

APPLYING QUANTUM GRAVITY TO COSMOLOGY

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ABSTRACT. We apply quantum gravitational results to spatially unbounded Friedmann universes and try to answer some questions related to dark energy, dark matter, inflation and the missing antimatter.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The quantization of gravity is one of the most challenging open problems in physics. The Einstein equations are the Euler-Lagrange equations of the Einstein-Hilbert functional and quantization of a Lagrangian theory requires to switch from a Lagrangian view to a Hamiltonian view. In a ground breaking paper, Arnowitt, Deser and Misner [3] expressed the Einstein-Hilbert Lagrangian in a form which allowed to derive a corresponding Hamilton function by applying the Legendre transformation. However, since the Einstein-Hilbert Lagrangian is singular, the Hamiltonian description of gravity is only correct if two additional constraints are satisfied, namely, the Hamilton constraint and the diffeomorphism constraint. Dirac [5] proved how to quantize a constrained Hamiltonian system—at least in principle—and his method has been applied to the Hamiltonian setting of gravity, cf. the paper of [4] and the monographs by Kiefer [13] and Thiemann [15]. In the general case,

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when arbitrary globally hyperbolic spacetime metrics are allowed, the problem turned out to be extremely difficult and solutions could only be found by assuming a high degree of symmetry.

However, in a series of papers we achieved the quantization of gravity for general hyperbolic spacetimes, cf. [6, 7, 11] as well as the monograph [12], and developed a mathematical model which describes the quantization of gravity.

The quantum gravity model is governed by the wave equation

$$(1.1) \quad \frac{1}{32} \frac{n^2}{n-1} \ddot{u} - (n-1)t^{2-\frac{4}{n}} \Delta u - \frac{n}{2} t^{2-\frac{4}{n}} R u + n t^2 \Lambda u = 0,$$

in a globally hyperbolic spacetime

$$(1.2) \quad Q = (0, \infty) \times \mathcal{S}_0,$$

where \mathcal{S}_0 is a Cauchy hypersurface of the original spacetime and the Laplacian and the scalar curvature R are formed with respect to the metric of \mathcal{S}_0 and Λ is a cosmological constant.

When \mathcal{S}_0 is a space of constant curvature then the wave equation, considered only for functions u which do not depend on x , is identical to the equation obtained by quantizing the Hamilton constraint in a Friedmann universe without matter but including a cosmological constant.

There exist temporal and spatial self-adjoint operators H_0 resp. H_1 such that the hyperbolic equation is equivalent to

$$(1.3) \quad H_0 u - H_1 u = 0,$$

where $u = u(t, x)$. Assuming $\Lambda < 0$ we proved that H_0 has a pure point spectrum with positive eigenvalues λ_i , while, for H_1 , it is possible to find corresponding eigendistributions for each of the eigenvalues λ_i , if \mathcal{S}_0 is asymptotically Euclidean or if the quantized spacetime is a black hole with a negative cosmological constant, cf. [9, 8, 10] and also if \mathcal{S}_0 is the hyperbolic space $\mathcal{S}_0 = \mathbb{H}^n$, $n \geq 3$, cf. Section 6 on page 14.

Let w_i , $i \in \mathbb{N}$, be an orthonormal basis for the temporal eigenvalue problems

$$(1.4) \quad H_0 w_i = \lambda_i w_i$$

and v_i be corresponding smooth eigendistributions for the spatial eigenvalue problems

$$(1.5) \quad H_1 v_i = \lambda_i v_i,$$

then

$$(1.6) \quad u_i = w_i v_i$$

are special solutions of the wave equation (1.1).

The temporal eigenvalues λ_i all have multiplicity 1, the spatial eigenvalues are the same eigenvalues, but they may have higher multiplicities. In case of black holes this is caused by very compelling intrinsic mathematical reasons, cf. [12, Chapter 6.4], but unless there are either convincing intrinsic or extrinsic reasons, like data, we choose the spatial eigenspaces to be

one-dimensional, because the spatial eigenvalues belong in general to the continuous spectrum of the spatial Hamiltonian H_1 . If \mathcal{S}_0 is the Cauchy hypersurface of a Friedmann universe we only considered smooth spherically symmetric spatial eigenfunctions, which also leads to one-dimensional spatial eigenspaces, cf. [12, Chapter 6.6] for the Euclidean case and Section 6 on page 14 for the hyperbolic case.

One can then define an abstract Hilbert space \mathcal{H} spanned by the u_i and a self-adjoint operator H , unitarily equivalent to H_0 , such that

$$(1.7) \quad H u_i = \lambda_i u_i.$$

$e^{-\beta H}$ is then of trace class in \mathcal{H} for all $\beta > 0$ and the canonical extension of H to the corresponding symmetric Fock space \mathcal{F} , which is still called H , shares this property. Hence, we can define the partition function Z ,

$$(1.8) \quad Z = \text{tr} e^{-\beta H},$$

the operator density

$$(1.9) \quad \hat{\rho} = Z^{-1} e^{-\beta H}, \quad \forall \beta > 0,$$

the average energy and the von Neumann entropy in \mathcal{F} . The eigenvectors u_i can also be viewed as to be elements of \mathcal{F} and they are then also eigenvectors of $\hat{\rho}$.

In the present paper we want to apply these quantum gravitational results to cosmology by looking at a Friedmann universe

$$(1.10) \quad N = I \times \mathcal{S}_0,$$

where \mathcal{S}_0 is a n -dimensional simply connected space of constant curvature $\tilde{\kappa}$,

$$(1.11) \quad \tilde{\kappa} \in \{0, -1\},$$

i.e., \mathcal{S}_0 is either \mathbb{R}^n or the hyperbolic space \mathbb{H}^n , $n \geq 3$. We tried to answer some questions related to dark energy, dark matter, inflation and the missing antimatter.

Let us summarize the main result as a theorem, where ρ_{dm} resp. ρ_{de} refer to the dark matter resp. dark energy densities, which we defined as eigenvalues of the operator density $\hat{\rho}$ in \mathcal{F} , and ρ_3 is a conventional density. Z is the partition function, $T > 0$ the absolute temperature and $\lambda_0 > 0$ the smallest eigenvalue of the Hamiltonian H .

Theorem 1.1. *Let the cosmological constant Λ ,*

$$(1.12) \quad -1 < \Lambda < 0,$$

be given and consider the perfect fluid defined by the density

$$(1.13) \quad \rho = \rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}} + \rho_3$$

satisfying the assumptions (4.23), (4.24), (4.36) and (4.37). Moreover, we suppose that $\beta = T^{-1}$ and the scale factor a are functions depending on t .

The initial value problems

$$(1.14) \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}\{(n-2)\rho + np\} + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda$$

and

$$(1.15) \quad \dot{\beta} = -n\frac{\rho_{\text{dm}}}{\frac{\partial}{\partial\beta}(\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}})}a^{-1}\dot{a}.$$

with initial values $(\beta_0, a_0, \dot{a}_0)$ are then solvable in $I = [t_0, \infty)$ provided $\beta_0 > 0$ is so large that (2.12) on page 6 as well as

$$(1.16) \quad \frac{2\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}Z^{-1}\{1 - \frac{1}{2}(n-2)\alpha_0e^{-\beta\lambda_0}\} + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda > 0$$

are valid at $\beta = \beta_0$ and $a_0 > 0$ has to be chosen such that after adding

$$(1.17) \quad -\frac{\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}(n(1+\omega_3) - 2)\gamma_3a_0^{-n(1+\omega_3)}$$

to the left-hand side of (1.16) the inequality still remains valid at $\beta = \beta_0$. The initial value \dot{a}_0 is supposed to be positive. The solution (β, a) then satisfies

$$(1.18) \quad \dot{\beta} > 0,$$

$$(1.19) \quad \dot{a} > 0,$$

$$(1.20) \quad \ddot{a} > 0$$

and

$$(1.21) \quad \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\kappa^2\rho + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda - \tilde{\kappa}a^{-2} > 0.$$

In order that (β, a) also satisfies the first Friedmann equation \dot{a}_0 has to be chosen appropriately, namely, such that the first Friedmann equation is valid for $t = t_0$, which is possible, in view of (1.21).

Remark 1.2. Let us also mention that we use (modified) Planck units in this paper, i.e.,

$$(1.22) \quad c = \kappa^2 = \hbar = K_B = 1,$$

where κ^2 is the coupling constant connecting the Einstein tensor with the stress-energy tensor

$$(1.23) \quad G_{\alpha\beta} + \Lambda\bar{g}_{\alpha\beta} = \kappa^2T_{\alpha\beta}.$$

2. THE DARK ENERGY DENSITY

In [12, Remark 6.5.5] we proposed to use the eigenvalue of the density operator $\hat{\rho}$ with respect to the vacuum vector η , which is Z^{-1} ,

$$(2.1) \quad \hat{\rho}\eta = Z^{-1}\eta,$$

as the source of dark energy density, and though this eigenvalue is the vacuum, or zero-point, energy and many authors have proposed the vacuum energy to be responsible for the dark energy, these proposals all assumed the cosmological constant to be positive, while we assume $\Lambda < 0$ because of the spectral resolution of the wave equation, otherwise the temporal Hamiltonian does not have a pure point spectrum. However, if $\Lambda < 0$ then we have to assure that Z^{-1} dominates Λ which will only be the case if

$$(2.2) \quad T < T_0 = T_0(|\Lambda|).$$

Note that Z depends on the eigenvalues λ_i and on

$$(2.3) \quad \beta = T^{-1}.$$

First, we emphasize that we shall treat

$$(2.4) \quad \rho_{\text{de}} = Z^{-1}$$

as a constant, i.e., we shall define the perfect fluid stress-energy tensor by

$$(2.5) \quad T_{\alpha\beta} = -\rho_{\text{de}}\bar{g}_{\alpha\beta}.$$

Let $\lambda_i > 0$, $i \in \mathbb{N}$, be the eigenvalues of the temporal Hamiltonian H_0 for a given $\Lambda < 0$ and let $\bar{\lambda}_i$ be the eigenvalues for

$$(2.6) \quad \Lambda = -1,$$

then

$$(2.7) \quad \lambda_i = \bar{\lambda}_i |\Lambda|^{\frac{n-1}{n}},$$

cf. [12, Lemma 6.4.9, p. 172], and define the parameter τ by

$$(2.8) \quad \tau = |\Lambda|^{\frac{n-1}{n}},$$

where we now assume

$$(2.9) \quad |\Lambda| < 1,$$

throughout the rest of the paper. We proved in [12, Theorem 6.5.6, p. 180] that

$$(2.10) \quad \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} Z = \infty,$$

or equivalently, that

$$(2.11) \quad \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \rho_{\text{de}} = 0.$$

However, we shall now derive a more precise estimate of $\rho_{\text{de}} = Z^{-1}$ involving β and Λ .

Lemma 2.1. *For any Λ satisfying $-1 < \Lambda < 0$, there exists exactly one $T_0 > 0$ such that*

$$(2.12) \quad Z^{-1}(\beta) > |\Lambda| \quad \forall \beta > \beta_0 = T_0^{-1},$$

where we recall that

$$(2.13) \quad \beta = T^{-1}.$$

Proof. In view of (2.7) we deduce that

$$(2.14) \quad Z(\beta) \equiv Z(\beta, \lambda_i) = \bar{Z}(\gamma, \bar{\lambda}_i) \equiv \bar{Z}(\gamma),$$

where

$$(2.15) \quad \gamma = \beta |\Lambda|^{\frac{n-1}{n}}.$$

From the relations

$$(2.16) \quad 0 < E = -\frac{\partial \log Z}{\partial \beta} = \frac{\partial \log Z^{-1}}{\partial \beta},$$

cf. [12, equations (6.5.30) and (6.5.32), p. 176],

$$(2.17) \quad \lim_{\beta \rightarrow \infty} Z(\beta) = 1,$$

and

$$(2.18) \quad \lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} Z(\beta) = \infty,$$

cf. [12, Theorem 6.5.8, p. 181], we then conclude that there exists exactly one γ_0 such that

$$(2.19) \quad \bar{Z}^{-1}(\gamma_0) = |\Lambda|$$

and, furthermore, that

$$(2.20) \quad \bar{Z}^{-1}(\gamma) > \bar{Z}^{-1}(\gamma_0) \quad \forall \gamma > \gamma_0,$$

completing the proof of the lemma. \square

Thus, defining the dark energy density by (2.4) and (2.5), we immediately deduce:

Theorem 2.2. *Let T_0 be the temperature defined in Lemma 2.1 and assume that the temperature T satisfies $T < T_0$, then the dark energy density guarantees that the Friedmann universe with negative cosmological constant Λ ,*

$$(2.21) \quad -1 < \Lambda < 0,$$

is expanding such that

$$(2.22) \quad \dot{a} > 0$$

as well as

$$(2.23) \quad \ddot{a} > 0.$$

Proof. The Friedmann equations for a perfect fluid with energy ρ and pressure p are

$$(2.24) \quad \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\kappa^2\rho + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda - \tilde{\kappa}a^{-2}$$

and

$$(2.25) \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}\{(n-2)\rho + np\} + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda.$$

Choosing $\rho = \rho_{\text{de}}$ we also specified

$$(2.26) \quad p = -\rho_{\text{de}}$$

yielding

$$(2.27) \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = \frac{2\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}\rho_{\text{de}} + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda.$$

Moreover, in our units,

$$(2.28) \quad \kappa^2 = 1$$

and we also only consider space forms satisfying

$$(2.29) \quad \tilde{\kappa} \leq 0,$$

hence the theorem is proved in view of Lemma 2.1. \square

3. THE INFLATIONARY PERIOD

Immediately after the big bang the development of the universe will have to be governed by quantum gravitational forces, i.e., by the eigenfunctions resp. eigendistributions of the corresponding temporal and spatial Hamiltonians, which we have combined to a single Hamiltonian H acting in an abstract separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H} spanned by the eigenvectors u_i

$$(3.1) \quad Hu_i = \lambda_i u_i,$$

where the eigenvalues all have multiplicity 1, are ordered

$$(3.2) \quad 0 < \lambda_0 < \lambda_1 < \dots$$

and converge to infinity

$$(3.3) \quad \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_i = \infty.$$

The dominant energies near the big bang will therefore be the eigenvalues

$$(3.4) \quad \lambda_i = \langle Hu_i, u_i \rangle$$

for large i and we shall assume, when considering the development of a Friedmann universe, that this development is driven by a perfect fluid

$$(3.5) \quad T_{\alpha\beta} = -\rho_i \bar{g}_{\alpha\beta},$$

where

$$(3.6) \quad \rho_i = \lambda_i.$$

Looking at the Friedmann equations

$$(3.7) \quad \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{2\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}\rho_i + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda - \tilde{\kappa}a^{-2}$$

and

$$(3.8) \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = \frac{2\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}\rho_i + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda$$

we conclude that the universe is expanding rapidly depending on the eigenvalue $\rho_i = \lambda_i$. The corresponding eigenvector, or particle, u_i will decay after some time and produce lower order eigenvectors or maybe particles that can be looked at as matter or radiation satisfying the corresponding equations of state.

After some time the inflationary period will have ended and only the stable ground state u_0 ,

$$(3.9) \quad Hu_0 = \lambda_0 u_0,$$

together with conventional matter and radiation will be responsible for the further development of the Friedmann universe.

The eigenvalue λ_0 is of the order $|\Lambda|^{\frac{n-1}{n}}$ in view of (2.7) on page 5, hence it will dominate Λ for small values of $|\Lambda|$.

4. THE DARK MATTER

Let $\hat{\rho}$ be the density operator acting in the Fock space \mathcal{F} ,

$$(4.1) \quad \hat{\rho} = Z^{-1}e^{-\beta H},$$

where we use the same symbol H to denote the self-adjoint operator H in the separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H} as well its canonical extension to the corresponding symmetric Fock space $\mathcal{F}_+(\mathcal{H}) \equiv \mathcal{F}$. In Section 2 we defined the dark energy density ρ_{de} by

$$(4.2) \quad \rho_{\text{de}} = \langle \hat{\rho}\eta, \eta \rangle = Z^{-1}$$

and we propose to define the dark matter density by

$$(4.3) \quad \rho_{\text{dm}} = \alpha_0 \langle \hat{\rho}u_0, u_0 \rangle = \alpha_0 e^{-\beta\lambda_0} Z^{-1},$$

where u_0 is a unit eigenvector of H satisfying

$$(4.4) \quad Hu_0 = \lambda_0 u_0$$

and

$$(4.5) \quad \alpha_0 > 1$$

an otherwise arbitrary constant. Its presence should guarantee that there exists $\beta_0 > 0$ such that

$$(4.6) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial\beta}(\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}}) < 0 \quad \forall \beta \geq \beta_0,$$

as we shall now prove:

Lemma 4.1. *Let α_0 satisfy (4.5) and Λ*

$$(4.7) \quad -1 < \Lambda \leq \Lambda_0 < 0,$$

then there exists $\beta_0 = \beta_0(\alpha_0, |\Lambda_0|)$ such that the inequality (4.6) is valid.

Proof. In view (2.16) on page 6 we have

$$(4.8) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta}(\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}}) = -\alpha_0 \lambda_0 e^{-\beta \lambda_0} Z^{-1} + \alpha_0 e^{-\beta \lambda_0} Z^{-1} E + Z^{-1} E,$$

where

$$(4.9) \quad E = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_i}{e^{\beta \lambda_i} - 1} = \frac{\lambda_0}{e^{\beta \lambda_0} - 1} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_i}{e^{\beta \lambda_i} - 1},$$

cf. [12, equ. (6.5.32), p. 176] or simply differentiate. Hence, we obtain

$$(4.10) \quad \begin{aligned} E e^{\beta \lambda_0} &= \frac{\lambda_0 e^{\beta \lambda_0}}{e^{\beta \lambda_0} - 1} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_i}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \lambda_0)} - e^{-\beta \lambda_0}} \\ &\leq \frac{\lambda_0 e^{\beta \lambda_0}}{e^{\beta \lambda_0} - 1} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_i}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \lambda_0)} - 1} \end{aligned}$$

and we conclude

$$(4.11) \quad \lim_{\beta \rightarrow \infty} E e^{\beta \lambda_0} = \lambda_0,$$

since

$$(4.12) \quad \begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_i}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \lambda_0)} - 1} &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_i - \lambda_0}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \lambda_0)} - 1} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \lambda_0)} - 1} \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu_i}{e^{\beta \mu_i} - 1} + \lambda_0 (\lambda_1 - \lambda_0)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu_i}{e^{\beta \mu_i} - 1}, \end{aligned}$$

where μ_i is defined by

$$(4.13) \quad \mu_i = \lambda_i - \lambda_0 \geq \lambda_1 - \lambda_0 > 0 \quad \forall i \geq 1.$$

Thus the right-hand side of (4.12) is estimated from above by

$$(4.14) \quad (1 + \lambda_0 (\lambda_1 - \lambda_0)^{-1}) E(\beta, \mu_i)$$

and

$$(4.15) \quad \lim_{\beta \rightarrow \infty} E(\beta, \mu_i) = 0,$$

cf. [12, equ. (6.5.71), p. 181]. Furthermore, we know

$$(4.16) \quad \lambda_0 = \bar{\lambda}_0 |\Lambda|^{\frac{n-1}{n}},$$

cf. (2.7). Combining these estimates we conclude that there exists

$$(4.17) \quad \beta_0 = \beta_0(\alpha_0, |\Lambda_0|)$$

such that

$$(4.18) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta}(\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}}) \leq -\frac{\alpha_0 - 1}{2} \lambda_0 e^{-\beta \lambda_0} Z^{-1} \quad \forall \beta \geq \beta_0.$$

The limits in (4.11) and (4.15) are also uniform in $|\Lambda|$ because of (4.7). \square

Dark matter is supposed to be dust, i.e., its pressure vanishes, and hence, ρ_{dm} cannot be constant which is tantamount to

$$(4.19) \quad \beta \neq \text{const},$$

since we assume that Λ is constant. Thus, ρ_{de} is also not constant, though we still assume that its stress-energy tensor is defined by

$$(4.20) \quad T_{\alpha\beta} = -\rho_{\text{de}} \bar{g}_{\alpha\beta}.$$

Therefore, we can only establish the continuity equation for

$$(4.21) \quad \rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}}$$

and not for each density separately. Let a dot or a prime indicate differentiation with respect to time t , then the continuity equation has the form

$$(4.22) \quad (\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}})' = -n \rho_{\text{dm}} a^{-1} \dot{a},$$

because

$$(4.23) \quad p_{\text{dm}} = 0$$

and

$$(4.24) \quad p_{\text{de}} = -\rho_{\text{de}}.$$

The left-hand side of (4.22) is equal to

$$(4.25) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta}(\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}}) \dot{\beta}$$

and we see that the continuity equation can only be satisfied if

$$(4.26) \quad \dot{\beta} = -n \frac{\rho_{\text{dm}}}{\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta}(\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}})} a^{-1} \dot{a}.$$

From Lemma 4.1 we immediately derive

Lemma 4.2. *Let the assumptions of Lemma 4.1 be satisfied and suppose that $\dot{a} > 0$, then, for any solution $\beta = \beta(t)$ of (4.26) in the interval*

$$(4.27) \quad I = [t_0, b), \quad t_0 < b \leq \infty,$$

with initial value

$$(4.28) \quad \beta(t_0) \geq \beta_0$$

the inequality

$$(4.29) \quad \dot{\beta} > 0$$

is valid and hence

$$(4.30) \quad \beta(t) \geq \beta_0 \quad \forall t \in I.$$

Furthermore, $\dot{\beta}$ can be expressed in the form

$$(4.31) \quad \dot{\beta} = n\delta(\alpha_0 - 1)^{-1}\alpha_0 a^{-1}\dot{a},$$

where $\delta = \delta(t, \beta_0)$ satisfies

$$(4.32) \quad 1 \leq \delta \leq 2$$

and

$$(4.33) \quad \lim_{\beta_0 \rightarrow \infty} \delta = 1,$$

i.e.,

$$(4.34) \quad \beta(t) - \beta(t_0) \approx n\delta\alpha_0(\alpha_0 - 1)^{-1}(\log a(t) - \log a(t_0)).$$

Proof. „(4.29)“ Follows from (4.6) and (4.26).

„(4.31)“ To prove the claim we combine (4.8), (4.26) and (4.11).

„(4.32)“ and „(4.33)“ Same argument as before.

„(4.34)“ Obvious in view of (4.31) and (4.33). \square

Now, we are prepared to solve the Friedmann equations (2.24) and (2.25) on page 7 for

$$(4.35) \quad \rho = \rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}} + \rho_3,$$

where ρ_3 is a conventional density satisfying the equation of state

$$(4.36) \quad p_3 = \omega_3 \rho_3$$

assuming

$$(4.37) \quad \omega_3 > -1.$$

ρ_3 is only added for good measure and we are allowed to assume

$$(4.38) \quad \rho_3 = 0,$$

since its presence is not essential.

We also emphasize that we have to solve an additional third equation, namely, equation (4.26). We shall solve the Friedmann equations and (4.26) in the interval

$$(4.39) \quad I = [t_0, \infty), \quad t_0 > 0,$$

for the unknown functions (a, β) with prescribed positive initial values $(a_0, \dot{a}_0, \beta_0)$. β_0 can be arbitrary but large enough such that the assumptions in Lemma 4.1 and Lemma 4.2 are satisfied. If ρ_3 vanishes then $a_0 > 0$ can be arbitrary, otherwise it has to be large enough. The last initial value $\dot{a}_0 > 0$ cannot be arbitrary, instead it has to be chosen such that the first Friedmann equation is initially valid at $t = t_0$.

If these assumptions are satisfied then we shall solve the equations (2.25) on page 7 and (4.26). The first Friedmann equation will then be valid automatically. For simplicity we shall only consider the case

$$(4.40) \quad \rho_3 > 0$$

to avoid case distinctions. Then we deduce, from the continuity equation,

$$(4.41) \quad \rho_3 = \gamma_3 a^{-n(1+\omega_3)},$$

where $\gamma_3 > 0$ is a given constant.

Let us now prove:

Theorem 4.3. *Let the cosmological constant Λ ,*

$$(4.42) \quad -1 < \Lambda < 0,$$

be given and consider the perfect fluid defined by the density

$$(4.43) \quad \rho = \rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}} + \rho_3$$

satisfying the assumptions (4.23), (4.24), (4.36) and (4.37). Moreover, we suppose that $\beta = T^{-1}$ and the scale factor a are functions depending on t . The initial value problems

$$(4.44) \quad \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}\{(n-2)\rho + np\} + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda$$

and

$$(4.45) \quad \dot{\beta} = -n \frac{\rho_{\text{dm}}}{\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta}(\rho_{\text{dm}} + \rho_{\text{de}})} a^{-1} \dot{a}.$$

with initial values $(\beta_0, a_0, \dot{a}_0)$ are then solvable in $I = [t_0, \infty)$ provided $\beta_0 > 0$ is so large that (2.12) on page 6 as well as

$$(4.46) \quad \frac{2\kappa^2}{n(n-1)} Z^{-1} \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{2}(n-2)\alpha_0 e^{-\beta\lambda_0} \right\} + \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \Lambda > 0$$

are valid at $\beta = \beta_0$ and $a_0 > 0$ has to be chosen such that after adding

$$(4.47) \quad -\frac{\kappa^2}{n(n-1)}(n(1+\omega_3) - 2)\gamma_3 a_0^{-n(1+\omega_3)}$$

to the left hand side of (4.46) the inequality still remains valid at $\beta = \beta_0$. The initial value \dot{a}_0 is supposed to be positive. The solutions (β, a) then satisfy

$$(4.48) \quad \dot{\beta} > 0,$$

$$(4.49) \quad \dot{a} > 0,$$

$$(4.50) \quad \ddot{a} > 0$$

and

$$(4.51) \quad \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\kappa^2\rho + \frac{2}{n(n-1)}\Lambda - \tilde{\kappa}a^{-2} > 0.$$

In order that (β, a) also satisfy the first Friedmann equation \dot{a}_0 has to be chosen appropriately, namely, such that the first Friedmann equation is valid for $t = t_0$, which is possible, in view of (4.51).

Proof. By introducing a new variable

$$(4.52) \quad \varphi = \dot{a}$$

we may consider a flow equation for (β, a, φ) , where $\dot{\varphi}$ replaces \ddot{a} and

$$(4.53) \quad \dot{a} = \varphi$$

is an additional equation.

Choosing then β_0, a_0 as above and $\varphi_0 > 0$ arbitrary the flow has a solution on an maximal time interval

$$(4.54) \quad I = [t_0, t_1), \quad t_1 > t_0,$$

because of Lemma 4.1 and Lemma 4.2. It is also obvious that the relations (4.48)–(4.51) are valid, in view of these lemmata.

Furthermore, if the interval I was bounded, then the flow would have a singularity at $t = t_1$ which is not possible, in view of the relation (4.34), hence we deduce

$$(4.55) \quad I = [t_0, \infty).$$

It remains to prove that the first Friedmann equation is satisfied if \dot{a}_0 is chosen appropriately, Define

$$(4.56) \quad \Phi = \dot{a}^2 - \left\{ \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \kappa^2 \rho + \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \Lambda \right\} a^2 + \tilde{\kappa},$$

then we obtain

$$(4.57) \quad \dot{\Phi} = 0,$$

in view of the continuity equations and (4.44), yielding

$$(4.58) \quad \Phi(t) = \Phi(t_0) = 0 \quad \forall t \in I.$$

□

5. THE MISSING ANTIMATTER

In [12, Theorem 4.3.1, p. 110] we proved that a temporal eigenfunction $w = w(t)$ defined in \mathbb{R}_+ can be naturally extended past the big bang singularity $\{t = 0\}$ by defining

$$(5.1) \quad w(-t) = -w(t), \quad \forall t > 0.$$

The extended function is then of class $C^{2,\alpha}$,

$$(5.2) \quad w \in C^{2,\alpha}(\mathbb{R}),$$

for some $0 < \alpha < 1$ and its restriction to $\{t < 0\}$ is also a solution of the variational eigenvalue problem. Hence we have two quantum spacetimes

$$(5.3) \quad Q_- = \mathbb{R}_- \times \mathcal{S}_0$$

and

$$(5.4) \quad Q_+ = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathcal{S}_0$$

and a $C^{2,\alpha}$ transition between them. If we assume that the common time function t is future directed in both quantum spacetimes, then the singularity in $\{t = 0\}$ would be a big crunch for Q_- and a big bang for Q_+ and similarly for the corresponding Friedmann universes N_{\mp} governed by the Einstein equations. No further singularities will be present, i.e., the spacetime N_- will have no beginning but will end in a big crunch and will be recreated with a big bang as the spacetime N_+ .

This scenario would be acceptable if it would describe a cyclical universe. However, there are no further cycles, there would only be one transition from a big crunch to a big bang. Therefore, the mathematical alternative, namely, that at the big bang two universes with opposite light cones will be created, is more convincing, especially, if the CPT theorem is taken into account which would require that the matter content in the universe with opposite time direction would be antimatter. This second scenario would explain what happened to the missing antimatter.

6. SPHERICALLY SYMMETRIC EIGENFUNCTIONS IN HYPERBOLIC SPACE

The spatial Hamiltonian H_1 is a linear elliptic operator

$$(6.1) \quad H_1 v = -(n-1)\Delta v - \frac{n}{2}Rv,$$

where the Laplacian is the Laplacian in \mathcal{S}_0 and R the corresponding scalar curvature. We are then looking for eigenfunctions or, more precisely, eigendistributions v ,

$$(6.2) \quad H_1 v = \lambda v,$$

such that, for each temporal eigenfunction (λ_i, w_i) there exists a matching spatial pair (λ_i, v_i) . The product

$$(6.3) \quad u_i = w_i v_i$$

would then be a solution of the wave equation (1.1) on page 2.

If \mathcal{S}_0 is the hyperbolic space \mathbb{H}^n , $n \geq 3$, we have

$$(6.4) \quad R = -n(n-1)$$

and, given any temporal eigenvalue λ_i , we would have to find functions v_i satisfying

$$(6.5) \quad -(n-1)\Delta v_i = (\lambda_i - \frac{n^2}{2}(n-1))v_i.$$

We are also looking for spherically symmetric eigenfunctions v_i . In hyperbolic space the radial eigenfunctions, known as spherical functions, are well-known: For each $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$ there exists exactly one radial eigenfunction φ_μ of the Laplacian satisfying

$$(6.6) \quad -\Delta \varphi_\mu = (\mu^2 + \rho^2)\varphi_\mu$$

and

$$(6.7) \quad \varphi_\mu(0) = 1,$$

where

$$(6.8) \quad \rho = \frac{n-1}{2},$$

see e.g., [1, Section 2] and the references therein. Here, we introduced geodesic polar coordinates (r, ξ) in \mathbb{H}^n and the φ_μ only depend on r . The φ_μ have the integral representation

$$(6.9) \quad \varphi_\mu(r) = c_n (\sinh r)^{2-n} \int_{-r}^r (\cosh r - \cosh t)^{\frac{n-3}{2}} e^{-i\mu t} dt,$$

cf. [2, equation (6), p. 4].

Since the φ_μ are distributions they are smooth in \mathbb{H}^n , cf. [14, Theorem 3.2, p. 125]. Furthermore, for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$ we can choose $\mu_i \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$(6.10) \quad (n-1)(\mu_i^2 + \rho^2) = \lambda_i - \frac{n^2}{2}(n-1).$$

Obviously, there are two solutions μ_i and $-\mu_i$, but the corresponding eigenfunctions are identical as can be easily checked.

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