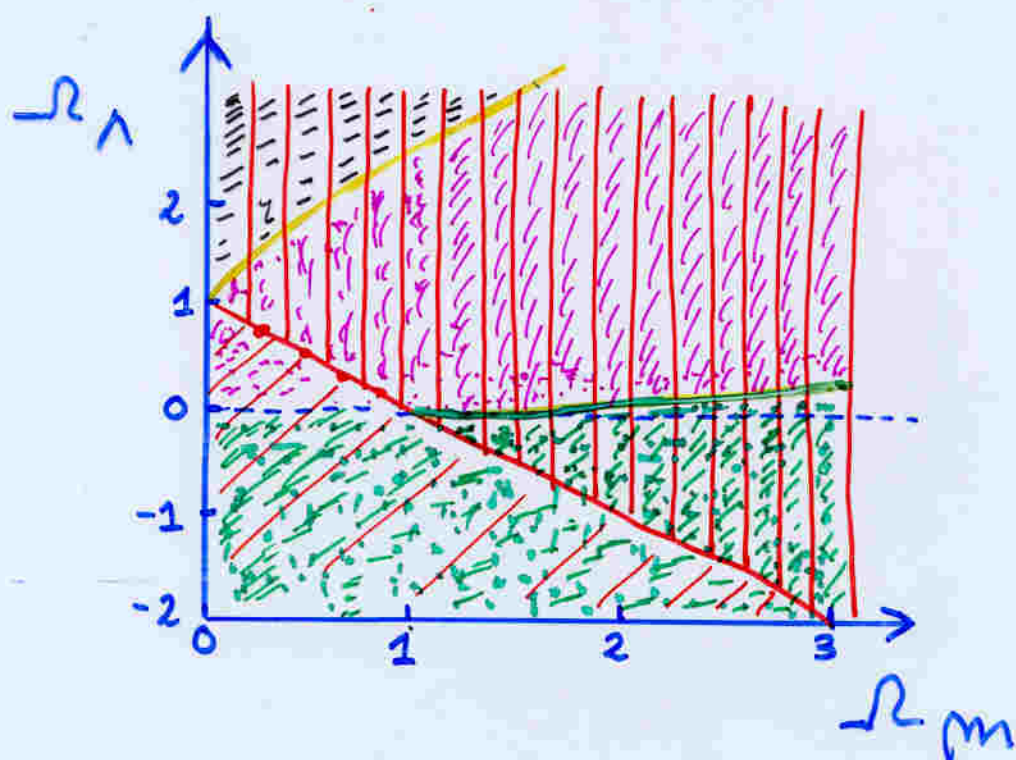
$$\rho_{\text{mat}}(a) = \rho_{\text{mat}}(a_0) \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)^{-3} \quad \left| \quad \Rightarrow 1+z = \frac{a}{a_0} = \frac{\Omega_m(0)}{\Omega_{\text{rad}}(0)} \right.$$

$$\approx \underline{\underline{20.000}}$$

O destino do Universo

determinado por $(-\Omega_m, -\Omega_\Lambda)$

[quando a grande $-\Omega_{rad} \ll -\Omega_m$]



/// - aberto ($-\Omega_m + -\Omega_k < 1 \Rightarrow k = -1$)

— - plano (" = 1 $k = 0$)

||| - fechado (") 1 $k = +1$)

■ - Recolapso ($\Omega_\Lambda < 0 \vee (-\Omega_m > 1 \wedge \Omega_\Lambda < -\Omega_c)$)

/// - Expande para sempre

≡ - Não existe big-bang

— - Oscilatório

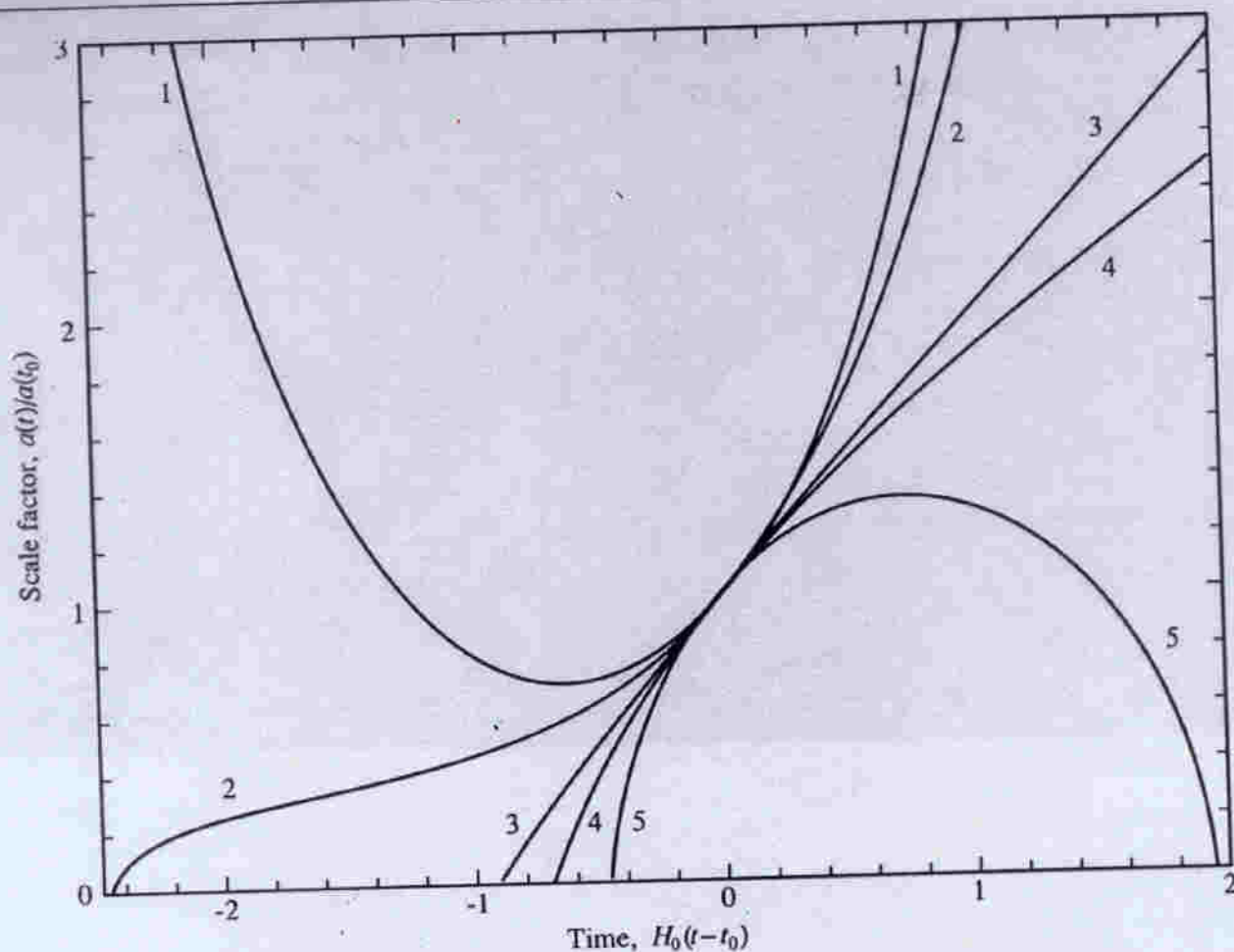
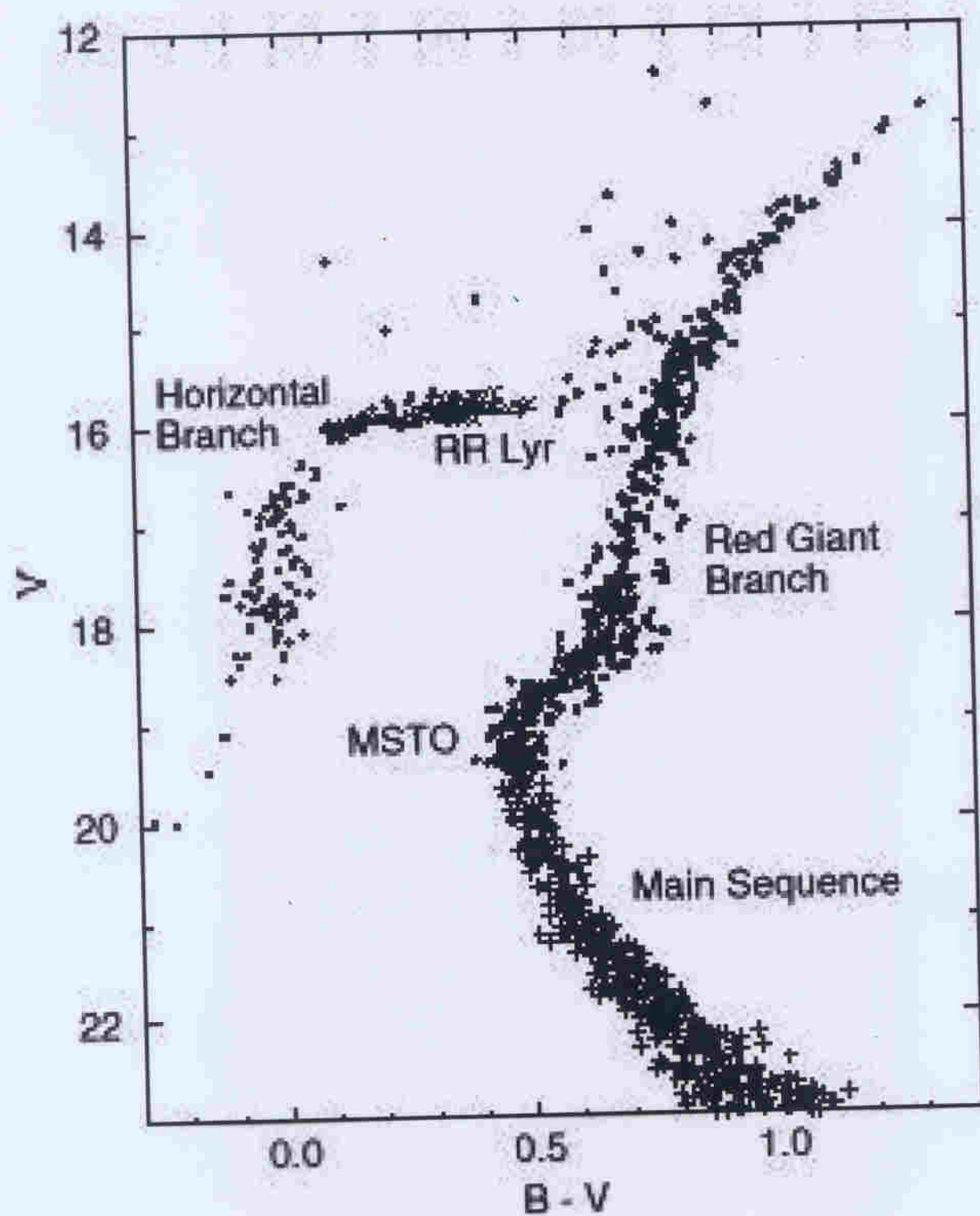


Figure 2.3 The five types of currently expanding universe, showing their history and fate plotted in scale factor vs. time. A Big Bang model has $a = 0$ in the past. The cases are (1) bounce universe: must have some $\sigma < -1/3$; (2) Eddington-Lemaître universe: has *coasting* phase, must have some $\sigma < -1/3$; (3) open Universe: $\Omega < 1$ in $\sigma > -1/3$; (4) critical (Einstein-de Sitter) universe: $\Omega = 1$ in $\sigma > -1/3$; (5) closed universe: $\Omega > 1$ in $\sigma > -1/3$. Note that model 4 has a asymptotically constant (horizontal).

($\sigma \equiv \alpha$)



A idade do Universo

Peacock
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$$T_{univ} = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dt}{dz} dz$$

$z=0$ presente
 $z=\infty$ "big bang"

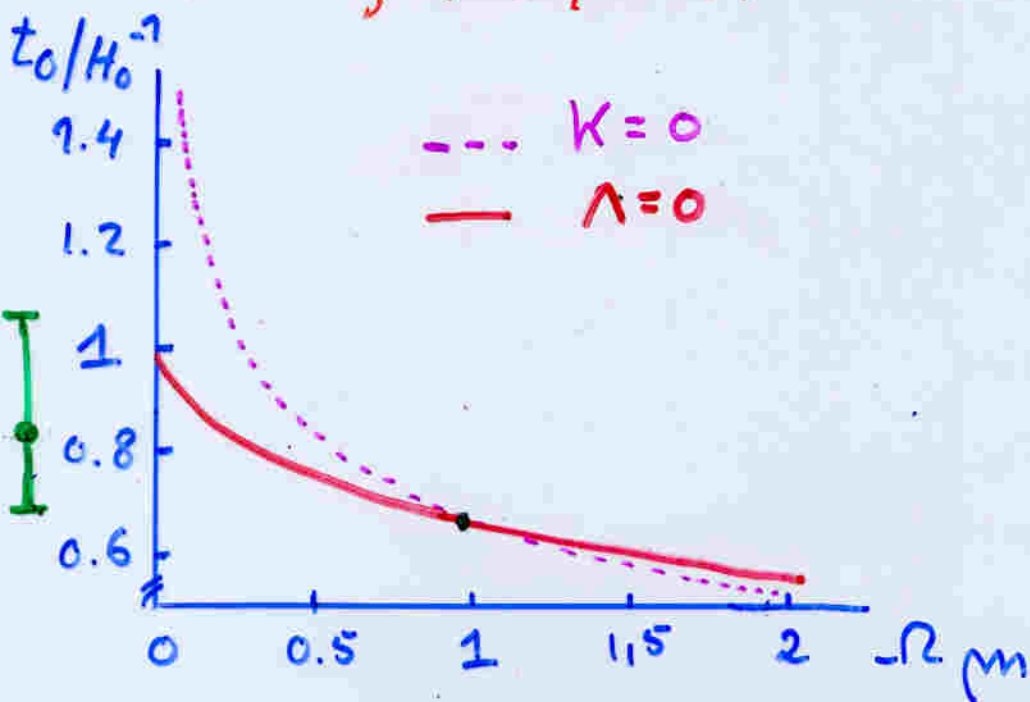
mas

$$H = d/dt \log(a(t)) = \frac{-1}{1+z} \frac{dz}{dt}$$

$$H^2 = H_0^2 [-\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_K \tilde{a}^2 + \Omega_m \tilde{a}^3 + \Omega_{Rad} \tilde{a}^4]$$

e portanto

$$T \equiv f(H_0, -\Omega_i)$$



Ω_{Rad} desprezável

$$K=0, \Lambda=0$$

Einstein-de Sitter

$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3} H_0^{-1}$$

$$\approx 10^{10} \text{ anos}$$

Evolução das estrelas

sec XIX : $T_{sol} 10^8$ anos!!! Kelvin e Helmholtz

hoje : Estrelas na sequência principal
(L. Knauss) (Luminosidade versus cor)

$$T \sim 12.7 \pm 2 \cdot 10^9 \text{ anos}$$

Expansão do factor de escala

$$a(t) = a(t_0) \left(1 + H_0(t-t_0) - \frac{1}{2} q_0 H_0^2 (t-t_0)^2 + \dots \right)$$

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

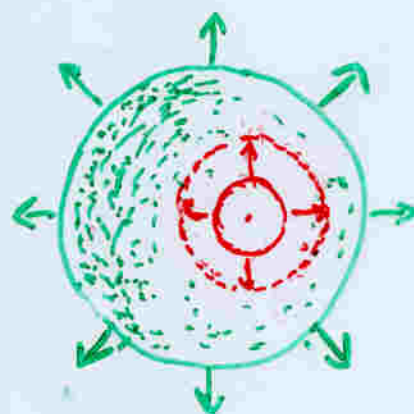
cte de Hubble

$$q_0 = - \frac{\ddot{a}(t_0)}{a(t_0) H_0^2}$$

parâmetro de desaceleração

lei de Hubble

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \lim_{t_2 \rightarrow t_1} \frac{d_2 - d_1}{t_2 - t_1} \\ &= \frac{\dot{a}}{a} a \propto \end{aligned}$$



$$v = H d$$

Relação entre q_0 e os Ω_i

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

$$q_0 = \frac{1}{2} \Omega_0 + \frac{3}{2} \sum \Omega_i \Omega_i$$

$$q_0 = \frac{1}{2} \Omega_m + \Omega_{rad} - \Omega_\Lambda$$

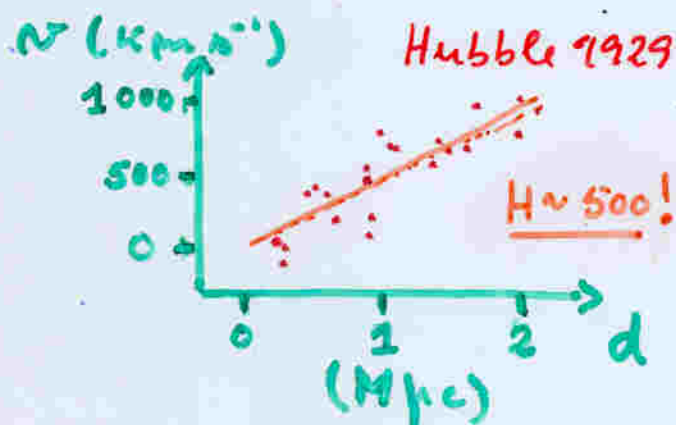
Determinação de H_0 e q_0

idealmente

" v " do redshift z

" d " da luminosidade

mas



$$d_L = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi L_{ap}}}$$

compreender o L ?
"velas padrão"

$$d_L = a(t_0) r_1 (1+z)$$

Redshift da luz e
dilatação do tempo

$$\frac{a_0 dr}{\sqrt{1-kr^2}} = (1+z) dt$$

geodésica $ds^2 = 0$
 $\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{\sqrt{1-kr^2}}{a(t)}$

$$a_0 \int_0^{r_1} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1-kr^2}} = \int_0^{z_1} \frac{dz}{H_0 [(1+z)^2 (1-\Omega_M z) - z(2+z)\Omega_\Lambda]^{1/2}}$$

d_L é uma função $(z, H_0, -\Omega_M, \Omega_\Lambda \dots)$

Valores actuais (L. Krauss)

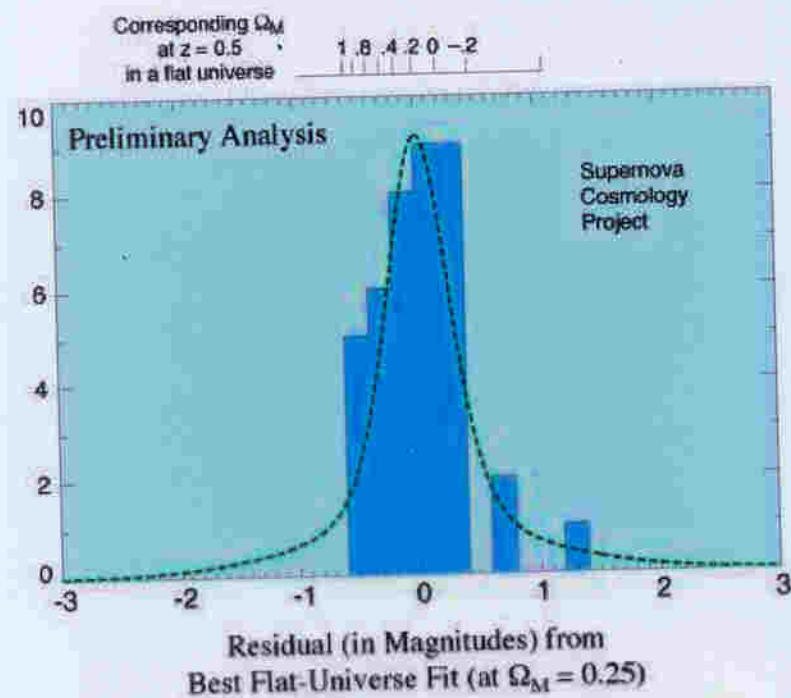
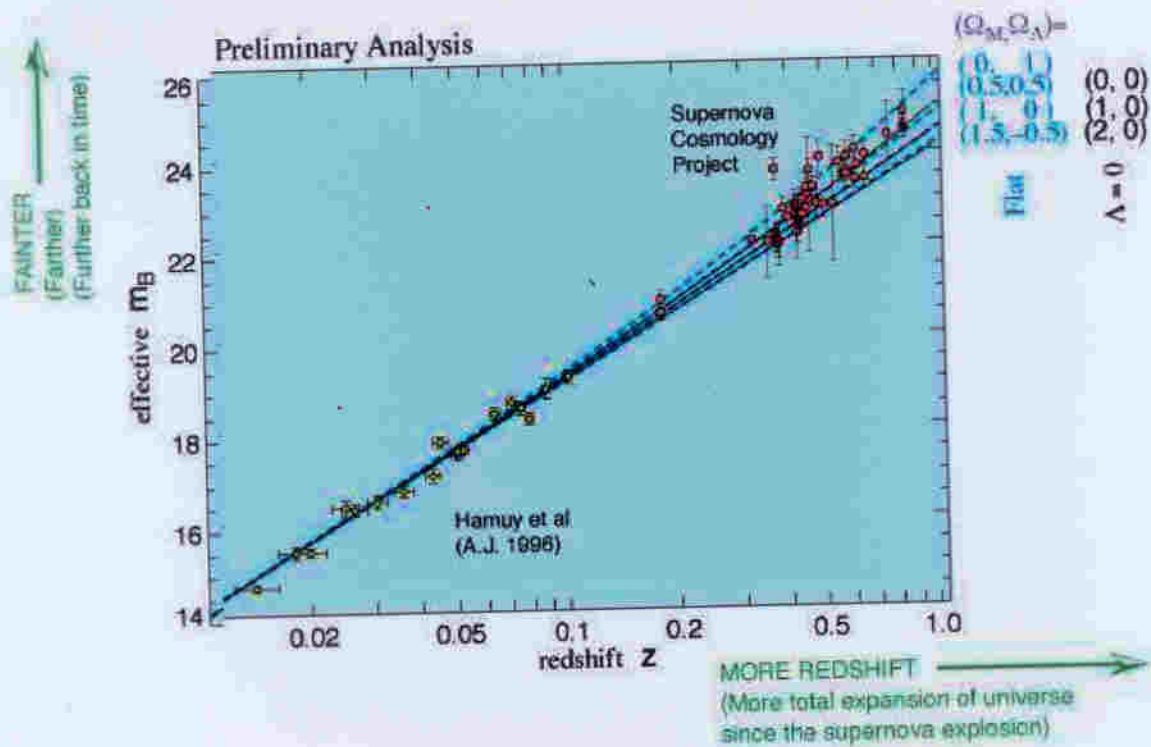
$$H_0 \approx 68 \pm 3 \text{ K s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$$

HST-KEY
S-z efeito
Type Ia SN

$$q_0 < 0$$

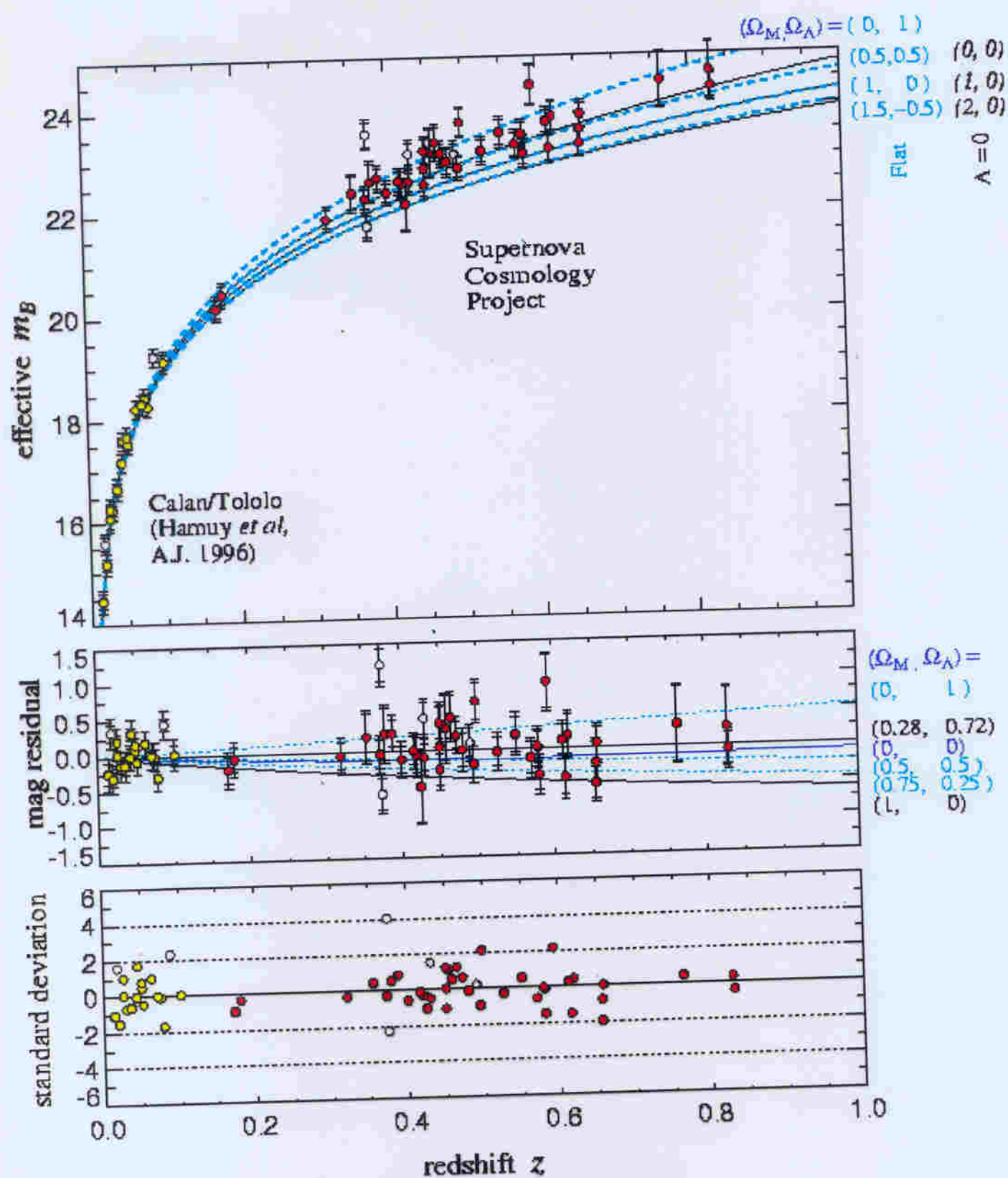
$$0.8 - \Omega_M - 0.6 \Omega_\Lambda \approx -0.2 \pm 0.1$$

Hubble Plots

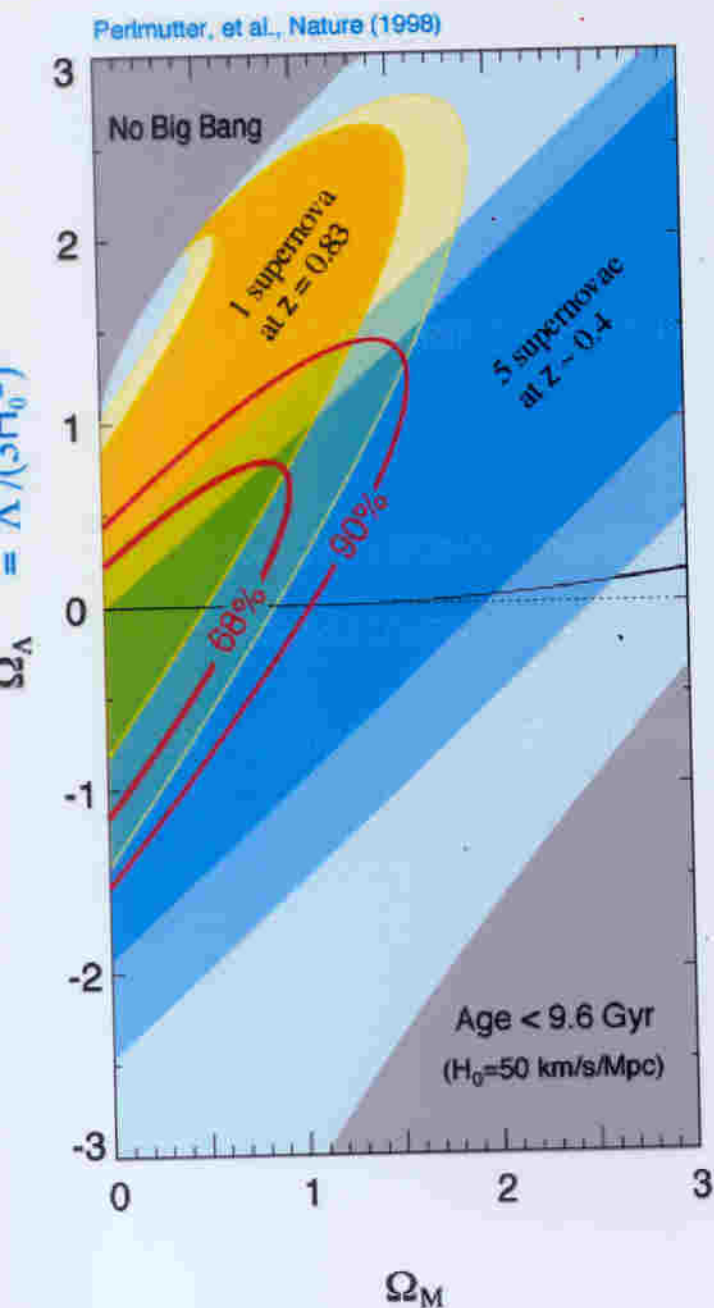


← Brighter than best fit

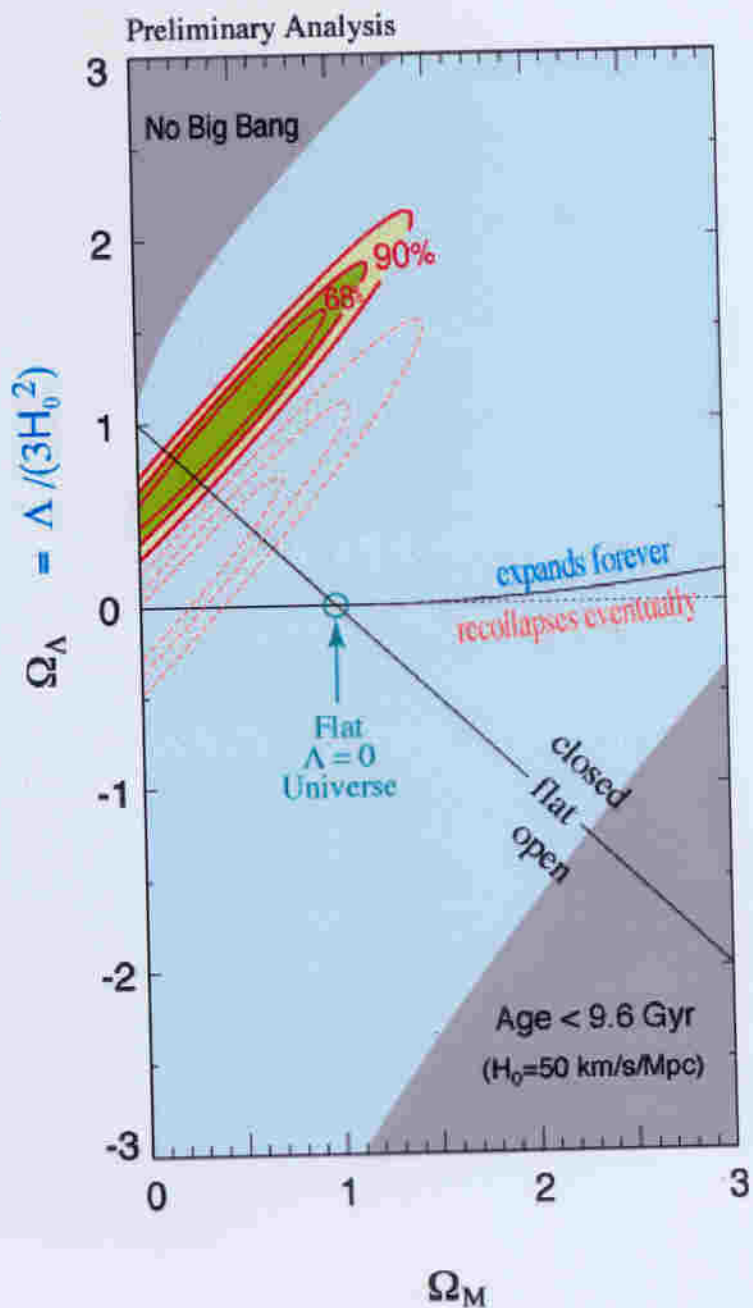
Fainter than best fit →



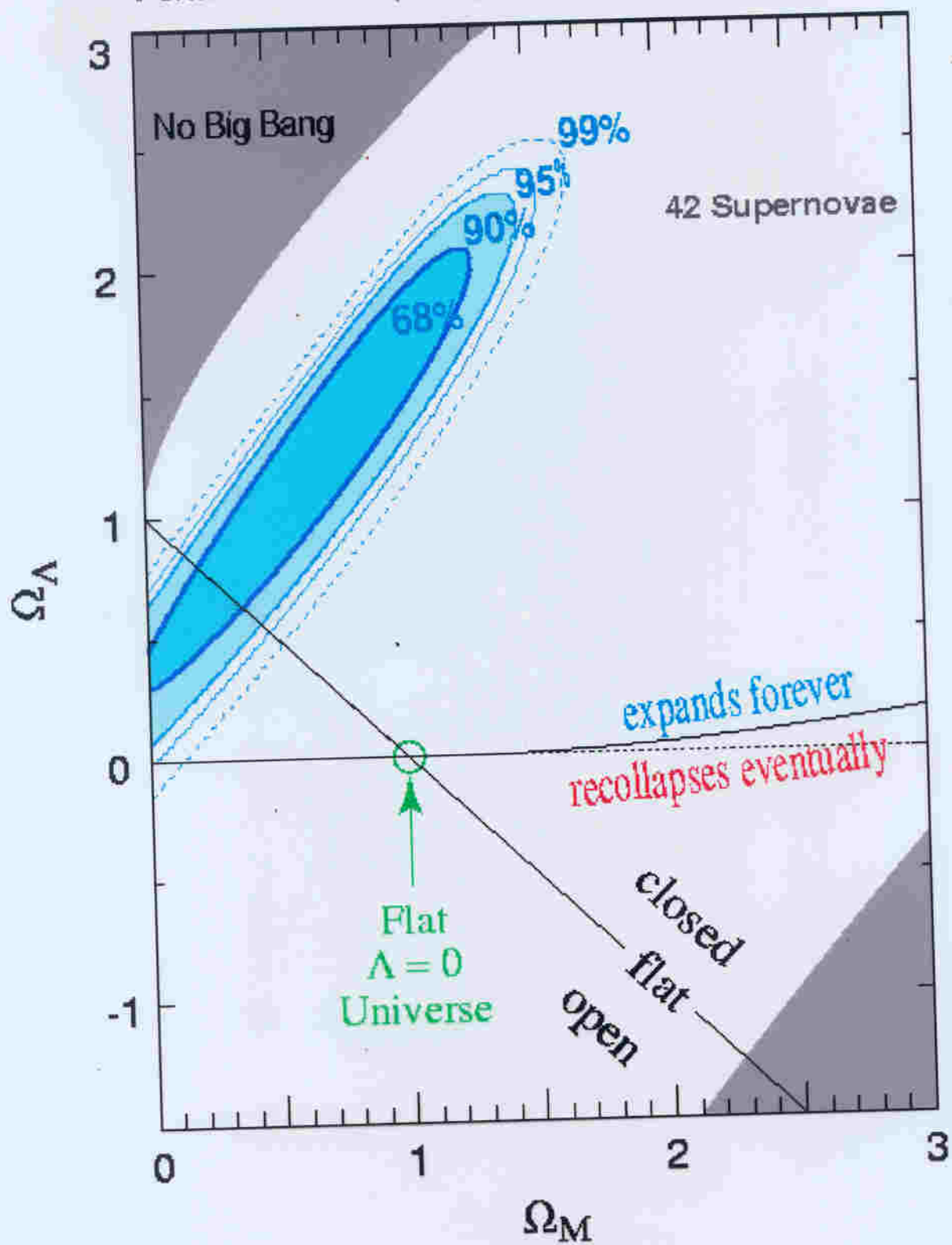
Results: Ω vs Λ from 6 supernovae



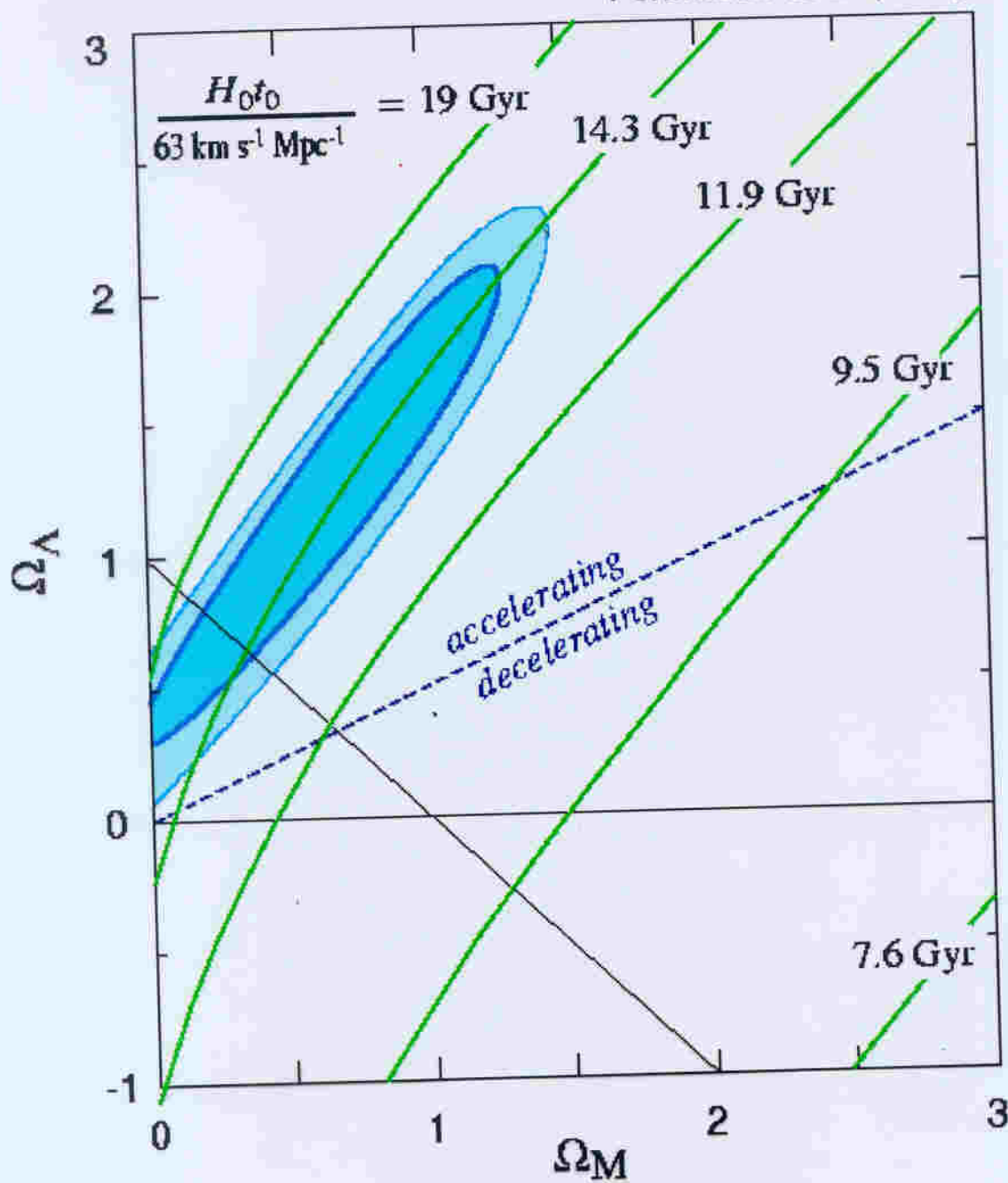
Results: Ω vs Λ from 40 supernovae



Supernova Cosmology Project
Perlmutter *et al.* (1998)

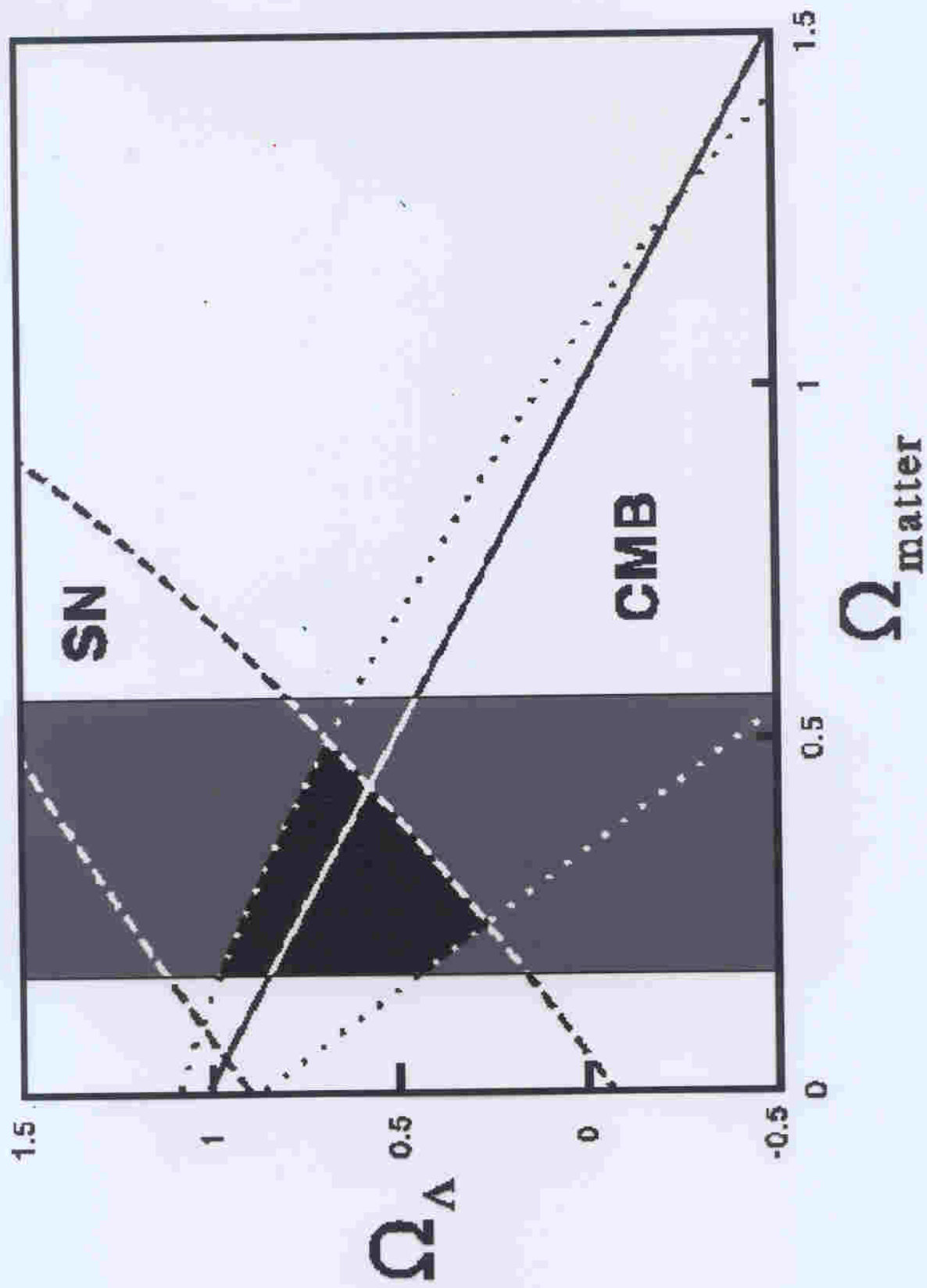


Supernova Cosmology Project
Perlmutter et al. (1998)



Best fit age of universe: $t_0 = 14.5 \pm 1 \text{ (0.63/h) Gyr}$

Best fit in flat universe: $t_0 = 14.9 \pm 1 \text{ (0.63/h) Gyr}$



Unknown Component

Ω_u
of Energy Density

Supernova Cosmology Project
Perlmutter *et al.* (1998)

